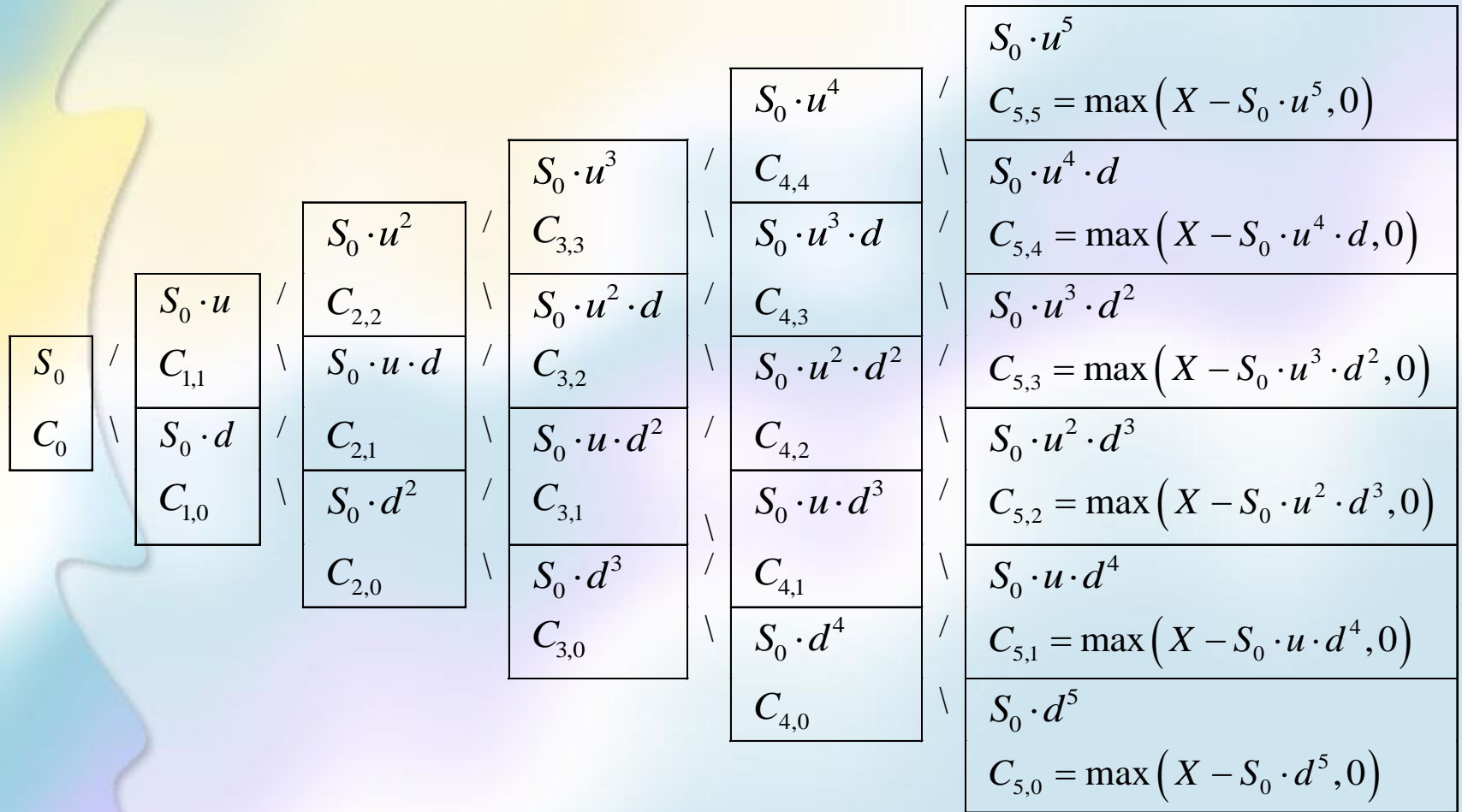


Binomial model: numerical algorithm



Binomial model: numerical algorithm

The calculations are performed as follows:

Start at the end of the tree (at time T). The lowest node has the value: $S_0 \cdot d^N$. Set the boundary condition in this node with respect to the option type, (see below).

For each node at the same time, calculate the next price by multiplying with u/d and use the same boundary condition C .

Next, go backward in the tree and calculate all possible stock prices as in the figure above, and thereafter the option value, C . We get:

Binomial model: numerical algorithm

American:

$$C_{4,4} = \max \left\{ X - S_0 u^4, e^{-r \cdot \Delta t} (P_u \cdot C_{5,5} + P_d \cdot C_{5,4}) \right\}$$

$$C_{4,3} = \max \left\{ X - S_0 u^3 d, e^{-r \cdot \Delta t} (P_u \cdot C_{5,4} + P_d \cdot C_{5,3}) \right\}$$

$$C_{4,2} = \max \left\{ X - S_0 \cdot u^2 \cdot d^2, e^{-r \cdot \Delta t} (P_u \cdot C_{5,3} + P_d \cdot C_{5,2}) \right\}$$

$$C_{4,0} = \max \left\{ X - S_0 \cdot d^4, e^{-r \cdot \Delta t} (P_u \cdot C_{5,1} + P_d \cdot C_{5,0}) \right\}$$

European:

$$C_{4,4} = e^{-r \cdot \Delta t} \cdot (P_u \cdot C_{5,5} + P_d \cdot C_{5,4})$$

$$C_{4,3} = e^{-r \cdot \Delta t} \cdot (P_u \cdot C_{5,4} + P_d \cdot C_{5,3})$$

$$C_{4,0} = e^{-r \cdot \Delta t} \cdot (P_u \cdot C_{5,1} + P_d \cdot C_{5,0})$$

Binomial model: The Greeks

$$\Delta = \frac{C_{1,1} - C_{1,0}}{S_0 \cdot u - S_0 \cdot d}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{\frac{C_{2,2} - C_{2,1}}{S_0 \cdot u^2 - S_0 \cdot u \cdot d} - \frac{C_{2,1} - C_{2,0}}{S_0 \cdot u \cdot d - S_0 \cdot d^2}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot (S_0 \cdot u^2 - S_0 \cdot d^2)}$$

$$\Theta = \frac{C_{2,1} - C_0}{2 \cdot \Delta t}$$

$$\vartheta = \frac{C_0(\sigma) - C_0(\sigma + \Delta\sigma)}{\Delta\sigma}$$

$$\rho = \frac{C_0(r) - C_0(r + \Delta r)}{\Delta r}$$

Binomial model: The Greeks

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial P}{\partial S} \quad \Gamma = \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial S^2}$$

$$\nu = \frac{\partial P}{\partial \sigma}$$

$$\Theta = \frac{\partial P}{\partial T}$$

$$\rho = \frac{\partial P}{\partial r}$$

Boundary conditions

At maturity we use the following conditions, depending on the option type with strike price X

$BC = \max(S - X, 0)$ Call option.

$BC = \max(X - S, 0)$ Put option.

