# Introduction to Mathematical Finance

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LSSU Math 500



#### The Black-Scholes Formula

- The Black-Scholes Formula
- Properties of the Black-Scholes Option Cost
- The Delta Hedging Arbitrage Strategy
- Some Derivations
- European Put Options

### Subsection 1

### The Black-Scholes Formula

# The Set Up

- Consider a call option having:
  - Strike price K;
  - Expiration time t.
- That is, the option allows one to purchase a single unit of an underlying security at time t for the price K.
- Let the nominal interest rate be r, compounded continuously.
- Suppose the price of the security follows a geometric Brownian motion, with:
  - Drift parameter  $\mu$ ;
  - Volatility parameter  $\sigma$ .
- Under these assumptions, we find the unique cost of the option that does not give rise to an arbitrage.

# The Price Fluctuation

- Let S(y) denote the price of the security at time y.
- By hypothesis, {S(y), 0 ≤ y ≤ t} follows a geometric Brownian motion with volatility parameter σ and drift parameter μ.
- So the *n*-stage approximation of this model supposes that, every  $\frac{t}{n}$  time units, the price changes.
- Its new value is equal to its old value multiplied:

• By the factor 
$$u = e^{\sigma \sqrt{t/n}}$$
 with probability  $\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{t}{n}} \right)$ ;

• By the factor  $d = e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}}$  with probability  $\frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}}\right)$ .

- So the *n*-stage approximation model is an *n*-stage binomial model in which the price at each time interval <sup>t</sup>/<sub>n</sub> changes in one of two ways:
  - Goes up by a multiplicative factor *u*;
  - Goes down by a multiplicative factor d.

# Probability of Fair Bets

Let

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } S\left(i\frac{t}{n}\right) = uS\left((i-1)\frac{t}{n}\right), \\ 0, & \text{if } S\left(i\frac{t}{n}\right) = dS\left((i-1)\frac{t}{n}\right). \end{cases}$$

 By previous results, the only probability law on X<sub>1</sub>,..., X<sub>n</sub> that makes all security buying bets fair in the *n*-stage approximation model is the one that takes the X<sub>i</sub> to be independent with

$$p := P\{X_i = 1\} = \frac{1 + r\frac{t}{n} - d}{u - d}$$
$$= \frac{1 - e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} + r\frac{t}{n}}{e^{\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} - e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}}}$$

# Rewriting Using Taylor Expansions

We obtained

$$p = \frac{1 - e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} + r\frac{t}{n}}{e^{\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} - e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}}}.$$

• Recall the Taylor series expansion about 0 of the function  $e^x$ 

$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^{2} + \frac{1}{3!}x^{3} + \cdots$$

• Using the first three terms, we get

$$e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} \approx 1 - \sigma\sqrt{rac{t}{n}} + \sigma^2rac{t}{2n},$$
  
 $e^{\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} \approx 1 + \sigma\sqrt{rac{t}{n}} + \sigma^2rac{t}{2n}.$ 

# Rewriting Using Taylor Expansions (Cont'd)

• Setting 
$$e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} \approx 1 - \sigma\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}} + \sigma^2 \frac{t}{2n}$$
 and  $e^{\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} \approx 1 + \sigma\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}} + \sigma^2 \frac{t}{2n}$   
in  
 $n = \frac{1 - e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} + r\frac{t}{n}}{r}$ 

$$b = \frac{\pi}{e^{\sigma\sqrt{t/n}} - e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}}}$$

gives

$$p \approx \frac{\sigma\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}} - \sigma^2 \frac{t}{2n} + r\frac{t}{n}}{2\sigma\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{r\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}}}{2\sigma} - \frac{\sigma\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}}}{4}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \frac{r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}}{\sigma}\sqrt{\frac{t}{n}}\right)$$

# Risk Neutrality versus Arbitrage

- The unique risk-neutral probabilities on the *n*-stage approximation model result from supposing that, in each period, the price changes in one of two ways:
  - Goes up by the factor  $e^{\sigma\sqrt{t/n}}$  with probability p;
  - Goes down by the factor  $e^{-\sigma\sqrt{t/n}}$  with probability 1-p.
- From previous work, it follows that as  $n \to \infty$  this risk-neutral probability law converges to geometric Brownian motion with drift coefficient  $r \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$  and volatility parameter  $\sigma$ .
- So is reasonable to suppose (and can be rigorously proven) that this risk-neutral geometric Brownian motion is the only probability law on the evolution of prices over time that makes all security buying bets fair.

# Risk Neutrality versus Arbitrage (Cont'd)

• We have just argued that if the underlying price of a security follows a geometric Brownian motion with volatility parameter  $\sigma$ , then the only probability law on the sequence of prices that results in all security buying bets being fair is that of a geometric Brownian motion with drift parameter  $r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$  and volatility parameter  $\sigma$ .

• Consequently, by the Arbitrage Theorem, one of the following holds:

- The options are priced to be fair bets according to the risk-neutral geometric Brownian motion probability law;
- There will be an arbitrage.

