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# Thesis title



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6

*Master in Finance*

7

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# Abstract

40 The greatest abstract all times

42	<b>List of Figures</b>	<b>vii</b>
43	<b>List of Tables</b>	<b>viii</b>
44	<b>List of Abbreviations</b>	<b>ix</b>
45	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
46	<b>1 Literature review</b>	<b>3</b>
47	1.1 Stylized facts of returns . . . . .	3
48	1.1.1 Alternative distributions than the normal . . . . .	4
49	1.2 Volatility modeling . . . . .	7
50	1.2.1 Rolling volatility . . . . .	7
51	1.2.2 ARCH model . . . . .	8
52	1.2.3 Univariate GARCH models . . . . .	12
53	1.3 Value at Risk . . . . .	13
54	1.4 Conditional Value at risk . . . . .	13
55	<b>2 Data and methodology</b>	<b>14</b>
56	2.1 Data . . . . .	14
57	2.1.1 Descriptives . . . . .	14
58	2.1.2 Methodology . . . . .	20
59	<b>3 Empirical Findings</b>	<b>22</b>
60	3.1 Main analysis title . . . . .	22
61	<b>4 Robustness Analysis</b>	<b>23</b>
62	4.1 Specification checks . . . . .	23
63	4.1.1 Eye-balling econometrics . . . . .	23
64	4.1.2 GMM test . . . . .	24

65	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>25</b>
66	<b>Appendices</b>	
67	<b>A Appendix</b>	<b>28</b>
68	<b>Works Cited</b>	<b>29</b>

# List of Figures

# List of Tables

71	2.1 Summary statistics of the returns . . . . .	14
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## List of Abbreviations

- <sup>73</sup> **1-D, 2-D** . . . One- or two-dimensional, referring in this thesis to spatial di-  
<sup>74</sup> . . . . . mensions in an image.
- <sup>75</sup> **Otter** . . . . . One of the finest of water mammals.
- <sup>76</sup> **Hedgehog** . . . Quite a nice prickly friend.

# Introduction

78 A general assumption in finance is that stock returns are normally distributed (...).  
79 However, various authors have shown that this assumption does not hold in practice:  
80 stock returns are not normally distributed (...). For example, Theodossiou (2000)  
81 mentions that “empirical distributions of log-returns of several financial assets exhibit  
82 strong higher-order moment dependencies which exist mainly in daily and weekly log-  
83 returns and prevent monthly, bimonthly and quarterly log-returns from obeying the  
84 normality law implied by the central limit theorem. As a consequence, price changes  
85 do not follow the geometric Brownian motion.” So in reality, stock returns exhibit  
86 fat-tails and peakedness (...), these are some of the so-called stylized facts of returns.

87 Additionally a point of interest is the predictability of stock prices. Fama (1965)  
88 explains that the question in academic and business circles is: “To what extent can  
89 the past history of a common stock’s price be used to make meaningful predictions  
90 concerning the future price of the stock?”. There are two viewpoints towards the  
91 predictability of stock prices. Firstly, some argue that stock prices are unpredictable  
92 or very difficult to predict by its past returns (i.e. have very little serial correlation)  
93 because they simply follow a Random Walk process (...). On the other hand, Lo  
94 & MacKinlay mention that “financial markets *are* predictable to some extent but  
95 far from being a symptom of inefficiency or irrationality, predictability is the oil  
96 that lubricates the gears of capitalism”. Furthermore, there is also no real robust  
97 evidence for the predictability of returns themselves, let alone be out-of-sample  
98 (Welch and Goyal 2008). This makes it difficult for corporations to manage market  
99 risk, i.e. the variability of stock prices.

100 Risk in general can be defined as the volatility of unexpected outcomes (Jorion  
101 2007). The measure Value at Risk (VaR), developed in response to the financial

102 disaster events of the early 1990s, has been very important in the financial world. Cor-  
103 porations have to manage their risks and thereby include a future risk measurement.

# 1

## Literature review

### 1.1 Stylized facts of returns

When analyzing returns as a time-series, we look at log returns. The log returns are very similar to simple returns so the stylized facts of returns apply to both. One assumption that is made often in financial applications is that returns are iid, or indepently and identically distributed, another is that they are normally distribution. Are these valid assumptions? Below the stylized facts<sup>1</sup> following Annaert (2021) for returns are given.

- Returns are *small and volatile* (with the standard deviation being larger than the mean on average)
- Returns have very little serial correlation as mentioned by for example Bollerslev (1987).
- Returns exhibit conditional heteroskedasticity, or *volatility clustering*. There is no constant variance, but it is time-varying (homoskedasticity). Bollerslev (1987) describes it as “rates of return data are characterized by volatile and tranquil periods”.

---

<sup>1</sup>Stylized facts are the statistical properties that appear to be present in many empirical asset returns (across time and markets)

## 1.1. Stylized facts of returns

- Returns also exhibit *asymmetric volatility*, in that sense volatility increases more after a negative return shock than after a large positive return shock. This is also called the *leverage effect*.
- Returns are *not normally distributed* which is also one of the conclusions by Fama (1965). Returns have fat tails or show leptokurtosis and thus riskier than under the normal distribution (excess kurtosis that is larger than 3). Log returns **can** be assumed to be normally distributed. However, this will be examined in our empirical analysis if this is appropriate. This makes that simple returns are log-normally distributed, which is a skewed density distribution.

