

Extracting a Common Stochastic Trend: Theory with Some Applications¹

Yoosoon Chang²

J. Isaac Miller³

and

Joon Y. Park⁴

Abstract

This paper investigates the statistical properties of estimators of the parameters and unobserved series for state space models with integrated time series. In particular, we derive the full asymptotic results for maximum likelihood estimation using the Kalman filter for a prototypical class of such models – those with a single latent common stochastic trend. Indeed, we establish the consistency and asymptotic mixed normality of the maximum likelihood estimator and show that the conventional method of inference is valid for this class of models. The models we explicitly consider comprise a special – yet useful – class of models that may be employed to extract the common stochastic trend from multiple integrated time series. Such models can be very useful to obtain indices that represent fluctuations of various markets or common latent factors that affect a set of economic and financial variables simultaneously. Moreover, our derivation of the asymptotics of this class makes it clear that the asymptotic Gaussianity and the validity of the conventional inference for the maximum likelihood procedure extends to a larger class of more general state space models involving integrated time series. Finally, we demonstrate the utility of this class of models extracting a common stochastic trend from three sets of time series involving short- and long-term interest rates, stock return volatility and trading volume, and Dow Jones stock prices.

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²Department of Economics, Texas A&M University.

³Department of Economics, University of Missouri.

⁴Department of Economics, Texas A&M University and Sungkyunkwan University.

1. Introduction

The Kalman filter is a very widely used modeling tools – not only in econometrics and finance, but also in such diverse fields as artificial intelligence, aeronautical engineering, and many others. Under linear, Gaussian, and stationary assumptions, the asymptotic properties of maximum likelihood (ML) estimators based on the filter are well-known. If linearity is violated, then the extended Kalman filter is a standard alternative. If Gaussianity is violated, then ML estimation is instead pseudo-ML estimation. As long as the conditional distribution of the state (or transition) equation has a finite second moment, then the filter retains some of its optimal properties. See Caines (1988) and Hamilton (1994) for the statistical properties of the filter and the ML procedure. The filter seems to generate reasonable parameter estimates even when the distributions have thick tails, as illustrated by Miller and Park (2004).

In this paper, we focus mainly on a violation of stationarity. Many empirical analyses in the literature use nonstationary data or assume a nonstationary unobservable variable or vector. The reader is referred to Kim and Nelson (1999) for an excellent survey and many concrete examples. The properties of the Kalman filter under such assumptions, however, are not well-known. To the best of our knowledge, no formal theory has yet been developed for the Kalman filter applied to models with nonstationary time series. Moving from stationary to nonstationary processes in any model calls into question rates of convergence of the parameter estimates, if not the parameter estimates themselves. Moreover, the asymptotic theory of the ML estimates may diverge from the standard Gaussian framework. Consequently, a solid theoretical analysis of the Kalman filter with nonstationary data is needed.

In this analysis, we focus on an important class of nonstationary models – those that include integrated time series. More precisely, we consider state space models with a single latent common integrated stochastic trend, and we analyze the properties of ML estimators of both the parameters and the unobservable trend based on the Kalman filter. For this class of models, we derive the full asymptotics of ML estimation and establish the consistency and Gaussianity of the ML estimator. The limit theory for our models differ from the standard asymptotics for stationary models. The convergence rates are a mixture of \sqrt{n} and n , and the limit distributions are generally mixed normals. However, the Gaussian limit distribution theory means that the conventional method of inference remains valid for our models. Although our results are explicitly developed for simple prototypical models, it is clear that our main findings extend to more general state space models with integrated time series.

The state space models considered in the paper assume that the included time series share one common stochastic trend. This, of course, implies that there are $(m - 1)$ independent cointegrating relationships, if we set m to be the number of the time series in the models. We show below how our state space models are related error correction representations of standard cointegrated models. We also explore decompositions into the permanent and transitory components of a given time series. Our state space models suggest a natural choice for such decompositions. However, decompositions based on error correction representations of our models are also appropriate.

We consider three illustrative empirical examples using the Kalman filter to extract a common stochastic trend. We first take on a very common application in the macroeconomics literature: extracting a common trend from short- and long-term interest rates. Subsequently, we explore a popular application from the finance literature. We look at the relationship between stock return volatility and trading volume by extracting a common stochastic trend from those two series. In the third application, we extract the common trend from 30 series of prices of those stocks comprising the Dow Jones Industrial Average.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce the state space model and outline the technique used to estimate the model. We also present some preliminary results that simplify the theoretical analysis and are useful in estimation, and we show that the extracted trend (using the true parameters) is cointegrated with the true trend. We present the main theoretical findings of our analysis in Section 3. Here we analyze the ML procedures and obtain their asymptotics. In particular, we show that the ML estimators are consistent and asymptotically mixed normal. Section 4 includes some important results on the relationship between our state space models and the usual error correction representation of cointegrated models. We also discuss permanent-transitory decompositions based on our models. In Section 5, we present the three empirical applications, and we conclude with Section 6. Mathematical proofs of our theoretical results are contained in an appendix.

2. The Model and Preliminary Results

We consider the state space model given by

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= \beta_0 x_t + u_t \\ x_t &= x_{t-1} + v_t, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where we make the following assumptions:

SSM1: β_0 is an m -dimensional vector of unknown parameters,

SSM2: (x_t) is a scalar latent variable,

SSM3: (y_t) is an m -dimensional observable time series,

SSM4: (u_t) and (v_t) are m - and 1-dimensional sequences of independent, identically distributed (iid) errors that are normal with mean zero and variances Λ_0 and 1, respectively, and independent of each other, and

SSM5: x_0 is independent of (u_t) and (v_t) , and assumed to be given.

The variance of (v_t) is set to be unity for the identification of β , which is identified under this condition up to multiplication by -1 . The other conditions are standard and routinely imposed in this type of model.

Our model can be used to extract a common stochastic trend in the time series (y_t) . Note that the latent variable (x_t) is defined as a random walk, and may be regarded as a common

stochastic trend in (y_t) . Here we do not introduce any dynamics in the measurement equation, and mainly consider the simplest prototypical state space model. This is purely for the purpose of exposition. It will be made clear that our subsequent results are directly applicable for a more general class of state space models, where we have an arbitrary number of lagged differences of the observed time series in the measurement equation.

The model given in (1) may be estimated by the usual Kalman filter. Let \mathcal{F}_t be the σ -field generated by y_1, \dots, y_t , and for $z_t = x_t$ or y_t , we denote by $z_{t|s}$ the conditional expectation of z_t given \mathcal{F}_s , and by $\omega_{t|s}$ and $\Sigma_{t|s}$ the conditional variances of x_t and y_t given \mathcal{F}_s , respectively. The Kalman filter consists of prediction and updating steps. For the prediction step, we utilize the relationships

$$\begin{aligned}x_{t|t-1} &= x_{t-1|t-1}, \\y_{t|t-1} &= \beta x_{t|t-1},\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\omega_{t|t-1} &= \omega_{t-1|t-1} + 1, \\ \Sigma_{t|t-1} &= \omega_{t|t-1} \beta \beta' + \Lambda.\end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, the updating step relies on the relationships

$$\begin{aligned}x_{t|t} &= x_{t|t-1} + \omega_{t|t-1} \beta' \Sigma_{t|t-1}^{-1} (y_t - y_{t|t-1}), \\ \omega_{t|t} &= \omega_{t|t-1} - \omega_{t|t-1}^2 \beta' \Sigma_{t|t-1}^{-1} \beta.\end{aligned}$$

The model parameters are estimated using ML estimation.

Smoothing is frequently used in conjunction with the Kalman filter, when the unobserved series (the stochastic trend, in this case) is of primary interest. Smoothing is implemented after the model parameters are estimated, so this procedure has no effect on the parameter estimates. The idea behind smoothing is simply to update $x_{t|t}$ with $x_{t|n}$. The smoothed series $(x_{t|n})$ is estimated conditionally on all of the information in the sample – not just the information up to t . The technique is simple to implement using the smoothing formula,

$$x_{t|n} = x_{t|t} + \omega_{t|t} \omega_{t+1|t}^{-1} (x_{t+1|n} - x_{t+1|t}),$$

where $\omega_{t|t}$ and $\omega_{t+1|t}$ may be replaced by their steady state values $\omega - 1$ and ω , respectively, the series $(x_{t|t})$ and $(x_{t+1|t})$ are generated by the estimation procedure, and $x_{t+1|n}$ is found recursively. Specifically, in the first iteration, $x_{t+1|n}$ is set to $x_{n|n}$, which is the last element of the series $(x_{t|t})$, and the recursion works backwards to the beginning of the sample. The reader is referred to, e.g., Hamilton (1994) or Kim and Nelson (1999) for more details on these procedures.

For any given values of β and Λ , there exist steady state values of $\omega_{t|t-1}$ and $\Sigma_{t|t-1}$, which we denote by ω and Σ .

Lemma 2.1 The steady state values ω and Σ exist and are given by

$$\omega = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4/(\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta)}}{2}, \quad (2)$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4/(\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta)}}{2} \beta \beta' + \Lambda \quad (3)$$

for any m -dimensional vector β and $m \times m$ matrix Λ .

From now on, we set

$$\omega_{0|0} = \omega - 1 \quad (4)$$

so that $\omega_{t|t-1} = \omega$ for all $t \geq 1$, and both $(\omega_{t|t-1})$ and $(\Sigma_{t|t-1})$ become time invariant. This causes no loss of generality in our asymptotic analysis, since $(\omega_{t|t-1})$ converges to its asymptotic steady state value ω as t increases. The following lemma specifies $(x_{t|t-1})$ more explicitly as a function of the observed time series (y_t) and the initial value x_0 . Here and elsewhere in the paper, we assume (4). To simplify the presentation, we also make the convention $y_0 = 0$.

Lemma 2.2 We have

$$x_{t|t-1} = \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \left[y_t - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} (1 - 1/\omega)^k \Delta y_{t-k} \right] + (1 - 1/\omega)^{t-1} x_0$$

for all $t \geq 2$.

The result in Lemma 2.2 is given entirely by the prediction and updating steps of the Kalman filter given above. In particular, it holds regardless of misspecification of our model in (1).

In addition to the initial value of $\omega_{t|t-1}$ given by (4), we let

$$x_0 = 0 \quad (5)$$

throughout our theoretical analysis. It is clearly seen from Lemma 2.2 that relaxing this simplifying assumption would not affect our subsequent asymptotic analyses. Note that $\omega > 1$, and therefore, $0 < 1 - 1/\omega < 1$. Hence, the magnitude of the term $(1 - 1/\omega)^{t-1} x_0$ is geometrically declining as $t \rightarrow \infty$, as long as x_0 is fixed and finite a.s.

Let ω_0 be the value of ω defined with the true values β_0 and Λ_0 of β and Λ . Moreover, we denote by $x_{t|t-1}^0$ the value of $x_{t|t-1}$ under model (1).

Proposition 2.3 We have

$$x_{t|t-1}^0 = x_t + (1/\omega_0) \sum_{k=1}^{t-1} (1 - 1/\omega_0)^{k-1} \frac{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} u_{t-k}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} (1 - 1/\omega_0)^k v_{t-k}$$

for all $t \geq 2$.

Proposition 2.3 implies in particular that we have

$$x_{t|t-1}^0 - x_t = (1/\omega_0)p_{t-1} - q_t, \quad (6)$$

where

$$p_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1 - 1/\omega_0)^k \frac{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} u_{t-k}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} \quad \text{and} \quad q_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1 - 1/\omega_0)^k v_{t-k}$$

asymptotically. If we let (u_t) and (v_t) be iid random sequences, then the time series (p_t) and (q_t) introduced in (6) become the stationary first-order autoregressive processes given by

$$\begin{aligned} p_t &= (1 - 1/\omega_0)p_{t-1} + \frac{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} u_t \\ q_t &= (1 - 1/\omega_0)q_{t-1} + v_t \end{aligned}$$

respectively. As noted earlier, we have $0 < 1 - 1/\omega_0 < 1$.

