

Monte Carlo Methods

Prof. Mike Giles

`mike.giles@maths.ox.ac.uk`

Oxford University Mathematical Institute

Monte Carlo methods

In option pricing there are two main approaches:

- Monte Carlo methods for estimating expected values of financial payoff functions based on underlying assets.

E.g., we want to estimate $\mathbb{E}[f(S(T))]$ where

$$S(T) = S_0 \exp\left(\left(r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\right)T + \sigma W(T)\right)$$

and $W(T)$ is driving Brownian motion at terminal time T

- Numerical approximation of the PDE which describes the evolution of the expected value.

$$u(s, t) = \mathbb{E} [f(S(T)) \mid S(t) = s]$$

Usually less costly than MC when there are very few underlying assets ($M \leq 3$), but much more expensive when there are many.

Geometric Brownian Motion

In this first lecture, we consider M underlying assets, each modelled by Geometric Brownian Motion

$$dS_i = r S_i dt + \sigma_i S_i dW_i$$

so Ito calculus gives us

$$S_i(T) = S_i(0) \exp \left((r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_i^2)T + \sigma_i W_i(T) \right)$$

in which each $W_i(T)$ is Normally distributed with zero mean and variance T .

We can use standard Random Number Generation software (e.g. `randn` function in MATLAB) to generate samples of each $W_i(T)$, but there is a problem ...

Correlated Brownian Motions

Different assets do not behave independently – on average, they tend to move up and down together.

This is modelled by introducing correlation between the driving Brownian motions so that

$$\mathbb{E} [W_i(T) W_j(T)] = \Omega_{i,j} T$$

where $\Omega_{i,j}$ is the correlation coefficient, and hence

$$\mathbb{E} [W(T) W(T)^T] = \Omega T.$$

How do we generate samples of $W_i(T)$?

Correlated Normal Random Variables

Suppose x is a vector of independent $N(0, 1)$ variables, and define a new vector $y = L x$.

Each element of y is Normally distributed, $\mathbb{E}[y] = L \mathbb{E}[x] = 0$, and

$$\mathbb{E}[y y^T] = \mathbb{E}[L x x^T L^T] = L \mathbb{E}[x x^T] L^T = L L^T.$$

since $\mathbb{E}[x x^T] = I$ because

- elements of x are independent $\implies \mathbb{E}[x_i x_j] = 0$ for $i \neq j$
- elements of x have unit variance $\implies \mathbb{E}[x_i^2] = 1$

Correlated Normal Random Variables

To get $\mathbb{E}[y y^T] = \Omega$, we need to find L such that

$$L L^T = \Omega$$

L is not uniquely defined – simplest choice is to use a Cholesky factorization in which L is lower-triangular, with a positive diagonal.

In MATLAB, this is achieved using

```
L = chol(Omega, 'lower');
```

Basket Call Option

In a basket call option, the discounted payoff function is

$$f = \exp(-r T) \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_i S_i(T) - K \right)^+$$

where K is the strike, r is the risk-free interest rate, and $(x)^+ \equiv \max(x, 0)$.

Monte Carlo estimation of $\mathbb{E}[f(S(T))]$ is very simple – we generate N independent samples of $W(T)$, compute $S(T)$, and then average to get

$$\bar{f}_N \equiv N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N f^{(n)} \approx \mathbb{E}[f]$$

Monte Carlo Error and CLT

This MC estimate is unbiased, meaning that the average error is zero

$$\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_N] = 0$$

where ε_N is the error $\bar{f}_N - \mathbb{E}[f]$.

In addition, the Central Limit Theorem proves that for large N the error is asymptotically Normally distributed

$$\varepsilon_N(f) \sim \sigma N^{-1/2} Z$$

with Z a $N(0, 1)$ random variable and σ^2 the variance of f :

$$\sigma^2 = \mathbb{V}[f] \equiv \mathbb{E} [(f - \mathbb{E}[f])^2] .$$

CLT

This means that

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\left| N^{1/2} \sigma^{-1} \varepsilon_N \right| < s \right] \approx 1 - 2 \Phi(-s),$$

where $\Phi(s)$ is the Normal CDF (cumulative distribution function).

