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Effects of the US Stock Market Return and Volatility on the VKOSPI

Heejoon Han, Ali M. Kutan, and Doojin Ryu

Abstract

The KOSPI (Korea Composite Stock Price Index) 200 options are one of the most actively traded derivatives in the world. This paper empirically examines (a) the statistical properties of the Korea's representative implied volatility index (VKOSPI) derived from the KOSPI 200 options and (b) the macroeconomic and financial variables that can predict the implied volatility process of the index, using augmented heterogeneous autoregressive (HAR) models with exogenous covariates. The results suggest that the elaborate HAR framework is proficient at describing the dynamics of the VKOSPI and that some domestic macroeconomic variables explain the VKOSPI. More importantly, we find that the stock market return and implied volatility index of the US market (i.e., the S&P 500 spot return and the VIX from the S&P 500 options) play a key role in predicting the level of the VKOSPI and explaining its dynamics, and their explanatory power dominates that of domestic macro-finance variables. Further, while the domestic stock market return does not predict the VKOSPI, the US stock market return does so rather well. When two global factors, both the US stock market return and the US implied volatility index, are incorporated into the HAR framework, the model exhibits the best performance in terms of both in-sample fitting and out-of-sample forecasting ability.

JEL C22 C50 G14 G15

Keywords Heterogeneous autoregressive (HAR) model; implied volatility index; KOSPI 200 options; S&P 500; VIX; VKOSPI

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1 Introduction

Uncovering the dynamics and processes of market volatilities has been one of the major academic interests in the field of financial economics because of their usefulness for designing trading strategies, quantifying and managing risks, and describing and forecasting economic conditions. Numerous econometric models including the generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (GARCH) family models and stochastic volatility models have been developed to measure and predict market volatilities. However, even complicated and advanced econometric models using only historical data when estimating the volatility dynamics convey restricted information and have limited prediction power. Hence, a volatility process based on historical information may not adequately reflect market sentiment and investor expectations regarding future economic fundamentals, which naturally restricts its forecasting ability and trading implications.

An alternative model of volatility dynamics is based on current market prices of tradable financial assets as they contain all available information (assuming market efficiency) and reflect market sentiment and expectations of market participants. The volatilities constructed in this way are named "implied" volatilities; they are not only forward-looking but also have clear advantages over historical volatilities in capturing market conditions and forecasting future states (Blair et al. 2001; Giot and Laurent, 2007; Poteshman, 2000; Ryu, 2012).

The implied volatilities are typically derived from option prices. Using popular option pricing models, such as the Black–Scholes–Merton option pricing model, allows us to extract the volatilities of underlying spot returns. However, methods based on a specific option pricing model yield biases, which negatively affect its empirical performance in forecasting future volatilities, quantifying market risk, and managing the risk. Thus, scholars have attempted to develop model-free methods to derive the implied volatilities in order to eliminate the biases and also to increase the efficiency and accuracy of the extracted implied volatilities (Britten-Jones and Neuberger, 2000; Carr and Wu, 2006; Demeterfi et al. 1999; Jiang and Tian, 2007; Taylor et al. 2010). Nowadays, the implied volatility indices of major world exchanges are constructed using model-free methods. The VIX, the most well-known volatility index of the US market, plays a successful role as a market indicator and fear gauge measure. Numerous articles that examine the fitting and forecasting ability of the US' implied volatility index demonstrate its superiority over historical volatilities (Banerjee et al., 2007; Becker et al., 2007; Carr and Wu, 2006; Corrado and Miller, 2005; Frijns et al., 2010; Jiang and Tian, 2007; Konstantinidi et al., 2008; Simon, 2003). Some studies also investigate implied volatility indices for quantifying market risk and for risk management purposes (Giot, 2005; Kim and Ryu, 2015b). However, a thorough investigation of time-series and statistical properties of implied volatility indices based on advanced econometric approaches is relatively scant. This is a notable weakness in the literature because such an investigation is necessary for examining the statistical mechanics of the implied volatility indices, understanding the properties needed for designing new derivatives underlying these indices (e.g., futures and options on implied volatility indices), developing new risk management models incorporating the implied volatility indices, implementing investment strategies using fear gauge measures, and supporting the use of volatility indices as trading indicators and barometers for market states.

Given the above considerations, our study is inspired by two recent influential studies: Corsi (2009) and Fernandes et al. (2014). Corsi (2009) suggests a new way to analyze volatilities based on their persistence and long memory properties, while Fernandes et al. (2014) examine the time-series properties of the VIX using new advances in econometrics and report that the pure heterogeneous autoregressive (HAR) model outperforms the extended HAR models, which incorporate exogenous macro-finance variables in forecasting, particularly short-term ahead forecasting. Extending their studies, we analyze the statistical properties of the VKOSPI, which is the model-free implied volatility index of the South Korean market, under the elaborate HAR model framework. Though some previous studies extend our knowledge about the VKOSPI, the implied volatility index of the South Korean market, which is a leading emerging market, they do not analyze the statistical properties of the VKOSPI, a representative model-free implied volatility index derived from Korea's options market (i.e., the KOSPI 200 options market), under rigorous and advanced econometric frameworks.

In contrast to the relatively extensive research on the implied volatility indices of developed markets, we find that there is scant research on emerging markets, especially the Korean market. This is surprising considering the importance of the Korean financial market as a leading emerging market and the KOSPI 200 options market as a worldwide options market.[1] It is also well known that the latter is one of the most liquid and influential derivatives markets in the world (Ahn et al., 2008, 2010; Guo et al., 2013; Ryu et al., 2015).

Another motivation of this study is some weakness of Corsi (2009) and Fernandes et al. (2014). To mitigate endogeneity problems and measure the forecasting performance of the models, we modify the HAR model framework used in their studies. Further, considering that the previous studies only refer to single markets and do not analyze the effects of market linkages and intercountry spillovers, we examine which factors–domestic versus international–might be more important in describing the time-series properties and dynamics of the VKOSPI. In particular, we examine whether the US stock market return and implied volatility (i.e., the S&P 500 spot return and the VIX from S&P 500 options), which can be regarded as significant global market indicators, explain the dynamics of the VKOSPI, and whether they can help predict future VKOSPI levels after controlling for movements in domestic macro-finance variables.

Our empirical results show that the dynamics of the VKOSPI are well described by our modified HAR framework. However, unlike the findings of Fernandes et al. (2014) for the US market, we find that incorporating domestic macroeconomic variables into the HAR model framework improves both in-sample fitting and out-of-sample forecasting performance. More importantly, we find that the S&P 500 spot returns and VIX of the US market play a dominant role in explaining the VKOSPI dynamics and predicting its future volatility. In addition, while US stock market returns significantly improve predictions about the VKOSPI, Korea’s stock market returns are unable to do so. These findings

[1] Some recent preliminary studies analyze the VKOSPI. Ryu (2012) introduces a method to construct the VKOSPI and measures its forecasting performance using a basic regression framework. Han, Guo et al. (2012) and Lee and Ryu (2013) investigate the asymmetric volatility phenomenon using the VKOSPI dataset. Lee and Ryu (2014a) and Kim and Ryu (2015b) examine the applicability of the VKOSPI toward constructing investment strategies and in the value-at-risk framework, respectively. Lee and Ryu (2014b) examine the lead–lag relationship between the VKOSPI and its domestic stock market index (KOSPI 200) using a two-regime threshold vector error correction model. Though these studies make a common important contribution in that they analyze the implied volatility index of the Korean market, they do not consider the statistical properties of the VKOSPI under rigorous and advanced econometric frameworks. Further, they only conduct single market studies and ignore the interaction between domestic and global market indicators.

imply that there are significant information flows from the US market to the Korean market and/or the risk appetites of domestic investors are significantly affected by global market indicators, represented by the S&P 500 returns and VIX. Surprisingly, the shocks from US spot returns and implied volatility eliminate most of the explanatory power of Korea's macro-finance variables, except the risk-free rate. The adjusted R^2 values, forecast error values such as the mean squared errors (MSEs) and mean absolute errors (MAEs), and results of the Diebold-Mariano and West (DMW) test and Hansen's (2005) superior predictive ability (SPA) test indicate that the extended HAR model incorporating both the US stock market return and the US VIX as exogenous variables yields the best in-sample fitting and out-of-sample forecasting performance among the models suggested in this study. Overall, our findings reflect the characteristics of the Korean market, especially the KOSPI 200 options market; it is an open and growing economy with a fast-growing number of active foreign investors, both of which increase its vulnerability to financial and macroeconomic shocks from overseas markets and fluctuations in global market indicators. Hence, our results have significant implications for policymakers and investors regarding the influence of global shocks on domestic financial markets and real sector stability.

