Pricing long-term options with stochastic volatility and stochastic interest rates
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Chapter 8

Valuation of Guaranteed Annuity Options using a Stochastic Volatility Model for Equity Prices

*This chapter is based on:


8.1 Introduction

Life insurers often include embedded options in the terms of their products. One of the most familiar embedded options is the Guaranteed Annuity Option (GAO). A GAO provides the right to convert a policyholder’s accumulated funds to a life annuity at a fixed rate when the policy matures. These options were a common feature in retirement savings contracts issued in the 1970’s and 1980’s in the United Kingdom (UK). According to Bolton et al. (1997) the most popular guaranteed conversion rate was about 11%. Due to the high interest rates at that time, the GAOs were far out of the money. However, as the interest rate levels decreased in the 1990’s and the (expected) mortality rates improved, the value of the GAOs increased rapidly and amongst others led to the downfall of Equitable Life in 2000. Currently, similar options are frequently sold under the name Guaranteed Minimum Income Benefit (GMIB) in the U.S. and Japan as part of variable annuity products. The markets for variable annuities in the U.S. and Japan have grown explosively over the past years, and a growth in Europe is also expected, see Wyman (2007).

During the last decade the literature on pricing and risk management of these options has evolved. Approaches for risk management and hedging of GAOs were described in Dunbar (1999), Yang (2001), Wilkie et al. (2003) and Pelsser (2003). The pricing of GAOs and GMIBs has been described by several authors, for example van Bezooyen et al. (1998), Boyle and Hardy
In this chapter closed form expressions are derived for prices of GAOs, assuming stochastic volatility for equity prices and (of course) stochastic interest rates. The model used for this is the Schöbel-Zhu Hull-White (SZHW) model, introduced in Chapter 3. The model combines the stochastic volatility model of Schöbel and Zhu (1999) with the 1-factor Gaussian interest rate model of Hull and White (1993), taking the correlation structure between those processes explicitly into account. Furthermore, this is extended to the case of a 2-factor Gaussian interest rate model.

The remainder of the chapter is organized as follows. First, in Section 8.2 the characteristics of the GAO are given. Section 8.3 describes the SZHW model to be used for the pricing of the GAO. In Section 8.4 closed-form pricing formulas are derived for the GAOs given an underlying SZHW model. These results are extended to a 2-factor Hull-White model in Section 8.5. In Section 8.6 two numerical example are worked out: the first shows the impact of stochastic volatility on the pricing of the GAO, whilst the second example deals with a comparison of the efficiency of our closed-form formula for the 2-factor model with existing methods in the literature. Conclusions are given in Section 8.7.

### 8.2 Guaranteed Annuity Contract

A GAO gives the holder the right to receive at the retirement date $T$ either a cash payment equal to the investment in the equity fund $S(T)$ or a life annuity of this investment against the guaranteed rate $g$. A rational policy holder would choose the greater of the two assets. In other words, if at inception, the policy holder is aged $x$ and the normal retirement date is at time $T$, then the annuity value at maturity is $S(T) + H(T)$, with GAO payoff $H(T)$ equal to

$$H(T) := \left(gS(T) \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i P(T, t_i) - S(T)\right)^+,$$

provided that the policy holder is still alive at that time. Here $g$ is the guaranteed rate, $P(T, t_i)$ the zero-coupon bond at time $T$ maturing at $t_i$ and $c_i$ the insurance amounts for time $i$ multiplied by the probability of survival from time $T$ until time $t_i$ for the policyholder. Without loss of generality, we will use unit insured amounts in the remainder of this chapter. Furthermore, we assume that the survival probabilities are independent of the equity prices and interest rates. Note
8.2. Guaranteed Annuity Contract

that

\[ H(T) = gS(T) \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i P(T, t_i) - K \right)^+, \]  

(8.2)

where \( K := 1/g \) and \((x)^+ := \max(x, 0)\). This last equality shows that one can interpret the guaranteed annuity option as a quanto call option with strike \( K \) on the zero-coupon bond portfolio \( \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i P(T, t_i) \) which is payed out using the exchange rate/currency \( S(T) \), e.g. see Boyle and Hardy (2003). Under the risk-neutral measure \( Q \), which uses the money market account \( B(T) \),

\[ B(T) := \exp\left( \int_{0}^{T} r(u)du \right) \]  

(8.3)
as numeraire, the price of this option can be expressed as

\[ C(T) = x pr \mathbb{E}^{Q}\left[ \exp\left( - \int_{0}^{T} r(u)du \right) g S(T) \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i P(T, t_i) - K \right)^+ \right], \]  

(8.4)

where \( x pr \) denotes the probability that the policy holder aged \( x \) survives until retirement age \( r \) at time \( T \). To derive a closed-form expression for the GAO of (8.4), it is more convenient to measure payments in terms of units of stock instead of money market values. Mathematically, we can establish this by using the equity price \( S(T) \) as numeraire and changing from the risk-neutral measure to the equity-price measure \( Q_S \), see Geman et al. (1996). Under the equity-price measure \( Q_S \), the GAO price is then given by

\[ C(T) = x pr gS(0) \mathbb{E}^{Q_S}\left[ \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i P(T, t_i) - K \right)^+ \right]. \]  

(8.5)

To evaluate this expectation we need to take into account the dynamics of the zero-coupon bonds prices \( P(T, t_i) \) under the equity price measure.

Apart from the guaranteed rate, the drivers of the GAO price are the interest rates, the equity prices, the correlation between those, and the survival probabilities. The combined model for interest rates and equity prices is explained in Section 8.3. This model needs an assumption for the correlation, which could be derived from historical data. Note that if it is assumed that equity prices and interest rates are independent, expression (8.4) can be simplified to:

\[ C(T) = x pr \mathbb{E}^{Q}\left[ S(T) \right] \mathbb{E}^{Q}\left[ \exp\left( - \int_{0}^{T} r(u)du \right) g \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i P(T, t_i) - K \right)^+ \right]. \]  

(8.6)

This means that under the assumption of independence between interest rates and equity prices, it does not matter which model is assumed for equity prices.\(^1\) Both from historical data as well

\(^1\)Explicit pricing formulas, for this case, under one and two-factor Gaussian interest rates are provided in appendix 8.8.3.
from market quotes, one however rarely finds that the equity prices and interest rates behave in an independent fashion. As this dependency structure is one of the main driver for the GAO price and its sensitivities, a non-trivial structure therefore has to be taken into account for a proper pricing and risk management of these derivatives, e.g. see Boyle and Hardy (2003), Ballotta and Haberman (2003) or Baur (2009).

8.3 The Schöbel-Zhu-Hull-White model

The model used for the applications in this chapter is the Schöbel-Zhu Hull-White (SZHW) model, see Chapter 3. The model combines the stochastic volatility model of Schöbel and Zhu (1999) with the 1-factor Gaussian interest rate model of Hull and White (1993), taking explicitly into account the correlation between those processes. Having the flexibility to correlate the equity price with both stochastic volatility and stochastic interest rates yields a realistic model, which is of practical importance for the pricing and hedging of options with long-term exposures such as guaranteed annuities, e.g. see Boyle and Hardy (2003).

It is hardly necessary to motivate the inclusion of stochastic volatility in a pricing model for GAOs, or long-term derivatives in general. First, compared to constant volatility models, stochastic volatility models are significantly better able to fit the market’s option data, e.g. see Andreasen (2006) or Andersen and Brotherton-Ratcliffe (2001). Secondly, as stochastic interest rates and stochastic volatility are empirical phenomena, the addition of these factors yields a more realistic model, which becomes important for the pricing and especially the hedging of long-term derivatives. The addition of stochastic volatility and stochastic interest rates as stochastic factors is important when considering long-maturity equity derivatives and has been the subject of empirical investigations most notably by Bakshi et al. (2000). These authors show that the hedging performance of delta hedging strategies of long-maturity options improves when stochastic volatility and stochastic interest rates into account.

