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Estimating Factor Models for Multivariate Volatilities: An Innovation Expansion Method

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Abstract. We introduce an innovation expansion method for estimation of factor models for conditional variance (volatility) of a multivariate time series. We estimate the factor loading space and the number of factors by a stepwise optimization algorithm on expanding the "white noise space". Simulation and a real data example are given for illustration.

Keywords: dimension reduction, factor models, multivariate volatility.

1 Introduction

Factor modelling plays an important role in the analysis of high-dimensional multivariate time series (see Sargent and Sims, 1977; Geweke, 1977) because it is both flexible and parsimonious. Most of factor analysis in the literature is for the mean and conditional mean of a multivariate time series and panel data, see Pan and Yao (2008) and a series of papers of article by Forni, Hallin, Lippi and Reichlin (2000,2004), and Hallin and Liška (2007).

For the conditional variance, which is so-called volatility, the multivariate generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedastic (GARCH) models are commonly used, see Engle and Kroner (1995), Engle (2002), Engle & Sheppard (2001). But a multivariate GARCH model often has too many parameters so that it is difficult to estimate the model, which is a high-dimensional optimization problem. Factor models for volatility are useful tools to overcome the overparametrisation problem, e.g. Factor-ARCH (Engle, Ng and Rothschild 1990).

In this paper, we consider a frame work of factor analysis for the multivariate volatility, including factor ARCH as a special case. We introduce a innovation expansion method for the estimation of the factor loading space and the number of factors. Our method can change a high-dimensional optimization problem to a stepwise optimization algorithm by expanding the "white noise space" (innovation space) one step each time. 2 Pan, J., Ponolik, W. and Yao, Q.

2 Models and methodology

Let $\{Y_t\}$ be a $d \times 1$ time series, and $E(Y_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = 0$, where $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(Y_t, Y_{t-1}, \cdots)$. Assume that $E(Y_t Y_t^{\tau})$ exists, and we use the notation $\Sigma_y(t) = var(Y_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1})$. Pan et al. (2009) consider a common factor model

$$Y_t = AX_t + \varepsilon_t,\tag{1}$$

where X_t is a $r \times 1$ time series, r < d is unknown, A is a $d \times r$ unknown constant matrix, $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. innovations with mean 0 and covariance matrix Σ_{ε} , and ε_t is independent of X_t and \mathcal{F}_{t-1} . This assumes that the volatility dynamics of Y is determined effectively by a lower dimensional volatility dynamics of X_t plus the static variation of ε_t , as

$$\Sigma_y(t) = A\Sigma_x(t)A^{\tau} + \Sigma_{\varepsilon},\tag{2}$$

where $\Sigma_x(t) = var(X_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1})$. The component variables of X_t are called the factors. There is no loss of generality in assuming rk(A) = r and requiring the column vectors of $A = (a_1, \dots, a_r)$ to be orthonormal, i.e. $A^{\tau}A = I_r$, where I_r denotes the $r \times r$ identity matrix.

We are concerned with the estimation for the factor loading space $\mathcal{M}(A)$, which is uniquely defined by the model, rather than the matrix A itself. This is equivalent to the estimation for orthogonal complement $\mathcal{M}(B)$, where Bis a $d \times (d-r)$ matrix for which (A, B) forms a $d \times d$ orthogonal matrix, i.e. $B^{\tau}A = 0$ and $B^{\tau}B = I_{d-r}$. Now it follows from (1) that

$$B^{\tau}Y_t = B^{\tau}\varepsilon_t. \tag{3}$$

Hence $B^{\tau}Y_t$ are homoscedastic components since

$$E\{B^{\tau}Y_tY_t^{\tau}B|\mathcal{F}_{t-1}\} = E\{B^{\tau}\varepsilon_t\varepsilon_t^{\tau}B\} = E\{B^{\tau}Y_tY_t^{\tau}B\} = B^{\tau}var(Y_t)B.$$

This implies that

$$B^{\tau} E[\{Y_t Y_t^{\tau} - var(Y_t)\} I(Y_{t-k} \in C)] B = 0,$$
(4)

for any $t, k \geq 1$ and any measurable $C \subset \mathbb{R}^d$.

