

## 2 Multi Period Binary Model

In Section 1 we introduced the single period binary model with trading dates  $t = 0, T$ . This model involved cash as a risk free asset with rate of return  $r$  and a stock as a risky asset. The return on the stock is a random variable with two values  $u > d$ , where

$$K = \frac{S(T) - S(0)}{S(0)} = \begin{cases} u & \text{with probability } p, \\ d & \text{with probability } 1 - p, \end{cases} ,$$

so that  $S^u(1) = S(0)(1 + u)$  and  $S^d(1) = S(0)(1 + d)$ . The necessary condition (1.4) for the lack of arbitrage established in the proof of Proposition 10 can then be written as

$$d < r < u$$

and formula (1.3) for the risk neutral probability becomes

$$p^* = \frac{r - d}{u - d}.$$

We shall now consider a model with  $N$  periods of equal length  $\delta = \frac{T}{N}$  between times 0 and  $T > 0$ , corresponding to  $N + 1$  trading dates  $0, \delta, 2\delta, \dots, (N - 1)\delta, T$ . The rate of return for a risk free cash investment over each of the  $N$  time periods of length  $\delta = \frac{T}{N}$  will be  $r$ , so that a unit of cash invested at this rate at time 0 will be worth  $(1 + r)^n$  at time  $n\delta$ . To model the stock prices, we take a sequence of independent identically distributed (iid) random variables  $K_1, \dots, K_N$ , such that for each  $n = 1, \dots, N$

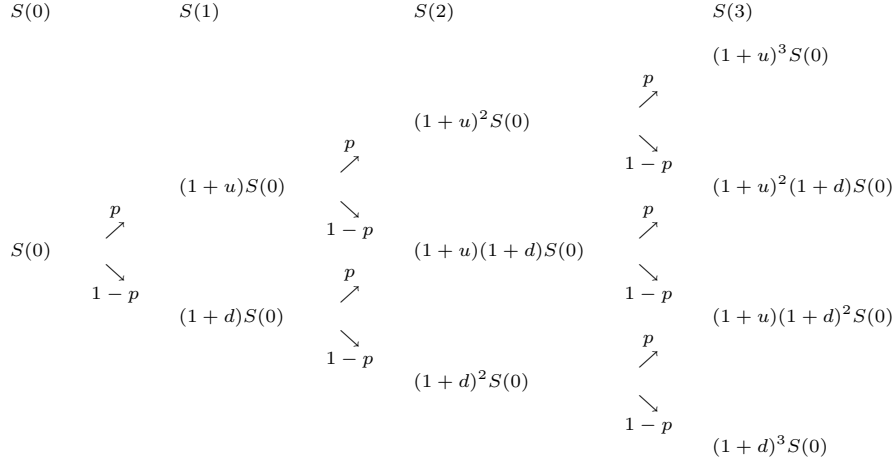
$$K_n = \begin{cases} u & \text{with probability } p, \\ d & \text{with probability } 1 - p. \end{cases}$$

and construct the stock prices by

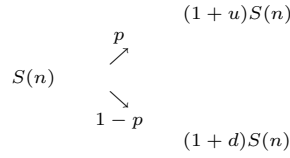
$$\begin{aligned} S(\delta) &= (1 + K_1)S(0), \\ S(2\delta) &= (1 + K_2)S(\delta), \\ &\vdots \\ S(T) &= (1 + K_N)S((N - 1)\delta). \end{aligned}$$

To simplify the notation, we shall often write  $S(n)$  instead of  $S(n\delta)$  for  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$ .

The stock prices can be represented by a tree. For example, for  $N = 3$



Every subtree of the form



has the same structure as the single period tree in Section 1.

The probability space behind this model can be identified with

$$\Omega = \{u, d\}^N,$$

which consists of  $N$ -element sequences  $\omega = \omega_1\omega_2 \cdots \omega_N$  of symbols  $\omega_n \in \{u, d\}$  for  $n = 1, \dots, N$ . There are  $2^N$  elements in this  $\Omega$ .

