

## 13.1 Difference Equations: Definitions

• We start with a time series  $\{y_n\} = \{y_1, y_2, y_3, ..., y_{n-1}, y_n\}$ 

• Difference Equation – Procedure for calculating a term  $(y_n)$  from the preceding terms:  $y_{n-1}, y_{n-2}, \dots$  A starting value,  $y_0$ , is given. **Example**:  $y_n = f(y_{n-1}, y_{n-2}, \dots, y_{n-k})$ , given  $y_0$ .

• If f(.) is linear, we have a *linear* difference equation. Our focus.

- The number of preceding terms of y determines the *order*:
- First-Order Linear Difference Equation Form:

 $y_n = a y_{n-1} + b$  (*a*, *b*: constants)

- Similarly, an k<sup>th</sup>-Order Linear Difference equation:

 $y_n = a_{n-1} y_{n-1} + a_{n-2} y_{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-k} y_{n-k} + b$ (a\_{n-1}, a\_{n-2}, ..., b: constants)

#### 13.1 Difference Equations: Famous Example

• Originated in India. It has been attributed to Indian writer Pingala (200 BC). In the West, Leonardo of Pisa (Fibonacci) studied it in 1202.

• Fibonacci studied the (unrealistic) growth of a rabbit population.

• Fibonacci numbers: 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ... (each number represents an additional pair of rabbits.

• This series can be represented as a linear difference equation.

• Let f(n) be the rabbit population at the end of month n. Then,

$$f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2)$$
, with initial values  $f(0) = 0$ ,  
 $f(1) = 1$ .

13.1 Difference Equations: Example 1

• The number of rabbits on a farm increases by 8% per year in addition to the removal of 4 rabbits per year for adoption. The farm starts out with 35 rabbits.

Let  $y_n$  be the population after n years. We can write the difference equation:



# 13.1 Difference Equations: Example 1 – A Few Terms

• Generate the first few terms - This gives us a feeling for how successive terms are generated.

• Graph the terms - Plot the points  $(0, y_0)$ ,  $(1, y_1)$ ,  $(2, y_2)$ , etc.

**Example**:  $y_n = 1.08 \ y_{n-1} - 4$ , with  $y_0 = 35$ 

a. Generate  $y_0$ ,  $y_1$ ,  $y_2$ ,  $y_3$ ,  $y_4$ , ...  $y_0 = 35$   $y_1 = 1.08(35) - 4 = 37.8 - 4 = 33.8$   $y_2 = 1.08(33.8) - 4 = 36.50 - 4 = 32.50$   $y_3 = 1.08(32.50) - 4 = 35.1 - 4 = 31.1$   $y_4 = 1.08(31.1) - 4 = 33.59 - 4 = 29.59$  $y_5 = 1.08(29.59) - 4 = 31.96 - 4 = 27.96$ 







#### 13.1 Difference Equations: Example 3 (in R)

• In economics we think of data as realizations of random variables. We modify Example 2 by introducing a random error term,  $\varepsilon$ . That is, in time series terminology, we have an autoregressive model, an AR(1):

$$y_n = 0.5 y_{n-1} - 1 + \varepsilon_n, \qquad \varepsilon_n \sim N(0, 1)$$

• We generate the first 10 terms and graph them:



#### 13.1 Difference Equations: More Examples

**Example**: The population of a country is currently 70 million, but is declining at the rate of 1% per year. Let  $y_n$  be the population after n years. Difference equation showing how to compute  $y_n$  from  $y_{n-1}$ :

 $y_n = .99 y_{n-1}$ , with  $y_0 = 70,000,000$  (initial value)