Firms holding a portfolio have a lot of things to consider: expected return of a portfolio, the probability to get a return lower than some threshold, the probability that an asset in the portfolio drops in value when the market crashes. Well, it all requires information about the return distribution or the density function. What we know from the stylized facts of returns that the normal distribution is not appropriate for returns. What distribution is then appropriate?

### 1.1.1 Alternative distributions than the normal

#### Student's t-distribution

One, often used alternative for the normal distribution is the Student t distribution. It is also a symmetric distribution, this means skewness is equal to zero. The probability density function (pdf), again following Annaert (2021), is given by equation (1.1). As will be seen in 1.2, GARCH models are used for volatility modeling in practice. Bollerslev (1987) examined the use of the GARCH-Student or GARCH-t model as an alternative to the standard Normal distribution, which relaxes the assumption of conditional normality by assuming the standardized innovation to follow a standardized Student t-distribution (Bollerslev 2008).

## 1. Literature review

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n+1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})\sqrt{\pi n}} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{-(n+1)/2} \quad (1.1)$$

As can be seen the pdf depends on degree of freedom parameter  $n$ . To be consistent with Ghalanos (2020a), the following general equation is used for the pdf (1.2).

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu+1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})\sqrt{\beta\pi\nu}} \left(1 + \frac{(x-\alpha)^2}{\beta\nu}\right)^{-(\nu+1)/2} \quad (1.2)$$

where  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\nu$  are respectively the location, scale and shape (tail-thickness) parameters. The symbol  $\Gamma$  is the Gamma function.

Unlike the normal distribution, which depends entirely on two moments only, the student t distribution has fatter tails (thus has a kurtosis coefficient). This kurtosis coefficient is given by equation (1.3). This is useful while as already mentioned, the standardized residuals appear to have fatter tails than the normal distribution following Bollerslev (2008).

$$kurt = 3 + \frac{6}{n-4} \quad (1.3)$$

### Generalized Error Distribution

The GED distribution is nested in the generalized t distribution by McDonald and Newey (1988) is used in the GED-GARCH model by Nelson (1991) to model stock market returns. This model replaced the assumption of conditional normally distributed error terms by standardized innovations that following a generalized error distribution. It is a symmetric, unimodal distribution (location parameter is the mode, median and mean). This is also sometimes called the exponential power distribution (Bollerslev 2008). The conditional density (pdf) is given by equation (1.4) following Ghalanos (2020a).

$$f(x) = \frac{\kappa e^{\left| \frac{x - \alpha}{\beta} \right|^\kappa}}{2^{1+\kappa(-1)} \beta \Gamma(\kappa^{-1})} \quad (1.4)$$

where  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\kappa$  are again respectively location, scale and shape parameters.

### Skewed t-Distribution

The density function can be derived following Fernández and Steel (1998) who showed how to introduce skewness into uni-modal standardized distributions (Trottier and Ardia 2015). Equation 1 from Trottier and Ardia (2015), here equation (1.5) gives this specification.

$$f_\xi(z) \equiv \frac{2\sigma_\xi}{\xi + \xi^{-1}} f_1(z_\xi), \quad z_\xi \equiv \begin{cases} \xi^{-1}(\sigma_\xi z + \mu_\xi) & \text{if } z \geq -\mu_\xi/\sigma_\xi \\ \xi(\sigma_\xi z + \mu_\xi) & \text{if } z < -\mu_\xi/\sigma_\xi \end{cases} \quad (1.5)$$

where  $\mu_\xi \equiv M_1(\xi - \xi^{-1})$ ,  $\sigma_\xi^2 \equiv (1 - M_1^2)(\xi^2 + \xi^{-2}) + 2M_1^2 - 1$ ,  $M_1 \equiv 2 \int_0^\infty u f_1(u) du$  and  $\xi$  between 0 and  $\infty$ .  $f_1(\cdot)$  is in this case equation (1.1), the pdf of the student t distribution.

According to Giot and Laurent (2003); Giot and Laurent (2004), the skewed t-distribution outperforms the symmetric density distributions.

### Skewed Generalized Error Distribution

What also will be interesting to examine is the SGED distribution of Theodossiou (2000) in GARCH models, like Lee et al. (2008) did. The SGED distribution extends the Generalized Error Distribution (GED) to allow for skewness and leptokurtosis. The density function can be derived following Fernández and Steel (1998) who showed how to introduce skewness into uni-modal standardized distributions (Trottier and Ardia 2015). It can also be found in Theodossiou (2000). The pdf is then given by the same equation (1.5) as the skewed t-distribution but with  $f_1(\cdot)$  equal to equation (1.4).

