

# Compound Hawkes processes in limit order books

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## 1. Introduction

The Hawkes process (HP) is named after its creator Alan Hawkes (1971, 1974). The HP is a so-called “self-exciting point process” which means that it is a point process with a stochastic intensity which, through its dependence on the history of the process, captures the temporal and cross sectional dependence of the event arrival process as well as the ‘self-exciting’ property observed in empirical analysis. HPs have been used for many applications, such as modeling neural activity, genetics Cartensen (2010), occurrence of crime, bank defaults, and earthquakes.

The most recent application of HPs is in financial analysis, in particular, to model limit order books (e.g., high frequency data on price changes or arrival times of trades). In this paper we study two new Hawkes processes, namely, compound and regime-switching compound Hawkes processes to model the price processes in the limit order books. We prove a law of large numbers and functional central limit theorem (FCLT) for both processes. The latter two FCLTs are applied to limit order books where we use these asymptotic methods to study the link between price volatility and order flow in our two models by using the diffusion limits of these price processes. The volatilities of price changes are expressed in terms of parameters describing the arrival rates and price changes. The general compound Hawkes process was first introduced in Swishchuk (2017) to model a risk process in insurance.

Bowsher (2007) was the first who applied a HP to financial data modeling. Cartea et al. (2011) applied an HP to model market order arrivals. Fillimonov and Sornette (2012) and Fillimonov et al. (2013) apply a HP to estimate the percentage of price changes caused by endogenous self-generated activity, rather than the exogenous impact of news or novel information. Bauwens and Hautsch (2009) use a 5-D HP to estimate multivariate volatility, between five stocks, based on price intensities. We note, that Brémaud et al. (1996) generalized the HP to its nonlinear form. Also, a functional central limit theorem for the nonlinear Hawkes process was obtained in Zhu (2013). The ‘Hawkes diffusion model’ was introduced in Ait-Sahalia et al. (2010) in an attempt to extend previous models of stock prices and include financial contagion. Chavez-Demoulin

et al. (2012) used Hawkes processes to model high-frequency financial data. Some applications of Hawkes processes to financial data are also given in Embrechts et al. (2011).

Cohen et al. (2014) derived an explicit filter for Markov-modulated Hawkes process. Vinkovskaya (2014) considered a regime-switching Hawkes process to model its dependency on the bid-ask spread in limit order books. Regime-switching models for the pricing of European and American options were considered in Buffington and Elliott (2000) and Buffington and Elliott (2002), respectively. A semi-Markov process was applied to limit order books in Swishchuk and Vadori (2017) to model the mid-price. We note, that a level-1 limit order books with time dependent arrival rates  $\lambda(t)$  were studied in Chavez-Casillas et al. (2017), including the asymptotic distribution of the price process. General semi-Markovian models for limit order books were considered in Swishchuk et al. (2017).

The paper by Bacry et al. (2015) proposes an overview of the recent academic literature devoted to the applications of Hawkes processes in finance. The book by Cartea et al. (2015) develops models for algorithmic trading in contexts such as executing large orders, market making, trading pairs or collecting of assets, and executing in dark pool. That book also contains link to a website from which many datasets from several sources can be downloaded, and MATLAB code to assist in experimentation with the data. A detailed description of the mathematical theory of Hawkes processes is given in Liniger (2009). The paper by Laub et al. (2015) provides a background, introduces the field and historical developments, and touches upon all major aspects of Hawkes processes.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives the definitions of a Hawkes process (HP), definitions of compound Hawkes process (CHP) and regime-switching compound Hawkes process (RSCHP). These definitions are new ones from the following point of view: summands associated in a Markov chain but not are i.i.d.r.v. Section 3 contains Law of Large Numbers and diffusion limits for CHP and RSCHP. Numerical examples are presented in Section 4.

## **2. Definitions of a Hawkes process (HP), compound Hawkes process (CHP), and regime-switching compound Hawkes process (RSCHP)**

In this section we give definitions of one-dimensional, compound and regime-switching compound Hawkes processes. Some properties of Hawkes process can be found in the existing literature (see, e.g., Hawkes 1971 and Hawkes and Oakes, 1974, Embrechts et al., 2011, Zheng et al., 2014, to name a few). However, the notions of compound and regime-switching compound Hawkes processes are new.

**2.1. One-dimensional Hawkes process**

**Definition 1 (Counting Process).** A counting process is a stochastic process  $N(t)$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , taking positive integer values and satisfying:  $N(0) = 0$ . It is almost surely finite, and is a right-continuous step function with increments of size +1.

Denote by  $\mathcal{F}^N(t)$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , the history of the arrivals up to time  $t$ , that is,  $\{\mathcal{F}^N(t), t \geq 0\}$ , is a filtration, (an increasing sequence of  $\sigma$ -algebras).

A counting process  $N(t)$  can be interpreted as a cumulative count of the number of arrivals into a system up to the current time  $t$ . The counting process can also be characterized by the sequence of random arrival times  $(T_1, T_2, \dots)$  at which the counting process  $N(t)$  has jumped. The process defined by these arrival times is called a point process (see Daley and Vere-Jones 1988).

**Definition 2 (Point Process).** If a sequence of random variables  $(T_1, T_2, \dots)$ , taking values in  $[0, +\infty)$ , has  $P(0 \leq T_1 \leq T_2 \leq \dots) = 1$ , and the number of points in a bounded region is almost surely finite, then,  $(T_1, T_2, \dots)$  is called a point process.

**Definition 3 (Conditional Intensity Function).** Consider a counting process  $N(t)$  with associated histories  $\mathcal{F}^N(t)$ ,  $t \geq 0$ . If a non-negative function  $\lambda(t)$  exists such that

$$\lambda(t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{E[N(t+h) - N(t) | \mathcal{F}^N(t)]}{h}, \tag{1}$$

then it is called the conditional intensity function of  $N(t)$  (see Laub et al., 2015). We note, that sometimes this function is called the hazard function (see Cox, 1955).

**Definition 4 (One-dimensional Hawkes Process).** The one-dimensional Hawkes process (see Hawkes, 1971 and Hawkes and Oakes, 1974) is a point process  $N(t)$  which is characterized by its intensity  $\lambda(t)$  with respect to its natural filtration:

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda + \int_0^t \mu(t-s) dN(s), \tag{2}$$

where  $\lambda > 0$ , and the response function  $\mu(t)$  is a positive function and satisfies  $\int_0^{+\infty} \mu(s) ds < 1$ .

The constant  $\lambda$  is called the background intensity and the function  $\mu(t)$  is sometimes also called the excitation function. We suppose that  $\mu(t) \neq 0$  to avoid the trivial case, which is, a homogeneous Poisson process. Thus, the Hawkes process is a non-Markovian extension of the Poisson process.

With respect to definitions of  $\lambda(t)$  in (1) and  $N(t)$  (2), it follows that

$$P(N(t+h) - N(t) = m | \mathcal{F}^N(t)) = \begin{cases} \lambda(t)h + o(h), & m = 1 \\ o(h), & m > 1 \\ 1 - \lambda(t)h + o(h), & m = 0. \end{cases}$$

The interpretation of equation (2) is that the events occur according to an intensity with a background intensity  $\lambda$  which increases by  $\mu(0)$  at each new event then decays back to the background intensity value according to the function  $\mu(t)$ . Choosing  $\mu(0) > 0$  leads to a jolt in the intensity at each new event, and this feature is often called a self-exciting feature, in other words, because an arrival causes the conditional intensity function  $\lambda(t)$  in (1)–(2) to increase then the process is said to be self-exciting.

