

## **Advantages of GARCH model**

Simplicity

Generates volatility clustering

Heavy tails (high kurtosis)

## **Weaknesses of GARCH model**

Symmetric btw positive & negative prior returns

Restrictive

Provides no explanation

Not sufficiently adaptive in prediction

## **GARCH-M model:**

$$r_t = \mu + c\sigma_t^2 + a_t,$$

$$a_t = \sigma_t \epsilon_t, \quad \sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 a_{t-1}^2 + \beta_1 \sigma_{t-1}^2,$$

where  $c$  is referred to as risk premium, which is expected to be positive.

## EGARCH model:

Asymmetry in responses to + and - returns:

$$g(\epsilon_t) = \theta\epsilon_t + [|\epsilon_t| - E(|\epsilon_t|)],$$

with  $E[g(\epsilon_t)] = 0$ . To see asymmetry of  $g(\epsilon_t)$ , rewrite it as

$$g(\epsilon_t) = \begin{cases} (\theta + 1)\epsilon_t - E(|\epsilon_t|) & \text{if } \epsilon_t \geq 0, \\ (\theta - 1)\epsilon_t - E(|\epsilon_t|) & \text{if } \epsilon_t < 0. \end{cases}$$

An EGARCH(m, s) model:

$$a_t = \sigma_t \epsilon_t, \quad \ln(\sigma_t^2) = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i g(\epsilon_{t-i}) + \sum_{i=1}^s \beta_i \ln(\sigma_{t-i}^2).$$

Some features of EGARCH models:

uses log trans. to relax the positiveness constraint

asymmetric responses.

Consider an EGARCH(1,1) model

$$a_t = \sigma_t \epsilon_t, \quad (1 - \beta B) \ln(\sigma_t^2) = \alpha_0 + \alpha g(\epsilon_{t-1}),$$

Under normality,  $E(|\epsilon_t|) = \sqrt{2/\pi}$  and the model becomes

$$(1 - \beta B) \ln(\sigma_t^2) = \begin{cases} \alpha_* + \alpha(\theta + 1)\epsilon_{t-1} & \text{if } \epsilon_{t-1} \geq 0, \\ \alpha_* + \alpha(\theta - 1)\epsilon_{t-1} & \text{if } \epsilon_{t-1} < 0, \end{cases}$$

where  $\alpha_* = \alpha_0 - \alpha\sqrt{2/\pi}$ .

This is a nonlinear fun. similar to that of the threshold AR model of Tong (1978, 1990). Specifically, we have

$$\sigma_t^2 = \sigma_{t-1}^{2\beta} \exp(\alpha_*) \begin{cases} \exp[(\theta_1 + \alpha)\epsilon_{t-1}] & \text{if } a_{t-1} \geq 0, \\ \exp[(\theta_1 - \alpha)\epsilon_{t-1}] & \text{if } a_{t-1} < 0, \end{cases}$$

where  $\theta_1 = \theta\alpha$ .

The coefficients  $(\theta_1 + \alpha)$  and  $(\theta_1 - \alpha)$  show the asymmetry in response to positive and negative  $a_{t-1}$ . The model is, therefore, nonlinear if  $\theta_1 \neq 0$ . Thus,  $\theta_1$  (or  $\theta$ ) is referred to as the leverage parameter. It shows the effect of the sign of  $a_{t-1}$  whereas  $\alpha$  denotes the magnitude effect. See Nelson (1991) for an example of EGARCH model.

## ARMA-GARCH model:

$$\begin{aligned}r_t &= \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i r_{t-i} + a_t - \sum_{j=1}^q \theta_j a_{t-j}, \\a_t &= \eta_t \sigma_t, \\ \sigma_t^2 &= \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i a_{t-i}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^s \beta_j \sigma_{t-j}^2.\end{aligned}$$

$r_t$  is called ARMA( $p, q$ )-GARCH( $r, s$ ) model.

## ARIMA-GARCH model:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_p(B)(1-B) \log P_t &= \theta_q(B) a_t, \\a_t &= \eta_t \sigma_t, \\ \sigma_t^2 &= \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i a_{t-i}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^s \beta_j \sigma_{t-j}^2.\end{aligned}$$

$\log P_t$  is called ARIMA( $p, 1, q$ )-GARCH( $m, s$ ) model.