## 1. Literature review

### 185 Skewed Generalized t-distribution

186 The SGT distribution of introduced by Theodossiou (1998) and applied by Bali  
187 and Theodossiou (2007) and Bali, Mo, et al. (2008). According to Bali, Mo, et al.  
188 (2008) the proposed solutions (use of historical simulation, student's t-distribution,  
189 generalized error distribution or a mixture of two normal distributions) to the  
190 non-normality of standardized financial returns only partially solved the issues  
191 of skewness and leptokurtosis. The density of the generalized t-distribution of  
192 McDonald and Newey (1988) is given by equation (1.6).

$$f[\varepsilon_t \sigma_t^{-1}; \kappa, \psi] = \frac{\kappa}{2\sigma_t \cdot \psi^{1/\kappa} B(1/\kappa, \psi) \cdot [1 + |\varepsilon_t|^\kappa / (\psi b^\kappa \sigma_t^\kappa)]^{\psi+1/\kappa}} \quad (1.6)$$

193 where  $B(1/\eta, \psi)$  is the beta function ( $=\Gamma(1/\eta)\Gamma(\psi)\Gamma(1/\eta + \psi)$ ),  $\psi\eta > 2$ ,  $\eta >$   
194  $0$  and  $\psi > 0$ ,  $\beta = [\Gamma(\psi)\Gamma(1/\eta)/\Gamma(3/\eta)\Gamma(\psi - 2/\eta)]^{1/2}$ , the scale factor and one  
195 shape parameter  $\kappa$ .

196 Again the skewed variant is given by equation (1.5) but with  $f_1(\cdot)$  equal to  
197 equation (1.6) following Trottier and Ardia (2015).

## 198 1.2 Volatility modeling

### 199 1.2.1 Rolling volatility

200 When volatility needs to be estimated on a specific trading day, the method used  
201 as a descriptive tool would be to use rolling standard deviations. Engle (2001)  
202 explains the calculation of rolling standard deviations, as the standard deviation  
203 over a fixed number of the most recent observations. For example, for the past  
204 month it would then be calculated as the equally weighted average of the squared  
205 deviations from the mean (i.e. residuals) from the last 22 observations (the average  
206 amount of trading or business days in a month). All these deviations are thus given  
207 an equal weight. Also, only a fixed number of past recent observations is examined.  
208 Engle regards this formulation as the first ARCH model.



### 1.2.2 ARCH model

Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity (ARCH) models, proposed by Engle (1982), was in the first case not used in financial markets but on inflation. Since then, it has been used as one of the workhorses of volatility modeling. To fully capture the logic behind GARCH models, the building blocks are examined in the first place. There are three building blocks of the ARCH model: returns, the innovation process and the variance process (or volatility function), written out in respectively equation (1.7), (1.8) and (1.9). Returns are written as a constant part ( $\mu$ ) and an unexpected part, called noise or the innovation process. The innovation process is the volatility ( $\sigma_t$ ) times  $z_t$ , which is an independent identically distributed random variable with a mean of 0 (zero-mean) and a variance of 1 (unit-variance). The independent from iid, notes the fact that the  $z$ -values are not correlated, but completely independent of each other. The distribution is not yet assumed. The third component is the variance process or the expression for the volatility. The variance is given by a constant  $\omega$ , plus the random part which depends on the return shock of the previous period squared ( $\varepsilon_{t-1}^2$ ). In that sense when the uncertainty or surprise in the last period increases, then the variance becomes larger in the next period. The element  $\sigma_t^2$  is thus known at time  $t - 1$ , while it is a deterministic function of a random variable observed at time  $t - 1$  (i.e.  $\varepsilon_{t-1}^2$ ).

$$R_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t \quad (1.7)$$

$$\varepsilon_t = \sigma_t * z_t, \text{ where } z_t \stackrel{iid}{\sim} (0, 1) \quad (1.8)$$

$$\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \alpha_1 * \varepsilon_{t-1}^2 \quad (1.9)$$

From these components we could look at the conditional moments (or expected returns and variance). We can plug in the component  $\sigma_t$  into the conditional mean

## 1. Literature review

innovation  $\varepsilon_t$  and use the conditional mean innovation to examine the conditional mean return. In equation (1.10) and (1.11) they are derived. Because the random variable  $z_t$  is distributed with a zero-mean, the conditional expectation is 0. As a consequence, the conditional mean return in equation (1.11) is equal to the unconditional mean in the most simple case. But variations are possible using ARMA (eg. AR(1)) processes.

$$\mathbb{E}_{t-1}(\varepsilon_t) = \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(\sqrt{\omega + \alpha_1 * \varepsilon_{t-1}^2 * z_t}) = \sigma_t \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(z_t) = 0 \quad (1.10)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{t-1}(R_t) = \mu + \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(\varepsilon_t) = \mu \quad (1.11)$$

For the conditional variance, knowing everything that happened until and including period  $t - 1$  the conditional innovation variance is given by equation (1.12). This is equal to  $\sigma_t^2$ , while the variance of  $z_t$  is equal to 1. Then it is easy to derive the conditional variance of returns in equation (1.13), that is why equation (1.9) is called the variance equation.

$$var_{t-1}(\varepsilon_t) = \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(\varepsilon_t^2) = \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(\sigma_t^2 * z_t^2) = \sigma_t^2 \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(z_t^2) = \sigma_t^2 \quad (1.12)$$

$$var_{t-1}(R_t) = var_{t-1}(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma_t^2 \quad (1.13)$$

The unconditional variance is also interesting to derive, while this is the long-run variance, which will be derived in (1.17). After deriving this using the law of iterated expectations and assuming stationarity for the variance process, one would get (1.14) for the unconditional variance, equal to the constant  $c$  and divided by  $1 - \alpha_1$ , the slope of the variance equation.

