

# Arbitrage&Pricing

Paris Dauphine University - Master I.E.F. (272)  
2025/26

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## Chapter 2

## Introduction Motivation

- A useful and very popular technique for pricing an option involves constructing a **binomial tree**.
  - ▶ This is a diagram representing different possible paths that might be followed by the stock price over the life of an option.
  - ▶ The underlying assumption is that the stock price follows a *random walk*.

## Chapter 2: Binomial tree with one period Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)
- 3 Binomial tree (Part 1)
- 4 Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)
- 5 Binomial tree (Part 2)
  - Simple portfolio strategies
- 6 Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)
- 7 Binomial tree (Part 3)
  - Evaluating and hedging derivative

## Chapter 2: Binomial tree with one period Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)
- 3 Binomial tree (Part 1)
- 4 Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)
- 5 Binomial tree (Part 2)
  - Simple portfolio strategies
- 6 Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)
- 7 Binomial tree (Part 3)
  - Evaluating and hedging derivative

- A useful and very popular technique for pricing an option involves constructing a binomial tree.
- Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  denotes a *probability space*. That is, a triple of:
  - ▶  $\Omega$  a *sample space* which is the universe of possible outcomes;
  - ▶  $\mathcal{F}$  a *set of events*, where an event is a subset of  $\Omega$ ;
  - ▶  $\mathbb{P}$  a *probability function* from  $\mathcal{F}$  to  $[0, 1]$ , which measures the likeliness that an event will occur.

- Observe that for the probability  $\mathbb{P}$  to be well-defined, the set of events  $\mathcal{F}$  has to satisfy some properties:
  - ▶  $\mathcal{F}$  is non-empty;
  - ▶  $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under complementation: If  $A$  is in  $\mathcal{F}$ , then so is its complement,  $\Omega \setminus A$ ; and
  - ▶  $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under countable unions: If  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  are in  $\mathcal{F}$ , then so is  $A = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots$ .
- We say that such  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra (or  $\sigma$ -field).
  - ▶ In general, we will take  $\mathcal{F}$  as the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the experiment.

### Example (Flipping a coin)

$$\Omega = \{H, T\}, \mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{H\}, \{T\}, \Omega\},$$

$$\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \longrightarrow [0, 1]$$

$$A \longmapsto \mathbb{P}[A] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } A = \Omega \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } A = \{H\} \text{ or } \{T\} \\ 0 & \text{if } A = \emptyset \end{cases}.$$

### Example (A)

We consider the experiment that consists in rolling a dice and then checking whether the number 6 is the outcome.

So,  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $\mathcal{F}_A = \{\emptyset, \{6\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, \Omega\}$ .

### Example (B)

We consider the experiment that consists in rolling a dice and then checking whether the outcome is even.

So,  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $\mathcal{F}_B = \{\emptyset, \{2, 4, 6\}, \{1, 3, 5\}, \Omega\}$ .

### Example (C)

We consider the experiment that consists in rolling a dice and then checking the outcome.

So,  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $\mathcal{F}_C = 2^\Omega$ , where  $2^\Omega$  denotes the *power set* of the sample space.

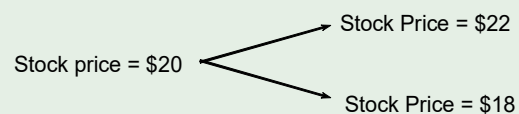
I.e.,  $\mathcal{F}_C$  has  $2^6 = 64$  elements. E.g., one of this element is  $\{2, 5\}$ , which consists in checking whether the outcome is 2 or 5.

## Binomial tree (Part 1)

- We consider a market with only two periods:  $t = 0$  and  $t = 1$ .
- There are two assets.
  - ▶ A riskless asset who values 1 at date  $t = 0$  and  $R = (1 + r)$  at date  $t = 1$ .  $r$  denotes the risk-free interest rate that we could obtain with a zero coupon.
  - ▶ A risky asset  $S$  who values  $S_0$  at date  $t = 0$  and can take two different values at date  $t = 1$ :  $S_1 \in \{S_1^u, S_1^d\}$  with  $S_1^u = uS_0$ ,  $S_1^d = dS_0$ , and  $d < u$ .

