

Chapter Five

Cointegration Analysis

Tingguo Zheng (zhengtg@gmail.com)

Department of Statistics and Data Science, School of Economics, Xiamen University

(For Undergraduate Program, 2025-2026, Spring Semester)

- *Reference: “Analysis of Financial Time Series (3ed)” by Ruey S. Tsay, 2010. (Chapter 8)*
- **Outline:**
 - Cointegration
 - Cointegrated VAR Models
 - Discussion of a Simple Model
 - Specification, Estimation and Cointegration Tests

1. Cointegration

1.1 Spurious Regression

- If some or all of the variables in a regression are $I(1)$ then the usual statistical results may or may not hold.
- One important case is *spurious regression* when all the regressors are $I(1)$ and not cointegrated.

Let $\mathbf{y}_t = (y_{1t}, \dots, y_{nt})'$ denote an $(n \times 1)$ vector of $I(1)$ time series that are not cointegrated.

Write $\mathbf{y}_t = (y_{1t}, \mathbf{y}_{2t}')'$, and consider regressing of y_{1t} on $\mathbf{y}_{2t}$ giving

$$y_{1t} = \hat{\beta}_2' \mathbf{y}_{2t} + \hat{u}_t.$$

Since y_{1t} is not cointegrated with $\mathbf{y}_{2t}$,

- True value of β_2 is zero;
- The above is a spurious regression and $\hat{u}_t \sim I(1)$.

Example 1 (Spurious regression). Consider regressing y_t on the completely unrelated series x_t where

$$y_t = \alpha_y + y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t^y, \quad x_t = \alpha_x + x_{t-1} + \epsilon_t^x.$$

The OLS estimator is

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T x_t y_t}{\sum_{t=1}^T x_t^2} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0)(\alpha_y t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^y + y_0)}{\sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0)^2}$$

As T gets large, the terms in t^2 will dominate all other terms. Re-writing this as

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\frac{1}{T^3} \sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0)(\alpha_y t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^y + y_0)}{\frac{1}{T^3} \sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0)^2},$$

then all of the terms that are not of the form $\frac{1}{T^3} \sum_{t=1}^T t^2$ will go to zero.

This means that as T gets large

$$\hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{p} \frac{\alpha_x \alpha_y}{\alpha_x^2} = \frac{\alpha_y}{\alpha_x}$$

Therefore,

- The OLS estimator will tend towards the ratio of the two drift terms.
- In addition, the t statistics,

$$t\text{-ratio} = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{\widehat{\text{std}}(\beta)} = \hat{\beta} \sigma^{-1} \left(\sum_{t=1}^T x_t^2 \right)^{1/2} \rightarrow \pm \infty$$

as $T \rightarrow \infty$, will generally indicate that there is a highly statistically significant relationship.

The following results about the behavior of $\hat{\beta}_2$ in the spurious regression are due to Phillips (1986):

- $\hat{\beta}_2$ does *not converge in probability to* zero but instead *converges in distribution to* a non-normal random variable not necessarily centered at zero. This is the *spurious regression phenomenon*.
- The usual OLS t -statistics for testing that the elements of β_2 are zero *diverge to $\pm\infty$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$* . Hence, with a large enough sample it will appear that y_t is cointegrated when it is not if the usual asymptotic normal inference is used.
- The usual R^2 from the regression *converges to unity* as $T \rightarrow \infty$ so that the model will appear to fit well even though it is misspecified.

