

# COMPUTATIONAL FINANCE: 422

## *General Principles*

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# This Lecture

Evaluation of random cash flows:

- direct evaluation using risk measures
  - Utility functions
  - Risk aversion
- indirect evaluation by reducing the flow to a combination of flows which have already been evaluated
  - Linear pricing
  - Portfolio choice
  - Risk-neutral pricing

Further reading:

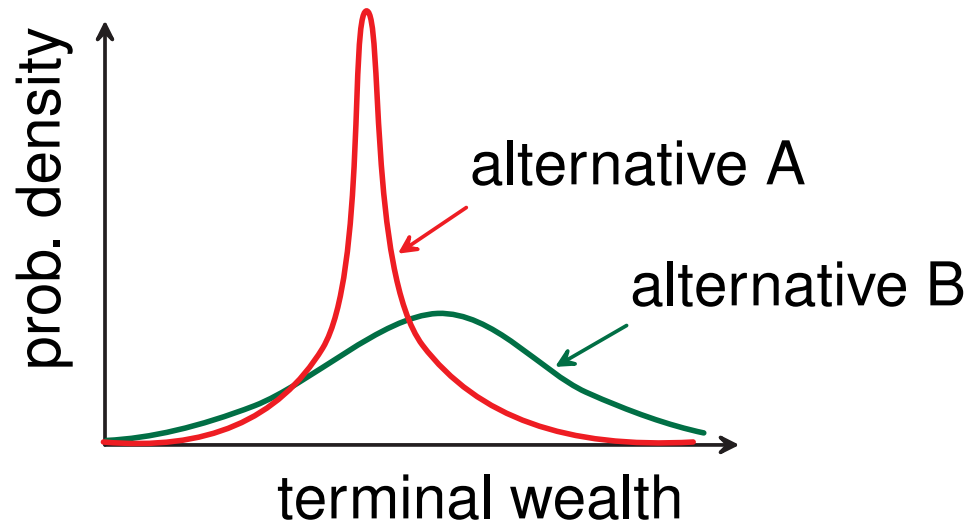
- D.G. Luenberger: *Investment Science*, Chapter 9

# Utility Functions I

Assume that today there are different investment opportunities which lead to different wealth levels after one year.

General aim: maximize wealth at the end of the year.

- **Certain outcomes**: select the alternative that produces the highest wealth.
- **Random outcomes**: not obvious how to rank choices.



# Utility Functions II

We need a procedure for ranking random wealth levels.

Utility function  $U$ :

- defined on the real line (possible wealth levels);
- gives a real value (utility index).

For a given utility function, alternative random wealth levels are ranked by evaluating their expected utility values.

⇒ we compare random wealth variables  $x$  and  $y$  by comparing  $E[U(x)]$  and  $E[U(y)]$ ; the larger value is preferred.

Utility functions vary among decision makers, depending on

- their risk tolerance;
- their individual financial environment.

