

Empirical exam

Econometrics of Financial Markets

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Exercise 1

Firstly, we visually inspect all the monthly series by plotting it. All the three series seems to hover around a constant 0 mean without exhibiting volatility clustering, they all may suggest stationarity (see p. 6). However, for a more statistically robust assessment, we adopt the **Augmented Dickey-Fuller test (ADF)**, the latter checks for the presence of a unit root, which is indicative of non-stationarity. As we can see from the p-values of the three tests (section 1.2), we have evidence to reject the null, i.e. the series are stationary.

Before estimating the VAR model, it's essential to determine the optimal lag length. We proceed by minimizing information criteria such as AIC, BIC, HQC and FPE. In our case, a single lag was found to be optimal as it minimized all these criteria (section 1.3).

To further validate the VAR(1) model, we do a residual diagnosis (Not autocorrelated, homoskedastic, Normal distributed) (see p. 7). The residual autocorrelation was tested with the **Ljung-Box Test** and found to be non-significant, with all p-values exceeding 50%, indicating a well-specified model. Additionally, an **ARCH Test** was conducted to assess heteroskedasticity, resulting in a failure to reject the null hypothesis, suggesting homoskedasticity. Finally, we take the **Anderson-Darling Test** to verify that the singular residuals are normally distributed, confirming that the residual vector has multivariate white noise characteristics, indicating a well-specified VAR model. We're now ready to move on to evaluating the structural impulse response function (IRF) (Section 1.4) in order to evaluate the dynamic impact of oil price shocks on the inflation rate and the growth rate. Unlike the VAR model, which primarily reveals time-correlated relationships, structural VAR is more effective for structural analysis. They integrate economic theories and assumptions about the interactions between variables. This approach helps in identifying and interpreting the causal structure within the system, offering a deeper understanding of the underlying economic dynamics.

In order to discuss the propagation mechanism of oil price shocks on the inflation rate and the growth rate, we focus on the first column of the IRFs' plots (see p. 9).

The first plot (**oil** \rightarrow **oil**) refers to the impact of Oil price Shock on the Oil price. The plot suggests that the response is positive and significant at the onset, as expected, since a shock in oil prices directly affects oil prices. The effect starts with the peak and then decays, which indicates that the market for oil prices adjusts relatively quickly to shocks (after 6-8 months the shock is "digested"). The economic motivation could be due to various market mechanisms such as supply-demand adjustments, speculation or other market participants' reactions.

The second plot (**oil** \rightarrow **inf**) refers to the impact of Oil price Shock on the inflation rate. The plot suggests that the response is positive and an increase in oil prices can lead to higher inflation, consistent with economic theory that oil price increases can be passed through to consumers in the form of higher prices for goods and services. The impact peaks in the second month (with magnitude 0.17575) from the shock, and then gradually diminishes (after 7-10 months the shock is "digested"), indicating that the effect of oil price shocks on inflation may be temporary or that monetary policy may respond to stabilize inflation.

The third plot (**oil** \rightarrow **growth**) refers to the impact of Oil price Shock on the growth rate. The graph shows a sharp initial increase in the response of growth rate to a positive oil price shock. This is somewhat atypical because empirical evidence ¹ often suggest that positive oil price shocks (increases in oil prices) tend to have a negative impact on economic growth, particularly for oil-importing countries. This is due to higher production costs and potential reductions in consumer spending power. The response quickly drops below zero within 4 months, indicating a negative impact on growth which aligns more closely with standard economic theory.

Finally, after 15-17 months, the response hovers around zero, implying that any negative effects

¹Hamilton, J.D. (1983) 'Oil and the Macroeconomy Since World War II', *Journal of Political Economy*, 91(2), pp. 228-248.

of the oil price shock on growth are short-lived or are counterbalanced by other factors in the economy. In conclusion, it appears that the system absorbs shocks to oil prices with significant short-term effects on inflation and growth, but these effects tend to diminish over time. The last task of this exercise is to estimate an appropriate ARMA model for the preferred variable (Oil) (section 1.5). The general form of an ARMA(p, q) model for the variable Oil_t is given by:

$$Oil_t = c + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i Oil_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^q \theta_j \varepsilon_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

Having confirmed the stationarity of oil price series with the **ADF test** (section 1.2), we proceeded to evaluate heteroskedasticity using the **ARCH test** (section 1.5). The test yielded a significant p-value of 0.00106, leading us to reject the null hypothesis and have evidence of homoskedasticity. The next step is determine the appropriate 'p' and 'q' values for the ARMA model, that represent the number of lags necessary to eliminate serial autocorrelation for an accurate estimation of the model. For this purpose we first take a look on the correlograms **ACF** and **PACF**, which suggest potential models such as ARMA(1,0) or ARMA(1,1). To refine our selection, we then focused on minimizing information criteria like AIC and BIC (p. 10). This Method leads on the ARMA(1,0) i.e. AR(1) as optimal. We proceed to estimate the AR(1) ARMA(1,1) and ARMA(2,1), we found that AR(1) without constant was the most parsimonious. Moreover we conducted an analysis of the residuals of the same model (the simpler, and for now the best). The results of the test in the summary (p. 12) are:

- **Ljung-Box (Q)**: The p-value for the Ljung-Box test is 0.57, suggesting that there is no significant autocorrelation in the residuals, not rejecting the null hypothesis of no autocorrelation.
- **Jarque-Bera (JB)**: The Jarque-Bera test p-value is 1.00, indicating that the residuals are normally distributed, not rejecting the null hypothesis of normality.
- **Heteroskedasticity (H)**: The p-value is 0.87, suggesting no heteroskedasticity in the residuals.