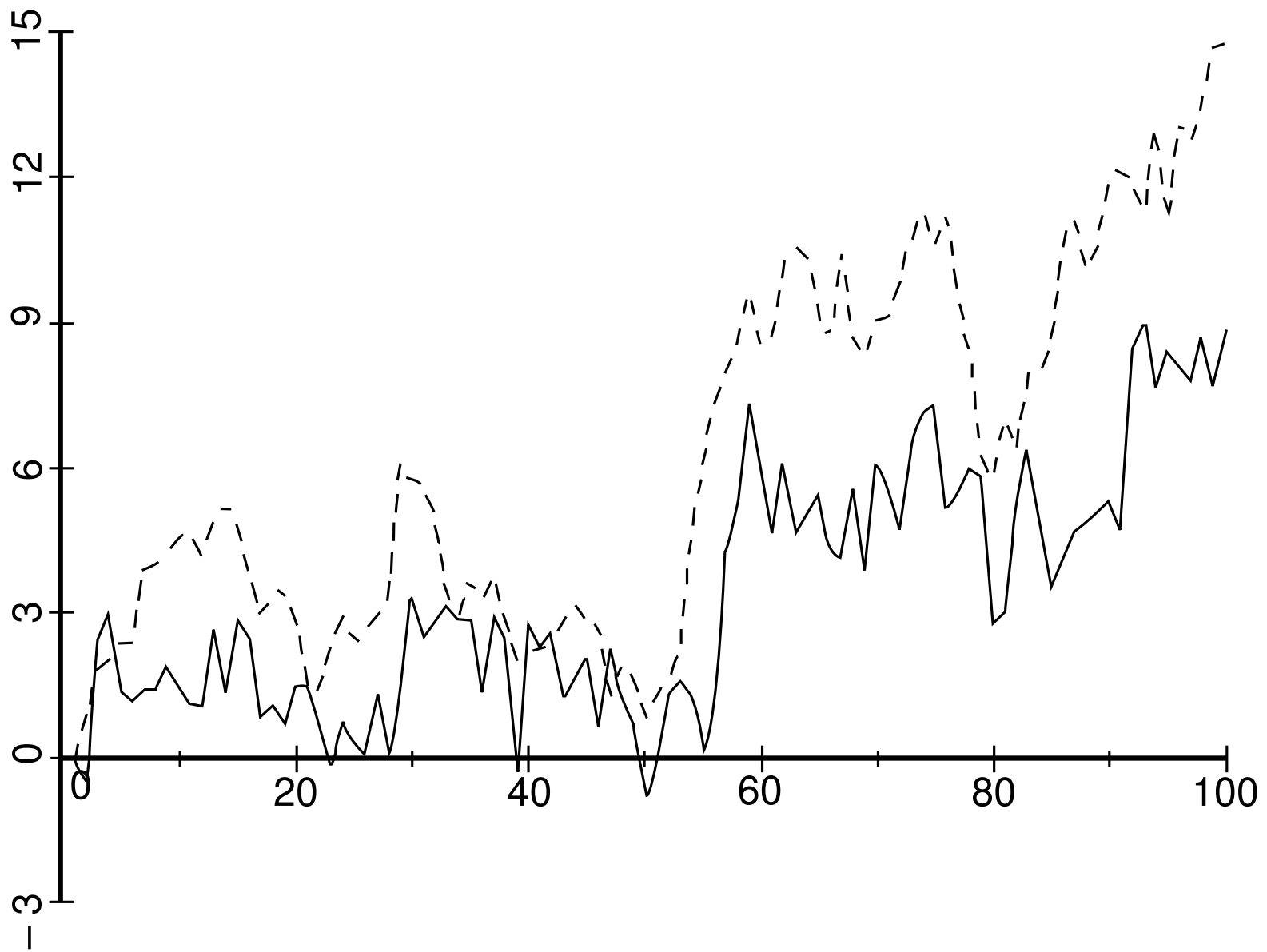
1.2 Cointegration

Definition 1. *If there exists a linear combination of the series that is of integration order lower than that of the series with higher integration order, the two series are cointegrated.*

In the bivariate example, if both x_t and y_t are $I(1)$, but there exists a β such that $y_t - \beta x_t$ is $I(0)$, then x_t and y_t are cointegrated, and $(1, -\beta)$ is the cointegrating vector.

Definition 2 (Cointegration). *More generally, the elements of the n -dimensional vector y_t are cointegrated of order (d, b) , denoted with $CI(d, b)$, if*

- *All variables in y_t are $I(d)$;*
- *There exists a vector $\beta \neq 0$ such that $\beta' y_t$ is $I(d - b)$, with $b > 0$.*



Let $\mathbf{y}_t = (y_{1t}, \dots, y_{nt})'$ denote an $(n \times 1)$ vector of $I(1)$ time series. $\mathbf{y}_t$ is cointegrated if there exists an $(n \times 1)$ vector $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)'$ such that

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{y}_t = \beta_1 y_{1t} + \dots + \beta_n y_{nt} \sim I(0).$$

In words, the nonstationary $I(1)$ time series in $\mathbf{y}_t$ are cointegrated if there is a linear combination of them that is stationary or $I(0)$.

- The linear combination $\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{y}_t$ is often motivated by economic theory and referred to as a *long-run equilibrium relationship*.
- Intuition: $I(1)$ time series with a long-run equilibrium relationship cannot drift too far apart from the equilibrium because *economic forces* will act to restore the equilibrium relationship.
That is, $w_t = \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{y}_t$ is mean-reverting.

1.3 Superconsistency

In the case of cointegration, it turns out that OLS estimates of β are *consistent*. Moreover, this property is known as *superconsistency*.

Example 2. Consider again the case where x_t is a unit root with drift

$$x_t = \alpha_x + x_{t-1} + \epsilon_t^x,$$

but in this case the variable y_t is cointegrated with x_t so that

$$y_t = \beta x_t + u_t,$$

where u_t is mean-zero $I(0)$ series.

We can calculate the properties of the OLS estimator as follows:

$$\hat{\beta} = \beta + \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T x_t u_t}{\sum_{t=1}^T x_t^2} = \beta + \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0) u_t}{\sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0)^2} \quad (1)$$

In this case, the terms in t^2 will dominate as $T \rightarrow \infty$ so that the denominator of the last term will grow faster than the numerator. This means that $\hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{p} \beta$.

Now multiply both sides of (1) by T but do this to the right hand side by dividing the numerator by T^2 and the denominator by T^3 :

$$T(\hat{\beta} - \beta) = \frac{\frac{1}{T^2} \sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0) u_t}{\frac{1}{T^3} \sum_{t=1}^T (\alpha_x t + \sum_{k=1}^t \epsilon_k^x + x_0)^2} \xrightarrow{p} 0.$$

The numerator converges to zero (the sum $\frac{1}{T^2} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_x t \rightarrow \frac{\alpha_x}{2}$ but is multiplied by an uncorrelated mean zero series u_t) while the denominator converges to $\frac{\alpha_x^2}{3}$.

