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# Testing Whether Volatility Can Be Written

## As a Function of the Asset Price

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# 1. Stochastic vs. Local Volatility

- Discrete-time ARCH, then GARCH: time-varying volatility is an important empirical feature in economic and financial data (Engle (1982))
- In continuous-time, models with **stochastic volatility** became prevalent
  - Require the use of an additional state variable  $Y$ , often latent, to drive the volatility of the variable of interest,  $X$
  - $X$  on its own is typically no longer Markovian
  - Costly implications: higher dimension, plus  $Y$  requires filtering or learning

- Local volatility models
  - Make the volatility of  $X$  a function of  $X$  itself
  - Retains the time variation of the volatility of  $X$ , and its Markov character, but without the additional stochasticity of  $Y$
  - Such models, although more restrictive, remain very popular in financial applications

- This paper
  - Tests using high frequency observations whether the volatility of  $X$  can be written as a function of  $X$  only
  - Or whether some additional variable  $Y$  is needed
  - Can

$$dX_t = b_t dt + Y_t dW_t$$

$$dY_t = m_t dt + v_t dW'_t$$

be reduced to

$$dX_t = b_t dt + a(X_t) dW_t ?$$

- Related question: whether  $X$  can be written on its own as a **Markov process**
  - If  $X$  is continuous, then  $X$  will be Markovian if its drift and volatility functions are functions of  $X$  (and time) only
  - Time-series tests examine the necessary (but not sufficient) condition that the conditional density of the process satisfies the Chapman-Kolmogorov condition (see Aït-Sahalia (1996) and Aït-Sahalia et al. (2010)); whether conditional independence between consecutive durations holds (see de Matos and Fernandes (2007)); and whether the conditional characteristic function satisfies the requirement imposed by the Markov property (see Chen and Hong (2012)).

- This paper **tests directly** whether the volatility of  $X$  is a function of  $X$  only
  - At high frequency over a finite time span, the **drift is not identified**
  - So only properties regarding the volatility of  $X$  can be tested any-ways
  - If  $X$  can jump, additional separate restrictions on the structure of the jump component of  $X$  are imposed by the Markov property.

## 2. The Model

$$X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t b_s ds + \int_0^t c_s^{1/2} dW_s + J_t,$$

$$J_t = \sum_{n \geq 1} \Upsilon_n \mathbf{1}_{\{T_n \leq t\}}.$$

- $W$  is a Brownian motion,  $T_m$  jump times,  $\Upsilon_m$  jump sizes
- Can be extended to Itô semimartingale with degree of activity strictly less than 1
- The **local volatility** case ( $H_0$ ):

$$c_t = a(X_t)$$

for some positive  $\mathcal{C}^1$  function  $a$  on  $\mathbb{R}$

- Markov adds:  $b_t = \mu(X_t)$  and a special structure on the jumps

- Observations on a finite  $[0, T]$ , sampling interval  $\Delta_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- With  $a(x) > 0$  is assumed, and when the jump process  $J_t$  vanishes, the law of  $X$  under  $(H_0)$  in restriction to any finite time interval  $[0, t]$  is equivalent to the law of the Markov process

$$\bar{X}_t = X_0 + \int_0^t a(\bar{X}_s)^{1/2} dW_s.$$

Then, since  $X$  is observed on a finite  $[0, T]$  only, it is impossible to discriminate between  $X$  and  $\bar{X}$ , hence  $(H_0)$  is equivalent for the econometrician to assuming the Markov property, plus the smoothness of  $a$

- Microstructure **noise**: white noise plus rounding



## 3. Testing the Null Hypothesis

### 3.1. Without Noise

- We wish to determine whether the spot variance  $c_t$  can be written in the form  $c_t = a(X_t)$  for some smooth function  $a(\cdot)$
- Estimators **localized in  $x$** 
  - Choose a nonnegative kernel function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  with support in  $[-1, 1]$  and with Lebesgue integral equal to 1, bandwidths  $h_n$  and thresholds  $v_n > 0$  satisfying, for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ :

$$\frac{h_n^3}{\Delta_n} \rightarrow 0, \quad \frac{\Delta_n}{h_n^2} \rightarrow 0, \quad v_n \rightarrow 0, \quad \frac{\Delta_n^{1/2-\varepsilon}}{v_n} \rightarrow 0,$$

– Approximation of the Dirac mass at 0

$$f_n(x) = \frac{1}{h_n} f\left(\frac{x}{h_n}\right).$$

- Discrete increments (e.g., log-returns)

$$\Delta_i^n X = X_{i\Delta_n} - X_{(i-1)\Delta_n}$$

- Define the statistics for integers  $p$ , typically in the set  $\mathcal{P} = \{0, 2, 4\}$

$$U(x, p)_t^n = \Delta_n^{1-p/2} \frac{1}{m_p} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor t/\Delta_n \rfloor} f_n(X_{(i-1)\Delta_n} - x) |\Delta_i^n X|^p \mathbf{1}_{\{|\Delta_i^n X| \leq v_n\}}.$$

where  $m_p =$  the  $p$ th absolute moment of  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$

