

Econometric analysis of multivariate realised QML: estimation of the covariation of equity prices under asynchronous trading

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Abstract

Estimating the covariance between assets using high frequency data is challenging due to market microstructure effects and asynchronous trading. In this paper we develop a multivariate realised quasi-likelihood (QML) approach, carrying out inference as if the observations arise from an asynchronously observed vector scaled Brownian model observed with error. Under stochastic volatility the resulting realised QML estimator is positive semi-definite, uses all available data, is consistent and asymptotically mixed normal. The quasi-likelihood is computed using a Kalman filter and optimised using a relatively simple EM algorithm which scales well with the number of assets. We derive the theoretical properties of the estimator and prove that it achieves the efficient rate of convergence. We show how to make it obtain the non-parametric efficiency bound for this problem. The estimator is also analysed using Monte Carlo methods and applied to equity data with varying levels of liquidity.

Keywords: EM algorithm; Kalman filter; market microstructure noise; non-synchronous data; portfolio optimisation; quadratic variation; quasi-likelihood; semimartingale; volatility.

JEL codes: C01; C14; C58; D53; D81

1 Introduction

1.1 Core message

The strength and stability of the dependence between asset returns is crucial in many areas of financial economics. Here we propose an innovative, theoretically sound, efficient and convenient method for estimating this dependence using high frequency financial data. We explore the properties of the methods theoretically, in simulation experiments and empirically.

Our realised quasi maximum likelihood (QML) estimator of the covariance matrix of asset prices is positive semidefinite and deals with both market microstructure effects such as bid/ask

bounce and crucially non-synchronous recording of data (the so-called Epps (1979) effect). Positive semidefiniteness allows us to define a coherent estimator of correlations and betas, objects of importance in financial economics. We derive the theoretical properties of our estimator and prove that it achieves the efficient rate of convergence. We show how to make it achieve the non-parametric efficiency bound for this problem and demonstrate theoretically the effect of asynchronous trading. The estimator is also analysed using Monte Carlo methods and applied on equity data in a high dimensional case.

Our results show our methods deliver particularly strong gains over existing methods for unbalanced data: that is where some assets trade slowly while others are more frequently available.

1.2 Quasi-likelihood context

Our approach can be thought to be the natural integration of three influential econometric estimators, completing a line of research and opening up many more areas of development and application.

The first is the realised variance estimator, which is the QML estimator of the quadratic variation of a univariate semimartingale and was econometrically formalised by Andersen, Bollerslev, Diebold, and Labys (2001) and Barndorff-Nielsen and Shephard (2002). There the quasi-likelihood is generated by assuming the log-price is Brownian motion. Multivariate versions of these estimators were developed and applied in Andersen, Bollerslev, Diebold, and Labys (2003) and Barndorff-Nielsen and Shephard (2004). These estimators are called realised covariances and have been widely applied.

The second is the Hayashi and Yoshida (2005) estimator, which is the QML estimator for the corresponding multivariate problem where there is irregularly spaced non-synchronous data, though sampling intervals are not incorporated into their estimator. Again the underlying log-price is modelled as a rotated vector Brownian motion.

Neither of the above estimators deals with noise. Xiu (2010) studied the univariate QML estimator where the Brownian motion is observed with Gaussian noise. He called this the “realised QML estimator” and showed this was an effective estimator for semimartingales cloaked in non-Gaussian noise. Moreover, the QML estimator is asymptotically equivalent to the optimal realized kernel, by Barndorff-Nielsen, Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2008), with a suboptimal bandwidth. Note also the related Zhou (1996), Zhou (1998), Andersen, Bollerslev, Diebold, and Ebens (2001) and Hansen, Large, and Lunde (2008).

Our paper moves beyond this work to produce a distinctive and empirically important result. It proposes and analyses in detail the multivariate realised QML estimator which deals with irregularly spaced non-synchronous noisy multivariate data. We develop methods to allow it to be easily

implemented and develop the corresponding asymptotic theory under realistic assumptions. We show this estimator has a number of optimal properties.

1.3 Alternative approaches

A number of authors have approached this sophisticated multivariate problem using a variety of techniques. Here we discuss them to place our work in a better context.

As we said above the first generation of multivariate estimators, realised covariances, were based upon moderately high frequency data. Introduced by Andersen, Bollerslev, Diebold, and Labys (2003) and Barndorff-Nielsen and Shephard (2004), these realised covariances use synchronised data sampled sufficiently sparsely that they could roughly ignore the effect of noise and non-synchronous trading. Related is Hayashi and Yoshida (2005) who tried to overcome non-synchronous trading but did not deal with any aspects of noise (see also Voev and Lunde (2007)).

More recently there has been an attempt to use the finest grain of data where noise and non-synchronous trading become important issues. There are five existing methods which have been proposed. Two deliver positive semi-definite estimators, so allowing correlations and betas to be coherently computed. They are the multivariate realised kernel of Barndorff-Nielsen, Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2011) and the non-biased corrected preaveraging estimator of Christensen, Kinnebrock, and Podolskij (2010). Both use a synchronisation device called refresh time sampling. Neither converges at the optimal rate.

Two other estimators have been suggested which rely on polarisation of quadratic variation. Each has the disadvantage that they are not guaranteed to be positive semi-definite, so ruling out their direct use for correlations and betas. The papers are Aït-Sahalia, Fan, and Xiu (2010) and Zhang (2011). The bias-corrected Christensen, Kinnebrock, and Podolskij (2010) is also not necessarily positive semi-definite. Further, none of them achieve the non-parametric efficiency bound.

In a paper written concurrently with this one, Park and Linton (2012a) develop a Fourier based estimator of covariances, which extends the multivariate work of Mancino and Sanfelici (2009) and Sanfelici and Mancino (2008).

Finally, we note that related univariate work on ameliorating the effect of noise includes Zhou (1996), Zhou (1998), Hansen and Lunde (2006), Zhang, Mykland, and Aït-Sahalia (2005), Barndorff-Nielsen, Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2008), Jacod, Li, Mykland, Podolskij, and Vetter (2009), Andersen, Bollerslev, Diebold, and Labys (2000), Bandi and Russell (2008), Kalnina and Linton (2008), Li and Mykland (2007), Gloter and Jacod (2001a), Gloter and Jacod (2001b), Kunitomo and Sato (2009), Reiss (2011), Large (2011), Malliavin and Mancino (2002), Mancino and Sanfelici (2008), Malliavin and Mancino (2009), Aït-Sahalia, Jacod, and Li (2012) and Hansen

and Horel (2009). Surveys include, for example, McAleer and Medeiros (2008), Aït-Sahalia and Mykland (2009), Park and Linton (2012b) and Aït-Sahalia and Xiu (2012).

1.4 More details on our paper

Here we use a QML estimator in the multivariate case where we model efficient prices as correlated Brownian motion observed at irregularly spaced and asynchronously recorded datapoints. Each observation is cloaked in noise. We provide an asymptotic theory which shows how this approach deals with general continuous semimartingales observed with noise irregularly sampled in time.

The above approach can be implemented computationally efficiently using Kalman filtering. The optimisation of the likelihood is most easily carried out using an EM algorithm, which is implemented using a smoothing algorithm. The resulting estimator of the integrated covariance is positive semidefinite. In practice it can be computed rapidly, even in significant dimensions.

1.5 Some particularly noteworthy papers

There are a group of papers which are closest to our approach.

Aït-Sahalia, Fan, and Xiu (2010) apply the univariate estimator of Xiu (2010) to the multivariate case using polarisation. That is they estimate the covariance between x_1 and x_2 , by applying univariate methods to estimate $\text{Var}(x_1 + x_2)$ and $\text{Var}(x_1 - x_2)$ and then looked at a scaled difference of these two estimates. The implied covariance matrix is not guaranteed to be positive semidefinite.

During our work on this paper we were sent a copy of Corsi, Peluso, and Audrino (2012) in January 2012 which was carried out independently and concurrently with our work. This paper is distinct in a number of ways, most notably we have a fully developed econometric theory for the method under general conditions and our computations are somewhat different. However, the overarching theme is the same: dealing with the multivariate case using a missing value approach (see the related Elerian, Chib, and Shephard (2001), Roberts and Stramer (2001) and Papaspiliopoulos and Roberts (2012) for discretely observed non-linear diffusions) based on Brownian motion observed with error. A variant of this paper, also dated January 2012, by Peluso, Corsi, and Mira (2012), who carry out a related exercise to Corsi, Peluso, and Audrino (2012) but this time using Bayesian techniques. They assume the efficient price is Markovian and have no limiting theory for their quasi-likelihood based approach. Related to these papers is the earlier more informal univariate analysis of Owens and Steigerwald (2006) and the multivariate analysis of Cartea and Karyampas (2011).

In late April 2012 we also learnt of Liu and Tang (2012). They study a realised QML estimator of a multivariate exactly synchronised dataset. They propose using Refresh Time type devices to

achieve exact synchronicity. Under exact synchronicity their theoretical development is significant and independently generates the results in one of the theorems in this paper. We will spell out the precise theoretical overlap with our paper later. To be explicit they do not deal with asynchronous trading, which is the major contribution of our paper.

1.6 Structure of the paper

The structure of our paper is as follows. In Section 2 we define the model which generates the quasi-likelihood and more generally establish our notation. We also define our multivariate estimator. In Section 3 we derive the asymptotic theory of our estimator under some rather general conditions. In Section 4 we extend the core results in various important directions. In Section 5 we report on some Monte Carlo experiments we have conducted to assess the finite sample performance of our approach. In Section 6 we provide results from empirical studies, where the performance of the estimator is evaluated with a variety of equity prices. In Section 7 we draw our conclusions. The paper finishes with a lengthy appendix which contains the proofs of various theorems given in the paper, and a detailed online appendix with more empirical analysis.

2 Models

2.1 Notation

We consider a d -dimensional log-price process $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d)'$. These prices are observed irregularly and non-synchronous over the interval $[0, T]$, where T is fixed and often thought of as a single day. These observations could be trades or quote updates. Throughout we will refer to them as trades.

We write the union of all times of trades as

$$t_i, \quad 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where we have ordered the times so that $0 \leq t_1 < \dots < t_i < \dots < t_n \leq T$. Note that the t_i times must be distinct. Price updates can occur exactly simultaneously, a feature dealt with next.

Associated with each t_i is an asset selection matrix Z_i . Let the number of assets which trade at time t_i be d_i and so $1 \leq d_i \leq d$. Then Z_i is $d_i \times d$, full of zeros and ones where each row sums exactly to one. Unit elements in column k of Z_i shows the k -th asset traded at time t_i .

2.2 Efficient price

x is assumed to be driven by y , the efficient log-price, abstracting from market microstructure effects. The efficient price is modelled as a *Brownian semimartingale* defined on some filtered

probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, (\mathcal{F}_t), P)$,

$$y(t) = \int_0^t \mu(u)du + \int_0^t \sigma(u)dW(u), \quad (1)$$

where μ is a vector of elements which are predictable locally bounded drifts, σ is a càdlàg volatility matrix process and W is a vector of independent Brownian motions. For reviews of the econometrics of this type of process see, for example, Ghysels, Harvey, and Renault (1996). Then the ex-post covariation is

$$[y, y]_T = \int_0^T \Sigma(u)du, \quad \text{where } \Sigma = \sigma\sigma',$$

where

$$[y, y]_T = \text{plim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n \{y(\tau_j) - y(\tau_{j-1})\} \{y(\tau_j) - y(\tau_{j-1})\}',$$

(e.g. Protter (2004, p. 66–77) and Jacod and Shiryaev (2003, p. 51)) for any sequence of deterministic synchronized partitions $0 = \tau_0 < \tau_1 < \dots < \tau_n = T$ with $\sup_j \{\tau_{j+1} - \tau_j\} \rightarrow 0$ for $n \rightarrow \infty$. This is the quadratic variation of y . Our interest is in estimating $[y, y]_T$ using x .

Throughout we will assume that y and the random times of trades $\{t_i, Z_i\}$ are stochastically independent. This is a strong assumption and commonly used in the literature (but note the discussion in, for example, Engle and Russell (1998) and Li, Mykland, Renault, Zhang, and Zheng (2009)). This assumption means we can make our inference conditional on $\{t_i, Z_i\}$ and so regard these times of trades as fixed.

Throughout we assume that we see a blurred version of y , with our data being

$$x_i = Z_i y(t_i) + Z_i \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where ε_i is a vector of potential market microstructure effects. We will assume $E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$ and write $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i) = \Lambda$, where Λ is diagonal¹. General time series discussions of missing data includes Harvey (1989, Ch. 6.4), Durbin and Koopman (2001, Ch. 2.7) and Ljung (1989).

2.3 A Gaussian quasi-likelihood

We proxy the Brownian semimartingale by Brownian motion, which is non-synchronously observed. This will be used to generate a quasi-likelihood. We model

$$y(t) = \sigma W(t).$$

¹Corsi, Peluso, and Audrino (2012) use a slightly different approach. They update at time points Ti/n whether there is new data or not. They used a linear Gaussian state space model $x_i = Z_i y(Ti/n) + \varepsilon_i$, where a selection matrix Z_i is always $d \times d$, but some rows are entirely made up of zeros if a price is not available at that particular time. If a price is entirely missing, the input for their Kalman innovations v_i is set to zero.

Then writing $\Sigma = \sigma\sigma'$, we have that

$$y(t_i) - y(t_{i-1}) \sim N(0, \Sigma(t_i - t_{i-1})),$$

while all the non-overlapping innovations are independent.

Throughout we will write

$$u_i = y(t_i) - y(t_{i-1}), \quad \Delta_i^n = t_i - t_{i-1}.$$

Of course $\Delta_i^n > 0$ is a scalar.

At this point we assume that

$$\varepsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \Lambda).$$

where Λ is diagonal. Then we can think of the time series of observations $x_{1:n} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)'$ as a Gaussian state space model. A discussion of the corresponding literature is available in, for example, Harvey (1989), West and Harrison (1989) and Durbin and Koopman (2001).

2.4 ML estimation via EM algorithm

Our goal is to develop positive semidefinite estimators of Σ , noting for us that Λ is a nuisance. We would like our methods to work in quite high dimensions and so the EM approach to maximising the log-likelihood function is attractive. EM algorithms are discussed in, for example, Tanner (1996) and Durbin and Koopman (2001, Ch. 7.3.4).

We note that the complete log-likelihood is, writing and recalling, $e_i = x_i - Z_i y(t_i)$, $u_i = y(t_i) - y(t_{i-1})$, of the form, writing $y_{1:n} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)'$, and assuming $y_1 \sim N(\hat{y}_1, P_1)$ which is independent of (Σ, Λ) ,

$$\begin{aligned} \log f(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n}; \Lambda) + \log f(y_{1:n}; \Sigma) &= c - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \log |Z_i \Lambda Z_i'| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i' (Z_i \Lambda Z_i')^{-1} e_i \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^n \log |\Sigma| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{1}{\Delta_i^n} u_i' \Sigma^{-1} u_i. \end{aligned}$$

Then the EM algorithm works with the

$$\begin{aligned} &E \{ \{ \log f(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n}; \Lambda) + \log f(y_{1:n}; \Sigma) \} | x_{1:n}; \Lambda, \Sigma \} \\ &= c - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \log |Z_i \Lambda Z_i'| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n E \left\{ e_i' (Z_i \Lambda Z_i')^{-1} e_i | x_{1:n}; \Lambda, \Sigma \right\} \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^n \log |\Sigma| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{1}{\Delta_i^n} E \left\{ u_i' \Sigma^{-1} u_i | x_{1:n}; \Lambda, \Sigma \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Writing $\hat{e}_{i|n} = E(e_i | x_{1:n})$ and $D_{i|n} = Mse(e_i | x_{1:n})$, then

$$E \left\{ e_i' (Z_i \Lambda Z_i')^{-1} e_i | x_{1:n} \right\} = tr \left\{ (Z_i \Lambda Z_i')^{-1} E(e_i e_i' | x_{1:n}) \right\} = tr \left[(Z_i \Lambda Z_i')^{-1} \left\{ \hat{e}_{i|n} \hat{e}_{i|n}' + D_{i|n} \right\} \right],$$

and, writing $\hat{u}_{i|n} = E(u_i|x_{1:n})$ and $N_{i|n} = Mse(u_i|x_{1:n})$, then

$$E\{u_i'\Sigma^{-1}u_i|x_{1:n}\} = tr\{\Sigma^{-1}E(u_iu_i'|x_{1:n})\} = tr\left[\Sigma^{-1}\left\{\hat{u}_{i|n}\hat{u}_{i|n}' + N_{i|n}\right\}\right].$$

Then the EM update is

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{1}{\Delta_i^n} \left\{ \hat{u}_{i|n}\hat{u}_{i|n}' + N_{i|n} \right\}, \quad diag(\hat{\Lambda}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i'Z_i \right)^{-1} diag\left(\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i' \left\{ \hat{e}_{i|n}\hat{e}_{i|n}' + D_{i|n} \right\} Z_i \right).$$

Iterating these updates, the sequence of $(\hat{\Sigma}, \hat{\Lambda})$ converges to a maximum in the likelihood function.

2.5 Recalling the disturbance smoother

Computing $\hat{e}_{i|n}$, $\hat{u}_{i|n}$, $D_{i|n}$ and $N_{i|n}$ is routine and rapid, if rather tedious to write down. It is carried out computationally efficiently using the ‘‘disturbance smoother.’’ The following subsection is entirely computational and can be skipped on first reading without loss.

The smoother starts by running with the Kalman filter (e.g. Durbin and Koopman (2001, p. 67)), which is run forward in time $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ through the data. In our case it takes on the form $v_i = x_i - Z_i\hat{y}_i$, $F_i = Z_i(P_i + \Lambda)Z_i'$, $K_i = P_iZ_i'F_i^{-1}$, $L_i = I - K_iZ_i$ then $\hat{y}_{i+1} = \hat{y}_i + K_iv_i$, $P_{i+1} = P_iL_i' + \Delta_{i+1}^n\Sigma$. Here $\hat{y}_i = E(y_i|x_{i:i-1})$ and $F_i = Cov(x_i|x_{i:i-1})$. These recursions need some initial conditions \hat{y}_1 and P_1 . Throughout we will assume their choice does not depend upon Σ or Λ . A typical selection for \hat{y}_1 is the opening auction price, whereas an alternative is to use a diffuse prior. Here v_i is $d_i \times 1$, F_i is $d_i \times d_i$, K_i is $d \times d_i$, $\hat{y}_{i+1|i}$ is $d \times 1$ and P_{i+1} and L_i are $d \times d$. Note that for large d , the update for P_{i+1} is the most expensive, but it is highly sparse as L_i is sparse. Each iteration of the EM algorithm will lead to a non-negative change in the quasi log-likelihood $\log f(x_{1:n}; \Lambda, \Sigma) = c - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \log |F_i| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n v_i'F_i^{-1}v_i$.

The disturbance smoother (e.g. Durbin and Koopman (2001, p. 76)) is run backwards $i = n, n-1, \dots, 1$ through the data. It takes the form, writing $H_i = Z_i\Lambda Z_i'$, a $d_i \times d_i$ matrix, $\hat{e}_{i|n} = H_i(F_i^{-1}v_i - K_i'r_i)$, $D_{i|n} = H_i - H_i(F_i^{-1} + K_i'M_iK_i)H_i$, $\hat{u}_{i|n} = \Delta_i^n\Sigma r_{i-1}$, $N_{i|n} = \Delta_i^n\Sigma - (\Delta_i^n)^2\Sigma M_{i-1}\Sigma$, where we recursively compute $r_{i-1} = Z_i'F_i^{-1}v_i + L_i'r_i$, $M_{i-1} = Z_i'F_i^{-1}Z_i + L_i'M_iL_i$, starting out with $r_n = 0$, $M_n = 0$. Here $\hat{e}_{i|n}$ is $d_i \times 1$ and $D_{i|n}$ is $d_i \times d_i$. While $\hat{u}_{i|n}$ and r_i are $d \times 1$, and $N_{i|n}$ and M_i are $d \times d$. Notice again the updates for M_i are highly sparse.

