The Heston–Hull–White Model Part II: Numerics and Examples

Holger Kammeyer

University of Goettingen

Joerg Kienitz

Dt. Postbank AG, e-mail: joerg.kienitz@postbank.de

1 Introduction

This is the second article in a series of three on financial modeling using the Heston-Hull-White model. The aim of this series is to show the full life cycle of model development and implementation.

This article reviews the methods for pricing European options and suggests fast numerical methods for the pricing procedure. In our case we consider the pricing of calls and puts as well as caps and floors using the Carr and Madan (1999) framework. There have been many frameworks suggested in the literature, see for instance Fang and Osterlee (2008), Attari (2004), Lord (2008), Lewis (2000). We review the method of computing stable prices by optimal dampening, see Lord and Kahl (2006). The suggested instruments are liquid traded options and can be used in a calibration procedure. This is a backward problem. We try to infer model parameters from market quotes. Backward problems are known to be unstable but these methods are frequently used to estimate model parameters. Therefore, we show which algorithms may be used to tackle this problem.

Finally, we proceed by considering discretization methods which can then be applied in Monte Carlo simulation to price exotic path dependent payoffs. For the model under consideration we propose to implement a stable numerical scheme based on Andersen (2006). There are several new methods for discretizing a square root dynamic, see for instance Glasserman and Kim (2008), Van Haastrecht (2008) or Chan and Joshi (2010).

For all the algorithms we provide source code which can be obtained by writing to joerg.kienitz(at)gmx.de.

In the third and final article of this series we describe a software framework which implements the discussed methods and can be used to apply the Heston-Hull-White model to financial problems. We show how to combine the discussed numerical methods to create a self-contained pricing, hedging and calibration framework.

2 Numerical Methods for Calibration - Fast Fourier Transform

In this section we compute the characteristic function we use for pricing European options. We review a standard algorithm which we used for pricing and calibration purposes. However, we mention some known problems and show how to overcome such problems. This leads to a stable pricing and calibration procedure.

Even though the characteristic function of the Heston–Hull–White model - derived in the first article of the series - is similar to the Heston characteristic function, the additional factor requires a significant additional amount of computing time. For example the term

$$
\mathbb{E}[R_{t,T} | \mathcal{F}_t] = B(t,T)(r_t - \psi_t) + \log \left(\frac{P^M(0,t)}{P^M(0,T)} \right) + \frac{1}{2}(V(0,T) - V(0,t))
$$

appearing in calculations includes the market discount curve. Low performance computations however are a bottleneck for a calibration procedure since many computations of the price are necessary.

2.1 The Carr Madan method

Despite the fact that at the time of writing many different methods for computing option prices from the characteristic function exist, for instance Fang and Osterlee (2008) or Lewis (2000), we apply the method introduced in Carr and Madan (1999). It offers the possibility of high performance computations. The idea is to compute the prices for a given maturity but across the whole strike range using a single Fast Fourier Transform. That is of particular importance for pricing with smiles and skews.

By a change of numeraire argument, see for instance Brigo and Mercurio (2006), section 2, the price of a call option is given by

$$
C_{\mathcal{F}_t}(T,K) = P(t,T)\mathbb{E}^T\left((S_T - K)^+ \mid \mathcal{F}_t\right) = P(t,T)C_T(k)
$$

$$
C_T(k) = \int_k^{\infty} (\exp(s) - \exp(k))q_T(s)ds \tag{1}
$$

with the log strike price, *k* = log *K*. The expectation is taken with respect to the *T*–forward measure Q^{r} . Thus q_{r} denotes the density of S_{r} with respect to Q^{T} conditioned on \mathcal{F}_{t} . In order to apply the FFT the non-discounted price (1) has to be square integrable as a function of *k*. Since a zero strike implies that the payoff is equal to the forward we see that $\mathit{C}_{_{\mathit{T}}}$ does not tend to zero as *k*→ −∞. To obtain square integrability Carr and Madan propose to introduce a factor $\exp(\alpha k)$, $\alpha > 0$, and take the Fourier transform with respect to $c_T(k) = \exp(\alpha k)C_T(k)$. One may expect that this function is square integrable for a range of positive values of α . The price below does not analytically depend on α. However, the numerical error that occurs when approximating the continuous Fourier transform by the discrete Fast Fourier Transform relies heavily on the choice of α . As an inverse transform (1) is given by

$$
C_T(k) = \frac{\exp(-\alpha k)}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-iuk)\psi_T(u)du = \frac{\exp(-\alpha k)}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} \exp(-iuk)\psi_T(u)du
$$

with $\psi_T(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(iuk)c_T(k)dk$ denoting the Fourier transform of c_T . The function ψ_{T} is related to the *T*–forward characteristic function ϕ_{T} of $S_{\vec{T}}$ $|\: \mathcal{F}_{\vec{t}}$ via the formula:

$$
\psi_T(u) = \frac{\phi_T(u - (\alpha + 1)i)}{\alpha^2 + \alpha - u^2 + i(2\alpha + 1)u}
$$
\n(2)

.

