

# Advanced Machine Learning

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# Course Outline

1. Introduction
2. Neural Networks (NN)

Application in finance : Calibration of models's parameter

1. NN to approximate option price
2. The calibration problem:
  1. Pointwise calibration
  2. Surface calibration

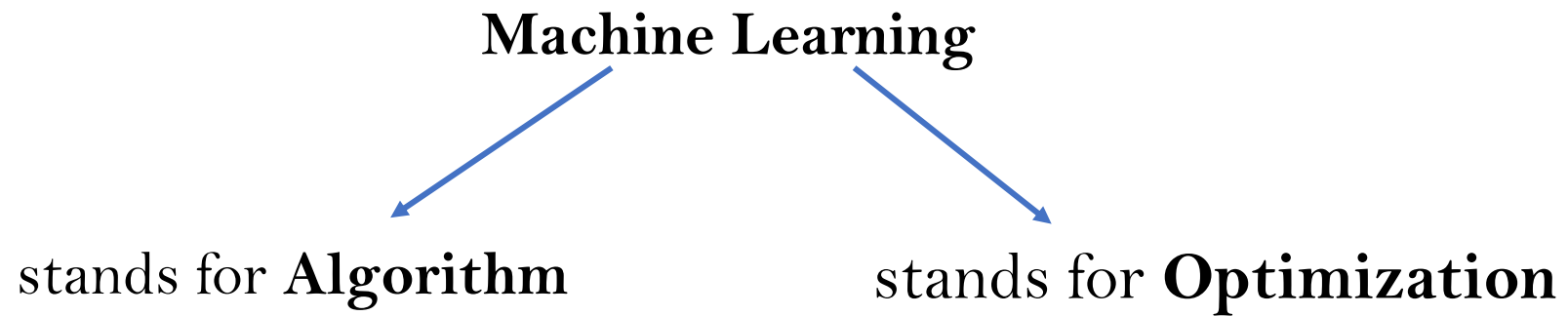
In every chapter we will have some example in python

# Recommended reading

- Goodfellow, Ian, Yoshua Bengio, and Aaron Courville. *Deep learning*. MIT press, 2016.
- James, G., Witten, D., Hastie, T., & Tibshirani, R. (2013). *An introduction to statistical learning* (Vol. 112, p. 18). New York: springer.
- Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., Friedman, J. H., & Friedman, J. H. (2009). *The elements of statistical learning: data mining, inference, and prediction* (Vol. 2, pp. 1-758). New York: springer.
- Rogers, S., & Girolami, M. (2016). *A first course in machine learning*. Chapman and Hall/CRC.
- Many resources available online, stackoverflow, standford and MIT courses etc...

# Chapter 1: Introduction

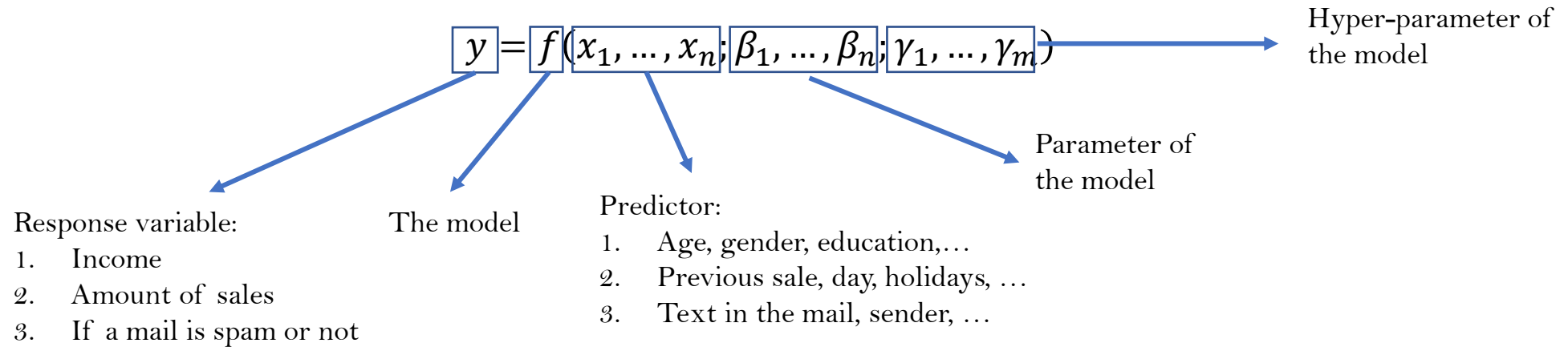
# What is Machine Learning



# Machine Learning Fundamentals

Which Problems do ML solves ?

ML Aims to learn (approximate) a model  $f$ , that relate the features  $x_i$  to the response  $y$



# Machine Learning Fundamentals

$$y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n; \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n; \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m)$$

How do we learn  $f$ ?

The aim is to find “**the best**” model  $f$  given a **training dataset**  $\mathbf{D} = \{Y_i, \mathbf{X}_i\} \ i = 1, \dots, n$  where  $n$  are the rows of  $\mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_i$  is the matrix of the predictor variables and  $Y_i$  is the response variable.

How to formalize the expression “**the best**”?  $\rightarrow$  **Optimization**

We fix the shape for the model (e.g. linear model, tree based model, ecc..) and solve the following optimization problem:

$$\beta, \gamma = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta, \gamma} L(Y, f(X; \beta; \gamma)) \text{ usually simplified* as } \beta = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} L(Y, f(X; \beta; \gamma^*))$$

$L$  is called the **Loss Function** and measures how well our model approximate the data

\* Having fixed  $\gamma$  with other methods, e.g. cross-validation (see chapter 5)

# Model Generalization

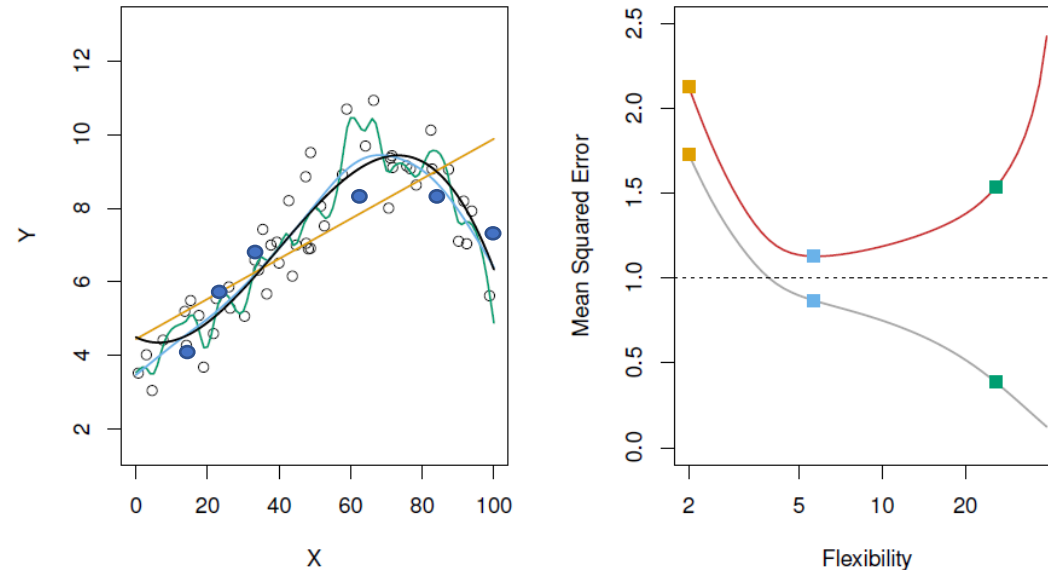
- In all the real-world situation, we do not really care how the model works well on the **training data**. Rather, we are interested in the performance of the model to previously **unseen test data**:
  - Performance on unseen test data are referred as the **generalization performance** of the model.
  - A model that perform well on training, but has low performance on test suffers from **overfitting**
  - Trade-off between generalization & overfitting is often referred as **bias-variance trade-off**.
- Moreover, we need also a procedure to compute the **hyper-parameters of a given model**



# Overfitting

Just consider two sets of data:

- Train data: used to build the model
- Test data: used to evaluate the model (must remain unseen)



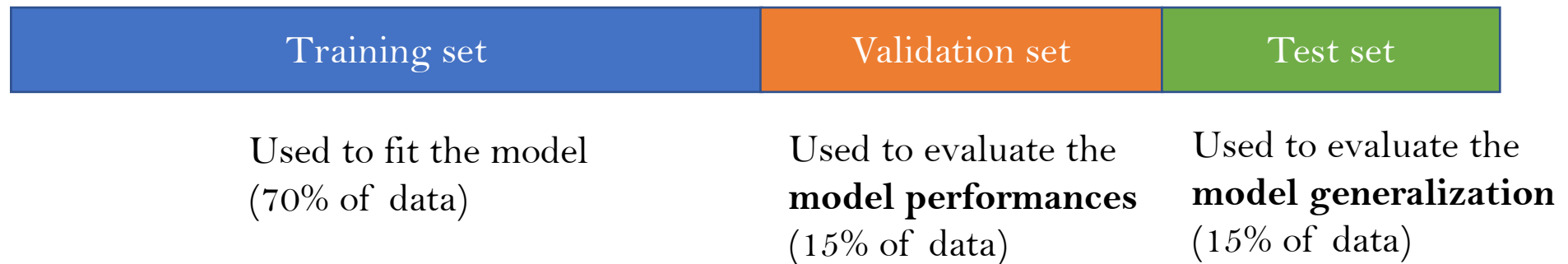
Right) From linear regression, to high order polynomial regression. Training data are the empty dots.

Left) Performance on train data (gray line) improves as the model complexity increase while, performance on test data (red line) becomes lower. This is a fundamental property of statistical learning holding regardless of the datasets and of the model being used. Model with order equal to 20 **overfits**.

**Idea:** Seems reasonable to choose the model with polynomial order equal to 5: it show good performance for both sets (**but we are selecting the model looking at data that should be unseen: data leak**). **We are discussing together the generalization performance and the choose of the hyper-parameter of the model.**

# The simpler setup: train-test-validation splitting

If we are in a **data-rich situation**, the best approach is to randomly divide the dataset into three parts:



In practice: define a grid for all the hyper-parameter e.g.,  $\lambda \in \{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_L\}$ :

- For each value of  $\lambda$ , train the model on the train set
- Evaluate the performance of the model on the validation-set
- Choose the hyper-parameter  $\lambda^*$  with the **best** validation performance (why not optimization\* ??)
- Retrain the model with  $\lambda^*$  and evaluate the generalization error on the test. **Finally compare performances between sets to adress possible overfitting!**

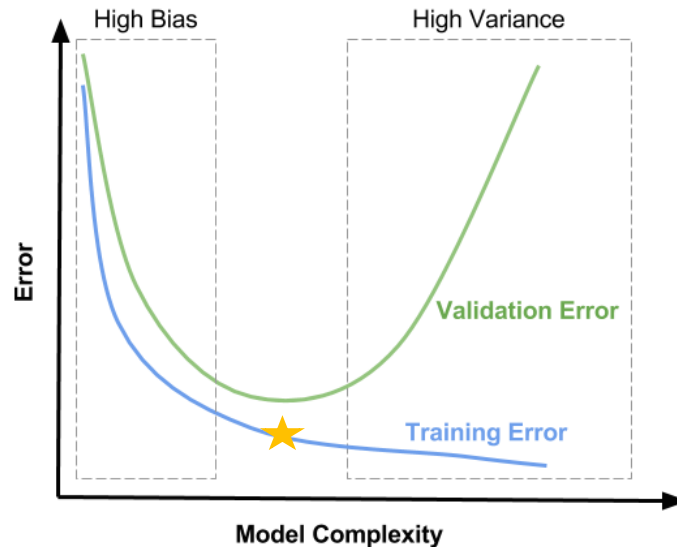
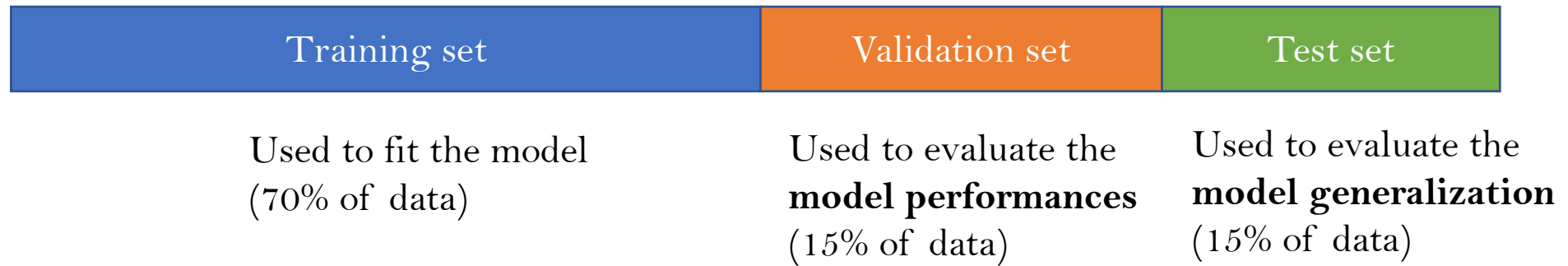
**This setup work well in a data-rich situation**

**Preferred methods for training Neural Networks**

\* One can also use optimization methods to find the best  $\lambda^*$  (see e.g. Optuna python) but this method are beyond the scope of this course.