Stochastic volatility models have been described by several others, for example Stein and Stein (1991), Heston (1993), Schöbel and Zhu (1999), Duffie et al. (2000), Duffie et al. (2003), van der Ploeg (2006) and Chapter 3. Also regime-switching models are suggested in the literature for the pricing of equity-linked insurance policies, e.g. see Hardy (2001) and Brigo and Mercurio (2006). In the limit of an infinite number of regimes these models again converge to a continuous-time stochastic volatility model, however in discrete time they can benefit from a greater analytical tractability. A proper model assessment, greatly depends on the properties of the embedded options in the insurance contract. To investigate the impact of using a stochastic volatility model on the pricing of GAOs, note that the GAO directly depends on the stochastic interest rates, the underlying equity fund and the correlation between the rates and the equity. For the pricing of GAOs we therefore choose to use the SZHW model over other stochastic volatility models, as this model distinguishes itself by an explicit incorporation of the correlation between underlying equity fund and the term structure of interest rates, whilst maintaining a high degree of analytical tractability.
8.3. The Schöbel-Zhu-Hull-White model

8.3.1 Calibration of the SZHW and BSHW model

In Section 8.6 the impact of stochastic volatility on the pricing of GAOs is analyzed. That is, we compare the pricing of GAOs in the SZHW stochastic volatility model with the Black-Scholes Hull-White (BSHW) constant volatility model, described in Chapter 2. This section is devoted to the calibration of these models and a short analysis of these calibration results.

The BSHW process for equity prices \( S(t) \) under the risk neutral measure \( Q \) is:

\[
\frac{dS(t)}{S(t)} = r(t)dt + \sigma_S dW^Q_S(t), \quad S(0) = S_0,
\]

(8.7)

where the interest rate \( r(t) \) follows Hull and White (1993) dynamics, see Chapter 2, and with the instantaneous correlation between Brownian motions of the interest rate and the equity price equal to

\[
dW^Q_S(t)dW^Q_x(t) = \rho_{sx} dt.
\]

(8.8)

To come up with a fair analysis of the impact of stochastic volatility on the pricing of GAOs, we first calibrate the BSHW and SZHW model to market’s option data per end July 2007. First the Hull and White (1993) interest rate models are respectively calibrated to the EU and U.S. swaption markets. Secondly for calibration of the equity price specific model parameters, data on the Eurostoxx50 index (EU) and the S&P500 (U.S.) is used. The effective (10 years) correlation between the stock and the interest rates in the BSHW process, was hereby determined using time series analysis of the interest rates and the Eurostoxx50 (EU) and S&P500 (U.S.) index over the period from February 2002 to July 2007. For the EU and the U.S. we respectively found a correlation coefficient of 34.65% and 14.64% between the interest rates and the equity price. Note that for the aid of a fair comparison between the models, the SZHW model is calibrated in such a way that the effective correlation between interest rates and equity prices is equal to that of the BSHW process. Finally, as the considered GAO in Section 8.6 has a 10 year maturity, we need to calibrate the equity specific to the terminal distributions of the equity price at that time. To this end, we calibrate the equity models to market’s options maturing in 10 years time. The calibration results to the Eurostoxx50 and S&P500 can be found in Table 1 below.
Chapter 8. Guaranteed Annuity Options

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Table 1: Comparison of the calibration results for the SZHW and BSHW model for 10-year call options with different strikes. Calibrations are performed on market data for options of major indices at the end of July 2007: for EU index the EuroStoxx50 is used, whereas for US index this is the S&P500.

Notice from the tables we can see that SZHW is significantly better in capturing the market’s implied volatility structure and provides an extremely good fit. The fits of the BSHW model are relatively poor. Furthermore, a direct consequence of the log-normal distribution of the BSHW model, it that the asset returns have thin tails, which does not correspond to historical data nor to the market’s view on long-term asset returns. In this way, the SZHW model provides a more realistic picture on the market’s view on long-term asset returns as it can incorporate heavy-tailed returns. The latter can be made especially clear by looking at the risk-neutral densities of the log-asset price of the SZHW and BSHW model. These are plotted in Figure 1 below for the BSHW and SZHW model, calibrated to EU option prices.

![Figure 1: Risk-neutral density of the log-asset price for the SZHW and BSHW model, calibrated to EU market option data.](image-url)
8.4 Pricing the GAO under stochastic volatility and stochastic interest rates

Clearly, the SZHW incorporates the skewness and heavy-tails seen in option markets (e.g. see Bakshi et al. (1997)) a lot more realistically than the BSHW model. The effects of these log-asset price distributions on the pricing of GAOs, combined with correlated interest rates, are extensively analyzed in Section 8.6.

8.4 Pricing the GAO under stochastic volatility and stochastic interest rates

For the pricing of the GAO in the SZHW model, i.e. the evaluation of (8.5), we need to consider the pricing of a zero-coupon bonds in the Gaussian rate model. In the Hull and White (1993) model, as demonstrated in Chapter 2, one has the following expression for the time-$T$ price of a zero-coupon bond $P(T, t_i)$ maturing at time $t_i$:

$$P(T, t_i) = A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x(T)},$$

(8.9)

where

$$A(T, t_i) = \frac{P^M(0, t_i)}{P^M(0, T)} \exp \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( V(T, t_i) - V(0, t_i) + V(0, T) \right) \right],$$

(8.10)

$$B(T, t_i) = 1 - e^{-a(t_i - T)}$$

(8.11)

$$V(T, t_i) = \frac{a^2}{2} (t_i - T) + \frac{2}{a} e^{-a(t_i - T)} - \frac{1}{2a} e^{-2a(t_i - T)} - \frac{3}{2a},$$

(8.12)

and with $P^M(0, s)$ denoting the market’s time zero discount factor maturing at time $s$. Using (8.9), we have for the GAO price (8.5) under the equity price measure $Q^S$:

$$C(T) = x_T gS(0) \mathbb{E}^{Q^S} \left[ \left( \sum_{i=1}^n c_i A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x(T)} - K \right)^+ \right].$$

(8.13)

To further evaluate this expression, we first have to consider the dynamics of $x(T)$ under the equity price measure $Q^S$ in the SZHW model.

8.4.1 Taking the equity price as numeraire

To change the money market account numeraire into the equity price numeraire, we need to change the underlying probability measure, see Chapter 2. The associated Radon-Nikodým derivative is given by

$$\frac{dQ^S}{dQ} = \frac{S(T)B(0)}{S(0)B(T)} = \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \nu^2(u) du + \int_0^T \nu(u) dW^Q(u) \right].$$

