

Arbitrage opportunity. Risk neutral probability measures. Valuation of contingent claims

STK-MAT 3700/4700 An Introduction to Mathematical Finance

O. Tymoshenko

University of Oslo
Department of Mathematics

Oslo 2022.10.4



UiO : **University of Oslo**

Contents

- 1 Arbitrage opportunity
- 2 Risk Neutral Probability Measures
- 3 Valuation of Contingent Claims
- 4 Complete and Incomplete Markets

Arbitrage opportunity

Arbitrage opportunity

An **arbitrage opportunity (AO)** is a trading strategy satisfying:

- a) $V(0) = 0$.
- b) $V(1, \omega) \geq 0, \quad \omega \in \Omega$.
- c) $\mathbb{E}[V(1)] > 0$.

1 c) can be changed by

c') $\exists \omega \in \Omega$ such that $V(1, \omega) > 0$.

2 a), b) c) $\iff V^*(0) = 0, V^*(1) \geq 0$, and $\mathbb{E}[V^*(1)] > 0$.

3 An **AO** is a trading strategy

- with zero initial investment,
- without the possibility of bearing a loss
- with a strictly positive profit for at least one of the possible states of the economy.

Arbitrage opportunity

1 \exists **DTS** \implies \exists **AO**.

2 \exists **AO** \exists **DTS**.

Proof.

1 We know that

\exists of **DTS** \iff \exists of H such that $V(0) = 0$ and $V(1, \omega) > 0, \omega \in \Omega$.

But, if $V(1, \omega) > 0, \omega \in \Omega$ then

$$\mathbb{E}[V(1)] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} V(1, \omega) P(\omega) > 0.$$

2 The following example provides a counterexample.



Arbitrage opportunity

Example

- Take $K = 2, N = 1, r = 0, B(0) = 1, B(1) = 1, S(0) = S^*(0) = 10$ and

$$S(1, \omega) = S^*(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} 12 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 10 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases} .$$

- Consider the trading strategy $H = (H_0, H_1)^T = (-10, 1)^T$, then $V(0) = H_0 B(0) + H_1 S(0) = -10 + 10 = 0$, and

$$V(1) = H_0 B(1) + H_1 S(1) = \begin{cases} -10 + 12 = 2 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ -10 + 10 = 0 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases} .$$

- Hence, H is an arbitrage opportunity.

Arbitrage opportunity

Example 1

- We know that the model does not contain **DTS** if and only if \exists **LPM**.
- A **LPM** $\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2)^T$ must satisfy $\pi \geq 0$ and

$$10 = S^*(0) = \mathbb{E}_\pi [S^*(1)] = 12\pi_1 + 10\pi_2.$$

- Hence, $\pi = (0, 1)^T$ is a **LPM** and we can conclude.

Arbitrage opportunity

H is an **AO** $\iff G^*(\omega) \geq 0, \omega \in \Omega$ and $\mathbb{E}[G^*] > 0$.

Risk Neutral Probability Measures

Risk neutral probability measures

- Recall that \exists **LPM** $\implies \nexists$ **DTS**, but there may be **AO**.
- In order to rule out **AO** we need to narrow the concept of **LPM**.
- The idea is to require that a **LPM** must assign a strictly positive probability to each state of the economy.
- Equivalently, a **LPM**, say π , must be equivalent to P , that is,

$$P(\omega) > 0 \iff \pi(\omega) > 0, \quad \omega \in \Omega.$$

A probability measure Q is called a **risk neutral probability measure (RNPM)** if

- $Q(\omega) > 0, \quad \omega \in \Omega.$
- $\mathbb{E}_Q[\Delta S_n^*] = 0, \quad n = 1, \dots, N.$

Given a financial market model, we will denote by \mathbb{M} the set of all **RNPM**.

Risk neutral probability measures

- Observe that

$$0 = \mathbb{E}_Q [\Delta S_n^*] = \mathbb{E}_Q [S_n^* (1) - S_n^* (0)] = \mathbb{E}_Q [S_n^* (1)] - S_n^* (0).$$

- That is, $\mathbb{E}_Q [S_n^* (1)] = S_n^* (0)$.
- Therefore, Q is a **LPM**.

