

# Testing Unit Root Based on Partially Adaptive Estimation

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## Abstract

This paper proposes unit root tests based on partially adaptive estimation. The proposed tests provide an intermediate class of inference procedures that are more efficient than the traditional OLS-based methods and simpler than unit root tests based on fully adaptive estimation using nonparametric methods. The limiting distribution of the proposed test is a combination of standard normal and the traditional Dickey-Fuller (DF) distribution, including the traditional ADF test as a special case when using Gaussian density.

Taking into account the well documented characteristic of heavy-tail behavior in economic and financial data, we consider unit root tests coupled with a class of partially adaptive M-estimators based on the student- $t$  distributions, which includes the normal distribution as a limiting case. Monte Carlo Experiments indicate that, in the presence of heavy tail distributions or innovations that are contaminated by outliers, the proposed test is more powerful than the traditional ADF test.

We apply the proposed test to several macroeconomic time series that have heavy-tailed distributions. The unit root hypothesis is rejected in U.S. real GNP, supporting the literature of transitory shocks in output. However, evidence against unit root is not found in real exchange rate and nominal interest rate even when heavy-tail is taken into account.

## 1 Introduction

In the past decade, econometricians have focused a great deal of attention on the development of estimation and testing procedures in autoregressive time

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series models where the largest root is unity. Most of these procedures are based on least square methods and have likelihood interpretations when the data are Gaussian. In the absence of Gaussianity, these methods are less efficient than methods that exploit the distributional information. Indeed, Monte Carlo evidence indicates that the least square estimator can be very sensitive to certain type of outliers and that inference procedures based on least squares estimation may have poor performance.

Many applications in nonstationary economic time series involve data that are affected by infrequent but important events such as oil shocks, wars, natural disasters, and changes in policy regimes, indicating the presence of nonGaussian behavior in macroeconomic time series (see Balke and Fomby, 1994). It is well-documented that financial time series such as interest rate and exchange rate have heavy-tailed distributions. In such cases, it is important to consider estimation and inference procedures that are robust to departures from Gaussianity and can be applied to nonstationary time series.

For this reason, in the recent 10 years, researchers have devoted a lot of effort in the development of more efficient and robust inference procedures in nonstationary time series. One way to achieve asymptotic efficiency and robustness is the use of adaptive estimation based on nonparametric technique, see, e.g. Seo (1996) and Beelders (1998). Under appropriate regularity assumptions, tests based on adaptive estimation using nonparametric kernel methods can be constructed, although these procedures may be complicated and thus practically difficult to use.

An alternative approach is the use of M estimation. A partial list along this direction includes: Cox and Llatas (1991), Knight (1991), Phillips (1995), Lucas (1995), Rothenberg and Stock (1997), Juhl (1999), Xiao (2001), and Koenker and Xiao (2003) among others. In particular, Phillips (1995) studies robust cointegration regressions. Cox and Liatas (1991), Lucas (1995), Rothenberg and Stock (1997), and Xiao (2001) studied M-estimation and likelihood-based inference for various models of unit root (or local unit root) time series. The criterion functions in M-estimation are assumed to be known and the associated inferences are generally efficient when the true likelihood functions are used. In practice, the error distributions are unknown. Thus, it is important to use a criterion function (or a density function) that has similar characteristic to the data distribution.

The present paper try to provide an intermediate class of unit root testing procedures that are more efficient than the traditional OLS-based methods in the presence of heavy-tailed distributions and, on the other hand, simpler than unit root tests based on fully adaptive estimation using nonparametric methods. In particular, we consider unit root tests coupled with partially adaptive estimation. Although fully adaptive estimator has the theoretically attractive property of asymptotic efficiency, as suggested by Bickel (1982, p.664), partially adaptive estimation is a more practical goal because it avoids the difficulty of nonparametric estimation of score functions (also see similar arguments in Potscher and Prucha (1986), Hogg and Lenth (1984), McDonald and Newey (1988), and Phillips (1994)).

The proposed test is based on partially adaptive estimation of the augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) model. A data-dependent procedure is used to select an appropriate criterion function for the estimation. We show that the limiting distribution of the corresponding  $t$ -statistic  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  is a mixture of the well-known Dickey-Fuller (DF) distribution and a standard normal distribution that is independent with the DF distribution. We recover the classical result that  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  converges to the DF limiting distribution in the special case when Gaussian density is used. We tabulate the critical values of the test and, therefore, the proposed test is ready to be used by the practitioner.

Giving the well documented characteristic of heavy-tail behavior in economic and financial data, we consider a partially adaptive estimator based on the family of student- $t$  distributions (Potscher and Prucha 1986), although other classes of distributions can be analyzed similarly. The family of student- $t$  represents an important dimension of the space of distributions, including the normal distribution as a limiting case and the Cauchy distribution as a special case. Its adaptation parameter will depend on the scale and thickness parameters, which can be easily estimated from the data using the approach proposed by Potscher and Prucha (1986).

Monte-Carlo experiments are conducted to investigate the finite-sample performance of the partially adaptive test. Comparing to the conventional ADF test, the Monte Carlo results indicate that there is little loss in using the proposed unit root test when the innovations are Gaussian, and the power gains from using our partially adaptive test is substantial when there are outliers or non-Gaussian innovations.

We apply the proposed test to several important macroeconomic time series that have non-Gaussian features. In particular, we re-examined the unit root property of nominal interest rate, real exchange rate, and real GDP. Traditional OLS-based tests, such as the ADF test, cannot reject the unit root hypothesis in these series. On the other hand, non-Gaussian behavior in interest rate, real exchange rate, and real GNP has been largely reported in the literature as being caused by asymmetric innovations or presence of outliers (e.g., Falk and Wang, 2003; Blanchard and Watson, 1986; Bidarkota, 2000; Balke and Fomby, 1994; and Scheinkman and LeBaron, 1989). A descriptive analysis of our data also confirms that U.S. nominal interest rate, real GNP, and real exchange rate are featured with nonGaussian characteristics. When we apply the partially adaptive test to these series, we rejected the unit root hypothesis in real GNP, supporting the literature of transitory fluctuations about trend. We were unable to reject the null of unit root in real exchange rates, implying that, as reported in Falk and Wang (2003), the purchasing power parity hypothesis may not hold in the long run even if tail heaviness are accounted for. We also found no evidence against unit root in nominal interest rate, which supports the findings in Rose (1988) and raises doubt about economic results predicted by the CCAPM and optimal monetary policy models.