(8.14)
The multi-dimensional version of Girsanov’s theorem hence implies that
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{d}W_t^{Q^S} &\mapsto \text{d}W_t^{Q} - \nu(t)dt, \\
\text{d}W_x^{Q^S} &\mapsto \text{d}W_x^{Q} - \rho_{xS} \nu(t)dt, \\
\text{d}W_{\nu}^{Q^S} &\mapsto \text{d}W_{\nu}^{Q} - \rho_{\nuS} \nu(t)dt,
\end{align*}
\]
(8.15, 8.16, 8.17)
are $Q^S$ Brownian motions. Hence under $Q^S$ one has the following model dynamics for the volatility and interest rate process
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{d}x(t) &= -ax(t)dt + \rho_{xS} \sigma \nu(t)dt + \sigma \text{d}W_x^{Q^S}(t), \quad x(0) = 0, \\
\text{d}\nu(t) &= \kappa (\psi - \nu(t))dt + \rho_{\nuS} \tau \nu(t)dt + \tau \text{d}W_{\nu}^{Q^S}(t), \\
\nu(0) &= \nu_0,
\end{align*}
\]
(8.18, 8.19)
where $\tilde{\kappa} := \kappa - \rho_{\nuS} \tau$, $\tilde{\psi} := \frac{\kappa \psi}{\tilde{\kappa}}$. The case $\tilde{\kappa} \equiv 0$ the volatility $\nu(t)$ follows a standard Wiener process, can trivially be dealt using the techniques for a general $\kappa \neq 0$, in which the dynamics of $\nu(t)$ follow a mean reverting Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process; That is, conditional on the current time $\sigma$-algebra $\mathcal{F}_0$, after some calculations, one can show that for $\kappa \neq 0$:
\[
\begin{align*}
\nu(T) &= \tilde{\psi} + (\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi}) e^{-\tilde{\kappa} T} + \tau \int_0^T e^{-\tilde{\kappa} (T-u)} \text{d}W_{\nu}^{Q^S}(u), \\
x(T) &= \rho_{xS} \sigma \left( \frac{\tilde{\psi}}{a} [1 - e^{-aT}] + \frac{\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi}}{a - \tilde{\kappa}} [e^{-\tilde{\kappa} T} - e^{-aT}] \right) \\
&\quad + \frac{\rho_{xS} \sigma \tau}{(a - \kappa)} \int_0^T [e^{-\tilde{\kappa} (T-u)} - e^{-a(T-u)}] \text{d}W_{\nu}^{Q^S}(u) + \sigma \int_0^T e^{-a(T-u)} \text{d}W_x^{Q^S}(u).
\end{align*}
\]
(8.20, 8.21)
Using Itô’s isometry and Fubini’s theorem, we have that $x(T)$ (conditional on $\mathcal{F}_0$) is normally distributed with mean $\mu_x$ and variance $\sigma_x^2$ given by
\[
\begin{align*}
\mu_x &= \rho_{xS} \sigma \left( \frac{\tilde{\psi}}{a} [1 - e^{-aT}] + \frac{\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi}}{a - \tilde{\kappa}} [e^{-\tilde{\kappa} T} - e^{-aT}] \right), \\
\sigma_x^2 &= \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + 2 \rho_{12} \sigma_1 \sigma_2.
\end{align*}
\]
(8.22, 8.23)
8.4. Pricing the GAO under stochastic volatility and stochastic interest rates

where

\[ \sigma_1 = \sigma \sqrt{\frac{1 - e^{-2aT}}{2a}} \]  
\[ \sigma_2 = \frac{\rho \sigma_\tau}{a - \kappa} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\kappa} + \frac{1 - 2 e^{-2aT}}{2a(\kappa + a)} - \frac{2 e^{-(\kappa + a)T}}{2a} + \frac{2 e^{-aT}}{(\kappa + a)}} \]  
\[ \rho_{12} = \frac{\rho \sigma^2 \tau}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2 (a - \kappa)} \left[ \frac{1 - e^{-aT}}{a + \kappa} - \frac{1 - e^{-2aT}}{2a} \right]. \]  

\[ \text{(8.24)} \]
\[ \text{(8.25)} \]
\[ \text{(8.26)} \]

8.4.2 Closed-form formula for the GAO price

Using the results from the previous paragraph, we can now further evaluate the expression (8.13) for the GAO price in the SZHW model: as the zero-coupon bond price is a monotone function of one state variable, \( x(T) \), one can use the Jamshidian (1989) result and write the call option (8.13) on the sum of zero-coupon bonds as a sum of zero-coupon bond call options: let \( x^* \) solve

\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x} = K, \]  
\[ \text{(8.27)} \]

and let

\[ K_i := A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x^*}. \]  
\[ \text{(8.28)} \]

Using Jamshidian (1989), we can then write GAO as a sum of zero-coupon bond options, i.e.

\[ C(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i [F_i N(d^*_i) - K_i N(d^*_i)], \]  
\[ \text{(8.29)} \]

As \( x(T) \) is normally distributed, we have that \( P(T, t_i) = A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x} \) is log-normally distributed. Provided that we know the mean \( M_i \) and variance \( V_i \) of \( \ln P(T, t_i) \) under \( Q^S \), one can directly express the above expectation in terms of the Black and Scholes (1973) formula, i.e.

\[ C(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i \left[ F_i N(d^*_i) - K_i N(d^*_i) \right]. \]  
\[ \text{(8.30)} \]

\[ F_i = e^{M_i + \frac{1}{2} V_i}, \]  
\[ d^*_i = \frac{\ln(F_i/K_i) + \frac{1}{2} V_i}{\sqrt{V_i}}, \]  
\[ d^*_{2i} = d^*_i - \sqrt{V_i}. \]  
\[ \text{(8.31)} \]
\[ \text{(8.32)} \]
\[ \text{(8.33)} \]

To determine \( M_i \) and \( V_i \), recall from (8.22) and (8.23) that \( x(T) \) is normally distributed with mean \( \mu_x \) and variance \( \sigma^2_x \). Hence with \( P(T, t_i) = A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x} \), one can directly obtain that
the mean $M_i$ and variance $V_i$ of $\ln P(T, t_i)$ are given by

\begin{align*}
M_i &= \ln A(T, t_i) - B(T, t_i) \mu_x, \\
V_i &= B^2(T, t_i) \sigma_x^2.
\end{align*}

We have thus derived a closed-form formula for the price of a GAO under stochastic volatility and correlated stochastic interest rates, i.e., in the SZHW model of Chapter 2. With this result, we are able to investigate the impact of stochastic volatility on the pricing of GAOs, which will be the subject of Section 8.6.1.

### 8.5 Extension to two-factor interest rates

In this section, we generalize the setting of the previous section from one to two-factor Gaussian interest rates. That is under the risk-neutral measure $Q$, we assume the following dynamics for the short interest rate:

\begin{align*}
r(t) &= \phi(t) + x(t) + y(t), \\
r(0) &= r_0, \\
dx(t) &= -ax(t) dt + \sigma dW^Q_x(t), \\
x(0) &= 0, \\
dy(t) &= -by(t) dt + \eta dW^Q_y(t), \\
y(0) &= 0, \\
dW^Q_x(t)dW^Q_y(t) &= \rho_{xy} dt.
\end{align*}

Here $a, b$ (mean reversion) and $\sigma, \eta$ (volatility) are the positive parameters of the model and $|\rho_{xy}| \leq 1$, and $\phi(t)$ can be used to exactly fit the current term structure of interest rates, e.g., see Brigo and Mercurio (2006). Much of the analytical structure of the one-factor Gaussian is preserved in this two-factor setting. For example time $T$ zero-coupon bond prices maturity at time $t_i$ are given by

\begin{align*}
P(T, t_i) &= A(T, t_i)e^{-B(a,T,t_i)x(T) - B(b,T,t_i)y(T)},
\end{align*}

where

\begin{align*}
A(T, t_i) &= \frac{p^M(0, t_i)}{p^M(0, T)} \exp \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( V(T, t_i) - V(0, t_i) + V(0, T) \right) \right], \\
B(z, T, t_i) &= \frac{1 - e^{-z(t_i - T)}}{z}, \\
V(T, t_i) &= \frac{\sigma^2}{a^2} \left[ (t_i - T) + \frac{2}{a} e^{-a(t_i - T)} - \frac{1}{2a} e^{-2a(t_i - T)} - \frac{3}{2a} \right] \\
&\quad + \frac{\eta^2}{b^2} \left[ (t_i - T) + \frac{2}{b} e^{-b(t_i - T)} - \frac{1}{2b} e^{-2b(t_i - T)} - \frac{3}{2b} \right] \\
&\quad + 2\rho_{xy} \frac{\sigma \eta}{ab} \left[ (t_i - T) + \frac{e^{-a(t_i - T)} - 1}{a} + \frac{e^{-b(t_i - T)} - 1}{b} - \frac{e^{-(a+b)(t_i - T)} - 1}{a + b} \right].
\end{align*}
8.5. Extension to two-factor interest rates

