Simulating Sample Paths of Stochastic Processes Arising in Financial Engineering

John Morgan Blake

Loughborough University

September 2019

Outline

- Brownian Motion
- 2 Geometric Brownian Motion
- Monte Carlo Option Pricing
- Short Rate Models
- Jump Models
- **6** Summary

Definition (Brownian motion)

Definition (Brownian motion)

Standard Brownian motion is a continuous-time stochastic process B(t) with the following properties:

• B(0) = 0

Definition (Brownian motion)

- B(0) = 0
- B(t) is almost surely continuous

Definition (Brownian motion)

- B(0) = 0
- B(t) is almost surely continuous
- B(t) has independent increments

Definition (Brownian motion)

- B(0) = 0
- B(t) is almost surely continuous
- B(t) has independent increments
- $B(t) B(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t s)$ for $t \ge s \ge 0$

Definition (Brownian motion)

Standard Brownian motion is a continuous-time stochastic process B(t) with the following properties:

- B(0) = 0
- B(t) is almost surely continuous
- B(t) has independent increments
- $B(t) B(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t s)$ for $t \ge s \ge 0$

How can we generate realisations of this process...

Definition (Brownian motion)

Standard Brownian motion is a continuous-time stochastic process B(t) with the following properties:

- B(0) = 0
- B(t) is almost surely continuous
- B(t) has independent increments
- $B(t) B(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t s)$ for $t \ge s \ge 0$

How can we generate realisations of this process... ...while preserving probabilities?

Fix two timepoints $t_2 > t_1 > 0$. If $B(t_1)$ is known, then $B(t_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(B(t_1), t_2 - t_1)$.

Fix two timepoints $t_2 > t_1 > 0$. If $B(t_1)$ is known, then $B(t_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(B(t_1), t_2 - t_1)$. We can sample from this with our preferred method.

Fix two timepoints $t_2 > t_1 > 0$. If $B(t_1)$ is known, then $B(t_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(B(t_1), t_2 - t_1)$. We can sample from this with our preferred method.

Continuing inductively, we can simulate at $0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n$.

Fix two timepoints $t_2 > t_1 > 0$. If $B(t_1)$ is known, then $B(t_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(B(t_1), t_2 - t_1)$. We can sample from this with our preferred method.

Continuing inductively, we can simulate at $0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n$.

This is the random walk construction. At every time point, the construction "stops and decides" its "direction of travel".

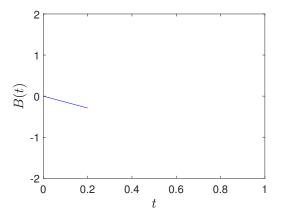


Figure: Standard Brownian Motion simulated with 5 steps. Each displacement is a draw from $\mathcal{N}(0,(1/\sqrt{5})^2)$.

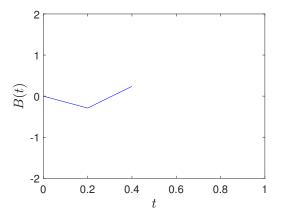


Figure: Standard Brownian Motion simulated with 5 steps. Each displacement is a draw from $\mathcal{N}(0,(1/\sqrt{5})^2)$.

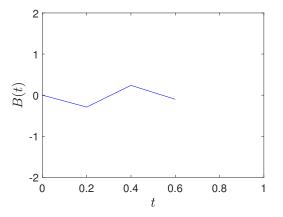


Figure: Standard Brownian Motion simulated with 5 steps. Each displacement is a draw from $\mathcal{N}(0,(1/\sqrt{5})^2)$.

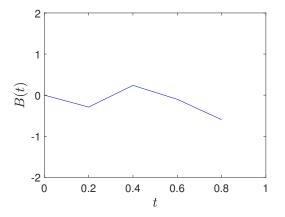


Figure: Standard Brownian Motion simulated with 5 steps. Each displacement is a draw from $\mathcal{N}(0,(1/\sqrt{5})^2)$.

