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# Stochastic conditional range, a latent variable model for financial volatility

Fausto Galli\*

## **Abstract**

In this paper we introduce a parameter driven model for the dynamics of range, the stochastic conditional range (SCR). We propose to estimate its parameters by Kalman filter, importance sampling and simulated maximum likelihood depending on the hypotheses on the distributional form of the innovations. The model is applied to a large subset of the S&P 500 components. A comparison with of its fitting and forecasting abilities with the CARR model shows that the new approach can provide an interesting alternative.

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# 1 Introduction

It is a well known phenomenon that financial time series exhibit volatility clustering. A very large literature on the dynamics of returns has developed since the seminal contributions of Engle (1982), Bollerslev (1986) and Taylor (2007) on GARCH and stochastic volatility. Most of this literature concentrates on the dynamics of the differences of closing prices of the reference period as a means of describing the subtle concept of volatility.

Parkinson (1980) suggested that the use of extreme price values can provide a superior estimate of volatility than returns. The potential advantages of using price range as an alternative were also pointed out by Alizadeh, Brandt, and Diebold (2002), who claimed to “show theoretically, numerically, and empirically that range-based volatility proxies are not only highly efficient, but also approximately Gaussian and robust to microstructure noise”, while Brandt and Diebold (2006) noticed that range “is a highly efficient volatility proxy, distilling volatility information from the entire intraday price path, in contrast to volatility proxies based on the daily return, such as the daily squared return, which use only the opening and closing prices”.

Chou (2005) proposed a dynamic model, the conditional autoregressive range (CARR) for the evolution of high/low range who mimics the structure of the ACD model of Engle and Russell (1998) for inter trade durations. This line of modelling has desirable statistical and empirical properties and the search for its refinements and extensions can draw from the wide body of ACD literature.

In this article we introduce a latent variable based variant of the CARR model: the stochastic conditional range (SCR) model. In this new formulation, the dynamics of the ranges are driven by a latent variable which is supposed to capture the unobserved information flow that reaches the market. The specification of the model is multiplicative, like in the CARR model, but its main difference is that the SCR has two stochastic innovations,

one affecting the observed range and the other the latent variable. The model can be seen as characterized by a mixture of distribution, or, in following Cox (1981), as parameter-driven. This specification also shares most of the statistical characteristics of the stochastic conditional duration (SCD) model of Bauwens and Veredas (2004). In section 2, we will present the model and discuss some of its properties. In section 3 we propose three methods for estimation: maximum likelihood based on Kalman filter or on numerical integration of the latent variable and indirect inference. A comparison on the fitting and predictive capabilities of CARR and SCR models is carried out for a large sample of stocks in section 5. Results show that the SCR provides more reliable estimates of the autocorrelations of the data process, while in terms of forecasting accuracy it is comparable to CARR.

## 2 The model

Let  $p_\tau$  the price of a financial asset sampled at frequent (e.g. minutes or seconds) time intervals  $\tau$ , and  $P_\tau = \ln(p_\tau)$  its logarithm. We define as range the difference  $R_t = \max(P_t) - \min(P_t)$ , where  $t$  indicates a coarser set of time intervals (e.g. days, weeks) such that

$$\tau = t - 1, t - 1 + \frac{1}{n}, t - 1 + \frac{2}{n}, \dots, t, \quad (1)$$

where  $n$  is the number of frequent intervals contained in one of the coarser intervals indexed by  $t$ .

The conditional autoregressive range CARR(1,1), introduced by Chou (2005) is defined by the following equations:

$$R_t = \Psi_t \epsilon_t \quad (2)$$

$$\Psi_t = \omega + \alpha R_{t-1} + \beta \Psi_{t-1} \quad (3)$$

with

$$\omega > 0, \quad \alpha \geq 0, \quad \beta \geq 0,$$

where the baseline range (the error)  $\epsilon_t$  has a distribution with density function  $p(\epsilon)$ , which has positive support and unit mean.  $I_t$  denotes the information set at time  $t - 1$ , and it includes the past values of  $R_t$  and  $\psi_t$ .

Computing moments and autocorrelation for the CARR(1,1) model is easy and one can obtain the following simple expression:

$$E(R_t) = \frac{\omega}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \quad \text{if } (\alpha + \beta) < 1, \quad (4)$$

$$E(R_t^2) = E(R_t)^2 \frac{1 + \sigma_\epsilon^2(1 - \beta^2 - 2\alpha\beta)}{1 - (\alpha + \beta)^2 - \alpha^2\sigma_\epsilon^2}, \quad (5)$$

$$\rho_1 = \frac{\alpha(1 - \beta^2 - \alpha\beta)}{1 - \beta^2 - 2\alpha\beta}, \quad (6)$$

$$\rho_n = (\alpha + \beta)\rho_{n-1} \quad (n > 1). \quad (7)$$

We introduce the stochastic conditional range (SCR) as the process described by the following equations:

$$R_t = e^{\psi_t} \epsilon_t \quad (8)$$

$$\psi_t = \omega + \beta\psi_{t-1} + \sigma u_t \quad (9)$$

where  $u_t|I_{t-1}$  has an iid standard normal distribution and  $\epsilon_t|I_{t-1}$  has, like in the case of CARR, a distribution defined on the positive axis with unitary mean.

The expected value of the range conditional to the past of the process up to time  $t - 1$  is

$$E(R_t|I_{t-1}) = e^{\psi_t}$$

and the distribution of  $R_t$  results from the mixing of the lognormal distribution of  $e_t^\psi$

and the distribution of  $\epsilon_t$ . The condition  $|\beta| < 1$  is necessary and sufficient to ensure stationarity and ergodicity for the process  $\psi_t$ , and hence for  $R_t$ .

