# Moving Along Together

# Forecasting co-movements with

# macroeconomic and financial variables

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Bachelor thesis Econometrics and Operations Research

June 30th 2014

#### **Abstract**

This study examines co-movement of three assets, i.e. stocks, bonds and commodities, in combination with macroeconomic and financial variables. I use forecast combinations, with a preselection based on Least Angle Regression, two factor based models, principal component analysis and partial least squares, and regimes switching models to investigate the predictability of comovements. This is done on the Fisher and a custom transformation of the realised correlation. The main finding are that interest rates, spreads and bond market factors are important for Stock-Bond co-movement, macroeconomic factors are important for Commodity related co-movements and forecasts made with a custom transformation are more accurate than if the fisher transformation was used.

*Keywords: Co-movement, Fisher-transformation, Forecast Combinations, Regime Switch, Factor based models*

# **Content**



#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**1 Introduction**

Co-movement of asset returns is, next to the volatility of assets, one of the most important determinants for evaluating asset classes e.g. stocks and bonds, portfolio management and hedging (Campbell & Ammer, 1993; Kwan, 1996; Ilmanen, 2003; Baele, Bekaert & Inghelbrecht, 2010; Chui & Yang, 2012**;** Piljak, 2013; Zhang, Zhang Wang & Zhang, 2013; Aslanidis & Christiansen, 2014; Zhou, 2014). Co-movement of assets is the tendency of two assets to move parallel with each other, and it can be measured by either the correlation or the covariance. In the vast econometric literature about co-movement, a great deal of attention is either paid to co-movement within asset classes or across countries, whereas literature about co-movement across different asset classes, including commodities, is scarce. Next to that, one can notice that research lags to capture enough information to give good accurate forecasts of co-movements of asset returns, most forecasts can only give a moving average, instead of being able to forecast the short periods of very high and very low dependence (Baele et al, 2010). This means that further research in co-movements is a welcome topic in the econometric literature.

Co-movement of assets is important for investors who pursue the maximisation of the expected portfolio return, under the simultaneous restriction of minimising their risk. There is a certain tradeoff between expected return and risk, depending on the preferences of an investor, and for optimising an investor's portfolio an accurate forecast of the co-movement of assets is needed (Ghysels, Santa-Clara & Valkanov, 2005). Due to the increase in stock market uncertainty and the recent financial crises, there has been a growing interest in volatility and also for the co-movement of assets as an input for asset allocation to hedge a portfolio against other assets, in order to minimise the exposure to risk.

Co-movement is also important for policymakers, to see if there is spill-over between markets and then they can take measures to stabilize the financial system (Zhang, Zhang, Wang & Zhang, 2013).

The aim of this research is to examine whether the dependence of different asset classes, stocks bonds and commodities, can be modelled by using macroeconomic and financial variables, wherein a model-free measure of dependence is used, namely the realised correlation. The interesting question is, which variables are the main determinants of the co-movements? The dataset of Christiansen et al. (2012) is used which contains 38 macroeconomic and financial variables covering monthly observations in the period from January 1983 to December 2010. These predictor variables can be classified in several subclasses: "equity market variables and risk factors", "interest rates, spreads and bond market factors", "foreign exchange variables and risk factors", "liquidity and credit risk variables" and "macroeconomic variables".

To achieve the goal of the research, three types of forecasting techniques are used. First, forecast combinations, this method uses simple models to forecast and it turns out that the combinations of these forecasts are quite accurate (Timmermann, 2006). Second, factor based models are a promising method to forecast in a data rich environment, Principal Components Analysis (PCA) captures most of the variance of the variables into factors, using this technique on preselected variables sounds promising. Partial Least Squares (PLS) in contradiction to PCA already keeps track of the variable one wants to explain, so therefore both methods are used. Third, regime switching models are used; they can capture regime specific information, which enables a model to behave differently in two regimes.

Next to these forecasting techniques, two different data transformations of the realised correlation are looked at, the fisher transformation and a transformation were the natural logarithm is taken over the realised correlation plus one divided by two. These two data transformations might give more accurate forecasts and it can give more robustness. All forecast models are constructed with a moving window of 5 and 10 years, starting with forecasting in January 1993.

Baele, Bekaert and Inghelbrecht (2010) found, by constructing a dynamic factor model and a regime switching model that largely liquidity factors contribute in explaining the co-movement of stock-bond returns, but also that macroeconomic factors do not contribute much in explaining the co-movement of stock-bond returns. Christiansen and Ronaldo (2007) researched the impact of news for stockbond correlation, they found that macroeconomic announcements do have an impact on the short term (daily) correlation; they also state that the co-movement of stock-bond returns, is mostly stated by some stylized facts. Aslanidis and Christiansen (2014) found that it is difficult to forecast the correlation of the stock-bond return by macroeconomic variables when there was a high positive correlation, so they suggest future research on this issue. Piljak (2013) found that macroeconomic factors are important for different bond returns co-movements; this may suggest that these factors are important for the co-movement of bonds and other assets. In addition to this, it is interesting to look at commodities, because commodities can be a profitable alternative and they have a low correlation with bonds and stocks, therefore further research is needed for co-movement of other assets than stocks and bonds, such as commodities (Silvennoinen & Thorp, 2013; Zhou, 2014). Zhou (2014) states that even though periods with high risk are rare and have a low chance of happening, this possibility needs to be taken into account when constructing a portfolio.

Statically speaking the forecast combination model performs best and from an economic perspective the autoregressive model with macroeconomic and financial variables (ARX(1)) using the bond bullmarket indicator as a regime switching models, performs best. The result of this research provide convincing evidence that other transformations than the fisher transformation are useful to forecast realised correlation.

This research is organized as follows. Chapter 2 describes the data which is used to perform this research. In Chapter 3 the methodology used is discussed. Chapter 4 gives the results of the used methodology both statistically and economically. Finally, in Chapter 5 the conclusion is presented.

#### <span id="page-5-0"></span>**2 Data**

In this Chapter the data is described, it starts with a main description and the construction of the data in Section 2.1. In addition to this, two data transformations are used in order to make better forecasts, this is elaborated in Section 2.2.