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\omega}{1 - \alpha_1} \quad (1.14)$$

This leads to the properties of ARCH models.

## 1.2. Volatility modeling

- Stationarity condition for variance:  $\omega > 0$  and  $0 \leq \alpha_1 < 1$ .
- Zero-mean innovations
- Uncorrelated innovations

Thus a weak white noise process  $\varepsilon_t$

The unconditional 4th moment, kurtosis  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t^4)/\sigma^4$  of an ARCH model is given by equation (1.15). This term is larger than 3, which implicates that the fat-tails (a stylised fact of returns).

$$3 \frac{1 - \alpha_1^2}{1 - 3\alpha_1^2} \quad (1.15)$$

Another property of ARCH models is that it takes into account volatility clustering. Because we know that  $\text{var}(\varepsilon_t) = \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t^2) = \sigma^2 = \omega/(1 - \alpha_1)$ , we can plug in  $\omega$  for the conditional variance  $\text{var}_t(\varepsilon_{t+1}) = \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_{t+1}^2) = \sigma_{t+1}^2 = c + \alpha_1 * \varepsilon_t^2$ . Thus it follows that equation (1.16) displays volatility clustering. If we examine the RHS, as  $\alpha_1 > 0$  (condition for stationarity), when shock  $\varepsilon_t^2$  is larger than what you expect it to be on average  $\sigma^2$  the LHS will also be positive. Then the conditional variance will be larger than the unconditional variance. Briefly, large shocks will be followed by more large shocks.

$$\sigma_{t+1}^2 - \sigma^2 = \alpha_1 * (\varepsilon_t^2 - \sigma^2) \quad (1.16)$$

Excess kurtosis can be modeled, even when the conditional distribution is assumed to be normally distributed. The third moment, skewness, can be introduced using a skewed conditional distribution as we saw in part 1.1.1. The serial correlation for squared innovations is positive if fourth moment exists (equation (1.15), this is volatility clustering once again.

The estimation of ARCH model and in a next step GARCH models will be explained in the methodology. However how will then the variance be forecasted?

## 1. Literature review

Well, the conditional variance for the  $k$ -periods ahead, denoted as period  $T + k$ , is given by equation (1.17). This can already be simplified, while we know that  $\sigma_{T+1}^2 = \omega + \alpha_1 * \varepsilon_T^2$  from equation (1.9).

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_T(\varepsilon_{T+k}^2) &= \omega * (1 + \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha^{k-2}) + \alpha^{k-1} * \sigma_{T+1}^2 \\ &= \omega * (1 + \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha^{k-1}) + \alpha^k * \sigma_T^2\end{aligned}\tag{1.17}$$

It can be shown that then the conditional variance in period  $T + k$  is equal to equation (1.18). The LHS is the predicted conditional variance  $k$ -periods ahead above its unconditional variance,  $\sigma^2$ . The RHS is the difference current last-observed return residual  $\varepsilon_T^2$  above the unconditional average multiplied by  $\alpha_1^k$ , a decreasing function of  $k$  (given that  $0 \leq \alpha_1 < 1$ ). The further ahead predicting the variance, the closer  $\alpha_1^k$  comes to zero, the closer to the unconditional variance, i.e. the long-run variance.

$$\mathbb{E}_T(\varepsilon_{T+k}^2) - \sigma^2 = \alpha_1^k * (\varepsilon_T^2 - \sigma^2)\tag{1.18}$$

### 1.2.3 Univariate GARCH models

Generalised Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity (GARCH) models come in because of the fact that rolling period standard deviations give an equal weight to the deviations, by such not taking into account volatility clustering, which can be identified as positive autocorrelation in the absolute returns. All these GARCH models are estimated using the package rugarch by Alexios Ghalanos (2020b). We use specifications similar to Ghalanos (2020a).

#### sGARCH model

The standard GARCH model (Bollerslev 1986) is written consistent with Alexios Ghalanos (2020a) as in equation (1.19) without external regressors.

$$\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \sum_{j=1}^q \alpha_j \varepsilon_{t-j}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \sigma_{t-j}^2 \quad (1.19)$$

where  $\sigma_t^2$  denotes the conditional variance,  $\omega$  the intercept and  $\varepsilon_t^2$  the residuals from the used mean process. The GARCH order is defined by  $(q, p)$  (ARCH, GARCH). As Ghalanos (2020a) describes: “one of the key features of the observed behavior of financial data which GARCH models capture is volatility clustering which may be quantified in the persistence parameter  $\hat{P}$ ” specified as in equation (1.20).

$$\hat{P} = \sum_{j=1}^q \alpha_j + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j. \quad (1.20)$$

The unconditional variance of the standard GARCH model of Bollerslev is very similar to the ARCH model, but with the Garch parameters ( $\beta$ 's) included as in equation (1.21).

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}^2 &= \frac{\hat{\omega}}{1 - \hat{P}} \\ &= \frac{\hat{\omega}}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \end{aligned} \quad (1.21)$$

## 1. Literature review

### 297 **iGARCH model**

298 Following Alexios Ghalanos (2020a), the integrated GARCH model (Bollerslev  
299 1986) can also be estimated. This model assumes the persistence  $\hat{P} = 1$ . This is  
300 done by Ghalanos, by setting the sum of the ARCH and GARCH parameters to 1.  
301 Because of this unit-persistence, the unconditional variance cannot be calculated.