The outline of the paper is as follows. Section 2 gives some important preliminaries. In particular, we study an ADF-type test for a unit root based on M estimation. Limiting distributions of the estimator and its  $t$ -statistic are de-

rived. The partially adaptive unit root test is introduced in Section 3. Section 4 presents the results of our Monte Carlo simulations. In section 5, we discuss the relevance of the test and conduct an empirical study. Section 6 concludes. Proofs are provided in the Appendix. For notation, we use  $\Rightarrow$  to signify weak convergence,  $L$  for lag operator,  $\equiv$  for equality in distribution,  $:=$  for definitional equality, and  $[nr]$  to signify the integer part of  $nr$ .

## 2 The Model, Assumptions, and Preliminary Limit Theory

The subject of this paper is a time series  $y_t$  whose largest autoregressive root,  $\alpha$ , is close to unity:

$$y_t = \alpha y_{t-1} + u_t. \quad (1)$$

The residual term  $u_t$  is serially correlated. In the above model, the autoregressive coefficient  $\alpha$  plays an important role in measuring persistency in economic and financial time series. Under regularity conditions, if  $\alpha = 1$ ,  $y_t$  contains a unit root and is persistent; and if  $|\alpha_1| < 1$ ,  $y_t$  is stationary. The high persistency in many economic and financial time series suggests that the coefficient  $\alpha$  is near unity.

Following Dickey and Fuller (1979), we parameterize  $u_t$  as a stationary AR( $k$ ) process

$$A(L)u_t = \varepsilon_t, \quad (2)$$

where  $A(L) = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i L^i$  is a  $k$ -th order polynomial of the lag operator  $L$ ,  $a_0 = 1$ , and  $\varepsilon_t$  is an iid sequence. Combining (1) and (2), we obtain the well-known Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) regression model

$$\Delta y_t = \rho y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t. \quad (3)$$

In the presence of a unit root ( $\alpha = 1$ ),  $\rho = 0$  in the ADF regression (3).

More generally, we may include a deterministic trend component in the ADF regression, and study the estimation in the following regression

$$\Delta y_t = \gamma' x_t + \rho y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t. \quad (4)$$

where  $x_t$  is a deterministic component of known form and  $\gamma$  is a vector of unknown parameters. The leading cases of the deterministic component are (i) a constant term  $x_t = 1$ , and (ii) a linear time trend  $x_t = (1, t)'$ .

We want to test the unit root hypothesis ( $\rho = 0$ , or  $\alpha = 1$ ) based on estimators of  $\rho$  (or  $\alpha$ ). In the simple case where  $\varepsilon_t$  is normally distributed, given observations on  $y_t$ , the maximum likelihood estimators of  $\rho$  (or  $\alpha$ ) and  $\{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k$  are simply the least squares estimators obtained by minimizing the residual sum

of squares. In the absence of Gaussianity in  $\varepsilon_t$ , it is possible to follow the idea of Huber (1964) for the location problem in order to obtain more robust estimators. In this direction, Relles (1968), Huber (1973) introduced a class of M estimators which generally have good properties over a wide range of distributions. The M-estimators are obtained from solving the extreme problem by replacing the quadratic criterion function in OLS estimation with some general criterion function  $\varphi$ . In the case that  $\varphi$  is the true log density function of the residuals, the M-estimator is the maximum likelihood estimator.

To introduce the proposed unit root test based on partially adaptive estimation, we first consider M estimation of the ADF model in this section. In section 3, we study the problem of selecting the criterion function adaptively. The M-estimator for  $(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  is defined as the solution of the following extreme problem:

$$(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\rho}, \{\hat{\psi}_j\}_{j=1}^k) = \arg \max Q(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k) \quad (5)$$

where

$$Q(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k) = \sum_{t=k+1}^n \varphi \left( \Delta y_t - \gamma' x_t - \rho y_{t-1} - \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} \right)$$

for some criterion function  $\varphi$ . When  $\varphi$  is the true log density function of  $\varepsilon$ ,  $Q(\gamma, \alpha, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  is the log likelihood function and the estimator  $(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\rho}, \{\hat{\psi}_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  given by (5) is the maximum likelihood estimator.

Similar (but different in the way of treating the serial correlation in  $u_t$ ) regression models, have been studied by Lucas (1995) and Xiao (2001). Since those models do not include the lags of  $\Delta y_t$  in the regression and thus have slightly different limiting distributions, we give the limiting distribution of  $(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\rho}, \{\hat{\psi}_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  in this section for completeness.

For convenience of asymptotic analysis, we assume that there is a standardizing matrix  $F_n$  such that  $F_n^{-1} x_{[nr]} \rightarrow X(r)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , uniformly in  $r \in [0, 1]$ , where  $X(r)$  is a vector of limiting trend functions. In the case of a linear trend,  $F_n = \text{diag}[1, n]$  and  $X(r) = (1, r)'$ . If  $x_t$  is a general  $p$ -th order polynomial trend (i.e.  $x_t = (1, t, \dots, t^p)$ ),  $F_n = \text{diag}[1, n, \dots, n^p]$  and  $X(r) = (1, r, \dots, r^p)$ .

Following the previous literature in M estimation, we make the following assumptions on  $\varepsilon_t$  and the criterion function  $\varphi$ . These conditions are assumed for the convenience of asymptotic analysis. In practice, even if these conditions do not hold, as long as the data has similar distributional properties as the function  $\varphi$  described, Monte Carlo evidence indicates that the M estimation still have good sampling properties.

**Assumption A1** The roots of  $A(L)$  all lie outside the unit circle, and  $\{\varepsilon_t\}$  are i.i.d. random variables with mean zero and variance  $\sigma^2 < \infty$ .

**Assumption A2**  $\varphi(\cdot)$  possesses derivatives  $\varphi'$  and  $\varphi''$ .  $[\varepsilon, \varphi'(\varepsilon)]$  has  $k$ -th moments for some  $k > 2$ ,  $E[\varphi'(\varepsilon_t)] = 0$ ,  $0 < E[\varphi''(\varepsilon_t)] = \mu_\psi < \infty$ , and  $\varphi''$  is Lipschitz continuous.

**Assumption A3**  $\tilde{\varepsilon}_t - \varepsilon_t = o_p(1)$  uniformly for all  $t$ .

Assumptions A1 - A3 are standard conditions in asymptotic analysis of M estimators. These assumptions are needed to establish the weak convergence results. We may also replace the moment condition on  $\varphi'(\varepsilon)$  by boundness conditions of the derivatives of  $\varphi$ , because the latter and the moment condition on  $u$  imply the corresponding condition on  $\varphi'$ . Assumption A3 is a consistency requirement as in Knight (1989,1991) and it is not needed if  $\varphi'$  is the derivative of a convex function with a unique minimum. Assumptions similar to A3 are also standard in the development of M estimator asymptotics. It is related to Assumption (b) in Theorem 5.1 of Phillips (1995), Assumption C in Xiao (2001), and the same as the assumption on  $\tilde{\varepsilon}_t - \varepsilon_t$  in Theorem 1 of Lucas (1995).

