Jointly testing linearity and nonstationarity within threshold autoregressions

Pitarakis, Jean-Yves

University of Southampton

May 2012

Online at https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/38845/
MPRA Paper No. 38845, posted 16 May 2012 15:01 UTC
Jointly Testing Linearity and Nonstationarity within Threshold Autoregressions

Jean-Yves Pitarakis
University of Southampton
Economics Division
United-Kingdom

May 1, 2012

Abstract

We develop a test of the joint null hypothesis of linearity and nonstationarity within a threshold autoregressive process of order one with deterministic components. We derive the limiting distribution of a Wald type test statistic and subsequently investigate its local power and finite sample properties. We view our test as a useful diagnostic tool since a non rejection of our null hypothesis would remove the need to explore nonlinearities any further and support a linear autoregression with a unit root.

Keywords: Threshold Autoregressive Models, Unit Roots, Near Unit Roots, Brownian Bridge, Augmented Dickey Fuller Test.

JEL: C22, C50.

*Address for Correspondence: University of Southampton, School of Social Sciences, Economics Division, Southampton SO17 1BJ, United-Kingdom. Email: J.Pitarakis@soton.ac.uk. Tel: +44-23-80592631. Financial Support from the ESRC through the research grant RES-000-22-3983 is gratefully acknowledged.
1 Introduction

This paper is concerned with inferences within an environment that combines threshold type nonlinearities with the presence of a highly persistent variable that contains a unit root. One of the first papers to introduce an environment that combined unit root type of nonstationarities with nonlinear dynamics was Caner and Hansen (2001). This latter research has been part of a growing literature on the econometrics of threshold models which have gained considerable popularity in applied research for modelling phenomena such as asymmetric adjustments, time varying mean reversion amongst others (see Hansen (2011), Tong (2011) and references therein).

Operating within an autoregressive specification formulated as an Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) regression Caner and Hansen (2001) developed two key tests for detecting the presence of threshold effects when the underlying variable contains a unit root under the null hypothesis (see also Pitarakis (2008)). Their first test was designed to test the null of linearity in all the parameters of the ADF regression without explicitly imposing the unit root restriction within the null hypothesis of linearity. A random walk with drift was however maintained as the data generating process. In a second test the authors concentrated solely on the autoregressive parameters associated with the presence or absence of a unit root and developed tests of the joint null of a unit root and linearity without constraining the remaining parameters of the ADF regression that are associated with the deterministic components (i.e. constant and trend).

In this paper we argue that a useful addition to the existing toolkit for uncovering threshold effects in nonstationary environments is a test that would allow one to test the joint null of linearity in all the parameters of the ADF regression and nonstationarity. In this context we are interested in the limiting distribution of a Wald type test under a null hypothesis that imposes not only the stability of all AR parameters but also the unit root explicitly. We expect such a test to have power against departures from linearity as well as departures from the unit root null. More importantly a non rejection of this joint null would conclude the analysis and support the modelling of the variable under investigation through a linear unit root process. In this sense it may be viewed as a useful diagnostic tool before attempting to undertake any further investigation of nonlinear dynamics.

The plan of the paper is as follows. In Section 2 we obtain the limiting distribution of a Wald type test statistic for our null hypothesis of interest. Section 3 provides a local power analysis together with finite sample properties of our test and Section 4 concludes. All proofs are relegated to the appendix.

2 The Model and Asymptotic Inference

We are interested in testing $H_0^4: \theta_1 = \theta_2, \rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0$ in

$$\Delta y_t = (\theta_1' w_{t-1} + \rho_1 y_{t-1})I(Z_{t-1} \leq \gamma) + (\theta_2' w_{t-1} + \rho_2 y_{t-1})I(Z_{t-1} > \gamma) + e_t$$ (1)
with \( w_{t-1} = (1 \ t)' \) and \( \theta_i = (\mu_i \ \delta_i)' \) for \( i = 1, 2 \). \( Z_t = y_t - y_{t-m} \) with \( m \geq 1 \) is the stationary threshold variable and the threshold parameter \( \gamma \) is assumed unknown with \( \gamma \in \Gamma = [\gamma_1, \gamma_2] \). The parameters \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_2 \) are selected such that \( P(Z_t \leq \gamma_1) = \pi_1 > 0 \) and \( P(Z_t \leq \gamma_2) = \pi_2 < 1 \). Typically estimation is performed with symmetric trimming that leaves out a fixed fraction of observations at the top and bottom of \( Z_t \) (e.g. 10\%). As in Caner and Hansen (2001) and for later use it is also convenient to rewrite \( I(Z_{t-1} \leq \gamma) = I(G(Z_{t-1}) \leq G(\gamma)) \equiv I(U_{t-1} \leq \lambda) \) where \( G(.) \) is the marginal distribution of \( Z_t \) and \( U_t \) denotes a uniformly distributed random variable on \([0, 1]\). Throughout this paper and for notational simplicity we also let \( I_{t-1} \) and \( I_{2t-1} \) denote the two indicator functions \( I(U_{t-1} \leq \lambda) \) and \( I(U_{t-1} > \lambda) \).