The objective market probability  $P$  on  $\Omega$  is such that

$$P(\omega) = p^n(1-p)^{N-n},$$

for any sequence  $\omega \in \Omega$ , where  $n$  is the number of  $u$ 's appearing in the sequence. The random variables  $K(n)$  for  $n = 1, \dots, N$  can be defined by

$$K(n, \omega) = \begin{cases} u & \text{if } \omega_n = u, \\ d & \text{if } \omega_n = d. \end{cases}$$

The risk neutral probability can be written as

$$P^*(\omega) = p^{*n}(1-p^*)^{N-n},$$

and for the stock price we have

$$S(n, \omega) = S(0)(1+u)^n(1+d)^{N-n},$$

for  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$ , where  $n$  is the number of  $u$ 's appearing in the sequence  $\omega \in \Omega$ . We shall often write  $S^\omega(n)$  instead of  $S(n, \omega)$ .

This multi period binary tree model of a financial market is sometimes called the *Cox-Ross-Rubinstein* (CRR) model. It has three parameters  $r, u, d$ , which need to be matched to market data. This matching procedure is called *calibration*.

## 2.1 European Options and the CRR Formula

Consider a European option with exercise time  $N$  and payoff  $h(S(N))$ .

The term 'European' means that the option can be exercised only at time  $N$ , when the holder is entitled to receive the payoff  $h(S(N))$ . (There is also another class of options which can be exercised at any time up to and including time  $N$ . They are called American options and will be briefly discussed later.)

The option price  $D(n)$  for  $n = N, \dots, 0$  can then be computed by backward induction as follows:

- At time  $N$  put

$$D(N) = h(S(N)). \quad (2.1)$$

- If for some  $n = 1, \dots, N$  we have already computed  $D(n)$  has already each node at time  $n$ , then consider the single period subtree

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & S^u(n) = (1 + u)S(n - 1) \\ & \nearrow & \\ S(n - 1) & & \\ & \searrow & \\ & & S^d(n) = (1 + d)S(n - 1) \end{array}$$

and put

$$D(n - 1) = \frac{1}{1 + r} [p^* D^u(n) + (1 - p^*) D^d(n)]. \quad (2.2)$$

Proceeding in this way, we shall eventually reach the option price  $D(0)$ .

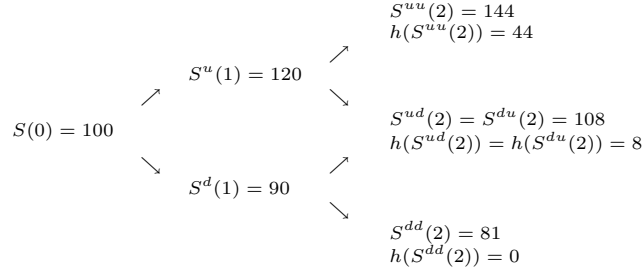
**Example 13** In a two period binary tree model, i.e. a model with  $N = 2$ , and with initial stock price  $S(0) = 100$  and parameters

$$r = 0.1, \quad u = 0.2, \quad d = -0.1,$$

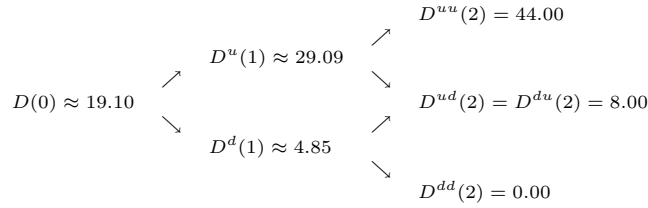
consider a European call option with strike price  $K = 100$  and exercise time  $N = 2$ . To price the option, we first compute the risk neutral probability

$$p^* = \frac{r - d}{u - d} = \frac{0.1 - (-0.1)}{0.2 - (-0.1)} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

We then build the tree of stock prices, and list values for the payoff of the European option:



