

# Modelling Long Run Relationships in Time Series

## In this lecture...

- Financial time series and hedging problems
- Autoregressive process. Testing for stationarity
- How the long-run relationship works: equilibrium correction
- Case Study: cointegration among spot rates (market data)

## By the end of this lecture you will be able to ...

- understand integrated time series
- test for stationarity vs. the unit root
- understand error correction approach to linkage of time series
- estimate cointegration among a pair of time series using the Engle-Granger procedure

## Introduction

Cointegration analysis is a powerful tool for investigating equilibrium trends in multivariate time series.

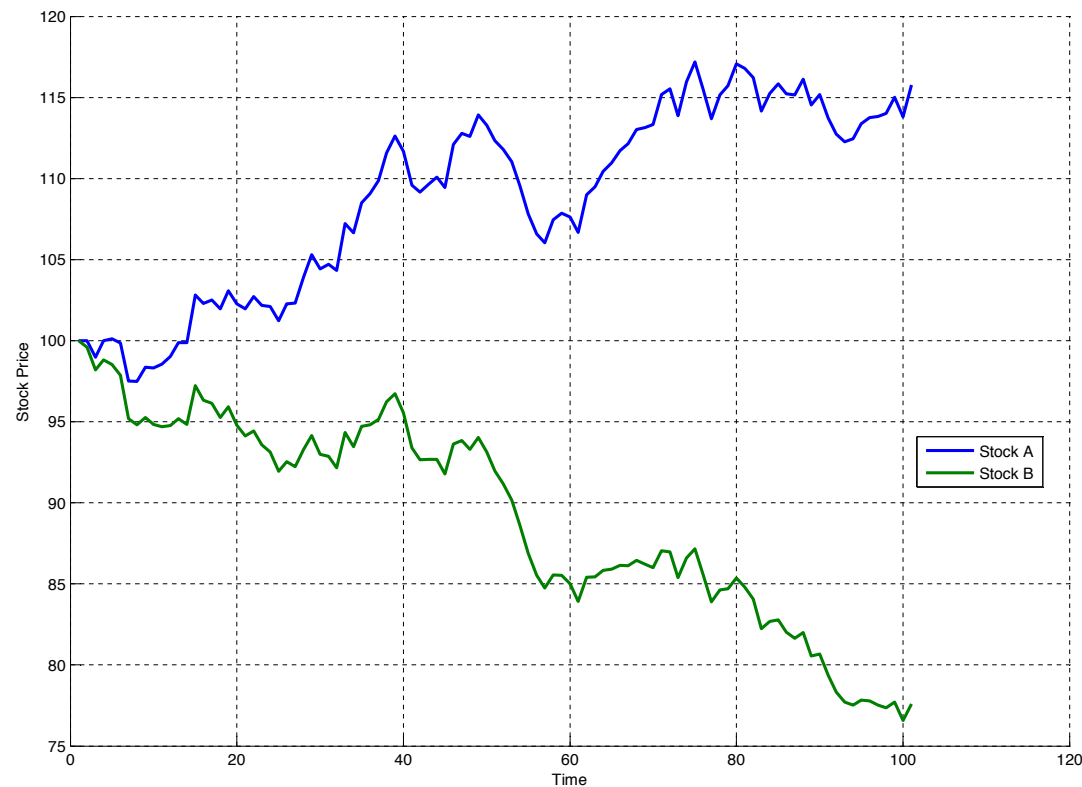
The trends are *common factors*, not statements about direction in asset price.

*How do we work with empirical time series in levels, such as asset prices, CDS levels, or interest rates?*

- The price levels are non-stationary.
- Unlike with differences or returns, **we can't correlate**.

## Correlated Series

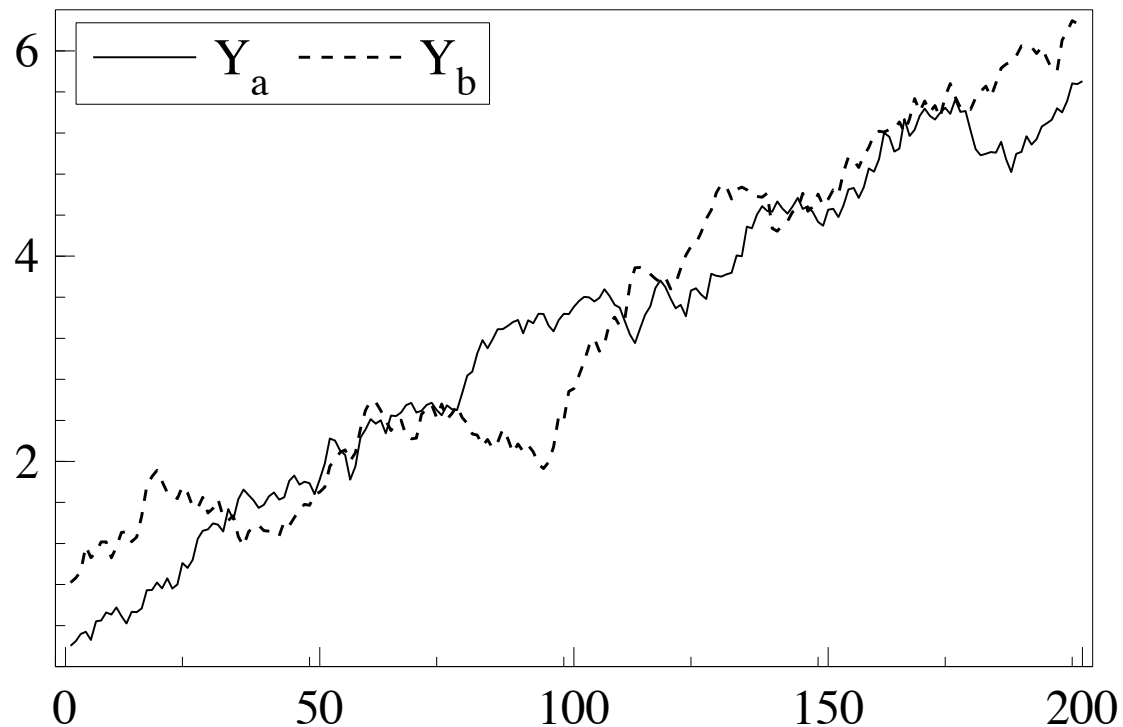
These time series are highly correlated but not cointegrated. Their spread possibly has an exponential fit.



From *Correlation Sensitivity* CQF material.

