

QF607 2024 Exam Cheat Sheet

Fixed Point Representation

To define a fixed point type, we need two parameters:

- width of the number representation
- binary point position
- We use **fixed**<**w**, **b**> to denote a fixed point type with **w** width and binary point position at **b** counting from 0 (the least significant bit).
- For example, **fixed**<8, 3> denotes a 8 bit fixed point number, of which 3 right most bits are fractional. Therefore, the number 00010110 represents:

$$00010.110_2 = 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} = 2.75 \quad (1)$$

- The same bit patten 00010110 represents a different number if it is of a different type, say **fixed**<8, 5>:

$$000.10110_2 = 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-3} + 1 \times 2^{-4} = 0.6875 \quad (2)$$

- Two's-complement: the value x of a **fixed**<**w**, **b**> number $b_{w-1}b_{w-2}\dots b_0$ is given by:

$$x = -b_{w-1}2^{w-1-b} + \sum_{i=0}^{w-2} b_i 2^{i-b} \quad (3)$$

Jarrow-Rudd Risk Neutral Model (JRRN)

JRRN binomial tree model:

$$\begin{cases} p &= \frac{e^{r\Delta t} - d}{u - d} \\ u &= e^{(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})\Delta t + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}} \\ d &= e^{(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})\Delta t - \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Bisection Method

Start with $[a, b]$ that brackets the root, cut it by half, then see which half contains the root.

Algorithm 1 root = **rfbisect**(f, a, b, tol)

Require: $f(a)f(b) < 0$, f is continuous, , tolerance tol

```
1: while  $(b - a)/2 > tol$  do
2:    $c \leftarrow \frac{a+b}{2}$ 
3:   if  $f(c) == 0$  then
4:     return  $c$ ;
5:   else if  $f(a)f(c) < 0$  then
6:      $b \leftarrow c$ 
7:   else
8:      $a \leftarrow c$ 
9:   end if
10: end while
```

Secant Method

Start with x_1 and x_2 , connect $(x_1, f(x_1))$ and $(x_2, f(x_2))$, find the intersection with x axis at x_3 , then continue with x_2 and x_3

Algorithm 2 root = **rfsecant**(f, x_1, x_2, tol)

Require: f is continuous, tolerance tol

```
1: while  $abs(x_2 - x_1) > tol$  do
2:    $x_3 \leftarrow \frac{x_1 f(x_2) - x_2 f(x_1)}{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}$ 
3:   if  $f(x_3) == 0$  then
4:     return  $x_3$ ;
5:   else
6:      $x_1 \leftarrow x_2$ 
7:      $x_2 \leftarrow x_3$ 
8:   end if
9: end while
```

False Position Method (Regula Falsi)

Start with $[a, b]$ that brackets the root, connect $(a, f(a))$ and $(b, f(b))$, find the intersection with x axis at c , then continue with a or b , depending on who brackets the root with c

Algorithm 3 root = **rffalse**(f, a, b, tol)

Require: $f(a)f(b) < 0$, f is continuous

```
1: while  $b - a > tol$  do
2:    $c \leftarrow \frac{af(b) - bf(a)}{f(b) - f(a)}$ 
3:   if  $f(c) == 0$  then
4:     return  $c$ ;
5:   else if  $f(a)f(c) < 0$  then
6:      $b \leftarrow c$ 
7:   else
8:      $a \leftarrow c$ 
9:   end if
10: end while
```

Monte Carlo As Integrator

- An integral $\int_0^1 f(x)dx$ is an expectation $E[f(x)]$ with uniformly distributed from 0 to 1 ($\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$):

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx = \int_0^1 f(x)p(x)dx = E[f(x)] \quad (5)$$

because $p(x) = 1$ for $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$

- To integrate the interval $[a, b]$

$$E[f(x)] = \int_a^b f(x)p(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)\frac{1}{b-a}dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x)dx \quad (6)$$

So $\int_a^b f(x)dx = (b-a)E[f(x)]$ for $x \sim \mathcal{U}(a, b)$

Control Variates

- We are trying to estimate the expectation of a function $h(\vec{X})$
- If we know the expectation of a function $g(\vec{X})$ analytically, we can use the estimator:

$$E[h(\vec{X})] \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(h(\vec{X}_i) + \beta(g^* - g(\vec{X}_i)) \right) \quad (7)$$

where g^* is the known expectation of $g(\vec{X})$ and β is a parameter.

- The variance of the samples is

$$Var[h] + \beta^2 Var[g] - 2\beta Cov[h, g] \quad (8)$$

- Taking the first derivative w.r.t β , the variance is minimized for $\beta = \frac{Cov[h, g]}{Var[g]}$ (can be estimated using simulation samples)
- The minimized variance is

$$Var[h] - \frac{Cov[h, g]^2}{Var[g]} = Var[h](1 - \rho^2) \quad (9)$$

- The higher correlation g and h is, the more effective the technique is.