3 Econometric theory

In this section, we develop the asymptotic theory for the bivariate case, as the general multivariate case can be derived similarly. To get to the heart of the issues our analysis follows four steps.

First we look at the benchmark bivariate ML estimator case where the volatility matrix is fixed and there are equidistant observations. Secondly we show how those results change when the noise is non-Gaussian and we have stochastic volatility effects, but still have equidistant observations.

Thirdly and more realistically we discuss the impact of having unequally spaced data which is wrongly synchronised in the quasi-likelihood. Finally we discuss the impact of non-synchronised data on a fully non-synchronised quasi-likelihood.

3.1 Step one: benchmark bivariate MLE

3.1.1 The model

We start with the constant covariance matrix case with equidistant observations, which means that $Z_t = I_2$ and $t_i = Ti/n$. This means that we have synchronised trading. We also assume the market microstructure effects are independent and initially normal.

Then we observe returns

$$r_{j,i} = x_{j,i} - x_{j,i-1}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, 2,$$

with, we assume,

$$x_i = y(i/n) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad y(i/n) = y((i-1)/n) + \sqrt{T/nu}u_i, \quad (2)$$

where

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_i \\ u_i \end{pmatrix} \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} N \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & \Lambda_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{12} & \Sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

In discrete time x would be called a bivariate ‘‘local level model’’ (e.g. Durbin and Koopman (2001, Ch. 2)).

Suppose the observed returns are collected as $r = (r_{1,1}, r_{1,2}, \dots, r_{1,n}, r_{2,1}, \dots, r_{2,n})'$, then the likelihood can be rewritten as

$$L = -n \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log(\det \Omega) - \frac{1}{2} r' \Omega^{-1} r, \quad (4)$$

where $\Omega = \Delta \Sigma \otimes I_n + \Lambda \otimes J_n$. Here \otimes denotes the Kronecker product and J_n is a $n \times n$ matrix

$$J_n = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & -1 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

The likelihood (4) is tractable as we know the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of J_n and so Ω .

3.1.2 The asymptotic theory

Before we give the bivariate case we recall the univariate one

$$n^{\frac{1}{4}} \left(\widehat{\Sigma}_{11} - \Sigma_{11} \right) \xrightarrow{L} N \left(0, 8\Lambda_{11}^{1/2} \Sigma_{11}^{3/2} T^{-1/2} \right),$$

see, for example, Stein (1987), Gloter and Jacod (2001a), Gloter and Jacod (2001b), Aït-Sahalia, Mykland, and Zhang (2005) and Xiu (2010). This result establishes the optimal rate $-n^{1/4}$ —that can be obtained with noisy data. We now go onto the Gaussian bivariate case.

Theorem 1 (Bivariate MLE) *Assume the model (2)-(3) is true. Then the ML estimators $\widehat{\Sigma}$ and $\widehat{\Lambda}$ satisfy the central limit theorem as $n \rightarrow \infty$*

$$n^{\frac{1}{4}} \begin{pmatrix} \widehat{\Sigma}_{11} - \Sigma_{11} \\ \widehat{\Sigma}_{12} - \Sigma_{12} \\ \widehat{\Sigma}_{22} - \Sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} N(0, \Pi).$$

Here for a 3×1 vector $\Sigma_{\theta} = \text{vech}(\Sigma) = (\Sigma_{1,1}, \Sigma_{1,2}, \Sigma_{2,2})'$ the Π matrix is such that $\Pi^{-1} = \frac{\partial \Psi_{\theta}}{\partial \Sigma_{\theta}'}$ with

$$\frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_{u,v}}}{\partial \Sigma_{i,j}} = -(1 + 1_{u \neq v}) \frac{1}{2} \left(\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\partial \omega^{i,j}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma_{u,v}} dx \right), \quad i, j, u, v = 1, 2,$$

where, writing $\Lambda_{ii}^* = \Lambda_{ii}/T$,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega^{1,1}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{\Sigma_{22} + \Lambda_{22}^* \pi^2 x^2}{(\Sigma_{11} + \Lambda_{11}^* \pi^2 x^2)(\Sigma_{22} + \Lambda_{22}^* \pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2} \\ \omega^{2,2}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{\Sigma_{11} + \Lambda_{11}^* \pi^2 x^2}{(\Sigma_{11} + \Lambda_{11}^* \pi^2 x^2)(\Sigma_{22} + \Lambda_{22}^* \pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2} \\ \omega^{1,2}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{-\Sigma_{12}}{(\Sigma_{11} + \Lambda_{11}^* \pi^2 x^2)(\Sigma_{22} + \Lambda_{22}^* \pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Given in the Appendix.

Each of the integrals in Π^{-1} has an analytic solution (e.g. Mathematica will solve the integrals), but the result is not informative and so we prefer to leave it in this compact form.

When $\Sigma_{12} = 0$, there is no “externality,” i.e. the asymptotic variances for $\widehat{\Sigma}_{11}$ and $\widehat{\Sigma}_{22}$ in the bivariate case reproduce the one-dimensional MLE case. As the correlation increases from 0 to 1, the multivariate MLE $\widehat{\Sigma}_{11}$ becomes more efficient than the univariate one, because more information is collected via the correlation with the other series. This is illustrated in Figure 1.

3.2 Step two: bivariate QMLE with equidistant observations

3.2.1 Assumptions

We now move to the cases which are more realistic. We deal with them one at a time: stochastic volatility, irregularly spaced synchronised data and finally and crucially asynchronous data.

Assumption 1 *The underlying latent d -dimensional log-price process satisfies (1), where the drift μ is predictable locally bounded, the $d \times d$ volatility process σ is locally bounded Itô semimartingales and W is a d -dimensional Brownian motion.*

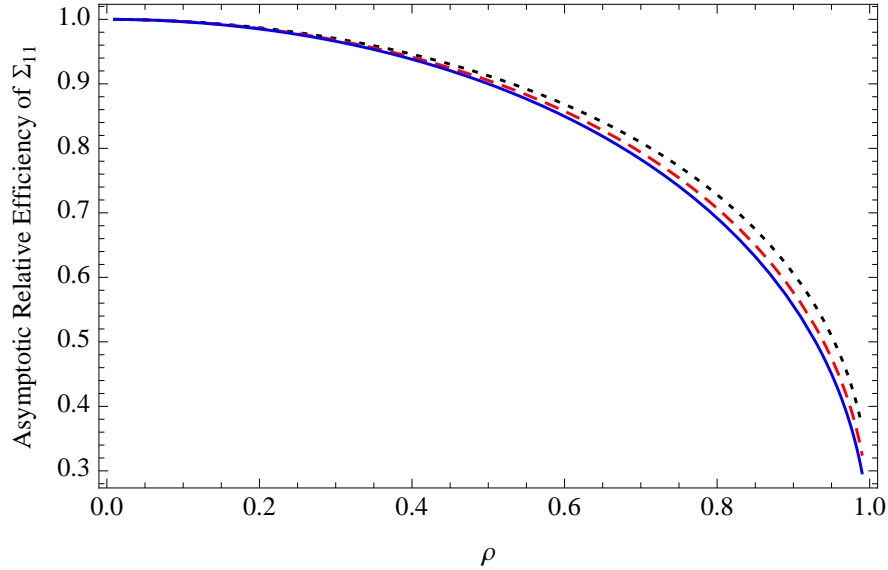


Figure 1: The figure plots the relative efficiency for bivariate MLE of Σ_{11} over the univariate alternative, against the correlation. $\Sigma_{11} = 0.25^2$. As the number falls below zero the gains from bivariate MLE become greater. The blue line, the red dashed line, and the black dotted line correspond to the cases with $\Sigma_{22} = 0.3^2, 0.25^2$, and 0.2^2 , respectively.

Assumption 2 *The noise ε_i is a vector random variable which is independent and identically distributed, and independent of t_i , W , σ and has fourth moments².*

Assumption 3 *The trades are synchronised at times $t_i = Ti/n$ and $Z_i = I_n$.*

3.2.2 The asymptotic theory

Before we give the bivariate case we define $R_T = \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^4 dt\right) / \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^2 dt\right)^2 \geq 1$, by Jensen's inequality and recall the univariate result

$$n^{\frac{1}{4}} \left(\widehat{\Sigma}_{11} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^2 dt \right) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}^s} MN \left(0, (5R_T + 3) \Lambda_{11}^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^2 dt \right)^{3/2} T^{-1/2} \right),$$

which is a rewrite of the result due to Xiu (2010). Here the asymptotic variance of the estimator increases with R_T keeping $\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^2 dt$ fixed.

We now extend this to the multivariate case. The asymptotic theory for the realised QML estimator $\widehat{\Sigma}$ is given below.

²The i.i.d. assumption can be replaced by more general noise process, which is independent conditionally on Y . This allows some dependence and endogeneity, but the noise is still uncorrelated with Y . This assumption is the focus of, for example, Jacod, Podolskij, and Vetter (2010). We choose not to adopt it as the idea of the proof remains the same except for some technicalities.

Theorem 2 (Bivariate QMLE) Under Assumptions 1-3, we have

$$n^{\frac{1}{4}} \begin{pmatrix} \widehat{\Sigma}_{11} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{11,t} dt \\ \widehat{\Sigma}_{12} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{12,t} dt \\ \widehat{\Sigma}_{22} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{22,t} dt \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_s} MN(0, \Pi_Q), \quad (6)$$

where Π_Q is

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_Q &= \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\partial \Psi_\theta}{\partial \Sigma_{\theta'}} \right)^{-1} \left\{ Avar^{(2)} + Avar^{(3)} + Avar^{(4)} \right\} \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial \Psi_\theta}{\partial \Sigma_{\theta'}} \right)^{-1} \right\}', \\ Avar^{(2)} &= 2 \sum_{l,s,u,v=1}^2 \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{v,u}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma_\theta} \frac{\partial \omega^{l,s}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma'_\theta} dx \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{sv,t} \Sigma_{ul,t} dt \right), \\ Avar^{(3)} &= 4 \sum_{l,s,v=1}^2 \Lambda_{ll}^* \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{l,s}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma_\theta} \frac{\partial \omega^{l,v}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma'_\theta} \pi^2 x^2 dx \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{sv,t} dt \right), \\ Avar^{(4)} &= 2 \sum_{l,s=1}^2 \Lambda_{ll}^* \Lambda_{ss}^* \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{l,s}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma_\theta} \frac{\partial \omega^{l,s}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma'_\theta} \pi^4 x^4 dx. \end{aligned}$$

Here all the derivatives are evaluated at $\Sigma = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_t dt$.

Proof. Given in the Appendix.

In independent and concurrent work Liu and Tang (2012) have established a similar result, although their derivation follows the steps in Xiu (2010), which is different from what we suggest here.

3.3 Step 3: bivariate QMLE with irregularly space synchronised observations

We now build a quasi-likelihood upon irregularly spaced but synchronised times $\{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$, so that $Z_i = I_2$. These times imply a collection of increments $\{\Delta_i^n = t_i - t_{i-1}, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. We then make the following assumption.

Assumption 4 We assume that $\Delta_i^n = \bar{\Delta} (1 + \xi_i)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, $\bar{\Delta} = \frac{T}{n}$, $E(\xi_i) = 0$, where $\text{Var}(\xi_i) < \infty$ and $\{\xi_i, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ are i.i.d.. Also assume Y and $\{\xi_i\}$ are independent.

Assumption 4 means that $\xi_i = O_p(1)$ and so the individual gaps shrink at rate $O_p(n^{-1})$.

Corollary 1 Assume Assumptions 1, 2 and 4 hold and additionally Σ is constant and $\mu = 0$. Then the asymptotic variance of the MLE is the same as that in Theorem 1.

Proof. Given in the Appendix.

This makes it clear that in the synchronised case irregularly spacing of the data has no impact on the asymptotic distribution of the multivariate realised QML estimator. The reason for this is that the effect is less important than the presence of noise, a result which appears in the univariate

work of Aït-Sahalia, Mykland, and Zhang (2005) and Aït-Sahalia and Mykland (2003). This result contrasts with the realised variance where Mykland and Zhang (2006) have shown that the quadratic variation of the sampling times impacts the asymptotic distribution in the absence of noise.

This synchronised case is important in practice. Some researchers have analysed covariances by applying a synchronisation scheme to the non-synchronous high frequency observations. This delivers an irregularly spaced sequence of synchronised times of trades, although some prices could be somewhat stale. Typically there is a very large drop in the sample size due to synchronisation. The most well known such scheme is the Refresh Time method analysed by Barndorff-Nielsen, Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2011) and subsequently employed by, for example, Christensen, Kinnebrock, and Podolskij (2010) and Aït-Sahalia, Fan, and Xiu (2010). See also the earlier more informal papers by Harris, McMcInish, Shoesmith, and Wood (1995) and Martens (2003). Alternatively, Zhang (2011) discusses the Previous Tick approach, which always discards more data than what is suggested by the Refresh Time.

3.4 Step 4: bivariate QMLE with non-synchronous observations

In this paper, synchronisation is not needed for our method. Instead we write

$$x_{j,i} = y_j(t_{j,i}) + \varepsilon_{j,i}, \quad j = 1, 2, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n_j,$$

where $t_{j,i}$ is the i -th observation on the j -th asset. The corresponding returns are $r_{j,i} = x_{j,i} - x_{j,i-1}$.

Assumption 5 We define $\Delta_i^{n_j} = t_{j,i} - t_{j,i-1}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n_j$ and $\Delta^{n_j} = \text{diag}(\Delta_i^{n_j})$. Assume that $\Delta_i^{n_j} = \bar{\Delta}_j$, for $j = 1, 2$, and $\bar{\Delta}_2 = m\bar{\Delta}_1$, where $\bar{\Delta}_j = T/n_j$.

These assumptions mean that the data is asynchronous, unless $m = 1$, but always equally spaced in time. The latter assumption is made as the previous subsection has shown that irregularly spacing of the data does not impact the asymptotic analysis of the realised QML and so it is simply cumbersome to include that case here without any increase in understanding. This notation means that $\bar{\Delta}_j$ is the average time gap between observations while n_j is the sample size for the j -th asset.

Collecting the observed returns $r = (r_{1,1}, r_{1,2}, \dots, r_{1,n_1}, r_{2,1}, \dots, r_{2,n_2})'$, then our likelihood can be rewritten as

$$L = -(n_1 + n_2) \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log(\det \Omega) - \frac{1}{2} r' \Omega^{-1} r, \quad (7)$$

where

$$\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{11} \Delta^{n_1} + \Lambda_{11} J_{n_1} & \Sigma_{12} \Delta^{n_1, n_2} \\ \Sigma_{12} \Delta^{n_2, n_1} & \Sigma_{22} \Delta^{n_2} + \Lambda_{22} J_{n_2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

with

$$\Delta_{i,j}^{n_1,n_2} = \begin{cases} t_{2,j} - t_{1,i-1}, & \text{if } t_{2,j-1} \leq t_{1,i-1} < t_{2,j} \leq t_{1,i}; \\ t_{1,i} - t_{2,j-1}, & \text{if } t_{1,i-1} \leq t_{2,j-1} < t_{1,i} \leq t_{2,j}; \\ t_{1,i} - t_{2,i-1}, & \text{if } t_{2,j-1} \leq t_{1,i-1} < t_{1,i} \leq t_{2,j}; \\ t_{1,j} - t_{2,j-1}, & \text{if } t_{2,i-1} \leq t_{1,j-1} < t_{1,j} \leq t_{2,i}; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

As before J_n is given in (5). Note that writing out this likelihood function does not require Assumption 5.

Theorem 3 *Assume Assumptions 1, 2 and 5 hold and additionally Σ is constant and $\mu = 0$. Assume also that $\Delta_i^{n_j} = \bar{\Delta}_j$, for $j = 1, 2$, and $\bar{\Delta}_2 = m\bar{\Delta}_1$, where $n_1 \gg n_2$, i.e. $m \rightarrow \infty$. Then in this asynchronous case, the central limit theorem is given by:*

$$\begin{pmatrix} n_1^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{11} - \Sigma_{11}) \\ n_2^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{12} - \Sigma_{12}) \\ n_2^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{22} - \Sigma_{22}) \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{L} N(0, \Pi_A), \quad \text{where } \Pi_A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_{1,1}}}{\partial \Sigma_{1,1}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_{1,2}}}{\partial \Sigma_{1,2}} & \frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_{2,2}}}{\partial \Sigma_{1,2}} \\ 0 & \frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_{2,2}}}{\partial \Sigma_{1,2}} & \frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_{2,2}}}{\partial \Sigma_{2,2}} \end{pmatrix}^{-1},$$

such that

$$\frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_{u,v}}}{\partial \Sigma_{i,j}} = -(1 + 1_{u \neq v}) \frac{1}{2} \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{i,j}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma_{u,v}} dx \right), \quad i, j, u, v = 1, 2,$$

where, writing $\Lambda_{ii}^* = \Lambda_{ii}/T$,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega^{1,1}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{1}{(\Sigma_{11} + \Lambda_{11}^* \pi^2 x^2)}, & \omega^{2,2}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{\Sigma_{11}}{\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{22} + \Lambda_{22}^* \pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2}, \\ \omega^{1,2}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{-\Sigma_{12}}{\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{22} + \Lambda_{22}^* \pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Given in the Appendix.

This Theorem suggests that including the extremely illiquid assets into estimation should not greatly affect variance and covariance estimates of the liquid ones. This property is distinct from any approach in the literature for which the synchronization method matters and the estimates become considerably worse when some asset is illiquid.

Interestingly, the asymptotic covariance of $\widehat{\Sigma}_{22}$ and $\widehat{\Sigma}_{12}$ can be obtained by plugging $\Lambda_{11} = 0$ in Theorem 1, as if the liquid asset were not affected by the microstructure noise. This is due to a type of ‘‘sparse sampling’’ induced by the substantial difference in the number of observations.

3.4.1 Extension: general m case

Note that Theorems 1 and 3 represent two points at either end of an important continuum. Theorem 1 in effect deals with the $m = 1$ case and Theorem 3 deals with $m \rightarrow \infty$. Of course results for finite values of $m > 1$ would be of great practical importance, but we still have not sufficient

control of the terms to state that result entirely confidently. However, our theoretical studies and some Monte Carlo results we do not report here suggest that the result is simply the asymptotic distribution given in Theorem 1 but

$$\begin{pmatrix} n_1^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{11} - \Sigma_{11}) \\ n_2^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{12} - \Sigma_{12}) \\ n_2^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{22} - \Sigma_{22}) \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{L} N(0, \Pi_{A,m}),$$

where $\Pi_{A,m}$ takes on the form given in Theorem 1 except $\Lambda_{22}^* = \Lambda_{22}/(mT)$ holding. Hence the role of m is simply to rescale the measurement error variances.

3.4.2 Extension: irregularly and asynchronously spaced data

It is clear from Corollary 1 that the previous results hold under the type of irregularly spaced data which obeys Assumption 6 which simply extends Assumption 4.

Assumption 6 *We assume that $\Delta_i^{n_j} = t_{j,i} - t_{j,i-1} = \bar{\Delta}_j (1 + \xi_{j,i})$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n_j$, $\Delta^{n_j} = \text{diag}(\Delta_i^{n_j})$ where $E(\xi_{j,i}) = 0$, $\text{Var}(\xi_{j,i}) < \infty$ and $\{\xi_{j,i}, 1 \leq i \leq n_j\}$. Also assume Y and $\{\xi_{j,i}\}$ are independent.*

3.4.3 Extension: allowing stochastic volatility

Likewise the extension to more interesting dynamics, stated in Assumption 1, combined with Assumption 6 is now clear. Again

$$\begin{pmatrix} n_1^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{11} - \Sigma_{11}) \\ n_2^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{12} - \Sigma_{12}) \\ n_2^{1/4}(\widehat{\Sigma}_{22} - \Sigma_{22}) \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}^s} MN(0, \Pi_{Q,m}), \quad (10)$$

where $\Pi_{Q,m}$ simply replaces Π_Q in Theorem 2 by adjusting $\Lambda_{22}^* = \Lambda_{22}/(mT)$. The proof of such a result just combines the proofs of the previous theorems. It is tedious.

