

# Volatility modeling

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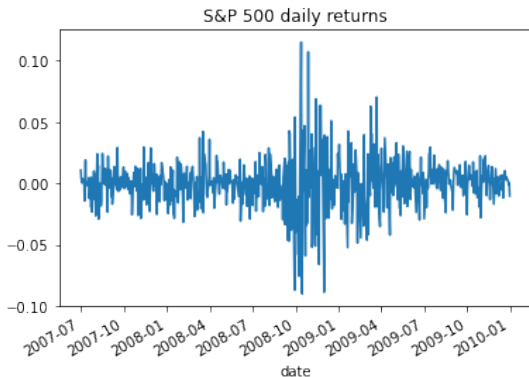


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# Motivation: Time-varying, persistent volatility



- Many datasets, especially financial data, exhibit time-varying and persistent volatility. We'd like to model this for many reasons, especially risk management.
- Note that it is really the *persistence* that is important to model.

# Outline

- Engle's ARCH-LM test for persistence in volatility.
- Modeling persistence in volatility with GARCH.
- Application: Value-at-risk calculations.

A general theme is to use  $r_t^2$  as an estimate of  $\sigma_t^2$ , and adapt the tools that we already know from prior weeks around this idea.

## Engle's ARCH-LM test for persistence in volatility

When  $\sigma_t^2$  is high, is  $\sigma_{t+1}^2$  likely to also be high?

- This is like checking for time-series effects in any dataset.
- Could we just apply one of our existing tests to data on  $\sigma_t^2$ ?
- The major problem is, you can't directly measure  $\sigma_t^2$ .
- Instead, focus on  $r_t^2$  as an indirect measure.

The standard test is known as *Engle's test* or the *ARCH-LM* test.

- Run the following regression:  $r_t^2 = \alpha + \beta r_{t-1}^2 + \varepsilon_t$
- Under the null of no persistence in  $\sigma_t^2$ , we have  $N \times R^2 \sim \chi^2$ .
- Implemented in statsmodels with the *het\_arch* command.
- You can also extend the regression to include  $p$  lags of  $r_t^2$ .  
Then the test statistic is asymptotically  $\chi^2(p)$ .  
By default, *het\_arch* will choose an “optimal” number of lags.

## Modeling persistent volatility: Moving average

One popular way to measure volatility over time is through a moving average. This works much like the moving average from week 1.

But, a complication is that you cannot actually measure volatility at any point in time. Instead, the moving-average estimate of volatility is based on an average of  $r_t^2$  terms:

$$\sigma_{t,CMA}^2 = \frac{1}{m} \left( \frac{1}{2} r_{t-m}^2 + r_{t-m+1}^2 + \cdots + r_{t+m-1}^2 + \frac{1}{2} r_{t+m}^2 \right)$$

This is a fast and easy way to describe and plot volatility over time.

## Modeling persistent volatility: EWMA

- EWMA stands for Exponentially Weighted Moving Average.
- The basic idea is like exponential smoothing from week 2.
- You choose a smoothing parameter  $\alpha$ , and an initial  $\sigma_0^2$ , which is often the sample value from the first few observations.
- Then update the values of  $\sigma_t$  following the formula:

$$\sigma_{t+1}^2 = \alpha \times r_t^2 + (1 - \alpha) \times \sigma_t^2$$

- Higher  $\alpha$  moves you close to just estimating tomorrow's volatility with today's  $r^2$ . Lower  $\alpha$  gives smoother results that react more slowly to changes, for better and for worse.

# Smoothing vs model-based approaches

- We can make some of the same comments here that we did after we covered Holt-Winters forecasting:
- Smoothing-based approaches give an easy and effective way to describe the data and build accurate forecasts.  
If that is our only goal, they are likely to be good enough.
- But these approaches will break down as we move our attention to other goals like building confidence intervals, or understanding relationships between different series.
- At some point we have to adopt the *model-based* approach that is more standard in statistics.
- Before, this led us to ARMA. Here it leads us to a set of volatility models that will be our main focus.

## Modeling persistence in volatility: ARCH

The simplest and oldest volatility model is called ARCH  
(which stands for “**A**uto**R**egressive **C**onditional **H**eteroskedasticity”)

$$y_t = \mu + u_t \quad , \quad u_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_t^2)$$
$$\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \alpha u_{t-1}^2$$

- The first line could be replaced with any ARMA model for  $y_t$ . However, in practice volatility modeling is most important in situations where there probably is no predictability in  $y_t$ .
- The important thing is the second line: When today's (squared) error is large, tomorrow's error has larger variance, through  $\alpha$ .
- More generally, an ARCH( $q$ ) model includes  $q$  lags of  $u_t^2$ . The above model is an ARCH(1).
- ARCH models are typically estimated by MLE.



