

A Primer in Econometric Theory

Lecture 12: Large Samples and Dependence

John Stachurski

Lectures by Akshay Shanker

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Large Sample Least Squares

Large samples allow us to drop parametric assumptions on the error term we made for finite sample inference

Theory developed below also useful for cross-sectional environments with no correlation between observations

Assume data $(y_1, \mathbf{x}_1), \dots, (y_T, \mathbf{x}_T)$ generated by the linear model

$$y_t = \mathbf{x}_t^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + u_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T \quad (1)$$

- $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is a K -vector of unknown coefficients, and u_t is an unobservable shock
- observations indexed by t rather than n to remind us that observations are dependent
- sample size will be denoted by T

Let:

- \mathbf{y} be the $T \times 1$ vector of observed outputs
- y_t is the t th element of \mathbf{y}
- \mathbf{u} is the vector of shocks
- u_t is the t th element of \mathbf{u}

Let \mathbf{X} be the $T \times K$ matrix $\mathbf{X} := (x_{tk})$, where $1 \leq t \leq T$ and $1 \leq k \leq K$

Estimate the parameter vector β via least squares

The OLS estimate:

$$\hat{\beta}_T = \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t y_t$$

Expression for the sampling error in (12.4) can be expanded into sums to obtain

$$\hat{\beta}_T - \beta = \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t u_t \quad (2)$$

Drop the exogeneity assumption $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u} \mid \mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{0}$

For example, exogeneity fails when we estimate AR(1) model

$$y_{t+1} = \beta y_t + u_{t+1}$$

Setting $x_t = y_{t-1}$ produces the regression model

$$y_t = \beta x_t + u_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$

Regressor correlated with lagged values of the shock

Assumption.(13.1.1) The matrix \mathbf{X} is full column rank with probability one and the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}_t\}$ is stationary. Moreover

1. $\Sigma_{\mathbf{x}} := \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^{\top}]$ exists and is positive definite, and
2. the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}_t\}$ satisfies $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^{\top} \xrightarrow{p} \Sigma_{\mathbf{x}}$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$.

Example. Let $\{x_t\}$ be the Markov process in example 7.2.11

To repeat

$$x_{t+1} = a|x_t| + (1 - a^2)^{1/2}w_{t+1}$$

$$\text{with } -1 < a < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \{w_t\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, 1)$$

The model has a unique, globally stable stationary distribution π_∞

If $\mathcal{L}(x_0) = \pi_\infty$, then the process $\{x_t\}$ is stationary and all of the conditions in assumption 13.1.1 are satisfied (see ex. 13.4.3)

Assumption.(13.1.2)[Weak exogeneity]

The shocks $\{u_t\}$ are IID

Moreover

1. $\mathbb{E}[u_t] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[u_t^2] = \sigma^2$ for all t , and
2. u_t is independent of $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t$ for all t

Example. (13.1.2) In the AR(1) regression (6), assumption 13.1.2 holds if shocks $\{u_t\}$ are IID

- contemporaneous and lagged regressors x_1, \dots, x_t are equal to the lagged state variables y_0, \dots, y_{t-1}
- y_0, \dots, y_{t-1} are functions of only y_0 and u_1, \dots, u_{t-1} , and therefore independent of u_t

A consequence of assumption 13.1.2

$$\mathbb{E}[u_s u_t \mid \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t] = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & \text{if } s = t \\ 0 & \text{if } s < t \end{cases}$$

The proof is an exercise (ex. 13.4.4)

Implication of assumptions 13.1.1 and 13.1.2: linear functions of $\{\mathbf{x}_t u_t\}$ form a martingale difference sequence (MDS)

Lemma. (13.1.1) if assumptions 13.1.1 and 13.1.2 both hold, then, for any constant vector $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^K$, the sequence $\{m_t\}$ defined by $m_t = \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t u_t$ is

1. stationary with $\mathbb{E}[m_t^2] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{a}$ for all t , and
2. an MDS with respect to the filtration defined by

$$\mathcal{F}_t := \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}, u_1, \dots, u_t\}$$

Proof.

First let's check part 1.

