

Boston University Questrom School of Business

MF793 – Fall 2021

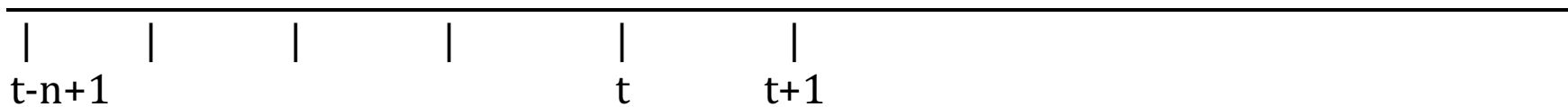
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Filtering Methods for Time-Varying Volatility

1. Rolling vs. extending window estimators
2. Issues to address
 - Sample size, horizon
 - Outliers and regime shifts
 - Spurious memory
3. **Risk Metrics** – Declining (EWMA) weights estimator
4. From block sampling to **realized volatility**: high frequency estimators
5. Recall the good news: Variance estimated more precisely with high frequency data

1. Rolling vs. extending window estimator

- **Extending window** estimator:
 - Use all available data at all times
 - Say we start at time t with **n available observations** from **$t-n+1$** to **t**
 - Every period, we get one new observation, and we can **re-estimate**



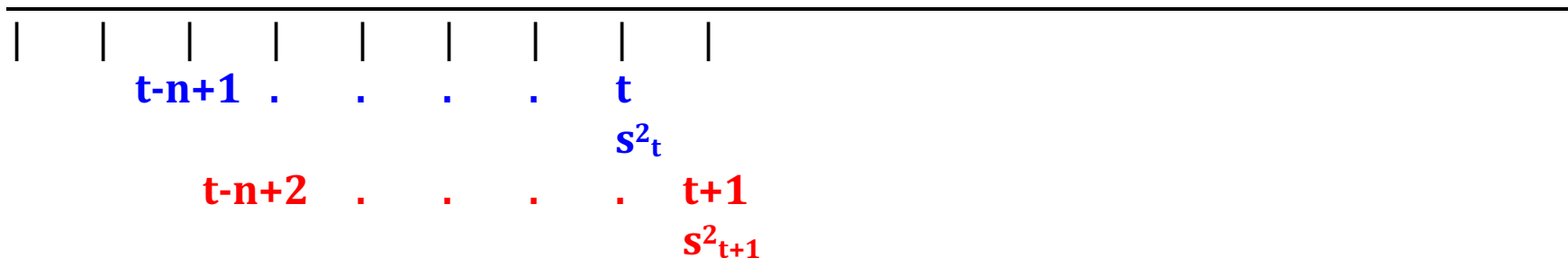
- Estimate at time t
 - mean $m_t = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} R_{t-i} / \mathbf{n}$
 - variance $s^2_t = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (R_{t-i} - m_t)^2 / \mathbf{n}$
 - sample covariance $s_{AB,t}$ for series $R_{A,t-i}$ and $R_{B,t-i}$

- Re-estimate at time $t+1$
 - $m_{t+1} = \sum_{i=0}^n R_{t+1-i} / (\mathbf{n} + \mathbf{1})$
 - s^2_{t+1}
 - $s_{AB,t+1}$
- with one more observation

- **Rolling window** estimator
 - We decide on an arbitrary number **n** of observation, e.g.,
5 years of monthly data
1 or 2 years of weekly or daily data
 - Every period: add a new observation, **remove the oldest**, re-estimate
 - => We keep the **window length n** constant

Rolling window length n

at t: uses observations [**t-n+1**,, **t**]
 at t+1: uses observations [**t-n+2**,, **t+1**]