The model appears to fit the data well, with no significant autocorrelation in residuals. The latters appear normally distributed. The non-significance of the constant term implies that it might be unnecessary in this model. Moreover the F-test (p. 12) shows that the ARMA(1,0) model is significantly better than a mean-only model, it suggests that the autoregressive component of lag 1 is essential in modeling the Oil time series and cannot be omitted.

Finally we can compare the equation of Oil in The VAR model with the AR(1) process:

In the AR(1) (p. 12) the coefficient for oil is significant (p < 0.001), indicating a strong autoregressive component. The model fits the data well as evidenced by the low AIC and BIC values. The Ljung-Box test suggests no autocorrelation in the residuals, indicating a good fit. On the other side, in the VAR Model, oil is also influenced by past values of growth and inflation rate, (p. 8) but the coefficients for inf (p-value = 14.8%) and growth (p-value = 7.5%) are not significant at traditional levels (of 5%). The oil equation within the VAR model shows a significant autoregressive component similar to the AR(1) model. We can say that this model captures the interdependencies among oil, growth, and inflation. However, the lack of significant coefficients for inf and growth in the oil equation suggests that oil might be predominantly driven by its own past values, similar to the findings in the AR(1) model.

In conclusion, while the AR(1) model provides a parsimonious fit for the *oil* series, the VAR model offers a broader perspective by including growth and inflation. The choice between the two would depend on the specific research question and whether the additional complexity of the VAR model provides valuable insights for growth and inflation.

Exercise 2

From an empirical point of view, if the series are non-stationary, one possibility to test for the condition of PPP is to refer to the notion of cointegration. We start importing the data of *pa* (prices in countr A), *pb* (prices in countr B) and *e* (exchange rate) already in logarithmic form, then we plot the graphs and we can observe the presence of persistence and a trend, suggesting that the series are likely non-stationary. (p. 13). As before, we adopt the **ADF test** in order to confirm or discard the hypothesis of non-stationarity. The results (section 2.2) indicate a very high p-value for each series so we can NOT reject H_0 : presence of unit root, i.e. we have evidence of non-stationarity.

We can now proceed to evaluate if there are some cointegration relations between the three time series. For this purpose we utilize the Johansen test (section 2.3), the latter checks for the presence of multiple cointegrating vectors, and the null hypothesis for each number of cointegrating vectors is tested in sequence, starting from 0. The results (p. 14) show that there is at least one cointegrating relationship among the *pa*, *pb*, and *e* series. This implies a long-term equilibrium relationship among these variables, which is consistent with the Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) hypothesis. Finally, the Max-Eigen test confirms that there is one strong cointegrating relationship and no additional relationships.

The next step is to, through an error correction model, verify the reaction of the three variables to disequilibria from the cointegration relation. For this purpose we adopt the vector error correction model (VECM)².

To estimate the VECM model (section 2.4), it remains to find the optimal lag of differences. We use the same method as before, i.e. minimizing the information criteria, the suggested one is the 1 lag order (p. 15).

We are ready now to estimate the VECM model, the summary (p. 17) shows that the model provides a wealth of information regarding the dynamic relationships and long-term equilibrium among the variables *pa*, *pb*, and *e*.

We have:

1. Loading Coefficients (Alpha):

These coefficients are associated with the error correction term (*ec1*) and indicate how each variable adjusts in the short run to restore the long-term equilibrium following a shock. The coefficient for *ec1* in the equation for *pa* is **-0.3052** and is highly significant (p-value of 0.000). This suggests that *pa* adjusts to correct for any disequilibrium. For *pb* and *e*, the coefficients of *ec1* are **0.0120** and **0.0102**, respectively, but are not statistically significant.

2. Cointegration Relations (Beta):

These coefficients represent the long-term equilibrium relationships among the variables. The coefficients *beta.1*, *beta.2*, and *beta.3* correspond to *pa*, *pb*, and *e*, respectively. The coefficients for *pb* and *e* are **-1.0940** and **-0.9952**, respectively, and are both highly significant. This suggests a strong long-term relationship among these variables.

In conclusion the results (p. 17), especially the cointegration relations, provide support for the PPP hypothesis, indicating that the exchange rate (*e*) and the price levels of the two countries (*pa* and *pb*) are in a long-term equilibrium relationship. This supports the idea that over the long term, the exchange rate adjusts to equalize the price levels between the two countries. This is consistent with the PPP hypothesis, which posits a long-term equilibrium between exchange rates and price levels.

²Engle, R.F. and Granger, C.W.J., 1987. Co-integration and Error Correction: Representation, Estimation, and Testing. *Econometrica*, 55(2), pp.251-276.

1 Exercise Appendix

1.1 Importing the Data and Plot

I have utilized Python as econometrics software, the code and the results follow:

```
1 import pandas as pd
2 import statsmodels.api as sm
3 from statsmodels.tsa.api import VAR
4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
5
6 # Import the Dataset
7 file_path = 'data/Contucci_Marco.csv'
8 data = pd.read_csv(file_path)
9 # Visualize the head of the dataset
10 data.head()
11
12 # Selection of the variables for the VAR model
13 var_data = data[["oil", "inf", "growth"]]
14 # Convert time format
15 var_data.index = pd.to_datetime(data['obs'], format='%Ym%m')
16 # Control if there are missing values
17 missing_values = var_data.isnull().sum()
18 # No Missing Values :)
19
20 # Plot of the 3 time series
21 fig, axes = plt.subplots(nrows=3, ncols=1, dpi=120, figsize=(10,6))
22 for i, ax in enumerate(axes.flatten()):
23     data = var_data.iloc[:, i]
24     ax.plot(data, color='blue', linewidth=1)
25     # Better Visualization
26     ax.set_title(var_data.columns[i])
27     ax.xaxis.set_ticks_position('none')
28     ax.yaxis.set_ticks_position('none')
29     ax.spines["top"].set_alpha(0)
30     ax.tick_params(labelsize=6)
31 plt.tight_layout()
```

The plots (Figure 1) suggests Stationarity, let's test it in the following section.