4 Additional developments

4.1 Realised QML correlation and regression estimator

The theorems above have an immediate corollary for the estimator of the daily “realised QML correlation estimator”

$$\widehat{\rho}_{12} = \frac{\widehat{\Sigma}_{12}}{\sqrt{\widehat{\Sigma}_{11}\widehat{\Sigma}_{22}}} \in [-1, 1], \quad \text{of} \quad \rho_{12} = \frac{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{12,t} dt}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{11,t} dt\right) \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{22,t} dt\right)}} \in [-1, 1].$$

Also of importance is the corresponding regression or “realised QML beta”

$$\widehat{\beta}_{1|2} = \frac{\widehat{\Sigma}_{12}}{\widehat{\Sigma}_{22}}, \quad \text{which estimates} \quad \beta_{1|2} = \frac{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{12,t} dt}{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{22,t} dt}.$$

The corresponding limit theory follows by the application of the delta method: $\text{Avar}(\widehat{\rho}_{12}) = \nu_\rho V_Q \nu_\rho'$, and $\text{Avar}(\widehat{\beta}_{1|2}) = \nu_\beta V_Q \nu_\beta'$, where

$$\nu_\rho = \left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Sigma_{12}}{\sqrt{\Sigma_{11}^3 \Sigma_{22}}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{22}}}, -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Sigma_{12}}{\sqrt{\Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{22}^3}} \right)', \text{ and } \nu_\beta = \left(0, \frac{1}{\Sigma_{22}}, -\frac{\Sigma_{12}}{\Sigma_{22}^2} \right)'.$$

These are noise and asynchronous trading robust versions of the realised quantities studied by Andersen, Bollerslev, Diebold, and Labys (2003) and Barndorff-Nielsen and Shephard (2004).

4.2 Miniature realised QML based estimation

So far we have carried out realised QML estimation using the data all at once over the interval 0 to T . It is possible to follow a different track which is to break up the time interval $[0, T]$ into non-stochastic blocks $0 = b_0 < b_1 < \dots < b_B = T$. Then we can compute a realised QML estimator within each block. We then sum the resulting estimator up to produce our estimator of the required covariance matrix. Such a blocking strategy was used by, in a different context, Mykland and Zhang (2009) and Mykland, Shephard, and Sheppard (2012) for example.

We call the i -th block estimator the ‘‘miniature realised QML’’ estimator and write it as $\widehat{\Sigma}_i$. For fixed block sizes the resulting estimator, as the sample goes to infinity, is

$$n_i^{1/4} \left(\widehat{\Sigma}_{11,i} - \frac{1}{b_i - b_{i-1}} \int_{b_{i-1}}^{b_i} \sigma_t^2 dt \right) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_s} MN \left(0, \frac{(5R_{ii}+3) \Lambda_{11}^{1/2}}{(b_i - b_{i-1})^{1/2}} \left(\frac{1}{b_i - b_{i-1}} \int_{b_{i-1}}^{b_i} \sigma_t^2 dt \right)^{3/2} \right),$$

where $n_i = n(b_i - b_{i-1})/T$,

$$R_{ii} = \frac{\frac{1}{b_i - b_{i-1}} \int_{b_{i-1}}^{b_i} \sigma_t^4 dt}{\left(\frac{1}{b_i - b_{i-1}} \int_{b_{i-1}}^{b_i} \sigma_t^2 dt \right)^2} \geq 1.$$

For fixed non-overlapping blocks the joint limit theory for the group of miniature realised QML estimators is normal with uncorrelated errors across blocks.

Corollary 2 Define the unblocked QML estimator of Σ_{11} , $\widetilde{\Sigma}_{11} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^B (b_i - b_{i-1}) \widehat{\Sigma}_{11,i}$ then for fixed b_i and B we have as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$n^{1/4} \left(\widetilde{\Sigma}_{11} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^2 dt \right) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_s} MN \left(0, \frac{1}{T^{3/2}} \sum_{i=1}^B (b_i - b_{i-1}) (5R_{ii}+3) \Lambda_{11}^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{b_i - b_{i-1}} \int_{b_{i-1}}^{b_i} \sigma_t^2 dt \right)^{3/2} \right).$$

Proof. Immediate extension of Xiu (2010), noting each block is conditionally independent.

At first sight this does not look like much of an advance. The virtue though is that $\int_0^t \sigma_t^2 dt$ and $\int_0^t \sigma_t^4 dt$ are of bounded variation in t and so are both $O_p(t)$ as $t \downarrow 0$. This means that $R_{ii} \simeq 1 + O_p(b_i - b_{i-1})$ and $(b_i - b_{i-1})^{-1} \int_{b_{i-1}}^{b_i} \sigma_t^2 dt - \sigma_{b_{i-1}}^2 = O_p(b_i - b_{i-1})$. Now R_{ii} is crucial for it drives the inefficiency of this quasi-likelihood approach to inference. Driving it down to one allows

the estimator to be optimal in the limit and is achieved by allowing $\max_i (b_i - b_{i-1}) = o(1)$ as a function of n . In practice we take the gaps to very slowly shrink with n . Of course this shrinkage requires B to increase with n very slowly.

The result is very simple and achieves the non-parametric efficiency bound

$$n^{1/4} \left(\tilde{\Sigma}_{11} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^2 dt \right) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}^s} MN \left(0, 8\Lambda_{11}^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \sigma_t^3 dt \right) T^{-1/2} \right).$$

This approach is also efficient when the variance of the noise is time-varying, for Λ_{11} is estimated separately within each block. Reiss (2011) and Barndorff-Nielsen, Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2008) discuss other estimators which achieve this bound.

4.3 Multistep realised QML estimator

There may be robustness advantages in estimating the integrated variances using univariate QML methods $\hat{\Sigma}_{11}$, $\hat{\Sigma}_{22}$. These two estimates can then be combined with the QML correlation estimator $\hat{\rho}_{12}$, obtained by simply maximising the quasi-likelihood with respect to ρ_{12} keeping Σ_{11} , Σ_{22} fixed at the first stage $\hat{\Sigma}_{11}$, $\hat{\Sigma}_{22}$. We call such an estimator the “multistep covariance estimator”.

A potential advantage of this approach is that model specification for one asset price will not impact the estimator of the integrated variance for the other asset. Of course volatility estimation is crucial in terms of risk scaling.

4.4 Sparse and subsampled realised QML

A virtue of the realised QML is that it is applied to all of the high frequency data. However, this estimator may have challenges if the noise has more complicated dynamics. Although we have proved results assuming the noise is i.i.d., it is clear from the techniques in the literature that the results will hold more generally if the noise is a martingale difference sequence (e.g. this covers some forms of price discreteness and diurnal volatility clustering in the noise). However, dependence which introduces autocorrelation in the noise could be troublesome. We might sometimes expect this feature if there are differential rates of price discovery in the different markets, e.g. an index fund leading price movements in the thinly traded Washington Post.

To overcome this kind of dependence in asset returns we define a “sparse realised QML” estimator, which corresponds to the sparse sampling realised variance. The approach we have explored is as follows.

We first list all the times of trades for asset i , which are written as $t_{j,i}$, which has a sample size of n_i . Now think about collecting a subset of these times, taking every k -th time of trade. We write these times as $t_{j,i}^*$ and the corresponding sample size as n_i^* . We perform the same thinning operation for each asset. Then the union of the corresponding times will be written as t_i^* . This

subset of the data can be analysed using the realised QML approach. Our asymptotic theory can be applied immediately to these $t_{j,i}^*$ and n_i^* , and the corresponding prices.

In practice it makes sense to amend this approach so that for each $n_i^* \geq n_{\min}$ where n_{\min} is something like 20 or 50. This enforces that there is little thinning on infrequently traded assets.

Once we have defined a sparse realised QML, it is obvious that we could also simply subsample this approach, which means constructing k sets of subsampled datasets and for each computing the corresponding quasi-likelihood. We then average the k quasi-likelihoods and maximise them using the corresponding EM algorithm. We call this the ‘‘subsampled realised QML’’ estimator. This is simple to code and has the virtue that it employs all of the data in the sample while being less sensitive to the i.i.d. assumption.

5 Monte Carlo experiments

5.1 Monte Carlo design

Throughout we follow the design of Ait-Sahalia, Fan, and Xiu (2010), which is a bivariate model. Each day financial markets are open will be taken as lasting $T = 1/252$ units of time, so $T = 1$ would represent a financial year. Here we recall the structure of their model

$$dy_{it} = \alpha_{it}dt + \sigma_{it}dW_{it}, \quad d\sigma_{it}^2 = \kappa_i (\bar{\sigma}_i^2 - \sigma_{it}^2) dt + s_i \sigma_{it} dB_{it} + \sigma_{it} J_{it}^V dN_{it}$$

where $E(dW_{it}dB_{jt}) = \delta_{ij}\rho_i dt$ and $E(dW_{1t}dW_{2t}|\rho^*) = \rho^* dt$. Here $\kappa_i > 0$.

Ignoring the impact of jumps, the variance process σ_{it}^2 has a marginal distribution given by $\Gamma(2\kappa_i \bar{\sigma}_i^2 / s_i^2, s_i^2 / 2\kappa_i)$. Throughout when jumps happen the log-jumps $\log J_{it}^V \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\theta_i, \mu_i)$, while N_{it} is a Poisson process with intensity λ_i . Likewise $\varepsilon_{it} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, a_i^2)$.

We now depart slightly from their setup. For each day we draw independently $\sigma_{i0}^2 \sim \Gamma(2\kappa_i \bar{\sigma}_i^2 / s_i^2, s_i^2 / 2\kappa_i)$ over $i = 1, 2$, which means each replication will be independent. For each separate day we simulate independently $\rho^* \sim \rho_0 \text{Beta}(\rho_1^*, \rho_2^*)$, where $\rho_0 = \sqrt{(1 - \rho_1^2)(1 - \rho_2^2)}$, guarantees the positive-definiteness of the covariance matrix of (W_1, W_2, B_1, B_2) . This means $E(\rho^*) = \rho_0 \rho_1^* / (\rho_1^* + \rho_2^*)$ and $sd(\rho^*) = \rho_0 \sqrt{\rho_1^* \rho_2^*} / \{(\rho_1^* + \rho_2^*) \sqrt{\rho_1^* + \rho_2^* + 1}\}$. The values of $a_i, \alpha_i, \rho_i, \kappa_i, \theta_i, \mu_i, \lambda_i, s_i, \bar{\sigma}_i^2, \rho_1^*$ and ρ_2^* are given in Table 1. To check our limit theory calculations, Figure 2 plots the histograms of the

	a_i	α_i	ρ_i	κ_i	θ_i	μ_i	λ_i	$\bar{\sigma}_i^2$	s_i		
$i = 1$	0.005	0.05	-0.6	3	-5	0.8	12	0.16	0.8	$\rho_1^* = 2$	$\rho_0 = 0.529$
$i = 2$	0.001	0.01	-0.75	2	-6	1.2	36	0.09	0.5	$\rho_2^* = 1$	$E(\rho^*) = 0.176$
											$sd(\rho^*) = 0.125$

Table 1: Parameter values which index the Monte Carlo design. Simulates from a bivariate model.

standardized pivotal statistics (standardising using the infeasible true random asymptotic variance

in each case) with 1,000 Monte Carlo repetitions sampled regularly in time at frequency of every 10 seconds, that is $n = 2,340$. This corresponds to an 6.5 hour trading day, which is the case for the NYSE and NASDAQ (we note the LSE and Xetra are open for 8.5 hours a day). The histograms show the limiting result provides a reasonable guide to the finite sample behaviour in these cases.

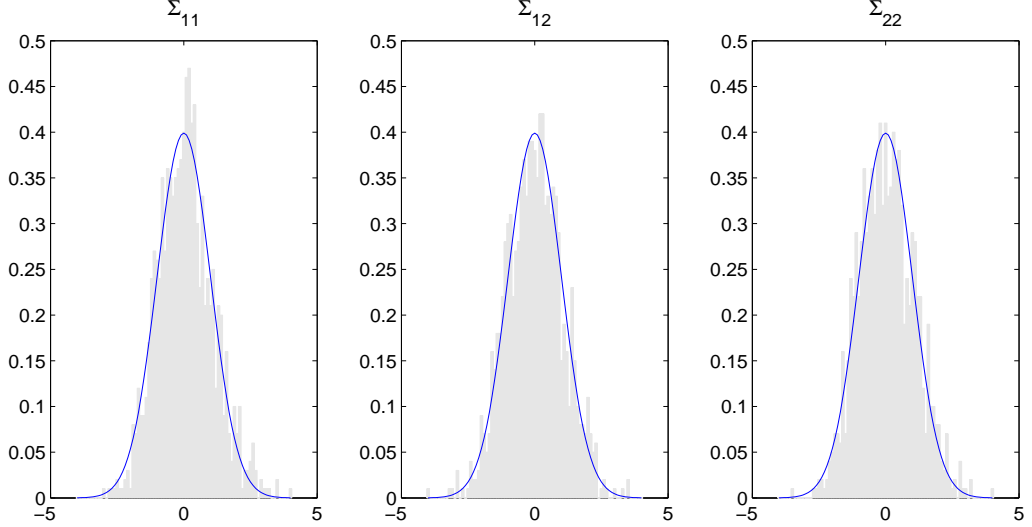


Figure 2: The figure plots the histograms of the standardized pivotal statistics, which verify the asymptotic theory developed in Theorem 2. The standardisation is carried out using the infeasible true random asymptotic variance for each replication.

In our main Monte Carlo we take $n \in \{117, 1170, 11700\}$ and all results are based on 1,000 stochastically independent replications. Having fixed the overall sample size n we randomly and uniform scatter these points over the time interval $t \in [0, T]$, recalling $T = 1/252$. For asset 1 we will scatter exactly nF points and for asset 2 there will be exactly $n(1 - F)$ points. This kind of stratified scatter corresponds to a sample from a Poisson bridge process with intensity nF/T and $n(1 - F)/T$, respectively. We call F the mixture rate and take $F \in \{0.1, 0.5, 0.9\}$.

We will report on the accuracy on the daily estimation of the random $\Sigma_{11} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{11,t} dt$, $\Sigma_{22} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{22,t} dt$, $\Sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{12,t} dt$, $\rho_{1,2} = \Sigma_{12} / \sqrt{\Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{22}}$, $\beta_{1|2} = \Sigma_{12} / \Sigma_{22}$, $\beta_{2|1} = \Sigma_{12} / \Sigma_{11}$.

5.2 Our suite of estimators

We will compute six estimators of Σ_{11} , Σ_{22} , Σ_{12} , $\beta_{1|2}$, $\beta_{2|1}$ and $\rho_{1,2}$. The six are: (i) realised QML, (ii) multistep realised QML estimator, (iii) blocked realised QML³, (iv) realised QML but using the reduced data synchronised by Refresh Time, (v) the realised kernel of Barndorff-Nielsen,

³The number of blocks was taken to be $\sqrt{n}/3$. Sometimes this yielded very unequally sized blocks in which case we decreased the number of blocks so that there were at least two observations for each asset.

Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2011) which uses Refresh Time, (vi) Ait-Sahalia, Fan, and Xiu (2010) which uses polarisation and Refresh time. We will use the notation θ_{QML} , θ_{Step} , θ_{Bloc} , θ_{RT} , θ_{Kern} , θ_{Pol} , respectively, where θ is some particular parameter. We write this generically as θ_L , with $L \in \{QML, Step, Bloc, RT, Kern, Pol\}$, and the corresponding estimator as $\widehat{\theta}_L$.

All the estimators but (vi) deliver positive semi-definite estimators. Only (i) and (ii) use all the data, the others are based on Refresh Time. (i)-(iv) and (vi) converge at the optimal rate. (iii) should be the most efficient, followed by (i), then (ii), then (iii), then (vi) and finally (v).

5.3 Results

Throughout we report in Table 2 simulation based estimates of the 0.9 quantiles of $\left|n^{1/4}(\widehat{\theta}_L - \theta_L)\right|$ for various values of n , L and F . The table also shows $n^{1/4}$, which allows us to see the actual speed by which the quantiles for $\left|\widehat{\theta}_L - \theta_L\right|$ contract.

The results indicate that all six estimators perform roughly similarly for Σ_{11} and Σ_{22} when $F = 0.5$, with a small degree of underperformance for RT, Kern and Pol. When the data was more unbalanced, with $F = 0.1$ or 0.9 , then RT, Kern and Pol were considerably worse while realised QML being the best by a small margin. Bloc was a little disappointing when estimating the volatility of the less liquid asset. QML almost always outperformed Step but not by a great deal. The quantiles for Kern seem to mildly increase with n , which is what we would expect due to their slower rate of convergence.

For the measure of dependence Σ_{12} there are signs that the realised QML type estimators “QML”, “Step” and “Bloc” perform better than “RT”. All seem to perform more strongly than the existing “Kern” and “Pol” estimators. The differences are less important in the case where $F = 0.5$.

When we move onto $\rho_{1,2}$ the differences become more significant, although we recall that realised QML and Step are identical in this case. When $F = 0.9$ then Pol estimator struggles with the quantiles being around twice that of QML and Bloc. A doubling of the quantile is massive, for these estimators are converging at rate $n^{1/4}$ so halving a quantile needs the sample size to increase by $2^4 = 16$ fold. The results for Kern sit between Pol and QML, while RT is disappointing. This latter result shows it is the effect of refresh time sampling which is hitting these estimators. QML is able to coordinate the data more effectively. Similar results hold for $F = 0.1$. Overall the new methods seem to deliver an order of magnitude improvement in the accuracy of the estimator. In the balanced sampling case of $F = 0.5$ the differences are more moderate but similar.

