Original Article

Tests for Conditional Heteroscedasticity of Functional Data

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Functional data objects derived from high-frequency financial data often exhibit volatility clustering. Versions of functional generalized autoregressive conditionally heteroscedastic (FGARCH) models have recently been proposed to describe such data, however so far basic diagnostic tests for these models are not available. We propose two portmanteau type tests to measure conditional heteroscedasticity in the squares of asset return curves. A complete asymptotic theory is provided for each test. We also show how such tests can be adapted and applied to model residuals to evaluate adequacy, and inform order selection, of FGARCH models. Simulation results show that both tests have good size and power to detect conditional heteroscedasticity and model mis-specification in finite samples. In an application, the tests show that intra-day asset return curves exhibit conditional heteroscedasticity. This conditional heteroscedasticity cannot be explained by the magnitude of inter-daily returns alone, but it can be adequately modeled by an FGARCH(1,1) model.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Since the seminal work of Engle (1982) and Bollerslev (1986), generalized autoregressive conditionally heteroscedastic (GARCH) models and their numerous generalizations have become a cornerstone of financial time series modeling, and are frequently used as a model for the volatility of financial asset returns. As the name suggests, the main feature that these models account for is conditional heteroscedasticity, which for an uncorrelated financial time series can be detected by checking for the presence of serial correlation in the series of squared returns of the asset. This basic observation leads to several ways of testing for the presence of conditional heteroscedasticity in a given time series or series of model residuals by applying portmanteau tests to the squared series. Such tests have been developed by McLeod and Li (1983) and Li and Mak (1994) to test for conditional heteroscedasticity and perform model selection for GARCH models as well as autoregressive moving average models with GARCH errors. Diagnostic tests of this type are summarized in Li (2003), Shumway and Stoffer (2017), and with a special focus on GARCH models in Francq and Zakoïan (2010). Many of these methods have also been extended to multivariate time series of a relatively small dimension; see also Francq and Zakoïan (2010), Tse and Tsui (1999), Tse (2002), Duchesne and Lalancette (2003), Kroner and Ng (1998), Bauwens et al. (2006), and Catani et al. (2017).

In many applications, dense intra-day price data of financial assets are available in addition to the daily asset returns. One way to view such data is as daily observations of high dimensional vectors (consisting of hundreds or thousands of coordinates) that may be thought of as discrete observations of an underlying noisy intra-day price curve or function. We illustrate with the data that motivate our work and will be further studied below.

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On consecutive days \( i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \), observations of the price of an asset, for instance the index of Standard & Poor’s 500 (S&P 500), are available at intra-day times \( u \), measured at a 1-minute (or finer) resolution. These data may then be represented by a sequence of discretely observed functions \( \{P_i(u) : 1 \leq i \leq T, u \in [0,S]\} \), with \( S \) denoting the length of the trading day. Transformations of these functions toward stationarity that are of interest include the cumulative returns, \( R_i(u) = \log P_i(u) - \log P_i(0) \), where \( P_i(0) \) is the opening price on day \( i \). On any given trading day \( i \), we thus observe a high-dimensional multivariate vector that can be viewed as a curve. The collection of these curves can therefore be suitably studied as a functional time series. Studying such data through the lens of a functional data analysis has received considerable attention in recent years. The basic idea of viewing transformations of densely observed asset price data as sequentially observed stochastic processes appears in studies such as Kokoszka and Reimherr (2013) and Constantinou et al. (2018), among others. We refer the reader to Ramsay and Silverman (2006) and Bosq (2000) for a review of functional data analysis and linear functional time series.

Curves produced as described above exhibit a nonlinear dependence structure and volatility clustering reminiscent of GARCH-type time series. Recently functional GARCH (FGARCH) models have been put forward as a model for curves derived from dense intra-day price data, beginning with Hörmann et al. (2013), who proposed an FARCH(1) model, which was generalized to FGARCH(1,1) and FGARCH\((p, q)\) models by Aue et al. (2017), and Cerovecki et al. (2019) respectively. An important determination an investigator may wish to make before employing such a model is whether or not the observed functional time series exhibits substantial evidence of conditional heteroscedasticity. While tests for the presence of conditional heteroscedasticity have been extensively studied for scalar and vector-valued time series, as of yet no formal statistical test is available to measure for conditional heteroscedasticity in sequentially observed functional data. Additionally, if an FGARCH model is employed, it is desirable to know how well it fits the data, and whether or not the orders \( p \) and \( q \) selected for the model should be adjusted. This can be addressed by testing for remaining conditional heteroscedasticity in the residuals of fitted models.

In this article, we develop functional portmanteau tests for the purpose of identifying conditional heteroscedasticity in functional time series. Additionally, we consider applications of the proposed tests to the model residuals from a fitted FGARCH model that can be used to evaluate the model’s adequacy and aid in order selection. The development of this later application entails deriving joint asymptotic results between the autocovariance of the FGARCH innovations and the model parameter estimators that may be of independent interest. Simulation studies presented in this article confirm that the proposed tests have good size and are effective in identifying functional conditional heteroscedasticity as well as mis-specification of FGARCH-type models. In an application to intra-day return curves derived from dense stock price data, our tests suggest that the FGARCH models are adequate for modeling the observed conditional heteroscedasticity across curves.

This work builds on a number of recent contributions related to portmanteau and goodness-of-fit tests for functional data. Gabrys and Kokoszka (2007) were the first to consider white noise tests for functional time series, and their initial approach was based on portmanteau statistics applied to finite-dimensional projections of functional observations. Horváth et al. (2012) develop general white noise tests based on the squared norms of the autocovariance operators, and general weak white noise tests that are robust to potential conditional heteroscedasticity were developed in Zhang (2016) and Kokoszka et al. (2017).

The remainder of the article is organized as follows. In Section 2 we frame testing for conditional heteroscedasticity as a hypothesis testing problem, and introduce test statistics for this purpose. We further present the asymptotic properties of the proposed statistics, and show how to apply them to the model residuals of the FGARCH models for the purpose of model validation/selection. Some details regarding the practical implementation of the proposed tests and a simulation study evaluating their performance in finite samples are presented in Section 4. An application to intra-day return curves is detailed in Section 5, and concluding remarks are made in Section 6. Proofs of the asymptotic results are collected in appendices following these main sections.

We use the following notation below. We let \( L^2[0,1]^d \) denote the space of real-valued square integrable functions defined on unit hypercube \([0,1]^d\) with norm \( \| \cdot \| \) induced by the inner product \( \langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{d} x_j y_j \).
\[
\int_0^1 \cdots \int_0^1 x(t_1, \ldots, t_d) dt_1 \ldots dt_d \text{ for } x, y \in L^2[0, 1]^d, \text{ the dimension of the domain being clear based on the input function. Henceforth we write } \int \text{ instead of } \int_0^1. \text{ We often consider kernel integral operators of the form } g(x)(t) = \int g(t, s)x(s)ds \text{ for } x \in L^2[0, 1], \text{ where the kernel function } g \text{ is an element of } L^2[0, 1]^2. \text{ We use } g^{(k)}(x)(t) \text{ to denote the } k\text{-fold convolution of the operator } g. \text{ The filtration } \mathcal{F}_t \text{ is used to denote the sigma algebra generated by the random elements } \{X_j, j \leq i\}. \text{ We let } C[0, 1] \text{ denote the space of continuous real-valued functions on } [0, 1], \text{ with norm defined for } x \in C[0, 1] \text{ as } \|x\|_\infty = \sup_{y \in [0, 1]} |x(y)|. \text{ We let } \chi_{k}^2 \text{ denote a chi-square random variable with } K \text{ degrees of freedom, and use } \chi_{k,q}^2 \text{ to denote its } q^\text{th quantile}. \| \cdot \|_E \text{ denotes the standard Euclidean norm of a vector in } \mathbb{R}^d. \text{ We use } \{x_i\} \text{ to denote the sequence } \{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \text{ or } \{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}\text{, with the specific usage of which being clear in context.}

2. TESTS FOR FUNCTIONAL CONDITIONAL HETEROSCEDASTICITY

Consider a stretch of a functional time series of length \(N\), \(X_1(t), \ldots, X_N(t)\), which is assumed to have been observed from a strictly stationary sequence \(\{X_i(t), i \in \mathbb{Z}, t \in [0, 1]\}\) of stochastic processes with sample paths in \(L^2[0, 1]\). For example, in the application below \(X_i(t)\) denotes the intra-day cumulative log returns derived from densely observed stock prices on day \(i\) at intraday time \(t\), where \(t\) is normalized to be in the unit interval.

As described in Ding and Engle (2001), conditional heteroscedasticity or the presence of ‘GARCH effects’ in a multivariate time series is generally characterized by serial correlation in the squares of the component series, or lagged cross-correlation between the squared component series. This leads one to consider the following definition of conditional heteroscedasticity for functional observations:

**Definition 2.1** (Functional conditional heteroscedasticity). We say that a sequence \(\{X_i\}\) is conditionally heteroscedastic in \(L^2[0, 1]\) if it is strictly stationary, \(E[X_i(t)|\mathcal{F}_{i-1}] = 0\), and

\[
\text{cov}(X_i^2(t), X_{i+h}^2(s)) \neq 0,
\]

for some \(h \geq 1\), where the equality above is understood to be in the \(L^2[0, 1]^2\) sense.

Recently, several models have been proposed to model series of curves exhibiting conditional heteroscedasticity. The functional ARCH(1) and GARCH(1,1) processes were put forward by Hörmann et al. (2013) and Aue et al. (2017) respectively, and take the form

\[
X_i(t) = \sigma_i(t) \varepsilon_i(t), \quad t \in [0, 1],
\]

(2.1)

where \(\varepsilon_i(t)\) are i.i.d. random functions with \(E\varepsilon_i^2(t) = 1\). In the FARCH(1) formulation, the volatility process \(\sigma_i^2(t)\) follows

\[
\sigma_i^2(t) = \omega(t) + \alpha(X_{i-1}^2(t)) = \omega(t) + \int \alpha(t, s)X_{i-1}^2(s)ds,
\]

(2.2)

while in the FGARCH(1,1) formulation,

\[
\sigma_i^2(t) = \omega(t) + \alpha(X_{i-1}^2(t)) + \beta(\sigma_{i-1}^2(t)) = \omega(t) + \int \alpha(t, s)X_{i-1}^2(s)ds + \int \beta(t, s)\sigma_{i-1}^2(s)ds.
\]

Here \(\omega(t)\) is a non-negative intercept function, and \(\alpha(t, s)\) and \(\beta(t, s)\) are non-negative kernel functions. General FGARCH\((p, q)\) models are discussed in Cerovecki et al. (2019), in which they also provide natural conditions under which these models admit strictly stationary and non-anticipative solutions.