1.2 Check for Stationarity

I have applied the Augmented Dickey-Fuller(ADF) in order to check if the series are Stationary:

```
1 # Check for Stationarity
2 import statsmodels.tsa.stattools as ts
3
4 # Test Augmented Dickey-Fuller(ADF) for Stationarity
5 adf_results = {}
6 for col in var_data.columns:
7     result = ts.adfuller(var_data[col], autolag='AIC')
8     adf_results[col] = result[1] # p-value
9 print("ADF p-values:", adf_results)
```

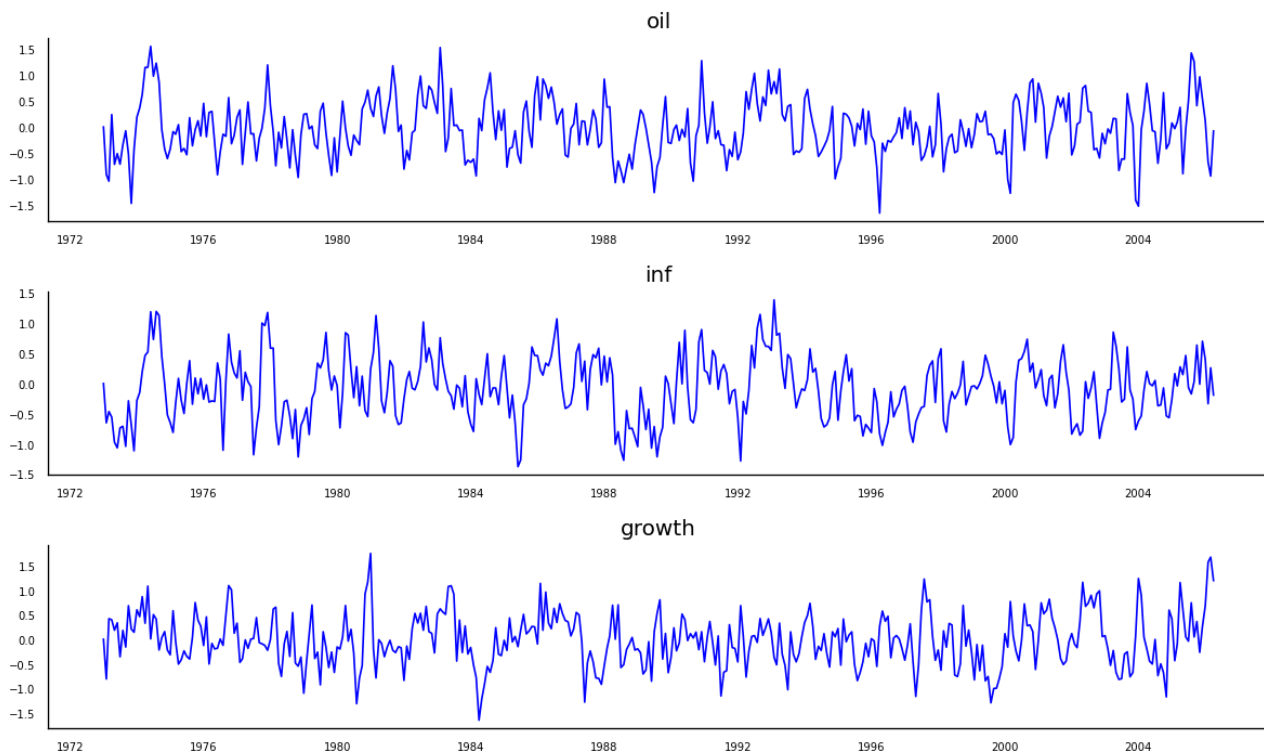


Figure 1: Plot of the three time series

The output is the following:

ADF p-values: {'oil': 5.060e-20, 'inf': 4.380e-16, 'growth': 1.269e-20}

In conclusion we have evidence of Stationarity since the Null Hypothesis of presence of unit root (non Stationary) is rejected for every time series.

1.3 Optimal Order VAR estimation

First of all we check which order of the VAR model is the optimal minimizing information criterion such as AIC, BIC and so on. We chose the smallest one. Moreover we take a look to the behaviour (Homoskedasticity, Autocorrelation, Distribution) of the residuals of the optimal VAR model, assumed to be a White-Noise distributed.

```

1  # Determining optimal order for the VAR
2  model = VAR(var_data)
3  order_selection = model.select_order(maxlags = 15)
4  selected_order = order_selection.selected_orders
5  # Print the selected order
6  print(selected_order)
7
8  # Fit the model VAR(1) and take the residuals
9  var_model = model.fit(1)
10 residuals = var_model.resid
11
12 # Tests on the separated residuals vector
13 from statsmodels.stats.diagnostic import acorr_ljungbox, het_arch, normal_ad
14 residual_tests = {}
15
16 for col in var_data.columns:

