

Single Equation Linear GMM with Serially Correlated Moment Conditions

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Univariate Time Series

Let $\{y_t\}$ be an ergodic-stationary time series with $E[y_t] = \mu$ and $\text{var}(y_t) < \infty$.
A fundamental decomposition result is the following:

Wold Representation Theorem. y_t has the representation

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \mu + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \varepsilon_{t-j} \\ &= \mu + \varepsilon_t + \psi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \cdots \\ \psi_0 &= 1, \quad \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j^2 < \infty \\ \varepsilon_t &\sim \text{MDS}(0, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

Remarks

1. The Wold representation shows that y_t has a linear structure. As a result, the Wold representation is often called the *linear process representation* of y_t
2. $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j^2 < \infty$ is called *square-summability* and controls the memory of the process. It implies that $|\psi_j| \rightarrow 0$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$ at a sufficiently fast rate.
3. $\varepsilon_t \sim \text{MDS}(0, \sigma^2)$ which is weaker than $\varepsilon_t \sim \text{WN}(0, \sigma^2)$.

Variance

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_0 &= \text{var}(y_t) \\ &= \text{var} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_k \varepsilon_{t-k} \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_k^2 \text{var}(\varepsilon_t) \\ &= \sigma^2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_k^2 < \infty\end{aligned}$$

Autocovariances

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_j &= E[(y_t - \mu)(y_{t-j} - \mu)] \\ &= E \left[\left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_k \varepsilon_{t-k} \right) \left(\sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \psi_h \varepsilon_{t-h-j} \right) \right] \\ &= E[(\psi_0 + \psi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \cdots + \psi_j \varepsilon_{t-j} + \cdots) \\ &\quad \times (\psi_0 \varepsilon_{t-j} + \psi_1 \varepsilon_{t-j-1} + \cdots)] \\ &= \sigma^2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_{j+k} \psi_k, \quad j = 0, 1, 2, \dots\end{aligned}$$

Ergodicity

Ergodicity requires

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\gamma_j| < \infty$$

It can be shown that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j^2 < \infty$$

implies $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\gamma_j| < \infty$.

Asymptotic Properties of Linear Processes

LLN for Linear Processes (Phillips and Solo, *Annals of Statistics* 1992). Assume

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \mu + \psi(L)\varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{MDS}(0, \sigma^2) \\ &= \mu + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \varepsilon_{t-j}, \quad \psi(L) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j L^j \\ &\quad \psi(L) \text{ is 1-summable; i.e.,}\end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j|\psi_j| = 1|\psi_1| + 2|\psi_2| + \dots < \infty$$

Note: $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j|\psi_j| < \infty$ implies $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty$.

Then

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T y_t \xrightarrow{p} E[y_t] = \mu$$

$$\hat{\gamma}_j = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (y_t - \hat{\mu})(y_{t-j} - \hat{\mu}) \xrightarrow{p} \text{cov}(y_t, y_{t-j}) = \gamma_j, \quad j \geq 0$$

CLT for Linear Processes (Phillips and Solo, *Annals of Statistics* 1992)

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \mu + \psi(L)\varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{MDS}(0, \sigma^2) \\ &= \mu + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \varepsilon_{t-j}, \quad \psi(L) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j L^j\end{aligned}$$

$\psi(L)$ is 1-summable

$$\psi(1) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \neq 0$$

Then

$$\sqrt{T}(\hat{\mu} - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \text{LRV})$$

LRV = long-run variance

$$= \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_j$$

$$= \gamma_0 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j, \text{ since } \gamma_j = \gamma_{-j}$$

$$= \sigma^2 \psi(1)^2 = \sigma^2 \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \right)^2$$

Intuition behind LRV formula

Consider

$$\text{var}(\sqrt{T}\bar{y}) = \text{var}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}}\sum_{t=1}^T y_t\right) = \frac{1}{T}\text{var}\left(\sum_{t=1}^T y_t\right)$$

Using the fact that

$$\sum_{t=1}^T y_t = \mathbf{1}'\mathbf{y}, \quad \mathbf{1} = (1, \dots, 1)', \quad \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_T)'$$

it follows that

$$\text{var}\left(\sum_{t=1}^T y_t\right) = \text{var}(\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{1}'\text{var}(\mathbf{y})\mathbf{1}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(\mathbf{y}) &= E[(\mathbf{y} - \mu\mathbf{1})(\mathbf{y} - \mu\mathbf{1})'] \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 & \cdots & \gamma_{T-1} \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \cdots & \gamma_{T-2} \\ \gamma_2 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \cdots & \gamma_{T-3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma_{T-1} & \gamma_{T-2} & \gamma_{T-3} & \cdots & \gamma_0 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \Gamma\end{aligned}$$

where $\gamma_j = \text{cov}(y_t, y_{t-j})$ and $\gamma_j = \gamma_{-j}$. Therefore,

$$\text{var}\left(\sum_{t=1}^T y_t\right) = \mathbf{1}'\text{var}(\mathbf{y})\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1}'\Gamma\mathbf{1}$$

Now,

$\mathbf{1}'\Gamma\mathbf{1}$ = sum of all elements in the $T \times T$ matrix Γ .

