

The data-driven COS method

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- 5 Applications of the ddCOS method
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The COS method

- A lot of work behind: [FO08], [FO09], etc.
- Fourier-based method to price options.
- Starting point is risk-neutral valuation formula:

$$v(x, t) = e^{-r(T-t)} \mathbb{E}[v(y, T)|x] = e^{-r(T-t)} \int_{\mathbb{R}} v(y, T) f(y|x) dy,$$

where r is the risk-free rate and $f(y|x)$ is the density of the underlying process. Typically, we have:

$$x := \log\left(\frac{S(0)}{K}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad y := \log\left(\frac{S(T)}{K}\right),$$

- $f(y|x)$ is unknown in most of cases.
- However, characteristic function available for many models.
- Exploit the relation between the density and the characteristic function (Fourier pair).

The COS method - European options

- $f(y|x)$ is approximated, on a finite interval $[a, b]$, by a cosine series

$$f(y|x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \left(A_0 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k(x) \cdot \cos \left(k\pi \frac{y-a}{b-a} \right) \right),$$

$$A_0 = 1, \quad A_k(x) = \int_a^b f(y|x) \cos \left(k\pi \frac{y-a}{b-a} \right) dy, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

- Interchanging the summation and integration and introducing the definition

$$V_k := \frac{2}{b-a} \int_a^b v(y, T) \cos \left(k\pi \frac{y-a}{b-a} \right) dy,$$

we find that the option value is given by

$$v(x, t) \approx e^{-r(T-t)} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}{}' A_k(x) V_k,$$

where ' indicates that the first term is divided by two.

Pricing European options with the COS method

- Coefficients A_k can be computed from the ChF.
- Coefficients V_k are known analytically (for many types of options).
- Closed-form expressions for the option Greeks Δ and Γ

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial S} = \frac{1}{S(0)} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x} \approx \exp(-r(T-t)) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\partial A_k(x)}{\partial x} \frac{V_k}{S(0)},$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{\partial^2 v(x, t)}{\partial S^2} \approx \exp(-r(T-t)) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{\partial A_k(x)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial^2 A_k(x)}{\partial x^2} \right) \frac{V_k}{S^2(0)}$$

- Due to the rapid decay of the coefficients, $v(x, t)$, Δ and Γ can be approximated with high accuracy by truncating to N terms.

“Learning” densities

- *Statistical learning theory*: deals with the problem of finding a predictive function based on data.
- We follow the analysis about the problem of density estimation proposed by Vapnik in [Vap98].
- Given independent and identical distributed samples X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .
- By definition, density $f(x)$ is related to the *cumulative distribution function*, $F(x)$, by means of the expression

$$\int_{-\infty}^x f(y)dy = F(x).$$

- Function $F(x)$ is approximated by the empirical approximation

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \eta(x - X_i),$$

where $\eta(\cdot)$ is the step-function. Convergence $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{n})$.

Regularization approach

- The previous equation can be rewritten as a linear operator equation

$$Cf = F \approx F_n,$$

where the operator $Ch := \int_{-\infty}^x h(z)dz$.

- Stochastic ill-posed problem. *Regularization method* (Vapnik).
- Given a lower semi-continuous functional $W(f)$ such that:
 - ▶ Solution of $Cf = F_n$ belongs to \mathcal{D} , the domain of definition of $W(f)$.
 - ▶ The functional $W(f)$ takes real non-negative values in \mathcal{D} .
 - ▶ The set $\mathcal{M}_c = \{f : W(f) \leq c\}$ is compact in \mathcal{H} (the space where the solution exists and is unique).
- Then we can construct the functional

$$R_{\gamma_n}(f, F_n) = L_{\mathcal{H}}^2(Cf, F_n) + \gamma_n W(f),$$

where $L_{\mathcal{H}}$ is a metric of the space \mathcal{H} (loss function) and γ_n is the parameter of regularization satisfying that $\gamma_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- Under these conditions, a function f_n minimizing the functional converges almost surely to the desired one.

