# PROJECTED PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS IN FACTOR MODELS ${ }^{1}$ 

By JianQing Fan*, Yuan Liao ${ }^{\dagger}$ and Weichen Wang*<br>Princeton University* and University of Maryland ${ }^{\dagger}$

This paper introduces a Projected Principal Component Analysis (Projected-PCA), which employs principal component analysis to the projected (smoothed) data matrix onto a given linear space spanned by covariates. When it applies to high-dimensional factor analysis, the projection removes noise components. We show that the unobserved latent factors can be more accurately estimated than the conventional PCA if the projection is genuine, or more precisely, when the factor loading matrices are related to the projected linear space. When the dimensionality is large, the factors can be estimated accurately even when the sample size is finite. We propose a flexible semiparametric factor model, which decomposes the factor loading matrix into the component that can be explained by subject-specific covariates and the orthogonal residual component. The covariates' effects on the factor loadings are further modeled by the additive model via sieve approximations. By using the newly proposed Projected-PCA, the rates of convergence of the smooth factor loading matrices are obtained, which are much faster than those of the conventional factor analysis. The convergence is achieved even when the sample size is finite and is particularly appealing in the high-dimension-low-sample-size situation. This leads us to developing nonparametric tests on whether observed covariates have explaining powers on the loadings and whether they fully explain the loadings. The proposed method is illustrated by both simulated data and the returns of the components of the S\&P 500 index.

1. Introduction. Factor analysis is one of the most useful tools for modeling common dependence among multivariate outputs. Suppose that we observe data $\left\{y_{i t}\right\}_{i \leq p, t \leq T}$ that can be decomposed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i t}=\sum_{k=1}^{K} \lambda_{i k} f_{t k}+u_{i t}, \quad i=1, \ldots, p, t=1, \ldots, T \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left\{f_{t 1}, \ldots, f_{t K}\right\}$ are unobservable common factors; $\left\{\lambda_{i 1}, \ldots, \lambda_{i K}\right\}$ are corresponding factor loadings for variable $i$, and $u_{i t}$ denotes the idiosyncratic compo-

[^0]nent that cannot be explained by the static common component. Here, $p$ and $T$, respectively, denote the dimension and sample size of the data.

Model (1.1) has broad applications in the statistics literature. For instance, $\mathbf{y}_{t}=$ $\left(y_{1 t}, \ldots, y_{p t}\right)^{\prime}$ can be expression profiles or blood oxygenation level dependent (BOLD) measurements for the $t$ th microarray, proteomic or fMRI-image, whereas $i$ represents a gene or protein or a voxel. See, for example, Desai and Storey (2012), Efron (2010), Fan, Han and Gu (2012), Friguet, Kloareg and Causeur (2009), Leek and Storey (2008). The separations between the common factors and idiosyncratic components are carried out by the low-rank plus sparsity decomposition. See, for example, Cai, Ma and Wu (2013), Candès and Recht (2009), Fan, Liao and Mincheva (2013), Koltchinskii, Lounici and Tsybakov (2011), Ma (2013), Negahban and Wainwright (2011).

The factor model (1.1) has also been extensively studied in the econometric literature, in which $\mathbf{y}_{t}$ is the vector of economic outputs at time $t$ or excessive returns for individual assets on day $t$. The unknown factors and loadings are typically estimated by the principal component analysis (PCA) and the separations between the common factors and idiosyncratic components are characterized via static pervasiveness assumptions. See, for instance, Bai (2003), Bai and Ng (2002), Breitung and Tenhofen (2011), Lam and Yao (2012), Stock and Watson (2002) among others. In this paper, we consider static factor model, which differs from the dynamic factor model [Forni and Lippi (2001), Forni et al. $(2000,2015)$ ]. The dynamic model allows more general infinite dimensional representations. For this type of model, the frequency domain PCA [Brillinger (1981)] was applied on the spectral density. The so-called dynamic pervasiveness condition also plays a crucial role in achieving consistent estimation of the spectral density.

Accurately estimating the loadings and unobserved factors are very important in statistical applications. In calculating the false-discovery proportion for large-scale hypothesis testing, one needs to adjust accurately the common dependence via subtracting it from the data in (1.1) [Friguet, Kloareg and Causeur (2009), Leek and Storey (2008), Efron (2010), Desai and Storey (2012), Fan, Han and Gu (2012)]. In financial applications, we would like to understand accurately how each individual stock depends on unobserved common factors in order to appreciate its relative performance and risks. In the aforementioned applications, dimensionality is much higher than sample-size. However, the existing asymptotic analysis shows that the consistent estimation of the parameters in model (1.1) requires a relatively large $T$. In particular, the individual loadings can be estimated no faster than $O_{P}\left(T^{-1 / 2}\right)$. But large sample sizes are not always available. Even with the availability of "Big Data," heterogeneity and other issues make direct applications of (1.1) with large $T$ infeasible. For instance, in financial applications, to pertain the stationarity in model (1.1) with time-invariant loading coefficients, a relatively short time series is often used. To make observed data less serially correlated, monthly returns are frequently used to reduce the serial correlations, yet a monthly data over three consecutive years contain merely 36 observations.
1.1. This paper. To overcome the aforementioned problems, and when relevant covariates are available, it may be helpful to incorporate them into the model. Let $\mathbf{X}_{i}=\left(X_{i 1}, \ldots, X_{i d}\right)^{\prime}$ be a vector of $d$-dimensional covariates associated with the $i$ th variables. In the seminal papers by Connor and Linton (2007) and Connor, Hagmann and Linton (2012), the authors studied the following semi-parametric factor model:

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i t}=\sum_{k=1}^{K} g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right) f_{t k}+u_{i t}, \quad i=1, \ldots, p, t=1, \ldots, T \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where loading coefficients in (1.1) are modeled as $\lambda_{i k}=g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ for some functions $g_{k}(\cdot)$. For instance, in health studies, $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ can be individual characteristics (e.g., age, weight, clinical and genetic information); in financial applications $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ can be a vector of firm-specific characteristics (market capitalization, price-earning ratio, etc.).

The semiparametric model (1.2), however, can be restrictive in many cases, as it requires that the loading matrix be fully explained by the covariates. A natural relaxation is the following semiparametric model:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{i k}=g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)+\gamma_{i k}, \quad i=1, \ldots, p, k=1, \ldots, K \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\gamma_{i k}$ is the component of loading coefficient that cannot be explained by the covariates $\mathbf{X}_{i}$. Let $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}=\left(\gamma_{i 1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i K}\right)^{\prime}$. We assume that $\left\{\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ have mean zero, and are independent of $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ and $\left\{u_{i t}\right\}_{i \leq p, t \leq T}$. In other words, we impose the following factor structure:

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i t}=\sum_{k=1}^{K}\left\{g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)+\gamma_{i k}\right\} f_{t k}+u_{i t}, \quad i=1, \ldots, p, t=1, \ldots, T \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

which reduces to model (1.2) when $\gamma_{i k}=0$ and model (1.1) when $g_{k}(\cdot)=0$. When $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ genuinely explains a part of loading coefficients $\lambda_{i k}$, the variability of $\gamma_{i k}$ is smaller than that of $\lambda_{i k}$. Hence, the coefficient $\gamma_{i k}$ can be more accurately estimated by using regression model (1.3), as long as the functions $g_{k}(\cdot)$ can be accurately estimated.

Let $\mathbf{Y}$ be the $p \times T$ matrix of $y_{i t}, \mathbf{F}$ be the $T \times K$ matrix of $f_{t k}, \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ be the $p \times K$ matrix of $g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right), \boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ be the $p \times K$ matrix of $\gamma_{i k}$ and $\mathbf{U}$ be $p \times T$ matrix of $u_{i t}$. Then model (1.4) can be written in a more compact matrix form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{Y}=\{\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}\} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{U} \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We treat the loadings $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ and $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ as realizations of random matrices throughout the paper. This model is also closely related to the supervised singular value decomposition model, recently studied by Li et al. (2015). The authors showed that the model is useful in studying the gene expression and single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data, and proposed an EM algorithm for parameter estimation.

We propose a Projected-PCA estimator for both the loading functions and factors. Our estimator is constructed by first projecting $\mathbf{Y}$ onto the sieve space spanned by $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$, then applying PCA to the projected data or fitted values. Due to the approximate orthogonality condition of $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$, the projection of $\mathbf{Y}$ is approximately $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$, as the smoothing projection suppresses the noise terms $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ and $\mathbf{U}$ substantially. Therefore, applying PCA to the projected data allows us to work directly on the sample covariance of $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$, which is $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})^{\prime}$ under normalization conditions. This substantially improves the estimation accuracy, and also facilitates the theoretical analysis. In contrast, the traditional PCA method for factor analysis [e.g., Stock and Watson (2002), Bai and Ng (2002)] is no longer suitable in the current context. Moreover, the idea of Projected-PCA is also potentially applicable to dynamic factor models of Forni et al. (2000), by first projecting the data onto the covariate space.

The asymptotic properties of the proposed estimators are carefully studied. We demonstrate that as long as the projection is genuine, the consistency of the proposed estimator for latent factors and loading matrices requires only $p \rightarrow \infty$, and $T$ does not need to grow, which is attractive in the typical high-dimension-low-sample-size (HDLSS) situations [e.g., Ahn et al. (2007), Jung and Marron (2009), Shen, Shen and Marron (2013)]. In addition, if both $p$ and $T$ grow simultaneously, then with sufficiently smooth $g_{k}(\cdot)$, using the sieve approximation, the rate of convergence for the estimators is much faster than those of the existing results for model (1.1). Typically, the loading functions can be estimated at a convergence rate $O_{P}\left((p T)^{-1 / 2}\right)$, and the factor can be estimated at $O_{P}\left(p^{-1}\right)$. Throughout the paper, $K=\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbf{f}_{t}\right)$ and $d=\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ are assumed to be constant and do not grow.

Let $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ be a $p \times K$ matrix of $\left(\lambda_{i k}\right)_{T \times K}$. Model (1.3) implies a decomposition of the loading matrix:

$$
\mathbf{\Lambda}=\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}, \quad E(\boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mid \mathbf{X})=0
$$

where $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ and $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ are orthogonal loading components in the sense that $E \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{\prime}=0$. We conduct two specification tests for the hypotheses:

$$
H_{0}^{1}: \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})=0 \quad \text { a.s. } \quad \text { and } \quad H_{0}^{2}: \Gamma=0 \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

The first problem is about testing whether the observed covariates have explaining power on the loadings. If the null hypothesis is rejected, it gives us the theoretical basis to employ the Projected-PCA, as the projection is now genuine. Our empirical study on the asset returns shows that firm market characteristics do have explanatory power on the factor loadings, which lends further support to our Projected-PCA method. The second tests whether covariates fully explain the loadings. Our aforementioned empirical study also shows that model (1.2) used in the financial econometrics literature is inadequate and more generalized model (1.5) is necessary. As claimed earlier, even if $H_{0}^{2}$ does not hold, as long as $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \neq 0$, the Projected-PCA can still consistently estimate the factors as $p \rightarrow \infty$, and $T$ may
or may not grow. Our simulated experiments confirm that the estimation accuracy is gained more significantly for small $T$ 's. This shows one of the benefits of using our Projected-PCA method over the traditional methods in the literature.

In addition, as a further illustration of the benefits of using projected data, we apply the Projected-PCA to consistently estimate the number of factors, which is similar to those in Ahn and Horenstein (2013) and Lam and Yao (2012). Different from these authors, our method applies to the projected data, and we demonstrate numerically that this can significantly improve the estimation accuracy.