# Utility Functions III

The simplest utility function is  $U(x) = x$

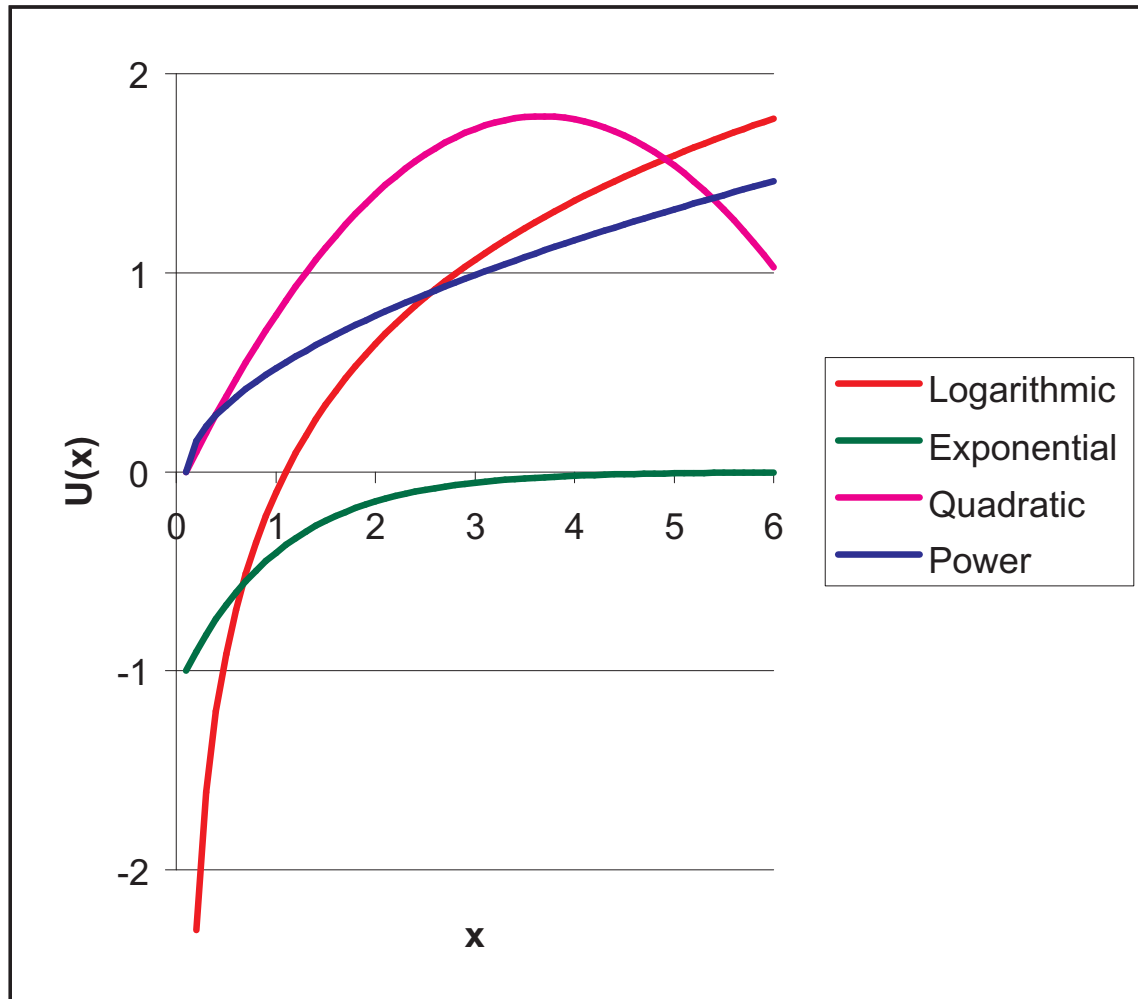
⇒ ranking by expected values!

Individuals using this utility function are called risk neutral.

Some of the most commonly used utility functions:

- **Exponential**:  $U(x) = -e^{-ax}$  for some  $a > 0$ ;
- **Logarithmic**:  $U(x) = \ln(x)$ ; defined only for  $x > 0$ ;
- **Power**:  $U(x) = bx^b$  for some  $b \leq 1, b \neq 0$ ;
- **Quadratic**:  $U(x) = x - bx^2$  for some  $b > 0$ ; this function is increasing only for  $x < 1/(2b)$ .

# Utility Functions IV



# Venture Capitalist

Sybil, a venture capitalist, considers **two investment alternatives** for next year:

1. buy **treasury bills**, which give \$6M for sure;
2. invest in a **start-up company**; this will produce wealth levels \$10M, \$5M, and \$1M with probabilities 0.2, 0.4, and 0.4, respectively.

Sybil uses  $U(x) = x^{1/2}$  (where  $x$  is in millions of dollars):

1. the **treasury bills** have an expected utility of  $\sqrt{6} = 2.45$ ;
2. the **start-up company** has expected utility of

$$0.2 \times \sqrt{10} + 0.4 \times \sqrt{5} + 0.4 \times \sqrt{1} = 1.93.$$

⇒ The first alternative is preferred to the second!

