

# Computational Finance and its implementation in Python with applications to option pricing

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- 1 Monte-Carlo method for option pricing and variance reduction techniques
  - The Monte-Carlo method: motivation and a brief overview
  - Variance reduction techniques
    - Introduction
    - Antithetic variables
    - Control variates
- 2 Option pricing under the Binomial model
  - Motivation and setting
  - Simulation of the Binomial model
  - Calibration of the Binomial model
  - American options valuation

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- The Monte-Carlo method: motivation and a brief overview
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  - Introduction
  - Antithetic variables
  - Control variates

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- Simulation of the Binomial model
- Calibration of the Binomial model
- American options valuation

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- Motivation and setting
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- Calibration of the Binomial model
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- A common problem we face in mathematical finance is the **risk neutral valuation of a derivative**.
- As you know, the **price of a derivative** is expressed by the (possibly discounted) **expectation of its payoff** at maturity, under a pricing measure (also called pricing, or martingale measure).
- That is, **we have to compute the expectation of a random variable**.
- Problem: most often, there is **no way to get an analytic formula** for the expectation of complex derivatives, or even simpler derivatives written on underlying with non trivial dynamics.
- Broad idea: we can **approximate the price by averaging** some possible, **simulated realizations** of the payoff.
- The strong law of large numbers and some other convergence results may help us.

- Consider a random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . The probability measure  $P$  may be viewed as a risk neutral measure.
- Also consider a (payoff) function  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\text{Var}[f(X)] < \infty$ .
- The aim is to compute the expectation

$$\theta := \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)] = \int_{\Omega} f(X) dP.$$

- Suppose there is no analytic formula to derive  $\theta$  above. We have to find an **approximation**  $\hat{\theta}$ .

# We can define independent drawings of $X$

- Given  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  as above, introduce:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\Omega} &:= \Omega \times \Omega \times \cdots \times \Omega = \{\tilde{\omega} = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n), \omega_i \in \Omega\}, \\ \tilde{\mathcal{F}} &:= \sigma(\mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{F} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{F}), \\ \tilde{P} \left( \prod_{i=1}^n A_i \right) &:= \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i), \quad A_i \in \mathcal{F}.\end{aligned}$$

- Also define the random variable  $\tilde{X} = (\tilde{X}_1, \dots, \tilde{X}_n)$  by  $\tilde{X}_i(\tilde{\omega}) := X(\omega_i)$ .
- This is a way to see  $\tilde{X}(\tilde{\omega})$  as  $n$  different realizations  $X(\omega_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  of one random variable  $X$ , or as one realization of  $n$  i.i.d. random variables  $\tilde{X}_i(\tilde{\omega})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- This interpretation is at the base of the Monte-Carlo method, as it permits to exploit the Strong Law of Large Numbers.
- A similar construction and interpretation can be given for a  $N$ -dimensional random variable  $X$ .

## Theorem: Strong Law of Large Numbers

Let  $(X_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  be i.i.d. integrable real valued random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , and set

$$\mu := \mathbb{E}^P[X_i], \quad i \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = \mu \quad P - a.s.$$

## Theorem: Tschebyscheff Inequality

Let  $(X_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  be i.i.d. square integrable real valued random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , and set

$$\mu := \mathbb{E}^P[X_i], \quad \sigma^2 := \mathbb{E}^P[(X_i - \mu)^2], \quad i \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then for any  $\epsilon, \delta > 0$  we have

$$P\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu\right| \geq \epsilon\right) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2 n}.$$

and

$$P\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu\right| \geq \frac{\sigma}{\delta^{1/2} n^{1/2}}\right) \leq \delta.$$



## Lemma

Let  $(X_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a collection of i.i.d. integrable real valued random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , and let  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Then the random variables  $(f(X_i))_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  are also i.i.d.

- The lemma above, together with the convergence results of the previous slide, allows us to approximate

$$\theta := \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)] = \int_{\Omega} f(X) dP$$

by

$$\hat{\theta} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(X_i),$$

where  $(X_i)_{i=1, \dots, n}$  are independent realizations of  $X$ .

- We can generate numerically  $n$  realizations of a random variable  $X$  with a given distribution  $P^X$ , starting from a sequence of (pseudo!) random numbers.
- One must give a *seed*, i.e., a starting point for the pseudo-random numbers sequence.
- The realizations will not be purely random, and not purely independent.

- Pro:

- It is very simple to understand and easy to implement.
- The accuracy does not depend on the domain dimension (i.e., if we simulate  $N$ -dimensional random variables the accuracy is the same).
- The accuracy can be increased by just adding more valuations without losing the previous estimates.
- The function  $f$  does not need to be continuous, but only square integrable.

- Cons:

- Look at the Tschebyscheff Inequality: we only have a probabilistic bound. The worst case error is  $\infty$ .
  - The estimates depend on the generated random sequence. The sequence is not purely random. First, one has to find a good random number generator.
- There are techniques that can be used to increase the accuracy. In the next slides we will see few of them.

## Remark

If  $X$  has uniform distribution or has a cumulative distribution function  $F$  which is easy to invert (in that case a realization  $x_i$  can be generated as  $x_i = F^{-1}(u_i)$ , with  $u_i$  realization of  $U \sim U((0, 1))$ ) then approximating  $\mathbb{E}[f(X)]$  reduces to approximate

$$\int_0^1 G(x)dx, \quad (1)$$

for  $G : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

## Theorem: Koksma-Hlawka inequality

If  $G$  has bounded total variation on  $(0, 1)$ , then for any points  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in (0, 1)$  it holds

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n G(X_i) - \int_0^1 G(x)dx \right| \leq V(G) D^*(x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

where

$$V(G) = \sup_S \sum_i |G(y_{i+1}) - G(y_i)|$$

over all partitions  $S := \{0 = y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_n = 1\}$  and  $D^*(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is the star discrepancy

$$D^*(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sup_{b \in (0,1)} \left| \frac{|\#\{x_i : 0 \leq x_i \leq b\}|}{n} - b \right|.$$

- The result in the previous slide also holds for higher dimensions (here we just wanted to simplify the notation).
- It gives the motivation to look for low discrepancy sequences.
- Most well known low discrepancy sequences: Van der Corput, Halton, Sobol, Hammersley, Sobol, Niederreiter.
- Here we don't focus on Low discrepancy sequences. A bit of references if you want to go deeper on this:
  - J. Dick and F. Pillichshammer, *Digital Nets and Sequences. Discrepancy Theory and Quasi-Monte Carlo Integration*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2010
  - M. Drmota and R. F. Tichy, *Sequences, discrepancies and applications*, Lecture Notes in Math., 1651, Springer, Berlin, 1997.
  - L. Kuipers, H. Niederreiter, *Uniform distribution of sequences*, Dover Publications, 2005.
  - ... the course *Numerical Methods for Financial Mathematics* at our master!
- We focus instead on variance reduction techniques.

