

程序代写代做 CS编程辅导

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Econometrics
Statistical Inference for Nonstationary Processes
Identification, Testing and Estimation
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Plan.

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① Stochastic and Deterministic Non-stationary Processes

- Properties of Deterministic Non-stationary Process
- Properties of Stochastic Non-stationary Process
 - ① Random Walk Process
 - ② Random Walk Process with a drift
- Transformation to achieve Stationarity

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② Unit Root Tests

- ① Dickey Fuller Test: Basic
- ② Dickey Fuller Test: Intercept
- ③ Dickey Fuller Test: Intercept and Trend
- ④ Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

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③ Power consideration

④ Selection of model for testing

Stationarity versus Non-stationarity



A series y_t is **covariance stationary** or **weakly stationary** if it satisfies:

- ▶ $E(y_t) = \mu < \infty$
- ▶ $\text{Var}(y_t) = E(y_t - \mu)^2 = \sigma^2 < \infty$
- ▶ $\text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t-k}) = E(y_t - \mu)(y_{t-k} - \mu) = \gamma_k \quad \forall k$

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→ The first and the second moment of the distribution of y_t are not affected by an arbitrary shift along the time axis.

We can distinguish two types of **non-stationarity**:

- ▶ Deterministic non-stationarity
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- ▶ Stochastic non-stationarity

Deterministic Non-stationarity

Deterministic Non-stationarity Process



Deterministic non-s

Consider a model with trend and white noise:

 $y_t = \alpha_0 + \phi t + \varepsilon_t$

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where t is a linear trend, i.e. $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, and ε_t is a white noise disturbance term.

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$$\rightarrow E(y_t) = \alpha_0 + \phi t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^t \phi$$

 \rightarrow mean is time-varying

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This model can be extended with AR and MA terms, e.g.:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \phi t + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\rightarrow E(y_t) = (\alpha_0 + \phi t) / (1 - \alpha_1) \quad \text{if } |\alpha_1| < 1$$

Deterministic Non-stationarity

Deterministic Non-Stationary Process



Figure 2 : Model with linear trend and unit root (n = 500):
 $y_t = 2 + 0.02t + 0.8y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$



Deterministic Non-stationarity

Deterministic Non-Stationary Process



$$y_t = \alpha_0 + D_t \phi + \varepsilon_t$$

where $D_t = 0$ for $t = 1, \dots, T_1$; $D_t = 1$ for $t = T_1 + 1, \dots, T$, and ε_t is a white noise disturbance term.

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$$\rightarrow E(y_t) = \alpha_0 \quad \text{for } t=1, \dots, T_1$$

$$E(y_t) = \alpha_0 + \phi \quad \text{for } t=T_1+1, \dots, T$$

→ mean is time varying

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This model can be extended with AR and MA terms, e.g.:

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$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \phi D_t + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\rightarrow E(y_t) = \alpha_0 / (1 - \alpha_1) \quad \text{for } t=1, \dots, T_1 \quad \text{if } |\alpha_1| < 1$$

$$E(y_t) = (\alpha_0 + \phi) / (1 - \alpha_1) \quad \text{for } t=T_1+1, \dots, T \quad \text{if } |\alpha_1| < 1$$

Stochastic Non-stationarity

Stochastic Non-Stationary Process



Stochastic non-stationarity

Consider the AR(1) process:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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The MA representation is given by:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^i \varepsilon_{t-i}$$

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Depending on the value for α_1 , two cases can be distinguished:

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- ▶ Stationary case: $|\alpha_1| < 1 \Rightarrow \alpha_1^i \rightarrow 0$ as $i \rightarrow \infty$
→ shocks gradually die out.
- ▶ Unit root case: $|\alpha_1| = 1 \Rightarrow \alpha_1^i = 1 \forall i$
→ shocks persist in the system.
- ▶ Explosive case: $|\alpha_1| > 1 \Rightarrow \alpha_1^i \rightarrow \infty$ as $i \rightarrow \infty$
→ shocks have an increasingly large influence.