We focus on the case when the observed covariates are time-invariant. When $T$ is small, these covariates are approximately locally constant, so this assumption is reasonable in practice. On the other hand, there may exist individual characteristics that are time-variant [e.g., see Park et al. (2009)]. We expect the conclusions in the current paper to still hold if some smoothness assumptions are added for the time varying components of the covariates. Due to the space limit, we provide heuristic discussions on this case in the supplementary material of this paper [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)]. In addition, note that in the usual factor model, $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ was assumed to be deterministic. In this paper, however, $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ is mainly treated to be stochastic, and potentially depend on a set of covariates. But we would like to emphasize that the results presented in Section 3 under the framework of more general factor models hold regardless of whether $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ is stochastic or deterministic. Finally, while some financial applications are presented in this paper, the Projected-PCA is expected to be useful in broad areas of statistical applications [e.g., see Li et al. (2015) for applications in gene expression data analysis].
1.2. Notation and organization. Throughout this paper, for a matrix $\mathbf{A}$, let $\|\mathbf{A}\|_{F}=\operatorname{tr}^{1 / 2}\left(\mathbf{A}^{\prime} \mathbf{A}\right)$ and $\|\mathbf{A}\|_{2}=\lambda_{\text {max }}^{1 / 2}\left(\mathbf{A}^{\prime} \mathbf{A}\right),\|\mathbf{A}\|_{\max }=\max _{i j}\left|A_{i j}\right|$ denote its Frobenius, spectral and max- norms. Let $\lambda_{\min }(\cdot)$ and $\lambda_{\max }(\cdot)$ denote the minimum and maximum eigenvalues of a square matrix. For a vector $\mathbf{v}$, let $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ denote its Euclidean norm.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the new Projected-PCA method and defines the corresponding estimators for the loadings and factors. Sections 3 and 4 provide asymptotic analysis of the introduced estimators. Section 5 introduces new specification tests for the orthogonal decomposition of the semiparametric loadings. Section 6 concerns about estimating the number of factors. Section 7 presents numerical results. Finally, Section 8 concludes. All the proofs are given in the Appendix and the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)].

## 2. Projected principal component analysis.

2.1. Overview. In the high-dimensional factor model, let $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ be the $p \times K$ matrix of loadings. Then the general model (1.1) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{U} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose we additionally observe a set of covariates $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$. The basic idea of the Projected-PCA is to smooth the observations $\left\{Y_{i t}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ for each given day $t$ against its associated covariates. More specifically, let $\left\{\hat{Y}_{i t}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ be the fitted value after regressing $\left\{Y_{i t}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ on $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ for each given $t$. This results in a smooth or projected observation matrix $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}$, which will also be denoted by PY. The ProjectedPCA then estimates the factors and loadings by running the PCA based on the projected data $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}$.

Here, we heuristically describe the idea of Projected-PCA; rigorous analysis will be carried out afterward. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a space spanned by $\mathbf{X}=\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$, which is orthogonal to the error matrix $\mathbf{U}$. Let $\mathbf{P}$ denote the projection matrix onto $\mathcal{X}$ [whose formal definition will be given in (2.6) below. At the population level, $\mathbf{P}$ approximates the conditional expectation operator $E(\cdot \mid \mathbf{X})$, which satisfies $E(\mathbf{U} \mid \mathbf{X})=0$ ], then $\mathbf{P}^{2}=\mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{P U} \approx 0$. Hence, analyzing the projected data $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}=\mathbf{P Y}$ is an approximately noiseless problem, and the sample covariance has the following approximation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{T} \widehat{\mathbf{Y}}^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{Y}}=\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y} \approx \frac{1}{T} \mathbf{F} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now argue that $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ can be recovered from the projected data $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}$ under some suitable normalization condition. The normalization conditions we impose are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{F}=\mathbf{I}_{K}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \text { is a diagonal matrix with distinct entries. } \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Under this normalization, using (2.2), $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y F} \approx \mathbf{F} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{\Lambda}$. We conclude that the columns of $\mathbf{F}$ are approximately $\sqrt{T}$ times the first $K$ eigenvectors of the $T \times T$ matrix $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$. Therefore, the Projected-PCA naturally defines a factor estimator $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$ using the first $K$ principal components of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$.

The projected loading matrix $\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ can also be recovered from the projected data $\mathbf{P Y}$ in two (equivalent) ways. Given $\mathbf{F}$, from $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y F}=\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}+\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P U F}$, we see $\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \approx$ $\frac{1}{T}$ PYF. Alternatively, consider the $p \times p$ projected sample covariance:

$$
\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}=\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}+\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Delta}}
$$

where $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Delta}}$ is a remaining term depending on $\mathbf{P U}$. Right multiplying $\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ and ignoring $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\Delta}}$, we obtain $\left(\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}\right) \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \approx \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\left(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\right)$. Hence, the (normalized) columns of $\mathbf{P} \Lambda$ approximate the first $K$ eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$, the $p \times p$ sample covariance matrix based on the projected data. Therefore, we can either estimate $\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ by $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}$ given $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$, or by the leading eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$. In fact, we shall see later that these two estimators are equivalent. If in addition, $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}=\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$, that is, the loading matrix belongs to the space $\mathcal{X}$, then $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ can also be recovered from the projected data.

The above arguments are the fundament of the Projected-PCA, and provide the rationale of our estimators to be defined in Section 2.3. We shall make the above arguments rigorous by showing that the projected error $\mathbf{P U}$ is asymptotically negligible and, therefore, the idiosyncratic error term $\mathbf{U}$ can be completely removed by the projection step.
2.2. Semiparametric factor model. As one of the useful examples of forming the space $\mathcal{X}$ and the projection operator, this paper considers model (1.4), where $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ 's and $y_{i t}$ 's are the only observable data, and $\left\{g_{k}(\cdot)\right\}_{k \leq K}$ are unknown nonparametric functions. The specific case (1.2) (with $\gamma_{i k}=0$ ) was used extensively in the financial studies by Connor and Linton (2007), Connor, Hagmann and Linton (2012) and Park et al. (2009), with $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ 's being the observed "market characteristic variables." We assume $K$ to be known for now. In Section 6, we will propose a projected-eigenvalue-ratio method to consistently estimate $K$ when it is unknown.

We assume that $g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ does not depend on $t$, which means the loadings represent the cross-sectional heterogeneity only. Such a model specification is reasonable since in many applications using factor models, to pertain the stationarity of the time series, the analysis can be conducted within each fixed time window with either a fixed or slowly-growing $T$. Through localization in time, it is not stringent to require the loadings be time-invariant. This also shows one of the attractive features of our asymptotic results: under mild conditions, our factor estimates are consistent even if $T$ is finite.

To nonparametrically estimate $g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ without the curse of dimensionality when $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ is multivariate, we assume $g_{k}(\cdot)$ to be additive: for each $k \leq K, i \leq p$, there are ( $g_{k 1}, \ldots, g_{k d}$ ) nonparametric functions such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)=\sum_{l=1}^{d} g_{k l}\left(X_{i l}\right), \quad d=\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Each additive component of $g_{k}$ is estimated by the sieve method. Define $\left\{\phi_{1}(x)\right.$, $\left.\phi_{2}(x), \ldots\right\}$ to be a set of basis functions (e.g., B-spline, Fourier series, wavelets, polynomial series), which spans a dense linear space of the functional space for $\left\{g_{k l}\right\}$. Then for each $l \leq d$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{k l}\left(X_{i l}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{J} b_{j, k l} \phi_{j}\left(X_{i l}\right)+R_{k l}\left(X_{i l}\right), \quad k \leq K, i \leq p, l \leq d \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $\left\{b_{j, k l}\right\}_{j \leq J}$ are the sieve coefficients of the $l$ th additive component of $g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$, corresponding to the $k$ th factor loading; $R_{k l}$ is a "remaining function" representing the approximation error; $J$ denotes the number of sieve terms which grows slowly as $p \rightarrow \infty$. The basic assumption for sieve approximation is that $\sup _{x}\left|R_{k l}(x)\right| \rightarrow$ 0 as $J \rightarrow \infty$. We take the same basis functions in (2.5) purely for simplicity of notation.

Define, for each $k \leq K$ and for each $i \leq p$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{b}_{k}^{\prime} & =\left(b_{1, k 1}, \ldots, b_{J, k 1}, \ldots, b_{1, k d}, \ldots, b_{J, k d}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{J d} \\
\phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)^{\prime} & =\left(\phi_{1}\left(X_{i 1}\right), \ldots, \phi_{J}\left(X_{i 1}\right), \ldots, \phi_{1}\left(X_{i d}\right), \ldots, \phi_{J}\left(X_{i d}\right)\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{J d}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then we can write

$$
g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)=\phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)^{\prime} \mathbf{b}_{k}+\sum_{l=1}^{d} R_{k l}\left(X_{i l}\right)
$$

Let $\mathbf{B}=\left(\mathbf{b}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_{K}\right)$ be a $(J d) \times K$ matrix of sieve coefficients, $\Phi(\mathbf{X})=$ $\left(\phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{1}\right), \ldots, \phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{p}\right)\right)^{\prime}$ be a $p \times(J d)$ matrix of basis functions, and $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X})$ be $p \times K$ matrix with the $(i, k)$ th element $\sum_{l=1}^{d} R_{k l}\left(X_{i l}\right)$. Then the matrix form of (2.4) and (2.5) is

$$
\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})=\Phi(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}) .
$$

Substituting this into (1.5), we write

$$
\mathbf{Y}=\{\Phi(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{B}+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}\} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{U} .
$$

We see that the residual term consists of two parts: the sieve approximation error $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$ and the idiosyncratic $\mathbf{U}$. Furthermore, the random effect assumption on the coefficients $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ makes it also behave like noise, and hence negligible when the projection operator $\mathbf{P}$ is applied.
2.3. The estimator. Based on the idea described in Section 2.1, we propose a Projected-PCA method, where $\mathcal{X}$ is the sieve space spanned by the basis functions of $\mathbf{X}$, and $\mathbf{P}$ is chosen as the projection matrix onto $\mathcal{X}$, defined by the $p \times p$ projection matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}=\Phi(\mathbf{X})\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The estimators of the model parameters in (1.5) are defined as follows. The columns of $\widehat{\mathbf{F}} / \sqrt{T}$ are defined as the eigenvectors corresponding to the first $K$ largest eigenvalues of the $T \times T$ matrix $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})=\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the estimator of $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$.
The intuition can be readily seen from the discussions in Section 2.1, which also provides an alternative formulation of $\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})$ as follows: let $\widehat{\mathbf{D}}$ be a $K \times K$ diagonal matrix consisting of the largest $K$ eigenvalues of the $p \times p$ matrix $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$. Let $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Xi}}=\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{1}, \ldots, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{K}\right)$ be a $p \times K$ matrix whose columns are the corresponding eigenvectors. According to the relation $\left(\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}\right) \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \approx \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\left(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\right)$ described in Section 2.1, we can also estimate $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ or $\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ by

$$
\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})=\widehat{\mathbf{\Xi}} \widehat{\mathbf{D}}^{1 / 2}
$$

We shall show in Lemma A. 1 that this is equivalent to (2.7). Therefore, unlike the traditional PCA method for usual factor models [e.g., Bai (2003), Stock and Watson (2002)], the Projected-PCA takes the principal components of the projected data PY. The estimator is thus invariant to the rotation-transformations of the sieve bases.

The estimation of the loading component $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ that cannot be explained by the covariates can be estimated as follows. With the estimated factors $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$, the least-squares estimator of loading matrix is $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}=\mathbf{Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} / T$, by using (2.1) and (2.3). Therefore, by (1.5), a natural estimator of $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}=\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}-\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})=\frac{1}{T}(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{P}) \mathbf{Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} . \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

2.4. Connection with panel data models with time-varying coefficients. Consider a panel data model with time-varying coefficients as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i t}=\mathbf{X}_{i}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t}+\mu_{t}+u_{i t}, \quad i \leq p, t \leq T \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ is a $d$-dimensional vector of time-invariant regressors for individual $i$; $\mu_{t}$ denotes the unobservable random time effect; $u_{i t}$ is the regression error term. The regression coefficient $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{t}$ is also assumed to be random and time-varying, but is common across the cross-sectional individuals.

