

Andreas Krause

Hedging with futures

- Forwards and futures can be used to speculate and obtain potentially large profits from small initial investments, although this might also turn into large losses.
- Forwards and futures can also be used to hedge existing positions in the underlying asset.
- We will explore this hedging process in more detail here.

# Levered investments and hedging

- **Forwards and futures can be used for speculation, but also to hedge exposures to the underlying asset.**
- ▶
  - The value of a forward or future at its maturity is given by the difference between the price of the underlying asset and the strike price, thus the profits rise (and fall) with the price of the underlying asset, giving an investor the same movements as when holding the underlying asset directly.
  - These profits (and losses) are obtained with no initial investment if the strike price was the forward rate or a small investment in form of the premium.
- ▶ This is referred to as a levered investment and the returns are a multiple of the return on the underlying asset due to the small initial investment.
- ▶ Apart from their use for speculators, the reason forwards and futures were introduced was to allow investors to transfer risk between them as they have exposure to the underlying asset.
- ▶ Using derivatives to re-distribute risks is called hedging.
- Risk is not eliminated but only transferred to another party. The counterparty selling the forward or future will take on the risk that has been eliminated by the investor.

# Levered investments and hedging

- ▶ Futures and forwards can be used to obtain exposure to the underlying asset **without** purchasing it

# Levered investments and hedging

- Forwards and futures can be used for speculation, but also to hedge exposures to the underlying asset.
- ▶
  - The value of a forward or future at its maturity is given by the difference between the price of the underlying asset and the strike price, thus the profits rise (and fall) with the price of the underlying asset, giving an investor the same movements as when holding the underlying asset directly.
  - These profits (and losses) are obtained with no initial investment if the strike price was the forward rate or a small investment in form of the premium.
- ▶ This is referred to as a levered investment and the returns are a multiple of the return on the underlying asset due to the small initial investment.
- ▶ Apart from their use for speculators, the reason forwards and futures were introduced was to allow investors to transfer risk between them as they have exposure to the underlying asset.
- ▶ Using derivatives to re-distribute risks is called hedging.
- Risk is not eliminated but only transferred to another party. The counterparty selling the forward or future will take on the risk that has been eliminated by the investor.

# Levered investments and hedging

- ▶ Futures and forwards can be used to obtain exposure to the underlying asset without purchasing it, but investing only the premium

# Levered investments and hedging

- Forwards and futures can be used for speculation, but also to hedge exposures to the underlying asset.
- ▶
  - The value of a forward or future at its maturity is given by the difference between the price of the underlying asset and the strike price, thus the profits rise (and fall) with the price of the underlying asset, giving an investor the same movements as when holding the underlying asset directly.
  - These profits (and losses) are obtained with no initial investment if the strike price was the forward rate or a small investment in form of the premium.
- ▶ This is referred to as a levered investment and the returns are a multiple of the return on the underlying asset due to the small initial investment.
- ▶ Apart from their use for speculators, the reason forwards and futures were introduced was to allow investors to transfer risk between them as they have exposure to the underlying asset.
- ▶ Using derivatives to re-distribute risks is called hedging.
- Risk is not eliminated but only transferred to another party. The counterparty selling the forward or future will take on the risk that has been eliminated by the investor.



# Levered investments and hedging

- ▶ Futures and forwards can be used to obtain exposure to the underlying asset without purchasing it, but investing only the premium
- ▶ This often referred to as a **levered investment**

# Levered investments and hedging

- Forwards and futures can be used for speculation, but also to hedge exposures to the underlying asset.
  - ▶
    - The value of a forward or future at its maturity is given by the difference between the price of the underlying asset and the strike price, thus the profits rise (and fall) with the price of the underlying asset, giving an investor the same movements as when holding the underlying asset directly.
    - These profits (and losses) are obtained with no initial investment if the strike price was the forward rate or a small investment in form of the premium.
  - ▶ This is referred to as a levered investment and the returns are a multiple of the return on the underlying asset due to the small initial investment.
  - ▶ Apart from their use for speculators, the reason forwards and futures were introduced was to allow investors to transfer risk between them as they have exposure to the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Using derivatives to re-distribute risks is called hedging.
- Risk is not eliminated but only transferred to another party. The counterparty selling the forward or future will take on the risk that has been eliminated by the investor.

# Levered investments and hedging

- ▶ Futures and forwards can be used to obtain exposure to the underlying asset without purchasing it, but investing only the premium
- ▶ This often referred to as a levered investment
- ▶ Futures are also used to **eliminate the risk** from having exposure to the underlying asset

# Levered investments and hedging

- Forwards and futures can be used for speculation, but also to hedge exposures to the underlying asset.
  - ▶
    - The value of a forward or future at its maturity is given by the difference between the price of the underlying asset and the strike price, thus the profits rise (and fall) with the price of the underlying asset, giving an investor the same movements as when holding the underlying asset directly.
    - These profits (and losses) are obtained with no initial investment if the strike price was the forward rate or a small investment in form of the premium.
  - ▶ This is referred to as a levered investment and the returns are a multiple of the return on the underlying asset due to the small initial investment.
  - ▶ **Apart from their use for speculators, the reason forwards and futures were introduced was to allow investors to transfer risk between them as they have exposure to the underlying asset.**
  - ▶ Using derivatives to re-distribute risks is called hedging.
- Risk is not eliminated but only transferred to another party. The counterparty selling the forward or future will take on the risk that has been eliminated by the investor.