The theoretical first two moments and the  $s$ -th autocorrelation of  $R_t$  are the following

$$E(R_t) = E(\epsilon_t)E(e^{\psi_t}) = e^{\frac{\omega}{1-\beta} + \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\beta^2}}, \quad (10)$$

$$E(R_t^2) = E(R_t)^2 \left( \frac{E(\epsilon_t^2)}{E(\epsilon_t)^2} e^{\frac{\sigma^2}{1-\beta^2} - 1} \right) + E(R_t)^2, \quad (11)$$

$$\rho_s = \frac{e^{\frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \beta^s}{1-\beta^2}} - 1}{E(\epsilon_t^2) e^{\frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2}{1-\beta^2}} - 1} \quad (12)$$

for all  $s \geq 1$ .<sup>1</sup>

Concerning the distribution of  $\epsilon_t$ , any law with positive support can be a suitable candidate. In this paper we will use two distributions: the Weibull and the log-normal. Weibull distribution is commonly employed in duration analysis and was adopted by Chou (2005) in the CARR model. The justification for the use of the log-normal distribution arises from the result by Alizadeh, Brandt, and Diebold (2002) on the distribution of daily high and low prices, which appears to be approximately Gaussian. Depending on the choice of the distribution for  $\epsilon_t$ , the estimated models will be denoted as W-SCR and L-SCR.

As it was noted above, we restrict the first moment of the baseline range  $\epsilon_t$  to be equal to one. This is necessary to avoid an identification problem between the expectations of  $\epsilon_t$  and  $\psi_t$ . The location parameter of the log-normal distribution will be therefore set to  $-1/2\sigma_\epsilon^2$ , while the scale parameter of the Weibull will be restricted to be equal to  $\Gamma(1 + 1/\gamma)^{-1}$ , where  $\sigma_\epsilon^2$  and  $\gamma$  are the shape parameters which will be let free to vary.

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<sup>1</sup>This result is derived by analogy to the corresponding moments computed by Bauwens and Veredas (2004) on SCD models and its proof is available in their paper.

### 3 Estimation

In this section we will discuss how the estimation of the SCR model can be performed either by maximum likelihood (ML) or by indirect inference.<sup>2</sup> Concerning ML estimation, we will detail the methods that can be followed in order to deal with the problem of the presence of a latent variable.

#### 3.1 ML with Kalman filter and EIS

The distribution of the baseline range  $\epsilon_t$  plays an important role in deciding how to proceed in the computation of the likelihood function to be maximized.

If  $\epsilon_t$  is log-normally distributed, as in the L-SCR specification, the model can be transformed by taking the logarithms on both sides of equation (8). This yields the following relationships

$$r_t = \ln R_t = \psi_t + \ln \epsilon_t, \quad (13)$$

$$\psi_t = \omega + \beta\psi_{t-1} + \sigma u_t, \quad (14)$$

that can be interpreted as the state and transition equations of a linear state-space model. This model can be easily estimated by Kalman filter and the resulting likelihood can be maximized by means of a numerical algorithm.

The reliance of the Kalman filter on the normality of both error components ( $\ln \epsilon_t$  and  $u_t$ ) limits its use to the L-SCR case only. When the distribution of  $\epsilon_t$  is exponential or Weibull, the Kalman filter will not produce an efficient computation of the likelihood anymore.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, it is necessary to resort to the numerical integration of the density

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<sup>2</sup>In the literature on SCD models, which share the same functional form with SCR, some alternative approaches are explored. For example Knight and Ning (2008) compare two solutions based on GMM and on empirical characteristic function and Strickland, Forbes, and Martin (2006) follow a Bayesian approach based on MCMC integration of the latent variable.

<sup>3</sup>In the analytically similar case of the SCD model, Bauwens and Veredas (2004) notice that a quasi maximum likelihood interpretation of the estimator is possible thanks to the normality of the transition

of the latent variable to compute an exact likelihood.

To do this, we start by denoting by  $R$  a sequence of  $n$  realizations of the range process.  $R$  has a conditional density of  $g(R|\psi, \theta_1)$ , where  $\theta_1$  is a parameter vector indexing the distribution and  $\psi$  a vector of latent variables of the same dimension of the sample  $R$ . The joint density of  $\psi$  is  $h(\psi|\theta_2)$ , with  $\theta_2$  a vector of parameters, and the likelihood function for  $R$  can be written as

$$L(\theta, R) = \int g(R|\psi, \theta_1)h(\psi|\theta_2)d\psi = \int \prod_{t=1}^n p(R_t|\psi_t, \theta_1)q(\psi_t|\psi_{t-1}, \theta_2)d\psi_t \quad (15)$$

the last term of the equation is the result of the sequential decomposition of the integrand in the product of the density of  $\epsilon_t$  conditional on  $\psi_t$ ,  $p(R_t|\psi_t, \theta_1)$ , that in our case will be Weibull, and the density of  $\psi_t$  conditional on its past,  $q(\psi_t|\psi_{t-1}, \theta_2)$ , which is normal with mean  $\omega + \beta\psi_{t-1}$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .

This high dimensional integral is not analytically solvable and a numerical approach is necessary. There is a very substantial literature on Monte Carlo integration methods, for an interesting survey in the field of stochastic volatility see Broto and Ruiz (2004).