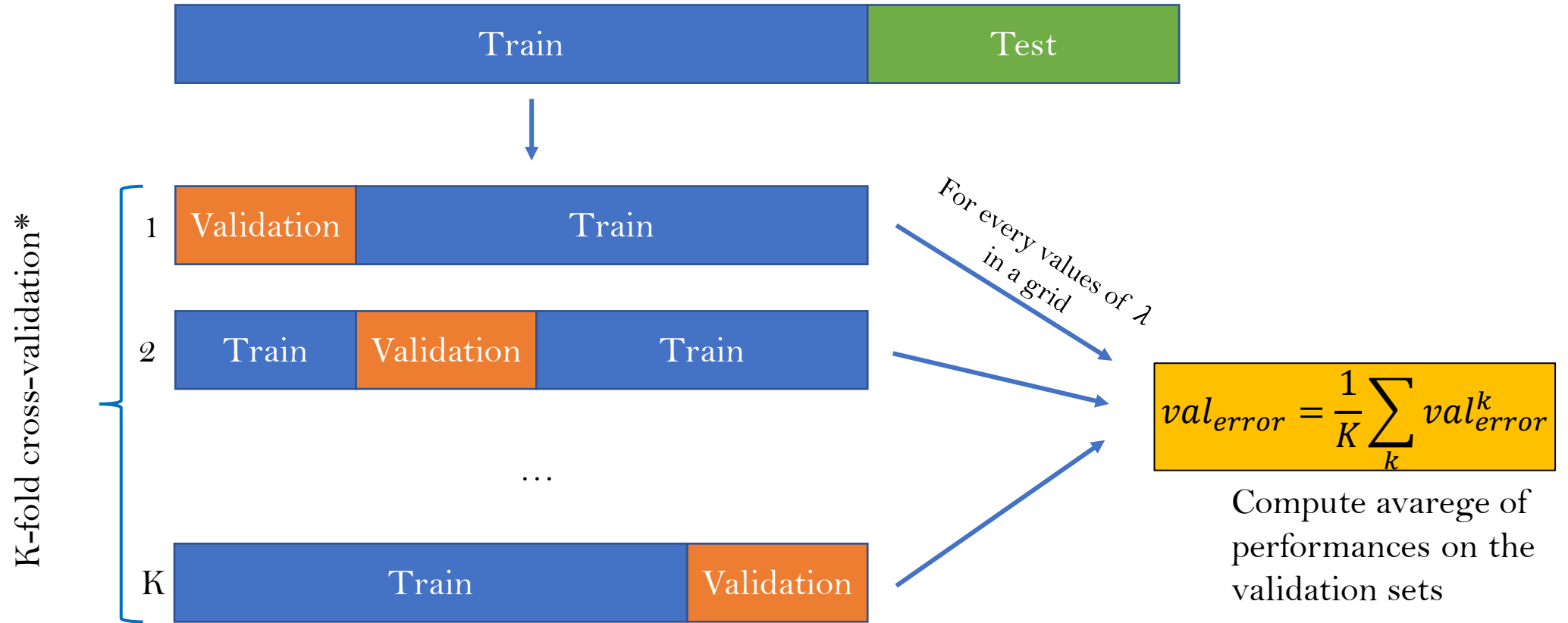
# The simpler setup: train-test-validation splitting

If we are in a **data-rich situation**, the best approach is to randomly divide the dataset into three parts:



★ Best model

# Cross-validation: less data-rich situation



Choose the hyperparameter  $\lambda^*$  with the **best** cross-validation error!  
This approach is computationally expensive, and is **typically not used with Neural Networks**

# Machine Learning Fundamentals

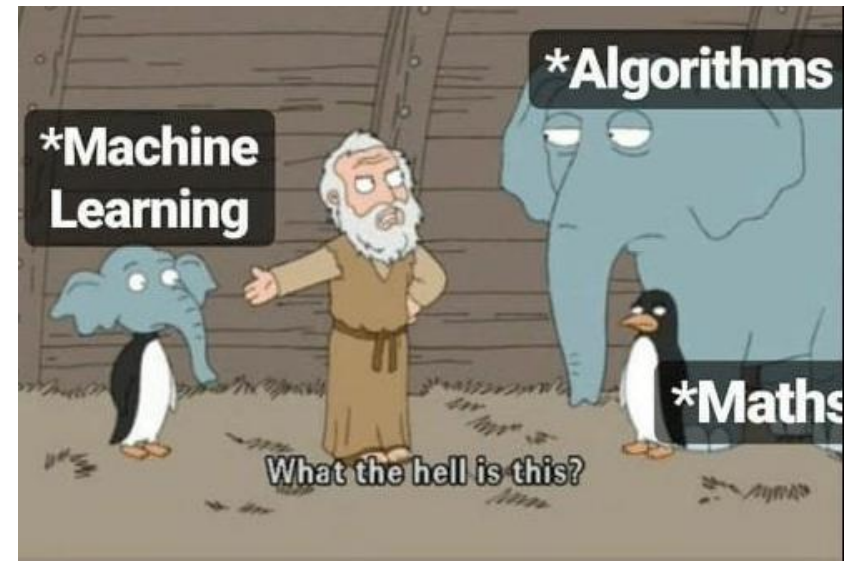
$$y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n; \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n; \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m)$$

How do we learn  $f$ ?

$$\beta = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} L(Y, f(X; \beta; \gamma^*)) \quad (1)$$

Recipe:

- Define a shape for  $f$
- Define suitable loss function  $L$  for the problem at hand
- Define a robust statistical framework to evaluate the model
- Solve the minimization problem in (1)
- Understand the result in term of business insight



# Type of Problem

$$y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

## Supervised

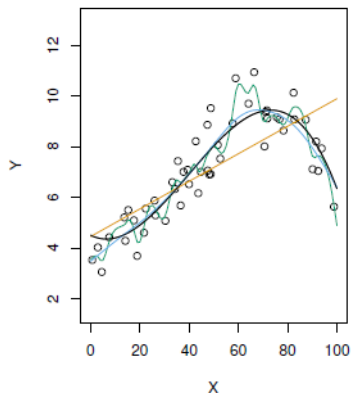
We observe both  $x_i, y \rightarrow$  fit model that relate predictor to response

## Unsupervised

We observe only  $x_i \rightarrow$  understand the relationships between the variables

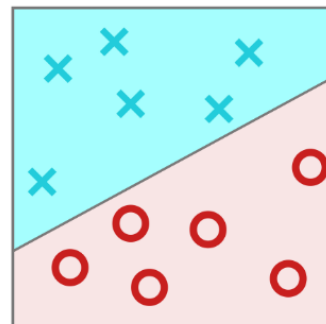
## Regression

$$y \in R$$

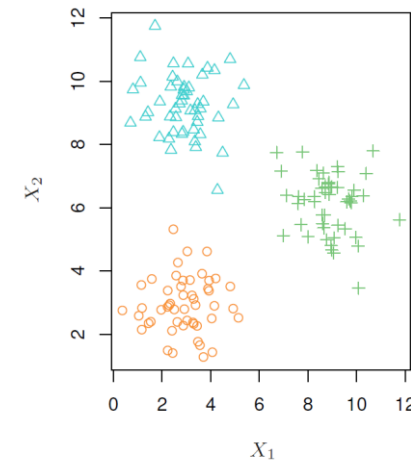


## Classification

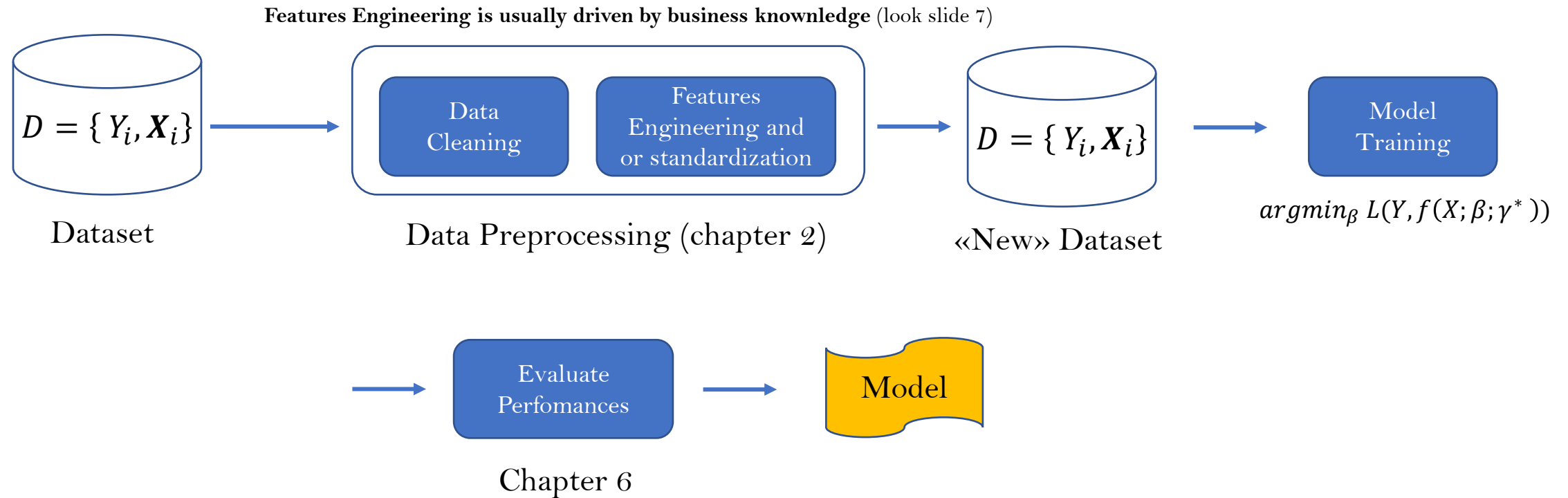
$$y \in \{0, 1, \dots, m\}$$



## Clustering Methods



# Machine Learning Pipeline



# Chapter 1: Neural Network



# Machine Learning Fundamentals

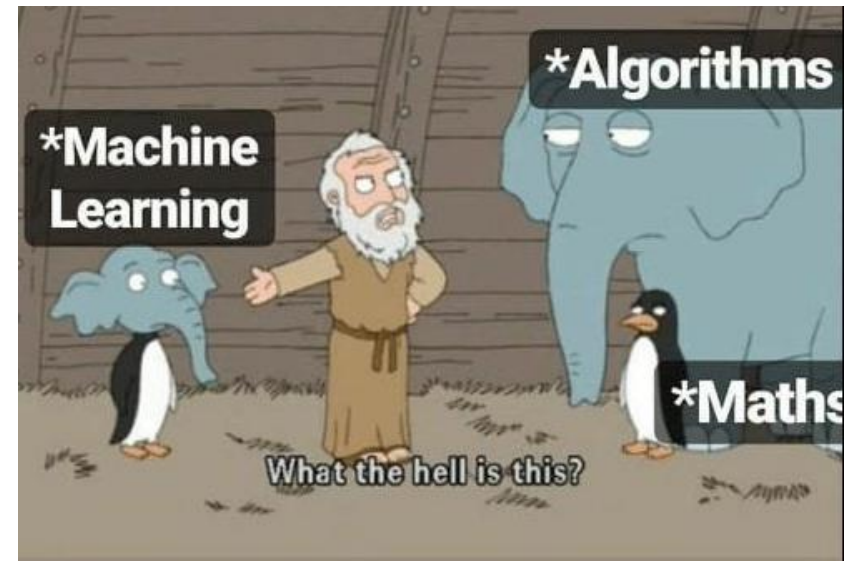
$$y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n; \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n; \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m)$$

How do we learn  $f$ ?

$$\beta = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} L(Y, f(X; \beta; \gamma^*)) \quad (1)$$

Recipe:

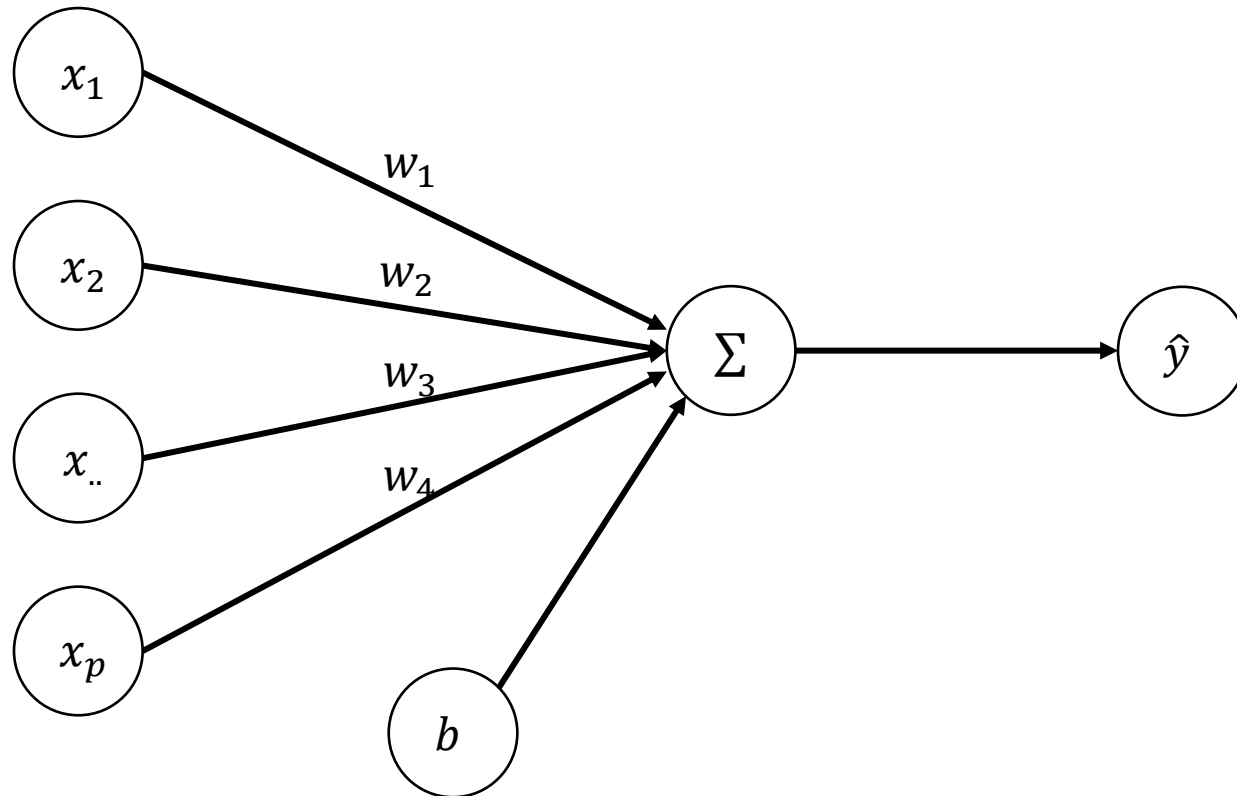
- **Define a shape for  $f$**
- Define suitable loss function  $L$  for the problem at hand
- Define a robust statistical framework to evaluate the model
- Solve the minimization problem in (1)
- Understand the result in term of business insight