Substituting the zero-coupon bond expression (8.40) into the pricing equation (8.5) and evaluating this expectation, results in the following closed-form expression for the GAO price:

\[
C(T) = x p_T g_S(0) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - \mu_x}{\sigma_x} \right)^2}}{\sigma_x \sqrt{2\pi}} \left[ F_i(x) N(h_2(x)) - K N(h_1(x)) \right] dx,
\]  

(8.44)

where \( N \) denotes the cumulative standard normal distribution function and with

\[
h_1(x) := \frac{y^* - \mu_y}{\sigma_y \sqrt{1 - \rho_{xy}^2}} - \frac{\rho_{xy}(x - \mu_x)}{\sigma_x \sqrt{1 - \rho_{xy}^2}},
\]  

(8.45)

\[
h_2(x) := h_1(x) + B(b, T, t_t) \sigma_y \sqrt{1 - \rho_{xy}^2},
\]  

(8.46)

\[
\lambda_i(x) := c_i A(T, t_t) e^{-B(b, T, t_t) t_t},
\]  

(8.47)

\[
\kappa_i(x) := -B(b, T, t_t) \left[ \frac{\mu_y}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_y^2 (1 - \rho_{xy}^2) B(b, T, t_t) + \rho_{xy} \sigma_y \frac{(x - \mu_x)}{\sigma_x} \right],
\]  

(8.48)

\[
F_i(x) := \sum_{i=0}^{n} \lambda_i(x) e^{\kappa_i(x)}
\]  

(8.49)

and with \( y^* \) the unique solution of

\[
\sum_{i=0}^{n} \lambda_i(x) e^{-B(b, T, t_t) y^*} = K.
\]  

(8.50)

The proof of (8.44) is given in Appendix 8.8.1.

In the pricing formula (8.44) it remains to determine the first two moments of \( x(T) \) and \( y(T) \) and the (terminal) correlation between \( x(T) \) and \( y(T) \), under the equity price measure \( Q^S \). These are given in Appendix 8.8.2. Note that in the pricing formula (8.44), one is integration a Gaussian probability density function against a bounded function. Because the Gaussian density functions decays very rapidly\(^2\), one can therefore truncate the integration domain in an implementation of (8.44) to a suitable number of standard deviations \( \sigma_x \) around the mean \( \mu_x \).

\(^2\)For instance, 99.99999% of the probability mass of a Gaussian density function lies within five standard deviations around its mean.
8.6 Numerical examples

In this section two numerical examples are given. In paragraph 8.6.1 the values of the GAO using the stochastic volatility model described in Section 8.3 are compared with values that result when a geometric Brownian motion is assumed for equity prices. In paragraph 8.6.2 our approach for two-factor interest rate models is compared with the methods described in Chu and Kwok (2007).

8.6.1 Comparison results SZHW model and Black-Scholes Hull-White model

In this section the impact of stochastic volatility of equity prices is shown for an example policy. The results for the SZHW model are compared with a model that combines a Black-Scholes process for equity prices with a one-factor Hull White model for interest rates, the so-called Black-Scholes-Hull-White (BSHW) model given in (8.7) - (8.8). The SZHW and BSHW models are both calibrated to market information (implied volatilities and interest rates) per end July 2007, see Section 8.3.1.

In the example, the policyholder is 55 years old, the retirement age is 65, giving the maturity $T$ of the GAO option of 10 years. Furthermore, $S(0)$ is assumed to be 100. The survival rates are based on the PNMA00 table of the Continuous Mortality Investigation (CMI) for male pensioners.

In Table 2 the prices for the GAO are given for different guaranteed rates $g$ for both models. The results for the SZHW model are obtained using the closed form expression given in (8.30) - (8.35). The pricing formula for the BSHW is a special case of this, and is also derived in Ballotta and Haberman (2003). The results are determined for EU data and U.S. data with an equity-interest rate correlation of respectively 0.347 and 0.146 (see Section 8.2). The table presents the total value of the GAO as well as the time value. While the total value gives the impact on the total prices, the time value gives more insight in the relative impact of the models (since those only have impact the time value). Also, the time value of the GAO is often reported separately, for example within Embedded Value reporting of insurers.
8.6. Numerical examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strike g</th>
<th>SZHW</th>
<th>BSHW</th>
<th>Rel. Diff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.23%</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>+24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>+50.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8%</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>+28.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8.40</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>+15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>17.02</td>
<td>15.53</td>
<td>+9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11%</td>
<td>27.37</td>
<td>25.69</td>
<td>+6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12%</td>
<td>38.30</td>
<td>36.47</td>
<td>+5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13%</td>
<td>49.35</td>
<td>47.37</td>
<td>+4.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total value, EU.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strike g</th>
<th>SZHW</th>
<th>BSHW</th>
<th>Rel. Diff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.44%</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>+12.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7%</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>+18.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>+13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8.53</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>+10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>16.06</td>
<td>14.90</td>
<td>+7.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11%</td>
<td>25.42</td>
<td>23.96</td>
<td>+6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12%</td>
<td>35.73</td>
<td>34.06</td>
<td>+4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13%</td>
<td>46.43</td>
<td>44.58</td>
<td>+4.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total value, U.S.

Table 2: Comparison of GAO total values and time values of the SZHW and BSHW model for different guaranteed rates g. In the examples: at-the-money guaranteed rate $g$ is 8.21% (EU) and 8.44% (U.S.), effective correlation between the stock price and the interest rates is 37.3% (EU) and 25.7% (U.S.).

The table shows that the use of a stochastic volatility model such as the SZHW model has a significant impact on the total value of the GAO. The value increases with 4% - 50% for a EU data and 4% - 17% for a U.S. data, depending on the level of the guarantee.

These price differences are not caused by a volatility effect as both models are calibrated to the same market data in Section 8.3. Figure 1 of Section 8.3, however showed that the distribution of equity prices under a SZHW process has a heavy left tail, but also relatively more mass on the right of the distribution compared to the BSHW process. Given a positive correlation between equity prices and interest rates, and the fact that the GAO pays off when interest rates are low, this means that for the SZHW model there will be some very low payoffs for equity prices in the left tail, but relatively higher payoffs for the remaining scenarios. This is illustrated in Table 3. For the EU data and $g = 8.23\%$, 50 000 Monte Carlo simulations are generated for both models and the discounted payoffs are segmented in specific intervals.
The table shows that indeed:

- SZHW has relatively much payoffs in the interval (0,1) due to the heavy left tail.
- For the remaining intervals, SZHW has more mass to the right, illustrated by the less frequent payoffs in the interval (1,10) and more frequent payoffs in the intervals greater than 10.

Since the models only have impact on the time value, the relative changes in time value for in-the-money GAOs are higher, which is also illustrated in Table 2. One might wonder why the time values for the EU data are negative for high levels of $g$. The reason for this is that due to the positive correlation between interest rates and equity prices, higher equity volatility means that there is a higher chance of lower payoffs, leading to a lower total option value compared to the intrinsic value. For the U.S. data no negative time values are reported. Reason for this is that due to the lower correlation between interest rates and equity prices, the effect described above is less significant than the positive impact of interest rates on the time value.