## Estimation: Maximum Likelihood Estimation

We consider the case with  $p = 1$  and  $q = 0$  and  $s = m = 1$ . Assume that random sample  $\{r_1, \dots, r_n\}$  is from the AR(1)-GARCH(1,1) model:

$$\begin{aligned}r_t &= \phi_{10} r_{t-1} + a_t, \\a_t &= \sigma_t \epsilon_t, \\ \sigma_t^2 &= \alpha_{00} + \alpha_{10} a_{t-1}^2 + \beta_{10} \sigma_{t-1}^2,\end{aligned}$$

where  $\lambda_0 = (\phi_{10}, \alpha_{00}, \alpha_{10}, \beta_{10})'$  is called the true parameters.

Denote  $\tilde{Z}_t = (r_t, r_{t-1}, \dots)$ . Given  $\tilde{Z}_{t-1}$ , the conditional density function of  $r_t$  is

$$f(r_t | \tilde{Z}_{t-1}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_t^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(r_t - \phi_{10}r_{t-1})^2}{2\sigma_t^2}\right).$$

Given  $\tilde{Z}_0$ , the conditional joint density function of  $(r_n, r_{n-1}, \dots, r_1)$ :

$$f(r_t, \dots, r_1 | \tilde{Z}_0) = \prod_{t=1}^n \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_t^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(r_t - \phi_{10}r_{t-1})^2}{2\sigma_t^2}\right) \right\},$$

where

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha_{00} + \alpha_{10}(r_{t-1} - \phi_{10}r_{t-2})^2 + \beta_{10}\sigma_{t-1}^2.$$

Replaced  $\lambda_0$  by its unknown parameter  $\lambda = (\phi, \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \beta_1)'$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} a_t(\phi) &= r_t - \phi r_{t-1}, \\ \sigma_t^2(\lambda) &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(r_{t-1} - \phi r_{t-2})^2 + \beta_1\sigma_{t-1}^2(\lambda). \end{aligned}$$

The conditional likelihood function of  $(r_n, r_{n-1}, \dots, r_1)$ :

$$f(r_t, \dots, r_1 | \tilde{Z}_0) = \prod_{t=1}^n \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_t^2(\lambda)}} \exp\left(-\frac{a_t^2(\phi)}{2\sigma_t^2(\lambda)}\right) \right\}.$$

Log -conditional likelihood function of  $(r_n, r_{n-1}, \dots, r_1)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} L(\lambda) &\equiv \ln f(r_t, \dots, r_1 | \tilde{Z}_0) \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^n \left\{ \ln \sigma_t^2(\lambda) + \frac{a_t^2(\phi)}{\sigma_t^2(\lambda)} \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

The MLE of  $\lambda$  is the maximizer of  $L(\lambda)$ , denote by  $\hat{\lambda}$ . If  $E\varepsilon_t^4 < \infty$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\lambda} &\longrightarrow \lambda_0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \\ \sqrt{n}(\hat{\lambda} - \lambda_0) &\sim N(0, \hat{\Omega}), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\hat{\Omega} = E \left[ \frac{\partial^2 L(\hat{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda \partial \lambda'} \right]^{-1} E \left[ \frac{\partial L(\hat{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda} \frac{\partial L(\hat{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda'} \right] E \left[ \frac{\partial^2 L(\hat{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda \partial \lambda'} \right]^{-1}.$$

## Diagnostic Checking and Model selection

The formal method is not provided in SAS. AIC is a main tool for model selection.

We can use Ljung-Box test for squared standardized residuals:

$$\hat{\epsilon}_t = \frac{a_t(\hat{\phi})}{\sigma_t(\hat{\lambda})} \text{ and } \hat{\epsilon}_t^2 = \frac{a_t^2(\hat{\phi})}{\sigma_t^2(\hat{\lambda})}.$$

## Forecasting

The forecast value  $\hat{r}_t(l)$  of  $r_{t+l}$  is calculated by

$$\hat{r}_t(l) = E(r_{t+l} | r_t, r_{t-1}, \dots).$$

The formulas is the same as the one in the ARMA model with a constant variance.

The one-step forecast interval for the ARIMA-GARCH model:

$$\left[ \hat{r}_t(1) - \mathcal{N}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sigma_t(\hat{\lambda}), \hat{r}_t(1) + \mathcal{N}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sigma_t(\hat{\lambda}) \right]$$

where  $\mathcal{N}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$  is the  $\alpha/2$ -quantile of  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .

SAS only provides the forecasting value and forecast interval for AR-GARCH model.

You have to write your own programs in practice.