# The Black-Scholes Option Pricing Formula

- Suppose S(t) is a risk-neutral geometric Brownian motion.
- Then  $\frac{S(t)}{S(0)}$  is a lognormal random variable with:
  - Mean parameter  $\left(r \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t$ ;
  - Variance parameter  $\sigma^2 \bar{t}$ .
- Hence, the unique no-arbitrage cost *C* of a call option to purchase the security at time *t* for the specified price *K*, is

$$C = e^{-rt} E[(S(t) - K)^+] = e^{-rt} E[(S(0)e^W - K)^+],$$

where W is a normal random variable with mean  $(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})t$  and variance  $\sigma^2 t$ .

# The Black-Scholes Option Pricing Formula (Cont'd)

We have

$$C = e^{-rt} E[(S(0)e^W - K)^+],$$

where W is a normal random variable with mean  $(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})t$  and variance  $\sigma^2 t$ .

• The right side can be explicitly evaluated to give the following expression, known as the **Black-Scholes option pricing formula**.

$$C = S(0)\Phi(\omega) - Ke^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}),$$

where

$$\omega = \frac{rt + \sigma^2 \frac{t}{2} - \log\left(\frac{\kappa}{5(0)}\right)}{\sigma\sqrt{t}}$$

and  $\Phi(x)$  is the standard normal distribution function.

# Example

• We make the following assumptions:

- A security is presently selling for a price of 30;
- The nominal interest rate is 8% (unit of time being one year);
- The security's volatility is 0.20.

We want to compute the no-arbitrage cost of a call option that expires in three months and has a strike price of 34.

We first identify the value of the parameters.

• 
$$S(0) = 30;$$

- *r* = 0.08;
- σ = 0.20;
- t = 0.25;
- *K* = 34.

# Example (Cont'd)

#### • The parameters are

$$t = 0.25, r = 0.08, \sigma = 0.20, K = 34, S(0) = 30.$$

We apply the formula to find  $\omega$ 

$$\begin{split} \omega &= \frac{rt + \sigma^2 \frac{t}{2} - \log(\frac{\kappa}{5(0)})}{\sigma\sqrt{t}} \\ &= \frac{0.02 + 0.005 - \log\frac{34}{30}}{(0.2)(0.5)} \\ &\approx -1.0016. \end{split}$$

Therefore,

$$C = S(0)\Phi(\omega) - Ke^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t})$$
  
= 30\Phi(-1.0016) - 34e^{-0.02}\Phi(-1.1016)  
20(0.15927) - 24(0.0902)(0.13522) + 0.239

 $= 30(0.15827) - 34(0.9802)(0.13532) \approx 0.2383.$ 

The appropriate price of the option is thus 24 cents.

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# Remarks

- 1. Another way to derive the no-arbitrage option cost C is to:
  - Consider the unique no-arbitrage cost of an option in the *n*-period approximation model;
  - Let *n* go to infinity.

Let C(s, t, K) be the no-arbitrage cost of an option having strike price K and exercise time t when the initial price of the security is s. That is, C(s, t, K) is the C of the Black-Scholes, with S(0) = s. Suppose the price of the security at time y (0 < y < t) is S(y) = s<sub>y</sub>. The unique no-arbitrage cost of the option at time y is C(s<sub>y</sub>, t - y, K).

This is because at time y:

- The option will expire after an additional time t y;
- It has the same exercise price K;
- For the next t y units of time the security will follow a geometric Brownian motion with initial value s<sub>y</sub>.

# Remarks (Cont'd)

3. Recall from our study of pricing via arbitrage that, for no-arbitrage,

$$S+P-C=Ke^{-rt},$$

where

- S be the price of the stock at time 0;
- *P* is the price of a European put option for selling one share of the stock for the amount *K* at time *t*;
- C is the price of a call option for buying one share of a stock at an exercise price K at time t;
- *r* is the nominal rate for continuous discounting.

So the no-arbitrage cost P(s, t, K) of a European put option with initial price s, strike price K, and exercise time t is given by

$$P(s,t,K) = C(s,t,K) + Ke^{-rt} - s.$$

### Subsection 2

#### Properties of the Black-Scholes Option Cost

# Arbitrage Option Cost Revisited

- The no-arbitrage option cost C = C(s, t, K, σ, r) is a function of five variables:
  - The security's initial price s;
  - The expiration time t of the option;
  - The strike price *K*;
  - The security's volatility parameter  $\sigma$ ;
  - The interest rate r.
- To see what happens to the cost as a function of each of these variables, we use the equation

$$C(s,t,K,\sigma,r) = e^{-rt}E[(se^W - K)^+],$$

where W is a normal random variable with mean  $(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})t$  and variance  $\sigma^2 t$ .

## Properties of the Cost Function (1)

1. C is an increasing, convex function of s.

This means that if the other four variables remain the same, then the no-arbitrage cost of the option is:

- An increasing function of the security's initial price;
- A convex function of the security's initial price.

