PS 3 solutions 2020

May 27, 2020

1 PS3 Solutions 2020

```
[1]: #install.packages('readxl')
     #install.packages('tseries')
     #install.packages('urca')
     #install.packages('vars')
     library(readxl)
     library(tseries)
     library(urca)
     library(vars)
    Warning message:
    "package 'readxl' was built under R version 3.6.3"Warning message:
    "package 'tseries' was built under R version 3.6.3"Registered S3 method
    overwritten by 'xts':
      method
                 from
      as.zoo.xts zoo
    Registered S3 method overwritten by 'quantmod':
      method
                        from
      as.zoo.data.frame zoo
    Warning message:
    "package 'urca' was built under R version 3.6.3"Warning message:
    "package 'vars' was built under R version 3.6.3"Loading required package: MASS
    Loading required package: strucchange
    Warning message:
    "package 'strucchange' was built under R version 3.6.3"Loading required package:
    7.00
    Attaching package: 'zoo'
    The following objects are masked from 'package:base':
        as.Date, as.Date.numeric
    Loading required package: sandwich
    Warning message:
    "package 'sandwich' was built under R version 3.6.3"Loading required package:
    lmtest
```

Warning message:

"package 'lmtest' was built under R version 3.6.3"

```
[2]: data = read_excel("C:/Users/Fabio/Dropbox/Lecture_Macroeconometrics/Data/

→ps3_data_Q1_2020.xlsx")
```

[3]: head(data)

Year	$Revenue_Total$	G_Health	$G_Spending_Total$
1970	29.80710	2.798418	34.24047
1971	29.27349	2.970855	34.55139
1972	30.40609	3.094316	34.40657
1973	30.63798	3.181722	33.37959
1974	31.23342	3.422005	34.56156
1975	29.61273	3.688566	36.87401

1.1 1.

1.1.1 a)

```
[4]: data$G_Other = data$G_Spending_Total - data$G_Health
  data = data[, -c(1,4)] # delete variable 1 = Year and 4 = G_Spending_Total
  data = data[,c(2,1,3)]
  head(data)
```

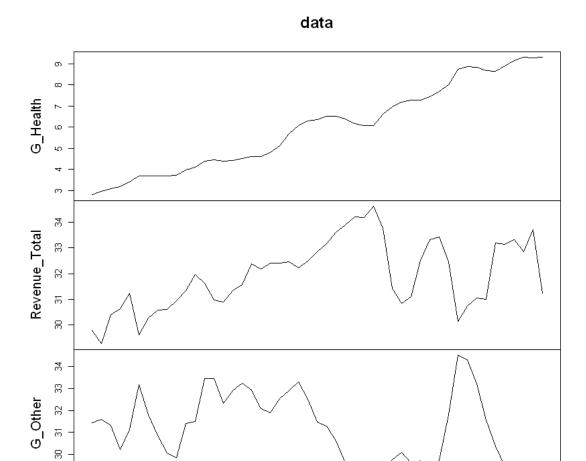
$G_{-}Health$	Revenue_Total	G_Other
2.798418	29.80710	31.44205
2.970855	29.27349	31.58054
3.094316	30.40609	31.31226
3.181722	30.63798	30.19786
3.422005	31.23342	31.13956
3.688566	29.61273	33.18545

```
[5]: data = ts(data, start = 1970, end = 2018, frequency = 1)
```

1.1.2 b)

Lets take a look at the time series.

```
[6]: plot(data, type = "1")
```



Observations:

28 29

1970

1980

• Government Spending on Health and Government Total Revenue exhibit trends

1990

2000

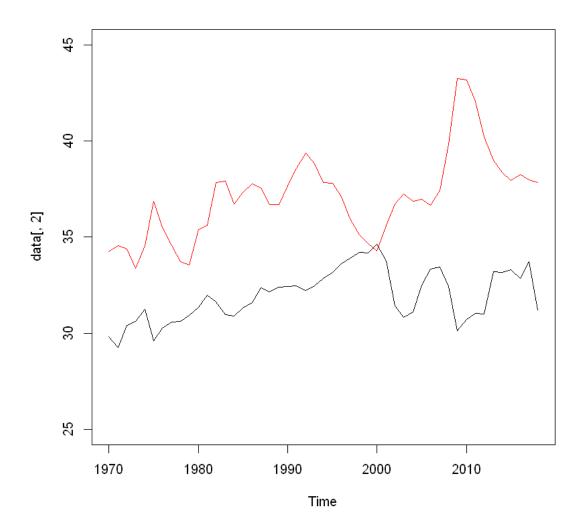
2010

• The Government spending on health seems to be trend stationary while Revenue seems to have a stochastic trend

