

Statistical Inference of Discretely Observed  
Compound Poisson Processes and Related Jump  
Processes

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**Abstract**

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# 1 Introduction

**Definition 1.1** (Counting Process). A *counting process* is a stochastic process  $\{N(t) : t \geq 0\}$  with values that are non-negative, integer and non-decreasing i.e.  $\forall s, t \geq 0 : s \leq t :$

1.  $N(t) \geq 0$ ,
2.  $N(t) \in \mathbb{N}$ ,
3.  $N(s) \leq N(t)$ .

**Definition 1.2** (Poisson Process). A *Poisson process with intensity  $\lambda$*  is a counting process  $\{N(t) : t \geq 0\}$  with the following properties:

1.  $N(0) = 0$ ,
2. It has independent increments i.e.  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : 0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \dots \leq t_n$ ,  $N(t_n) - N(t_{n-1}), N(t_{n-1}) - N(t_{n-2}), \dots, N(t_1)$  are independent,
3. The number of occurrences in any interval of length  $t$  is a Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda t$  i.e.  $\forall s, t : s \leq t, N(t) - N(s) \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda(t - s))$ .

**Lemma 1.1.** A *Poisson process with intensity  $\lambda$*  has exponentially distributed inter-arrival times with rate  $\lambda$ .

**Definition 1.3** (Compound Poisson Process). Let  $N(t) : t \geq 0$  be a  $d$ -dimensional Poisson process with intensity  $\lambda$ .

Let  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots$  be a sequence of i.i.d random variables taking values in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with common distribution  $F$ .

Also assume that the  $Y_i$ 's are independent of the Poisson process  $\{N(t) : t \geq 0\}$ .

Then, a *Compound Poisson process (CPP)* is a stochastic process  $\{X(t) : t \geq 0\}$  such that

$$X(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N(t)} Y_i$$

where, by convention, we take  $X(t) = 0$  if  $N(t) = 0$ .

Suppose we take discrete observations of a CPP i.e. we consider  $X(\Delta), X(2\Delta), \dots$  where  $X(t) : t \geq 0$  is a CPP. We want to estimate  $F$ . Note that the jump size  $X(n\Delta) - X((n-1)\Delta)$  is equivalent in distribution to a Poisson random

sum of intensity  $\Delta$ :

$$\begin{aligned} X(n\Delta) - X((n-1)\Delta) &= \sum_{i=1}^{N(n\Delta)} Y_i - \sum_{i=1}^{N((n-1)\Delta)} Y_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{N(n\Delta) - N((n-1)\Delta)} Y_i \\ &=^d \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i \end{aligned}$$

where  $N \sim \text{Poisson}(\Delta)$

## 2 Spectral Approach

Now we have formulated the problem, we visit some methods for estimating the unknown density  $f$ . Since adding a Poisson number of  $Y$ 's is referred to as compounding, much of the literature refers to the problem of recovering density  $f$  of  $Y$ 's from observations of  $X$  as decompounding.

The approach of decompounding was famously proposed by Buchmann and Grübel to estimate the density  $f$  for discrete and continuous cases of the distribution  $F$  of the  $Y$ 's.

Van Es built on this idea for fixed sampling rate  $\Delta = 1$  using the Lévy - Khintchine formula. We explain the idea behind this method and show its strength through various examples.

### 2.1 Van Es

#### 2.1.1 Construction of Density Estimator via suitable inversion of characteristic functions

We first note the following property:

**Proposition 2.1.** *For Poisson random sum  $X$ , the characteristic function of  $X$ , denoted by  $\phi_X$ , is given by  $\phi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}e^{itX} = e^{-\lambda + \lambda\phi_f(t)}$*