We should mention that the conditional intensity function  $\lambda(t)$  in (1)–(2) can be associated with the compensator  $\Lambda(t)$  of the counting process  $N(t)$ , that is:

$$\Lambda(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(s) ds. \quad (3)$$

Thus,  $\Lambda(t)$  is the unique  $\mathcal{F}^N(t)$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , predictable function, with  $\Lambda(0) = 0$ , and is non-decreasing, such that

$$N(t) = M(t) + \Lambda(t) \quad a.s.,$$

where  $M(t)$  is an  $\mathcal{F}^N(t)$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , local martingale. (This is the Doob-Meyer decomposition of  $N$ .)

A common choice for the function  $\mu(t)$  in (2) is one of exponential decay (see Laub et al. (2015)):

$$\mu(t) = \alpha e^{-\beta t}, \quad (4)$$

with parameters  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ . In this case the Hawkes process is called the Hawkes process with exponentially decaying intensity.

Thus, the equation (2) becomes

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda + \int_0^t \alpha e^{-\beta(t-s)} dN(s), \quad (5)$$

We note, that in the case of (4), the process  $(N(t), \lambda(t))$  is a continuous-time Markov process, which is not the case for the choice (2).

With some initial condition  $\lambda(0) = \lambda_0$ , the conditional density  $\lambda(t)$  in (5) with the exponential decay in (4) satisfies the following stochastic differential equation (SDE):

$$d\lambda(t) = \beta(\lambda - \lambda(t))dt + \alpha dN(t), \quad t \geq 0,$$

which can be solved (using stochastic calculus) as

$$\lambda(t) = e^{-\beta t}(\lambda_0 - \lambda) + \lambda + \int_0^t \alpha e^{-\beta(t-s)} dN(s),$$

which is an extension of (5).

Another choice for  $\mu(t)$  is a power law function:

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda + \int_0^t \frac{k}{(c + (t-s))^p} dN(s) \quad (6)$$

for some positive parameters  $c, k, p$ . This power law form for  $\lambda(t)$  in (6) was applied in the geological model called Omori's law, and used to predict the rate of aftershocks caused by an earthquake.

**Remark 1.** Many generalizations of Hawkes processes have been proposed. They include, in particular, multi-dimensional Hawkes processes (Embrechts et al., 2011), non-linear Hawkes processes (Zheng et al., 2014), mixed diffusion-Hawkes models (Errais et al., 2010), Hawkes models with shot noise exogenous events (Dassios and Zhao, 2011), and Hawkes processes with generation dependent kernels (Mehdad and Zhu, 2011).

### 2.2. Compound Hawkes process (CHP)

In this section we give definitions of compound Hawkes process (CHP) and regime-switching compound Hawkes process (RSCHP). These definitions are new ones from the following point of view: summands are not i.i.d.r.v., as in classical compound Poisson process, but associated in a Markov chain.

**Definition 5 (Compound Hawkes Process (CHP)).** Let  $N(t)$  be a one-dimensional Hawkes process defined as above. Let also  $X_t$  be ergodic continuous-time finite state Markov chain, independent of  $N(t)$ , with space state  $X$ . We write  $\tau_k$  for jump times of  $N(t)$  and  $X_k := X_{\tau_k}$ . The compound Hawkes process is defined as

$$S_t = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(t)} X_k. \tag{7}$$

**Remark 2.** If we take  $X_k$  as i.i.d.r.v. and  $N(t)$  as a standard Poisson process in (10) ( $\mu(t) = 0$ ), then  $S_t$  is a compound Poisson process. Thus, the name of  $S_t$  in (10)-*compound Hawkes process*.

**Remark 3. (Limit Order Books: Fixed Tick, Two-values Price Change, Independent Orders).** If Instead of Markov chain we take the sequence of i.i. d.r.v.  $X_k$ , then (10) becomes

$$S_t = S_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{N(t)} X_k. \tag{8}$$

In the case of Poisson process  $N(t)$  ( $\mu(t) = 0$ ) this model was used in Cont and Larrard (2013) to model the limit order books with  $X_k = \{-\delta, +\delta\}$ , where  $\delta$  is the fixed tick size.

### 2.3. Regime-switching compound Hawkes process (RSCHP)

Let  $Y_t$  be an  $N$ -state Markov chain, with rate matrix  $A_t$ . We assume, without loss of generality, that  $Y_t$  takes values in the standard basis vectors in  $R^N$ . Then,  $Y_t$  has the representation

$$Y_t = Y_0 + \int_0^t A_s Y_s ds + M_t, \tag{9}$$

for  $M_t$  an  $R^N$ -valued  $P$ -martingale (see Buffington and Elliott, 2000 for more details).

**Definition 6 (One-dimensional Regime-switching Hawkes Process).** A one-dimensional regime-switching Hawkes Process  $N_t$  is a point process characterized by its intensity  $\lambda(t)$  in the following way:

$$\lambda_t = \langle \lambda, Y_t \rangle + \int_0^t \langle \mu(t-s), Y_s \rangle dN_s, \quad (10)$$

where  $\langle \lambda, Y_t \rangle$  is an inner product and  $Y_t$  is defined in (12).

**Definition 7 (Regime-switching Compound Hawkes Process (RSHP)).**

Let  $N_t$  be any one-dimensional regime-switching Hawkes process as defined in (13), Definition 6. Let also  $X_n$  be an ergodic continuous-time finite state Markov chain, independent of  $N_t$ , with space state  $X$ . The regime-switching compound Hawkes process is defined as

$$S_t = S_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} X_k, \quad (11)$$

where  $N_t$  is defined in (13).

**Remark 3.** In similar way, as in Definition 6, we can define regime-switching Hawkes processes with exponential kernel, (see (4)), or power law kernel (see (6)).

**Remark 4.** Regime-switching Hawkes processes were considered in Cohen and Elliott (2014) (with exponential kernel) and in Vinkovskaya (2014), (multi-dimensional Hawkes process). Cohen and Elliott (2014) discussed a self-exciting counting process whose parameters depend on a hidden finite-state Markov chain, and the optimal filter and smoother based on observations of the jump process are obtained. Vinkovskaya (2014) considers a regime-switching multi-dimensional Hawkes process with an exponential kernel which reflects changes in the bid-ask spread. The statistical properties, such as maximum likelihood estimations of its parameters, etc., of this model were studied.

### 3. Diffusion limits and LLNs for CHP and RSCHP in limit order books

In this section, we consider LLNs and diffusion limits for the CHP and RSCHP, defined above, as used in the limit order books. In the limit order books, high-frequency and algorithmic trading, order arrivals and cancellations are very frequent and occur at the millisecond time scale (see, e.g., Cont and Larrard 2013, Cartea et al., 2015). Meanwhile, in many applications, such as order execution, one is interested in the dynamics of order flow over a large time scale, typically tens of seconds or minutes. It means that we can use asymptotic methods to study the link between price volatility and order flow in our model by studying the diffusion limit of the price process. Here, we prove functional

central limit theorems for the price processes and express the volatilities of price changes in terms of parameters describing the arrival rates and price changes. In this section, we consider diffusion limits and LLNs for both CHP, sec. 3.1, and RSCHP, sec. 3.2, in the limit order books. We note, that level-1 limit order books with time dependent arrival rates  $\lambda(t)$  were studied in Chavez-Casillas et al. (2017), including the asymptotic distribution of the price process.

