

Anchoring and Probability Weighting in Option Prices

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Abstract

Behavioral theories contend that the human decision-making process tends to both incorporate anchor points and improperly weight low probability events. In this study, we find evidence that equity option market investors anchor to prices and incorporate a probability weighting function similar to that proposed by cumulative prospect theory. The biases result in inefficient prices for put options when firms have relatively high or relatively low implied volatilities. This has implications for the cost of hedging long portfolios and long individual equity positions.

JEL Classifications: G1, G13

1. Introduction

Many financial studies use aspects of behavioral theories to examine phenomena observed in equity markets.¹ In this study, we find evidence that in equity option markets investors anchor to prices and incorporate a probability weighting function similar to that proposed by cumulative prospect theory (CPT). CPT (Tversky and Kahneman, 1992), unlike standard utility theory, argues that the human decision-making process depends on relative gains and losses, not final wealth, as losses impact utility more negatively than gains of the same magnitude increase utility. The asymmetry of an individual's utility due to gains versus losses is referred to as loss aversion. Tversky and Kahneman also contend humans are poor at internalizing event probabilities and appear to use a unique weighting function to convert an actual probability into a perceived probability which assigns a high value to low probability events, resulting in overly risk averse or risk seeking behavior, depending if the outcome of the event is a loss or a gain. Anchoring is a documented psychological bias that is independent of CPT, but it is required by CPT to determine a reference point that defines regions of gains and losses.

The literature over the past two decades presents considerable evidence that investors use anchor points in their investing decisions. Kahneman, Slovic, and Tversky (1982) define anchoring as the process of making adjustments away from a reference point (the anchor) where the adjustments are biased towards this reference point. The anchor point may come from the problem at hand (Kahneman, Slovic, and Tversky, 1982) or even a random value such as the last two digits of a Social Security Number (Ariely, Loewenstein, and Prelec, 2003). Kahneman, Slovic, and

¹ Prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979), cumulative prospect theory (Tversky and Kahneman, 1992), mental accounting (Thaler, 1980, 1985; Shefrin and Thaler, 1988; Henderson and Peterson, 1992), and heuristics (Kahneman and Tversky, 1972; Tversky and Kahneman, 1974) have been successfully applied to many stylized facts in financial markets that are difficult to explain in a standard rational efficient markets framework (e.g. Markowitz, 1952a, b; Friedman, 1953; Fama, 1965, 1970).

Tversky (1982) and Kahneman (1992) survey studies providing evidence of anchoring by individuals. Using laboratory experiments, Myagkov and Plott (1997) and Marsat and Williams (2013) also find support for the usage of anchor points. Mitchell (2001) documents psychological barriers around preferences for particular numbers and concludes they lead to potential trading strategies. Benartzi and Thaler (1995) contend that investors use a reference stock price as an anchor point, i.e. current price, and determine, consistent with loss aversion, that investors weigh a loss about twice as much as a similar gain.

Supporting this assertion, George and Hwang (2004) identify an investing strategy that utilizes an anchor point of a stock's 52-week high price that bests Jegadeesh and Titman's (1993) simple momentum strategy. The 52-week high price should not contain any information about a stock's future value in a weak-form efficient market. Yet the evidence George and Hwang presents suggest investors anchor to the 52-week high and are reluctant to value the stock price above that price, even if a higher price is well-justified. Bhootra and Hur (2013) strengthen the anchoring argument by demonstrating an increase in the profitability of George and Hwang's strategy by conditioning on the timing of the 52-week high anchor point, which is consistent with Grinblatt and Han's (2005) theoretical model where the purchase price of the stock serves as the investors' anchor point.² Similarly, Baker, Pan, and Wurgler (2012) find managers use price anchors in determining premiums paid in mergers and acquisitions.

In addition to looking for evidence of anchoring, we also investigate the tendency of individuals to improperly weight low-probability events. In general, humans tend to do a poor job of internalizing probabilities. A series of studies by Teigen (1974a, 1974b, 1983) shows that an

² In the context of Grinblatt and Han's model, the concept of an anchor is important with respect to loss aversion because individuals use it as a fixed reference to determine if selling an asset (i.e. the capital gains overhang) provides pain in the form of a loss or pleasure in the form of a gain.

individual's sum of interpreted probabilities of a set of outcomes exceeds one. Kahneman and Tversky (1984) and Tversky and Kahneman (1992), show that, under CPT, individuals overweight (underweight) small (moderate or high) probabilities. Figure 1 shows a graphical example of their findings. The perceived probability of an event, $\pi(p)$, is much higher than the actual probability, p , when p is low. Thus, when individuals apply such a weighting function to observed probabilities, it gives rise to extremely risk averse (seeking) behavior when dealing with highly improbable losses (gains) as the value of each outcome is multiplied not an additive probability, but by a decision weight.

[Insert Figure 1]

Another implication of a weighting function is that individuals evaluate a risk of 1 in 100,000 similarly as 1 in 10,000,000. Kunreuther, Novemsky, and Kahneman (2001) empirically confirm such a notion. The regime of extremely small probabilities is unstable, where the risks are either grossly overweighted or ignored (e.g. rounded down to zero). However, it is debatable whether or not individuals even seek out probabilities when making their decisions (Hogarth and Kunreuther, 1995; Huber, Wider, and Huber, 1997).

Barberis and Huang (2008) use probability weighting in their model of expected returns and demonstrate that it can explain the empirical finding that investors will pay a premium (discount) for stocks with positive (negative) skewness in their returns.³ Barberis and Huang (2008) also posit their model can help explain other asset pricing anomalies such as initial public offering (IPO) returns, the diversification discount, private equity premiums, momentum returns,

³ See Kumar (2009), Boyer, Mitton and Vorkink (2010), Bali, Cakici, and Whitelaw (2011), and Conrad, Dittmar and Ghysels (2013) for empirical evidence of skewness-seeking stock investors and Boyer and Vorkink (2014) for evidence of skewness-seeking option investors.

and option implied volatility skews. Additionally, De Giorgi and Legg (2012) demonstrate probability weighting generates the large equity premium that has puzzled researchers for decades.

There are a limited number studies in the options literature involving anchoring and probability weighting. For example, Heath, Huddart, and Lang (1999) find employees use their stock's 52-week high as a reference point to exercise their stock options.⁴ Driessen, Lin, and Van Hemert (2013) show implied volatility is positively related to underlying stock price's distance to the 52-week high price. Similarly, Jang et al. (2015) find psychological barriers at even 100 levels of the S&P500 index (e.g. 1000, 1100, 1200, etc.), and that these barriers affect derivatives pricing as reflected in declines in the VIX index (derived from the implied volatility of S&P500 index options) around these barriers. Fodor, Doran, Carson, and Kirch (2013) show index option investors anchor to prices by showing investors purchase more put options (as a form of portfolio insurance) when the cost is low on an absolute basis but high on a relative basis. Arnold, Hilliard, and Shwartz (2007) examine the "jump memory" of S&P 500 index options after crash events and find evidence consistent with jump memory being related to loss aversion and anchoring points.⁵ Additionally, Polkovnichenko and Zhao (2013), recognizing that pricing kernels estimated from option prices are inconsistent with standard kernels that include positive risk aversion and are monotonically decreasing in investor wealth, show that empirically observed kernels are consistent with a utility model that incorporates a probability weighting function similar to the one proposed by CPT. Spalt (2013) corroborates this finding by presenting a model that demonstrates probability weighting is a key feature which makes option grants in pay packages desirable to nonexecutives.

