## MATHEMATICAL FINANCE IN DISCRETE TIME

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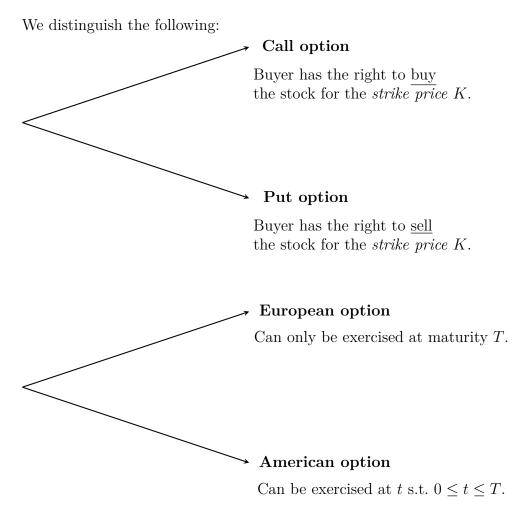
#### 1. Introduction and first example

We start by introducing the first important notions of option pricing and first examples.

1.1. Notions for option pricing theory. An option is a contract between two parties (a buyer and a seller). The buyer pays an option price today (i.e. at t = 0) to the seller and in return obtains the right/option but not the obligation to buy a stock for conditions that are fixed today at a fixed point in time (the maturity of the option). The option to buy is thereby crucial: the buyer can just refrain from buying the stock if te market conditions are disadvantageous.

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We only consider options whose  $underlyings\ (german:\ Basistitel)$  are stocks.



We call the above **standard** or **vanilla** options. Other options are called **exotic**. Such include *Asian options* (which operate on the mean–value of an asset), *barrier options*, *options on voatility* and so forth. For this course we assume that options have a price at any point in time  $0 \le t \le T$ . Advantages of options include

- The loss is limited: worst case is the loss of the option price,
- leverage effect (in a positive market development),
- can be used to *hedge* against decreasing stock prices via put options (can be sold for a fixed pre–determined price).

# 1.2. A first example. Let us consider a call option in a two-period market model. We set

- t = 0: the current time or today,
- T > 0: the maturity or exercise date of the option,

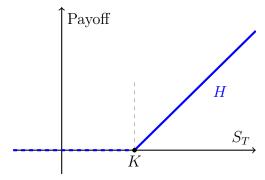
- $S_T$ : random price of the underlying stock at time T,
- $S_0$ : known price of the underlying stock at time t=0,
- K: the strike price.

**Remark.** No physical transaction of the stock at time T happens. Only the profit is paid out accordingly.

Clearly, the **payoff** for a call option at time T is

$$H = \max\{S_T - K, 0\} = (S_T - K)^+$$
.

H itself is a random variable since  $S_T$  is assumed to be random.



**Figure:** Visualisation of the payoff H dependent on the strike K.

Take  $S_0 = 100$  and assume the stock can attain two prices at T. Either it attains 150 in the case of  $\omega_1$  or it attains 90 in the case of  $\omega_2$ , i.e.  $S_T(\omega_1) = 150$  and  $S_T(\omega_2) = 90$  with probabilities p and 1 - p respectively. We let 130 be the strike K. The payoff is obviously 20 and 0 respectively. We assume that there is an additional, riskless investment opportunity with interest rate r = 0.

Question. What is the fair price  $\pi(H)$  of the above option at t=0?

**Idea:** No-arbitrage-principle. There is no arbitrage (i.e. no riskless profit) in the financial market.

The payoff H is replicated by other assets (in this case stocks and riskless investments).

The initial capital that is needed in order to replicate H corresponds to the price of the option. Otherwise, there is arbitrage.

We now want to find a **trading strategy**  $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  with

- $\alpha$ , the number of stocks that we buy at t=0,
- $\beta$ , the investment in the riskless asset (RA).

The value of the portfolio at t = 0 is  $V_0(\alpha, \beta) = \beta \cdot 1 + \alpha S_0$  (the RA is normalised) and the value of the portfolio at t = T is  $V_T(\alpha, \beta) = \beta \cdot 1 + \alpha S_T$  (recall r = 0). We want to hedge or replicate the payoff, i.e. choose  $(\alpha, \beta)$  such that  $V_T(\alpha, \beta) = H$ . This

means  $\beta + \alpha S_T(\omega) = H(\omega)$  for any  $\omega \in \{\omega_1, \omega_2\}$ . Hence, we get a system of linear equations.

$$\beta + 150\alpha = 20$$
$$\beta + 90\alpha = -0.$$

Solving this for  $\alpha, \beta$  yields  $\alpha = 1/3$  and  $\beta = -30$ . Hence

$$V_0(\alpha, \beta) = -30 + 100/3 = 10/3 = \pi(H).$$

The hedging strategy that we get is to borrow 30 today and buy 1/3 stocks. The overall investment is 10/3. Two scenarios can happen at t = T:

- (1)  $S_T = 150$ . Selling the stock yields  $1/3 \cdot 150 = 50$ . We repay our debt of 30 and yield 20 as profit.
- (2)  $S_T = 90$ . Selling the stock yields  $1/3 \cdot 90 = 30$ . We repay the debt and nothing happens.

As we see, we hedged H perfectly. Now assume that we <u>sell</u> the call option at a price of 10/3 and invest. Then, the following can happen.

- (1)  $S_T = 150$ . The buyer will exercise the call, he or she will buy the stock for 130 from us,
- (2) we have to buy the stock for 150, we lose 20,
- (3) but we obtain 20 as by hedging in (1).
- (1)  $S_T = 90$ . Goes analogously.

Using the no–arbitrage–principle, the fair price of the option is  $\pi(H) = 10/3$ . For any other price, a riskless profit would be possible. Assume  $\pi(H) > 10/3$ . Then we get the following table:

Action at $t = 0$	Payoff at $t = T$
Sell $\pi(H)$	$-(S_T-K)^+$
Borrow 30 RA	-30
Buy $S_0/3$	$S_T/3$
Profit: $\pi(H) + 30 - S_0/3 = \pi(H) - 10/3 > 0$	$\Sigma = 0$

Table 1. Unfair pricing shows the possibility of riskless profit.

