

# Modelling with Jump Processes and Optimal Control

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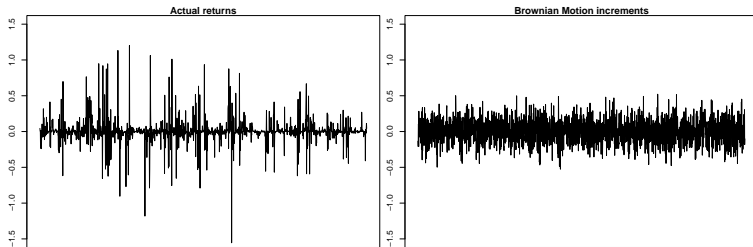
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# Introduction

# Are continuous type models satisfactory?

Empirical facts of financial time series and how Diffusion models (DM) and Models with Jumps (JM) can capture these facts

- Sudden movements, heavy tails
  - **DM: extremely large volatility term need to be added**
  - **JM: generic property**



**Figure:** Left picture: Returns observed every 6 seconds. In the right one, Brownian Motion increments with the same mean and variance.

# Glance at history

- (1900) L. Bachelier: probabilistic modelling of financial markets using Brownian Motion.
- (1st half of 20th cent.) P. Lévy: Lévy processes introduced.
- (1963) B. B. Mandelbrot:  $\alpha$ -stable distribution to model cotton prices.
- (1973) Black and Scholes: geometric Brownian motion.
- (1976) R.C. Merton: (Poisson) Jump-Diffusion model.
- (1998) O.E. Barndorff-Nielsen: Normal Inverse Gaussian process.
- (2000 - ...) Boom in Jump processes.

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# Lévy Processes

# What are Lévy processes

Assume a given probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, (\mathcal{F}_t), P)$ , with usual conditions.

## Definition

We say that the process  $L = (L_t, t \geq 0)$ ,  $L_0 = 0$  is a *Lévy process* if

- (i)  $L$  has *stationary increments*:  
$$\mathcal{L}(L_t - L_s) = \mathcal{L}(L_{t-s}), 0 \leq s < t < \infty,$$
- (ii)  $L$  has *independent increments*:  
$$L_t - L_s \perp \mathcal{F}_s, 0 \leq s < t < \infty,$$
- (iii)  $L$  is *continuous in probability*:  $L_t \xrightarrow{P} L_s, t \rightarrow s.$

# Examples

Poisson process  $L_t \sim Po(\lambda t)$ ,  $\lambda > 0$ .

- Density

$$P(L_t = k) = \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda t},$$

- Characteristic function

$$\psi_{L_t}(u) = \exp(\lambda t (e^{iu} - 1)).$$

Brownian motion

- Characteristic function

$$\psi_{L_t}(u) = \exp\left(\mu t u - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 t u^2\right).$$

*Remark*

$L$  is Lévy if and only if the distribution of  $L_t$  is infinitely divisible for all  $t \geq 0$ .



# Notation

We denote a jump size at time  $t$

$$\Delta L(t) = L(t) - L(t-), \quad 0 \leq t < \infty.$$

For  $A \in \mathcal{B}(R)$  bounded below we define

$$N(t, A) = \# \{0 \leq s \leq t, \Delta L(s) \in A\}, \quad 0 \leq t < \infty,$$

which is a Poisson process with intensity  $\nu(A) = \mathbb{E} [N(1, A)]$ .

We introduce a Poisson integral

$$L_t = \sum_{0 \leq s \leq t} \Delta L_s = \int_{[0, t] \times \mathbb{R}} z N(ds, dz).$$

We define a *compensated poisson random measure*

$$\tilde{N}(t, A) = N(t, A) - t\nu(A).$$

# Basic theorem I.

## Theorem (Lévy-Itô Decomposition)

If  $L$  is a Lévy process then there is  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sigma \geq 0$  and a Poisson random measure  $N$  with a Lévy measure  $\nu$  satisfying

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} (1 \wedge z^2) \nu(dz) < \infty,$$

such that

$$L_t = bt + \sigma W_t + \int_{|z| \leq 1} z \tilde{N}(t, dz) + \int_{|z| > 1} z N(t, dz), \quad 0 \leq t < \infty. \quad (2.1)$$

- The small jumps part  $\int_{|z| \leq 1} z \tilde{N}(t, dz)$  is an  $L^2$ -martingale
- Large jumps part  $\int_{|z| > 1} z N(t, dz)$  is of finite variation, but may have no finite moments

## Basic theorem II.

### Theorem (Levy-Khintchine formula)

Let  $L$  be a Lévy process, then

$$E e^{iuL_t} = e^{t\psi(u)},$$

$u \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $t \geq 0$  and

$$\psi(u) = ibu - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 u^2 + \int_{\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}} (e^{iuz} - 1 - iuzI_{[|z|<1]}) \nu(dz).$$

As an immediate result we can see that the law of a Lévy process  $L$  is uniquely determined by the law of  $L_1$ .