That $\{m_t\}$ is stationary follows from the assumption that $\{u_t\}$ and $\{\mathbf{x}_t\}$ are stationary

Regarding the second moment $\mathbb{E}[m_1^2]$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[m_1^2] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[u_1^2(\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_1)^2 \mid \mathbf{x}_1]] = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_1)^2 \mathbb{E}[u_1^2 \mid \mathbf{x}_1]]$$

From independence of u_1 and \mathbf{x}_1 , the inner expectation is σ^2

Moreover

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_1)^2 &= \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^\top \mathbf{a} \\ \therefore \mathbb{E}[m_1^2] &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^\top \mathbf{a} \sigma^2] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^\top] \mathbf{a} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{a}\end{aligned}$$

To check part 2., note $\{m_t\}$ is adapted to $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}$, since $m_t := u_t \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t$ is a function of variables in \mathcal{F}_t

Moreover we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[m_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t] &= \mathbb{E}[u_{t+1} \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t] = \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_{t+1} \mathbb{E}[u_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t] \\ &= \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_{t+1} \mathbb{E}[u_{t+1}] = 0\end{aligned}$$

This confirms $\{m_t\}$ is an MDS with respect to $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}$

Consistency

Under the conditions of §13.1.1, the OLS estimator $\hat{\beta}_T$ is consistent for β :

Theorem. (13.1.1) If assumptions 13.1.1 and 13.1.2 hold, then

$$\hat{\beta}_T \xrightarrow{p} \beta \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof. Recall equation (13.2):

$$\hat{\beta}_T - \beta = \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t u_t$$

We show the expression on the right-hand converges in probability to $\mathbf{0}$

First, let's show $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t u_t \xrightarrow{p} \mathbf{0}$. In view of fact 6.1.1, it suffices to show that, for any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^K$,

$$\mathbf{a}^\top \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t u_t \right] \xrightarrow{p} \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{0} = 0 \quad (3)$$

Define $m_t := \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t u_t$. The left-hand side of (3) can be written as $T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T m_t$

Proof.(cont.) Since $\{m_t\}$ is a stationary MDS (lemma 13.1.1), the convergence $T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T m_t \xrightarrow{p} 0$ follows from Theorem 7.3.1

Return to the expression on the right-hand side of (13.2)

By assumption 13.1.1 and fact 6.2.1, we see that

$$\left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \xrightarrow{p} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x^{-1} \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty \quad (4)$$

Appealing to fact 6.2.1 once more, we obtain

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T - \boldsymbol{\beta} = \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T u_t \mathbf{x}_t \xrightarrow{p} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x^{-1} \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$$

Theorem. (13.1.2) If assumptions 13.1.1 and 13.1.2 hold, then

$$\hat{\sigma}_T^2 \xrightarrow{p} \sigma^2 \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof. By the definition of $\hat{\sigma}_T^2$ and the linear model assumption 1,

$$\hat{\sigma}_T^2 = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (y_t - \mathbf{x}_t^\top \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T)^2 = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \left[u_t + \mathbf{x}_t^\top (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T) \right]^2$$

Proof.(cont.) Expand out the square

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\sigma}_T^2 &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T u_t^2 + 2(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T)^\top \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t u_t \\ &\quad + (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T)^\top \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right] (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T)\end{aligned}$$

By assumption 13.1.2 and the law of large numbers, the first term on the right-hand side converges in probability to σ^2

Show the second and third term converge in probability to zero as $T \rightarrow \infty$ — exercise using convergence results we have already established (refer to fact 6.2.1)

Asymptotic Normality

Theorem. (13.1.3) If assumptions 13.1.1 and 13.1.2 hold, then

$$\sqrt{T}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \xrightarrow{d} N\left(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x^{-1}\right) \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof. Expression (2) gives

$$\sqrt{T}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T - \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \cdot T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T u_t \mathbf{x}_t$$

Let \mathbf{z} be a random variable satisfying $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}) = N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x)$

Proof.(cont.)

Suppose we can show

$$T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T u_t \mathbf{x}_t \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{z} \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty \quad (5)$$

If (5) is valid, then, applying assumption 13.1.1 along with fact 6.2.2, we obtain

$$\sqrt{T}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_T - \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \cdot T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T u_t \mathbf{x}_t \xrightarrow{d} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x^{-1} \mathbf{z}$$

Proof.(cont.)