```

```

17     res = residuals[col]
18     # Ljung-Box test
19     lb_pvalue = acorr_ljungbox(res, lags=[10],
    ↪     return_df=True)['lb_pvalue'].iloc[0]
20     # ARCH test
21     arch_stat, arch_pvalue, _, _ = het_arch(res)
22     # Normality test (Anderson-Darling)
23     ad_stat, ad_pvalue = normal_ad(res)
24     # Update the results
25     residual_tests[col] = {
26         "Ljung-Box Test p-value": lb_pvalue,
27         "ARCH Test Statistic": arch_stat,
28         "ARCH Test p-value": arch_pvalue,
29         "Normality Test (Anderson-Darling) Statistic": ad_stat,
30         "Normality Test (Anderson-Darling) p-value": ad_pvalue
31     }
32     print(residual_tests)

```

Out: {'aic': 1, 'bic': 1, 'hqic': 1, 'fpe': 1}

The Information criterions suggest that the optimal order is 1.

The results for the residuals of the VAR(1) model follow:

Oil Residuals:

- Ljung-Box Test p-value: 0.558 (suggests no autocorrelation)
- ARCH Test Statistic: 13.37, p-value: 0.204 (no significant ARCH effects)
- Normality Test (Anderson-Darling) Statistic: 0.208, p-value: 0.864 (residuals appear normally distributed)

Inflation Residuals:

- Ljung-Box Test p-value: 0.909 (suggests no autocorrelation)
- ARCH Test Statistic: 13.70, p-value: 0.187 (no significant ARCH effects)
- Normality Test (Anderson-Darling) Statistic: 0.298, p-value: 0.587 (residuals appear normally distributed)

Growth Residuals:

- Ljung-Box Test p-value: 0.717 (suggests no autocorrelation)
- ARCH Test Statistic: 8.07, p-value: 0.622 (no significant ARCH effects)
- Normality Test (Anderson-Darling) Statistic: 0.355, p-value: 0.458 (residuals appear normally distributed)

In summary, the residuals of the VAR(1) model for *oil*, *inf*, and *growth* exhibit no significant autocorrelation, no ARCH effects, and they appear to be normally distributed. This suggests that the residuals can be considered as multivariate white noise, which is a good indication for the adequacy of the VAR(1) model.

1.4 Structural impulse response function(IRF)

```

1 # Summary of the model VAR(1)
2 print(var_model.summary())
3
4 # calculating structural impulse response functions
5 irf = var_model.irf(15) # 15 periods
6
7 # Plot the structural impulse response functions
8 irf.plot(orth = True)
9 plt.show()

```

Summary of Regression Results

```

=====
No. of Equations:      3.00000    BIC:                -4.95241
Nobs:                  399.000    HQIC:               -5.02487
Log likelihood:        -674.529    FPE:                0.00626749
AIC:                   -5.07238    Det(Omega_mle):     0.00608271
-----

```

Results for equation oil

```

=====
               coefficient      std. error      t-stat      prob
-----
const          -0.004659         0.023365      -0.199      0.842
L1.oil          0.486214          0.049620       9.799      0.000
L1.inf          0.074181          0.051280       1.447      0.148
L1.growth       0.077511          0.043489       1.782      0.075
=====

```

Results for equation inf

```

=====
               coefficient      std. error      t-stat      prob
-----
const          -0.038568         0.019901      -1.938      0.053
L1.oil          0.234544          0.042263       5.550      0.000
L1.inf          0.505048          0.043676      11.563      0.000
L1.growth       0.046508          0.037041       1.256      0.209
=====

```

Results for equation growth

```

=====
               coefficient      std. error      t-stat      prob
-----
const          -0.009416         0.023567      -0.400      0.689
L1.oil          0.033708          0.050048       0.674      0.501
L1.inf          -0.051221          0.051722      -0.990      0.322
L1.growth       0.505437          0.043865      11.523      0.000
=====

```


Correlation matrix of residuals

	oil	inf	growth
oil	1.000000	0.345930	0.028666
inf	0.345930	1.000000	0.011494
growth	0.028666	0.011494	1.000000

