

Fast and adaptive cointegration based model for forecasting high frequency financial time series

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Received: date / Accepted: date

Abstract Cointegration is a long-run property of some non-stationary time series where a linear combination of those time series is stationary. This behaviour has been studied in finance because cointegration restrictions often improve forecasting. The Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) is a well-known econometric technique that characterises short-run variations of a set of cointegrated time series incorporating long-run relationships as an error correction term. VECM has been broadly used with low frequency time series. We aimed to adapt VECM to be used in finance with high frequency stream data.

Cointegration relations change in time and therefore VECM parameters must be updated when new data is available. We studied how forecasting performance is affected when VECM parameters and the length of historical data used change in time. We observed that the number of cointegration relationships varies with the length of historical data used. Moreover, parameters that increased these relationships in time led to better forecasting performance. Our

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proposal, called an Adaptive VECM (AVECM) is to make a parameters grid search that maximises the number of cointegration relationships in the near past. To ensure the search can be executed fast enough, we used a distributed environment.

The methodology was tested using four 10-second frequency time series of the Foreign Exchange market. We compared our proposal with ARIMA and the naive forecast of the random walk model. Numerical experiments showed that on average AVECM performed better than ARIMA and random walk. Additionally, AVECM significantly improved execution times with respect to its serial version.

Keywords VECM · Cointegration · Forex · MPI · Parallel algorithm

1 Introduction

In finance, it is common to find variables with long-run equilibrium relationships. This is termed cointegration and reflects the idea that some sets of variables cannot wander too far from each other. Cointegration means that one or more linear combinations of these variables are stationary even though individually they are not. Some models, such as the Vector Error Correction (VECM), see Engle and Granger (1987), take advantage of this property and describe the joint behaviour of several cointegrated variables. VECM introduces this long-run relationship among a set of cointegrated time series as an error correction term. These time series must be integrated of order 1, denoted $I(1)$, i.e. they become stationary at their first differences. In finance, $I(1)$ time series are very common and to introduce cointegration restrictions in models often improves forecasting, see Duy and Thoma (1998). Therefore, VECM has been widely adopted in financial applications, among others: Mukherjee and Naka (1995), Seong et al (2013), Maysami and Koh (2000) and Arestis et al (2001). VECM has also been used in pair trading, see Herlemont (2003), or models with more than two variables, see for example Mukherjee and Naka (1995) and Engle and Patton (2004).

Cointegration relationships can be found in low and high frequency data of two or more assets. While cointegration in low frequency data is motivated by a long-run equilibrium relationship between economic forces, cointegration in high frequency data has its foundation in statistical arbitrage theory which is very helpful to detect mean-reverting trades. Information about cointegrated assets in high frequency data could be used as an input for high frequency trading strategies, using it as a signal to capture small profits in short term trades, see Miao (2014). Zhou (2001) addressed the benefits of using higher frequency data to analyze cointegration. Rittler (2012) also found that cointegration may differ with different data frequencies and could appear with increased data frequency.

The use of VECM with high frequency data is mainly limited by computationally expensive routines. Firstly, VECM parameters are obtained using the ordinary least squares (OLS) method, developed by Golub and Van Loan

(1980). Since OLS involves many calculations, the parameter estimation is computationally expensive when the number of lagged values and data increases. Secondly, obtaining cointegration vectors is also an expensive routine because the Johansen method is required, which is of order $O(n^3)$ (Johansen (1995)). Chen and Leung (2003) addressed the advantage of distributed processing over conventional rolling window processing. Therefore, our aim was to study if a parallel version of VECM can be used with high frequency stream data.

Our approach was to determine, adaptively, the number of observations and lags of VECM which maximise cointegration relations in the past in a distributed environment. We called our proposal Adaptive Vector Error Correction (AVECM). AVECM parallelises this search of parameters in order to update them before new data arrives. Model effectiveness is focused on out-of-sample forecast rather than in-sample fitting. This criterion allows AVECM prediction capability to be expressed rather than just explaining data history. The forecast capability of our method was measured using MSE and the Theil's U -statistic, see Theil (1966), widely used in economic forecast. Tests were run using four currency rates: Euro (EUR) to United States Dollar (USD) (EURUSD), British Pound (GBP) to USD (GBPUSD), USD to Swiss Franc (CHF) (USDCHF) and USD to Japanese Yen (JPY) (USDJPY) with a 10-second frequency.

