Computational Methods: Final Report

Matthew Mercuri

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Introduction and Purpose

The goal of this report is to demonstrate a plethora of computational methods that correspond to a variety of practical applications. For the most part, the methods are used within the applied mathematics field, specifically mathematical finance. Though the methods extend to an assortment of use-cases. The majority of this report centers around implementing the methodology behind the pricing of a financial call option (European). The model that is used for the report is called the local volatility function (LVF) model. What follows is the calibration of the model.

The setup for the model assumes:

$$dS = r \cdot Sdt + \sigma(S, t)SdW_t,$$

where $\sigma(S,t) = \max(0.0, x_1 + x_2S + x_3S^2)$. The European call option value is then the solution of the PDE

$$V_{\tau} - \frac{\sigma^2(S, \tau)}{2} S^2 V_{SS} - rSV_S + rV = 0, \tag{1}$$

where $\tau = T - t$ is the time to maturity.

1. Initial and Boundary Conditions

As this is a European call option, we have:

 $Payoff = max(S_T - K, 0)$ where S_T is the stock price at expiration & K is the strike price Of course the payoff is the value of the option at **expiration**, so it follows that:

$$V(S, t)$$
: at $t = 0 \Rightarrow V(S_0, 0) = max(S_0 - K, 0)$

This is our **initial condition** for the partial differential equation (PDE) from above. Now moving on to the boundary conditions:

$$V(S, t)$$
: at $S = 0 \Rightarrow V(0, t) = max(0 - K, 0) = 0$

$$V(S, t)$$
: at $S = S_{max} \Rightarrow V(S_{max}, t) = max(S_{max} - K, 0)$

These are our boundary conditions: V(0,t)=0 and $V(S_{max},t)=max(S_{max}-K,0)$. It is important to note here that although the value of the call is always zero when the underlying stock price is 0, the maximum value is **potentially unbounded**. In fact, it technically is, as a European call option has unlimited potential for gain given the stock price can tend towards infinity. For convenience and practical purposes, we can assume the maximum value of the option is its value when the underlying stock price is a value that has an extremely low probability of being realized (S_{max}). This will likely be multiples of the starting underlying price and of course greater than the strike price (upside only).

2. Monte Carlo Pricing

We can use the Monte Carlo method in order to price the option. To do this, we basically use random generation to simulate paths the stock price can take through time. Of course, these paths will be generated in such a way that conform to the LVF model. From there we can compute the value of the option.

Pseudo-Code

- 1. Pass initial information to the function
 - a. S_0 initial stock price
 - b. K- option's strike price
 - c. *T* time to maturity
 - d. r- risk-free rate
 - e. x- parameters to calibrate volatility
 - f. *M* desired number of paths to simulate
 - q. N- number of desired time steps, $\delta t = T/N$
- Create a vector (1 by M) that stores the final value of stock's prices
- 3. Create a for loop that runs from 1 to M (only runs for as many simulations as defined)
 - a. Create a vector (1 by N) to store results of stock price
 - b. Create a for loop that runs from 1 to N (runs for each time step)
 - Calculate stock price at current time step using model formula
 - ii. Save stock price in vector
 - iii. End for loop after N time steps
 - c. End for loop after M simulations
- 4. Use the vector of final stock prices to calculate the value of the call option for each path
- 5. Find the average value of the call option
- 6. Discount the average value with e^{-rT} to obtain the value of the option