Typically we use $s = 3$, corresponding to a 3-standard deviation confidence interval, with $1 - 2 \Phi(-s) \approx 0.997$.

Hence, with probability 99.7%, we have

$$\left| N^{1/2} \sigma^{-1} \varepsilon_N \right| < 3 \implies |\varepsilon_N| < 3 \sigma N^{-1/2}$$

This bounds the accuracy, but we need an estimate for σ .

Empirical Variance

Given N samples, the empirical variance is

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2 = N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N \left(f^{(n)} - \bar{f}_N \right)^2 = \overline{f^2} - (\bar{f})^2$$

where

$$\bar{f} = N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N f^{(n)}, \quad \overline{f^2} = N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N \left(f^{(n)} \right)^2$$

$\tilde{\sigma}^2$ is a slightly biased estimator for σ^2 – an unbiased estimator is

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{N}{N-1} \tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{N}{N-1} \left(\overline{f^2} - (\bar{f})^2 \right)$$

Applications

Geometric Brownian motion for single asset:

$$S(T) = S_0 \exp \left(\left(r - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \right) T + \sigma W(T) \right)$$

For the European call option,

$$f(S) = \exp(-rT) (S - K)^+$$

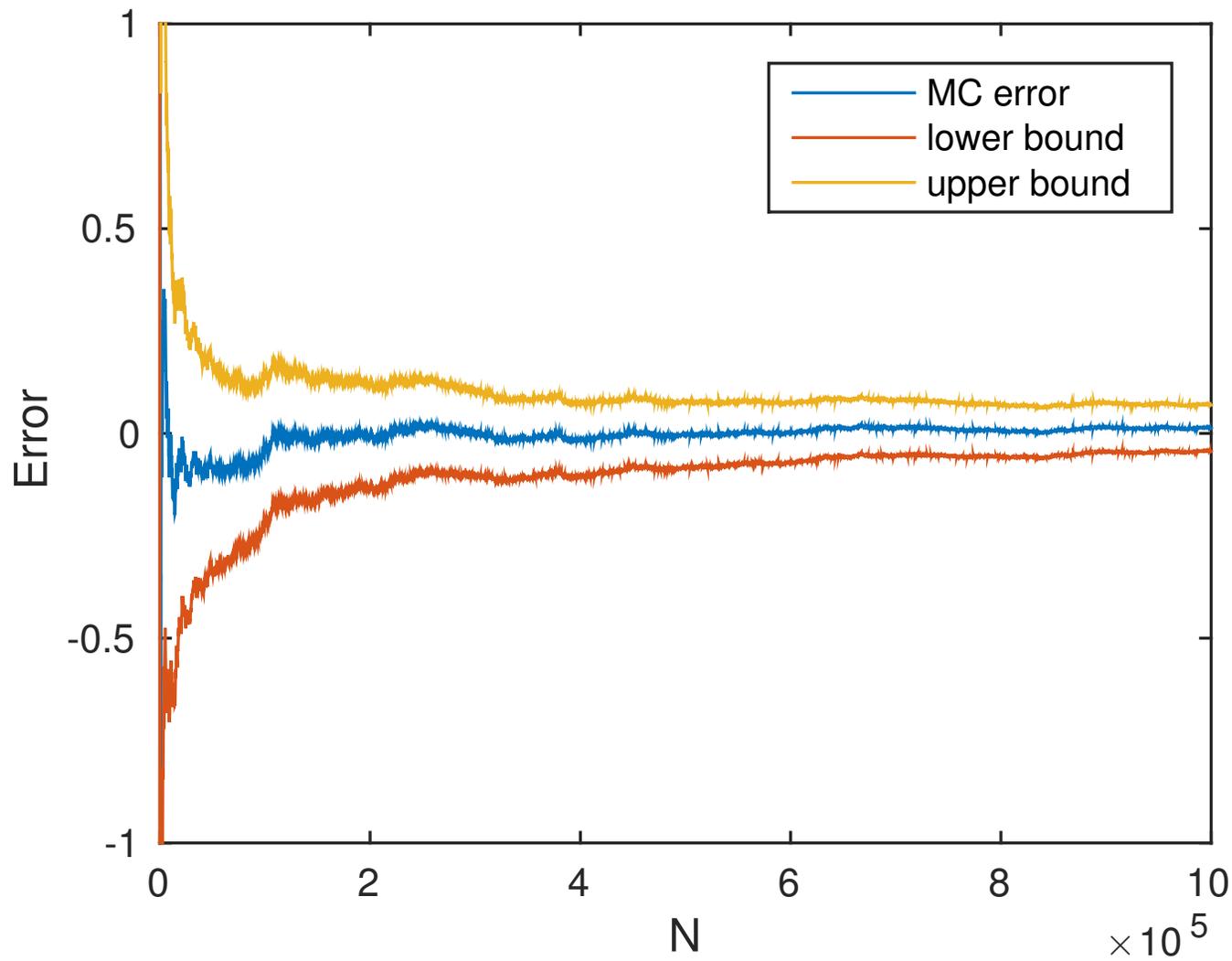
where K is the strike price.

