6: Stationarity GECO 6281 Advanced Econometrics 1 (Lab)

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- OLS and GLS
- Discrete Choice Modeling: LOGIT, PROBIT
- Truncated/Censored Data modeling: TOBIT, Heckman
- Dealing with Endogeneity: Instrumental Variables (IV)
- Static Panel Data
- Instrumental Variables in Dynamic Panel Data: Anderson-Hsiao, Arellano-Bond, Arellano-Bover
- Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR)
- Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) and Error Correction Modeling (ECM)

- Most econometrics investigation are concerned with moments of the joint distribution, i.e. expected values of some transformation of the data. This information is only meaningful if it is the same at any location within the data.
- We avoid spurious regressions, i.e. finding causality/correlation where there is none due to shared trends.
- Wold's decomposition theorem (every time series is made up by one deterministic and one stochastic time series) holds only for stationary data.

Consequences: Economists will often transform data until it looks stationary (first differencing, signal-noise filtering, ...). This makes interpretation challenging.

- Stationarity really only matters because it makes things easier. There are question economists are interested in that go beyond stationary processes.
- Economic data is subject to a legal-political framework, which includes the possibility of structural breaks. It might be stationary for some time, but not for longer periods.
- Economic data is only observed for relatively short time periods. Stationarity is an asymptotic property.
- Only rely on stationarity if you absolutely have to. Many non-stationary methods of analysis do not require it and provide deeper insight!

- Engineers have it easier: "Stationarity can be defined in precise mathematical terms, but for our purpose we mean a flat looking series [...]" (https://www.itl.nist.gov/div898/handbook/pmc/section4/pmc442.htm)
- Frequentist Econometricians have it harder: We pretend to attempt and find evidence against our hypothesis, then are relieved when we don't find it.
- Essentially stationarity/unit root testing is defining how a distribution would look if it was not stationary, then compare our data to this.

Strict Stationarity: A process has the same statistical properties (moments) at any given point in time. The joint distribution of $(X_t, X_{t-1}, ..., X_{t-j})$ is the same as $(X_{t-k}, X_{t-k-1}, ..., X_{t-k-j}) \forall t, j, k$.

Most of the time, we are satisified with the first two moments of the joint distribution.

Covariance Stationarity ("Weak Stationarity"): $\forall t, k, h$

$$E[X_t] = \mu < \infty \tag{1}$$

$$V[X_t] = \sigma_X^2 = \gamma(0) = \gamma_0 < \infty$$
⁽²⁾

$$cov(X_t, X_{t-k}) = cov(X_{t-h}, X_{t-k-h}) = \gamma(k) = \gamma_k$$
(3)

Covariance stationary (or 'weakly stationary') processes are characterized by their time-constant autocovariance function $\gamma(.): \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{R}$ and equivalently their autocorrelation function (ACF) $\rho(.): \mathbb{Z} \to [-1, 1]$.

$$\rho(k) = \rho_k = corr(X_t, X_{t-k}) = \frac{\gamma_k}{\gamma_0}$$
(4)

Note that $\rho(0)=1$ and $\rho(-j)=\rho(j).$

We will investigate covariance stationarity using the autocorrelation function.

Stationary Processes

- AR processes $X_t = \delta + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i X_{t-i} + \epsilon_t$ with $|\phi| \ge 1$ are not stationary.
- AR processes $X_t = \delta + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi_i X_{t-i} + \epsilon_t$ with $|\phi| < 1$ are not generally stationary. They become more stationary over time (asymptotically stationary) and are stationary if started in the infinite past or if the initial value is drawn from specific distributions.
- MA processes of finite order are always stationary except the few starting observations for which the lags do not (fully) exist.

In other words: AR processes are stationary if they have an MA representation via the lag operator:

$$\begin{split} LX_t &= X_{t-1} \\ X_t &= \delta + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + ... \phi_p X_{t-p} + \epsilon_t \\ (1 - \phi_1 L - ... \phi_p L_p) X_t &= \delta + \epsilon_t \\ \phi(L) X_t &= \epsilon_t \end{split} \tag{5}$$

Most tests for stationarity test for the existence (and seek to reject) a unit root.

