# Nonparametric generative modeling for time series via Schrödinger bridge

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# Generative modeling (for time series)

- Given datasets from an (unknown) distribution  $\mu$  (target) of a time series, e.g.
  - Medical data of a patient
  - Renewable energy production
  - Finance: asset/commodity price, ...
- ► The goal is to
  - generate new (or real-looking) samples of  $\mu$ :
    - · Augmented data added to original training data
    - Useful for improving clinical predictions, weather forecast
    - Financial industry: market stress test, market risk measurement, deep hedging
    - Combined with Reinforcement learning → helpful to improve the learning of optimal strategy: Generative Augmented Reinforcement Learning (GARL)



# Generative modeling (GM) techniques

- Several competing methods including
  - Likelihood-based models (2011-): energy-based models (EBM), variational auto-encoders (VAE), normalizing flow models, etc
  - Implicit generative models (2014-): generative adversarial network (GAN)
  - Score-based diffusion models (2020-): emergent class of generative AI models that achieved state-of-the-art performance by outperforming GANs.



but mostly for static data/image.

## Challenges of GM for time series

- A "good" GM for time series data should
  - not only learn the time marginals and the joint distribution
  - learn the joint distribution while preserving temporal dynamics: respect the causality of variables across time

## State-of-the-art generative methods for time series

#### • GAN type methods:

- TIME SERIES GAN (Yoon et al. 19): combination of an *unsupervised adversarial* loss on real/synthetic data and *supervised* loss for generating sequential data
- QUANT GAN (Wiese et al. 20): adversarial generator using temporal convolutional networks
- CAUSAL OPTIMAL TRANSPORT GAN (Xu et al. 20): adversarial generator using the adapted Wasserstein distance for processes
- PCF-GAN (Lou et al. 23): Path characteristic function into GAN
- VOLGAN (Vuletic and Cont 23): Arbitrage-free implied volatility surface
- Neural SDEs: SDE representation of time series with parametric (e.g. NN) coefficients to be trained for fitting with real samples (Remlinger et al. 21, Kidger et al. 21)
- **Signature** embedding of time series: Fermanian (19), Ni et al. (20), Buehler et al. (20), Morrill et al. (20), etc
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- ▶ Most of these GM are parametric and require the training of NN

► We propose here a nonparametric generative model based on Schrödinger bridge, in the spirit of score-based diffusion models, but over a finite horizon without time reversal, and adapted for time series.

#### Outline





#### Reminder on the (classical) Schrödinger bridge (SB) problem

• Entropy optimal transport problem of Schrödinger (1932), see survey in Léonard (14): Given:

- reference measure on path spaces (e.g. Wiener  $\mathbb{W}$ ) over a finite horizon  $\mathcal{T}$
- two distributions  $\mu$ ,  $\nu$  (e.g. data and prior)

find the closest probability measure  $\mathbb{P}$  to the reference w.r.t. Kullback-Leibler divergence, i.e. relative entropy, which admits as marginals:  $\mu$  at time 0 and  $\nu$  at time T.

► Stochastic control formulation by Girsanov's theorem (Dai Pra 1991, Chen et al. 20) Minimize over control process  $\alpha$ 

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[rac{1}{2}\int_0^{\mathcal{T}} |lpha_t|^2 \mathrm{d}t\Big] \qquad ( ext{equal to } \operatorname{KL}(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{W}) \ := \ \int \log rac{\mathrm{d}\mathbb{P}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbb{W}} \mathrm{d}\mathbb{P} \ )$$

subject to

$$\mathrm{d} X_t \quad = \quad \alpha_t \mathrm{d} t + \mathrm{d} W_t, \ \ 0 \leq t \leq T, \qquad X_0 \sim \mu, \quad X_T \sim \nu.$$

# Application of SB to generative modeling

The optimal drift of the SB problem is in feedback form:  $\alpha_t^* = a^*(t, X_t)$  with  $a^*$  characterized in terms of a Schrödinger system, and the solution can be solved numerically by

- Iterative Proportional Fitting (IPF), a.k.a. Sinkhorn algorithm
- Score-based matching: refinement of IPF

 $\rightarrow$  Generative model for sampling  $\mu_{data}$ : recent works by De Bortoli et al. (21-), Vargas et al. (21), Wang et al. (21)

#### Schrödinger bridge time series problem

Let  $\mu \in \mathcal{P}((\mathbb{R}^d)^N)$  be the data time series distribution of some  $\mathbb{R}^d$ -valued process observed at N dates: target time series measure.