We denote  $[\cdot]$  as the greatest lesser integer function. Then under Assumptions A1-A3, as  $n$  goes to  $\infty$ ,  $n^{-1/2} \sum_1^{[nr]} u_t$  converges weakly to a Brownian motion  $B_u(r) = \omega_u W_1(r) = BM(\omega_u^2)$ , where  $\omega_u^2 = \sigma^2/A(1)^2$  is the long run variance of  $u_t$ , denoted as  $\text{lrvar}(u_t)$ . The limiting distributions of  $(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\rho}, \{\hat{\psi}_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  will also be dependent on the weak limit of the partial sums of  $\varphi'(\varepsilon_t)$ . Denoting  $\omega_\varphi^2 = \text{var}[\varphi'(\varepsilon_t)]$ , and  $\delta = E[\varphi''(\varepsilon_t)]$ , then  $n^{-1/2} \sum_1^{[nr]} \varphi'(\varepsilon_t) \Rightarrow B_\varphi(r) = \omega_\varphi W_\varphi(r) = BM(\omega_\varphi^2)$ . In fact, under Assumption A1, the partial sums of the vector process  $(u_t, \varphi'(\varepsilon_t))$  follow a bivariate invariance principle (see, e.g., Phillips and Durlauf (1986, Theorem 2.1, 474-476, and 486-489); Wooldridge and White (1988, Corollary 4.2); and Hansen 1992):

$$n^{-1/2} \sum_{t=1}^{[nr]} (u_t, \varphi'(\varepsilon_t))^\top \Rightarrow (B_u(r), B_\varphi(r))^\top = BM(\Sigma)$$

where

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_u^2 & \sigma_{u\varphi} \\ \sigma_{u\varphi} & \omega_\varphi^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

is the (long-run) covariance matrix of the bivariate Brownian motion.

Denote  $(\gamma, \rho)' = \theta$ ,  $(\gamma, \rho, \psi_1, \dots, \psi_k)' = \Pi$ , and  $(x'_t, y_{t-1}, \Delta y_{t-1}, \dots, \Delta y_{t-k})' = Z_t$ , then we can write the regression as

$$\Delta y_t = \Pi' Z_t + \varepsilon_t,$$

and the M estimator  $\hat{\Pi}$  maximizes

$$Q(\Pi) = \sum_t \varphi(\Delta y_t - \Pi' Z_t).$$

Finally we introduce the standardization matrix:  $D_n = \text{diag}\{\sqrt{n}F_n, n\}$ , and  $G_n = \text{diag}\{D_n, \sqrt{n}I_k\}$ , where  $I_k$  is a  $k$ -dimensional identity matrix, the limiting distributions of the M estimators  $(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\rho}, \{\hat{\psi}_j\}_{j=1}^k)'$  are given in the following

theorem.

**Theorem 1** *Given model (1), (2), under Assumptions A1-A3 and the unit root assumption, the limiting distribution of nonlinear regression estimator  $\hat{\Pi} = (\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\rho}, \hat{\psi}_1, \dots, \hat{\psi}_k)'$  is given by*

$$G_n(\hat{\Pi} - \Pi) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\delta} \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) \bar{B}_u(r)' dr & 0_{2 \times k} \\ 0_{k \times 2} & \Gamma \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) dB_\varphi(r) \\ \Phi \end{pmatrix}.$$

where,  $\bar{B}_u(r) = (X(r)', B_u(r))'$ ,  $\Phi = [\Phi_1, \dots, \Phi_k]^\top$  is a  $k$ -dimensional normal variate that is independent with  $\int \bar{B}_u(r) dB_\varphi(r)$ , and

$$\Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_u(0) & \cdots & \gamma_u(k-1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma_u(k-1) & & \gamma_u(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\gamma_u(h)$  is the autocovariance function of  $u_t$ .

The unit root hypothesis corresponds to  $H_0 : \rho = 0$ . We consider testing  $H_0$  based on the  $t$ -statistic of  $\hat{\rho}$ , and estimate the covariance matrix by

$$\hat{\Omega} = \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \varphi''(\hat{\varepsilon}_t) Z_t Z_t' \right]^{-1} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \varphi'(\hat{\varepsilon}_t)^2 Z_t Z_t' \right] \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \varphi''(\hat{\varepsilon}_t) Z_t Z_t' \right]^{-1}. \quad (6)$$

This is a heteroskedasticity consistent type covariance matrix estimator as in White (1980). If we consider the  $t$ -ratio statistic of  $\hat{\rho}$ :

$$t_{\hat{\rho}} = \frac{\hat{\rho}}{se(\hat{\rho})}$$

then  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  is simply the M regression counterpart of the well-known ADF ( $t$ -ratio) test for the unit root hypothesis. The limiting distribution of  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  is given in the following theorem.

**Theorem 2** *Under the assumptions of Theorem 1, the limiting distribution of the  $t$ -ratio statistic  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  is given by*

$$\left( e' \left[ \int \bar{W}_1(r) \bar{W}_1(r)' dr \right] e \right)^{-1/2} e' \int \bar{W}_1(r) dW_\varphi(r)$$

where  $\bar{W}_1(r) = (X(r)', W_1(r))'$ ,  $e$  is a collecting vector, that is, there is one coordinate equal to one that picks the element corresponding to the asymptotic distribution of  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$ , and all the other coordinates equal zero. The above limiting distribution can also be rewritten as

$$\left( \int \underline{W}_1(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int \underline{W}_1(r) dW_\varphi(r)$$

$\underline{W}_1(r) = W_1(r) - \int_0^1 W_1(s)X'(s)ds \left( \int_0^1 X(s)X(s)'ds \right)^{-1} X(r)$  is the Hilbert projection in  $L_2[0, 1]$  of  $W_1(r)$  onto the space orthogonal to  $X$ .

