Range-based models in estimating value-at-risk (VaR)*

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This paper introduces new methods of estimating Value-at-Risk (VaR) using range-based GARCH (general autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity) models. These models, which could be based on either the Parkinson range or the Garman-Klass range, are applied to ten stock market indices of selected countries in the Asia-Pacific region. The results are compared using the traditional methods such as the econometric method based on the autoregressive moving average (ARMA)-GARCH models and RiskMetrics™. The performance of the different models is assessed using the out-of-sample VaR forecasts. Series of likelihood ratio (LR) tests—namely, LR of unconditional coverage (LRuc), LR of independence (LRind), and LR of conditional coverage (LRcc)—are performed for comparison. The result of the assessment shows that the model based on the Parkinson range GARCH (1,1) with Student’s t distribution, is the best-performing model on the ten stock market indices. It has a failure rate, defined as the percentage of actual returns that is smaller than the one-step-ahead VaR forecast, of zero in nine out of ten stock market indices. This paper finds that range-based GARCH models are good alternatives in modeling volatility and in estimating VaR.

JEL classification: C01, C13
Keywords: value-at-risk, Parkinson range, Garman-Klass range, range-based GARCH

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1. Introduction

The need to manage risk has been highlighted in the 1990s by the large losses reported by some financial institutions [Jorion 2001]. For example, in February 1993, Japan’s Showa Shell Sekiyu oil company lost US$ 1.58 billion from speculating on exchange rates [Holton 2003]. In December 1994, California’s Orange County announced its losses totaling US$ 1.8 billion from repos and other transactions [Jorion 2001]. And in February 1995, Nick Leeson, a trader from Britain’s Barings PLC, lost US$ 1.33 billion from unauthorized Nikkei futures trading [Jorion 2001].

The above examples and other publicized losses in the 1990s have demonstrated the need to control risk. To control risk, there should be a way to measure it. Measuring risk is tricky because it is not observable, but financial analysts have found a way to quantify it. One method of quantifying risk is the Value-at-Risk (VaR). It is the most popular method and has been adopted by financial institutions like the JP Morgan and Goldman Sachs, and regulators like the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision (or Basel Committee).

The Basel Committee is an international body formed to formulate recommendations on how to regulate banks. Its recommendation, called the Basel II Accord and released in 2004, is a move to control risk by requiring banks to hold capital proportional to risks. One of the risks included in the Basel II Accord is market risk, which is estimated based on the VaR framework.\(^1\)

The exact methodology of estimating VaR is flexible. It could be based on the standardized procedure proposed by the Basel Committee or based on the banks’ proprietary VaR measure as approved by the regulators of the implementing country (i.e., central banks). Besides managing risks, VaR is needed in the banking sector to comply with the regulatory requirement of the Basel II Accord.

The VaR is defined as the amount the market value of an asset (or a portfolio of assets) could decline over a certain period under normal market conditions at a specified probability [Tsay 2005]. More formally (following Bao, Lee, and Saltoglu [2006]), let \( r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_T \) be the financial return series and suppose that \( \{r_t\} \) follows a stationary stochastic process,

\[
r_t = \mu_t + \epsilon_t = \mu_t + \sqrt{h_t} \varepsilon_t
\]

where \( \mu_t = E[r_t | I_{t-1}] \) is the conditional mean, \( h_t = E[\epsilon_t^2 | I_{t-1}] \) is the conditional variance, and \( \mu_t = \epsilon_t / \sqrt{h_t} \) has a conditional distribution function \( F(u_t) \). The VaR with a given tail probability \( \alpha \in (0,1) \), denoted by \( \text{VaR}_\alpha \), is defined as the conditional quantile,

\(^1\) Duffie and Singleton [2003] argues that VaR “captures only one aspect of market risk and is too narrowly defined to be used on its own as a sufficient measure of capital adequacy”. Moreover, Artzner et al. [1999] showed that VaR does not satisfy the sub-additive property of the risk measure resulting in serious limitations when aggregating risk.
\[ \Phi(\text{VaR}_\alpha) = \alpha \]  

(2)

The VaR\(_\alpha\) can be estimated by inverting the distribution function, \(\Phi(\cdot)\),

\[ \text{VaR}_\alpha = \Phi^{-1}(\alpha) = \mu_t + h_t^{1/2} F^{-1}(\alpha) \]  

(3)

In estimating VaR, we need to specify \(u_p\), \(h_t\), and \(F(u_t)\).