The semiparametric factor model admits (2.9) as a special case. Note that (2.9) can be rewritten as $y_{i t}=g\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)^{\prime} \mathbf{f}_{t}+u_{i t}$ with $K=d+1$ unobservable "factors" $\mathbf{f}_{t}=\left(\mu_{t}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$ and "loading" $g\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)=\left(1, \mathbf{X}_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$. The model (1.4) being considered, on the other hand, allows more general nonparametric loading functions.
3. Projected-PCA in conventional factor models. Let us first consider the asymptotic performance of the Projected-PCA in the conventional factor model:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{U} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the usual statistical applications for factor analysis, the latent factors are assumed to be serially independent, while in financial applications, the factors are often treated to be weakly dependent time series satisfying strong mixing conditions.

We now demonstrate by a simple example that latent factors $\mathbf{F}$ can be estimated at a faster rate of convergence by Projected-PCA than the conventional PCA and that they can be consistently estimated even when sample size $T$ is finite.

Example 3.1. To appreciate the intuition, let us consider a specific case in which $K=1$ so that model (1.4) reduces to

$$
y_{i t}=g\left(X_{i}\right) f_{t}+\gamma_{i} f_{t}+u_{i t}
$$

Assume that $g(\cdot)$ is so smooth that it is in fact a constant $\beta$ (otherwise, we can use a local constant approximation), where $\beta>0$. Then the model reduces to

$$
y_{i t}=\beta f_{t}+\gamma_{i} f_{t}+u_{i t} .
$$

The projection in this case is averaging over $i$, which yields

$$
\bar{y}_{\cdot t}=\beta f_{t}+\bar{\gamma} \cdot f_{t}+\bar{u}_{\cdot t},
$$

where $\bar{y}_{. t}, \bar{\gamma}$ and $\bar{u}_{. t}$ denote the averages of their corresponding quantities over $i$. For the identification purpose, suppose $E \gamma_{i}=E u_{i t}=0$, and $\sum_{t=1}^{T} f_{t}^{2}=T$. Ignoring the last two terms, we obtain estimators

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\beta}=\left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \bar{y}_{\cdot t}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2} \quad \text { and } \quad \widehat{f_{t}}=\bar{y}_{\cdot t} / \widehat{\beta} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

These estimators are special cases of the Projected-PCA estimators. To see this, define $\overline{\mathbf{y}}=\left(\bar{y}_{.1}, \ldots, \bar{y}_{. T}\right)^{\prime}$, and let $\mathbf{1}_{p}$ be a $p$-dimensional column vector of ones. Take a naive basis $\Phi(\mathbf{X})=\mathbf{1}_{p}$; then the projected data matrix is in fact $\mathbf{P Y}=\mathbf{1}_{p} \overline{\mathbf{y}}^{\prime}$. Consider the $T \times T$ matrix $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}=\left(\mathbf{1}_{p} \overline{\mathbf{y}}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \mathbf{1}_{p} \overline{\mathbf{y}}^{\prime}=p \overline{\mathbf{y}} \overline{\mathbf{y}}^{\prime}$, whose largest eigenvalue is $p\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\|^{2}$. From

$$
\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y} \frac{\overline{\mathbf{y}}}{\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\|}=p\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\|^{2} \frac{\overline{\mathbf{y}}}{\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\|}
$$

we have the first eigenvector of $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$ equals $\overline{\mathbf{y}} /\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\|$. Hence, the Projected-PCA estimator of factors is $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\sqrt{T} \overline{\mathbf{y}} /\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\|$. In addition, the Projected-PCA estimator of the loading vector $\beta \mathbf{1}_{p}$ is

$$
\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{1}_{p} \overline{\mathbf{y}} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \mathbf{1}_{p}\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\| .
$$

Hence, the Projected-PCA-estimator of $\beta$ equals $\|\overline{\mathbf{y}}\| / \sqrt{T}$. These estimators match with (3.2). Moreover, since the ignored two terms $\bar{\gamma}$. and $\bar{u}_{. t}$ are of order $O_{p}\left(p^{-1 / 2}\right), \widehat{\beta}$ and $\widehat{f_{t}}$ converge whether or not $T$ is large. Note that this simple example satisfies all the assumptions to be stated below, and $\widehat{\beta}$ and $\widehat{f_{t}}$ achieve the same rate of convergence as that of Theorem 4.1. We shall present more details about this example in Appendix G in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)].
3.1. Asymptotic properties of Projected-PCA. We now state the conditions and results formally in the more general factor model (3.1). Recall that the projection matrix is defined as

$$
\mathbf{P}=\Phi(\mathbf{X})\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime}
$$

The following assumption is the key condition of the Projected-PCA.

ASSUMPTION 3.1 (Genuine projection). There are positive constants $c_{\text {min }}$ and $c_{\text {max }}$ such that, with probability approaching one (as $p \rightarrow \infty$ ),

$$
c_{\min }<\lambda_{\min }\left(p^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\right)<\lambda_{\max }\left(p^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\right)<c_{\max }
$$

Since the dimensions of $\Phi(\mathbf{X})$ and $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ are, respectively, $p \times J d$ and $p \times K$, Assumption 3.1 requires $J d \geq K$, which is reasonable since we assume $K$, the number of factors, to be fixed throughout the paper.

Assumption 3.1 is similar to the pervasive condition on the factor loadings [Stock and Watson (2002)]. In our context, this condition requires the covariates $\mathbf{X}$ have nonvanishing explaining power on the loading matrix, so that the projection matrix $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ has spiked eigenvalues. Note that it rules out the case when $\mathbf{X}$ is completely unassociated with the loading matrix $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ (e.g., when $\mathbf{X}$ is pure noise). One of the typical examples that satisfies this assumption is the semiparametric factor model [model (1.4)]. We shall study this specific type of factor model in Section 4, and prove Assumption 3.1 in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)].

Note that $\mathbf{F}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ are not separately identified, because for any nonsingular $\mathbf{H}$, $\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}=\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$. Therefore, we assume the following.

Assumption 3.2 (Identification). Almost surely, $T^{-1} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{F}=\mathbf{I}_{K}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ is a $K \times K$ diagonal matrix with distinct entries.

This condition corresponds to the PC1 condition of Bai and Ng (2013), which separately identifies the factors and loadings from their product $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$. It is often used in factor analysis for identification, and means that the columns of factors and loadings can be orthogonalized [also see Bai and Li (2012)].

ASSUMPTION 3.3 (Basis functions). (i) There are $d_{\min }$ and $d_{\max }>0$ so that with probability approaching one (as $p \rightarrow \infty$ ),

$$
d_{\min }<\lambda_{\min }\left(p^{-1} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)<\lambda_{\max }\left(p^{-1} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)<d_{\max }
$$

(ii) $\max _{j \leq J, i \leq p, l \leq d} E \phi_{j}\left(X_{i l}\right)^{2}<\infty$.

Note that $p^{-1} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})=p^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)^{\prime} \phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ and $\phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ is a vector of dimensionality $J d \ll p$. Thus, condition (i) can follow from the strong law of large numbers. For instance, $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ are weakly correlated and in the population level $E \phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)^{\prime} \phi\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ is well-conditioned. In addition, this condition can be satisfied through proper normalizations of commonly used basis functions such as B-splines, wavelets, Fourier basis, etc. In the general setup of this paper, we allow $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ 's to be cross-sectionally dependent and nonstationary. Regularity conditions about weak dependence and stationarity are imposed only on $\left\{\left(\mathbf{f}_{t}, \mathbf{u}_{t}\right)\right\}$ as follows.

We impose the strong mixing condition. Let $\mathcal{F}_{-\infty}^{0}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{T}^{\infty}$ denote the $\sigma$ algebras generated by $\left\{\left(\mathbf{f}_{t}, \mathbf{u}_{t}\right): t \leq 0\right\}$ and $\left\{\left(\mathbf{f}_{t}, \mathbf{u}_{t}\right): t \geq T\right\}$, respectively. Define the mixing coefficient

$$
\alpha(T)=\sup _{A \in \mathcal{F}_{-\infty}^{0}, B \in \mathcal{F}_{T}^{\infty}}|P(A) P(B)-P(A B)|
$$

ASSUMPTION 3.4 (Data generating process). (i) $\left\{\mathbf{u}_{t}, \mathbf{f}_{t}\right\}_{t \leq T}$ is strictly stationary. In addition, $E u_{i t}=0$ for all $i \leq p, j \leq K ;\left\{\mathbf{u}_{t}\right\}_{t \leq T}$ is independent of $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}, \mathbf{f}_{t}\right\}_{i \leq p, t \leq T}$.
(ii) Strong mixing: there exist $r_{1}, C_{1}>0$ such that for all $T>0$,

$$
\alpha(T)<\exp \left(-C_{1} T^{r_{1}}\right)
$$

(iii) Weak dependence: there is $C_{2}>0$ so that

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\max _{j \leq p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left|E u_{i t} u_{j t}\right|<C_{2}, \\
\frac{1}{p T} \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{T}\left|E u_{i t} u_{j s}\right|<C_{2}, \\
\max _{i \leq p} \frac{1}{p T} \sum_{k=1}^{p} \sum_{m=1}^{p} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{T}\left|\operatorname{cov}\left(u_{i t} u_{k t}, u_{i s} u_{m s}\right)\right|<C_{2} .
\end{array}
$$

(iv) Exponential tail: there exist $r_{2}, r_{3}>0$ satisfying $r_{1}^{-1}+r_{2}^{-1}+r_{3}^{-1}>1$ and $b_{1}, b_{2}>0$, such that for any $s>0, i \leq p$ and $j \leq K$,

$$
P\left(\left|u_{i t}\right|>s\right) \leq \exp \left(-\left(s / b_{1}\right)^{r_{2}}\right), \quad P\left(\left|f_{j t}\right|>s\right) \leq \exp \left(-\left(s / b_{2}\right)^{r_{3}}\right)
$$

Assumption 3.4 is standard, especially condition (iii) is commonly imposed for high-dimensional factor analysis [e.g., Bai (2003), Stock and Watson (2002)], which requires $\left\{u_{i t}\right\}_{i \leq p, t \leq T}$ be weakly dependent both serially and crosssectionally. It is often satisfied when the covariance matrix $E \mathbf{u}_{t} \mathbf{u}_{t}^{\prime}$ is sufficiently sparse under the strong mixing condition. We provide primitive conditions of condition (iii) in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)].

Formally, we have the following theorem:
THEOREM 3.1. Consider the conventional factor model (3.1) with Assumptions 3.1-3.4. The Projected-PCA estimators $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})$ defined in Section 2.3 satisfy, as $p \rightarrow \infty$ [J,T may either grow simultaneously with $p$ satisfying $J=$ $o(\sqrt{p})$ or stay constant with $J d \geq K]$,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}\|_{F}^{2} & =O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{p}\right)  \tag{3.3}\\
\frac{1}{p}\|\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})-\mathbf{P} \Lambda\|_{F}^{2} & =O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{p T}+\frac{J^{2}}{p^{2}}\right) \tag{3.4}
\end{align*}
$$

To compare with the traditional PCA method, the convergence rate for the estimated factors is improved for small $T$. In particular, the Projected-PCA does not require $T \rightarrow \infty$, and also has a good rate of convergence for the loading matrix up to a projection transformation. Hence, we have achieved a finite- $T$ consistency, which is particularly interesting in the "high-dimensional-low-sample-size" (HDLSS) context, considered by Jung and Marron (2009). In contrast, the traditional PCA method achieves a rate of convergence of $O_{P}\left(1 / p+1 / T^{2}\right)$ for estimating factors, and $O_{P}(1 / T+1 / p)$ for estimating loadings. See Remarks 4.1, 4.2 below for additional details.

