Continuous-Time Financial Mathematics

A proof is that which convinces a reasonable man;
a rigorous proof is that which convinces an
unreasonable man.
— Mark Kac (1914–1984)

The pursuit of mathematics is a
divine madness of the human spirit.
— Alfred North Whitehead (1861–1947),
Science and the Modern World

Stochastic Integrals

- Use $W \equiv \{ W(t), t \geq 0 \}$ to denote the Wiener process.
- The goal is to develop integrals of X from a class of stochastic processes,[a]

$$\mathrm{I}_t(X) \equiv \int_0^t X\, dW, \quad t \geq 0.$$

- $\mathrm{I}_t(X)$ is a random variable called the stochastic integral of X with respect to W.
- The stochastic process $\{ \mathrm{I}_t(X), t \geq 0 \}$ will be denoted by $\int X\, dW$.

---

[a] Kiyoshi Ito (1915–).

Stochastic Integrals (concluded)

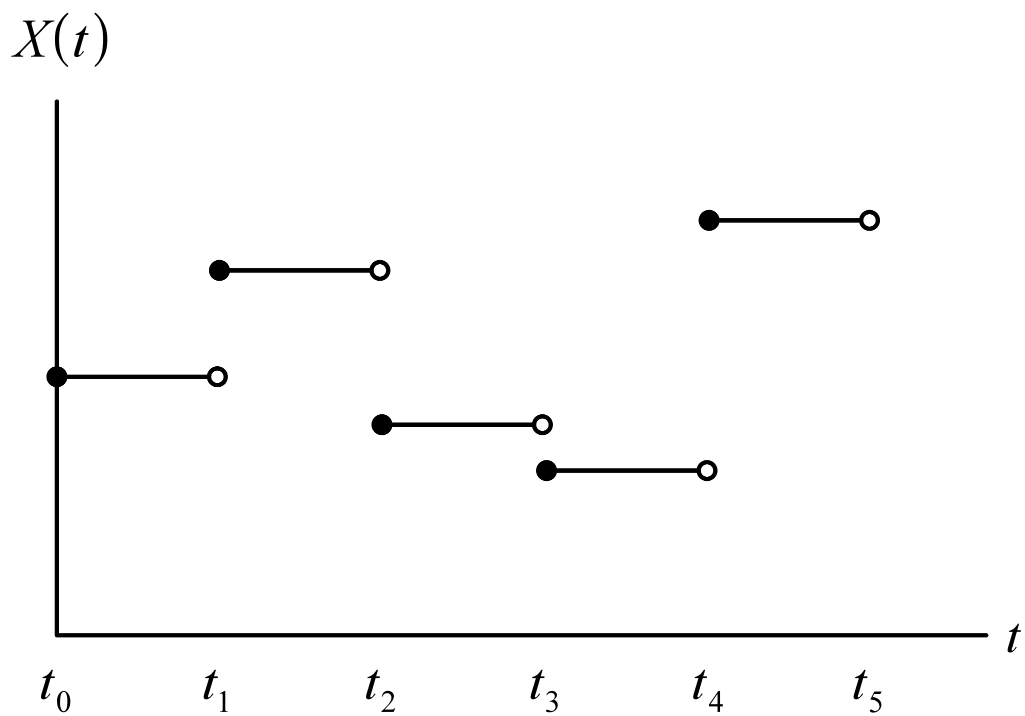
- Typical requirements for X in financial applications are:
  - $\text{Prob}[\int_0^t X^2(s)\, ds < \infty] = 1$ for all $t \geq 0$ or the stronger $\int_0^t E[X^2(s)]\, ds < \infty$.
  - The information set at time t includes the history of X and W up to that point in time.
  - But it contains nothing about the evolution of X or W after t (nonanticipating, so to speak).
  - The future cannot influence the present.
- $\{ X(s), 0 \leq s \leq t \}$ is independent of $\{ W(t+u) - W(t), u > 0 \}$.

Ito Integral

- A theory of stochastic integration.
- As with calculus, it starts with step functions.
- A stochastic process $\{ X(t) \}$ is simple if there exist $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots$ such that

$$X(t) = X(t_{k-1}) \quad \text{for } t \in [\, t_{k-1}, t_k), \; k = 1, 2, \ldots$$

for any realization (see figure on next page).