Assume now  $\pi(H) < 10/3$ . The table goes analogous to the above.

**Remark.** Notice that the fair price  $\pi(H)$  in this example is **independent** of the subjective probability p! In more sophisticated models, we will also adapt to this.

- 1.3. Market assumptions. In this section, we used a perfect market model.
  - The markets are frictionless, i.e. there are no taxes on profits and no transaction costs for reallocating portfolios,
  - short–selling is allowed at all times and arbitrary shares can be bought and sold,
  - interest rates for borrowing and lending are to same as well as investments in RA.
  - there are no dividend payments,
  - all market participants are rational and maximise their utility.

In a perfect market there is no arbitrage. Supply and demand offset each other perfectly and there are unique prices.

#### 2. Financial markets and the finite state space

Our goal here is to introduce general financial markets. Finite means that there is a finite number of market states and a finite number of trading times  $\{0, \ldots, T\}$ . We describe trading strategies, arbitrage strategies and options formally.

- 2.1. **Definition of the financial market.** We take  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, (\mathcal{F}_t)_t, \mathbb{P})$  to be a filtered probability space. I.e.
  - $\Omega$  is a finite state space of elementary events,
  - $\mathcal{F}$  is the power set of  $\Omega$  and acts as the  $\sigma$ -algebra,
  - $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$  is a filtration,
  - $\mathbb{P}: \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$  is a probability measure.

**Remark.** We remark that for a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  and an <u>ordered</u> index set I, a family of  $\mathcal{F}$ -sub- $\sigma$ -algebras  $(\mathcal{F}_i)_{i\in I}$  is a filtration if and only if for any  $t, s \in I$ :  $t \leq s \implies \mathcal{F}_t \subseteq \mathcal{F}_s$ . Since our index sets I are always finite with maximal element T, we make the additional presumption that  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_T$ .

A financial market consists of d+1 investment opportunities: one riskless asset with a deterministic price process  $(B_t) = (B_0, \ldots, B_T)$ , i.e. imagine a savings account such that  $B_0 = 1$  and  $B_{t+1} \ge B_t$  for  $t = 1, \ldots, T$ .  $B_t$  is the value at the time t of 1 such unit that has been invested at t = 0, e.g.  $B_t = (1 + r)^t$  for interest rate  $r \ge 0$ .

A **risky asset** with stochastic processes  $(S_t^k) = (S_0^k, \dots, S_T^k)$  and  $S_t^k(\omega) > 0$  for  $k = 1, \dots, d$  and  $t = 0, \dots, T$  and all  $\omega \in \Omega$ . We define for  $t = 0, 1, \dots, T$  as

$$S_t \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (S_t^1, \dots, S_t^d).$$

For example, imagine these to be stock prices –  $S_t^k$  is the price of stock k at time t. The processes  $(S_t^k)$  are assumed to be adapted (k = 1, ..., d) to the filtration given, i.e.  $(\mathcal{F}_t)$ . Hence

$$\mathcal{F}_t^S \subset \mathcal{F}_t$$
, where  $\mathcal{F}_t^S = \sigma(S_0, \dots, S_t)$ 

is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $(S_t)$  up to t.

**Remark** (Repetition).  $\mathcal{F}_t^X \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sigma(\{X_s \mid s \leq t\})$  for all  $t \in I$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the stochastic process X itself.

We can invest in the assets above and trade them, for this we define a trading strategy.

## Definition 2.1: Trading Strategy

A trading strategy (a portfolio) is a  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ -valued,  $(\mathcal{F}_t)$ -adapted stochastic process  $\varphi = (\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_{T-1})$ , i.e.  $\varphi_t$  is  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -measurable and  $\varphi_t = (\alpha_t, \beta_t)$  for  $t = 0, \dots, T-1$ .

## Remark. In practice:

- $\beta_t$  is the quantity of the riskless asset that is held in time period [t, t+1) and
- $\alpha_t = (\alpha_t^1, \dots, \alpha_t^d)$  where  $\alpha_t^k$  is the quantity of the risky asset k that is held in [t, t+1),
- we denote  $\beta = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{T-1})$  and  $\alpha = (\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_{T-1})$ .

**Remark** (Repetition). A real-valued stochastic process is a mapping  $X : I \times \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $X(t,\cdot) : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  is measurable for every  $t \in I$ , i.e. a sequence of real-valued random variables. For  $\omega \in \Omega$  fixed,  $t \mapsto X_t(\omega)$  is a called a path of X.

Adapted trading strategy. If a trading strategy  $\varphi$  is adapted, it means that  $\beta_t = \beta_t(S_0, \ldots, S_t)$  and  $\alpha_t^k = \alpha_t^k(S_0, \ldots, S_t)$  are functions of the prices  $S_0, \ldots, S_t$ . Investors thus observe prices up to time t and choose – based on this information – a new composition of  $\varphi_t$  of the portfolio at time t which is then held until t+1.

The information about the price processes is included in the filtration  $(\mathcal{F}_t^S) \subset (\mathcal{F}_t)$ . We call the value of a trading strategy also a *wealth process*.

#### Definition 2.2: Wealth process

The value of a trading strategy  $\varphi$  at times  $t = 0, \dots, T - 1$  is given by

$$V_t^{\varphi} = \beta_t B_t + \alpha_t \cdot S_t = \beta_t B_t + \sum_{k=1}^d \alpha_t^k S_t^k.$$

Moreover, we let  $V_T^{\varphi} = \beta_{T-1}B_T + \alpha_{T-1}S_T$ .

**Remark.**  $\beta_t B_t + \alpha_t \cdot S_t$  is the value of the trading strategy immediately after it has been recomposed. Change in the market values due to price changes are then

$$\beta_{t-1}(B_t - B_{t-1}) + \alpha_{t-1} \cdot (S_t - S_{t-1}).$$

## Definition 2.3: Self-financing

A trading strategy is called self-financing if for t = 1, ..., T - 1

$$\beta_{t-1}B_t + \alpha_{t-1} \cdot S_t = \beta_t B_t + \alpha_t \cdot S_t.$$

**Remark** (Explanation). When the investor observes the new prices  $B_t$ ,  $S_t$ , she adjusts the trading strategy from  $\varphi_{t-1}$  to  $\varphi_t$  without adding or assuming additional wealth. Thus, (1) must hold.