**Example**: We borrow \$150,000 at 6% APR compounded monthly for 30 years to purchase a home. The monthly payment is determined to be \$899.33. The difference equation for the loan balance  $(y_n)$  after each monthly payment has been made:

$$y_n = 1.005 \ y_{n-1} - 899.33$$
, with  $y_0 = 150,000$ 

## **13.1 Difference Equations: The Steady State** • The *steady state* or *long-run* value represents an equilibrium, where there is no more change in $y_n$ . We call this value $y_\infty$ : $y_n = ay_{n-1} + b \implies y_\infty = \frac{b}{1-a}; a \neq 1.$ • **Example 1**: $y_n = 1.08 y_{n-1} - 4$ , $\Rightarrow y_\infty = b/(1-a) = -4/(1-1.08) = 50$ Check: $y_n = 1.08 (50) - 4 = 50$ • **Example 2**: $y_n = 0.5 y_{n-1} - 1$ , $\Rightarrow y_\infty = b/(1-a) = -1/(1-0.5) = -2$ Check: $y_n = 0.5 (-2) - 1 = -2$

## 13.2 Solving Difference Eq's - Repeated Iteration

- We want to generate a formula from which we can directly calculate *any* term without first having to calculate all the terms preceding it.
- Repeated Iteration Method (*Backward* Solution):

$$y_{n} = ay_{n-1} + b = a(ay_{n-2} + b) + b = a^{2}y_{n-2} + ab + b =$$
  
=  $a^{2}(ay_{n-3} + b) + ab + b = a^{3}y_{n-3} + a^{2}b + ab + b =$   
=  $a^{n}y_{0} + a^{n-1}b + a^{n-2}b + \dots + ab + b$   
=  $a^{n}y_{0} + \left(\frac{1-a^{n}}{1-a}\right)b; \quad a \neq 1$ 

**13.2 Solving Difference Eq's – Repeated Iteration** • Solution:  $y_n = a^n y_0 + \left(\frac{1-a^n}{1-a}\right)b;$   $a \neq 1$ or  $y_n = a^n y_0 + (1-a^n)y_\infty.$ • The steady state is:  $y_\infty = \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} a^n y_0 + \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{1-a^n}{1-a}\right)b$ • We have 3 cases: a) If  $|a| < 1 \implies y_\infty = b/(1-a) = \text{finite}; y_n \text{ converges}$ b) If  $|a| > 1 \implies y_\infty$  indefinite;  $y_n$  diverges c) If  $|a| = 1 \implies y_\infty$  indefinite;  $y_n$  diverges





13.2 Solving Difference Eq's – General Solution  
• Step 3) General Solution: 
$$y_n = Aa^n + y_\infty = Aa^n + \frac{b}{1-a}$$
  
• We can determine A, if we have some values for  $y_t$ . Say  $y_0$ .  
 $y_0 = Aa^0 + y_\infty = A + \frac{b}{1-a} \implies A = y_0 - y_\infty = y_0 - \frac{b}{1-a}$   
• We replace A in the general solution to get a *definite solution*, with no unknown values:  
 $y_n = (y_0 - \frac{b}{1-a})a^n + \frac{b}{1-a}$  (*definite* solution)  
which is just the backward solution!  
 $y_n = (y_0 - \frac{b}{1-a})a^n + \frac{b}{1-a} = a^n y_0 + (1-a^n)y_\infty$ 





### **13.2 Simple Financial Difference Equations**

• Simple Interest:	$y_n = y_{n-1} + (y_0 i)$
Compound Interest:	$y_n = (1 + i) y_{n-1}$
Increasing Annuities:	$y_n = (1 + i) y_{n-1} + b (PMT)$
Decreasing Annuities:	$y_n = (1 + i) y_{n-1} - b (PMT)$
• Loans:	$y_n = (1 + i) y_{n-1} - b (PMT)$
Compound Interest Solution	on: $y_n = y_0 (1 + i)^n$
This equation is the same	as $FV = PV * (1 + i)^n$

#### 13.3 Graphing Difference Eq's: Definitions

- Vertical Direction The up-and-down motion of successive terms.
  - *Monotonic*: The graph heads in one direction (up-increasing, down-decreasing)
  - Oscillating: The graph changes direction with every term.
  - Constant: The graph always remains at the same height.