Regularization and Fourier-based density estimators

- Assume $f(x)$ belongs to the functions whose p -th derivatives belong to $L_2(0, \pi)$, the kernel $\mathcal{K}(z - x)$ and

$$W(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathcal{K}(z - x) f(x) dx \right)^2 dz,$$

- The risk functional

$$R_{\gamma_n}(f, F_n) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_0^x f(y) dy - F_n(x) \right)^2 dx + \gamma_n \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathcal{K}(z - x) f(x) dx \right)^2 dz.$$

- Denoting by $\hat{f}(u)$, $\hat{F}_n(u)$ and $\hat{\mathcal{K}}(u)$ the Fourier transforms, by definition

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{F}_n(u) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} F_n(x) e^{-iux} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2n\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \sum_{j=1}^n \eta(x - X_j) e^{-iux} dx = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\exp(-iuX_j)}{iu}, \end{aligned}$$

where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ is the imaginary unit.

Regularization and Fourier-based density estimators

- By employing the *convolution theorem* and *Parseval's identity*

$$R_{\gamma_n}(f, F_n) = \left\| \frac{\hat{f}(u) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \exp(-iuX_j)}{iu} \right\|_{L_2}^2 + \gamma_n \left\| \hat{\mathcal{K}}(u) \hat{f}(u) \right\|_{L_2}^2.$$

- The condition to minimize $R_{\gamma_n}(f, F_n)$ is given by,

$$\frac{\hat{f}(u)}{u^2} - \frac{1}{nu^2} \sum_{j=1}^n \exp(-iuX_j) + \gamma_n \hat{\mathcal{K}}(u) \hat{\mathcal{K}}(-u) \hat{f}(u) = 0,$$

which gives us,

$$\hat{f}_n(u) = \left(\frac{1}{1 + \gamma_n u^2 \hat{\mathcal{K}}(u) \hat{\mathcal{K}}(-u)} \right) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \exp(-iuX_j).$$

Regularization and Fourier-based density estimators

- $\mathcal{K}(x) = \delta^{(p)}(x)$, and the desired PDF, $f(x)$ and its p -th derivative ($p \geq 0$) belongs to $L_2(0, \pi)$, the risk functional becomes

$$R_{\gamma_n}(f, F_n) = \int_0^\pi \left(\int_0^x f(y) dy - F_n(x) \right)^2 dx + \gamma_n \int_0^\pi \left(f^{(p)}(x) \right)^2 dx.$$

- Given *orthonormal functions*, $\psi_1(\theta), \dots, \psi_k(\theta), \dots$

$$f_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{\pi} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \tilde{A}_k \psi_k(\theta),$$

with $\tilde{A}_0, \tilde{A}_1, \dots, \tilde{A}_k, \dots$ expansion coefficients, $\tilde{A}_k = \langle f_n, \psi_k \rangle$.

- The coefficients \tilde{A}_k cannot be directly computed from f_n , but

$$\tilde{A}_k = \langle f_n, \psi_k \rangle = \langle \hat{f}_n, \hat{\psi}_k \rangle$$

$$= \int_0^\pi \left(\left(\frac{1}{1 + \gamma_n u^2 \hat{\mathcal{K}}(u) \hat{\mathcal{K}}(-u)} \right) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \exp(-iu\theta_j) \right) \cdot \hat{\psi}_k(u) du.$$

Regularization and Fourier-based density estimators

- Using cosine series expansions, i.e., $\psi_k(\theta) = \cos(k\theta)$, it is well-known that

$$\hat{\psi}_k(u) = \frac{1}{2}(\delta(u - k) + \delta(u + k)).$$

- This facilitates the computation of \tilde{A}_k avoiding the calculation of the integral. Thus, the minimum of R_{γ_n}