⁴ Sautner and Weber (2009) also find employees treat their options separately from their total wealth and, consistent with loss aversion, narrowly bracket them into gains and losses based on reference points.

⁵ "Jump memory" is the attenuation of the implied jump intensity following a crash event.

The one parameter in an option pricing formula, such as the Black-Scholes-Merton formula, that cannot be directly observed is the volatility of the stock price. Implied volatility is the volatility of the stock which when substituted into the Black-Scholes-Merton formula gives a theoretical option price equal to the observed market price. Changes in investor assumptions about volatility can have a dramatic effect on an option's price. Thus, implied volatility is a forward looking measure of the future volatility of the stock over the term of the option. By contrast, historical volatilities, such as standard deviation, are backward looking. Consequently, traders use implied volatilities to gauge the market's opinion about the volatility of a particular stock. The information content of implied volatility is examined in multiple studies.⁶ It has also been observed in equity markets that implied volatility is generally a convex function of strike price. This phenomenon is known as the volatility smile and has been repeatedly documented in the literature.⁷ Prior to the October 1987 market crash there was no significant volatility smile. Rubinstein (1994) refers to this phenomenon as “crash-o-phobia,” alluding to the strong demand for put options on the S&P 500 index to hedge against market crashes. Several studies conclude that the premium on put options for downside risk is very high (Jackwerth, 2000; Engle and Rosenberg, 2002; Bliss and Panigirtzoglou, 2004). A recent study by Israelov and Nielsen (2015) supports anchoring as a possible explanation. In particular, the authors suggest that put options’ low prices during calm market periods give the illusion of value, arguing that the frequency of “black swan” events required to rationalize option purchases is unreasonably large.

⁶ For example, Christensen and Prabhala (1998) find that the volatility implied by S&P 100 index option prices outperforms past volatility in forecasting future index volatility. Diavatopoulos, Doran and Peterson (2008) find that implied idiosyncratic volatility is a stronger predictor of future idiosyncratic volatility than idiosyncratic volatility forecasts from statistical models. Doran, Fodor and Jiang (2013) provide evidence that implied volatility spreads contain information about both firm fundamentals and option mispricing.

⁷ For example, see Rubinstein (1994), Jackwerth and Rubinstein (1996), Ait-Sahalia and Lo (1998).

We extend prior research in the following important ways. In this study, we find evidence that equity option market investors anchor to prices and incorporate a probability weighting function similar to that proposed by CPT. Specifically, we show put option prices are inefficient when firm implied volatilities are relatively high or relatively low.

Put options are examined due to their use as insurance against price decreases for long portfolios or individual equity positions (Trennepohl, Booth, and Tehranian, 1988). Investors are more likely to entertain call option prices periodically when they have positive sentiment for a stock. In contrast, an investor who has a long portfolio or long position in an individual equity is likely to continually assess put option prices as they consider insuring their positions. To the degree that an investor is more risk averse, this will more truly hold. It is necessary that prices are regularly surveyed if we are to assume investors anchor prices at specific levels.

As expected, when implied volatilities are higher (lower) options are more (less) likely to be exercised. While the ordering of prices, or implied volatilities, with respect to exercise probabilities are correct, we find prices are too high when implied volatilities are very low or very high. To demonstrate this we examined option returns for 30, 60 and 90 day options after dividing firms based on implied volatilities. Option returns are always lowest for the lowest and highest implied volatility quintiles and are significantly negative.

Investors with long positions in equities will continually examine option prices and decide whether to hedge based on how prices relate to their estimates of future volatilities. In the case of low implied volatilities, we explain the inefficient prices through anchoring. When investors evaluate prices they fail to properly estimate future volatilities. They assess prices on an absolute basis rather than relative to a sound estimate of future volatilities. Since their anchor will be near the mean implied volatility level, low prices on an absolute basis may cause investors to believe

hedging is relatively cheap. To the degree that investors are risk averse and more likely to hedge, this bias will be stronger and more upward price pressure will exist for put options. This is also reflected in implied volatilities that are too high for firms in the lowest implied volatility quintile.

In the case of high implied volatilities, we explain the apparently inefficient prices through CPT. When implied volatilities are high, investors improperly weight the low probability event of a large price decrease, consistent with CPT. Because investors are risk averse, their fear of losses on long portfolios or individual equities due to large, market-wide or specific price decreases will increase as implied volatilities increase. To the degree that investors are more fearful of price decreases they will purchase more put options, all else equal.⁸ If prices increase for put options, investors will buy fewer put options, all else equal. These two effects are offsetting in the case of higher implied volatilities. CPT suggests the first effect will dominate the second as investors will improperly overestimate the probability of large price decreases and demand more than a rational level of put options. This will cause prices to increase to inefficient levels. We find evidence to support the presence of CPT in option prices and implied volatilities.

The rest of the paper is as follows. In Section 2 we describe the data, variable definitions and methodology. In Section 3 we report results. Section 4 concludes.

2. Data, Variable Definitions and Methodology

We collect data on option prices, strike prices, exercise dates, open interest and implied volatilities from OptionMetrics. Our sample period is from January, 1996 to September, 2013. On the day of each month where options are available with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until expiration,

⁸ Brennan (1995) suggests prospect theory leads investors to demand products that limit losses or produce a “money-back guarantee.”

we identify our put options for study⁹. On each observation date, we find the out-of-the-money (OTM) put option available that is closest to at-the-money status and denote this option as the “closest” OTM match. If possible, we also consider descending strike price options in search of a “second closest” OTM put option match. Our general question of study considers whether, as these put options approach expiration, subsequent performance varies based on the implied volatility levels of these puts. We consider whether these puts are more likely to eventually finish in the money on day 0, based on their implied volatility on the initial observation date. More importantly, we consider whether the returns of the “closest OTM” and “second closest OTM” put options vary, over the $(-32,-2)$ $[(-62,-2), (-92,-2)]$ period¹⁰, based on the implied volatility level on the observation date.

We measure our primary variable of study, the put option implied volatility level at the beginning of our performance measurement window, by using the weighted average implied volatilities of all OTM put options, with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until expiration, with the weighting done by the open interest of these put options. We denote this measure WIV. We seek to track performance of OTM put options based on their WIV level. In order to include an observation in our analysis, the “closest OTM put” or “second closest OTM put” match may only be used if the OTM put has an open interest of at least 100 contracts, as noted in OptionMetrics on day -32 (-62, -92) and a midpoint price (between bid and ask) of at least \$0.25.