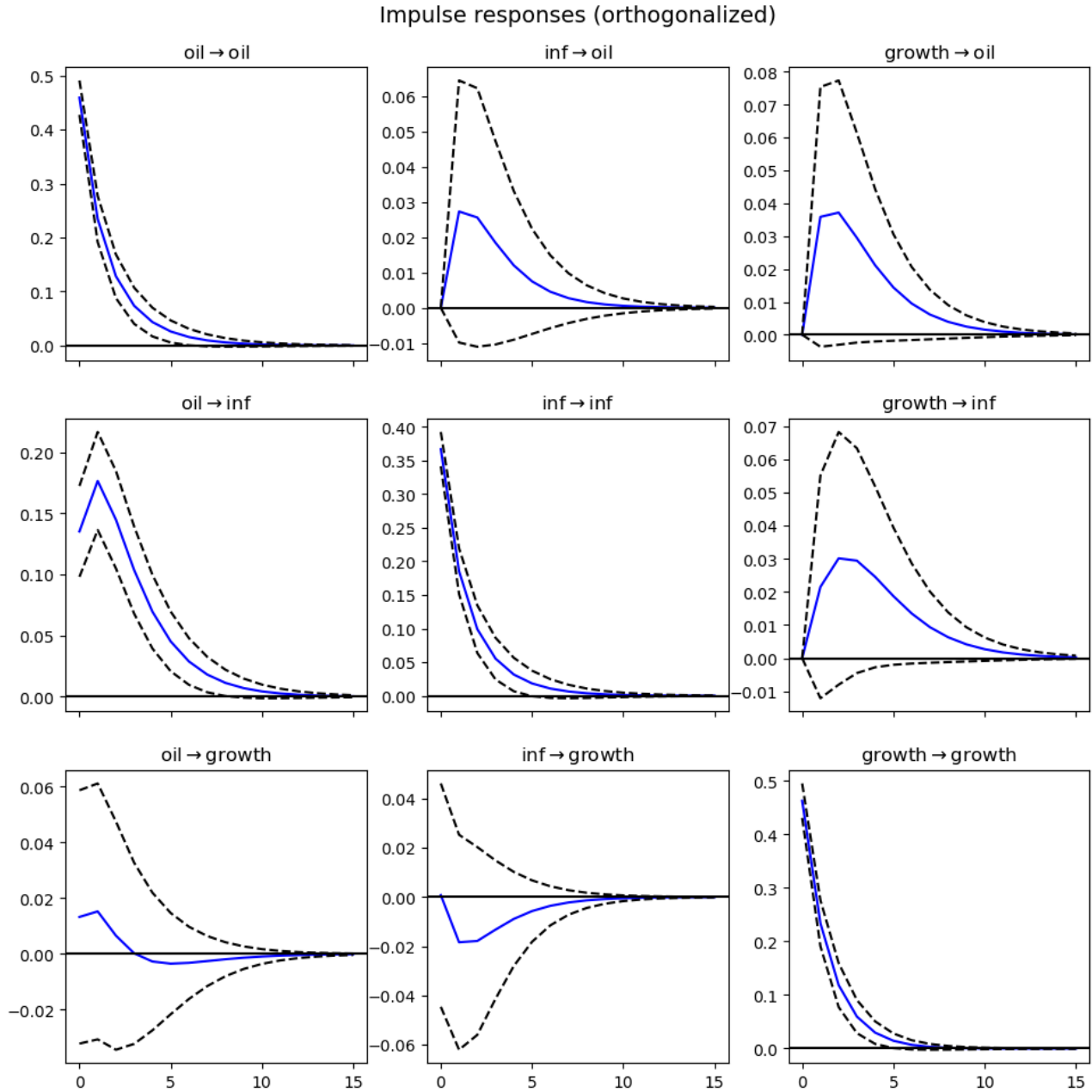


Figure 2: structural IRFs (orthogonalized)

1.5 ARMA model

Now we proceed to estimate the ARMA model for the Oil time series.

```

1 # ARMA of oil
2 from statsmodels.graphics.tsaplots import plot_acf, plot_pacf
3 from statsmodels.tsa.stattools import arma_order_select_ic

```

```

4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
5 oil_series = data['oil']
6
7 # Check for Homoskedasticity
8 arch_testo = het_arch(oil_series)
9 print("ARCH Test Statistic:", arch_testo[0])
10 print("p-value:", arch_testo[1])
11
12 # ACF and PACF plots
13 fig, axes = plt.subplots(1, 2, figsize = (15, 4))
14 plot_acf(oil_series, lags = 20, ax = axes[0])
15 plot_pacf(oil_series, lags = 20, ax = axes[1])
16 plt.show()

```

ARCH Test Statistic: 29.43105213476845

p-value: 0.001060700150798829

The ARCH test, rejecting the null hypothesis of presence of ARCH effects, confirms that the series is **Homoskedastic**.

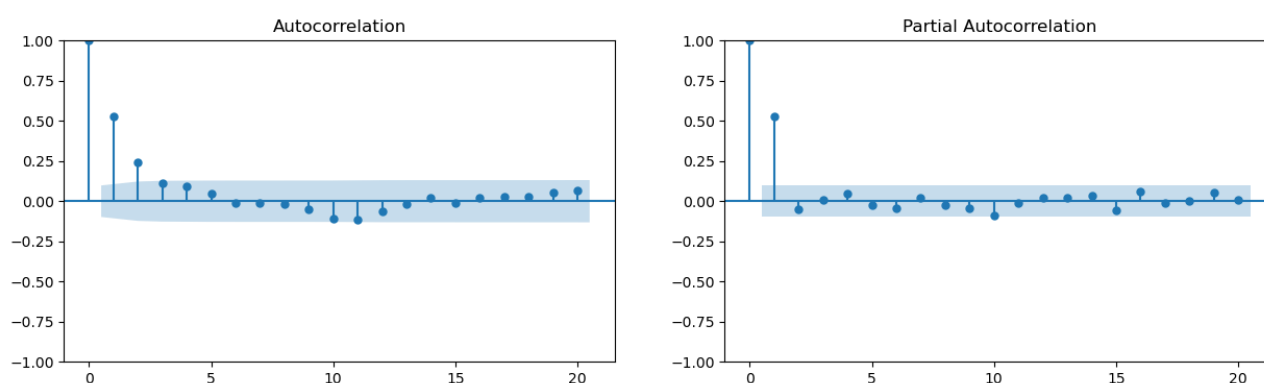


Figure 3: Plot of the ACF and PACF

The ACF and PACF suggest an ARMA model with orders (1,1) or (1,0).