For matrix $H = (h_{ij})$, let $||H|| = \{tr(H^{\tau}H)\}^{1/2}$ denote its norm. Then (4) implies that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{k_0} \sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) \big| \Big| \sum_{t=k_0+1}^n E[B^{\tau} \{ Y_t Y_t^{\tau} - var(Y_t) \} BI(Y_{t-k} \in C)] \big| \Big|^2 = 0$$
 (5)

where $k_0 \geq 1$ is a prescribed integer, \mathcal{B} is a finite or countable collection of measurable sets, and the weight function $w(\cdot)$ ensures the sum on the right-hand side finite. In fact we may assume that $\sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) = 1$. Even without the stationarity on Y_t , $var(Y_t)$ in (5) may be replaced by $\hat{\Sigma}_y \equiv$ $(n-k_0)^{-1}\sum_{k_0 < t \le n} Y_t Y_t^{\tau}$. This is due to the fact $B^{\tau} var(Y_t)B = B^{\tau} \Sigma_{\varepsilon} B$, and

$$(n-k_0)^{-1}\sum_{t=k_0+1}^n B^{\tau}Y_tY_t^{\tau}B = (n-k_0)^{-1}\sum_{t=k_0+1}^n B^{\tau}\varepsilon_t\varepsilon_t^{\tau}B \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} B^{\tau}\Sigma_{\varepsilon}B,$$

see (3). Therefore $B^{\tau} \hat{\Sigma}_y B$ is a consistent estimator for $B^{\tau} var(Y_t)B$ for all t. Denote

$$D_k(C) = (n - k_0)^{-1} \sum_{t=k_0+1}^n (Y_t Y_t^{\tau} - \hat{\Sigma}_y) I(Y_{t-k} \in C).$$

Now (5) suggests to estimate $B \equiv (b_1, \dots, b_{d-r})$ by minimizing

$$\Phi_{n}(B) = \sum_{k=1}^{\kappa_{0}} \sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) \left| \left| B^{\tau} D_{k}(C) B \right| \right|^{2} \qquad (6)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{k_{0}} \sum_{1 \le i, j \le d-r} \sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) \left\{ b_{i}^{\tau} D_{k}(C) b_{j} \right\}^{2}$$

subject to the condition $B^{\tau}B = I_{d-r}$. This is a high-dimensional optimization problem. Further it does not explicitly address the issue how to determine the number of factors r. We present an algorithm which expands the innovation space step by step and which also takes care of these two concerns. Note for any $b^{\tau}A = 0$, $Z_t \equiv b^{\tau}Y_t (= b^{\tau}\varepsilon_t)$ is a sequence of independent random variables, and therefore, exhibits no conditional heterosedasticity. The determination of the r is based on the likelihood ratio test for the null hypothesis that the conditional variance of Z_t given its lagged valued is a constant against the alternative that it follows a GARCH(1,1) model with normal innovations. See also Remark 1(vii) below.

Put

$$\begin{split} \Psi(b) &= \sum_{k=1}^{k_0} \sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) [b^{\tau} D_k(C) b]^2, \\ \Psi_m(b) &= \sum_{k=1}^{k_0} \Big\{ 2 \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) [\hat{b}_i^{\tau} D_k(C) \, b]^2 + \sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) [b^{\tau} D_k(C) b]^2 \Big\}. \end{split}$$

An Innovation Expansion Algorithm for estimating B and r: let p be an integer between 1 and k_0 and $\alpha \in (0,1)$ specify the level of significance test.