This paper is organised as follows: section 2 presents the VAR and VECM, the AVECM algorithm is presented in section 3. In section 4 we describe the tests carried on to assess the accuracy and the execution time of AVECM. This section also includes a description of the test data. Section 5 contains the conclusions and a discussion of future research.

2 Background

2.1 Integration and Cointegration

Following Johansen (1995) we shall say that a stochastic process Y_t which satisfies $Y_t - E(Y_t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i \varepsilon_{t-i}$ is called $I(0)$, and then we shall write $Y_t \sim I(0)$, whenever $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i \neq 0$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i z^i$ converges for $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|z| < 1$. It is understood that the condition $\varepsilon_t \sim iid(0, \sigma^2)$ holds.

A (vector) time series \mathbf{y}_t is said to be *integrated of order d* , and then we shall write $\mathbf{y}_t \sim I(d)$, whenever after d times (discrete) differentiation an stationary process is obtained, see Banerjee (1993); more precisely, whenever $(1 - L)^d \mathbf{y}_t \sim I(0)$, where L is the usual lag operator: $(1 - L) \mathbf{y}_t = \Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{y}_{t-1}$ for all t .

Note that this definition includes the scalar case as time series of vectors of dimension 1; in this scalar case we will write the time series in nonbold format.

Let \mathbf{y}_t^ν , $\nu = 1, \dots, l$, be a set of l vector time series of order $I(1)$. They are said to be *cointegrated* if a vector $\beta = [\beta(1), \dots, \beta(l)]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^p$ exists, such that

the time series,

$$\mathbf{Z}_t := \sum_{\nu=1}^l \beta(\nu) \mathbf{y}_t^\nu \sim \mathbf{I}(0). \quad (1)$$

In other words, a set of $I(1)$ time series is said to be cointegrated if a linear combination of them exists, which is $\mathbf{I}(0)$.

2.2 Vector Autoregressive Models

Vector error correction model (VECM) describe the joint behaviour of a set of variables and can be derived from the simple Vector Autoregressive model (VAR) presented by Sims (1980). The $\text{VAR}(p)$ model is a framework describing the behaviour of a set of l endogenous and stationary variables as a linear combination of their last p values, where $l, p \in \mathbb{N}$. In our case, each one of these l variables is a scalar time series $y_{\lambda,t}$, $\lambda = 1, \dots, l$, and we represent them all together at time t by the vector time series:

$$\mathbf{y}_t = [y_{1,t} \ y_{2,t} \ \dots \ y_{l,t}]^\top. \quad (2)$$

Notice that the vectors \mathbf{y}_t are assumed to be l -dimensional.

The $\text{VAR}(p)$ model describes the behaviour of a dependent variable in terms of its own lagged values and the lags of the others variables in the system. The model with p lags is formulated as the system:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_t &= \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_2 \mathbf{y}_{t-2} + \dots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p \mathbf{y}_{t-p} + \mathbf{c} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \\ &\quad t = p+1, \dots, N, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_1, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p$ are $l \times l$ -matrices of real coefficients, $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{p+1}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{p+2}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_N$ are error terms, \mathbf{c} is a constant vector and N is the total number of samples.

Notice that, regarding our notation of section (2.1), we have here $\mathbf{y}_t^0 = \mathbf{y}_t$, $\mathbf{y}_t^\nu = \mathbf{y}_{t-\nu}$ and the λ -th component of the vector time series \mathbf{y}_t^ν is the scalar time series $y_{\lambda,t}^\nu$, where $\nu = 1, \dots, p$ and $\lambda = 1, \dots, l$.

However, the VAR model cannot be used with non-stationary variables. VECM, developed by Engle and Granger (1987), is also a linear model for $\mathbf{I}(1)$ variables that are also cointegrated, see Banerjee (1993). If cointegration exists, variable differences are stationary and they introduce an error correction term which adjusts coefficients to bring the variables back to equilibrium.