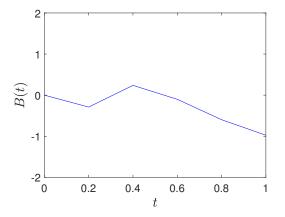


Figure: Standard Brownian Motion simulated with 5 steps. Each displacement is a draw from $\mathcal{N}(0,(1/\sqrt{5})^2)$.

We can also make the timestep small and simulate in the same way.

We can also make the timestep small and simulate in the same way.

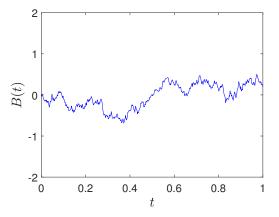


Figure: Standard Brownian Motion with 500 Timesteps

Instead of evaluating at the timepoints from left to right, we can use independence of increments to simulate at the timepoints in any order.

Instead of evaluating at the timepoints from left to right, we can use independence of increments to simulate at the timepoints in any order.

Opting to do this recursively by repeatedly bisecting the set of time points makes sense:

 We can stop after an arbitrary amount of time and still have a simulation on the entire time interval.

Instead of evaluating at the timepoints from left to right, we can use independence of increments to simulate at the timepoints in any order.

Opting to do this recursively by repeatedly bisecting the set of time points makes sense:

- We can stop after an arbitrary amount of time and still have a simulation on the entire time interval.
- We can get arbitrarily high resolution by continuing to run the algorithm.

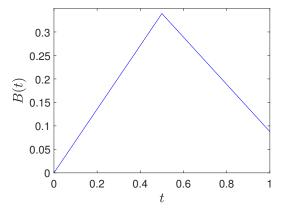


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 2 steps

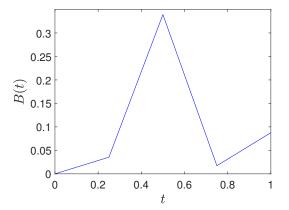


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 4 steps

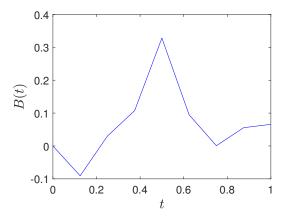


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 8 steps

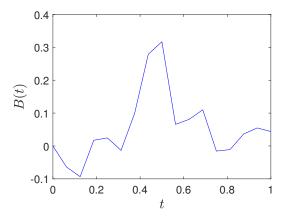


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 16 steps

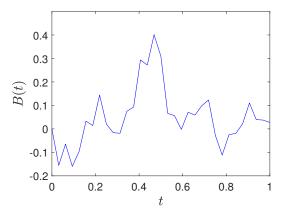


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 32 steps

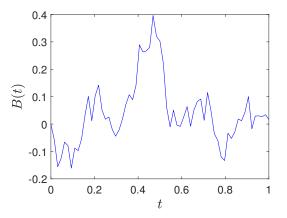


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 64 steps

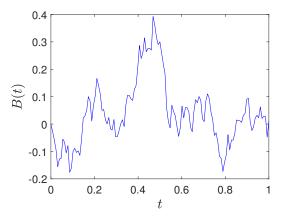


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 128 steps

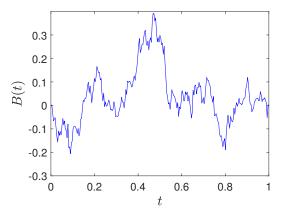


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 256 steps

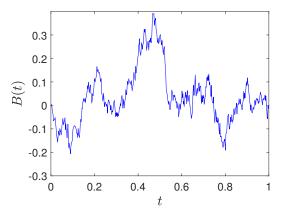


Figure: $BM(1, 0.5^2)$ simulated by 512 steps

We first create the covariance matrix for $\ensuremath{\textit{N}}$ equally-spaced timepoints.

Recall that $\mathbf{C}_{ij} = min(i/N, j/N)$.

We first create the covariance matrix for N equally-spaced timepoints.