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi_X(t) &= \mathbb{E} e^{itX} \\
&= \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left( it \sum_{i=1}^{N(\lambda)} Y_i \right) \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{N(\lambda)} \exp(itY_i) \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E} \left[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{N(\lambda)} \exp(itY_i) \middle| N(\lambda) \right] \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{N(\lambda)} \mathbb{E} [\exp(itY_1) \mid N(\lambda)] \right] && \text{(by i.i.d assumption of the } Y_i \text{'s)} \\
&= \mathbb{E} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{N(\lambda)} \phi_f(t) \right] && (Y_1 \text{ and } N(\lambda) \text{ are independent)} \\
&= \mathbb{E} [\exp(N(\lambda) \ln \phi_f(t))] \\
&= \exp(\lambda(e^{\ln \phi_f(t)} - 1)) && \text{(MGF of a Poisson random variable)} \\
&= e^{-\lambda + \lambda \phi_f(t)}
\end{aligned}$$

□

We can rewrite  $\phi_X(t)$  as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi_X(t) &= e^{-\lambda}(e^{\lambda \phi_f(t)} - 1 + 1) \\
&= e^{-\lambda} + e^{-\lambda}(e^{\lambda \phi_f(t)} - 1) \\
&= e^{-\lambda} + e^{-\lambda} \frac{e^\lambda - 1}{e^\lambda - 1} (e^{\lambda \phi_f(t)} - 1) \\
&= e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1 - e^{-\lambda}}{e^\lambda - 1} (e^{\lambda \phi_f(t)} - 1) \tag{1}
\end{aligned}$$

Since a zero jump size provides no additional information on the density  $f$ , we want to gain information about  $X$  conditional on the event that there is at least one jump. Seeing that  $X \mid N(\lambda) > 0$  has a density is somewhat intuitive, but we provide a proof of this.

**Lemma 2.1.** *The random variable  $X \mid N(\lambda) > 0$  has a density.*

*Proof.* By the Radon-Nikodym Theorem, a random variable  $X$  has a density if and only if  $\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = 0$  for every Borel set  $A$  with Lebesgue measure zero.

Suppose that  $\text{Leb}(A) = 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(X \in A | N(\lambda) > 0) &= \frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(N(\lambda) > 0)} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(Y_1 + \dots + Y_n \in A, N(\lambda) = n) \\ &= \frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(N(\lambda) > 0)} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(Y_1 + \dots + Y_n \in A) \mathbb{P}(N(\lambda) = n)\end{aligned}$$

Note that for each  $n$ ,  $Y_1 + \dots + Y_n$  has a density so  $\mathbb{P}(Y_1 + \dots + Y_n \in A) = 0$ . Thus the result follows.  $\square$

Let  $g$  be the density of  $X | N(\lambda) > 0$ .

$$\text{Let } \phi_g(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX} | N(\lambda) > 0] = \frac{\mathbb{E}[e^{itX} \mathbb{1}(N(\lambda) > 0)]}{\mathbb{P}(N(\lambda) > 0)}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_X(t) &= \mathbb{E}[e^{itX} \mathbb{1}(N(\lambda) = 0)] + \mathbb{E}[e^{itX} \mathbb{1}(N(\lambda) > 0)] \\ &= \mathbb{P}(N(\lambda) = 0) + \mathbb{P}(N(\lambda) > 0) \phi_g(t) \\ &= e^{-\lambda} + (1 - e^{-\lambda}) \phi_g(t)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, using (1), we get that

$$\phi_g(t) = \frac{1}{e^\lambda - 1} (e^{\lambda \phi_f(t)} - 1) \quad (2)$$

Thus, we can see from this that if we were to obtain an estimator for  $\phi_g(t)$ , then by suitable inversion of the formula in (2), we would obtain an estimator for  $\phi_f(t)$ .

In order to rewrite (2) in terms of  $\phi_f(t)$ , we must be able to invert the complex exponential function since  $\phi_f(t)$  takes complex values. However, such function is not invertible since it is not bijective: in particular it is not injective as  $e^{w+2\pi i} = e^w \forall w \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Therefore, we use the following lemmas concerning the distinguished logarithm:

**Lemma 2.2.** *If  $h_1 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $h_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  are continuous functions such that  $h_1(0) = h_2(0) = 0$  and  $e^{h_1} = e^{h_2}$ , then  $h_1 = h_2$ .*