It is obtained re-writing equation (3) in terms of the new variable $\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{y}_{t-1}$. The VECM model, expressed in terms those differences, takes the form:

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \boldsymbol{\Omega} \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}_i^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-i} + \mathbf{c} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t, \quad (4)$$

where the coefficients matrices Φ_i^* and Ω , expressed in terms of the matrices Φ_i of (3), are:

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_i^* &:= - \sum_{j=i+1}^p \Phi_j, \\ \Omega &:= - (\mathbb{I} - \Phi_1 - \dots - \Phi_p) .\end{aligned}$$

The following well known properties of the matrix Ω , see Johansen (1995), will be useful in the sequel:

- If $\Omega = \mathbf{0}$, there is no cointegration.
- If $\text{rank}(\Omega) = l$, i.e., if Ω has full rank, then the time series are not I(1) but stationary.
- If $\text{rank}(\Omega) = r$, $0 < r < l$, then there is cointegration and the matrix Ω can be expressed as $\Omega = \alpha\beta^\top$, where α and β are $l \times r$ matrices and $\text{rank}(\alpha) = \text{rank}(\beta) = r$.
- The columns of β contains the cointegration vectors and the rows of α correspond with the adjusted vectors. β is obtained by Johansen procedure, see Johansen (1988), whereas α has to be determined as a variable in the VECM.

It is worth noticing that the factorization of the matrix Ω is not unique, since for any $r \times r$ non-singular matrix \mathbf{H} , $\alpha^* := \alpha\mathbf{H}$, and $\beta^* = \beta(\mathbf{H}^{-1})^\top$ we have $\alpha\beta^\top = \alpha^*(\beta^*)^\top$. If cointegration exists, then equation (4) can be written as follows:

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \alpha\beta^\top \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \Phi_i^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-i} + \mathbf{c} + \epsilon_t, \quad (5)$$

which is a VAR model but for time series differences.

Transposing each equation of the system (5) we can write the VECM(p) model in block-matrix form as:

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{E}, \quad (6)$$

where \mathbf{B} dimension is $((N-p) \times l)$, \mathbf{A} dimension is $((N-p) \times (r + (p-1)l + 1))$, \mathbf{X} dimension is $((r + (p-1)l + 1) \times l)$ and \mathbf{E} dimension is $((N-p) \times l)$:

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{y}_{p+1}^\top \\ \Delta \mathbf{y}_{p+2}^\top \\ \vdots \\ \Delta \mathbf{y}_N^\top \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha^\top \\ \Phi_1^{*\top} \\ \Phi_2^{*\top} \\ \vdots \\ \Phi_{p-1}^{*\top} \\ \mathbf{c}^\top \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{E} = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{p+1}^\top \\ \epsilon_{p+2}^\top \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_N^\top \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

and

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_p^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} & \Delta \mathbf{y}_p^\top & \Delta \mathbf{y}_{p-1}^\top & \cdots & \Delta \mathbf{y}_2^\top & 1 \\ \mathbf{y}_{p+1}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} & \Delta \mathbf{y}_{p+1}^\top & \Delta \mathbf{y}_p^\top & \cdots & \Delta \mathbf{y}_3^\top & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}_{N-1}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} & \Delta \mathbf{y}_{N-1}^\top & \Delta \mathbf{y}_{N-2}^\top & \cdots & \Delta \mathbf{y}_{N-p-1}^\top & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

Taking into account the error term \mathbf{E} , equation (6) can be solved with respect to \mathbf{X} using the OLS estimation.

3 Methodology

3.1 Motivation

Cointegration vectors can be found applying the Johansen method which uses a sample of the last historical data. However, VECM assumes cointegration vectors do not change in time. In fact, Gregory et al (1996) addresses that the long-run relationships between the time series might change due to several economic factors that can lead to structural breaks in the cointegration relationship. In order to show that the number of cointegration vectors depends on the amount L of historical data and the number of lags p in the VECM, we used a grid search. We arbitrarily defined a grid of possible values for L and p . L goes throughout $[2, 14]$ hours (1 *hour* = 360 data points) with a step size of 4 hours and p throughout $[1, 5]$ with a step size of 1. The idea was to show the variability of the number of cointegration vectors when we changed these two parameters. We used four forex rates: EURUSD, GBPUSD, USDCHF and USDJPY with 10-second frequency. Data started at 13:00 GMT of the 13th of August 2014, when the New York and London financial markets opened.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of the number of cointegration vectors given by the Johansen method for different values of $L = [2, 6, 10, 14]$ hours and $p = 1$. This procedure was carried out by a sliding window of historical data moving 1000 times. We observed that the distribution of cointegration vectors changed with different values of L . When $L = 2$ hours, there was no cointegration in more than 60% of the iterations. Cointegration increased when $L = 6$ hours and was maximum when $L = 10$ hours where one cointegration vectors was found for all 1000 iterations. The occurrence of cointegration started to decrease at $L = 14$ hours.