For numerical experiments we will consider a European call with $r = 0.05$, $\sigma = 0.2$, $T = 1$, $S_0 = 110$, $K = 100$.

The analytic value is known for comparison.

Applications

MC calculation with up to 10^6 paths; true value = 17.663



Applications

The upper and lower bounds are given by

$$\text{Mean} \pm \frac{3 \tilde{\sigma}}{\sqrt{N}},$$

so more than a 99.7% probability that the true value lies within these bounds.

Applications

MATLAB code:

```
r=0.05; sig=0.2; T=1; S0=110; K=100;
N = 1:1000000;
Y = randn(1,max(N)); % Normal random variables
S = S0*exp((r-sig^2/2)*T + sig*sqrt(T)*Y);
F = exp(-r*T)*max(0,S-K);

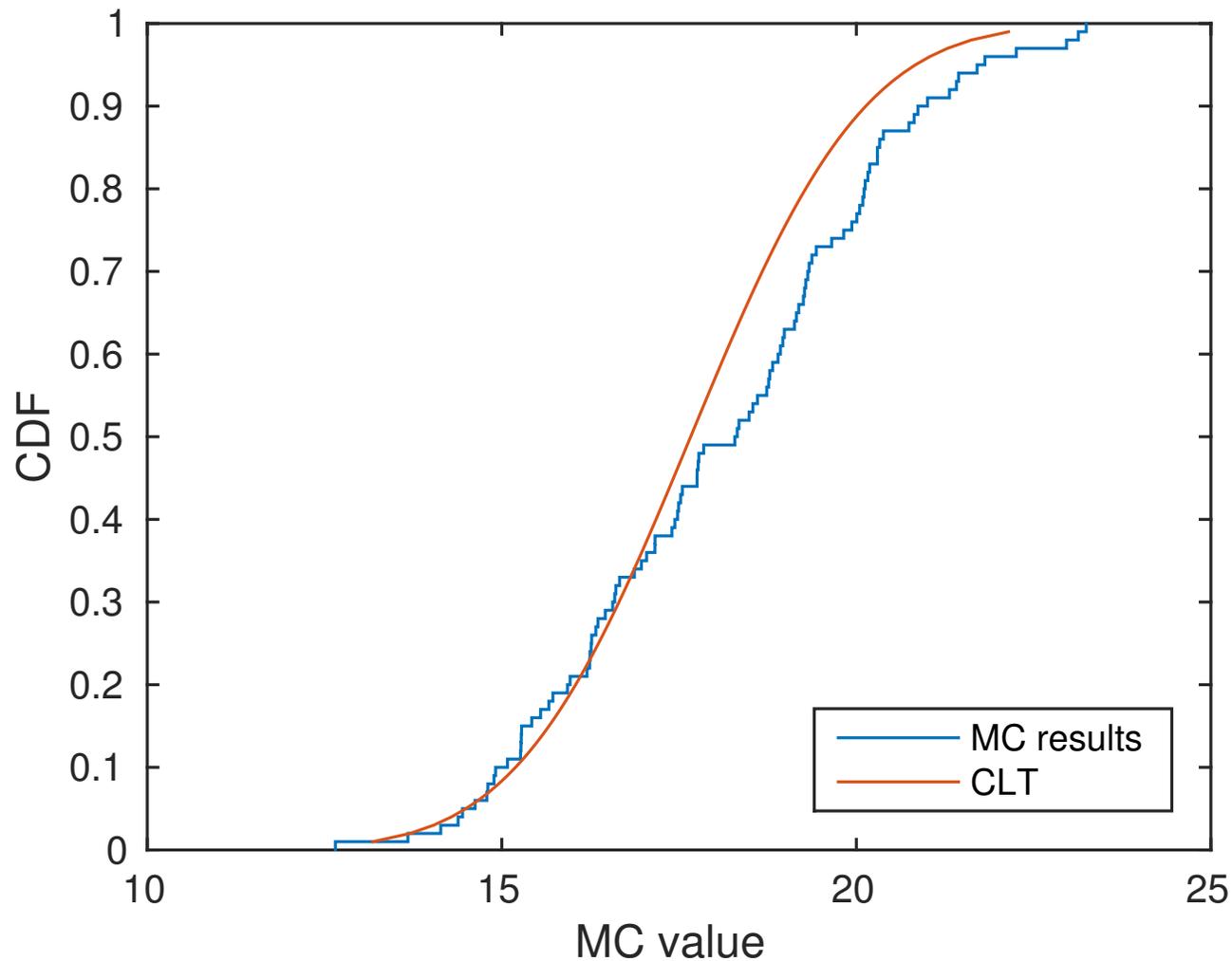
sum1 = cumsum(F); % cumulative summation of
sum2 = cumsum(F.^2); % payoff and its square
val = sum1./N;
sd = sqrt(sum2./N - val.^2);
```