In order to determine the moneyness status of our option observations, stock price data and identification information are taken from CRSP. This allows for the determination of whether

⁹ Thus, the beginning and ending observation dates for the 32-day, 62-day, and 92-day put performances all differ from one another. This also means the weighted implied volatilities (to be discussed) at the beginning of the various performance periods all differ.

¹⁰ Given the data difficulty in evaluating returns at the exact expiration (day 0), we measure returns through the end of trading day -2.

“closest OTM” and “second closest OTM” put option matches are eventually exercisable on day 0. Furthermore, observations must have stock prices of at least \$5 on day -32 (-62, -92), must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, and must have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11. Market capitalization and returns data are also taken from CRSP for the construction of control measures. Book value information is taken from Compustat for the construction of book-to-market equity ratio. We also take daily VIX data from the CBOE website for further analyses.

For much of our investigation, firm-date observations are sorted into quintiles, each month, on day -32 (-62, -92)¹¹ based on WIV level so that we might track subsequent performance of “closest match” and “second closest match” OTM puts. We first use this sorted WIV approach to consider whether the open interest of firm-date puts, relative to calls, varies based on the underlying WIV level. We construct OTMPutOI (OTMCallOI) to be the sum of the open interest of all put (call) options with at least 30 days until expiration, and we consider the ratio of these totals by WIV quintile. We also determine whether OTM put options closest and second closest to ATM status on day -32 (-62, -92) are eventually exercisable on day 0, based on the underlying WIV quintile sorts. We then determine whether OTM put options closest and second closest to ATM status on day -32 (-62, -92) differ in return performance over their holding periods, ending on day -2, based on the underlying WIV quintile sorts.

To control for the effects of timing, as well as factors widely considered to impact option returns, we then shift to a fixed-effects regression framework and include control measures inspired by Goyal and Saretto (2009). Our regression framework is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 PutRet_{it} = & b1(HV-IV)_{it} + b2(Size_{it}) + b3(BtoM_{it}) + b4(Mom_{it}) + b5(Skew_{it}) + \\
 & b6(Kurt_{it}) + b7(WIV Q1_{it}) + b8(WIV Q5_{it}) + \varepsilon_{it}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

¹¹ Days -32, -62, and -92 are all unique from one another each month.

(*HV-IV*) is analogous to the measure found in Goyal and Saretto (2009), constructed as the log difference of the historical, annualized volatility of the firm-date observation based on daily stock returns from the prior trading year minus the implied volatility of the option whose return performance is analyzed. *Size* (market capitalization), *Mom* (momentum), *Skew* (skewness) and *Kurt* (kurtosis) of stock returns are all calculated using the last year's daily data, with the exception of six month data used to calculate *Mom* as in Goyal and Saretto (2009). *BtoM* (book-to-market) is constructed as in Fama and French (1993). *WIVQ1* (*WIVQ5*) is a dummy variable indicating whether a firm-date observation has a weighted implied volatility in the lowest (highest) quintile of weighted implied volatility amongst all firm-date observations with available data.

3. Empirical Results

In Table 1, we first examine relative open interest of call and put options based on implied volatility levels. For all observations with non-zero call and put open interest, we calculate the ratio of put open interest to call open interest after sorting the sample into quintiles based on implied volatilities. We separately consider relative open interest for options expiring in 32, 62, and 92 days.

[Insert Table 1]

We generally observe lower put-to-call open interest ratios for higher implied volatility quintiles. When the highest levels of volatility are present, there tends to be less open interest in put options than when implied volatilities are lower, though put open interest still exceeds call open interest. For options with 32 and 92 days to expiration respectively, put/call open interest ratios are 4.13 and 4.50 respectively for the lowest implied volatility quintiles, lower than any other quintile. Ratios are 6.04 and 7.78 respectively for the highest implied volatility quintiles.

For options with 62 days to expiration, the ratio is slightly lower for the 4th implied volatility quintile than the 5th but the general trend suggests higher implied volatility is associated with relatively lower open interest in put options.

We do not know trader types, but it is plausible that potential hedgers, who are risk averse, would be more likely to enter long put positions when implied volatilities, and prices, are low. This is a potential explanation for high put open interest levels, relative to call open interest, when implied volatilities are low. When implied volatilities are high, the more consistent levels of put and call open interest may be explained by relatively more interest from risk seeking, speculative investors who are more likely to trade when exercise probabilities, and corresponding implied volatilities and prices, are higher. Given investors use both put and call options to speculate, an increase in speculation should increase open interest in both put and call options. This should not cause an imbalance in open interest as is the case when implied volatilities are low.

We next test whether differing relative open interest levels represent rational investor choices or behavioral biases. Specifically, we consider the case of put options as two potential biases exist. First, the finding of relatively higher put open interest when implied volatilities are low may indicate an anchoring bias where potential hedgers see lower associated put option prices and purchase these options without properly considering exercise probabilities and expected returns associated with these options. While prices may be low on an absolute basis, sufficiently low exercise probabilities would mean the insurance provided by the put options is relatively expensive. Table 2 examines exercise probabilities across implied volatility quintiles.

A behavior bias may also be observed when implied volatilities are high, though this is not necessarily reflected in relative put/call open interest levels. As potential hedgers are risk averse, they may be willing to overpay for options when implied volatility levels are high. If these

investors believe higher implied volatility levels are indicative of higher future volatility, they may make the decision to buy put options without properly considering the price of options. This can be explained by CPT and the overweighting of low probability events. To determine if investors are overpaying for put options when implied volatilities are high, we calculate put option returns across implied volatility quintiles. These results are presented in Table 3.

Table 2 presents the probability of option exercise based on put option implied volatility, days to expiration and nearness to ATM. As hedgers are most likely to purchase OTM options, we examine returns to the two OTM options for each firm/month combination that are closest to ATM.

[Insert Table 2]

If traders are acting rationally with respect to pricing, as reflected in IVs, exercise probabilities should be higher in higher implied volatility quintiles than in lower IV quintiles. For each of the six groups formed based on time to expiration and nearness to ATM, exercise probabilities are increasing from the lowest to highest put IV quintile and these increases are relatively monotonic.

While this is evidence of rational pricing with respect to ordering across implied volatility quintiles it does not necessarily mean prices are efficient. For example, it may be that in the highest IV quintile options are most likely to be exercised but still have a large positive or negative average return because IVs, while high relative to other firm days, are too low or too high. The same could be argued for the lowest quintile or other quintiles. To test for the efficiency of prices we need to examine returns to these options.

In Table 3, options returns are presented after dividing firms into the same groups based on nearness to ATM and time to expiration.