We show: For a self-financing trading strategy  $\varphi = (\alpha, \beta)$ , this is equivalent to knowing  $(V_0^{\varphi}, \alpha)$  and hence  $\beta$  can be determined from (1).

Denote the set of trading strategies of risky assets as

$$\mathcal{A} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ \alpha = (\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_{T-1}) : \alpha_t \text{ is } \mathcal{F}_t\text{-measurable for } t = 0, \dots, T-1 \}$$

Hence if the initial wealth  $V_0^{\varphi}$  is known, every  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$  can be complemented in a self-financing way.

**Remark** (Notation).  $\Delta X_t = X_t - X_{t-1}, \ \Delta \alpha_t = (\Delta \alpha_t^1, \dots, \Delta \alpha_t^d).$ 

#### Lemma 2.1

Let  $\varphi$  be self-financing. Then we have

$$\beta_t = \beta_0 - \sum_{k=1}^t \Delta \alpha_n \frac{S_n}{B_n} = V_0^{\varphi} - \sum_{k=0}^t \Delta \alpha_n \frac{S_n}{B_n},$$

for t = 0, ..., T - 1 where  $\Delta \alpha_0^k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \alpha_0^k$  for k = 1, ..., d.

*Proof.* Let t=0, then  $V_0^{\varphi}=\beta_0 B_0+\alpha_0\cdot S_0=\beta_0+\alpha_0\cdot S_0$  by normalising  $B_0=1$ . Hence

$$\beta_0 = V_0^{\varphi} - \alpha_0 \frac{S_0}{B_0} = V_0^{\varphi} - \Delta \alpha_0 \frac{S_0}{B_0}.$$

Let  $t \in \{1, ..., T-1\}$ , then, since  $(\alpha, \beta)$  is self-financing, we get

$$\beta_t B_t + \alpha_t \cdot S_t = \beta_{t-1} B_t + \alpha_{t-1} \cdot S_t \iff (\beta_t - \beta_{t-1}) B_t = -(\alpha_t - \alpha_{t-1}) \cdot S_t$$

and hence  $\Delta \beta_t = -\Delta \alpha_t \frac{S_t}{R_t}$ . This implies

$$\beta_t = \beta_0 + \sum_{n=1}^t \Delta \beta_n = \beta_0 - \sum_{n=1}^t \Delta \alpha_n \frac{S_n}{B_n} = V_0^{\varphi} - \Delta \alpha_0 \frac{S_0}{B_0} - \sum_{n=1}^t \Delta \alpha_n \frac{S_n}{B_n}.$$

# Definition 2.4: Discounted stock price

 $\tilde{S}_t^k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{S_t^k}{B_t}$  is the discounted stock price of risky asset k at t.

#### Lemma 2.2

Let  $\varphi$  be self-financing. Then we have

$$\frac{V_t^{\varphi}}{B_t} = V_0^{\varphi} + \sum_{n=1}^t \alpha_{n-1} \Delta \tilde{S}_n.$$

*Proof.* As  $\varphi$  is self-financing, we have

$$\frac{V_n^{\varphi}}{B_n} - \frac{V_{n-1}^{\varphi}}{B_{n-1}} = \frac{1}{B_n} \left( \beta_n B_n + \alpha_n \cdot S_n \right) - \frac{1}{B_{n-1}} \left( \beta_{n-1} B_{n-1} + \alpha_{n-1} \cdot S_{n-1} \right) 
\stackrel{\text{SF}}{=} \frac{1}{B_n} \left( \beta_{n-1} B_n + \alpha_{n-1} S_n \right) - \frac{1}{B_{n-1}} \left( \beta_{n-1} B_{n-1} + \alpha_{n-1} \cdot S_{n-1} \right) 
= \underbrace{\beta_{n-1} - \beta_{n-1}}_{=0} + \alpha_{n-1} \left( \frac{S_n}{B_n} - \frac{S_{n-1}}{B_{n-1}} \right) 
= \alpha_{n-1} \Delta \tilde{S}_n.$$

We have that with  $B_0 = 1$ :

$$\frac{V_t^{\varphi}}{B_t} = \frac{V_0^{\varphi}}{B_0} + \sum_{n=1}^t \left(\frac{V_n^{\varphi}}{B_n} - \frac{V_{n-1}^{\varphi}}{B_{n-1}}\right) = V_0^{\varphi} + \sum_{n=1}^t \alpha_{n-1} \Delta \tilde{S}_n.$$

## Definition 2.5: Gains Process

For a trading strategy  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ , the process  $(G_t^{\alpha})$ , defined by

$$G_0^{\alpha} = 0$$
 and  $G_t^{\alpha} = \sum_{n=1}^t \alpha_{n-1} \cdot \Delta \tilde{S}_n$ ,  $t = 1, \dots, T$ 

is called the gains process.

No-arbitrage-principle.

# Definition 2.6: Arbitrage Strategy

Let  $\varphi$  be self-financing.  $\varphi$  is called arbitrage strategy if

$$V_0^{\varphi} = 0$$
,  $\mathbb{P}(V_T^{\varphi} \ge 0) = 1$  and  $\mathbb{P}(V_T^{\varphi} > 0) > 0$ .

**Remark.** We say that there is an arbitrage opportunity if such an arbitrage strategy exists. (NA) means that there is no arbitrage opportunity.