Letting \( \Psi_i = (\mu_i \ \delta_i \ \rho_i)' \), in Caner and Hansen (2001) the authors derived the limiting behaviour of a Wald type test statistic for testing \( H_0 : \Psi_1 = \Psi_2 \) in (1) when the underlying process was known to contain an exact unit root with or without an intercept (e.g. \( \Delta y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t \)). Proceeding under the same probabilistic assumptions our goal here is to instead develop inferences for testing the joint null hypothesis of linearity and unit root \( H_0^A : \theta_1 = \theta_2, \rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0 \) via a Wald type test statistic.

For greater convenience we rewrite (1) in matrix form as \( \Delta Y = X_1 \Psi_1 + X_2 \Psi_2 + e \) with \( X_i \) stacking the elements given by \( I_{t-1}, tI_{t-1}, y_{t-1}I_{t-1} \). Letting \( W = [X_1 \ X_2] \) we also write \( \Delta Y = W \Psi + e \) with \( \Psi = (\Psi_1 \ \Psi_2)' \) so that the Wald statistic associated with \( H_0^A : \mu_1 = \mu_2, \delta_1 = \delta_2, \rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0 \) can now be formulated as \( W_T^A(\lambda) = \Psi R_A'[R_A(W'W)^{-1}R_A']^{-1}R_A \Psi / \sigma^2 \) with \( R_A \) denoting the restriction matrix associated with \( H_0^A \) and given by \( R_A = \{(1, 0, 0, -1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0, 0, -1, 0), (0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0), (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1)\} \). Here \( \sigma^2 \) refers to the residual variance estimated from the unrestricted specification. Before stating our main results we also let \( DF_{T,\infty} \) denote the limiting distribution of the \( t \)-ratio for testing \( H_0 : \rho = 0 \) in \( \Delta y_t = \mu + \delta t + \rho y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \) as stated in Hamilton (1988, pp. 549-550, Equations (17.4.53) and (17.4.54)). See also Phillips and Perron (1988, Theorem 1(e)) with \( \lambda = 0 \) and \( \sigma/\sigma_u = 1 \). The limiting behaviour of the supremum version of \( W_T^A(\lambda) \) is now summarised in the following Proposition with the supremum understood to be taken over some symmetric interval \( \Lambda = [\lambda_0, 1 - \lambda_0] \).

**Proposition 1.** Under the same assumptions as in Caner and Hansen (2001) and under \( H_0^A : \theta_1 = \theta_2, \rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0 \) we have as \( T \to \infty \),

\[
\sup_{\lambda} W_T^A(\lambda) \Rightarrow \sup_{\lambda} BB(\lambda)/\lambda(1 - \lambda) + DF_{T,\infty}^2
\]

with \( BB(\lambda) \) denoting a standard Brownian Bridge process of the same dimension as \( \phi_i \).

It is interesting to note that the above limiting distribution is expressed as the sum of two components only the first one of which depends on \( \lambda \). The first component is the familiar normalised squared Brownian Bridge type of limit while the second one comes into play due to the explicit imposition of the unit root within the null hypothesis. More specifically

\[
DF_{T,\infty} = \frac{\int_0^1 BdB + A}{\sqrt{D}}
\]
with

\[ A = 12\left( \int rB - \frac{1}{2} \int B \right)(\int B - \frac{1}{2} B(1)) - B(1) \int B \]

\[ D = \int B^2 - 12(\int rB)^2 + 12 \int B \int rB - 4(\int B)^2 \]

(4)

and with \( B \) denoting a standard Brownian Motion associated with the iid process \( e_t \) as assumed in Caner and Hansen (2001). It is also important to highlight the fact that the above distribution is free of any nuisance parameters, an unusual occurrence in models with threshold variables. We expect that the above test will have nontrivial power against departures from linearity as well as the unit root null. Rejections occur when the magnitude of the test statistic is large. At this stage it is also interesting to contrast the above limit with the one that occurs within a similar setting but with structural break based regimes instead of thresholds in (1). In Pitarakis (2011) the author has investigated a similar null hypothesis within an ADF regression with a structural break and documented a limiting distribution composed also of two components one of which was again given by \( DF^2_{r,\infty} \) but with its first component being nonstandard and substantially different from the Brownian Bridge limit above. This highlights the fundamentally different asymptotics that results from alternative approaches of capturing regime change in models with unit roots.

