# Numerical Methods For Derivative Pricing with Applications to Barrier Options

by

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we study the use of numerical methods to price barrier options. A barrier option is similar to a vanilla option with one exception. If the option ceases to exist then the payoff is zero. If the stock price hits the pre-agreed upon barrier price, then the option ceases to exist or comes into existent depending on the type of a barrier option i.e. knock in or knock out. The immediate payoff is either the same as for a vanilla call or zero, respectively. We apply a number of classical and recently proposed numerical techniques to approximate the solutions of the Black-Scholes and Heston models. Our main goal is to use the more complicated and accurate Heston model. The Black-Scholes equation is used as a verification tool. Our two major approaches are Monte Carlo simulations and a finite difference method. The Heston model relies on five parameters that characterize the current market behavior. We approximate these from market data by calibrating the model using the least square technique and Levenberg-Marquardt method. We present the results of our simulations and discuss our findings. MATLAB codes required to implement the models are provided in the appendix.

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

The most important formula for pricing vanilla options in financial mathematic is the Black-Scholes (BS) equation [3]. Black-Scholes model has a closed form formula and can be used to price European vanilla put and call options. Because of its simplicity, the BS model is widely used by banks and other financial institutions. The model assumes that the price of heavily traded assets follow a geometric Brownian motion with constant drift and volatility. However, there are well known flaws with these assumptions. One of the problems is that volatility in fact behaves in a random manner. Heston model is one of the most well known stochastic volatility models that we can used to address this problem. The model was proposed by Heston in 1993 [8] as an extension the Black-Scholes model. Unlike the BS model, the Heston takes into account the non log-normal distribution of asset returns and non constant volatility. Implied volatility surfaces generated by the Heston model look like the empirical implied volatility surfaces. One drawback of the Heston model is that it does not have a closed formula for any options other than vanilla options. However, some numerical methods such as Monte Carlo simulations and finite difference methods were proposed to deal with this problem.

In this paper, we use numerical methods to compute down and out barrier options using both BS and Heston models. First, we consider the simpler BS model. We compute down and out barrier option using standard Monte Carlo method. Then, we will use improved Monte Carlo method proposed by Moon [14] to price down and out barrier option. The exact solution will be used to compare the error between these two methods. In chapter 4, we introduce Heston stochastic volatility and two numerical methods (Milstein and QE) that can be used to discretize the model. In chapter 5, model calibration is introduced to estimate five unknown Heston's parameters using Levenberg-Marquardt method [12] and Matlab command "Isqnonlin". In Chapter 6, the finite difference method is used to discretize the Heston partial differential equation. Furthermore, explicit and alternating direction implicit scheme (ADI) [10] are used to approximate vanilla options and barrier options.

# Chapter 2

# **Barrier Options**

The payoff of a standard European vanilla option depends on the underlying stock price at the expiry date and the strike price. Since the payoff only depends on the underlying stock price at maturity, it is usually referred to as a path independent option. Barrier option is referred to as a path dependent option and is one of the most important exotic option in today's market. It behaves like a plain vanilla option with one exception. If the barrier price is touched at any time before maturity, the option either ceases to exist (knock out option) or comes into existence (knock in option).

Usually, traders buy or sell this type of options when they believe that the stock price would either go up or down but would not exceed or become lower than a certain barrier price. Barrier options can be used to hedge other financial instruments without paying as much a premium as for normal vanilla options. The most frequently used standard barrier options are knock in and knock out options. Knock in options can be divided into two categories, up and in, and down and in. Similarly, knock out options can also be used as a down and out and up and out option. Barrier options are available as both call and put options. In this paper, we will focus on barrier call options only. In the next subsections, we will describe the payoff structure of these four

types of call barrier options.

### 2.1 Knock Out Options

### 2.1.1 Up and out call:

If the underlying stock price stays below the barrier price, the payoff of the option is equivalent to the European vanilla call option. If the underlying stock price rises above the barrier price at anytime during the lifetime of the option, the call option is immediately terminated. Mathematically, this can be written as [16]

Payoff = 
$$\begin{cases} max(S_t - K, 0) & S_t < B, \ \forall \ 0 \le t \le T, \\ 0 & otherwise, \end{cases}$$
 (2.1)

where  $S_t$  is the underlying stock price at time t, K is the strike price, and B is the barrier price agreed on at the beginning of the contract.

#### 2.1.2 Down and out call:

If the underlying stock price stays above the barrier price, the payoff of the option is equivalent to the European vanilla call option. If the underlying stock price drops to or below the barrier price at anytime during the lifetime of the option, the call option is immediately terminated. Mathematically, this can be written as:

Payoff = 
$$\begin{cases} max(S_t - K, 0) & S_t > B, \ \forall \ 0 \le t \le T \\ 0 & otherwise. \end{cases}$$
 (2.2)

### 2.2 Knock In Options

### 2.2.1 Up and in call:

If the underlying stock price rises to or above the barrier price at anytime during the lifetime of the option, the payoff of the option is equivalent to European vanilla call option. If the underlying stock price trades below the barrier price, the call option is immediately terminated. Mathematically, it can be written as

Payoff = 
$$\begin{cases} 0 & S_t < B, \ \forall \ 0 \le t \le T \\ max(S_t - K, 0) & otherwise. \end{cases}$$
 (2.3)

#### 2.2.2 Down and in call:

If the underlying stock price trades at or below the barrier price at anytime during the lifetime of the option, the payoff of the option is equivalent to European vanilla call option. If the option trades above the barrier price, the call option is immediately terminated. Mathematically, it can be written as

Payoff = 
$$\begin{cases} 0 & S_t > B, \ \forall \ 0 \le t \le T \\ max(S_t - K, 0) & otherwise. \end{cases}$$
 (2.4)

#### Lemma:

The value of the down and out call plus down and in call option with the same barrier price and strike price is equal the value of the vanilla call option. Similarly, the value of the up and out call plus the up and in call option is also equal to vanilla call option. Throughout this paper, we will use DOC to denote down and out call option price, UOC to denote up and out call

option price, DIC to denote down and in call option price, UIC to denote up and in call option price and C to denote vanilla call option. Below is a proof of the lemma stated above.

Assuming that the expected future payoff is discounted to the present day at the risk-free rate r,

$$C=e^{-rT} E_Q(\max(S_T-K,0))$$

DOC=
$$e^{-rT} E_Q(\max(S_T-K,0)^* 1_{S_T>B})$$

DIC=
$$e^{-rT} E_Q(\max(S_T-K,0)^* 1_{S_T \le B})$$

$$UOC=e^{-rT} E_Q(\max(S_T-K,0)^* 1_{S_T < B})$$

UIC=
$$e^{-rT}$$
 E<sub>Q</sub>(max(S<sub>T</sub>-K,0)\* 1<sub>S<sub>T</sub>≥B</sub>)

Summing DOC and DIC, and UOC and UIC we get

DOC+DIC=
$$e^{-rT}$$
 E<sub>Q</sub>(max(S<sub>T</sub>-K,0)\* (1<sub>S<sub>T</sub>>B</sub> +1<sub>S<sub>T</sub>≤B</sub>) )= $e^{-rT}$  E<sub>Q</sub>(max(S<sub>T</sub>-K,0) )=C UOC+UIC=  $e^{-rT}$  E<sub>Q</sub>(max(S<sub>T</sub>-K,0)\* (1<sub>S<sub>T</sub> +1<sub>S<sub>T</sub>≥B</sub>) )= $e^{-rT}$  E<sub>Q</sub>(max(S<sub>T</sub>-K,0) )=C end of proof.</sub>

Note that the payoff for the knock out and knock in put options is similar to the call with one exception. Instead of having the underlying stock price minus the strike price, the knock in and knock out put options have the strike price minus the underlying stock price.

$$Payoff = max(K - S_T, 0)$$

# Chapter 3

# Monte Carlo Simulations On Black-Scholes Model

Monte Carlo (MC) simulations rely on risk neutral valuation. The pricing of derivative options is given by the expected value of its discounted payoffs. First, the technique generates pricing paths for the underlying stock via random simulations. Then it uses these pricing paths to compute the payoffs. Finally, payoffs are averaged and discounted back to today's prices and these results give the value of the option prices. In this section we will use the classical Black-Scholes model framework and apply Monte Carlo simulations to compute down and out option price. Note that there exists a closed form solution for this problem, and, therefore, it is not necessary to use simulations. However, in this paper we use MC simulations for illustrative purposes.

### 3.1 Generating Stock Paths

Assume that the asset price follows a geometric Brownian motion with a constant volatility and interest rate. Brownian motion process can be used if we assume that the market is dominated by the normal events. This process

can be written as the following stochastic differential equation for the asset return [14]

$$dS_t = S_t \mu dt + S_t \sigma dW_t, \tag{3.1}$$

where

 $S_t$  - stock price at time t

 $\mu$  - rate of return of the underlying stock price

 $\sigma$  -constant volatility

 $W_t$ - Wiener process

Let us assume that the asset returns follow a log normal distribution, i.e.,

 $G(t) = ln(S_t)$ . Applying Itos lemma we get

$$dG(t) = \frac{dG}{S_t} dS_t + \frac{dG}{dt} dt + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 G}{dS_t^2} dS_t^2,$$
where
$$\frac{dG}{dt} = 0, \frac{dG}{S_t} = \frac{1}{S_t}, \frac{d^2 G}{dS_t^2} = \frac{-1}{S_t^2},$$

$$d\ln(S_t) = \frac{1}{S_t} (S_t r dt + S_t \sigma dW_t) + 0 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(-1)}{S_t^2} S_t^2 \sigma^2 dt,$$

$$d\ln(S_t) = (r - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2) dt + \sigma dW_t.$$
(3.2)

Integrating both side from 0 to t we get

$$\ln(S_t) - \ln(S_0) = (r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)t + \sigma W_t,$$

$$S_t = S_0 e^{(r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)t + \sigma W_t}.$$
(3.3)

In order to generate stock paths, we discretize (3.3) as follows

$$S_{t+1} = S_t e^{(r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)\Delta t + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta}tZ_t},$$

where  $\Delta t$  is the time step, and  $Z_t$  is the standard normal random variable with mean 0 and variance 1.

These paths can be easily simulated in Matlab using the following pseudo code.

```
For i=1:M S = zeros(N,1); S(1)=S(0); For j=1:N-1 Z_{j}= randn; S_{j+1}=S_{j} e^{(r-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2})\Delta t + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta}tZ_{j}}; End End
```

Using the above stock paths algorithm, we can price down and out barrier options using the following pseudocode:[14]

Set 
$$\bar{V} = e^{-rT} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=0}^{M} V_i$$
;

As an example, let us consider pricing a down and out put option by applying the above algorithm and compare the difference between the exact and the approximated values using the underlying stock price  $S_0=100$ , the risk free rate r=0.015, time to maturity T=1, lower barrier L=80, Strike price =110, volatility  $\sigma=0.3$  and number of simulations M=1000000. The exact solution with these parameters is  $V_{exact}=2.3981$ . We apply the above algorithm and compare the difference between the exact and approximated values. By observing results in Table 1, we see that, the error is large and it converges very slowly.

In 2008, Moon [14] proposed an improved Monte Carlo (MC) method that performs more efficiently for pricing barrier options. Figure 3.1 shows the comparison between the MC and improved MC error. From the graph, we see that the efficient MC produces a much smaller approximation error than the standard MC. The key idea behind this new method is to use the exit probability and uniformly distributed random numbers (U(0,1)) to predict the first instance of hitting the barriers. First, we compute the exit probability P using formula (10) in Moon's paper [14]. Second, we generate U(0,1) using the Matlab command, unifred, and check the following criteria:

if 
$$(S_j > B \text{ and } P_j < U_j, 1 \le \forall j \le N)$$

$$V_i = \max(S_T - K, 0) \text{ for Call};$$

$$V_i = \max(K - S_T, 0) \text{ for Put};$$
else
$$V_i = 0;$$
end

M	Number of Time Steps	Standard Monte Carlo	Error
1000000	50	3.0021	0.6039
1000000	100	2.8848	0.4867
1000000	200	2.7502	0.3521

Table 1: Comparison of the exact and MC approximated values for down and out put option prices with  $S_0$ =100, K=110, B=80, r=0.015,  $\sigma$ =0.3 and T=1

M	Number of Time Steps	Standard Monte Carlo	Error
1000000	50	2.3693	0.0288
1000000	100	2.3785	0.0196
1000000	200	2.3988	0.00063

Table 2: Comparison of the exact and improved MC approximated values for down and out put option prices with  $S_0$ =100, K=110, B=80, r=0.015,  $\sigma$ =0.3 and T=1

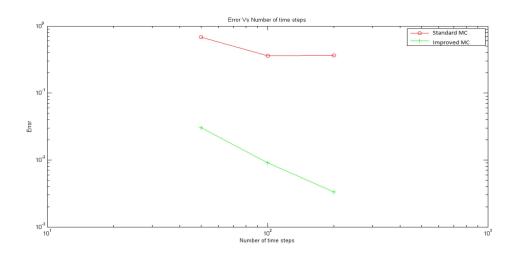


Figure 3.1: Comparison of the error with MC and improved MC method.

# Chapter 4

# Stochastic Volatility Model

Black-Scholes model is the most widely used tool in the world of finance. The main reason behind this is that it has a closed form solution and it requires almost no computational resources. However, the Black-Scholes model relies on many assumptions that are unrealistic. One of the main flaws within the model is the fact that Black-Scholes assumes that market is complete and the volatility is constant. However, empirical evidence shows that the volatility behaves in a random manner. To correct these flaws, an extension on the Black-Scholes model was proposed by Heston in 1993. Heston's stochastic volatility can be specified as [8]

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = rdt + \sqrt{V_t}dW_t^1 \tag{4.1}$$

$$dV_t = -\lambda(V_t - \bar{V})dt + \eta\sqrt{V_t}dW_t^2$$
(4.2)

$$E(dW_t^1 dW_t^2) = \rho dt, (4.3)$$

where r- risk free rate  $S_t$  - underlying stock price

 $V_t$  - variance

 $\bar{V}$  - long term mean variance

 $\lambda$ - mean reversion rate

 $\eta$ - volatility of variance

 $\rho$  - correlation between the stock price and variance

 $\mathbf{W}_t^1$  and  $\mathbf{W}_t^2$  - Wiener stochastic processes

Note that in order to take into account the leverage effect, the Wiener stochastic processes  $W_t^1$  and  $W_t^2$  should be correlated  $E(dW_t^1 dW_t^2) = \rho dt$ .

One of the main drawbacks of this model is that there is no analytical solution to it. However, we can approximate this solution using Monte Carlo simulations. In this paper, we will use Milstein method and Quadratical Exponential Method (QE) method by Leif Andersen to discretize (4.1) and (4.2).

