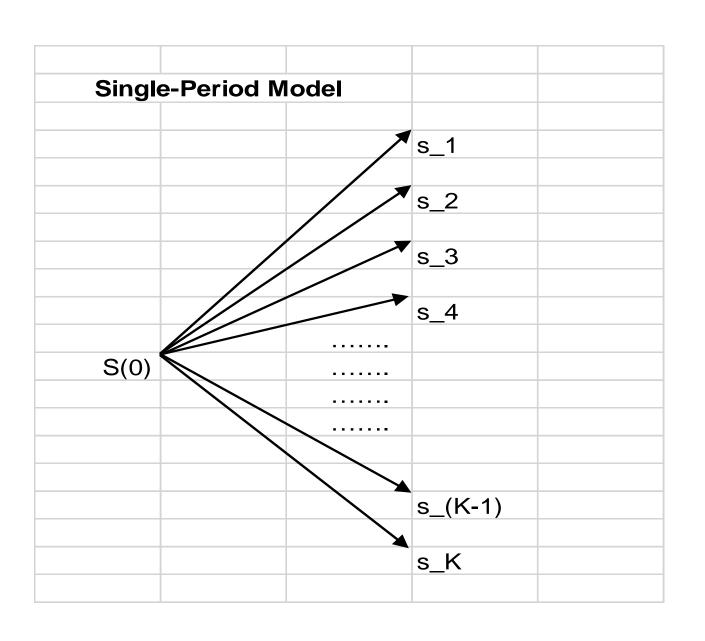
Pricing Options with Mathematical Models

10. Discrete-time models

Some of the content of these slides is based on material from the book *Introduction to the Economics and Mathematics of Financial Markets* by Jaksa Cvitanic and Fernando Zapatero.



$$P(S(T) = s_i) = p_i$$

• Risk-free asset, bank account:

$$B(0) = 1, B(1) = 1 + r$$

Initial wealth:

$$X(0) = x$$

- Number of shares in asset i: δ_i
- End-of-period wealth:

$$X(1) = \delta_0 B(1) + \delta_1 S_1(1) + \dots + \delta_N S_N(1)$$

Budget constraint, self-financing condition:

$$X(0) = \delta_0 B(0) + \delta_1 S_1(0) + \dots + \delta_N S_N(0)$$

Profit/loss, P&L, or the gains of a portfolio strategy:

$$G(1) = X(1) - X(0)$$

- Discounted version of process Y: $\overline{Y}(t) = Y(t)/B(t)$
- Change in price: $\Delta S_i(1) = S_i(1) S_i(0)$
- We have

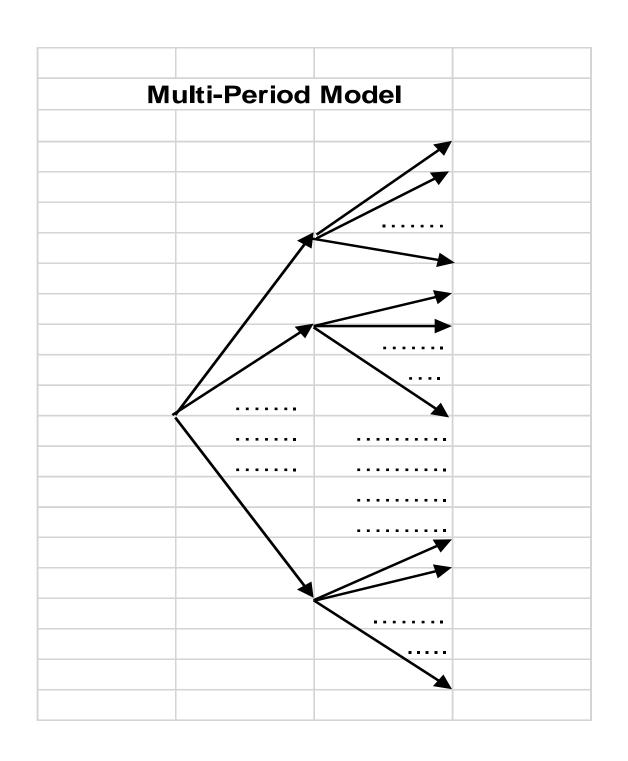
$$G(1) = \delta_0 r + \delta_1 \Delta S_1(1) + \dots + \delta_N \Delta S_N(1)$$