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{A}_k &= \frac{1}{2n} \left(\left(\frac{1}{1 + \gamma_n(-k)^2 \hat{\mathcal{K}}(-k) \hat{\mathcal{K}}(k)} \right) \sum_{j=1}^n \exp(ik\theta_j) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \left(\frac{1}{1 + \gamma_n k^2 \hat{\mathcal{K}}(k) \hat{\mathcal{K}}(-k)} \right) \sum_{j=1}^n \exp(-ik\theta_j) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_n k^2 \hat{\mathcal{K}}(k) \hat{\mathcal{K}}(-k)} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \cos(k\theta_j) = \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_n k^{2(\rho+1)}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \cos(k\theta_j),\end{aligned}$$

where $\theta_j \in (0, \pi)$ are given samples of the unknown distribution. In the last step, $\hat{\mathcal{K}}(u) = (iu)^\rho$ is used.

The data-driven COS method

- Employ the solution of the regularization problem for density estimation in the COS framework.
- In both, the density is assumed to be in the form of a cosine series expansion.
- The minimum of the functional is in terms of the expansion coefficients.
- Take advantage of the COS machinery: pricing options, Greeks, etc.
- The samples must follow risk-neutral measure (Monte Carlo paths).

The data-driven COS method

- Key idea: \tilde{A}_k approximates A_k .
- Risk neutral samples from an asset at time T , $S_1(t), S_2(t), \dots, S_n(t)$.
- With a logarithmic transformation, we have

$$Y_j := \log \left(\frac{S_j(T)}{K} \right).$$

- The regularization solution is defined in $(0, \pi)$, by transformation

$$\theta_j = \pi \frac{Y_j - a}{b - a},$$

where the boundaries a and b are defined as

$$a := \min_{1 \leq j \leq n} (Y_j), \quad b := \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} (Y_j).$$

The data-driven COS method - European options

- The A_k coefficients are replaced by the data-driven \tilde{A}_k

$$A_k \approx \tilde{A}_k = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \cos\left(k\pi \frac{Y_{j-a}}{b-a}\right)}{1 + \gamma_n k^{2(p+1)}}.$$

- The ddCOS pricing formula for European options

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{v}(x, t) &= e^{-r(T-t)} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \cos\left(k\pi \frac{Y_{j-a}}{b-a}\right)}{1 + \gamma_n k^{2(p+1)}} \cdot V_k \\ &= e^{-r(T-t)} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \tilde{A}_k V_k. \end{aligned}$$

- As in the original COS method, we must truncate the infinite sum to a finite number of terms N

$$\tilde{v}(x, t) = e^{-r(T-t)} \sum_{k=0}^N \tilde{A}_k V_k,$$

The data-driven COS method - Greeks

- Data-driven expressions for the Δ and Γ sensitivities.
- Define the corresponding sine coefficients as

$$\tilde{B}_k := \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \sin\left(k\pi \frac{Y_j - a}{b-a}\right)}{1 + \gamma_n k^{2(p+1)}}.$$

- Taking derivatives of the ddCOS pricing formula w.r.t the samples, Y_j , the data-driven Greeks, $\tilde{\Delta}$ and $\tilde{\Gamma}$, can be obtained by

$$\tilde{\Delta} = e^{-r(T-t)} \sum_{k=0}^N \tilde{B}_k \cdot \left(-\frac{k\pi}{b-a}\right) \cdot \frac{V_k}{S(0)},$$

$$\tilde{\Gamma} = e^{-r(T-t)} \sum_{k=0}^N \left(\tilde{B}_k \cdot \frac{k\pi}{b-a} - \tilde{A}_k \cdot \left(\frac{k\pi}{b-a}\right)^2 \right) \cdot \frac{V_k}{S^2(0)}.$$