Before we progress to the regression case it is helpful to calibrate how accurately we have estimated $\rho_{1,2}$ in the realised QML case. When $F = 0.1$ the quantile is 2.61 with $n = 117$, so

			$F = 0.9$						$F = 0.5$						$F = 0.1$					
	n	$n^{1/4}$	QML	Step	Bloc	RT	Kern	Pol	QML	Step	Bloc	RT	Kern	Pol	QML	Step	Bloc	RT	Kern	Pol
$\hat{\Sigma}_{11}$	117	3.29	0.40	0.43	0.42	0.75	0.78	0.79	0.49	0.52	0.61	0.49	0.55	0.54	0.72	0.72	0.77	0.74	0.69	0.72
	1,170	5.84	0.38	0.39	0.43	0.70	0.84	0.79	0.44	0.45	0.59	0.48	0.74	0.47	0.69	0.73	1.25	0.70	0.83	0.73
	11,700	10.3	0.36	0.35	0.43	0.63	0.95	0.64	0.42	0.43	0.57	0.43	0.95	0.43	0.63	0.67	1.93	0.65	0.96	0.67
$\hat{\Sigma}_{12}$	117	3.29	0.23	0.22	0.24	0.27	0.32	0.31	0.19	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.22	0.22	0.27	0.24	0.31	0.28	0.33	0.32
	1,170	5.84	0.19	0.19	0.21	0.25	0.35	0.31	0.17	0.17	0.19	0.17	0.22	0.20	0.25	0.24	0.30	0.25	0.35	0.32
	11,700	10.3	0.18	0.18	0.19	0.23	0.36	0.27	0.17	0.17	0.19	0.17	0.22	0.18	0.22	0.22	0.28	0.24	0.34	0.27
$\hat{\Sigma}_{22}$	117	3.29	0.29	0.35	0.31	0.29	0.39	0.35	0.16	0.20	0.16	0.19	0.24	0.19	0.13	0.16	0.13	0.29	0.40	0.35
	1,170	5.84	0.23	0.29	0.36	0.23	0.46	0.29	0.14	0.16	0.15	0.15	0.26	0.16	0.11	0.14	0.13	0.22	0.46	0.28
	11,700	10.3	0.21	0.22	0.24	0.21	0.42	0.22	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.25	0.15	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.21	0.45	0.24
$\hat{\rho}_{1,2}$	117	3.29	2.35	2.35	2.34	3.05	2.96	8.14	1.83	1.83	1.69	2.02	1.58	2.46	2.61	2.61	2.62	3.21	2.81	7.06
	1,170	5.84	1.60	1.60	1.83	2.53	2.54	3.10	1.62	1.62	1.66	1.66	1.72	1.86	2.27	2.27	2.31	2.50	2.52	3.04
	11,700	10.3	1.48	1.48	1.92	2.17	2.61	2.47	1.43	1.43	1.70	1.54	2.07	1.67	1.99	1.99	2.77	2.11	2.57	2.47
$\hat{\beta}_{1 2}$	117	3.29	6.36	11.70	6.26	7.10	7.69	14.09	3.20	3.28	3.66	3.36	3.41	4.05	5.12	4.97	5.33	7.76	7.91	13.98
	1,170	5.84	3.18	3.24	3.99	4.09	4.75	4.82	2.62	2.61	2.98	2.82	3.00	3.03	3.56	3.65	4.68	4.12	5.06	4.93
	11,700	10.3	2.82	2.86	4.23	4.10	5.50	4.36	2.62	2.64	3.00	2.82	3.44	3.04	3.52	3.54	4.49	3.78	5.06	4.65
$\hat{\beta}_{2 1}$	117	3.29	2.97	2.55	2.57	7.62	3.22	23.27	3.28	3.38	1.90	3.85	1.75	4.17	5.60	11.05	3.41	7.18	3.42	15.16
	1,170	5.84	2.05	2.02	2.13	3.91	3.17	4.44	2.14	2.23	2.17	2.25	2.60	2.51	3.31	3.79	3.07	3.89	3.29	4.72
	11,700	10.3	1.68	1.67	2.67	3.04	3.26	3.20	1.75	1.76	2.72	1.91	3.61	1.97	2.66	2.65	4.90	2.83	3.50	3.24

Table 2: Monte Carlo results for the volatility, covariance, correlation and beta estimation. Throughout we report the 0.9 quantiles of $|n^{1/4}(\hat{\theta}_L - \theta_L)|$ over the 1,000 independent replications. F denotes the percentage of the data corresponding to trades in asset 1. “QML” is our multivariate QMLE. “Step” is our multistep QMLE. “Bloc” is our blocked multivariate QMLE. “RT” is our multivariate QML using the Refresh Time. “Kern” is the existing multivariate realised kernel. “Pol” is the existing polarisation and Refresh Time estimator. The numbers in bold indicates the minimum of quantiles in comparison.

the corresponding quantile for $|\hat{\theta}_{QML} - \theta_{QML}|$ is 0.794. When $n = 1,170$ it is 0.388. When $n = 11,700$ it is 0.191. In the balanced case $F = 0.5$ the corresponding results are 0.556, 0.277 and 0.137. Hence balanced data helps, but not by very much as long as n is moderately large and the realised QML method is used. Balancing is much more important for RT, Kern and Pol. We think this makes the realised QML approach distinctly promising. A final point is worth noting. Even though $n = 11,700$ the quantiles in the balanced case of 0.137 are not close to zero. Hence although we can non-parametrically estimate the correlation between assets, the estimation in practice is not without important error. This is important econometrically when we come to using these objects for forecasting or decision making.

The regression cases deliver the same type of results to the correlation, with again the QML, Step, and Bloc performing around an order of magnitude better than RT, Kern and Pol.

6 Empirical implementation

6.1 Our database

We use data from the cleaned trade database developed by Lunde, Shephard, and Sheppard (2012). It is taken from the TAQ database accessed through the Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS) system. They followed the step-by-step cleaning procedure used in Barndorff-Nielsen, Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2009). Their cleaning rules include using data from a single exchange, selected as the one which generates the most trades on each day. It should also be noted that no quote information is used in the data cleaning process. The exchanges open at 9.30 and close at 16.00 local time.

An important feature of this TAQ data is that times are recorded to a second, so we take the median of multiple trades which occur in the same second. This can be thought of as a form of miniature preaveraging. As prices are recorded in seconds the maximum sample size is $60 \times 60 \times 6.5 = 23,400$.

The data range from 1st January 2006 until 31st December 2009. We have selected 13 stocks from the S&P 500 with the aim of having 2 infrequently traded and 11 highly traded assets. This will allow us to assess the estimator in different types of data environments.

The assets we study are the Spyder (SPY), an S&P 500 ETF, along with some of the most liquid stocks in the Dow Jones 30 index. These are: Alcoa (AA), American Express (AXP), Bank of America (BAC), Coca Cola (KO), Du Pont (DD), General Electric (GE), International Business Machines (IBM), JP Morgan (JPM), Microsoft (MSFT), and Exxon Mobil (XOM). We supplement these 11 series with two relatively infrequently traded stocks: Washington Post (WPO) and Berkshire Hathaway Inc. New Com (BRK-B). These 13 series are “unbalanced” in terms of

individual daily sample sizes, while the restricted 11 series are reasonably “balanced”.

6.2 Summaries

6.2.1 Sample sizes

Figure 3 shows the sample sizes of each asset on each day through time. What we plot is the median sample size of the 13 series together with the following quantile ranges: 0 to 25%, 25% to 75%, 75% to maximum. These ranges are indicated by shading. This is backed up by a line indicating the median. In addition we show the Refresh Time sample sizes when we use the 11 assets (denoted RefT1) and the corresponding result for all the 13 assets (RefT2). This type of “trading intensity graph” is highly informative and has the property that it scales with the number of assets. It first appeared in Lunde, Shephard, and Sheppard (2012) (who used it to look at 100s of assets).

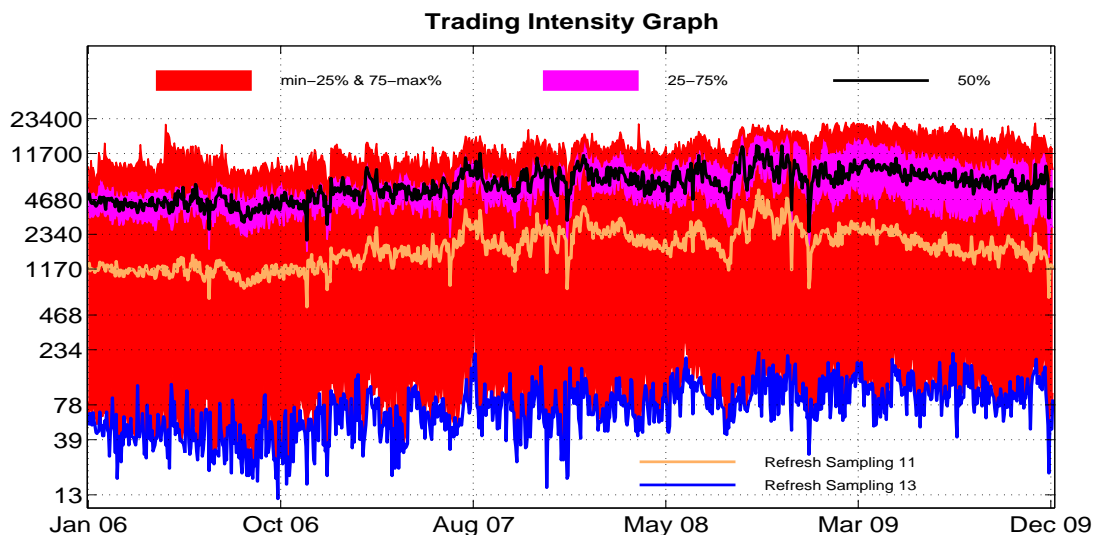


Figure 3: The trading intensity graph for our 13 assets. The figure plots the min, max, 25%, 50%, and 75% quantiles of the number of observations for the cleaned dataset. The number of refresh sampling for the 11 asset (RefT1) and 13 asset (RefT2) databases are also plotted.

The trading intensity graph shows the median intensity for the 13 assets is around 5,000 a day, slightly increasing through time. The maximum daily sample sizes are around 15,000, a tad below the feasible maximum of 23,400. The Refresh time for the 11 assets delivers a sample size of around 1,000 a day. However, for the 13 asset case the Refresh time dives down to around 60 a day. This is, of course, driven by the presence of the slow trading WPO and BRK-B.

This trading intensity graph demonstrates that the Refresh time approach is limited, for in large unbalanced systems it will lead to a significant reduction in the amount of data available to us. This could damage the effectiveness of the realised kernel or preaveraging in properly estimating

the covariances between highly active assets.

6.3 Volatilities

6.3.1 Summary statistics

We start our analysis of the realised quantities by looking at the univariate volatilities. We will compare realised QML with realised kernels and realised volatilities. The comparison will be made using estimators which use the one dimensional datasets and those based on the 13 dimensional series. The question is whether the use of the high dimensional series will disrupt the behaviour of the volatility estimators, due to the use of Refresh time⁴.

In our web appendix we give a detailed analysis of each of the 13 sets of series and their associated volatility estimators. Here we will focus on a single representative series, Exxon Mobile Corporation common stock (XOM), and some cross sectional summaries. It is important not to overreact to the specific features of a single series, we will make remarks only on characteristics which work out in the cross section.

Figure 4 shows 6 graphs. The first graph has the daily open to close returns, scaled by $\sqrt{252}$ to place the data on an annual scale. Here 2 roughly represents 200% annualised volatility. The middle and right hand top graphs show the time series of the daily estimates of the QML volatility in the series, drawn on the log10 scale. The first uses the univariate data, the second comes out of the 13 dimensional covariance fit. There is not a great deal of difference. For those unfamiliar with these type of non-parametric graphs, there is absolutely no time series smoothing here, the open to close volatility each day is estimated only with data on that day. The results are stunning, the volatility changes by an order of magnitude during this period. As the web appendix shows, this is entirely common across the assets.

For the moment we can now turn to Table 3 which shows summaries of the volatility estimators. They work in the following ways. Means are the square root of the average daily variance measure. For Open to Close returns this is simple the daily standard deviation. For the realised quantities this is the square root of the time series mean of the daily square volatility. For the autocorrelations, we report here results for lag 1 and lag 100. The results are always the autocorrelations of the

⁴To be explicit, when we compute the realised kernel we take the data and approximately synchronise it using Refresh Time. This synchronised dataset is then used in all the realised kernel calculations. In the case where the analysis is carried out using the univariate databases, Refresh Time has no impact. In the 13 dimensional case it dramatically reduces the sample size due to the inclusion of the slow trading markets.

When we sparsely sample, we first sparsely sample and then compute the Refresh Time coordination. This has less impact than one might expect at first sight, as sparsely sampling has little impact on the slow trading stocks and these largely determine the Refresh Times. Hence the realised kernel will not be very impacted by sparse sampling in the multivariate case.

There is an argument that with the realised kernel we should only report results for sparsity being one, as that is the way it was introduced. For completeness though we have recomputed it for all the different levels of sparsity.

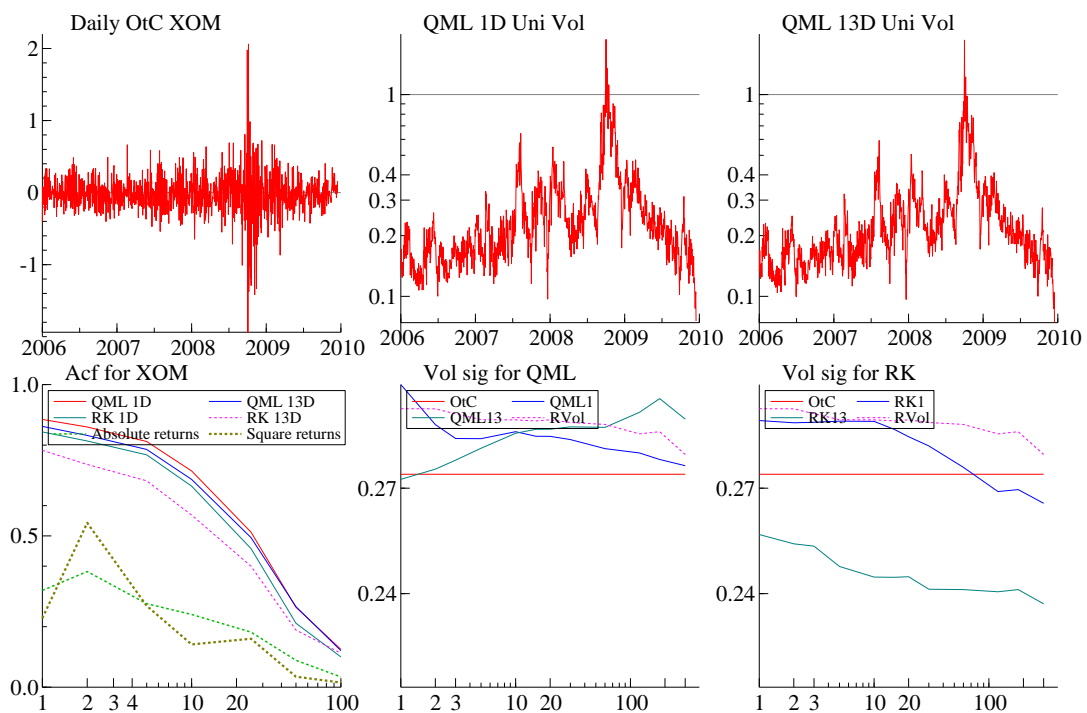


Figure 4: The log daily returns scaled by $\sqrt{252}$ to produce annual numbers. Vol for XOM computed using QML on the univariate series and in the 13 dimensional case. Multiply numbers by 100 to get yearly % changes. All acf calculations are based on volatilities, not variances, except for the squared returns. Vol sig are volatility signature plots, which plot as a function of sparsity the square root of the temporal average of the realised variance, realised QML, etc. Middle picture is the results for QML, right hand side is the results for the realised kernel (RK).

volatilities, not the squared volatilities. In terms of Open to Close returns, this means we report the autocorrelations of the absolute returns.

The Table reports results for 1 and 13 dimensions. It also gives results for different levels of sparse sampling, ranging from 1 trade (which means all the available 1 second return data is used) to 300 trades (which means taking every 300 trade). As the level of sparsity increases we might expect any bias in these estimators to fall but for them to become more variable.

Mkt	Dimen	Spar	QML			Vol RK			RV		
			Mean	acf 1	acf 100	Mean	acf 1	acf 100	Mean	acf 1	acf 100
XOM	OtC		0.27	0.32	0.03						
XOM	1	1	0.30	0.89	0.13	0.29	0.84	0.10	0.29	0.88	0.10
XOM	1	2	0.29	0.84	0.10	0.29	0.83	0.09	0.29	0.87	0.11
XOM	1	3	0.28	0.83	0.10	0.29	0.82	0.09	0.29	0.86	0.10
XOM	1	5	0.28	0.83	0.10	0.29	0.81	0.09	0.29	0.85	0.10
XOM	1	10	0.29	0.82	0.11	0.29	0.80	0.09	0.29	0.83	0.09
XOM	1	15	0.28	0.82	0.10	0.29	0.80	0.09	0.29	0.83	0.09
XOM	1	20	0.28	0.81	0.10	0.28	0.80	0.09	0.29	0.83	0.09
XOM	1	30	0.28	0.79	0.09	0.28	0.81	0.09	0.29	0.82	0.09
XOM	1	60	0.28	0.80	0.10	0.28	0.82	0.08	0.29	0.79	0.09
XOM	1	120	0.28	0.81	0.10	0.27	0.81	0.09	0.29	0.79	0.09
XOM	1	180	0.28	0.78	0.09	0.27	0.80	0.09	0.29	0.79	0.08
XOM	1	300	0.28	0.76	0.09	0.27	0.78	0.08	0.28	0.81	0.08
XOM	13	1	0.27	0.86	0.12	0.26	0.78	0.11	0.29	0.88	0.10
XOM	13	2	0.28	0.84	0.10	0.25	0.78	0.12	0.29	0.87	0.11
XOM	13	3	0.28	0.84	0.10	0.25	0.78	0.12	0.29	0.86	0.10
XOM	13	5	0.28	0.83	0.10	0.25	0.76	0.11	0.29	0.85	0.10
XOM	13	10	0.29	0.82	0.11	0.24	0.74	0.09	0.29	0.83	0.09
XOM	13	15	0.29	0.82	0.11	0.24	0.72	0.09	0.29	0.83	0.09
XOM	13	20	0.29	0.81	0.10	0.24	0.72	0.09	0.29	0.83	0.09
XOM	13	30	0.29	0.80	0.10	0.24	0.71	0.09	0.29	0.82	0.09
XOM	13	60	0.29	0.82	0.10	0.24	0.74	0.09	0.29	0.79	0.09
XOM	13	120	0.29	0.78	0.10	0.24	0.72	0.08	0.29	0.79	0.09
XOM	13	180	0.30	0.78	0.09	0.24	0.71	0.08	0.29	0.79	0.08
XOM	13	300	0.29	0.80	0.10	0.24	0.72	0.09	0.28	0.81	0.08

Table 3: OtC summaries. Unconditional volatilities of annualised daily log returns. Multiply by 100 to produce percentages. The acf of the OtC is the acf of the absolute value of the daily returns.

We first focus on the one dimensional case. The Table indicates at sparsity of 1 the QML estimator is slightly above the OtC average level of volatility, while this average level is roughly constant as sparsity varies above 1. The autocorrelation for these realised quantities is very much higher than for the absolute returns, both at lag 1 and 100. Roughly similar results hold for the realised kernel. Here the realised volatility does quite well, with roughly the same average value and a high degree of autocorrelation. This is the case in roughly half the series, the other half show quite pronounced upward bias in the estimator for low levels of sparsity. This is the famous upward bias of realised volatility due to market microstructure noise which has prompted

Mkt	Dimen	Spar	GARCHX											
			QML				RK				RV			
			α	β	γ	logL	α	β	γ	logL	α	β	γ	logL
XOM		1	0.10	0.86										
XOM	1	1	0.03	0.58	0.24	30.8	0.01	0.62	0.26	31.7	0.01	0.51	0.34	31.4
XOM	1	2	0.01	0.62	0.26	33.3	0.01	0.64	0.26	31.8	0.01	0.55	0.30	31.8
XOM	1	3	0.01	0.63	0.27	32.8	0.01	0.64	0.25	31.6	0.01	0.60	0.27	31.9
XOM	1	5	0.01	0.63	0.27	32.7	0.01	0.66	0.24	31.4	0.01	0.63	0.25	31.7
XOM	1	10	0.01	0.67	0.23	31.3	0.01	0.69	0.22	31.1	0.01	0.64	0.26	32.5
XOM	1	15	0.01	0.70	0.21	30.3	0.01	0.70	0.22	30.2	0.01	0.64	0.25	31.7
XOM	1	20	0.01	0.73	0.19	29.6	0.01	0.71	0.21	29.7	0.01	0.65	0.24	31.7
XOM	1	30	0.01	0.74	0.18	27.8	0.01	0.72	0.20	28.8	0.01	0.67	0.23	31.3
XOM	1	60	0.01	0.75	0.18	27.3	0.00	0.72	0.22	28.0	0.01	0.71	0.20	30.0
XOM	1	120	0.01	0.74	0.19	27.3	0.00	0.74	0.21	26.2	0.01	0.74	0.19	28.1
XOM	1	180	0.00	0.75	0.19	27.3	0.01	0.75	0.20	27.1	0.01	0.75	0.17	26.9
XOM	1	300	0.00	0.77	0.17	25.7	0.01	0.76	0.19	26.3	0.01	0.75	0.18	25.8
XOM	13	1	0.02	0.63	0.27	31.9	0.00	0.72	0.25	29.9	0.01	0.51	0.34	31.4
XOM	13	2	0.01	0.63	0.29	33.0	0.00	0.71	0.26	30.3	0.01	0.54	0.30	31.7
XOM	13	3	0.01	0.63	0.29	32.7	0.00	0.74	0.23	29.3	0.02	0.56	0.29	31.6
XOM	13	5	0.01	0.63	0.27	32.1	0.00	0.77	0.23	30.0	0.01	0.60	0.27	31.8
XOM	13	10	0.01	0.65	0.24	31.2	0.00	0.76	0.24	27.5	0.01	0.62	0.26	32.1
XOM	13	15	0.01	0.67	0.23	30.7	0.00	0.77	0.23	27.2	0.01	0.63	0.26	32.5
XOM	13	20	0.01	0.69	0.21	29.4	0.00	0.76	0.24	28.7	0.01	0.62	0.26	32.5
XOM	13	30	0.01	0.70	0.20	29.0	0.00	0.77	0.24	29.2	0.01	0.65	0.24	32.4
XOM	13	60	0.02	0.71	0.20	28.3	0.00	0.76	0.25	27.8	0.01	0.69	0.22	31.4
XOM	13	120	0.01	0.75	0.18	27.5	0.00	0.78	0.23	26.8	0.01	0.70	0.21	30.4
XOM	13	180	0.01	0.76	0.16	27.0	0.00	0.80	0.22	26.5	0.01	0.72	0.19	28.9
XOM	13	300	0.01	0.76	0.16	25.7	0.00	0.81	0.20	21.3	0.01	0.74	0.18	26.7

Table 4: Forecasting exercises. GARCHX models. LogL denotes increase in the log-likelihood compared to the GARCH model. $\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \alpha y_{t-1}^2 + \beta \sigma_{t-1}^2 + \gamma x_{t-1}$, where x_t is a realised quantity.

such a large amount of theoretical work (e.g. Zhou (1996), Zhang, Mykland, and Ait-Sahalia (2005), Jacod, Li, Mykland, Podolskij, and Vetter (2009) and Barndorff-Nielsen, Hansen, Lunde, and Shephard (2008)).