#### <span id="page-5-1"></span>**2.1 data description**

In this research the dataset from Christiansen et al. (2012) will be used. It contains the daily returns of the S&P-500 (Stock), 10-year Treasury note future contracts (Bond), traded on the Chicago Board of Trade (CBOT) and Standard & Poor's GSCI Commodity Index (Commodity), starting from January 1983 till December 2010. In order to get the 336 monthly realized correlations between two assets, the realised covariance is dived by the square root of the realised variances of the two assets, so the realized correlations between asset *i* and *j* in month *t* is

Realised Correlation 
$$
RC_{i,j;t} = \frac{\sum_{\tau=1}^{M_t} r_{i,t;\tau} \cdot r_{j,t;\tau}}{\sqrt{\sum_{\tau=1}^{M_t} r_{i,t;\tau}^2 \cdot \sum_{\tau=1}^{M_t} r_{j,t;\tau}^2}}
$$
 with  $t = 1, ..., 336$ 

In this definition for the realised correlation,  $r_{i:t:\tau}$  is the  $\tau^{\text{th}}$  daily continuously compounded return in month *t* for asset *i* and  $M_t$  is the number of trading days in month *t*. Correlation is a statistical measure for the simultaneous change in asset returns for two given assets. Correlation is a relative measure of co-movement, whereas covariance is an absolute measure of co-movement. So for interpretation and for robustness it is better to use the realised correlation instead of the realised covariance. The realised correlation between the three different assets can are shown in Figure 2.1.



**Figure 2.1 Realised Correlation of the three assets returns; stocks bonds and commodities, in the period starting in January 1983 till December 2010.**

In Figure 2.1 can be seen that however the realised correlation is quite volatile, it follows kind of a pattern. The stock-bond realised correlation stays mainly positive till 1997, during the Asian crisis, and becomes mainly negative and more volatile afterwards. During the credit-crisis in 2008 a time with a fairly negative stock-bond RC is noticed.

The stock-commodity RC has two remarkable periods, first it has a strong negative correlation in the end of 1990 and the beginning of 1991, which might be caused by the recession in the early 1990s in the US. Second the years after the credit crisis in 2008, since then the stock-commodity RC has mainly been going up.

The bond-commodity realised correlation is, more than the other two, symmetric around zero and has lower peaks. It has no clear periods of positive or negative correlation, but there is, just like in the stock-commodity graph, a negative peak in the end of the 1990 and beginning of 1991, which might be the result of the recession in the US. After 2007 the RC tends to go down, but it keeps having the positive peaks.

The realised return (RR) and the natural logarithm of the realised variance (RV) of the three assets may have explanatory power over the realised correlations and therefore added to the dataset.

$$
RR_{i;t} = \sum_{\tau=1}^{M_t} r_{i;t;\tau} \qquad \qquad RV_{i;t} = \ln \sum_{\tau=1}^{M_t} r_{i;t;\tau}^2 \qquad \qquad \text{with} \quad t = 1, ..., 336
$$

Where  $RR_{i,t}$  and  $RV_{i,t}$  are respectively the realized return and the natural logarithm of the realized variance of asset *i* in month *t*,  $r_{i:t:\tau}$  is the  $\tau^{\text{th}}$  daily continuously compounded return in month *t* for asset *i* and *M<sup>t</sup>* is the number of trading days in month *t*.

There are 38 macroeconomic and financial variables from Christiansen et al. (2012) and are shown in Appendix A. These variables are used as explanatory variables to model the realised correlations, as these variables may explain a lot of the correlations between assets. They can be classified in five categories: *1. Equity market variables and risk factors 2. Interest rates, spreads and bond market factors 3. Foreign exchange variables and risk factors 4. Liquidity and credit risk variables 5. Macroeconomic variables.* 

#### <span id="page-7-0"></span>**2.2 data transformation**

The realized correlation is per definition between -1 and 1, in order to lose the restriction on the range, the Fisher transformation is used. This transformation results in a distribution closer to normality and it also gives a simpler time series, i.e. it gets rid of the negative peaks and it becomes smoother (Johnson, Kotz & Balakhrishnan, 1994).

$$
Fisher\left(RC_{i,j;t}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\frac{1+RC_{i,j;t}}{1-RC_{i,j;t}}\right) \quad with \quad t = 1, \dots, 336
$$

where  $RC_{i,j;t}$  is the realized correlations between asset *i* and *j* in month *t*. The main statistics of these correlation series are shown in Table 2.1.



**Table 2.1 Descriptive statistics of the fisher transformation of the realized correlation (Fisher(RC)), for the sample period January 1983 until December 2010**

*Note:* **The reported statistics in the table include the mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, Jarque-Bera (JB) and the first order autocorrelation coefficients (AC).**

From table 2.1 can be seen that the Stock-Bond RC and Stock-Commodity have positive mean and that the mean Bond-Commodity RC is slightly negative. The standard deviation of the Stock-Bond RC is quite high compared to the other two. By looking at the Jarque-Bera P-value, only the Bondcommodity RC is similar to a normal distribution according to the Jarque-Bera test. Only the Stock-Bond and the Stock-Commodity RC have a quite strong autocorrelation, in contradiction to the Bond-Commodity RC autocorrelation, which is quite low.

The peaks of the realized correlation are hard to predict, in order to make the time series a bit smoother, taking the natural logarithm would help. Next to the Fisher transformation, another data transformation is used, it could be that a simple transformation already helps to make the variable more predictable, but because the data contains also negative values it is not possible to take the natural logarithm, the following 'Custom' transformation could be helpful.

$$
Customer(RC_{i,j;t}) = \ln\left(\frac{RC_{i,j;t} + 1}{2}\right) \quad with \quad t = 1, ..., 336
$$

where  $RC_{i,j;t}$  is the realized correlations between asset *i* and *j* in month *t*. The main statistics of this transformation are given in Table 2.2.



**Table 2.2 Descriptive statistics for transformation of the realized correlation (Custom(RC)), for the sample period January 1983 until December 2010**

*Note:* **The reported statistics in the table include the mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, Jarque-Bera (JB) and the first order autocorrelation coefficients (AC)**

This transformation does look less attractive than the fisher transformation, because none of the variables is following a normal distribution. The time series is now much smoother, it got rid of its high peaks in the graph; however this cannot be seen in the table 2.2.

