



Student Research Group Report

# **Monte-Carlo Methods for the Heston Model**

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Artemy Sazonov, Danil Legenky, Kirill Korban

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# Introduction

One of the first diffusion-based models in mathematical finance was introduced in 1973 in the paper by Fisher Black and Myron Sholes [BS73]. However, the model was not very realistic, as it did not take into account the variability of the volatility process, which was proven not to be a constant in the real stock market. The implied volatility of the stock options was not the same for different maturities and strikes.

Later, the class of so-called local volatility models was developed (Dupire et. al.). They fixed the problem of the spot implied volatility: now we could get a perfect fit into the spot prices of the options. However, the local volatility models give us the wrong dynamics, which is crucial to value the price of different derivatives.

In 1993, Steven Heston introduced a new diffusion-based model [Hes93], but he made a vital assumption: the variance process is not a constant, not a deterministic function of time and stock price, but follows a diffusion process, called the square-root process. The stochastic volatility models cannot be perfectly calibrated to fit the volatility smile, but they give us realistic dynamics of the implied volatility surface.

In this paper we revise the Heston model and its most popular simulation methods. We remind the reader of some basic facts about the Monte-Carlo methods in finance. We also study the empirical speed of convergence of the simulation methods and the accuracy of the various option greeks estimators. Furthermore, we implement a multi-threaded versions of the desired simulation techniques and optimize them for the best possible performance in Python with parallel vector processing.

## **Part I**

# **Monte-Carlo Methods for the Heston Model: A Theoretical Review**

# Chapter 1

## A review of the original Heston model

**Sources:** [Gat12]

In 1993, Steven Heston introduced a stochastic volatility model in [Hes93]. Here the variance of an asset follows a square-root process. We shall use the notation from [Zhi22].

### 1.1 Basic facts

Assume that the spot asset's price  $S$  at time  $t$  follows the diffusion (1.1) – (1.2):

$$dS(t) = \mu S(t)dt + \sqrt{v(t)}S(t)dZ_1(t), \quad (1.1)$$

$$dv(t) = (\delta^2 - 2\beta v(t)) dt + 2\delta\sqrt{v(t)}dZ_2(t), \quad (1.2)$$

where  $Z_1, Z_2$  are the correlated Wiener processes with  $dZ_1 dZ_2 = \rho dt$ .

### 1.2 PDEs

### 1.3 A closed-form solution for the European call option



## Chapter 2

# A review of the Monte-Carlo methods for diffusions

A. N. Kolmogorov in «On Logical Foundations of Probability Theory» [Kol83]

In everyday language we call random these phenomena where we cannot find a regularity allowing us to predict precisely their results. Generally speaking there is no ground to believe that a random phenomenon should possess any definite probability. Therefore, we should have distinguished between randomness proper (as absence of any regularity) and stochastic randomness (which is the subject of the probability theory). Since randomness is defined as absence of regularity, we should primarily specify the concept of regularity. The natural means of such a specification is the theory of algorithms and recursive functions...

### 2.1 Laws of large numbers and central limit theorems

**Theorem 1** (Khinchin). *Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables with  $\mathbb{E}X_i = \mu$ . Then*

$$\mathbb{P}\text{-}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = \mu. \quad (2.1)$$

**Theorem 2** (Kolmogorov). *Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables. Then  $\exists \mathbb{E}X_i = \mu$ , if and only if*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \stackrel{a.s.}{=} \mu. \quad (2.2)$$

**Theorem 3** (Lindeberg-Lévy). *Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$  and  $\text{var } X_i = \sigma^2$ . Then as  $n$  approaches infinity, the random variables  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)$  converge in law to a normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , i.e.*

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2). \quad (2.3)$$

## 2.2 The statistical foundations of the Monte-Carlo methods

**Lemma 4.** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a series of independent and identically distributed random variables, and  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a Borel function. Then  $h(X_1), h(X_2), \dots, h(X_n)$  is a series of independent and identically distributed random variables.

Thus, we could write an unbiased consistent estimator of  $\mathbb{E}[h(X)]$  as follows:

$$\mathbb{E}[\widehat{h(X)}] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h(X_i). \quad (2.4)$$

**Definition 1.** Monte Carlo simulation is a set of techniques that use pseudorandom number generators to solve problems that might be too complicated to be solved analytically. It is based on the central limit theorem.