### Example (D)

A stock price is currently \$20 and in 3 months it will be either \$22 or \$18



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)
- 3 **Binomial tree (Part 1)**
- 4 Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)
- 5 Binomial tree (Part 2)
  - Simple portfolio strategies
- 6 Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)
- 7 Binomial tree (Part 3)
  - Evaluating and hedging derivative

## Binomial tree (Part 1)

- Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  denotes the probability space corresponding to this market situation. We have:
  - ▶  $\Omega = \{\omega_u, \omega_d\}$ ;
  - ▶  $\mathcal{F}_0 = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$ ;  $\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\emptyset, \{\omega_u\}, \{\omega_d\}, \Omega\}$ ; and
  - ▶  $\mathbb{P}$  such that  $\mathbb{P}(\omega_u) = p$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\omega_d) = 1 - p$ , with  $p \in (0, 1)$ .
- Observe that  $\mathcal{F}_0 \subset \mathcal{F}_1$ : we acquire information through time.

## Chapter 2: Binomial tree with one period

### Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)
- 3 Binomial tree (Part 1)
- 4 Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)
- 5 Binomial tree (Part 2)
  - Simple portfolio strategies
- 6 Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)
- 7 Binomial tree (Part 3)
  - Evaluating and hedging derivative

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)

### Example (A')

The window will be opened if and only if the maximal number of the dice is realized.

By associating the number 1 to the action of opening the window and zero otherwise, we have:

$$X_A = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega = \{6\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Observe that we can use  $\mathcal{F}_A$  (or  $\mathcal{F}_C$ ) but not  $\mathcal{F}_B$ .

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)

### Definition

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a *probability space*. A (real-valued) **random variable** is a (real) function  $X : \Omega \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) \leq x\} \in \mathcal{F}$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

- Said differently, a random variable is a function that assigns a numerical value to each state of the world,  $X : \Omega \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ , such that the values taken by  $X$  are known to someone who has access to the information  $\mathcal{F}$ .

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)

### Example (B')

You earn 100€ if the realization of the dice is even and you lose 50€ otherwise.

$$X_B = \begin{cases} +100 & \text{if } \omega \in \{2, 4, 6\} \\ -50 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Observe that we can use  $\mathcal{F}_B$  (or  $\mathcal{F}_C$ ) but not  $\mathcal{F}_A$ .

### Example (C')

You earn 15€ if the realization of the dice is 5 and zero otherwise.

$$X_C = \begin{cases} +15 & \text{if } \omega = \{5\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Observe that we can use  $\mathcal{F}_C$  but neither  $\mathcal{F}_A$  nor  $\mathcal{F}_B$ .

### Definition

Let  $\mathcal{F}$  denotes a  $\sigma$ -algebra associated with  $\Omega$ .

A (real) function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -**measurable** if, for any two numbers  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , all the states of the world  $\omega \in \Omega$  for which  $X$  takes value between  $a$  and  $b$  forms a set that is an event (an element of  $\mathcal{F}$ ).

Formally,  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b$ , we have  $\{\omega \in \Omega | a < X(\omega) < b\} \in \mathcal{F}$ .

- So, a random variable is  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable if and only if it is known with the information given by  $\mathcal{F}$ .
  - ▶ I.e., for any two numbers, we are able to answer the question on whether the realization of the random variable belongs to the interval formed by these two numbers.
  - ▶ Roughly speaking, we are able to say what actually happened.

- A more general definition is that a function  $X : G \rightarrow H$  is **measurable** if the preimage under  $X$  of every element in the  $\sigma$ -algebra associated with  $H$  is in the  $\sigma$ -algebra associated with  $G$ .
  - ▶ Formally, if  $\mathcal{G}$  (resp.  $\mathcal{H}$ ) is the  $\sigma$ -algebra associated to  $G$  (resp.  $H$ ), then  $X^{-1}(y) := \{g \in G | X(g) = y\} \in \mathcal{G}, \forall y \in \mathcal{H}$ .
  - ▶ The idea is that a measurable function pulls back measurable sets.
- The notion of measurability depends on the  $\sigma$ -algebras that are used.
  - ▶ In our definition, as the  $\sigma$ -algebra associated with  $\mathbb{R}$  we took the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on the reals, i.e., the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$  which contains all the intervals.