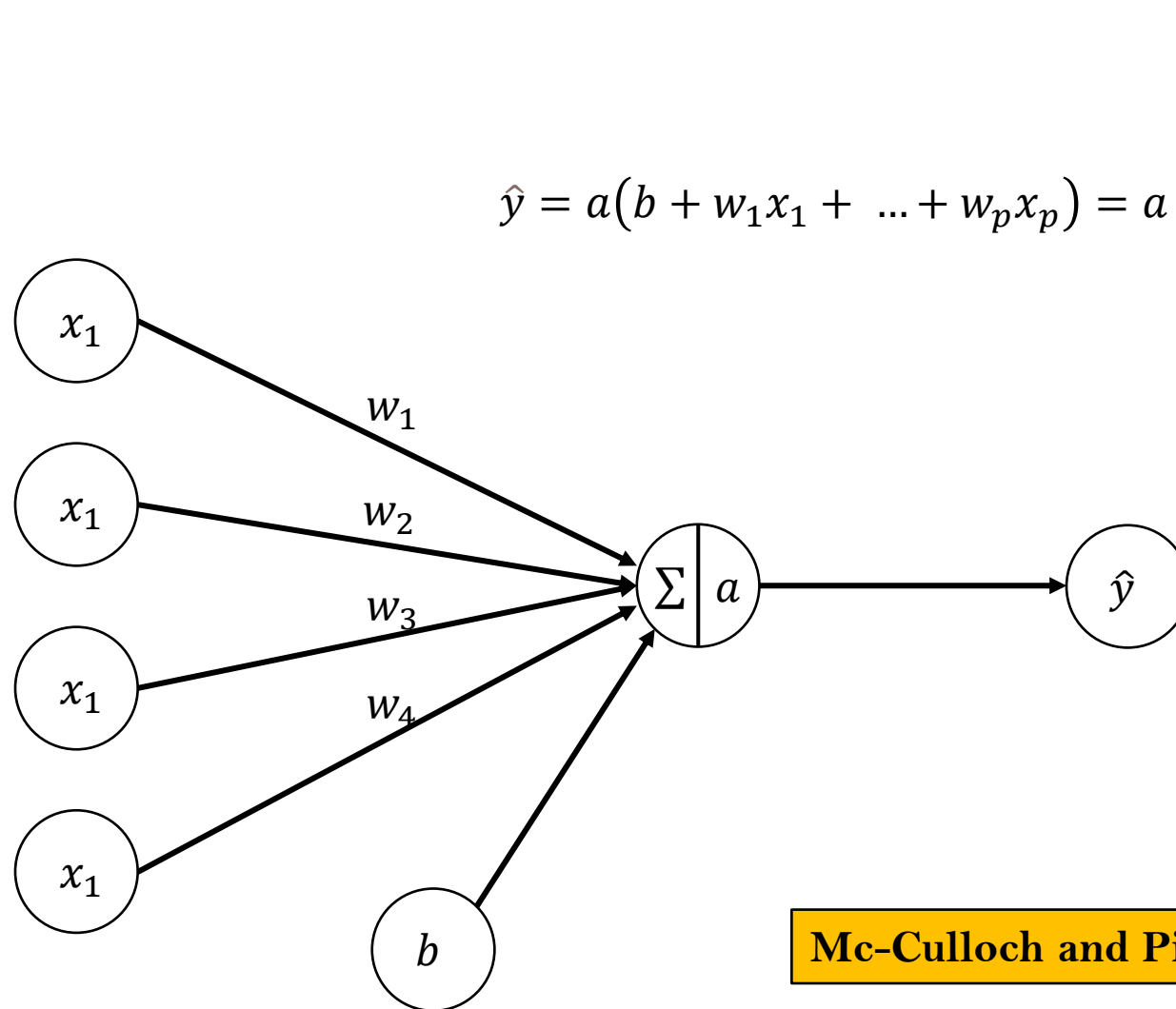
# Preliminary: Linear Model

Let us start with a linear model and try to represent it via a **computational graph**

$$\hat{y} = f(x) = b + w_1x_1 + \dots + w_px_p = b + \sum_{i=1}^p w_ix_i$$



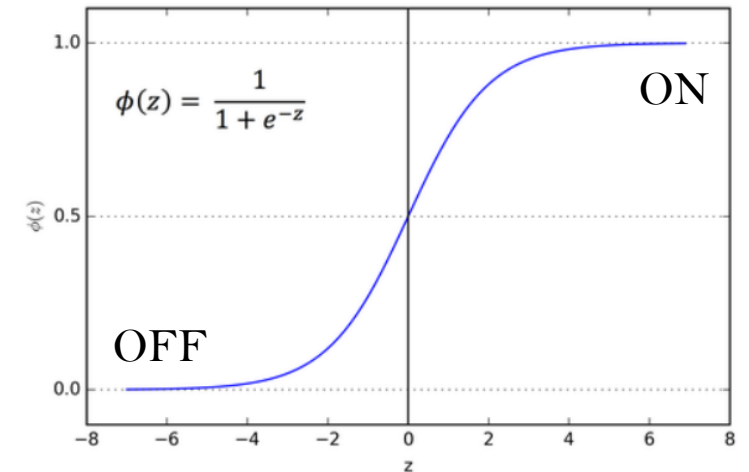
# Preliminary: Adding nonlinearity



$$\hat{y} = a(b + w_1x_1 + \dots + w_px_p) = a\left(b + \sum_{i=1}^p w_ix_i\right) = a(z)$$

Activation function

Activation function

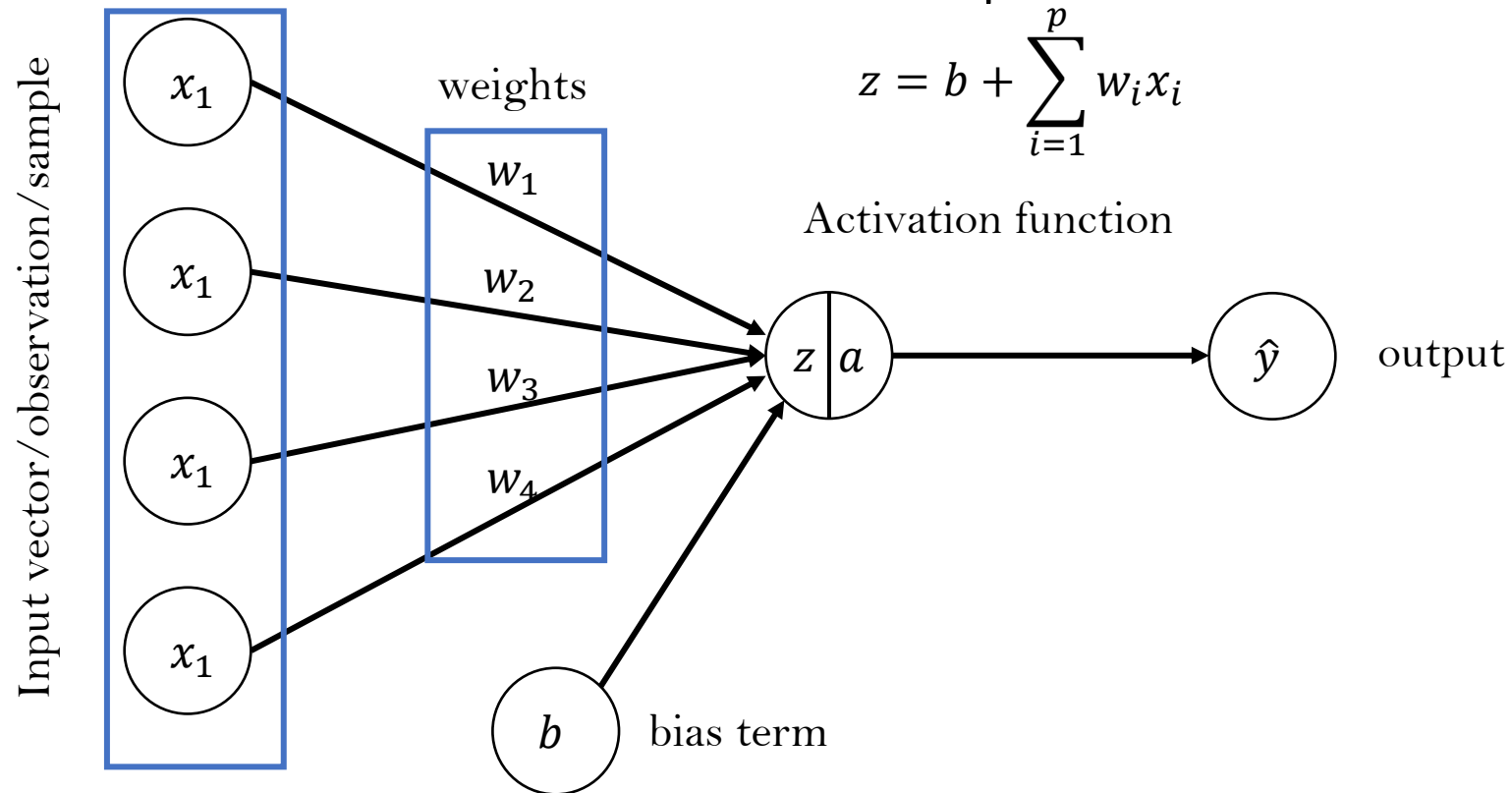


Sigmoid function  $\rightarrow$  Logistic Regression

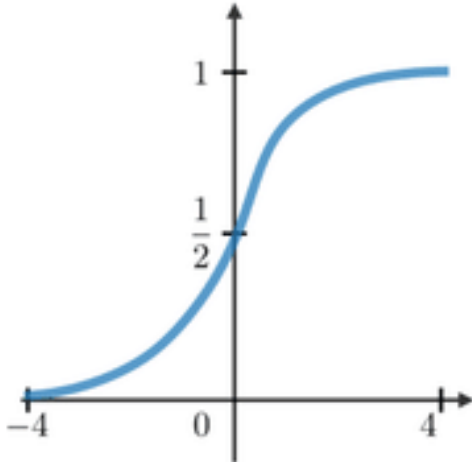
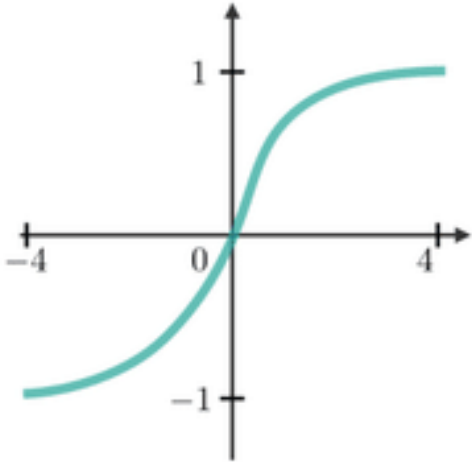
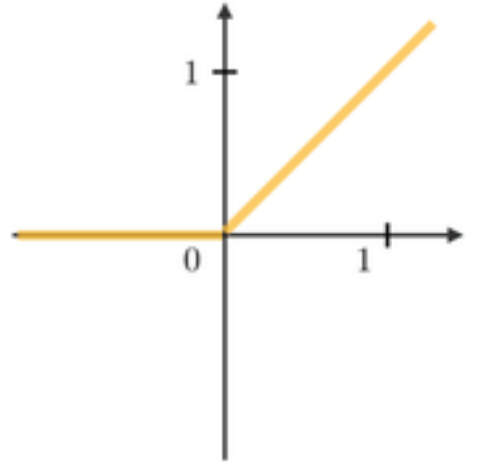
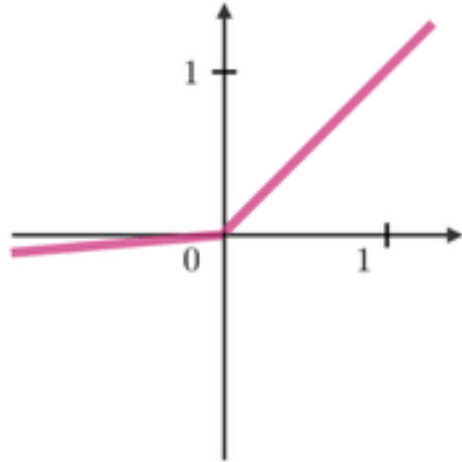
**Mc-Culloch and Pitts Neuron**

# Preliminary: naming convention

$$\hat{y} = a(b + w_1x_1 + \dots + w_px_p) = a\left(b + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^p w_ix_i}_{z}\right) = a(z)$$