$$X(1) = X(0) + G(1)$$

Denoting

$$\Delta \bar{S}_i(1) = \bar{S}_i(1) - S_i(0), \qquad \overline{G}(1) = \delta_1 \Delta \bar{S}_1(1) + \dots + \delta_N \Delta \bar{S}_N(1)$$
 one can verify that

$$\overline{X}(1) = X(0) + \overline{G}(1)$$



• Risk-free asset, bank account:

$$B(0) = 1, B(t) = (1 + r(t))B(t - 1)$$

• Number of shares in asset i during the period [t-1,t): $\delta_i(t)$

Wealth process:

$$X(t) = \delta_0(t)B(t) + \delta_1(t)S_1(t) + \dots + \delta_N(t)S_N(t)$$

Self-financing condition:

$$X(t) = \delta_0(t+1)B(t) + \delta_1(t+1)S_1(t) + \dots + \delta_N(t+1)S_N(t)$$

• Change in price: $\Delta S_i(t) = S_i(t) - S_i(t-1)$

•
$$G(t) = \sum_{s=1}^{t} \delta_0(s) \Delta B(s) + \sum_{s=1}^{t} \delta_1(s) \Delta S_1(s) + \dots + \sum_{s=1}^{t} \delta_N(s) \Delta S_N(s)$$

• It can be checked that X(t) = X(0) + G(t)Denoting

$$\Delta \bar{S}_i(t) = \bar{S}_i(t) - \bar{S}_i(t-1),$$

$$\overline{G}(t) = \sum_{s=1}^{t} \delta_1(s) \Delta \overline{S}_1(s) + \dots + \sum_{s=1}^{t} \delta_N(s) \Delta \overline{S}_N(s)$$

one can verify that

$$\bar{X}(t) = X(0) + \bar{G}(t)$$

For example, with one risky asset and two periods:

- Change in price: $\Delta S_i(t) = S_i(t) S_i(t-1)$
- $G(2) = \delta_0(1)(B(1) B(0)) + \delta_0(2)(B(2) B(1))$ + $\delta_1(1)(S(1) - S(0)) + \delta_1(2)(S(2) - S(1))$
- Using self-financing

$$\delta_0(1)B(1) + \delta_1(1)S(1) = \delta_0(2)B(1) + \delta_1(2)S(1)$$

we get

•
$$G(2) = \delta_0(2)B(2) + \delta_1(2)S(2) - \delta_0(1)B(0) - \delta_1(1)S(0)$$

