財務工程 - Week7

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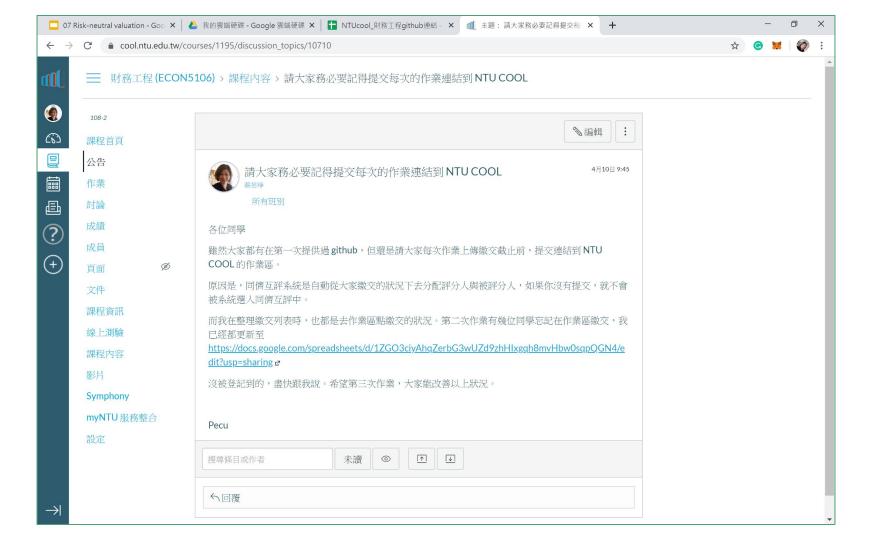
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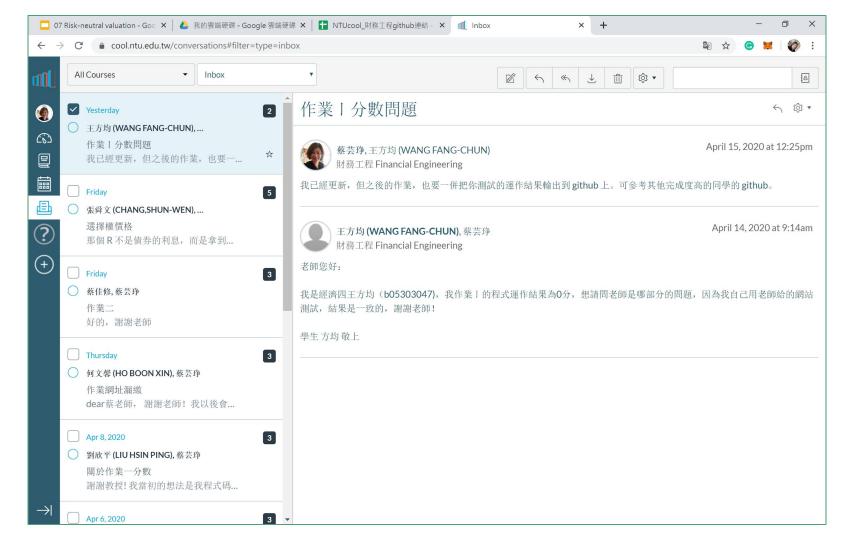
Github 作業繳交列表