• Entropic interpolation of  $\mu$ : : Find a diffusion process X on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  satisfying

$$\mathrm{d}X_t = \alpha_t \mathrm{d}t + \mathrm{d}W_t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, \quad X_0 = 0,$$

with a controlled drift  $\alpha$  minimizing

$$J(lpha) \ := \ \mathbb{E}\Big[rac{1}{2}\int_0^T |lpha_t|^2 \mathrm{d}t\Big]$$

and such that  $(X_{t_1}, \ldots, X_{t_N}) \sim \mu$  (perfect match of the target time series measure), for some time grid  $t_0 = 0 < \ldots < t_i < \ldots < t_N = T$ .

**Remark**: the time grid  $\mathcal{T} = \{t_i : i \in [\![1, N]\!]\}$  for the interpolation of the Schrödinger diffusion may be different from the observed times of the time series.

#### Assumptions

Assume that  $\mu$  admits a density w.r.t. Lebesgue measure on  $(\mathbb{R}^d)^N$ , denoted by misuse of notation:  $\mu(x_1, \ldots, x_N)$ .

Denote by  $\mu_T^W$  the distribution of Brownian motion W on  $\mathcal{T}$ , i.e. of  $(W_{t_1}, \ldots, W_{t_N})$ , hence with density:

$$\mu_{\mathcal{T}}^{W}(x_{1},\ldots,x_{N}) = \prod_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(t_{i+1}-t_{i})}} \exp\Big(-\frac{|x_{i+1}-x_{i}|^{2}}{2(t_{i+1}-t_{i})}\Big).$$

• We assume that the relative entropy of  $\mu$  w.r.t.  $\mu_{\mathcal{T}}^{\mathsf{W}}$  is finite, i.e.

$$(\mathbf{H}) \qquad \qquad \mathrm{KL}(\mu|\mu_{\mathcal{T}}^{W}) \ := \ \int \log \frac{\mu}{\mu_{\mathcal{T}}^{W}} \mathrm{d}\mu \quad < \ \infty.$$

**Remark:** Assumption (H) is satisfied whenever  $\mu$  comes from a process with

- Gaussian noise
- Heavy-tailed distribution but with second moment

# Solution to Schrödinger bridge time series (SBTS)

#### Theorem (Diffusion SBTS)

Under (H), the optimal controlled drift of the SBTS problem is in the **path-dependent** form:

$$lpha^*_t = \mathrm{a}^*(t, X_t; oldsymbol{X}_{t_1:t_i}), \quad t_i \leq t < t_{i+1}, \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1,$$

where we set  $\boldsymbol{X}_{t_1:t_i} := (X_{t_1}, \ldots, X_{t_i})$ , and

$$\mathbf{a}^*(t, x; \mathbf{x}_{1:i}) = \nabla_x \log \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{W}}\Big[\frac{\mu}{\mu_{\mathcal{T}}^W}(X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_N}) \big| \mathbf{X}_{t_1:t_i} = \mathbf{x}_{1:i}, X_t = x\Big],$$

for  $\mathbf{x}_{1:i} = (x_1, \dots, x_i) \in (\mathbb{R}^d)^i$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . Here  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{W}}$  denotes the expectation under which X is a Brownian motion by Girsanov's theorem.

