# Ternary Regime Switching Modelling for Financial Asset Price Data

A Thesis

submitted to Indian Institute of Science Education and Research Pune in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the BS-MS Dual Degree Programme

by

D.V.S. Abhijit 20161005



Indian Institute of Science Education and Research Pune Dr. Homi Bhabha Road, Pashan, Pune 411008, INDIA.

June, 2021

Supervisor: Dr. Anindya Goswami © D.V.S. Abhijit 2021

All rights reserved

# Certificate

This is to certify that this dissertation entitled Ternary Regime Switching Modelling for Financial Asset Price Data towards the partial fulfilment of the BS-MS dual degree programme at the Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Pune represents study/work carried out by D.V.S. Abhijit at Indian Institute of Science Education and Research under the supervision of Dr. Anindya Goswami, Associate Professor, Department of Mathematics, during the academic year 2020-2021.

Dr. Anindya Goswami

Committee:

Dr. Anindya Goswami

 $\mathbf{GKB}$ 

Dedicated to Amma and Naanna.

# Declaration

I hereby declare that the matter embodied in the report entitled Ternary Regime Switching Modelling for Financial Asset Price Data are the results of the work carried out by me at the Department of Mathematics, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Pune, under the supervision of Dr. Anindya Goswami and the same has not been submitted elsewhere for any other degree.

D.V.S. Abhijit

## Acknowledgements

I would like to express my earnest and heartfelt gratitude to my mentor Dr. Anindya Goswami for his invaluable advice, guidance and encouragement throughout the project. The time and effort he has invested in my project are one of the major reasons for this thesis taking shape. I am thankful to Dr. Gopal K. Basak, my thesis committee member, for his inputs and guidance during the project.

I am indebted to my parents for the constant support and being a source of impetus during the course of the project. I am grateful for my grand parents for backing me always. I also would like to thank the forces of nature for being kind to me and enabling me to finish the project on time.

## Abstract

In this project a ternary regime Markov switching jump diffusion model for financial asset price data is proposed. Initially, we propose a statistical technique for the detection of jumps and volatility estimation in a return time series data using a threshold method. As the threshold and volatility estimator are derived together by solving an implicit equation, this leads to unprecedented accuracy in jump detection over wide-ranging parameter values. Next, using the proposed threshold method the increments attributed to jumps are removed from historical data of various Indian sectoral indices. Thereafter, we attempt to model the derived continuous part of the data by analysing the presence of regime switching dynamics in the volatility coefficient using discriminating statistics, proposed by us, which are sensitive to the transition kernel of the regime switching model.In particular we have restricted ourselves to ternary regime switching dynamics. Finally, the performance of the proposed regime switching model is tested by examining its replication of the empirical Cumulative Distribution Function(eCDF) of the return time series.

# Contents

A	Abstract				
1	Int	roduction	1		
2	Sto	chastic Models of Asset Price Dynamics	4		
	2.1	Diffusion and Jump diffusion models	4		
	2.2	Markov Switching Models	6		
	2.3	Historical Volatility in MMGBM	7		
3	Infe	erence of Jumps in Merton's Jump Diffusion model	9		
	3.1	Model Hypothesis	9		
	3.2	Motivation of Threshold Method	10		
	3.3	Maximal Threshold	11		
	3.4	Consistency of $\hat{\beta}$	14		
	3.5	Numerical Experiments	16		
	3.6	Inference of Jumps in a Regime Switching Model	18		
4	Squ	eeze-Expansion Based Inference of Regimes	20		
	4.1	Historical Volatility: Squeeze and Expansion Duration	20		
	4.2	A Discriminating Statistics	22		
	4.3	Discretization of Continuous Time Models	24		
5	Em	pirical Study	27		
	5.1	Analysis of Market Data	27		

	5.2	Uni-regime Model	29
	5.3	Ternary regime Markov Model	31
	5.4	Comparison of Empirical CDF of Return Distribution	36
6	Con	clusion	40
$\mathbf{A}_{]}$	ppen	dices	41
A	Mat	lab Code	42
	A.1	Historical Volatility in MMGBM	42
	A.2	Calculation of Jump accuracy for a Uni-Regime MJD	44
	A.3	Calculation of Jump accuracy for a Ternary Regime Markov Switching MJD	47
	A.4	Calculation of Discriminating Statistics	50
	A.5	Simulation of Best Fit Model for Calculation of $L_2$ Error and K-S Test Statistics	60
	A.6	User Defined Functions Used in the Main Code	64

## Chapter 1

Model in various forms.

## Introduction

Stock prices possess an inherent randomness. Attempts have been made to model the dynamics of stock price using diffusion processes. In 1973, Black, Scholes and Merton, [17], used Geometric Brownian Motion to model Stock/Risky Asset prices. This is the pioneering asset pricing model that continues to influence all models to this day. The theoretical results obtained from this model were not consistent with empirical observations. Various assumptions made by the model such as constant market parameters such as volatility, drift and interest rate turned out to be unrealistic since in the real world these parameters are ever changing. Many Models have been developed to address to the inconsistency between theory and empirical observations and issue of assumptions made by the Black, Scholes and Merton model. A few examples are the Heston Model and several regime switching models. The Heston Model[15] considers volatility to be a stochastic process unlike the Black, Scholes and Merton model. It makes the use of a Cox Ingersoll Ross(CIR) process to model the volatility of a stock. Modeling of volatility as a CIR process implies volatility to follow mean reverting dynamics. Many models later have extended the Heston

The phenomenon of quick or rapid variations in stock prices (where the historical volatility is too high or too low) due to certain events that occur rarely cannot be explained by models with continuous path such as the Black, Scholes and Merton model and the Heston Model. The real time series data of financial asset prices do exhibit jump discontinuities which cannot be explained by a diffusion model alone. The sudden large changes in the return series are attributed to jump discontinuities. To address the phenomenon of empirically observed big and sudden changes in simple return series the market jump diffusion models have been considered. Merton[49] in 1976 introduced a pioneering jump diffusion option pricing model. Other examples of jump diffusion models are [24] and [25]. These models introduce the concept of discontinuity into the stock price dynamics. A jump diffusion extension of a geometric Brownian motion is called a geometric Lévy process. It intends to improve over the geometric Brownian motion process of the BSM model. This model is used in [28]. Models also have been developed by introducing jump into the Heston Model. An example is [30].

Regime switching models are another type of models gaining traction in literature of Mathematical Finance after the work of of Hamilton (1989) [14] and Di Masi et.al (1994) [13]. There have been regime switching extensions of the Black, Scholes and the Heston Model. These models allow variation of Market parameters in a simplistic manner. In Regime switching models, the key market parameters evolve as finite state pure jump process such as a Markov chain. The volatility and drift coefficients are changed based on the movement of a unobserved pure jump process. One such regime switching model is a Markov Modulated Geometric Brownian Motion(MMGBM), which is a Geometric Brownian motion whose parameters evolve as Markov chain. As research in the regime switching field grew, the models also gained popularity academically. After [13] various researchers assumed regime switching models for asset price dynamics. Examples of such regime switching models are [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7] [8], [9], [10], [11], [12]. Some examples of regime switching models modulated by a Markov chain are[18], [19] and [20]. Regime switching extension of the Heston model is studied in [16]. The list is just indicative and not exhaustive.

The jump diffusion models or regime switching models alone have not been able to model and explain various aspects of the asset price dynamics. Therefore, this thesis aims at a unified inference of jump diffusion models with regime switching. In this thesis, the inference problem for a class of Ternary regime-switching jump diffusion model of financial is studied. In [33], the statistical inference of a class of binary regime-switching jump diffusion model of financial time series data studied. In [33] a particular type of test statistics has been used which is suitable for a model where the low volatility regime occurs with a low probability and high volatility regime occurs with low probability, not together, but in isolation. An extension of that study where models where, the high volatility regime and low volatility regime occur with low probability together is considered in this thesis. The jumps are identified and removed before inferring the regimes in the regime-switching volatility dynamics.

Various approaches have been studied to infer the parameters of jump models which include the maximum likelihood approach [35], the Markov chain Monte Carlo approach [39], and threshold estimators [40], [43]. In, [32] jump discontinuities are inferred using a Maximum Likelihood Estimation(MLE) approach while [43] and [31] a non parametric approach is used for jump detection. Specifically, [31] infers jump discontinuities by minimizing the Mean Square Error(MSE). In this thesis a threshold technique is proposed, to disentangle the jump from the continuous part. In this method we obtain a threshold that is dependent on the volatility coefficient.

The standard threshold method involves fixing a threshold value of return, based on the time granularity of the data, and a jump is said to have occurred when the return crosses that threshold and the instances when the jump has occurred are classified as the jump times. The volatility coefficient is estimated post the removal of the jumps detected, from the return series. One must note that, if the threshold does not depend on the diffusion coefficient, the jump identification is poor for a large value of the volatility coefficient due to rare but large increments caused by Brownian motion, would be misclassified as jumps. This issue has been addressed by us, by simultaneously obtaining the threshold and the volatility estimator, by solving an implicit equation. The maximum solution is obtained by an iterative scheme that rapidly converges to it. The resulting estimator is denoted as the maximal estimator, as it maximizes the contribution of diffusion term in explaining return series and reduces the false-positive error. Post the removal of jumps detected from the return series, the continuous part of the data(return series) is modelled using a ternary regime switching GBM model.

Discriminating statistics proposed by us, are used to test the model. The sampling distribution of the discriminating statistics varies drastically and desirably, with varying choices of instantaneous rate parameter in the regime switching dynamics. The discriminating statistics are constructed using certain descriptive statistics of squeeze and expansion duration of the Bollinger band. The sampling distribution of the descriptive statistics of these durations, under a particular model hypothesis, do not have a form by which analytical inference can be done. Despite this, the empirical distribution of the statistics can be obtained using a reliable simulation procedure. This is a standard approach known as the typical realization surrogate data approach in Theiler et al. [47]. Other works such as [45] and [46] use a similar approach. As the approach in [33] serves as a bedrock for this thesis.

This thesis is organised into chapters with several sections and subsections within the chapters. Chapter 2 provides a brief picture and describes diffusion, jump diffusion and Markov switching models for asset price dynamics developed to date. In Chapter 3, we propose the development of a method for inference of jumps in uni-regime and regime switching Merton's jump diffusion model. In Chapter 4, method of obtaining squeeze and expansion durations is given. These durations are used to propose discriminating statistics which are detailed in the same chapter. The rejection procedure of any composite null hypothesis based on these statistics is also elucidated in Chapter 4. The discretization of a few important class of regime switching models is explained in cChapter 5. Chapter 6 deals with the application of the proposed inference technique developed to some empirical data and some numerical experiments on the best fit models to test their performance.

### Chapter 2

# Stochastic Models of Asset Price Dynamics

### 2.1 Diffusion and Jump diffusion models

In 1973, Black, Scholes and Merton [17] used Geometric Brownian Motion to model Stock/Risky Asset prices. It is known as the Black Scholes Merton(BSM)model which is given by the following stochastic differential equation:

 $dS_t = dS_t(\mu dt + \sigma dW_t),$ 

where  $S_t$  is the price of the stock,  $S_0 > 0$ ,  $\mu$  is the drift(expected return) of the stock and  $\sigma$  is the volatility of the stock(standard deviation) and  $W_t$  is standard Brownian Motion.

The theoretical results, obtained from the model were not consistent with empirical observations due to various assumptions of the model such as constant market parameters such as volatility, drift and interest rate which were unrealistic as, in the real world these parameters are constantly changing. Further, Models have been developed to address to the inconsistency between theory and empirical observations mainly due to the assumptions made by the Black, Scholes and Merton model. A few examples are the Heston Model and several regime switching models.

The Heston Model[15] considers volatility to be a stochastic process unlike the Black, Scholes and Merton model. It makes the use of a Cox Ingersoll Ross(CIR) process to model the volatility of a stock. Modeling of volatility as a CIR process implies volatility to follow mean reverting dynamics. Various successive models have extended the Heston Model in different forms. The Heston Model is given by the following Stochastic differential equations:

 $dS_t = \mu S_t + \sqrt{v_t} S_t dW_t$  $dv_t = \kappa (\theta - v_t) dt + \sigma \sqrt{v_t} dW_t',$ 

W and W' are standard Brownian motions, such that  $dW_t dW_t' = \rho dt$ ,  $S_t$  is the price of the stock,  $v_t$  is the volatility of the stock. The parameters of volatility are defined as follows:  $\kappa$  is speed,  $\theta$  is the long run mean, and  $\sigma$  is the volatility of volatility. The system of differential is also subject to additional conditions as: Feller condition:  $\sigma^2 < 2\kappa\theta$ , which assures the non negativity of v and to assure square integrability of S:  $\sigma \leq \frac{\kappa}{(2\rho+\sqrt{2})^+}$ .

As discussed in the introduction, to address the phenomenon of quick or rapid variations in stock prices due to certain events that occur rarely in the market jump diffusion models have been considered. Sudden large changes in the return series are attributed to jump discontinuities. Some examples of jump diffusion models are [24] and [25]. These models introduce the concept of discontinuity into the stock price dynamics. One example of a jump diffusion process is :

$$dS_t = S_{t^-}(\mu dt + \sigma dW_t + \int \eta(z)N(dt, dz)),$$

where,  $\eta : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and bounded above and  $\eta(z) > -1$  and N(dt, dz) is a Poisson random measure with intensity  $\nu(z)dt$ , where  $\nu$  is a finite Borel measure. [24] and [25] study similar models as above.

A jump diffusion extension of a geometric Brownian motion is called a geometric Lévy process. It intends to improve over the geometric Brownian motion process of the BSM model. It is given by:

$$S_t = S_0 \exp Z_t$$
, where  $Z_t$  is a Lévy process.

 $Z_t = \sigma W_t + Y_t$ , where  $W_t$  is a standard Brownian motion and  $Y_t$  is jump Lévy process independent of  $W_t$ . The process  $Y_t$  has the following representation in terms of the Poisson random Measure,  $N(dt, dz), t \ge 0, z \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  generated by the jumps of  $Z_t$ :

$$Y_t = bt + \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}} zI_{|z| \ge 0} N(ds, dz) + \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}} zI_{|z| < 0} [N(ds, dz) - \nu(dz)ds] \text{ and } I \text{ is the indicator function.}$$

Here,  $\nu(dz)$  is the Lévy measure which satisfies the following conditions:  $\int \min(z^2, 1)\nu(dz) < \infty$ . This model is used in [28].

Models also have been developed by introducing jump into the Heston Model. An example is [30]. The model is as follows:

$$dS_{t} = (r_{t} - d_{t} - \gamma m^{j})S_{t} + \sqrt{v_{t}}S_{t}dW_{t}^{s} + (e^{J^{s}} - 1)S_{t}dN_{t}^{p}, S_{0} = s,$$
  
$$dv_{t} = \kappa(\theta - v_{t})dt + \sigma\sqrt{v_{t}}dW_{t}^{v} + J^{v}dN_{t}^{p}, V_{0} = v$$

where,  $W^s$  and  $W^v$  are standard Brownian motions, such that  $dW_t^s dW_t^v = \rho dt$ ,  $N^p$  is a Poisson process with constant intensity  $\gamma$ ,  $J^s$  is called the return jump and  $J^v$  is called the variance jump.

Amplitude of return jump is assumed to have normal distribution and Amplitude of volatility jump is assumed to have exponential distribution as follows:

$$\overline{\omega^s} = \frac{1}{2\pi\delta^2} \exp\left(-\frac{(J^s - \nu)^2}{2\delta^2}\right), \ \overline{\omega^v} = \frac{1}{\eta} \exp\left(-\frac{-1}{\eta}J^v\right),$$

where,  $\nu$  is the mean and  $\delta$  is the volatility of return jump  $J^s$  and  $\eta$  is the mean of variance jump  $J^v$ .

$$m^j = \exp(\nu + \frac{1}{2}\delta^2) - 1$$
, is the compensator.

### 2.2 Markov Switching Models

In Regime switching models market parameters vary with the changing state of economy which in turn is modulated by a Markov or a Semi Markov chain. Some examples of regime switching models modulated by a Markov chain are[18], [19] and [20].

Regime switching was integrated into the BSM model to address some of the shortcomings. It is called the Markov Modulated Geometric Brownian Motion(MMGBM)model. The stochastic differential equation of the MMGBM model is as given below:

$$dS_t = \mu(X_t)S_t dt + \sigma(X_t)S_t dW_t$$

where  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$ , is a Markov process independent of the stock price  $S_t$ .  $\tau$  is the time-index set  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$ ,  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ , the probability space and  $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, ..., k\}$  be the state-space of an irreducible k state Markov-chain.

The transition rate matrix of the Markov chain is  $\lambda$ , where,  $\lambda_{ij} \geq 0$  for  $i \neq j$  &  $\lambda_{ii} = -\sum_{i\neq i}^{k} \lambda_{ij}$ , i,  $j \in \mathcal{X}$ 

 $p_{ij} = \frac{\lambda_{ij}}{|\lambda_{ii}|}$  are the transition probabilities from state *i* to state *j*, where  $i \neq j$  and  $p_{ii} = 0$ .

In Markov Modulated Geometric Brownian motion the drift of the stock  $\mu$  and the volatility of the stock  $\sigma$  are assumed to evolve as a function of a continuous time Markov chain. The stochastic differential equation of MMGBM is as given below,

$$dS_t = \mu(X_t)S_t dt + \sigma(X_t)S_t dW_t \tag{2.2.1}$$

where,  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$ , is a Markov process independent of the stock price,  $\mu(X_t)$ ,  $\sigma^2(X_t)$  are the Markov dependent drift and volatility of the stock respectively and  $\{W_t\}_{t>0}$  is standard Brownian Motion.

**Definition 2.2.1.** The stock price in a Markov Modulated Brownian motion is given as follows:

Let the initial stock price at t=0 be  $S_0 = s$ . Then the stock price at any time t=T', is given as,

$$S_{T'} = S_0 exp[\int_0^{T'} \mu(X_t) - \sigma^2(X_t)/2)]dt + \int_0^{T'} \sigma(X_t)dW_t.$$

Some examples of MMGBM models are [1], [13], [18], [19], [20], [21], [22] and [23].

Regime switching extension of the Heston model is studied in [16]. It intends to address several inconsistencies of theoretical results of the Heston model with real/empirical data. The model is as follows:

$$dS_t = \mu S_t + \sqrt{v_t} S_t dW_t,$$
  
$$dv_t = \kappa(X_t)(\theta(X_t) - v_t) dt + \sigma(X_t) \sqrt{v_t} dW_t', V_0 = v_0,$$

where,  $X_t$  is a homogeneous continuous time Markov chain, W and W' are standard Brownian motions, such that  $dW_t dW'_t = \rho(X_t) dt$ .

### 2.3 Historical Volatility in MMGBM

Volatility in the MMGBM model is modulated by a continuous time Markov chain. It changes when there is a regime change in the Markov chain, else it remains constant. This leads to the volatility to behave as a step function which is a pure jump process. However, with pure jump volatility one can observe diffusion type dynamics of historical volatility conventionally observed through data. A numerical approach is taken to establish the diffusion type dynamics of historical volatility by considering a pure jump volatility in an MMGBM model. The approach is as follows:

The stock price  $S_t$ , follows the MMGBM model. The estimator of historical volatility  $\hat{\sigma}_t$  is calculated for an interval of 'd' days over a period of time T. The square of estimator volatility is called estimator of variance given by,  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ . The estimator of historical volatility is given by  $\hat{\sigma}_t$ .  $\delta$  is the time step considered. Return of the stock  $R_{t-\delta}$  is given by,

$$R_{t-\delta} = \frac{S_t - S_{t-\delta}}{S_{t-\delta}},\tag{2.3.1}$$

where the stock price  $S_t$ , follows an MMGBM process.

$$\hat{V}(R_{t-\delta}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{20} R_{t-i\delta}^2}{20} - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{20} R_{t-i\delta}}{20}\right)^2$$
(2.3.2)

$$\hat{\sigma}_t^2 = \frac{\hat{V}(R_{t-\delta})}{\delta}$$
, is the estimator of historical variance. (2.3.3)

In order to observe the diffusion type dynamics as well as the mean reverting nature of historical volatility

resulting from a pure jump volatility Monte Carlo simulations were run of the model (2.2.1) on MATLAB using the parameters given below :

- 1. Total time, T=3 (in years), Time step,  $\delta = 1/253$  year
- 2. Initial stock price at time t=0,  $S_0=100$ .
- 3. 3 states: 1, 2, 3 are considered with, initial state  $X_0 = 1$  and Rate Matrix,  $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} -0.1 & 0.08 & 0.02 \\ 0.01 & -0.02 & 0.01 \\ 0.015 & 0.035 & -0.05 \end{bmatrix}$ .

 $\sigma(1) = 0.05, \, \sigma(2) = 0.10, \, \sigma(1) = 0.20$  and  $\mu(1) = 0.02, \, \mu(1) = 0.08, \, \mu(1) = 0.04.$ 

Figure 2.1 is the simulation of as single realization of historical volatility over a 3 year period.