The method we will employ is a refinement of the widespread importance sampling technique, it is called efficient importance sampling (EIS) and was developed by Richard and Zhang (2007). As the authors point out, this method is particularly convenient for an accurate numerical solution of high dimensional "relatively simple" integrals like the ones we need to treat and has already been successfully applied to problems that are similar (see Liesenfeld and Richard (2003) and Bauwens and Hautsch (2006)) or nearly identical (see Bauwens and Galli (2009)) to ours.

For a detailed presentation of the algorithm, we refer the reader to Richard and Zhang equation innovation. This will lead to consistent estimates of the parameters governing the dynamics of the latent variable even in the case of a misspecification of the distribution of the baseline range. These estimates, though, will be less efficient than in the case of a correctly evaluated likelihood.

(2007). A description of its implementation in the context of the SCR model, which share the same functional form with the model proposed in this paper is available in Bauwens and Galli (2009). In the appendix we present a brief summary.

## 3.2 Indirect inference

An alternative solution for the estimation of the parameters of the SCR models can consist in indirect inference (for a detailed introduction see Gouriéroux and Monfort (1996)), a simulation-based method that can be useful in estimating models for which the likelihood function is difficult to evaluate. Indirect inference relies on the possibility of easily simulating data from the model which is object of estimation (the estimand model). Simulations from the estimand are evaluated through a criterion function constructed with an approximate, or auxiliary, model, whose estimation can be performed easily (at least relatively to the estimand model). The auxiliary model does not necessarily provide an accurate description of the true process that generated the data, working more as a window through which to view both the actual data and the ones simulated from the estimand model. The objective of indirect inference is to choose the parameters of the estimand model so that they minimize a distance between the results of the estimation (that can consist in the parameters, the likelihood or the score) of the auxiliary model with the simulated data and the actual ones. A brief summary of this method is presented in the appendix.

For the indirect inference estimation of the SCR model, we chose two auxiliary models: an AR(10) and an ARMA(1,1)<sup>4</sup>. Both models were estimated on the logarithm of the observed and simulated ranges. As a result of the estimation of the two auxiliary models we chose to use their parameters and a simple sum of their squared differences was employed as the distance to minimize to obtain the indirect inference estimator.

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<sup>4</sup>A key requirement of indirect inference is that the parameters of the auxiliary model are not smaller in number than the parameters of the estimand model. In our case, it is worth noting that the ARMA(1,1) has exactly the same number of parameters (4) of the SCR model while the AR(10) is overidentified.

### 3.3 Estimation of the latent variables

Once estimates the parameters of the models have been obtained, it is possible to compute estimates of the latent variable  $\psi_t$ . The process described by equations 13 and 14 is in the form of a linear state space model, and this allows to employ Bayesian updating in order to recover estimates for a prediction step, that provides a one-step-ahead prediction of the latent variable  $\psi_t$  given the previous observation  $r_{t-1}$

$$p_{\theta}(\psi_t|r_{1:t-1}) = \int p_{\theta}(\psi_t|\psi_{t-1})p_{\theta}(\psi_{t-1}|r_{1:t-1})d\psi_{t-1}, \quad (16)$$

and in a filtering (updating) step, which provides an estimate of the value of the latent variable  $\psi_t$  given an contemporary observation  $r_t$ ,

$$p_{\theta}(\psi_t|r_{1:t}) = \frac{p_{\theta}(r_t|\psi_t)p_{\theta}(\psi_t|r_{1:t-1})}{\int p_{\theta}(y_t|\psi_t)p_{\theta}(\psi_t|r_{1:t-1})d\psi_t}. \quad (17)$$

When the state space model is Gaussian in both its innovations, the Kalman filter provides simple analytic forms for the predicted and updated values of the latent variable. This is the case only for the L-SCR model. If instead we allow the baseline distribution of the range to follow a different model (like, in our case, a Weibull) the Gaussianity of the process is lost and we had to recur to particle filter, a Monte Carlo method for the numerical evaluation of non Gaussian state space models (for details see Sanjeev Arulampalam, Maskell, Gordon, and Clapp (2002)).

### 3.4 Evidence from simulated processes

Table 1 displays the sample means and standard deviations of the estimated parameters of 100 simulations of W-SCR series. The simulated sets have sizes of 1000, 2500 and 10000 observations and the parameters used to generate the data are similar to the average

values of the estimates computed later in this paper. The simulated series were estimated by indirect inference with an AR(10) and a ARMA(1,1) auxiliary model and by maximum EIS-computed likelihood. We also report the results of Kalman filter estimation, but only for the three parameters governing the dynamics of the latent variable, the only ones that would be estimated consistently by quasi maximum likelihood. The initial parameters of the four estimation methods were chosen to be equal to the simulation parameters plus a zero mean Gaussian error with standard deviation set at 0.05 for  $\omega$  and  $\beta$ , at 0.01 for  $\sigma$  and at 0.5 for  $\gamma$ . If any jittered starting value was beyond parameter constraints, a new sample of values was drawn. The parameters  $\omega$  and  $\beta$  are estimated in a satisfactory way by all models even at the limited sample size of 1000 observations. Sample means and standard deviations are strictly comparable. Estimators seem to converge, in fact as the sample size increases, averages approach the simulated parameters and standard deviation become tighter.  $\sigma$ , the standard deviation of the innovations of the latent variable, seems more problematic to estimate. Indirect inference and ML-EIS seem to underestimate in a similar way, while the Kalman filter grossly overshoots (this last result is consistent with the Monte Carlo results in Bauwens and Galli (2009) for SCD models). Finally concerning  $\gamma$  the shape parameter of the Weibull baseline, it seems that indirect inference with an ARMA(1,1) auxiliary model has a slight loss of efficiency compared with ML-EIS and AR(10)-based indirect inference.