# Pathwise properties

- Essentially driven by jumps, càdlàg paths.
- As an immediate result of Lévy-Itô decomposition we see that for every Lévy process

$$\sum_{0 \leq s \leq t} |\Delta L_s|^2 \mathbb{I}_{[|\Delta L_s| < 1]} < \infty, \quad \forall t \geq 0, a.s.$$

but we allow

$$\sum_{0 \leq s \leq t} |\Delta L_s| \mathbb{I}_{[|\Delta L_s| < 1]} = \infty, \quad \forall t \geq 0, a.s.$$

in which case  $L$  is of infinite variaton.

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# Modelling with Jump Processes

# Outline of modelling phase

## ① Making the series stationary

- we assume that the nonstationarity is basically caused by variable intensity of trading,
- overcome by appropriate time change.

## ② Selecting a model

- based on empirical facts (moments, variation, tail behavior).

## ③ Choosing a fitting procedure and get the parameters

- if analytical density is known, MLE method is used,
- otherwise GMM method based on characteristic function can be applied.

# Variation

## Remark

Let  $L$  be a Lévy process of the form (2.1),  $\Delta_t^n = \{t_0, \dots, t_n\}$  arbitrary partition of interval  $[0, t]$

$$\sum_{\Delta_t^n} (L_{t_i} - L_{t_{i-1}})^2 \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2 t + \sum_{s \in [0, t]} [\Delta(L_s)]^2, \quad \|\Delta_t^n\| \rightarrow 0.$$

In other words, our estimator of volatility may be deformed by big jumps. Alternatives

- BiPower Variation (Barndorff 1998)

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \sum_{\Delta_t^n} |L_{t_i} - L_{t_{i-1}}| |L_{t_{i-1}} - L_{t_{i-2}}|.$$

- Truncated Quadratic Variation (Hannig 2009)

$$\sum_{\Delta_t^n} (L_{t_i} - L_{t_{i-1}})^2 \mathbb{I}_{[|L_{t_i} - L_{t_{i-1}}| < g(\Delta_{t_i}^n)]}.$$

are both consistent estimators of  $\sigma^2 t$ .

# Comparison of different estimates of standard deviations

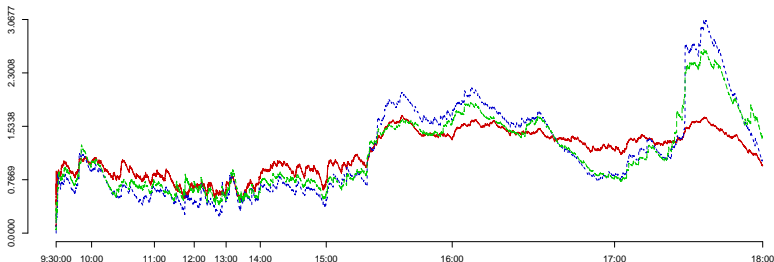


Figure: Transformed time: green line = Quadratic variation, red = truncated QV, blue = BiPower variation.



# Normal Inverse Gaussian

- Process can be expressed as  $L_t = B(T_t)$ , where

$$T_t = \inf \{s > 0; W_s + \alpha s = \delta t\},$$

and  $B_t$  is a Brownian motion with drift  $\theta$  and volatility  $\sigma$ .

- Pure jump model with infinite variation.
- Exponential tail decay.
- Probability density in a closed (analytical) form (Bessel function), i.e. MLE possible.

# Merton Jump-Diffusion

- Process can be expressed as

$$L_t = \alpha t + \sigma W_t + \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} Y_i, \quad t \geq 0,$$

i.e. Brownian motion with big gaussian jumps.