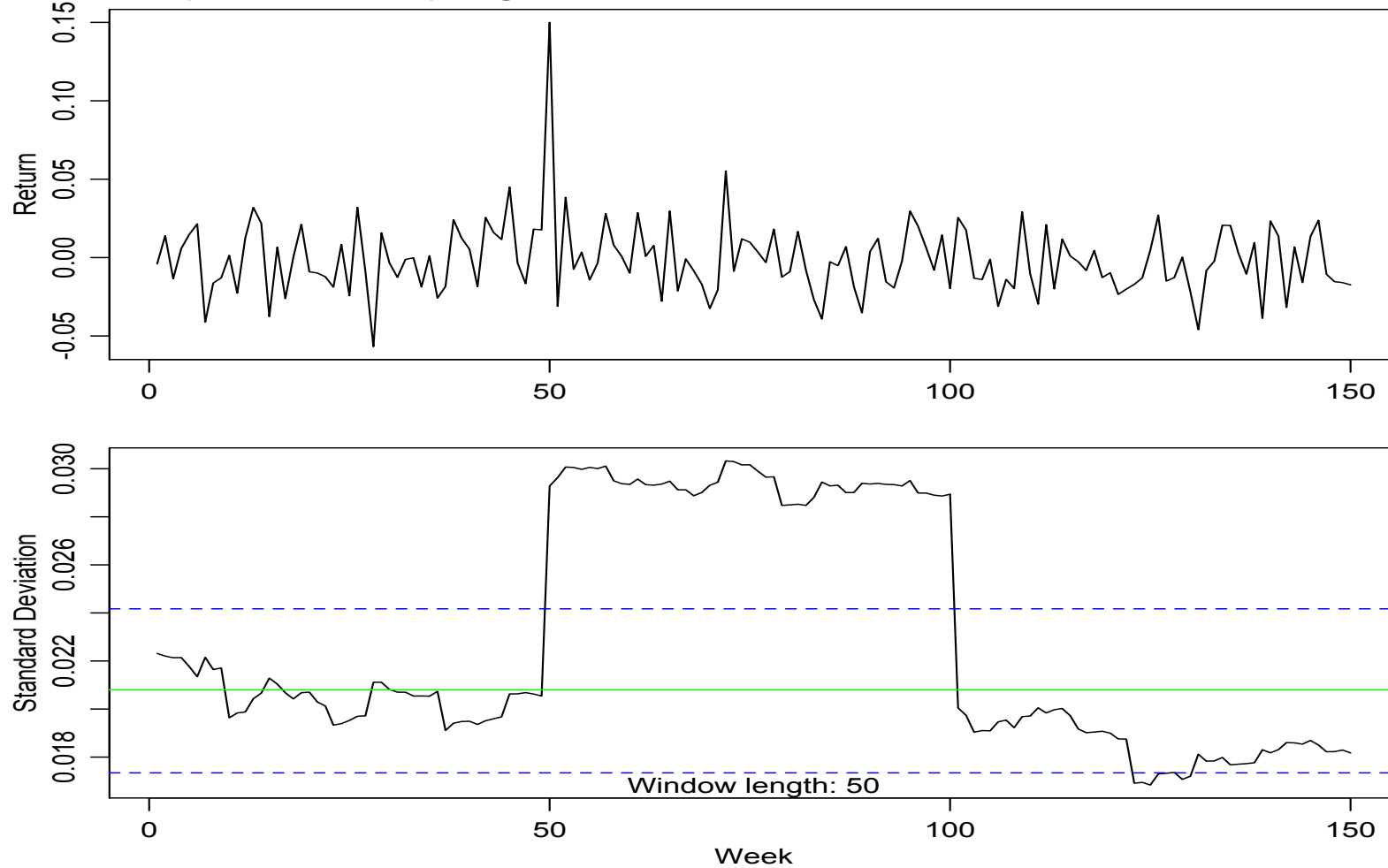


- Note the **overlapping observations** from one estimate to the next ones

- Extending window estimator consistent with:
 - Underlying belief: parameter estimated is constant
=> Old observations remain useful
 - more observations => higher precision
- Rolling window estimator consistent with:
 - Underlying belief: parameter varies with time
=> older observations are less relevant
“parameter has changed, we remove old data as time goes”
 - Little guidance on window size apart from common practice
 σ : up to 1 year of daily data
 β : 5 years of monthly data 1 or 2 years of weekly or daily data
- Rolling or Extending ? The usual dilemma
 - Rolling: less precise but more robust
 - Extending: more precise (if correct) but less robust (if wrong),
misspecification risk

