

Variance reduction

Antithetic variables

The use of antithetic variables produces a sequence of realisations $(Y_1, \tilde{Y}_1), (Y_2, \tilde{Y}_2), \dots, (Y_n, \tilde{Y}_n)$ with

- the pairs $(Y_1, \tilde{Y}_1), (Y_2, \tilde{Y}_2), \dots, (Y_n, \tilde{Y}_n)$ are i.i.d.
- for each i , Y_i and \tilde{Y}_i have the same distribution, though they are not independent.

The antithetic variables estimator is the average of all $2n$ observations

$$\hat{Y}_{AV} = \frac{1}{2n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{Y}_i \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{Y_i + \tilde{Y}_i}{2} \right)$$

The variance of the AV estimator is

$$V[\hat{Y}_{AV}] = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n V\left[\frac{Y_i + \tilde{Y}_i}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{n} V\left[\frac{Y_i + \tilde{Y}_i}{2} \right]$$

Now

$$V[Y_i + \tilde{Y}_i] = V[Y_i] + V[\tilde{Y}_i] + 2 \text{Cov}[Y_i, \tilde{Y}_i] = 2V[Y_i] + 2 \text{Cov}[Y_i, \tilde{Y}_i]$$

since $V[\tilde{Y}_i] = V[Y_i]$. Therefore

$$V\left[\frac{Y_i + \tilde{Y}_i}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{4} (2V[Y_i] + 2 \text{Cov}[Y_i, \tilde{Y}_i]) = \frac{V[Y_i] + \text{Cov}[Y_i, \tilde{Y}_i]}{2}$$

and

$$V[\hat{Y}_{AV}] = \frac{V[Y_i] + \text{Cov}[Y_i, \tilde{Y}_i]}{2n}$$

Conversely, the variance of the estimator with $2n$ independent observations is

$$V[\hat{Y}_{2n}] = \frac{V[Y_i]}{2n}$$

Therefore, the AV estimator has lower variance provided $\text{Cov}[Y_i, \tilde{Y}_i] < 0$, that is

$$\hat{Y}_{AV} < \hat{Y}_{2n} \iff \text{Cov}[Y_i, \tilde{Y}_i] < 0$$

A *sufficient* condition for variance reduction with uniform or normal random variables is that the outcome function is monotonic, that is

$$X_i < X_j \implies Y_i < Y_j \quad \text{or} \quad Y_i > Y_j$$

where X is the underlying random variable (e.g. $X \sim U$ or Z).

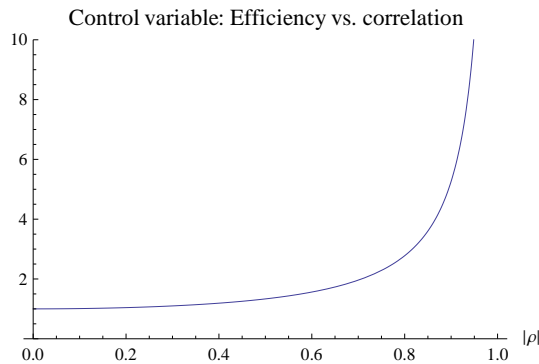
Since producing n antithetic pairs is normally faster than producing $2n$ independent replications, antithetic variables should be used whenever possible.

Control variables

With α selected optimally, that is $\alpha^* = \text{Cov}[Y, \text{CV}]/\text{Var}[\text{CV}]$, the ratio of the variances of the control variable estimator to the standard estimator is

$$\frac{\text{Var}[\bar{Y} - \alpha^*(\overline{\text{CV}} - E[\text{CV}])]}{\text{Var}[\bar{Y}]} = 1 - \rho_{Y,\text{CV}}^2$$

- The effectiveness of the control variable method depends solely upon the degree of correlation between target variable and the control variable (the sign is absorbed into α).
- If computation of the control variable does not add significantly to the time required, $\frac{1}{1-\rho^2}$ approximately measures the efficiency improvement of using the control variable.



The degree of improvement drops sharply as correlation declines. A correlation of 0.95 produces a 10-fold increase in efficiency, a correlation of 0.9 produces a 5-fold increase, and a correlation of 0.7 produces only a 2-fold increase.

- In practice, the population moments are unknown and α^* is estimated from the sample. This introduces some bias in finite samples. This bias can be eliminated by estimating α on a different random sample. Typically, the bias is so small that this is not worthwhile.
- When α^* is estimated from the sample, conventional confidence intervals are valid asymptotically (Glasserman 2004: 195).

Control variables are especially valuable in the simulation of Asian and spread options.

Moment matching

Disadvantage: Confidence intervals are difficult to obtain, since the realizations are no longer independent.

Importance sampling

Stratified sampling

Latin hypercube sampling