Financial Econometrics Lecture 3: ARCH & GARCH models

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1 Introduction

One observed feature of many financial time series, such as returns on stocks or exchange rate differences, is that they have a non-constant variance. Such series typically exhibit periods of high volatility interspersed with periods of low volatility. The ARCH model of Engle (1982) and its GARCH generalisation by Bollerslev (1986) are simple models to capture such observed behaviour.

2 The ARCH(q) Model

Consider the model

$$y_t = \mathbf{x}_t' \beta + u_t \quad , \quad t = 1, \cdots, T \tag{2.1}$$

where \mathbf{x}_t is a $k \times 1$ vector of regressors at time period t, and u_t is a disturbance process. The disturbance u_t has a constant mean

$$\mathbf{E}(u_t) = 0$$

but u_t^2 is time varying and follows an autoregressive process of order q

$$u_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 u_{t-1}^2 + \alpha_2 u_{t-2}^2 + \dots + \alpha_q u_{t-q}^2 + \varepsilon_t$$
 (2.2)

where ε_t is a disturbance with mean zero and unit variance, assumed to be distributed independently of u_t .

In order to ensure that $u_t^2 > 0$, we impose the restrictions that $\alpha_0 > 0$ and $\alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, \dots, q$. In addition, for the autoregressive process to be *weakly stationary* we require that the roots of

$$\alpha(L) = \alpha_1 L + \alpha_2 L^2 + \dots + \alpha_q L^q$$

all lie outside the unit circle. This implies the condition that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{q} \alpha_i < 1.$$

The conditional variance of u_t , defined by $E(u_t^2|u_{t-1}, u_{t-2}, \cdots)$, is given by

$$E(u_t^2|u_{t-1}, u_{t-2}, \cdots) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 u_{t-1}^2 + \alpha_2 u_{t-2}^2 + \cdots + \alpha_q u_{t-q}^2 = \sigma_t^2.$$
(2.3)

The unconditional variance, $E(u_t^2)$, is constant over time and is given by

$$E(u_t^2) = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^q \alpha_i} = \sigma^2.$$
 (2.4)

This model, first suggested by Engle (1982), exhibits AutoRegressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity and is therefore known as the ARCH(q) model.

2.1 Leptokurtosis and ARCH models

Kurtosis is the scaled fourth moment of a probability distribution and is defined (for a random variable x_t with mean μ) by

$$\kappa(x_t) = \frac{\mathbf{E}(x_t - \mu)^4}{[\mathbf{E}(x_t - \mu)^2]^2} = \frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2}.$$

Kurtosis measures the fatness of the tails of a distribution, which is the probability of 'outliers'. For the normal distribution, $\kappa(u_t) = 3$. Distributions with fatter tails than the normal, like the t-distribution, have $\kappa(u_t) > 3$ and are said to be *leptokurtic*. Distributions with thinner tails than the normal have $\kappa(u_t) < 3$ and are said to be *platykurtic*. In empirical investigation of financial data series, many series show evidence of leptokurtosis. ARCH model disturbances have the property of being leptokurtic. For the case of the ARCH(1) model, the kurtosis of the unconditional distribution of u_t is given by

$$\kappa(u_t) = 3\frac{(1-\alpha_1^2)}{(1-3\alpha_1^2)} > 3$$

for $\alpha_1 > 0$ and $3\alpha_1^2 < 1$ (otherwise the kurtosis is not finite). Thus *ARCH* models exhibit fatter tails than the normal distribution although this may not be enough fully to account for the kurtosis observed in real financial data series.

Kurtosis of Stock returns 6 January 1986 to 31 December 1997. Source: Franses and van Dijk (2000)

Stock Market	Daily	Weekly
Amsterdam	19.795	11.929
Frankfurt	15.066	8.093
Hong Kong	119.241	18.258
London	27.408	15.548
New York	99.680	11.257
Paris	10.560	9.167
Singapore	28.146	23.509
Tokyo	14.798	4.897

2.2 Estimation of the ARCH model

The parameters of the ARCH(q) model can be estimated by the maximum likelihood method. Firstly, note that the joint log-likelihood function of all T observations of any model can always be written as the sum:

$$\log L(\mathbf{y}; \theta) = \log L(y_1) + \sum_{t=2}^{T} \log L(y_t | y_{t-1})$$
(2.5)

where $L(y_t|y_{t-1})$ is the *conditional density* of y_t given y_{t-1} and $L(y_1)$ is the marginal density of the first observation, y_1 , which in practice is often dropped.

In the case of the ARCH(q) model, the conditional density of y_t given y_{t-1} has mean $\mathbf{x}'_t\beta$ and variance given by the conditional variance of u_t , which is σ_t^2 . If we assume a normal density for $y_t|y_{t-1}$, then we can write

$$L(y_t|y_{t-1}) \sim N(\mathbf{x}'_t\beta,\sigma_t^2)$$

= $-\frac{1}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2}\log \sigma_t^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma_t^2}(y_t - \mathbf{x}'_t\beta)^2.$

and the joint log-likelihood function is defined by

$$\log L(\mathbf{y};\beta,\alpha) = \log L(y_1) - \frac{T-1}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{t=2}^{T}\log\sigma_t^2 - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{t=2}^{T}\frac{(y_t - \mathbf{x}_t'\beta)^2}{\sigma_t^2}$$
(2.6)

where

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^q \alpha_i (y_{t-i} - \mathbf{x}'_{t-i}\beta)^2$$

Maximising this log-likelihood function with respect to the unknown parameters, β , α_0 , α_i , $i = 1, \dots, q$, defines the maximum likelihood estimators, $\tilde{\beta}$, $\tilde{\alpha}_0$, $\tilde{\alpha}_i$. No explicit expression for these estimators is possible but the estimators can be found by numerical maximisation of (2.6). Note that the first q observations of the sample must be dropped in order to define σ_t^2 . In general, some restrictions on the likelihood function may also need to be imposed to ensure that the estimators satisfy the conditions that $\tilde{\alpha}_0 > 0$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_i \ge 0$, $i = 1, \dots, q$.