X(t)
t
t0
t1
t2
t3
t4
t5

Ito Integral (continued)

- The Ito integral of a simple process is defined as

$$\mathrm{I}_t(X) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X(t_k)[\,W(t_{k+1}) - W(t_k)\,], \tag{46}$$

  where $t_n = t$.

  – The integrand X is evaluated at t_k, not t_{k+1}.

- Define the Ito integral of more general processes as a limiting random variable of the Ito integral of simple stochastic processes.

Ito Integral (continued)

- Let $X = \{ X(t), t \geq 0 \}$ be a general stochastic process.
- Then there exists a random variable $\mathrm{I}_t(X)$, unique almost certainly, such that $\mathrm{I}_t(X_n)$ converges in probability to $\mathrm{I}_t(X)$ for each sequence of simple stochastic processes $X_1, X_2, \ldots$ such that X_n converges in probability to X.
- If X is continuous with probability one, then $\mathrm{I}_t(X_n)$ converges in probability to $\mathrm{I}_t(X)$ as $\delta_n \equiv \max_{1 \leq k \leq n}(t_k - t_{k-1})$ goes to zero.

Ito Integral (concluded)

- It is a fundamental fact that $\int X\,dW$ is continuous almost surely.
- The following theorem says the Ito integral is a martingale.
  - A corollary is the mean value formula
$$E\left[\int_a^b X\,dW\right] = 0.$$

Theorem 15 *The Ito integral $\int X\,dW$ is a martingale.*

Discrete Approximation

- Recall Eq. (46) on p. 464.
- The following simple stochastic process $\{\widehat{X}(t)\}$ can be used in place of X to approximate the stochastic integral $\int_0^t X\,dW$,

$$\widehat{X}(s) \equiv X(t_{k-1}) \text{ for } s \in [\,t_{k-1}, t_k),\ k = 1, 2, \ldots, n.$$

- Note the nonanticipating feature of $\widehat{X}$.
  - The information up to time s,

$$\{\,\widehat{X}(t), W(t), 0 \leq t \leq s\,\},$$

    cannot determine the future evolution of X or W.

Discrete Approximation (concluded)

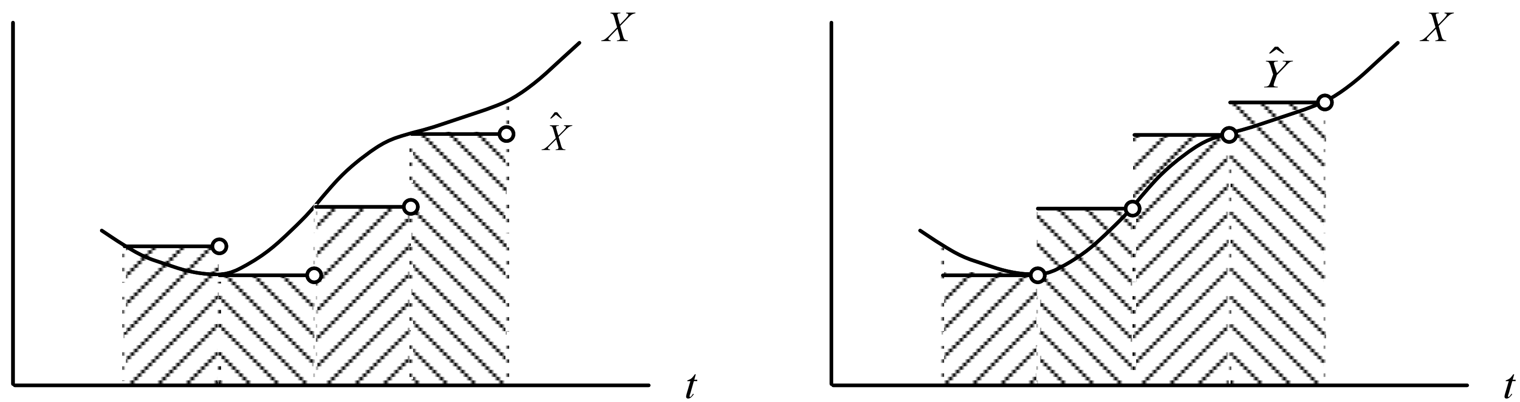
- Suppose we defined the stochastic integral as

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X(t_{k+1})[\,W(t_{k+1}) - W(t_k)\,].$$

- Then we would be using the following different simple stochastic process in the approximation,

$$\widehat{Y}(s) \equiv X(t_k) \quad \text{for} \quad s \in [\,t_{k-1}, t_k), \; k = 1, 2, \ldots, n.$$

- This clearly anticipates the future evolution of X.