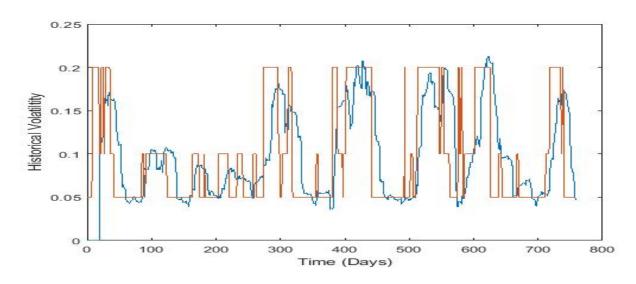


Figure 2.1: Single Realization of Historical Volatility

From the figure 2.1 the diffusion type dynamics of historical volatility can be observed. Another observation that can be made from the figures is the mean reverting nature of historical volatility. Mean reverting nature is displayed here as the the value of historical volatility rises and falls but tends to approach a mean value after each rise and fall. These numerical simulations and the following observations of diffusion type dynamics and mean reverting nature of the historical volatility process that is empirically observed in market data validates the claim of considering volatility to behave as a pure jump process.

## Chapter 3

# Inference of Jumps in Merton's Jump Diffusion model

In this chapter, we detail a statistical method for detection of jump discontinuities in the asset return data using a threshold approach. As the diffusion noise and the jump, both, contribute to the second order moment of the return process, the knowledge of return's variance alone is not sufficient to solve the calibration problem of both jump and diffusion coefficients. More insight(information) can be obtained from the classification of the returns using a threshold. In the standard threshold approach, to calibrate volatility, the annualized coefficient of diffusion term, the jump coefficients are inferred in advance. In this thesis we propose approach of maximal threshold where the jump detection and the volatility coefficients are obtained simultaneously. In our method for jump inference we consider a more generalized version of the original Merton's Jump Diffusion(MJD) model[49] where we relax the condition of jump sizes following a log-normal distribution.

### 3.1 Model Hypothesis

For detection of jump discontinuities, a simplified continuous-time model of asset price process,  $S := \{S_t\}_{t \in [0,T]}$ , is considered which is given by,

$$dS_t = \mu S_{t-} dt + \beta S_{t-} dW_t + S_{t-} dM_t \tag{3.1.1}$$

with  $S_0 > 0$ , where  $W = \{W_t\}_{t \in [0,T]}$  is the standard Brownian motion, and  $M = \{M_t\}_{t \in [0,T]}$  is a compound Poisson process. In particular, M is given by  $M_t = \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \xi(i)$ , in which  $\mathcal{N} = \{\mathcal{N}_t\}_{t \in [0,T]}$  is a Poisson process with intensity  $\Lambda$  and  $\xi := \{\xi(i)\}_{i=1,2,...}$  is a sequence of independent random variables with identical cumulative distribution function (cdf) F having mean zero and a finite variance. We assume that W,  $\mathcal{N}$  and  $\xi$  are independent to each other. It should be noted that (3.1.1) implies the following model

$$\frac{S(i) - S(i-1)}{S(i-1)} - \mu \Delta = \beta \sqrt{\Delta} Z(i) + (M_{i\Delta} - M_{(i-1)\Delta})$$
(3.1.2)

for the discrete time series  $(S(0), S(1), S(2), \ldots, S(N))$  having time step  $\Delta$  (in year unit), where,  $\{Z(i)\}$  are independent, identically distributed (i.i.d.) standard normal random variables. Here S(i) stands for  $S_{i\Delta}$  in (3.1.1). From a given equispaced data the one-step simple return is given by  $r(i) = \frac{S(i) - S(i-1)}{S(i-1)}$ . The average  $\bar{r}$  of  $\{r(1), \ldots, r(N)\}$  is given by  $\bar{r} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} r(i)$ . Using (3.1.2) and the model assumption that  $E\xi(i) = 0$ , it is evident that  $\bar{r}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu\Delta$ . In addition, Our assumptions on F are:

- (A1) F(-1) is assumed to be zero,
- (A2) F(0-) = F(0), i.e., zero is a point of continuity of F.

Assumption (A1) ensures the positivity of S, while (A2) implies that  $P(\xi = 0) = 0$ . Specifically, (A2) prohibits jumps of size zero in simple return which does not impose any practical restriction on (3.1.1), but justifies selection of the CDF of jump size and the jump intensity. In the classical Merton's Jump Diffusion(MJD) model F is the CDF of one less than lognormal and hence MJD obeys (A1) and (A2). Even though (3.1.1) is of a more general nature than a classical MJD, (3.1.1) would be referred to as the MJD model hereon for the terminological convenience.

### 3.2 Motivation of Threshold Method

Empirical study by model fitting requires the estimation of all the parameters i.e. historical  $\mu$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\Lambda$  and F where, F is a functional parameter. The jump discontinuities, which are apparent in a continuous time process, but their identification becomes ambiguous when the process is observed in discrete time. In the following simple lemma it can be seen that the false positive error in jump detection can be reduced as the time step decreases.

**Lemma 3.2.1.** Under no jump conditions and our assumptions: Given any  $\hat{p} \in (0,1)$ , and c > 0, there exists a sufficiently small  $\Delta > 0$ , such that  $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} \{ |r(i) - \mu\Delta| \ge c \}) < \hat{p}$ .

*Proof.* Due to (3.1.2), under  $\Lambda = 0$ ,  $\{r(1), \ldots, r(N)\}$  is a sequence of i.i.d normal variables with mean  $\mu\Delta$  and variance  $\beta^2\Delta$ . Let  $A_i := \{\omega \in \Omega \mid |r(i) - \mu\Delta| \ge c\}$ , then

$$P(A_i) = 2\left(1 - \Phi\left(\frac{c}{\beta\sqrt{\Delta}}\right)\right)$$

for each i, where  $\Phi$  denotes the cdf of the standard normal distribution. Therefore,

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} A_{i}\right) = 1 - P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{N} (\Omega \setminus A_{i})\right) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{N} (1 - P(A_{i})) = 1 - \left(2\Phi\left(\frac{c}{\beta\sqrt{\Delta}}\right) - 1\right)^{N}$$

Hence the lemma is true, i.e., left side is less than  $\hat{p}$  if and only if

$$2\Phi\left(\frac{c}{\beta\sqrt{\Delta}}\right) - 1 > (1-\hat{p})^{1/N} = (1-\hat{p})^{\frac{\Delta}{T}}$$
  
or, 
$$\frac{T}{\Delta}\ln\left(2\Phi\left(\frac{c}{\beta\sqrt{\Delta}}\right) - 1\right) > \ln(1-\hat{p})$$
(3.2.1)

where T denotes the length of the time horizon (i.e.,  $T = N\Delta$ ). A direct calculation gives that the left side of the above inequality vanishes as  $\Delta$  goes to zero whereas right side is a fixed negative quantity. Hence there is a sufficiently small  $\Delta > 0$  such that (3.2.1) is true. Hence the proof is completed.

Due to the continuity (see (A2)) of F at zero, given any  $\hat{p} > 0$ , there is a positive c such that for any  $x \in (-c, c)$ , one has  $|F(x) - F(0)| < \hat{p}/2$ . This gives

$$0 \le F(c) - F(-c) < \hat{p}, \tag{3.2.2}$$

that is  $P(|\xi| < c) < \hat{p}$ . In other words, if such a value of c is set as threshold, the chance of false negative in jump detection becomes less than  $\hat{p}$ .

**Remark 3.2.1.** Based on Lemma 3.2.1 and the implication (3.2.2) of (A2), the noise sources, i.e., Z (diffusion noise) and M (jump noise) in the discrete time series (sampled from (3.1.2)) can be separated with the help of an suitable threshold parameter c with confidence  $1 - \hat{p}$ , if the time discretization is sufficiently small. Therefore the value of c plays a crucial role in classification of noise. The estimation of c as in (3.2.2) is virtually impossible from a real data, computing a lower bound so that (3.2.1) holds for any value of c higher than that is practicable. Hence, a threshold obtained facilitates the false positive error to be bounded by  $\hat{p}$ . This is delineated further in this section.

**Definition 3.2.1.** Considering the above remark, if  $\hat{\beta}$  is an estimator of  $\beta$ , then  $\hat{c} := \gamma \hat{\beta}$  where

$$\gamma := \sqrt{\Delta} \Phi^{-1} \left( \frac{1 + (1 - \hat{p})^{\frac{\Delta}{T}}}{2} \right), \tag{3.2.3}$$

is a known positive constant. Given a time series data, a jump is said to have occurred at  $i^{th}$  time step if  $|r(i) - \overline{r}|$  is not less than  $\hat{c}$  and at that instance, the value of the jump size is,  $r(i) - \overline{r}$ .

### 3.3 Maximal Threshold

An estimator (SD) of the standard deviation of one-step return is considered by  $^{1}$ 

$$SD^{2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( r(i) - \overline{r} \right)^{2}.$$

It should also be noted that  $SD^2$  does not depend on  $\hat{p}$ . Following from, (3.1.2), an estimator  $\hat{\beta}$  of  $\beta$ , can be chosen to follow

$$SD^2 = \hat{\beta}^2 \Delta + \hat{\Lambda} \Delta V, \tag{3.3.1}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>It is a consistent estimator. In addition, as  $\Delta$  is supposed to be chosen significantly small, let's say a few minutes in year unit. This leads to the magnitude of SD being small. In a typical time series data, conventionally, N is significantly large. Therefore, the bias in  $SD^2$  is negligible.

where  $\hat{\Lambda}$  and V are estimators of jump intensity and the variance of jump sizes. To observe this, it needs to be noted that, the variance formula of compound Poisson process, i.e.,  $VAR(M_t) = \Lambda t E(\xi^2)$ . Let,

$$\hat{\Lambda} := \frac{card(I_{\hat{c}})}{T},\tag{3.3.2}$$

where  $I_{\hat{c}} = \{i \in \{1, \dots, N\} \mid |r(i) - \overline{r}| \geq \hat{c}\}$  and card(A) denotes the cardinality of a set A. Next,  $\hat{\Lambda}$  is a plug-in estimator of  $\Lambda$  based on maximum likelihood estimation. Further, V as  $V := \frac{\sum_{i \in I_{\hat{c}}} (r(i) - \overline{r})^2}{card(I_{\hat{c}})} = \frac{\sum_{i \in I_{\hat{c}}} (r(i) - \overline{r})^2}{\hat{\Lambda}T}$  (using (3.3.2)). Plugging in  $SD^2$ , V and  $\hat{\Lambda}$  as above in (3.3.1), we get the following

$$G(\hat{\beta}) := \hat{\beta}^2 - \frac{SD^2}{\Delta} + \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i \in I_{\gamma\hat{\beta}}} (r(i) - \bar{r})^2 = 0.$$
(3.3.3)

 $\hat{\Lambda} = \frac{\operatorname{card}(I_{\gamma\hat{\beta}})}{T} \text{ and subsequently } V = \frac{\sum_{i \in I_{\gamma\hat{\beta}}} (r(i) - \bar{r})^2}{\hat{\Lambda}T} \text{ can be obtained from the solution of the above equation.}$ 

(3.3.3) evidently has a trivial solution  $\hat{\beta} = 0$ , which results in  $\hat{\Lambda} = \frac{N}{T} = 1/\Delta$  and  $V = SD^2$ . In contrast we focus on the nontrivial solution where  $\hat{\beta} > 0$ , as higher the magnitude of  $\hat{\beta}$  smaller the time points attributed to being jumps. In essence, we focus on the largest solution to (3.3.3), as our objective is to minimize the false-positive error in jump detection. A low false-positive error means the return series is explained by the diffusion term as much as possible.

#### **Theorem 3.3.1.** The equation (3.3.3) has a non-trivial solution for sufficiently small $\hat{p}$ .

*Proof.* We need to prove the existence of a nontrivial zero of G (the function of  $\hat{\beta}$  that is defined on the left side of (3.3.3)). It is evident that if  $\hat{\beta}$  is more than  $SD/\sqrt{\Delta}$ ,  $G(\hat{\beta})$  is strictly positive. Hence any positive solution if exists lies in  $(0, SD/\sqrt{\Delta}]$ . Again, (3.2.3) implies that  $\lim_{\hat{p}\to 0} \gamma = \infty$ . Therefore,

$$\lim_{\hat{p}\to 0}\sum_{i\in I_{\gamma\hat{\beta}}}(r(i)-\bar{r})^2=0$$

as  $I_{\gamma\hat{\beta}}$  becomes empty for a sufficiently large  $\gamma$ . Thus for any  $\hat{\beta} \in (0, SD/\sqrt{\Delta})$ , there is a sufficient small  $\hat{p}$  such that  $G(\hat{\beta})$  is strictly negative. We fix such  $\hat{p}$ . Since G is positive on  $(\frac{SD}{\sqrt{\Delta}}, \infty)$ , we conclude that G is bounded below and rises from negative to positive as  $\hat{\beta}$  increases. This confirms existence of a zero of G if each discontinuity of G is due to a negative jump. Moreover, G, being bounded below, if additionally possesses right-continuity and has positive first order derivative at each point of continuity, would permit a minimizer  $\hat{\beta}_{\min}$ , say.

The above properties of G, can be established by considering the term  $\frac{1}{T}\sum_{i\in I_{\gamma\hat{\beta}}}(r(i)-\bar{r})^2$ , a non-increasing right continuous step function of  $\hat{\beta}$ . As G is the sum of this term with a continuous function  $\hat{\beta}^2$  and a constant, G is also right continuous, having only negative jumps and a positive first and second order derivatives at the points of continuity. Hence, G has at least one zero on  $(\hat{\beta}_{\min}, SD/\sqrt{\Delta})$ .

**Remark 3.3.1.** It is of crucial importance to take into account that (3.3.3) must be solved numerically for a given data set. Uniqueness of non-trivial zero is not obvious since G, is discontinuous. Since, G is strictly positive

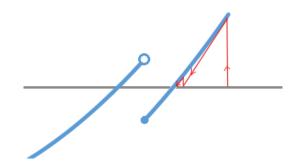


Figure 3.1: Convergence of gradient descent to the largest solution of (3.3.3)

beyond  $SD/\sqrt{\Delta}$ , there exists a finite largest zero of G which is strictly positive and unique, provided G becomes negative. This is also the desired solution to (3.3.3). It is to be observed that G is right continuous and also has a right derivative. Specifically,  $G'(\beta) = 2\beta$ , where G' is the right derivative of G. Therefore, the following Newton-Raphson algorithm with initial point  $\frac{SD}{\sqrt{\Delta}}$  converges to the largest non-trivial solution(described above) rapidly

$$\beta_{n+1} = \beta_n - \frac{G(\beta_n)}{2\beta_n}, \quad \forall n \ge 0, \text{ and } \quad \beta_0 = SD/\sqrt{\Delta}.$$
(3.3.4)

This is evident as G has jumps of negative size and has positive first and second order derivatives at the points of continuity and the initial point is on the right of the desired solution. It can be observed from Figure 3.1.

**Definition 3.3.1** (Maximal Estimators). Let the limit of the iterative sequence (3.3.4) be defined as  $\hat{\beta}_{\max}$  and term it as the maximal estimator of  $\beta$  parameter. Further more, the product  $\gamma \hat{\beta}_{\max}$  is in fact defined as the maximal threshold and denote that by  $\hat{c}_{\max}$ .

Evidently, the above mentioned threshold method is disparate to the standard method based on obtaining a fixed threshold. The approach in this thesis is termed as the maximal threshold method due the accuracy of jump-detection being optimized by controlling the false-positive error. We achieve this objective by obtaining the threshold and the volatility simultaneously by an iterative scheme. The theorem below with an independent theoretical interest, answers the question of uniqueness question of (3.3.3) on a restricted set. Furthermore, it also indicates the location of the estimator.

**Theorem 3.3.2.** For a sufficiently small  $\hat{p}$ , (3.3.3) has a unique solution on  $\left(\frac{SD}{\sqrt{2\Delta}}, \frac{SD}{\sqrt{\Delta}}\right]$  and no solution on  $\left(\frac{SD}{\sqrt{\Delta}}, \infty\right)$ .

Proof. Let  $\beta_0 = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{2\Delta}}$  and  $\gamma_0 := \max_{i \le N} \left( \frac{|r(i) - \overline{r}|}{\beta_0} \right)$ . We fix  $\hat{p}$  sufficiently small, so that  $\gamma$  in (3.2.3) is more than  $\gamma_0$ . Hence for all  $\hat{\beta}$  not less than  $\beta_0$ ,  $\gamma \hat{\beta}$  is greater than  $\max_{i \le N} |r(i) - \overline{r}|$  and consequently  $I_{\gamma \hat{\beta}}$  is empty. Therefore, at  $\hat{\beta} = \beta_0$ , G is equal to  $-\beta_0^2$ , a negative quantity; and continues to increase continuously on  $(\beta_0, \infty)$  and is positive at  $\hat{\beta} = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{\Delta}}$ . Hence the proof.

The computation  $\hat{\beta}_{\text{max}}$  has been elucidated so far, mainly to obtain a threshold value  $\hat{c}_{\text{max}}$ . The threshold facilitates the isolation of the jumps from diffusion noise in return series with a confidence  $1 - \hat{p}$ . The class of data points

having jumps, can be analyzed alone for inferring the jump size distribution F. In addition, the return series which is driven or controlled by only diffusion can also be analyzed separately for the fitting other sophisticated diffusion models. This aspect is dealt in detail in the subsequent sections.

### **3.4** Consistency of $\hat{\beta}$

In this section the issues pertinent to the consistency of the estimator  $\hat{\beta}$  as  $\Delta \to 0$  are discussed. It can be observed that  $\hat{\beta}$  depends on  $\gamma$  which in turn is dependent on both  $\Delta$  and the choice of the mis-classification probability or probability of separation,  $\hat{p}$ . To enable  $\hat{\beta}$  to only depend on  $\Delta$ , the probability of mis-classification must be considered to be dependent on  $\Delta$  and must approach zero as  $\Delta \to 0$ , rather than fixing a constant pre-assigned value  $\hat{p}$ . It is evident that the decay rate of the misclassification probability plays a key role in establishing consistency of the estimator. The misclassification probability is chosen as follows,

$$\hat{p} = \min\left(1, \alpha \Delta^{\ln(1/\Delta)}\right) \tag{3.4.1}$$

for some  $\alpha > 0$ . It can be seen that,  $\hat{p} \to 0$  as  $\Delta \to 0$ . By choosing  $\alpha$  carefully, a value of our choice can be assigned to  $\hat{p}$ . Hereon, we denote the right side of (3.2.3) as  $\gamma(\Delta)$  in which  $\hat{p}$  is defined as (3.4.1). By the following lemma, we prove that this choice of  $\hat{p}$  gives a consistent estimator.

**Lemma 3.4.1.** Let  $\gamma(\Delta)$  be as above. Then as  $\Delta$  tends to 0,

1.  $\gamma(\Delta)$  converges to zero and 2.  $\frac{\Delta \ln \frac{1}{\Delta}}{\gamma(\Delta)^2}$  converges to zero.

*Proof.* It follows from the formula 7.1.13 of [34] that for any  $x \ge 0$ 

$$\frac{1}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 4}} < \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{\frac{x^2}{2}} \left(1 - \Phi(x)\right) < \frac{1}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + \frac{8}{\pi}}}.$$
(3.4.2)

Therefore for any  $\varepsilon \geq 0$ , we have that

$$\frac{e^{\varepsilon x^2}}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 4}} < \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{x^2 (\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon)} \left(1 - \Phi(x)\right) < \frac{e^{\varepsilon x^2}}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + \frac{8}{\pi}}}.$$
(3.4.3)

Now substituting x by  $\frac{x}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}}$  in the left hand side of the inequality (3.4.3), we deduce

$$e^{x^2}\left(1-\Phi\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}}\right)\right) > \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}e^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}x^2}}{x+\sqrt{x^2+4\varepsilon+2}}$$

Since the right side diverges to infinity as  $x \to \infty$ , given any M > 0, there exists a  $x_0 > 0$  such that for all  $x \ge x_0$ ,

we have  $1 - \Phi\left(x/\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon}\right) > Me^{-x^2}$ . Again, since  $\Phi$  is non-decreasing, we obtain

$$x/\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon} < \Phi^{-1}\left(1-Me^{-x^2}\right). \tag{3.4.4}$$

On the other hand, substitution of x by  $\sqrt{2}x$  in the right side of the inequality (3.4.2), gives convergence of  $e^{x^2} (1 - \Phi(\sqrt{2}x))$  to 0 as  $x \to \infty$ , in other words, given any M > 0, there exists a  $x'_0 > 0$  such that for all  $x \ge x'_0$ , we have the following

$$\sqrt{2}x > \Phi^{-1} \left( 1 - M e^{-x^2} \right). \tag{3.4.5}$$

With slight abuse of notation, we denote  $x_0 := \max\{x_0, x'_0\}$ . Then (3.4.4) and (3.4.5) hold for any  $x \ge x_0$ . For a fixed  $\hat{p} \in (0, 1)$  and sufficiently large  $x \ge x_0$ , let y > 0, be such that the following holds

$$1 - Me^{-x^2} = \frac{1 + (1 - \hat{p})^y}{2}.$$

By using the Taylor's series expansion of  $(1 - \hat{p})^y$ , from above we obtain

$$x^{2} = -\ln\left(\frac{\hat{p}y}{2M} + o(y)\right).$$

Then there is a  $y_0 > 0$  such that for all  $y < y_0$ , we have

$$\sqrt{\ln\left(\frac{4M}{\hat{p}y}\right)} > x = \sqrt{-\ln\left(\frac{\hat{p}y}{2M} + o(y)\right)} > \sqrt{\ln\left(\frac{M}{\hat{p}y}\right)}.$$
(3.4.6)

Now by using (3.4.6) in (3.4.4), and by setting  $y = \frac{\Delta}{T}$ , for all  $\Delta < \Delta_0$  with  $\Delta_0 = Ty_0$ , we deduce

$$\sqrt{\ln\left(\frac{MT}{\hat{p}\Delta}\right)} < \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon} \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{1 + (1 - \hat{p})^{\frac{\Delta}{T}}}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon\right)^{1/2} \frac{\gamma(\Delta)}{\sqrt{\Delta}},$$

provided  $\hat{p} = \min(1, \alpha \Delta^{\ln(1/\Delta)})$ . Without loss of generality, assume  $\Delta_0$  sufficiently small so that  $\hat{p} < 1$  for any  $\Delta < \Delta_0$ . By substituting M = 1 in the above inequality, and by squaring both sides we get

$$0 < \ln\left(\frac{T}{\alpha}\right) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{\Delta}^{\ln(1/\Delta)}\right) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{\Delta}\right) < \left(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon\right)\frac{\gamma^2(\Delta)}{\Delta}, \quad \forall \ \Delta < \Delta_0.$$
(3.4.7)

Or,

$$\frac{\Delta}{\gamma^2(\Delta)}\ln(T/\alpha) + \frac{\Delta}{\gamma^2(\Delta)}\left(\ln(1/\Delta)\right)^2 + \frac{\Delta}{\gamma^2(\Delta)}\ln(1/\Delta) < \left(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon\right).$$

Note that the second term of the left hand side of the above inequality is strictly dominating over the other terms as  $\Delta \to 0$  and also the sum is bounded. This implies that the terms other than the second vanish as  $\Delta \to 0$ . Thus we prove our second claim, i.e.,  $\frac{\Delta \ln \frac{1}{\Delta}}{\gamma(\Delta)^2} \to 0$  as  $\Delta \to 0$ . Again, by using (3.4.6) in (3.4.5), and by setting  $y = \frac{\Delta}{T}$ , for

all  $\Delta < \Delta_0$ , we get that

$$\sqrt{\ln\left(\frac{4MT}{\hat{p}\Delta}\right)} > \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}\frac{\gamma(\Delta)}{\sqrt{\Delta}}$$

provided  $\hat{p} = \min(1, \alpha \Delta^{\ln(1/\Delta)})$  where  $\alpha > 0$ . By substitute M = 1 and simplifying we obtain

$$2\Delta \left( \ln \left( \frac{4T}{\alpha} \right) + \ln(1/\Delta) + \left( \ln(1/\Delta) \right)^2 \right) > \gamma^2(\Delta),$$

for  $\Delta < \Delta_0$ . Hence the first claim is true as the left hand side of the above converges to 0 as  $\Delta \to 0$ .