 $\rightarrow$  By construction, the diffusion (called SBTS ) process

$$\mathrm{d} X_t \quad = \quad \mathrm{a}^*(t, X_t; (X_{t_i})_{t_i \leq t}) \mathrm{d} t + \mathrm{d} W_t, \quad X_0 = 0,$$

satisfies  $(X_{t_1}, \ldots, X_{t_N}) \sim \mu$ .

## Application to generative modeling

- Choice of the time grid  $\mathcal{T} = \{t_i : i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket\}$ ,  $\Delta t_i = t_{i+1} t_i$ .
  - When d = 1: calibrate Δt<sub>i</sub> to the (empirical) variance of μ over [t<sub>i</sub>, t<sub>i+1</sub>] (time-changed Brownian motion):

$$\Delta t_i = \operatorname{Var}_{\mu}(X_{i+1} - X_i).$$

- For d > 1: normalize each component of the random vector of the time series by its Std, and then use  $\Delta t_i = 1$ .
- Estimate/learn the Schrödinger drift from samples of  $\mu$ , see next slides
- $\bullet$  Simulate e.g. by Euler scheme the SBTS diffusion  $\rightarrow$ 
  - New samples of  $\mu$  with realizations of  $(X_{t_1}, \ldots, X_{t_N})$
  - Prediction by computing conditional law of X<sub>ti+1</sub> | X<sub>t1:ti</sub>

#### Alternate expression of the Schrödinger drift function

Using Bayes formula, we derive the following expression:

$$a^{*}(t, x; \boldsymbol{x}_{1:i}) = \frac{1}{t_{i+1} - t} \frac{\mathbb{E}_{\mu} \left[ (X_{t_{i+1}} - x) F_{i}(t, x_{i}, x, X_{t_{i+1}}) \big| \boldsymbol{X}_{t_{1}:t_{i}} = \boldsymbol{x}_{1:i} \right]}{\mathbb{E}_{\mu} \left[ F_{i}(t, x_{i}, x, X_{t_{i+1}}) \big| \boldsymbol{X}_{t_{1}:t_{i}} = \boldsymbol{x}_{1:i} \right]}, \quad (1)$$

for  $t \in [t_i, t_{i+1})$ ,  $i = 0, \dots, N-1$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_{1:i} \in (\mathbb{R}^d)^i$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , where

$$F_i(t, x_i, x, x_{i+1}) = \exp\left(-\frac{|x_{i+1} - x|^2}{2(t_{i+1} - t)} + \frac{|x_{i+1} - x_i|^2}{2(t_{i+1} - t_i)}\right).$$

Here  $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[\cdot|\cdot]$  is the (conditional) expectation under  $\mu \to \text{One can then estimate the drift function by relying directly on samples of data distribution <math>\mu$ .

**Remark:** When  $\mu$  is the distribution arising from a Markov chain, then the conditional expectations in (1) (and so the drift function) will depend on the past values  $X_{t_1:t_i} = (X_{t_1}, \ldots, X_{t_i})$  only via the last value  $X_{t_i}$ .

In practice, we can test the Markov property of  $\mu$ , and see to what order we need to condition on the past.

### Kernel estimation of the drift

• Approximate the conditional expectation under  $\mu$  by **nonparametric regression** methods, e.g. kernel:

From data samples  $X_{1:N}^{(m)} = (X_1^{(m)}, \dots, X_N^{(m)})$ ,  $m = 1, \dots, M$  from  $\mu$ , the Nadaraya-Watson estimator of the drift function in (1) is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}(t,x;\boldsymbol{x}_{1:i}) = \frac{1}{t_{i+1}-t} \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M} (X_{i+1}^{(m)}-x)F_i(t,X_i^{(m)},x,X_{i+1}^{(m)})\boldsymbol{\kappa}^i \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{X}_{1:i}^{(m)}-\boldsymbol{x}_{1:i}}{h}\right)}{\sum_{m=1}^{M} F_i(t,X_i^{(m)},x,X_{i+1}^{(m)})\boldsymbol{\kappa}^i \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{X}_{1:i}^{(m)}-\boldsymbol{x}_{1:i}}{h}\right)},$$

for  $\mathbf{x}_{1:i} = (x_1, \ldots, x_i)$ , where  $\mathbf{K}^i$  is a kernel function on  $(\mathbb{R}^d)^i$ , e.g. in multiplicative form:  $\mathbf{K}^i(\mathbf{x}_{1:i}) = \prod_{j=1}^i K(x_j)$ , with K kernel function on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , h > 0 is the bandwith parameter.