# Levered investments and hedging

- ▶ Futures and forwards can be used to obtain exposure to the underlying asset without purchasing it, but investing only the premium
- ▶ This often referred to as a levered investment
- ▶ Futures are also used to eliminate the risk from having exposure to the underlying asset
- ▶ Such a use of derivatives if called **hedging**

# Levered investments and hedging

- Forwards and futures can be used for speculation, but also to hedge exposures to the underlying asset.
  - ▶
    - The value of a forward or future at its maturity is given by the difference between the price of the underlying asset and the strike price, thus the profits rise (and fall) with the price of the underlying asset, giving an investor the same movements as when holding the underlying asset directly.
    - These profits (and losses) are obtained with no initial investment if the strike price was the forward rate or a small investment in form of the premium.
  - ▶ This is referred to as a levered investment and the returns are a multiple of the return on the underlying asset due to the small initial investment.
  - ▶ Apart from their use for speculators, the reason forwards and futures were introduced was to allow investors to transfer risk between them as they have exposure to the underlying asset.
  - ▶ **Using derivatives to re-distribute risks is called hedging.**
- Risk is not eliminated but only transferred to another party. The counterparty selling the forward or future will take on the risk that has been eliminated by the investor.

# Levered investments and hedging

- ▶ Futures and forwards can be used to obtain exposure to the underlying asset without purchasing it, but investing only the premium
- ▶ This often referred to as a levered investment
- ▶ Futures are also used to eliminate the risk from having exposure to the underlying asset
- ▶ Such a use of derivatives if called hedging

# Levered investments and hedging

- Forwards and futures can be used for speculation, but also to hedge exposures to the underlying asset.
  - ▶
    - The value of a forward or future at its maturity is given by the difference between the price of the underlying asset and the strike price, thus the profits rise (and fall) with the price of the underlying asset, giving an investor the same movements as when holding the underlying asset directly.
    - These profits (and losses) are obtained with no initial investment if the strike price was the forward rate or a small investment in form of the premium.
  - ▶ This is referred to as a levered investment and the returns are a multiple of the return on the underlying asset due to the small initial investment.
  - ▶ Apart from their use for speculators, the reason forwards and futures were introduced was to allow investors to transfer risk between them as they have exposure to the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Using derivatives to re-distribute risks is called hedging.
- Risk is not eliminated but only transferred to another party. The counterparty selling the forward or future will take on the risk that has been eliminated by the investor.



# Investor holding the underlying asset

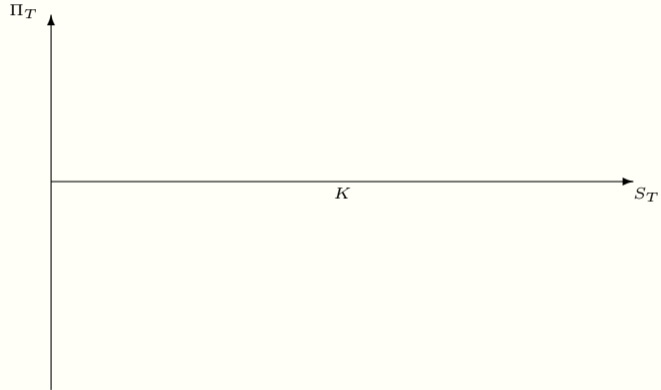
- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
- ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor holding the underlying asset



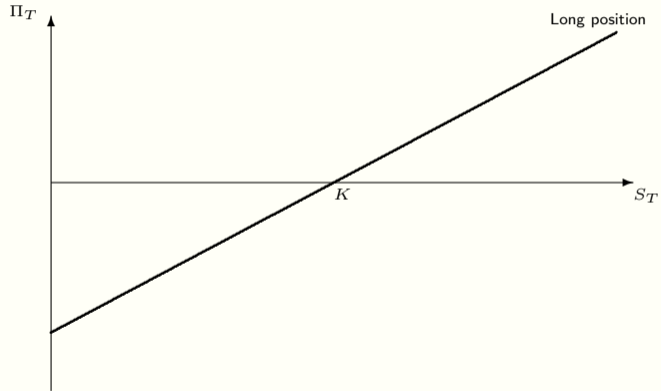
- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
- ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
- ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
- ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
- ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
- ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
- ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
- ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor holding the underlying asset



- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
- ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
- ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
- ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
- ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
- ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
- ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
- ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

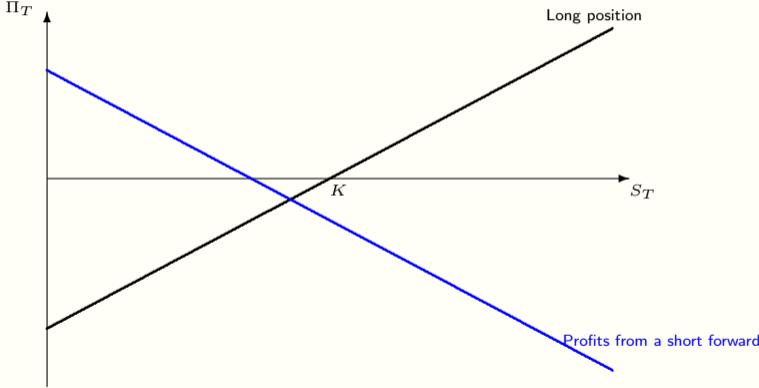
# Investor holding the underlying asset



- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
- ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
- ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
- ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
- ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
- ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
- ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
- ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