**Theorem 3.4.2.** Let  $\beta$  be the positive volatility parameter appearing in (3.1.1) and  $\hat{\beta}_{\max}$  as in definition 3.3.1. As  $\Delta \to 0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_{\max}$  converges to  $\beta$  in probability.

*Proof.* Note that log return, i.e., the increment of log of asset price in  $\Delta$  time span is

$$\ln(S_t) - \ln(S_{t-\Delta}) = \ln(S_t/S_{t-\Delta}) = \ln(1 + \frac{S_t - S_{t-\Delta}}{S_{t-\Delta}}).$$
(3.4.8)

On the other hand,  $\frac{S_t - S_{t-\Delta}}{S_{t-\Delta}}$  is the simple return on the same time span and goes to zero as  $\Delta \to 0$  provided t is not a jump time. Hence, using (3.4.8) and  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 1$ , we can write  $\ln(S_t) - \ln(S_{t-\Delta}) \sim \frac{S_t - S_{t-\Delta}}{S_{t-\Delta}}$ . Therefore,  $\hat{c}_{\max}^2$ , the threshold on the square of simple return also serves as the threshold on the square of log return as  $\Delta \to 0$ . Hence Corollary 2 in [43] gives that  $\hat{\beta}_{\max} \to \beta$  in probability provided,  $\hat{c}_{\max}^2$  and  $\frac{\Delta \ln \frac{1}{\Delta}}{\hat{c}_{\max}^2}$  vanish as  $\Delta \to 0$ .

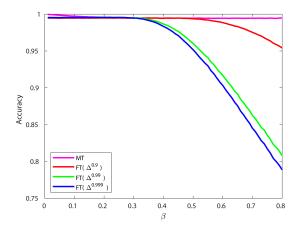
First note that, due to the finite activity jump,  $SD^2 = O(\Delta)$  as  $\Delta \to 0$ . Thus by Theorem 3.3.2 we know that  $\hat{\beta}_{\max}$  is bounded and away from zero provided  $\beta \neq 0$ . Therefore,  $\hat{c}_{\max}^2$  and  $\gamma^2(\Delta)$  share the same asymptotic. Finally the result follows from Lemma 3.4.1.

#### **3.5** Numerical Experiments

This section the study of the finite sample performance of the estimator and threshold is detailed, presented in definition 3.3.1 by performing numerical experiments involving accuracy evaluation of jump detection for a given family of simulated data. Specifically, the accuracy measure is defined as,

 $Accuracy := \frac{\text{True Positive} + \text{True Negative}}{\text{True Positive} + \text{False Positive} + \text{True Negative} + \text{False Negative}}.$ 

For performing simulations, Merton's jump-diffusion (MJD) model (3.1.1) is considered with various values of  $\beta$ and all other parameters are fixed to their typical values. The parameters,  $\mu = 0.1$ ,  $\Lambda = 100$  are fixed and F is the cdf of  $Lognormal(-\frac{\delta^2}{2}, \delta^2) - 1$ , with  $\delta = 0.0055$ . Each simulated time series data is of length 18000 and has a granularity  $\Delta = 1/18000$ . For every value of  $\beta$ , the average accuracy of 1000 simulations is illustrated by a plot and displayed in a table below, where, the performance of maximal threshold is compared and contrasted with a few fixed thresholds. The fixed thresholds are chosen from the those suggested in Section 5 of [43].



β	Using Maximal	Using Fixed Threshold		
values	Threshold	$\Delta^{0.9}$	$\Delta^{0.99}$	$\Delta^{0.999}$
0.01	0.9997	0.9946	0.9953	0.9954
0.1	0.9972	0.9946	0.9953	0.9954
0.2	0.9955	0.9947	0.9954	0.9955
0.3	0.9948	0.9947	0.9950	0.9948
0.4	0.9946	0.9947	0.9870	0.9838
0.5	0.9945	0.9938	0.9603	0.9517
0.6	0.9945	0.9885	0.9164	0.9027
0.7	0.9945	0.9755	0.8632	0.8459
0.8	0.9944	0.9541	0.8083	0.7887

Figure 3.2: Jump-detection Accuracy using Maximal threshold (MT) and Fixed threshold (FT) with values  $\Delta^{0.9}$ ,  $\Delta^{0.99}$  and  $\Delta^{0.999}$ .

Table 3.1: Mean accuracy of jump-detection using 1000 simulations of MJD model for different  $\beta$  and threshold values.

In Figure 3.2 the horizontal axis pertains to increasing values of the volatility parameter  $\beta$  and the vertical axis pertains to the accuracy measure in jump detection using a threshold method. Every line plot depicts the change of accuracy as  $\beta$  changes, corresponding to a particular threshold. We consider in addition to the maximal threshold, three different fixed thresholds, namely,  $\Delta^{0.9}$ ,  $\Delta^{0.99}$  and  $\Delta^{0.999}$ . Maximal thresholds are obtained by fixing  $\hat{p} = 0.01$ . A few numerical values are shown in Table 3.1.

It can be observed from Figure 3.2 and Table 3.1 that the accuracy measure reduces in the case of higher volatility when fixed threshold method for detecting jumps. In contrast we do not observe such a reduction in the case of Maximal threshold method.

In another numerical experiment the relative errors of the volatility estimators are obtained using four thresholds (Maximal and Fixed) as specified above. The analysis is conducted by varying  $\beta$  in [0, 0.8] and considering six distinct  $\delta$  values. Plots 1 to 6 in Figure 3.3 pertain to  $\delta$  values of 0.0055, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, and 0.5 respectively. We can observe from the plots that the range of error is larger for larger  $\delta$  which can be explained in the following manner. A large  $\delta$  produces more jumps having smaller size which in turn causes higher number of false negative in jump detection when a fixed threshold is considered. In contrast, the linear dependence of maximal threshold on  $\beta$ , causes it to detect these small jumps if  $\beta$  is small. These typical small jumps are in fact, larger than the return size due to the diffusion noise given that,  $\beta$  is not very large. Therefore, the fixed threshold the estimation of small volatility is heavily affected by the presence a large number of outliers emanating from the small jumps which is the reason for the initial decline of relative error in small volatility estimation by fixed threshold when  $\beta$  increases. Plots 1 to 5 display an additional rise of error with  $\beta$  for higher  $\beta$ , occurring due to the increase of false positive in jump detection by the fixed thresholds. As maximal threshold grows linearly with  $\beta$ , the misclassification of large returns coming from diffusion noise as jumps does not occur.

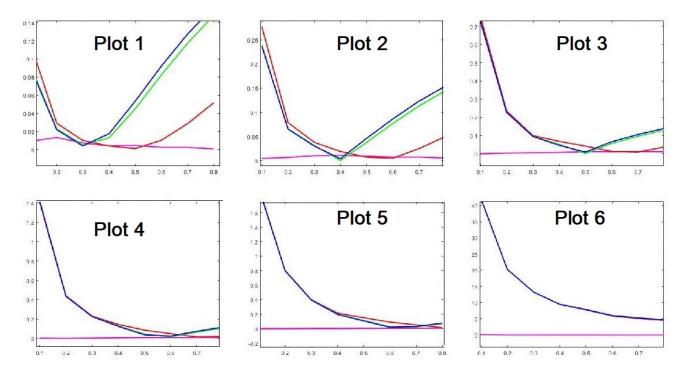


Figure 3.3: Relative error vs true value in volatility estimation for  $\delta = 0.0055$ , 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, and 0.5 respectively. The color legend of all six plots are identical to that of Figure 3.2.

The numerical experiments and explanations presented above justify the use of maximal threshold for jump detection. Therefore, maximal threshold method is used for the removal of jumps from the time series and consequently obtain the continuous part of the time series. The inference of the continuous part of the time series is presented in the subsequent sections.

**Remark 3.5.1.** In [31], a Maximal threshold is obtained by minimizing Mean Square Error(MSE) in contrast to minimizing false positive error. Instead of MSE minimization if we obtain maximal threshold by minimizing false positive error, this later approach gives the threshold value immediately. In addition Minimization of false positive error produces Maximal threshold by straightforward arguments and the estimator of  $\beta$  is obtained simultaneously with the estimator of the threshold.

### 3.6 Inference of Jumps in a Regime Switching Model

The Maximal threshold method discussed in the section 3.3 can be applied to models where volatility is not constant and varies, such as in a regime switching model and the consistency of estimators result from [43] will still hold. However, the motivation of the method of Maximal threshold would be lost as it mainly hinges on estimating a constant volatility parameter (based on the uni-regime Merton jump diffusion model), as the threshold is a function of the constant volatility parameter estimated. The calibrated constant volatility may not be meaningful in a stochastic volatility model such as a regime switching model.

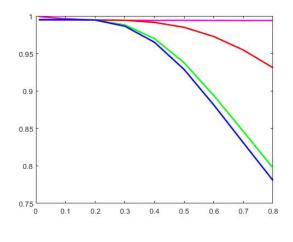
Therefore, in this section only the accuracy of the maximal threshold would be compared with the fixed threshold

method in regime switching conditions. There would be no analysis on relative error of the estimated volatility parameter due to the above mentioned loss of meaning.

Numerical experiments involving accuracy evaluation of jump detection for a given family of simulated data of the regime switching Merton jump diffusion model with three regimes are performed.

For performing simulations, regime switching Merton's jump-diffusion (MJD) model (3.1.1) is considered with various values of  $\beta = \bar{\sigma}$  and all other parameters are fixed to their typical values. The parameters corresponding to the three regimes i=1, 2, 3 are  $\mu(1) = \mu(2) = \mu(3) = 0.07, \sigma(1) = \beta * (1 - \epsilon), \sigma(2) = \beta, \sigma(3) = \beta * (1 + \epsilon)$ , where  $\epsilon = 0.8$ , instantaneous transition rates,  $\lambda_1 = 3000, \lambda_2 = 1000, \lambda = 2500$  and  $\Lambda = 150$  are fixed and F is the cdf of Lognormal $(-\frac{\delta^2}{2}, \delta^2) - 1$ , with  $\delta = 0.0045$ .

Each simulated time series data is of length 11000 and has a granularity  $\Delta = 1/18000$ . For every value of  $\beta$ , the average accuracy of 1000 simulations is illustrated by a plot and displayed in a table below, where, the performance of maximal threshold is compared and contrasted with a few fixed thresholds. The fixed thresholds are chosen from the those suggested in Section 5 of [43].



β	Using Maximal	Using Fixed Threshold		
values	Threshold	$\Delta^{0.9}$	$\Delta^{0.99}$	$\Delta^{0.999}$
0.01	0.9992	0.9946	0.9950	0.9951
0.1	0.9963	0.9946	0.9950	0.9951
0.2	0.9946	0.9946	0.9946	0.9945
0.3	0.9941	0.9942	0.9879	0.9864
0.4	0.9940	0.9914	0.9698	0.9649
0.5	0.9941	0.9848	0.9376	0.9286
0.6	0.9940	0.9725	0.8939	0.8813
0.7	0.9939	0.9545	0.8460	0.8307
0.8	0.9940	0.9309	0.7973	0.7805

Figure 3.4: Jump-detection Accuracy in a regime switching model using Maximal threshold (MT) and Fixed threshold (FT) with values  $\Delta^{0.9}$ ,  $\Delta^{0.99}$  and  $\Delta^{0.999}$ .

Table 3.2: Mean accuracy of jump-detection using 1000 simulations of regime switching MJD model for different  $\beta$  and threshold values.

It can be observed from Figure 3.4(where X axis represents the  $\beta$  values and the Y axis represents the accuracy) and Table 3.2 that the accuracy measure reduces in the case of higher volatility when fixed threshold method for detecting jumps. In contrast we do not observe such a reduction in the case of Maximal threshold method. The maximal threshold method also has a higher accuracy than the fixed threshold methods for all volatility values considered.

### Chapter 4

# Squeeze-Expansion Based Inference of Regimes

#### 4.1 Historical Volatility: Squeeze and Expansion Duration

From the knowledge of  $\hat{\beta}$  obtained from the previous section, we have the threshold value  $\hat{c} = \gamma \hat{\beta}$ , for identifying the jump discontinuities.  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\hat{c}$  denote  $\hat{\beta}_{max}$  and  $\hat{c}_{max}$  which implies that  $\hat{c}$  is the maximal threshold value for identifying jump discontinuities.

For each  $i = 1, \ldots, N$ .

Define,

**Definition 4.1.1.** 
$$\hat{r}(i) := \begin{cases} r(i) \text{ if } |r(i) - \overline{r}| \leq \hat{c} \\ \overline{r} \text{ else.} \end{cases}$$

Hence  $r(j) = \hat{r}(j) + (r(j) - \bar{r})\mathbb{1}_{[\hat{c},\infty)}(|r(j) - \bar{r}|)$ . Thus,  $\hat{r} = \{\hat{r}(i)|i = 1, N\}$  represents the simple return of the continuous part of the time series after removing the jump discontinuities. We use  $\hat{r}$  to derive the historical volatility time series below.

**Definition 4.1.2.**  $(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma})$ . For a fixed window size n, the moving average  $\{m(k)\}_{k=n}^N$  and the sample standard deviation  $\{\sigma(k)\}_{k=n}^N$  are given by

$$\begin{split} m(k) &:= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \hat{r}(k-i), \\ \sigma(k) &:= \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=-0}^{n-1} (\hat{r}(k-i))^2 - \frac{n}{n-1} m(k)^2}, \end{split}$$

for  $k \ge n$ . The empirical volatility  $\hat{\sigma} = \{\hat{\sigma}(k)\}_{k=n}^{N}$  is given by  $\hat{\sigma}(k) := \frac{\sigma(k)}{\sqrt{\Delta}}$ . The empirical drift  $\hat{\mu} = \{\hat{\mu}(k)\}_{k=n}^{N}$  is

given by  $\hat{\mu}(k) := \frac{m(k)}{\Delta}$ .

**Definition 4.1.3.** Let  $y = \{y_k\}_{k=1}^m$  be a collection of random samples of a real valued random distribution. Then the empirical cumulative distribution function or ecdf  $\hat{F}_y$  is defined as:  $\hat{F}_y(x) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m \mathbb{1}_{[0,\infty)}(x-y_k)$  where given a subset  $A, \mathbb{1}_A$  denotes the indicator function of A.

**Definition 4.1.4.** (*p*-percentile). Let  $\hat{F}_y(p)$  be the ecdf of  $y = \{y_k\}_{k=1}^m$ . Then for any  $p \in (0,1)$ , the *p*-percentile of y, denoted by  $\hat{F}_y^{\leftarrow}(p)$ , is defined as

$$\hat{F}_y^{\leftarrow}(p) := \inf\{x | \hat{F}_y(x) \ge p\}.$$

**Lemma 4.1.1.** Given a time series  $y = \{y_k\}_{k=1}^m$  and  $p \in (0, 1)$ ,

- $(i) \ -\hat{F}_{-y}^{\leftarrow} = \hat{F}_y^{\leftarrow}(1-p+),$
- (ii) and if  $p \in (0,1) \setminus \hat{F}_y(\mathbb{R})$ , then  $-\hat{F}_{-y}(p) = \hat{F}_y^{\leftarrow}(1-p)$ ,

*Proof.* Let  $x = -\hat{F}_{-y}^{\leftarrow}(p)$  say or  $-x = \hat{F}_{-y}^{\leftarrow}(p)$ . Hence using using definition of  $\hat{F}$ ,

$$\hat{F}_{-y} \, \left( -x - \varepsilon \right) 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{or, } \frac{card\{k|-y(k) \leq -x - \varepsilon\}}{N} 0 \\ & \text{or, } \frac{card\{k|y(k) \geq x + \varepsilon\}}{N} 0 \\ & \text{or, } 1 - \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x + \varepsilon\}}{N} < p \leq 1 - \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x\}}{N} \forall \varepsilon > 0 \\ & \text{or, } \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x + \varepsilon\}}{N} > 1 - p \geq \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x\}}{N} \forall \varepsilon > 0 \\ & \text{or, } \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x\}}{N} \leq 1 - p < \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x + \varepsilon}{N} \forall \varepsilon > 0 \\ & \text{or, } \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x\}}{N} \leq 1 - p < \frac{card\{k|y(k) < x + \varepsilon\}}{N} \forall \varepsilon > 0 \\ & \text{or, } \frac{card\{k|y(k) \leq x - \varepsilon\}}{N} \leq 1 - p < \frac{card\{k|y(k) \leq x + \varepsilon\}}{N} \forall \varepsilon > 0 \\ & \text{or, } \hat{F}_y(x - \varepsilon) \leq 1 - p < \hat{F}_y(x + \varepsilon) \forall \varepsilon > 0 \\ & \text{or, } \hat{F}_y(x - \varepsilon) \leq 1 - p < \hat{F}_y(x) \end{aligned}$$

since  $\hat{F}_y$  is a right continuous step function. Hence,  $x = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \hat{F}_y^{\leftarrow} (1 - p + \varepsilon)$ . Thus (i) is true.

If p is not in the range of  $\hat{F}_y$ , p is strictly less than  $\hat{F}_{-y}(-x)$ . Then,  $\hat{F}_y(x-) < 1-p < \hat{F}_y(x)$ , i.e.,  $x = \hat{F}_y^{\leftarrow}(1-p)$ . From Lemma (4.1.1), the range of  $\hat{F}_y$ , i.e.,  $\hat{F}_y(\mathbb{R})$  is  $\{i/m|i=0,1, m\}$  since  $y = \{y_k\}_{k=1}^m$ . Therefore  $(0,1)\setminus\hat{F}_y(\mathbb{R}) = \bigcup_{i=1}^m (\frac{i-1}{m}, \frac{i}{m})$ . By considering a particular p, the 100p percentile of  $\hat{\sigma}$ 'would be used as the threshold in identifying the squeeze of the Bollinger band of return series. The definition of squeeze is presented below. **Definition 4.1.5.** (*p*-squeeze). Given a  $p \in (0,1)$ , an asset is said to be in *p*-squeeze at *k*-th time step if the empirical volatility  $\hat{\sigma}(k)$ , as defined above, is not more than  $\hat{F}^{\leftarrow}_{\hat{\sigma}}(p)$ .

The definition of sojourn times of the *p*-squeeze is given below:

**Definition 4.1.6.** By following the convention of  $\min \emptyset = +\infty$ , for a fixed  $p \in (0,1)$  and a given time series  $\{\hat{\sigma}\}_{k=n}^{N}$ , let  $\{(a_i, b_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be an extended real valued double sequence given by

 $\begin{cases} a_0 = n\\ b_{i-1} := \min\{k \ge a_{i-1} | \hat{\sigma}(k) > \hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(p)\\ a_i := \min\{k \ge b_{i-1} | \hat{\sigma}(k) \le \hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(p), \end{cases}$ 

for i = 1, 2, ... Then the collection of sojourn time durations for the p-squeezes is  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p) := \{d_i\}_{i=1}^L$ , where  $d_i := b_i - a_i$  and  $L := \max\{i | b_i < \infty\}$ , provided  $L \ge 1$ .  $d_i$  is the *i*-th entry of  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p)$  and L is the length of  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p)$ .

