

# 1 Martingales and Their Significance in Option Pricing

## 1.1 Martingales

$$S_{now} = e^{-r\delta t} (qS_{up} + (1 - q) S_{down})$$

Define

$$X(t) \equiv \frac{S(t)}{e^{rt}}$$

therefore

$$\begin{aligned} X_{now} &= qX_{up} + (1 - q) X_{down} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_q(X_{next}) \end{aligned}$$

which is a Martingale.

In general,

$$S(0) = e^{-rT} \mathbb{E}_{RN} [S(T)]$$

then

$$X(0) = \mathbb{E}_{RN} [X(T)]$$

Similarly

$$f(0) = e^{-rT} \mathbb{E}_{RN} [f(T)]$$

Define

$$Y(t) \equiv \frac{f(t)}{e^{rt}}$$

$\implies$

$$Y(0) = \mathbb{E}_{RN} [Y(T)]$$

In general

$$\xi(t) = \mathbb{E}_Q [\xi(t')], \quad t' > t$$

defines a Martingale.

Fundamental facts of financial derivatives:

1.

No Arbitrage  $\implies$

$$\xi = \frac{\begin{array}{l} \exists Q \text{ — some probability measure} \\ \text{value of one option } f \end{array}}{\text{value of another kind option } g}$$

then,  $\xi$  is a Martingale with respect to  $Q$ .

2.

No Arbitrage  $\iff \exists$ (a Martingale measure)

3.

No Arbitrage + Completeness of the market  
 $\iff \exists!$ (a Martingale measure)

4. If  $g$  is money market account, i.e.,  $g = e^{rt}$ , then  $Q$  is the risk-neutral probability.

Basics:

If

$$dy = \alpha(y, t) dt + \beta(y, t) dW$$

then

$$y \text{ is a martingale } \iff \alpha(y, t) \equiv 0$$

Let us show if  $\alpha(y, t) = 0$ , then  $y$  is a martingale. Since

$$dy = \beta(y, t) dW,$$

$$\therefore y(t) - y(0) = \int_0^t \beta(y, s) dW(s)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[y(t)] - y(0) = \mathbb{E} \int_0^t \beta(y, s) dW(s) = 0 \quad (\text{N.B. Ito Integral})$$

$$\therefore y(0) = \mathbb{E}[y(t)]$$

## 1.2 Relationship between martingale and risk-neutral processes

We learned before that the risk-neutral process for the stock price movement is

$$dS = rSdt + \sigma SdW.$$

Suppose

$$dS = \alpha dt + \beta dW$$

if

$$\frac{S(t)}{e^{rt}} \text{ is a martingale } \implies \alpha = rS$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} d\left(\frac{S(t)}{e^{rt}}\right) &= d(S(t) e^{-rt}) \\ &= e^{-rt} dS - r e^{-rt} S dt \\ &= e^{-rt} (\alpha dt + \beta dW) - r e^{-rt} S dt \\ &= e^{-rt} (\alpha - rS) dt + e^{-rt} \beta dW \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\alpha = rS$$

i.e., If  $S$  is a risk-neutral process, then  $e^{-rt}S(t)$  is a martingale.

### 1.3 Relationship between the BS PDE and Martingales

We have the following fact:

1. If  $V$  satisfies the BS PDE, then  $Ve^{-rt}$  is a martingale with respect to the risk-neutral measure.
2. No Arbitrage  $\implies Ve^{-rt}$  is a martingale in the risk-neutral measure.

Proof: (1)

$$\begin{aligned} d(Ve^{-rt}) &= e^{-rt}dV - re^{-rt}Vdt \\ &= e^{-rt}\left(V_tdt + V_SdS + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2S^2V_{SS}dt\right) - re^{-rt}Vdt \end{aligned}$$

Substituting the risk-neutral process:

$$dS = rSdt + \sigma SdW$$

leads to

$$\begin{aligned} d(Ve^{-rt}) &= e^{-rt}\left(\underbrace{V_t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2S^2V_{SS} + rSV_S - rV}_{=\text{the BS } \mathcal{L}_{BS}V, \therefore \text{it vanishes}}\right)dt + e^{-rt}\sigma SV_SdW \\ &= e^{-rt}\sigma SV_SdW \end{aligned}$$

or

$$d(Ve^{-rt}) = \sigma S(Ve^{-rt})_S dW$$

i.e., the discounted  $V$  is a martingale.