### 4.1 Milstein Method

Milstein's method is a second order numerical scheme used to numerically solve stochastic differential equations. Consider a general Ito process

$$dX_t = a(X_t)dt + b(X_t)dW_t. (4.4)$$

From Euler-Maruyama method, the integral below can be approximated as [15]

$$\int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} b(s, X_s) dW_s dx \approx b(t_n, X_n) \Delta W_n.$$
 (4.5)

Applying Ito formula to (4.4) we get the following [15]

$$X_{t_{i+1}} = X_{t_i} + \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \left[ a(X_{t_i}) + \int_{t_i}^{s} \left( a'(X_u)a(X_u) + \frac{1}{2}a''(X_u)b^2(X_u) \right) du \right]$$

$$+ \int_{t_i}^{s} a'(X_u)b(X_u)dW_u ds + \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \left[ b(X_{t_i}) + \int_{t_i}^{s} b'(X_u)(X_u)\frac{1}{2}b''(X_u)b^2(X_u)du \right]$$

$$+ \int_{t_i}^{s} \frac{1}{2}b'(X_u)b(X_u)dW_u dw_u dw_u dw_s.$$

If we omit the higher order terms in the formula above, i.e.  $dW_s$  \*du,  $dW_u$ \*ds, and du\*ds, we obtain

$$X_{t_{i+1}} \approx X_{t_i} \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} a(X_{t_i}) ds + \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \left( b(X_{t_i}) + \frac{1}{2} \int_{t_i}^{s} b'(X_u) b(X_u) dW_u \right) dW_s.$$

Applying formula (4.5) to the second and third terms gives

$$\approx X_{t_i} + a(X_{t_i})\Delta t + b(X_{t_i})\Delta W_i + \frac{1}{2} \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \int_{t_i}^{s} b'(X_u)b(X_u)dW_u dW_s.$$
 (4.6)

The double integral in (4.6) can be approximated as [15]

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_i}^{t_{i+1}} \int_{t_i}^{s} b'(X_u)b(X_u)dW_u dW_s \approx \frac{1}{2}b'(X_{t_i})b(X_{t_i})\Big((\Delta W_i)^2 - \Delta t\Big). \tag{4.7}$$

By combining equations (4.6) and (4.7), the Milstein's scheme can be obtain as follows [15]:

$$X_{0} = b(X_{t_{0}})$$

$$X_{t_{i+1}} = X_{t_{i}} + a(X_{i})\Delta t + b(X_{i})\Delta W_{i} + \frac{1}{2}b'(X_{i})b(X_{i})\left((\Delta W_{i})^{2} - \Delta t\right).$$
(4.8)

Our main goal is to use scheme (4.8) to discretize the Heston stochastic volatility. Let  $X_t = \log(S_t)$ ,  $\sigma = \sqrt{V}$ . We apply equation (4.8) to (3.2) and (4.2) to obtain

$$X_{i+1} = X_i + (r - \frac{V}{2})\Delta t + \sqrt{V\Delta t}\phi^{(1)} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{V} * 0.$$

where b'(X<sub>i</sub>)=0 (since V does not depend on X), a=r- $\frac{V}{2}$ , b= $\sqrt{V}$  and  $\Delta Z_t = \sqrt{\Delta t} \phi$ 

$$X_{i+1} = X_i + (r - \frac{V}{2})\Delta t + \sqrt{V}\Delta t \phi^{(1)}$$

$$V_{i+1} = V_i - \lambda(V - \bar{V})\Delta t + \eta\sqrt{V}\sqrt{\Delta t}\phi^{(2)} + (\frac{1}{2}\eta\sqrt{V})(\frac{1}{2}\frac{\eta}{\sqrt{V}})(\Delta t(\phi^{(2)})^2 - \Delta t)$$

$$V_{i+1} = V_i - \lambda(V - \bar{V})\Delta t + \eta\sqrt{V}\sqrt{\Delta t}\phi^{(2)} + \frac{1}{4}\eta^2\Delta t(\phi^{(2)})^2 - \frac{1}{4}\eta^2\Delta t$$

$$V_{i+1} = (\sqrt{V_i} + \frac{\eta}{2}\sqrt{\Delta t}\phi^{(2)})^2 - \lambda(V_i - V_b ar)\Delta t - \frac{1}{4}\eta^2 \Delta t$$
 (4.10)

$$E(\phi^{(1)}\phi^{(2)}) = \rho dt. \tag{4.11}$$

Note that equation (4.4)  $E(dW_t^1 dW_t^2) = \rho dt$  can be discretizes as following

$$E(\phi^{(1)}\phi^{(2)}) = \rho \tag{4.12}$$

where  $\phi^{(1)}$  and  $\phi^{(2)}$  are the standard normal distributions with correlation  $\rho$ . Having constructed a numerical scheme for solution of (4.1) and (4.2), we are almost ready to perform MC simulations. The only missing component is a generator of standard normal random numbers with correlation  $\rho$ .

# 4.1.1 Generation of Correlated Random Samples $\phi^{(1)}$ $\phi^{(2)}$

Suppose we have a basket of two stocks,  $S^1$  and  $S^2$ . Suppose further that the returns of these two stocks have correlation  $-1 \le \rho \le 1$ , i.e.

$$\frac{dS^1}{S^1} = \mu^1 dt + \sigma^{(1)} dW_t^1 \tag{4.13}$$

$$\frac{dS^2}{S^2} = \mu^2 dt + \sigma^{(2)} dW_t^2 \tag{4.14}$$

$$E(dW_t^1 dW_t^2) = \rho dt, \quad dZ^1 = \phi^{(1)} \sqrt{dt}, \quad dZ^2 = \phi^{(2)} \sqrt{dt}, \quad E(\phi^{(1)} \phi^{(2)}) = \rho.$$

Before proceeding, we will give a quick overview of a covariance matrix and its definition. A process for generating covariance matrices is described in the next section.

#### 4.1.2 Covariance Matrices

Let X and Y be two random variables. The covariance of two random variables is defined as [7]

$$Cov(X,Y) = E(X - E(X))E(Y - E(Y)).$$
 (4.15)

Let  $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_p)$  be a random vector with mean vector  $\mu = (\mu_1, \mu_2, ..., \mu_p)$ . Then the covariance matrix Q can be written in the form [7]

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} Cov(X_1, X_1) & \cdots & Cov(X_1, X_p) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Cov(X_p, X_1) & \cdots & Cov(X_p, X_p) \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $Cov(X_i, X_j)$  is the covariance of  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  for  $i \neq j$ , and  $Cov(X_i, X_i)$  is the covariance of  $X_i$  with itself, that is, its variance  $Var(X_i)$ . Therefore Q can be rewritten as:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} Var(X_1) & Cov(X_1, X_2) & \cdots & Cov(X_1, X_p) \\ Cov(X_2, X_1) & Var(X_2) & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ Cov(X_p, X_1) & Cov(X_p, X_2) & \cdots & Var(X_p) \end{bmatrix}.$$

For example: if  $X=(X_1, X_2)$ ,  $Cov(X_1,X_2)=0.75$ ,  $Var(X_1)=Var(X_2)=1$ , then the covariance matrix of X is:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.75 \\ 0.75 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note, that the covariance matrix is a symmetric positive semi-definite matrix, i.e, for any  $X \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $X^TQX \ge 0$ . Also, for any real covariance matrix the diagonal entries are greater or equal to zero.

Using these facts, we can now generate correlated normal random variables. Assume that we have  $\xi_1, \, \xi_2, \dots, \, \xi_n$  which are independent standard normals

i.e.  $E(\xi_i)=0$ ,  $\sigma(\xi_i)=1$  and  $E(\xi_i,\xi_j)=0$  for  $i \neq j$ . Let

$$e = \begin{bmatrix} \xi_1 \\ \xi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \xi_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let  $\phi = G^T e$  (G is the upper triangular matrix such that  $Q = GG^T$  which can be obtained by computing the Cholesky decomposition of Q) satisfying  $E(\phi)=0$ .

In Matlab we can compute the Cholesky decomposition of Q using Matlab command "chol" [7]. For example, to generate a sample of random vector with covariance matrix Q, we do the following:

- 1. Compute G, G = chol(Q).
- 2. Generate N(0,1) sample  $X_i$  ( $X_i$  can be computed using randn(n,1) command).
- 3. Compute  $\phi^1 = G^T X_i$ .

We are now ready to perform Monte Carlo simulations to compute the price of barrier options. However, since there exists an exact solution for vanilla call options, we will first compute a vanilla call option and compare the result with the exact solution. This will serve as a test to check if the model is working correctly. Its other purpose is to study the accuracy of the model.

Monte Carlo simulations using Milstein discretization for vanilla call option can be implemented in Matlab using the following pseudocode

```
Compute matrix G and set X=log(S)

For i=1:M

For j=1:N

Generate N(0,1) sample Z_j

Compute \phi^1 and \phi^2 using matrix G

Compute X_j using (4.9)

Compute V_j using (4.10)

if V_j < 0 set V_j = 0

End

Sstore<sub>i</sub>=S<sub>j</sub>

End

Set Sstore=e^X

Set \bar{V}=e^{-rT}\frac{1}{M}\sum_{i=0}^{M} max(S_i-K,0);
```

Let us price a vanilla call option using the above algorithm with the underlying stock price  $S_0=71.2$ , the risk free rate r=0.02, time to maturity T=1, strike prices =[80,85,90..120], volatility  $V_0=0.1237$ ,  $\bar{V}=0.677$ ,  $\eta=0.3920$ ,  $\rho=0.6133$ ,  $\lambda=1.1954$ , number of time steps N=100, and number of simulations M=1000000. The exact solution using these parameters are shown in Table 3. In Table 4, we decrease the time step by a factor of 10, i.e increase N by a factor of 10.

M	N	Strike	MC Price	Exact Price	Diff in Price
1000000	100	80	5.423127	5.396080	0.027047
1000000	100	85	3.844579	3.822287	0.022292
1000000	100	90	2.648261	2.631227	0.017034
1000000	100	95	1.778787	1.765087	0.013701
1000000	100	100	1.170418	1.158476	0.011942
1000000	100	105	0.756568	0.747489	0.009080
1000000	100	110	0.482464	0.476524	0.005940
1000000	100	115	0.304875	0.301545	0.003330
1000000	100	120	0.191609	0.190173	0.001436

Table 3: The exact and the Milstein's MC approximated value for vanilla call option with  $N{=}100$ .

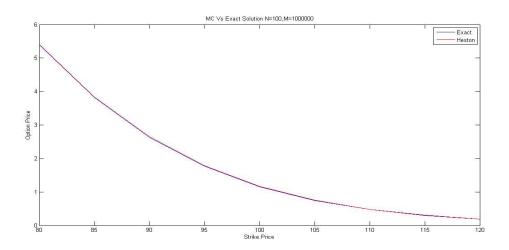


Figure 4.1: Comparison between Milstein MC and exact option price with N=100 time steps and number of simulations M=1000000.

M	N	Strike	MC Price	Exact Price	Diff in Price
1000000	1000	80	5.387944	5.396080	-0.008136
1000000	1000	85	3.815159	3.822287	-0.007128
1000000	1000	90	2.625633	2.631227	-0.005594
1000000	1000	95	1.760800	1.765087	-0.004286
1000000	1000	100	1.154263	1.158476	-0.004213
1000000	1000	105	0.744078	0.747489	-0.003411
1000000	1000	110	0.474483	0.476524	-0.002041
1000000	1000	115	0.300171	0.301545	-0.001374
1000000	1000	120	0.188665	0.190173	-0.001508

Table 4: The exact and the Milstein MC approximated value for vanilla call option with  $N{=}1000.$ 

The difference between the MC and exact solutions, i.e. the numerical error, becomes smaller as N increases as expected. Typically, there are two

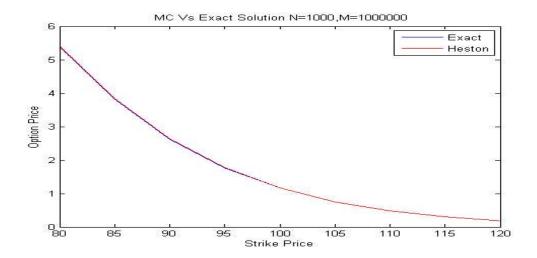


Figure 4.2: Shows the comparison between Milstein's MC and exact option price with time step N=1000 and Number of simulation M=10000000.

sources of error arising from Monte Carlo simulations for pricing derivative options. One of the errors is the discretization error and the other error is the sampling error. It can be shown that the overall error of Monte Carlo simulations is  $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}}, \Delta t)$ , where  $O(\Delta t)$  is the discretization error and  $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}})$  is the sampling error. So, it is not efficient to drive the sampling error if the total error is dominated by the time discretization error. To ensure that both errors decrease at the same rate, we choose  $M = O(\frac{1}{\Delta t^2})$ .

Since our goal is to price barrier options, we need to modify this algorithm to price down and out and down and in call options. Recall, that for a down and out call, the option ceases to exist if the underlying stock price hits the barrier price and for a down and in call option, the option ceases to exist if the underlying stock exceeds the barrier price. One of the main issues here is that there exists no closed formula solution for barrier options using stochastic volatility model. However, we know that the sum of a down and out call plus down and in call is equal to a vanilla call option. Using these

facts, we can modify the above algorithm to price DOC and DIC using the following pseudocode:

#### Down And Out

```
Compute matrix G and set X = log(S)
For i=1:M
      For j=1:N
           Generate N(0,1) sample \mathbf{Z}_j
           Compute \phi^1 and \phi^2 using matrix G
           Compute X_j using 4.9
           set S_j = \exp(X)
           If S_j \leq B
                       S_j = 0
                       exit for
           End
           Compute V_j using (4.10)
           If V_j < 0 set V_j = 0
           End
      End
Sstore_i = S_i
End
Set Sstore=e^X
Set \bar{V} = e^{-rT} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=0}^{M} max(S_i-K,0);
```

#### Down And In

For 
$$i=1:M$$
  
For  $j=1:N$ 

Generate N(0,1) sample 
$$Z_j$$
  
Compute  $\phi^1$  and  $\phi^2$  using matrix G  
Compute  $X_j$  using (4.9)  
set  $S_j = \exp(X)$   
If any  $S_j \leq B$   
Option is activated  
End  
Compute  $V_j$  using (4.10)  
If  $V_j < 0$  set  $V_j = 0$   
End  
End  
Store<sub>i</sub>= $S_j$ ,  $\forall$  j that hit the barrier  
End  
Set  $S$ store= $e^X$   
Set  $V = e^{-rT} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=0}^{M} max(S_i - K, 0)$ ;

Let us consider an example of pricing DOC and DIC with  $S_0=71.2$ , r=0.02,  $V_0=0.1237$ ,  $\bar{V}=0.0677$ ,  $\eta=0.392$ ,  $\lambda=1.1954$ ,  $\rho=-0.6133$ , B=60, K=[40,45...,55], and M=1000000 using the above algorithms. Table 5 summarizes DIC and DOC prices along with the exact prices for vanilla call that we use to assess the accuracy of the method. We used 100 time steps to compute the results presented in Table 5, and 1000 time steps in Table 6.

	M	N	Strike	DOC	DIC	DOC+DIC	Exact Price	Diff
ſ	1000000	100	40	29.7885	2.6857	32.4742	32.4866	-0.0124
	1000000	100	45	26.3437	1.6401	27.9838	27.9930	-0.0092
	1000000	100	50	22.8989	0.8078	23.7067	23.7131	-0.0064
	1000000	100	55	19.4541	0.2463	19.7003	19.7044	-0.0041

Table 5: Prices of down and out and down and in call option along with the sum of the two options.

