

7 Monte Carlo methods

7.1 What are Monte Carlo methods?

Monte Carlo methods, also known as ‘stochastic simulation’, are a class of computational algorithms that model the possible outcomes of an uncertain event (e.g., the daily return of a stock). This is achieved by generating a set of hypothetical (simulated) scenarios from which we can statistically infer the likelihood of certain outcomes or events of interest. Monte Carlo methods are particularly useful to solve problems where a deterministic solution is difficult (or even impossible) to find.

For example, it is sometimes very difficult to analytically determine the expected value of a multi-variate function where each of the input variables follows highly complex probability distributions. However, by simulating a large number of scenarios, the sample population will eventually converge towards the ‘true’ deterministic solution.

7.2 Modelling Asset Price Dynamics

A financial time series is a sequence of observations corresponding to the value of a financial instrument over time. A typical example is the price of a stock, which follows what appears to be a random pattern, usually with an upward trend.

Two important time series properties to consider are ‘drift’ and ‘volatility’:

- Drift: Characterized as the change of the average value of a random (stochastic) process (i.e., the drift is the long-term trend of the time series).
- Volatility: Measures the variation over time. In other words, this is the standard deviation of the randomness in our process.
- Volatility-to-drift relationship: In finance, volatility tends to increase when the drift decreases, and vice versa. This can be observed through the ‘bull’ and ‘bear’ market cycles in financial markets.

7.3 Random Walks

The classic example of a stochastic (random) process is the random walk. For simplicity, we will focus on two types of random walks, arithmetic and geometric. Our arithmetic random walk will follow a Gaussian process (i.e., its randomness will be governed by independent normal distributions).

Some useful notation:

- S_t is the price of our asset at time t
- $w_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ is a normally distributed random variable with zero mean and variance σ^2 .
- $\varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ is a standard normal random variable

Consider the price of an asset that can move by an amount that follows a normal distribution with mean μ and volatility (i.e., standard deviation) σ ,

$$S_{t+1} = S_t + \mu + w_t.$$

This price movement is called an arithmetic random walk with drift. This process can be represented as the sum of two terms: a deterministic term and a noisy term

$$\begin{aligned} S_t &= S_{t-1} + \mu + w_{t-1} \\ &= (S_{t-2} + \mu + w_{t-2}) + \mu + w_{t-1} \\ &= S_0 + \mu \cdot t + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} w_i \end{aligned}$$

We can replace our term w_i with a standard normal random variable that will capture all the randomness in our process

$$\begin{aligned} S_t &= S_{t-1} + \mu + \sigma \cdot \varepsilon_{t-1} \\ &= S_0 + \mu \cdot t + \sigma \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_i. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\varepsilon_0, \dots, \varepsilon_{t-1}$ are independent standard normal random variables, their sum is a normal variable with mean zero and standard deviation equal to

$$\sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} 1} = \sqrt{t}$$

Thus, if we model our asset price through an arithmetic random walk, the price at time t is

$$S_t = S_0 + \mu \cdot t + \sigma \cdot \sqrt{t} \cdot \varepsilon$$

The resulting price change over t time periods has a normal distribution with mean $\mu \cdot t$ and standard deviation $\sigma \cdot \sqrt{t}$.

Arithmetic random walks works well for short time frames (e.g., to model intraday price changes). However, using them to model longer time frames has two drawbacks.

1. An arithmetic random walk could potentially take on negative values, particularly if we have a low initial value S_0 . Asset prices cannot have negative values.
2. It has been shown in both academia and industry that asset prices are non-stationary, meaning that their mean and standard deviation are not constant through time.