When we move to the 13 dimensional case the only substantial impact is on the realised kernel when the autocorrelations considerably fall. This is consistent with a deterioration in their quality caused by the use of Refresh Time. The QML estimator is hardly effected and of course realised volatility is not effected at all.

If we return to Figure 4 now some of these points are reiterated. The bottom left shows the autocorrelation function of the different estimators and show the deterioration in the realised kernel with dimension. It also shows the acf of the absolute and squared returns, indicating how much more noisy these estimators are. The middle graph shows the volatility signature plot of the realised quantities as a function of the level of sparsity. Recall the volatility signature plot is the square root of the temporal average of the realised estimator of the variance. It should be roughly flat as a function of sparsity if the estimator is robust to market microstructure effects. This is

true here. The seemingly small upward bias in some of the estimator is not material and will be matched by some other series which go the other way — QML and realised kernel are basically unbiased in this cross section. The results do not change when we look at the right hand picture, which shows the same thing for the 13 dimensional case. Realised kernels do not really exhibit bias in this case, Refresh Time impacts their variability.

6.3.2 Volatility forecasting

Another way of seeing the relative importance of these realised measures is through a prediction exercise. Here we use GARCHX models, supplementing the usual GARCH models of returns with X variables which are logged realised variance type quantities. In particular we fit $\sigma_t^2 = \text{Var}(y_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}^{y,x})$ where

$$\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \alpha y_{t-1}^2 + \beta \sigma_{t-1}^2 + \gamma x_{t-1}.$$

Here y_t is the t -th open to close return. These kind of extended GARCH models are now common in the literature, examples include Engle and Gallo (2006), Brownlees and Gallo (2010), Shephard and Sheppard (2010), Noureldin, Shephard, and Sheppard (2012), Hansen, Huang, and Shek (2011) and Hansen, Lunde, and Voev (2010).

The model is fitted using a Gaussian quasi-likelihood with

$$-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=12}^n \left(\log \sigma_t^2 + \frac{y_t^2}{\sigma_t^2} \right),$$

taking $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{11} \sum_{t=1}^{11} y_t^2$. Here we will report only the estimated α, β, γ and the change the log likelihood in comparison with the simpler GARCH model. Clearly those changes are going to be non-negative by construction. If the presence of the realised quantity moves the likelihood up a great deal we will think this is evidence for its statistical usefulness. The results for all 13 assets are in our Web Appendix.

We first just focus on the XOM case. Table 4 shows the results in the univariate and 13 dimensional cases. The results show across the board important improvements when using the realised quantities and α is basically forced to zero. This is the common feature of these models in the literature, once the realised quantities are there there is no need for the square return (Shephard and Sheppard (2010)). Further β falls dramatically and meaningfully. It means that the average lookback of the forecast on past data has reduced considerably, making it also more robust to structural breaks.

For some series the realised volatility adds little when the sparsity is 1 (due to the impact of the market microstructure), but this is not the case for XOM. There is some evidence that the QML

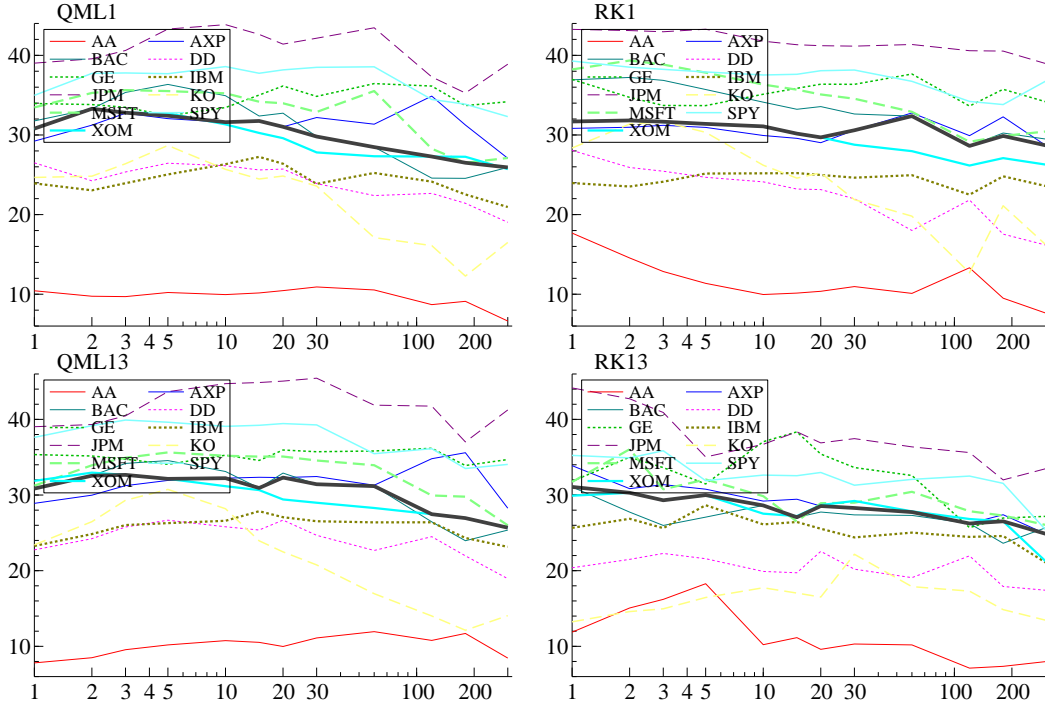


Figure 5: logL improvement in GARCHX compared to GARCH, where X is the realised quantity. High values are thus good. X-axis is the level of sparsity. Top left is the 1 dimensional realised QML result. Top right is the 1 dimensional realised kernel result. Bottom left is the 13 dimensional realised QML. Bottom right is the 13 dimensional realised kernel.

estimator does a little better when sparsity is a tiny amount above 1. All the estimators trail off as the sparsity gets large.

When we move to the 13 dimensional case the QML results hardly change and obviously the RVol case does not change at all. The realised kernel results are reasonably consistently damaged in this case, although the damage is not exceptional.

We can now average the log-likelihood changes using the cross-section of thickly traded stocks. The results are given in Figures 5, 6 and 7.

Figure 5 shows the change in the likelihood by including the realised quantities for the different assets, drawn against the level of sparsity. The thick line is the cross-sectional median. QML1 is the QML estimator based on the univariate series, QML13 estimator uses all 13 assets. RK denotes the corresponding results for the realised kernel. There are three noticeable features. The QML1 and QML13 results are very close. QML1 results get better as we move sparsity to 2 or 3 and then tail off. RK just tails off. RK13 looks a little worse than RK1.

Figure 6 reports the likelihood for QML minus the likelihood for RK. On the left hand side we deal with the univariate case. On the right the 13 dimensional case is the focus. So negative numbers prefer RK. This shows in the univariate case at sparsity of 1 RK is better, but this

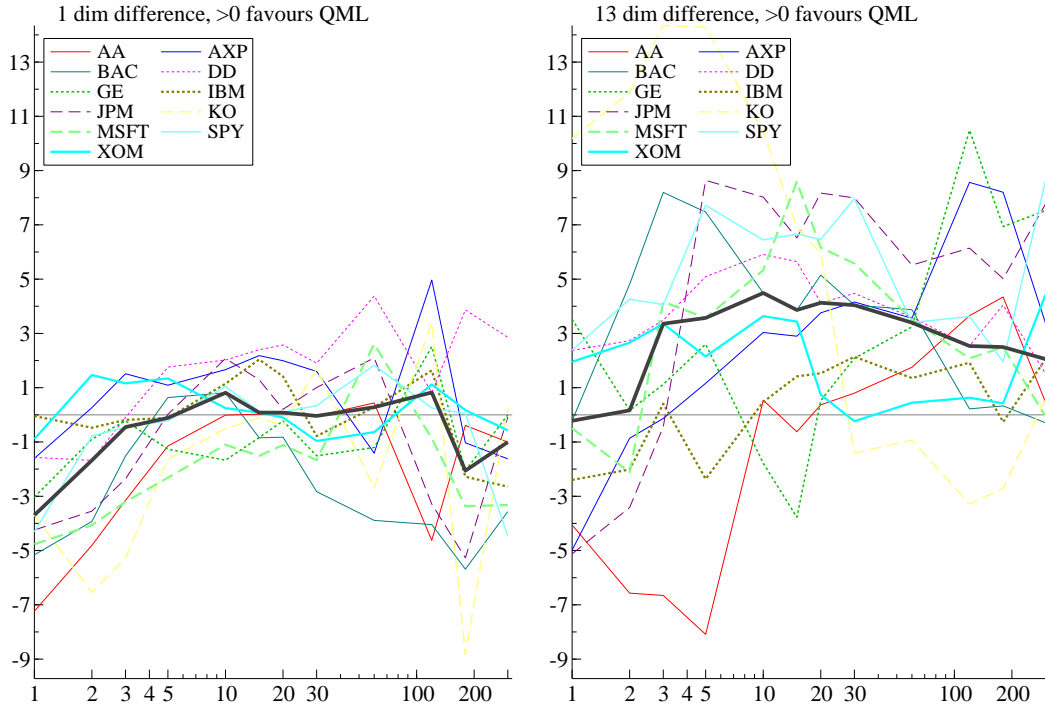


Figure 6: logL improvement of realised QML minus logL of RK, with numbers greater than 0 being supportive of QML. X-axis is the level of sparsity. Left hand side is the 1 dimensional case. Right hand side is the 13 case.

preference is removed by the time we reach sparsity of 3. After that they are basically the same. When we look at the 13 dimensional case, except for sparsity of 1, QML is better. This is consistent across many different levels of sparsity.

Finally, Figure 7 shows the difference in likelihood of the 13 dimensional model minus the likelihood for the 1 dimensional model. Thus a positive number means some damage is done to the predictions by using the 13 dimensional data rather than the univariate data. On the left hand side we report QML, on the right is RK. There are two things to see. First QML shows little change on average and the scatter in changes has little width. This means QML is hardly effected by the increase in dimension of the problem. The results for RK are very different, there are is a substantial reduction in the average fit, shown by the dark line, at all levels of sparsity. But further, the scatter in changes is quite large. Hence RK is indeed sensitive to the dimension, as expected.

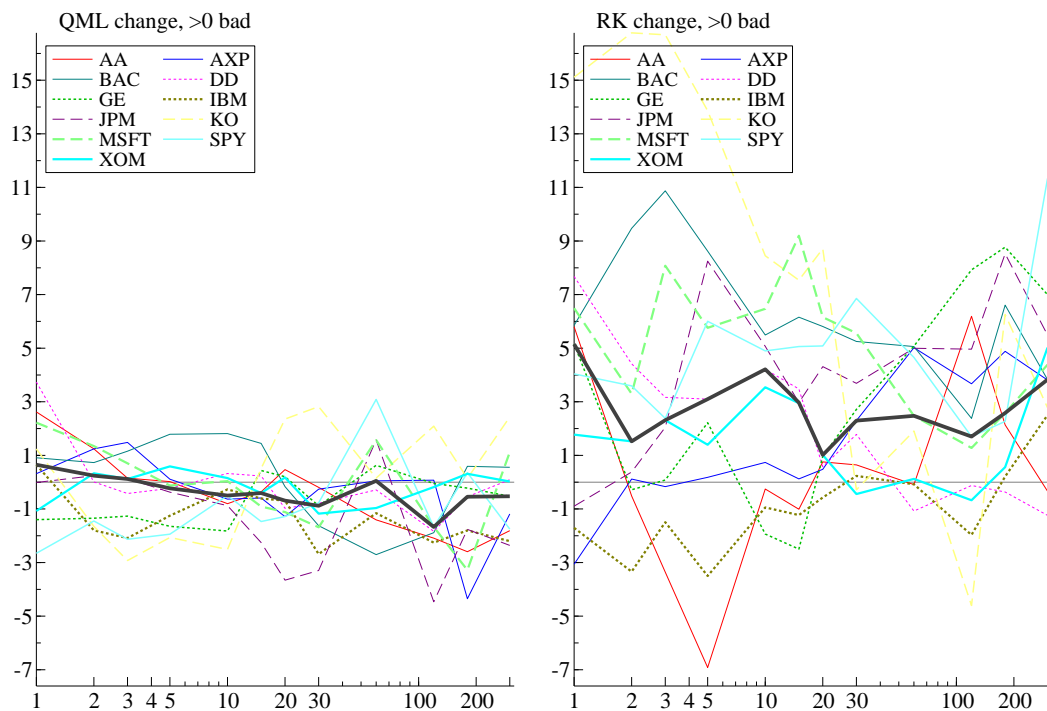


Figure 7: $\log L$ from the GARCHX model using 1 dimensional realised measure minus the $\log L$ from the GARCHX model using the 13 dimensional realised measure. Positive results thus suggest a fall in the fit using as the dimensional of the realised quantity increases. X-axis is the level of sparsity. Left hand side has the realised QML results. Right hand side has the realised kernel results.

6.4 Dependence

6.4.1 Summary statistics

We now turn to looking at covariation amongst the assets. We will focus on QML, realised kernel and realised covariance⁵ estimators, which are computed each day. In all cases they will be based on the 13 unbalanced database, which means we compute each day a 13 by 13 dimensional positive semidefinite estimator of the covariance matrix.

To look inside the covariance matrix we will focus on pairs of assets. To be concrete our focus will be on Bank of America (BAC) and SPY, the other 77 pairs are discussed in our web appendix. Again we will only flag up issues which hold up in the cross section.

The top left of Figure 8 shows the time series evolution of the conditional volatilities for these series based upon the past QMLs. Again these are plotted on the log10 scale. Of course it shows the typically lower level in the SPY series. What is key is that the wedge between these two series dramatically opens from 2008 onwards which means the ratio of the standard deviation of BAC and SPY has increased a great deal. If the correlation between the two series is stable this would deliver a massive increase in the “beta” of BAC. This is what actually happened, as can be seen in the middle top graph, which we will discuss in a moment.

The top right hand graph shows the time series of the daily correlations computed using the QML method. This shows a moderate increase in correlation during the crisis from around 0.55 up to around 0.7, with some weakening of the correlation from 2009 onwards after TARP.

If we return to the top middle graph we can see how enormously the beta changes through time. It was relatively stable until close to the end of 2007, but then it rapidly exploded reaching around 5 during some periods of the crisis. Nearly all of this move is a volatility induced change, although the correlation shift also has some impact. This boosting of the beta is also seen in our sample, but to a lesser extent, for J P Morgan and GE. The other stocks have more stable betas. Of course like Bank of America, J P Morgan is another financial company, while GE at the time has a significant exposure finance business.

Bottom left shows the autocorrelations of the QML, realised kernel, realised covariance and cross products of the open to close returns. These time series are quite heavy tailed and so heavily influenced by a handful of datapoints. This means it is particularly important to be careful in thinking through what these pictures means. There are a number of interesting features here. First the raw open to close returns have a small amount of autocorrelation in them, just as square

⁵For the realised covariance we use the last price update available at the times the prices are sampled. This means that for a d -dimensional dataset, at each price update $d - 1$ of the prices will be stale. For sparsity of 1 this will lead to significant bias in the covariance, the so-called Epps effect. For large sparsity the bias will be smaller however.

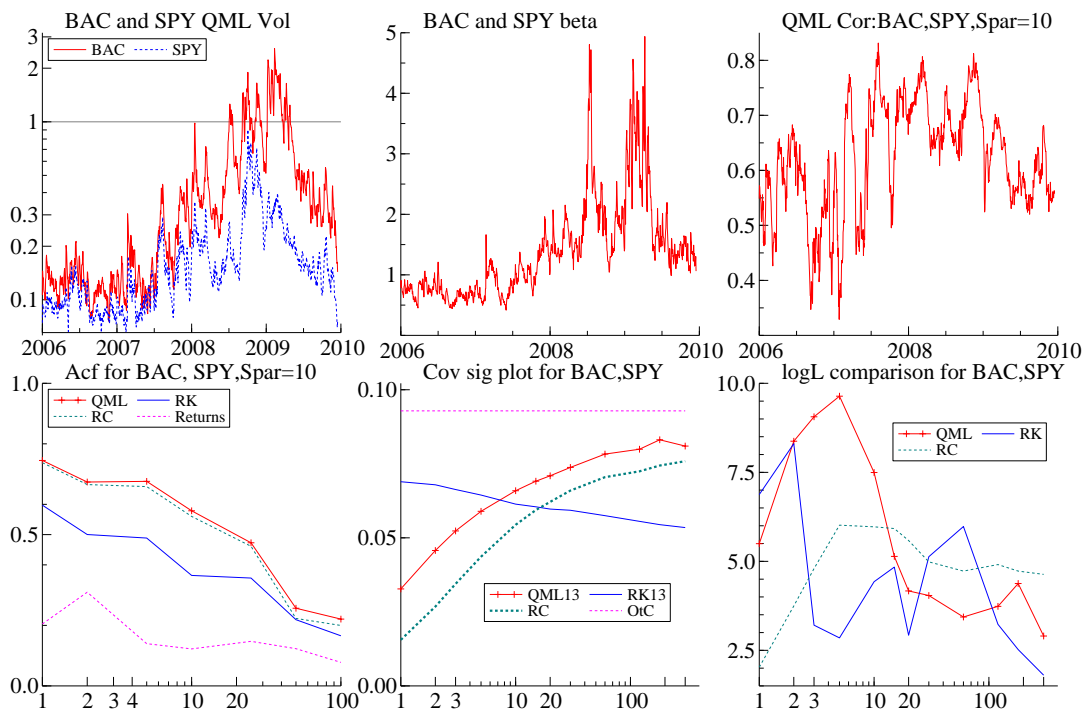


Figure 8: Summary picture for of the BAC and SPY pair. All realised quantities are computed using all 13 series. Top left are left are the conditional volatilities based upon the realised QMLs. Top middle, conditional beta for BAC on SPY. Top right is the daily realised QML covariance. Bottom right is the acf of the realised QML, realised kernel and realised covariance estimators. Also shown is the acf of the cross-product of the daily returns. Bottom middle is the covariance signature plot, graphed against the level of sparsity. Bottom right is the log likelihood improvement in model fit by including the realised quantity, graphed against the level of sparsity.

daily returns are only moderately autocorrelated. The realised kernel is quite a bit better, but the realised covariance and QML show stronger autocorrelation. This indicates they are less noisy estimators than the realised kernel and the open to close return based measure, although they have biases.

