

Efficient Markets Hypothesis (EMH)

• Q: Can past information be used to build profitable trading rules in financial markets? In particular, can past return realizations tell us anything about expected future returns? Very old questions.

• The *efficient markets hypothesis* (EMH) is a first attempt to address the predictability issue.

• Earliest known version:

"When shares become publicly known in an open market, the value which they acquire there may be regarded as the judgement of the best intelligence concerning them."

- George Gibson, *The Stock Exchanges of London, Paris and New York*, G. P. Putnman & Sons, New York, 1889.

• In 1900, Louis Bachelier, a French PhD student at the time, was the first to propose the "*Random Walk* Model" for security prices.



Eugene Fama (USA, 1939)

Efficient Markets Hypothesis (EMH)

• Grossman and Stiglitz (1980)

"There must be sufficient profit opportunities --i.e. inefficiencies, frictions-- to compensate investors for the cost of trading and information-gathering."

Then, under a frictionless world, it is impossible to have efficient prices (& EM). Only when all information gathering & trading costs are zero we can expect prices to fully reflect all available information.

<u>Conundrum</u>: But, if prices reflect fully and instantly all available information, who is going to gather information?

Efficient Markets Hypothesis (EMH)

• Malkiel (1992)

"The market is said to be efficient with respect to some information set... implies that it is impossible to make *economic profits* by trading on the basis of [the information in that set]."

The first sentence of Malkiel's definition expands Fama's definition and suggests a test for efficiency useful in a laboratory.

The second sentence suggests a way to judge efficiency that can be used in empirical work. This is what is usually done in the finance literature.

Example: If Fund managers *outperform* the market consistently, then prices are not efficient with respect to their information set.

Many examples of "inefficiencies" with respect to some information sets.

Efficient Markets Hypothesis (EMH)

• The behavioral finance field has found that investors often show predictable and financially ruinous behavior ("irrational"?). Different causes: overreaction, overconfidence, loss aversion, herding, psychological accounting, miscalibration of probabilities, regret, etc.

Examples: Momentum strategies (buying past winners and selling past losers, under-reaction?) and Contrarian strategies (buying past losers and selling past winners, over-reaction?) achieve abnormal returns.

• Lo (2004)

"... much of what behavioralists cite as counterexamples to economic rationality [...] are, in fact, consistent with an evolutionary model of individuals adapting to a changing environment."

There is a time dimension. It takes time to adapt to new circumstances.

EMH: Versions

• Efficiency can only be defined with reference to a specific type of information. Fama (1970) defined three classes of information sets:

(a) Historical sequence of prices. This set gives Weak form EMH.

(b) Public records of companies and public forecasts regarding the future performance and possible actions. Sets (a) & (b) create the **Semi-strong form EMH**.

(c) Private or inside information. Sets (a), (b) & (c) deliver the Strong form EMH.

- Violations:
- Technical traders devising profitable strategies (weak EMH)
- Reading a newspaper and devising a profitable trading strategy (semistrong EMH)
- Corporate insiders making profitable trades (strong EMH)

EMH: Versions

• Q: Can markets really be strong-form efficient? Very unlikely, plenty of examples of successful trading with private information: Jeffrey Skilling (Enron), Ivan Boesky/Michael Milken (junk bonds), Eugene Plotkin and David Pajcin (from Goldman Sachs, trading on M&A inside information), James McDermott Jr (Keefe, Bruytee & Woods, passed M&A tips to his mistress), Raj Rajaratnam (Galleon Group).

• Perfectly rational factors may account for violations of EMH:

- Microstructure issues and trading costs.
- Rewarding investors for bearing certain dynamic risks.
- Time-varying expected returns due to changing conditions can generate predictability.

EMH: Joint Tests

• We are talking about economic profits, adjusting for risk and costs. Thus, a model for risk adjustment is needed. Results will be conditional on the underlying asset pricing model.

• Fama (1991) remarks that tests of efficiency are *joint tests* of efficiency and some asset pricing model, or benchmark.