## 4 Empirical analysis

### 4.1 The data

We carried out the empirical analysis by considering all Standard and Poor's 500 components at the date of February 15, 2014. Data on daily price maxima and minima were downloaded from Yahoo! finance via the `tseries` package in R. The resulting series of

ranges were normalized to have a unit mean in order to speed up computation by reducing the search for the intercept in the conditional range function and to have more comparable estimates and forecasts. Out of the original 500 series, 22 of them were composed by less than 1000 observations and were discarded. This choice was somewhat arbitrary, but convergence issues for the numerical algorithms for very limited sample sizes required to set a threshold. Table 2 provides some descriptive statistics of the range series for the remaining 478 stocks. Not all series have a full 10 years length of 2517 observations, but the average sample size after pruning our database of particularly short sets is quite close to the maximum value. It can be noted too that data have a rather low degree of overdispersion (computed as the ratio of sample mean and sample standard deviation), yet maxima tend to be several standard deviations away from the mean. Even visual inspection of some charts revealed that this could be due to an issue of outliers rather than to a particularly fat tail in the baseline distribution. Whether these outliers derive from quirks in recording or from exceptional conditions in the markets is difficult to tell. The use of an outlier detection and removal algorithm, like for instance the one devised for durations by Chiang and Wang (2012), could be an interesting extension to this analysis and I leave it for further research. Average skewness and kurtosis indicate a strong departure from normality due to the presence of a heavy right tail. Statistics on autocorrelations are reported in the first column of the upper part of table 5 and show the presence of a marked degree of memory. These descriptive statistics are similar to the results obtained by Chou (2005).

## 4.2 Estimation results

The models used in the empirical analysis were a CARR(1,1) with a Weibull conditional range distribution (W-CARR), an SCR with a lognormal distribution (L-SCR) and an SCR with a Weibull conditional distribution (W-SCR). All models were specified with only one lag of the range (and the conditional range for the CARR model) in the formula

for conditional range. The first model was estimated by conditional maximum likelihood. In the second and the third model, likelihood was computed by respectively Kalman filter and EIS. The W-SCR model were also estimated by indirect inference with an AR(10) and an ARMA(1,1) as auxiliary models. Estimation times runned from less than a second for the CARR model to an average of half a minute for the L-SCR model and the W-SCR with an AR(10) auxiliary model and an average of 3-4 minutes for the W-SCR with ML-EIS and ARMA(1,1) indirect inference.

Table 3 reports sample means and standard deviations of the estimated parameters. All the estimators of the SCR model yield similar values for  $\omega$  and for  $\beta$ . The high level of persistence in the data is reflected by the average estimate of  $\beta$ , at a value close to one. In the CARR case a similar high persistence emerges from the sum of the estimated values of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , which is close to one as well. Estimates for  $\sigma$  and  $\gamma$  seem to be sensitive to the method employed and seem to be negatively correlated. Even if the CARR model yields markedly lower estimates for  $\gamma$  than the SCR model, the parameter is always larger than 2 on average. This result is similar to the value obtained in Chou (2005) for the S&P500 index and suggest that an exponential distribution (that could be obtained by setting to one the  $\gamma$  parameter of the Weibull) would not be a suitable model for the baseline range.

### 4.3 Analysis of residuals

For the SCR model, we can define the residual corresponding to the innovation  $\epsilon_t$  as

$$\hat{\epsilon}_t = R_t / e^{\hat{\psi}_t} \quad (18)$$

where  $\hat{\psi}_t$  are the estimates of the latent variable provided either by the Kalman or the particle filter conditional on the observation of the range at time  $t$  (the so called filtered or updated estimates). In the CARR case, the residual is provided by the the ratio  $R_t / \hat{\Psi}_t$

where  $\hat{\Psi}_t$  is recursively computed by replacing the values of the estimated parameters and of  $R_{t-1}$  and  $\Psi_{t-1}$  in equation 3.

For each stock in the sample we computed the sample correlogram of  $\hat{\epsilon}_t$  and checked if the strong autocorrelation present in the data was removed by the estimated dynamic part of the models we used. Results are detailed in table 4. Though none of the models seems to completely explain away the autocorrelation present in the data, residuals display a much limited serial dependence with respect to the samples used for estimation. The first autocorrelation is on average positive and quite high, followed by smaller negative values for the SCR models, while in the CARR case it drops close to zero after the first lag. At higher lags (after 10) SCR residuals' autocorrelations tend to drop to small values while CARR's ones show a tendency to increase.

#### 4.4 Fit of moments and autocorrelations

A comparison of the ability to fit the moments and autocorrelation structure of CARR and SCR models is presented in table 5. Moments and autocorrelations of the data were compared with implicit moments and autocorrelations computed by evaluating for each series formulae 4 to 7 and 10 to 12 with the values of estimated parameters.

Except for the W-SCR estimated with AR(10) indirect inference, all models seem to slightly underestimate the average of the data. The mean square errors of the first moments, computed by taking the average of the squares of differences between the empirical first moment and the implicit one computed on estimated parameters, show that the AR(10) W-SCR and the L-SCR seem to evaluate most precisely the mean of the process.