Spar	Covariance								
	QML			RK			RV		
OtC	Mean	acf 1	acf 100	Mean	acf 1	acf 100	Mean	acf 1	acf 100
1	0.03	0.79	0.21	0.06	0.55	0.17	0.01	0.68	0.16
2	0.04	0.80	0.19	0.06	0.53	0.16	0.02	0.69	0.13
3	0.05	0.80	0.18	0.06	0.45	0.14	0.03	0.74	0.14
5	0.05	0.79	0.18	0.06	0.51	0.16	0.04	0.72	0.15
10	0.06	0.76	0.18	0.06	0.51	0.18	0.05	0.74	0.15
15	0.06	0.76	0.19	0.06	0.54	0.18	0.05	0.75	0.16
20	0.07	0.74	0.20	0.05	0.54	0.19	0.06	0.76	0.17
30	0.07	0.70	0.20	0.05	0.51	0.19	0.06	0.74	0.17
60	0.07	0.61	0.16	0.05	0.55	0.20	0.07	0.67	0.18
120	0.07	0.52	0.16	0.05	0.56	0.21	0.07	0.61	0.16
180	0.08	0.66	0.22	0.05	0.54	0.20	0.07	0.55	0.14
300	0.08	0.56	0.21	0.05	0.44	0.17	0.07	0.63	0.18

Table 5: BAC and SPY pair summaries for the covariances. OtC denotes the open to close (annualised) daily log returns and the figure which follows it is the sample covariance of the returns. The acf of the OtC is the acf of the cross product of the returns, here reported at lags 1 and 100. QML, RK and RV are, respectively, the realised QML, the realised realised kernel and the realised covariance. All estimate the daily covariance of the series and are computed using the 13 dimensional database. Spar denotes sparsity. Mean is the temporal average of the time series.

Table 5 is more informative. It first shows the average open to close covariance during this sample. Then the Table shows the average level of the daily covariance estimator, using the QML, realised kernel and realised covariance. This is printed out for different levels of sparsity. The focus here is thus on the different biases in the estimators⁶. Estimating covariances is hard. The famous Epps effect can be seen through RV, which under estimates the covariance by an order of magnitude when using every trade. It takes sparsity of 10 to reproduce half of the correlation.

The same impression can be gleaned from looking at the lower part of Figure 8, which is a covariance signature plot — showing the temporal average of the daily covariance estimators as a function of the level of sparsity. We can see that for low levels of sparsity the realised kernel is the least biased and the realised covariance the most. For higher levels of sparsity the realised kernel gets a little worse and both the QML and realised covariance improves and overtakes the realised kernel. Throughout QML is better than the realised covariance by a considerable margin.

⁶Recall the realised kernel uses Refresh Time which is a kind of sparse sampling. Hence the fact that it has less bias at small levels of sparse sampling is not a surprise.

The Table also shows the autocorrelation of the individual time series, recording results at lags 1 and 100. These results are striking, with more dependence for the QML series than the realised kernel. This matches results we saw for the volatilities in the previous subsection.

6.4.2 Dependence forecasting

We now move on to forecasting. The focus will be on the conditional covariance matrix

$$\Sigma_t = \text{Cov}(y_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}^{y,x}),$$

where y_t is the d -dimensional open to close daily return vector. We will write $\Sigma_t = D_t R_t D_t$ where D_t is a diagonal matrix with conditional standard deviations on the diagonal where the conditional variances are $\sigma_{it}^2 = \text{Var}(y_{it} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}^{y,x})$ where

$$\sigma_{i,t}^2 = \omega_i + \alpha_i y_{i,t-1}^2 + \beta_i \sigma_{i,t-1}^2 + \gamma_i x_{i,t-1}, \quad \omega_i, \alpha_i, \beta_i, \gamma_i \geq 0.$$

This is the same conditional volatility model as we used in the previous subsection. We use these volatilities to construct

$$e_{i,t} = \frac{y_{i,t}}{\sigma_{i,t}}, \tag{11}$$

the i -th devolatilised series.

Here R_t is a conditional correlation matrix with i, j -th element

$$\text{Cor}(y_{i,t}, y_{j,t} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}^{y,x}) = \text{Cor}(e_{i,t}, e_{j,t} | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}^{y,x}).$$

It is the focus of this subsection.

In this exercise we will assume the following dynamic evolution

$$R_t = \omega \Pi + \alpha C_{t-1} + \beta R_{t-1} + \gamma X_{t-1}, \quad \omega, \alpha, \beta, \gamma \geq 0, \tag{12}$$

where $\omega + \alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1$, X is a realised type correlation matrix and Π is a matrix of parameters which form a correlation matrix. Here the ij -th element of C_t is a moving block correlation of the devolatilised series

$$C_{i,j,t} = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^M e_{i,t-s} e_{j,t-s}}{\sqrt{\left(\sum_{s=1}^M e_{i,t-s}^2\right) \left(\sum_{s=1}^M e_{j,t-s}^2\right)}} \in [-1, 1].$$

In the case where $M = d$ and there is no X variables, then (12) is the Tse and Tsui (2002) model⁷. However, throughout we take $M = 66$, representing around 3 months of past data. In

⁷An alternative would be to use the DCC model which would have the form of

$$Q_t = \omega \Pi + \alpha e_{t-1} e'_{t-1} + \beta Q_{t-1} + \gamma X_{t-1},$$

our experiments X will represent the realised QML, realised kernel and realised covariance matrices. We will take $R_t = C_M$ for all $t \leq M$.

The key feature of (12) is that it is made up of the weighted sum of four correlation matrices, where the weights sum to one. Hence R_t is always a correlation matrix. If X is biased, for example, then Π can partially compensate by not being the unconditional correlations of the innovations (11). We will see this happen in practice.

In order to tune the model and to assess the fit, we will work with the joint log-likelihood function

$$\begin{aligned}\log L &= -\frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma_t| - \frac{1}{2} y_t' \Sigma_t^{-1} y_t \\ &= \log L_M + \log L_C\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\log L_M &= -\frac{1}{2} \log |D_t|^2 - \frac{1}{2} (y_t' D_t^{-1})' (y_t' D_t^{-1}) = \sum_{j=1}^d \log L_{M_j} \\ \log L_{M_i} &= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=M+1}^n \left(\log \sigma_{it}^2 + \frac{y_{it}^2}{\sigma_{it}^2} \right), \\ \log L_C &= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=M+1}^n \left(\log |R_t| + \frac{1}{2} e_t' R_t^{-1} e_t - e_t' e_t \right).\end{aligned}$$

We define here $e_t = D_t^{-1} y_t$, the vector of “devolatilised returns”. The $\log L_C$ term is setup to be a copula type likelihood.

We estimate the model using a two-step procedure, which can be formalised using the method of moments (e.g. Newey and McFadden (1994)). First we estimate the univariate models, and fix the volatility dynamic parameters at those estimated values. We then estimate the dependence model by optimising $\log L_C$. A review of the literature on multivariate models is given by Silvennoinen and Teräsvirta (2009) and Engle (2009).

The results from this forecasting exercise are given in Table 6. These are based upon the innovations from the univariate volatility models for BAC and SPY conditioning on lagged realised QML statistics. The results for the dependence model when we do not condition on any additional realised quantities, that is $\gamma = 0$, are given above the line in the Table. As $\beta = 0$ it means $\omega = 1 - \alpha$ and so is roughly 0.41. Here ρ is the non-unit element of Π . Hence the estimated model for the

where

$$R_t = \text{diag}(Q_t)^{-1/2} Q_t \text{diag}(Q_t)^{-1/2}.$$

Unfortunately the impact of the non-linear transform for R_t could be rather gruesome on the realised correlation matrix X_{t-1} as the rescaling by the diagonal elements of Q_t destroys all of its attractive properties. DCC models are discussed in Engle (2009).

Spar	QML					RK					RV				
	ρ	α	β	γ	logL	ρ	α	β	γ	logL	ρ	α	β	γ	logL
	0.69	0.59	0.00	0.00		0.69	0.59	0.00	0.00		0.69	0.59	0.00	0.00	
1	0.99	0.31	0.13	0.25	5.5	0.94	0.06	0.73	0.14	6.8	0.99	0.43	0.00	0.17	2.0
2	1.00	0.12	0.41	0.25	8.3	0.99	0.09	0.69	0.17	8.3	0.99	0.31	0.00	0.23	3.7
3	1.00	0.08	0.53	0.23	9.0	0.80	0.09	0.71	0.11	3.2	0.99	0.13	0.34	0.18	4.8
5	0.99	0.05	0.61	0.21	9.6	0.78	0.09	0.70	0.10	2.8	0.99	0.07	0.44	0.18	6.0
10	0.99	0.06	0.64	0.20	7.5	0.81	0.05	0.77	0.10	4.4	0.99	0.07	0.50	0.19	5.9
15	0.99	0.07	0.72	0.15	5.1	0.80	0.07	0.71	0.12	4.8	0.99	0.07	0.55	0.18	5.9
20	0.99	0.07	0.74	0.14	4.1	0.80	0.07	0.74	0.10	2.9	0.99	0.08	0.55	0.19	5.5
30	0.99	0.06	0.78	0.11	4.0	0.84	0.05	0.74	0.12	5.1	0.99	0.10	0.57	0.18	4.9
60	0.96	0.07	0.79	0.11	3.4	0.87	0.04	0.76	0.12	5.9	0.99	0.10	0.64	0.16	4.7
120	0.95	0.08	0.76	0.11	3.7	0.82	0.08	0.71	0.09	3.2	0.99	0.14	0.56	0.20	4.9
180	0.89	0.09	0.71	0.14	4.3	0.82	0.08	0.72	0.08	2.5	0.99	0.13	0.57	0.21	4.7
300	0.85	0.09	0.70	0.12	2.9	0.82	0.08	0.72	0.08	1.8	0.99	0.10	0.69	0.15	4.6

Table 6: Forecasting exercises for cross-sectional dependence between BAC (Bank of America) and SPY (S&P 500 exchange traded fund). The estimated model is (12). Here ρ is the non-unit element of Π . Note that $\omega = 1 - \alpha - \beta - \gamma$ and so is not reported here. LogL is the improvement in the log likelihood compared to the base model with no realised quantities, that is $\gamma = 0$.

conditional correlation is $0.41 \times 0.69 + 0.59C_{1,2,t-1}$ where $C_{1,2,t-1}$ is the block correlation amongst the BAC and SPY innovations. This can be thought of as simply a shrunk block correlation.

When we condition on lagged realised quantities the log likelihood will typically rise. The improvement is recorded as logL in the Table. The results are reported for the QML, realised kernel and realised covariance. Obviously the results vary with the level of sparsity. For low levels of sparsity, RK does best. It drives α down to near zero, reminding us of the results we saw in the univariate cases discussed in the previous subsection. However, the improvement in the log likelihood is relatively modest, certainly less than we were used to from the univariate cases.

For low levels of sparsity QML is downward biased and so ρ is estimated to be high to compensate. In the QML case we need larger sparsity to successfully drive down α , but that estimator is certainly low with sparsity being 5 or more. This kind of levels of sparsity delivers a better fitting model than the results for RK, but the difference is not particularly large.

6.4.3 Cross section

Here we just focus on the cross section involving SPY based pairs. Of course there are 12 of these. The top left of Figure 9 shows the log-likelihood improvement in $\log L_C$ by including the realised QML information, i.e. allowing γ to be greater than zero. The improvement is shown for each level of sparsity and is plotted separately for each of the 12 pairs. The median improvement is shown by the dark line. Almost throughout the improvement is modest, for a sole series the improvement is quite large. The realised QML performs better as the level of sparsity increases, but once again

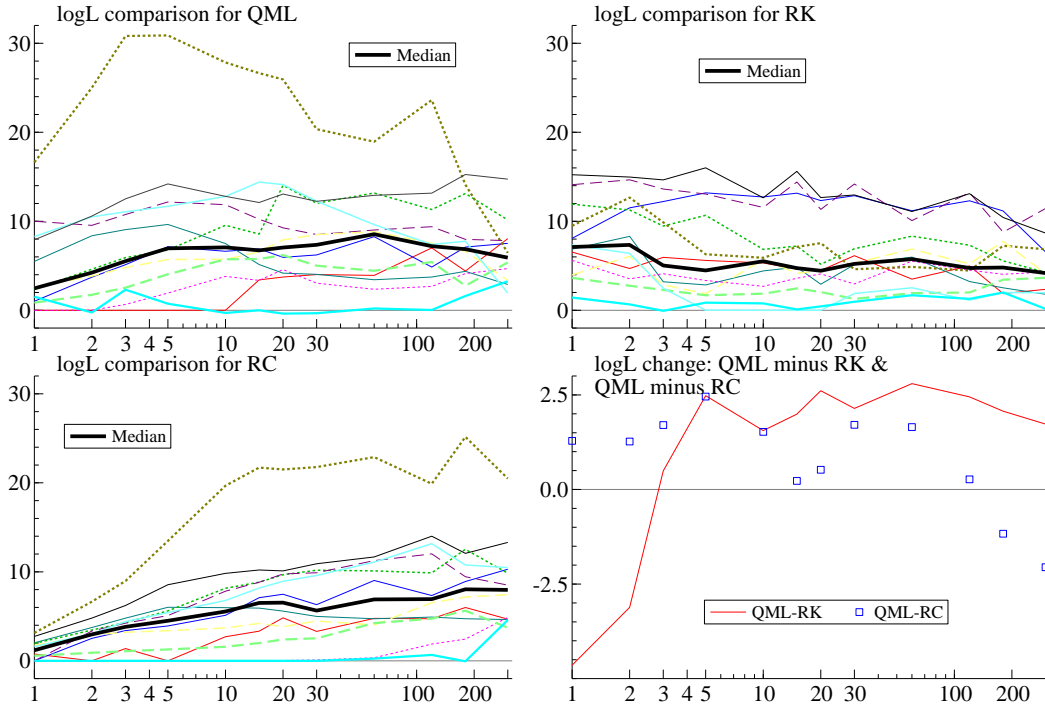


Figure 9: Improvements in logL for pairs involving SPY by including the realised quantities. On the x-axis is the level of sparsity. The heavy line denotes the median at each level of sparsity. All realised quantities are computed using all 13 series. Bottom right is the log likelihood for the model including realised QML minus the corresponding figure for realised kernel. This is plotted against sparsity. Also drawn is the corresponding result for the realised QML against realised covariance.

it tails off at the very end with very large sparsity for in those cases the sample sizes tend to be moderate and so the realised estimator is noisy.

Bottom left shows the corresponding results for the realised covariance. The results here are poor for low levels of sparsity, adding basically nothing to the forecasting model. This is the influence of the Epps effect again. For higher levels of sparsity the realised covariance performs much better and approaches the realised QML estimator in terms of added value.

The top right shows the results for the realised kernel. This does best for very low levels of sparsity, making an important improvement in forecasting performance. However, as the level of sparsity increases the improvement due to the realised kernel falls away.

The bottom right graph shows the median log-likelihood improvement of QML minus the median log-likelihood improvement for the realised kernel. Positive numbers give a preference for QML. For low levels of sparsity, as we would expect, the realised kernel outperforms. However, for moderate degrees of sparsity the QML estimator has better performance.

Overall we can see that for the dependence modelling the inclusion of the realised information does add value, but the effects are not enormous. Realised QML again needs a moderate degree

of sparsity to be competitive. For this level of sparsity realised QML slightly outperforms the realised kernel. Unlike the univariate case, the open to close information is not tested out of the model. But its importance does reduce a great deal by including the realised quantities.

7 Conclusion

This paper proposes and systematically studies a new method for estimating the dependence amongst financial asset price processes. The realised QML estimator is robust to certain types of market microstructure noise and can deal with non-synchronised time stamps. It is also guaranteed to be positive semi-definite and converges at the optimal asymptotic rate. This combination of properties is unique in the literature and so it is worthwhile exploring this estimator in some detail.

In this paper we develop the details of the quasi-likelihood and show how to numerically optimise it in a simple way even in large dimensions. We also develop some of the theory needed to understand the properties of the estimator and the corresponding results for realised QML estimators or betas and correlations. Particularly important is our theory for asynchronous data. Our Monte Carlo experiments are extensive, comparing the estimator to various alternatives. The realised QML performs well in these comparisons, in particular in unbalanced cases.

Our initial empirical results are somewhat encouraging, although much work remains. The volatilities seem to be robust to the presence of slowly trading stocks in the dataset. The improvement in the fit of the model by including these realised quantities is large. The results for measures for dependence are mixed, with the improvements from the realised quantities being modest. The realised QML is underestimating long-run dependence in these empirical experiments unless the level of sparsity is quite high. This underestimation also does not appear in our Monte Carlo experiments. There are various explanations for this, but it would seem clear to need a more sophisticated model of market microstructure effects.

At the moment our recommendation for empirical work is for researchers to use realised QML or realised kernel estimators inside their conditional volatility models. When modelling dependence amongst the devolatilised returns the decision to use extra realised information is more balanced — it does increase the performance of the model but not by a great deal.

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Appendices

A Mathematical proofs

A.1 Proof of Theorem 1

There exists an orthogonal matrix $U = (u_{ij})$ given below, such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} U & \\ & U \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Omega_{11} & \Omega_{12} \\ \Omega_{12} & \Omega_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U' & \\ & U' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{diag}(\mu_{1j}) & \Omega_{12} \\ \Omega_{12} & \text{diag}(\mu_{2j}) \end{pmatrix} =: V$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_{12} &= \Sigma_{12} \Delta \otimes I, \\ \Omega_{ii} &= \Sigma_{ii} \Delta \otimes I + \Lambda_{ii} \otimes J, \quad i = 1, 2, \\ u_{ij} &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{n+1}} \sin\left(\frac{i \cdot j}{n+1} \pi\right), \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n, \\ \mu_{ij} &= \Sigma_{ii} \Delta + 2\Lambda_{ii} \left(1 - \cos\left(\frac{j}{n+1} \pi\right)\right), \quad i = 1, 2, \text{ and } j = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

Since $U = U'^{-1}$, we have

$$\Omega^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} U' & \\ & U' \end{pmatrix} V^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} U & \\ & U \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$V^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\mu_{21}}{\mu_{11}\mu_{21} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} & & -\frac{\Sigma_{12}\Delta}{\mu_{11}\mu_{21} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} & & \\ & \ddots & & \ddots & \\ & & \frac{\mu_{2n}}{\mu_{1n}\mu_{2n} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} & & -\frac{\Sigma_{12}\Delta}{\mu_{1n}\mu_{2n} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} \\ -\frac{\Sigma_{12}\Delta}{\mu_{11}\mu_{21} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} & & & \frac{\mu_{11}}{\mu_{11}\mu_{21} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} & \\ & \ddots & & & \ddots \\ & & -\frac{\Sigma_{12}\Delta}{\mu_{1n}\mu_{2n} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} & & \frac{\mu_{1n}}{\mu_{1n}\mu_{2n} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

One important observation is that U does not depend on parameters, hence taking derivatives of Ω becomes very convenient with the help of the decomposition.