# Equivalent Utility Functions

Since a utility function is merely used to **rank different choices**, its actual numerical value has no real meaning.

Utility functions can be **modified** without changing the ranking by:

1. **adding a constant**  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ :  $U(x) \rightarrow V(x) = U(x) + b$ ;
2. **multiplying by a constant**  $a > 0$ :  $U(x) \rightarrow V(x) = aU(x)$ .

It can be shown that the combined transformation

$$U(x) \rightarrow V(x) = aU(x) + b \quad \text{for } a > 0$$

is the **only transformation that preserves the rankings** of all random outcomes.



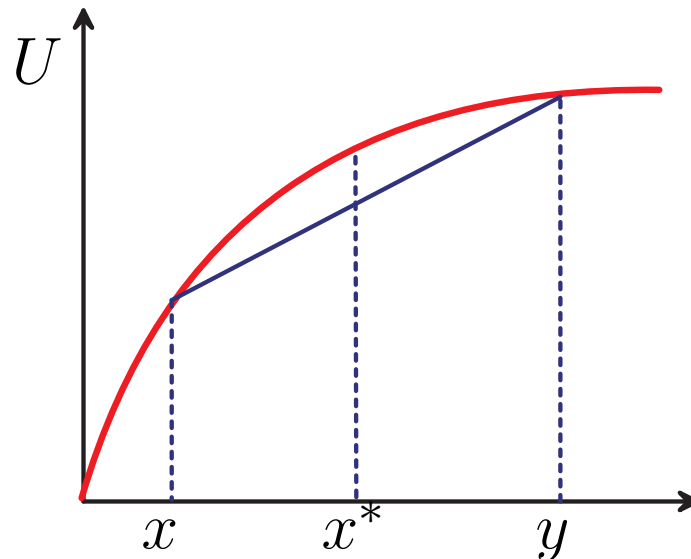
# Risk Aversion I

**Definition:** A function  $U : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be **concave** if for any  $\alpha$  in  $[0, 1]$  and for any  $x$  and  $y$  in  $[a, b]$  there holds

$$U[\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y] \geq \alpha U(x) + (1 - \alpha)U(y).$$

A utility fct.  $U$  is called **risk averse** if it is concave on  $[a, b]$ .

$\Rightarrow$  The **straight line** drawn between two points on the function must lie **below** or on the function itself.



$$x^* = \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y$$

# Risk Aversion II

Assume that we have **two alternatives** for future wealth:

1. we obtain  $x$  with probability  $\alpha$  or  $y$  with probability  $1 - \alpha$ ;
2. we obtain  $x^* = \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y$  with certainty.

Both alternatives have the **same expected wealth**  $x^*$ .  
However, the **expected utility of the first alternative** is

$$\alpha U(x) + (1 - \alpha)U(y),$$

while the **expected utility of the second alternative** is

$$U[\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y].$$

$\Rightarrow$  The risk-free (second) alternative is preferred if  $U$  is concave.

# Risk Aversion III

The properties of a utility function relate to its **derivatives**:

- $U(x)$  is strictly **increasing** in  $x \iff U'(x) > 0$ ;
- $U(x)$  is strictly **concave** in  $x \iff U''(x) < 0$ .

Most people are **greedy**. From a set of deterministic wealth levels they prefer the highest one  $\Rightarrow$  typical utility functions are **increasing**. Most people are also **risk-averse**  $\Rightarrow$  typical utility functions are **concave**. Exceptions:

- people accept **unfavorable bets with a high potential reward** if the initial investment is small (**lotteries**);
- imagine that a mafia thug threatens to shoot you if you fail to pay \$10M; if you only own \$1M, you may go to a casino and put all your money on one number.

# Risk Aversion IV

The **degree of risk aversion** implied by a utility function is related to the **magnitude of the curvature** of the function.

**Arrow-Pratt absolute risk aversion coefficient:**

$$a(x) = -\frac{U''(x)}{U'(x)}$$

- $a(x)$  shows how risk-aversion **changes with wealth**;
- usually, **risk-aversion decreases** as wealth grows;
- $a(x)$  is the same for all **equivalent** utility functions.