Asymptotic confidence interval for  $\hat{\mu} = \widehat{\mathbb{E}[X]}$  at the confidence level  $\alpha$ :

$$\mu \in \left( \hat{\mu} - z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}, \hat{\mu} + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}} \right). \quad (2.5)$$

That means that the estimation error is equal to  $2z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}$ .

## 2.3 Variance reduction methods for the Monte-Carlo simulations

This section is mainly inspired by [KK22; BBG97]. Suppose we need to estimate a parameter  $\theta = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ . From the statistics course we know that  $\bar{Y}$  is a consistent unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ .

### 2.3.1 Control Variates

Suppose that we have another random variable  $Z$  that is correlated with  $Y$  and  $\mathbb{E}[Z] = \mu$  is known. Then we could introduce the following estimator:

$$\hat{\theta}^b = \bar{Y} + b(\bar{Z} - \mu), \quad (2.6)$$

where  $b$  is a constant. Obviously,  $\hat{\theta}^b$  is a consistent unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ . How do we choose  $b$ ? We need to minimize the variance of  $\hat{\theta}^b$ . A simple unconstrained optimization problem:

$$\text{var } \hat{\theta}^b = \text{var } \bar{Y} + b^2 \text{var } \bar{Z} - 2b \text{cov}[\bar{Y}, \bar{Z}] \rightarrow \min_b.$$

The solution is

$$b^* = \frac{\text{cov}[Y, Z]}{\text{var } Z}. \quad (2.7)$$

From this we may see that

$$\text{var } \hat{\theta}^b = (1 - \rho^2) \text{var } \bar{Y},$$

where  $\rho = \frac{\text{cov}[Y, Z]}{\sqrt{\text{var } Y} \sqrt{\text{var } Z}}$  is the correlation coefficient between  $Y$  and  $Z$ . Thus, in order to reduce the variance of an estimator, we need to find a strongly correlated random variable  $Z$ . If we

don't know the theoretical closed-form solution for the correlation coefficient, then we change the estimator to the following:

$$\hat{\theta}^b = \bar{Y} + \hat{b}_n(\bar{Z} - \mu), \quad \hat{b}_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Z_i - \bar{Z})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Z_i - \bar{Z})^2}.$$

Furthermore, all good properties of an estimator are preserved due to the convergence inheritance theorem.

Conclusion: with a  $b$  chosen near the optimal value (2.7), the variance reduction effect is strictly determined by the correlation coefficient  $\rho$ .

### 2.3.2 Antithetic Variates

Suppose that we have two correlated identically distributed samples  $Y^1$  and  $Y^2$ :  $\text{cov}[Y_i^1, Y_j^2] = \delta_{ij} \text{cov}[Y_i^1, Y_i^2]$ . Then we could introduce the following estimator:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{AV}} = \frac{\bar{Y}^1 + \bar{Y}^2}{2}. \quad (2.8)$$

Again, we can see that this estimator is unbiased and consistent. The variance of this estimator is

$$\text{var } \hat{\theta}_{\text{AV}} = \frac{1}{4} \text{var}[\bar{Y}^1 + \bar{Y}^2] = \frac{1}{4} \text{var}[\bar{Y}^1] + \frac{1}{4} \text{var}[\bar{Y}^2] + \frac{1}{2} \text{cov}[\bar{Y}^1, \bar{Y}^2].$$

Thus, the variance reduction effect takes place when  $\rho < 0$ . If the random variable is generated by the Smirnov's transform  $Y^1 = g(U)$ , then its antithetic variable is  $Y^2 = g(1 - U)$ , where  $U$  is a uniform over  $[0, 1]$  random variable. The same could be generalized to the case of  $Y = f(Z)$ . If  $Z$  is symmetric, then we define  $Y^1 = f(Z)$  and  $Y^2 = f(-Z)$ .

### 2.3.3 Importance Sampling

OTM options tend not to expire almost always or almost never. Thus, we need some ways to reduce the number of simulations for this kind of derivatives.

[ZLG13].

## 2.4 Monte-Carlo methods for Gaussian diffusions

This section is mainly inspired by [Zhi22; KP92].

