

Signal Extraction in Long Memory Stochastic Volatility



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UPV	EHL

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 \Box Motivation.

□ LMSV models.

■ Signal extraction for volatility estimation in LMSV.

□ Kalman filter.

□ Time domain methods (Harvey, 1998).

□ Frequency domain methods.

Finite sample behaviour.

Application to Dow Jones Industrial index.



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Motivation

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LMSV	Why Long Memory in Stochastic Volatility?
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- Why Long Memory in Stochastic Volatility?
 - Persistent autocorrelation in proxys of the volatility of financial time series (squares or other powers of absolute values) ⇒ Long memory in volatility is a stylized fact.





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- Why Long Memory in Stochastic Volatility?
 - Persistent autocorrelation in proxys of the volatility of financial time series (squares or other powers of absolute values) ⇒ Long memory in volatility is a stylized fact.
 - SV models more flexible than ARCH based models (for example, contrary to ARCH extensions, covariance stationarity and long memory in squares is possible).



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- Why ARCH based models more popular among empirical researchers?
 - **Estimation**: MLE much easier in ARCH \Rightarrow Recent advances in LMSV using Whittle QMLE (Breidt et al, 1998, Zaffaroni, 2009, JoE).





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- Why ARCH based models more popular among empirical researchers?
 - **Estimation**: MLE much easier in ARCH \Rightarrow Recent advances in LMSV using Whittle QMLE (Breidt et al, 1998, Zaffaroni, 2009, JoE).
 - Volatility estimation: Conditional variances (volatility) are very easily obtained in ARCH based models because they are deterministic functions of the past.





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- Why ARCH based models more popular among empirical researchers?
 - **Estimation**: MLE much easier in ARCH \Rightarrow Recent advances in LMSV using Whittle QMLE (Breidt et al, 1998, Zaffaroni, 2009, JoE).
 - Volatility estimation: Conditional variances (volatility) are very easily obtained in ARCH based models because they are deterministic functions of the past.

Goal of this paper: propose a simple to implement, general and robust technique of volatility extraction in LMSV



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The series (returns) is defined as

 $z_t = \sigma \sigma_t \epsilon_t$

- $\sigma > 0$ a scale factor,
- $\ \ \, \bullet_t \sim iid(0,1),$
- $\sigma_t = \exp(x_t/2)$ for x_t a long memory process with a spectral density (pseudo spectral density in the nonstationary case) function

$$f_x(\lambda) = \lambda^{-2d} g_x(\lambda) , \quad 0 < \lambda \le \pi$$

 $\Box 0 < d < 1$ (stationary or nonstationary but mean reverting x_t),

 $\Box g_x(\lambda)$ positive, finite, symmetric around the origin and twice continuously differentiable.



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Denoting $y_t = \log z_t^2$

$$y_t = \mu + x_t + u_t$$

where

$$\mu = \log \sigma^2 + E \log \epsilon_t^2$$

■ $u_t = \log \epsilon_t^2 - E \log \epsilon_t^2$ is a mean zero white noise process with finite variance σ_u^2 .



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■ $u_t = \log \epsilon_t^2 - E \log \epsilon_t^2$ is a mean zero white noise process with finite variance σ_u^2 .

The estimation of the volatility component x_t is then just a particular case of signal extraction in a long memory signal plus white noise process.



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A.1: If $0 < d_0 < 1/2$ then $x_t = v_t$ and for $1/2 \le d_0 < 1$ then $x_t = x_0 + \sum_{s=1}^t v_s$ for x_0 a random variable not depending on t and $v_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j \varepsilon_{t-j}, \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j^2 < \infty$ where $E(\varepsilon_t | F_{t-1}) = 0$, $E(\varepsilon_t^2 | F_{t-1}) = 1, E(\varepsilon_t^3) < \infty, E(\varepsilon_t^4) < \infty$.

A.2: The spectral density of v_t is

$$f_v(\lambda) = \lambda^{-2d_v} g_v(\lambda) , \quad 0 < \lambda \le \pi ,$$

 $0 < d_v = d_0 < 1/2$ (if x_t stationary) and $-1/2 \le d_v = d_0 - 1 < 0$ (nonstationary x_t).

A.3: u_t is zero i.i.d. with finite fourth moment.

A.4: u_t and ε_s are uncorrelated at all leads and lags (correlation between ε and ϵ allowed).