We proceed finding the optimal orders minimizing the information criterion such as AIC and BIC:

	0	1	2	3	4
{'aic':	0	1	2	3	4
0	648.263774	540.736475	521.600802	522.755645	523.844082
1	519.021287	519.908598	521.877342	523.098110	524.643899
2	519.914060	521.902617	523.603611	524.903501	517.451246
3	521.879641	523.836896	524.182290	525.076956	526.325354
4	522.819171	524.710992	524.550165	526.994423	528.376228,

	0	1	2	3	4
'bic':	0	1	2	3	4
0	656.246703	552.710869	537.566660	542.712968	547.792870
1	530.995681	535.874456	541.834665	547.046897	552.584150
2	535.879919	541.859940	547.552398	552.843753	549.382962
3	541.836964	547.785684	552.122542	557.008672	562.248535
4	546.767958	552.651243	556.481881	562.917604	568.290873,

```
'aic_min_order': (1, 0),
'bic_min_order': (1, 0)}
```

Both the information criteria confirm ARMA(1,0) model to estimate the Oil time series. In the next section we provide the estimation of the fit of this model for our data and analyse its residuals.

Fit and residual analysis of ARMA(1,0)=AR(1)

We tested in the section 1.2 that the Oil time series is Stationary so we can proceed to estimate the coefficients with OLS estimation.

```
1 from statsmodels.tsa.arima.model import ARIMA
2 from scipy import stats
3 import numpy as np
4
5 # Estimating ARMA(1,0) = ARIMA(1,0,0)
6 arma_model = ARIMA(oil_series, order = (1, 0, 0), trend = 'n') # No const
7 arma_result = arma_model.fit()
8
9 # Summary of the model
10 print(arma_result.summary())
11
12
13 # F-test
14 rss_full = np.sum(arma_result.resid**2)
15 # Fitting a null model (mean only, no AR or MA components)
16 null_model = ARIMA(oil_series, order=(0, 0, 0)).fit()
17 rss_null = np.sum(null_model.resid**2)
18
19 # Calculating the F-statistic
20 n = len(oil_series)
21 p = 1
22 f_stat = ((rss_null - rss_full) / p) / (rss_full / (n - p - 1))
23 f_p_value = 1 - stats.f.cdf(f_stat, p, n - p - 1)
24
25 print("F-test: ", f_stat, "\np-value: ", f_p_value)
```

```
F-test: 154.65909965180455
p-value: 1.1102230246251565e-16
```

SARIMAX Results

```
=====
Dep. Variable:          oil    No. Observations:          400
Model:                ARIMA(1, 0, 0)    Log Likelihood          -256.638
Date:                Thu, 04 Jan 2024    AIC                    517.276
Time:                12:53:00    BIC                    525.259
Sample:                0    HQIC                    520.438
                        - 400
Covariance Type:          opg
=====
```

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
ar.L1	0.5291	0.042	12.506	0.000	0.446	0.612
sigma2	0.2111	0.015	14.201	0.000	0.182	0.240
Ljung-Box (L1) (Q):			0.32	Jarque-Bera (JB):		0.01
Prob(Q):			0.57	Prob(JB):		1.00
Heteroskedasticity (H):			1.03	Skew:		-0.00
Prob(H) (two-sided):			0.87	Kurtosis:		3.02

The estimated ARIMA(1, 0, 0) model for the ‘oil’ series is given by:

$$oil_t = 0.5281 \cdot oil_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

where:

- oil_t is the current value of the ‘oil’ series at time t .
- ϕ_1 is the coefficient of the first lag of the series, estimated as 0.5281.
- oil_{t-1} is the observed value of the ‘oil’ series at time $t - 1$.
- ε_t is the error term at time t , assumed to be white.

We can take a look to the Diagnostic Tests on the residuals:

- **Ljung-Box (Q):** The p-value for the Ljung-Box test is 0.57, suggesting that there is no significant autocorrelation in the residuals, not rejecting the null hypothesis of no autocorrelation.
- **Jarque-Bera (JB):** The Jarque-Bera test p-value is 1.00, indicating that the residuals are normally distributed, not rejecting the null hypothesis of normality.
- **Heteroskedasticity (H):** The p-value is 0.87, suggesting no heteroskedasticity in the residuals.

The model appears to fit the data well, with no significant autocorrelation in residuals. The latters appear normally distributed. The non-significance of the constant term implies that it might be unnecessary in this model. Moreover the F-test shows that the ARMA(1,0) model is significantly better than a mean-only model, it suggests that the autoregressive component of lag 1 is essential in modeling the Oil time series and cannot be omitted.

2 Exercise Appendix

2.1 Plot of the time series

We take from initial data the data of the two price indices related to Country A and Country B and the nominal exchange rate. We can see that the data provided are already in logarithmic form.

```
1 # Plot of the 3 series
2 plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
3 plt.plot(data['pa'], label='pa', color='darkviolet')
4 plt.plot(data['pb'], label='pb', color='deeppink')
5 plt.plot(data['e'], label='e', color='navy',linestyle='--')
6 plt.title('Comparison of pa and pb')
7 plt.xlabel('Time')
8 plt.ylabel('Values')
9 plt.legend()
10 plt.show()
```

