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Stochastic Finance 2010 Summer School Ulm Lecture 1: Energy Derivatives

Professor Dr. Rüdiger Kiesel

21. September 2010

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- Spot Market
- Futures Market

2 Typical models

- Schwartz Model
- The jump-diffusion model
- Factor model
- Threshold model
- 3 Typical Energy Derivatives
 - The Market
 - Spread Options
 - Caps and Floors
 - Swing Options





Energy Markets Spot Market Futures Market

2 Typical models

3 Typical Energy Derivatives

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History

Since the deregulation of electricity markets in the end of the 1990s, power can be traded at exchanges like the Nordpool, http://www.nordpoolspot.com/ or the European Energy Exchange (EEX), http://www.eex.com/en. All exchanges have established spot and futures markets.



EEX Spot Market

Trading in Power, Natural Gas and CO₂ Emission Rights.



- Trading in Power, Natural Gas and CO₂ Emission Rights.
- Power day-ahead auctions for Germany, Austria, France and Switzerland 7 days a week, including holidays. The 24 hours of the respective next day can be traded in one-hour intervals or block orders (e.g. Baseload: 1-24h, Peakload: 9-20h, Night: 1-6, Rush Hour: 17-20h, Business: 9-16h, etc.).



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- Continuous day-ahead block trading for France 7:30 am to 11:30 am, 7 days a week, including holidays.

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- Continuous day-ahead block trading for France 7:30 am to 11:30 am, 7 days a week, including holidays.
- Continuous Power intraday trading for Germany and France until 75 minutes before the beginning of delivery with delivery on the same or the following day in single hours or blocks.



EEX Spot Market

 Participants submit their price offer/bit curves. The EEX system prices are equilibrium prices that clear the market.

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- Participants submit their price offer/bit curves. The EEX system prices are equilibrium prices that clear the market.
- EEX day prices are the average of the 24-single hours.
- Similar structures can be found on other power exchanges (Nord Pool, APX, etc.).



EEX Spot Market Price Processes



EEX Daily Power Spot Prices - Stylized Facts



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EEX Futures Market

Traded products are

• Futures contracts for Power, Natural Gas, Emissions and Coal.



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- Baseload and Peakload French/German Power Futures for the current month, the next six months, seven quarters and six years with physical settlement, obliging for continuous delivery of 1MW during a month, quarter or a year.



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- Actively exchange traded are the next 7 months, 5 quarters and 2-3 years.
- In addition, OTC transactions.



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EEX Futures Market Price Processes

EEX Phelix Futurespreise

2010 Mai-Future: Actual 1-month future contract; the future prices are the quotations of the rolling contracts, i.e. the prices of the actual monthly contract (with delivery in the next month).



EEX Futures Market Price Processes

Returns seem to be stationary, no seasonality.





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EEX Options on Futures

Traded products are

 European-style Phelix Options which lead to opening of the corresponding Phelix Futures position if exercised.



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- In addition, options on second period European Carbon Futures are traded.



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2 Typical models

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- The jump-diffusion model
- Factor model
- Threshold model

3 Typical Energy Derivatives

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 Schwartz Model
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Problems

Modelling of electricity spot price dynamics is a delicate issue. Spot prices demonstrate the following typical features:

- seasonality: daily, weekly, monthly;
- mean-reversion or stationarity;
- spikes: may occur with some seasonal intensity;
- high volatility.



Basic model setup

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}_t, \mathbb{P})$ be a suitable filtered probability space:

- time horizon $t = 0, \ldots, T$ is fixed;
- electricity spot price at time $0 \le t \le T$ by S(t) takes the form:

$$S(t) = e^{\mu(t)} X(t),$$
 (1)

- $\mu(t)$ is a deterministic function modelling the seasonal trend;
- X(t) is some stochastic process modelling the random fluctuation.



Seasonality

Spot prices vary with seasons, so there is a need in some periodic function:

$$\mu(t) = \alpha + \beta t + \gamma \cos(\epsilon + 2\pi t) + \delta \cos(\zeta + 4\pi t), \qquad (2)$$

where the parameters $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$, ϵ and ζ are all constants:

- α is fixed cost linked to the power production;
- β drives the long run linear trend in the total production cost;
- γ, δ, ϵ and ζ construct periodicity by adding two maxima per year with possibly different magnitude.