For inference purposes Table 1 below presents various relevant quantiles of the distribution introduced in Proposition 1 across alternative magnitudes of \( \lambda_0 \) the trimming parameter. The values have been obtained via standard simulations under a unit root DGP with \( NID(0,1) \) errors and using \( T = 2000 \) across \( N = 2000 \) replications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \lambda_0 )</th>
<th>0.50</th>
<th>0.90</th>
<th>0.95</th>
<th>0.975</th>
<th>0.99</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>13.74</td>
<td>20.77</td>
<td>23.34</td>
<td>25.41</td>
<td>28.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>13.14</td>
<td>20.20</td>
<td>22.77</td>
<td>24.78</td>
<td>27.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>12.61</td>
<td>19.61</td>
<td>21.87</td>
<td>24.18</td>
<td>26.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3  Finite Sample Size and Local Power Considerations

We are initially interested in documenting the finite sample accuracy of our empirical quantiles presented in Table 1 by estimating the rejection frequencies of the null hypothesis when the DGP is given by the null model specified as \( \Delta y_t = e_t \). Note that setting \( \mu = 0 \) is with no loss of generality here since the fitted model contains a trend component. Table 2 below presents our empirical size estimates across three sample sizes and using \( \lambda_0 = 0.10 \) in the computation of the SupWaldA statistic. The frequencies refer to the number of times the calculated SupWaldA statistic exceeded the 24.78 cutoff.

Table 2. Empirical Size Estimates of SupWaldA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \lambda_0 )</th>
<th>Size Estimates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above size figures suggest a reasonably good finite sample accuracy of the limiting distribution as approximated in Table 1. The test displays a slight tendency to overreject under a 2.5% nominal size but is otherwise accurate across all scenarios.

Next, we are interested in assessing the ability of our SupWaldA statistic to detect deviations from $H_0^A: \theta_1 = \theta_2, \rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0$ by focusing solely on local departures from the unit root null. More specifically we are interested in scenarios whereby $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = c/T$ for $c < 0$ while the parameters associated with the deterministic components are kept time invariant. This scenario corresponds to a linear local to unit root model. Letting $DF_{r,\infty}(c)$ denote the limiting distribution of the t ratio for testing $\rho = 0$ in $\Delta y_t = \mu + \delta t + \rho y_{t-1} + e_t$ when $\Delta y_t = (c/T)y_{t-1} + e_t$ and whose expression is given under Theorem 3(d) in Phillips and Perron (1988, p. 342) we have the following result.

**Proposition 2.** Under the same assumptions as in Caner and Hansen (2001), $\theta_1 = \theta_2, \rho_1 = \rho_2 = c/T$ and as $T \to \infty$ we have $\sup_{\lambda} W_{T}^A(\lambda) \Rightarrow \sup_{\lambda} BB(\lambda)/(1 - \lambda) + DF_{r,\infty}(c)^2$.

The above result illustrates the local power properties of our test statistic under linearity but with a local to unit root process. It is interesting to note that the first component of the limiting distribution remains unaffected by whether $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0$ or $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = c/T$. Interestingly, it also follows from the above that under the null hypothesis of linearity $H_0 : \Psi_1 = \Psi_2$ investigated in Caner and Hansen (2001) but with $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = c/T$ in the background instead of $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0$ the same limiting distribution as when $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0$ holds. This is not a shortcoming per se since the goal of testing $H_0 : \Psi_1 = \Psi_2$ is testing the null of linearity which is satisfied when $\theta_1 = \theta_2, \rho_1 = \rho_2 = c/T$.