Let $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}=\operatorname{cov}\left(\mathbf{y}_{t}\right)$ be the $p \times p$ covariance matrix of $\mathbf{y}_{t}=\left(y_{1 t}, \ldots, y_{p t}\right)^{\prime}$. Convergence (3.4) in Theorem 3.1 also describes the relationship between the leading eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$ and those of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. To see this, let $\boldsymbol{\Xi}=\left(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\xi}_{K}\right)$ be the eigenvectors of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ corresponding to the first $K$ eigenvalues. Under the pervasiveness condition, $\boldsymbol{\Xi}$ can be approximated by $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ multiplied by a positive definite matrix of transformation [Fan, Liao and Mincheva (2013)]. In the context of Projected-PCA, by definition, $\widehat{\mathbf{\Xi}}=\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X}) \widehat{\mathbf{D}}^{-1 / 2}$; here we recall that $\widehat{\mathbf{D}}$ is a diagonal matrix consisting of the largest $K$ eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} Y^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$, and $\widehat{\Xi}$ is a $p \times K$ matrix whose columns are the corresponding eigenvectors. Then (3.4) immediately implies the following corollary, which complements the PCA consistency in spiked covariance models [e.g., Johnstone (2001) and Paul (2007)].

COROLLARY 3.1. Under the conditions of Theorem 3.1, there is a $K \times K$ positive definite matrix $\mathbf{V}$, whose eigenvalues are bounded away from both zero and infinity, so that as $p \rightarrow \infty$ [J,T may either grow simultaneously with $p$ satisfying $J=o(\sqrt{p})$ or stay constant with $J d \geq K]$,

$$
\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Xi}}-\boldsymbol{\Xi} \mathbf{V}\|_{F}=O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}\left\|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}\right\|_{2}+\sqrt{\frac{J}{p T}}+\frac{J}{p}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\|\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}-\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{F}\right)
$$

## 4. Projected-PCA in semiparametric factor models.

4.1. Sieve approximations. In the semiparametric factor model, it is assumed that $\lambda_{i k}=g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)+\gamma_{i k}$, where $g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ is a nonparametric smooth function for the observed covariates, and $\gamma_{i k}$ is the unobserved random loading component that is independent of $\mathbf{X}_{i}$. Hence, the model is written as

$$
y_{i t}=\sum_{k=1}^{K}\left\{g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)+\gamma_{i k}\right\} f_{t k}+u_{i t}, \quad i=1, \ldots, p, t=1, \ldots, T .
$$

In the matrix form,

$$
\mathbf{Y}=\{\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}\} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{U}
$$

and $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ does not vanish (pervasive condition; see Assumption 4.2 below).

The estimators $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})$ are the Projected-PCA estimators as defined in Section 2.3. We now define the estimator of the nonparametric function $g_{k}(\cdot)$, $k=1, \ldots, K$. In the matrix form, the projected data has the following sieve approximated representation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P Y}=\Phi(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{B F ^ { \prime }}+\widetilde{\mathbf{E}}, \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\widetilde{\mathbf{E}}=\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{P R}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{P U}$ is "small" because $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ and $\mathbf{U}$ are orthogonal to the function space spanned by $\mathbf{X}$, and $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X})$ is the sieve approximation error. The sieve coefficient matrix $\mathbf{B}=\left(\mathbf{b}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_{K}\right)$ can be estimated by least squares from the projected model (4.1): Ignore $\widetilde{\mathbf{E}}$, replace $\mathbf{F}$ with $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$, and solve (4.1) to obtain

$$
\widehat{\mathbf{B}}=\left(\widehat{\mathbf{b}}_{1}, \ldots, \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_{K}\right)=\frac{1}{T}\left[\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right]^{-1} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \mathbf{Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} .
$$

We then estimate $g_{k}(\cdot)$ by

$$
\widehat{g}_{k}(\mathbf{x})=\phi(\mathbf{x})^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_{k} \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, k=1, \ldots, K
$$

where $\mathcal{X}$ denotes the support of $\mathbf{X}_{i}$.
4.2. Asymptotic analysis. When $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}=\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}, \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ can be understood as the projection of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ onto the sieve space spanned by $\mathbf{X}$. Hence, the following assumption is a specific version of Assumptions 3.1 and 3.2 in the current context.

Assumption 4.1. (i) Almost surely, $T^{-1} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{F}=\mathbf{I}_{K}$ and $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ is a $K \times$ $K$ diagonal matrix with distinct entries.
(ii) There are two positive constants $c_{\min }$ and $c_{\max }$ so that with probability approaching one (as $p \rightarrow \infty$ ),

$$
c_{\min }<\lambda_{\min }\left(p^{-1} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})\right)<\lambda_{\max }\left(p^{-1} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})\right)<c_{\max } .
$$

In this section, we do not need to assume $\left\{\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ to be i.i.d. for the estimation purpose. Cross-sectional weak dependence as in Assumption 4.2(ii) below would be sufficient. The i.i.d. assumption will be only needed when we consider specification tests in Section 5. Write $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}=\left(\gamma_{i 1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i K}\right)^{\prime}$, and

$$
v_{p}=\max _{k \leq K} \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i \leq p} \operatorname{var}\left(\gamma_{i k}\right)
$$

ASSUMPTION 4.2. (i) $E \gamma_{i k}=0$ and $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ is independent of $\left\{\gamma_{i k}\right\}_{i \leq p}$.
(ii) $\max _{k \leq K, i \leq p} E g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)^{2}<\infty, v_{p}<\infty$ and

$$
\max _{k \leq K, j \leq p} \sum_{i \leq p}\left|E \gamma_{i k} \gamma_{j k}\right|=O\left(v_{p}\right) .
$$

The following set of conditions is concerned about the accuracy of the sieve approximation.

ASSUMPTION 4.3 (Accuracy of sieve approximation). $\quad \forall l \leq d, k \leq K$,
(i) the loading component $g_{k l}(\cdot)$ belongs to a Hölder class $\mathcal{G}$ defined by

$$
\mathcal{G}=\left\{g:\left|g^{(r)}(s)-g^{(r)}(t)\right| \leq L|s-t|^{\alpha}\right\}
$$

for some $L>0$;
(ii) the sieve coefficients $\left\{b_{k, j l}\right\}_{j \leq J}$ satisfy for $\kappa=2(r+\alpha) \geq 4$, as $J \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
\sup _{x \in \mathcal{X}_{l}}\left|g_{k l}(x)-\sum_{j=1}^{J} b_{k, j l} \phi_{j}(x)\right|^{2}=O\left(J^{-\kappa}\right)
$$

where $\mathcal{X}_{l}$ is the support of the $l$ th element of $\mathbf{X}_{i}$, and $J$ is the sieve dimension.
(iii) $\max _{k, j, l} b_{k, j l}^{2}<\infty$.

Condition (ii) is satisfied by common basis. For example, when $\left\{\phi_{j}\right\}$ is polynomial basis or B-splines, condition (ii) is implied by condition (i) [see, e.g., Lorentz (1986) and Chen (2007)].

THEOREM 4.1. Suppose $J=o(\sqrt{p})$. Under Assumptions 3.3, 3.4, 4.1-4.3, as $p, J \rightarrow \infty, T$ can be either divergent or bounded, we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}\|_{F}^{2} & =O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{J^{\kappa}}\right) \\
\frac{1}{p}\|\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})-\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})\|_{F}^{2} & =O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{p^{2}}+\frac{J}{p T}+\frac{J}{J^{\kappa}}+\frac{J v_{p}}{p}\right), \\
\max _{k \leq K} \sup _{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}}\left|\widehat{g}_{k}(\mathbf{x})-g_{k}(\mathbf{x})\right| & =O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{p}+\frac{J}{\sqrt{p T}}+\frac{J}{J^{\kappa / 2}}+J \sqrt{\frac{v_{p}}{p}}\right) \max _{j \leq J} \sup _{x}\left|\phi_{j}(x)\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

In addition, if $T \rightarrow \infty$ simultaneously with $p$ and $J$, then

$$
\frac{1}{p}\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}-\boldsymbol{\Gamma}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{p^{2}}+\frac{1}{T}+\frac{1}{J^{\kappa}}+\frac{J v_{p}}{p}\right) .
$$

The optimal $J^{*}=\left(p \min \left\{T, p, v_{p}^{-1}\right\}\right)^{1 / \kappa}$ simultaneously minimizes the convergence rates of the factors and nonparametric loading function $g_{k}(\cdot)$. It also satisfies the constraint $J^{*}=o(\sqrt{p})$ as $\kappa \geq 4$. With $J=J^{*}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T}\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{f}}_{t}-\mathbf{f}_{t}\right\|^{2} & =O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) \\
\frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left|\widehat{g}_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)-g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)\right|^{2} & =O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{\left(p \min \left\{T, p, v_{p}^{-1}\right\}\right)^{1-1 / \kappa}}\right) \quad \forall k, \\
\max _{k \leq K} \sup _{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}}\left|\widehat{g}_{k}(\mathbf{x})-g_{k}(\mathbf{x})\right| & =O_{P}\left(\frac{\max _{j \leq J} \sup _{x}\left|\phi_{j}(x)\right|}{\left(p \min \left\{T, p, v_{p}^{-1}\right\}\right)^{1 / 2-1 / \kappa}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}=\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}_{1}, \ldots, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}_{p}\right)^{\prime}$ satisfies

$$
\frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}\right\|^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{\left(p \min \left\{T, p, v_{p}^{-1}\right\}\right)^{1-1 / \kappa}}+\frac{1}{T}\right)
$$

Some remarks about these rates of convergence compared with those of the conventional factor analysis are in order.

REMARK 4.1. The rates of convergence for factors and nonparametric functions do not require $T \rightarrow \infty$. When $T=O(1)$,

$$
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T}\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{f}}_{t}-\mathbf{f}_{t}\right\|^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}\right), \quad \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left|\widehat{g}_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)-g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)\right|^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p^{1-1 / \kappa}}\right)
$$

The rates still converge fast when $p$ is large, demonstrating the blessing of dimensionality. This is an attractive feature of the Projected-PCA in the HDLSS context, as in many applications, the stationarity of a time series and the time-invariance assumption on the loadings hold only for a short period of time. In contrast, in the usual factor analysis, consistency is granted only when $T \rightarrow \infty$. For example, according to Fan, Liao and Shi (2015) (Lemma C.1), the regular PCA method has the following convergence rate:

$$
\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T}\left\|\tilde{\mathbf{f}}_{t}-\mathbf{f}_{t}\right\|^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{T^{2}}\right)
$$

which is inconsistent when $T$ is bounded.

Remark 4.2. When both $p$ and $T$ are large, the Projected-PCA estimates factors as well as the regular PCA does, and achieves a faster rate of convergence for the estimated loadings when $\gamma_{i k}$ vanishes. In this case, $\lambda_{i k}=g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$, the loading matrix is estimated by $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}=\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})$, and

$$
\frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left|\widehat{\lambda}_{i k}-\lambda_{i k}\right|^{2}=\frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left|\widehat{g}_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)-g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)\right|^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{(p T)^{1-1 / \kappa}}+\frac{1}{p^{2-2 / \kappa}}\right) .
$$

In contrast, the regular PCA method as in Stock and Watson (2002) yields

$$
\frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left|\tilde{\lambda}_{i k}-\lambda_{i k}\right|^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{T}+\frac{1}{p}\right) .
$$

Comparing these rates, we see that when $g_{k}(\cdot)$ 's are sufficiently smooth (larger $\kappa$ ), the rate of convergence for the estimated loadings is also improved.
5. Semiparametric specification test. The loading matrix always has the following orthogonal decomposition:

$$
\boldsymbol{\Lambda}=\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ is interpreted as the loading component that cannot be explained by $\mathbf{X}$. We consider two types of specification tests: testing $H_{0}^{1}: \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})=0$, and $H_{0}^{2}: \Gamma=0$. The former tests whether the observed covariates have explaining powers on the loadings, while the latter tests whether the covariates fully explain the loadings. The former provides a diagnostic tool as to whether or not to employ the ProjectedPCA; the latter tests the adequacy of the semiparametric factor models in the literature.
5.1. Testing $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})=0$. Testing whether the observed covariates have explaining powers on the factor loadings can be formulated as the following null hypothesis:

$$
H_{0}^{1}: \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})=0 \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

Due to the approximate orthogonality of $\mathbf{X}$ and $\Gamma$, we have $\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \approx \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$. Hence, the null hypothesis is approximately equivalent to

$$
H_{0}: \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}=0 \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

This motivates a statistic $\|\mathbf{P} \widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}\|_{F}^{2}=\operatorname{tr}\left(\tilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \tilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}\right)$ for a consistent loading estimator $\tilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}$. Normalizing the test statistic by its asymptotic variance leads to the test statistic

$$
S_{G}=\frac{1}{p} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{W}_{1} \tilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}\right), \quad \mathbf{W}_{1}=\left(\frac{1}{p} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^{\prime} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}\right)^{-1}
$$

where the $K \times K$ matrix $\mathbf{W}_{1}$ is the weight matrix. The null hypothesis is rejected when $S_{G}$ is large.