### 2.4.1 Euler-Maruyama Scheme

#### Forward Euler Scheme for ODEs

Suppose that we have an ODE of the form

$$dX(t) = f(X(t), t)dt, \quad X(0) = X_0. \quad (2.9)$$

Then it could be numerically solved by the following finite difference scheme:

$$X_{n+1} = X_n + f(t_n, X_n)h_n, \quad (2.10)$$

where  $t_n = \sum_{k=1}^n h_k$ ,  $t_0 = 0$  is a grid.

### Backward Euler Scheme for ODEs

Suppose that we have an ODE of the form

$$dX(t) = f(X(t), t)dt, \quad X(0) = X_0. \quad (2.11)$$

Then it could be numerically solved by the following finite difference scheme:

$$X_{n+1} = X_n + f(t_{n+1}, X_{n+1})h_n, \quad (2.12)$$

where  $t_n = \sum_{k=1}^n h_k$ ,  $t_0 = 0$  is a grid.

### Euler-Maruyama Scheme for SDEs

Suppose we have a diffusion of the form

$$dX(t) = f(X(t), t)dt + \sigma(X(t), t)dW(t), \quad X_0 = X_0.$$

Then it could be numerically solved by the following finite difference scheme:

$$X_{n+1} = X_n + f(t_n, X_n)h_n + \sigma(t_n, X_n)\sqrt{h_n}Z_n, \quad (2.13)$$

where  $(Z_n)_{n=1,2,\dots}$  is a sample of standard normal random variables, and  $t_n = \sum_{k=1}^n h_k$ ,  $t_0 = 0$  is a grid. The same method could be generalized for the two-factor Gaussian diffusions. Further we assume that  $(t_i)_{i=0,1,\dots}$  is a uniform grid with  $t_i = ih$ .

**Definition 2.** Let  $\hat{X}^n(t)$  be a piecewise mesh approximation of an SDE solution  $X(t)$  (we assume that there exists a unique strong solution). Then a scheme is said to have a strong convergence of order  $p$  if

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \left| \hat{X}^n(T) - X(T) \right| \right] \leq Ch^p, \quad n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (2.14)$$

A scheme is said to have a weak convergence of order  $p$  if for any polynomial  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$\left| \mathbb{E} \left[ f(\hat{X}^n(T)) \right] - \mathbb{E} [f(X(T))] \right| \leq Ch^p, \quad n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (2.15)$$

**Theorem 5.** Under some technical assumptions the Euler-Maruyama scheme (2.13) has a strong convergence of order  $1/2$  and a weak convergence of order  $1$ .

*Proof.* **TODO. WRITE TECHNICAL ASSUMPTIONS** □

**Remark.** Weak convergence of the scheme guarantees that the approximation of the expectation is correct only at a given time, not in the whole time interval. I.e. a European call price may converge with a weak convergence rate 1, but the price of an Asian call option may not converge with a given weak convergence rate.

## 2.4.2 Milstein Scheme

## 2.4.3 Stochastic Runge-Kutta Scheme

## Chapter 3

# Methods of simulation of the Heston stochastic volatility model

### 3.1 Euler Scheme

Suppose we have the Heston model (1.1) – (1.2). Then it could be numerically solved by the following finite difference scheme:

$$S_{n+1} = S_n + \mu S_n h_n + \sqrt{v_n} S_n \sqrt{h_n} Z_{1,n}, \quad (3.1)$$

$$v_{n+1} = v_n + (\delta^2 - 2\beta v_n) h_n + \sigma \sqrt{v_n} \sqrt{h_n} Z_{2,n}, \quad (3.2)$$

where  $(Z_{1,n})_{n=1,2,\dots}$  and  $(Z_{2,n})_{n=1,2,\dots}$  are the  $\rho$ -correlated samples of standard normal random variables, and  $t_n = \sum_{k=1}^n h_n$  is a mesh grid. But we have a problem: during simulation of the Heston model using Euler method  $S_{t_n}$  and  $v_{t_n}$  could be negative. How do we deal with this inconvenience? Let us introduce the log-prices

$$X(t) := \log \frac{S(t)}{S(0)}. \quad (3.3)$$

We take the positive part of the variance:

$$X_{n+1} = X_n + (\mu - 0.5v_n^+) h_n + \sqrt{v_n^+} X_n \sqrt{h_n} Z_{1,n}, \quad (3.4)$$

$$v_{n+1} = v_n + (\delta^2 - 2\beta v_n^+) h_n + \sigma \sqrt{v_n^+} \sqrt{h_n} Z_{2,n}, \quad (3.5)$$

and then we take the exponential of the log-prices:

$$S_n = S_0 e^{X_n}. \quad (3.6)$$

However, the scheme is not accurate, since we ignore the  $dZ_i dZ_j$  terms in the Itô-Taylor series expansion.

