

# Learning Rough Volatility

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- ▶ 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



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.

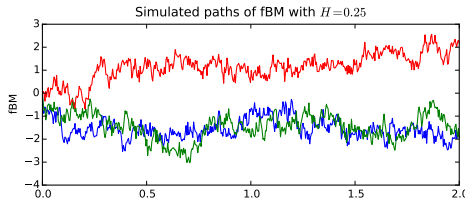
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## Fractional Brownian motion

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

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



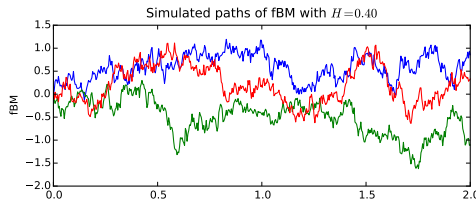
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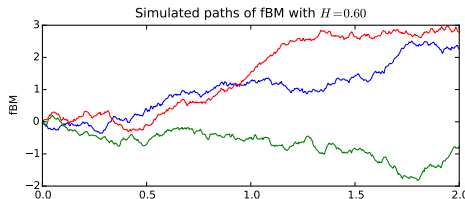
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Under the physical measure,  $\mathbb{P}$ :

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

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

where  $W^H$  is a fractional Brownian motion with Hurst parameter  $H \in (0, 1/2)$ .

# 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

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

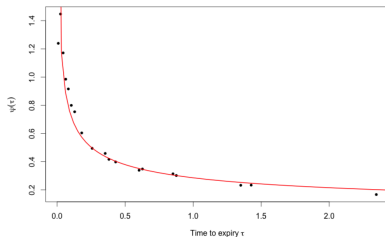


Figure 1.2: The black dots are non-parametric estimates of the S&P at-the-money (ATM) volatility skews as of August 14, 2013; the red curve is the power-law fit  $\psi(\tau) = A\tau^{-0.407}$ ,  $\tau$  measured in years.

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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:

$$\begin{aligned} dX_t &= -\frac{1}{2}V_t dt + \sqrt{V_t} dW_t, & X_0 &= 0 \\ V_t &= \xi_0(t) \mathcal{E}\left(2\nu C_H \int_0^t \frac{dZ_u}{(t-u)^{1/2-H}}\right), & \nu, \xi_0(\cdot) &> 0 \\ dZ_t dW_t &= \rho dt, & \rho &\in (0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

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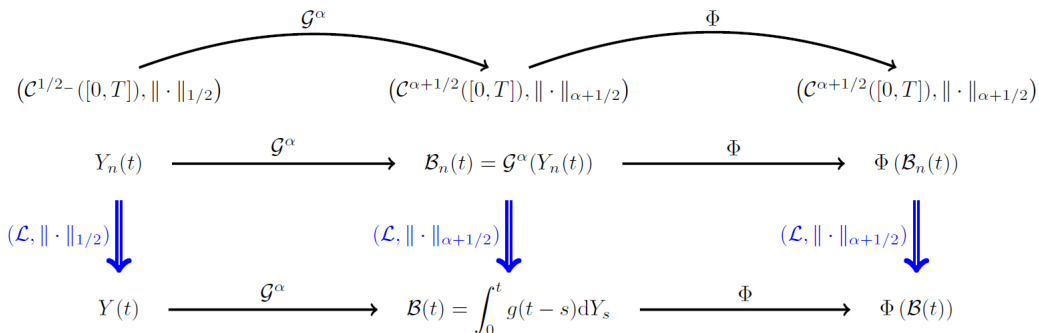
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### Rough Heston:

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

# FCLT for Hölder cont. processes:



# FCLT for Hölder continuous processes

## Theorem (rough Donsker theorem)

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

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

# Example: rough Bergomi smiles

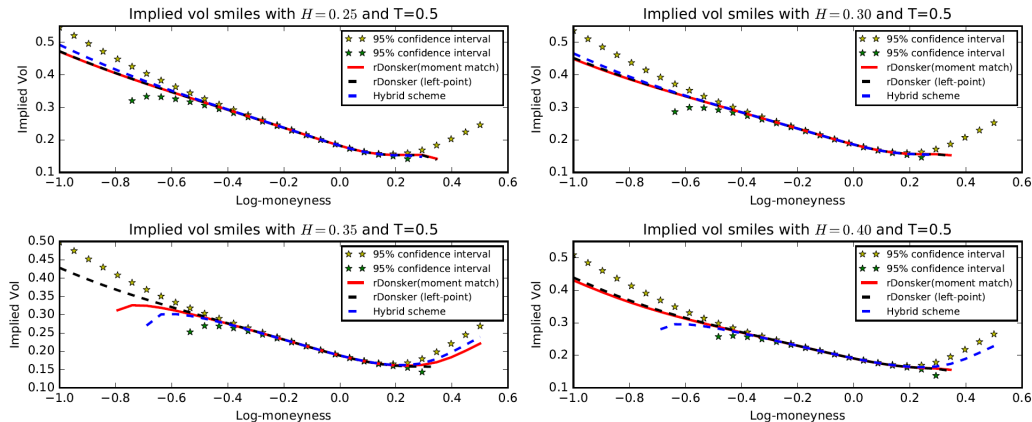
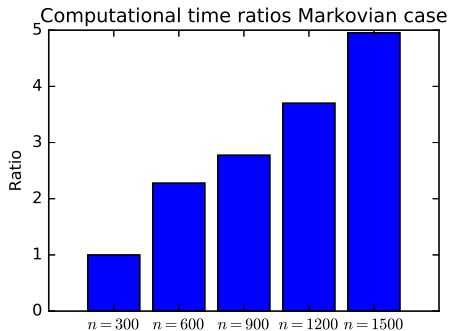
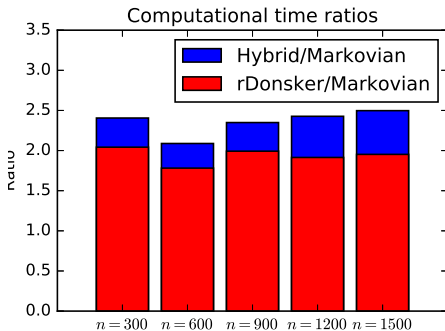


Figure 1: Parameters:  $\nu = 1, \rho = -0.7, \xi_0 = 0.04, n = 468$  steps

# Performance

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





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- 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.
- ▶ Main idea: prior to calibration, approximate the implied volatility function

$$\sigma : \underbrace{(\alpha, \beta, \rho, H)}_{\text{parameters}} \times (\tau, k) \mapsto \sigma_{\tau}(k; \alpha, \beta, \rho, H)$$

by a deterministic function, learned by a neural network.

Two parts of the neural network (i) Approximation network (2) Calibration network on top.

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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- ▶ 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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- ▶ This can be done online, fast (within range of  $\sim 1$  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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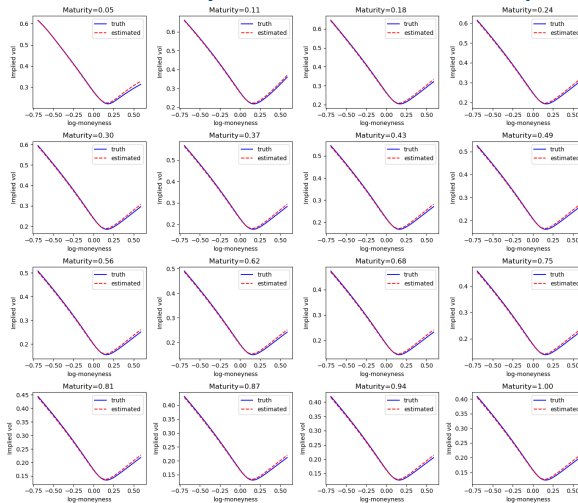
# Approximation by neural networks II

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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!

# FCLT for Hölder continuous processes

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Define for any  $\omega \in \Omega$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,  $t \in [0, T]$ , the approximating sequence

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

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

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## Theorem (Donsker-Lamperti Theorem)

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



# Monte-Carlo

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The left-point approximation may be modified e.g.

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- ▶ This simple trick improves substantially the simulation (specially when  $\alpha$  is close to  $-1/2$ )
- ▶ The hybrid scheme also admits this trick