Multivariate Time Series

Fall 2008

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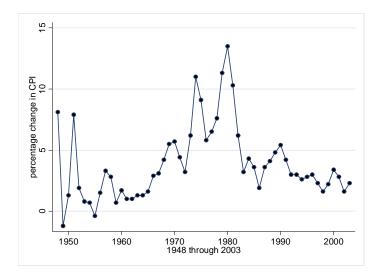
Thus, a random walk (with or without drift) is said to be **integrated** of order one, or I(1).

• Suppose the first difference of the time series follows a random walk:

$$\Delta Y_t = \mu_0 + \Delta Y_{t-1} + u_t$$

Again, in order to make it stationary, we need to take the difference of the first difference, $\Delta Y_t - \Delta Y_{t-1}$, called the second difference of Y_t . This series is said to be **integrated of order** 2, or I(2).

Example: Inflation Rates in USA (1948~2003)

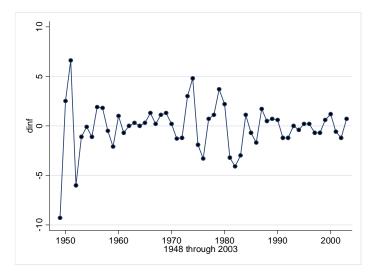


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Example: First Differences of Inflation Rates



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- (Dickey-Fuller (DF) Test) We use the *t* statistic. But, notice that, under the null, the *t* statistic does not follow the asymptotic standard normal distribution.
- Dickey and Fuller (1979) obtained the asymptotic distribution of the *t* statistic under the null, called the Dickey-Fuller distribution.

Example: Testing whether Inflation Rates are I(1)

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	Coeff.	t-stat.
Inf_1	-0.33	-3.31
Constant	1.17	2.40

 $Inf_t - Inf_{t-1} = \mu + \theta Inf_{t-1} + u_t$

• The asymptotic critical values for unit root t test is given

Sig. Level	1%	5%	10%
Critical Value	-3.43	-2.86	-2.57

• With 5% significance level, we reject the null since the *t* statistic (-3.31) is smaller than the critical value (-2.86).

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- A simple form is the vector autoregression model of two time series with order 1, called *VAR* (1):

$$\begin{array}{rcl} Y_t &=& \mu_{10} + \rho_{11} Y_{t-1} + \rho_{12} X_{t-1} + u_{1t} \\ X_t &=& \mu_{20} + \rho_{21} Y_{t-1} + \rho_{22} X_{t-1} + u_{2t} \end{array}$$

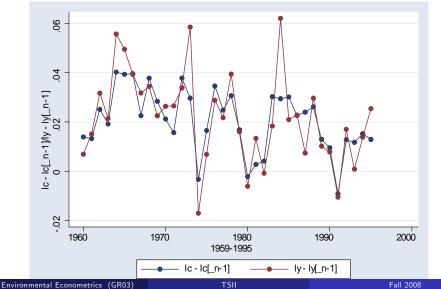
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• Under the stationarity and ergodicity assumptions, we estimate the coefficients by using the OLS equation by equation.

- It is often the case that VAR results can be difficult to interpret.
- What are the short-run/long-run effects of variables?
- What is the dynamics of Y_t after a unit-shock in X_t at time period t?
- A impluse response function measures this kind of dynamics: the predicted response of one of the dependent variables to a shock through time.

Example: Growth rates of consumption and income in USA (1959 - 1995)



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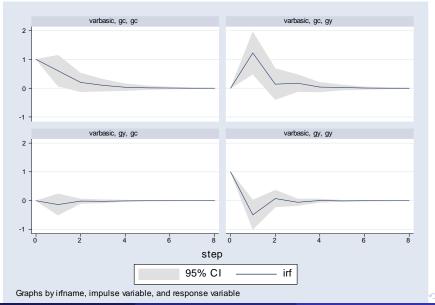
$$gc_t = \mu_{10} + \rho_{11}gc_{t-1} + \rho_{12}gy_{t-1} + u_{1t}$$

$$gy_t = \mu_{20} + \rho_{21}gc_{t-1} + \rho_{22}gy_{t-1} + u_{2t}$$

	Cons. growth (gc)		Inc. growth (gy)	
	Coeff.	Std. Err.	Coeff.	Std. Err.
gc_1	0.61	0.27	1.23	0.37
gy_1	-0.13	0.19	-0.49	0.26
constant	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01

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Example: Impulse Response Function from VAR(1)



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• The Granger causality test is the *F*-statistic or the *Chi*-square statistic testing the null hypothesis that $\gamma_{11} = \gamma_{12} = 0$.

Example: Consumption and income growth rates - VAR(1)

Granger causality Wald tests					
Equation	Excluded	Chi2 (df)	p-value		
gc	gy_1	0.517 (1)	0.47		
gу	gc_1	10.73 (1)	0.00		

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- In principle, a regression of Y_t on X_t should yield a zero coefficient. However, that is often not the case.
- (Spurious regression) Because the two series have a stochastic trend, OLS often picks up this apparent correlation.
- Thus, it is risky to use OLS when the both series are nonstationary.

Stationarizing Variables I

• Suppose we still want to estimate the relationship between two variables:

$$Y_t = eta_0 + eta_1 X_t + arepsilon_t$$

where Y_t and X_t are nonstationary.

- To see whether these variables are correlated, we need to make them stationary before regressing two variables.
- Examples:
 - deterministic trend

$$Y_t = \alpha_{10} + \alpha_{11}t + u_t$$
$$X_t = \alpha_{20} + \alpha_{21}t + v_t$$

stochastic trend

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + u_t$$

$$X_t = X_{t-1} + v_t$$

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- (Detrending a deterministic trend)
 - regress each X_t and Y_t on t and a constant
 - get the residuals \widehat{v}_t and \widehat{u}_t
 - regress \widehat{u}_t on \widehat{v}_t
- (First-differencing) Taking first differences gives a stationary process on each side:

$$Y_t - Y_{t-1} = \beta_1 \left(X_t - X_{t-1} \right) + \varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_{t-1}.$$