The lowest price is

$$P_{\min}^{put} = X \cdot e^{-r \cdot T} - S$$

$$P_{\min}^{call} = S - X \cdot e^{-r \cdot T}$$

Example – American Put Option

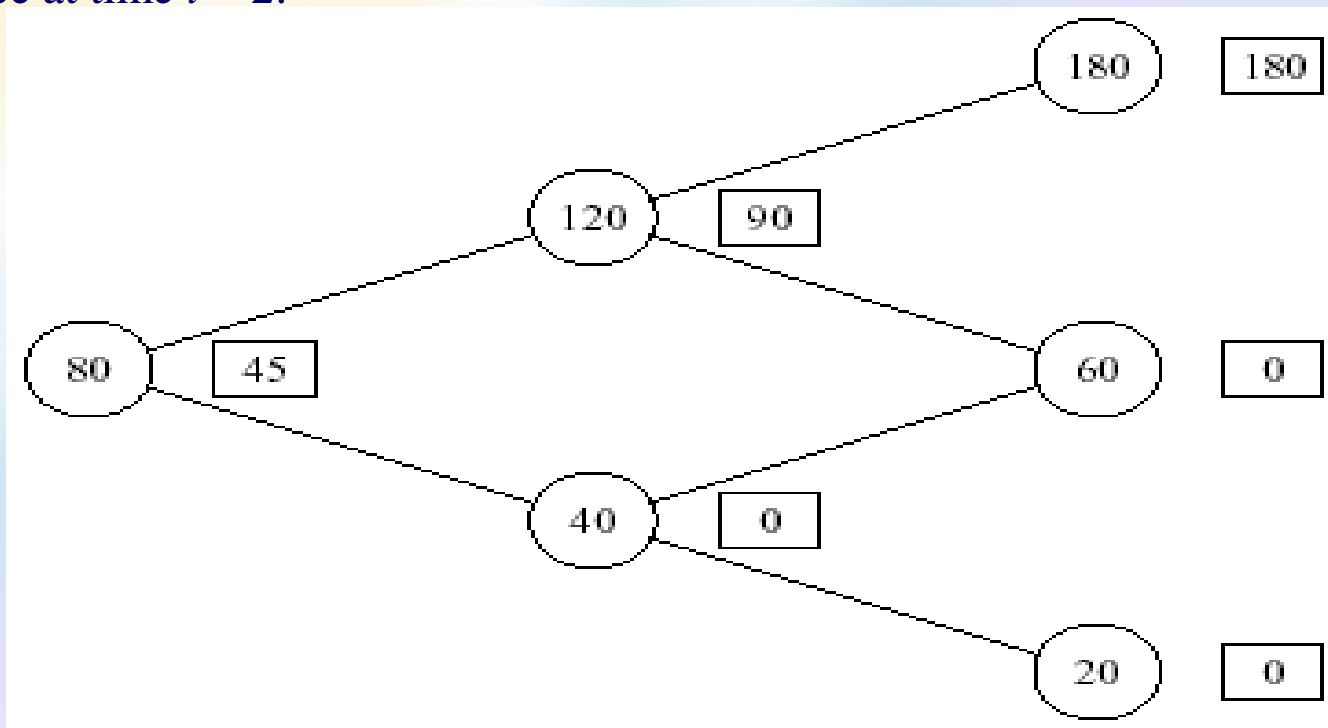
Compute the price of an American put option with strike price $K = 100$ and exercise time $T = 2$ years, using a binomial tree with two trading dates $t_1 = 0$ and $t_2 = 1$ (your portfolio at time $t_3 = 2$ is the same as your portfolio at time $t_2 = 1$) and parameters $s_0 = 100$, $u = 1.4$, $d = 0.8$, $r = 10\%$, and $p = 0.75$

Example – Replicating Portfolio

In the binomial tree below the price of a binary asset-or-nothing option with expiry in two years and payoff

$$X = \begin{cases} S(2) & \text{if } S(2) > 120 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

has been computed using the parameters $s_0 = 80$, $u = 1.5$, $d = 0.5$, $r = 0$, and $p = 0.50$. In the definition of the contract function $S(2)$ denotes the stock price at time $t = 2$.



Find the replicating portfolio for this option and verify that the option is self-financing.

Replicating Portfolio

We can use the values to calculate the replicating portfolio. At $t = 0$ the following must hold:

$$\begin{cases} x + y \cdot 120 = 90 \\ x + y \cdot 40 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Since regardless if the stock price goes up or down the value of the portfolio should equal the value of the option. This yields: $x = -45$ and $y = 9/8$. We can also use:

$$\begin{cases} x = \frac{1}{1+r} \frac{u \cdot \Phi(d) - d \cdot \Phi(u)}{u-d} = \frac{1}{1} \frac{1.5 \cdot 0 - 0.5 \cdot 90}{1.5 - 0.5} = -45 \\ y = \frac{1}{S_0} \frac{\Phi(u) - \Phi(d)}{u-d} = \frac{1}{80} \frac{90 - 0}{1.5 - 0.5} = \frac{9}{8} \end{cases}$$

The same calculations can be made to find the replicated portfolio in all the nodes, e.g., where $S = 120$:

$$\begin{cases} x = \frac{1}{1} \frac{1.5 \cdot 0 - 0.5 \cdot 180}{1.5 - 0.5} = -90 \\ y = \frac{1}{120} \frac{180 - 0}{1.5 - 0.5} = \frac{3}{2} \end{cases}$$

Probabilities in the model

$$S_{\max} = S_0 \cdot u^n = S_0 \cdot e^{n \cdot \sigma \cdot \sqrt{dt}} \quad u = e^{\sigma \cdot \sqrt{dt}}$$

$$S_{\min} = S_0 \cdot d^n = S_0 \cdot e^{-n \cdot \sigma \cdot \sqrt{dt}} \quad d = e^{-\sigma \cdot \sqrt{dt}}$$

$$P(S_{\max}) = P_u^n \quad \text{resp.} \quad P(S_{\min}) = P_d^n$$

					5, 5	1 path
				4, 4		
			3, 3		5, 4	5 paths
		2, 2		4, 3		
	1, 1		3, 2		5, 3	10 paths
0, 0		2, 1		4, 2		
	1, 0		3, 1		5, 2	10 paths
		2, 0		4, 1		
			3, 0		5, 1	5 paths
				4, 0		
					5, 0	1 path
t = 0	t = 1	t = 2	t = 3	t = 4	t = 5	

Finite difference methods

Parabolic boundary value problem of the Black-Scholes type :

$$-\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} S^2 \sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial S^2} + (r - \delta) S \frac{\partial C}{\partial S} - rC$$

If we let $x = \ln(S)$ we can rewrite the PDE by use of:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial S} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial S} = \frac{1}{S} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial S^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left(\frac{1}{S} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \right) = -\frac{1}{S^2} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{S} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial C}{\partial S} = -\frac{1}{S^2} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{S} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{S} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{S^2} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{S^2} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} \end{aligned}$$

Finite difference methods

$$-\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} + (r - \delta) \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} - rC$$

$$-\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} + \nu \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} - rC$$

where $\nu = r - \delta - 1/2\sigma^2$

By doing this we have removed the explicit dependencies of S and thereby get the coefficients independent of the stock price!!!