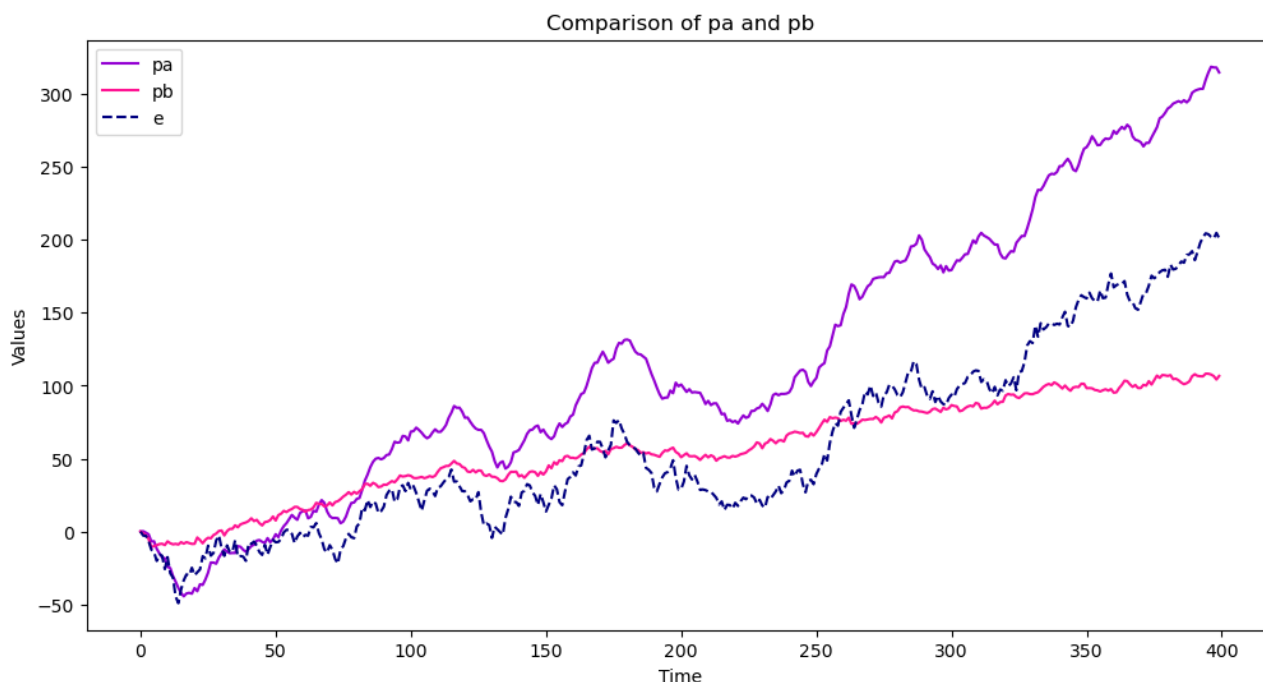


Figure 4: Plot of the logarithm of the two price indices related to Country A and Country B and the nominal exchange rate

In the above plot (Figure 4) we can observe the presence of persistence and a trend, suggesting that the 3 series are likely non-stationary. We will now conduct the Augmented Dickey-Fuller(ADF) test in the following section to verify this suggestion.

2.2 Check for Stationarity

```
1 from statsmodels.tsa.stattools import adfuller
2
3 adf_pa = adfuller(data['pa'])
4 adf_pb = adfuller(data['pb'])
```

```

5 adf_e = adfuller(data['e'])
6
7 print('ADF Statistic for pA:', adf_pa[0], 'p-value:', adf_pa[1])
8 print('ADF Statistic for pB:', adf_pb[0], 'p-value:', adf_pb[1])
9 print('ADF Statistic for eAB:', adf_e[0], 'p-value:', adf_e[1])

```

```

ADF Statistic for pA: 0.5550961879781255 p-value: 0.986454911861702
ADF Statistic for pB: -1.804511687626314 p-value: 0.3782240777455919
ADF Statistic for eAB: 0.4920015128893162 p-value: 0.9846279504810067

```

We have a confirm of the previous suggestion of the Plot in Figure 4. For the three time series we have evidence to not reject the null hypothesis of unit root, i.e. the time series are non stationary.

2.3 Cointegration Test

We utilize Johansen test in order to see if there are some cointegration relation between the three time series. The test checks for the presence of multiple cointegrating vectors, and the null hypothesis for each number of cointegrating vectors is tested in sequence, starting from 0.

```

1 from statsmodels.tsa.vector_ar.vecm import coint_johansen
2 coint_data = data[['pa', 'pb', 'e']]
3
4 # Johansen cointegration test
5 johansen_test = coint_johansen(coint_data, det_order = 0, k_ar_diff = 1)
6
7 # Trace statistics
8 trace_stats = johansen_test.lr1
9 crit_values = johansen_test.cvt
10 max_eig_stats = johansen_test.lr2
11 critical_values_max_eig = johansen_test.cvm
12
13 # Print the results
14 print("Eigenvalues:\n", johansen_test.eig)
15 print("Trace Statistics:\n", trace_stats)
16 print("Critical Values Trace (90%, 95%, 99%):\n", crit_values)
17 print("Max-Eigen Statistic:\n", max_eig_stats)
18 print("Critical Values Max-Eig (90%, 95%, 99%):\n", critical_values_max_eig)

```

Eigenvalues:

```
[0.41849657 0.016192 0.0042997 ]
```

Trace Statistics:

```
[223.98321671 8.2121284 1.71496913]
```

Critical Values Trace (90%, 95%, 99%):

```
[[27.0669 29.7961 35.4628]
```

```
[13.4294 15.4943 19.9349]
```

```
[ 2.7055 3.8415 6.6349]]
```

Max-Eigen Statistic:

```
[215.77108831 6.49715927 1.71496913]
```

Critical Values Max-Eig (90%, 95%, 99%):

```
[[18.8928 21.1314 25.865]
```

```
[12.2971 14.2639 18.52]
```

```
[ 2.7055 3.8415 6.6349]]
```

The next step is the interpretation of the above test (Johansen):

- **For 0 cointegrating relations:**

The trace statistic (223.98) is much higher than the 99% critical value (35.46). This strongly suggests rejecting the null hypothesis of no cointegrating vector.

- **For 1 cointegrating relation:**

The second trace statistic (8.21) is lower than the 95% critical value (15.49) but higher than the 90% critical value (13.43). This suggests that the null hypothesis of at most one cointegrating vector can be rejected at the 90% confidence level but not at the 95% level.