### Example (A")

$X_A$  is  $\mathcal{F}_A$ -measurable and  $\mathcal{F}_C$ -measurable but is not  $\mathcal{F}_B$ -measurable.

### Example (B")

$X_B$  is  $\mathcal{F}_B$ -measurable and  $\mathcal{F}_C$ -measurable but is not  $\mathcal{F}_A$ -measurable.

### Example (C")

$X_C$  is  $\mathcal{F}_C$ -measurable but neither  $\mathcal{F}_A$ -measurable nor  $\mathcal{F}_B$ -measurable.

## Chapter 2: Binomial tree with one period Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)
- 3 Binomial tree (Part 1)
- 4 Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)
- 5 **Binomial tree (Part 2)**
  - Simple portfolio strategies
- 6 Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)
- 7 Binomial tree (Part 3)
  - Evaluating and hedging derivative

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

- The risky asset  $S$  (who values  $S_0$  at date  $t = 0$  and can take two different values at date  $t = 1$ :  $S_1 \in \{S_1^u, S_1^d\}$ ) is a random variable that is  $\mathcal{F}_1$ -measurable, but is not  $\mathcal{F}_0$ -measurable.
- That is, the information known at date 0 is not sufficient to say what is the realization of  $S$ .
  - ▶ Instead, we have to wait until date 1.
- Observe that  $\mathcal{F}_1$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra that makes  $S$  measurable.

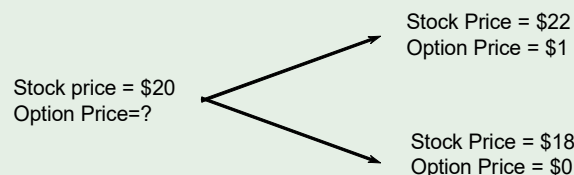
## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Question

What is the value of a derivative at date  $t = 0$ ?

### Example (D')

A 3-month call option on the stock has a strike price of 21.



## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Definition (Finance)

A **derivative** is a contract that derives its value from the performance of an underlying entity (e.g., asset, index, interest rate, ...)

### Definition (Mathematics)

In our market, a **derivative** is a random variable that is  $\mathcal{F}_1$ -measurable.

- The value of the derivative depends on the realization of the underlying variables at date  $t = 1$ .
- If  $S_1$  is the underlying asset, then any derivative can be written as a  $\mathcal{F}_1$ -measurable function of  $S_1$ .

### Example

A call with underlying  $x$  and strike  $K$  is a derivative that takes the form  $\phi : x \mapsto (x - K)^+$ .

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

- To tackle the question we will use a portfolio that replicates the derivative.
- Namely, we will build two self-financing portfolios.
  - ▶ One such a portfolio uses the risky asset while the other does not.
  - ▶ Both portfolios are built so that they take the same value at date  $t = 1$ .
  - ▶ NAO then implies that they have same value at date  $t = 0$ .

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

#### Definition

A **simple portfolio strategy** consists in using a part of an initial amount of cash  $x$  to buy (at the initial date) a risky asset in quantity  $\Delta$ , and to invest the other part of  $x$  in a non-risky asset.

We denote this strategy by the pair  $(x, \Delta)$  and its value at date  $t$  by  $X_t^{x, \Delta}$ .

- By definition, in our setup, we have

$$X_0^{x, \Delta} = \Delta S_0 + (x - \Delta S_0) 1 = x. \quad (1)$$

and

$$X_1^{x, \Delta} = \Delta S_1 + (x - \Delta S_0) R = xR + \Delta (S_1 - S_0 R).$$

- This strategy is self-financing. It is called *simple* because it only uses standard assets: the non-risky and the risky ones.