Next, we can construct the tree of option prices using (2.1) and (2.2):



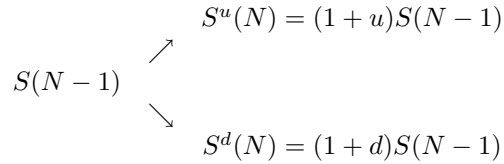
**Proposition 14** *The option price  $D(0)$  is the expectation under the risk neutral probability of the discounted payoff, namely*

$$D(0) = \frac{1}{(1+r)^N} \mathbb{E}^*(h(S(N))). \quad (2.3)$$

**Proof outline** We know that

$$D(N) = h(S(N)).$$

We also know how to find the option value  $D(N-1)$  at time  $N-1$ , since this involves just a single period binary model like this:



We have, therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(N-1) &= \frac{1}{1+r} [p^* D^u(N) + (1-p^*) D^d(N)] \\
 &= \frac{1}{1+r} [p^* h((1+u)S(N-1)) + (1-p^*) h((1+d)S(N-1))].
 \end{aligned}$$

Next we take one more step back to determine  $D(N-2)$ . The tree fragment looks like this:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 S(N-2) \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \\ \searrow \end{array} \\
 \begin{array}{l} S^u(N-1) = (1+u)S(N-2) \\ S^d(N-1) = (1+d)S(N-2) \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(N-2) &= \frac{1}{1+r} [p^* D^u(N-1) + (1-p^*) D^d(N-1)] \\
 &= \frac{1}{(1+r)^2} [p^* (p^* h((1+u)^2 S(N-2)) + (1-p^*) h((1+u)(1+d)S(N-2))) \\
 &\quad + (1-p^*) (h((1+u)(1+d)S(N-2)) + (1+d)^2 S(N-2))] \\
 &= \frac{1}{(1+r)^2} [p^* h((1+u)^2 S(N-2)) + 2p^*(1-p^*) h((1+u)(1+d)S(N-2)) \\
 &\quad + (1-p^*) h((1+d)^2 S(N-2))]
 \end{aligned}$$

Proceeding this way by backward induction, we can find eventually that

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(0) &= \frac{1}{(1+r)^N} \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^{*n} (1-p^*)^{N-n} h((1+u)^n (1+d)^{N-n} S(0)) \\
 &= \frac{1}{(1+r)^N} \mathbb{E}^*(h(S(N))).
 \end{aligned}$$

■

**Example 15** (Example 13 continued) We can compute the option price directly from (2.3):

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(0) &= \frac{1}{(1+r)^N} \mathbb{E}^*(h(S(2))) \\
 &= \frac{1}{(1.1)^2} \left[ \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 \times 44 + 2 \times \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{3} \times 8 + \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \times 0 \right] \\
 &\approx 19.10.
 \end{aligned}$$

**Corollary 16** *In particular, for a call option with strike price  $K$  and exercise time  $N$  we obtain the famous Cox-Ross-Rubinstein (CRR) formula*

$$\begin{aligned}
 C(0) &= \frac{1}{(1+r)^N} \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^{*n} (1-p^*)^{N-n} \max(0, S(0)(1+u)^n (1+d)^{N-n} - K) \\
 &= \frac{1}{(1+r)^N} \sum_{n=n_0}^N \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^{*n} (1-p^*)^{N-n} (S(0)(1+u)^n (1+d)^{N-n} - K),
 \end{aligned}$$

where summation starts with the smallest number  $n_0$  such that

$$S(0)(1+u)^{n_0}(1+d)^{N-n_0} > K.$$

### 2.1.1 Replication in the Multi Period Binary Model

In this case, when a replicating portfolio is created at time 0, it is then possible to rebalance the positions in a portfolio at each intermediate trading date between times 0 and  $N$ . As a result, a sequence of portfolios  $(x_n, y_n)$  for  $n = 1, \dots, N$  should be considered, where  $(x_n, y_n)$  will be understood as the portfolio of cash and stock held during the time period between trading dates number  $n-1$  and  $n$  (that is, between times  $(n-1)\delta$  and  $n\delta$ ). Such a sequence of portfolios is called a trading strategy.