**Example:**  $U(x) = ae^{-ax}$  (exponential utility)  $\Rightarrow a(x) = a$ ;  
 $U(x) = \ln x$  (logarithmic utility)  $\Rightarrow a(x) = 1/x$ .

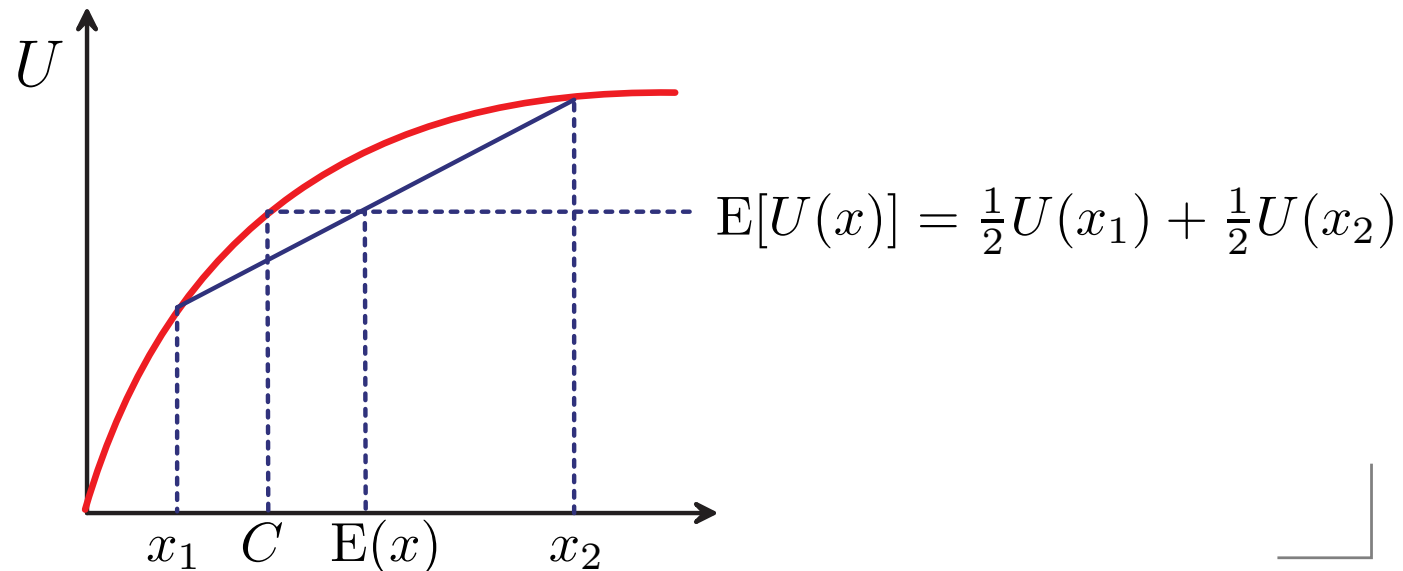
# Certainty Equivalent

**Definition:** The **certainty equivalent**  $C$  of a random wealth variable  $x$  is the amount of certain (deterministic) wealth that has a utility level equal to the expected utility of  $x$ .

$$\Rightarrow U(C) = E[U(x)]$$

Note that  $C$  is **the same for all equivalent utility functions**.