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

#### Proof.



## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

#### Theorem (2.1)

*In our market, every derivative is replicable by using a simple portfolio strategy  $(x, \Delta)$ .*

#### Proof.



## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

- So, under NAO, the price of a derivative in period  $t = 0$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} C_0 &= X_0^{x, \Delta} = x \\ &= \frac{1}{R} \left( \frac{R-d}{u-d} C_1^u + \frac{u-R}{u-d} C_1^d \right) \end{aligned}$$

which is a weighted sum of its future values  $C_1^u$  and  $C_1^d$ .

#### Example (D")

Assume the 3 months risk-free rate is 3.05% .

We then obtain

$$C_0 = \frac{1}{1.0305} \left( \frac{1.0305 - 0.9}{1.1 - 0.9} \right) \simeq 0.633$$

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

- A market where every asset is replicable with a simple portfolio strategy is said to be **complete**.
- Now let us study how the initial value of a simple portfolio strategy,  $X_0^{x,\Delta}$ , depends on its future value,  $X_1^{x,\Delta}$ .

#### Definition

A **simple arbitrage** is a simple portfolio strategy that gives to a portfolio no value at time  $t = 0$  and a value at time  $t = 1$  which is strictly positive with positive probability and is never negative.

Formally, it is a pair  $(x = 0, \Delta)$  with  $\Delta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$X_1^{0,\Delta} \geq 0 \text{ and } \mathbb{P}(X_1^{0,\Delta} > 0) > 0.$$

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

Proof.

□

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

#### Definition

We say that there is **no simple arbitrage opportunity (NAO')** if

$$\forall \Delta \in \mathbb{R}, \{X_1^{0,\Delta} \geq 0 \implies X_1^{0,\Delta} = 0 \text{ } \mathbb{P} - \text{a.s.}\}$$

#### Proposition (2.2)

If NAO' then  $d < R < u$ .

## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

Proof.

□



## Binomial tree (Part 2)

### Simple portfolio strategies

- Let  $\tilde{X}$  denotes the **current value** of the portfolio  $X$  at date  $t = 0, 1$ :

$$\tilde{X}_t^{x,\Delta} := \frac{X_t^{x,\Delta}}{R^t}.$$

- So, we have

$$\tilde{X}_0^{x,\Delta} = x$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{X}_1^{x,\Delta} &= \frac{xR + \Delta(S_1 - S_0R)}{R} \\ &= x + \Delta\left(\frac{S_1}{R} - S_0\right) = x + \Delta(\tilde{S}_1 - \tilde{S}_0)\end{aligned}$$

- In term of current values, the portfolio self-financing condition then writes as

$$\tilde{X}_1^{x,\Delta} - \tilde{X}_0^{x,\Delta} = \Delta(\tilde{S}_1 - \tilde{S}_0).$$

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)

### Definition

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a *probability space*. A **stochastic process** is a collection of random variables on  $\Omega$ , indexed by a totally ordered set  $T$  (e.g., referring to time).

Formally, a stochastic process  $X$  is a collection  $(X_t)_{t \in T}$  where each  $X_t$  is a random variable on  $\Omega$ .

- When  $T = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  the stochastic process is discrete. We will denote it as  $(X_k)_{1 \leq k \leq n}$ .

## Chapter 2: Binomial tree with one period

### Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)
- 3 Binomial tree (Part 1)
- 4 Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)
- 5 Binomial tree (Part 2)
  - Simple portfolio strategies
- 6 Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)
- 7 Binomial tree (Part 3)
  - Evaluating and hedging derivative

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)

### Definition (Preliminary)

A **martingale** is a stochastic process with finite means, in which the conditional expectation of the next value, given the current and preceding values, is the current value.

Formally, the stochastic process  $(X_t)_{t \in T}$  is a martingale if for any time  $n$  we have

$$\mathbb{E}[|X_n|] < +\infty$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1} | X_1, \dots, X_n] = X_n.$$

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)

- Originally, martingale referred to a class of betting strategies that was popular in 18th-century France.
- The simplest of these strategies was designed for a game in which the gambler wins his stake if a coin comes up heads and loses it if the coin comes up tails.
  - ▶ The strategy had the gambler double his bet after every loss so that the first win would recover all previous losses plus win a profit equal to the original stake.
  - ▶ As the gambler's wealth and available time jointly approach infinity, his probability of eventually flipping heads approaches 1, which makes the martingale betting strategy seem like a sure thing.
  - ▶ Observe that the exponential growth of the bets eventually bankrupts its users.