## No linear equilibrium

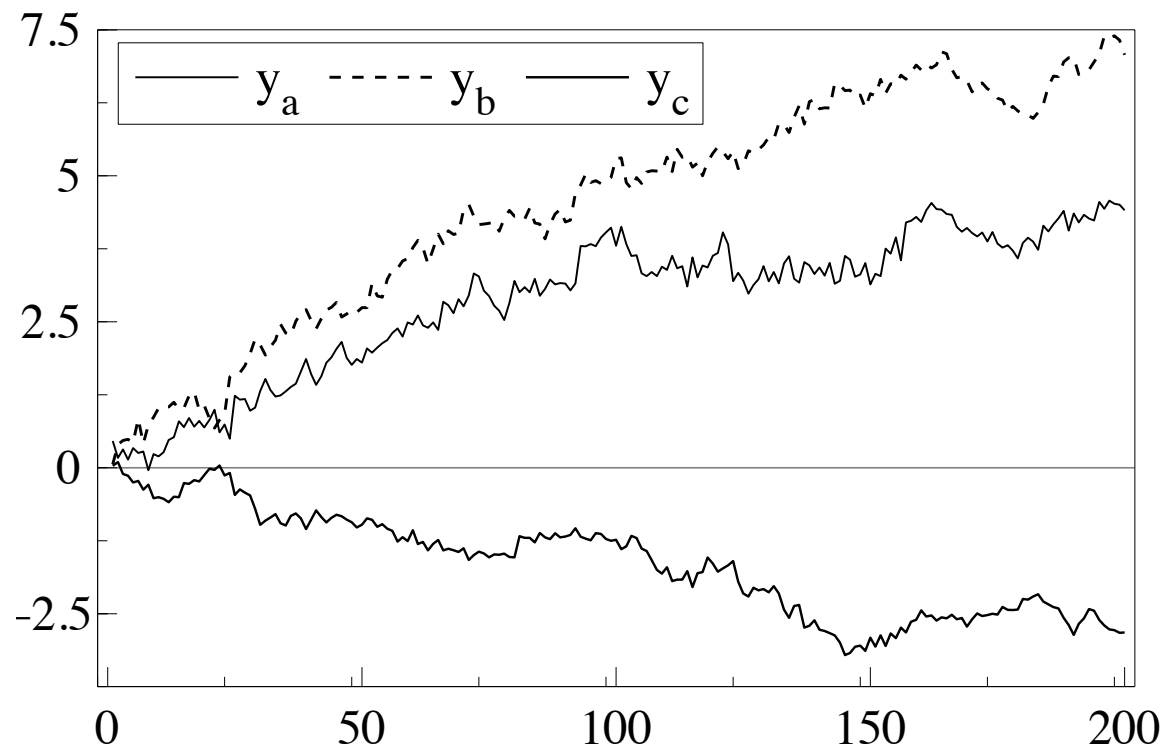
These series are **not** cointegrated. In fact, their spread contains a unit root. Multicollinearity is potentially irresolvable.



From: Hendry & Juselius (2000). *Explaining Cointegration Analysis: Part II*

## Cointegrated Series

These series are **cointegrated**. Their linear combination produces a mean-reverting spread (common factor)  $e_t$ .



From: Hendry & Juselius (2000). *Explaining Cointegration Analysis: Part II*

## A Multivariate Linear Combination

“There are fewer feedbacks than variables.”

If a linear combination with some *special weights*  $\beta'_C$  produces **a stationary spread**:

$$\begin{aligned} e_t &= \beta'_C Y_t & e_t &\sim I(0) \\ &= \pm\beta_1 y_{1,t} \pm \beta_2 y_{2,t} \pm \cdots \pm \beta_n y_{n,t} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

then **cointegration exists**. In a cointegrated system, **the common stochastic trend(s) drive all variables** in the long-run.

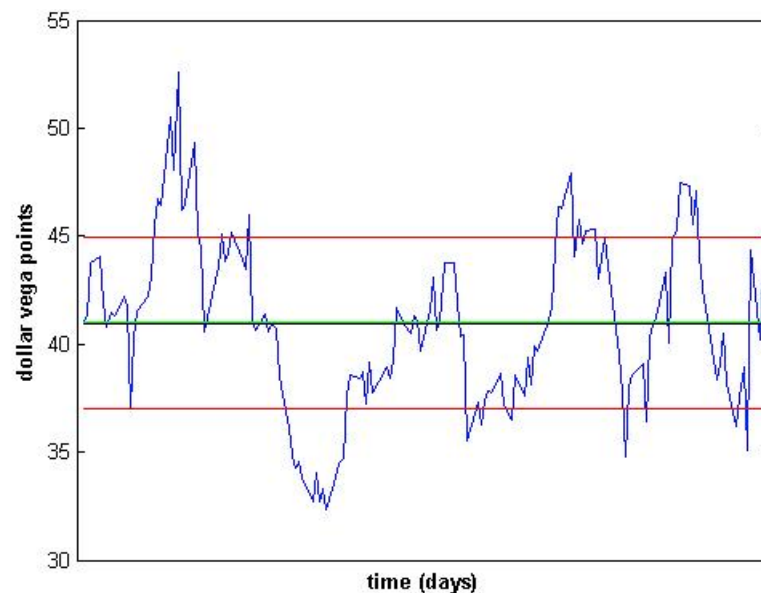
Autoregression in  $Y_t \quad \Rightarrow \quad$  Error Correction  $\Delta Y_t$

Error correction means common term for  $\Delta y_{1,t}, \Delta y_{2,t}, \dots$

## Mean-reverting spread

Cointegrating combination produces the special case of **cointegrating residual**  $e_t = \beta'_C Y_t$ :

- it is stationary  $I(0)$  and mean-reverting  $\theta \gg 0$ .
- Reversion speed  $\theta \approx 44$  and bounds are calculated as  $\sigma_{OU}/\sqrt{2\theta}$



From: Diamond (2013). *Learning and Trusting Cointegration*

Certificate in Quantitative Finance



## Cointegrated system

**Q:** What does the stationarity of  $e_t$  implies?

**A:** It means unit root in each of  $y_{i,t}$  gets cancelled by the differencing. The common stochastic process gets removed.

**Statistical arbitrage:** we can explore mispricing that occurs when asset prices  $y_{i,t}$  produce a **disequilibrium**  $e_t \neq \mu_e$ .

**Hedging problem:** also resolved if hedging ratios  $\beta_C$  give  $e_t$  – portfolio  $\beta'_C Y_t$  is reduced to the stationary spread and common factor(s) made explicit.

## Autoregressive model is parsimonious

VAR(1) model provides a single-period forecast.

- We start with  $Y_t = \beta Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$
- $Y_t$  depends on  $Y_{t-1}$ ,  $Y_{t-1}$  depends on  $Y_{t-2}$ , and so on.

**For returns...** VAR appropriate but forecast is poor  
(betas are decreasing exponentially, a moving average process)

**For levels...** ECM appropriate if cointegration exists  
(autocorrelation fading slower than exponential, long memory)

## Error Correction

$\Delta Y_t$  is the change in market value between  $Y_{t-1}$  and  $Y_t$ .

- Naturally, the change is driven by the risk factors we intend to hedge against.
- Cointegration exists where there is a correction of error in  $\Delta Y_t$  from the equilibrium, but that is **not forecasting!**

## Integrated process (unit root)

Think about the case when autoregressive  $\beta = 1$ ,

- then  $Y_t = \epsilon_t + \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t-2} + \dots + Y_0 = \sum \epsilon_i + Y_0$