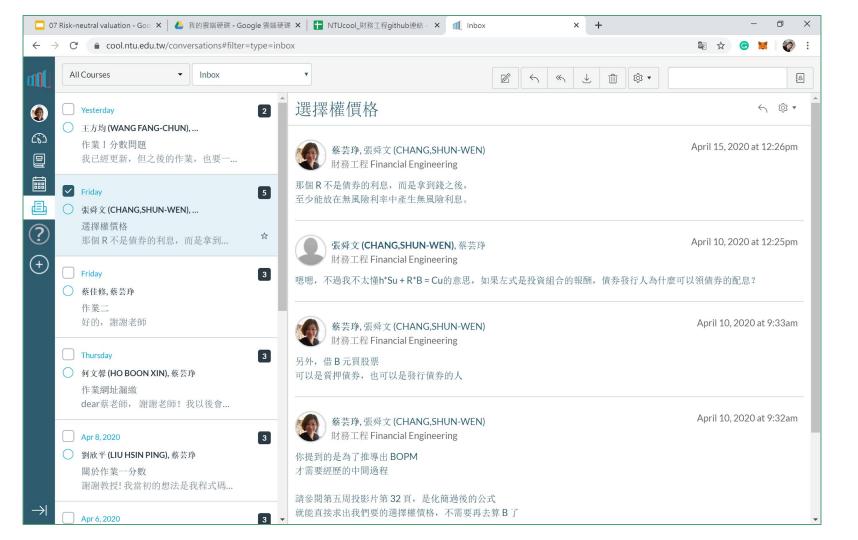
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1ZGO3ciyAhqZerbG3wUZd9zhHlxgqh8mvHbw0sqpQGN4/edit?usp=sharinq

作業二完整度高之作品

- 1. https://github.com/pjwu1997/FinancialEngineering/tree/master/HW2
- 2. https://github.com/manamimebom/Financial_Engineering/tree/master/HW2
- 3. https://github.com/weiooo/Financial_Engineering/tree/master/HW2
- 4. https://github.com/chanqchiaruei/Financial-Engineering/tree/master/HW_2
- 5. https://github.com/KatherineChu/Financial-Engineering/tree/master/HW2
- 6. https://github.com/fatdanny77/Financial_Engineering/tree/master/HW2
- 7. https://github.com/mengjelee/Financial_Engineering/tree/master/hw2
- 8. https://github.com/jenny56402/Financial_Engineering/tree/master/HW2
- 9. https://github.com/EnChiSu/Financial-Engineering/tree/master/HW2
- 10. https://github.com/feiyuehchen/Financial_Engineering/tree/master/HW2







(Risk-Neutral Valuation)

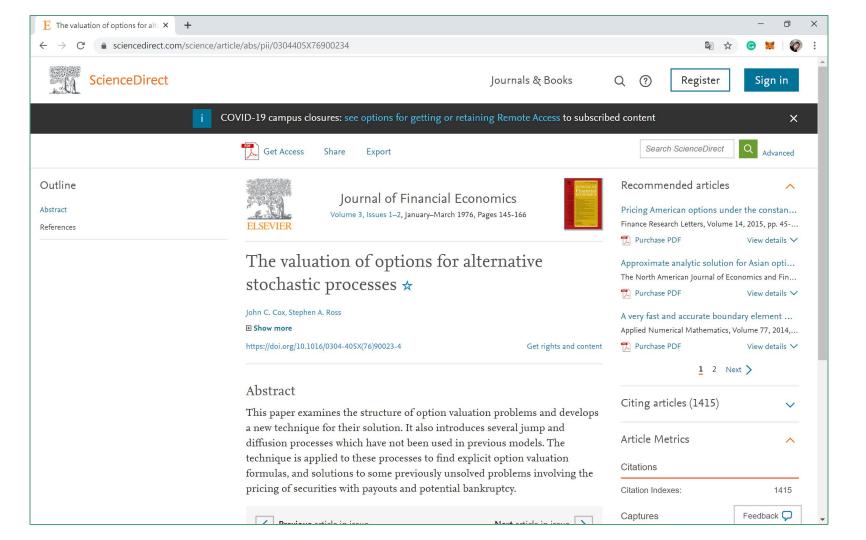
風險中性定價理論

風險中性定價理論於資本市場中的意義 (1/2)

- 市場不存在任何套利可能性的條件下,如果衍生證券的價格依然依賴於可交易的基礎證券,那麼這個衍生證券的價格是與投資者的風險態度無關的。
- 這個結論在數學上表現為衍生證券定價的微分方程中並不包含有受投資者風險態度的變數,尤其是期望收益率。

風險中性定價理論於資本市場中的意義 (2/2)