19







## 13.3 Graphing Difference Eq's: Definitions 2

- Long-run Behavior The eventual behavior of the graph.
  - Attracted or Stable: The graph approaches a horizontal line (asymptotic or attracted to the line).
  - Repelled or Unstable: The graph goes infinitely high or infinitely low (unbounded or repelled from the line).
- In general, we say a system is *stable* if its long-run behavior is not sensitive to the initial conditions. Some "unstable" system maybe "stable" by chance: when y<sub>0</sub>=y<sub>∞</sub>.



## **Summary:** • |a| > 1 unstable or unbounded –repelled from line [b/(1-a)]• |a| < 1 stable or bounded –attracted or convergent to [b/(1-a)]• a < 0 oscillatory • a > 0 monotonic • a = 1, b = 0 constant • a = 1, b > 0 constant increasing • a = 1, b < 0 constant decreasing Mote: All of this can be deduced from the solution: $y_n = (y_0 - \frac{b}{1-a})a^n + \frac{b}{1-a}$











### 13.3 Difference Equations: Application 2

• Half-life PPP

Half-life: how long it takes for the initial deviation from  $y_0$  and  $y_\infty$  to be cut in half.

b

- $r_t$ : real exchange rate (=  $S_t P_d / P_f$ )
- $\mathbf{r}_t$  follows an AR(1) process:  $\mathbf{r}_t = a \mathbf{r}_{t-1} + b$ -  $\mathbf{r}_H = (\mathbf{r}_0 + \mathbf{r}_\infty)/2$ • Recall solution to  $\mathbf{r}$ :  $\mathbf{r}_t = a^t \mathbf{r}_t + (1 - a^t)\mathbf{r}_t$ :  $\mathbf{r}_t = a^t \mathbf{r}_t$

• Recall solution to 
$$\mathbf{r}_{t}$$
:  $r_{t} = a^{T}r_{0} + (1 - a^{T})r_{\infty}$ ;  $r_{\infty} = \frac{1}{1 - a}$ ;  $a \neq 1$   
 $\mathbf{r}_{H} = a^{H}\mathbf{r}_{0} + (1 - a^{H})\mathbf{r}_{\infty} \implies (\mathbf{r}_{0} + \mathbf{r}_{\infty})/2 = a^{H}\mathbf{r}_{0} + (1 - a^{H})\mathbf{r}_{\infty} \implies (1 - 2a^{H})\mathbf{r}_{0} = (1 - 2a^{H})\mathbf{r}_{\infty} \implies 1 - 2a^{H} = 0 \qquad 1 = 2a^{H} \implies H = -\ln(2)/\ln(a)$   
• Interesting cases: If  $a = 0.9 \implies H = -\ln(2)/\ln(0.9) = 6.5763$   
If  $a = 0.95 \implies H = -\ln(2)/\ln(0.95) = 13.5135$   
If  $a = 0.99 \implies H = -\ln(2)/\ln(0.95) = 68.9675 \qquad ^{32}$ 

#### 13.4 2nd-Order Difference Equations: Example

- We want a general solution to  $y_n = a_1 y_{n-1} + a_2 y_{n-2} + c$
- Steps:
  - 1) Guess a solution to the homogenous equation (c=0)
  - 2) Get a particular solution, for example  $y_{\infty}$
  - 3) General solution: Add both solutions
- To get a definite solution –i.e., with no unknowns-, we need initial values.

#### 13.4 2nd-Order Difference Equations: Example

- Step 1: Homogenous equation:  $y_n = a_1 y_{n-1} + a_2 y_{n-2}$ Guess a solution:  $y_n = k^n$ 
  - Check the guessed solution:  $k^n = a_1 k^{n-1} + a_2 k^{n-2}$   $\Rightarrow (k^2 - a_1 k^1 - a_2) k^{n-2} = 0$  (quadratic equation)  $k_1, k_2 = \frac{1}{2} (a_1 \pm [a_1^2 + 4 a_2]^{1/2})$
  - 3 cases:  $a_1^2 + 4 a_2 > 0 \implies k_1, k_2$  are real and distinct.  $a_1^2 + 4 a_2 = 0 \implies k_1 = k_2$  real and repeated.  $a_1^2 + 4 a_2 < 0 \implies k_1, k_2$  are complex and distinct.