The Projected-PCA estimator is inappropriate under the null hypothesis as the projection is not genuine. We therefore use the least squares estimator $\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}=\mathbf{Y} \widetilde{\mathbf{F}} / T$, leading to the test statistic

$$
S_{G}=\frac{1}{T^{2} p} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{W}_{1} \widetilde{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y} \widetilde{\mathbf{F}}\right)
$$

Here, we take $\widetilde{\mathbf{F}}$ as the traditional PCA estimator: the columns of $\widetilde{\mathbf{F}} / \sqrt{T}$ are the first $K$ eigenvectors of the $T \times T$ data matrix $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}$.
5.2. Testing $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}=0$. Connor, Hagmann and Linton (2012) applied the semiparametric factor model to analyzing financial returns, who assumed that $\Gamma=0$, that is, the loading matrix can be fully explained by the observed covariates. It is therefore natural to test the following null hypothesis of specification:

$$
H_{0}^{2}: \boldsymbol{\Gamma}=0 \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

Recall that $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \approx \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ so that $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \approx \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$. Therefore, essentially the specification testing problem is equivalent to testing

$$
H_{0}: \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}=\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

That is, we are testing whether the loading matrix in the factor model belongs to the space spanned by the observed covariates.

A natural test statistic is thus based on the weighted quadratic form

$$
\operatorname{tr}\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}^{\prime} \mathbf{W}_{2} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^{\prime}(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{P})^{\prime} \mathbf{W}_{2}(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{P}) \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}\right),
$$

for some $p \times p$ positive definite weight matrix $\mathbf{W}_{2}$, where $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$ is the ProjectedPCA estimator for factors and $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}=\mathbf{Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} / T$. To control the size of the test, we take $\mathbf{W}_{2}=\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}^{-1}$, where $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}$ is a diagonal covariance matrix of $\mathbf{u}_{t}$ under $H_{0}$, assuming that $\left(u_{1 t}, \ldots, u_{p t}\right)$ are uncorrelated.

We replace $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}^{-1}$ with its consistent estimator: let $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}=\mathbf{Y}-\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime}$. Define

Then the operational test statistic is defined to be

$$
S_{\Gamma}=\operatorname{tr}\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^{\prime}(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{P})^{\prime} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{u}^{-1}(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{P}) \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}\right)
$$

The null hypothesis is rejected for large values of $S_{\Gamma}$.
5.3. Asymptotic null distributions. For the testing purpose, we assume $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}\right.$, $\left.\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}\right\}$ to be i.i.d., and let $T, p, J \rightarrow \infty$ simultaneously. The following assumption regulates the relation between $T$ and $p$.

ASSUMPTION 5.1. Suppose (i) $\left\{\mathbf{X}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}\right\}_{i \leq p}$ are independent and identically distributed;
(ii) $T^{2 / 3}=o(p)$, and $p(\log p)^{4}=o\left(T^{2}\right)$;
(iii) $J$ and $\kappa$ satisfy: $J=o(\min \{\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{T}\})$, and $\max \{T \sqrt{p}, p\}=o\left(J^{\kappa}\right)$.

Condition (ii) requires a balance of the dimensionality and the sample size. On one hand, a relatively large sample size is desired $\left[p(\log p)^{4}=o\left(T^{2}\right)\right]$ so that the effect of estimating $\Sigma_{u}^{-1}$ is negligible asymptotically. On the other hand, as is common in high-dimensional factor analysis, a lower bound of the dimensionality is also required [condition $T^{2 / 3}=o(p)$ ] to ensure that the factors are estimated accurately enough. Such a required balance is common for high-dimensional factor analysis [e.g., Bai (2003), Stock and Watson (2002)] and in the recent literature for PCA [e.g., Jung and Marron (2009), Shen et al. (2013)]. The i.i.d. assumption of covariates $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ in condition (i) can be relaxed with further distributional assumptions on $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}$ (e.g., assuming $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i}$ to be Gaussian). The conditions on $J$ in condition (iii) is consistent with those of the previous sections.

We focus on the case when $\mathbf{u}_{t}$ is Gaussian, and show that under $H_{0}^{1}$,

$$
S_{G}=\left(1+o_{P}(1)\right) \frac{1}{p} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{W}_{1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}\right)
$$

and under $H_{0}^{2}$

$$
S_{\Gamma}=\left(1+o_{P}(1)\right) \frac{1}{T^{2}} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}^{-1} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{F}\right)
$$

whose conditional distributions (given $\mathbf{F}$ ) under the null are $\chi^{2}$ with degree of freedom, respectively, $J d K$ and $p K$. We can derive their standardized limiting distribution as $J, T, p \rightarrow \infty$. This is given in the following result.

TheOrem 5.1. Suppose Assumptions 3.3, 3.4, 4.2, 5.1 hold. Then under $H_{0}^{1}$,

$$
\frac{p S_{G}-J d K}{\sqrt{2 J d K}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1),
$$

where $K=\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbf{f}_{t}\right)$ and $d=\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$. In addition, suppose Assumptions 4.1 and 4.3 further hold, $\left\{\mathbf{u}_{t}\right\}_{t \leq T}$ is i.i.d. $N\left(0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}\right)$ with a diagonal covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}$ whose elements are bounded away from zero and infinity. Then under $H_{0}^{2}$,

$$
\frac{T S_{\Gamma}-p K}{\sqrt{2 p K}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1) .
$$

In practice, when a relatively small sieve dimension $J$ is used, one can instead use the upper $\alpha$-quantile of the $\chi_{J d K}^{2}$ distribution for $p S_{G}$.

REMARK 5.1. We require $u_{i t}$ be independent across $t$, which ensures that the covariance matrix of the leading term $\operatorname{vec}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \mathbf{U F}^{\prime}\right)$ to have a simple form $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}^{-1} \otimes \mathbf{I}_{K}$. This assumption can be relaxed to allow for weakly dependent $\left\{\mathbf{u}_{t}\right\}_{t \leq T}$, but many autocovariance terms will be involved in the covariance matrix. One may regularize standard autocovariance matrix estimators such as Newey and West (1987) and Andrews (1991) to account for the high dimensionality. Moreover, we assume $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}$ be diagonal to facilitate estimating $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}^{-1}$, which can also be weakened to allow for a nondiagonal but sparse $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}$. Regularization methods such as thresholding [Bickel and Levina (2008)] can then be employed, though they are expected to be more technically involved.
6. Estimating the number of factors from projected data. We now address the problem of estimating $K=\operatorname{dim}\left(\mathbf{f}_{t}\right)$ when it is unknown. Once a consistent estimator of $K$ is obtained, all the results achieved carry over to the unknown $K$ case using a conditioning argument. ${ }^{2}$ In principle, many consistent estimators

[^1]of $K$ can be employed, for example, Bai and Ng (2002), Alessi, Barigozzi and Capasso (2010), Breitung and Pigorsch (2009), Hallin and Lis̆ka (2007). More recently, Ahn and Horenstein (2013) and Lam and Yao (2012) proposed to select the largest ratio of the adjacent eigenvalues of $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}$, based on the fact that the $K$ largest eigenvalues of the sample covariance matrix grow as fast as $p$ increases, while the remaining eigenvalues either remain bounded or grow slowly.

We extend Ahn and Horenstein's (2013) theory in two ways. First, when the loadings depend on the observable characteristics, it is more desirable to work on the projected data $\mathbf{P Y}$. Due to the orthogonality condition of $\mathbf{U}$ and $\mathbf{X}$, the projected data matrix is approximately equal to $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$. The projected matrix $\mathbf{P Y}(\mathbf{P Y})^{\prime}$ thus allows us to study the eigenvalues of the principal matrix component $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})^{\prime}$, which directly connects with the strengths of those factors. Since the nonvanishing eigenvalues of $\mathbf{P Y}(\mathbf{P Y})^{\prime}$ and $(\mathbf{P Y})^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}=\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$ are the same, we can work directly with the eigenvalues of the matrix $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$. Second, we allow $p / T \rightarrow \infty$.

Let $\lambda_{k}\left(\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}\right)$ denote the $k$ th largest eigenvalue of the projected data matrix $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$. We assume $0<K<J d / 2$, which naturally holds if the sieve dimension $J$ slowly grows. The estimator is defined as

$$
\widehat{K}=\arg \max _{0<k<J d / 2} \frac{\lambda_{k}\left(\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}\right)}{\lambda_{k+1}\left(\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}\right)} .
$$

The following assumption is similar to that of Ahn and Horenstein (2013). Recall that $\mathbf{U}=\left(\mathbf{u}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_{T}\right)$ is a $p \times T$ matrix of the idiosyncratic components, and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}=E \mathbf{u}_{t} \mathbf{u}_{t}^{\prime}$ denotes the $p \times p$ covariance matrix of $\mathbf{u}_{t}$.

ASSUMPTION 6.1. The error matrix $\mathbf{U}$ can be decomposed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{U}=\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}^{1 / 2} \mathbf{E M}^{1 / 2} \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where:
(i) the eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}$ are bounded away from zero and infinity,
(ii) $\mathbf{M}$ is a $T$ by $T$ positive semidefinite nonstochastic matrix, whose eigenvalues are bounded away from zero and infinity,
(iii) $\mathbf{E}=\left(e_{i t}\right)_{p \times T}$ is a $p \times T$ stochastic matrix, where $e_{i t}$ is independent in both $i$ and $t$, and $\mathbf{e}_{t}=\left(e_{1 t}, \ldots, e_{p t}\right)^{\prime}$ are i.i.d. isotropic sub-Gaussian vectors, that is, there is $C>0$, for all $s>0$,

$$
\sup _{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1} P\left(\left|\mathbf{v}^{\prime} \mathbf{e}_{t}\right|>s\right) \leq \exp \left(1-C s^{2}\right)
$$

(iv) There are $d_{\min }, d_{\max }>0$, almost surely,

$$
d_{\min } \leq \lambda_{\min }\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X}) / p\right) \leq \lambda_{\max }\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X}) / p\right) \leq d_{\max }
$$

This assumption allows the matrix $\mathbf{U}$ to be both cross-sectionally and serially dependent. The $T \times T$ matrix $\mathbf{M}$ captures the serial dependence across $t$. In the
special case of no-serial-dependence, the decomposition (6.1) is satisfied by taking $\mathbf{M}=\mathbf{I}$. In addition, we require $\mathbf{u}_{t}$ to be sub-Gaussian to apply random matrix theories of Vershynin (2012). For instance, when $\mathbf{u}_{t}$ is $N\left(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}\right)$, for any $\|\mathbf{v}\|=$ $1, \mathbf{v}^{\prime} \mathbf{e}_{t} \sim N(0,1)$, and thus condition (iii) is satisfied. Finally, the almost surely condition of (iv) seems somewhat strong, but is still satisfied by bounded basis functions (e.g., Fourier basis).

