Stochastics

Topics:

In [1]:

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],

]])

- Random Number Generation
- Simulation (random variables, stochastic processes)
- Valuation (valuation of derivatives with European, American, Asian, and Bermudan style of exercise)
- Risk Measures (value-at-risk, credit value-at-risk, and credit value adjustments)

Random Numbers

```
import numpy as np
import numpy.random as npr
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline
rand returns an indexray object consisting of random numbers from the interval [0,1)
In [2]:
npr.rand(10)
Out[2]:
array([0.65971548, 0.25462597, 0.16869119, 0.53752778, 0.79929025,
       0.56252085, 0.91626506, 0.77937122, 0.11993754, 0.99532717]
)
In [3]:
npr.rand(5, 5)
Out[3]:
array([[0.2791498 , 0.68817002, 0.65813045, 0.3740111 , 0.53398104
],
       [0.23860734, 0.45659534, 0.71778852, 0.88817736, 0.86777875
```

[0.90632477, 0.60293151, 0.37351966, 0.78102658, 0.71467225

[0.96327 , 0.46450252, 0.73839283, 0.83688248, 0.6489014

[0.1716289 , 0.37468027, 0.87514984, 0.0447683 , 0.31598981

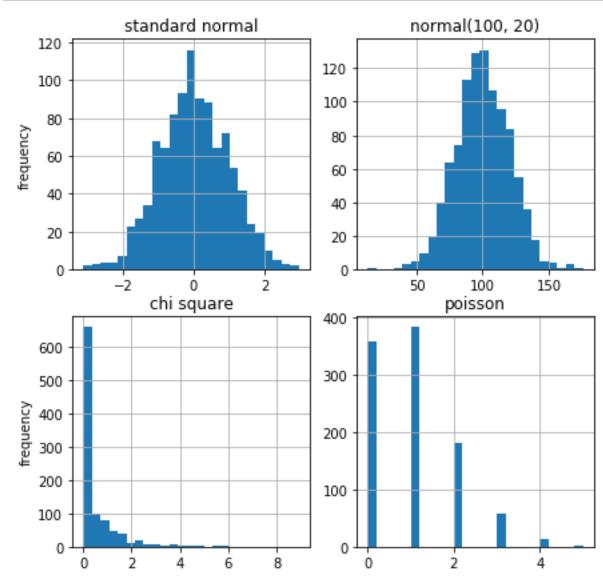
```
b = 10.
npr.rand(10) * (b - a) + a
Out[4]:
array([6.46178674, 9.12709478, 5.5063919, 7.21533804, 8.10712051,
       5.20748612, 9.2117198 , 7.41677953, 5.93649662, 5.01824978]
)
In [5]:
npr.rand(5, 5) * (b - a) + a
Out[5]:
array([[6.26536243, 9.74612651, 5.79392468, 5.7191098 , 6.32434576
],
       [8.35748234, 8.24012027, 5.00667965, 6.37531411, 9.13505779
],
       [9.89028795, 6.70068034, 9.3450895 , 6.6439488 , 8.4775376
],
       [5.87799901, 6.94417731, 7.36476693, 7.57256732, 5.98931831
],
       [8.29498791, 8.61493437, 5.72152268, 5.78676146, 7.81317262
]])
In [6]:
sample size = 1000
rn1 = npr.standard normal(sample size)
rn2 = npr.normal(100, 20, sample size)
rn3 = npr.chisquare(df=0.5, size=sample size)
rn4 = npr.poisson(lam=1.0, size=sample size)
```

In [4]:

a = 5.

In [7]:

```
fig, ((ax1, ax2), (ax3, ax4)) = plt.subplots(nrows=2, ncols=2, figsize=(7, 7))
ax1.hist(rn1, bins=25)
ax1.set_title('standard normal')
ax1.set_ylabel('frequency')
ax1.grid(True)
ax2.hist(rn2, bins=25)
ax2.set_title('normal(100, 20)')
ax2.grid(True)
ax3.hist(rn3, bins=25)
ax3.set_title('chi square')
ax3.set_ylabel('frequency')
ax3.grid(True)
ax4.hist(rn4, bins=25)
ax4.set_title('poisson')
ax4.grid(True)
```



Simulation

Monte Carlo Simulation

- among the most (if not the most) flexible numerical method when it comes to derivative valuation
- come at the cost of a relatively high computational burden

