# Multivariate Time Series Models

May 30, 2010 Junhui Qian

# 1 Introduction

In this chapter we consider vector-valued stochastic processes. We discuss VAR (Vector AutoRegression), Structural VAR, and multivariate conditional variance-covariance models.

## 2 VAR

We consider an r-dimensional vector autoregression (VAR) of the following form,

$$X_t = A_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + A_p X_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t, \tag{1}$$

where  $(A_i)$  are VAR coefficient matrices and  $\varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \Sigma)$ . We call the above model *p*-th order VAR model or VAR(p) model.

We may represent the model in (1) as

$$A(L)X_t = \varepsilon_t,$$

where L is lag operator and  $A(z) = I - A_1 z - \cdots - A_p z^p$  is a matrix of polynomials.

It is also useful to write the model in AR(1) form,

$$X_t^* = A X_{t-1}^* + \varepsilon_t^*, \tag{2}$$

where

$$X_t^* = \begin{pmatrix} X_t \\ X_{t-1} \\ \vdots \\ X_{t-p+1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & \cdots & A_{p-1} & A_p \\ I & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & I \end{pmatrix}, \quad \varepsilon_t^* = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_t \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The eigenvalues of the matrix A satisfies

$$|\lambda^p I - \lambda^{p-1} A_1 - \dots - A_p| = 0.$$

For the covariance stationarity of  $(X_t)$ , all eigenvalues of A should be within the unit circle, so that any shock in  $\varepsilon_t$  eventually die out. This condition is equivalent to the one that requires all roots of |A(z)| = 0 lie outside the unit circle.

When the above condition holds,  $(X_t)$  has an MA( $\infty$ ) representation,  $X_t = \Phi(L)\varepsilon_t$ , where  $\Phi(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Phi_i z^i$  with  $\Phi_i$  satisfying  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\Phi_i| < \infty$ .  $|\cdot|$  here denotes any matrix norm. The MA coefficients can be obtained from the power series expansion of  $A(z)^{-1}$ , which exists on the unit disk in the complex plane since it is analytic.

#### 2.1 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Let  $\Pi$  be an  $r \times (rp)$  matrix of parameters defined as

$$\Pi = [A_1 \ A_2 \ \cdots \ A_p].$$

If we define  $Z_t = [X'_{t-1}X'_{t-2}\cdots X'_{t-p}]'$ , we may write the original model in (1) as

$$X_t = \Pi Z_t + \varepsilon_t.$$

The conditional likelihood of  $X_t$  is

$$p(X_t, \theta | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = (2\pi)^{r/2} \left| \Omega^{-1} \right|^{1/2} \exp\left( -\frac{1}{2} (X_t - \Pi Z_t)' \Omega^{-1} (X_t - \Pi Z_t) \right),$$

where  $\theta$  is the vector of parameters. The likelihood for the full sample conditional on  $(X_0, X_{-1}, \ldots, X_{1-p})$  is thus given by

$$p(X_T,\ldots,X_t,\theta) = \prod_{t=1}^T p(X_t,\theta|\mathcal{F}_{t-1}).$$

The log conditional likelihood to be maximized is

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{Tr}{2}\log(2\pi) + \frac{T}{2}\log\left(|\Omega^{-1}|\right) + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{t=1}^{T}(X_t - \Pi Z_t)'\Omega^{-1}(X_t - \Pi Z_t).$$
 (3)

We claim that the MLE of  $\Pi$  is the same as the OLS estimator:

$$\hat{\Pi} = \left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} X_t Z_t'\right) \left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} Z_t Z_t'\right)^{-1}.$$

To show this, first note that the MLE of  $\Pi$  shall minimize the sum in the last term in (3), which can be rewritten as

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} (X_t - \Pi Z_t)' \Omega^{-1} (X_t - \Pi Z_t)$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{T} (X_t - \hat{\Pi} Z_t + \hat{\Pi} Z_t - \Pi Z_t)' \Omega^{-1} (X_t - \hat{\Pi} Z_t + \hat{\Pi} Z_t - \Pi Z_t)$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{\varepsilon}_t + (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) Z_t)' \Omega^{-1} (\hat{\varepsilon}_t + (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) Z_t)$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_t' \Omega^{-1} \hat{\varepsilon}_t + 2 \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_t' \Omega^{-1} (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) Z_t$$

$$+ \sum_{t=1}^{T} Z_t' (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi)' \Omega^{-1} (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) Z_t.$$
(4)

