Games and Options in Incomplete Markets

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University of Western Ontario, November 22, 2006

Strategic Decision Making

Suppose we want to assign monetary values to the strategic decision to:

- create a new firm;
- invest in a new project;
- start a real estate development;
- ▶ finance R&D;
- abandon a non-profitable project;
- temporarily suspend operations under adverse conditions and reactive them when conditions improve.

Valuation Elements

In all of the previous problems, we can identify the following common elements:

- uncertainty about the future;
- some degree of irreversibility;
- timing and managerial flexibility;
- interaction with other people's decisions.

To account for these elements, we are going to base our decisions on values obtained using the following theoretical tools:

- Net Present Value
- Real Options
- Game Theory

Net Present Value

- Net Present Value takes into account the intrinsic advantages of a given investment when compared to capital markets.
- This are essentially due to market imperfections, such as entry barriers, product differentiation, economy of scale, etc...
- Denoting the expected present value of *future cash flows* of a given project by V and the corresponding *sunk cost* by *I*, then its NPV is

$$\mathsf{NPV} = \widetilde{V} - I$$

• The decision rule according to NPV is to invest whenever $\widetilde{V} > I$.

The Real Options Approach

- If we view the project as an underlying asset, then an investment opportunity with a sunk cost *I* is the *formal* analogue of an American call option on *V* with strike price *I*.
- The Real Options Approach applies techniques used for financial options to determined the value C for the option to invest.

$$\widetilde{V} - I > \widetilde{C}.$$

This results in higher exercise thresholds, taking into account the value of waiting.

Successes and Limitations

- According to a recent survey, 26% of CFOs in North America "always or almost always" consider the value of real options in projects.
- This is due to familiarity with the option valuation paradigm in financial markets and its lessons.
- But most of the literature in Real Options is based on one or both of the following assumptions: (1) infinite time horizon and (2) perfectly correlated spanning asset.
- Though some problems have long time horizons (30 years or more), most strategic decisions involve much shorter times.
- The vast majority of underlying projects are not perfectly correlated to any asset traded in financial markets.

Alternatives

- The use of well-known numerical methods (e.g finite differences) allows for finite time horizons.
- As for the spanning asset assumption, the absence of perfect correlation with a financial asset leads to an incomplete market.
- Replication arguments can no longer be applied to value managerial opportunities.
- Instead, one needs to rely on risk preferences.
- The most widespread way to do this in the strategic decision making literature is to introduce an internal rate of return, which replaces the risk-free rate, and use dynamic programming.
- This approach lacks the intuitive understanding of opportunities as options.
- We prefer to stick with the options paradigm and use utility-based methods to calculate their values.

A one-period investment model

Consider a two-factor market where the discounted prices for the project V and a correlated traded asset S follow:

$$(S_{T}, V_{T}) = \begin{cases} (uS_{0}, hV_{0}) & \text{with probability } p_{1}, \\ (uS_{0}, \ell V_{0}) & \text{with probability } p_{2}, \\ (dS_{0}, hV_{0}) & \text{with probability } p_{3}, \\ (dS_{0}, \ell V_{0}) & \text{with probability } p_{4}, \end{cases}$$
(1)

where 0 < d < 1 < u and $0 < \ell < 1 < h$, for positive initial values S_0 , V_0 and historical probabilities p_1 , p_2 , p_3 , p_4 .

- Let the risk preferences be specified through an exponential utility $U(x) = -e^{-\gamma x}$.
- An investment opportunity is model as an option with discounted payoff C_t = (V − e^{-rt}I)⁺, for t = 0, T.

European Indifference Price

Without the opportunity to invest in the project V, a rational agent with initial wealth x will try to solve the optimization problem

$$u^{0}(x) = \max_{H} E[U(X_{T}^{x})], \qquad (2)$$

where

$$X_T^x = \xi + HS_T = x + H(S_T - S_0).$$
 (3)

is the wealth obtained by keeping ξ dollars in a risk-free cash account and holding H units of the traded asset S.

An agent with initial wealth x who pays a price π for the opportunity to invest in the project will try to solve the modified optimization problem

$$u^{C}(x-\pi) = \max_{H} E[U(X_{T}^{x-\pi} + C_{T})]$$
(4)

The indifference price for the option to invest in the final period as the amount π^C that solves the equation

$$u^{0}(x) = u^{C}(x - \pi).$$
 (5)

