THE EULER SCHEME FOR LÉVY DRIVEN STOCHASTIC DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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In relation with Monte Carlo methods to solve some integro-differential equations, we study the approximation problem of $E g(X_T)$ by $E g(X_T^n)$, where $(X_t, 0 \leq t \leq T)$ is the solution of a stochastic differential equation governed by a Lévy process $(Z_t)$. $(X_t^n)$ is defined by the Euler discretization scheme with step $T/n$. With appropriate assumptions on $g(\cdot)$, we show that the error $E g(X_T) - E g(X_T^n)$ can be expanded in powers of $1/n$ if the Lévy measure of $Z$ has finite moments of order high enough. Otherwise the rate of convergence is slower and its speed depends on the behavior of the tails of the Lévy measure.

1. Introduction.

1.1. Objectives. We consider the following stochastic differential equation:

\begin{equation}
X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t f(X_{s-}) \, dZ_s,
\end{equation}

where $X_0$ is an $\mathbb{R}^d$-valued random variable, $f(\cdot)$ is a $d \times r$ matrix-valued function of $\mathbb{R}^d$, and $(Z_t)$ is an $r$-dimensional Lévy process, null at time 0. For background on Lévy processes and stochastic differential equations governed by general semimartingales, we refer to Protter [29]. In this paper, we consider the problem of computing $E g(X_T)$ for a given function $g(\cdot)$ and a fixed nonrandom time $T$.

We have two main motivations. The first one is the numerical solution by Monte Carlo methods of integro-differential equations of the type

\begin{equation}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(t, x) = A u(t, x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \{u(t, x + z) - u(t, x)\} M(x, dz),
\end{equation}

...
where A is an elliptic operator with Lipschitz coefficients and the measure M(x, ·) is defined as follows: let \( \nu \) be a measure on \( \mathbb{R}^r - \{0\} \) such that
\[
\int_{\mathbb{R}^r} (||x||^2 \wedge 1) \nu(dx) < \infty
\]
and let \( f(\cdot) \) be a \( d \times r \) matrix-valued Lipschitz function defined in \( \mathbb{R}^d \); then, for any Borel set \( B \subset \mathbb{R}^d \) whose closure does not contain 0, set
\[
M(x, B) := \nu\{z; (f(x), z) \in B\}.
\]

Our second motivation is the computation of the expectation of functionals of solutions of SDE's arising from probabilistic models, for example, the calculation of the energy of the response of a stochastic dynamical system or the price of a capital asset. Then, obviously the Markovian structure of \( X_t \) is important to develop simple algorithms of simulation; a result due to Jacod and Protter [17] states that, under an appropriate condition on \( f(\cdot) \), the solution of a stochastic differential equation of type (1) is a strong Markov process if and only if the driving noise \( Z_t \) is a Lévy process; this explains our focus on this case.

Below we describe these examples of motivation in further detail.

When \( Z \) is a Brownian motion, Talay and Tubaro [35] have shown that when \( f(\cdot) \) is smooth and if \( (X^n_t) \) is the process corresponding to the Euler scheme with step \( T/n \) (see below for a definition), then for a smooth function \( g(\cdot) \) with polynomial growth, the error \( \mathbb{E} g(X_t) - \mathbb{E} g(X^n_t) \) can be expanded with respect to \( n \):
\[
\mathbb{E} g(X_T) - \mathbb{E} g(X^n_T) = \frac{C}{n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right).
\]

Using the techniques of stochastic calculus of variation, Bally and Talay [1] have shown that the result also holds for any measurable and bounded function \( g(\cdot) \) when the infinitesimal generator of \( X_t \) satisfies a uniform hypoellipticity condition.

Here we follow the strategy of [35]: we suppose that \( g(\cdot) \) has derivatives up to order 4 but we make no assumption on the generator of \( X_t \). The proof used for the Brownian case does not carry through and needs to be adapted. The changes in approach are commented on in detail in Section 4.3. The nature of the results moreover is different. When the jumps of \( Z \) are bounded, the order of convergence \( O(1/n) \) is preserved. When the jumps are unbounded the order of convergence depends on the tail of the Lévy measure of \( Z \). However if the jumps are well behaved, as reflected by the Lévy measure having its first several moments finite, we still have a rate \( 1/n \) of convergence.

The discretization of Brownian driven SDE's has been analyzed in many papers for various convergence criteria; see Talay [34] or Kloeden and Platen [22] for reviews. The case of SDE's driven by discontinuous semimartingales has barely been investigated. Kurtz and Protter [24] have studied the convergence in law of the normalized error for the path by path Euler scheme, and
L" estimates of the Euler scheme error are given by Kohatsu-Higa and Protter [23].

An important point is the numerical efficiency of the Euler scheme compared to other approximation methods of \( \{ X_t \} \). In particular the Euler scheme supposes that one can simulate the increments of the Lévy process \( Z \). Actually, in practical situations, the law of \( Z_t - Z_s \) may be explicitly known: for example, Stuck and Kleiner [32] have proposed a model for telephone noise that could be interpreted as a symmetric stable Lévy process of index \( \alpha \) (they found \( \alpha \approx 1.95 \)). Section 3 presents algorithmic procedures for the simulation of the increments of a class of Lévy processes which are likely to include useful models arising from engineering applications.

In a forthcoming paper we will discuss three important problems related to the present article. First, for more complex situations than those investigated here, it is sometimes possible to approximate the law of \( Z_t - Z_s \) itself, which is desirable in view of simulation problems; we describe the effect of this additional approximation on the convergence rate of the Euler scheme. Second, we will study the convergence rate of another approximation method of \( \{ X_t \} \), based upon the approximation of \( Z \) by a compound Poisson process: this approach allows the consideration of all the cases where one is given the Lévy measure of \( Z \), which probably is more common than those for which one is given the law of the increments of \( Z \) (which generally cannot be easily derived from the Lévy measure). We also compare the numerical efficiency of this procedure to the Euler scheme when both can be used. It is worthwhile nevertheless to announce here that frequently the Euler scheme is the more efficient algorithm (in terms of the number of computations to run to ensure a given accuracy). Finally, we will extend the latter numerical procedure and its error analysis to the case of SDE's driven by diffusion and Poisson random measures, which thus includes Lévy processes.

We make a rather detailed presentation of results which are well known by specialists of Lévy processes but are perhaps not well known in general.

1.2. Motivation. In stochastic finance theory, one of the principal subjects is the capital asset pricing model, which includes a topic of current mathematical interest, namely the fair pricing of options. The standard model is that of Black–Scholes, where the security is assumed to follow a diffusion, which is the solution of an (often taken to be linear) stochastic differential equation driven by a Wiener process and Lebesgue measure. In such a model one wants to evaluate quantities of the form \( \mathbb{E}[f(X_T)] \), where \( X_T \) is the diffusion at a fixed time \( T \), and \( f \) is a known (usually convex) function. When the model is simple enough and \( f \) is simple enough, there are closed form expressions for the above expectation. (Indeed, one can now even purchase hand calculators with the appropriate formulas available by a dedicated button.) While such models are an impressive achievement, the world is more complicated, and models where the security price is allowed to have jumps—both big and small—are desirable. Indeed, a modelling argument can be made that the standard model of a diffusion is incorrect for a variety of
reasons, and that one needs a model that has a large number of small jumps. In the stock market, for example, prices are not continuous but change by units of 12.5c; the stock market closes overnight and on weekends, and opening prices often have jumps. Indeed, the New York Stock Exchange employs specialists to try to smooth out inherently unstable or "jumpy" stock prices. Aside from this, there occur with regularity external shocks, both predictable and totally inaccessible. Predictable ones include earnings announcements, going ex-dividend, scheduled meetings of the Federal Reserve Board to adjust interest rates, and so on. Inaccessible ones include unexpected events such as political assassinations, currency collapses (such as the Mexican peso recently), and national disasters. In the government security market alone there are often substantial jumps related either to central bank intervention or to the release of significant macroeconomic information [26]. Analogous considerations apply in the foreign exchange currency markets and require models with jumps [28].

There are serious problems in the loss of completeness for models with jumps (mathematically this is the martingale representation property), but one can still nevertheless construct arbitrage-free models and attempt a theory of option pricing in the same spirit as the Black–Scholes model. Pioneering work in this direction has already begun (see the work of J. Arrow [20], B. Madan [28], B. Rosenfeld [19], and J. Navas [18], for example), which leads again to the problem of evaluating $\mathbb{E}_X(f(X_t))$, but this time $X$ is the solution of an SDE driven by Lévy processes (which have jumps).

Efforts have been directed at finding closed form solutions (e.g., [19, Section 5]) in analogy to the Black–Scholes paradigm but they are doomed to limited usefulness since in general the laws of $X_T$ and $f(X_T)$ and their means are all unknown. The results in our paper solve that key step, at least in the case where $f$ is somewhat smooth and when one can simulate the increments of the driving Lévy process.

Finally, as regards finance theory, we note that the idea of including Lévy process driven security prices is not new, but goes back at least to 1963 when Mandelbrot [25] and Fama [15] deduced that one needed models with infinite variances; had modern tools been available, a likely construction would have been SDE’s driven by symmetric stable processes.