We show in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)] that when $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{u}$ is diagonal ( $u_{i t}$ is cross-sectionally independent), both the sub-Gaussian assumption and condition (iv) can be relaxed.

The following theorem is the main result of this section.
THEOREM 6.1. Under assumptions of Theorem 4.1 and Assumption 6.1, as $p, T \rightarrow \infty$, if $J$ satisfies $J=o(\min \{\sqrt{p}, T\})$ and $K<J d / 2(J$ may either grow or stay constant), we have

$$
P(\widehat{K}=K) \rightarrow 1
$$

7. Numerical studies. This section presents numerical results to demonstrate the performance of Projected-PCA method for estimating loadings and factors using both real data and simulated data.
7.1. Estimating loading curves with real data. We collected stocks in S\&P 500 index constituents from CRSP which have complete daily closing prices from year 2005 through 2013, and their corresponding market capitalization and book value from Compustat. There are 337 stocks in our data set, whose daily excess returns were calculated. We considered four characteristics $\mathbf{X}$ as in Connor, Hagmann and Linton (2012) for each stock: size, value, momentum and volatility, which were calculated using the data before a certain data analyzing window so that characteristics are treated known. See Connor, Hagmann and Linton (2012) for detailed descriptions of these characteristics. All four characteristics are standardized to have mean zero and unit variance. Note that the construction makes their values independent of the current data.

We fix the time window to be the first quarter of the year 2006, which contains $T=63$ observations. Given the excess returns $\left\{y_{i t}\right\}_{i \leq 337, t \leq 63}$ and characteristics $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ as the input data and setting $K=3$, we fit loading functions $g_{k}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i k}+$ $\sum_{l=1}^{4} g_{k l}\left(X_{i l}\right)$ for $k=1,2,3$ using the Projected-PCA method. The four additive components $g_{k l}(\cdot)$ are fitted using the cubic spline in the R package "GAM" with sieve dimension $J=4$. All the four loading functions for each factor are plotted in Figure 1. The contribution of each characteristic to each factor is quite nonlinear.
7.2. Calibrating the model with real data. We now treat the estimated functions $g_{k l}(\cdot)$ as the true loading functions, and calibrate a model for simulations. The "true model" is calibrated as follows:


Fig. 1. Estimated additive loading functions $g_{k l}, l=1, \ldots, 4$ from financial returns of 337 stocks in $S \& P 500$ index. They are taken as the true functions in the simulation studies. In each panel (fixed $l$ ), the true and estimated curves for $k=1,2,3$ are plotted and compared. The solid, dashed and dotted red curves are the true curves corresponding to the first, second and third factors, respectively. The blue curves are their estimates from one simulation of the calibrated model with $T=50$, $p=300$.

1. Take the estimated $g_{k l}(\cdot)$ from the real data as the true loading functions.
2. For each $p$, generate $\left\{\mathbf{u}_{t}\right\}_{t \leq T}$ from $N\left(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{0} \mathbf{D}\right)$ where $\mathbf{D}$ is diagonal and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{0}$ sparse. Generate the diagonal elements of $\mathbf{D}$ from $\operatorname{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ with $\alpha=7.06$, $\beta=536.93$ (calibrated from the real data), and generate the off-diagonal elements of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{0}$ from $N\left(\mu_{u}, \sigma_{u}^{2}\right)$ with $\mu_{u}=-0.0019, \sigma_{u}=0.1499$. Then truncate $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{0}$ by a threshold of correlation 0.03 to produce a sparse matrix and make it positive definite by R package "nearPD."

TABLE 1
Parameters used for the factor generating process, obtained by calibration to the real data

|  | $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ |  | $\mathbf{A}$ |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0.9076 | 0.0049 | 0.0230 | -0.0371 | -0.1226 | -0.1130 |
| 0.0049 | 0.8737 | 0.0403 | -0.2339 | 0.1060 | -0.2793 |
| 0.0230 | 0.0403 | 0.9266 | 0.2803 | 0.0755 | -0.0529 |

3. Generate $\left\{\gamma_{i k}\right\}$ from the i.i.d. Gaussian distribution with mean 0 and standard deviation 0.0027 , calibrated with real data.
4. Generate $\mathbf{f}_{t}$ from a stationary VAR model $\mathbf{f}_{t}=\mathbf{A} \mathbf{f}_{t-1}+\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t}$ where $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t} \sim$ $N\left(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\varepsilon}\right)$. The model parameters are calibrated with the market data and listed in Table 1.
5. Finally, generate $\mathbf{X}_{i} \sim N\left(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{X}\right)$. Here $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{X}$ is a $4 \times 4$ correlation matrix estimated from the real data.

We simulate the data from the calibrated model, and estimate the loadings and factors for $T=10$ and 50 with $p$ varying from 20 through 500. The "true" and estimated loading curves are plotted in Figure 1 to demonstrate the performance of Projected-PCA. Note that the "true" loading curves in the simulation are taken from the estimates calibrated using the real data. The estimates based on simulated data capture the shape of the true curve, though we also notice slight biases at boundaries. But in general, Projected-PCA fits the model well.

We also compare our method with the traditional PCA method [e.g., Stock and Watson (2002)]. The mean values of $\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}-\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{\max },\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}-\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{F} / \sqrt{p},\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}_{0}\right\|_{\max }$ and $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}_{0}\right\|_{F} / \sqrt{T}$ are plotted in Figures 2 and 3 where $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}=\mathbf{G}_{0}(\mathbf{X})+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ [see Section 7.3 for definitions of $\mathbf{G}_{0}(\mathbf{X})$ and $\mathbf{F}_{0}$ ]. The breakdown error for $\mathbf{G}_{0}(\mathbf{X})$ and $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ are also depicted in Figure 2. In comparison, Projected-PCA outperforms PCA in estimating both factors and loadings including the nonparametric curves $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ and random noise $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$. The estimation errors for $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})$ of Projected-PCA decrease as the dimension increases, which is consistent with our asymptotic theory.
7.3. Design 2. Consider a different design with only one observed covariate and three factors. The three characteristic functions are $g_{1}=x, g_{2}=x^{2}-1, g_{3}=$ $x^{3}-2 x$ with the characteristic $X$ being standard normal. Generate $\left\{\mathbf{f}_{t}\right\}_{t \leq T}$ from the stationary $\operatorname{VAR}(1)$ model, that is, $\mathbf{f}_{t}=\mathbf{A} \mathbf{f}_{t-1}+\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t}$ where $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t} \sim N(0, \mathbf{I})$. We consider $\Gamma=0$.

We simulate the data for $T=10$ or 50 and various $p$ ranging from 20 to 500 . To ensure that the true factor and loading satisfy the identifiability conditions, we calculate a transformation matrix $\mathbf{H}$ such that $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{H F} \mathbf{F H}=\mathbf{I}_{K}, \mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{G}^{\prime} \mathbf{G H}^{\prime-1}$ is diagonal. Let the final true factors and loadings be $\mathbf{F}_{0}=\mathbf{F H}, \mathbf{G}_{0}=\mathbf{G H}^{\prime-1}$. For each $p$, we run the simulation for 500 times.


Fig. 2. Averaged $\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}-\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|$ by Projected- $P C A$ ( $P-P C A$, red solid) and traditional PCA (dashed blue) and $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{G}}-\mathbf{G}_{0}\right\|,\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}-\boldsymbol{\Gamma}\|$ by P-PCA over 500 repetitions. Left panel: $\|\cdot\|_{\max }$, right panel: $\|\cdot\|_{F} / \sqrt{p}$.

We estimate the loadings and factors using both Projected-PCA and PC. For Projected-PCA, as in our theorem, we choose $J=C(p \min (T, p))^{1 / \kappa}$, with $\kappa=4$ and $C=3$. To estimate the loading matrix, we also compare with a third method: sieve-least-squares (SLS), assuming the factors are observable. In this case, the loading matrix is estimated by $\mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{F}_{0} / T$, where $\mathbf{F}_{0}$ is the true factor matrix of simulated data.

The estimation error measured in max and standardized Frobenius norms for both loadings and factors are reported in Figures 4 and 5. The plots demonstrate the good performance of Projected-PCA in estimating both loadings and factors. In particular, it works well when we encounter small $T$ but a large $p$. In this design,


Fig. 3. Averaged $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}_{0}\right\|_{\max }$ and $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}_{0}\right\|_{F} / \sqrt{T}$ over 500 repetitions, by Projected-PCA ( $P-P C A$, solid red) and traditional PCA (dashed blue).
$\boldsymbol{\Gamma}=0$, so the accuracy of estimating $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}=\mathbf{G}_{0}$ is significantly improved by using the Projected-PCA. Figure 5 shows that the factors are also better estimated by Projected-PCA than the traditional one, particularly when $T$ is small. It is also clearly seen that when $p$ is fixed, the improvement on estimating factors is not significant as $T$ grows. This matches with our convergence results for the factor estimator.

It is also interesting to compare Projected-PCA with SLS (Sieve Least-Squares with observed factors) in estimating the loadings, which corresponds to the cases of unobserved and observed factors. As we see from Figure 4, when $p$ is small, the Projected-PCA is not as good as SLS. But the two methods behave similarly


Fig. 4. Averaged $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{G}}-\mathbf{G}_{0}\right\|_{\max }$ and $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{G}}-\mathbf{G}_{0}\right\|_{F} / \sqrt{p}$ over 500 repetitions. P-PCA, PCA and SLS, respectively, represent Projected-PCA, regular PCA and sieve least squares with known factors: Design 2. Here, $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}=0$, so $\mathbf{\Lambda}=\mathbf{G}_{0}$. Upper two panels: $p$ grows with fixed $T$; bottom panels: $T$ grows with fixed $p$.


Fig. 5. Average estimation error of factors over 500 repetitions, that is, $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}_{0}\right\|_{\max }$ and $\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}_{0}\right\|_{F} / \sqrt{T}$ by Projected-PCA (solid red) and PCA (dashed blue): Design 2. Upper two panels: $p$ grows with fixed $T$; bottom panels: $T$ grows with fixed $p$.


FIG. 6. Mean and standard deviation of the estimated number of factors over 50 repetitions. True $K=3 . P-P C A$ and $A H$, respectively, represent the methods of Projected-PCA and Ahn and Horenstein (2013). Left panel: mean; right panel: standard deviation.
as $p$ increases. This further confirms the theory and intuition that as the dimension becomes larger, the effects of estimating the unknown factors are negligible.
7.4. Estimating number of factors. We now demonstrate the effectiveness of estimating $K$ by the projected-PC's eigenvalue-ratio method. The data are simulated in the same way as in Design 2. $T=10$ or 50 and we took the values of $p$ ranging from 20 to 500 . We compare our Projected-PCA based on the projected data matrix $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$ to the eigenvalue-ratio test (AH) of Ahn and Horenstein (2013) and Lam and Yao (2012), which works on the original data matrix $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}$.

For each pair of $T, p$, we repeat the simulation for 50 times and report the mean and standard deviation of the estimated number of factors in Figure 6. The Projected-PCA outperforms AH after projection, which significantly reduces the impact of idiosyncratic errors. When $T=50$, we can recover the number of factors almost all the time, especially for large dimensions ( $p>200$ ). On the other hand, even when $T=10$, projected-PCA still obtains a closer estimated number of factors.
7.5. Loading specification tests with real data. We test the loading specifications on the real data. We used the same data set as in Section 7.1, consisting of excess returns from 2005 through 2013. The tests were conducted based on rolling windows, with the length of windows spanning from 10 days, a month, a quarter and half a year. For each fixed window-length $(T)$, we computed the standardized test statistic of $S_{G}$ and $S_{\Gamma}$, and plotted them along the rolling windows respectively in Figure 7. In almost all cases, the number of factors is estimated to be one in various combinations of $(T, p, J)$.