Note that α > 0 is also a technical requirement since the FFT algorithm evaluates the integrand in zero. The *T*–forward characteristic function ϕ_T can be expressed in terms of the ordinary characteristic function *f* as follows. By means of Bayes' rule we have

$$
\phi_T(u) = \mathbb{E}^T(\exp(iuX_T) | \mathcal{F}_t)
$$

$$
= \frac{\mathbb{E}(\exp(iuX_T)\frac{dQ^T}{dQ} | \mathcal{F}_t)}{\mathbb{E}(\frac{dQ^T}{dQ} | \mathcal{F}_t)}
$$

For the Radon–Nikodym derivative $\frac{dQ^T}{dQ}$ we have

$$
\frac{dQ^{T}}{dQ} = \frac{\exp(-\int_0^T r_s ds)}{P(0,T)} = \frac{D(0,T)}{P(0,T)} = \frac{D(0,t)D(t,T)}{P(0,T)}.
$$

Thus, for the Heston–Hull–White model we have

$$
P(t, T)\phi_T(u) = \mathbb{E}[D(t, T) \exp(iuX_T) | \mathcal{F}_t]
$$

\n
$$
= \mathbb{E}[\exp(-R_{t,T} + iuX_T) | \mathcal{F}_t]
$$

\n
$$
= \mathbb{E}[\exp(R_{t,T}i(u + i) + X_{HT}iu) | \mathcal{F}_t]
$$

\n
$$
= \phi_R(u + i, t, T)\phi_H(u, t, T)
$$

\n
$$
=:\tilde{\phi}_{HHW}(u, t, T).
$$
 (3)

In the above equation, *R*() again denotes the integrated short rate. We see that using the *T*–forward measure is very convenient. All discounting issues are done shifting the integration line of the integrated short rate characteristic function by one imaginary unit. Now, set ψ as in (2) but substituting ϕ ^T with $\tilde{\phi}$ HHW. Then, what we implement as a first step is the following formula

$$
C_{\mathcal{F}_t}(T,K) = \frac{\exp(-\alpha k)}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \exp(-iuk)\psi_T(u)du.
$$
 (4)

The following piece of code gives the implementation:

void FFT::run() { double SwitchSign, DeltaJ0;

 complex<double> IntegrandValue; //integrand value complex<double> EvaluationPoint(0.0, 0.0); //current evaluation point

```
for (unsigned int j = 0; j < N; j++) //initialize array with integrand values
 {
      SwitchSign = (j \; 8 \; 2) ? (-1.0) : 1.0;
          //minus one to the power of j
      DeltaJ0 = i ? 0.0 : 1.0; //Kronecker-Delta
       IntegrandValue = itsOption->
                          Integrand(EvaluationPoint)
       * SwitchSign * eta;
      IntegrandValue * = (1.0 / 3.0) * (3.0 - SwitchSign - DeltaJ0); // correction term
       itsOption->PricingArray[2*j] 
          = IntegrandValue.real();
       itsOption->PricingArray[2*j+1] 
          = IntegrandValue.imag();
       EvaluationPoint += eta;
 // Fast Fourier Transform, see GNU Scientific 
    Library manual
 gsl_fft_complex_radix2_forward
```
(itsOption->PricingArray, 1, N);

}

}

}

There are two points left to remark. The choice of an optimal value of the β parameter α and how we approximate the continuous Fourier transform in (4) as precisely as possible using the FFT algorithm. Finally, we show how to price caplets and floorlets in the Hull–White model. Caplets, **Cpl**, are equivalent to zero bond puts, **ZBP**, via

$$
Cpl(t, t_1, t_2, N, X) = N'ZBP(t, t_1, t_2, X').
$$
\n(5)