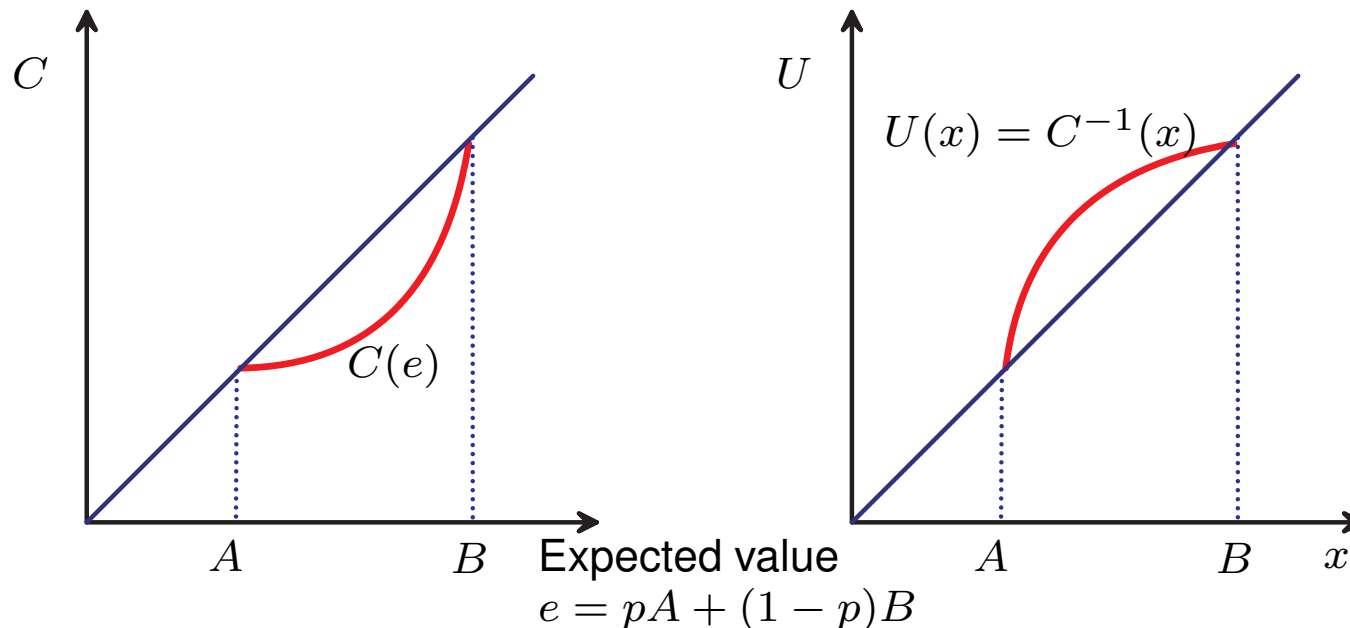
**Example:** assume  $x$  takes values  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$



# Measuring Utility Functions I

A way to measure an investor's utility function is as follows:

1. select fixed wealth levels  $A$  and  $B$  (reference points);
2. propose a lottery that has outcome  $A$  with probability  $p$  and outcome  $B$  with probability  $1 - p$ ;
3. for  $p \in [0, 1]$  the investor is asked how much certain wealth  $C$  he or she would accept in place of the lottery.



# Measuring Utility Functions II

Another method to assign utility functions is to select a **parameterized family** of functions and determine suitable parameter values:

- one often assumes  $U(x) = -e^{-ax}$  (**exponential utility**);
- only the **risk aversion parameter**  $a$  must be determined;
- this can be done by **evaluating a single lottery** in certainty equivalent terms.

**Example:** Ask an investor how much he or she would accept in place of a lottery that offers a 50-50 chance of winning \$1M or \$100,000. If the investor feels that the certainty equivalent wealth is \$400,000, then we set

$$-e^{-400,000a} = -0.5e^{-1,000,000a} - 0.5e^{-100,000a}.$$

Numerical solution:  $a = 1/\$623,426$ .