Notice that  $W_1$  and  $W_\varphi$  are correlated Brownian motions, the limiting distribution of  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  is not standard and depend on nuisance parameters. However, we can decompose  $\int B_u(r)dB_\varphi(r)$  (see, e.g. Hansen and Phillips (1990) and Phillips (1995)) as

$$\int B_u dB_{\varphi.u} + \lambda_{\omega\psi} \int B_u dB_u,$$

where  $\lambda_{u\varphi} = \sigma_{u\varphi}/\omega_u^2$  and  $B_{\varphi.u}$  is a Brownian motion with variance

$$\sigma_{\varphi.u}^2 = \omega_\varphi^2 - \sigma_{u\varphi}^2/\omega_u^2$$

and is independent with  $B_u$ . Using the above decomposition, the limiting distribution of the  $t$ -statistic  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  can be decomposed as a simple combination of two independent well-known distributions. In addition, related critical values are tabulated in the literature and thus are ready for us to use in applications. We summarize this result in the following corollary.

**Corollary 3** *Under the assumptions of Theorem 1, the limiting distribution of the  $t$ -ratio statistic  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  can be decomposed into a mixture of the Dickey-Fuller (DF) distribution and a standard normal distribution that is independent with the DF distribution, i.e.*

$$t_{\hat{\rho}} \Rightarrow \sqrt{1 - \lambda^2} N(0, 1) + \lambda \left( \int \underline{W}_1(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int \underline{W}_1 dW_1, \quad (7)$$

where the weights is determined by  $\lambda$  :

$$\lambda^2 = \frac{\sigma_{u\varphi}^2}{\omega_\varphi^2 \omega_u^2}.$$

The standard normal distribution comes from

$$\left( \int \underline{W}_1(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int \underline{W}_1(r) dW_{\varphi.1}(r),$$

since  $W_1(r)$  and  $W_{\varphi.1}(r)$  ( $\sigma_{\varphi.u}^{-1} B_{\varphi.u}(r)$ ) are standard Brownian motions and are independent with each other. Notice that  $\omega_u^2$  is the long-run (zero frequency) variance of  $\{u_t\}$ ,  $\omega_\varphi^2$  is the long-run variance of  $\{\varphi'(\varepsilon_t)\}$ , and  $\sigma_{u\varphi}(\tau)$  is the long-run covariance of  $\{u_t\}$  and  $\{\varphi'(\varepsilon_t)\}$ , thus  $\lambda$  is simply the long-run correlation coefficient between  $\{u_t\}$  and  $\{\varphi'(\varepsilon_t)\}$ .

**Remark 4** *One interesting case is obtained when  $\lambda^2 = 1$ , which implies that  $\varphi'(u_t) = \varepsilon_t$ . In this simple case, the criterion function is quadratic in  $\varepsilon_t$  and  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  converges to the Dickey-Fuller limiting distribution. Recall that a quadratic criterion function corresponds to the Gaussian log-likelihood. Notice that when  $\lambda^2$  increases from 0 to 1, the corresponding, say, 5% quantile of the limiting variate (7) shifts to the left, indicating that the traditional Dickey-Fuller test will be less powerful than the proposed test in the absence of Gaussianity.*



Given a consistent estimate of  $\lambda$ , the limiting distribution of  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  can be approximated by a direct simulation. The limiting distribution is the same as that of the covariate-augmented Dickey-Fuller (CADF) test of Hansen (1995). Tables of 1%, 5% and 10% critical values for the statistic  $t_n(\tau)$  are provided by Hansen (1995, page 1155) and reproduced below for convenience. Note that the critical values are tabulated for values of  $\lambda^2$  in steps of 0.1. For intermediate values of  $\lambda^2$ , Hansen suggest using critical values obtained by interpolation.

**Table 1. Asymptotic critical values for P-ADF t-statistic**

$\lambda^2$	Standard			Demeaned			Detrended		
	1%	5%	10%	1%	5%	10%	1%	5%	10%
1.0	-2.57	-1.94	-1.62	-3.43	-2.86	-2.57	-3.96	-3.41	-3.13
0.9	-2.57	-1.94	-1.61	-3.39	-2.81	-2.50	-3.88	-3.33	-3.04
0.8	-2.57	-1.94	-1.60	-3.36	-2.75	-2.46	-3.83	-3.27	-2.97
0.7	-2.55	-1.93	-1.59	-3.30	-2.72	-2.41	-3.76	-3.18	-2.87
0.6	-2.55	-1.90	-1.56	-3.24	-2.64	-2.32	-3.68	-3.10	-2.78
0.5	-2.55	-1.89	-1.54	-3.19	-2.58	-2.25	-3.60	-2.99	-2.67
0.4	-2.55	-1.89	-1.53	-3.14	-2.51	-2.17	-3.49	-2.87	-2.53
0.3	-2.52	-1.85	-1.51	-3.06	-2.40	-2.06	-3.37	-2.73	-2.38
0.2	-2.49	-1.82	-1.46	-2.91	-2.28	-1.92	-3.19	-2.55	-2.20
0.1	-2.46	-1.78	-1.42	-2.78	-2.12	-1.75	-2.97	-2.31	-1.95

**Remark 5** *An alternative approach that facilitates the unit root testing based on M estimation is to develop a nonparametric modification over the original statistic  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  in the spirit of Phillips (1987) and Phillips and Hansen (1991). Thus we transform  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  to remove the nuisance parameter in its limiting variate. As we have seen, the limiting distribution of  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  can be decomposed into a combination of two independent component, where the first component is a mixture of normal distribution, and the second component is a “unit root ” distribution. The basic idea of the modification is to construct an estimate for the second component and remove (subtract) it from  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  so that we obtain a statistic whose limiting distribution is standard normal after appropriate standardization. Monte Carlo evidence indicate that, although more efficient than the OLS based procedures in the presence of non-Gaussian distributions, the semiparametrically modified test may perform poorly in the presence of Gaussian errors. For this reason, we adopt the first approach that uses the original statistic  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  and the critical values in Table 1.*

### 3 A Unit Root Test Based on Partially Adaptive Estimation

The M estimator is asymptotically efficient when it is the maximum likelihood estimator. In practice, even if the exact distribution of the innovations is unknown, if the data has similar tail behavior as the density function used in the

estimation, then inference based on these method still have good sampling performance. Thus, it is important to select a criterion function that has similar characteristic as the data distribution. In this section, we consider a data-dependent approach to select an appropriate criterion function and propose a unit root test based on partially adaptive estimation.