A.5: $cum(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_s, u_l, u_m) = k < \infty$ if t = s = l = m and 0 otherwise.



Kalman Filter

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Conclusions

- A parametric specification of x_t is needed.
- Huge dimension of the state space representation in long memory series (Chan and Palma, 1998).
- Alternatively: Use a truncated AR (better than MA because AR coefficients converge faster to 0) and use smoothing for volatility estimation.



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- A parametric specification of x_t is needed.
- Huge dimension of the state space representation in long memory series (Chan and Palma, 1998).
- Alternatively: Use a truncated AR (better than MA because AR coefficients converge faster to 0) and use smoothing for volatility estimation.

Problems:

- □ The number of parameters to be estimated increases with the truncation.
- □ Large dimension of the state space model (a large truncation is needed), large number of parameters to be estimated and large sample sizes ⇒ KF quite computationally demanding and subject to numerical inaccuracies.



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• Harvey (1998), for the stationary case, proposed a linear estimator of x_t based on a Wiener-Kolmogorov filter that minimizes the mean square error

$$\tilde{x} = (I - \sigma_u^2 \Sigma_y^{-1})(y - \mu)$$

where Σ_y is the variance covariance matrix of y and σ_u^2 is the variance of the noise.



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$$\tilde{x} = (I - \sigma_u^2 \Sigma_y^{-1})(y - \mu)$$

where Σ_y is the variance covariance matrix of y and σ_u^2 is the variance of the noise. <u>Problems</u>:

- Requires inversion of Σ_y , which can be rather computationally demanding if n is large.
- Variances and covariances have to be estimated and the quality of the estimates significantly affects the signal extraction.
- Only valid under stationary long memory.



Wiener-Kolmogorov filter in the frequency domain

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• We consider a frequency domain minimum MSE linear estimator of x_t defined as

$$x_{t|\infty} = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_j (y_{t-j} - \mu)$$

where

$$\psi_j = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{f_{xy}(\lambda)}{f_y(\lambda)} e^{ij\lambda} \mathrm{d}\lambda = \mathbf{1}_{j=0} - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\theta}{f_y(\lambda)} \cos(j\lambda) \mathrm{d}\lambda$$

due to uncorrelation of signal and noise, $f_y(\lambda)$ and $f_{yx}(\lambda)$ are the (pseudo) sdf of y_t and cross sdf of y_t and x_t , $\theta = \sigma_u^2/2\pi$ is the (constant) sdf of the noise and $\mathbf{1}_{j=0} = 1$ if j = 0 and $\mathbf{1}_{j=0} = 0$ otherwise.

• The gain of this filter is $f_x(\lambda)/f_y(\lambda)$.



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A feasible plug-in version of
$$\psi_j$$
 is $\hat{\psi}_j = \hat{\psi}_j(\hat{ heta}, \hat{f}_y)$ where

$$\hat{\psi}_j(\hat{\theta}, \hat{f}_y) = \mathbf{1}_{j=0} - \frac{1}{n^*} \sum_{p=1}^{n^*} \frac{\hat{\theta}}{\hat{f}_y(\lambda_p)} \cos(j\lambda_p)$$

for $n^* = [n/2]$, [] denoting "the integer part of", n is the sample size, $\lambda_p = 2\pi p/n$ are Fourier frequencies.



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for $n^* = [n/2]$, [] denoting "the integer part of", n is the sample size, $\lambda_p = 2\pi p/n$ are Fourier frequencies.

- For consistency of $\hat{\psi}_j$ we need:
 - A consistent estimator of $\theta \implies$ Local Whittle (Hurvich et al. 2005).
 - An estimator of $f_y(\lambda_p)$ consistent uniformly over $p = 1, ..., n^*$, that is consistent for constant frequencies (p = O(n)) and for Fourier frequencies collapsing to zero (p = o(n)), no matter how far from or close to the spectral pole.



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• Uniformly consistent estimator of $f_y(\lambda)$ (Hidalgo and Yajima, 2002):

$$\left(\hat{f}_y(\lambda_v) = \frac{|\lambda_v|^{-2\hat{d}}}{2m^*+1} \sum_{j=-m^*}^{m^*} |\lambda_v + \lambda_j|^{2\hat{d}} I_y(\lambda_v + \lambda_j)\right)$$

for \hat{d} an estimator of d_0 such that $(\hat{d} - d_0) = o_p(\log^{-1} m^*)$ (for example the local Whitle), $\lambda_v = 2\pi v/n$, $v = 1, ..., n^*$ and m^* satisfying $\frac{1}{m^*} + \frac{m^*}{n} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.