Time

If we sum health spending with other spending and compare it with revenue they seem to follow the same stochastic trend

```
[7]: plot(data[,2], type = "l", ylim = c(25,45))
lines(data[,1]+ data[,3], type = "l", col = "red")
```



```
[8]: for(i in 1:3){
    print(adf.test(data[,i]))
    }
```

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

```
data: data[, i]
Dickey-Fuller = -2.5975, Lag order = 3, p-value = 0.3351
alternative hypothesis: stationary
```

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

```
data: data[, i]
    Dickey-Fuller = -2.2865, Lag order = 3, p-value = 0.4595
    alternative hypothesis: stationary
            Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test
    data: data[, i]
    Dickey-Fuller = -2.774, Lag order = 3, p-value = 0.2644
    alternative hypothesis: stationary
    1.2 c)
    Based on the results from exercise b), we know that the variables in levels are nonstationary. Next,
    we try to check for the order of integration of the variables.
[9]: for(i in 1:3){
     print(adf.test(diff(data[,i])))
         }
    Warning message in adf.test(diff(data[, i])):
    "p-value smaller than printed p-value"
            Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test
    data: diff(data[, i])
    Dickey-Fuller = -4.2857, Lag order = 3, p-value = 0.01
    alternative hypothesis: stationary
    Warning message in adf.test(diff(data[, i])):
    "p-value smaller than printed p-value"
            Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test
    data: diff(data[, i])
    Dickey-Fuller = -4.8024, Lag order = 3, p-value = 0.01
    alternative hypothesis: stationary
            Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test
    data: diff(data[, i])
    Dickey-Fuller = -4.1612, Lag order = 3, p-value = 0.01069
    alternative hypothesis: stationary
```

All variables are stationary in their differences, therefore, we can conclude that the variables have the same order of integration. Consequently, we can proceed with our estimation.

```
[10]: data = data[, c(1,2)]
VARselect(data, lag.max = 5)
```

```
$selection AIC(n)
                            2 HQ(n)
                                              2 SC(n)
                                                               2 FPE(n)
                                                                                  2
                    1
                                               3
                                                                          5
           AIC(n)
                    -3.70351432
                                 -3.99292917 -3.85611414 -3.78686194 -3.70292327
            HQ(n) | -3.61328748 | -3.84255109 | -3.64558483 | -3.51618140 | -3.37209151
$criteria
            SC(n) | -3.46021574 | -3.58743152 | -3.28841744 | -3.05696618 | -2.81082845
           FPE(n) | 0.02464724
                                 0.01848201
                                               0.02126565 \quad 0.02293351 \quad 0.02519091
```

########################

Johansen-Procedure

#######################

Test type: trace statistic , without linear trend and constant in cointegration

Eigenvalues (lambda):

[1] 2.669163e-01 1.250291e-01 3.364630e-17

Values of teststatistic and critical values of test:

```
test 10pct 5pct 1pct
r <= 1 | 6.28 7.52 9.24 12.97
r = 0 | 20.87 17.85 19.96 24.60
```

Eigenvectors, normalised to first column: (These are the cointegration relations)

```
G_Health.11 Revenue_Total.11 constant
G_Health.11 1.000000 1.0000000
Revenue_Total.11 -4.930188 -1.458496 0.02283146
constant 155.651228 37.145650 -5.48496805
```

Weights W:

(This is the loading matrix)

G_Health.l1 Revenue_Total.l1 constant

```
G_Health.d -0.004587278 -0.016447223 3.734854e-17
Revenue_Total.d 0.071273797 -0.004609789 5.068136e-16
```

######################

Johansen-Procedure

Test type: maximal eigenvalue statistic (lambda max) , without linear trend and constant in co

Eigenvalues (lambda):

[1] 2.669163e-01 1.250291e-01 3.364630e-17

Values of teststatistic and critical values of test:

```
test 10pct 5pct 1pct
r <= 1 | 6.28 7.52 9.24 12.97
r = 0 | 14.59 13.75 15.67 20.20
```

Eigenvectors, normalised to first column:

(These are the cointegration relations)

```
G_Health.11 Revenue_Total.11 constant
G_Health.11 1.000000 1.00000000
Revenue_Total.11 -4.930188 -1.458496 0.02283146
constant 155.651228 37.145650 -5.48496805
```

Weights W:

(This is the loading matrix)

```
G_Health.11 Revenue_Total.11 constant
G_Health.d -0.004587278 -0.016447223 3.734854e-17
Revenue_Total.d 0.071273797 -0.004609789 5.068136e-16
```

The cointegrating vector is

```
[12]: coint_V = attr(trace_test, "V")
coint_V[,1]
```

 $G_Health.l1$ 1 Revenue $_Total.l1$ -4.93018833723902 constant 155.651227676693

We find that, in the long-run, one out of five dollars of tax revenue we spend invest in the health care sector. The constant shifts this relation up, meaning that the linear relation only holds up to the scalar of 155.