[First Fundamental Theorem of Asset Pricing (**FFTAP**)] \nexists **AO** $\iff \exists$ **RNPM** (that is, $\mathbb{M} \neq \emptyset$).

Risk neutral probability measures

Example ($\exists!$ **RNPM**)

- Take $K = 2, N = 1, r = \frac{1}{9}, B(0) = 1, B(1) = \frac{10}{9}, S(0) = 5$, and

$$S^*(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} 6 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 4 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases}.$$

- We are seeking a probability measure $Q = (Q_1, Q_2)^T$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_Q[\Delta S^*] = 0 &\iff \mathbb{E}_Q[S^*(1)] = S^*(0) = 5 \\ &\iff \begin{cases} 6Q_1 + 4Q_2 = 5 \\ Q_1 + Q_2 = 1 \end{cases}. \end{aligned}$$

- $\exists!$ solution to the previous equation given by $Q = (1/2, 1/2)$.
- Therefore, Q is a **RNPM** and the market is arbitrage free by the **FFTAP**.

Risk neutral probability measures

Example ($\exists \infty$ RNPM)

- Take $K = 3, N = 1, r = \frac{1}{9}, B(0) = 1, B(1) = \frac{10}{9}, S(0) = 5$, and

$$S^*(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} 6 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 4 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \\ 3 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_3 \end{cases} .$$

- For $Q = (Q_1, Q_2, Q_3)^T$ to be a **RNPM**, Q must satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_Q[\Delta S^*] = 0 &\iff \mathbb{E}_Q[S^*(1)] = S^*(0) = 5 \\ &\iff \begin{cases} 6Q_1 + 4Q_2 + 3Q_3 &= 5 \\ Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3 &= 1 \end{cases} . \end{aligned}$$

- We have 2 equations and 3 unknowns (underdetermined system).

Risk neutral probability measures

Example 3 ($\exists \infty$ **RNPM**)

- In addition, we also have the restrictions $Q_i > 0, i = 1, 2, 3$.
- Solving the equations, taking into account the constraints, we obtain a family of **RNPM**

$$Q_\lambda = (\lambda, 2 - 3\lambda, -1 + 2\lambda)^T, \quad \lambda \in (1/2, 2/3).$$

- Now there are infinitely many **RNPM** (one for each λ) and, again, the market is arbitrage free by the **FFTAP**.

Valuation of Contingent Claims

Valuation of contingent claims

A **contingent claim** is a random variable X representing a payoff at time $t = 1$.

- Think of a contingent claim as any financial contract with some payoff at time $t = 1$ (options for instance).

A contingent claim is said to be **attainable** (or **marketable**) if there exists a trading strategy H , called the **replicating/hedging** portfolio, such that $V(1) = X$. We say that H **generates/replicates/hedge** X .

Valuation of contingent claims

- Suppose that the contingent claim X is attainable, i.e., $V(1) = X$.
- Suppose also that it can be bought in the market (at time 0) for the price $p(X)$.
- Then, using the no arbitrage pricing principle:
 - If $p(X) > V(0)$:
 - At $t = 0$: Sell the claim (receive $p(X)$), implement X (that is, $V(1)$ at cost $V(0)$) and invest $p(X) - V(0)$ risk free.
 - At $t = 1$: $-X + V(1) + (p(X) - V(0))(1+r) > 0$.
 - If $p(X) < V(0)$:
 - At $t = 0$: Buy the claim (pay $p(X)$), implement $-X$ (that is, $-V(1)$ receiving $V(0)$) and invest $V(0) - p(X)$ risk free.
 - At $t = 1$: $X - V(1) + (V(0) - p(X))(1+r) > 0$.
- Does this mean that $p(X) = V(0)$ is the correct price for X ? Not necessarily.
- Suppose that $\exists \hat{H}$ such that $\hat{V}(1) = X$ and $\hat{V}(0) \neq V(0)$.
- This second strategy could be used to generate an arbitrage if $p(X) = V(0)$.

Valuation of contingent claims

- In order to rule out this possibility we need to assume that **LOP** holds.
- We have just proved the following result.