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- Consider a random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and a (payoff) function  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\text{Var}[f(X)] < \infty$ .
- Monte-Carlo method: choosing  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  large enough, we approximate

$$\hat{\mu} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(X_k) \approx \mu := \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)],$$

where  $(X_k)_{k=1, \dots, n}$  are realizations of  $X$ , i.e., have same distribution as  $X$ .

- The estimator is of course *unbiased*, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}^P[\hat{\mu}] = \mathbb{E}^P\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(X_k)\right] = \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)] =: \mu$$

- We are **interested in** the variance of our estimator, i.e., in the quantity

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\mu}) = \mathbb{E}^P\left[\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(X_k) - \mu\right)^2\right].$$

- We have seen that if  $(X_i)_{i=1,\dots,n}$  are independent, we have convergence results for our estimator. Moreover,

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\mu}) = \mathbb{E}^P \left[ \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(X_i) - \mu \right)^2 \right] = \frac{1}{n} \text{Var}[f(X)].$$

- It makes sense: the larger the number  $n$  of simulated realizations of  $X$ , the smaller the variance of our estimator.
- In particular, we have to increase the number of simulations by a factor of  $C$  to reduce the standard deviation by a factor of  $\sqrt{C}$ .
- The question now is: can we do it better?
- **Variance reduction techniques** aim to **reduce the variance of our estimator, without increasing the number of simulations.**



Three well known variance reduction techniques are:

- Antithetic variables
- Control variates
- Importance sampling

We will focus mostly on the first two techniques, together with applied examples. Here some references if you want to deepen Importance sampling:

- A, Bouhari. *Adaptative Monte Carlo Method, A Variance Reduction Technique*. Monte Carlo Methods and Their Applications. 10 (1): 1-24, 2004.
- P. J. Smith, M. Shafi, H. Gao. *Quick simulation: A review of importance sampling techniques in communication systems*. IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Communications. 15 (4): 597-613, 1997.
- Again, the course *Numerical Methods for Financial Mathematics* at our master!

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  - Introduction
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- Calibration of the Binomial model
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# Let's start from a simple result..

## Lemma

Let  $f, h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be two monotone functions, both increasing or both decreasing, and let  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a random variable defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}^P[f(X)h(X)] \geq \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)]\mathbb{E}^P[h(X)].$$

## Proof

The monotonicity assumption on  $f$  and  $h$  implies that for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$(f(x) - f(y))(h(x) - h(y)) \geq 0.$$

Therefore, for any i.i.d. real valued random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  it holds

$$(f(X) - f(Y))(h(X) - h(Y)) \geq 0$$

and then

$$\mathbb{E}[(f(X) - f(Y))(h(X) - h(Y))] \geq 0,$$

so that

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X)h(X)] + \mathbb{E}[f(Y)h(Y)] \geq \mathbb{E}[f(Y)h(X)] + \mathbb{E}[f(X)h(Y)].$$

Since  $X$  and  $Y$  are identically distributed, it follows that

$$2\mathbb{E}[f(X)h(X)] \geq 2\mathbb{E}[f(Y)h(X)],$$

and since they are also independent, this implies that

$$\mathbb{E}^P[f(X)h(X)] \geq \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)]\mathbb{E}^P[h(X)].$$

## Proposition

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a monotone function, and  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  a random variable defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . Then

$$\text{Cov}[f(X), f(-X)] \leq 0.$$

## Proof

We have that

$$\text{Cov}[f(X), f(-X)] = \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)f(-X)] - \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)]\mathbb{E}^P[f(-X)].$$

The result then follows since a direct application of the Lemma of the previous slide with  $h(x) := -f(-x)$  implies that

$$\mathbb{E}^P[f(X)]\mathbb{E}^P[f(-X)] \geq \mathbb{E}^P[f(X)f(-X)].$$

# Application to Monte-Carlo

- Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a monotone function, and let  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a **symmetric** random variable defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ .
- From the last proposition we know that

$$\text{Cov}[f(X), f(-X)] \leq 0.$$

- Idea: choose  $n$  even and generate  $n/2$  realizations of  $X$ , call them  $(X_i)_{i=1, \dots, n/2}$ . Then define  $X_{n/2+i} := -X_i, i = 1, \dots, n/2$ .
- Since  $X$  is symmetric, the estimator is unbiased:

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mu}] = \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} f(X_i) + \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} f(-X_i) \right] = \frac{1}{n} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} \mathbb{E}[f(X_i)] + \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} \mathbb{E}[f(-X_i)] \right) = \mu.$$

- What about the variance?

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}[\hat{\mu}] &= \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} f(X_i) + \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} f(-X_i) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \left( n \text{Var}[f(X)] + \text{Cov} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} f(X_i), \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} f(-X_i) \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \text{Var}[f(X)] + \frac{1}{n} \text{Cov}[f(X), f(-X)] \leq \frac{1}{n} \text{Var}[f(X)]. \end{aligned}$$

- To recap: if  $X$  is symmetric, then setting  $X_{n/2+i} := -X_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n/2$  gives us an unbiased estimator  $\hat{\mu}$  such that

$$\text{Var}[\hat{\mu}] \leq \frac{1}{n} \text{Var}[f(X)].$$

- But  $\frac{1}{n} \text{Var}[f(X)]$  is the variance of the classical estimator, when we generate  $n$  i.i.d. realizations of  $X$ !
- In this way, we reduce the variance of the estimator.
- This approach is known as Antithetic variables.

- Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a monotone function, and let  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a random variable defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ .
- Suppose  $X$  to be not symmetric. How can we apply Antithetic variables to reduce the variance of our estimator?
- Call  $F$  the cumulative distribution function of  $X$ . Suppose that we know (at least a good approximation of)  $F^{-1}$ .
- Well known result: let  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$  and define  $Y := F^{-1}(U)$ . Then  $X$  and  $Y$  have same distribution.
- Let  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ . Because of the result above, we have

$$\mathbb{E}^P[f(X)] = \mathbb{E}^P[h(U)]$$

with  $h(x) = f \circ F^{-1}$ .

- Since  $U$  is symmetric, we can approximate  $\mathbb{E}^P[h(U)]$  by Antithetic variables.