Concerning the second moment, once again all models seem to yield estimates that are smaller on average than the sample values computed from the data. Here CARR and again AR(10) W-SCR seem to be the specifications with a lower quadratic loss.

Coming to autocorrelations, W-SCD seems to reconstruct the serial dependency of

the data with a smaller square loss than L-SCD, which tends to overestimate the lower order autocorrelations and underestimate the higher order ones. CARR too has a higher value of MSE at all lags, as it systematically tends to underestimate the serial dependence in the data. It must be noted though that no model seems able to account fully for the apparent long memory in the data and at high order of lags all autocorrelations seem to be underestimated.

## 4.5 Predictive accuracy

The predictive accuracy of the different models was compared by an insample one-step-ahead analysis. First the full sample was used to estimate the parameters of the models. Then we predicted every observation at time  $t = 2, \dots, n$  using estimated parameters and observations at time  $t - 1 = 1, \dots, n - 1$ . An outsample analysis was not performed because splitting the sample in two parts in an already quite short set of data would either lead to more jittery parameter estimates or to too few forecasts.

The forecasting accuracy of each estimator for each series was measured by the mean square (prediction) error, that is the average of the squared difference between predicted and observed values. The significance of the difference between forecast errors of couples of estimators was verified by the Diebold and Mariano (2002) test with a bilateral alternative and a quadratic loss function. Predictions are considered different if the Bonferroni corrected  $p$ -value is below 5%.

Table 6 displays the main results for the estimation of the three models. It appears that though MSE's are very similar, CARR tends to predict marginally better than SCR regardless of the method of estimation. The substantial homogeneity in the performance of L-SCR and W-SCR models does not come as a surprise, as the most relevant parameters for forecasting are estimated consistently by Kalman filter. Concerning the slight forecasting edge of the CARR model, this could be due to the presence of two lagged variables in the

CARR expression for conditional range. The SCR could be augmented by including the past observed range as a further determinant of the dynamics of its latent component and it would be interesting to evaluate if its forecasting ability improves.

When the significance of pairs of forecasts is tested, it turns out that only about in one stock in fifteen the CARR and the W-SCR model forecast in a significantly different way. The proportion reduces of a half when the L-SCR is concerned. If finally we restrict our sample to significantly different forecasts only, we see that the gain of CARR in terms of MSE is slightly reduced in the case of the W-SCR while it remains substantially the same for the L-SCR.

We conclude by remarking that statistics on the comparisons between W-SCR and L-SCR, that are not reported in table 6, display a substantial similarity between the forecasts of the two models (for example, only less than the 1% of the forecasts can be considered different after testing).

## 5 Conclusion

The SCR is a simple model for the dynamics of financial range. Its estimation is feasible and can be achieved with several techniques, a few of them have been proposed here. In an empirical analysis on a large subset of the stocks composing S&P 500, SCR seemed to improve on the CARR model in reconstructing the autocorrelation structure of the data and was only slightly less efficient in forecasting.

Extensions of the models are possible and could be explored in future research. Concerning the latent variable, a long memory version, a version with a more complex process than an AR(1) and a departure from normality of the innovation could be of interest. Concerning the baseline range distribution, a mixture distribution could be useful in accounting for the consequences of heterogeneity in the information in the market.

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## A Appendix

### A.1 Brief description of the EIS numerical integration method

An importance sampling estimate for the integral

$$G(y) = \int_{\Lambda} g(y, \lambda) p(\lambda) d\lambda, \quad (19)$$

where  $g$  is an integrable function with respect to a density  $p(\lambda)$  with support  $\Lambda$  and the vector  $y$  denotes an observed data vector (which in our context corresponds to the observed ranges), is provided by

$$\bar{G}_{S,m}(y, a) = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{i=1}^S g(y, \tilde{\lambda}_i) \frac{p(\tilde{\lambda}_i)}{m(\tilde{\lambda}_i, a)}, \quad (20)$$

where the  $\tilde{\lambda}_i$ 's now denote draws from the IS density  $m$ .

The aim of *efficient* importance sampling (EIS) is to minimize the MC variance of the estimator in (20) by selecting optimally the parameters  $a$  of the importance function density  $m$  given a functional form for  $m$  (here, the Gaussian density).

A convenient choice for the auxiliary sampler  $m(\psi_t, a_t)$  is a parametric extension of the natural sampler  $q(\psi_t|\psi_{t-1}, \theta_2)$ , in order to obtain a good approximation of the integrand without too heavy a cost in terms of analytical complexity. Following Liesenfeld and Richard (2003), we use by the following specification:

$$m(\psi_t, a_t) = \frac{q(\psi_t|\psi_{t-1}, \theta_2) e^{a_{1,t}\psi_t + a_{2,t}\psi_t^2}}{\int q(\psi_t|\psi_{t-1}, \theta_2) e^{a_{1,t}\psi_t + a_{2,t}\psi_t^2} d\psi_t}, \quad (21)$$

where  $a_t = (a_{1,t} \ a_{2,t})$ . This specification is rather straightforward and has the advantage that the auxiliary sampler  $m(\psi_t, a_t)$  remains Gaussian.