As a second area of applied motivations, let us consider electrical engineering, and in particular telephone noise. It has long been known that telephone noise is non-Gaussian and that in the short term the noise is modeled by a Lévy process. Indeed, the seminal 1974 article of Stuck and Kleiner [32] proposes modelling telephone noise either by a stable process of index $\alpha$ (empirical data indicate $1.94 \leq \alpha \leq 1.96$), or by a Lévy process containing both jumps and a Wiener component. This second model is suggested by the different sources of noise: the Wiener process comes from thermal noise and "electromagnetic crosstalk," while the jump terms could arise from "switch arcing and thunderstorms" (page 1296). Since the paper was written in 1974, the semimartingale based theory of stochastic differential equations was not yet available, but had it been so, it could have been used to rectify concerns
such as those expressed “over longer time intervals... simple models might be inadequate while... complicated models might be more appropriate.” (See also their discussion on page 1308.) Indeed it is clear that other models proposed to circumvent using SDE’s as models (such as doubly stochastic stable processes) are viewed as unnatural, rather desperate efforts by the authors. Thus it seems reasonable to assume that telephone noise could be modelled as

\[ X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t \sigma(s, X_{s-}) \, dZ_s, \]

where Z is a vector of Lévy processes; either stable processes, or a combination of a Wiener process and a mixture of Poisson processes (i.e., a Lévy process).

It is worth noting that Stuck and Kleiner take the viewpoint of this paper: that is, they consider the model specified if the mean and variance of the Wiener process is specified and the Lévy measure is given (pages 1297–1298) although they do not use these terms. (Indeed, the authors cling to actual Poisson processes rather than Lévy processes—perhaps due to ignorance of the latter—and recognize implicitly their need for general Lévy processes; see page 1312.) In the model (3) above, quantities such as \( \mathbb{E}(f(X_T)) \) can represent the average energy of the system at time T and be important to the design and maintenance of telephone lines.

Another example of a stochastic differential equation driven by a Lévy process comes from the modelling of an infinite capacity dam subject to an additive input process and a general release rule. In a first approximation, the input process is a Lévy process with nonnegative increments Z and the rate of release is \( r(x) \) when the dam content is \( x \), which leads to the following dynamics for the content of the dam:

\[ dX_t = r(X_t) \, dt + dZ_t. \]

From real data, Moran [27] suggests that the Lévy measure of \( Z \) is

\[ \nu(dy) := \frac{\beta}{y} \exp(-\gamma y) \, dy \mathbf{1}_{\{y > 0\}} \]

for some strictly positive constants \( \beta \) and \( \gamma \). While it is usually not possible to determine the law of \( Z \) explicitly from knowledge of \( \nu \), in this case we know that \( Z \) is a gamma process (see Section 3.4). Therefore, \( Z \) has an infinite jump rate. The properties of \( X \) and of its local time, the limit distribution of \( X \), the law of the output process \( (\int_0^t r(X_s) \, ds) \), and so on, have been extensively studied in a series of papers by Çinlar [9, 10] and Çinlar and Pinsky [12, 13]. Nevertheless, the law of \( X_t \) cannot be described explicitly so that a numerical evaluation of statistics of this law (the first moments, \( \mathbb{P}[X_t > a] \) for some \( a > 0 \), etc) is necessary. According to Çinlar [8], a more precise model would likely be of the type

\[ dX_t = r(X_t) \, dt + \sigma(X_t) \, dZ_t, \]

which could permit describing the effects of the dam content to the inputs.
13. Notation. We denote by $\Delta Z_s$ the jump of $(Z_t)$ at time $s$: $\Delta Z_s = Z_s - Z_{s-}$.

The Lévy decomposition of $Z$ is:

$$Z_t = \sigma W_t + \beta t + \int_{\|x\|<1} x(N_t(\omega, dx) - tv(dx)) + \sum_{0<s\leq t} \Delta Z_s \mathbf{1}_{\|\Delta Z_s\| \geq 1}.$$  

For a function $\psi$ defined on $[0,T] \times \mathbb{R}^d$, $\partial_s \psi$ will denote the derivative with respect to the time variable, and $\partial_\alpha \psi$ will denote the derivative with respect to the $\alpha$th space coordinate. In the same way, $\partial_{ss} \psi$ will denote the second derivative of $\psi$ with respect to the time variable, and for a multiindex $I$, $\partial_I \psi$ denotes the derivative with respect to space coordinates.

2. Rate of convergence of the Euler scheme. Let $X$ be the solution of (1) for a given and fixed Lévy process $Z$.

In general, the law of the random variable $X$ is unknown. We propose to discretize (1) in time. Let $T/n$ be the discretization step of the time interval $[0,T]$ and let $(X^n_t)$ be the piecewise constant process defined by $X^n_0 = X_0$ and

$$X^n_{t+1/n} = X^n_{t/n} + f(X^n_{t/n}) (Z^n_{t+1/n} - Z^n_{t/n}).$$

From a practical point of view, this scheme requires that the law of the stationary and independent increments $Z^n_{t+1/n} - Z^n_{t/n}$ can be simulated on a computer. For considerations on this point, see Section 3.

We now state our rate of convergence results. The case where $Z$ has bounded jumps, or even simply where the Lévy measure has all its moments up to $k$ for some $k$ large enough, allows us to relax the assumptions on $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$, and we obtain a faster rate.

For $K > 0$, $m > 0$ and $p \in \mathbb{N} - \{0\}$, set

$$\rho_p(m) := 1 + \|\beta\|^2 + \|\sigma\|^2 + \int_{-m}^{m} \|z\|^2 \nu(dz)$$

$$+ \|\beta\|^p + \|\sigma\|^p + \left(\int_{-m}^{m} \|z\|^2 \nu(dz)\right)^{p/2} + \int_{-m}^{m} \|z\|^p \nu(dz),$$

where $\nu$ is the Lévy measure as in (4), and

$$\eta_{k,p}(m) := \exp(K \rho_p(m)).$$

For $m > 0$ we define

$$h(m) := \nu(\{x; \|x\| \geq m\}).$$

Theorem 2.1. Suppose we make the following hypotheses.

(H1) The function $f(\cdot)$ is of class $C^4$; $f(\cdot)$ and all derivatives up to order 4 are bounded.

(H2) The function $g(\cdot)$ is of class $C^4$; $g(\cdot)$ and all derivatives up to order 4 are bounded.

(H3) $X_0 \in L^4(\Omega)$. 


Then there exists a strictly increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) depending only on \( d, r \) and the \( L^2 \)-norm of the partial derivatives of \( f(\cdot) \) and \( g(\cdot) \) up to order 4 such that, for any discretization step of type \( T/n \), for any integer \( m \),

\[
|E g(X_T) - E g(X^n_T)| \leq 4\|g\|_{L^1}(1 - \exp(-h(m)T)) + \frac{\eta_{K(T),8}(m)}{n}.
\]

Thus, the convergence rate is governed by the rate of increase to infinity of the functions \( h(\cdot) \) and \( \eta_{K(T),8}(\cdot) \). The proof is given in Section 4.

Theorem 2.1 is probably far from being optimal. We include it in order to provide at least some rate estimates for all \( \text{Lévy processes} \). Our main result is Theorem 2.2.

**Theorem 2.2.** Suppose the following hypotheses.

(H1') The function \( f(\cdot) \) is of class \( C^4 \); all derivatives up to order 4 of \( f(\cdot) \) are bounded.

(H2') The function \( g(\cdot) \) is of class \( C^4 \) and moreover \( |\partial_i g(x)| = 0 (\|x\|^m') \) for \( |i| = 4 \) and some \( M' \geq 2 \).

(H3') \( \int_{|x| \geq 1} |x|^\gamma \nu(dx) < \infty \) for \( 2 \leq \gamma \leq M' \) and \( X_0 \in L^{M'}(\Omega) \).

Then there exists an increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) such that, for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} - \{0\} \),

\[
|E g(X_T) - E g(X^n_T)| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),M',4}(\infty)}{n}.
\]

Suppose now that the following hold.

(H1'') The function \( f(\cdot) \) is of class \( C^8 \); all derivatives up to order 8 of \( f(\cdot) \) are bounded.

(H2'') The function \( g(\cdot) \) is of class \( C^8 \) and moreover \( |\partial_i g(x)| = 0 (\|x\|^m') \) for \( |i| = 8 \) and some \( M'' \geq 2 \).

(H3'') \( \int_{|x| \geq 1} |x|^\gamma \nu(dx) < \infty \) for \( 2 \leq \gamma \leq M'' := 2 \max(2M'', 16) \) and \( X_0 \in L^{M''}(\Omega) \).

Then there exists a function \( C(\cdot) \) and an increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) such that, for any discretization step of type \( T/n \), one has

\[
E g(X_T) - E g(X^n_T) = \frac{C(T)}{n} + R^n_T
\]

and \( \sup_n n^2 |R^n_T| \leq \eta_{K(T),M',4}(\infty) \).

The proofs are given in Section 5.

The functions \( C(\cdot) \) and \( K(\cdot) \) depend on \( g(\cdot), f(\cdot) \) and moments of \( X_0 \). They can be described (we do this in the proofs of the theorems in Section 5) in terms of the solution of a Cauchy problem related to the infinitesimal generator of \( (X_t) \) and the derivatives of this solution.
We remark that if the first four (resp. eight) derivatives of \( g(\cdot) \) are bounded, then \( M' = M'' = 0 \). Also, if the Lévy process \( Z \) has bounded jumps and \( X_0 \) is (for example) constant then \( (H3') \) and \( (H3'') \) are automatically satisfied.

The main interest in establishing the expansion in the second half of Theorem 2.2 (compared with just an upper bound for the error) is to be able to apply the Romberg extrapolation technique.

**Corollary 2.3.** Suppose \( (H1''), (H2'') \) and \( (H3'') \). Let \( \bar{X}^{n/2} \) be the Euler scheme with step size \( n/2 \). Then

\[
\left| \mathbb{E} g(X) - \left\{ 2\mathbb{E} \left( \bar{X}^{n/2} \right) - \mathbb{E} g(\bar{X}^{n/2}) \right\} \right| \leq \frac{K(T)}{n^2}.
\]

The result is an immediate consequence of (11). The numerical cost of the Romberg procedure is much smaller than the cost corresponding to schemes of order \( n^{-2} \). See [35] for a discussion and illustrative numerical examples for the case \( Z \) is a Brownian motion.