- 這種定價原理與投資者的風險制度無關,從而推廣到對任何衍生證券都 適用,所有投資者都是風險中性的,這個價格的決定,又是適用於任何一 種風險志度的投資者。
- 2. 在風險中性的經濟環境中,投資者並不要求任何的風險補償或風險報酬 ,所以基礎證券與衍生證券的期望收益率都恰好等於無風險利率。
- 3. 由於不存在任何的風險補償或風險報酬,市場的貼現率也恰好等於無風險利率,所以基礎證券或衍生證券的任何盈虧經無風險利率的貼現就是它們的現值。



Risk-Neutral 風險中立

- 1. The "risk-neutral" technique is frequently used to value derivative securities. It was developed by John Cox and Stephen Ross in a 1976 article "The Valuation of Options for Alternative Stochastic Processes" Journal of Financial Economics 3, p.145-66.
- 2. This course considers the intuition for this technique and the technique's important applications for the case of the risk-free interest rate being constant.

Recall Week5 BOPM

The one-period expected payoff on a call option is

$$\frac{pC_u + (1-p)C_d}{R}$$

The expected payoff on a call option

Thus, the equation could be written as

$$C_t = \frac{1}{R_f} \hat{E}[\tilde{C}_{t+1}]$$

where C_t is the call option at time t, and $\hat{E}[\tilde{C}_{t+1}]$ is the expected value of the call at time t+1 in a risk-neutral world. Therefore, C_t is the "risk-neutral expected value" of \tilde{C}_{t+1} discounted at the risk-free rate, that is,

$$\frac{1}{R_f} = e^{-{\bf r}}.$$
 where r is defined as the continuously-compounded one-period interest rate. As we saw earlier,

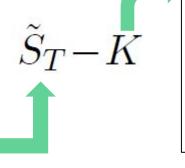
this "risk-neutral" valuation result is not just coincidental to options but will hold whenever markets are complete. For example, it can hold for valuing other securities, such as forward contracts.

A forward contract is an agreement

- 1. A forward contract is an agreement where two parties agree to exchange an asset at some future date for a pre-agreed price.
- 2. The long (short) party agrees to receive (deliver) the asset in exchange for paying (receiving) this pre-agreed price at a future date, say date T.
- 3. No payment occurs between the parties at the time of the agreement of the contract, only at the maturity of the contract.

The payoff to the long party at the maturity of the forward contract can be written as

the underlying asset price at the maturity of the forward contract.



the previously agreed upon "delivery" price for the forward contract, which is said to equal the "forward price" at the agreement date of the contract.

Portfolios

- 1. Assume that the underlying asset pays no dividends and
- 2. define f as the current date t value of the forward contract and
- 3. $\tau \equiv T t$ as its time until maturity.

At date t:

Portfolio A: A long position in one forward contract written on an asset having current value

of S and having a forward price of K

Portfolio B: One share of the underlying asset plus borrowing an amount $e^{-r\tau}K$

At date T:

Portfolio A: $\tilde{S}_T - K$

Portfolio B: $\tilde{S}_T - K$

Since the two portfolios produce exactly the same cash flow at date T, the absence of arbitrage implies that their values at date t must also be the same, that is, $f = S - e^{-r\tau}K$.

What can also be shown is that the risk-neutral technique can also be used to derive this noarbitrage value for f. Applying the above risk-neutral method, the current value of a long position, f, is

 $f = e^{-r \tau} \hat{E}[\tilde{S}_T - K] = e^{-r \tau} \hat{E}[\tilde{S}_T] - e^{-r \tau} K.$