We frame testing for conditional heteroscedasticity as a hypothesis testing problem of
$H_0$: The sequence $\{X_i\}$ is i.i.d., vs.

$H_A$: The sequence of $\{X_i\}$ is conditionally heteroscedastic.

Clearly it is not the case in general that rejecting $H_0$ would directly lead to $H_A$, because $\{X_i\}$ might instead be serially correlated but not conditionally heteroscedastic. This concern can be alleviated though if we test serial correlation in the sequence of squared curves as described in Definition 2.1.

In particular, we might then test $H_0$ vs. $H_A$ by measuring the serial correlation in the time series $\|X_1\|^2, \ldots, \|X_N\|^2$, or in the sequence of curves $X^2_i(t), \ldots, X^2_N(t)$. Testing for serial correlation in the time series $\|X\|^2$ can be viewed as measuring to what extent large in magnitude curves increase/decrease the likelihood of subsequent curves being large in magnitude, whereas testing for serial correlation in the curves $X^2_i(t)$ aims to more directly evaluate whether the data follow Definition 2.1. For some positive integer $K$, we then consider portmanteau statistics of the form

$$V_{N,K} = N \sum_{h=1}^{K} \hat{\rho}^2_h, \quad M_{N,K} = N \sum_{h=1}^{K} \|\hat{\gamma}_h\|^2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.3)

where $\hat{\rho}_h$ is the sample autocorrelation of the time series $\|X_i\|^2, \ldots, \|X_N\|^2$, and $\hat{\gamma}_h(t,s) \in L^2[0,1]^2$ is the estimated autocovariance kernel of the functional time series $X^2_i(t)$ at lag $h$, defined as

$$\hat{\gamma}_h(t,s) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} (X^2_i(t) - \bar{X}^2(t))(X^2_{i+h}(s) - \bar{X}^2(s)),$$

with $\bar{X}^2(t) = (1/N) \sum_{i=1}^{N} X^2_i(t)$. The test statistic $V_{N,K}$ is essentially the Box–Ljung–Pierce test statistic (Ljung and Box, 1978) derived from the scalar time series of squared norms, whereas the test statistic $M_{N,K}$ is the same as the portmanteau statistic defined in Kokoszka et al. (2017) applied to the squared functions.

Under $H_A$, we expect the statistics $V_{N,K}$ and $M_{N,K}$ to be large, and hence a consistent test can be obtained by rejecting $H_0$ whenever they exceed a threshold calibrated according to their limiting distributions under the null hypothesis. To establish the asymptotic distributions of each portmanteau statistic under $H_0$, we impose the following moment condition.

**Assumption 2.1.** $E \|X_i\|^8 < \infty, i \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Under this assumption, the asymptotic distribution of $M_{N,K}$ depends on the eigenvalues $\lambda_i, i \geq 1$ of the kernel integral operator with kernel $\text{cov}(X^2_i(t), X^2_i(s))$, namely

$$\lambda_i \varphi_i(t) = \int \text{cov}(X^2_i(t), X^2_i(s)) \varphi_i(s) ds,$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.4)

where $\{\varphi_i\}$ is an orthonormal sequence of eigenfunctions in $L^2[0,1]$. Assumption 2.1 guarantees that the eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}$ satisfy the condition that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i < \infty$.

**Theorem 2.1.** If $H_0$ and Assumption 2.1 are satisfied, then we have

$$V_{N,K} \xrightarrow{D} \chi^2_K, \quad \text{as } N \to \infty,$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.5)

and

$$M_{N,K} \xrightarrow{D} \sum_{h=1}^{K} \lambda_i \lambda_j \chi^2_{h, \ell, k}, \quad \text{as } N \to \infty,$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6)
where \( \chi^2_1(h, \epsilon, k) \), \( 1 \leq h \leq K, \ 1 \leq \epsilon, k < \infty \) are i.i.d. \( \chi^2 \) random variables.

Theorem 2.1 shows that an approximate test of \( H_0 \) of size \( q \) is to reject if \( V_{N,K} > \chi^2_{K,1-q} \) or if \( M_{N,K} \) exceeds the \( q \)th quantile of the distribution on the right-hand side of (2.6). The latter can be approximated in several ways, and in Section 4 we describe a Welch–Satterthwaite style \( \chi^2 \) approximation to achieve this.

The eighth-order moment condition in Assumption 2.1 needed for this result is evidently quite strong, although this is a typical assumption in the literature on this topic to ensure consistency of the required higher-order moment estimates. Consequently one may wish to consider robust versions of such portmanteau tests. A nice discussion of this issue in the scalar case is given Aguilar and Hill (2015), and some approaches that may be used are to consider other transformations of the data to evaluate for volatility, for example measuring for serial dependence at short lags. In general we recommend applying the test for a range of values of \( K \) may detect such effects at long lags, but decreases the power for detecting effects at short lags. In general we recommend applying the test for a range of values of \( K \), as a default between 1 and 20, as is recommended when applying the Ljung–Box portmanteau test to scalar series in Shumway and Stoffer (2017), see p. 150. We demonstrate this in an application to functional time series derived from asset price data.

2.1. Consistency of the Proposed Tests

We now turn to the consistency of each test under \( H_A \). In particular, we consider the asymptotic behavior of \( V_{N,K} \) and \( M_{N,K} \) for sequences \( \{X_i\} \) such that either: (i) they form a general weakly dependent sequences in \( L^2[0,1] \) that are conditionally heteroscedastic as described by Definition 2.1, or (ii) they follow a FARCH(1) model as described in (2.2). We use the notion of \( L^p \)-m-approximability defined in Hörmann and Kokoszka (2010) to describe general weakly dependent sequences. A time series \( \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \) in \( L^2[0,1] \) is called \( L^p \)-m-approximable for some \( p > 0 \) if

(i) There exists a measurable function \( g : S^\infty \rightarrow L^2([0,1]) \), where \( S \) is a measurable space, and i.i.d. innovations \( \{\epsilon_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \) taking values in \( S \) such that \( X_i = g(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_{i-1}, \ldots) \) for \( i \in \mathbb{Z} \);
(ii) Let \( \{\epsilon'_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \) be an independent copy of \( \{\epsilon_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \), and define
\[ X_{i,m} = g(\epsilon_i, \ldots, \epsilon_{i-m+1}, \epsilon'_{i-m+1}, \ldots). \]
Then,
\[ \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (\mathbb{E}[\|X_i - X_{i,m}\|^p])^{1/p} < \infty. \]

Under suitable moment and stationarity conditions, the solutions \( \{X_i\} \) to functional GARCH models are \( L^p \)-m-approximable; see Hörmann et al. (2013), Aue et al. (2017), and Cerovecki et al. (2019).

**Theorem 2.2.** If \( \{X_i\} \) is \( L^3 \)-m-approximable and \( H_A \) holds where \( h \) in Definition 2.1 satisfies \( 1 \leq h \leq K \), then
\[ M_{N,K} \overset{p}{\rightarrow} \infty, \quad N \rightarrow \infty. \] (2.7)

If in addition \( \iint \text{cov}(X^2_i(t), X^2_{i+h}(s))dtds \neq 0 \), then
\[ V_{N,K} \overset{p}{\rightarrow} \infty, \quad N \rightarrow \infty. \] (2.8)

Under the FARCH(1) model we can develop more precise results on the rate of divergence of \( V_{N,K} \) and \( M_{N,K} \). The following assumption ensures that a stationary and causal sequence satisfying (2.1) and (2.2) exists in \( L^2[0,1] \):
Assumption 2.2. The sequence \( \{\epsilon_i\} \) in (2.1) is i.i.d., and the kernel \( a(t, s) \) in (2.2) is non-negative, \( \|a\| < 1 \), and satisfies that there exists a constant \( \tau > 0 \) so that

\[
E \left( \int \int a^2(t, s) \epsilon_i^2(s) ds \right)^{\tau/2} < 1.
\]

In the statement of the result below, we recall the definition of a weak white noise in \( L^2[0, 1] \) from p. 72 of Bosq (2000).

**Theorem 2.3.** Suppose that \( \{X_t\} \) is the strictly stationary solution to the FARCH(1) equations under Assumption 2.2 so that Assumption 2.1 holds, and let \( Y_t = X_t - \sigma_t^2(t) \). Then \( Y_t \) is a mean zero weak white noise in \( L^2[0, 1] \),

\[
\frac{V_{N,K}}{N} \xrightarrow{p} \sum_{h=1}^K \left( \int \int \sum_{j=0}^\infty E\alpha^{(h)}(Y_j)(t) \alpha^{(h)}(Y_j)(s) ds \right)^2,
\]

and

\[
\frac{M_{N,K}}{N} \xrightarrow{p} \sum_{h=1}^K \left\| \sum_{j=0}^\infty E\alpha^{(h)}(Y_j)(t) \alpha^{(h)}(Y_j)(s) \right\|^2.
\]

The right-hand side of (2.10) is guaranteed to be strictly positive if \( \int a(t, s) E\alpha(t)(\epsilon_i^2(s) - 1)\alpha(s)(\epsilon_i^2(s) - 1) ds \neq 0 \).

**Remark 2.1.** Theorem 2.3 shows that under an FARCH(1) model, the rate of divergence of \( V_{N,K} \) and \( M_{N,K} \) depend essentially on the size of the function \( a(t, s) \) as well as how this kernel projects onto the intercept term in the conditional variance \( \omega(t) \) and the covariance of the squared error \( \epsilon_i^2(t) \). If for example \( \int a(t, s) E(\epsilon_i^2(t) - 1)\epsilon_i^2(s) - 1 ds = 0 \), then we do not expect the tests to be consistent.