From section 2 we know that $r = 0$ means no cointegration and $r = l$ (we are using four rates, so $l = 4$) reveals that no process is $I(1)$ but stationary. The interesting cases of cointegration are those where r lies strictly between 0 and 4, i.e. $0 < r < 4$.

In order to measure the extent of cointegration, we introduce a *percentage of cointegration* as following:

$$PC = \frac{\#\{it \mid it \text{ has } r \text{ c.v. with } 0 < r < l\}}{\#it} \times 100 \quad (9)$$

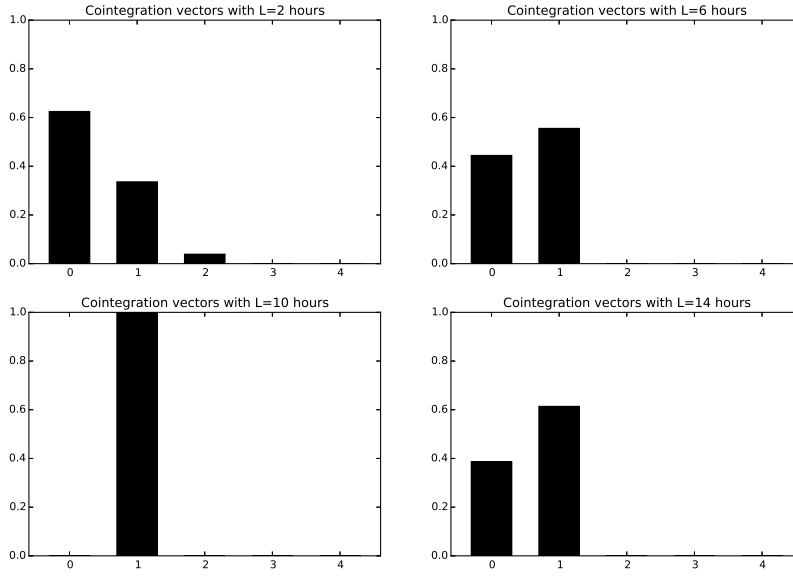


Fig. 1 Distribution of the number of cointegration vectors using $p = 1$ lags. Four possible values for windows size L are shown (2, 6, 10 and 14) hours (1 hour = 360 data points).

where c.v. stands for cointegration vectors and it is the number of iterations.

The goal of our next experiment was to find a relationship between the ratio PC and the performance measure MSE (see equation 12). L was defined between $[2, 14]$ hours, that corresponded to $[720, 5040]$ data points, and p took values between $[1, 5]$.

Figure 2 shows the relationship between MSE and PC and L . We found that higher cointegration percentage leads to improved performance accuracy in terms of lower MSE. Also, increasing the size of the sliding window L doesn't necessarily help to reduce MSE.

Therefore we proposed to choose L and p in order to maximise the percentage of cointegration PC in the near past. This process was done every time that new data was processed. However, this search can be slow if we try different values for L and p and therefore we distributed this calculation in order to reduce searching time.

Our proposal is then a modified version of VECM, with parameter p and the amount of historical data used L obtained at every step. Only the search of L and p was done in a distributed environment, since this is the most expensive routine. Our proposal is called Adaptive Vector Error Correction model (AVECM). AVECM is detailed in the algorithm 1 which summarises our proposal.

The input of AVECM is time series prices which are cointegrated. The starting point of testing is j and the total number of iterations is it . We need to ensure that j is at least the maximum value of L s. L s and p s are the possible values for L and p . The function **get_best_params** makes this grid