If **LOP** holds, then the price $p(X)$ ($t = 0$ value) of an attainable contingent claim X is given by

$$p(X) = V(0) = H_0 B(0) + \sum_{n=1}^N H_n S_n(0), \quad (1)$$

where H is **any** trading strategy that generates X .

- Recall that $\nexists \mathbf{AO} \implies \nexists \mathbf{DTS} \implies \mathbf{LOP}$ holds.

Valuation of contingent claims

Assume \nexists **AO**. Then, the price $p(X)$ of any attainable contingent claim X is given by

$$p(X) = \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right], \quad (2)$$

where Q is **any RNPM** in \mathbb{M} .

Valuation of contingent claims

Example

- Take $K = 2, N = 1, r = \frac{1}{9}, B(0) = 1, B(1) = \frac{10}{9}, S(0) = 5,$

$$S^*(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} 6 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 4 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases},$$

and

$$S(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} 6\frac{10}{9} = \frac{20}{3} & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 4\frac{10}{9} = \frac{40}{9} & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases}.$$

- Recall that in this market there is only one RNPM $Q = (1/2, 1/2)^T$.
- Let X be the contingent claim defined by

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 7 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 2 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases}.$$

Valuation of contingent claims

- Suppose that X is attainable, then the price of X is given by

$$p(X) = \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] = \frac{7}{10} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{10} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{81}{20}.$$

- Let's prove that X is indeed attainable. We want to find $H = (H_0, H_1)^T$ that generates X , that is,

$$\frac{X}{B(1)} = V^*(1) = V^*(0) + G^* = V^*(0) + H_1 \Delta S^*.$$

- Since $V^*(0) = V(0) = p(X) = \frac{81}{20}$ and

$$\Delta S^* = \begin{cases} 6 - 5 = 1 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 4 - 5 = -1 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases},$$

Valuation of contingent claims

we get the following equations

$$\frac{7}{10} = \frac{81}{20} + H_1,$$

$$\frac{2}{10} = \frac{81}{20} - H_1.$$

- These two equations are compatible and $H_1 = \frac{9}{4}$.
- To determine H_0 we can use

$$\frac{81}{20} = V(0) = H_0 B(0) + H_1 S(0) = H_0 + \frac{9}{4}5,$$

which yields $H_0 = -\frac{36}{5}$.

Valuation of contingent claims

- The interpretation is as follows:

- At $t = 0$:

- You sell the claim and get $V(0) = \frac{81}{20}$.

- You hedge the claim by borrowing $-H_0 = \frac{36}{5}$ at interest $\frac{1}{9}$, using

$$V(0) - H_0 = \frac{81}{20} + \frac{36}{5} = \frac{45}{4} \text{ to buy } H_1 = \frac{V(0) - H_0}{S(0)} = \frac{\frac{45}{4}}{\frac{5}{4}} = \frac{9}{4} \text{ shares of the stock.}$$

- At $t = 1$:

- Pay $-H_0B(1) = \frac{36}{5} \frac{10}{9} = 8$ to the bank to close the loan.

- The value of the portfolio is

$$\begin{aligned} V(1) &= H_0B(1) + H_1S(1) = -8 + \frac{9}{4}S(1) \\ &= \begin{cases} -8 + \frac{9}{4} \frac{20}{3} = 7 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ -8 + \frac{9}{4} \frac{40}{9} = 2 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

and you can pay the contingent claim sold.

Valuation of contingent claims

- Now, suppose that we add a third state ω_3 in the economy and $S^*(1, \omega_3) = 3$ and $S(1, \omega_3) = \frac{10}{3}$.
- This is the same extension as in Example 3, so we know $\exists \infty$ **RNPM**.
- Consider an arbitrary contingent claim X in this market, that is,

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} X_1 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ X_2 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \\ X_3 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_3 \end{cases} = (X_1, X_2, X_3)^T.$$

- X is attainable if there exists $H = (H_0, H_1)^T$ such that

$$X = V(1) = H_0 B(0) + H_1 S(1).$$

Valuation of contingent claims

- The previous vector equation boils down to the following overdetermined linear system

$$\begin{cases} X_1 &= \frac{10}{9}H_0 + \frac{20}{3}H_1 \\ X_2 &= \frac{10}{9}H_0 + \frac{40}{9}H_1 \\ X_3 &= \frac{10}{9}H_0 + \frac{10}{3}H_1 \end{cases} .$$