For any positive constant *a*, the function

$$e^{-rt}(sa-K)^+$$

is an increasing, convex function of *s*.



But the probability distribution of W does not depend on s. So  $e^{-rt}(se^W - K)^+$  is, for all W, increasing and convex in s. Thus, so is its expected value.

# Properties of the Cost Function (2-3)

2. C is a decreasing, convex function of K.

This follows from the fact that

$$e^{-rt}(se^W-K)^+$$

is, for all W, decreasing and convex in K.

Thus, so is its expectation.

3. *C* is increasing in *t*.

It is immediate that the option cost would be increasing in t if the option were an American call option (any additional time to exercise could not hurt, since one could always elect not to use it). The value of a European call option is the same as that of an

American call option.

So we obtain the result for both options.



## Properties of the Cost Function (4)

#### 4. C is increasing in $\sigma$ .

The result seems at first sight to be quite intuitive.

This is because an option holder:

- Will greatly benefit from very large prices at the exercise time;
- Will not incur any additional loss for any additional price decrease below the exercise price.

However, it is more subtle than it appears.

Since  $E\left[\log \frac{S(t)}{S(0)}\right] = \left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t$ , an increase in  $\sigma$  results not only in an increase in the variance of the logarithm of the final price under the risk-neutral valuation but also in a decrease in the mean. Nevertheless, the result is true and will be shown mathematically later.

### Properties of the Cost Function (5)

5. C is increasing in r.

We can express W, a normal random variable with mean  $\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t$ and variance  $t\sigma^2$ , as

$$W=rt-\frac{\sigma^2 t}{2}+\sigma\sqrt{t}Z,$$

where Z is a standard normal random variable with mean 0 and variance 1.

Hence, from the cost equation we have that

$$C = E\left[\left(se^{-\frac{\sigma^2 t}{2} + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z} - Ke^{-rt}\right)^+\right].$$

The result now follows because  $\left(se^{-\frac{\sigma^2 t}{2} + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z} - Ke^{-rt}\right)^+$ , and, thus, its expected value, is increasing in r.

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### Rate of Change With Respect to Price

- The rate of change in the value of the call option as a function of a change in the price of the underlying security is described by the quantity **delta**, denoted as Δ.
- Formally, if C(s, t, K, σ, r) is the Black-Scholes cost valuation of the option, then Δ is its partial derivative with respect to s,

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} C(s, t, K, \sigma, r).$$

• We will show later that

$$\Delta = \Phi(\omega),$$

where, 
$$\omega = \frac{rt + \frac{\sigma^2 t}{2} - \log\left(\frac{K}{S(0)}\right)}{\sigma \sqrt{t}}$$
.

# Using Rate of Change for Investment

- Delta can be used to construct investment portfolios that hedge against risk.
- For instance, suppose that an investor feels that a call option is underpriced and consequently buys the call.
- To protect himself against a decrease in its price, he can simultaneously sell a certain number of shares of the security.
  - Suppose the price of the security decreases by the small amount *h*.
  - Then the worth of the option will decrease by the amount  $h\Delta$ .
  - $\,\bullet\,$  So the investor would be covered if he sold  $\Delta$  shares of the security.
- Therefore, a reasonable hedge might be to sell Δ shares of the security for each option purchased.
- This will be made precise by the delta hedging arbitrage strategy.
- This strategy can, in theory, be used to construct an arbitrage if a call option is not priced according to the Black-Scholes formula.

### Subsection 3

### The Delta Hedging Arbitrage Strategy

# The Set Up

- Consider a security whose initial price is *s*.
- Suppose that, after each time period, its price changes in one of two ways:
  - Goes up by the multiple *u*;
  - Goes down by the multiple *d*.
- We determine the amount of money x that we must have at time 0 in order to meet the following payment at time 1:
  - *a*, if the price of the stock is *us* at time 1;
  - *b*, if the price of the stock is *ds* at time 1.
- Suppose we purchase *y* shares of the stock and:
  - Put the remaining x ys in the bank, if  $x ys \ge 0$ ;
  - Borrow ys x from the bank, if x ys < 0.

# Initial Cost

- Suppose that:
  - S(1) is the price of the security at time 1;
  - r is the interest rate per period.
- Then the return at time 1 is given by

return at time 
$$1 = \begin{cases} yus + (x - ys)(1 + r), & \text{if } S(1) = us, \\ yds + (x - ys)(1 + r), & \text{if } S(1) = ds. \end{cases}$$

• We choose x and y, such that

$$yus + (x - ys)(1 + r) = a,$$
  
 $yds + (x - ys)(1 + r) = b.$ 

- Then, after taking our money out of the bank (or meeting our loan payment), we will have the desired amount.
- Subtracting, we get  $y = \frac{a-b}{s(u-d)}$ .

# Initial Cost (Cont'd)

• We obtained  $y = \frac{a-b}{s(u-d)}$ .