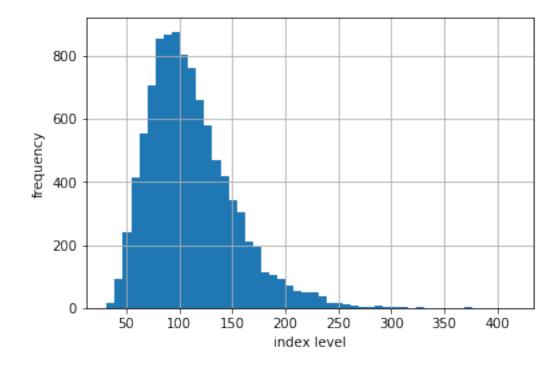
Random Variables

In [8]:

```
S0 = 100.
r = 0.05
sigma = 0.25
T = 2.0
I = 10000
ST1 = S0 * np.exp((r - sigma ** 2 / 2) * T + sigma * np.sqrt(T) * npr.standard
_normal(I))
```

In [9]:

```
plt.hist(ST1, bins=50)
plt.xlabel('index level')
plt.ylabel('frequency')
plt.grid(True)
# log-normal?
```

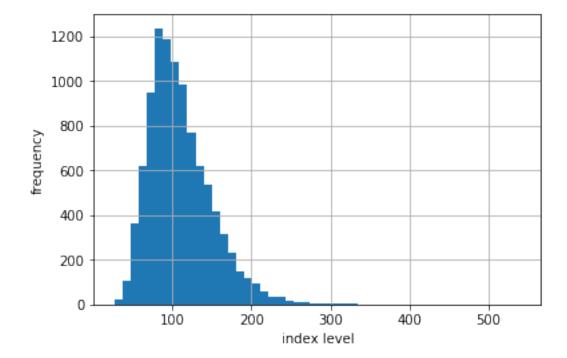


In [10]:

```
ST2 = S0 * npr.lognormal((r - sigma ** 2 / 2) * T, sigma * np.sqrt(T), size=I)
```

In [11]:

```
plt.hist(ST2, bins=50)
plt.xlabel('index level')
plt.ylabel('frequency')
plt.grid(True)
```



In [12]:

import scipy.stats as scs

In [13]:

```
def print_statistics(a1, a2):
    sta1 = scs.describe(a1)
    sta2 = scs.describe(a2)
    print('{:14s} {:14s} {:14s}'.format('statistic', 'data set 1', 'data set 2')))
    print(45 * '-')
    print('{:14s} {:14.3f} {:14.3f}'.format('size', sta1[0], sta2[0]))
    print('{:14s} {:14.3f} {:14.3f}'.format('min', sta1[1][0], sta2[1][0]))
    print('{:14s} {:14.3f} {:14.3f}'.format('max', sta1[1][1], sta2[1][1]))
    print('{:14s} {:14.3f} {:14.3f}'.format('mean', sta1[2], sta2[2]))
    print('{:14s} {:14.3f} {:14.3f}'.format('std', np.sqrt(sta1[3]), np.sqrt(sta2[3])))
    print('{:14s} {:14.3f} {:14.3f}'.format('skw', sta1[4], sta2[4]))
    print('{:14s} {:14.3f} {:14.3f}'.format('kurtosis', sta1[5], sta2[5]))
```

In [14]:

print_statistics(ST1, ST2)

statistic	data set 1	data set 2
size	10000.000	10000.000
min	31.494	26.569
max	414.896	540.804
mean	111.006	110.357
std	40.727	40.230
skw	1.135	1.198
kurtosis	2.266	3.385

Stochastic Processes

Roughly speaking, a stochastic process is a sequence of random variables. In general, stochastic processes in finance exhibit the Markov property, which states that tomorrow's value of the process only depends on today's state of the process, and not more "historic" state. The process is also called memoryless.