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Theorem (consistency for 0 < d < 1): Under linearity (in a martingale difference) of the (stationary part of) the signal and finite fourth moments of the noise and innovations of the signal, as $n \to \infty$, uniformly over $v = 1, ..., n^*$

$$\left[\hat{f}_y(\lambda_v) = f_y(\lambda_v) \left(1 + o_p(1)\right)\right]$$



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Theorem : Let $\hat{\theta}$ be a consistent estimator of θ and $\hat{f}_y(\lambda_p)$ estimate consistently $f_y(\lambda_p)$ uniformly over $p = 1, ..., n^*$. Then as $n \to \infty$

$$\hat{\psi}_j = \psi_j(1+o_p(1))$$

for j satisfying $|j|^{2d+1}/n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty.$



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• The plug in estimator of the volatility component x_t is then

$$\hat{x}_{t|n} = \sum_{j=\max(t-n,-M)}^{\min(t-1,M)} \hat{\psi}_j(y_{t-j} - \hat{\mu})$$

for
$$M$$
 satisfying $M^{-1} + n^{-1}M^{2d+1} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.



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for
$$M$$
 satisfying $M^{-1} + n^{-1}M^{2d+1} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

- We restrict the lags of the observable to a maximum of M:
 - Consistency of $\hat{\psi}_i$ is guaranteed.
 - Since $\psi_j = O(j^{-1-2d})$, weights for larger lags are virtually zero.
 - Relatively low values of M allow a symmetric feasible filter to be applied for a large number of intermediate observations, avoiding in that way undesirable phase shifts.

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An estimate of the constant μ is needed for feasible signal extraction.

- Inder stationarity (d < 1/2) the sample mean $\hat{\mu} = \bar{y}$ is consistent.
- If $d \ge 1/2$ the sample mean is not consistent. Following Shimotsu (2010) $\hat{\mu} = y_1$ or any mean of a fixed number of observations, which are $O_p(1)$ such that the (nonstationary) signal asymptotically dominates the constant μ .



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Step 1: Get \hat{d} , $\hat{\theta}$ by local Whittle. The bandwidth m is selected within a stable region of estimates (Taqqu and Teverovsky, 1996).

Step 2: Get $\hat{f}_y(\lambda_p)$ for $p = 1, 2, ..., n^*$ with m^* selected based on the smoothness of the spectral density at frequencies far from the origin. The higher the smoothness the larger m^* .

Step 3: Construct the weights $\hat{\psi}_j$. Chose M as the lowest value such that for j > M then $|\hat{\psi}_j| < \eta$ for a prespecified $\eta > 0$.

Step 4: With this M get $\hat{x}_{t|n}$.

Step 5 (Validation): Check that the standardized residuals $\hat{\varepsilon}_{t|n} = z_t \exp(-\hat{x}_{t|n}/2)$ are *i.i.d.* (e.g. portmanteau test on $\hat{\varepsilon}_{t|n}^2$).



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EHL

$$y_t = x_t + u_t \quad t = 1, 2, ..., n,$$

for $x_t = \kappa x_t^*$, $(1 - L)^{d_0} x_t^* = w_t$ and:
Model 1: $d_0 = 0.4$, $w_t = w_t^*$ and $u_t = \log \epsilon_t^2$ with
 $\begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_t \\ w_{t-1}^* \end{pmatrix} \sim NID \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]$
Model 2: As Model 1 but with $(1 - 0.8L)w_t = w_t^*$.
Model 3: As Model 1 but with $(1 - 0.2L + 0.8L^2)w_t = w_t^*$.

Model 4: As Model 1 but with $d_0 = 0.8$.

Model 5: Higher order dependence. $d_0 = 0.4$ and $(w_t, u_t)' = H_t^{1/2} \eta_t$ for $\eta_t \sim N(0, I_2)$, $H_t = diag(a_1h_{1t}, a_2h_{2t})$, $h_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 w_{t-1}^2 + \alpha_2 u_{t-1}^2$ for i = 1, 2, and a_1, a_2 are constants chosen to maintain the unconditional variances of signal and noise as in Model 1.