[Insert Table 3]

For options with 32 days to expiration, Panel A, Returns for each group are negative. This is not surprising because option sellers face a more risky payoff structure than do option buyers and demand from hedgers has been shown to increase put option prices and lead to lower returns (relative to call option returns). Consistent with this notion, Panels B and C also show that returns are negative in 19 of 20 cases.

If an anchoring bias exists where demand for put options is irrationally high when absolute prices are low (the lowest implied volatility quintiles), returns should be relatively low for these firm days. The same is true if CPT is driving potential hedgers to be willing to pay inefficiently high prices when large underlying asset price changes are more likely (the highest implied volatility quintiles). We expect put options returns will be lowest in the lowest and highest implied volatility quintiles due to the presence of these biases.

For 32-day options, we observe increasing returns from the lowest implied volatility quintile to the 4th quintile, then a sharp increase in the highest implied volatility quintile. If option prices are efficient under all implied volatility conditions, returns should not vary across quintiles. Though differences are only statistically significant in one of four cases (the 32-day options), returns are lower for the lowest implied volatility quintile (compared to the middle three quintiles) by 5.7 and 6.1 percent respectively for put options closest to ATM and one strike price lower respectively. For the highest implied volatility quintile, these differences relative to the middle three quintiles are 2.7 and 3.4 percent respectively. This pattern of returns suggests the presence of an anchoring bias when implied volatilities are low and biases due to CPT when implied volatilities are high.

In Panels B and C, results are presented for options with 62 and 92 days to expiration. The results in the two panels are consistent with our hypotheses and findings in Panel A but are much more pronounced and statistically significant in all cases. The finding of stronger results for longer term options is not surprising as hedgers are less likely to use short term options relative to longer term options (Block and Gallagher, 1986; Geczy, Minton, and Schrand, 1997; Bakshi, Cao, and Chen, 2000). For both times to expiration and both moneyness categories, the lowest put option returns occur in the highest and lowest IV quintiles. For both the highest and lowest quintiles, mean returns are significantly lower than return means for the middle three quintiles. Magnitudes of differences range from 6.5 to 14.6%. This is consistent with our hypotheses related to anchoring and CPT as related to option pricing.

We explain the low returns for the lowest IV quintiles (ranging from -17.8 to -22.1%) as evidence of an anchoring bias. Given these firm days have the lowest put implied volatilities, they also have lower put option prices relative to firms days in other IV quintiles. In other words, prices are low on an absolute basis. Table 2 showed these options are least likely to be exercised, but relative pricing can only be considered by examining option returns. The large negative option returns suggest these options are overpriced on a relative basis. We argue that because prices are low on an absolute basis, hedgers will increase purchasing and bid up prices to an unreasonable high level relative to efficient prices because their pricing expectations are anchored to a higher average option price. If put option prices are absolutely low, traders will see this as inexpensive insurance though they know it is unlikely to be needed. Even when the price is inefficiently high, if IVs are low traders will judge the price as absolutely low if anchored to a higher mean price and overpay.

The low returns for the highest IV quintiles (ranging from -13.8 to -18.9%) are consistent with CPT in put option pricing. When IVs are high, options are more likely to be exercised. In an ordinal sense, options are priced efficiently as options with higher probabilities of exercise are more expensive, but again, option returns must be used to test for efficiency of prices. CPT suggests traders will improperly weight low probability events. Low returns for high implied volatility quintiles suggest hedgers are overweighting the probability of a large price decrease in the underlying asset and are thus willing to overpay for put options.

While it is more likely options will be exercised when IVs are high, this is still a low probability event that occurs for between 19.0 and 30.4% of high implied volatility quintile firm days. When pricing options, buyers and sellers consider the probability of a price change large enough to profit (or justify the need for insurance) and also the expected magnitude of these price changes. The large negative returns for put options suggest traders improperly estimate the probability of large price changes (the low probability event), expecting these large price changes will occur more often than is realized. This leads to prices which are too high and inefficient.

From a hedging perspective, traders with long positions put upward pressure on prices leading to inefficiently high prices as a result of behavioral biases when implied volatility are very high or very low. This is observed in returns for high and low implied volatility quintiles that tend to be significantly lower than when implied volatilities are not at extreme levels.

Table 3 results suggest investors should not be tempted to hedge because put options are cheap on an absolute basis. Though this insurance is cheap, it is unlikely to be needed and is extremely costly when evaluating returns. When implied volatilities are low, the corresponding probabilities of large price changes are overestimated. Results also suggest buying put options when implied volatilities are high will be costly. In this case, investors may be best served by

protecting themselves against large potential losses on the underlying assets by exiting these positions if possible. While they may be correct in judging that protection against large losses is more likely to be needed, this protection is overpriced relative to the likelihood of a large price change. In both cases, option buyers are losing and option sellers are earning greater profits.

To test the robustness of these results while considering factors shown in previous works to influence option returns, we present fixed-effects regressions in Table 4.

[Insert Table 4]

Results are presented for options with 32, 62 and 92 days to expiration in Panels A, B and C respectively. The variables of most interest are separate binary variables which designate if a firm-day is in the highest or lowest IV quintile. Control variables are a measure of IV relative to historical volatility as in Goyal and Saretto (2009), firm size, book-to-market equity, momentum, skewness and kurtosis. Coefficients of these control variables have the expected signs based on past works.

The findings in Table 4 relative to implied volatility are consistent with those in Table 3 and support the presence of behavioral biases in pricing put options when implied volatilities are at the extremes (either relatively high or relatively low). For 32 day options, coefficients of the low implied volatility variables are negative for both moneyness groups, but significant only for options closest to ATM. Coefficients of the high implied volatility variables are positive with low t-statistics. Again, a lack of convincing findings for the shortest term options is not surprising as hedgers tend to use longer term options. For the remaining four moneyness/maturity groups, binary variables for both low and high IV groups are negative and significant. This is evidence that options are overpriced when IVs are low or high and that this finding is not driven by other factors shown in previous works to have power to predict option returns.

We next examine differences between the implied volatilities of the put options used in previous analysis and implied volatilities of corresponding calls (e.g. same expiration date and strike price). We calculate call and put implied volatilities separately using open interest weighting, then calculate the difference as call implied volatility less put implied volatility. The results are shown in Table 5.

[Insert Table 5]

While put-call parity would suggest identical implied volatility levels for these calls and puts, our results show higher implied volatility levels for put options, reflected in negative implied volatility differences.

Most interesting is the finding that put implied volatilities are highest relative to call implied volatilities at the highest implied volatility levels. These consistently higher prices for put options relative to call options are more evidence put options are overpriced when implied volatilities are high, but are also evidence that call options are priced more efficiently under high implied volatility conditions. We find negative differences in the low implied volatility quintile as well, but they are small in magnitude and consistent with past works, suggesting normal hedging pressure causes put options to be slightly more expensive than call options. Smaller implied volatility differences when implied volatilities are low coupled with poor put options returns suggests an anchoring bias may also be present for call options. Uninformed option investors tend to buy call options. These investors may also see low absolute pricing as an attractive investment due to improperly considering the lower probability of price movements large enough to profit.