All variables were tested for a unit root using the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test. The nullhypothesis of the ADF test is that there is a unit root in the data ( $\varphi = 1$ ), and the alternative hypothesis is that there is not a unit root ( $\varphi$  < 1). Where  $\varphi$  is the coefficient of  $y_{t-1}$ .

$$
y_t = \alpha + \varphi y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t
$$

Here  $y_t$  denotes the variables to be tested for a unit root, the variables which need to be tested are both transformations of the RCs, the realised variances and returns of the different assets and the 38 macroeconomic and financial variables. The results of this test are shown in Appendix B. A unit root is found in the in the Fisher(RC) and in some of the 38 macroeconomic and financial variables, these are corrected for the unit root by taking the first differences. Christiansen et al. (2012) already adjusted the relevant variables for seasonality.

#### <span id="page-9-0"></span>**3 Methods**

This Chapter is organised as follows, first, a method for pre-selection the variables is discussed. For some models a pre-selection of the 38 macroeconomic and financial variables is needed, this is done by the ranking method Least Angle Regression (LARS), this method is discussed in Chapter 3.1. Second the technique of forecast combinations is discussed in Section 3.2. Third, two types of factor based models are discussed: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Partial Least Squares (PLS) respectively in Section 3.3.1 and 3.3.2. Fourth, Section 3.4 describes the usage of regimes switching models, these regimes switching models make use of the other models constructed. Fifth, three types of benchmark models are constructed in Section 3.5. Finally, the best model can be examined statistically and economically in Sections 3.6 and 3.7, the most important macroeconomic and financial variables can be derived from these models. To all the constructed models an autoregressive term is added as well as a lag of the realised variance (RV<sub>it-1</sub>) and realised return (RR<sub>it-</sub>  $<sub>1</sub>$ ) of the assets. This may result in better models, because earlier research has shown that correlation</sub> differs in times of economic expansions and contraction (Zhou, 2014). All models are made with a 5 and 10 year moving window, and are used to make 1-month-ahead forecasts, starting in January 1993 till December 2010.

#### <span id="page-9-1"></span>**3.1 Forecast Combinations**

First, forecast combinations are made of forecasts of 'simple' models, based on Timmermann (2006). These are models with all possible combinations of a subset of the 38 macroeconomic and financial variables. Because making combinations of all the 38 variables would lead to  $2^{38}$  models, a subset of the best 18 variables is needed to keep it computable. To determine the 'best' variables in the subset, the Least Angle Regression (LARS) method (elaborated in Section 3.3) is used to give a ranking to the 38 variables (Bai & Ng, 2008; Cakmakli & Van Dijk, 2013). The forecast combinations are made using the mean as a weighting scheme, because this method performs relatively well compared to difficult schemes (Chan, Stock and Watson, 1999; Timmermann, 2006).

For each time window a subset of the *k* = 38 macroeconomic and financial variables is selected using the LARS method, resulting in the most relevant variables for explaining the volatility at the specific time interval (Bai & Ng, 2008). Then, to each of the regression models a variable from the selection is either added or not; for a forecast combination model with 18 variables this results in a total of  $2^p$  =  $2^{18}$  = 262.144 models. To each of these models an autoregressive term will also be added, since this carries a lot of information on the current observation. In addition a lag of the realised variance (RV<sub>it-</sub>  $_1$ ) and realised return (RR<sub>it-1</sub>) of the assets will be added as well, this may result in better models, because earlier research has shown that correlation differs in times of economic expansions and contraction (Zhou, 2014). Each model *m* is then specified as

$$
y_{t} = \alpha_{m} + \beta_{m} y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} I(i) \gamma_{i,m} x_{i} + \varepsilon_{t,m} \text{ with } m = 1, ... 2^{p}
$$
 (1)

Here is  $I(i)$  an indicator function taking value one when  $xi$  is included in model  $m$ , and zero otherwise.  $\gamma$  is a 1 x  $\rho$  vector, containing the OLS regression coefficients of *xi*. The 38 financial and macro economical variable are represented in *xi* with *i = 1, … , 38*. To get one forecast, the forecasts of all the models are combined by taking the mean over the forecasts.

#### <span id="page-10-0"></span>**3.2 Factor based models**

The second and third model are two factor based models, i.e. principle component analysis (PCA) factor model and partial least squares (PLS) factor model. PCA is a useful technique to transform a high number of possible correlated variables into a smaller number of factors. The advantage of PLS over PCA is that it takes into account the correlation with the variable one wants to explain. To make the PCA factor model more reliable, PCA is performed on the 'best' 18 of the 38 variables, determined by LARS (elaborated in Section 3.3).

The optimal number of factors in both factor models will be determined by the information criterion used by Bay and Ng (2002) and Groen and Kapetanios (2008), the minimum number of factors is set to one.

$$
\min_{j} IC_{j} = \ln(\sigma_{\epsilon}^{2}) + j \left( \frac{(k+T)\ln(\min(T, k))}{kT} \right) \quad j = 1, ..., k
$$
 (2)

In which  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2$  is the squared of the standard error of estimated model; with *j* the number of factors in the model, assuming the factors sorted in order of importance; with *k* the maximum number of factors, which is 38, the number of variables.

#### <span id="page-10-1"></span>**3.2.1 Principal Component Analysis**

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a useful technique in statistical analysis (Smith, 2002). Richardson (2009) defines PCA as a technique which uses sophisticated underlying mathematical principles to transform a number of possibly correlated variables into factors, a smaller number of variables. Because there are a relatively high number of explanatory variables, it is advantageous for our analysis to put the variables into factors. PCA finds the linear combinations of these macroeconomic and financial variables that are uncorrelated and explain an as large as possible variance of these variables. This reduces the problem form choosing between 38 different variables into a choice of a number of factors. This results in a model with fewer coefficients to estimate. A drawback of using PCA is that is does not take into account which variable one wants to explain. In order to cope with that, PCA will be performed on the pre-selected subset of 18 variables by the LARS method, and compare these to the results obtained with the model with all 38 variables. This gives better results, because the fact that PCA does not have a selection mechanism for which explanatory variables are more important to explain the dependent variable.

PCA starts with a dataset in terms of a *T* x *k* matrix X, with T is the sample size and *k* is the number of variables. The matrix X will be transformed into another matrix G, which has dimension *T x k* too. Now for some transformation matrix P the following holds

$$
G=PX
$$

The rows of P need to be orthogonal to be a new basis for representing the columns of X, which will become the principal components. It is either possible to perform PCA on the covariance or the correlation matrix. PCA is performed on the covariance matrix of the standardised data, which is the same as performing PCA on the correlation matrix, this in order prevent the factors of being wrongly influenced by the nominal value.