The explicit finite difference method

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{C_{i+1,j+1} - C_{i+1,j-1}}{2 \cdot \Delta x}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} = \frac{C_{i+1,j+1} - 2 \cdot C_{i+1,j} + C_{i+1,j-1}}{\Delta x^2}$$

Backward
differences

$$-\frac{C_{i+1,j} - C_{i,j}}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \frac{C_{i+1,j+1} - 2 \cdot C_{i+1,j} + C_{i+1,j-1}}{\Delta x^2} + v \cdot \frac{C_{i+1,j+1} - C_{i+1,j-1}}{2 \cdot \Delta x} - r \cdot C_{i+1,j}$$

$$C_{i,j} = \frac{1}{1 + r \cdot \Delta t} \left(p_u \cdot C_{i+1,j+1} + p_m \cdot C_{i+1,j} + p_d \cdot C_{i+1,j-1} \right)$$

$$p_u = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{v}{\Delta x} \right)$$

$$p_m = 1 - \Delta t \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2}$$

$$p_d = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2} - \frac{v}{\Delta x} \right)$$

$$\Delta x \geq \sigma \sqrt{3 \cdot \Delta t}$$

The implicit finite difference method

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{C_{i,j+1} - C_{i,j-1}}{2 \cdot \Delta x}$$

Forward differences

$$\frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} = \frac{C_{i,j+1} - 2 \cdot C_{i,j} + C_{i,j-1}}{\Delta x^2}$$

$$-\frac{C_{i+1,j} - C_{i,j}}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sigma^2 \cdot \frac{C_{i,j+1} - 2 \cdot C_{i,j} + C_{i,j-1}}{\Delta x^2} + \nu \cdot \frac{C_{i,j+1} - C_{i,j-1}}{2 \cdot \Delta x} - r \cdot C_{i+1,j}$$

$$p_u \cdot C_{i,j+1} + p_m \cdot C_{i,j} + p_d \cdot C_{i,j-1} = C_{i+1,j}$$

boundary conditions

$$C_{i,N_j} - C_{i,N_{j-1}} = \lambda_U$$

$$C_{i,-N_{j+1}} - C_{i,-N_j} = \lambda_L$$

$$p_u = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{\nu}{\Delta x} \right)$$

$$p_m = 1 + \Delta t \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2} + r \cdot \Delta t$$

$$p_d = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2} - \frac{\nu}{\Delta x} \right)$$

call

$$\lambda_U = S_{i,N_j} - S_{i,N_{j-1}}$$

$$\lambda_L = 0$$

put

$$\lambda_U = 0$$

$$\lambda_L = S_{i,-N_j} - S_{i,-N_{j+1}}$$

The implicit finite difference method

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 1 & -1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 \\
 p_u & p_m & p_d & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\
 0 & p_u & p_m & p_d & 0 & \dots & 0 \\
 \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
 0 & \dots & 0 & p_u & p_m & p_d & 0 \\
 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & p_u & p_m & p_d \\
 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 & 1 & -1
 \end{bmatrix}
 \begin{bmatrix}
 C_{i,N_j} \\
 C_{i,N_{j-1}} \\
 C_{i,N_{j-2}} \\
 \dots \\
 C_{i,-N_{j+2}} \\
 C_{i,-N_{j+1}} \\
 C_{i,-N_j}
 \end{bmatrix}
 =
 \begin{bmatrix}
 \lambda_U \\
 C_{i+1,N_{j-1}} \\
 C_{i+1,N_{j-2}} \\
 \dots \\
 C_{i+1,N_{j+2}} \\
 C_{i+1,N_{j+1}} \\
 \lambda_L
 \end{bmatrix}$$

Crank-Nicholson

$$-\frac{C_{i+1,j} - C_{i,j}}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sigma^2 \cdot \left(\frac{(C_{i+1,j+1} - 2 \cdot C_{i+1,j} + C_{i+1,j-1}) + (C_{i,j+1} - 2 \cdot C_{i,j} + C_{i,j-1})}{2\Delta x^2} \right) \\ + \nu \cdot \left(\frac{(C_{i+1,j+1} - C_{i+1,j-1}) + (C_{i,j+1} - C_{i,j-1})}{4 \cdot \Delta x} \right) - r \cdot \left(\frac{C_{i+1,j} + C_{i,j}}{2} \right)$$

$$p_u \cdot C_{i,j+1} + p_m \cdot C_{i,j} + p_d \cdot C_{i,j-1} = -p_u \cdot C_{i+1,j+1} - (p_m - 2) \cdot C_{i+1,j} + p_d \cdot C_{i+1,j-1}$$

$$p_u = -\frac{1}{4} \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{\nu}{\Delta x} \right)$$

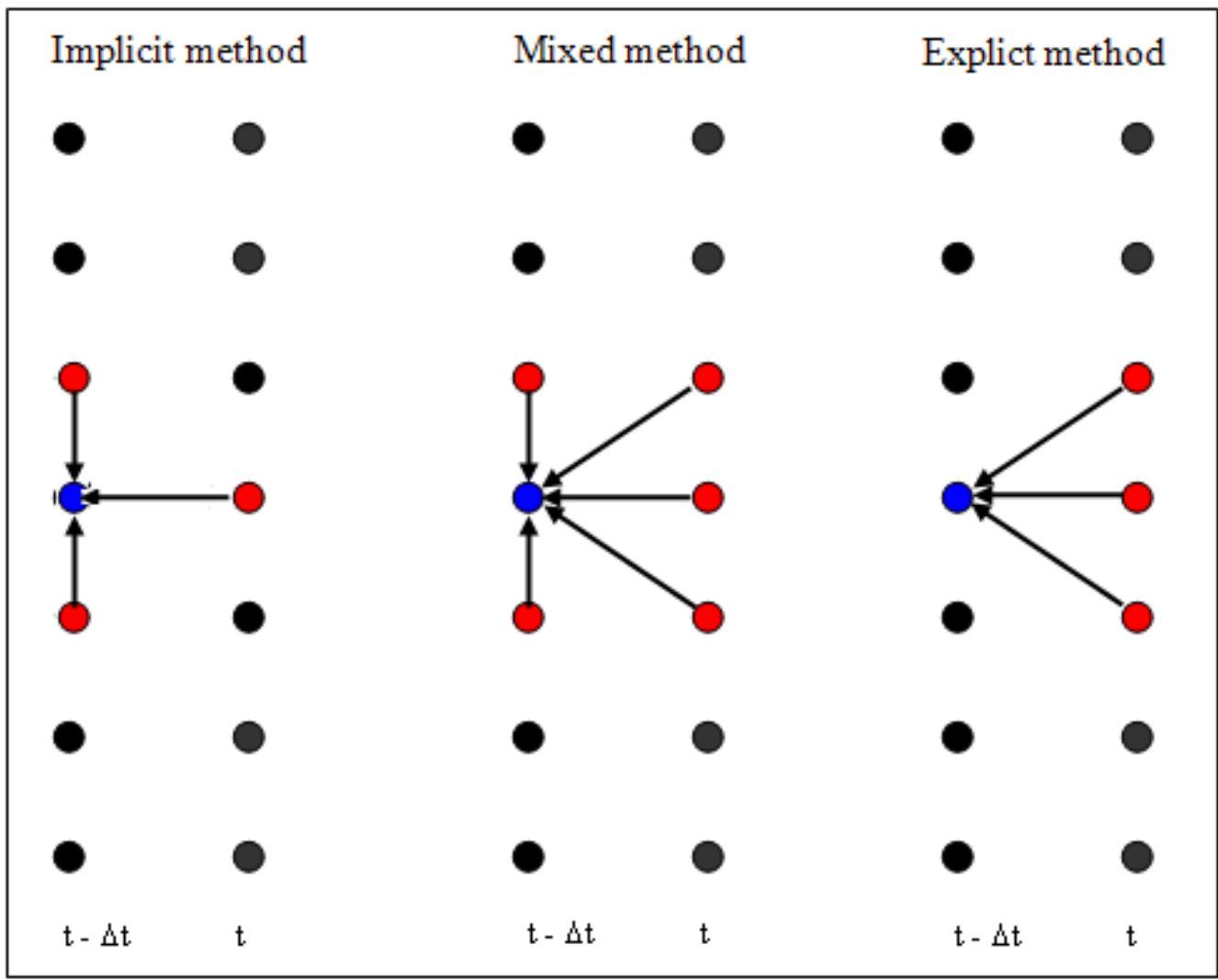
$$p_m = 1 + \Delta t \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{2 \cdot \Delta x^2} + \frac{r \cdot \Delta t}{2}$$

$$p_d = -\frac{1}{4} \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta x^2} - \frac{\nu}{\Delta x} \right)$$