 $d_i$  should be multiplied by  $\Delta$  to obtain the squeeze duration in year unit. An application of Lemma (4.1.1) implies that  $d(-\hat{\sigma};p)$  is the collection of sojourn time duration for *p*-expansions, i.e., the duration when  $\hat{\sigma}(k) \geq \hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(1-p)$ , provided *p* is not in the range of  $\hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}$ . To observe this one must note that if  $d(-\hat{\sigma};p) = \{d_i\}_{i=1}^L$ , then  $d_i = b_i - a_i$ , where  $a_i = \min\{k \geq b_{i-1} | -\hat{\sigma}(k) \leq \hat{F}_{-\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(p)\}$  which is same as  $\min\{k \geq b_{i-1} | \hat{\sigma}(k) \geq \hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(1-p)\}$  and  $b_{i-1} = \min\{k \geq a_{i-1} | -\hat{\sigma}(k) > \hat{F}_{-\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(p)\} = \min\{k \geq a_{i-1} | \hat{\sigma}(k) < \hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(1-p)\}$  for  $i \geq 1$  and  $a_0 = n$ .  $d(\pm\hat{\sigma};p)$  is used to denote either  $d(\hat{\sigma};p)$  or  $d(-\hat{\sigma};p)$ .

**Remark 4.1.1.** (i) From the construction of  $d(\pm \hat{\sigma}; p)$  it can clearly be seen that  $d(+\hat{\sigma}; p)$  captures the duration of visiting low volatility,  $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$  captures that of visiting high volatility when p is smaller than half. When combined together, they would be able to capture the three regime scenario, namely, low, medium and high volatility switching dynamics if p is considerably smaller than half. After removing the jump term from model 3.1.1, one obtains a geometric Brownian motion which is also known as the BlackScholes-Merton model. To test the model hypothesis of a three regime switching Model, both  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p)$  and  $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$  would be considered together.

### 4.2 A Discriminating Statistics

The asset price data of long time in the past has little use or relevance in modelling the price dynamics in more recent times. This necessitates an upper bar/limit on the length of the time series under consideration for inference purposes. This implies that for a time series data to be used for practical/empirical purposes, the length of  $d(\pm \hat{\sigma}; p)$ is considerably small. Let,  $d = d(\pm \hat{\sigma}; p)$  and L = length of d. Hence, a non parametric estimation of the entries of d by the use of empirical cdf is not practicable as it would lead to a high standard error. Therefore, only a collection of few descriptive statistics like mean  $(\overline{d})$ , standard deviation(s), skewness( $\nu$ ), kurtosis( $\kappa$ ) of d should be considered as they can be estimated reliably. Theoretically d is a random sequence with random length, the corresponding descriptive statistics constitute a random vector of fixed length. The sampling distribution of this vector is compared with the vector ( $\overline{d}, s, \nu, \kappa$ ) of the time series data to test the model hypothesis. For this purpose a discriminating statistics  $\mathbf{T} = (\mathbf{T}_1, \mathbf{T}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_r)$  is constructed using the first r number of descriptive statistics of d as follows:

$$T_{1} := \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} d_{i},$$

$$T_{2} := \sqrt{\frac{1}{L-1} \sum_{i=1}^{L} (d_{i} - T_{1})^{2}},$$

$$T_{3} := \frac{\frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} (d_{i} - T_{1})^{3}}{T_{2}^{3}},$$

$$T_{4} := \frac{\frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} (d_{i} - T_{1})^{4}}{T_{2}^{4}},$$

and so on for the other numbers up to r.

The test statistics constitute durations which are in turn are correlated to the sojourn times of regime transitions, but it is not directly observable that, these statistics would capture the unobserved switching efficiently because of the randomness present in the Brownian motion. The effect of this randomness can be mitigated by considering a longer moving window size (n) for defining  $\hat{\sigma}$  in definition (4.1.2). Unfortunately, a larger window size ignores a larger number of intermittent transitions often, which enhances the inaccuracy. Therefore n = 20 is fixed from hereon in the definition, which is the popular choice by practitioners for computing the empirical volatility.

Note:  $T^+$  pertains to squeeze durations while  $T^-$  pertains to expansion durations and T is a generalised definition pertaining to both  $T^+$  and  $T^-$ .

#### 4.2.1 Rejection criteria based on the statistics

In this subsection the numerical computation of sampling distribution of T statistics is detailed under each model of the composite null hypothesis using Monte-Carlo simulation method, which is popularly known as typical surrogate approach following [47](see [48] for *composite hypothesis*). The rejection criterion is as follows:

- (a) A non-empty subclass  $\mathcal{A}$  of  $\Theta$ , the class of models obeying the null hypothesis is fixed.
- (b) For each  $\theta \in \mathcal{A}, B$  number of time series  $\{X^1, X^2, \dots, X^B\}$  are sampled from the corresponding model  $\theta$  with the same time step size present in S.
- (c) Based on whether the discriminating statistics depend or pertain to squeeze or expansion,  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p)$  or  $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$  is considered respectively for defining T  $(T^+ \text{ or } T^-)$ . For the class  $\mathcal{A}$ , then d is considered for defining T. Let  $t^* := T(S)$  be the value of T of the observed data S and  $t^* = (t_1^*, t_2^*, \ldots, t_r^*)$ . Let  $t^i = (t_1^i, t_2^i, \ldots, t_r^i) := T(X^i)$  for each  $i = 1, \ldots, B$ . Then  $t_{\theta}$  denotes  $\{t^1, t^2, \ldots, t^B\}$ , the set of values of T for  $\{X^1, X^2, \ldots, X^B\}$  corresponding to each  $\theta \in \mathcal{A}$ .

(d) In order to measure the proximity of t<sup>\*</sup> with respect to the set  $t_{\theta}$ , we define  $g_B : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1/2]$  given by  $g_B(x) := \max(\frac{\min(x, (B-x))}{B}, 0)$  and a proximity measure,

$$\alpha_r^{\theta} := \min_{j \le r} g_B(\sum_{i=1}^B \mathbf{1}_{[0,\infty)}(t_j^* - t_j^i)).$$

- (e) The measure of proximity of the data to a class  $\mathcal{A}$  is defined as,  $\alpha_r = \max_{\theta \in \mathcal{A}} \alpha_r^{\theta}$ .
- (f) The hypothesis that S is a sample from a model in the class  $\mathcal{A}$  can be rejected provided  $\alpha_r$  is smaller than a predetermined value.
- (g) The discriminating statistics are calculated pertaining to both squeeze and expansion durations as we do not know which of them is better sensitive to the data.
- (h) Let r be the maximum of all i for which  $\alpha_i$  is obtained.  $\alpha_r^+$  (pertaining to squeeze i.e  $T^+$ ) and  $\alpha_r^-$  (pertaining to expansion i.e.  $T^-$ ) are calculated and the final proximity measure is obtained as follows:  $\alpha_r = \max(\alpha_r^+, \alpha_r^-)$

The set of parameters for the optimal or best fit model i.e. having the highest proximity measure is obtained as follows:

 $\theta^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta}(\alpha_r^+, \alpha_r^-).$ 

The set of parameters  $\theta^*$  is the model that has the highest proximity measure/ the maximized/optimal/best fit model and would be used further for simulations.

Note: We consider our discriminating statistic as  $\alpha_r = \max(\alpha_r^+, \alpha_r^-)$ , since, we do not know whether  $T^+$  or  $T^-$  is more sensitive.

**Remark 4.2.1.** It is to be noted that the above mentioned rejection has an empirical confidence level  $100(1-\alpha_r)$  when r = 1, i.e., the statistics is of a single dimension. On the other hand this expression is completely different from confidence level when the dimensions of statistics is large. This phenomenon is called the "curse of dimensionality". For a given model, the probability of observing the value of r to be smaller than a predetermined small value is not so small when r is considerably large.

#### 4.3 Discretization of Continuous Time Models

For testing of model hypothesis we a discrete time version of the continuous time theoretical asset price model given by,

$$dS_t = \mu(X_{t-})S_{t-}dt + \sigma(X_{t-})S_{t-}dW_t + S_{t-}dM_t,$$
(4.3.1)

for t > 0 with  $S_0 > 0$ , where  $\{X_t\}_{t>0}$  is a three state non explosive three state pure jump process.

**Definition 4.3.1.** In this work,  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is defined as a continuous three-state continuous Markov chain, with states defined as 1, 2 and 3 respectively. This process does not permit the transition directly from state 1 to state 3 or vice versa without transitioning through state 2.

Firstly, the Merton's Jump Diffusion (MJD) model which is uni-regime is considered. Two different composite model hypotheses, namely, (i)uni-regime MJD, (ii) Markov switching Ternary regime MJD, are considered in this work. The core objective of testing each such composite model hypothesis, is the simulation of the discrete version of continuous-time models selected from an appropriately chosen range of models satisfying the model assumption. An approximate procedure of identifying an appropriate class of reduced dimensions for a given data corresponding to each composite hypothesis is detailed in the following section.

As the test statistics T is computed after removing the jump discontinuities, it depends on only the continuous part of the data. Therefore for the purpose of inference, it is sufficient to simulate only the continuous part of the models. It is enough to simulate the following SDE (Stochastic Differential Equation) rather than the continuous version for comparing the sampling distribution of T

$$dS_t = S_t(\mu(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t)dW_t), \qquad (4.3.2)$$

where,  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is a continuous three-state Markov process as in definition 4.3.1 and  $\mu(X_t)$ ,  $\sigma(X_t)$  are the drift and the volatility coefficients. Let  $\{0 = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_N\}$  be an equispaced partition of the time interval where  $t_{i+1} - t_i = \Delta$  for  $i = 0, 1, \ldots, N - 1$  and  $\Delta$  is the length of time step in year unit and same as the granularity of the empirical data. We use this convention throughout this paper.

#### 4.3.1 Uni-regime

In this subsection we consider the model hypothesis (3.1.1) for some arbitrary model parameters  $\mu, \beta, \Lambda$  and F. After removing the jump term, the model reduces to

$$dS_t = S_t(\mu dt + \beta dW_t)t > 0, \ S_0 > 0.$$
(4.3.3)

Equation 4.3.3 has a strong solution of the form

$$S_t = S_0 \exp(\mu t - \frac{1}{2}\beta^2 t + \beta W_t) \ t \ge 0.$$
(4.3.4)

The discretized version of 4.3.4 is given by,

$$S_{t_0} = S_0, \ S_{t_{i+1}} = S_{t_i} \exp((\bar{\mu} - \frac{1}{2}\bar{\sigma}^2)\Delta + \bar{\sigma}Z_i) \text{ for, } i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$
(4.3.5)

where  $\{Z_i | i = 0, N-1\}$  are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) normal random variables with mean 0 and variance  $\Delta$ .

#### 4.3.2 Ternary Markov regime

Omission of the jump term from (4.3.1) reduces the model to (4.3.2) where X denotes a Markov chain as defined in 4.3.1.

As the continuous time Markov chain is characterized by its instantaneous transition rate matrix  $\lambda$ , the class of all possible models in (4.3.2) are identified with the set  $\Theta$  of all possible parameters as given below,

$$\Theta = \{\theta = (\mu(1), \lambda_1, \lambda_{12}, \lambda_{13}, \sigma(1), \mu(2), \lambda_2, \lambda_{21}, \lambda_{23}, \sigma(2), \mu(3), \lambda_3, \lambda_{31}, \lambda_{32}) | \mu(i) > 0, \lambda_i > 0, i = 1, 2, 3\},$$
(4.3.6)

Using the expression of strong solution, the discrete version of models corresponding to each member of  $\Theta$  can be written. However, we write down the discretization only for a smaller class of models which are relevant for the empirical study in the subsequent section. The scheme for X given below is the discretization of a Markov chain and the details can be found in theorem 5.3.1 in the next chapter.

$$S_{t_{i+1}} = S_{t_i} \exp((\mu(X_i) - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(X_i))\Delta + \sigma(X_i)Z_i), \qquad (4.3.7)$$

$$X_{i+1} = X_i + ((2 - X_i) + (-\delta_{2,X_i})^{\eta_i})P_i$$
(4.3.8)

where,  $P_i$  and  $\eta_i$  are sequences of Bernoulli random variables,  $\delta_{x,y}$  is the Kronecker delta function and  $0^0$  is taken as 0. Furthermore,  $\eta_i$  are iid and are independent of the past or present states of the Markov chain  $X_i$ . We also assume the following properties of  $\{P_i\}$ . The sequence  $\{P_i|i = 1, \ldots, N-1\}$  are independent to  $Z_j$  for all j. For each given  $X_i$ , the conditional distribution of  $P_i$  is independent of  $\{P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_{i-1}\}$  and  $\eta_i$ . For each i,  $P_i$  follows *Bernoulli* ( $\lambda_{X_i}\Delta$ ), a Bernoulli random variable with Prob ( $P_i = 1|X_i$ ) =  $\lambda_{X_i}\Delta$ , provided  $\Delta \ll \min\{1/\lambda_i|i = 1, 2, 3\}$ . Here for each i,  $Z_i$  where  $\{Z_i|i = 0, \ldots, N-1\}$  are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) normal random variables with mean 0 and variance  $\Delta$ .

## Chapter 5

# **Empirical Study**

#### 5.1 Analysis of Market Data

The time series data of eighteen different Indian stock indices with 5-minute granularity during the time period starting from 1-st December, 2016 to 30-th June, 2017 are considered. We assume six hours of trading in each day and two hundred and fifty trading days in a year and set  $\Delta = \frac{5}{250 \times 360} \approx 5.5 \times 10^{-5}$ . For obtaining the jump discontinuities separately, we consider  $\hat{p} = 1\%$  ( by 3.4.1  $\hat{p} = \min(1, \alpha \Delta^{\ln(1/\Delta)})$  and we choose  $\alpha = 4.93 \times 10^{39}$ ). Then (3.3.3) is solved numerically as it is described in remark 3.3.1.

The numerical approximations of  $\hat{\beta}$ ,  $\hat{\Lambda}$  and V for each index data are given in Table 5.1. Each row of Table 5.1 corresponds to an index, whose name is given in the second column with the code in the first column. By making use of the  $\hat{\beta}$  value, the  $\hat{c}$  value is obtained for each index using (4.1.2). Next, by using the value of  $\hat{c}$ ,  $\hat{\mu}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$  are computed based on the definition 4.1.2. In the last two columns of Table 5.1 the empirical long run average drift  $\overline{\hat{\mu}}$  and the empirical long run average volatility  $\overline{\hat{\sigma}}$  are displayed for each index.

	Index	Â	$\hat{\Lambda}$	V	$ar{\hat{\mu}}$	$\bar{\hat{\sigma}}$
Code	Name	(in %)		$(in \ 10^{-5})$	(in %)	(in %)
I01	NIFTY 100	7.41	132.14	2	6.5	6.90
I02	NIFTY 200	7.54	127.36	2	8.7	7.00
I03	NIFTY 50	7.34	132.19	2	7.7	6.88
I04	NIFTY 500	7.62	143.43	2	10.5	6.70
I05	NIFTY BANK	10.39	128.90	5	24.8	9.75
I06	NIFTY COMMODITY	10.22	116.08	3	-4.8	9.47
I07	NIFTY ENERGY	10.93	148.24	4	-13.1	10.22
I08	NIFTY FIN. SER.	9.78	132.20	5	23.3	9.14
I09	NIFTY FMCG	11.89	167.58	5	17.7	11.04
I10	NIFTY INFRA	10.76	103.18	3	12.1	10.02
I11	NIFTY IT	11.26	157.88	4	5.5	10.33
I12	NIFTY MEDIA	14.64	120.90	6	13.9	13.64
I13	NIFTY METAL	16.24	99.95	6	-20.8	15.12
I14	NIFTY MNC	9.36	77.34	3	20.3	8.68
I15	NIFTY PHARMA	12.02	154.69	5	-26.2	11.07
I16	NIFTY PSE	10.25	148.32	3	-9.9	9.47
I17	NIFTY SERVICE SEC.	8.36	149.93	3	17.5	7.84

Table 5.1: Estimated parameters of 5-min (1/12/16 - 30/06/17) data of 17 Indian stock indices

We recall that the 'T' test statistics described in section 4.2 are defined using  $d(\pm \hat{\sigma}; p)$ . In this section we fix p = 15% in the definition of the sub class of models C and obtaining  $d(\pm \hat{\sigma}; p)$  and subsequently the T statistics. The t\* values are computed using  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p)$  and  $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$  separately. The components of t\* for every index data are given in Table 5.2.

	, L	Squeeze	duration			Expansion duration $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$						
Index	L	$t_1^*$	$t_2^*$	$t_3^*$	$t_4^*$	L	$t_1^*$	$t_2^*$	$t_3^*$	$t_4^*$		
I01	157	10.66	11.31	1.16	3.36	142	11.78	10.66	1.06	3.79		
I02	169	9.89	11.12	1.34	3.92	142	11.76	10.48	0.94	3.32		
I03	158	10.58	10.89	1.08	3.24	149	11.22	10.49	1.08	3.80		
I04	157	10.65	11.24	1.21	3.60	142	11.76	10.29	0.90	3.37		
105	158	10.59	11.69	1.37	3.98	128	13.07	9.97	0.54	3.14		
I06	168	9.95	10.55	1.47	4.57	136	12.29	10.03	0.83	3.59		
107	165	10.14	11.29	1.56	4.75	141	11.86	9.21	0.60	3.24		
108	172	9.72	10.85	1.54	4.61	124	13.48	10.40	0.82	3.72		
I09	179	9.35	10.18	1.57	4.95	137	12.20	10.27	0.77	3.27		
I10	176	9.50	11.69	1.73	5.43	128	13.06	11.71	1.27	5.09		
I11	159	10.52	11.37	1.18	3.31	129	13.06	10.11	1.32	6.76		
I12	174	9.61	9.50	1.21	3.86	120	12.97	10.79	0.60	2.82		
I13	187	8.94	10.58	1.90	6.42	121	13.68	9.51	0.36	2.35		
I14	178	9.40	10.64	1.53	4.62	127	13.12	9.99	0.60	3.26		
I15	174	9.61	11.21	1.54	4.51	125	13.39	11.91	1.67	8.29		
I16	148	11.30	12.66	1.28	3.75	140	11.94	10.69	0.98	3.54		
I17	172	9.72	11.09	1.33	3.79	125	13.38	10.05	0.59	3.21		

Table 5.2:  $\mathbf{t}^*$  of the empirical data

**Remark 5.1.1.** As the hypothesis, we consider, is composite in nature(see [48] for composite hypothesis). That is to say the value of any parameter is not deemed to be fixed in the null hypothesis, which in turn leads to the consideration of models with parameters from a high dimensional space. Therefore, to reduce dimensions, we add some other natural criteria on parameters. These natural criteria desirably put direct and easily calculable constraints on the parameter set of the models under consideration.

#### 5.2 Uni-regime Model

In this subsection we consider the model hypothesis 3.1.1 of uni-regime Merton Jump Diffusion(MJD) model

**Definition 5.2.1.** For simulation purposes we consider the sub-class of uni-regime MJD models with a unique choice of  $\mu$  and  $\beta$  such that  $\mu = \overline{\hat{\mu}}$  and  $\beta = \overline{\hat{\sigma}}$ , as used in definition 4.1.2 where the bar sign represents the time average.

For each index in Table 5.1 and 5.2, we set our null hypothesis,

 $H_0$ : the time series is in class of uni-regime MJD models in subclass defined in 5.2.1

The following figures illustrate the results for all 17 indices. Figure 5.1 displays the sampling distribution of  $T_1$  of  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p)$  and 5.2 illustrates that of  $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$ . Each box plot is obtained by simulating (4.3.5), 100 times. The

inverted triangle plots represent  $t_1^*$  obtained from the Table 5.2. As the dots appear to be non-overlapping with the box plots, the null hypothesis is rejected with 100% confidence.

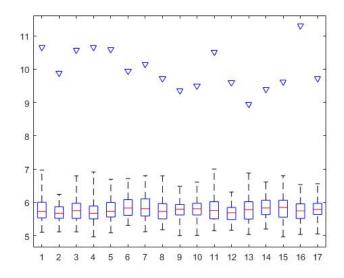


Figure 5.1: Sampling distribution of T1 of  $d(\hat{\sigma}; p)$  under uni-regime MJD hypothesis

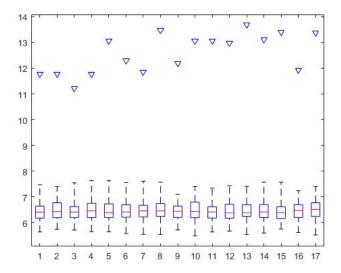


Figure 5.2: Sampling distribution of T1 of  $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$  under uni-regime MJD hypothesis

#### 5.3 Ternary regime Markov Model

This subsection details the sub class C of Ternary Regime Markov switching Merton Jump Diffusion (TRMJD) models defined in (4.3.2), which we consider for inference purposes. The subclass C is considered for reduction of dimensions and ease of computation. The same sub class models are considered for hypothesis testing.