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Definition of the model

$$d\log X_t = \kappa (\ln \theta - \log X_t) dt + \sigma dW_t.$$

Thus, the logarithm of the prices follow a mean reverting diffusion process, the so-called Ornstein-Uhlenbeck-Process.

- κ Speed of mean reversion
- \blacksquare θ Level of mean reversion
- $\blacksquare~\sigma$ Volatility of the process



Sample paths of the model

We simulate S_t (with $S_0 = 20, \theta = 20, \kappa = 1, \sigma = 0.2$) and get sample paths



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Properties of the model

Mean reverting

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- Mean reverting
- Bounded volatility



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- Mean reverting
- Bounded volatility
- Continuous paths



- Mean reverting
- Bounded volatility
- Continuous paths
- Relative price changes are normally distributed



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- Mean reverting
- Bounded volatility
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- Relative price changes are normally distributed
- Analytic results for the forward-curve and option prices exist



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- Mean reverting
- Bounded volatility
- Continuous paths
- Relative price changes are normally distributed
- Analytic results for the forward-curve and option prices exist
- Calibration easily possible
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Model specification

Here the deseasonalized logarithmic spot prices are modelled by

$$d\ln X(t) = -\alpha \ln X(t) dt + \sigma(t) dW(t) + \ln J dq(t), \qquad (3)$$

where α is the speed of mean-reversion, W is a Brownian motion, $\sigma(t)$ is a time-dependent volatility, J is a proportional random jump size and dq_t is a Poisson process of intensity I with

$$dq_t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability} & / dt \\ 0 & \text{with probability} & 1 - / dt . \end{cases}$$
(4)

A typical assumption on the jump size distribution is $\ln J \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_j, \sigma_j^2).$

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Basics of the models

The **the factor model**, was proposed by *Benth et al. 2007*. It is an additive linear model, where the price dynamics is a superposition of Ornstein-Uhlenbeck processes driven by subordinators to ensure positivity of the prices. It separates the modelling of spikes and base components.



Specification X(t) for the factor model

$$S(t)=e^{\mu(t)}X(t)\,,$$

where X(t) is a stochastic process represented as a weighted sum of *n* independent non-Gaussian Ornstein-Uhlenbeck processes $Y_i(t)$

$$X(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i Y_i(t),$$
 (5)

where each $Y_i(t)$ is defined as

$$dY_i(t) = -\lambda_i Y_i(t) dt + dL_i(t), \ Y_i(0) = y_i, i = 1, ..., n.$$
 (6)

 w_i are weighted functions; λ_i are mean-reversion coefficients; $L_i(t), t = 1, \dots, n$ are independent c ad/ag pure-jump additive processes with increasing paths. Energy Markets Typical models Typical Energy Derivatives Schwartz Model The jump-diffusion model Factor model Threshold model



Basics of the models

The **the threshold model**, was suggested by *Roncoroni 2002* and further developed by *Geman and Roncoroni 2006*. It represents an exponential Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process driven by a Brownian motion and a state-dependent compound Poisson process. It is designed to capture both statistical and pathwise properties of electricity spot prices.



Specification X(t) for the threshold model

$$S(t)=e^{\mu(t)}X(t)\,,$$

$$d\ln X(t) = -\theta_1 \ln X(t) dt + \sigma dW(t) + h(\ln(X(t-))) dJ(t),$$
(7)

 θ_1 is one mean-reversion parameter, positive constant; σ is Brownian volatility parameter, positive constant.

The Brownian component models the normal random variations of the electricity price around its mean, i.e., *the base signal*.



Specification X(t) for the threshold model

$$S(t)=e^{\mu(t)}X(t)\,,$$

 $d\ln X(t) = -\theta_1 \ln X(t) dt + \sigma dW(t) + h(\ln(X(t-))) dJ(t),$

where J is a time-inhomogeneous compound Poisson process:

$$J(t)=\sum_{i=1}^{N(t)}J_i\,,$$

and N(t) counts the spikes up to time t and is a Poisson process with time-dependent jump intensity.

 J_1, J_2, \ldots model the magnitude of the spikes and are assumed to be i.i.d. random variables.

