A small dive into mathematical finance

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- Obvious definition : the field of applied mathematics concerned with the modelling of financial markets.
- Why is it useful to model the dynamics of financial markets? There are essentially two applications :
 - Design of portfolio allocations and investment strategies with positive expected returns and limited risks.
 - Derivatives pricing and hedging.
- Two key dates in mathematical finance's history :
 - 1900 : Louis Bachelier's PhD thesis "Théorie de la spéculation" → first mathematical introduction of the Brownian motion and application to the evolution of stock prices : mathematical finance is born !
 - 1973 : pioneering paper of Fischer Black and Myron Scholes → first mathematical model to price and hedge so-called call and put options. By 1975, almost all traders were using their model to price and hedge option portfolios.

What are derivatives?

- Derivatives = financial product whose future payment flows depend on the value of an underlying asset : a stock, a basket of stocks, interest rates, a commodity, a FX rate, etc. Main types of derivatives :
 - Futures/Forward contracts : contract allowing to fix today the price of a future transaction over a given asset.



- Option contracts : same as forward contract but the buyer of the contract can decide at the maturity whether he wants or not to perform the transaction.
- Swaps : contract between two parties allowing to exchange a series of payments. Example : exchange fixed interest rate against variable interest rate.

Some examples :

- EDF buys forward contracts on gas during the summer to secure the gas supply for the winter and to reduce the uncertainty about their annual energy bill.
- An international company selling stuff in dollars and paying its employees in euros can buy forward contracts or options on the USD/EUR FX rate to hedge itself against the future fluctuations of the FX rate.
 - Many hedge funds bought sell options (puts) to bet on the decrease of GameStop's stock price in January 2021 → speculative purpose.

■ Listed companies can retain key employees by giving them stock options (calls) → allow them to make a profit if the company's stock price increases.



Focus on option contracts

Option contracts can be bought on two types of market :

- organized markets = a centralized and regulated financial market which brings together buyers and sellers in a transparent way.
 - The price is determined by the supply-demand balance.
 - Almost only vanilla options (calls and puts) are traded.
- over-the-counter (OTC) market = decentralized market in which market participants trade directly between two parties, without the use of a central exchange or other third party.
 - The price is generally determined by the seller of the option.
 - All kinds of option contracts can be traded.

The main sellers of option contracts on the OTC market are **investment banks** \rightarrow the **question of the pricing and the hedging** of option contracts is **essential** for them.



Arbitrage opportunity

A central notion in mathematical finance is the absence of arbitrage opportunities.

Definition (Arbitrage opportunity)

Investment strategy allowing to make a profit without taking any risk

Example : triangular arbitrage. Suppose :

- USD/EUR rate = 1
- USD/GBP rate = 1.1
- GBP/EUR rate = 0.8

If I have 100€, I can convert them into \$100, then convert them into $100/1.1 \simeq 90.91$ £ and finally convert them back to $(100/1.1)/0.8 \simeq 113.64$ €. Assuming no transaction costs, I won 113.64 - 100 = 13.64€ without taking any risk \rightarrow there is an arbitrage! More generally, if I have three currencies *A*, *B* and *C*, the following relation must be verified ($r_{X/Y}$ is the X/Y FX rate) :

$$r_{A/B} = r_{A/C} \times r_{C/B}$$

otherwise there is an arbitrage opportunity.

In mathematical finance, the price of a derivative is defined as **price that does not lead to an arbitrage opportunity**

The market is modelled by :

- a time horizon T > 0,
- **a** probability space $(\Omega, \mathscr{A}, \mathbb{P})$ with a right-continuous filtration $(\mathscr{F}_t)_{0 \le t \le T}$,
- K + 1 assets traded continuously from time 0 to time *T*. Their prices are denoted by S_t^0, \ldots, S_t^K which are stochastic processes (semimartingales). The asset indexed by 0 is a bank account :

$$dS_t^0 = r_t S_t^0 dt$$

where r_t is the short-rate at time t (potentially stochastic).

Definition (Trading strategy)

A trading strategy is a K + 1-dimensional process $\phi = (\phi_t)_{0 \le t \le T}$ satisfying some properties of measurability and regularity. The value of the associated portfolio is given by :

$$V_t(\phi) = \langle \phi_t, S_t \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^K \phi_t^k S_t^k$$

Definition (Self-financing trading strategy)

A trading strategy is self-financing if $V_t(\phi) \ge 0$ for all t almost surely and if there is no additional cash inflows or outflows after the initial time, i.e.

$$dV_t = \sum_{k=0}^{K} \phi_t^k dS_t^k$$

Definition (Arbitrage opportunity)

An arbitrage opportunity is a self-financing trading strategy ϕ such that :

1
$$V_0(\phi) = 0$$

2 $\mathbb{P}(V_T > 0) > 0$

Theorem (Harrison and Pliska (1983))

The market is free of arbitrage if and only if there exists a martingale measure, i.e. a probability measure \mathbb{Q} that is equivalent to \mathbb{P} and such that the discounted asset prices $(S_t^k/S_t^0)_{0 \le t \le T}$ are martingales. This martingale measure is often called the **risk-neutral** probability.