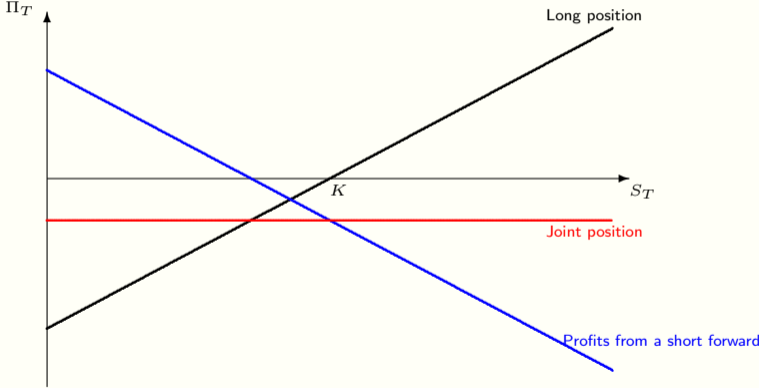


# Investor holding the underlying asset



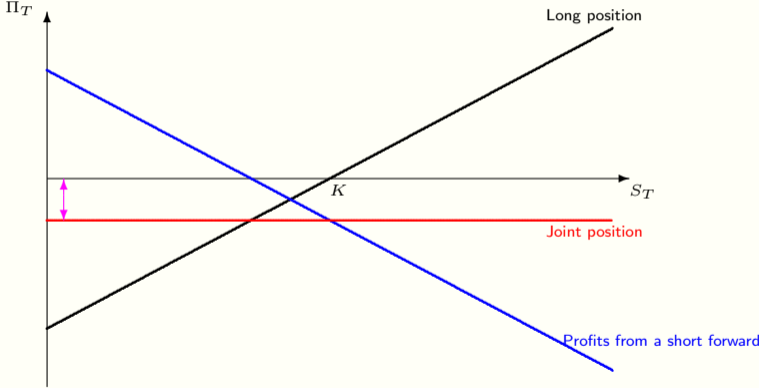
- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
- ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
- ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
- ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
- ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
- ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
- ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
- ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor holding the underlying asset



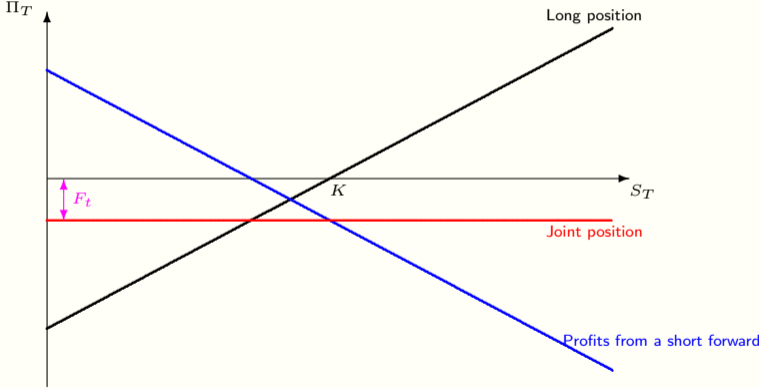
- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
  - ▶ **If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.**
  - ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor holding the underlying asset



- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

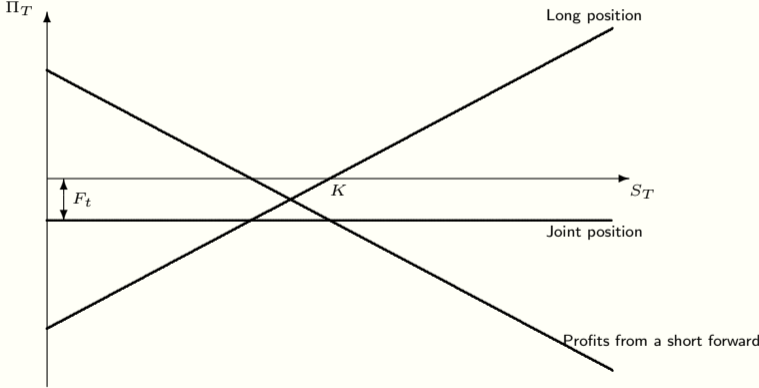
# Investor holding the underlying asset



- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ **This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.**
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.



# Investor holding the underlying asset



- Let us first consider the case where an investor holds the underlying asset and seeks to eliminate the risk of this position.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the current position and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Holding an asset is also known as a long position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is above the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to sell the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves selling the underlying asset this is known as a short forward or short future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value, but taking into account that we look at the position of the seller. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he has to sell the asset at the lower strike price, making a loss. A lower price at maturity allows him to sell the underlying asset at a higher price, making a profit.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a loss as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position in the underlying asset, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.