This sum may be computed by summing across the rows, or down the columns, or along the diagonals.

Given the band diagonal structure of Γ , it is most convenient to sum along the diagonals. Doing so gives

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var} \left(\sum_{t=1}^T y_t \right) &= \mathbf{1}'\Gamma\mathbf{1} \\ &= T\gamma_0 + 2(T-1)\gamma_1 + 2(T-2)\gamma_2 + \cdots + 2\gamma_{T-1}\end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(\sqrt{T}\bar{y}) &= \frac{1}{T}\mathbf{1}'\Gamma\mathbf{1} \\ &= \gamma_0 + 2\frac{(T-1)}{T}\gamma_1 + 2\frac{(T-2)}{T}\gamma_2 + \cdots + 2\frac{1}{T}\gamma_{T-1} \\ &= \gamma_0 + 2 \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{T-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{T}\right) \gamma_j\end{aligned}$$

As $T \rightarrow \infty$, it can be shown that

$$\text{var}(\sqrt{T}\bar{y}) = \frac{1}{T}\mathbf{1}'\Gamma\mathbf{1} \rightarrow \gamma_0 + 2 \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j = \text{LRV}$$

Remark

Since $\gamma_j = \gamma_{-j}$, we may re-express $T^{-1}\mathbf{1}'\Gamma\mathbf{1}$ as

$$\frac{\mathbf{1}}{T}\mathbf{1}'\Gamma\mathbf{1} = \gamma_0 + \sum_{j=-(T-1)}^{T-1} \left(1 - \frac{|j|}{T}\right) \gamma_j$$

Then, an alternative representation for LRV is

$$\text{LRV} = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_j$$

Example: MA(1) Process

$$Y_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}, \quad |\theta| < 1$$
$$\varepsilon_t \sim \text{iid}(0, \sigma^2)$$

Recall

$$\psi(L) = 1 + \theta L, \quad \psi(1) = 1 + \theta$$
$$\gamma_0 = \sigma^2(1 + \theta^2), \quad \gamma_1 = \sigma^2\theta$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LRV} &= \gamma_0 + 2 \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j \\ &= \sigma^2(1 + \theta^2) + 2\sigma^2\theta = \sigma^2(1 + \theta)^2 \\ &= \sigma^2\psi(1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Remarks

1. If $\theta = 0$ then $\text{LRV} = \sigma^2(1 + \theta)^2 = \sigma^2\psi(1)^2 = \sigma^2$

2. If $\theta = -1$ then $\psi(1) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{LRV} = \sigma^2(1 + \theta)^2 = \sigma^2\psi(1)^2 = 0$

(a) This motivates the condition $\psi(1) \neq 0$ in the CLT for stationary and ergodic linear processes

Example: AR(1) Process

$$Y_t - \mu = \phi(Y_{t-1} - \mu) + \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{WN}(0, \sigma^2), \quad |\phi| < 1$$

$$E[Y_t] = \mu$$

Recall,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(L) &= (1 - \phi L)^{-1} \\ \gamma_0 &= \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \phi^2}, \quad \gamma_j = \phi^j \gamma_0 \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\text{LRV} = \sigma^2 \psi(1)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{(1 - \phi)^2}$$

Straightforward algebra gives

$$\begin{aligned}\text{LRV} &= \gamma_0 + 2 \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j \\ &= \gamma_0 + 2 \cdot \gamma_0 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \phi^j = \frac{\sigma^2}{(1 - \phi)^2}\end{aligned}$$

Remarks

1. $\text{LRV} = 0$ if $\phi = 0$
2. $\text{LRV} \rightarrow \infty$ as $\phi \rightarrow 1$

Estimating Long-Run Variance

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \mu + \psi(L)\varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{MDS}(0, \sigma^2) \\ \text{LRV} &= \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_j = \gamma_0 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j \\ &= \sigma^2 \psi(1)^2\end{aligned}$$

There are two types of estimators

- Parametric (assume a parametric model for y_t)
- Nonparametric (do not assume a parametric model for y_t)

Example: MA(1) process

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t &= \mu + \varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}, \quad |\theta| < 1 \\ &= \mu + \psi(L)\varepsilon_t, \quad \psi(L) = 1 + \theta L \\ &\quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{iid}(0, \sigma^2) \\ \text{LRV} &= \sigma^2(1 + \theta)^2 \end{aligned}$$