If \( f(\cdot) \) and \( g(\cdot) \) are smooth enough and \( \nu \) has moments of all orders larger than 2, the arguments used in the proof can also be used to show that, for any integer \( k > 0 \), there exists constants \( C_1, \ldots, C_{k+1} \) such that

\[
\mathbb{E} g(X_T) - \mathbb{E} g(\bar{X}^{n/2}_T) = \frac{C_1}{n} + \frac{C_2}{n^2} + \ldots + \frac{C_k}{n^k} + R_n^0
\]

and \( \sup_n n^{k+1} |R_n^0| \leq C_{k+1} \).

Finally, we underline that no ellipticity condition is required on the infinitesimal generator of \( X \).

**Remark 2.4.** Theorems 2.1 and 2.2 are stated for a vector \( Z = (Z^1, \ldots, Z^n) \) of driving semimartingales where \( Z \) is a Lévy process; however they also remain true if the driving semimartingales are strong Markov processes of a certain type. Indeed, Çinlar and Jacod [11] have shown that up to a random time change every semimartingale Hunt processes can be represented as the solution of a stochastic differential equation driven by a Wiener process, Lebesgue measure, and a compensated Poisson random measure (see [11] Theorem 3.35, page 207). Our situation is more restrictive since we use Lévy processes, themselves semimartingales, rather than random measures. The difference is essentially this: the coefficient for the random measure term is of the form \( k(x, z) \); if \( k(x, z) = f(x)h(z) \) (i.e., if it factors), then the random measure term becomes equivalent to considering Lévy process differentials. We conclude then that a large class of semimartingale Hunt processes (essentially quasi left-continuous strong Markov processes with technical regularity conditions) can be represented as solutions of SDE's driven by Lévy processes. Hence if \( Z \) is such a Hunt process we can write

\[
Z_t = Z_0 + \int_0^t g(Z_{s-}) \, dY_s,
\]
where $Y$ is a (vector) Lévy process and equation (1) can be rewritten

$$X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t f(X_{s-}) g(Z_{s-}) \, dY_s$$

and by passing to a larger system we obtain

$$X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t \hat{f}(X_{s-}) \, dY_s$$

with a new coefficient $\hat{f}(\cdot)$.

**Example 2.5.** Let $\tilde{Z}$ be a real-valued Lévy process with no Brownian part such that its Lévy measure $\nu$ has a finite second moment. Then $\mathbb{E} \tilde{Z}_t$ and $\mathbb{E}(\tilde{Z}_t)^2$ are finite. Set $Z_t := \tilde{Z}_t - \mathbb{E} \tilde{Z}_t$, $f(x) = x$ and $g(x) = x^2$. Assume $X_0 = 1$. An easy calculation shows that

$$\mathbb{E}(X_t)^2 = 1 + \int x^2 \nu(dx) \int_0^t \mathbb{E}(X_s)^2 \, ds, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T,$$

so that

$$\mathbb{E}(X_T)^2 = \exp\left(\int x^2 \nu(dx) T\right).$$

Similarly, one has

$$\mathbb{E}(\overline{X}_T^n)^2 = \left(1 + \frac{T}{n} \int x^2 \nu(dx)\right)^n.$$ 

Thus, the rate of convergence is $1/n$. We conclude that Theorem 2.2 is optimal with respect to the rate of convergence, even with no Brownian component. One cannot a priori hope this example is typical with Lévy processes with finite second moments, since it is the linear (or exponential) case, and thus the derivatives of $\mathbb{E}_x g(X_t)$ are zero for order 3 or higher; indeed, in the proof of Theorem 2.2 one can use this fact to eliminate several terms that effectively slow the rate.

**Example 2.6.** Let $Z$ be a Lévy process which is a compound Poisson process with Lévy measure

$$\nu(dx) = 1_{\mathbb{R}_+}(x) \frac{1}{1 + x^g} \, dx.$$ 

(Thus $\nu$ does not have a finite 8th moment and one cannot apply Theorem 2.2). Theorem 2.1 can still be used however and we have $\rho_g(m)$ is of order $\log(m)$ as $m$ tends to infinity. Also $h(m)$ is of order $1/m^8$. Therefore Theorem 2.1 gives us a rate of convergence

$$\frac{m^{\kappa(T)}}{n} + \frac{1}{m^8}.$$
We are free to choose \( m \) as a function of \( n \), so let \( m = n^\gamma \). The optimal choice of \( \gamma \) is \( 1/(8 + K(T)) \) and we obtain a rate of convergence of \( n^{-8/(8 + K(T))} \), which may be only slightly worse than \( 1/n \). Note, however, that if \( \nu \) were of the form

\[
\nu(dx) = \mathbb{1}_{\mathbb{R}^+}(x) \frac{1}{1+x^8} \, dx,
\]

which of course is farther away from having eight moments, analogous calculations yield a rate of convergence \( 1/(\log(n))^\gamma \) for some \( \gamma > 0 \).

### 3. A discussion on simulation.

If one considers a stochastic differential equation of the type

\[
X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t \sigma(X_s) \, dW_s + \int_0^t b(X_s) \, ds
\]

where \((W_t)\) is a standard Wiener process, then to implement methods of the type considered here (using the Euler scheme) one needs to be able to simulate the increments of the Wiener process \( W_{(k+1)T/n} - W_{kT/n} \). Since the Wiener process has independent increments, this amounts to having to simulate a (finite) i.i.d. sequence of normal random variables, for which efficient methods are well known.

In contrast, simulation problems for equations of type (1) can be formidable. It is perhaps first appropriate to discuss a little what a Lévy process is. By the independence and stationarity of the increments, we can write

\[
Z_1 = \sum_{k=1}^n (Z_{(k+1)/n} - Z_{k/n}),
\]

and thus \( Z_1 \) is the sum of \( n \) i.i.d. random variables for any \( n \). Hence \( Z_1 \) is infinitely divisible (indeed, \( Z_t \) is infinitely divisible for all \( t > 0 \)). Thus knowing Lévy processes can be equated with knowing infinitely divisible distributions. Many familiar classical distributions are infinitely divisible such as the normal, gamma, chi-squared, Cauchy, Laplace, negative binomial, Pareto, logarithmic, logistic, compound geometric, Student, Fisher, and log-normal (that the last three are infinitely divisible is nontrivial; see e.g., [31]). Goldie's theorem [16] allows one to generate such at will: the product \( UV \) of random variables is infinitely divisible if \( U \) is arbitrary but nonnegative, \( V \) is exponential and \( U \) and \( V \) are independent.

From our standpoint, however, it is perhaps more appropriate to deal with Fourier transforms. Indeed, using the Lévy–Khintchine formula (see, e.g., [29]), one can imagine a description of the process \( (Z_t) \) being given in applications by a description of the diffusive constant \( \sigma \), a description of the drift constant \( \beta \) and a description of the behavior of the jumps [remember (4)]. Since the Brownian component \((W_t)\) and the jumps of the Lévy process \( Z \) are independent, we will treat here only the simulation of the jumps. Mathematically speaking, being given a description of the jumps is tantamount to being given the Lévy measure.
3.1. A finite Lévy measure \( \nu \).

The following is well known and elementary, but we include a proof for the sake of completeness.

**Theorem 3.1.** Assume \( Z_t \) is a Lévy process with no Brownian term and no drift term and a finite Lévy measure \( \nu \). Let \( \lambda := \nu(\mathbb{R}^r) \). Then, \( (Z_t) \) is a compound Poisson process with jump arrival rate \( \lambda \) and its jumps have distribution \( \frac{1}{\pi(\lambda)} \).

**Proof.** Due to the independence and stationarity of the increments, the Lévy–Khintchine formula uniquely determines the distribution of the entire process \( Z_t \). We have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\exp(i\langle u, Z_t \rangle)] = \exp(-t\phi(u)),
\]

where, for some \( a \in \mathbb{R}^r \),

\[
\phi(u) := \int_{||x|| \geq 1} (1 - \exp(i\langle u, x \rangle)) \nu(dx) + \int_{||x|| < 1} (1 - \exp(i\langle u, x \rangle) + i\langle u, x \rangle) \nu(dx) + i\langle a, u \rangle.
\]

Let \( (N_t) \) be Poisson with arrival rate \( \lambda \), and let \( T_j (j \in \mathbb{N}) \) be its arrival times. Let \( U_j \) be an i.i.d. sequence with \( \mathbb{E}[U_j] = \mu(dx) = (1/\lambda) \nu(dx) \) and let

\[
M_t^\lambda := \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} U_j \mathbb{I}_{[t \geq T_j]}.
\]

Then

\[
\mathbb{E}[\exp(i\langle u, M_t^\lambda \rangle)] = \sum_k \mathbb{E}[\exp(i\langle u, M_t^\lambda \rangle) | N_t = k] \mathbb{P}(N_t = k)
\]

\[
= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}\left[ \exp\left( i \sum_{j=1}^{k} \langle u, U_j \rangle \right) \right] \mathbb{P}(N_t = k)
\]

\[
= \exp\left( -t \int \left( 1 - \exp(i\langle u, x \rangle) \right) \nu(dx) \right),
\]

and the result follows. \( \square \)

Thus if \( \nu \) is a finite measure, we need only to simulate the increments of compound Poisson processes, and this too is well understood. Let \( (Z_t) \) be a compound Poisson process of the form

\[
Z_t := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} V_i \mathbb{I}_{[t \geq T_i]},
\]
where \( T_i \) are Poison arrival times of intensity \( \lambda \) and \( V_i \) are i.i.d. with law 
\( \mu := (1/\lambda) \nu \). Denote by \( \mu^k \) the \( k \)-fold convolution of \( \mu \). Then

\[
\mathbb{P}(Z_t \in A) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(Z_t \in A \mid N_t = k) \mathbb{P}(N_t = k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu^k(A) e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!}.
\]

Therefore a method to simulate \( Z_t \) is first to simulate \( N_t := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{[T_i \geq t]} \) and get a value \( k \); then simulate a random variable variable with law \( \mu^k \). The problem is reduced to the simulation of random variables having law \( \mu^k \); this is easy when \( \mu \) is Gaussian or Cauchy; in the general case, for example, one can use a rejection method; see [5] or [14]. Observe that, when using the Euler method one wants to simulate \( Z_{(k+1)T/n} - Z_{T/n} \) which is identical in law to \( Z_{T/n} \). Since

\[
\lim_{t \to 0} \frac{1}{\lambda t} \mathbb{P}(N_t \geq z) = 0,
\]

if \( n \) is significantly larger than \( \lambda \), most often to simulate \( Z_{T/n} \) one needs to simulate nothing, or a random variable with distribution \((1/\lambda) \nu\), or rarely a random variable with distribution \(((1/\lambda) \nu)^* \). One needs to simulate \(((1/\lambda) \nu)^* \) for \( k \geq 3 \) almost never.