The function h attains two values, ± 1 , indicating the direction of the jump. Energy Markets Typical models Typical Energy Derivatives

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SME Group Energy Derivatives

CME Group Energy Futures and Options

PHYSICALLY SETTLED CONTRACTS

- Light Sweet Crude Oil
- Natural Gas
- Heating Oil
- RBOB Gasoline
- Singapore 380cst Fuel Oil
- Gulf Coast Gasoline
- Gulf Coast Ultra
 Low Sulfur Diesel (ULSD)
- New York Harbor Ultra Low Sulfur Diesel (ULSD)
- Russian Export Blend Crude Oil (REBCO)
- Ethanol

CASH SETTLED CONTRACTS

- Light Sweet Crude Oil
- Natural Gas Last-day
- Natural Gas Penultimate
- Heating Oil
- RBOB Gasoline
- Brent Crude Oil Penultimate
- Brent Crude Oil Last-day
- Propane
- Heating Oil and Gasoline
 Crack Spread
- Electricity
- Uranium
- E-mini Crude Oil
- E-mini Natural Gas
- E-mini RBOB Gasoline

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E-mini Heating Oil



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CME Group Energy Derivatives

CME Group is built on heritage of CME, CBOT and NYMEX.

- World's largest and most diverse derivatives exchange
- Average daily volume of 1.25 million energy contracts
- Year-on-year volume growth up 19 percent in 2008 alone

Size of Derivative Markets: NYMEX

Energy Futures on NYMEX:

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page above contains Volumes and Open Interest for contracts traded on NYMEX Some of the Contracts may be expired, however they are still displayed by NYMEX as they have Open Interest.						
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Size of Derivative Markets: NYMEX

NYMEX Futures - Volume Traded



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Size of Derivative Markets: NYMEX

In practice, most futures contracts on NYMEX are liquidated via offset, so that physical delivery of the underlying commodity is relatively rare.

Futures trading volume data display strong seasonality due to the 'rolling over' of positions close to the expiry date of the near contract.



Size of Derivative Markets: NYMEX

NYMEX Futures - Volume Traded



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Size of Derivative Markets: EEX

EEX Power Futures - Volume Traded



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Size of Derivative Markets: EEX

Number of contracts reflects the total number of all power futures contracts traded on a particular day on EEX.

EEX power futures are available as base load and peak load contracts each with month, quarter and year futures. The contract volumes range from 240MWh for the smallest peak load month contract to up to 8 784MWh for the biggest base load year contract. The delivery rate amounts to 1MWh pro contract.

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Size of Derivative Markets: EEX

EEX Power Futures - Volume Traded



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Size of Derivative Markets: EEX

EEX Gas Futures - Volume Traded



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Size of Derivative Markets: EEX

Number of contracts reflects the total number of all natural gas futures contracts traded on a particular day on EEX.

The tradable delivery periods are the balance of month, the following six month, seven quarters, four seasons and six calender years. All prices are quoted in \notin /MWh. The contract volumes range from 720MWh for the month contract to up to 8 760MWh for the year contract. The delivery rate amounts to 1MWh pro contract.

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Size of Derivative Markets: EEX

EEX Gas Futures - Volume Traded



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Spread Options

Some market participants are exposed to the difference of commodity prices. Examples are

 the dark spread between power and coal (model for a coal-fired power plant)



Spread Options

Some market participants are exposed to the difference of commodity prices. Examples are

- the dark spread between power and coal (model for a coal-fired power plant)
- the spark spread between power and gas (model for a gas-fired power plant)



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Spread Options

Some market participants are exposed to the difference of commodity prices. Examples are

- the dark spread between power and coal (model for a coal-fired power plant)
- the spark spread between power and gas (model for a gas-fired power plant)
- the crack spread between different refinements of oil (model for a refinement plant)



Spark Spread

 $\mathsf{Spark_Spread} = \mathsf{Power_Price} - \mathsf{Heat_Rate} \times \mathsf{Fuel_Price}.$

Heat rate provides a conversion factor between fuels used to generate power and the power itself.



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- Heat rate is the number of Btus needed to make 1kWh of electricity.

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Spark Spread

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- Heat rate provides a conversion factor between fuels used to generate power and the power itself.
- Heat rate is the number of Btus needed to make 1kWh of electricity.
- In the absence of any inefficiency it takes 3412Btu to produce 1kWh of electricity.

Clean Spreads

In countries covered by the European Union Emissions Trading Scheme, utilities have to consider also the cost of carbon dioxide emission allowances. Emission trading has started in the EU in January 2005.

 Clean spark spread represents the net revenue a gas-fired power plant makes from selling power, having bought gas and the required number of carbon allowances.

