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An application of Real Options**

by

Ashok Banerjee

Professor, IIM Calcutta, Joka, Diamond Harbour Road, Kolkata 700104, India

Soubhik Chatterjee

PGP student, IIM Calcutta, D. H. Road, Joka P.O., Kolkata 700 104, India

&

Brij Bhushan Garg

PGP student, IIM Calcutta, D. H. Road, Joka P.O., Kolkata 700 104, India

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Prof. Ashok Banerjee (Professor, Finance and Control, IIM Calcutta)

SoubhikChatterjee(2nd Year PGDM Student, IIM Calcutta)*

Brij Bhushan Garg (2nd Year PGDM Student, IIM Calcutta)

*** Corresponding author** (csoubhik@gmail.com)

Introduction

Uncertainty is one of the major challenges in any business enterprise. There is uncertainty about prices, uncertainty about supply and demand, uncertainty about trade and even uncertainty about political environments. Uncertainty however is not all bad. It creates certain opportunities which when exploited appropriately can create value for the company. As such it is essential that businesses realize the decision flexibilities they have and how they can put a value to the flexibility as to enable comparisons.

These uncertainties create opportunities to capture future value depending on a particular view of the future trend, at a small current cost. These are commonly called Options in the financial parlance. Such options give the right (not obligation) to buy or sell an asset in the future if the conditions become favourable. Myers (1977) identified that many corporate decisions can be viewed as exercising options on real assets, and hence coined the term real options. Options to delay, abandon or expand a project are all real options in the hand of a manager.

Real options, though based on the same basic philosophy as financial options, differ from the latter in certain distinct aspects. Real options span over real assets which often require time to build which widens the uncertainty. The time to expiration of real assets is much longer than that of financial options, and in some cases even have a perpetual existence. Most importantly, for a real option, the decision rule is more significant than the exercise value, while for a financial option it is the exercise value that assumes greater importance.

Real options provide an important tool for managers to capture value from uncertainty. Most of the corporate decisions are irreversible and hence a wrong decision can cause great losses for the company. However, if the manager uses the flexibility in decision making, by quantifying the value of this flexibility, he might be able to save costs. For example, capital budgeting is a critical decision a manager has to take. If the value of option to abandon or expand a project at later stage is captured, a not so attractive project might become viable. Similarly, while valuing a firm, traditional DCF methods might not be able to capture the options that might open up due to acquisition of the firm. Damodaran (2005) mentions that flexibilities offered by gain of control over a firm, option to liquidate and the option to utilize the patents, trademarks etc of the firm can be more effectively captured by real option valuation.

There has been a lot of research on real options and its applicability in various decision making scenarios. One of the areas of focus has been the development of a decision rule for sequential investment. Most of this research has concentrated on the mathematical formulation of the investment rule. This study attempts to develop an easily usable spreadsheet based framework, to enable a practicing manager to decide on such a rule. The study also attempts to capture multiple parameters that affect the project value of an oil company and thereby also calculate an average time to wait before making any investment.

It is observed, that the investment rule and the average time to wait depends not only on the price of oil, but it also is highly sensitive to the reserve value, recovery factor and exchange rate.

This paper is organized in five sections. In the second section we review relevant literature on real option. The third section discusses the unique characteristics of the oil and gas business. The fourth and fifth sections discuss the research methodology and the results respectively. The last section provides the concluding remarks.

Literature Review

Myers (1977), who coined the term Real Options, splits the value of a firm into what he calls “Real Assets” and “Real Options”. He points out that a part of the value of a firm is made up of present value of options to make further investments and this value depends on the rule for deciding whether the options are to be exercised on possibly favourable terms. Myers says “One can think of real options that are separable, objectively identifiable, relatively long-lived, and for which reasonable secondary markets exist. Examples are patents, certain trademarks, franchises and operating licenses.” Among other things, Myers applies the Real Options Theory to better understand the corporate borrowing decision.

Since then, Real Options Theory has been employed in specific industries, unlike Myers who considered a general firm. Banerjee (2003) looks at use to Real Options to better value a research-driven firm. He has particularly focused on a pharmaceutical firm and used Real Options to value the R&D investments which significantly improves the valuation as compared to a traditional DCF methodology. Real Options offer an effective methodology to value uncertainty in high-tech and R&D environments. Leon (2004) has used real options to value a biotech firm, while, Hartmann (2006) has used Real Options for valuation of pharmaceutical R&D. Similarly, Benaroch and Kauffman (1999) utilize option-pricing models to evaluation investment decisions in the Information Technology industry. They apply the Black Scholes option pricing model to a real world business simulation involving IT as its test bed.