Next, we perform a series of simulations to estimate the finite sample based empirical power properties of our test. Our power experiments are geared towards uncovering departures from the linear unit root $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0$ while maintaining $\theta_1 = \theta_2$. Our first DGP is given by $\Delta y_t = \mu + (c/T)y_{t-1} + e_t$ and with no loss of generality we again set $\mu = 0$. Our experiments are ran using $T = 200$ for $c = -1, -5, -10, -15, -20$. We use a 2.5% nominal significance level throughout and our rejection frequencies are evaluated using the corresponding cutoff in Table 1 (i.e. we set $\lambda_0 = 0.10$ and use 24.78 as our critical value). Results are displayed in Table 3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$T$</th>
<th>$c$</th>
<th>$-1$</th>
<th>$-10$</th>
<th>$-15$</th>
<th>$-20$</th>
<th>$-25$</th>
<th>$-30$</th>
<th>$-35$</th>
<th>$-40$</th>
<th>$-50$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>10.60</td>
<td>19.10</td>
<td>32.70</td>
<td>52.10</td>
<td>69.50</td>
<td>84.60</td>
<td>93.50</td>
<td>99.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clearly power increases towards one as we move away from the unit root but is typically low for values of $c$ up to around -30 which corresponds to an autoregressive parameter of 0.85. Beyond such magnitudes
power is in the region of 90% and quickly reaches 100%. This is very much in line with the power properties of traditional unit root tests (see for instance Table 1 in Phillips and Perron (1988)). Naturally the power of our test would be substantially stronger if we also considered departures from the null associated with the deterministic components (i.e. departures from linearity).

It is also interesting to explore the behaviour of \( \text{SupWaldA} \) when deviations occur in one direction from the null in the sense \((\rho_1,\rho_2) = (0,c/T)\) or \((\rho_1,\rho_2) = (c/T,0)\). For this purpose we use \( \Delta y_{t-1} \) as our threshold variable and set \( \gamma = 0 \) as the corresponding true threshold parameter i.e. \( \Delta y_t = (c/T)y_{t-1}I(\Delta y_{t-1} > 0) + \epsilon_t \) (case (i) say) while in the second scenario \( \Delta y_t = (c/T)y_{t-1}I(\Delta y_{t-1} <= 0) + \epsilon_t \) (case (ii)). Empirical rejection frequencies are displayed in Table 3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( c )</th>
<th>-1</th>
<th>-10</th>
<th>-15</th>
<th>-20</th>
<th>-25</th>
<th>-30</th>
<th>-35</th>
<th>-40</th>
<th>-50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i)</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>9.40</td>
<td>16.60</td>
<td>27.30</td>
<td>40.10</td>
<td>55.80</td>
<td>69.40</td>
<td>81.00</td>
<td>94.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii)</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>10.60</td>
<td>18.90</td>
<td>29.80</td>
<td>41.70</td>
<td>58.40</td>
<td>73.10</td>
<td>82.90</td>
<td>96.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above magnitudes are very much similar to the power estimates obtained in Table 3. Under both scenarios power converges to 1 allbeit slowly when one of the parameters remains very close to the unit root border. The test properties also appear to be unaffected by whether the exact unit root is present in the first regime or the second one.

### 4 Conclusions & Extensions

In this paper we have proposed a test of the joint null of linearity and a unit root within a TAR(1) model with deterministic components. A Wald type test statistic for testing this joint hypothesis was shown to have a convenient limiting formulation that is nonstandard but free of nuisance parameters and easily tabulated. A power analysis has subsequently showed that our test displays reasonably good power in finite samples similar in magnitude to the commonly encountered frequencies in the traditional unit root literature.

One obvious limitation of our approach is our focus on a first order autoregression which rules out the inclusion of lagged dependent variables. This would be important for instance if we suspect serial correlation in the \( e_t's \) and wish to correct for it via the inclusion of lagged dependent regressors as it is the norm in the ADF test literature. It is beyond the scope of this paper to generalise our hypotheses to also include restrictions on the parameters of any additional stationary regressor(s). However it is straightforward to establish that our results continue to hold if our model in (1) is augmented with lagged dependent regressors provided that their associated parameters are assumed to be time invariant as for instance in

\[
\Delta y_t = (\theta_1' w_{t-1} + \rho_1 y_{t-1})I(Z_{t-1} \leq \gamma) + (\theta_2' w_{t-1} + \rho_2 y_{t-1})I(Z_{t-1} > \gamma) + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} + \tilde{\epsilon}_t. \tag{5}
\]
and are also excluded from our earlier restriction matrices. The above provides a simple way of using our results when the iid assumption is believed to be unsuitable. Interestingly (5) is different from the setting considered in Caner and Hansen (2002) who allowed the $\psi_i$'s to also be regime specific and included the restrictions $\psi_{1i} = \psi_{2i}$ within their null hypothesis. In such an instance our results in Proposition 1 would no longer be valid and a new distributional theory would need to be developed.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 1: With $D_T = diag(\sqrt{T}, T^{3/2}, T)$ we can write

$$D_T^{-1}X_1'X_1D_T^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} & \sum I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} & \sum y_{t-1} I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} \\ \sum I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} & \sum I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} & \sum y_{t-1} I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} \\ \sum y_{t-1} I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} & \sum y_{t-1} I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} & \sum y_{t-1} I_{t-1} \lambda^{1/2} \end{pmatrix}$$