7.4 Geometric Random Walks

Throughout this course we have assumed that the returns (and not the prices themselves) follow a normal distribution, $r_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Therefore, this assumes the returns follow a Gaussian process

$$r_t = \frac{S_t - S_{t-1}}{S_{t-1}} = \mu + \sigma \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

where, as before, $\varepsilon_0, \dots, \varepsilon_{t-1}$ are independent normal random variables. It follows that the price from time $t-1$ to t (where we take a time step $\Delta t = 1$) can be computed as

$$\begin{aligned} S_t &= S_{t-1} \cdot (1 + r_t) \\ &= S_{t-1} \cdot (1 + \mu + \sigma \varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= S_{t-1} + \mu \cdot S_{t-1} + \sigma \cdot S_{t-1} \cdot \varepsilon_{t-1}. \end{aligned}$$

From this equation we can calculate the discrete-time change in price,

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta S_t &= S_t - S_{t-1} \\ &= \mu S_{t-1} + \sigma S_{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-1},\end{aligned}$$

where, thus far, we have assumed that $\Delta t = 1$. For an arbitrarily sized time step Δt , this equation becomes,

$$\Delta S_t = \mu S_{t-1} \Delta t + \sigma S_{t-1} \sqrt{\Delta t} \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

which, for a sufficiently small time step $\Delta t \approx dt$, gives us the following stochastic differential equation (SDE) in continuous-time

$$dS_t = \mu S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$$

where W_t is a Brownian motion (or a ‘Wiener process’). Note that a Wiener process with time step dt can be discretized as $dW_t \sim \sqrt{dt} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Under this framework, we have that

$$\int_0^t \frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \mu t + \sigma W_t.$$

We can see that $\frac{dS_t}{S_t}$ looks similar to the derivative of $\ln(S_t)$ in traditional calculus. However, S_t is a stochastic process, meaning we must use Itô’s lemma to solve it. Consider the second-order Taylor expansion of the function $f(S_t) = \ln(S_t)$. The expansion is

$$f(S_t + dS_t) = f(S_t) + f'(S_t)dS_t + \frac{1}{2}f''(S_t)(dS_t)^2,$$

which we can rearrange to have

$$\begin{aligned}df(S_t) &= f(S_t + dS_t) - f(S_t) \\ &= f'(S_t)dS_t + \frac{1}{2}f''(S_t)(dS_t)^2 \\ &= f'(S_t)dS_t + \frac{1}{2}f''(S_t)(\mu S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t)^2 \\ &= f'(S_t)dS_t + \frac{1}{2}f''(S_t)(\mu^2 S_t^2 dt^2 + \sigma^2 S_t^2 dW_t^2 + 2\mu\sigma S_t^2 dt dW_t) \\ &= \frac{dS_t}{S_t} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{S_t^2} \sigma^2 S_t^2 dt \\ &= \frac{dS_t}{S_t} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 dt,\end{aligned}$$

where we made use of our definition of $dS_t = \mu S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$ to simplify the second-order term of our Taylor expansion. Note that the differential of a Wiener process, dW_t , is of the order of \sqrt{dt} , i.e., $dW_t^2 \approx dt$. Moreover, for a small time step dt , the terms dt^2 and $dt \cdot dW_t$ tend to zero faster than the term dt . Thus, we assume that $dt^2 \approx 0$ and $dt dW_t \approx 0$. These assumptions are reflected on the transition from the 3rd line to the 4th line of the derivation above.

Recall that $f(S_t) = \ln(S_t)$. Therefore, the expression above becomes

$$d(\ln(S_t)) = \frac{dS_t}{S_t} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 dt.$$

We can use this expression of dS_t/S_t to solve our original problem. Recall that we started here

$$\int_0^t \frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \mu t + \sigma W_t.$$

Integrating over our new expression of dS_t/S_t , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^t d(\ln(S_t)) + \int_0^t \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 dt &= \mu t + \sigma W_t, \\ \ln(S_t) - \ln(S_0) &= \left(\mu - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2\right) t + \sigma W_t, \\ S_t &= S_0 \exp \left[\left(\mu - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2\right) t + \sigma \sqrt{t} \varepsilon \right]. \end{aligned}$$

We can also use the equation above for a given time step dt ,

$$S_{t+1} = S_t \exp \left[\left(\mu - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2\right) dt + \sigma \sqrt{dt} \varepsilon_t \right]$$

Note that the time step dt must be in the same time frame as your estimates μ and σ , e.g., if μ is the yearly return, then $dt = 1$ would be a 1-year time step.