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• $\alpha = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2) = (0.0001, 0.25, 0.04)$ (as in Wong and Li, 1997, *Biometrika*).

• $\rho = 0, -0.8$, the latter corresponding to a large negative correlation (leverage).

■ κ is chosen to satisfy $f_u(0)/\kappa^2 f_w(0) = \pi^2$, $5\pi^2$, which are two long run NSR close to those empirically found in financial time series (Breidt et al. 1998, Pérez and Ruiz 2001).

The constant µ is estimated in Models 1, 2, 3 and 5 by the sample mean and by the average of the first 10 observations in Model 4 (Shimotsu, 2010, ET)).

 \blacksquare n = 2048 comparable with the size of many financial series.

1000 replications.

Monte Carlo



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1. $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(1)}$ with M = 100, $(m^*, m) = (80, 1000)$ for Models 1, 2, 4 and 5 and (60, 300) in Model 3.

2.
$$\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(2)}$$
 with $M = 100$ and true f_y and θ .

- 3. $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(3)}$ is \tilde{x} with true variances and covariances. Following Harvey (1998) we consider weights for a sample size n = 256. Prior first differencing and posterior integration back in the nonstationary case.
- 4. $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(4)}$ is as before but with the covariances of y_t estimated by their sample counterparts and σ_u^2 by local Whittle with m as in $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(1)}$.
- 5. $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(5)}$ is obtained by the Kalman filter applied to an AR(10).

6. The naive $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(6)} = y_t - \hat{\mu}$, often used as proxy of the volatility.

Josu Arteche – 19 / 33



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Two criteria for global comparison:

The average over the 1000 replications of the sample correlation between x_t and $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(i)}$, i = 1, 2, ..., 6.

The global typified Monte Carlo Mean Square Error defined as

$$MCMSE(i) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \frac{1}{2048} \sum_{t=1}^{2048} \frac{1}{1000} \sum_{l=1}^{1000} (\hat{x}_{t,l}^{(i)} - x_{t,l})^2$$

where $\sigma^2 = \sigma_x^2$ in Models 1, 2, 3 and 5, $\sigma^2 = \sigma_v^2$ in Model 4, t, l indicates observation t in Monte Carlo replication l.

Number of times that the Ljung-Box statistic does not reject the hypothesis that the first 100 autocorrelations of the squared standardized residuals $\hat{\varepsilon}_{t|n}^{2(i)} = \exp(y_t - \hat{x}_{t|n}^{(i)})$ are null at 5% significance level.





•	Tabl	e 1: Sen	sitivity to	the choice of η	n and m	*. Model	2
Introduction.				$NSR = \pi^2$			
Semiparametric		m=40	m=100	m=300	m=600	m=800	m=1000
estimation of volatility	$m^* = 40$	5.659	3.634	1.367	0.882	0.793	0.771
Finite sample behaviour		(0.317)	(0.438)	(0.575)	(0.633)	(0.647)	(0.655)
Monte Carlo	$m^* = 60$	5.603	3.619	1.351	0.862	0.773	0.749
Sensitivity analysis		(0.330)	(0.451)	(0.591)	(0.653)	(0.668)	(0.677)
Global Comparison	$m^* = 80$	5.563	3.614	1.348	0.857	0.767	0.744
Application: Dow Jones		(0.339)	(0.458)	(0.599)	(0.663)	(0.678)	(0.687)
Conclusions	$m^* = 100$	5.530	3.614	1.351	0.860	0.770	0.746
•		(0.347)	(0.463)	(0.604)	(0.668)	(0.684)	(0.693)
				$NSR = 5\pi^2$			
•	$m^* = 40$	18.500	15.389	10.408	7.177	6.428	5.987
•		(0.193)	(0.236)	(0.281)	(0.302)	(0.309)	(0.310)
•	$m^* = 60$	18.446	15.372	10.381	7.142	6.391	5.949
•		(0.205)	(0.252)	(0.302)	(0.326)	(0.334)	(0.335)
•	$m^* = 80$	18.452	15.405	10.414	7.168	6.416	5.972
•		(0.211)	(0.259)	(0.310)	(0.336)	(0.344)	(0.345)
	$m^* = 100$	18.488	15.457	10.475	7.222	6.471	6.024
		(0.213)	(0.262)	(0.313)	(0.339)	(0.347)	(0.348)
MCMSE and correlation with true signal (between round brackets) of $\hat{x}^{(1)}$ with different m and m*							.*

MCMSE and correlation with true signal (between round brackets) of $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(1)}$ with different m and m^* .