1.2.1 2 d)

The speed of adjustment coefficients vector is

[13]: attr(trace_test, "W")[,1]

G_Health.d -0.00458727817757424 Revenue_Total.d 0.0712737973422046

So Revenue increases when spending in health is above the equilibrium level (negative residual in the long run equilibrium equation) and it decreases when spending in health is below the revenue in the long run equilibrium. Let's formally test which of the coefficients is different from zero.

[14]: DA <- matrix(c(1,0), c(2,1))
summary(alrtest(trace_test, A=DA, r=1))</pre>

#######################

Johansen-Procedure

Estimation and testing under linear restrictions on beta

The VECM has been estimated subject to: beta=H*phi and/or alpha=A*psi

[,1] [1,] 1

[2,] 0

Eigenvalues of restricted VAR (lambda):

[1] 0.1254 0.0000 0.0000

The value of the likelihood ratio test statistic:

8.29 distributed as chi square with 1 df. The p-value of the test statistic is: 0

Figenvectors normalised to first column

Eigenvectors, normalised to first column of the restricted VAR:

[,1]

RK.G_Health.ll 1.0000

RK.Revenue_Total.l1 -1.6036

RK.constant 42.0999

Weights W of the restricted VAR:

[,1]

[1,] -0.0174

[2,] 0.0000

We reject this restriction of the second adjustment coefficient being zero. Consequently, the speed of adjustment coefficient for revenue is different from zero.

```
[15]: DA <- matrix(c(0,1), c(2,1))
summary(alrtest(trace_test, A=DA, r=1))
```

Estimation and testing under linear restrictions on beta

The VECM has been estimated subject to: beta=H*phi and/or alpha=A*psi

[,1] [1,] 0 [2,] 1

Eigenvalues of restricted VAR (lambda): [1] 0.2522 0.0000 0.0000

The value of the likelihood ratio test statistic: 0.93 distributed as chi square with 1 df.
The p-value of the test statistic is: 0.33

Eigenvectors, normalised to first column of the restricted VAR:

[,1]
RK.G_Health.l1 1.0000
RK.Revenue_Total.l1 -7.3774
RK.constant 239.1869

Weights W of the restricted VAR:

[,1] [1,] 0.0000 [2,] 0.0382

We do not reject this restriction of the first adjusment coefficient being zero. So we conclude that the government revenue adjusts to disequilibria in the long-run. Meaning if expenditure for health is too high, the government is likely to increase their expenditure.

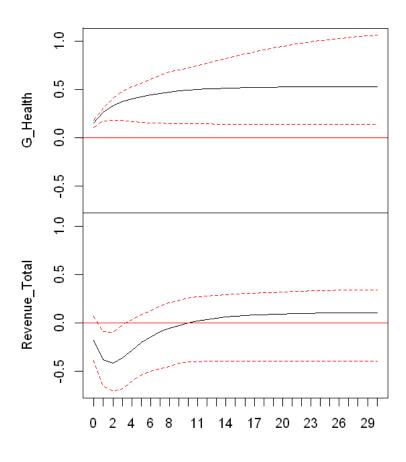
1.3 e)

```
[16]: # Transform VEC to VAR with r = 1
var = vec2var(trace_test, r =1)
var$A
```

```
G_Health.l1
                                  Revenue_Total.l1
          G_Health
$A1
                     1.831013
                                  0.1046845
      Revenue_Total
                     -1.665223
                                  0.6489929
                     G_Health.l2
                                  Revenue\_Total.l2
          G_Health
$A2
                     -0.8355999
                                  -0.0820683275
     Revenue_Total | 1.7364972
                                  -0.0003861342
```

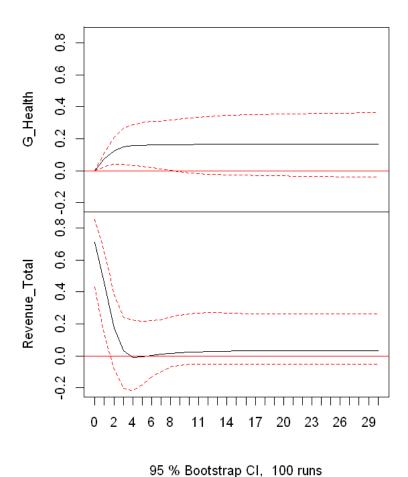
```
[17]: # Obtain IRF
irf1 = irf(var, n.ahead = 30, ortho = TRUE)
plot(irf1)
```

Orthogonal Impulse Response from G_Health



95 % Bootstrap CI, 100 runs

Orthogonal Impulse Response from Revenue_Total



A shock to government expenditure has a long-lasting and persistent effect on expenditure, while only temporarily significantly impacting revenues. If we have an increase in the expenditure in government health, there is a partially crowding out effect that potentially affects consumption and/or investment. Since a large share of the revenues are generated by VAT, this relation is quite reasonable from an economic perspective.