There is also an important relationship between the smoothed series $(x_{t|n}^0)$ and the extracted series $(x_{t|t}^0)$, as we show in the following proposition.

Proposition 2.4 We have

$$x_{t|n}^0 = x_{t|t}^0 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-t} (1 - 1/\omega_0)^k \Delta x_{t+k|t+k}^0$$

for all $t \leq n - 1$.

Evidently, $(x_{t|t-1}^0)$ is cointegrated with (x_t) and $(x_{t|n}^0)$ is cointegrated with $(x_{t|t}^0)$, both with unit cointegrating coefficient. Since $x_{t|t}^0 = x_{t+1|t}^0$ from the prediction step, and since $x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$ from (1), it is clear that $(x_{t|t-1}^0)$, $(x_{t|n}^0)$, and (x_t) have a common stochastic trend. The stochastic trend of (x_t) may therefore be analyzed by that of $(x_{t|t-1}^0)$ or $(x_{t|n}^0)$. It should be emphasized that the results in Propositions 2.3 and 2.4 merely assume our model specification in (1). They do not rely upon the assumption that (u_t) and (v_t) are iid. The Kalman filter estimation and smoothing procedures extract the common stochastic trend of (y_t) as long as (u_t) and (v_t) are general stationary processes – i.e., as long as (y_t) is a vector of integrated processes. Unlike (x_t) , however, $(x_{t|t-1}^0)$ and $(x_{t|n}^0)$ are not pure random walks, even if (u_t) and (v_t) are iid random sequences. The latter deviates from the former up to stationary error sequences. These results assume that the true parameters of the model are known. Of course, the true parameter values are unknown and have to be estimated. Nevertheless, it is rather clear that our conclusions remain valid as long as we use the consistent parameter estimates.

The results in Proposition 2.3 and 2.4 are valid for state space models with the measurement equation given by

$$y_t = \beta_0 x_t + \sum_{k=1}^p \Phi_k \Delta y_{t-k} + u_t \quad (7)$$

(or with other stationary covariates), instead of the one in (1). Under this specification, the Kalman filter has exactly the same prediction and updating steps, except

$$y_{t|t-1} = \beta x_{t|t-1} + \sum_{k=1}^p \Phi_k \Delta y_{t-k}$$

replaces $y_{t|t-1} = \beta x_{t|t-1}$. Consequently, Lemma 2.1 holds without modification. Moreover, we may easily obtain the result corresponding to Lemma 2.2 by replacing (y_t) with $(y_t - \sum_{k=1}^p \Phi_k \Delta y_{t-k})$. As a result, Propositions 2.3 and 2.4 hold as is. This can be seen clearly from the respective proofs.

3. Asymptotics for Maximum Likelihood Estimation

In this section, we consider the maximum likelihood estimation of our model. In particular, we establish the consistency and asymptotic Gaussianity of the ML estimator of the parameter vector under normality. Since our model includes an integrated process, the usual asymptotic theory for ML estimation of state space models given by, for instance, Caines (1988), does not apply. We develop our asymptotic theory in a much more general setting than that given by our model (1). As will be seen clearly in what follows, our general theory established here would be very useful to obtain the asymptotics for ML estimation in a variety of models including integrated time series, both latent and observed. We first develop general asymptotic theory of ML estimation, which allows for the presence of nonstationary time series, and then we apply the theory to obtain the asymptotics of the ML estimator of the parameters of our model (1).

We let θ be a κ -dimensional parameter and define

$$\varepsilon_t = y_t - y_{t|t-1} \tag{8}$$

to be the prediction error with conditional mean zero and covariance matrix Σ . Under normality, the log-likelihood function of y_1, \dots, y_n is given by

$$\ell_n(\theta) = -\frac{n}{2} \log \det \Sigma - \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \Sigma^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^n \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t', \tag{9}$$

ignoring the unimportant constant term. Note that Σ and (ε_t) are in general given as functions of θ . If we denote by $s_n(\theta)$ and $H_n(\theta)$ the score vector and Hessian matrix – i.e.,

$$s_n(\theta) = \frac{\partial \ell_n(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \quad \text{and} \quad H_n(\theta) = \frac{\partial^2 \ell_n(\theta)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'},$$

then it follows directly from (9) that

Lemma 3.1 For the log-likelihood function given in (9), we have

$$s_n(\theta) = -\frac{n}{2} \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)'}{\partial \theta} \text{vec}(\Sigma^{-1}) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)'}{\partial \theta} \text{vec} \left(\Sigma^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^n \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' \Sigma^{-1} \right) - \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t'}{\partial \theta} \Sigma^{-1} \varepsilon_t,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
H_n(\theta) = & -\frac{n}{2} \left[I_\kappa \otimes (\text{vec } \Sigma^{-1})' \right] \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes (\text{vec } \Sigma) \right] \\
& + \frac{1}{2} \left[I_\kappa \otimes \left(\text{vec } \Sigma^{-1} \left(\sum_{t=1}^n \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' \right) \Sigma^{-1} \right)' \right] \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes (\text{vec } \Sigma) \right] \\
& + \frac{n}{2} \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma^{-1} \otimes \Sigma^{-1}) \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)}{\partial \theta'} \\
& - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)'}{\partial \theta} \left[\Sigma^{-1} \otimes \Sigma^{-1} \left(\sum_{t=1}^n \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' \right) \Sigma^{-1} + \Sigma^{-1} \left(\sum_{t=1}^n \varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' \right) \Sigma^{-1} \otimes \Sigma^{-1} \right] \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)}{\partial \theta'} \\
& - \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t'}{\partial \theta} \Sigma^{-1} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \theta'} - \sum_{t=1}^n (I \otimes \varepsilon_t' \Sigma^{-1}) \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t \right) \\
& + \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma^{-1} \otimes \Sigma^{-1}) \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \theta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t \right) + \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t'}{\partial \theta} \otimes \varepsilon_t' \right) (\Sigma^{-1} \otimes \Sigma^{-1}) \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma)}{\partial \theta'}.
\end{aligned}$$

In Lemma 3.1 and elsewhere in the paper, $\text{vec } A$ denotes the column vector obtained by stacking the rows of matrix A .

Denote by $\hat{\theta}_n$ the ML estimator of θ , the true value of which is denoted by θ_0 . As in the standard stationary model, the asymptotics of $\hat{\theta}_n$ in our model can be obtained from the first order Taylor expansion of the score vector, which is given by

$$s_n(\hat{\theta}_n) = s_n(\theta_0) + H_n(\theta_n) (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta_0), \quad (10)$$

where θ_n lies in the line segment connecting $\hat{\theta}_n$ and θ_0 . Of course, we have $s_n(\hat{\theta}_n) = 0$ if $\hat{\theta}_n$ is an interior solution. Therefore, it is now clear from (10) that we may write

$$\nu_n' T^{-1} (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta_0) = - [\nu_n^{-1} T' H_n(\theta_n) T \nu_n^{-1'}]^{-1} [\nu_n^{-1} T' s_n(\theta_0)] \quad (11)$$

for appropriately defined κ -dimensional square matrices ν_n and T , which are introduced here respectively for the necessary normalization and rotation.

Upon appropriate choice of the normalization matrix sequence ν_n and rotation matrix T , we will show that:

ML1: $\nu_n^{-1} T' s_n(\theta_0) \rightarrow_d N$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and

ML2: $-\nu_n^{-1} T' H_n(\theta_0) T \nu_n^{-1'} \rightarrow_d M > 0$ a.s. as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

for some M and N , and that

ML3: There exists a sequence of invertible normalization matrices μ_n such that $\mu_n \nu_n^{-1} \rightarrow 0$ a.s., and such that

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \left\| \mu_n^{-1} T' \left(H_n(\theta) - H_n(\theta_0) \right) T \mu_n^{-1'} \right\| \rightarrow_p 0,$$

where $\Theta_n = \{\theta \mid \|\mu'_n T^{-1}(\theta - \theta_0)\| \leq 1\}$ is a sequence of shrinking neighborhoods of θ_0 ,

subsequently below. The roles played by the matrices T , ν_n , N , and M will become clearer when we later focus on our model given by (1).

As shown by Park and Phillips (2001) in their study of the nonlinear regression with integrated time series, conditions ML1-ML3 above are sufficient to derive the asymptotics for $\hat{\theta}_n$. In fact, under conditions ML1-ML3, we may deduce from (11) and continuous mapping theorem that

$$\begin{aligned} \nu'_n T^{-1}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta_0) &= -[\nu_n^{-1} T' H_n(\theta_0) T \nu_n^{-1}]^{-1} [\nu_n^{-1} T' s_n(\theta_0)] + o_p(1) \\ &\rightarrow_d M^{-1} N \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In particular, ML3 ensures that $s_n(\hat{\theta}_n) = 0$ with probability approaching one and

$$\nu_n^{-1} T' (H_n(\theta_n) - H_n(\theta_0)) T \nu_n^{-1} \rightarrow_p 0$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This was shown by Wooldridge (1994) for the asymptotic analyses of extremum estimators in models including nonstationary time series.

To derive the asymptotics for $s_n(\theta_0)$, let ε_t^0 , $(\partial/\partial\theta')\varepsilon_t^0$ and $(\partial/\partial\theta')\text{vec}\Sigma_0$ be defined respectively as ε_t , $(\partial/\partial\theta')\varepsilon_t$ and $(\partial/\partial\theta')\text{vec}\Sigma$ evaluated at the true parameter value θ_0 of θ . We have

$$s_n(\theta_0) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial(\text{vec}\Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \text{vec} \left[\sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \right] - \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0,$$

for which we note the following.

Remarks We have $\varepsilon_t^0 = y_t - y_{t|t-1}^0 = \beta_0(x_t - x_{t|t-1}^0) + u_t$. For $s_n(\theta_0)$,

[a] $(\varepsilon_t^0, \mathcal{F}_t)$ is a martingale difference sequence (an mds) with conditional variance Σ_0 , by construction and due to (6), and becomes iid $\mathbb{N}(0, \Sigma_0)$ under the assumption of normality. In particular, we have

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \rightarrow_d \mathbb{N}\left(0, (I + K)(\Sigma_0 \otimes \Sigma_0)\right) \quad (13)$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where K is the commutation matrix.

[b] $(\partial/\partial\theta')\varepsilon_t^0$ is \mathcal{F}_{t-1} -measurable, and consequently, $((\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}/\partial\theta)\Sigma_0^{-1}\varepsilon_t^0)$ is an mds. Both

$$\sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0$$

become independent asymptotically.

For the asymptotic result in (13), see, e.g., Muirhead (1982, pp. 90-91).

It is now clear that the asymptotics of $s_n(\theta_0)$ can be readily deduced from our remarks above, if our model were stationary. Indeed, if the mds $((\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}/\partial\theta)\Sigma_0^{-1}\varepsilon_t^0)$ admits the standard central limit theory (CLT), then we have as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 \rightarrow_d \mathbb{N}(0, \Omega) \quad (14)$$

with the asymptotic variance Ω given by

$$\Omega = \text{plim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^0}{\partial\theta'}, \quad (15)$$

as is well-known. The reader is referred to, e.g., Hall and Heyde (1980) for the details. Due to the nonstationarity of our model, however, the usual mds CLT is not applicable to our model, and therefore the standard asymptotics given by (14) and (15) do not hold. Our subsequent asymptotic theories focus on the case where $(\partial\varepsilon_t^0/\partial\theta')$ is nonstationary, and given by a mixture of integrated and stationary processes.