Substituting into the first equation yields

$$\frac{a-b}{u-d}[u-(1+r)] + x(1+r) = a.$$

So we have

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{1}{1+r} \left( a \left[ 1 - \frac{u - (1+r)}{u - d} \right] + b \frac{u - 1 - r}{u - d} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{1+r} \left( a \frac{1 + r - d}{u - d} + b \frac{u - 1 - r}{u - d} \right) \\ &= p \frac{a}{1+r} + (1 - p) \frac{b}{1+r}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $p = \frac{1+r-d}{u-d}$ .

- The amount of money needed at time 0 equals the expected present value, under the risk-neutral probabilities, of the payoff at time 1.
- The investment strategy calls for purchasing of  $y = \frac{a-b}{s(u-d)}$  shares of the security and putting the remainder in the bank.

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## The Case at Time 2 (Step 1)

- Consider the problem of determining how much money is needed at time 0 to meet a payoff at time 2 of  $x_{i,2}$  if the price of the security at time 2 is  $u^i d^{2-i}s$  (i = 0, 1, 2).
- We first determine, for each possible price of the security at time 1, the amount that is needed at time 1 to meet the payment at time 2.
- If the price at time 1 is us, then the amount needed at time 2 is:
  - $x_{2,2}$ , if the price at time 2 is  $u^2s$ ;
  - $x_{1,2}$ , if the price at time 2 is *uds*.
- Thus, it follows from our preceding analysis that, if the price at time 1 is *us*, then we would, at time 1, need the amount

$$x_{1,1} = p \frac{x_{2,2}}{1+r} + (1-p) \frac{x_{1,2}}{1+r}.$$

Moreover the strategy is to purchase y<sub>1,1</sub> = x<sub>2,2</sub>-x<sub>1,2</sub>/us(u-d) shares of the security and put the remainder in the bank.

# The Case at Time 2 (Step 1 Cont'd)

• Similarly, if the price at time 1 is *ds*, then to meet the final payment at time 2 we would, at time 1, need the amount

$$x_{0,1} = p \frac{x_{1,2}}{1+r} + (1-p) \frac{x_{0,2}}{1+r}.$$

• Moreover, the strategy is to purchase

$$y_{0,1} = \frac{x_{1,2} - x_{0,2}}{ds(u-d)}$$

shares of the security and put the remainder in the bank.

# The Case at Time 2 (Step 2)

• At time 0 we need to have enough to invest so as to be able to have:

- x<sub>1,1</sub> at time 1, if the price of the security is *us* at time 1;
- $x_{0,1}$  at time 1, if the price of the security is ds at time 1.
- Consequently, at time 0 we need the amount

$$\begin{array}{lll} x_{0,0} & = & p \frac{x_{1,1}}{1+r} + (1-p) \frac{x_{0,1}}{1+r} \\ & = & p^2 \frac{x_{2,2}}{(1+r)^2} + 2p(1-p) \frac{x_{1,2}}{(1+r)^2} + (1-p)^2 \frac{x_{0,2}}{(1+r)^2}. \end{array}$$

- Once again, the amount needed is the expected present value, under the risk-neutral probabilities, of the final payoff.
- The strategy is to:
  - Purchase  $y_{0,0} = \frac{x_{1,1} x_{0,1}}{s(u-d)}$  shares of the security;
  - Put the remainder in the bank.

## The *n*-Period Case

- The preceding is easily generalized to an *n*-period problem, where the payoff at the end of period *n* is x<sub>i,n</sub> if the price at that time is u<sup>i</sup>d<sup>n-i</sup>s.
- The amount  $x_{i,j}$  needed at time j, given that the price of the security at that time is  $u^i d^{j-i}s$ , is equal to the conditional expected time-jvalue of the final payoff, where the expected value is computed under the assumption that the successive changes in price are governed by the risk-neutral probabilities.
- That is, the successive changes are independent, with each new price equal to the previous period's price multiplied either by the factor u with probability p or by the factor d with probability 1 - p.

# The *n*-Period Case (No-Arbitrage)

• If the payoff results from paying the holder of a call option that has strike price K and expiration time n, then the payoff at time n is

$$x_{i,n} = (u^i d^{n-i} s - K)^+, \quad i = 0, \dots, n,$$

when the price of the security at time *n* is  $u^i d^{n-i}s$ .

- Our investment strategy replicates the payoff from this option.
- By the Law of One Price (as well as from the Arbitrage Theorem),  $x_{0,0}$ , the initial amount needed, is equal to the unique no-arbitrage cost of the option.
- Moreover, x<sub>i,j</sub>, the amount needed at time j, when the price at that time is su<sup>i</sup>d<sup>j-i</sup>, is the unique no-arbitrage cost of the option at that time and price.

# The *n*-Period Case (Arbitrage I)

- Suppose C, the cost of the option at time 0, is larger than x<sub>0,0</sub>. Then we may effect an arbitrage.
  - Sell the option;
  - Use  $x_{0,0}$  from this sale to meet the option payoff at time *n*;
  - Walk away with a positive profit of  $C x_{0,0}$ .