Step 1. Compute \hat{b}_1 which minimises $\Psi(b)$ subject to the constraint $b^{\tau}b = 1$. Let $Z_{\tau} = \hat{b}^{\tau} Y_{\tau}$. Compute the 2log likelihood ratio test statistic

1. Let
$$Z_t = b_1' Y_t$$
. Compute the 2log-likelihood ratio test statistic

$$T = (n-k_0) \{ 1 + \log\left(\frac{1}{n-k_0} \sum_{t=k_0+1}^n Z_t^2\right) \} - \min\sum_{t=k_0+1}^n \left\{ \frac{Z_t^2}{\sigma_t^2} + \log(\sigma_t^2) \right\},$$
(7)

where $\sigma_t^2 = \alpha + \beta Z_{t-1}^2 + \gamma \sigma_{t-1}^2$, and the minimisation is taken over $\alpha > 0$, $\beta, \gamma \ge 0$ and $\beta + \gamma < 1$. Terminate the algorithm with $\hat{r} = d$ and $\hat{B} = 0$ if T is greater than the top α -point of the χ_2^2 -distribution. Otherwise proceed to Step 2.

Step 2. For $m = 2, \dots, d$, compute \hat{b}_m which minimizes $\Psi_m(b)$ subject to the constraint

$$b^{\tau}b = 1, \quad b^{\tau}\hat{b}_i = 0 \quad \text{for } i = 1, \cdots, m-1.$$
 (8)

Terminate the algorithm with $\hat{r} = d - m + 1$ and $\hat{B} = (\hat{b}_1, \dots, \hat{b}_{m-1})$ if T, calculated as in (7) but with $Z_t = |\hat{b}_m^{\tau} Y_t|$ now, is greater than the top α -point of the χ_2^2 -distribution.

Step 3. In the event that T_p never exceeds the critical value for all $1 \le m \le d$, let r = 0 and $\hat{B} = I_d$.

Remark 1. (i) The algorithm grows the dimension of $\mathcal{M}(B)$ by 1 each time until a newly selected direction \hat{b}_m being relevant to the volatility dynamics of Y_t . This effectively reduces the number of the factors in model (1) as much as possible without losing significant information.

(ii) The minimization problem in Step 2 is a *d*-dimensional subject to constraint (8). It has only (d - m + 1) free variables. In fact, the vector *b* satisfying (8) is of the form

$$b = A_m u, \tag{9}$$

where u is any $(d-m+1) \times 1$ unit vector, A_m is a $d \times (d-m+1)$ matrix with the columns being the (d-m+1) unit eigenvectors, corresponding to the (d-m+1)-fold eigenvalue 1, of matrix $I_d - B_m B_m^{\tau}$, and $B_m = (\hat{b}_1, \dots, \hat{b}_{m-1})$. Note that the other (m-1) eigenvalues of $I_d - B_m B_m^{\tau}$ are all 0.

(iii) We may let \hat{A} consist of the \hat{r} (orthogonal) unit eigenvectors, corresponding to the common eigenvalue 1, of matrix $I_d - \hat{B}\hat{B}^{\tau}$ (i.e. $\hat{A} = A_{d-\hat{r}+1}$). Note that $\hat{A}^{\tau}\hat{A} = I_{\hat{r}}$.

(iv) A general formal $d \times 1$ unit vector is of the form $b^{\tau} = (b_1, \dots, b_d)$, where

$$b_1 = \prod_{j=1}^{d-1} \cos \theta_j, \quad b_i = \sin \theta_{i-1} \prod_{j=i}^{d-1} \cos \theta_j \quad (i = 2, \cdots, d-1), \quad b_d = \sin \theta_{d-1},$$

where $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1}$ are (d-1) free parameters.

(v) We may choose \mathcal{B} consisting of the balls centered at the origin in \mathbb{R}^d . Note that $EY_{t-k} = 0$. When the underlying distribution of Y_{t-k} is symmetric and unimodal, such a \mathcal{B} is the collection of the minimum volume sets of the distribution of Y_{t-k} , and this \mathcal{B} determines the distribution of Y_{t-k} (Polonik 1997). In numerical implementation we simply use w(C) = 1/K, where K is the number the balls in \mathcal{B} .