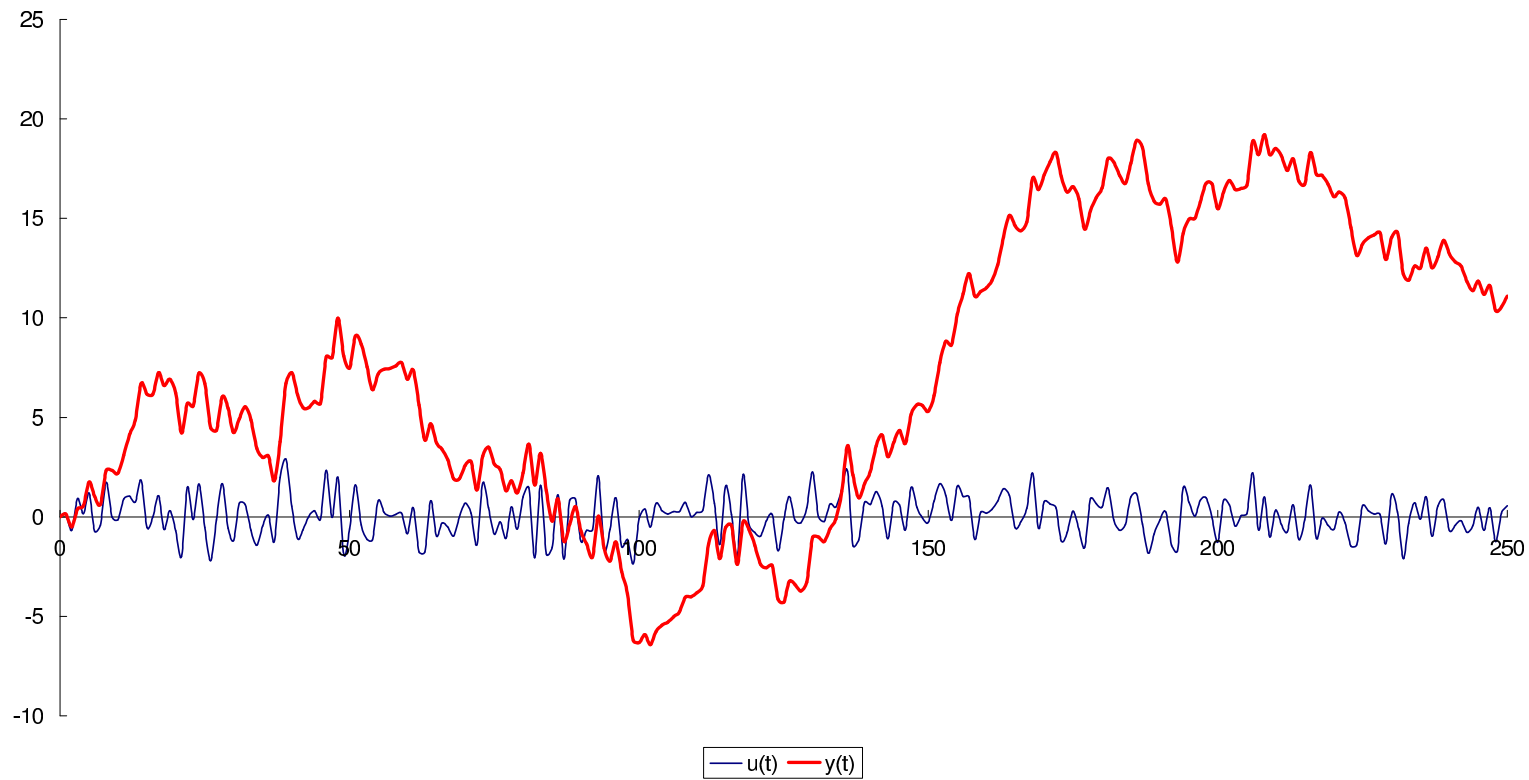
In continuous time, summation becomes an integration, so we say the process is **integrated of order one, I(1)** – or the process has a **unit root**.

Each residual  $\epsilon_{t,\tau}$  is an increment of Brownian Motion  $dW_t$

$$\sum \epsilon_t \Rightarrow \sum dW_t \Rightarrow \epsilon_{t,\tau} \stackrel{D}{=} \int_t^{t+\tau} \sigma dW_s$$

Brownian Motion is a **limiting case** for the integrated series.

## Brownian Motion: a random walk



This simulated process adds up BM increments  $dX_i = \phi_i \sqrt{\tau}$ . **It is integrated, stationarity test will confirm the unit root.**

## ASIDE Factor in SDE simulation

We use increments of the Brownian Motion, simulated as  $\sigma dX_i = \sigma \phi_i \sqrt{\tau}$ , to represent *a factor*.

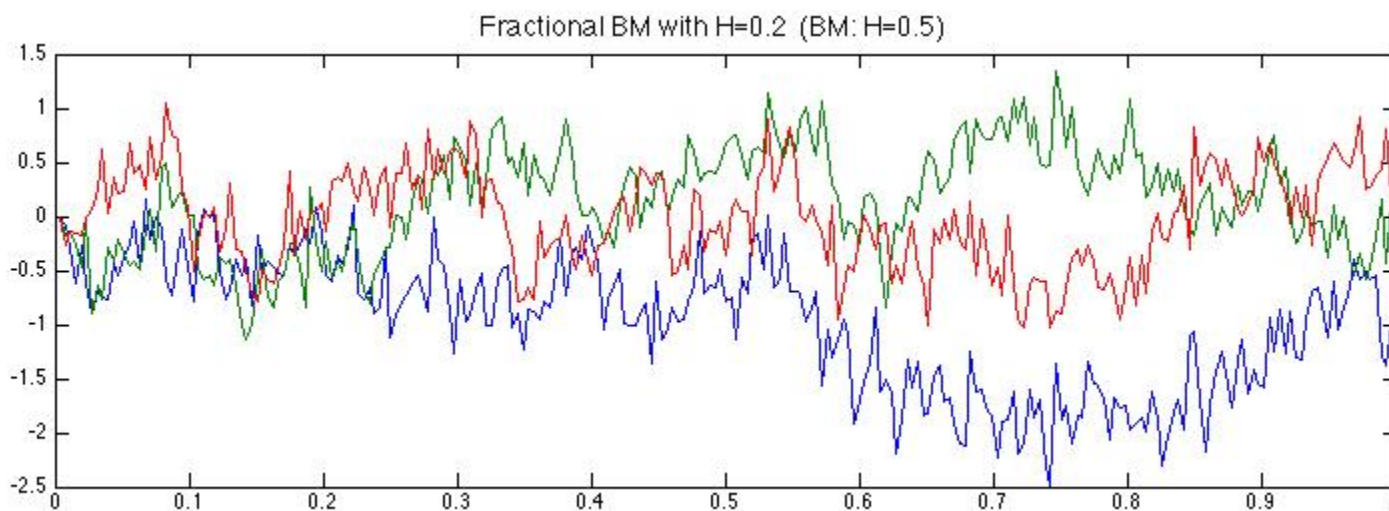
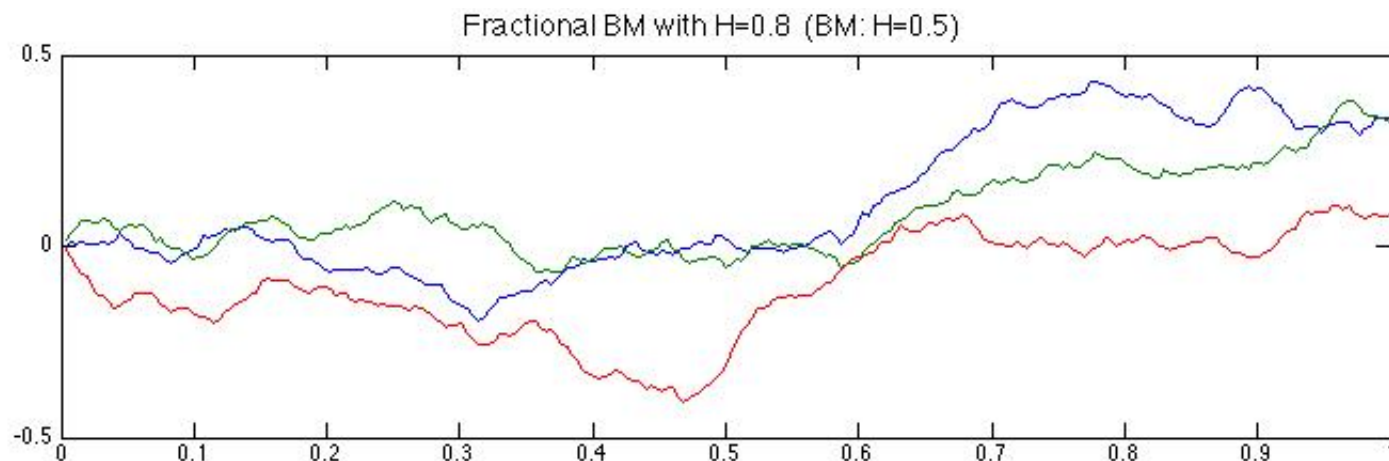
Given that  $\phi_i$  is a random number drawn from the Normal distribution, the factor possesses the same distribution.