# Activation function

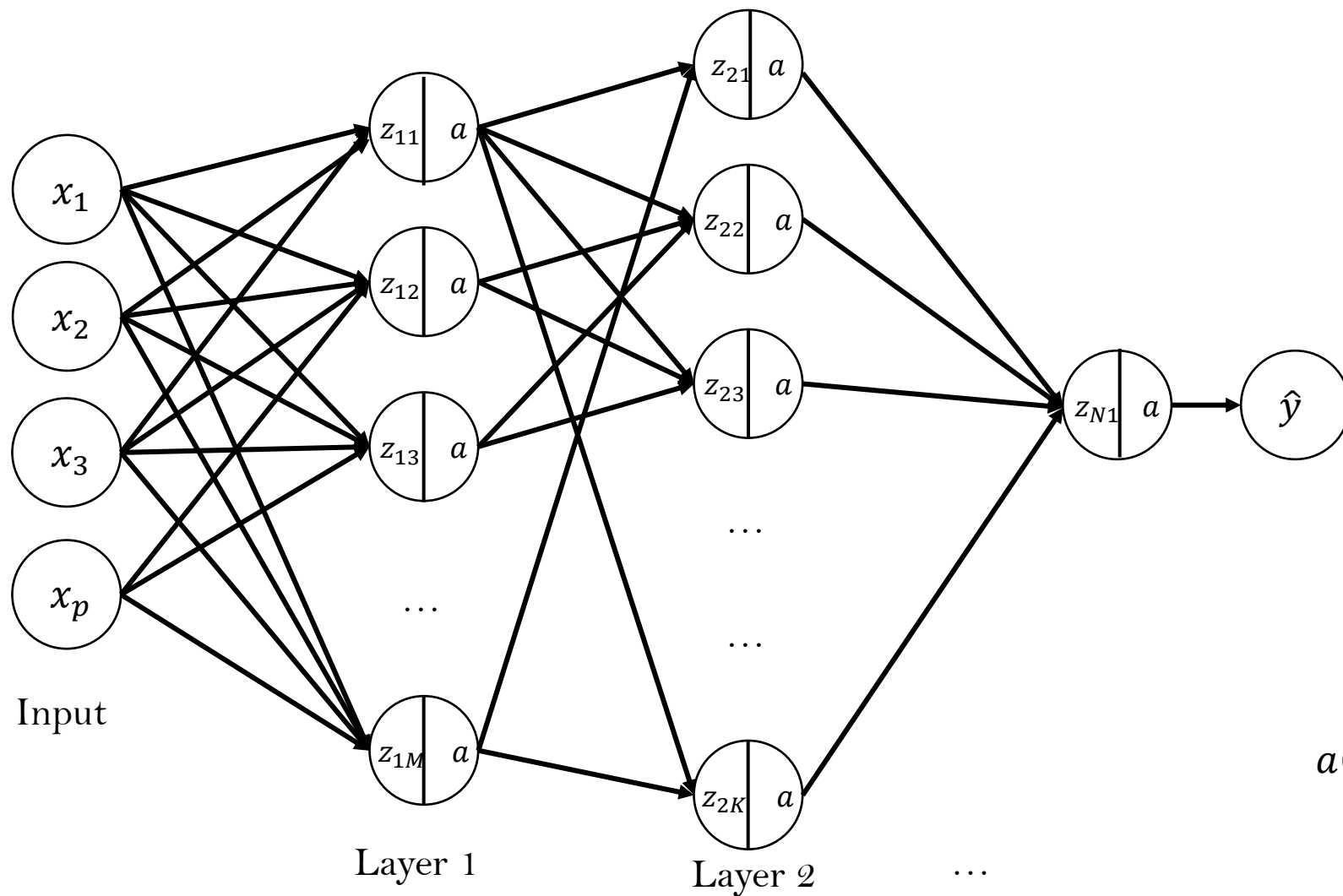
Sigmoid	Tanh	ReLU	Leaky ReLU
$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$	$g(z) = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}$	$g(z) = \max(0, z)$	$g(z) = \max(\epsilon z, z)$ with $\epsilon \ll 1$
			

**Most used**

Similar to ReLU but  
introduced to avoid  
*vanishing gradient*

# Neural Network

A neural network is a stack of nodes connected by links and activation function



Math shape of a NN

$$X \in (p, 1)$$

$$Z_1 = W_1 X \quad W_1 \in (M, p)$$

$$Z_2 = W_2 a(Z_1) \quad W_2 \in (K, M)$$

$$Z_3 = W_3 a(Z_2) \quad W_3 \in (1, K)$$

$$\hat{y} = a(Z_3)$$

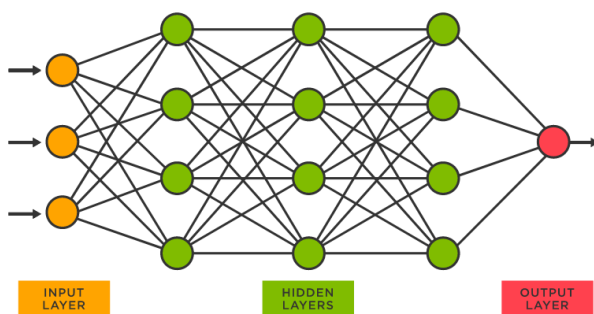
$$\hat{y} = a(W_3 a(W_2 a(W_1 X)))$$

Note that:

$$a([z_1, z_2, \dots, z_M]) = [a(z_1), a(z_2), \dots, a(z_M)]$$

# Neural Network: training

Consider a Dataset  $D = \{x_i, y\}$  with  $p$  features and  $n$  rows (**training dataset**)



$$\hat{y} = NN(x; W) \quad \text{where } W = [W_1, W_2, \dots]$$

$$W = \operatorname{argmin}_W L(Y, NN(x, W))$$

## Regression

$$L = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^n (y_i - NN(x_i, W))^2$$

## Classification

$$L = \sum_{i=0}^n (y_i \ln NN(x_i, W) + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - NN(x_i, W)))$$

## MultiClass

$$L = \sum_{k=0}^K \sum_{i=0}^n 1_{y_i \in k} \ln(NN(y_i \in k))$$

The activation of the last layer is the identity (or ReLU if  $y > 0$ , eg price)

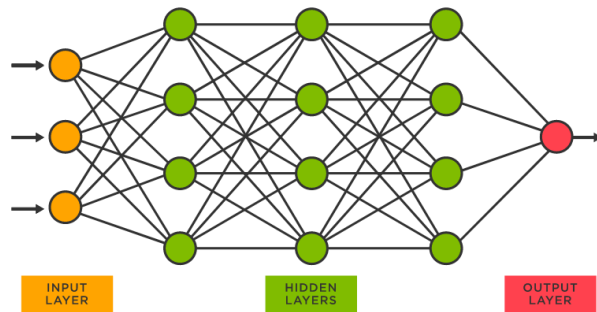
the activation of the last layer is the sigmoid function

the activation of the last layer is the softmax function and has  $K$  neurons

The architecture of the neural networks (i.e. how many hidden layer and how many neuron in each layer) is an hyper-parameter of the model and is typically chosen by trial & error (or more sophisticated methods)

# Neural Network: training

Consider a Dataset  $D = \{x_i, y\}$  with  $p$  features and  $n$  rows (**training dataset**)



$$\hat{y} = NN(x; W) \quad \text{where } W = [W_1, W_2, \dots]$$

$$W = \operatorname{argmin}_W L(Y, NN(x, W))$$

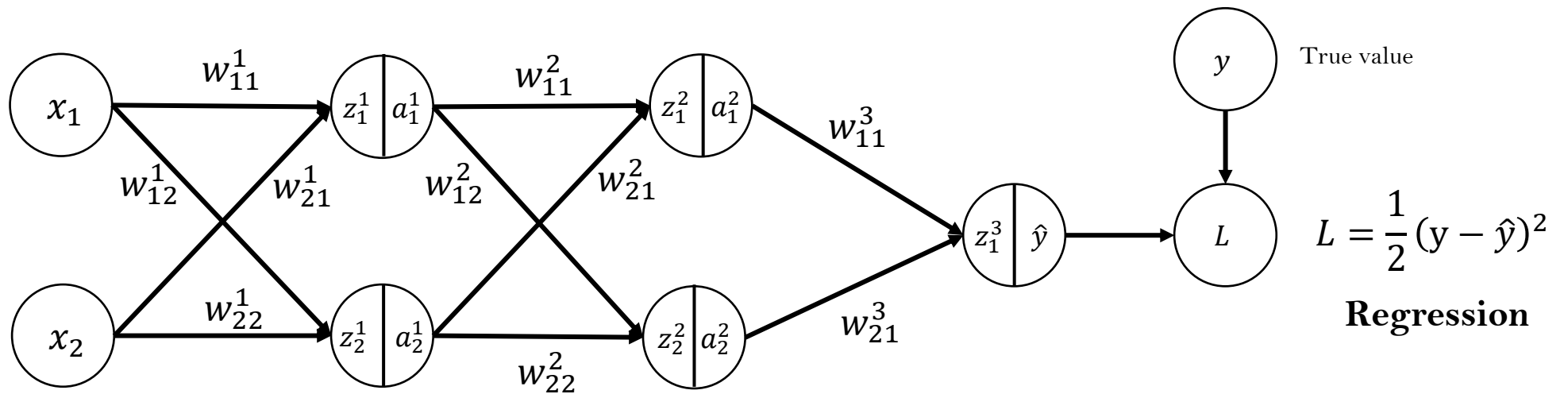
The widely used algorithm for training a neural network is **backpropagation**, that is just a funny name for:

- **Computing derivatives** of  $L$  with respect to the weights  $W$  using the **chain rules of derivatives**
- Apply a **gradient descent** method (or its variations) to update  $W$



# Compute derivatives

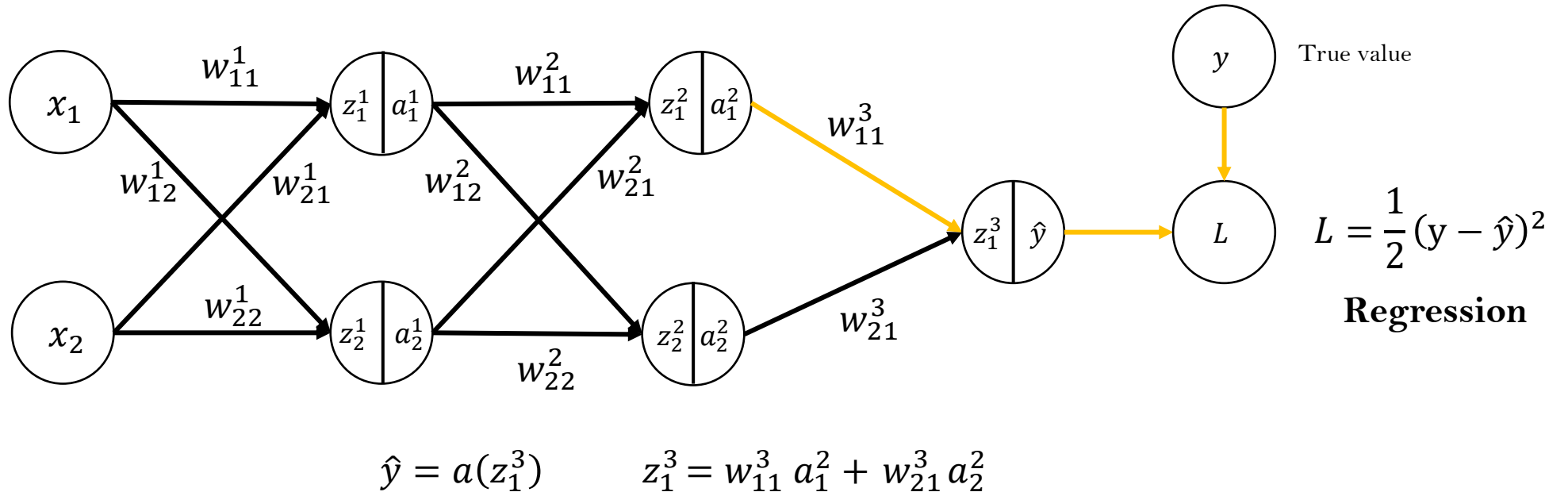
Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):



- $w_{ij}^k$  : weight for node  $i$  in layer  $k$  for incoming node  $j$
- $z_i^k$  : product sum for node  $i$  in layer  $k$
- $a_i^k$  : activation for node  $i$  in layer  $k$

# Compute derivatives

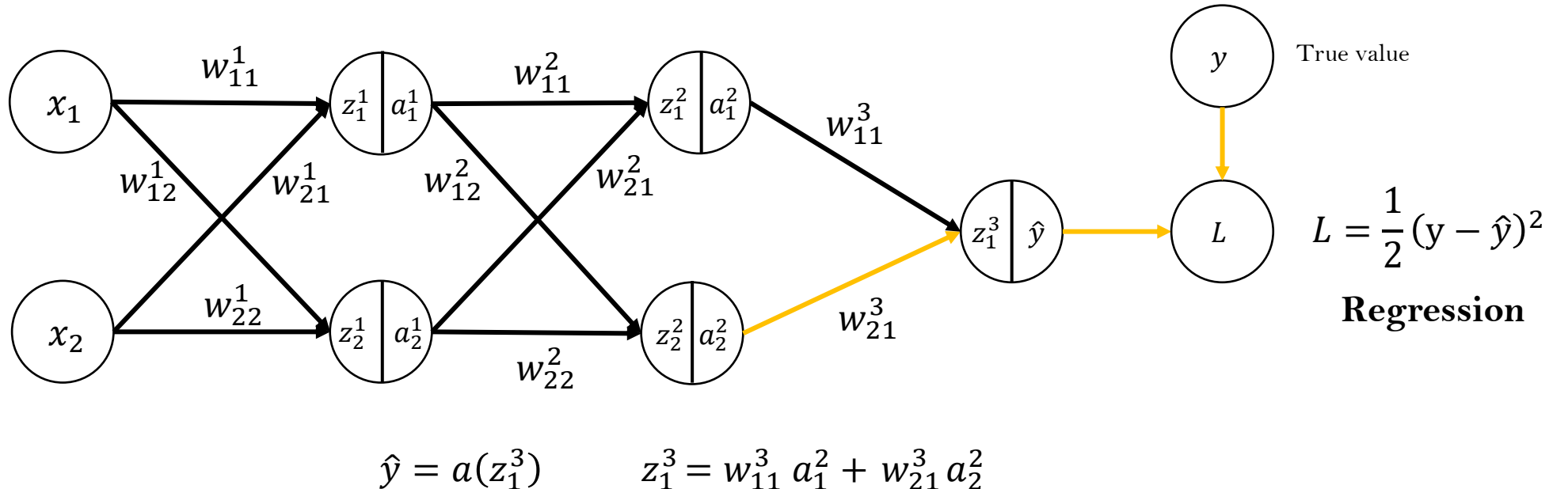
Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):



$$\frac{dL}{dw_{11}^3} = \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{dw_{11}^3} = (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) a_1^2 = \delta^3 a_1^2$$

