

Financial Econometrics

Lecture 6: Alternative Approaches to Estimating Volatility

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Some alternative methods

- Moving window estimates
- Use of high-frequency financial data
- Use of daily open, high, low and closing prices (or log prices)

Moving window

- A simple approach to capture time-varying feature of the volatility.
- Hard to determine the size of the window.

Demonstration: Use the **quantmod** package to download the daily trading information of SPDR S&P 500 from January 3, 2002 to April 30, 2015. The tick symbol is **SPY**. Use the adjusted index value to compute daily log returns of SPY. A R script, **mvwindow.R**, is available on the course web.

Moving window

Instructions:

- 1 Download the data and save it in your R working directory.
- 2 Compile the program using the command: `source("mvwindow.R")`
- 3 To run the program: `mvol=mvwindow(rt,size)`, where "rt" denotes the return series and "size" is the size of the moving window.
- 4 The output is the volatility, i.e., σ_t , stored in **sigma.t**.

Demonstration shown in class.

Use of High-Frequency Data

Suppose we like to estimate the monthly volatility of a stock return.

Data: Daily returns

Let r_t^m be the t -th month log return.

Let $\{r_{t,i}\}_{i=1}^n$ be the daily log returns within the t -th month.

Using properties of log returns, we have

$$r_t^m = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{t,i}.$$

Assuming that the conditional variance and covariance exist, we have

$$\text{Var}(r_t^m | F_{t-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(r_{t,i} | F_{t-1}) + 2 \sum_{i < j} \text{Cov}(r_{t,i}, r_{t,j} | F_{t-1}),$$

where F_{t-1} = the information available at month $t-1$ (inclusive).

Further simplification is possible under additional assumptions.

Use of High-Frequency Data

If $\{r_{t,i}\}$ is a white noise series, then

$$\text{Var}(r_t^m | F_{t-1}) = n \text{Var}(r_{t,1}),$$

where $\text{Var}(r_{t,1})$ can be estimated from the daily returns $\{r_{t,i}\}_{i=1}^n$ by

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (r_{t,i} - \bar{r}_t)^2}{n-1},$$

where \bar{r}_t is the sample mean of the daily log returns in month t (i.e., $\bar{r}_t = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{t,i} / n$).

The estimated monthly volatility is then

$$\hat{\sigma}_m^2 = \frac{n}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (r_{t,i} - \bar{r}_t)^2 \approx \sum_{i=1}^n (r_{t,i} - \bar{r}_t)^2.$$

Use of High-Frequency Data

If $\{r_{t,i}\}$ follows an MA(1) model, then

$$\text{Var}(r_t^m | F_{t-1}) = n \text{Var}(r_{t,1}) + 2(n-1) \text{Cov}(r_{t,1}, r_{t,2}),$$

which can be estimated by

$$\hat{\sigma}_m^2 = \frac{n}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (r_{t,i} - \bar{r}_t)^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (r_{t,i} - \bar{r}_t)(r_{t,i+1} - \bar{r}_t).$$

Advantage: Simple

Weaknesses:

- Models for daily returns $\{r_{t,i}\}$ are unknown.
- Typically, 21 or 22 trading days in a month, resulting in a small sample size.

See Figure 1 for an illustration; Ex 3.6 of the text.

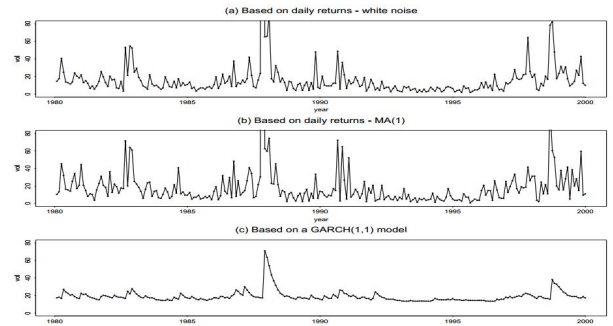


Figure 1: Time plots of estimated monthly volatility for the log returns of S&P 500 index from January 1980 to December 1999: (a) assumes that the daily log returns form a white noise series, (b) assumes that the daily log returns follow an MA(1) model, and (c) uses monthly returns from January 1962 to December 1999 and a GARCH(1,1) model.