<u>Note</u>: Similar to the 1<sup>st</sup>-order case, the stability of the equation depends on the roots,  $k_1 \& k_2$ .

#### 13.4 2nd-Order Difference Equations: Example

• Case 1: If  $a_1^2 + 4 a_2 > 0 \implies k_1, k_2$  are real and distinct. The general solution of the homogeneous equation is:  $A k_1^t + B k_2^t$ , where  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are the two roots.

<u>Stability</u>: If  $|k_1| > 1$  or  $|k_2| > 1$ , the equation is divergent.

• Case 2: If  $a_1^2 + 4 a_2 = 0 \implies k_1 = k_2$  real and repeated. The general solution of the homogeneous equation is  $(A + Bt) k^t$ , where  $k = -(1/2) a_1$  is the root.

<u>Stability</u>: If |k| > 1.

#### 13.4 2nd-Order Difference Equations: Example

35

Case 3: If a<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> + 4 a<sub>2</sub> < 0 ⇒ k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub> are complex and distinct. The general solution of the homogeneous equation is Ar<sup>t</sup> cos(θt + ω), where A and ω are constants, r = √-a<sub>2</sub>, and cos θ = -a<sub>1</sub>/(2√-a<sub>2</sub>), Alternatively: C<sub>1</sub>r<sup>t</sup> cos(θt) + C<sub>2</sub>r<sup>t</sup> sin(θt), where C<sub>1</sub> = A cos ω C<sub>2</sub> = -A sin ω (using the formula that cos(x + y) = (cos x)(cos y) - (sin x)(sin y). <u>Stability</u>: If |r|>1, the equation is divergent.

#### 13.4 2nd-Order Difference Equations: Examples

**Example 1**:  $x_{t+2} + x_{t+1} - 2x_t = 0$ .  $k_1, k_2: 1, -2$  (real and distinct). The solution is:  $A k_1^{t} + B k_2^{t}$ .  $\Rightarrow x_t = A (1)^t + B(-2)^t = A + B(-2)^t$ .

Example 2:  $x_{t+2} + 6x_{t+1} + 9x_t = 0.$   $k_1, k_2: -3$  (real and repeated). The solution is:  $(A + Bt) k^{t}$  $\Rightarrow x_t = (A + Bt)(-3)^t.$ 

**Example 3**:  $x_{t+2} - x_{t+1} + x_t = 0$ .  $k_1, k_2$ : complex, with r = 1 &  $\cos \theta = 1/2$ , so  $\theta = (1/3)\pi$ . The solution is:  $Ar^t \cos(\theta t + \omega)$  $\Rightarrow x_t = A \cos((1/3)\pi t + \omega)$ .

The frequency is  $(\pi/3)/2\pi = 1/6$  and the growth factor is 1, so the oscillations are undamped.

37

#### 13.4 2nd-Order Difference Equations: Example • Step 2: Get a particular solution, for example, $y_{\infty}$ • Step 3: General Solution: Add homogeneous solution to particular solution. **Example:** $y_t = -6y_{t-1} - 9y_{t-2} + 16$ . Solution to homogeneous equation: $y_t = (A + Bt)(-3)^t$ . Particular solution: $y_{\infty} = 16/(1+6+9) = 1$ $y_t = (A + Bt)(-3)^t + 1$ Solution: <u>Note</u>: If we have $y_0$ and $y_1$ , we can solve for A and B. Say: $y_0 = 1$ and $y_1 = 2$ $y_0 = 1 = (A + B 0)(-3)^0 + 1 = A + 1 \implies A=0$ $y_1 = 2 = (A + B 1)(-3)^1 + 1 = -3x0 - 3B + 1 \implies B = -1/3$ 38 Definite Solution: $y_t = (-1/3t)(-3)^t + 1$



