

# Testing for efficient markets

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May 17, 2011

# What is market efficiency?

- A market is efficient if prices *contain all information about the value of a stock.*
- An attempt at a more precise definition:  
*an efficient market is defined with respect to an information set  $I_t$  if it is impossible to earn economic profits by trading on the basis of  $I_t$ .*

MICHAEL JENSEN. Some anomalous evidence regarding market efficiency. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 6:pages 95–101 (1978)

- The efficient market hypothesis (**EMH**):  
There will be an absence of arbitrage opportunities in a market populated by rational, profit-maximising agents.
- EMH does not depend upon anything other than the rationality of agents.

# The grand market efficiency debate

- A strong market efficiency position is: There is **zero** forecastability of returns.
- Some people get excited when a  $t$  stat of 2.5 turns up, they have “rejected the  $H_0$  of market efficiency”.
- A lot of talk about “inefficient markets” based on such rejections.
- But forecasting equation have no substantial power. When  $H_0$  can be rejected only with a tiny  $R^2$ , the process is mostly white noise!
- One view is: Speculators are evil, the speculative process is gambling.  
Modern finance knows better.

# EMH: Implications

- If the price is the correct discounted value of future cashflows, there are two sets of implications:
  - ① There are no arbitrage opportunities: you only get returns if you take risk.
  - ② There are implications on  $E(r)$  of any asset: this ought to be a function only of the risk premium on equity.  
This means  $E(\text{excess returns})$  across any pair of assets ought not to differ persistently.

These ought to be true given a fixed information set.

- Research goal: Do these statements about no-arbitrage actually hold in a market?
- We need to test EMH for a given market.

# Structure of tests of EMH

Tests of market efficiency are differentiated based on what is the  $I_t$  being used.

- Weak form or “returns predictability”:  
 $I_t$  includes price information only.
- Semi-strong form or “event studies”:  
 $I_t$  includes prices and information about firms and macroeconomic events.
- Strong form of “tests about insider trading”:  
 $I_t$  allows for differences in information across different economic agents.

# Tests of EMH

- **Weak form:** ACF, Variance Ratio analysis (Nelson and Plosser 1985, Summers 1988).  
Effects studied: serial correlation, seasonal effects (such as day of week, budget day, end of year effects).
- **Semi-strong form:** Event–study analysis (Brown and Warner 1980, 1985).  
Effects studied: corporate action (such as dividend announcements, bonus issues, rights issues, debt issues, defaults, etc), institutional changes (such as introduction of derivatives markets, changes in laws to shareholders/creditors, etc).
- **Strong form:**  
Effects studied: mutual fund/institutional fund performance wrt stock market index.

# Interpreting tests of EMH

- All the above tests of EMH are joint tests of the market efficiency as well as an asset pricing model.
- For instance, all the first tests of EMH were based on the null of the random walk model of prices.
- The random walk assumes a normal distribution for the innovation series.  
However, stock prices were found to have several non-normalities in their returns behaviour: such as skewness, heteroscedasticity, etc.
- This shifted the behaviour of stock price under EMH from pure random walk to that of the more general martingale process.

$$E(P_{t+1}|P_t, P_{t-1}, \dots) = P_t$$

# Interpreting tests of EMH

- Rejection of the null hypothesis is a joint rejection of market efficiency *and* the asset pricing model.
- Standard literature is biased towards rejecting the asset pricing model rather than rejecting market efficiency. (Fama, 1970; Roll, 1977; Ball, 1978; Fama, 1991; ?).
- There is a branch that builds models with inefficient markets built in explicitly with some success in explaining real-world price behaviour. (Grossman and Stiglitz, 1980; Summers, 1986; Poterba and Summers, 1988; Lo and MacKinlay, 1988).



# Interpreting tests of EMH

- The earliest tests of EMH were independent of asset pricing theory: Serial correlation, runs tests, presence of day-of-week, month-of-year, size-of-firm, etc. effects.  
EUGENE FAMA. The behaviour of stock market prices. *JOB*, **38**:pages 34 – 105 (1965)  
These established some empirical characteristics of the data.
- Next, the tests based the behaviour of prices on specific asset pricing models.  
Then tests of EMH became *joint* tests of market efficiency and an asset pricing model: Tests of the random walk, event studies, performance of mutual fund managers, etc.

# Statistical tests of the random walk behaviour of prices

# Test of randomness #1: Runs test

- A returns sequence as follows  $- +, +, + -$  is (a) a positive run and (b) a run of length 3.
- Runs can have different directions  $(+, -, 0)$  and different lengths.
- Randomness of returns implies certain properties of runs.