## 3.2 Andersen Scheme

### 3.2.1 Quadratic-Exponential Scheme

We denote

$$m = \mathbb{E} \left[ \hat{V}(t + \Delta) \middle| \hat{V}(t) \right], \quad (3.7)$$

$$s^2 = \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \hat{V}(t + \Delta) - m \right)^2 \middle| \hat{V}(t) \right], \quad (3.8)$$

$$\psi = \frac{s^2}{m^2}. \quad (3.9)$$

Andersen proposes an approximation based on moment-matching techniques. His goal is then to speed up the first step of Broadie and Kaya's method. He observes that the conditional distribution of  $\hat{V}(t + \Delta)$  given  $\hat{V}(t)$  visually differs when  $\hat{V}(t)$  is small or large (in the variation coefficient sense). The scheme is constructed from the following two schemes:

1. Quadratic sampling scheme ( $\psi \leq 2$ );
2. Exponential sampling scheme ( $\psi \geq 1$ ).

Fortunately, these two intervals cover the whole positive real line. Furthermore, these two schemes could be applied at the same time when  $\psi \in [1, 2]$ . This implies that there exists a critical value  $\psi_{\text{crit}} \in [1, 2]$ , which could be an indicator of which scheme is more applicable at the given value of  $\psi$ . Let us show you this.

#### Quadratic Sampling Scheme

For large enough  $\hat{V}(t)$  (in the  $CV$ -sense) we can approximate the distribution of  $\hat{V}(t + \Delta)$  by the scaled non-central chi-squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom:

$$\text{Law} \left( \hat{V}(t + \Delta) \middle| \hat{V}(t) \right) = a(\Delta, \hat{V}(t), VP) \chi_1'^2(b(\Delta, \hat{V}(t), VP)), \quad (3.10)$$

where  $VP$  is the vector of parameters of the CIR variance.

**Lemma 6.** *We have*

$$b^2 = \frac{2}{\psi} - 1 + \sqrt{\frac{2}{\psi} \left( \frac{2}{\psi} - 1 \right)}, \quad (3.11)$$

$$a = \frac{m}{1 + b^2}. \quad (3.12)$$

*Proof.* **Plain equating of the theoretical and real moments.**

□

**Remark.** *The above lemma is not valid for  $\psi \geq 2$ .*

Therefore, if  $\hat{V}(t)$  is close to zero, then we have a problem in finding such  $a = a(\Delta, \hat{V}(t), VP)$  and  $b = b(\Delta, \hat{V}(t), VP)$  such that the moments of the desired conditional distribution could be properly matched.

### Exponential Sampling Scheme

Therefore, we approximate the desired distribution with the following method. Let  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  be independent random variables and  $\xi \sim Be(1-p)$ ,  $\eta \sim Exp(\beta)$  for some  $p \in (0, 1)$  and  $\beta > 0$ . Then we have (given  $\hat{V}(t)$ )

$$\hat{V}(t + \Delta) = \xi \cdot \eta, \quad (3.13)$$

what gives us the following distribution density:

$$p_{\hat{V}(t+\Delta)|\hat{V}(t)} = p \cdot \delta(x) + (1-p) \cdot \beta e^{-\beta x}, \quad (3.14)$$

where  $\delta(x)$  is a standard delta function and for some  $\beta$  and  $p$ . Sampling  $\xi$  and  $\eta$ : Smirnov's transform. Or we can use the Smirnov transform with the cdf of the desired distribution.