(vi) Under the additional condition that

$$c^{\tau} A\{E(X_t X_t^{\tau} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) - E(X_t X_t^{\tau})\} A^{\tau} c = 0$$
(10)

if and only if $A^{\tau}c = 0$, (4) is equivalent to

$$E\{(b_i^{\tau} Y_t Y_t^{\tau} b_i - 1) I(Y_{t-k} \in C)\} = 0, \quad 1 \le i \le d-r, \ k \ge 1 \text{ and } C \in \mathcal{B}.$$

See model (1). In this case, we may simply use $\Psi(\cdot)$ instead of $\Psi_m(\cdot)$ in Step 2 above. Note that for b satisfying constraint (8), (9) implies

$$\Psi(b) = \sum_{k=1}^{k_0} \sum_{C \in \mathcal{B}} w(C) \left(u^{\tau} A_m^{\tau} D_k(C) A_m u \right)^2.$$
(11)

Condition (10) means that all the linear combinations of AX_t are genuinely (conditionally) heteroscadastic.

(vii) When the number of factors r is given, we may skip all the test steps, and stop the algorithm after obtaining $\hat{b}_1, \dots, \hat{b}_r$ from solving the r optimization problems.

Remark 2. The estimation of A leads to a dynamic model for $\Sigma_y(t)$ as follow:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_y(t) = \hat{A}\hat{\Sigma}_z(t)\hat{A}^\tau + \hat{A}\hat{A}^\tau\hat{\Sigma}_y\hat{B}\hat{B}^\tau + \hat{B}\hat{B}^\tau\hat{\Sigma}_y,$$

where $\hat{\Sigma}_y = n^{-1} \sum_{1 \le t \le n} Y_t Y_t^{\tau}$, and $\hat{\Sigma}_z(t)$ is obtained by fitting the data $\{\hat{A}^{\tau}Y_t, 1 \le t \le n\}$ with, for example, the dynamic correlation model of Engle (2002).

3 Consistency of the estimator

For r < d, let \mathcal{H} be the set consisting of all $d \times (d - r)$ matrices H satisfying the condition $H^{\tau}H = I_{d-r}$. For $H_1, H_2 \in \mathcal{H}$, define

$$D(H_1, H_2) = ||(I_d - H_1 H_1^{\tau}) H_2|| = \{d - r - tr(H_1 H_1^{\tau} H_2 H_2^{\tau})\}^{1/2}.$$
 (12)

Denote our estimator by $\hat{B} = argmin_{B \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{D}}} \Phi_n(B)$.

Theorem 1. Let \mathcal{C} denote the class of closed convex sets in \mathcal{R}^d . Under some mild assumptions (see Pan et al. (2009)), if the collection \mathcal{B} is a countable subclass of \mathcal{C} , then $D(\hat{B}, B_0) \xrightarrow{P} 0$.

4 Numerical properties

We always set $k_0 = 30$, $\alpha = 5\%$, and the weight function $C(\cdot) \equiv 1$. Let \mathcal{B} consist of all the balls centered at the origin.

6 Pan, J. , Ponolik, W. and Yao, Q.

4.1 Simulated examples

Consider model (1) with r = 3 factors, and $d \times 3$ matrix A with (1, 0, 0), (0, 0.5, 0.866)(0, -0.866, 0.5) as its first 3 rows, and (0, 0, 0) as all the other (d - 3) rows. We consider 3 different settings for $X_t = (X_{t1}, X_{t2}, X_{t3})^{\tau}$, namely, two sets of GARCH(1,1) factors $X_{ti} = \sigma_{ti}e_{ti}$ and $\sigma_{ti}^2 = \alpha_i + \beta_i X_{t-1,i}^2 + \gamma_i \sigma_{t-1,i}^2$, where $(\alpha_i, \beta_i, \gamma_i)$, for i = 1, 2, 3, are