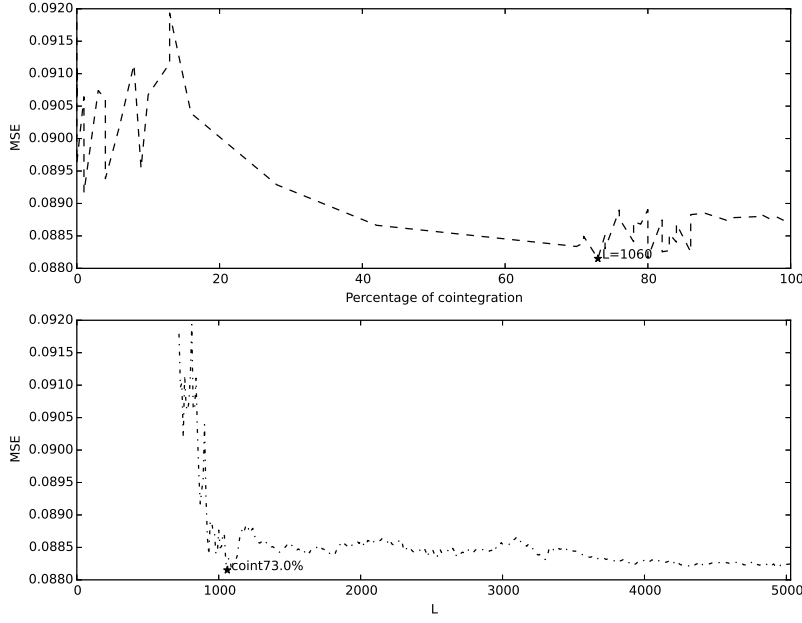


Fig. 2 MSE versus the percentage of cointegration considering 1000 iterations. Optimum windows size L found was 1060. Below MSE versus L shows a rapidly decreasing behaviour, founding minimum at PC = 73%

Algorithm 1 AVECM: Adaptive VECM.

Input:

- \mathbf{y} : matrix with N input vectors and l time series
- j : Starting point of testing
- it : Ending point of testing
- ps : list of p values
- Ls : list of L values ($L < N$)
- m : Iterations to determine parameters ($m < N - L$)

Output:

- $\{\hat{\mathbf{y}}[1], \dots, \hat{\mathbf{y}}[it]\}$: prediction vectors
 - 1: **for** $i = j$ to it **do**
 - 2: $\mathbf{Y} \leftarrow \mathbf{y}[:, i - 1]$
 - 3: $L, p \leftarrow \text{get_best_params}(Ls, ps, m, \mathbf{Y})$
 - 4: $model = \text{VECM}(\mathbf{Y}, L, p)$
 - 5: $\hat{\mathbf{y}}[i - j] = model.predict()$
 - 6: **end for**
-

search on the two vector lists Ls and ps and returns the parameters L and p which maximise the percentage of cointegration PC (see equation 9) for a pre-defined number of iterations m . This function is implemented in a distributed

environment, thus ensuring a response before new data is available. After L and p parameters are found, VECM is built and used to forecast the next data point.

3.2 Model comparison

We compared our proposal, in terms of performance, with the naive forecast of the random walk model and ARIMA. It is still difficult to outperform the random walk model for standard econometric forecasting models despite its simplicity, see Lo and MacKinlay (2011). The random walk model is defined as:

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \quad (10)$$

The naive forecast of the time series difference $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+1}$ for the random walk model is defined as:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+1} = \mathbf{y}_t + \hat{\epsilon}_{t+1} \quad (11)$$

where $\hat{\epsilon}_{t+1} = \epsilon_t$.

On the other hand, ARIMA is widely used to forecast returns in finance, see Tsay (2005). A process can be modelled as an ARIMA(p, d, q) model if $\mathbf{x}_t = \Delta^d \mathbf{y}_t$, i.e after differencing d times the time series \mathbf{y}_t , we get an ARMA(p, q). Since we are modelling returns, we used $d = 1$.

3.3 Evaluation methods

Forecast performance was evaluated using two different methods which are frequently used in finance:

MSE, Mean Square Error measures the distance between forecasts and the true values and large deviations from the true value have a large impact due to squaring forecast error.

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N (\mathbf{y}_t - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_t)^2}{N} \quad (12)$$

***U*-statistic**, the Theil's *U*-statistic, presented by Theil (1966), is a unit free measure obtained as the ratio between the root MSE (RMSE) of a model and the RMSE of the naive random walk model. A *U*-statistic less than 1 implies the performance is better than the naive model.

4 Experimental results

4.1 Data

All the experiments and AVECM tests were carried out using four foreign exchange rates all related to USD: EURUSD, GBPUSD, USDCHF and USDJPY. We chose the most traded rates related to USD so they were likely to be cointegrated. This data was collected from Dukascopy (2014), a free database which gives access to the Swiss Foreign Exchange marketplace.