**Lemma 7.** *We have*

$$p = \frac{\psi - 1}{\psi + 1}, \quad \beta = \frac{1-p}{m} = \frac{2}{m(\psi + 1)}. \quad (3.15)$$

*Proof.* By direct integration of the given densities we get the following:

$$\frac{1-p}{\beta} = m, \quad \frac{1-p^2}{\beta^2} = s^2. \quad (3.16)$$

□

**Remark.** *The above lemma is not valid for  $\psi \leq 1$ .*

### 3.2.2 Truncated Gaussian Scheme

The main idea of the method: in this scheme the idea is to sample from a moment-matched Gaussian density where all probability mass below zero is inserted into a delta-function at the origin. Formalization of the idea:

$$\left( \hat{V}(t + \Delta) \middle| V(t) \right) = (\mu + \sigma Z)^+, \quad (3.17)$$

where  $Z$  is a standard normal random variable and  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the 'mean' and the 'standard deviation' of the desired distribution. We find  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  from the moment-matching techniques (see the previous method, equations (3.7) – (3.9)).

**Lemma 8.** *Let  $\phi(x)$  be a standard Gaussian density and define a function  $r : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by the following equation:*

$$r(x)\phi(r(x)) + \Phi(r(x))(1 + r(x)^2) = (1 + x) (\phi(r(x)) + r(x)\Phi(r(x)))^2. \quad (3.18)$$

*Then the moment-matching parameters are*

$$\mu = \frac{m}{\frac{\phi(r(\psi))}{r(\psi)} + \Phi(r(\psi))}, \quad (3.19)$$

$$\sigma = \frac{m}{\phi(r(\psi)) + r(\psi)\Phi(r(\psi))}. \quad (3.20)$$

*Proof.* **PROOF HERE**

□

**Lemma 9.** Let  $\hat{V}(t)$  be a known point of the path of a given in (??) process. Then we have

$$m = \frac{\delta^2}{2\beta} + \left( \hat{V}(t) - \frac{\delta^2}{2\beta} \right) e^{-2\beta\Delta}, \quad (3.21)$$

$$s^2 = \frac{\hat{V}(t)\sigma^2 e^{-2\beta\Delta}}{2\beta} (1 - e^{-2\beta\Delta}) + \frac{\delta^2\sigma^2}{8\beta^2} (1 - e^{-2\beta\Delta})^2. \quad (3.22)$$

Moreover,  $\psi = \frac{s^2}{m^2}$  depends on  $\hat{V}(t)$  explicitly which yields the bounded domain of  $r(\psi)$ .

*Proof.* **PROOF HERE.** □

### 3.3 Broadie-Kaya Scheme

It follows from Heston model that for  $t > u$

$$S_t = S_u e^{(r(t-u) - \frac{1}{2} \int_u^t v_s ds + \rho \int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_1(s) + (1-\rho) \int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_2(s))}, \quad (3.23)$$

$$v_t = v_u + \kappa\theta(t-u) - \kappa \int_u^t v_s ds + \sigma \int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_2(s), \quad (3.24)$$

Exact simulation algorithm for the Heston model:

1. Generate a sample from the distribution of  $v_t$  given  $v_u$ ;
2. Generate a sample from the distribution of  $\int_u^t v_s ds$  given  $v_t$  and  $v_u$ ;
3. Recover  $\int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_1(s)$  given  $v_t$ ,  $v_u$ , and  $\int_u^t v_s ds$ ;
4. Generate a sample from the distribution of  $S_t$  given  $\int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_1(s)$ ,  $\int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_2(s)$ ,  $\int_u^t v_s ds$ .

#### Step 1: Generate a sample from the distribution of $v_t$ given $v_u$

As shown in [CIR85], the distribution of  $v_t$  given  $v_u$  for some  $u < t$  is, up to a scale factor, a noncentral chi-squared distribution. The transition law of  $v_t$  can be expressed as:

$$v_t = \frac{\sigma^2(1 - e^{-\kappa(t-u)})}{4\kappa} \chi_d'^2 \left( \frac{4\kappa e^{-\kappa(t-u)}}{\sigma^2(1 - e^{-\kappa(t-u)})} v_u \right), \quad (3.25)$$

where  $\chi_d'^2(\lambda)$  denotes the noncentral chi-squared random variable with  $d$  degrees of freedom, and noncentrality parameter  $\lambda$ , and

$$d = \frac{4\theta\kappa}{\sigma^2}. \quad (3.26)$$

Thus, we can sample from the distribution of  $v_t$  exactly, provided that we can sample from the noncentral chi-squared distribution. [JKB94] show that for  $d > 1$ , the following representation is valid:

$$\chi_d'^2(\lambda) = \chi_1'^2(\lambda) + \chi_{d-1}'^2 = N(\lambda, 1)^2 + \chi_{d-1}^2. \quad (3.27)$$