A parametric LRV estimate is

$$\widehat{\text{LRV}} = \hat{\sigma}^2(1 + \hat{\theta})^2, \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 \xrightarrow{p} \sigma^2, \quad \hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{p} \theta$$

Example: AR(p) process

$$Y_t = c + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t, \quad \phi_1 + \dots + \phi_p < 1, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{iid } (0, \sigma^2)$$

In lag operator notation we have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(L)Y_t &= c + \varepsilon_t, \quad \phi(L) = 1 - \phi_1 L - \dots - \phi_p L^p, \quad \phi(1) < 1 \\ Y_t &= \mu + \psi(L)\varepsilon_t, \quad \mu = \phi(1)^{-1}c, \quad \psi(L) = \phi(L)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\text{LRV} = \sigma^2 \psi(1)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{(1 - \phi_1 - \dots - \phi_p)^2}$$

A parametric LRV estimate is

$$\widehat{\text{LRV}} = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{(1 - \hat{\phi}_1 - \dots - \hat{\phi}_p)^2}$$

where $\hat{\phi}_1, \dots, \hat{\phi}_p$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ are the least squares estimates of ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_p and σ^2 , respectively.

Remarks

1. Parametric estimates require us to specify a model for y_t (e.g. ARMA(p,q) model)
2. For the parametric estimate, we only need consistent estimates for σ^2 and θ (e.g., GMM estimates or ML estimates) in order for \widehat{LRV} to be consistent
3. Parametric estimates are generally more efficient than non-parametric estimates provided they are based on the correct model
4. AR(p) models with $p \rightarrow \infty$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$ can approximate ARMA(p,q) model

For the general linear process

$$y_t = \mu + \psi(L)\varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{MDS}(0, \sigma^2)$$

a parametric estimator is not possible because $\psi(L) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j L^j$ has an infinite number of parameters.

A natural nonparametric estimator is the truncated sum of sample autocovariances

$$\widehat{\text{LRV}}_q = \hat{\gamma}_0 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^q \hat{\gamma}_j$$

q = truncation lag

Problems

1. How to pick q ?
2. q must grow with T in order for $\widehat{\text{LRV}}_q \xrightarrow{p} \text{LRV}$
3. $\widehat{\text{LRV}}_q$ can be negative in finite samples, particularly if q is close to T . This is due to Perceval's result

$$\sum_{j=1}^T \hat{\gamma}_j = 0$$

Kernel Based Estimators

These are nonparametric estimators of the form (Hayashi notation)

$$\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}} = \sum_{j=-(T-1)}^{T-1} \kappa\left(\frac{j}{q(T)}\right) \hat{\gamma}_j$$

where

$\kappa(\cdot)$ = kernel weight function

$q(T)$ = bandwidth (lag truncation) parameter

The kernel estimators are motivated by the result

$$\text{var} \left(\sqrt{T} \bar{y} \right) = \sum_{j=-(T-1)}^{T-1} \left(1 - \frac{|j|}{T} \right) \hat{\gamma}_j$$

which suggests

$$\kappa \left(\frac{j}{q(T)} \right) = \left(1 - \frac{|j|}{T} \right), \quad q(T) = T$$

However, kernel estimators with bandwidth = sample size, $q(T) = T$, have non-standard asymptotic behavior (see recent papers by Vogelsang) and typically $q(T) \ll T$ in most kernels.

Examples of Kernel Weight Functions

Truncated kernel

$$q(T) = q < T$$
$$\kappa(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } |x| \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } |x| > 1 \end{cases}$$

Note

$$\kappa\left(\left|\frac{j}{q}\right|\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } |j| \leq q \\ 0 & \text{for } |j| > q \end{cases}$$

Example: $q = 2$

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}^{Trunc} &= \sum_{j=-(T-1)}^{T-1} \kappa\left(\frac{j}{q(T)}\right) \hat{\gamma}_j = \sum_{j=-2}^2 \hat{\gamma}_j \\ &= \hat{\gamma}_{-2} + \hat{\gamma}_{-1} + \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\gamma}_1 + \hat{\gamma}_2 \\ &= \hat{\gamma}_0 + 2(\hat{\gamma}_1 + \hat{\gamma}_2)\end{aligned}$$

Remarks:

1. The bandwidth parameter $q(T) = q$ acts as a lag truncation parameter
2. Here, $\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}^{Trunc}$ is not guaranteed to be positive if q is close to T

Bartlett kernel

$$q(T) < T$$
$$\kappa(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - |x| & \text{for } |x| \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } |x| > 1 \end{cases}$$

$\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}$ computed with the Bartlett kernel gives the so-called Newey-West estimator.