M	N	Strike	DOC	DIC	DOC+DIC	Exact Price	Diff
1000000	1000	40	29.9509	2.5362	32.4871	32.4866	0.0005
1000000	1000	45	26.4675	1.5234	27.9909	27.9930	-0.0021
1000000	1000	50	22.9840	0.7246	23.7086	23.7131	-0.0045
1000000	1000	55	19.5005	0.1991	19.6997	19.7044	-0.0047

Table 6: 1000 time steps were used and all the other parameters were kept as in Table 5.

Since down and out plus down and in call price is equal to a vanilla call, we can calculate the error by subtracting the sum of DOC and DIC with the exact price. By comparing Table 5 and 6, we see that the error becomes smaller as N increases. Note that in order to calculate option prices correctly, we use one million sample size, i.e.  $M=10^6$ .

## 4.2 Quadratic Exponential Method (QE)

QE method was introduced by Andersen in 2006 [1]. It is considered to be one of the most efficient and highly accurate methods that can be used to approximate a stochastic volatility model, e.g., Heston's model. The scheme seems to work surprisingly well in comparison to Milstein's method. The method is based on two segments for the non-central chi squared distribution, one with a quadratic function and the other with an exponent function. A combination of these two functions create a method called Quadratic Exponential method. The segment of large value V(t) can be represented by a quadratic function of a stardard Gaussian variable and the segment of a small value can be represented by a distribution of exponent form. Large

segment of large value V(t) can be approximated by the following formulas [1]

$$V(t) = a(b + Z_v)^2, (4.16)$$

where  $Z_v$  is a standard normal distributed random variable and a and b are constants that can be computed using the following formulas [1]

$$a = \frac{m}{1 + b^2} \tag{4.17}$$

$$b^{2} = 2\psi^{-1} - 1 + 2\sqrt{2\psi^{-1}}\sqrt{2\psi^{-1} - 1}$$
(4.18)

$$\psi = \frac{s^2}{m^2} \tag{4.19}$$

$$m = \bar{V} + (V_0 - \bar{V})e^{-\lambda dt} \tag{4.20}$$

$$s^{2} = \frac{V_{0}\eta^{2}e^{-\lambda dt}}{\lambda}(1 - e^{-\lambda dt}) + \frac{\bar{V}\eta^{2}}{2\lambda}(1 - e^{-\lambda dt})^{2},$$
(4.21)

where m and  $s^2$  are the conditional mean and variance of the square root process.

Using the inverse distribution function sampling method, the segment of small value V(t) can be approximated by [1]

$$V(t) = L^{-1}(U_V), (4.22)$$

where  $U_V$  is a uniform random number that can be generated in Matlab using rand command.  $L^{-1}(U_V)$  can be computed as

$$L^{-1}(U_V) = \begin{cases} \beta^{-1} \log(\frac{1-p}{1-U_V}) & p < U_V \le 1\\ 0 & 0 \le U_V \le p \end{cases}$$
 (4.23)

And p and  $\beta$  can be computed as

$$p = \frac{\psi - 1}{\psi + 1} \in [0, 1), \tag{4.24}$$

$$\beta = \frac{1 - p}{m} > 0. \tag{4.25}$$

### 4.2.1 Sampling The Underlying Stock Price

Suppose that the asset price can be modelled using equation (4.1) and the variance process can be modelled using equation (4.2). Applying Ito's formula to (4.1), the underlying stock price can be written as [1]

$$S(t) = S(s)e^{\int_s^t (r - \frac{1}{2}V(u))du + \int_s^t \sqrt{V(u)}dW^{(1)}}.$$
 (4.26)

Using the Cholesky decomposition we obtain the following equation

$$log(S(t)) = log(S(s)) + \int_{s}^{t} r du - \frac{1}{2} \int_{s}^{t} v(u) du + \rho \int_{s}^{t} \sqrt{v(u)} dW^{(2)} + \sqrt{1 - \rho^{2}} \int_{s}^{t} \sqrt{v(u)} dW^{(1)}.$$

$$(4.27)$$

Integrating the variance process (4.2) we obtain

$$V(t) = V(s) + \int_{s}^{t} -\lambda(V(u) - \bar{V})du + \eta \int_{s}^{t} \sqrt{V(u)}dW^{(2)}du, \qquad (4.28)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\int_{s}^{t} \sqrt{V(u)} dW^{(2)} du = \frac{V(t) - V(s) - \lambda \overline{V} \Delta t + \lambda \int_{s}^{t} V(u) du}{\eta}.$$
 (4.29)

Substituting (4.27) into (4.26), results in the Broadie-Kaya scheme [4]

$$log(S(t)) = log(S(s)) + r\Delta t + \frac{\lambda \rho}{\eta} \int_{s}^{t} V(u)du - \frac{1}{2} \int_{s}^{t} V(u)du + \frac{\rho}{\eta} (V(t) - V(s) - \lambda \bar{V}\Delta t) + \sqrt{1 - \rho^{2}} \int_{s}^{t} \sqrt{V(u)}dW^{(1)}.$$
(4.30)

The only issue left to be addressed in (4.28) is the the integrand of the variance process. Applying the drift interpolation method to approximate the integral of the variance process, we obtain [6]

$$\int_{0}^{t} V(u)du \approx (\alpha_1 V(s) + \alpha_2 V(t))\Delta t, \tag{4.31}$$

where  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are constants. There are many ways of assigning these constants, the simplest one is the Euler-like setting: $\alpha_1=1$  and  $\alpha_2=0$ . The other way is the mid-point discretization method that would set  $\alpha_1=\alpha_2=\frac{1}{2}$ . Substituting equation (4.31) into (4.30) using the mid-point discretization we obtain

$$log(S(t)) = log(S(s)) + r\Delta t + \frac{\lambda \rho}{\eta} (\alpha_1 V(s) + \alpha_2 V(t)) \Delta t$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1 V(s) + \alpha_2 V(t)) \Delta t + \frac{\rho}{\eta} (V(t) - V(s) - \lambda \bar{V} \Delta t)$$

$$+\sqrt{1 - \rho^2} \sqrt{\alpha_1 V(s) + \alpha_2 V(t)} \sqrt{\Delta t} \phi.$$

$$(4.32)$$

or, equivalently, [1]

$$log(S(t)) = log(S(s)) + r\Delta t + K_0 + K_1 V(s) + K_2 V(t) + \sqrt{K_3 V(s) + K_4 V(t)} \sqrt{\Delta t} \phi,$$
(4.33)

where  $\phi$  is a Wiener stochastic process and  $K_0$ ,  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ ,  $K_3$ ,  $K_4$  are given by:

$$K_0 = -\frac{\rho\lambda\bar{V}}{\eta}\Delta t, \quad K_1 = \alpha_1\Delta t(\frac{\lambda\rho}{\eta} - \frac{1}{2}) - \frac{\rho}{\eta}, \quad K_2 = \alpha_2\Delta t(\frac{\lambda\rho}{\eta} - \frac{1}{2}) + \frac{\rho}{\eta}$$
$$K_3 = \alpha_1\Delta t\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}, \quad K_4 = \alpha_2\Delta t\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}$$

#### Quadratic Exponential (QE) Algorithm

- [1] Assuming that some critical arbitrary switch level  $\phi_c \in [1,2]$  is given and supposing the mid-point discretization  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \frac{1}{2}$  has been chosen, the Quadratic Exponential algorithm can be summarized as follows:
- 1. Given V(s),  $\bar{V}$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\lambda$ , compute m, s<sup>2</sup>, and  $\psi$ .
- 2. Generate  $U_V$  using rand command.
- 3. If  $\psi \leq \psi_c$

- (a) Compute a and b.
- (b) Compute  $Z_V$ .
- (c) Compute segment of large value V(t) using (4.16).
- 4. if  $\psi > \psi_c$ 
  - (a) Compute p and  $\beta$ .
  - (b) Compute segment of small value V(t) using (4.22) and (4.23).
- 5. Compute  $K_0,...,K_4$ .
- 6. Compute log(S(t)) using (4.33).
- 7. Take the exponential of log(S(t)) and compute the payoff of the option. For more details, see Leif Andersen's paper December 12, 2006 version [1].

First, let us consider pricing a vanilla call option using the QE algorithm with the underlying stock price  $S_0=71.2$ , the risk free rate r=0.02, time to maturity T=1, strike price K=[80,85,...,120], volatility  $V_0=0.1237$ ,  $\bar{V}=0.677$ ,  $\eta=0.392$ ,  $\rho=0.6133$ ,  $\lambda=1.1954$ ,  $\psi_c=1.5$ ,  $\alpha_1=\alpha_2=\frac{1}{2}$  and N=100. The approximated and exact values using these parameters are displayed in Table 7. Computations presented in Table 8 use the same set of parameters except for N which was increased by a factor of 10, i.e., N=1000.

M	N	Strike	MC Price	Exact Price	Diff in Price
1000000	100	80	5.388041	5.396080	-0.008039
1000000	100	85	3.817059	3.822287	-0.005228
1000000	100	90	2.627872	2.631227	-0.003355
1000000	100	95	1.762576	1.765087	-0.002511
1000000	100	100	1.157678	1.158476	-0.000798
1000000	100	105	0.748649	0.747489	0.001160
1000000	100	110	0.478155	0.476524	0.001631
1000000	100	115	0.302997	0.301545	0.001452
1000000	100	120	0.191345	0.190173	0.001172

Table 7: The exact and the QE Monte Carlo approximated values for vanilla call option with N=100.

M	N	Strike	MC Price	Exact Price	Diff in Price
1000000	1000	80	5.399582	5.396080	0.003502
1000000	1000	85	3.823886	3.822287	0.001600
1000000	1000	90	2.632054	2.631227	0.000827
1000000	1000	95	1.765146	1.765087	0.000060
1000000	1000	100	1.157834	1.158476	-0.000642
1000000	1000	105	0.746181	0.747489	-0.001308
1000000	1000	110	0.474983	0.476524	-0.001541
1000000	1000	115	0.300971	0.301545	-0.000574
1000000	1000	120	0.190345	0.190173	0.000172

Table 8: The exact and the QE Monte Carlo approximated value for vanilla call option with N=1000.

Numerical results show that the QE algorithm errors are much smaller compared to Milstein's method. In the next step, we will use the QE method to price down and out and down and in option and verify its performance against Milstein's method. The parameters used are similar to those in Milstein's method. By comparing Tables 9 and 10 with Tables 5 and 6, we see that the QE method is much more accurate compared to Milstein method.

M	N	Strike	DOC	DIC	DOC+DIC	Exact Price	Diff
1000000	100	40	29.800649	2.693808	32.4945	32.4866	0.0079
1000000	100	45	26.351403	1.645395	27.9968	27.9930	0.0038
1000000	100	50	22.902158	0.811069	23.7132	23.7131	0.0001
1000000	100	55	19.452912	0.247674	19.7006	19.7044	-0.0038

Table 9:Prices of down and out and down and in call option using QE method along with the sum of the two options. The error is the difference between the exact value and the sum of DOC and DIC option.

M	N	Strike	DOC	DIC	DOC+DIC	Exact Price	Diff
1000000	1000	40	29.804870	2.681512	32.4864	32.4866	-0.0002
1000000	1000	45	26.356202	1.636712	27.9929	27.9930	-0.0001
1000000	1000	50	22.907535	0.804921	23.7125	23.7131	-0.0006
1000000	1000	55	19.458868	0.244411	19.7033	19.7044	-0.0011

Table 10: 1000 time steps were used; all the other parameters were kept as in Table 9.

We have described two numerical methods that can be used to discretize stochastic volatility process if we were given  $V_0$ ,  $\bar{V}$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\eta$ , and  $\rho$ . However, in practice these 5 parameters are unknown and need to determined by traders or quants. In the next chapter, we will introduce a model calibration method called nonlinear least square optimization method that can be used to estimate these five unknown parameters given market volatilities. We will use market volatilities for vanilla option that are very liquid and can be obtained using Bloomberg or any other sources such as Google finance, yahoo finance, CNBC etc. In this paper, we will use RIMM May 2010 volatility obtained from Bloomberg as our volatility data.

# Chapter 5

## **Model Calibration**

Model Calibration is an optimization technique used to estimate local volatility or Heston's parameters for dependent exotic options that are not very liquid; thus, their volatilities are not obtainable from the market. It ensures that the resulting model is consistent with the current market option price information or, in other words, by using model calibration, the model will price consistently with market implied volatility. In this chapter, we will use model calibration to estimate Heston's parameters by solving a nonlinear least square optimization problem. We will first introduce a nonlinear least square problem, and then attempt to solve it using the Levenberg-Marquardt method. We start with a set of market volatilities and perform an iterative process to solve nonlinear least square problem using a Matlab command called Isqnonlin.

Let us suppose that a set of liquid options implied volatilities  $Vol^{market}$  on an underlying asset are observed from the option market. Suppose that we can price these options using Black-Scholes model and denote the price by  $V_0^{market}(K_j,T)$  for j=1,2,...m. Assume  $V_0(K_j,T,X)$ ,  $X \in \{v_0, \bar{V}, \lambda, \eta, \rho\}$  denotes the initial value that can be obtained using Milstein's method. A model can

be calibrated by solving the following equations [2]

$$V_0(K_j, T, X) - V_0^{market}(K_j, T) = 0, j = 1, 2, ..., m$$
(5.1)

or

$$\min_{X} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (V_0(K_j, T, X) - V_0^{market}(K_j, T))^2, \tag{5.2}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\min_{X} \frac{1}{2} \|F(X)\|_{2}^{2},\tag{5.3}$$

where X consists of Heston's parameters described above, and F(X) can be written as

$$F(X) = \begin{bmatrix} V_0(K_1, T, X) - V_0^{market}(K_1, T) \\ \vdots \\ V_0(K_m, T, X) - V_0^{market}(K_m, T) \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (5.4)

Solving a nonlinear least square problem is often not straightforward. However, there are many available iterative methods that can be used to solve this problem. In this paper, we will use the Levenberg-Marquardt method to solve equation (5.3).

## 5.1 Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) method

LM is an iterative method that seeks the minimum of a function expressed as the sum of squares of nonlinear functions. It is a combination of the steepest descent and Gauss-Newton methods. The method uses the steepest descent when the current solution is far from the exact solution, and switches to the Gauss-Newton method when the current solution is close to the actual solution. It determines  $X_{new}$  via solving a trust region subproblem for some  $\Delta_{old} \geq 0$  i.e. [13]

$$\min_{X_{new}} \frac{1}{2} \|F(X_{new}) + J(X_{old})(X_{new} - X_{old})\|_2^2$$
 (5.5)

subject to

$$||X - X_{old}||_2 \le \Delta_{old},\tag{5.6}$$

where J(X) is the m by n Jacobian matrix of F(X) that can be written as [13]

$$J(X) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial X_1} & \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial X_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial X_n} \\ \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial X_1} & \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial X_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial X_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F_m}{\partial X_1} & \frac{\partial F_m}{\partial X_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_m}{\partial X_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (5.7)

It can be showed that the solution to the trust region (5.5), (5.6) subproblem has the form

$$X_{new} = X_{old} + \left(J(X_{old})^T J(X_{old}) + \lambda_{old} I\right)^{-1} d_{old},$$
 (5.8)

where

$$d_{old} = -aJ(X_{old})^T F(X_{old}) (5.9)$$

where a is chosen to minimize (5.5) and  $\lambda$  is the largest value in the interval [0,1] that controls both the magnitude and direction of  $d_{old}$  such that  $||d_{old}|| \leq \Delta_{old}$ . The sketch of the proof is outlined below.