Therefore, when  $d > 1$ , sampling from a noncentral chi-squared distribution is reduced to sampling from an ordinary chi-squared and an independent normal. When  $d < 1$  we can use the fact that

$$\chi_d'^2(\lambda) \sim \chi_{d+2N}^2, \quad (3.28)$$

where  $N$  is a Poisson random variable with mean  $\frac{\lambda}{2}$ .



**Step 2: Generate a sample from the distribution of  $\int_u^t V_s ds$  given  $v_t$  and  $v_u$**

The following formula can be derived. **The derivation could be found in in the original paper. DERIVE HERE**

$$\phi(a) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left( ia \int_u^t V_s ds \right) \middle| v_u, v_t \right] = \frac{\gamma(a) e^{-(1/2)(\gamma(a)-\kappa)(t-u)}}{\kappa(1 - e^{-\gamma(a)(t-u)})} \exp \left( \frac{v_u + v_t}{\sigma^2} \left[ \frac{\kappa(1 + e^{-\kappa(t-u)})}{1 - e^{-\kappa(1-u)}} \right] \right) \frac{I_{0.5d-1}(\sqrt{v_u v_t} \frac{4\gamma(a) e^{-0.5\gamma(a)(t-u)}}{\sigma^2(1 - e^{-\kappa(a)(t-u)})})}{I_{0.5d-1}(\sqrt{v_u v_t} \frac{4\kappa e^{-0.5\kappa(t-u)}}{\sigma^2(1 - e^{-\kappa(t-u)})})}, \quad (3.29)$$

where  $\gamma(a) = \sqrt{\kappa^2 - 2\sigma i a}$  and  $I_{0.5d-1}$  is a modified Bessel function of the first kind.

Let  $V(u, t)$  denote the random variable that has the conditional distribution of the integral  $\int_u^t V_s ds$  given  $v_u$  and  $v_t$ . Then we need to invert the characteristic function to get the cumulative distribution function

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) = \mathbb{P}(V(u, t) \leq x) &= E \left[ e^{iaV(u, t)} \middle| v_u, v_t \right] = \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin ux}{u} \Phi(u) du = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin ux}{u} \Phi(u) du. \end{aligned} \quad (3.30)$$

To calculate the integral the trapezoidal rule is being used:

$$\mathbb{P}(V(u, t) \leq X) = \frac{hx}{\pi} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin hjx}{j} \Re[\Phi(hj)] - e_d(h), \quad (3.31)$$

where  $h$  is a equidistant grid scale and  $e_d(h)$  is the discretization error  $e_d$ . It can be bounded above by using a Poisson summation formula:

$$0 \leq e_d(h) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ F\left(\frac{2k\pi}{h} + x\right) - F\left(\frac{2k\pi}{h} - x\right) \right] \leq 1 - F\left(\frac{2\pi}{h} - x\right). \quad (3.32)$$

If we want to achieve a discretization error  $\alpha$ , then the step size should be

$$h = 2 \frac{2\pi}{x + u_\alpha} \geq \frac{\pi}{u_\alpha}, \quad (3.33)$$

where  $1 - F(u_\alpha) = \alpha$  and  $0 \leq x \leq u_\alpha$ . To be able to calculate  $P(V(u, t) < x)$  using (3.31), we need to determine a point at which the summation can be terminated. Let  $N$  represent the last term to be calculated so that the approximation becomes

$$F(x) = \mathbb{P}(V(u, t) \leq X) = \frac{hx}{\pi} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{\sin hjx}{j} \Re[\Phi(hj)] - e_d(h) - e_T(N). \quad (3.34)$$