Clearly $\Sigma_x^{-1}\mathbf{z}$ is Gaussian with zero mean

By symmetry of Σ_x^{-1} (since Σ_x is symmetric) the variance of $\Sigma_x^{-1}\mathbf{z}$ is

$$\Sigma_x^{-1} \text{var}[\mathbf{z}] \Sigma_x^{-1} = \Sigma_x^{-1} \sigma^2 \Sigma_x \Sigma_x^{-1} = \sigma^2 \Sigma_x^{-1}$$

This completes the proof of theorem 13.1.3, conditional on (5)

Let's now check that (5) is valid

By the Cramér–Wold device (fact 6.1.6), suffices to show that for any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^K$, we have

$$\mathbf{a}^\top \left[T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T u_t \mathbf{x}_t \right] \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{z} \quad (6)$$

Proof.(cont.) Fix \mathbf{a} and let $m_t := u_t \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t$; the expression on the left of (6) can be rewritten as

$$T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T m_t$$

Since $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{\Sigma}_x)$, to establish (6) we need to show

$$T^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^T m_t \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{a}) \quad (7)$$

From lemma 13.1.1, we know $\{m_t\}$ is stationary with $\mathbb{E}[m_t^2] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{a}$ and an MDS with respect to the filtration given in (2)

Proof.(cont.)

By the martingale difference CLT, (7) holds whenever

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E} [m_t^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] \xrightarrow{p} \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \Sigma_x \mathbf{a} \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty \quad (8)$$

Since $\mathbf{x}_t \in \mathcal{F}_{t-1}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} [m_t^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] &= \mathbb{E} [u_t^2 (\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t)^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] \\ &= (\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t)^2 \mathbb{E} [u_t^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Proof.(cont.)

Another way to write the last expression is $\sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \mathbf{a}$

The left-hand side of (8) is therefore

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E}[m_t^2 | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (\sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \mathbf{a}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right] \mathbf{a}$$

which converges in probability to $\sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^\top \Sigma_x \mathbf{a}$ by assumption 13.1.1 and fact 6.2.1

This verifies (8), completing the proof \square

Example. Consider again the scalar linear Gaussian AR(1) model $x_{t+1} = ax_t + w_{t+1}$ with $|a| < 1$ and $\{w_t\}$ IID and standard normal

Let $\{x_t\}$ be stationary

As discussed in §12.2.2, the OLS estimator of a is

$$\hat{a}_T := \frac{\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}} \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{y} := (x_1, \dots, x_T) \text{ and } \mathbf{x} := (x_0, \dots, x_{T-1})$$

Both assumption 13.1.1 and assumption 13.1.2 are satisfied, so $\sqrt{T}(\hat{a}_T - a)$ converges in distribution to $N(0, \sigma^2 \Sigma_x^{-1})$

Example. (cont.) In this case, $\sigma^2 = 1$ because the shocks are standard normal

Furthermore Σ_x^{-1} reduces to $1/\mathbb{E}[x_1^2]$, where the expectation is under the stationary distribution

The stationary distribution is $N(0, 1/(1 - a^2))$ (recall our discussion in chapter 7 of ET, particularly surrounding Equation (7.18))

Hence the inverse of $\mathbb{E}[x_1^2]$ is $1 - a^2$, and

$$\sqrt{T}(\hat{a}_T - a) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1 - a^2) \quad (9)$$

Large Sample Tests

In the large sample setting, the hypothesis to be tested:

$$H_0: \beta_k = \beta_k^0$$

Recall if the error terms are normally distributed, then the expression $(\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k) / \text{se}(\hat{\beta}_k)$ is t -distributed with $N - K$ degrees of freedom

- in the large sample case, we can use the CLT to show the same statistic is asymptotically normal

Theorem. (13.1.4) Let assumptions 13.1.1 and 13.1.2 hold, and let

$$\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_k^T) := \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_T^2 v_k(\mathbf{X})}$$

Under the null hypothesis H_0 , we have

$$z_k^T := \frac{\hat{\beta}_k^T - \beta_k^0}{\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_k^T)} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty \quad (10)$$

Proof. Recall from theorem 13.1.3 that $\sqrt{T}(\hat{\beta}_T - \beta) \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{z}$, where \mathbf{z} is a random vector with distribution $N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \Sigma_{\mathbf{x}}^{-1})$ and β is the true parameter vector

Hence

$$\sqrt{T}(\hat{\beta}_k^T - \beta_k) = \mathbf{e}_k^T [\sqrt{T}(\hat{\beta}_T - \beta)] \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{e}_k^T \mathbf{z}$$

The distribution of $\mathbf{e}_k^T \mathbf{z}$ is $N(0, \mathbf{e}_k^T \text{var}[\mathbf{z}] \mathbf{e}_k) = N(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{e}_k^T \Sigma_{\mathbf{x}}^{-1} \mathbf{e}_k)$, so

$$\frac{\sqrt{T}(\hat{\beta}_k^T - \beta_k)}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \mathbf{e}_k^T \Sigma_{\mathbf{x}}^{-1} \mathbf{e}_k}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) \quad (11)$$