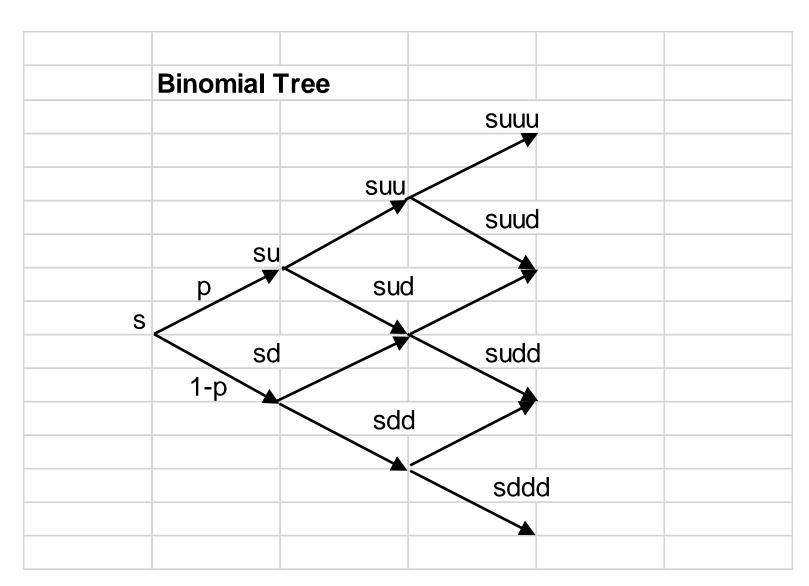
This is the same as

$$G(2) = X(2)-X(0)$$

Binomial Tree (Cox-Ross-Rubinstein) model

•
$$p = P(S(t+1) = uS(t))$$
 , $1-p = P(S(t+1) = dS(t))$

• u > 1+r > d



Pricing Options with Mathematical Models

11. Risk-neutral pricing

Some of the content of these slides is based on material from the book *Introduction to the Economics and Mathematics of Financial Markets* by Jaksa Cvitanic and Fernando Zapatero.

Martingale property

Insurance pricing:

$$C(t) = E_t[e^{-r(T-t)}C(T)]$$

where E_t is expectation given the information up to time t.

For a stock, this would mean:

$$e^{-rt}S(t) = E_t[e^{-rT}S(T)]$$

• If so, we say that $M(t) = e^{-rt}S(t)$ is a martingale process:

$$M(t) = E_t[M(T)]$$

Martingale probabilities (measures)

- Typically, the stock price process will not be a martingale under the actual (physical) probabilities, but it may be a martingale under some other probabilities.
- Those are called martingale, or risk-neutral, or pricing probabilities.
- Such probabilities are typically denoted Q, q_i , sometimes P^* , p_i^* .
- We write:

$$e^{-rt}S(t)=E_t^Q\left[e^{-rT}S(T)\right],$$
 or $e^{-rt}S(t)=E_t^*\left[e^{-rT}S(T)\right]$

Risk-neutral pricing formula

ullet Thus, we expect to have, for some risk-neutral probability Q

Price of claim today = expected value, under Q, of the claim's discounted future payoff or

$$C(t) = E_t^Q \left[e^{-r(T-t)}C(T) \right]$$

if C(T) is paid at T, and the continuously compounded risk-free rate r is constant.

- How to justify this formula?
- Which *Q*? Are there any? How many?

Example: A Single Period Binomial model

- r=0.005, S(0)=100, $s^u = 101$, $s^d = 99$, that is, u=1.01, d=0.99.
- The payoff is an European Call Option, with payoff

$$\max\{S(1) - 100, 0\}$$

• It will be \$1 if the stock goes up and \$0 if the stock goes down. Looking for the **replicating portfolio**, we solve

$$\delta_0(1 + 0.005) + \delta_1 101 = 1;$$

 $\delta_0(1 + 0.005) + \delta_1 99 = 0.$

We get

$$\delta_0 = -49.254, \, \delta_1 = 0.5$$

Example continued

- $\delta_0 = -49.254$, $\delta_1 = 0.5$
- This means borrow 49.254, and buy one share of the stock. This costs

$$C(0) = 0.5 \times 100 - 49.254 = 0.746$$

This is the no arbitrage price:

- 1) Suppose the price is higher, say 1.00. Sell the option for 1.00, invest 1-0.746 at the risk-free rate; use 0.746 to set up the replicating strategy; have 1 if stock goes up, and 0 if it goes down, exactly what you need. Arbitrage.
- 2) Suppose the price is lower, say 0.50. Buy the option for 0.50, sell short half a share for 50, invest 49.254 at the risk-free rate; This leaves you with extra 0.246 today. If stock goes up you make 1.00 from the option; together with 49.254×1.005, this covers 101/2 to close your short position. If stock goes down, use 49.254×1.005 to cover 99/2 when closing your short position. Arbitrage.