A shock to revenue has a short-run effect on revenue, as well as on health expenditure. The long-run responses are not significant. This kind of makes sense, since, when we have an increase in revenues, this will result in an increase of the money allocated to healthcare.

```
[18]: # Estimate a VAR
var2 = VAR(data, p = 2)
```

Comparing the two results:

[19]: var\$A summary(var2)

```
G Health.l1
                                   Revenue_Total.l1
$A1
           G Health
                      1.831013
                                   0.1046845
      Revenue_Total | -1.665223
                                   0.6489929
                      G Health.l2
                                   Revenue Total.12
$A2
           G Health
                      -0.8355999
                                   -0.0820683275
      Revenue_Total | 1.7364972
                                   -0.0003861342
```

VAR Estimation Results:

Endogenous variables: G_Health, Revenue_Total

Deterministic variables: const

Sample size: 47

Log Likelihood: -26.944

Roots of the characteristic polynomial:

0.9802 0.6081 0.6081 0.1863

Call:

VAR(y = data, p = 2)

Estimation results for equation G_Health:

G_Health = G_Health.11 + Revenue_Total.11 + G_Health.12 + Revenue_Total.12 + const

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) G_Health.l1 1.63468 0.14798 11.046 5.29e-14 *** Revenue_Total.l1 0.08841 0.03582 2.468 0.0177 * G_Health.12 -0.65571 0.14844 -4.417 6.88e-05 *** Revenue Total.12 -0.04180 0.03576 -1.169 0.2491 -1.324960.62873 -2.107 0.0411 * const

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.1554 on 42 degrees of freedom Multiple R-Squared: 0.9943, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9938 F-statistic: 1843 on 4 and 42 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

Estimation results for equation Revenue_Total:

Revenue_Total = G_Health.11 + Revenue_Total.11 + G_Health.12 + Revenue_Total.12 + const

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

G_Health.l1 -1.7203 0.7404 -2.324 0.025064 *
Revenue_Total.l1 0.6444 0.1792 3.596 0.000844 ***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.7773 on 42 degrees of freedom Multiple R-Squared: 0.6549, Adjusted R-squared: 0.622 F-statistic: 19.93 on 4 and 42 DF, p-value: 2.924e-09

Covariance matrix of residuals:

G_Health Revenue_Total
G_Health 0.02414 -0.03271
Revenue_Total -0.03271 0.60413

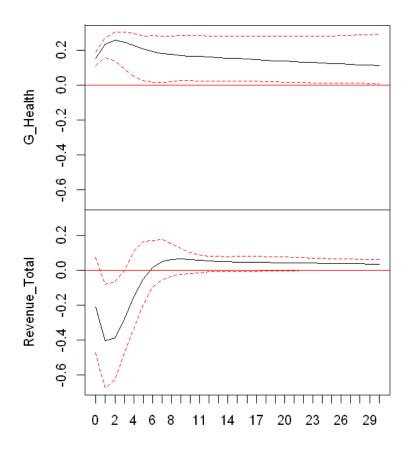
Correlation matrix of residuals:

 ${\tt G_Health\ Revenue_Total}$

We find that the two methods provide us with slightly different results. This potentially arises since ca.jo and vars use different estimation methods.

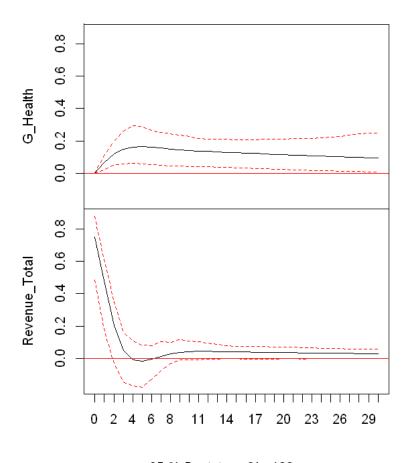
```
[20]: irf2 = irf(var2, n.ahead = 30, ortho = TRUE)
plot(irf2)
```

Orthogonal Impulse Response from G_Health



95 % Bootstrap CI, 100 runs

Orthogonal Impulse Response from Revenue_Total



95 % Bootstrap CI, 100 runs

Let's do a comparison of the two.