Here *t* denotes the present time (which will be zero in the implementation), t_1 and t_2 are starting and ending time of the caplet, *N* is the nominal value and *X* is the strike interest rate. The modified values *X* and *N* are given by

$$
X' = \frac{1}{1 + X(t_2 - t_1)} \quad \text{and} \quad N' = N(1 + X(t_2 - t_1)).\tag{6}
$$

Analogously, we have the formula

$$
\text{Fl1}(t, t_1, t_2, N, X) = N' \text{ZBC}(t, t_1, t_2, X')
$$
\n(7)

which relates floorlets to zero bond calls. This should clarify the source code snippet that computes the caplet or floorlet price.

```
void HullWhite::CapletFloorlet::run()
{
 itsCorP = -itsCorF + 1; itsT = itsStartT;
  itsBondMaturity = itsEndT;
  itsN = itsCapletFloorletN*(1.0 + itsCapletFloorletK*
                              (itsEndT - itsStartT));
 itsK = 1.0 / (1.0 + itsCaplet FloorletK * (itsEndT - itsStartT));
  HullWhite::ZeroBondOption::run();
```
 \geq

The function call in the last command line will compute the zero bond option price using a Black–like formula. The availability of such an analytical formula renders the Hull–White calibration very fast with fast meaning almost instantaneously. The final function call is implemented as follows:

```
void HullWhite::ZeroBondOption::run()
{
       double P_T = getZeroBondValue(itsT);
       double P_S = getZeroBondValue(itsBondMaturity);
      double sigma_p = itsEta * sqrt((1.0 - exp
       (-2.0 * its Lambda * itsT)) / (2.0 * itsLambda)) * factorB(itsT, itsBond 
                     Maturity);
      double h = (1.0 / sigma_p) * log (P_S / (P_T *itsK)) + sigma p / 2.0;
      if(itsCorP == 1)
```

```
 itsPrice = itsN * (P_S * CumulativeNormal(h)
 - itsK * P_T * CumulativeNormal(h - sigma_p));
 else
      itsPrice = itsN * (itsK * P_T * CumulativeNormal(-h + sigma_p)
```

```
 - P_S * CumulativeNormal(-h)); //equation 3.41
```

```
 setUp2D(true);
```
}

2.2 The optimal damping factor

The auxiliary parameter α has to be chosen within a certain range $[α_{_{\min,}} α_{_{\max}}].$ This is to guarantee square integrability. Within the allowed range there are inappropriate choices of α which cause the integrand to be highly oscillating and can lead to significant mispricing of standard options. For instance it can lead to negative prices.

Lord and Kahl (2006) analyzed the problem of computing an optimal dampening parameter. Ideally, an optimization algorithm for α minimizes the total variation of the integrand *y*. This would require more function evaluations than the original problem and thus is mainly useless in practice. Therefore, Lord and Kahl (2006) suggest to minimize the maximal value of the integrand which occurs in zero. They consider

$$
\alpha^* = \underset{\alpha \in (0,\alpha_{\text{max}})}{\operatorname{argmin}} |\exp(-\alpha k)\psi(0)|.
$$

(8)

}

In general α_{\min} will be negative and we assume $\alpha > 0$ there is only one local minimum of this function within the positive reals. So as long as the initial guess the minimization routine starts from is not too large, the minimum will be found without any problems involving the maximal allowed alpha α_{max} which in general is hard to determine.

The following piece of code implements the optimization suggested in Lord and Kahl (2006). For carrying out the optimization we use the LBFGS optimizer implemented in Bochkanov (2010). This library can be downloaded, see references.

void AlphaOptimization::run()

// Computes the optimal alpha

{

const double $epsG = 0.001$; // constant for optimizer const double $epsF = 0.0$; // constant for optimizer const double $epsX = 0.0$; // constant for optimizer const int MaxIts = 100 ; // constant for optimizer ap::real_1d_array x; // alglib real array x.setbounds(1,1); // set dimensionality $x(1) = 1.5;$ ap::integer_1d_array nbd;// alglib int array nbd.setbounds(1,1); $nbd(1) = 1$; // range for alpha (only lower bound) ap::real_1d_array lbound;// alglib real array lbound.setbounds(1,1); 1 bound(1) = 0.01 ; //lower bound of allowed range ap::real_1d_array ubound;// alglib real array ubound.setbounds(1,1); ubound $(1) = 5.0$; //upper bound of allowed range. only needed if nbd = 2. int info; // the lbfgs optimizer lbfgsbminimize(MinFunc, itsOption, 1, 1, x, epsG, epsF, epsX, MaxIts, nbd, lbound, ubound, info); itsOption->setAlpha(x(1)); //optimal alpha is found