(2)

No Arbitrage  $\implies V$  is a solution of BS PDE

$\implies \frac{V}{e^{rt}}$  is a martingale in the risk-neutral measure

$$\therefore \frac{V(S(0), 0)}{e^{r \cdot 0}} = \mathbb{E}_{RN} \left[ \frac{V(S(T), T)}{e^{rT}} \right]$$

$$V(S(0), 0) = e^{-rT} \mathbb{E}_{RN} [V(S(T), T)]$$

## 2 The Market Price of Risk

Consider a natural process:

$$\frac{d\theta}{\theta} = mdt + \Sigma dW$$

where the drift term  $m$  is the expected growth rate and  $\Sigma$  is the volatility.  $W(t)$  is a Wiener process.

Note that  $\theta$  need not be the price of an investment asset. For example, it can be the noise level of Times Square or temperature in Beijing.

Suppose we write two derivatives  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  depending on only  $\theta$  and  $t$ , i.e., some options or contracts that give a payoff as a function of  $\theta$  at some future time.

For simplicity, we assume there is no "dividend", i.e., no income before maturity.

Suppose

$$\frac{dV_1}{V_1} = \mu_1 dt + \sigma_1 dW \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{dV_2}{V_2} = \mu_2 dt + \sigma_2 dW \quad (2)$$

where  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  are functions of time  $t$ .

To eliminate risk, we construct the following portfolio:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi &= \underbrace{(\sigma_2 V_2)}_{\sigma_2 V_2 \text{ units of } V_1} \times V_1 - (\sigma_1 V_1) \times V_2 \\ &= (\sigma_2 - \sigma_1) V_1 V_2 \\ d\Pi &= (\sigma_2 V_2) dV_1 - (\sigma_1 V_1) dV_2 \end{aligned}$$

Substituting Eqs (1) and (2) into the above equation leads to

$$\begin{aligned} d\Pi &= (\sigma_2 V_2) V_1 (\mu_1 dt + \sigma_1 dW) - (\sigma_1 V_1) V_2 (\mu_2 dt + \sigma_2 dW) \\ &= (\sigma_2 \mu_1 - \sigma_1 \mu_2) V_1 V_2 dt \end{aligned}$$

Since this portfolio is riskless, it must grows at risk-free rate, i.e.,

$$d\Pi = r\Pi dt$$

or

$$(\sigma_2 \mu_1 - \sigma_1 \mu_2) V_1 V_2 = r (\sigma_2 - \sigma_1) V_1 V_2$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\frac{\mu_1 - r}{\sigma_1} = \frac{\mu_2 - r}{\sigma_2} \equiv \lambda$$

where  $\lambda$  is referred to as the market price of risk of  $\theta$ . Note that

1.  $\lambda$  is a function of  $\theta$  and  $t$ ;
2.  $\lambda$  is independent of  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ .
3. The ratio  $\frac{\mu-r}{\sigma} = \lambda$  is the same for all derivatives and it depends on  $\theta$  and  $t$  only. We can write

$$\mu - r = \lambda\sigma$$

Note that the LHS is the excess return above the risk-free rate, and  $\sigma$  is a measure of risk (or uncertainty), therefore,  $\lambda$  can be viewed the price of risk, i.e., the excess earning above the risk-free rate per unit  $\sigma$ .

Now we can derive a PDE for any contingent claim  $V$  on  $\theta$  if

$$\frac{dV}{V} = \mu dt + \sigma dW \quad (3)$$

Using Ito's Lemma, we have

$$dV = \left( \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \theta m \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma \theta^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \theta^2} \right) dt + \theta \Sigma \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} dW \quad (4)$$

Comparing Eq. (3) and Eq. (4) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \mu V &= \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \theta m \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma \theta^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \theta^2} \\ \sigma V &= \theta \Sigma \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} \mu &= \frac{1}{V} \left[ \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \theta m \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma \theta^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \theta^2} \right] \\ \sigma &= \frac{1}{V} \left( \theta \Sigma \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \mu - r &= \lambda\sigma \\ \therefore \frac{1}{V} \left[ \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \theta m \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma \theta^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \theta^2} \right] - r &= \lambda \frac{1}{V} \left( \theta \Sigma \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} \right) \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma \theta^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \theta^2} + \theta (m - \lambda \Sigma) \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} - rV = 0 \quad (5)$$

Note that

1. If  $\theta$  is some stock price, i.e., a price of some investment asset, then  $\theta$  can be viewed as a derivative too. Hence, it must satisfy the relation of market price of risk too:

$$\frac{m - r}{\Sigma} = \lambda$$

i.e.,

$$m - \lambda\Sigma = r$$

Substituting this into Eq. (5), we obtain

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2}\Sigma\theta^2\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial\theta^2} + \theta r\frac{\partial V}{\partial\theta} - rV = 0$$

which is the Black-Scholes equation!