# Modeling persistence in volatility: GARCH

In practice, ARCH models have generally been replaced by GARCH (“**G**eneralized **A**uto**R**egressive **C**onditional **H**eteroskedasticity”)

$$y_t = \mu + u_t \quad , \quad u_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_t^2)$$
$$\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \alpha u_{t-1}^2 + \beta \sigma_{t-1}^2$$

- The new thing compared to ARCH is the  $\beta \sigma_{t-1}^2$  term.  
This extra flexibility greatly improves the model performance.
- This general category of models is called GARCH(p,q), where
  - $p$  is the number of lags of  $\sigma_t^2$ ,
  - $q$  is the number of lags of  $u_t^2$ ,

The above model is a GARCH(1,1).

In this class we will only look at ARCH(1) and GARCH(1,1).

- Again, GARCH models are typically estimated by MLE.

## Finding a good model for volatility in the data

- Decide on an ARMA model for  $y$  (often just  $y_t = \mu + u_t$ ). In the first step, don't yet model any volatility effects.
- Estimate the model, apply Engle's ARCH-LM test to the sample residuals  $\hat{u}_t$ , and examine ACF and PACF plots of  $\hat{u}_t^2$ .
- If the test rejects, or you see important patterns in the plots, add a simple ARCH or GARCH specification to your model.
- Apply Engle's test to the *standardized* residuals  $\hat{u}_t/\hat{\sigma}_t$ , where  $\hat{\sigma}_t$  are the model's estimates of volatility over time (labeled as `conditional_volatility` in Python's ARCH results). And plot the ACF and PACF of the squared values  $(\hat{u}_t/\hat{\sigma}_t)^2$ .
- Add just enough ARCH and GARCH terms, so that the test fails to reject and you don't see important patterns in the plots.

## Application: Value-at-risk (VAR)

- The **value-at-risk** (VAR) of a portfolio is a percentile of its return distribution over some specified amount of time.
- For example, the 10-day, 5% value-at-risk is the 5th percentile of the distribution of returns over the next 10 days.
  - To be more precise, it is the *absolute value* of this number, because we are usually thinking about low percentiles (losses).
- Example: If the 10-day, 5% VAR is 8%, we would say you have a 5% chance of *losing more than 8%* over the next 10 days.
  - It is also common to express VAR in dollar terms:  
If your portfolio is worth \$1m, and the 10-day 5% VAR is 8%, then you have a 5% chance of losing more than \$80k.

## Calculating VAR from a normal distribution

- Suppose you have daily return data ending at time  $T$ , and you want to know the  $\alpha$  % VAR over the next  $K$  days.
- Let's use  $r_{T \rightarrow T+K}$  to label the return over the next  $K$  days. The calculation is easy, if we know the *distribution* of  $r_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ .
- We will use log returns, so  $r_{T \rightarrow T+K} = r_{T+1} + r_{T+2} + \dots + r_{T+K}$ .
- Assume that each day's log return follows a normal distribution.  
(This is not critical, but it also is not a bad approximation.)
- Then  $r_{T \rightarrow T+K}$  is also normal (a sum of normal variables).  
If we can find its mean  $\mu_{T \rightarrow T+K}$  and its volatility  $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ , then the VAR is just  $\mu_{T \rightarrow T+K}$  minus a multiple of  $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ .
  - A 5% VAR is approximately  $\mu_{T \rightarrow T+K} - 1.645 \times \sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ .

## Calculating $\mu_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ from daily data

- We typically assume there is no predictability in stock returns.
- Then  $\mu_{T \rightarrow T+K} = K \times \mu$ , where  $\mu$  is the average *one-day* return.

This follows from:

$$\mathbb{E}[r_{T \rightarrow T+K}] = \mathbb{E}[r_{T+1}] + \mathbb{E}[r_{T+2}] + \dots + \mathbb{E}[r_{T+K}] = \underbrace{\mu + \mu + \dots + \mu}_{K \text{ times}}$$

- If you *do* think there is predictability in returns, you can just fit a model such as ARMA and forecast in the standard way.  
But in practice, this is not likely to give you meaningful results.

## Calculating $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ , ignoring predictability in $\sigma$

- As in the previous slide, let's start with the simplest case, where we just assume that  $\sigma$  is completely unpredictable.
  - (But to be clear, the whole point of this topic is that this is *not* the appropriate approach, and will give us misleading results.)
- In this case,  $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K} = \sqrt{K} \times \sigma$ , where  $\sigma$  is one-day volatility. This follows from

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(r_{T \rightarrow T+K}) &= \text{Var}(r_{T+1} + r_{T+2} + \dots + r_{T+K}) \\ &= \text{Var}(r_{T+1}) + \dots + \text{Var}(r_{T+K}) = \underbrace{\sigma^2 + \dots + \sigma^2}_{K \text{ times}} = K \times \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

Then the  $K$ -day, 5% VAR would be  $K \times \mu - 1.645 \times \sqrt{K} \times \sigma$ .

