

Stochastic Calculus For Finance - volume 2

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Section 7.4.1 Floating Strike Lookback Option

An option whose **payoff** is based on **the maximum that the underlying asset price attains** over some interval of time prior to expiration is called a **lookback option**.

We begin with a geometric Brownian motion asset price, which may be written as in (7.3.1) as

$$S(t) = S(0)e^{\sigma\widehat{W}(t)} \quad (7.4.1)$$

$$S(t) = S(0) \exp \left((r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)t + \sigma\widetilde{W}(t) \right).$$

where, as in Subsection 7.3.1, $\widehat{W}(t) = \alpha t + \widetilde{W}(t)$ and $\alpha = \frac{1}{\sigma} (r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)$

With

$$\widehat{M}(t) = \max_{0 \leq u \leq t} \widehat{W}(u), \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, \quad (7.4.2)$$

we may write the maximum of the asset price up to time t as

$$Y(t) = \max_{0 \leq u \leq t} S(u) = S(0)e^{\sigma\widehat{M}(t)} \quad (7.4.3)$$

The lookback option considered in this section pays off

$$V(T) = Y(T) - S(T) \quad (7.4.4)$$

at expiration time T . This payoff is nonnegative because $Y(T) \geq S(T)$

Let $t \in [0, T]$ be given. At time t , the risk-neutral price of the lookback option is

$$V(t) = \mathbb{E}^Q[e^{-r(T-t)}(Y(T) - S(T)) | \mathcal{F}(t)]$$

Because the pair of processes $(S(t), Y(t))$ has the **Markov property**, there must exist a function $v(t, x, y)$ such that

$$V(t) = v(t, S(t), Y(t))$$

Section 7.4.2 Black–Scholes–Merton Equation

Theorem 7.4.1. Let $v(t, x, y)$ denote the price at time t of the floating strike lookback option under the assumption that $S(t) = x$ and $Y(t) = y$. Then $v(t, x, y)$ satisfies the *Black-Scholes-Merton partial differential equation*

$$v_t(t, x, y) + rxv_x(t, x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 x^2 v_{xx}(t, x, y) = rv(t, x, y) \quad (7.4.6)$$

in the region $\{(t, x, y); 0 \leq t < T, 0 \leq x \leq y\}$ and satisfies the boundary conditions

$$v(t, 0, y) = e^{-r(T-t)}y, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, y \geq 0 \quad (7.4.7)$$

$$v_y(t, y, y) = 0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, y > 0 \quad (7.4.8)$$

$$v(T, x, y) = y - x, \quad 0 \leq x \leq y \quad (7.4.9)$$

Iterated conditioning implies that $e^{-rt}V(t) = e^{-rt}v(t, S(t), Y(t))$, where $V(t)$ is given by (7.4.5), is a martingale under $\tilde{\mathbb{P}}$. We compute its differential and set the dt term equal to zero to obtain (7.4.6). However, when we do this, the term $dY(t)$ appears. This is different from the term $dS(t)$, because $S(t)$ has nonzero quadratic variation, whereas $Y(t)$ has zero quadratic variation. This is because $Y(t)$ is continuous and nondecreasing in t . Let $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_m = T$ be a partition of $[0, T]$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^m (Y(t_j) - Y(t_{j-1}))^2 &\leq \max_{j=1, \dots, m} (Y(t_j) - Y(t_{j-1})) \sum_{j=1}^m (Y(t_j) - Y(t_{j-1})) \\ &= \max_{j=1, \dots, m} (Y(t_j) - Y(t_{j-1})) \cdot (Y(T) - Y(0)), \end{aligned} \quad (7.4.10)$$

and $\max_{j=1, \dots, m} (Y(t_j) - Y(t_{j-1}))$ has limit zero as $\max_{j=1, \dots, m} (t_j - t_{j-1})$ goes to zero because $Y(t)$ is continuous. We conclude that $Y(t)$ accumulates zero quadratic variation on $[0, T]$, a fact we record by writing