The goal is to find a vector X such that all  $F_i(X) = 0$ . By Levenberg-Marquardt [12], [5] we have

$$\left(J(X_{old})^T J(X_{old}) + \lambda_{old} I\right) d_{old} = -J(X_{old})^T F(X_{old})$$

$$\left(J(X_{old})^T J(X_{old}) + \lambda_{old} I\right) \left(-aJ(X_{old}^T) F(X_{old})\right) = -J(X_{old})^T F(X_{old})$$

$$-J(X_{old}^T) F(X_{old}) = -a \left(J(X_{old})^T J(X_{old}) + \lambda_{old} I\right)^{-1} \left(J(X_{old})^T F(X_{old})\right)$$

$$0 = J(X_{old}^T) F(X_{old}) - a \left(J(X_{old})^T J(X_{old}) + \lambda_{old} I\right)^{-1} \left(J(X_{old})^T F(X_{old})\right)$$

Applying the Gauss-Newton method we obtain

$$X_{new} = X_{old} + \left(J(X_{old})^T J(X_{old}) + \lambda_{old} I\right)^{-1} d_{old}.$$

Note that when  $\lambda_{old}$  is zero, the direction  $d_{old}$  is given by the Gauss-Newton method. When  $\lambda$  approaches infinity, the direction  $d_{old}$  is the steepest descent direction, with the magnitude tending to zero. The full proof is beyond the scope of this paper. Interested reader can be referred to Mathworks website under Trust-Region Dogleg and Levenberg-Marquardt method for more details.

The advantage of this method is that it only uses the Jacobian matrix in the equation. The Jacobian matrix can be easily approximated using finite difference method. In this paper, we will use the forward difference in time to approximate the Jacobian matrix, i.e.

$$J(X) = \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial X_i} \approx \frac{F_j(X_{old_i} + \Delta X) - F_j(X_{old_i})}{\Delta X},$$
 (5.10)

where i represents the index for the independent variable, j represents the index of F and  $\Delta X$  is the spacing.

### 5.1.1 Matlab Function Isquonlin

Matlab has a build-in function Isquannlin that can be used to solve nonlinear least squares problem. Isquannlin takes in the function of the a nonlinear least square F(X), the initial guess  $X_0$ , and the options as inputs. Below is the function's formal way of writing it.

$$X_{new} = lsqnonlin(F(X), X_0, options),$$
 (5.11)

where options can be set as follows options=optimset('Jacobian','on','Display','iter','MaxIter',n).

Options are used to tell the function Isquonlin to turn on the Jacobian function, display the number of iteration for each step, and set the maximum iteration to be n. We will demonstrate how this function performs numerically using liquid option volatilities that can be obtained from Bloomberg Professional. In practice market implied volatilities can be obtained by taking the average between the implied volatilities bid and ask. However, we used Implied volatilities ask only in this paper, since implied volatilities bid were not available for some strike prices.



Figure 5.1: May 2010 market implied volatilities for liquid options obtained from Bloomberg Professional.

Iter	Func Count	f(x)	Norm of Step
0	1	0.551332	0.0908061
1	2	0.1912516	0.0209334
2	3	0.1912514	0.0104667
3	4	0.121476	0.00261668
4	5	0.06326799	0.000654169
5	6	0.06326790	0.000327084
6	7	0.0632671	8.17711e-005
7	8	0.0491708	5.11069e-006
8	9	0.0192000	1.27767e-006
9	10	0.0192000	3.19418e-007

Optimization terminated: norm of the current step is less than OPTIONS.TolX.

 $x = \! 0.1237 \ 0.0677 \ 0.3920 \ 1.1954 \ \text{-}0.6133$ 

resnorm = 0.0192

Note that vector x represents the initial variance, long term mean variance, volatility of variance, mean reversion rate and correlation between the stock price and variance respectively.

# Chapter 6

# Numerical Solution of Option Pricing Using Finite Difference Method

As described earlier in Chapter 4, Heston model has no closed form formulas for any exotic options except for the simplest, and therefore numerical methods need to be used. In this chapter, we will use finite difference method to discretize Heston partial differential equation (PDE) that plays an important role in the financial market. We will first introduce Heston PDE and its parameters. Then we describe the explicit and implicit schemes we used to solve this PDE. Various numerical examples will be shown using the same parameters as those in Chapter 5. We will consider vanilla call option as well as down and out and down and in barrier options.

## 6.1 Heston PDE

Applying Ito's lemma and the standard arbitrage arguments to equation (4.1) and (4.2) we arrive at Heston's partial differential equation [9]

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} s^2 v \frac{\partial U^2}{\partial s^2} + \rho \eta s v \frac{\partial U^2}{\partial s \partial v} + \frac{1}{2} \eta^2 v \frac{\partial U^2}{\partial v^2} + (r - q) s \frac{\partial U}{\partial s} + \lambda (\bar{v} - v) \frac{\partial U}{\partial v} - ru. \quad (6.1)$$

This PDE is a two dimensional time dependent convection-diffusion-reaction equation, where r is the risk-free rate, q is the dividend rate and U(s,v,t) is the option price for  $0 \le t \le T$ , s > 0, v > 0. The initial condition for European call option can be given as [9]

$$U(s, v, 0) = \max(0, s - K). \tag{6.2}$$

The boundary condition at s=0 can be written as follows

$$U(0, v, t) = 0. (6.3)$$

For down and out call option, the initial condition can be given by

$$U(B, v, t) = 0. (6.4)$$

Note that the two dimensional domain for this PDE is unbounded from above. In this paper, we will restrict the domain to a bounded set [0,S] x [0,V] where S and V are sufficiently large. The boundary conditions at s=S and v=V are set to [9]

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial s}(S, v, t) = e^{-qt},\tag{6.5}$$

$$U(s, V, t) = se^{-qt}. (6.6)$$

For down and out call option equation (6.6) changes to

$$U(s, V, t) = (s - B)e^{-qt}. (6.7)$$

and equation (6.5) stays the same.

### 6.1.1 Setting Up Non Uniform Grid

Non uniform meshes in both s and v direction will be used in this finite difference scheme, since we are interested in the solution that lies near (s,v)=(K,0)

only. A mesh is constructed in a way such that more points are located near points of interest and the mesh is constructed sparse elsewhere. Building the grid this way allows us to greatly improve the accuracy of the finite difference discretization scheme compared to the use of a uniform grid. The non uniform grid that we will be using in this section has recently been considered by Tavella, Randall and Kluge [9]. Let the equidistant points be  $\xi_i$  i.e [9]

$$\xi_i = \sinh^{-1}(-K/c) + i\Delta\xi \qquad (0 \le i \le m_1),$$
(6.8)

where  $m_1$  is an integer greater or equal to 1 and c > 0 is a constant. The spacing  $\Delta \xi$  can be written as,

$$\Delta \xi = \frac{1}{m_1} \Big( \sinh^{-1} \Big( (S - K)/c \Big) - \sinh^{-1} (-K/c) \Big). \tag{6.9}$$

Then the s grid can be defined as

$$s_i = K + c \sinh(\xi_i), \qquad (0 \le i \le m_1). \tag{6.10}$$

For down and out call option equations (6.8) and (6.9) change to

$$\xi_i = \sinh^{-1}((B - K)/c) + i\Delta\xi$$
  $(0 \le i \le m_1),$  (6.11)

$$\Delta \xi = \frac{1}{m_1} \Big( \sinh^{-1} \Big( (S - K)/c \Big) - \sinh^{-1} ((B - K)/c) \Big). \tag{6.12}$$

Now for v grid, let the equidistant points be  $\eta_i$  [9]

$$\eta_i = j\Delta\eta,\tag{6.13}$$

with spacing

$$\Delta \eta = \frac{1}{m_2} sinh^{-1}(V/d),$$
 (6.14)

where  $m_2$  is an integer greater or equal to 1 and d > 0 is a constant. Then v grid can be defined as

$$v_j = dsinh(\eta_j), \qquad (0 \le j \le m_2). \tag{6.15}$$

Figure 6.1 displays the two dimensional grid for the underlying stock price and volatility. We have chosen  $m_1=60$ ,  $m_2=30$ ,  $S_{max}=220$ ,  $V_{max}=1.1$  and the strike price K=55. We see that more points are clustered around S=K.

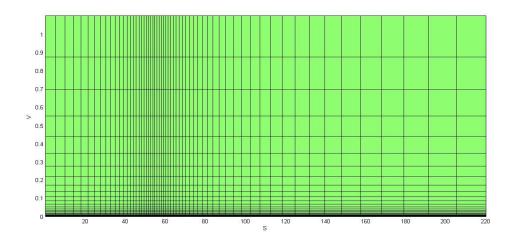


Figure 6.1: Two dimensional grid for S and V with  $S_{max}$ =220,  $V_{max}$ =1.1, and K=55.

#### 6.1.2 Finite Difference Scheme

Three basic finite difference schemes that will be introduced in this section are base on: the backward, central, and forward differences. In this paper, we will be using the central difference to approximate stock price's first derivative and second derivative. We will also use the central difference to approximate the second derivative of volatility. For volatility's first derivative, we will use the central difference when V < 1 and use the backward difference when  $V \ge 1$ . These three approximations for the first and second derivatives can be summarized below [9]

Backward: 
$$f'(x_i) \approx \alpha_{i,-2} f(x_{i-2}) + \alpha_{i,-1} f(x_{i-1}) + \alpha_{i,0} f(x_i)$$
 (6.16)

Central: 
$$f'(x_i) \approx \beta_{i,-1} f(x_{i-1}) + \beta_{i,0} f(x_i) + \beta_{i,1} f(x_{i+1})$$
 (6.17)

Forward: 
$$f'(x_i) \approx \gamma_{i,0} f(x_i) + \gamma_{i,1} f(x_{i+1}) + \gamma_{i,2} f(x_{i+2})$$
 (6.18)

with the coefficients given by

$$\alpha_{i,-2} = \frac{\Delta x_i}{\Delta x_{i-1}(\Delta x_{i-1} + \Delta x_i)}, \alpha_{i,-1} = \frac{-\Delta x_{i-1} - \Delta x_i}{\Delta x_{i-1}\Delta x_i}, \alpha_{i,0} = \frac{\Delta x_{i-1} + 2\Delta x_i}{\Delta x_i(\Delta x_{i-1} + \Delta x_i)}$$

$$\beta_{i,-1} = \frac{-\Delta x_{i+1}}{\Delta x_i(\Delta x_i + \Delta x_{i+1})}, \beta_{i,0} = \frac{\Delta x_{i+1} - \Delta x_i}{\Delta x_i\Delta x_{i+1}}, \beta_{i,1} = \frac{\Delta x_i}{\Delta x_{i+1}(\Delta x_i + \Delta x_{i+1})}$$

$$\gamma_{i,0} = \frac{-2\Delta x_{i+1} - \Delta x_i + 2}{\Delta x_{i+1}(\Delta x_{i+1} + \Delta x_{i+2})}, \gamma_{i,1} = \frac{\Delta x_{i+1} + \Delta x_{i+2}}{\Delta x_{i+1}\Delta x_{i+2}}, \gamma_{i,2} = \frac{-\Delta x_{i+1}}{\Delta x_{i+2}(\Delta x_{i+1} + \Delta x_{i+2})}$$

The second derivative can be approximated by [9]

$$f''(x_i) \approx \delta_{i,-1} f(x_{i-1}) + \delta_{i,0} f(x_i) + \delta_{i,1} f(x_{i+1})$$
(6.19)

with the coefficients given by

$$\delta_{i,-1} = \frac{2}{\Delta x_i (\Delta x_i + \Delta x_{i+1})}, \delta_{i,0} = \frac{-2}{\Delta x_i \Delta x_{i+1}}, \delta_{i,1} = \frac{2}{\Delta x_{i+1} (\Delta x_i + \Delta x_{i+1})}.$$

Let  $\hat{\beta_{i,k}}$  be the coefficient analogous to  $\beta_{i,k}$  but in the y direction instead of x, then the mixed derivative of S and V can be approximated by [9]

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x_i, y_j) \approx \sum_{k,l=-1}^1 \beta_{i,k} \hat{\beta_{j,l}} f(x_{i+k}, y_{j+l}). \tag{6.20}$$

#### 6.1.3 ADI Scheme

The finite difference discretization of the Heston partial differential equation yields an initial value problem for a large ODE system of the form

$$F_i(t, U) = A_i U + b_i(t) - rU, \text{ for } 0 \le t \le T, U \in \Re^m,$$
 (6.21)

where j=0,1,2,  $F=F_0+F_1+F_2$ , and  $A=A_0+A_1+A_2$ .

 $A_0$  corresponds to the mixed derivative term  $\frac{\partial U}{\partial s \partial v}$ .

 $A_1$  corresponds to the underlying stock price's first and second derivative

terms  $\frac{\partial U}{\partial s}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial s^2}$ .

 $A_2$  corresponds to the variance of the first and second derivative terms  $\frac{\partial U}{\partial v}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial v^2}$ .