*Proof.* See Appendix.  $\square$

**Lemma 2.3.** *If  $\phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a continuous function such that  $\phi(0) = 1$  and  $\phi_g(t) \neq 0 \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$  then there exists a unique continuous function  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with  $h(0) = 0$  and  $\phi(t) = e^{h(t)}$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .*

*Proof.* See Appendix.  $\square$

Therefore, for such a function  $\phi$  as described in the Lemma, we say that the unique function  $h$  is the distinguished logarithm and we denote  $h(t) = \text{Log}(\phi(t))$ . Note also that for  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  satisfying the assumptions of the Lemma, we have  $\text{Log}(\phi(t)\psi(t)) = \text{Log}(\phi(t)) + \text{Log}(\psi(t))$  as expected.

Therefore, noting that  $\phi(t) = e^{\lambda(\phi_f(t)-1)}$  is a continuous function satisfying  $\phi(0) = 1$  and  $\phi(t) \neq 0 \forall t \in R$ , we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(\phi_f(t) - 1) &= \text{Log} \left( e^{\lambda(\phi_f(t)-1)} \right) && (\text{Lemma 2.2}) \\ &= \text{Log} \left( e^{-\lambda} \left[ (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_g(t) + 1 \right] \right) \\ &= -\lambda + \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_g(t) + 1 \right) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\phi_f(t) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_g(t) + 1 \right) \quad (3)$$

By Fourier inversion, for integrable  $\phi_f$  we have

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi\lambda} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_g(t) + 1 \right) dt \quad (4)$$

This suggests that if we can estimate  $\phi_g(t)$ , then we have an estimate of  $f$ .

### 2.1.2 Kernel density estimators

We provide the intuition behind choosing our estimator for  $g$  on observations of non-zero jump size as a kernel density estimator.

Let  $X$  be a random variable with probability density  $p$  with respect to the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ . The corresponding distribution function is  $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p(t)dt$ .

Consider  $n$  i.i.d observations  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  with same distribution as  $X$ . The empirical distribution function is given by

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i \leq x)$$

By the Strong Law of Large Numbers, since for fixed  $x$ ,  $I(X_i \leq x)$  are i.i.d, we have that

$$F_n(x) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[I(X_1 \leq x)] = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = F(x)$$

almost surely as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Therefore,  $F_n(x)$  is a consistent estimator of  $F(x)$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Also note that  $p(x) = \frac{d}{dx}F(x)$ , so for sufficiently small  $h > 0$  we can write an approximation

$$p(x) \approx \frac{F(x+h) - F(x-h)}{2h}$$

Thus, intuitively we can replace  $F$  by our empirical distribution function  $F_n$  to give us an estimator  $\hat{p}_n(x)$  of  $p(x)$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{p}_n(x) &= \frac{F_n(x+h) - F_n(x-h)}{2h} \\ &= \frac{1}{2nh} \sum_{i=1}^n I(x-h < X_i \leq x+h) \\ &= \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n K_0\left(\frac{x-X_i}{h}\right)\end{aligned}$$

where  $K_0(u) = \frac{1}{2}I(-1 < u \leq 1)$ .

A simple generalisation is to replace  $K_0$  by some arbitrary (but well-chosen) integrable function  $K : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\int K(u)du = 1$  and  $K(u) = K(-u)$  for every  $u \in \mathbb{R}$ . Such a function  $K$  is called a *kernel* and the parameter  $h$  is called a *bandwidth* of the estimator

$$\hat{p}_n(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x-X_i}{h}\right) \quad (5)$$

We call this estimator a *kernel density estimator*.

Thus, for some kernel  $w$  with characteristic function  $\phi_w$  and observations  $Z_1, \dots, Z_n$ , we estimate density  $g$  by the kernel density estimator

$$g_{nh}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n w\left(\frac{x-Z_i}{h}\right)$$

Letting  $\phi_{\text{emp}}(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{itZ_j}$  be the empirical characteristic function, we get that

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_{g_{nh}}(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} g_{nh}(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{j=1}^n w\left(\frac{x-Z_j}{h}\right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{itZ_j} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ithy} w(y) dy \quad \left(\text{by the substitution } y = \frac{x-Z_j}{h}\right) \\ &= \phi_{\text{emp}}(t) \phi_w(ht)\end{aligned}$$