Table 6 presents the average cost of hedging as a percentage of underlying asset prices. As in Tables 2 and 3, observations are sorted into quintiles based on implied volatilities. The mean percentage of underlying asset price that the put option premium represents is then presented

within each quintile for the 32-, 62- and 92-day-to-expiration options nearest ATM and one and two strike prices lower.

[Insert Table 6]

Table 6 presents an easily interpretable representation of the cost of hedging. In Table 3 we observed the relatively poor returns of put options for firm days in the lowest and highest implied volatility quintiles. While it is clear that option returns are poor, examining the cost of hedging as a percentage of underlying asset prices is also telling. Using options one strike price out of the money in the highest implied volatility quintiles, the cost of a 32-day hedge is 4.3% of underlying asset value. 62 and 92 day premiums are 5.9 and 7.2% of underlying asset value respectively. This is a striking result as hedging repeatedly over a one-year period using 92 day options, the cheapest method, would cost over 28.8% of underlying asset value when implied volatilities are lowest.

When implied volatilities are high, overly costly hedging can also be observed by examining changes in percentage prices from low to high implied quintiles. If we consider options nearest the money with 92 days to expiration, the cost of hedging in the lowest implied volatility quintile is 2.4 % on average. As we move to the second, then third, then fourth quintiles the percentage prices increase to 3.2%, 4.1% and 5.1% respectively. When moving from the fourth quintile to the highest quintile the average percentage price increases substantially from 5.1% to 7.2%, a change more than twice as large as moving from any other quintile to the next. In all cases, price changes are reasonably monotonic until moving from the fourth to fifth quintile when this large increase is observed. When considering option prices as a percentage of underlying asset prices, it becomes very clear that hedging is extremely expensive when implied volatilities are relatively high.

It is more difficult to demonstrate the relative expensiveness of hedging when implied volatilities are low because, by construction, put option premiums represent the lowest percentage of underlying asset price in this case. Strong evidence of anchoring is observed however. The cost of hedging for 32, 62 and 92 days respectively using one strike out of the money options is 0.9%, 1.3% and 1.5% respectively. Though the cost of hedging as a percentage of underlying asset value is very low, the expected return for these option is poor, as shown in Table 3.¹²

Table 6 presents further evidence that investors fearing poor performance for individual equities due to high future volatility may be better served to exit positions, if possible, when implied volatilities are extremely high. In this environment, extremely large positive returns would be necessary to overcome the cost of the hedge. An investor with a minimal level of sophistication who is concerned that a large price decrease will occur would be unlikely to simultaneously judge the probability of a large price increase to be high enough to justify hedging in this environment.

Table 7 presents put options returns as in Table 3, except instead of sorting the sample based on implied volatilities, days are sorted by the VIX market volatility index. Rather than using relative levels of firm implied volatilities to divide firm days, market implied volatility is used to characterize the general volatility sentiment in the market. The findings in Table 7 are consistent with those in Table 3 in that options in the extreme VIX quintiles tend to significantly underperform those in the middle three quintiles. In 10 of 12 cases, average extreme quintile returns are lower than the average for the middle three quintiles and 8 of these differences are significant. This less careful division of firm days suggests previously presented results are robust and also provides some evidence that when VIX is high or low many put options are overpriced. Option sellers benefit in these cases due to behavior biases of options buyers.

¹² For all tables, results for ATM options and two strike price OTM options are consistent with those presented for one strike price OTM options.

4. Conclusion

We extend prior research by demonstrating the presence of anchoring and cumulative prospect theory in option prices. Equity option market investors anchor to prices and incorporate a probability weighting function similar to that proposed by CPT, i.e. overestimating the chance of low probability events. The presence of these biases causes put option prices to be inefficiently high, thus leading to large, negative option returns. From a hedging or portfolio insurance perspective, the price of insurance is unduly high when implied volatilities are low and investors anchor to higher prices near the mean price and when implied volatilities are high and fearful investors overestimate the probability of a large price decrease.

Implied volatilities are higher (lower) when options are more (less) likely to be exercised, showing some rationality in the pricing of put options. However, prices are generally too high when implied volatilities are very low or very high. This is evidenced by the most negative option returns for 30, 60 and 90 day options occurring in the highest and lowest implied volatility quintiles. Further evidence is present when comparing implied volatility to future realized volatilities.

When implied volatilities are low, we explain inefficient pricing through anchoring due to investors failing to properly estimate future volatilities. These investors examine prices on an absolute basis rather than a relative basis. Anchoring will cause investors to view low absolute prices, synonymous with low implied volatilities, with a low cost of insuring long positions. To the degree that investors are more risk averse and more likely to hedge their portfolio, the bias will be stronger and lead to higher prices.

When implied volatilities are high, we explain high prices with CPT where investors improperly weight the probability of a large price decrease. As implied volatilities increase

investors are more fearful of price decreases and will tend to purchase more options. Higher option prices should have an offsetting effect. However, CPT suggests the first effect will dominate the second as investors will overestimate the chance of a large price decrease and purchase more put options, driving up prices to a level which leads to poor returns.

Overall our results show that put option prices are inefficiently high when implied volatility levels are at either extreme and provide evidence this is driven by anchoring and CPT. Prices at extreme implied volatility levels cannot be justify by realized volatilities and exercise probabilities. Option investors will be better served by exiting positions, if possible, or remaining unhedged when implied volatilities are extremely high or low.

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Figure 1. A representation of a probability weighting function from cumulative prospect theory.

The horizontal axis represents the actual probability (p) of an outcome and the vertical axis represents the perceived probability of an individual who applies a weighting function, π , to the actual probability.