Many methods can be used to estimate the VaR. The popular methods are the RiskMetrics\textsuperscript{TM} and econometric procedures based on the autoregressive moving average (ARMA) models to specify \(\mu_t\) and the generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (GARCH) models to specify \(h_t\).

This paper proposes new methods of estimating VaR using the range of the prices of assets. Two range-based models—the Parkinson range (using the highest and lowest prices) and the Garman-Klass range (using the highest, lowest, opening, and closing prices)—are used to estimate the time-varying volatility \(\left(h_t^{1/2}\right)\) needed in estimating VaR.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: section 2 discusses the ARMA-GARCH and the RiskMetrics\textsuperscript{TM} approaches in estimating VaR. The range-based models are introduced in section 3, while section 4 discusses the methods of assessing the VaR forecasts using series of likelihood ratio tests. Section 5 presents the results of the empirical exercise and section 6 concludes.

2. RiskMetrics\textsuperscript{TM} and econometric approaches to VaR estimation

2.1. RiskMetrics

A method in calculating VaR that it is widely used by practitioners is the RiskMetricsTM [Giot and Laurent 2003]. The method was developed by JP Morgan [JP Morgan and Reuters 1996], which defines VaR as

\[ \text{VaR}_\alpha = \mu_t + h_t^{1/2} F^{-1}(\alpha) \]  

(4)

where \(F(\cdot)\) is the standard normal distribution (example: \(F^{-1}(0.01) = 2.326\) and \(F^{-1}(0.05) = 1.645\), \(\mu_t = 0\) and the conditional variance \(h_t\) is defined as an Integrated GARCH (IGARCH) with fixed parameters given by

\[ h_t = 0.94h_{t-1} + 0.06r_{t-1}^2 \]  

(5)

RiskMetrics\textsuperscript{TM} can be easily implemented in a spreadsheet program since the values of the parameters are fixed.
2.2. ARMA-GARCH models

The ARMA-GARCH model is one of the existing methods to estimate VaR. This approach utilizes two models: one for the conditional mean specification ($\mu_t$) and the other for the conditional variance specification ($h_t$) of the return error series. The mean equation can be defined from the class of models under the autoregressive moving average model (example: ARMA[1,1]), while the variance specification usually follows the generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (GARCH [1,1]) model [Bollerslev 1986]. A typical ARMA (1,1)-GARCH(1,1) model is defined as

$$r_t = \phi_1 r_{t-1} + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad \text{where} \quad \varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, h_t)$$

$$h_t = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 h_{t-1} + \alpha_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}^2$$

Other specifications of the variance equation ($h_t$) were later developed to capture leverage effect of the past error terms. Threshold GARCH (TARCH) process was developed to capture the quadratic leverage effect [Glosten, Jagannathan, and Runkle 1993]. Nelson [1991], on the other hand, developed the exponential GARCH process to capture the exponential leverage effect.

3. Range-based models for VaR estimation

An alternative method of estimating volatility is the use of the range-based GARCH model. It is similar to the GARCH model for the conditional variance but makes use of the daily opening, closing, and high and low values of assets, which are readily available. These intra-daily prices are used to compute the daily volatility of returns directly. The GARCH model is then applied to the range to estimate the time-varying conditional variance ($h_t$). Mapa [2003] made use of the range-based GARCH model to forecast volatility of the daily peso-dollar exchange rates and showed that the range-based GARCH models performed better than their GARCH counterparts using inter-daily returns.

