

# Financial Econometrics I

## Lecture 8

Fu Ouyang

December 31, 2018

# Outline

Model Selection and Diagnostics

Causality

Impulse Reponse Functions

Cointegration

# Model Selection using Information Criteria

In practice, we can use the following information criterion to select the order  $p$  of a VAR( $p$ ) model:

$$\text{AIC}(p) = \log(|\hat{\Sigma}_\epsilon(p)|) + 2d^2p/T$$

$$\text{BIC}(p) = \log(|\hat{\Sigma}_\epsilon(p)|) + d^2p \log(T)/T$$

$$\text{HQIC}(p) = \log(|\hat{\Sigma}_\epsilon(p)|) + 2d^2p \log(\log T)/T$$

We may choose  $p$  such that one of AIC, BIC and/or HQIC is minimized, but the selection should also make practical sense.

In general,

$$\hat{p}(\text{AIC}) \geq \hat{p}(\text{HQIC}) \geq \hat{p}(\text{BIC})$$

where  $\hat{p}(\cdot)$  denotes the  $p$  selected by according information criterion.

# Model Diagnostics using Portmanteau Tests

As in univariate cases, we can do model diagnostic via examining if the residuals behave like (vector) white noise.

Let  $\Upsilon(k)$  denote the cross-covariance matrix of the residuals at lag  $k$ . The null hypothesis

$$H_0 : \Upsilon(1) = \cdots = \Upsilon(k) = \mathbf{0}_{d \times d}$$

can be tested by a general purpose (portmanteau) Q-statistic. First, we compute residuals

$$\hat{\epsilon}_t = \mathbf{X}_t - \hat{\mathbf{c}} - \hat{\mathbf{A}}_1 \mathbf{X}_{t-1} - \cdots - \hat{\mathbf{A}}_p \mathbf{X}_{t-p}$$

Let  $\hat{\Upsilon}(k)$  denote the sample analogue of  $\Upsilon(k)$ .

# Model Diagnostics using Portmanteau Tests

Then the portmanteau test statistic is defined as

$$Q_m = \frac{1}{T^2} \sum_{k=1}^m \sum \frac{1}{T-k} \text{tr} \left\{ \hat{\Gamma}(k)' \hat{\Gamma}(0)^{-1} \hat{\Gamma}(k) \hat{\Gamma}(0)^{-1} \right\} \rightsquigarrow \chi_{d^2(m-p)}^2$$

where  $m > p$  is an integer. In practice, this test is sensitive to the choice of  $m$ , and so it is good to do the test with different values of  $m$ .

Portmanteau tests may not be powerful when  $d$  is large.

# Illustration with Real Data

## Wind financial terminal (WFT)

- Wind data feed services (WDFS).
- Wind economic database (WEDB).
- WindR package for R.
- See handouts.

## Example: S&P500, SH index and SZ index Data

- See [R markdown](#).

# Outline

Model Selection and Diagnostics

Causality

Impulse Reponse Functions

Cointegration

# Granger Causality

Let  $Z_t$  and  $Y_t$  be two univariate time series. Let  $F(X|Y)$  denote the conditional distribution of  $X$  given  $Y$ . Then,  $Z_t$  is said to *Granger cause*  $Y_t$  if

$$F(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, Z_{t-1}, Y_{t-2}, Z_{t-2}, \dots) \neq F(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, Y_{t-2}, \dots)$$

In practice, this *Granger causality in distribution* is often narrowed down to *Granger causality in mean*

$$E(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, Z_{t-1}, Y_{t-2}, Z_{t-2}, \dots) \neq E(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, Y_{t-2}, \dots)$$

Note that the presence of Granger causality only implies the dependence between  $Y_t$  and  $\{Z_{t-1}, Z_{t-2}, \dots\}$  conditioning on  $\{Y_{t-1}, Y_{t-2}, \dots\}$ , it does *not* say which causes which. It is possible that  $Y_t$  and  $Z_{t-k}$  are driven by a common latent process which is not present in the system.