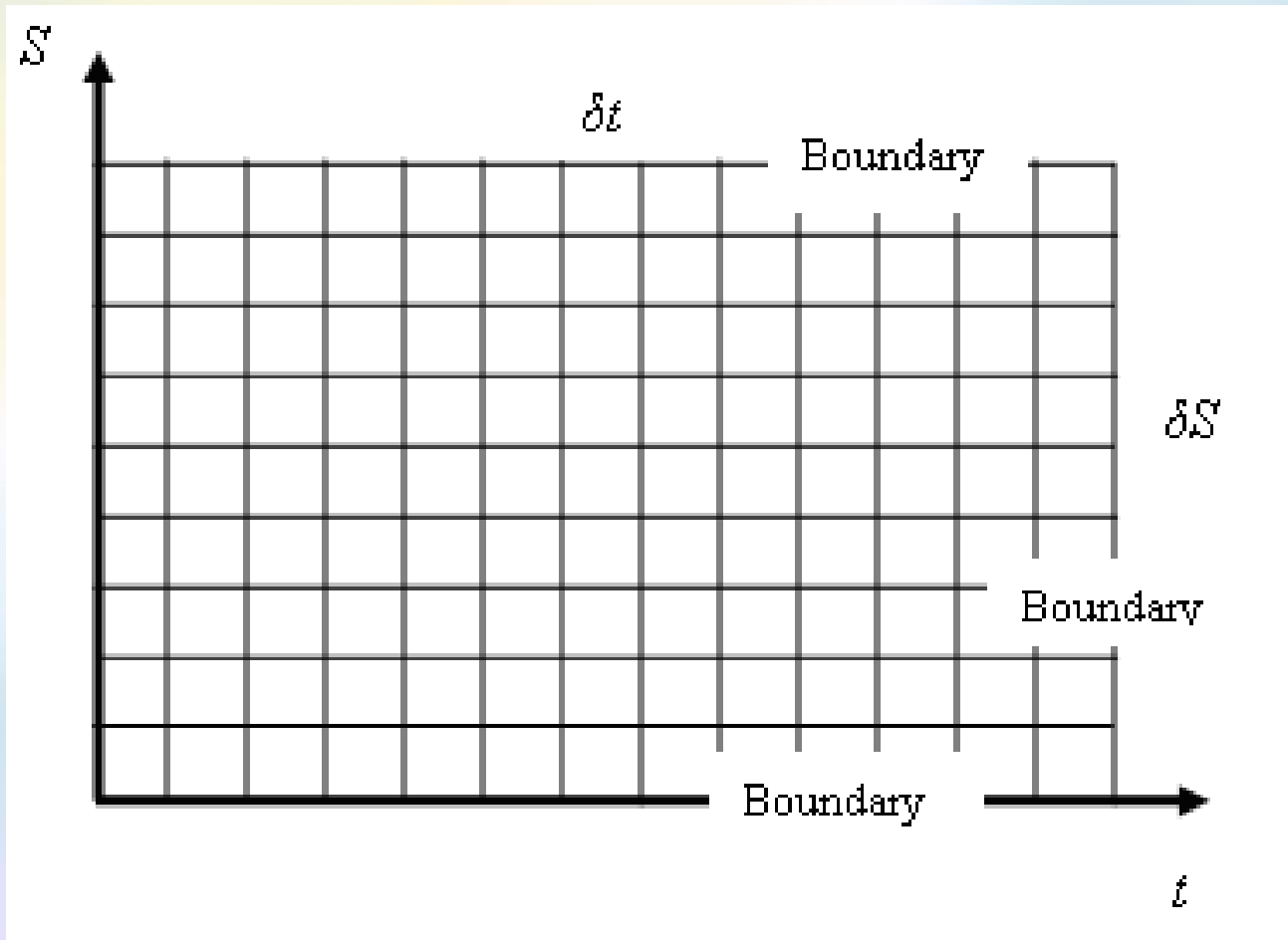
The accuracy in the methods above are:

$O(\Delta x + \Delta t)$, $O(\Delta x^2 + \Delta t)$ and $O(\Delta x^2 + (\Delta t/2)^2)$ respectively.