The covariance matrix of matrix G can be represented as the following matrix product.

$$
C_G = \frac{1}{n-1} GGC_G = \frac{1}{n-1} PSP' \quad \text{where} \quad S = XX' = EDE
$$

where S is a *T* x *T*, E is an *T* x *T* orthonormal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal eigenvectors of S and D is a diagonal matrix which has the eigenvectors of S as its entries. The covariance matrix  $C_G$  can be written as

$$
C_G = \frac{1}{n-1} PSP' = \frac{1}{n-1} E'(EDE')E = \frac{1}{n-1} D
$$

Since E is an orthonormal matrix, it holds that  $E'E = I$ , where I is the *T* x *T* identity matrix. After obtaining the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $S = XX'$ , the eigenvalues are sorted in descending order and are placed in this order on the diagonal of D. Then, the orthonormal matrix E is constructed by placing the associated eigenvectors in the same order to form the columns of E. Now the principal components, i.e. matrix  $E$ , are the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix  $XX'$ , and the rows are the principal components in order of importance.

With this method, information is gathered about the relative importance of each principal component from the variances. The largest variance corresponds to the first principal component, the second largest to the second principal component and so on. The data is organized in the diagonalization stage. The factors which are included in equation (4) are obtained by multiplying the principle components, located in matrix P, with matrix X

$$
F^{PCA} = G = PX
$$

An autoregressive term will be added to the PCA model, since this may give useful information on the current observation. In addition a lag of the realised variance (RV<sub>i;t-1</sub>) and realised return (RR<sub>i;t-1</sub>) of the assets will be added as well. The factors constructed with PCA can now be used in the following model

$$
y_t = \alpha + \beta F_t^{PCA} + \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{3}
$$

With  $F_t^{PCA}$  being the factors constructed with PCA, the optimal number of factors to include in this model is determined by the information criterion in Equation 2.

#### <span id="page-12-0"></span>**3.2.2 Partial Least Squares**

Partial Least Squares is a useful technique which can add more information to the factors than a factor model based on PCA.

In order to make it easy to perform PLS, the explanatory variables in X must be standardized and the dependent variable *y* must be demeaned (Groen & Kapetanios, 2008). PLS is constructed iteratively

*Initialization*: 
$$
u_t = y_t
$$
,  $v_{i,t} = x_{i,t}$ ,  $j = 1$ , *with*  $i = 1, ..., k$   
Here *j* is the current constructed number of factors. The maximum number of factors to construct is *k*  
= 38. The variable weights ( $w_{i,j}$ ) are constructed by taking the covariance between  $u_t$  and  $v_{i,t}$  for every *i*.

$$
w_{i,j} = Cov(u_t, v_{i,t})
$$

The first factor  $(f_{1,t})$  can now be constructed by  $w_1'v_t$ . Then  $u_t$  and  $v_{i,t}$  are regressed on  $f_{1,t}$  and the residuals of these regressions  $\tilde{u}_t$  and  $\tilde{v}_t$  are set as the new  $u_t$  and  $v_{i,t}$ .

To compute the remaining *k-1* factors, *j* is set to *j+1* and the weights (*wi,j*) are then calculated for every *i*. The next factor can be constructed by  $w_j'v_t$ . Then,  $u_t$  and  $v_{i,t}$  are regressed on  $f_{j,t}$  and their residuals  $\tilde{u}_t$  and  $\tilde{v}_t$  are set as the new  $u_t$  and  $v_{it}$ . This is repeated until all the *k* factors are constructed.

After constructing the factors with PLS, the model looks similar to the model constructed with PCA but with different factors

$$
y_t = \alpha + \beta F_t^{PLS} + \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{4}
$$

Here,  $y_t$  is the realized volatility,  $F_t$  a matrix with *k* columns and each column is a factor constructed with PLS.

#### <span id="page-12-1"></span>**3.3 Preselecting variables**

As was said in the two previous Sections, Section 3.1 and Section 3.2.1, a selection of the best 18 out of 38 variables is needed. This pre-selection is done by using the ranking method Least Angle Regressions (LARS). One could pre-select the variables by simply regressing all separate variables on volatility but this may cause problems because of possibly correlated information in other variables (Cakmakli & Van Dijk, 2013). Therefore LARS is used, this algorithm gives a ranking to all the 38 variables and by taking the first 18 a pre-selection is made.

The LARS algorithm builds up estimates of  $\hat{\mu}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$ . These estimates are represented as follows

$$
\hat{\mu} = X\hat{\beta} \tag{5}
$$

With X is the complete data set of all macroeconomic and financial variables, and y contains the realized volatilities. The simple geometric version of the LARS algorithm is elaborated in Figure 3.1. It starts by setting  $\hat{\mu}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  equal to zero, starting at point  $\hat{\mu}_0$  in Figure 3.1. Then, the variable which is most correlated with volatility, say *x1,* is selected. A large step is taken in the direction of this variable until some other variable,  $x_2$ , has as much correlation with the current residual(y) as  $x_1$ . From this point ( $\hat{\mu}_1$ ), the new angle is taken as the biSection of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . A new LARS estimate is constructed, say  $\hat{\mu}_1$ . Then, LARS continues with the new angle until a third variable,  $x_3$ , is just as correlated with the current residual as a combination of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . Then a new angle is raised and after this the LARS method continues recursively.



Figure 3.1 Geometric representation of the LARS algorithm with two explanatory variables  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ The LARS algorithm augments  ${\hat \mu}_0$  in the direction of  $\mathsf{x}_1$ , to  ${\hat \mu}_1$  , which is given by

$$
\hat{\mu}_1 = \hat{\mu}_0 + \hat{\gamma}_1 x_1
$$

The covariance of  $\hat{\mu}$  is given by

$$
Cov(\hat{\mu}) = X'(y - \hat{\mu})
$$

 $\hat{v}_1$  is chosen so that  $y_2$ - $\hat{\mu}$  is equally correlated with  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . So  $y_2$ - $\hat{\mu}$  bisects the angle between  $x_1$ and *x2*, this results in the following equality

$$
c_1(\hat{\mu}_1) = c_2(\hat{\mu}_1)
$$

Here  $c_1(\hat{\mu}_1)$ denotes the covariance of  $\hat{\mu}_1$ with  $y_1$  and  $c_2(\hat{\mu}_1)$ denotes the covariance of  $\hat{\mu}_1$ with  $y_2$ . After constructing  $\hat{\mu}_1$ , the LARS algorithm proceeds with computing

$$
\hat{\mu}_2 = \hat{\mu}_1 + \hat{\gamma}_2 u_2
$$

where  $u_2$  is the unit bisector which combines  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

The LARS algorithm is elaborated in the case of two covariates. It continues in the same way with multiple covariates. It stops when all variables are included, resulting in a vector with estimates of all  $\mu$ 's;  $\hat{\beta}$  from Equation (5) can now be estimated by ordinary least squares. Finally, a ranking of the variables can be made by taking the highest absolute values of the  $\hat{\beta}$ s as the best explaining variables. Now the top 18 variables can be determined, in order to use this for the forecast combinations and for PCA.