Explicit solution

Denoting the two possible pay-offs at the terminal time by C_h and C_ℓ , the European indifference price defined in (5) is given by

$$\pi^{\mathcal{C}} = g(\mathcal{C}_h, \mathcal{C}_\ell) \tag{6}$$

where, for fixed parameters $(u, d, p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4)$ the function $g : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is given by

$$g(x_{1}, x_{2}) = \frac{q}{\gamma} \log \left(\frac{p_{1} + p_{2}}{p_{1}e^{-\gamma x_{1}} + p_{2}e^{-\gamma x_{2}}} \right)$$
(7)
+ $\frac{1 - q}{\gamma} \log \left(\frac{p_{3} + p_{4}}{p_{3}e^{-\gamma x_{1}} + p_{4}e^{-\gamma x_{2}}} \right),$

with

$$q=\frac{1-d}{u-d}.$$

Early exercise

- ▶ When investment at time t = 0 is allowed, it is clear that immediate exercise of this option will occur whenever its exercise value $(V_0 I)^+$ is larger than its continuation value π^C .
- That is, from the point of view of this agent, the value at time zero for the opportunity to invest in the project either at t = 0 or t = T is given by

$$C_0 = \max\{(V_0 - I)^+, g((hV_0 - e^{-rT}I)^+, (\ell V_0 - e^{-rT}I)^+)\}.$$

A multi-period model

1

Consider now a continuous-time two–factor market of the form

$$dS_t = (\mu_1 - r)S_t dt + \sigma_1 S_t dW$$

$$dV_t = (\mu_2 - r)V_t dt + \sigma_2 V_t (\rho dW + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} dZ).$$

- ▶ We want to approximate this market by a discrete-time processes (S_n, V_n) following the one-period dynamics (1).
- This leads to the following choice of parameters:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} u & = & e^{\sigma_1 \sqrt{\Delta t}}, & h = e^{\sigma_2 \sqrt{\Delta t}}, \\ d & = & e^{-\sigma_1 \sqrt{\Delta t}}, & \ell = e^{-\sigma_2 \sqrt{\Delta t}}, \\ p_1 + p_2 & = & \frac{e^{(\mu_1 - r)\Delta t} - d}{u - d}, & p_1 + p_3 = \frac{e^{(\mu_2 - r)\Delta t} - \ell}{h - \ell} \\ o\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \Delta t & = & (u - d)(h - \ell)[p_1 p_4 - p_2 p_3], \end{array}$$

supplemented by the condition $p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + p_4 = 1$.

Grid Values

Instead a triangular tree for project values, we consider a
 (2M + 1) × N rectangular grid whose repeated columns are
 given by

$$V^{(i)} = h^{M+1-i}V_0, \qquad i = 1, \dots, 2M+1,$$
 (8)

ranging from $(h^M V_0)$ to $(\ell^M V_0)$.

Then each realization for the discrete-time process V_n following the dynamics (1) can then be thought of as a path over this grid.

Option pricing on the grid

- ▶ We determine the discounted value of the option to invest on the project as a function C_{in} on this grid.
- We start by with the boundary conditions:

$$C_{iN} = (V^{(i)} - e^{-rT}I)^+, \qquad i = 1, \dots, 2M + 1,$$

$$C_{1n} = V^{(1)} - e^{-rn\Delta_t}, \qquad n = 0, \dots, N,$$

$$C_{2M+1,n} = 0, \qquad n = 0, \dots, N.$$

 Values in the interior of the grid are then obtained by backward induction as follows:

$$C_{in} = \max\left\{ (V^{(i)} - e^{-rn\Delta t}I)^+, g(C_{i+1,n+1}, C_{i-1,n+1}) \right\}.$$
 (9)

► For each time t_n, the exercise threshold V_n^{*} is defined as the project value for which the exercise value becomes higher than its continuation value.

Numerical Experiments - Act I

- We now investigate how the exercise threshold varies with the different model parameters.
- The fixed parameters are

$$I = 1, \quad r = 0.04, \quad T = 10$$

$$\mu_1 = 0.115, \quad \sigma_1 = 0.25, \quad S_0 = 1$$

$$\sigma_2 = 0.2, \quad V_0 = 1$$

Given these parameters, the CAPM equilibrium expected rate of return on the project for a given correlation ρ is

$$\bar{\mu}_2 = r + \rho \left(\frac{\mu_1 - r}{\sigma_1}\right) \sigma_2. \tag{10}$$

The difference δ = μ
₂ - μ₂ is the below–equilibrium rate–of–return shortfall and plays the role of a dividend rate paid by the project, which we fix at δ = 0.04.

Known Thresholds

- ▶ In the limit $\rho \rightarrow \pm 1$ (complete market), the closed-form expression for the investment threshold obtained in the case $T = \infty$ gives $V_{DP}^* = 2$.
- This should be contrasted with the NPV criterion (that is, invest whenever the net present value for the project is positive) which in this case gives V^{*}_{NPV} = 1.
- The limit $\gamma \rightarrow 0$ in our model corresponds to the McDonald and Siegel (1986) threshold, obtained by assuming that investors are averse to market risk but neutral towards idiosyncratic risk.
- ► For our parameters, the adjustment to market risks is accounted by CAPM and this threshold coincides with V^{*}_{DP} = 2

Dependence on Correlation and Risk Aversion



Figure: Exercise threshold as a function of correlation and risk aversion.

Dependence on Volatility and Dividend Rate



Figure: Exercise threshold as a function of volatility and dividend rate.

Dependence on Time to Maturity



Figure: Exercise threshold as a function of time to maturity.