Martingale pricing

• Suppose the discounted wealth process \bar{X} is a martingale under Q, and suppose it replicates C(T), so that X(T)=C(T). By the martingale property,

$$\bar{X}(t) = E_t^Q \bar{X}(T) = E_t^Q \bar{C}(T)$$

For example, if discounting is continuous at a constant rate r, this gives

$$X(t) = E_t^Q [e^{-r(T-t)}C(T)]$$

This is the cost of replication at time t, therefore, for any such probability Q,

the price/value of the claim at time t is equal to the expectation, under Q, of the discounted future payoff of the claim.

Single Period Binomial model

The future wealth value is

$$X(1) = \delta_0(1+r) + \delta_1 S(1)$$

thus, when discounted,

$$\bar{X}(1) = \delta_0 + \delta_1 \bar{S}(1)$$

Therefore, if the discounted (non-dividend paying) stock is a martingale, so is the discounted wealth. For the stock to be a Q-martingale, we need to have

$$S(0) = E^{Q} \frac{S(1)}{1+r} = \frac{1}{1+r} (q \times s^{u} + (1-q) \times s^{d})$$

Solving for q, we get, with $s^u = S(0)u$, $s^d = S(0)d$,

$$q = \frac{(1+r)-d}{u-d}$$
, $1-q = \frac{u-(1+r)}{u-d}$

Example (the same as above)

$$s^u = 100 \times 1.01, s^d = 100 \times 0.99,$$

$$q = \frac{(1+r)-d}{u-d} = \frac{1.005-0.99}{1.01-0.99} = 0.75$$

Thus, the price of the call option is

$$C(0) = E^{Q} \frac{C(1)}{1+r} = \frac{1}{1+r} (q \times C^{u} + (1-q) \times C^{d})$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+0.005}(0.75\times(101-100)+(1-0.75)\times0)$$

=0.746 (the same as above)

Forwards

 Let D denote the process used for discounting, for example

$$D(t) = e^{-rt}$$

• .We want the forward price F(t) to be such that the value of the forward contract zero at the initial time t:

$$0 = E_t^Q [\{S(T) - F(t)\} \frac{D(T)}{D(t)}]$$

Since DS is a Q-martingale, we have $E_t^Q[D(T)S(T)] = D(t)S(t)$, and we get

$$F(t) = S(t) \frac{D(t)}{E_t^Q[D(T)]}$$

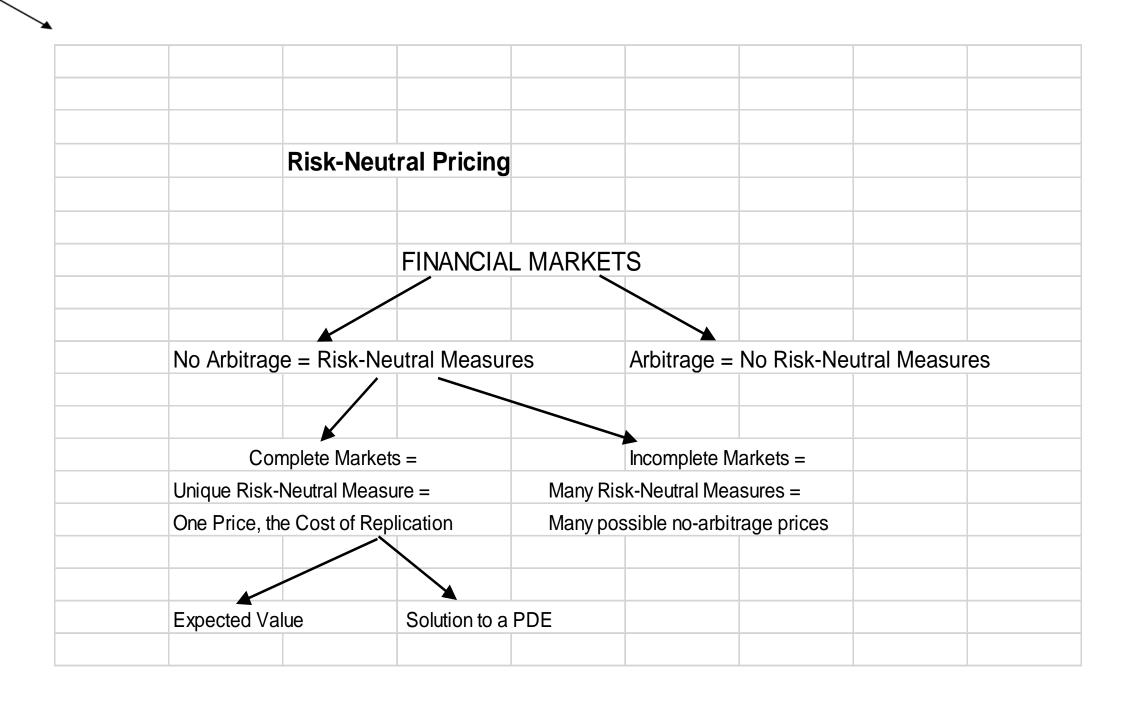
which, for the above D(t), is the same as