•	Table 2: Sensitivity to the choice of m and m^* . Model 3.						
Introduction.				$NSR = \pi^2$			
Semiparametric estimation of volatility		m=40	m=100	m=300	m=600	m=800	m=1000
•	$m^* = 40$	1.088	0.767	0.512	0.723	0.876	1.041
Finite sample behaviour		(0.590)	(0.692)	(0.740)	(0.626)	(0.505)	(0.555)
Monte Carlo	$m^* = 60$	1.072	0.763	0.508	0.707	0.844	1.019
Sensitivity analysis		(0.595)	(0.695)	(0.743)	(0.630)	(0.518)	(0.567)
Global Comparison	$m^* = 80$	1.060	0.763	0.509	0.698	0.821	1.004
Application: Dow Jones		(0.598)	(0.695)	(0.742)	(0.629)	(0.525)	(0.574)
Conclusions	$m^* = 100$	1.053	0.765	0.514	0.693	0.805	0.994
•		(0.598)	(0.693)	(0.739)	(0.625)	(0.528)	(0.579)
•				$NSR = 5\pi^2$			
•	$m^* = 40$	3.269	2.620	1.890	1.297	1.438	2.325
•		(0.353)	(0.398)	(0.431)	(0.293)	(0.363)	(0.384)
•	$m^* = 60$	3.264	2.622	1.891	1.280	1.430	2.321
		(0.353)	(0.397)	(0.431)	(0.291)	(0.364)	(0.385)
	$m^* = 80$	3.271	2.635	1.905	1.279	1.437	2.330
		(0.347)	(0.390)	(0.423)	(0.282)	(0.358)	(0.379)
	$m^* = 100$	3.284	2.653	1.925	1.286	1.451	2.343
		(0.340)	(0.380)	(0.411)	(0.269)	(0.348)	(0.370)
	MCMSE and correlation with true signal (between round brackets) of $\hat{x}^{(1)}$ with different m and m^*						

MCMSE and correlation with true signal (between round brackets) of $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(1)}$ with different m and m^* .



Global Comparison

Table 3: Global MSE and correlation								
Introduction.								
Semiparametric estimation of volatility		$\tilde{x}_{t\mid\infty}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(1)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(2)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(3)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(4)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(5)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(6)}$
Finite sample behaviour				Model 1				
Monte Carlo	$NSR = \pi^2$	0.523	0.788	0.711	0.719	1.299	1.166	4.948
Sensitivity analysis		(0.556)	(0.545)	(0.579)	(0.572)	(0.331)	(0.158)	(0.379)
Global Comparison			[842]	[923]	[916]	[422]	[28]	[377]
Application: Dow Jones	$NSR = 5\pi^2$	0.662	4.017	0.871	0.875	6.032	2.718	23.983
Conclusions		(0.357)	(0.289)	(0.376)	(0.372)	(0.116)	(0.082)	(0.178)
			[678]	[923]	[918]	[164]	[153]	[375]
				Model 2				
•	$NSR = \pi^2$	0.286	0.744	0.638	0.656	1.620	1.616	8.528
•		(0.713)	(0.687)	(0.734)	(0.716)	(0.389)	(0.083)	(0.271)
•			[717]	[869]	[861]	[122]	[0]	[387]
	$NSR = 5\pi^2$	0.443	5.972	0.798	0.803	9.453	4.257	41.468
		(0.488)	(0.345)	(0.504)	(0.498)	(0.115)	(0.038)	(0.123)
			[650]	[907]	[890]	[116]	[133]	[409]

Note: MCMSE, global correlation between x_t and $\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(i)}$ (between round brackets) and nonrejections of no correlation in squared standardized residuals (between square brackets). Optimals in italic (benchmark) and best feasibles in bold.