$$dY(t)dY(t) = 0. \quad (7.4.11)$$

On the other hand, $dY(t)$ is not a dt term: there is no process $\Theta(t)$ such that

$$dY(t) = \Theta(t)dt.$$

In other words, we cannot write $Y(t)$ as

$$Y(t) = Y(0) + \int_0^t \Theta(u) du. \quad (7.4.12)$$

if (7.4.12) were to hold, we would need to have $\Theta(u) = 0$ for Lebesgue almost every u in $[0, T]$. This would result in $Y(t) = Y(0)$ for $0 \leq t \leq T$. But in fact $Y(t) > Y(0)$ for all $t > 0$. We conclude that $Y(t)$ cannot be represented in the form (7.4.12); $dY(t)$ is not a dt term.

The paths of $Y(t)$ increase over time, but they do so on a set of times having **zero Lebesgue measure**. Each time interval $[0, T]$ contains a sequence of subintervals whose lengths sum to T , and on each of these subintervals, $Y(t)$ is constant. The particular subintervals depend on the path, but regardless of the path, the lengths of these subintervals sum to T . A similar situation is described in Appendix A, Section A.3. In the case discussed there, $T = 1$ and the subintervals are explicitly exhibited. Their union is the **Cantor set**. It is verified that although the lengths of these subintervals sum to 1, there are uncountably many points not contained in these intervals. The function $F(x)$ described in Section A.3 increases, but only on the complement of the Cantor set. Furthermore, $F(x)$ is continuous. Functions of this kind are said to be **singularly continuous**.

Fortunately, we can work with the differential of $Y(t)$. We have already argued that

$$dY(t) dY(t) = 0.$$

Similarly, we have

$$dY(t) dS(t) = 0. \quad (7.4.13)$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 7.4.1: We use the Ito-Doebelin formula and (7.4.11) and (7.4.13) to differentiate the martingale $e^{-rt}v(t, S(t), Y(t))$ to obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 & d\left(e^{-rt}v(t, S(t), Y(t))\right) \\
 &= e^{-rt} \left[-rv(t, S(t), Y(t))dt + v_t(t, S(t), Y(t))dt + \underline{v_x(t, S(t), Y(t))dS(t)} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \underline{\frac{1}{2}v_{xx}(t, S(t), Y(t))dS(t)dS(t)} + v_y(t, S(t), Y(t))dY(t) \right] \tag{7.4.14} \\
 &= e^{-rt} \left[-rv(t, S(t), Y(t)) + v_t(t, S(t), Y(t)) + \underline{rS(t)v_x(t, S(t), Y(t))} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \underline{\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 S^2(t)v_{xx}(t, S(t), Y(t))} \right] dt \\
 &\quad + \underline{e^{-rt}\sigma S(t)v_x(t, S(t), Y(t))d\widetilde{W}(t)} + e^{-rt}v_y(t, S(t), Y(t))dY(t).
 \end{aligned}$$

In order to have a **martingale**, the dt term must be zero, and this gives us the Black–Scholes–Merton equation (7.4.6). The new feature is that the term

$$e^{-rt} v_y(t, S(t), Y(t)) dY(t)$$

must **also be zero**. It cannot be canceled by the dt term nor by the $dW(t)$ term because it is fundamentally different from both of these terms. The $dY(t)$ term is naturally zero on the “flat spots” of $Y(t)$ i.e., when $S(t) < Y(t)$. (However, at the times when $Y(t)$ increases, which are the times when $S(t) = Y(t)$, the term

$$e^{-rt} v_y(t, S(t), Y(t)) dY(t) \quad v_y(t, y, y) = 0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, y > 0 \quad (7.4.8)$$

must be zero because $dY(t)$ is “positive.” This gives us the **boundary condition (7.4.8)**.

$$v(T, x, y) = y - x, \quad 0 \leq x \leq y \quad (7.4.9)$$

The boundary condition (7.4.9) is the payoff of the option. If at any time t we have $S(t) = 0$, then we will have $S(T) = 0$. Furthermore, Y will be constant on $[t, T]$; if $Y(t) = y$, then $Y(T) = y$, and the price of the option at time t is this value discounted from T back to t . This gives us the boundary condition (7.4.7).