$\phi_i$  gives the number of standard deviations the variable moves. Large  $\phi_i$  give large shocks.

What is a probability of  $\phi_i > 1$ ,  $\phi_i > 3$ ?

(Answers are 0.1587 and 0.00135)

What if our common factor is Fractional Brownian Motion?



From: Algorithm credit to Yingchun Zhou and Stilian Stoev (2005)

Certificate in Quantitative Finance

## Long memory

The dual nature of the Fractional Brownian Motion allows to model integrated series with long memory (e.g., interest rates) by setting the Hurst exponent  $H > 0.5$  as well as stationary-like series using the low values of the Hurst exponent  $H < 0.2$ .

$H = 0.5$  recovers the Brownian Motion, which is an I(1) series.

**Long memory:** the autocorrelation of the Fractional Brownian Motion decays according to **the power law**  $\tau^{2d-1}$  which is slower than the exponential decay of the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck  $e^{-\theta\tau}$  or  $e^{\tau \ln \beta}$  for any stationary process  $\beta < 1$ .

$$H = d + \frac{1}{2}$$

**END OF ASIDE**

Certificate in Quantitative Finance



## Testing Random Walk for a unit root

Null Hypothesis:  $Y_T$  has a unit root

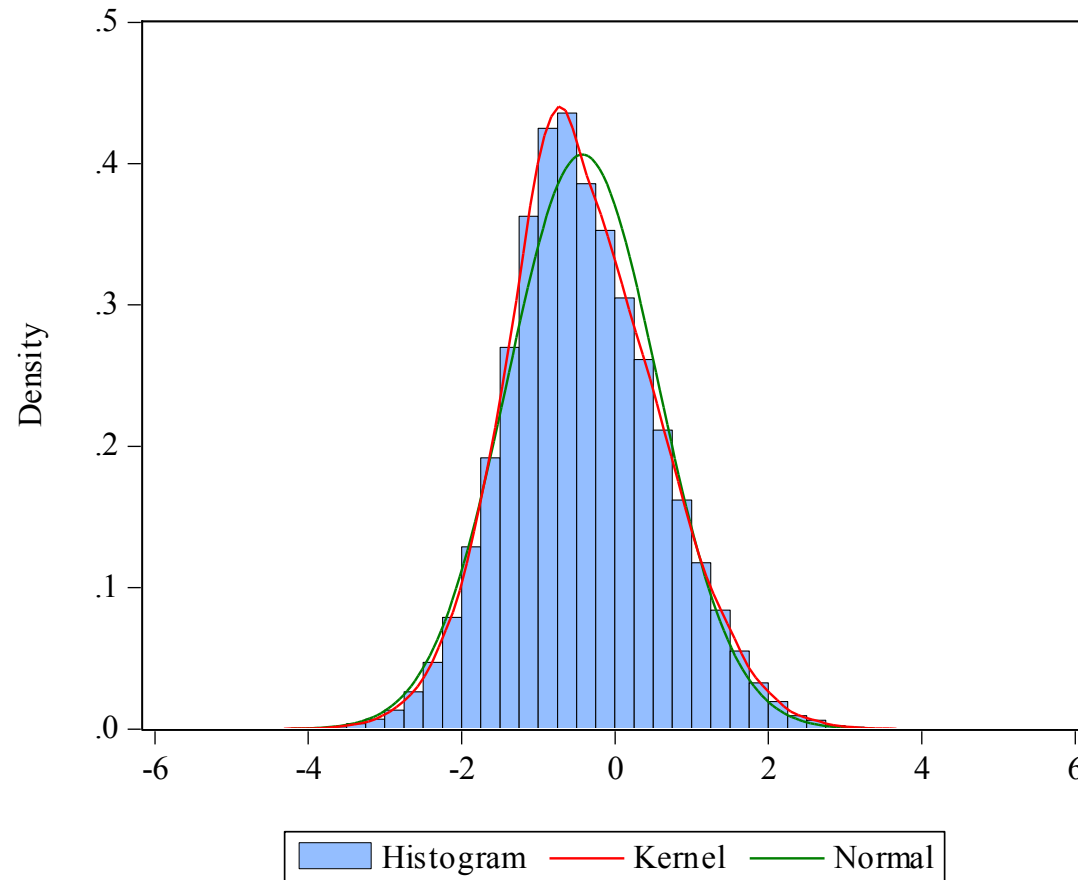
Exogenous: None

Lag Length: 0 (Fixed)

=====		
	t-Statistic	Prob.*
=====		
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-0.432663	0.5261
Test critical values1% level	-2.574245	
5% level	-1.942099	
10% level	-1.615852	
=====		

**DF gives higher critical values than t-distribution, making it difficult to reject a unit root hypothesis.**

## Bootstrapped Dickey-Fuller distribution



DF distribution is tabulated by Monte Carlo simulation (also called statistical bootstrapping).

Certificate in Quantitative Finance

## Dickey-Fuller Test for unit root

We test for significance of  $\phi$  in the following model:

$$\Delta Y_t = \phi Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

$$Y_t - Y_{t-1} = (\beta - 1)Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

**If  $\phi$  is not significant the time series has a unit root.**

$$\phi = \beta - 1 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \beta = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Delta Y_t = \epsilon_t$$

Test statistic is calculated as  $\frac{\beta}{\text{std error}}$ .

But the distribution to compare to is the Dickey-Fuller.

## Inference on non-stationary series

1. The **test statistic** for significance of  $\phi$  is calculated as usual.
2. To make  $\phi$  significant, the test statistic has to satisfy the higher critical value.
3. Since the standard error for  $y_t$  is under-estimated, we have to use 'the right distribution for the wrong test statistic.' The **critical value** is taken from the Dickey-Fuller distribution.

Conventional critical values (t distribution) lead to over-rejection of  $H_0$  when it is true. The critical value of DF statistic is bootstrapped by generating *iid* residuals  $\epsilon_t$  for

$$H_0 : \Delta Y_t = (1 - \beta)Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

## Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

To improve the Dickey-Fuller procedure, lagged differences  $\Delta y_{t-k}$  'augment' the test, improving robustness *wrt* serial correlation

$$\Delta y_t = \phi y_{t-1} + \sum_{k=1}^p \phi_k \Delta y_{t-k} + \epsilon_t$$

- Insignificant  $\phi$  means unit root for series  $y_t$ . DF critical values re-tabulated for each number of lags  $k$  setup.