# The *n*-Period Case (Arbitrage II)

• Suppose that  $C < x_{0,0}$ .

- By reversing the procedure (changing buying into selling, and vice versa) we can transform an initial debt of  $x_{0,0}$  into a time-*n* debt of  $x_{i,n}$ , when the price at time *n* is  $su^i d^{n-i}$ .
- So we can also make an arbitrage.
  - Borrow the amount x<sub>0,0</sub>;
  - Use C of this amount to buy the option;
  - Use the investment procedure to transform the initial debt into a time-*n* debt whose amount is exactly that of the return from the option.
- In either case we can:
  - Gain  $|C x_{0,0}|$  at time 0;
  - Follow an investment strategy that guarantees we have no additional losses or gains by hedging all future risks.

# The Case of Geometrical Brownian Motion

- Suppose a security follows a geometric Brownian motion with volatility  $\sigma$ .
- Let a call option for the security have:
  - Strike price *K*;
  - Expiration time t.
- We determine the hedging strategy for the call option.
- We first consider a finite-period approximation.
- In each *h* time units the price of the security changes in one of two ways.
  - Increases by the factor  $e^{\sigma\sqrt{h}}$ ;
  - Decreases by the factor  $e^{-\sigma\sqrt{h}}$ .
- Suppose the present price of the stock is s.

# Amount Needed in Next Period

- Let C(s, t) be the no-arbitrage cost of the call option.
- The notation suppresses the dependence of C on K, r and  $\sigma$ .
- The price after an additional time h is either  $se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}}$  or  $se^{-\sigma\sqrt{h}}$ .
- So the amount we will need in the next period to utilize the hedging strategy is:
  - $C(se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}}, t-h)$  if the price is  $se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}}$ ;
  - $C(se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}}, t-h)$  if the price is  $se^{-\sigma\sqrt{h}}$ .
- When the price of the security is *s* and time *t* remains before the option expires, the hedging strategy calls for owning

$$\frac{C(se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}}, t-h) - C(se^{-\sigma\sqrt{h}}, t-h)}{se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}} - se^{-\sigma\sqrt{h}}}$$

shares of the security.

## Number of Shares to be Owned

- To determine the number of shares that should be owned, we need to let *h* go to zero.
- Thus, we need to determine

$$\lim_{n \to 0} \frac{C(se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}}, t - h) - C(se^{-\sigma\sqrt{h}}, t - h)}{se^{\sigma\sqrt{h}} - se^{-\sigma\sqrt{h}}}$$

$$= \lim_{a \to 0} \frac{C(se^{\sigma a}, t - a^{2}) - C(se^{-\sigma a}, t - a^{2})}{se^{\sigma a} - se^{-\sigma a}}$$

$$\overset{\text{L'Hôpital}}{=} \lim_{a \to 0} \frac{s\sigma e^{\sigma a} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} C(y, t)|_{y = se^{\sigma a}} + s\sigma e^{-\sigma a} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} C(y, t)|_{y = se^{-\sigma a}}}{s\sigma e^{\sigma a} + s\sigma e^{\sigma a}}$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} C(y, t)|_{y = s}$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial s} C(s, t).$$

# Number of Shares to be Owned (Cont'd)

- Therefore, the return from a call option having strike price K and exercise time T can be replicated by an investment strategy that:
  - Requires an investment capital of C(S(0), T, K);
  - Calls for owning exactly  $\frac{\partial}{\partial s}C(s, t, K)$  shares of the security, when its current price is s and time t remains before the option expires;
  - The absolute value of the remaining capital at that time being:
    - In the bank, if the remaining capital is positive;
    - Borrowed, if the remaining capital is negative.

# Attaining an Arbitrage

 Suppose the market price of the (K, T) call option is greater than C(S(0), T, K);

Then an arbitrage can be made.

- Sell the option;
- Use C(S(0), T, K) from this sale along with the preceding strategy to replicate the return from the option.
- Suppose the market cost C is less than C(S(0), T, K).

An arbitrage is obtained by doing the reverse.

- Borrow *C*(*S*(0), *T*, *K*);
- Use C of this amount to buy a (K, T) call option;
- Maintain a short position of  $\frac{\partial}{\partial s}C(s, t, K)$  shares of the security when its current price is s and time t remains before the option expires.

The invested money from these short positions, along with your call option, will cover your loan of C(S(0), T, K) and also pay off your final short position.

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### Subsection 4

### Some Derivations

# The Set Up

#### • Consider a security that:

- Has initial price s;
- Follows a geometric Brownian motion with volatility parameter  $\sigma$ .

#### • Consider a call option for the security, with:

- Strike price K;
- Expiration time t.
- Let r be the interest rate.
- Denote by

$$C(s,t,K,\sigma,r) = E\left[e^{-rt}(S(t)-K)^+\right]$$

the risk-neutral cost of the security.