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Stochastic Non-stationarity

Stochastic Non-Stationary Process



Both in the unit root and explosive case the mean, variance, covariances, . . . , are time-varying.

→ the series is said to exhibit **stochastic non-stationarity**.

As the explosive case does not describe many data series, typically $|\alpha_1| > 1$ is ignored and $\alpha_1 = 1$ is used to describe stochastic non-stationarity.

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Now reconsider the unit root case:

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$$y_t = \alpha_0 + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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Again, two cases can be distinguished:

- ▶ Random walk: $\alpha_0 = 0$ <https://tutorcs.com>
- ▶ Random walk with drift: $\alpha_0 \neq 0$

Random Walk Model

Random Walk Process

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The random walk model

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

Backward iterating the process yields:

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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$$= y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t + \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

$$= y_{t-3} + \varepsilon_t + \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t-2}$$

...

$$= y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}$$

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The unit root in the AR process causes the series to exhibit a **stochastic trend**, i.e. $\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}$.



Random Walk Model

Random Walk Process

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Properties of a random walk

- ▶ Expected value

$$E_t(y_t) = E\left(y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = y_t$$

$$E_t(y_{t+1}) = E_t(y_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}) = y_t$$

$$E_t(y_{t+s}) = E_t\left(y_t + \sum_{i=1}^s \varepsilon_{t+i}\right) = y_t$$

- ▶ Variance

$$\text{var}(y_t) = \text{var}\left(y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right)^2 = t\sigma^2$$

- ▶ Covariance

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(y_t, y_{t-s}) &= E((\varepsilon_t + \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \varepsilon_1)(\varepsilon_{t-s} + \varepsilon_{t-s-1} + \dots + \varepsilon_1)) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_s^2 + \varepsilon_{t-s}^2 + \dots + \varepsilon_{t-s}^2) = (t-s)\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

→ The random walk meanders without exhibiting any tendency to increase or decrease.

Random Walk Model

Random Walk Process

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Properties of a random walk

- ▶ Expected value



$$E_t(y_t) = E\left(y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = y_t$$

$$E_t(y_{t+1}) = E_t(y_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}) = y_t$$

$$E_t(y_{t+s}) = E_t\left(y_t + \sum_{i=1}^s \varepsilon_{t+i}\right) = y_t$$

- ▶ Variance

$$\text{var}(y_t) = \text{var}\left(y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = \text{var}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right)^2 = t\sigma^2$$

- ▶ Covariance

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(y_t, y_{t-s}) &= E((\varepsilon_t + \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \varepsilon_1)(\varepsilon_{t-s} + \varepsilon_{t-s-1} + \dots + \varepsilon_1)) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_s^2 + \varepsilon_{s+1}^2 + \dots + \varepsilon_{t-s}^2) = (t-s)\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

→ The random walk meanders without exhibiting any tendency to increase or decrease.



Random Walk Model

Random Walk: Simulated example



Figure 4 : Random wa

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$



Random Walk Model

Random Walk: Simulated example



Figure 6 : Random walk

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$



Random Walk Model

Random Walk with a Drift



The random walk with drift is given by:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

Backward iterating the process yields:

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$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \alpha_0 + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\&= \alpha_0 + \alpha_0 + y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t + \varepsilon_{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$= \alpha_0 + \alpha_0 + \alpha_0 + y_{t-3} + \varepsilon_t + \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t-2}$$

...

$$= y_0 + \alpha_0 t + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_i$$

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The intercept in the non-stationary AR model adds a

deterministic trend, i.e. $\alpha_0 t$, to the stochastic trend $\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_i$.