### 302 **eGARCH model**

303 The eGARCH model or exponential GARCH model (Nelson 1991) is defined  
304 as in equation (1.22),

$$\log_e(\sigma_t^2) = \omega + \sum_{j=1}^q (\alpha_j z_{t-j} + \gamma_j (|z_{t-j}| - E|z_{t-j}|)) + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \log_e(\sigma_{t-j}^2) \quad (1.22)$$

305 where  $\alpha_j$  captures the sign effect and  $\gamma_j$  the size effect.

### 306 **gjrGARCH model**

307 The gjrGARCH model (Glosten et al. 1993) models both positive as negative  
308 shocks on the conditional variance asymmetrically by using an indicator variable  
309  $I$ , it is specified as in equation (1.23).

$$\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \sum_{j=1}^q (\alpha_j \varepsilon_{t-j}^2 + \gamma_j I_{t-j} \varepsilon_{t-j}^2) + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \sigma_{t-j}^2 \quad (1.23)$$

310 where  $\gamma_j$  represents the *leverage* term. The indicator function  $I$  takes on value  
311 1 for  $\varepsilon \leq 0$ , 0 otherwise. Because of the indicator function, persistence of the  
312 model now crucially depends on the asymmetry of the conditional distribution  
313 used according to Ghalanos (2020a).

314 **naGARCH model (Engle & Ng)**

315 **tGARCH model (Zakoian)**

316 **avGARCH model (in our paper: TS-GARCH to Taylor and Schwert)**

## 317 **1.3 Value at Risk**

## 318 **1.4 Conditional Value at risk**

# 2

## Data and methodology

### 2.1 Data

Here comes text...

#### 2.1.1 Descriptives

##### Table of summary statistics

Here comes a table and description of the stats

**Table 2.1:** Summary statistics of the returns

---

Minimum
Median
Arithmetic Mean
Geometric Mean
Maximum
Stdev
Skewness
Kurtosis

---

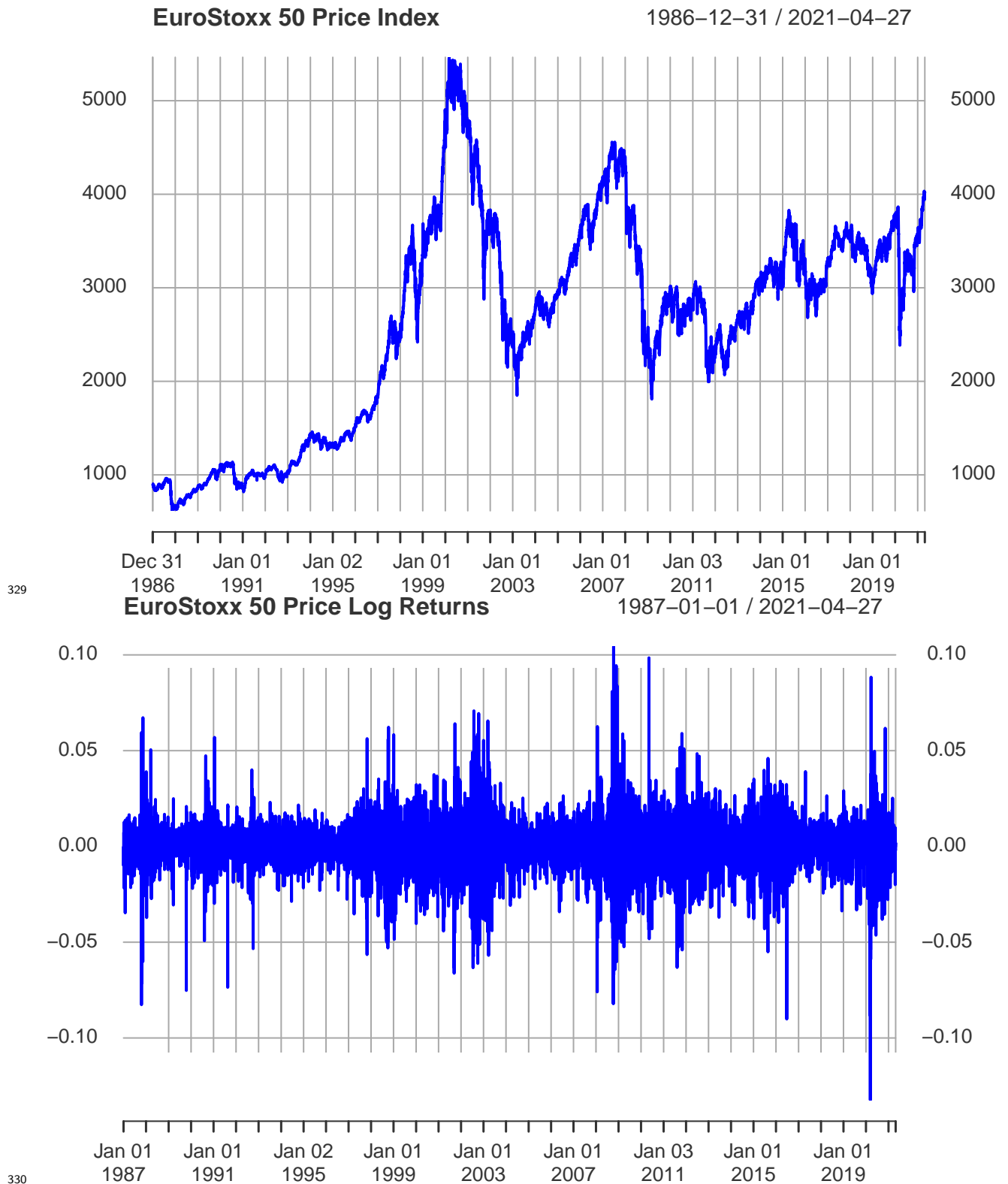
*Note:* This table shows the descriptive statistics of the returns of the 5 asset classes over the period