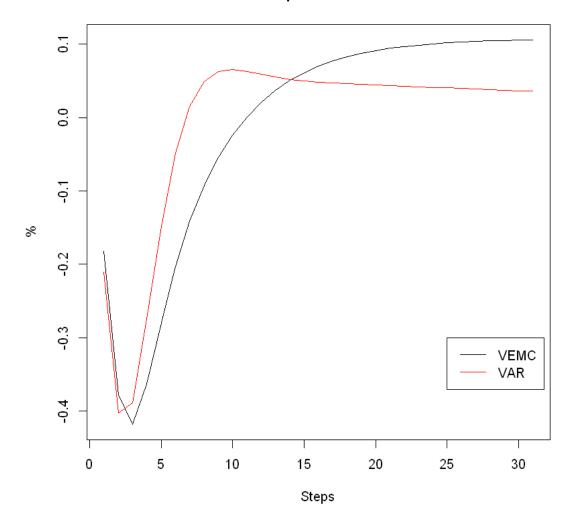
```
[21]: plot(irf1$irf$G[,2], type = "l", xlab = "Steps", main = "Revenue Response VAR

→vs. VECM", ylab = "%")

lines(irf2$irf$G[,2], type = "l", col = "red")

legend(25, -0.3, legend = c("VEMC", "VAR"), lty = 1:1, col = c("black", "red"))
```

Revenue Response VAR vs. VECM



For both, we would expect in the short run to have a significant decrease in revenues. However, we would expect that future tax revenues will increase, although we do not have statistical evidence for this. In the short-run the pandemic will likely decrease the base of activity on which we can apply taxes to. On the long-run taxes need to be higher to cover the additional expenses.

1.4 2.

[22]: library(quantmod)

Loading required package: xts Loading required package: TTR

Version 0.4-0 included new data defaults. See ?getSymbols.

```
[23]: getSymbols("CPIAUCSL", src = "FRED")
getSymbols("CPILFESL", src = "FRED")
getSymbols("PCEPI", src = "FRED")
getSymbols("PCEPILFE", src = "FRED")
```

'getSymbols' currently uses auto.assign=TRUE by default, but will use auto.assign=FALSE in 0.5-0. You will still be able to use 'loadSymbols' to automatically load data. getOption("getSymbols.env") and getOption("getSymbols.auto.assign") will still be checked for alternate defaults.

This message is shown once per session and may be disabled by setting options("getSymbols.warning4.0"=FALSE). See ?getSymbols for details.

'CPIAUCSL'

'CPILFESL'

'PCEPI'

'PCEPILFE'

```
[24]: CPI = window(CPIAUCSL, start = "1959-01-01", end = "2020-02-01")

CPIX = window(CPILFESL, start = "1959-01-01", end = "2020-02-01")

PCE = window(PCEPI, start = "1959-01-01", end = "2020-02-01")

PCEX = window(PCEPILFE, start = "1959-01-01", end = "2020-02-01")
```

1.5 a)

```
[25]: data = ts(data.frame(CPI, CPIX, PCE, PCEX), start = 1959, frequency = 12)
```

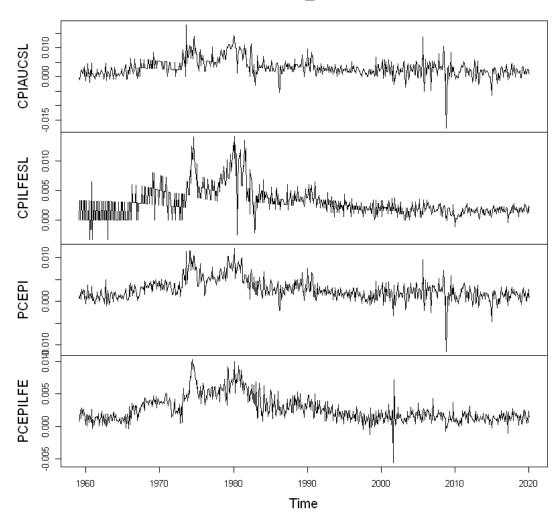
[26]: head(data)

CPIAUCSL	CPILFESL	PCEPI	PCEPILFE
29.01	29.9	16.074	16.727
29.00	29.9	16.089	16.740
28.97	30.0	16.100	16.759
28.98	30.0	16.132	16.801
29.04	30.1	16.140	16.822
29.11	30.2	16.186	16.871

```
[27]: data_inf = diff(log(data))
```

```
[28]: plot(data_inf)
```

data_inf



1.6 b)

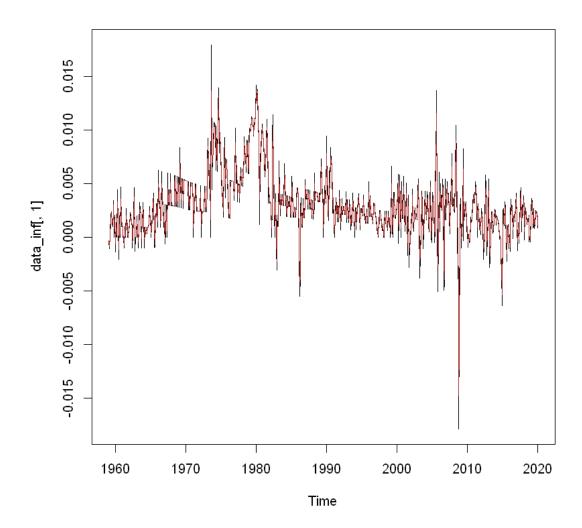
[29]: library(dlm)