(a)

(b)

Ito Process

- The stochastic process $X = \{ X_t, t \geq 0 \}$ that solves
$$X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t a(X_s, s)\, ds + \int_0^t b(X_s, s)\, dW_s, \quad t \geq 0$$
is called an Ito process.
  - X_0 is a scalar starting point.
  - $\{ a(X_t, t) : t \geq 0 \}$ and $\{ b(X_t, t) : t \geq 0 \}$ are stochastic processes satisfying certain regularity conditions.
- The terms $a(X_t, t)$ and $b(X_t, t)$ are the drift and the diffusion, respectively.

Ito Process (continued)

- A shorthand[a] is the following stochastic differential equation for the Ito differential dX_t,

$$dX_t = a(X_t, t)\, dt + b(X_t, t)\, dW_t. \tag{47}$$

  – Or simply $dX_t = a_t\, dt + b_t\, dW_t$.

- This is Brownian motion with an instantaneous drift a_t and an instantaneous variance b_t^2.

- X is a martingale if the drift a_t is zero by Theorem 15 (p. 466).

[a]Paul Langevin (1904).

Ito Process (concluded)

- dW is normally distributed with mean zero and variance dt.
- An equivalent form to Eq. (47) is

$$dX_t = a_t\, dt + b_t \sqrt{dt}\; \xi, \tag{48}$$

where $\xi \sim N(0,1)$.

Euler Approximation

- The following approximation follows from Eq. (48),

$$\begin{aligned}
&\widehat{X}(t_{n+1}) \\
=&\widehat{X}(t_n) + a(\widehat{X}(t_n), t_n)\,\Delta t + b(\widehat{X}(t_n), t_n)\,\Delta W(t_n),
\end{aligned} \tag{49}$$

  where $t_n \equiv n\Delta t$.

- It is called the Euler or Euler-Maruyama method.
- Under mild conditions, $\widehat{X}(t_n)$ converges to $X(t_n)$.
- Recall that $\Delta W(t_n)$ should be interpreted as $W(t_{n+1}) - W(t_n)$ instead of $W(t_n) - W(t_{n-1})$.

More Discrete Approximations

- Under fairly loose regularity conditions, approximation (49) on p. 473 can be replaced by

$$\begin{aligned}&\widehat{X}(t_{n+1})\\=&\widehat{X}(t_n)+a(\widehat{X}(t_n),t_n)\,\Delta t+b(\widehat{X}(t_n),t_n)\sqrt{\Delta t}\,Y(t_n).\end{aligned}$$

  – $Y(t_0), Y(t_1), \ldots$ are independent and identically distributed with zero mean and unit variance.

More Discrete Approximations (concluded)

- An even simpler discrete approximation scheme:

$$\begin{aligned}&\widehat{X}(t_{n+1})\\ =&\widehat{X}(t_n) + a(\widehat{X}(t_n), t_n)\,\Delta t + b(\widehat{X}(t_n), t_n)\sqrt{\Delta t}\,\xi.\end{aligned}$$

  - Prob[$\xi = 1$] = Prob[$\xi = -1$] = 1/2.
  - Note that $E[\,\xi\,] = 0$ and $\text{Var}[\,\xi\,] = 1$.
- This clearly defines a binomial model.
- As Δt goes to zero, $\widehat{X}$ converges to X.

Trading and the Ito Integral

- Consider an Ito process $d\boldsymbol{S}_t = \mu_t \, dt + \sigma_t \, dW_t$.
  - $\boldsymbol{S}_t$ is the vector of security prices at time t.
- Let $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ be a trading strategy denoting the quantity of each type of security held at time t.
  - Hence the stochastic process $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t \boldsymbol{S}_t$ is the value of the portfolio $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ at time t.
- $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t \, d\boldsymbol{S}_t \equiv \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\mu_t \, dt + \sigma_t \, dW_t)$ represents the change in the value from security price changes occurring at time t.

Trading and the Ito Integral (concluded)

- The equivalent Ito integral,

$$G_T(\boldsymbol{\phi}) \equiv \int_0^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_t \, d\boldsymbol{S}_t = \int_0^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_t \mu_t \, dt + \int_0^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_t \sigma_t \, dW_t,$$

  measures the gains realized by the trading strategy over the period $[\,0, T\,]$.

Ito's Lemma

A smooth function of an Ito process is itself an Ito process.