Example: Many benchmarks assume constant "normal" returns. This is easier to implement, but may not be correct. Thus, rejections of efficiency could be due to rejections of the benchmark.

• Most tests suggest that if the security return (beyond the mean) cannot be forecasted, then market efficiency is not rejected.

Example: A wrong asset pricing model may reject efficiency. It would be easy to find (demeaned) returns to be forecastable if we use the wrong mean.

EMH: Expectations and Information Set

• The conditional expectation of the stochastic process X_{t+1} , conditioned on information set I_t , can be written as:

$$\operatorname{E}[X_{t+1} | I_t] = \operatorname{E}_{t}[X_{t+1}]$$

• Information set, I_t : It describes what we know at time t. The usual assumption is that we do not forget anything. Over time, the information set increases: I_t is contained in I_{t+1} ; I_{t+1} is contained in I_{t+2} , etc. That is, we have a sequence $I_0 \subseteq I_1 \subseteq I_2 \ldots \subseteq I_t$. In stochastic processes this sequence is called a "*filtration*," with notation $\{\mathscr{F}_t\}$.

<u>Technical note</u>: We say a stochastic process $\{X_t\}$ is *adapted* to a filtration $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}$ if X_t is *measurable* \mathcal{F}_t for all t.

Measurable? The event of interest is in \mathscr{F}_t .

EMH: Random Prices

• Efficient market: A market where prices are random with respect to an information set ("*filtration*"), I_t .

• Let the price of a security at time t be given by the expectation of some "*fundamental value*," V*, conditional on I_t :

$$P_t = \mathrm{E}[\mathrm{V}^* | I_t] = \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{t}}[\mathrm{V}^*]$$

• The same equation holds one period ahead so that:

$$P_{t+1} = \operatorname{E}[\operatorname{V*} | I_{t+1}] = \operatorname{E}_{t+1}[\operatorname{V*}]$$

• The expectation of the price change over the next period is: $E_t[P_{t+1} - P_t] = E_t[E_{t+1}[V^*] - E_t[V^*]] = 0$

since I_t is contained in $I_{t+1} \Rightarrow E_t[E_{t+1}[V^*]] = E_t[V^*]$ (by Law of IE).

Remark: Under efficiency, financial asset prices are unpredictable.

EMH: Martingale & Fair Games – Definitions

Martingale: A stochastic process P_t is a martingale if: $E[P_{t+1} | \Omega_t] = P_t \qquad (\text{or } E_t[P_{t+1}] = P_t)$

where the information set is Ω_t (what we know at time t, includes P_t).

Submartingale: If $E[P_{t+1} | \Omega_t] \ge P_t$. $-P_t$: Lower bound for $E_t[P_{t+1}]$ Supermartingale: If $E[P_{t+1} | \Omega_t] \le P_t$. $-P_t$: Upper bound for $E_t[P_{t+1}]$

Fair game model: A stochastic process r_t is a fair game if:

 $\mathbf{E}[r_{t+1} \mid \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{t}] = 0$

 \Rightarrow if P_t is a martingale or pure random walk, $(P_{t+1} - P_t)$ is a fair game.

Note: Only referring to expected values!

EMH: Martingale & Fair Games - Definitions

• The Martingale process can be setup as a special case of an AR(1) process:

 $p_t = \mu + \varphi p_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ with $\varphi = 1$, $\mu = 0$, & $E_t[\varepsilon_{t+1}] = 0$. A non-stationary process.

<u>Technical detail</u>: Martingale condition is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for *rational expectations* models of asset prices (LeRoy (1973), Lucas (1978)).

According to Lucas (1978), in markets where all investors have rational expectations, prices do fully reflect all available information and *marginal-utility weighted* prices follow martingales.

• But, we consider the martingale as an important starting point.