### 3. Diagnostic Checking for Functional GARCH Models

The conditional heteroscedasticity tests proposed above can also be used to test for the adequacy of the estimated functional ARCH and GARCH models, and can aid in the order selection of these models. We introduce this approach in the context of testing the adequacy of the FGARCH(1,1) model, although one could more generally consider the same procedure applied to the FGARCH\((p, q)\) models using the estimation procedures in Cerovecici et al. (2019). To this end, suppose that \( X_i(t), 1 \leq i \leq N \) follows an FGARCH(1,1) model. To estimate \( \omega(t) \), and the kernel functions \( \alpha(t, s) \) and \( \beta(t, s) \), following Aue et al. (2017) and Cerovecici et al. (2019), we suppose that they have finite \( L \)-dimensional representations determined by a set of basis functions \( \Phi_L = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \ldots, \phi_L\} \) in \( L^2[0, 1] \) so that

\[
\omega(t) = \sum_{j=1}^L d_j \phi_j(t), \quad \alpha(t, s) = \sum_{j,j'=1}^L a_{j,j'} \phi_j(t) \phi_j(s), \quad \beta(t, s) = \sum_{j,j'=1}^L b_{j,j'} \phi_j(t) \phi_j(s).
\]

Under this assumption, estimating these functions amounts to estimating the coefficients in their finite dimensional representations, which can be achieved by using, for example, quasi-maximum likelihood estimation (QMLE) or...
least squares estimation, as is typically employed in multivariate GARCH models. To see this, under (3.1) we can re-express the FGARCH(1,1) model in terms of the coefficients as

$$\hat{\sigma}^2_i = D + Ax_i^2 + B\hat{\sigma}^2_{i-1}$$

(3.2)

where \(x_i^2 = \{X_i^2, \phi_1 \}, \ldots, \{X_i^2, \phi_L\}\), \(\hat{\sigma}^2_i = \{\hat{\sigma}_i^2, \phi_1 \}, \ldots, \{\hat{\sigma}_i^2, \phi_L\}\), the coefficient vector \(D = [d_1, \ldots, d_L]^T \in \mathbb{R}^L\), and the coefficient matrices \(A\) and \(B\) are \(\mathbb{R}^{1 \times 2L}\) with \((j, j')\) entries defined by \(a_{j, j'}\) and \(b_{j, j'}\) respectively. To estimate the vector of parameters \(\theta_0 = (D', vec(A)'', vec(B)'')\), Aue et al. (2017) propose a least squares type estimator satisfying

$$\hat{\theta}_N = \arg\min_{\theta \in \Theta} \left\{ \sum_{i=2}^N (x_i^2 - \hat{\sigma}^2_i(\theta))^\top(x_i^2 - \hat{\sigma}^2_i(\theta)) \right\},$$

where \(\Theta\) is a compact subset of \(\mathbb{R}^{1 \times 2L}\). Under certain regularity conditions, detailed at the beginning of Appendix B, it can be shown that \(\hat{\theta}_N\) is a consistent estimator of \(\theta_0\), and in fact \(\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0)\) satisfies the central limit theorem. This yields estimated parameter functions given by

$$\hat{\alpha}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^L \hat{a}_j \phi_j(t), \quad \hat{\alpha}(t, s) = \sum_{j=1}^L \hat{a}_{j, j'} \phi_j(t) \phi_{j'}(s), \quad \hat{\beta}(t, s) = \sum_{j=1}^L \hat{b}_{j, j'} \phi_j(t) \phi_{j'}(s).$$

The functions \(\phi_j\) can be chosen in a number of ways, including using a deterministic basis system such as polynomials, b-splines, or the Fourier basis, as well as using a functional principal component basis; see for example, Chapter 6 of Ramsay and Silverman (2006). Cerovecki et al. (2019) and Aue et al. (2017) suggest using the principal component basis determined by the squared processes \(X_i^2(t)\), which we also consider below. Given these function estimates, we can estimate \(\hat{\sigma}^2_i(t)\) recursively, see (B4) in Appendix B for specific details.

To test the adequacy of the FGARCH(1,1) model, we utilize the fact that if the model is well specified then the sequence of model residuals \(\hat{\epsilon}_i(t), 1 \leq i \leq N\), should be approximately i.i.d., where

$$\hat{\epsilon}_i(t) = \frac{X_i(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_i(t)}.$$  

(3.3)

This suggests that we consider the portmanteau statistics constructed from the residuals

$$V_{N,K,\epsilon} = N \sum_{h=1}^K \hat{\rho}_{\epsilon,h}, \quad \text{and} \quad M_{N,K,\epsilon} = N \sum_{h=1}^K \|\hat{\gamma}_{\epsilon,h}\|^2,$$

where \(\hat{\rho}_{\epsilon,h}\) is the sample autocorrelation of the scalar time series \(\|\hat{\epsilon}_1\|^2, \ldots, \|\hat{\epsilon}_N\|^2\), and

$$\hat{\gamma}_{\epsilon,h}(t, s) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} (\hat{\epsilon}_i^2(t) - 1) (\hat{\epsilon}_{i+h}^2(s) - 1).$$

(3.4)

A test of model adequacy of size \(q\) is to reject if \(V_{N,K,\epsilon} > \chi^2_{K,1-q}\) or if \(M_{N,K,\epsilon}\) exceeds the \(1 - q\)th quantile of the distribution on the right-hand side of (2.6), where again this distribution must be estimated from the squared residuals \(\hat{\epsilon}_i^2(t)\). We abbreviate these tests below as being based on \(V_{N,K,\epsilon}^{\text{heuristic}}\) and \(M_{N,K,\epsilon}^{\text{heuristic}}\), since even under the assumption that that the model is correctly specified the residuals \(\hat{\epsilon}_i\) are evidently not i.i.d. due to their common dependence on the estimated parameters \(\hat{\theta}_N\).
3.1. Accounting for the Effect of Parameter Estimation

The approximate goodness-of-fit tests proposed above provide a heuristic method to evaluate the model fit of a specified functional GARCH type model, however we now aim at more precisely describing how the asymptotic distribution of $M_{N,K,t}$ based on the model residuals $\hat{\epsilon}_t$ depends on the joint asymptotics of the innovation process and the estimated parameters $\hat{\theta}_N$. In this subsection, we focus on quantifying this effect for the fully functional statistic $M_{N,K,t}$, since this statistic showed generally better finite sample performance relative to $V_{N,K,t}$ in Section 4, and also because this statistic is more amenable to such an asymptotic analysis due to the fact that it is based directly on the norms of the autocovariance kernels. Furthermore, we assume that the parameter estimate $\hat{\theta}_N$ is obtained by the least squares method proposed in Aue et al. (2017), although this could easily be adapted to the QMLE parameter estimate as well.

Towards this, we define the terms $J_0$, $H_0$, and $Q_0$ respectively as

$$J_0 = E\{[x_0^2 - \hat{\sigma}_0^2][x_0^2 - \hat{\sigma}_0^2]^\top\}, \quad H_0 = E\left\{\frac{\partial \tilde{\sigma}_0^2(\theta)}{\partial \theta}\right\}, \quad Q_0 = E\left\{\left[\frac{\partial \tilde{\sigma}_0^2(\theta)}{\partial \theta}\right]^\top\left[\frac{\partial \hat{\epsilon}_0^2(\theta)}{\partial \theta}\right]\right\}.$$  

Given the regularity conditions stated Appendix B, it follows that

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) \overset{d}{\to} N_{L^{+2L}:\{0, Q_0^{-1}H_0H_0Q_0^{-1}\}},$$

where $N_{\cdot}(0, \Sigma)$ denotes a $p$ dimensional normal random vector with mean zero and covariance matrix $\Sigma$. We use the notation $\sigma_i^2(t, \theta)$ and $\tilde{\sigma}_i^2(\theta)$ to indicate how each of these terms depends on the vector of parameters defined in (3.1). Let $G_h : [0, 1]^2 \to \mathbb{R}^{L^{+2L}}$ be defined by

$$G_h(t, s) = -E\left\{\frac{1}{\sigma_{s,t}^2(s, \theta_0)} \times \frac{\partial \tilde{\sigma}_i^2(s, \theta_0)}{\partial \theta} \times (\epsilon_i^2(t, \theta_0) - 1) \right\}.$$  

We further define the covariance kernels

$$C_\epsilon(t, s, u, v) = E\{(\epsilon_i^2(t) - 1)(\epsilon_i^2(s) - 1)\}E\{(\epsilon_i^2(u) - 1)(\epsilon_i^2(v) - 1)\},$$

and

$$C_{\epsilon, h}^\theta(t, s, u, v) = E\left\{(\epsilon_i^2(t) - 1)(\epsilon_i^2(s) - 1)\times G_h^\top \left\{\frac{\partial \hat{\epsilon}_0^2(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta}\right\}(x_0^2 - \hat{\epsilon}_0^2)\right\}.$$  

**Theorem 3.1.** Suppose that $\{X_t\}$ follows an F-GARCH(1,1) model. Under the assumptions detailed in Appendix B, there exists a sequence of non-negative coefficients $\{q_{i,k}\}, \ i \geq 1$ such that

$$M_{N,K,t} \overset{D}{\to} \sum_{i=1}^\infty q_{i,k} X_1^2(i),$$

where $X_1^2(i), \ i \geq 1$ are i.i.d. $\chi^2$ random variables with one degree of freedom. The coefficients $q_{i,k}$ are the eigenvalues of a covariance operator $\Psi_{K}^{(\epsilon, h)}$, defined in (B1), that is constructed from kernels of the form

$$\Psi_{K,\theta}^{(\epsilon, h)}(t, s, u, v) = C_\epsilon(t, s, u, v) + C_{\epsilon, h}^\theta(t, s, u, v) + C_{\epsilon, h}^\theta(u, v, t, s) + C_{\epsilon, h}^\theta(u, v, t, s)Q_0^{-1}H_0J_0H_0Q_0^{-1}G_h(u, v), \ 1 \leq h, g \leq K.
Theorem 3.1 precisely describes the asymptotics for $M_{K,K}$, which in this case depend jointly on the auto-co-
variance of the FGARCH innovations as well as the parameter estimates. The specific definition of the covariance
operator $\Psi_{K}^{(p,q)}$ along with the necessary assumptions on the FGARCH model are detailed in Appendix B. These
assumptions basically imply that (3.5) holds, and that the solution $\{X_{t}\}$ of the FGARCH equations exists in $C[0,1]$
with sufficient moments. The proof relies on a functional delta method for partial sums of random variables taking
values in $C[0,1]$ and depending on a vector of parameters that might be of independent interest. These results
may also be easily generalized to FGARCH models of other orders, for instance, the FARCH(1) model, which we
study in the simulation section below and also detail in Appendix B.

4. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE TESTS AND A SIMULATION STUDY

This section gives details on implementation of the proposed tests and evaluates the performance of the proposed
tests in finite samples. Several synthetic data examples are considered for this purpose. A simulation study on
diagnostic checking for the FGARCH model is also provided in the last subsection.