Other industries which have seen significant applications of the Real Options theory are the oil and gas and mining industries. Gibson and Schwartz (1998) examine the oil price and convenience yield behaviours. Davis (1998) applies the real options theory to value a mineral reserve deposit. Abid and Kaffel (2009) use real option to evaluate the option of deferring an oilfield development. Major research has gone into exploring different ways of modelling the price risk and the geotechnical risk (Amstrong et al, 2004) which would be eventually used to value the oil field and the investment decision.

Oil and Gas Industry

Oil and gas business is one of the oldest and most important businesses of the modern world. Over the last century, the world has become excessively dependent on oil and many ancillary industries completely depend on oil and gas. In fact, Yergin(1991) argues that oil is the reason for most major wars over the last century. The situation has become all the more critical over the past decade as easy oil is almost exhausted and most of the oil reserves are concentrated in the OPEC group of countries. All the recent discoveries are either not of significant size or located in very adverse conditions, raising the costs and uncertainties over oil production. Coupled with this, the dynamics and the power games between the OPEC and OECD blocks have caused oil price to be very volatile and subject to abrupt changes.

Oil and gas business possesses certain unique characteristics that distinguish it from other businesses. It is not only extremely capital intensive but also faces a vast plethora of uncertainties, besides the uncertainties of supply, demand and price. There are uncertainties with reserve volumes, recovery factors, oil quality, concessionary agreements and strategic interests. As such, the oil industry has not only learnt to live with uncertainty but also mastered the art of quantifying uncertainty and exploiting it.

However, the industry still widely uses the one-time period Bayesian uncertainty framework, which fails to recognize the multi-period decision making characteristics. One of the typical uncertainties facing an oil company is when to invest and when to withhold investments during the execution of an oil project such as oil exploration, oilfield development, well work-overs, logging, stimulation, fracking, water shut-offs etc. Each of these projects requires capital investment over a period of time, during which the managers have options to postpone, abandon or extend the project. This flexibility in making investment can prove to be great value as most of these investments are of immense magnitude and irreversible. One of the problems that the manager encounter in such cases is the difficulty is quantifying flexibilities to justify a seemingly unviable project. This can be achieved through the use of real options.

Methodology

Real options lend the managers a tool to not only deal with uncertainty but also exploit it. In a typical capital investment scenario, a manager has to decide when to invest for developing or exploring a particular asset. We attempt to first create a decision framework or investment envelope, which would mark the boundary of whether or not to invest.

For calculation of the investment envelope, the model used is the one used by Majid and Pindyck (1987) and as elaborated by Dixit and Pindyck (1993). Our hypothetical company invests continuously until project completion and has the option to stop the project at any point of time. The company can also restart the project at a later date with no extra cost. This is perhaps an over simplification but would serve to develop the model at this stage. The payoff upon completion, given by " V ", follows an exogenous geometric brownian motion:

$$dV = \alpha V dt + \sigma V dz$$

It is assumed that the project value spans the range for V . Let " k " be the maximum rate of investment and " K " be the total remaining expenditure required to complete the project. Also, let μ be the risk adjusted discount rate applicable for V and let $\delta = \mu - \alpha$ (with $\alpha < \mu$), where α is the drift for the project value and δ is the convenience yield. Here investment is irreversible and if a firm suspends investment, because of V falling below a critical value, the firm can resume work at a later date from the same point. The rate of change of K is given by

$$dK = -I dt \tag{1}$$

The solution of the model is a decision rule that would help the firm decide to continue or suspend investment at any point of time depending on the value of the project V . That is, to find out a critical cut-off for the project value, $V^*(K)$, such that when $V \geq V^*(K)$ the firm invests at rate " k ", and does not invest otherwise. This creates an opportunity to postpone or an option for the firm which has a value of $F_V(V, K)$. As such, to develop the decision rule would be a solution of the equation for $F_V(V, K)$.