# Test of randomness #2: autocorrelation coefficients

- If a series of data is “random”, then it will have no significant autocorrelation coefficients.
- $H_0 : \rho = 0$
- The standard deviation for the autocorrelation coefficient approximated by

$$\sigma_\rho = 1/\sqrt{N}$$

# Variance Ratios as a test of EMH

## Tests of randomness #3: Variance ratio

- If innovations are independent, *and* the distribution has constant variance, *then*  $\sigma_K^2$ , the variance of returns over  $k$  periods is  $K\sigma_1^2$ .
- Variance Ratio at lag  $K$  is defined as  $VR(K)$  where

$$VR(K) = \frac{V(K)}{V(1)} \frac{1}{K}$$

- Under the null of iid returns,  $VR(K) = 1$  for any  $K$ .

# Does the world work like this?

- There are 52 weeks in 12 months, i.e. 4.333 weeks a month.

Product	VR
S&P 500	4.21
Nifty	5.06
USD/EUR exchange rate	3.83

Where else in economics do you get a numerical formula that works like this?

# From the idea of $\sqrt{T}$ scaling to a test

- Okay, so we believe that in a fairly efficient, homoscedastic market, we will get  $\sqrt{T}$  scaling of volatility.
- But how can we look at data from the realworld and reject the null?
- This need a test.  
E.g: is 4.21 far enough from 4.33 to reject? What about 5.06? 3.83?



# Calculating $VR(k)$

- To calculate  $V(k)$ , daily returns are aggregated over  $k$  periods.
- **Cochrane 1988** showed that  $VR(k)$  can be approximated by:

$$VR(k) \sim 1 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{k-j}{k} \hat{\rho}_j$$

where  $\hat{\rho}_j$  is the estimated autocorrelation coefficient at lag  $j$ .

- **Fama and French 1988, 1989** formulated another form based on OLS estimates of an autoregressive equation as:

$$r_{t,t+k} = \alpha_k + \beta_k r_{t-k,t} + \epsilon_{t,t+k}, \text{ and}$$
$$\beta_k \sim \frac{\hat{\rho}_1 + 2\hat{\rho}_2 + \dots + (k+1)\hat{\rho}_{k+1} + \dots + \hat{\rho}_{2k-1}}{k + 2[(k-1)\hat{\rho}_1 + \dots + \hat{\rho}_{k-1}]}$$

where  $\beta_k$  is distributed around 0, and negative values indicate mean reversion.

# Inference for $VR(k)$

- The test statistic has to be adjusted for the heteroskedasticity.
- **Lo, Mackinlay 1988** have a heteroskedasticity consistent estimator for  $VR(k)$ :

$$\sqrt{T}(VR(k) - 1) \sim N(0, \theta_k)$$

where

$$\theta_k = 4 \sum_{i=1}^{T/k-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{k}\right)^2 \hat{\delta}_i$$
$$\hat{\delta}_i = T \sum_{j=i+1}^T \frac{\sigma_j^2 \sigma_{j-i}^2}{\sigma_j^4}$$

- **Kim, Nelson, Startz 1988** propose using bootstrap and randomisation to infer the VR distribution when returns have an unknown distribution.

# Using the *bootstrap* for VR inference

- For sample size of  $T$  data, VR at any lag  $K$  is:

$$\hat{VR}(K)$$

- Question: how do we know that  $\hat{VR}(K)$  is significantly different from 1?
- We create the empirical distribution of  $\hat{VR}(K)$  by bootstrapping.
  - Bootstrap: sample from the  $T$  data with replication.
  - Create  $N$  datasets from the original sample. Each dataset has to be of size  $T$
  - Calculate  $VR(k)$  for each “bootstrap datasets”.
- References for bootstrap:
  - 1 Google for *Bradly Efron, R. Tibshirani*
  - 2 The **wikipedia** entry on “Bootstrap (Statistics)” is very good.

# VR inference using the *bootstrap* distribution

- In the end, we get  $N$  values of  $VR(K)$ .  
The empirical distribution of these  $VR(k)$  is the benchmark distribution for  $VR(K)$ .
- If the original data is *iid*, the bootstrap distribution of  $\hat{VR}(K)$  will be centered around 1.
- The value of the estimated  $\hat{VR}(K)$  will be within the 95% bounds of this distribution.