Realized integrated volatility

If the sample mean \bar{r}_t is zero, then $\hat{\sigma}_m^2 \approx \sum_{i=1}^n r_{t,i}^2$.

⇒ Use cumulative sum of squares of daily log returns within a month as an estimate of monthly volatility.

Consider tick-by-tick data: Apply the idea to intraday log returns and obtain realized integrated volatility.

Assume daily log return $r_t = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{t,i}$. The quantity

$$RV_t = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{t,i}^2$$

is called the *realized* volatility of r_t .

Advantages: simplicity and using intraday information.

Weaknesses:

- Effects of market micro-structure noises
- Overlook overnight volatilities.

Further discussion

- ① In-filled asymptotic argument. Let Δ be the sampling interval, as $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, the sample size goes to infinity. Under the assumption that the Δ -interval log returns, e.g. 5-minute returns, are independent and identically distributed, then $\sum_{j=1}^n r_{t,j}^2$ converges to the variance of the daily log return r_t . (Quadratic variation)
- ② In practice, however, there are micro-structure noises that affect the estimate such as the bid-ask bounce. In fact, it can be shown that as Δ goes to zero, the observed sum of squares of Δ -interval returns goes to infinity.

Further discussion

What next? Two approaches have been proposed:

- ① Optimal sampling interval: Bandi and Russell (2006). Find an optimal Δ . Or equivalently, the optimal sample size $n^* = 6.5$ hours/ Δ can be chosen as

$$n^* \approx \left[\frac{Q}{(\hat{\sigma}_{noise}^2)^2} \right]^{1/3},$$

where $Q = \frac{M}{3} \sum_{j=1}^M r_{t,j}^4$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{noise}^2 = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M r_{t,j}^2$, where M is the number of daily quotes available for the underlying stock and the returns $r_{t,j}$ are computed from the mid-point of the bid and ask quotes.

Further discussion

- ① Sub-sampling: Zhang et al. (2006). Choose Δ between 10 to 20 minutes. Compute integrated volatility for each of the possible Δ -interval return series. Then, compute the average. In fact, the authors propose a so-called two scales realized volatility (TSRV) estimate. The form is

$$RV = a_n \times ARV_K - b_n \times ARV_J,$$

where ARV_i denotes the average realized volatility of time interval i , a_n is a real number approaching 1 and $b_n = a_n \times n_K/n_J$, and $n_K = (n - K + 1)/K$ with n is the number of transactions within the day. J can be 1 or $J \ll K$. When $J = 1$, the second term can be regarded as estimate of the noise. When K is much larger than J , the second term is typically small.

Use of Daily Open, High, Low and Close Prices

Figure 2 shows a time plot of price versus time for the t th trading day. Define

- C_t = the closing price of the t th trading day;
- O_t = the opening price of the t th trading day;
- f = fraction of the day (in interval $[0,1]$) that trading is closed;
- H_t = the highest price of the t th trading period;
- L_t = the lowest price of the t th trading period;
- F_{t-1} = public information available at time $t - 1$.

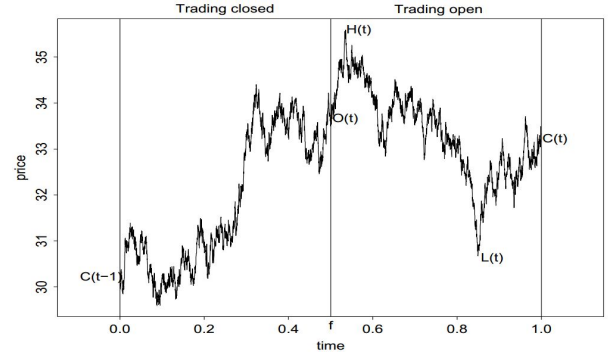


Figure 2: Time plot of price over time: scale for price is arbitrary

Use of Daily Open, High, Low and Close Prices

The conventional variance (or volatility) is $\sigma_t^2 = E[(C_t - C_{t-1})^2 | F_{t-1}]$. Some alternatives:

- $\hat{\sigma}_{0,t}^2 = (C_t - C_{t-1})^2$;
- $\hat{\sigma}_{1,t}^2 = \frac{(O_t - C_{t-1})^2}{2f} + \frac{(C_t - O_t)^2}{2(1-f)}$, $0 < f < 1$;
- $\hat{\sigma}_{2,t}^2 = \frac{(H_t - L_t)^2}{4 \ln(2)} \approx 0.3607(H_t - L_t)^2$;
- $\hat{\sigma}_{3,t}^2 = 0.17 \frac{(O_t - C_{t-1})^2}{f} + 0.83 \frac{(H_t - L_t)^2}{(1-f)4 \ln(2)}$, $0 < f < 1$;
- $\hat{\sigma}_{5,t}^2 = 0.5(H_t - L_t)^2 - [2 \ln(2) - 1](C_t - O_t)^2$, which is $\approx 0.5(H_t - L_t)^2 - 0.386(C_t - O_t)^2$;

Use of Daily Open, High, Low and Close Prices

- $\hat{\sigma}_{6,t}^2 = 0.12 \frac{(O_t - C_{t-1})^2}{f} + 0.88 \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{5,t}^2}{1-f}$, $0 < f < 1$.

A more precise, but complicated, estimator $\hat{\sigma}_{4,t}^2$ was also considered. But it is close to $\hat{\sigma}_{5,t}^2$.

Defining the efficiency factor of a volatility estimator as

$$\text{Eff}(\hat{\sigma}_{i,t}^2) = \frac{\text{Var}(\hat{\sigma}_{0,t}^2)}{\text{Var}(\hat{\sigma}_{i,t}^2)},$$

Garman and Klass (1980) found that $\text{Eff}(\hat{\sigma}_{i,t}^2)$ is approximately 2.5, 2, 6.2, 7.4 and 8.4 for $i = 1, 2, 3, 5$ and 6, respectively, for the simple diffusion model entertained.

For log-return volatility, one takes the logarithms of the Open, High, Low and Close prices.

Use of Daily Open, High, Low and Close Prices

Define

- $o_t = \ln(O_t) - \ln(C_{t-1})$ be the normalized open;
- $u_t = \ln(H_t) - \ln(O_t)$ be the normalized high;
- $d_t = \ln(L_t) - \ln(O_t)$ be the normalized low;
- $c_t = \ln(C_t) - \ln(O_t)$ be the normalized close.

Use of Daily Open, High, Low and Close Prices

Suppose that there are n days of data available and the volatility is constant over the period. Yang and Zhang (2000) recommend the estimate

$$\hat{\sigma}_{yz}^2 = \hat{\sigma}_o^2 + k\hat{\sigma}_c^2 + (1-k)\hat{\sigma}_{rs}^2$$

as a robust estimator of the volatility, where

$$\hat{\sigma}_o^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{t=1}^n (o_t - \bar{o})^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \bar{o} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n o_t,$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_c^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{t=1}^n (c_t - \bar{c})^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \bar{c} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n c_t,$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{rs}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n [u_t(u_t - c_t) + d_t(d_t - c_t)],$$

$$k = \frac{0.34}{1.34 + (n+1)/(n-1)}.$$

Use of Daily Open, High, Low and Close Prices

This estimate seems to perform reasonably well.

Remark: One must consider the stock split in the above calculation. Some work using daily range. For log returns, daily range is defined as

$$r_t = \ln(H_t) - \ln(L_t).$$

This is related to the **duration models** to be discussed later in high-frequency data.

Takeaway

Some alternative approaches to volatility estimation are currently under intensive study. It is rather early to assess the impact of these methods. It is a good idea in general to use more information. However, regulations and institutional effects need to be considered.