The rest of this study is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the KOSPI 200 options market and evaluates the importance of Korea's options market and its implied volatility index, the VKOSPI. The sample data are briefly explained in Section 3. Section 4 introduces the econometric models and estimation procedures used in the study. Section 5 provides the empirical findings and discusses them. Section 6 concludes the paper.

2 The KOSPI 200 Options Market and the VKOSPI

Launched in 1997, the KOSPI 200 options become the representative index derivatives product of the Korea Exchange (KRX). The KOSPI 200 options market, which determines the activity and trading behavior of the VKOSPI level, is classified as a purely order-driven market that operates without the intermediation of designated market makers. All orders submitted by option traders are transacted through the centralized electronic limit order book (CLOB) based on the price and time priority rules. The CLOB is transparent in that it shows the current market liquidity (i.e., bid/ask spread and market depth), but it guarantees the anonymity of investors submitting orders.[2]

In spite of its relatively short history compared to other major derivatives markets in the world, the KOSPI 200 options market has grown very fast and has maintained the top tier position among the worldwide derivatives markets based on its trading volume and influence. Until recently, the KOSPI 200 options trading volume was ranked number one among global derivatives markets, reflecting its extremely high liquidity and global importance. This active transaction of the options market results in little market friction, fewer trading costs, and little temporal illiquidity, all of which yield reliable estimation results from the options sample.

Another interesting feature of the KOSPI 200 options market is the active participation of individual investors, which contrasts with developed derivatives markets where the dominant market players are institutional investors. Though the relative proportion of individual investors has decreased over time on account of the increased proportion of foreign investors, individual trades still explain a substantial portion of total trading in the options market. Table 1 shows trading volumes in the KOSPI 200 options market by three investor types: domestic individuals, domestic institutions, and foreigners. Though the relative proportion of trading volume by domestic individual investors has declined over time, it still explains more than one-third of the total trading volume during our sample period. The significant proportion of individual investors in the KOSPI 200 options market indicates that the market is quite speculative and oriented towards more short-term profit-seeking, which may be attributed to its fast information flow because of the fierce competition among market participants. Meanwhile, the continuous increase in the proportion of foreign participants in the KOSPI 200 options market reflects the openness and gradual matureness of the Korean market, which makes the options market more vulnerable to global market shocks.

The unique features of the KOSPI 200 options market motivate us to examine the statistical properties of the VKOSPI derived from the option prices. The active participation of individual investors implies that the dynamics of option prices and

[2] The microstructure of the KOSPI 200 options market is well documented in Ahn et al. (2008, 2010), Chae and Lee (2011), Eom and Hahn (2005), Kim and Ryu (2012), and Ryu (2011, 2015).

Table 1: Trading volume by investor types

Year	*Individuals*		*Institutions*		*Foreigners*	
	No. of contracts	*Percent*	*No. of contracts*	*Percent*	*No. of contracts*	*Percent*
2004	2,518,055,127	49.9%	1,923,553,686	38.1%	601,505,735	11.9%
2005	2,172,436,231	42.8%	2,168,324,054	42.8%	729,643,101	14.4%
2006	1,806,619,467	37.4%	2,257,968,033	46.8%	764,258,410	15.8%
2007	1,997,894,273	36.9%	2,326,813,984	42.9%	1,094,979,897	20.2%
2008	1,986,468,165	35.9%	2,022,267,136	36.5%	1,524,213,507	27.5%
2009	2,031,590,461	34.8%	1,943,958,904	33.3%	1,866,431,945	31.9%
2010	2,289,980,791	32.5%	2,472,791,217	35.1%	2,289,025,116	32.5%
2011	2,344,518,997	31.9%	2,179,651,714	29.7%	2,819,153,811	38.4%
2012	878,716,432	27.9%	910,873,669	28.9%	1,361,198,397	43.2%
2013	343,069,921	29.6%	281,274,986	24.2%	536,575,821	46.2%
Total	18,369,349,865	36.4%	18,487,477,383	36.6%	13,586,985,740	26.9%

Notes: This table presents the trend in trading volumes of the KOSPI 200 options by three investor types, namely, domestic individuals (*Individuals*), domestic institutions (*Institutions*), and foreigners (*Foreigners*), during the sample period 2004–2013. The trading volume is presented in the number of options contracts (*No. of contracts*). Columns titled *Percent* present the proportion of the trading volume of each investor type in percentage values. Source: Korea Exchange (www.krx.co.kr).

the derived implied volatility are more likely to be affected by market sentiment and behavioral factors, underscoring the importance of the VKOSPI as a fear gauge measure. The market openness of the KOSPI 200 options market and the heightened interest of foreign investors in this options market increase the possibility that the dynamics of the VKOSPI is heavily dependent on global financial shocks and global market indicators. Considering that US financial institutions comprise the majority of foreign investors in the Korean financial market, it is important to consider the potential influence of US market shocks and/or volatilities to better understand the dynamics of the VKOSPI.

Given the huge success of the KOSPI 200 options market, the KRX decided to constitute Korea's model-free implied volatility index, the VKOSPI, in April 2009. The VKOSPI presents the volatility of the one-month-ahead KOSPI 200 underlying spot index. The VKOSPI level is determined by the expectations and sentiments of investors in the stock and options markets, and thus, it reflects the fears and expectations of the market participants. Based on the “fair variance swap” approach (Britten-Jones and Neuberger, 2000; Jiang and Tian, 2007), the VKOSPI value is calculated using the market prices of the nearest maturity and second nearest maturity KOSPI 200 options.[3]

The VKOSPI value is directly affected by the KOSPI 200 options prices, which reflect market sentiments, investor fear, and prevalent speculative trading motives. As we explained, the KOSPI 200 options product is the representative index derivatives asset, and its price dynamics critically depend on macroeconomic shocks, market-wide information, and overseas market news. Therefore, the VKOSPI can be sensitive to changes in the expectations and sentiment of market participants and may immediately reflect public news and overseas shocks, which, once again, necessitates the consideration of US market shocks when examining its dynamics.