Definition (Replicable option)

An option is replicable if its payoff *H* is a square-integrable and positive random variable and if there exists a self-financing ϕ such that $V_T(\phi) = H$ a.s.

Proposition

If the market is free of arbitrage and if an option payoff H is replicable, then the unique price at time t of the option is given by :

$$\pi(t, S_t) := V_t(\phi) = \mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[\frac{S_t^0}{S_T^0} H \,|\, \mathscr{F}_t \right]$$

where ϕ is the replicating strategy.

Mathematical setting (4/4)

The last proposition provides both a way to price and hedge an option contract :

- the price corresponds to the initial value $V_0(\phi)$ of the replicating portfolio
- the hedge corresponds the self-financing strategy ϕ
- This proposition also raises two questions :
 - $\blacksquare \text{ How to compute the expectation } \mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}}\left[\frac{S_{t}^{0}}{S_{\tau}^{0}}H \,|\, \mathscr{F}_{t}\right]?$
 - **2** How to compute the self-financing strategy ϕ ?

■ The most widespread approach to answer these questions is to make an assumption about the dynamics of the asset prices (S_t)_{0≤t≤T} → Example (Black-Scholes) :

 $dS_t = \mu S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$

where $(W_t)_{t\geq 0}$ is a Brownian motion. The expectation is then computed using a **closed-form formula** if possible or using **Monte-Carlo simulations**. The hedge is generally obtained as the derivative of the option price with respect to the underlying asset price $(\partial_S \pi(t, S_t))$.

A word about mathematical finance in the insurance industry

- Solvency II (SII) is the current regulatory framework for insurance and reinsurance companies in Europe that came into force in 2016.
- · It introduces two major innovations in the actuarial landscape : Market-Consistent valuation of the balance-sheet and Risk-based capital requirements.
- · To understand these notions, we present below the simplified balance sheet of an insurer :



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The balance sheet valuation

- Valuation of assets : easy !
- Valuation of liabilities : that is where the problems begin...
- The Best Estimate is the expected value of all future discounted cash-flows of the insurer :

$$BEL = \mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T} e^{-\int_{0}^{t} r_{s} ds} F_{t}\right]$$

where \mathbb{Q} is the risk-neutral probability. The use of this probability measure is imposed by the regulation : this is the so-called **market-consistent** valuation. Note that the cash-flows F_t of the insurer typically include :

- contracts exits,
- payment of the minimum guaranteed rate with profit-sharing participation,
- payment of pensions and insurance claims ,
- collect of premia from clients.

In practice, there is no closed-form formula !

- The Risk Margin is a margin added to the Best Estimate to take into account the fact that most of the insurance liabilities are not replicable → theoretically we could not use the risk-neutral probability Q.
- The Basic Own Funds *BOF* are then computed as the difference the value of the assets *A* minus the Best Estimate *BE* and the Risk Margin *RM* :

$$BOF = A - BE - RM.$$

If BOF < 0, the company is bankrupt!

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Solvency Capital Requirement

- At this stage, we have only described how to value the balance sheet at t = 0 but it does not say anything about the risk of future insolvency! Indeed, the assets and liabilities are going to change in the future and as a consequence it is possible that the BOF become negative.
- This leads us to the second major innovation of Solvency II : the Solvency Capital Requirement (SCR). The SCR is the minimum value of BOF needed to keep the risk of bankruptcy on a year horizon below 0.5%. Mathematically, it is defined as the solution of :

$$\mathbb{P}(BOF_1 = A_1 - BE_1 - RM_1 < 0 \mid BOF_0 = SCR) = 0.5\%.$$

where \mathbb{P} is the real-world probability. In practice, the SCR is approximated by the 99.5% Value-at-Risk of the insurer portfolio loss at a one-year risk horizon :

$$SCR = VaR_{99.5\%} \left(BOF_0 - e^{-\int_0^1 r_s ds} BOF_1 \right).$$

- Hence, estimating the SCR is very challenging because of :
 - the interactions between the assets and the liabilities
 - the necessity to project the assets and liabilities using the real-world probability and to price them using the risk-neutral probability with no-closed form formula.

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