What is $\hat{E}[\tilde{S}_T]$, the expected value of \tilde{S}_T in a risk-neutral world? In a risk-neutral world, the expected rate of return on S would be r, and $\hat{E}[\tilde{S}_T] = Se^{r\tau}$. Thus,

$$f = e^{-r\tau} S e^{r\tau} - e^{-r\tau} K = S - e^{-r\tau} K$$

which is the same as our earlier no-arbitrage derivation. Thus, the "risk-neutral" technique also works for forward contracts. Note when the contract is agreed to initially, f = 0 and K = F,

where F is the initial forward price. Therefore,

$$0 = S - Fe^{-r\tau}, \quad \text{or}$$

 $F = Se^{\mathbf{r}\,\tau}.$

To gain more intuition, consider the standard approach to valuing risky cashflows. The present value of a long position, f, equals its expected cashflows discounted at a risk-adjusted rate of return:

$$f = e^{-\theta \tau} E[\tilde{S}_T] - Ke^{-r\tau}$$

where θ is the *true* expected rate of return on the risky asset and $E[\tilde{S}_T]$ is the *true* expected value of \tilde{S}_T . K is discounted by the risk-free rate, r, since it is a certain, not risky, cashflow. θ depends on risk aversion, and might be the result of the CAPM, for example, $\theta = r + \beta (E[\tilde{r}_m] - r)$.



Capital Asset Pricing Model, CAPM

If θ is the true expected rate of return on the asset, then $E[\tilde{S}_T] = Se^{\theta \tau}$. Substituting in, we have

$$f = e^{-\theta \tau} S e^{\theta \tau} - e^{-r \tau} K = S - K e^{-r \tau}$$

which is the same result as before. Note how the risk-neutral technique "works." By replacing $e^{-\theta \tau} E[\tilde{S}_T]$ with $e^{-r \tau} \hat{E}[\tilde{S}_T]$, we "pretend" the expected rate of return on the asset is r (rather than θ) and discount by r (rather than θ). However, these two "mistakes" cancel out, giving us the correct answer:

$$e^{-\mathbf{r}\,\tau}\,\hat{E}[\,\tilde{S}_T\,] = e^{-\theta\,\tau}\,E[\,\tilde{S}_T\,] = S.$$

資本資產定價模型 (CAPM) 的假設 (1/2)

CAPM是建立在馬科威茨模型基礎上的, 馬科威茨模型的假設自然包含在其中:

- 1. 投資者希望財富越多愈好,效用是財富的函數,財富又是投資收益率的函數,因此可以認為效用為收益率的函數。
- 2. 投資者能事先知道投資收益率的概率分佈為正態分佈。
- 3. 投資風險用投資收益率的方差或標準差標識。
- 4. 影響投資決策的主要因素為期望收益率和風險兩項。
- 5. 投資者都遵守主宰原則(Dominance rule), 即同一風險水平下, 選擇收益率較高的證券; 同一收益率水平下, 選擇風險較低的證券。以在無風險折現率R的水平下無限制地借入或貸出資金。

資本資產定價模型 (CAPM) 的假設 (2/2)

CAPM的附加假設條件:

- 1. 可以在無風險折現率R的水平下無限制地借入或貸出資金。
- 2. 所有投資者對證券收益率概率分佈的看法一致。
- 3. 所有投資者具有相同的投資期限,而且只有一期。
- 4. 所有的證券投資可以無限制的細分,在任一投資組合里可以含有非整數股份。
- 5. 買賣證券時沒有稅負及交易成本。
- 6. 所有投資者可以及時免費獲得充分的市場信息。
- 7. 不存在通貨膨脹, 且折現率不變。
- 投資者具有相同預期,即他們對預期收益率、標準差和證券之間的協方差具有相同的預期值。

CAPM

$$\theta = \mathbf{r} + \beta \left(E[\tilde{r}_m] - \mathbf{r} \right)$$

- 1. CAPM 公式中的右邊第一個是無風險收益率, 比較典型的無風險回報率是 10 年期的美國政府債券。
- 如果股票投資者需要承受額外的風險,那麼他將需要在無風險回報率的基礎上 多獲得相應的溢價。
- 3. 股票市場溢價(equity market premium)就等於市場期望回報率減去無風險回報率。證券風險溢價就是股票市場溢價和一個 β 繫數的乘積。

Risk-Neutral Derivation of the Black-Scholes Formula

We now apply the risk-neutral technique to valuing a European call option on a non-dividend paying stock:

$$c = e^{-r\tau} \hat{E}[max(0, \tilde{S}_T - X)].$$

To evaluate the "risk-neutral" expectation, we need to make an assumption regarding the probability distribution of \tilde{S}_T . If we assume that the stock price follows the binomial "tree" process considered earlier, we obtain the Cox, Ross, Rubinstein binomial option formula.