$$F(t) = S(t)e^{r(T-t)} = S(t)B(t,T)$$

Pricing Options with Mathematical Models

12. Fundamental theorems of asset pricing

Some of the content of these slides is based on material from the book *Introduction to the Economics and Mathematics of Financial Markets* by Jaksa Cvitanic and Fernando Zapatero.



Equivalent martingale measures (EMM's)

Recall

$$q = \frac{(1+r)-d}{u-d}$$
, $1-q = \frac{u-(1+r)}{u-d}$

Thus, q and 1-q are strictly between zero and one if and only if

$$d < 1 + r < u$$

Then, the events of non-zero P probability also have non-zero Q probability, and vice-versa. We say that P and Q are **equivalent probability measures**, and Q is called an **equivalent martingale measure** (EMM). Note also that Q is the only EMM.

First fundamental theorem of asset pricing

No arbitrage = existence of at least one EMM

Definition of arbitrage: there exists a strategy such that, for some T,

 $X(0) = 0, X(T) \ge 0$ with probability one, and

One direction: suppose there exists an EMM Q, and a strategy with X(T) as above. Then,

$$X(0) = E^Q \bar{X}(T) > 0$$
, so, no arbitrage.

Second fundamental theorem of asset pricing

 Definition of completeness: a market (model) is complete if every claim can be replicated by trading in the market.

Completeness and no arbitrage = existence of exactly one EMM

- In a complete market, every claim has a unique price, equal to the cost of replication, also equal to the expectation under the unique EMM.
- Even in an incomplete market, one assumes that there is one EMM Q (among many), that the market chooses to price all the claims.
- How to compute it?

Example: Binomial tree model is arbitrage free and complete if d < 1 + r < u

Pricing Options with Mathematical Models

13. Binomial tree pricing

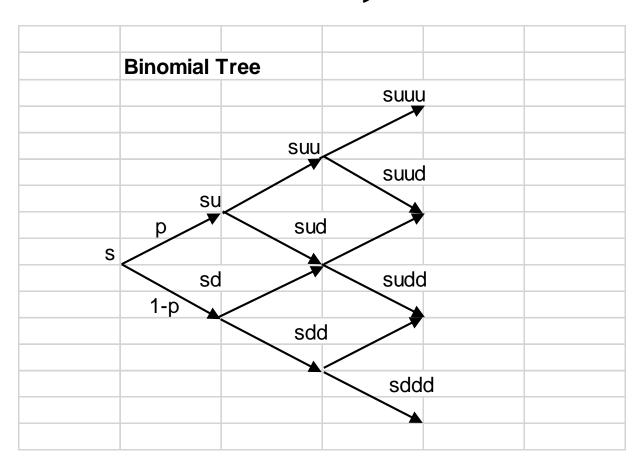
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Binomial Tree (Cox-Ross-Rubinstein) model

•
$$p = P(S(t+1) = uS(t))$$

•
$$1 - p = P(S(t+1) = dS(t))$$

• $u > e^{r\Delta t} > d$



Expectation formula

• CLAIM: Given a random variable X whose value will be known at time T, process $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{t}) = E_t[X]$ is a martingale. Indeed, for s < t,

$$E_s[M(t)] = E_s E_t [X] = E_s[X] = M(s)$$

where the middle equality is the so-called law of iterated expectations.