We have seen cases before where $\hat{\beta} - \beta$ converges in distribution to a mean zero series when multiplied by $\sqrt{T}$. In this case, the gap between the estimator and the true value converges in probability to zero even when multiplied by T . This property is known as superconsistency.

1.4 Normalization

The cointegration vector β is not unique since for any scalar c

$$c \cdot \beta' y_t = \beta^{*'} y_t \sim I(0).$$

Hence, some *normalization assumption* is required to *uniquely* identify β . A typical normalization is

$$\beta = (1, -\beta_2, \dots, -\beta_n)'$$

so that

$$\beta' y_t = y_{1t} - \beta_2 y_{2t} - \dots - \beta_n y_{nt} \sim I(0)$$

or

$$y_{1t} = \beta_2 y_{2t} + \dots + \beta_n y_{nt} + u_t, \quad u_t \sim I(0) \text{ is the } \textit{cointegrating residual}.$$

1.5 Error correction model (ECM)

Theorem 1 (*Granger representation theorem* (Granger, 1983, Engle and Granger, 1987)). *If the variables in Y are cointegrated, then they can be represented as an ECM: And, vice versa, if Y has an ECM representation, then the variables in Y are cointegrated.*

In a simple bivariate case, consider the ADL(1,1) (*autoregressive distributed lag*) model

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_0 x_t + \beta_1 x_{t-1} + u_t$$

and its ECM representation

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha_0 + \beta_0 \Delta x_t + (\alpha_1 - 1) \left(y_{t-1} - \frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1}{1 - \alpha_1} x_{t-1} \right) + u_t,$$

where the short-run and long-run features are modelled separately.

Note also that the ECM can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta y_t &= \beta_0 \Delta x_t + (\alpha_1 - 1) \left(y_{t-1} - \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \alpha_1} - \frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1}{1 - \alpha_1} x_{t-1} \right) \\ &= \beta_0 \Delta x_t + (\alpha_1 - 1)(y_{t-1} - y_{t-1}^*) + u_t,\end{aligned}$$

expressing the change in y as a function of the change in x plus an error-correction term, where β_0 describes the short-run relationship and $(\alpha_1 - 1)$ the speed of adjustment to the equilibrium.

It should be noted that the results of above ADL(1,1) model can be extended to a general ADL(p, q) model

$$\alpha(L)y_t = c + \beta(L)x_t + u_t,$$

where $\alpha(L) = 1 - \alpha_1 L - \dots - \alpha_p L^p$ and $\beta(L) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 L + \dots + \beta_q L^q$.

1.6 Engle-Granger methodology

In the bivariate case, testing for cointegration is relatively straightforward. For the model

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta x_t + \varepsilon_t, \quad (2)$$

test for a cointegrating relationship by testing for a unit root in the residuals, and use $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$ as a (super) consistent estimator of β .

ADF-type unit root tests on the residuals are often adopted, but it requires adjusting the critical values that stationarity is “induced” by OLS in the first step.

If the null of integrated errors is rejected, so that the null of no-cointegration between y_t and x_t is rejected, $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$ is a super consistent estimator of β , i.e. $T(\hat{\beta} - \beta)$ converges to 0.

TABLE 8.2
Asymptotic critical values for cointegration tests

k^*	Test statistic [†]	1%	5%	10%
2	c	-3.90	-3.34	-3.04
	ct	-4.32	-3.78	-3.50
3	c	-4.29	-3.74	-3.45
	ct	-4.66	-4.12	-3.84
4	c	-4.64	-4.10	-3.81
	ct	-4.97	-4.43	-4.15
5	c	-4.96	-4.42	-4.13
	ct	-5.25	-4.72	-4.43
6	c	-5.25	-4.71	-4.42
	ct	-5.52	-4.98	-4.70

Reprinted by permission from Russell Davidson and James G. MacKinnon, *Estimation and Inference in Econometrics*, Oxford University Press, 1993, 722.

*The heading k indicates the number of variables in the estimated cointegrating equation.

†The letters c and ct indicate whether that equation contains a constant or a constant plus a linear time trend.

Figure 1 Engle-Granger critical Values.

Summarizing the Engle-Granger approach:

1. Use the *ADF tests* to verify that individual variables are $I(1)$.
2. Estimate the long run relationship $y_t = \alpha + \beta x_t + \varepsilon_t$ by OLS.
3. Use the ADF test on the residuals from this regression to *see if they are indeed stationary*. If so, we can assume that the variables are cointegrated; if not, then we can't make that assumption.
4. If the null is rejected, use the residuals in the ECM model to estimate the remaining parameters, e.g.: $\Delta y_t = \beta_0 \Delta x_t + \gamma \hat{\varepsilon}_{t-1} + u_t$.
(The parameters of the ECM model can be consistently estimated)

1.7 Multiple Cointegrating Relationships

Now suppose that we've established that several non-stationary variables are cointegrated.