4.1. Computation of Test Statistics and Asymptotic Critical Values

In practice we only observe each functional data object $X_{t}(t)$ at a discrete collection of time points. Often in
financial applications these time points can be taken to be regularly spaced and represented as $T_{J} = \{t_{j} = j/J, j = 1,\ldots,J\} \subset (0,1]$. Given the observations of the function $X_{t}(t_{j}), t_{j} \in T_{J}$, we can estimate, for example, the squared
norm $\|X_{t}\|^{2}$ by a simple Riemann sum,

$$\|X_{t}\|^{2} = \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^{J} X_{t_{j}}^{2}(t_{j}).$$

Other norms arising in the definitions of $V_{N,K}$ and $M_{N,K}$ can be approximated similarly. For data observed at
different frequencies, such as tick-by-tick, the norms and inner-products can be estimated with Riemann sums or
alternate integration methods as the data allows. In all of the simulations below we generate functional observations
on $J = 50$ equally spaced points in the interval $[0,1]$.

The critical values of the null limiting distribution of $V_{N,K}$ can easily be obtained, but estimating the limiting
distribution of $M_{N,K}$ defined in (2.6) requires a further elaboration. To achieve this one could implement a
covariance block bootstrap approach as described in Zhang (2016) and Pilavakis et al. (2019), but for the sake
of computational speed, and due to its satisfactory performance, we instead propose to estimate the limiting distri-
bution directly. This could be done by estimating the eigenvalues of the kernel integral operator with kernel
cov$(X_{t}^{2}(t), X_{s}^{2}(s))$ via estimates of the kernel, or alternatively using a Welch–Satterthwaite style approximation,
the later of which we pursue; see for example, Zhang (2013). The basic idea of this method is to approximate the lim-
itng distribution in (2.6) by a random variable $R_{K} \sim \beta \chi^{2}$, where $\beta$ and $\nu$ are estimated so that the distribution of
$R_{K}$ has the same first two moments as the limiting distribution on the right-hand side of (2.6). If $M_{K}$ denotes the
random variable on the right-hand side of (2.6), $\mu_{K} = \text{E}(M_{K})$, and $\sigma_{K}^{2} = \text{var}(M_{K})$, then in order that the first two
moments of $R_{K}$ match those of $M_{K}$ we take

$$\beta = \frac{\sigma_{K}^{2}}{2\mu_{K}} \quad \text{and} \quad \nu = \frac{2\mu_{K}^{2}}{\sigma_{K}^{2}}. \quad (4.1)$$

We verify below that

$$\mu_{K} = K \left( \int \text{cov}(X_{0}^{2}(t), X_{0}^{2}(t))dt \right)^{2},$$

$$\sigma_{K}^{2} = 2K \left( \int \int \text{cov}(X_{0}^{2}(t), X_{0}^{2}(s))dtds \right)^{2}. \quad (4.2)$$
These can be consistently estimated by

\[ \hat{\mu}_K = K \left( \int \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i^2(t) - \bar{X}^{(2)}(t))^2 \, dt \right)^2, \]

and

\[ \hat{\sigma}_K^2 = 2K \left( \int \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i^2(t) - \bar{X}^{(2)}(t))(X_i^2(s) - \bar{X}^{(2)}(s)) \, ds \right)^2, \]

where \( \bar{X}^{(2)}(t) = (1/N) \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i^2(t) \). A test of \( H_0 \) with an approximate size of \( q \) is to reject if \( M_{N,K} \) exceeds the \( 1-q \) quantile of the distribution of \( R_K \sim \hat{\beta} \chi^2_{\nu} \).

Similarly, to estimate the asymptotic critical values of \( M_{N,K,\varepsilon} \) under the FGARCH model adequacy described in Theorem 3.1, we obtain the parameters \( \beta \) and \( \nu \) of approximated distribution by estimating,

\[ \begin{align*}
\hat{\mu}_K &= \text{Trace}(\Psi_{(\varepsilon,\theta)}K), \\
\hat{\sigma}_K^2 &= 2\text{Trace}(\Psi_{(\varepsilon,\theta)}^2K),
\end{align*} \tag{4.3} \]

We can consistently estimate these terms using estimators of the form,

\[ \begin{align*}
\hat{\mu}_K &= \sum_{h_1=1}^{K} \int \int \Psi_{K,h_1}(t,s,t,s) \, ds \, dt, \text{ and} \\
\hat{\sigma}_K^2 &= \sum_{h_1=1}^{K} 2 \int \int \int \int \Psi_{K,h_1}(t,s,u,v) \, dv \, du \, ds \, dt,
\end{align*} \]

where \( \Psi_{K,h_1} \) are consistent estimators of the kernels \( \psi_{K,h_1} \) in (3.8), which we define in the last subsection of Appendix B.

Calculating and storing such kernels, which can be thought of as four-dimensional tensors, is computationally intractable if \( J \) is large, which is commonly the case when considering high-frequency financial data. For example, \( J = 390 \) when using 1-minute resolution US stock market data. To solve this problem, we use a Monte Carlo integration to calculate the integrals above based on a randomly sparsified sample, with the sparse \( J^* \) points determined by drawing from a uniform distribution on \([0, 1]\). Below we use \( J^* = 20 \) points to estimate these integrals, which seems to work well in practice.

### 4.2. Simulation Study of FGARCH Goodness-of-Fit Tests

We have conducted numerous simulation experiments with several different data generating processes (DGPs) to evaluate the finite sample performance of the functional conditional heteroscedasticity tests introduced in Section 2. The results of these showed generally that those tests performed well in terms of empirical size and power, and to shorten the exposition we have relegated the presentation of those results to an online supplement to this article.

We consider a simulation study of the proposed test statistics applied to diagnostic checking of FGARCH models as described in Section 3. In particular, we generate data from the following three DGPs: the FARCH(1), FARCH(2), and FGARCH(1,1). Specifically, with \( \{W_i(t), \ t \in [0, 1], \ i \in \mathbb{Z}\} \) denoting i.i.d. sequences of standard Brownian motions defined on the unit interval, we consider the DGPs

(i) FARCH(1): \( X_i(t) \) satisfies the FARCH(1) specification, with

\[ \alpha(x)(t) = \int 12r(1-t)s(1-s)x(s) \, ds, \]
and \( \omega = 0.01 \) (a constant function), and the innovation sequence \( \epsilon_i(t) \) follows an Ornstein–Uhlenbeck process, namely

\[
\epsilon_i(t) = e^{-t/2} W_i(t), \quad t \in [0, 1].
\]

(ii) FGARCH(1,1): \( X_i(t) \) satisfies the FGARCH(1,1) specification, with

\[
\alpha(x)(t) = \int 12t(1-t)s(1-s)x(s)ds, \quad \beta(x)(t) = \int 12t(1-t)s(1-s)x(s)ds,
\]

\( \omega = 0.01 \) (a constant function), and \( \epsilon_i(t) \) follows (4.4).

(iii) FARCH(2): \( X_i(t) = \sigma_i(t) \epsilon_i(t) \), where \( \epsilon_i(t) \) follows (4.4) and,

\[
\sigma_i^2(t) = \omega(t) + \int 12(t(1-t))(s(1-s))X_{i-1}^2(s)ds + \int 12(t(1-t))(s(1-s))X_{i-2}^2(s)ds.
\]

For each simulated sample we then test for the model adequacy of the FARCH(1) model. When the data follows the FARCH(1) specification, we expect the test to reject the adequacy of the FARCH(1) model at only the specified significance level, while we expect that the adequacy of the FARCH(1) model is rejected at a high rate for data generated according to the FARCH(2) and FGARCH(1,1) models. To estimate these models, we set \( L = 1 \) in (3.1). In practice the number \( L \) can be selected in several ways, including using the ‘total variance explained’ approach common in principal component analysis, see Cerovecki et al. (2019), or using the tests that we propose to evaluate whether a given choice of \( L \) suitably whitens the model residuals. We take \( L = 1 \) here since the kernels defining each FGARCH process are rank one, and to more easily study the effect of estimating the basis used to approximate these kernels.

Also, to investigate whether using the estimates of the principal components of the squared process affects the rejection rates, we adopt two types of basis functions: \( \hat{\phi}_1(t) \) is derived from the empirical principal components, or the ‘oracle’ basis function

\[
\phi_1(t) = t(1-t)/ \| t(1-t) \|,
\]

is used. Using the ‘oracle’ function to reduce the dimension of the operators to be estimated is ideal in our setting since for the processes that we consider the operators defining them are rank one with a range spanned by \( \phi_1 \).

Panel A of Table I displays the rejection rates of each model using the test statistics \( V_{N,K,d}^{\text{heuristic}}, M_{N,K,d}^{\text{heuristic}} \) and \( M_{N,K,d} \) with increasing values of \( N \) and \( K \) when the empirical principal component is used. Both heuristic tests are shown to have reasonable size for the fitted residuals, although the test based on \( M_{N,K,d}^{\text{heuristic}} \) test was somewhat over-sized in large samples. Both tests perform well in detecting mis-specified models, displaying an increasingly better performance for larger sample sizes. We note that similar to the results obtained in the last subsection, the \( V_{N,K,d}^{\text{heuristic}} \) test is comparably less powerful than the \( M_{N,K,d}^{\text{heuristic}} \) test. As a comparison to \( M_{N,K,d}^{\text{heuristic}} \) test, the asymptotic \( M_{N,K,d} \) test exhibits improved size when \( K = 1 \) and 5 under \( H_0 \), and displays a slightly lower power under \( H_1 \), and this was in accordance with our expectation given that the asymptotic results are sharper for the latter statistic.

Another observation worthy of a remark is that the rejection rates of the adequacy of the FARCH(1) model tend to be low for all DGPs when \( K = 1 \). This is evidently because fitting an FARCH(1) model effectively removes serial correlation from the squared process at lag one. Hence it is advisable when using this test for the purpose of model diagnostic checking to incorporate several lags beyond the order of the applied model.