The middle term in (4) is zero, since

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_{t}' \Omega^{-1} (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) Z_{t} = \operatorname{tr} \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_{t}' \Omega^{-1} (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) Z_{t} \right)$$
$$= \operatorname{tr} \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} \Omega^{-1} (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) Z_{t} \hat{\varepsilon}_{t}' \right)$$
$$= \operatorname{tr} \left( \Omega^{-1} (\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) \sum_{t=1}^{T} Z_{t} \hat{\varepsilon}_{t}' \right)$$
$$= 0.$$

where the last equality is due to the OLS first-order condition. The last term in (4), a non-negative quadratic term, is thus the only one that involves  $\Pi$ . It is now clear that  $\hat{\Pi}$  is MLE of  $\Pi$ .

It can also be shown that the MLE of  $\Omega$  is given by

$$\hat{\Omega} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{\varepsilon}_t \hat{\varepsilon}'_t,$$

where

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_t = X_t - \hat{\Pi} Z_t.$$

### 2.2 Likelihood Ratio Test

The maximized log likelihood is given by

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L} &= -\frac{Tr}{2}\log(2\pi) + \frac{T}{2}\log\left(|\Omega^{-1}|\right) - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{t=1}^{T}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t}'\hat{\Omega}^{-1}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t} \\ &= -\frac{Tr}{2}\log(2\pi) + \frac{T}{2}\log\left(|\Omega^{-1}|\right) - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t}'\hat{\Omega}^{-1}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t}\right] \\ &= -\frac{Tr}{2}\log(2\pi) + \frac{T}{2}\log\left(|\Omega^{-1}|\right) - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T}\hat{\Omega}^{-1}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t}'\right] \\ &= -\frac{Tr}{2}\log(2\pi) + \frac{T}{2}\log\left(|\Omega^{-1}|\right) - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T}\hat{\Omega}^{-1}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t}\hat{\varepsilon}_{t}'\right] \end{split}$$

$$= -\frac{Tr}{2}\log(2\pi) + \frac{T}{2}\log(|\Omega^{-1}|) - \frac{Tr}{2}.$$

Let the empirical covariance matrix under restriction be  $\hat{\Omega}_0$  and that under no restriction be  $\hat{\Omega}_1$ . The likelihood ratio test statistic is given by

$$2\left(\mathcal{L}_{1}-\mathcal{L}_{0}\right)=T\left(\log\left|\hat{\Omega}_{0}\right|-\log\left|\hat{\Omega}_{1}\right|\right).$$

Under the null hypothesis, this statistic has an asymptotic distribution of  $\chi^2_m$ , where m is the number of restrictions.

### 2.3 Granger Causality Test

We say  $(X_t)$  does not Granger cause  $(Y_t)$  if and only if for all m > 0 the mean squared error of forecasting  $Y_{t+m}$  based on  $(Y_t, Y_{t-1}, ...)$  does not exceed that based on  $(X_t, X_{t-1}, ..., Y_t, Y_{t-1}, ...)$ .

To test the Granger causality (or more precisely, non-causality) in VAR framework, we write,

$$\begin{pmatrix} Y_{t+1} \\ X_{t+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,11} & a_{1,12} \\ a_{1,21} & a_{1,22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Y_t \\ X_t \end{pmatrix} + \dots + \begin{pmatrix} a_{p,11} & a_{p,12} \\ a_{p,21} & a_{p,22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Y_{t-p+1} \\ X_{t-p+1} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{1,t} \\ \varepsilon_{2,t} \end{pmatrix}$$
(5)

Let the null hypothesis be the assertion that X does not Granger cause Y. The null and the alternative hypotheses are stated as follows,

H<sub>0</sub> : 
$$a_{1,12} = \dots = a_{p,12} = 0$$
  
H<sub>1</sub> :  $a_{i,12} \neq 0$  for some  $i = 1, \dots, p$ 

We may employ the usual F test,

$$F = \frac{(SSR_0 - SSR_1)/p}{SSR_0/(T - 2p - 1)},$$

where  $SSR_0$  and  $SSR_1$  are, respectively, restricted and unrestricted sums of squared errors.