Fig. 7. Normalized $S_{G}, S_{\Gamma}$ from 2006/01/03 to 2012/11/30. The dotted lines are $\pm 1.96$.

Figure 7 suggests that the semiparametric factor model is strongly supported by the data. Judging from the upper panel [testing $H_{0}^{1}: \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{X})=0$ ], we have very strong evidence of the existence of nonvanishing covariate effect, which demonstrates the dependence of the market beta's on the covariates $\mathbf{X}$. In other words, the market beta's can be explained at least partially by the characteristics of assets. The results also provide the theoretical basis for using Projected-PCA to get more accurate estimation.

In the bottom panel of Figure 7 (testing $H_{0}^{2}: \boldsymbol{\Gamma}=0$ ), we see for a majority of periods, the null hypothesis is rejected. In other words, the characteristics of assets cannot fully explain the market beta as intuitively expected, and model (1.2) in the literature is inadequate. However, fully nonparametric loadings could be
possible in certain time range mostly before financial crisis. During 2008-2010, the market's behavior had much more complexities, which causes more rejections of the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}=0$ is accepted more often since 2012. We also notice that larger $T$ tends to yield larger statistics in both tests, as the evidence against the null hypothesis is stronger with larger $T$. After all, the semiparametric model being considered provides flexible ways of modeling equity markets and understanding the nonparametric loading curves.
8. Conclusions. This paper proposes and studies a high-dimensional factor model with nonparametric loading functions that depend on a few observed covariate variables. This model is motivated by the fact that observed variables can explain partially the factor loadings. We propose a Projected-PCA to estimate the unknown factors, loadings, and number of factors. After projecting the response variable onto the sieve space spanned by the covariates, the Projected-PCA yields a significant improvement on the rates of convergence than the regular methods. In particular, consistency can be achieved without a diverging sample size, as long as the dimensionality grows. This demonstrates that the proposed method is useful in the typical HDLSS situations. In addition, we propose new specification tests for the orthogonal decomposition of the loadings, which fill the gap of the testing literature for semiparametric factor models. Our empirical findings show that firm characteristics can explain partially the factor loadings, which provide theoretical basis for employing Projected-PCA method. On the other hand, our empirical study also shows that the firm characteristics cannot fully explain the factor loadings so that the proposed generalized factor model is more appropriate.

## APPENDIX A: PROOFS FOR SECTION 3

Throughout the proofs, $p \rightarrow \infty$ and $T$ may either grow simultaneously with $p$ or stay constant. For two matrices $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}$ with fixed dimensions, and a sequence $a_{T}$, by writing $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{B}+o_{P}\left(a_{T}\right)$, we mean $\|\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{B}\|_{F}=o_{P}\left(a_{T}\right)$.

In the regular factor model $\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{U}$, let $\mathbf{K}$ denote a $K \times K$ diagonal matrix of the first $K$ eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$. Then by definition, $\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\widehat{\mathbf{F}} \mathbf{K}$. Let $\mathbf{M}=\frac{1}{T p} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} \mathbf{K}^{-1}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}=\sum_{i=1}^{3} \mathbf{D}_{i} \mathbf{K}^{-1} \tag{A.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\mathbf{D}_{1}=\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{F} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{U} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}, \quad \mathbf{D}_{2}=\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{U} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}, \quad \mathbf{D}_{3}=\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} .
$$

We now describe the structure of the proofs for

$$
\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{p}\left(\frac{J}{p}\right)
$$

Note that $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}=\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}+\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{I})$. Hence, we need to bound $\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}\|_{F}^{2}$ and $\frac{1}{T}\|\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{I})\|_{F}^{2}$, respectively.

Step 1: prove that $\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}(J / p)$.
Due to the equality (A.1), it suffices to bound $\left\|\mathbf{K}^{-1}\right\|_{2}$ as well as the $\frac{1}{T}\|\cdot\|_{F}^{2}$ norm of $\mathbf{D}_{1}, \mathbf{D}_{2}, \mathbf{D}_{3}$, respectively. These are obtained in Lemmas A.2, A. 3 below.

Step 2: prove that $\frac{1}{T}\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M})\right\|_{F}=O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+J / p)$.
Still by the equality (A.1), $\frac{1}{T}\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M})\right\|_{F} \leq \frac{1}{T}\left\|\mathbf{K}^{-1}\right\|_{2} \sum_{i=1}^{3}\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{D}_{i}\right\|_{F}$. Hence, this step is achieved by bounding $\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{D}_{i}\right\|_{F}$ for $i=1,2,3$. Note that in this step, we shall not apply a simple inequality $\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{D}_{i}\right\|_{F} \leq\|\mathbf{F}\|_{F}\left\|\mathbf{D}_{i}\right\|_{F}$, which is too crude. Instead, with the help of the result $\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{p}(J / p)$ achieved in step 1, sharper upper bounds for $\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{D}_{i}\right\|_{F}$ can be achieved. We do so in Lemma B. 2 in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)].

Step 3: prove that $\|\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{I}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}\left(J /(p T)+(J / p)^{2}\right)$.
This step is achieved in Lemma A. 4 below, which uses the result in step 2.
Before proceeding to step 1, we first show that the two alternative definitions for $\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})$ described in Section 2.3 are equivalent.

Lemma A. 1. $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Xi}} \widehat{\mathbf{D}}^{1 / 2}$.
Proof. Consider the singular value decomposition: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \mathbf{P Y}=\mathbf{V}_{1} \mathbf{S V}_{2}^{\prime}$, where $\mathbf{V}_{1}$ is a $p \times p$ orthogonal matrix, whose columns are the eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$; $\mathbf{V}_{2}$ is a $T \times T$ matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y} ; \mathbf{S}$ is a $p \times$ $T$ rectangular diagonal matrix, with diagonal entries as the square roots of the nonzero eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$. In addition, by definition, $\widehat{\mathbf{D}}$ is a $K \times K$ diagonal matrix consisting of the largest $K$ eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P}$; $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Xi}}$ is a $p \times K$ matrix whose columns are the corresponding eigenvectors. The columns of $\widehat{\mathbf{F}} / \sqrt{T}$ are the eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{P Y}$, corresponding to the first $K$ eigenvalues.

With these definitions, we can write $\mathbf{V}_{1}=\left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Xi}}, \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{1}\right), \mathbf{V}_{2}=\left(\widehat{\mathbf{F}} / \sqrt{T}, \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{2}\right)$, and

$$
\mathbf{S}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\widehat{\mathbf{D}}^{1 / 2} & \mathbf{0} \\
\mathbf{0} & \tilde{\mathbf{D}}
\end{array}\right), \quad \widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime} \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{2}=\mathbf{0}, \widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} / T=\mathbf{I}_{K}
$$

for some matrices $\tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{1}, \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{2}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$. It then follows that

$$
\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\mathbf{V}_{1} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{V}_{2}^{\prime} \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\left(\widehat{\Xi}, \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{1}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\widehat{\mathbf{D}}^{1 / 2} & \mathbf{0} \\
\mathbf{0} & \tilde{\mathbf{D}}
\end{array}\right)\binom{\widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime} / \tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{2}^{\prime}}{\tilde{\mathbf{V}}_{2}^{\prime}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Xi}} \widehat{\mathbf{D}}^{1 / 2}
$$

Lemma A.2. $\|\mathbf{K}\|_{2}=O_{P}(1),\left\|\mathbf{K}^{-1}\right\|_{2}=O_{P}(1),\|\mathbf{M}\|_{2}=O_{P}(1)$.
Proof. The eigenvalues of $\mathbf{K}$ are the same as those of

$$
\mathbf{W}=\frac{1}{T p}\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2}
$$

Substituting $\mathbf{Y}=\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}+\mathbf{U}$, and $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{F} / T=\mathbf{I}_{K}$, we have $\mathbf{W}=\sum_{i=1}^{4} \mathbf{W}_{i}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{W}_{1}=\frac{1}{p}\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2} \\
& \mathbf{W}_{2}=\frac{1}{p}\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime}\left(\frac{\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{U}^{\prime}}{T}\right) \Phi(\mathbf{X})\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2} \\
& \mathbf{W}_{3}=\mathbf{W}_{2}^{\prime} \\
& \mathbf{W}_{4}=\frac{1}{p}\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2} \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \frac{\mathbf{U U}^{\prime}}{T} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

By Assumption 3.3, $\|\Phi(\mathbf{X})\|_{2}=\lambda_{\max }^{1 / 2}\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)=O_{P}(\sqrt{p})$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2}\right\|_{2} & =\lambda_{\max }^{1 / 2}\left(\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1}\right)=O_{P}\left(p^{-1 / 2}\right) \\
\|\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{2} & =\lambda_{\max }^{1 / 2}\left(\frac{1}{p} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\right) p^{1 / 2}=O_{P}\left(p^{1 / 2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\mathbf{W}_{2}\right\|_{2} & \leq \frac{1}{p}\left\|\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2}\right\|_{2}^{2}\|\Phi(\mathbf{X})\|_{2}\|\mathbf{\Lambda}\|_{F}\left\|\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right\|_{F} \\
& =O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p T}\right)\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right\|_{F}
\end{aligned}
$$

By Lemma B. 1 in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)], $\left\|\mathbf{W}_{2}\right\|_{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{\sqrt{J}}{\sqrt{p T}}\right)$. Similarly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\mathbf{W}_{4}\right\|_{2} & \leq \frac{1}{p T}\left\|\left(\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \Phi(\mathbf{X})\right)^{-1 / 2}\right\|_{2}^{2}\left\|\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \mathbf{U}\right\|_{F}^{2} \\
& =O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{p^{2} T}\right)\left\|\Phi(\mathbf{X})^{\prime} \mathbf{U}\right\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{p}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the inequality that for the $k$ th eigenvalue, $\left|\lambda_{k}(\mathbf{W})-\lambda_{k}\left(\mathbf{W}_{1}\right)\right| \leq\left\|\mathbf{W}-\mathbf{W}_{1}\right\|_{2}$, we have $\left|\lambda_{k}(\mathbf{W})-\lambda_{k}\left(\mathbf{W}_{1}\right)\right|=O_{P}\left(T^{-1 / 2}+p^{-1}\right)$, for $k=1, \ldots, K$. Hence, it suffices to prove that the first $K$ eigenvalues of $\mathbf{W}_{1}$ are bounded away from both zero and infinity, which are also the first $K$ eigenvalues of $\frac{1}{p} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$. This holds under the theorem's assumption (Assumption 3.1). Thus, $\left\|\mathbf{K}^{-1}\right\|_{2}=O_{P}(1)=\|\mathbf{K}\|_{2}$, which also implies $\|\mathbf{M}\|_{2}=O_{P}(1)$.

LEMMA A.3. (i) $\left\|\mathbf{D}_{1}\right\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}(T J / p)$, (ii) $\left\|\mathbf{D}_{2}\right\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}\left(J / p^{2}\right)$, (iii) $\left\|\mathbf{D}_{3}\right\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}(T J / p)$, (iv) $\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}(J / p)$.