Warning message:

"package 'dlm' was built under R version 3.6.3"

[30]: # Setting up the necessary estimates
$$dlm1 = dlm(FF= 1, V = 0.1, GG = 1, W = 0.2, m0 = 0, C0 = 0.5)$$

```
[32]: plot(data_inf[,1], type = 'l')
#$m for the expected value
lines(dropFirst(kfilter$m), type = 'l',pch = 20, col = "brown")
```



The Kalman filter uses a recursive approach to update the posterior estimate of the state. Given a prior believe (choosen prior, or updated prior from former iteration) about our state position, we predict where the state is supposed to be next period (predict state), and the uncertainty associated with it (variance of the prediction).

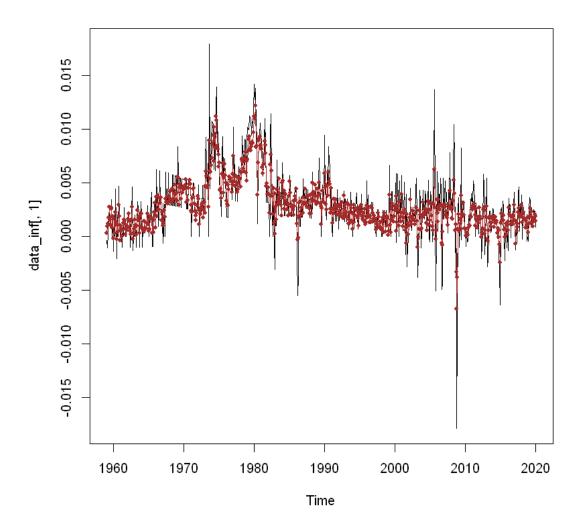
We use our prediction to estimate where our observable potentially is, given the information we have available up to now (prediction of observable). Associated with the prediction is the prediction error (MSE). We use the prediction to check it against the true observable. Given our law of motion for the states, we then estimate the optional value for the state, which gives rise to the Kalman gain. We then use the Kalman gain and the error of our prediction of the observable to update

our priors.

Describing it intuitively: We use a guess on how the states develop to best approximate an observable. After checking for the true value of the observable, we update our state in a manner as to best forecast the observeable. The important part in this answer is to break down the intuition, not to elaborate on the math.

1.7 c)

```
[33]: FF = matrix(c(1,1,1,1), nrow = 4)
[34]: V = diag(4)*0.1
      0.1
           0.0 - 0.0
                    0.0
      0.0
           0.1
               0.0 0.0
      0.0
           0.0
               0.1
                    0.0
      0.0
           0.0
               0.0 \quad 0.1
[35]: # Setting up the necessary estimates
      dlm2 = dlm(FF = FF, V = V, GG = 1, W = 0.2, m0 = 0, C0 = 0.5)
      kfilter2 = dlmFilter(data_inf, dlm2)
[36]: plot(data_inf[,1], type = 'l')
      #$m for the expected value
      lines(dropFirst(kfilter2$m), type = 'o',pch = 20, col = "brown")
```



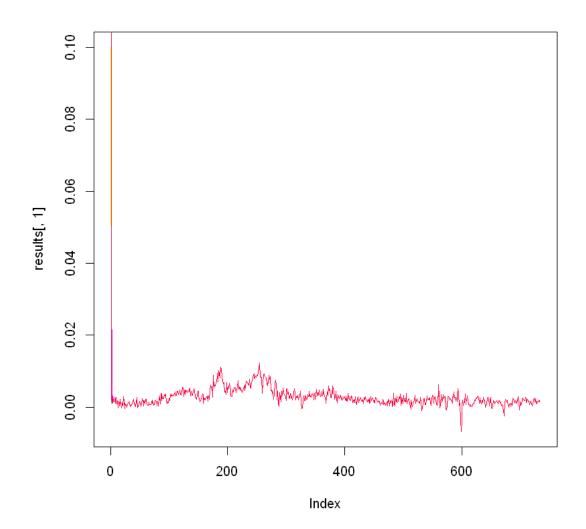
The filtered series using all four series is smoother than the filtered series with only one variable. This makes sense since the filtering with more variables contains more information which can be exploited for the prediction of the state variables.