The tests were done using 10-second frequency from ask prices from the 11th to the 15th of August 2014. Since one day corresponds to 8640 data points and we used 5 days of data, we have 43,200 data points in total.

4.2 Unit root tests

Before running the tests, we firstly checked whether the time series were $I(1)$ using the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test with lags $p = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$. MacKinnon (2010) presented critical values for rejection of hypothesis of a unit root: -2.62 (1%), 1.94 (5%) and 1.62 (10%). Table 4.2 shows that all

Variable	ADF(1)	ADF(2)	ADF(3)	ADF(4)	ADF(5)
EURUSD	-0.052	-0.054	-0.054	-0.054	-0.054
GBPUSD	-0.744	-0.784	-0.805	-0.837	-0.846
USDCHF	-0.476	-0.493	-0.493	-0.495	-0.502
USDJPY	0.357	0.360	0.360	0.367	0.367
Δ EURUSD	-128.4*	-128.4*	-96.85*	-89.12*	-89.12*
Δ GBPUSD	-131.4*	-112.7*	-102.5*	-92.86*	-88.29*
Δ USDCHF	-127.8*	-127.8*	-96.94*	-88.82*	-80.79*
Δ USDJPY	-135.1*	-135.1*	-101.2*	-101.2*	-101.2*

* Indicates significance at 1% level

** Indicates significance at 5% level

*** Indicates significance at 10% level

MacKinnon critical values for rejection of hypothesis of a unit root are: -2.62 (1%), -1.94 (5%) and -1.62 (10%)

ADF(d) Augmented Dickey-Fuller test with lag d

Table 1 Unit roots tests for EURUSD, GBPUSD, USDCHF and USDJPY at 10-second frequency.

currency rates cannot reject the unit root test in their level form considering different lags, but they rejected it with their first differences. This means that all of them are $I(1)$ time series and we are allowed to use VECM and therefore our proposed AVECM.

4.3 Performance accuracy

Algorithms AVECM, ARIMA and the naive random walk were tested using four days of data (from the 12th to the 15th of August 2014). For AVECM we considered different number of iterations (parameter m in algorithm 1): 10, 50 and 100. We tried 12, 24 and 47 different pair of combinations for L and p . Possible values for L were in the interval $[2, 14]$ hours and p can have values in between $[1, 5]$. Best AVECM performance was compared against ARIMA and the random walk model. Table 2 shows the out-of-sample performance measures: MSE and U -statistic for AVECM and ARIMA. In terms of both measures we found that AVECM is superior to ARIMA and the naive random walk model. We also included the p-value that proves that the difference in the MSE is significant at the 99% significance level in three of the four currency rates and at 90% in the case of GBPUSD. The U -statistic shows that AVECM and ARIMA are superior to the naive random walk model and that our proposal is also superior to ARIMA.

Table 2 AVECM performance

	MSE			U -statistic	
	AVECM	ARIMA	p-value	AVECM	ARIMA
EURUSD	1.0702 e-09	1.1481 e-09	9.2509 e-12	0.6863	0.7108
GBPUSD	1.6630 e-09	1.7408 e-09	6.9519 e-02	0.6866	0.7025
USDCHF	5.8503 e-10	6.3545 e-10	2.8999 e-14	0.6803	0.7091
USDJPY	6.3483 e-06	6.5194 e-06	6.8536 e-05	0.6964	0.7057

4.4 Parallel implementation

To determine L and p based on maximising the percentage of cointegration requires use of the Johansen method which is a computationally expensive routine. This procedure is done by the function `get_best_params(Ls, ps, m, \mathbf{Y})` shown in algorithm 1. In order to improve the execution time of this search, our proposal included a parallel search of VECM parameters using high performance computing. The main objective was to obtain a response before a new data arrived in the following 10 seconds.

The Johansen method is already programmed in the Python Statsmodels library, see Seabold and Perktold (2010), and the parallel implementation was developed using MPI in Python. We chose MPI because it allows large-scale parallel applications with wide portability to be built, being able to run in large clusters or on local computers. We tested our proposal in a cluster with 2 servers Xeon E5-2667 (2.90GHz) of 24 cores each (48 cores in total) and 24GB

RAM. In order to compare serial and parallel execution times in AVECM, we set parameter $it = 100$ in algorithm 1.