Applications

```
err = european_call(r, sig, T, S0, K, 'value') - val;  
  
plot(N, err, ...,  
      N, err-3*sd./sqrt(N), ...,  
      N, err+3*sd./sqrt(N))  
axis([0 length(N) -1 1])  
xlabel('N'); ylabel('Error')  
legend('MC error', 'lower bound', 'upper bound')
```

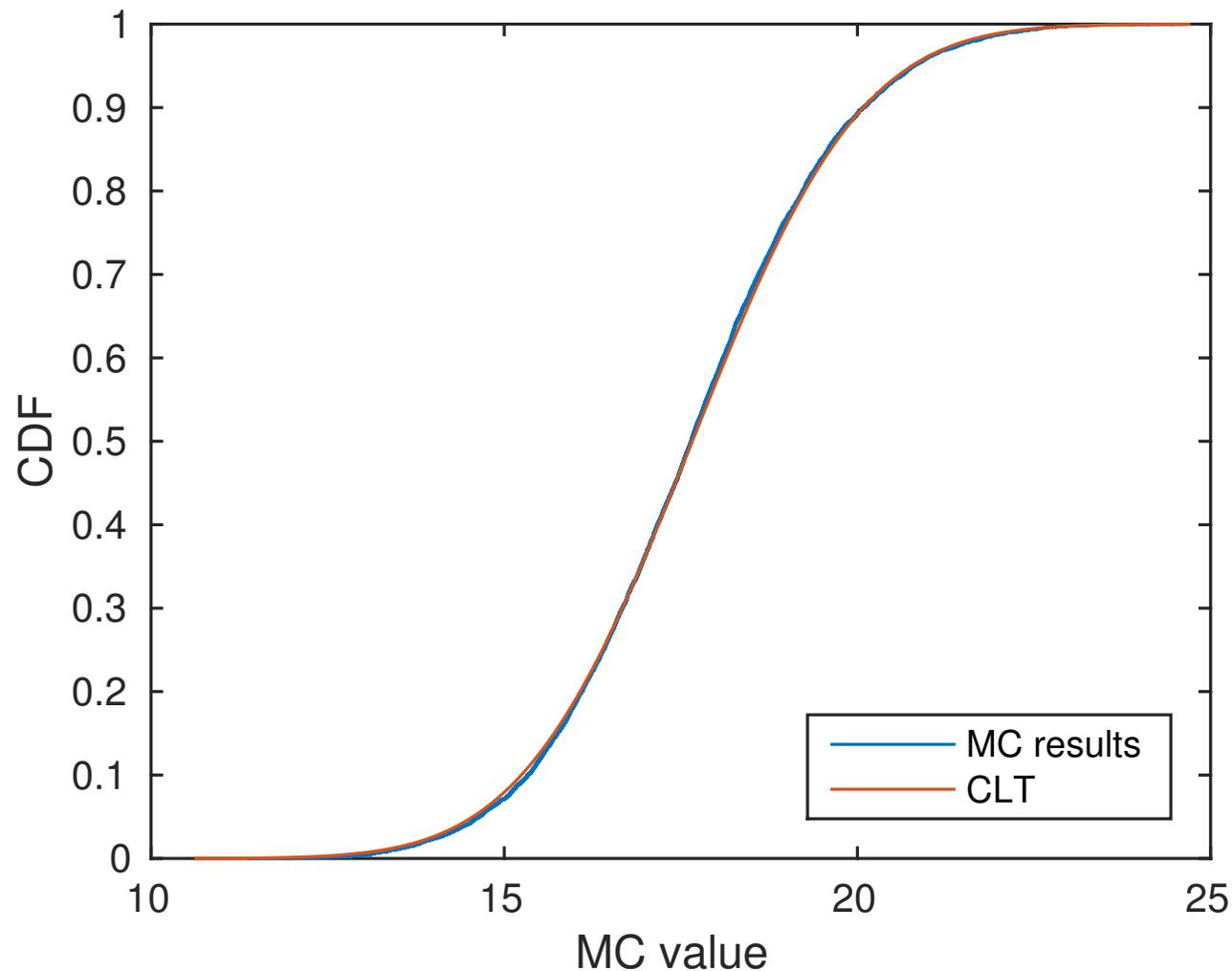
Applications

CLT: 100 independent tests, each with 100 samples



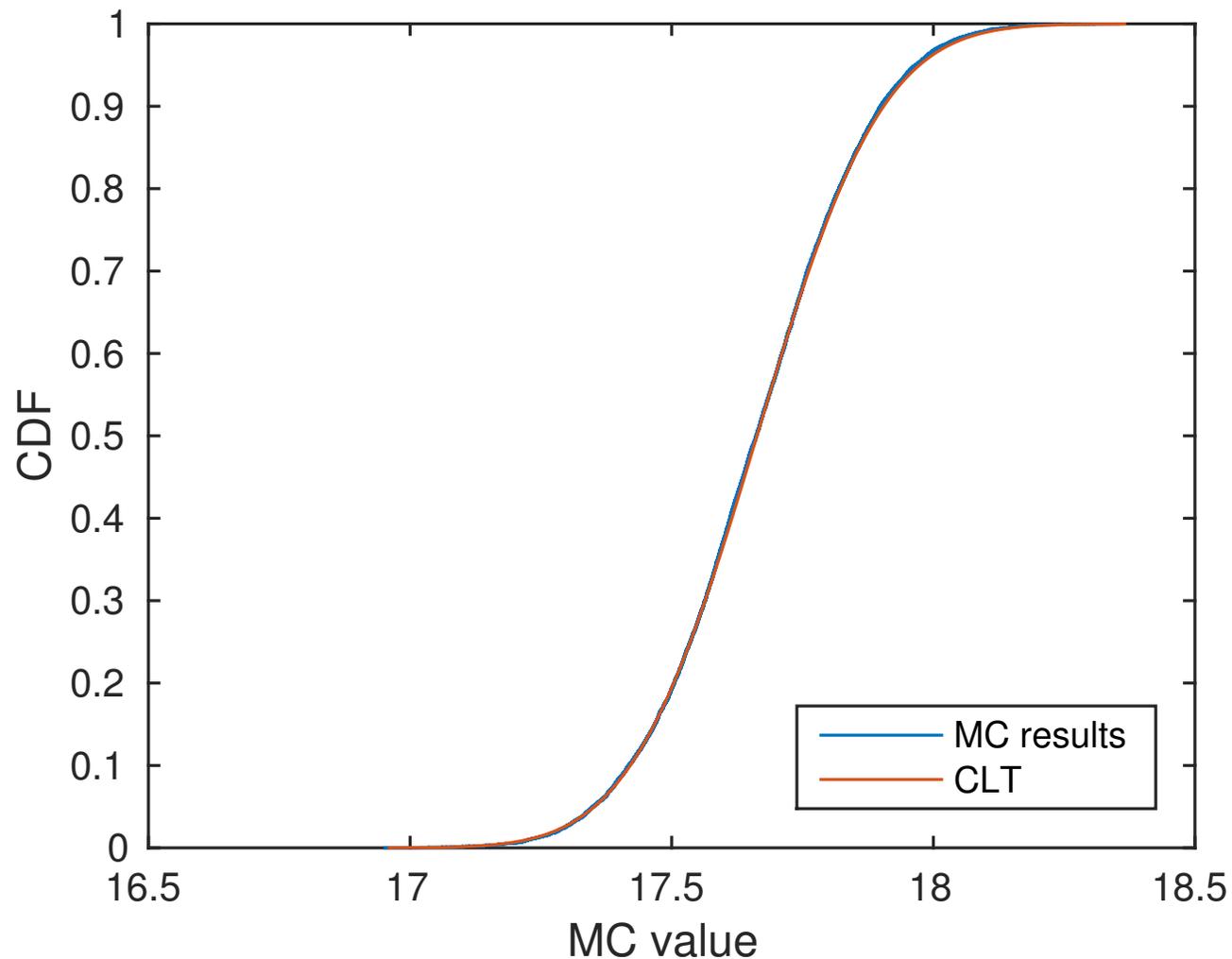
Applications

CLT: 10^4 independent tests, each with 100 samples



Applications

CLT: 10^4 independent tests, each with 10^4 samples



Basket call option

- 5 underlying assets starting at $S_0 = 100$, with call option on arithmetic mean with strike $K = 100$
- Geometric Brownian Motion model, $r = 0.05$, $T = 1$
- volatility $\sigma = 0.2$ and correlation matrix

$$\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.1 \\ 0.1 & 1 & 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.1 \\ 0.1 & 0.1 & 1 & 0.1 & 0.1 \\ 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.1 & 1 & 0.1 \\ 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Applications

```