The parameters  $a_t$  can be chosen such that they minimize the sampling variance

$$\hat{a}_t(\theta) = \arg \min_{a_t} \sum_{j=1}^S \left\{ \ln \left[ f(R_t, \tilde{\psi}_t^{(j)} | \tilde{\psi}_{t-1}^{(j)}, R_{t-1}, \theta) \chi(\tilde{\psi}_t^{(j)}, \hat{a}_{t+1}) \right] - c_t - \ln(k(\tilde{\psi}_t^{(j)}, a_t)) \right\}^2, \quad (22)$$

where  $c_t$  is constant that must be estimated along with  $a_t$ . If the auxiliary sampler  $m(\psi_t, a_t)$  belongs to the exponential family of distributions, the problem becomes linear in  $a_t$ , and this greatly improves the speed of the algorithm, as a least squares formula can be employed instead of an iterative routine. EIS-ML estimates are finally obtained by maximizing  $\tilde{L}(\theta; R, a)$  with respect to  $\theta$ . The number of draws used ( $S$  in equation 20) can be quite low and for all estimations in this article is equal to 50.

## A.2 Brief description of the method of indirect inference

We can define the model which is object of indirect inference estimation (estimand model) in the following way:

$$M = \{g(w_t|w^{t-1}; \theta)\} \quad (23)$$

where  $w^{t-1} = w_{t-1}, w_{t-2}, \dots$  and  $w_t = (R_t, \psi_t)$ . Its conditional probability distribution  $M^{SCR}$ , can be determined by the two expressions in equations 8 and 9. The parameters of interest in this case would be  $\theta' = (\omega, \beta, \sigma, \gamma)$ . Simulating from  $M$  is possible and the resulting values are denoted  $\underline{R}_T = \{R_t, t = 1, \dots, T\}$  for a given value of the parameter vector  $\theta$  and given initial conditions  $w_0 = (R_0, \psi_0)$ . The auxiliary criterion is  $Q_T(\underline{R}_T, \beta)$  and its maximization will lead to an estimate of  $\beta$

$$\hat{\beta}_T = \arg \max_{\beta} Q_T(\underline{R}_T, \beta). \quad (24)$$

The key assumption is that the criterion converges to a deterministic limit  $Q_{\infty}(\theta, \beta)$ , which is a function of the distribution  $M^{SCR}$ , and therefore of  $\theta$  and  $\beta$ . The value of  $\beta$  which maximizes this limit is called the binding function:

$$\hat{\beta}_T = \arg \max_{\beta} Q_{\infty}(\theta, \beta). \quad (25)$$

An estimation of the binding function can be achieved through simulation from the estimand model. If we denote by  $\underline{R}_{TH}(\theta) = \{R_t(\theta), t = 1, \dots, TH\}$  a simulated vector from  $M$  given a parameter  $\theta$  and initial conditions  $w_0$  and replace with it the observed data in the above equation, an estimator of the binding function is given by:

$$\tilde{\beta}_{TH} = \arg \max_{\beta} Q_{TH}(\underline{R}_{TH}(\theta), \beta), \quad (26)$$

and an indirect inference estimator of the estimand model parameters  $\theta$  is given by

$$\tilde{\theta}_T^H = \arg \min_{\theta} \{\hat{\beta}_T - \tilde{\beta}_{TH}(\theta)\}' \hat{\Omega}_T \{\hat{\beta}_T - \tilde{\beta}_{TH}(\theta)\}, \quad (27)$$

where  $\hat{\Omega}_T$  is a positive definite weighting matrix converging to a deterministic positive definite matrix  $\Omega$ .

Gourieroux, Monfort, and Renault (1993) show that under the assumptions above, the indirect inference estimator of  $\theta$  is consistent and (under some further hypotheses) asymptotically normal for  $T \rightarrow \infty$  and  $H$  is held constant. Moreover, they provide the expression of the optimal choice of the matrix  $\Omega$ , i.e. the choice which minimizes the asymptotic covariance matrix of the indirect inference estimator. The implementation of the optimal weighting matrix can be quite complex in practice, so we decided to use a simple identity matrix in our estimations.

<b>1000</b>					
		$\omega$	$\beta$	$\sigma$	$\gamma$
DGP		<b>0.0000</b>	<b>0.9750</b>	<b>0.1000</b>	<b>3.5000</b>
Indirect inf. AR(10)	mean	0.0005	0.9767	0.0931	3.4943
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0029</i>	<i>0.0076</i>	<i>0.0117</i>	<i>0.1246</i>
Indirect inf. ARMA(1,1)	mean	0.0003	0.9754	0.0918	3.6755
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0029</i>	<i>0.0074</i>	<i>0.0128</i>	<i>0.2906</i>
ML-EIS	mean	0.0017	0.9763	0.0955	3.4135
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0035</i>	<i>0.0089</i>	<i>0.0094</i>	<i>0.1316</i>
Kalman filter	mean	0.0031	0.9693	0.1945	
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0039</i>	<i>0.0095</i>	<i>0.0122</i>	
<b>2500</b>					
		$\omega$	$\beta$	$\sigma$	$\gamma$
DGP		<b>0.0000</b>	<b>0.9750</b>	<b>0.1000</b>	<b>3.5000</b>
Indirect inf. AR(10)	mean	0.0002	0.9753	0.1001	3.5508
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0017</i>	<i>0.0056</i>	<i>0.0076</i>	<i>0.0803</i>
Indirect inf. ARMA(1,1)	mean	0.0001	0.9746	0.0966	3.7535
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0017</i>	<i>0.0053</i>	<i>0.0078</i>	<i>0.2125</i>
ML-EIS	mean	0.0012	0.9789	0.0915	3.3570
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0023</i>	<i>0.0066</i>	<i>0.0076</i>	<i>0.1174</i>
Kalman filter	mean	0.0033	0.9724	0.1949	
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0021</i>	<i>0.0059</i>	<i>0.0067</i>	
<b>10000</b>					
		$\omega$	$\beta$	$\sigma$	$\gamma$
DGP		<b>0.0000</b>	<b>0.9750</b>	<b>0.1000</b>	<b>3.5000</b>
Indirect inf. AR(10)	mean	0.0003	0.9756	0.0992	3.5214
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0010</i>	<i>0.0033</i>	<i>0.0039</i>	<i>0.0401</i>
Indirect inf. ARMA(1,1)	mean	0.0001	0.9758	0.0936	3.7319
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0009</i>	<i>0.0033</i>	<i>0.0052</i>	<i>0.1603</i>
ML-EIS	mean	-0.0006	0.9761	0.0962	3.4276
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0012</i>	<i>0.0034</i>	<i>0.0057</i>	<i>0.1038</i>
Kalman filter	mean	0.0028	0.9742	0.1957	
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0011</i>	<i>0.0031</i>	<i>0.0035</i>	