# Granger Causality

Granger causality can be easily verified for the VAR models. Consider a simple bivariate example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} Z_t \\ Y_t \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{c} + \sum_{l=1}^p \mathbf{A}_l \begin{pmatrix} Z_{t-l} \\ Y_{t-l} \end{pmatrix} + \epsilon_t$$

where  $\epsilon_t \sim \text{WN}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_\epsilon)$ . Testing the Granger causality in this model is equivalent to test

$$H_0 : a_{21}^{(1)} = \dots = a_{21}^{(p)} = 0$$

where  $a_{ij}^{(l)}$  denotes the  $(i, j)$ -element of  $\mathbf{A}_l$ . When  $H_0$  is rejected,  $Z_t$  is regarded as Granger causing  $Y_t$ . This test can be implemented via  $F$ -test and likelihood ratio test (both are measures of goodness of fit).

# Granger Causality

- $F$ -test:

$$pF = p \cdot \frac{(RSS_r - RSS)/p}{RSS/(2T - 2p - 2)} \rightsquigarrow \chi_p^2$$

where  $RSS$  is the *residual sum squares* obtained by LSE, i.e.

$$RSS = \sum_{t=p+1}^T \left\| \begin{pmatrix} Z_t \\ Y_t \end{pmatrix} - \hat{\mathbf{c}} - \sum_{l=1}^p \hat{\mathbf{A}}_l \begin{pmatrix} Z_{t-l} \\ Y_{t-l} \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2$$

and  $RSS_r$  is the RSS of the LSE under restriction  $H_0$ .

- Likelihood ratio test:

$$(T - p) \log(|\hat{\Sigma}_{\epsilon,r}|/|\hat{\Sigma}_{\epsilon}|) \rightsquigarrow \chi_p^2$$

where  $\hat{\Sigma}_{\epsilon,r}$  is the MLE covariance matrix under restriction  $H_0$ .

# Instantaneous Causality

Denote  $\mathbf{X}_t = (Z_t, Y_t)'$ . If in the VAR model,  $\Sigma_\epsilon$  is not diagonal, then

$$\text{Cov}(Z_t, Y_t | \mathbf{X}_{t-1}, \dots, \mathbf{X}_{t-p}) \neq 0$$

In this case,  $Z_t$  and  $Y_t$  are said to have *instantaneous Granger causality*.

The instantaneous Granger causality can be tested by  $H_0 : \sigma_{21} = 0$  (the off-diagonal element of  $\Sigma_\epsilon$ ) using  $\hat{\sigma}_{21}$ .

# Outline

Model Selection and Diagnostics

Causality

Impulse Reponse Functions

Cointegration

# Impulse Response Functions

Another way to investigate the effect of a change in one component series on the other components is via the *impulse response functions*, which can be easily derived from the  $MA(\infty)$  representation of a VAR model.

$$\mathbf{X}_t = \mathbf{c} + \epsilon_t + \sum_{k=1}^p \mathbf{B}_k \epsilon_{t-k} = \mathbf{c} + \Psi_0 \mathbf{e}_t + \sum_{k=1}^p \Psi_k \mathbf{e}_{t-k}$$

where  $\epsilon_t = \Psi_0 e_t$ ,  $e_t \sim \text{WN}(0, I_d)$ ,  $\Psi_0 \Psi_0' = \Sigma_\epsilon$ , and  $\Psi_k = \mathbf{B}_k \Psi_0$ .

The matrices  $\Psi_0, \Psi_1, \dots$  are called the impulse response functions. Denote  $\psi_{ij}^{(k)}$  as the  $(i, j)$ -th element of  $\Psi_k$ .  $\psi_{ij}^{(k)}$  is called the response function of  $\mathbf{X}_{t,i}$  to the impulse on the  $j$ -th component of  $\mathbf{e}_{t-k}$ .

Note that  $\Psi_0$  is *not* unique as  $\Psi_0 \mathbf{H} \mathbf{H}' \Psi_0' = \Psi_0 I_d \Psi_0' = \Psi_0 \Psi_0'$  for all  $d \times d$  orthogonal matrix  $\mathbf{H}$ . Most statistical packages (by default) construct  $\Psi_0$  using the Cholesky decomposition of  $\Sigma_\epsilon$ .