Theorem 16 *Suppose* $f : R \to R$ *is twice continuously differentiable and* $dX = a_t\, dt + b_t\, dW$. *Then* $f(X)$ *is the Ito process,*

$$\begin{aligned} & f(X_t) \\ = \ & f(X_0) + \int_0^t f'(X_s)\, a_s\, ds + \int_0^t f'(X_s)\, b_s\, dW \\ & + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f''(X_s)\, b_s^2\, ds \end{aligned}$$

for $t \geq 0$.

Ito's Lemma (continued)

- In differential form, Ito's lemma becomes

$$df(X) = f'(X)\, a\, dt + f'(X)\, b\, dW + \frac{1}{2}\, f''(X)\, b^2\, dt. \tag{50}$$

- Compared with calculus, the interesting part is the third term on the right-hand side.
- A convenient formulation of Ito's lemma is

$$df(X) = f'(X)\, dX + \frac{1}{2}\, f''(X)(dX)^2.$$

Ito's Lemma (continued)

- We are supposed to multiply out $(dX)^2 = (a\,dt + b\,dW)^2$ symbolically according to

$\times$	dW	dt
dW	dt	0
dt	0	0

  - The $(dW)^2 = dt$ entry is justified by a known result.
- This form is easy to remember because of its similarity to the Taylor expansion.

Ito's Lemma (continued)

Theorem 17 (Higher-Dimensional Ito's Lemma) *Let $W_1, W_2, \ldots, W_n$ be independent Wiener processes and $X \equiv (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m)$ be a vector process. Suppose $f : R^m \to R$ is twice continuously differentiable and X_i is an Ito process with $dX_i = a_i\,dt + \sum_{j=1}^n b_{ij}\,dW_j$. Then $df(X)$ is an Ito process with the differential,*

$$df(X) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(X)\,dX_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^m f_{ik}(X)\,dX_i\,dX_k,$$

where $f_i \equiv \partial f / \partial x_i$ and $f_{ik} \equiv \partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_k$.

Ito's Lemma (continued)

- The multiplication table for Theorem 17 is

$\times$	dW_i	dt
dW_k	$\delta_{ik}\, dt$	0
dt	0	0

in which

$$\delta_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = k, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Ito's Lemma (continued)

Theorem 18 (Alternative Ito's Lemma) *Let* $W_1, W_2, \ldots, W_m$ *be Wiener processes and* $X \equiv (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m)$ *be a vector process. Suppose* $f : R^m \to R$ *is twice continuously differentiable and* X_i *is an Ito process with* $dX_i = a_i\, dt + b_i\, dW_i$. *Then* $df(X)$ *is the following Ito process,*

$$df(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(X)\, dX_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} f_{ik}(X)\, dX_i\, dX_k.$$

Ito's Lemma (concluded)

- The multiplication table for Theorem 18 is

$\times$	dW_i	dt
dW_k	$\rho_{ik}\,dt$	0
dt	0	0

- Here, ρ_{ik} denotes the correlation between dW_i and dW_k.

Geometric Brownian Motion

- Consider the geometric Brownian motion process $Y(t) \equiv e^{X(t)}$
  - $X(t)$ is a (μ, σ) Brownian motion.
  - Hence $dX = \mu\, dt + \sigma\, dW$ by Eq. (45) on p. 448.
- As $\partial Y / \partial X = Y$ and $\partial^2 Y / \partial X^2 = Y$, Ito's formula (50) on p. 479 implies

$$\begin{aligned} dY &= Y\, dX + (1/2)\, Y\, (dX)^2 \\ &= Y\, (\mu\, dt + \sigma\, dW) + (1/2)\, Y\, (\mu\, dt + \sigma\, dW)^2 \\ &= Y\, (\mu\, dt + \sigma\, dW) + (1/2)\, Y \sigma^2\, dt. \end{aligned}$$

Geometric Brownian Motion (concluded)

- Hence
$$\frac{dY}{Y} = \left(\mu + \sigma^2/2\right) dt + \sigma\, dW.$$
- The annualized instantaneous rate of return is $\mu + \sigma^2/2$ not μ.