# The Goals and Some Notation

- We wish to derive:
  - The Black-Scholes option pricing formula;
  - The partial derivatives of C.
- We use the fact that, under the risk-neutral probabilities, S(t) can be expressed as

$$S(t) = s \exp\left\{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z\right\},$$

where Z is a standard normal random variable.

• Let *I* be the indicator random variable for the event that the option finishes in the money:

$$I = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } S(t) > K, \\ 0, & \text{if } S(t) \le K. \end{cases}$$

# Expression for *I*

#### Lemma

We have

$$I = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1, & ext{if } Z > \sigma \sqrt{t} - \omega, \ 0, & ext{otherwise}, \end{array} 
ight.$$

where 
$$\omega = rac{rt + rac{\sigma^2 t}{2} - \log rac{K}{s}}{\sigma \sqrt{t}}$$
.

• We have

$$S(t) > K \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \exp\left\{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z\right\} > \frac{K}{s}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad Z > \frac{\log\frac{K}{s} - \left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t}{\sigma\sqrt{t}}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad Z > \sigma\sqrt{t} - \omega.$$

# Expression for E(I)

#### Lemma

We have

$$E[I] = P\{S(t) > K\} = \Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}),$$

where  $\Phi$  is the standard normal distribution function.

• It follows from its definition that

$$E[I] = P\{S(t) > K\}$$
  
=  $P\{Z > \sigma\sqrt{t} - \omega\}$  (from preceding lemma)  
=  $P\{Z < \omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}\}$   
=  $\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}).$ 

# Expression for E[IS(t)]

#### Lemma

We have

$$e^{-rt}E[IS(t)] = s\Phi(\omega).$$

• Using the formula for S(t) and the expression for I, with  $c = \sigma \sqrt{t} - \omega$ ,

$$E[IS(t)] = \int_{c}^{\infty} s \exp\left\{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^{2}}{2}\right)t + \sigma\sqrt{t}x\right\} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^{2}/2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} s \exp\left\{rt\right\} \int_{c}^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{x^{2} - 2\sigma\sqrt{t}x + \sigma^{2}t}{2}\right\} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} s e^{rt} \int_{c}^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x - \sigma\sqrt{t})^{2}}{2}\right\} dx$$

$$= s e^{rt} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\omega}^{\infty} e^{-y^{2}/2} dy \quad \text{(by letting } y = x - \sigma\sqrt{t}\text{)}$$

$$= s e^{rt} P\{Z > -\omega\}$$

$$= s e^{rt} \Phi(\omega).$$

# The Black-Scholes Pricing Formula

Theorem (The Black-Scholes Pricing Formula)

#### We have

$$C(s, t, K, \sigma, r) = s\Phi(\omega) - Ke^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}).$$

We obtain

$$C(s, t, K, \sigma, r) = e^{-rt} E[(S(t) - K)^+]$$
  
=  $e^{-rt} E[I(S(t) - K)]$   
=  $e^{-rt} E[IS(t)] - Ke^{-rt} E[I]$   
=  $s\Phi(\omega) - Ke^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t})$   
(by the preceding lemmas).

## The Black-Scholes Call Option Formula Revisited

- Let Z be a normal random variable with mean 0 and variance 1.
  Let W = (r σ<sup>2</sup>/2)t + σ√tZ.
- Thus, W is normal with mean  $\left(r \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t$  and variance  $t\sigma^2$ .
- The Black-Scholes call option formula can be written as

$$C = C(s, t, K, \sigma, r) = e^{-rt} E[(S(t) - K)^+] = E[e^{-rt}I(se^W - K)]$$
  
where  $I = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } se^W > K \\ 0, & \text{if } se^W \le K \end{cases}$  is the indicator of  $se^W > K$ .  
We have

$$e^{-rt}I(se^W - K) = \begin{cases} e^{-rt}(se^W - K), & \text{if } se^W > K, \\ 0, & \text{if } se^W \le K. \end{cases}$$

# Partial Derivatives of C

- The preceding is, for given Z, a differentiable function of the parameters  $s, t, K, \sigma, r$ .
- So for x equal to any one of these variables,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}e^{-rt}I(se^W-K) = \begin{cases} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}e^{-rt}(se^W-K), & \text{if } se^W > K, \\ 0, & \text{if } se^W \le K. \end{cases}$$

• That is, 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}e^{-rt}I(se^W-K)=I\frac{\partial}{\partial x}e^{-rt}(se^W-K).$$

• Using that the partial derivative and the expectation operation can be interchanged, the preceding gives that

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} E[e^{-rt}I(se^W - K)] \\ = E[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}e^{-rt}I(se^W - K)] \\ = E[I\frac{\partial}{\partial x}e^{-rt}(se^W - K)].$$

# Partial Derivative of C With Respect to K

#### Proposition

#### We have

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial K} = -e^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}).$$

• Because S(t) does not depend on K,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial K}e^{-rt}(S(t)-K)=-e^{-rt}.$$

Using the equation obtained in the preceding slide, this gives

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial K} = E[-le^{-rt}] = -e^{-rt}E[l] = -e^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}),$$

the final equality by a previous lemma.