Since

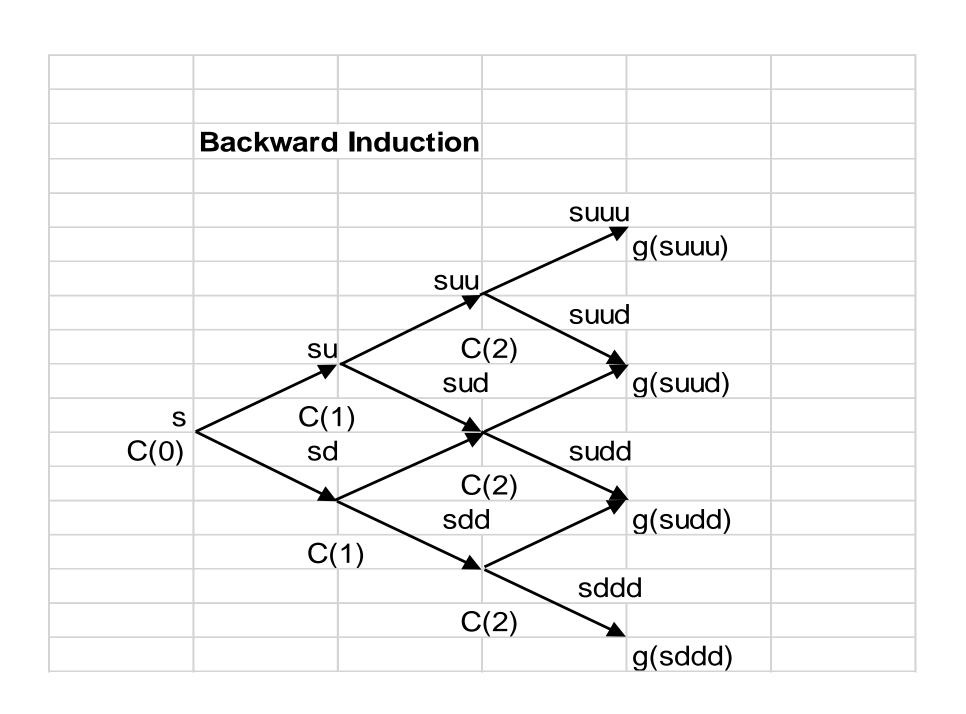
$$e^{-rt}C(t) = E_t^Q [e^{-rT}C(T)]$$

we conclude that $e^{-rt}C(t)$ is a Q-martingale. Therefore,

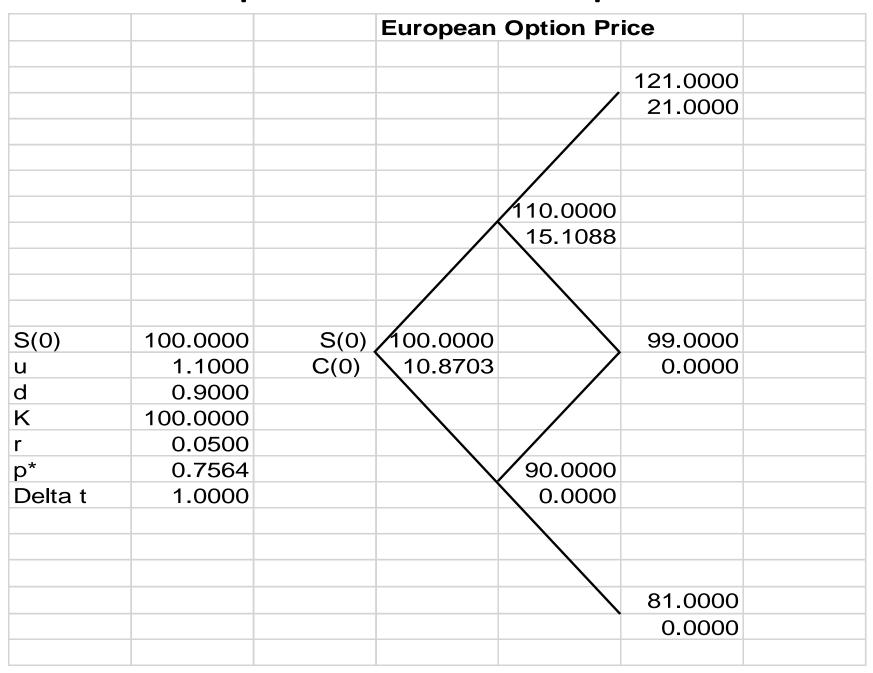
 $e^{-rt}C(t) = E_t^Q \left[e^{-r(t+\Delta t)}C(t+\Delta t) \right]$, and we get the **expectation** formula