Product of Geometric Brownian Motion Processes

- Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
dY/Y &= a\,dt + b\,dW_Y,\\
dZ/Z &= f\,dt + g\,dW_Z.
\end{aligned}
$$

- Consider the Ito process $U \equiv YZ$.
- Apply Ito's lemma (Theorem 18 on p. 483):

$$
\begin{aligned}
dU &= Z\,dY + Y\,dZ + dY\,dZ\\
&= ZY(a\,dt + b\,dW_Y) + YZ(f\,dt + g\,dW_Z)\\
&\quad + YZ(a\,dt + b\,dW_Y)(f\,dt + g\,dW_Z)\\
&= U(a + f + bg\rho)\,dt + Ub\,dW_Y + Ug\,dW_Z.
\end{aligned}
$$

Product of Geometric Brownian Motion Processes (continued)

- The product of two (or more) correlated geometric Brownian motion processes thus remains geometric Brownian motion.
- Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y &= \exp\left[\left(a - b^2/2\right) dt + b\, dW_Y\right], \\
Z &= \exp\left[\left(f - g^2/2\right) dt + g\, dW_Z\right], \\
U &= \exp\left[\,\left(a + f - \left(b^2 + g^2\right)/2\right) dt + b\, dW_Y + g\, dW_Z\,\right].
\end{aligned}
$$

Product of Geometric Brownian Motion Processes (concluded)

- $\ln U$ is Brownian motion with a mean equal to the sum of the means of $\ln Y$ and $\ln Z$.
- This holds even if Y and Z are correlated.
- Finally, $\ln Y$ and $\ln Z$ have correlation ρ.

Quotients of Geometric Brownian Motion Processes

- Suppose Y and Z are drawn from p. 487.
- Let $U \equiv Y/Z$.
- We now show that[a]

$$\frac{dU}{U} = (a - f + g^2 - bg\rho)\, dt + b\, dW_Y - g\, dW_Z. \tag{51}$$

- Keep in mind that dW_Y and dW_Z have correlation ρ.

[a]Exercise 14.3.6 of the textbook is erroneous.

Quotients of Geometric Brownian Motion Processes (concluded)

- The multidimensional Ito's lemma (Theorem 18 on p. 483) can be employed to show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& dU \\
= \;& (1/Z)\, dY - (Y/Z^2)\, dZ - (1/Z^2)\, dY\, dZ + (Y/Z^3)\, (dZ)^2 \\
= \;& (1/Z)(aY\, dt + bY\, dW_Y) - (Y/Z^2)(fZ\, dt + gZ\, dW_Z) \\
& -(1/Z^2)(bgYZ\rho\, dt) + (Y/Z^3)(g^2 Z^2\, dt) \\
= \;& U(a\, dt + b\, dW_Y) - U(f\, dt + g\, dW_Z) \\
& -U(bg\rho\, dt) + U(g^2\, dt) \\
= \;& U(a - f + g^2 - bg\rho)\, dt + Ub\, dW_Y - Ug\, dW_Z .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Process

- The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process:

$$dX = -\kappa X \, dt + \sigma \, dW,$$

where $\kappa, \sigma \geq 0$.

- It is known that

$$\begin{aligned}
E[\, X(t) \,] &= e^{-\kappa(t-t_0)} \, E[\, x_0 \,], \\
\mathrm{Var}[\, X(t) \,] &= \frac{\sigma^2}{2\kappa} \left(1 - e^{-2\kappa(t-t_0)} \right) + e^{-2\kappa(t-t_0)} \, \mathrm{Var}[\, x_0 \,], \\
\mathrm{Cov}[\, X(s), X(t) \,] &= \frac{\sigma^2}{2\kappa} \, e^{-\kappa(t-s)} \left[1 - e^{-2\kappa(s-t_0)} \right] \\
&\quad + e^{-\kappa(t+s-2t_0)} \, \mathrm{Var}[\, x_0 \,],
\end{aligned}$$

for $t_0 \leq s \leq t$ and $X(t_0) = x_0$.

Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Process (continued)

- $X(t)$ is normally distributed if x_0 is a constant or normally distributed.
- X is said to be a normal process.
- $E[\,x_0\,] = x_0$ and $\text{Var}[\,x_0\,] = 0$ if x_0 is a constant.
- The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process has the following mean reversion property.
  - When $X > 0$, X is pulled X toward zero.
  - When $X < 0$, it is pulled toward zero again.

Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Process (continued)

- Another version:

$$dX = \kappa(\mu - X)\, dt + \sigma\, dW,$$

where $\sigma \geq 0$.