2. In a risk-neutral world,

$$\lambda = 0$$

thus, e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dS}{S} &= \mu dt + \sigma dW \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\mu - r}{\sigma} = 0 \\ \therefore \frac{dS}{S} &= r dt + \sigma dW \end{aligned}$$

Example: Bond options.

Stochastic spot rate (spot rate  $\equiv$  short rate):

$$dr = m(r, t) dt + \Sigma(r, t) dW \tag{6}$$

e.g.,

1. Ho & Lee model

$$dr = \theta(t) dt + \sigma dW$$

2. Vasick/Hull-White model

$$dr = (\theta(t) - \alpha(t)r) dt + \sigma(t) dW$$

3. Cox-Ingersoll-Ross (CIR) model

$$dr = (\theta(t) - \alpha(t)r) dt + \sigma(t)\sqrt{r}dW$$

4. Black-Karasinki model

$$dr = r \left( \theta(t) - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(t) - \alpha(t)\log r \right) dt + r\sigma(t) dW$$

Question: How to price a bond?

The issue is how to hedge — unlike a stock, one cannot go out and buy an interest rate, e.g., 10%.

The hedging strategy can be carried out as follows: Use two bonds with different maturities  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{bond } V_1 & : & \text{maturity } T_1 & & 1 \text{ unit} \\ \text{bond } V_2 & : & \text{maturity } T_2 & & -\Delta \text{ units} \end{aligned}$$

and the portfolio is

$$\Pi = (V_1 - \Delta V_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} d\Pi &= \left( \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial r} dr + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V_1}{\partial r^2} dt \right) \\ &\quad - \Delta \left( \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial r} dr + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V_2}{\partial r^2} dt \right) \end{aligned}$$

By choosing

$$\Delta = \frac{\frac{\partial V_1}{\partial r}}{\frac{\partial V_2}{\partial r}}$$

to eliminate the random component, the no arbitrage argument leads to

$$\text{i.e., } \left[ \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V_1}{\partial r^2} - \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial r} \left( \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V_2}{\partial r^2} \right) \right] = r \left( V_1 - \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial r} V_2 \right)$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\frac{\frac{\partial V_1}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V_1}{\partial r^2} - r V_1}{\frac{\partial V_1}{\partial r}} = \frac{\frac{\partial V_2}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V_2}{\partial r^2} - r V_2}{\frac{\partial V_2}{\partial r}}$$

Note that the LHS is a function of  $T_1$  not  $T_2$  while the RHS is a function of  $T_2$  not  $T_1$ . Therefore, neither side depends on the maturity  $T$ , i.e.,

$$\frac{\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial r^2} - r V}{\frac{\partial V}{\partial r}} = a(r, t)$$

we can write

$$a(r, t) \equiv \Sigma(r, t) \lambda(r, t) - m(r, t)$$

where  $\Sigma(r, t)$  and  $m(r, t)$  are functions in Eq. (6). For this procedure to hold, we require

$$\Sigma(r, t) \neq 0.$$

Therefore, the PDE for pricing a zero-coupon bond is

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial r^2} + (m - \lambda \Sigma) \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} - rV = 0$$

with final condition :  $V(r, T) = \$1$

Note that

1.  $\lambda = \lambda(r, t)$  is a function yet to be determined.
2. If we assume  $V$  has the form:

$$V(r, t) = A(t, T) e^{-rB(t, T)}$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma(r, t) &= (\alpha(t)r - \beta(t))^{1/2} \\ m(r, t) &= \left( -\gamma(t)r + \eta(t) + \lambda(r, t) [\alpha(t)r - \beta(t)]^{1/2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

This leads to the following result:

$$m - \lambda \Sigma = -\gamma(t)r + \eta(t)$$

which is independent of  $\lambda$ !