The Random Walk Hypothesis

Definition: Random Walk (RW) A stochastic process p_t is a RW if: $p_t = \mu + p_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ -where $p_t = \ln(P_t)$ $\Rightarrow r_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t = \Delta p_t$ Assumptions about ε_t : Uncorrelated with past information, with constant mean (=0) & variance (σ^2). That is, $\varepsilon_t \sim D (0, \sigma^2)$, with $E_t[\varepsilon_{t+1}] = 0$, $E_t[\varepsilon_{t+1}^2] = \sigma^2$ If $\mu \neq 0$, the process is called a RW *with a drift*. • A RW with no drift is a martingale with structure for the error term, ε_t , uncorrelated, zero mean and constant variance.

The Random Walk Hypothesis

• We start testing the EMH by assuming log returns, r_t , follow a RW with a drift. We called this "Random Walk Model":

 $\Rightarrow r_t = \Delta p_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t = \Delta p_t$

where $\varepsilon_t \sim D (0, \sigma^2)$.

 \bullet Different specifications for ϵ_t produce different testable hypothesis for the EMH-RW Model:

- **RW1**: ε_t is *independent and identically distributed* (*i.i.d.*) ~ D(0, σ^2). Not realistic. (Old tests: Cowles and Jones (1937)).

- **RW2**: ε_t is *independent* (allows for heteroskedasticity). Test using filter rules, technical analysis. (Alexander (1961, 1964), Fama (1965)).

- **RW3**: ε_t is *uncorrelated* (allows for dependence in higher moments). Test using autocorrelations, variance ratios, long horizon regressions.

The RW Hypothesis: Autocorrelations & ACF

• Assume r_t is covariance stationary and ergodic. Then

 $\gamma_k = \operatorname{cov}(r_t, r_{t-k})$ - Auto-covariance between times t & t - k $\rho_k = \gamma_k / \gamma_0$. - $\operatorname{Var}[r_t] = \gamma_0$

are not time dependent. We estimate both statistics with $\hat{\gamma}_k$ and $\hat{\rho}_k$.

• Under **RW1** Hypothesis (and some assumptions)

$$\frac{\sqrt{T} \ \hat{\rho}_k}{\longrightarrow} \frac{a}{N(0, 1)}$$
SE[$\hat{\rho}_k$] = 1/ \sqrt{T}

 \Rightarrow

<u>Technical Note</u>: The sample correlation coefficients, $\hat{\rho}_k$, are negatively biased in finite samples. See Fuller (1976).

• To check autocorrelations up to order k, we use the ACF for r_t . Confidence Intervals can be easily approximated by $\pm 2/\sqrt{T}$.



Example: ACF with k = 24 lags for the monthly Equal- and Valueweighted (EW & VW, respectively) CRSP index returns from 1926:Jan -2022:March (T = 1,155): EMH_da <read.csv("http://www.bauer.uh.edu/rsusmel/4397/crsp_ew_vw_m.csv",head=TRUE,sep=",") lr_vw <- EMH_da\$vwretd # Value weighted CRSP returns (including distributions) lr_ew <- EMH_da\$ewretd # Equal weighted CRSP returns (including distributions) T <- length(lr_vw) # Asymptotic SE for rho's: |rho| > 2 * SE => significant SE_rho <- 1/sqrt(T) > SE_rho [1] 0.02942449 # |rho| > 2 * SE => significantacf_y <- acf(lr_vw)</pre> $> acf_y$ Autocorrelations of series 'lr_vw', by lag 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 12 10 11 1.000 -0.011 0.044 -0.183 0.140 -0.001 0.002 -0.010 0.121 -0.024 -0.003 -0.045 -0.002 17 21 23 13 14 15 16 18 19 20 22 24 0.045 0.009 -0.004 0.007 0.010 0.015 -0.010 -0.004 -0.005 0.051 -0.009 -0.015