The data-driven COS method - Variance reduction

- The ddCOS method admits in the computation of \tilde{A}_k .
- Here, *antithetic variates* (AV) to our method. Since the samples must be i.i.d., an immediate application of AV is not possible.
- Assume antithetic samples, Y'_i , that can be computed without computational effort, a new estimator

$$\bar{A}_k := \frac{1}{2} \left(\tilde{A}_k + \tilde{A}'_k \right),$$

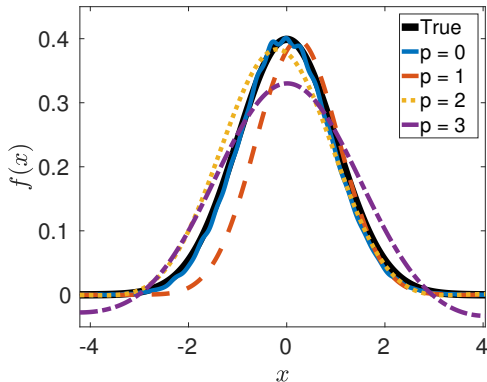
where \tilde{A}'_k are “antithetic coefficients”, obtained from Y'_i .

- It can be proved that the use of \bar{A}_k results in a variance reduction.
- Additional information to reduce the variance. For example, the martingale property

$$\begin{aligned} S(T) &= S(T) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n S_j(T) + \mathbb{E}[S(T)], \\ &= S(T) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n S_j(T) + S(0) \exp(rT). \end{aligned}$$

Choice of parameters in ddCOS method

- The choice of optimal values of γ_n and p .
- There is no rule or procedure to obtain an optimal p .
- As a rule of thumb, $p = 0$ seems to be the most appropriate value.
- Fixing p , we rely on the computation of an optimal γ_n .



Choice of γ_n

- γ_n impacts the efficiency of the ddCOS method: it is related to the number of samples, n , and number of terms, N .
- For the regularization parameter γ_n , a rule that ensures asymptotic convergence

$$\gamma_n = \frac{\log \log n}{n}.$$

- In practical situations: not optimal.
- Exploit the relation between the empirical and real (unknown) CDFs.

Choice of γ_n

- This relation can be modeled by *statistical laws* or *statistics*: Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Anderson-Darling, Smirnov-Cramér–von Mises.
- Preferable: a measure of the distance between the $F_n(x)$ and $F(x)$ follows a known distribution.
- We have chosen Smirnov-Cramér–von Mises(SCvM):

$$\omega^2 = n \int_{\mathbb{R}} (F(x) - F_n(x))^2 dF(x).$$

- Assume we have an approximation, F_{γ_n} (which depends on γ_n).
- An *almost* optimal γ_n is computed by solving the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(F_{\gamma_n}(\bar{X}_i) - \frac{i - 0.5}{n} \right)^2 = m_S - \frac{i}{12n},$$

where $\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2, \dots, \bar{X}_n$ is the ordered array of samples X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n and m_S the mean of the ω^2 .

Influence of γ_n

- To assess the impact of γ_n : *Mean integrated Squared Error* (MiSE):

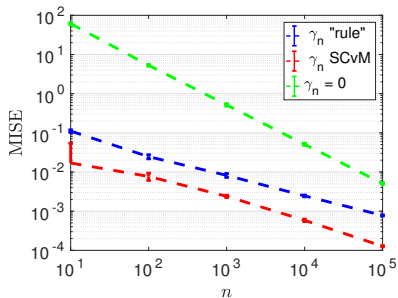
$$\mathbb{E} \left[\|f_n - f\|_2^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} (f_n(x) - f(x))^2 dx \right].$$

- A formula for the MiSE formula is derived in our context:

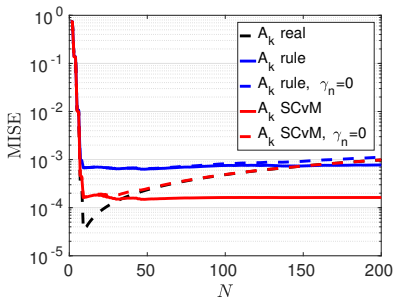
$$\text{MISE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{(1 + \gamma_n k^{2(p+1)})^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} A_{2k} - A_k^2 \right) + \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} A_k^2.$$

- Two main aspects influenced γ_n : accuracy in n and stability in N .
- The quality of the approximated density can be also affected.