Table 1: Sampling means and standard deviations of 100 estimates of the W-SCR model parameters for simulated series of 1000, 2500 and 10000 observations.

	mean	std deviation	maximum	minimum
observations	2469.176	201.072	2517	1039
means	1	0	1	1
medians	0.808	0.056	0.888	0.571
std deviations	0.720	0.158	1.489	0.499
minima	0.177	0.046	0.275	<0.001
maxima	9.586	5.294	45.431	4.303
skewnesses	3.745	2.414	25.621	1.758
kurtoses	34.378	91.415	981.904	5.442

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of the 478 stocks used for the empirical analysis.

		$\omega$	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\sigma$	$\gamma$	$\sigma_\epsilon$
W-CARR	mean	0.0405	0.2069	0.7509		2.2673	
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0334</i>	<i>0.0642</i>	<i>0.0865</i>		<i>0.2378</i>	
L-SCR	mean	-0.0002		0.9782	0.1695		0.3546
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0014</i>		<i>0.0184</i>	<i>0.0252</i>		<i>0.0238</i>
W-SCR ind. inf. ARMA(1,1)	mean	-0.0029		0.9784	0.0725	3.9483	
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0028</i>		<i>0.0185</i>	<i>0.0282</i>	<i>0.3637</i>	
W-SCR ind. inf. AR(10)	mean	-0.0026		0.9619	0.1033	3.7991	
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0018</i>		<i>0.0290</i>	<i>0.0308</i>	<i>0.3564</i>	
W-SCR ML-EIS	mean	0.0085		0.9311	0.1495	3.2266	
	<i>std dev</i>	<i>0.0111</i>		<i>0.0472</i>	<i>0.0386</i>	<i>0.2266</i>	

Table 3: Sample means and standard deviations of estimated parameters.

	CARR		L-SCR		W-SCR ind.inf. ARMA(1,1)		W-SCR ind.inf. AR(10)		W-SCR ML-EIS	
	mean	<i>stdev</i>	mean	<i>stdev</i>	mean	<i>stdev</i>	mean	<i>stdev</i>	mean	<i>stdev</i>
ACF(1)'s	0.067	<i>0.040</i>	0.077	<i>0.026</i>	0.096	<i>0.044</i>	0.054	<i>0.036</i>	0.020	<i>0.041</i>
ACF(2)'s	0.003	<i>0.034</i>	0.000	<i>0.026</i>	0.017	<i>0.028</i>	-0.015	<i>0.021</i>	-0.031	<i>0.028</i>
ACF(3)'s	-0.011	<i>0.036</i>	-0.022	<i>0.026</i>	-0.009	<i>0.027</i>	-0.030	<i>0.022</i>	-0.033	<i>0.025</i>
ACF(4)'s	-0.010	<i>0.035</i>	-0.026	<i>0.024</i>	-0.016	<i>0.025</i>	-0.028	<i>0.021</i>	-0.022	<i>0.025</i>
ACF(5)'s	0.001	<i>0.036</i>	-0.018	<i>0.026</i>	-0.012	<i>0.024</i>	-0.017	<i>0.021</i>	-0.004	<i>0.024</i>
ACF(6)'s	0.001	<i>0.035</i>	-0.019	<i>0.023</i>	-0.014	<i>0.025</i>	-0.014	<i>0.022</i>	0.000	<i>0.025</i>
ACF(7)'s	0.001	<i>0.033</i>	-0.019	<i>0.023</i>	-0.015	<i>0.026</i>	-0.012	<i>0.023</i>	0.001	<i>0.025</i>
ACF(8)'s	0.003	<i>0.033</i>	-0.017	<i>0.023</i>	-0.014	<i>0.025</i>	-0.009	<i>0.023</i>	0.005	<i>0.024</i>
ACF(9)'s	0.013	<i>0.033</i>	-0.009	<i>0.022</i>	-0.008	<i>0.022</i>	-0.001	<i>0.021</i>	0.014	<i>0.023</i>
ACF(10)'s	0.027	<i>0.031</i>	0.004	<i>0.022</i>	0.006	<i>0.021</i>	0.014	<i>0.021</i>	0.022	<i>0.023</i>
ACF(20)'s	0.026	<i>0.030</i>	0.003	<i>0.021</i>	0.007	<i>0.022</i>	0.014	<i>0.022</i>	0.020	<i>0.020</i>
ACF(30)'s	0.023	<i>0.028</i>	0.002	<i>0.020</i>	0.004	<i>0.021</i>	0.009	<i>0.021</i>	0.013	<i>0.020</i>
ACF(40)'s	0.022	<i>0.027</i>	0.003	<i>0.020</i>	0.005	<i>0.021</i>	0.008	<i>0.022</i>	0.010	<i>0.020</i>
ACF(50)'s	0.015	<i>0.027</i>	-0.003	<i>0.020</i>	-0.002	<i>0.019</i>	0.004	<i>0.020</i>	0.006	<i>0.019</i>