2.3 FFT approximation of continuous Fourier transforms

The precompiled FFT algorithm we wish to apply is taken from the GNU Scientific Library, GSL (2010). It computes the finite sum

$$
x_k = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} z_j \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi}{N} ijk\right)
$$
\n(9)

with *k* ranging from 1 to *N*. From (9) we expect the computation time to correspond to an ordinary square matrix multiplication, i.e. to be of order *O*(*N*²). The FFT algorithm improves this computation time to order *N* times the sum of the prime factors of *N*. Thus *N* is chosen to be a power of two resulting in an *O*(*N* log *N*) performance which is a very considerable improvement.

It is implemented using the function

```
int gsl_fft_complex_radix2_forward (gsl_complex_packed_
```
 array data, const size_t stride, const size_t n);

of the GSL (2010) library. The latter is available for free. The integral in (4) has the naive approximation

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \exp(-ij\eta k)\psi(j\eta)\eta \tag{10}
$$

as a Riemann sum from zero to *Nh*. To compute one single call price we normalize the strike *K* to one. The spot price has to be divided by the strike and

then it is inserted into the model equations. The latter has the advantage that (8) simplifies to

$$
\alpha^* = \underset{\alpha \in (0, \alpha_{\text{max}})}{\operatorname{argmin}} |\psi(0)|. \tag{11}
$$

For the calibration we write spot and strike as multiples of the forward. Thus, the call prices which can be deduced from one single FFT will range around the at–the–money level just like the market prices do. With these scalings the grid of *k* should be centered in zero and is of fineness

$$
\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{N\eta}.\tag{12}
$$

The grid thus lies within $[-b,b]$ with $b = \frac{\lambda N}{2} = \frac{\pi}{\eta}$. Substituting $k \mapsto -b + u\lambda$ with $u = 0,...,N-1$ we obtain

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi}{N} i j u\right) (-1)^j \psi(i\eta)\eta . \tag{13}
$$

For accuracy both a small η (reducing discretization errors) and a small λ (reducing interpolation errors) are desirable. But a simultaneous diminishment is prevented by the relation

$$
\lambda \eta = \frac{2\pi}{N}
$$

because *N* is not only limited by computation time but also by the maximal possible power of two integer on the working machine. For this reason we apply the Simpson's rule with a correction factor as in Carr and Madan (1999),

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \exp\bigg(-\frac{2\pi}{N} i j u\bigg)(-1)^j \psi(i\eta) \frac{\eta}{3} (3+(-1)^{j+1}-\delta_{j0}).\tag{14}
$$

Note that especially for prices of in–the–money options linear interpolation between two known prices is not completely wrong. That is why a bit contrary to the values recommended by Carr and Madan (1999) we experienced that choosing *η* according to the rule $\eta = \frac{2^{14}}{N}$ 10⁻³ works fine in practice.

3 Monte Carlo Heston–Hull–White pricing

With regard to the model dynamic we observe that each time step on the path of the asset price has to be preceded by a time step resulting from simulating the evolution of the variance. To obtain an acceptable computation time we wish to implement a discretization scheme with very small bias. To this end we have modified the Quadratic Exponential scheme introduced in Andersen (2006). Source code in C++ has been presented in Duffy and Kienitz (2009) and a version in Visual Basic can be found in Staunton (2007).

3.1 The drifted Quadratic Exponential Scheme

For the Heston model a discretization scheme has been proposed by Andersen (2006). It discretizes the non–central chi square distributed variance process by a dirac delta with an exponential tail for small values of the variance and by a squared gaussian random variable for larger values of the variance. Again, it is the simplicity of the Gaussian distribution of the short rate Ornstein Uhlenbeck process that allows us to extend the discretization scheme of Andersen (2006) in a bias–free way to include stochastic interest rates. This is possible by sampling just one additional random number for each path since the integrated short rate at maturity is independent and normally distributed with the known parameters. By the Hull-White decomposition the resulting drift is added to the zero short rate final value of the Heston process. We have

$$
X_T = R_{0,T} + \hat{X}_T \tag{15}
$$

where $\hat{X}_{{}_{T}}$ is the ordinary QE–scheme as in Andersen (2006), p. 19, equation (33).