In view of (4) It is tempting to introduce an estimator  $\hat{f}_{nh}$  of  $f$

$$\hat{f}_{nh}(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi\lambda} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \text{Log}\left((e^\lambda - 1)\phi_{\text{emp}}(t)\phi_w(ht) + 1\right) dt \quad (6)$$

but this brings two main issues:



1. In light of Lemma 2.3, we may have some Borel set  $A$  with non-zero Lebesgue measure such that  $(e^\lambda - 1)\phi_{\text{emp}}(t)\phi_w(ht) + 1$  is zero for  $t \in A$ . The distinguished logarithm is undefined under such sets and thus our estimator of  $f$  is undefined in this case.
2. There is no guarantee that the integral is finite. For example,

$$\phi_{g_{nh}}(t) = \frac{\exp(e^{it}) - 1}{e^\lambda - 1}$$

would give  $\hat{f}_{nh}(1)$  to be infinity.

In order to prove asymptotic properties, we must adjust our estimators by bounding  $\hat{f}_{nh}$  for each  $n$  using a suitable sequence  $(M_n)_{n \geq 1}$ . However, for our discussion, we note such limitations and provide simulations for examples where these two cases do not occur.

### 2.1.3 Simulation Results

We note that for  $\lambda < \log 2$ , the distinguished logarithm in (6) reduces to the principal branch of the logarithm. This is the logarithm whose imaginary part lies in the interval  $(-\pi, \pi]$ . We also note, as written above, that bounding  $\hat{f}_{nh}$  by a suitable sequence is not needed in practice. Therefore, we can use (6) to compute our estimator with the principal branch of the logarithm, provided  $\lambda < \log 2$ .

We use the following kernel  $w$  given by

$$w(t) = \frac{48t(t^2 - 1)\cos t - 144(2t^2 - 5)\sin t}{\pi t^7}$$

This kernel has a fairly complicated form but its characteristic function  $\phi_w(t)$  has a much simpler expression given by

$$\phi_w(t) = (1 - t^2)^3 \mathbb{1}\{|t| < 1\}$$

We can rewrite (6) as  $\hat{f}_{nh}(x) = \hat{f}_{nh}^{(1)}(x) + \hat{f}_{nh}^{(2)}(x)$  where

$$\hat{f}_{nh}^{(1)}(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi\lambda} \int_0^\infty e^{-itx} \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_{\text{emp}}(t)\phi_w(ht) + 1 \right) dt \quad (7)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{f}_{nh}^{(2)}(x) &= \frac{1}{2\pi\lambda} \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-itx} \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_{\text{emp}}(t)\phi_w(ht) + 1 \right) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\lambda} \int_0^\infty e^{itx} \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_{\text{emp}}(-t)\phi_w(ht) + 1 \right) dt \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

since  $\phi_w$  is symmetric. We use a bandwidth of 0.14. Such a bandwidth is arbitrary and we may use better methods to compute a bandwidth estimator that yields better results. This can be done via cross-validation.

We approximate (7) and (8) by the Trapezoid Rule:

**Trapezoid Rule.** Let  $\{t_j\}_{j=0}^{N-1}$  be a set of  $N$  equally spaced values partitioning  $[a, b]$ , with spacing  $\Delta t_k = \Delta t = \frac{b-a}{N}$ . Then, for integrable function  $f$  we get the following approximation

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \Delta t \left( \frac{f(t_0) + f(t_{N-1})}{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{N-2} f(t_j) \right) \quad (9)$$

We can approximate (7) (and similarly (8)) by computing the integrand from 0 to some sufficiently large  $M$ .