Influence of γ_n



(a) Convergence in terms of n



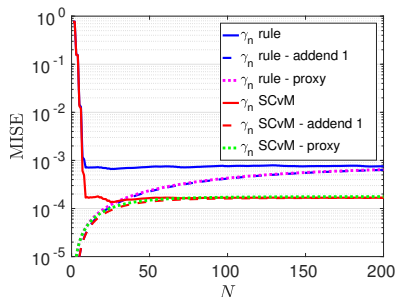
(b) Convergence in terms of N

Figure: Influence of γ_n : .

Optimal number of terms N

- Try to find a *minimum optimal* value of N .
- N considerably affects the performance.
- We wish to avoid the computation of any \hat{A}_k .
- We define a proxy for the MiSE and follow:

$$\text{MiSE} \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{(1 + \gamma_n k^{2(p+1)})^2}.$$



Optimal number of terms N

Data: n, γ_n

$$N_{min} = 5$$

$$N_{max} = \infty$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\text{MiSE}_{prev} = \infty$$

for $N = N_{min} : N_{max}$ **do**

$$\text{MiSE}_N = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{(1 + \gamma_n k^{2(p+1)})^2}$$

$$\epsilon_N = \frac{|\text{MiSE}_N - \text{MiSE}_{prev}|}{|\text{MiSE}_N|}$$

if $\epsilon_N > \epsilon$ **then**

$$\quad N_{op} = N$$

else

 Break

$$\text{MiSE}_{prev} = \text{MiSE}_N$$

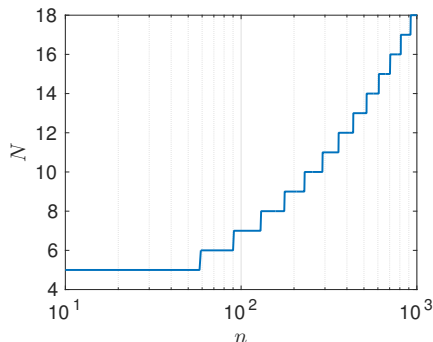


Figure: Almost optimal N .

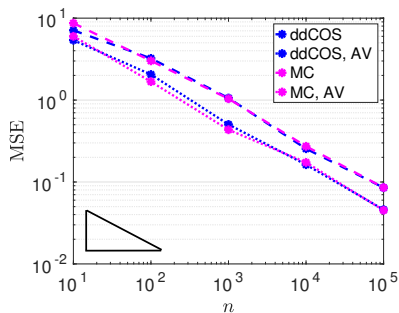
Applications of the ddCOS method

- Pricing options (no better than Monte Carlo).
- Sensitivities or Greeks.
- Models without analytic characteristic function. SABR model.
- Risk measures: VaR and Expected shortfall.
- Combinations.

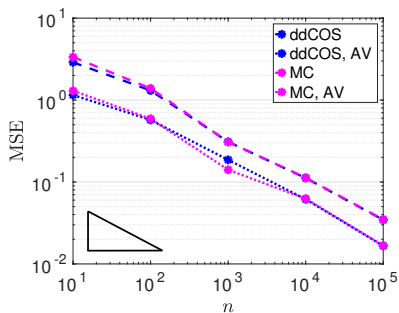
Applications of the ddCOS method

- Unfortunately, the γ_n based on the SCvM statistic does not provide any benefit.
- The use of the γ_n rule entails faster ddCOS estimators.
- ddCOS converges with the expected convergence rate $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{n})$.
- The variance reduction techniques are successfully applied.
- In Greeks computation, Monte Carlo-based methods may require one or two extra simulations.
- In the convergence tests, the reported values are computed as the average of 50 experiments.