There is the common problem with Monte Carlo methods that both variance and short rate can become negative during the simulation process. In case of the Heston variance this is only due to the discretization since a CIR process has almost sure non zero paths. To compute the asset price the square root of the variance is taken. Thus, negative values cause errors. The QE–scheme overcomes this issue. In case of negative short rates resulting from the Hull–White model the discretization is not problematic since no range of definition is exceeded. It can indeed occur that after a time step some negative drift arises. This is a general feature of the Hull–White model and not of the Monte Carlo simulation.

For the implementation of the drifted QE scheme we choose the following constants with respect to the model parameters:

```
double gamma1 = 0.5; // see Andersen, section 4.2double gamma2 = 1.0 - \text{gamma1};
     itsConst[0] = -((rho * kappa * vLong) / omega) * itsDeltaT; //K_0
     itsConst[1] = qammal * itsDeltaT * (kappa * rho /omega - 0.5) - rho / omega; //K_1
     itsConst[2] = gamma2 * itsDeltaT * (kappa * rho /
           omega - 0.5) + rho / omega; //K_2
     itsConst[3] = qamma1 * itsDeltaT * (1 - rho * rho); //K_3
     itsConst[4] = gamma2 * itsDeltaT * (1 - rho * rho);
```
Using these constants we implement the drifted QE scheme. To this end we have implemented a function which takes as an input two arrays of uniformly distributed random variables WI1 and WI2 which are then transformed to the desired variates. The following piece of code implements this method:

void HestonHullWhite::MonteCarlo::QE(double WI1, double $WT2)$

 $\{$

 // Calculate the solution at time level n+1 in terms of solution at time level n double result[3];

 // N.B. This assumes that WI1 and WI2 are uniformly distributed

 // 1.Variance - see Andersen's paper double Psi; // switching parameter

```
double Psi C = 1.5; // switching
                     parameter
                   //Parameters used in for loop
                   double a, b2, p, beta, m, s2, c4;
                   //This becomes a Gaussian variate in the 
                     for loop.
                  double GV = 0.0;
                  double Coeff1 = exp(- itsKappa*itsDeltaT);
                  double Coeff2 = 1.0 - Coeff1; double Coeff3 = itsOmega * itsOmega / 
                     itsKappa;
                  m = itsVLong + (itsVec[2] - itsVLong) *
                     Coeff1;
                  s2 = itsVec[2] * Coeff1 * Coeff2 * Coeff3 + 0.5 * itsVLong * Coeff2 * Coeff2 
                            * Coeff3;
                   // martingale correction is required? 
                     Store Psi for each time step
                  Psi = s2 / (m * m); //Switching Parameter Psi_C
                   if (Psi <= Psi_C)
\{ //V[t+Delta] approximated as non 
                            central chi-square
                         //with one degree of freedom
                        c4 = 2.0 / Psi:
                        b2 = max(c4 - 1.0 + sqrt(c4*(-4 - 1.0)),0.0); //eq. (27)
                        a = m / (1.0 + b2); //eq. (28)
                         //If martingale correction is 
                            required store a and b2
                         //for each time step since it is 
                            needed for calculation of S(t).
                        GV = (sqrt(b2) + InverseCumulative 
                            Normal(WI1));
                        result[2] = a * (GV * GV); //step c
 }
                   else
\{ //Approximation Density with 
                            Dirac mass and exponential tail
                        p = (Psi - 1.0) / (Psi + 1.0); eq. (29)
                        beta = (1-p) / m; // eq. (30)
                         //If martingale correction is 
                          required store p and beta at each
                         //time step since it is required 
                            to calculate S(t)
```
// eq. (25)

```
if (WI1 \le p)result[2] = 0.0; else
                             result[2] = log((1.0 - p) / (1.0 - WI1)) / beta;
 }
                 result[1] = itsConst[0] + itsConst[1] * itsVec[2] + itsConst[2] * result[2] +
            sqrt(itsConst[3] * itsVec[2]
            + itsConst[4] * result[2]) * InverseCumulative 
                    Normal(WI2);
                 itsVec[1] += result[1];itsVec[2] = result[2];
```
The main part of the code is the implementation of the switching rule as suggested in the original work by A06. The final value result[1] is a predictor corrector scheme applied to the previously generated values.