Proof.(cont.) Since

$$\left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \xrightarrow{p} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{x}}^{-1} \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty$$

Now refer to our rules for convergence of random matrices, in particular, 5. of fact 6.2.1. We have

$$Tv_k(\mathbf{X}) = T \mathbf{e}_k^\top (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{e}_k = \mathbf{e}_k^\top \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^\top \right]^{-1} \mathbf{e}_k \xrightarrow{p} \mathbf{e}_k^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{x}}^{-1} \mathbf{e}_k$$

By theorem 13.1.2 we have $\hat{\sigma}_T^2 \xrightarrow{p} \sigma^2$, and hence

$$\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_T^2 Tv_k(\mathbf{X})} \xrightarrow{p} \sqrt{\sigma^2 \mathbf{e}_k^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{x}}^{-1} \mathbf{e}_k}$$

Proof.(cont.) Combine the above with (11) to arrive at

$$\frac{\sqrt{T}(\hat{\beta}_k^T - \beta_k)}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_T^2 T v_k(\mathbf{X})}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$$

Assuming H_0 and canceling \sqrt{T} gives (10) \square

MLE for Markov Processes

Now turn to nonlinear estimation in a time series setting, using maximum likelihood

Consider a Markov process. Suppose:

- transition density p_{θ} depends on some unknown parameter vector $\theta \in \Theta$
- process has a unique stationary density π_{∞}^{θ} for all θ , and that \mathbf{x}_1 is a draw from this stationary density

Log-likelihood function

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \ln \pi_{\infty}^{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_1) + \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \ln p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_t)$$

In practice drop the first term in this expression

- influence of a single element is likely to be negligible

Abusing notation slightly, write

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \ln p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_t) \quad (12)$$

The ARCH Case

Recall the ARCH model

Suppose $x_t = \sigma_t w_t$ where $\sigma_{t+1}^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_t^2$

Combining these equations:

$$x_{t+1} = (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_t^2)^{1/2} w_{t+1} \quad \text{with} \quad \{w_t\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, 1) \quad (13)$$

where $\alpha_0 > 0$, $\alpha_1 \geq 0$

By (12), the log-likelihood function is

$$\ell(a, b) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi(a + bx_t^2)) - \frac{x_{t+1}^2}{2(a + bx_t^2)} \right\} \quad (14)$$

Rearranging, dropping terms that don't depend on a or b , and multiplying by 2 (an increasing transformation), rewrite as

$$\ell(a, b) = - \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \left\{ \ln z_t + \frac{x_{t+1}^2}{z_t} \right\} \quad \text{where} \quad z_t := a + bx_t^2 \quad (15)$$

Solution method

- no analytical expressions for the MLEs
- need to use numerical routines — R's inbuilt optimization routines

Sequence of observations x_1, \dots, x_T stored in a vector `xdata`

the function `arch_like` can be optimized numerically via the commands:

```
start_theta <- c(0.65, 0.35) # An initial guess of (a,b)
neg_like <- function(theta) {
  return(-arch_like(theta, xdata))
}
opt <- optim(start_theta, neg_like, method="BFGS")
```

Code to define function `arch_like` and simulate observations on following slide

```
arch_like <- function(theta, data) {  
  Y <- data[-1]           # All but first element  
  X <- data[-length(data)] # All but last element  
  Z <- theta[1] + theta[2] * X^2  
  return(-sum(log(Z) + Y^2 / Z))  
}
```

```
sim_data <- function(a, b, n=500) {  
  x <- numeric(n)  
  x[1] = 0  
  w = rnorm(n)  
  for (t in 1:(n-1)) {  
    x[t+1] = sqrt(a + b * x[t]^2) * w[t]  
  }  
  return(x)  
}
```

```
xdata <- sim_data(0.5, 0.5) # True parameters
```

The Newton–Raphson Algorithm

The Newton–Raphson algorithm is a *root-finding* algorithm

- given a function $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the algorithm searches for points $\bar{s} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $g(\bar{s}) = 0$

Optimize differentiable functions

- for differentiable functions, interior optimizers are always roots of the objective function's first derivative

Let

- $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- s_0 be some initial point in \mathbb{R} that we think (hope) is somewhere near a root

We know how to move to the root of the function that forms the *tangent line* to g at s_0