If the $(n \times 1)$ vector $\mathbf{y}_t$ is cointegrated there may be $0 < r < n$ linearly independent cointegrating vectors. For example, let $n = 3$ and suppose there are $r = 2$ *cointegrating vectors*

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_1 = (\beta_{11}, \beta_{12}, \beta_{13})', \quad \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 = (\beta_{21}, \beta_{22}, \beta_{23})'$$

Then

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_1' \mathbf{y}_t = \beta_{11}y_{1t} + \beta_{12}y_{2t} + \beta_{13}y_{3t} \sim I(0)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_2' \mathbf{y}_t = \beta_{21}y_{1t} + \beta_{22}y_{2t} + \beta_{23}y_{3t} \sim I(0)$$

and the (3×2) matrix

$$\beta' = \begin{pmatrix} \beta'_1 \\ \beta'_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{11} & \beta_{12} & \beta_{13} \\ \beta_{21} & \beta_{22} & \beta_{23} \end{pmatrix}$$

forms a basis for the space of *cointegrating vectors*.

Remark:

- The linearly independent vectors β_1 and β_2 in the cointegrating basis β are not unique *unless* some normalization assumptions are made.
- Any linear combination of β_1 and β_2 , e.g. $\beta_3 = c_1\beta_1 + c_2\beta_2$ where c_1 and c_2 are constants, is also a cointegrating vector.

2. Cointegrated VAR Models

2.1 Vector error-correction representation

Consider a n -dimensional VAR(p) time series y_t with possible *time trend*

$$y_t = \mu_t + \Phi_1 y_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t, \quad (3)$$

where $\mu = \mu_0 + \mu_1 t$. Write $\Phi(B) = I - \Phi_1 B - \cdots - \Phi_p B^p$.

- If all roots of $|\Phi(z)| = 0$ are outside the unit circle, then y_t is *unit-root stationary*, i.e., y_t is a vector of $I(0)$ series.
- If $|\Phi(1)| = 0$, i.e., $z = 1$ is a root, then y_t is *unit-root nonstationary*.
- For simplicity, we usually assume that all variables in y_t is an $I(1)$ process.

An error-correction model (ECM) for the VAR(p) process $\mathbf{y}_t$ is

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu}_t + \boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t, \quad (4)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\Phi}_j^* &= - \sum_{i=j+1}^p \boldsymbol{\Phi}_i, \quad j = 1, \dots, p-1 \\ \boldsymbol{\Pi} &= \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta}' = -\boldsymbol{\Phi}(1) = \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{p-1} + \cdots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1 - \mathbf{I}. \end{aligned}$$

- We refer to the term $\boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{y}_{t-1}$ as the *error-correction term*.
- The matrices $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_i$ can be recovered from the ECM representation via

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}_1 = \mathbf{I} + \boldsymbol{\Pi} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1^*, \quad \boldsymbol{\Phi}_i = \boldsymbol{\Phi}_i^* - \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{i-1}^*, \quad i = 2, \dots, p,$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_p^* = \mathbf{0}$, the zero matrix.

Advantages over VAR

Again

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu}_t + \boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t, \quad (4)$$

- Combines levels and differences.
- Gives more intuitive explanation of data, as effects categorised into long-run and short-run.
- All long-run information confined to $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ matrix, so can focus on that.
- $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_j^*$ matrices capture short-run dynamics of the data.

The rank of Π

Again

$$\Pi = \alpha\beta' = -\Phi(1) = \Phi_p + \Phi_{p-1} + \cdots + \Phi_1 - I.$$

If y_t contains unit roots ($z = 1$), then $|\Phi(1)| = 0$ so that $\Pi = -\Phi(1)$ is singular.

Therefore, three cases are of interest in considering the ECM:

1. $\text{Rank}(\Pi) = 0$ (*Difference Stationary*).

This implies $\Phi(1) = 0$ and y_t is not cointegrated. The ECM of Eq. (4) reduces to

$$\Delta y_t = \mu_t + \Phi_1^* \Delta y_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_p^* \Delta y_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t,$$

so that Δy_t follows a $\text{VAR}(p-1)$ model with deterministic trend μ_t .

2. $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = n$ (full rank) (*Stationary*).

This implies that $|\Phi(1)| \neq 0$ and $\mathbf{y}_t$ contains no unit roots; that is, $\mathbf{y}_t$ is $I(0)$. The ECM model is not informative and one studies $\mathbf{y}_t$ directly.

3. $0 < \text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m < n$ (*Cointegration*). In this case, one can write $\mathbf{\Pi}$ as

$$\mathbf{\Pi} = \alpha\beta', \quad (5)$$

where α and β are $n \times m$ matrices with $\text{Rank}(\alpha) = \text{Rank}(\beta) = m$. The ECM of Eq. (4) becomes

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \mu_t + \alpha\beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \Phi_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_p^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t. \quad (6)$$

This means that $\mathbf{y}_t$ is cointegrated with m linearly independent cointegrating vectors, $\mathbf{w}_t = \beta' \mathbf{y}_t \sim I(0)$, and has $n - m$ unit roots that give $n - m$ *common stochastic trends* of $\mathbf{y}_t$.