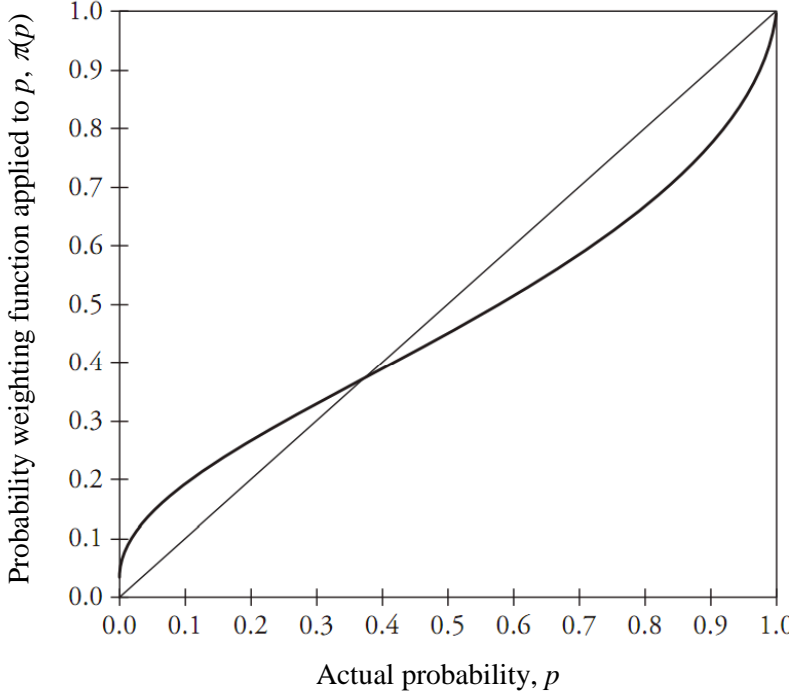


Table 1: Relative Put/Call Open Interest by Implied Volatility

OTMPutOI/OTMCallOI is the ratio of the sum of all open interest of OTM put options, with given times until expiration (32 days in Panel A, 62 days in Panel B, 92 days in Panel C), to the sum of all open interest of OTM call options for these firms with the same number of days until expiration. We consider whether OTMPutOI/OTMCallOI varies based on the underlying level of open-interest weighted put implied volatility (WIV) on observation firm dates. WIV is calculated based on all puts with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until option expiration in Panel A (Panel B, Panel C). The WIV quintiles are created, each month, by segmenting the date's sample of firms into equal quintiles based on the put, open-interest WIV. On each observation date, there must be an out-of-the-money (OTM) put available that has initial open interest of at least 100 and an initial midpoint price of at least \$0.25 in order for the observation to be included in the analysis. Underlying stocks must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11, and have prices of at least \$5 for an observation to be included. The sample period is from January, 1996 through September 2013.

<i>Panel A: OTMPutOI/OTMCallOI, 32 Days until Expiration</i>					
	WIV 32-Day Q1	WIV 32-Day Q2	WIV 32-Day Q3	WIV 32-Day Q4	WIV 32-Day Q5
Mean	6.04	6.16	6.71	5.31	4.13
Median	1.18	1.12	1.03	0.91	0.69
n	16726	16844	16835	16838	16765
<i>Panel B: OTMPutOI/OTMCallOI, 62 Days until Expiration</i>					
	WIV 62-Day Q1	WIV 62-Day Q2	WIV 62-Day Q3	WIV 62-Day Q4	WIV 62-Day Q5
Mean	5.92	7.14	6.88	5.22	5.62
Median	1.02	1.04	0.96	0.85	0.66
n	8461	8568	8561	8568	8496
<i>Panel C: OTMPutOI/OTMCallOI, 92 Days until Expiration</i>					
	WIV 92-Day Q1	WIV 92-Day Q2	WIV 92-Day Q3	WIV 92-Day Q4	WIV 92-Day Q5
Mean	7.78	5.96	5.09	5.11	4.50
Median	1.08	1.07	0.98	0.87	0.67
n	8953	9071	9065	9069	8996

Table 2: Put Option Exercise Frequency by Implied Volatility

In this table we consider frequency of OTM put option eventual expiration in the money, based on the underlying level of open-interest weighted put option implied volatility (WIV). WIV is calculated based on all puts with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until option expiration in Panel A (Panel B, Panel C). The WIV quintiles are created, each month, by segmenting the sample of firm dates, into equal quintiles based on the put open-interest WIV. On each observation date, we find the out-of-the-money (OTM) put available that is closest to at-the-money status and denote this option the “closest” match. If possible, we also consider descending strike price puts in search of a “second closest” OTM put match. To be included in the sample, put matches must have initial Optionmetrics open interest of at least 100 and initial midpoint prices of at least \$0.25. Underlying stocks must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11, and have prices of at least \$5 for an observation to be included. *** denotes statistical significance at the 1% level to the difference of proportions test comparing frequency of in-the-money expiration for puts in WIV quintile 5 and WIV quintile 1. The sample period is from January, 1996 through September, 2013.

<i>Panel A: Buying Puts with 32 Days Until Expiration and Holding 30 Days</i>						
	WIV 32-Day Q1	WIV 32-Day Q2	WIV 32-Day Q3	WIV 32-Day Q4	WIV 32-Day Q5	(Q5-Q1)
Closest OTM Put Exercise %	18.80	20.52	21.89	24.01	26.20	7.40***
n	16726	16844	16835	16838	16765	
2nd Closest OTM Put Exercise %	11.45	13.58	16.34	17.37	19.02	7.57***
n	6612	6722	6720	6720	6645	
<i>Panel B: Buying Puts with 62 Days Until Expiration and Holding 60 Days</i>						
	WIV 62-Day Q1	WIV 62-Day Q2	WIV 62-Day Q3	WIV 62-Day Q4	WIV 62-Day Q5	(Q5-Q1)
Closest OTM Put Exercise %	18.20	21.13	22.51	25.20	27.48	9.28***
n	8461	8568	8561	8568	8496	
2nd Closest OTM Put Exercise %	10.90	13.36	15.25	17.71	19.42	8.52***
n	4485	4596	4584	4595	4522	
<i>Panel C: Buying Puts with 92 Days Until Expiration and Holding 90 Days</i>						
	WIV 92-Day Q1	WIV 92-Day Q2	WIV 92-Day Q3	WIV 92-Day Q4	WIV 92-Day Q5	(Q5-Q1)
Closest OTM Put Exercise %	20.12	22.51	24.89	27.53	30.36	10.24***
n	8953	9071	9065	9069	8996	
2nd Closest OTM Put Exercise %	12.43	14.62	17.60	19.30	22.29	9.86***
n	5343	5430	5454	5430	5382	

Table 3

In this table we consider OTM put option returns, based on the underlying level of open-interest weighted put option implied volatility (WIV). WIV is calculated based on all puts with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until option expiration in Panel A (Panel B, Panel C). The WIV quintiles are created, each month, by segmenting the sample of firm dates into equal quintiles based on the put open-interest WIV. On each observation date, we find the out-of-the-money (OTM) put available that is closest to at-the-money status and denote this option the “closest” match. If possible, we also consider descending strike price puts in search of a “second closest” OTM put match. To be included in the sample, put matches must have initial Optionmetrics open interest of at least 100 and initial midpoint prices of at least \$0.25. Underlying stocks must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11, and have prices of at least \$5 for an observation to be included. ***, **, and * denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels, respectively, for the difference of means tests comparing WIV quintile 1 and WIV quintile 5 performance, respectively, to the performance of puts in WIV quintiles 2, 3, and 4. The sample period is from January, 1996 through September, 2013.