Geometric Brownian Motion

Stochastic differential equations in BSM setup:

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \sigma S_t dZ_t$$

This SDE can be discretized by an Euler scheme:

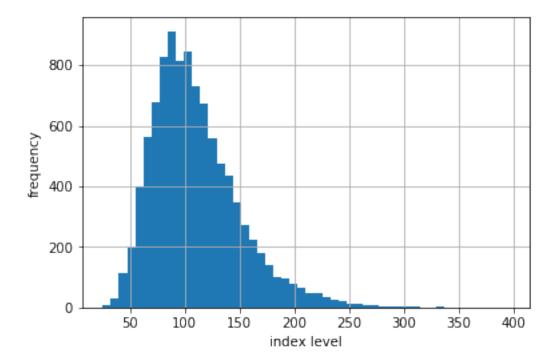
$$S_t = S_{t-\Delta t} \exp\left(\left(r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\right)\Delta t + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}z_t\right)$$

In [15]:

```
I = 10000
M = 50
dt = T / M
S = np.zeros((M + 1, I))
S[0] = S0
for t in range(1, M + 1):
    S[t] = S[t - 1] * np.exp((r - sigma ** 2 / 2) * dt + sigma * np.sqrt(dt) * npr.standard_normal(I))
```

In [16]:

```
plt.hist(S[-1], bins=50)
plt.xlabel('index level')
plt.ylabel('frequency')
plt.grid(True)
```



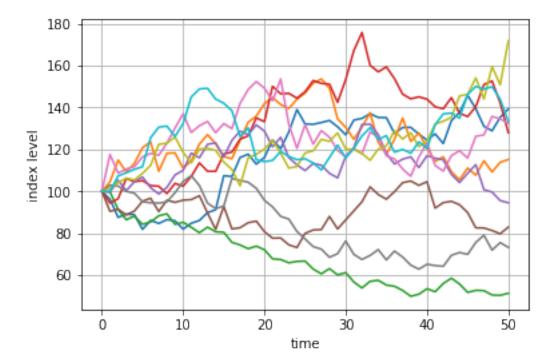
In [17]:

print_statistics(S[-1], ST2)

statistic	data set 1	data set 2
size	10000.000	10000.000
min	25.119	26.569
max	395.691	540.804
mean	110.063	110.357
std	40.354	40.230
skw	1.161	1.198
kurtosis	2.337	3.385

In [18]:

```
plt.plot(S[:, :10], lw=1.5)
plt.xlabel('time')
plt.ylabel('index level')
plt.grid(True)
```



This is useful when valuing options with American/Bermudan exercise or options whose payoff is path-dependent.

Square-root Diffusion

Another important class of financial processes is *mean-reversion processes*, which are used to model short rates or volatility processes. Mean reversion is financial theory suggesting that asset prices and returns eventually return back to the long-run mean or average of the entire dataset.

Stochastic differential equation for square-root diffusion

$$dx_t = \kappa (\theta - x_t) dt + \sigma \sqrt{x_t} dZ_t$$

 x_t : process level at date t

 κ : mean-reversion factor

 θ : long-term mean of the process

 σ : constant valotility parameter

Z: standard Brownian motion

Euler discretization for square-root diffusion

$$\tilde{x}_{t} = \tilde{x}_{s} + \kappa (\theta - \tilde{x}_{s}^{+}) \Delta t + \sigma \sqrt{\tilde{x}_{s}^{+}} \sqrt{\Delta t} z_{t}$$

$$x_{t} = \tilde{x}_{t}^{+}$$

In [19]:

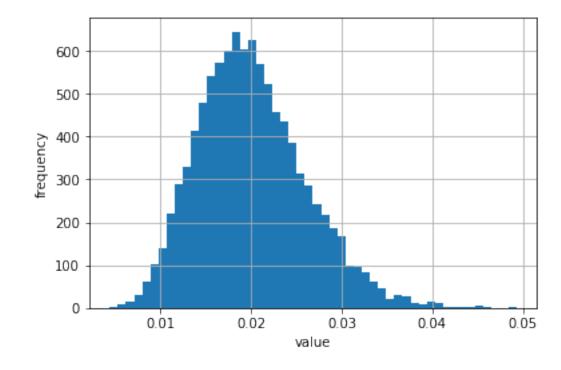
```
x0 = 0.05
kappa = 3.0
theta = 0.02
sigma = 0.1
```