- **Truncation** at level  $v_n$  to get rid of the jumps, if any
  - If we know that  $X$  is continuous, omit the indicator function above
  - The truncation can be kept even if we know that  $X$  is continuous, in which case it is asymptotically irrelevant

- Local time

- The limiting behavior of  $U$  involves the local times  $L^x$  of  $X$  at  $x$

$$L_t^x = |X_t - x| - |X_0 - x| - \int_0^t \text{sign}(X_s - x) dX'_s - \sum_{n \geq 1} \left( |X_{T_n} - x| - |X_{T_{n-}} - x| \right) \mathbf{1}_{\{T_n \leq t\}}.$$

- $X' = X - J$  is the continuous part of  $X$
- $L_t^x > 0$  a.s. if the process  $X$  has visited the point  $x$  within  $[0, T]$
- This is the **semimartingale version of the local time**, which differs from the Markov local time by the factor  $a(x)$
- Has the advantage of being defined even when  $(H_0)$  fails

- Theorem:

$$U(x, p)_t^n \xrightarrow{\text{u.c.p.}} \int_0^t c_s^{p/2-1} dL_s^x.$$

- With  $p = 2$  :  $U(x, 2)_t^n \xrightarrow{\text{u.c.p.}} L_t^x$

- Generic limitations
  - As in any other high frequency testing problem:
    - \* A single path of  $X$  over  $[0, T]$  is observed
    - \* Nothing about what happens after  $t = T$  can be tested
  - Furthermore:
    - \* Nothing can be said about what happens to the volatility when the process is outside the (random) set of points visited by  $X$  on  $[0, T]$

## 3.2. The Idea Behind the Test

- Testing first at a **single visited point**  $\mathcal{X} = \{x\}$
- Under the null, we have  $c_s = c_{s'}$  for all  $s, s' \in [0, t]$  with  $X_s = X_{s'} = x$  and therefore

$$\int_0^t \int_0^t (c_s - c_{s'})^2 (c_s)^{-1} (c_{s'})^{-1} dL_s^x dL_{s'}^x = 0$$

- The alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ )
  - There is at least one pair  $s, s' \in [0, T]$  such that  $X_s = X_{s'}$  and  $c_{s'} \neq c_s$ .
  - This set is random, as often in high frequency
- The same quantity is strictly positive under the alternative
- This does not lend itself directly to a test since we have no good way of estimating  $\int_0^t \int_0^t (c_s - c_{s'})^2 (c_s)^{-1} (c_{s'})^{-1} dL_s^x dL_{s'}^x$

- However, under the null we also have

$$\left( \int_0^t c_s dL_s^x \right) \left( \int_0^t c_s^{-1} dL_s^x \right) - (L_t^x)^2 = 0$$

- Using the theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{U}(x)_t^n &:= U(x, 4)_t^n U(x, 0)_t^n - (U(x, 2)_t^n)^2 \\ \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} \bar{U}(x)_t &:= \left( \int_0^t c_s dL_s^x \right) \left( \int_0^t c_s^{-1} dL_s^x \right) - (L_t^x)^2 \end{aligned}$$

- So

$$\bar{U}(x)_t^n \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} \begin{cases} \bar{U}(x)_t = 0 & \text{under } (H_0) \\ \bar{U}(x)_t > 0 & \text{under } (H_1) \end{cases}$$



- Testing at an arbitrary finite **set of visited points**  $\mathcal{X}$ 
  - Sum of  $\bar{U}(x)_t^n$  over  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , possibly weighted
  - The **weight** assigned to any given  $x$  should reflect the **time spent by  $X$  at or around  $x$** , which is roughly proportional to the value of  $L_t^x$ , which itself is estimated by  $U(x, 2)_t^n$
  - So we will consider a statistic of the form

$$\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{X}, r)_t^n = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \bar{U}(x)_t^n (U(x, 2)_t^n)^r$$

for some  $r$

- We have

$$\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{X}, r)_t^n \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} \begin{cases} \mathcal{U} = 0 & \text{under } (H_0) \\ \mathcal{U} > 0 & \text{under } (H_1) \end{cases}$$