Recall that $\mathbf{C}_{ij} = min(i/N, j/N)$.

Then, we calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of ${\bf C}$.

We first create the covariance matrix for N equally-spaced timepoints.

Recall that $C_{ij} = min(i/N, j/N)$.

Then, we calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of ${\bf C}$.

Now, if we take only the eigenvectors corresponding to the greatest few eigenvalues, we get a good approximation to the overall shape of a sample path.

We first create the covariance matrix for ${\it N}$ equally-spaced timepoints.

Recall that $\mathbf{C}_{ij} = min(i/N, j/N)$.

Then, we calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of ${\bf C}$.

Now, if we take only the eigenvectors corresponding to the greatest few eigenvalues, we get a good approximation to the overall shape of a sample path.

For an *n*-step path with equal spacing, $t_{i+1} - t_i = \Delta t$, Åkesson and Lehoczky showed that:

$$v_i(j) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2n+1}}\sin\left(\frac{2i-1}{2n+1}j\pi\right), \quad j=1,\ldots,n.$$

and

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\Delta t}{4} \sin^{-2} \left(\frac{2i-1}{2n+1} \frac{\pi}{2} \right), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

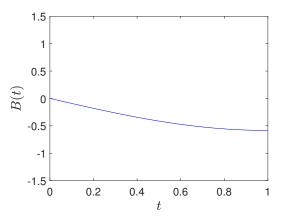


Figure: 1 principal component of standard Brownian motion, simulated with 512 steps

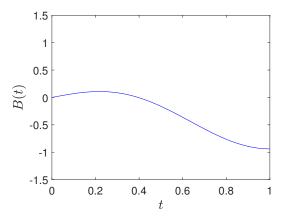


Figure: 2 principal components of standard Brownian motion, simulated with 512 steps

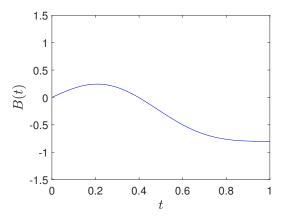


Figure: 3 principal components of standard Brownian motion, simulated with 512 steps

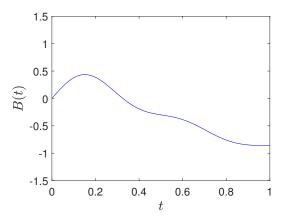


Figure: 5 principal components of standard Brownian motion, simulated with $512\ steps$

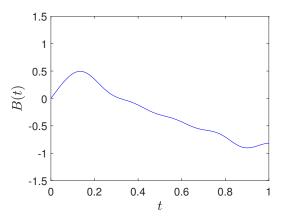


Figure: 10 principal components of standard Brownian motion, simulated with 512 steps

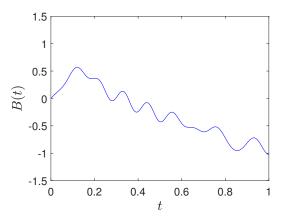


Figure: 20 principal components of standard Brownian motion, simulated with 512 steps

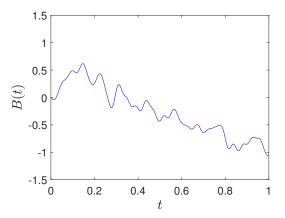


Figure: 50 principal components of standard Brownian motion, simulated with 512 steps

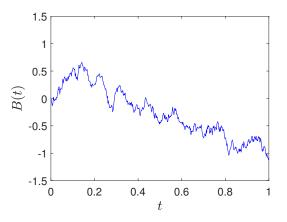


Figure: 512 principal components of standard Brownian motion, simulated with 512 steps

Black-Scholes-Merton assumes that asset prices follow geometric Brownian motion.

Black-Scholes-Merton assumes that asset prices follow geometric Brownian motion.

Given a sample path of standard Brownian motion, we can create a sample path of geometric Brownian motion with the underlying Brownian motion having parameters μ and σ .

Black-Scholes-Merton assumes that asset prices follow geometric Brownian motion.

