

# Not a matter of luck – The smart choice of Monte Carlo samples

November, 19th 2021

### Point of departure: A small(?!) problem



- Project: Support a client in extending its internal model for a new risk category
  - Complex model: high dimensional due to lots of risk factors, large losses, significant tail dependencies
- After implementation and validation the only task remaining was integration into the separate overall model of the client's group
- The problem: The group's model was only able to process 10'000 scenarios ... our model required 1'000'000
  - The precision of Monte Carlo simulations is proportional to the size of the sample.
  - A factor 100 in size directly translates into a factor 100 in the variance of results
- What to do?

## Solution: Find a "good" sample



- Wanted is a "good" small sample (with N = 10'000) which reflects the large sample (with N = 1'000'000) in the best possible way.
  - Two questions: 1) What is the meaning of "good" exactly? 2) How to find such a "good" sample?
- A small sample is "good" if it reproduces the important features of a large sample with small deviation
  - Features are functions of the samples, they can be statistical such as means or correlations or business related such as the probability of a large loss in a legal entity.
  - The feature is calculated for the large and small sample, the squared difference is the deviation respectively the error.
- 2. One simple way of finding such a small yet good sample is by Trial & Error
  - Choose randomly a small sample from the large one
  - Calculate the features of this small sample and determine the error
  - Repeat this for a number of trials, say 1'000 times
  - Retain that sample from all trials with the smallest error

### Can you go further?



- With this approach the original problem could be solved
- But this application is somewhat atypical since all interesting outputs of the model were already known.
  - Normally a Monte Carlo is done to determine values which are NOT known in the first place
- Question: Does this approach for sample selection has benefits even for the calculation of unknown targets of interest?
  - Features have to be easy to calculate to be usable for the optimisation procedure
  - If a target function is very hard to calculate or worse not even described explicitly it cannot serve as feature
  - Question: Does controlling for features reduces error also for difficult/unknown targets?
  - Question: How to rule out that selecting for features actually increases the error of the target functions?

#### The Hull-White model



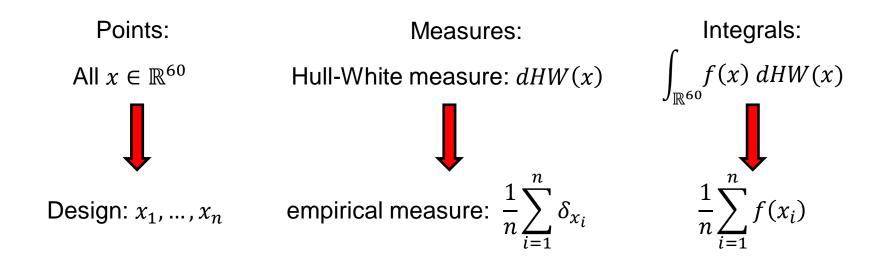
- Suggestion: Just try it out in a laboratory model!
- Hull-White: Stochastic interest rate model
  - Risk factors x consist of annual short rates r(1), ..., r(T) and integrated short rates Y(1), ..., Y(T) with T = 30
  - x = (r, Y) has a multivariate normal distribution
  - Vector of means and covariance matrix are results of calibration (according to DAV) and known
  - Field of application: Determination of prices and market consistent values of interest rate sensitive instruments
- The price respectively the market consistent values of a cash flow is the expectation of the cash flow f under the distribution of the Hull-White model

Price = 
$$\mathbb{E}_{HW \sim X}[f(X)] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{60}} f(x) dHW(x)$$

# Integrals and designs



- Even in simple models there is no explicit solution to most integrals.
- Often the explicit form of the target function itself is not known.
- Solution: Approximation of the continuous measure by empirical measures