The partially adaptive M estimation considers a parametric family of distributions. Each member of this family is indexed by some adaptation parameters. Giving the observed sample, it is possible to estimate the adaptation parameters so that the density function that best approximates the data distribution (within the parametric family) is selected. In the literature, different classes of distributions has been studied for the purpose of partially adaptive estimation (see, inter alia, Postcher and Prucha (1986), McDonald and Newey (1988), and Phillips (1994)). Taking into account of the well documented characteristic of heavy-tails in economic and financial data, we consider a partially adaptive estimator based on the student- $t$  distributions (Postcher and Prucha 1986), although other classes of distributions may be analyzed similarly. The student- $t$  distribution is an important class of distributions (see more discussion in, say, Hall and Joiner 1982) that contains the Cauchy distribution as a special case and the normal distribution as a limit case, and has wide applications in economic analysis. Its adaptation parameter depends on the scale and thickness parameters, which can be easily estimated from the data using the approach proposed by Potscher and Prucha (1986). Partially adaptive estimator based on this class of distribution is reasonably robust.

Giving the ADF model (4), in the presence of  $t$ -distributed innovations, the log-likelihood is given by

$$L = \text{constant} + \frac{n}{2} \ln \Theta - \frac{\nu + 1}{2} \sum_{t=j+2}^n \ln \left\{ 1 + \frac{\Theta}{\nu} \left[ \Delta y_t - \gamma' x_t - \rho y_{t-1} - \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} \right]^2 \right\}$$

where the parameter  $\Theta$  measures the spread of the disturbance distribution and  $\nu$  is the degree of freedom that measures the tail thickness. Large values of  $\nu$  corresponds to thin tails in distribution. For given parameters  $\nu$  and  $\Theta$ , denoting  $\Theta/\nu$  as  $\theta$ , the MLE of  $(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  is the solution of the following optimization problem

$$\min \sum_t \ln \left\{ 1 + \theta \left[ \Delta y_t - \gamma' x_t - \rho y_{t-1} - \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} \right]^2 \right\}.$$

Following Potscher and Prucha (1986), let  $\tilde{\Pi}$  be the least squares estimator of  $\Pi$  and  $\theta = \frac{\Theta}{\nu}$  be the adaptation parameter of the  $t$ -distribution, we have the following one-step partially adaptive M estimator for the ADF model:

$$\hat{\Pi} = \tilde{\Pi} + \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_t Z_t'(w_t - 2\theta w_t^2 \tilde{\varepsilon}_t) Z_t \right]^{-1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_t Z_t' w_t \tilde{\varepsilon}_t \quad (8)$$

where

$$w_t = (1 + \theta \tilde{\varepsilon}_t^2)^{-1} \text{ and } \tilde{\varepsilon}_t = \Delta y_t - Z_t \tilde{\Pi}.$$

In practical analysis, the parameters  $\nu$  and  $\Theta$  are not known and has to be estimated. We consider a two-step partially adaptive estimator of  $(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  in which the first step involves a preliminary estimation of the parameters  $\nu$  and  $\Theta$  (and thus  $\theta$ ). We then replace  $\theta$  in (8) by its estimator and perform a second step estimation for  $(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$ . In the presence of general disturbance distributions,  $\nu$  and  $\Theta$  lose their original meaning. However, in the cases where  $\hat{\nu} \geq 0$  and  $\hat{\Theta} \geq 0$ ,  $\hat{\nu}$  and  $\hat{\Theta}$  still can be interpreted as estimators of measures of the tailthickness and the spread of the disturbance distribution, and partially adaptive estimator (8) still have good sampling properties.

Potscher and Prucha (1986) discussed the estimation of the adaptation parameters  $\nu$  and  $\Theta$ . In particular, if we denote  $E(|u_t|^k)$  as  $\sigma_k$ , then for  $\nu > 2$ , we have

$$\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1^2} = \frac{\pi}{\nu - 2} \frac{\Gamma[\nu/2]^2}{\Gamma[(\nu - 1)/2]^2} = \rho(\nu) \quad (9)$$

and

$$\Theta = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\nu \Gamma[(\nu - 1)/2]^2}{\sigma_1^2 \Gamma[\nu/2]^2} = q(\nu, \sigma_1).$$

Potscher and Prucha show that  $\rho(\cdot)$  is analytic and monotonically decreasing on  $(2, \infty)$  with  $\rho(2+) = \infty$  and  $\rho(\infty) = \pi/2$ . Thus, given estimator of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ ,  $\nu$  can be estimated by inverting  $\rho(\nu)$  in 9 and thus an estimator of  $\theta$  can be obtained from

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{q(\hat{\nu}, \hat{\sigma}_1)}{\hat{\nu}} = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\Gamma[(\hat{\nu} - 1)/2]^2}{\hat{\sigma}_1^2 \Gamma[\hat{\nu}/2]^2}.$$

For the estimation of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ , we may use the sample moments

$$\hat{\sigma}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_t |\hat{u}_t|^k.$$

Notice that  $\rho(\cdot)$  is monotonically decreasing,  $\nu$  and thus  $\theta$  can be estimated numerically.

We incorporate the partially adaptive estimation into the testing procedure in Section 2 and propose the following unit root test based on partially adaptive estimation:

1. We estimate the residuals  $\tilde{\varepsilon}_t$  from a preliminary ADF regression:

$$\Delta y_t = \tilde{\gamma}' x_t + \tilde{\rho} y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^k \tilde{\psi}_j \Delta y_{t-j} + \tilde{\varepsilon}_t$$

2. Estimating the adaptation parameters. We consider the class of student- $t$  distributions and estimate the parameters  $\nu$  and  $\Theta$  as described above using the residuals obtained from step 1. Denote the estimators as  $\hat{\nu}$  and  $\hat{\Theta}$ , we obtain  $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\Theta}/\hat{\nu}$ .

3. Selecting the criterion function. Giving the estimated adaptation parameter, we choose the following criterion function

$$\varphi(\varepsilon) = \ln \left\{ 1 + \hat{\theta} [\varepsilon]^2 \right\},$$

and calculate the corresponding M-estimator for  $(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  in model (4) based on

$$\max \sum_{t=2}^n \varphi \left( \Delta y_t - \gamma' x_t - \rho y_{t-1} - \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} \right)$$

Denote the corresponding  $t$ -statistic as  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$ .