}

 $\sqrt{2}$

Finally, the Monte Carlo estimator can be implemented. It calls the QE scheme and it is given by:

```
void HestonHullWhite::MonteCarlo::run()
        setSeed();
        //path variables
        double SumCallValue = 0.0;
       double SumPutValue = 0.0;
      double SumIntegralR = 0.0;
       double SumDiscountFactor = 0.0;
       double WI1, WI2; //uniformly distributed 
                                        randoms
       int seed = (int)time(NULL); // use system time to
                                        produce random seed
      MersenneTwister2 mt; // init Mersenne Twister
       mt.SetSeed(seed); // set the seed
       for(int i = 1; i \le i tsNSIM; +i) // loop over
                                                     simulations
        {
               // variables containing current values
              itsVec[1] = log(itsS); // log of
                                                     stock price
               itsVec[2] = itsVInst; // variance
              for(int nt = 1; nt \leq it{\text{SNT}}; +nt) // loop over
                                                        time steps
               {// get random numbers
                     WI1 = mt.GetRandomNumber();
                      WI2 = mt.GetRandomNumber();
                      QE(WI1, WI2); // Call QE 
scheme and the state of the
 }
               // Hull White integrated short rate process is 
                        normally distributed
               double Z = InverseCumulativeNormal(mt. 
                        GetRandomNumber());
```

```
double IntR = getMeanOfIntegral(itsRInst,
                0.0, itsT)
    + sqrt(getVarianceOfIntegral(0.0, itsT)) * Z;
 // store integrated short rate process as well as 
     discount factor
      SumCallValue += \exp(-IntR) * max(0.0,exp(itsVec[1] + IntR) - itsK);SumPutValue += \exp(-IntR) * max(0.0, itsK - exp(itsVec[1] + IntR));
       SumIntegralR += IntR;
       SumDiscountFactor += exp(-IntR);
 }
 //compute arithmetic means as an estimator of 
        expectations
 itsIntegralR = SumIntegralR / itsNSIM;
 itsDiscountFactor = SumDiscountFactor / itsNSIM;
 itsCall = SumCallValue / itsNSIM;
 itsPut = SumPutValue / itsNSIM;
 itsPrice = itsCorP ? itsCall : itsPut;
```
}

The code may be modified such that the seed is an argument. Then, using the same seed anytime the simulation starts the random generator produces the same stream of random numbers. We have chosen the system clock to generate a seed. Therefore, for each run you get different random numbers and therefore different realisations for the Monte Carlo estimator.

This presented piece of code is used to price European call and put options. For valuing path dependent options we have to modify the Monte Carlo simulation by storing all the relevant points in the path itsVec []. Then, the payoff corresponding to the path dependent option can be evaluated.

3.2 Numerical Test

setUp2D(true);

We apply the methods to the following sets of parameters:

The following results on the one hand show that the prices calculated via FFT and MC agree and therefore we can be sure that both methods are implemented correctly. On the other hand we observe that the performance of the MC is worse for long maturities. Table 2 summarizes our findings:

To get a better view on the results we have plotted the outcomes, see figure 1.

The correct mean of discount factors

When the number of path simulations is exceeded we just set the element variable itsIntegralR equal to SumIntegralR divided by this number

 \geq

Figure 1: Prices and Differences using FFT and MC methods. We have plotted the difference between the MC price to the FFT price as the error. The *x***-axes are the strikes and the** *y***-axes is the option price, resp. the difference in %.**

to obtain the arithmetic mean as an estimator for the expectation. One might then be tempted to set

itsDiscountFactor = exp(-itsIntegralR);

But since

$$
\exp\bigg(-\frac{1}{N}\sum_{k=1}^{N}\int_{0}^{T}r_{t}^{k}dt\bigg)=\sqrt[N]{\prod_{k=1}^{N}P_{k}(0,T)}
$$

this would compute the geometric mean of discount factors. The law of large numbers however suggests that the correct estimator for the mean of a random variable is the arithmetic mean. Therefore, the correct code is

 $\bf\rm{>}$


```
{
```
}

```
 (...)
  SumDiscountFactor += exp(-intR);
(...)
```
itsDiscountFactor = SumDiscountFactor / itsNSIM;.

The variable names should explain what they stand for. This completes the discussion of implementation. We will now proceed to some experiments with our model.

4 Numerical Example and Extensions

4.1 Numerical Example

Finally, we show the result of a calibration of the Heston–Hull–White model to market prices. The market prices are summarized in section 5. To this end we calibrate the Hull–White model to an initial yield curve, Table 4, as well as to caps and floors, Table 5. The other parameters are then calibrated using the previously calibrated Hull-White parameters. We show the calibration results and compare the results to a calibration of a Heston model. We use tables 6 and 7. First, we consider the calibration of the Hull–White model to caplet and floorlet prices as well as the given yield curve. We show the calibration results in Figure 2.