Note: The derivation of the geometric Brownian motion, and the use of Itô calculus is outside of the scope of this course. In other words, this information is shown in the notes to provide insight and help with your understanding, but you are not expected to know how to derive this in an exam.

7.5 Simulations

If we want to simulate the price path of a single asset, we could take the following steps.

1. Estimate our parameters μ and σ from historical data. Be sure to select an appropriate frequency for your data (e.g., daily, monthly, etc).
2. Given the frequency of your estimates, select the number of time steps you wish to take.
 - If we have yearly estimates μ_y and σ_y , and we wish to simulate one year's worth of daily price changes, we would have $dt = T/N = 1/252$

$$S_{t+1} = S_t \exp \left[\frac{1}{252} \left(\mu_y - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_y^2 \right) + \frac{\sigma_y \varepsilon_t}{\sqrt{252}} \right]$$

and we would perform this simulation 252 times for $t = 0, \dots, 251$. Every time we take a step we update the current value of S_t and simulate a new value value for $\varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

- On the other hand, if we have weekly estimates μ_w and σ_w and we wish to simulate the price path for one year with four time steps, we would have $dt = T/N = 52/4 = 13$

$$S_{t+1} = S_t \exp \left[13 \left(\mu_w - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_w^2 \right) + \sigma_w \sqrt{13} \varepsilon_t \right]$$

for $t = 0, \dots, 3$. As before, we simulate a new value value for $\varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ every time we take a step.

3. In order to generate multiple scenarios, we can perform Step 2 multiple times. For Monte Carlo simulations we may want to generate at least 1,000 paths. Keep in mind that each path

may have multiple time steps. For example, 10,000 one-year price paths with a one-month time step would require you to perform $10,000 \times 12 = 120,000$ simulations.

In most cases we do not need to observe the individual steps taken by each path. Instead, we can take a single step to simulate the price change from S_0 to S_t . This can drastically reduce the number of simulations.

7.6 Simulating Correlated Assets

In general, financial assets do not behave independently. This can be modelled by introducing correlation between our simulated Brownian motions.

Suppose we have n correlated assets in our portfolio. Let $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be a vector of independent $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ variables. Moreover, let $\rho \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be our correlation matrix, where $\rho_{ij} = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma_i \sigma_j}$.

Let us define a new vector

$$\xi = L\varepsilon$$

where $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is some transformation matrix. Each element of $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is normally distributed with

$$\mathbb{E}[\xi] = L\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon] = 0.$$

The elements of ε are independent and have unit variance, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_i^2] = 1$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Thus, $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon\varepsilon^T] = I_{n \times n}$, where $I_{n \times n}$ is the identity matrix of size n .

It follows that the covariance matrix of ξ is

$$\mathbb{E}[\xi\xi^T] = \mathbb{E}[L\varepsilon\varepsilon^T L^T] = L\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon\varepsilon^T]L^T = LI_{n \times n}L^T = LL^T.$$

To enforce the correlation between our assets, we must find some L such that $LL^T = \rho$. Since ρ is a symmetric matrix (and any real symmetric matrix is also a Hermitian matrix), the easiest way to find L is to use a Cholesky factorization in which L is the lower-triangular matrix. In MATLAB, the command is

$$L = \text{chol}(\rho, \text{'lower'})$$

Finally, to simulate our correlated price paths, we now have

$$S_{t+1}^i = S_t^i \exp \left[\left(\mu_i - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i^2 \right) dt + \sigma_i \sqrt{dt} \xi_t^i \right]$$

for each asset $i = 1, \dots, n$.