Code

```
1. % Matthew Mercuri
2. % MTH 600 Final
3. % April 24, 2021
4.
5. function V = Eur_Call_LVF_MC(S0, K, T, r, x, M, N)
6. %
7. % Price the European call option of the LVF model by the Monte Carlo method
8. %
```

```
% Input
    % S0 - initial stock price
     % K - strike price
11.
12.
    % T - maturity
13. % r - risk free interest rate
14. % x - vector parameters for the LVF \sigma, [x1, x2, x3]
15.
    % M - number of simulated paths
    % N - number of time steps, i.e., \delta t = T / N.
17.
18.
    % Output
     % V - European call option price at t = 0 and S0.
19.
20.
21.
     % creating vector to store stock price at expiration
22.
     S finals = zeros(1, M);
23.
     dt = T/N; % constant value for delta t to use later
24.
25.
    % for loop to generate M simulations (paths)
    for i = 1:M
26.
27.
          S = zeros(1, N); % vector to store path's prices
28.
          S(1, 1) = S0; % assigning initial price as first value
29.
          % for loop to generate stock price at each time step
30.
          for j = 2:N
31.
              % calculating volatitily by LVF model
             sigma = \max([0.0, x(1)+(x(2)*S(j-1))+(x(3)*(S(j-1)^2))]);
32.
             % calculating time step's price by LVF
33.
             S(1, j) = S(1, j-1) + (r*S(1, j-1)*dt) + (sigma*S(1, j-1)*dt)
 j-1)*(normrnd(0, 1)*sqrt(dt)));
36.
          S finals(1, i) = S(1, N); % storing result of final price
37.
38.
     % finding value for call (each path)
39.
      V finals = S finals - K;
    V finals = max(V finals, 0);
41.
42.
     % finding average value
43.
     V avg = mean(V finals);
      % discounting for final price
45.
46.
      V = \exp(-r*T)*V \text{ avg};
47. end
```

3. Explicit Pricing - Finite Difference Method

In this section, we provide a means to implement the finding of a solution (thus option price) to the LVF model PDE. This is very much different from the previous method as we are trying to *explicitly* solve the equation through finding the input parameters (essentially its derivatives). Of course, it is difficult to analytically solve for the derivatives, so we can use a numerical method instead. Specifically we are presenting the Crank-Nicolson method with central differencing and upstream weighting.

Pseudo-Code

- 1. Pass the initial parameters to the function
 - a. S_0 the stock's initial price
 - b. K- strike price of the option
 - c. T- time to maturity
 - d. *r* risk free interest rate
 - e. x- parameters for LVF's sigma
 - f. S_{max} presumed maximum attainable stock price
 - g. M- number of differences in stock price for FD method
 - h. N- number of time steps for FD method
- Compute necessary constants for later use (stock price interval and time interval)
- 3. Create vector from $S_0 = 0$ to S_{max}
- 4. Create matrix that will store solutions
- 5. Calculate initial conditions for each price
- 6. Create a for loop for time steps
 - a. Create a for loop for stock prices
 - b. Compute value for sigma using LVF model
 - c. Compute derivatives using FD method
 - d. Enact upstream waiting
 - e. Calculate option value by LVF model and store result, move to next price
 - f. End time for stock prices
- 7. End for loop for time steps
- 8. Select for current price and return option value