(6)

from which we obtain the following weak convergence results

$$D_T^{-1}X_1'X_1D_T^{-1} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \lambda & \lambda \int_0^1 B(r) dr \\ \lambda & \lambda & \lambda \int_0^1 rB(r) \\ \lambda & \lambda & \lambda \int_0^1 B^2(r) \end{pmatrix} \equiv \lambda \int_0^1 \overline{B}(r)\overline{B}(r)'$$

(7)

with $\overline{B}(r) = (1, r, B(r))$. The above follows from Theorem 3 in Caner and Hansen (2001) and Lemma 3.1 in Phillips (1988). Proceeding similarly for $D_T^{-1}X_2'X_2D_T^{-1}$ it is also straightforward to obtain

$$D_T^{-1}X_2'X_2D_T^{-1} \Rightarrow (1 - \lambda) \int_0^1 \overline{B}(r)\overline{B}(r)'$$

(8)

and

$$D_T^{-1}X'XD_T^{-1} \Rightarrow \int_0^1 \overline{B}(r)\overline{B}(r)'$$

(9)

with $X = X_1 + X_2$ stacking the regressors associated with the linear specification. We next focus on the limiting behaviour of $D_T^{-1}X'u$ and $D_T^{-1}X'_1u$. Looking at each component separately, setting $\sigma^2_v = 1$ for simplicity and no loss of generality and using Theorem 2 in Caner and Hansen (2001), we have

$$D_T^{-1}X_1'e = \begin{pmatrix} \sum I_{t-1} \lambda e_t \\ \sum I_{t-1} \lambda e_t \\ \sum y_{t-1} I_{t-1} \lambda e_t \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} B(\lambda) \\ \int_0^1 r dB(r, \lambda) \\ \int_0^1 B(r) dB(r, \lambda) \end{pmatrix}$$

(10)

and

$$D_T^{-1}X'e = \begin{pmatrix} \sum e_t \\ \sum e_t \\ \sum y_{t-1} e_t \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} B(1) \\ \int_0^1 r dB(r, 1) \\ \int_0^1 B(r) dB(r, 1) \end{pmatrix}.$$  

(11)

At this stage it is also very convenient to remark that the limiting behaviour of $D_T^{-1}X_1'e - \lambda D_T^{-1}X'e$ can be reformulated as

$$D_T^{-1}X_1'e - \lambda D_T^{-1}X'e \Rightarrow \int_0^1 \overline{B}(r) dG(r, \lambda)$$

(12)

where $G(r, \lambda) = B(r, \lambda) - \lambda B(r, 1)$ is known as a Kiefer process. We note that the random variable in (12) is mixed normal with variance $\lambda(1 - \lambda)$ due to the independence of $G(r, \lambda)$ and $\overline{B}(r)$ since $E[G(r_1, \lambda_1)B(r_2, 1)] = 0$ and both processes are Gaussian.
Using (6)-(11) and the convenience of (12) we are in a position to explore the limiting behaviour of $W_T^A(\lambda)$ as defined in the text. Under our null hypothesis we can equivalently write

$$W_T^A(\lambda) = u'W(W'W)^{-1}R_A[R_A(W'W)^{-1}R'_A]^{-1}R_A(W'W)^{-1}W'u/\hat{\sigma}^2$$

$$\equiv u'Qu/\hat{\sigma}^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

Letting $R_L = (0 \ 0 \ 1)$, $R_B = (I_3 \ - \ I_3)$ with $I_3$ denoting a three dimensional identity matrix and $X = X_1 + X_2$ the regressor matrix under linearity, it is convenient to observe the following algebraic identity

$$Q \equiv u'W(W'W)^{-1}R'_B[R_B(W'W)^{-1}R'_B]^{-1}R_B(W'W)^{-1}W'u$$

$$+ \ u'X(X'X)^{-1}R'_L[R_L(X'X)^{-1}R'_L]^{-1}R_L(X'X)^{-1}X'u$$ \hspace{1cm} (14)

and the result in Proposition 1 follows through the use of (6)-(11), the continuous mapping theorem applied to (14) and the reparameterisation in (12). Note for instance that an appropriately normalised version of the second component of $Q$ in (14) will converge in distribution to $DF_{\tau,\infty}$ since it corresponds to the Wald statistic for testing $H_0 : \rho = 0$ in the linear ADF specification with an intercept and trend components.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 2. The proof of Proposition 2 follows identical lines to our proof of Proposition 1 and is therefore omitted.