Let  $\theta$  be a given real parameter, then the three ADI schemes for the initial value problem (6.21) can be written as

Forward Euler Method:

$$U = U_{n-1} + \Delta t F(t_{n-1}, U_{n-1}). \tag{6.22}$$

Douglas (Do) scheme (Implicit):[11]

$$\begin{cases}
U_0 = U_{n-1} + \Delta t F(t_{n-1}, U_{n-1}), \\
U_j = U_{j-1} + \theta \Delta t \left( F_j(t_n, U_j) - F_j(t_{n-1}, U_{n-1}) \right), & (j = 1, 2), \\
U_n = U_2.
\end{cases}$$
(6.23)

Craig Sneyd (CS) Method: [10]

$$\begin{cases}
U_{0} = U_{n-1} + \Delta t F(t_{n-1}, U_{n-1}), \\
U_{j} = U_{j-1} + \theta \Delta t \left( F_{j}(t_{n}, U_{j}) - F_{j}(t_{n-1}, U_{n-1}) \right), & (j = 1, 2), \\
\hat{U_{0}} = U_{0} + \frac{1}{2} \Delta t \left( F_{0}(t_{n}, U_{2}) - F_{0}(t_{n-1}, U_{n-1}) \right), & (j = 1, 2), \\
\hat{U_{j}} = \hat{U_{j-1}} + \theta \Delta t \left( F_{j}(t_{n}\hat{U_{j}}) - F_{j}(t_{n-1}, U_{n-1}) \right), & (j = 1, 2), \\
U_{n} = \hat{U_{2}}.
\end{cases}$$
(6.24)

We will apply forward Euler and Craig-Sneyd methods to price DOC and DIC barrier options. We will first rewrite these equations so that they can be coded up in Matlab. For forward Euler method, we do the following

$$U = U_{n-1} + \Delta t (AU_{n-1} + B - rU_{n-1}). \tag{6.25}$$

Derivation for Craig-Sneyd can be done as follows

$$U_{0} = U_{old} + \Delta t (AU_{old} + B - rU_{old})$$

$$U_{1} = U_{0} + \theta \Delta t (A_{1}U_{1} + b_{1} - rU_{1} - A_{1}U_{old} - b_{1} + rU_{old})$$

$$U_{1} - \theta \Delta t (A_{1}U_{1} - rU_{1}) = U_{0} + \theta \Delta t (b_{1} - A_{1}U_{old} - b_{1} + rU_{old})$$

$$(I - \theta \Delta t (A_{1} - rI))U_{1} = U_{0} + \theta \Delta t (-A_{1}U_{old} + rU_{old})$$

$$U_{1} = (I - \theta \Delta t (A_{1} - rI))^{-1}(U_{0} + \theta \Delta t (rU_{old} - A_{1}U_{old}))$$

$$U_{2} = (I - \theta \Delta t (A_{2} - rI))^{-1}(U_{1} + \theta \Delta t (rU_{old} - A_{2}U_{old}))$$

$$\hat{U}_{0} = U_{0} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t (A_{0}U_{2} + b_{0} - rU_{2} - (A_{0}U_{old} + b_{0} - rU_{old}))$$

$$\hat{U}_{0} = U_{0} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t (A_{0}U_{2} - rU_{2} - A_{0}U_{old} + rU_{old})$$

$$\hat{U}_{1} = \hat{U}_{0} + \theta \Delta t (A_{1}\hat{U}_{1} + b_{1} - rU_{1} - A_{1}U_{old} - b_{1} + rU_{old})$$

$$\hat{U}_{1} = (I - \theta \Delta t (A_{1} - rI))^{-1}(\hat{U}_{0} + \theta \Delta t (rU_{old} - A_{1}U_{old}))$$

$$\hat{U}_{2} = (I - \theta \Delta t (A_{2} - rI))^{-1}(\hat{U}_{1} + \theta \Delta t (rU_{old} - A_{2}U_{old}))$$

$$U = \hat{U}_{2}.$$

Tables below contain a list of DOC and DIC barrier option prices using the forward Euler and Crag-Sneyd methods respectively. Heston parameters were kept as in Chapter 5, with strike price of K=55, stock price  $S_0=71.2$ , risk free interest rate r=0.02,  $S_{max}=220$ ,  $V_{max}=1.1$ , and time to maturity T=1.

Grid Size	DIC	DOC	DIC+DOC	Exact Solution	Diff
15x30	0.1813034	19.7239852	19.9052886	19.7043924	0.2008961
30x60	0.1472834	19.6218048	19.7690881	19.7043924	0.0646957
60x120	0.1685462	19.5756501	19.7441963	19.7043924	0.0398038

Table 11: The exact and the forward Euler method value for DOC and DIC barrier options.

Grid Size	DIC	DOC	DIC+DOC	Exact Solution	Diff
15x30	0.1813032	19.7241404	19.9054436	19.7043924	0.2010512
30x60	0.1472857	19.6217907	19.7690764	19.7043924	0.0646840
60x120	0.1685463	19.5756467	19.7441930	19.7043924	0.0398006

Table 12: The exact and the Crag-Sneyd method value for DOC and DIC barrier options.

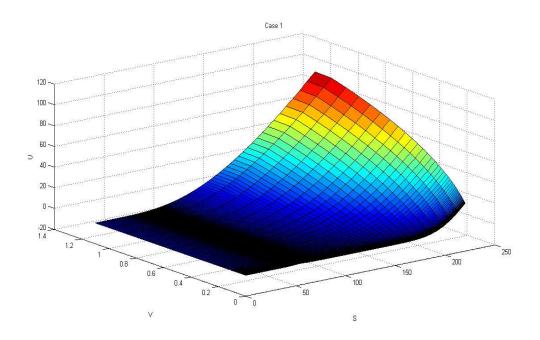


Figure 6.2: DIC option price functions U given by Table 12.

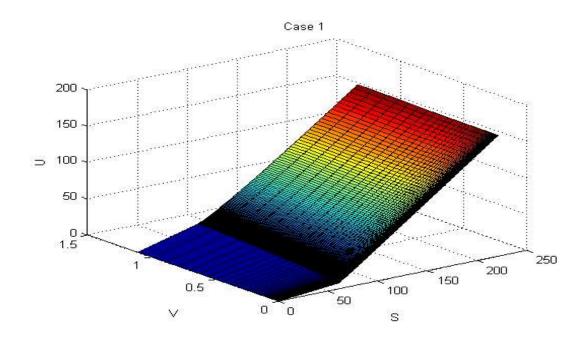


Figure 6.3: DOC option price functions U given by Table 12.

#### Conclusion

In this paper, we have considered several numerical methods to price down and out, and down and in barrier options. Firstly, we compared the accuracy of the standard Monte Carlo and improved Monte Carlo methods applied to the Black-Scholes model. From our numerical experiment, we can see that improved MC method is much more accurate than the standard MC. Secondly, we considered two discretization schemes, Milstein and QE, to be used in Monte Carlo simulations of Heston models. From our numerical experiments, we can clearly see that the QE is somewhat slower than the Milstein method. However, in term of accuracy, the QE scheme performs much better than Milstein's.

Finally, we considered the finite difference methods. We used two time integration schemes: forward Euler and CS. For a given time step, Craig-Sneyd is unconditionally stable with the order of convergence equal to two. The forward Euler method seems to be slightly faster in time, but the obtained solutions are less accurate compare to CS scheme. Interested reader can use numerical methods described in this paper to price more exotic options such as double barrier options and digital options. We conclude, that the best results were obtained by using improved MC of [14] and the QE method [1]. Finite difference discretization provides accurate solutions, but at the price of large CPU and memory requirements.

# Appendix

**Exact solution** for down and out put option using Black-Scholes Matlab code. All the formulas were obtained from [18].

```
function [V] = Exact(k,Sd,r,sigma,T)
\% this program is written to price down and out barrier put option.
%Input
         ************
         % "k"
                      - Strike Price
         % "Sd"
                      - Barrier Price
         % "r"
                      - Risk Free Interest Rate
         % "sigma"
                      - Volatility
         % "T"
                      - Time to maturity
        % Initial stock prices
%So=[80:2:120];
So=100:
% d1-d8 are formulas describe in the paper
% use to price option value
d1=(\log(So./k)+(r+1/2*sigma^2)*(T))/(sigma*sqrt(T));
d2=(\log(So./k)+(r-1/2*sigma^2)*T)/(sigma*sqrt(T));
d3=(\log(So./Sd)+(r+1/2*sigma^2)*T)/(sigma*sqrt(T));
d4=(\log(So./Sd)+(r-1/2*sigma^2)*T)/(sigma*sqrt(T));
d5=(\log(So./Sd)-(r-1/2*sigma^2)*T)/(sigma*sqrt(T));
d6=(\log(So./Sd)-(r+1/2*sigma^2)*T)/(sigma*sqrt(T));
d7=(\log((So*k)./Sd^2)-(r-1/2*sigma^2)*T)/(sigma*sqrt(T));
```

```
d8=(\log((So*k)./Sd^2)-(r+1/2*sigma^2)*T)/(sigma*sqrt(T));
%Exact formula uses to compute down and out European Put option.
 V=k*exp(-r*T)*(normcdf(d4)-normcdf(d2)-(Sd./So).^{(-1+(2*r/sigma^2)).*...
(\operatorname{normcdf}(d7) - \operatorname{normcdf}(d5))) - (\operatorname{So.*}(\operatorname{normcdf}(d3) - \operatorname{normcdf}(d1) - \dots))
(Sd./So).^(1+(2*r/sigma^2)).*(normcdf(d8)-normcdf(d6))));
% commands use to plot opt price vs stock price
plot(So,V,'--rs')
title('Option Price Vs Stock Price')
 xlabel('Stock Price')
ylabel('Option Price')
 end
Improve Monte Carlo Simulation for down and out put option using
Black-Scholes Matlab code.
function [] =StandardMonte(k,Sd,r,sigma,T)
"%This program is written to compute down and out barrier put option using
%Improve Monte Carlos Simulation.
% Inputs
                %"k"- Strike Price
                %"Sd"-Barrier Price
                %"r"-risk free interest rate
                %"sigma"-Volatility
                %"T" - Time to maturity
                "Q" - Additional simulation use to improve accuracy
                %"m" - #of simulation
                %"deltaT" - Step Size
                S0=100;
   Q = [100];
   m=10000;
   hold off
   %Call Exact function to compute exact
   % price for barrier put option
```

```
Vexact=Exact(k,Sd,r,sigma,T);
% Extract option price for stock price equal to 100 from
% price vector
Vexact1=Vexact(11);
fprintf('
           #of simulation
                                       DeltaT
                                                         Put Price\n')
                                 М
% run a loop 10 times to calculate barrier put using 10 different
%step sizes
for h=1:3;
     % step size
      deltaT=(5/(250*2^{h-1}));
      % # of sub-interval or the size of the stock price for one
      %trajectory path
      N=ceil(T/deltaT);
      % loop to run addition simulation to improve accuracy
      for j=1:Q(1)
             % generating size m zero vector
             payoff=zeros(1,m);
             % generation Nxm matrix to random #
             S=randn(N,m);
             S= (exp((r-0.5*(sigma^2))*deltaT+sigma*sqrt(deltaT).*S));
             % a building function is used to calculate stock prices
             S=cumprod(S,1);
             \% and return N- path stock price and m simulation times
             S=S.*100;
             Sstore=[ones(1,m)*S0;S];
             P=exp(-2.*((Sd-Sstore(1:end-1,:)).*(Sd-Sstore(2:end,:)))./...
             (deltaT.*sigma^2.* (Sstore(1:end-1,:).^2)));
             % fuction uses to check if each column of contains zero
             store=sum(S>Sd);
             % find the column-index where the stock prices never
             % hit the barrier
             index=find(store==N);
             u=unifrnd(0,1,N,m);
             check=sum(P<u);</pre>
```

```
for w=1:m
                   if sum(S(:,w)>Sd)==N \&\& sum(P(:,w)<u(:,w))==N
                       payoff(w) = max(k-S(end, w), 0);
                   end
             end
             % formula uses to calculate current value of
             % the down and out put option price
             V(j)=\exp(-r*T)/m*(\sup(payoff));
       end
   % store DeltaT in a vector to plot
   deltaT1(h)=deltaT;
   \% store option value for different deltaT
   VMonte(h)=mean(V);
   fprintf('%10.0f|%17.0f| %13.5f |%20.7f\n',Q,m,deltaT,VMonte(h))
 end
% commands use to plot opt price vs deltaT
plot(deltaT1,VMonte,'r')
title('Option Price Vs DeltaT')
xlabel('DeltaT')
ylabel('Option Price')
hold on
Exact(1:length(deltaT1),1) = Vexact1;
plot(deltaT1,Exact,'k-')
% command uses to label the line
legend('V-Monte Carlo','Vexact')
```

Standard Monte Carlo Simulation for down and out put option using Black-Scholes Matlab code.

```
function [] =Monte3(k,Sd,r,sigma,T)
%This program is written to compution down and out Barrier put option using
% Standard Monte Carlos Simulation.
% Inputs
              %"k"- Strike Price
              %"Sd"-Barrier Price
              %"r"-risk free interest rate
              %"sigma"-Volatility
              %"T" - Time to maturity
              "Q" - Additional simulation use to improve accuracy
              %"m" - #of simulation
              %"deltaT" - Step Size
              Q = [100];
m=10000;
hold off
%Call Exact function to compute exact
% price for barrier put option
Vexact=Exact(k,Sd,r,sigma,T);
% Extract option price for stock price equal to 100 from
% price vector
Vexact1=Vexact(11);
                         DeltaT
                                      Put Price\n')
fprintf('
   for h=1:3;
   % run a loop 3 times to calculate barrier put using
   % 10 different step sizes
        % step size
        deltaT=(5/(250*2^{h-1}));
        % # of sub-interval or the size of the stock price for one
        % trajectory path
```

```
% loop to run addition simulation to improve accuracy
       for j=1:Q(1)
              % generating size m zero vector
              payoff=zeros(1,m);
              \% generation Nxm matrix to random #
              S=randn(N,m);
              S= (exp((r-0.5*(sigma^2))*deltaT+sigma*sqrt(deltaT).*S));
              % a building function is used to calculate stock prices
              % and return N- path stock price and m simulation times
              S=cumprod(S,1);
              S=S.*100;
              % fuction uses to check if each column of contains zero
              store=sum(S>Sd);
              % find the column-index where the stock prices never hit
              % the barrier
              index=find(store==N);
              % if it doesnt hit the barrier calculate the payoff at time
              % T
              if find(store==N)
                   payoff=max(k-S(end,index),0);
              end
              % formula uses to calculate current value of the down and
              % out put option price
              V(j)=\exp(-r*T)/m*(\sup(payoff));
       end
  % store DeltaT in a vector to plot
   deltaT1(h)=deltaT;
  % store option value for different deltaT
   VMonte(h)=mean(V);
   fprintf('%11.0f| %13.5f |%14.7f\n',m*Q,deltaT,VMonte(h))
 end
close Figure 1
% commands use to plot opt price vs deltaT
```

N=ceil(T/deltaT);

```
plot(deltaT1,VMonte,'-ro')
title('Option Price Vs DeltaT')
xlabel('DeltaT')
ylabel('Option Price')
hold on
Exact(1:length(deltaT1),1) = Vexact1;
plot(deltaT1,Exact,'-k')
% command uses to label the line
legend('V-Monte Carlo','Vexact')
```