Random Walk Model

Random Walk with a Drift. Properties



Properties of a random walk

- ▶ Expected value

$$E_t(y_t) = E\left(y_0 + \alpha_0 t + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = y_t$$

$$E_t(y_{t+s}) = E_t\left(\sum_{i=1}^s \alpha_0 + y_t + \sum_{i=1}^s \varepsilon_{t+i}\right) = y_t + s\alpha_0$$

- ▶ Variance

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$$\text{var}(y_t) = \text{var}\left(y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i}\right)^2 = t\sigma^2$$

- ▶ Covariance

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(y_t, y_{t-s}) &= E((\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \varepsilon_t)(\varepsilon_{t-s} + \varepsilon_{t-s-1} + \dots + \varepsilon_1)) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_{t-s}^2 + \varepsilon_{t-s-1}^2 + \dots + \varepsilon_1^2) = (t-s)\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

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The random walk with drift meanders with a tendency to increase ($\alpha_0 > 0$) or to decrease ($\alpha_0 < 0$).



Random Walk Model

Random Walk with a Drift. Properties
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Figure 8 : Random walk w



Transformation to Stationarity

Transformation to Stationarity



Deterministic and stochastic stationary series require different treatments to induce stationarity.

Deterministic non-stationarity

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Consider the model:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \beta t + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

with $|\alpha_1| < 1$.

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► Detrend y_t by subtracting $\frac{\phi}{1-\alpha_1}t$

► $y_t - \frac{\phi}{1-\alpha_1}t$ is stationary

► y_t is said to be **trend-stationary**, i.e. y_t is stationary around a linear trend

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Transformation to Stationarity

Transformation to Stationarity



Stochastic non-stationary

Consider the model:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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- ▶ Detrend y_t by taking a first-difference transformation:

$$\begin{aligned} y_t - y_{t-1} &= \alpha_0 + \varepsilon_t \\ \Delta y_t &= \alpha_0 + \varepsilon_t \end{aligned}$$

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- ▶ Δy_t is stationary
- ▶ y_t is said to be **difference-stationary**, i.e. y_t is stationary after taking first-differences

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Dickey-Fuller Test

Unit Root Tests

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How do we test for a

- Examine the ACF

Problem: it can be shown that in the random walk model, the autocorrelation coefficients are given by:

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$$\rho_k = \frac{\text{cov}(y_t, y_{t-k})}{\sqrt{\text{var}(y_t) \text{var}(y_{t-k})}} = \frac{(t-k)\sigma^2}{\sqrt{t\sigma^2(t-k)\sigma^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{(t-k)}}{\sqrt{t}}$$

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- Autocorrelations die out slowly even for non-stationary series
- Difficult to distinguish a true unit root process from a process with a near unit root
- Examining the ACF is therefore only a first indication

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- Dickey-Fuller test

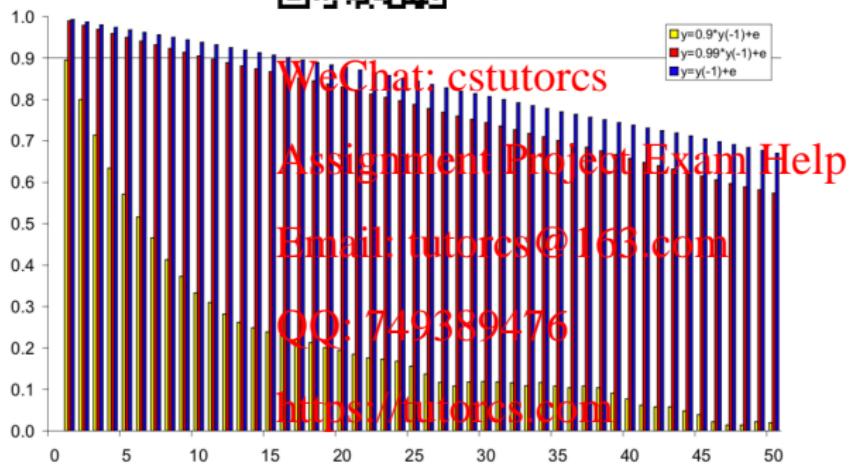
Dickey-Fuller Test

How do we test for a unit root?



Figure 12 : ACF of a st

a non-stationary series



Dickey-Fuller Test

Basic Dickey-Fuller Test 程序代写代做 CS编程辅导

We know that

- $\hat{\alpha}_1$ is consistent irrespective of whether α_1 is the true value of α_1



But

- Under $H_0 : \alpha_1 = 1$ the standard t -ratio does not have a t -distribution, not even asymptotically.