4. Calculate estimate of  $\lambda^2$ . First we estimate the variance estimator of  $\varepsilon$  and  $\varphi'(\varepsilon_t)$  by

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-k-1} \sum_t \hat{\varepsilon}_t^2, \text{ and } \hat{\omega}_\varphi^2 = \frac{1}{n-k-1} \sum_{t=k+1}^n \varphi'(\hat{\varepsilon}_t)^2$$

respectively, and let

$$\widehat{cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varphi'(\varepsilon_t)) = \frac{1}{n-k-1} \sum_{t=k+1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_t \varphi'(\hat{\varepsilon}_t),$$

we then estimate  $\omega_u^2$  and  $\sigma_{u\varphi}^2$  by  $\hat{\omega}_u^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2 / \hat{A}(1)^2$ , and  $\hat{\sigma}_{u\varphi} = \widehat{cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varphi'(\varepsilon_t)) / \hat{A}(1)$ , where  $\hat{A}(1) = 1 - \sum \hat{\psi}_j$ ,  $\lambda^2$  can then be estimated by

$$\hat{\lambda}^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{u\varphi}^2}{\hat{\omega}_\varphi^2 \hat{\omega}_u^2}.$$

Using the estimate of  $\lambda^2$ , we select the appropriate row from the Table 1 as critical values to test the unit root hypothesis.

## 4 Monte Carlo Experiments

We conduct a Monte Carlo experiment to examine the finite sample performance of the partially adaptive estimation based ADF (denoted as PADF) unit root

test. From the construction of the tests, it is apparent that its finite sample performance will be affected by the sample size, the distribution of the innovations  $\varepsilon_t$ , the autoregressive coefficient  $\alpha$ , and the  $I(0)$  dependence of  $u_t$ . Thus, special attention is paid here to the effects of these elements on the performance of the PADF test. Results for the traditional ADF test are reported and compared to the results from the PADF test.

The data generating process (DGP) in our Monte Carlo is given by the following model

$$y_t = \alpha y_{t-1} + u_t \quad (10)$$

$$u_t = \beta u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (11)$$

where  $\{\varepsilon_t\}$  is a sequence of i.i.d. observations drawn from a distribution  $F$ . We use two distributions: Gaussian  $N(0,1)$ , and student- $t$  with three degrees of freedom,  $t(3)$ . The power of the test was evaluated by considering  $\alpha = 0.85; 0.90; 0.95; 0.975; \text{ and } 0.99$ . The size of the test is obtained by setting  $\alpha = 1$ . Critical values are coming from Table 1. The simulations were carried out for  $n = 100, 200$  and  $500$ , but we only report the results for  $n = 200$  because they are qualitatively similar in the cases  $n = 100$  and  $n = 500$ . We considered 2000 replications. As for the values for  $\beta$ , we considered two possibilities: (i)  $\beta = 0$ ; (ii)  $\beta = 0.7$ . The asymptotic size of each test is 5%.

We use the Schwartz criterion to choose the number of lags  $k$ . In order to calculate the PADF  $t$ -test, we estimated the ADF regression using partially adaptive one-step M-estimator, which has the closed-form expression given in (8). Next, we construct the PADF  $t$ -test based on the one-step M-estimation. For the PADF  $t$ -test, we use covariance matrix (6) and the corresponding element in constructing the  $t$ -ratio. For the ADF  $t$ -test, we estimate the ADF regression by OLS and use the traditional covariance matrix  $\widehat{\Omega} = \tilde{\sigma}^2(x_t x_t')^{-1}$  where  $\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \tilde{\varepsilon}'\tilde{\varepsilon}/(n - k - 1)$ .

## 4.1 Results

Table 2 shows the results for the case where  $u_t = \varepsilon_t$ . The results for the case of  $t(3)$  innovations are presented in the third and fourth rows in Table 2, and the results for the case of  $N(0,1)$  innovations are presented in the last two rows. When the innovations are drawn from a heavy-tailed distribution, results in Table 2 suggest that: (i) the PADF test is more powerful than the ADF test; (ii) the PADF test has better size than ADF test. For the case in which the innovations are drawn from a Gaussian distribution, Table 2 shows that both ADF and PADF tests have similar power.

**Table 2. Power and size of 5% test ( $\beta = 0$ )**

$\varepsilon_t$	Test	Empirical Power					Size
		$\alpha = 0.85$	$\alpha = 0.90$	$\alpha = 0.95$	$\alpha = 0.975$	$\alpha = 0.99$	$\alpha = 1$
t(3)	ADF	0.982	0.825	0.284	0.110	0.058	0.047
t(3)	PADF	0.997	0.968	0.678	0.318	0.126	0.049
N(0,1)	ADF	0.985	0.827	0.317	0.126	0.066	0.052
N(0,1)	PADF	0.951	0.763	0.311	0.135	0.071	0.055

Table 3 reports Monte Carlo results for the second case. In other words, the data are now generated with  $\beta = 0.7$ . The superiority of the PADF test over the ADF is maintained when the innovations are drawn from a heavy-tailed distribution. Moreover, ADF and P-ADF tests still have similar power when innovations are Gaussian. In sum, Table 3 tells us that the good results obtained for the simple case  $u_t = \varepsilon_t$  are preserved when we consider autocorrelated innovations, that is,  $u_t = 0.7u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$

**Table 3. Power and size of 5% test ( $\beta = 0.7$ )**

$\varepsilon_t$	Test	Empirical Power					Size
		$\alpha = 0.85$	$\alpha = 0.90$	$\alpha = 0.95$	$\alpha = 0.975$	$\alpha = 0.99$	$\alpha = 1$
t(3)	ADF	0.881	0.642	0.233	0.105	0.061	0.055
t(3)	PADF	0.980	0.907	0.612	0.301	0.122	0.049
N(0,1)	ADF	0.888	0.650	0.257	0.114	0.064	0.055
N(0,1)	PADF	0.810	0.590	0.258	0.130	0.072	0.056

## 4.2 Outliers

We next investigate the performance of the ADF and P-ADF tests when innovations are contaminated by outliers. The simulation experiment is set up as follows. First,  $n$  normal *iid* variables  $\varepsilon_t$  are generated with mean zero and unit variance. The next step is to construct a new series  $\tilde{\varepsilon}_t$  using random numbers  $v_t$  uniformly distributed over the interval  $[0,1]$ . The variable  $\tilde{\varepsilon}_t$  equals  $\varepsilon_t$  except when  $v_t < 0.05$ , in which case  $\tilde{\varepsilon}_t = \varepsilon_t + w_t$ . Here,  $w_t$  is a contaminating random variable that is being drawn from a  $N(0,30)$ .

The results are displayed in Table 4 and they confirm what is predicted theoretically. In particular, we notice that the ADF test has lower power and higher size distortion than the P-ADF test. There seems to be no doubt that the P-ADF test performs much better than the ADF test in cases where the innovations are contaminated by outliers.