The RW Hypothesis: ACF – Daily Data **Example:** ACF with k = 24 lags for the daily Equal- and Valueweighted (EW & VW, respectively) CRSP index returns from 1926:Jan 1 -2022:March 30 (T = 23,359): EMH_d_da <read.csv("http://www.bauer.uh.edu/rsusmel/4397/crsp_ew_vw_d.csv",head=TRUE,sep=",") lr_vw_d <- EMH_d_da\$vwretd # VW CRSP returns (including distributions) lr_ew_d <- EMH_d_da\$ewretd # EW CRSP returns (including distributions) $T \leq - length(lr_ew_d)$ $SE_rho <- 1/sqrt(T)$ # Asymptotic SE for rho's: |rho| > 2 * SE => significant > SE_rho [1] 0.006279628 # |rho| > 2 * SE => significant acf_y <- acf(**lr_vw_d**) $> acf_y$ Autocorrelations of series 'lr_vw_d', by lag 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 12 11 1.000 0.053 -0.027 0.001 0.018 0.007 -0.027 -0.003 0.002 0.019 0.014 0.010 0.023 13 14 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 15 16 $-0.001 \ -0.001 \ -0.017 \ \ 0.024 \ \ -0.010 \ \ -0.011 \ \ 0.013 \ \ 0.014 \ \ -0.008 \ \ -0.003 \ \ 0.011 \ \ 0.006$





The RW Hypothesis: Autocorrelation Joint Tests

• We already know two tests to check for zero autocorrelation in a time series: Box-Pierce Q and Ljung-Box tests. We usually rely on the Ljung-Box (1978), LB, test, since it has better small sample properties.

-The Q & LB statistics test a joint hypothesis that the first p autocorrelations are zero: $H_0: \rho_1 = ... = \rho_p = 0$

Under **RW1** and using the asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\rho}_k$:

 $Q = T \sum_{k=1}^{p} \widehat{\rho}_{k}^{2} \xrightarrow{d} \chi_{p}^{2}.$ LB = T * (T-2) * $\sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{\widehat{\rho}_{k}^{2}}{T-k} \xrightarrow{d} \chi_{p}^{2}.$

The RW Hypothesis: Autocorrelation Joint Tests

• Q & LB tests are widely use, but they have two main limitations:

(1) The test was developed under the independence (RW1) assumption.

If y_t shows dependence, such as heteroscedasticity, the asymptotic variance of $\sqrt{T} \hat{\rho}$ is no longer I, but a non-diagonal matrix.

There are several proposals to "*robustify*" both Q & LB tests, see Diebold (1986), Robinson (1991), Lobato et al. (2001). The "robustified" Portmanteau statistic uses $\tilde{\rho}_k$ instead of ρ_k :

$$\tilde{\rho}_{k} = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_{k}}{\tau_{k}} = \frac{\sum_{t=k+1}^{T} (y_{t} - \bar{y})(y_{t-k} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{t=k+1}^{T} (y_{t} - \bar{y})^{2} (y_{t-k} - \bar{y})^{2}}$$

Thus, for Q we have:

$$\mathbf{Q}^* = T \ \sum_{k=1}^p \tilde{\rho}_k^2 \xrightarrow{d} \chi_p^2.$$

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The RW Hypothesis: Autocorrelation Joint Tests

(2) The selection of the number of autocorrelations p is arbitrary.

The traditional approach is to try different p values, say 3, 6 & 12. Another popular approach is to let the data "select" p, for example, using AIC or BIC, an approach sometimes referred as "*automatic selection*."

Escanciano and Lobato (2009) propose combining BIC's and AIC's penalties to select p in Q* (BIC for small k and AIC for bigger k).

• It is common to reach different conclusion from Q and Q*.

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Testing for Autocorrelation: Monthly Evidence Example: Q and LB tests with p = 3 & 12 lags for the monthly EW & VW CRSP index returns from 1926:Jan – 2022:March (T = 1155): • Q test for monthly VW > box.test(lr_vw, lag = 4, type="Box-Pierce") Box-Pierce test data: lr_vw X-squared = 22.812, df = 4, p-value = 0.000138 > Box.test(lr_vw, lag = 12, type="Box-Pierce") Box-Pierce test data: lr_vw X-squared = 34.696, df = 12, p-value = 0.0005234