### 3.1. Diffusion limits for CHP in limit order books

We consider here the mid-price process  $S_t$  (CHP) which was defined in (10) as,

$$S_t = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(t)} X_k. \tag{12}$$

Here,  $X_k \in \{-\delta, +\delta\}$  is continuous-time two-state Markov chain,  $\delta$  is the fixed tick size, and  $N(t)$  is the number of price changes up to moment  $t$ , described by the one-dimensional Hawkes process defined in (2), Definition 4. It means that we have the case with a fixed tick, a two-valued price change and dependent orders.

**Theorem 1 (Diffusion Limit for CHP).** Let  $X_k$  be an ergodic Markov chain with two states  $\{-\delta, +\delta\}$  and with ergodic probabilities  $(\pi^*, 1-\pi^*)$ . Let also  $S_t$  be defined in (15). Then

$$\frac{S_{nt} - N(nt)s^*}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma \sqrt{\lambda/(1 - \hat{\mu})} W(t), \tag{13}$$

where  $W(t)$  is a standard Wiener process,  $\hat{\mu}$  is given by

$$0 < \hat{\mu} := \int_0^{+\infty} \mu(s) ds < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_0^{+\infty} \mu(s) s ds < +\infty, \tag{14}$$

$$\begin{aligned} s^* &:= \delta(2\pi^* - 1) \quad \text{1em and} \quad \text{1em} \quad \sigma^2 : \\ &= 4\delta^2 \left( \frac{1 - p' + \pi^*(p' - p)}{(p + p' - 2)^2} - \pi^*(1 - \pi^*) \right). \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

Here,  $(p, p')$  are the transition probabilities of the Markov chain  $X_k$ . We note that  $\lambda$  and  $\mu(t)$  are defined in (2).

**Proof.** From (15) it follows that

$$S_{nt} = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)} X_k, \tag{16}$$

and

$$S_{nt} = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)} (X_k - s^*) + N(nt)s^*.$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{S_{nt} - N(nt)s^*}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)}(X_k - s^*)}{\sqrt{n}}. \tag{17}$$

Since  $\frac{S_0}{\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0$ , we have to find the limit for

$$\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)}(X_k - s^*)}{\sqrt{n}}$$

when  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ .

Consider the following sums

$$R_n := \sum_{k=1}^n (X_k - s^*) \tag{18}$$

and

$$U_n(t) := n^{-1/2}[(1 - (nt - \lfloor nt \rfloor))R_{\lfloor nt \rfloor} + (nt - \lfloor nt \rfloor)R_{\lfloor nt \rfloor + 1}], \tag{19}$$

where  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  is the floor function.

Following the martingale method from Swishchuk and Vadori (2015), we have the following weak convergence in the Skorokhod topology (see Skorokhod, 1965):

$$U_n(t) \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma \mathcal{W}_t, \tag{20}$$

where  $\sigma$  is defined in (18), and  $\mathcal{W}_t$  is a standard Brownian motion.

We note that w.r.t LLN for Hawkes process  $N(t)$  (see, e.g., Daley et al. (1988) we have:

$$\frac{N(t)}{t} \rightarrow_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\lambda}{1 - \hat{\mu}} := \bar{\lambda},$$

or

$$\frac{N(nt)}{n} \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{t\lambda}{1 - \hat{\mu}} = \bar{\lambda}t, \tag{21}$$

where  $\hat{\mu}$  is defined in (17).

Using a change of time in (23),  $t \rightarrow N(nt)/n$ , we can find from (23) and (24):

$$U_n(N(nt)/n) \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma \mathcal{W}(t\lambda/(1 - \hat{\mu})),$$

or

$$U_n(N(nt)/n) \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma \sqrt{\lambda/(1 - \hat{\mu})} W(t), \tag{22}$$

where  $W_t = \mathcal{W}_{\lambda t} / \sqrt{\lambda}$ . The Brownian motion  $W(t)$  in (25) is equivalent by distribution to Brownian motion  $\mathcal{W}$  in (23) by scaling property. The result (16) now follows from (20)–(25).

**Remark 5.** In the case of exponential decay,  $\mu(t) = ae^{-\beta t}$  (see (4)), the limit in (16) is  $[\sigma / \sqrt{\lambda / (1 - \alpha / \beta)}] W(t)$ , because  $\hat{\mu} = \int_0^{+\infty} ae^{-\beta s} ds = \alpha / \beta$ .

### 3.2. LLN for CHP

**Lemma 1 (LLN for CHP).** The process  $S_{nt}$  in (19) satisfies the following weak convergence in the Skorokhod topology (see Skorokhod, 1965):

$$\frac{S_{nt}}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} s^* \frac{\lambda}{1 - \hat{\mu}} t, \tag{23}$$

where  $s^*$  and  $\hat{\mu}$  are defined in (18) and (17), respectively.

**Proof.** From (19) we have

$$S_{nt}/n = S_0/n + \sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)} X_k/n. \tag{24}$$

The first term goes to zero when  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ . From the other side, using the strong LLN for Markov chains (see, e.g., Norris, 1997)

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} s^*, \tag{25}$$

where  $s^*$  is defined in (18).

Finally, taking into account (24) and (28), we obtain:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)} X_k/n = \frac{N(nt)}{n} \frac{1}{N(nt)} \sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)} X_k \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} s^* \frac{\lambda}{1 - \hat{\mu}} t,$$

and the result in (26) follows.

**Remark 6.** In the case of exponential decay,  $\mu(t) = ae^{-\beta t}$  (see (4)), the limit in (26) is  $s^* t (\lambda / (1 - \alpha / \beta))$ , because  $\hat{\mu} = \int_0^{+\infty} ae^{-\beta s} ds = \alpha / \beta$ .

### 3.3. Corollary: extension to a point process

The price process  $S$  is expressed as

$$S_t = S_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{N(t)} X_i, \quad t \geq 0,$$

where  $N$  is a point process, and Markov chain  $X_i$  is defined in (10).

**Assumption C1:** As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $N(nt)/n \xrightarrow{Pr} \bar{\lambda} t$ , where  $\bar{\lambda} := \lambda / (1 - \hat{\mu})$ .

Note that if  $N(t) = \max\{n : V_n \leq t\}$ , then  $N(nt)/n \xrightarrow{Pr} \bar{\lambda} t = 1\bar{v}$  iff  $V_n/n \xrightarrow{Pr} \bar{v}$ . This representation is useful in particular for renewal processes where  $V_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \tau_k$ , with the  $\tau_k$  i.i.d. with mean  $\bar{v}$ .

**Assumption C2:**  $U_n(t) \rightsquigarrow W$ , where  $W$  is a Brownian motion, and  $U_n(t)$  is defined in (22).

It then follows from Assumptions C1 and C2 that

$$\begin{aligned} n^{-1/2}\{S_{nt} - S_0 - s^*N(nt)\} &= \sigma U_n(N(nt)/n) \\ &= n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{N(nt)} \{X_i - s^*\} \rightsquigarrow \sigma \sqrt{\bar{\lambda}} W_t, \end{aligned}$$

where  $W$  is a Brownian motion, and  $s^*$  is defined in (18). In fact, for any  $t \geq 0$ ,  $W_t = \mathcal{W}_{\bar{\lambda}t} / \sqrt{\bar{\lambda}}$ .