- Tails a little heavier than gaussian.
- Probability density function can be expressed in a series expansion. We use first order approximation

$$f_{L_{\Delta t}}(x) = (1 - \lambda \Delta t) f_{W_{\Delta t}}(x) + \lambda \Delta t (f_{W_{\Delta t} + Y_1})(x).$$

# Estimation method

Maximum Likelihood method performed<sup>1</sup>.

NIG model					
Time scale	$\bar{\alpha}$	$\mu$	$\sigma$	$\theta$	
$\mathcal{T}$	0.080051	-0.00012	0.3499268	0.0001245	
$\overline{\mathcal{T}}$	0.090008	-0.00101	0.3468827	0.0010085	

Merton model					
	$\mu$	$\sigma$	$\gamma$	$\delta$	$\lambda$
$\mathcal{T}$	-0.000201	0.087893	0.000260	0.6708204	0.316296
$\overline{\mathcal{T}}$	-0.000289	0.099935	0.000778	0.6708204	0.287545

Table: Comparison of maximum likelihood estimates.

<sup>1</sup>Estimation performed in software R. Quasi-Newton optimization method, which allows constraints of parameters, was used.

# Graphical inference

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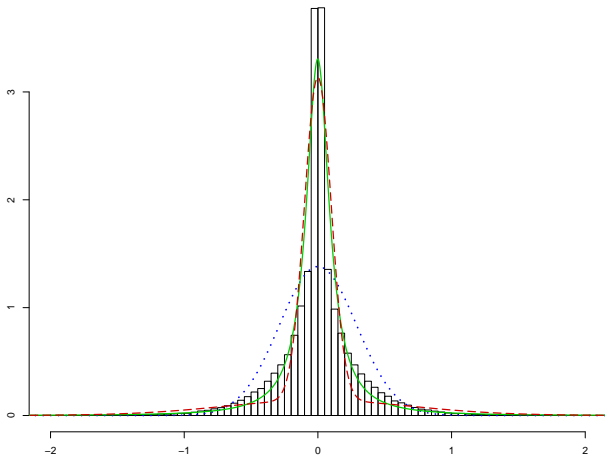


Figure: Estimated probability density function: green (solid) line = NIG, red (dashed) = Merton Jump, blue (dotted) = Gaussian.

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# Optimal Control

# Model set-up I.

Consider an investor placing his money into two assets

- riskfree, paying interest rate  $r$
- risky asset with dynamics

$$dF_t = \alpha dt + \sigma dW_t + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z \tilde{N}(dt, dz). \quad (4.1)$$

An investor controls

- the number of  $F_t$ ,  $t \geq 0$  in his portfolio by  $\Delta_t$ ,
- consumption  $C_t \geq 0$ .

i.e. the dynamics of his portfolio is of the form

$$dX_t = \Delta_t \left( \alpha dt + \sigma dW_t + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z \tilde{N}(dt, dz) \right) + rX_t dt - C_t dt. \quad (4.2)$$

with  $X(0) = x$ ,  $\Delta_t \in \mathcal{F}_{t-}$  (predictable),  $C_t \in \mathcal{F}_t$ .

## Model Set-up II.

The objective of an investor is

$$v(x) = \sup_{(\Delta_t, C_t) \in \mathcal{A}(x)} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\beta t} \mathbb{E} U(C_t) dt, \quad (4.3)$$

where  $\mathcal{A}(x)$  is the set of admissible strategies,  $\beta$  a discount factor and  $U$  denotes a power utility function of the form

$$U(x) = \frac{x^{1-p}}{1-p}, \quad p > 1.$$

### Notation

- $\theta_p(t) = \frac{\Delta_t}{X_{t-}}$  is the number of assets in the portfolio per one money unit at time  $t$  and let
- $c_t = \frac{C_t}{X_{t-}}$  denotes the proportional consumption.

# Personal risk aversion

Assume geometric BM model, one needs to consider

- the maximal proportion of wealth an agent would invest.  
Example *toin coss*, winner takes 1.2 of a bet, agent's wealth is 1000000.



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Assume geometric BM model, one needs to consider

- the maximal proportion of wealth an agent would invest.  
Example *toin coss*, winner takes 1.2 of a bet, agent's wealth is 1000000.