Common stochastic trends - cointegrated with $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m$

- A simple way to obtain a presentation of the $n - m$ common trends is to obtain an *orthogonal complement matrix* $\alpha_{\perp}$ of α ; that is, $\alpha_{\perp}$ is a $n \times (n - m)$ matrix such that $\alpha'_{\perp} \alpha = \mathbf{0}$, and use

$$c_t = \alpha'_{\perp} y_t.$$

- *Premultiply* the ECM by $\alpha'_{\perp}$ and use $\mathbf{\Pi} = \alpha\beta'$, we see that there would be *no error-correction term* in the resulting equation, that is,

$$\alpha'_{\perp} \Delta y_t = \alpha'_{\perp} \mu_t + \alpha'_{\perp} \Phi_1^* \Delta y_{t-1} + \cdots + \alpha'_{\perp} \Phi_p^* \Delta y_{t-p+1} + \alpha'_{\perp} \varepsilon_t.$$

- Consequently, the $(n - m)$ -dimensional series c_t should have $n - m$ unit roots. (Recall that $\Delta y_t = \eta_t = \phi^{-1}(L)\varepsilon_t$)

Normalization and constraints

The factorization $\Pi = \alpha\beta'$ is not unique, because for any $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix Ω satisfying $\Omega\Omega' = I$, we have

$$\alpha\beta' = \alpha\Omega\Omega'\beta' = (\alpha\Omega)(\beta\Omega)' \equiv \alpha_*\beta'_*.$$

Additional constraints are needed to uniquely identify α and β .

- It is common to require that $\beta' = [I_m, \beta'_1]$, where I_m is the $m \times m$ identity matrix and β_1 is a $(n - m) \times m$ matrix.
- In practice, this may require reordering of the elements of $\mathbf{y}_t$ such that the first m components all have a unit root.
- The elements of α and β must also satisfy [other constraints](#) for the process $w_t = \beta'\mathbf{y}_t$ to be unit-root stationary.

Example 3. Consider the case of a bivariate VAR(1) model with one cointegrating vector. Here $n = 2$, $m = 1$, and the ECM is

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu}_t + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t.$$

Premultiplying the prior equation by $\boldsymbol{\beta}' = [1 \quad \beta_1]$, using $w_{t-i} = \boldsymbol{\beta}' \mathbf{y}_{t-i}$, and moving w_{t-1} to the right-hand side of the equation, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\beta}'(\mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{y}_{t-1}) &= w_t - w_{t-1} = \boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\mu}_t + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2\beta_1)w_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \\ \implies w_t &= \boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\mu}_t + (1 + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2\beta_1)w_{t-1} + \eta_t, \end{aligned}$$

where $\eta_t = \boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$. This implies that w_t is a stationary AR(1) process. Consequently, α_i and β_1 must satisfy **the stationarity constraint** $|1 + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2\beta_1| < 1$.

3. Discussion of a Simple Model

3.1 Granger representation or MA representation

Consider a cointegrated VAR model with no lagged differences:

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \alpha \beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t. \quad (7)$$

- **Stationary representation:** Multiplying β' from the left to model (7), we obtain

$$\beta' \Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \beta' \alpha \beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \beta' \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

$$\beta' \mathbf{y}_t = (\mathbf{I} + \beta' \alpha) \beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \beta' \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

$$\beta' \mathbf{y}_t = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{I} + \beta' \alpha)^i \beta' \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t-i}$$

$\beta' \mathbf{y}_t \sim I(0)$, if eigenvalues of $(\mathbf{I} + \beta' \alpha)$ within unit circle.

- **Random walk representation:** Multiplying $\alpha'_{\perp}$ from the left to model (7),

$$\alpha'_{\perp} \Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \alpha'_{\perp} \alpha \beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \alpha'_{\perp} \varepsilon_t = \alpha'_{\perp} \varepsilon_t$$

$$\alpha'_{\perp} \mathbf{y}_t = \alpha'_{\perp} \sum_{i=0}^t \varepsilon_i + \alpha'_{\perp} \mathbf{y}_0.$$

- **Granger representation:** Combine two representations mentioned before, use

$$I = \beta_{\perp} (\alpha'_{\perp} \beta_{\perp})^{-1} \alpha'_{\perp} + \alpha (\beta' \alpha)^{-1} \beta',$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_t &= \beta_{\perp} (\alpha'_{\perp} \beta_{\perp})^{-1} \alpha'_{\perp} \mathbf{y}_t + \alpha (\beta' \alpha)^{-1} \beta' \mathbf{y}_t \\ &= \beta_{\perp} (\alpha'_{\perp} \beta_{\perp})^{-1} \left(\alpha'_{\perp} \sum_{i=0}^t \varepsilon_i + \alpha'_{\perp} \mathbf{y}_0 \right) + \alpha (\beta' \alpha)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (I + \beta' \alpha)^i \beta' \varepsilon_{t-i} \right) \\ &= C \sum_{i=0}^t \varepsilon_i + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i^* \varepsilon_{t-i} + A \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{y}_t = C \sum_{i=0}^t \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i^* \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t-i} + A$$

where $C = \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\perp}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_{\perp}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\perp})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_{\perp}$, $C_i^* = \boldsymbol{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\alpha})^{-1}(\mathbf{I} + \boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\alpha})^i\boldsymbol{\beta}'$, and A is initial values.