Given a sample path of standard Brownian motion, we can create a sample path of geometric Brownian motion with the underlying Brownian motion having parameters μ and σ .

$$B_t \mapsto z_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma B_t}$$

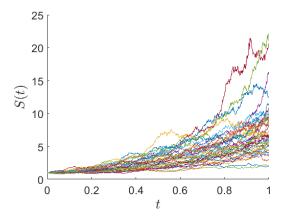


Figure: 40 sample paths of geometric Brownian motion. The respective Brownian motion has $\mu=2$, $\sigma=0.5$. Each path has 1000 timesteps and were generated using the random walk construction.

Central Limit Theorem

By the Central Limit Theorem, when sampling i.i.d. random variables, the mean of the samples is a good estimate for the expectation of the random variables.

Central Limit Theorem

By the Central Limit Theorem, when sampling i.i.d. random variables, the mean of the samples is a good estimate for the expectation of the random variables.

The error converges to zero rather slowly: at a rate of $O(n^{-1/2})$.

Monte Carlo Option Pricing

One typical model for stock price processes is geometric Brownian motion.

Monte Carlo Option Pricing

One typical model for stock price processes is geometric Brownian motion.

Monte Carlo option pricing is the method of sampling from these simulations and then extracting information.

Monte Carlo Option Pricing

One typical model for stock price processes is geometric Brownian motion.

Monte Carlo option pricing is the method of sampling from these simulations and then extracting information.

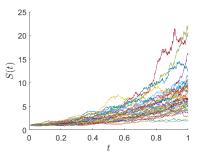


Figure: 40 sample paths of geometric Brownian motion. The respective Brownian motion has $\mu=2,~\sigma=0.5$.

Definition (Lookback Option)

A floating lookback put (resp. call) option gives the holder the right to sell (resp. buy) an asset at the highest (resp. lowest) realised price. Hence, a lookback put option has payoff:

$$(\max_{t\in[0,T]}S(t)-S(T))^+$$

Definition (Lookback Option)

A floating lookback put (resp. call) option gives the holder the right to sell (resp. buy) an asset at the highest (resp. lowest) realised price. Hence, a lookback put option has payoff:

$$(\max_{t \in [0,T]} S(t) - S(T))^+$$

How can we price this option?

Definition (Lookback Option)

A floating lookback put (resp. call) option gives the holder the right to sell (resp. buy) an asset at the highest (resp. lowest) realised price. Hence, a lookback put option has payoff:

$$(\max_{t\in[0,T]}S(t)-S(T))^+$$

How can we price this option?

The price of the option is just the expected payoff:

Definition (Lookback Option)

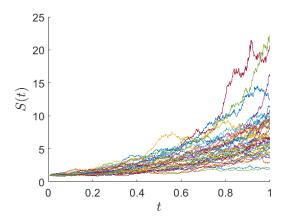
A floating lookback put (resp. call) option gives the holder the right to sell (resp. buy) an asset at the highest (resp. lowest) realised price. Hence, a lookback put option has payoff:

$$(\max_{t\in[0,T]}S(t)-S(T))^+$$

How can we price this option?

The price of the option is just the expected payoff:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\max_{t\in[0,T]}S(t)-S(T)\right)^{+}\right]$$



We price the option on each sample path. Then, we take the mean of these prices.

We have to be careful about discretisation error:

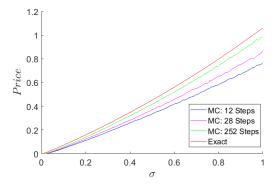


Figure: Monte Carlo pricing of a lookback option. The underlying GBM has changing σ . $\mu = 0.05$, r = 0.02, S(0) = 1. We compare various discrete monitoring schema and exact continuous monitoring.

Up until now, we've assumed that there exists a unique constant risk-free rate.

Up until now, we've assumed that there exists a unique constant risk-free rate.

We can easily generalise this to a time-dependent rate.

Up until now, we've assumed that there exists a unique constant risk-free rate.