Beware that software-implemented statistical tests offer to add constant '**drift**' or time-dependent '**trend**'.

$$\Delta y_t = \phi y_{t-1} + \sum_{k=1}^p \phi_k \Delta y_{t-k} + \underbrace{\text{const} + \beta_t t}_{\text{trend}} + \epsilon_t$$

These modifications are your false friends because they create temporary dependency and give **overfitted results**.

Statistical tests implemented in R usually present the underlying regression equation.

So you are able to identify parameters and understand whether excessive specification was used.

```
#####  
# Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Unit Root Test #  
#####
```

Test regression trend

```
lm(formula = z.diff ~ z.lag.1 + 1 + tt + z.diff.lag)
```

## Stationarity Tests: overview

There are several formal ways of testing for the presence of a unit root in a non-stationary process.

- We focused on **Dickey Fuller test** that keeps familiar  $AR(p)$  model and is popular because of its simplicity and generality.
- A non-parametric Phillips-Perron test transforms t-statistic to further account for autocorrelation and heteroscedasticity effects.
- *Co-integration Regression Durbin Waston Test*, is based on the common Durbin-Watson statistic.

# **Regression as Equilibrium Model and How Cointegration Works**



## Static Equilibrium Model

The familiar linear regression is **the** equilibrium model!

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

In this *static*, stationary  $y_t$  and  $x_t$  produce **constant**  $b_g$  for

$$\Delta y = b_g \Delta x$$

**The steady-state of equilibrium** transpires through this constant growth rate  $\beta_g$ .

## Static Equilibrium Model

CAPM a case of static equilibrium model! linear factor model.  
It relies on constant beta.

$$\mathbb{E}[r_I] = \beta (\mathbb{E}[r_M] - r_{rf}) + r_{rf}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[r_I - r_{rf}] = \beta \mathbb{E}[r_M - r_{rf}]$$

Since regression is involved, CAPM is also a Linear Factor Model.

Asset returns are regressed on Factors  $\beta_j F_j$ . The factors are linearly independent among themselves.

## Equilibrium in STOCHASTIC Models

Assume that  $y_t$  and  $x_t$  are non-stationary time series **in levels** (e.g., prices/CDS/rates).

The static equilibrium model gives a short run relationship.

$$\Delta y = \beta_g \Delta x$$

Correlation is estimated among the differences...

What about the relationship in the long run?

If there is a common factor, it must affect *the changes* in  $y_t$ .

The same principle as with portfolio factor models (HML, SMB):  
we regress returns (differences) on the common factor

$$\Delta y = \beta_g \Delta x + \underbrace{\text{Factor Term}} + \dots + \epsilon_t$$

It turns out that the common factor is

$$\hat{e}_t = y - \hat{b}x - \hat{a}$$

$$\Delta y \approx \Delta x \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta y \approx (y - \hat{b}x)$$

s.t.  $\hat{e}_t$  being stationary so that  $[1, b]$  is a co-integrating vector.

## Equilibrium Correction Model

The model addresses both, the short-run correlation-like  $\beta_1 \Delta x_t$ , and equilibrium correction working (slowly!) over the long-run

$$\Delta y_t = \beta_1 \Delta x_t - (1 - \alpha) (y_{t-1} - b_e x_{t-1} - a_e) + \epsilon_t$$

where  $e_{t-1} = y_{t-1} - b_e x_{t-1} - a_e$  and  $\mathbf{E}[e_{t-1}] = a_e$

The disequilibrium  $e_{t-1} \neq a_e$  is corrected over the long-run.

**The speed of correction  $-(1 - \alpha)$  is inevitably small, but must be significant for cointegration to exist.**

## Modelling problems

$$\Delta y_t = \beta_1 \Delta x_t - (1 - \alpha) e_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

- The assumption of  $x_t$  **being leading/exogenous/causing** variable.
- Equilibrium-correction mechanism is **linear**: if the ‘error’  $e_{t-1}$  above  $\mu_e$  the model suggests a small correction downwards (and vice versa).
- Non-unique cointegrating  $a, b$  are empirically possible so the speed of correction becomes **a calibrated parameter**

## Estimating Cointegration - Pairwise

- **Pairwise Estimation:** select two candidate time series and apply ADF test for stationarity to the joint residual.

Use the estimated residual to continue with the Engle-Granger procedure.

Perform the Engle-Granger procedure in both ways,

$$\Delta y_t \text{ on } \Delta x_t$$

$$\Delta x_t \text{ on } \Delta y_t$$

Cointegration Case B offers R code that re-implements the ECM estimation explicitly. Then, VECM estimation routine is used to analyse further.

## Engle-Granger procedure

**Step 1.** Obtain the fitted residual  $\hat{e}_t = y_t - \hat{b}x_t - \hat{a}$  and test for unit root.

- That *assumes* cointegrating vector  $\beta'_{Coint} = [1, -\hat{b}]$  and equilibrium level  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{e}_t] = \hat{a} = \mu_e$ .
- **If the residual non-stationary** then no long-run relationship exists and regression is spurious.

**Step 2.** Plug the residual from Step 1 into the ECM equation and estimate parameters  $\beta_1, \alpha$  (with linear regression)

$$\Delta y_t = \beta_1 \Delta x_t - (1 - \alpha) \hat{e}_{t-1}.$$

- It is required **to confirm the significance for**  $(1 - \alpha)$  coefficient.



## Cointegration Case Study

Let's explore the cointegration and specify the appropriate eqn. correction model (ECM) for the spot rates. We will use daily market data from the Bank of England.

## **Case Study B**

## Cointegration Estimation Overview (Reference)

1. **Engle-Granger Procedure** to estimate a cointegrating relationship and error correction between a pair of time series.

- – The choice of leading variable  $x_t$  removes uncertainty about cointegrating vector  $[1, \beta]$ .

The procedure can work well for a basis relationship.

2. **Johansen MLE Procedure** to estimate a set of cointegrating relationships  $\Pi = \alpha\beta'_C$  in a multivariate setting.

- – Multivariate estimation relies on the theorem of the reduced-rank matrix with  $r$  linearly independent rows.

The procedure estimates  $\beta'_C$  and then infers calibrated  $\alpha$ .

## Summary

Please take away the following ideas...