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- Clean spark spread represents the net revenue a gas-fired power plant makes from selling power, having bought gas and the required number of carbon allowances.
- Clean dark spread represents the net revenue a coal-fired power plant makes from selling power, having bought coal and the required number of carbon allowances.

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Clean Spreads

In countries covered by the European Union Emissions Trading Scheme, utilities have to consider also the cost of carbon dioxide emission allowances. Emission trading has started in the EU in January 2005.

- Clean spark spread represents the net revenue a gas-fired power plant makes from selling power, having bought gas and the required number of carbon allowances.
- Clean dark spread represents the net revenue a coal-fired power plant makes from selling power, having bought coal and the required number of carbon allowances.
- The difference between the clean dark spread and the clean spark spread is known as the climate spread.



Clean Spark Spread

Clean_Spark_Spread

 $= \mathsf{Power}_\mathsf{Price} - \mathsf{Heat}_\mathsf{Rate} \times \mathsf{Gas}_\mathsf{Price}$

 $-\mathsf{Gas_Emission_Intensity_Factor} \times \mathsf{Carbon_Price}$

 Clean spark spread reflects the cost of generating power from gas after taking into account gas and carbon allowance costs.



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Clean Spark Spread

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- Clean spark spread reflects the cost of generating power from gas after taking into account gas and carbon allowance costs.
- A positive spread effectively means that it is profitable to generate electricity, while a negative spread means that generation would be a loss-making activity.

Clean Spark Spread

Clean_Spark_Spread

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- Clean spark spread reflects the cost of generating power from gas after taking into account gas and carbon allowance costs.
- A positive spread effectively means that it is profitable to generate electricity, while a negative spread means that generation would be a loss-making activity.
- However, it is important to note that the clean spark spreads do not take into account additional generating charges beyond gas and carbon, such as operational costs.

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Valuation of Spread Options

For Black-Scholes-type models and K = 0 (exchange option) there is an analytic formula due to Margrabe (1978).

$$C_{\text{spread}}(t) = e^{-r(T-t)}(S_1(t)\Phi(d_1) - S_2(t)\Phi(d_2))$$

$$P_{\text{spread}}(t) = e^{-r(T-t)}(S_2(t)\Phi(-d_2) - S_1(t)\Phi(-d_1))$$

where
$$d_1 = \frac{\log(S_1(t)/S_2(t)) + \sigma^2(T-t)/2}{\sqrt{\sigma^2(T-t)}}, \quad d_2 = d_1 - \sqrt{\sigma^2(T-t)}$$

and $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 - 2\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \sigma_2^2}$

where ρ is the correlation between the two underlyings. For $K \neq 0$ no easy analytic formula is available.

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Valuation of Spread Options - Price

In this case, the price of the option depending on the underlying prices has the following structure:



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Spread Option Value and Correlation

The value of a spread option depends strongly on the correlation between the two underlyings.

 $S_1 = S_2 = 100$, T = 3, r = 0.02, $\sigma_1 = 0.6$, $\sigma_2 = 0.4$.



The higher the correlation between the two underlyings the lower is the volatility of the spread and hence the value of the spread option.

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Buying a cap, the option holder has the right (but not the obligation) to buy a certain amount of energy at stipulated times t₁,..., t_N during the delivery period at a fixed strike price K.

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- Buying a cap, the option holder has the right (but not the obligation) to buy a certain amount of energy at stipulated times t₁,..., t_N during the delivery period at a fixed strike price K.
- It can be viewed as a strip of independent call options, for each time t_i the holder of the cap holds call options with maturity t_i and strike K.
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- Buying a cap, the option holder has the right (but not the obligation) to buy a certain amount of energy at stipulated times t₁,..., t_N during the delivery period at a fixed strike price K.
- It can be viewed as a strip of independent call options, for each time t_i the holder of the cap holds call options with maturity t_i and strike K.
- The static factors describing the cap are:
 - times t_1, \ldots, t_N (how often? when?)
 - strike K (price?)
 - amount of the underlying (how much?)



Cap - Payoff



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Caps - Pricing

Whenever the price of the underlying exceeds the strike K at one of the dates t₁,..., t_N, the seller of the cap pays the holder of the cap the difference between the price of the underlying and the strike K or - in case one agreed on physical delivery - the underlying is delivered for the price K.

Caps - Pricing

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- Typically, the price of a cap is quoted as price per delivery hours to make different delivery periods comparable. In this case we get a price per MWh.