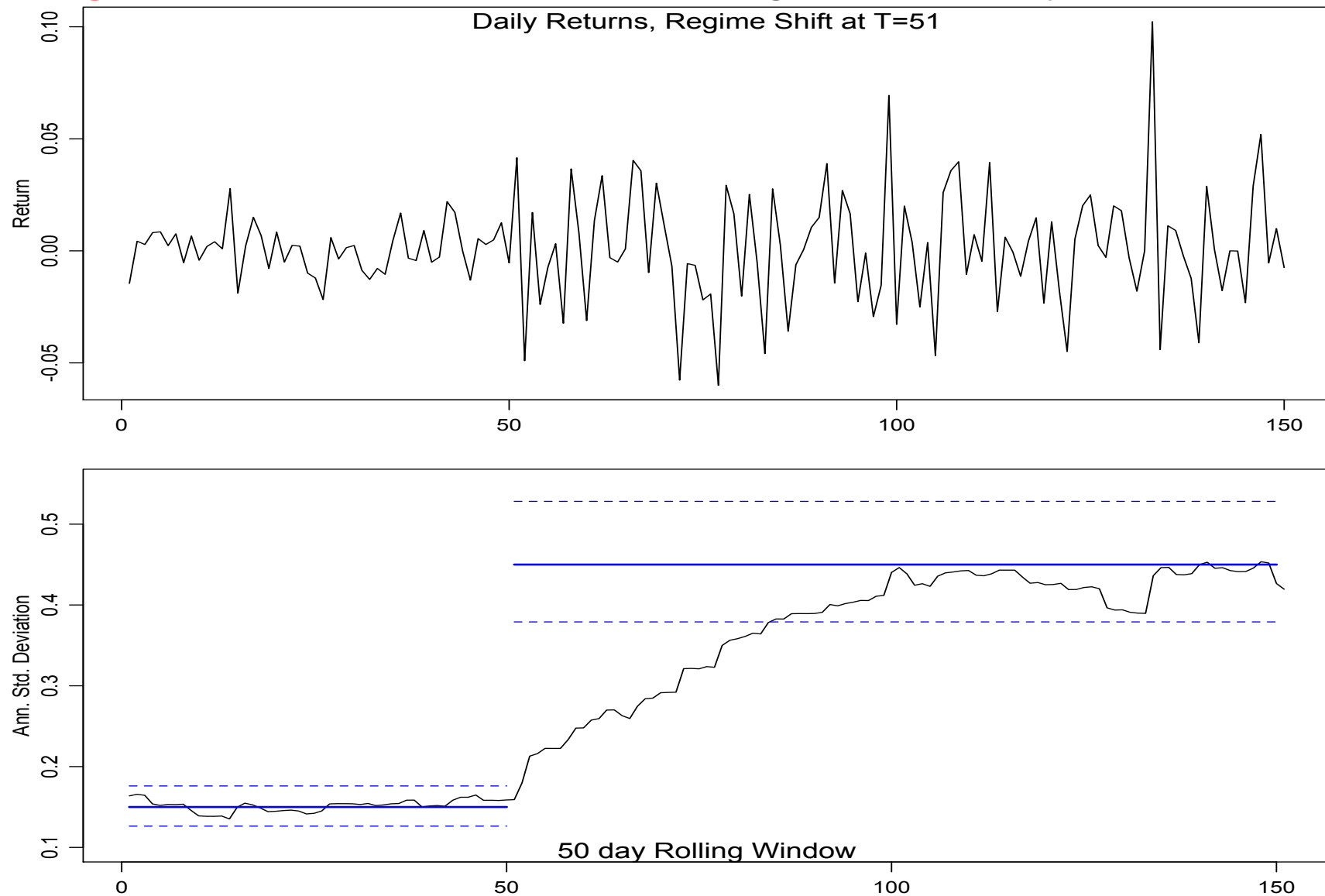
2 Three issues (example with estimating std. dev.)

- **Outliers** (extreme data): e.g. s_t around Oct 19, 1987 ?



Outliers come in and out of estimation window abruptly, filter has unrealistic patterns

- **Regime shifts** in true variance: Durable change in true volatility ...



Filter does not incorporate regime shifts quickly, they come in slowly (linearly)

- *Spurious Memory:*

Overlapping moving window creates unwanted memory from one estimate to the next ones

$$s^2_t = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (R_{t-i} - m)^2 / n$$

returns used: $[t-n+1, \dots, t]$

$$s^2_{t+k} = \sum (R_{t-i+k} - m)^2 / n$$

returns used: $[t+k-n+1, \dots, t+k]$ $n-k$ common terms with s^2_t

$$s^2_{t+n} = \sum (R_{t-i+n} - m)^2 / n$$

returns used: $[t+n-n+1, \dots, t+n]$: no common term

=> Causes a spurious linearly declining autocorrelation structure up to lag n even if the true variance is not autocorrelated or is constant.

=> One can't use ACF up to lag n to conclude on the time series process of the true σ_t .. because of the spurious autocorrelation in s_t .