Recall that  $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) > 0$  for any  $\omega \in \Omega$  by definition of our financial market. Thus

$$\mathbb{P}(V_T^{\varphi} \ge 0) = 1 \iff V_T^{\varphi}(\omega) \ge 0 \quad \textit{for any} \quad \omega \in \Omega.$$

Moreover,

$$\mathbb{P}(V_T^{\varphi} > 0) > 0 \iff \exists \omega \in \Omega : V_T^{\varphi}(\omega) > 0.$$

We know from before that

$$\frac{V_T^{\varphi}}{B_T} = V_0^{\varphi} + G_T^{\alpha}, \quad \varphi = (\alpha, \beta)$$

where  $\varphi$  is self-financing. Now, an arbitrage strategy exists if and only if there exists a trading strategy  $\varphi$  with  $V_0^{\varphi} = 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(G_T^{\alpha} \ge 0) = 1$  and  $\mathbb{P}(G_T^{\alpha} > 0) > 0$ .

In words, the next theorem tells us that a financial market is globally free of arbitrage if and only if it is locally free of arbitrage.

## Theorem 2.1

The following are equivalent.

- There exists an arbitrage strategy.
- There exists a  $t \in \{1, ..., T\}$  and a  $\mathcal{F}_{t-1}$ -measurable random vector  $\eta: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t \tilde{S}_{t-1}) \ge 0) = 1$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t \tilde{S}_{t-1}) > 0) > 0$ . Here,  $\eta$  depends on t.

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi = (\alpha, \beta)$  be an arbitrage strategy with wealth process  $(V_t^{\varphi})$  and let

$$t = \min \left\{ m \in \mathbb{N} \mid \mathbb{P}(V_m^\varphi \geq 0) = 1 \text{ and } \mathbb{P}(V_m^\varphi > 0) > 0 \right\}.$$

Then  $t \leq T$  and either (a)  $\mathbb{P}(V_{t+1}^{\varphi} = 0) = 1$  or (b)  $\mathbb{P}(V_{t-1}^{\varphi} < 0) > 0$ . In case of (a), we have

$$\alpha_{t-1} \cdot (\tilde{S}_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) = \frac{V_T^{\varphi}}{B_t} - \frac{V_{t-1}^{\varphi}}{B_{t-1}} = \frac{V_t^{\varphi}}{B_t} \ge 0.$$

Using  $\eta = \alpha_{t-1}$  we obtain  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) > 0) > 0$  for some development of  $S_t$  and moreover  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_n - \tilde{S}_{n-1}) \geq 0) = 1$ . In case (b) we get by

$$\eta = \alpha_{t-1} \mathbb{1}_{\left\{V_{t-1}^{\varphi} < 0\right\}}$$

that

$$\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) = \left(\frac{V_t^{\varphi}}{B_t} - \frac{V_{t-1}^{\varphi}}{B_{t-1}}\right) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\left\{V_{t-1}^{\varphi} < 0\right\}} \ge \frac{V_t^{\varphi}}{B_t} \mathbb{1}_{\left\{V_{t-1}^{\varphi} < 0\right\}}$$

and hence  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) \ge 0) = 1$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) > 0) > 0$ . Now the backward direction. Define a trading strategy  $\varphi = (\alpha, \beta)$  by

$$\alpha_m = \begin{cases} \eta, & m = t - 1 \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

 $\alpha$  can be completed to a self-financing trading strategy with  $V_0^{\varphi} = 0$ . By the previous lemmas,

$$\frac{V_T^{\varphi}}{B_T} = V_0^{\varphi} + \sum_{n=1}^t \alpha_{n-1} \Delta \tilde{S}_n = \eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_n - \tilde{S}_{n-1}).$$

Moreover, using the assertion we get  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) \ge 0) = 1 = \mathbb{P}(V_T^{\varphi}/B_T \ge 0)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\eta \cdot (\tilde{S}_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) > 0) = \mathbb{P}(V_T^{\varphi}/B_T > 0) > 0$ .

**Example 2.2.** We assume a financial market with T = 2 periods and a RA with  $B_0 = B_1 = B_2 = 1$ . We assume the following price behaviour.

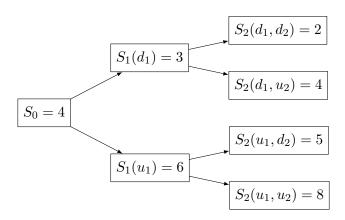


Figure 1. Price behaviour in our 2-period market.

We let  $\Omega = \{u_1, d_1\} \times \{u_2, d_2\}$ . We now want to check whether our whole financial market is free of arbitrage by using the previous theorem. We start with t = 1 and obtain

$$\eta\left(\tilde{S}_n(y_1) - S_0\right) = \begin{cases} \eta(6-4) = 2\eta, & y_1 = u_1\\ \eta(3-4) = -\eta, & y_1 = d_1. \end{cases}$$

As the cases have different signs, we cannot choose any common  $\eta \neq 0$  such that  $\eta(\tilde{S}_1(y_1) - S_0) \geq 0$  for all  $y_1$  and hence (NA) holds in period t = 1. For t = 2, need to check two cases. Indeed,

$$\eta(u_1)\left(\tilde{S}_2(u_1,y_2) - \tilde{S}_1(u_1)\right) = \begin{cases} \eta(u_1)(8-6) = 2\eta(u_1), & y_2 = u_2\\ \eta(u_1)(5-6) = -\eta(u_1), & y_2 = d_2. \end{cases}$$

By the same logic as before, with differing signs, we have (NA). Moreover,

$$\eta(d_1)\left(\tilde{S}_1(d_1, y_2) - \tilde{S}_1(d_1)\right) = \begin{cases} \eta(d_1)(4-3) = \eta(d_1), & y_2 = u_2\\ \eta(d_1)(2-3) = -\eta(d_1), & y_2 = d_2 \end{cases}$$

yields differing signs again. Now we have checked all branches of the decision tree and get that (NA) holds for the whole financial market by Theorem 2.1.

2.2. **Options.** Options are characterised by the payoff. For *european options*, the payoff happens at exercise date T.

## Definition 2.7: Contingent Claim

A contingent claim is an  $\mathcal{F}_T$ -measurable random variable H with values in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Remark.** If  $H \in \mathcal{F}_T^S$ , then  $H = h(S_0, \dots, S_T)$ .