Following Mapa [2003], the range-based GARCH model is specified as

$$\mu_t = \omega + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \alpha_j R_{t-j} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_i \mu_{t-i}$$

where $R_t = \mu_t \varepsilon_t$ and $\varepsilon_t | I_{t-1} \sim iid (1, \phi_t^2)$.

The time-varying parameter $\mu_t$ is the conditional standard deviation, which is modeled directly from the proxy volatility of an asset $R_t$.

There are two types of proxy volatility, $R_t$, which will enter into the range-based GARCH model: the Parkinson range [Parkinson 1980] and the Garman-Klass range [Garman and Klass 1980]. The Parkinson range of an asset is defined as
\[
R_{Pi} = \sqrt{\frac{(\log (H_t) - \log (L_t))^2}{4 \log (2)}}.
\]  

(8)

where \(H_t\) and \(L_t\) denote, respectively, the highest and the lowest prices on day \(t\).

The Garman-Klass range is an extension of Parkinson range where the information about opening, \(p_{t-1}\), and closing, \(p_t\), prices are incorporated as follows:

\[
R_{GKt} = \sqrt{0.5 \left( \log \frac{H_t}{L_t} \right)^2 - 0.39 \left( \log \frac{p_t}{p_{t-1}} \right)^2}.
\]  

(9)

Mapa [2003] showed that the parameters of the range-based GARCH models from equation (7) can be estimated using the quasi-maximum likelihood estimation (QMLE) procedure, which produces consistent estimators that are asymptotically distributed as normal.

4. Assessing the VaR Forecast – Likelihood Ratio Tests

The different models to estimate VaR can be assessed, through backtesting, by comparing the forecasted VaR with the actual loss on a portfolio. If the forecasted VaR is smaller than the actual loss, this phenomenon is termed as a VaR violation. The Basel Committee, as contained in the Basel II Accord, has developed a guideline for interpreting the number of violations given 250 observations or approximately one year of daily data. If one computes for a 99 percent VaR and the number of violations is four or below, the model is in the “green light” zone and incurs no penalty. If the violations are five to nine, the model is in the “yellow” zone; but if the violations are ten or more (roughly 3.6 percent failure rate), the model is in the “red” zone. If the model is in the “yellow” or “red” zone, the financial institution would incur a penalty.

Under Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas (BSP) Circular 360 (Annex A), “each bank must meet, on a daily basis, a capital risk charge expressed as the higher of (i) last trading day’s VaR number or (ii) an average of the daily VaR measures on each of the preceding 60 trading days multiplied by a multiplication factor. The multiplication factor shall be set by the BSP on the basis of its assessment of the quality of the bank’s risk management system subject to an absolute minimum of \(k = 3\). Banks will be required to add to this factor a ‘plus’ directly related to the ex-post performance of the model (to be determined on a quarterly basis), thereby introducing a built-in positive incentive to maintain the predictive quality of the model. The plus will range from 0 to 1 based on the number of backtesting exceptions (i.e., the number of times that actual/
hypothetical loss exceeds the VaR measure) for the past 250 trading days of
the reference quarter.

The risk charge (RC) for day $t$ is given as follows:

$$RC_t = \text{Max} \left[ \frac{1}{60} \sum_{i=1}^{60} \text{VaR}_{t-i}, k \right]$$

Depending on the number of VaR violations or exceptions for 250 days,
Table 1 below provides the penalty scheme, ranging from 0 to 1, that will be
added to the minimum of three that sums up to $k$ in equation (10). If the
method used in estimating the daily VaR produces a large number of VaR
violations, the bank incurs a larger risk charge since $k$ in equation (10) increases
to a maximum of four (under the “red zone”).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>No. of VaR exceptions/violations in 250 trading days</th>
<th>“Plus” factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Green</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.00</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.40</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.50</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.65</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red</td>
<td>10 or more</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1. Likelihood ratio tests