In the following models in subclass C, regime 1 is the low volatility regime, regime two is the medium volatility regime and regime 3 the high volatility regime. The continuous Markov chain X can be completely defined by its instantaneous transition rate matrix:

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{11} & \lambda_{12} & \lambda_{13} \\ \lambda_{21} & \lambda_{22} & \lambda_{23} \\ \lambda_{31} & \lambda_{32} & \lambda_{33} \end{bmatrix} . \lambda_{ii} = -\sum_{j \neq i} \lambda_{ij}, \quad \text{where, } \lambda_i = -\lambda_{ii}, \text{for} i = 1, 2, 3.$$
(5.3.1)

The general class of models can be identified with the set of parameters  $\Theta$ . Where,

 $\Theta = \{\theta = (\mu(1), \lambda_1, \lambda_{12}, \lambda_{13}, \sigma(1), \mu(2), \lambda_2, \lambda_{21}, \lambda_{23}, \sigma(2), \mu(3), \lambda_3, \lambda_{31}, \lambda_{32}) | \mu(i) > 0, \lambda_i > 0, i = 1, 2, 3 \}.$  (5.3.2)

As it is evident from (5.3.2) the general class of models are very high dimensional. For reducing the dimensionality and for computational feasibility, we consider a smaller subset of the general class of the models for inference purpose.

The sub class C of Ternary regime Markov/TRMJD Models is defined as follows:

The models with the below instantaneous transition rate matrix for the Markov Chain are considered:

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_{12} = -\lambda_{11} = a\lambda, \quad \lambda_3 = \lambda_{32} = -\lambda_{33} = \frac{\lambda}{a}, \quad \lambda_{21} = \frac{ap\lambda}{(1-2p)}, \\ \lambda_2 = \frac{(a^2+1)p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}, \\ \lambda_{23} = \frac{p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}, \\ \lambda_{13} = \lambda_{31} = 0$$
(5.3.3)

We consider,  $p < \frac{1}{2}$ . The instantaneous transition rate matrix is as follows,

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} -a\lambda & a\lambda & 0\\ \frac{ap\lambda}{(1-2p)} & -\frac{(a^2+1)p\lambda}{a(1-2p)} & \frac{p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}\\ 0 & \frac{\lambda}{a} & -\frac{\lambda}{a} \end{bmatrix}.$$
(5.3.4)

Additional features of the models we consider are as given below:

$$p(\mu(1) + \mu(3)) + (1 - 2p)(\mu((2)) = \overline{\hat{\mu}}$$
(5.3.5)

$$p(\sigma(1) + \sigma(3)) + (1 - 2p)(\sigma(2)) = \overline{\hat{\sigma}}$$
(5.3.6)

$$\overline{\hat{\sigma}} \begin{bmatrix} 1-\epsilon\\1+\epsilon \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1\\\sigma_3 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where, } \epsilon \in [0,1]$$
(5.3.7)

$$\overline{\hat{\mu}} = \mu(2) \tag{5.3.8}$$

$$\overline{\hat{\sigma}} = \sigma(2) \tag{5.3.9}$$

$$\mu(1) = \mu(3) \tag{5.3.10}$$

The features of the smaller class of models C we consider result in the below theoretical implications. This way we justify our choice of a particular subset of the models from the general class of models.

The sojourn or waiting time distribution of state i, where i=1, 2, 3 is  $exp(\lambda_i)$ . 'a' is the square root of the empirical ratio of mean holding times of the high volatility regime to the low volatility regime. As the volatility process as defined in equation (4.3.2) is a continuous process, there is no possibility of the volatility of an asset to go from regime 1 to regime 3 or vice versa directly without passing through regime 2 in a model without a jump component. Therefore,

$$\lambda_{13} = \lambda_{31} = 0. \tag{5.3.11}$$

From (5.3.3) we have,

$$\frac{\lambda_{21}}{\lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_{23}}{\lambda_3} \text{ or, } \frac{\lambda_{21}}{\lambda_{23}} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_3} = a^2 \text{ (say).}$$
(5.3.12)

The sojourn or waiting time distribution of state *i*, where i = 1, 2, 3 is  $exp(\lambda_i)$ . Hence the mean holding time at state *i* is  $1/\lambda_i$ . The time spent by the chain at state *i* on an average is called occupation measure of *i*, and is given by

$$O_i = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \mathbf{1}_{\{i\}}(X_{t'}) dt'$$

For an ergodic chain these do not depend on the initial state. Assume  $X_{T_1-} = 2$ , where  $\{T_n\}_n$  is the increasing sequence of successive transition times. Then (5.3.11) implies that  $X_{T_2} = 2$ . Therefore using the regeneration,

$$O_2 = \frac{E[T_1 \mid X_{T_1-} = 2]}{E[T_2 \mid X_{T_1-} = 2]} = \frac{E[T_1 \mid X_{T_1-} = 2]}{E[T_1 + (T_2 - T_1) \mid X_{T_1-} = 2]} = \frac{E[T_1 \mid X_{T_1-} = 2]}{E[T_1 \mid X_{T_1-} = 2] + E[T_2 - T_1 \mid X_{T_1-} = 2]}$$

and for  $i \neq 2$ ,

$$O_{i} = \frac{E[(T_{2} - T_{1})1_{\{i\}}(X_{T_{1}}) \mid X_{T_{1}-} = 2]}{E[T_{2} \mid X_{T_{1}-} = 2]} = \frac{E[(T_{2} - T_{1})1_{\{i\}}(X_{T_{1}}) \mid X_{T_{1}-} = 2]}{E[T_{1} \mid X_{T_{1}-} = 2] + E[T_{2} - T_{1} \mid X_{T_{1}-} = 2]}.$$

Moreover,  $a_i := E[(T_2 - T_1)1_{\{i\}}(X_{T_1}) \mid X_{T_1 -} = 2] = \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \frac{\lambda_{2i}}{\lambda_2}$  for  $i \in \{1, 3\}$ ; and  $a_2 := E[T_1 \mid X_{T_1 -} = 2] = 1/\lambda_2$ .

Clearly,  $E[(T_2 - T_1) \mid X_{T_1 -} = 2] = a_1 + a_3$ . Thus we get  $O_i = \frac{a_i}{\sum_{i'=1}^3 a_{i'}}$  for each i = 1, 2, 3.

$$\frac{a_1}{\sum_{i=1}^3 a_i} = p = \frac{a_3}{\sum_{i=1}^3 a_i}$$
(5.3.13)

(5.3.5), (5.3.6) and (5.3.13) imply that,

- 1. The long run average of drift coefficient of the continuous part matches with the time average of empirical drift  $\hat{\mu}$  of the data.
- 2. The long run average of volatility process for the model matches with the time average of empirical volatility  $\hat{\sigma}$  of the data.
- 3. The long run proportion of time that the volatility process stays below  $\hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(p)$  is p,
- 4. The long run proportion of time that the volatility process stays above  $\hat{F}_{\hat{\sigma}}^{\leftarrow}(1-p)$  is p.
- 5. The ratio of the mean holding times in high and low volatility states in the model is equal to the corresponding empirical ratio

Provided the volatility process is not constant.

Using the expression of strong solution, the discrete version of models corresponding to each member of C is given by equations (4.3.8) and (4.3.7), where,

$$\eta_i = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{a^2 + 1} \\ 1, & \text{with probability } \frac{a^2}{a^2 + 1}. \end{cases}$$

We show that the discretization of a 3 state Markov chain provided above in equation (4.3.8) is indeed a discretization of a continuous three regime Markov process by the following theorem.

**Theorem 5.3.1.** Consider (4.3.8) with  $\eta_i \sim Bernoulli(\frac{a^2}{a^2+1})$  and  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$  are  $a\lambda$ ,  $\frac{(a^2+1)p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}$  and  $\frac{\lambda}{a}$  respectively, where  $a > 0, 0 and <math>\lambda > 0$ . This is the discretization of a continuous time Markov chain on  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ , by time step  $\Delta$ , given by the transition rate matrix,

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} -a\lambda & a\lambda & 0\\ \frac{ap\lambda}{(1-2p)} & -\frac{(a^2+1)p\lambda}{a(1-2p)} & \frac{p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}\\ 0 & \frac{\lambda}{a} & -\frac{\lambda}{a} \end{bmatrix}.$$
(5.3.14)

*Proof.* We recall (4.3.8) below

$$X_{i+1} = X_i + ((2 - X_i) + (-\delta_{2,X_i})^{\eta_i})P_i.$$

We can observe that, the right hand side of the above equation depends only on  $X_i$ ,  $P_i$ , and  $\eta_i$ . By definition  $P_i$  depends only on  $X_i$  and also  $\eta_i$  is independent of the Markov chain X. Therefore the equation (4.3.8) generates a Markov Process. Next, we aim to show that (4.3.8) generates a discrete time Markov Process with parameters which converge to those of the continuous Markov chain of the given transition matrix.

The transition probability function of a Markov chain with the transition rate matrix  $\Lambda$ , is given by  $P(\Delta)$  where,

$$P(\Delta) = \exp\left(\Delta\Lambda\right). \tag{5.3.15}$$

By approximating the exponential in the equation (5.3.15) and using Taylor's expansion we obtain,  $P(\Delta) = I + \Lambda \Delta + o(\Delta)$ , where, I is the Identity Matrix of the same dimensions of  $\Lambda$ . The approximated transition probabilities thus obtained is,

$$P(\Delta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - a\lambda\Delta & a\lambda\Delta & 0\\ \frac{ap\lambda}{(1-2p)}\Delta & 1 - \frac{(a^2+1)p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}\Delta & \frac{p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}\Delta\\ 0 & \frac{\lambda}{a}\Delta & 1 - \frac{\lambda}{a}\Delta \end{bmatrix} + o(\Delta).$$

The first term on the right hand side, denoted by  $\tilde{P}(\Delta)$ , is a probability matrix since,  $\Delta < \min\{1/\lambda_i | i = 1, 2, 3\}$ . This implies,  $\lambda_i \Delta < 1$ , therefore, all the terms of  $\tilde{P}(\Delta) > 0$ . Finally, the equality of the transition probabilities of the discretization and the continuous version is shown. Recall that  $\eta_i$  and  $P_i$  are independent. From the equation (4.3.8), we can see that, there is no way that a transition can occur from regime 1 to 3 and vice versa, this is consistent with  $\tilde{P}_{13}(\Delta) = \tilde{P}_{31}(\Delta) = 0$ .

From (4.3.8)  $P(X_{i+1} = 1|X_i = 2) = P(P_i = 1, \eta_i = 1|X_i = 2) = \frac{(a^2+1)p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}\Delta \frac{a^2}{a^2+1} = \frac{ap\lambda}{(1-2p)}\Delta$  which is equal to  $\tilde{P}_{21}(\Delta)$ . Also, from (4.3.8)  $P(X_{i+1} = 3|X_i = 2) = P(P_i = 1, \eta_i = 0|X_i = 2) = \frac{p\lambda}{a(1-2p)}\Delta$ , which is equal to  $\tilde{P}_{23}(\Delta)$ . Next, from (4.3.8)  $P(X_{i+1} = 2|X_i = 1) = P(P_i = 1|X_i = 1) = a\lambda\Delta$ , which is equal to  $\tilde{P}_{12}(\Delta)$ . Finally, from (4.3.8)  $P(X_{i+1} = 2|X_i = 3) = P(P_i = 1|X_i = 3) = \frac{\lambda}{a}\Delta$ , which is equal to  $\tilde{P}_{32}(\Delta)$ . Thus  $\tilde{P}(\Delta)$  is indeed the transition probability matrix of  $\{X_i\}_i$  in (4.3.8).

Finally, as  $\Delta^{-1}(\tilde{P}(\Delta) - I)$  and  $\Delta^{-1}(P(\Delta) - I)$  converge to the same limit, the result follows.

#### 5.3.1 Simulation Results

For simulation purposes, the parameter  $\lambda_1$  is varied by taking  $\frac{1}{\lambda_1 dt} = 1, 2, 3..., 16$  and the parameter  $\epsilon$  is chosen as  $e_i$  from  $e_1, e_2, \dots e_{10}$  for each iteration 'i' where  $e_i$  are equispaced points from the interval [0, 1).

For each index in Table 5.1 and 5.2, we set the null hypothesis,

 $H_0$ : the law of time series is Markov modulated MJD 4.3.1 with parameters of continuous part in subclass C. For each index, we compute the value of  $\alpha_r$  as in the section 4.2 for r = 1, 2, 3, 4 by simulating 4.3.7.

Note: From hereon subclass of models of TRMJD means the subclass C and subclass of models of uni-regime MJD means the subclass as defined in definition 5.2.1.

For each index,  $\alpha_r$  where, r=1, 2, 3, 4 are computed as specified in subsection 4.2.1. The results are presented in Table 5.3.

	Fo	r C usi	ng $d(\hat{\sigma}$	;p)	For $\mathscr{C}$ using $d(-\hat{\sigma}; p)$						
Index	$\alpha_1$	$\alpha_2$	$\alpha_3$	$\alpha_4$	$\alpha_1$	$\alpha_2$	$\alpha_3$	$\alpha_4$			
I01	0.50	0.35	0.04	0.03	0.50	0.39	0.39	0.39			
I02	0.47	0.46	0.09	0.08	0.49	0.37	0.37	0.37			
I03	0.50	0.31	0.02	0.01	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48			
I04	0.49	0.34	0.06	0.04	0.50	0.41	0.41	0.41			
I05	0.49	0.42	0.12	0.09	0.49	0.14	0.13	0.13			
I06	0.50	0.40	0.19	0.15	0.49	0.28	0.28	0.28			
I07	0.49	0.43	0.24	0.16	0.50	0.16	0.16	0.16			
I08	0.48	0.45	0.25	0.18	0.50	0.22	0.22	0.22			
I09	0.47	0.46	0.28	0.25	0.49	0.33	0.29	0.29			
I10	0.49	0.42	0.31	0.26	0.49	0.40	0.28	0.28			
I11	0.47	0.40	0.06	0.03	0.48	0.28	0.15	0.12			
I12	0.50	0.25	0.06	0.06	0.47	0.18	0.18	0.18			
I13	0.46	0.42	0.42	0.34	0.46	0.06	0.03	0.03			
I14	0.48	0.46	0.24	0.16	0.47	0.15	0.15	0.15			
I15	0.49	0.43	0.22	0.15	0.50	0.34	0.18	0.14			
I16	0.49	0.44	0.10	0.08	0.49	0.38	0.38	0.38			
I17	0.50	0.43	0.12	0.05	0.49	0.14	0.14	0.14			

Table 5.3: The  $\alpha$ -values for all the indices under Ternary Markov regime/TRMJD model hypotheses

In Table 5.3.1 we summarize the fitting of TRMJD models. The best model class and the best parameter values are recorded in the last 4 columns. This is done based on proximity measure  $\alpha_4$  values obtained for members of the class C. The largest  $\alpha_4$  are given in the 2nd column of the table. The model which is a member of the class C having the highest  $\alpha_4$  value is considered to be the best fit model based on the squeeze-expansion duration statistics. This best fit model is used for experiments in the next section.

Index	$\alpha_4$ value	Model 1	Fitting	
		$\hat{\sigma}$	$\epsilon$	$\frac{1}{\lambda_1 \Delta}$
I01	0.39	6.9%	0.76	6
I02	0.37	7.0%	0.85	5
I03	0.48	6.9%	0.66	7
I04	0.41	6.7%	0.85	5
I05	0.13	9.7%	0.85	5
I06	0.28	9.5%	0.85	5
I07	0.16	10.2%	0.85	8
I08	0.22	9.1%	0.85	5
I09	0.29	11.0%	0.85	4
I10	0.28	10.0%	0.66	8
I11	0.12	10.3%	0.85	5
I12	0.18	13.6%	0.85	5
I13	0.34	15.1%	0.57	8
I14	0.16	8.6%	0.85	5
I15	0.15	11.1%	0.76	8
I16	0.38	9.5%	0.76	7
I17	0.14	7.8%	0.85	5

Table 5.4: Model fitting using  $\alpha_4$  values from table

## 5.4 Comparison of Empirical CDF of Return Distribution

Let  $F_1$  be the eCDF of the simple return obtained from the simulation of a theoretical model and  $F_2$  be the eCDF of the simple return from the time series data on the domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . We measure the performance of the theoretical fitted model using the  $L^2$  error,  $||F_1 - F_2||_2$ , as given below.

**Definition 5.4.1.** Let  $F_1$  be eCDF of a population and  $F_2$  be the eCDF of a fitted model. The  $L^2$  error of the fitted model is defined as:  $||F_1 - F_2||_2 = \sqrt{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |F_1(x) - F_2(x)|^2 dx}$ . In discrete form,  $||F_1 - F_2||_2 = \sqrt{(\sum_i |F_1(x_i) - F_2(x_i)|^2 |x_{i+1} - x_i|)}$  where  $x_i$ 's are equi-spaced points on  $(\infty, -\infty)$ .

The low  $L^2$  error of a theoretical model indicates a better fitting of the empirical return distribution. The comparison of the  $L^2$  errors of the two models (best fit uni-regime MJD and TRMJD model as specified in chapter 5 are illustrated in the figure 5.3 below.

Note: The  $L^2$  errors are calculated over a single realization of the theoretical models.

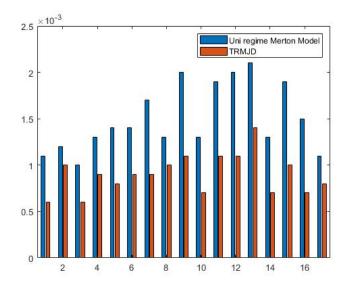


Figure 5.3: Comparison of L2 errors

We can observe that the  $L^2$  error of the Markov switching TRMJD is lower than that of the uni-regime MJD Model. This indicates at a better performance of the Markov switching TRMJD than the uni-regime MJD model.

Note: Best fit uni regime MJD model is simulated using 4.3.5 and best fit TRMJD model is simulated using 4.3.7.

Further we also attempt to show that the difference between eCDF of the return from the simulation of the uniregime MJD model and Markov switching TRMJD model is statistically significant using a 2 Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test.

The 2 sample K-S test is defined as below.

**Definition 5.4.2.** Let  $F_{1,n}$  and  $F_{2,m}$  be the eCDF's of two samples where 'n' and 'm' are the sizes of the 1st and 2nd samples respectively. Assume that the null hypothesis,  $H_0$  is that the two samples come from the same underlying distribution. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for testing this hypothesis is given by,  $D_{n,m} = \sup_x |F_{1,n}(x) - F_{2,m}(x)|$ . For large samples, the null hypothesis is rejected at level  $\alpha$  if,  $D_{n,m} > c(\alpha)\sqrt{\frac{n+m}{n,m}}$ . The value of  $c(\alpha)$  is given in the table 5.5.

$\alpha$	0.20	0.15	0.10	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	0.001
$c(\alpha)$	1.073	1.138	1.224	1.358	1.480	1.628	1.731	1.949

Table 5.5:  $c(\alpha)$  values for two sample K-S test

Index	I01	I02	I03	I04	I05	I06	I07	108	I09	I10	I11	I12	I13	I14	I15	I16	I17
$\frac{D_{n,m}}{\sqrt{\frac{n+m}{n,m}}}$	3.58	3.01	2.10	3.47	3.92	3.80	4.22	4.15	3.55	2.35	4.50	3.67	2.07	4.35	3.29	3.24	3.62
<b>v</b> <i>n.m</i>																	

Table 5.6: K-S Test statistics for return distributions of uni-regime MJD model and Markov switching TRMJD model

The table 5.6 contains the value of  $\left(\frac{D_{n,m}}{\sqrt{\frac{n+m}{n,m}}}\right)$  for return distributions of uni-regime MJD model and Markov switching TRMJD model for each index. In view of this, we conclude that the respective return distributions are significantly different. This conclusion strengthens our case for the better performance of the Markov switching TRMJD model than the uni-regime MJD model.

Note: The K-S test statistics are calculated over a single realization of the theoretical models.

We also perform the K-S test between the returns obtained from the time series data and from theoretical models (uni-regime MJD or Markov switching TRMJD). The objective of this experiment is to determine whether the test statistic obtained for returns coming from time series data and the Markov switching TRMJD model is smaller than the one obtained for returns coming from time series data and uni-regime MJD model. This would demonstrate the success of the proposed Markov switching TRMJD model in replicating the empirical return distribution over the uni-regime MJD model. Given below are the test statistics values obtained from the respective K-S tests.

Index	I01	I02	I03	I04	I05	I06	I07	I08	I09	I10	I11	I12	I13	I14	I15	I16	I17
MJD	3.08	3.59	2.72	4.05	3.07	3.68	3.89	3.50	4.82	3.05	4.28	3.71	4.02	3.62	4.12	3.81	3.23
TRMJD	1.74	2.87	1.77	2.47	2.28	2.31	2.47	2.53	2.52	1.68	2.45	2.44	2.47	2.14	2.56	1.75	2.65

Table 5.7: K-S statistics between empirical and theoretical models

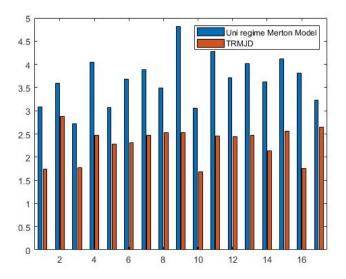


Figure 5.4: K-S test statistics of uni-regime MJD model and TRMJD model over various indices

Note: The K-S test statistics are calculated over a single realization of the theoretical models.

From the table 5.7 and figure 5.4 we can clearly observe that the test statistics of TRMJD is lesser than that of the test statistics of the uni-regime MJD model for all indices. This demonstrates the better performance of the proposed Markov switching TRMJD over the uni-regime MJD model in replicating the eCDF of the return and subsequently the return distribution obtained from the data of various indices.