We now look at our model introduced in (1) more specifically. The parameter θ in the model is given by

$$\theta = (\beta', v(\Lambda)')', \quad (16)$$

with the true value $\theta_0 = (\beta'_0, v(\Lambda_0)')'$. Here and elsewhere in the paper we use the notation $v(A)$ to denote the subvector of $\text{vec } A$ with all subdiagonal elements of A eliminated. It is well known that $v(A)$ and $\text{vec } A$ are related by $Dv(A) = \text{vec } A$, where D is the matrix called the duplication matrix. See, e.g., Magnus and Neudecker (1988, pp. 48-49). The dimension of θ is given by $\kappa = m + m(m+1)/2$, since there are only $m(m+1)/2$ number of nonredundant elements in Λ .

For our model (1), we may easily deduce from Lemma 2.2 and Proposition 2.3 that

Lemma 3.2 For our model (1), we have

$$\frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\beta} = - \left(I - \frac{\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0\beta'_0}{\beta'_0\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0} \right) x_t + a_t(u, v) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\text{vec}\Lambda} = b_t(u, v),$$

where $a_t(u, v)$ and $b_t(u, v)$ are stationary linear processes driven by (u_t) and (v_t) .

It is now clear from Lemma 3.2 that

$$\frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} = \left(\frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^0}{\partial\beta'}, \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^0}{\partial v(\Lambda)'} \right)'$$

is a matrix time series consisting of a mixture of integrated and stationary processes.

To further analyze the nonstationarity in $(\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}/\partial\theta)$, let $\varepsilon_t = (\varepsilon_{it})_{i=1}^m$ and consider $(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\theta)$ individually for each $i = 1, \dots, m$. It is easy to see for any $i = 1, \dots, m$ that $(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\beta)$ is an m -dimensional integrated process with a single common trend. Naturally,

there are $(m - 1)$ -cointegrating relationships in $(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\beta)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, m$. There is, however, one and only one cointegrating relationship in $(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\beta)$ that is common for all $i = 1, \dots, m$, which is given by β_0 . Notice that

$$P = I - \frac{\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0\beta_0'}{\beta_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0} \quad (17)$$

is a $(m - 1)$ -dimensional (non-orthogonal) projection on the space orthogonal to β_0 along $\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0$. Consequently, β_0 annihilates the common stochastic trend in $(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\beta)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, m$, and $(\beta_0'(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\beta))$ becomes stationary for all $i = 1, \dots, m$. Unlike $(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\beta)$, the process $(\partial\varepsilon_{it}^0/\partial\text{vec}\Lambda)$ is purely stationary for all $i = 1, \dots, m$.

To effectively deal with the singularity of the matrix P in (17), we need to rotate the score vector $s_n(\theta_0)$. To introduce the required rotation, we let Γ_0 be an $m \times (m - 1)$ matrix satisfying the conditions

$$\Gamma_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}\Gamma_0 = I_{m-1}. \quad (18)$$

It is easy to deduce that

$$P = I - \frac{\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0\beta_0'}{\beta_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0} = \Lambda_0^{-1}\Gamma_0\Gamma_0', \quad (19)$$

since P is a projection such that $\beta_0'P = P\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0 = 0$. Now we define the κ -dimensional rotation matrix

$$T = (T_N, T_S), \quad (20)$$

where T_N and T_S are matrices of dimensions $\kappa \times \kappa_1$ and $\kappa \times \kappa_2$ with $\kappa_1 = m - 1$ and $\kappa_2 = 1 + m(m + 1)/2$, which are given by

$$T_N = \begin{pmatrix} \Gamma_0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad T_S = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\beta_0}{(\beta_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0)^{1/2}} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{m(m+1)/2} \end{pmatrix},$$

respectively. We have from Lemma 3.2, (18), and (19) that

$$T_N' \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} = -\Gamma_0'x_t + c_t^N(u, v) \quad \text{and} \quad T_S' \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} = c_t^S(u, v) \quad (21)$$

for some stationary linear processes $c_t^N(u, v)$ and $c_t^S(u, v)$ driven by (u_t) and (v_t) . Also, we may easily deduce that

$$T^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \Gamma_0'\Lambda_0^{-1} & 0 \\ \frac{\beta_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}}{(\beta_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0)^{1/2}} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{m(m+1)/2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (22)$$

from our definition of T given above in (20).

Lemma 3.3 Under our model (1), the invariance principle holds for the partial sums defined by

$$\left(U_n(r), V_n(r), W_n(r) \right) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^{[nr]} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^{[nr]} \Delta T'_N \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^{[nr]} T'_S \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 \right)$$

for $r \in [0, 1]$, and we have

$$\left(U_n, V_n, W_n \right) \rightarrow_d \left(U, V, W \right),$$

where U , V and W are (possibly degenerate) Brownian motions such that V and W are independent of U , and such that $\int_0^1 V(r) \Sigma_0^{-1} V(r)' dr$ is of full rank a.s.

The result in Lemma 3.3 enables us to obtain the joint asymptotics of

$$\frac{1}{n} T'_N \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 \rightarrow_d \int_0^1 V(r) dU(r), \quad (23)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} T'_S \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 \rightarrow_d W, \quad (24)$$

where we denote $W(1)$ simply by W . This convention will be made for the rest of the paper. Note that the independence of V and U makes the limit distribution in (23) mixed Gaussian. On the other hand, the independence of W and U renders the two limit distributions in (23) and (24) to be independent. Clearly, we have $W =_d \mathbb{N}(0, \text{var}(W))$, where

$$\text{var}(W) = \text{plim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} T'_S \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right) T_S. \quad (25)$$

Moreover, we may in fact represent the limit distribution in (23) as

$$\left(\int_0^1 B_2(r) dB_1(r) \right) I_{\kappa_1},$$

as shown in the proof of Lemma 3.3, where B_1 and B_2 are two independent univariate standard Brownian motions.

We also have

Lemma 3.4 If we let

$$Z_n = \frac{1}{2} T'_S \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \text{vec} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \right],$$

then we have

$$Z_n \rightarrow_d Z,$$

where $Z =_d \mathbb{N}(0, \text{var}(Z))$ with

$$\text{var}(Z) = \frac{1}{2} T'_S \left[\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)}{\partial \theta'} \right] T_S, \quad (26)$$

and is independent of U , V and W introduced in Lemma 3.3.

Now we are ready to derive the limit distribution for the ML estimator θ_n of θ defined in (16). This distribution is given by (12) with the rotation matrix T in (20) and the sequence of normalization matrices

$$\nu_n = \text{diag} (nI_{\kappa_1}, \sqrt{n}I_{\kappa_2}), \quad (27)$$

as we state below as a theorem.

Theorem 3.5 All the conditions in ML1-ML3 are satisfied for our model (1). In particular, ML1 and ML2 hold, respectively, with

$$N = \begin{pmatrix} -\int_0^1 V(r) dU(r) \\ Z - W \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \int_0^1 V(r) \Sigma_0^{-1} V(r)' dr & 0 \\ 0 & \text{var}(W) + \text{var}(Z) \end{pmatrix}$$

in notations introduced in Lemmas 3.3, 3.4, (25), and (26).

Let

$$Q = - \left(\int_0^1 V(r) \Sigma_0^{-1} V(r)' dr \right)^{-1} \int_0^1 V(r) dU(r)$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} R \\ S \end{pmatrix} = -[\text{var}(W) + \text{var}(Z)]^{-1}(W - Z),$$

where R and S are 1- and $m(m+1)/2$ -dimensional, respectively. Note that Q has a mixed normal distribution, whereas R and S are jointly normal and independent of Q . Now we may readily deduce from Theorem 3.5

$$\sqrt{n} \left(v(\hat{\Lambda}_n) - v(\Lambda_0) \right) \rightarrow_d S,$$

and

$$\Gamma'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1} \left[n(\hat{\beta}_n - \beta_0) \right] \rightarrow_d Q \quad (28)$$

$$\frac{\beta'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1}}{(\beta'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0)^{1/2}} \left[\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}_n - \beta_0) \right] \rightarrow_d R. \quad (29)$$

In particular, it follows immediately from (28) and (29) that

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}_n - \beta_0) \rightarrow_d \frac{\beta_0}{(\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0)^{1/2}} R, \quad (30)$$

which has degenerate normal distribution. The ML estimators $\hat{\beta}_n$ and $\hat{\Lambda}_n$ converge at the standard rate \sqrt{n} , and have normal limit distributions. However, the limit distribution of $\hat{\beta}_n$ is degenerate. In the direction $\Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}$, it has a faster rate of convergence n and a mixed normal limit distribution. As will be seen in the next section, $\Lambda_0^{-1} \Gamma_0$ is matrix of cointegrating vectors for (y_t) . The normal and mixed normal distribution theories of the ML estimators ensure that the standard inference is valid for hypothesis testing in the context of state space models with an integrated latent common trend. Hence, the usual t -ratios and the asymptotic tests such as Likelihood Ratio, Lagrange Multiplier and Wald tests based on the ML estimates are all valid and can be used with these nonstationary state space models.

It is easy to see that our asymptotic results for the ML estimation hold – at least qualitatively – for the more general state space model introduced in (7). In particular, the convergence rates, degeneracy of the limit distribution and asymptotic Gaussianity that we establish for model (1) are also applicable for model (7). Note that Σ is still a function of only β and Λ for the more general measurement equation in (7). This is because Lemma 2.1 is valid for model (7) as well as model (1), as mentioned in the previous section. The additional parameters Φ_1, \dots, Φ_p appearing in the lagged differenced terms of (y_t) therefore affect the log-likelihood function in (9) only through (ε_t) . Moreover, the first-order partial derivative of (ε_t) with respect to (Φ_k) yields (Δy_{t-k}) , with all their repeated derivatives vanishing. Consequently, the score function in Lemma 3.1 with

$$\theta = (\beta', \text{vec}(\Phi_1)', \dots, \text{vec}(\Phi_p)', v(\Lambda)')$$

has now only additional stationary terms involving the products of (Δy_{t-k}) and (ε_t) . In particular, the presence of the additional parameters Φ_1, \dots, Φ_p does not affect the nonstationary component of the score function.

Our results here also shed a light on the asymptotics for various other types of nonstationary state space models that are not explicitly considered in the paper. The state space models used in practical applications are often more complicated than the one given in (1) or (7). First, the time series to be analyzed may have deterministic trends, as well as stochastic trends. As is well known, some economic and financial time series have a deterministic upward trend, which we routinely fit using a linear time trend. The asymptotics in this case can be developed similarly as in the paper, after rotating the given time series to separate out the component dominated by a deterministic linear time trend and the component represented as a purely stochastic integrated process. See, e.g., Park (1992), for the details of such rotation. Asymptotically, the rotated time series behaves like a time series, which consists of a deterministic linear time trend and purely stochastic integrated processes. Second, we may have multiple common trends. The asymptotics for the models with multiple trends are much more complicated. Nevertheless, they can be readily derived in parallel to our asymptotics in the paper, mainly because the conditions ML1-ML3 are sufficient also in this case to establish the asymptotics for the ML estimator.