Example: $q(T) = 3$

$$\kappa\left(\frac{j}{q(T)}\right) = \kappa\left(\frac{j}{3}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 - \left|\frac{j}{3}\right| & \text{for } |j| \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{for } |j| > 2 \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}^{\text{Bartlett}} &= \sum_{j=-(T-1)}^{T-1} \kappa\left(\frac{j}{q(T)}\right) \hat{\gamma}_j = \sum_{j=-2}^2 \left(1 - \frac{|j|}{3}\right) \hat{\gamma}_j \\ &= \frac{1}{3}\hat{\gamma}_{-2} + \frac{2}{3}\hat{\gamma}_{-1} + \hat{\gamma}_0 + \frac{2}{3}\hat{\gamma}_1 + \frac{1}{3}\hat{\gamma}_2 \\ &= \hat{\gamma}_0 + 2 \cdot \left[\frac{2}{3}\hat{\gamma}_1 + \frac{1}{3}\hat{\gamma}_2\right] \\ &= \hat{\gamma}_0 + 2 \cdot \sum_{j=1}^2 \left[1 - \frac{j}{3}\right] \hat{\gamma}_j\end{aligned}$$

Remarks

1. Use of the Bartlett kernel guarantees that $\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}^{\text{Bartlett}} > 0$ (See Newey and West, 1987 Ecta for a proof)

2. In order for $\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}^{\text{Bartlett}} \xrightarrow{p} \text{LRV}$, it must be the case that $q(T) \rightarrow \infty$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$. There is a bias-variance tradeoff. If $q(T) \rightarrow \infty$ too slowly then there will be bias; if $q(T) \rightarrow \infty$ too fast then there will be an increase in variance.

3. Andrews (1991) Ecta proved that if $q(T) \rightarrow \infty$ at rate $T^{1/3}$ then

$\text{MSE}(\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}^{\text{Bartlett}}, \text{LRV})$ will be minimized asymptotically.

Remarks continued

4. Andrews' result $q(T) \rightarrow \infty$ at rate $T^{1/3}$ suggests setting

$$q(T) = cT^{1/3}, \quad c = \text{some constant}$$

However, Andrews' result says nothing about what c should be. Hence, Andrews' result is not practically useful.

5. Many software programs use the following rule due to Newey and West (1987)

$$q(T) = \text{int} \left[4 \left(\frac{T}{100} \right)^{1/4} \right]$$

6. Andrews (1991) studied two other kernels - the Parzen kernel and the quadratic spectral (QS) kernel (these are commonly programmed into software).

He shows that $q(T) \rightarrow \infty$ at rate $T^{1/5}$ in order to asymptotically minimize $\text{MSE}(\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}, \text{LRV})$. He also showed that $\text{MSE}(\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{\text{ker}}^{QS}, \text{LRV})$ is the smallest among the different kernels.

Remarks continued

7. Newey and West (1994) Ecta gave Monte Carlo evidence that the choice of bandwidth, $q(T)$, is more important than the choice of kernel.

They suggested some data-based methods for automatically choosing $q(T)$. However, as discussed in den Haan and Levin (1997) these methods are not really automatic because they depend on an initial estimate of LRV and some pre-specified weights.

See Hall (2005), section 3.5 for more details.

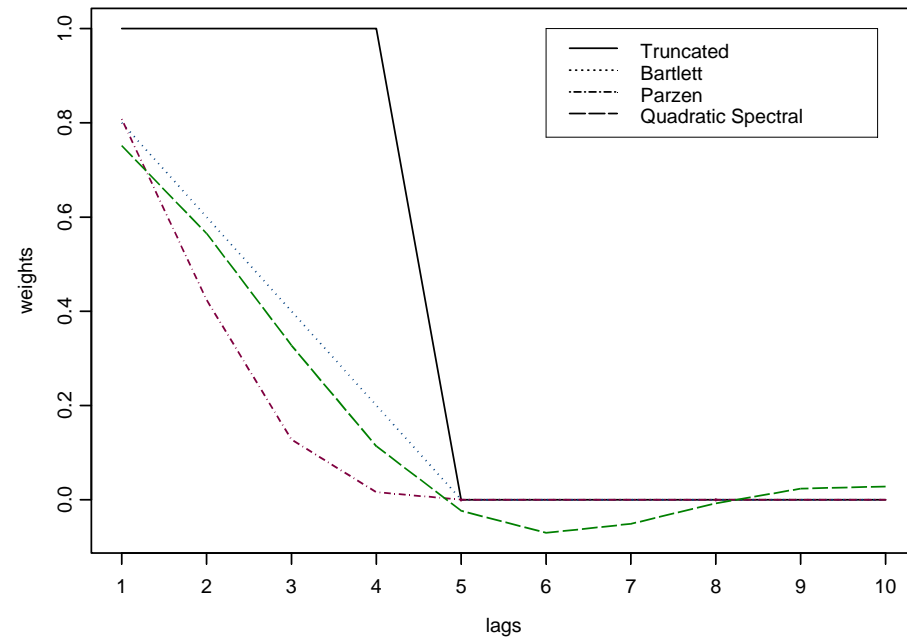


Figure 1: Common kernel functions.