### 8.6.2 Comparison results of the two-factor model with Chu and Kwok (2007)

A special case of our modelling framework is considered in Chu and Kwok (2007), namely a equity model with constant volatility. Chu and Kwok (2007) argue that for a two-factor Gaussian interest rate model no analytical pricing formulas exist. Therefore they propose three approximation methods for the valuation of GAOs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Payoff</th>
<th>SZHW</th>
<th>BSHW</th>
<th>Diff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>29173</td>
<td>29251</td>
<td>-78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0, 1]</td>
<td>3727</td>
<td>2621</td>
<td>1106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1, 10]</td>
<td>10983</td>
<td>13134</td>
<td>-2151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10, 20]</td>
<td>3576</td>
<td>3390</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(20, 30]</td>
<td>1347</td>
<td>928</td>
<td>419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(30, 40]</td>
<td>582</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(40, 50]</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(50, 60]</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(60, 70]</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(70, 80]</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(80, 90]</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(90, 100]</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(100, 110]</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 110</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Comparison distribution of discounted payoffs for SZHW and BSHW model.
8.6. Numerical examples

1. **Method of minimum variance duration**: This method approximates the annuity with a single zero-coupon bond and minimizes the approximation error by choosing the maturity of the zero-coupon bond to be equal to the stochastic duration.

2. **Edgeworth expansion**: This method makes use of the Edgeworth approximation of the probability distribution of the value of the annuity (see Collin-Dufresne and Goldstein (2002)).

3. **Affine approximation**: approach: This method approximates the conditional distributions of the risk factors in affine diffusions.

In the chapter the runtimes and approximation errors are compared with benchmark results using Monte Carlo simulations and the method of minimum variance duration comes out most favourably. The other approximation methods do have very long runtime, the Edgeworth expansion method requires even more time than Monte Carlo simulation.

However, as we shown in Section 8.5, it is possible to derive a closed form expression where only a single numerical integration is needed for the case of a two-factor Gaussian interest rate model. It takes hardly any runtime (a couple of hundreds of seconds) to do this numerical integration, whilst it provides exact results. The used parameter setting is the same as in Chu and Kwok (2007) and is given in Appendix 8.8.4. Table 4 shows a comparison of the results for the different methods and a Monte Carlo simulation with 1 000 000 sample paths, whereas Table 6 of Appendix 8.8.4 reports the relative differences of the various methods, compared to the exact GAO prices obtained by the closed form expression in (8.44).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>r0 Strike Level</th>
<th>Closed-form Exact</th>
<th>Min. Var. Duration</th>
<th>Edgeworth Expansion</th>
<th>Affine Approx.</th>
<th>Monte Carlo (95% interval)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5% 127%</td>
<td>11.8000*</td>
<td>11.8100*</td>
<td>11.8161*</td>
<td>11.7913*</td>
<td>11.7921 (±0.0366)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0% 123%</td>
<td>9.7556*</td>
<td>9.7714*</td>
<td>9.7502*</td>
<td>9.7412*</td>
<td>9.7487 (±0.0329)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5% 118%</td>
<td>7.8741*</td>
<td>7.8958*</td>
<td>7.8479*</td>
<td>7.8529*</td>
<td>7.8678 (±0.0294)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0% 114%</td>
<td>6.1690*</td>
<td>6.1946</td>
<td>6.1293</td>
<td>6.1418*</td>
<td>6.1633 (±0.0260)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5% 110%</td>
<td>4.6612*</td>
<td>4.6860</td>
<td>4.6199</td>
<td>4.6313</td>
<td>4.6555 (±0.0226)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0% 106%</td>
<td>3.3732*</td>
<td>3.3911</td>
<td>3.3408</td>
<td>3.3464</td>
<td>3.3678 (±0.0192)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5% 103%</td>
<td>2.3217*</td>
<td>2.3273*</td>
<td>2.2999</td>
<td>2.3044*</td>
<td>2.3174 (±0.0159)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.0% 99%</td>
<td>1.5095*</td>
<td>1.5008*</td>
<td>1.4897</td>
<td>1.5057*</td>
<td>1.5065 (±0.0126)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5% 96%</td>
<td>0.9214*</td>
<td>0.9008</td>
<td>0.8942</td>
<td>0.9310</td>
<td>0.9198 (±0.0097)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0% 93%</td>
<td>0.5249*</td>
<td>0.4984</td>
<td>0.4922</td>
<td>0.5439</td>
<td>0.5244 (±0.0071)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5% 90%</td>
<td>0.2778*</td>
<td>0.2517</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2775 (±0.0050)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.0% 88%</td>
<td>0.1360*</td>
<td>0.1150</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.1354 (±0.0033)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5% 85%</td>
<td>0.0614*</td>
<td>0.0471</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.0609 (±0.0021)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.0% 83%</td>
<td>0.0254*</td>
<td>0.0171</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.0251 (±0.0013)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4**: Comparison between the exact closed-form formula in (8.44), the method of minimum variance duration, the Edgeworth expansion, the affine approximation and a Monte Carlo simulation. Values inside the 95% confidence interval of the Monte Carlo estimates are starred.
The results from Tables 4 and 6 show that the approximation methods considered by Chu and Kwok (2007) break down for higher interest rates, where the guarantee is out-the-money. Note hereby that the first moment of the underlying distribution is main driving factor for option price, while for the price of out-of-the-money options the higher moments play a more important role, e.g. see Brigo and Mercurio (2006). Taking into account that the mean of the underlying annuity is determined exactly in the approximations, this implies that these methods have severe difficulties in estimating the higher moments of the underlying distribution, resulting in poor an approximation quality of the out-of-money GAOs, see Table 4 and 6.

The exact closed-form formula (8.44) does give highly accurate prices for GAOs across for all strike levels. Differences between the Monte Carlo method and the exact formula are sampling errors as we can see that the 95% confidence interval of the Monte Carlo method is overlapping with the price of the exact closed-form formula for all cases. Typically such Monte Carlo noise increases for out-of-the-money options (e.g. see Glasserman (2003)) as can also be seen from Table 4 for the considered GAOs. Where the Affine approximation method and the Edgeworth expansion method take require a very long runtime (according to Chu and Kwok (2007), the runtime of the Edgeworth expansion is even larger than of the Monte Carlo method with 100 000 sample paths), the runtime the closed-form exact method is comparable to the method of minimum variance duration and takes only a few hundreds of a second. The closed-form exact approach proposed in Section 8.5 is preferable compared to the approaches described in Chu and Kwok (2007), as it gives exact GAO prices over all strike levels whilst being computational very efficient.

8.7 Conclusion

In this chapter closed-form formulas for the pricing of GAOs using a stochastic volatility model for equity prices. The considered framework further allows for 1-factor and 2-factor Gaussian interest rates, whilst taking the correlation between the equity, the stochastic volatility and the stochastic interest rates explicitly into account. The basis for the closed-form formulas for GAOs lies in the fact that under the equity price measure, the GAO can be written in terms of an option on a sum of coupon bearing bonds: after some calculations the Jamshidian (1989) result can be used that expresses the latter option on a sum into a sum of options which can be priced in closed-form. For 1-factor interest rates the price of a GAO can be expressed as sum of Black and Scholes (1973) options, whereas a closed form expression using a single integral can be established for the case of a two-factor Gaussian interest rate model.