# Empirical evidence about VR

- Cochrane (1988), Poterba and Summers (1988), Lo and Mackinlay (1988) – all found evidence that  $VR(K)$  for US stock market prices show a pattern of
  - Positive deviations from 1 over the short horizon, and
  - Negative deviations from 1 over the longer horizon

# Economic interpretation of the VR observations

- When prices show positive deviations from 1 in the short term, followed by negative deviation in the longer term, it is referred to as the “mean-reversion” property of prices.
  - Prices over-react and overshoot the “mean-level” prices initially ( $VR > 1$ ).
  - Prices then “revert” to the mean over a longer period.
- The earlier literature also identified varying **magnitudes** of mean-reversion in different periods.  
For example, mean-reversion was much stronger in the pre-WWII period as compared to in the post-WWII period.

# Causes for mean-reversion

- On the short-run, bid-ask spread causes a negative serial correlation: Roll (1984).
- Across stocks of different liquidity, those with higher liquidity will have smaller serial correlation: Hasbrouck (1991).
- For a portfolio containing stocks of different liquidity, the same information will get absorbed sooner by some stocks, a little later by others.  
This ought to cause positive serial correlation in an index: Lo and Muthuswamy (1996).

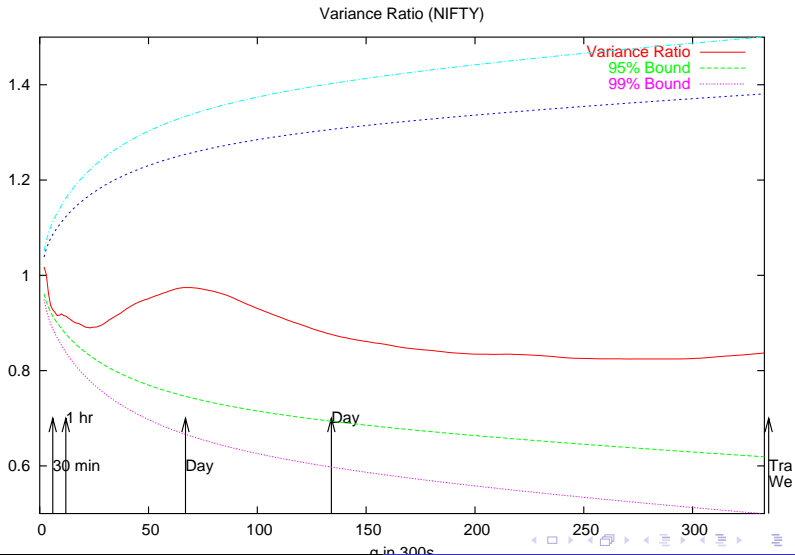
# Causes for mean-reversion

- HF Finance: These deviations are even more pronounced when the horizon reduces to within the day – to hour/minutes/seconds.
- The behaviour of the VR using extremely high frequency data becomes a story of how information transmits into prices.  
This can be studied at the level of individual stocks, pairs of stocks and the entire market.
- HF data helps trace out the path of market efficiency.

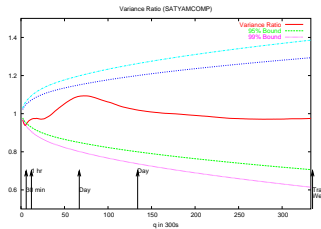
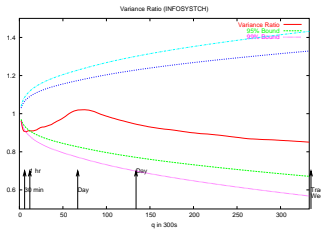


# Serial correlation in Indian stock market data

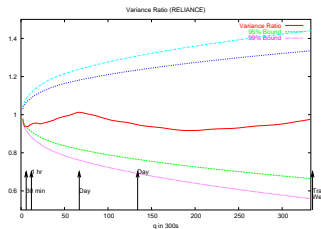
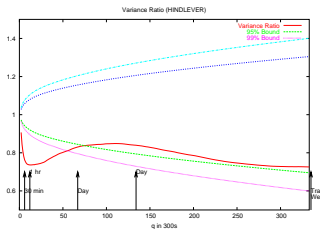
# Serial correlation in Nifty, March 1999 to February 2001



# Serial correlation in IT stocks, March 1999 to February 2001



# Serial correlation in manufacturing stocks, March 1999 to February 2001



# Recapitulation

Core idea of variance ratio: Uncertainty goes up as  $\sqrt{T}$  •  
Approximation of VR using ACF • Test statistic and inference based on overlapping samples • Nelson-Kim-Startz strategy of scrambling • Tests which address heteroscedasticity •  
Standard explanations for serial correlations in returns data – nonsynchronous trading and indexes, and bid-ask bounce.