

Arbitrage&Pricing

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Jérôme MATHIS

www.jeromemathis.fr/a-p

LEDA

Chapter 2

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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

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- 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:
 - ▶ Ω a *sample space* which is the universe of possible outcomes;
 - ▶ \mathcal{F} a *set of events*, where an event is a subset of Ω ;
 - ▶ \mathbb{P} a *probability function* from \mathcal{F} to $[0, 1]$, which measures the likeliness that an event will occur.

Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)

- 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 σ -algebra (or σ -field).
 - ▶ In general, we will take \mathcal{F} as the smallest σ -algebra generated by the experiment.

Example (Flipping a coin)

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

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

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

Basic notions on Probability (Part 1)

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^Ω denotes the power set of the sample space.

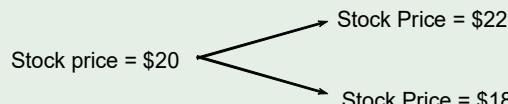
I.e., \mathcal{F}_C has $2^6 = 64$ elements. E.g., one of this element is $\{2, 5\}$, which consists in checking whether the outcome is 2 or 5.

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



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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.

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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 σ -algebra associated with Ω .

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.

Basic notions on Probability (Part 2)

- A more general definition is that a function $X : G \rightarrow H$ is **measurable** if the preimage under X of every element in the σ -algebra associated with H is in the σ -algebra associated with G .
 - Formally, if \mathcal{G} (resp. \mathcal{H}) is the σ -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 σ -algebras that are used.
 - In our definition, as the σ -algebra associated with \mathbb{R} we took the Borel σ -algebra on the reals, i.e., the smallest σ -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.

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- 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 σ -algebra that makes S measurable.

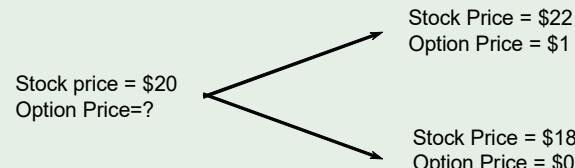
Binomial tree (Part 2)

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.



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 $t = 0$.

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 Δ , and to invest the other part of x in a non-risky asset.

We denote this strategy by the pair (x, Δ) 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.

Proof.

Theorem (2.1)

In our market, every derivative is replicable by using a simple portfolio strategy (x, Δ) .

Proof.

□

- 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

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

- 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

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

Proof.

Definition

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

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

Proposition (2.2)

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

Proof.

- 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 Ω , 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 Ω .

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

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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

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

- 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.

Definition

Two probability measures \mathbb{P} and \mathbb{Q} (on the same sample space Ω) 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

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

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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.



- 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 ω_u (and ω_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.

Proposition (2.5)

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

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

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

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

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

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

- 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.

- An alternative way to determine Δ is to consider a portfolio consisting of a long position in Δ shares of the risky asset and a short position in one call option, and then to calculate the value of Δ 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

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

Proposition (2.6)

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

Proof.



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. □

- 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.

- 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.

- 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

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

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

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

Solution

Binomial tree (Part 3)

Evaluating and hedging derivative

Question

What about a Put with the same characteristics?

Solution

Binomial tree (Part 3)

Evaluating and hedging derivative

Question

Does the Call-Put parity holds?

Solution

Binomial tree (Part 3)

Evaluating and hedging derivative

Solution