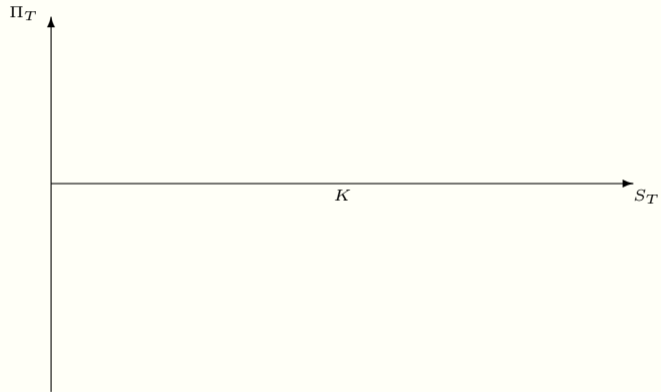
# Investor having to provide the underlying asset



# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ **We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.**
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

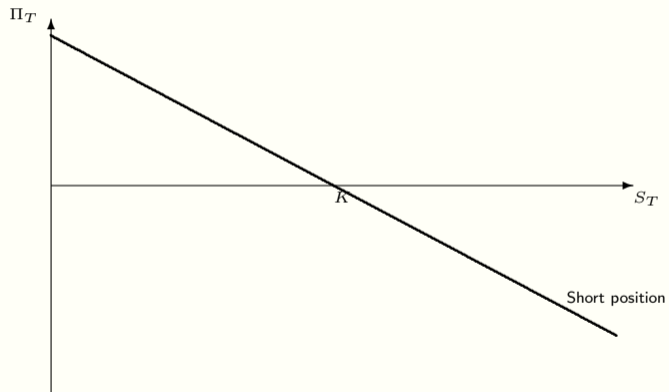


# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.



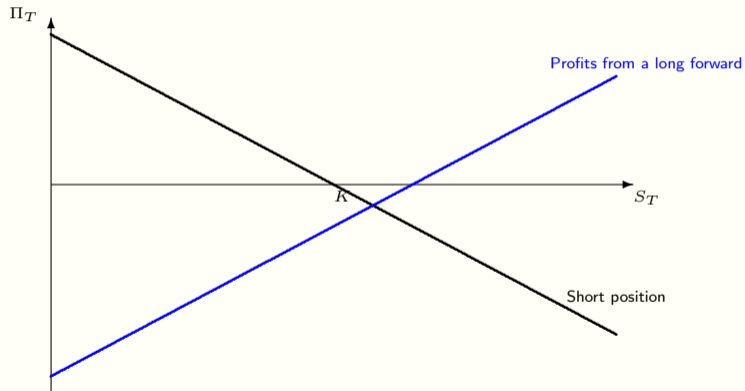
# Investor having to provide the underlying asset



# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ **Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.**
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.

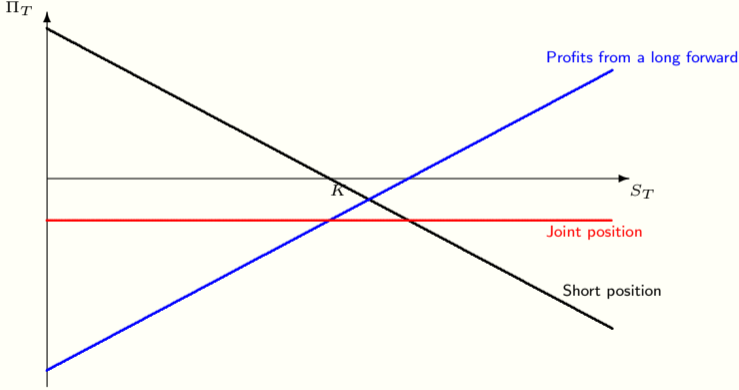
# Investor having to provide the underlying asset



# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.

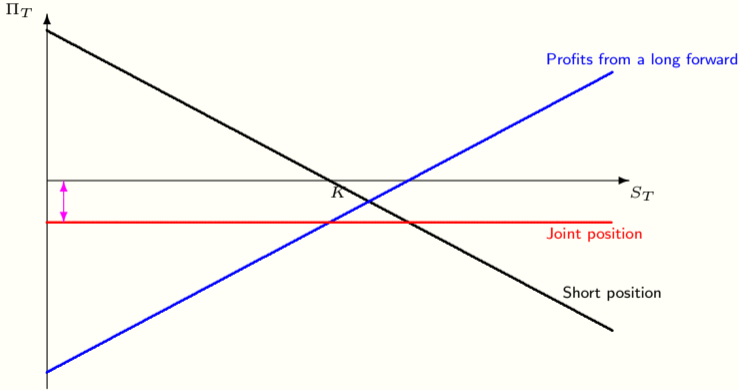
# Investor having to provide the underlying asset



# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ **If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.**
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

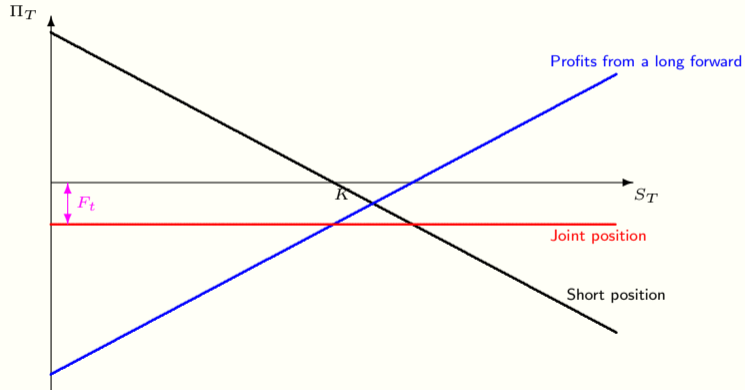


# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.