3 Data and Sample Period

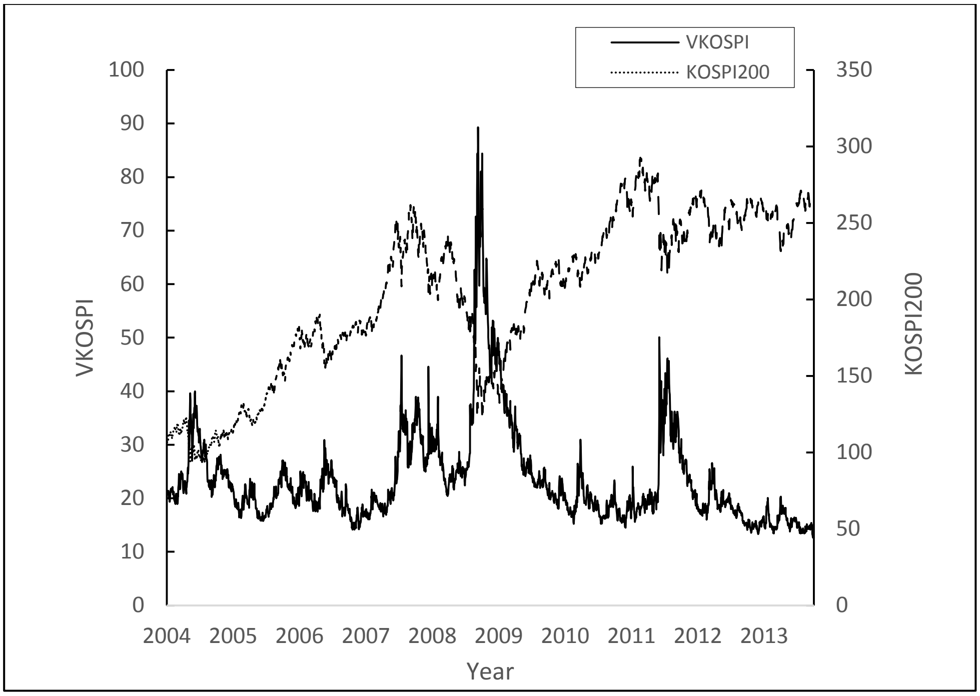
Although the VKOSPI has been published since April 13, 2009, a historical implied volatility index series can be constructed in the same manner as the VKOSPI. A volatility index series constructed using option prices before the publication of the VKOSPI would also be model-free and would reflect the fears and sentiments of KOSPI 200 options traders. Since a sufficient number of traded options are needed to calculate volatility index values, we consider only post-2004 data. This is because the number of options classified by strike prices is not sufficient for deriving the VKOSPI, and the second nearest maturity options were infrequently traded until the mid-2000s. Our final sample data covers all daily observations of the VKOSPI, KOSPI 200 spot index, VIX, S&P 500 spot index, and Korea’s macroeconomic variables (i.e., USD/KRW exchange rate returns,

[3] This approach is similarly used to calculate the model-free VIX of the US market. For the mathematical equations used to construct the VKOSPI and the detailed derivation of the model-free implied volatility index, refer to Ryu (2012) among others. The KRX now announces the historical VKOSPI dataset before its official publication date, and it undergoes the filtering process and rigorous consistency checks.

interest rates, credit spreads, and term spreads) from March 26, 2004 to December 30, 2013. Incidentally, this time frame includes the recent global financial crisis period.[4] Figure 1 plots the spot and implied volatility indices used in this study. Panel A presents the movements of the KOSPI 200 spot index and the VKOSPI, while Panel B presents the movements of the S&P 500 spot index and the VIX.

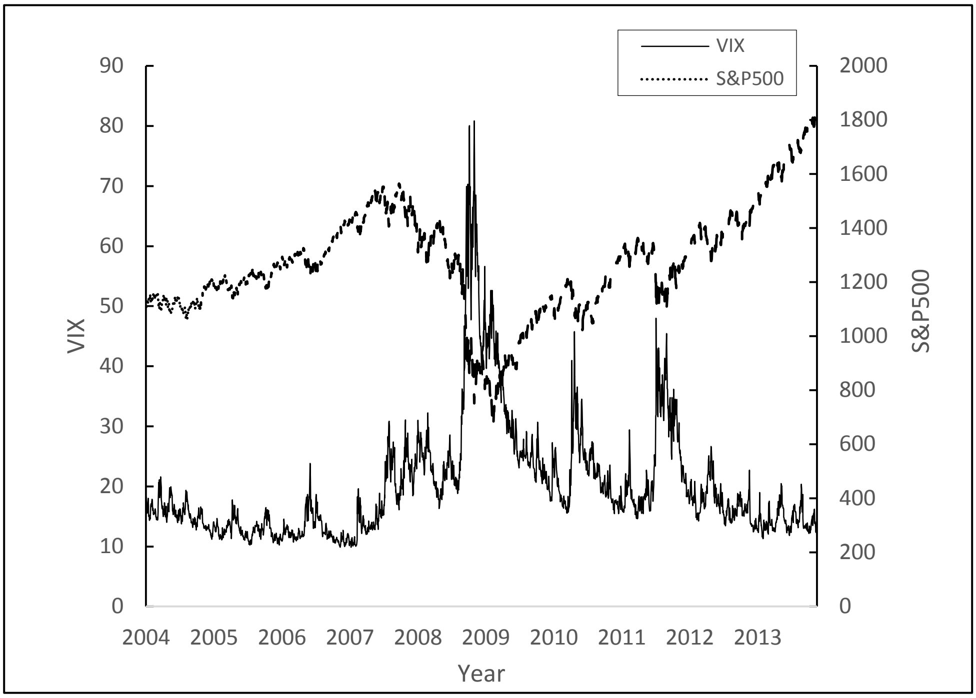
Figure 1: Time trends of stock market returns and implied volatility indices

Panel A. The KOSPI 200 and VKOSPI of the Korean market



[4] Besides using the US and Korean spot markets data, we also test our models using the dataset on index futures (i.e., the KOSPI 200 and the S&P 500 futures), which are tradable and liquid assets. We obtain qualitatively similar results, which are available upon request.

Panel B. The S&P 500 and VIX of the US market



Notes: The two panels in this figure show the time trends of the stock market returns and implied volatility indices for the Korean (Panel A) and US (Panel B) markets. In each panel, the left-hand vertical axis denotes the percentage value of each implied volatility index and the right-hand vertical axis denotes the level of each stock market index.

Both implied volatility indices capture the major financial and macroeconomic events resulting in a significant stock market decline. It is notable that at the beginning of the recent global financial crisis, the VIX and VKOSPI are at their highest levels during the sample period.

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of all time-series variables used in our analysis. The table also reports unit root test results and the log–periodogram estimates of the memory parameter. Among the variables, $ln(VKOSPI_t)$ denotes the

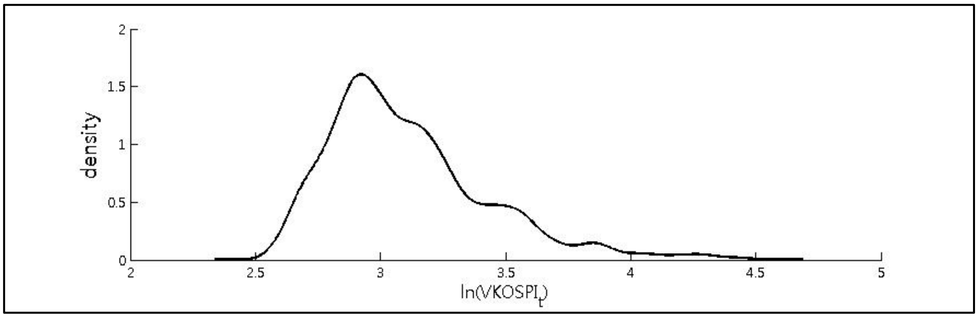
Table 2: Descriptive statistics

	ln(*VKOSPI*)	*Ex*	*Rf*	*Credit*	*Term*	*ln*(*VIX*)	$Return^{US}$	$Return^{KOR}$
Mean	3.107	–0.004	3.718	4.630	0.619	2.919	0.000	0.000
Median	3.039	–0.027	3.540	5.320	0.400	2.842	0.001	0.001
Maximum	2.534	10.229	6.180	6.300	2.590	4.393	0.110	0.115
Minimum	4.492	–13.243	2.410	2.240	–1.480	2.292	–0.095	–0.109
Std. Dev.	0.323	0.796	1.006	1.353	0.769	0.396	0.013	0.015
Skewness	1.140	–0.749	0.606	–0.352	0.719	0.951	–0.258	–0.434
Kurtosis	4.579	52.035	2.229	1.504	2.675	3.712	14.126	8.896
Jarque–Bera	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
ADF	0.044	0.000	0.383	0.809	0.236	0.012	0.000	0.000
PP	0.013	0.000	0.690	0.880	0.218	0.013	0.000	0.000
Estimates of d	0.824	0.015	1.012	0.960	1.003	0.744	–0.074	0.009