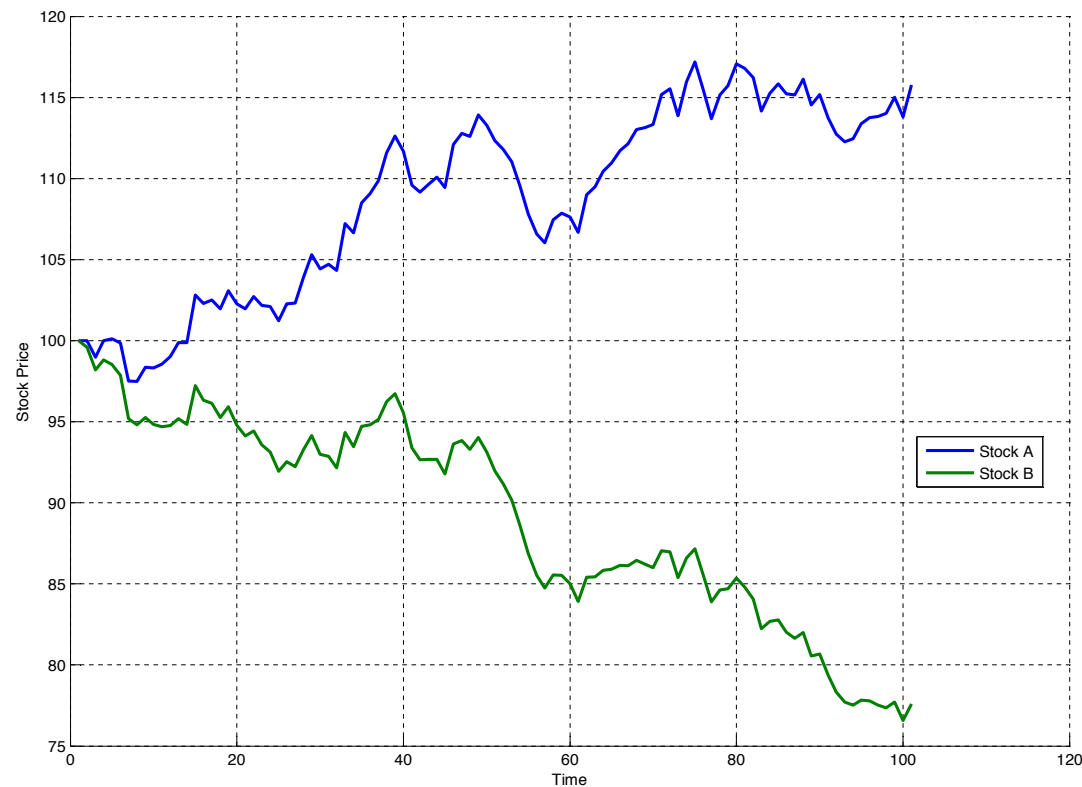
- Financial time series are non-stationary and so, can only be analysed with **cointegration** and **error correction**.
- Cointegration: if a linear combination of non-stationary time series produces the stationary spread, it means that variables are driven by the stochastic process in common.
- Error Correction: the long-run relationship between two time series transpires as the cointegrated residual in  $\Delta Y_t$ .
- Use of cointegration for hedging and statistical arbitrage requires checks using multivariate estimation (VECM, Johansen) and base on the idea of a reduced rank.

# **Cointegrated Series**

## **Extra Slides**

## Correlated Series

These time series are highly correlated but not cointegrated. Their spread possibly has an exponential fit.



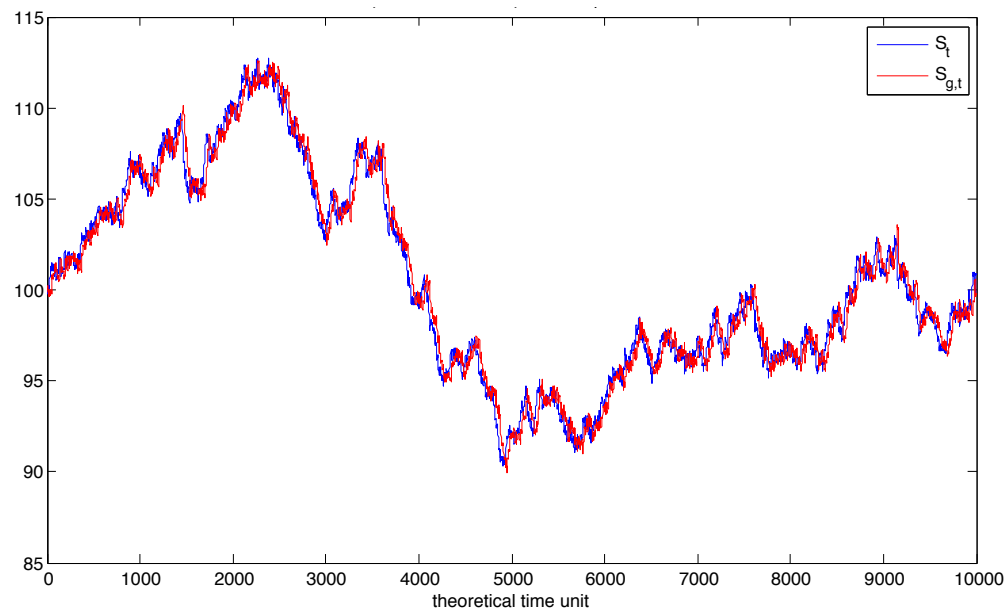
From *Correlation Sensitivity* CQF Lecture.

## Cointelation

These series have been generated from the following processes:

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = rdt + \sigma dW_t$$

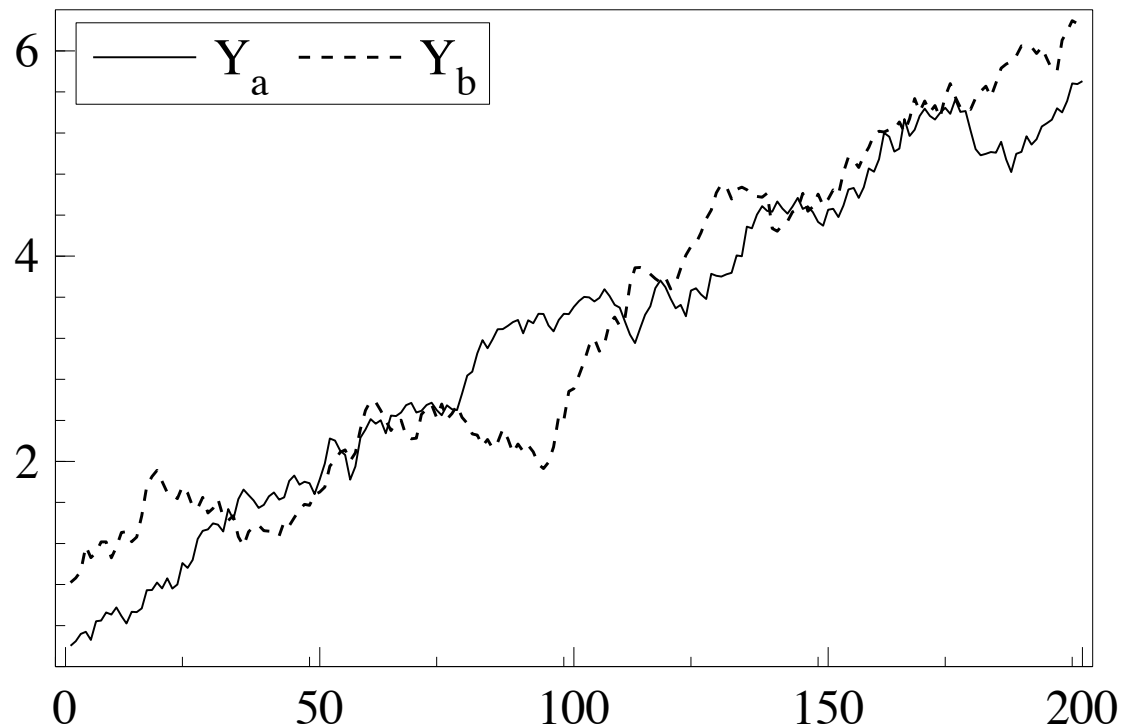
$$dS_{l,t} = -\theta(S_{l,t} - S_t)dt + \sigma S_{l,t} (\rho dW_t + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} dW_t^\perp)$$