We can easily generalise this to a time-dependent rate.

But, interest rates aren't deterministic...

Up until now, we've assumed that there exists a unique constant risk-free rate.

We can easily generalise this to a time-dependent rate.

But, interest rates aren't deterministic...

Is there a way to model stochastic interest rates?

In 1977, Vasicek proposed modelling the short rate by an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process:

$$dr(t) = \alpha(b(t) - r(t))dt + \sigma dB(t)$$

In 1977, Vasicek proposed modelling the short rate by an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process:

$$dr(t) = \alpha(b(t) - r(t))dt + \sigma dB(t)$$

This captures mean-reversion, and allows for negative interest rates. We can solve this SDE at time t, given $0 \le u < t$

$$r(t) = e^{-\alpha(t-u)}r(u) + \alpha \int_u^t e^{-\alpha(t-s)}b(s)ds + \sigma \int_u^t e^{-\alpha(t-s)}dB(s).$$

We can discretise this, similar to Euler's method on ODEs.

Hence, given some r(u), with $0 \le u < t$

$$r(t) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(e^{-\alpha(t-u)}r(u) + \alpha \int_u^t e^{-\alpha(t-s)}b(s)ds, \ \frac{\sigma^2}{2\alpha}(1 - e^{-2\alpha(t-u)})\right)$$

And so we can simulate this process step-by-step as a random walk.

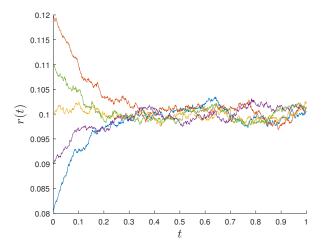


Figure: Five simulation of the Vasicek model with b=0.1, $\alpha=10$, $\sigma=0.02$ and different values of r(0).

Bonds

An investment earning interest at a rate r(u) at time u grows from a value of 1 at time 0 to a value of

$$\beta(t) = \exp\left(\int_0^t r(u)du\right)$$

at time t.

We take this as the numeraire.

Bonds

An investment earning interest at a rate r(u) at time u grows from a value of 1 at time 0 to a value of

$$\beta(t) = \exp\left(\int_0^t r(u)du\right)$$

at time t.

We take this as the numeraire.

Hence, the time-0 discounted price of a bond paying 1 at T is

$$B(0,T) = \mathbb{E}\left[\exp\left(-\int_0^T r(u)du\right)\right].$$

Vasicek Bond Pricing

If we suppose that r follows the Vasicek model, we can use the sampled values of r(u) at each timepoint to estimate the integral using the trapezium rule.

Vasicek Bond Pricing

If we suppose that r follows the Vasicek model, we can use the sampled values of r(u) at each timepoint to estimate the integral using the trapezium rule.

Then, the average result from repeatedly evaluating this expression on sample paths will converge to the expected value (i.e. the price of the bond).

Vasicek Bond Pricing

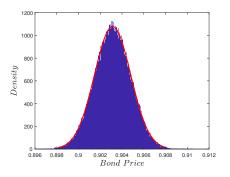


Figure: 10^5 trials of pricing a bond paying 1 at T=1, with b=0.1, $\alpha=10$, $\sigma=0.02$, r(0)=0.12.

```
Normal distribution

mu = 0.903134 [0.903124, 0.903145]

sigma = 0.00166463 [0.00165737, 0.00167196]
```

Jump Processes

So far, all of our models have been (almost surely) continuous, but empirical evidence suggests the presence of "jumps" in real-life stock prices. The existence of jumps also aids in explaining unexpected leptokurtosis which has been observed in asset returns.

Jump Processes

So far, all of our models have been (almost surely) continuous, but empirical evidence suggests the presence of "jumps" in real-life stock prices. The existence of jumps also aids in explaining unexpected leptokurtosis which has been observed in asset returns. How can we model these jumps?

Pure Poisson Process

The natural model to choose would be the Poisson distribution, assuming the jumps occur at a constant rate, and independently.