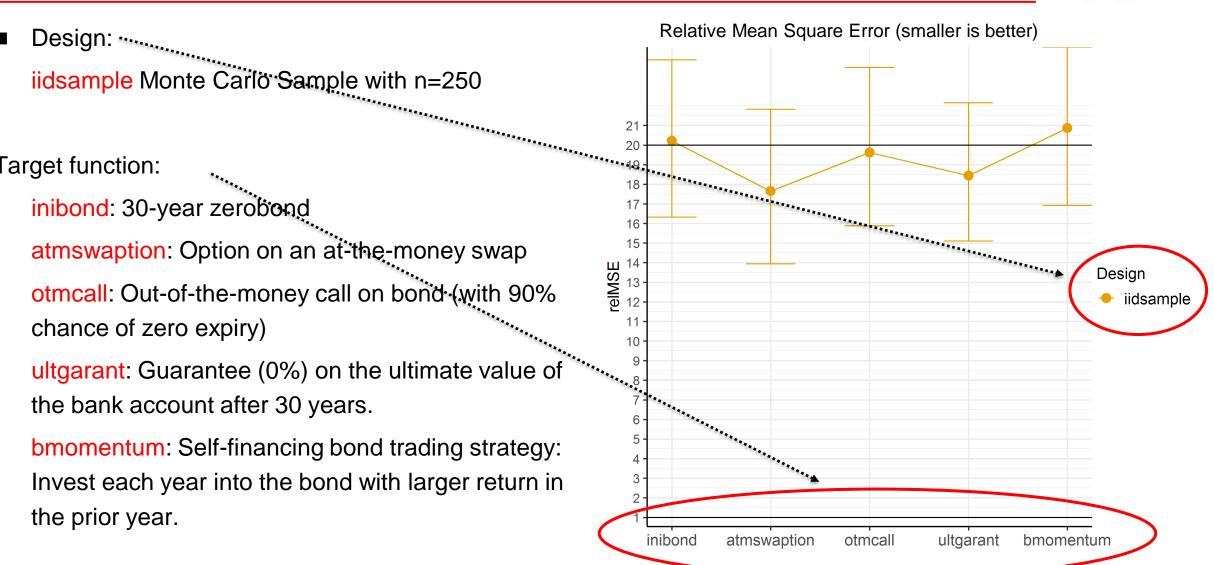
A Design is a set of points/scenarios for integration.





#### Target function:

- inibond: 30-year zerobond
- atmswaption: Option on an at-the-money swap
- otmcall: Out-of-the-money call on bond (with 90% chance of zero expiry)
- ultgarant: Guarantee (0%) on the ultimate value of the bank account after 30 years.
- bmomentum: Self-financing bond trading strategy: Invest each year into the bond with larger return in the prior year.



#### The first experiment as warm-up



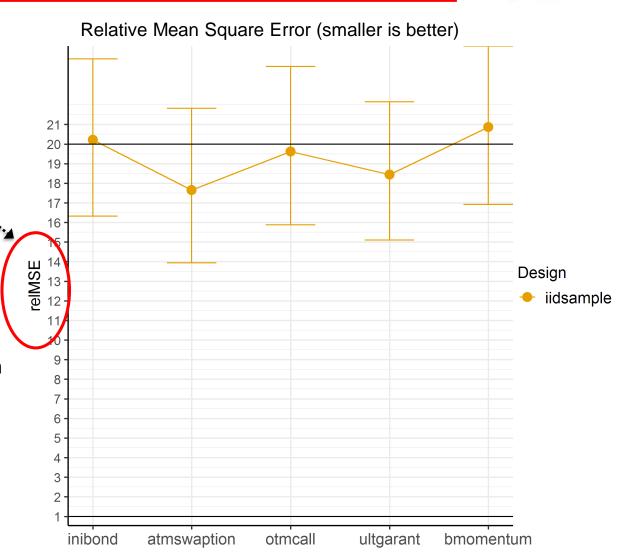
Indicator for the size of the error

- relMSE: relative Mean Square Error
- Square Error:

$$SE = \left(\text{Exact} - \frac{1}{250} \sum_{i=1}^{250} f(x_i)\right)^2$$

Exact: Analytic value or very large Monte-Carlo estimate

- Mean: averaged over a number of runs
- relative: Mean Square Error relative to a large sample with N=5'000.
- relMSE=20 means:
   On average the squared error of integration is 20 times as large as the error of an iid-Monte Carlo sample with N=5'000.