**Heston Exact** solution for vanilla call option Matlab code. All the formulas were obtained from [17]

```
Driver uses to call Heston function to compute call option.
function [Vcall_store] = HesExact_Driver()
% declare global variables to use in other function.
global kappa lamda theta v0 rho sigma r u1 u2 a b1 b2
global SO K T x
para=[0.1237
                0.0677
                           0.3920
                                     1.1954
                                              -0.6133];
   %Initial Values
S0=71.2;
%K = [80:5:120];
K = [40:5:55];
T=1;
%Heston's Parameters
kappa=para(4);
lamda=0;
theta=para(2);
v0=para(1);
rho=para(5);
sigma=para(3);
r=0.02;
u1=1/2; u2=-1/2;
a=kappa*theta;
b1=kappa+lamda-rho*sigma;
b2=kappa+lamda;
% change of variable to avoid negative stock prices.
x = log(S0);
% Call Heston function to compute call option.
store=size(K,2);
for w=1:store
    Vcall = Heston_Exact(S0,K(w),T);
    Vcall_store(w)=Vcall(end);
end
```

```
function[Vcall] = Heston_Exact(S0,K,T)
% function uses to compute call option using stable Heston's formula
%Input *******************************
%
      S0
           - Spot price
%
      K
           - Strike price
%
           - Time to maturity
      **************
% upper bound of the integral
t=[50,100,200,300,400,500,1000];
% declare variables globally
global kappa lamda theta v0 rho sigma r u1 u2 a b1 b2
global St1 K1 T1
% loop to calculate call option for different upper bound
for w=1:size(t,2)
   St1=S0;
   K1=K;
   T1=T:
   % complete closed form solution with intergration of function
   p1=1/2 + 1/pi*quadl(@pfunc,0,t(w));
   p2=1/2 + 1/pi*quadl(@pfunc2,0,t(w));
   % compute the call option
   Vcall=S0*p1-K*exp(-r*T)*p2;
end
function y=pfunc(phi)
                       %integrand function
global St1 K1 T1
y=myfunc(St1,K1,T1,phi); %calls integrand function
function y=pfunc2(phi)
                         % integrand function
global St1 K1 T1
y=myfunc2(St1,K1,T1,phi); %calls integrand function
function [p1] = myfunc(St,K,T,phi)
% this function uses to compute heston's probability formula
```

```
*******************
%
        St - Spot price
%
        K
            - Strike price
%
            - time to maturity
%
        phi - Unknown variable uses to in the integral
%
        ****************
global kappa lamda theta v0 rho sigma r u1 u2 a b1 b2 x
% turn off the warning message.
warning off;
s0=St;
% formula 17
d1 = sqrt((rho*sigma*phi.*i-b1).^2-sigma^2*(2*u1*phi.*i-phi.^2));
g1 = (b1-rho*sigma*phi*i + d1)./(b1-rho*sigma*phi*i - d1);
C1 = r*phi.*i*T + (a/sigma^2).*((b1- rho*sigma*phi*i - d1)*T - ...
2*log((exp(-d1*T)-g1)./(1-g1)));
D1 = (b1-rho*sigma*phi*i + d1)./sigma^2.*((1-exp(d1*T))./...
(1-g1.*exp(d1*T)));
f1 = \exp(C1 + D1*v0 + i*phi*x);
%definition of integrand (formula 18)
p1=real(exp(-i*phi*log(K)).*f1./(1i*phi));
end
function [p2] = myfunc2(St,K,T,phi)
% this function uses to compute heston's probability formula
       ***************
%
        St - Spot price
%
        K
            - Strike price
%
            - time to maturity
%
        phi - Unknown variable uses to in the integral
        ****************
global kappa lamda theta v0 rho sigma r u1 u2 a b1 b2 x
% turn off the warning message.
warning off;
s0=St;
```

```
d2= sqrt((rho*sigma*phi.*i-b2).^2-sigma^2*(2*u2*phi.*i-phi.^2));
g2 = (b2-rho*sigma*phi*i + d2)./(b2-rho*sigma*phi*i - d2);
C2 = r*phi.*i*T + a/sigma^2.*((b2- rho*sigma*phi*i - d2)*T - ...
2*log((exp(-d2*T)-g2)./(1-g2)));
D2 = (b2-rho*sigma*phi*i + d2)./sigma^2.*((1-exp(d2*T))./...
(1-g2.*exp(d2*T)));
f2 = \exp(C2 + D2*v0 + i*phi*x);
%definition of integrand (formula 18 from Steven L Heston's paper)
p2=real(exp(-i*phi*log(K)).*f2./(i*phi));
end
Monte Carlo Simulation uses Milstein's method to discretize Heston
stochastic volatility model for call option Matlab code.
% This function was written to compute value of a call option
% using Milstein's method for stochastic volatility model.
%Input
         ******************
        % T - Time to maturity
        0.0677
x=[0.1237]
                     0.3920
                              1.1954
                                      -0.6133];
VExact=HesExact_Driver();
fprintf('%13s | %12s | %18s | %15s | %18s | %21s\n','M','N','Strike',...
   'Heston Price', 'Exact Price', 'Diff in Price')
S=71.2;
              % stock price
r=0.02;
              % risk free rate
v0=x(1);
              % intial variance
vbar=x(2);
             % long term mean variance
eta=x(3);
              % volatility of the variance
rho=x(5);
              % correlation between the stock price and volatility
lamda=x(4);
              % speed of reversion
```

% formula 17

```
% build covariance matrix
e = ones(2,1); em = ones(2-1,1);
Q=diag(1*e,0) + diag(rho*em,1) + diag(rho*em,-1);
% compute cholesky factorization matrix
G=chol(Q);
% # of simulation
M=1000000;
% time step
N=1000;
dt=T/N;
% change of variable to avoid negative stock price
x = log(S).*ones(1,M);
% vectorize intial variance
v=v0.*ones(1,M);
    for i=1:N
         % generate random number with correlation rho
         Phi=G'*randn(2,M);
         % compute the value of x and v. If v is negative ,we take the
         % absolute value
         x=x+r*dt-v/2.*dt+sqrt(v*dt).*Phi(1,:);
         v=(sqrt(v)+eta/2*sqrt(dt).*Phi(2,:)).^2-lamda*(v-vbar).*...
         dt-(eta^2/4).*dt;
         % take absolute value of volatility to avoid negative vol
         v=abs(v);
    end
% since x = log(S) , then S = exp^x
 S=exp(x);
 Store=size(K,2);
% compute call value by calculating the mean of the payoff vector and
% discount back to time zero.
 for j=1:Store
     Vcall(j)=exp(-r*T)*(sum(max(S-K(j),0)))/M;
     Diff=Vcall(j)-VExact(j);
     fprintf('%13.0f | %12.0f | %18.0f | %15.6f | %18.6f | %18.6f\n',...
```

```
M,N,K(j),Vcall(j),VExact(j),Diff)
end
% norm different between exact value and numerical value
Norm_Diff=norm(VExact-Vcall)
Monte Carlo Simulation uses Milstein's method to discretize Heston
stochastic volatility model for DOC and DIC Matlab code.
function [] = Milstein_exotic(T)
% This function was written to compute value of DOC and DIC using Milstein's
% method to discretize Heston stochastic volatility model.
%Input
         ******************
        % T - Time to maturity
        %Heston Parameters
x=[0.1237]
            0.0677
                      0.3920
                               1.1954
                                        -0.6133];
% Call a function to compute Exact option price
VExact=HesExact_Driver();
fprintf('%13s | %12s | %18s | %15s\n','M','N','Strike','Heston Price')
S0=71.2;
            % Spot price
r=0.02;
            % Risk free rate
v0=x(1);
            % Intial variance
vbar=x(2) ;  % Long term mean variance
eta=x(3);
           % Volatility of variance
rho=x(5);
            % Correlation between stock price and volatility
lamda=x(4);
            % Mean reversion speed
Sd=60;
            % Down Barrier Price
K=[40:5:55]; % Strike Price
% build covariance matrix
e = ones(2,1); em = ones(2-1,1);
Q=diag(1*e,0) + diag(rho*em,1) + diag(rho*em,-1);
% compute cholesky factorization matrix
```

G=chol(Q);

```
% # of simulation
M=1000000;
% number of time step
N=100;
% time step
dt=T/N;
%When w=1 the program will calculate Down and out Call Option
%When w=2 the program will calculate Down and In Call option
for w=1:2
      index1=zeros(1,M);
      index2=[];
      index3=zeros(1,M);
      % change of variable to avoid negative stock price
      x=log(S0).*ones(1,M);
      % vectorize intial variance
      v=v0.*ones(1,M);
      if w==1
        display('Down and Out Call Option Price')
     else
        display('Down and In Call Option Price')
     end
     for i=1:N
        % generate random number with correlation rho
        Phi=G'*randn(2,M);
        % compute the value of x and v. If v is negative ,we take the
        % absolute value
        x=x+r*dt-v/2.*dt+sqrt(v*dt).*Phi(1,:);
        % this process uses to check wether the stock hit the barrier
        % or not
        S=exp(x);
        if w==1
                % down and out
                index2=(S \le Sd);
                indexstore=[index1+index2];
```

```
index1=index2;
   else
           % down and in
           index2=(S<=Sd);
           indexstore=[index3+index2];
           index3=index2;
   end
   v=(sqrt(v)+eta/2*sqrt(dt).*Phi(2,:)).^2-lamda*...
   (v-vbar).*dt-(eta^2/4).*dt;
   v=abs(v);
end
% since x = log(S) , then S = exp^x
S=exp(x);
if w==1
   %down and out
     S=S.*not(indexstore);
else
   %down and in
     S=S.*not(indexstore==0);
end
 \mbox{\ensuremath{\mbox{\%}}} find the non zero stock price , and use to calculate option price
Store=size(K,2);
% compute call value by calculating the mean of the payoff vector and
% discount back to time zero.
for j=1:Store
    Vcall(j)=exp(-r*T)*(sum(max(S-K(j),0)))/M;
    fprintf('%13.0f | %12.0f | %18.0f | %15.4f\n',M,N,K(j),Vcall(j))
    Vexact(j)=VExact(j);
end
%note that Down and out call plus Down and in call option equal to
%vanilla call option (1)
if w==1
    V_out=Vcall;
else
```

```
V_in=Vcall;
    end
end
% compute vanilla call option to verify wether (1) is true
V_Call=V_out+V_in;
Diff=norm(V_Call-Vexact);
display(Vexact)
display(V_Call)
display(Diff)
Monte Carlo Simulation uses QE method to discretize Heston stochas-
tic volatility model for call option Matlab code.
function [] = QE(T)
% This function was written to compute value of a call option using QE
% method to discretize Heston stochastic volatility model.
         ***************
%Input
        % T - Time to maturity
        %x = [0.04, 0.05, 0.1, 1, 0];
x=[0.1237]
             0.0677
                       0.3920
                                1.1954
                                       -0.6133];
VExact=HesExact_Driver();
S=71.2;
              % stock price
fprintf('%13s | %12s | %18s | %15s | %18s | %21s\n','M','N',...
   'Strike', 'Heston Price', 'Exact Price', 'Diff in Price')
r=0.02;
             % risk free rate
             % intial variance
v0=x(1);
vbar=x(2);
             % long term mean variance
eta=x(3);
            % volatility of variance
rho=x(5);
             \% correlation between the stock price and volatility
lamda=x(4);
             % speed of reversion
K=[80:5:120];  % Strike Price
% # of simulation
M=1000000;
```

```
% time step
N=1000;
dt=T/N;
% change of variable to avoid negative stock price
x = log(S).*ones(1,M);
% vectorize intial variance
v=v0.*ones(1,M);
alpha1=0.5;
alpha2=0.5;
psi_c=1.5;
    for i=1:N
         % assume some arbirary level psi_c between[1,2]
         % QE Algorithm: 1, Given VO , compute m and s^2
         vold=v;
         m=vbar+(vold-vbar).*exp(-lamda*dt);
         s_square=((vold*eta^2*exp(-lamda*dt))/lamda)...
         *(1-exp(-lamda*dt))+((vbar*eta^2)/(2*lamda))...
         *(1-exp(-lamda*dt))^2;
         % 2, compute psi=s^2/m^2
         psi=s_square./m.^2;
         % 3, draw a uniform random number Uv
         U_V = rand(size(vold));
         % if psi<=psi_c do the following:
         index= find(psi<=psi_c);</pre>
             % a, compute a and b using 27,28
             b_square=2./psi(index)-1+sqrt(2./psi(index)).*...
             sqrt(2./psi(index)-1);
             a=m(index)./(1+b_square);
             % b, compute Z_V
             Z_V = norminv(U_V(index));
             % c, compute Vnew using 23
             v(index)=a.*(sqrt(b_square)+Z_V).^2;
         %endif
         % if psi>psi_c do the following:
```

```
index2=find(psi>psi_c);
             % a, compute beta and p
             \%p=(psi(index2)-1)./(psi(index2)+1);
             p = 1 - 2./(psi(index2)+1);
             beta=(1-p)./m(index2);
             \% b, use 26 , where psi inverse is giving in 25
            v(index2)=0;
            % if U_V > p then do the following:
            index4=find(U_V(index2)>p);
                v(index2(index4))=log((1-p(index4))./...
                (1-U_V(index2(index4))))./beta(index4);
            %endif
         %endif
         %intV_increment = 0.5*dt*(vold+v);
         % parameters use to calculate stock prices
         K0=-rho*lamda*vbar*dt/eta;
         K1=alpha1*dt*(lamda*rho/eta-0.5)-rho/eta;
         K2=alpha2*dt*(lamda*rho/eta-0.5)+rho/eta;
         K3=alpha1*dt*(1-rho^2);
         K4=alpha2*dt*(1-rho^2);
         % log of stock prices
         x=x+r*dt+K0+K1*vold+K2*v+sqrt(K3*vold+K4*v).*randn(size(x));
    end
 % since x = log(S) , then S = exp^x
 S=exp(x);
% compute call value by calculating the mean of the payoff vector and
% discount back to time zero.
 for j=1:size(K,2)
 VPut(j)=exp(-r*T)*(sum(max(K(j)-S,0)))/M;
 VCall(j) = \exp(-r*T)*(\sup(\max(S-K(j),0)))/M;
 Diff=VCall(j)-VExact(j);
 fprintf('%13.0f | %12.0f | %18.0f | %15.6f | %18.6f | %18.6f\n'...
 ,M,N,K(j),VCall(j),VExact(j),Diff)
 end
```

% norm different between exact value and numerical value
Norm\_Diff=norm(VExact-VCall)