Code

```
1. % Matthew Mercuri
2. % MTH 600 Final
3. % April 24, 2021
4.
5. function V0 = Eur Call LVF FD(S0, K, T, r, x, Smax, M, N)
6.
     % Price the European call option of the LVF model by the explicit finite
   difference method.
8.
     용
9.
     % Input
    % SO - initial stock price
10.
    % K - strike price
12.
    % T - maturity
    % r - risk free interest rate
14.
     % x - vector parameters for the LVF \sigma, [x1, x2, x3]
     % Smax - upper bound of the stock price
    % M - number of stock price difference, i.e., \delta S = Smax/M
17.
    % N - number of time steps, i.e., \delta t = T / N.
18.
19.
     % Output
20.
    % V 0 - European call option price at t = 0 and S0.
21.
22. % computing necessary constants
    dS = Smax/M; % increments for stock price
23.
24.
     dtau = T/N; % incremens for time steps
25.
26.
     % creating vector of all possible stock prices
27.
    S = 0:dS:Smax;
28.
29.
     % creating matrix to represent solutions to PDE (grid)
30.
    V = zeros(N,M+1);
32.
     % computing initial conditions for each price and saving the result to
33.
     % our grid
34.
     for i = 1:M+1
35.
          V(1,i) = \max((S(i) - K), 0);
36.
     end
37.
38.
    for n = 1:N-1
39.
          % computing boundary conditions for each price of 0 and Smax
          V(n+1, M+1) = V(n, M+1); % this is just payoff of Smax
41.
          V(n+1, 1) = V(n, 1)*((1-r)*dtau); % this is just 0
42.
          \ensuremath{\mbox{\$}} using finite difference to computer values within boundaries
43.
44.
          for j = 2:M
              % compute new value for sigma
46.
              sigma = \max([0.0, x(1) + (x(2) *S(j-1)) + (x(3) *(S(j-1)^2))]);
47.
48.
              % Calculating our derivates approximated using the FD method.
49.
              % The first two are central differences
              alpha central =
   ((sigma^2)*(S(j)^2))/(((S(j)-S(j-1))*(S(j+1)-S(j-1))))-(r*S(j))/(S(j+1)-S(j-1))
   ;
```

```
beta central =
         ((sigma^2)*(S(j)^2))/(((S(j+1)-S(j))*(S(j+1)-S(j-1))))+(r*S(j))/(S(j+1)-S(j-1))
                                        % forward differences
52.
                                       alpha forward =
53.
         ((sigma^2)*(S(j)^2))/(((S(j)-S(j-1))*(S(j+1)-S(j-1))));
                                       beta forward =
         ((sigma^2)*(S(j)^2))/(((S(j+1)-S(j))*(S(j+1)-S(j-1))))+(r*S(j))/(S(j+1)-S(j-1))
55.
                                       % Upstream weighting requires that both our values for beta and
56.
57.
                                         % alpha be postive or zero. As such, if our central difference
                                         % yields a negative result, we use the forward difference which
58.
59.
                                       % by definition will be positive
                                       if (alpha_central >= 0 ) && (beta_central >= 0)
60.
                                                      alpha = alpha central;
61.
62.
                                                      beta = beta central;
63.
                                        else
                                                     alpha = alpha forward;
65.
                                                     beta = beta forward;
66.
                                          end
67.
68.
                                         % computing our value for the corresponding node (n+1, j) by
69.
                                         % LVF model
70.
                                         V(n+1, j) = V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau)+alpha*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+beta+r)*dtau*V(n, j)*(1-(alpha+bet
    j-1) +beta*dtau*V(n, j+1);
71.
72.
                              end
73.
                 end
74.
            % selecting the option value at starting price at t=0
76.
            V0 = V(N, S==S0);
77.
78. end
```

4. Comparing the Two Methods

Now that we have put the techniques into code, we can use them to actually find the price of a European call option. The parameters That will be used to test the models are summarized in the following table:

Monte Carlo	Explicit
$S_0 = 1$ $K = 0$ $T = 0.25$ $r = 0.03$	$S_0 = 1$ $K = 0$ $T = 0.25$ $r = 0.03$
x = [0.2, 0.001, 0.003] $M = 10,000$ $N = 100$	$x = [0.2, 0.001, 0.003]$ $S_{max} = 3$ $M = 30$ $N = 100$

Using the code presented above, we can find the value of the call option:

Monte Carlo	Explicit	
European Call Value = \$0.0428	European Call Value = \$0.038	

As shown in the table above, the two methods yield similar results. Both price the option to be approximately **\$0.04**. Of course the difference can be attributed to the individual pitfalls of the techniques.

For the Monte Carlo method, we can converge to a more accurate solution by either increasing the amount of simulations or using a variance reduction technique (like the antithetic variates technique). In the explicit method, we can increase the size of our solution grid. What

this essentially means is we can compute solutions using smaller time intervals and/or smaller price intervals. Of course, the tradeoff that comes with making these improvements is computational time and complexity. This would entail both methods being more expensive to compute than they currently are with the above parameters.