The model can also be assessed using a series of LR tests if the VaR
violation exceeds zero [Christoffersen 1998]. Three LR tests are available in
assessing the performance of the different models: (1) LR of unconditional
coverage ($LR_{uc}$), (2) LR of independence ($LR_{ind}$), and (3) LR of conditional
coverage ($LR_{cc}$). These tests provide us with information related to the possible
misspecification of the models used in estimating the VaR.
a. Likelihood ratio test for unconditional coverage (LR\textsubscript{uc})

The LR test statistic for the unconditional coverage is used to test if the proportion of VaR violations (also known as the empirical failure rate) is equal to the prespecified level \( \alpha \) (equal to 1 percent for a 99 percent VaR). Mathematically, the empirical failure rate, \( \pi_1 \), can be estimated by

\[
\pi_1 = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} I(t < \text{VaR}_t(\alpha)) = \frac{T_1}{T} \tag{11}
\]

where \( T \) is the total number of out-of-sample observations and \( I \) is the indicator variable, which is equal to one (1) if there is VaR violation and zero otherwise, and \( T_1 \) is the number of VaR violations.

The empirical failure rate is then tested if it is equal to the prespecified level, \( H_0 : \pi_1 = \alpha \) against the alternative hypotheses, \( H_1 : \pi_1 > \alpha \). The decision rule whether to reject or accept the null hypothesis, \( H_0 \), is based on LR\textsubscript{uc} test statistic [Jorion 2001] and is given by

\[
LR_{uc} = 2 \times \log \left[ \frac{(1 - T_1/T)^{T-T_1} \times (T_1/T)^{T_1}}{(1 - \alpha)^{T-T_1} \times \alpha^{T_1}} \right] \tag{12}
\]

It can be shown that \( LR_{uc} \) is asymptotically distributed as chi-square with 1 degree of freedom.

A model that rejects the \( H_0 \) of the \( LR_{uc} \) is considered an inferior model since the empirical failure rate \( \pi_1 \) is greater than the prespecified VaR level \( \alpha \). However, accepting \( H_0 \) does not necessarily mean that the model is correctly specified since it is possible for the failure rate to be within the prespecified level \( \alpha \), but the series of VaR violations are not independent of each other. (This phenomenon is known as clustered VaR violations [e.g., the 4 VaR violations for 250 trading days, green zone] may happen in just one week). According to Christoffersen and Pelletier [2003], a model with clustered VaR violations is indicative of a misspecified model.

b. Likelihood ratio test of independence (LR\textsubscript{ind})

If the null hypothesis in the LR\textsubscript{uc} test (\( H_0 : \pi_1 = \alpha \)) is not rejected, the model is then assessed using a second test known as the LR test of independence (LR\textsubscript{ind}). The test will tell us whether the proportion of the clustered VaR violations is equal to that of the independent VaR violations.

Let \( T_{ij} \) be defined as the number of days in which state \( j \) occurred in one day while state \( i \) occurred in the previous day. Thus, \( T_{100} \) is the number days without VaR exception that is preceded by a day without VaR exception, \( T_{10} \) is
the number of days without VaR exception that is preceded by a day with VaR violation, \(T_{11}\) is the number of consecutive two days with VaR violations and \(T_{01}\) is the number of days with VaR violation that is preceded by day without a VaR violation.

Define the following:

\[
\pi_0 = \frac{T_{01}}{T_{01} + T_{00}}, \quad \pi_1 = \frac{T_{11}}{T_{11} + T_{10}}, \quad \pi = \frac{T_{01} + T_{11}}{T_{01} + T_{00} + T_{10} + T_{11}}
\]  

(13)

Here, \(\pi_0\) is equal to the proportion of VaR violations preceded by non-VaR violation and \(\pi_1\) is equal to the proportion of two consecutive VaR violations. In the \(LR_{ind}\) test we are interested in the hypothesis \(H_0 : \pi_0 = \pi_1\) against the alternative hypothesis \(H_1 : \pi_0 \neq \pi_1\).