- Given $X(t_0) = x_0$, a constant, it is known that

$$\begin{aligned} E[\,X(t)\,] &= \mu + (x_0 - \mu)\, e^{-\kappa(t-t_0)}, \qquad (52) \\ \mathrm{Var}[\,X(t)\,] &= \frac{\sigma^2}{2\kappa}\left[\,1 - e^{-2\kappa(t-t_0)}\,\right], \end{aligned}$$

for $t_0 \leq t$.

Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Process (concluded)

- The mean and standard deviation are roughly μ and $\sigma/\sqrt{2\kappa}$, respectively.
- For large t, the probability of $X < 0$ is extremely unlikely in any finite time interval when $\mu > 0$ is large relative to $\sigma/\sqrt{2\kappa}$.
- The process is mean-reverting.
  - X tends to move toward μ.
  - Useful for modeling term structure, stock price volatility, and stock price return.

Continuous-Time Derivatives Pricing

I have hardly met a mathematician
who was capable of reasoning.
— Plato (428 B.C.–347 B.C.)

Toward the Black-Scholes Differential Equation

- The price of any derivative on a non-dividend-paying stock must satisfy a partial differential equation.
- The key step is recognizing that the same random process drives both securities.
- As their prices are perfectly correlated, we figure out the amount of stock such that the gain from it offsets exactly the loss from the derivative.
- The removal of uncertainty forces the portfolio's return to be the riskless rate.

Assumptions

- The stock price follows $dS = \mu S\, dt + \sigma S\, dW$.
- There are no dividends.
- Trading is continuous, and short selling is allowed.
- There are no transactions costs or taxes.
- All securities are infinitely divisible.
- The term structure of riskless rates is flat at r.
- There is unlimited riskless borrowing and lending.
- t is the current time, T is the expiration time, and $\tau \equiv T - t$.

Black-Scholes Differential Equation

- Let C be the price of a derivative on S.
- From Ito's lemma (p. 481),

$$dC = \left(\mu S \frac{\partial C}{\partial S} + \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 S^2 \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial S^2} \right) dt + \sigma S \frac{\partial C}{\partial S} dW.$$

  - The same W drives both C and S.
- Short one derivative and long $\partial C / \partial S$ shares of stock (call it Π).
- By construction,

$$\Pi = -C + S(\partial C / \partial S).$$

Black-Scholes Differential Equation (continued)

- The change in the value of the portfolio at time dt is

$$d\Pi = -dC + \frac{\partial C}{\partial S}\, dS.$$

- Substitute the formulas for dC and dS into the partial differential equation to yield

$$d\Pi = \left(-\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} - \frac{1}{2}\, \sigma^2 S^2\, \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial S^2} \right) dt.$$

- As this equation does not involve dW, the portfolio is riskless during dt time: $d\Pi = r\Pi\, dt$.

Black-Scholes Differential Equation (concluded)

- So
$$\left(\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2}\,\sigma^2 S^2\, \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial S^2} \right) dt = r \left(C - S\, \frac{\partial C}{\partial S} \right) dt.$$
- Equate the terms to finally obtain
$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + rS\, \frac{\partial C}{\partial S} + \frac{1}{2}\,\sigma^2 S^2\, \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial S^2} = rC.$$
- When there is a dividend yield q,
$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + (r - q)\, S\, \frac{\partial C}{\partial S} + \frac{1}{2}\,\sigma^2 S^2\, \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial S^2} = rC.$$

Rephrase

- The Black-Scholes differential equation can be expressed in terms of sensitivity numbers,

$$\Theta + rS\Delta + \frac{1}{2}\,\sigma^2 S^2 \Gamma = rC. \tag{53}$$

- Identity (53) leads to an alternative way of computing Θ numerically from Δ and Γ.
- When a portfolio is delta-neutral,

$$\Theta + \frac{1}{2}\,\sigma^2 S^2 \Gamma = rC.$$

  - A definite relation thus exists between Γ and Θ.

PDEs for Asian Options

- Add the new variable $A(t) \equiv \int_0^t S(u)\, du$.
- Then the value V of the Asian option satisfies this two-dimensional PDE:[a]

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + rS\,\frac{\partial V}{\partial S} + \frac{1}{2}\,\sigma^2 S^2\,\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial S^2} + S\,\frac{\partial V}{\partial A} = rV.$$

- The terminal conditions are

$$\begin{aligned} V(T, S, A) &= \max\left(\frac{A}{T} - X, 0\right) \quad \text{for call,} \\ V(T, S, A) &= \max\left(X - \frac{A}{T}, 0\right) \quad \text{for put.} \end{aligned}$$

[a]Kemna and Vorst (1990).