Let us consider a portfolio consisting of the option to invest and a short position in F_V units of V . The value of this portfolio is $\Omega = F(V, K) - F_V V$. The change in the value of this portfolio is given by

$$\begin{aligned} d\Omega &= dF - F_V dV \\ &= F_V dV + 0.5 F_{VV} (dV)^2 + F_K dK - F_V dV \\ &= 0.5 \sigma^2 V^2 F_{VV} dt - I F_K dt \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

The short position would involve a cash outflow of $\delta F_V V dt$, with an additional outflow of $I dt$ for the investment. Therefore the total return on the portfolio is

$$d\Omega - I dt - \delta F_V V dt$$

For this portfolio to be risk free this must equal $r \Omega dt$, where r is the risk free rate. Substituting $d\Omega$ from above and dividing throughout by dt gives the equation for $F(V, K)$

$$0.5\sigma^2 V^2 F_{VV} - (r - \delta)VF_V - rF - IF_k - I = 0 \quad (3)$$

The solution to the above equation should also satisfy the following boundary conditions

$$F(V, 0) = V$$

$$F(0, K) = 0$$

$$\lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} F_V(V, K) = e^{-\delta K/k}$$

Along with the condition that $F(V, K)$ and $F_V(V, K)$ should be continuous at $V = V^*$.

Equation (3) is linear in I and hence the optimal investment rule is either to invest at maximum rate k or not invest at all. When there is no investment, i.e. $I = 0$, F_k term disappears and the equation reduces to an ordinary differential equation. This has an analytical solution (for $V < V^*$), Dixit and Pindyck (1993).

$$F(V, K) = AV^{\beta_1} \quad (4)$$

$$\beta_1 = 0.5 - \frac{r - \delta}{\sigma^2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{r - \delta}{\sigma^2} - 0.5\right)^2 + 2r/\sigma^2}$$

A is a constant which is obtained from the solution of $F(V, K)$ for $V > V^*$ and $I = k$. For these conditions equation (3) can be solved numerically (as elaborated in the Appendix).

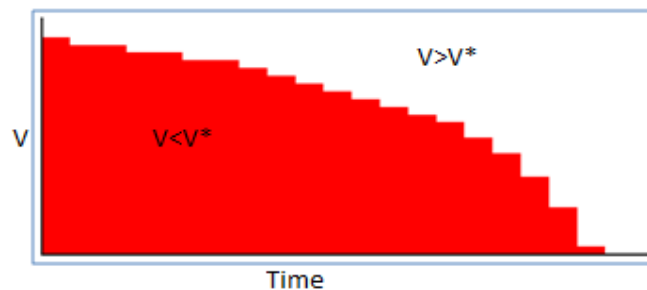


Figure 1: Investment Envelope

The investment envelope as calculated above would show regions wherein the investor should wait (red region) and regions wherein the investor should invest.

In most oil investment scenarios, it is not only important to find out whether there is an option value in postponing an investment, but it is also necessary to have an idea about what would be the average waiting time. This immensely helps in designing exploration and development strategies and securing rig and service contracts when the prices are appropriate. Though several researchers, like Dias &

Rocha (1999) and Dias (2002), have used the above framework for deciding on whether or not to invest, the time dimension implicit in the above model has not been properly exploited.

As the investment sequence used in the above model involves a constant rate of investment over a period of time and comparing the same to the project value to make a decision on investment, the time at which the decision rule gives a green light for investment is also the time when the project value attains a certain threshold. Hence the evolution of project value combined with the above decision rule can be used to estimate the average time to wait before making an investment.

Supposing that the current value of the project is such that the above model guides the investor to wait. In order to find out, on an average, how much time should he be waiting, we formulate a Monte Carlo framework.

Simulation is carried out to estimate an average time to wait, given an initial value for V , by simulating the evolution of V . Most of the work done on real options concentrates on the stochastic nature of the project value V or the associated price P . However, especially for an oil project the project value depends upon a number of variables which are themselves stochastic. Using a simplified form, V can be calculated as

$$V = q * B * P * E$$

Where q = Recovery Factor

B = Reserve Size

P = Oil Price

E = Exchange Rate

For the above simulation to work, the factors comprising V should be independent. Recovery Factor is independent of the size of the field (and other parameters). Oil price and exchange rate do exhibit a certain degree of correlation for a majorly oil importing nation. However considering the plethora of other macroeconomic factors that affect the spot exchange rate, the effect of oil price is minimal and therefore the parameters can be taken as independent.

Recovery Factor ranges from 20% to about 70%¹ and depends on a number of geological factors such as type of deposit, primary and secondary drive mechanisms, fault connectivity etc. This is a stochastic variable but in the industry it is often expressed as a range typical for a type of oilfield. Reserve Size is again composed of a number of factors viz. porosity, area and height of deposit, oil formation volume factor and connate water saturation. Porosity is generally modelled as a random distribution while the other factors are modelled as ranges. Recovery factor and reserve size are handled as triangular distributions characterised by the parameters minimum, maximum and the mode. For the recovery factor, the minimum corresponds to the recovery for through drive for an oilfield whereas the minimum corresponds to the tertiary recovery using advanced techniques such as ASPs, microbial EOR etc. Mode corresponds to natural drive with water-flood and gas lift. Similarly the minimum, mode and maximum for the reserve size correspond to the P, 2P and 3P values of the reserve.