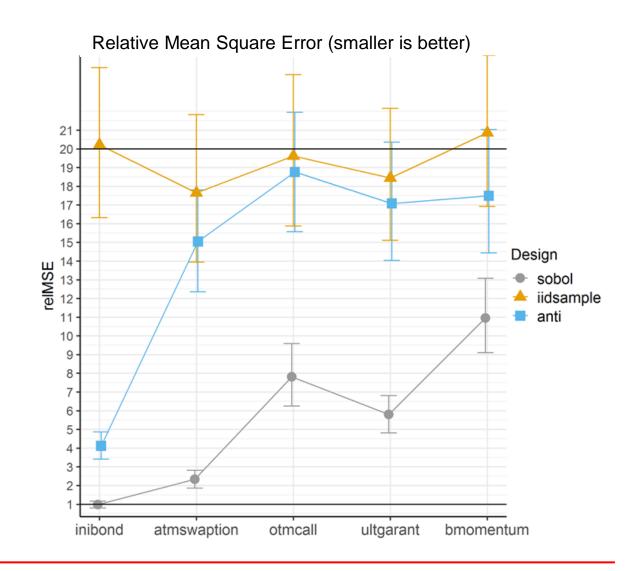






#### Comparison of three designs

- iidsample:
- Plain vanilla Monte-Carlo sample
- relMSE for all targets roughly equal to the ratio of the size of the samples, i.e. 5'000 / 250 = 20.
- anti:
- Antithetic sample
- Some improvement for inibond but in all other cases just like iidsample
- sobol:
- Sobol<sup>1)</sup> Quasi Monte Carlo, randomised.
- Significant improvement of error.
- Efficiency depends on target.



<sup>1)</sup> Function sobol in R-library «randtoolbox»

## Introducing features

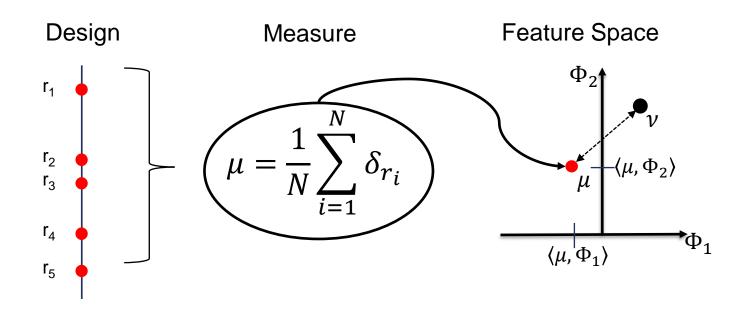


- First example: Two simple features
  - Focus on a single risk factor r (e.g. short rate in year 15)
  - Definition of the two Features:  $\Phi_1(r) = r$  und  $\Phi_2(r) = r^2$
- Every design  $r_1, ..., r_N$  can be mapped to the values of its features
  - A design acts by integrating with its empirical measure  $\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum \delta_{r_i}$
  - $\langle \mu, \Phi_1 \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum r_i$  is the empirical mean of the design
  - $\langle \mu, \Phi_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum r_i^2$  is the second empirical moment of the design
- Per values of their features any two designs can be compared
  - e.g. «large» design  $\mu$  with «small» design  $\nu$  having points  $r_1', \dots, r_n'$  .
  - The *discrepancy* (or error) between  $\mu$  und  $\nu$  is the square root of

$$(\langle \mu, \Phi_1 \rangle - \langle \nu, \Phi_1 \rangle)^2 + (\langle \mu, \Phi_2 \rangle - \langle \nu, \Phi_2 \rangle)^2$$

### The feature space





- The Feature Space is spanned by the features, it is a linear space of functions
  - The integrals of features are the coordinates in feature space
  - The mapping of a measure to a point in feature space is called the Kernel Mean Embedding
- The *discrepancy* between two measures or two designs is their distance in feature space

#### The Kernel



- The *Kernel* of a feature space is the inner product of the point masses respectively the features
- In the example:

$$K(r,r') = \langle \delta_r, \delta_{r'} \rangle = \Phi_1(r) \cdot \Phi_1(r') + \Phi_2(r) \cdot \Phi_2(r')$$
$$= r \cdot r' + r^2 \cdot r'^2$$

- The kernel encodes all properties of the feature space
- Spaces of function which allow a kernel are called *Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces*.