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The reason for this is that under the null hypothesis the series is non-stationary, which invalidates standard results on the distribution of the OLS estimator.

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So we can use the standard t -statistic but critical values have to be taken from the appropriate distribution. Dickey and Fuller (1979, 1981) derive the appropriate distribution using Monte Carlo simulation. This distribution is skewed to the right so that critical values are smaller than those from the normal distribution.

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Dickey-Fuller Test

Basic Dickey-Fuller Test: Alternative t statistic

Usually, a slightly more general regression is used, i.e. the AR(1) model is rewritten as:

$$y_t - y_{t-1} = (\alpha_1 - 1)y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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with $\gamma = \alpha_1 - 1$. The unit root hypothesis now corresponds to

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$$H_0 : \gamma = 0$$

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which can be tested by calculating the t -statistic

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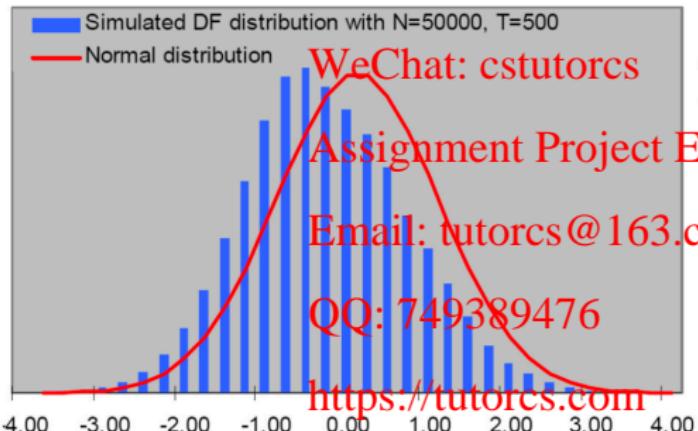
$\hat{\gamma}$
 $\frac{\bar{y}_t}{\text{se}(\bar{y}_t)}$

which is exactly the same as the one presented above.

Dickey-Fuller Test

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Figure 13 : Distribution of $\Delta y_t = \gamma y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ in the model:



averages:
 $\bar{a}_1 = 0.9978$
 $\bar{\gamma} = -0.0022$
 $\bar{\varepsilon} = -0.2730$
critical values:
1% -2.5530
5% -1.9428
10% -1.6056

Dickey-Fuller Test

Basic Dickey-Fuller Test: Example



Example of DF test:

ADF Test Statistic	12.72681	1%	1.799
		5% Critical Value	-1.9421
		10% Critical Value	-1.6169

*MacKinnon critical values for rejection of hypothesis of a unit root

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Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation
Dependent Variable: D(GDP)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/12/07 Time: 11:08
Sample: 1972:1 2007:4
Included observations: 144

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Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	P-Value
GDP(-1)	0.005522	0.000434	12.72681	0.0000
R-squared	0.011496	Mean dependent var	1.1591	
Adjusted R-squared	0.011496	S.D. dependent var	1.162932	
S.E. of regression	1.156228	Akaike info criterion	3.135124	
Sum squared resid	191.1715	Schwarz criterion	3.155747	
Log likelihood	-224.7289	Durbin-Watson stat	0.781596	

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DF Test with Intercept

Dickey-Fuller Test: Intercept
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Extending the DF te



an intercept

Now consider the following process

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ \Delta y_t &= \alpha_0 + \gamma y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

with $\gamma = \alpha_1 - 1$ and ε_t a white noise error term.