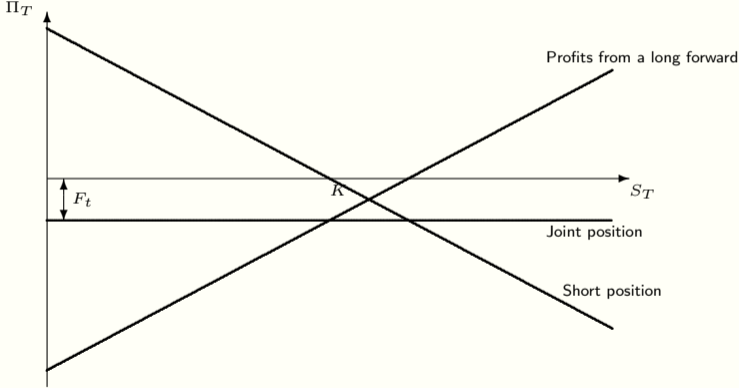
# Investor having to provide the underlying asset



# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ **This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.**
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Investor having to provide the underlying asset



# Investor having to provide the underlying asset

- Let us now consider the case where an investor does not hold the asset yet, but has to purchase it in the future, and seeks to eliminate the risk of this future purchase.
  - ▶ We will look at the profits an investor would make, depending on the value of the underlying asset at maturity of the forward or future.
  - ▶ We choose a strike price at which we want to insure the purchase and this will define our benchmark to determine the profits and losses to the investor. This strike price might be the current price of the underlying asset.
  - ▶ Having to purchase an asset is also known as a short position. The profits relative to the strike price are then given as a straight line; if the price at maturity is below the strike price, the investor makes a profit, otherwise a loss.
  - ▶ The investor now uses a forward that allows him to buy the underlying asset at the strike price. As it involves buying the underlying asset this is known as a long forward or long future. The profits from this forward at maturity ( $T = 0$ ) can be obtained in the same way as when determining the forward value. A higher price of the underlying asset at maturity implies that he can buy the asset at the lower strike price, making a profit. A lower price at maturity requires him to buy the underlying asset at a higher price, making a loss.
  - ▶ If we add these two positions together, we see that both have the same slope of opposite signs, thus the joint position is horizontal as indicated here. Regardless of the value of the underlying asset at maturity, the value of the joint position is fixed. Thus there is no risk to the investor and he is perfectly hedged.
  - ▶ Overall he may make a profit as indicated here as the two positions do not cancel each other out perfectly.
  - ▶ This difference is the value of the forward contract. This premium can be negative or positive; it will be zero if the strike price is the forward rate.
- We can use forwards and futures to hedge a position when having to purchase the underlying asset in the future, eliminating all risk to the investor.

# Unavailability of futures and forwards

- Forwards and futures can be used to hedge risks, but this requires such contracts to be available. Often such a contract is now available in the way it is needed. Different times to maturity can be addressed by rolling over existing shorter contracts into new contracts until the desired maturity. If there is no contract on the underlying asset available, this cannot be remedied as easily.
- ▶ While forwards can be agreed bilaterally between partners, futures are only available for selected underlying assets.
- ▶ In addition, forwards might not be easily agreed on some underlying assets with counterparties if there is little demand.
- ▶ While stock index futures are available, futures are only available on a small number of individual stocks, often only the most widely held stocks. Even where futures on individual stocks are available, these are often not frequently traded and prices might not be efficient.
- ▶ Investors holding portfolios of stocks would have to either agree a larger number of forwards on individual stocks or a forward on their specific portfolio, both of which would be time consuming and often not feasible.
- ▶ [⇒] A solution can be found by not hedging the portfolio directly, but by choosing a similar underlying asset instead.
- We will now explore how hedging work in such a situation.

# Unavailability of futures and forwards

- ▶ Futures are **not always available** for the underlying asset desired

- Forwards and futures can be used to hedge risks, but this requires such contracts to be available. Often such a contract is now available in the way it is needed. Different times to maturity can be addressed by rolling over existing shorter contracts into new contracts until the desired maturity. If there is no contract on the underlying asset available, this cannot be remedied as easily.
- ▶ While forwards can be agreed bilaterally between partners, futures are only available for selected underlying assets.
- ▶ In addition, forwards might not be easily agreed on some underlying assets with counterparties if there is little demand.
- ▶ While stock index futures are available, futures are only available on a small number of individual stocks, often only the most widely held stocks. Even where futures on individual stocks are available, these are often not frequently traded and prices might not be efficient.
- ▶ Investors holding portfolios of stocks would have to either agree a larger number of forwards on individual stocks or a forward on their specific portfolio, both of which would be time consuming and often not feasible.
- ▶ [⇒] A solution can be found by not hedging the portfolio directly, but by choosing a similar underlying asset instead.
- We will now explore how hedging works in such a situation.