The limiting variance  $\sigma^2 \bar{\lambda}$  can probably be approximated by summing the square of the increments  $S_{nt_i} - S_{nt_{i-1}} - s^*(N(nt_i) - N(nt_{i-1}))$ . In any cases,  $\bar{\lambda}$  can be easily estimated by  $N(T)/T$ , and  $\sigma$  can be estimated from the distribution of the price increments.

Suppose now that there is also a CLT for the point process  $N$ . More precisely,

**Assumption C3:**  $n^{1/2} \left( \frac{N(nt)}{n} - t\lambda \right) \rightsquigarrow \bar{\sigma} \bar{W}_t$ , where  $\bar{W}$  is a Brownian motion

independent of  $W$ .

Then under Assumptions C1–C3,

$$n^{-1/2}(S_{nt} - n\bar{\lambda}s^*) \rightsquigarrow \tilde{\sigma} \mathbb{W}_t,$$

where  $\mathbb{W} = (\sigma\sqrt{\bar{\lambda}}W + s^*\bar{\sigma}\bar{W})/\tilde{\sigma}$  is a Brownian motion, and

$$\tilde{\sigma} = (\sigma^2 \bar{\lambda} + \{s^*\}^2 \bar{\sigma}^2)^{1/2}.$$

This follows from Assumptions and the fact that

$$n^{-1/2}(S_{nt} - S_0 - n\bar{\lambda}s^*) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{N(nt)} \{X_i - s^*\} + s^* n^{1/2} \left( \frac{N(nt)}{n} - t\lambda \right).$$

**Remark 7.** Assumption C3 is true in many interesting cases. For renewal processes, if  $\sigma_\tau$  is the standard deviation of  $\tau_k$ , then  $\bar{\sigma} = \sigma_\tau \bar{\lambda}^{3/2}$ . This is also true for Hawkes processes (Bacry et al., 2013) with  $\lambda(t) = \lambda_0 + \int_0^t \mu(t-s)dN_s$ , provided  $\hat{\mu} = \int_0^\infty \mu(s)ds < 1$ . Then  $\bar{\lambda} = \frac{\lambda}{1-\hat{\mu}}$  and  $\bar{\sigma} = \sqrt{\bar{\lambda}}/(1-\hat{\mu})$ .

**3.4. Diffusion limits for RSCHP in limit order books**

Consider now the mid-price process  $S_t$  (RSCHP) in the form

$$S_t = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N_t} X_k, \tag{26}$$

where  $X_k \in \{-\delta, +\delta\}$  is continuous-time two-state Markov chain,  $\delta$  is the fixed tick size, and  $N_t$  is the number of price changes up to the moment  $t$ , described by a one-dimensional regime-switching Hawkes process with intensity given by:

$$\lambda_t = \langle \lambda, Y_t \rangle + \int_0^t \mu(t-s) dN_s, \tag{27}$$

(compare with (11), Definition 6).

Here we would like to relax the model for one-dimensional regime-switching Hawkes process, considering only the case of a switching the parameter  $\lambda$ , background intensity, in (20), which is reasonable from a limit order book’s point of view. For example, we can consider a three-state Markov chain  $Y_t \in \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$  and interpret  $\langle \lambda, Y_t \rangle$  as the imbalance, where  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ , represent high, normal and low imbalance, respectively (see Cartea et al., 2015) for imbalance notion and discussion). Of course, a more general case (13) can be considered as well, where the excitation function  $\langle \mu(t), Y_t \rangle$ , can take three values, corresponding to high imbalance, normal imbalance, and low imbalance, respectively.

**Theorem 2 (Diffusion Limit for RSCHP).** Let  $X_k$  be an ergodic Markov chain with two states  $\{-\delta, +\delta\}$  and with ergodic probabilities  $(\pi^*, 1-\pi^*)$ . Let also  $S_t$  be defined in (29) with  $\lambda_t$  as in (30). We also consider  $Y_t$  to be an ergodic Markov chain with ergodic probabilities  $(p_1^*, p_2^*, \dots, p_N^*)$ . Then

$$\frac{S_{nt} - N_{nt}s^*}{\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma \sqrt{\hat{\lambda} / (1 - \hat{\mu})} W(t), \tag{28}$$

where  $W(t)$  is a standard Wiener process with  $s^*$  and  $\sigma$  defined in (18),

$$\hat{\lambda} := \sum_{i=1}^N p_i^* \lambda_i \neq 0, \quad \lambda_i := \langle \lambda, i \rangle, \tag{29}$$

and  $\hat{\mu}$  is defined in (17).

**Proof.** From (29) it follows that

$$S_{nt} = S_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{nt}} X_k, \tag{30}$$

and

$$S_{nt} = S_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{nt}} (X_k - s^*) + N_{nt}s^*,$$

where  $N_{nt}$  is an RGCHP with regime-switching intensity  $\lambda_t$  as in (30). Then,

$$\frac{S_{nt} - N_{nt}s^*}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{S_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{nt}} (X_k - s^*)}{\sqrt{n}}. \tag{31}$$

As long as  $\frac{S_0}{\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0$ , we wish to find the limit of

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{nt}} (X_k - s^*)}{\sqrt{n}}$$

when  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ .

Consider the following sums, similar to (21) and (22):

$$R_n := \sum_{k=1}^n (X_k - s^*) \tag{32}$$

and

$$U_n(t) := n^{-1/2}[(1 - (nt - \lfloor nt \rfloor))R_{\lfloor nt \rfloor} + (nt - \lfloor nt \rfloor)R_{\lfloor nt \rfloor + 1}], \tag{33}$$

where  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  is the floor function.

Following the martingale method from Swishchuk and Vadori (2015), we have the following weak convergence in the Skorokhod topology (see Skorokhod, 1965):

$$U_n(t) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma W(t), \tag{34}$$

where  $\sigma$  is defined in (18).

We note that with respect to the LLN for the Hawkes process  $N_t$  in (34) with regime-switching intensity  $\lambda_t$  as in (30) we have (see Korolyuk and Swishchuk, 1995 for more details):

$$\frac{N_t}{t} \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\hat{\lambda}}{1 - \hat{\mu}},$$

or

$$\frac{N_{nt}}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{t\hat{\lambda}}{1 - \hat{\mu}}, \tag{35}$$

where  $\hat{\mu}$  is defined in (17) and  $\hat{\lambda}$  in (32).

Using a change of time in (37),  $t \rightarrow N_{nt}/n$ , we can find from (37) and (38):

$$U_n(N_{nt}/n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma W(t\hat{\lambda}/(1 - \hat{\mu})),$$

or

$$U_n(N_{nt}/n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sigma \sqrt{\hat{\lambda}/(1 - \hat{\mu})} W(t), \tag{36}$$

The result (31) now follows from (33)–(39).