3.2. A Lévy measure with a countable number of point masses. Here we assume the Lévy measure is of the form

\[
\nu(dx) = \tau(dx) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \delta_{\beta_k}(dx),
\]

where \( \delta_{\beta_k}(dx) \) denotes the point mass at \( \beta_k \in \mathbb{R} \) of size 1; \( \tau(dx) \) is a finite measure on \( \mathbb{R} \) not including any point masses at the \( (\beta_k)_{k \leq 1} \), and also we assume

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \beta_k^2 \alpha_k < \infty.
\]

Note that without loss of generality we can assume \( \beta_k \in [-\delta, \delta] \), all \( k \), for some \( \delta > 0 \), since otherwise we can put the jumps into \( \tau(dx) \). With this assumption the hypothesis (13) is automatically satisfied (and hence redundant) since all Lévy measures \( \nu \) satisfy

\[
\int_{\mathbb{R}} (x^2 \wedge 1) \nu(dx) < \infty.
\]
**Theorem 3.2.** Suppose (12) and (13) with $\tau = 0$. Let $(N_t^k)$ be independent Poisson processes with parameters $\alpha_k$. Then

$$M_t := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \beta_k(N_t^k - \alpha_k t)$$

is a Lévy process with Lévy measure $\nu$.

**Proof.** Let

$$M^n_t := \sum_{k=1}^{n} \beta_k(N_t^k - \alpha_k t).$$

Then $(M^n_t)$ is a square integrable martingale, and

$$\mathbb{E}[ (M^n_t)^2 ] = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \beta_k^2 \alpha_k t.$$

Then $M := \lim_n M^n_t$ exists as a limit in $L^2(\Omega)$, and by Doob's martingale quadratic inequality $\lim_n M^n = M$ in $L^2(\Omega)$, uniformly in $t$ on compacts; moreover $M$ is also a martingale and a Lévy process. Finally note that

$$\mathbb{E}[\exp(iuM_t)] = \lim_n \mathbb{E}[\exp(iuM^n_t)]$$

$$= \lim_n \mathbb{E}[\exp(iu\sum_{k=1}^{n} \beta_k(N_t^k - \alpha_k t))]$$

$$= \lim_n \prod_{k=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}[\exp(iu\beta_k(N_t^k - \alpha_k t))]$$

$$= \lim_n \prod_{k=1}^{n} \exp(-t\phi_k(u)),$$

where

$$\phi_k(u) := \int (\exp(iux) - 1 - iux) \alpha_k e^{\beta_k}(dx).\quad \square$$

**Corollary 3.3.** Suppose (12) and (13) and set

$$\lambda := \int \tau(dx).$$

Then the process $(Z_t)$ has the form

$$Z_t = H_t + J_t,$$

where $(H_t)$ is a compound Poisson process with jumps having law $(1/\lambda)\tau(dx)$ and arrival intensity $\lambda$, and where $(J_t)$ is independent of $(H_t)$ and is of the form

$$J_t := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \beta_k(N_t^k - \alpha_k t)$$

for $(N_t^k)$ independent Poisson processes of intensities $\alpha_k$. 
PROOF. This is simply a combination of Theorems 3.1 and 3.2.

The simulation problems here begin to get a little complicated. Clearly one will have to truncate the infinite series expression for $J_t$. We hope to address these issues in future work.

3.3. Symmetric stable processes. Recall that a real-valued Lévy process $(Z_t)$ is called stable if for every $c > 0$ there exists $a > 0$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that the process $(cZ_t)$ has the same law as the process $(Z_{ct} + bt)$. If one takes $b = 0$ then $(Z_t)$ is strictly stable. It follows from the Lévy–Khintchine formula that if $(Z_t)$ is stable then $a = c^a$, for some $a$, $0 < a < 2$. The constant $a$ thus determines the process and it is called the order of the process. In this case the Lévy measure takes the form

$$\nu(dx) = (m_11_{x < 0} + m_21_{x > 0})|x|^{-(1+a)}dx$$

for $0 < a < 2$, $m_1 \geq 0$ and $m_2 \geq 0$. If $m_1 = m_2$, then $(Z_t)$ is called a symmetric stable process.

If $0 < a < 1$, then the densities of some stable random variables are known explicitly. Indeed, let $p(\cdot, a)$ denote the density on $[0, +\infty)$ of a stable random variable with Laplace transform $\exp(-s^a)$, for $s > 0$. The corresponding Lévy processes are known as stable subordinators, and they have nondecreasing sample paths. Note that if $U_1, \ldots, U_n$ are i.i.d. random variables with density $p(\cdot, a)$ having Laplace transform $\exp(-s^a)$, then $n^{-1/a}\sum_{j=1}^n U_j$ also has density $p(\cdot, a)$, whence $p(\cdot, a)$ is the density of a stable law of index $\alpha$ (cf. page 110 in [30]). In this case for $x \geq 0$, $p(x, a)$ is given by (see [21]):

$$p(x, a) = \frac{1}{\pi} \left( \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \right) \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)^{1/(1-a)}$$

$$\times \int_0^\pi a(z, \alpha) \exp \left( - \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)^{(1-a)} a(z, \alpha) \right) dz,$$

where

$$a(z, \alpha) := \left( \frac{\sin(\alpha z)}{\sin(z)} \right)^{1/(1-a)} \left( \frac{\sin((1-\alpha) z)}{\sin(\alpha z)} \right).$$

THEOREM 3.4. Let $(Z_t)$ be a vector-valued symmetric strictly stable process of index $\alpha$, $0 < \alpha < 2$, and let $\Sigma$ be a symmetric positive matrix such that

$$\mathbb{E}[\exp(i\langle u, Z_t \rangle)] = \exp(-t\langle \Sigma u, u \rangle^a).$$

Then, if $0 < \alpha < 1$,

$$\text{Law}(Z_{t-s} - Z_s) = \text{Law}((t-s)^{1/2}a\sqrt{\Sigma^{1/2}G})$$
where \( \text{Law}(G) = N(0, \Sigma) \), \( V \) is independent of \( G \) and
\[
V = \left( \frac{a(U, \alpha/2)}{L} \right)^{(2-\alpha)/\alpha},
\]
where \( U \) is uniform on \([0, \pi] \), \( L \) is exponential of parameter 1, \( U \) and \( L \) are independent and the function \( a(\cdot, \cdot) \) is given in (15).

**Proof.** It is well known that \( Z_t \) has the representation
\[
(Z_t) = (W_t),
\]
where \( Y \) is a stable subordinator of index \( \alpha/2 \), and \( (W_t) \) is an independent standard Wiener process (see, e.g., page 111 in [30]). As Herman Rubin observed (see Corollary 4.1 of [21], page 703), the function \( p(\cdot, \alpha/2) \) [substitute \( \alpha/2 \) to \( \alpha \) in (14) and observe that \( 0 < \alpha/2 < 1 \)] is the density of \((a(U, \alpha/2)/L)^{(2-\alpha)/\alpha}\) where \( a(\cdot, \cdot) \) is given in (15); \( U \) is uniform on \([0, \pi] \); \( L \) is exponential of parameter 1; \( U \) and \( L \) are independent. Therefore
\[
\text{Law}(Y_t) = \text{Law}\left( (a(U, \alpha/2)/L)^{(2-\alpha)/\alpha} \right),
\]
and by scaling we have
\[
\text{Law}(Y_t) = \text{Law}\left( (t-s)^{-1/\alpha}Y_{t-s} \right) = \text{Law}\left( (t-s)^{-1/\alpha}(Y_t - Y_s) \right).
\]
Since
\[
\text{Law}(Z_t - Z_s) = \text{Law}(W_{t-s} - W_{Y_{t-s}})
= \text{Law}(W_{Y_{t-s}} - W_{s})
= \text{Law}\left( Y_{t-s} - Y_{s} \right)
= \text{Law}\left( \sqrt{Y_{t-s} - Y_{s}} G \right)
= \text{Law}\left( \sqrt{(t-s)^{1/\alpha}} V G \right),
\]
we are done. \( \Box \)

Note that Theorem 3.4 implies that in order to simulate the increments of a strictly stable symmetric process of index \( \alpha \), it is enough to simulate three independent random variables: a Gaussian, an exponential and a uniform.