r=0.05; sigma=0.2; rho=0.1; T=1; K=100; S0=100;

N = 10^5; % number of MC samples
Omega = eye(5) + rho*(ones(5)-eye(5));
L = chol(Omega,'lower'); % Cholesky factorisation
W = sqrt(T)*L*randn(5,N);
S = S0.*exp((r-0.5*sigma^2)*T + sigma*W);

S = 0.2*sum(S,1); % average asset value
F = exp(-r*T)*max(S-K,0); % call option

val = sum(F)/N % mean and its std. dev.
sd = sqrt((sum(F.^2)/N - val.^2)/(N-1))
```

Variance Reduction

Monte Carlo is a very simple method; it gets complicated when we try to reduce the variance, and hence the number of samples required.

There are several approaches:

- antithetic variables
- control variates
- importance sampling
- stratified sampling
- Latin hypercube
- quasi-Monte Carlo

We will discuss control variates.

Review of elementary results

If a, b are random variables, and λ, μ are constants, then

$$\mathbb{E}[a + \mu] = \mathbb{E}[a] + \mu$$

$$\mathbb{V}[a + \mu] = \mathbb{V}[a]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\lambda a] = \lambda \mathbb{E}[a]$$

$$\mathbb{V}[\lambda a] = \lambda^2 \mathbb{V}[a]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[a + b] = \mathbb{E}[a] + \mathbb{E}[b]$$

$$\mathbb{V}[a + b] = \mathbb{V}[a] + 2 \mathbf{Cov}[a, b] + \mathbb{V}[b]$$

where

$$\mathbb{V}[a] \equiv \mathbb{E} \left[(a - \mathbb{E}[a])^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} [a^2] - (\mathbb{E}[a])^2$$

$$\mathbf{Cov}[a, b] \equiv \mathbb{E} \left[(a - \mathbb{E}[a]) (b - \mathbb{E}[b]) \right]$$

Review of elementary results

If a, b are independent random variables then

$$\mathbb{E}[f(a) g(b)] = \mathbb{E}[f(a)] \mathbb{E}[g(b)]$$

Hence, $\text{Cov}[a, b] = 0$ and therefore $\mathbb{V}[a + b] = \mathbb{V}[a] + \mathbb{V}[b]$

Extending this to a set of N iid (independent identically distributed) r.v.'s x_n , we have

$$\mathbb{V} \left[\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right] = \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{V}[x_n] = N \mathbb{V}[x]$$

and so

$$\mathbb{V} \left[N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right] = N^{-1} \mathbb{V}[x]$$

Control Variates

Suppose we want to approximate $\mathbb{E}[f]$ using a simple Monte Carlo average \bar{f} .