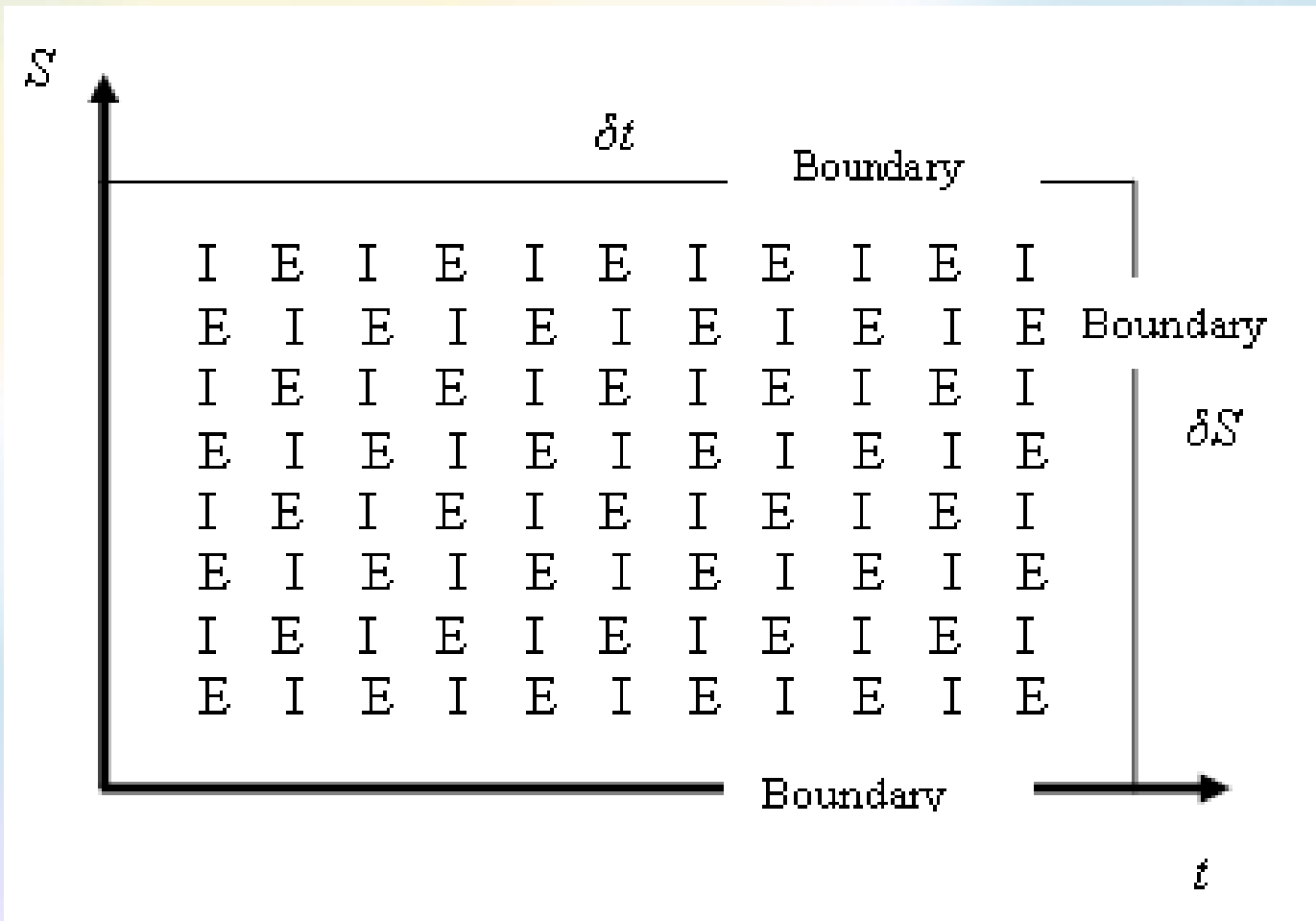
Schema - Finite Difference



The Hopscotch method



The Hopscotch method



Monte-Carlo Simulations

The stock price is simulated by a stochastic process:

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \sigma S_t dz_t$$

For simplicity, study the natural logarithm of the stock price: $x_t = \ln(S_t)$ which gives:

$$dx_t = \nu dt + \sigma dz_t$$

$$\nu = r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 \quad \rightarrow$$

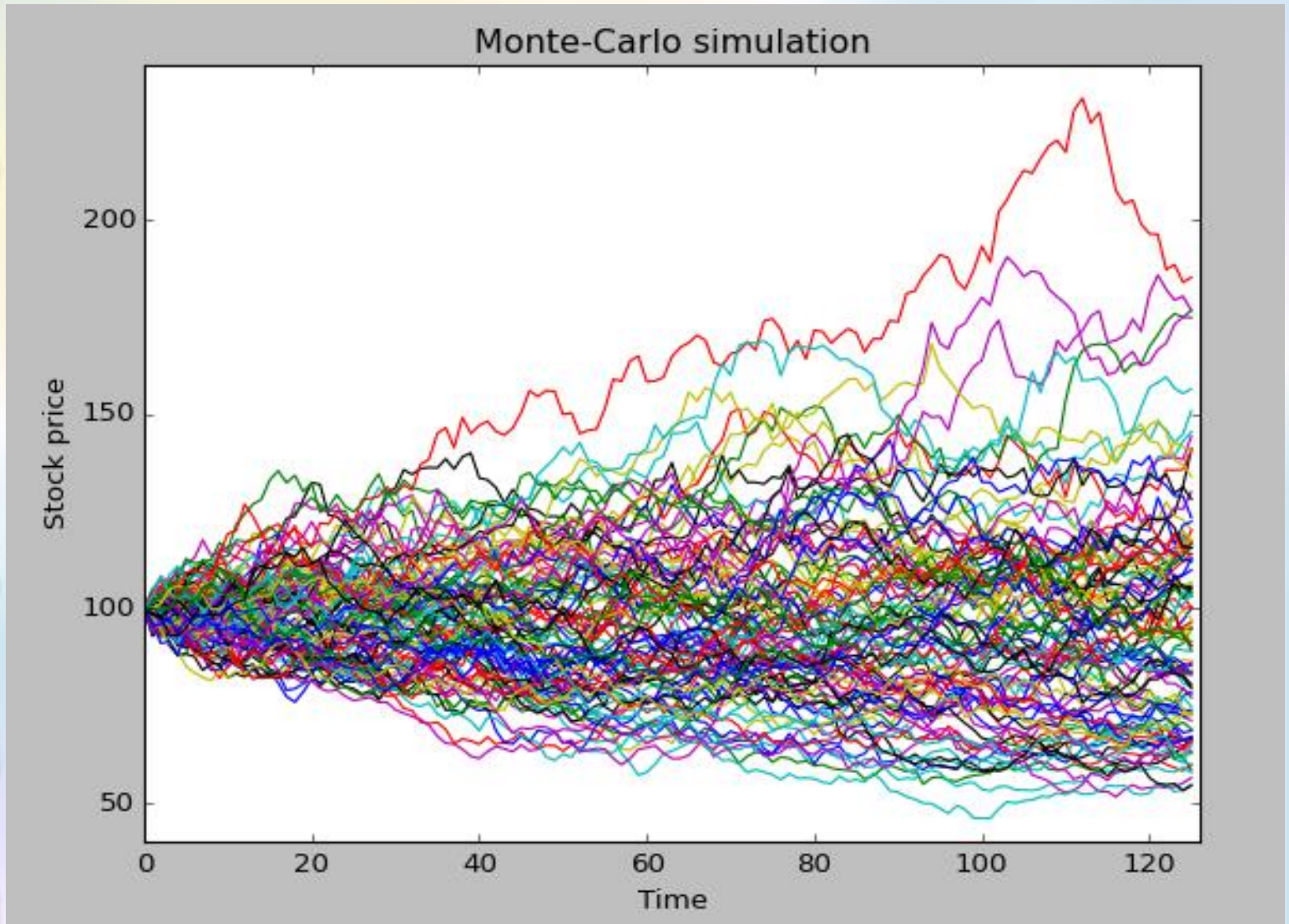
$$x_{t+\Delta t} = x_t + \nu\Delta t + \sigma(z_{t+\Delta t} - z_t) \quad z_{t+\Delta t} - z_t = \sqrt{\Delta t} \cdot \varepsilon \quad \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{cases} x_{t_i} = x_{t_{i-1}} + \nu\Delta t + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t} \cdot \varepsilon \\ S_{t_i} = \exp(x_{t_i}) \end{cases}$$