Next, we want to check the influence of the prior on the result of the Kalman extraction.

```
[37]: # Setup a loop to change the prior
means = c(0.1,0.2,0.3,0.4,0.5)
var = c(0.1, 1, 2, 3, 4)
results = matrix(nrow=length(kfilter2$m), ncol=25)
count = 1
for (x in means){
    for (y in var){
        FF = matrix(c(1,1,1,1), nrow = 4)
}
```

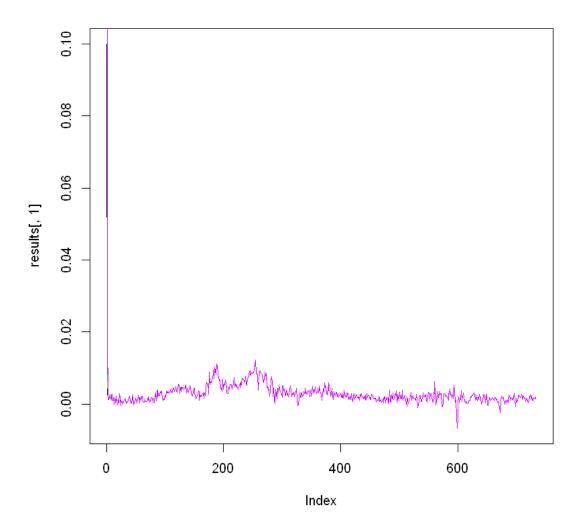
```
V = diag(4)*0.1
    dlm2 = dlm(FF= FF, V = V, GG = 1, W = 0.2, m0 = x, C0 = y)
    kfilter2 = dlmFilter(data_inf, dlm2)
    results[,count] = kfilter2$m
    count = count + 1
}

plot(results[,1], type = 'l')
color = rainbow(25)
for (x in 2:25){
    lines(results[,x], col = color[x])
}
```



Combining different priors together does not seem to influence the convergence of the Kalman filter. Let's investigate how different changes in the mean and the variance change the results.

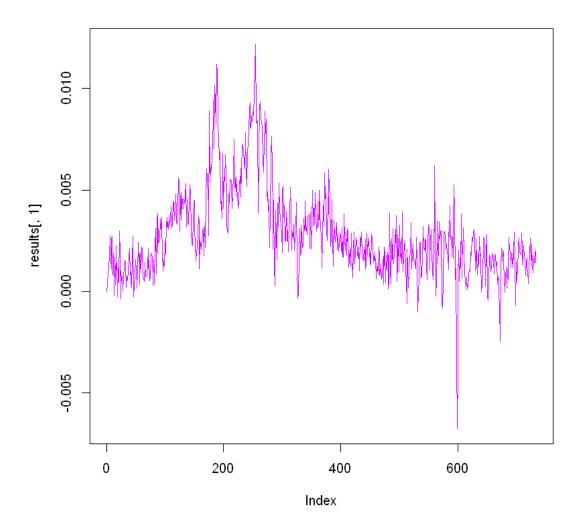
```
[38]: # Setup a loop to change the prior
      means = c(0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5)
      results = matrix(nrow=length(kfilter2$m), ncol=5)
      count = 1
      for (x in means){
          FF = matrix(c(1,1,1,1), nrow = 4)
          V = diag(4)*0.1
          dlm2 = dlm(FF = FF, V = V, GG = 1, W = 0.2, m0 = x, C0 = 0.5)
          kfilter2 = dlmFilter(data_inf, dlm2)
          results[,count] = kfilter2$m
          count = count + 1
      }
      plot(results[,1], type = '1')
      color = rainbow(5)
      for (x in 2:5){
          lines(results[,x], col = color[x])
      }
```



Different means simply shift up the first guess, but the series converges fast.

```
[39]: # Setup a loop to change the prior
var = c(0.1, 1, 2, 3, 4)
results = matrix(nrow=length(kfilter2$m), ncol=5)
count = 1
for (y in var){
    FF = matrix(c(1,1,1,1), nrow = 4)
    V = diag(4)*0.1
    dlm2 = dlm(FF= FF, V = V, GG = 1, W = 0.2, m0 = 0, C0 = y)
    kfilter2 = dlmFilter(data_inf, dlm2)
    results[,count] = kfilter2$m
    count = count + 1
```

```
plot(results[,1], type = 'l')
color = rainbow(5)
for (x in 2:5){
    lines(results[,x], col = color[x])
}
```