**Table 4. Power and Size of 5% test.**

$\alpha$	0.85	0.90	0.95	0.975	0.99	1
ADF	0.987	0.827	0.295	0.113	0.064	0.057
PADF	0.996	0.971	0.746	0.389	0.159	0.052

## 5 Empirical Analysis

### 5.1 The uncertain unit root in real GNP.

Existence of heavy-tailed distributions in real GNP has been largely documented in economics and econometrics. In effect, Blanchard and Watson (1986) concluded that fluctuations in economic activity are characterized by a mixture of large and small shocks. Other references includes Bidarkota (2000), Balke and Fomby (1994) and Scheinkman and LeBaron (1989) who advocates that real GNP is mostly contaminated by outliers. In parallel, since the seminal work of Nelson and Plosser (1982), there has been an intense debate about the presence of stochastic trend in real GNP . Whether trend is better described as deterministic or stochastic is an important issue for point forecasting, because the two models imply very different long-run dynamics and hence different long-run forecasts. Cochrane (1988) finds little evidence of stochastic trend in GNP whereas Campbell and Mankiw (1987) claims that output fluctuations are permanent. There also be the "we don't know" literature (Rudeebush, 1993, Christiano and Eichenbaum, 1990,) which correctly concludes that traditional ADF unit root test is unlikely to be capable of discriminating between deterministic and stochastic trend because its well known low power against distant alternatives. In this section, we explain how mixture of large and small shocks and the presence of outliers may generate departures from Gaussianity. We will also show that, if deviations from Gaussianity in real GNP are considered, it is possible to turn the "we don't know" literature into a "we do know" literature by applying the robust P-ADF test to U.S. GNP series.

#### 5.1.1 Asymmetric Shocks

Blanchard and Watson (1986) concluded that fluctuations in economic activity are characterized by a mixture of large and small shocks. In this section, we show that asymmetry in shocks generates nonGaussian innovations. As a simple illustration, assume that the real GDP process is represented by the following first-order autoregressive model

$$y_t = \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{12}$$

in which the innovation  $\varepsilon_t$  has been drawn from a  $N(\phi_s, \omega_s^2)$ . The regime ( $r_t$ ) is described as the outcome of an unobserved Markov Chain. If there are only two regimes ( recession and prosperity, say) then, we could expect that shocks affecting real GDP would be asymmetric in the sense that they would exhibit different mean and variance. As a practical example, we could cite the effect of an oil crisis on real GDP. If the economy were booming, then we would expect that the impact on inflation and real GDP would be larger than if the economy were in recession.

In general, the density of  $\varepsilon_t$  conditional on the random variable  $r_t$  taking on the value  $s$  is

$$f(\varepsilon_t | r_t = s; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\omega_s}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-(\varepsilon_t - \phi_s)^2}{2\omega_s^2} \right\} \quad (13)$$

for  $s = 1, 2, \dots, R$ , and  $\theta$  being a vector of population parameters that includes  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_R$  and  $\omega_1^2, \dots, \omega_R^2$ . Note, however, that the unobserved regime is presumed to have been generated by some probability distribution, for which the unconditional probability that  $r_t$  takes on the value  $s$  is denoted by  $\pi_s$  :

$$\Pr \{r_t = s; \theta\} = \pi_s \quad (14)$$

for  $s = 1, 2, \dots, R$ . Therefore, we also include the probabilities  $\pi_1, \dots, \pi_R$  in  $\theta$ , that is,  $\theta = (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_R, \omega_1^2, \dots, \omega_R^2, \pi_1, \dots, \pi_R)$ .

Using 13 and 14, one can easily derive the following joint density-distribution function of  $\varepsilon_t$  and  $r_t$

$$\Pr(\varepsilon_t, r_t = s; \theta) = \frac{\pi_s}{\sqrt{2\pi\omega_s}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-(\varepsilon_t - \phi_s)^2}{2\omega_s^2} \right\}. \quad (15)$$

Finally, we obtain the unconditional density of  $\varepsilon_t$  by summing 15 over all possible values for  $s$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(\varepsilon_t; \theta) &= \sum_{s=1}^R \Pr(\varepsilon_t, r_t = s; \theta) \\ &= \frac{\pi_1}{\sqrt{2\pi\omega_1}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-(\varepsilon_t - \phi_1)^2}{2\omega_1^2} \right\} \\ &\quad + \frac{\pi_2}{\sqrt{2\pi\omega_2}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-(\varepsilon_t - \phi_2)^2}{2\omega_2^2} \right\} + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{\pi_R}{\sqrt{2\pi\omega_R}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-(\varepsilon_t - \phi_R)^2}{2\omega_R^2} \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Functions of the form of 16 is used to represent a broad class of contaminated densities, which includes those with fat tails.

### 5.1.2 Outliers

Balke and Fomby (1994) show that outliers in US real GNP are associated with business cycles, particularly recessions. A useful model used to generate such outliers is the so-called replacement model proposed by Martin and Yohai (1986). We consider innovative outliers (IO), which for an autoregressive moving average process with (ARMA) with innovative outliers reads

$$\phi(L)y_t = \theta(L)\mu_t, \quad \mu_t = \varepsilon_t + w_t \quad (17)$$

where  $L$  is the lag operator,  $Ly_t = y_{t-1}$ ,  $\phi(L)$  and  $\theta(L)$  are polynomials in  $L$ ,  $\{\varepsilon_t\}$  is a sequence of *iid* Gaussian innovations, and  $w_t$  is a contaminating random variable. If  $w_t = 0$ , then the process 17 will be outlier free. Typically  $w_t$  is equal to zero for most values of  $t$ , but its remaining observations are going to be drawn from a contaminating distribution.



### 5.1.3 Empirical Results Based on the PADF test

We used two series of real GNP (RGN)<sup>1</sup>. The first one (RGNP<sub>NP</sub>) was collected from the Nelson and Plosser database and it has 81 annual observations (1909-1980). The second database (RGNP<sub>2</sub>) were collected from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis. RGNP<sub>2</sub> are measured in billions of fixed 1996 Dollars and are seasonally adjusted annual values and quarterly observed. Its first observation corresponds to the first quarter of 1967, totalizing 141 observations. The table below presents some descriptive information about our dataset.

**Table 5. Descriptive Statistics**

Series	sample size	thickness parameter	Kurtosis <sup>†</sup>	Jarque-Bera <sup>†</sup>
RGNP <sub>NP</sub>	81	5.31	5.00	24.75**
RGNP <sub>2</sub>	141	6.91	4.10	11.40**

<sup>†</sup>The symbol (\*\*) represents rejection of the null hypothesis at 1% level of significance

The data were pre-whitened using a linear trend and the number of lags shown in table 6.