The L parameter was always chosen between 2 and 14 hours and p always took values between 1 and 5. Parameter $nparams$ represents the number of pairs (L, p) used to maximise the percentage of cointegration.

Execution time depends directly on L , p and $nparams$ used, since they determine the size of matrix \mathbf{A} (see equation 8) and therefore affect the OLS function execution time. Therefore, if we try more combinations of L and p (increasing $nparams$) the serial algorithm will take longer. For this financial time series we are interested in execution times below 10 seconds (the time series frequency).

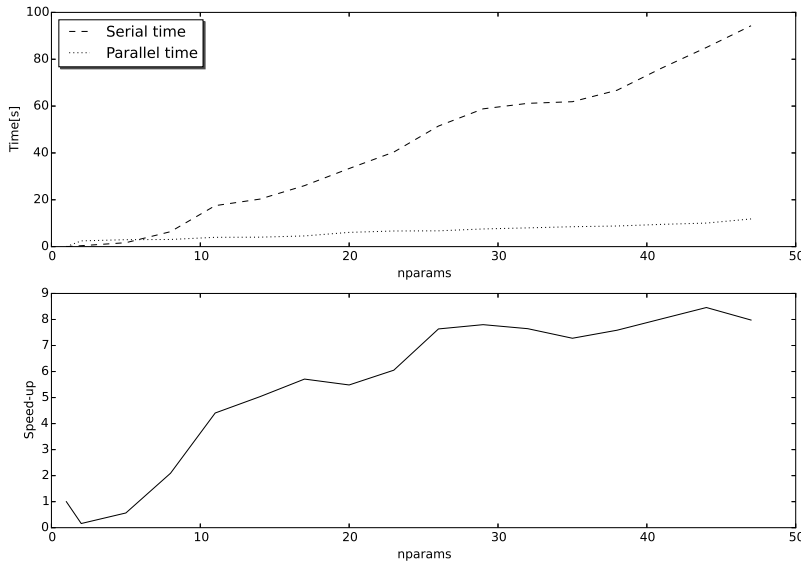


Fig. 3 Computing time of sequential and parallel algorithm is shown in the upper figure. Speed-up is shown below.

The superior figure in 3 shows that best performance accuracy measurements are achieved in times near or below 10 seconds in the parallel version. Contrarily, serial times are higher, above 10 seconds in most cases. Figure 3 also shows the speed-up in computing time for AVECM which is near 9X if we use more than 25 parameters ($nparams$).

Execution times do not consider the loading data time, just that of finding best parameters and matrix operations. The time MPI spends transferring data and synchronising processes is about two seconds independently of the number of processes considered. Execution times were measured using the Time python library.

5 Conclusions

Cointegration in financial time series has been largely studied and the Johansen method is commonly used to obtain cointegration relationships. In practice, it has been found that cointegration relations change with time. However, model-based cointegration such as VECM assumes that cointegration remains unchanged in time. We empirically showed that the Johansen method is sensitive to the number of lags but also to the amount of data considered.

Moreover, we introduced the notion of *percentage of cointegration* and found that out-of-sample forecast performance MSE is related to the value of this figure in the last samples. We used this information to set the model parameters. Our proposal AVECM consists of an adaptive algorithm to update VECM parameters every time that new data is available. These parameters are found by maximising the percentage of cointegration of the last samples or iterations.

Despite the fact that high frequency Forex data can be spurious, the model performance can be less reliable (and more spurious) relative to the lower frequencies (such as 1 minute or 5 minute intervals) adopted by some other studies. However, the deficiency is offset by gain in accuracy from parallel processing which is capable of searching or examining a much larger state space given the same computational time.

Determining VECM parameters was the most expensive routine and it was run using parallel processes using MPI which allowed a grid search within a range of values for L and p to be made. Tests were done using real currency rates data.

Results showed that our proposed AVECM improves performance measures by finding parameters of L and p maximising the percentage of cointegration.

The parallel implementation allowed the execution times to be reduced more than 9 times and therefore a response time was obtain before 10 seconds. Since we used 10-second frequencys we can say that our proposal is suitable for use in an online context for real applications because response times were less than this frequency. Cointegration information can now easily be used as an integration tool to detect arbitrage opportunities or risk control.

For future study, it would be interesting to explore the relationship between cointegration and performance in order to propose new criteria for improving VECM parameters. It would also be interesting to include more explaining variables such as bid-ask spread and change in volume.

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