## Example: valuation of a call option under Black-Scholes

- We want to test the benefits of using Antithetic variables in the valuation of a call option under the Black-Scholes model.
- This is indeed a case when we have of course the benchmark of the analytic formula for a call option.
- In particular, we want to approximate the expectation  $\mathbb{E}^P[g(X_T)]$  for  $T > 0$ , in the case when

$$g(x) = (x - K)^+$$

with  $K > 0$  and  $X = (X_t)_{0 \leq t \leq T}$  is a stochastic process with initial value  $X_0 = x_0$  and dynamics

$$dX_t = rX_t dt + \sigma X_t dW_t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T,$$

where  $W = (W_t)_{0 \leq t \leq T}$  is  $P$ -Brownian motion.

- Interpretation:  $r$  is the risk free rate and  $P$  is the martingale measure, i.e., the probability measure under which the discounted process  $(e^{-rt}X_t)_{0 \leq t \leq T}$  is a martingale.



- The problem reduces to the valuation of the expectation

$$\mathbb{E}^P[g(X - K)^+]$$

where  $X$  is the random variable

$$X = X_0 e^{(r - \sigma^2)T + \sigma \sqrt{T}Z},$$

with  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .

- That is, we have to value

$$\mathbb{E}^P[f(Z)]$$

where

$$f(z) = \left( X_0 e^{(r - \sigma^2)T + \sigma \sqrt{T}z} - K \right)^+.$$

- So, we have a function of a symmetric random variable! We can directly use Antithetic variables.
- We simulate  $n/2$  realizations  $(z_i)_{i=1, \dots, n/2}$  of a standard normal random variable and then define  $z_{i+n/2} = -z_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n/2$ .

- In the Python package

```
montecarlovariancereduction.antitheticvariables
```

you can find the code relative to the comparison of Antithetic variables against the standard Monte-Carlo method.

- In particular, in the class `GenerateBlackScholes` we generate the values of

$$X = X_0 e^{(r-\sigma^2)T + \sigma\sqrt{T}Z},$$

starting from the ones of  $Z$ . We do this using both the standard Monte-Carlo approach and the Antithetic variables approach illustrated in the previous slide.

- Note that the method

```
numpy.random.standard_normal(n)
```

generates  $n$  returns of a standard normal random variable. In this case, we give no seed: it will be different every time this method is called.

In

```
antitheticVariablesTest
```

and

```
compareStandardMCWithAV
```

we do the following experiment:

- We fix the parameters  $X_0 = K = 100$ ,  $T = 3$ ,  $r = 0.05$ ,  $\sigma = 0.5$ .
- For any number of simulations  $n = 10^3, 10^4, 10^5$  and  $10^6$ , we perform 100 different valuations of the price of the call option, both with the standard and the Antithetic variables Monte-Carlo method.
- We then compute the average percentage error for both the methods.

The following table illustrates the results:

	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^6$
av. % error standard MC	6.25	2.07	0.59	0.20
av. % error AV	5.51	1.77	0.53	0.17

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- **Variance reduction techniques**
  - Introduction
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  - **Control variates**

## 2 Option pricing under the Binomial model

- Motivation and setting
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- Let  $X, Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be two random variables defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ .
- Suppose you know the analytic value of

$$a := \mathbb{E}^P[X], \quad \sigma_X^2 := \text{Var}[X], \quad \sigma_{XY} := \text{Cov}[X, Y],$$

and also suppose  $\sigma_{XY} > 0$ .

- Assume you want to approximate

$$b := \mathbb{E}^P[Y]$$

- The goal is to find an unbiased estimator of  $b$  which has low variance.

- Idea: simulate  $n$  realizations  $(x_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , of  $(X, Y)$ . Compute then

$$\hat{a} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \quad \hat{b} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i.$$

- Note that

$$\text{Cov}[\hat{a}, \hat{b}] = \frac{1}{n} \sigma_{XY}.$$

- What about an estimator

$$\hat{b}_{CV} := \hat{b} - \beta(\hat{a} - a)$$

for a given  $\beta > 0$ ?

- It is unbiased:

$$\mathbb{E}^P[\hat{b}_{CV}] = \mathbb{E}^P[\hat{b}] + \beta \mathbb{E}^P[\hat{a} - a] = b.$$

- What about the variance?

$$\text{Var}[\hat{b}_{CV}] = \frac{1}{n} \sigma_Y^2 + \beta^2 \frac{1}{n} \sigma_X^2 - 2\beta \frac{1}{n} \sigma_{XY}.$$

- It is minimized by  $\beta = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X^2}$ . For such a value of  $\beta$ , we find

$$\text{Var}[\hat{b}_{CV}] = \text{Var}[\hat{b}] - \frac{1}{n} \frac{\sigma_{XY}^2}{\sigma_X^2}.$$

- We have seen that taking

$$\hat{b}_{CV} := \hat{b} - \beta(\hat{a} - a), \quad \beta = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X^2}$$

gives an optimal variance

$$\text{Var}[\hat{b}_{CV}] = \text{Var}[\hat{b}] - \frac{1}{m} \frac{\sigma_{XY}^2}{\sigma_X^2}.$$

- Note that the gain of the new estimator with respect to the old one only depends on the correlation of  $X$  and  $Y$ :

$$\frac{\text{Var}[\hat{b}_{CV}]}{\text{Var}[\hat{b}]} = \left(1 - \frac{\sigma_{XY}^2}{\sigma_X^2}\right) = 1 - \rho_{XY}^2.$$

- **Problem:** we have to compute  $\beta = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X^2}$ , but often we don't know  $\sigma_X^2$  and  $\sigma_{XY}$ .
- **Solution:** estimate  $\sigma_X^2$  and  $\sigma_{XY}$  from the generated sample, i.e., set

$$\hat{\sigma}_X^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \hat{a})^2, \quad \hat{\sigma}_{XY} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \hat{a})(y_i - \hat{b})$$

and choose

$$\beta = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{XY}}{\hat{\sigma}_X^2}.$$

- Note that this last choice of  $\beta$  actually depends on the sample  $\{(x_i, y_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.\}$
- For this reason, the associated estimator  $\hat{b}_{CV} := \hat{b} - \beta(\hat{a} - a)$  is unbiased only asymptotically.

### Exercise: multi-dimensional control variates

Consider now the case when  $X$  has values in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $N \geq 1$ .