#### 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1)

• Now, we have a system

$$y_t = a y_{t-1} + b x_{t-1} + m$$
  
 $x_t = c y_{t-1} + d x_{t-1} + n$ 

• Let's rewrite the system using linear algebra. We have a vector autoregressive model with one lag, or VAR(1):

$$z_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} y_{t} \\ x_{t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_{t-1} \\ x_{t-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A} z_{t-1} + \kappa$$

• Let's introduce the lag operator, L:  $L^q y_t = y_{t-q}$ Then,  $L y_t = y_{t-1}$ .

Now we can write:  $z_t = AL z_t + \kappa \implies (I - AL) z_t = \kappa$ 

Assuming  $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})$  is non-singular  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{z}_{\infty} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$ 

### 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1)

•  $z_{\infty} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$  is the long-run solution to the system.

• The dynamics of the VAR(1) depend on the properties **A**, which can be understood from the eigenvalues.

• Diagonalizing the system:  $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{z}_{t} = \mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{H} \mathbf{H}^{-1}) \mathbf{z}_{t-1} + \mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{\kappa}$   $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{\Lambda}$   $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{\kappa} = \mathbf{s}$   $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{z}_{t} = \mathbf{u}_{t} \quad (\text{or } \mathbf{z}_{t} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{u}_{t})$ 

Each  $z_t$  is a linear combination of the  $\vec{u}$ 's.

• Now,  $u_t = \Lambda u_{t-1} + s$ 

## **13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1)** • Diagonalized system: $u_t = \Lambda u_{t,1} + s$ $u_t = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,t} \\ u_{2,t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,t-1} \\ u_{2,t-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} s_1 \\ s_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 u_{1,t-1} + s_1 \\ \lambda_2 u_{2,t-1} + s_2 \end{bmatrix}$ • To solve the system, we need to solve the eigenvalue equation: $\lambda^2 - (a + d)\lambda + (ad - cb) = 0$ $(\lambda^2 - tr(\mathbf{A})\lambda + |\mathbf{A}| = 0)$ • Stability: $= |\lambda_1|, |\lambda_2| < 1 \implies$ Stable system ("stationary," or $\mathbf{z}_t$ is I(0)). $= |\lambda_i| > 1 \implies$ Unstable system ("explosive"). Not typical of macro/finance time series. $= |\lambda_i| = 1 \implies$ Unit root system. Common in macro/finance time series.

#### 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1) - Example

• Now, we have a system

 $y_t = 4 y_{t-1} + 5 x_{t-1} + 2$  $x_t = 5 y_{t-1} + 4 x_{t-1} + 4$ 

• Let's rewrite the system using linear algebra:

$Z_t =$	$y_t$		4	5	$y_{t-1}$	2
	$x_t$		5	4	$\lfloor x_{t-1} \rfloor$	_4_

• Eigenvalue equation:  $\lambda^2 - 8 \lambda - 9 = 0 \implies \lambda_1, \lambda_2 = (9, -1)$ 

• Transformed univariate equations:

 $\begin{array}{ll} u_{1,t}=9 \; u_{1,t\text{-}1}+s_1 & (\text{unstable equation}) \\ u_{2,t}=-1 \; u_{2,t\text{-}1}+s_2 & (\text{unstable equation}) \end{array}$ 

43

#### 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1) - Example

- Two eigenvalues:  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2 = (9, -1)$
- Transformed univariate equations:

 $u_{1,t} = 9 u_{1,t-1} + s_1$  (unstable equation)

 $u_{2,t} = -1 u_{2,t-1} + s_2$  (unstable equation)

• Recall solution for linear first-order equation:

$$y_{n} = a^{t} y_{0} + \left(\frac{1-a^{t}}{1-a}\right)b; \qquad a \neq 1$$

• Solution for transformed univariate equations:  $u_{1,t} = 9^{t} u_{1,0} + (1-9^{t})/(-8) s_{1}$   $u_{2,t} = (-1)^{t} u_{2,0} + (1-(-1)^{t})/(2) s_{2}$ 