Monte Carlo Simulation uses QE method to discretize Heston stochastic volatility model for DOC and DIC Matlab code.

```
function [] = QE_exotic(T)
% This function was written to compute value of DOC and DIC using
% QE method to discretize Heston stochastic volatility model.
%Input
         *******************
        % T - Time to maturity
        %Heston Parameters
x=[0.1237]
            0.0677
                     0.3920
                              1.1954
                                       -0.6133];
% Call a function to compute Exact option price
VExact=HesExact_Driver();
S0=71.2;
              % Spot price
r=0.02:
             % risk free rate
             % intial variance
v0=x(1);
vbar=x(2);
             % long term mean variance
eta=x(3);
             % Volatility of variance
rho=x(5);
             % Correlation between stock price and volatility
lamda=x(4);
              % mean reversion speed
Sd=60;
              % Down Barrier Price
K = [40:5:55];
              % Strike Price
% # of simulation
M=1000000;
% time step
N=100;
dt=T/N;
fprintf('%13s | %12s | %18s | %15s\n','M','N','Strike','Heston Price')
alpha1=0.5;
alpha2=0.5;
```

```
psi_c=1.5;
for w=1:2
    index1=zeros(1,M);
    index2=[];
    index3=zeros(1,M);
    % change of variable to avoid negative stock price
    x=log(S0).*ones(1,M);
    % vectorize intial variance
    v=v0.*ones(1,M);
    KO=zeros(1,M);
    if w==1
        display('Down and Out Call Option Price')
    else
        display('Down and In Call Option Price')
    end
    for i=1:N
         % assume some arbirary level psi_c between[1,2]
         % QE Algorithm: 1, Given VO , compute m and s^2
         vold=v;
         m=vbar+(vold-vbar).*exp(-lamda*dt);
         s_square=((vold*eta^2*exp(-lamda*dt))/lamda)*...
         (1-exp(-lamda*dt))+((vbar*eta^2)/(2*lamda))...
         *(1-exp(-lamda*dt))^2;
         % 2, compute psi=s^2/m^2
         psi=s_square./m.^2;
         % 3, draw a uniform random number Uv
         U_V = rand(size(vold));
         % if psi<=psi_c do the following:
         index= find(psi<=psi_c);</pre>
            % a, compute a and b using 27,28
            b_square=2./psi(index)-1+sqrt(2./psi(index)).*...
            sqrt(2./psi(index)-1);
            a=m(index)./(1+b_square);
            % b, compute Z_V
```

```
Z_V = norminv(U_V(index));
   % c,compute Vnew using 23
   v(index)=a.*(sqrt(b_square)+Z_V).^2;
% if psi>psi_c do the following:
index2=find(psi>psi_c);
   % a, compute beta and p
   %p=(psi(index2)-1)./(psi(index2)+1);
   p = 1 - 2./(psi(index2)+1);
   beta=(1-p)./m(index2);
   % b, use 26 , where psi inverse is giving in 25
   v(index2)=0;
   index4=find(U_V(index2)>p);
       v(index2(index4))=log((1-p(index4))./...
       (1-U_V(index2(index4))))./beta(index4);
% parameters use to calculate stock prices
K0=-rho*lamda*vbar*dt/eta;
K1=alpha1*dt*(lamda*rho/eta-0.5)-rho/eta;
K2=alpha2*dt*(lamda*rho/eta-0.5)+rho/eta;
K3=alpha1*dt*(1-rho^2);
K4=alpha2*dt*(1-rho^2);
A=K2+0.5*K4;
KO(index) = -A*b_square.*a./(1-2*A*a)+0.5*log(1-2*A*a)-...
(K1+0.5*K3)*vold(index);
KO(index2) = -log(p+(beta.*(1-p))./(beta-A)) - ...
(K1+0.5*K3)*vold(index2);
Kstar=K0;
x=x+r*dt+K0+K1*vold+K2*v+sqrt(K3*vold+K4*v).*randn(size(x));
% since x = log(S) , then S = exp^x
S=exp(x);
if w==1
     % down and out
     index2=(S\leq Sd);
     indexstore=[index1+index2];
     index1=index2;
```

```
else
              %down and in
              index2=(S\leq Sd);
              indexstore=[index3+index2];
              index3=index2;
         end
    end
    \% since x=log(S) , then S= exp^x
    S=exp(x);
    if w==1
        %down and out
        S=S.*not(indexstore);
    else
        %down and in
        S=S.*not(indexstore==0);
    end
    % compute call value by calculating the mean of the payoff vector and
    % discount back to time zero.
    for j=1:size(K,2)
        VPut(j)=exp(-r*T)*(sum(max(K(j)-S,0)))/M;
        VCall(j)=exp(-r*T)*(sum(max(S-K(j),0)))/M;
        fprintf('%13.0f | %12.0f | %18.0f | %15.4f\n',M,N,K(j),VCall(j))
        Vexact(j)=VExact(j);
    end
    %note that Down and out call plus Down and in call option equal to
    %vanilla call option (1)
    if w==1
        V_out=VCall;
    else
        V_in=VCall;
    end
end
% compute vanilla call option to verify wether (1) is true
V_Call=V_out+V_in;
```

```
Diff=norm(V_Call-Vexact);
display(Vexact)
display(V_Call)
display(Diff)
Heston's parameters calibration Matlab code.
%Heston Calibration Driver
 clc;
 clear;
 close all;
 % Turn on Jacobian , Display and MaxIter
 options=optimset('Jacobian', 'on', 'Display', 'iter', 'MaxIter', 20);
 % starting point for unknown coefficient x
 x0 = [0.1565]
              0.06 0.4356
                              1.1662
                                       -0.67];
 % Call LevenbergMarquardt solver build in function to solve for
 % unknown x and residual norm.
 [x,resnorm]=lsqnonlin(@myfun,x0,[],[],options)
 % compute Call option using Milstein
 V_heston=Heston_Calibration(x);
 % Market implied volatility for Rimm US Equity ( Mat Date: May 2010)
 impliedvol_market=[0.9443  0.7656  0.604  0.4552  0.3754...
 0.3514 0.3289 0.3285 0.3384 0.3635 0.3944];
 %Strike price
 K = [40:5:90];
 T=1/12; % 1 month to expiry, Maturirty Date :May 2010
 %T=1;
 r=0.02;
 % Spot price
 S0=71.20;
 % Compute implied vol using blackschole model
 impliedvol_heston=blsimpv(S0,K,r,T,V_heston)
```

%plot the approximate Implied volatility

plot(K,impliedvol\_heston);
%plot(T,impliedvol\_heston);

```
hold on
plot(K,impliedvol_market,'red');
%plot(T,impliedvol_market,'red')
xlabel('Strike Price')
% xlabel('Time to maturity')
ylabel(' Implied Vol')
title(' Implied Vol vs Strike Price')
%title(' Implied Vol vs Time to maturity')
legend('Heston Model Implied Vol', 'Market Implied Vol'
function [Vcall] = Heston_Calibration(x)
% This function was written to compute value of a call option using
% Milistein's method to discretize Heston stochastic volatility model.
         ******************
%Input
        % x - Heston's Parameters
        S=71.2;
              % spot price
r=0.02;
              % risk free rate
v0=x(1);
             % initial variance
vbar=x(2);
             % long term mean variance
eta=x(3);
             % volatility of variance
lamda=x(4);
             % mean reversion speed
rho=x(5);
             % correlation between stock price and volatility
K = [40:5:90];
             % strike price
T=1/12;
              % Time to maturity
% build covariance matrix
e = ones(2,1); em = ones(2-1,1);
Q=diag(1*e,0) + diag(rho*em,1) + diag(rho*em,-1);
% compute cholesky factorization matrix
G=chol(Q);
% # of simulation
M=10000;
% time step
dt=T/1000;
```

```
% change of variable to avoid negative stock price
S_{tran}=log(S).*ones(1,M);
% vectorize intial variance
v=v0.*ones(1,M);
   for i=1:1000
        % generate random number with correlation rho
        Phi=G'*randn(2,M);
        % compute the value of x and v. If v is negative ,we take the
        % absolute value
        S_{tran}=S_{tran}+r*dt-v/2.*dt+sqrt(v*dt).*Phi(1,:);
        v=(sqrt(v)+eta/2*sqrt(dt).*Phi(2,:)).^2-lamda*...
        (v-vbar).*dt-(eta^2/4).*dt;
        v=abs(v);
   end
S=exp(S_tran);
W=size(K,2);
for j=1:W
% compute call value by calculating the mean of the payoff vector and
% discount back to time zero.
Vcall(j)=mean(max(S-K(j),0));
end
Vcall=exp(-r*T)*Vcall;
function [F,J] = myfun(x)
% Function that return the absolute value between the Monte Carlo
% option prices and market prices(F) and Jacobian matrix.
% It takes in Heston's Paremeters set.
S0=71.2; % Spot price
T=1/12; % time to maturity
r=0.02; % risk free rate
% grid step
dx=10^-2;
% Market Implied volatility
sigma=[0.9443 0.7656 0.604 0.4552 0.3754 0.3514 0.3289...
```

```
0.3285 0.3384 0.3635 0.3944];
% strike price
K = [40:5:90];
% Call Market Value
V_market=blsprice(S0,K,r,T,sigma);
% Pricing a Call Value using Heston model
V_Heston=Heston_Calibration(x);
% objective function
F=V_Heston-V_market;
% uses to compute DF/DX1 column vector
x1=[x(1)+dx,x(2),x(3),x(4),x(5)];
% uses to compute DF/DX2 column vector
x2=[x(1),x(2)+dx,x(3),x(4),x(5)];
% uses to compute DF/DX3 column vector
x3=[x(1),x(2),x(3)+dx,x(4),x(5)];
% uses to compute DF/DX4 column vector
x4=[x(1),x(2),x(3),x(4)+dx,x(5)];
% uses to compute DF/DX5 column vector
x5=[x(1),x(2),x(3),x(4),x(5)+dx];
  % by checking nargout , we can avoid computing J when Matlab function
 % is called with only one output argument
  if nargout>1
     F_dx1=(Heston_Calibration(x1)-V_market)';
     F_dx2=(Heston_Calibration(x2)-V_market);
    F_dx3=(Heston_Calibration(x3)-V_market);
     F_dx4=(Heston_Calibration(x4)-V_market);
    F_dx5=(Heston_Calibration(x5)-V_market)';
    % compute DF/DX1 using forward difference
    DF_dx1=(F_dx1-F')/dx;
    % compute DF/DX2 using forward difference
     DF_dx2=(F_dx2-F')/dx;
     % compute DF/DX3 using forward difference
    DF_dx3=(F_dx3-F')/dx;
     % compute DF/DX4 using forward difference
```

```
DF_dx4=(F_dx4-F')/dx;
% compute DF/DX5 using forward difference
DF_dx5=(F_dx5-F')/dx;
% Jacobian Matrix
J=[DF_dx1,DF_dx2,DF_dx3,DF_dx4,DF_dx5];
end
end
```

## Finite Difference Methods to Price DIC Barrier Option

```
clear all;
close all;
clc;
% input
Smax=220;
K=55;
B=60;
% number of column of the grid i.e size of S grid is 61
m1=30;
\% number of row of the grid, i.e size of S grid is 31
m2=15;
j = [0:m1];
w = [0:m2];
V=1.1;
c=K/5;
d=V/500;
% Case 1
T=1;
r=0.02; %rd
q=0;
        %rf
lambda=1.1954;
vbar=0.0677;
sigma=0.3920;
rho=-0.6133;
%**** non uniform stock grid
```

```
delta_xi=1/m1*(asinh((Smax-K)/c)-asinh(-K/c));
xi=asinh(-K/c)+j*delta_xi;
dt=delta_xi^2/100;
nt=T/dt;
% stock grid
s_grid=K+c*sinh(xi)';
%****
%index_test=find(s_grid<=B);</pre>
index_test=find(s_grid>B);
s_barrier=s_grid;
s_barrier(index_test)=0;
% **** non uniform volatility grid
delta_eta=1/m2*(asinh(V/d));
eta=w*delta_eta;
v_grid=d*sinh(eta)';
indexS = length(s_grid);
indexV = length(v_grid);
V = repmat(v_grid,1,indexS);
S=repmat(s_grid,1,indexV)';
S1=repmat(s_barrier,1,indexV)';
s_vect = reshape(S, indexS*indexV, 1);
v_vect = reshape(V, indexS*indexV, 1);
s_barrier=reshape(S1,indexS*indexV,1);
%initial condition
u_initial=max(s_barrier-K,0);
N=size(s_vect,1);
%u_initial=max(s_vect-K,0);
[A_central_S, A_central_V, A_central_SS, ...
 A_central_VV, A_central_SV] = ...
    createInteriorAMatrices(s_grid, v_grid);
u = u_initial;
current_time = 0;
s_temp=repmat(s_vect,1,N);
v_temp=repmat(v_vect,1,N);
```

```
A0 = rho*sigma*s_temp.*v_temp.*A_central_SV;
A1 = (r-q)*s\_temp.*A\_central\_S + ...
     0.5*(s_temp.^2).*v_temp.*A_central_SS;
A2 = 0.5*(sigma^2)*v_temp.*A_central_VV + ...
     lambda*(vbar-v_temp).*A_central_V;
A = AO + A1 + A2;
I = speye(indexS*indexV,indexS*indexV);
theta = 0.5;
t = current_time + dt;
t=0;
[b_S, b_SS] = createBVectorForS(v_grid, s_grid, q, t);
[b_V, b_VV] = createBVectorForV(v_grid, s_grid, q, t);
b0 = zeros(indexV*indexS,1);
b1 = (r-q)*s_vect.*b_S + ...
       0.5*s_vect.^2.*v_vect.*b_SS;
b2 = (lambda*(vbar - v_vect)).*b_V + ...
       rho*sigma*s_vect.*v_vect.*b_VV;
B = b1 + b2 + b0;
%time-stepping
for h=1:ceil(nt)
    u0 = u + dt*(A*u+B-r*u);
    u1=(I-theta*dt*(A1-r*I))(u0-theta*dt*(A1*u-r*u));
    u2=(I-theta*dt*(A2-r*I))(u1-theta*dt*(A2*u-r*u));
    u0_hat=u0+theta*dt*(A0*u2-r*u2-A0*u+r*u);
    u0_hat=u0_hat+(0.5-theta)*dt*(A*u2+B-r*u2-A*u-B+r*u);
    u1_hat=(I-theta*dt*(A1-r*I))\setminus(u0_hat+theta*dt*(-A1*u+r*u));
    u2_hat=(I-theta*dt*(A2-r*I))(u1_hat+theta*dt*(-A2*u+r*u));
    u=u2_hat;
end
surf(s_grid, v_grid, reshape(u,indexV,indexS));
xlabel('V')
xlabel('S')
vlabel('V')
zlabel('U')
```

```
title('Case 1')
u=reshape(u,indexV, indexS);
price = interp2(S,V,u,71.2,0.1237)
```

clear all;