Example: Q and LB tests with p = 5 & 20 lags for the daily Equaland Value-weighted (EW & VW, respectively) CRSP index returns from 1926: Jan 1 – 2022 :March 30 (T = 25,359):

EMH_d_da <- read.csv("http://www.bauer.uh.edu/rsusmel/4397/crsp_ew_vw_d.csv", head=TRUE,sep=",")

Value weighted CRSP returns (with distributions)# Equal weighted CRSP returns (with distributions)

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• Q tests for **daily VW** > Box.test(lr_vw_d, lag = 5, type="Box-Pierce") data: lr_vw_d X-squared = **100.64**, df = 5, p-value = **2.2e-16** > Box.test(lr_vw_d, lag = 20, type="Box-Pierce") data: lr_vw_d X-squared = **184.68**, df = 20, p-value < **2.2e-16**

Testing for Autocorrelation: Daily Evidence Example (continuation): • Q* test for daily VW (continuation) > Auto.Q(y, 20) # Q* test automatic selection of p \$Stat [1] 11.73454 \$Pvalue [1] 0.0006135076 • Q tests for daily EW > Box.test(lr_ew_d, lag = 5, type="Box-Pierce") data: lr_ew_d X-squared = 1213.3, df = 5, p-value = 2.2e-16

> Box.test(lr_ew_d, lag = 20, type="Ljung-Box")

data: lr_ew_d X-squared = **1445.4**, df = 20, p-value = **2.2e-16**



The RW Hypothesis: Variance Ratio (VR) Tests

• <u>Intuition</u>: For all 3 RW hypotheses, the variance of RW increments is linear in the time interval. If the interval is twice as long, the variance must be twice as big. That is, the variance of monthly data should be 4 times bigger than the variance of weekly data. (Recall the log approximation rules for *i.i.d.* returns.)

• If r_t is a covariance stationary process (constant first two moment, and covariance independent of time), then for the variance ratio of 2-period versus 1-period returns, VR(2):

$$VR(2) = \frac{Var[r_t(2)]}{2*Var[r_t]} = \frac{Var[r_t + r_{t+1}]}{2*Var[r_t]} =$$
$$= \frac{Var[r_t] + Var[r_{t+1}] + 2 Cov[r_t, r_{t+1}]}{2*Var[r_t]} = \frac{2 \sigma^2 + 2 \gamma_1}{2\sigma^2} = 1 + \rho_1$$
where $r_t(2) = r_t + r_{t+1}$

The RW Hypothesis: VR Tests

$$VR(2) = \frac{Va[r_t(2)]}{2*Var[r_t]} = 1 + \rho_1.$$

• Three cases:

 $\rho_1 = 0 \Rightarrow VR(2) = 1$ (True under **RW1**, random walk) $\rho_1 > 0 \Rightarrow VR(2) > 1$ (mean aversion) $\rho_1 < 0 \Rightarrow VR(2) < 1$ (mean reversion)

• The intuition generalizes to longer horizons:

$$\operatorname{VR}(q) = \frac{\operatorname{Var}[r_t(q)]}{q * \operatorname{Var}[r_t]} = 1 + 2 * \sum_{k=1}^{q-1} (1 - \frac{k}{q}) \rho_k.$$

The VR(q) is a particular linear combination of the 1st (q - 1) autocorrelation coefficients (with linearly declining weights).

The RW Hypothesis: VR Tests – Distribution

• Under **RW1**, we have H_0 : VR(q) = 1. H_1 : VR(q) \neq 1.

<u>Technical Note</u>: Under **RW2** and **RW3**, VR(q) = 1 provided

$$1/T \sum_{t=0}^{T} \operatorname{Var}[r_t] \to \overline{\sigma}^2 > 0$$

we need this assumption, since some "fat-tailed" distributions do not have a well-defined second moment.

• To do any testing we need the sampling distribution of the VRs (estimated variance ratios) under H_0 : VR(q) = 1. We use the statistic:

$$\frac{\sqrt{Tq}}{\sqrt{2*(q-1)}} \left(\widehat{\mathrm{VR}}(q) - 1 \right) \xrightarrow{a} \mathrm{N}(\mathbf{0}, 1)$$

This is Cochrane's (1988) VR test. The test rejects H_0 –i.e., the RWH – if the above statistic is greater in absolute value than **1.96**.