# Unavailability of futures and forwards

- ▶ Futures are not always available for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ Banks might not be willing to engage in **bespoke forwards** for the underlying asset desired

- Forwards and futures can be used to hedge risks, but this requires such contracts to be available. Often such a contract is now available in the way it is needed. Different times to maturity can be addressed by rolling over existing shorter contracts into new contracts until the desired maturity. If there is no contract on the underlying asset available, this cannot be remedied as easily.
  - ▶ While forwards can be agreed bilaterally between partners, futures are only available for selected underlying assets.
  - ▶ **In addition, forwards might not be easily agreed on some underlying assets with counterparties if there is little demand.**
  - ▶ While stock index futures are available, futures are only available on a small number of individual stocks, often only the most widely held stocks. Even where futures on individual stocks are available, these are often not frequently traded and prices might not be efficient.
  - ▶ Investors holding portfolios of stocks would have to either agree a larger number of forwards on individual stocks or a forward on their specific portfolio, both of which would be time consuming and often not feasible.
  - ▶ [⇒] A solution can be found by not hedging the portfolio directly, but by choosing a similar underlying asset instead.
- We will now explore how hedging works in such a situation.

# Unavailability of futures and forwards

- ▶ Futures are not always available for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ Banks might not be willing to engage in bespoke forwards for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ This is a particular problem for stocks, where mostly only **stock index futures** are available

- Forwards and futures can be used to hedge risks, but this requires such contracts to be available. Often such a contract is now available in the way it is needed. Different times to maturity can be addressed by rolling over existing shorter contracts into new contracts until the desired maturity. If there is no contract on the underlying asset available, this cannot be remedied as easily.
  - ▶ While forwards can be agreed bilaterally between partners, futures are only available for selected underlying assets.
  - ▶ In addition, forwards might not be easily agreed on some underlying assets with counterparties if there is little demand.
  - ▶ While stock index futures are available, futures are only available on a small number of individual stocks, often only the most widely held stocks. Even where futures on individual stocks are available, these are often not frequently traded and prices might not be efficient.
  - ▶ Investors holding portfolios of stocks would have to either agree a larger number of forwards on individual stocks or a forward on their specific portfolio, both of which would be time consuming and often not feasible.
  - ▶ [⇒] A solution can be found by not hedging the portfolio directly, but by choosing a similar underlying asset instead.
- We will now explore how hedging works in such a situation.

# Unavailability of futures and forwards

- ▶ Futures are not always available for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ Banks might not be willing to engage in bespoke forwards for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ This is a particular problem for stocks, where mostly only stock index futures are available
- ▶ Agreeing forwards for **specific portfolios** might be difficult

- Forwards and futures can be used to hedge risks, but this requires such contracts to be available. Often such a contract is now available in the way it is needed. Different times to maturity can be addressed by rolling over existing shorter contracts into new contracts until the desired maturity. If there is no contract on the underlying asset available, this cannot be remedied as easily.
  - ▶ While forwards can be agreed bilaterally between partners, futures are only available for selected underlying assets.
  - ▶ In addition, forwards might not be easily agreed on some underlying assets with counterparties if there is little demand.
  - ▶ While stock index futures are available, futures are only available on a small number of individual stocks, often only the most widely held stocks. Even where futures on individual stocks are available, these are often not frequently traded and prices might not be efficient.
  - ▶ Investors holding portfolios of stocks would have to either agree a larger number of forwards on individual stocks or a forward on their specific portfolio, both of which would be time consuming and often not feasible.
  - ▶ [⇒] A solution can be found by not hedging the portfolio directly, but by choosing a similar underlying asset instead.
- We will now explore how hedging work in such a situation.

# Unavailability of futures and forwards

- ▶ Futures are not always available for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ Banks might not be willing to engage in bespoke forwards for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ This is a particular problem for stocks, where mostly only stock index futures are available
- ▶ Agreeing forwards for specific portfolios might be difficult
- ⇒ Investors agree a futures or forward contract in a **similar underlying asset**

- Forwards and futures can be used to hedge risks, but this requires such contracts to be available. Often such a contract is now available in the way it is needed. Different times to maturity can be addressed by rolling over existing shorter contracts into new contracts until the desired maturity. If there is no contract on the underlying asset available, this cannot be remedied as easily.
  - ▶ While forwards can be agreed bilaterally between partners, futures are only available for selected underlying assets.
  - ▶ In addition, forwards might not be easily agreed on some underlying assets with counterparties if there is little demand.
  - ▶ While stock index futures are available, futures are only available on a small number of individual stocks, often only the most widely held stocks. Even where futures on individual stocks are available, these are often not frequently traded and prices might not be efficient.
  - ▶ Investors holding portfolios of stocks would have to either agree a larger number of forwards on individual stocks or a forward on their specific portfolio, both of which would be time consuming and often not feasible.
  - ▶ [⇒] A solution can be found by not hedging the portfolio directly, but by choosing a similar underlying asset instead.
- We will now explore how hedging work in such a situation.



# Unavailability of futures and forwards

- ▶ Futures are not always available for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ Banks might not be willing to engage in bespoke forwards for the underlying asset desired
- ▶ This is a particular problem for stocks, where mostly only stock index futures are available
- ▶ Agreeing forwards for specific portfolios might be difficult
- ⇒ Investors agree a futures or forward contract in a similar underlying asset

- Forwards and futures can be used to hedge risks, but this requires such contracts to be available. Often such a contract is now available in the way it is needed. Different times to maturity can be addressed by rolling over existing shorter contracts into new contracts until the desired maturity. If there is no contract on the underlying asset available, this cannot be remedied as easily.
  - ▶ While forwards can be agreed bilaterally between partners, futures are only available for selected underlying assets.
  - ▶ In addition, forwards might not be easily agreed on some underlying assets with counterparties if there is little demand.
  - ▶ While stock index futures are available, futures are only available on a small number of individual stocks, often only the most widely held stocks. Even where futures on individual stocks are available, these are often not frequently traded and prices might not be efficient.
  - ▶ Investors holding portfolios of stocks would have to either agree a larger number of forwards on individual stocks or a forward on their specific portfolio, both of which would be time consuming and often not feasible.
  - ▶ [⇒] A solution can be found by not hedging the portfolio directly, but by choosing a similar underlying asset instead.
- We will now explore how hedging work in such a situation.