**Remark 8.** In the case of exponential decay,  $\mu(t) = ae^{-\beta t}$  (see (4)), the limit in (31) is  $[\sigma \sqrt{\hat{\lambda}/(1 - \alpha/\beta)}]W(t)$ , because  $\hat{\mu} = \int_0^{+\infty} ae^{-\beta s} ds = \alpha/\beta$ .

### 3.5. LLN for RSCHP

**Lemma 2 (LLN for RSCHP).** The process  $S_{nt}$  in (33) satisfies the following weak convergence in the Skorokhod topology (see Skorokhod, 1965):

$$\frac{S_{nt}}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} s^* \frac{\hat{\lambda}}{1 - \hat{\mu}} t, \tag{37}$$

where  $s^*$ ,  $\hat{\lambda}$  and  $\hat{\mu}$  are defined in (13), (27) and (12), respectively.

**Proof.** From (33) we have

$$S_{nt}/n = S_0/n + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{nt}} X_k/n, \tag{38}$$

where  $N_{nt}$  is a Hawkes process with regime-switching intensity  $\lambda_t$  in (30).

The first term goes to zero when  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ .

From the other side, with respect to the strong LLN for Markov chains (see, e.g., Norris, 1997)

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} s^*, \tag{39}$$

where  $s^*$  is defined in (18).

Finally, taking into account (38) and (42), we obtain:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N_{nt}} X_k/n = \frac{N_{nt}}{n} \frac{1}{N_{nt}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{nt}} X_k \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} s^* \frac{\hat{\lambda}}{1 - \hat{\mu}} t.$$

The result in (40) follows.

**Remark 9.** In the case of exponential decay,  $\mu(t) = ae^{-\beta t}$  (see (4)), the limit in (40) is  $s^* t(\hat{\lambda}/(1 - \alpha/\beta))$ , because  $\hat{\mu} = \int_0^{+\infty} ae^{-\beta s} ds = \alpha/\beta$ .

#### 4. Numerical examples and parameters estimations

Formula (16) in Theorem 1 (Diffusion Limit for CHP) relates the volatility of intraday returns at lower frequencies to the high-frequency arrival rates of orders. The typical time scale for order book events are milliseconds. Formula (16) states that, observed over a larger time scale, e.g., 5, 10, or 20 minutes, the price has a diffusive behavior with a diffusion coefficient given by the coefficient at  $W(t)$  in (16):

$$\sigma \sqrt{\lambda / (1 - \hat{\mu})}, \quad (40)$$

where all the parameters here are defined in (17)–(18). We mention, that this formula (43) for volatility contains all the initial parameters of the Hawkes process, Markov chain transition and stationary probabilities and the tick size. In this way, formula (43) links properties of the price to the properties of the order flow.

Also, the left hand side of (16) represents the variance of price changes, whereas the right hand side in (16) only involves the tick size and Hawkes process and Markov chain quantities. From here it follows that an estimator for price volatility may be computed without observing the price at all. As we shall see below, the error of estimation of comparison of the standard deviation of the LNS of (16) and the RHS of (16) multiplied by  $\sqrt{n}$  is approximately 0.08, indicating that approximation in (16) for diffusion limit for CHP in Theorem 1, is pretty good.

Section 4.1 below presents parameters estimation for our model using CISCO Data (5 days, 3–7 November 2014 (see Cartea et al., 2015)). Section 4.2 contains the errors of estimation of comparison of of the standard deviation of the LNS of (16) and the RHS of (16) multiplied by  $\sqrt{n}$ . Section 4.3 depicts some graphs based on parameters estimation from Section 4.1. And Section 4.4 presents some ideas of how to implement the regime switching case from Section 3.4.

##### 4.1. Parameters estimation for CISCO data (5 days, 3–7 November 2014 (see Cartea et al., 2015))

We have the following estimated parameters for 5 days, 3–7 November 2014, from Formula (16):

$$\begin{aligned} s^* &= 0.0001040723; 0.0002371220; 0.0002965143; \quad 0.0001263690; 0.0001554404; \\ \sigma &= 1.066708e - 04; 1.005524e - 04; 1.165201e - 04; 1.134621e - 04; \\ &\quad 9.954487e - 05; \\ \lambda &= 0.0323888; 0.02643083; 0.02590728; 0.02530517; 0.02417804; \\ \alpha &= 438.2557; 401.0505; 559.1927; 418.7816; 449.8632; \\ \beta &= 865.9344; 718.0325; 1132.0741; 834.2553; 878.9675; \\ \hat{\lambda} &:= \lambda / (1 - \alpha / \beta) = 0.06560129; 0.059801686; 0.051181133; 0.050801432; 0.04957073. \end{aligned}$$

Volatility Coefficient  $\sigma\sqrt{\lambda/(1-\alpha/\beta)}$  (volatility coefficient for the Brownian Motion in the right hand-side (RHS) of (16)):

0.04033114; 0.04098132; 0.04770726; 0.04725449; 0.04483260.

Transition Probabilities  $p$ :

Day 1:		uu	ud
	0.5187097	0.4812903	
		du	dd
	0.4914135	0.5085865	
Day 2:			
	0.4790503	0.5209497	
	0.5462555	0.4537445	
Day 3:			
	0.6175041	0.3824959	
	0.4058722	0.5941278	
Day 4:			
	0.5806988	0.4193012	
	0.4300341	0.5699659	
Day 5:			
	0.4608844	0.5391156	
	0.5561404	0.4438596	

We note, that stationary probabilities  $\pi_i^*, i = 1, \dots, 5$ , are, respectively: 0.5525; 0.6195; 0.6494; 0.5637; 0.5783. Here, we assume that the tick  $\delta$  size is  $\delta = 0.01$ .

The following set of parameters are related to the the following expression

$$S_{nt} - N(nt)s^* = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)} (X_k - s^*),$$

LHS of the expression in (16) multiplied by  $\sqrt{n}$ .

The first set of numbers are for the 10 minutes time horizon ( $nt = 10$  minutes, for 5 days, the 7 sampled hours, total 35 numbers):

Series 1

[1]24.50981; [2]24.54490; [3]24.52375; [4]24.59209; [5]24.47209; [6]24.57042; [7]24.61063;

[8]24.76987; [9]24.68749; [10]24.81599; [11]24.77026; [12]24.79883; [13]24.80073; [14]24.90121;

[15]24.87772; [16]24.98492; [17]25.09788; [18]25.09441; [19]24.99085; [20]25.18195; [21]25.15721;

[22]25.04236; [23]25.18323; [24]25.15222; [25]25.20424; [26]25.14171; [27]25.18323; [28]25.25348;

[29]25.10225; [30]25.29003; [31]25.28282; [32]25.33267; [33]25.30313; [34]25.27407; [35]25.30438;

The standard deviation (SD) is: 0.2763377. The standard error (SE) for SD for the 10 minutes is: 0.01133634 (for standard error calculations see Casella and Berger, 2002, page 257).

The second set of numbers are for the 5-minute time horizon ( $nt = 5$  minutes, for 5 days, the 7 sampled hours):

**Series 2**

[1]24.49896; [2]24.52906; [3]24.50417; [4]24.53417; [5]24.53500; [6]24.51458; [7]24.55479;  
 [8]24.93026; [9]24.66931; [10]24.74263; [11]24.79358; [12]24.80310; [13]24.84500; [14]24.88405;  
 [15]24.85729; [16]24.98907; [17]25.08085; [18]25.07500; [19]24.99322; [20]25.13381; [21]25.15144;  
 [22]25.15197; [23]25.12475; [24]25.15449; [25]25.18475; [26]25.20348; [27]25.20500; [28]25.25348;  
 [29]25.21251; [30]25.35376; [31]25.30407; [32]25.30469; [33]25.30469; [34]25.27500; [35]25.30469;

The standard deviation for those numbers is: 0.2863928. The SE for SD for the 5 minutes is: 0.01233352.