¹Total E&P The Know-How series, 2008

Oil price and exchange rates are modelled as mean reverting geometric brownian motions as

$$\frac{dP}{P} = \varphi(\mu - P)dt + \sigma dz$$

Where φ = Speed of adjustment

μ = Mean price/exchange rate

This is a typical Arithmetic Ornstein-Uhlenbeckprocess where the half life (time taken for the expected value of the parameter to reach the mid -point between the current value and long run mean μ) is given by

$$H = \frac{\ln 2}{\varphi}$$

Oil price has been extensively modelled via geometric brownian motion, mean reverting models, jump diffusion models etc. Here oil price is modelled as a mean reverting Geometric Brownian Motion.Exchange rate assumes a lot of importance in the current global scenario, especially for majorly oil importing countries like India. As such, companies in these countries, while making investments abroad would need to take care of the volatility of the exchange rate. Exchange rate is also a random variable but the central bank usually intervenes to keep the exchange within a narrow range.

For each simulated time path (iteration) the simulator first samples the reserve size and recovery factor from their respective triangular distributions. Next for each time step, oil price and exchange rates are generated using the mean reverting geometric brownian models. Combining these parameters gives the value of the project V and thus its evolution over time.

Results

The framework obtainedprovides an easy decision tool to help a company decide to make an investment or wait and also provide the value for waiting.

Assuming the following typical parameters (Table 1) for a project envelope is constructed.

V maximum	Rs. 30,000 million
V Minimum	Rs. 400 million
Max Investment	Rs. 2,500 million
Max Investment Rate	Rs. 500 million/yr

Table 1: Parameters used for investment envelope calculation

The minimum and maximum values for the project should be sufficiently wide so as to span the range of possible project values to be explored in the simulation phase. Max investment corresponds to a 10 well development for a 4 million barrel oil reserve (assuming a per well investment of about 5 million USD).

The result for the investment envelope is shown in Fig 2.

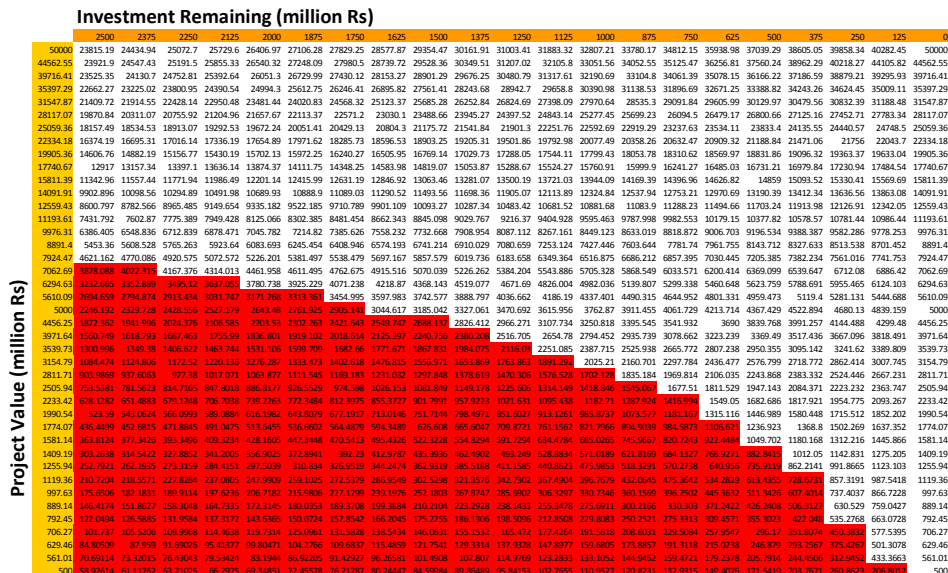


Figure 2: Generation of the Investment Envelope

The red zone in the investment envelope shows the zone wherein the company must not invest but wait. The numbers in the red zone show the option value for waiting. For example, when Rs. 2,000 million of investment is left, the company should not invest anymore if the project value falls below Rs. 6,294.63 million. At Rs. 5,610.09 million of project value, this value of option for waiting is worth Rs. 3,031.75 million.