### 3.4. The case \( \nu(\mathbb{R}) = \infty \)

We have already treated two cases where \( \nu(\mathbb{R}) = \infty \): first, the case where the infinite mass comes only from the contribution of point masses (Section 3.2); and second, the case of symmetric stable processes. In certain cases, one knows what process corresponds to an infinite Lévy measure, and also one knows how to simulate the increments of such a process. Such examples are rare. The most well known is the gamma process: a Lévy process \((Z_t)\) is called a gamma process if
\[
\text{Law}(Z_t) = \Gamma(1, t), \quad \forall \ t > 0.
\]
That is, the law of \( Z_t \) has density
\[
p( x ) = \frac{x^{t-1}e^{-x}}{\Gamma(t)} \mathbb{I}_{x > 0}.
\]

Its characteristic function is
\[
\mathbb{E}[\exp(\mathrm{i} u Z_t)] = \frac{1}{(1 - \mathrm{i} u)^t},
\]
which is clearly infinitely divisible since
\[
\frac{1}{(1 - \mathrm{i} u)^t} = \left( \frac{1}{(1 - \mathrm{i} u)^{\nu/n}} \right)^n, \quad \forall \ n \geq 1.
\]

One can then calculate the Lévy measure to be
\[
\nu(dx) = \frac{1}{x} e^{-x} \mathbb{I}_{x > 0} \, dx.
\]

Thus, reasoning backwards, if one knows
\[
\nu(dx) = \frac{1}{x} e^{-x} \mathbb{I}_{x > 0} \, dx,
\]
one can simulate the increments of \( Z_t \) by simulating gamma random variables. For such random variables many techniques are known. See, for example, page 379 in [4].

4. Proof of Theorem 2.1.

4.1. Preliminary remarks. In order to avoid having to treat the case where \( Z \) reduces to being continuous (which was the case studied in [35]), from now on we suppose the following.

(H0) the discontinuous part of \( Z \) is not the null process.

A naive copy of the arguments in [35] would involve estimates on the moments of the increments of \( Z \) which, were they to hold, would imply by Kolmogorov’s lemma that \( Z \) had continuous paths. Since we are assuming \( Z \) has jumps, such estimates do not exist.

We introduce an intermediate process \( Z^m \) defined by
\[
Z^m_t := Z_t - \sum_{0 < s \leq t} \Delta Z_s \mathbb{I}_{\|\Delta Z_s\| > m}.
\]

Note that \( Z^m \) is a Lévy process (see Theorem 36 of Chapter 1 in [29], e.g.), therefore (see Chapter 6 in [29], e.g.) the process \((X^m_t)\) which is a solution to
\[
dX^m_t = f(X^m_t) \, dZ^m_t
\]
is also a Markov process. Applying the Euler scheme to \((X_t^{m,n})\), we define a discrete time process \((X_t^{m,n})\).

Decompose the global discretization error into three terms:

\[
| \mathbb{E} g(X_T) - \mathbb{E} g(X_T^m) | \leq | \mathbb{E} g(X_T) - \mathbb{E} g(X_T^m) | + | \mathbb{E} g(X_T^m) - \mathbb{E} g(X_T^{m,n}) |
\]

\[
(16) \quad + | \mathbb{E} g(X_T^{m,n}) - \mathbb{E} g(X_T^m) |
\]

\[
= A_1 + A_2 + A_3.
\]

Before bounding from above the \(A_i\)'s, we need some intermediate results. We start by a technical lemma. It appears in a more general setting in [3] with a proof for \(Q = 2\), i an integer, and a slightly different result is proven in [2], page 536. We give a detailed proof here for the sake of completeness. For a result related to the Bichteler–Jacod inequality below, see [6], page 39.

**Lemma 4.1.** Let \(Q\) be a real number with \(Q \geq 2\). Let \(L(Q)\) be the class of \(\text{Levy processes}\) \(L\) such that \(L_0 = 0\) and \(\text{Levy measures} \ \nu_L\) have moments of order \(q\) with \(2 \leq q \leq Q\). Let \(H(Q)\) be the class of predictable processes \(H\) such that

\[
(17) \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ \int_0^T \|H_s\|^Q \, ds \right] < \infty.
\]

For \(L \in L(Q)\) we rewrite (4) as follows:

\[
L_t = \sigma_t \mathcal{W}_t + b_t \cdot t + \int_{\|x\| < 1} x(N_t(\cdot, dx) - t \nu_L(dx)) + \sum_{0 < s \leq t} \Delta L_s \mathbb{1}_{\{||\Delta L|| \geq 1\}}.
\]

There exists an increasing function \(K_Q(\cdot)\) depending on the dimension of \(L\) such that, for any \(L \in L(Q)\), for any \(H \in H(Q)\),

\[
(19) \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} \left| \int_0^t H_s \, dL_s \right|^Q \right] \leq K_Q(T) \left[ \|b_L\|^Q + \|\sigma_L\|^Q + \left( \int \|z\|^2 \nu_L(\cdot) \right)^{Q/2} \right. \left. + \int \|z\|^Q \nu_L(\cdot) \right] \times \int_0^T \mathbb{E} \|H_s\|^Q \, ds.
\]

**Proof.** We give the case for \(L\) one dimensional.

It is clear that without loss of generality we can suppose \(\sigma = 0\) [for Brownian stochastic integrals the inequality (19) is classical]. Since \(\nu_L\) has a second moment, we know that \(\mathbb{E}|L_t|^2 < \infty\). Let \(\beta_t\) be such that \(\mathbb{E} L_t := \beta_t t\). Then \((L_t - \beta_t t)\) is a martingale. For \(L_t = \beta_t t\) the inequality (19) obviously holds. Thus we consider the case \(\beta_t = 0\), that is, \(L\) is a martingale.

In the computations below, the constants \(C_p\) and the functions \(K_p(\cdot)\) vary from line to line.
Choose the integer \( k \) such that \( 2^k \leq p < 2^{k+1} \). Applying Burkholder’s inequality for \( p \geq 2 \), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t H_s \, dL_s \right|^p \leq (4p)^p \mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t |H_s|^2 \, d[L, L]_s \right|^{p/2}.
\]

Set

\[
\alpha_L := \mathbb{E}[L, L]_1 = \mathbb{E}\left\{ \sum_{s \leq 1} (\Delta L_s)^2 \right\} = \int |x|^2 \nu_L(dx) < \infty.
\]

Since \([L, L] \) is also a Lévy process, we have that \([L, L]_t - \alpha_L t \) is also a martingale. Therefore (20) becomes

\[
\mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t H_s \, dL_s \right|^p \leq C_p \mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t |H_s|^2 \, d([L, L]_s - \alpha_L s) \right|^{p/2} + K_p(t) \alpha_L^{p/2} \mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t |H_s|^2 \, ds \right|^{p/2}.
\]

We apply Burkholder’s inequality again to the first term on the right-hand side of (21) to obtain

\[
\mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t H_s \, dL_s \right|^p \leq C_p \mathbb{E}\left( \sum_{s \leq t} |H_s \Delta L_s|^4 \right)^{p/4} + K_p(t) \left( \int |x|^2 \nu_L(dx) \right)^{p/2} \mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t |H_s|^p \, ds \right|.
\]

We continue recursively to get

\[
\mathbb{E}\left| \int_0^t H_s \, dL_s \right|^p \leq C_p \mathbb{E}\left( \sum_{s \leq t} |H_s \Delta L_s|^{2k+1} \right)^{p/2k+1} + K_p(t) \left( \sum_{i=1}^k \left[ \int |x|^2 \nu_L(dx) \right]^{p2^{-i}} \right) \int_0^t |H_s|^p \, ds.
\]

Next we use the fact that, for any sequence \( a \) such that \( \|a\|_q \) is finite, \( \|a\|_1 \leq \|a\|_q \) for \( 1 \leq q \leq 2 \). As \( 1 \leq (p/2^k) < 2 \), we get

\[
\left\{ \sum_{s \leq t} |H_s \Delta L_s|^{2k+1} \right\}^{p/2k+1} \leq \sum_{s \leq t} |H_s \Delta L_s|^p
\]

whence

\[
\mathbb{E}\left( \sum_{s \leq t} |H_s \Delta L_s|^{2k+1} \right)^{p/2k+1} \leq \mathbb{E} \sum_{s \leq t} |H_s \Delta L_s|^p.
\]
Note that $\sum_{s \leq t} |\Delta L_s|^p$ is an increasing, adapted, cadlag process, and its compensator is $t/|x|^p \nu_L(dx)$, which is finite by hypothesis. Since $|H|^p$ is a predictable process,

$$\left( \int_0^t |H_s|^p \, d\left( \sum_{r \leq s} |\Delta L_r|^p - s \int |x|^p \nu_L(d\lambda) \right) \right)$$

is a martingale with zero expectation. Therefore (22) yields

$$\mathbb{E}\left[ \int_0^t H_s \, dL_s \right]^p \leq \left[ C_p \int |x|^p \nu_L(dx) + K_p(t) \sum_{i=1}^k \left( \int |x|^{2i} \nu_L(dx) \right)^{p^{2i-1}} \right] \mathbb{E}\int_0^t |H_s|^p \, ds.$$

It remains to show that, for any $1 \leq i \leq k$,

$$\left( \int |x|^{2i} \nu_L(dx) \right)^{p^{2i-1}} \leq \left( \int |x|^{2i} \nu_L(dx) \right)^{p/2} + \int |x|^p \nu_L(dx).$$

Let $\lambda_L := |x|^2 \nu_L(dx)$, so that

$$\mu_L(dx) := \frac{1}{\lambda_L} |x|^2 \nu_L(dx)$$

is a probability measure. Denote $2^i$ by $q$. One has to show

$$\lambda_L^{p/q} \left( \int |x|^{q-2} \mu_L(dx) \right)^{p/q} \leq \lambda_L^{p/2} + \lambda_L \int |x|^{p-2} \mu_L(dx).$$

If

$$\left( \int |x|^{q-2} \mu_L(dx) \right)^{p/q} \leq \lambda_L^{p/2-p/q},$$

the inequality (23) is obvious. On the other hand, if

$$\lambda_L \leq \left( \int |x|^{q-2} \mu_L(dx) \right)^{2/(q-2)}$$

then it is sufficient to prove that

$$\lambda_L^{p/q-1} \left( \int |x|^{q-2} \mu_L(dx) \right)^{p/q} \leq \int |x|^{p-2} \mu_L(dx).$$

But the bound on $\lambda_L$ and Jensen's inequality give the result. □

The preceding lemma leads to bounds for the derivatives of the flows $x \to X^m(x, t, \omega)$.