Monte Carlo Algorithm

Algorithm 4 $\hat{\mu}_n = \text{MC}(h)$

```

1:  $s = 0$ 
2: for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
3:   Generate  $\vec{X}_i$ 
4:    $h_i = h(\vec{X}_i)$ 
5:    $s += h_i$ 
6: end for
7:  $\hat{\mu}_n = s / n$ 
8: return  $\hat{\mu}_n$ 

```

Euler Discretization Scheme

- Using time step Δt , the Euler discretization scheme approximates

$$\int_t^{t+\Delta t} a(X(u)) du \approx a(X(t)) \Delta t \quad (10)$$

$$\int_t^{t+\Delta t} b(X(u)) dW_u \approx b(X(t)) \Delta W = b(X(t)) \sqrt{\Delta t} Z \quad (11)$$

where $Z \sim N(0, 1)$

- The stepwise induction is

$$X(t + \Delta t) = X(t) + a(X(t)) \Delta t + b(X(t)) \sqrt{\Delta t} Z \quad (12)$$

- The truncation error of the drift term is $O(\Delta t)$
- The truncation error of the diffusion term is $O(\Delta W)$, i.e., $O(\sqrt{\Delta t})$
- The overall convergence order of Euler scheme is therefore $O(\sqrt{\Delta t})$

Cholesky Decomposition

- If a matrix is symmetric and positive definite, a special LU decomposition — Cholesky decomposition is faster than the other LU decomposition and satisfies the property that:

$$\vec{C} = \vec{L} \vec{L}^\top \quad (13)$$

and \vec{L} is a lower triangular matrix.

- The requirement that the Cholesky decomposition exists is the matrix \vec{C} is symmetric positive definite. This is true if $\rho \neq \pm 1$:

$$\vec{x}^\top \vec{C} \vec{x} = \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{\vec{x}^\top \begin{bmatrix} \vec{\xi}_1 \\ \vec{\xi}_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{(\vec{y}^\top)_{1 \times n}} \times \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \vec{\xi}_1^\top & \vec{\xi}_2^\top \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}}_{\vec{y}_{n \times 1}} = \frac{\|\vec{y}\|}{n} \geq 0 \quad (14)$$

So (15) exists by definition.

- Now to generate two correlated Brownian motions we can

1. Generate two independent standard normal samples $\vec{\zeta}_1$ and $\vec{\zeta}_2$
2. Decompose the correlation matrix using Cholesky: $\vec{C} = \vec{L} \vec{L}^\top$
3. Generate the correlated normal variates by: $\begin{bmatrix} \vec{\xi}_1 \\ \vec{\xi}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{L} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{\zeta}_1 \\ \vec{\zeta}_2 \end{bmatrix}$

And this routine works in general, for m random variates.

- The Cholesky decomposition algorithm is straight-forward:

$$\vec{C} = \vec{L} \vec{L}^\top = \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} & 0 \\ L_{31} & L_{23} & L_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & L_{21} & L_{31} \\ 0 & L_{22} & L_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & L_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad (15)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} L_{11}^2 & & \\ L_{21} L_{11} & L_{22}^2 + L_{23}^2 & \\ L_{31} L_{11} & L_{31} L_{21} + L_{32} L_{22} & \sum_{i=1}^3 L_{3i}^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{(symmetric)} \quad (16)$$

Just need to start from the top-left corner and progressively solve for each L_{ij}

Euler Scheme

To discretize the time derivatives, the simplest way is to use Euler scheme. But there are two ways to do that:

- Left difference (Explicit)

$$\frac{\partial V_{i,j}}{\partial t} \approx \frac{V_{i,j} - V_{i,j-1}}{\Delta t} \quad (17)$$

- Right difference (Implicit):

$$\frac{\partial V_{i,j}}{\partial t} \approx \frac{V_{i,j+1} - V_{i,j}}{\Delta t} \quad (18)$$

Substituting the left difference to the system of ODE we obtained by discretizing the spot dimension, we get the **explicit** Euler scheme:

$$\frac{1}{\Delta t} \begin{pmatrix} \Delta t \cdot b_{(0,j)} \\ V_{(1,j)} - V_{(1,j-1)} \\ V_{(2,j)} - V_{(2,j-1)} \\ \vdots \\ V_{(N_S-2,j)} - V_{(N_S-2,j-1)} \\ \Delta t \cdot b_{(N_S-1,j)} \end{pmatrix} = \vec{M} \begin{pmatrix} V_{(0,j)} \\ V_{(1,j)} \\ V_{(2,j)} \\ \vdots \\ V_{(N_S-2,j)} \\ V_{(N_S-1,j)} \end{pmatrix} \quad (19)$$

The reason it is explicit is that we know our V from the back. The linear system is an explicit function from \vec{V}_j to \vec{V}_{j-1} .