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{C}(t) &= E_t^Q \left[\, e^{-r\Delta t} C(t + \Delta t) \right] \\ &= e^{-r\Delta t} [\mathbf{q} \times C^u(t + \Delta t) + (1 - q) \times C^d(t + \Delta t)] \end{split}$$

Pricing path-independent payoff g(S(T))



Example: a call option



$$q = \frac{e^{r\Delta t} - d}{u - d} = 0.7564$$

$$15.1088 = e^{-r\Delta t} [q \times 21 + (1 - q) \times 0]$$

$$10.87 = e^{-r\Delta t} [q \times 15.1088 + (1-q) \times 0]$$

American options

- Consider an American option that pays $g(\tau)$ dollars if exercised at time $\tau \leq T$.
- It can be shown that, in a complete market with discrete time and time intervals of length Δt , its no-arbitrage price A(t) is given by

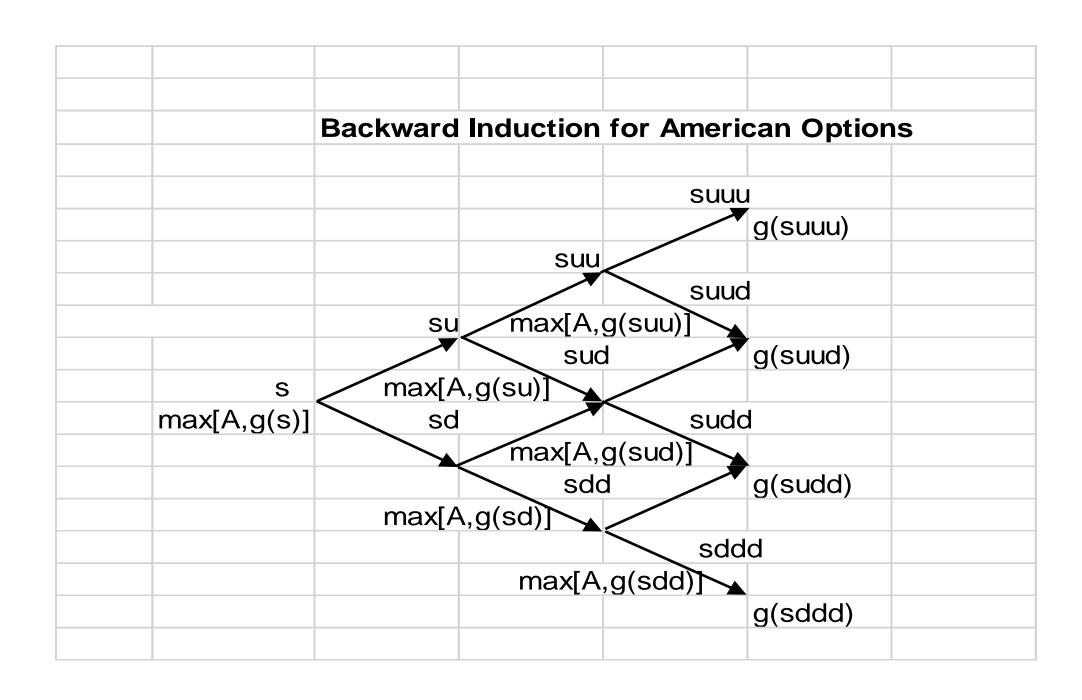
$$A(t) = \max_{t \le \tau \le T} E_t^Q [e^{-r(\tau - t)}g(\tau)]$$