PDEs for Asian Options (continued)

- The two-dimensional PDE produces algorithms similar to that on pp. 334ff.
- But one-dimensional PDEs are available for Asian options.[a]
- For example, Večeř (2001) derives the following PDE for Asian calls:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + r\left(1 - \frac{t}{T} - z\right)\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + \frac{\left(1 - \frac{t}{T} - z\right)^2 \sigma^2}{2}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

with the terminal condition $u(T, z) = \max(z, 0)$.

[a] Rogers and Shi (1995); Večeř (2001); Dubois and Lelièvre (2005).

PDEs for Asian Options (concluded)

- For Asian puts:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + r\left(\frac{t}{T} - 1 - z\right) \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + \frac{\left(\frac{t}{T} - 1 - z\right)^2 \sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

  with the same terminal condition.

- One-dimensional PDEs lead to highly efficient numerical methods.

Hedging

When Professors Scholes and Merton and I
invested in warrants,
Professor Merton lost the most money.
And I lost the least.
— Fischer Black (1938–1995)

Delta Hedge

- The delta (hedge ratio) of a derivative f is defined as $\Delta \equiv \partial f / \partial S$.
- Thus $\Delta f \approx \Delta \times \Delta S$ for relatively small changes in the stock price, ΔS.
- A delta-neutral portfolio is hedged in the sense that it is immunized against small changes in the stock price.
- A trading strategy that dynamically maintains a delta-neutral portfolio is called delta hedge.

Delta Hedge (concluded)

- Delta changes with the stock price.
- A delta hedge needs to be rebalanced periodically in order to maintain delta neutrality.
- In the limit where the portfolio is adjusted continuously, perfect hedge is achieved and the strategy becomes self-financing.

Implementing Delta Hedge

- We want to hedge N short derivatives.
- Assume the stock pays no dividends.
- The delta-neutral portfolio maintains $N \times \Delta$ shares of stock plus B borrowed dollars such that

$$-N \times f + N \times \Delta \times S - B = 0.$$

- At next rebalancing point when the delta is Δ', buy $N \times (\Delta' - \Delta)$ shares to maintain $N \times \Delta'$ shares with a total borrowing of $B' = N \times \Delta' \times S' - N \times f'$.
- Delta hedge is the discrete-time analog of the continuous-time limit and will rarely be self-financing.

Example

- A hedger is *short* 10,000 European calls.
- $\sigma = 30\%$ and $r = 6\%$.
- This call's expiration is four weeks away, its strike price is \$50, and each call has a current value of $f = 1.76791$.
- As an option covers 100 shares of stock, $N = 1{,}000{,}000$.
- The trader adjusts the portfolio weekly.
- The calls are replicated[a] well if the cumulative cost of trading *stock* is close to the call premium's FV.

[a] This example takes the replication viewpoint.

Example (continued)

- As $\Delta = 0.538560$, $N \times \Delta = 538,560$ shares are purchased for a total cost of $538{,}560 \times 50 = 26{,}928{,}000$ dollars to make the portfolio delta-neutral.
- The trader finances the purchase by borrowing

$$B = N \times \Delta \times S - N \times f = 25{,}160{,}090$$

  dollars net.[a]
- The portfolio has zero net value now.

---

[a] This takes the hedging viewpoint — an alternative. See an exercise in the text.

Example (continued)

- At 3 weeks to expiration, the stock price rises to \$51.
- The new call value is $f' = 2.10580$.
- So the portfolio is worth

$$-N \times f' + 538{,}560 \times 51 - Be^{0.06/52} = 171,622$$

before rebalancing.

Example (continued)

- A delta hedge does not replicate the calls perfectly; it is not self-financing as \$171,622 can be withdrawn.
- The magnitude of the tracking error—the variation in the net portfolio value—can be mitigated if adjustments are made more frequently.
- In fact, the tracking error *over one rebalancing act* is positive about 68% of the time, but its expected value is essentially zero.[a]
- It is furthermore proportional to vega.

[a]Boyle and Emanuel (1980).

Example (continued)

- In practice tracking errors will cease to decrease beyond a certain rebalancing frequency.
- With a higher delta $\Delta' = 0.640355$, the trader buys $N \times (\Delta' - \Delta) = 101,795$ shares for \$5,191,545.
- The number of shares is increased to $N \times \Delta' = 640,355$.