The rejection rates of the adequacy of each model with the modification of using the ‘oracle’ function are displayed in Panel B of Table I, which shows that both the size and the power are in general improved for all tests. This suggests in part that the discrepancy in the empirical size for the \( M_{N,K,d} \) test for large \( N \) can be attributed to poor estimation of the dimension reduction basis. This also suggests that we can improve the estimation of the FGARCH models by changing the basis used for dimension reduction, although it is in general not clear how to improve on the FPCA method; doing so is beyond the scope of the current article, and is something we hope to investigate further in future work.
Table I. Rejection rates from 1000 independent simulations of the model adequacy of the FARCH(1) model when applied to FARCH(1), FARCH(2), and FGARCH(1,1) data using $V_{N,K,\epsilon}^\text{heuristic}$, $M_{N,K,\epsilon}^\text{heuristic}$, and $M_{N,K,\epsilon}$ at 95% significance level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DGP</th>
<th>FARCH(1)</th>
<th>FARCH(2)</th>
<th>FGARCH(1,1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>$V_{N,K,\epsilon}^\text{heuristic}$</td>
<td>$M_{N,K,\epsilon}^\text{heuristic}$</td>
<td>$M_{N,K,\epsilon}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 125$</td>
<td>$K = 1$</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 250$</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 500$</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 125$</td>
<td>$K = 5$</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 250$</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 500$</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 125$</td>
<td>$K = 10$</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 250$</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 500$</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 125$</td>
<td>$K = 20$</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 250$</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N = 500$</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Panel A: The basis function used for dimension reduction – empirical principal component

Panel B: The basis function used for dimension reduction – the ‘oracle’ basis element $\phi_1$

5. APPLICATION TO DENSE INTRA-DAY ASSET PRICE DATA

A natural example of functional financial time series data are those derived from densely recorded asset price data, such as intraday stock price data. Recently there has been a great deal of research focusing on analyzing the information contained in the curves constructed from such data. Price curves associated with popular companies are routinely displayed for public review. The objectives of this section are to (i) test whether functional financial time series derived from the dense intraday price data exhibit conditional heteroscedasticity, and (ii) evaluate the adequacy of FGARCH models for such series.

The specific data that we consider consists of 5 minute resolution closing prices of S&P 500 market index, so that there are $J = 78$ observations of the closing price each day. For the purpose of applying a Monte Carlo integration to the asymptotic diagnostic test $M_{N,K,\epsilon}$, we employ a sparse grid of $J^* = 39$ out of the 78 points. Then, we let $P_i(t)$ denote the price of either asset on day $i$ at intraday time $t$, where $t$ is normalized to the unit interval. We consider time series of curves from these data of length $N = 502$ taken from the dates between 31/December/2015 to 02/January/2018. There are several ways to define curves that are approximately stationary based on the raw price curves $P_i(t)$. We consider the following two cases:

1. Cumulative intra-day log returns (CIDRs)

$$X_i(t) = \log P_i(t) - \log P_i(0)$$
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2. Overnight cumulative intra-day log returns (OCIDRs)

\[ X_i(t) = \log P_i(t) - \log P_{i-1}(1) \]

Curves of the former type have been studied extensively in the literature, see for example Kokoszka and Reimherr (2013) and Kokoszka et al. (2014), as their trajectories encode the cumulative asset price changes over the course of the day. The OCIDR curves have exactly the same shape as the CIDR curves, but also capture the overnight price change. A similar overnight return has been used in Koopman et al. (2005). Figure 1 shows these two types of intra-day curves across seven days. We used 30 cubic B-spline functions to interpolate the raw price information and estimate functional principal components of the squared process, as implemented in the fda package in R, see Ramsay et al. (2009). We recomputed the analysis below for several different values of the number of splines, and the results reported below appeared to be stable to this choice. The stationarity of both return curves was examined by using the stationarity test proposed by Horváth et al. (2014). The results suggest that all intra-day return series are reasonably stationary.

We begin by testing for functional conditional heteroscedasticity in the functional time series of each curve type. The results of these tests are given in Table II, and are not particularly surprising in that they suggest that each sample of curves exhibit strong conditional heteroscedasticity.

We then apply the proposed tests for conditional heteroscedasticity to the fitted residuals functions of intra-day returns

\[ \tilde{\epsilon}_i(t) = \frac{X_i(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_i}, \]
Table II. Heteroscedasticity tests using $V_{N,K}$ and $M_{N,K}$ on the intra-day returns of S&P 500 with the lags $K$ varying among 1, 5, 10, and 20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K}$</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>52.69</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>73.70</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>76.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K}$</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>8.44</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>12.08</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>12.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K}$</td>
<td>8.73</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>36.11</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>37.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>49.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K}$</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table III. Heteroscedasticity tests of de-volatized daily return $\hat{\epsilon}_i$ and intra-day curves $\tilde{\epsilon}_i(t)$ from an optimal selected GARCH(p,q) model, using Li–Mak test for scalar observations and $V_{N,K}$ and $M_{N,K}$ for functional observations respectively

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
<th>Stats</th>
<th>$P$ value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Panel A: Li–Mak Test on $\hat{\epsilon}_i$</td>
<td>GARCH(1,1)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>10.91</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>26.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel B: $V_{N,K}$ and $M_{N,K}$ Test on $\tilde{\epsilon}_i(t)$</td>
<td>OCIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K}$</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>38.26</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>72.89</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K}$</td>
<td>2.5e+17</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>1.7e+18</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>3.5e+18</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4.3e+18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K}$</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>25.86</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>28.78</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>38.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K}$</td>
<td>1.51e+16</td>
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<td>7.59e+16</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.01e+17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.71e+17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Plots of the estimated kernels of $o(t)$, $a(t,s)$ and $b(t,s)$ in (3.1) for the FGARCH(1,1) model for the S&P 500 intra-day return curves

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Figure 3. Plots of de-volatized S&P 500 intra-day return curves based on an FGARCH(1,1) Model from 21 December 2017 to 2 January 2018

The results of these tests are given in Panel B in Table III, which show that these curves still exhibit a substantial amount of conditional heteroscedasticity.

Next, we consider the FARCH(1) and FGARCH(1,1) models for these curves. We fit each model with \( L = 1 \) in (3.1) to be consistent with the methods studied in the simulation section, and evaluate the adequacy of each model as proposed above. Figure 2 shows plots of \( w(t) \) and wire-frame plots of the kernels \( \alpha(t, s) \) and \( \beta(t, s) \) for the FGARCH(1,1) model for both type of intra-day return curves. We then estimate \( \hat{\sigma}_i(t) \) recursively with the initial values of \( \hat{w}(t) \), and the de-volatized intra-day return \( \hat{\epsilon}_i(t) \) is fitted per 3.3. Figure 3 exhibits the de-volatized intra-day returns over seven days by using the FGARCH(1,1) model.

Table IV reports the \( P \)-values from the diagnostic checks of the FGARCH(1,1) and FARCH(1) models applied to the de-volatized intra-day returns. All of the three diagnostic tests show consistent results at the specified significance levels. The FARCH(1) model is generally deemed to be inadequate for both types, although this model performs as we expected to adequately model conditional heteroscedasticity at lag 1. By contrast, the \( P \) values in Panel B of Table IV suggest that the FGARCH(1,1) model is acceptable for modeling the conditional heteroscedasticity of both curve types. Figure 4 shows the \( P \) values of these tests as a function of \( K \) in the case of the OCIDR curves (the results for the CIDR curves were similar), which show that this conclusion is apparently independent of the choice of \( K \).

In conjunction with the above results showing that these curves cannot be adequately de-volatized simply by scaling with the conditional standard deviation estimates from GARCH models for the scalar returns, we draw the following tentative conclusions from this analysis: (i) the magnitude of the return cannot fully explain the volatility of intraday prices observed on subsequent days; instead we should consider the entire path of the price curve on previous days to adequately model future intra-day conditional heteroscedasticity, and (ii) the FGARCH class of models seems to be effective for modeling intra-day conditional heteroscedasticity.

6. CONCLUSION

We proposed two portmanteau-type conditional heteroscedasticity tests for functional time series. By applying the test statistics to model residuals from the fitted functional GARCH models, our tests also provide two heuristic and one asymptotically valid goodness-of-fit test for such models. Simulation results presented in this article show that both tests have good size and power to detect conditional heteroscedasticity in functional financial time series and assess the goodness-of-fit of the FGARCH models in finite samples. In an application to the dense intraday price
Table IV. Diagnostic tests of FGARCH(1,1) and FARCH(1) models using $V_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$, $M_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$, and $M_{N,K,E}$ applied to the S&P 500 return curves

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$K = 1$</th>
<th></th>
<th>$K = 5$</th>
<th></th>
<th>$K = 10$</th>
<th></th>
<th>$K = 20$</th>
<th></th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stats</td>
<td>$P$ value</td>
<td>Stats</td>
<td>$P$ value</td>
<td>Stats</td>
<td>$P$ value</td>
<td>Stats</td>
<td>$P$ value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel A: FARCH(1) OCIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>33.86</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>50.07</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>52.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>216.08</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>324.45</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>358.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K,E}$</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>216.08</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>324.45</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>358.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel A: FARCH(1) CIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>33.11</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>36.59</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>52.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>68.32</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>586.09</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>737.63</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1264.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K,E}$</td>
<td>68.32</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>586.09</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>737.63</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1264.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel B: FGARCH(1,1) OCIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>8.88</td>
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<td>$M_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>27.36</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>65.30</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>106.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K,E}$</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>27.36</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>65.30</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>106.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel B: FGARCH(1,1) CIDRs</td>
<td>$V_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>8.55</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>18.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K,E}^{heuristic}$</td>
<td>25.01</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>232.20</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>469.33</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>923.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M_{N,K,E}$</td>
<td>25.01</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>232.20</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>469.33</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>923.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. $P$-values of white noise and goodness of fit tests for the FARCH(1) and FGARCH(1,1) models applied to the OCIDR curves derived from the S&P 500 index based on $M_{N,K,E}$ as a function of $K$, $K = 1, \ldots, 20$. The horizontal red line is at the level of 5%. The plot generally suggests the adequacy of the FGARCH(1,1) model.

data, we investigated the conditional heteroscedasticity of three types of the intra-day return curves, including the overnight cumulative intra-day returns, the cumulative intra-day returns and the intra-day log returns from two assets. Our results suggested that these curves exhibit substantial evidence of conditional heteroscedasticity that cannot be accounted for simply by rescaling the curves by using measurements of the conditional standard deviation based on the magnitude of the scalar returns. However, the functional conditional volatility models often appeared to be adequate for modeling this observed functional conditional heteroscedasticity in financial data.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The S&P 500 data that support the findings of this study are available in the online Supporting Information file: sp500.csv.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting information tab for this article.

REFERENCES

APPENDIX A. PROOFS OF RESULTS IN SECTION 2

Proofs of Theorem 2.1. First we show (2.5). Under $H_0$ and Assumption 2.1 the random variables $Y_{ij} = \|X_i\|^2$ are i.i.d., and satisfy $EY_{ij}^4 < \infty$. (2.5) now follows Theorem 7.2.1 and problem 2.19 of Brockwell and Davis (1991).