The test statistic for the \(LR_{ind}\) test is due to Christoffersen [1998] and is defined in Jorion [2001] as

\[
LR_{ind} = 2 \cdot \log \left[ \frac{(1 - \hat{\pi}_0)^{T_{00}} \hat{\pi}_0^T_{01} (1 - \hat{\pi}_0)^{T_{00}} \hat{\pi}_1^T_{11}}{(1 - \hat{\pi})^{T_{00} + T_{10}} \hat{\pi}_0^{T_{01} + T_{11}}} \right].
\]  

(14)

The \(LR_{ind}\) is asymptotically distributed as chi-square with 1 degree of freedom.

A model that rejects the \(H_0\) of the \(LR_{ind}\) test indicates that the VaR violations are not independent (or are clustering). Clustering of VaR violations is a matter of great concern since this can lead to problems for the banks (or any financial institution). On the other hand, a model that accepts the \(H_0\) in the \(LR_{ind}\) test needs to be tested again to determine if the model is correctly specified, since it is possible that the proportion of the independent violations (\(\pi_0\)) or clustered VaR violations (\(\pi_1\)) is higher than the prespecified failure rate, \(\alpha\).

c. Likelihood ratio test of conditional coverage (\(LR_{cc}\))

Assuming that the VaR violations are independent, the third test to be performed is the LR test of conditional coverage, \(LR_{cc}\). The \(LR_{cc}\) test has the null hypothesis, \(H_0 : \pi_0 = \pi_1 = \alpha\), which states that given the VaR violations are independent, \(\pi_0 = \pi_1\), they are equal to the prespecified failure rate, \(\alpha\). The alternative hypothesis is that at least one of the \(\pi_s\) is not equal to \(\alpha\). If the null hypothesis of \(LR_{cc}\) test is not rejected, it is indicative that the model is correctly specified. The test statistic for the \(LR_{cc}\) is the sum of the test statistics for the \(LR_{uc}\) and \(LR_{ind}\) and is distributed asymptotically as chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom.

\[
LR_{cc} = LR_{uc} + LR_{ind}
\]  

(15)
5. Results and discussion

This study used ten stock market indices in the Asia-Pacific Region: Australia, China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Taiwan. The data consist of daily observations from July 2, 1997, to March 18, 2005. The number of actual observations varies among the stock-market indices because of the differences in the number of trading holidays. The number of observations is in the vicinity of 1,900 observations for each country. The first 80 percent of observations (from July 2, 1997, to September 2, 2003) is used for model estimation, while the remaining 20 percent of observations (September 3, 2003, to March 18, 2005) is used for out-of-sample forecast evaluation. The models used to compare VaR forecasts are the RiskMetrics, several ARMA-GARCH type of models, and the range-based GARCH models.

Among the selected models, the best model is the Parkinson-GARCH(1,1) with Student’s t distribution since it is able to forecast correctly all the losses (i.e., no VaR violation) in nine out of ten stock indices (see Table 2). The second-best model is AR(1)-TARCH(2,1) with Student’s t distribution followed by the Garman-Klass-GARCH(1,1) with Student’s t distribution.

On the other hand, the worst-performing VaR methodology is the RiskMetricsTM where the forecasts in the ten stock-market indices have VaR violations. Using the Basel II definition, the bank will incur a penalty charge using RiskMetrics™ on stock indices in Australia, China, Malaysia, and Singapore because the failure rates are in the “red” zone (e.g., 3.6 percent or greater). If the bank is using the selected ARMA-GARCH and range-based GARCH models it will not incur a penalty charge since all VaR violations, if any, are within the “green” zone.