Spurious memory affects all overlapping estimators

3 Risk Metrics: a filter better adapted to heteroskedasticity

- RM uses declining weights

$$s^2_t = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (R_{t-i} - m_{t-i})^2 (w_i / \sum w_i), \quad w_i = \lambda^i, \quad 0 < \lambda < 1 \quad \text{e.g., } 0.9, 0.81, \dots$$

- No need for an arbitrary finite window

- $\sum w_i = 1 + \lambda + \lambda^2 + \dots + \lambda^{n-1} = (1 - \lambda^n) / (1 - \lambda)$

Weights must sum to 1 for correct scaling

- $n \rightarrow \infty: \quad \sum w_i = 1 / (1 - \lambda) \quad \text{since } \lambda < 1$

- Precision:

- Equal weights **most** precise **if** data is homoskedastic (has constant variance)
 - Equal weights **less** precise if volatility changes with time.

$$s_t^2 = \sum (R_{t-i} - m_i)^2 \lambda^i (1 - \lambda)$$

- Easy updating rule:

$$s^2_t = \lambda s^2_{t-1} + (1-\lambda) (R_t - m_t)^2$$

Let $r_t = R_t - m_t$

$$s^2_t = (r^2_t + \lambda r^2_{t-1} + \lambda^2 r^2_{t-2} + \dots) (1-\lambda)$$

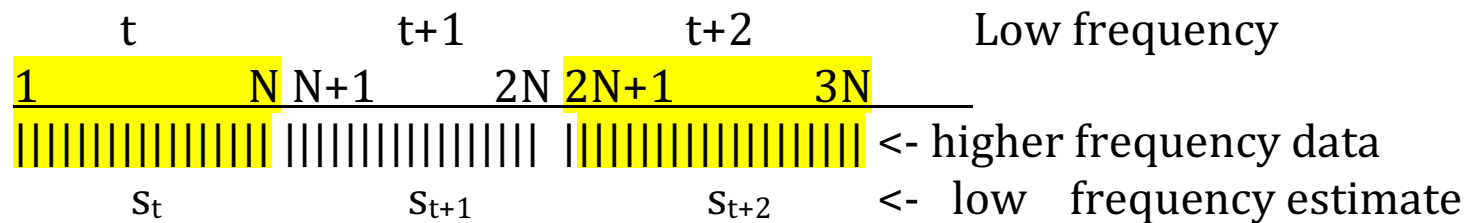
$$s^2_{t-1} = (r^2_{t-1} + \lambda r^2_{t-2} + \dots) (1-\lambda) \quad \text{rewritten at } t-1$$

- **Outliers:** Most effect right away $\lambda (1-\lambda) (r_{t-1})^2$
Then weight decays: $\lambda^2 (1-\lambda) (r_{t-2})^2$
- **Regime shift:** new regime taken into account faster since most recent observations have highest weights

4 Realized Volatility (Block Sampling)

1. Say we need estimates at a given frequency. Call it the *low* frequency.
2. Collect data at a frequency **higher** than the frequency needed
 daily if monthly is needed
 5 minutes if daily is needed
3. Estimate σ_t for each low frequency period using the higher frequency data.

$$\int_r = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \sigma_t dt$$



- Pros:
 - Outliers absorbed right away
 - Regime shifts incorporated right away
 - Subsequent estimates s_1, s_2 , do not share common observations:

Block Sampling estimators have no spurious autocorrelation

- Added benefit valid for any estimator based on high frequency returns.

Recall: $V(x) = E(x^2) - [E(x)]^2$ The mean “shrinks” at the same rate as the variance.

**For very high frequencies
we can ignore the estimation of the mean**

$$\mathbf{s^2_t} = \mathbf{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (R_{t-i/n} - \hat{\mu}_t)^2 / n \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{R^2_{t-i/n}}$$

Why multiply by n ?

Careful to understand the notation, we use the higher frequency returns

Effectively, we compute the sample mean of x^2 .

- Cons:

At ultra-high frequency, the financial data process becomes very complicated, ...

... Measurement errors, non-synchronous trading, prices not in equilibrium

Rule of thumb: Intervals no shorter than 5 minute even for liquid instruments

5 Recall volatility (2nd moment) estimation: precision increases with data frequency

Recall Lecture Note 7, Aggregation and Precision, we did a t-test approach.

- Confidence interval from low frequency data:

$$\left[s_M - 1.96 \frac{s_M}{\sqrt{2T}}, s_M + 1.96 \frac{s_M}{\sqrt{2T}} \right] \quad [1]$$

- Confidence interval from high frequency data (N points per low frequency interval):

$$\left[s_D - 1.96 \frac{s_D}{\sqrt{2TN}}, s_D + 1.96 \frac{s_D}{\sqrt{2TN}} \right] \quad [2]$$

- Convert the high frequency interval [2] into low frequency to allow for comparison with [1].

Both lower and upper bounds in [2] are high frequency standard deviations: to be multiplied by \sqrt{N} for annualization into low frequency. [2] becomes

$$\left[s_M - 1.96 \frac{s_M}{\sqrt{2T\mathbf{N}}}, s_M + 1.96 \frac{s_M}{\sqrt{2T\mathbf{N}}} \right] \quad [3]$$

Precision increases by \sqrt{N} when the sampling frequency increases by N