To show (2.6), we recall some notation and the statement of Lemma 5 in Kokoszka et al. (2017). Let $K$ be a positive integer as in the definition of $M_{N,K}$. Consider the space $\mathcal{G}_1$ of functions $f : [0, 1]^2 \to \mathbb{R}^K$, mapping the unit square to the space of $K$-dimensional column vectors with real entries, satisfying

$$\iint \langle f(t,s) \rangle^\top f(t,s) \, dt \, ds < \infty.$$ 

This space is a separable Hilbert space when equipped with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{G}_1} = \iint \langle f(t,s) \rangle^\top g(t,s) \, dt \, ds.$$ 

Let $\| \cdot \|_{\mathcal{G}_1}$ denote the norm induced by this inner product. Let $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathbb{F}}$ denote the matrix Frobenius inner product, and let $\| \cdot \|_{\mathbb{F}}$ denote the corresponding norm; see Chapter 5 of Meyer (2000). Further let $\mathcal{G}_2$ denote the space of functions $f : [0, 1]^4 \to \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$, equipped with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{G}_2} = \iiint \langle f(t,s,u,v), g(t,s,u,v) \rangle_{\mathbb{F}} \, dt \, ds \, du \, dv.$$ 

for which $\langle f, f \rangle_{\mathcal{G}_2} < \infty$. $\mathcal{G}_2$ is also a separable Hilbert space when equipped with this inner product.

Let $\psi_K : [0, 1]^4 \to \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$ be a matrix valued kernel where the $1 \leq i,j \leq K$ component is denoted by $\psi_{K,ij}(t,s,u,v)$. We then define $\psi_K$ by

$$\psi_{K,ij}(t,s,u,v) = \begin{cases} \text{cov}(X_i^2(t),X_j^2(u)) \text{cov}(X_i^2(s),X_j^2(v)), & 1 \leq i,j \leq K, \\
0, & 1 \leq i \neq j \leq K. \end{cases}$$ (A1)

The kernel $\psi_K$ defines a linear operator $\Psi_K : \mathcal{G}_1 \to \mathcal{G}_1$ by

$$\Psi_K(f)(t,s) = \iint \psi_K(t,s,u,v) f(u,v) \, du \, dv,$$ (A2)

where the integration is carried out coordinate-wise. Following the preamble to the proof of Lemma 5 of Kokoszka et al. (2017), it follows that the operator $\Psi_K$ is compact, symmetric, and positive definite. Due to these three properties, we have by the spectral theorem for positive definite, self-adjoint, compact operators, for example, Chapter 6.2 of Riesz and Nagy (1990), that $\Psi_K$ defines a nonnegative and decreasing sequence of eigenvalues and
a corresponding orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions \( \varphi_{i,k}(t,s) \), \( 1 \leq i < \infty \), satisfying

\[
\Psi_{K}(\varphi_{i,k}(t,s)) = \xi_{i,k}\varphi_{i,k}(t,s), \quad \text{with } \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \xi_{i,k} < \infty. \tag{A3}
\]

With this notation, we now define \( \Gamma_{N,K}(t,s) = \sqrt{N} \langle \hat{f}_1(t,s), \ldots, \hat{f}_K(t,s) \rangle^\top \in \mathcal{G}_1 \). Under \( H_0 \) and Assumption 2.1, the sequence \( \{X_i^2(t)\} \) satisfies the conditions of Lemma 5 of Kokoszka et al. (2017), which implies that \( \Gamma_{N,K}(t,s) \xrightarrow{D(\mathcal{G}_1)} \Gamma_{K}(t,s) \), where \( \Gamma_{K}(t,s) \) is a Gaussian process with covariance operator \( \Psi_{K} \), and \( \xrightarrow{D} \) denotes weak convergence in \( \mathcal{G}_1 \). It now follows from the Karhunen–Loève representation and continuous mapping theorem that

\[
M_{N,K} = \|\hat{\Gamma}_{N,K}\|^2 \xrightarrow{D} \|\Gamma_{K}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \xi_{i,K}X_i^2(t). \tag{A3}
\]

A simple calculation based on (A1) shows that the eigenvalues of \( \Psi_{K} \) are products of the eigenvalues defined by (2.4), \( \{\lambda_{i,j}, \ 1 \leq i, j < \infty\} \), with each eigenvalue having multiplicity \( K \), giving the form of the limit distribution in (2.6).

\[\square\]

**Justification of (4.2).** Using proposition 5.10.16 of Bogachev (1998), we have that

\[
E(\|\Gamma_{K}\|^2_{H,1}) = \text{tr}(\Psi_{K}) = K \left( \int \text{cov}(X_0^2(t), X_0^2(t))dt \right)^2,
\]

and

\[
\text{var}(\|\Gamma_{K}\|^2_{H,1}) = 2 \text{tr}(\Psi_{K}^2) = 2K \left( \int \int \text{cov}(X_0^2(t), X_0^2(s))dtds \right)^2.
\]

**Proof of Theorem 2.2.** We only show (2.7) as (2.8) follows similarly from it. Let \( C_0(t,s) = \text{cov}(X_0^2(t), X_0^2(s)) \neq 0 \). It follows from the assumed \( L^0 \)-m-approximability of \( X_i \) that \( X_0^2 \) is \( L^1 \)-m-approximable, from which we can show that \( \|\hat{f}_k(t,s) - C_0(t,s)\| = O_P(1/\sqrt{N}) \). Now \( M_{N,K} \geq N[\|\hat{f}_k(t,s)\|^2, \|\hat{f}_k(t,s)\|^2 = \|\hat{f}_k\|^2 + 2(\hat{f}_k - C_0, C_0) + \|C_0\|^2 \). It follows that \( N[\|\hat{f}_k - C_0\|^2, 2(\hat{f}_k - C_0, C_0)] = O_P(\sqrt{N}) \), and \( N[\|C_0\|^2 \) diverges to positive infinity at rate \( N \), yielding the desired result. \[\square\]

**Proof of Theorem 2.3.** Again we only prove (2.10) as (2.9) follows from it by a similar argument. By squaring both sides of (2.1) and iterating (2.2), we obtain that

\[
X_i^2(t) = \omega_a(t) + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{\ell}(Y_{i-\ell})(t),
\]

where the series on the right-hand side of the above equation converges in \( L^2[0,1] \) with probability one, and

\[
\omega_a(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{\ell}(\omega)(t).
\]
Therefore, \( X^2(t) \) is a linear process in \( L^2[0, 1] \) with mean \( \omega_x(t) \) generated by the weak functional white noise innovations \( Y_i \) as defined in Bosq (2000). It now follows from Assumption 2.1 and the ergodic theorem that

\[
\left\| \hat{\gamma}_b(t, s) - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} E \alpha^{(j)}(Y)_j(t) \alpha^{(r+b)}(Y)_j(s) \right\| = o_p(1).
\]

It follows from this and the reverse triangle inequality that

\[
\frac{M_{N,K}}{N} = \sum_{h=1}^{K} \left\| \hat{\gamma}_h \right\|^2 \to \sum_{h=1}^{K} \left\| \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} E \alpha^{(j)}(Y)_j(t) \alpha^{(r+b)}(Y)_j(s) \right\|^2,
\]

as desired.

\[ \square \]

APPENDIX B. PROOF OF THEOREM 3.1 AND ESTIMATION OF PARAMETERS/KERNELS IN SECTION 3.1

We first develop some notation and detail the assumptions that we use to establish Theorem 3.1. Recall from (3.2) that the FGARCH equations along with (3.1) imply that \( \hat{\gamma}_i^2 = D + A \hat{x}_{i-1}^2 + B \hat{\phi}_{i-1}^2 \), where \( \hat{x}_i^2 = [\{\hat{X}_i, \phi_1\}, \ldots, \{\hat{X}_i, \phi_L\}]^\top \), \( \hat{\phi}_i^2 = [\{\hat{\sigma}_1^2, \phi_1\}, \ldots, \{\hat{\sigma}_L^2, \phi_L\}]^\top \), the coefficient vector \( D = [d_1, \ldots, d_L]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^L \), and the coefficient matrices \( A \) and \( B \) are \( \mathbb{R}^{2L \times L} \) with \( (j,k) \) entries by \( a_{j,k} \) and \( b_{j,k} \) respectively. Let \( \Gamma_0(t,s) = \alpha(t,s)e_i^2(s) + \beta(t,s) \). We make the following assumptions:

**Assumption B.1.** \( E \left\| \int \Gamma_0(\cdot,s)ds \right\|_\infty < 1 \), and \( \omega \in C[0, 1] \).

**Assumption B.2.** \( Q_0 \) is nonsingular.

**Assumption B.3.** \( x_0^2 \) is not measurable with respect to \( \mathcal{F}_0 \).

**Assumption B.4.** \( \inf_{\theta \in \Theta} |det(A)| > 0 \) and \( \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \|B\|_{op} < 1 \), where \( \| \cdot \|_{op} \) is the matrix operator norm of \( B \).

**Assumption B.5.** \( E \| e_0^2 \|_\infty < \infty \)

**Assumption B.6.** There exists a constant \( \delta \) so that \( \inf_{\theta \in \Theta} \inf_{t \in [0,1]} \omega(t) \geq \delta > 0 \).

Assumptions B.1–B.4 come directly from Aue et al. (2017), and imply both that there exists a strictly stationary and causal solution to the FGARCH equations in \( C[0,1] \), and that \( \hat{\theta}_h \) is a strongly consistent estimator of \( \theta_0 \) that also satisfies the central limit theorem. Assumption B.5 is a somewhat stronger assumption than those of Theorem 3.2 of Aue et al (2017). It is used in the proofs below mainly to establish uniform integrability of terms of the form \( \|X_t/\sigma_t\|_\infty \). Assumption B.6 is implied by the conditions of Cerovecki et al. (2019) that the functions \( \phi_i \) are strictly positive and that \( D \in \Theta_D \subset (0, \infty)^L \), where \( \Theta_D \) is compact, but also may hold under more general conditions.

**Theorem B.1** (Restatement of Theorem 3.1). Let \( \Gamma^{(e,\theta)}_{N,K} = (\sqrt{N} \hat{\gamma}_{i,1}, \ldots, \sqrt{N} \hat{\gamma}_{i,K})^\top \in \mathcal{G}_1 \). Then under Assumption B.1–B.6,

\[
\Gamma^{(e,\theta)}_{N,K} \xrightarrow{D} \Gamma_{e,\theta}.
\]
where $\Gamma_{\epsilon, \theta}$ is a mean zero Gaussian process in $\mathcal{G}_1$ with covariance operators $\Psi_{K}^{(\epsilon, \theta)}$ defined by

$$\Psi_{K}^{(\epsilon, \theta)}(f)(t, s) = \int \int \Psi_{K}^{(\epsilon, \theta)}(t, s, u, v) f(u, v) dudv, \quad (B1)$$

where $\Psi_{K}^{(\epsilon, \theta)}(t, s, u, v)$ is a matrix valued kernel defined by (3.8). In addition,

$$M_{\epsilon, \theta} \to D \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \hat{\xi}_i K^2(i), \quad (B2)$$

where $\hat{\xi}_i, i \geq 1$ are the eigenvalues of $\Psi_{K}^{(\epsilon, \theta)}$.