### 3.3. With Noise

- Plug-in  $\tilde{X}_{i\Delta_n}$  instead of  $X_{i\Delta_n}$  into the statistic, to form  $U^{\text{noisy}}(x, p)_t^n$ 
  - However, even in the simplest white noise case we have

$$\frac{\Delta_n^{p/2}}{v_n^{p+1}} U^{\text{noisy}}(x, p)_t^n \xrightarrow{\text{u.c.p.}} \begin{cases} \frac{2}{pm_p} \int_0^t \phi(X_s - x) ds & \text{if } p > 0 \\ 2 \int_0^t \phi(X_s - x) ds & \text{if } p = 0, \end{cases}$$

- The limit here has **no connection with the volatility** of  $X$
- Hence these statistics **cannot** be used for testing  $(H_0)$

- Instead, we need to resort to a **preliminary de-noising** procedure
  - We use **pre-averaging** and plug-in the pre-averaged values of  $\tilde{X}$
  - Then the same convergence holds

### 3.4. The Central Limit Theorem

- Theorem

$$\left( \sqrt{h_n/k_n \Delta_n} \bar{U}(x)_t^n \right)_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}\text{-s}} (\bar{Z}(x)_t)_{x \in \mathcal{X}},$$

where  $\bar{Z}$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -conditionally centered Gaussian with covariance

$$\tilde{\mathbb{E}}(\bar{Z}(x)_t \bar{Z}(y)_t \mid \mathcal{F}) = \frac{8\beta}{3} \mathbf{1}_{\{x=y\}} a(x) (L_t^x)^3.$$

and  $\beta = \int_{-1}^{+1} f(x)^2 dx$ .

- The variables  $\bar{Z}(x)_t$  for distinct values of  $x$  are  $\mathcal{F}$ -conditionally independent.

- **Optimal Rate**

- The (not fully achievable, but almost) optimal rates are  $1/\Delta_n^{1/3}$  without noise and  $1/\Delta_n^{1/6}$  with noise, respectively.
- In the no-noise case, this is the typical non-parametric rate
- And, as in other situations, the presence of **noise** result in replacing the rate without noise by its **square-root**

### 3.5. Construction of the Test

- From the theorem, under  $(H_0)$ :

$$\left(\frac{h_n}{k_n \Delta_n}\right)^{1/2} \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{X}, r)^n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}\text{-s}} \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{X}, r) := (L^x)^r \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \bar{Z}(x)$$

- $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{X}, r)_t$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -conditionally centered Gaussian with conditional variance:

$$\Sigma(\mathcal{X}, r)_t = \frac{8\beta}{3} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} a(x) (L_t^x)^{3+2r}$$

- Under  $(H_0)$  an estimator of  $\Sigma(\mathcal{X}, r)_t$  is

$$\Sigma(\mathcal{X}, r)_t^n = \frac{8\beta}{3} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} U(x, 0)_t^n (U(x, 4)_t^n)^2 (U(x, 2)_t^n)^{2r}$$

- Standardized test statistic

$$\mathcal{T}_t^n = \left( \frac{h_n}{k_n \Delta_n} \right)^{1/2} \frac{\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{X}, r)_t^n}{(\Sigma(\mathcal{X}, r)_t^n)^{1/2}}$$

- Which is  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  under the null
- We use the set  $\mathcal{P} = \{0, 2, 4\}$  of values of  $p$ , other choices are possible.

## 3.6. Tuning parameters

- The **localization kernel**  $f$ 
  - Rather immaterial in practice, we suggest

$$f(x) = \frac{15}{16} (x^2 - 1)^2$$

- In which case  $\beta = 5/7$ .



- The **bandwidth**  $h_n$ , plus the **pre-averaging window**  $k_n$  in the noisy case
  - The rate of convergence for  $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{X}, r)_t^n$  gets faster when we increase  $h_n$  and/or when we decrease  $k_n$
  - A good choice:  $h_n \asymp \Delta_n^{1/3} / \log(1/\Delta_n)$  in the no-noise case, leading to the rate  $(\log(1/\Delta_n))^{1/2} / \Delta_n^{1/3}$
  - In the noisy case we cannot use  $k_n \asymp \Delta_n^{1/2}$ , which is the optimal choice in pre-averaging for estimating the volatility for example
  - A good choice: take  $k_n \asymp \Delta_n^{1/2} \log(1/\Delta_n)$  and  $h_n \asymp \Delta_n^{1/6}$ , which leads to the rate  $(\log(1/\Delta_n))^{1/2} / \Delta_n^{1/6}$

- The **jump truncation threshold**  $v_n$ 
  - Choose  $v_n \approx \gamma \Delta_n^{1/2}$  if there is no noise
  - And  $v_n \approx \gamma (k_n \Delta_n)^{1/2}$  in the presence of noise, where  $\gamma$  is 3 to 5 times a rough average of the volatility.