- This formula is called as *Granger representation* (Johansen, 1995), or *moving average representation* for cointegrated VAR.
- The cointegrated VAR can be split into *random walk component* ($C \sum_{i=0}^t \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$), a *stationary component* ($\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i^* \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t-i}$), and initial values, A .
- So shocks to system can have both permanent effect and a transitory effect.
- Random walk parts, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_{\perp}\mathbf{y}_t$, are stochastic/common trends.
- Stationary parts, $\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{y}_t$, are cointegrating relations.

Impulse response function

The Granger representation enables the impulse response analysis

$$\Psi_h = \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}_{t+h}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t} = C + C_h^*$$

- The impulse response function tend to C , i.e. $\Psi_h \rightarrow C$, as the coefficient $C_i^* \rightarrow 0$ is on the stationary component.
- Hence permanent and transitory effect of impulse to the system, corresponding to the random walk and stationary parts of the process.

3.2 Deterministic Terms

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \alpha \beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \underline{\mu_0} + \varepsilon_t \quad (8)$$

- Granger representation:

$$\mathbf{y}_t = C \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^t (\varepsilon_i + \mu_0)}_{\text{Trend}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i^* (\varepsilon_{t-i} + \mu_0)}_{\text{Constant}} + A$$

and further

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = C(\varepsilon_t + \mu_0) + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i^* \Delta \varepsilon_{t-i}$$

Then the equilibrium growth rate

$$E(\Delta \mathbf{y}_t) = C \mu_0 = \gamma_0.$$

- Stationary representation: We can also transform Eq (8) into

$$\mathbf{y}_t = (\mathbf{I} + \alpha\beta')\mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

$$\beta'\mathbf{y}_t = (\mathbf{I} + \beta'\alpha)\beta'\mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \beta'\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 + \beta'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

$$\beta'\mathbf{y}_t = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{I} + \beta'\alpha)^i \beta'(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)$$

Taking expectations:

$$E(\beta'\mathbf{y}_t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{I} + \beta'\alpha)^i \beta'\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = -(\beta'\alpha)^{-1}\beta'\boldsymbol{\mu}_0$$

$$\text{We write } (\beta'\alpha)^{-1}\beta'\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = \boldsymbol{\beta}_0.$$

This is expression for *equilibrium mean* in the cointegrated VAR model.

- Consider the following identity again

$$\mathbf{I} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\perp}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_{\perp}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\perp})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_{\perp} + \boldsymbol{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\alpha})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\beta}'$$

and apply to $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0$, we get

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\alpha})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\beta}'\boldsymbol{\mu}_0}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\beta}_0} + \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\beta}'_{\perp}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_{\perp}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\perp})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_{\perp}\boldsymbol{\mu}_0}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}_0} = \boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \boldsymbol{\gamma}_0.$$

Using this result, we can rewrite the cointegrated VAR

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 + \boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

as follows:

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t - \boldsymbol{\gamma}_0 = \boldsymbol{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_0) + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t.$$

4 Estimation and Cointegration Tests

4.1 Specification of the Deterministic Function

Consider the following VECM

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu}_t + \alpha \boldsymbol{\beta}' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t. \quad (6)$$

1. No deterministics: $\boldsymbol{\mu}_t = 0$ (i.e. $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = 0$):

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \alpha \boldsymbol{\beta}' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t.$$

In this case, all the component series of $\mathbf{y}_t$ are $I(1)$ without drift (*no growth in data*) and the stationary series $w_t = \boldsymbol{\beta}' \mathbf{y}_t$ has mean zero (*equilibrium term has zero mean*). (Almostly impossible!)

2. Restricted constant: $\mu_t = \mu_0 = \alpha\beta_0$, where $\beta_0 = (\beta'\alpha)^{-1}\beta'\mu_0$ is an m -dimensional nonzero constant vector. This implies that $\alpha'_\perp\mu_0 = 0$.

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha(\beta'y_{t-1} + \beta_0) + \Phi_1^*\Delta y_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_{p-1}^*\Delta y_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t$$

so that the components of y_t are $I(1)$ without drift, but w_t have a nonzero mean $-\beta_0$. (Sometimes useful!)

3. Unrestricted constant: $\mu_t = \mu_0$, which is nonzero. Constant can appear in both long-run and short-run, and the ECM becomes

$$\Delta y_t = \gamma_0 + \alpha(\beta'y_{t-1} + \beta_0) + \Phi_1^*\Delta y_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_{p-1}^*\Delta y_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t$$

where $\gamma_0 = \beta_\perp(\alpha'_\perp\beta_\perp)^{-1}\alpha'_\perp\mu_0$. Here the component series of y_t are $I(1)$ with drift μ_0 (allowing for trends in the data series) and w_t may have a nonzero mean. (Useful!)