From Damghani (2014). *Introduction to the Cointelation Model*. CQF Extra

## No linear equilibrium

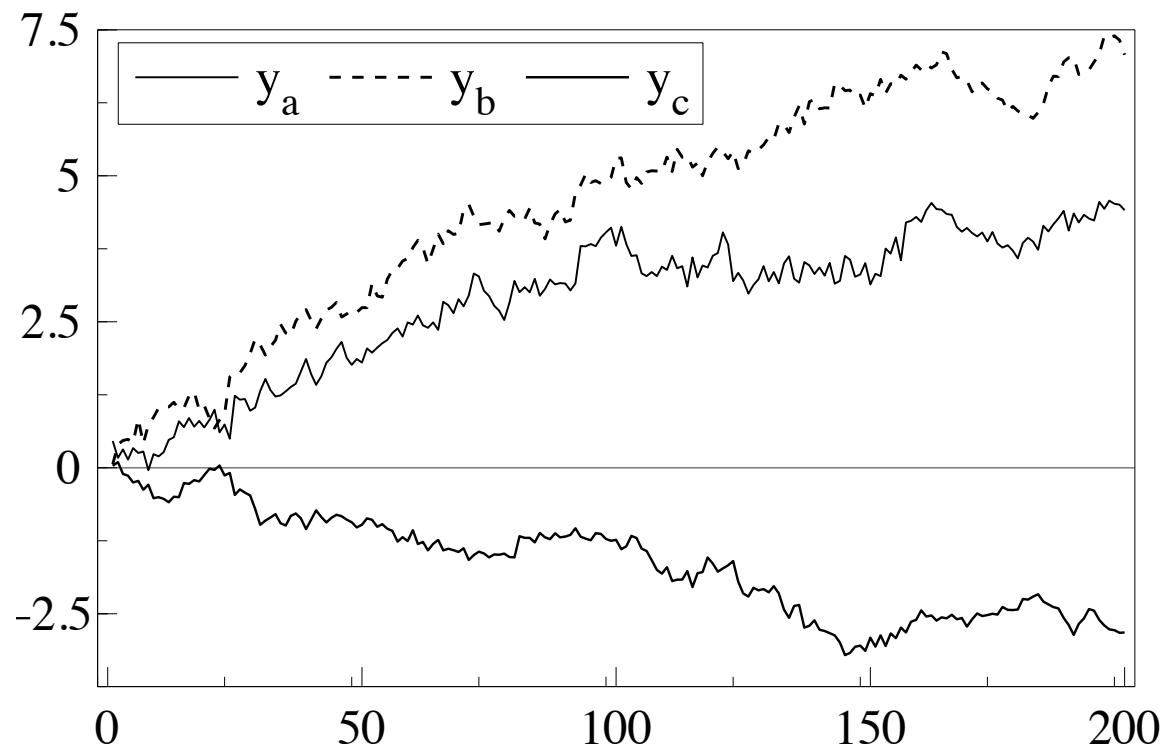
These series are **not** cointegrated. In fact, their spread contains a unit root. Multicollinearity is potentially irresolvable.



From: Hendry & Juselius (2000). *Explaining Cointegration Analysis: Part II*

## Cointegrated Series

These series are **cointegrated**. Their linear combination produces a mean-reverting spread (common factor)  $e_t$ .



From: Hendry & Juselius (2000). *Explaining Cointegration Analysis: Part II*



## Cointegrated system

“There are fewer feedbacks than variables.”

In a cointegrated system, **the common stochastic trend(s) drive all the related variables in the long-run.**

We are interested to trade **cointegrating residual**  $e_t$  which is

- Stationary (has no unit roots)  $I(0)$
- Autoregressive  $AR(1)$ , **not** decomposable as  $MA(\infty)$  series
- Mean-reverting  $\theta \gg 0$

## Common Factor: rates example

The linear combination  $\beta'_{Coint} Y_t$  exposes a shared unit root, called '*a stochastic process in common*'.

Think of exposure to the common factor and what it could be.

- Cointegrating vector  $[1, -\beta]$  gives hedging ratios for bonds.
- $Z(t; \tau_1) - \beta Z(t; \tau_2) = e_t$  is stationary  $I(0)$
- Risk Factor: parallel shift of the yield curve.

## A Multivariate Linear Combination

If a linear combination with some *special weights*  $\beta'_C$  produces a **stationary spread**:

$$\begin{aligned} e_t &= \beta'_C Y_t & e_t &\sim I(0) \\ &= \pm\beta_1 y_{1,t} \pm \beta_2 y_{2,t} \pm \cdots \pm \beta_n y_{n,t} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

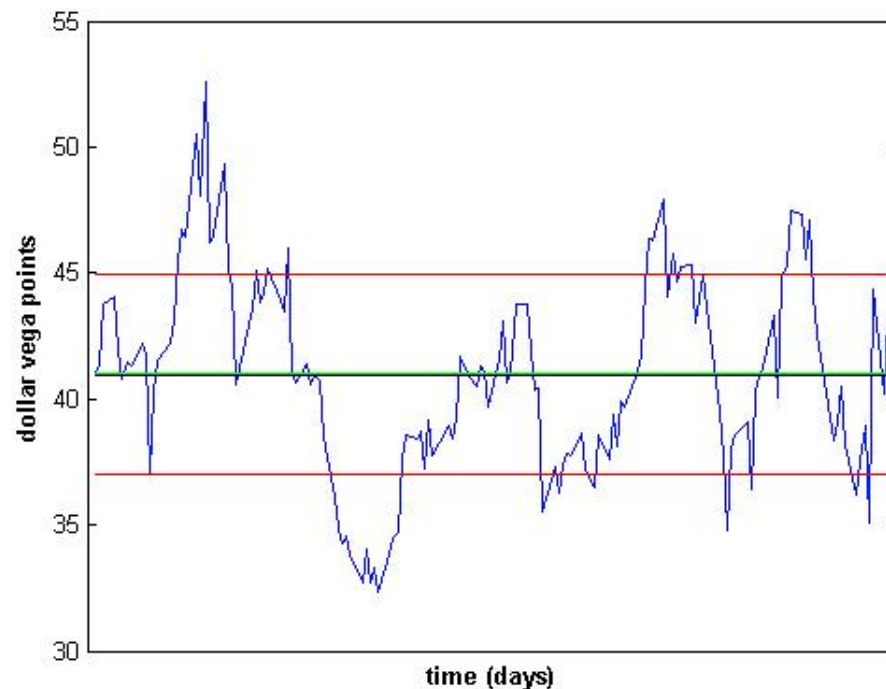
then we can explore mispricing that occurs when asset prices  $y_{i,t}$  produce a **disequilibrium**  $e_t \neq \mu_e$ .

- The cointegration is *alike differencing* among time series.
- Left after the differencing is a **cointegrating residual**  $e_t$ . It is stationary  $I(0)$  and mean-reverting  $\theta > 0$ .

