#### "No-Good-Deal" Bounds

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## **A Short History of Bounds**

Finding bounds on the values of derivatives is an old "art form":

- Merton (1973),
  - no arbitrage bounds,
- Perrakis and Ryan (1984), Levy (1985), Ritchken and Kuo (1989), Basso and Pianca (1994),
  - bounds based on stochastic dominance (or similar).

Interest in this topic has intensified, with more interest in:

- Levy processes, and other work related to
- incomplete markets

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### "No-Good-Deal" Bounds

"No-Good-Deal" Bounds were:

- introduced by Cochrane and Saá-Requejo in 1996,
- modified by Hodges (Generalized Sharpe Ratio) in 1997,
- generalized to a more abstract setting by Cerny and Hodges, 1998 (presented at Bachalier 2000),
- related to Artzner *et al* "coherent risk measures" by Jaschke and Kuchler (2001) (also anticipated in Mejía-Pérez, 1998, and Hodges 1998).

We examine these four themes in more detail

## **Cochrane and Saá-Requejo**

Pricing bounds are constructed relative to a Sharpe Ratio (expected excess return / standard deviation).

Two cases are provided:

- 1. Unconstrained: the dual pricing vector is linear in wealth (and must go negative somewhere, unless it is a constant)
- 2. Constrained: the dual pricing vector is piece-wise linear in wealth, and is set equal to zero where it would otherwise go negative.

# **The Analysis**

The first case is pure mean-variance analysis. [See Cochrane (2001) for a clear exposition]. The formulation is:

 $\underline{C} = \min_{m} E(mx^{c}) \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{p} = E(m\mathbf{x}), E(m^{2}) \le A^{2}.$ 

The payoff  $x^c$  is decomposed into its projection in the space of traded assets (the approximate hedge) and an orthogonal residual, w.

 $x^{c} = \hat{x}^{c} + w$ , where  $\hat{x}^{c} = E(x^{c}\mathbf{x}')E(\mathbf{xx'})^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ .

We can get further insights using the Treynor-Black (1973) analysis:

#### **Treynor-Black (1973) analysis:**

The square of the Sharpe Ratio is the sum of the squares of the Sharpe Ratios of each separate orthogonal bet. If we let  $h_0$  denote the Sharpe Ratio attainable from the basis assets, then in the notation of the paper it follows immediately that

$$SR^{2} = h_{0}^{2} + \frac{FV^{2} \left(\underline{c} - E[m\hat{x}^{c}]\right)^{2}}{\sigma^{2} (w)} = h^{2},$$

which enables us to solve for the bounds as:

$$\left(\underline{c} - E[m\hat{x}^{c}]\right)^{2} = \frac{\sigma^{2}(w)}{FV^{2}} \left(h^{2} - h_{0}^{2}\right) = \frac{\sigma^{2}(w)}{FV^{2}} \left(A^{2} - E[x^{*2}]\right) \text{ as in Proposition 4.}$$

## **Extensions**

Optimization subject to the pricing vector *m* being non-negative is similar but slightly more complicated.

Essentially, it now becomes necessary to search numerically for the shadow prices of the two constraints.

In a multiperiod context, these bounds can be calculated recursively, (but the numerical implementation is non-trivial).

Note that, although the solution for m>0 is general, the criterion of maximizing the Sharpe Ratio was arbitrary.

### **Generalized Sharpe Ratio**

- What's wrong with the Sharpe Ratio
- The Generalisation (GSR) and some of its properties
- Applications to:
  - Valuation bounds in Incomplete Markets
  - Value at Risk
  - Performance Measurement

#### **A Sharpe Ratio Paradox**



## **Generalized Sharpe Ratio**

We propose a new measure where an investor with CARA utility can choose the quantity of the prospect to hold:

- we obtain the usual value for Normal distributions
- for non-Normal distributions, we provide a generalization based on equating expected utility.

#### For normal distributions we find

$$U^* = \text{Maximise } E[U] = -e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}T}$$

A Generalization of the Sharpe Ratio  $\mu/\sigma$  is obtained as  $GSR = \sqrt{\frac{-2}{T}ln(-U^*)}$ .

## Computation

 $Max E[U] = \sum p_s \exp(-yr_s).$ First order Condition:  $\sum p_s r_s \exp(-yr_s) = 0 = f(y).$ Solve using Newton - Raphson iteration for y with  $f'(y) = -\sum p_s r_s^2 \exp(-yr_s).$ 

We can do this on a spreadsheet.

