#### **Derivatives Defined**

•A financial instrument whose return is derived from the return on another instrument

•Derivatives provide a means of managing financial risk

•By using derivatives, one party can transfer, for a price, (like an *insurance premium*), any undesired risk to other parties

#### **Derivative Markets and Instruments**

- Futures contract
  - Definition: a contract between two parties for one party to buy something from the other at a later date at a price agreed upon today; subject to a daily settlement of gains and losses and guaranteed against the risk that either party might default
  - Exclusively traded on a futures exchange

# **Option Terminology**

- Price/premium
  - The price of an option contract which the buyer of the option pays to the option writer for the rights conveyed by the option contract
- Call
  - Option contract that gives the holder the right to *buy* the underlying security at a specified price for a certain fixed period of time

# **Option Terminology**

- Put
  - An option contract that gives the holder the right to sell the underlying security at a specified price for a certain fixed period of time
- Exercise price/strike price/striking price
  - The stated price per share for which the underlying security may be purchased (in the case of a call) or sold (in the case of a put) by the option holder upon the exercise of the option contract

# **Call options**

- Objective of a call- the buyer profits from the underlying asset's appreciation
  - In-the-money
    - A term describing an option that has intrinsic value.
      A *call* option is in-the-money if the underlying security is *higher* than the striking price of the call
  - Out-of-the-money
    - A *call* option is out-of-the-money if the strike price is *greater than* the market price of the underlying security

# **Option Terminology**

- Expiration date
  - The day on which an option contract becomes void. Holders of options should indicate their desire to exercise, if they wish to do so, by this date.

# **Option Terminology**

- At-the-money
  - An option is at-the-money if the strike price of the option is equal to the market price of the underlying security
  - Risk neutral investor or investment only concerned with an <u>investment's</u> expected return.

## Put options

- Objective of a put- the buyer locks in stock price
  - In-the-money
    - A term describing an option that has intrinsic value.
      A *put* option is in-the-money if the underlying security is *below* the striking price of the call
  - Out-of-the-money
    - A *put* option is out-of-the-money if the strike price is *less* than the market price of the underlying security

#### **Conventional pricing assumptions**

- Returns follow a normal (Gaussian) distribution
- Market completeness perfect information
- Arbitrage-free trades no arbitrage transactions can occur
- Investors are risk neutral

# 1.8 Copula methods in finance: a primer

Three main frontier problems in derivative pricing:

- Departure from normality
- Emerging from the smile effect
- Market incompleteness, corresponding to hedging error, and credit risk, linked to the bivariate relationship in OTC transactions

#### Departure from normality



#### Smile effect

Anyway, Stochastic volatility can explain the smile effect:



# How can we explain the smile effect?

- The main contradiction in the conventional Black and Scholes model is:
- that volatility is not constant.
- We then have to shift to stochastic volatility.
- The need for stochastic volatility has been recognized by several authors.

#### Market completeness

- Conventional models have depended on full information for all participants
  - However, this has proven not to be the case because no *perfect hedge exists*
  - Therefore, new strategies are developed based on market incompleteness

#### Market incompleteness

 Because no perfect hedge exists, financial products exist to earn money from their misalignment

-Thus, the core of the derivatives market has shifted away from the underlying asset toward contingent claims on illiquid assets

# 1.8.1 Joint probabilities, marginal probabilities and copula functions

 For the pricing problem, a joint probability distribution can be expressed as a function of the marginal ones. So, the bivariate product is priced consistently with information from the univariate ones. Or, conversely, any copula function taking univariate distributions as arguments yields a joint distribution The price of this digital *put* option in a complete market setting is:

- DP =exp[-r(T-t)] Q( $K_{NKY} K_{sp}$ )
  - Where  $Q(K_{NKY}K_{sp})$  is the joint risk-neutral probability that both the Japanese and US market indexes are below the corresponding strike prices
  - In order to compare the price of our bivariate product with that of the univariate ones, we could write the price as:
- DP =exp[-r(T-t)] C(Q<sub>NKY</sub> Q<sub>sp</sub>) with C(x,y) a bivariate function

### 1.8.2 Copula functions duality

The price of this digital *call* option in a complete market setting is:

- DC =exp[-r(T-t)]  $\underline{\mathbf{Q}}(K_{NKY} K_{sp})$ 
  - Where  $\underline{\mathbf{Q}}(K_{NKY}K_{sp})$  is the joint risk-neutral probability that both the Japanese and US market indexes are above the corresponding strike prices
  - Then, we can recover a copula function
- DP =exp[-r(T-t)] <u>C(Q(K<sub>NKY</sub>),Q(Ksp)]</u> with C(x,y) a bivariate function known as survival copula

#### The survival copula is shown below

 $\underline{\mathbf{C}[\mathbf{Q}(\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{NKY}}), \underline{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{sp}})] =$ 

1- Q(K<sub>NKY</sub>) - Q(Ksp) + C[Q(K<sub>NKY</sub>),Q(K<sub>sp</sub>)]

#### 1.8.3 Examples of copula functions

 the main advantage from the use of copula functions is the ability to preserve the dependence structure typical of a multivariate normal distribution by modifying only the marginal distributions, which may be allowed to display skewness and fat-tails consistently with data observed from the market

#### Frechet bounds

- The joint probability is constrained within the bounds:
- $\begin{array}{l} Max(Q_{NKY}\text{+} Qsp \text{-}1, 0) \leq Q(K_{NKY} \text{,} K_{sp} \text{)} \leq \\ min(Q_{NKY} \text{,} Q_{sp} \text{)} \end{array}$
- The upper bound corresponds to the case of perfect positive dependence between the two markets and the lower bound represents perfect negative dependence

### **Copula functions**

- Min (x,y) = C(x,y) = maximum copula = perfect positive dependence
- Max (x+y-1,0) = minimum copula = Frechet lower bound C(x,y) = perfect negative dependence
- Imperfect dependence = possible strategy
  -use linear combination of above cases

# 1.8.4 Copula functions and market comovements

- Non-linear relationships can be measured by the non-parametric measures spearman's rho and Kendall's tau. These non-parametric measures do not depend on the shape of the marginal probability distributions
- The relationship between the non-parametric dependence measures and copula functions can be applied to recover a first calibration technique of the Frechet copula function itself: Spearman's rho = alpha -beta

 $\iint_{f(x)=\int \left[\frac{d}{dx}f(x)\right]} dx = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int f(x) dx\right]$ 

#### Non-parametric features

- Both Spearman's rho and Kendall's tau do not require the specific shape of the marginal distributions
  - -taking the double integral C(u,v) dC(u,v) does not require the variances and covariances of the marginal distributions which linear correlations require

# 1.8.5 Tail dependence

- Non-normality at the univariate level is associated with skewness and leptokurtosis, or the fat-tail problem
- In the multivariate setting, the fat-tail problem can be referred both to the marginal univariate distributions or to the joint probability of large market movements. This concept is called tail dependence.
- Copula functions enables us to model fat-tails and tail dependence separately

# Tail dependence

 For example, the likelihood that one event with probability lower than v occurs in the first variable, given that an event with probability lower than v occurs in the second one

Lamda = C(v,v)/v

For very small values of v, the lower tail index is

 $lamda_{L} = lim v \rightarrow 0 + C (v,v)/v$