Applications of the ddCOS - Option pricing



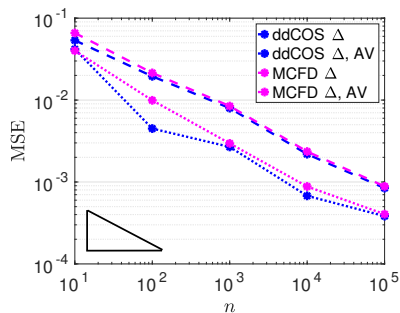
(a) Call: Strike $K = 100$.



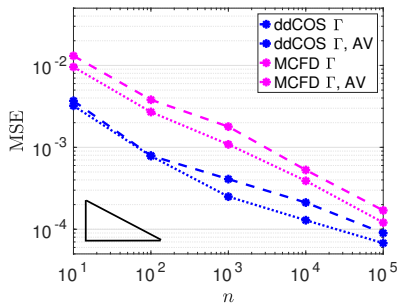
(b) Put: Strike $K = 100$.

Figure: Convergence in prices of the ddCOS method: Antithetic Variates (AV); GBM, $S(0) = 100$, $r = 0.1$, $\sigma = 0.3$ and $T = 2$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Greeks estimation



(a) Δ (Call): Strike $K = 100$.



(b) Γ : Strike $K = 100$.

Figure: Convergence in Greeks of the ddCOS method: Antithetic Variates (AV); GBM, $S(0) = 100$, $r = 0.1$, $\sigma = 0.3$ and $T = 2$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Greeks estimation

K (% of $S(0)$)	80%	90%	100%	110%	120%
0.1	Δ				
Ref.	0.8868	0.8243	0.7529	0.6768	0.6002
ddCOS	0.8867	0.8240	0.7528	0.6769	0.6002
RE	1.1012×10^{-4}				
MCFD	0.8876	0.8247	0.7534	0.6773	0.6006
RE	7.5168×10^{-4}				
	Γ				
Ref.	0.0045	0.0061	0.0074	0.0085	0.0091
ddCOS	0.0045	0.0062	0.0075	0.0084	0.0090
RE	8.5423×10^{-3}				
MCFD	0.0045	0.0059	0.0071	0.0079	0.0083
RE	4.9554×10^{-2}				

Table: GBM call option Greeks: $S(0) = 100$, $r = 0.1$, $\sigma = 0.3$ and $T = 2$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Greeks estimation

K (% of $S(0)$)	80%	90%	100%	110%	120%
	Δ				
Ref.	0.8385	0.8114	0.7847	0.7584	0.7328
ddCOS	0.8383	0.8113	0.7846	0.7585	0.7333
RE	2.7155×10^{-4}				
MCFD	0.8387	0.8118	0.7850	0.7586	0.7330
RE	3.1265×10^{-4}				
	Γ				
Ref.	0.0022	0.0024	0.0027	0.0029	0.0030
ddCOS	0.0022	0.0024	0.0027	0.0029	0.0030
RE	8.2711×10^{-3}				
MCFD	0.0023	0.0026	0.0028	0.0031	0.0033
RE	6.118×10^{-2}				

Table: Merton jump-diffusion call option Greeks: $S(0) = 100$, $r = 0.1$, $\sigma = 0.3$, $\mu_j = -0.2$, $\sigma_j = 0.2$ and $\lambda = 8$ and $T = 2$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Greeks estimation

K (% of $S(0)$)	80%	90%	100%	110%	120%
	Δ				
Ref.	0.9914	0.9284	0.5371	0.0720	0.0058
ddCOS	0.9916	0.9282	0.5363	0.0732	0.0058
RE	5.2775×10^{-3}				
MCFD	0.9911	0.9279	0.5368	0.0737	0.0058
RE	5.5039×10^{-3}				

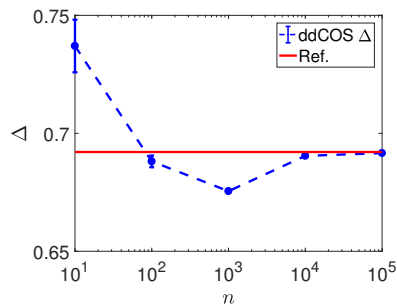
Table: Call option Greek Δ under the SABR model: $S(0) = 100$, $r = 0$, $\sigma_0 = 0.3$, $\alpha = 0.4$, $\beta = 0.6$, $\rho = -0.25$ and $T = 2$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Greeks estimation