- **For 2 cointegrating relations:**

The third trace statistic (1.71) is lower than all the critical values. This suggests accepting the null hypothesis of at most two cointegrating vectors.

Based on this test, it can be inferred that there is at least one cointegrating relationship among the pa , pb , and e series. This implies a long-term equilibrium relationship among these variables, which is consistent with the Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) hypothesis. The Max-Eigen test confirms that there is one strong cointegrating relationship and no additional relationships ($coint.rank = 1$).

2.4 VECM model

We start finding the optimal lag of differences, starting from minimize the information criterions such as AIC, BIC, HQIC and so on.

```
1 from statsmodels.tsa.vector_ar.vecm import select_order
2
3 # Order selecting
4 maxlags = 10
5 order_results = select_order(coint_data, maxlags = maxlags, deterministic =
  ↳ "ci")
6 print(order_results.summary())
```

VECM Order Selection (* highlights the minimums)

	AIC	BIC	FPE	HQIC
1	5.338*	5.583*	208.1*	5.435*
2	5.359	5.696	212.6	5.493
3	5.373	5.801	215.5	5.542
4	5.389	5.909	219.1	5.595
5	5.413	6.024	224.3	5.655
6	5.443	6.146	231.3	5.722
7	5.463	6.258	235.9	5.778
8	5.485	6.371	241.2	5.836
9	5.502	6.480	245.4	5.890
10	5.505	6.575	246.3	5.929

We observe that the information criterions suggest the order 1 as the optimal one.

($k.ar.diff = 1$)

Now we proceed to estimate the VECM model with 1 cointegrating vector and 1 lag differences.


```

1 from statsmodels.tsa.vector_ar.vecm import VECM
2
3 # fitting the VECM model
4 vecm_model = VECM(coint_data, coint_rank = 1, k_ar_diff = 1) # coint_rank = 1
5 vecm_fit = vecm_model.fit()
6 print(vecm_fit.summary())
7
8 # Getting the coefficients of the error correction term
9 ecm_coefficients = vecm_fit.alpha
10
11 # Summary of the ECM coefficients
12 print("ECM coefficients:")
13     "\nPA (pa):", ecm_coefficients[0][0],
14     "\nEAB (e):", ecm_coefficients[1][0],
15     "\nPB (pb):", ecm_coefficients[2][0])

```

Det. terms outside the coint. relation & lagged endog. parameters for pa

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
L1.pa	0.0197	0.036	0.540	0.589	-0.052	0.091
L1.pb	-0.0457	0.061	-0.750	0.453	-0.165	0.074
L1.e	-0.0147	0.026	-0.574	0.566	-0.065	0.036

Det. terms outside the coint. relation & lagged endog. parameters for pb

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
L1.pa	0.0510	0.034	1.485	0.137	-0.016	0.118
L1.pb	-0.0695	0.057	-1.211	0.226	-0.182	0.043
L1.e	0.0484	0.024	2.003	0.045	0.001	0.096

Det. terms outside the coint. relation & lagged endog. parameters for e

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
L1.pa	0.0797	0.108	0.740	0.459	-0.131	0.291
L1.pb	0.0737	0.180	0.409	0.682	-0.279	0.426
L1.e	0.0011	0.076	0.015	0.988	-0.147	0.150

Loading coefficients (alpha) for equation pa

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
ec1	-0.3052	0.018	-17.071	0.000	-0.340	-0.270

Loading coefficients (alpha) for equation pb

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
ec1	0.0120	0.017	0.714	0.475	-0.021	0.045

Loading coefficients (alpha) for equation e

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
--	------	---------	---	------	--------	--------

ec1	0.0102	0.053	0.194	0.846	-0.093	0.114
-----	--------	-------	-------	-------	--------	-------

Cointegration relations for loading-coefficients-column 1

	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
--	------	---------	---	------	--------	--------

beta.1	1.0000	0	0	0.000	1.000	1.000
beta.2	-1.0940	0.013	-87.060	0.000	-1.119	-1.069
beta.3	-0.9952	0.010	-103.663	0.000	-1.014	-0.976

ECM coefficients:
PA (pa): -0.3051926285335777
EAB (e): 0.012016903715797432
PB (pb): 0.010245630012984997

The Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) provides a wealth of information regarding the dynamic relationships and long-term equilibrium among the variables pa , pb , and e . The interpretation of the above output is the following:

1. Loading Coefficients (Alpha):

These coefficients are associated with the error correction term ($ec1$) and indicate how each variable adjusts in the short run to restore the long-term equilibrium following a shock. The coefficient for $ec1$ in the equation for pa is **-0.3052** and is highly significant (p-value of 0.000). This suggests that pa adjusts to correct for any disequilibrium. For pb and e , the coefficients of $ec1$ are **0.0120** and **0.0102**, respectively, but are not statistically significant.

2. Cointegration Relations (Beta):

These coefficients represent the long-term equilibrium relationships among the variables. The coefficients $beta.1$, $beta.2$, and $beta.3$ correspond to pa , pb , and e , respectively. The coefficients for pb and e are **-1.0940** and **-0.9952**, respectively, and are both highly significant. This suggests a strong long-term relationship among these variables.

In conclusion the results, especially the cointegration relations, provide support for the PPP hypothesis, indicating that the exchange rate (e) and the price levels of the two countries (pa and pb) are in a long-term equilibrium relationship. This supports the idea that over the long term, the exchange rate adjusts to equalize the price levels between the two countries.