#### <span id="page-14-0"></span>**3.4 Regime switching models**

After making all models and having done the forecasts, a new type of model is introduced. The regime switching models, these models are made, by adding an indicator function  $(I)$  to the models form Section 3.1 and 3.2. If the model was  $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$  it becomes

$$
Y = \begin{cases} X\beta + \varepsilon & \text{if } l = 1\\ X\beta + \varepsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

This gives a model the opportunity to capture two types of behaviour, first in the case the criterion indicated by the indicator functions holds, and the second type of behaviour if it does not hold. This can also be written by the following equation

$$
Y = I \cdot X\beta + (1 - I) \cdot X\beta + \eta
$$

The function  $I$  is the indicator function, which makes the distinction between two types of market behaviour. It is known that correlations behaves differently in bull of bear markets, correlations between stocks and bonds is usually high in times of economic expansion and low in times of economic contraction (Zhou, 2014). Therefore it the indicator functions indicates whether the market is in a bull market or not. A reasonably good indication of a bull market is that the sum of the market return in the last three months is positive. Three months are used in order to give in indication of the tendency of the market, one month would be to uncertain and by taking half a year it would be to rigid and not be able to react to fluctuations. Therefore the sum of the market return of the last quarter is used as an indicator. So three indicators are made, which indicates a bull market in market of stocks, bonds and commodities. This indicator is equal to one if the return of the last three periods of the asset was positive and is zero otherwise. All three regimes are used for the stock-bond, stock-commodity and the bond-commodity realised correlation.

#### <span id="page-14-1"></span>**3.5 Benchmark models**

Three benchmark models are constructed, a random walk model, a simple autoregressive (AR (1)) model and an autoregressive model with some macroeconomic and financial variables, ARX (1). These benchmarks need to be beaten by the other models, otherwise it would be wiser just to use these simple models.

The first benchmark model is the random walk model. This model is one of the simplest models there exists, namely

$$
y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t
$$

The forecast for the next period is simply the value of the last period.

The second benchmark model is the autoregressive model (AR(1)). This is a model with a constant and one autoregressive (AR) term. The first AR term is included, since there is a large first order autocorrelation in the volatilities for all asset classes as stated in Chapter 2. This model is slightly more advanced than the random walk model, and should be harder to beat by the constructed models. The AR(1) model is described as follows

$$
y_t = \alpha + \beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t
$$

Finally the third benchmark model, the autoregressive model with macroeconomic and financial variables (ARX(1)), is introduced. This is an AR(1) model with 18 variables *x<sup>i</sup>* . The macroeconomic and financial variables in the model are the highest-ranked variables which have been selected by the LARS method. So the ARX(1) is described as follows

$$
y_t = \alpha + \beta y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p c_i x_i + \varepsilon_t
$$

It could be possible that one of the  $x_i$  is not significant, but it is still included in the model. This is done to make it more comparable with our constructed models, which also use the same *p* financial and macroeconomic variables in their model specification.

#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>**3.6 Statistic interpretation**

The statistical evaluation of the forecasts will be done by analyzing the accuracy, efficiency and unbiasedness. The mean squared prediction error (MSPE) and the mean absolute prediction error (MAE) will be examined for the accuracy.

$$
MSPE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \varepsilon_t^2 \qquad \qquad MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} |\varepsilon_t|
$$

For comparing MSPE of the forecasts with the random walk model easily, the out-of-sample  $R^2$  is used. The out-of-sample  $R^2$  is defined by

$$
R^2_{model\,x} = 1 - \frac{MSPE_{model\,x}}{MSPE_{Random\,Walk\,model}}
$$

One can see that an out-of-sample  $R^2$  which is higher than 1, corresponds with a higher performance in terms of accuracy than the random walk model.

To be able to compare the accuracy of the models, the Diebold-Mariano test will be used. The Diebold Mariano test makes it is possible to determine if the differences in the prediction errors are statistically significant. The null hypothesis of this test is that the sample mean of the difference in squared prediction errors of two different models *i,j* is not significantly larger than zero.

$$
DM = \frac{\bar{d}}{\sqrt{\frac{V(d_{t+1})}{n}}} \approx N(0,1)
$$
  
with  $d_{t+1} = e^2_{i,t+1|t} - e^2_{j,t+1|t}$  and  $V(d_{t+1}) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{t=1}^{n} (d_{t+1} - \bar{d})^2$ 

Where  $\bar{d}$  is the sample mean of  $d_{t+1}$  and *n* is the number of forecasts which is equal to 216. With a significance level of 5 percent, the critical value of this one-sided test is equal to 1.645. Tot test for efficient forecasts, the Mincer-Zarnowitz regression test is used.

$$
y_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \hat{y}_{t+1|t} + \eta_{t+1}
$$

The null hypothesis in this test is  $\beta_0 = 0$  and  $\beta_1 = 1$ , an F-test is performed to test the null hypothesis. The underlying idea is that it should not be possible to forecast the forecast errors, based on the info at the time the forecast is made. Finally, unbiasedness is checked by testing if the forecast error significantly differs from zero.