Multivariate Time Series

Consider n time series variables $\{y_{1t}\}, \dots, \{y_{nt}\}$. A *multivariate time series* is the $(n \times 1)$ vector time series $\{\mathbf{Y}_t\}$ where the i^{th} row of $\{\mathbf{Y}_t\}$ is $\{y_{it}\}$. That is, for any time t , $\mathbf{Y}_t = (y_{1t}, \dots, y_{nt})'$.

Multivariate time series analysis is used when one wants to model and explain the interactions and co-movements among a group of time series variables:

- Consumption and income, Stock prices and dividends, forward and spot exchange rates
- interest rates, money growth, income, inflation
- GMM moment conditions ($\mathbf{g}_t = \mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t$)

Stationary and Ergodic Multivariate Time Series

A multivariate time series \mathbf{Y}_t is covariance stationary and ergodic if all of its component time series are stationary and ergodic.

$$\begin{aligned} E[\mathbf{Y}_t] &= \boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)' \\ \text{var}(\mathbf{Y}_t) &= \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_0 = E[(\mathbf{Y}_t - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{Y}_t - \boldsymbol{\mu})'] \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \text{var}(y_{1t}) & \text{cov}(y_{1t}, y_{2t}) & \cdots & \text{cov}(y_{1t}, y_{nt}) \\ \text{cov}(y_{2t}, y_{1t}) & \text{var}(y_{2t}) & \cdots & \text{cov}(y_{2t}, y_{nt}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{cov}(y_{nt}, y_{1t}) & \text{cov}(y_{nt}, y_{2t}) & \cdots & \text{var}(y_{nt}) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The correlation matrix of \mathbf{Y}_t is the $(n \times n)$ matrix

$$\text{corr}(\mathbf{Y}_t) = \mathbf{R}_0 = \mathbf{D}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_0 \mathbf{D}^{-1}$$

where \mathbf{D} is a diagonal matrix with j^{th} diagonal element $(\gamma_{jj}^0)^{1/2} = \text{var}(y_{jt})^{1/2}$.

The parameters μ , Γ_0 and \mathbf{R}_0 are estimated from data $(\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_T)$ using the sample moments

$$\bar{\mathbf{Y}} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{Y}_t \xrightarrow{p} E[\mathbf{Y}_t] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}_0 = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (\mathbf{Y}_t - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})(\mathbf{Y}_t - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})' \xrightarrow{p} \text{var}(\mathbf{Y}_t) = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_0$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{R}}_0 = \hat{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}_0 \hat{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \xrightarrow{p} \text{cor}(\mathbf{Y}_t) = \mathbf{R}_0$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{D}}$ is the $(n \times n)$ diagonal matrix with the sample standard deviations of y_{jt} along the diagonal.

The Ergodic Theorem justifies convergence of the sample moments to their population counterparts.

All of the lag k cross covariances and correlations are summarized in the $(n \times n)$ lag k cross covariance and lag k cross correlation matrices

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{\Gamma}_k &= E[(\mathbf{Y}_t - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{Y}_{t-k} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'] = \\ &\begin{pmatrix} \text{cov}(y_{1t}, y_{1t-k}) & \text{cov}(y_{1t}, y_{2t-k}) & \cdots & \text{cov}(y_{1t}, y_{nt-k}) \\ \text{cov}(y_{2t}, y_{1t-k}) & \text{cov}(y_{2t}, y_{2t-k}) & \cdots & \text{cov}(y_{2t}, y_{nt-k}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{cov}(y_{nt}, y_{1t-k}) & \text{cov}(y_{nt}, y_{2t-k}) & \cdots & \text{cov}(y_{nt}, y_{nt-k}) \end{pmatrix} \\ \mathbf{R}_k &= \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{\Gamma}_k \mathbf{D}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

The matrices $\mathbf{\Gamma}_k$ and \mathbf{R}_k are not symmetric in k but it is easy to show that $\mathbf{\Gamma}_{-k} = \mathbf{\Gamma}'_k$ and $\mathbf{R}_{-k} = \mathbf{R}'_k$.