# Valuation and Hedging

Even where exact replication of derivatives is impossible, the price of a contingent claim may be "cheap" or "dear".

We solve the choice problem for an investor who maximizes E[U(w)] with  $U = -e^{-\lambda w}$ .

The investor buys y units of the contingent claim, and hedges with x units of the underlying:

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\operatorname{Maximise}_{x_t,y} E[U] = -Ee^{-\lambda \left| \int_0^T x_t dS_t + y(C_T - C_0) \right|}
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The value of the expected utility provides a GSR measure of the market opportunity provided by any particular  $C_0$ .

#### **Conditional Bounds**

We obtain valuation bounds which are much tighter than could be obtained by riskless arbitrage arguments.



#### **Bounds at Different Asset Price Levels (GSR = 1/2)**



#### **Other Properties**

These GSR bounds defined by the class of negative exponential utility functions have a number of advantages and disadvantages:

- The bounds do not explicitly depend
  - on risk aversion, or
  - on wealth levels.
- Losses (negative wealth) is not ruled out
  - as it would be for power or log utility.
- Some claims have very weak (and in some cases infinite) bounds.

- in particular, any finite certain loss is preferred to a short position in a log-normal distribution, which makes the expected utility infinitely negative .

### **Performance Measurement**

Under a continuous diffusion process with a constant price of risk  $\mu/\sigma$ , a CARA investor will have constant risk exposure.

The terminal distribution is Normal.

Hence, odd shaped distributions are **not** preferred.

The Generalised Sharpe Ratio is robust in the sense that the maximum *ex ante* GSR **equals** the conventional Sharpe Ratio.

# **General Theory of Good-Deal Pricing**

Cerny and Hodges (2001) have proposed a more general framework of "no-good-deal" pricing which places

- no-arbitrage, and
- representative agent equilibrium

at the two ends of a spectrum of possibilities.

A **desirable claim** is one which provides a specific level of von Neumann-Morgenstern expected utility. A **good deal** is a desirable claim with zero or negative price.

#### **Extension Theorem**

In an incomplete market it is often convenient to suppose that the market is augmented in such a way that the resulting complete market contains no arbitrages.

We can more powerfully augment the market so that the complete market contains no arbitrages.

We obtain a set of pricing functionals which form a subset of those which simply preclude arbitrage.

# **Pricing Theorem**

The link between no arbitrage and strictly positive pricing rules carries over to good deals, and enables price restrictions to be placed on non-marketed claims.

Under suitable technical assumptions (see C&H):

- The no-good-deal price region *P* for a set of claims is a convex set,
- Redundant assets have unique good-deal prices

#### **Coherent Bounds**

*GSR* and *G-NGD* bounds satisfy the properties advocated by Artzener et al, 1997 for coherent risk measures (*SR* ones don't):

Linearity: $B[\alpha \tilde{C}] = \alpha B[\tilde{C}], \text{ and}$  $B[\beta + \tilde{C}] = \beta + B[\tilde{C}]$ 

Subadditivity: $LB[\tilde{C}]+LB[\tilde{D}] \leq LB[\tilde{C}+\tilde{D}]$  $UB[\tilde{C}+\tilde{D}] \leq UB[\tilde{C}]+UB[\tilde{D}]$ 

Monotonicity  $\overline{C} \leq \overline{L}$ 

 $\widetilde{C} \leq \widetilde{D} \Rightarrow B[\widetilde{C}] \leq B[\widetilde{D}]$ 

(where *B* denotes any bound, *LB* lower bound, *UB* upper bound).

#### **Jaschke and Küchler**

There is a one-to-one correspondence between:

- 1. "coherent risk measures"
- 2. Cones of "desirable claims"
- 3. Partial orderings
- 4. Valuation bounds
- 5. Sets of "admissible" price systems.

## **Tail Areas**

The GSR tail area is always strictly less than -U\*.

This makes it suitable as an alternative coherent substitute for VaR to the "downside" risk measure which has also been suggested.

## Conclusions

The no-good-deal bound framework has been considerably extended from its original Sharpe Ratio definition.

It provides a powerful method for obtaining:

- Valuation bounds in incomplete markets
- Coherent risk measures for Value at Risk

It is computationally attractive, for example:

- Values can be characterized in terms of the attractiveness of different prices (Generalized Sharpe Ratio).
- We can solve under suitable Markov processes or add as a heuristic to Monte Carlo simulations.

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