A special case of our modelling framework, that is a equity model with constant volatility, is considered in Chu and Kwok (2007). These authors argue that for a two-factor Gaussian interest rate model no analytical pricing formulas exist and propose several approximation methods for the valuation of GAOs. In this chapter we did derive an exact closed-form pricing formula in terms of a single numerical integral, which called for a comparison between these valuation methods. The numerical results show that the use of the exact closed-form exact approach is
preferable compared to the approaches described in Chu and Kwok (2007), as it gives exact GAO prices over all strike levels whilst being computational very efficient to compute.

Because GAOs generally involve long-dated maturities and the annuity payoff is directly linked to the performance of an equity fund, it is for a proper pricing and risk management of such products important to consider realistic returns for the equity fund combined with a non-trivial dependency structure with the underlying interest rates. Using U.S. and the EU market option data, we investigated the effects of a stochastic volatility model for the pricing of GAOs. Time-series analysis between the considered equity funds (S&P500 for U.S. and EuroStoxx50 for EU) and the long-term interest rates revealed a substantial positive correlation. We then calibrated the stochastic and the constant volatility model to the market’s options and this correlation, making sure that the implied correlation between the terminal asset price and the interest rates is equal both frameworks for a fair comparison. For both markets, the results indicate that the impact of ignoring a stochastic volatility model is significant; in the considered empirical test cases we found that, the prices for the GAOs using a stochastic volatility model for equity prices are considerably higher in comparison to the constant volatility model, especially for GAOs with out of the money strikes.
Chapter 8. Guaranteed Annuity Options

8.8 Appendix

8.8.1 Pricing of a coupon bearing option under two-factor interest rates

Let the pair \((x(T), y(T))\) follow a bivariate normal distribution, i.e. with means \(\mu_x, \mu_y\), variances \(\sigma_x^2, \sigma_y^2\) and correlation \(\rho\). The probability density function \(f(x, y)\) of \((x(T), y(T))\) is hence given by

\[
f(x, y) = \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{(x-\mu_x)^2}{\sigma_x^2} - 2\rho \frac{(x-\mu_x)(y-\mu_y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} + \frac{(y-\mu_y)^2}{\sigma_y^2}\right)\right) \frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_x \sigma_y \sqrt{1-\rho^2}}.
\]  

(8.51)

Furthermore, let the time \(T\) price of the zero-coupon bond \(P(T, t_i)\) maturing at time \(t_i\) be given by

\[
P(T, t_i) = A(T, t_i)e^{-B(a, T, t_i)x - B(b, T, t_i)y(T)}.
\]

(8.52)

We then come to the following proposition.

**Proposition 8.8.1** The expected value of the coupon-bearing option maturing at time \(T\), paying coupons \(c_i\) at times \(i = 0, \ldots, n\) and with strike \(K\) is given by a one-dimensional integral, i.e.

\[
\mathbb{E}\left\{\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i P(T, t_i) - K\right)^+\right\} = \int \int f(x, y)\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i A(T, t_i)e^{-B(a, T, t_i)x - B(b, T, t_i)y(T)} - K\right)^+ \, dy \, dx
\]

\[
= \int e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\mu_x}{\sigma_x})^2} \left[F_i(x)N(h_2(x)) - KN(h_1(x))\right] \, dx
\]

\[
= G(\mu_x, \mu_y, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \rho_{xy}),
\]

(8.53)

where \(N\) denotes the cumulative standard normal distribution function, and

\[
h_1(x) := \frac{y^* - \mu_y}{\sigma_y \sqrt{1-\rho^2}} - \frac{\rho_{xy}(x - \mu_x)}{\sigma_x \sqrt{1-\rho^2}}
\]

\[
h_2(x) := h_1(x) + B(b, T, t_i)\sigma_y \sqrt{1-\rho^2}
\]

\[
F_i(x) := \sum_{i=0}^{n} \lambda_i(x) e^{\kappa_i(x)}
\]

\[
\lambda_i(x) := c_i A(T, t_i)e^{-B(a, T, t_i)x},
\]

\[
\kappa_i(x) := -B(b, T, t_i)\left[\frac{\mu_y - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_y^2(1-\rho_{xy})B(b, T, t_i) + \rho_{xy}\sigma_y (x - \mu_x)}{\sigma_x}\right]
\]
and $y^*$ the unique solution of
\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n} \lambda_i(x) e^{-B(b,T,j)y^*} = K. \]

**Proof** The result is analogous to the derivation of the swaption price under the G2++ model, we therefore refer to equation (4.31) in Brigo and Mercurio (2006) on pages 158-159 and the corresponding proof on 173-175.

### 8.8.2 Moments and terminal correlation of the two-factor Gaussian interest rates

To determine the moments of $x(T)$ and $y(T)$ under the equity price measure, we need to consider the dynamics of (8.36), there stated under the risk-neutral measure $Q$, under the equity price measure $Q_S^S$. To change the underlying numeraire (e.g. see Geman et al. (1996)), we calculate the corresponding Radon-Nikodym derivative which is given by
\[
\frac{dQ_S^S}{dQ} = \frac{S(T)B(0)}{S(0)B(T)} = \exp\left[ -\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \nu^2(u)du + \int_0^T \nu(u)dW_{Q_S}(u) \right].
\]  

The multi-dimensional version of Girsanov’s theorem hence implies that
\[
\begin{align*}
    dW^Q_{S}(t) &\rightarrow dW^Q_{S}(t) - \nu(t)dt, \\
    dW^Q_{x}(t) &\rightarrow dW^Q_{x}(t) - \rho_{xS} \nu(t)dt, \\
    dW^Q_{y}(t) &\rightarrow dW^Q_{y}(t) - \rho_{yS} \nu(t)dt, \\
    dW^Q_{\nu}(t) &\rightarrow dW^Q_{\nu}(t) - \rho_{\nu} \nu(t)dt,
\end{align*}
\]

are $Q^S$ Brownian motions. Hence under $Q^S$ one has the following model dynamics for the volatility and interest rate process
\[
\begin{align*}
    dx(t) &= -ax(t)dt + \rho_{xS}\sigma\nu(t)dt + \sigma dW^Q_{x}(t), \quad x(0) = 0, \\
    dy(t) &= -ay(t)dt + \rho_{yS}\eta\nu(t)dt + \eta dW^Q_{y}(t), \quad y(0) = 0, \\
    d\nu(t) &= \tilde{\kappa}(\tilde{\psi} - \nu(t))dt + \tau dW^Q_{\nu}(t), \quad \nu(0) = \nu_0,
\end{align*}
\]
where \( \tilde{\kappa} := \kappa - \rho_S \tau, \tilde{\psi} := \frac{\psi}{\kappa} \). Integrating the latter dynamics (conditional on the current time filtration \( \mathcal{F}_0 \)) yields the following explicit solutions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\nu(T) &= \tilde{\psi} + (\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi})e^{-\tilde{\kappa}T} + \tau \int_0^T e^{-\tilde{\kappa}(T-u)} dW^Q_S(u), \\
x(T) &= \rho_S \sigma \left( \frac{\tilde{\psi}}{a} [1 - e^{-aT}] + \frac{\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi}}{a - \tilde{\kappa}} [e^{-\tilde{\kappa}T} - e^{-aT}] \right) \\
&\quad + \rho_S \sigma \tau \frac{1}{(a - \tilde{\kappa})} \int_0^T [e^{-\tilde{\kappa}(T-u)} - e^{-a(T-u)}] dW^Q_S(u) + \sigma \int_0^T e^{-a(T-u)} dW^Q_S(u), \\
y(T) &= \rho_S \sigma \left( \frac{\tilde{\psi}}{b} [1 - e^{-bT}] + \frac{\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi}}{b - \tilde{\kappa}} [e^{-\tilde{\kappa}T} - e^{-bT}] \right) \\
&\quad + \rho_S \eta \tau \frac{1}{(b - \tilde{\kappa})} \int_0^T [e^{-\tilde{\kappa}(T-u)} - e^{-b(T-u)}] dW^Q_S(u) + \sigma \int_0^T e^{-b(T-u)} dW^Q_S(u).
\end{align*}
\]