Notes: This table reports the descriptive statistics of all time-series variables used in this study. The sample period spans from March 26, 2004 to December 30, 2013, which includes 2,430 daily observations. We present the sample mean, median, maximum, minimum standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis values of the variables, as well as the *p*-values of the Jarque–Bera test for normality and of the Augmented Dickey–Fuller (*ADF*) and Phillips–Perron (*PP*) tests for unit roots. We also report the log–periodogram estimates for the memory parameter *d* (*Estimates of d*). *ln*(*VKOSPI*) is the logarithm of the VKOSPI. *Ex* is the log return of the USD/KRW (US Dollar/Korean Won) exchange rate (a positive *Ex* value means that the Korean Won (KRW) appreciates). *Rf* denotes the 3-month certificate of deposit (CD) rate, which is a proxy for the risk-free rate. *Credit* is the yield difference between BBB and AA corporate bonds. *Term* is calculated as the difference between the yields on the 5-year government bonds and the 3-month CD rates. *ln*(*VIX*) is the logarithm of the VIX. $Return^{US}$ is the log return of the S&P 500 index, and $Return^{KOR}$ is the log return of the KOSPI 200 index.

log transformation of the VKOSPI, wherein the sample distribution exhibits a skewed and fat-tailed distribution compared to the normal distribution (see Figure 2). Both the Augmented Dickey–Fuller (ADF) and Phillips–Perron (PP) tests reject the null hypothesis of the unit root at the 5% significance level, which indicates that the $ln(VKOSPI_t)$ series is not a unit root process. Meanwhile, the log–periodogram estimate of memory parameter *d* is 0.824, and its standard error is 0.019 for the $ln(VKOSPI_t)$ series, suggesting that the historical time-series of $ln(VKOSPI_t)$ is characterized by a long memory process. The long memory parameter estimates in Table 2 also indicate that the return series of exchange rate, Korean stock market index, and US stock market index are not persistent while the VIX, interest rate, credit spread, and term spread variables are highly persistent.

Figure 2: Kernel density estimate of the logarithm of the VKOSPI



Notes: This figure presents the kernel density estimate of the logarithm of the VKOSPI (*ln(VKOSPI$_t$)*). The Gaussian kernel function is used to estimate the kernel density.

4 Methodological Considerations

4.1 Estimated Models

As the results in Table 2 indicate that the time-series logarithm value $ln(VKOSPI_t)$ is a long memory process and not a unit root process, we adopt the modified versions of the HAR frameworks used in both Corsi (2009) and Fernandes et al. (2014). For RV_t, the realized volatility measure at time t, the pure HAR model is defined as

$$RV_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RV_{t-1} + \beta_2 RV^{(w)}_{t-1} + \beta_3 RV^{(m)}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t,$$
$$\text{where } RV^{(w)}_{t-1} = (1/5)\sum^{5}_{i=1} RV_{t-i} \text{ and } RV^{(m)}_{t-1} = (1/22)\sum^{22}_{i=1} RV_{t-i}. \quad (1)$$

In Equation (1), $RV^{(w)}_t$ and $RV^{(m)}_t$ represent the medium-term weekly (w) realized volatility and long-term monthly (m) realized volatility at time t, respectively. The key motivation for including these heterogeneous components is that agents with different time horizons perceive, react to, and cause different types of volatility components. Corsi (2009) shows that the heterogeneous components have important effects in reproducing the long memory property and that the empirical performance of the HAR model is comparable to the autoregressive fractionally integrated moving average (ARFIMA) model, which is typically adopted to model and forecast long memory time series.

For $y_t = ln(VKOSPI_t)$, the pure HAR model can be written as

$$y_t = X_{t-1}\beta + u_t, \text{ where } X_t = [1\ y_{1,t}\ y_{5,t}\ y_{10,t}\ y_{22,t}] \text{ for } y_{h,t} = \frac{1}{h}\sum_{s=1}^{h} y_{t-s+1}. \tag{2}$$

While Fernandes et al. (2014) also include the quarterly component $y_{66,t}$ for modeling the dynamics of the VIX, we exclude it here because the component is found to be statistically insignificant for modeling the dynamics of the VKOSPI index. This result reflects the dominance of short-term traders and speculative individual investors in the KOSPI 200 options market. By incorporating financial and macroeconomic variables into the HAR framework, the extended HAR-X model may be written as follows:

$$y_t = X_{t-1}\beta + Z_{t-1}\gamma + u_t, \tag{3}$$

where $Z_t = [z_{1t}\ z_{2t}\ \ldots\ z_{kt}]$ is a k-dimensional vector of explanatory variables. By including relevant macro-finance variables, Z_t, the HAR-X model is expected to improve both in-sample and out-of-sample performance of the model, assuming that the additional exogenous variables in Equation (3) further contribute to the VKOSPI dynamics.

We consider the following macro-finance variables of the Korean market as exogenous variables: a) the log return of the USD/KRW exchange rate, b) the 3-month/91-day certificate of deposit (CD91) rate, which is a proxy for Korea's risk-free interest rate, c) the yield difference between BBB and AA corporate bonds in Korea, which measures the credit spread, d) the difference between the yields on the 5-year government bond and 3-month CD rates in Korea, which measures the term spread, and e) the log return of the KOSPI 200 index, which captures shocks in the underlying spot market. We also consider some US financial market variables, which are the most influential global market indicators, to investigate the effect of US market shocks and news on the dynamics of the VKOSPI. US market shocks are measured by market returns (i.e., the S&P 500 index) and risk (i.e., the VIX). Unlike the framework in Fernandes et al. (2014), we include lagged regressors, Z_{t-1}, instead of the contemporaneous regressors, Z_t, in the HAR-X model in order to avoid possible endogeneity problems. Besides, including a lag structure is more suitable because one of the main purposes of this paper is to measure the out-of-sample forecasting performance of our models.[5]

4.2 Evaluation Criteria and Forecasting Procedure

To evaluate the predictive power, we use the MSE and MAE loss functions.[6] We calculate the difference in MSE or MAE losses between two models as follows:

$$d_t = L(y_{t,i}, y_t) - L(y_{t,0}, y_t), \tag{4}$$

where $y_{t,i}$ denotes the in-sample or out-of-sample forecast of the competing model, $y_{t,0}$ denotes the in-sample or out-of-sample forecast of the key model, and $L(y_{t,i}, y_t)$ and $L(y_{t,0}, y_t)$ are forecast losses measured based on the MSE and MAE, respectively. If the distance, d_t, is found to be positive, we can conclude that the key model outperforms the competing model in that it has a smaller loss.

The significance of any difference in the loss is tested using the Diebold-Mariano and West (henceforth DMW) test (Diebold-Mariano (1995); West (1996)). The DMW statistics are calculated using the difference in the losses of the two models as follows:

$$DMW_{T_F} = \frac{\sqrt{T_F}\bar{d}_T}{\sqrt{\widehat{avar}(\sqrt{T_F}\bar{d}_T)}}, \tag{5}$$

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5 To further improve model fitness, one may suggest an inclusion of additional domestic variables such as realized volatility. However, adding the realized volatility incurs serious multicollinearity issues because our models already include the lag of the VKOSPI, which is strongly related to the realized volatility. The correlation between the VKOSPI (model-free implied volatility) and realized volatility is quite high, and both types of volatilities are also persistent.

6 Patton (2011) shows that the MSE function is robust to the presence of noise in the volatility proxy while the MAE function is not. Though the results based on the MSE function may be more important, we examine both measures to ascertain the robustness of our results.

where d_T denotes the sample mean of d_t, and T_F is the number of forecasts. The operator *avar*(.) calculates the asymptotic variance. The asymptotic variance of the average is computed using a Newey–West variance estimator with the number of lags set to $T_F^{1/3}$. The asymptotic distribution of the test statistic is standard normal.

To obtain out-of-sample forecasts for future $ln(VKOSPI_t)$, we adopt the rolling window forecast procedure with moving windows of four years (1,008 trading days). We obtain one-step ahead out-of-sample forecasts (h = 1) and multi-step ahead out-of-sample forecasts (h = 5, 10, and 22) for all models. The number of forecasts are 1400, 1396, 1391, and 1379, respectively, for h = 1, 5, 10, and 22. The forecast period for the one-step ahead out-of-sample forecast is May 23, 2008 to December 30, 2013. For multi-step ahead forecasting, we adopt a direct forecasting procedure: To compute h-day ahead forecasts, we replace y_t with y_{t+h-1} in the models. This allows us to produce multi-step ahead forecasts without imposing any assumption about future realizations of the explanatory variables.