The RW Hypothesis: VR Tests – Computations For the special case of *q* = 2, we use

 \sqrt{T} ($\widehat{\mathrm{VR}}(2) - 1$) \xrightarrow{a} N(0, 1)

• Var[$r_t(q)$] is computed using the **MLE formulation**, that is, dividing by *T*, not by (T - 1) (or *T* minus degrees of freedom).

Example: We have monthly data from Jan 1973. Then, we compute

$$\operatorname{Var}[r_t] = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} (r_t - \bar{r})^2}{T}$$
$$\operatorname{Var}[r_t(2)] = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} (r_t(2) - 2*\bar{r})^2}{T}.$$

Note: Since the tests are asymptotic tests, in this case, relying on the Normal distribution, dividing by T or by (T - k) does not make any difference.

The RW Hypothesis: VR Tests – Computations

• $Var[r_t(q)]$ is computed using **non-overlapping returns**.

Example: We compute **non-overlapping bi-monthly returns**, using monthly data from Jan 1973.

(1) monthly returns: r_t is computed as usual. For the first return: $r_{t=Jan \ 73} = \ln(P_{t=Jan \ 31,73}) - \ln(P_{t=Jan \ 1,73})$

(2) bi-monthly returns. The first three $r_t(2)$ are computed as:

 $r_{t=Feb \ 73}(2) = r_{t=Feb \ 73} + r_{t=Jan \ 73}$ $r_{t=Apr \ 73}(2) = r_{t=Apr \ 73} + r_{t=Mar \ 73}$ $r_{t=June \ 73}(2) = r_{t=June \ 73} + r_{t=May \ 73}$

<u>Note</u>: We have "clean data," with no introduced serial correlation. But, we lose observations. If we have 1,000 monthly returns, using non-overlapping bi-monthly returns we end up with only 500 observations.

The RWH: VR Test Monthly Evidence (VW)

Example: We check the RW Hypothesis, under RW3, for the monthly CRSP EW and VW Index returns. In R, the package *vrtest* has functions to compute the above mentioned VR tests.

• VR tests for **monthly VW** library(vrtest) kvec <- c(2,3,12) y <- lr_vw > vr_1 <- VR.minus.1(y, kvec) > vr_1 \$VR.auto [1] 0.1954746

\$Holding.Periods [1] 2 3 12

\$VR.kvec [1] 0.1007011 0.1187365 0.1212423

> sqrt(T*kvec)/sqrt(2*(kvec-1))*vr_1\$VR.kvec
[1] 3.422358 3.494666 3.043158

#Vector with different q# Stat should be close to 0 if RW# VR with Automatic ("optimal) q selection

(VR - 1) stat for each q=kvec[i]

VR test for each q=kvec[i] $\sim N(0,1)$



The RWH: VR Tests – Issues

• Several issues has been raised regarding the VR's tests. The main issues are:

(1) Choice of *q*. In the previous examples, we have arbitrarily selected *q*. Similar to the situation with the Q and LB tests, there are suggestions to automatically (or "optimally," according to some loss function) select *q*. Choi (1999) is one example of this approach, (the *vrtest* R package uses this approach in the *Auto*. VR test).

(2) Poor asymptotic approximation. In simulations, it is found that the asymptotic Normal distribution is a poor approximation to the small-sample distribution of the VR statistic. The usual solution is to use a bootstrap (Kim's (2009) bootstrap gives the p-value of the automatic VR test in the *Auto*. VR function).





The RWH: VR Tests - LM's Modifications

• Lo & MacKinlay (LM, 1988, 1989) propose modifications to the test: - Allow for **overlapping returns**, and, thus, using more observations. But, overlapping returns will be autocorrelated, even if underlying process is not. We need to adjust for this feature.

