

Learning Rough Volatility

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Understanding the Diversity of Financial Risk
Machine Learning Methods for Assessing Financial Risk

- ▶ Rough volatility models have been around since October 2014
(see the Rough Volatility website for a chronicle of developments)
- ▶ These models have repeatedly proven to be superior to standard models in many areas: in volatility forecasting, in option pricing, close fits to the implied vol surface, ...

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- ▶ These models have repeatedly proven to be superior to standard models in many areas: in volatility forecasting, in option pricing, close fits to the implied vol surface, ...
- ▶ Relaxing the assumption of independence of volatility increments was crucial for the superior performance of rough volatility models \Rightarrow but: several standard pricing methods no longer available & naive Monte Carlo methods slow
- ▶ Calibration time has been a bottleneck for rough volatility several advances have been made to speed up the calibration process [BLP '15, MP '17, HJM '17].

Today's talk:

Speedups for rough volatility models along two lines:

1. in **pricing** of vanilla options based on faster Monte Carlo approximations for a family of rough stochastic volatility models. [H-Jacquier-Muguruza '17])
2. in **calibration** by means of machine learning (ongoing with A. Muguruza and with M. Tomas).

Digression: Rough Volatility Models



Suppose a generic Itô process framework for the stock price $(S_t)_{t \geq 0}$:

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \mu_t dt + \sigma_t dB_t, \quad t \geq 0.$$

The phrase "**rough volatility**" refers to the idea that sample paths of the log volatility $\log(\sigma_t)$, $t \geq 0$ are rougher than the sample paths of Brownian motion.

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Volatility is Rough

What we mean by stylized facts here:



“... empirical findings that are so consistent (for example, across a wide range of instruments, markets and time periods) that they are accepted as truth.” Sewell (2006)

Stylised (statistical) facts:

1. Increments of log-volatility have a scaling property

$$E [|\log(\sigma_\Delta) - \log(\sigma_0)|^q] = K_q \Delta^{\zeta_q},$$

with constant smoothness parameter $\Delta^{\zeta_q} = H q$.

2. Distribution of log-volatility increments is close to Gaussian.

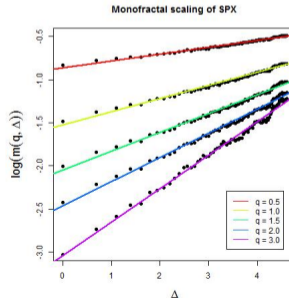
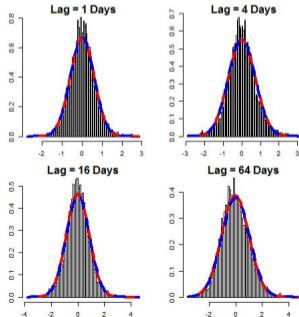
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2. Distribution of log-volatility increments is close to Gaussian.

⇒ This suggested the modelling of log-volatility

$$\log(\sigma_{t+\Delta}) - \log(\sigma_t) = \nu \left(W_{t+\Delta}^H - W_t^H \right),$$

where W^H is a fractional Brownian motion with Hurst parameter equal to the measured smoothness parameter of the volatility, and $\nu > 0$ is a constant.

- Further objective: Stationarity of the volatility process ($\sigma_{t+\tau} \sim \sigma_t$).

⇒ Stationary fractional Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process for log volatility: "rBergomi model".

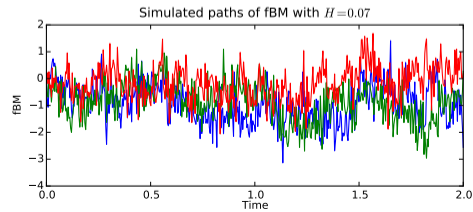
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Fractional Brownian motion

A fractional Brownian motion with Hurst parameter $H \in (0, 1)$ is a continuous centered Gaussian process $(B_t^H)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ with covariance function

$$\text{Cov}(B_t^H, B_s^H) = \frac{1}{2} \left(|t|^{2H} + |s|^{2H} - |t - s|^{2H} \right), \quad s, t \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (1)$$