The third and last set of numbers are for the 20-minute time horizon ( $nt = 20$  minutes, for 5 days, the 7 sampled hours):

**Series 3**

[1]24.48419; [2]24.53970; [3]24.56292; [4]24.57105; [5]24.48938; [6]24.52751; [7]24.50751;  
 [8]24.76465; [9]24.59753; [10]24.82935; [11]24.76552; [12]24.81741; [13]24.75409; [14]24.84077;  
 [15]24.92942; [16]24.99721; [17]25.05551; [18]25.04848; [19]25.08492; [20]25.09780; [21]25.09551;  
 [22]24.95124; [23]25.24222; [24]25.19096; [25]25.18273; [26]25.14070; [27]25.20171; [28]25.26785;  
 [29]25.23013; [30]25.38661; [31]25.32127; [32]25.34065; [33]25.30313; [34]25.25251; [35]25.24972;

The standard deviation is: 0.2912967. The SE for SD for the 20 minutes is: 0.01234808.

As we can see, the SE is approximately 0.01 for all three cases.

## 4.2. Error of estimation

Here, we would like to calculate the error of estimation comparing the standard deviation for

$$S_{nt} - N(nt)s^* = S_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(nt)} (X_k - s^*)$$

and standard deviation in the right-hand side of (16) multiplied by  $\sqrt{n}$ , namely,

$$\sqrt{n}\sigma\sqrt{\lambda/(1-\alpha/\beta)}.$$

We calculate the error of estimation with respect to the following formula:

$$ERROR = (1/m) \sum_{k=1}^m (sd - \hat{sd})^2,$$

where  $\hat{sd} = \sqrt{n}Coef$ , where *Coef* is the volatility coefficient in the right-hand side of equation (16). In this case  $n = 1000$ , and *Coef* = 0.3276.

We take observations of  $S_{nt} - N(tn)s^*$  every 10 min and we have 36 samples per day for 5 days.

Using the first approach with formula above we take  $m = 5$  and for computing the standard deviation “sd” we take 36 samples of the first day. In that case, we have  $ERROR = 0.07617229$ .

Using the second approach with formula above, we take  $m = 36$  and for computing “sd” we take samples of 5 elements (the same time across 5 days). In that case we have

$$ERROR = 0.07980041.$$

As we can see, the error of estimation in both cases is approximately 0.08, indicating that approximation in (16) for diffusion limit for CHP, Theorem 1, is pretty good.

**4.3. Graphs based on parameters estimation for CISCO data  
(5 days, 3–7 November 2014 (Cartea et al., 2015)) from Sec. 4.1**

The following graphs, see Figure 8.2, contain the empirical intensity for the point process for those 5 days versus a simulated path using the above-estimated parameters.

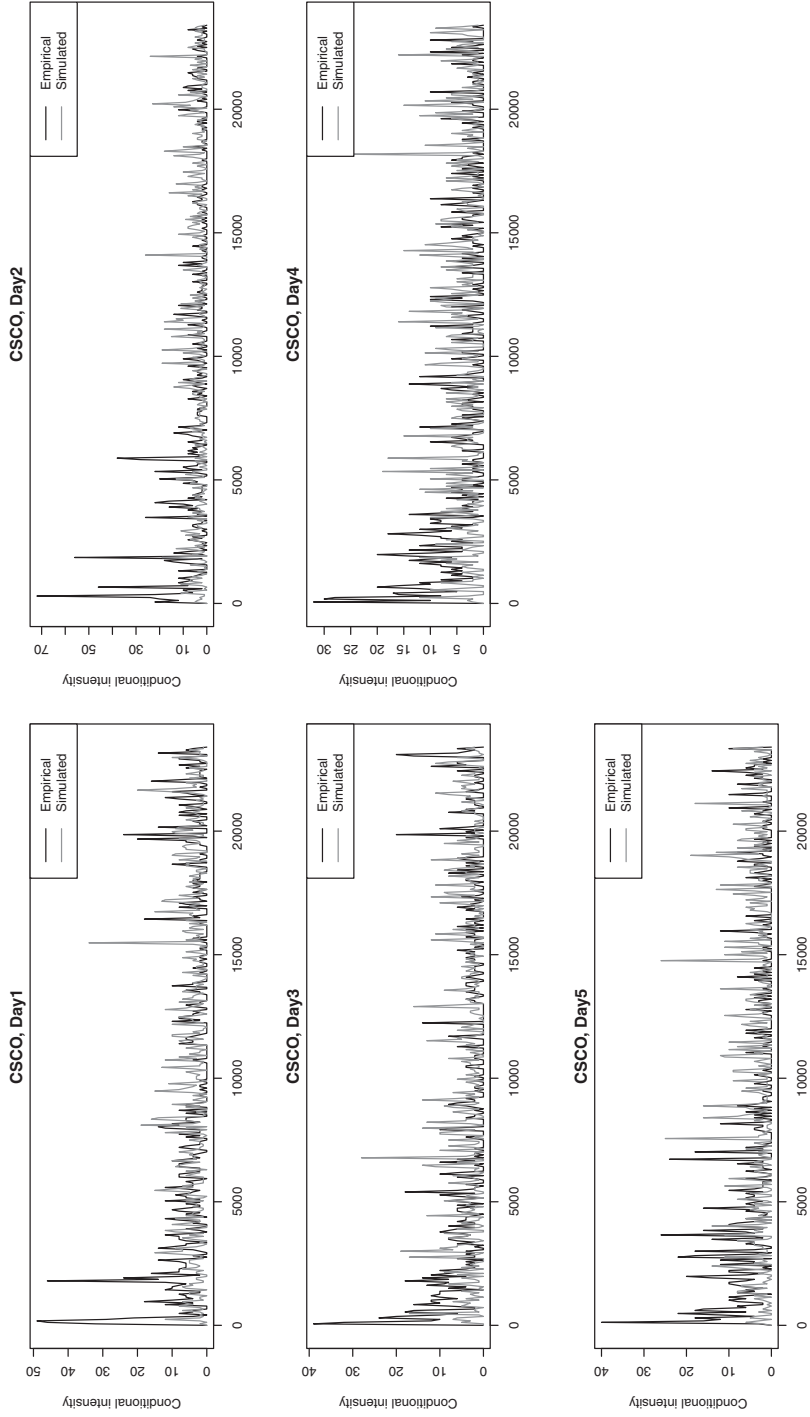
In the next graphs we estimate the left hand-side (LHS) of (16). The time horizon is  $nt = 10$  min. We took the time from which the start time measuring the 10 min. as the independent variable or *x*-axis. The dependent variable or *y*-axis is

$$F(t_0) = (S_{t_0} + S_m - N(tn)s^*)/\sqrt{n}. \tag{41}$$

The following graphs are the same as above but just considering the median of the 1,000 simulations and zoomed in the range so that it is easy to compare. See Figure 8.3.