Replace g with its linear approximation around s_0 , given by

$$\tilde{g}(s) := g(s_0) + g'(s_0)(s - s_0) \quad (s \in \mathbb{R})$$

and solve for the root of \tilde{g}

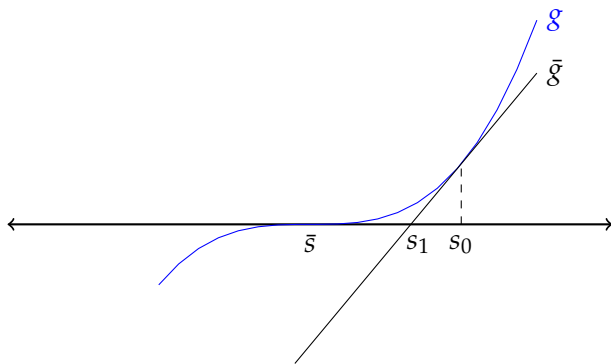


Figure: First step of the Newton–Raphson algorithm

Next guess of the root $s_1 := s_0 - g(s_0)/g'(s_0)$

Procedure is repeated, taking the tangent of g at s_1

Generates a sequence of points $\{s_k\}$ satisfying

$$s_{k+1} = s_k - \frac{g(s_k)}{g'(s_k)}$$

Various results telling us that when g is suitably well-behaved and s_0 is sufficiently close to a given root \bar{s} , then sequence $\{s_k\}$ will converge to \bar{s}

In practical situations we often have no way of knowing whether the conditions are satisfied, and there have been many attempts to make the procedure more robust

The R optimization routine described above is a child of this process

Optimization

Suppose $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a twice differentiable function we wish to maximize

If s^* is a maximizer of g , then $g'(s^*) = 0$

Apply the Newton–Raphson algorithm to g' , giving the sequence

$$s_{k+1} = s_k - \frac{g'(s_k)}{g''(s_k)}$$

Multivariate case: suppose g is twice differentiable and $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

The **gradient vector** and **Hessian** of g at $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ are defined as

$$\nabla g(x, y) := \begin{pmatrix} g'_1(x, y) \\ g'_2(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\nabla^2 g(x, y) := \begin{pmatrix} g''_{11}(x, y) & g''_{12}(x, y) \\ g''_{21}(x, y) & g''_{22}(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

Here g'_i is the first partial of g with respect to its i th argument, g''_{ij} is the second cross-partial, and so on

Newton–Raphson algorithm generates the sequence $\{(x_k, y_k)\}$ defined by

$$(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) = (x_k, y_k) - [\nabla^2 g(x_k, y_k)]^{-1} \nabla g(x_k, y_k)$$

from some initial guess (x_0, y_0)

(Assuming the Hessian matrix is nonsingular)

Consider maximization of the log-likelihood function for the ARCH model — Equation (15) above

Let z_t be as defined in (15)

The first partials are

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial a}(a, b) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \left[\frac{x_{t+1}^2}{z_t^2} - \frac{1}{z_t} \right], \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial b}(a, b) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} x_t^2 \left[\frac{x_{t+1}^2}{z_t^2} - \frac{1}{z_t} \right]$$

The second partials are

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial a^2}(a, b) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \left[\frac{1}{z_t^2} - 2 \frac{x_{t+1}^2}{z_t^3} \right]$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial b^2}(a, b) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} x_t^4 \left[\frac{1}{z_t^2} - 2 \frac{x_{t+1}^2}{z_t^3} \right]$$

The cross-partial is

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial a \partial b}(a, b) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} x_t^2 \left[\frac{1}{z_t^2} - 2 \frac{x_{t+1}^2}{z_t^3} \right]$$

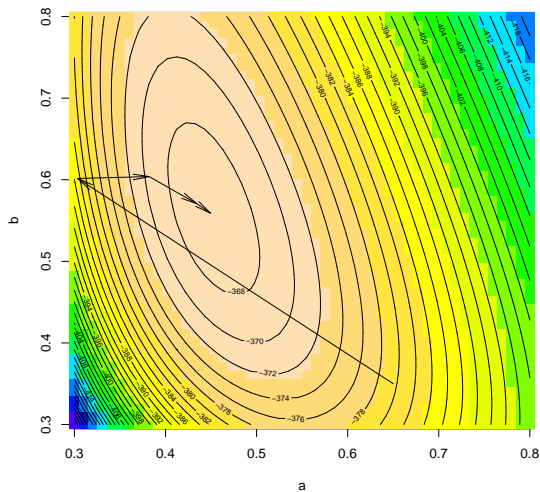


Figure: Newton–Raphson iterates