- Use unbiased estimators of variances -i.e., divide by (T - df).

$$M_1(q) = \frac{\sqrt{3*T*q}}{\sqrt{2*(2q-1)*(q-1)}} (\overline{VR}(q) - 1) \xrightarrow{a} N(0, 1),$$

where $\overline{VR}(q)$ is the VR statistic computed using overlapping returns.

- Allow for possible heteroscedasticity of returns (more realistic)

$$M_2(q) = \frac{(\overline{VR}(q) - 1)}{\sqrt{\phi(q)}} \xrightarrow{a} N(0, 1),$$

where

$$\Phi(q) = \sum_{j=1}^{q} \left[\frac{2(q-j)}{q}\right]^2 * \left\{\frac{\sum_{t=j+1}^{T} (r_t - \bar{r})^2 (r_{t-j} - \bar{r})^2}{[\sum_{t=1}^{T} (r_t - \bar{r})^2]^2}\right\}.$$



Example: We check the RW Hypothesis, under RW3, for the monthly CRSP EW and VW Index returns using the LM's tests: M1 and M2. Again, we use the R package *vrtest*.

• Automatic VR tests for monthly VW

```
library(vrtest)

kvec <- c(2,3,12) #Vector with different q

y <- lr_vw

> Lo.Mac(y, kvec) # LM's tests M1 & M2 ~ asymptotic N(0,1)

$Stats

M1 M2

k=2 3.422358 1.7485059

k=3 2.706957 1.4241521

k=12 1.099060 0.6373211

Conclusion: W/a migst LL (BW/ Model) using M1 for q = 2, 3 but a
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<u>Conclusion</u>: We reject H₀ (RW Model) using M1 for q = 2, 3; but, once we allow for heteroscedasticity (M2 tests), we cannot reject H₀.



The RWH: VR & LM Tests – Issues (\xrightarrow{a} N(0,1))

• Several issues has been raised regarding the LM's tests:

(1) Poor asymptotic approximation. The asymptotic standard normal distribution provides a poor approximation to the small-sample distribution of the VR statistic. LM's tests tend to be biased and right-skewed, in finite samples.

• Proposed solutions:

- Alternative asymptotic distributions, as in Richardson and Stock (1989) or Chen and Deo (2006).

- **Bootstrapping**, as in Kim (2006) or Malliaropulos and Priestley (1999).

The RWH: VR & LM Tests – Issues (Joint Tests)

(2) Joint tests. The LM's tests are individual tests, where H_0 is tested for a specific value of q. But, under H_0 , VR(q) = 1, for all q. LM's tests ignore the joint nature of testing for the RW Hypothesis.

• Proposed solutions:

- RS statistic, a Wald Test, as proposed by Richardson and Smith (1993):

$$\mathrm{RS}(q) = T \left(\mathbf{VR} - \iota \right)' \Phi^{-1} T \left(\mathbf{VR} - \iota \right) \longrightarrow \chi^2_q.$$

where **VR** is the $(q \times 1)$ vector of q sample variance ratios, ι is the $(q \times 1)$ unit vector, and Φ is the covariance matrix of **VR**.

- QP statistic, a Wald Test based on a "power transformed" VR statistic, as proposed by Chen and Deo (2006). QP asymptotically follows a χ_q^2 distribution. This test is a one-sided test (H₁: VR(q) < 1 for all q.)

The RWH: VR & LM Tests – Issues (Joint Tests)

• Proposed solutions (continuation):

- CD statistic, a join test, as proposed by Chow and Denning (1993): $CD = \sqrt{T} \max_{1 \le i \le m} |M_2(q_i)|$

which follows a complex distribution, the studentized maximum modulus [SMM] distribution with m and T degrees of freedom (m is the number of k values). This SMM distribution is tabulated in Hahn and Hendrickson (1971) and Stoline and Ury (1979).

In general, we use the simulated critical values obtained by simulations as done by Chow and Denning themselves or a bootstrap as in Kim (2006).