## 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1) - Example

Use the eigenvector matrix, **H**, to transform the system back.
 (1) From **H**<sup>-1</sup> κ = s, get the values for s<sub>1</sub> and s<sub>2</sub>:

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad H^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} (-1/2)$$
$$s = \begin{bmatrix} s_1 \\ s_2 \end{bmatrix} = H^{-1} \kappa = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Plug these values into 
$$u_{1,t}$$
 and  $u_{2,t}$ :  
 $u_{1,t} = 9^t u_{1,0} + (1-9^t)/(-8) s_1 = 9^t u_{1,0} - 3 (1-9^t)/8$   
 $u_{2,t} = (-1)^t u_{2,0} + (1-(-1)^t)/(2) s_2 = (-1)^t u_{2,0} - 1 (1-(-1)^t)/2$ 

45

46

## 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1) - Example

(2) From  $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{z}_{t} = \mathbf{u}_{t}$ , get the solution in terms of  $\mathbf{z}_{t}$  –i.e.,  $x_{t}$  and  $y_{t}$ :

$$z_{t} = Hu_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,t} \\ u_{2,t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,t} + u_{2,t} \\ u_{1,t} - u_{2,t} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{t} \\ x_{t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} [9^{t} u_{1,0} - 3\frac{1-9^{t}}{8}] + [(-1)^{t} u_{2,0} - \frac{1-(-1)^{t}}{2}] \\ [9^{t} u_{1,0} - 3\frac{1-9^{t}}{8}] - [(-1)^{t} u_{2,0} - \frac{1-(-1)^{t}}{2}] \end{bmatrix}$$
If we are given  $y_{0}$  and  $x_{0}$ , we can solve for  $u_{1,0}$  and  $u_{2,0}$  (2x2 system):  
 $y_{0} = u_{1,0} + u_{2,0}$ 

$$x_{0} = u_{1,0} - u_{2,0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad u_{1,0} = (x_{0} + y_{0})/2$$

$$u_{2,0} = (y_{0} - x_{0})/2$$

#### 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1) - Cointegration

• Q: Suppose we have a *unit root* system, with  $\lambda_1 = 1$  and  $|\lambda_2| < 1$ . Can we have *cointegration*? That is, is there a linear combination of  $z_t$ 's that is "stationary" (stable)?

Consider 
$$u_t = H^{-1}z_t = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11}^* & h_{12}^* \\ h_{21}^* & h_{22}^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_t \\ x_t \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,t-1} \\ u_{2,t-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11}^* y_{t-1} + h_{12}^* x_{t-1} \\ h_{21}^* y_{t-1} + h_{22}^* x_{t-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

• We know that  $u_{2,t}$  is stable, we call  $[h_{21}^* h_{22}^*]$  a *cointegrating (CI) vector*.

• Let's subtract 
$$z_{t-1}$$
 from  $z_t = AL z_t + \kappa$ :  
 $z_t - z_{t-1} = \Delta z_t = (I - L) z_t = \kappa - (I - A) z_{t-1} = \kappa - \prod z_{t-1}$ 

The eigenvalues of  $\Pi$  are the complements of the  $\lambda$ 's from A:  $\mu_i = 1 - \lambda_i$ ; then  $\mu_1 = 0 \& \mu_2 = 1 - \lambda_2$ .  $\Rightarrow \Pi$  is singular with rank 1!