Let us now assume a different distribution for \tilde{S}_T , namely, the lognormal distribution. Define

Let us now assume a different distribution for
$$S_T$$
, namely, the lognormal distribution. Define

 $\mu = \text{annual expected rate of return on the stock},$

 σ^2 = annualized variance of the rate of return on the stock.

If \tilde{S}_T is a lognormally distributed random variable, then $\ln(\tilde{S}_T)$ is a normally distributed random variable:

$$\ln(\tilde{S}_T) \sim n \left(\ln(S) + (\mu - \sigma^2/2)\tau, \sigma^2 \tau \right)$$

where $n(\cdot)$ is the normal probability density function. The lognormal distribution is attractive because it allows \tilde{S}_T to take any possible value over the range 0 to ∞ . Continuously compounded returns on the stock over unit time intervals, $\ln(\tilde{S}_{t+1}) - \ln(\tilde{S}_t) = \ln(\tilde{S}_{t+1}/\tilde{S}_t)$, are therefore normally distributed.

Let's now calculate $\hat{E}[\max(0, \tilde{S}_T - X)]$, the call's expected payoff in a risk-neutral world. If investors were risk-neutral, then $\mu = r$, so that

$$\ln(\tilde{S}_T) \sim n \left(\ln(S) + (r - \sigma^2/2)\tau, \sigma^2 \tau \right).$$

Using this distributional assumption, we have

$$c = e^{-r\tau} \hat{E}[max(0, \tilde{S}_T - X)] = e^{-r\tau} \int_X^{\infty} (S_T - X) g(S_T) dS_T$$

where $g(S_T)$ is the lognormal probability density function assuming $\mu = r$. Evaluating the integral in (14), one obtains the Black-Scholes formula

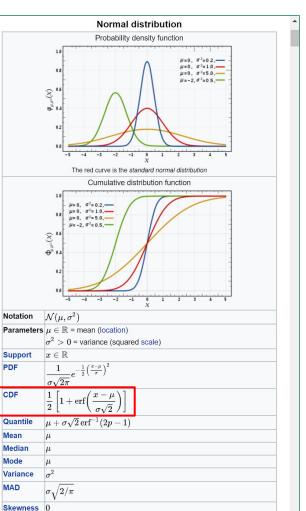
$$c = SN\left(d_1\right) - Xe^{-r\tau}N\left(d_2\right)$$

where $N\left(\cdot\right)$ is the normal distribution function and

$$d_1 = \frac{\ln(S/X) + (r + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)\tau}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}}$$