4. Cointegration and Error Correction Representation

Our model (1) implies that (y_t) is cointegrated with the matrix of cointegrating vectors given by an $m \times (m-1)$ matrix $\Lambda_0^{-1}\Gamma_0$. Recall that Γ_0 is the $m \times (m-1)$ matrix satisfying the condition $\Gamma_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0 = 0$, as defined in (18). We have $\Gamma_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}y_t = \Gamma_0'\Lambda_0^{-1}u_t$, which is stationary, and therefore $\Lambda_0^{-1}\Gamma_0$ defines the matrix of cointegrating vectors of (y_t) . Having $(m-1)$ linearly independent cointegrating relationships, (y_t) has one common stochastic trend. Moreover, it follows from Lemma 2.2 that

Proposition 4.1 We have

$$\Delta y_t = -\Gamma_0 A' y_{t-1} - \sum_{k=1}^{t-1} C_k \Delta y_{t-k} + \varepsilon_t^0, \quad (31)$$

where

$$A = \Lambda_0^{-1}\Gamma_0 \quad \text{and} \quad C_k = \frac{\beta_0 \beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} (1 - 1/\omega_0)^k$$

and we follow our previous convention and use ω_0 and (ε_t^0) to denote ω and (ε_t) evaluated at the true parameter value.

The result in Proposition 4.1 makes clear the relationship between our model (1) and the usual error correction representation of a cointegrated model. Our model differs from the conventional error correction model (ECM) in two aspects. First, our ECM model derived from our state space model is not representable as a finite-order vector autoregression (VAR). Here (y_t) is given as VAR(t), where the order increases with time and is therefore represented as an infinite-order VAR. Second, our representation implies that we have rank deficiencies in the short-run coefficients (C_k), as well as in the error correction term $\Gamma_0 A'$. Note that (C_k) are of rank one and $A' C_k = 0$ for all $k = 1, 2, \dots$. In the conventional ECM, on the other hand, there is no such rank restriction imposed on the short-run coefficient matrices.

Our results for (1) can also be used to decompose a cointegrated time series (y_t) into the permanent and transitory components, say (y_t^P) and (y_t^T) , such that

$$y_t = y_t^P + y_t^T,$$

where (y_t^P) is I(1) and (y_t^T) is I(0). Of course, the permanent-transitory (PT) decomposition is not unique, and can be done in various ways. The most obvious PT decomposition based on our model is the one given by

$$y_t^P = \beta_0 x_{t|t-1}^0 \quad \text{and} \quad y_t^T = y_t - \beta_0 x_{t|t-1}^0, \quad (32)$$

defining $(x_{t|t-1}^0)$ as the common stochastic trend. The PT decomposition introduced in (32) has the property that (y_t^P) is predictable, while (y_t^T) is an mds. The decomposition introduced in (32) will be referred to as KF-SSM, since we use the Kalman filter to extract

a common trend from a state space model. Obviously, we may estimate the common stochastic trend using the values of $(x_{t|t-1})$ evaluated at the ML parameter estimates. The transitory component can also be estimated accordingly.

The PT decomposition proposed by Park (1990) and Gonzalo and Granger (1995) is particularly appealing in our context. The decomposition is based on the error correction representation of a cointegrated system, and is given by

$$y_t^P = \frac{\beta_0 \beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} y_t = \beta_0 x_t + \frac{\beta_0 \beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} u_t}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} \quad (33)$$

and

$$y_t^T = \Gamma_0 \Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} y_t = \Gamma_0 \Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} u_t. \quad (34)$$

Clearly, (y_t^P) and (y_t^T) defined in (33) and (34) are I(1) and I(0), respectively. They decompose (y_t) into two directions, β_0 and Γ_0 . Note that $\beta_0 \beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} / \beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0$ is the projection on β_0 along Γ_0 , and that $\Gamma_0 \Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}$ is the projection on Γ_0 along β_0 . In particular, we have

$$\frac{\beta_0 \beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} + \Gamma_0 \Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} = I,$$

and $y_t = y_t^P + y_t^T$.

The directions that are orthogonal to the matrix of cointegrating vectors characterize the long-run equilibrium path of (y_t) . In fact β_0 , defines the direction orthogonal to the matrix of cointegrating vectors $\Lambda_0^{-1} \Gamma_0$, since $\Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0 = 0$ and therefore the shocks in the direction of β_0 lie in the equilibrium path of (y_t) . This in turn implies that such shocks do not disturb the long-run equilibrium relationships in (y_t) . On the other hand, Γ_0 is the matrix of error correction coefficients as shown in Proposition 4.1, and, as a result, the shocks in the direction of Γ_0 only have a transient effect. The shocks in every other direction than the direction given by Γ_0 have a permanent effect that may interfere with the long-run equilibrium path of (y_t) , thereby distorting the long-run relationships between the components of y_t . The only permanent shocks that do not disturb the equilibrium relationships at the outset are those in the direction of β_0 , as discussed above. The reader is referred to Park (1990) for more details. Moreover, the decomposition given in (33) and (34) has an important desirable property that is not present in the usual ECM. The permanent and transitory components are independent of each other. This is because

$$\text{cov}(\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} u_t, \Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} u_t) = 0,$$

as one may easily check.

In our subsequent empirical applications, we also obtain the decomposition introduced in (33) and (34). The common stochastic trend and stationary component in the decomposition are given by

$$\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} y_t \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} y_t$$

respectively. These can be readily estimated using the ML estimates of the parameters in our model. However, to be more consistent with the methodology in Park (1990) and

Gonzalo and Granger (1995), we rely on the method by Johansen (1988) and compute them using the ML estimates of the parameters based on a finite-order ECM. Note that the estimates of the parameters $\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0$ and $\Lambda_0^{-1}\Gamma_0$ are easily obtained from the estimates $\hat{\Gamma}$ and \hat{A} respectively of Γ_0 and A in ECM (31). $\Lambda_0^{-1}\beta_0$ is a vector orthogonal to Γ_0 and $\Lambda_0^{-1}\Gamma_0$ is given by A . In what follows, the decomposition will be referred to as ML-ECM, in contrast to KF-SSM.

For the more general state space model with measurement equation in (7), the error correction representation (31) in Proposition 4.1 is not valid. However, we may readily obtain a valid representation from the result in Proposition 4.1 simply by replacing (y_t) by $(y_t - \sum_{k=1}^p \Phi_k \Delta y_{t-k})$. This is obvious from the proof of Proposition 4.1 and the discussions in Section 2. Consequently, for t sufficiently large, we have the error correction representation of (y_t) generated by (7) that is identical to (31) with newly defined coefficients (C_k) . The coefficient A would not change. In sum, the general model (7) would have the same error correction representation as in (31) with no rank restriction in (C_k) . The decomposition in (32) and that in (33) and (34) can be defined accordingly.

5. Empirical Applications

In order to avoid identification problems, we restrict $\sigma_v^2 = 1$ as mentioned in Section 2. Moreover, to ensure positive semi-definiteness of Λ , we estimate the Cholesky decomposition $\Pi = (\pi_{ij})$ of Λ with diagonal elements $\pi_{ii} > 0$.

In our applications, $x_0 \neq 0$, and selection of $x_{0|0}$ is not as obvious as the selection of $\omega_{0|0}$ discussed in Section 2. Indeed, $\beta_0 x_0$ may be viewed as a vector of constant terms in (1). We showed in Lemma 2.2 that in estimation the initial value is asymptotically negligible. However, it may still have a substantial impact on the likelihood for values of t close to zero and finite n . To this end, Kim and Nelson (1999) and others suggest dropping some of the initial observations when evaluating the likelihood function. A two-step methodology that avoids dropping observations in the final step is to drop some initial observations in the first step, so that reasonable parameter estimates are obtained regardless of $x_{0|0}$. The second step involves re-estimation with all observations and with a value of $x_{0|0}$ that is “close” to where the series $(x_{t|t})$ appears to begin.⁵ In applications with a small number of parameters, it may be computationally easier to estimate $x_{0|0}$ as a model parameter in the first step, and then in the second step set $x_{0|0}$ equal to the estimated value from the first step. We expect that this estimates x_0 consistently, so that $x_{0|0}$ is fixed and finite a.s., as required. However, we do not show this rigorously. (Empirically, either approach yields roughly the same parameter estimates in the parsimonious applications discussed in Sections 5.1 and 5.2 below.)

In order to illustrate the uses of the KF in extracting a common stochastic trend, we examine three well-known applications from the literature. The first two feature bivari-

⁵We do not have any rigorous methodology for ascertaining “closeness”. However, comparing the magnitudes of $(y_t - y_{t|t-1})^2$ for t close to zero with those of $(y_t - y_{t|t-1})^2$ for t close to the end of the sample provides a rough notion. If the magnitudes are similar at the end of the sample and at the beginning of the sample, then $x_{0|0}$ is close enough to x_0 so that differences may be attributed to measurement error.

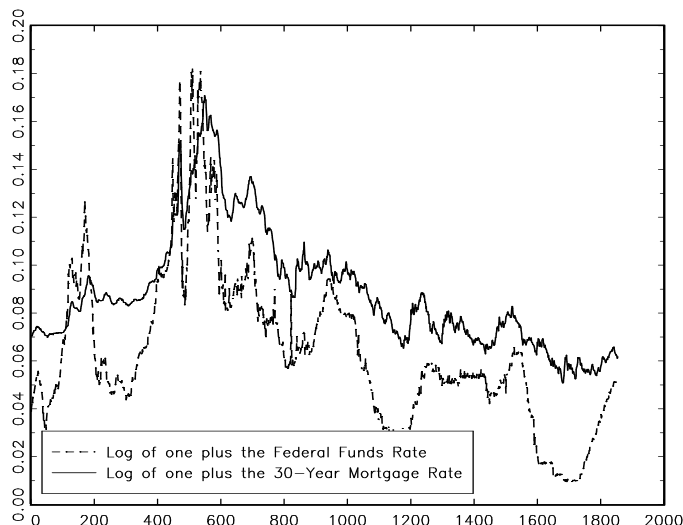


Figure 5.1: Log of one plus the federal funds rate and the 30-year mortgage rate (April 7, 1971 – October 11, 2006).

ate (y_t), and the third features thirty-dimensional (y_t). We smooth our estimated trends according to the Kalman smoothing technique discussed above, and we present the PT decompositions based on both KF-SSM and ML-ECM.

5.1 Short- and Long-Term Interest Rates

There are a number of analyses in the literature aimed at the linkage between short- and long-term interest rates. If economic agents have rational expectations, they buy or sell assets based on expected future interest rates. This means that the rate of return on an asset with a longer term (long rate) is correlated with the rate of return on that of a shorter term (short rate), since investors may choose to purchase a long-term asset or a sequence of short-term assets. We therefore expect a stochastic trend common to rates on assets of different terms. A more thorough discussion may be found in Modigliani and Shiller (1973) or Sargent (1979), for example. Early theoretical analyses of cointegration and estimation using an error correction model, such as Engle and Granger (1987), Campbell and Shiller (1987), and Stock and Watson (1988), use this application to test the relationship between short and long rates. More recent applied work, such as Bauwens et al. (1997) and Hafer et al. (1997), analyze common trends among interest rates in more general international contexts.