# Measuring Utility Functions III

The **risk aversion characteristics** of a person depend on the person's

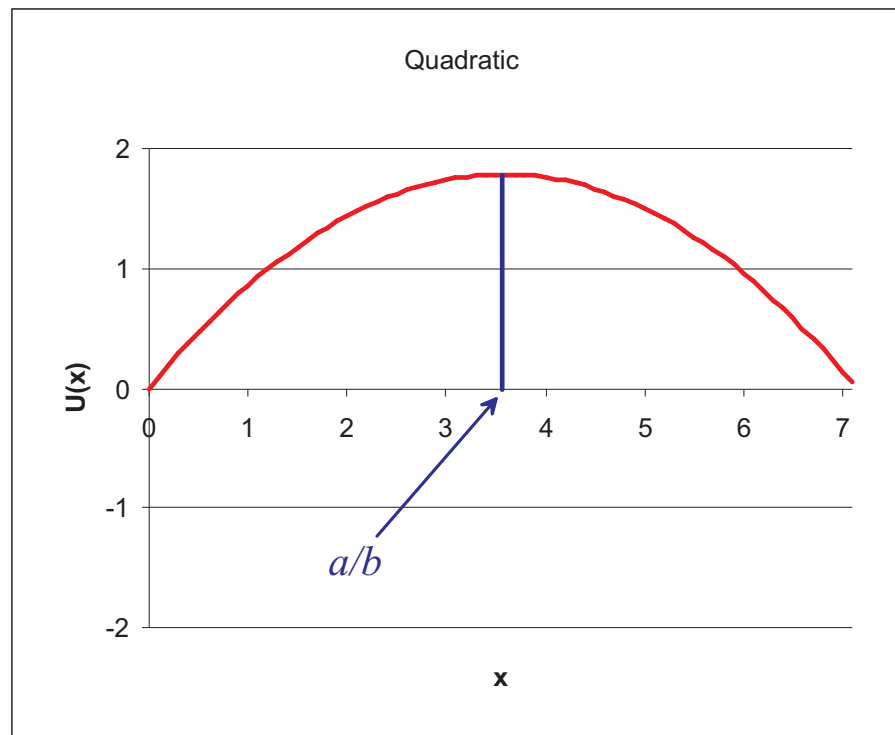
- feelings about **risk**;
- current **financial situation**;
- the **prospects for financial gains or requirements** (such as college expenses);
- **age**.

An investor's attitude toward risk and toward type of investment might be inferred from responses to a questionnaire; see e.g. *Investment Science* p. 238.



# Connection to Mean-Variance Criterion

- Quadratic utility function  $U(x) = ax - \frac{1}{2}bx^2$  for  $a, b > 0$ .
- Meaningful range of  $U$ :  $x \leq a/b$  (where  $U$  is increasing).
- All random variables are assumed to lie in this range.
- Since  $b > 0$ ,  $U$  is concave  $\Rightarrow$  risk aversion.



# Connection to Mean-Variance Criterion

- Suppose a **portfolio** has random wealth level  $y$ . Evaluate the **expected utility** of this portfolio:

$$\begin{aligned} E[U(y)] &= E\left(ay - \frac{1}{2}by^2\right) = a E(y) - \frac{1}{2}b E(y^2) \\ &= a E(y) - \frac{1}{2}b E(y)^2 - \frac{1}{2}b \text{var}(y). \end{aligned}$$

- The **optimal portfolio** maximizes this value w.r.t. all feasible choices of  $y$ .
  - If initial wealth = 1, then  $y$  = portfolio return. If the optimal solution has  $E(y) = 1 + \bar{r}_P$ , then  $y$  has **minimum variance** w.r.t. all feasible  $y$ 's with  $E(y) = 1 + \bar{r}_P$ .
- ⇒ The solution is a **mean-variance efficient point**!

# Securities

**Definition:** A **security** is a random payoff variable  $d$ . The payoff is **revealed and obtained at the end of the period** ( $d$  can be interpreted as a **dividend**). Associated with a security is a **price**  $P$ .

Examples:

- imagine a security that pays  $d = \$10$  if it rains tomorrow or  $d = \$ - 10$  if it is sunny, with zero initial price (this is a \$10 **bet** that it will rain tomorrow);
- a **share of IBM stock** whose value at the end of the year is unknown.

Note: the **payoff**  $d$  is a **random variable**, while the **price**  $P$  is a **real number**.

# Type A Arbitrage

**Definition:** A **type A arbitrage** is an investment that produces an **immediate positive reward with no future payoff**.

$\Rightarrow$  A type A arbitrage is a security with  $P < 0$  and  $d = 0$ .