A process is said to have a unit root it the **characteristic equation** of a process has one root m (i.e. one solution when it is set to zero) equal to one.

$$\begin{aligned} X_t &= \delta + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \phi_2 X_{t-2} + \ldots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + \epsilon_t \\ 0 &= 1 - \phi_1 m - \ldots - \phi_p m^p \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

The most popular way of stationarity-related testing is testing for a unit root (i.e., trying to reject a unit root hypothesis). Take the **Dicker-Fuller Method** in its μ and τ variants.

$$X_{t} = \delta + \phi X_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t}$$
$$DF_{\mu} = \frac{\hat{\phi} - 1}{s.e.(\hat{\phi})}$$
(7)

$$\begin{split} X_t &= \delta + \gamma * t + \phi X_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \\ DF_\tau &= \frac{\hat{\phi} - 1}{s.e.(\hat{\phi})} \end{split} \tag{8}$$

The Dickey-Fuller test statistic is not standard normal distributed under the null hypothesis, critical values have to be calculated using Monte Carlo simulations.

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic generalizes the DF logic to more lags and a more complex lag structure. The test statistic is a negative number, the smaller it is, the more strongly the Null hypothesis (unit root) is rejected against one of the possible alternative hypotheses (e.g. stationarity or trend stationarity).

$$\Delta X_t = \delta + \pi X_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p c_i \Delta X_{t-i} + \epsilon_t$$
$$ADF = \frac{\hat{\pi}}{s.e.(\hat{\pi})}$$
(9)

A time trend can easily be included into the regression equation. The optimal lag length is normally found using **information criteria**.

Rather than testing for non-stationarity, the test by Kwiatkowski, Perron, Shin and Smith test for a Null hypothesis of stationarity.

Every time series can be decomposed into (1) a deterministic time trend, (2) a random walk, and (3) a stationary error term (which is usually not white noise). KPSS tests if the random walk is stationary.

1 Run $X_t = \delta + \gamma * t + \epsilon_t$ and save the residuals 2 Calculate the partial error sums for each period t: $S_t = \sum_{t=1}^t e_t$ 3 Calculate the error variance σ^2

$$KPSS = sum_{i+1}^T \frac{S_t}{\sigma^2}$$
(10)

KPSS is test weaker than ADF, and produces many Type-1 errors, i.e. rejects too often. The test statistic is not standard normal distributed. The estimation of the long-run error variance in a time series is usually performed using Kernel estimation.

Levin-Lin-Chu (2002) test for balanced Panels. The test assumes equal AR(1) ρ coefficients in the panel, but allows for individual effects, time effects, and a time trend. It is carried in a three-step procedure.

 H_0 : Each time series contains a unit root. H_A : Each time series is stationary.

1 Run the ADF regression including appropriate deterministic variables (intercept, time trend, ...) and individual lag lengths p. $\Delta y_{i,t} = \delta y_{i,t-1} + \sum_{l=1}^{p} \theta_{i,l} \Delta y_{t-l} + \alpha_{m,i} d_{m,i}$

2 Create orthogalized residuals $\hat{e}_{i,t}$ and $\hat{v}_{i,t}$

2.1
$$\hat{e}_{i,t} = \Delta y_{i,t} - \sum_{l}^{p} \hat{\theta}_{l} \Delta y_{i,t-l} - \hat{\alpha}_{m,i}$$

2.2
$$\hat{v}_{i,t-1} = y_{i,t-1} - \sum_{l}^{p} \hat{\theta}_{l} \Delta y_{i,t-l} - \hat{\alpha}_{m,i}$$

3 Normalize the errors by the regression standard error from Step 1. $\tilde{e}_{i,t} = \hat{e}_{i,t}/\sigma^2_{\epsilon,i}$, $\tilde{v}_{i,t-1} = \hat{v}_{i,t-1}/\sigma^2_{\epsilon,i}$.

4 Estimate the ratio of short-run to long-run standard deviations, using a kernel (e.g. Bartlett kernel)

5 Pool the error terms by regressing $\tilde{e}_{i,t} = \delta \tilde{v}_{i,t-1} + u_{i,t}$

6 Calculate the t statistic for δ , adjust by the ratio from step 4

The test allows for individual AR(1) coefficients. It can thus be applied to unbalanced panels, as long as there are no time gaps in the data.

 $H_0\colon$ All time series contain a unit root $H_A\colon$ Some time series do not contain a unit root