# Compute derivatives

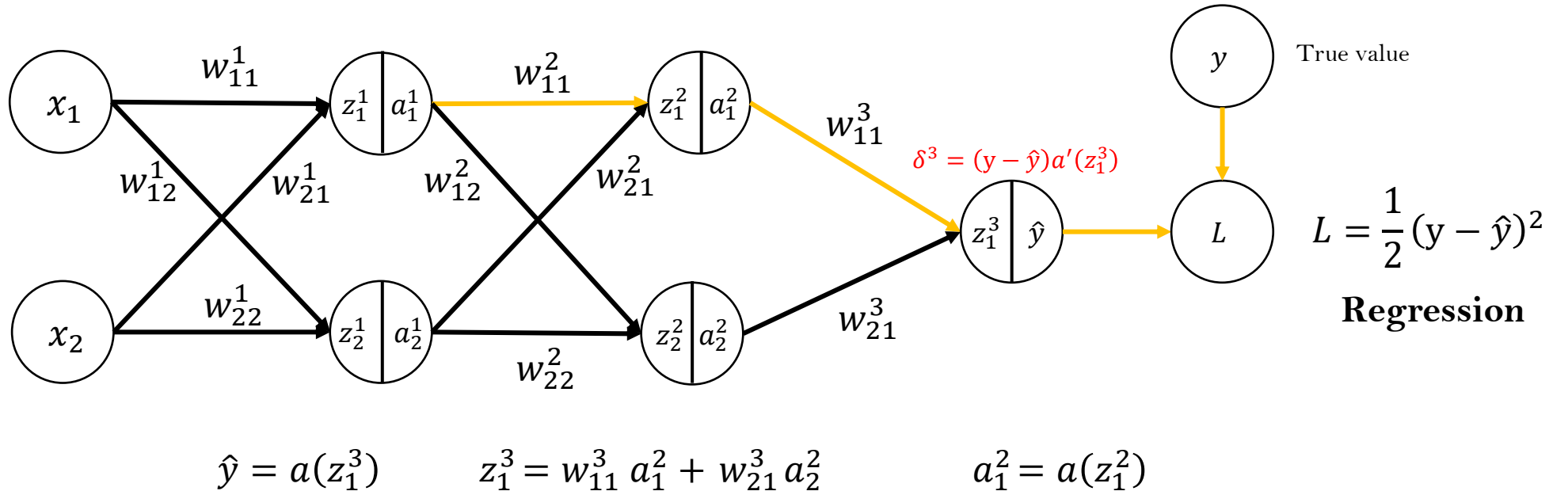
Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):



$$\frac{dL}{dw_{21}^3} = \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{dw_{21}^3} = (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) a_2^2 = \delta^3 a_2^2$$

# Compute derivatives

Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):

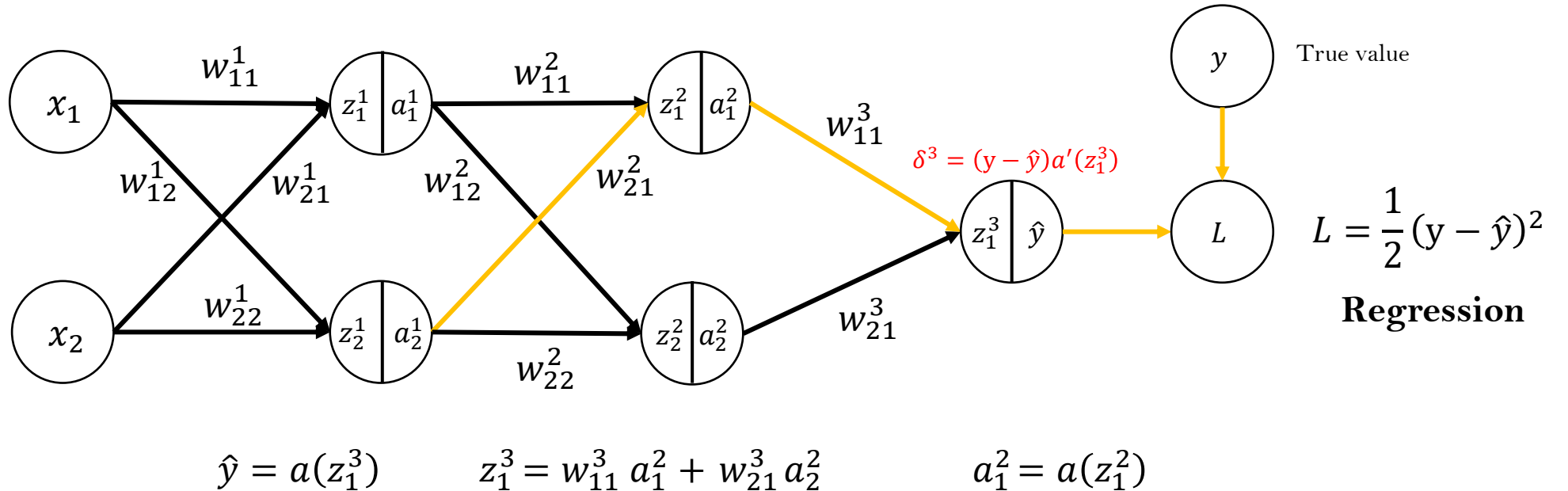


$$\frac{dL}{dw_{11}^2} = \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_1^2} \frac{da_1^2}{dz_1^2} \frac{dz_1^2}{dw_{11}^2} = (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) w_{11}^3 a'(z_1^2) a_1^1 = \delta_1^2 a_1^1$$

$$\delta_1^2 = \delta^3 w_{11}^3 a'(z_1^2)$$

# Compute derivatives

Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):

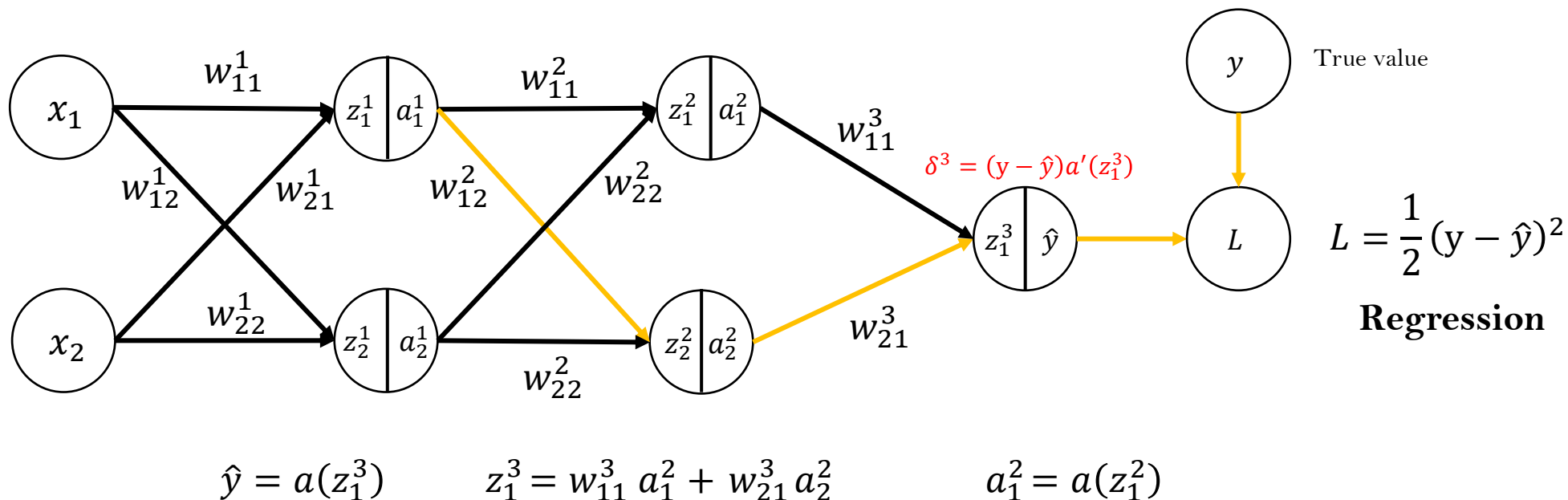


$$\frac{dL}{dw_{21}^2} = \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_1^2} \frac{da_1^2}{dz_1^2} \frac{dz_1^2}{dw_{21}^2} = (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) w_{11}^3 a'(z_1^2) a_1^1 = \delta_1^2 a_2^1$$

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# Compute derivatives

Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):

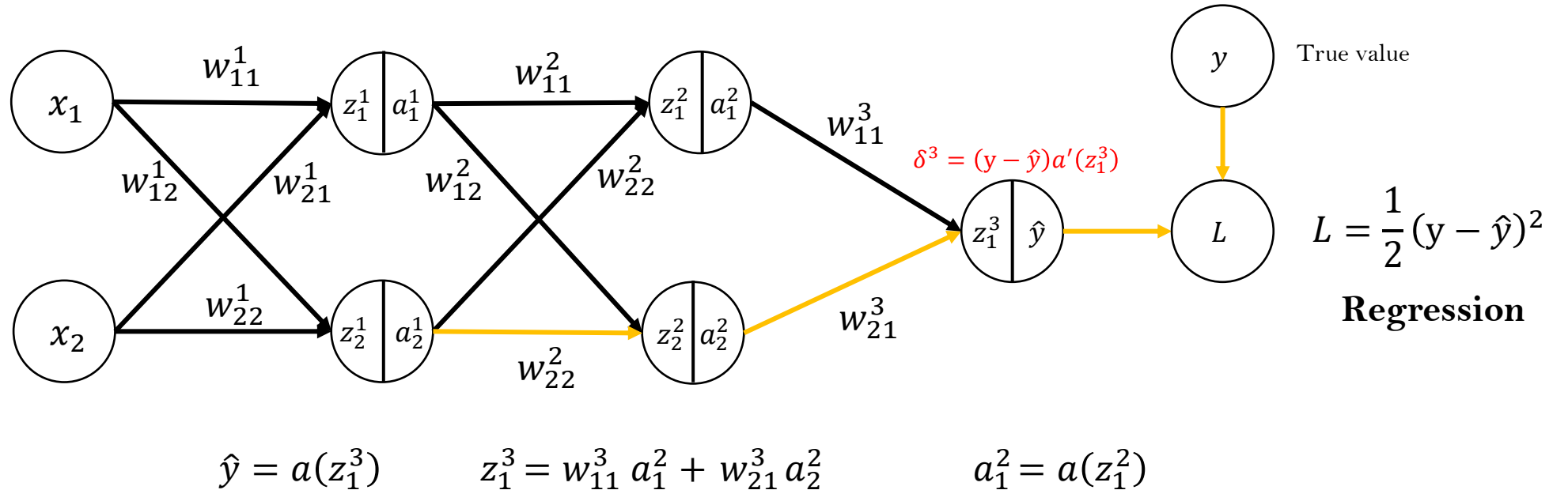


$$\frac{dL}{dw_{12}^2} = \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_2^2} \frac{da_2^2}{dz_2^2} \frac{dz_2^2}{dw_{12}^2} = (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) w_{21}^3 a'(z_2^2) a_1^1 = \delta_2^2 a_1^1$$

$$\delta_2^2 = \delta^3 w_{21}^3 a'(z_2^2)$$

# Compute derivatives

Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):

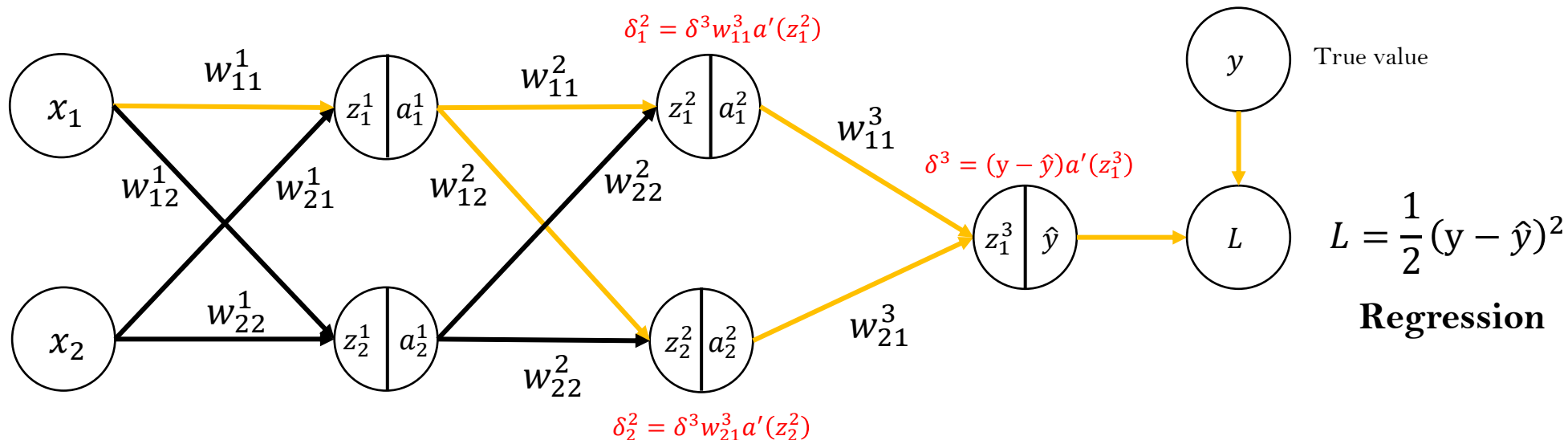


$$\frac{dL}{dw_{22}^2} = \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_2^2} \frac{da_2^2}{dz_2^2} \frac{dz_2^2}{dw_{22}^2} = (y - \hat{y})a'(z_1^3) w_{21}^3 a'(z_2^2) a_2^1 = \delta_2^2 a_2^1$$

$$\delta_2^2 = \delta^3 w_{21}^3 a'(z_2^2)$$

# Compute derivatives

Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):



$$\frac{dL}{dw_{11}^1} = \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_1^2} \frac{da_1^2}{dz_1^2} \frac{dz_1^2}{da_1^1} \frac{da_1^1}{dz_1^1} \frac{dz_1^1}{dw_{11}^1} + \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_2^2} \frac{da_2^2}{dz_2^2} \frac{dz_2^2}{da_1^1} \frac{da_1^1}{dz_1^1} \frac{dz_1^1}{dw_{11}^1}$$

$$= (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) w_{11}^3 a'(z_1^2) w_{11}^2 a'(z_1^1) x_1 + (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) w_{21}^3 a'(z_2^2) w_{12}^2 a'(z_1^1) x_1$$