**Example 2.3** (Examples of Contingent Claims). *European call options* with strike price K:

$$H = (S_T - K)^+$$

is only exercised when  $S_T > K$ . **European put options** with strike K:

$$H = (K - S_T)^+$$

is only exercised when  $S_T < K$ . A **Future** is delivered with certainty, thus

$$H = S_T - K$$
.

Here, K is a fixed reference price and T the delivery date. A **digital call option** with strike K:

$$H = \mathbb{1}_{\{S_T > K\}}$$

yields payoff of 1 unit if  $S_T > K$ . A **down-and-out-call** with strike K and barrier B:

$$H = (S_T - K)^+ \mathbb{1}_{\{\min_{t \in \{0,\dots,T\}} S_t > B\}}$$

depends on the whole path of S. These are cheaper than classical options. **Asian** call options are characterised by

$$H = \left(S_T - \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T S_t\right)^+$$

is only exercised when the stock price is greater than the arithmetic mean. Also these are obviously path-dependent.

## Definition 2.8: Attainability and completeness

- (a) A contingent claim H is attainable if there is a trading strategy  $\varphi$  with  $V_T^{\varphi} = H$ . Then  $\pi(H) = V_0^{\varphi}$  is called a price of H and  $\varphi$  is called duplication/replication/hedging strategy of H.
- (b) We say a market is complete if any contingent claim is attainable.

With this definition we get the following lemma.

## Lemma 2.3: Price of attainable claims

Suppose absence of arbitrage (NA). Then, the price  $\pi(H)$  for an attainable contingent claim H is unique and thus independent of the choice of hedging strategy.

*Proof.* Let H be an attainable contingent claim. Let  $\varphi = (\alpha, \beta)$  and  $\tilde{\varphi} = (\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta})$  be hedging strategies for H. By Lemma 2.1,  $\varphi, \tilde{\varphi}$  can be expressed via  $(V_0^{\varphi}, \alpha), (V_0^{\tilde{\varphi}}, \tilde{\alpha})$  and by lemma 2.2,

$$V_0^{\varphi} + G_T^{\alpha} = \frac{H}{B_T} = V_0^{\tilde{\varphi}} + G_T^{\tilde{\alpha}}$$

and  $H=V_T^{\varphi}=V_T^{\tilde{\varphi}}$  as  $\varphi$  and  $\tilde{\varphi}$  are hedging strategies. Assume  $d=V_0^{\tilde{\varphi}}-V_0^{\varphi}>0$ . Then

$$\begin{split} 0 &= V_0^{\varphi} - V_0^{\tilde{\varphi}} - G_T^{\tilde{\alpha}} + G_T^{\alpha} \\ &= -d - G_T^{\tilde{\alpha}} + G_T^{\alpha} \\ &= -d + \sum_{n=1}^T \left(\alpha_{n-1} - \tilde{\alpha}_{n-1}\right) \cdot \Delta \tilde{S}_n \\ &= -d + G_T^{\alpha - \tilde{\alpha}} \implies G_T^{\alpha - \tilde{\alpha}} = d > 0. \end{split}$$

Now,  $\psi$  is an arbitrage strategy, where  $\psi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$  where  $\hat{\alpha} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \alpha - \tilde{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  is determined by Lemma 2.1 with  $V_0^{\varphi} = 0$ . This is a contradiction to (NA).

**Example 2.4.** We use the tree-based model from the last example. Recall the structure: Consider the digital call with  $H = \mathbb{1}_{\{S_2 \geq 5\}}$ . This will only pay 1 if  $S_2 \geq 5$ . We

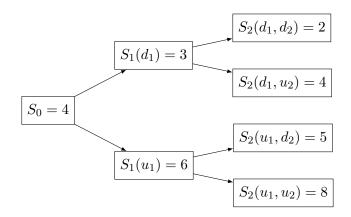


Figure 2. Price behaviour in our 2-period market.

get

$$H(u_1, u_2) = H(u_1, d_2) = 1$$
  
 $H(d_1, u_2) = H(d_1, d_2) = 0.$ 

How can we construct a hedging strategy here? We must find  $\varphi$  with  $V_T^{\varphi} = H$ . For t = 2 and the upper node, we get

$$H(u_1, u_2) = 1 = 8\alpha_1(u_1) + \beta_1(u_1) = V_2^{\varphi}(u_1, u_2)$$
  

$$H(u_1, d_2) = 1 = 5\alpha_1(u_1) + \beta_1(u_1) = V_2^{\varphi}(u_1, d_2).$$

Solving yields alpha<sub>1</sub>(u<sub>1</sub>) = 0 and  $\beta_1(u_1) = 1$ . Hence  $V_1^{\varphi} = 6\alpha_1(u_1) + \beta_1(u_1) = 1$  by the self-financing property. For the lower node, observe

$$H(d_1, u_2) = 0 = 4\alpha_1(d_1) + \beta_1(d_1) = V_2^{\varphi}(d_1, u_2)$$
  

$$H(d_1, d_2) = 0 = 2\alpha_1(d_1) + \beta_1(d_1) = V_2^{\varphi}(d_1, d_2).$$

Solving yields  $\alpha_1(d_1) = 0$  and  $\beta_1(d_1) = 0$  and hence  $V_1^{\varphi} = 3\alpha_1(d_1) + \beta_1(d_1) = 0$  by self-financing.

We can now look at t = 1. We have

$$V_1^{\varphi}(u_1) = 1 = 6\alpha_0 + \beta_0$$
  
$$V_1^{\varphi}(d_1) = 0 = 3\alpha_0 + \beta_0,$$

which yields  $\alpha_0 = 1/3$  and  $\beta_0 = -1$  and hence

$$\pi(H) = V_0^{\varphi} = S_0 \alpha_0 + \beta_0 B_0 = 4\alpha_0 + \beta_0 = \frac{4}{3} - 1 = \frac{1}{3}.$$

**Remark.** All considerations in this section are without accounting for transaction costs.

#### 3. The Cox-Ross-Rubinstein model

This is a simple model in discrete time. We assume 1 riskless asset and 1 risky asset.