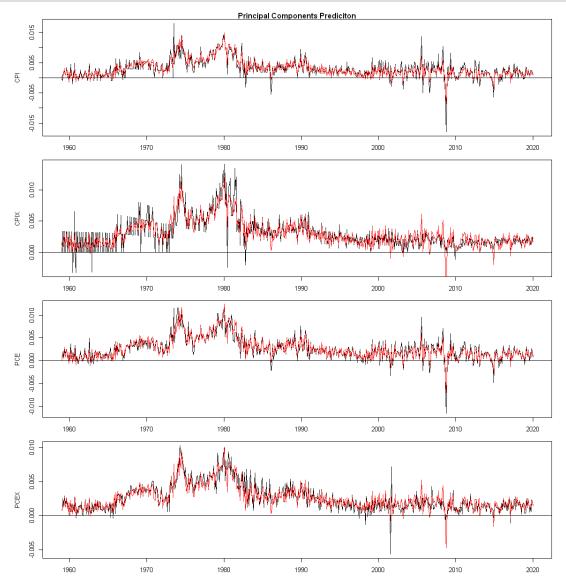
Changing the variance of the prior basically does not generates a difference between the filtered series (there is a difference but it is numerically very small).

```
1.8 d)
```

```
[40]: pca1 <- prcomp(data_inf, center=TRUE, scale.=TRUE)
[41]: summary(pca1)
     Importance of components:
                               PC1
                                      PC2
                                              PC3
                                                      PC4
     Standard deviation
                            1.8038 0.6677 0.52647 0.15269
     Proportion of Variance 0.8134 0.1115 0.06929 0.00583
     Cumulative Proportion 0.8134 0.9249 0.99417 1.00000
[42]: pca1 <- prcomp(data_inf, center=TRUE, scale.=TRUE, rank. = 1)
[43]: true_inf = pca1$x
      loadings = pca1$rotation
[44]: pca1$scale
     CPIAUCSL
                         0.00310166018883366 CPILFESL
                                                              0.00246921813039313 PCEPI
      0.00245827958431651 PCEPILFE
                                                     0.00195976126711119
[45]: # Setting up a matrix we fill below with the PCA
      pred = matrix(nrow=length(data_inf), ncol=4)
      # Filling the matrix with PCA
      for (t in 1:length(data inf)){
        pred[t,] = t(pca1$rotation%*%pca1$x[t])
[46]: library(repr)
      options(repr.plot.width=10, repr.plot.height=10)
      par(mfrow=c(4,1), mar=c(2,5,1,2)+0.1)
      plot(ts(data_inf[,1], start=1959, deltat = 1/12), type='l', main='Principal_

→Components Prediciton', ylab='CPI')
      lines(ts(pred[,1]*pca1$scale[1]+mean(data_inf[,1]),start=1959, deltat = 1/12),__
       →type='l', col='red' )
      abline(h=0)
      plot(ts(data_inf[,2], start=1959, deltat = 1/12), type='l', ylab="CPIX")
      lines(ts(pred[,2]*pca1$scale[2]+mean(data_inf[,2]),start=1959, deltat = 1/12),__
      →type='l', col='red' )
      abline(h=0)
      plot(ts(data inf[,3], start=1959, deltat = 1/12), type="l", ylab="PCE")
      lines(ts(pred[,3]*pca1$scale[3]+mean(data_inf[,3]),start=1959, deltat = 1/12),__
       →type='l', col='red' )
      abline(h=0)
```

```
plot(ts(data_inf[,4], start=1959, deltat = 1/12), type="l", ylab="PCEX")
lines(ts(pred[,4]*pca1$scale[4]+mean(data_inf[,4]),start=1959, deltat = 1/12),
__type='l', col='red')
abline(h=0)
```

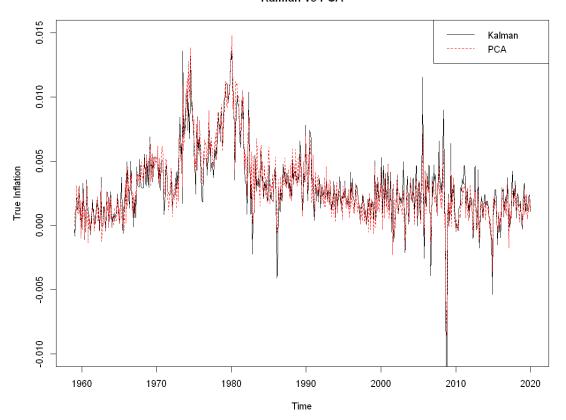


Inspecting the series, we conclude that the series are well approximated by the PCA factor. The analysis can be complemented by investing the R^2 of the PCA regression on the single inflation factors.

1.9 e)

```
options(repr.plot.width=10, repr.plot.height=8)
plot(ts(dropFirst(kfilter$m), start = 1959, frequency = 12), type = "l", main = ""Kalman vs PCA", ylab = "True Inflation",
    ylim = c(-0.01, 0.015))
lines(ts(pred[,1]*pca1$scale[1]+mean(data_inf[,1]),start=1959, deltat = 1/12), "
    →type = "l",lty = 2, col = "red")
legend("topright", legend = c("Kalman", "PCA"), lty = 1:2, col = c("black", "
    →"red"))
```

Kalman vs PCA



The PCA provides a reasonable approximation of the Kalman filtered series. In comparison with the real series, the Kalman filter provides a better approximation of the series.