### Correlation

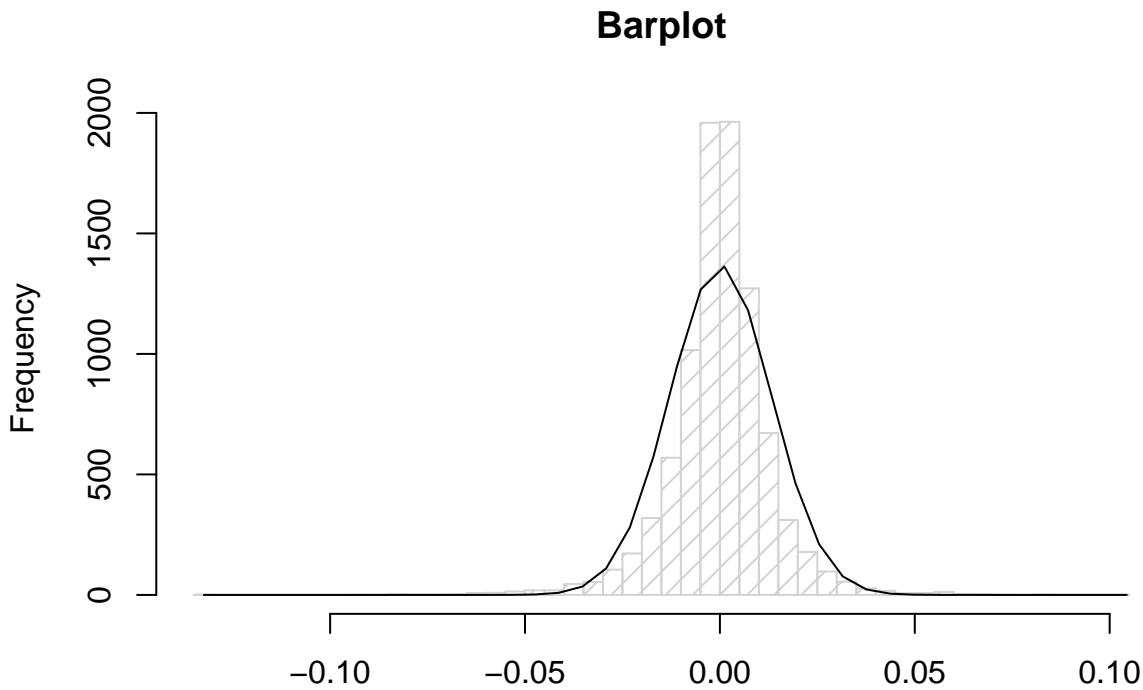
Here comes a table and description of the correlations