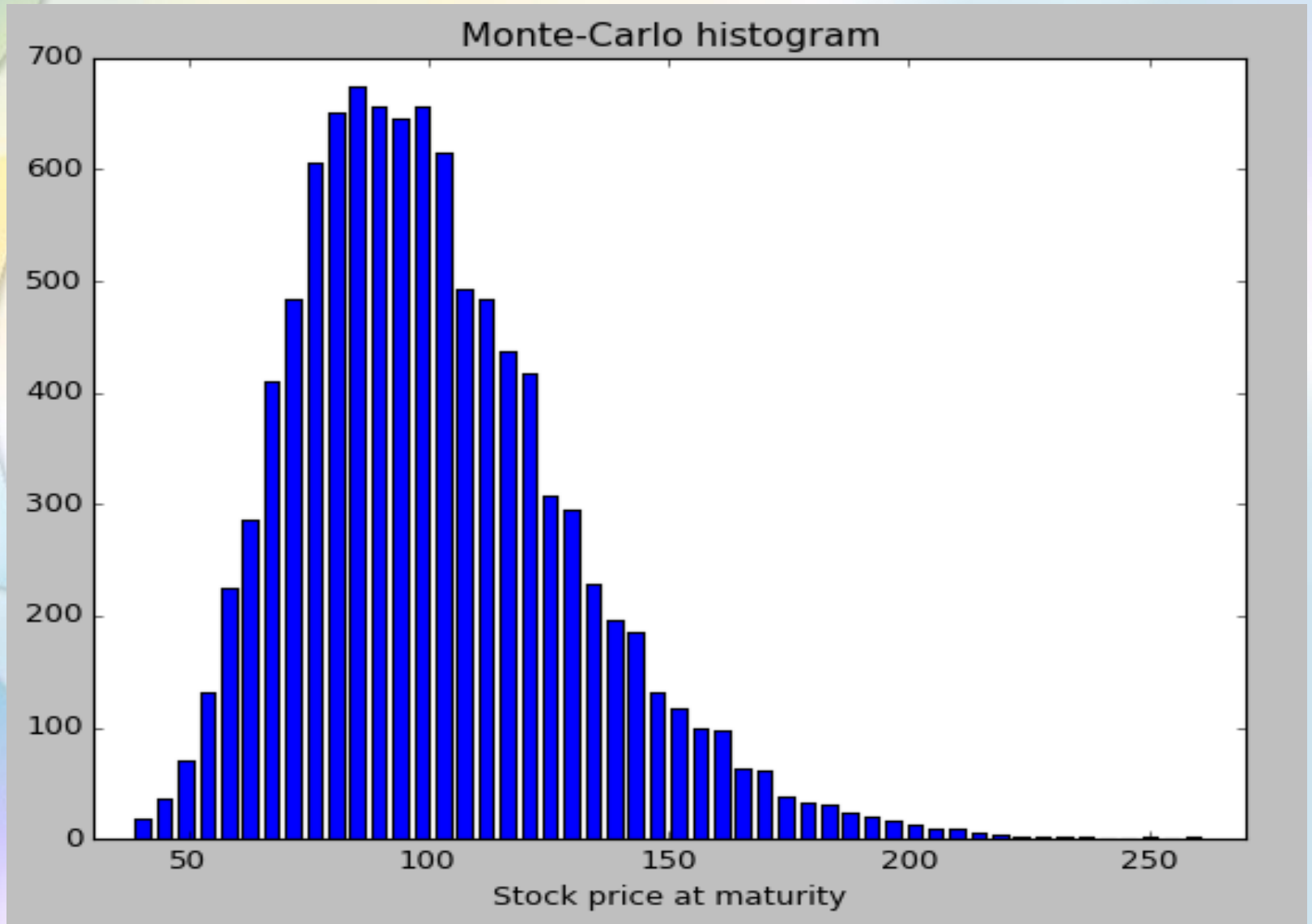
Monte-Carlo Simulations

In the figure below, we show 100 such simulations of the stock price during a half of a year divided into 100 intervals. At the starting time, the stock price is 100, the volatility is 40% and the risk-free interest rate 6%.

Monte-Carlo Simulations



Monte-Carlo Simulations (10 000)



Monte-Carlo Simulations

For each scenario, we then calculate the profit of the call options as: $\max(S_T - X, 0)$. To find the theoretical option value we calculate the mean value of the discounted pay-off:

$$C_0 = \exp(-rT) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \max(S_{T,i} - X, 0)$$

where X is the strike price of the option. The standard deviation (SD) and the standard error (SE) of the simulations is given by: (Remember: the annualized volatility σ is the standard deviation of the instrument's yearly logarithmic returns.)

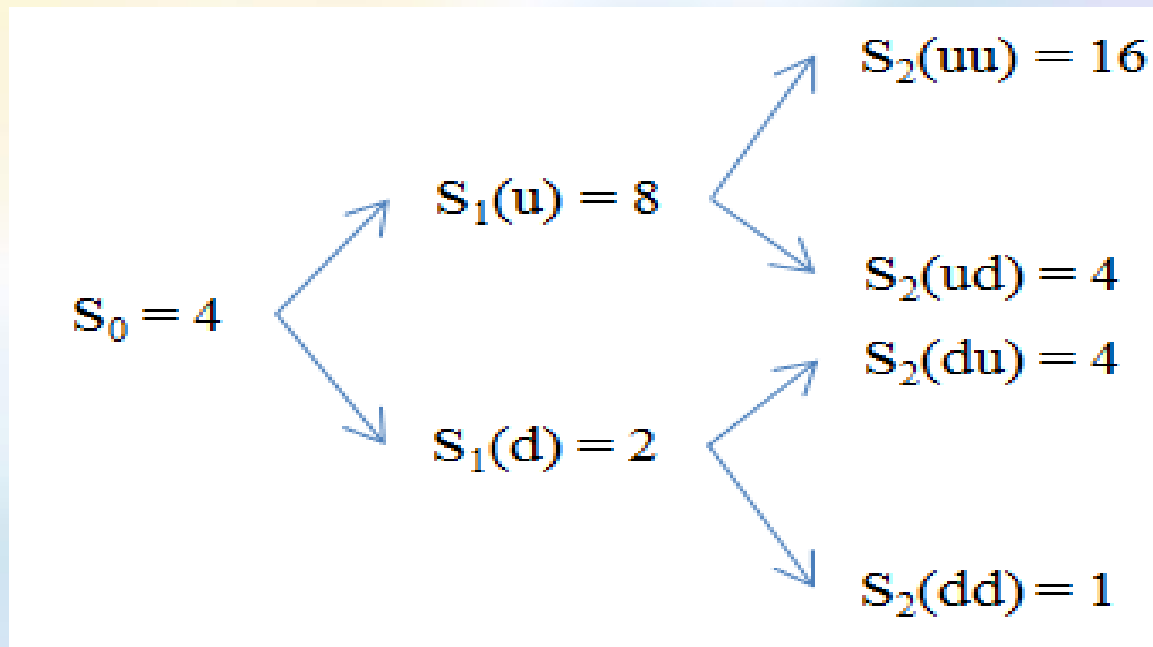
$$SD = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{1}{N-1} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (C_{T,i})^2 - \frac{1}{N} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N C_{T,i} \right)^2} \cdot \exp(-2rT)$$

$$SE = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Introduction to probability theory

Study a Binomial tree with the following properties:

$$u = 2 \Rightarrow d = 1/u = 0.5, S_0 = 4 \text{ and } P_u = P_d = 1/2.$$



where $S_2(uu) = u^2 S_0$, $S_2(ud) = ud S_0, \dots$

Introduction to probability theory

If we are tossing a coin one, two and three times, we get the following **sample space**:

$$\Omega_1 = \{u, d\} = \{\omega_1\},$$

$$\Omega_2 = \{uu, ud, du, dd\} = \{\omega_2\},$$

$$\Omega_3 = \{uuu, uud, udu, duu, udd, dud, ddu, ddd\} = \{\omega_3\}$$

Introduce the **interest rate r** : 1 CU (cash unit) $\rightarrow (1 + r) \cdot 1$ CU $= 1 \cdot R$ CU. The factor R must be in the interval: $d \leq R \leq u$ because if $R > u$ nobody should be interested to buy the stock, if $R < d$ then $r < 0$ which is unrealistic.