Remarks:

- Choice of kernel is not crucial: we take the quartic kernel  $K(x) \propto (1 |x|^2)^2 1_{|x| \leq 1}$
- Choice of bandwith h is more crucial: tradeoff between bias and variance.
- Plug-in estimate of  $a^*$

# SBTS Algorithm

 $N_{\pi}$ : number of uniform steps in Euler scheme between two observation dates  $t_i$ ,  $t_{i+1}$ :

$$t_{k,i}^{\pi} = t_i + k/N_{\pi}, \quad k = 0, \dots, N_{\pi} - 1.$$

#### Algorithm 1: SBTS Simulation

```
Input: data samples of time series (X_1^{(m)}, \dots, X_N^{(m)}), m = 1, \dots, M, and N_{\pi}.

Initialization: initial state x_0 = 0;

for i = 0, \dots, N - 1 do

Initialize state y_0 = x_i;

for k = 0, \dots, N_{\pi} - 1 do

Compute \hat{a}(t_{k,i}^{\pi}, y_k; \mathbf{x}_{1:i}) by kernel estimator;

Sample \varepsilon_k \in \mathcal{N}(0, 1) and compute: y_{k+1} = y_k + \frac{1}{N_{\pi}} \hat{a}(t_{k,i}^{\pi}, y_k; \mathbf{x}_{1:i}) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{\pi}}} \varepsilon_k;

end

Set x_{i+1} = y_{N_{\pi}}.

end

Return: x_1, \dots, x_N an (approximate) sample of \mu
```

 $\rightarrow$  Complexity of order:  $O(MNN_{\pi})$ .

## Outline





### GARCH model

$$\begin{cases} X_{t_{i+1}} = \sigma_{t_{i+1}} \varepsilon_{t_{i+1}} \\ \sigma_{t_{i+1}}^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_{t_i}^2 + \alpha_2 X_{t_{i-1}}^2, \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \end{cases}$$

where  $\alpha_0 = 5$ ,  $\alpha_1 = 0.4$ ,  $\alpha_2 = 0.1$ ,  $\varepsilon_{t_i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1)$ , N = 60.

• Parameters: M = 1000, bandwith h = 0.2,  $N_{\pi} = 100$ Runtime for 1000 generated paths = 100s.



Figure: Samples path of reference GARCH (left) and generator SBTS (right)

#### Metrics for SBST generator vs GARCH model



Figure: Top left: p-value of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the marginals  $X_{t_i}$ . Top right: samples plot of the joint distribution  $(X_{t_1}, X_{t_N})$ .

## A multivariate AR Gaussian model

$$X_{t_{i+1}} = \phi X_{t_i} + \varepsilon_{t_{i+1}}, \quad ext{ with } \quad \varepsilon_{t_i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma \mathbf{1}_d + (1 - \sigma)\mathbb{I}_d),$$

 $\phi \in [0,1]$ : correlation across time steps,  $\sigma \in [-1,1]$ : correlation across the components.

▶ We compute the predictive score: Mean absolute error between conditional mean (from generated model) and the true value:  $\mathbb{E}[X_{t_{i+1}}|X_{t_i}] = \phi X_{t_i}$ .