We extract the common stochastic trend from the federal funds rate (short rate) and the 30-year conventional fixed mortgage rate (long rate), obtained from the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. These series are sampled at weekly intervals over the period April 7, 1971 through October 11, 2006,⁶ and we transform them by taking the natural logarithm

⁶The federal funds rate is measured on Wednesday of each week, whereas the mortgage rate is measured

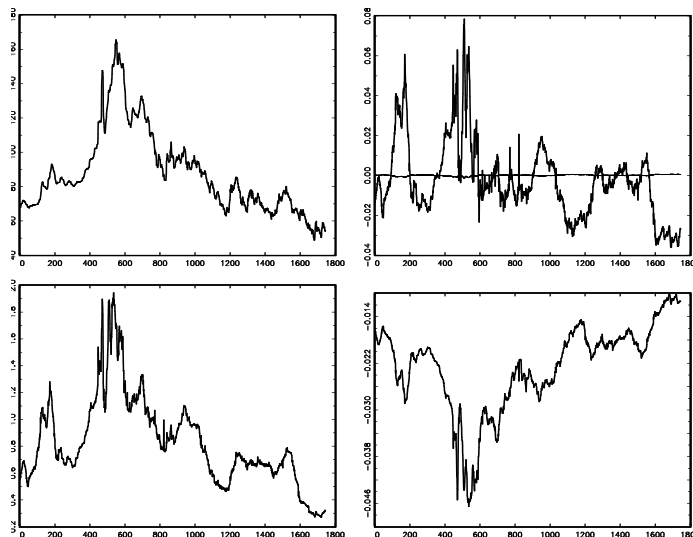


Figure 5.2: (a) Common stochastic trend extracted using KF-SSM; (b) Stationary components extracted using KF-SSM; (c) Common stochastic trend extracted using ML-ECM; (d) Stationary component extracted using ML-ECM.

of one plus the interest rate. The transformed series are illustrated in Figure 5.1. The following table shows parameter estimates using our technique.

Table 5.1: Parameter Estimates from KF-SSM

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>
β_1	0.0008	9.8×10^{-6}
β_2	0.0010	1.1×10^{-5}
π_{11}	0.0187	3.3×10^{-4}
π_{12}	-0.0003	1.6×10^{-4}
π_{22}	6.1×10^{-11}	2.9×10^{-5}

All parameter estimates are significant except the last one. This possibly degenerate variance implies that the common trend is very similar to the long rate. This implication is clearly visible from the trend extracted using our technique, which is represented in Figure 5.2(a), top left panel. Also, note that the more dominant of the two transitory components [Figure 5.2(b), top right panel] more closely resembles the short rate – although it naturally appears more stationary.

In contrast to KF-SSM, the trend extracted using ML-ECM [Figure 5.2(c), bottom left panel] seems to more closely follow the short rate, as does the transitory component [Figure 5.2(d), bottom right panel] – at least up to a negative scale transformation. This transitory component does not appear to be stationary.

on Friday of each week until January 2, 2004, and on Thursday of each week thereafter.

5.2 Stock Return Volatility and Trading Volume

There is a large literature on the relationship between stock price volatility and trading volume. There appears to be little consensus on how to model this relationship, as some authors have chosen a structural approach, while others have estimated reduced form models. In fact, there are differing views on simply how to measure volume and especially volatility.

Many authors seem to agree that detrending the natural logarithm of trading volume appears to be the most reasonable approach. However, the approach to detrending varies. For example, Tauchen and Pitts (1983) use a linear time trend to detrend log volume. Gallant et al. (1992) detrend using linear and quadratic time trends, with the addition of more than 30 indicator variables to control for various effects. Anderson (1996) uses a detrending technique that takes into account both deterministic and *stochastic* trends. Being suspicious of over-fitting, Fleming et al. (2006) use a procedure similar to Gallant et al. (1992), but they omit the indicator variables. They then estimate a model that explicitly allows for a *stochastic* trend in both volume and volatility. Based on these different approaches, it seems reasonable to use an approach that tries to remove any deterministic trend, while allowing for a stochastic trend in trading volume. We employ such an approach. We detrend the log of volume with a deterministic trend. And, like Fleming et al. (2006), our model explicitly estimates the stochastic trend that is common to volume and volatility.

There is much less consensus on how to measure volatility. In his survey of the early literature on this issue, Karpoff (1987) classifies the different approaches up to that time into analyses that measure volatility as a function of the absolute value of a price change and those that use a function of the price change itself. For example, in one of the earliest formulations of an explicit relationship between volume and volatility, Clark (1973) uses squared price changes. So do Tauchen and Pitts (1983). There appears to be a shift in subsequent thinking, so that many analyses since Karpoff (1987) have used either squared changes in the *log* of the price or squared percentage changes in price. Implicitly, this means dividing a time series with stochastic and deterministic trends by lags of itself, rather than subtracting time series with such trends. The empirical effect of this seems to be a cancellation of the trend in some sense. The resulting time series generally appear to be stationary. In the late 1980's, nonstationarity was known to cause spurious results, but cointegration and other ways of handling nonstationary data were still in their infancy. So, it is not surprising that authors preferred a technique that appeared to remove the nonstationarity.⁷ We embrace this nonstationarity in our analyses, because it informs us about the trend shared by these series. In this light, we use squared absolute returns rather than squared log returns.

Another issue that plagues the measurement of return volatility is that volatility itself is unobservable, and examining squared returns is only an estimate of volatility. For the most part, the literature mentioned in the previous paragraphs do not address this issue. Andersen and Bollerslev (1998) found a solution for exchange rate data, which was later extended to stock price data by Andersen, Bollerslev, Diebold, and Ebens (2000). The approach is

⁷Much more is known about the statistical properties of differencing time series than about fractions involving time series.

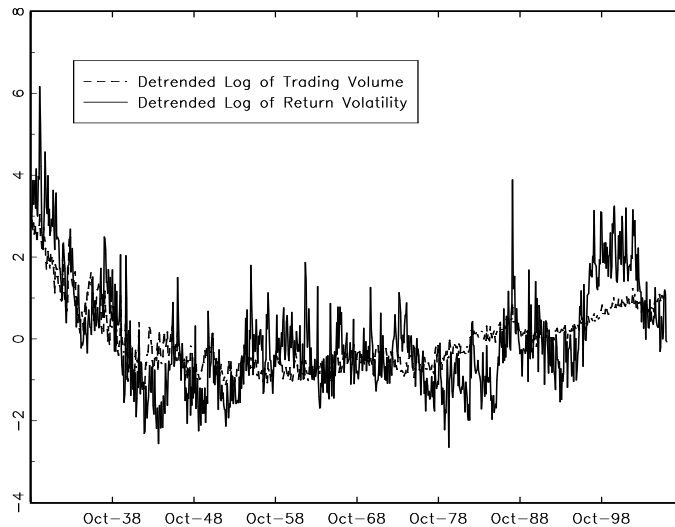


Figure 5.3: Detrended log of monthly DJIA trading volume and return volatility (October 1928 – September 2006).

straightforward. Expected daily volatility is approximated with a sample analog, the sum of intradaily squared returns. As the number of intradaily trading periods approaches ∞ , the sample analog approaches its population counterpart. Our approach is similar in spirit. We use a sum of intramonthly (i.e., daily) squared returns to approximate expected monthly volatility.

We employ daily data similar to those used by Gallant et al. (1992). Specifically, we look at the Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJIA) obtained from Yahoo! Finance. With the approach discussed above, (summing squared returns and volume across months), our sample consists of 936 months, from October 1928 through September 2006. We detrend both the log of trading volume and the log of squared returns using a constant and linear time trend. The detrended series are illustrated in Figure 5.3. A stochastic trend clearly remains after the deterministic trend is removed. Visual inspection of the figure suggests that the series appear more persistent during some periods than during others. For example, detrended return volatility appears stationary over roughly the middle third of the sample, yet over preceding and succeeding thirds the series appears nonstationary. The evidence for this trend being $I(1)$ or $I(0)$ using standard unit root tests is mixed. For ADF tests, the short-term volatility of each series clouds the long-term trend when the order of the ADF test is small. Figures 5.4(a) and (b) illustrate values of the two ADF tests, the coefficient test and the t -test, for these two time series as the number of lags p increases up to $o(n^{1/2})$, consistent with the asymptotic results of Chang and Park (2002).

On the other hand, KPSS tests clearly reject nulls of stationarity, with statistics of 2.80 and 1.76 for volume and volatility, respectively. Consequently, we face mixed test results against $I(1)$ but conclusive test results against $I(0)$.

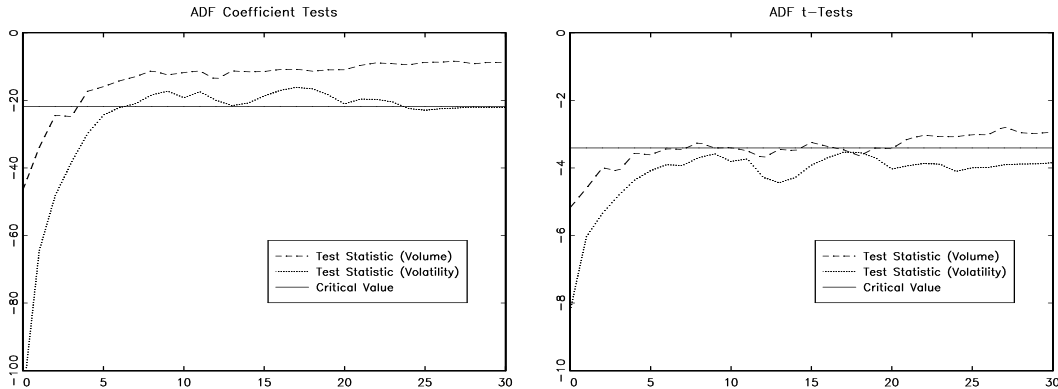


Figure 5.4: (a) Coefficient test statistics and (b) t -test statistics on detrended log of trading volume and detrended log of return volatility, with increasing p .

Some previous analyses in the literature have used additional deterministic trends to further stationarize these series. Gallant et al. (1992) used a large number of exogenously-chosen dummy variables, which empirically removed persistence from the 1930's and 1940's. The detrended series clearly exhibit more persistence since 1987 (beyond the end of their sample), as well. We agree with Andersen (1996) that a stochastic trend is a more appropriate (and certainly more parsimonious) way of modeling these series. The shared trend that is apparent from the figure, and which we extract below, may not be integrated – it may only be fractionally integrated. However, a theoretical analysis of extracting a fractionally integrated trend is beyond the scope of the present analysis.

Both our model and our estimation technique are very similar to the two-factor model employed by Fleming et al. (2006), which is based on the model used by Andersen (1996). There are two major differences. Fleming et al. (2006) used log returns instead of returns. Moreover, we estimate only a one-factor model, rather than a two-factor model. The second factor in their model is simply an error term. By not estimating the second factor directly, we are merely augmenting the error term already in the model. Hence this difference is really one of identification of the variance of the second factor. It is not identified in our model. Our parameter estimates are summarized below.

Table 5.2: Parameter Estimates from KF-SSM

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>
β_1	0.1361	0.0073
β_2	0.1782	0.0103
π_{11}	0.1532	0.0087
π_{12}	-0.1138	0.0553
π_{22}	0.8011	0.0279

In light of the discussion above, we also estimated a similar model in which the autoregressive parameter of the trend was not restricted to unity. We obtained very similar parameter

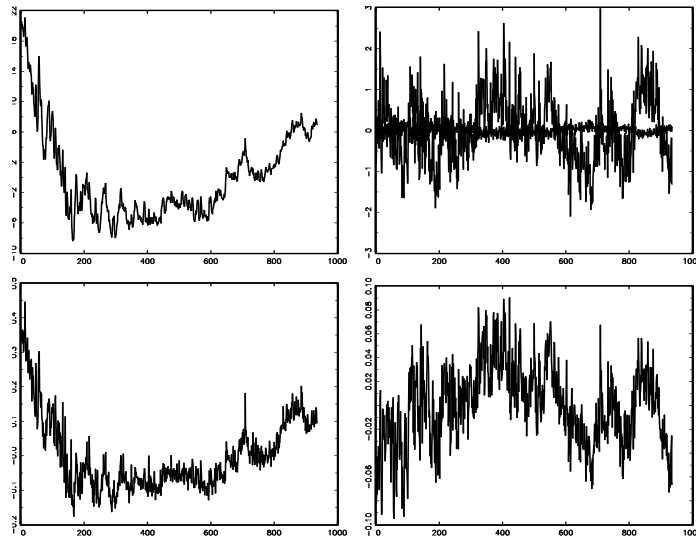


Figure 5.5: (a) Common stochastic trend extracted using KF-SSM; (b) Stationary components extracted using KF-SSM; (c) Common stochastic trend extracted using ML-ECM; (d) Stationary component extracted using ML-ECM.

estimates (β_1 and β_2 are estimated to within a standard deviation of the restricted estimates), with the autoregressive parameter estimated to be 0.98.