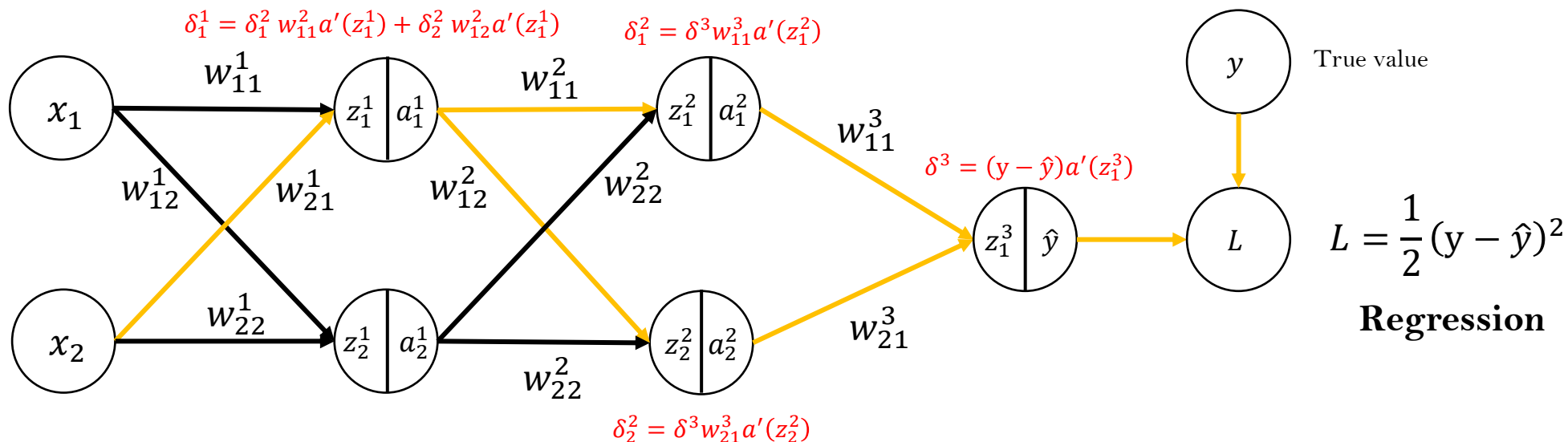
$$= (\delta_1^2 w_{11}^2 a'(z_1^1) + \delta_2^2 w_{12}^2 a'(z_1^1)) x_1 = \delta_1^1 x_1$$

$$\delta_1^1 = \delta_1^2 w_{11}^2 a'(z_1^1) + \delta_2^2 w_{12}^2 a'(z_1^1)$$



# Compute derivatives

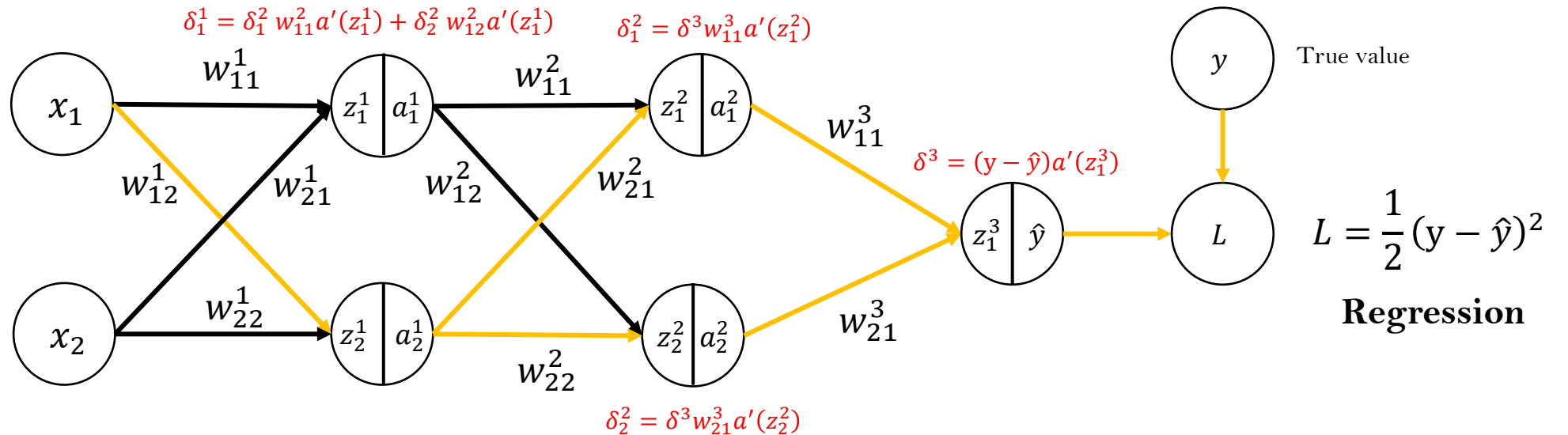
Let us consider a very simple computational graph (then we will try to generalize the approach):



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dL}{dw_{21}^1} &= \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_1^2} \frac{da_1^2}{dz_1^2} \frac{dz_1^2}{da_1^1} \frac{da_1^1}{dz_1^1} \frac{dz_1^1}{dw_{21}^1} + \frac{dL}{d\hat{y}} \frac{d\hat{y}}{dz_1^3} \frac{dz_1^3}{da_2^2} \frac{da_2^2}{dz_2^2} \frac{dz_2^2}{da_1^1} \frac{da_1^1}{dz_1^1} \frac{dz_1^1}{dw_{21}^1} \\ &= (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) w_{11}^3 a'(z_1^2) w_{11}^2 a'(z_1^1) x_2 + (y - \hat{y}) a'(z_1^3) w_{21}^3 a'(z_2^2) w_{12}^2 a'(z_1^1) x_2 \\ &= (\delta_1^2 w_{11}^2 a'(z_1^1) + \delta_2^2 w_{12}^2 a'(z_1^1)) x_1 = \delta_1^1 x_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\delta_1^1 = \delta_1^2 w_{11}^2 a'(z_1^1) + \delta_2^2 w_{12}^2 a'(z_1^1)$$

# Compute derivatives



$$\frac{dL}{dw_{ij}^k} = \delta_j^k a_i^{k-1}$$

For the final layer (M)  
 $\delta_1^M = a'(z_1^M)(y - \hat{y})$

$$\delta_j^k = a'(z_j^k) \sum_{l=1}^{r^{k+1}} w_{jl}^{k+1} \delta_l^{k+1}$$

To compute derivatives we need the values of activation/output in each layer, i.e  $a'(z_j^k)$ . The backpropagation algorithm is a two step procedure:

- **Forward pass** (from first to last layer) to compute activation/output
- **Backward pass** (from last to first layer) to compute  $\delta_j^k$  and  $\frac{dL}{dw_{ij}^k}$ 
  - The final gradient is the **average** all over the training data

# Apply the Gradient

The gradient are applied using a gradient descent approach:

$w_{ij} = \text{random init}$

$$w_{ij}(t) = w_{ij}(t-1) - \gamma \frac{dL}{dw_{ij}}$$

$t$  is the iteration

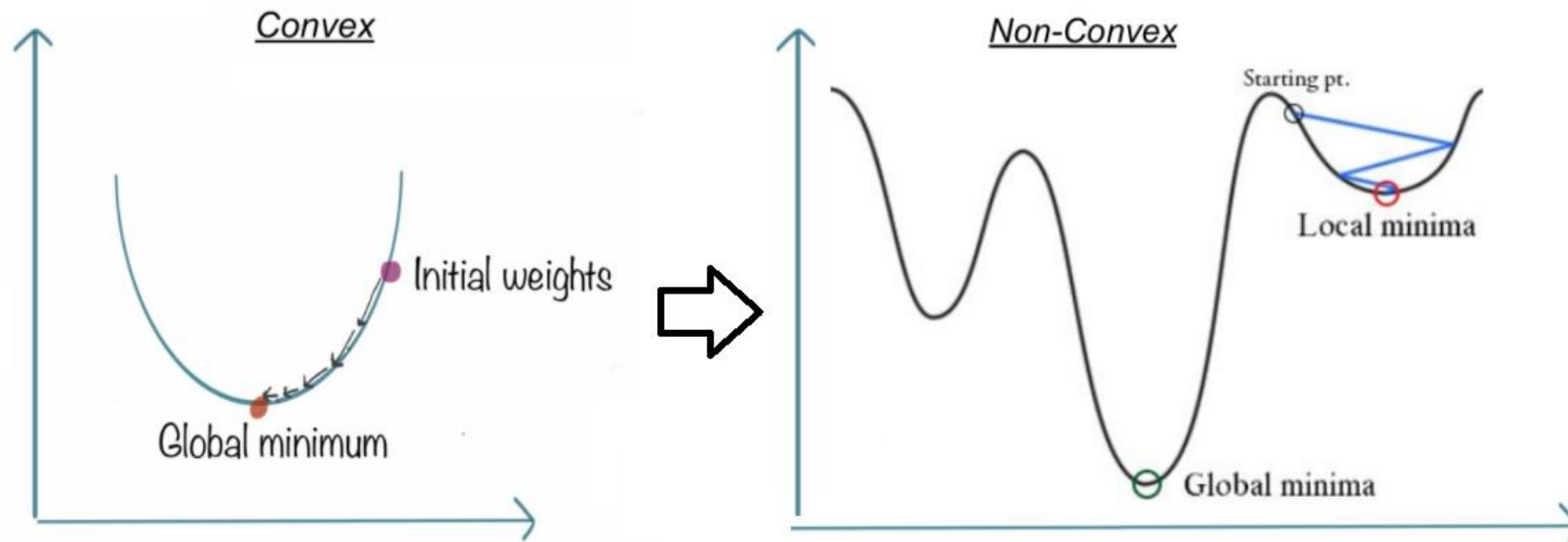
$\gamma$  is **the learning rate (lr)** (delta-time in physics):

- The correct value depend on the problem at hand, i.e. it depends on the magnitude of  $\frac{dL}{dw_{ij}}$
- The convergence of the algorithm critically depends on  $\gamma$ :
  - too small cause the process to get stuck
  - too large may cause instability

There exist more sophisticated algorithm variation, some example are:

- ADAM : calculates the exponential moving average of gradients to compute  $\gamma$  , also use momentum
- RMSPROP root mean square propagation, use momentum

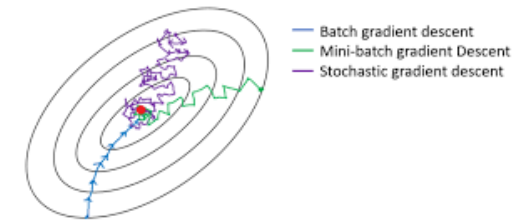
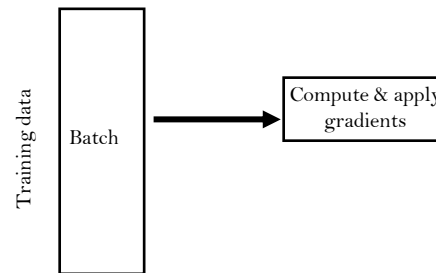
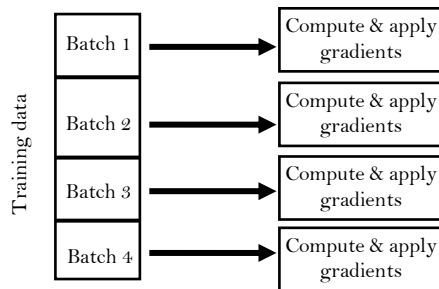
# Non convex optimization



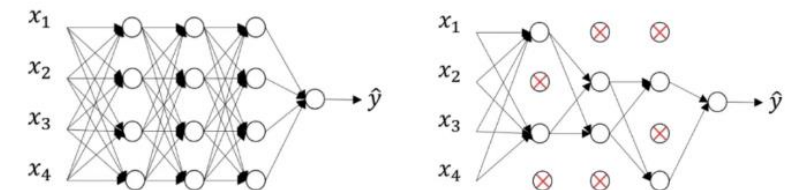
The cost function of a neural network is in general neither convex nor concave, this means that gradient-based optimization often does not converge to the global minimum. This is not seen as a huge problem because the community believes that all the local minima are equivalent and are close to the global one (no demonstration, just belief).