3.1. One-period CRR model. We assume T=1 and  $\Omega=\{u,d\}$  and  $\mathcal{F}_T=\mathcal{F}=2^{\Omega}$ . For the riskless asset, we set  $B_0=1$  and  $B_1=1+r,\ r\geq 0$ . For the risky asset, we assume a random variable  $S_0>0$  and

$$S_1(\omega) = \begin{cases} uS_0, & \omega = u \\ dS_0, & \omega = d \end{cases}$$

for functions 0 < d < u. We then call u up-factor and d the down-factor. The case u = d is not interesting since it reduces to a deterministic case.

The basic question we want to ask is: When is this model free of arbitrage?

## Theorem 3.1

Consider the one-period CRR model. Then, the market is free of arbitrage if and only if d < 1 + r < u.

Proof. Let's assume d < 1 + r < u or equivalently  $\frac{dS_0}{1+r} - S_0 < 0 < \frac{uS_0}{1+r} - S_0$ . Hence,  $S_1(d)/(1+r) - S_0 < 0 < S_1(u)/(1+r) - S_0$ . Now,  $\tilde{S} = S/B$  with  $B_1 = 1 + r$ . We get  $\tilde{S}_1(d) - S_0 < 0 < \tilde{S}_1(u) - S_0$  and by noting  $\tilde{S}_0 = S_0$  and applying Theorem 2.1, we get that there exists an  $\omega$  and some  $\eta \neq 0$  such that  $\eta(\tilde{S}_n(\omega) - \tilde{S}_0) < 0$ , which implies that there is no arbitrage.

What can we say about completeness?

#### Theorem 3.2

Suppose there is no arbitrage. Then the CRR model is complete. In particular,

$$\alpha_0 = \frac{H(u) - H(d)}{(u - d)S_0}, \quad \beta_0 = \frac{uH(d) - dH(u)}{(u - d)(1 + r)}.$$

Then,  $\pi(H) = \frac{uH(d) - dH(u)}{(u-d)(1+r)} + \frac{H(u) - H(d)}{u-d}$  is the unique price.

*Proof.* If  $\varphi$  is a hedging strategy, then at T=1, we have

$$V_1^{\varphi} = \beta_0 (1+r) + \alpha_0 S_1 = H.$$

Hence.

$$\beta_0(1+r) + \alpha_0 \underbrace{S_1(u)}_{uS_0} = H(u)$$
$$\beta_0(1+r) + \alpha_0 \underbrace{S_1(d)}_{dS_0} = H(d).$$

Some calculating yields  $\alpha_0 = \frac{H(u) - H(d)}{(u - d)S_0}$  and  $\beta_0 = \frac{uH(d) - dH(u)}{(u - d)(1 + r)}$ . Obviously,  $\pi(H) = V_0^{\varphi} = \beta_0 B_0 + \alpha_0 S_0$ .

**Example 3.3.** Let u = 1.1 and d = 0.9 and r = 0.05. Due to Theorem 3.1, the market is free of arbitrage. Let  $S_0 = 100$  and H(u) = 80 and H(d) = 60. The price due to Theorem 3.2 is

$$\pi(H) = \frac{1.1 \cdot 60 - 0.9 \cdot 80}{(1.1 - 0.9)1.05} + \frac{80 - 60}{1.1 - 0.9} = 71.42.$$

The corresponding hedging strategy is

$$\alpha_0 = \frac{80 - 60}{0.2 \cdot 100} = 1$$

and

$$\beta_0 = -28.57.$$

**Remark** (Preparatory remark on Equivalent Martingale Measures (EMMs)). We can rearrange  $\pi(H)$  from before as

$$\pi(H) = \frac{H(u)}{1+r} \cdot \frac{1+r-d}{u-d} + \frac{H(d)}{1+r} \left( 1 - \frac{1+r-d}{u-d} \right) =: \star.$$

This can be seen from

$$\begin{split} \star &= \frac{H(u)}{1+r} \left( \frac{1+r}{u-d} - \frac{d}{u-d} \right) + \frac{H(d)}{1+r} \left( 1 - \frac{1+r}{u-d} + \frac{d}{u-d} \right) \\ &= \frac{H(u)}{u-d} - \frac{dH(u)}{(1+r)(u-d)} + \frac{H(d)}{1+r} - \frac{H(d)}{u-d} + \frac{dH(d)}{(1+r)(u-d)} \\ &= \frac{H(u) - H(d)}{u-d} + \frac{dH(d) - dH(u)}{(1+r)(u-d)} + \frac{H(d)}{1+r} \\ &= \frac{H(u) - H(d)}{u-d} + \frac{dH(d) - dH(u) + uH(d) - dH(d)}{(1+r)(u-d)} \\ &= \frac{H(u) - H(d)}{u-d} + \frac{uH(d) - dH(u)}{(1+r)(u-d)} = \pi(H). \end{split}$$

We fix  $q \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1+r-d}{u-d}$  and hence 0 < q < 1 as by (NA) we know that d < 1+r < u and thus

$$\pi(H) = \frac{H(u)}{1+r}q + \frac{H(d)}{1+r}(1-q).$$

Define the probability measure  $\mathbb{Q}$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_T)$  as

$$\mathbb{Q}(\{u\}) = q, \quad \mathbb{Q}(\{d\}) = 1 - q.$$

Hence,  $\pi(H) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left[\frac{H}{1+r}\right]$  where  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}$  is the expectation w.r.t.  $\mathbb{Q}$ . We obtain for the discounted price  $\tilde{S}_1 = \frac{S_1}{B_1}$  that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}} \tilde{S}_{1} = S_{0} \left( \frac{u}{1+r} q + \frac{d}{1+r} (1-q) \right)$$

$$= S_{0} \left( q \left[ \frac{u}{1+r} - \frac{d}{1+r} \right] + \frac{d}{1+r} \right)$$

$$= S_{0} \left( \frac{1+r-d}{u-d} \frac{u-d}{1+r} + \frac{d}{1+r} \right)$$

$$= S_{0} \left( \frac{1+r-d+d}{1+r} \right) = \tilde{S}_{0}.$$

Hence, discounted stock prices are martingales with respect to the risk-neutral measure. One can even show that the measure  $\mathbb{Q}$  is the only (i.e. unique) measure that satisfies the martingale property  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}} \tilde{S}_1 = \tilde{S}_0$ .