The RWH: VR & LM Tests – Monthly Evidence				
Example (continua > Lo.Mac(y, kvec) \$Stats M1 M2 k=2 3.422358 1.7485059 k=3 2.706957 1.4241521 k=12 1.099060 0.6373211	ttion): # LM's tests M1 & M2			
> Boot.test(y, kvec, nboot= \$Holding.Period [1] 2 3 12	:1000, wild="Normal", prob=c(0.025,0.975))	#Kim's Bootstrap		
\$LM.pval [1] <mark>0.067 0.157 0.503</mark>	(Bootstrap p-values for the Lo-MacKinlay	M2 tests)		
\$CD.pval [1] <mark>0.153</mark>	(Bootstrap p-value for the Chow-Denning test)			
\$CI 2.5% 97.5% k=2 -1.825961 1.827630 k=3 -1.847447 1.855263 k=12 -1.712367 2.152280	(C.I. for Lo-Mackinlay M2 tests from Boots	trap distribution)		







The RW Hypothesis: VR Test Monthly Evidence

Example (continuation):

> Chen.Deo(y, kvec)
\$Holding.Period
[1] 2 3 12
\$VRsum

QP Wald test

[1] 0.1442001 \$QPn [1,] 6.524497 \$ChiSQ.Quantiles_1_2_5_10_20_percent [1] 11.344867 9.837409 7.814728 6.251389 4.641628

<u>Conclusion</u>: Consistent with previous result, solid evidence (only the Wald test rejects H_0) for the RW for VW returns, but weak evidence for EW returns.





The RW Hypothesis: VR Test Daily Evidence			
Example (continu > Lo.Mac(y, kvec) \$Stats M1 M2 k=5 4.372645 1.757401 k=20 3.574490 1.573525 k=60 3.057608 1.536068	ation): # LM's tests M1 & M2		
> Boot.test(y, kvec, nboot \$Holding.Period [1] 2 3 12	=1000, wild="Normal", prob=c(0.025,0.975))	#Kim's Bootstrap	
\$LM.pval [1] 0.063333333 0.0800000	(Bootstrap p-values for the Lo-MacKinlay M2 tests)		
\$CD.pval [1] <mark>0.11333</mark>	(Bootstrap p-value for the Chow-Denning t	est)	
\$CI 2.5% 97.5% k=5 -1.602225 2.333427 k=20 -1.594718 1.935643 k=60 -1.748524 1.782090	(C.I. for Lo-Mackinlay M2 tests from Boots	trap distribution)	

The RW Hypothesis: VR Test Daily Evidence		
Example (continuation): > Wald(y, kvec) \$Holding.Period [1] 5 20 60	# RS Wald test	
\$Wald.stat [1] <mark>21.19834</mark>		
\$Critical.Values_10_5_1_percent [1] 6.251389 7.814728 11.344867		
> Chen.Deo(y, kvec)	# QP Wald test	
\$VRsum [1] 0.05863072		
\$QPn [,1] [1,] 3.639522		
\$ChiSQ.Quantiles_1_2_5_10_20_percent [1] 11.344867 9.837409 7.814728 6.251389 4.641628		

The RW Hypothesis: Overall Evidence

• Tests results are based on CRSP value-weighted (VW) and equal weighted (EW) indices from 1925 & individual securities from 1962.

• Daily, weekly and monthly returns from VW and EW indices show significant (positive) autocorrelation.

• VR(q) > 1 statistics reject RW3 for EW index but not VW index. Market capitalization or size may be playing a role. Rejection of RW stronger for smaller firms. Their returns more serially correlated.

• For individual securities, VR(q) < 1, suggesting small and negative correlations (and not significant).

• VR tests in other countries and financial markets. Tests also tend to reject the RWH, with stronger rejections for smaller markets and less liquid markets.

The RW Hypothesis: Implications

• The rejection of the RWH does not necessarily imply a violation of the EMH.

• Main implication: Theoretical pricing models should be able to explain the pattern of serial correlation.

• Side Question: How can portfolios show VR(q) > 1 when individual securities show VR(q) < 1?