 The expectation formula is given by the dynamic programming principle:

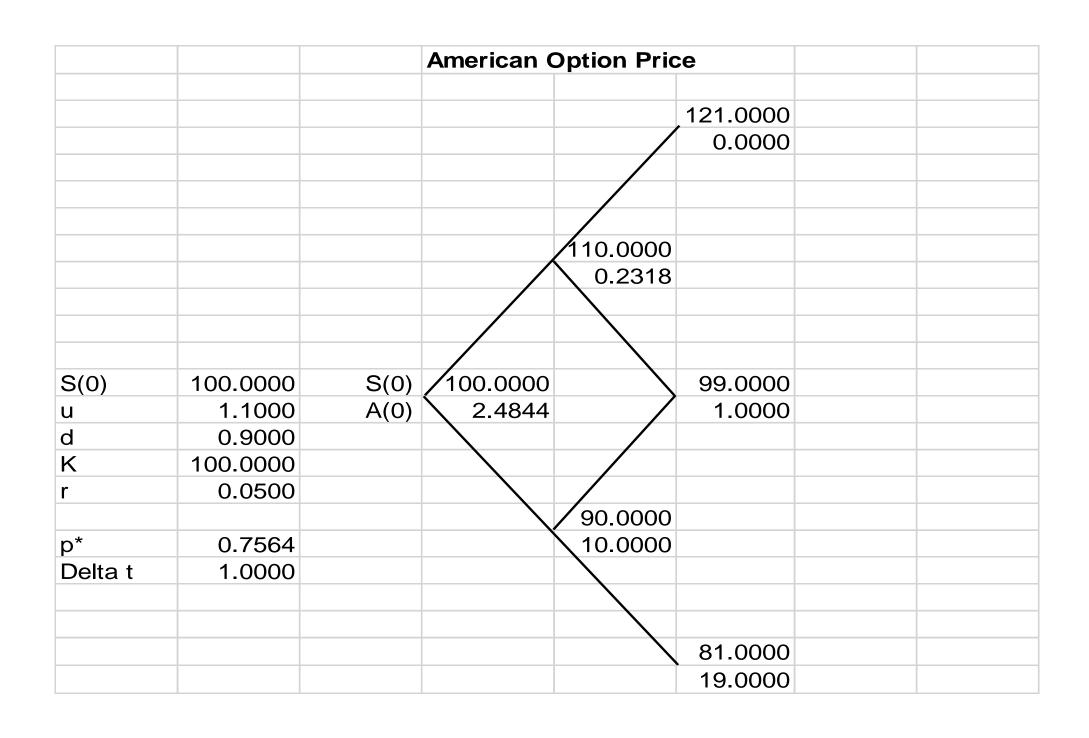
$$A(t) = \max \{g(t), E_t^Q[e^{-r\Delta t}g(t + \Delta t)]\}$$

or, in the binomial model,

$$A(t) = \max[g(t), e^{-r\Delta t} \{q \times A^u(t + \Delta t) + (1 - q) \times A^d(t + \Delta t)\}]$$



Example: a put option



$$q = \frac{e^{r\Delta t} - d}{u - d} = 0.7564$$

$$10 = \max\{10, e^{-r\Delta t} [q \times 1 + (1-q) \times 19]\}$$
$$= \max\{10, 5.1229\}$$

$$0.2318 = \max\{0, e^{-r\Delta t}[q \times 0 + (1-q) \times 1]\}$$

$$2.4844 = \max\{0, e^{-r\Delta t}[q \times 0.2318 + (1-q) \times 10]\}$$