Pure Poisson Process

The natural model to choose would be the Poisson distribution, assuming the jumps occur at a constant rate, and independently. The time between events is exponentially distributed.

Pure Poisson Process

The natural model to choose would be the Poisson distribution, assuming the jumps occur at a constant rate, and independently. The time between events is exponentially distributed.

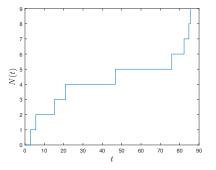


Figure: One realisation of the pure Poisson process over the interval [0, 90]. The exponential distribution has rate 10.

Compound Poisson Process

Now, we can allow the jumps to vary. In particular, Merton proposed a that the jump sizes follow a lognormal distribution.

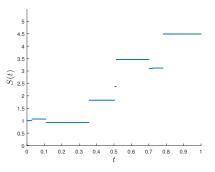


Figure: One realisation of the compound Poisson process over the interval [0,1]. The exponential distribution has rate 0.1. The lognormal distribution has parameters $\mu_{jump}=0.1$ and $\sigma_{jump}=0.2$.

In 1976, Merton proposed an extension to the existing Black-Scholes-Merton framework. He said that we should add a jump term to the normal geometric Brownian motion SDE:

$$\frac{dS(t)}{S(t-)} = \mu dt + \sigma dB(t) + dJ(t)$$

In 1976, Merton proposed an extension to the existing Black-Scholes-Merton framework. He said that we should add a jump term to the normal geometric Brownian motion SDE:

$$\frac{dS(t)}{S(t-)} = \mu dt + \sigma dB(t) + dJ(t)$$

$$J(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N(t)} (Y_j - 1)$$
 where the Y_1, Y_2, \ldots are random variables.

In 1976, Merton proposed an extension to the existing Black-Scholes-Merton framework. He said that we should add a jump term to the normal geometric Brownian motion SDE:

$$\frac{dS(t)}{S(t-)} = \mu dt + \sigma dB(t) + dJ(t)$$

 $J(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N(t)} (Y_j - 1)$ where the Y_1, Y_2, \ldots are random variables. N(t) is a counting process: there exist random arrival times $0 < \tau_1 < \tau_2 < \ldots$ and $N(t) = \sup\{n \mid \tau_n \leq t\}$ counts the number of arrivals in [0, t].

Now, letting the Y_i follow a lognormal distribution, we can simulate Merton's jump-diffusion model simply by taking the pointwise product of the appropriate geometric Brownian motion and compound Poisson process sample paths. This construction will satisfy the Merton jump-diffusion SDE.

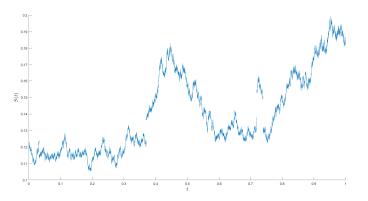


Figure: One realisation of the Merton jump-diffusion model over the interval [0,1] with S(0)=0.12. The exponential distribution has rate 0.15. The lognormal distribution has parameters $\mu_{jump}=0.05$ and $\sigma_{jump}=0.08$. $\mu_{BM}=0.1$ and $\sigma_{BM}=0.4$.

Summary

What have we covered in this presentation?

- Three methods for simulating Brownian motion.
- Simulation of geometric Brownian motion.
 - In one dimension.
 - In multiple dimensions.
- Monte Carlo pricing of options.
- Simulating a short rate model (Vasicek).
 - Monte Carlo bond pricing.
- Simulating Merton's jump-diffusion model.

Summary

Other topics covered in the project:

- An alternative to GBM: the CEV model.
- Variance reduction in Monte Carlo estimates:
 - Antithetic variates
- Monte Carlo pricing of more exotic multi-asset options:
 - Asian options
 - Barrier options
 - Spread options
- More short rate models:
 - Ho-Lee model
 - CIR (square-root diffusion) model
- Monte Carlo option pricing with jumps.