- The unit root hypothesis

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$$H_0 : \gamma = 0$$

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can be tested by calculating the τ_μ -statistic<https://tutorcs.com>

$$\tau_\mu = \frac{\gamma}{\text{se}(\hat{\gamma})}$$

DF Test with Intercept

Dickey-Fuller Test with Intercept: Example



GDP

ADF Test Statistic	1.685221
0% Critical Value	-3.4767
10% Critical Value	-2.8815

0%	-3.4767
10%	-2.8815

*MacKinnon critical values for rejection of hypothesis of a unit root

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Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation
Dependent Variable: D(GDP)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/12/07 Time: 11:09
Sample: 1972:1 2007:4
Included observations: 144

Variable	Coefficient	S.E. (std. error)	t-Statistic	P-value
GDP(-1)	0.003392	0.002013	1.685221	0.0941
C	0.484439	0.446942	1.083895	0.2802
R-squared	0.019808	Mean dependent var	1.274371	
Adjusted R-squared	0.012703	S.D. dependent var	1.162932	
S.E. of regression	1.155522	Akaike info criterion	3.140773	
Sum squared resid	189.6029	Schwarz criterion	3.182021	
Log likelihood	-224.1357	F-statistic	3.01973	
Durbin-Watson stat	0.770242	Prob(F-statistic)	0.094142	

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DF Test: Intercept and Trend

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Dickey-Fuller Test: Intercept and Trend

Extending the DF te

an intercept and trend

Now consider the following process

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \phi t + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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$$\Delta y_t = \alpha_0 + \phi t + \gamma y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

with $\gamma = \alpha_1 - 1$ and ε_t a white noise error term.

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- The unit root hypothesis

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$$H_0 : \gamma = 0$$

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can be tested by calculating the τ_τ -statistic<https://tutorcs.com>

$$\tau_\tau = \frac{\hat{\gamma}}{\text{se}(\hat{\gamma})}$$

DF Test: Intercept and Trend

Dickey-Fuller Test with Intercept: Example



Example of DF test: D(GDP)

ADF Test Statistic	-0.251139	1% Critical Value	-3.41
		5% Critical Value	-3.15
		10% Critical Value	-3.1451

*MacKinnon critical values for rejection of hypothesis of a unit root.

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Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation
Dependent Variable: D(GDP)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/12/07 Time: 11:09
Sample: 1972:1 2007:4
Included observations: 144

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
GDP(-1)	-0.004263	0.016976	-0.251139	0.8021
C	1.509957	2.302070	0.655912	0.5129
@TREND(1972:1)	0.008874	0.019538	0.454167	0.6504

R-squared	0.021040	Mean dependent var	1.219947
Adjusted R-squared	0.007154	S.D. dependent var	1.162932
S.E. of regression	1.158765	Akaike info criterion	3.153200
Sum squared resid	189.3259	Schwarz criterion	3.215071
Log likelihood	-224.0304	F-statistic	0.713020
Durbin-Watson stat	0.765485	Prob(F-statistic)	0.223324

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The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

Augmented DF Test

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The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

Now consider an AR(p)

$$y_t = \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$$

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where ε_t is a white noise error term.

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This series has at least one unit root if the autoregressive

parameters sum up to one, i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i = 1$

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Therefore, the unit root hypothesis corresponds to

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$$H_0 : \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i = 1$$

$$H_1 : \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i < 1$$

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

Augmented DF Test

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Thus, the AR(p) model can be written as

$$\Delta y_t = \gamma y_{t-1} + \varphi_1 \Delta y_{t-2} + \dots + \varphi_{p-1} \Delta y_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\text{with } \gamma = \left(\sum_{j=1}^p \alpha_j \right) - 1$$

$$\varphi_i = - \sum_{j=i+1}^p \alpha_j$$

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The unit root hypothesis again corresponds to

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$$H_0 : \gamma \geq 0$$

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and can be tested by calculating the t -statistic<https://tutorcs.com>

$$t = \frac{\hat{\gamma}}{\text{se}(\hat{\gamma})}$$

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test: Example



Example of ADF(1) t

ADF Test Statistic -2.020490
1% Critical Value -3.1241
5% Critical Value -2.1115
10% Critical Value -3.1451

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Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation
Dependent Variable: D(GDP)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/12/07 Time: 11:06
Sample: 1972:1 2007:4
Included observations: 144