Note that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \left(\text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \theta} \right) - \text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \theta} \Omega^{-1} r r' \right) \right)$$

where for $\theta = \Sigma_{11}$ and Σ_{12} ,

$$\text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \right) = \text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\mu_{2i} \Delta}{\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2}$$

$$\text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} \right) = \text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{-2\Sigma_{12}\Delta^2}{\mu_{1i}\mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \Omega^{-1} r r' \right) \\ = & \text{tr} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \text{diag} \left(\frac{\mu_{2i} \Delta}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) & \text{diag} \left(\frac{-\Sigma_{12} \mu_{2i} \Delta^2}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) \\ \text{diag} \left(\frac{-\Sigma_{12} \mu_{2i} \Delta^2}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) & \text{diag} \left(\frac{\Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^3}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U & \\ & U \end{pmatrix} r r' \begin{pmatrix} U' & \\ & U' \end{pmatrix} \right) \\ = & \text{tr} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \text{diag} \left(\frac{-2\mu_{2i} \Sigma_{12} \Delta^2}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) & \text{diag} \left(\frac{\Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^3 + \mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} \Delta}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) \\ \text{diag} \left(\frac{\Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^3 + \mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} \Delta}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) & \text{diag} \left(\frac{-2\mu_{1i} \Sigma_{12} \Delta^2}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2} \right) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U & \\ & U \end{pmatrix} r r' \begin{pmatrix} U' & \\ & U' \end{pmatrix} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by direct calculations and using symmetry, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial \Sigma_{11}^2} \right) &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\mu_{2i}^2 \Delta^2}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2}, \\ &\sim \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{(\Sigma_{22} T + \Lambda_{22} \pi^2 x^2)^2 T^2}{((\Sigma_{11} T + \Lambda_{11} \pi^2 x^2)(\Sigma_{22} T + \Lambda_{22} \pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2 T^2)^2} dx := I_{11}^\Sigma, \\ E \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial \Sigma_{11} \partial \Sigma_{12}} \right) &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{-2\Sigma_{12} \mu_{2i} \Delta^3}{(\mu_{1i} \mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2)^2}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sim \int_0^\infty \frac{-\Sigma_{12}(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2)T^3}{((\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2)^2} dx := I_{12}^\Sigma, \\
E\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial \Sigma_{11}\partial \Sigma_{22}}\right) &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^4}{(\mu_{1i}\mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2)^2}, \\
& \sim \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\Sigma_{12}^2T^4}{((\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2)^2} dx := I_{13}^\Sigma, \\
E\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial \Sigma_{12}^2}\right) &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2(\Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^4 + \Delta^2\mu_{1i}\mu_{2i})}{(\mu_{1i}\mu_{2i} - \Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2)^2}, \\
& \sim \int_0^\infty \frac{(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2)T^2 + \Sigma_{12}^2T^4}{((\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2)^2} dx := I_{22}^\Sigma.
\end{aligned}$$

By symmetry, we can obtain I_{23}^Σ , I_{33}^Σ , and I_{22}^Σ by simply switching the indices 1 and 2 in I_{12}^Σ and I_{11}^Σ . The asymptotic variance for $(\widehat{\Sigma}_{11}, \widehat{\Sigma}_{12}, \widehat{\Sigma}_{22})$ is given by

$$\Pi = \begin{pmatrix} I_{11}^\Sigma & I_{12}^\Sigma & I_{13}^\Sigma \\ \cdot & I_{22}^\Sigma & I_{23}^\Sigma \\ \cdot & \cdot & I_{33}^\Sigma \end{pmatrix}^{-1}.$$

Similarly derivations on $1/n$ -scaled likelihood can show that the asymptotic variance for $(\widehat{\Lambda}_{11}, \widehat{\Lambda}_{22})$ is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_{11}^\Lambda & \\ & I_{22}^\Lambda \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\Lambda_{11}^2 & \\ & 2\Lambda_{22}^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Notice that the above integrals have explicit forms, which can be obtained easily by Mathematica. However, the explicit formulae are tedious and hence omitted here.

A.2 Proof of Theorem 2

The proof is made of the following steps: first, we show that the differences of the score vectors, scaled by appropriate rates, and their target ‘‘conditional expectations’’ converge uniformly to 0, and satisfy the identification condition. (This step is easily achieved from the following calculations). Second, we derive the stable CLTs for the differences, and this where the higher order moments of volatility process come into play. Third, we solve the equations that the target equal to 0, and find that the difference between the pseudo true parameter values and the parameters of interest are asymptotically negligible. Last, we use the sandwich theorem and consistency to establish the CLT for the QMLE.

To clarify our notation, we use subscript 0 to mark quantities that are made of true values. The true values for the Brownian covariances are obviously written in integral forms. The pseudo true parameters are marked with a superscript such as $\bar{\Sigma}$ and $\bar{\Lambda}$, and the QML estimators are marked as $\widehat{\Sigma}$ and $\widehat{\Lambda}$. The other Σ , Λ , etc without any special marks represent any parameter values within the parameter space, which is assumed to be a compact set.

The drift term can be ignored without loss of generality, as a simple change of measure argument makes it sufficient to investigate the case without drift.

Recall that in (4), we have

$$L = -n \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log(\det \Omega) - \frac{1}{2} r' \Omega^{-1} r$$

Now we consider the following function:

$$\bar{L} = -n \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log(\det \Omega) - \frac{1}{2} tr(\Omega^{-1} \Omega_0),$$

where the subscript 0 denotes the true value,

$$\Omega_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \Omega_0^{11} & \Omega_0^{12} \\ \Omega_0^{21} & \Omega_0^{22} \end{pmatrix},$$

with $\Omega_{0,ii}^l = \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \Sigma_{ll,t} dt + 2\Lambda_{0,ll}$, $\Omega_{0,i,i+1}^l = \Omega_{0,i,i-1}^l = \Lambda_{0,ll}$, and $\Omega_{0,i,i}^{12} = \Omega_{0,i,i}^{21} = \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \Sigma_{12,t} dt$.

Therefore, the difference between L and \bar{L} is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} L - \bar{L} &= \frac{1}{2} tr(\Omega^{-1}(rr' - \Omega_0)) = \frac{1}{2} tr\left(\begin{pmatrix} U' & \\ & U' \end{pmatrix} V^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} U & \\ & U \end{pmatrix} (rr' - \Omega_0)\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_{ii}^{ls} \left((\Delta_i y_l)(\Delta_i y_s) - \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \Sigma_{ls,t} dt \right) + \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j < i} \omega_{ij}^{ls} \Delta_i^n y_l \Delta_j^n y_s \\ &\quad + \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \omega_{ij}^{ls} \Delta_i^n \varepsilon_l \Delta_j^n y_s + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \omega_{ij}^{ls} \left(\Delta_i^n \varepsilon_l \Delta_j^n \varepsilon_s - E(\Delta_i^n \varepsilon_l \Delta_j^n \varepsilon_s) \right), \end{aligned}$$

where ω_{ij}^{ls} is the (i, j) element of the (l, s) block of the matrix:

$$\Omega^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} U' & \\ & U' \end{pmatrix} V^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} U & \\ & U \end{pmatrix}.$$

Consider $\omega_{i,j}^{11}$ first.

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_{i,j}^{11} &= \frac{2}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\mu_{2k}}{\mu_{1k} \mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} \sin\left(\frac{ki}{n+1}\pi\right) \sin\left(\frac{kj}{n+1}\pi\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\mu_{2k}}{\mu_{1k} \mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} \left(\cos\left(\frac{k(i-j)}{n+1}\pi\right) - \cos\left(\frac{k(i+j)}{n+1}\pi\right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can separate the two components in the sum and analyze the following generic form:

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\mu_{2k}}{\mu_{1k} \mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} \cos\left(\frac{kl}{n+1}\pi\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2(n+1)} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\mu_{2k}}{\mu_{1k} \mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} \frac{\sin\left(\frac{(k+1)l}{n+1}\pi\right) - \sin\left(\frac{(k-1)l}{n+1}\pi\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{l}{n+1}\pi\right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2(n+1)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\sin\left(\frac{(k+1)l}{n+1}\pi\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{l}{n+1}\pi\right)} \left(\frac{\mu_{2k}}{\mu_{1k} \mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} - \frac{\mu_{2,k+2}}{\mu_{1,k+2} \mu_{2,k+2} - \Sigma_{12}^2 \Delta^2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{2(n+1)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\sin(\frac{(k+1)l}{n+1}\pi)}{\sin(\frac{l}{n+1}\pi)} \frac{\mu_{2,k+2}\mu_{2,k}(\mu_{1,k+2} - \mu_{1,k}) + (\mu_{2,k+2} - \mu_{2,k})\Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2}{(\mu_{1k}\mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2)(\mu_{1,k+2}\mu_{2,k+2} - \Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2)} \\
&= \frac{2}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\sin(\frac{(k+1)l}{n+1}\pi) \sin(\frac{\pi}{n+1}) \sin(\frac{k+1}{n+1}\pi)}{\sin(\frac{l}{n+1}\pi)} \frac{(\mu_{2,k+2}\mu_{2,k}\Lambda_{11} + \Lambda_{22}\Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2)}{(\mu_{1k}\mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2)(\mu_{1,k+2}\mu_{2,k+2} - \Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2)}
\end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $\omega_{i,j}^{11} = \omega_{j,i}^{11} = \omega_{n+1-i, n+1-j}^{11}$. For any $n^{\frac{1}{2}+\delta} \leq l \leq [\frac{n+1}{2}]$, we have

$$\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n \left| \frac{\mu_{2k}}{\mu_{1k}\mu_{2k} - \Sigma_{12}^2\Delta^2} \cos\left(\frac{kl}{n+1}\pi\right) \right| \leq C \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\frac{l}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{k^2}{n^2}\right)^2} \sim o(\sqrt{n})$$

hence, for any $n^{\frac{1}{2}+\delta} \leq i \leq n - n^{\frac{1}{2}+\delta}$,

$$\omega_{i,i}^{11} = \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2}{(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2} dx \right) \cdot \sqrt{n}(1 + o(1)).$$

Similarly, we can derive

$$\begin{aligned}
\omega_{i,i}^{22} &= \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2}{(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2} dx \right) \cdot \sqrt{n}(1 + o(1)) \\
\omega_{i,i}^{12} &= \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{-\Sigma_{12}T}{(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2} dx \right) \cdot \sqrt{n}(1 + o(1)).
\end{aligned}$$

To simply our notation, let

$$\begin{aligned}
\omega^{11}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2}{(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2} \\
\omega^{22}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2}{(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2} \\
\omega^{12}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x) &= \frac{-\Sigma_{12}T}{(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2x^2)(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2T^2}
\end{aligned}$$

We define the score vectors and their targets as

$$\Psi_\Sigma = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \Sigma}, \quad \bar{\Psi}_\Sigma = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{\partial \bar{L}}{\partial \Sigma}, \quad \Psi_\Lambda = -\frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \Lambda}, \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\Psi}_\Lambda = -\frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial \bar{L}}{\partial \Lambda},$$

where

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda_{11}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda_{22}} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then we have

$$\Psi_\Sigma - \bar{\Psi}_\Sigma = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \left(M_1^{(\Sigma)} + 2M_2^{(\Sigma)} + 2M_3^{(\Sigma)} + M_4^{(\Sigma)} \right),$$

where

$$M_1^{(\Sigma)} = \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \omega_{ii}^{ls}}{\partial \Sigma} \left((\Delta_i y_l)(\Delta_i y_s) - \int_{\tau_{i-1}}^{\tau_i} \Sigma_{ls,t} dt \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
M_2^{(\Sigma)} &= \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j<i}^n \frac{\partial \omega_{ij}^{ls}}{\partial \Sigma} \Delta_i^n y_l \Delta_j^n y_s \\
M_3^{(\Sigma)} &= \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial \omega_{ij}^{ls}}{\partial \Sigma} \Delta_i^n \varepsilon_l \Delta_j^n y_s \\
M_4^{(\Sigma)} &= \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial \omega_{ij}^{ls}}{\partial \Sigma} \left(\Delta_i^n \varepsilon_l \Delta_j^n \varepsilon_s - E(\Delta_i^n \varepsilon_l \Delta_j^n \varepsilon_s) \right).
\end{aligned}$$

Following the same argument in Xiu (2010) and Theorem 7.1 in Jacod (2012), we can show

$$n^{-\frac{1}{4}}(M_1^{(\Sigma)} + 2M_2^{(\Sigma)}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_X} MN(0, \text{Avar}^{(2)}(\Sigma)),$$

where

$$\text{Avar}^{(2)}(\Sigma) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 4n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{l,s,u,v=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j<i}^n \frac{\partial \omega_{ij}^{v,u}}{\partial \Sigma} \frac{\partial \omega_{ij}^{l,s}}{\partial \Sigma'} \Sigma_{sv,ti} \Sigma_{ul,tj} \Delta^2 \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$= 2T \sum_{l,s,u,v=1}^2 \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{vu}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma} \frac{\partial \omega^{ls}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma'} dx \int_0^T \Sigma_{sv,t} \Sigma_{ul,t} dt. \quad (\text{A.2})$$

All the elements of the covariance matrix have closed-forms. Also, we have

$$n^{-\frac{1}{4}} 2M_3^{(\Sigma)} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_X} MN(0, \text{Avar}^{(3)}(\Sigma)),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{Avar}^{(3)}(\Sigma) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 4 \sum_{j=1}^n n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{l,s,v=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \Lambda_{0,ll} \frac{\partial \omega_{ij}^{ls}}{\partial \Sigma} \left(2 \frac{\partial \omega_{ij}^{lv}}{\partial \Sigma'} - \frac{\partial \omega_{i,j-1}^{lv}}{\partial \Sigma'} - \frac{\partial \omega_{i,j+1}^{lv}}{\partial \Sigma'} \right) \Sigma_{sv,tj} \Delta \\
&= 4 \sum_{l,s,v=1}^2 \Lambda_{0,ll} \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ls}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma} \frac{\partial \omega^{lv}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma'} \pi^2 x^2 dx \int_0^T \Sigma_{sv,t} dt. \quad (\text{A.3})
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, we have

$$n^{-\frac{1}{4}} M_4^{(\Sigma)} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} N(0, \text{Avar}^{(4)}(\Sigma)),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{Avar}^{(4)}(\Sigma) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{i,j,k,l=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \omega_{i,j}^{11}}{\partial \Sigma} \frac{\partial \omega_{k,l}^{11}}{\partial \Sigma'} K_{11}^{ij,kl} + 4 \frac{\partial \omega_{i,j}^{12}}{\partial \Sigma} \frac{\partial \omega_{k,l}^{12}}{\partial \Sigma'} K_{11}^{i,k} K_{22}^{j,l} + \frac{\partial \omega_{i,j}^{22}}{\partial \Sigma} \frac{\partial \omega_{k,l}^{22}}{\partial \Sigma'} K_{22}^{ij,kl} \right) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(V_1 \left(\frac{\partial \omega^{11}}{\partial \Sigma}, \frac{\partial \omega^{11}}{\partial \Sigma} \right) + V_2 \left(\frac{\partial \omega^{11}}{\partial \Sigma}, \frac{\partial \omega^{11}}{\partial \Sigma} \right) + 2V_2 \left(\frac{\partial \omega^{12}}{\partial \Sigma}, \frac{\partial \omega^{12}}{\partial \Sigma} \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + V_1 \left(\frac{\partial \omega^{22}}{\partial \Sigma}, \frac{\partial \omega^{22}}{\partial \Sigma} \right) + V_2 \left(\frac{\partial \omega^{22}}{\partial \Sigma}, \frac{\partial \omega^{22}}{\partial \Sigma} \right) \right),
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
V_1\left(\frac{\partial\omega^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma}, \frac{\partial\omega^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right) &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(-8\frac{\partial\omega_{i,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma}\frac{\partial\omega_{i+1,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} + 2\frac{\partial\omega_{i,i}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma}\frac{\partial\omega_{i+1,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} + 4\frac{\partial\omega_{i,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma}\frac{\partial\omega_{i,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right)\right. \\
&\quad \left.+ 2\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial\omega_{ii}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma}\right)\left(\frac{\partial\omega_{ii}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right)\right) \text{cum}_4[\varepsilon_l] \\
&\sim O(1), \\
V_2\left(\frac{\partial\omega^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma}, \frac{\partial\omega^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right) &= 2(\Lambda_{0,ll})^2 \sum_{i,j=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial\omega_{i,j}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma} \left(\frac{\partial\omega_{j-1,i-1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} + \frac{\partial\omega_{j-1,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\frac{\partial\omega_{j-1,i}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} + \frac{\partial\omega_{j+1,i-1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right.\right. \\
&\quad \left.\left.+ \frac{\partial\omega_{j+1,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\frac{\partial\omega_{j+1,i}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\left(\frac{\partial\omega_{j,i-1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} + \frac{\partial\omega_{j,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\frac{\partial\omega_{j,i}^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right)\right)\right) \\
&\sim 2(\Lambda_{0,ll})^2 \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial\omega^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma} \frac{\partial\omega^{ll}}{\partial\Sigma'} \pi^4 x^4 dx\right) n^{\frac{1}{2}}, \\
V_2\left(\frac{\partial\omega^{12}}{\partial\Sigma}, \frac{\partial\omega^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right) &= 2(\Lambda_{0,11})(\Lambda_{0,22}) \sum_{i,j=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial\omega_{i,j}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma} \left(\frac{\partial\omega_{j-1,i-1}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} + \frac{\partial\omega_{j-1,i+1}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\frac{\partial\omega_{j-1,i}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} + \frac{\partial\omega_{j+1,i-1}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right.\right. \\
&\quad \left.\left.+ \frac{\partial\omega_{j+1,i+1}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\frac{\partial\omega_{j+1,i}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\left(\frac{\partial\omega_{j,i-1}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} + \frac{\partial\omega_{j,i+1}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} - 2\frac{\partial\omega_{j,i}^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'}\right)\right)\right) \\
&\sim 2(\Lambda_{0,11})(\Lambda_{0,22}) \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial\omega^{12}}{\partial\Sigma} \frac{\partial\omega^{12}}{\partial\Sigma'} \pi^4 x^4 dx\right) n^{\frac{1}{2}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Here, $K_{11}^{i,j}$, $K_{22}^{i,j}$, $K_{11}^{ij,kl}$ and $K_{22}^{ij,kl}$ are the corresponding cumulants for $\Delta_i^n \varepsilon_1$ and $\Delta_i^n \varepsilon_2$, and $\text{cum}_4[\varepsilon_1]$ and $\text{cum}_4[\varepsilon_2]$ are the fourth cumulants of ε_1 and ε_2 .

Therefore, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{Avar}^{(4)}(\Sigma) \\
&= 2 \sum_{l,s=1}^2 \Lambda_{0,ll} \Lambda_{0,ss} \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial\omega^{ls}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial\Sigma} \frac{\partial\omega^{ls}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial\Sigma'} \pi^4 x^4 dx. \tag{A.4}
\end{aligned}$$

In summary, we have

$$n^{-\frac{1}{4}}(\Psi_\Sigma - \bar{\Psi}_\Sigma) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} N\left(0, \frac{1}{4}\left(\text{Avar}^{(2)}(\Sigma) + \text{Avar}^{(3)}(\Sigma) + \text{Avar}^{(4)}(\Sigma)\right)\right).$$

Similarly, we can obtain

$$n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \Psi_{\Lambda_{11}} - \bar{\Psi}_{\Lambda_{11}} \\ \Psi_{\Lambda_{22}} - \bar{\Psi}_{\Lambda_{22}} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} N\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2(\Lambda_{0,11})^2 + \text{cum}_4[\varepsilon_1]}{4\Lambda_{11}^4} & \\ & \frac{2(\Lambda_{0,22})^2 + \text{cum}_4[\varepsilon_2]}{4\Lambda_{22}^4} \end{pmatrix}\right). \tag{A.5}$$

Further, we need to solve $\bar{\Psi}_\Sigma = 0$ and $\bar{\Psi}_\Lambda = 0$ for the pseudo-true parameters θ^* , and show that the distance between θ^* and the values of interest are negligible asymptotically. In fact, for any $\Sigma_{uv} \in \{\Sigma_{11}, \Sigma_{12}, \Sigma_{22}\}$, we have

$$\bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{uv}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \left\{ \text{tr}\left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial\Omega}{\partial\Sigma_{uv}}\right) + \frac{\partial \text{tr}(\Omega^{-1}\Omega_0)}{\partial\Sigma_{uv}} \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \left\{ \text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} \right) + \frac{\partial \text{tr}(\Omega^{-1}(\Omega + J \otimes (\Lambda_0 - \Lambda) + \Gamma))}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \left\{ \text{tr} \left(\frac{\partial \Omega^{-1}}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} J \otimes (\Lambda_0 - \Lambda) \right) + \text{tr} \left(\frac{\partial \Omega^{-1}}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} \Gamma \right) \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \left\{ \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left(2 \frac{\partial \omega_{ii}^{ll}}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} - \frac{\partial \omega_{i,i-1}^{ll}}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} - \frac{\partial \omega_{i,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} \right) (\Lambda_{0,l} - \Lambda_{ll}) + \sum_{l,s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \omega_{ii}^{ls}}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} \Gamma_{ii}^{ls} \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \sum_{l,s=1}^2 \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ls}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} dx \right) \left(\int_0^T \Sigma_{ls,t} dt - \Sigma_{ls} T \right) (1 + o(1)) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \sum_{l=1}^2 (\Lambda_{0,l} - \Lambda_{ll}) \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{\partial \omega^{ll}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} \right) \pi^2 x^2 dx \right\},
\end{aligned}$$

where Λ_0 denotes the true covariance matrix of noise, Γ is block diagonal matrix, with $\Gamma_{ii}^{ls} = \int_{\tau_{i-1}}^{\tau_i} \Sigma_{ls,t} dt - \Sigma_{ls} \Delta$, and J is an $n \times n$ tridiagonal matrix with matrix diagonal elements equal to 2 and off-diagonal elements equal to -1 .