$$d_2 = d_1 - \sigma\sqrt{\tau}$$

In probability theory, a normal (or Gaussian or Gauss or Laplace-Gauss) distribution is a type of Random article continuous probability distribution for a real-valued random variable. The general form of its Donate to Wikipedia probability density function is Wikipedia store $f(x) = rac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-rac{1}{2}\left(rac{x-\mu}{\sigma}
ight)^2}$ Interaction Help About Wikipedia The parameter μ is the mean or expectation of the distribution (and also its median and mode); and Community portal σ is its standard deviation. The variance of the distribution is σ^2 . A random variable with a Gaussian Recent changes distribution is said to be normally distributed and is called a normal deviate. Contact page Normal distributions are important in statistics and are often used in the natural and social sciences Tools to represent real-valued random variables whose distributions are not known.[1][2] Their importance What links here is partly due to the central limit theorem. It states that, under some conditions, the average of many Related changes samples (observations) of a random variable with finite mean and variance is itself a random Upload file variable whose distribution converges to a normal distribution as the number of samples increases. Special pages Therefore, physical quantities that are expected to be the sum of many independent processes Permanent link (such as measurement errors) often have distributions that are nearly normal. [3] Page information Wikidata item Moreover, Gaussian distributions have some unique properties that are valuable in analytic studies. Cite this page For instance, any linear combination of a fixed collection of normal deviates is a normal deviate. Many results and methods (such as propagation of uncertainty and least squares parameter fitting) In other projects can be derived analytically in explicit form when the relevant variables are normally distributed. Wikimedia Commons A normal distribution is sometimes informally called a bell curve. However, many other distributions Print/export are bell-shaped (such as the Cauchy, Student's t, and logistic distributions). Download as PDF Printable version Contents [hide] Ö 1 Definitions Languages 1.1 Standard normal distribution العربية 1.2 General normal distribution Español 1.3 Notation ★ Français हिन्दी 1.4 Alternative parameterizations Bahasa Indonesia 1.5 Cumulative distribution function Português 1.5.1 Standard deviation and coverage Русский 1.5.2 Quantile function اردو 2 Properties 中文 2.1 Symmetries and derivatives 2.2 Moments Edit links 2.3 Fourier transform and characteristic function 2.4 Moment and cumulant generating functions 2.5 Stein operator and class 2.6 Zero-variance limit 2.7 Maximum entropy 2.8 Operations on normal deviates



Fx



Using put-call parity, the price of a European put option is

$$p = c + Xe^{-r\tau} - S$$

= $Xe^{-r\tau} N(-d_2) - SN(-d_1)$.

Some Properties of the Black-Scholes Formula

Consider the value of the European calls and puts when S becomes large. As $S \to \infty$, $d_1 \to \infty$ and $d_2 \to \infty$. Therefore $N(d_1) \to 1$ and $N(d_2) \to 1$, but $N(-d_1) \to 0$ and $N(-d_2) \to 0$. Hence, as $S \to \infty$, for European options:

Call:
$$\lim_{S \to \infty} \left[S N(d_1) - X e^{-r \tau} N(d_2) \right] = \infty,$$
Put:
$$\lim_{S \to \infty} \left[X e^{-r \tau} N(-d_2) - S N(-d_1) \right] = 0$$

as we would expect.

Conversely, as $S \to 0$, $d_1 \to -\infty$ and $d_2 \to -\infty$. Therefore $N(d_1) \to 0$ and $N(d_2) \to 0$, but $N(-d_1) \to 1$ and $N(-d_2) \to 1$. Hence, as $S \to 0$, for European options:

Call:
$$\lim_{S \to 0} [SN(d_1) - Xe^{-r\tau}N(d_2)] = 0,$$

Put: $\lim_{S \to 0} [Xe^{-r\tau} N(-d_2) - SN(-d_1)] = Xe^{-r\tau}$

Consider what happens when the stock's volatility, σ , becomes small. If $\ln(S/X) + r\tau > 0$ (equivalent to $S > Xe^{-r\tau}$), then as $\sigma \to 0$, $d_1 \to \infty$ and $d_2 \to \infty$ so that

Call:
$$\lim_{\sigma \to 0} c \Big|_{S > Xe^{-r\tau}} = S - Xe^{-r\tau},$$
Put:
$$\lim_{\sigma \to 0} p \Big|_{S > Xe^{-r\tau}} = 0.$$

Instead, if $S < Xe^{-r\tau}$, as $\sigma \to 0$, $d_1 \to -\infty$ and $d_2 \to -\infty$ so that

Call:
$$\lim_{\sigma \to 0} c \Big|_{S < Xe^{-r\tau}} = 0,$$
Put:
$$\lim_{\sigma \to 0} p \Big|_{S < Xe^{-r\tau}} = Xe^{-r\tau} - S.$$

Estimating the Volatility Parameter

- 1. The Black-Scholes formula depends on S, X, r, τ , and σ .
- 2. \mathbf{r} is usually taken as the risk-free interest rate on an investment maturing in $\mathbf{\tau}$ periods, at the expiration of the option contract.
- 3. The only parameter that is not directly observable is the stock's volatility, σ.
- 4. This can be estimated using historical data on stock prices or stock returns.