Using Itô’s isometry, one has that the \( x(T), y(T) \) (starting from time 0) is normally distributed with means \( \mu_x, \mu_y \) and variance \( \sigma_x^2, \sigma_y^2 \) and correlation \( \rho_{xy}(T) \) given by

\[
\begin{align*}
\mu_x &= \rho_S \sigma \left( \frac{\tilde{\psi}}{a} [1 - e^{-aT}] + \frac{\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi}}{a - \tilde{\kappa}} [e^{-\tilde{\kappa}T} - e^{-aT}] \right), \\
\mu_y &= \rho_S \sigma \left( \frac{\tilde{\psi}}{b} [1 - e^{-bT}] + \frac{\nu(0) - \tilde{\psi}}{b - \tilde{\kappa}} [e^{-\tilde{\kappa}T} - e^{-bT}] \right), \\
\sigma_x^2 &= \sigma_1^2(\sigma, a) + \sigma_2^2(\sigma, a, \rho_S) + 2\rho_{12}(\sigma, a, \rho_S) \sigma_1(\sigma, a) \sigma_2(\sigma, a, \rho_S), \\
\sigma_y^2 &= \sigma_1^2(\eta, b) + \sigma_2^2(\eta, b, \rho_S) + 2\rho_{12}(\eta, b, \rho_S) \sigma_1(\eta, b) \sigma_2(\eta, b, \rho_S), \\
\rho_{xy} &= \frac{\text{Cov}(x(T), y(T))}{\sigma_x \sigma_y},
\end{align*}
\]
where

\[
\sigma_1(\lambda, z) := \lambda \sqrt{1 - e^{-2zT}}/2z,
\]
\[
\sigma_2(\lambda, z, \rho) := \frac{\rho \lambda \tau}{z - \overline{k}} \left[ \frac{1}{2k} + \frac{1}{2z} - \frac{2}{(k + z)} - \frac{e^{-2\overline{k}T}}{2k} - \frac{e^{-2zT}}{2z} + \frac{2e^{-2(\overline{k}+\overline{z})T}}{(k + z)} \right],
\]
\[
\rho_{12}(\lambda, z, \rho_1, \rho_2) := \rho_1 \frac{\lambda^2 \rho_2 \tau}{\sigma_1(\lambda, z) \sigma_2(\lambda, z, \rho)(z - \overline{k})} \left[ \frac{e^{-(z+\overline{k})T}}{(z + \overline{k})} - \frac{e^{-2zT}}{2z} \right],
\]
\[
\text{Cov}(x(T), y(T)) := \rho_{xy} \sigma_1(\lambda, z) \sigma_2(\lambda, z, \rho) \left[ \begin{array}{c}
1 - e^{-(a+b)T} \\
(a + b)
\end{array} \right]
+ \rho_{xy} \rho_{ys} \eta \tau \left[ \begin{array}{c}
1 - e^{-(a+b)T} \\
(a + b)
\end{array} \right] - \frac{1 - e^{-(a+b)T}}{(a + b)}
+ \rho_{xy} \rho_{ys} \eta \tau \left[ \begin{array}{c}
1 - e^{-(b+\overline{k})T} \\
(b + \overline{k})
\end{array} \right] - \frac{1 - e^{-(a+b)T}}{(a + b)}
+ \rho_{ys} \sigma_1(\lambda, z) \sigma_2(\lambda, z, \rho) \left[ \begin{array}{c}
1 - e^{-2(\overline{k}+\overline{z})T} \\
2\overline{k}
\end{array} \right] + \frac{1 - e^{-(a+b)T}}{(a + b)} - \frac{1 - e^{-(a+b)T}}{(a + \overline{k})} - \frac{1 - e^{-(b+\overline{k})T}}{(b + \overline{k})}.
\]

### 8.8.3 Special case: Pricing formulas with an independent equity price process or pure interest rate guaranteed annuities

If one does not link the guaranteed annuity option to the performance of the equity (e.g. seen in the Netherlands), one has that the guaranteed annuity option price is given by

\[
C(T) = \mathbb{E}^G \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i \left( P(T, t_i) - K \right) \right],
\]

(8.70)

where the above expectation is taken with respect to the $T$-forward measure $Q^T$, which uses the zero-coupon bond price maturing at time $T$ as numeraire. Moreover, also in case one assumes the equity price is independent from the annuity, e.g. according to Boyle and Hardy (2003) and Pelsser (2003), one ends up with the same expectation as (8.70); one only has to multiply the currency $P(0, T)$ with the expectation future equity price, i.e. in (8.70) one has to replace resulting in replacing $P(0, T)$ by $P(0, T) \mathbb{E}^G [S(T)] = S(0)$. In the following sections we will derive closed-form expressions for the guaranteed annuity option price under both one-factor and two-factor Gaussian interest rates.
Chapter 8. Guaranteed Annuity Options

Hull-White model

Under the $T$-forward dynamics of the Hull and White (1993) model, see equation (2.18), we have $x(T)$ is normally distributed with mean $\mu_x$ and variance $\sigma_x^2$ given by

$$\mu_x^T := -\frac{\sigma^2}{2a^2} \left[ 1 - e^{-aT} \right] + \frac{\sigma^2}{2a^2} \left[ 1 - e^{-2aT} \right],$$

(8.71)

$$\sigma_x^T := \sigma \sqrt{\frac{1 - e^{-2aT}}{2a}}.$$  

(8.72)

Just as in Section 8.4, we have that $x(T)$ is normally distributed, i.e. with the same variance $\sigma_x^2$, but with a different mean $\mu_x^T$. Hence completely analogous to Section 8.4, one can use the Jamshidian (1989) result and write the call option on the sum of zero-coupon bonds as a sum of zero-coupon bond call options: let $x^*$ solve

$$\sum_{i=0}^n c_i A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x^*} = K,$$

(8.73)

and let

$$K_i := A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x^*}.$$  

(8.74)

Using Jamshidian (1989), we can then write GAO as a sum of zero-coupon bond options, i.e.

$$C(T) = x_{pr} g S(0) E^{Q^T} \left[ \sum_{i=0}^n c_i \left( A(T, t_i) e^{-B(T, t_i)x^*} - K_i \right) \right].$$

(8.75)

As the bond price again follows a log-normal distribution in the Gaussian model, one can express GAO price in terms of the Black and Scholes (1973) formula, i.e.

$$C(T) = x_{pr} g P(0, T) \sum_{i=0}^n c_i \left[ F_i N(d_1^i) - K_i N(d_2^i) \right].$$

(8.76)

$$F_i = e^{M_i + \frac{1}{2}V_i},$$

(8.77)

$$d_1^i = \frac{\ln(F_i/K_i) + \frac{1}{2}V_i}{\sqrt{V_i}},$$

(8.78)

$$d_2^i = d_1^i - \sqrt{V_i},$$

(8.79)

where

$$M_i = \ln A(T, t_i) - B(T, t_i) \mu_x^T,$$

(8.80)

$$V_i = B^2(T, t_i)(\sigma_x^T)^2,$$

(8.81)

and note that the above expression only deviates from (8.30) in the different means and variances for the $x(T)$ process.
Gaussian Two-factor model