## 2. Data and methodology

### 328 Visualizations (eye-balling)

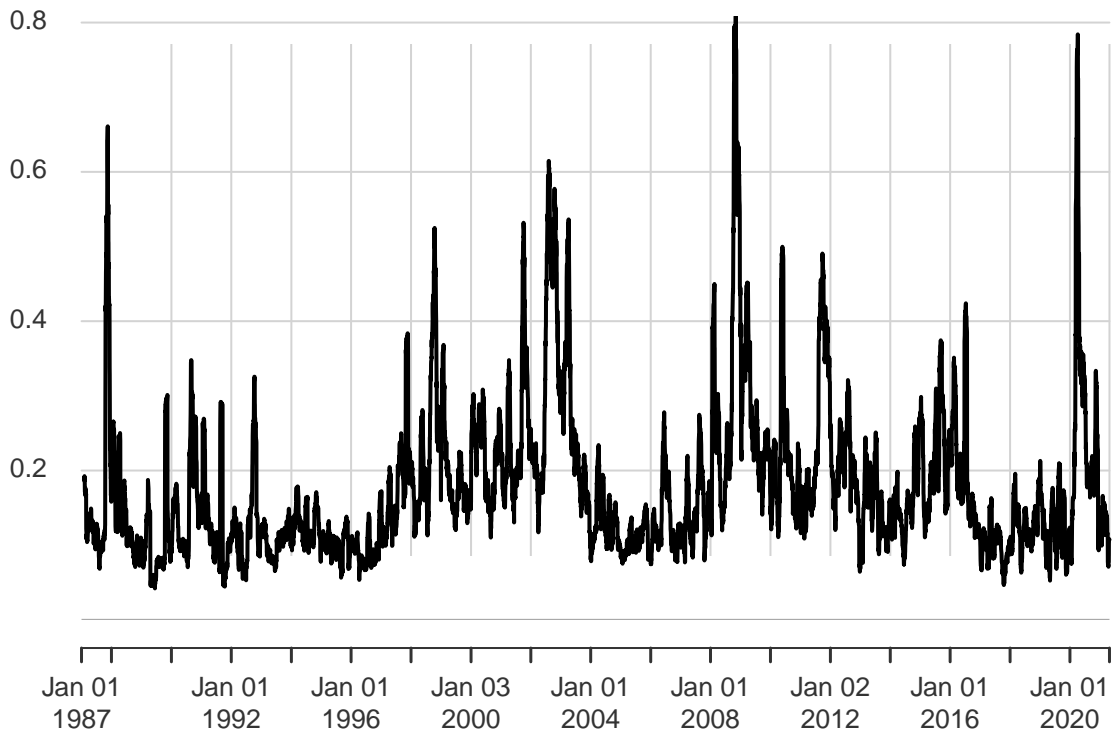






331

**One month rolling volatility** Accuracy  
1987-01-01 / 2021-04-27

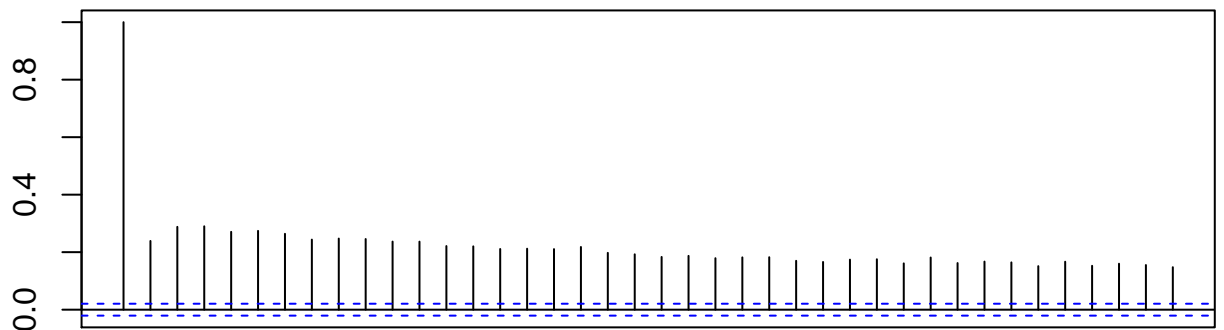
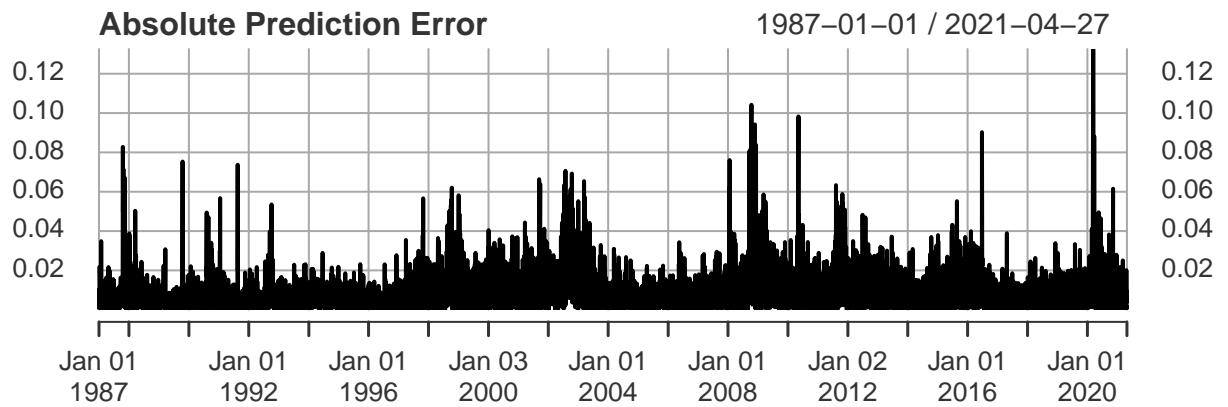


332

333

As can be seen

## 2. Data and methodology



334

```
distributions <- c("norm", "snorm", "std", "sstd", "sged")
garchspec <- garchfit <- garchforecast <- stdret <- vector(mode = "list", length = length(distributions))

for(i in 1:length(distributions)){
  # Specify a GARCH model with constant mean
  garchspec[[i]] <- ugarchspec(mean.model = list(armaOrder = c(0,0)),
                               variance.model = list(model = "sGARCH", variance.targeting = TRUE),
                               distribution.model = distributions[i])
  # Estimate the model
  garchfit[[i]] <- ugarchfit(data = R, spec = garchspec[[i]])

  # Compute stdret using residuals()
  stdret[[i]] <- residuals(garchfit[[i]], standardize = TRUE)

  # Compute stdret using fitted() and sigma()
}
```

```

stdret[[i]] <- (R - fitted(garchfit[[i]])) / sigma(garchfit[[i]])

}

# # Use the method sigma to retrieve the estimated volatilities
# garchvol <- sigma(garchfit)
#
# # Plot the volatility for 2017
# plot(garchvol)
#
# # Compute unconditional volatility
# sqrt(uncvariance(garchfit))
#
# # Print last 10 ones in garchvol
# tail(garchvol, 10)

# # Forecast volatility 5 days ahead and add
# garchforecast <- ugarchforecast(fitORspec = garchfit,
#                                 n.ahead = 5)
#
# # Extract the predicted volatilities and print them
# print(sigma(garchforecast))

# # Compute stdret using residuals()
# stdret[[i]] <- residuals(garchfit[[i]], standardize = TRUE)
#