George Voutsadakis (LSSU)

## Partial Derivative of C With Respect to s

#### Proposition

#### We have

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial s} = \Phi(\omega).$$

• Using the representation  $S(t) = s \exp\{(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})t + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z\}$ , we see that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s}e^{-rt}(S(t)-K)=e^{-rt}\frac{\partial S(t)}{\partial s}=\frac{S(t)}{s}e^{-rt}.$$

Hence, using  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial s} = E[I \frac{\partial}{\partial s} e^{-rt} (se^W - K)]$ ,

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial s} = \frac{e^{-rt}}{s} E[IS(t)] = \Phi(\omega),$$

the final equality using a previous lemma.

George Voutsadakis (LSSU)

## Partial Derivative of C With Respect to r

#### Proposition

We have

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial r} = Kte^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}).$$

We have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}[e^{-rt}(S(t) - K)] = -te^{-rt}(S(t) - K) + e^{-rt}\frac{\partial S(t)}{\partial r}$$
$$= -te^{-rt}(S(t) - K) + e^{-rt}tS(t)$$
$$= Kte^{-rt}.$$

Using  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial r} = E[I\frac{\partial}{\partial r}e^{-rt}(se^W - K)]$  and the expression for E[I],  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial r} = Kte^{-rt}E[I] = Kte^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}).$ 

# Auxiliary Lemma

#### Lemma

With 
$$S(t) = s \exp \{ (r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})t + \sigma \sqrt{t}Z \},\$$
  
 $e^{-rt}E[IS(t)Z] = s(\Phi'(\omega) + \sigma \sqrt{t}\Phi(\omega)).$ 

• With  $c = \sigma \sqrt{t} - \omega$ , it follows from a previous lemma that

$$\begin{split} E[IZS(t)] &= \int_{c}^{\infty} xs \exp\left\{(r - \frac{\sigma^{2}}{2})t + \sigma\sqrt{t}x\right\} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^{2}/2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} s \exp\left\{rt\right\} \int_{c}^{\infty} x \exp\left\{-\frac{x^{2} - 2\sigma\sqrt{t}x + \sigma^{2}t}{2}\right\} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} se^{rt} \int_{c}^{\infty} x \exp\left\{-\frac{(x - \sigma\sqrt{t})^{2}}{2}\right\} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} se^{rt} \int_{-\omega}^{\infty} (y + \sigma\sqrt{t}) e^{-y^{2}/2} dy \quad (y = x - \sigma\sqrt{t}) \\ &= se^{rt} [\int_{-\omega}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} ye^{-y^{2}/2} dy + \sigma\sqrt{t} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\omega}^{\infty} e^{-y^{2}/2} dy] \\ &= se^{rt} [\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\omega^{2}/2} + \sigma\sqrt{t} \Phi(\omega)]. \end{split}$$

# Partial Derivative of C With Respect to $\sigma$

#### Proposition

We have

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial \sigma} = s\sqrt{t}\Phi'(\omega).$$

• The equation  $S(t) = s \exp \{(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})t + \sigma \sqrt{t}Z\}$  yields

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} [e^{-rt} (S(t) - K)] = e^{-rt} S(t) (-t\sigma + \sqrt{t}Z).$$
  
Hence, by  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \sigma} = E[I \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} e^{-rt} (se^W - K)]$ , we get  
 $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \sigma} = E[e^{-rt} IS(t) (-t\sigma + \sqrt{t}Z)]$   
 $= -t\sigma e^{-rt} E[IS(t)] + \sqrt{t} e^{-rt} E[IS(t)Z]$   
 $= -t\sigma s\Phi(\omega) + s\sqrt{t} (\Phi'(\omega) + \sigma\sqrt{t}\Phi(\omega))$   
(by previous lemmas)  
 $= s\sqrt{t} \Phi'(\Omega).$ 

# Partial Derivative of C With Respect to t

#### Proposition

#### We have

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{t}} s \Phi'(\omega) + K r e^{-rt} \Phi(\omega - \sigma \sqrt{t}).$$

#### • We get

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}[e^{-rt}(S(t) - K)] = e^{-rt}\frac{\partial S(t)}{\partial t} - re^{-rt}S(t) + Kre^{-rt}$$

$$= e^{-rt}S(t)(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} + \frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{t}}Z)$$

$$- re^{-rt}S(t) + Kre^{-rt}$$

$$= e^{-rt}S(t)(-\frac{\sigma^2}{2} + \frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{t}}Z) + Kre^{-rt}$$

# Partial Derivative of C With Respect to t (Cont'd)

• Therefore, using 
$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = E[I\frac{\partial}{\partial t}e^{-rt}(se^W - K)]$$
,

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = -e^{-rt}E[IS(t)]\frac{\sigma^2}{2} + e^{-rt}E[IZS(t)]\frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{t}} + Kre^{-rt}E[I]$$

$$= -s\Phi(\omega)\frac{\sigma^2}{2} + \frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{t}}s(\Phi'(\omega) + \sigma\sqrt{t}\Phi(\omega))$$

$$+ Kre^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t})$$

$$= \frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{t}}s\Phi'(\omega) + Kre^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}).$$

Terminology: Terms used for the partial derivatives:

delta for ∂C/∂s;
rho for ∂C/∂r;
vega for ∂C/∂σ;
theta for ∂C/∂t.