#### <span id="page-16-0"></span>**3.7 Economic interpretation**

Next to the statistical evaluation, it is interesting to see the economic practice of this research by looking at an investor with the possibility of investing in risk free T-bond rate and the three assets: stocks, bonds and commodities. Constructing an optimal portfolio can be done by making use of the preferences of an investor and of the forecasts of the realised correlations (RC), the realised returns (RR) and realised variances (RV). For the forecasts of the RC, the forecasts of the models from the previous Sections are used. A forecast for the RR is made by taking the average of the last 5 or 10 years, depending on the forecast window. A forecast for the RV is made by making use of the economically best performing forecast of the RV, which is a PCA factor model with the best 18 macroeconomic and financial variables selected by LARS, made by Holtrop, Kers, Mourer and Verkuijlen (2014), who use the same data to predict the RV. The economic evaluation is done by making use of the utility function of a fictive investor.

$$
\max_{\mathbf{w}_{t+1}} E(r_{p,t+1}) - \frac{1}{2} \gamma Var(r_{p,t+1}) \tag{?}
$$

Where  $w_{t+1}$  is a 3x1 vector with the three investment weights of stocks, bonds and commodities;  $\gamma$ is the risk aversion rate of the investor and  $r_{p,t+1}$  is the portfolio return and is given by

$$
r_{p,t+1} = [w_1 \quad w_2 \quad w_3] \begin{bmatrix} r_{s,t+1} \\ r_{b,t+1} \\ r_{c,t+1} \end{bmatrix} - [w_1 \quad w_2 \quad w_3] \begin{bmatrix} r_{f,t+1} \\ r_{f,t+1} \\ r_{f,t+1} \end{bmatrix} + r_{f,t+1}
$$
  
= 
$$
w'_{t+1}a_{t+1} + r_{f,t+1} - w'_{t+1}c_{t+1}
$$

In this formula  $a_{t+1}$  is a 3x1 vector with the expected returns of stocks, bonds and commodities;  $r_{f,t+1}$  is the expected return on the risk free T-bond and  $c_{t+1}$  is a 3x1 vector with the  $r_{f,t+1}$  on all three spots. The variance of the portfolio is

$$
Var(r_{p,t+1}) = \mathbf{w}'_{t+1} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{t+1} \mathbf{w}_{t+1}
$$

In which  $\Sigma_{t+1}$  is the expected covariance matrix of the returns of the three assets. It is assumed that the risk-free bond return for time *t+1* is already known at time *t* and this return is assumed independent from the three asset classes. This gives, by optimizing equation (?) the following optimal portfolio weights

$$
w_{t+1}^* = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Sigma_{t+1}^{-1} (a_{t+1} - c_{t+1})
$$
\n(?)

In which  $\Sigma_{t+1}^{-1}$  is the inverse of the expected covariance matrix, the expected covariance matrix needs to be positive definite to be invertible, it turned out like that. Two cases are considered; first, the weights are bounded between zero and one. These weights imply that short selling and lending are not allowed. In the second case, short selling and lending are permitted. Transaction costs are neglected. To evaluate what an investor is willing to pay for using the RC forecasts of this paper, the maximum performance fee is calculated. To be able to do this, a quadratic utility function is assumed (West, Edison & Cho, 1993). The average utility is given by

$$
\overline{U} = \frac{W}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \left( R_{p,t+1} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma}{(1+\gamma)} R_{p,t+1}^2 \right) \qquad \text{with } R_{p,t+1} = 1 + r_{p,t+1}
$$

Here *W* is defined as the wealth to be invested and *n* is the number of time periods where the investing is analyzed. In order to calculate the maximum performance fee, the utility of a strategy arising from the forecast of the constructed models (*strategy a*) needs to be compared with an unsophisticated buy-and-hold strategy (*strategy b*). The buy-and-hold strategy consists of either only investing in the risk-free t-bonds, only investing equally in the three markets, or in an equally weighted combination of the four.

$$
\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \left( \left( R_{p,t+1}^a - \Delta \right) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma}{(1+\gamma)} \left( R_{p,t+1}^a - \Delta \right)^2 \right) = \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \left( R_{p,t+1}^b - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma}{(1+\gamma)} \left( R_{p,t+1}^b \right)^2 \right)
$$

From this equation the delta can be calculated, which is a fraction of the wealth that the investor is maximally willing to pay for this information.

#### <span id="page-17-0"></span>**4 Results**

In Chapter 3 the methodology for the construction of all models and forecasts and for the statistical and economical evaluation are described. The results will be shown in this chapter; to begin with, in Section 4.1 the statistical results will be shown by statistically evaluating the forecast, by means of the unbiasedness, accuracy and the efficiency. For the three types of forecasts, i.e. forecasts combinations, factor based model-forecasts and regime switching model-forecasts, a selection of the results are presented in depth, for readability, the remaining results are given in the appendices. Then the models are compared with each other and with the benchmark models by means of their relative accuracy. In addition to the statistical results, Section 4.2 will elaborate on the results of the economic interpretation of the forecasts made in this paper.

The tables and graphs which will be shown in Section 4.1, are about the Stock-Bond realised correlation. The tables and graphs of the forecasts of the other realised correlations are shown in the appendices, as referred to in the text.

#### <span id="page-18-0"></span>**4.1 Statistic evaluation**

1

In this section the forecasts of the models will be statistically evaluated, as described in Section 3.6. The following table shows the result of the forecast of the Stock-Bond realised correlation, where the Fisher transformation was used to transform the RC.



**Table 4.1 Statistic evaluation of the forecast of the Stock-Bond realised correlation. The Fisher transformation was used to transform the RC, the models were estimated with a 10 year moving window and the forecasts are made from January 1993 till December 2010.**

*Note:* **The I1 in bold means that this is a Regime Switching model with Indicator 1 (Stock bull-market indicator), see Section 3.4 for details. The accuracy is shown by the mean squared prediction error (MSPE) and the mean absolute prediction error (MAE), the unbiasedness is given by t-statistics where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is unbiased and the efficiency is displayed by the Mincer Zarnowitz F-statistic, where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is efficient. The out-of-sample R<sup>2</sup> is a comparison of the MSPE, each model is compared with the Random Walk model. If the out-of-sample R<sup>2</sup> has a \*, it indicates that the Diebold-Mariano test was rejected, which means a significant difference in accuracy.**

Table 4.1 shows that the predictions made with Forecast combinations have the lowest out-ofsample  $R^2$ , and therefore also the lowest MSPE. However this model has the lowest MSPE, it is not

<sup>\*</sup> denotes the rejection of the null hypothesis for a significance level of 5 percent.

significantly better than the other models, which can be seen by the result of the Diebold-Mariano (DM) test, shown in Appendix C. Because of the fact that the DM test is not significant, the forecasts made with the other models, even though they have a slightly higher MSPE, they are not performing significantly worse. All of the forecasts made when making use of the Fisher transformation, are neither unbiased nor efficient, except the random walk model has unbiased forecasts.