Statement: We say that the model above is free of arbitrage if:
 $d \leq R \leq u$.

Introduction to probability theory

Example: Let us study a European call option with strike K at $t = 1$. On maturity, the value is given by:

$$V_1(\omega) = (S_1(\omega) - K)^+ = \max(S_1(\omega) - K, 0)$$

We are looking for the arbitrage-free price. The two possible outcome, u and d are given by:

$$V_1(\omega) = \begin{cases} (uS_0 - K)^+ & \text{if } \omega_1 = u \\ (dS_0 - K)^+ & \text{if } \omega_1 = d \end{cases}$$

To hedge a short position of the option we have to buy Δ_0 stocks. At $t = 0$ we have then sold the option, giving us V_0 cash units. But we also buy Δ_0 stocks at S_0 . We then have $(V_0 - \Delta_0 S_0)$ cash units to put in the bank (or that's what we had to borrow, depending of the sign) at a rate of r , where $R = 1 + r$. The value process gives us two possible values on maturity:

Introduction to probability theory

$$V_1(u) = \Delta_0 \cdot S_1(u) + R \cdot (V_0 - \Delta_0 \cdot S_0)$$

$$V_1(d) = \Delta_0 \cdot S_1(d) + R \cdot (V_0 - \Delta_0 \cdot S_0)$$

We get

$$\Delta_0 = \frac{V_1(u) - V_1(d)}{S_1(u) - S_1(d)} \rightarrow \frac{\partial V}{\partial S}$$

By inserting Δ_0 into the equation above, we find the price of the option at $t = 0$:

$$V_0 = \frac{1}{R} \left\{ \frac{R-d}{u-d} V_1(u) - \frac{R-u}{u-d} V_1(d) \right\} = \frac{1}{R} \{q_u \cdot V_1(u) + q_d \cdot V_1(d)\} = \frac{1}{R} E^Q [V_1]$$

where we have defined p and q as the **risk-neutral probabilities**:

$$q_u = \frac{R-d}{u-d} \quad q_d = -\frac{R-u}{u-d}$$

Introduction to probability theory

We let the expression

$$\Pi[X] = \frac{1}{R} E^Q[X]$$

represent the arbitrage free price on the option on the contingent claim X with respect to the risk-neutral probability measure Q , the martingale measure. Similar, we get

$$V_1(u) = \frac{1}{R} \{p \cdot V_2(uu) + q \cdot V_2(ud)\}; \quad \Delta_1(u) = \frac{V_2(uu) - V_2(ud)}{S_2(uu) - S_2(ud)}$$
$$V_1(d) = \frac{1}{R} \{p \cdot V_2(du) + q \cdot V_2(dd)\}; \quad \Delta_1(d) = \frac{V_2(du) - V_2(dd)}{S_2(du) - S_2(dd)}$$

and so on.....

Finite Probability Spaces

Let \mathcal{F} be the set of all subsets to the sample space:

$$\Omega (\emptyset, \{ddd\}, \{uuu, uud, udu, ddd\},$$

Ω are examples of some) where \emptyset is the empty set. Then, we define a **probability measure** P by a function mapping \mathcal{F} into the interval $[0, 1]$ with $P(\Omega) = 1$, where

$$P\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(A_k)$$

and A_1, A_2, \dots is a sequence of disjoint sets in \mathcal{F} . Probability measures has the following interpretation: Let A be a subset of \mathcal{F} . Imagine that Ω is the set of all possible outcomes of some random experiment. There is a certain probability, between 0 and 1, that when that experiment is performed, the outcome will lie in the set A . We think of $P(A)$ as this probability. From now we will use $P_u = 1/3$ and $P_d = 2/3$.

σ -algebra

Definition: A **σ -algebra** is a collection \mathcal{F} of sub sets in Ω with the following three properties:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \emptyset \in \mathcal{F} \\ A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F} \\ A_1, A_2, \dots \text{ is a sequence of subspaces to } \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \bigcup_k A_k \in \mathcal{F} \end{array} \right.$$

It is essential to understand that, in probabilistic terms, the σ -algebra can be interpreted as "containing all relevant information" about a random variable.

σ -algebra

Example: Some important σ -algebras to Ω above is:

$$\mathcal{F}_0 = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, \{uuu, uud, udu, udd\}, \{duu, dud, ddu, ddd\}\}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_2 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, \{uuu, uud\}, \{udu, udd\}, \{duu, dud\}, \{ddu, ddd\}\}$$

and all unions of these

$$\mathcal{F}_3 = \mathcal{F} = \text{the set of all sub sets of } \Omega.$$

We say that \mathcal{F}_3 is **finer** than \mathcal{F}_2 , which is finer than \mathcal{F}_1 .

If we introduce the terms $A_u = \{uuu, uud, udu, udd\} = \{u^{**}\}$,

$$A_d = \{d^{**}\},$$

$A_{uu} = \{uu^*\}$ etc, we can write:

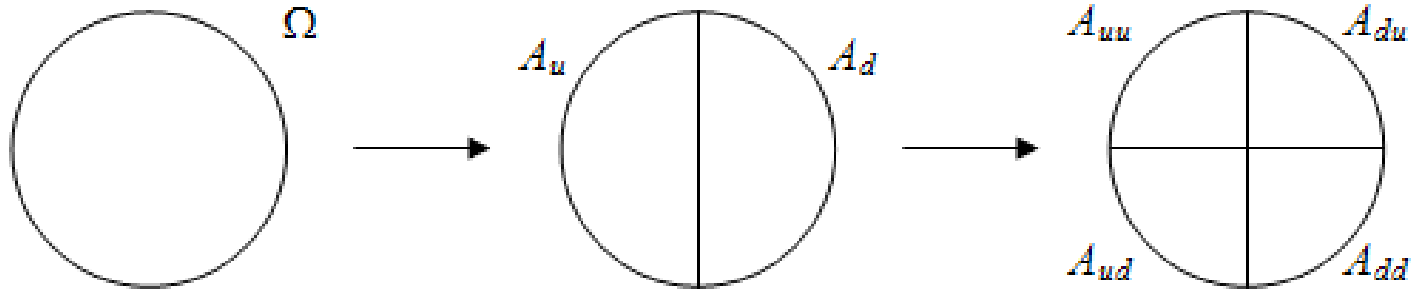
$$\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, A_u, A_d\}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_2 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, A_u, A_d, A_{uu}, A_{ud}, A_{du}, A_{dd}, A_{uu}^c, A_{ud}^c, A_{du}^c, A_{dd}^c, A_{uu}UA_{du}, A_{uu}UA_{dd}, A_{ud}UA_{du}, A_{ud}UA_{dd}, A_{uu}^c, A_{ud}^c, A_{du}^c, A_{dd}^c\}$$

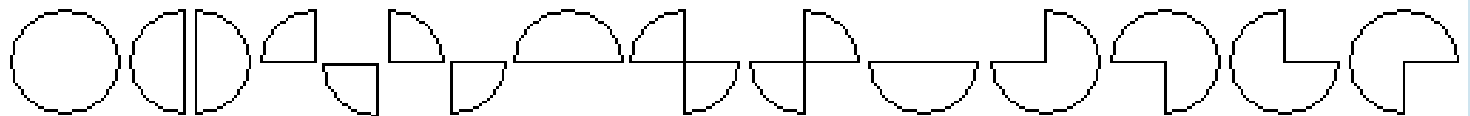
Filtrations

$$\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, A_w, A_d\}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_2 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, A_w, A_d, A_{uw}, A_{ud}, A_{dw}, A_{dd}, A_{uu}UA_{dw}, A_{uu}UA_{dd}, A_{ud}UA_{dw}, A_{ud}UA_{dd}, A_{uu}^c, A_{ud}^c, A_{du}^c, A_{dd}^c\}$$



\mathcal{F}_2 :



Measures

Definition: A pair (X, \mathcal{F}) , where X is a set and \mathcal{F} an σ -algebra on X is called a **measurable space**. The sub-spaces that exist in \mathcal{F} are called **\mathcal{F} -measurable** sets.