Assume you know the  $N \times N$  matrix  $\text{Cov}(X) =: \Sigma_X$  and the  $N$ -dimensional vector  $\text{Cov}(X) = \sigma_{X,Y}$ . Also assume that  $\Sigma_X$  is positive definite.

Consider the estimator

$$\hat{b}_{CV} = \hat{b} - (\hat{a} - a)^T \beta,$$

where  $\beta$  is a  $N$ -dimensional vector.

Find the optimal  $\beta$  that minimizes the variance of the estimator above and compute the variance for the optimal  $\beta$  you found.



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  - Introduction
  - Antithetic variables
  - Control variates

## 2 Option pricing under the Binomial model

- Motivation and setting
- Simulation of the Binomial model
- Calibration of the Binomial model
- American options valuation

## 1 Monte-Carlo method for option pricing and variance reduction techniques

- The Monte-Carlo method: motivation and a brief overview
- Variance reduction techniques
  - Introduction
  - Antithetic variables
  - Control variates

## 2 Option pricing under the Binomial model

- **Motivation and setting**
- Simulation of the Binomial model
- Calibration of the Binomial model
- American options valuation

The multi-period Binomial model for option pricing is widely used by practitioners in financial applications mainly because:

- It is very easy to understand and simulate.
- It is particularly convenient to price options involving a choice of the holder, like American and Bermudan options.
- It approximates the Black-Scholes model when the length of the periods tends to zero.
- Option pricing is not based on pure Monte-Carlo techniques but relies on weighting the payoff relative to any scenario by the (analytic!) probability of the scenario.

- Consider a multi-period model with times  $t = 0, 1, \dots, T$ , and consider a **probability space**  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{F}, P)$ , where  $\mathbb{F} = (\mathcal{F}_t)_{t=0, \dots, T}$  is a filtration representing information.
- Suppose there exist:
  - A **risk free asset** defined by  $S_t^0 = (1 + \rho)^t$ ,  $t = 0, \dots, T$ , with a deterministic interest rate  $\rho > 0$ .
  - A **risky asset** adapted to  $\mathbb{F}$  defined by

$$S_t = S_0 \cdot Y_1 \cdots Y_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

where  $Y_t$  can take the two values  $d, u$  with  $0 < d < 1 + \rho < u$ , for any  $t = 1, \dots, T$ , and  $(Y_t)_{t=1, \dots, T}$  are i.i.d. and such that  $Y_{t+1}$  is independent of  $\mathcal{F}_t$ .

- It then holds

$$S_t^0 = S_{t-1}^0(1 + \rho), \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$

and

$$S_t = S_{t-1}Y_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

At every time  $t = 0, \dots, T - 1$ , an investor can construct a **portfolio of value  $V_t$** , trading on the risk-free asset  $S^0$  and on the risky asset  $S$ .

- The value of the portfolio is given by

$$V_t = \alpha_t S_t + \beta_t S_t^0, \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

where  $(\alpha_t)_{t=1, \dots, T}$  and  $(\beta_t)_{t=1, \dots, T}$  are  $\mathbb{F}$ -predictable, discrete process.

- The strategy  $(\alpha, \beta)$  must be **self-financing**: it must hold

$$V_t = \alpha_t S_t + \beta_t S_t^0 = \alpha_{t-1} S_t + \beta_{t-1} S_t^0, \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

## Definition

A portfolio  $V$  is an **arbitrage** if:

- $V$  is obtained by a self-financing and predictable strategy;
- $P(V_0 = 0) = 1$ ;
- $P(V_t \geq 0) = 1$  and  $P(V_t > 0) > 0$  for some  $t$ .

## Proposition

The market is **arbitrage free** only if  $d < 1 + \rho < u$ .

- Suppose  $1 + \rho \leq d < u$ , and consider the self-financing portfolio defined by

$$V_t = S_t - \frac{S_0}{S_0^0} S_t^0, \quad t = 0, 1, \dots, T.$$

Then we have  $V_0 = 0$  and

$$V_1 = S_1 - \frac{S_0}{S_0^0} S_1^0 \geq S_0 d - S_0(1 + \rho) \geq 0.$$

- If  $d < u \leq 1 + \rho$ , changing the signs to the strategy above leads to an arbitrage

# Equivalent martingale measure

In order for the market to be arbitrage-free and complete, **there must exist a unique measure  $Q \sim P$  such that  $\frac{S}{S^0}$  is a martingale**, i.e., such that

$$\mathbb{E}^Q \left[ \frac{S_{t+1}}{S_{t+1}^0} \middle| \mathcal{F}_t \right] = \frac{S_t}{S_t^0}, \quad t = 0, \dots, T-1. \quad (2)$$

Note that the measure  $Q$  is identified by the probability  $q := P(Y_t = u)$ . Since

$$\mathbb{E}^Q \left[ \frac{S_{t+1}}{S_{t+1}^0} \middle| \mathcal{F}_t \right] = \frac{(qu + (1-q)d)S_t}{S_t^0(1+\rho)}, \quad t = 0, \dots, T-1,$$

equation (2) holds if and only if  $qu + (1-q)d = 1 + \rho$ , that is,

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

Such  $Q$  exists and is unique as we have supposed  $0 < d < 1 + \rho < u$ , and

$$\frac{dQ}{dP}(\omega) = \left( \frac{q}{p} \right)^{n(\omega)} \left( \frac{1-q}{1-p} \right)^{T-n(\omega)},$$

where  $p := P(Y_t = u)$  and  $n(\omega)$  is the number of times  $t = 1, \dots, T$  when  $Y_t(\omega) = u$ .

- Assume we want to find an admissible strategy  $(\alpha_t, \beta_t)$ ,  $t = 0, \dots, T$ , such that the value of the portfolio

$$\alpha_t S_t + \beta_t (1 + \rho)^t$$

equals the value  $V_t$  of an option at every time  $t = 0, \dots, T$ .

- From now on, fix  $t = 1, \dots, T$ , and suppose we know  $S_{t-1}$ .
- Call  $V_t^u$  the value of the option at time  $t$  when  $Y_t = u$  and  $V_t^d$  the value of the option at time  $t$  when  $Y_t = d$ .
- It must hold

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_t u S_{t-1} + \beta_t (1 + \rho)^t = V_t^u, \\ \alpha_t d S_{t-1} + \beta_t (1 + \rho)^t = V_t^d. \end{cases}$$

- The solution to the system above is

$$\alpha_t = \frac{V_t^u - V_t^d}{S_{t-1}(u - d)},$$
$$\beta_t = \frac{u V_t^d - d V_t^u}{(1 + \rho)^t (u - d)}.$$

and gives the right replicating strategy.