$$v(t, 0, y) = e^{-r(T-t)} y, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, y \geq 0 \quad (7.4.7)$$

Remark 7.4.2. The proof of Theorem 7.4.1 shows that

$$d (e^{-rt} v(t, S(t), Y(t))) = e^{-rt} \sigma S(t) v_x(t, S(t), Y(t)) d\tilde{W}(t).$$

Just as in **Remark 7.3.3**, this equation implies that the delta-hedging formula (7.3.15) works. In contrast to the situation in Remark 7.3.3, here the function $v(t, x, y)$ is **continuous** and we have no problems with large delta and gamma values.

Section 7.4. 3 Reduction of Dimension

The price of the floating strike lookback option has a linear scaling property:

$$v(t, \lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda v(t, x, y) \text{ for all } \lambda > 0. \quad (7.4.15)$$

This is because scaling both $S(t)$ and $Y(t)$ by the same positive constant at a time t prior to expiration results in the payoff $Y(T) - S(T)$ being scaled by the same constant. In particular, if we know the function of two variables

$$u(t, z) = v(t, z, 1), 0 \leq t \leq T, 0 \leq z \leq 1, \quad (7.4.16)$$

then we can easily determine the function of three variables $v(t, x, y)$ by the formula

$$v(t, x, y) = y \cdot v\left(t, \frac{x}{y}, 1\right) = y \cdot u\left(t, \frac{x}{y}\right), 0 \leq t \leq T, 0 \leq x \leq y, y > 0. \quad (7.4.17)$$

From (7.4.17), we can compute the partial derivatives:

$$v_t(t, x, y) = y \cdot u_t \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right)$$

$$v_x(t, x, y) = y \cdot u_z \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{x}{y} \right) = u_z \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right),$$

$$v(t, x, y) = y \cdot u \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right)$$

$$v_{xx}(t, x, y) = u_{zz} \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{x}{y} \right) = \frac{1}{y} \cdot u_{zz} \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right),$$

$$v_y(t, x, y) = u \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) + y \cdot u_z \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{x}{y} \right) = u \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) - \frac{x}{y} \cdot u_z \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right)$$

Substitution into the Black-Scholes-Merton equation (7.4.6) yields

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= -rv(t, x, y) + v_t(t, x, y) + rx v_x(t, x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 x^2 v_{xx}(t, x, y) \\ &= y \left[-r \cdot u \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) + u_t \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) + r \cdot \left(\frac{x}{y} \right) \cdot u_z \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \left(\frac{x}{y} \right)^2 \cdot u_{zz} \left(t, \frac{x}{y} \right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

Canceling y and making the change of variable $z = \frac{x}{y}$, we see that $u(t, z)$ satisfies the Black-Scholes-Merton equation

$$u_t(t, z) + rz u_z(t, z) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 z^2 u_{zz}(t, z) = r u(t, z) \quad (7.4.18)$$

Boundary conditions for $u(t, z)$ can be obtained from the boundary conditions (7.4.7)- (7.4.9) for $v(t, x, y)$.

In particular, $e^{-r(T-t)}y = v(t, 0, y) = y u(t, 0)$ implies

$$u(t, 0) = e^{-r(T-t)}, 0 \leq t \leq T. \quad (7.4.19)$$

Furthermore, $0 = v_y(t, y, y) = u(t, 1) - u_z(t, 1)$ implies

$$u(t, 1) = u_z(t, 1), 0 \leq t < T. \quad (7.4.20)$$

Finally, $y - x = v(T, x, y) = y u\left(T, \frac{x}{y}\right)$ implies

$$u(T, z) = 1 - z, 0 \leq z \leq 1. \quad (7.4.21)$$

Equation (7.4.18) and the boundary conditions (7.4.19)–(7.4.21) uniquely determine the function $u(t, z)$. As a consequence, we see that the Black–Scholes–Merton equation and boundary conditions in Theorem 7.4.1 uniquely determine the function $v(t, x, y)$.