In [20]:

```
I = 10000
M = 50
dt = T / M
def srd_euler():
    xh = np.zeros((M + 1, I))
    x1 = np.zeros_like(xh)
    xh[0] = x0
    x1[0] = x0
    for t in range(1, M + 1):
        xh[t] = (xh[t - 1]
                 + kappa * (theta - np.maximum(xh[t - 1], 0)) * dt
                 + sigma * np.sqrt(np.maximum(xh[t - 1], 0)) * np.sqrt(dt)
                 * npr.standard_normal(I))
    x1 = np.maximum(xh, 0)
    return x1
x1 = srd_euler()
```

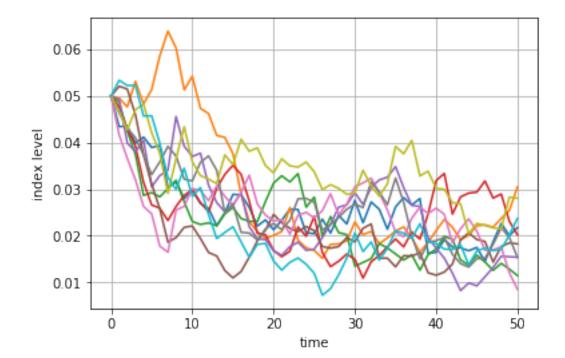
In [21]:

```
plt.hist(x1[-1], bins=50)
plt.xlabel('value')
plt.ylabel('frequency')
plt.grid(True)
```



In [22]:

```
plt.plot(x1[:,:10], lw=1.5)
plt.xlabel('time')
plt.ylabel('index level')
plt.grid(True)
```



Stochastic Volatility

BSM model assumes constant volatility. However, volatility in general is neither constant or deterministic; it is stochastic.

Stochastic differential equations for Heston stochastic volatility model

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \sqrt{v_t} S_t dZ_t^1$$

$$dv_t = \kappa_v (\theta_v - v_t) dt + \sigma \sqrt{v_t} dZ_t^2$$

$$dZ_t^1 dZ_t^2 = \rho$$

In [23]:

In [24]:

```
corr_mat = np.zeros((2, 2))
corr_mat[0, :] = [1.0, rho]
corr_mat[1, :] = [rho, 1.0]
cho_mat = np.linalg.cholesky(corr_mat)
```

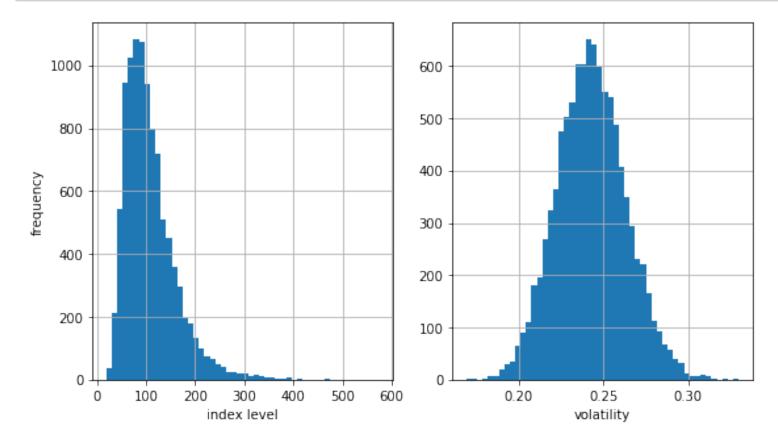
```
Out[25]:
array([[1. , 0. ],
       [0.6, 0.8]]
In [26]:
M = 50
I = 10000
ran_num = npr.standard_normal((2, M + 1, I))
In [27]:
dt = T / M
v = np.zeros like(ran num[0])
vh = np.zeros like(v)
v[0] = v0
vh[0] = v0
for t in range(1, M + 1):
    ran = np.dot(cho_mat, ran_num[:, t, :])
    vh[t] = (vh[t-1] + kappa * (theta - np.maximum(vh[t-1], 0)) * dt
            + sigma * np.sqrt(np.maximum(vh[t - 1], 0)) * np.sqrt(dt) * ran[1]
)
v = np.maximum(vh, 0)
In [28]:
S = np.zeros_like(ran_num[0])
S[0] = S0
for t in range(1, M+1):
    ran = np.dot(cho_mat, ran_num[:, t, :])
    S[t] = S[t - 1] * np.exp((r - v[t] / 2) * dt + np.sqrt(v[t]) * np.sqrt(dt)
* ran[0])
```