Before proving this result, we introduce further notation. We write $\sigma^2_i(t, \theta)$ to indicate the dependence of $\sigma^2_i(t)$ on the vector of parameters $\theta$, and similarly write

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2_i(t, \theta) = \left[ \langle \sigma^2_i(\cdot, \theta), \phi_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \sigma^2_i(\cdot, \theta), \phi_L \rangle \right]^T. \quad (B3)$$

It follows that with $\Phi(t) = (\phi_1(t), \ldots, \phi_L(t))^T$, $\sigma^2_i(t, \theta) = \tilde{\sigma}^2_i(\theta)^T \Phi(t)$.

Iterating (3.2), we see using Assumption (B.4) that

$$\sigma^2_i(t, \theta) = \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} B^\ell \tilde{\sigma}^2_{i-\ell} \right) \Phi(t), \quad (B4)$$

We define

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2_i(t, \theta) = \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^{i-1} B^\ell \tilde{\sigma}^2_{i-\ell} \right) \Phi(t), \quad (B5)$$

which allows us to define

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2_i(t) = \tilde{\sigma}^2_i(t, \hat{\theta}_N). \quad (B6)$$

In addition to $\hat{\gamma}_{\epsilon, h}$ defined in (3.4), we also define

$$\tilde{\gamma}_{\epsilon, h}(t, s, \theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} \left( \frac{X^2_i(t)}{\tilde{\sigma}^2_i(t, \theta)} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{X^2_{i+h}(s)}{\tilde{\sigma}^2_{i+h}(s, \theta)} - 1 \right). \quad (B7)$$

and

$$\tilde{\gamma}^*_i(t, s, \theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} \left( \frac{X^2_i(t)}{\sigma^2_i(t, \theta)} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{X^2_{i+h}(s)}{\sigma^2_{i+h}(s, \theta)} - 1 \right). \quad (B8)$$

so that $\tilde{\gamma}_{\epsilon, h}(t, s) = \tilde{\gamma}_i(t, s, \hat{\theta}_N)$. Below we let $\theta^{(j)}$ denote the $j$'th coordinate of $\theta$.

**Lemma B.1.** Under Assumptions B.1–B.6, for all $h$ such that $1 \leq h \leq K$,

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \sqrt{N} \| \tilde{\gamma}_{\epsilon, h}(\cdot, \cdot, \theta) - \tilde{\gamma}^*_i(\cdot, \cdot, \theta) \| = o_p(1). \quad (B9)$$
It follows from equation (2.4) of Aue et al. (2017) that there exists a constant \( c_1 > 0 \) so that almost surely
\[
\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \| \sigma_i^2(\cdot, \theta) - \hat{\sigma}_h^2(\cdot, \theta) \|_\infty \leq c_1 \rho^1, \quad \text{and} \quad \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \| \sigma_i^2(\cdot, \theta) - \hat{\sigma}_h^2(\cdot, \theta) \| \leq c_1 \rho^1, \tag{B9}
\]
for some \( 0 < \rho < 1 \). We then have by adding and subtracting
\[
\left( \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{X_i^2_w(s)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)} - 1 \right)
\]
in the summands defining the difference \( \hat{\tau}_{t,h} - \gamma_{t,h}^* \) that this difference can be expressed as
\[
\hat{\tau}_{t,h}(t, s, \theta) - \gamma_{t,h}^*(t, s, \theta) = R_{1,N}(t, s, \theta) + R_{2,h}(t, s, \theta),
\]
where
\[
R_{1,N}(t, s, \theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left[ \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right] \left[ \frac{X_i^2_w(s)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)} - 1 \right] - \left[ \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right] \left[ \frac{X_i^2_w(s)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)} - 1 \right],
\]
and
\[
R_{2,h}(t, s, \theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left[ \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right] \left[ \frac{X_i^2_w(s)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)} - 1 \right] - \left[ \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right] \left[ \frac{X_i^2_w(s)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)} - 1 \right].
\]

We note that Assumption B.6 implies that \( \hat{\sigma}_t^2(\theta) > \delta \) and \( \sigma_i^2(\theta) > \delta \) uniformly in \( t \) and \( \theta \in \Theta \), hence with this, the triangle inequality, and simple arithmetics yields that
\[
|R_{1,N}(t, s, \theta)| \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left| \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right| \| \frac{X_i^2_w(s)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)} - \frac{\hat{\sigma}_h^2(s, \theta) - \sigma_i^2(s, \theta)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)\hat{\sigma}_h^2(s, \theta)} \|
\]
\[
\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left| \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right| \frac{X_i^2(s)}{\hat{\sigma}_h^2(s, \theta) - \sigma_i^2(s, \theta)}
\]
\[
\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left| \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right| \frac{X_i^2(s)}{\delta} - X_i^2(s)
\]
\[
\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left| \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right| \frac{X_i^2(s)}{\delta} \left| \frac{\hat{\sigma}_h^2(s, \theta) - \sigma_i^2(s, \theta)}{\sigma_i^{2+h}(s, \theta)\hat{\sigma}_h^2(s, \theta)} \right|
\]
\[
\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left| \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right| \frac{X_i^2(s)}{\delta} \left| \frac{\hat{\sigma}_h^2(s, \theta) - \sigma_i^2(s, \theta)}{\delta^2} \right|
\]
\[
\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} \left| \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\hat{\sigma}_t^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right| \frac{X_i^2(s)}{\delta} \left| \frac{\hat{\sigma}_h^2(s, \theta) - \sigma_i^2(s, \theta)}{\delta^2} \right|.
\]
It follows from Assumption B.1 and the proof of Theorem 2.1 in Aue et al. (2017) that \( E[\sigma_t^2(\cdot, \theta_0)]^2 < \infty \). Now using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, the stationarity of the solution \( X_t \), the fact that \( \sigma_t^2 \) is measurable with respect to \( \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \), and Assumption B.5, we have that

\[
E[|X^2_i(\cdot)X^2_{i+h}(\cdot)|] = E[|X^2_i(\cdot)|] \leq E[|X^2_i|^2] = \int \sigma_t^4(t) e^4(t) dt \leq E[|e_0|^4] E[\sigma_t^2]^2 < \infty.
\]

From this it follows that \( E[|X^2_i(\cdot)X^2_{i+h}(\cdot)/\delta - X^2_{i+h}(\cdot)|] < c_2 \), for a positive constant \( c_2 \), and hence

\[
\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \sqrt{N} \|R_{1,N}(\cdot, \cdot, \theta)\| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{r=1}^{n-h} c_1 c_2 \rho^{i+h} = o(1).
\]

We therefore have by Markov’s inequality that \( \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \sqrt{N} \|R_{1,N}(\cdot, \cdot, \theta)\| = o_p(1) \). It follows similarly that \( \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \sqrt{N} \|R_{2,N}(\cdot, \cdot, \theta)\| = o_p(1) \), which establishes (B7). To show (B8), we first note that by simply differentiating (B2) that with \( \mathbf{1}^{(j)} \) denoting an \( L \) vector of zeros with a single 1 in the \( j \)’th position, and \( \mathbf{1}^{(j,k)} \) being a \( L \times L \) matrix of zeros with a single 1 in the \( (j, \ell)' \)th position, that for \( 1 \leq j, k \leq L \),

\[
\frac{\partial \sigma_t^2(j, \theta)}{b_{j,k}} = \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} B^\ell \mathbf{1}^{(j)} \right)^\top \Phi(t),
\]

and

\[
\frac{\partial \sigma_t^2(j, \theta)}{b_{j,k}} = \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \sum_{r=1}^{\ell} B^\ell \mathbf{1}^{(j,k)} B^{\ell-r} \right\} \xi_i \right)^\top \Phi(t).
\]

Similarly

\[
\frac{\partial \sigma_t^2(i, \theta)}{d_i} = \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} B^\ell \mathbf{1}^{(i)} \right)^\top \Phi(t),
\]

and

\[
\frac{\partial \sigma_t^2(i, \theta)}{d_i} = \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \sum_{r=1}^{\ell} B^\ell \mathbf{1}^{(i,j)} B^{\ell-r} \right\} \xi_i \right)^\top \Phi(t)
\]

By Assumption B.4 it follows similarly as (B9) that

\[
\max_{j \in \{1, \ldots, L+2L^2\}} \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \left\| \frac{\partial \sigma_t^2(\cdot, \theta)}{\partial \theta^{(i)}} - \frac{\partial \sigma_t^2(\cdot, \theta)}{\partial \theta^{(j)}} \right\|_\infty \leq c_4 \rho^i,
\]

for a \( 0 < \rho < 1 \). From this (B8) follows similarly as (B7), and so we omit the details.
Proof of Theorem 3.1. Noting that \( \hat{h}_{t,h}(t,s) = \tilde{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \hat{\theta}_N) \), we get by applying a one term Taylor’s expansion centered at \( \theta_0 \) for all \( t, s \in [0, 1] \) and \( 1 \leq h \leq K \),

\[
\sqrt{N} \tilde{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \theta_0) = \frac{\partial \hat{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \theta^*)}{\partial \theta} \sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0),
\]

(B12)

where \( \theta^* \) is contained in the \( L + 2L^2 \) dimensional rectangle in \( \mathbb{R}^{L+2L^2} \) between \( \theta_0 \) and \( \hat{\theta}_N \). By Lemma B.1, there exists a function \( R_{3,N}(t,s) \) satisfying that \( \|R_{3,N}(\cdot, \cdot)\| = o_p(1) \), and

\[
\sqrt{N} \tilde{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \theta_0) + \frac{\partial \hat{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \theta^*)}{\partial \theta} \sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) = \sqrt{N} \tilde{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \theta_0) + \frac{\partial \hat{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \theta^*)}{\partial \theta} \sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) + R_{3,N}(t,s).
\]

Let

\[
\hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta) = \frac{\partial \hat{h}_{t,h}(t,s, \theta)}{\partial \theta},
\]

so for each fixed \( \theta \), \( \hat{G}_{N,h} : [0, 1]^2 \to \mathbb{R}^{L+2L^2} \). Calculating the derivative for each \( t, s \in [0, 1] \) yields that

\[
\hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} \left( \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\sigma_i^2(t, \theta)} \frac{\partial \sigma_i^2(t, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \right) \left( \frac{X_i^2(s)}{\sigma_i^2(s, \theta)} - 1 \right) \]

(B13)

- \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} \left( \frac{X_i^2(t)}{\sigma_i^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{X_i^2(s)}{\sigma_i^2(s, \theta)} \frac{\partial \sigma_i^2(s, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \right).