**Lemma 4.2.** We assume (H1).

For any multiple index $I$ denote by $\partial_1 X^m_{\cdot}(\cdot, \omega)$ the derivative of order 1 of the flow $x \to X^m_t(x, \omega)$. Then, for any integer $p$, there exists a strictly increasing function $K_p(\cdot)$ such that for any multiindex $I$ with length $|I| \leq 4$,

$$\mathbb{E} \left| \partial_1 X^m(x, t, \omega) \right|^2 \leq \eta_{K_p(|I|)}^2 m.$$
PROOF. Let \( \nu^m \) be the Lévy measure of the process \( Z^m \).

Let \( DX^m_t \) denote the Jacobian matrix of the stochastic flow \( X^m_t(\cdot, \omega) \). (See Theorems 39 and 40 in Chapter 5 of [29], e.g.) It solves:

\[
DX^m_t = \text{Id} + \sum_{\alpha=1}^r \int_0^t \nabla f_{\alpha}(X^m_s) \, DX^m_s \, d(Z^m_s)^\alpha.
\]

Lemma 4.1 shows that there exists an increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) depending only on \( d, r, p \) and the \( L^\infty \)-norm of the first derivatives of \( f(\cdot) \) such that

\[
E[|DX^m_t|] \leq 1 + K(T) \left[ \| \beta \|^2 + \| \sigma \|^2 + \left( \int \| z \|^2 \, d\nu^m(z) \right)^p + \int \| z \|^2 \, d\nu^m(z) \right] \int_0^t E[|DX^m_s|]^{2p} \, ds.
\]

Gronwall’s lemma leads to

\[
E \left[ \sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} |DX^m_s| \right] \leq \eta_{K(T), 2p}(m)
\]

[with a possible change of the function \( K(\cdot) \)].

We then write the stochastic differential system satisfied by the flow \( X^m_t(\cdot, \omega) \) and its derivatives up to order 2. The preceding estimate and a new application of Gronwall’s lemma provide the estimate for \( \| \| = 2 \).

The conclusion is obtained by successive differentiations of the flow. \( \square \)

COROLLARY 4.3. Assume (H1) and (H2).

Set

\[
v^m(t, x) := E_x g(X^m_{T-t}).
\]

Then, there exists an increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) such that for any multiindex \( I \) with \( |I| \leq 4 \),

\[
|\partial_I v^m(t, x)| \leq \eta_{K(T), \partial}(m).
\]

PROOF. For \( I = i \in \{1, \ldots, d\} \) one has

\[
\partial_i v^m(t, x) = E_x \left[ DX^m_{T-t} \partial_i g(X^m_{T-t}) \right]
\]

from which

\[
|\partial_i v^m(t, x)| \leq CE \| DX^m_{T-t} \| \leq C \sqrt{E_x \| DX^m_{T-t} \|^2},
\]

where \( \| \cdot \| \) stands for any of the equivalent norms on the space of \( d \times d \) matrices. Thus, Lemma 4.2 induces (26) for \( |I| = 1 \).

The conclusion is then obtained by successive differentiations from (27). \( \square \)

4.2. An upper bound for \( A_1 + A_3 = \| E g(X_T) - E g(X^m_T) \| + \| E g(X^m_T) - E g(X^m_{T-n}) \| \). The objective of this subsection is to prove the following proposition.
Proposition 4.4. Suppose (H1) and (H2). Then

\( A_1 + A_3 \leq 4\|g\|_{L^\infty(R^d)}(1 - \exp(-h(m)T)) \),

where the function \( h(\cdot) \) is as in (8).

Proof. For \( m > 0 \) define

\( T^m = \inf\{t > 0; \|\Delta Z_t\| > m\} \).

One has, since \( X_t^m = X_t \) for \( t \leq T_m \),

\[
A_1 = \left| \mathbb{E} \left[ (g(X_T) - g(X_T^m)) \mathbb{1}_{[T^m \leq T]} \right] \right| \\
\leq 2\|g\|_{L^\infty(R^d)} \mathbb{P}(T^m \leq T) \\
A_3 = \left| \mathbb{E} \left[ (g(X_T^m) - g(X_T)) \mathbb{1}_{[T^m \leq T]} \right] \right| \\
\leq 2\|g\|_{L^\infty(R^d)} \mathbb{P}(T^m \leq T)
\]

The conclusion follows from the next proposition. \( \Box \)

Proposition 4.5. Let \( L \) be a Lévy process with Lévy measure \( \nu_L \). Set

\( T^m = \inf\{t > 0; \|\Delta L_t\| > m\} \).

For all \( m > 0 \), it holds that

\( \mathbb{P}(T^m > T) = \exp(-T \nu_L\{x; \|x\| \geq m\}). \)

Proof. We recall that \( T \) is a fixed nonrandom time denoting the endpoint of our time interval.

We truncate the jumps of \( L \) from below. For \( m > 0 \) and \( 0 < \delta < 1 \) we define

\[
\hat{\Delta}^m_t := \sum_{0 \leq s < t} \Delta L_s \mathbb{1}_{[\|\Delta L_s\| > \delta m]}.
\]

Set

\( \hat{T}^m := \inf\{t > 0; \|\hat{\Delta}^m_t\| > m\} \).

Then,

\( \mathbb{P}(T^m > T) = \mathbb{P}(\hat{T}^m > T) \).

Theorem 3.1 implies that \( \hat{\Delta}^m_t \) is a compound Poisson process with jump arrival rate

\[
\lambda^m := \nu_L\{x; \|x\| \geq \delta m\}.
\]

We set

\[
\hat{\Delta}^m_t := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} U^m_i \mathbb{1}_{[T^m_i \leq t]}
\]

and

\[
N^m_t := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{[T^m_i \leq t]}.
\]
Thus $N^{\delta m}$ is a standard Poisson process with arrival rate $\lambda^{\delta m}$. Set

$$a^{\delta m} := P[\|U_1^{\delta m}\| \leq m] = \frac{1}{\lambda^{\delta m}} \nu_L(x; \delta m \leq \|x\| \leq m).$$

Thus,

$$P[T^m > T] = \sum_k P\left( \bigcap_{i=1}^k \|U_i^{\delta m}\| \leq m \bigg| N_t^{\delta m} = k \right) P[N_t^{\delta m} = k]$$

$$= \sum_k P\left( \bigcap_{i=1}^k \|U_i^{\delta m}\| \leq m \right) \exp(-\lambda^{\delta m}T) \frac{(\lambda^{\delta m}T)^k}{k!}$$

$$= \exp(-\lambda^{\delta m}T) \sum_k \frac{(\lambda^{\delta m}T)^k}{k!}$$

$$= \exp(-\lambda^{\delta m}T (1 - \alpha^{\delta m}))$$

$$= \exp(-TV_L(x; \|x\| \geq m)),$$

which is independent of the choice of $\delta$. □

Note that in this subsection the boundedness of the function $g(\cdot)$ was essential. This is not surprising: except when the jumps of $Z$ are bounded or have finiteness properties reflected by $\nu$ having finite moments, in general the law of $X_T$ has no moments. A contrario we will not use the boundedness of $g(\cdot)$ to bound $A_2$ from above.

4.3. An upper bound for $A_2 = |E g(X_T^m) - E g(X_T^{m,n})|$. The objective of this section is to prove the following

**Proposition 4.6.** Assume (H1), (H2) and (H3) hold.

Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \geq 1$ and $p \in \mathbb{N}$. Then for some increasing function $K(\cdot)$ depending only on $X_0$, the dimensions $d, r$ and on the $L^\infty$-norm of the partial derivatives of $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$ up to order 4, one has

$$\forall (m, n) \in (\mathbb{N} - \{0\}) \times (\mathbb{N} - \{0\}),$$

$$A_2 = |E g(X_T^m) - E g(X_T^{m,n})| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T), \delta}(m)}{n},$$

(31)

where the function $\eta_{K(T), \delta}(\cdot)$ is as in (7).

**Proof.** It is useful (see [33], [35]) to modify the original approximation problem in the estimation of the difference $E v^m(T, X_T^m) - E v^m(T, X_T^{m,n})$ in terms of

$$E v^m(T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}^m) - E v^m(T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}^{m,n}),$$

where the function $\eta_{K(T), \delta}(\cdot)$ is as in (7).
It can be checked using the Meyer–Itô formula that the function \( v^m(t, \cdot) \)
defined in (25) solves
\[
(\partial_0 + A^m) v^m(t, x) = 0, \quad 0 \leq t < T,
\]
\[
v^m(T, \cdot) = g(\cdot),
\]
where \( A^m \) is the infinitesimal generator of the process \( (X^m_t) \); \( A^m \) is like the
operator in the right side of (2) with \( \nu^m \) instead of \( \nu \).