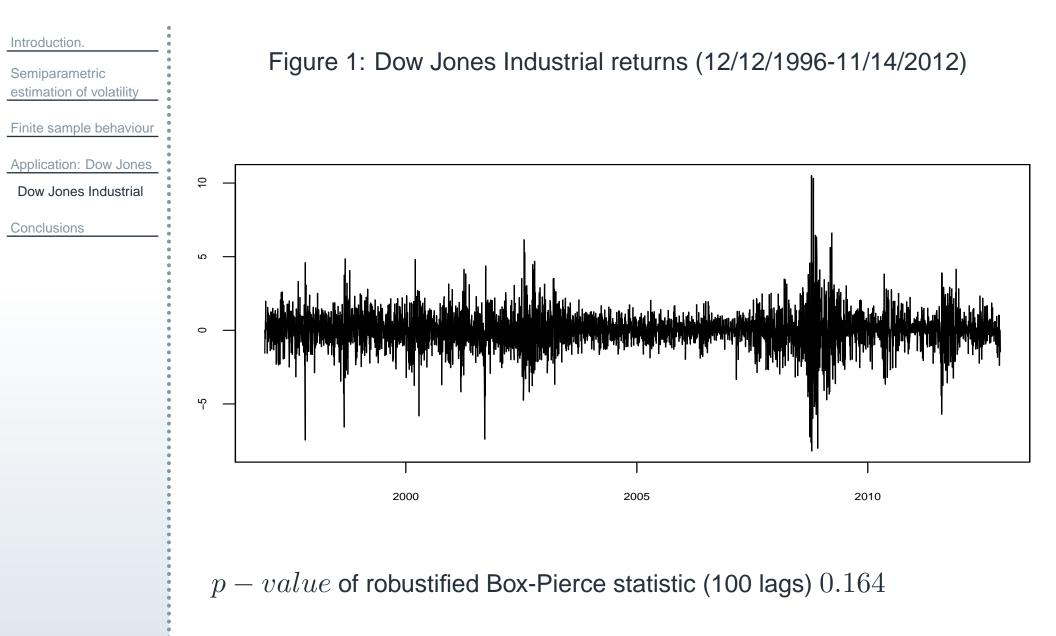
Table 4: Global MSE and correlation								
Introduction.		$\tilde{x}_{t \infty}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(1)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(2)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(3)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(4)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(5)}$	$\hat{x}_{t n}^{(6)}$
Semiparametric estimation of volatility				Model 3				
Finite sample behaviour	$NSR = \pi^2$	0.368	0.508	0.427	0.428	0.661	0.865	1.439
Monte Carlo		(0.777)	(0.743)	(0.779)	(0.778)	(0.652)	(0.416)	(0.636)
Sensitivity analysis			[775]	[879]	[872]	[677]	[299]	[413]
Global Comparison	$NSR = 5\pi^2$	0.654	1.891	0.714	0.715	2.444	1.340	6.959
Application: Downlong		(0.544)	(0.431)	(0.545)	(0.544)	(0.297)	(0.206)	(0.345)
Application: Dow Jones			[676]	[925]	[909]	[351]	[47]	[379]
Conclusions				Model 4				
	$NSR = \pi^2$		86.088	85.970	85.509	91.806	109.608	94.156
•			(0.968)	(0.970)	(0.970)	(0.926)	(0.567)	(0.847)
•			[820]	[856]	[899]	[102]	[8]	[321]
•	$NSR = 5\pi^2$		91.255	90.235	85.254	124.873	118.380	135.317
•			(0.933)	(0.942)	(0.943)	(0.747)	(0.288)	(0.603)
•			[692]	[786]	[844]	[33]	[0]	[323]
•				Model 5				
•	$NSR = \pi^2$	0.523	0.811	0.709	0.709	1.317	1.188	4.944
		(0.556)	(0.545)	(0.581)	(0.581)	(0.336)	(0.158)	(0.379)
•	$NSR = 5\pi^2$	0.662	4.521	0.865	0.869	6.507	2.960	24.010
•		(0.357)	(0.293)	(0.382)	(0.382)	(0.119)	(0.085)	(0.180)