The matrices $\mathbf{\Gamma}_k$ and \mathbf{R}_k are estimated from data $(\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_T)$ using

$$\hat{\mathbf{\Gamma}}_k = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=k+1}^T (\mathbf{Y}_t - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})(\mathbf{Y}_{t-k} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})'$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{R}}_k = \hat{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{\Gamma}}_k \hat{\mathbf{D}}^{-1}$$

Multivariate Wold Representation

Any $(n \times 1)$ covariance stationary multivariate time series \mathbf{Y}_t has a Wold or linear process representation of the form

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Y}_t &= \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t + \boldsymbol{\Psi}_1 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Psi}_2 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t-2} + \cdots \\ &= \boldsymbol{\mu} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t-k}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Psi}_0 = \mathbf{I}_n \\ &\quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \sim \text{WN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})\end{aligned}$$

$\boldsymbol{\Psi}_k$ is an $(n \times n)$ matrix with (i, j) th element ψ_{ij}^k .

In lag operator notation, the Wold form is

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Y}_t &= \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\Psi}(L)\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \\ \boldsymbol{\Psi}(L) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k L^k\end{aligned}$$

The moments of \mathbf{Y}_t are given by

$$\begin{aligned}E[\mathbf{Y}_t] &= \boldsymbol{\mu} \\ \text{var}(\mathbf{Y}_t) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k'\end{aligned}$$

Digression on Vector Autoregressive Models (VARs)

The most popular multivariate time series model is the *vector autoregressive* (VAR) model. The VAR model is a multivariate extension of the univariate autoregressive model. For example, a bivariate VAR(1) model has the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_{1t} \\ y_{2t} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \pi_{11}^1 & \pi_{12}^1 \\ \pi_{21}^1 & \pi_{22}^1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_{1t-1} \\ y_{2t-1} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{1t} \\ \varepsilon_{2t} \end{pmatrix}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} y_{1t} &= c_1 + \pi_{11}^1 y_{1t-1} + \pi_{12}^1 y_{2t-1} + \varepsilon_{1t} \\ y_{2t} &= c_2 + \pi_{21}^1 y_{1t-1} + \pi_{22}^1 y_{2t-1} + \varepsilon_{2t} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{1t} \\ \varepsilon_{2t} \end{pmatrix} \sim iid \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

The general VAR(p) model for $\mathbf{Y}_t = (y_{1t}, y_{2t}, \dots, y_{nt})'$ has the form

$$\mathbf{Y}_t = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{\Pi}_1 \mathbf{Y}_{t-1} + \mathbf{\Pi}_2 \mathbf{Y}_{t-2} + \dots + \mathbf{\Pi}_p \mathbf{Y}_{t-p} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$
$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \sim \text{iid}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

In lag operator notation, we have

$$\mathbf{\Pi}(L)\mathbf{Y}_t = \mathbf{c} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$
$$\mathbf{\Pi}(L) = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{\Pi}_1 L - \dots - \mathbf{\Pi}_p L^p$$

If

$$\det(\mathbf{\Pi}(z)) = 0$$

has all roots outside the complex unit circle then \mathbf{Y}_t is covariance stationary and ergodic and the Wold representation for Y_t can be found by “inverting” the VAR polynomial

$$\mathbf{Y}_t = \mathbf{\Pi}(L)^{-1} (\mathbf{c} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t) = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\Psi}(L)\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

Long Run Variance

Let \mathbf{Y}_t be an $(n \times 1)$ stationary and ergodic multivariate time series with $E[\mathbf{Y}_t] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$. Phillips and Solo's CLT for linear processes states that

$$\sqrt{T}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \xrightarrow{d} N(\mathbf{0}, \text{LRV})$$
$$\text{LRV}_{(n \times n)} = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_j = \boldsymbol{\Psi}(1)\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{\Psi}(1)'$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Psi}(1) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k$$

Since $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{-j} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}'_j$, LRV may be alternatively expressed as

$$\text{LRV} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_j + \boldsymbol{\Gamma}'_j)$$

Parametric Estimate of Long Run Variance Using VAR(p) Model

Consider estimating the LRV matrix for $\mathbf{Y}_t = (y_{1t}, y_{2t}, \dots, y_{nt})'$ assuming \mathbf{Y}_t follows a stationary VAR(p) model

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{\Pi}(L)\mathbf{Y}_t &= \mathbf{c} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \\ \mathbf{\Pi}(L) &= \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{\Pi}_1 L - \dots - \mathbf{\Pi}_p L^p \\ \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t &\sim \text{iid}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})\end{aligned}$$

Using the Wold form

$$\mathbf{Y}_t = \mathbf{\Pi}(L)^{-1}(\mathbf{c} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t) = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\Psi}(L)\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{LRV}_{VAR} &= \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_j = \boldsymbol{\Psi}(1)\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{\Psi}(1)' = \boldsymbol{\Pi}(1)^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{\Pi}(1)^{-1'} \\ &\quad \text{(}n \times n\text{)} \\ \boldsymbol{\Pi}(1) &= \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{\Pi}_1 - \dots - \mathbf{\Pi}_p\end{aligned}$$