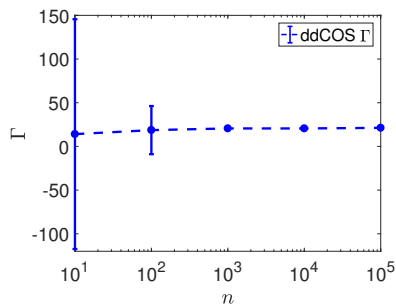
K (% of $S(0)$)	80%	90%	100%	110%	120%
	Δ				
Ref.	0.8384	0.7728	0.6931	0.6027	0.5086
ddCOS	0.8364	0.7703	0.6902	0.6006	0.5084
RE	2.7855×10^{-3}				
Hagan	0.8577	0.7955	0.7170	0.6249	0.5265
RE	3.1751×10^{-2}				

Table: Δ under SABR model. Setting: Call, $S(0) = 0.04$, $r = 0.0$, $\sigma_0 = 0.4$, $\alpha = 0.8$, $\beta = 1.0$, $\rho = -0.5$ and $T = 2$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Greeks estimation



(a) Δ : Strike $K = 0.04$.



(b) Γ : Strike $K = 0.04$.

Figure: The ddCOS method: Greeks convergence test.

Applications of the ddCOS - Risk measures

- In the context of the Delta-Gamma approach (COS in [OGO14]).
- The change in a portfolio value can be generalized.

$$L := -\Delta V = V(S, t) - V(S + \Delta S, t + \Delta t).$$

- The formal definition of the VaR reads

$$\mathbb{P}(\Delta V < \text{VaR}(q)) = 1 - F_L(\text{VaR}(q)) = q,$$

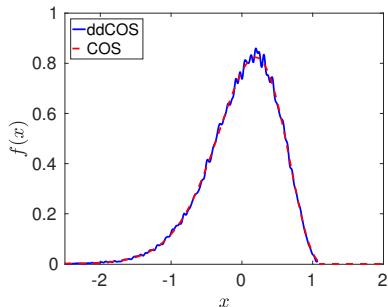
with q a predefined confidence level.

- Given the VaR, the ES measure is computed as

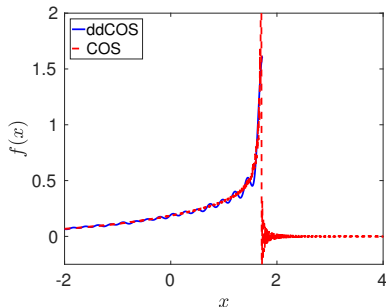
$$\text{ES} := \mathbb{E}[\Delta V | \Delta V > \text{VaR}(q)].$$

- Two portfolios with the same composition: one European call and half a European put on the same asset, maturity 60 days and $K = 101$.
- Different time horizons: 1 day (Portfolio 1) and 10 days (Portfolio 2).
The asset follows a GBM with $S(0) = 100$, $r = 0.1$ and $\sigma = 0.3$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Risk measures



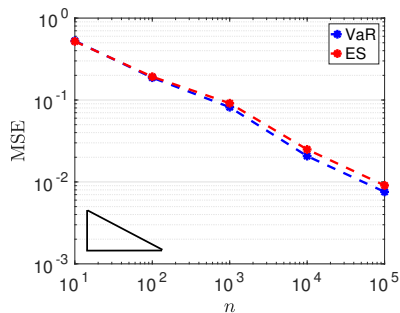
(a) Density Portfolio 1.