Code

```
1. % Matthew Mercuri
2. % MTH 600 Final
3. % April 24, 2021
4.
5. % This file calls two functions to compute the value of the same European
6. % call option. The first uses a Monte Carlo method and the second use an
7. % explicit method (FD PDE solution). Please note the input parameters are
8. % slightly different depending on the method
9.
10.% Monte Carlo Method
11. V_mc = Eur_Call_LVF_MC(1, 1, 0.25, 0.03, [0.2 0.001 0.003], 10000, 100);
12.
13.% Explicit Method
14. V_e = Eur_Call_LVF_FD(1, 1, 0.25, 0.03, [0.2 0.001 0.003], 3, 30, 100);
15.
16. fprintf('The value for the call using the MC method is: $%d \n', V_mc)
17. fprintf('The value for the call using the explicit method is: $%d \n', V_e)
```

5. Model Calibration

The purpose of this section is to demonstrate how we can calibrate the LVF model. If you notice, there is some freedom of choice with the initial value of x. So far, we have chosen them seemingly arbitrarily. Through, in practice we can choose x such that it best approximates the pricing we see in the market. This is what we call calibration. The calibration problem is essentially that of solving a non-linear least squares problem that looks like:

$$\min_{x \in \Re^n} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^m \left(V_0(K_j, T_j; x) - V_0^{\text{mkt}}(K_j, T_j) \right)^2.$$
 (2)

Let F(x) denote the vector of model option value errors from the market prices:

$$F(x) = \begin{bmatrix} V_0(K_1, T_1; x) - V_0^{\text{mkt}}(K_1, T_1) \\ \vdots \\ V_0(K_m, T_m; x) - V_0^{\text{mkt}}(K_m, T_m) \end{bmatrix}$$

Vector $F(x): \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is a nonlinear function of the model parameter $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and the calibration problem (2) is equivalently formulated as

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left(f(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{2} \|F(x)\|_2^2 \right) \tag{3}$$

In equation 2, we are essentially trying to find x such that the value we compute for options of different strike prices closely matches what we see in the market. The most efficient way to solve this problem is through a numerical method like the Gauss-Newton method. It requires the computation of the Jacobian matrix, which we can use the finite difference method to approximate. The Jacobian takes the form:

$$J(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial F_m}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

We will be using the Monte Carlo method from above to calibrate the LVF model against this data (parameters not listed can be assumed to be the same from above):

K	0.80	0.85	0.90	0.95	1.00	1.05	1.10
V_0	0.3570	0.2792	0.2146	0.1747	0.1425	0.1206	1.10 0.0676

Code - Computing Jacobian and Objective Function (Part A)

The code below simply computes the Jacobian matrix and the F(x) from above. It is documented to explain what it is trying to achieve at each major step.

```
1. % Matthew Mercuri
2. % MTH 600 Final
3. % April 24, 2021
4.
5. function [F, J] = myfun(x)
     % ======= computing F =======
     % saving observed value to vector
8.
     V observed = [0.3570 0.2792 0.2146 0.1747 0.1425 0.1206 0.0676];
9.
     % corresponding strikes for options
     Ks = [0.80 \ 0.85 \ 0.90 \ 0.95 \ 1.00 \ 1.05 \ 1.10];
10.
11.
12.
     V computed = zeros(1, length(Ks)); % vector to store computed values
13.
     % computing values for option given x (using Monte Carlo method)
     % NOTE: this takes quite a bit of time
15.
     for i = 1:length(Ks)
16.
         V computed(i) = Eur Call LVF MC(1, Ks(i), 0.25, 0.03, x, 10000, 100);
17.
     end
18.
19.
     % Objective function values at x
20.
    F = V computed - V observed;
     21.
22.
23.
     if nargout > 1 % Two output arguments
         % ======= computing J =======
24.
         J = zeros(length(Ks), length(x)); % create a zeros matrix to store
  Jacobian as we compute it
         delta_x = 0.0001; % small value for our FD approximation
26.
         delta x vector = (zeros(1, length(x)) + delta x); % increment for FD
  method
28.
         for m = 1:length(x)
29.
            xp = x + delta x vector(m);
30.
             for n = 1:length(Ks)
                F_p = Eur_Call_LVF_MC(1, Ks(n), 0.25, 0.03, xp, 10000, 100); %
 compute value for F
32.
                 J(n, m) = (F p - F(n)) / delta x; % apply FD approx.
             end
34.
         end
35.
         36.
     end
37. end
```