There are two conditions that a trading strategy must satisfy:

- For any  $n = 1, \dots, N$ , when creating portfolio  $(x_n, y_n)$  at time  $n-1$ , only the knowledge of stock prices  $S(0), \dots, S(n-1)$  up to and including that time can be used. This is because at time  $n-1$  we cannot predict the values of the future stock prices  $S(n), \dots, S(N)$ . Mathematically,  $(x_n, y_n)$  should be a function of  $S(0), \dots, S(n-1)$  but not of  $S(n), \dots, S(N)$ . A sequence of portfolios  $(x_n, y_n)$  satisfying this property is called predictable.
- For any  $n = 1, \dots, N-1$ , portfolio  $(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$  must be created by rebalancing the portfolio  $(x_n, y_n)$  without injection or withdrawal of any funds. This means that

$$(1+r)x_n + S(n)y_n = x_{n+1} + S(n)y_{n+1}.$$

Such a trading strategy is called self financing.

The value of a trading strategy at time  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$  will be denoted by

$$V(n) = \begin{cases} x_1 + S(0)y_1 & \text{for } n = 0, \\ (1+r)x_n + S(n)y_n & \text{for } n = 1, \dots, N. \end{cases}$$

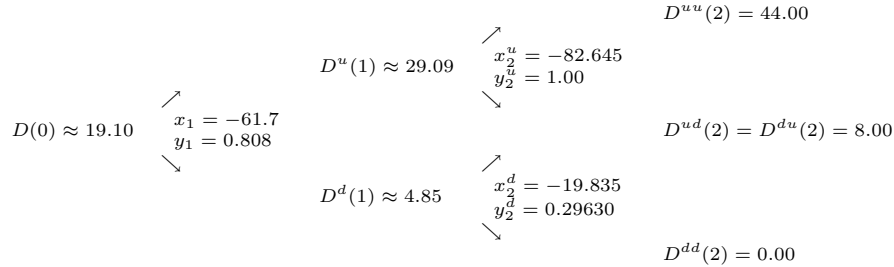
For a self financing trading strategy the value can also be expressed as

$$V(n) = \begin{cases} x_{n+1} + S(n)y_{n+1} & \text{for } n = 0, \dots, N-1, \\ (1+r)x_N + S(N)y_N & \text{for } n = N. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 17** *By a replicating strategy for a European option with payoff  $h(S(N))$  and exercise time  $N$  we mean a predictable self financing trading strategy  $(x_n, y_n)$  for  $n = 1, \dots, n$  whose time  $N$  value matches the option payoff,*

$$V(N) = h(S(N)).$$

**Example 18** (Example 13 continued)



## 2.2 American Options

An American option differs from a European one in that the holder has the right to exercise it at any time step  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$ , rather than just at the expiry time  $T$ . We shall denote by  $Y(n) = h(S(n))$  the payoff to be received at time step  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$  if the holder decides to exercise at that time.

For example, exercising an American put with strike price  $K$  at time step  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$  enables the holder to buy a share of stock for  $K$  rather than for  $S(n)$ . This amounts to receiving the payoff  $Y(n) = \max(K - S(n), 0)$ .

The price of the American option at time step  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$  will be denoted by  $Z(n)$ .