Proof. It follows from Lemma B. 1 in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)] that $\|\mathbf{P U}\|_{F}=O_{P}(\sqrt{T J})$. Also, $\|\mathbf{F}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}(T)=\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}\|_{F}^{2}$ and

Assumption 3.1 implies $\|\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{2}^{2}=O_{P}(p)$. So

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\|\mathbf{D}_{1}\right\|_{F}^{2}=\left\|\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{F} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{U} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}\right\|_{F}^{2} \leq \frac{1}{T^{2} p^{2}}\|\mathbf{F}\|_{F}^{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}\|_{F}^{2}\|\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{2}^{2}\|\mathbf{P} \mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}(T J / p) \\
& \left\|\mathbf{D}_{2}\right\|_{F}^{2}=\left\|\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{U} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}\right\|_{F}^{2} \leq \frac{1}{T^{2} p^{2}}\|\mathbf{P}\|_{F}^{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}\left(J / p^{2}\right) \\
& \left\|\mathbf{D}_{3}\right\|_{F}^{2}=\left\|\frac{1}{T p} \mathbf{U}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}\right\|_{F}^{2} \leq \frac{1}{T^{2} p^{2}}\|\mathbf{P U}\|_{F}^{2}\|\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{2}^{2}\|\mathbf{F}\|_{F}^{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}(T J / p)
\end{aligned}
$$

By Lemma A.2, $\left\|\mathbf{K}^{-1}\right\|_{2}=O_{P}(1)$. Part (iv) then follows directly from

$$
\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F} \mathbf{M}\|_{F}^{2} \leq O_{P}\left(\frac{1}{T}\left\|\mathbf{K}^{-1}\right\|_{2}\right)\left(\left\|\mathbf{D}_{1}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\left\|\mathbf{D}_{2}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\left\|\mathbf{D}_{3}\right\|_{F}^{2}\right)
$$

LEMMA A.4. In the regular factor model, $\|\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{I}\|_{F}=O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+$ $J / p$ ).

Proof. By Lemma B. 2 in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)] and the triangular inequality, $\left\|\frac{1}{T}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M})^{\prime} \mathbf{F}\right\|=O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+J / p)$. Hence,

$$
\widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime} \mathbf{F} / T=\mathbf{M}^{\prime}+\frac{1}{T}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M})^{\prime} \mathbf{F}=\mathbf{M}^{\prime}+O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+J / p)
$$

Right multiplying $\mathbf{M}$ to both sides $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime} \mathbf{F M} / T=\mathbf{M}^{\prime} \mathbf{M}+O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+J / p)$. In addition,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{\prime}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}) / T\right\|_{F} & \leq \frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F} \mathbf{M}\|_{F}^{2}+\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}) / T\right\|_{F} \\
& =O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+J / p)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence,

$$
\mathbf{I}=\mathbf{M}^{\prime} \mathbf{M}+O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+J / p)
$$

In addition, from $\mathbf{M}=\frac{1}{T p} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{F}} \mathbf{K}^{-1}=\frac{1}{p} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{K}^{-1}+O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+$ $J / p$ ),

$$
\mathbf{M K}=\frac{1}{p} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{M}+O_{P}(\sqrt{J /(p T)}+J / p)
$$

Because $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ is diagonal, the same proofs of those of Proposition C. 3 lead to the desired result.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. It follows from Lemmas A.3(iv) and A. 4 that

$$
\frac{1}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}\|_{F}^{2} \leq \frac{2}{T}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M}\|_{F}^{2}+2\|\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{I}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{p}\left(\frac{J}{p}\right)
$$

As for the estimated loading matrix, note that

$$
\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})=\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P Y} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}+\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{U} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}=\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}+\mathbf{E}
$$

where $\mathbf{E}=\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F})+\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P U}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F})+\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P U F}$.
By Lemmas B. 2 and A.4,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{F}^{\prime}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F})\right\|_{F} & \leq O_{P}\left(\frac{\sqrt{p}}{T}\right)\left\|\mathbf{F}^{\prime}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F M})\right\|_{F}+O_{P}(\sqrt{p})\|\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{I}\|_{F} \\
& =O_{P}\left(\sqrt{\frac{J}{T}}+\frac{J}{\sqrt{p}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By Lemma B.1, $\left\|\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P U}(\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F})\right\|_{F} \leq \frac{1}{T}\|\mathbf{P U}\|_{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{F}}-\mathbf{F}\|_{F}=O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{\sqrt{p}}\right)$, and from Lemma B. $2\left\|\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{P U F}\right\|_{F}=O_{P}\left(\sqrt{\frac{J}{T}}\right)$. Hence, $\|\mathbf{E}\|_{F}=O_{P}\left(\sqrt{\frac{J}{T}}+\frac{J}{\sqrt{p}}\right)$, which implies

$$
\frac{1}{p}\|\widehat{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{X})-\mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\|_{F}^{2}=O_{P}\left(\frac{J}{p T}+\frac{J^{2}}{p^{2}}\right) .
$$

All the remaining proofs are given in the supplementary material [Fan, Liao and Wang (2015)].

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Technical proofs Fan, Liao and Wang (2015) (DOI: 10.1214/15AOS1364SUPP; .pdf). This supplementary material contains all the remaining proofs.

## REFERENCES

Ahn, S. C. and Horenstein, A. R. (2013). Eigenvalue ratio test for the number of factors. Econometrica 81 1203-1227. MR3064065
Ahn, J., Marron, J. S., Muller, K. M. and Chi, Y.-Y. (2007). The high-dimension, low-sample-size geometric representation holds under mild conditions. Biometrika 94 760-766. MR2410023
Alessi, L., Barigozzi, M. and Capasso, M. (2010). Improved penalization for determining the number of factors in approximate factor models. Statist. Probab. Lett. 80 1806-1813. MR2734245
Andrews, D. W. K. (1991). Heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent covariance matrix estimation. Econometrica 59 817-858. MR1106513
BAI, J. (2003). Inferential theory for factor models of large dimensions. Econometrica 71 135-171. MR1956857
BAI, J. and Li, K. (2012). Statistical analysis of factor models of high dimension. Ann. Statist. 40 436-465. MR3014313
BAI, J. and NG, S. (2002). Determining the number of factors in approximate factor models. Econometrica 70 191-221. MR1926259

BAI, J. and NG, S. (2013). Principal components estimation and identification of static factors. J. Econometrics 176 18-29. MR3067022

Bickel, P. J. and Levina, E. (2008). Covariance regularization by thresholding. Ann. Statist. 36 2577-2604. MR2485008
Breitung, J. and Pigorsch, U. (2009). A canonical correlation approach for selecting the number of dynamic factors. Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics 75 23-36.
Breitung, J. and Tenhofen, J. (2011). GLS estimation of dynamic factor models. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 106 1150-1166. MR2894771
Brillinger, D. R. (1981). Time Series: Data Analysis and Theory, 2nd ed. Holden-Day, Oakland, CA. MR0595684
Cai, T. T., Ma, Z. and Wu, Y. (2013). Sparse PCA: Optimal rates and adaptive estimation. Ann. Statist. 41 3074-3110. MR3161458
Candès, E. J. and Recht, B. (2009). Exact matrix completion via convex optimization. Found. Comput. Math. 9 717-772. MR2565240
CHEN, X. (2007). Large sample sieve estimation of semi-nonparametric models. In Handbook of Econometrics 76. North Holland, Amsterdam.
Connor, G., Hagmann, M. and Linton, O. (2012). Efficient semiparametric estimation of the Fama-French model and extensions. Econometrica 80 713-754. MR2951947
Connor, G. and Linton, O. (2007). Semiparametric estimation of a characteristic-based factor model of stock returns. Journal of Empirical Finance 14 694-717.
Desai, K. H. and Storey, J. D. (2012). Cross-dimensional inference of dependent highdimensional data. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 107 135-151. MR2949347
Efron, B. (2010). Correlated $z$-values and the accuracy of large-scale statistical estimates. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 105 1042-1055. MR2752597
FAN, J., HAN, X. and GU, W. (2012). Estimating false discovery proportion under arbitrary covariance dependence. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 107 1019-1035. MR3010887
FAN, J., Liao, Y. and Mincheva, M. (2013). Large covariance estimation by thresholding principal orthogonal complements. J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B. Stat. Methodol. 75 603-680. MR3091653
Fan, J., LiaO, Y. and Shi, X. (2015). Risks of large portfolios. J. Econometrics 186 367-387. MR3343792
Fan, J., LiaO, Y. and Wang, W. (2015). Supplement to "Projected principal component analysis in factor models." DOI:10.1214/15-AOS1364SUPP.
Forni, M. and Lippi, M. (2001). The generalized dynamic factor model: Representation theory. Econometric Theory 17 1113-1141. MR1867540
Forni, M., Hallin, M., Lippi, M. and Reichlin, L. (2000). The generalized dynamic-factor model: Identification and estimation. Rev. Econom. Statist. 82 540-554.
Forni, M., Hallin, M., Lippi, M. and Zaffaroni, P. (2015). Dynamic factor models with infinite-dimensional factor spaces: One-sided representations. J. Econometrics 185 359-371. MR3311826
Friguet, C., Kloareg, M. and Causeur, D. (2009). A factor model approach to multiple testing under dependence. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 104 1406-1415. MR2750571
HALLIN, M. and Lis̆KA, R. (2007). Determining the number of factors in the general dynamic factor model. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 102 603-617. MR2325115
Johnstone, I. M. (2001). On the distribution of the largest eigenvalue in principal components analysis. Ann. Statist. 29 295-327. MR1863961
Jung, S. and Marron, J. S. (2009). PCA consistency in high dimension, low sample size context. Ann. Statist. 37 4104-4130. MR2572454
Koltchinskii, V., Lounici, K. and Tsybakov, A. B. (2011). Nuclear-norm penalization and optimal rates for noisy low-rank matrix completion. Ann. Statist. 39 2302-2329. MR2906869
LAM, C. and YAO, Q. (2012). Factor modeling for high-dimensional time series: Inference for the number of factors. Ann. Statist. 40 694-726. MR2933663

Leek, J. T. and Storey, J. D. (2008). A general framework for multiple testing dependence. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 105 18718-18723.
Li, G., Yang, D., Nobel, A. B. and Shen, H. (2015). Supervised singular value decomposition and its asymptotic properties. J. Multivariate Anal. To appear.
Lorentz, G. G. (1986). Approximation of Functions, 2nd ed. Chelsea Publishing, New York. MR0917270
MA, Z. (2013). Sparse principal component analysis and iterative thresholding. Ann. Statist. 41 772801. MR3099121

Negahban, S. and Wainwright, M. J. (2011). Estimation of (near) low-rank matrices with noise and high-dimensional scaling. Ann. Statist. 39 1069-1097. MR2816348
Newey, W. K. and West, K. D. (1987). A simple, positive semidefinite, heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent covariance matrix. Econometrica 55 703-708. MR0890864
Park, B. U., Mammen, E., Härdle, W. and Borak, S. (2009). Time series modelling with semiparametric factor dynamics. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 104 284-298. MR2504378
PAUL, D. (2007). Asymptotics of sample eigenstructure for a large dimensional spiked covariance model. Statist. Sinica 17 1617-1642. MR2399865
Shen, D., Shen, H. and Marron, J. S. (2013). Consistency of sparse PCA in high dimension, low sample size contexts. J. Multivariate Anal. 115 317-333. MR3004561
Shen, D., Shen, H., Zhu, H. and Marron, J. (2013). Surprising asymptotic conical structure in critical sample eigen-directions. Technical report, Univ. North Carolina.
Stock, J. H. and Watson, M. W. (2002). Forecasting using principal components from a large number of predictors. J. Amer. Statist. Assoc. 97 1167-1179. MR1951271
VERSHYNIN, R. (2012). Introduction to the non-asymptotic analysis of random matrices. In Compressed Sensing 210-268. Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge. MR2963170
J. FAN
W. WANG
DEPARTMENT OF ORFE
SHERRERD HALL
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY
PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY 08544
USA
E-MAIL: jqfan@princeton.edu

$\quad$| weichenw@princeton.edu |
| :--- |

Y. Liao

Department of Mathematics
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland 20742
USA
E-MAIL: yuanliao@umd.edu


[^0]:    Received January 2015; revised July 2015.
    ${ }^{1}$ Supported by NSF Grants DMS-12-06464 and 2R01-GM072611-9, and the Research and Scholarship award from University of Maryland.

    MSC2010 subject classifications. Primary 62H25; secondary 62H15.
    Key words and phrases. Semiparametric factor models, high-dimensionality, loading matrix modeling, sieve approximation.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ One can first conduct the analysis conditioning on the event $\{\widehat{K}=K\}$, then argue that the results still hold unconditionally as $P(\widehat{K}=K) \rightarrow 1$.