- From the first equation we obtain $\frac{10}{9}H_0 = X_1 - \frac{20}{3}H_1$ and substituting this expression for $\frac{10}{9}H_0$ in the second and third equations we get

$$\begin{cases} X_2 &= X_1 - \frac{20}{3}H_1 + \frac{40}{9}H_1 = X_1 - \frac{20}{9}H_1 \\ X_3 &= X_1 - \frac{20}{3}H_1 + \frac{10}{3}H_1 = X_1 - \frac{10}{3}H_1 \end{cases} .$$

Valuation of contingent claims

- The first equation in the previous system gives

$$H_1 = \frac{9}{20} (X_2 - X_1),$$

and the second equation gives

$$H_1 = \frac{3}{10} (X_3 - X_1).$$

- Therefore, equating the previous expressions for H_1 , we obtain.

$$\frac{9}{20} (X_2 - X_1) = \frac{3}{10} (X_3 - X_1) \iff X_1 - 3X_2 + 2X_3 = 0. \quad (3)$$

- We can conclude that a contingent claim $X = (X_1, X_2, X_3)^T$ in this market is attainable if and only if X satisfies equation (3).

Valuation of contingent claims

Example

- In a general single period model consider the so called **counting claim** X defined by

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega = \hat{\omega} \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \neq \hat{\omega} \end{cases},$$

for some $\hat{\omega} \in \Omega$.

- Assuming that X is attainable we have that

$$p(X) = \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{X(\omega)}{B(1)} Q(\omega) = \frac{Q(\hat{\omega})}{B(1)} =: p(\hat{\omega}).$$

- $p(\hat{\omega})$ is called the state price for state $\hat{\omega}$.
- The price of any contingent claim X can be obtained as the weighted sum of its payoff where the weights are the state prices, i.e.,
 $p(X) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega) p(\omega)$.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Complete and Incomplete Markets

A financial market model is **complete** if every contingent claim X is attainable.

Otherwise, we say that the market model is **incomplete**.

- So far, in order to use the risk neutral pricing principle to find the price of a contingent claim X , we need to ensure that the contingent claim is attainable.
- Therefore, it is important to find useful criteria to decide if a claim is attainable and, more generally, if the market is complete.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

The market is complete $\iff \text{rank}(S(1, \Omega)) = K$.

Proof.

- Let $H = (H_0, H_1, \dots, H_n)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{N+1}$ be a trading strategy and $X = (X_1, \dots, X_K)^T \in \mathbb{R}^K$ a contingent claim.
- The market is complete $\iff S(1, \Omega)H = X$ has a solution in H for every $X \iff$ Linear span of the columns of $S(1, \Omega)$ is $\mathbb{R}^K \iff \dim(\text{col}(S(1, \Omega))) = K$.
- But note that

$$\text{rank}(S(1, \Omega)) = \dim(\text{col}(S(1, \Omega))) = \dim(\text{row}(S(1, \Omega))).$$

- That is, if $S(1, \Omega)$ has K linear independent columns or rows.



Complete and Incomplete Markets

Example (Continuation of Example 2)

- Take $K = 2, N = 1, r = \frac{1}{9}, B(0) = 1, B(1) = \frac{10}{9}, S_1(0) = 5$, and

$$S_1(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} \frac{20}{3} & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ \frac{40}{9} & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases}.$$

- Recall that this market is arbitrage free and it has a unique **RNPM** given by $Q = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)^T$.
- Moreover,

$$S(1, \Omega) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10}{9} & \frac{20}{3} \\ \frac{10}{9} & \frac{40}{9} \end{pmatrix} \sim_{R_2 \rightsquigarrow R_2 - R_1} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10}{9} & \frac{20}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{-20}{9} \end{pmatrix},$$

and we can conclude that $\text{rank}(S(1, \Omega)) = 2 = K$ and the market is complete.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Example 6

- In the same market we add a second asset with $S_2(0) = 54$ and

$$S_2(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} 70 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 50 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \end{cases}.$$

- We have that

$$\mathbb{E}_Q[S_2^*(1)] = \frac{70}{\frac{10}{9}} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{50}{\frac{10}{9}} \frac{1}{2} = 54 = S_2^*(0),$$

and, therefore, Q is also a **RNPM** in the extended market.