Code - Calibration (Part B)

Next, we calibrate the model using the above code. We use two sets of points as our initial value for x:

$$x_0 = [0.200]$$
 $x_0 = [0.20.10.01]$

The following code calibrates the LVF model:

```
1. % Matthew Mercuri
2. % MTH 600 Final
3. % April 24, 2021
5. % observed values
6. Ks = [0.80 \ 0.85 \ 0.90 \ 0.95 \ 1.00 \ 1.05 \ 1.10];
7. V observed = [0.3570 0.2792 0.2146 0.1747 0.1425 0.1206 0.0676];
8.
9. % initial values of x to start calibration
10. \times 01 = [0.2; 0.0; 0.0];
11. x02 = [0.2; 0.1; 0.01];
12.
13.% configuring LM method to find the best values for x
14. options = optimoptions('lsqnonlin', 'SpecifyObjectiveGradient', true);
15. options.Algorithm = 'levenberg-marguardt';
16. options.Display = 'iter';
18.% using non-linear least squares and the above built-in function to
19.% achieve the best values for x
20. [x1, res1] = lsqnonlin(@myfun, x01, [], [], options); % for x01
21. [x2, res2] = lsqnonlin(@myfun, x02, [], [], options); % for x02
22.
23. % displaying results in console
24. disp(x1)
25. disp(x2)
26.
27.% using the optimal x values that were computed above to price our options
28.% creating vectors to store calibrated values
29. V \times 1 = zeros(1, length(Ks));
30. V \times 2 = zeros(1, length(Ks));
32. for b = 1:length(Ks)
      V \times 1(1, b) = Eur Call LVF MC(1, Ks(b), 0.25, 0.03, x1, 10000, 100);
      V \times 2(1, b) = Eur Call LVF MC(1, Ks(b), 0.25, 0.03, x2, 10000, 100);
35. end
36.
37.% Plotting results
38. figure (1)
39. plot(Ks, V_x1, 'LineWidth', 1);
40. hold on;
41.
42. plot(Ks, V x2, 'LineWidth', 1);
43. plot (Ks, V observed, 'LineWidth', 1);
44. hold off;
45.
```

```
46. title('Calibrating x with MC Method for Pricing Options (LVF Model)');
47. xlabel('Strike Price (K)');
48. ylabel('Initial Value V(K,0)');
49. axis('tight');
50.legend('MC 1', 'MC 2', 'Market');
51.
52.% computing implied volatilities
53. i_mkt = blsimpv(1, Ks, 0.03, 0.25, V_observed);
54. i_mc1 = blsimpv(1, Ks, 0.03, 0.25, V_x1);
55. i_mc2 = blsimpv(1, Ks, 0.03, 0.25, V_x2);
56.
57.
58.% Plotting implied volatility
59. figure (2)
60. plot(Ks, i_mkt, 'ko')
61. hold on
62.
63. plot(Ks, i_mc1, 'LineWidth', 1.5)
64. plot(Ks, i mc2, 'LineWidth', 1.5)
66. axis('tight')
67. legend('Observed', 'Fit 1', 'Fit 2')
68. title('Implied Volatility')
69. xlabel('Strike Price (K)')
70. ylabel('Sigma')
71. hold off
72.
```