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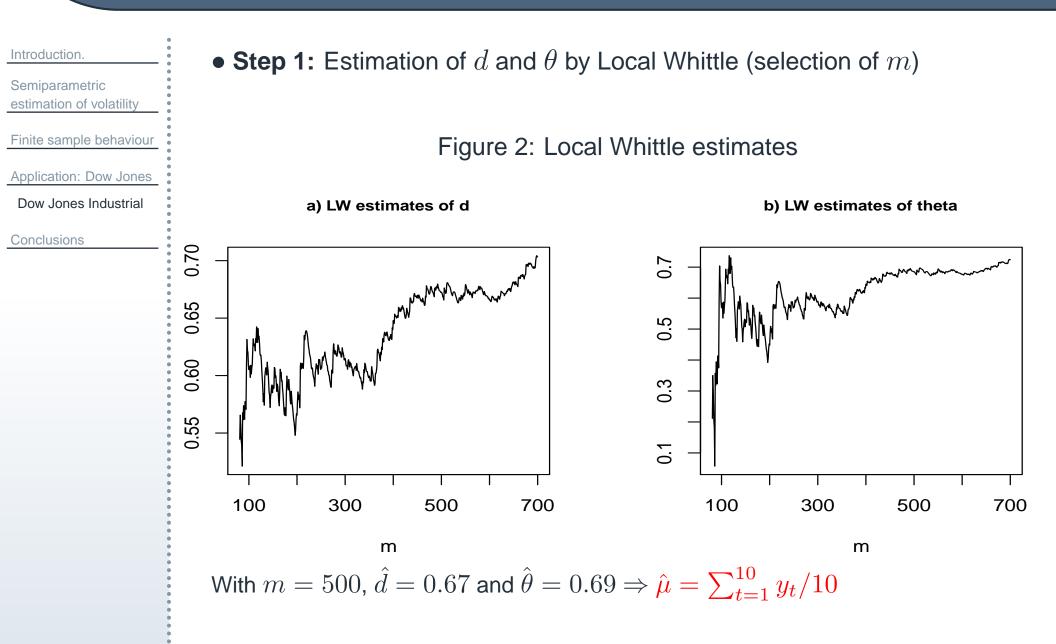
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Daily Dow Jones Industrial







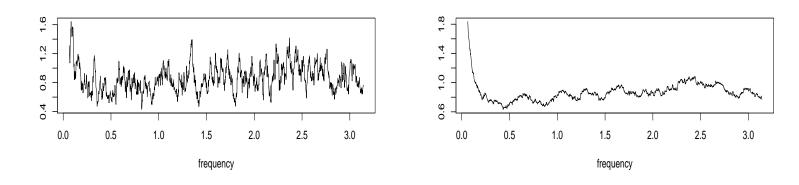


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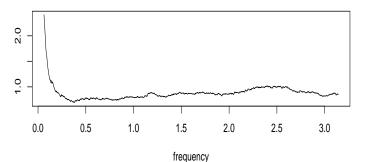
Conclusions

• Step 2: Estimate $f_y(\lambda_p)$ (select m^*)

Figure 3: Estimates of $f_y(\lambda_p)$ for $p \ge 40$ (a) $m^* = 10$ (b) $m^* = 60$



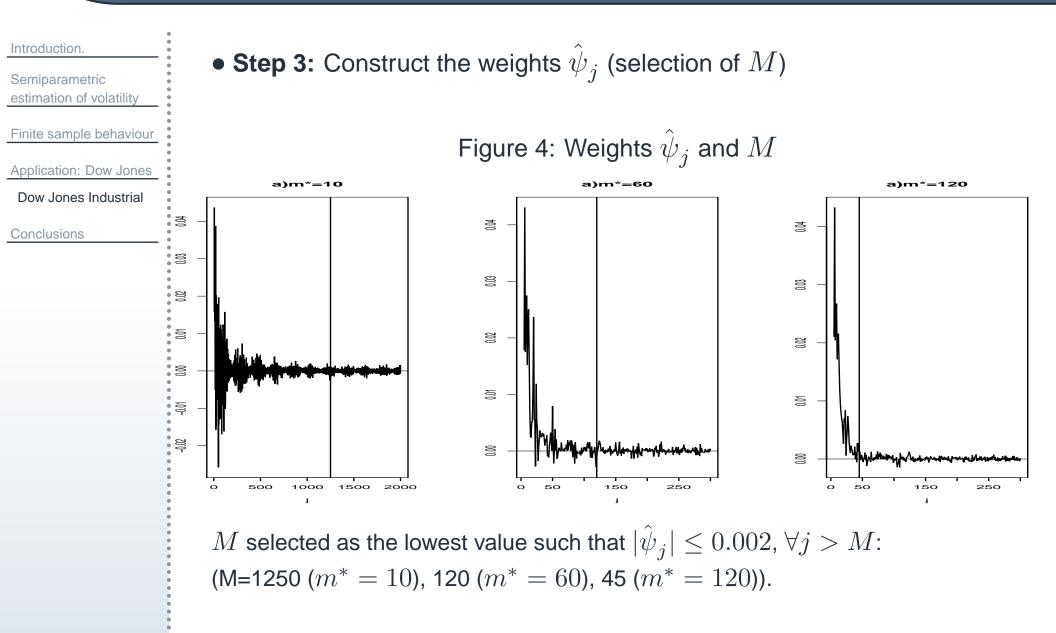
(c) $m^* = 120$



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Daily Dow Jones Industrial: FD strategy