Table 4.1 also shows results of the Regime Switching models with indicator 1 (Stock bull-market indicator), even though Zhou (2014) suggest that Regime Switching model can contribute to forecasts of co-movements, this is not the case with this specific kind of indicators. Especially when the ARX(1) is used in a Regime Switching model, it performs significantly worse in terms of accuracy compared to the other models model. The results of the other Regime Switching models are similar to this result, with one with indicator 1.

A complete table of Table 4.1 can be found in Appendix D, which includes statistic results of all models for all three RC: Stock-Bond, Stock-Commodity and Bond-Commodity, for the Fisher transformation.



The following table shows much different results in terms of unbiasedness and efficiency, when making use of a custom transformation of the RC, instead of the Fisher transformation.

**Table 4.2 Statistic evaluation of the forecast of the Stock-Bond realised correlation. The Custom transformation was used to transform the RC, the models were estimated with a 10 year moving window and the forecasts are made from January 1993 till December 2010.**

*Note:* **The I1 in bold means that this is a Regime Switching model with Indicator 1 (Stock bull-market indicator), see Section 3.4 for details. The accuracy is shown by the mean squared prediction error (MSPE) and the mean absolute prediction error (MAE), the unbiasedness is given by t-statistics where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is unbiased and the efficiency is displayed by the Mincer Zarnowitz F-statistic, where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is** 

1

<sup>\*</sup> denotes the rejection of the null hypothesis for a significance level of 5 percent.

efficient. The out-of-sample R<sup>2</sup> is a comparison of the MSPE, each model is compared with the Random Walk model. If **the out-of-sample R<sup>2</sup> has a \*, it indicates that the Diebold-Mariano test was rejected, which means a significant difference in accuracy.**

From Table 4.2 can be derived that most forecasts made, by making use of a custom transformation, are unbiased and efficient. Also more forecasts are now significant better in accuracy than the random walk model, which was not the case when the fisher transformation was used. The forecasts of the random walk do, by construction, not differ when making use of data transformation, therefore the results are the same as well. The AR(1) model, forecast combinations, the PCA factor model and the PLS factor model are all four unbiased, efficient and are significant more accurate than the random walk model. These four forecasts are even significantly better than nearly all forecasts made by making use of the Fisher transformation, which can be seen by the result of the Diebold-Mariano (DM) test, shown in Appendix C. By looking at the out-of-sample  $R^2$ , forecast combinations would be the most accurate, but it does not differ significantly with the other three well performing models.

One cloud say that the out-of-sample  $R^2$  of most of the forecasts of the regime switching models are slightly lower than they were when making use of the fisher transformation, but this is not significant. The ARX(1) with indicator 1 is still performing badly in terms of accuracy.

A complete table of Table 4.2 can be found in Appendix E, which includes statistic results of all models for all three RC: Stock-Bond, Stock-Commodity and Bond-Commodity, for the custom transformation.

From table 4.1 and 4.2 can be seen that the forecasts made with Forecast Combinations give the lowest MSPE. Figure 4.1 gives a moving window of the development of the MSPE.



**Figure 4.1 Moving window of the sum of the squared prediction error (SSPE) of forecasts made from: a random walk model, forecast combinations with use of the Fisher transformation (F) and forecasts combinations with use of custom transformation (C). For an exact specification of transformation types, see Section 2.2.**

*Note:* **The moving SSPE is calculated by taking the aggregate sum over the squared forecasts errors.**

One can see from Figure 4.1 that the Forecast Combinations with the Custom transformation perform, in terms of accuracy, much better than the Random Walk model. From 1993 till the beginning of 1998 is the Forecast combinations with the Fisher transformation slightly lower, but afterwards the Forecast Combinations with the Fisher transformation even reaches the same values as the Random Walk model.

Forecast Combinations perform quite well, the forecasting technique makes use of a pre-selection method, the LARS method. Table 4.3 shows the 3 most selected macroeconomic and financial variables for being in the selection were the forecast combination were preformed on.



**Table 4.3 Fraction of a macroeconomic or financial variable of being selected by LARS, for the Fisher transformation**

*Note:* **A full list of the macroeconomic and financial variables with their main specifications can be found in Appendix A. A full table of Table 4.4 can be found in Appendix E.**

Figure 4.3 shows that the Relative Bond rate is most important for the Stock-Bond realised correlation. Most of the main variables are from the second category: *Interest rates, spreads and bond market factors.* For the Stock-Commodity realised correlation the capacity utilization, the monthly industrial production growth and the T-Bill rate play an important role. The majority of important variables are from the fifth category: *Macroeconomic variables*. This was to be expected because of the fact that commodities are more related to the macro economy. The Bond-Commodity realised correlation is mainly indicated by the Chicago Business Barometer, the Capacity Utilization and the Dividend Price Ratio. Most of the main variables are from the fifth category: *Macroeconomic variables*. For the same reasons as for the Stock-Commodity RC, this was to be expected.

#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**4.2 Economic evaluation**

In this section the different forecasts are evaluated economically, as described in Section 3.7. Table 4.4 shows how the forecast of the models can be used in an economic context, **Mean STD Portfolio weights restriction**



**Table 4.4 Economic evaluation of the realised correlation forecasts of the constructed models and the benchmark models, in which the forecasts of the realised correlations are used to construct an optimal portfolio, consisting of stocks, bonds, commodities and risk free government bonds.**

*Note:* **Mean and STD are respectively the average and the standard deviation of the portfolio return, displayed in monthly percentages. ΔRiskFree, ΔStock, ΔBond, ΔCom and Δ25 are the performance fees an investor is willing to pay extra to use these models instead of a standard strategies, displayed in basis points. These five strategies are 100% in risk free government bonds, 100% in stocks, 100% in bonds, 100% in commodities and 25% in every asset including the risk free government bonds. The 'real' model is the economic evaluation where the optimal weights were constructed with the real values for the realised correlation. The weights of an investor are bounded between 0 and 1. The I2 in bold means that this is a Regime Switching model with Indicator 2 (Bond bull-market indicator), see Section 3.4 for details.**

From table 4.4 can be seen that all strategies give have a quite low mean and a high standard deviation, only the risk free strategy standard deviation is in proportion to its mean. This is partly because the mean and standard deviation are displayed in monthly percentages, but is mainly caused by the fact that for the determination of the optimal portfolio weights quite inaccurate forecasts of the expected return are used. This table is still useful for comparing the relative economic value of the different models, because the same forecast is used for every model. For this very same reason, most of the deltas contain negative values, which would be resolved by using better forecasts for the expected return on the assets. Some models even perform slightly better than if the Real values of the realised correlation were used, which is a bit odd, which might be just 'luck' of the forecast.