3.1.1. Digression: Conditional Expectation and Martingales.  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  is a probability space.

# **Definition 3.1: Conditional Expectation**

Let  $X \in L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  and  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{F}$ . Z is the conditional expectation of X on conditioned on  $\mathcal{G}$  if and only if

- Z is  $(\mathfrak{G}, \mathfrak{B})$ -measurable,
- $\int_A X d\mathbb{P} = \int_A Z d\mathbb{P}$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{G}$ .

The conditional expectation of X given  $B \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$  is

$$\mathbb{E}(X \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{E}(X \cdot \mathbb{1}_B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(B)} \int_B X \, d\mathbb{P}.$$

**Remark.** Recall that  $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$ ,  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ .

Let  $\Omega$  be finite and  $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) > 0$  for any  $\omega \in \Omega$ . A sub- $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{G}$  of  $\mathcal{F}$  can always be generated by a partition of  $\Omega$ . That means there exist subsets  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$  with

 $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for any  $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  and  $\bigcup_{1 \le i \le n} A_i = \Omega$  and hence

$$\mathfrak{G} = \sigma\left(\left\{A_1, \dots, A_n\right\}\right) = \left\{\bigcup_{i \in T} A_i : T \subset \left\{1, \dots, n\right\}\right\}.$$

## Theorem 3.4

Let  $\Omega$  be finite and  $\mathcal{G} = \sigma(\{A_1, \dots, A_n\})$  be a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ . The conditional expectation of X given  $\mathcal{G}$  is the random variable

$$\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathfrak{G})(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(X \mid A_i) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{A_i}(\omega), \quad \omega \in \Omega.$$

*Proof.* Let Z be defined as above. Then Z is constant on the respective sets  $A_i$  and hence  $Z \in (\mathfrak{G}, \mathfrak{B})$ . For all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ , we have

$$\int_{A_j} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X \mid A_i) \mathbb{1}_{A_i} d\mathbb{P} = \int_{A_j} \mathbb{E}(X \mid A_j) d\mathbb{P} = \int_{A_j} \frac{\mathbb{E}(X \cdot \mathbb{1}_{A_j})}{\mathbb{P}(A_j)} d\mathbb{P} = \mathbb{E}(X \mathbb{1}_{A_j}).$$

# Lemma 3.1: Some properties

Let  $X, Y \in L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . Then

- $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})) = \mathbb{E}(X)$ ,
- if  $X \in \mathcal{G}$ , then  $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) = X$ ,
- $\mathbb{E}(aX + bY \mid \mathcal{G}) = a \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) + b \mathbb{E}(Y \mid \mathcal{G})$  for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,
- $X \leq Y \implies \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathfrak{G}) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y \mid \mathfrak{G}),$
- conditional Jensen's inequality:  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  integrable and convex, then  $\mathbb{E}(f(X) \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq f(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})),$
- Tower property: if  $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X\mid \mathfrak{G})\mid \mathcal{H}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X\mid \mathcal{H})\mid \mathfrak{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X\mid \mathcal{H}),$$

 $\bullet$  measurable factorisation: for  $Y\in \mathcal{G}$  we have

$$\mathbb{E}(|YX|) < \infty \implies \mathbb{E}(YX \mid \mathcal{G}) = Y \, \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}),$$

•  $X \perp \mathcal{G}$  implies  $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X)$ .

A martingale is a stochastic process with special properties.

#### **Definition 3.2: Stochastic Process**

A sequence of random variables  $(X_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}_0}$  with  $X_t:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$  is called a stochastic process. A sequence  $(\mathcal{F}_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}_0}$  of sub- $\sigma$ -algebras with  $\mathcal{F}_t\subset\mathcal{F}$  is called a filtration if for all  $s\leq t:\mathcal{F}_s\subseteq\mathcal{F}_t$  for any  $s,t\in\mathbb{N}_0$ . A stochastic process is adapted w.r.t. the filtration if  $X_t$  is measurable w.r.t.  $\mathcal{F}_t$  for every  $t\in\mathbb{N}_0$ .

With this we can define what a martingale is.

#### Definition 3.3: Martingale

Let  $(X_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}_0}$  be an adapted stochastic process such that  $\mathbb{E}(|X_t|) < \infty$  for any  $t \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . The process is called martingale if and only if

(2) 
$$\mathbb{E}(X_t \mid \mathcal{F}_s) = X_s, \qquad s \le t.$$

**Remark** (Interpretation). The value of the process remains constant in expectation at all times. This can be used to model a fair game. A **submartingale** is a stochastic process for which the expectation increases:  $\mathbb{E}(X_t \mid \mathcal{F}_s) \geq X_s$  and a **supermartingale** has decreasing expectation:  $\mathbb{E}(X_t \mid \mathcal{F}_s) \leq X_s$  for any  $s \leq t \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

**Remark** (Equivalent characterisations). We see that for  $t \in \mathbb{N}_0$ 

- (2)  $\iff \mathbb{E}(X_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t) = X_t$ ,
- (2)  $\iff \mathbb{E}(X_{t+1} X_t \mid \mathcal{F}_t) = 0,$
- $X \in \mathcal{F} \implies X_t = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{F}_t)$  is  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -martingale.

**Example 3.5.** Let  $X_1, \ldots$  be independent and integrable with 0 mean. Define  $S_0 = 0$  and  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and let  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\})$  with  $\mathcal{F}_0 = \{\Omega, \emptyset\}$ . We check that

$$\mathbb{E}(S_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t) = \mathbb{E}(S_t + X_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(S_t \mid \mathcal{F}_t) + \mathbb{E}(X_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t)$$

$$= S_t + \mathbb{E}(X_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t)$$

$$= S_t + \mathbb{E}(X_{t+1}) = S_t$$

since  $X_{t+1} \perp \mathcal{F}_t$ .