To evaluate out-of-sample forecasting performance, we also adopt the Superior Predictive Ability (SPA) test suggested by Hansen (2005). The SPA test can be used for comparing the performance of two or more forecasting models. The null hypothesis of the SPA test is that none of the other models significantly outperform the key model. The MSE and MAE loss functions are also used for the SPA test. Following Hansen (2005), we set the number of bootstrap replications to calculate the p-values as 10,000.

5 Empirical Findings

We estimate the pure HAR model and the various versions of the HAR-X model with different exogenous variables. To avoid possible multicollinearity problems, we design the following procedure and choose seven alternative models (models M1–M7) based on the significance of the estimated coefficients. In the first step, we estimate the pure HAR model given by Equation (1) and discard the variables with insignificant coefficients, which yields us Model 1 (M1). The estimation result of the pure HAR model yields that only the biweekly component, $y_{10,t}$, is statistically significant. Therefore, we only add this component to M1. In the second step, we estimate the HAR-X model using four domestic macroeconomic variables, the USD/KRW exchange rate return (*Ex*), interest rate (*Rf*), credit spread yield (*Credit*), and term spread yield (*Term*), and we create Model 2 (M2) by discarding the variables with insignificant coefficients. In the third step, we incorporate each financial variable related to the US or Korean market, namely, the logarithm of the US implied volatility index measured by the VIX ($ln(VIX)$), the US stock market return measured by the S&P 500 spot return ($Return^{US}$), or the Korean stock market return measured by the KOSPI 200 spot return ($Return^{KOR}$), and these variables are added to the model in the second step. By discarding the variables with insignificant coefficients, we obtain Model 3 (M3), Model 4 (M4), and Model 5 (M5). At this stage, only statistically significant terms, namely, $y_{1,t}$, $y_{5,t}$, $y_{10,t}$, $y_{22,t}$, and Korea's macroeconomic variables, are included. In the fourth step, we add both $ln(VIX)$ and $Return^{US}$ to the model from the second step, which gives us Model 6 (M6). In the fifth step, we add both $ln(VIX)$ and $Return^{KOR}$ to the model from the second step, which gives us Model 7 (M7). The joint presence of residual autocorrelation and lagged dependent variable among the regressors induces inconsistent coefficient estimates. Therefore, in each case, we ensure that the residual is not serially correlated by adding lagged dependent variables up to lag k (k = 1, 5, and 10) to the model. Consequently, the following alternative seven models (M1–M7) are estimated to check the robustness of our result.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{M1: } y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{1,t\text{-}1} + \beta_2 y_{10,t\text{-}1} + \varepsilon_t \\
&\text{M2: } y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{1,t\text{-}1} + \beta_2 y_{10,t\text{-}1} + \gamma_1 Ex_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_2 Rf_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_3 Credit_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_4 Term_{t\text{-}1} + \varepsilon_t \\
&\text{M3: } y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{1,t\text{-}1} + \beta_2 y_{5,t\text{-}1} + \gamma_1 Ex_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_2 ln(VIX_{t\text{-}1}) + \varepsilon_t \\
&\text{M4: } y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{1,t\text{-}1} + \beta_2 y_{10,t\text{-}1} + \gamma_1 Rf_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_2 Credit_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_3 Return^{US}{}_{t\text{-}1} + \varepsilon_t \\
&\text{M5: } y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{1,t\text{-}1} + \beta_2 y_{10,t\text{-}1} + \gamma_1 Ex_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_2 Rf_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_3 Credit_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_4 Term_{t\text{-}1} + \\
&\qquad \gamma_5 Return^{KOR}{}_{t\text{-}1} + \varepsilon_t \\
&\text{M6: } y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{1,t\text{-}1} + \beta_2 y_{10,t\text{-}1} + \gamma_1 Rf_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_2 ln(VIX_{t\text{-}1}) + \gamma_3 Return^{US}{}_{t\text{-}1} + \varepsilon_t \\
&\text{M7: } y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{1,t\text{-}1} + \beta_2 y_{5,t\text{-}1} + \gamma_1 Ex_{t\text{-}1} + \gamma_2 ln(VIX_{t\text{-}1}) + \gamma_3 Return^{KOR}{}_{t\text{-}1} + \varepsilon_t \qquad (6)
\end{aligned}$$

Table 3 reports the least squares estimates of the model coefficients and their t-statistics based on heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors. For each model, the adjusted R^2 value is also reported to measure the in-sample fitting performance. For the pure HAR model, the coefficients of the daily and biweekly components, $y_{1,t\text{-}1}$ and $y_{10,t\text{-}1}$, are significantly estimated at the 1% significance level, while those of the weekly and monthly components, $y_{5,t\text{-}1}$ and $y_{22,t\text{-}1}$, are insignificant. When we

Table 3: Estimation results of the pure HAR and HAR-X models: In-sample model fitness

	HAR	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
y^{1}_{t-1}	0.916	0.900	0.885	0.863	0.887	0.893	0.867	0.882
	(27.65)	(37.95)	(38.14)	(27.01)	(41.90)	(36.44)	(41.74)	(24.22)
y^{5}_{t-1}	–0.067			0.101				0.082
	(–1.14)			(3.09)				(2.23)
y^{10}_{t-1}	0.188	0.092	0.099		0.099	0.091	0.094	
	(3.23)	(3.94)	(4.28)		(4.71)	(3.71)	(4.48)	
y^{22}_{t-1}	–0.047							
	(–1.62)							
Ex_{t-1}			0.004	0.004		0.005		0.005
			(2.27)	(2.18)		(2.46)		(2.49)
Rf_{t-1}			0.011		0.007	0.011	0.005	
			(3.63)		(2.53)	(3.63)	(4.01)	
$Credit_{t-1}$			0.005		0.004	0.005		
			(2.29)		(1.81)	(2.30)		
$Term_{t-1}$			0.003			0.003		
			(1.94)			(1.91)		
$ln(VIX_{t-1})$				0.027			0.025	0.027
				(5.66)			(4.74)	(5.71)
$Return^{US}_{t-1}$					–1.507		–1.430	
					(–9.02)		(–8.71)	
$Return^{KOR}_{t-1}$						0.135		0.163
						(1.13)		(1.27)
$Adj.\ R^2$	0.974	0.974	0.974	0.975	0.978	0.974	0.978	0.975

Notes: This table shows the in-sample fitness of the pure HAR model (HAR) and its extended HAR model (HAR-X) with exogenous variables (models M1–M7). y_t^h denotes the average value of the logarithm of the VKOSPI over the last h days. Ex_{t-1} is the log return of the USD/KRW (US Dollar/Korean Won) exchange rate at time t–1 (a positive Ex value means that the Korean Won (KRW) appreciates). Rf denotes the 3-month certificate of deposit (CD) rate, which is a proxy for the risk-free rate. *Credit* is the yield difference between BBB and AA corporate bonds. *Term* is calculated as the difference between the yields on the 5-year government bonds and the 3-month certificate of deposit (CD) rates. $ln(VIX)$ is the logarithm of the VIX. $Return^{US}$ is the log return of the S&P 500 index, and $Return^{KOR}$ is the log return of the KOSPI 200 index. The table reports the least squares estimates of the coefficients, and their t-statistics provided in parentheses are based on heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors. The last row shows the adjusted R^2 ($Adj.\ R^2$) for each model.

conduct the Wald test, $y_{5,t\text{-}1}$ and $y_{22,t\text{-}1}$ are also jointly insignificant. If the quarterly component, $y_{66,t\text{-}1}$, is included as an explanatory variable, as in Fernandes et al., (2014), $y_{5,t\text{-}1}$, $y_{22,t\text{-}1}$, and $y_{66,t\text{-}1}$ are insignificant at the 5% significance level and also jointly insignificant according to the Wald test. Therefore, we discard the insignificant terms and leave only $y_{1,t\text{-}1}$ and $y_{10,t\text{-}1}$ in the model denoted by M1. These results are different from those in Fernandes et al. (2014); our results indicate that the estimated coefficient for $y_{66,t\text{-}1}$ is significant for the VIX index. This reflects the relatively higher participation of domestic individual investors, who are short-term oriented with speculative motives compared to their institutional counterparts in the KOSPI 200 options market, which reduces the medium- or long-term predictability of the VKOSPI.