# Monotonicity and Convexity

#### Corollary

 $C(s, t, K, \sigma, r)$  is:

- (a) Decreasing and convex in K;
- (b) Increasing and convex in s;
- (c) Increasing, but neither convex nor concave, in  $r, \sigma$  and t.
- (a) From a previous proposition  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial K} = -e^{-rt}\Phi(\omega \sigma\sqrt{t}) < 0.$ Moreover, recalling that  $\omega = \frac{rt + \frac{\sigma^2 t}{2} - \log \frac{K}{s}}{\sigma\sqrt{t}}$ ,

$$\begin{array}{ll} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial K^2} & = & -e^{-rt} \Phi'(\omega - \sigma \sqrt{t}) \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial K} \\ & = & e^{-rt} \Phi'(\omega - \sigma \sqrt{t}) \frac{1}{K\sigma \sqrt{t}} > 0. \end{array}$$

So C is decreasing and convex in K.

# Monotonicity and Convexity (Cont'd)

(b) By a previous proposition, we get  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial s} = \Phi(\omega) > 0$ . Moreover, taking again into account  $\omega = \frac{rt + \frac{\sigma^2 t}{2} - \log \frac{K}{s}}{\sigma \sqrt{t}}$ ,

$$rac{\partial^2 \mathcal{C}}{\partial s^2} = \Phi'(\omega) rac{\partial \omega}{\partial s} = \Phi'(\omega) rac{1}{s\sigma\sqrt{t}} > 0.$$

(c) By previous propositions, we have:

• 
$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial r} = Kte^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}) > 0;$$
  
•  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \sigma} = s\sqrt{t}\Phi'(\omega) > 0;$   
•  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{t}}s\Phi'(\omega) + Kre^{-rt}\Phi(\omega - \sigma\sqrt{t}) > 0.$ 

Each of the second derivatives can be shown to be sometimes positive and sometimes negative. So C is neither convex nor concave in r,  $\sigma$ or t.

## Remarks

- The results that C(s, t, K, σ, r) is decreasing and convex in K and increasing in t would be true no matter what model we assumed for the price evolution of the security.
- The results that C(s, t, K, σ, r) is increasing and convex in s, increasing in r and increasing in σ depend on the assumption that the price evolution follows a geometric Brownian motion with volatility parameter σ.
- The second partial derivative of *C* with respect to *s*, whose value is given by

$$\frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial s^2} = \Phi'(\omega) \frac{1}{s\sigma\sqrt{t}}$$

is called gamma.

### Subsection 5

### European Put Options

## No-Arbitrage Cost of European Options

• The put call option parity formula, in conjunction with the Black-Scholes equation, yields the unique no arbitrage cost of a European (*K*, *t*) put option:

$$P(s,t,K,r,\sigma) = C(s,t,K,r,\sigma) + Ke^{-rt} - s.$$

- This formula is useful for computational purposes.
- To determine monotonicity and convexity properties of  $P = P(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  we use the fact that  $P(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  must equal the expected return from the put under the risk neutral geometric Brownian motion process.
- Consequently, with Z being a standard normal random variable,

$$P(s,t,K,r,\sigma) = e^{-rt}E[(K - se^{(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2})t+\sigma\sqrt{t}Z})^+]$$
  
=  $E[(Ke^{-rt} - se^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}t+\sigma\sqrt{t}Z})^+].$ 

### Properties of P

- Consider Z fixed.
- The function  $(Ke^{-rt} se^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}t + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z})^+$  is decreasing and convex in *s*. For b > 0,  $(a - bs)^+$  is decreasing and convex in *s*.
- The function  $(Ke^{-rt} se^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}t + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z})^+$  is decreasing and convex in r. For a > 0,  $(ae^{-rt} - b)^+$  is decreasing and convex in r.
- The function  $(Ke^{-rt} se^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}t + \sigma\sqrt{t}Z})^+$  is increasing and convex in K. For a > 0,  $(aK - b)^+$  is increasing and convex in K.

# Properties of P (Cont'd)

- Because the preceding properties remain true when we take expectations, we infer the following:
  - $P(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  is decreasing and convex in s;
  - $P(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  is decreasing and convex in r;
  - $P(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  is increasing and convex in K.
- Because  $C(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  is increasing in  $\sigma$ , it follows
  - $P(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  is increasing in  $\sigma$ .
- $P(s, t, K, r, \sigma)$  is not necessarily increasing or decreasing in t.
- The partial derivatives of P(s, t, K, r, σ) can be obtained by using the corresponding partial derivatives of C(s, t, K, r, σ).