Similarly, for $\Lambda_{uu} \in \{\Lambda_{11}, \Lambda_{22}\}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{\Psi}_{\Lambda_{uu}} &= \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \right) + \frac{\partial \text{tr}(\Omega^{-1} \Omega_0)}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \right) + \frac{\partial \text{tr}(\Omega^{-1}(\Omega + J \otimes (\Lambda_0 - \Lambda) + \Gamma))}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \text{tr} \left(\frac{\partial \Omega^{-1}}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} J \otimes (\Lambda_0 - \Lambda) \right) + \text{tr} \left(\frac{\partial \Omega^{-1}}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \Gamma \right) \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \sum_{l=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left(2 \frac{\partial \omega_{ii}^{ll}}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} - \frac{\partial \omega_{i,i-1}^{ll}}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} - \frac{\partial \omega_{i,i+1}^{ll}}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \right) (\Lambda_{0,l} - \Lambda_{ll}) + \sum_{l,s=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \omega_{ii}^{ls}}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \Gamma_{ii}^{ls} \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{l,s=1}^2 \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ls}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} dx \right) \left(\int_0^T \Sigma_{ls,t} dt - \Sigma_{ls} T \right) (1 + o(1)) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{l=1}^2 \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ll}(\Sigma, \Lambda, x)}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \pi^2 x^2 dx \right) (\Lambda_{0,l} - \Lambda_{ll}) - \sum_{l=1}^2 \frac{\delta_{lu}}{\Lambda_{ll}^2} (\Lambda_{0,l} - \Lambda_{ll}) \right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, solving for $\bar{\Sigma}$ and $\bar{\Lambda}$, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{\Lambda}_{ll} &= \Lambda_{0,l} + \frac{\bar{\Lambda}_{ll}^2}{\sqrt{n}} \left\{ \sum_{l,s=1}^2 \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ls}(\bar{\Sigma}, \bar{\Lambda}, x)}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} dx \right) \left(\int_0^T \Sigma_{ls,t} dt - \bar{\Sigma}_{ls} T \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \sum_{l=1}^2 \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ll}(\bar{\Sigma}, \bar{\Lambda}, x)}{\partial \Lambda_{uu}} \pi^2 x^2 dx \right) (\Lambda_{0,l} - \bar{\Lambda}_{ll}) \right\} (1 + o_p(1)), \text{ for } l = 1, 2, \\
\bar{\Sigma}_{ls} &= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{ls,t} dt + O_p(n^{-\frac{1}{2}}) = \Sigma_{0,ls} + O_p(n^{-\frac{1}{2}}), \text{ for } l, s = 1, 2.
\end{aligned}$$

Further, applying Theorem 2 in Xiu (2010), we have

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{ls} - \bar{\Sigma}_{ls} = o_p(1), \text{ and } \hat{\Lambda}_{ll} - \bar{\Lambda}_{ll} = o_p(1),$$

hence consistency is established.

To find the central limit theorem, we do the usual “sandwich” calculations. Denote,

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_\Sigma}{\partial \Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{11}}}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} & \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{11}}}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} & \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{11}}}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \\ \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{12}}}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} & \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{12}}}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} & \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{12}}}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \\ \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{22}}}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} & \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{22}}}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} & \frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_{22}}}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{P}} \frac{\partial \Psi_{\Sigma_0}}{\partial \Sigma},$$

where

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_0, uv}}{\partial \Sigma_{ij}} = -\frac{T}{2} \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ij}(\Sigma_0, \Lambda_0, x)}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} dx \right) - \frac{T}{2} \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{\partial \omega^{ij}(\Sigma_0, \Lambda_0, x)}{\partial \Sigma_{uv}} dx \right) 1_{\{u \neq v\}}$$

and Σ_0 denotes the true parameter value. So, the central limit theorem is:

$$n^{\frac{1}{4}}(\hat{\Sigma} - \Sigma_0) = n^{\frac{1}{4}} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\Sigma}_{11} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{11,t} dt \\ \hat{\Sigma}_{12} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{12,t} dt \\ \hat{\Sigma}_{22} - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Sigma_{22,t} dt \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}_X} MN(0, V_Q),$$

where

$$\Pi_Q = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_0}}{\partial \Sigma} \right)^{-1} \left(\text{Avar}^{(2)}(\Sigma_0) + \text{Avar}^{(3)}(\Sigma_0) + \text{Avar}^{(4)}(\Sigma_0) \right) \left(\left(\frac{\partial \bar{\Psi}_{\Sigma_0}}{\partial \Sigma} \right)^{-1} \right)'$$

Note that

$$\frac{\partial \Psi_{\Lambda_0}}{\partial \Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2\Lambda_{0,11}^2} & \\ & -\frac{1}{2\Lambda_{0,22}^2} \end{pmatrix},$$

hence the CLT for $\hat{\Lambda}$ follows immediately from (A.5). This concludes the proof of Theorem 2.

A.3 Proof of Corollary 1

Denote $\Delta_i = \bar{\Delta}(1 + \xi_i)$ and ξ_i is $\overset{i.i.d}{\sim} O_p(1)$. Note that

$$\Omega = \bar{\Omega} + \bar{\Delta} \Sigma \otimes \Xi,$$

where $\Xi = \text{diag}(\xi_1, \dots, \xi_i, \dots, \xi_n)$, and $\bar{\Omega}$ is the covariance matrix in the equidistant case with Δ replaced by $\bar{\Delta}$. It turns out that

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega^{-1} &= (\bar{\Omega}(I + \bar{\Delta} \bar{\Omega}^{-1} \Sigma \otimes \Xi))^{-1} = (I + \bar{\Delta} \bar{\Omega}^{-1} \Sigma \otimes \Xi)^{-1} \bar{\Omega}^{-1} \\ &= \bar{\Omega}^{-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k \bar{\Delta}^k (\bar{\Omega}^{-1} \Sigma \otimes \Xi)^k \bar{\Omega}^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

For any $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in \{\Sigma_{11}, \Sigma_{12}, \Sigma_{22}\}$, we have

$$\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \theta_1} = \frac{\partial \bar{\Omega}}{\partial \theta_1} + \bar{\Delta} \frac{\partial \Sigma}{\partial \theta_1} \otimes \Xi$$

hence,

$$E \left(\frac{\partial \log(\det \Omega)}{\partial \theta_1} \right) = E \left(\text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \theta_1} \right) \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= E\left(\text{tr}\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1}\right)\right) + \bar{\Delta}E\left(\text{tr}\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\Sigma \otimes \Xi\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1} + \bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\Sigma}{\partial\theta_1} \otimes \Xi\right)\right) \\
&\quad + \bar{\Delta}^2E\left(\text{tr}\left(\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\Sigma \otimes \Xi\right)^2\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1} - \bar{\Omega}^{-1}\Sigma \otimes \Xi\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\Sigma}{\partial\theta_1} \otimes \Xi\right)\right) + o(\bar{\Delta}^2).
\end{aligned}$$

Because $E(\Xi) = 0$,

$$E\left(\text{tr}\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\Sigma \otimes \Xi\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1} + \bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\Sigma}{\partial\theta_1} \otimes \Xi\right)\right) = 0.$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned}
&E\left(\text{tr}\left(\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\Sigma \otimes \Xi\right)^2\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1} - \bar{\Omega}^{-1}(\Sigma \otimes \Xi)\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\left(\frac{\partial\Sigma}{\partial\theta_1} \otimes \Xi\right)\right)\right) \\
&= \text{tr}\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}(\Sigma \otimes I)D(\Sigma \otimes I)\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1} - \bar{\Omega}^{-1}(\Sigma \otimes I)D\left(\frac{\partial\Sigma}{\partial\theta_1} \otimes I\right)\right) \text{var}(\xi),
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \text{diag}(\bar{\Omega}_{11}^{-1}) & \text{diag}(\bar{\Omega}_{12}^{-1}) \\ \text{diag}(\bar{\Omega}_{12}^{-1}) & \text{diag}(\bar{\Omega}_{22}^{-1}) \end{pmatrix}$$

and $\bar{\Omega}_{ij}^{-1}$ is the (i, j) block of the $\bar{\Omega}^{-1}$. Therefore,

$$E\left(-\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial\theta_1\partial\theta_2}\right) = -\frac{1}{2}E\left(\frac{\partial^2 \log(\det \Omega)}{\partial\theta_1\partial\theta_2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\text{tr}\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_2}\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1}\right) + \phi_{\theta_1, \theta_2}(\Sigma, \bar{\Omega}, \bar{\Delta})\text{var}(\xi) + o(\bar{\Delta}^2)$$

where

$$\phi_{\theta_1, \theta_2}(\Sigma, \bar{\Omega}, \bar{\Delta}) = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta_2}\text{tr}\left(\bar{\Omega}^{-1}(\Sigma \otimes I)D(\Sigma \otimes I)\bar{\Omega}^{-1}\frac{\partial\bar{\Omega}}{\partial\theta_1} - \bar{\Omega}^{-1}(\Sigma \otimes I)D\left(\frac{\partial\Sigma}{\partial\theta_1} \otimes I\right)\right)\bar{\Delta}^2.$$

In fact, we can show that

$$\phi_{\theta_1, \theta_2}(\Sigma, \bar{\Omega}, \bar{\Delta}) = o(\bar{\Delta}^{3/2}).$$

Hence, the new fisher information converges to the previous one given in the proof of Theorem 1, as $\bar{\Delta} \rightarrow 0$, which concludes the proof.

A.4 Proof of Theorem 3

Since $n_1 \gg n_2$, we have:

$$\Delta^{n_1, n_2} = (\Delta^{n_2, n_1})' = \begin{pmatrix} \Delta_{1:m}^{n_1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta_{m+1:2m}^{n_1} & 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \Delta_{2m+1:3m}^{n_1} & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \Delta_{n_1-m+1:n_1}^{n_1} \end{pmatrix}_{n_1 \times n_2},$$

where $\Delta_{km+1:(k+1)m}^{n_1} = (\Delta_{km+1}^{n_1}, \Delta_{km+2}^{n_1}, \dots, \Delta_{(k+1)m}^{n_1})'$ is a m -dimensional vector.

Using similar orthogonal matrices U^{n_1} , and U^{n_2} , such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} U^{n_1} & \\ & U^{n_2} \end{pmatrix} \Omega \begin{pmatrix} (U^{n_1})' & \\ & (U^{n_2})' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V_{11} & V_{12} \\ V'_{12} & V_{22} \end{pmatrix} =: V,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} u_{ij}^{n_k} &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{n_k+1}} \sin\left(\frac{i \cdot j}{n_k+1} \pi\right), \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n_k, k = 1, 2, \\ V_{ii} &= \text{diag}(\mu_{ij}) = \text{diag}\left(\Sigma_{ii} \bar{\Delta}_i + 2\Lambda_{ii} \left(1 - \cos\left(\frac{j}{n_i+1} \pi\right)\right)\right), \quad i = 1, 2, \text{ and } j = 1, \dots, n_i, \\ V_{12} &= (v_{i,j}^{12}) = \Sigma_{12} U^{n_1} \Delta^{n_1, n_2} (U^{n_2})'. \end{aligned}$$

So for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n_1$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, n_2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} v_{i,j}^{12} &= \Sigma_{12} \bar{\Delta}_1 \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} u_{i,k}^{n_1} u_{j,[(k-1)/m]+1}^{n_2} = \Sigma_{12} \bar{\Delta}_1 \sum_{l=1}^{n_2} u_{j,l}^{n_2} \sum_{k=m(l-1)+1}^{ml} u_{i,k}^{n_1} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{(n_1+1)(n_2+1)}} \frac{\sin \frac{im\pi}{2(1+n_1)}}{\sin \frac{i\pi}{2(1+n_1)}} \Sigma_{12} \bar{\Delta}_1 \\ &\quad \left(\frac{\sin \frac{n_2(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \cos \frac{(i-j)\pi}{2}}{\sin \frac{(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)}} - \frac{\sin \frac{n_2(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \cos \frac{(i+j)\pi}{2}}{\sin \frac{(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Moreover,

$$\Omega^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} (U^{n_1})' & \\ & (U^{n_2})' \end{pmatrix} V^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} U^{n_1} & \\ & U^{n_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

where by the Woodbury formula:

$$\begin{aligned} V^{-1} &= \begin{pmatrix} (V_{11} - V_{12} V_{22}^{-1} V'_{12})^{-1} & -(V_{11} - V_{12} V_{22}^{-1} V'_{12})^{-1} V_{12} V_{22}^{-1} \\ -V_{22}^{-1} V'_{12} (V_{11} - V_{12} V_{22}^{-1} V'_{12})^{-1} & V_{22}^{-1} + V_{22}^{-1} V'_{12} (V_{11} - V_{12} V_{22}^{-1} V'_{12})^{-1} V_{12} V_{22}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} V_{11}^{-1} + V_{11}^{-1} V_{12} (V_{22} - V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} V_{12})^{-1} V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} & -V_{11}^{-1} V_{12} (V_{22} - V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} V_{12})^{-1} \\ -(V_{22} - V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} V_{12})^{-1} V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} & (V_{22} - V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} V_{12})^{-1} \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, for any $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in \{\Sigma_{11}, \Sigma_{12}, \Sigma_{22}\}$,

$$\frac{\partial \log(\det \Omega)}{\partial \theta_1} = \text{tr} \left(\Omega^{-1} \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \theta_1} \right) = \text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta_1} \right)$$

so

$$E \left(-\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2} \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \log(\det \Omega)}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_2} \text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta_1} \right)$$

Hence, our goal now is to calculate the following expressions, as $n_1, n_2 \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \right), \quad \text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} \right), \quad \text{and} \quad \text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \right).$$

Since $n_1 \gg n_2$, we have

$$\text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \right) = \bar{\Delta}_2 \text{tr} \left((V_{22} - V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} V_{12})^{-1} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \bar{\Delta}_2 \text{tr} \left(\left(\text{diag} \left(V_{22} - V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} V_{12} \right) \right)^{-1} \right) (1 + o(1)) \\
&= \bar{\Delta}_2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} \left(\mu_{2j} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (v_{i,j}^{12})^2 \mu_{1i}^{-1} \right)^{-1} (1 + o(1)).
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (v_{i,j}^{12})^2 \mu_{1i}^{-1} &= \frac{\Sigma_{12}^2 \bar{\Delta}_1^2}{(n_1 + 1)(n_2 + 1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \left(\frac{\sin \frac{im\pi}{2(1+n_1)}}{\sin \frac{i\pi}{2(1+n_1)}} \right)^2 \\
&\quad \left(\frac{\sin \frac{n_2(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \cos \frac{(i-j)\pi}{2}}{\sin \frac{(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)}} - \frac{\sin \frac{n_2(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \cos \frac{(i+j)\pi}{2}}{\sin \frac{(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)}} \right)^2 \mu_{1i}^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

We can prove that the dominant terms in the second brackets of the last summation are contributed by those is such that either

$$\sin \frac{(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \quad \text{or} \quad \sin \frac{(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)}$$

is close to 0. As $n_1 \gg n_2$, for each $1 \leq j \leq n_2^{1/2+\delta}$, there exists m different $i \in [1, n_1]$ such that

$$\sin \frac{(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \approx 0, \quad \text{or} \quad \sin \frac{(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \approx 0.$$

On the other hand,

$$\left(\frac{\sin \frac{im\pi}{2(1+n_1)}}{\sin \frac{i\pi}{2(1+n_1)}} \right)^2 \approx m^2, \quad \text{when } i \in [1, n_2^{1/2+\delta}]$$

and decrease rapidly once $i > n_2$. Hence, the dominant term when $j \in [1, n_2^{1/2+\delta}]$ is the one with $i \approx j$, in which case

$$\frac{\sin \frac{n_2(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \cos \frac{(i-j)\pi}{2}}{\sin \frac{(j+jn_1-im-in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)}} \approx n_2, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\sin \frac{n_2(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)} \cos \frac{(i+j)\pi}{2}}{\sin \frac{(j+jn_1+im+in_1)\pi}{2(1+n_1)(1+n_2)}} \approx -1$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (v_{i,j}^{12})^2 \mu_{1i}^{-1} = n_1^{-1} n_2^{-1} \mu_{1j}^{-1} \Sigma_{12}^2 T^2 (1 + o(1))$$

so as $n_1 \rightarrow \infty$, $n_2 \rightarrow \infty$ and $m \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n_2}} \text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \right) &= \frac{\bar{\Delta}_2}{\sqrt{n_2}} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} \left(\mu_{2j} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (v_{i,j}^{12})^2 \mu_{1i}^{-1} \right)^{-1} \\
&\rightarrow \int_0^\infty \frac{\Sigma_{11} T^2}{\Sigma_{11} T (\Sigma_{22} T + \Lambda_{22} \pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2 T^2} dx
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we can derive

$$\text{tr} \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \right) = \bar{\Delta}_1 \left(\text{tr} \left(V_{11}^{-1} \right) + \text{tr} \left(V_{11}^{-1} V_{12} \left(V_{22} - V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} V_{12} \right)^{-1} V'_{12} V_{11}^{-1} \right) \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \bar{\Delta}_1 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \mu_{1i}^{-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} \left(\left(\mu_{2j} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (v_{i,j}^{12})^2 \mu_{1i}^{-1} \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (v_{i,j}^{12})^2 \mu_{1i}^{-2} \right) \right) (1 + o(1)) \\
&= \left(\sqrt{n_2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\Sigma_{12}^2 T}{\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2 T)} dx \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \sqrt{n_1} \int_0^\infty \frac{T}{\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2 x^2} dx \right) (1 + o(1))
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
tr \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} \right) &= \frac{2}{\Sigma_{12}} tr \left(-V_{11}^{-1} V_{12} (V_{22} - V_{12}' V_{11}^{-1} V_{12})^{-1} V_{12}' \right) \\
&= \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{2\Sigma_{12}T}{\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2 T} dx \right) \sqrt{n_2} (1 + o(1)).
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that because $n_1 \gg n_2$, $tr \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \right)$ is dominated by the $O(\sqrt{n_1})$ term, hence the convergence rate of the liquid asset is not affected by the illiquid asset.

The Fisher information matrix can then be constructed by calculating the following derivatives multiplied by appropriate rates:

$$\begin{aligned}
I_{11}^\Sigma &= \lim_{n_1 \rightarrow \infty, n_2 \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n_1}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} tr \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{11}} \right) = \int_0^\infty \frac{T^2}{2(\Sigma_{11}T + \Lambda_{11}\pi^2 x^2)^2} dx, \\
I_{22}^\Sigma &= \lim_{n_1 \rightarrow \infty, n_2 \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n_2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} tr \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} \right) = \int_0^\infty \frac{T(\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2 x^2) + \Sigma_{12}^2 T)}{(\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2 T)^2} dx, \\
I_{23}^\Sigma &= \lim_{n_1 \rightarrow \infty, n_2 \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n_2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} tr \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{12}} \right) = \int_0^\infty \frac{\Sigma_{11}\Sigma_{12}T^2}{(\Sigma_{11}(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2 T)^2} dx, \\
I_{33}^\Sigma &= \lim_{n_1 \rightarrow \infty, n_2 \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n_2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} tr \left(V^{-1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \Sigma_{22}} \right) = \int_0^\infty \frac{\Sigma_{11}^2 T^4}{2(\Sigma_{11}T(\Sigma_{22}T + \Lambda_{22}\pi^2 x^2) - \Sigma_{12}^2 T^2)^2} dx, \\
I_{12}^\Sigma &= I_{13}^\Sigma = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\Pi_A = \begin{pmatrix} I_{11}^\Sigma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I_{22}^\Sigma & I_{23}^\Sigma \\ 0 & \cdot & I_{33}^\Sigma \end{pmatrix}^{-1},$$

and this concludes the proof.