```

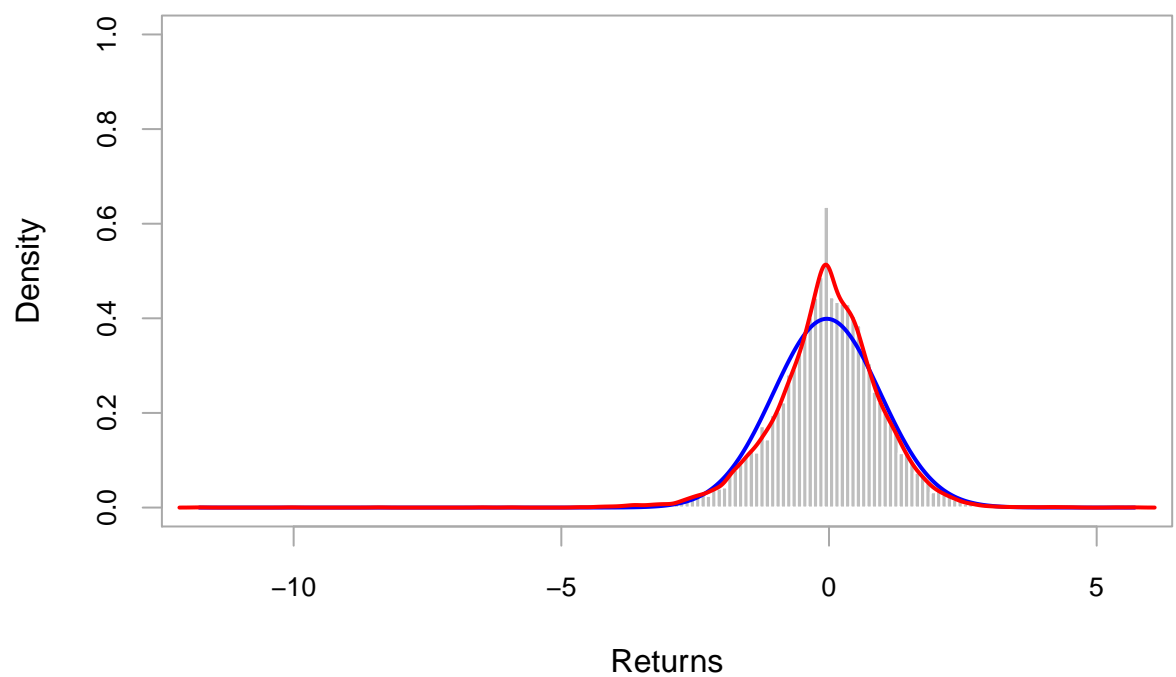
## 2. Data and methodology

```
# # Compute stdret using fitted() and sigma()
# stdret[[i]] <- (R - fitted(garchfit[[i]])) / sigma(garchfit[[i]])

# make the histogram

chart.Histogram(stdret[[1]], methods = c("add.normal","add.density" ),
                 colorset = c("gray","red","blue"))
```

**EURO\_STOXX\_50**



335

### 336 2.1.2 Methodology

337 Here comes text...

338 As already mentioned in ..., GARCH models sGARCH, eGARCH, iGARCH,  
339 gjrGARCH, nGARCH, tGARCH and tsGARCH will be estimated. Additionally the  
340 distributions will be examined as well, including the normal, student-t distribution,  
341 skewed student-t distribution, generalised error distribution, skewed generalised  
342 error distribution and the skewed generalised Theodossiou distribution.

343 They will be estimated using maximum likelihood. As already mentioned,  
344 fortunately, Alexios Ghalanos (2020b) has made it easy for us to implement this  
345 methodology in R (version 3.6.1) with the package rugarch version 1.4-4 (R univariate  
346 garch), which gives us a bit more time to focus on the results and the interpretation.

## 2. *Data and methodology*

347      Let's add an image:

```
# knitr::include_graphics("figures/sample-content/captain.jpeg")
```

# 3

## Empirical Findings

### 3.1 Main analysis title

Here comes our main part

# 4

## Robustness Analysis

### 4.1 Specification checks

In order to check if the models are specified correctly, some specification checks have to be performed. The specification checks have to be done on the standardized residuals of the estimated GARCH model given by the following equation:

$$\hat{Z}_t = \frac{\hat{\varepsilon}_t}{\hat{\sigma}_t} = \frac{R_t - \hat{\mu}}{\hat{\sigma}_t}$$

### Residual heteroscedasticity Ljung-Box test on the squared or absolute standardized residuals.

#### 4.1.1 Eye-balling econometrics

Autocorrelation function of the standardized residuals and autocorrelation function of the squared standardized residuals.

Then the density can be examined standardized residuals and compared with the normal distribution.

Also the QQ-plot can be examined.



366 **4.1.2 GMM test**

367 zero-mean unit-variance not skewed no excess kurtosis no serial correlation in the  
368 squares no serial correlation in the cubes no serial correlation in the squares

## Conclusion

# Appendices



371

372



## Appendix

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