# Outline

Model Selection and Diagnostics

Causality

Impulse Reponse Functions

Cointegration

# Unit Root and Cointegration

For univariate time series  $X_t \sim \text{ARIMA}(p, 1, 0)$ ,  $\nabla X_t = X_t - X_{t-1}$  is stationary, and  $X_t$  is said to have a *unit root* and denoted as  $X_t \sim I(1)$ .

Similarly, for  $X_t \sim \text{ARIMA}(p, k, 0)$ ,  $X_t$  is said to have  $k$  unit roots and denoted as  $X_t \sim I(k)$ .

Let  $X_t \sim I(1)$  and  $Y_t \sim I(1)$ . They are said to be *cointegrated* if there is a non-zero constant such that  $Y_t - \beta X_t \sim I(0)$ , i.e., stationary.

More generally, a vector time series  $\mathbf{X}_t$  is said to be cointegrated with order  $(k, h)$  ( $k \geq h \geq 1$ ), denoted as  $\mathbf{X}_t \sim \text{CI}(k, h)$  if

1. all component series of  $\mathbf{X}_t$  are  $I(k)$ , and
2. there is a non-zero constant vector  $\beta$  such that  $\beta' \mathbf{X}_t \sim I(k - h)$ .

Most frequently used cointegration model is  $\text{CI}(1, 1)$ .

# Engle-Granger Two-Step Estimation

Assume that  $X_t \sim I(1)$  and  $Y_t \sim I(1)$  (Test this first in practice using the *augmented Dickey-Fuller* (ADF) test!).

- Step 1: run the following regression and compute residuals

$$Y_t = \alpha + \beta X_t + u_t \rightarrow \hat{u}_t = \hat{Y}_t - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} X_t$$

then test if  $\hat{u}_t$  has unit root using the *cointegration augmented Dickey-Fuller* (CADF) test.

- Step 2: estimate the following *error-correction model* (ECM)

$$\nabla Y_t = a_0 + a_1 \hat{u}_{t-1} + a_2 \nabla X_{t-1} + a_3 \nabla Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t1}$$

$$\nabla X_t = b_0 + b_1 \hat{u}_{t-1} + b_2 \nabla Y_{t-1} + b_3 \nabla X_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t2}$$

where  $\hat{u}_{t-1}$  is included to control the error from step 1.



# Error-Correction Model

Consider the following dynamic model

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t &= \beta_0 + \gamma X_t + \beta_1 X_{t-1} + \beta_2 X_{t-2} + \alpha_1 Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \\ &= \beta_0 + \gamma X_t + (\beta_1 + \beta_2) X_{t-1} - (\beta_1 + \beta_2) \nabla X_{t-1} + \alpha_1 Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \end{aligned}$$

The “long-run” relationship between  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$(1 - \alpha_1)Y = \beta_0 + (\gamma + \beta_1 + \beta_2)X$$

and for each  $t$ ,

$$Y_t = \frac{\beta_0}{1 - \alpha_1} + \frac{\gamma + \beta_1 + \beta_2}{1 - \alpha_1} X_t + u_t$$

which implies that

$$\nabla Y_t = \gamma \nabla X_t - (\beta_1 + \beta_2) \nabla X_{t-1} - u_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

# Spurious Regression

Consider the following regression model

$$Y_t = \alpha + \beta X_t + u_t$$

If  $X_t$  and  $Y_t$  are independent (misspecified cointegration model),  $\beta = 0$  theoretically. However, for nonstationary  $X_t$  and/or  $Y_t$ ,

- OLS estimator  $\hat{\beta}$  is not asymptotically normal.
- $\hat{\beta}/SE(\hat{\beta}) = O_p(\sqrt{T})$ , and so reject  $H_0 : \beta = 0$  for large  $T$ .

This phenomenon is called *spurious regression*.

In practice, it is important to perform the CADF test for  $\hat{u}_t$  before running ECM estimation.

- If the unit-root hypothesis for  $\hat{u}_t$  is rejected, proceed to fitting ECM.
- Otherwise, consider running regression with  $\nabla Y_t$  and  $\nabla X_t$ .

# Illustration with Real Data

## Example: S&P 500 and 400 Data

- See [R markdown](#).