Table 4: Sample means and standard deviations of the autocorrelations of the residuals  $\hat{\epsilon}$ .

	data		CARR		L-SCR		W-SCR ind.inf. ARMA(1,1)		W-SCR ind.inf. AR(10)		W-SCR ML-EIS	
	mean	stdev	mean	stdev	mean	stdev	mean	stdev	mean	stdev	mean	stdev
1 <sup>st</sup> moments	1.000	0.000	0.954	0.060	0.933	0.111	0.953	0.111	1.005	0.066	0.944	0.121
2 <sup>nd</sup> moments	1.543	0.278	1.313	0.360	1.024	0.086	1.090	0.204	1.296	0.103	1.127	0.191
ACF(1)'s	0.601	0.102	0.502	0.156	0.697	0.091	0.595	0.087	0.621	0.064	0.531	0.059
ACF(2)'s	0.550	0.110	0.483	0.159	0.682	0.092	0.581	0.087	0.596	0.067	0.473	0.065
ACF(3)'s	0.525	0.111	0.465	0.163	0.668	0.095	0.569	0.089	0.573	0.074	0.462	0.072
ACF(4)'s	0.513	0.110	0.447	0.167	0.654	0.099	0.556	0.092	0.551	0.080	0.472	0.087
ACF(5)'s	0.503	0.111	0.431	0.171	0.640	0.102	0.544	0.093	0.530	0.086	0.484	0.098
ACF(6)'s	0.494	0.111	0.416	0.175	0.627	0.104	0.533	0.095	0.511	0.090	0.493	0.107
ACF(7)'s	0.482	0.113	0.402	0.179	0.615	0.107	0.522	0.097	0.492	0.094	0.496	0.114
ACF(8)'s	0.475	0.112	0.389	0.182	0.602	0.109	0.511	0.098	0.474	0.098	0.506	0.120
ACF(9)'s	0.476	0.113	0.376	0.185	0.590	0.111	0.500	0.099	0.457	0.101	0.530	0.124
ACF(10)'s	0.468	0.110	0.364	0.188	0.578	0.113	0.490	0.101	0.441	0.104	0.536	0.127
ACF(20)'s	0.414	0.107	0.271	0.207	0.476	0.128	0.400	0.108	0.314	0.116	0.491	0.128
ACF(30)'s	0.380	0.105	0.212	0.215	0.394	0.134	0.330	0.110	0.229	0.111	0.416	0.122
ACF(40)'s	0.345	0.108	0.172	0.218	0.329	0.134	0.273	0.108	0.171	0.101	0.357	0.129
ACF(50)'s	0.307	0.104	0.143	0.218	0.276	0.131	0.228	0.103	0.130	0.090	0.243	0.117
			MSE		MSE		MSE		MSE		MSE	
1 <sup>st</sup> moments			0.006		0.002		0.007		0.000		0.009	
2 <sup>nd</sup> moments			0.159		0.395		0.315		0.116		0.301	
ACF(1)'s			0.031		0.013		0.005		0.005		0.010	
ACF(2)'s			0.026		0.021		0.006		0.007		0.010	
ACF(3)'s			0.025		0.024		0.007		0.007		0.007	
ACF(4)'s			0.026		0.023		0.007		0.006		0.004	
ACF(5)'s			0.028		0.023		0.007		0.005		0.003	
ACF(6)'s			0.029		0.021		0.006		0.005		0.003	
ACF(7)'s			0.029		0.021		0.006		0.005		0.003	
ACF(8)'s			0.032		0.020		0.006		0.005		0.004	
ACF(9)'s			0.036		0.017		0.005		0.006		0.006	
ACF(10)'s			0.037		0.016		0.005		0.006		0.008	
ACF(20)'s			0.052		0.008		0.004		0.017		0.013	
ACF(30)'s			0.065		0.005		0.007		0.030		0.017	
ACF(40)'s			0.068		0.004		0.009		0.038		0.019	
ACF(50)'s			0.068		0.005		0.010		0.038		0.021	

Table 5: Upper table: sample means and standard deviations of sample moments and autocorrelations of the 478 S&P 500 stocks with more than 1000 observations and theoretical moments and autocorrelations computed from estimated parameters. Lower table: averages of the squared differences between implicit theoretical moments and sample moments computed for each stock.

	mean	sd	min	max	
MSE W-CARR	0.2738	0.1288	0.1564	1.3703	
MSE L-SCR	0.2759	0.1136	0.1632	1.0583	
MSE W-SCR ind.inf. AR(10)	0.2758	0.1155	0.1597	1.0745	
MSE W-SCR ind.inf. ARMA(1,1)	0.2763	0.1189	0.1601	1.1181	
MSE W-SCR ML-EIS	0.2756	0.1171	0.1613	1.0690	
significantly $\neq$ L-SCR and W-CARR					3.8%
significantly $\neq$ W-SCR AR(10) and W-CARR					7.9%
significantly $\neq$ W-SCR ARMA(1,1) and W-CARR					7.9%
significantly $\neq$ W-SCR ML-EIS and W-CARR					7.8%

Table 6: MSE comparison and Diebold and Mariano (2002) results for insample one-step-ahead forecasts.