3. Given those short-rate models above, we have, e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Vasick} & : & \alpha &= 0 \\ \text{CIR} & : & \beta &= 0 \\ \text{Hull-White} & : & \text{either } \alpha &= 0 \text{ or } \beta = 0 \end{aligned}$$

why? cf. Willmott's book.

### 3 Equivalent Martingale Measures

Recall: If  $f$  and  $g$  are some derivatives on the same, single process  $dW$ ,

$$\text{No Arbitrage} \implies \frac{f}{g} \text{ is a martingale with respect to some measure}$$

More specific,

$$\begin{aligned}df &= \mu_f f dt + \sigma_f f dW \\ dg &= \mu_g g dt + \sigma_g g dW\end{aligned}$$

which are not necessarily geometric Brownian motions since  $\mu_f$  and  $\sigma_f$  can depend on  $f$ , etc. An no arbitrage argument yields

$$\frac{\mu_f - r}{\sigma_f} = \lambda = \frac{\mu_g - r}{\sigma_g}$$

For a new market price of risk  $\lambda^*$ ,

$$\lambda^* = \frac{\mu^* - r}{\sigma}$$

we have

$$df = (r + \lambda^* \sigma_f) f dt + \sigma_f f dW \tag{7}$$

$$dg = (r + \lambda^* \sigma_g) g dt + \sigma_g g dW \tag{8}$$

Note that

1. Market price of risk determines the drift;
2. Volatility does not change;
3. Choosing a drift is equivalent to choosing a market price of risk  $\lambda$ .

From the above argument, we conclude that:

$$\text{No Arbitrage} \implies \frac{f}{g} \text{ is a martingale for some } \lambda$$

The question is which  $\lambda$ . It turns out that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{if } \lambda &= \sigma_g, \\ \text{then, } \frac{f}{g} &\text{ is a martingale for all derivative } f.\end{aligned}$$

This can be demonstrated as follows:

Substituting  $\lambda = \sigma_g$  into Eqs. (7) and (8) yields

$$\begin{aligned}df &= (r + \sigma_g \sigma_f) f dt + \sigma_f f dW \\ dg &= (r + \sigma_g^2) g dt + \sigma_g g dW\end{aligned}$$

Applying Ito's lemma to  $\ln f$  and  $\ln g$  :

$$\begin{aligned}d \ln f &= \left( r + \sigma_g \sigma_f - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_f^2 \right) dt + \sigma_f dW \\ d \ln g &= \left( r + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_g^2 \right) dt + \sigma_g dW\end{aligned}$$

therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
d \ln \frac{f}{g} &= d(\ln f - \ln g) \\
&= d \ln f - d \ln g \\
&= -\frac{1}{2}(\sigma_f - \sigma_g)^2 dt + (\sigma_f - \sigma_g) dW
\end{aligned}$$

Now, we want to use this to compute  $d\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)$  by the following method:

If we know

$$\begin{aligned}
dX &= \mu_X dt + \sigma_X dW \\
d \ln X &= \mu dt + \sigma dW
\end{aligned}$$

what is the relation between  $(\mu_X, \sigma_X)$  and  $(\mu, \sigma)$ ? Since

$$\begin{aligned}
d \ln X &= \frac{1}{X} dX + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_X^2 \left(-\frac{1}{X^2}\right) dt \\
&= \left(\frac{1}{X} \mu_X - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_X^2 \frac{1}{X^2}\right) dt + \frac{\sigma_X}{X} dW \\
&\therefore \\
\mu &= \frac{1}{X} \mu_X - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_X^2 \frac{1}{X^2} \\
\sigma &= \frac{\sigma_X}{X}
\end{aligned}$$

i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}
\sigma_X &= \sigma X \\
\mu_X &= \left(\mu + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2\right) X
\end{aligned}$$

therefore,

$$d\left(\frac{f}{g}\right) = \left[-\frac{1}{2}(\sigma_f - \sigma_g)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_f - \sigma_g)^2\right] dt + (\sigma_f - \sigma_g) \frac{f}{g} dW$$

i.e.,

$$d\left(\frac{f}{g}\right) = (\sigma_f - \sigma_g) \frac{f}{g} dW$$

in which there is no drift term, thus,  $\frac{f}{g}$  is a martingale.