The next graphs contain information on the quantiles of simulations of the price process according to equation (16). That is, for a fixed big  $n$  and fixed  $t_0$  and  $t$ . We use 1,000 simulations of the process (with the parameters estimated for  $N(t)$ ). The time horizon is a trading day. The first top line is 99 percentile, the next second line is 3 quantile, the third line from the top is the median,

**Empirical Conditional Intensity (events per second) vs Simulated Intensity from Estimated Parameters**



*Figure 8.1* Empirical conditional intensity vs. simulated intensity from estimated parameters

$$\text{Estimation of the quantity } F(t_0) = \left( \frac{S_{t_0} + S_{n1} - N(t_0)s}{\sqrt{t}} \right)$$

for different values of  $t_0$  (in sec) and  $t = 1\text{ms}$ ,  $n=600000$

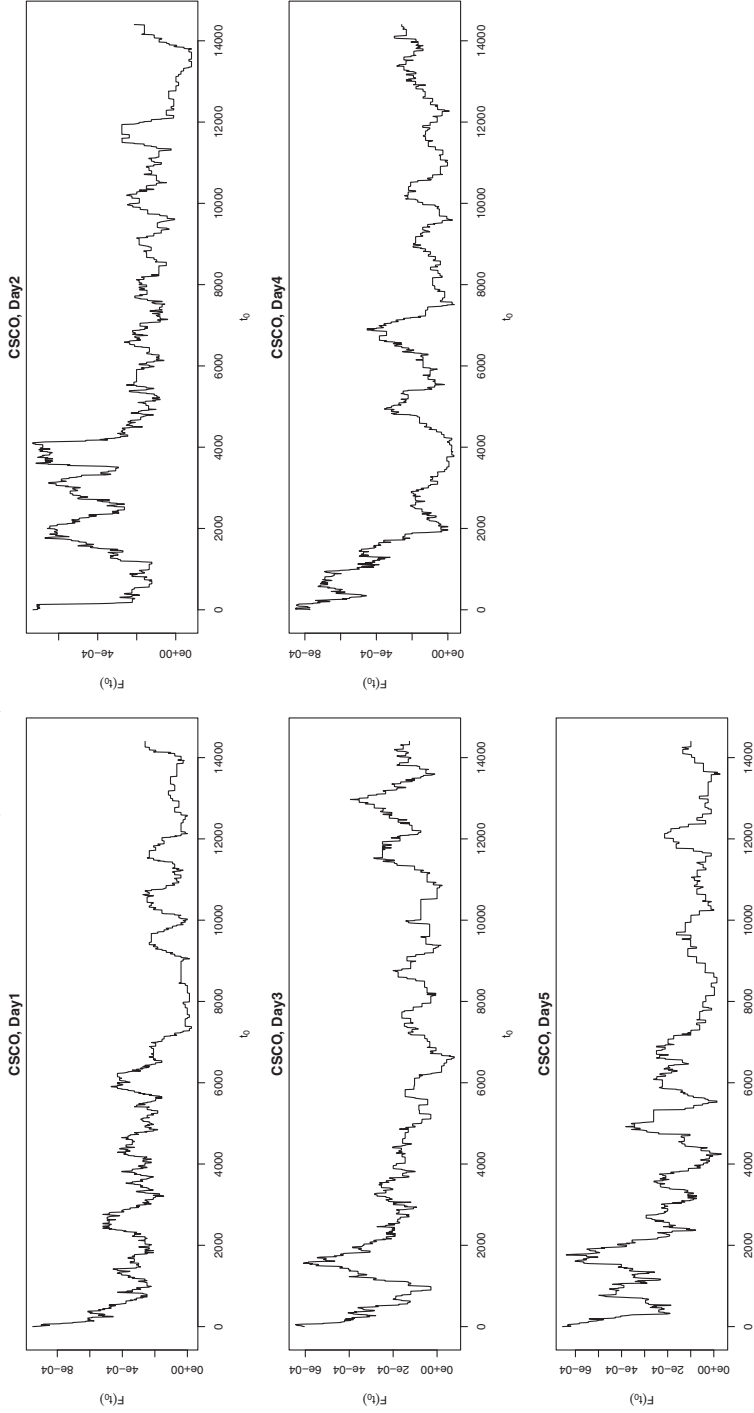


Figure 8.2 Estimation of the quantity  $F(t_0)$  in (41) for different values of  $t_0$  (sec) and  $t$  (msec)

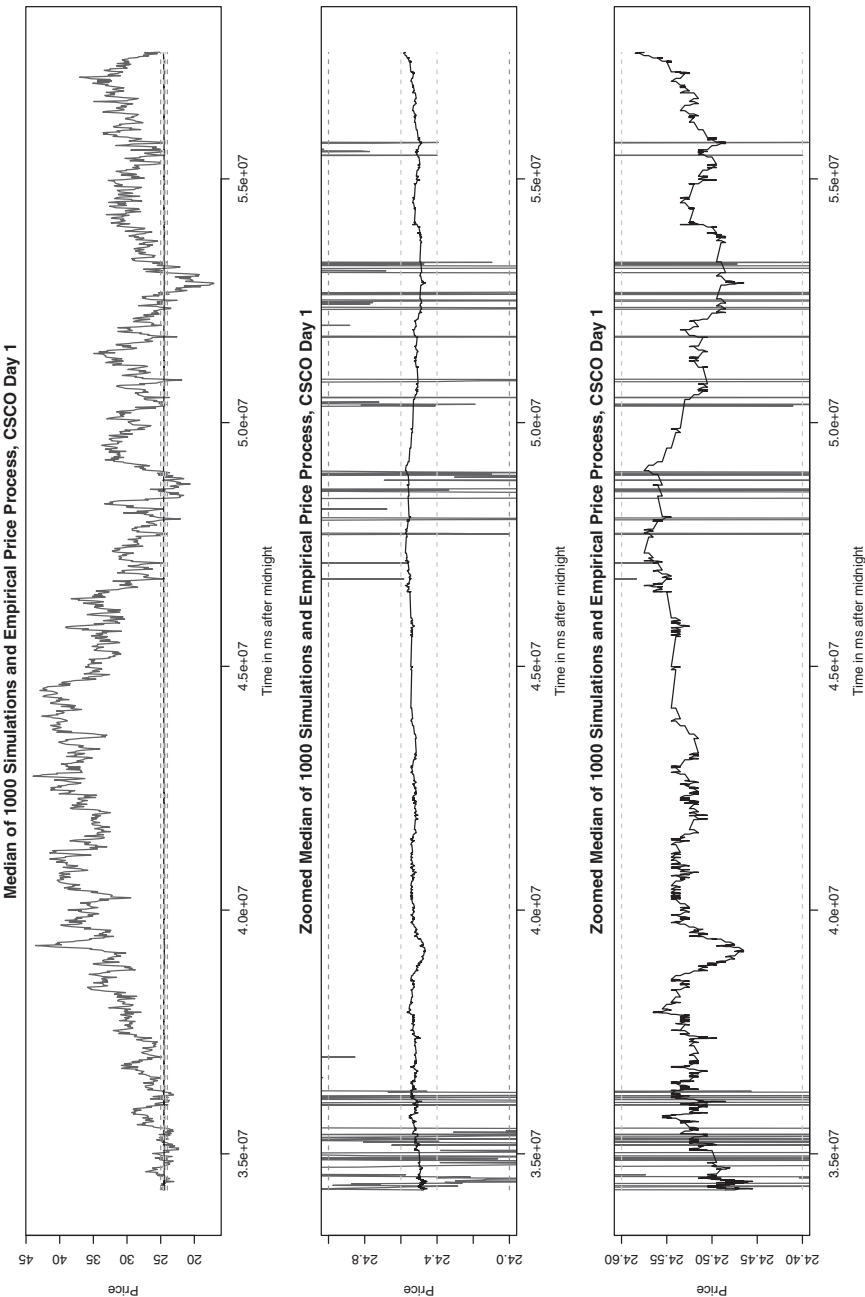


Figure 8.3 Median of 1000 simulations and empirical price process, CSCO, Day 1

the straight fourth line is empirical one, the fifth line from the top is the 1 quantile, and the last line is 1 percentile. See Figure 8.4.