$$(1, 0.45, 0.45), (0.9, 0.425, 0.425), (1.1, 0.4, 0.4), (13)$$

or

$$(1, 0.1, 0.8), (0.9, 0.15, 0.7), (1.1, 0.2, 0.6), (14)$$

and one mixing setting with two ARCH(2) factors and one stochastic volatility factor:

$$X_{t1} = \sigma_{t1}e_{t1}, \qquad \sigma_{t1}^2 = 1 + 0.6X_{t-1,1}^2 + 0.3X_{t-2,1}^2, \tag{15}$$

$$X_{t2} = \sigma_{t2}e_{t2}, \qquad \sigma_{t2}^2 = 0.9 + 0.5X_{t-1,2}^2 + 0.35X_{t-2,2}^2, \qquad X_{t3} = \exp(h_t/2)e_{t3}, \qquad h_t = 0.22 + 0.7h_{t-1} + u_t.$$

We let $\{\varepsilon_{ti}\}$, $\{e_{ti}\}$ and $\{u_t\}$ be sequences of independent N(0, 1) random variables. Note that the (unconditional) variance of X_{ti} , for each *i*, remains unchanged under the above three different settings. We set the sample size n = 300,600 or 1000. For each setting we repeat simulation 500 times.

Table 1. Relative frequency estimates of r with d = 5 and normal innovations

			\hat{r}			
n	0	1	2	3	4	5
300	.000	.046	.266	.666	.014	.008
600	.000	.002	.022	.926	.032	.018
1000	.000	.000	.000	.950	.004	.001
300	.272	.236	.270	.200	.022	.004
600	.004	.118	.312	.500	.018	.012
1000	.006	.022	.174	.778	.014	.006
300	.002	.030	.166	.772	.026	.004
600	000.	.001	.022	.928	.034	.014
1000	000.	.000	.000	.942	.046	.012
	$\begin{array}{c} n \\ 300 \\ 600 \\ 1000 \\ 300 \\ 600 \\ 1000 \\ 300 \\ 600 \\ 1000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $

We conducted the simulation with d = 5, 10, 20. To measure the difference between $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ and $\mathcal{M}(\hat{\mathcal{A}})$, we define

$$D(A, \hat{A}) = \{ |(I_d - AA^{\tau})\hat{A}|_1 + |AA^{\tau}\hat{B}|_1 \} / d^2,$$
(16)

where $|A|_1$ is the sum of the absolute values of all the elements in matrix A.

Errors of estimation for factor space



Fig. 1. Boxplots of $D(A, \hat{A})$ with two sets of GARCH(1,1) factors specified, respectively, by (13) and (14), and mixing factors (15). Innovations are Gaussian and d = 5.

	Errors of estimation for factor space													
0.8		Ξ	Ξ	Ξ				Ξ	Ξ	Ξ				
0.6 -		T	=	_	Ē	Ē		T	T	T	IIF	Ŧ	Ξ	
0.4 -			_	_	Ŧ	=	=				÷.		Т	
0.2 -		÷							÷					
-	п	=300 d=10	n=600 factors (n=1000 (4.1)	n=300 d=20	n=600 , factors	n=1000 (4.1)	n=300 d=10	n=600), factors	n=1000 (4.2)	n=300 d=20	n=600), factors	n=1000 (4.2)	

Fig. 2. Boxplots of $D(A, \hat{A})$ with two sets of GARCH(1,1) factors specified in (13) and (14), normal innovations and d = 10 or 20.