If there is another payoff g for which we know $\mathbb{E}[g]$, can use $\bar{g} - \mathbb{E}[g]$ to reduce error in $\bar{f} - \mathbb{E}[f]$.

How? By defining a new estimator

$$\hat{f} = \bar{f} - \lambda (\bar{g} - \mathbb{E}[g])$$

Again unbiased since $\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}] = \mathbb{E}[\bar{f}] = \mathbb{E}[f]$

Control Variates

For a single sample,

$$\mathbb{V}[f - \lambda (g - \mathbb{E}[g])] = \mathbb{V}[f] - 2\lambda \mathbf{Cov}[f, g] + \lambda^2 \mathbb{V}[g]$$

For an average of N samples,

$$\mathbb{V}[\bar{f} - \lambda (\bar{g} - \mathbb{E}[g])] = N^{-1} \left(\mathbb{V}[f] - 2\lambda \mathbf{Cov}[f, g] + \lambda^2 \mathbb{V}[g] \right)$$

To minimise this, the optimum value for λ is

$$\lambda = \frac{\mathbf{Cov}[f, g]}{\mathbb{V}[g]}$$

Control Variates

The resulting variance is

$$N^{-1} \mathbb{V}[f] \left(1 - \frac{(\text{Cov}[f, g])^2}{\mathbb{V}[f] \mathbb{V}[g]} \right) = N^{-1} \mathbb{V}[f] (1 - \rho^2)$$

where ρ is the correlation between f and g .

The challenge is to choose a good g which is well correlated with f – the covariance, and hence the optimal λ , can be estimated from the data.

Control Variates

For a basket option with M underlying assets, we know that for each asset

$$\mathbb{E}[\exp(-r T) S_i(T)] = S_i(0)$$

so we could use

$$g = \exp(-r T) \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M S_i(T)$$

with

$$\mathbb{E}[g] = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M S_i(0)$$

Numerical test will do the simpler scalar case with $M = 1$.

Application

MATLAB code, part 1 – estimating optimal λ :

```
r=0.05; sig=0.2; T=1; S0=110; K=100;  
  
N = 1000;  
Y = randn(1,N);           % Normal random variable  
S = S0*exp((r-sig^2/2)*T + sig*sqrt(T)*Y);  
F = exp(-r*T)*max(0,S-K);  
C = exp(-r*T)*S;  
Fave = sum(F)/N;  
Cave = sum(C)/N;  
lam = sum((F-Fave).*(C-Cave)) / sum((C-Cave).^2);
```

Application

MATLAB code, part 2 – control variate estimation:

```
N = 1e5;  
Y = randn(1,N); % Normal random variable  
S = S0*exp((r-sig^2/2)*T + sig*sqrt(T)*Y);  
F = exp(-r*T)*max(0,S-K);  
C = exp(-r*T)*S;  
F2 = F - lam*(C-S0);  
  
Fave = sum(F)/N;  
F2ave = sum(F2)/N;  
sd = sqrt(sum((F-Fave).^2)/(N*(N-1)));  
sd2 = sqrt(sum((F2-F2ave).^2)/(N*(N-1)));
```

Application

Results:

>> cv

estimated price (without CV)	=	17.624089	+/-	0.1785
estimated price (with CV)	=	17.651112	+/-	0.0451
exact price	=	17.662954		

Final words

- Monte Carlo estimation is very simple, and efficient when there are multiple underlying assets
- Need to generate correlated Normal random variables
- Central Limit Theorem (CLT) is very important in giving a confidence interval for the computed value
- The use of a control variate with known expected value can greatly reduce the number of MC samples required