Under $Q^T$, one has the following expression for the stochastic factors $x(T), y(T)$ that drive the short interest rate (e.g. see Brigo and Mercurio (2006)):

$$x(T) = \mu_x^T + \sigma \int_0^T e^{-a(T-u)} dW^Q_x(u), \quad y(T) = \mu_y^T + \sigma \int_0^T e^{-b(T-u)} dW^Q_y(u),$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.82)

hence $x(T), y(T)$ is normally distributed with means $\mu_x^T, \mu_y^T$, variances $\sigma^2_x, \sigma^2_y$ and correlation $\rho_{xy}(T)$ given by

$$\mu_x^T := \frac{\eta^2}{a^2 + \rho_{xy} \frac{\sigma \eta}{ab}} \left[ 1 - e^{-aT} \right] + \frac{\sigma^2}{2a} \left[ 1 - e^{-2aT} \right] + \frac{\rho_{xy} \sigma \eta}{b(a + b)} \left[ 1 - e^{-(a+b)T} \right],$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.83)

$$\mu_y^T := \frac{\eta^2}{b^2 + \rho_{xy} \frac{\sigma \eta}{ab}} \left[ 1 - e^{-bT} \right] + \frac{\eta^2}{2b^2} \left[ 1 - e^{-2bT} \right] + \frac{\rho_{xy} \sigma \eta}{a(a + b)} \left[ 1 - e^{-(a+b)T} \right],$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.84)

$$\sigma_x := \sigma \sqrt{\frac{1 - e^{-2aT}}{2a}},$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.85)

$$\sigma_y := \eta \sqrt{\frac{1 - e^{-2bT}}{2b}},$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.86)

$$\rho_{xy}(T) := \rho_{xy} \frac{\sigma \eta}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \left[ 1 - e^{-(a+b)T} \right].$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.87)

Hence analogously to Section 8.5, one has that the GAO price is given by

$$C(T) = gP(0,T)G(\mu_x^T, \mu_y^T, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \rho_{xy}(T)), \hspace{1cm} (8.88)$$

where $G$ is a closed-form expression, i.e. defined by equation (8.53) of appendix 8.8.1.
8.8.4 Model setup and relative differences in the Chu and Kwok (1999) example

In this appendix we describe the numerical input of the example being used in Chu and Kwok (2007). We also report the relative differences between the GAO price obtained by their methods and the exact closed form expression in (8.44) for that example; note that as the Black-Scholes G2++ model, used in Chu and Kwok (2007), is special case of the Schöbel-Zhu G2++ considered in 8.5, we can one on one translate their parameters into our modelling framework. As the notation is slightly different, we explicitly provide this translation into our modelling framework.

The GAO is specified using the guaranteed rate $g = 9$, the current age of the policy holder $x = 50$ and his retirement age is $r = 65$, with corresponding probability of survival $p_x = 0.9091$ and time to expiry for the GAO equal to $T = 15$ years. The equity price is modeled by the Black and Scholes (1973) model with parameters:

$$ q = 5\%, \quad S(0) = 100 \exp(-q \cdot T) = 47.24, \quad \sigma_S = 10\%,$$

where $q$ denotes the continuous dividend rate and $\sigma_S$ the constant volatility of the equity price.

The current (continuous) yield curve is given by (8.91) and for the G2++ interest rate model (e.g. see Brigo and Mercurio (2006)) the following parameters are used:

$$ a = 0.77, \quad b = 0.08, \quad \sigma = 2\%, \quad \eta = 1\%, \quad \rho_{xy} = -0.7. $$

where the correlations between equity and interest rate drivers given by $\rho_{1S} = 0.5$ and $\rho_{yS} = 0.0071$. Finally, the $i$-year survival probabilities $c_i$ from policy holder’s retirement age 65 are provided in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$c_0$</th>
<th>1.0000</th>
<th>$c_9$</th>
<th>0.8304</th>
<th>$c_{18}$</th>
<th>0.4889</th>
<th>$c_{27}$</th>
<th>0.0998</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$c_1$</td>
<td>0.9871</td>
<td>$c_{10}$</td>
<td>0.8018</td>
<td>$c_{19}$</td>
<td>0.4414</td>
<td>$c_{28}$</td>
<td>0.0725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_2$</td>
<td>0.9730</td>
<td>$c_{11}$</td>
<td>0.7708</td>
<td>$c_{20}$</td>
<td>0.3934</td>
<td>$c_{29}$</td>
<td>0.0503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_3$</td>
<td>0.9578</td>
<td>$c_{12}$</td>
<td>0.7374</td>
<td>$c_{21}$</td>
<td>0.3454</td>
<td>$c_{30}$</td>
<td>0.0330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_4$</td>
<td>0.9411</td>
<td>$c_{13}$</td>
<td>0.7015</td>
<td>$c_{22}$</td>
<td>0.2981</td>
<td>$c_{31}$</td>
<td>0.0203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_5$</td>
<td>0.9229</td>
<td>$c_{14}$</td>
<td>0.6632</td>
<td>$c_{23}$</td>
<td>0.2523</td>
<td>$c_{32}$</td>
<td>0.0115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_6$</td>
<td>0.9029</td>
<td>$c_{15}$</td>
<td>0.6226</td>
<td>$c_{24}$</td>
<td>0.2088</td>
<td>$c_{33}$</td>
<td>0.0059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_7$</td>
<td>0.8808</td>
<td>$c_{16}$</td>
<td>0.5798</td>
<td>$c_{25}$</td>
<td>0.1684</td>
<td>$c_{34}$</td>
<td>0.0027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_8$</td>
<td>0.8567</td>
<td>$c_{17}$</td>
<td>0.5351</td>
<td>$c_{26}$</td>
<td>0.1319</td>
<td>$c_{35}$</td>
<td>0.0011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: $i$-year survival probabilities $c_i$ from policy holder’s retirement age 65. A maximum age of 100 is assumed, that is for all $j > 35$: $c_j = 0$.

In Section 8.6.2 we compared the prices of the exact closed-form solution (8.44) and estimates obtained using 1 000 000 Monte Carlo simulations with the Minimum Variance, the Edgeworth and Affine Approximation method which are used in Chu and Kwok (2007). These results can be found in Table 4, where a comparison is given for different levels $r_0$ of the yield curve provided.
by the (continuous) yields

\[ Y(T) = r_0 + 0.04(1 - e^{-0.2T}). \]  

To shed more light on the relative performance of these methods compared to the exact closed-form formula, we report in Table 6 the relative differences of these methods to this formula.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( r_0 ) Strike Level</th>
<th>Min. Var. Duration</th>
<th>Edgeworth Expansion</th>
<th>Affine Approx.</th>
<th>Monte Carlo Simulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5% 127%</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0% 123%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5% 118%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>-0.3%</td>
<td>-0.3%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0% 114%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>-0.6%</td>
<td>-0.4%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5% 110%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>-0.9%</td>
<td>-0.6%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0% 106%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>-1.0%</td>
<td>-0.8%</td>
<td>-0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5% 103%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>-0.9%</td>
<td>-0.7%</td>
<td>-0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.0% 99%</td>
<td>-0.6%</td>
<td>-1.3%</td>
<td>-0.3%</td>
<td>-0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5% 96%</td>
<td>-2.2%</td>
<td>-2.9%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>-0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0% 93%</td>
<td>-5.1%</td>
<td>-6.2%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5% 90%</td>
<td>-9.4%</td>
<td>-15.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.0% 88%</td>
<td>-23.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5% 85%</td>
<td>-32.8%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.0% 83%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: The relative differences compared to the closed-form formula of the exact GAO price, for different strike levels around the at-the-money point, can be found in the table.

An analysis of the above results is provided in Section 8.6.2.