In view of (32), \( \partial_{00} v^m(t, x) = A^m(\partial_0 v^m(t, x)) \), so that, by (26),
\[
\|\partial_{00} v^m(t, x)\|_{L^\infty([0,T]\times \mathbb{R}^d)} \leq \eta_{K(T),\beta}(m).
\]

Therefore, one has
\[
\mathbb{E} v^m(T, X^m_T) = \mathbb{E} v^m(T - T/n, \bar{X}^m_{T/n}) + \frac{T}{n} \mathbb{E} \partial_0 v^m(T - T/n, \bar{X}^m_{T/n})
\]
\[
+ R_{T - T/n}^m
\]
\[
= \mathbb{E} v^m(T - T/n, \bar{X}^m_{T/n}) - \frac{T}{n} \mathbb{E} A^m v^m(T - T/n, \bar{X}^m_{T/n})
\]
\[
+ R_{T - T/n}^m
\]
with
\[
|R_{T - T/n}^m| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),\beta}(m)}{n^2}.
\]

We now are going to expand the right side of (33) around \( \bar{X}^m_{T - T/n} \) in order
to prove:
\[
\mathbb{E} v^m(T, X^m_T) = \mathbb{E} v^m(T - T/n, \bar{X}^m_{T - T/n}) + S_{T - T/n}^m
\]
with
\[
|S_{T - T/n}^m| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),\beta}(m)}{n^2}.
\]

If \( Z^m \) were a Brownian motion, this could be done by simply making a Taylor
expansion using the fact that, for \( p > 1, \mathbb{E}|W_t - W_{T - T/n}|^{2p} \) is smaller than
\( n^{-2} \). In the general case, this does not apply: any moment of \( Z^m_{T - T/n} - Z^m_{T - T/n} \)
is of order \( 1/n \) (otherwise \( Z \) would of necessity have continuous paths by
Kolmogorov’s lemma). We proceed in a different way, using the Markov
property of \( Z^m \).

Let \( Z^m \) denote the Lévy process \( (Z^m_{s+T - T/n} - Z^m_{T - T/n}) \), \( 0 \leq s \leq T/n \) and
let \( G^m \) denote its infinitesimal generator. For any function \( \psi(\cdot) \) of class
\[ \mathbb{E} \psi(\tilde{Z}_{T/n}^m) = \psi(0) + \int_0^{T/n} \mathbb{E} \tilde{G}^m \psi(\tilde{Z}_{s}^m) \, ds \]
\[ = \psi(0) + \sum_{i} \beta_i \int_0^{T/n} \mathbb{E} \partial_i \psi(\tilde{Z}_{s}^m) \, ds \]
\[ + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} (\sigma \sigma^*) \int_0^{T/n} \mathbb{E} \partial_{ij} \psi(\tilde{Z}_{s}^m) \, ds \]
\[ + \mathbb{E} \int_0^{T/n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left( \psi(\tilde{Z}_{s}^m + y) - \psi(\tilde{Z}_{s}^m) - \sum_{i} \partial_i \psi(\tilde{Z}_{s}^m) y_i 1_{|y| \leq 1} \right) \nu^m(dy) \, ds. \]

(34)

Now, each subexpression of the right side of the above equality is considered as a function of \( \tilde{Z}_{s}^m \) and, supposing that \( \psi(\cdot) \) is of class \( \mathcal{C}_d(\mathbb{R}^d) \), we make a first-order Taylor expansion around 0; remembering the definition (6), we observe that

(35) \[ \| \mathbb{E} \tilde{Z}_{s}^m \| \leq s \left( \| \beta \| + \int_{|z| \leq m} \| z \| \nu(dz) \right) \leq \rho_2(m) s \]

and that

(36) \[ \mathbb{E} \| \tilde{Z}_{s}^m \|^2 \leq \rho_2(m)(s + s^2). \]

We thus obtain

(37) \[ \mathbb{E} \psi(\tilde{Z}_{T/n}^m) = \psi(0) + \frac{T}{n} \tilde{G}^m(0) + \tilde{R}^m, \]

with

(38) \[ \mathbb{E} |\tilde{R}^m| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),2}(m)}{n^2} \sum_{1 \leq |i| \leq 4} \| \partial_i \psi \|_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} \]

for some increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) uniform with respect to \( \psi(\cdot), \beta, \sigma, \nu \) and \( n \).

Choose

\[ \psi^m(z) := v^m(T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}^m + f(X_{T-T/n}^m)z). \]

This function \( \psi^m(\cdot) \) of course is of class \( \mathcal{C}_d(\mathbb{R}^d) \) as a consequence of the hypotheses, and (37) can be used. We get

(39) \[ \mathbb{E} v^m(T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}^m) = \mathbb{E} v^m(T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}^m) \]
\[ + \frac{T}{n} \mathbb{E} A^m v^m(T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}^m) + R_{T-T/n}^m \]
with [we use (26)]
\[
\mathbb{E}|\bar{R}^{m,n}_{T - T/n}| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),z}(m)}{n^2} \sum_{1 \leq |\xi| \leq 4} \|\partial_1 v^m(T - T/n, \cdot)\|_{L^2(R^n)} \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),z}(m)}{n^2}.
\]

We now come back to (33), use (39), make a first-order Taylor expansion around 0 of
\[
z \to A^m v^m(T - T/n, \bar{x}^{m,n}_{T - T/n} + f(\bar{x}^{m,n}_{T - T/n}) z)
\]
and use (35), (36). We obtain
\[
\mathbb{E} v^m(T, \bar{x}^{m,n}_T) = \mathbb{E} v^m(T - T/n, \bar{x}^{m,n}_{T - T/n}) + S^{m,n}_{T - T/n}
\]
with
\[
|S^{m,n}_{T - T/n}| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),z}(m)}{n^2}.
\]

Proceeding in the same way to expand \(\mathbb{E} v^m(T - T/n, \bar{x}^{m,n}_{T - T/n})\) around \(\mathbb{E} v^m(T - 2T/n, \bar{x}^{m,n}_{T - 2T/n})\), and so on, one finally gets
\[
\mathbb{E} g(\bar{x}^{m,n}_T) = \mathbb{E} v^m(T, \bar{x}^{m,n}_T) = \mathbb{E} v^m(0, X^m_0) + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} S^{m,n}_{kT/n}
\]
\[
= \mathbb{E} v^m(0, X^m_0) + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} S^{m,n}_{kT/n}
\]
\[
= \mathbb{E} v^m(T, X^m_T) + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} S^{m,n}_{kT/n}
\]
\[
= \mathbb{E} g(X^m_T) + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} S^{m,n}_{kT/n},
\]
with
\[
|S^{m,n}_{kT/n}| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),z}(m)}{n^2}.
\]

Thus, one has
\[
|\mathbb{E} g(X^m_T) - \mathbb{E} g(\bar{x}^{m,n}_T)| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T),z}(m)}{n^2}.
\]

5. Proof of Theorem 2.2.

5.1. Preliminary remarks. We start by two lemmas. The following lemma is given in [3] in a more general context. Because of its importance for our results, we include it here.
Lemma 5.1. Let \( p \in \mathbb{N} \), \( p \geq 2 \). Suppose that \( f(\|z\|) \in \mathbb{D}(dz) < \infty \) and that \( f(\cdot) \) is Lipschitz. Then the solution \( X \) of (1) is in \( L^p(\Omega) \) and

\[
E \left[ \sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} \| X_s \|^p \right] \leq \eta_{K(\cdot), p}(\infty) (1 + E\|X_0\|^p).
\]

Proof. We know by the general theory (see, e.g., [29]) that equation (1) has a solution and it is unique. Let \( X \) denote the solution with the convention \( X_{0-} = 0 \) and define

\[ T^k := \inf \{ t > 0; \| X_t \| > k \}. \]

Let

\[ X_{t+}^k := X_{t+} \mathbb{1}_{T < T^k} + X_{T} I_{t \geq T^k}. \]

Then \( X_{t+}^k = X \) on \( [0, T^k) \cap \{ \| X_0 \| \leq k \} \) and moreover the \( T^k \)'s are increasing with \( \lim_{k \to \infty} T^k = \infty \) a.s.

The hypothesis on \( f \) allows us to apply Lemma 4.1 to deduce

\[
E \left[ \sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} \| X_{s}^k \|^p \right] = C_p \left( E \left[ \sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} \left\| \int_0^s f(X_{s-}^k) dZ_s \right\|^p \right] + E\|X_0\|^p \right)
\]

\[
\leq \rho_p(\infty) \int_0^T E \left[ \| f(X_{s-}^k) \|^p \right] ds + C_p E\|X_0\|^p,
\]

where the right side is finite, because \( \| X_{t+}^k \| \leq k \), and \( f(\cdot) \) is continuous. Since \( f(\cdot) \) is Lipschitz,

\[
\| f(X_{s-}^k) \| \leq C(\| f(0) \| + \| X_{s-}^k \|)
\]

and applying Gronwall’s lemma we have

\[
E \left[ \sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} \| X_{s}^k \|^p \right] \leq \eta_{K(\cdot), p}(\infty) (1 + E\|X_0\|^p).
\]

The right side is independent of \( k \), so Fatou’s lemma gives the result. \( \square \)

In view of the preceding lemma, our proof of Corollary 4.3 can be rewritten to get:

Corollary 5.2. Assume (H1'), (H2') and (H3') [resp. (H2") and (H3")].

Set

\[
\nu(t, x) := E_x g \left( X_{T-t} \right).
\]

Then there exists an increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) such that for any multiindex \( I \) with \( |I| \leq 4 \) (resp. 8),

\[
| \partial_I \nu(t, x) | \leq \eta_{K(\cdot), M}(1 + \| x \|^M)
\]

with \( M = \max(2M', 2|I|) \) [resp. \( M = \max(2M" , 2|I|) \)].
Lemma 5.3. Assume that \( \|z\|^{2p} \nu(dz) < \infty \) for some integer \( p \geq 1 \) and that \( f(\cdot) \) is Lipschitz. Then there exists an increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) such that, uniformly in \( n \) one has
\[
\max_{0 \leq k \leq n} \mathbb{E} \| X_{kT/n} \|^{2p} \leq \eta_{K(T), 2p}(\infty) (1 + \mathbb{E} \| X_0 \|^{2p}).
\]

Proof. For \( p = 1 \), one has
\[
\mathbb{E} \| X_{k+1T/n} \|^{2} \leq \mathbb{E} \| X_{kT/n} \|^{2} + \mathbb{E} f \left( X_{kT/n} \right) (Z_{k+1T/n} - Z_{kT/n})^{2}.
\]

The Lévy–Khintchine formula provides an analytical expression for the characteristic function of \( Z_{T/n} \); since \( Z_{T/n} \) has moments of orders up to \( 2p \), differentiation under the integral sign of \( \int (1 - \exp(i \langle u, x \rangle) + i \langle u, x \rangle) \mathbb{I}_{\|x\| \leq 1} \nu(dx) \) permits the computation of these moments. Under (H1), one can then check that
\[
\mathbb{E} \| X_{k+1T/n} \|^{2} \leq \mathbb{E} \| X_{kT/n} \|^{2} + \frac{C \rho_{2p}(\infty) T^{2}}{n}
\]
for some constant \( C \) depending only on \( f(\cdot) \). One then sums over \( k \) to obtain the result for \( p = 1 \). One then proceeds by induction. \( \Box \)

We are now in a position to prove (10).