In the binomial tree model we can price an American option by backward induction, extending the method discussed for European options. At expiry time  $N$ , if the option has not yet been exercised, then there is no longer any choice left as to when it can be exercised. As a result, the value of the option equals the payoff,

$$Z(N) = Y(N).$$

Now suppose that for some  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$  we have already figured out the option price  $Z(n + 1)$  at time step  $n + 1$ . How can we find  $Z(n)$ ? We take any node  $\omega_1 \dots \omega_n$  at time  $n$  and consider the single period tree fragment

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & & S^u(n+1) = (1+u)S(n) \\
 & \nearrow & \\
 S(n) & & \\
 & \searrow & \\
 & & S^d(n+1) = (1+d)S(n)
 \end{array}$$

As for European options, we compute the expectation

$$V(n) = \frac{1}{1+r} [p^* Z^u(n+1) + (1-p^*) Z^d(n+1)].$$

This is how much the option would be worth if the holder were unable to exercise at time step  $n$ . It is called the continuation value. However, the holder does

have the right to exercise at time step  $n$  and to receive the payoff  $Y(n)$ . If  $Y(n) < V(n)$ , the holder would not want to exercise the option at time step  $n$ . But if  $Y(n) \geq V(n)$ , then it makes sense to exercise. In effect, at time step  $n$  the holder is able to choose between the higher of  $Y(n)$  and  $V(n)$  by either exercising or not, and therefore the value of the option must be

$$Z(n) = \max(Y(n), V(n)).$$

This can be proved precisely by an arbitrage argument, but this is left as an exercise for the reader.

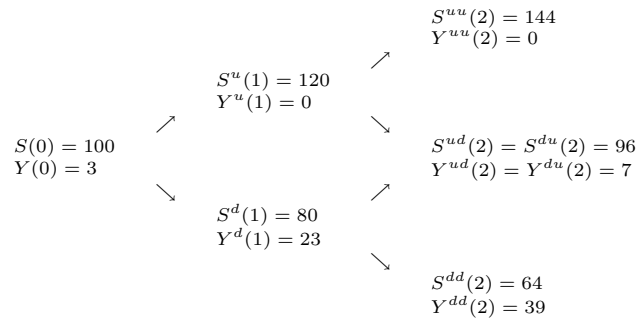
**Example 19** We consider the binary model with  $N = 2$  time steps, initial stock price  $S(0) = 100$  and parameters

$$r = 0.1, \quad u = 0.2, \quad d = -0.2.$$

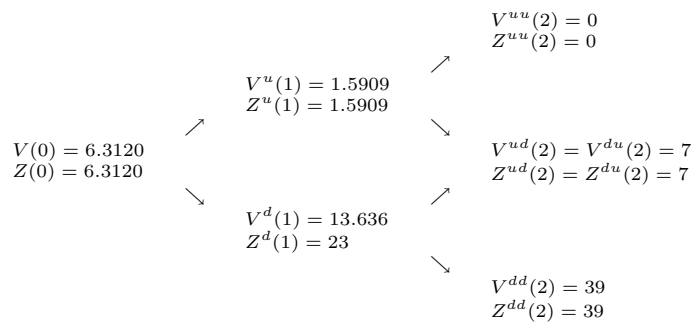
and an American put option with strike price 103 which expires at time step 2. To price the option, we first compute the risk neutral probability

$$p^* = \frac{r - d}{u - d} = \frac{0.1 - (-0.2)}{0.2 - (-0.2)} = \frac{3}{4}.$$

The stock prices and payoffs can be represented by the tree



Next, we construct the tree listing the continuation values  $V(n)$  and option prices  $Z(n)$



It only makes sense to exercise an American option when  $Y(n) > 0$  and  $Z(n) = Y(n)$ . There is no point exercising the option when  $Y(n) = 0$  and it should not be exercised when  $Z(n) > Y(n)$  because in such case it would be better to sell it for  $Z(n)$  rather than to receive the payoff  $Y(n)$  if the option is exercised. We call the random variable

$$\tau = \begin{cases} \min\{n = 0, \dots, N \mid Z(n) = Y(n) > 0\} & \text{if this set is non-empty} \\ \infty & \text{if this set is empty} \end{cases}$$

the early exercise time (sometimes called the early exercise boundary). The value  $\infty$  means that the option will never be exercised.

**Example 20** (Exercise 19 continued) In this example the early exercise time is

$$\tau(\omega) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } \omega = uu, \\ 2 & \text{if } \omega = ud, \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega = du, \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega = dd. \end{cases}$$