- Moreover,

$$S(1, \Omega) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10}{9} & \frac{20}{3} & 70 \\ \frac{10}{9} & \frac{40}{9} & 50 \end{pmatrix} \sim_{R_2 \rightsquigarrow R_2 - R_1} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10}{9} & \frac{20}{3} & 70 \\ 0 & -\frac{20}{9} & -20 \end{pmatrix},$$

so the rank $(S(1, \Omega)) = \dim(\text{row}(S(1, \Omega))) = 2 = K$ and the market is also complete.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Example (Continuation of Example 3)

- Take $K = 3, N = 1, r = \frac{1}{9}, B(0) = 1, B(1) = \frac{10}{9}, S(0) = 5$, and

$$S^*(1, \omega) = \begin{cases} 6 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_1 \\ 4 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_2 \\ 3 & \text{if } \omega = \omega_3 \end{cases} .$$

- In this market we have a family of **RNPM**

$$Q_\lambda = (\lambda, 2 - 3\lambda, 2\lambda - 1)^T, \quad \lambda \in (1/2, 2/3).$$

- Moreover, the market is incomplete since

$$S(1, \Omega) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10}{9} & \frac{20}{3} \\ \frac{10}{9} & \frac{40}{9} \\ \frac{10}{9} & \frac{30}{9} \end{pmatrix} \underset{\substack{R_2 \rightsquigarrow R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3 \rightsquigarrow R_3 - R_1}}{\sim} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10}{9} & \frac{20}{3} \\ 0 & -\frac{20}{9} \\ 0 & -\frac{30}{9} \end{pmatrix},$$

and the rank $(S(1, \Omega)) = \dim(\text{col}(S(1, \Omega))) = 2 \neq K = 3$.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Example 7

- For any contingent claim X and any **RNPM** Q_λ we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{Q_\lambda} \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] &= \lambda \frac{9}{10} X_1 + (2 - 3\lambda) \frac{9}{10} X_2 + (2\lambda - 1) \frac{9}{10} X_3 \\ &= \frac{9}{10} \lambda (X_1 - 3X_2 + 2X_3) + \frac{9}{10} (2X_2 - X_1).\end{aligned}$$

- If X is attainable this value must be the same for all $\lambda \in \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}\right)$ because it must coincide with $V(0)$, which does not depend on Q_λ .
- Note that this happens if and only if

$$X_1 - 3X_2 - 2X_3 = 0.$$

- Recall (see Example 4) that this condition also characterizes the attainable contingent claims in this market.
- This is a general principle.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Suppose that $\mathbb{M} \neq \emptyset$. Then,

A contingent claim X is attainable $\iff \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right]$ is constant with respect to $Q \in \mathbb{M}$.

Proof.

Smartboard. □

[Second Fundamental Theorem of Asset Pricing (**SFTAP**)] Suppose that $\mathbb{M} \neq \emptyset$. Then,

The market model is complete $\iff \mathbb{M} = \{Q\}$, that is, $\exists!$ **RNPM**.

Proof.

Smartboard. □

Complete and Incomplete Markets

- Summarizing, we know how to price all attainable claims in a single period financial market.
- But, what about non-attainable claims in an incomplete model?
- We need some new concepts.

Let X be a non-attainable contingent claim. Then,

- The **upper hedging price** of X , denoted by $V_+(X)$, is defined as

$$V_+(X) := \inf \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{Y}{B(1)} \right] : Y \geq X, \quad Y \text{ is attainable} \right\}.$$

- The **lower hedging price** of X , denoted by $V_-(X)$, is defined as

$$V_-(X) := \sup \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{Y}{B(1)} \right] : Y \leq X, \quad Y \text{ is attainable} \right\}.$$

Complete and Incomplete Markets

[An analogous remark apply to $V_-(X)$]