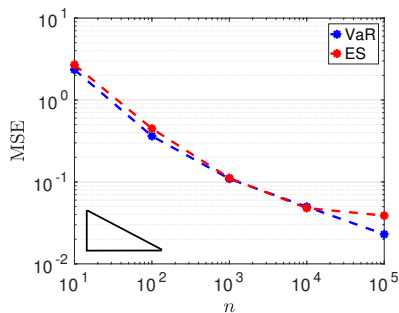
(b) Density Portfolio 2.

Figure: Recovered densities of L : ddCOS vs. COS.

Applications of the ddCOS - Risk measures



(a) Portfolio 1: $q = 99\%$.

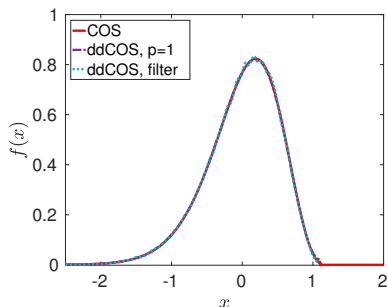


(b) Portfolio 2: $q = 90\%$.

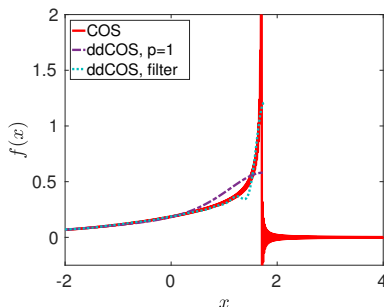
Figure: VaR and ES convergence in n .

Applications of the ddCOS - Risk measures

- The oscillations can be removed.
- Two options: smoothing parameter or filters [RVO14].



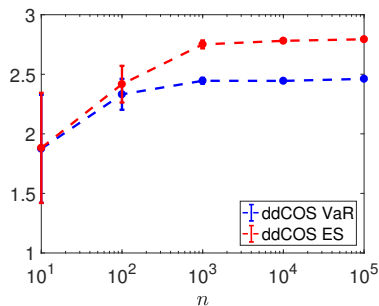
(a) Density Portfolio 1.



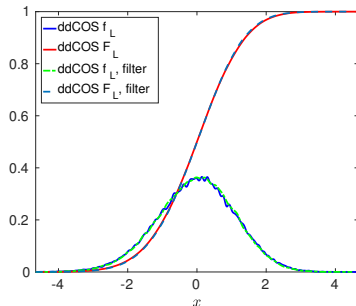
(b) Density Portfolio 2.

Figure: Smoothed densities of L .

Applications of the ddCOS - Risk measures and SABR



(a) VaR and ES: $q = 99\%$.



(b) F_L and f_L .

Figure: Delta-Gamma approach under the SABR model. Setting: $S(0) = 100$, $K = 100$, $r = 0.0$, $\sigma_0 = 0.4$, $\alpha = 0.8$, $\beta = 1.0$, $\rho = -0.5$, $T = 2$, $q = 99\%$ and $\Delta t = 1/365$.

Applications of the ddCOS - Risk measures and SABR






q	10%	30%	50%	70%	90%
VaR	-1.4742	-0.5917	-0.0022	0.5789	1.3862
ES	0.1972	0.5345	0.8644	1.2517	1.8744

Table: VaR and ES under SABR model. Setting: $S(0) = 100$, $K = 100$, $r = 0.0$, $\sigma_0 = 0.4$, $\alpha = 0.8$, $\beta = 1.0$, $\rho = -0.5$, $T = 2$, and $\Delta t = 1/365$.

Conclusions

- The ddCOS method extends the COS method applicability to cases when only data samples of the underlying are available.
- The method exploits a closed-form solution, in terms of Fourier cosine expansions, of a regularization problem.
- It allows to develop a data-driven method which can be employed for option pricing and risk management.
- The ddCOS method particularly results in an efficient method for the Δ and Γ sensitivities computation, based solely on the samples.
- It can be employed within the Delta-Gamma approximation for calculating risk measures.
- A possible future extension may be the use of other basis functions. Haar wavelets are for example interesting since they provide positive densities and allow an efficient treatment of dynamic data.

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Thank you for your attention