Recall that if μ is assumed to be constant, then $\ln(\tilde{S}_T) \sim n \left(\ln(S) + (\mu - \sigma^2/2)\tau, \sigma^2\tau\right)$, so that $\ln(\tilde{S}_T/S) \sim n \left((\mu - \sigma^2/2)\tau, \sigma^2\tau\right)$. Now suppose we observe n+1 stock prices (or n stock returns) at intervals of length τ . Define $u_i \equiv \ln(S_i/S_{i-1})$ as the continuously compounded stock return over the i^{th} interval. Then $u_i \sim n \left((\mu - \sigma^2/2)\tau, \sigma^2\tau\right)$ and we can use the usual estimates for a sample mean and sample variance to calculate σ

Sample mean:
$$\overline{u} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i$$

Sample variance:
$$\hat{s}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (u_i - \overline{u})^2$$

Since, \hat{s}^2 is the estimate of $\sigma^2\tau$, the estimate for σ to be used in the Black-Scholes formula is

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\hat{s}^2/\tau} = \frac{\hat{s}}{\sqrt{\tau}}$$

where $\hat{s} = \text{sample standard deviation of the } u_i$'s.

If daily data is used to calculate σ , rather than using $\tau = \frac{1}{365}$, the practice is to use $\tau = \frac{1}{250}$, where 250 is approximately the number of trading days (days stock exchanges are open) per year. Reason: empirical evidence finds stock volatility is much higher on trading days. We can ignore days when exchanges are closed.

Modifying the Formula for Dividends

Consider a European option on a dividend paying stock. Assume that the stock's dividends are known over the life of the option. The current value of the stock, S, equals the present value of (assumed) riskless dividends paid during the life of the option, D, and a risky component, \hat{S} , equal to the expected present value of both capital gains and other risky dividends.

$$S = D + \hat{S}$$

Since the price of the stock will decline when dividends are paid, D will not be received by the holder of a call, nor paid by the holder of a put. Therefore, the option is essentially written on \hat{S} , not on $S = D + \hat{S}$. Thus, we can value a European call or put by using the Black-Scholes formula replacing S with $\hat{S} = S - D$.

HW4

- A stock is currently priced at \$75 and has a σ of 0.35.
- It will pay two \$1 dividends in 1 month and 4 months.
- If r = 6%, what is the value of a European put and call option with an exercise 8 price of

\$65 maturing in 6 months?

Thus, $\hat{S} = S - D \cong \$75 - \$1.9752 \cong \$73.02$.

 $D = \$1 e^{-0.06(\frac{1}{12})} + \$1 e^{-0.06(\frac{4}{12})} \cong \$1.9752.$

$$d_{1} = \frac{\ln(\widehat{S}/X) + (r + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2})\tau}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}}$$

$$\cong \frac{\ln(73.02/65.00) + (0.06 + \frac{1}{2}0.35^{2})\frac{6}{12}}{0.35\sqrt{\frac{6}{12}}}$$

$$\cong 0.715$$

$$d_{2} = d_{1} - \sigma\sqrt{\tau}$$

$$\cong 0.715 - 0.35\sqrt{\frac{6}{12}}$$

$$\cong 0.468.$$

$$N(-0.715) \cong 0.2373 \text{ and } N(-0.468) \cong 0.3199, \text{ so}$$

$$p = Xe^{-r\tau} N(-d_2) - \widehat{S}N(-d_1)$$

$$\cong \$65 e^{-0.06(\frac{6}{12})}(0.3199) - \$73.02(0.2373)$$

$$\cong \$20.179 - \$17.328$$

$$\cong \$2.85.$$