## Calculating $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ , modeling predictability in $\sigma$

- Revisit the previous calculation. Now suppose  $\sigma$  is predictable.
- The first step from before is still correct:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(r_{T \rightarrow T+K}) &= \text{Var}(r_{T+1} + r_{T+2} + \dots + r_{T+K}) \\ &= \text{Var}(r_{T+1}) + \text{Var}(r_{T+2}) + \dots + \text{Var}(r_{T+K})\end{aligned}$$

This is still correct because daily returns are uncorrelated.

- Now replace each  $\text{Var}(r)$  with a *forecast* of that day's variance.
  - Before, we assumed that variance/volatility were unpredictable, so our forecast for each day was just the one-day variance  $\sigma^2$ .
  - Now, we instead use forecasts from a GARCH model.

# How to build volatility forecasts from a GARCH model

- Suppose you have chosen and estimated a GARCH model, as described earlier. Then, you can forecast future values of  $\sigma^2$  following a similar approach as with ARMA models.
- In statsmodels, the `forecast()` function will do this for you. Let's understand how it works.
- For example, suppose your model was `GARCH(1,1)`. This means you specified that  $\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \alpha u_{t-1}^2 + \beta \sigma_{t-1}^2$ , and you now have estimates of all these things up to time  $T$ .
- Your first forecast  $\sigma_{T+1}^2$  is just  $\hat{\omega} + \hat{\alpha} \hat{u}_T^2 + \hat{\beta} \hat{\sigma}_T^2$ .
  - In statsmodels,  $\hat{\omega}$ ,  $\hat{\alpha}$ , and  $\hat{\beta}$  are reported in "params";  $\hat{u}$  is in "resid," and  $\hat{\sigma}$  is in "conditional\_volatility".
- What about the later forecasts? See next slide...



## Forecasting volatility with a GARCH model (2)

What is your forecast of  $\sigma_{T+2}^2$ ?

- The model says  $\sigma_{T+2}^2 = \omega + \alpha u_{T+1}^2 + \beta \sigma_{T+1}^2$ .
- We can use the same estimates of  $\omega$ ,  $\alpha$ , and  $\beta$  as we did before, and for  $\sigma_{T+1}^2$  we substitute the forecast from the previous slide.
- But what about  $u_{T+1}^2$ ? Although our best forecast of  $u_{T+1}$  is zero, our best forecast of its *squared* value is its variance  $\sigma_{T+1}^2$ . So we substitute the forecast from the previous slide there too!
- This means our forecast of  $\sigma_{T+2}^2$  is  $\hat{\omega} + (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}) \times \hat{\sigma}_{T+1}^2$ , where  $\hat{\sigma}_{T+1}^2$  is the forecast calculated on the previous slide.
- All later forecasts follow the same logic.  
For example we forecast  $\sigma_{T+3}^2$  as  $\hat{\omega} + (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}) \times \hat{\sigma}_{T+2}^2$ , and so on.

## Back to VAR calculations

We can finally complete the VAR calculation from earlier:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(r_{T \rightarrow T+K}) &= \text{Var}(r_{T+1} + r_{T+2} + \dots + r_{T+K}) \\ &= \text{Var}(r_{T+1}) + \text{Var}(r_{T+2}) + \dots + \text{Var}(r_{T+K}) \\ &= \hat{\sigma}_{T+1}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_{T+2}^2 + \dots + \hat{\sigma}_{T+K}^2\end{aligned}$$

and just substitute in the forecasts from the previous two slides. The square root of this sum is  $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ , the volatility of  $r_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ .

Finally, we can calculate the VAR:

Start with  $\mu_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ , which is just  $K \times \mu$ , and subtract an appropriate multiple of  $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ . For a 5% VAR, this multiple is 1.645.

## Illustration: VAR during a crisis

- The notebook on Canvas illustrates today's concepts: You imagine doing a VAR calculation in April 2020.
- This basically comes down to estimating  $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ .
- If you ignore predictability in  $\sigma$ , you will report a VAR that is much too optimistic. That is, you will understate your risk.
  - This approach implicitly assumes that the next  $K$  days will look like the “typical” day in the data.
  - This is not appropriate, because high volatility tends to persist, and volatility in Apr 2020 was at an all-time high!
- A GARCH model takes into account that (1) recent volatility is high, and (2) this means future volatility will also be high.
- When you use GARCH to forecast  $\sigma_{T \rightarrow T+K}$ , you report a VAR that is more realistic, and much larger.