Second, we consider the calibration of the Heston–Hull–White model and a Heston model to the same call and put prices. Figure 3 shows the calibration error of both models and also the prices from both models with respect to the market prices are given.

Summarizing we remark that for long dated options, especially if they are out–of–the–money, the Heston–Hull–White model shows superior results to the Heston model.

Figure 2: Calibration error for Hull–White model to market prices from Table 5. The *x***-axes are the used options and the** *y***-axes are the option prices, resp. the error in %**

TECHNICAL PAPER

 $\mathbf{>}$

Figure 3: Calibration error of the Heston–Hull–White and the Heston model (left) and the model and market prices (right). The *x***-axes are the used options and the** *y***-axes is the error in %, resp. the option price. The market data is given by Tables 6 and 7.**

4.2 Extensions

We stress the point that the model is easily extendable to a Bates–Hull– White model since it is commonly assumed that the jumps in the Bates model are independent of the volatility and the interest rates. Therefore, the implementation corresponds to a multiplication of the characteristic function.

Furthermore, it is possible to compute greeks very efficiently. Table 3 summarizes the possible extensions we have implemented. The results have been produced using the following parameters $T = 10$, $K = 100$, $S(0) = 95$, $r =$ 4.09% and $\tilde{v} = 0.02$, $v(0) = 0.02$, $\kappa = 0.2$, $\rho = -0.6$, $v = 0.5$ for the Heston dynamic as well as σ = 0.05, κ = 0.3 for the Hull–White model and finally, for the jump component λ = 0.2 (jump intensity), σ_{J} = 0.05 (jump volatility) and μ_{J} = 0.2 (average jump size).

5 Market Data

This section contains the used market data for the yield curve, caplets, floorlets, and the index options.

Holger Kammeyer is studying toward his Ph.D. in mathematics. He researches geometric L2 invariants. He holds a diploma (with distinction) in mathematics from the University of Goettingen. Before he started his Ph.D. research, he worked as a teaching assistant, did an internship at Deutsche Postbank with the Quantiative Analysis group, and completed a one year graduate study at UC Berkeley.

Joerg Kienitz is the head of Quantitative Analysis at Deutsche Postbank AG. He is primarily involved in the development and implementation of models for pricing structured products, derivatives, and asset allocation. He authored a number of quantitative finance papers and his book "Monte Carlo Frameworks" was published with Wiley in 2009. A new Wiley book, "Financial Modelling – Theory, Implementatin and Practice with Matlab Source Code" will

be published in spring 2012. He is member of the editorial board of the *International Review of Applied Financial Issues and Economics***.** He holds a Ph.D. in stochastic analysis and probability theory**.**

REFERENCES

J. Andersen. 2006. Efficient Simulation of the Heston Stochastic Volatility Model. Preprint. M. Attari. 2004. Option pricing using fourier transforms: A numerically efficient simplification. Working paper, Charles River Associates.

S. Bochkanov. 2010. Alglib financial library. www.alglib.net.

D. Brigo and F. Mercurio. 2006. *Interest Rate Models - Theory and Practice, 2nd ed.* Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, New York.

P. Carr and D. Madan. 1999. Option Valuation using the Fast Fourier Transform. *Journal of Computational Finance*, (4): 61–73.

J.H. Chan and M. Joshi. 2010. Fast and Accurate Long Stepping Simulation of the Heston Stochastic Volatility Model. Preprint, ssrn.com.

D. Duffy and J. Kienitz. 2009. *Monte Carlo Frameworks - Building Customisable and Highperformance C++ Applications*. John Wiley & Sons, Chichester.

F. Fang and K. Osterlee. 2008. A Novel Pricing Method for European Option based on Fourier-Cosine Series Expansions. *Munich Personal RePEc ARchive, 9319*.

P. Glasserman and K.-K. Kim. 2008. Gamma Expansion of the Heston Stochastic Volatility Model. Preprint, ssrn.com.

GSL. 2010. Gnu scientific library. www.gnu.org/software/gsl.

A. Lewis. 2000. *Option Valuation under Stochastic Volatility*. Financepress.

Fang F. Bervoets G. Oosterlee C.W. Lord, R. 2008. A fast and accurate fft-based method for pricing early-exercise options under Lévy processes. *SIAM J. Sci Comput.*

R. Lord and C. Kahl. 2006. Optimal Fourier inversion in semi-analytical option pricing. Preprint.

M. Staunton. 2007. Monte Carlo for Heston. *Wilmott magazine* May, 70–71. Pelsser A. van Haastrecht, A. 2008. Efficient, almost exact simulation of the Heston stochastic volatility model. Preprint, ssrn.com.