- Remember that our strategy  $(\alpha_t, \beta_t)$ ,  $t = 0, \dots, T$ , has to be admissible!
- This means that we must have that

$$\begin{aligned} V_{t-1} &= \alpha_{t-1} S_{t-1} + \beta_{t-1} (1 + \rho)^{t-1} \\ &= \alpha_t S_{t-1} + \beta_t (1 + \rho)^{t-1} \\ &= \frac{V_t^u - V_t^d}{u - d} + \frac{u V_t^d - d V_t^u}{(1 + \rho)(u - d)} \\ &= \frac{(1 + \rho)(V_t^u - V_t^d) + u V_t^d - d V_t^u}{(1 + \rho)(u - d)} \\ &= \frac{(1 + \rho - d) V_t^u + (u - 1 - \rho) V_t^d}{(1 + \rho)(u - d)} \\ &= \frac{q V_t^u + (1 - q) V_t^d}{1 + \rho} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \rho} \mathbb{E}^Q[V_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}]. \end{aligned}$$

- Then we have that the value  $(V_t)_{t=0, \dots, T}$  of the option is a martingale under  $Q$ .
- This gives us a pricing theorem.

## Theorem

The value  $V_0$  of a contingent claim with maturity  $T$  and payoff  $V_T$  depending on the realizations of  $S$  until time  $T$ , is given by

$$V_0 = \frac{1}{(1 + \rho)^T} \mathbb{E}^Q[V_T].$$

## Remark

Because of the theorem above, we always simulate our Binomial model under the risk neutral measure  $Q$ .

## 1 Monte-Carlo method for option pricing and variance reduction techniques

- The Monte-Carlo method: motivation and a brief overview
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  - Control variates

## 2 Option pricing under the Binomial model

- Motivation and setting
- **Simulation of the Binomial model**
- Calibration of the Binomial model
- American options valuation

- Our main goal here is to get the price of European and (most importantly) American options written on an underlying Binomial model.
- This valuation will approximate the price of the options written on an underlying log-normal model.
- We then simulate the realizations of the underlying model in Python, and get the payoff on the realizations, along with its expectation.
- Remember we have to price under the risk neutral measure  $Q$ : then we simulate the realizations of the process under  $Q$ .
- The most naive way we can imagine to do this is a brute force Monte-Carlo approximation..

- Imagine we want to value the discounted price of an European option with a given payoff function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , written on the process  $S$ , with maturity  $T$ .
- Suppose we don't know any analytic formula in order to derive the price as

$$V_0 = \frac{1}{(1 + \rho)^T} \mathbb{E}^Q[f(S_T)].$$

- We consider  $N$  *states of the world*  $\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_N \in \Omega$ .
- To any  $\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_N$ , we associate a given trajectory of the process  $(S_t)_{t=0, \dots, T}$ , with dynamics given under the measure  $Q$ .
- In particular, we suppose that the trajectories  $(S_t(\omega_k))_{t=0, \dots, T}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, N$  are *independent* of each other.
- Strong law of large numbers:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(S_T(\omega_k)) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}^Q[f(S_T)] \quad \text{a.s., when } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- The idea is to simulate such trajectories and approximate

$$\mathbb{E}^Q[f(S_T)] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N f(S_T(\omega_k)).$$

- Our first goal is then to generate a sequence of random numbers in order to simulate  $N$  independent trajectories  $(S_t(\omega_k))_{t=0,\dots,T}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, N$  of  $S$  under the risk neutral measure  $Q$ , and store them in a  $(T+1) \times N$  matrix.
- First (not that) bad news: it is not possible to generate a sequence of perfectly random numbers, the best we can get is a sequence of *pseudo*-random numbers.
- Idea: **generate** (with the help of Python in our case) a sequence of  $T \cdot N$  **uniformly distributed, pseudo-random numbers**  $0 < x_{i,j} < 1$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, T$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, N$ .
- Fix  $\rho > 0$ ,  $u > 1 + \rho$ ,  $d < 1$ ,  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d}$ .
- For every  $i = 1, \dots, T$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, N$ , define

$$Y_i(\omega_j) = \begin{cases} u & \text{if } x_{i,j} < q \\ d & \text{if } x_{i,j} \geq q \end{cases}$$

and

$$S_{i+1}(\omega_j) = Y_i(\omega_j)S_i(\omega_j).$$

- You can find the code relative to the simulation of the Binomial model with the pure Monte-Carlo approach described above in

```
binomialmodel.creationandcalibration.binomialModelMonteCarlo
```

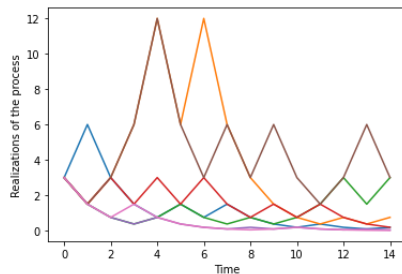
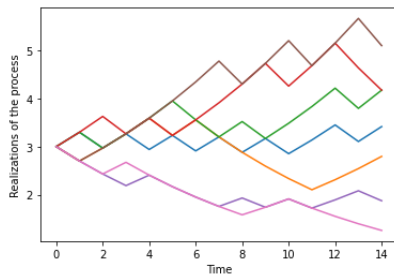
- Note that the class you find there extends the one in

```
binomialmodel.creationandcalibration.binomialModel.
```

- This is done in order to implement in the parent class some methods that do not strictly depend on the way in which we simulate the process.
- In this way, we don't have to copy and paste these methods in every class where we simulate the model in some way: object oriented programming feature.

# Some paths

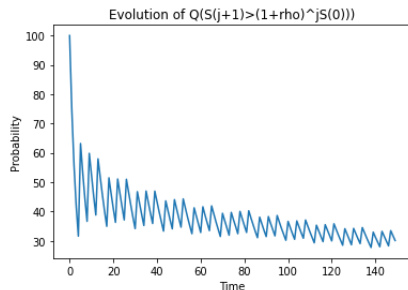
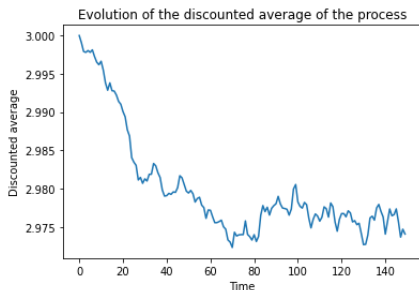
- We plot below some paths of the Binomial model.
- In the figure at the left we take  $S_0 = 3$ ,  $u = 1.1$ ,  $d = 0.9$ ,  $r = 0.05$ ,  $T = 150$ , having then  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} = 0.75$ .
- On the right,  $S_0 = 3$ ,  $u = 2$ ,  $d = 0.5$ ,  $r = 0.1$ ,  $T = 150$ ,  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} = 0.4$ .