## Finite Difference Methods to Price DOC Barrier Option

```
close all;
clc;
% input
Smax=220;
K = 55;
B=60;
\% number of column of the grid i.e size of S grid is 61
m1=30;
% number of row of the grid, i.e size of S grid is 31
m2=15;
j = [0:m1];
w = [0:m2];
V=1.1;
c=K/5;
d=V/500;
% Case 1
T=1;
r=0.02; %rd
q=0;
        %rf
lambda=1.1954;
vbar=0.0677;
sigma=0.3920;
rho=-0.6133;
%**** non uniform stock grid
delta_xi=1/m1*(asinh((Smax-K)/c)-asinh((B-K)/c));
xi=asinh((B-K)/c)+j*delta_xi;
dt=delta_xi^2/100;
nt=T/dt;
```

```
% stock grid
s_grid=K+c*sinh(xi)';
index_test=find(s_grid<=B);</pre>
s_grid(index_test)=0;
% **** non uniform volatility grid
delta_eta=1/m2*(asinh(V/d));
eta=w*delta_eta;
v_grid=d*sinh(eta)';
indexS = length(s_grid);
indexV = length(v_grid);
V = repmat(v_grid,1,indexS);
S=repmat(s_grid,1,indexV)';
s_vect = reshape(S, indexS*indexV, 1);
v_vect = reshape(V, indexS*indexV, 1);
N=size(s_vect,1);
u_initial=max(s_vect-K,0);
[A_central_S, A_central_V, A_central_SS, ...
A_central_VV, A_central_SV] = ...
    createInteriorAMatrices(s_grid, v_grid);
u = u_initial;
current_time = 0;
s_temp=repmat(s_vect,1,N);
v_temp=repmat(v_vect,1,N);
A0 = rho*sigma*s_temp.*v_temp.*A_central_SV;
A1 = (r-q)*s_temp.*A_central_S + ...
     0.5*(s_temp.^2).*v_temp.*A_central_SS;
A2 = 0.5*(sigma^2)*v_temp.*A_central_VV + ...
     lambda*(vbar-v_temp).*A_central_V;
A = AO + A1 + A2;
I = speye(indexS*indexV,indexS*indexV);
theta = 0.5;
t = current_time + dt;
t=0;
[b_S, b_SS] = createBVectorForS(v_grid, s_grid, q, t);
```

```
[b_V, b_VV] = createBVectorForV(v_grid, s_grid, q, t);
b0 = zeros(indexV*indexS,1);
b1 = (r-q)*s_vect.*b_S + ...
       0.5*s_vect.^2.*v_vect.*b_SS;
b2 = (lambda*(vbar - v_vect)).*b_V + ...
       rho*sigma*s_vect.*v_vect.*b_VV;
B = b1 + b2 + b0;
%time-stepping
for h=1:ceil(nt)
    u0 = u + dt*(A*u+B-r*u);
    u1=(I-theta*dt*(A1-r*I))(u0-theta*dt*(A1*u-r*u));
    u2=(I-theta*dt*(A2-r*I))(u1-theta*dt*(A2*u-r*u));
    u0_hat=u0+theta*dt*(A0*u2-r*u2-A0*u+r*u);
    u0_hat=u0_hat+(0.5-theta)*dt*(A*u2+B-r*u2-A*u-B+r*u);
    u1_hat=(I-theta*dt*(A1-r*I))\setminus(u0_hat+theta*dt*(-A1*u+r*u));
    u2_hat=(I-theta*dt*(A2-r*I))\setminus(u1_hat+theta*dt*(-A2*u+r*u));
    u=u2_hat;
end
surf(s_grid, v_grid, reshape(u,indexV,indexS));
xlabel('V')
xlabel('S')
vlabel('V')
zlabel('U')
title('Case 1')
u=reshape(u,indexV, indexS);
price = interp2(S,V,u,71.2,0.1237)
function [A_S, A_V, A_SS, ...
  A_VV, A_SV] = ...
    createInteriorAMatrices(s_grid, v_grid)
indexS = length(s_grid);
indexV = length(v_grid);
% create sparse matrices
A_central_SS = spalloc(indexS*indexV,indexS*indexV, 3);
A_central_VV = spalloc(indexS*indexV,indexS*indexV, 3);
```

```
A_central_S = spalloc(indexS*indexV, indexS*indexV, 3);
A_central_V = spalloc(indexS*indexV, indexS*indexV, 3);
A_backward_V = spalloc(indexS*indexV, indexS*indexV, 5);
A_forward_V = spalloc(indexS*indexV, indexS*indexV, 5);
A_central_SV = spalloc(indexS*indexV, indexS*indexV, 9);
for k = 1:indexS*indexV
  %compute rows and columns of initial condition matrix
 column_index=ceil(k/indexV);
 row_index = k - (column_index-1)*indexV;
 % check if looking strictly into the interior
  if (row_index~=1 && row_index~=indexV &&
      column_index~=1 && column_index~=indexS)
   S_mid = s_grid(column_index);
   S_left=s_grid(column_index-1);
   S_right=s_grid(column_index+1);
   V_mid = v_grid(row_index);
   V_left=v_grid(row_index-1);
   V_right=v_grid(row_index+1);
   delta_mid_S = S_mid-S_left;
   delta_right_S = S_right-S_mid;
   delta_mid_V = V_mid - V_left;
   delta_right_V = V_right - V_mid;
    gamma_minus_S=2/(delta_mid_S*(delta_mid_S+delta_right_S));
    gamma_mid_S=-2/(delta_mid_S*delta_right_S);
    gamma_right_S=2/(delta_right_S*(delta_mid_S+delta_right_S));
   gamma_minus_V=2/(delta_mid_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
   gamma_mid_V=-2/(delta_mid_V*delta_right_V);
   gamma_right_V=2/(delta_right_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
   % second derivative for V and S using central difference
```

```
A_central_VV(k,k)=gamma_mid_V;
   A_central_VV(k,k-1)=gamma_minus_V;
    A_central_VV(k,k+1)=gamma_right_V;
   A_central_SS(k,k)=gamma_mid_S;
   A_central_SS(k,k-indexV)=gamma_minus_S;
   A_central_SS(k,k+indexV)=gamma_right_S;
   % beta coefficients
   delta_mid
                = S_mid-S_left;
   delta_right = S_right-S_mid;
   beta_zer0_S = (delta_right-delta_mid)/(delta_mid*delta_right);
   beta_minus_S = (-delta_right)/(delta_mid*(delta_mid+delta_right));
   beta_plus_S = delta_mid/(delta_right*(delta_mid+delta_right));
   delta_mid_V = V_mid-V_left;
   delta_right_V = V_right-V_mid;
   beta_zer0_V
                = ...
(delta_right_V-delta_mid_V)/(delta_mid_V*delta_right_V);
   beta_minus_V = ...
(-delta_right_V)/(delta_mid_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
   beta_plus_V
delta_mid_V/(delta_right_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
   A_central_S(k,k) = beta_zer0_S;
   A_central_S(k,k+indexV) = beta_plus_S;
   A_central_S(k,k-indexV) = beta_minus_S;
   if (v_grid(row_index) < 1)</pre>
      % first derivative for V and S using central difference
      A_central_V(k,k) = beta_zer0_V;
      A_central_V(k,k+1) = beta_plus_V;
      A_central_V(k,k-1) = beta_minus_V;
    end
```

```
% mixed-derivative matrix
  A_central_SV(k,k-1) = beta_zer0_S*beta_minus_V;
 A_central_SV(k,k) = beta_zer0_S*beta_zer0_V;
  A_central_SV(k,k+1) = beta_zer0_S*beta_plus_V;
 A_central_SV(k,k-indexV-1)=beta_minus_S*beta_minus_V;
 A_central_SV(k,k-indexV)=beta_minus_S*beta_zer0_V;
 A_central_SV(k,k-indexV+1)=beta_minus_S*beta_plus_V;
 A_central_SV(k,k+indexV-1)=beta_plus_S*beta_minus_V;
 A_central_SV(k,k+indexV)=beta_plus_S*beta_zer0_V;
 A_central_SV(k,k+indexV+1)=beta_plus_S*beta_plus_V;
 \% backward differencing for v-derivative when v > 1
  if (v_grid(row_index) >= 1)
    V_left_left = v_grid(row_index-2);
    V_left = v_grid(row_index-1);
    V_mid = v_grid(row_index);
    delta_v_left = V_left - V_left_left;
    delta_v_mid = V_mid - V_left;
    alpha_minus_2_V = ...
delta_v_mid/(delta_v_left*(delta_v_left+delta_v_mid));
    alpha_minus_1_V = ...
-(delta_v_left + delta_v_mid)/(delta_v_mid*delta_v_left);
    alpha_zero_V = ...
(delta_v_left + 2*delta_v_mid)/...
(delta_v_mid*(delta_v_mid + delta_v_left));
    A_backward_V(k,k) = alpha_zero_V;
    A_backward_V(k,k-1) = alpha_minus_1_V;
    A_{backward_V(k,k-2)} = alpha_minus_2_V;
```

```
end
  else
    % boundary for du/ds and du/dss
    [A_central_S, A_central_SS] = ...
applyBCtoSMatrices...
(A_central_S, A_central_SS, v_grid, s_grid, row_index, column_index, k);
    % boundary for du/dv and du/dvv
    [A_forward_V,A_backward_V,A_central_V, A_central_VV] = ...
applyBCtoVMatrices...
(A_forward_V, A_backward_V, A_central_V, A_central_VV, ...
v_grid, s_grid, row_index, column_index, k);
  end
end
A_V = A_central_V + A_backward_V + A_forward_V;
A_S = A_{central_S};
A_SS = A_central_SS;
A_VV = A_central_VV;
A_SV = A_central_SV;
function [A_forward_V,A_backward_V,A_central_V, A_central_VV] = ...
    applyBCtoVMatrices...
    (A_forward_V,A_backward_V,A_central_V, A_central_VV, ...
     v_grid, s_grid, row_index, column_index, k)
indexS = length(s_grid);
indexV = length(v_grid);
if (v_grid(row_index) < 1 && row_index ~= 1)</pre>
  %
        if (column_index == 1 || column_index == indexS)
  V_mid = v_grid(row_index);
  V_left=v_grid(row_index-1);
  V_right=v_grid(row_index+1);
```

```
delta_mid_V = V_mid - V_left;
 delta_right_V = V_right - V_mid;
 gamma_minus_V=2/(delta_mid_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
 gamma_mid_V=-2/(delta_mid_V*delta_right_V);
 gamma_right_V=2/(delta_right_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
 A_central_VV(k,k)=gamma_mid_V;
 A_central_VV(k,k-1)=gamma_minus_V;
 A_central_VV(k,k+1)=gamma_right_V;
 %
        end
 V_mid = v_grid(row_index);
 V_left=v_grid(row_index-1);
 V_right=v_grid(row_index+1);
 delta_mid_V = V_mid-V_left;
 delta_right_V = V_right-V_mid;
 beta_zer0_V = ...
      (delta_right_V-delta_mid_V)/(delta_mid_V*delta_right_V);
 beta_minus_V = ...
      (-delta_right_V)/(delta_mid_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
 beta_plus_V = ...
      delta_mid_V/(delta_right_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
 A_central_V(k,k) = beta_zer0_V;
 A_central_V(k,k+1) = beta_plus_V;
 A_central_V(k,k-1) = beta_minus_V;
elseif(row_index == indexV || v_grid(row_index) >= 1)
  if ((column_index == 1 || ...
       column_index == indexS) && ...
      row_index < indexV)</pre>
   V_mid = v_grid(row_index);
   V_left=v_grid(row_index-1);
   V_right=v_grid(row_index+1);
```

```
delta_mid_V = V_mid - V_left;
   delta_right_V = V_right - V_mid;
   gamma_minus_V=2/(delta_mid_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
   gamma_mid_V=-2/(delta_mid_V*delta_right_V);
   gamma_right_V=2/(delta_right_V*(delta_mid_V+delta_right_V));
   A_central_VV(k,k)=gamma_mid_V;
   A_central_VV(k,k-1)=gamma_minus_V;
   A_central_VV(k,k+1)=gamma_right_V;
 end
 if (row_index == indexV)
   %apply backward difference on V when S=0.
   V_left_left = v_grid(row_index-2);
   V_left = v_grid(row_index-1);
   V_mid = v_grid(row_index);
   delta_v_left = V_left - V_left_left;
   delta_v_mid = V_mid - V_left;
   alpha_minus_2_V = ...
delta_v_mid/(delta_v_left*(delta_v_left+delta_v_mid));
    alpha_minus_1_V = ...
-(delta_v_left + delta_v_mid)/(delta_v_mid*delta_v_left);
   alpha_zero_V = ...
(delta_v_left + 2*delta_v_mid)/...
(delta_v_mid*(delta_v_mid + delta_v_left));
   A_backward_V(k,k) = alpha_zero_V;
   A_{backward_V(k,k-1)} = alpha_minus_1_V;
   A_{backward_V(k,k-2)} = alpha_minus_2_V;
 end
```

```
elseif (row_index == 1)
  V_mid = v_grid(row_index);
  V_right = v_grid(row_index+1);
  V_right_right = v_grid(row_index+2);
  delta_v_right = V_right_right - V_right;
  delta_v_mid = V_right - V_mid;
  gamma_0_V = (-2*delta_v_mid - delta_v_right)/...
      (delta_v_mid*(delta_v_mid + delta_v_right));
  gamma_plus_1_V = (delta_v_mid + delta_v_right)/...
      (delta_v_mid*delta_v_right);
  gamma_plus_2_V = -delta_v_mid/ ...
      (delta_v_right*(delta_v_right+delta_v_mid));
  A_forward_V(k,k) = gamma_0_V;
  A_forward_V(k,k+1) = gamma_plus_1_V;
  A_forward_V(k,k+2) = gamma_plus_2_V;
end
function [A_central_S, A_central_SS] = ...
    applyBCtoSMatrices...
    (A_central_S, A_central_SS, v_grid, s_grid, row_index, column_index, k)
indexS = length(s_grid);
indexV = length(v_grid);
% for S and SS, we won't have to worry when s or v is zero
% so don't have to worry when row_index or column_index is one
% for when v = V
if (row_index == indexV || row_index == 1)
  if (column_index > 1 && column_index < indexS)</pre>
    S_mid = s_grid(column_index);
    S_left=s_grid(column_index-1);
    S_right=s_grid(column_index+1);
```

```
delta_mid
                = S_mid-S_left;
   delta_right
                 = S_right-S_mid;
                 = (delta_right-delta_mid)/(delta_mid*delta_right);
   beta_zer0_S
   beta_minus_S = ...
(-delta_right)/(delta_mid*(delta_mid+delta_right));
                  = delta_mid/(delta_right*(delta_mid+delta_right));
   beta_plus_S
   gamma_minus_S=2/(delta_mid*(delta_mid+delta_right));
   gamma_mid_S=-2/(delta_mid*delta_right);
   gamma_right_S=2/(delta_right*(delta_mid+delta_right));
    if (row_index == indexV)
      %A_central_S(k,k) = beta_zer0_S;
      %A_central_S(k,k+indexV) = beta_plus_S;
      %A_central_S(k,k-indexV) = beta_minus_S;
      %A_central_SS(k,k)=gamma_mid_S;
      %A_central_SS(k,k-indexV)=gamma_minus_S;
      %A_central_SS(k,k+indexV)=gamma_right_S;
   end
 end
end
% this is to partically take care of the extrapolation
% the other we will include in the b vector
if (column_index == indexS)
 S_mid = s_grid(column_index);
 S_left=s_grid(column_index-1);
 delta_mid_S = S_mid-S_left;
 delta_right_S = delta_mid_S;
```

```
% the location of the ghost cells
 % S_right = delta_right_S + S_mid;
 gamma_minus_S=2/(delta_mid_S*(delta_mid_S+delta_right_S));
 gamma_mid_S=-2/(delta_mid_S*delta_right_S);
 gamma_plus_S = 2/(delta_right_S*(delta_mid_S+delta_right_S));
 A_central_SS(k,k)=gamma_mid_S;
 A_central_SS(k,k-indexV)=gamma_minus_S + gamma_plus_S;
end
function [b_S, b_SS] = ...
    createBVectorForS( v_grid, s_grid,q,t)
indexS = length(s_grid);
indexV = length(v_grid);
index_BS_V = indexV:indexV:indexS*indexV;
b_S=zeros(indexV*indexS,1);
b_SS=zeros(indexV*indexS,1);
% du/ds |s=smax
b_S(end-indexV+1:end)=exp(-q*t);
ds=s_grid(end)-s_grid(end-1);
factor_ = 2/(ds*(ds+ds));
b_SS(index_BS_V) = 0;
b_SS(end-indexV+1:end)=factor_*2*ds*exp(-q*t);
% take derivative with respect to S.
b_S(index_BS_V) = exp(-q*t);
function [b_V, b_VV] = ...
    createBVectorForV( v_grid, s_grid,q,t)
indexS = length(s_grid);
```

```
indexV = length(v_grid);
index_BS_V = indexV:indexV:indexS*indexV+1;
b_V=zeros(indexV*indexS,1);
b_VV=zeros(indexV*indexS,1);
end
```

## **Bibliography**

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