Reasonable assumption: there is **no market-traded security which is a type A arbitrage** since

- the **market price** of a security settles in such a way as to **equalize the quantity demanded** by buyers and the **quantity supplied** by sellers;
- nobody would want to sell a type A arbitrage, while everybody would want to buy it  $\Rightarrow$  **no equilibrium of demand and supply is possible for a type A arbitrage**.

# Portfolios

- Suppose that there are  $n$  securities with payoffs  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n$  and prices  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$ ;
- a portfolio is represented by an  $n$ -dimensional vector  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n)$ ;
- the  $i$ th component  $\theta_i$  represents the number of securities of type  $i$  in the portfolio;
- the payoff of the portfolio is

$$d = \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i d_i$$

- the total price of the portfolio is

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i P_i$$

⇒ Linearity of pricing

# Linearity of Pricing I

Linearity of pricing means that

1. the price of the **sum** of two securities is the sum of their prices;
2. the price of a **multiple** of an asset is the same multiple of the price.

In an **ideal market**, the **absence of type A arbitrage opportunities** implies linear pricing.

A market is ideal if

- securities can be **arbitrarily divided**;
- there are **no transaction costs**;
- **short sales** are allowed.

# Linearity of Pricing II

**Theorem 1.** In an *ideal market*, the *absence of type A arbitrage opportunities* implies linear pricing.

*Proof.* Let  $d$  be a security with price  $P$ . Consider the security  $d' = 2d$  with price  $P'$ .

- If  $P' < 2P$ , we would buy  $d'$  and sell short two units of  $d$ . We would obtain an immediate profit  $2P - P'$  and have no further obligation. This is a type A arbitrage!  $\Rightarrow P' \geq 2P$ .
- The reverse argument shows that  $P' \leq 2P \Rightarrow P' = 2P$ .

Similarly, we can show that for any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  the price of  $\alpha d$  is  $\alpha P$ . □

# Linearity of Pricing II

**Theorem 2.** In an *ideal market*, the *absence of type A arbitrage opportunities* implies linear pricing.

*Proof.* Let  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  be securities with prices  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . Consider the security  $d' = d_1 + d_2$  with price  $P'$ .

- If  $P' < P_1 + P_2$ , we would buy  $d'$  and sell short one unit of  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  each. We would obtain an immediate profit  $P_1 + P_2 - P'$  and have no further obligation. This is a type A arbitrage!  
 $\Rightarrow P' \geq P_1 + P_2$ .
- The reverse argument shows that  $P' \leq P_1 + P_2 \Rightarrow P' = P_1 + P_2$ .

Therefore, in general, the price of  $\alpha d_1 + \beta d_2$  must be  $\alpha P_1 + \beta P_2$ .  $\square$



# Type B Arbitrage

**Definition:** A **type B arbitrage** is an investment that has

- nonpositive cost,
- positive probability of yielding a positive payoff,
- and no probability of yielding a negative payoff.

⇒ A type B arbitrage is a security with

- $P \leq 0$ ,
- $d \geq 0$ ,
- and  $\text{Prob}(d > 0) > 0$ .

**Example:** a free lottery ticket.

Below we assume that neither type A nor type B arbitrage is possible.

# Portfolio Problem I

An investor with utility function  $U$  and initial wealth  $W$  solves the problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{maximize}} && \mathbb{E}[U(x)] \\ & \text{subject to} && \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i d_i = x \\ & && \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i P_i \leq W. \end{aligned} \tag{\mathcal{P}}$$

- Investor maximizes expected utility of final wealth.
- Final wealth is described by the random variable  $x$ .
- The portfolio may not cost more than  $W$ .

# Portfolio Problem II

**Theorem 3.** Assume that  $U(x)$  is continuous,  $U(x) \rightarrow +\infty$  as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ , and there is a portfolio  $\theta^0$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i^0 d_i > 0$ . Then:

$\mathcal{P}$  has a solution  $\iff$  there is no arbitrage possibility.