# Imperfect hedging

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
  - ▶
    - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
    - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
    - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
  - ▶ *Formula*
  - ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
  - ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
  - ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
  - ▶
    - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
    - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
  - ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

# Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a **different underlying asset**

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
  - ▶
    - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
    - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
    - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
  - ▶ *Formula*
  - ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
  - ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
  - ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
  - ▶
    - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
    - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
  - ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

# Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the **value of the asset**
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T$

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.



## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the **value of the asset**, less the **value from the underlying asset** of the forward
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - F_T$

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
  - ▶
    - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
    - **Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.**
    - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
  - ▶ **Formula**
  - ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
  - ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
  - ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
  - ▶
    - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
    - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
  - ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

# Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
  - ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
  - ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ **As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.**
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.



## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$
- ⇒  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]}{\text{Var}[F]}$

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the formula.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$
- ⇒  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]}{\text{Var}[F]}$
- ▶ This is known as the **hedge ratio**

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - **The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.**
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$
- ⇒  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]}{\text{Var}[F]}$
- ▶ This is known as the hedge ratio, detailing the **number of contracts** in the underlying asset for each asset sought to hedge

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
  - ▶
    - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
    - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
    - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
  - ▶ *Formula*
  - ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
  - ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
  - ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
  - ▶
    - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
    - **It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.**
  - ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
  - ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$
- ⇒  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]}{\text{Var}[F]}$
- ▶ This is known as the hedge ratio, detailing the number of contracts in the underlying asset for each asset sought to hedge
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]^2}{\text{Var}[F]} > 0$

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.



## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$
- ⇒  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]}{\text{Var}[F]}$
- ▶ This is known as the hedge ratio, detailing the number of contracts in the underlying asset for each asset sought to hedge
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]^2}{\text{Var}[F]} > 0$
- ▶ The risk is **not eliminated**

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ **We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.**
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$
- ⇒  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]}{\text{Var}[F]}$
- ▶ This is known as the hedge ratio, detailing the number of contracts in the underlying asset for each asset sought to hedge
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]^2}{\text{Var}[F]} > 0$
- ▶ The risk is not eliminated, but **reduced**

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
  - ▶
    - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
    - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
    - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
  - ▶ *Formula*
  - ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
  - ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
  - ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
  - ▶
    - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
    - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
  - ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

## Imperfect hedging

- ▶ A long position in the asset is hedged with a number of short forward contracts on a different underlying asset
- ▶ The value at maturity of the forward is the value of the asset, less the value from the underlying asset of the forward, for each contract
- ▶  $\Pi_T = S_T - hF_T$
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - 2h\text{Cov}[S, F] + h^2\text{Var}[F]$
- ▶ We minimize the variance of the profits:  $\frac{\text{Var}[\Pi_T]}{\partial h} = 0$
- ⇒  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]}{\text{Var}[F]}$
- ▶ This is known as the hedge ratio, detailing the number of contracts in the underlying asset for each asset sought to hedge
- ⇒  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \text{Var}[S] - \frac{\text{Cov}[S, F]^2}{\text{Var}[F]} > 0$
- ▶ The risk is not eliminated, but reduced

- We consider now how such a hedge with a different underlying asset can be conducted.
- ▶ We know that a long position in an asset can be hedged with a short forward contract. We now generalise this idea by stating that we will use a forward on a different underlying asset and allow for any number of forward contracts to be used.
- ▶
  - At maturity of the forward, the profits are given by the value of the underlying asset which the investor still holds.
  - Less the value of the forward on the different underlying asset, which at maturity is the difference between its value and the strike price.
  - The sign is negative due to it being a short forward and we use  $h$  such contracts for each of the assets we want to hedge.
- ▶ *Formula*
- ▶ [⇒] We can determine the variance of these profits at maturity.
- ▶ As we want to hedge the risk, we want to minimize this risk.
- ▶ [⇒] Solving the first order condition gives us the optimal number of contracts as in the *formula*.
- ▶
  - The number of forward contracts per asset is known as the hedge ratio.
  - It specifies the number of underlying assets in the forward contracts for each of the assets we seek to hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] Inserting the hedge ratio, we can determine the variance of the joint position. We can see that this expression will be positive; dividing by  $\text{Var}[S]$ , we see that the last term is the squared correlation and hence, unless the expression will be positive unless the correlation is perfect.
- ▶ We thus see that using another asset to hedge a position will not eliminate the risk, but it will reduce the risk.
- We can now explore more the properties of this hedge.

# $\beta$ -hedging

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.



- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the **stock market**

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

# $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]}$

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

# $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
- ▶
  - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
  - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
- ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
- ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
- ▶
  - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
  - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
- ▶
  - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
  - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this formula.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.



## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
- ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
    - ▶
      - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
      - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
    - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
    - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
    - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
    - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
      - ▶
        - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
        - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
      - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
        - ▶
          - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
          - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.

→ We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
  - ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
  - ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
  - ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- $\Rightarrow R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
  - ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
  - ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
  - ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- $\Rightarrow R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$
- $\Rightarrow \sigma_i^2 = \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
- ▶
  - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
  - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
- ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
- ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
- ▶
  - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
  - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
- ▶
  - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
  - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
- ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- ⇒  $R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$
- ⇒  $\sigma_i^2 = \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ The total risk of a stock consists of the **systematic risk**

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - **The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock**
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.



## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
- ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- ⇒  $R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$
- ⇒  $\sigma_i^2 = \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ The total risk of a stock consists of the **systematic risk** and the **idiosyncratic risk**

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
- ▶
  - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
  - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
- ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
- ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
- ▶
  - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
  - **and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.**
- ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
- ▶
  - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
  - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
- ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- ⇒  $R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$
- ⇒  $\sigma_i^2 = \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ The total risk of a stock consists of the systematic risk and the idiosyncratic risk
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ **If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.**
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
- ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- ⇒  $R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$
- ⇒  $\sigma_i^2 = \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ The total risk of a stock consists of the systematic risk and the idiosyncratic risk
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ Hedging using stock indices eliminates **systematic risk**

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
- ▶
  - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
  - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
- ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
- ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
- ▶
  - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
  - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
- ▶
  - **Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,**
  - but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.

## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
- ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- ⇒  $R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$
- ⇒  $\sigma_i^2 = \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ The total risk of a stock consists of the systematic risk and the idiosyncratic risk
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ Hedging using stock indices eliminates systematic risk, but **not** idiosyncratic risk

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
  - ▶
    - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
    - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
  - ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
  - ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
  - ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
  - ▶
    - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
    - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
  - ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
  - ▶
    - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
    - **but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.**
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.



## $\beta$ -hedging

- ▶ Assume the asset is a stock and the underlying asset of the forward the stock market
- ▶  $h = \frac{\text{Cov}[R_i, R_M]}{\text{Var}[R_M]} = \beta_i$
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_i^2 - \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2$
- ▶ Assume the Capital Asset Pricing Model holds:  $\mu_i = r + \beta_i (\mu_M - r)$
- ⇒  $R_i = r + \beta_i (R_M - r) + \varepsilon_i$
- ⇒  $\sigma_i^2 = \beta_i^2 \sigma_M^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ The total risk of a stock consists of the systematic risk and the idiosyncratic risk
- ▶  $\text{Var}[\Pi_T] = \sigma_{\varepsilon_i}^2$
- ▶ Hedging using stock indices eliminates systematic risk, but not idiosyncratic risk

- We will now look at the properties of this hedge in a special case of using stock index futures.
- ▶ We look at the case of the asset whose position is to be hedged being a stock and the underlying asset of the future is a stock market index.
- ▶
  - Rather than looking at the variance of the value of the stock and the index, we can look at their respective returns. The return of the asset we denote by  $R_i$  and that of the stock market index by  $R_M$ .
  - This hedge ratio is the  $\beta$  of the Capital Asset Pricing Model if we assume that the stock market index used is representing the market portfolio. Given the hedge ratio is identical to the  $\beta$  of the CAPM, such a hedge with the market index is known as a  $\beta$ -hedge.
- ▶ In this case the variance of profits can be rewritten as in this *formula*.
- ▶ We now assume that the CAPM holds for the asset we hedge.
- ▶ [⇒] The actual returns observed will then be the expected returns as determined by the CAPM, plus an error term that will capture any idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ [⇒] We can now take the variance of this actual return and it will consist of the market variance, multiplied by  $\beta_i^2$  and the idiosyncratic risk arising from the variance of the error term.
- ▶
  - The first component represents the systematic risk of the stock
  - and the second component is the idiosyncratic risk of the stock.
- ▶ If we insert this risk into the variance of the profits, we see that this variance consists of the idiosyncratic risk.
- ▶
  - Using  $\beta$ -hedging will eliminate all systematic risk,
  - **but we cannot eliminate idiosyncratic or unsystematic risk.**
- We thus see that forwards and futures can be used to eliminate risk completely if the underlying asset is identical to the asset that is to be hedged. If this is not the case, only the systematic risk can be hedged; thus hedging eliminates only systematic risk in this case, but idiosyncratic risk could be eliminated through diversification.



Copyright © by Andreas Krause

Picture credits:

Cover: Premier regard, Public domain, via Wikimedia Commons, [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:DALL-E\\_-\\_Financial\\_markets\\_\(1\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:DALL-E_-_Financial_markets_(1).jpg)

Back: Rhododendrites, CC BY-SA 4.0 <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0>, via Wikimedia Commons, [https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/0/04/Manhattan\\_at\\_night\\_south\\_of\\_Rockefeller\\_Center\\_panorama\\_\(11263p\).jpg](https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/0/04/Manhattan_at_night_south_of_Rockefeller_Center_panorama_(11263p).jpg)

Andreas Krause  
Department of Economics  
University of Bath  
Claverton Down  
Bath BA2 7AY  
United Kingdom

E-mail: [mnsak@bath.ac.uk](mailto:mnsak@bath.ac.uk)