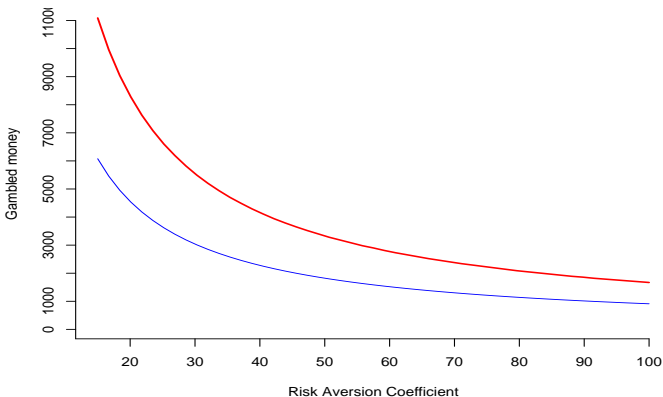


Figure: Maximal (red) and optimal (blue) invested amount of money.

# Personal risk aversion

- **draw-down probability**  $P_p(x) = x^{2p-1}$ , It is the probability that the investor's discounted wealth will ever fall below fraction  $x$  of the initial wealth.

## Example

- Logarithmic utility function:  $P_1(x) = x$ . The probability of losing  $(1 - x)$  percent of investment is  $x$
- Power utility function for  $p = 1/2$ . An agent loses  $(1 - x)$  percent of investment with probability 1 for any  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ .

## Theorem (Optimal Proportion and Consumption)

Assume the portfolio (4.2) and the objective (4.3). Let

$$\theta_p^* = \operatorname{argmin} h(\theta_p) = \operatorname{argmin} \left\{ \alpha \theta_p (1-p) - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \theta_p^2 p (1-p) \right. \\ \left. + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( (1 + \theta_p z)^{1-p} - 1 - \theta_p z (1-p) \right) \nu(dz) \right\}.$$

Assume also that

$$\beta - r(1-p) - h(\theta_p^*) > 0. \quad (4.4)$$

Then

- $\theta_p^*$  is the optimal proportion,
- $c^* = (K(1-p))^{-1/p}$  is the optimal consumption,
- $v(z) = Kz^{1-p}$  is the value function,

where  $K = \frac{1}{1-p} \left( \frac{\beta - r(1-p) - h(\theta_p^*)}{p} \right)^{-p}$ .

# A short comment on the theorem

- A similar theorem presented for geometric Lévy process with

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \nu(dz) < \infty,$$

which is extremely restrictive, see (Framstad 1998). The authors considered power utility function with  $0 < p < 1$ , which describes an extremely aggressive investor.

- Assumption (4.4) grants that agent's consumption is positive and that his discounted well-being tends to zero as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ .

# Merton proportion

Let us denote

- Merton proportion

$$\theta_p^{*M} = \frac{\alpha - r}{p\sigma^2},$$

- Merton consumption

$$c^{*M} = A(p) = \frac{\beta - r(1 - p)}{p} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(\alpha - r)^2}{\sigma^2} \frac{1 - p}{p}.$$

How will the proportion and the consumption be changed after adding jumps into the model?

# Optimal consumption and portfolio - preparation

An empirical study was performed.<sup>2</sup> Futures is a martingale with respect to the risk neutral measure. To compare optimal portfolios based on different models we:

- standardized the data, so that  $\sigma \approx 30\%$ ,
- $\alpha$  is set as 7%.
- Assume that our (Futures) returns behave like stock log-returns but with different volatility and drift.

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<sup>2</sup>Computation performed in software R. Integrals numerically evaluated, adaptive quadrature applied. Nonlinear equation solved by Newton method.

# Optimal consumption and portfolio - results

	Model	Naive Merton	NIG	Merton Jump
$p = 4$	$\theta_p^*$	0.141150	0.104904	0.086328
	$c_p^*$	0.042647	0.042329	0.041673
$p = 10$	$\theta_p^*$	0.056460	0.047433	0.035010
	$c_p^*$	0.029270	0.029186	0.028809
$p = 40$	$\theta_p^*$	0.014115	0.012392	0.008806
	$c_p^*$	0.022344	0.022328	0.022220
$p = 70$	$\theta_p^*$	0.008066	0.007121	0.005036
	$c_p^*$	0.021342	0.021333	0.021270

**Table:** Comparison of optimal proportion and consumption for Merton and Jump models.  $\beta = 10\%$ ,  $r = 2\%$ ,  $\alpha = 7\%$ ,  $\sigma = 0.3$ .

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# Thank you for attention