In particular, if a random variable Y is a function of X , $Y = \Phi(X)$, then Y is \mathcal{F}^X -measurable.

Definition: A **finite measure** μ on a measurable space is a function such as:

(i) $\mu(A) \geq 0$,

(ii) $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$,

(iii) If $A_k \in \mathcal{F} \forall k = 1, 2, \dots$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_k)$$

Some definitions

Definition: A **filtration** $\mathcal{F}_\infty = \underline{\mathcal{F}} = \{ \mathcal{F}_t; t \geq 0 \}$ is a sequence of σ -algebras $\mathcal{F}_0, \mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_n$ such that \mathcal{F}_t contains all sets in \mathcal{F}_{t-1} :

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{F}_t \subseteq \mathcal{F} & \forall t \geq 0 \\ s \leq t \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}_s \in \mathcal{F}_t \end{cases}$$

If we consider a finite probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with the filtration of σ -algebras sometimes called **σ -fields**.

Definition: X is **$\underline{\mathcal{F}}$ -adapted** if X_t is \mathcal{F}_t -measurable for all $t \geq 0$.

Definition: A function $f: X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is said to be **\mathcal{F} -measurable** if for each interval I the set $f^{-1}(I)$ is \mathcal{F} -measurable, i.e.:

$$\{x \in X \mid f(x) \in I\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

Definition: A **stochastic variable** X is a mapping of Ω on R :

$$X : \Omega \rightarrow R \text{ so that } X \text{ is } \mathcal{F}\text{-measurable}$$

Stochastic Process

Definition: A **stochastic process** can be considered as a discrete set of time indexed random variables or, as in time, a continuous set . In many situations we consider such a process containing a **drift** μ and **diffusion** σ :

$$X(t + \Delta t) - X(t) = \mu[t, X(t)] \Delta t + \sigma[t, X(t)]Z(t)$$

Sometimes this is interpreted as a random process (a random walk) upon a deterministic drift. In the continuous limit the random process becomes a Wiener process.

Wiener Process

Definition: A stochastic process $\{W(t); t \geq 0\}$ is called a **Wiener process** if:

1. $W(0) = 0$
2. $(W(u) - W(t))$ and $(W(s) - W(r))$ are independent (i.e. W have independent increments) $r \leq s \leq t \leq u$.
3. $W(t) - W(s)$ is normal distributed $N[0, \sqrt{t-s}]$ ". $t \leq s$
4. $W(t)$ have continuous trajectories.

A very important property of a Wiener process (a Brownian motion) is $(dW)^2 = dt$.

In risk neutral valuation, we have a risk-free bond and a stock following the process:

$$dS(t) = \alpha(t)S(t)dt + \sigma(t)S(t)dW(t)$$

Expectation value

Definition: The **expectation value** (or mean value) of X given (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is:

$$E[X] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega)P\{\omega\}$$

in the discrete case and

$$E[X] = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega)dP\{\omega\}$$

in the continuous case.

Variance

Definition: The **Variance of X**:

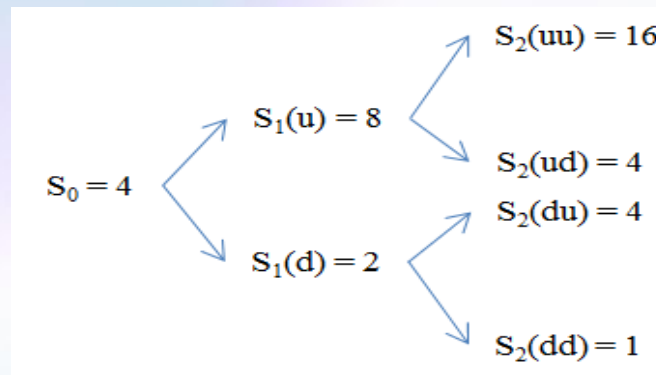
$$\text{Var}[X] = \int_{\Omega} [X(\omega) - E[X]]^2 dP\{\omega\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}[X] &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} (X(\omega) - E[X(\omega)])^2 P\{\omega\} = \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - E[X(\omega)])^2 \mu_X(x_k) = \\ &= E\left[(X(\omega) - E[X(\omega)])^2 \right] = E[X^2(\omega)] - (E[X(\omega)])^2 \end{aligned}$$

Example

Example: Calculate $E[S_3]$

$$\begin{aligned} E[S_3] &= S_2(uuu)P\{uuu\} + S_2(uud)P\{uud\} + S_2(udu)P\{udu\} + S_2(udd)P\{udd\} + \\ &\quad S_2(duu)P\{duu\} + S_2(duu)P\{duu\} + S_2(dud)P\{dud\} + S_2(ddd)P\{ddd\} \\ &= 16 \cdot P(A_{uu}) + 4 \cdot P(A_{ud} \cup A_{du}) + P(A_{dd}) \\ &= 16 \cdot P\{S_2 = 16\} + 4 \cdot P\{S_2 = 4\} + P\{S_2 = 1\} \\ &= 16 \cdot \mu_{S_2}\{16\} + 4 \cdot \mu_{S_2}\{4\} + \mu_{S_2}\{1\} = 16 \cdot \frac{1}{9} + 4 \cdot \frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = \frac{36}{9} = 4 \end{aligned}$$



Indicator function

Definition: An **indicator function** I defined by:

$$I_A(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \notin A \\ 1 & x \in A \end{cases}$$

where A is called a **set indicated by** I_A .

Definition: A function h is called **simple** if

$$h(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k I_k(x)$$

Probability spaces

A Probability spaces is defined by (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , where:

- Ω is a non empty set, sample space, which contains all possible outcomes of some random experiment.
- \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra of all subsets of Ω .
- P is a probability measure on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) which assigns to each set $A \in \mathcal{F}$ a number $P(A) \in [0, 1]$, which represent the probability that the outcome of the random experiment lies in A .

Given (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and a stochastic variable X . If X is a indicator function (e.g., $X(\omega) = I_A(\omega) = 1$ if $\omega \in A$ and 0 otherwise) then:

$$\int_{\Omega} X dP = P(A)$$

If X is simple

$$\int_{\Omega} X dP = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k \int_{\Omega} I_{A_k} dP = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k P(A_k) \quad \int_A X dP = \int_{\Omega} X \cdot I_A dP$$