4. Restricted trend and unrestricted constant: $\mu_t = \mu_0 + \alpha\beta_1 t$, where β_1 is a nonzero vector. Get constant in data and trend in cointegrating relations, the ECM becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta \mathbf{y}_t &= \mu_0 + \mu_1 t + \alpha \beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \Phi_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_{p-1}^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t \\ &= \gamma_0 + \alpha(\beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \beta_0 + \beta_1 t) + \Phi_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_{p-1}^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

so that the components of $\mathbf{y}_t$ are $I(1)$ with drift μ_0 and w_t has a linear time trend related to $\beta_1 t$. (Useful!)

5. Unrestricted constant and trend: $\mu_t = \mu_0 + \mu_1 t$, where μ_0 and μ_1 are nonzero. In this case, the ECM becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = & \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 t + \alpha(\beta' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \beta_0 + \beta_1 t) \\ & + \Phi_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \Phi_{p-1}^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

where $\gamma_1 = \beta_{\perp}(\alpha'_{\perp} \beta_{\perp})^{-1} \alpha'_{\perp} \mu_1$ and $\beta_1 = (\beta' \alpha)^{-1} \beta' \mu_1$.

The components of $\mathbf{y}_t$ are $I(1)$ and have a quadratic time trend and w_t have a linear trend. (Almostly impossible!)

4.2 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Suppose that the data are $\{\mathbf{y}_t, t = 1, \dots, T\}$.

We write $\boldsymbol{\mu}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{d}_t$, where $\mathbf{d}_t = [1, t]'$, and it is understood that $\boldsymbol{\mu}_t$ depends on the previous specification of the previous subsection.

For a given m , which is the rank of $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$, the ECM model becomes

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{d}_t + \alpha \boldsymbol{\beta}' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{p-1}^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t, \quad (9)$$

where $t = p + 1, \dots, T$.

Note that there are so many parameters and α and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ are not identifiable.

A key step in the estimation is to *concentrate the likelihood function with respect to the deterministic term and the stationary effects*.

Consider the following two multivariate linear regressions:

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \gamma_0 \mathbf{d}_t + \mathbf{\Omega}_1 \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \mathbf{\Omega}_{p-1} \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \mathbf{u}_t, \quad (10)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{t-1} = \gamma_1 \mathbf{d}_t + \mathbf{\Xi}_1 \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \cdots + \mathbf{\Xi}_{p-1} \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \mathbf{v}_t. \quad (11)$$

Let $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_t$ and $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_t$ be the residuals of Eqs. (10) and (11), respectively. Then,

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}_t = \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta}' \hat{\mathbf{v}}_t + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

and the *concentrated log-likelihood* is

$$L(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = C - \frac{T-p}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|$$

Assume that β is known, then

$$\hat{\alpha}(\beta) = S_{01}\beta(\beta'S_{11}\beta)^{-1}, \quad \hat{\Sigma}(\beta) = S_{00} - S_{01}\beta(\beta'S_{11}\beta)^{-1}\beta'S_{10}$$

where $S_{00} = \frac{1}{T-p} \sum_{t=p+1}^T \hat{u}_t \hat{u}_t'$, $S_{01} = \frac{1}{T-p} \sum_{t=p+1}^T \hat{u}_t \hat{v}_t'$, $S_{11} = \frac{1}{T-p} \sum_{t=p+1}^T \hat{v}_t \hat{v}_t'$.

The maximization of $L(\alpha, \beta)$ is now equivalent to the minimization of

$$|\hat{\Sigma}(\beta)| = |S_{00} - S_{01}\beta(\beta'S_{11}\beta)^{-1}\beta'S_{10}| = \frac{|S_{00}| |\beta'(S_{11} - S_{10}S_{00}^{-1}S_{01})\beta|}{|\beta'S_{11}\beta|}.$$

Here, we use the following result:

$$\begin{vmatrix} A & B \\ B' & C \end{vmatrix} = |A| \cdot |C - B'A^{-1}B| = |C| \cdot |A - BC^{-1}B'|,$$

where A and C are non-singular square matrices.

Next, compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $S_{10}S_{00}^{-1}S_{01}$ with respect to S_{11} (under the restriction $\beta'S_{11}\beta = I_m$). This amounts to solving the eigenvalue problem

$$|\lambda S_{11} - S_{10}S_{00}^{-1}S_{01}| = 0.$$

Denote the eigenvalue and eigenvector pairs by $(\hat{\lambda}_i, e_i)$, where $\hat{\lambda}_1 > \hat{\lambda}_2 > \dots > \hat{\lambda}_n$ and $e = [e_1, \dots, e_n]$ is the matrix of eigenvectors.

The **unnormalized maximum likelihood estimate (MLE)** of the **cointegrating vector** β is $\hat{\beta} = [e_1, \dots, e_m]$, from which we can obtain a MLE for β that satisfies the identifying constraint and normalization condition. Here, we also have the following result

$$\beta'S_{10}S_{00}^{-1}S_{01}\beta = \text{diag}(\hat{\lambda}_1, \hat{\lambda}_2, \dots, \hat{\lambda}_m).$$

We can now express the determinant of the residual covariance matrix as:

$$|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})| = |S_{00}| |\mathbf{I} - \text{diag}(\hat{\lambda}_1, \hat{\lambda}_2, \dots, \hat{\lambda}_m)| = |S_{00}| \prod_{i=1}^m (1 - \lambda_i).$$

Denote the resulting estimate by $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_c$ with the subscript c signifying constraints. The MLE of other parameters can then be obtained by the multivariate linear regression

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_t = \mu d_t + \alpha \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_c' \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \dots + \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{p-1}^* \Delta \mathbf{y}_{t-p+1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t.$$

Under Gaussian innovations and the model is true, the estimates of the $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_j^*$ matrices are asymptotically normal and efficient.