Estimated LRV

The VAR model parameters can be estimated by least squares equation by equation, and the residual covariance matrix can be estimated using

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma &= \frac{1}{T} \sum \hat{\varepsilon}_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t' \\ \hat{\varepsilon}_t &= (\hat{\varepsilon}_{1t}, \dots, \hat{\varepsilon}_{nt})' \\ \hat{\varepsilon}_{jt} &= \text{OLS residual from } j\text{th equation}\end{aligned}$$

Then the estimated LRV has the form

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{VAR} &= \hat{\Pi}(1)^{-1} \hat{\Sigma} \hat{\Pi}(1)^{-1'} \\ &\quad (n \times n) \\ \hat{\Pi}(1) &= \mathbf{I}_n - \hat{\Pi}_1 - \dots - \hat{\Pi}_p\end{aligned}$$

Non-parametric Estimate of the Long-Run Variance

A consistent estimate of LRV may be computed using non-parametric methods. A popular estimator is the Newey-West weighted autocovariance estimator based on Bartlett weights

$$\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{NW} = \hat{\Gamma}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{q(T)-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{q(T)}\right) \cdot (\hat{\Gamma}_j + \hat{\Gamma}'_j)$$
$$\hat{\Gamma}_j = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T (\mathbf{Y}_t - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})(\mathbf{Y}_{t-j} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})'$$
$$q(T) = \text{bandwidth}$$

Remark: $\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{NW}$ is often denoted $\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}$, where HAC denotes “heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent”.

Regression Model With Autocorrelated Errors

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \mathbf{x}'_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_0 + \varepsilon_t, t = 1, \dots, T \\ E[\mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t] &= \mathbf{0} \\ \varepsilon_t &\text{ is autocorrelated}\end{aligned}$$

OLS gives

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}} - \boldsymbol{\delta}_0 = \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t$$

Remarks:

1. Previously, we assumed that $\mathbf{g}_t = \mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t$ was a MDS so that g_t is an uncorrelated process
2. Now we allow \mathbf{g}_t to be autocorrelated so it is not a MDS

Assume $\{\mathbf{g}_t\} = \{\mathbf{x}_t\varepsilon_t\}$ is a mean zero, 1-summable linear process

$$\mathbf{g}_t = \Psi(L)\eta_t, \quad \eta_t \sim \text{MDS}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$$

satisfying the Phillips-Solo CLT with long-run variance

$$\mathbf{S} = \text{LRV} = \Gamma_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (\Gamma_j + \Gamma_j') = \Psi(1)\Sigma\Psi(1)'$$

$$\Gamma_0 = E[\mathbf{g}_t\mathbf{g}_t'] = E[\mathbf{x}_t\mathbf{x}_t'\varepsilon_t^2], \quad \Gamma_j = E[\mathbf{g}_t\mathbf{g}_{t-j}'] = E[\mathbf{x}_t\mathbf{x}_{t-j}'\varepsilon_t\varepsilon_{t-j}]$$

Then

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t\varepsilon_t \xrightarrow{d} N(\mathbf{0}, \text{LRV})$$

Asymptotics for OLS under Autocorrelated Errors

Consistency:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}} - \boldsymbol{\delta}_0 = \left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t' \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t \xrightarrow{p} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx}^{-1} \times 0 = 0$$

Asymptotic Distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{T} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}} - \boldsymbol{\delta}_0) &= \left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t' \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t \\ &\xrightarrow{d} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx}^{-1} \times N(\mathbf{0}, \text{LRV}) \equiv N(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx}^{-1} \text{LRV} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx}^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Here,

$$\text{avar}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}) = \frac{1}{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx}^{-1} \text{LRV} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx}^{-1}$$

A consistent estimate for $\text{avar}(\hat{\delta})$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\text{avar}}(\hat{\delta}) &= \frac{1}{T} \mathbf{S}_{xx}^{-1} \widehat{\text{LRV}}_{NW} \mathbf{S}_{xx}^{-1} \\ \widehat{\text{LRV}}_{NW} &= \hat{\Gamma}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{q(T)-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{q(T)}\right) \cdot (\hat{\Gamma}_j + \hat{\Gamma}'_j) \\ \hat{\Gamma}_j &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T \mathbf{g}_t \mathbf{g}'_{t-j} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_{t-j} \hat{\varepsilon}_t \hat{\varepsilon}_{t-j} \\ \hat{\varepsilon}_t &= y_t - \mathbf{x}'_t \hat{\delta} = \text{OLS residual}\end{aligned}$$