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Conclusions

• **Step 4:** We estimate the variance of the returns conditional on the volatility component in a LMSV model as

$$\hat{\sigma}_t^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2 \exp(\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(1)})$$

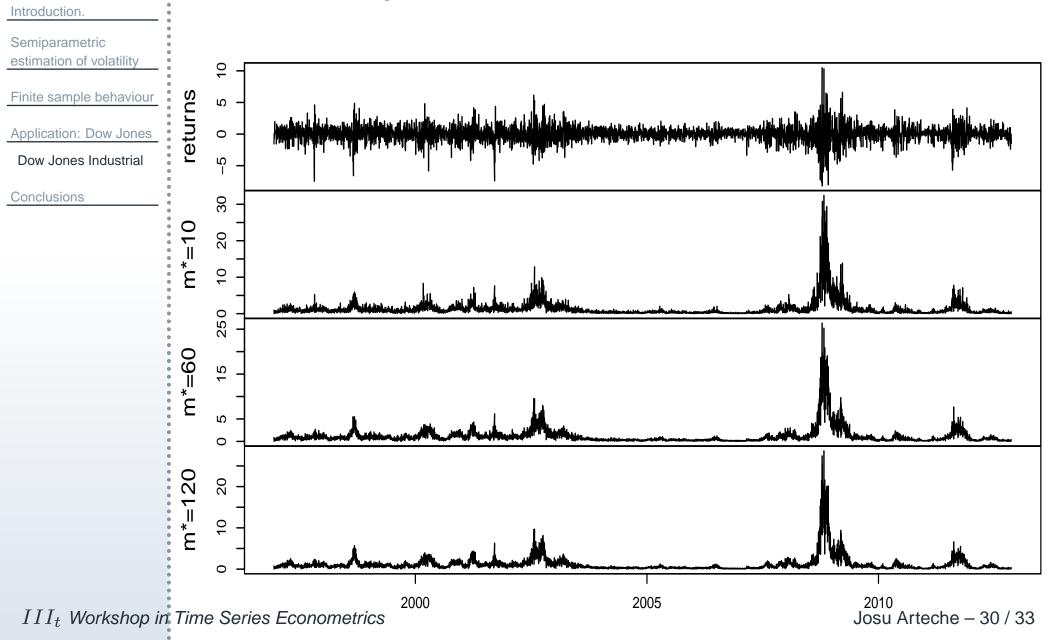
where

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n z_t^2 \exp(-\hat{x}_{t|n}^{(1)}).$$



Daily Dow Jones Industrial: FD strategy

Figure 5: Estimation of the conditional variance





Daily Dow Jones Industrial: Validation

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Conclusions

The standardized residuals, $\hat{\varepsilon}_{t|n} = z_t / \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_t^2}$ should be close to i.i.d (not necessarily Gaussian) and in particular their squares should be uncorrelated.

Table 5: Ljung-Box test for 100 ac (p-values)

	$m^* = 10$	$m^* = 60$	$m^* = 120$
$\hat{arepsilon}_{t n}^2$	0.000	0.113	0.138

• Step 5: Validation:



Conclusions

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Conclusions

We have proposed a robust, general and simple to implement Wiener-Kolmogorov signal extraction technique based on a local spectral specification of the signal (either stationary or nonstationary).





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- For that, we propose a pre-whitened (in the frequency domain) sdf estimator and show its consistency in the whole band of Fourier frequencies for stationary and nonstationary signals.





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- It can be used for signal extraction in a general context: economic mechanisms with different factors for short run and long run behaviour, measurement errors, rational expectation models, Realized Volatility contaminated by market microstructure noise etc.
 - Next step: use the volatility series for asset pricing, risk management, forecasting, comparison with ARCH based methods....



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