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
GDP(-1)	-0.027162	0.13481	-0.20490	0.842
D(GDP(-1))	0.639385	0.066608	9.599179	0.0000
C	3.994947	1.812691	2.203877	0.0292
@TREND(1972:1)	0.032667	0.015427	2.117464	0.0360

R-squared 0.409615

Adjusted R-squared 0.396964

S.E. of regression 0.903080

Sum squared resid 114.1774

Log likelihood -187.6188

Durbin-Watson stat 1.847073

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The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test: Example

Example of ADF(3) t

ADF Test Statistic -1.015626 1% Critical V
 5% Critical V
 10% Critical V



Australian GDP

*MacKinnon critical values for rejection of hypothesis of a unit root.

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Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
GDP(-1)	-0.014101	0.013884	-1.015626	0.1616
D(GDP(-1))	0.076544	0.002297	32.7041	0.0000
D(GDP(-2))	0.022566	0.100464	0.224619	0.8226
D(GDP(-3))	-0.221547	0.084397	-2.625060	0.0096
C	2.387817	1.855846	1.286647	0.2004
@TREND(1972:1)	0.018272	0.015809	1.1440	0.7514

R-squared	0.445051	Mean dependent var	1.219947
Adjusted R-squared	0.425976	S.D. dependent var	1.162932
S.E. of regression	0.881165	Akaike info criterion	2.025030
Sum squared resid	107.1503	Schwarz criterion	2.719072
Log likelihood	-183.0453	F-statistic	22.21506
Durbin-Watson stat	2.082005	Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000

Model Selection

Model Selection for ADF 程序代写代做 CS编程辅导



Selecting the appropriate model

The appropriate specification of the ADF test and the appropriate critical values depend on the DGP of the process under consideration.

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In practice, we usually do not know the true DGP and therefore need to select the appropriate

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► order of the AR process

► number of deterministic terms

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Model Selection for ADF 程序代写代做 CS编程辅导



Selecting the appropriate

deterministic terms

In general, we don't know whether an intercept and/or a linear trend should be included in the model.

Again we face a **trade-off**:

- On the one hand, it seems reasonable to estimate the most general model:

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$$\Delta y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \gamma_i \Delta y_{t-i} + \epsilon_t$$

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The problem with this approach is that it may reduce the power of the DF test, as including additional deterministic regressors:

- Reduces the degrees of freedom
- Increases the critical values for testing $\gamma = 0$, resulting in (dramatically) wider confidence intervals

Model Selection for ADF



- ▶ On the other hand, simply omitting deterministic terms also results in a loss of the power of the test
 - ▶ If the estimated regression inappropriately omits an intercept term, the ADF-test is consistent but its finite sample power is adversely affected and decreases as the magnitude of the coefficient on the omitted intercept increases.
 - ▶ If the estimated regression inappropriately omits a trend term, the power of the ADF test goes to zero as the sample size increases

The implication of this result is that possibly the null hypothesis of a unit root may not be rejected due to misspecification of the deterministic part of the model, as both too few and too many deterministic regressors reduce the power of the unit root test.

Therefore, it is very important to use a regression that mimics the true DGP as close as possible!

A note on the power of ADF tests:

Power



ADF unit root tests may lack power against (trend-)stationary alternatives with a root close to unity as in finite samples

- ▶ Any near unit root process (i.e. stationary process but with strong inertia) can be (arbitrarily well) approximated by a random walk process
- ▶ Any trend-stationary process with a root close to unity can be (arbitrarily well) approximated by a random walk with drift

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As a result, **ADF tests too often indicate that a series contains a unit root.** QQ: 749389476

This is due to the fact that ADF tests have a unit root as the null hypothesis, which implies that we need considerable evidence against the unit root hypothesis in order to be able to reject it.

A note on the power of ADF tests:



Note that although near unit root and true unit root processes on the one hand and trend-stationary and random walk with drift processes on the other hand may be observationally equivalent in finite samples the implications for the properties and for forecasting are very different.

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- ▶ A unit root process does not converge to a stable mean or deterministic trend while a (trend-)stationary process does

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