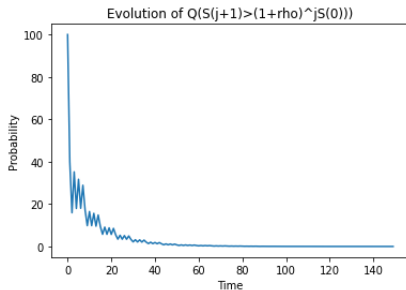
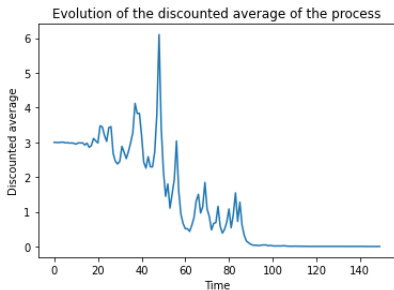
# A first test

We show here the evolution of the discounted average of the process and of the probability  $Q(S_{t_j} > (1 + \rho)^{t_j} S_0)$ , computed by using the Monte-Carlo method with  $10^5$  simulations, for  $S_0 = 3$ ,  $u = 1.1$ ,  $d = 0.9$ ,  $r = 0.05$ ,  $T = 150$ . In this case, we have  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} = 0.75$ .



## But something can go wrong..

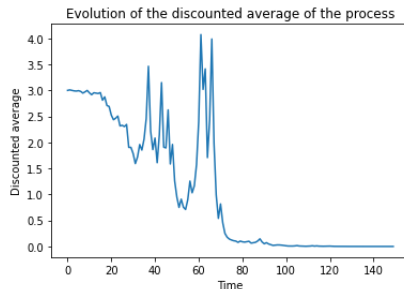
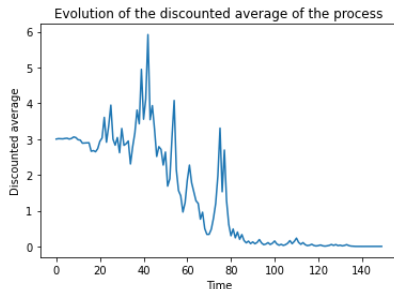
Look at the evolution of the same quantities, again computed by using the Monte-Carlo method, choosing now  $S_0 = 3$ ,  $u = 2$ ,  $d = 0.5$ ,  $r = 0.1$ ,  $T = 150$ ,  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} = 0.4$ .



## Why is the estimate of the average that inaccurate?

- The analytic average of the discounted process is equal to  $S_0$ , due to many realizations such that  $S_{t_j} < (1 + \rho)^{t_j} S_0$  and few, extremely high realizations.
- If you buy  $S$  at time  $t = 0$ , and you hold it for 150 time steps, you make a positive gain with a very low probability, but the gain can be extremely high.
- **Problem:** The approximated average is strongly impacted by whether or not those paths leading to high gains are simulated or not.

# Let's choose two different seeds, for the same parameters



## Maybe a pure Monte-Carlo approach is not the best solution..

- We have seen that, if the volatility is high, the Monte-Carlo approach can be very inaccurate for many time steps.
- Moreover, it is time consuming (this is a problem common to all brute-force Monte-Carlo approaches)
- **Idea:** let us exploit some analytic properties of the Binomial model..

- At the  $n$ -th time step,  $n + 1$  realizations of the process are possible:  $S_0 u^n, S_0 u^{n-1} d, \dots, S_0 u d^{n-1}, S_0 d^n$ .
- The number of ups and downs is given by a Bernoulli distribution:

$$P(S_n = S_0 u^k d^{n-k}) = \binom{n}{k} q^k (1 - p)^{n-k}.$$

- Using the expression above, we can compute

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}^Q[f(S_n)] &= \sum_{k=0}^n Q(S_n = S_0 u^k d^{n-k}) f(S_0 u^k d^{n-k}) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} q^k (1 - q)^{n-k} f(S_0 u^k d^{n-k}). \end{aligned}$$

- The idea is then to generate all the possible realizations of the process up to a given time, and to weight them by their probability.
- You can find the code relative to the this approach in

`binomialmodel.creationandcalibration.binomialModelSmart`,  
whose class also extends the one in

`binomialmodel.creationandcalibration.binomialModel`.

- Doing some tests in  
`binomialmodel.creationandcalibration.binomialModelSmartTest`.  
you can observe that, in this way, the average of the discounted process is stable.
- Moreover, this approach is of course much faster.

# Computation of $Q(S_n > S_0(1 + \rho)^n)$ , $n = 1, \dots, T$

- Note that for any  $k = 0, \dots, n$  it holds

$$\begin{aligned} S_n = S_0 u^k d^{n-k} > S_0(1 + \rho)^n &\iff u^k d^{n-k} > (1 + \rho)^n \\ &\iff \left(\frac{u}{d}\right)^k > \left(\frac{1 + \rho}{d}\right)^n \\ &\iff k > n \log_{\frac{u}{d}} \left(\frac{1 + \rho}{d}\right). \end{aligned}$$

- Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} Q(S_n > S_0(1 + \rho)^n) &= \sum_{k=\bar{k}}^n Q(S_n = S_0 u^k d^{n-k}) \\ &= \sum_{k=\bar{k}}^n \binom{n}{k} q^k (1 - q)^{n-k} f(S_0 u^k d^{n-k}), \end{aligned}$$

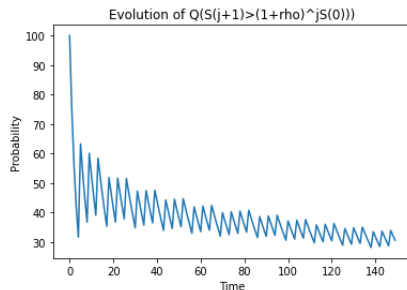
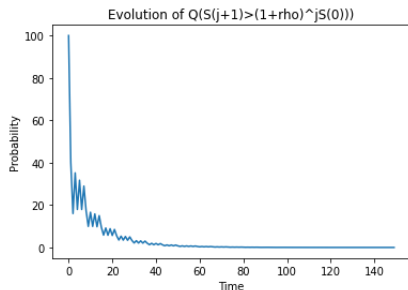
where

$$\bar{k} = \min \left\{ k \in \mathbb{N} : k > n \log_{\frac{u}{d}} \left( \frac{1 + \rho}{d} \right) \right\} \leq n.$$



# Evolution of the probability plotted with Python

We show here the evolution of the probability computed above, over 150 time steps. On the left, we have parameters  $S_0 = 3$ ,  $u = 1.1$ ,  $d = 0.9$ ,  $\rho = 0.1$ ,  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} = 0.75$ . On the right,  $S_0 = 3$ ,  $u = 2$ ,  $d = 0.5$ ,  $\rho = 0.05$ ,  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} = 0.4$ .