#### Lemma 3.2

Let  $(X_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}_0}$  be an  $(\mathcal{F}_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}_0}$ -martingale and  $f:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$  convex with  $\mathbb{E}(|f(X)|)<\infty$  for any  $t\in\mathbb{N}_0$ . Then  $(f(X_t))_{t\in\mathbb{N}_0}$  is a submartingale.

Proof. 
$$\mathbb{E}(f(X_t) \mid \mathcal{F}_s) \geq f(\mathbb{E}(X_t \mid \mathcal{F}_s)) = f(X_s).$$

## Definition 3.4: Previsibility

A stochastic process is called *previsible* if  $X_t \in \mathcal{F}_{t-1}$  for any t > 1.

## Theorem 3.6: Doob decomposition

Let  $(X_t)$  be a  $(\mathcal{F}_t)$ -supermartingale. Then  $(X_t)$  can be written as

$$X_t = M_t + A_t, \quad t \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

where  $M_t$  is a  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -martingale,  $A_t$  is decreasing and  $A_0 = 0$ . Moreover,  $(A_t)$  is previsible and the decomposition is unique  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s.

Remark. Recall the gains process

$$G_t^{\alpha} = \sum_{n=1}^t \alpha_{n-1} \cdot \Delta \tilde{S}_n = \sum_{n=1}^t \alpha_{n-1} \cdot (\tilde{S}_n - \tilde{S}_{n-1})$$

for  $t \in \{1, ..., T\}$ . Consider a gambling game in discrete time. We play at time  $t \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\Delta Z_t = T_t - Z_{t-1}$  denotes the profit in time t. If  $(Z_t)$  is a martingale, the game is fair because

$$\mathbb{E}(\Delta Z_t \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = \mathbb{E}(Z_t - Z_{t-1} \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = 0.$$

If  $(Z_t)$  is a supermartingale, i.e.  $\mathbb{E}(\Delta Z_t \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) \leq 0$  means the game is disadvantageous and  $(Z_t)$  being a submartingale means that the game is advantageous.

**Question.** Can we obtain a positive expected profit? Let  $(c_t)$  be  $(\mathcal{F}_t)$ -adapted and let  $c_{t-1}$  represent the stake in the t-th game. The player chooses  $c_{t-1}$  using the information available up to time t-1. The profit of the t-th game is

$$c_{t-1}\Delta Z_t = c_{t-1}(Z_t - Z_{t-1})$$

and hence the total profit

$$G_t = \sum_{n=1}^{t} c_{n-1} \Delta Z_t, \quad G_0 = 0.$$

 $(G_t)$  is then called **martingale transformation** of  $(Z_t)$ .

## Theorem 3.7

Let  $(Z_t)$  and  $(c_t)$  be  $(\mathcal{F}_t)$ -adapted stochastic processes such that

$$G_t = \sum_{i=1}^n c_{n-1} \Delta Z_t, \quad G_0 = 0, t \in \mathbb{N}$$

is integrable. Let  $(Z_t)$  be a martingale. Then  $(G_t)$  is also a martingale.

*Proof.* By assumption,  $(G_t)$  is integrable.  $(G_t)$  is adapted since  $(Z_t)$  and  $(c_t)$  are adapted. The martingale property is verified by

$$\mathbb{E}(G_t - G_{t-1} \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = \mathbb{E}(c_{t-1}(Z_t - Z_{t-1}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = c_{t-1} \mathbb{E}(Z_t - Z_{t-1} \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = 0.$$

3.2. Multi-period CRR model. We are looking at a T-period CRR model with  $T \in \mathbb{N}$  and trading times  $t = 0, \dots, T-1$ . Let  $r \geq 0$  and let the riskless asset assume dynamics

$$B_{t+1} = (1+r)B_t = (1+r)^{t+1}, \quad B_0 = 1, t = 1, \dots, T-1.$$

The construction of the price process of the risky asset on the product space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is such that  $\Omega = \{d, u\}^T$  and  $\mathcal{F} = 2^{\Omega}$  with any  $\omega$  as

$$\omega = (y_1, \dots, y_T) \in \Omega \text{ with } y_t \in \{d, u\}, t = 1, \dots, T$$

Again,  $\mathbb{P}$  is a probability measure on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  such that  $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) > 0$  for all  $\omega \in \Omega$ . For the moment, no further specification of  $\mathbb{P}$  is needed. We now define  $Y_t$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  in the form of

$$Y_t(\omega) = Y_t(y_1, \dots, y_T) = y_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

The price process  $S = (S_t)$  is the T-period CRR model

$$S_t = S_0 \prod_{n=1}^t Y_n, \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

The information flow is modelled by the filtration

$$\mathcal{F}_0 = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}, \quad \mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(Y_1, \dots, Y_t) = \sigma(S_0, \dots, S_t) = \mathcal{F}_t^S, \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

TBD: Add graphics of tree model here.

**Remark.** Recombining trees are the only trees that are feasible in practice due to complexity. They are characterised by ud = du.

**Questions**. How about absence of arbitrage? The same conditions as in the 1-period CRR model must hold!

## Theorem 3.8

In the T-period CRR model, the market is free of arbitrage if and only if d < 1 + r < u.

*Proof.* We use once more Theorem 2.1. Let  $\eta$  be  $\mathcal{F}_{t-1}$ -measurable and observe

$$\eta\left(\frac{S_t}{B_t} - \frac{S_{t-1}}{B_{t-1}}\right) = \eta\left(\frac{Y_t S_{t-1}}{(1+r)B_{t-1}} - \frac{S_{t-1}}{B_{t-1}}\right).$$

Hence

$$\eta(S_t - \tilde{S}_{t-1}) \ge 0 \implies \eta\left(\frac{Y_t}{1+r} - 1\right) \ge 0.$$

 $\eta$  is  $\mathcal{F}_{t-1}$ -measurable and hence independent of  $Y_t$ . Moreover, u/(1+r)-1 and d/(1+r)-1 have different signs if and only if d<1+r< u.

- 4. Absence of arbitrage and equivalent martingale measures
  - 5. Completeness and equivalent martingale measures
    - 6. Risk-neutral pricing of contingent claims
      - 7. American options
      - 8. Portfolio optimization