## Chapter 6

# Conclusion

The proposed technique for jump detection proves to be a considerable success due to the high accuracy obtained across a wide range of parameter values. The regime switching model obtained using the proposed discriminating statistics demonstrates its superior performance to that of the standard uni-regime model by providing a better replication of the empirical Cumulative Distribution Function (eCDF) of the return time series data. These observations validate the efficiency of proposed regime switching model for financial asset price data. This corroborates our extension of the approach used for binary regime switching model in [33] to a ternary regime switching model.

This thesis considers a narrow sub-class of models due to the high dimensionality of the general class of models and subsequently ease of computation. On the other hand, by usage of techniques like parallel programming or running code on a cluster computer the issues of increasing dimensionality and computational complexity can be addressed. Consideration of a broader sub-class class of models is expected to result in best fit models with better discriminating statistics and performance than when a narrow sub-class of models are considered.

The technique of non parametric calibration of jumps unlike the assumption of the jumps following a log-normal distribution, as done in this work, might lead to better performance indicators such as the  $L_2$  norm and the K-S test statistics. Although, the non parametric calibration of jumps is contingent on factors such as the granularity of the time series data and the number of jumps detected by the technique used.

To achieve enhanced performance of best fit models with respect to performance indicators such as,  $L_2$  norm and K-S test statistics than displayed in this work by doing away with the discriminating statistics based on squeeze and expansion approach. Instead, other approaches that aim at minimizing the performance indicators, which leads to better performing models, such as, gradient descent method could be adopted.

The time spent on this thesis and insights we have gained over time has led to the ideas of new approaches to propose models that might achieve enhanced performance.

# Appendices

## Appendix A

# Matlab Code

## A.1 Historical Volatility in MMGBM

```
clc
1
  clear all
2
  TPM=[0 0.8 0.2;0.5 0 0.5;0.3 0.7 0];%transition probability matrix
3
  CPM=transpose(cumsum(transpose(TPM)));%cumulative probability matrix
4
  L=[10 50 20];%input('\nEnter n value of Lambda :')%instantaneous transition rate
5
      matrix
  Ft=3;%no of years to be simulated
6
  dt=1/253;%granularity
\overline{7}
  l=input('\n No of simulations of Historical Volatility :\n');
8
  k=20;%window to compute historical volatility
9
  S_0=100;%initial asset price
10
  X(1) = 1;%initial state of the Markov Chain
11
  a = 0;
12
  m=floor(Ft/dt);%no of time points
13
  j = 0;
14
15
  %Antithetic simulation of Markov modulated GBM
16
  sigma = [0.05 0.10 0.20];%volatility matrix containing volatility for three states of
17
       the Markov Chain
  Mu=[0.02 0.08 0.04];%drift matrix containing drift for three states of the Markov
18
      Chain
^{19}
       for i=1:l
20
^{21}
```

```
S_m(i,1) = 100; % initial value of the asset for each simulation
^{22}
        end
^{23}
   for i=1:l
^{24}
            M=markovfun(L,TPM, dt, Ft);%generating Markov chain
25
            %initialization
26
            R(i, 1) = 0;
27
            C_m_t(i, 1) = 0;
^{28}
            D_{-m_{-}t}(i, 1) = 0;
^{29}
30
            for j=1:m
31
32
                      C_m(i, j) = (Mu(M(j)) - 0.5*(sigma(M(j))^2))*dt;
33
                      D_m(i, j) = sigma(M(j)) * sqrt(dt) * normrnd(0, 1);
^{34}
                      C_{m_t}(i, j+1) = C_{m_t}(i, j) + C_m(i, j);
35
                      D_{-m_{-}t}(i, j+1) = D_{-m_{-}t}(i, j) + D_{-m}(i, j);
36
                      ST_m(i,j)=S_0*exp(C_m_t(i,j+1)+D_m_t(i,j+1)); simulated asset price
37
                      P(i,j) = sigma(M(j));%volatility of state of Markov chain at time
38
                          point 'j'
39
                      if j>1
40
                      R(i,j) = ((ST_m(i,j)-ST_m(i,j-1))/ST_m(i,j-1)); simple return
41
                      end
42
^{43}
                      if j>=k
44
                          W=R(i,j-k+1:j);%return for a given window of size k
^{45}
                           E = sum(R(i, j-k+1; j));
46
                           V(i, j) = ((sum(W.^2)/k) - ((E/k)^2))/dt;%historical variance for
47
                               window size k
                           v(i,j) = (V(i,j))^0.5;%historical volatility for window size k
^{48}
                      else
49
                           V(i, j) = 0;
50
                           v(i, j) = 0;
51
                      end
52
            end
53
   end
54
   T=1:m;%time matrix
55
   for i=1:1
56
        plot(T,v(i,:))%plotting of historical volatility
57
58
       hold on
59
        plot(T,P(i,:))%plotting of volatility of state of Markov chain at time 'i'
60
  end
61
```

## A.2 Calculation of Jump accuracy for a Uni-Regime MJD

```
clear
1
   beta = [0.01 0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8]; %The volatility (beta) matrix
2
   N_b = size(beta, 2);
з
   jmax=20; %Number of simulations for each beta
4
   pi=2*asin(1.0);
\mathbf{5}
  N=18000;%Length of the time series
6
  N2=N/2;
\overline{7}
   dt = 5./(250 * 360); %Granularity
8
   d_t = sqrt(dt);
9
   T = N * dt;
10
  mu = 0.1;
11
   del = 0.0055;
12
  % del = 10 * del;
13
   lamb=100;
14
   ga = -((del^2)/2); %to keep the mean jump size zero
15
   plamb=1-(exp(-lamb*dt)); %probability of observing at least one jump in dt time-
16
      length
17
   alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40}; \% alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40} gives hat {p}=1.0122\%
^{18}
   ph=min(1, alpha*(dt^(log(1/dt)))); \% hat{p} value
19
   g=sqrt(dt)*norminv((1+((1-ph)^{(1/N)}))/2); \% g is \gamma
20
^{21}
   acc1 = zeros(N_b, jmax);
^{22}
   acc2=zeros(3, N_b, jmax);
23
   acc_1 = zeros(1, N_b);
^{24}
   acc_2 = zeros(3, N_b);
25
   for k=1:N_b % For each k a separate beta is chosen.
26
   sig=beta(k);
27
   for j=1:jmax
^{28}
  %For each j, a simulation and accuracy of jump classification is computed. Then
^{29}
       average accuracy is computed for each beta.
  W=zeros (1,N+1);
30
  W(1) = 0;
31
   for i=1:N2
                    %Brownian motion
32
       u1=rand(); %by Box Muller Method
33
       u2=rand();
^{34}
```

```
W(2*i) = W(2*i-1) + sqrt(dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*cos(2*pi*u2); Simulating Brownian
35
           motion
      W(2*i+1) = W(2*i) + sqrt (dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*sin(2*pi*u2);
36
   end
37
38
   S=zeros(1,N+1); %Asset time series initialization
39
                  %Initial Asset price
  S(1) = 1;
40
   Xi = zeros(1,N);
41
   for i=1:N
                  %Simulation using above W and following Xi.
42
       u1=rand();
43
       if u1 \ll plamb
                          % then jump happens
44
                          % Generating Jump Size (Merton Model)
           u1 = rand();
45
           u2=rand();
                          \% Jump size is LogNormal -1
46
           Xi(i) = \exp(ga + del * sqrt((-2) * log(1-u1)) * cos(2*pi*u2)) - 1;
47
                          % else jump does not occur
       else
^{48}
                          % so Xi(i) =0
           Xi(i) = 0;
49
       end
50
       S(i+1)=S(i)*(1+mu*dt+sig*(W(i+1)-W(i))+Xi(i));% Simulating the asset pricing
51
           model
                          %Simulation is complete.
   end
52
53
   S_{-l=log}(S);
54
   ret_l=diff(S_l); %This is the log return series
55
   ret_l=(ret_l).^2; %Square of log return series
56
   ret = diff(S) . / S(1:N);
                                 %This is the simple return series
57
   n=size(ret,2);
58
59
   r_s = std(ret);
                       %This is denoted as SD
60
   m_r = mean(ret);
                      %This is \sum r
61
62
  %Next we solve an implicit equation to compute the maximal estimator of \beta, and
63
      thereby the maximal threshold
                           %Number of iteration
  y = 10;
64
  b=zeros(1,y);
65
  b(1)=r_s/sqrt(2*dt); %initial value of beta for N-R iteration
66
                           %initial value of threshold c_h
   c_{h}(1) = g * b(1);
67
68
                           \% Solving F1=0 by N-R iteration.
   for i=1:y-1
69
       F1 = ((b(i))^2) - ((1/T) * ((sum((ret - m_r).^2)) - (sum(ret(abs(ret - m_r)) > (b(i) * g)).^2)))
70
           ); %The functional F1
       b(i+1)=b(i)-(F1/(2*b(i)));
                                          %N-R iteration scheme
71
72 end
```

```
73
                                           %Maximal Threshold
   c=g*b(y);
^{74}
    \operatorname{ret}_{-h} = \operatorname{ret}(\operatorname{abs}(\operatorname{ret}_{-m_r}) > (c));
                                           %The series of jump sizes
75
   L=sum(abs(ret-m_r)>(c))/(n*dt);
                                           %\Lambda, the intensity
76
    v=sum((ret_h-m_r).2)/((L*n*dt)-1);%Variance of jump sizes
77
78
    ret_h1 = (Xi^{-}=0); % identifying instances where jump has occurred in simulation data
79
    ret_h 2 = ((abs(ret - m_r)) > c); % estimating instances where jump has occurred using
80
       maximal threshold (output=boolean array)
81
    truepos1=sum(ret_h2(ret_h2=ret_h1));
82
    trueneg1=sum(abs(ret_h2(ret_h2=ret_h1)-1));
83
    acc1(k, j) = (truepos1 + trueneg1)/(N);
84
85
    for iter =1:3
86
        power=1-10^{(-iter)}; % power = 0.9, 0.99, 0.999
87
        c_m = ((dt)^p ower);
88
    ret_h4 = (ret_l > c_m); % identifying instances where jump has occurred (using Mancini's
89
        threshold)
    truepos2=sum(ret_h4(ret_h4=ret_h1));
90
    trueneg2=sum(abs(ret_h4(ret_h4=ret_h1)-1));
91
    acc2(iter, k, j) = (truepos2 + trueneg2)/(N);
92
    end
93
    end
^{94}
   %[sum(ret_h1),sum(ret_h2),truepos1] % for checking
95
    acc_1(k)=mean(acc1(k,:));%Mean accuracy of maximal threshold
96
    for iter =1:3
97
    acc_2(iter,k)=mean(acc2(iter,k,:));%Mean accuracy of standard threshold
98
    end
99
    end
100
   %plotting of jump accuracy
101
    plot (beta, acc_1, 'Color', [1 0 0.9], 'LineWidth', 2)
102
    hold on
103
   h=plot(beta, acc_2, 'LineWidth', 2);
104
    set (h, \{ Color' \}, \{ [1 \ 0 \ 0]; [0 \ 1 \ 0]; [0 \ 0 \ 1] \});
105
```

## A.3 Calculation of Jump accuracy for a Ternary Regime Markov Switching MJD

```
clear
1
   beta = [0.01 0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8]; %The volatility (beta) matrix
2
   N_b = size(beta, 2);
3
   jmax=1000; %Number of simulations for each beta
4
   pi=2*asin(1.0);
\mathbf{5}
  N=11000;%Length of the time series
6
  N2 = N/2;
7
   dt = 5./(250*360); %Granularity
8
   d_t = sqrt(dt);
9
   T = N * dt;
10
11
   J = [0.08]
              150
                     2.0 \,\mathrm{e}{-05}
                                  0.07
                                        ;%parameter matrix
12
13
   eps=0.8 ;%parameter used in the volatility matrix
^{14}
                                     2.5];%Instantaneous transition rates
   l_m = 1.0 e + 03 * [ 3.0000
                                1
15
   a=sqrt(3/2.5); %asymmetry parameter/ratio between the transition rate of Markov
16
      regime 1 and 3
   mu=J(1);%beta
17
   lamb=J(2);%lambda
18
   V=J(3);%Variance of jump sizes
19
   mu_bar=J(4);%mean of empirical drift
20
^{21}
  \% \text{ eps=eps};
22
  \% l_m = l_m;
23
^{24}
   del = sqrt(log(V+1));
^{25}
   ga = -((del^2)/2); %to keep the mean jump size zero
26
   plamb=1-(exp(-lamb*dt)); %probability of observing at least one jump in dt time-
27
      length
^{28}
   alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40}; \% alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40} gives hat {p}=1.0122\%
29
   ph=min(1, alpha*(dt^(log(1/dt)))); \% hat{p} value
30
   g=sqrt(dt)*norminv((1+((1-ph)^{(1/N)}))/2);%g is \gamma
31
32
   acc1=zeros(N_b, jmax);
33
   acc2=zeros(3, N_b, jmax);
34
   acc_1 = zeros(1, N_b);
35
   acc_2 = zeros(3, N_b);
36
```

```
37
  mu_m=mu_bar*ones(1,3);%Generating the drift matrix (drift pertaining to each regime
38
       of the Markov Chain)
39
   x = [];%intialization step for generating a Markov chain
40
   x=mrk3(N, dt, a, l_m);%generation of Markov chain
41
  W=zeros(1,N+1);
42
  W(1) = 0;
43
44
   for k=1:N_b
45
       sg_bar=beta(k);% For each k a separate beta is chosen.
46
       sig_m = sg_bar * [1 - eps, 1, 1 + eps]; "Generating the volatility matrix (volatility)
47
           pertaining to each regime of the Markov Chain)
   for j=1:jmax
^{48}
  %For each j, a simulation and accuracy of jump classification is computed. Then
^{49}
      average accuracy is computed for each beta.
  W=zeros(1, N+1);
50
  W(1) = 0;
51
   for i=1:N2
                   %Brownian motion
52
       u1=rand(); %by Box Muller Method
53
       u2=rand();
54
      W(2*i) = W(2*i-1) + sqrt(dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*cos(2*pi*u2); Simulating Brownian
55
           motion
      W(2*i+1) = W(2*i) + sqrt (dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*sin(2*pi*u2);
56
   end
57
58
   S=zeros(1,N+1); %Asset time series initialization
59
                  %Initial Asset price
  S(1) = 1;
60
   Xi = z eros (1, N);
61
   for i = 1:N
                  %Simulation using above W and following Xi.
62
       u1=rand();
63
       if u1 \ll plamb
                          % then jump happens
64
                         % Generating Jump Size (Merton Model)
           u1=rand();
65
           u2=rand();
                         \% Jump size is LogNormal -1
66
           Xi(i) = \exp(ga + del * sqrt((-2) * log(1-u1)) * cos(2*pi * u2)) - 1;
67
                          % else jump does not occur
       else
68
           Xi(i) = 0;
                          % so Xi(i) =0
69
       end
70
       S(i+1)=S(i)*(1+mu_m(x(i))*dt+sig_m(x(i))*(W(i+1)-W(i))+Xi(i));%simulation of
71
           the Ternary Regime Markov Switching Merton Jump diffusion model(TRMJD)
                          %Simulation is complete.
  end
72
73
```

```
S_{-l=log}(S);
74
   ret_l=diff(S_l); %This is the log return series
75
   ret_l=(ret_l).^2; %Square of log return series
76
                                   %This is the simple return series
   ret = diff(S) . / S(1:N);
77
   n=size(ret, 2);
78
79
                         %This is denoted as SD
   r_s = std(ret);
80
                        %This is \sum r
   m_r = mean(ret);
81
82
   %Next we solve an implicit equation to compute the maximal estimator of \beta and
83
       thereby the maximal threshold
                            %Number of iteration
   y = 10;
84
   b = z eros(1, y);
85
   b(1)=r_s/sqrt(2*dt); %initial value of beta for N-R iteration
86
                            %initial value of threshold c_h
   c_{h}(1) = g * b(1);
87
88
   for i=1:y-1
                            %Solving F1=0 by N-R iteration.
89
        F1 = ((b(i))^2) - ((1/T) * ((sum((ret - m_r)^2)) - (sum(ret(abs(ret - m_r)) > (b(i) * g))^2)))
90
            ); %The functional F1
        b(i+1)=b(i)-(F1/(2*b(i)));
                                             %N-R iteration scheme
91
   end
92
93
   c=g*b(y);
                                          %Maximal Threshold
94
   \operatorname{ret}_h = \operatorname{ret}(\operatorname{abs}(\operatorname{ret}_m_r) > (c));
                                          %The series of jump sizes
95
   L=sum(abs(ret-m_r)>(c))/(n*dt);
                                          %\Lambda, the intensity
96
   v=sum((ret_h-m_r).^2)/((L*n*dt)-1);%Variance of jump sizes
97
98
   ret_h1 = (Xi^{-}=0); % identifying instances where jump has occurred in simulation data
99
   ret_h 2 = ((abs(ret - m_r)) > c); % estimating instances where jump has occurred using
100
       maximal threshold (output=boolean array)
101
   truepos1=sum(ret_h2(ret_h2=ret_h1));
102
    trueneg1=sum(abs(ret_h2(ret_h2=ret_h1)-1));
103
   acc1(k, j) = (truepos1 + trueneg1)/(N);
104
105
   for iter =1:3
106
        power=1-10^{(-iter)}; % power = 0.9, 0.99, 0.999
107
        c_m = ((dt)^p ower);
108
    ret_h4 = (ret_l > c_m); dentifying instances where jump has occurred (using Mancini's
109
        threshold)
   truepos2=sum(ret_h4(ret_h4=ret_h1));
110
   trueneg2=sum(abs(ret_h4(ret_h4=ret_h1)-1));
111
```

```
acc2(iter, k, j) = (truepos2 + trueneg2)/(N);
112
   end
113
   end
114
   %[sum(ret_h1),sum(ret_h2),truepos1] % for checking
115
   acc_1(k) = mean(acc1(k, :));%Mean accuracy of maximal threshold
116
   for iter =1:3
117
   acc_2(iter,k)=mean(acc2(iter,k,:));%Mean accuracy of standard threshold
118
   end
119
   end
120
   %plotting of jump accuracy
121
   plot (beta, acc_1, 'Color', [1 0 0.9], 'LineWidth',2)
122
   hold on
123
   h=plot(beta, acc_2, 'LineWidth', 2);
124
   set (h, \{ Color' \}, \{ [1 \ 0 \ 0]; [0 \ 1 \ 0]; [0 \ 0 \ 1] \});
125
```