We report the results with d = 5 first. Table 1 lists for the relative frequency estimates for r in the 500 replications. When sample size n increases, the relative frequency for $\hat{r} = 3$ (i.e. the true value) also increases. Even for n = 600, the estimation is already very accurate for GARCH(1,1) factors (13) and mixing factors (14), less so for the persistent GARCH(1,1) factors (14). For n = 300, the relative frequencies for $\hat{r} = 2$ were non-negligible, indicating the tendency of underestimating of r, although this tendency disappears when n increases to 600 or 1000. Figure 1 displays the boxplots of $D(A, \hat{A})$. The estimation was pretty accurate with GARCH factors (13) and mixing factors (15), especially with correctly estimated r. Note with n = 600 or 1000, those outliers (lying above the range connected by dashed lines) typically correspond to the estimates $\hat{r} \neq 3$.

When d = 10 and 20, comparing with Table 1, the estimation of r is only marginally worse than that with d = 5. Indeed the difference with d = 10 and 20 is not big either. Note the *D*-measures for different *d* are not comparable; see (16). Nevertheless, Figure 2 shows that the estimation for *A* becomes more

Pan, J., Ponolik, W. and Yao, Q.

8

Table 2. Relative frequency estimates of r with GARCH(1,1) factors, normal innovations and $d{=}10$ or 20

							\hat{r}			
Coefficients	d	n	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	≥ 7
(13)	10	300	.002	.048	.226	.674	.014	.001	.004	.022
	10	600	.000	.000	.022	.876	.016	.012	.022	.052
	10	1000	.000	.000	.004	.876	.024	.022	.022	.052
	20	300	.000	.040	.196	.626	.012	.008	.010	.138
	20	600	.000	.000	.012	.808	.012	.001	.018	.149
	20	1000	.000	.000	.000	.776	.024	.012	.008	.180
(14)	10	300	.198	.212	.280	.248	.016	.008	.014	.015
	10	600	.032	.110	.292	.464	.018	.026	.012	.046
	10	1000	.006	.032	.128	.726	.032	.020	.016	.040
	20	300	.166	.266	.222	.244	.012	.004	.001	.107
	20	600	022	.092	.220	.472	.001	.001	.012	.180
	20	1000	006	016	092	.666	018	016	014	172



Fig. 3. Time plots of the daily log-returns of S&P 500 index, Cisco System and Intel Coproration stock prices.

accurate when n increases, and the estimation with the persistent factors (14) is less accurate than that with (13).

4.2 A real data example

Figure 3 displays the daily log-returns of the S&P 500 index, the stock prices of Cisco System and Intel Corporation in 2 January 1997 – 31 December 1999. For this data set, n = 758 and d = 3. The estimated number of factors



Fig. 4. Time plots of the estimated factor and two homoscedastic components for the S&P 500, Cisco and Intel data.



Fig. 5. The correlograms of squared and absulote factor for the the S&P 500, Cisco and Intel data

is $\hat{r} = 1$ with $\hat{A}^{\tau} = (0.310, 0.687, 0.658)$. The time plots of the estimated factor $Z_t \equiv \hat{A}^{\tau} Y_t$ and the two homoscedastic components $\hat{B}^{\tau} Y_t$ are displayed in Figure 4. The *P*-value of the Gaussian-GARCH(1,1) based likelihood ratio test for the null hypothesis of the constant conditional variance for Z_t is 0.000. The correlograms of the squared and the absolute factor are depicted in Figure 5 which indicates the existence of heteroscedasticity in Z_t . The fitted GARCH(1,1) model for Z_t is $\hat{\sigma}_t^2 = 2.5874 + 0.1416Z_{t-1}^2 + 0.6509\hat{\sigma}_{t-1}^2$. In contrast, Figure 6 shows that there is little autocorrelation in squared or absolute components of $\hat{B}^{\tau} Y_t$. The estimated constant covariance matrix is

$$\hat{\Sigma}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1.594 \\ 0.070 & 4.142 \\ -1.008 & -0.561 & 4.885 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The overall fitted conditional variance process is given with $\hat{\Sigma}_z(t) = \hat{\sigma}_t^2$.

10 Pan, J., Ponolik, W. and Yao, Q.



Fig. 6. The correlograms of squared and absulote homoscedastic components for the the S&P 500, Cisco and Intel data

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