The following graph, see Figure 8.5, is the same as above but the time horizon is 5 minutes (e.g.,  $nt = 5$  minutes now,  $n$  is the same).

The last graph, see Figure 8.6, is the same as above but the time horizon is 60 minutes (e.g.,  $nt = 60$  minutes now,  $n$  is the same).

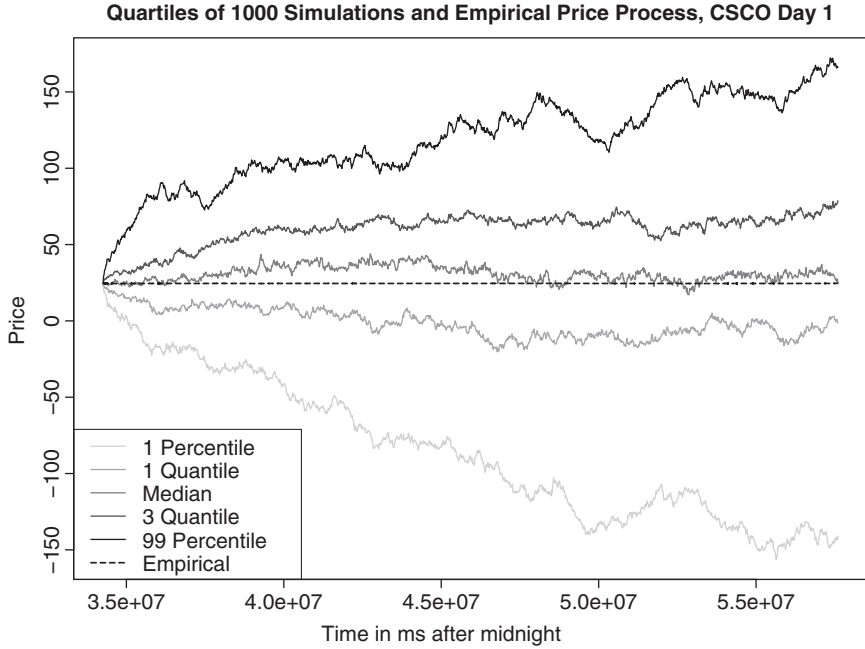


Figure 8.4 Quartiles of 1000 simulations and empirical price process, CISCO, Day 1

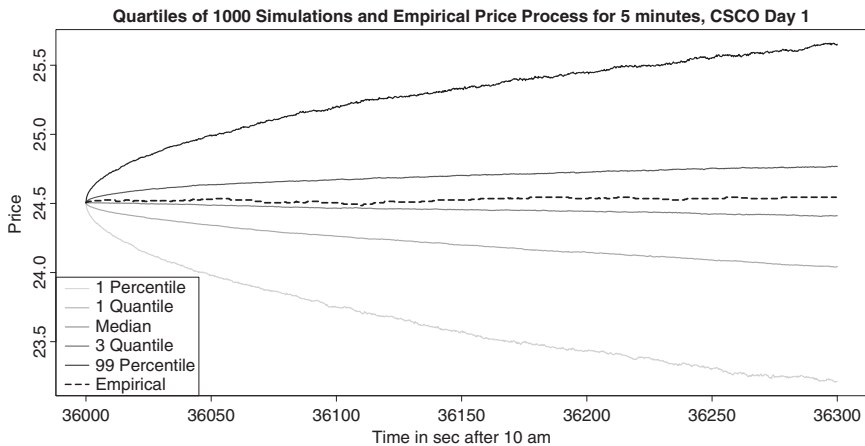


Figure 8.5 Quartiles of 1000 simulations and empirical price process for 5 minutes, CISCO, Day 1

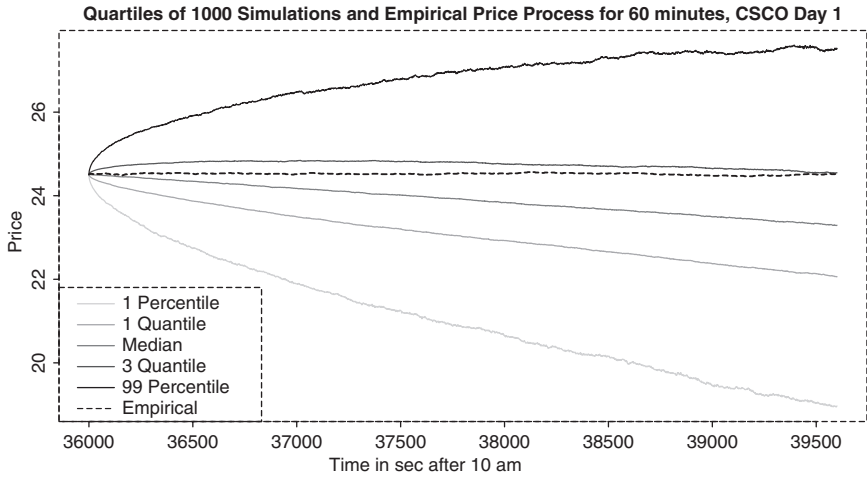


Figure 8.6 Quantiles of 1000 simulations and empirical price process for 60 minutes, CISCO, Day 1

**4.4. Remark on regime-switching case (section 3.4)**

We present here some ideas of how to implement the regime-switching case from Section 3.4. We take a look at the case of two states for intensity  $\lambda$ . The first state is constructed as the intensity that is above the intensities average, and the second state is constructed as the intensity that is below the intensities average. The transition probabilities matrix  $P$  are calculated using the relative frequencies of the intensities, and the stationary probabilities  $\rightarrow p = (p_1, p_2)$  are calculated from the equation  $\rightarrow pP = \rightarrow p$ . Then  $\hat{\lambda}$  can be calculated from formula (32). For example, for the case of 5 days CISCO data we have  $\lambda_1 = 0.03238898$ ,  $\lambda_2 = 0.02545533$  and  $(p_1, p_2) = (0.2, 0.8)$ . In this way, the value for  $\hat{\lambda}$  in (32) is  $\hat{\lambda} = 0.02688$ . As we could see from the data for  $\lambda$  in sec. 4.1 and the latter number, the error does not exceed 0.0055. It means that the errors of estimation for our standard deviations in section 4.2 is almost the same. This is the evidence that in the case of regime-switching CHP the diffusion limit gives a very good approximation as well.

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