The maximized value of the likelihood function based on m cointegrating vectors is

$$\ell_{\max}^{-2/(T-p)} \propto |\mathbf{S}_{00}| \prod_{i=1}^m (1 - \hat{\lambda}_i).$$

This value is used in the maximum likelihood ratio test for testing $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m$.

4.3 Johansen Cointegration Test

For a specified deterministic term μ_t , we now discuss the maximum likelihood test for testing the rank of the Π matrix in Eq. (4).

Let us consider

$$\ell_{\max} \propto \left[|\mathbf{S}_{00}| \prod_{i=1}^m (1 - \hat{\lambda}_i) \right]^{-(T-p)/2}.$$

This likelihood function implies that

- $\hat{\lambda}_{m+1} = \hat{\lambda}_{m+2} = \cdots = \hat{\lambda}_n = 0$;
- Testing $\text{Rank}(\Pi) = m$ is equivalent to test $\hat{\lambda}_{m+1} = \cdots = \hat{\lambda}_n = 0$;

Let $H(m)$ be the null hypothesis that the rank of $\mathbf{\Pi}$ is m , i.e., $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m$. The hypotheses of interest are

$$H(0) \subset \cdots \subset H(m) \subset \cdots \subset H(n).$$

where

- $H(0)$: $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = 0$ or all $\hat{\lambda}_i = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, so that $\mathbf{\Pi} = 0$ and there is no cointegration;
- $H(m)$: $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m$ or $\hat{\lambda}_{m+1} = \cdots = \hat{\lambda}_n = 0$, i.e. $n - m$ unit roots, m cointegration relations; $\mathbf{y}_t$ is non-stationary;
- $H(n)$: $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = n$ or $\hat{\lambda}_1 \geq \hat{\lambda}_2 \geq \cdots \geq \hat{\lambda}_n \neq 0$, i.e. no unit roots; $\mathbf{y}_t$ is stationary.

Trace test statistic

$$H_0 : \underbrace{\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m}_{\text{at most } m \rightarrow H(m)}, \quad \text{versus} \quad H_a : \underbrace{\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) > m}_{H(m+1) \cup \dots \cup H(n) = H(n)}.$$

Johansen (1988) proposes the likelihood ratio (LR) statistic

$$\begin{aligned} LR_{\text{tr}} &= -2 \ln Q(H_m/H_n) = -2 \ln[\ell_{\max}(m)/\ell_{\max}(n)] \\ &= (T - p) \ln \left\{ \frac{|\mathbf{S}_{00}|(1 - \hat{\lambda}_1)(1 - \hat{\lambda}_2) \cdots (1 - \hat{\lambda}_m)}{|\mathbf{S}_{00}|(1 - \hat{\lambda}_1)(1 - \hat{\lambda}_2) \cdots (1 - \hat{\lambda}_m) \cdots (1 - \hat{\lambda}_n)} \right\} \\ &= -(T - p) \sum_{i=m+1}^n \ln(1 - \hat{\lambda}_i). \end{aligned}$$

If $\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m$, then $\hat{\lambda}_i$ should be small for $i > m$ and hence $LR_{\text{tr}}(m)$ should be small. This is referred to as **the trace statistic**.

Due to the presence of unit roots, the asymptotic distribution of $LR_{tr}(m)$ is not chi-squared, but a function of standard Brownian motions. Thus, critical values of $LR_{tr}(m)$ must be obtained via simulation.

Maximum eigenvalue test statistic

Johansen (1988) also considers a sequential procedure to determine the number of cointegrating vectors. Specifically,

$$H_0 : \underbrace{\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m}_{H(m)} \quad \text{versus} \quad H_a : \underbrace{\text{Rank}(\mathbf{\Pi}) = m + 1}_{H(m+1)}.$$

The LR test statistic, called **the maximum eigenvalue statistic**, is

$$\begin{aligned} LR_{\max}(m) &= -2 \ln Q(H_m/H_{m+1}) = -2 \ln[\ell_{\max}(m)/\ell_{\max}(m+1)] \\ &= (T-p) \ln \left\{ \frac{|\mathbf{S}_{00}|(1-\hat{\lambda}_1)(1-\hat{\lambda}_2)\cdots(1-\hat{\lambda}_m)}{|\mathbf{S}_{00}|(1-\hat{\lambda}_1)(1-\hat{\lambda}_2)\cdots(1-\hat{\lambda}_m)(1-\hat{\lambda}_{m+1})} \right\} \\ &= -(T-p) \ln(1-\hat{\lambda}_{m+1}). \end{aligned}$$

Again, critical values of the maximum eigenvalue statistic $LR_{\max}(m)$ are nonstandard and must be evaluated via simulation.