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)

- The idea is that an “equivalent martingale” measure is a probability measure under which the current value of all financial assets at time  $t$  is equal to the expected future payoff of the asset discounted at the risk-free rate, given the information structure available at time  $t$ .
  - ▶ Equivalently, a “risk-neutral” probability measure is a probability measure under which the underlying risky asset has the same expected return as the non risky asset.

## Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)

### Definition

Two probability measures  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  (on the same sample space  $\Omega$ ) are said to be **equivalent** if they define the same null sets. Formally, for any event  $A \in \Omega$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 0 \iff \mathbb{Q}(A) = 0$ .

### Definition (Preliminary)

A **risk-neutral probability measure** or **equivalent martingale measure (EMM)** is a probability measure  $\mathbb{Q}$  which is equivalent to  $\mathbb{P}$  and for which any simple strategy expressed in current value is a martingale. Formally,

$$\tilde{X}_0^{x,\Delta} = \mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[ \tilde{X}_1^{x,\Delta} \right]$$

or equivalently

$$X_0^{x,\Delta} = \frac{1}{R} \mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[ X_1^{x,\Delta} \right].$$

## Chapter 2: Binomial tree with one period Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)
- 3 Binomial tree (Part 1)
- 4 Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)
- 5 Binomial tree (Part 2)
  - Simple portfolio strategies
- 6 Basic notions on Probability (Part 3)
- 7 Binomial tree (Part 3)
  - Evaluating and hedging derivative

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Proposition (2.3)

*If  $d < R < u$  then there is an equivalent martingale measure  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

Proof.

□

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

Proof.

□

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

Proof.

□

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Proposition (2.4)

*If there is an equivalent martingale measure  $\mathbb{Q}$  then NAO' holds.*

Proof.

□

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

- Following the two previous propositions, we have

$$NAO' \implies d < R < u \implies \text{there is an equivalent martingale measure} \implies NAO'.$$

- Hence we obtain

$$NAO' \iff d < R < u \iff \text{there is an equivalent martingale measure.}$$

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

- Observe that the equivalent martingale measure does not depend on the probabilities  $p$  (and  $1 - p$ ) of the state  $\omega_u$  (and  $\omega_d$ ).
  - So, the price of an option is independent from the probability behind the evolution of the underlying asset.
    - ★ This is partly due to the fact that the replicating portfolio contains the underlying asset.
  - To determine the price of the derivative we then just need to know  $r$ ,  $u$ , and  $d$ .

### Question

How to determine  $u$  and  $d$ ?

- We shall see how this is correlated with the volatility of the asset.

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

### Proposition (2.5)

Assume NAO. The price of a derivative at time  $t = 0$  is given by

$$C_0 = \frac{\mathbb{E}^Q[C_1]}{1+r} = \frac{1}{R} \left( Q(\omega_u) C_1^u + Q(\omega_d) C_1^d \right) = \frac{1}{R} \left( q C_1^u + (1-q) C_1^d \right)$$

### Proof.

Exercise. (Hint: Straightforwardly obtained from the previous section) □

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

- In the replicating portfolio, the quantity of the risky asset is given by

$$\Delta = \frac{C_1^u - C_1^d}{(u - d) S_0} = \frac{\phi(S_1^u) - \phi(S_1^d)}{(u - d) S_0}.$$

- This quantity measures how the price of the option varies with the underlying asset price variation.

### Example ( $D^{(4)}$ )

We then have

$$\Delta = \frac{1 - 0}{(1.1 - 0.9) 20} = 0.25$$

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

#### Example ( $D^{(4)}$ )

The hedging strategy consists then:

- in buying 0.25 unit of the risky asset (the cost is  $\Delta S_0 = 0.25 \times 20 = 5$ ); and

- to invest  $(x - \Delta S_0) = \frac{1}{1.0305} \frac{1.0305 - 0.9}{1.1 - 0.9} - 5 \simeq -4.3668$  into the non-risky asset.