By comparing the different forecasts, it can be noticed that the ARX(1) with a regime switching model of indicator 2 performs economically best, because it has the highest delta compared to the others models. It is interesting that this model performs so well economically, even though it did not performs outstandingly in the statistic evaluation. Also the Forecast Combinations with a Regime Switching model is performing reasonable. However it is performing quite well in combination with at regime switching model, Forecast Combinations scores worst without a Regime Switching model. The factor models perform approximately as good as the AR(1) model. When there was a clear difference for the two data transformations in the statistic interpretation, this is not the case for the economic interpretation, in the sense that it cannot be seen clearly which transformation gives better results.

A complete table of Table 4.4 can be found in Appendix G, which includes the economic evaluation of both restrictions on portfolios weights for all models for the Fisher and the custom transformation.

### <span id="page-23-0"></span>**5 Conclusion**

This research forecasted co-movements of stocks, bonds and commodities, with the use of macroeconomic and financial variables. This is done by different forecasting techniques on two data transformations on the realised correlation, which is a measure of co-movement. These techniques consisted of forecasts combinations, two factor based approaches and regime switching models.

Some drivers behind the co-movements were derived. These forecasts were evaluated both statically and economically.

The economic evaluation shows that the autoregressive model with macroeconomic and financial variables, with regime switching on an indicator of a bond-bull market (ARX(1), with indicator 2) performs best. If an investor would use this model to construct her portfolio, she would get the most utility based on her risk-averse preference.

This in contradiction to the statistic evaluation, where forecast combinations turned out to be the best performing model, but also other models such a simple autoregressive model (AR(1)) or the factor based models PCA and PLS do not perform worse than the forecast combinations. The statistic evaluation does show that forecasts made with the custom transformation from this paper, performs significantly better than forecasts made with the fisher transformation. For the Stock-Bond realised correlation, Interest rates, spreads and bond market factors are important, such as the relative bond rate. For the Stock-Commodity and Bond-Commodity realised correlation Macroeconomic variables are important, such as capacity utilization and industrial production growth.

Overall realised correlation is difficult to predict, therefore still further research is needed. A different data transformation is recommended in order to increase predictability. Regime switching models is a promising method for forecasting realised correlation, different regimes can be used, and an option could be to use the most important macroeconomic or financial variables of the realised correlations of stocks, bonds and commodities.

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# <span id="page-27-0"></span>**Appendix**

# **Appendix A**



*Note:* **The table shows the summary statistics for the macro-finance predictive variables. The reported statistics include the mean, standard deviation (Std.), Skewness (Skew.), Kurtosis (Kurt.), as well as the first order autocorrelation coefficient (AC(1)). An asterisk (\*) denotes that the variable is changed from Christianssen et al. (2012), corrected for a unit root.**

# **Appendix B Unit root test:**



Augmented Dickey-Fuller tests on macro-economic and financial variables

\*denotes presence of unit root with a significance level of 0.05

# **Appendix C Diebold-Mariano Test**



**Green indicates a significant better model than the random walk model and red indicates a significant worse model than the random walk model.**

# **Appendix D Statistical evaluation of the forecasts for the Stock-Bond, Stock-Commodity and the Bond-Commodity realised correlation. (Fisher transformation)**



Note: The fisher transformation is used as a data transformation, see Section 2.2.



**Statistic evaluation of the forecast of the Stock-Bond, Stock-Commodity and the Bond-Commodity realised correlation. The Fisher transformation was used to transform the RC, the models were estimated with a 10 year moving window and the forecasts are made from January 1993 till December 2010.**

*Note:* **The I1 in bold means that this is a Regime Switching model with Indicator 1 (Stock bull-market indicator), Indicator 2 (Bond bull-market indicator) and indicator 3 (Commodity bull-market indicator), see Section 3.4 for details. The accuracy is shown by the mean squared prediction error (MSPE) and the mean absolute prediction error (MAE), the unbiasedness is given by t-statistics where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is unbiased and the efficiency is displayed by the Mincer Zarnowitz F-statistic, where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is efficient. The out-ofsample R<sup>2</sup> is a comparison of the MSPE, each model is compared with the Random Walk model. If the out-of-sample R<sup>2</sup> has a \*, it indicates that the Diebold-Mariano test was rejected, which means a significant difference in accuracy. \* denotes the rejection of the null hypothesis for a significance level of 5 percent.**

# **Appendix E Statistical evaluation of the forecasts for the Stock-Bond, Stock-Commodity and the Bond-Commodity realised correlation. (Custom transformation)**



Note: A custom transformation is used as a data transformation, see Section 2.2.



**Statistic evaluation of the forecast of the Stock-Bond, Stock-Commodity and the Bond-Commodity realised correlation. The Custom transformation was used to transform the RC, the models were estimated with a 10 year moving window and the forecasts are made from January 1993 till December 2010.**

*Note:* **The I1 in bold means that this is a Regime Switching model with Indicator 1 (Stock bull-market indicator), Indicator 2 (Bond bull-market indicator) and indicator 3 (Commodity bull-market indicator), see Section 3.4 for details. The accuracy is shown by the mean squared prediction error (MSPE) and the mean absolute prediction error (MAE), the unbiasedness is given by t-statistics where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is unbiased and the efficiency is displayed by the Mincer Zarnowitz F-statistic, where the null hypothesis is that the forecast is efficient. The out-ofsample R<sup>2</sup> is a comparison of the MSPE, each model is compared with the Random Walk model. If the out-of-sample R<sup>2</sup> has a \*, it indicates that the Diebold-Mariano test was rejected, which means a significant difference in accuracy. \* denotes the rejection of the null hypothesis for a significance level of 5 percent.**

# **Appendix F Percentile of macroeconomic and financial variable being selected by LARS**

Note: This variable selection is used for the ARX(1) model, forecast combinations and PCA model.



# **Appendix G Results of the economic interpretation of the different forecasts made in this paper.**