Applying another Taylor’s expansion to \( \hat{G}_{N,h} \) centered at \( \theta_0 \) gives that

\[
\hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta^*) = \hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta_0) + \frac{\partial \hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta^*)}{\partial \theta} (\theta^* - \theta_0),
\]

where \( \theta^* \) is between \( \theta \) and \( \theta_0 \). It follows as in the proof of Lemma B.1 that

\[
\max_{j \in (1, \ldots, L+2L^2)} \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \left\| \frac{\partial \hat{G}_{N,h}(\cdot, \cdot, \theta)}{\partial \theta^j} \right\| < \infty,
\]

and hence using the strong consistency of \( \hat{\theta}_N \) we obtain that \( \| \hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta^*) - \hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta_0) \| = o_p(1) \). From (B13), we see that

\[
\hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s, \theta_0) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} \left( \frac{\epsilon_i^2(t)}{\sigma_i^2(t, \theta)} \frac{\partial \sigma_i^2(t, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \right) \left( \frac{\epsilon_i^2(s)}{\sigma_i^2(s, \theta)} - 1 \right) \]

- \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} \left( \frac{\epsilon_i^2(t)}{\sigma_i^2(t, \theta)} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{\epsilon_i^2(s)}{\sigma_i^2(s, \theta)} \frac{\partial \sigma_i^2(s, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \right).
Since $\sigma^2$ is $F_{i-1}$ measurable and $E\varepsilon_i^2(s) = 1$, the expectation of the first term is zero so that, $E\hat{G}_{N,h}(t,s,\theta_0) = [(N-h)/N]G_h(t,s)$. Furthermore, since $\sigma^2$ is ergodic, we have by the ergodic theorem in Hilbert space, see for example, Bosq (2000), that
\[
\max_{j\in\{1,\ldots,L+2L^2\}} \|\hat{G}_{N,h}^{(j)}(\cdot,\cdot,\theta_0) - G_{0}^{(j)}\| = o_P(1).
\]

Combining these results with (B12), we see that
\[
\sqrt{N}\hat{\gamma}_i(t,s) = \sqrt{N}\gamma_i^*(t,s,\theta_0) + G_h(t,s)\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) + R_{i,N}(t,s), \tag{B14}
\]
where $\|R_{i,N}\| = o_P(1)$. We note that
\[
\sqrt{N}\gamma_i^*(t,s,\theta_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{N-h} (\varepsilon_i^2(t) - 1)(\varepsilon_{i+h}^2(s) - 1),
\]
depends solely on the error process: in particular it is $\sqrt{N}$ times the estimated autocovariance of the squared error processes that was considered in Appendix A. Let
\[
\Gamma_{N,K}^{(e)} = (\sqrt{N}\gamma_{i,j}^*(\cdot,\cdot,\theta_0), \ldots, \sqrt{N}\gamma_{i,j}^*(\cdot,\cdot,\theta_0))\top\text{ and }
\Gamma_{N,K}^{(th)} = (G_h(\cdot,\cdot)\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0), \ldots, G_h(\cdot,\cdot)\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0))\top.
\]
It follows then from (B14) that
\[
\|\Gamma_{N,K}^{(e,th)} - (\Gamma_{N,K}^{(e)} + \Gamma_{N,K}^{(th)})\|_{G,1} = o_P(1).
\]

We now aim at establishing the weak limit of $\Gamma_{N,K}^{(e)} + \Gamma_{N,K}^{(th)}$ in $\mathcal{G}_1$. $\Gamma_{N,K}^{(e)}$ is tight in $\mathcal{G}_1$ as was established in Appendix A, and $\Gamma_{N,K}^{(th)}$ is tight in $\mathcal{G}_1$ since $\mathbb{R}^{L+2L^2}$ is sigma-compact, hence $\Gamma_{N,K}^{(e)} + \Gamma_{N,K}^{(th)}$ is tight in $\mathcal{G}_1$. According to the proof of Theorem 4 on p. 19 of Aue et al. (2017), in particular their equations (5.15)–(5.22), we have under Assumptions B.1–B.6 that
\[
\left\|\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) - \frac{Q_0^{-1}}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \hat{s}_i^2(\theta_0)\top}{\partial \theta} [x_i^2 - \hat{s}_i^2(\theta_0)]\right\|_E = o_P(1).
\]
Therefore if $z \in \mathcal{G}_1$,
\[
\left\langle\Gamma_{N,K}^{(e,th)}, z\right\rangle_{G,1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \left( (\varepsilon_i^2(\cdot) - 1) \otimes (\varepsilon_{i+h}^2(\cdot) - 1), z^{(h)} \right)
\right.
\]
\[
\left. + \left\langle G_h(z^{(h)})_{\ast}, Q_0^{-1} \frac{\partial \hat{s}_i^2(\theta_0)\top}{\partial \theta} [x_i^2 - \hat{s}_i^2(\theta_0)] \right\rangle \right\}
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i(z),
\]
where $\left\langle G_h(z^{(h)})_{\ast}, \right\rangle_{G,1}$ is used to denote that the inner-product is carried out coordinate-wise, so that $\left\langle G_h(z^{(h)})_{\ast}, \right\rangle_{\mathbb{R}^{L+2L^2}}$. Noting that 1) $\hat{s}_i^2$ is $F_{i-1}$ measurable, and 2) $E[x_i - \hat{s}_i(\theta_0) F_{i-1}] = 0$, we see that $v_i(z)$ form a martingale difference.

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sequence. Moreover, \( \nu(z), i \in \mathbb{Z} \) is a stationary sequence since \((\varepsilon_i^2, \hat{\phi}_i, \hat{X}_i)\) is stationary. Using the Cauchy Schwarz inequality, it follows readily that for a positive constant \( c \),

\[
E \nu_i^2(z) \leq c \left\{ \| z \|_G E \| \varepsilon_i^2 \|_G^2 + \max_{1 \leq h \leq K} E \left( \langle G_{h, \cdot}, z \rangle_{G, 1} \frac{\partial \hat{\Psi}_i^2(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta} [\hat{X}_i - \hat{\phi}_i(\theta_0)] \right) \right\} < \infty,
\]

using Assumption B.5. Hence by the martingale central limit theorem, see for example Corollary A.1 in Francq and Zakoïan (2010), \( (\Gamma^{(\epsilon)}_{N, h} + \Gamma^{(\theta)}_{N, \epsilon}, z)_{G, 1} \to D N(0, \text{Var}(\nu(z))) \). Straightforward calculation shows that \( \text{Var}(\nu(z)) = \langle \Psi_{\nu, \epsilon}(z), z \rangle_{G, 1} \), which establishes the first half of the Theorem. The asymptotic distribution of the \( M_{N,K} \) follows immediately from the continuous mapping theorem and the Karhunen–Loève representation of the process \( \Gamma_{\epsilon, \theta} \).

B.1. Estimation of \( \Psi_{\nu, \epsilon}^{(h)} \)

Estimating the covariance kernel \( \Psi_{\nu, \epsilon}^{(h)} \) for \( 1 \leq h \leq K, 1 \leq g \leq K \) is nontrivial given its dimensionality and its complicated composition. We describe here how to numerically estimate the key components in \( \Psi_{\nu, \epsilon}^{(h)} \).

Recalling (3.8), we focus on the estimation of last three terms because \( C_{\nu, \epsilon}^{(s)}(t, s, u, v) \) can be estimated straightforwardly. In particular, it is not hard to see that to estimate \( C_{\nu, \epsilon}^{(s)}(t, s, u, v) \) and \( G_{\nu, \epsilon}(t, s)Q_{\nu, \epsilon}^{-1}H_0^TJ_0Q_{\nu, \epsilon}^{-1}G_{\nu, \epsilon}(u, v) \), we need to estimate \( G_{\nu}(t, s) \) and \( \hat{\phi}_i(\theta_0) / \partial \theta \). To estimate \( G_{\nu}(t, s) \), we consider the partial derivative

\[
\frac{\partial \hat{\phi}_i(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sum_{j \neq h} \hat{\phi}_j(\theta_0) \hat{X}_i.
\]

where \( \hat{\phi}_1, \ldots, \hat{\phi}_L \) are the estimated principal components. Considering that (3.2) can be written as \( \hat{\phi}_i^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} B^e(D + Ax_{t-\ell}^2) \), we use (B10) and (B11) to obtain,

\[
\frac{\partial \hat{\phi}_i^2(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} B^e \epsilon(1)^j, \quad \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}_i^2(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k L} B^e \epsilon(j)^{j_1} \hat{x}_{t-\ell}^2,
\]

where \( \hat{\phi}_1, \ldots, \hat{\phi}_L \) are the estimated principal components. Considering that (3.2) can be written as \( \hat{\phi}_i^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} B^e(D + Ax_{t-\ell}^2) \), we use (B10) and (B11) to obtain,

\[
\frac{\partial \hat{\phi}_i^2(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} B^e \epsilon(1)^j, \quad \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}_i^2(\theta_0)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k L} B^e \epsilon(j)^{j_1} \hat{x}_{t-\ell}^2.
\]

We choose the initial value of \( x_0 = \hat{D} \). As \( B^e \) decays geometrically under the condition of stationarity, we only consider \( 0 \leq \ell \leq 5 \) in the implementation for computational efficiency, and further lags beyond 5 are ignored. Since \( \partial \hat{\phi}_i^2(\theta_0) / \partial \theta \) is a \((L + 2L^2) \times 1 \) vector, we consider the column sums on each individual partial derivative. Similarly to (B16), we are able to estimate \( \hat{\phi}_i^2(\theta_0) / \partial \theta \) from which \( H_0 \) and \( Q_0 \) can be estimated by simple averages. Lastly, we discuss how to adapt the above estimation technique for the FARCH(1) model. The number of parameters in the FARCH(1) model is \( L + L^2 \) because the GARCH coefficient matrix \( B \) vanish in this case. Thus, we have \( \hat{\phi}_i^2 = D + Ax_{t-\ell}^2 \), and the derivatives in (B16) only need to be taken with respect to \( D \) and \( A \).