Doing so, we indeed obtain

$$-4.3668 \times 1.0305 + 0.25 \times 22 = 1 = C_1^u$$

and

$$-4.3668 \times 1.0305 + 0.25 \times 18 \simeq 0 = C_1^d.$$

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

- The value of the portfolio:

- at time 1 is  $S_0 u \Delta - C_1^u (= S_0 d \Delta - C_1^d)$ ;
- today is  $\frac{S_0 u \Delta - C_1^u}{1+r}$ ;

- Another expression for the portfolio value today is  $S_0 \Delta - C_0$

- Hence

$$C_0 = S_0 \Delta - \frac{S_0 u \Delta - C_1^u}{1+r}$$

- Substituting for  $\Delta = \frac{C_1^u - C_1^d}{S_0 u - S_0 d}$  we obtain

$$C_0 = \frac{q C_1^u + (1-q) C_1^d}{1+r}$$

where  $q = \frac{1+r-d}{u-d}$ , which confirms Proposition 2.5.

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

- An alternative way to determine  $\Delta$  is to consider a portfolio consisting of a long position in  $\Delta$  shares of the risky asset and a short position in one call option, and then to calculate the value of  $\Delta$  that makes this portfolio riskless.

- If there is an up movement in the stock price, the value of the portfolio at the end of the life of the option is

$$S_0 u \Delta - C_1^u$$

- If there is a down movement in the stock price, the value becomes

$$S_0 d \Delta - C_1^d$$

- The two are equal (i.e.,  $S_0 u \Delta - C_1^u = S_0 d \Delta - C_1^d$ ) when

$$\Delta = \frac{C_1^u - C_1^d}{(u-d) S_0}.$$

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

#### Proposition (2.6)

*If every asset is replicable with a simple portfolio strategy (complete market) then the equivalent martingale measure is unique.*

#### Proof.



## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

#### Proof.

Thus, we have

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}^{Q_1}[\mathbf{1}_B]}{R} = x = \frac{\mathbb{E}^{Q_2}[\mathbf{1}_B]}{R}$$

Moreover,  $\mathbf{1}_B$  denoting the indicator function, for any probability  $Q$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}^Q[\mathbf{1}_B] = Q(B)$$

So we obtain

$$Q_1(B) = Q_2(B)$$

That is,  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  are the same.  $\square$

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

- Binomial trees illustrate the general result that to value a derivative we can assume that:
  - The expected return on a stock (or any other investment) is the risk-free rate.
  - The discount rate used for the expected payoff on an option (or any other instrument) is the risk-free rate.
- This is known as using risk-neutral valuation.

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

- It is natural to interpret  $q$  and  $1 - q$  as probabilities of up and down movements.
- The value of a derivative is then its expected payoff in a risk-neutral world discounted at the risk-free rate.
- When the probability of an up and down movements are  $q$  and  $1 - q$  the expected stock price at time 1 is  $S_0(1 + r)$ .
- This shows that the stock price earns the risk-free rate.

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

- $q$  is the probability that gives a return on the stock equal to the risk-free rate:

$$S_0(1 + r) = S_1^u q + S_1^d(1 - q).$$

- The value of the option is

$$C_0 = \frac{C_1^u q + C_1^d(1 - q)}{1 + r}$$

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

#### Example ( $D^{(5)}$ )

We have

$$20(1.0305) = 22q + 18(1 - q).$$

so that  $q = 0.6525$ . And

$$C_0 = \frac{1 \times 0.6525 + 0(1 - 0.6525)}{1.0305} \simeq 0.6332.$$

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

#### Solution

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#### Question

What is the Call price of a Call with  $S_0 = 100$ ,  $K = 100$ ,  $r = 0.05$ ,  $d = 0.9$  and  $u = 1.1$ ?

Give a hedging strategy and depict a tree that illustrates the replication.

#### Solution

## Binomial tree (Part 3)

### Evaluating and hedging derivative

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#### Question

What about a Put with the same characteristics?

#### Solution

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#### Question

Does the Call-Put parity holds?

#### Solution