Panel A: Buying Puts with 32 Days Until Expiration and Holding 30 Days

	WIV 32-Day Q1	WIV 32-Day Q2	WIV 32-Day Q3	WIV 32-Day Q4	WIV 32-Day Q5	Q1 - Q(2-4)	Q5 - Q(2-4)
Closest OTM Put Mean Return	-0.134	-0.092	-0.074	-0.065	-0.104	-0.057**	-0.027
n	16726	16844	16835	16838	16765		
2nd Closest OTM Put Mean Return	-0.145	-0.127	-0.071	-0.055	-0.118	-0.061	-0.034
n	6612	6722	6720	6720	6645		

Panel B: Buying Puts with 62 Days Until Expiration and Holding 60 Days

	WIV 62-Day Q1	WIV 62-Day Q2	WIV 62-Day Q3	WIV 62-Day Q4	WIV 62-Day Q5	Q1 - Q(2-4)	Q5 - Q(2-4)
Closest OTM Put Mean Return	-0.221	-0.151	-0.129	-0.093	-0.189	-0.097***	-0.065**
n	8461	8568	8561	8568	8496		
2nd Closest OTM Put Mean Return	-0.198	-0.119	-0.069	-0.027	-0.150	-0.126**	-0.078*
n	4485	4596	4584	4595	4522		

Panel C: Buying Puts with 92 Days Until Expiration and Holding 90 Days

	WIV 92-Day Q1	WIV 92-Day Q2	WIV 92-Day Q3	WIV 92-Day Q4	WIV 92-Day Q5	Q1 - Q(2-4)	Q5 - Q(2-4)
Closest OTM Put Mean Return	-0.178	-0.147	-0.078	-0.095	-0.161	-0.071**	-0.054**
n	8953	9071	9065	9069	8996		
2nd Closest OTM Put Mean Return	-0.192	-0.138	0.033	-0.034	-0.138	-0.146***	-0.093**
n	5343	5430	5454	5430	5382		

Table 4: Fixed Effect Regressions

This table presents coefficients with t-values and significance levels for the fixed-effects regression framework which models: $PutRett = b1(HVt-IVt) + b2(Size) + b3(BtoMt) + b4(Momt) + b5(Skewt) + b6(Kurtt) + b7(WIV\ Q1t) + b8(WIV\ Q5t)$. On the day each month where puts are available with expirations 32 (62, 92) days hence, we consider the 30-day (60-day, 90-day) returns of these puts as our dependent variable in Panel A (Panel B, Panel C). On each observation date, we find the out-of-the-money (OTM) put available that is closest to at-the-money status and denote this option the “closest” match. If possible, we also consider descending strike price puts in search of a “second closest” OTM put match. Our variable of study is the open-interest weighted put option implied volatility (WIV). The WIV quintiles are created, each month, by segmenting the sample of firm dates into equal quintiles based on the put open-interest WIV. WIVQ1 (WIVQ5) is a dummy variable indicating whether a firm-date observation has a weighted implied volatility in the lowest (highest) quintile amongst available observations on that date. We include control measures to our regression specification. (HVt-IVt) is analogous to the measure found in Goyal and Saretto (2009), constructed as the log difference of the historical, annualized volatility of the firm-date observation based on daily stock returns from the prior trading year minus the implied volatility of the option whose return performance is analyzed. Size (market capitalization, in billions of dollars), Mom (momentum), Skew (skewness) and Kurt (kurtosis) of stock returns are all calculated using the prior year’s daily data, with the exception of six months used to calculate Mom as in Goyal and Saretto (2009). BtoM (book-to-market) calculation utilizes Compustat data and is calculated as in Fama and French (1993). Options must have Optionmetrics open interest of at least 100 and a midpoint put price of at least \$0.25 in order for an observation to be included. Underlying stocks must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11, and have prices of at least \$5 for an observation to be included. *, **, and *** denote statistical significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% levels, respectively. The sample period is from January, 1996 through September, 2013.

<i>Panel A: 30-Day Returns</i>				
	<i>OTM Match Closest to ATM</i>		<i>OTM Match 2nd Closest to ATM</i>	
	Coefficient	t-value	Coefficient	t-value
HV_t-IV_t	0.526	9.81***	0.563	6.40***
Size	-0.971	-3.31***	-1.040	-2.92***
BtoM	-0.010	-0.95	-0.026	-0.91
Mom	-0.047	-2.44**	-0.077	-2.50**
Skew	-0.023	-3.48***	-0.016	-1.10
Kurt	-0.003	-4.44***	-0.004	-3.19***
WIVQ1	-0.053	-2.70***	-0.061	-1.58
WIVQ5	0.005	0.23	0.042	0.87
	n = 84008		n = 33419	

Table 4 cont.

<i>Panel B: 60-Day Returns</i>				
	<i>OTM Match Closest to ATM</i>		<i>OTM Match 2nd Closest to ATM</i>	
	Coefficient	t-value	Coefficient	t-value
HV_t-IV_t	0.580	7.36***	0.629	4.68***
Size	-1.141	-3.92***	-1.470	-3.57***
BtoM	0.000	-0.02	-0.004	-0.17
Mom	-0.096	-3.23***	-0.039	-0.74
Skew	-0.014	-1.71*	-0.025	-1.48
Kurt	-0.002	-2.46**	-0.005	-2.82***
WIVQ1	-0.070	-2.80***	-0.081	-2.17**
WIVQ5	-0.050	-2.02**	-0.059	-1.94*
	n = 42654		n = 22782	
<i>Panel C: 90-Day Returns</i>				
	<i>OTM Match Closest to ATM</i>		<i>OTM Match 2nd Closest to ATM</i>	
	Coefficient	t-value	Coefficient	t-value
HV_t-IV_t	0.457	5.89***	0.541	4.11***
Size	-1.916	-4.49***	-1.222	-3.50***
BtoM	0.003	0.21	-0.008	-0.33
Mom	-0.035	-1.22	-0.035	-0.74
Skew	-0.009	-1.2	-0.024	-1.67*
Kurt	-0.002	-1.92*	-0.001	-0.20
WIVQ1	-0.048	-2.04**	-0.107	-2.50**
WIVQ5	-0.051	-2.18**	-0.094	-2.19**
	n = 45154		n = 27039	

Table 5: Put/Call Implied Volatility Differences by Implied Volatility

In this table we consider put vs. call implied volatility discrepancies, based on the underlying level of put, open-interest weighted implied volatilities (WIV). On the day each month where options are available with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until expiration we consider the relative implied volatilities of calls and puts with identical strike prices in Panel A (Panel B, Panel C). On each observation date, we find the out-of-the-money (OTM) put available that is closest to at-the-money status and denote this option the “closest” match. If possible, we also consider descending strike price options in search of a “second closest” OTM put match. Thus, the matching call options for determining the differences in implied volatility are generally the in-the-money (ITM) call option closest to ATM status and the ITM call option 2nd closest to ATM status. We take the simple difference of the implied volatilities of the corresponding call and put options (IVCall-IVPut). We calculate the mean values of these differences per quintile of our original measure, WIV (open-interest weighted implied volatility of puts). To be included in the sample, the put options of observations must have initial Optionmetrics open interest of at least 100 and midpoint prices of at least \$0.25. Underlying stocks must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11, and have prices of at least \$5 for an observation to be included. The sample period is from January, 1996 through September, 2013.