- The **weighting power**  $r$ 
  - The choice of  $r$  is asymptotically irrelevant
  - Increasing  $r$  puts more weight on values visited often
  - Small sample discrepancies affect sites not visited often, so to avoid this problem  $r$  should be taken relatively large
  - Increasing  $r$  typically decreases the power of the test
  - Under the alternative,  $\bar{U}(x)_t^n$  roughly varies as  $(L_t^x)^2$ , so “equal weights” means taking  $r = -2$ , which is good for the power of the test, but bad for the null
  - A good compromise is perhaps simply to take  $r = 0$ : then  $\mathcal{U}_t^n$  would be a proxy for

$$\frac{1}{h_n^2} \int_0^t \int_0^t (c_s - c_{s'})^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{|X_s - X_{s'}| \leq h_n\}} ds ds'$$

which is exactly the type of quantity which we want to test whether it vanishes or not

- The set where we test the property
  - When the cardinal of  $\mathcal{X}$  is small, the procedure tests the property only at a limited number of values of  $x$
  - This lowers the power of the test
  - So take  $\mathcal{X}$  relatively large, but the minimal distance between two points of  $\mathcal{X}$  should be bigger than  $2h_n$
  - In practice, use a grid

## 4. Monte Carlo Simulations

- Null model

$$dX_t = \kappa (\alpha - X_t) dt + \sigma X_t^{1/2} dW_t$$

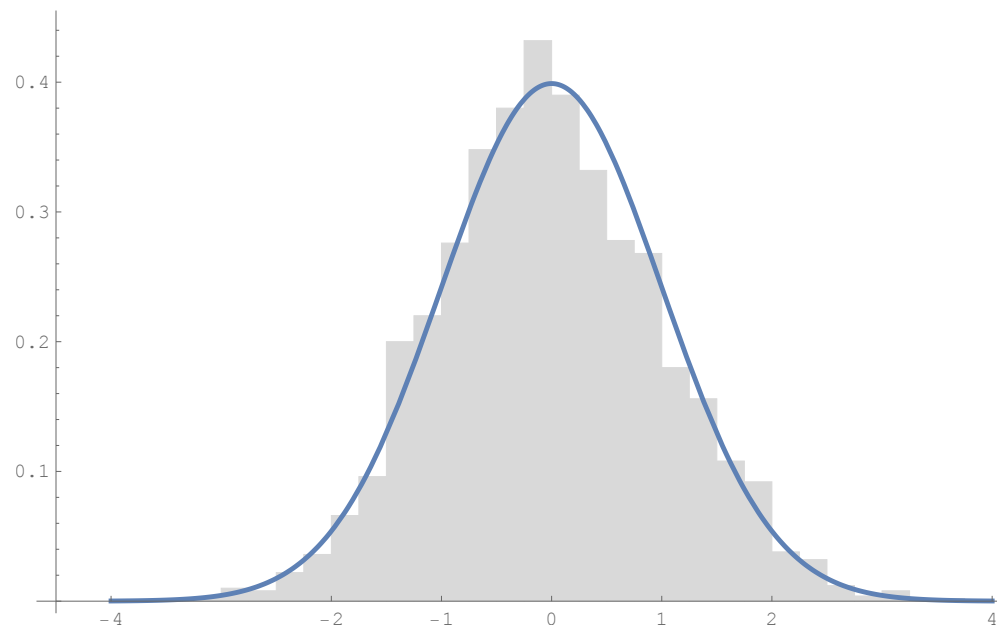
- Alternative

$$dX_t = \kappa (\alpha - X_t) dt + \sigma (X_t + Y_t)^{1/2} dW_t$$

$$dY_t = \beta (\omega - Y_t) dt + \eta Y_t^{1/2} dW'_t$$

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ dW_t dW'_t \right] = \rho dt$$

- Paths simulated at 5 sec increments, data subsampled 1 to 5 mn,  $T = 1$  year
- $\alpha = 10$ , parameters give a stationary distribution with 99% of the mass on  $[0, 30]$
- $X =$  uniform grid on  $[0, 30]$  in increments of 1



## 5. Empirical Results: Interest Rates vs. Stock Prices

- Data
  - ES (S&P500 eMini Futures) 1998-2017 1mn frequency
  - ED (Eurodollar CME Futures) 1982-2017 5mn frequency, converted to interest rate equivalent
- Results
  - Clear rejection of the null for stocks
  - Not so for interest rates
  - Variation over time

## 6. Conclusions

- Testing whether

$$\begin{aligned}dX_t &= b_t dt + Y_t dW_t \\dY_t &= m_t dt + v_t dW'_t\end{aligned}$$

can be reduced to

$$dX_t = b_t dt + a(X_t) dW_t$$

- Based on a simple standardized statistic, involving sums of powers of increments with truncation (for jumps) and localization (at a given  $x$ ), summed over  $x$
- Asymptotically  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  under the null
- Interesting contrast of empirical results: stochastic volatility necessary to model stock prices, much less so for interest rates



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