In [25]:

cho_mat

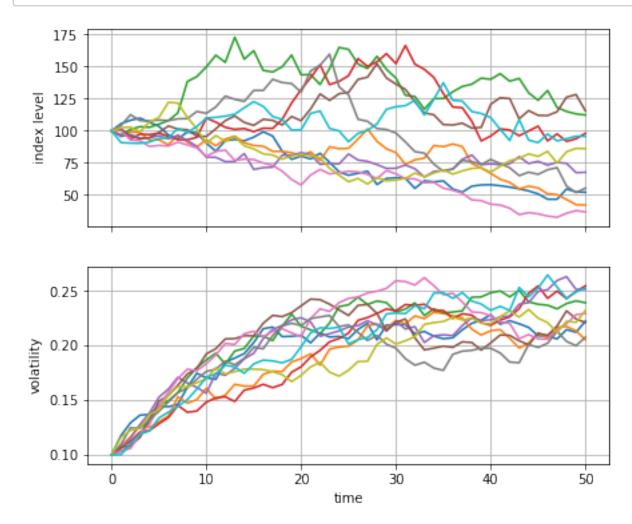
In [29]:

```
fig, (ax1, ax2) = plt.subplots(nrows=1, ncols=2, figsize=(9, 5))
ax1.hist(S[-1], bins=50)
ax1.set_xlabel('index level')
ax1.set_ylabel('frequency')
ax1.grid(True)
ax2.hist(v[-1], bins=50)
ax2.set_xlabel('volatility')
ax2.grid(True)
```



In [30]:

```
fig, (ax1, ax2) = plt.subplots(nrows=2, ncols=1, sharex=True, figsize=(7, 6))
ax1.plot(S[:,:10], lw=1.5)
ax1.set_ylabel('index level')
ax1.grid(True)
ax2.plot(v[:,:10], lw=1.5)
ax2.set_xlabel('time')
ax2.set_ylabel('volatility')
ax2.grid(True)
```



In [31]:

print_statistics(S[-1], v[-1])

statistic	data set 1	data set 2
size	10000.000	10000.000
min	18.836	0.169
max	573.628	0.330
mean	108.466	0.243
std	52.594	0.020
skw	1.625	0.137
kurtosis	4.725	0.068

Jump Diffusion

Apart from stochastic volatility and leverage effect, another important stylized empirical fact is the existence of jumps in asset pricesand volatility.

Stochastic differential equation for Merton jump diffusion model

$$dS_t = (r - r_J)S_t dt + \sigma S_t dZ_t + J_t S_t dN_t$$

 S_t : index level at time t

r: constant short-term risk-free rate

 r_J : drift correction for jump to maintain risk neutrality, with $r_J \equiv \lambda \left(e^{\mu_J + rac{\delta^2}{2}} - 1
ight)$

 σ : constant volatility

 Z_t : standard brownian motion

 J_t : Jump at date t with distribution $log(1+J_t)\approx N\Big(log(1+\mu_J)-\frac{\delta^2}{2}\Big)$ with N as the cumulative distribution function of a standard normal random variable.

 N_t : Poisson process with intensity t

Euler discretization for Merton jump diffusion model

$$S_t = S_{t-\Delta t} \left(e^{\left(r - r_J - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right) \Delta t + \sigma \sqrt{\Delta t} z_t^1} + \left(e^{\mu_J + \delta z_t^2} - 1 \right) y_t \right)$$

In [32]:

```
S0 = 100

r = 0.05

sigma = 0.2

lamb = 0.75

mu = -0.6

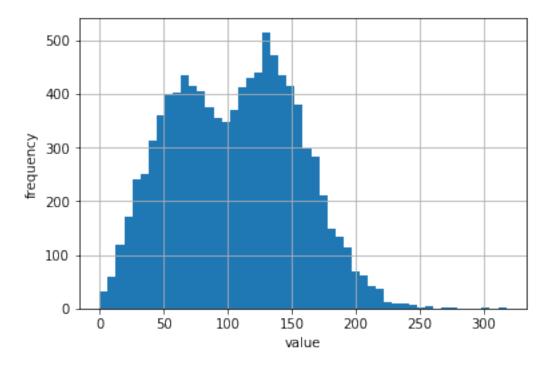
delta = 0.25

T = 1.0
```

In [33]:

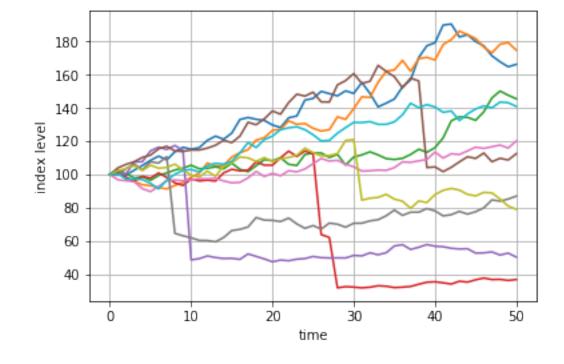
In [34]:

```
plt.hist(S[-1], bins=50)
plt.xlabel('value')
plt.ylabel('frequency')
plt.grid(True)
```



In [35]:

```
plt.plot(S[:, :10], lw=1.5)
plt.xlabel('time')
plt.ylabel('index level')
plt.grid(True)
```



Variance Reduction

The set of random numbers might not exhibit statistics close enough to desired ones. This because the numbers are pseudorandom or the sample size is not large enough. There are two common methods to reduce the variance of generated random numbers.

antithetic variates

Only draw half of the desired number of random draws and add the same set of random numbers with their signs being the opposite. This approach corrects first moment (mean) perfectly.

moment matching

Adjust the draws by subtracting their mean and then divided by their standard deviation. This approach corrects the first and second moment (almost) perfectly.

```
In [36]:
```

```
def gen_sn(M, I, anti_paths=True, mo_match=True):
    if anti_paths == True:
        sn = npr.standard_normal((M + 1, I // 2))
        sn = np.concatenate((sn, -sn), axis=1)
    else:
        sn = npr.standard_normal((M + 1, I))
    if mo_match == True:
        sn = (sn - sn.mean()) / sn.std()
    return sn
```

Valuation

European Options

Pricing by risk-neutral expection

$$C_0 = e^{-rT} E_0^Q \left(h(S_T) \right) = e^{-rT} \int_0^\infty h(s) q(s) ds$$

Risk-neutral Monte Carlo estimator

$$\tilde{C}_0 = e^{-rT} \frac{1}{I} \Sigma_{i=1}^I h(\tilde{S}_T^i)$$

```
S0 = 100.
r = 0.05
vol = 0.25
T = 1.0
I = 50000
def gbm_mcs_stat(K):
    sn = gen_sn(1, I)
    ST = S0 * np.exp((r - vol ** 2 / 2) * T + vol * np.sqrt(T) * sn[1])
    hT = np.maximum(ST - K, 0)
    C0 = np.exp(-r * T) / I * hT.sum()
    return CO
In [38]:
gbm_mcs_stat(K=105.)
Out[38]:
10.06219045854341
In [40]:
M = 50
def gbm_mcs_dyna(K, option='call'):
    dt = T / M
    S = np.zeros((M + 1, I))
    S[0] = S0
    sn = gen sn(M, I)
    for t in range(1, M + 1):
        S[t] = S[t - 1] * np.exp((r - vol ** 2 / 2) * dt + vol * np.sqrt(dt) *
sn[t])
    if option == 'call':
        hT = np.maximum(S[-1] - K, 0)
    elif option == 'put':
        hT = np.maximum(K - S[-1], 0)
    else:
        return -1
    C0 = np.exp(-r * T) / I * hT.sum()
    return CO
In [41]:
```

gbm_mcs_dyna(K=110., option='call')

Out[41]:

8.077304887269609

In [37]:

```
In [42]:
```

```
gbm_mcs_dyna(K=110., option='put')
```

Out[42]:

12.678292836956938

American Options (needs further study)

American option prices as optimal stopping problem

$$V_0 = \sup e^{-rT} E_0^Q (h_\tau(S_\tau))$$
, where $\tau \in \{0, \Delta t, 2\Delta t, \dots, T\}$.