Book Club

Share our passion for great writing – with Wiley's list of titles for independent thinkers ...

Financial Risk Forecasting

The Theory and Practice of Forecasting Market Risk with Implementation in R and Matlab

Jón Daníelsson

Financial Risk Forecasting is a complete introduction to practical quantitative risk management, with a focus on market risk. Derived from the author's teaching notes and years spent training practitioners in risk management techniques, it brings together the three key disciplines of finance, statistics and modeling (programming), to provide a thorough grounding in risk management techniques.

Written by renowned risk expert Jón Daníelsson, the book begins with an introduction to financial markets and market prices, volatility clusters, fat tails and nonlinear dependence. It then goes on to present volatility forecasting with both univatiate and multivatiate methods, discussing the various methods used by industry, with a special focus on the GARCH family of models.

978-0-470-66943-3 • Hardback • 296 pages March 2011 • £45.00 / **€**54.00 £27.00 / **€**32.40

An Introduction to Banking

Liquidity Risk and Asset-Liability Management

Moorad Choudhry

"A great write-up on the art of banking. Essential reading for anyone working in finance." Dan Cunningham, Senior Euro Cash & OBS Dealer, KBC Bank NV, London

"Focused and succinct review of the key issues in bank risk management." Graeme Wolvaardt, Head of Market Risk Control, Europe Arab Bank plc, London

The importance of banks to the world's economic

system cannot be overstated. The foundation of consistently successful banking practice remains efficient asset-liability management and liquidity risk management. This book introduces the key concepts of banking, concentrating on the application of robust risk management principles from a practitioner viewpoint, and how to incorporate these principles into bank strategy.

Written in the author's trademark accessible style, this book is a succinct and focused analysis of the core principles of good banking practice.

978-0-470-68725-3 • Paperback • 382 pages March 2011 • £34.99 / **€**42.00 £20.99 / **€**25.20

MOORAD CHOUDHRY

WILEY FINANCE

Financial

Theory and Practice of Forecasting Market Risk, mplementation in R and MATLAB[®]

JÓN DANÍELSSON

forecasting

Financial Risk Management

Models, History, and Institutions Allan M. Malz

Financial risk has become a focus of financial and nonfinancial firms, individuals, and policy makers. But the study of risk remains a relatively new discipline in finance and continues to be refined. The financial market crisis that began in 2007 has highlighted the challenges of managing financial risk.

Now, in *Financial Risk Management*, author Allan Malz addresses the essential issues surrounding this discipline, sharing his extensive career experiences as a risk researcher, risk manager, and central banker.

The book includes standard risk measurement models as

well as alternative models that address options, structured credit risks, and the real-world complexities of risk modeling, and provides the institutional and historical background on financial innovation, liquidity, leverage, and financial crises that is crucial to practitioners and students of finance for understanding the world today.

978-0-470-48180-6 • Hardback • 722 pages November 2011 • £65.00 / **€**76.00 £39.00 / **€**45.60

Winning at Risk Strategies to Go Beyond Basel

Annetta Cortez

Navigating the waters of risk and capital management in today's environment can be intensely challenging. If you are a manager or executive with risk management responsibilities and have not been formally trained as a risk management professional, beware. Risk management doesn't lend itself to "do-it-yourself" approaches nor can the essentials be picked up through an instructional video on the ride from the airport to your next meeting.

Designed to help busy executives sort through the complexities of risk management toward developing a holistic, multi-disciplinary, science-based risk and capital management strategy, *Winning at Risk: Strategies to Go*

Beyond Basel presents a practical perspective to understanding what is important, where to place focus, and how to use the best of risk and capital capabilities to your business' advantage.

978-0-470-92466-2 • Hardback • 254 pages • June 2011 • £42.50 / **€**48.00 £25.50 / **€**28.80

When you subscribe to *Wilmott* magazine you will automatically become a member of the **Wilmott** Book Club and you'll be eligible for 40 percent discount on specially selected books in each issue. The titles will range from finance to narrative non-fiction. For further information, call our Customer Services **Department** on **+44 (0)1243 843294**, or visit wileyeurope.com/go/wilmott or wiley.com (for North America)

ALLAN M. MALZ

WILEY FINANCE

Winning at

Strategies to go Beyond Basel

ANNETTA CORTEZ