Because  $|\sin ux| \leq 1$ , the integrand in (3.32) is bounded by

$$\frac{2|\Re[\Phi(u)]|}{\pi u} \leq \frac{2|\Phi(u)|}{\pi u}. \quad (3.35)$$

To simulate the value of the integral, the Smirnov's transform method is used. We generate a uniform random variable  $U$  and then find the value of  $x$  for which

$$\mathbb{P}(V(u, t) \leq x) = U. \quad (3.36)$$

**Step 3: Generate a sample from the distribution of  $V(u, t)$  given  $v_u$  and  $v_t$** 

The following formula can be used to calculate  $\int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_1(s)$ , as we already generated samples for  $v_t, v_u, V(u, t)$

$$\int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_1(s) = \frac{1}{\sigma} (v_t v_u) - \kappa \theta (t - u) + V(u, t). \quad (3.37)$$

**Step 4: Generate a sample from the distribution of  $V(u, t)$  given  $v_u$  and  $v_t$** 

Lastly, we need to bring everything together:

- $\int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_1(s)$  and  $\int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_2(s)$  are already calculated;
- $V(u, t) = \int_u^t v_s ds$  is also calculated.

$$S_t = S_u \exp \left( r(t - u) - \frac{1}{2} V(u, t) + \rho \int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_1(s) + (1 - \rho) \int_u^t \sqrt{v_s} dZ_2(s) \right) \quad (3.38)$$

## **Part II**

# **Implementation Problems and Pricing Exotics**

## Chapter 4

# Implementation of the Methods

### 4.1 General Problems and mc\_price Function

The error of discretization consists of two parts: the discretization error itself (the one coming from the transition from an stochastic differential equation to the stochastic difference equation) and the Monte-Carlo error (see Section 2.2). We controlled the Monte-Carlo error with the following method:

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**Algorithm 1** Outer loop of the Monte-Carlo method (mc\_price)

---

**Inputs:** payoff, simulate, market parameters, Heston parameters.  
prices = []  
**while** len(prices\_confidence\_interval) > desired precision **and** iter < MAX\_ITER **do**  
    paths = simulate(batch\_size)  
    prices  $\leftarrow$  payoff(paths)  
    prices\_confidence\_interval = confidence\_interval(prices)  
**end while**  
return mean(prices)

---

### 4.2 Discretisation Schemes

**Algorithm 2** Euler-Maruyama scheme (simulate\_heston\_euler)**Inputs:**  $S_0, V_0^*, r, \kappa, \theta, \sigma, \rho, T, N$ Set  $X_0 = \log S_0$ Set  $V_0 = V_0^*$ Generate a 2-dimensional Gaussian noise  $Z_i = \begin{bmatrix} Z_i^1 \\ Z_i^2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right)$ **for**  $i = 1$  to  $N$  **do**

$$X_{i+1} = X_i + (\mu - 0.5V_i^+)h_i + \sqrt{V_i^+}X_i\sqrt{h_i}Z_i^1$$

$$V_{i+1} = V_i + (\delta^2 - 2\beta V_i^+)h_i + \sigma\sqrt{V_i^+}\left(\rho Z_i^1 + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2}Z_i^2\right)$$

**end for**return  $S_N = \exp X_N$ **Algorithm 3** Quadratic-Exponential scheme (simulate\_heston\_andersen\_qe)**Inputs:**Set  $X_0 = \log S_0$ Set  $V_0 = V_0^*$ Set some  $\psi_c \in [1, 2]$ **for**  $i = 1$  to  $N$  **do**Compute  $m$  and  $s^2$  given  $V_{i-1}$ .Compute the coefficient of variation  $\psi = \frac{s^2}{m^2}$ Generate a random number  $U_V \sim U(0, 1)$ **if**  $\psi \leq \psi_c$  **then**Compute  $a$  and  $b$  (eq. (3.11) – (3.12))Compute  $Z_V \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  using the Smirnov transform applied to  $U_V$ Compute  $V_{i+1} = a(b + Z_V)^2$ **else****end if****end for****Algorithm 4** Truncated Gaussian scheme (simulate\_heston\_andersen\_tg)**Inputs:**

## **Chapter 5**

# **Comparison of the Methods**

We shall compare the described methods for the European call option prices due to the fact that we have a closed-form solution for it.

### **5.1 Performance**

### **5.2 Accuracy**

## **Chapter 6**

# **Pricing Exotics**

# Conclusion



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