- 1 $V_+(X)$ is well defined and it is finite.
 - For any $\lambda > 0$, $\lambda B(1)$ is an attainable claim and if λ is large enough ($\lambda = \max_k \left\{ \frac{X_k}{B(1)} \right\}$) we have $\lambda B(1) \geq X$.
 - Hence, $V_+(X) \leq \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{\lambda B(1)}{B(1)} \right] = \lambda < +\infty$.
 - We also have that

$$\begin{aligned} V_+(X) &:= \inf_{Y \geq X, Y \text{ is attainable}} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{Y}{B(1)} \right] \right\} \\ &\geq \inf_{Y \geq X, Y \text{ is attainable}} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] \right\} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] \geq \min_k \left\{ \frac{X_k}{B(1)} \right\} > -\infty. \end{aligned}$$

- Since this inequality holds for all $Q \in \mathbb{M}$, it follows that

$$V_+(X) \geq \sup \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] : Q \in \mathbb{M} \right\}.$$

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Remark

- 2
 - $V_+(X)$ provides a good upper bound on the fair price of X in the sense that is the price of the cheapest portfolio that can be used to hedge a short position on X .
 - If you sell the contingent claim X for more than $V_+(X)$ you can make a risk-less profit.
- Therefore, the fair price of X must lie in the interval $[V_-(X), V_+(X)]$.
- So we are interested in computing $V_+(X)$ as well as any attainable contingent claim $Y \geq X$ such that $V_+(X) = \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{Y}{B(1)} \right]$.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

If $\mathbb{M} \neq \emptyset$, then for any contingent claim X one has

$$V_+(X) = \sup \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] : Q \in \mathbb{M} \right\}$$

and

$$V_-(X) = \inf \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] : Q \in \mathbb{M} \right\}.$$

Note that if X is attainable

$$V_+(X) = V_-(X) = \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right],$$

for any $Q \in \mathbb{M}$.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Example (Continuation Examples 3 and 7)

- Consider the market with $B(0) = 1, S(0) = 5$ and payoff matrix

$$S(1, \Omega) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10}{9} & \frac{20}{3} \\ \frac{10}{9} & \frac{40}{9} \\ \frac{10}{9} & \frac{30}{9} \end{pmatrix}.$$

- In this market we have a family of **RNPM**

$$\mathbb{M} = \left\{ Q_\lambda = (\lambda, 2 - 3\lambda, 2\lambda - 1)^T, \lambda \in \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3} \right) \right\},$$

and $X = (X_1, X_2, X_3)^T$ is attainable if and only if

$$X_1 - 3X_2 - 2X_3 = 0.$$

- Take $X = (30, 20, 10)^T$, which is not attainable because $30 - 3 \times 20 - 2 \times 10 \neq -50$.

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Example 8

- Then, we compute

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{Q_\lambda} \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] &= \lambda \frac{9}{10} 30 + (2 - 3\lambda) \frac{9}{10} 20 + (2\lambda - 1) \frac{9}{10} 10 \\ &= 27 - 9\lambda.\end{aligned}$$

- This gives

$$\begin{aligned}V_+(X) &= \sup_{Q \in \mathbb{M}} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] \right\} = \sup_{\lambda \in (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})} \{27 - 9\lambda\} \\ &= 27 - 9 \frac{1}{2} = 22.5, \\ V_-(X) &= \inf_{Q \in \mathbb{M}} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{X}{B(1)} \right] \right\} = \inf_{\lambda \in (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})} \{27 - 9\lambda\} \\ &= 27 - 9 \frac{2}{3} = 21.\end{aligned}$$

Complete and Incomplete Markets

Example 8

- Any price of X in the interval $[21, 22.5]$ is arbitrage free.
- By solving appropriate **LP** problems one can find attainable claims corresponding to the upper and lower hedging prices $V_+(X)$ and $V_-(X)$.
- In fact, one can check that
 - $Y = (30, 20, 15)^T \geq (30, 20, 10)^T = X$ gives

$$V_+(X) = \mathbb{E}_{Q_\lambda} \left[\frac{Y}{B(1)} \right], \quad \lambda \in \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3} \right).$$

- $Y = (30, \frac{50}{3}, 10)^T \leq (30, 20, 10)^T = X$ gives

$$V_-(X) = \mathbb{E}_{Q_\lambda} \left[\frac{Y}{B(1)} \right], \quad \lambda \in \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3} \right).$$

Thank you!