<i>Panel A: Buying Puts with 32 Days Until Expiration</i>					
	Put WIV 32-Day Q1	Put WIV 32-Day Q2	Put WIV 32-Day Q3	Put WIV 32-Day Q4	Put WIV 32-Day Q5
Closest OTM Put, Mean	-0.007	-0.009	-0.011	-0.017	-0.034
n	16726	16844	16835	16838	16765
2nd Closest OTM Put, Mean	-0.008	-0.012	-0.017	-0.023	-0.045
n	6612	6722	6720	6720	6645
<i>Panel B: Buying Puts with 62 Days Until Expiration</i>					
	Put WIV 62-Day Q1	Put WIV 62-Day Q2	Put WIV 62-Day Q3	Put WIV 62-Day Q4	Put WIV 62-Day Q5
Closest OTM Put, Mean	-0.006	-0.009	-0.011	-0.015	-0.034
n	8461	8568	8561	8568	8496
2nd Closest OTM Put, Mean	-0.005	-0.010	-0.012	-0.019	-0.039
n	4485	4596	4584	4595	4522
<i>Panel C: Buying Puts with 92 Days Until Expiration</i>					
	Put WIV 92-Day Q1	Put WIV 92-Day Q2	Put WIV 92-Day Q3	Put WIV 92-Day Q4	Put WIV 92-Day Q5
Closest OTM Put, Mean	-0.007	-0.009	-0.010	-0.012	-0.030
n	8953	9071	9065	9069	8996
2nd Closest OTM Put, Mean	-0.007	-0.008	-0.011	-0.015	-0.036
n	5343	5430	5454	5430	5382

Table 6: Put Option Prices by Implied Volatility

In this table we consider the relative prices of out-of-the-money (OTM) put options to their underlying stock prices based on the level of open-interest weighted put option implied volatility (WIV). Put prices are expressed as a proportion of each put's underlying stock price. Mean relative put prices are shown after splitting the sample into WIV quintiles. WIV is calculated based on all puts with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until option expiration in Panel A (Panel B, Panel C). The WIV quintiles are created, each month, by segmenting the sample of firm dates into equal quintiles based on the put open-interest WIV. On each observation date, we find the out-of-the-money (OTM) put available that is closest to at-the-money status and denote this option the “closest” match. If possible, we also consider descending strike price puts in search of a “second closest” OTM put match. To be included in the sample, put matches must have initial Optionmetrics open interest of at least 100 and initial midpoint prices of at least \$0.25. Underlying stocks must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11, and have prices of at least \$5 for an observation to be included. The sample period is from January, 1996 through September, 2013.

<i>Panel A: Means of (Put Price/Underlying Price), puts with 32 days until expiration</i>					
	WIV 32-Day Q1	WIV 32-Day Q2	WIV 32-Day Q3	WIV 32-Day Q4	WIV 32-Day Q5
Closest OTM P/Stock Price	0.013	0.018	0.023	0.029	0.043
n	16726	16844	16835	16838	16765
2nd Closest OTM P/Stock Price	0.009	0.013	0.017	0.022	0.032
n	6612	6722	6720	6720	6645
<i>Panel B: Means of (Put Price/Underlying Price), puts with 62 days until expiration</i>					
	WIV 62-Day Q1	WIV 62-Day Q2	WIV 62-Day Q3	WIV 62-Day Q4	WIV 62-Day Q5
Closest OTM P/Stock Price	0.019	0.026	0.032	0.041	0.059
n	8461	8568	8561	8568	8496
2nd Closest OTM P/Stock Price	0.013	0.017	0.021	0.028	0.041
n	4485	4596	4584	4595	4522
<i>Panel C: Means of (Put Price/Underlying Price), puts with 92 days until expiration</i>					
	WIV 92-Day Q1	WIV 92-Day Q2	WIV 92-Day Q3	WIV 92-Day Q4	WIV 92-Day Q5
Closest OTM P/Stock Price	0.024	0.032	0.041	0.051	0.072
n	8953	9071	9065	9069	8996
2nd Closest OTM P/Stock Price	0.015	0.021	0.027	0.034	0.049
n	5343	5430	5454	5430	5382

Table 7: Put Option Returns by VIX

In this table we consider OTM put option returns, based on the underlying level of VIX. VIX is noted on relevant days from the CBOE website when there are put options with exactly 32 (62, 92) days until expiration in Panel A (Panel B, Panel C). The VIX quintiles are created by pooling all observations. On each observation date, we find the out-of-the-money (OTM) put available that is closest to at-the-money status and denote this option the “closest” match. If possible, we also consider descending strike price puts in search of a “second closest” OTM put match. To be included in the sample, put matches must have initial Optionmetrics open interest of at least 100 and initial midpoint prices of at least \$0.25. Underlying stocks must trade on the NYSE, NASDAQ or AMEX, have CRSP share codes of 10 or 11, and have prices of at least \$5 for an observation to be included. *** and ** denote statistical significance at the 1% and 5% levels, respectively, for the difference of means tests comparing VIX quintile 1 and VIX quintile 5 performance, respectively, to the performance of puts in VIX quintiles 2, 3, and 4. The sample period is from January, 1996 through September, 2013.

<i>Panel A: Buying Puts with 32 Days Until Expiration and Holding 30 Days</i>							
	VIX Q1	VIX Q2	VIX Q3	VIX Q4	VIX Q5	Q1 - Q(2-4)	Q5 - Q(2-4)
Closest OTM Put Mean	-0.319	0.031	0.134	-0.289	-0.037	-0.278***	0.004
n	16784	16627	17307	16362	16928		
2nd Closest OTM Put Mean	-0.235	0.135	-0.104	-0.354	0.029	-0.127	0.137
n	6687	6711	6744	6586	6691		
<i>Panel B: Buying Puts with 62 Days Until Expiration and Holding 60 Days</i>							
	VIX Q1	VIX Q2	VIX Q3	VIX Q4	VIX Q5	Q1 - Q(2-4)	Q5 - Q(2-4)
Closest OTM Put Mean	-0.380	0.053	0.088	-0.231	-0.312	-0.350***	-0.282**
n	8571	8460	8560	8546	8517		
2nd Closest OTM Put Mean	-0.470	0.165	0.360	-0.429	-0.161	-0.502***	-0.193
n	4762	4361	4567	4528	4564		
<i>Panel C: Buying Puts with 92 Days Until Expiration and Holding 90 Days</i>							
	VIX Q1	VIX Q2	VIX Q3	VIX Q4	VIX Q5	Q1 - Q(2-4)	Q5 - Q(2-4)
Closest OTM Put Mean	-0.350	-0.262	0.237	0.081	-0.373	-0.369***	-0.392***
n	9125	9191	9079	8699	9060		
2nd Closest OTM Put Mean	-0.392	-0.213	0.299	0.219	-0.384	-0.494***	-0.486***
n	5448	5369	5400	5471	5351		