# Some tips

- ReLU (or Leaky-ReLU) is the typical choice for the activation of the hidden layer, while the activation of the last layer depends on the task (regression/classification/etc...). The benefit is the reduced likelihood of the gradient to vanish. The gradient has a constant value (for  $x > 0$ ). In contrast, the gradient of sigmoids becomes increasingly small as the absolute value of  $x$  increases. The constant gradient of ReLUs results in faster learning.
- The gradient update is done in (mini)batch (called stochastic gradient descent), i.e you only take a subset of all your data during one iteration. **The iteration on all (mini)batch define an epoch.**



- Normalize/Standardize input features: activation and its derivatives act in limited region
- Use regularizations method:
  - Dropout: i.e. randomly remove some neurons of the network
  - Apply  $L_1$  or  $L_2$  weight regularization, i.e. add to the loss the terms  $\lambda \sum w_{ij}^2$  or  $\lambda \sum |w_{ij}|$



- Early stopping**

# Early stopping

Training set

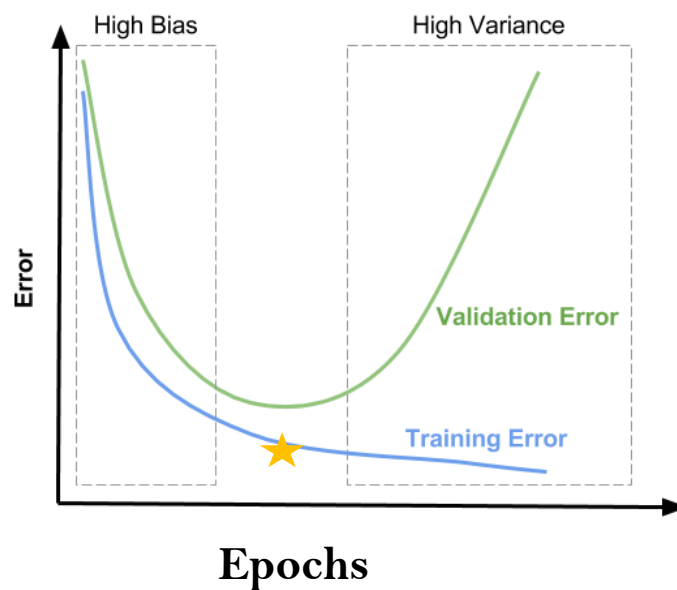
Validation set

Test set

Used to fit the model  
(70% of data)

Used to evaluate the  
**model performances**  
(15% of data)

Used to evaluate the  
**model generalization**  
(15% of data)

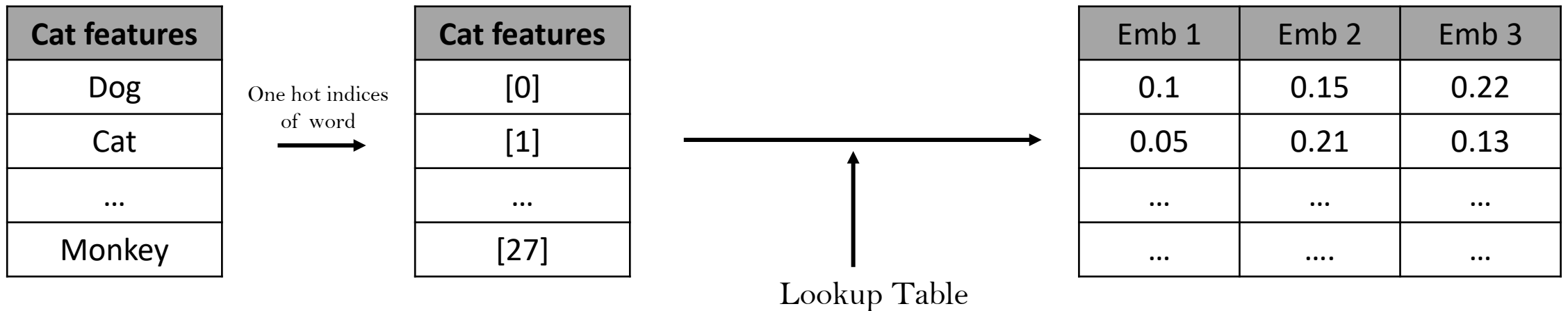


★ Early Stopping

Stop the training process when the Validation Error increase

# Categorical variables

Ordinal Encoding and one hot encoding can be a valid approach, but a valid alternatives is to use **Embedding Layers**



Index	Emb 1	Emb 2	Emb 3
0	0.1	0.15	0.22
1	0.05	0.21	0.13
2	...	...	...
...	...	...	...
27	...	....	...

This weights are learning via backpropagation just any other parameters

# Python hands on

Notebook **Python\_basics**

Example of Datasets



# Application to Finance

# Motivation: the calibration problem

Calibration is an **inverse problems**: compute input parameters from observed output

Direct Problem:

## Black-Scholes Model

$$dS_t = rSdt + \sigma SdW_t$$

$r \rightarrow$  Drift rate

$\sigma \rightarrow$  Volatility

$S_t \rightarrow$  underlying asset price

Given  $r, \sigma$



Compute price for  
**call & put options**

$$c(T, K) = E[\max\{S_T - K, 0\}]^*$$

$T \rightarrow$  time to maturity

$K \rightarrow$  Strike price

Inverse Problem:

**Compute parameters**

**$r, \sigma$**

Given call price



Assuming market obey BS Model

$$call = E[\max\{S_T - K, 0\}]$$

$T \rightarrow$  time to maturity

$K \rightarrow$  Strike price

\* Can be computed by directly solve BS Eq., via montecarlo integration, or using Fast Fourier Trasform method etc...

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# Motivation: the calibration problem

Calibration can be formalized as an **optimization problem**

$\Theta = \{r, \sigma\}$       Model parameters (depend on the model)

$$\Theta_{opt} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} d(\boxed{c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta, T, K)}, \boxed{c^{market}(T, K)})$$

↙  
This is a quantity computed from the model, it can be the price of a call option in the next chapter we will also make use of **implied volatility**

↘  
This is our data coming from **market**, is the input of our calibration procedure!  
**In the next slide / chapter we will see how to deal with  $(T, K)$ .**

$d$  is the distance metric typically we will use  $d(x, y) = (x - y)^2$

# Motivation: the calibration problem

Calibration can be formalized as an **optimization problem**

$\Theta = \{r, \sigma\}$       Model parameters (depend on the model)

$$\Theta_{opt} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} d(c^{Model}(\Theta, T, K), c^{market}(T, K))$$

$T$	$K$	$c^{market}$
$T_1$	$K_1$	$c_1^{market}$
$T_2$	$K_2$	$c_2^{market}$
...	...	...

This is a quantity is computed from the model, it can be the price of a call option or (see next chapters) we will also make use of **implied volatility**

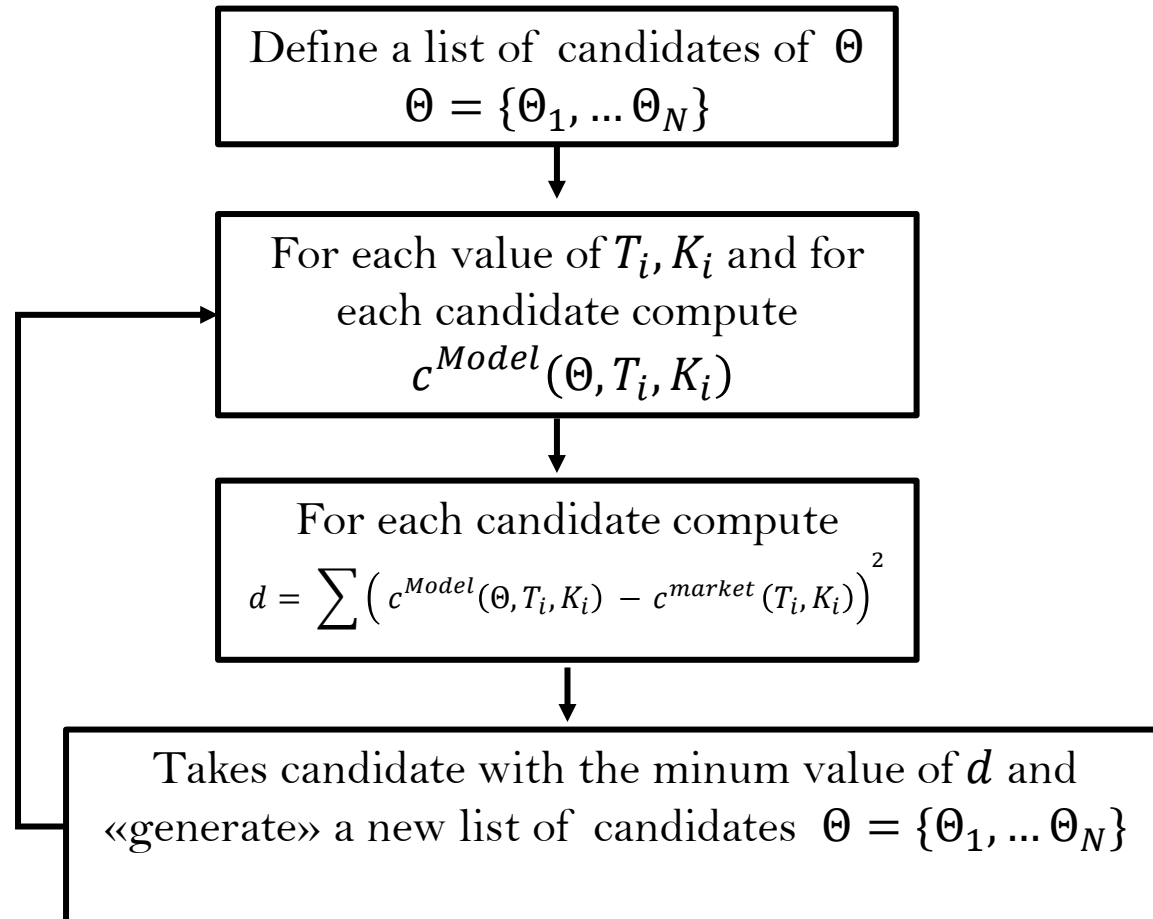
This is our data coming from **market**, is the input of our calibration procedure!

$d$  is the distance metric typically we will use  $d(x, y) = (x - y)^2$

$$\Theta_{opt} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} \sum_i \left( c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta, T_i, K_i) - c^{market}(T_i, K_i) \right)^2$$

Two approches : gradient free (addressed marginally in this course), **gradient based (aim of this course)**

# Gradient Free



- Stop the iteration when a given rules is achieved
- This class of algorithm are typically referred as «**genetic**» **algoritihm**, they differ on the way the «generate» and «stop» the iteration
- **The candidate with the minimum value of  $d$  at the end of the iterations is the solution of the calibration problem**

# Gradient Based: gradient descent

$$\Theta_{opt} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} \sum_i \left( c^{Model}(\Theta, T_i, K_i) - c^{market}(T_i, K_i) \right)^2 = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} d(\Theta)$$

We want to solve the problem:  $\Theta_{opt} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} d(\Theta)$  or equivalently, find  $\Theta_{opt}$  such as  $\frac{d}{d\Theta} d(\Theta)|_{\Theta_{opt}} = 0$

Define an iterative (pseudo-dynamics) algorithm as follow:

$$\begin{aligned} \Theta_0 &= \Theta_0 \\ \Theta_{t+1} &= \Theta_t - \gamma \frac{d}{d\Theta} d(\Theta) \Big|_{\Theta_t} \\ &\quad \downarrow \quad t \rightarrow \infty \\ &\quad \Theta_t \rightarrow \Theta_{t+1} \rightarrow \Theta_{opt} \end{aligned}$$

$$\cancel{\Theta_{opt}} = \cancel{\Theta_{opt}} - \gamma \frac{d}{d\Theta} d(\Theta) \Big|_{\Theta_{opt}}$$

$$\frac{d}{d\Theta} d(\Theta) \Big|_{\Theta_{opt}} = 0$$

$\gamma$  is **the learning rate (lr)** (delta-time in physics):

- The correct value depend on the problem at hand, i.e. it depends on the magnitude of  $\frac{d}{d\beta} L(\beta)$
- The convergence of the algorithm critically depends on  $\gamma$ :
  - too small cause the process to get stuck
  - too large may cause instability

See “Introduction to ML” course for further details

# Gradient Based

In gradient based method we want to compute the derivatives of  $\frac{d}{d\Theta} d(\Theta) \rightarrow \frac{d}{d\Theta} c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta, T_i, K_i)$  but this is not always possible because we **do not have analytical functions** for  $c^{Model}(\Theta, T_i, K_i)$ .

**The solutions is to approximate  $c^{Model}(\Theta, T_i, K_i)$  using a Neural Network\*!!!**

\* Just because we are really good to compute gradient of neural networks



# Gradient Based

Generate a grid of  $\Theta_i, T_i, K_i$  and compute  $c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i)$  via montacarlo, FFT, etc...

Train a neural network  $NN(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i | w)$  to approximate  $c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i)$  i.e solve:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_w \sum_i (NN(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i | w) - c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i))^2$$

**we are computing  $w$  i.e. the network weights**

given  $NN(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i | w)$   
we aim to solve :

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} \sum_i \left( NN(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i | w) - c^{market}(T_i, K_i) \right)^2$$

**we are computing  $\Theta$  i.e. the model parameters**

At the end we should compute  $\frac{d}{d\Theta} NN(\Theta, T_i, K_i)$  instead of  $\frac{d}{d\Theta} c^{Model}(\Theta, T_i, K_i)$

At the end we should compute  $\frac{d}{d\Theta} NN(\Theta, T_i, K_i)$  this will be similar to compute  $\frac{d}{dw} NN(\Theta, T_i, K_i | w)$  presented in the previous chapter

# Lab 1: NN to price option

# Presented in this lab session

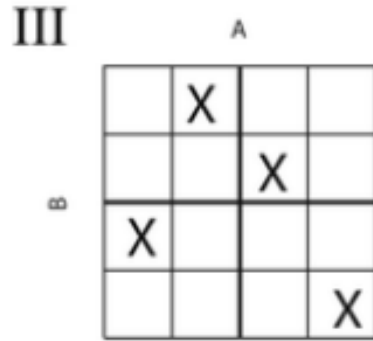
Generate a grid of  $\Theta_i, T_i, K_i$  and  
compute  $c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i)$   
via montacarlo, FFT, etc...