When the four domestic macroeconomic variables are added to the model, $y_{5,t\text{-}1}$ and $y_{22,t\text{-}1}$ are still insignificant while the macroeconomic variables are significant. The estimation result of M2 shows that the appreciation of Korea’s currency (KRW) and the increase in the interest rate, credit spread, and term spread are associated with a higher VKOSPI level. In M3, when the US implied volatility index, the VIX, is included among the macroeconomic variables, only the exchange rate return remains significant. The lagged VIX value is positively related to the current VKOSPI value, which is quite plausible considering that the VIX captures market-wide volatility. We find that the US stock market return (the S&P 500 spot return) is significantly and negatively related to the future VKOSPI (see the result for M4), whereas the Korean stock market return is not significantly related to the one-step ahead VKOSPI after controlling the macroeconomic variables (see M5). These results indicate that the KOSPI 200 stock market return is not useful for describing the dynamics of the VKOSPI once the domestic macroeconomic factors and/or overseas market returns are considered.

The finding that the VKOSPI dynamics are not explained by its own under lying stock market return but by the US market return is interesting in that it provides a skeptical view of the previous literature, which carries out a single market analysis to examine the return–volatility relationship. Our finding on the relationship between the VKOSPI and the lagged S&P 500 return is consistent with an asymmetric volatility response, which indicates that the stock market return negatively affects the volatility level (Bekaert and Wu, 2000; Wu, 2001; Han, Guo, Ryu and Webb, 2012; Lee and Ryu, 2013). Based on the adjusted R^2 values and the significance of the estimated coefficients, we can conclude that the HAR-X model incorporating both the US stock market return and the implied volatility exhibits the best in-sample fitting performance and has the most explanatory power of all other macroeconomic variables in describing the VKOSPI dynamics (see M6). On the other hand, the stock market returns lose explanatory power when replaced by the Korean stock market return, and the adjusted R^2 values of the model including the Korean stock market return decreases (see M7). One potential reason for this finding can be linked to the market opening hours for the US and Korea; the information from the Korean stock market on day t is dominated by that from the US stock market on day t–1.[7] Another possible reason is based on the "risk appetite" explanation. Considering that the VKOSPI is a fear gauge measure and that Korea is an open economy, which is sensitive to overseas market shocks, the risk appetite of investors may not be fully explained by domestic market variables but by global market indicators such as the S&P 500 spot return and the VIX (Pan and Singleton, 2008; Longstaff et al., 2011).

Considering that the recent global financial crisis is a major global financial event, which is likely to have influenced the VKOSPI dynamics and its relationship with other macro-finance variables, we carry out an additional subsample analysis.[8] We divide our sample period into three subsample periods, which are the precrisis (2004–2006), crisis (2007–2009), and postcrisis (2010–2013) periods. Table 4 shows the in-sample model fitness for each subsample. In M6, the coefficient for the US stock market return is estimated to be significant for all three subsample periods, and its estimates are –1.522, –0.906, and –2.162 for the precrisis, crisis, and postcrisis periods, respectively. Its absolute value is the highest for the postcrisis period, while it is the lowest for the crisis period.

[7] The US market is open overnight in Korean time. We focus on the leading emerging market where the US market plays a dominant role in its price discovery and information spillover process during the overnight period. Our analysis is based on the dataset of intercontinental markets where the operating hours do not overlap. We match the day t sample of the Korean market and the day t – 1 sample of the US market. We exclude the holidays and use the interpolation method to process the dataset. For more information on the opening and closing times of the US and Korean markets and a discussion on the effects of these differences in trading hours, refer to Kim and Ryu (2015a), Kim et al. (2015), and Han et al. (2015).

[8] Several recent studies show the negative influence of the recent global financial crisis on Asian and other emerging markets. See, among others, Dungey and Gajurel (2014), Gorea and Radev (2014), and Wan and Jin (2014).

Importantly, M6 exhibits the best explanatory power for all subsamples, and our finding that the VKOSPI dynamics are significantly explained by global market shocks remains intact.

To carry out the robustness check for the in-sample model fitness result, we estimate the MSEs and MAEs for all seven versions of the HAR-X model (M1–M7) and DMW test statistics. Panel A of Table 5 shows the MSE and MAE for each model, and Panel B of Table 5 presents the DMW test results for all possible pairs of the models. Table 5 shows that model M6 exhibits the smallest losses, and the DMW test results show that M6, in general, significantly outperforms the rest of the models. Namely, when we measure the in-sample performance of the models using the MSEs, MAEs, and DMW test statistics, the results remain the

Table 4: Results of the subsample analysis for in-sample model fitness

Panel A: Precrisis period (2004–2006)

	HAR	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
y^1_{t-1}	0.911	0.904	0.889	0.850	0.880	0.904	0.845	0.881
	(21.18)	(28.72)	(28.91)	(21.11)	(29.08)	(27.15)	(27.40)	(19.85)
y^5_{t-1}	–0.043			0.082				0.052
	(–0.49)			(2.00)				(1.17)
y^{10}_{t-1}	0.162	0.079	0.076		0.086	0.062	0.102	
	(1.71)	(2.49)	(2.28)		(2.68)	(1.74)	(3.34)	
y^{22}_{t-1}	–0.051							
	(–1.15)							
Ex_{t-1}			0.006	0.003		0.007		0.004
			(1.31)	(0.82)		(1.55)		(1.08)
Rf_{t-1}			0.019		0.017	0.020	–0.001	
			(1.65)		(1.59)	(1.68)	(–0.41)	
$Credit_{t-1}$			0.018		0.017	0.018		
			(1.88)		(1.87)	(1.90)		
$Term_{t-1}$			0.006			0.006		
			(1.52)			(1.43)		
$ln(VIX_{t-1})$				0.083			0.065	0.084
				(4.59)			(3.60)	(4.62)
$Return^{US}_{t-1}$					–1.782		–1.522	
					(–5.86)		(–4.92)	
$Return^{KOR}_{t-1}$						0.169		0.219
						(0.97)		(1.26)
Adj. R^2	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.949	0.951	0.948	0.952	0.949

Panel B. Crisis period (2007–2009)

	HAR	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
y^1_{t-1}	0.813 (14.38)	0.876 (22.73)	0.851 (23.26)	0.747 (14.11)	0.863 (24.21)	0.862 (21.87)	0.788 (21.66)	0.763 (12.71)
y^5_{t-1}	0.106 (0.98)			0.166 (3.09)				0.148 (2.42)
y^{10}_{t-1}	0.144 (1.52)	0.113 (3.04)	0.133 (3.63)		0.122 (3.50)	0.122 (3.12)	0.106 (3.04)	
y^{22}_{t-1}	–0.076 (–1.57)							
Ex_{t-1}			0.003 (1.59)	0.004 (1.78)		0.005 (1.67)		0.005 (1.82)
Rf_{t-1}			0.012 (1.74)		0.012 (1.67)	0.012 (1.75)	0.009 (3.98)	
$Credit_{t-1}$			0.009 (1.29)		0.008 (1.39)	0.009 (1.28)		
$Term_{t-1}$			–0.003 (–0.41)			–0.003 (–0.36)		
$ln(VIX_{t-1})$				0.066 (4.98)			0.082 (4.58)	0.067 (5.01)
$Return^{US}_{t-1}$					–1.093 (–5.03)		–0.906 (–4.34)	
$Return^{KOR}_{t-1}$						0.149 (0.77)		0.134 (0.66)
Adj. R^2	0.974	0.974	0.974	0.975	0.978	0.974	0.979	0.975

Panel C. Postcrisis period (2010–2013)