Figure 5.5(a) [top left panel] (b) [top right panel] illustrate our trend and vector of noise extracted from the two series. The bottom panels of Figure 5.5 show the corresponding components extracted using ML-ECM. The trends extracted are very similar, as expected in the two-dimensional case. The residuals appear to be effectively detrended – or at least more so than the original series.

5.3 Stock Market Index

In the final application, we consider a stock market index. We wish to extract the common stochastic trend embedded in 30 series of prices of the stocks that comprise the DJIA. We may thus compare the common trend with the index itself. This methodology could easily be used to extract the common stochastic trend from the prices of any set of stocks. The novelty of this approach is that it may easily be generalized to incorporate *any* group of assets. KF-SSM provides a way to extract a common stochastic trend or a customized index, with weights that are chosen by the principles of maximum likelihood. This avoids the need to weight stocks by market capitalization or by trading volume, as some indices do.

We expect ML-ECM to fail in this application, because the parameters are estimated using Johansen’s method. Essentially, ML-ECM is designed to extract the best trends, with the number of trends unrestricted. KF-SSM extracts the best single trend. In two-dimensional applications, such as the previous two, both approaches must extract only one

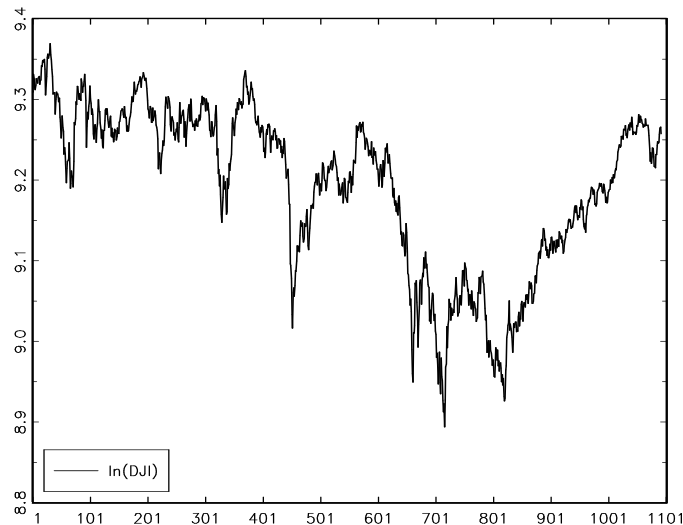


Figure 5.6: Log of the DJIA (December 2, 1999 – April 7, 2004).

trend. In higher-dimensional applications, only one trend may be desired. In this case, KF-SSM provides a better approach.

Gonzalo and Granger (1995) recommend dividing such a high-dimensional cointegrated system into cohorts when analyzing with ML-ECM.⁸ Essentially, those authors propose a two-step methodology to extract a single common trend. A common trend is extracted from the common trends that are first extracted from each of these cohorts. This reduces the dimensionality involved in each step. Natural cohorts may be difficult to identify. For example, in this application, it would be reasonable to group American Express, Citigroup, and JP Morgan Chase as financial companies. But other companies such as Exxon Mobil cannot easily be grouped with others. Moreover, with current computing power, this is unnecessary. Calculations with a 30×30 matrix can be accomplished with GAUSS on a desktop computer in a reasonable amount of time.

In this application, we use prices from Yahoo! Finance. These daily closing prices are adjusted to take into account stock splits and dividends using the methodology developed by the Center for Research in Security Prices. Figure 5.6 illustrates the DJIA observed from December 2, 1999 through April 7, 2004, which is the longest recent stretch during which the companies comprising the DJIA did not change (we have 1,092 observations, excluding weekends and holidays). Figure 5.7 shows the 30 series. We include this figure to illustrate the behavioral diversity of these 30 stocks comprising the index. It is not obvious from casual observation of these 30 series how the common stochastic trend should look.

The implementation of KF-SSM is not as straightforward as that of ML-ECM, since

⁸To put their recommendation in proper context, it should be noted that Gonzalo and Granger (1995) propose the cohort approach more to justify extracting common trends from cohorts of cointegrated systems than to actually estimate the parameters of a high-dimensional cointegrated system. They do *not* propose the cohort approach as an *alternative* to one-step estimation.

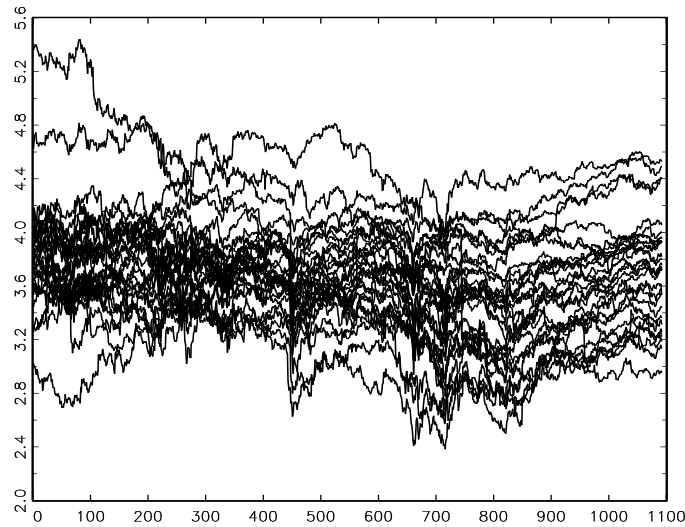


Figure 5.7: Log of the 30 stocks comprising the DJIA (December 2, 1999 – April 7, 2004).

numerical optimization is required. In order to reduce the complexity and necessary computing time created by the large number of parameters, we restrict Λ to be diagonal in this application ($\pi_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$). This reduces the number of parameters to be estimated using MLE from 495 to 60. Parameter estimates and standard errors for β using KF-SSM are given in the following table.

Table 5.3: Parameter Estimates from KF-SSM

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>
β_1	0.0093	5.7×10^{-5}	β_{16}	0.0087	5.1×10^{-5}
β_2	0.0080	4.6×10^{-5}	β_{17}	0.0082	4.8×10^{-5}
β_3	0.0084	5.4×10^{-5}	β_{18}	0.0080	5.2×10^{-5}
β_4	0.0088	5.1×10^{-5}	β_{19}	0.0107	6.1×10^{-5}
β_5	0.0094	7.5×10^{-5}	β_{20}	0.0084	4.9×10^{-5}
β_6	0.0087	5.1×10^{-5}	β_{21}	0.0084	5.0×10^{-5}
β_7	0.0090	5.5×10^{-5}	β_{22}	0.0091	5.4×10^{-5}
β_8	0.0087	5.0×10^{-5}	β_{23}	0.0076	4.5×10^{-5}
β_9	0.0091	5.2×10^{-5}	β_{24}	0.0094	5.4×10^{-5}
β_{10}	0.0087	5.0×10^{-5}	β_{25}	0.0080	4.7×10^{-5}
β_{11}	0.0083	4.9×10^{-5}	β_{26}	0.0084	5.1×10^{-5}
β_{12}	0.0085	4.8×10^{-5}	β_{27}	0.0080	4.8×10^{-5}
β_{13}	0.0084	4.9×10^{-5}	β_{28}	0.0098	5.7×10^{-5}
β_{14}	0.0090	5.2×10^{-5}	β_{29}	0.0093	5.4×10^{-5}
β_{15}	0.0074	4.8×10^{-5}	β_{30}	0.0075	4.5×10^{-5}

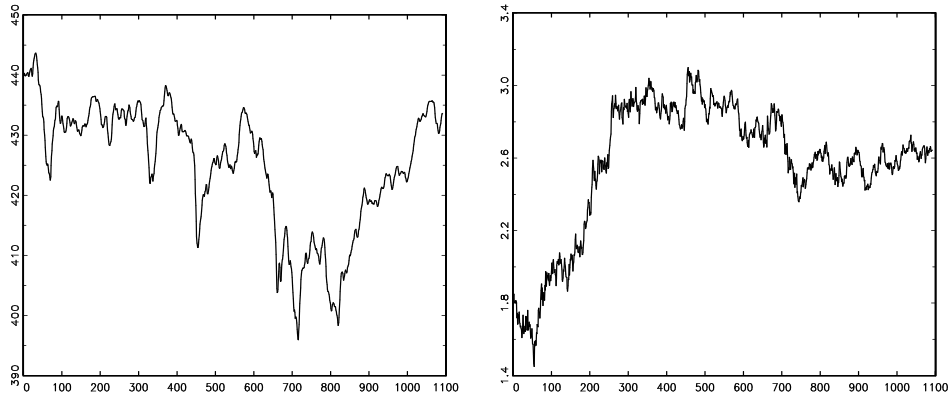


Figure 5.8: (a) Common stochastic trend extracted using KF-SSM; (b) Common stochastic trend extracted using ML-ECM.

In the interest of brevity, we do not report parameter estimates or standard errors for the variance parameters.

We cannot reproduce the DJIA exactly, because we restrict $\sigma_v^2 = 1$ for the identification of β .⁹ In light of this restriction, we expect to extract a common trend resembling the DJIA only up to an affine transformation. Figure 5.8(a) shows the common trend extracted using KF-SSM, and may be directly compared with the actual DJIA shown in Figure 5.6. The similarity suggests that KF-SSM works quite well. (We do not illustrate the transitory components in this application, since the thirty-dimensional series generated by KF-SSM does not contribute anything substantial to our exposition.)

Figure 5.8(b) shows the trend extracted using ML-ECM. The failure of ML-ECM to replicate anything resembling the actual Dow Jones Industrial Average supports our intuition about the dangers of restricting the number of trends to be estimated when using that technique. Essentially, it restricts the number of common trends *after* multiple trends are extracted. Whereas, KF-SSM imposes the restriction *before* the trend is extracted. If the restriction is desired – as it is in this application – KF-SSM is clearly a more appealing approach.

6. Conclusions

The chief aim of this paper from a theoretical point of view is to justify the use of the Kalman filter when the underlying state space model contains integrated time series. Specifically, this class of models is useful when a single stochastic trend is common to a vector of observable cointegrated time series. Our technique is certainly not novel. The literature contains many applications that employ the Kalman filter when the assumption of stationarity can-

⁹Alternatively, we could set σ_v^2 equal to the variance of the differenced DJIA, which might reasonably yield a common trend more closely resembling the DJIA. However, in more general applications, no obvious choice for σ_v^2 exists.

not be maintained. The filter seems to work reasonably well in such applications, but there is no well-known theory to support its use in the nonstationary case. Therein lies the *raison d'être* of our theoretical analysis. Our empirical applications demonstrate how our models and theories are useful in practice.

Our research suggests many avenues for future efforts along these lines. We limit our focus to extracting a single stochastic trend, but certainly the Kalman filter could be applied with an unobservable vector of trends. More formal testing procedures could perhaps be developed to test for the number of trends, as has been done for error correction models. An advantage of the approach based on state space models is that it does not require nonstationarity. It is easily conceivable that a common trend with a near-unit root or an unobservable vector with a combination of stationary and nonstationary components, for example, could be extracted using such an approach. Although we find some evidence of a unit root in the common trend extracted from stock return volatility and trading volume, we do not have a formal test other than a standard unit root test on the extracted series. We leave these and other challenges for future research.