We may also allow for (9) to be written as a 'nice' sum in order to compute the Fast Fourier Transform. Thus, we write

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt \approx \Delta t \left( \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f(t_j) \right) \quad (10)$$

Applying this to (7) and (8) we get for  $t_j = j\eta$  for some spacing parameter  $\eta$

$$\hat{f}_{nh}^{(1)}(x) \approx \frac{\eta}{2\pi\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{-it_j x} \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_{\text{emp}}(t_j)\phi_w(ht_j) + 1 \right), \quad (11)$$

$$\hat{f}_{nh}^{(2)}(x) \approx \frac{\eta}{2\pi\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{it_j x} \text{Log} \left( (e^\lambda - 1)\phi_{\text{emp}}(-t_j)\phi_w(ht_j) + 1 \right), \quad (12)$$

We apply the Fast Fourier Transform to evaluate our functions  $\hat{f}_{nh}^{(1)}$  and  $\hat{f}_{nh}^{(2)}$  at points  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^{N-1}$ .

**Fast Fourier Transform.** Let  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^{N-1}$  be a sequence of complex numbers. The Fast Fourier Transform computes the sequence  $\{Y_j\}_{j=0}^{N-1}$  where

$$Y_j = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x_k e^{-ij \frac{2\pi k}{N}} \quad (13)$$

The inverse transform is given by

$$Y_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x_k e^{ij \frac{2\pi k}{N}} \quad (14)$$

Thus, we employ a regular spacing with parameter  $\delta$  so that our values  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^{N-1}$  evenly spaced and given by

$$x_k = \frac{-N\delta}{2} + \delta k$$

Thus we have

$$\hat{f}_{nh}^{(1)}(x_k) \approx \frac{1}{2\pi\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{-ijk\eta\delta} e^{it_j \frac{N\delta}{2}} \psi^{(1)}(t_j)\eta, \quad (15)$$

$$\hat{f}_{nh}^{(2)}(x_k) \approx \frac{1}{2\pi\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{ijk\eta\delta} e^{-it_j \frac{N\delta}{2}} \psi^{(2)}(t_j)\eta, \quad (16)$$

Therefore, we take  $\eta\delta = \frac{2\pi}{N}$  and we apply FFT on the sequence  $\left\{ e^{it_j \frac{N\delta}{2}} \psi^{(1)}(t_j)\eta \right\}_{j=0}^{N-1}$  to get values for  $\hat{f}_{nh}^{(1)}$  and we apply IFFT on the sequence  $\left\{ e^{-it_j \frac{N\delta}{2}} \psi^{(2)}(t_j)\eta \right\}_{j=0}^{N-1}$  to get values for  $\hat{f}_{nh}^{(2)}$ .

We take  $N$  to be a power of 2 for computational speed up in calculating the Discrete Fourier Transforms and we choose  $\eta$  relatively small so that  $\delta$  can be relatively larger and so points are relatively separate from one another.

The results for  $N = 16384$  and  $\eta = 0.01$  based on 1000 observations can be shown in Figure 1.

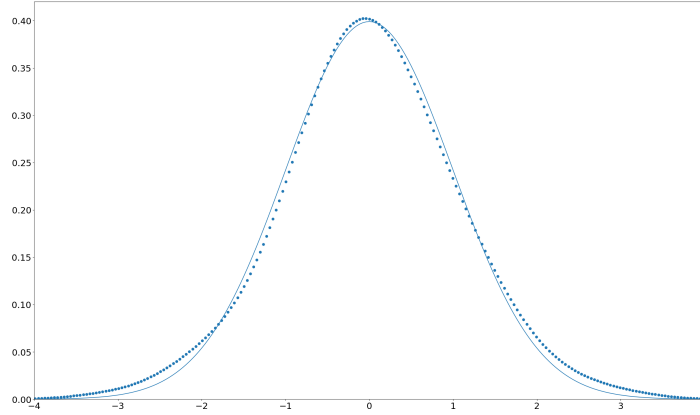


Figure 1: Density Estimator of Standard Normal

The second example we consider is the case of  $f$  being a mixture of two normal densities

$$f(\cdot) = \rho_1 \psi(\cdot; \mu_1, \sigma_1^2) + \rho_2 \psi(\cdot; \mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$$

where  $\rho_1 = \frac{2}{3}, \rho_2 = \frac{1}{3}, \mu_1 = 0, \mu_2 = 3, \sigma_1^2 = 1, \sigma_2^2 = \frac{1}{9}$ . We use a bandwidth of 0.1.