## Other GARCH-type Models

The Threshold GARCH (TGARCH) or GJR Model  
A TGARCH(s,m) or GJR(s,m) model is defined as

$$r_t = \mu_t + a_t, \quad a_t = \sigma_t \epsilon_t,$$

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^s (\alpha_i + \gamma_i N_{t-i}) a_{t-i}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j \sigma_{t-j}^2,$$

where  $N_{t-i}$  is an indicator variable such that

$$N_{t-i} = 1 \text{ if } a_{t-i} < 0, \text{ and } = 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

One expects  $\gamma_i$  to be positive so that prior negative returns have higher impact on the volatility.

TGARCH(1,1) model:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_t^2 = & (\alpha_{10} + \alpha_{11} a_{t-1}^2 + \beta_{11} \sigma_{t-1}^2) I\{a_{t-1} \leq 0\} \\ & + (\alpha_{20} + \alpha_{21} a_{t-1}^2 + \beta_{21} \sigma_{t-1}^2) I\{a_{t-1} > 0\}. \end{aligned}$$



## The CHARMA Model

Make use of interaction btw past shocks.

A CHARMA model is defined as

$$r_t = \mu_t + a_t, \quad a_t = \delta_{1t}a_{t-1} + \delta_{2t}a_{t-2} + \cdots + \delta_{mt}a_{t-m} + \eta_t,$$

where  $\{\eta_t\}$  is iid  $N(0, \sigma_\eta^2)$ ,  $\{\delta_t\} = \{(\delta_{1t}, \dots, \delta_{mt})'\}$  is a sequence of iid random vectors  $D(0, \Omega)$ ,  $\{\delta_t\}$  and  $\{\eta_t\}$  are independent. The model can be written as

$$a_t = (a_{t-1}, \dots, a_{t-m})\delta_t + \eta_t,$$

with conditional variance

$$\sigma_t^2 = \sigma_\eta^2 + (a_{t-1}, \dots, a_{t-m})\Omega(a_{t-1}, \dots, a_{t-m})',$$

where  $\Omega = E(\delta_t\delta_t')$ .

## RCA Model

A time series  $r_t$  is a RCA(p) model if

$$r_t = \phi_0 + \sum_{i=1}^p (\phi_i + \delta_{it})r_{t-i} + a_t,$$

where  $\{a_t\}$  is i.i.d. with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma_a^2$ ,  $\{\delta_t\} = \{(\delta_{1t}, \dots, \delta_{pt})'\}$  is a sequence of iid random vectors  $D(0, \Omega_\delta)$ ,  $\{\delta_t\}$  and  $\{a_t\}$  are independent. For this model, we have

$$\mu_t = E(r_t | F_{t-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i r_{t-i},$$

$$\sigma_t^2 = \sigma_a^2 + (r_{t-1}, \dots, r_{t-p}) \Omega_\delta (r_{t-1}, \dots, r_{t-p})',$$

where  $\Omega_\delta = E(\delta_t \delta_t')$ .

## Stochastic volatility model

A (simple) SV model is

$$a_t = \sigma_t \epsilon_t, \quad (1 - \alpha_1 B - \dots - \alpha_m B^m) \ln(\sigma_t^2) = \alpha_0 + v_t,$$

where  $\epsilon_t$ 's are iid  $N(0, 1)$ ,  $v_t$ 's are iid  $N(0, \sigma_v^2)$ ,  $\{\epsilon_t\}$  and  $\{v_t\}$  are independent.

## Alternative Approaches to Volatility

Two alternative methods:

Use of high-frequency financial data

Use of daily open, high, low and closing prices

### Use of High-Frequency Data

Purpose: monthly volatility

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(r_t^m | F_{t-1}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(r_{t,i} | F_{t-1}) \\ &\quad + 2 \sum_{i < j} \text{Cov}[(r_{t,i}, r_{t,j}) | F_{t-1}], \end{aligned}$$

where  $F_{t-1}$  = the information available at month  $t - 1$  (inclusive). Further simplification possible under additional assumptions.

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

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

where  $Var(r_{t,1})$  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

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

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

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

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:

Model for daily returns  $\{r_{t,i}\}$  is unknown.

Typically, 21 trading days in a month, resulting in a small sample size.

## **Realized integrated volatility**

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

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

Apply the idea to *intradaily* 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 microstructure (noises)

Overlook overnight return

**Use of Daily Open, High, Low and Close Prices:**

See text book.