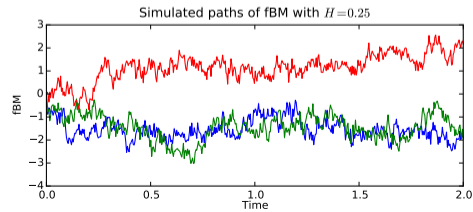
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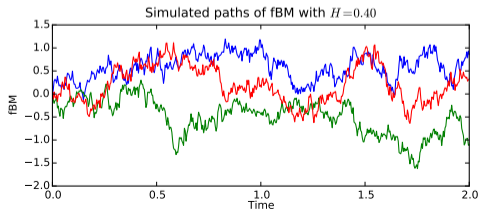
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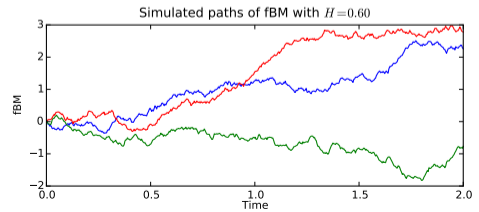
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Under the physical measure, \mathbb{P} :

Gatheral, Jaisson and Rossenbaum proposed the following rough/fractional volatility model:

$$\begin{cases} dS_t = S_t \mu_t dt + S_t \sigma_t dW_t, & S_0 > 0 \\ \sigma_t = \sigma_0 \exp(W_t^H), & \sigma_0 > 0. \end{cases}$$

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Main properties:

- ▶ Monofractal scaling property, $\log(\mathbb{E}[|\log(\sigma_\Delta) - \log(\sigma_0)|^q]) = \log(K_q) + \zeta_q \log(\Delta)$
- ▶ Gaussianity, $\log \sigma_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$
- ▶ Self-similarity,
if $\log \sigma_{t+1} - \log \sigma_t \sim N(0, \sigma_1^2)$, then $\log \sigma_{t+\Delta} - \log \sigma_t \sim N(0, \Delta^{2H} \sigma_1^2)$

Implied volatility

- ▶ Asset price process: $(S_t = e^{X_t})_{t \geq 0}$, with $X_0 = 0$.
- ▶ Black-Scholes-Merton (BSM) framework:

$$C_{\text{BS}}(\tau, k, \sigma) := \mathbb{E}_0 \left(e^{X_\tau} - e^k \right)_+ = \mathcal{N}(d_+) - e^k \mathcal{N}(d_-),$$

$$d_\pm := -\frac{k}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sigma\sqrt{\tau}.$$

- ▶ Spot implied volatility $\sigma_\tau(k)$: the unique (non-negative) solution to

$$C_{\text{observed}}(\tau, k) = C_{\text{BS}}(\tau, k, \sigma_\tau(k)).$$

- ▶ Implied volatility: unit-free measure of option prices.

At the money skew

Let $\sigma_{BS}(k, \tau)$ denote the Black-Scholes implied volatility ($\tau := T - t$ and $k = \log\left(\frac{K}{S}\right)$) for an asset S . Then the at-the-money volatility skew is defined as

$$\psi(\tau) = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial k} \sigma_{BS}(k, \tau) \right|_{k=0} ; \tau \geq 0.$$

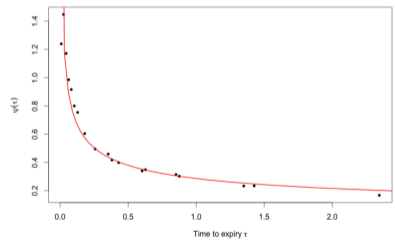


Figure 1.2: The black dots are non-parametric estimates of the S&P at-the-money (ATM) volatility skews as of August 14, 2013; the red curve is the power-law fit $\psi(\tau) = A\tau^{-0.407}$, τ measured in years.

Under the pricing measure, \mathbb{Q} :

Bayer, Friz and Gatheral introduced the rough Bergomi (rBergomi) model:

$$\begin{cases} dS_t = S_t r_t dt + S_t \sqrt{V_t} dW_t, & S_0 > 0 \\ V_t = \xi_0(t) \mathcal{E} \left(2\nu C_H \int_0^t \frac{dZ_u}{(t-u)^{1/2-H}} \right), & \nu, \xi_0(\cdot) > 0 \\ dZ_t dW_t = \rho dt, & \rho \in (0, 1) \end{cases}$$

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Main properties:

- ▶ ATM volatility skew follows a power law for short maturities: consistent with Alòs et al. (2007) and Fukasawa (2011)
- ▶ Consistent with Variance Swaps through the initial Forward Variance Curve ξ_0

$$\sigma_t^2(T) = \frac{1}{T-t} \int_t^T \xi_t(\tau) d\tau.$$

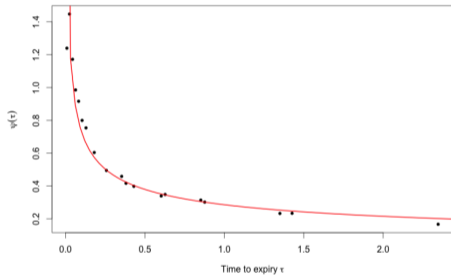
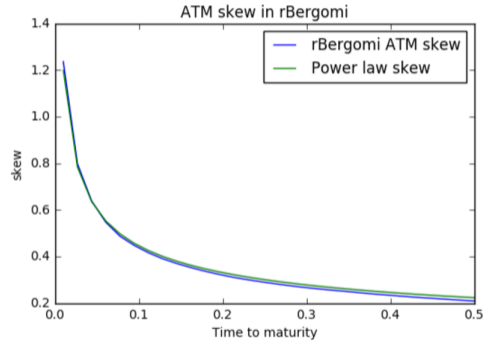


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Theoretical vs. simulation rBergomi
ATM skew with $H = 0.07$

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Our general framework

$$\begin{aligned}dX_t &= -\frac{1}{2}V_t dt + \sqrt{V_t}dW_t, & X_0 &= 0, \\V_t &= \Phi\left(\int_0^t g(t-s)dY_s\right), & V_0 &> 0, \alpha \in (-1/2, 1/2), \\dY_t &= b(Y_t)dt + \sigma(Y_t)dZ_t, & dZ_t dW_t &= \rho dt.\end{aligned}$$

where $\Phi \in \mathcal{C}^1$, $g \in \mathcal{L}^\alpha := \{u^\alpha L(u) : L \in \mathcal{C}_b^1([0, T]), \alpha \in (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})\}$
and Y satisfies Yamada-Watanabe conditions for path-wise uniqueness.


Examples in this framework

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Rough Bergomi:

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↓ $g(u) = u^\alpha, \Phi(x) = \eta + Id., dY_t = \kappa(\theta - Y_t)dt + \xi\sqrt{Y_t}dZ_t$

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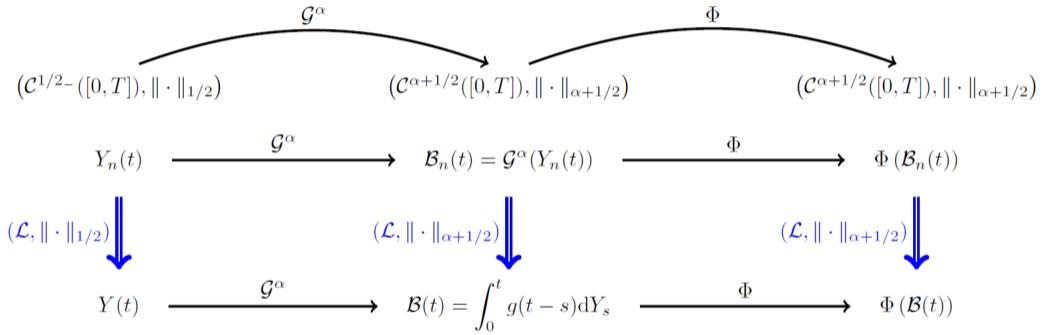
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Rough Heston:

$$\begin{aligned}
 dX_t &= -\frac{1}{2}V_t dt + \sqrt{V_t}dW_t, & X_0 &= 0, \\
 Y_t &= \int_0^t \kappa(\theta - Y_s)dt + \int_0^t \xi\sqrt{Y_s}dZ_s & V_0, \kappa, \xi, \theta &> 0, 2\kappa\theta > \xi^2 \\
 V_t &= \eta + \int_0^t (t-s)^\alpha dY_s, & \eta &> 0, \alpha \in (-1/2, 1/2).
 \end{aligned}$$

FCLT for Hölder cont. processes:



Generalised Fractional Operators \mathcal{G}^α

Definition

Let $g \in \mathcal{L}^\alpha := \{u^\alpha L(u) : L \in \mathcal{C}_b^1([0, T]), \alpha \in (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})\}$ and fix $\lambda \in (0, 1)$. The GFO for $f \in \mathcal{C}^\lambda([0, T])$ is

$$(\mathcal{G}^\alpha f)(t) := \begin{cases} \int_0^t f(s) \frac{d}{dt} g(t-s) ds, & \text{for } \alpha \in [0, 1), \\ \frac{d}{dt} \int_0^t f(s) g(t-s) ds, & \text{for } \alpha \in (-\lambda, 0). \end{cases}$$