Values for the Option to Invest



Figure: Option value as a function of underlying project value. The threshold for $\rho = 0$ is 1.1972 and the one for $\rho = 0.99$ is 1.7507.

Suspension, Reactivation and Scrapping

- The previous framework ignores the possibility of negative cash flows arising from the active project, for instance, when operating costs exceed the revenue.
- We have to consider the option to abandon the project when such cash flows become too negative.
- ▶ Instead of completely abandoning the project, we might have the option to "mothball" it by paying a sunk cost E_M and a maintenance rate m < C.
- Once prices for the output become favorable again, we have the option to reactive the project by paying a sunk cost R < 1.</p>
- Finally, if prices drop too much, we have the option to completely abandon the project by paying a sunk cost E_S (which could be negative, corresponding to a "scrap value").
- ► As before, the decisions to invest, mothball, reactivate and scrap are triggered by the price thresholds P_S < P_M < P_R < P_H.

Project values and options

- Let us denote the value of an idle project by F⁰, an active project by F¹ and a mothballed project by F^M.
- Then

$$F^0 = option to invest at cost I$$

$$F^1$$
 = cash flow + option to mothball at cost E_M

$$F^M$$
 = cash flow + option to reactivate at cost R

+ option to scrap at cost E_S

We obtain its value on the grid using the recursion formula

 $F^{k}(i,j) = \max\{\text{continuation value, possible exercise values}\}.$

Numerical Experiments - Act II

- We calculate these thresholds by keeping track of three simultaneous grids of option values.
- The fixed parameters now are

$$\mu_{1} = 0.12, \quad \sigma_{1} = 0.2, \quad S_{0} = 1$$

$$\sigma_{2} = 0.2, \quad V_{0} = 1$$

$$r = 0.05, \quad \delta = 0.05, \quad T = 30$$

$$I = 2, \quad R = 0.79, \quad E_{M} = E_{S} = 0$$

$$C = 1, \quad m = 0.01$$

$$\rho = 0.9, \quad \gamma = 0.1$$

Dependence on Mothballing Sunk Cost



Dependence on Mothballing Running Cost



Dependence on Correlation



Dependence on Risk Aversion



Introducing Competition

- We use game theoretical tools to introduce the effect of competition.
- The goal is to assign a strategic value G to both conditional and unconditional moves toward investment that can create a competitive advantaged in the market.
- This is then added to the NPV of a project.
- Therefore, the decision rule is to invest whenever

$$(\widetilde{V}-I)+\widetilde{G}>\widetilde{C}.$$

Combining options and games

For a systematic application of both real options and game theory in strategic decisions, we consider the following rules:

- 1. Outcomes of a given game that involve a "wait-and-see" strategy should be calculated by option value arguments.
- 2. Once the Nahs equilibrium (NE) for a given game is found on a decision node, its value becomes the pay-off for an option at that node.
- In this way, option valuation and game theoretical equilibrium become dynamically related in a decision tree.
- In what follows, we denote the NE solution for a given game in bold face within the matrix of outcomes (rounded to nearest integer).

One Stage Strategic Investment

As a first example, consider two symmetric firms contemplating a total investment I = 80 on a project with $V_0 = 100$ and equal probabilities to move up to $V^u = 200$ and down to $V^d = 50$.

• We take
$$u = 3/2$$
, $h = 2$, $p_1 = p_4 = 255/256$,
 $p_2 = p_3 = 1/256$, $\gamma = 0.1$, $r = 0$.

Therefore, using expression (7) to calculate the option value for the "wait–and–see" strategy, we have the following matrix of outcomes for this game:

		D	
		Invest	Wait
A	Invest	(10,10)	(20,0)
	Wait	(0,20)	(11,11)

р

 For comparison, the complete market gives an option value of 48 to be shared by the firms.

Two-stage competitive R&D

- Suppose now that firm A is the only firm facing an R&D investment at cost l₀ = 25 at time t₀, whereas at time t₁ the firms can equally share the follow-on cost l₁ = 80.
- ▶ We will assume that the technology resulting from the R&D investment is proprietary, so that the market share of firm A after the R&D phase is s = 3/5.
- Moreover, we assume that the market value continues to evolve from time t₁ to time t₂ following the same dynamics, that is, at time t₂ the possible market values in these two-period tree are

$$V^{uu} = 400, \quad V^{ud} = 100, \quad V^{dd} = 25.$$

Analyzing the game

• If demand is high at time t_1 ($V^u = 200$), we have: B (follower) Invest Wait Invest | (80,40) | (120,0) A (leader) Wait (0,120) (42,22) • If demands is low at time t_1 ($V^d = 60$), we have: B (follower) Invest Wait A (leader) $\begin{array}{c|c} \text{Invest} & (-10,-20) & (-30,0) \\ \text{Wait} & (0,-30) & (8,0) \end{array}$ • Then $C_A = -I_0 + g(80, 8) = -25 + 30 = 5 > 0$, • whereas $C_B = g(40,0) = 15$ Therefore the R&D investment is recommended for A.

For comparison, the complete market results are $C_A = 10$ and $C_B = 7$.