It is also possible to choose a non-normal conditional density function for $y_t|y_{t-1}$. One alternative choice which is sometimes used is the *t*-distribution. This has fatter tails than the normal distribution, with kurtosis $\kappa = 3+6/(\lambda-4)$ where λ is the degrees of freedom parameter. Use of the t-distribution is consistent with the excess kurtosis often found in financial data. Maximum likelihood estimation with the t-distribution proceeds as before, using (2.5) to define the joint density function for all observations and maximising this with respect to the unknown parameters.

3 The GARCH(p,q) model

Bollerslev (1986) proposed a generalised ARCH or GARCH model, in which the conditional variance of u_t , σ_t^2 , depends not only on lagged u_t^2 but also on lags of σ_t^2 itself. The GARCH(p,q) model is defined by

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 u_{t-1}^2 + \alpha_2 u_{t-2}^2 + \dots + \alpha_q u_{t-q}^2 + \beta_1 \sigma_{t-1}^2 + \beta_2 \sigma_{t-2}^2 + \dots + \beta_p \sigma_{t-p}^2 \quad (3.1)$$

or

$$\beta(L)\sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha(L)u_t^2$$

where

$$\beta(L) = 1 - \beta_1 L - \beta_2 L^2 - \dots - \beta_p L^p.$$

This is a form of ARMA process for u_t^2 as can be seen by adding u_t^2 to each side of (3.1) and rewriting the equation as

$$u_t^2 = \alpha_0 + (\alpha_1 + \beta_1)u_{t-1}^2 + (\alpha_2 + \beta_2)u_{t-2}^2 + \dots + (\alpha_m + \beta_m)u_{t-m}^2 + (u_t^2 - \sigma_t^2) - \beta_1(u_{t-1}^2 - \sigma_{t-1}^2) - \beta_2(u_{t-2}^2 - \sigma_{t-2}^2) - \dots - \beta_p(u_{t-p}^2 - \sigma_{t-p}^2)$$

where $m = \max(p, q)$ and $\alpha_j = 0$, j > q, and $\beta_j = 0$, j > p. Defining $\varepsilon_t = u_t^2 - \sigma_t^2$, this is

$$u_t^2 = \alpha_0 + (\alpha_1 + \beta_1)u_{t-1}^2 + (\alpha_2 + \beta_2)u_{t-2}^2 + \dots + (\alpha_m + \beta_m)u_{t-m}^2$$
$$+\varepsilon_t - \beta_1\varepsilon_{t-1} - \beta_2\varepsilon_{t-2} - \dots - \beta_p\varepsilon_{t-p}$$

which is an ARMA(m,p) process for u_t^2 . Thus the GARCH(p,q) model is an ARMA(m,p) process and GARCH(0,q) coincides with the pure AR process ARCH(q). The advantage of a GARCH process over a pure ARCH process is parsimony. A GARCH model can capture complicated patterns of time variability in the conditional variance using fewer parameters than an ARCH model. In empirical

applications, the GARCH(1,1) model has often proved sufficiently general to capture the heteroscedasticity in financial time series.

For weak stationarity of σ_t^2 , we require that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{q} \alpha_i + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j < 1.$$

In that case the unconditional variance σ^2 is given by

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^q \alpha_i - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j}$$
$$= \frac{\alpha_0}{\beta(1) - \alpha(1)}.$$

To ensure that σ_t^2 and σ^2 are always positive, a *sufficient* condition is that $\alpha_0 \ge 0$ and that $\alpha_i \ge 0$ and $\beta_j \ge 0$, $\forall i, j$.

3.1 Testing for (G)ARCH effects

When ARCH effects are suspected, we can consider testing the null hypothesis of *homoscedasticity*

$$\sigma_t^2 = \sigma^2 = \alpha_0$$

against the alternative hypothesis of an ARCH(q) model:

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 u_{t-1}^2 + \alpha_2 u_{t-2}^2 + \dots + \alpha_q u_{t-q}^2$$

On the null hypothesis, OLS is an appropriate estimator and so a Lagrange Multiplier diagnostic test can be constructed, based on the residuals, \hat{u}_t , from the OLS regression of equation (2.1). The test is based on the R^2 from the following regression of the squared OLS residuals:

$$\widehat{u}_t^2 = \widehat{\alpha}_0 + \widehat{\alpha}_1 \widehat{u}_{t-1}^2 + \dots + \widehat{\alpha}_q \widehat{u}_{t-q}^2$$

and Engle (1982) showed that, on the null hypothesis,

$$TR^2 \sim_a \chi_q^2$$

Testing the null of *homoscedasticity* against the more general alternative of a GARCH(p,q) model is less straightforward and, in fact, no test exists for the general case. However, tests for some special cases are available. In particular, a test of *homoscedasticity* against the GARCH(p,0) model does exist and coincides with the ARCH test just considered, for the alternative hypothesis ARCH(p).

References

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