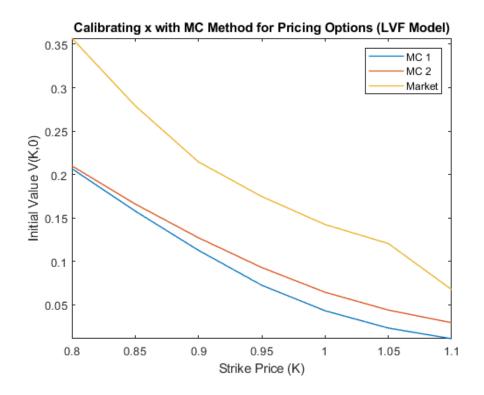
Results and Discussion

Computed Values for x (table 4)

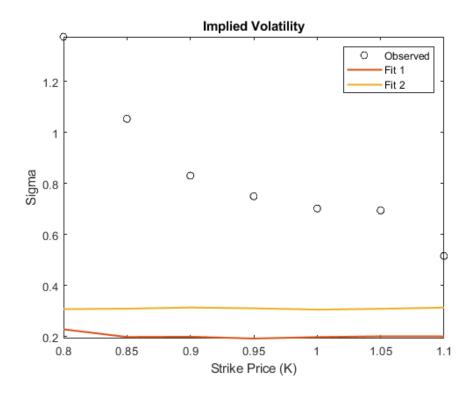
$x_0 = [0.200]$	$x^* = [0.1967 \ 0.0026 \ 0.0009]$	F = [-0.1512 -0.1212
		-0.1033 -0.1014 -0.0992
		-0.0979 -0.0563]
$x_0 = [0.2 \ 0.1 \ 0.01]$	$x^* = [0.200 \ 0.1005 \ 0.0096]$	F = [-0.1463 -0.1138
		-0.0868 -0.0823
		-0.0765 -0.0757 -0.0389]

As you can see, the fitted values for x deviate slightly from the initial. This essentially means that the initial values are crude approximations that may still provide insight for the call option value. However there is still a lot of deviation from the observed market prices. Below is the result of the solver:

>> Calibration					
			First-Order		Norm of
	Func-count		optimality		step
0	1	0.0815173	1.59e+03	0.01	
1	2	0.0804016	1.57e+03	0.001	0.0034381
2	4	0.0798862	1.56e+03	0.01	0.00116405
3	12	0.0798071	1.56e+03	100000	2.82889e-05
4	19				2.70144e-08
	um possible.				
			ve <u>size of the cur</u>	rent step i	is less than
the value o	f the step si	ze tolerance			
		1			
<stopping c<="" td=""><td>riteria detai</td><td>.<u>18</u>></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></stopping>	riteria detai	. <u>18</u> >			
			First-Order		Norm of
Iteration	Func-count	Residual	optimality	Lambda	step
		0.0625205		0.01	•
1	6	0.0620517	1.4e+03	100	0.000683251
2	14	0.0615732	1.4e+03	1e+09	2.20963e-06
3	17				2.42161e-08
Local minim	um possible.				
lsqnonlin s	topped becaus	e the relativ	ve size of the cur	rent step i	is less than
the value o	f the step si	ze tolerance			
<stopping c<="" td=""><td>riteria detai</td><td><u>ls</u>></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></stopping>	riteria detai	<u>ls</u> >			
0.1967					
0.0026					
0.0009					
0.2000					
0.1005					
0.0096					



Graph of the initial option prices at various strike prices (given different fits)



Implied volatility of the two fits compared to BS parameter

Based on the above charts and solver results, it is clear that the fit achieved by the code is not as strong as it perhaps could have been. Suffice to say, the solver did not achieve an appropriate fit to allow the LVF model to price options accurately. This is especially evident if you look at the values for F in the (table 4). The calibration error for both fits are:

$x_0 = [0.200]$	$x^* = [0.1967 \ 0.0026 \ 0.0009]$	Calibration Error
		$ F(x^*) _2^2 = 0.0811$
$x_0 = [0.2 \ 0.1 \ 0.0]$	$x^* = [0.200 \ 0.1005 \ 0.0096]$	Calibration Error
		$ F(x^*) _2^2 = 0.0638$
		11- (3-7112