### A.4 Calculation of Discriminating Statistics

```
%Jump detection and obtaining the best fit ternary regime Markov switching Jump
1
        diffusion model
2
  sheet='name of the index';%for example sheet='NIFTY200'
3
  s = xlsread('niftyidxcl.xlsx', sheet);
4
  s=transpose(s);%transposing the asset price time series
\mathbf{5}
  N=size(s,2);%length of the time series
6
  p=15/100;% setting up 'pth' percentile for calculation of durations
7
  s=flip(s);%ordering of time series from old to new
8
  ret=sr(s);%calculating simple return of asset
9
  r_p = prctile(ret, p*100);%calculating (100*p)th percentile of return data
10
  r_s=sd(ret);%calculating standard deviation of return
11
  m_r=mean(ret);%calculating mean of return
12
  n=size(ret,2);%size of return time series
^{13}
  dt = 5./(250*360);%granularity
14
  T=N*dt;%Total time frame of time series
15
  alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40}; \% alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40} gives hat {p}=1.0122\%
16
  ph=min(1, alpha*(dt^(log(1/dt)))); \% hat{p} value
17
  d_t=sqrt(dt);%square root of granularity
18
  g=sqrt(dt)*norminv((1+((1-ph)^{(1/N)}))/2);\%g is \gamma
19
  b(1)=r_s/sqrt(2*dt); Next we solve an implicit equation to compute the maximal
20
      estimator of \beta, and thereby the maximal threshold
```

```
F1(1) = ((b(1))^{2}) - ((1/T) * ((sum((ret - m_r).^{2})) - (sum(ret(abs(ret - m_r) > (b(1) * g)).^{2}))))
^{21}
       ;%Initial value of the functional F1
   y=10; %Number of iterations
22
   v(1) = 0;
23
  L(1) = 0;
^{24}
   c_h(1) = g * b(1);
25
26
   for i=2:v %no of iterations
^{27}
       b(i)=b(i-1)-(F1(i-1)/(2*b(i-1)));%N-R iteration scheme
^{28}
       F1(i) = ((b(i))^2) - ((1/T) * ((sum((ret - m_r).^2)) - (sum(ret(abs(ret - m_r)) > (b(i) * g))))
29
           .<sup>2</sup>))));%The functional F1
       c_h(i)=g*b(i); % iteration of the maximal threshold
30
        ret_h=ret(abs(ret-m_r)>(c_h(i)));%Iteration of the series of jump sizes
31
       L(i) = sum(abs(ret-m_r)) > (c_h(i))) / (n*dt);  \Lambda, the intensity
^{32}
       v(i) = sum((ret_h - m_r)^2)/((L(i) * n * dt) - 1); Variance of jump sizes
33
34
   end
35
   c=g*b(y);%Maximal Threshold
36
37
   \%replacing the data in return time series where a jump has occurred with the mean
38
       of the return
   for i=1:n
39
        if ((abs(ret(i)-m_r)) <= c)
40
            \operatorname{ret}_{-}f(i) = \operatorname{ret}(i);
41
        elseif((abs(ret(i)-m_r))>c)
42
            ret_f(i) = m_r;
^{43}
       end
44
^{45}
   end
  N=n;
46
   w=20;%setting of window size for calculating moving average and sample standard
47
       deviation
   n_f=size(ret_f,2);%size of return time series
^{48}
   for j = 1:(n_f - w + 1)
49
       m(j) = ((sum(ret_f(j:j+w-1)))/w);\% moving average
50
       sg(j) = sqrt((sum(ret_f(j:j+w-1).^2))/(w-1)-((w*(m(j).^2))/(w-1))); sample
51
           standard deviation
   end
52
  m=m/dt;%empirical drift
53
   mu_bar=(mean(m));%mean of empirical drift
54
   sg=sg./sqrt(dt);%empirical volatility
55
   sg_bar=mean(sg);%mean of empirical volatility
56
57
```

```
dura_d=dura(sg,p*100); %durations of p-squeeze
58
  dura_m=dura_mi(sg,p*100);%durations of p-expansions
59
60
   L_d=size (dura_d,2);%Length of p-squeeze vector
61
   T1_e1=((sum(dura_d))/L_d);%T1 descriptive statistic of p-squeeze
62
   T2_e1 = sqrt(sum((dura_d-T1_e1)^2)/(L_d-1));%T2 descriptive statistic of p-squeeze
63
   T3_e1=(sum((dura_d-T1_e1).^3)/(L_d))/((T2_e1)^3);%T3 descriptive statistic of p-
64
       squeeze
   T4_e1=(sum((dura_d-T1_e1).^4)/(L_d))/((T2_e1)^4);%T4 descriptive statistic of p-
65
       squeeze
66
   L_m=size(dura_m,2);%Length of p-expansion vector
67
   T1_e2=((sum(dura_m))/L_m);%T1 descriptive statistic of p-expansion
68
   T2_e2 = sqrt(sum((dura_m-T1_e2).^2)/(L_m-1));%T2 descriptive statistic of p-
69
       expansion
   T3_e2 = (sum((dura_m-T1_e2).^3)/(L_m))/((T2_e2)^3);%T3 descriptive statistic of p-
70
       expansion
   T4_e2 = (sum((dura_m-T1_e2).^4)/(L_m))/((T2_e2)^4);%T4 descriptive statistic of p-
71
       expansion
72
  a=sqrt((T1_e2)/(T1_e1));%calculation of the parameter of asymmetry
73
  B=100:% no of time series to be sampled from sub class of models of the uni-regime
74
      MJD models
75
  %Simulation of uni-regime MJD
76
  for j=1:B
77
       S_g=s(1);%setting the first data point of the asset data time series as the
78
          initial point for simulation of sub class uni-regime MJD
79
      gmb=gsm(S-g,dt,N,mu_bar,sg_bar);%simulation of sub class of uni-regime MJD
80
          models
81
       ret_g=sr(gmb);%return of uni-regime MJD
82
       n_{g}=size(ret_{g},2); size of return time series obtained from simulation of uni-
83
          regime MJD
       for k=1:(n_g-w+1)
84
            m_g(k) = (((sum(ret_g(k:k+w-1)))/w));% moving average
85
            sg_g(k) = (sqrt((sum(ret_g(k:k+w-1).^2))/(w-1)-((w*(m_g(k).^2))/(w-1)));\%
86
               sample standard deviation
       end
87
88
       m_g=(m_g)/dt;%empirical drift
89
```

```
52
```

```
sg_g=(sg_g)/sqrt(dt);%empirical volatility
90
^{91}
        dura_g1=dura(sg_g,p*100);%durations of p-squeeze
92
        dura_g2=dura_mi(sg_g,p*100);%durations of p-expansions
93
94
         L_g1=size(dura_g1,2);%Length of p-squeeze vector
95
         L_g2=size(dura_g2, 2);%Length of p-expansions
96
97
         T1_g1(j) = ((sum(dura_g1))/L_g1); T1 descriptive statistic of p-squeeze
98
         T2_g1(j) = sqrt(sum((dura_g1-T1_g1(j)).^2)/(L_g1-1));%T2 descriptive statistic
99
             of p-squeeze
         T3_g1(j) = (sum((dura_g1 - T1_g1(j)).^3)/(L_g1))/((T2_g1(j))^3);%T3 descriptive
100
             statistic of p-squeeze
         T4_{g1}(j) = (sum((dura_{g1}-T1_{g1}(j)).^4)/(L_{g1}))/((T2_{g1}(j))^4);%T4 descriptive
101
             statistic of p-squeeze
102
         T1_g2(j) = ((sum(dura_g2))/L_g2);%T1 descriptive statistic of p-expansion
103
         T2_{g2}(j) = sqrt(sum((dura_g2-T1_g2(j)).^2)/(L_g2-1));%T2 descriptive statistic
104
             of p-expansion
         T3_{g2}(j) = (sum((dura_{g2}-T1_{g2}(j)).^3)/(L_{g2}))/((T2_{g2}(j))^3);\%T3 descriptive
105
             statistic of p-expansion
         T4_{g2}(j) = (sum((dura_{g2}-T1_{g2}(j)).^4)/(L_{g2}))/((T2_{g2}(j))^4); %T4 descriptive
106
             statistic of p-expansion
   end
107
   %Note: proximity measure statistics will be referred to as \alpha statistics
108
       henceforth
   ag = [];
109
   z_g 1 = T1_g 1;
110
   D1_g = ((z_g1 - T1_e1) < =0);
111
   s_{g1} = sum(D1_{g});
112
   E1_g= g_b(s_g1,B);% g_B function on t statistics
113
   ag = [ag, E1_g];
114
   al_g=min(ag);%calculation of \alpha_1 statistic pertaining to p-squeeze of uni-
115
       regime MJD
116
   z_{g}2=T2_{g}1;
117
   D2_{-g} = ((z_{-g}2 - T2_{-e}1) < =0);
118
   s_{g} = g = sum(D2_{g});
119
   E2_g = g_b(s_g2, B); \% g_B function on t statistics
120
   ag = [ag, E2_g];
121
   a2_g=min(ag);%calculation of \alpha_2 statistic pertaining to p-squeeze of uni-
122
       regime MJD
```

```
53
```

```
123
    z_{-}g_{3}=T_{3}g_{1};
124
    D3_{-g} = ((z_{-g}3 - T3_{-e}1) < =0);
125
    s_g 3 = sum(D3_g);
126
    E3_g = g_b(s_g3, B); \% g_B function on t statistics
127
    ag = [ag, E3_g];
128
    a3_g=min(ag);%calculation of \alpha_3 statistic pertaining to p-squeeze of uni-
129
       regime MJD
130
    z_{g}4=T4_{g}1;
131
   D4_g = ((z_g 4 - T4_e 1) < =0);
132
    s_g 4 = sum(D4_g);
133
    E4_g = g_b(s_g4, B); \% g_B function on t statistics
134
   ag = [ag, E4_g];
135
    a4_g=min(ag);%calculation of \alpha_4 statistic pertaining to p-squeeze of uni-
136
        regime MJD
137
   %\alpha statistics of p-squeeze of uni-regime MJD
138
    alpha(1)=a1_g;
139
    alpha(2)=a2_g;
140
    alpha(3)=a3_g;
141
    alpha(4)=a4_g;
142
143
   ah = [];
144
    z_h 1 = T 1_g 2;
145
   D1_h = ((z_h 1 - T1_e 2) < =0);
146
    s_h 1 = sum(D1_h);
147
    E1_h = g_b(s_h1, B); \% g_B function on t statistics
148
    ah = [ah, E1_h];
149
    al_h=min(ah);%calculation of \alpha_1 statistic pertaining to p-expansion of uni-
150
       regime MJD
151
    z_h 2 = T 2_g 2;
152
    D2_h = ((z_h 2 - T2_e 2) < =0);
153
    s_h 2 = sum(D2_h);
154
    E2_h = g_b(s_h2, B); \% g_B function on t statistics
155
    ah = [ah, E2_h];
156
    a2_h=min(ah);%calculation of \alpha_2 statistic pertaining to p-expansion of uni-
157
       regime MJD
158
   z_h 3 = T_{3_g 2};
159
   D3_h = ((z_h3 - T3_e2) < =0);
160
```

```
s_h 3 = sum(D3_h);
161
   E3_h= g_b(s_h3,B);% g_B function on t statistics
162
   ah = [ah, E3_h];
163
   a3_h=min(ah);%calculation of \alpha_3 statistic pertaining to p-expansion of uni-
164
       regime MJD
165
   z_h4=T4_g2;
166
   D4_h = ((z_h 4 - T4_e 2) < =0);
167
   s_{h}4=sum(D4_{h});
168
   E4_{h}=g_{b}(s_{h}4,B);% g_B function on t statistics
169
   ah = [ah, E4_h];
170
   a4_h=min(ah);%calculation of \alpha_4 statistic pertaining to p-expansion of uni-
171
       regime MJD
172
   \Lambda = 0 (\Lambda = 0) \Lambda = 0 (\Lambda = 0) \Lambda = 0
173
   alpha(5)=a1_h;
174
   alpha(6)=a2_h;
175
   alpha(7)=a3_h;
176
   alpha(8)=a4_h;
177
178
   m = m bar * ones(1,3); "Drift vector pertaining to the sub class of TRMJD model"
179
   g=abs(linspace(0,0.85,10));% setting up of epsilon parameter required for volatility
180
        vector of sub class of TRMJD model
181
   %let \theta be a member of the parameter set of sub class TRMJD models
182
183
    for i = 1:10
184
        eps=g(i);%selection of epsilon from the vector (selection of a member from the
185
            parameter set of sub class of models)
        sg_mg=sg_bar*[1-eps,1,1+eps];%generation of volatility vector (selection of a
186
           member from the parameter set of sub class of models)
        for j=1:16
187
            l_m = [];
188
            %generation of instantaneous transition rate matrix for a ternary regime
189
                Markov process (for a given \theta)
            l = (((1)/(j))/(dt))/(a);
190
            l_1(j) = (a * l) ; l_3(j) = (l/a);
191
            l_22(j) = ((((a^2)+1)*p*l)/(a*(1-2*p)));
192
            l_m = [l_1 1 1 (j), l_2 2 (j), l_3 3 (j)];
193
194
195
```

196	<pre>S_m=s(1);%setting the first data point of the asset data time series as the initial point for simulation of Ternary regime switching MJD (TRMJD)</pre>
197 198	for $k=1:100\%$ simulation of TRMJD(for a given \theta i.e. member of the sub
	class) k times
199	
200	$sm=mgbm_1(S_m,N,dt,a,l_m,mu,sg_mg)$ ;%simulation of TRMJD(for a given theta i.e. member of the sub class)
201	ret_m=sr(sm);%return of TRMJD
202	<pre>n_m=size(ret_m,2);%size of return time series obtained from simulation</pre>
203	
204	for $t=1:(n_m-w+1)$
205	$m_m(t) = (((sum(ret_m(t:t+w-1)))/w));%$ moving average
206	$ sg_m(t) = (sqrt(((sum(ret_m(t:t+w-1).^2))/(w-1)) - ((w*(m.m(t).^2))/(w-1))); % sample standard deviation $
207	$\mathbf{end}$
208	m_m=(m_m)/dt;%empirical drift
209	$sg_m = (sg_m) / sqrt(dt);$ % empirical volatility
210	
211	$dura_m1{i, j, k}=dura(sg_m, p*100);%duration of p-squeeze$
212	$dura_m2\{i, j, k\}=dura_mi(sg_m, p*100);%duration of p-expansion$
213	
214	$L_m1(i, j, k) = size(dura_m1\{i, j, k\}, 2);$ %Length of p-squeeze vector
215 216	$L_m2(i, j, k) = size(dura_m2\{i, j, k\}, 2);$ %Length of p-expansion vector
217	T1_m1(i,j,k)=((sum(dura_m1{i,j,k}))/L_m1(i,j,k));%T1 descriptive
	statistic of p-squeeze
218	T2_m1(i,j,k)= sqrt(sum((dura_m1{i,j,k}-T1_m1(i,j,k)).^2)/(L_m1(i,j,k))-1));%T2 descriptive statistic of p-squeeze
219	T3_m1(i,j,k)=(sum((dura_m1{i,j,k}-T1_m1(i,j,k)).^3)/(L_m1(i,j,k)))/(( T2_m1(i,j,k))^3);%T3 descriptive statistic of p-squeeze
220	$T4_m1(i, j, k) = (sum((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k)).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))).^4) / (L_m1(i, j, k))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k)))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k)))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k)))))) / ((dura_m1\{i, j, k\} - T1_m1(i, j, k))))))))))))))))))))))))))))))))))$
	$T2_m1(i,j,k))^4$ ;%T4 descriptive statistic of p-squeeze
221	
222	$T1_m2(i,j,k) = ((sum(dura_m2\{i,j,k\}))/L_m2(i,j,k));%T1 \text{ descriptive} statistic of p-expansion}$
223	T2_m2(i,j,k)= sqrt(sum((dura_m2{i,j,k}-T1_m2(i,j,k)).^2)/(L_m2(i,j,k))-1));%T2 descriptive statistic of p-expansion
224	$T3_m2(i, j, k) = (sum((dura_m2\{i, j, k\} - T1_m2(i, j, k)).^3)/(L_m2(i, j, k)))/((T2_m2(i, j, k)))^3);%T3 descriptive statistic of p-expansion$

225	T4_m2(i,j,k)=(sum((dura_m2{i,j,k}-T1_m2(i,j,k)).^4)/(L_m2(i,j,k)))/(( T2_m2(i,j,k))^4);%T4 descriptive statistic of p-expansion
226	end
227	
228	$z_m1=T1_m1(i, j, :);$
229	am1 = [];
230	$D1_m1 = ((z_m1 - T1_e1) <= 0);$
231	$s_m1=sum(D1_m1);$
232	$E1_m1 = g_b(s_m1, B);$
233	$am1 = [am1, E1_m1];$
234	<pre>a1_m1=min(am1);%calculation of \alpha_(1,\theta) statistic pertaining to p -squeeze of TRMJD</pre>
235	
236	$z_m2=T2_m1(i,j,:);$
237	$D2_m1 = ((z_m2 - T2_e1) < =0);$
238	$s_m2=sum(D2_m1);$
239	$E2_m1 = g_b(s_m2, B); \% g_B$ function on t statistics
240	$am1 = [am1, E2_m1];$
241	$a2_m1=min(am1)$ ;%calculation of \alpha_(2,\theta) statistic pertaining to p -squeeze of TRMJD
242	
243	$z_m3=T3_m1(i, j, :);$
244	$D3_m1 = ((z_m3 - T3_e1) <= 0);$
245	$s_m3=sum(D3_m1);$
246	$E3_m1 = g_b(s_m3, B); \% g_B$ function on t statistics
247	$am1 = [am1, E3_m1];$
248	<pre>a3_m1=min(am1);%calculation of \alpha_(3,\theta) statistic pertaining to p -squeeze of TRMJD</pre>
249	
250	$z_m4=T4_m1(i, j, :);$
251	$D4_m1 = ((z_m4-T4_e1) <= 0);$
252	$s_m4=sum(D4_m1);$
253	$E4_m1 = g_b(s_m4, B); \% g_B$ function on t statistics
254	$am1 = [am1, E4_m1];$
255	<pre>a4_m1=min(am1);%calculation of \alpha_(4,\theta) statistic pertaining to p -squeeze of TRMJD</pre>
256	
257	%alpha statistics pertaining to p-squeeze of TRMJD(one member of the sub class)
258	$a1_m2(i, j)=a1_m1;$
259	$a2_m2(i,j) = a2_m1;$

261	$a4_m2(i, j)=a4_m1;$	
262		
263	$z_n 1 = T1_m 2(i, j, :);$	
264	an1 = [];	
265	$D1_n1 = ((z_n1 - T1_e2) <= 0);$	
266	$s_n 1 = sum(D1_n 1);$	
267	E1_n1= g_b(s_n1,B);% g_B function on t statistics	
268	$an1 = [an1, E1_n1];$	
269	$a1_n1=min(an1)$ ;%calculation of \alpha_(1,\theta) statistic pertaining to p	
	-expansion of TRMJD	
270	$z_n 2=T2_m 2(i, j, :);$	
271	$D2_n1 = ((z_n2 - T2_e2) <= 0);$	
272	$s_n 2 = sum(D_2 n_1);$	
273	$E2_n1 = g_b(s_n2, B); \% g_B$ function on t statistics	
274	$an1 = [an1, E2_n1];$	
275	$a2_n1=min(an1)$ ;%calculation of \alpha_(2,\theta) statistic pertaining to p	
	-expansion of TRMJD models	
276		
277	z_n3=T3_m2(i,j,:);	
278	$D3_n1 = ((z_n3 - T3_e2) <= 0);$	
279	$s_n 3 = sum(D3_n 1);$	
280	$E3_n1 = g_b(s_n3, B); \% g_B$ function on t statistics	
281	$an1 = [an1, E3_n1];$	
282	$a3_n1=min(an1)$ ;%calculation of \alpha_(3,\theta) statistic pertaining to p	
	-expansion of TRMJD models	
283		
284	$z_n 4=T4_m2(i, j, :);$	
285	$D4_n1 = ((z_n4 - T4_e2) <= 0);$	
286	$s_n 4 = sum(D4_n 1);$	
287	$E4_n1= g_b(s_n4,B);\% g_B$ function on t statistics	
288	$an1 = [an1, E4_n1];$	
289	$a4_n1=min(an1)$ ;%calculation of $\alpha_(4,\theta)$ statistic pertaining to p	
	-expansion of TRMJD models	
290		
291	$\% \ \$ be the statistic pertaining to p-expansion of TRMJD models	
292	$a1_n2(i,j)=a1_n1;$	
293	$a2_n2(i,j)=a2_n1;$	
294	$a3_n2(i,j)=a3_n1;$	
295	$a4_n2(i,j)=a4_n1;$	
296	end	
297	end	
298	$a1_m=max(max(a1_m2));$	

```
a2_m = max(max(a2_m2));
299
   a3_m = max(max(a3_m2));
300
   a4_m = max(max(a4_m2));
301
302
   %\alpha statistics pertaining to p-squeeze of TRMJD models(considering the whole
303
       sub class)
   alpha(9)=a1_m;
304
   alpha(10)=a2_m;
305
    alpha(11)=a3_m;
306
    alpha(12)=a4_m;
307
308
    a1_n = max(max(a1_n2));
309
    a2_n = \max(\max(a2_n2));
310
   a3_n = max(max(a3_n2));
311
    a4_n = max(max(a4_n2));
312
   %\alpha statistics pertaining to p-expansion of TRMJD(considering the whole sub
313
       class)
    alpha(13) = a1_n;
314
   alpha(14)=a2_n;
315
   alpha(15)=a3_n;
316
    alpha(16)=a4_n;
317
    alpha_ternary=alpha(9:16);
318
   sheet = 1;
319
    xlswrite(filename, alpha_ternary, sheet, 'Am:Hm');% 'm' is the index number
320
```