The Granger causality test is sensitive to the choice of p, the order of autoregression. It is thus necessary to select p in an objective way. For example, we may select p that minimizes some information criterion (e.g., AIC) before conducting the Granger causality test.

## 3 Structural VAR

The structural VAR explicitly allows contemporary relation between variables. We write the model as

$$BX_t = B_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + B_p X_{t-p} + e_t, \tag{6}$$

where the covariance matrix of  $e_t$ ,  $\Lambda$ , is a diagonal matrix. Compare the model with that in (1), where the covariance matrix of  $\varepsilon_t$  is generally non-diagonal. We usually call the model in (1) reduced-form VAR and that in (6) structural-form VAR. Correspondingly, the residual vector  $\varepsilon_t$  in (1) is called reduced-form error, and  $e_t$  in (6) the structural innovation. The reduced-form error and the structural innovation are obviously related by

$$B\varepsilon_t = e_t.$$

Without restriction, the SVAR in (6) is not identified. That is, two SVAR with different parameter values may reduce to the same reduced-form VAR, which implies the same data generating process for  $(X_t)$ . Putting it another way, different SVAR's may be observationally equivalent. For example, consider the following two SVAR's,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} X_t = \begin{pmatrix} .5 & -1 \\ .5 & -1.5 \end{pmatrix} X_{t-1} + e_t, \quad \Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & .5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} X_t = \begin{pmatrix} .5 & -1.25 \\ 0 & -0.5 \end{pmatrix} X_{t-1} + e_t, \quad \Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} .5 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Both SVAR's imply the following reduced-form VAR,

$$X_t = \begin{pmatrix} .5 & -1 \\ 0 & -0.5 \end{pmatrix} X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To achieve identification, we normally impose restrictions on B. To see how many restrictions are needed for identification, suppose a reduced-form VAR is given with error covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ . Since we have,

$$B\Sigma B' = \Lambda. \tag{7}$$

The fact that  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix generates r(r-1)/2 restrictions on B, where r is the dimension of  $X_t$ . If there are r(r-1)/2 free parameters in the matrix B, then the model is identified. If there are less than r(r-1)/2 free parameters, then the model is over-identified. Take the above example, if we specify

$$B = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0\\ \beta & 1 \end{array}\right),$$

then B has one free parameter  $\beta$ . Since there is one restriction, the model is identified as follows,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \beta - 1 = 0.$$

Different specifications of matrix B yields different SVAR.

If B is identified, we may obtain B by solving (7). We may also obtain  $\Lambda$  using (7) and calculate  $B_i$  by  $B_i = BA_i$ .

## Impulse Response Function

We may write

$$X_t = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Phi_i \varepsilon_{t-i} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Pi_i e_{t-i}^*,$$

where  $e_t^\ast$  is normalized from  $e_t^\ast$  to have unit variance and we have

$$\Pi_i = \Phi B^{-1} \Lambda^{1/2}.$$

Then the response in period *i* of the *p*-th variable to an impulse in the *q*-th structural innovation is given by (p,q)-th element in  $\Pi_i$ . Note that the unit shock in  $e_t^*$  is identical to one standard deviation shock to the corresponding  $e_t$ . When *B* is restricted to a lower triangular matrix with unit diagonals, we have an interesting equality,

$$B = \Lambda^{1/2} L^{-1},$$

where L is a lower triangular matrix from the Cholesky decomposition of  $\Sigma$ . To see this, note that  $B\Sigma B' = (BL)(BL)' = \Lambda$  implies  $BL = \Lambda^{1/2}$ . Then we have

$$\Pi_i = \Phi L.$$

#### Forecast Error Variance Decomposition

Write the k-step forecast error as

$$X_{t+k} - \mathbb{E}_t X_{t+k} = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \prod_i e_{t+k-i}^*.$$

The forecast error variance of the *p*-th component of  $X_{t+k}$  is then given by

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left( \sum_{j=1}^r \pi_{i,pj}^2 \right),$$

where  $\pi_{i,pj}$  is the (p, j)-th element of the matrix  $\Pi_i$ . The *q*-th component of  $e_t$  contributes to the above forecast error variance by

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \pi_{i,pq}^2.$$

This is called forecast error variance decomposition.