Though this model has been developed for oil investments, this investment envelope is a generic framework and can be used by any firm to decide on its investments.

To find out the average time that the company needs to wait before making the investment, a Monte Carlo simulation is run with the following parameters (Table 2):

	Oil Price (\$/bbl)	Currency (Rs/\$)
Mean	80	47
Speed of Adjustment	0.1	0.6
Current	90	45

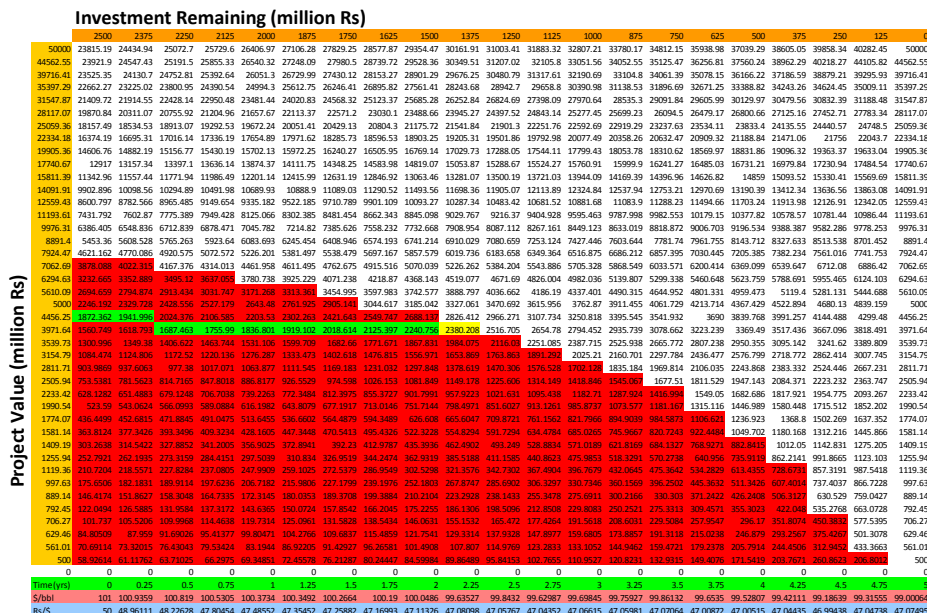
	Reserve Size (MMbbl)	Recovery Factor (%)
Min	1	40
Max	4	70
Mode	2	60

Table 2: Simulation run parameters

Mean oil price is obtained from the EIA forecast¹ while volatility corresponds to the OVX index (oil Volatility Index, CBOE). Speed of adjustment for oil corresponds to a half-life of about 1.1 years, Dias & Rocha (1999). Exchange rate used is the USD to INR exchange. Speed of adjustment for exchange corresponds to a half-life of six months and volatility is obtained from standard industry data³.

¹ <http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/steo/uncertainty/index.cfm>
² <http://www.cboe.com/micro/oilvix/introduction.aspx>
³ <http://www.ratesfx.com/predictions/pred-inr.html>

The simulator also draws the project value path on the envelope and marks the point where the project value breaches the envelope, as shown in figure 3. On running the simulator for a number of runs, the average time to wait is obtained. For example, on 100 simulation runs, the average time to wait comes out to be 1.035yr.



extract such data in real time from databases such as Bloomberg or Reuters and the same can be used to make a decision.

The reserve size used can also be more explicitly modelled. Normally, exploratory logs give a pretty good idea about the distributions of porosity and connate water saturation, while laboratory experiments can give an idea about the oil formation volume factor. Moreover, seismic data can provide depths to about +/- 40 ft accuracy. The areal extent is however more tricky. Combining these parameters can give a better picture about the uncertainty range in the reserve value.

The current model as such can be enhanced to include the aforesaid ideas and can be a scope for further research.

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Appendix

In order to calculate the investment envelope, equation (3) must be solved. This is a PDE with no closed form analytical solution. As such, the equation needs to be solved numerically.

Equation (3) can be solved by Finite Difference Method (FDM) as mentioned by Dixit and Pindyck (1993). We reproduce the same below.

$F(V,K)$ can first be transformed to $G(X,K)$ by

$$F(V, K) = e^{-\frac{rK}{k}} G(X, K)$$

where $X = \log V$.