	Temporal correlation (fixing $\sigma = 0.8$ )			Feature correlation (fixing $\phi = 0.8$ )				
Settings	$\phi = 0.2$	$\phi = 0.5$	$\phi = 0.8$	$\sigma = 0.2$	$\sigma = 0.5$	$\sigma = 0.8$		
Predictive score (lower the better)								
SBTS	$.161 \pm .016$	$.180\pm.026$	$.244\pm.014$	$.325 \pm .052$	$.295 \pm .038$	$ $ .244 $\pm$ .014		
TimeGAN	$.640\pm0.003$	$0.412\pm0.002$	$.251\pm.002$	$.282\pm.005$	$.261\pm.002$	$.251 \pm .002$		

Table: Predictive score for SBTS vs TimeGan

# Fractional Brownian motion

Fractional Brownian motion (FBM) with Hurst index H = 0.1.

• Parameters: M = 1000, N = 60,  $N_{\pi} = 100$ , bandwith h = 0.05. Runtime for 1000 generated paths = 100s.



Figure: Four samples path of reference FBM (left) and generator SBTS (right)

## Metrics for SBST generator vs FBM



Figure: Top: Quadratic variation distribution  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} |X_{t_i+1} - X_{t_i}|^2$  for N = 60. Bottom: Covariance matrix for reference FBM and SBTS

## Estimation of Hurst index

Standard estimator of Hurst index:

$$\hat{H} = rac{1}{2} \Bigg[ 1 - rac{\log \Big( \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |X_{t_{i+1}} - X_{t_i}|^2 \Big)}{\log N} \Bigg].$$

From our generated SBTS with N = 60, we get:

$$\hat{H} = 0.102$$
, Std = 0.003.

## Application to deep hedging on real data sets (SPX)

**Data**: Index prices of SPX from jan. 1, 2010 to jan. 30, 2020, with sliding window of N = 5 days,  $\rightarrow M = 2500$  samples.

• Consider a ATM call option on SPX:  $g(X_T) = (X_T - K)_+$ , and we search for a price  $p^*$  and hedging strategy  $\Delta^*$  minimizing the quadratic criterion (loss function):

$$(p, \Delta) \mapsto \mathbb{E} \Big| \underbrace{p + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \Delta_{t_i}(X_{t_{i+1}} - X_{t_i}) - g(X_T)}_{\text{Pal}} \Big|^2 = \text{replication error}$$

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ho,\Delta) \quad \mapsto \quad \mathbb{E} \Big| \underbrace{p + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \Delta_{t_i}(X_{t_{i+1}} - X_{t_i}) - g(X_T)}_{ ext{PnL}} \Big|^2 = ext{replication error}$$

▶ We parametrize  $\Delta$  by a LSTM network that is trained from synthetic data sets produced by SBTS (10 times more), and we compare the results with real-data sets.



Figure: Procedure of backtest for deep hedging

#### Comparison of the PnL and replication error with real-data and generative SBTS



Figure: Deep hedging PnL distribution from test set

	Premium	Mean PnL	Std PnL
Data	0.0059	-0.0119	0.0124
SBTS	0.0078	-0.0101	0.0114

Table: Price, Mean of PnL and its Std (replication error) on the test set.

# Concluding remarks

- Novel generative model for time series based on Schrödinger bridge (SB) approach:
  - Solution described by a forward stochastic differential equation (SDE) over a finite period, which matchs perfectly the data distribution: bridge between data-driven model and classical diffusion model-based approach.
  - Drift estimated by nonparametric regression, e.g. kernel method: practical and low-cost computationally (plug-in estimate that does not require training of neural networks as in GAN type methods)

• Series of numerical experiments, including financial applications with real-data, to illustrate the performance and accuracy of our generative SBTS.

- Further developments:
  - SBTS model can be enriched to fit more accurately with data time series:
    - diffusion coefficient
    - jump-diffusion process
  - Diffusion SB valued in functional space in view of applications to implied volatility surface generation
  - Kernel method suffer from curse of dimensionality. Alternately, the drift function can be approximated by neural networks, and more precisely with a LSTM architecture.

#### Reference

M. Hamdouche, P. Henry-Labordère, H. Pham. Generative modeling for time series via Schrödinger bridge. SSRN 4412434, arXiv:2304.05093

Code available on Github: https://github.com/hamdouchm/SBTimeSeries