	HAR	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
y^1_{t-1}	0.979 (17.47)	0.913 (21.71)	0.895 (21.81)	0.875 (16.94)	0.893 (25.28)	0.897 (21.64)	0.853 (25.24)	0.887 (15.41)
y^5_{t-1}	–0.187 (–2.06)			0.028 (0.52)				0.015 (0.25)
y^{10}_{t-1}	0.222 (2.28)	0.072 (1.74)	0.073 (1.73)		0.079 (2.23)	0.071 (1.65)	0.064 (1.79)	
y^{22}_{t-1}	–0.029 (–0.57)							
Ex_{t-1}			0.005 (1.73)	0.003 (0.83)		0.006 (1.41)		0.004 (1.00)
Rf_{t-1}			0.012 (1.57)		0.010 (1.94)	0.013 (1.56)	0.019 (3.26)	
$Credit_{t-1}$			0.016 (1.11)		0.013 (2.15)	0.016 (1.07)		
$Term_{t-1}$			0.000			0.000		

Table 4 continued

Table 4 continued

	HAR	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
			(0.08)			(0.09)		
$ln(VIX_{t-1})$				0.080			0.051	0.080
				(6.47)			(4.55)	(6.46)
$Return^{US}_{t-1}$					–2.385		–2.162	
					(–10.49)		(–9.96)	
$Return^{KOR}_{t-1}$						0.037		0.152
						(0.16)		(0.60)
Adj. R^2	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.958	0.967	0.956	0.967	0.958

Notes: Considering the effects of the global financial crisis, we divide our sample period into three subsamples, namely, the precrisis period (2004–2006), crisis period (2007–2009), and postcrisis period (2010–2013). This table shows the in-sample fitness of the pure HAR model (HAR) and extended HAR model (HAR-X) with exogenous variables (models M1–M7) for each subsample period. Panels A, B, and C present the results for the three subperiods, respectively. y_t^h denotes the average value of the logarithm of the VKOSPI over the last h days. Ex_{t-1} is the log return of the USD/KRW (US Dollar/Korean Won) exchange rate at time t–1 (a positive Ex value means that the Korean Won (KRW) appreciates). Rf denotes the 3-month certificate of deposit (CD) rate, which is a proxy for the risk-free rate. *Credit* is the yield difference between BBB and AA corporate bonds. *Term* is calculated as the difference between the yields on the 5-year government bonds and the 3-month CD rates. $ln(VIX)$ is the logarithm of the VIX. $Return^{US}$ is the log return of the S&P 500 index, and $Return^{KOR}$ is the log return of the KOSPI 200 index. The table reports the least squares estimates of the coefficients, and their t-statistics provided in parentheses are based on heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors. The last row shows the adjusted R^2 (*Adj.* R^2) for each model.

same, suggesting that our findings are robust. Therefore, we use M6 as our key/preferred model.

Table 6 reports the out-of-sample forecast results. We report the MSEs and MAEs of the seven versions of the HAR-X model (M1–M7) for one-step and multi-step ahead out-of-sample forecasts (h = 1, 5, 10, and 22). We observe that M6 (the preferred key model) outperforms the rest of the models by exhibiting the lowest MSE and MAE losses in almost all cases. This suggests that M6 is indeed the best fitting model for out-of-sample forecasting as well as in-sample fitting. For one-step ahead forecasting, the DMW test between M6 and each model, except M4, rejects the null hypothesis of equal predictability. This finding implies that M6 produces significantly better one-step ahead out-of-sample forecasts. Notably, M4 has the lowest MAE while the DMW tests between M6 and M4 are

Table 5: In-sample fitting evaluations of the HAR-X models (M1–M7)

Panel A. MSEs and MAEs of the HAR-X models

	MSE	*MAE*
M1	0.00271	0.0365
M2	0.00268	0.0365
M3	0.00267	0.0368
M4	0.00231	0.0342
M5	0.00268	0.0365
M6	**0.00229**	**0.0341**
M7	0.00267	0.0367

Panel B. Pair-wise comparisons of the Diebold-Mariano and West (DMW) tests

		M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
MSE							
	M1	1.53	1.21	3.95***	1.61	4.05***	1.33
	M2		0.42	4.09***	0.68	4.23***	0.60
	M3			4.31***	–0.29	4.52***	0.77
	M4				–4.07	2.22**	–4.29***
	M5					4.20***	0.48
	M6						–4.49***
MAE							
	M1	0.14	–1.28	5.82***	0.65	5.86***	–0.96
	M2		–1.34	6.16***	2.02**	6.25***	–1.03
	M3			6.42***	1.67*	6.83***	1.44
	M4				–5.95***	0.72	–6.27***
	M5					6.04***	–1.41
	M6						–6.65***

Notes: This table shows in-sample fitting performance of the HAR-X model with exogenous variables (models M1–M7). The loss functions used are the mean squared errors (*MSE*) and mean absolute errors (*MAE*). Panel A reports the MSEs and MAEs of each model. Panel B reports the pair-wise comparison of the Diebold-Mariano and West (DMW) tests. *, **, and *** signify rejection of the null hypothesis of equal predictability at 10%, 5%, and 1%, respectively. The DMW test statistic is calculated from the distance between M6 (the key model) and the remaining models.

Table 6: Out-of-sample forecast evaluations of the HAR-X models (M1–M7)

		MSE	*DMW*	*MAE*	*DMW*
1-step					
	M1	0.00285	2.90***	0.0368	3.34***
	M2	0.00284	3.08***	0.0370	3.62***
	M3	0.00281	3.51***	0.0384	7.21***
	M4	0.00240	1.49	0.0343	–0.74
	M5	0.00284	3.12***	0.0370	3.59***
	M6	0.00234		0.0346	
	M7	0.00281	3.59***	0.0384	7.16***
5-step					
	M1	0.01108	2.40**	0.0749	2.72***
	M2	0.01064	1.55	0.0731	1.16
	M3	0.01108	4.05***	0.0761	4.63***
	M4	0.01049	1.26	0.0735	1.38
	M5	0.01067	1.62	0.0733	1.28
	M6	0.01017		0.0718	
	M7	0.01112	4.25***	0.0764	4.92***
10-step					
	M1	0.01749	2.21**	0.0939	2.17**
	M2	0.01625	0.74	0.0932	1.40
	M3	0.01753	3.63***	0.0975	4.24***
	M4	0.01642	1.01	0.0948	2.09**
	M5	0.01623	0.71	0.0930	1.34
	M6	0.01580		0.0904	
	M7	0.01755	3.62***	0.0975	4.17***
22-step					
	M1	0.03646	2.71***	0.1351	3.17***
	M2	0.03129	0.07	0.1339	1.66*
	M3	0.03664	4.83***	0.1438	5.03***
	M4	0.03252	0.53	0.1396	2.76***
	M5	0.03130	0.07	0.1338	1.64
	M6	0.03113		0.1258	
	M7	0.03671	4.83***	0.1442	5.10***

Notes: This table shows the out-of-sample forecasting performance of the HAR models with exogenous variables (HAR-X models, M1–M7). *MSE* and *MAE* denote the mean squared errors and mean absolute errors, respectively. *DMW* presents the Diebold-Mariano and West test statistics, which are calculated from the distance between M6 (the key model) and the remaining models. *, **, and *** signify the rejection of the null hypothesis of equal predictability at 10%, 5%, and 1%, respectively.

insignificant for both MSE and MAE. If we exclude M6, M4 has the lowest MSE value. This implies that the stock return of the US market plays an important role in one-day-ahead out-of-sample forecasting of the VKOSPI. Regarding the multi-step-ahead forecasting, the M6 model has the lowest MSE and MAE losses in all cases, and the DMW test rejects the null hypothesis of equal predictability in some cases. For results regarding the 10-step and 22-step ahead forecasting, the DMW test statistics between M6 and M4, in terms of MAEs, are significant at either the 5% or the 1% level, which implies that M6 produces significantly better forecasts than M4. This indicates that the inclusion of the VIX contributes particularly to improving long-term forecasting of the VKOSPI.