## A.5 Simulation of Best Fit Model for Calculation of L<sub>2</sub> Error and K-S Test Statistics

```
%simulation of the best fit model for calculation of L2 error and K-S test
1
        statistics
^{2}
3
  J1 = xlsread('modelstats.xlsx');% 'modelstats.xlsx' contains the parameters for the
4
       best fit model'
  J=J1(m,1:10);% 'm' is the index 'im' corresponding to which the best fit model is
\mathbf{5}
      being simulated m=1,\ldots,17
  J=array2table(J);
6
  sheet='name of the index';%for example sheet='NIFTY200'
7
  s = xlsread('niftyidxcl.xlsx', sheet);%reading the asset price data of the index
8
  s=table2array(s);
9
  s=transpose(s);%transposing the asset price time series
10
  s=flip(s);%ordering of time series from old to new
11
  ret=sr(s);%calculating simple return of asset
12
  ret=sort(ret);%sorting of the return time series
13
  N=size(s,2);%Length of the time series
14
  pi=2*asin(1.0);
15
  N=size(s,2);%Length of the time series
16
  N2 = ceil(N/2);
17
  dt = 5./(250*360); %Granularity
18
  d_t=sqrt(dt);%square root of granularity
19
  T=N*dt;%Total time frame of time series
20
  eps=J(6); %epsilon parameter of the best fit TRMJD model for a given index
^{21}
  a=J(7);%asymmetry parameter of the best fit TRMJD model for a given index
^{22}
  l_m = [J(8) \ J(9) \ J(10)]; "instantaneous transition rates of best fit TRMJD model
^{23}
  %feeding of parameters of best fit model for simulation purposes
24
  mu=J(1); %empirical drift of simplified model used for jump inference
^{25}
  lamb=J(2);%Jump intensity
26
  V=J(3);%Variance of jump sizes
27
  mu_bar=J(4);%mean of empirical drift
28
  sg_bar=J(5);%mean of empirical volatility
^{29}
  del = sqrt(log(V+1));
30
  ga = -((del^2)/2); %to keep the mean jump size zero
31
  plamb=1-(exp(-lamb*dt)); %probability of observing at least one jump in dt time-
32
      length
  alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40}; \% alpha = (0.5) * 10^{40} gives hat {p}=1.0122\%
33
  ph=min(1, alpha*(dt^(log(1/dt)))); \%hat{p} value
34
```

```
g=sqrt(dt)*norminv((1+((1-ph)^{(1/N)}))/2);%g is \gamma
35
36
  %For each j, a simulation and accuracy of jump classification is computed. Then
37
      average accuracy is computed for each beta.
  W=zeros(1,N+1);
38
  W(1) = 0;
39
   for i = 1:N2
                   %Brownian motion
40
       u1=rand(); %by Box Muller Method
^{41}
       u2=rand();
42
      W(2*i) = W(2*i-1) + sqrt (dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*cos(2*pi*u2);
43
      W(2*i+1)=W(2*i)+sqrt(dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*sin(2*pi*u2);
44
   end
45
46
   S_u=zeros(1,N); %Asset time series initialization
\mathbf{47}
                   %Initial Asset price
   S_u = s(1):
^{48}
   Xi = z eros(1, N);
49
   for i=1:N-1
                    %Simulation using above W and following Xi.
50
       u1=rand();
51
       if u1 \ll plamb
                         % then jump happens
52
           u1 = rand();
                         % Generating Jump Size (Merton Model)
53
           u2=rand();
                         % Jump size is LogNormal -1
54
           Xi(i) = \exp(ga + del * sqrt((-2) * log(1-u1)) * cos(2*pi*u2)) - 1;
55
                          % else jump does not occur
       else
56
           Xi(i) = 0;
                          % so Xi(i) =0
57
58
       end
       S_u(i+1)=S_u(i)*(1+mu_bar*dt+sg_bar*(W(i+1)-W(i))+Xi(i));
59
                          %Simulation is complete.
   end
60
61
   ret_cu=sr(S_u); This is the simple return series obtained from the simulation of
62
      uni-regime MJD model
63
   ret_cu=sort(ret_cu);%sorting of simple return series
64
65
   sig_m=sg_bar*[1-eps,1,1+eps]; mpirical volatility vector for simulation of best
66
      fit TRMJD model
67
  mu_m=mu_bar*ones(1,3);%empirical drift vector for simulation of best fit TRMJD
68
      model
  x = [];
69
  x=mrk3(N, dt, a, l_m);%simulation of ternary regime Markov process using the
70
      instantaneous transition rate of best fit TRMJD model
_{71} | W = z eros (1, N+1);
```

```
W(1) = 0;
72
73
   for i=1:N2
                    %Brownian motion
74
        u1=rand(); %by Box Muller Method
75
        u2=rand();
76
       W(2*i) = W(2*i-1) + sqrt (dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*cos(2*pi*u2);
77
       W(2*i+1)=W(2*i)+sqrt(dt*(-2)*log(1-u1))*sin(2*pi*u2);
78
   end
79
80
   S_m=zeros(1,N); %Asset time series initialization
81
                        %Initial Asset price
   S_m(1) = s(1);
82
   Xi = zeros(1,N);
83
   for i=1:N-1
                     %Simulation using above W and following Xi.
84
        u1=rand();
85
        if u1 \ll plamb
                          % then jump happens
86
            u1 = rand();
                          % Generating Jump Size (Merton Model)
87
            u2=rand();
                          \% Jump size is LogNormal -1
88
            Xi(i) = \exp(ga + del * sqrt((-2) * log(1-u1)) * cos(2*pi * u2)) - 1;
89
                          % else jump does not occur
        else
90
            Xi(i) = 0;
                          % so Xi(i) =0
91
        end
92
       S_m(i+1)=S_m(i)*(1+mu_m(x(i))*dt+sig_m(x(i))*(W(i+1)-W(i))+Xi(i)); simulation
93
            of the TRMJD model
   end
                          %Simulation is complete.
94
95
   ret_cm=sr(S_m); %This is the simple return series obtained from the simulation of
96
       best fit TRMJD model
   ret_cm=sort (ret_cm);%sorting of simple return series
97
    max_r=max(max(ret));%maximum of the empirical return series
98
    min_r=min(min(ret));%maximum of the empirical return series
99
   xr=linspace(min_r, max_r, 11001);% generation of a mesh of equispaced points between
100
       max_r and min_r for obtaining the empirical CDF(eCDF) (of empirical and
       theoretical models) and the L2 norm of empirical CDF
   x2=diff(xr);%difference of consecutive elements of the generated mesh vector
101
   x1 = xr(1:end-1);
102
   f1 = (invprctile(ret, x1)) / 100;% empirical eCDF
103
   f2=(invprctile(ret_cu,x1))/100;%Uni-regime MJD model eCDF
104
   f3 = (invprctile(ret_cm, x1))/100;%TRMJD model eCDF
105
   % calculating the square if the difference of elements of same index of different
106
       eCDF's
   f_2 = (f_2 - f_1) \cdot 2;
107
   f_{-31} = (f_{3} - f_{1}) \cdot 2;
108
```

```
109
   %Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S Test)
110
   len1=size(ret,2);%length of return time series
111
   len2=size(ret_cu,2);%length of uni-regime MJD return series
112
   len3=size(ret_cm,2);%length TRMJD return series
113
114
   D(1) = (\max(abs(f2-f1))) / (sqrt((len1+len2)/(len1*len2))); %K-S Test statistic of the
115
       eCDF'S of return time series and uni-regime MJD model
   D(2) = (\max(abs(f3-f1))) / (sqrt((len1+len3)/(len2*len3))); %K-S Test statistic of
                                                                                            of
116
       return time series and TRMJD model
   D(3) = \max(abs(f3-f2))/(sqrt((len2+len3)/(len2*len3)));%K-S Test statistic of uni-
117
       regime MJD and TRMJD
^{118}
   L2(1) = sqrt(sum(f_21.*x2));%L2 error of uni-regime MJD
119
   L2(2) = \operatorname{sqrt}(\operatorname{sum}(f_31.*x2));%L2 error of TRMJD
120
121
   filename1='L2.xlsx';
122
   sheet = 1;
123
   xlswrite(filename1,L2,sheet, 'Am:Bm');
124
   filename2='KStest.xlsx';
125
   xlswrite(filename2, D, sheet, 'Am:Cm');
126
```

## A.6 User Defined Functions Used in the Main Code

### A.6.1 Simulation of Markov Chain

```
function M=markovfun(L,TPM, dt, Ft)
1
2
       CPM=transpose(cumsum(transpose(TPM)));%cumulative probability matrix
3
       X(1) = 1;%initial state of the Markov chain
\mathbf{4}
        a = 0;
\mathbf{5}
       m=ceil(Ft/dt);%no time points
6
        j = 0;
\overline{7}
        while ceil(a/dt) < m
8
            j=j+1;
9
            T(j) = exprnd(1/L(X(j)));
10
            b=a+T(j);%overall time spent till state X(j)
11
             for i=ceil(a/dt)+1:min(ceil(b/dt),m)
12
                 M(i)=X(j);% Markov chain state
13
             end
^{14}
             if ceil(b/dt) > m
15
                  break
16
             else
^{17}
                  a=b;
^{18}
                  cumdist=CPM(X(j),:);
19
                  r = rand();
^{20}
                 X(j+1)=find(cumdist>r,1);%next state of Markov chain
^{21}
             end
^{22}
^{23}
        end
```

### A.6.2 Simple Return

### A.6.3 Squeeze Durations i.e Corresponding to pth Percentile

```
function dura=dura(a,p)
1
2
        n=size(a,2);
3
        P = prctile(a, p);
4
        f l a g_{-} 1 = 1;
5
        transition_1 = [];%initialization
6
        % calculating durations
7
        for j=1:n
8
             if flag_1*a(j) < flag_1*P
9
                  transition_1 = [transition_1, j];
10
                  f \log_{-1} = -f \log_{-1};
11
             end
^{12}
        end
^{13}
        transition=transition_1;
^{14}
         Dura=diff(transition);
15
         dura=Dura(1:2:end);% squeeze durations
16
        end
17
```

#### A.6.4 Expansion Durations i.e Corresponding to (100-p)th Percentile

```
function dura_mi=dura_mi(a,p)
1
    n=size(a,2);
2
    Q=prctile(a,(100-p));%calculating (100-p)th percentile
3
        transition_2 = []; \% initialization
4
        f l a g_2 = 1;
5
       %calculation of durations
6
        for k=1:n
7
              if f lag_2 * a(k) > f lag_2 * Q
8
                 transition_2 = [transition_2, k];
9
                 f lag_2 = -f lag_2;
10
            end
11
       end
^{12}
        transition_m=transition_2;
^{13}
        Dura_m=diff(transition_m);
14
         dura_mi=Dura_m(1:2:end);%expansion durations
15
       end
16
```

# A.6.5 Asset Price Simulation by a GBM Model/uni-regime MJD after removal of jump term

```
function St=gsm(S, dt, N, mu, sg)
1
            \%\ensuremath{\,^{\circ}}\xspace{\rm mu} is the drift and \ensuremath{\,^{\circ}}\xspace{\rm sg}\xspace{\rm res} is the volatility
^{2}
           St = []; \% initialization
3
           St(1)=S;%initial asset price
4
           sdt = sqrt(dt);
\mathbf{5}
           a=0
6
           for i=2:N
7
               w = normrnd(0, sdt);
8
                a=mu*dt+sg*w-0.5*(sg^2)*dt;
9
                St(i)=St(i-1)*exp(a); %calculation of asset price
10
                end
11
   end
12
```

## A.6.6 Asset Price Simulation by an MMGBM Model/ TRMJD model after removal of jump term

```
function St_m=mgbm_1(S,N,dt,a,l_m,mu_m,sg_1)
1
   x(1) = 2;%initial state of Markov chain
2
   for i=1:N
3
       h = (((a)^2)/(((a)^2)+1));%calculation of parameter for 'eta_i' Beroulli Random
4
           variable
       z=binornd(1,h);%generating 'eta_i' Bernoulli random variable
\mathbf{5}
       Q=binornd(1,((l_m(x(i)))*dt));
6
       x(i+1)=x(i)+((2-x(i))+((kd(x(i)))*((-1)^{2})))*Q;\% generation of next state in
\overline{7}
           the Markov chain
   end
8
   a_1=0;%initialisation
9
     St_m(1)=S;%initial asset price
10
     for j = 2:N
^{11}
                     w_1 = normrnd(0, sqrt(dt));
12
                     a_{-1} = ((mu_m(x(j)))*dt) + ((sg_{-1}(x(j)))*w_{-1}) - ((0.5*((sg_{-1}(x(j)))^2))*dt)
13
                         );
                         St_m(j)=St_m(j-1)*exp(a_1);%generation of asset price from
^{14}
                             MMGBM model
        end
15
   end
16
```

### A.6.7 $g_b$ Function Used for Calculating Discriminating Statistics

## A.6.8 Kronecker Delta Function $\delta_{(2,j)}$

```
% Kronecker delta function of state '2' of the Markov chain
1
   function kd=kd(s)
^{2}
        if s==2
3
             kd=1;
4
        elseif s == 1
\mathbf{5}
             kd=0;
6
        elseif s == 3
7
             kd=0;
8
        end
9
   end
10
```

## A.6.9 Discrete Form of Ternary Regime switching Markov Chain

```
function x=mrk3(N, dt, a, l_m)
1
  x(1) = 2;% initialization
^{2}
  for i=1:N
3
       h = (((a)^2)/(((a)^2)+1));% calculation of parameter for 'eta_i' Bernoulli random
4
           variable
       z=binornd(1,h);%generating 'eta_i' Bernoulli random variable
\mathbf{5}
       Q=binornd(1,((l_m(x(i)))*dt));%P_i Bernoulli random variable
6
       x(i+1)=x(i)+((2-x(i))+((kd(x(i)))*((-1)^{2})))*Q;\% generation of next state in
\overline{7}
           the Markov chain
  end
8
```

## Bibliography

- Basak, Gopal K., Mrinal K. Ghosh, and Anindya Goswami. Risk minimizing option pricing for a class of exotic options in a Markov-modulated market. Stochastic Analysis and Applications 29.2 (2011), 259-281.
- Bo, Lijun, Yongjin Wang, and Xuewei Yang. Markov-modulated jumpdiffusions for currency option pricing. Insurance: Mathematics and Economics 46.3 (2010), 461-469.
- [3] Fan, K., Shen, Y., Siu, T. K., & Wang, R. Pricing foreign equity options with regime-switching. Economic Modelling, 37(2014), 296-305.
- [4] Jobert, Arnaud, and Leonard CG Rogers. Option pricing with Markov-modulated dynamics. SIAM Journal on Control and Optimization 44.6 (2006), 2063-2078.
- [5] Li, Jinzhi, and Shixia Ma. Pricing options with credit risk in Markovian regime-switching markets. Journal of Applied Mathematics 2013(2013), 621371, 9 pages.
- [6] Lian, Yu-Min, Jun-Home Chen, and Szu-Lang Liao. Option pricing on foreign exchange in a Markov-modulated, incomplete- market economy. Finance Research Letters 16 (2016), 208-219.
- [7] Papin, Timothee, and Gabriel Turinici. Prepayment option of a perpetual corporate loan: the impact of the funding costs. International Journal of Theoretical and Applied Finance 17.4(2014), 1450028.
- [8] Siu, Tak Kuen, Hailiang Yang, and John W. Lau. Pricing currency options under two-factor Markov-modulated stochastic volatility models. Insurance: Mathematics and Economics 43.3 (2008), 295-302.
- [9] Su, Xiaonan, Wensheng Wang, and Kyo-Shin Hwang. Risk-minimizing option pricing under a Markov-modulated jump- diffusion model with stochastic volatility. Statistics & Probability Letters 82.10 (2012), 1777-1785.
- [10] Swishchuk, Anatoliy, Maksym Tertychnyi, and Robert Elliott. Pricing currency derivatives with Markovmodulated Lvy dynamics. Insurance: Mathematics and Economics 57 (2014), 67-76.
- [11] Wang, W., Jin, Z., Qian, L., and Su, X. Local risk minimization for vulnerable European contingent claims on nontradable assets under regime switching models. Stochastic Analysis and Applications 34.4 (2016), 662-678.
- [12] Yuen, Fei Lung, and Hailiang Yang. Option pricing in a jump-diffusion model with regime switching. ASTIN Bulletin: The Journal of the IAA 39.2 (2009), 515-539.
- [13] Di Masi, Giovanni B., Yu M. Kabanov, and Wolfgang J. Runggaldier. Mean-variance hedging of options on stocks with Markov volatilities. Theory of Probability & Its Applications 39.1 (1995), 172-182.
- [14] Hamilton, James D. A new approach to the economic analysis of nonstationary time series and the business cycle. Econo- metrica: Journal of the Econometric Society (1989), 357-384.
- [15] Heston Stephen L., A Closed-Form Solution for Options with Stochastic Volatility with Applications to Bond and Currency Options, Rev. Finan. Stud., 6(1993), no. 2, 327-343.

- [16] Stéphane Goutte, Amine Ismail, Huyên Pham. Regime-switching Stochastic Volatility Model: Estimation and Calibration to VIX options. 2017. ffhal-01212018v2f
- [17] Black F. and Scholes M., The pricing of options and corporate liability, Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 81, No. 3 (1973), 637-659.
- [18] Siu, Tak Kuen Fair valuation of participating policies with surrender options and regime switching. Insurance Math. Econom. 37 (2005), no. 3, 533–552. (Reviewer: Ali Süleyman Üstünel) 60H30 (60G40 60H10 91B28 91B30)
- [19] Boyle, Phelim; Draviam, Thangaraj. Pricing exotic options under regime switching. Insurance Math. Econom. 40 (2007), no. 2, 267–282. 91B28
- [20] Elliott, Robert J.; Siu, Tak Kuen; Badescu, Alexandru On pricing and hedging options in regime-switching models with feedback effect. J. Econom. Dynam. Control 35 (2011), no. 5, 694–713. (Reviewer: Hsien-Jen Lin) 91G20
- [21] Guo, Xin Information and option pricings. Quant. Finance 1 (2001), no. 1, 38–44. (Reviewer: Dave Furth) 91B28 (91B70)
- [22] Deshpande, Amogh (6-IIS); Ghosh, Mrinal K. (6-IIS) Risk minimizing option pricing in a regime switching market. (English summary) Stoch. Anal. Appl. 26 (2008), no. 2, 313–324. 91B28 (60G44 91B70)
- [23] Mamon, Rogemar S.; Rodrigo, Marianito R. Explicit solutions to European options in a regime-switching economy. Oper. Res. Lett. 33 (2005), no. 6, 581–586. (Reviewer: Jan Kallsen) 91B28
- [24] Chan, Terence. Pricing contingent claims on stocks driven by Lévy processes. Ann. Appl. Probab. 9 (1999), no. 2, 504–528. (Reviewer: Rüdiger Kiesel) 91B28
- [25] Kou, S. G. A jump diffusion model for option pricing. Management Science 48, 1086-1101, (2002).
- [26] Elliott, Robert J.; Siu, Tak Kuen; Chan, Leunglung; Lau, John W. Pricing options under a generalized Markovmodulated jump-diffusion model. Stoch. Anal. Appl. 25 (2007), no. 4, 821–843. (Reviewer: Volkert Paulsen) 60H30 (60G44 60H10 91B28)
- [27] Su, Xiaonan Wang, Wensheng; Hwang, Kyo-Shin Risk-minimizing option pricing under a Markov-modulated jump-diffusion model with stochastic volatilit". Statist. Probab. Lett. 82 (2012), no. 10, 1777–1785. 60H30 (60J75 91B70 91G20)
- [28] Yoshio Miyahara & Alexander Novikov, 2001. "Geometric Lévy Process Pricing Model," Research Paper Series 66, Quantitative Finance Research Centre, University of Technology, Sydney.
- [29] P. Nowak and M. Pawłowski, "Option Pricing With Application of Levy Processes and the Minimal Variance Equivalent Martingale Measure Under Uncertainty," in IEEE Transactions on Fuzzy Systems, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 402-416, April 2017, doi: 10.1109/TFUZZ.2016.2637372.
- [30] Sepp, Artur, Pricing Options on Realized Variance in the Heston Model with Jumps in Returns and Volatility (April 21, 2008). Journal of Computational Finance, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 33-70, 2008
- [31] Figueroa-Lopez, José E. and Mancini, Cecilia, Optimum Thresholding Using Mean and Conditional Mean Square Error (August 7, 2017). Available at SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3047108 or http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3047108
- [32] George J. Jiang, Estimation of Jump-Diffusion Processes Based on Indirect Inference, IFAC Proceedings Volumes, Volume 31, Issue 16, 1998, Pages 385-390, ISSN 1474-6670, https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-6670(17)40510-6.
- [33] Das, Milan & Goswami, Anindya & Rajani, Sharan. (2019). Inference of Binary Regime Models with Jump Discontinuities.

- [34] Abramowitz, Milton, and Irene A. Stegun, eds. Handbook of mathematical functions with formulas, graphs, and mathematical tables. Vol. 55. US Government printing office, 1948.
- [35] Aït-Sahalia, Yacine. Disentangling diffusion from jumps. Journal of financial economics 74.3 (2004): 487-528.
- [36] Bo, Lijun; Yongjin Wang; and Xuewei Yang. Markov-modulated jump-diffusions for currency option pricing. Insurance: Mathematics and Economics 46.3 (2010): 461-469.
- [37] Bulla, Jan; and Ingo Bulla. Stylized facts of financial time series and hidden semi-Markov models. Computational Statistics & Data Analysis 51.4 (2006): 2192-2209.
- [38] Cont, Rama; and Tankov, Peter. Financial modelling with jump processes. Chapman and Hall/CRC, 2003.
- [39] Eraker, Bjørn; Michael Johannes; and Nicholas Polson. The impact of jumps in volatility and returns. The Journal of Finance 58.3 (2003): 1269-1300.
- [40] Jacod, Jean. Asymptotic properties of realized power variations and related functionals of semimartingales. Stochastic processes and their applications 118.4 (2008): 517-559.
- [41] Jobert, Arnaud; and Rogers, Leonard CG. Option pricing with Markov-modulated dynamics. SIAM Journal on Control and Optimization 44.6 (2006): 2063-2078.
- [42] Madan, Dilip B.; Peter P. Carr; and Eric C. Chang. The variance gamma process and option pricing. Review of Finance 2.1 (1998): 79-105.
- [43] Mancini, Cecilia. Non-parametric Threshold Estimation for Models with Stochastic Diffusion Coefficient and Jumps. Scandinavian Journal of Statistics 36 (2009): 270-296.
- [44] Merton, Robert C. Option pricing when underlying stock returns are discontinuous. Journal of financial economics 3.1-2 (1976): 125-144.
- [45] Schreiber, Thomas; and Andreas Schmitz. Surrogate time series. Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena 142.3 (2000): 346-382.
- [46] Theiler, James; and Dean Prichard. Constrained-realization Monte-Carlo method for hypothesis testing. Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena 94.4 (1996): 221-235.
- [47] Theiler, James; Eubank, S.; Longtin, A.; Galdrikian, B.; and Farmer, J. D. Testing for nonlinearity in time series: the method of surrogate data. Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena, (1992) 58(1-4): 77-94.
- [48] Theiler, James; and Dean Prichard. Constrained-realization Monte-Carlo method for hypothesis testing. Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena 94.4 (1996): 221-235.
- [49] Merton, Robert C. Option pricing when underlying stock returns are discontinuous. Journal of Financial economics 3.1-2 (1976): 125-144.
- [50] Milan Kumar Das and Anindya Goswami, 2019. "Testing of binary regime switching models using squeeze duration analysis," International Journal of Financial Engineering (IJFE), World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte. Ltd., vol. 6(01), pages 1-20, March.