- As seen before, an application of the simulation of the Binomial model in this way is the valuation of European options, under the pricing measure  $Q$ .
- In

`binomialmodel.optionValuation.europeanOption`,

you can see some methods relative to this.

- In particular, we compute the expectation of the payoff of European options as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}^Q[f(S_n)] &= \sum_{k=0}^n Q(S_n = S_0 u^k d^{n-k}) f(S_0 u^k d^{n-k}) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} q^k (1-q)^{n-k} f(S_0 u^k d^{n-k}).\end{aligned}$$

- We also compute the value of a general option for every time  $t = 0, \dots, T-1$ , and the corresponding self-financing, replicating strategy  $(\alpha_t, \beta_t)$ ,  $t = 0, \dots, T-1$ , described before.
- As an exercise, you can check if the final value of the portfolio given by that strategy equals the payoff, for an option of your choice.

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## 2 Option pricing under the Binomial model

- Motivation and setting
- Simulation of the Binomial model
- **Calibration of the Binomial model**
- American options valuation

- Recall that we have

$$S_t = S_0 \cdot Y_1 \cdots Y_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

where

$$Y_t = \begin{cases} u > 1 + \rho \text{ with (risk-neutral) probability } q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} \\ d < 1 \text{ with probability } 1 - q \end{cases}, \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

- Our goal is to **calibrate** the up and downs parameters  $u$  and  $d$ , supposing we know the risk neutral probability  $q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d}$  and the interest rate  $\rho > 0$ , and that we can observe

$$\text{Var}[\log(S_T/S_0)] := \mathbb{E}^Q[\log(S_T/S_0)^2] - \mathbb{E}^Q[\log(S_T/S_0)]^2$$

for a given maturity  $T$ .

- Observe first that since

$$\log(S_T/S_0) = \sum_{t=1}^T \log(Y_t),$$

and since  $(Y_t)_{t=1, \dots, T}$  are equi-distributed, we get

$$\text{Var}[\log(S_T/S_0)] = T^2 \text{Var}[\log(Y_T)].$$

## Proposition

Let

$$Y_t = \begin{cases} u > 1 + \rho \text{ with (risk-neutral) probability } q = \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} \\ d < 1 \text{ with probability } 1 - q, \end{cases}, \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

Then for any  $t = 1, \dots, T$  we have

$$\text{Var}[\log Y_t] = q(1 - q) \log(u/d)^2.$$

## Proof

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}[\log Y_t] &= \mathbb{E}^Q[\log(Y_t)^2] - \mathbb{E}^Q[\log(Y_t)]^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}^Q[\log(Y_t)^2] - (q \log(u) + (1 - q) \log(d))^2 \\ &= q \log(u)^2 + (1 - q) \log(d)^2 \\ &\quad - q^2 \log(u)^2 - (1 - q)^2 \log(d)^2 - 2q(1 - q) \log(u) \log(d) \\ &= q(1 - q) \log(u)^2 + q(1 - q) \log(d)^2 - 2q(1 - q) \log(u) \log(d) \\ &= q(1 - q) (\log(u) - \log(d))^2 \\ &= q(1 - q) \log(u/d)^2. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

- Thanks to

$$q = \frac{1 + \rho - d}{u - d}$$

and to

$$\text{Var}[\log Y_t] = q(1 - q) \log(u/d)^2,$$

along with

$$\sigma_{obs}^2 := \text{Var}[\log(S_T/S_0)] = T^2 \text{Var}[\log(Y_T)],$$

we can **get  $u$  and  $d$  from  $q$ ,  $\rho$  and  $\sigma_{obs}^2$**  by solving the nonlinear nonsystem

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1+\rho-d}{u-d} = q \\ \log(u/d)^2 = \frac{\sigma_{obs}^2}{q(1-q)} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

- We can find an approximated solution of (4) by the `fsolve` function of Python.
- Look at

`binomialmodel.creationandcalibration.binomialModelCalibration`  
to see an implementation of the calibration of  $u$  and  $d$  as showed above.

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- The holder of an American option with payoff  $f$  and maturity  $T$  on an underlying  $X$  has the right, at any time we  $t \in [0, T]$ , to hold the contract or to exercise the payoff  $f(X_t)$ .
- The **valuation of American options is more complicated** than the one of European options, since it involves an optimal exercise problem.
- In order to value such an option at time  $t$ , indeed, the conditional expectation of the future value of the option at time  $t$  has to be computed, and then compared against the present value of the payoff.
- However, the Monte-Carlo computation of a conditional expectation is very time consuming.
- One of the **strengths of the Binomial model** with respect to other settings is that it **permits a favourable pricing of American options**.
- Also when dealing with continuous time processes, with suitable dynamics, one may approximate them with a Binomial model in order to get the price.



# American options valuation under the Binomial model

- At any time  $t = 1, \dots, T$ , call  $S_t(k)$  and  $V_t(k)$  the value of the underlying and of the option, respectively, in the scenario with  $k$  ups and  $t - k$  downs up to time  $t$ .
- Idea: **proceed backward**.
- First we compute the **payoff**  $f(S_T(k)) = f(S_0 u^k d^{T-k})$ , for any  $k = 0, \dots, T$ .
- We have of course  $V_T(k) = f(S_T(k))$ , for any  $k = 0, \dots, T$ .
- At time  $T - 1$ , for any  $k = 0, \dots, T - 1$  we compute

$$\begin{aligned} V_{T-1}(k) &= \max \left( f(S_{T-1}(k)), \frac{1}{1+\rho} (qV_T(k+1) + (1-q)V_T(k)) \right) \\ &= \max \left( f(S_0 u^k d^{T-1-k}), \frac{1}{1+\rho} (qV_T(k+1) + (1-q)V_T(k)) \right). \end{aligned}$$

- For any  $t = 1, \dots, T - 2$  we compute with the same argument

$$V_t(k) = \max \left( f(S_0 u^k d^{t-k}), \frac{1}{1+\rho} (qV_t(k+1) + (1-q)V_t(k)) \right).$$

- We finally get the value of the option at initial time as

$$V_0 = \max \left( f(S_0), \frac{1}{1+\rho} (qV_1(1) + (1-q)V_1(0)) \right).$$

You can find the code relative to the the valuation of American options in

```
binomialmodel.optionValuation.AmericanOption,
```

with some tests in

```
binomialmodel.optionValuation.AmericanOptionTest,
```

# Example

We consider a put option with payoff  $f(x) = (20 - x)^+$ , and choose parameters  $T = 3$ ,  $S_0 = 20$ ,  $u = 1.1$ ,  $d = 0.9$ ,  $\rho = 0.05$ .