## Mean-reverting spread

The linear cointegrating combination  $\beta'_C Y_t = e_t$  produces a stationary and mean-reverting spread:

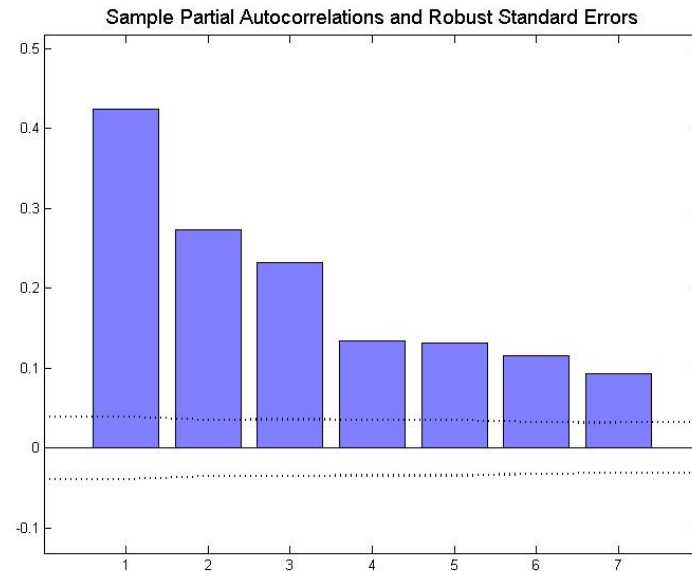
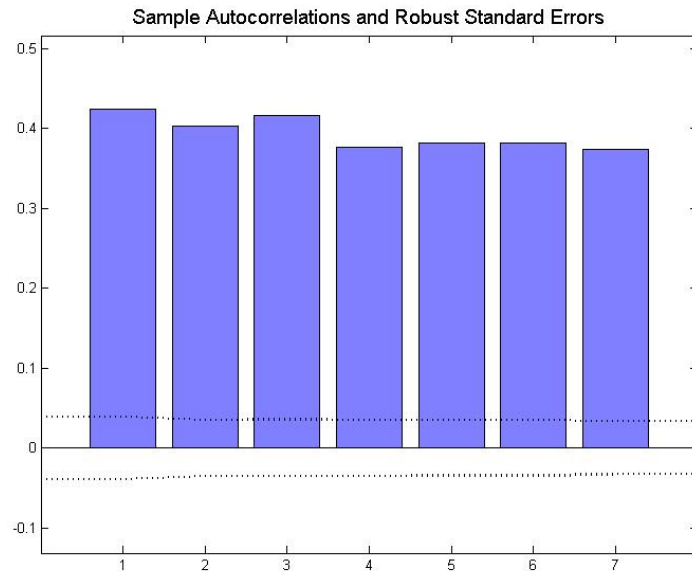
- Reversion speed  $\theta \approx 44$  and bounds are calculated as  $\sigma_{OU}/\sqrt{2\theta}$



From: Diamond (2013). *Learning and Trusting Cointegration*

## ACF and PACF for a high frequency spread $e_t$

Serial autocorrelation  $AR()$  is in prominent for  $e_t$ .



The process is stationary but ACF has no exponential decay in autocorrelation  $\text{Corr}[Y_t, Y_s]$ .

# Statistical Arbitrage with Cointegration

## Statistical arbitrage fundamentals

Makes two claims that **a.** relative mispricing persists and **b.** pricing inefficiencies are identifiable with statistical models.

The product of hedging is a hedging error, and the manageable error behaves like **the cointegrated residual**  $e(t)$ .

- Otherwise, the hedging error behaves like a random walk (unbounded) due to the unit root in  $\mathbf{Y}_t$  when  $\beta \approx 1$ , common to all financial time series in levels.

## Quality of mean-reversion

**Q:** How do we evaluate the quality of mean-reversion and find out entry/exit trade points?

**A:** We fit the spread to the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process.

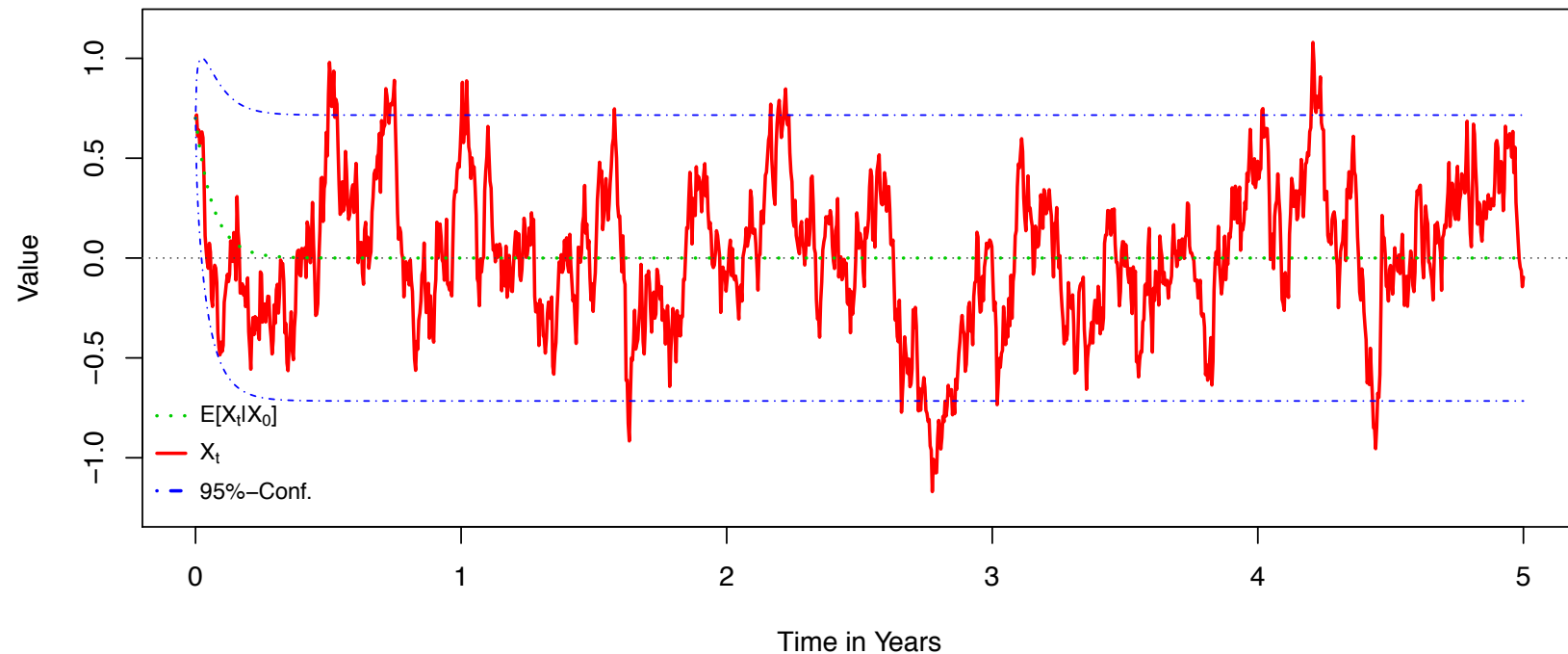
- Quality of mean-reversion is associated with the higher critical values equilibrium-correcting term (empirically).
- Cointegration is a filter on data: mean-reversion is of lower frequency than the data.

E.g., 10 Min data can generate half-life counted in weeks.



## Simulated Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process

Here is how the simulated OU process looks like (sample path)



From: Harlacher (2012). *Cointegration Based Statistical Arbitrage*

Mean-reverting but has a different kind of stationarity than an AR(1) process. Why? There is diffusion.

Certificate in Quantitative Finance

## Designing a trade

In order to design an arbitrage trade, one requires the following items of information:

1. **Weights**  $\beta'_{Coint}$  for a set of instruments to obtain the spread.
2. **Speed of mean-reversion** in the spread. For explanation purposes, the speed can be presented as **half-life**, the time between the equilibrium situations, when spread  $e_t = \mu_e$ .

$$\theta \rightarrow \tau$$

3. **Entry and exit levels** defined by  $\sigma_{eq}$ . Optimisation involved.

The inputs allow to backtest P&L and estimate drawdowns.