Least-squares regression for American option valuation

```
\min_{\alpha_{1,t},...,\alpha_{D,t}} \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^{I} (Y_{t,i} - \sum_{d=1}^{D} \alpha_{d,t} b_d(S_{t,i}))^2
```

In [47]:

```
def gbm_mcs_amer(K, option='call'):
    dt = T / M
    df = np.exp(-r * dt)
    S = np.zeros((M + 1, I))
    S[0] = S0
    sn = gen sn(M, I)
    for t in range(1, M + 1):
        S[t] = S[t - 1] * np.exp((r - vol ** 2 / 2) * dt + vol * np.sqrt(dt) *
sn[t])
    if option == 'call':
        h = np.maximum(S - K, 0)
    elif option == 'put':
        h = np.maximum(K - S, 0)
    else:
        return -1
    # LSM algorithm
    V = np.copy(h)
    for t in range(M - 1, 0, -1):
        reg = np.polyfit(S[t], V[t + 1] * df, 7)
        C = np.polyval(reg, S[t])
        V[t] = np.where(C > h[t], V[t + 1] * df, h[t])
    C0 = df / I * V[1].sum()
    return C0
```

In [48]:

```
gbm_mcs_amer(110., option='call')
```

Out[48]:

7.800446622118444

In [49]:

```
gbm_mcs_amer(110., option='put')
```

Out[49]:

13.607843939512557

Risk Measures

Value-at-risk

VaR is one of the most widely used risk measures. It tries to capture tail risk. "a VaR of \$50,000 at a confidence level of 99\% over a time period of 30 days" means there is a probability of 1\% that a loss of a minimum of 50,000 USD or higher will occur.

In [51]:

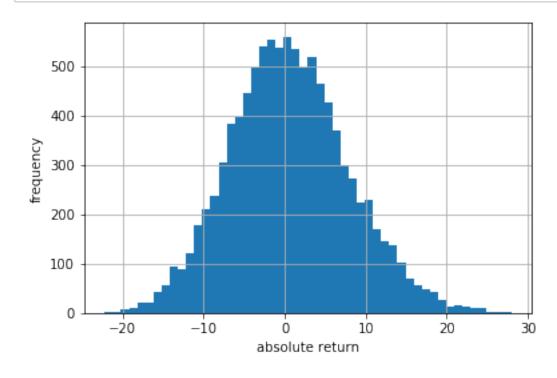
```
S0 = 100.
r = 0.05
vol = 0.25
T = 30 / 365
I = 10000
ST = S0 * np.exp((r - vol ** 2 / 2) * T + vol * np.sqrt(T) * npr.standard_norm
al(I))
```

In [52]:

```
R_gbm = np.sort(ST - S0)
```

In [53]:

```
plt.hist(R_gbm, bins=50)
plt.xlabel('absolute return')
plt.ylabel('frequency')
plt.grid(True)
```



In [63]:

```
percs = [0.01, 0.1, 1., 2.5, 5., 10.]
var = scs.scoreatpercentile(R_gbm, percs)
print('{:16s} {:16s}'.format('Confidence Level', 'Value-at-Risk'))
print(33 * '-')
for pair in zip(percs, var):
    print('{:16.2f} {:16.3f}'.format(100 - pair[0], -pair[1]))
```

Confidence Level Value-at-Risk

99.99	21.601
99.90	19.381
99.00	15.285
97.50	13.213
95.00	10.895
90.00	8.495

/Users/chuang/miniconda3/envs/PyQuant/lib/python3.5/site-packages/scipy/stats/stats.py:1713: FutureWarning: Using a non-tuple sequen ce for multidimensional indexing is deprecated; use `arr[tuple(seq)]` instead of `arr[seq]`. In the future this will be interpreted as an array index, `arr[np.array(seq)]`, which will result either in an error or a different result.

return np.add.reduce(sorted[indexer] * weights, axis=axis) / sum
val

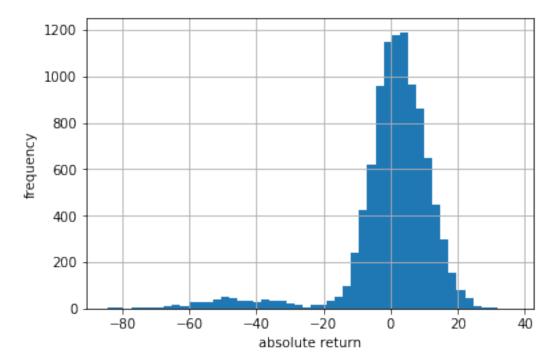
In [65]:

In [66]:

```
R_jd = np.sort(S[-1] - S0)
```

In [67]:

```
plt.hist(R_jd, bins=50)
plt.xlabel('absolute return')
plt.ylabel('frequency')
plt.grid(True)
```



In [68]:

```
percs = [0.01, 0.1, 1., 2.5, 5., 10.]
var = scs.scoreatpercentile(R_jd, percs)
print('{:16s} {:16s}'.format('Confidence Level', 'Value-at-Risk'))
print(33 * '-')
for pair in zip(percs, var):
    print('{:16.2f} {:16.3f}'.format(100 - pair[0], -pair[1]))
```

Confidence Level Value-at-Risk

99.99	82.226
99.90	73.263
99.00	56.955
97.50	46.948
95.00	27.279
90.00	9.080

/Users/chuang/miniconda3/envs/PyQuant/lib/python3.5/site-packages/scipy/stats/stats.py:1713: FutureWarning: Using a non-tuple sequen ce for multidimensional indexing is deprecated; use `arr[tuple(seq)]` instead of `arr[seq]`. In the future this will be interpreted as an array index, `arr[np.array(seq)]`, which will result either in an error or a different result.

return np.add.reduce(sorted[indexer] * weights, axis=axis) / sum
val

In [69]:

```
percs = list(np.arange(0., 10.1, 0.1))
gbm_var = scs.scoreatpercentile(R_gbm, percs)
jd_var = scs.scoreatpercentile(R_jd, percs)
```

/Users/chuang/miniconda3/envs/PyQuant/lib/python3.5/site-packages/scipy/stats/stats.py:1713: FutureWarning: Using a non-tuple sequen ce for multidimensional indexing is deprecated; use `arr[tuple(seq)]` instead of `arr[seq]`. In the future this will be interpreted as an array index, `arr[np.array(seq)]`, which will result either in an error or a different result.

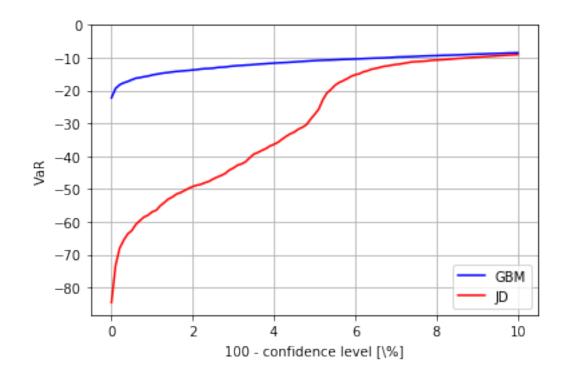
return np.add.reduce(sorted[indexer] * weights, axis=axis) / sum
val

In [71]:

```
plt.plot(percs, gbm_var, 'b', lw=1.5, label='GBM')
plt.plot(percs, jd_var, 'r', lw=1.5, label='JD')
plt.legend(loc=4)
plt.xlabel('100 - confidence level [\%]')
plt.ylabel('VaR')
plt.grid(True)
plt.ylim(top=0.)
```

Out[71]:

(-88.3490724386599, 0.0)



Credit Value Adjustments

- credit value at risk (CVaR)
- credit value adjustment (CVA)
 CVaR is a measure of the risk resulting from the possibility that a counterparty might not be able to honor its obligations. There are two main assumptions: probability of default and the loss level.

```
S0 = 100.
r = 0.05
vol = 0.2
T = 1.
I = 100000
ST = S0 * np.exp((r - vol ** 2 / 2) * T + vol * np.sqrt(T) * npr.standard_norm
al(I))
In [74]:
L = 0.5 \# a fixed loss level
p = 0.01 # a fixed probability for default of a counterparty
In [75]:
D = npr.poisson(p * T, I)
D = np.where(D > 1, 1, D)
In [76]:
np.exp(-r * T) / I * ST.sum()
Out[76]:
99.92491978247067
In [80]:
CVaR = np.exp(-r * T) / I * (L * D * ST).sum()
CVaR
Out[80]:
0.5005077125656152
In [81]:
S0_CVA = np.exp(-r * T) / I * ((1 - L * D)* ST).sum()
S0_CVA
Out[81]:
99.42441206990505
In [82]:
S0_adj = S0 - CVaR
S0_adj
Out[82]:
99.49949228743438
```

In [72]:

In []:			