Example (continued)

- The cumulative cost is

$$26{,}928{,}000 \times e^{0.06/52} + 5{,}191{,}545 = 32{,}150{,}634.$$

- The total borrowed amount is

$$B' = 640{,}355 \times 51 - N \times f' = 30{,}552{,}305.$$

- The portfolio is again delta-neutral with zero value.

		Option value	Delta	Change in delta	No. shares bought	Cost of shares	Cumulative cost
τ	S	f	Δ		$N \times (5)$	$(1) \times (6)$	FV(8')+(7)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
4	50	1.7679	0.53856	—	538,560	26,928,000	26,928,000
3	51	2.1058	0.64036	0.10180	101,795	5,191,545	32,150,634
2	53	3.3509	0.85578	0.21542	215,425	11,417,525	43,605,277
1	52	2.2427	0.83983	−0.01595	−15,955	−829,660	42,825,960
0	54	4.0000	1.00000	0.16017	160,175	8,649,450	51,524,853

The total number of shares is 1,000,000 at expiration (trading takes place at expiration, too).

Example (concluded)

- At expiration, the trader has 1,000,000 shares.
- They are exercised against by the in-the-money calls for \$50,000,000.
- The trader is left with an obligation of

$$51{,}524{,}853 - 50{,}000{,}000 = 1{,}524{,}853,$$

  which represents the replication cost.
- Compared with the FV of the call premium,

$$1{,}767{,}910 \times e^{0.06 \times 4/52} = 1{,}776{,}088,$$

  the net gain is $1{,}776{,}088 - 1{,}524{,}853 = 251{,}235$.

Tracking Error Revisited

- Define the dollar gamma as $S^2\Gamma$.
- The change in value of a delta-hedged *long* option position after a duration of Δt is proportional to the dollar gamma.
- It is about

$$(1/2)S^2\Gamma[\,(\Delta S/S)^2 - \sigma^2\Delta t\,].$$

  - $(\Delta S/S)^2$ is called the daily realized variance.

Tracking Error Revisited (continued)

- Let the rebalancing times be $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n$.
- Let $\Delta S_i = S_{i+1} - S_i$.
- The total tracking error at expiration is about

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} e^{r(T-t_i)} \frac{S_i^2 \Gamma_i}{2} \left[\left(\frac{\Delta S_i}{S_i} \right)^2 - \sigma^2 \Delta t \right],$$

- The tracking error is path dependent.

Tracking Error Revisited (concluded)[a]

- The tracking error ϵ_n *over* n *rebalancing acts* (such as 251,235 on p. 519) has about the same probability of being positive as being negative.
- Subject to certain regularity conditions, the root-mean-square tracking error $\sqrt{E[\,\epsilon_n^2\,]}$ is $O(1/\sqrt{n}\,)$.[b]
- The root-mean-square tracking error increases with σ at first and then decreases.

[a]Bertsimas, Kogan, and Lo (2000).
[b]See also Grannan and Swindle (1996).

Delta-Gamma Hedge

- Delta hedge is based on the first-order approximation to changes in the derivative price, Δf, due to changes in the stock price, ΔS.
- When ΔS is not small, the second-order term, gamma $\Gamma \equiv \partial^2 f / \partial S^2$, helps (theoretically).
- A delta-gamma hedge is a delta hedge that maintains zero portfolio gamma, or gamma neutrality.
- To meet this extra condition, one more security needs to be brought in.

Delta-Gamma Hedge (concluded)

- Suppose we want to hedge short calls as before.
- A hedging call f_2 is brought in.
- To set up a delta-gamma hedge, we solve

$$
\begin{aligned}
-N \times f + n_1 \times S + n_2 \times f_2 - B &= 0 \quad \text{(self-financing)},\\
-N \times \Delta + n_1 + n_2 \times \Delta_2 - 0 &= 0 \quad \text{(delta neutrality)},\\
-N \times \Gamma + 0 + n_2 \times \Gamma_2 - 0 &= 0 \quad \text{(gamma neutrality)},
\end{aligned}
$$

  for n_1, n_2, and B.
  - The gammas of the stock and bond are 0.

Other Hedges

- If volatility changes, delta-gamma hedge may not work well.
- An enhancement is the delta-gamma-vega hedge, which also maintains vega zero portfolio vega.
- To accomplish this, one more security has to be brought into the process.
- In practice, delta-vega hedge, which may not maintain gamma neutrality, performs better than delta hedge.