*Proof.*  $\Rightarrow$ :

- If  $\exists$  type A arbitrage  $\Rightarrow$  using the arbitrage we can generate money to buy an arbitrary amount of portfolio  $\theta^0$ . Thus,  $E[U(x)]$  is unbounded, and there exists no optimal portfolio.
- If  $\exists$  type B arbitrage with payoff  $\bar{x} \Rightarrow$  we can buy (at zero or negative cost) an arbitrary amount of this arbitrage to increase  $E[U(x)]$  arbitrarily (recall that  $\text{Prob}(\bar{x} > 0) > 0$ ).

$\Rightarrow$  If  $\exists$  a solution for  $\mathcal{P}$ , then there can be no type A or B arbitrage.  $\square$

# Portfolio Problem III

To solve  $\mathcal{P}$  we note that  $\sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i P_i = W$  at the optimum.

Thus, we study the **simplified problem**

$$\underset{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{maximize}} \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ U \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i d_i \right) \right]$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i P_i = W ,$$

whose **Lagrangian function** reads

$$L(\theta, \lambda) = \mathbb{E} \left[ U \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i d_i \right) \right] - \lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i P_i - W \right) .$$

# Portfolio Problem IV

Differentiating  $L$  w.r.t.  $\theta_i$  gives the **optimality conditions**:

$$\mathbb{E}[U'(x^*)d_i] = \lambda P_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (1)$$

where  $x^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i^* d_i$  and  $\theta^*$  is an **optimal portfolio** for  $\mathcal{P}$ .

The optimality conditions (1) and the budget constraint  $\sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i P_i = W$  represent  **$n + 1$  equations** for the  **$n + 1$  unknowns**  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n$ , and  $\lambda$ . It can be shown that  $\lambda > 0$ .

The equations (1) serve two roles:

- they can be used to **solve  $\mathcal{P}$** ;
- they provide a **characterization of the securities prices** under the assumption of **no arbitrage**.

# Portfolio Problem V

**Theorem 4.** *If  $x^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i^* d_i$  solves  $\mathcal{P}$ , then*

$$\mathbb{E}[U'(x^*)d_i] = \lambda P_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

*where  $\lambda > 0$ . If there is a risk-free asset with total return  $R$ , then*

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}[U'(x^*)d_i]}{R\mathbb{E}[U'(x^*)]} = P_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

*Proof.* The risk-free asset has price  $P_i = 1$  and payoff  $d_i = R$ . The optimality condition for this asset implies

$$\lambda = \mathbb{E}[U'(x^*)]R.$$

Substituting this expression for  $\lambda$  into (1) proves the theorem. □

# A Film Venture I

There are two 'securities' with a two year horizon:

- a risk free asset yielding 20%;
- a film venture with three possible return outcomes.

	Return	Probability
High success	3.0	0.3
Moderate success	1.0	0.4
Failure	0.0	0.3
Risk free	1.2	1.0

An investor with utility  $U(x) = \ln x$  and capital  $W$  selects the amounts  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  of the two securities (both have price 1).

maximize  $[.3 \ln(3\theta_1 + 1.2\theta_2) + .4 \ln(\theta_1 + 1.2\theta_2) + .3 \ln(1.2\theta_2)]$

subject to  $\theta_1 + \theta_2 = W$ .

# A Film Venture II

The optimality conditions (1) translate to

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{.9}{3\theta_1 + 1.2\theta_2} + \frac{.4}{\theta_1 + 1.2\theta_2} &= \lambda \\ \frac{.36}{3\theta_1 + 1.2\theta_2} + \frac{.48}{\theta_1 + 1.2\theta_2} + \frac{.36}{1.2\theta_2} &= \lambda.\end{aligned}$$

Solving these two equations together with the constraint  $\theta_1 + \theta_2 = W$  yields the optimal portfolio choice:

$$\theta_1 = .089W, \quad \theta_2 = .911W, \quad \lambda = 1/W.$$

⇒ The investor should commit 8.9% of his/her wealth to the film venture and the rest to the risk free asset.