The triangular matrices below show us an analysis of an American option for the such parameters (row 3 shows the values for  $t = 3$  and so on).

The upper left and upper right matrices show the amount one would get if exercising the option or holding the contract, respectively; the lower left one the values of the option; the lower right one has 1 in the exercise region and 0 in the hold region

	0	1	2	3
0	0	nan	nan	nan
1	0	2	nan	nan
2	0	0.2	3.8	nan
3	0	0	2.18	5.42

	0	1	2	3
0	0.564464	nan	nan	nan
1	0.123583	1.27551	nan	nan
2	0	0.519048	2.84762	nan
3	0	0	2.18	5.42

	0	1	2	3
0	0	nan	nan	nan
1	0	2	nan	nan
2	0	0.2	3.8	nan
3	0	0	2.18	5.42

	0	1	2	3
0	0	nan	nan	nan
1	0	1	nan	nan
2	0	0	1	nan
3	1	1	1	1

# Approximating a Black-Scholes model with a Binomial model

- Consider a continuous, adapted stochastic process  $X = (X_t)_{t \geq 0}$  with dynamics

$$dX_t = rX_t dt + \sigma X_t dW_t, \quad t \geq 0,$$

where  $r, \sigma > 0$  and  $W = (W_t)_{t \geq 0}$  is a Brownian motion.

- Suppose you want to price an American option with underlying  $X$  and maturity  $T > 0$ .
- It can be seen that the dynamics of  $X = (X_t)_{0 \leq t \leq T}$  can be **approximated by  $N$  time steps of a Binomial model with parameters**

$$u = e^{\sigma\sqrt{T/N}}, \quad d = 1/u, \quad \rho = e^{r\sqrt{T/N}}, \quad (5)$$

**for  $N$  large enough**, see for example .

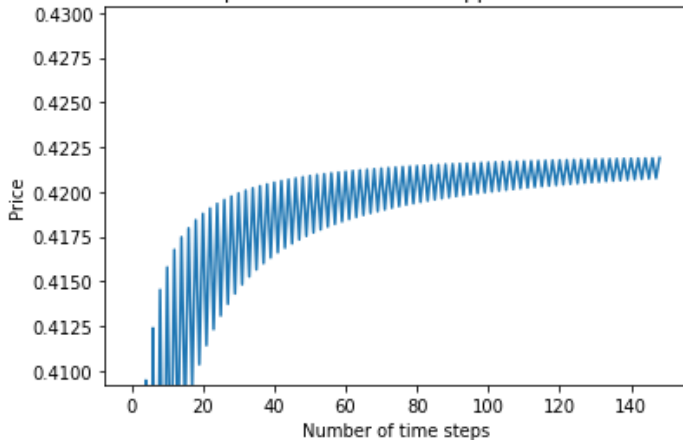
- The idea is to **approximate the price of the American option** of maturity  $T$  with the price of an American option with maturity  $N$  written a Binomial model with parameters as in (5), for  $N$  large enough.
- Indeed, the price of the American option written on the Binomial model can be found as illustrated before.

## Example: not such a nice behaviour

We consider an American put option with payoff  $f(x) = (1 - x)^+$  and maturity  $T = 3$ , written on a Black-Scholes model with parameters  $r = 0.02$ ,  $\sigma = 0.7$ .

The plot below shows the approximated price via the derivation under the Binomial model, for an increasing number of times steps up to  $N = 150$ .

Price of an American option for a BS model, approximated via binomial model



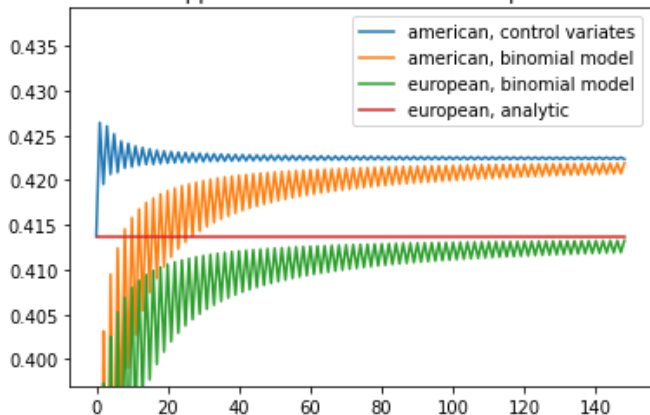
- **First idea:** we know the analytic price of an European put (or call) option under the Black-Scholes model. For example, call  $P^E$  the Black-Scholes formula price of an European put option.
- Also call:
  - $P_N^E$  the price of an European put approximated by the Binomial model with  $N$  time steps;
  - $P^A$  the analytic price of an American put;
  - $P_N^A$  the price of an American put approximated by the Binomial model with  $N$  time steps.
- **Second idea:** we know the euristics  $P^A - P_N^A \approx P^E - P_N^E$ .
- We then approximate
$$P^A \approx P_N^A + (P^E - P_N^E)$$
- This approximates the price of an American put option via control variates.
- Same thing for a call option.

## A nicer behaviour with control variates

We consider again an American put option with payoff  $f(x) = (1 - x)^+$  and maturity  $T = 3$ , written on a Black-Scholes model with parameters  $r = 0.02$ ,  $\sigma = 0.7$ : same situation as before

The plot below compares the prices introduced in the previous slide, for an increasing number of times steps up to  $N = 150$ .

Control variates approximation of an American option for a BS model



- You can find some experiments relative to the stability of approximations of prices of American options with the Binomial model in  
`binomialmodel.optionValuation.AmericanOptionPriceConvergence,`
- The code performing the control variates approach can be found in  
`binomialmodel.optionValuation.controlVariates,`  
with some tests in  
`binomialmodel.optionValuation.controlVariatesTest.`