The partial equation for $V > V^*$ and the boundary conditions then become

$$0.5\sigma^2 G_{XX} + (r - \delta - 0.5\sigma^2)G_X - kG_K - ke^{\frac{rK}{k}} = 0 \quad (5)$$

$$G(X, 0) = e^X \quad (6)$$

$$\lim_{X \rightarrow \infty} (e^{-X} e^{-\frac{rK}{k}} G_X(X, K)) = e^{-\delta K/k} \quad (7)$$

$$G(X^*, K) = \frac{1}{\beta_1} * G_X(X^*, K) \quad (8)$$

Using FDM method transforms the continuous variables V and K into discrete variables and replaces the partial derivatives with finite differences.

Let $G(X, K) \equiv G(i\Delta X, j\Delta K) \equiv G_{i,j}$, where $-b \leq I \leq m$ and $0 \leq j \leq n$. Substituting

$$G_{XX} \approx (G_{i+1,j} - 2G_{i,j} + G_{i-1,j})/\Delta X^2$$

$$G_X \approx (G_{i+1,j} - G_{i-1,j})/(2\Delta X)$$

$$G_K \approx (G_{i,j+1} - G_{i,j})/\Delta K$$

into equation (5)

$$G_{i,j} = p^+ G_{i+1,j-1} + p^0 G_{i,j-1} + p^- G_{i-1,j-1} - n_{j-1} \quad (9)$$

where,

$$p^+ = \Delta K \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta X} + r - \delta - 0.5\sigma^2 \right) / (2k\Delta K)$$

$$p^0 = 1 - \sigma^2 \Delta K / (k\Delta X^2)$$

$$p^- = \Delta K \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta X} - r + \delta + 0.5\sigma^2 \right) / (2k\Delta K)$$

$$n_j = \Delta K e^{rj\Delta K/k}$$

The terminal boundary condition is

$$G_{i,j=0} = e^{i\Delta X} \quad (10)$$

and the upper boundary condition is

$$\lim_{X \rightarrow \infty} (e^{-X} e^{-\frac{rK}{k}} G_X(X, K) = e^{-\delta K/k}$$

or

$$G_X(m\Delta X, K) = e^{m\Delta X(r-\delta)j\Delta K/k}$$

using FDM approximation for G_X , the above equation becomes

$$\frac{G_{m+1,j} - G_{m-1,j}}{2\Delta X} = e^{m\Delta X(r-\delta)j\Delta K/k}$$

or

$$G_{m+1,j} = 2\Delta X e^{m\Delta X(r-\delta)j\Delta K/k} + G_{m-1,j}$$

substituting this for G_{m+1} , in equation (9) (setting $i=m$)

$$G_{m,j+1} = p^+ G_{m+1,j} + p^0 G_{m,j} + p^- G_{m-1,j} - n_j$$

or

$$G_{m,j+1} = p^+ 2\Delta X e^{m\Delta X(r-\delta)j\Delta K/k} + p^0 G_{m,j} + (p^- + p^+) G_{m-1,j} - n_j \quad (11)$$

The free boundary condition is

$$G_{i^*,j} = G_{i^*+1,j} / (\beta 1\Delta X + 1)$$

The solution proceeds in the following manner

1. First the terminal boundary is filled in using equation (10)
2. Then for $j = 1$ to n , equation (11) is used to calculate $G_{m,j}$ and then using (9) rest of the $G_{i,j}$ down the column for $I < m$ is calculated.
3. For each value of $G_{i,j}$, the following check is performed to find if the boundary has been reached

$$G_{i^*,j} - G_{i^*+1,j} / (\beta 1\Delta X + 1) \leq \varepsilon,$$

where ε is chosen arbitrarily

4. At the free boundary, value of A as in equation (4) is calculated and the same equation is used to fill the values of $G_{i,j}$ in the lower region.

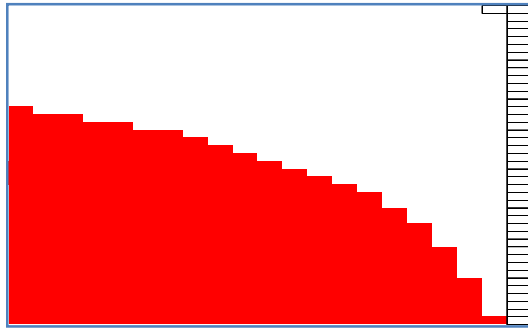


Figure 4: Sequence of FDM computation

As shown in Figure 4, the computation starts from the extreme right most top cell and then continues down the column. As the G values hit the envelope the analytical solutions of equation (4) are used to calculate the value of the option down the column.