## How many features are possible



The first example provided two features one for the first and one for the second moment

$$\Phi_1(r) = r \qquad \Phi_2(r) = r^2$$

- But why shouldn't we control ALL moments?
- Kernel for two moments:  $K(r,r') = r \cdot r' + r^2 \cdot r'^2$
- Kernel for ALL moments:

$$K(r,r') = 1 + r \cdot r' + \frac{1}{2!}r^2 \cdot r'^2 + \frac{1}{3!}r^3 \cdot r'^3 + \cdots$$
$$= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(r \cdot r')^m}{m!} = \exp(r \cdot r')$$

■ We just need weights such as  $\frac{1}{m!}$  to ensure convergence.

#### The Kernel-Trick



- "Infinitely many features" means the feature space is infinite dimensional
  - But actually this does not matter for practical calculations!
- The discrepancy between designs  $r_1, ..., r_N$  ( $\mu$ ) und  $r'_1, ..., r'_n(\nu)$  with respect to all moments can be obtained simply by sums over expressions involving the kernel

$$\|\mu - \nu\|^{2} = \langle \mu - \nu, \mu - \nu \rangle = \langle \mu, \mu \rangle - 2\langle \mu, \nu \rangle + \langle \nu, \nu \rangle$$

$$\langle \mu, \mu \rangle = \left\langle \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_{r_{i}}, \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \delta_{r_{j}} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{N^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \left\langle \delta_{r_{i}}, \delta_{r_{j}} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{N^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \exp(r_{i} r_{j})$$

$$\langle \mu, \nu \rangle = \frac{1}{N^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \exp(r_{i} r_{j}')$$

$$\langle \nu, \nu \rangle = \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \exp(r_{i}' r_{j}')$$

- Conclusion: The discrepancy between designs can be calculated easily and efficiently even for infinite dimensional feature spaces!
  - See code example in <a href="https://github.com/QuantAkt/minimal-working-example">https://github.com/QuantAkt/minimal-working-example</a>

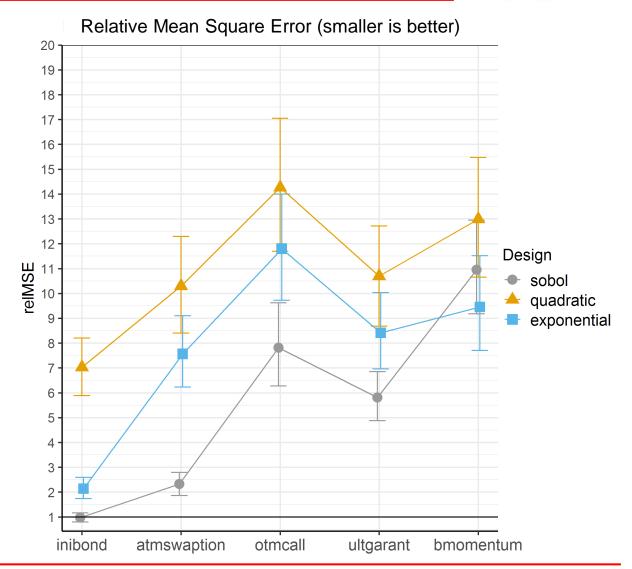
#### Moments as features



- quadratic:
- The kernel is  $K(x, y) = (1 + x^T y)^2$
- Contains pairwise interactions between risk factors.
- exponential:
- The kernel is  $K(x, y) = \exp(x^T y)$

Both kernels are defined on all risk factors (i.e. in the example 60).

Selection of designs is again by «Trial&Error».