In stock indices with at least 1 VaR violation, the models were subjected to the series of likelihood ratio tests. The results of the LR tests are summarized in Table 3. The selected ARMA-GARCH and range-based GARCH models passed the three LR tests (i.e., accepted the null hypothesis). The results of the LR tests suggest that the number of VaR violations of the ARMA-GARCH and range-based GARCH models is within the specified failure rate of 1 percent (using the LR_{uc} test); moreover, the resulting violations do not exhibit clustered violations or are independent of each other (based on LR_{ind} test), and finally, the VaR violations (clustered and nonclustered) are within the specified failure rate $\alpha = 0.01$ (LR_{cc} test).

In the case of RiskMetrics™, however, the VaR violations in some stock indices are too high that the null hypothesis of the LR test of unconditional coverage (empirical failure rate is 0.01) is rejected. The performance of RiskMetrics™ will produce higher capital charges in the four indices: Australia, China, Malaysia, and Singapore.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of out-of-sample observations</th>
<th>AR(1)-ARCH(1), Normal distribution</th>
<th>AR(1)-TARCH(2,1), Student's t distribution</th>
<th>Park-GARCH(1,1), Student's t distribution *</th>
<th>GK-GARCH(1,1), Student's t distribution *</th>
<th>RiskMetricsTM</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Australia</strong></td>
<td>394</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>51</td>
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<td><strong>China</strong></td>
<td>371</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>128</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Hong Kong</strong></td>
<td>383</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indonesia</strong></td>
<td>372</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Japan</strong></td>
<td>376</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td><strong>Korea</strong></td>
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<td>0.26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>7</td>
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*Using fixed degrees of freedom equal to 5 as suggested by Tsay [2005].
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AR(1)-ARCH(1), Normal distribution</th>
<th>AR(1)-TARCH(2,1), Student's t distribution</th>
<th>Park-GARCH(1,1) Student's t distribution(fixed df)</th>
<th>GK-GARCH(1,1) Student's t distribution(fixed df)</th>
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<td>LRind</td>
<td>LRcc</td>
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</table>

*Legend: A = accept the null hypothesis; R = reject the null hypothesis; NA = test not applicable; - = cell indicates the test is undefined because the VaR violation is zero.

** Likelihood ratio (LR) tests: LRuc = LR test of unconditional coverage, LRind = LR test of independence, LRcc = LR test of conditional coverage. All LR tests are based on 95 percent confidence interval.
Regardless of the specification of the model (GARCH, EGARCH, TARCH), econometric models based on the Student’s t distribution tend to forecast VaR correctly (i.e., zero VaR violations) as shown in Table 4. This result is consistent with the findings of Mapa [2003] that the Student’s t tends to give a better forecast than normal distribution. The reason is that VaR forecast are usually larger because Student’s t distribution has fatter tails than the normal distribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ARMA-GARCH model</th>
<th>Normal distribution</th>
<th>Student’s t distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AR (1)-ARCH (1)</td>
<td>3 out of 10</td>
<td>8 out of 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>AR (1)-GARCH (1,1)</td>
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<td>7 out of 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>AR (1)-GARCH (2,1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>AR (1)-GARCH (1,2)</td>
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<td>7 out of 10</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>AR (1)-TARCH (1,1)</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>GARMAN-KLASS-GARCH (1,1)</td>
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</table>

6. Conclusion

This paper introduces a relatively simple yet efficient way of modeling volatility needed in estimating VaR using the range-based GARCH models. Two range-based models were introduced: the Parkinson range GARCH and the Garman-Klass GARCH models. The empirical analysis, using ten stock-market indices in the Asia Pacific region, showed that these models are promising based on their out-of-sample performance. In particular, the Parkinson range GARCH model was able to produce VaR estimates with zero violation in nine out of ten stock-market indices. This paper has shown that, indeed, range-based GARCH models are a good alternative in modeling volatility and estimating VaR.
References