Note that

1. When the market price of risk =  $\sigma_g$ , it is a world of forward risk-neutral with respect to  $g$ .

2. Since  $\frac{f}{g}$  is a martingale,

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad \frac{f_0}{g_0} &= \mathbb{E}_g \left[ \frac{f_T}{g_T} \right] \\ \implies \\ f_0 &= g_0 \mathbb{E}_g \left[ \frac{f_T}{g_T} \right] \end{aligned}$$

(a) Money Market Account as the Numeraire:

Since

$$dg = rgdt$$

where  $r$  can be stochastic, but the volatility of  $g = 0$ , i.e., the market price of risk is zero for the money market. Then

$$f_0 = g_0 \mathbb{E}_{RN} \left[ \frac{f_T}{g_T} \right]$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} g_0 &= 1 \\ g_T &= e^{\int_0^T r(\tau) d\tau} \\ \therefore f_0 &= \mathbb{E}_{RN} \left[ e^{-\int_0^T r(\tau) d\tau} f_T \right] \end{aligned}$$

If  $r$  is a constant, then

$$f_0 = e^{-rT} \mathbb{E}_{RN} [f_T]$$

Hence, the money market account numeraire is equivalent to traditional risk-neutral world.

(b) Zero-Coupon bond price as the Numeraire:

Definition:  $B(t, T)$  is the price at time  $t$  of a zero-coupon bond worth of \$1 at time  $T$ .

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} g_T &= B(T, T) = 1 \\ g_0 &= B(0, T) \\ \therefore f_0 &= B(0, T) \mathbb{E}_T [f_T] \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbb{E}_T$  denotes the forward risk-neutral measure with respect to  $B(t, T)$ . Note that it is nice to have  $B(0, T)$  outside  $\mathbb{E}$ -operator.

Recall the forward price of  $f$  maturing at  $T$  is

$$F = \frac{f_0}{B(0, T)}$$

e.g.,  $F = S_0 e^{rT}$ . Since

$$\begin{aligned} f_0 &= B(0, T) \mathbb{E}_T[f_T] \\ F &= \frac{f_0}{B(0, T)} \\ \therefore F &= \mathbb{E}_T[f_T] \end{aligned}$$

i.e., In a forward risk-neutral measure with respect to  $B(0, T)$ , the forward price of  $f$  is equal to the expected future spot price. In contrast, in the traditional risk-neutral measure, futures price is equal to the expected future spot price.

Intuitive way (via binomial trees) of understanding change of numeraire:

Since

$$f_{now} = e^{-r\delta t} (q f_{up} + (1 - q) f_{down})$$

where  $q$  is the risk-neutral probability depending on the underlying movement. For another tradeable  $g$ , we have

$$g_{now} = e^{-r\delta t} (q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down})$$

therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f_{now}}{g_{now}} &= \frac{e^{-r\delta t} (q f_{up} + (1 - q) f_{down})}{e^{-r\delta t} (q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down})} \\ &= \frac{q g_{up}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}} \frac{f_{up}}{g_{up}} + \frac{(1 - q) g_{down}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}} \frac{f_{down}}{g_{down}} \end{aligned}$$

If

$$q^* \equiv \frac{q g_{up}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}}$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{(1 - q) g_{down}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}} + q^* \\ &= \frac{(1 - q) g_{down}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}} + \frac{q g_{up}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}} \\ &= \frac{(1 - q) g_{down} + q g_{up}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,

$$\frac{(1 - q) g_{down}}{q g_{up} + (1 - q) g_{down}} = 1 - q^*$$

therefore,

$$\frac{f_{now}}{g_{now}} = q^* \left( \frac{f_{up}}{g_{up}} \right) + (1 - q^*) \left( \frac{f_{down}}{g_{down}} \right)$$

Of course,  $q^*$  will vary from subtree to subtree. Therefore,

$$\frac{f_{now}}{g_{now}} = \mathbb{E}_* \left[ \frac{f_{next}}{g_{next}} \right]$$

where  $*$  denotes the expectation with respect to  $q^*$ . Iterate through the tree, we have

$$\frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = \mathbb{E}_* \left[ \frac{f(T)}{g(T)} \right]$$

therefore,

$\frac{f}{g}$  is a martingale with respect to  $q^*$

i.e.,

$$f(t) = g(t) \mathbb{E}_* \left[ \frac{f(T)}{g(T)} \right]$$