Remark: If $g(u) = u^\alpha$, then GFO=Riemann-Liouville fractional operators

FCLT for Hölder continuous processes

Theorem (rough Donsker theorem)

Consider the sequence $(W_n(t))_{n \geq 1}$ and W its weak limit in $(C^{1/2}([0, T]), \|\cdot\|_{1/2})$.
Then $(\mathcal{G}^\alpha W_n)_{n \geq 1}$ converges weakly to $\int_0^\cdot g(\cdot - s) dW_s$ in $(C^{\alpha+1/2}([0, T]), \|\cdot\|_{\alpha+1/2})$
for $\alpha \in (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$.

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Define recursively in time, for any $n \geq 1$, $t \in [0, T]$, $t_k = \frac{k}{N}$

$$X_n(t) := -\frac{1}{2} \frac{T}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \Phi((\mathcal{G}^\alpha Y_n)(t_k)) + \sqrt{\frac{T}{\sigma n}} \sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} \sqrt{\Phi((\mathcal{G}^\alpha Y_n)(t_k))} (W_n(t_{k+1}) - W_n(t_k))$$

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Theorem (rDonsker for rough volatility models)

$(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$, converges weakly to X in $(\mathcal{C}^{1/2-}(\mathbb{T}), \|\cdot\|_{1/2-})$,

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Example: rough Bergomi smiles

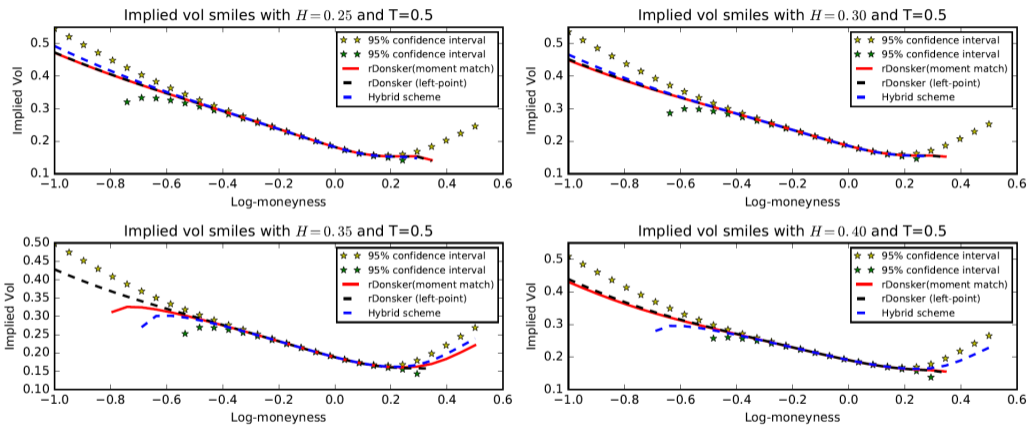
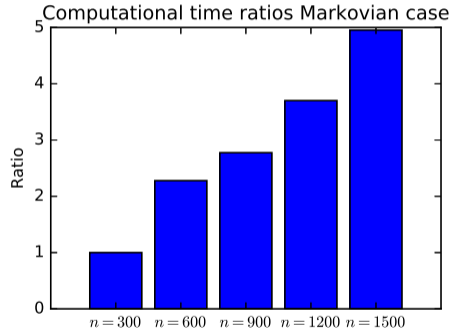
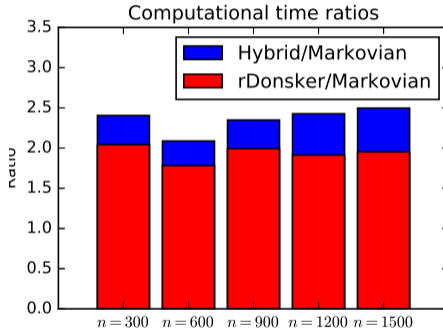


Figure 1: Parameters: $\nu = 1, \rho = -0.7, \xi_0 = 0.04, n = 468$ steps

Conclusion

- ▶ rDonsker is $1.25\times$ faster than Hybrid scheme (because we omit the Cholesky bit)