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Caps - Pricing

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- Typically, the price of a cap is quoted as price per delivery hours to make different delivery periods comparable. In this case we get a price per MWh.
- The formula is

$$U_c(t) = rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N e^{-r(t_i-t)}\mathbb{E}[\max(S(t_i)-K,0)]$$

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Caps - Hedging

The strike price K secures a maximum price for which the option holder is able to buy energy.



Caps - Hedging

- The strike price K secures a maximum price for which the option holder is able to buy energy.
- A cap is used to cover a short position in the underlying (energy) against increasing market prices not only at a certain point in time but over the whole period covered by the exercising times t₁,..., t_N.

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- On the other hand, the option holder is still able to profit from low energy prices as he has the right but not the obligation to exercise the option at each time point.



Floors

Buying a floor, the option holder has the right (but not the obligation) to sell a certain amount of energy at stipulated times t₁,..., t_N during the delivery period at a fixed strike price K.

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Floors

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- It can be viewed as a strip of independent put options, for each time t_i the holder of the floor holds put options with maturity t_i and strike K.
- Similar to the case of a cap, the pricing formula is

$$U_f(t) = rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N e^{-r(t_i-t)}\mathbb{E}[\max(K-S(t_i),0)].$$

As with the cap, the price is quoted in Euro/MWh.

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Floor - Payoff



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Floors - Hedging

The strike price K secures a minimum price for which the option holder is able to sell energy.

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Floors - Hedging

- The strike price K secures a minimum price for which the option holder is able to sell energy.
- A floor is used to cover a long position in the underlying (energy) against decreasing market prices not only at a certain point in time but over the whole period covered by the exercising times t₁,..., t_N.



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- On the other hand, the option holder is still able to profit from high energy prices as he has the right but not the obligation to exercise the option at each time point.
- The holder of a short position might write a floor to produce liquidity upfront. The maximum gain from the short position is then limited to the strike K.



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Collars

 A collar is a combination of a cap and a floor such that variable prices are limited to a certain corridor.



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- A long collar position consists of long one cap (with high strike K₂) and short one floor (with low strike K₁) a short collar position is short one cap and long one floor.

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- As long as the price of the underlying is between *K*₁ and *K*₂ at one of the dates *t_i*, no cash flows are exchanged.

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- A long collar position consists of long one cap (with high strike K₂) and short one floor (with low strike K₁) a short collar position is short one cap and long one floor.
- As long as the price of the underlying is between K₁ and K₂ at one of the dates t_i, no cash flows are exchanged.
- If the underlying is above K₂, the holder of the long collar position receives the difference of the actual price and K₂. If the underlying is below K₁, the short collar position receives the difference between K₁ and the actual price.

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Collar - Payoff

As a long collar position is a strip of call options minus a strip of put options, the payoff of a collar at each time point t_i is the following:





Collar - Pricing

 Collars might be seen as a strip of bear/bull spreads, or as a strip of call options minus a strip of put options in the case of a long collar position.

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Collar - Pricing

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- Consequently, the pricing formula is just the combination of the formulas for the cap and the floor:

$$U_{collar}^{K_1,K_2}(t) = U_{cap}^{K_2}(t) - U_{floor}^{K_1}(t)$$

= $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{-r(t_i-t)} \mathbb{E}[(S(t_i) - K_2)^+ - (K_1 - S(t_i))^+]$

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Collar - Pricing

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$$egin{aligned} & \mathcal{U}_{collar}^{\mathcal{K}_{1},\mathcal{K}_{2}}(t) = \mathcal{U}_{cap}^{\mathcal{K}_{2}}(t) - \mathcal{U}_{floor}^{\mathcal{K}_{1}}(t) \ &= rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}e^{-r(t_{i}-t)}\mathbb{E}[(S(t_{i})-\mathcal{K}_{2})^{+}-(\mathcal{K}_{1}-S(t_{i}))^{+}] \end{aligned}$$

The price of a collar might be positive or negative - or even zero. In case the price is zero, the collar is called zero-cost collar.

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The holder of a long position in a collar is protected against increases in the underlying price above K₂, but does not profit from falling underlying prices below K₁. Thus he is protected against rising prices with limited participation on downside prices.

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- A short collar protects against falling prices. At the same time, the ability to participate on rising prices is limited to K₂.

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- A short collar protects against falling prices. At the same time, the ability to participate on rising prices is limited to K₂.
- Having a long position in the underlying, a short collar ensures that the position can be closed for prices in the range of [K₁, K₂].