### 4 Multivariate Volatility Models

The multivariate volatility model improves on VAR by considering time-varying conditional covariance matrix. To be more specific, write

$$X_t = \mu_t + \omega_t,$$

where  $\mu_t$ ,  $\omega_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\mu_t = \mathbb{E}(X_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1})$ , and  $\Sigma_t = \operatorname{var}(\omega_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1})$  is a time-varying covariance matrix. As in univariate ARCH/GARCH models, we may represent  $\omega_t$  as

$$\omega_t = \Sigma_t^{1/2} \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is a vector of white noise with an identity covariance matrix. Multivariate volatility modeling is concerned with the time-varying structure of  $\Sigma_t$ .

#### 4.1 Separable Multivariate GARCH

The simplest case would be the one where  $\Sigma_t$  is diagonal for all t, and each element on the diagonal satisfies one of various GARCH specifications. This treatment is equivalent to the separate modeling of each element in  $\omega_t$  as an univariate GARCH.

A more realistic model would require that

$$\Sigma_t = D_t C D_t,$$

where C is a constant correlation matrix and  $D_t$  is a time-varying diagonal matrix. Each element on the diagonal of  $D_t$  may be given a GARCH structure. This model is called a CCC (Constant Conditional Correlation) model.

For example, consider a bivariate CCC model with,

$$C_t = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{array}\right),$$

where  $\rho$  is the constant conditional correlation coefficient.

Furthermore, we may specify that the correlation matrix be time-varying as well. A common specification is given by

$$\rho_t = \frac{\exp(z_t)}{1 + \exp(z_t)},$$

where  $z_t$  may depend on some exogenous variables as well as lagged observations of  $\rho_t$ ,  $\omega_t$ , and  $\sigma_t^2$ . For example, we may impose a GARCH(1,1) structure on  $z_t$  as follows,

$$z_t = c + a \frac{\omega_{1,t-1}\omega_{2,t-1}}{\sigma_{1t}\sigma_{2t}} + b\rho_{t-1},$$

where c, a, and b are constant coefficients.

#### 4.2 General Multivariate GARCH

The diagonal vector error correction model (DVEC) specify  $\Sigma_t$  as

$$\Sigma_t = C + \sum_{i=1}^p A_i \odot (\omega_t \omega_t') + \sum_{i=1}^q B_i \odot \Sigma_{t-i},$$

where  $\odot$  denotes Hadamard product, and C,  $(A_i)$  and  $(B_i)$  are all symmetric positive definite matrices. We may call the above model as DVEC(p,q) model.

To impose positive definitiveness on  $\Sigma_t$ , we may specify

$$\Sigma_t = CC' + \sum_{i=1}^p (A_i A_i') \odot (\omega_t \omega_t') + \sum_{i=1}^q (B_i B_i') \odot \Sigma_{t-i},$$

where C,  $(A_i)$ ,  $(B_i)$  are all lower triangular matrices. This model may be called "matrixmatrix" DVEC model.

We may define "vector-vector" DVEC by

$$\Sigma_t = CC' + \sum_{i=1}^p (a_i a_i') \odot (\omega_t \omega_t') + \sum_{i=1}^q (b_i b_i') \odot \Sigma_{t-i},$$

where  $(a_i)$  and  $(b_i)$  are nonzero vectors. Similarly we may define "scalar-scalar" DVEC and hybrids such as "matrix-vector", "scalar-vector", etc.. The simpler the model is, the more stringent restrictions are placed on the dynamics of the model.

To model richer dynamics in  $\Sigma_t$ , we may consider BEKK model, which is proposed in Engle and Kroner (1995),

$$\Sigma_t = CC' + \sum_{i=1}^p A_i(\omega_t \omega_t') A_i' + \sum_{i=1}^q B_i \Sigma_{t-i} B_i',$$

where C is lower triangular, and  $(A_i)$  and  $(B_i)$  are unrestricted square matrices.