5.2. Proof of (10). In this section we suppose (H1'), (H2') and (H3'). We follow the guidelines of Section 4.3.

Let \( \tilde{Z} \) denote the Lévy process \( (Z_{s+T-T/n} - Z_{T-T/n}, 0 \leq s \leq T/n) \) and let \( \tilde{G} \) denote its infinitesimal generator. Consider functions \( \psi \) in \( C_{c}^{4}(\mathbb{R}^{d}) \) such that
\[
\sum_{1 \leq \| \cdot \| \leq 4} |\tilde{\partial}_{i} \psi(z)| \leq C_{\psi}(1 + \|z\|^{M_{\psi}})
\]
for some positive real number \( C_{\psi} \) and some integer \( M_{\psi} \geq 2 \). Consider Dynkin's formula (34) with \( \tilde{Z} \) instead of \( \hat{Z}^{m} \) and \( \nu \) instead of \( \nu^{m} \). Make a Taylor expansion to get the approximate Dynkin formula, similar to (37):
\[
\mathbb{E} \psi \left( Z_{T/n} \right) = \psi(0) + \frac{T}{n} \tilde{G} \psi(0) + \tilde{R}^{n},
\]
with
\[
\mathbb{E} |\tilde{R}^{n}| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T), M_{\psi}}(\infty)}{n^{2}}
\]
and furthermore the increasing function \( K(\cdot) \) is uniform with respect to \( \beta, \sigma, \nu \) and \( n \), and depends on \( \psi(\cdot) \) only through the constants \( C_{\psi} \) and \( M_{\psi} \) appearing in (45).

Choose
\[
\psi(z) := \sqrt[4]{T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}^{n} + f \left( X_{T-T/n}^{n} \right) z}.
\]
This function $\psi(\cdot)$ is of class $C^4(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and satisfies (45) with $M_* = M^* = \max(2M', 8)$ [remember that $M^*$ appears in (H3') and use (43)]. Thus (37) can be used. We get

$$
\mathbb{E} \nu(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) = \mathbb{E} \nu(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_{T-T/n}) \\
+ \frac{T}{n} \mathbb{E} A
u(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_{T-T/n}) + R^\nu_{T-T/n}
$$

(47)

with [we use (43) and (44)]

$$
\mathbb{E} |R^\nu_{T-T/n}| \leq \frac{\eta_{k(T), M^\nu}(\infty)}{n^2}
$$

Proceeding as in (40) with $X^n$ instead of $X^{m,n}$ and $\nu(\cdot, \cdot)$ instead of $\nu^m(\cdot, \cdot)$, we deduce

$$
|\mathbb{E} g(X_T) - \mathbb{E} g(X^\nu_T)| \leq \frac{\eta_{k(T), M^\nu}(\infty)}{n}
$$

for any function $g(\cdot)$ satisfying the hypothesis (H2').

5.3. Proof of (11). To obtain the expansion of the Euler scheme error (11), we must now refine the strategy. From now on, we suppose (H1'), (H2'), (H3').

It can be checked using the Meyer–Itô formula that the function $\nu(t, \cdot)$ defined in (42) solves

$$
(\partial_0 \nu + A) \nu(t, x) = 0, \quad 0 \leq t < T, \\
\nu(T, \cdot) = g(\cdot),
$$

(48)

where $A$ is the infinitesimal generator of the process $(X_t)$ [see (2)].

In view of (48), $\partial_{00} \nu(t, x) = -A \circ A \circ A \nu(t, x)$. The estimate (43) shows that, for an increasing function $K(\cdot)$,

$$
|\partial_{00} \nu(t, x)| \leq \eta_{k(T), M^\nu}(\infty)(1 + ||x||^{M^\nu}),
$$

where $M^\nu = 2M + 12$.

Instead of (33), we now write:

$$
\mathbb{E} \nu(T, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) = \mathbb{E} \nu(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) + \frac{T}{n} \mathbb{E} \partial_0 \nu(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) \\
+ \frac{T^2}{2n^2} \mathbb{E} \partial_{00} \nu(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) + R^\nu_T
$$

(49)

$$
= \mathbb{E} \nu(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) - \frac{T}{n} \mathbb{E} A \nu(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) \\
+ \frac{T^2}{2n^2} \mathbb{E} A(A
u(T - T/n, \mathbb{X}^\nu_T) + R^\nu_T
$$
with [we use (44)]

\[ |R^n_\| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T), M^*(\infty)}}{n^3}. \]

In order to expand the right side of (33) around \( \bar{X}^n_{T - T/n} \), we need an approximate Dynkin formula more precise than (37).

Suppose that \( \psi(\cdot) \) is of class \( C^8(\mathbb{R}^d) \) and that

\[ \sum_{1 \leq |i| \leq 6} |\partial_i(\bar{z})| \leq C_\psi(1 + \|z\|^{M_\psi}) \]

for some positive real number \( C_\psi \) and some integer \( M_\psi \). Apply Dynkin’s formula twice:

\[ \mathbb{E}\psi(\bar{Z}_{T/n}) = \psi(0) + \frac{T}{n} \bar{G}\psi(0) + \int_0^{T/n} \int_0^s \mathbb{E}\bar{G} \circ \hat{G}\psi(\bar{Z}_\theta) d\theta ds. \]

We make a Taylor expansion of \( Z_\phi \) around 0; we obtain

\[ \mathbb{E}\psi(\bar{Z}_{T/n}) = \psi(0) + \frac{T}{n} \bar{G}\psi(0) + \frac{T^2}{2n^2} \bar{G} \circ \hat{G}\psi(0) + \hat{R}^n, \]

with

\[ \mathbb{E}|\hat{R}^n| \leq \frac{\rho_{K(T), M_\psi(\infty)}}{n^3} \]

and furthermore the increasing function \( k(\cdot) \) is uniform with respect to \( \beta, \sigma, \nu \) and \( n \) and depends on \( \psi(\cdot) \) only through the constants \( C_\psi \) and \( M_\psi \) appearing in (51).

Choose

\[ \psi(z) := v(T - T/n, \bar{X}^n_{T - T/n} + f(\bar{X}^n_{T - T/n})z). \]

This function \( \psi(\cdot) \) is of class \( C^8([\mathbb{R}^d]) \) and satisfies (51) with \( M_\psi = M^\dagger = \max(2M^\ast, 12) \) [use (43) again]. Thus, we can apply (52).

Then apply (37) to

\[ \psi(z) := Av(T - T/n, \bar{X}^n_{T - T/n} + f(\bar{X}^n_{T - T/n})z), \]

and finally make a Taylor expansion around 0 for

\[ z \to A \circ Av(T - T/n, \bar{X}^n_{T - T/n} + f(\bar{X}^n_{T - T/n})z). \]

As in the preceding subsection, easy computations lead to

\[ \mathbb{E}v(T, \bar{X}^n_T) = \mathbb{E}v(T - T/n, \bar{X}^n_{T - T/n}) + \frac{T^2}{n^2} \mathbb{E}\phi(T - T/n, \bar{X}^n_{T - T/n}) + S^n_{T - T/n} \]

where

\[ |S^n_{T - T/n}| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T), \max(2M^\ast, 12)(\infty)}}{n^3} \]

and where the function \( \phi(\cdot, \cdot) \) is defined as follows:

\[ \phi(t, x) := \frac{1}{2} A^2 v(t, x) + \frac{1}{2} \bar{G} \circ \hat{G} \circ \mathcal{V} \mathcal{H}^\varepsilon x(0) + \bar{G} \circ A v^\varepsilon x(0) \]
Thus, with $\phi(t, \cdot)$ satisfies (H2) with $M^{**} = \max(2M^*, 16)$, so that

$$\mathbb{E} v(T, X_T^n) = \mathbb{E} v(T - h, X^n_{T-h}) + \frac{T^2}{n^2} \mathbb{E} \phi(T - T/n, X_{T-T/n}) + U^0_{T-T/n},$$

with

$$|U^0_{T-T/n}| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T), M^{**} \phi(\infty)}}{n^3}.$$

Proceeding as in (40), we obtain:

$$\mathbb{E} v(T, X^n_T) = \mathbb{E} v(T, X_T) + \frac{T^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{E} \phi(kT/n, X_{kT/n}) + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} U_{kT/n}^0.$$

Finally, we observe that

$$\frac{T^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{E} \phi(kT/n, X_{kT/n}) = \frac{T}{n} \int_0^T \mathbb{E} \phi(s, X_s) \, ds + r^n$$

with

$$|r^n| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T), M^{**} \phi(\infty)}}{n^2}.$$

Thus,

$$\left| \mathbb{E} g(X_T) - \mathbb{E} g(X_T^n) + \frac{T}{n} \int_0^T \mathbb{E} \phi(s, X_s) \, ds \right| \leq \frac{\eta_{K(T), M^{**} \phi(\infty)}}{n^2}.$$

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