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Collars - 3-way-collars

■ A long collar is short one floor with strike *K*₁, long one cap with higher strike *K*₂.



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- A possible extension is to include a short position in one cap with strike K₃ >> K₂ in order to reduce the cost of the collar. This extension is called 3-way-collar.



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- A possible extension is to include a short position in one cap with strike K₃ >> K₂ in order to reduce the cost of the collar. This extension is called 3-way-collar.
- The price of a 3-way-collar is thus:

$$egin{aligned} U^{K_1,K_2,K_3}_{3-way}(t) &= U^{K_2}_{cap}(t) - U^{K_3}_{cap}(t) - U^{K_1}_{floor}(t) \ &= rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N e^{-r(t_i-t)}\mathbb{E}[(S(t_i)-K_2)^+ \ &- (S(t_i)-K_3)^+ - (K_1-S(t_i))^+] \end{aligned}$$



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3-Way-Collar - Payoff

The holder of the 3-way-collar is protected against increases in the underlying price above K₂, but only till K₃. Afterwards, no protection exists anymore.



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3-Way-Collar - Payoff

- The holder of the 3-way-collar is protected against increases in the underlying price above K₂, but only till K₃. Afterwards, no protection exists anymore.
- This strategy might be a good choice if one wants to protect its buying costs but is able to stop its business if prices rally unexpectedly high (above K₃).



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3-Way-Collar - Payoff

The payoff is



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Swing Options

A swing option is similar to a cap or floor except that we have additional restrictions on the number of option exercises.



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Swing Options

- A swing option is similar to a cap or floor except that we have additional restrictions on the number of option exercises.
- Let φ_i ∈ {0,1} be the decision whether to exercise (φ_i = 1) or not to exercise (φ_i = 0) the option at time t_i.
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Swing Options

- A swing option is similar to a cap or floor except that we have additional restrictions on the number of option exercises.
- Let φ_i ∈ {0,1} be the decision whether to exercise (φ_i = 1) or not to exercise (φ_i = 0) the option at time t_i.
- The option's payoff at time t_i is given by

$$\phi_i(S(t_i) - K)$$
 call resp. $\phi_i(K - S(t_i))$ put.

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Swing Options

- A swing option is similar to a cap or floor except that we have additional restrictions on the number of option exercises.
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- The option's payoff at time t_i is given by

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 call resp. $\phi_i(K - S(t_i))$ put.

• We may also require that the number of exercises is between E_{\min} and E_{\max} .



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Swing Options

To determine the swing option value, we have to find an optimal exercise strategy $\Phi = (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N)$ maximising the expected payoff

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{-r(t_i-t)} \mathbb{E}[\phi_i(S(t_i)-K)] \quad \to \max$$

subject to

$$E_{\min} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \phi_i \leq E_{\max}.$$

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Bounds for Swing Options

Strategy

For deterministic spot prices, we

• Calculate the discounted payoffs $P(t_i) = e^{-r(t_i-t)}(S(t_i) - K)$.



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Strategy

For deterministic spot prices, we

- Calculate the discounted payoffs $P(t_i) = e^{-r(t_i-t)}(S(t_i) K)$.
- Sort the discounted payoffs $P(t_i)$ in descending order.



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Bounds for Swing Options

Strategy

For deterministic spot prices, we

- Calculate the discounted payoffs $P(t_i) = e^{-r(t_i-t)}(S(t_i) K)$.
- Sort the discounted payoffs $P(t_i)$ in descending order.
- Take the first E_{min} payoffs regardless of their value and subsequent payoffs up to E_{max} until their sign become negative.



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Bounds for Swing Options

For stochastic spot prices the MC-approach gives an upper bound, since information on the whole path is used, but in reality only information up to time t is available when deciding at time t.



Bounds for Swing Options

- For stochastic spot prices the MC-approach gives an upper bound, since information on the whole path is used, but in reality only information up to time t is available when deciding at time t.
- A lower bound is given by the intrinsic value

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{-r(t_i-t)} \phi_i^{\mathsf{F}}(\mathsf{F}(t,t_i)-\mathsf{K}) \quad \to \max$$

subject to

$$E_{\min} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \phi_i^F \leq E_{\max}$$

where $\phi_i^F = \mathbf{1}_{\{F(t,t_i) > K\}}$, unless the restriction on E_{\min} is in force. Energy Markets Typical models Typical Energy Derivatives

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