Remark

$$\text{SE}_{NW}(\hat{\delta}_i) = \left(\frac{1}{T} \mathbf{S}_{xx}^{-1} \widehat{\text{LRV}}_{NW} \mathbf{S}_{xx}^{-1} \right)_{ii}^{1/2} = \text{Newey-West standard error}$$

Single Equation Linear GMM with Serial Correlation

$$y_t = \mathbf{z}'_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_0 + \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$

$$\mathbf{z}_t = L \times 1 \text{ vector of explanatory variables}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\delta}_0 = L \times 1 \text{ vector of unknown coefficients}$$

$$\varepsilon_t = \text{random error term}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_t = K \times 1 \text{ vector of exogenous instruments}$$

Moment Conditions and identification for General Model

$$\mathbf{g}_t(\mathbf{w}_t, \boldsymbol{\delta}_0) = \mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t = \mathbf{x}_t (y_t - \mathbf{z}'_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_0)$$

$$E[\mathbf{g}_t(\mathbf{w}_t, \boldsymbol{\delta}_0)] = E[\mathbf{x}_t \varepsilon_t] = E[\mathbf{x}_t (y_t - \mathbf{z}'_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_0)] = \mathbf{0}$$

$$E[\mathbf{g}_t(\mathbf{w}_t, \boldsymbol{\delta})] \neq \mathbf{0} \text{ for } \boldsymbol{\delta} \neq \boldsymbol{\delta}_0$$

Serially Correlated Moments

It is assumed that $\{\mathbf{g}_t\} = \{\mathbf{x}_t\varepsilon_t\}$ is a mean zero, 1-summable linear process

$$\mathbf{g}_t = \Psi(L)\varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{MDS}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$$

satisfying the Phillips-Solo CLT with long-run variance

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{S} &= \text{LRV} = \Gamma_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (\Gamma_j + \Gamma_j') = \Psi(1)\Sigma\Psi(1)' \\ \Gamma_0 &= E[\mathbf{g}_t\mathbf{g}_t'] = E[\mathbf{x}_t\mathbf{x}_t'\varepsilon_t^2] \\ \Gamma_j &= E[\mathbf{g}_t\mathbf{g}_{t-j}'] = E[\mathbf{x}_t\mathbf{x}_{t-j}'\varepsilon_t\varepsilon_{t-j}] \end{aligned}$$

Estimation of LRV

LRV is typically estimated using the Newey-West estimator (kernel estimator with Bartlett kernel)

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{NW} &= \hat{\Gamma}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{q(T)-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{q(T)}\right) \cdot (\hat{\Gamma}_j + \hat{\Gamma}'_j) \\ \hat{\Gamma}_0 &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T \mathbf{g}_t \mathbf{g}'_t = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t^2 \\ \hat{\Gamma}_j &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T \mathbf{g}_t \mathbf{g}'_{t-j} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_{t-j} \hat{\varepsilon}_t \hat{\varepsilon}_{t-j} \\ \hat{\varepsilon}_t &= y_t - \mathbf{z}'_t \hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}, \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}} \xrightarrow{p} \boldsymbol{\delta}_0\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}(\mathbf{W}), \quad \mathbf{W} = \text{arbitrary 1st step weight matrix}$$

Efficient GMM

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\delta}(\widehat{\text{LRV}}_{NW}^{-1}) &= \hat{\delta}(\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}^{-1}) = \arg \min_{\delta} J(\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}^{-1}, \delta) \\ &= \arg \min_{\delta} n \mathbf{g}_n(\delta)' \hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}^{-1} \mathbf{g}_n(\delta) \\ &\Rightarrow \hat{\delta}(\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}^{-1}) = (\mathbf{S}'_{xz} \hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}^{-1} \mathbf{S}_{xz})^{-1} \mathbf{S}'_{xz} \hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}^{-1} \mathbf{S}_{xy}\end{aligned}$$

As with GMM with heteroskedastic errors, the following efficient GMM estimators can be computed

1. 2-step efficient
2. Iterated efficient
3. Continuously-Updated (CU)

Note: the CU estimator solves

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\delta}(\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC, CU}}^{-1}) &= \arg \min_{\delta} n \mathbf{g}_n(\delta)' \hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}^{-1}(\delta) \mathbf{g}_n(\delta) \\ \hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\text{HAC}}(\delta) &= \hat{\Gamma}_0(\delta) \\ &+ \sum_{j=1}^{q(T)-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{q(T)}\right) \cdot (\hat{\Gamma}_j(\delta) + \hat{\Gamma}'_j(\delta))\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\Gamma}_j(\delta) &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=j+1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_{t-j} \varepsilon_t(\delta) \varepsilon_{t-j}(\delta) \\ \varepsilon_t(\delta) &= y_t - \mathbf{z}'_t \delta\end{aligned}$$

This can be quite numerically unstable!