■ The distance in the feature space  $\mathcal{F}$  is the Worst Case Integration Error!

$$\|\mu - \nu\| = \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \int_{\|f\| \le 1} f \ d\mu - \int_{\|f\| \le 1} f \ d\nu$$

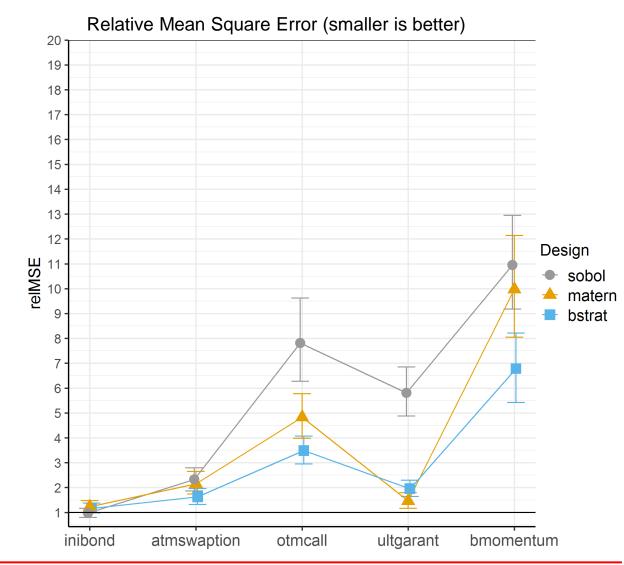
- This explains why this distance is often called Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD).
- Because the Worst Case bounds the integration error for ALL functions in feature space, MMD permits a clear answer to the question "Which functions can be controlled by a given kernel/feature?"

For all 
$$f \in \mathcal{F}$$
:  $\left| \int f \ d\mu - \int f \ d\nu \right| \le ||f|| \cdot MMD(\mu, \nu)$ 

## Aggressive optimisation and kernel engineering



- Kernel-Engineering: Choice of kernel motivated by the feature space.
- In addition: «Greedy» selection of designs.
- matern:
- Well known standard kernel<sup>1)</sup> can be used out-ofthe-box
- Feature space is quite large and contains continuous, bounded functions.
- bstrat:
- · Feature space spanned by bond trading strategies.



1) e.g. found in sklearn.gaussian\_process.kernels.Matern

#### Conclusions



- The selection by features respectively using kernels can improve the quality of samples/designs significantly!
- The method is completely generic, it works for all distributions and models.
- Since the selection starts simply with a large sample, no modification of the stochastic models or economic scenario generators is required.
- Prior domain knowledge about the targets can be included by engineering the kernels appropriately.
- Error estimates allow statements on convergence and put the approach on sound mathematical grounds.
- There are synergies in methods and techniques with other kernel based machine learning approaches such as Gaussian Process Regression or Bayesian Optimisation.

#### Literature



This is just a first overview. I am happy to provide more sources on request.

- Wikipedia
  - Kernel Method <a href="https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kernel method">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kernel method</a>
  - Kernel Mean Embedding <a href="https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kernel embedding of distributions">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kernel embedding of distributions</a>
- Overview article on Kernel Mean Embeddings
  - Kernel Mean Embedding of Distributions: A Review and Beyond https://arxiv.org/abs/1605.09522
- Scientific papers
  - «Super-Samples from Kernel Herding» von Chen, Yutian and Welling, Max and Smola, Alex in Proceedings of the Twenty-Sixth Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence oder als <a href="https://arxiv.org/abs/1203.3472">https://arxiv.org/abs/1203.3472</a>
  - "Construction of Optimal Cubature Algorithms with Applications to Econometrics and Uncertainty Quantification" von J.Oettershagen, PhD thesis, University of Bonn, 2017. https://ins.uni-bonn.de/media/public/publication-media/diss\_oettershagen.pdf
- Code (minimal working example)
  - <a href="https://github.com/QuantAkt/minimal-working-example">https://github.com/QuantAkt/minimal-working-example</a>

#### Contact





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- Do not hesitate to contact me with any questions you might have.
- When you try this out, make sure to share your experience. I would be glad to hear from you.