Train a neural network  $NN(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i | w)$   
to approximate  $c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i)$  i.e solve:

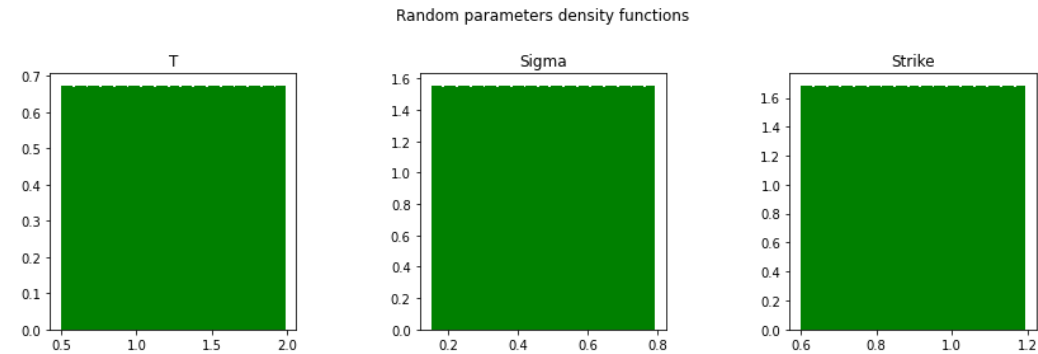
$$\operatorname{argmin}_w \sum_i (NN(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i | w) - c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i))^2$$

# Highlights

- Generate a mesh of point  $\Theta_i, T_i, K_i$  using latin hypercube cube sampling [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin\\_hypercube\\_sampling](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin_hypercube_sampling)



there is only one sample in each row and each column



- Use CFLib (by Prof. Rossi presented during the computational finance class) to generate  $c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i)$  (for BS model the solution is known and analytical formula are available)

Exercise for you: Try to understand what gen\_BnS is doing

Tips:

- Put Call parity:  $P - C = Ke^{-rT} - S_0$
- $P = N(-d_-)Ke^{-rT} - N(-d_+)S_0$  where  $N(x)$  is the normal cumulative distribution function
- $d_+ = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{T}}[\ln(\frac{S_0}{K}) + (r + \frac{\sigma^2}{2})T]$ ,  $d_- = d_+ - \sigma\sqrt{T}$

- Train a NN to approximate  $c_{BS}^{Model}(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i)$

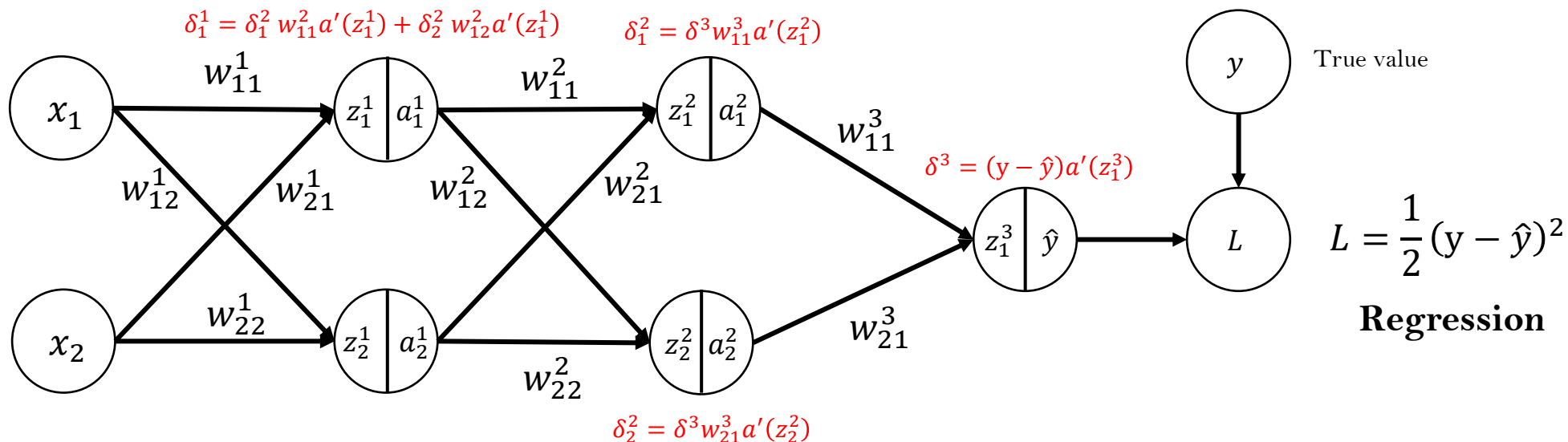
## Lab 2: compute derivatives

# Motivation

To solve  $\operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta} \sum_i \left( NN(\Theta_i, T_i, K_i \mid w) - c^{\text{market}}(T_i, K_i) \right)^2$  using a gradient based approach we need to compute  $\frac{d}{d\Theta} NN(\Theta, T_i, K_i)$  this can be done:

- Using backpropagation
- Using chain rules
- Using low level function of tensorflow

# Backpropagation



For the final layer (M)

$$\delta_1^M = a'(z_1^M)(y - \hat{y})$$

For the final layer (M)

$$\delta_1^M = a'(z_1^M) \cancel{(y - \hat{y})}$$

$$\frac{dL}{dw_{ij}^k} = \delta_j^k a_i^{k-1}$$

$$\delta_j^k = a'(z_j^k) \sum_{l=1}^{r^{k+1}} w_{jl}^{k+1} \delta_l^{k+1}$$

$$\frac{d\hat{y}}{d\mathbf{x}} = \delta_1^k W^1$$

$$(1, K) \times (K, N) = (1, N)$$

$$\delta_j^k = a'(z_j^k) \sum_{l=1}^{r^{k+1}} w_{jl}^{k+1} \delta_l^{k+1}$$

# Chain Rules

$$NN(x) = f^n \left( f^{n-1}(\dots f^1(x)) \right)$$

$$\frac{dNN(x)}{dx} = \frac{df^n}{df^{n-1}} \frac{df^{n-1}}{df^{n-2}} \dots \frac{df^1}{dx}$$

$$x \rightarrow a(\underbrace{W^1 x + b^1}_{a_1}) \rightarrow a(W^2 a_1 + b^2) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow W^n a_{n-1} + b^n$$

$$\frac{df^1}{dx} = W^1 \sigma'(W^1 x + b^1)$$

$$a_1 = \sigma(W^1 x + b^1)$$

$$\frac{df^1}{df^2} = W^2 \sigma'(W^2 a_1 + b^2)$$

$$a_2 = \sigma(W^2 x + b^2)$$

$$\frac{df^n}{df^{n-1}} = W^n$$



# Tensorflow

Used to record operations for automatic differentiation.

Tracing a tensor inside a Tape

```
import tensorflow as tf

input_data = x_chlng.values
x_tensor = tf.convert_to_tensor(input_data, dtype=tf.float32)
with tf.GradientTape() as t:
    t.watch(x_tensor)
    output = model(x_tensor)

result = output
gradients = t.gradient(output, x_tensor)
```

Operation in the Tape

The gradient

Internally it uses backpropagation

# Lab 3: Calibration

# Compute price using FFT

FFT : Fast **F**ourier **T**ransform (see notes on Lab3: generate\_price\_with\_fft\_Heston.pdf)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[(K - S_T)^+] &\simeq \frac{1}{2}(K - S_0) \\ &+ \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{N/4} \frac{1}{2n-1} \left[ \sin(2\pi k \omega_{2n-1}) \Re \left[ K \hat{f}(\omega_{2n-1}) - S_0 \hat{f}(\omega_{2n-1} - \frac{i}{2\pi}) \right] \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \cos(2\pi k \omega_{2n-1}) \Im \left[ K \hat{f}(\omega_{2n-1}) - S_0 \hat{f}(\omega_{2n-1} - \frac{i}{2\pi}) \right] \right].\end{aligned}$$

$$\omega_n = \frac{n}{2X_c}$$

$f$ : PDF of the log return  $s_t$

$\hat{f}$ : characteristic function

This method is used to generate price and volatilities for the Heston Model

# References

- Deep calibration with random grids, Fabio Baschetti et al
- Deep Learning Volatility: A deep neural network perspective on pricing and calibration in (rough) volatility models, Blanka Horvath et al
- A neural network-based framework for financial model calibration, Liu et al

# Lab 4: To the Market

# Calibration via FFT price method

```
def fn(params, mkt_vol, maturities, strikes):

    S0 = 1
    IR = 0
    DY = 0

    CP = 1

    N = (1 << 12)

    Xc = 40 * np.sqrt(T)

    N_maturities = len(maturities)

    mdl_vol = []
    for i in range(N_maturities):
        T_tmp = maturities[i]
        K_tmp = strikes[i]
        call = SINC_discFT(S0, T_tmp, K_tmp, IR, DY, params, Xc[i], N, CP)
        ivol = BSImpliedVol(S0, K_tmp, T_tmp, IR, call, CP)
        mdl_vol.extend(ivol)

    err = np.abs(np.concatenate(mkt_vol) - np.array(mdl_vol))
    mse = np.sum(err**2)

    return mse
```

## cHeston FT-calibration

```
In [4]: obj = lambda params: fn(params, mkt_vol, maturities, strikes)

lb = [2.00, 0.01, 1.00, 0.01, -0.90]
ub = [9.00, 0.20, 4.00, 0.20, -0.50]

init_par = 0.5 * (np.array(lb) + np.array(ub))

options = {'disp': True, 'maxiter': 5000, 'ftol': 1e-6}

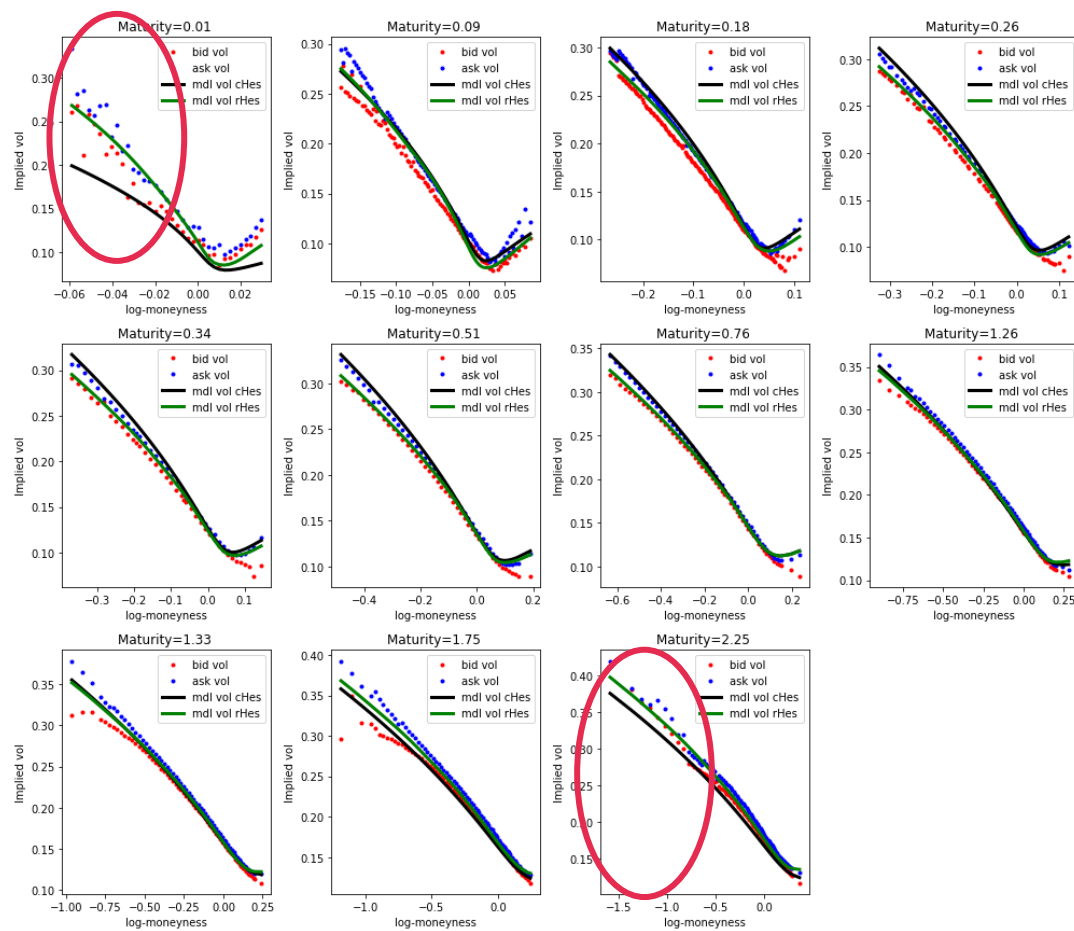
res = minimize(obj, init_par, method='L-BFGS-B', bounds=list(zip(lb, ub)), options=options)

optm_params = res.x

print('optm params: ' + str(optm_params))
fval = res.fun
print('fval: ' + str(fval))

optm params: [ 5.86238328  0.03894898  1.58077205  0.01127874 -0.71623068]
fval: 0.115917377176018
```

# Rough Heston vs Classical Heston



# Bias – Variance trade-off

It can be shown that the expected error on a new unseen points  $x_0$  can be written as a sum of 2 terms:

$$E(y_0 - \hat{f}(x_0))^2 = \text{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0)) + [\text{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))]^2$$

Mean squared error case

The overall expected test MSE can be computed by averaging over all possible values of  $x_0$  in the test set

**Variance** refers to the amount by which the estimated model  $\hat{f}$  would change if we use a different training data set. In general, more **complex/flexible** statistical methods have higher variance.

**Bias** refers to the error that is introduced by approximating a real-world problem, by a much simpler model.

- in order to minimize the expected test error, we need to select a statistical learning method that achieves low variance and low bias but...
- For more **complex/flexible** methods, the variance will increase, and the bias will decrease. **Should find a trade-off.**