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Appendix: Mathematical Proofs

Proof of Lemma 2.1 We have

$$\omega_{t+1|t} = 1 + \omega_{t|t-1} - \omega_{t|t-1}^2 \beta' \Sigma_{t|t-1}^{-1} \beta, \quad (35)$$

which follows directly from the prediction and updating steps of the Kalman filter. Moreover, we may easily deduce that

$$\Sigma_{t|t-1}^{-1} = \Lambda^{-1} - \frac{\omega_{t|t-1}}{1 + \omega_{t|t-1} \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \Lambda^{-1} \beta \beta' \Lambda^{-1}, \quad (36)$$

and therefore,

$$\beta' \Sigma_{t|t-1}^{-1} \beta = \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta - \frac{\omega_{t|t-1} (\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta)^2}{1 + \omega_{t|t-1} \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} = \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta}{1 + \omega_{t|t-1} \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta}. \quad (37)$$

Therefore, it follows from (35) and (37) that

$$\omega_{t+1|t} = 1 + \frac{\omega_{t|t-1}}{1 + \omega_{t|t-1} \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta}, \quad (38)$$

which defines a first order difference equation for $\omega_{t|t-1}$.

Now we may readily see that the first order difference equation in (38) has the unique asymptotic steady state solution given in Lemma 1. For this, consider the function

$$f(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{1 + \tau x}$$

for $x \geq 1$, with any $\tau \geq 0$. The function has an intersection with the identity function at

$$x = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4/\tau}}{2}$$

over its domain $x \geq 1$. Moreover, the function is monotone increasing with

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{(1 + \tau x)^2} < 1$$

for all $x \geq 1$. This completes the proof for the existence of the stable value of $\omega_{t|t-1}$. The proof of $\Sigma_{t|t-1}$ follows immediately from that of $\omega_{t|t-1}$. \square

Proof of Lemma 2.2 From the prediction and updating steps of the Kalman filter, we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t+1|t} &= x_{t|t-1} + \omega_{t|t-1} \beta' \Sigma_{t|t-1}^{-1} (y_t - y_{t|t-1}) \\ &= x_{t|t-1} + \omega_{t|t-1} \beta' \Sigma_{t|t-1}^{-1} (y_t - \beta x_{t|t-1}). \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

However, it follows from (36) that

$$\Sigma^{-1} = \Lambda^{-1} - \frac{\omega}{1 + \omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \Lambda^{-1} \beta \beta' \Lambda^{-1}, \quad (40)$$

where Σ is the asymptotic steady state value of $\Sigma_{t|t-1}$ given in (3). Therefore, we have from (36)

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma^{-1} \beta &= \Lambda^{-1} \beta - \frac{\omega}{1 + \omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \Lambda^{-1} \beta \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \Lambda^{-1} \beta, \\ &= \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta}{1 + \omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \frac{\Lambda^{-1} \beta}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \beta' \Sigma^{-1} \beta &= \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta - \frac{\omega}{1 + \omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta \\ &= \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta}{1 + \omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta}. \end{aligned} \quad (42)$$

Moreover, we may deduce that

$$\omega \beta' \Sigma^{-1} \beta = \frac{\omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta}{1 + \omega \beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} = \frac{1}{\omega} \quad (43)$$

due to (35) and (42).

Now we have from (39), (41) and (43) that

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t+1|t} &= x_{t|t-1} + \frac{1}{\omega} \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} y_t - \frac{1}{\omega} x_{t|t-1} \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right) x_{t|t-1} + \frac{1}{\omega} \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} y_t, \end{aligned}$$

and consequently,

$$x_{t|t-1} = \frac{1}{\omega} \sum_{k=1}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right)^{k-1} \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} y_{t-k} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right)^{t-1} x_{1|0}. \quad (44)$$

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\omega} \sum_{k=1}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right)^{k-1} y_{t-k} &= \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right)\right] \sum_{k=1}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right)^{k-1} y_{t-k} \\ &= y_t - \sum_{k=0}^{t-2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right)^k \Delta y_{t-k} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega}\right)^{t-1} y_1. \end{aligned} \quad (45)$$

The stated result now follows from (44) and (45) in a straightforward manner. Note that $x_{1|0} = x_{0|0} = x_0$ and $y_0 = 0$. The proof is therefore complete. \square

Proof of Proposition 2.3 It follows from Lemma 2.2 that

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t|t-1}^0 &= \frac{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} \left[(\beta_0 x_t + u_t) - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^k (\beta_0 v_{t-k} + (u_{t-k} - u_{t-k-1})) \right] \\ &= x_t + \frac{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1}}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} \left[u_t - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^k (u_{t-k} - u_{t-k-1}) \right] - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^k v_{t-k} \end{aligned} \quad (46)$$

However, we may easily deduce that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^k (u_{t-k} - u_{t-k-1}) = u_t - \frac{1}{\omega_0} \sum_{k=1}^{t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^{k-1} u_{t-k}. \quad (47)$$

The stated result now follows readily from (46) and (47). \square

Proof of Proposition 2.4 Starting with the smoothing formula, steady state values for $\omega_{t|t}$ and $\omega_{t+1|t}$ (which are $\omega - 1$ and ω , respectively), and evaluating all parameters at their true values, we may write

$$x_{t|n}^0 = x_{t|t}^0 + (1 - 1/\omega_0) (x_{t+1|n}^0 - x_{t+1|t}^0),$$

which is equivalent to

$$x_{t|n}^0 = \frac{1}{\omega_0} x_{t|t}^0 + \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right) x_{t+1|n}^0$$

since $x_{t+1|t}^0 = x_{t|t}^0$ from the prediction step. This may be rewritten as

$$x_{t|n}^0 = \frac{1}{\omega_0} \sum_{k=0}^{n-t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^k x_{t+k|t+k}^0 + \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^{n-t} x_{n|n}^0$$

by recursion. Since $1/\omega_0 = 1 - (1 - 1/\omega_0)$, we may use a technique similar to that employed in the proof of Lemma 2.2 to obtain

$$x_{t|n}^0 = \sum_{k=0}^{n-t} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^k x_{t+k|t+k}^0 - \sum_{j=0}^{n-t-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^{j+1} x_{t+j|t+j}^0,$$

where the initial condition is subsumed in the first summation. By bringing the term for which $k = 0$ out of the first summation, and by relabeling the index on the second as $k = j + 1$, the stated result follows. \square

Proof of Lemma 3.1 The proof just requires the standard rules of differentiation, and the details are therefore omitted. \square

Proof of Lemma 3.2 In the proof, we use the generic notation w_t to signify any stationary linear process driven by (u_t) and (v_t) . In particular, the definition of w_t is different from line to line. Due to Lemma 2.2, we may write

$$x_{t|t-1} = \frac{\beta' \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} y_t + w_t. \quad (48)$$

for all values of β and Λ . Moreover, we may readily deduce that

$$\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial \beta} = \frac{\Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \left(I - 2 \frac{\beta \beta' \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \right) y_t + w_t \quad (49)$$

$$\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial \text{vec} \Lambda} = -\frac{\Lambda^{-1} \beta \otimes \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \left(I - \frac{\beta \beta' \Lambda^{-1}}{\beta' \Lambda^{-1} \beta} \right) y_t + w_t \quad (50)$$

for all values of β and Λ . As a consequence, if we use the superscript “0” to denote the derivative $\partial x_{t|t-1} / \partial \theta$ evaluated at the true parameter values consistently with our earlier notations, then we have

$$\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta} = -\frac{\Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0}{\beta_0' \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} x_t + w_t \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec} \Lambda} = w_t. \quad (51)$$

We now note that

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \beta} = -x_{t|t-1}^0 I - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta} \beta' \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \text{vec} \Lambda} = -\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec} \Lambda} \beta',$$

from which the stated result follows immediately. \square

Proof of Lemma 3.3 It follows immediately from (21) that

$$V_n(r) = -\Gamma_0' \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^{[nr]} v_t + o_p(1).$$

Moreover, due to (21), $T_S'(\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'} / \partial \theta)$ is a stationary linear process. Moreover, it is \mathcal{F}_{t-1} -measurable. Consequently, W_n is a partial sum process of the martingale difference sequence $T_S'(\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'} / \partial \theta) \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0$. The stated results can therefore be readily deduced from the invariance principle for the martingale difference sequence. \square

Proof of Lemma 3.4 To deduce the stated result, we simply note that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} \text{vec} \left[\Sigma_0^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \Sigma_0^{-1} \right] \\
&= \frac{\partial v(\Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} D' (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \text{vec} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \right] \\
&\rightarrow_d \frac{\partial v(\Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} D' (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \mathbb{N} \left(0, (I + K)(\Sigma_0 \otimes \Sigma_0) \right) \\
&=_d \frac{\partial v(\Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} \mathbb{N} \left(0, 2D' (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) D \right) \\
&=_d \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} \mathbb{N} \left(0, 2(\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \right).
\end{aligned}$$

Here we use the fact

$$KD = D,$$

as shown in, e.g., Magnus and Neudecker (1988, p.49). \square

Proof of Theorem 3.5 The proof will be done in three steps, for each of ML1 – ML3. In the proof, we use the following notational convention:

- (a) (w_t) denotes a linear process driven by $(u_s)_{s=1}^t$ and $(v_s)_{s=1}^t$ that has geometrically decaying coefficients, and
- (b) (\bar{w}_t) is such a process that is \mathcal{F}_t -measurable.

The notations w_t and \bar{w}_t are *generic* and signify any processes satisfying the conditions specified above. In general, w_t and \bar{w}_t appearing in different lines represent different processes.

First Step We have

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{n} T'_N s_n(\theta_0) &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} T'_N \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \text{vec} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \right] \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_N \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 \\
&= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_N \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 + O_p(n^{-1/2}) \\
&= -\int_0^1 V_n(r) dU_n(r) + o_p(1) \\
&\rightarrow_d -\int_0^1 V(r) dU(r) \tag{52}
\end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. On the other hand, we may deduce that

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} T'_S s_n(\theta_0) &= \frac{1}{2} T'_S \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \text{vec} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n (\varepsilon_t^0 \varepsilon_t^{0'} - \Sigma_0) \right] \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_S \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 \\
&= Z_n - W_n \\
&\rightarrow_d Z - W
\end{aligned} \tag{53}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Consequently, it follows from (52) and (53) that ML1 holds with N given in the theorem.

Second Step Next we establish ML2. First, we note that

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{n^2} T'_N H_n(\theta_0) T_N &= -\frac{1}{n^2} T'_N \left(\sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right) T_N + O_p(n^{-1}) \\
&= -\int_0^1 V_n(r) \Sigma_0^{-1} V_n(r)' dr + o_p(1) \\
&\rightarrow_d -\int_0^1 V(r) \Sigma_0^{-1} V(r)' dr
\end{aligned} \tag{54}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and that

$$\frac{1}{n^{3/2}} T'_N H_n(\theta_0) T_S = O_p(n^{-1/2}) \tag{55}$$

for large n , which are in particular due to

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{t=1}^n (I \otimes \varepsilon_t^{0'} \Sigma_0^{-1}) \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) &= O_p(n) \\
\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) &= O_p(n) \\
\sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \otimes \varepsilon_t^{0'} \right) (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)}{\partial \theta'} &= O_p(n)
\end{aligned}$$

for large n .