47

## 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1) - Cointegration

• We decompose  $\mathbf{\Pi}$ :  $\mathbf{\Pi} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{H}^{-1} - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{H}^{-1} = \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{H}^{-1}$ Or  $\mathbf{\Pi} = H \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} H^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_{11}^* & h_{12}^* \\ h_{21}^* & h_{22}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & h_{12}(1 - \lambda_2) \\ h_{22}(1 - \lambda_2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_{11}^* & h_{12}^* \\ h_{21}^* & h_{22}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{12}(1 - \lambda_2) \\ h_{22}(1 - \lambda_2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_{12}^* & h_{22}(1 - \lambda_2) \\ h_{22}(1 - \lambda_2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_{12}^* & h_{22}(1 - \lambda_2) \\ h_{22}(1 - \lambda_2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_{21}^* & h_{22}^* \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \beta^{1/2}$ • **\Pi** is factorized into the product of a row vector and a column vector, called an outer product: - The row vector:  $\beta$  = the CI vector. - The column vector:  $\alpha$  = the loading matrix = the weights with which the CI vector enters into each equation of the VAR.

#### 13.5 System of Equations: VAR(1) - Cointegration

• Replacing  $\Pi$  into  $z_t - z_{t-1} = \Delta z_t = \kappa - \Pi z_{t-1}$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta y_{1,t} \\ \Delta y_{2,t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \kappa_1 \\ \kappa_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} h_{12}(1-\lambda_2)h_{21}^* & h_{12}(1-\lambda_2)h_{22}^* \\ h_{22}(1-\lambda_2)h_{21}^* & h_{22}(1-\lambda_2)h_{22}^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_{1,t-1} \\ y_{2,t-1} \end{bmatrix} = \\ = \begin{bmatrix} \kappa_1 - h_{12}(1-\lambda_2)(h_{21}^*y_{1,t-1} + h_{22}^*y_{2,t-1}) \\ \kappa_2 - h_{22}(1-\lambda_2)(h_{21}^*y_{1,t-1} + h_{22}^*y_{2,t-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \kappa_1 - h_{12}(1-\lambda_2)u_{2,t-1} \\ \kappa_2 - h_{22}(1-\lambda_2)(h_{21}^*y_{1,t-1} + h_{22}^*y_{2,t-1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

• All variables here are stationary:  $\Delta y$ 's and  $u_{2,t}$ . This reformulation is called the *vector error correction model of the VAR* (or VECM).

•  $u_{2,t}$  is the *error correction term*. It measures the extent to which y's deviate from their equilibrium long-run value.

<u>Note</u>: If  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ , we cannot do what we have done above! ( $z_t$  is I(2)).

## **13.5 System of Equations: CI VAR(1) - Example** • Now, we have a system: $y_t = 1.2 y_{t-1} + 0.2 x_{t-1} + e_{y,t}$ $x_t = 0.6 y_{t-1} + 0.4 x_{t-1} + e_{x,t}$ • We find the eigenvalues of **A**: $|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} 1.2 - \lambda & -0.2 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1.2 - \lambda)(0.4 - \lambda) + 0.12 = 0 \implies \lambda_1 = 1; \lambda_2 = 0.6$ • Eigenvectors are: $H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}; H^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$ • We can rewrite the VAR(1) into VECM form: $\Delta z_t = \begin{bmatrix} \kappa_1 - h_{12}(1 - \lambda_2)(h_{21}^*y_{1,t-1} + h_{22}^*y_{2,t-1}) \\ \kappa_2 - h_{22}(1 - \lambda_2)(h_{21}^*y_{1,t-1} + h_{22}^*y_{2,t-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{y,t-1} - 1(0.4)(-0.5y_{1,t-1} + 0.5y_{2,t-1}) \\ e_{x,t-1} - 3(0.4)(-0.5y_{1,t-1} + 0.5y_{2,t-1}) \\ e_{x,t-1} - 3(0.4)(-0.5y_{1,t-1} + 0.5y_{2,t-1}) \end{bmatrix}_{57}$

## 13.5 System of Equations: CI VAR(1) - Example

• The VECM:

$$\Delta z_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{y,t-1} - 0.4(-0.5y_{1,t-1} + 0.5y_{2,t-1}) \\ e_{x,t-1} - 1.2(-0.5y_{1,t-1} + 0.5y_{2,t-1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

• Then, the CI loading and the CI vector are:

$$\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} -0.4 \\ -1.2 \end{bmatrix}; \qquad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$