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- Part 1: in **pricing** of vanilla options based on faster Monte Carlo approximations for a family of rough stochastic volatility models. [H-Jacquier-Muguruza '17])
- Part 2: in **calibration** by means of machine learning techniques (ongoing with A. Muguruza and M. Tomas)

Part 2: Speed-ups on calibration

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- ▶ one step away from of-the-shelf optimizers to explore the parameter space more efficiently, limiting the number of function evaluations for calibration. Tests on this with Amir Sani and Aitor Muguruza.
- ▶ approximation by neural networks (w Mehdi Thomas and Aitor Muguruza) see also calibration by neural networks: Recent work of Bayer and Stemper: Both works rely on the crucial observation of separation the approximation and the calibration networks.

Approximation by neural networks I

General setup: two parts of the network:

1. Generator: Input (parameters) Output (implied volatilities)
2. Calibrator: Input (implied volatilities) Output (*optimal* parameters).

Both feed-forward neural networks for the generator three hidden layers (1000-800-600)-nodes. Calibrator 1 layer on top.

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General setup: two parts of the network:

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In order to train the network we first need to build a training set (supervised learning).

- ▶ For this we can use numerical valuation functions (Bergomi model, Rough Bergomi, Heston, ... Part 1): We generate 20,000 surfaces for each model, using a fixed grid of strikes and tenors.
- ▶ Though training time consuming, it can be done offline.
- ▶ We sample uniformly points in the parameter set $\theta \in \Theta$, then compute and save $f(\theta)$. Those samples will constitute our training set. We repeat this procedure until we reach enough samples for our surrogate function to be a good approximation.

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General setup: two parts of the network:

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General setup: two parts of the network:

2 Calibrator

In order to train the network we first need to build a training set. Conclusions:

- ▶ This can be done online, fast (within range of ~ 1 second already unoptimized)
- ▶ Evaluation of parameters now more direct than via Monte Carlo. One minimizes now the distance between the (approximator) surrogate functions $\hat{f}(\theta^*)$ and the volatility surface.

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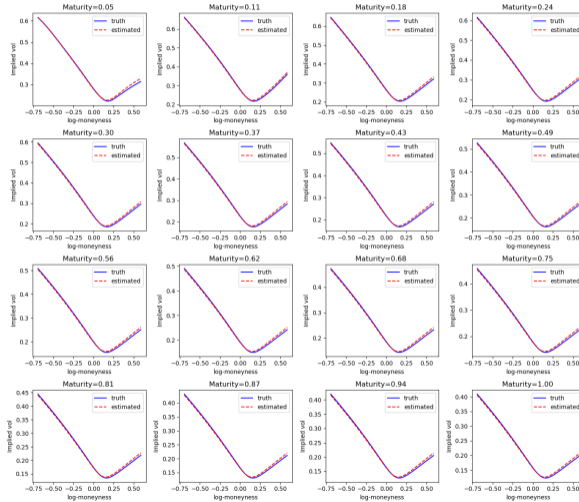
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New learning procedure:

- ▶ Train the generator on several models at the same time (here Parameters from Heston and Bergomi parameters) in Monte Carlo experiments as before.
- ▶ Calibrate several models at the same time ⇒ determine the best-fit model to a given data (flag).
- ▶ Controlled experiments: train on both Bergomi and Heston ⇒ test on data generated by Heston.

Approximation experiment via NN (Bergomi)



Thank you for your attention!

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$$W_n(t, \omega) := \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \sum_{k=1}^j \xi_k(\omega) + \frac{nt - j}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \xi_{j+1}(\omega), \quad \text{whenever } t \in \left[\frac{j}{n}, \frac{j+1}{n} \right), \text{ for } j = 0, \dots, n-1.$$

where the family $(\xi_i)_{i \geq 1}$ forms an iid sequence of centered random variables with finite moments of all orders and $\mathbb{E}(\xi_1^2) = \sigma^2 > 0$.

Theorem (Donsker-Lamperti Theorem)

The sequence $(W_n)_{n \geq 1}$ converges weakly to a Brownian motion in $(C^\alpha([0, T]), \|\cdot\|_\alpha)$ for all $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$.

Monte-Carlo

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$$\int_0^{\frac{T_i}{n}} g\left(\frac{T_i}{n} - s\right) dW_s \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} g(t_k^*) \xi_k, \quad j = 0, \dots, n$$

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- ▶ The hybrid scheme also admits this trick