Secondly, we show that

$$\frac{1}{n} T'_S H_n(\theta_0) T_S \rightarrow_p -[\text{var}(W) + \text{var}(Z)], \tag{56}$$

which establishes ML2, together with (54) and (55). To derive (56), we first write

$$\frac{1}{n} T'_S H_n(\theta_0) T_S = A_n + B_n + C_n + (D_n + D'_n) + o_p(1), \tag{57}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
A_n &= -\frac{1}{2}T'_S \left[\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)}{\partial\theta'} \right] T_S + o_p(1) \\
B_n &= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_S \left(\frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} \Sigma_0^{-1} \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^0}{\partial\theta'} \right) T_S \\
C_n &= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_S \left[(I \otimes \varepsilon_t^{0'} \Sigma_0^{-1}) \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\theta\partial\theta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) \right] T_S \\
D_n &= T'_S \left[\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^0}{\partial\theta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) \right] T_S.
\end{aligned}$$

As shown earlier, we have

$$A_n = -\text{var}(Z) + o_p(1) \quad \text{and} \quad B_n = -\text{var}(W) + o_p(1). \quad (58)$$

Moreover, since

$$T'_S \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\theta} = \bar{w}_{t-1},$$

we have

$$D_n = T'_S \left[\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial\theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^0}{\partial\theta'} T_S \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) \right] = O_p(n^{-1/2}) \quad (59)$$

for large n .

Now it suffices to show that

$$C_n = \begin{pmatrix} C_n(\beta, \beta) & C_n(\beta, \Lambda) \\ C_n(\Lambda, \beta) & C_n(\Lambda, \Lambda) \end{pmatrix} = O_p(n^{-1/2}), \quad (60)$$

since (56) follows immediately from (57) – (60). For the subsequent proof, it will be very useful to note that

$$x_{t|t-1} + \beta' \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial\beta} = \bar{w}_{t-1}$$

for all β and Λ . Therefore, we have upon differentiating with respect to β and Λ

$$2 \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial\beta'} + \beta' \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}}{\partial\beta\partial\beta'} = \bar{w}_{t-1} \quad (61)$$

$$\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial(\text{vec } \Lambda)'} + \beta' \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}}{\partial\beta\partial(\text{vec } \Lambda)'} = \bar{w}_{t-1}, \quad (62)$$

which hold for all β and Λ .

For (60), we first prove

$$C_n(\beta, \beta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \beta_0' \left[(I \otimes \varepsilon_t^{0'} \Sigma_0^{-1}) \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\beta\partial\beta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) \right] \beta_0 = O_p(n^{-1/2}). \quad (63)$$

This can be easily derived, since we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\beta\partial\beta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0\right) \beta_0 &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\beta'} \text{vec} \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\beta}\right) \beta_0 \\
&= \left[-(\text{vec} I) \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta'} - \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta\partial\beta'} \otimes \beta_0 - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta} \otimes I\right] \beta_0 \\
&= -\text{vec} \left[\left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta'} \beta_0\right) I + \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta\partial\beta'} \beta_0 \beta_0' + \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta} \beta_0' \right] \\
&= -\text{vec} \left[\left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta'} \beta_0\right) I - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta} \beta_0' \right] + \bar{w}_{t-1},
\end{aligned}$$

and it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_0' \left[(I \otimes \varepsilon_t^{0'} \Sigma_0^{-1}) \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\beta\partial\beta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0\right) \right] \beta_0 \\
= -\beta_0' \left[\left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta'} \beta_0\right) I - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta} \beta_0' \right] \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 + \bar{w}_{t-1} \varepsilon_t^0 = \bar{w}_{t-1} \varepsilon_t^0,
\end{aligned}$$

from which we may deduce (63), upon noticing

$$\sum_{t=1}^n \bar{w}_{t-1} \varepsilon_t^0 = O_p(n^{1/2})$$

for large n .

Similarly, we have for any vector λ of conformable dimension

$$\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\beta\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0\right) \lambda &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \text{vec} \frac{\partial\varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial\beta}\right) \lambda \\
&= \left[-(\text{vec} I) \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} - \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \otimes \beta_0\right] \lambda \\
&= -\text{vec} \left[\left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \lambda\right) I + \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \lambda \beta_0' \right],
\end{aligned}$$

and it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_0' \left[(I \otimes \varepsilon_t^{0'} \Sigma_0^{-1}) \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\beta\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0\right) \right] \lambda \\
= -\beta_0' \left[\left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \lambda\right) I + \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial\beta\partial(\text{vec} \Lambda)'} \lambda \beta_0' \right] \Sigma_0^{-1} \varepsilon_t^0 = \bar{w}_{t-1} \varepsilon_t^0,
\end{aligned}$$

as was to be shown. The proof for $C_n(\Lambda, \Lambda)$ is straightforward, since

$$\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec} \Lambda} = \bar{w}_{t-1} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec} \Lambda \partial (\text{vec} \Lambda)'} = \bar{w}_{t-1}. \quad (64)$$

This can be easily deduced after some tedious but straightforward algebra. The proof for ML2 with given M is therefore complete.

Third Step To establish ML3, we let

$$\mu_n = \nu_n^{1-\delta}$$

for some $\delta > 0$ small, and let $\theta \in \Theta_n$ be arbitrarily chosen. Since

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1} (\beta - \beta_0) &= O(n^{-1+\delta}) \\ \frac{\beta'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1}}{(\beta'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0)^{1/2}} (\beta - \beta_0) &= O(n^{-1/2+\delta}), \end{aligned}$$

we may set

$$\beta = \beta_0 + n^{-1/2+\delta} \beta_0 + n^{-1+\delta} \Gamma_0 \quad (65)$$

$$\Lambda = \Lambda_0 + n^{-1/2+\delta} I \quad (66)$$

without loss of generality.

We will show that

$$\frac{1}{n^{2(1-\delta)}} T'_N \left[\sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon'_t}{\partial \theta} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \right) \Sigma_0^{-1} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right] T_N \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (67)$$

$$\frac{1}{n^{2(1-\delta)}} T'_N \left[\sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon'_t}{\partial \theta} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \right) \Sigma_0^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \theta'} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right) \right] T_N \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (68)$$

$$\frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} T'_S \left[\sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon'_t}{\partial \theta} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \right) \Sigma_0^{-1} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (69)$$

$$\frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_S \left[(I \otimes (\varepsilon'_t - \varepsilon_t^{0'})) \Sigma_0^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (70)$$

$$\frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_S \left[(I \otimes \varepsilon_t^{0'} \Sigma_0^{-1}) \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes (\varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_t^0) \right) \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (71)$$

$$T'_S \left[\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \theta'} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right) \otimes \varepsilon_t^0 \right) \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (72)$$

$$T'_S \left[\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \otimes (\varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_t^0) \right) \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (73)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} T'_S \left[\sum_{t=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon'_t}{\partial \theta} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta} \right) \Sigma_0^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \theta'} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right) \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (74)$$

$$\frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} \sum_{t=1}^n T'_S \left[(I \otimes (\varepsilon'_t - \varepsilon_t^{0'})) \Sigma_0^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes (\varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_t^0) \right) \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (75)$$

$$T'_S \left[\frac{\partial(\text{vec } \Sigma_0)'}{\partial \theta} (\Sigma_0^{-1} \otimes \Sigma_0^{-1}) \frac{1}{n^{1-\delta}} \sum_{t=1}^n \left(\left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \theta'} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^0}{\partial \theta'} \right) \otimes (\varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_t^0) \right) \right] T_S \rightarrow_p 0 \quad (76)$$

for all β and Λ satisfying (65) and (66).

Here we only prove that the nonstationary components in (67) – (76) satisfy the required conditions. It is rather obvious that the required conditions hold for the stationary components. In what follows, we use the generic notation $\Delta(n^\kappa x_t)$ to denote the terms which include n^κ (or of a lower order) times (x_t) . Clearly, we have

$$\varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_t^0, \quad \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t'}{\partial \theta} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \theta}, \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \otimes (\varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_t^0) = \Delta(n^{-1/2+\delta} x_t) + w_t, \quad (77)$$

since both $\beta = \beta_0 + O(n^{-1/2+\delta})$ and $\Lambda = \Lambda_0 + O(n^{-1/2+\delta})$. The results in (67) – (73) follow immediately from (77).

The proofs for (74) – (76) are more involved. For (75) and (76), we need to show

$$x_{t|t-1}^0 = x_t + w_t \quad (78)$$

$$x_{t|t-1} - x_{t|t-1}^0 = -n^{-1/2+\delta} x_t + \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t. \quad (79)$$

The result in (78) follows directly from (48). To establish (79), note that

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t|t-1} - x_{t|t-1}^0 &= \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta'} (\beta - \beta_0) + \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial (\text{vec } \Lambda)'} (\text{vec } \Lambda - \text{vec } \Lambda_0) + \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t \\ &= -n^{-1/2+\delta} x_t + \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t \end{aligned}$$

due to (51). Now it follows immediately from (78) and (79) that

$$\varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_t^0 = -(\beta - \beta_0) x_{t|t-1}^0 - \beta \left(x_{t|t-1} - x_{t|t-1}^0 \right) = \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t, \quad (80)$$

from which, together with (77), we may easily deduce (75) and (76).

Finally, we prove (74). To do so, we first show that

$$\beta_0' \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta} = -x_t + w_t \quad (81)$$

$$\beta_0' \left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial \beta} - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta} \right) = 2n^{-1/2+\delta} x_t + \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t. \quad (82)$$

The result in (81) follows immediately from (51). To derive (82), we note that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial \beta} - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta} &= \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta \partial \beta'} (\beta - \beta_0) + \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta \partial (\text{vec } \Lambda)'} (\text{vec } \Lambda - \text{vec } \Lambda_0) \\ &\quad + \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t, \end{aligned}$$

and that

$$\beta_0' \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta \partial \beta'} = -2\beta_0' \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta'} (\beta - \beta_0) + w_t \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_0' \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta \partial (\text{vec } \Lambda)'} = w_t, \quad (83)$$

which follow from (51), (61) and (62). Consequently, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta'_0 \left(\frac{\partial \varepsilon'_t}{\partial \beta} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \beta} \right) &= - \left(x_{t|t-1} - x_{t|t-1}^0 \right) \beta'_0 - \beta'_0 \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta} (\beta - \beta_0)' \\
&\quad - \left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial \beta} - \beta'_0 \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \beta} \right) \beta' \\
&= n^{-1+2\delta} x_t + w_t,
\end{aligned} \tag{84}$$

due to (79), (81) and (82).

Moreover, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
&\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda} - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda} \\
&= \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda \partial \beta'} (\beta - \beta_0) + \frac{\partial^2 x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda \partial (\text{vec } \Lambda)'} (\text{vec } \Lambda - \text{vec } \Lambda_0) + \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t \\
&= \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t,
\end{aligned} \tag{85}$$

due to (64) and (83). Consequently, it follows directly from (85) that

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial \varepsilon'_t}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda} - \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t^{0'}}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda} &= - \left(\frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda} - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda} \right) \beta' - \frac{\partial x_{t|t-1}^0}{\partial \text{vec } \Lambda} (\beta - \beta_0)' \\
&= \Delta(n^{-1+2\delta} x_t) + w_t.
\end{aligned} \tag{86}$$

Now (84) and (86) yield (74), and the proof is complete. \square

Proof of Proposition 4.1 The stated result follows immediately from Lemma 2.2 and the result in (19). Note that we have from Lemma 2.2

$$\beta_0 x_{t|t-1}^0 = \frac{\beta_0 \beta'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1}}{\beta'_0 \Lambda_0^{-1} \beta_0} \left[y_t - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} (1 - 1/\omega_0)^k \Delta y_{t-k} \right]$$

under the convention (5), and the stated result may now be easily derived using (19) and

$$\beta_0 x_{t|t-1}^0 = y_t - \varepsilon_t^0,$$

which is due to the definition of (ε_t^0) . \square