When we compare M6 with M1, M6 provides better out-of-sample forecasts in terms of both MSE and MAE losses and for all forecast horizons. The DMW test between these two models rejects the null hypothesis of equal predictability for all cases at the 5% or 1% significance level. This result is interesting and different from the findings reported in Fernandes et al. (2014). Their findings suggest that the pure HAR model performs well, and it is difficult to surpass the pure HAR model in forecasting the VIX. In their study, for example, the pure HAR model shows the best one-step-ahead forecast results in terms of MSE and MAE losses. In contrast with their results, for the analysis on the VKOSPI, our chosen model, M6, clearly dominates the pure HAR model in our sample for forecasting all horizons.

For the within-sample estimation result, we confirm that Korea’s stock market return is still redundant in forecasting future VKOSPI levels when other relevant covariates (the macroeconomic factors or the VIX) are included. The forecast errors (MSEs or MAEs) of M3 and M5 are similar. This is because they produce similar out-of-sample forecasts for all horizons, which implies that Korea’s stock market return loses its forecasting ability for the VKOSPI when the macroeconomic factors are included. The forecast errors of M3 and M7 are also similar because each model produces similar forecasts for all horizons. The Korean stock market return does not make any significant contribution to forecasting the VKOSPI.

For the robustness check of our out-of-sample results, we conduct a pair-wise comparison based on the DMW tests for MSE/MAE values (see Table 7) and the SPA tests (Table 8). Following Muzzioli (2013), we undertake a pair-wise comparison among the models (M1–M7). The DMW test statistic is calculated for all possible pairs of the models. Panels A and B of Table 7 show the DMW test results based on the MSE and MAE, respectively. For the one-step-ahead out-of-sample forecasting, M4 outperforms M1–M3, M5, and M7, as does M6. This might be due to the fact that both M4 and M6 include the US stock market returns. However, for multi-step-ahead out-of-sample forecasting, M4 does not perform

Table 7: The Diebold-Mariano and West (DMW) tests: Pair-wise comparisons

Panel A. Pair-wise comparisons: MSEs

		M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
1-step							
	M1	0.26	0.53	2.69***	0.18	2.90***	0.51
	M2		0.52	2.87***	–0.41	3.08***	0.48
	M3			2.95***	–0.56	3.51***	–0.29
	M4				–2.92***	1.49	–3.03***
	M5					3.12***	0.53
	M6						–3.59***
5-step							
	M1	1.45	0.01	1.52	1.36	2.40**	–0.08
	M2		–1.41	0.90	–1.04	1.55	–1.52
	M3			1.88*	1.30	4.05***	–1.14
	M4				–1.03	1.26	–1.99**
	M5					1.62	–1.43
	M6						–4.25***
10-step							
	M1	1.39	–0.05	1.05	1.41	2.21**	–0.07
	M2		–1.87*	–0.54	0.40	0.74	–1.87*
	M3			1.46	1.92*	3.63***	–0.43
	M4				0.58	1.01	–1.47
	M5					0.71	–1.93*
	M6						–3.62***
22-step							
	M1	1.27	–0.08	0.94	1.24	2.71***	–0.11
	M2		–1.96**	–1.53	–0.04	0.07	–2.06**
	M3			1.44	1.90*	4.83***	–0.32
	M4				1.52	0.53	–1.52
	M5					0.07	–2.01**
	M6						–4.83***

Panel B. Pair-wise comparisons: MAEs

		M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7
1-step							
	M1	–0.89	–2.89***	4.47***	–0.84	3.34***	–2.95***
	M2		–2.67***	4.99***	0.23	3.62***	–2.71***
	M3			6.35***	2.67***	7.21***	–0.46
	M4				–4.96***	–0.74	–6.37***
	M5					3.59***	–2.73***
	M6						–7.16***
5-step							
	M1	1.69*	–0.88	1.12	1.55	2.72***	–1.11
	M2		–2.23**	–0.64	–1.38	1.16	–2.46**
	M3			1.71*	2.10**	4.63***	–2.72***
	M4				0.39	1.38	–1.91*
	M5					1.28	–2.34**
	M6						–4.92***
10-step							
	M1	0.37	–1.80*	–0.38	0.42	2.17**	–1.76*
	M2		–1.97**	–1.52	0.74	1.40	–1.93*
	M3			1.10	2.03**	4.24***	0.26
	M4				1.59	2.09**	–1.07
	M5					1.34	–1.99**
	M6						–4.17***
22-step							
	M1	0.21	–2.60***	–0.74	0.22	3.17***	–2.66***
	M2		–1.93*	–2.34**	0.24	1.66*	–2.02**
	M3			0.78	1.93*	5.03***	–1.10
	M4				2.38**	2.76***	–0.85
	M5					1.64	–2.02**
	M6						–5.10***

Notes: To carry out the pair-wise comparisons among the HAR-X models (M1–M7), this table reports the DMW test statistics for each pair of forecasts. The DMW test statistic is calculated from the distance between M6 (the key model) and the remaining models (M1 to M5, and M7). The loss functions used are the mean squared errors (MSEs) and mean absolute errors (MAEs). Panels A and B show the pair-wise comparison results based on the MSEs and MAEs, respectively. *, **, and *** signify rejection of the null hypothesis of equal predictability at 10%, 5%, and 1%, respectively.

significantly better than the other models, and M6 still outperforms other models in many cases. This might be due to the inclusion of the (persistent) VIX index variable in M6. Table 8 reports the SPA *p*-values for forecasts compared to a forecast made by M6. The null hypothesis is that none of the other models (M1–M5 and M7) is better than the key model (M6). The *p*-value of the SPA test (consistent), SPA_c, is presented in bold. The *p*-values of the lower bound (SPA_l) and upper bound (SPA_u) are also reported. These *p*-values, reported in Table 8, show that we cannot reject the null hypothesis of the SPA regardless of the type of loss function. This finding implies that no competing model, among those considered, is significantly better than the key model, M6. In sum, Tables 7 and 8 also confirm our findings for out-of-sample results.

Table 8: Tests for superior predictive ability (SPA)

		Results evaluated using *MSE*			Results evaluated using *MAE*		
		SPA_l	SPA_c	SPA_u	SPA_l	SPA_c	SPA_u
1-step	SPA *p*-values	0.540	**0.955**	0.998	0.218	**0.218**	0.448
5-step	SPA *p*-values	0.572	**0.960**	0.996	0.548	**0.943**	0.996
10-step	SPA *p*-values	0.545	**0.868**	0.987	0.553	**0.949**	0.998
22-step	SPA *p*-values	0.494	**0.576**	0.948	0.520	**0.520**	1.000

Notes: The table reports the *p*-values of the SPA tests for forecasts compared to a forecast by M6. The null hypothesis is that none of the other models (M1 to M5, and M7) are better than the key model (M6). The *p*-value of the SPA test (consistent), SPA_c, is in bold type. The *p*-values of the lower bound (SPA_l) and upper bound (SPA_u) are also reported. We run the 10,000 bootstrap replications to calculate the *p*-values. The dependence parameter, *q*, is set to 0.25.

6 Conclusions

Using the modified HAR framework, we analyze the statistical properties of an emerging market volatility index, namely the VKOSPI. Previous studies focus on advanced markets and do not consider the influence of global market factors in predicting implied market volatility indices in emerging markets. Our empirical results show that that the statistical properties of the VKOSPI are well captured by the HAR framework and that Korea's macroeconomic variables can explain the VKOSPI dynamics. In particular, we find that US stock market return and implied volatility index of the US market play a key role in explaining the dynamics of the VKOSPI and predicting its future levels, and their explanatory power dominates that of domestic macro-finance variables. This underscores the importance of considering global information linkages when analyzing and modeling the implied volatility dynamics of financial variables, especially in emerging markets, which are subject to significant global shocks.

Considering that the VKOSPI reflects market sentiment and the risk perspective of the market's participants, our study, which uncovers the time-series properties of the VKOSPI and explains its dynamics, provides useful trading information for market practitioners. Based on the predicted implied volatility index in this study, investors may implement investment strategies regarding hedging, speculative short-term trading, and broad portfolio management. Our study, which is based on the Korean market and the KOSPI, can be extended to other emerging markets. Our findings may provide a useful yardstick for future researchers to compare and contrast their findings in the markets with those reported here for the Korean market.

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