Table 5 shows two measures of tails. The standard one is the kurtosis. It is well known that whenever this quantity exceeds 3, we say that the data feature excess kurtosis, or that their distribution is leptokurtic, that is, it has heavy tails. One can see that, after a prewhitening process, both RGNP<sub>NP</sub> and RGNP<sub>2</sub> have excess kurtosis. Another measure of heavy tails is the thickness parameter of the student-t distribution,  $\nu$ . Small  $\nu$  corresponds to heavy tails and the limiting case,  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ , corresponds to the normal distribution. Again, we notice that RGNP<sub>NP</sub> and RGNP<sub>2</sub> have very small thickness parameters, suggesting the existence of heavy-tailed distribution for those series. Thus, our data suggest that post-war US real GNP behavior is inconsistent with linear Gaussian models.

We now turn to the unit root analysis. We employed the non-robust ADF test and the robust P-ADF test. The number of lags was chosen according to the Schwartz criterion and  $\hat{\lambda}^2$ , as usual, was estimated parametrically. We also included a linear trend in the ADF regression. The results are displayed in Table 6. If one conducts unit root inference by using the non-robust ADF test, then the null of unit root could not be rejected at 5% level of significance, suggesting the presence of a stochastic trend in real GNP. This results support the literature of permanent shocks in output. As showed by our Monte Carlo simulations, the ADF test do not perform well (it has low power) when innovations are drawn from fat-tailed distributions. Results in Table 6 reveal the presence of heavy-tailed distributions and, therefore, we had better conduct unit root inference using the robust version of the ADF test, that is, the P-ADF test. In doing so, we reject the null of unit root for both RGNP<sub>NP</sub> and RGNP<sub>2</sub>. This finding gives support to the literature of transitory shocks in output and suggest that

<sup>1</sup>Both series are expressed in logarithmic terms.

the failure of rejecting the null of unit root in U.S real GNP series may be due to the use of estimation and hypothesis testing procedures that do not consider the presence of fat-tail distributions in the data. We believe that this result may be useful to investigate convergence of international (or regional) output, among other hypotheses involving real GNP.

**Table 6. Unit Root Analysis**

Series	Lags	Deterministic Component	ADF	P-ADF
RGNP <sub>NP</sub>	1	linear trend	-3.44	-4.62**
RGNP <sub>2</sub>	2	linear trend	-2.81	-3.47*

The symbol (\*\*) represents rejection of the null hypothesis at 1% level of significance  
The symbol (\*) represents rejection of the null hypothesis at 5% level of significance

## 5.2 Nominal interest rate and real exchange rate

In this section, we investigate the presence of unit root in other financial time series. In particular, we consider nominal interest rate and real exchange rate. We used nominal interest rate with 12-month and 3-month maturity<sup>2</sup>, with first observation corresponding to April of 1953 and ending observation to May of 2000. As for the data on real exchange rate (RER), we used monthly data of US-dollar and UK-pound sterling based bilateral real exchange rates, that is : United kingdom-USA (UK-US), Japan-USA (JPN-US), France-US (FRA-US), Germany-US (GER-US), Japan-UK (JPN-UK), France-UK (FRA-UK), and Germany-UK (GER-UK). To construct the real exchange rate, the data on the nominal exchange rate and the price level (Consumer Price Index) are collected from the International Financial Statistics CD-Rom, which is made by the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The sample covers the Post-Bretton Woods period that runs from April 1973 to March 2001.

Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics. All series seems to show evidence of deviations from Gaussianity, with the series of nominal interest rate presenting high excess kurtosis as compared to real exchange rate time series. Despite the presence of nonnormal innovations, the unit root analysis in Table 8, carried out by using the robust P-ADF test, does not suggest that the null hypothesis of unit root is rejected. This result brings out very practical consequences. For example, the presence of unit root in RER implies that PPP hypothesis does not hold in the long run even if we account for heavy tails in real exchange rates. In a recent paper, Falk and Wang (2003) reached the same conclusion by considering the effects of fat tails on critical values of cointegrating tests. In particular, they find that the Johansen's likelihood-ratio based test are less supportive of PPP when Gaussian-based critical values are replaced by heavy-tailed-based critical values. Using a different approach, our results provide additional support to the findings of Falk and Wang.

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<sup>2</sup>

Three-month and twelve-month Treasury Bill Rate: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, <http://www.stls.frb.org/fred/>

The presence of unit root in the US nominal interest rate has puzzling the economic theory for long. In effect, Rose (1988) showed that the presence of unit root in nominal interest rate is inconsistent with the results predicted by the consumption-based capital asset pricing model (CCAPM). Furthermore, unit root in nominal interest rate is incompatible with the results predicted by optimal monetary policy models, as in Friedman (1969). These models suggest the existence of stable (constant) nominal interest rate in the long run as the result of a monetary authority that maximizes steady-state welfare. Our results indicate the presence of unit root in US nominal interest rate even when heavy tails are accounted for. Hence, we provide support for the findings in Rose (1988), which contradict the theoretical results predicted by the CCAPM and optimal monetary policy models.

**Table 7. Descriptive Statistics**

Series	sample size	thickness parameter	kurtosis	Jarque-Bera <sup>†</sup>
nominal interest rate (12M)	566	3.31	9.40	950.40**
nominal interest rate (3M)	566	2.71	15.10	3429.94**
RER (UK-US)	336	6.31	6.13	145.13**
RER (JPN-US)	336	6.91	5.09	80.64**
RER (GER-US)	336	9.11	3.90	13.07**
RER (FRA-US)	336	6.51	4.64	37.68**
RER (FRA-UK)	336	6.51	4.35	25.71**
RER (GER-UK)	336	5.91	5.94	147.02**
RER (JPN-UK)	336	7.51	4.43	28.78**

<sup>†</sup>The symbol (\*\*) represents rejection of the null hypothesis at 1% level of significance.

<sup>†</sup>The data were pre-whitened using the deterministic specification and number of lags shown in table 8.

**Table 8. Unit root Analysis**

Series	Lags	Deterministic Component	ADF	P-ADF
nominal interest rate (12M)	6	constant	-2.05	-1.16
nominal interest rate (3M)	6	constant	-2.07	-0.11
RER (UK-US)	1	constant	-2.59	-1.01
RER (JPN-US)*	1	linear trend	-2.09	-1.27
RER (GER-US)	1	constant	-1.66	-0.65
RER (FRA-US)	1	constant	-1.52	-0.21
RER (FRA-UK)	1	constant	-1.79	-1.20
RER (GER-UK)	1	constant	-1.88	-2.15
RER (JPN-UK)*	1	linear trend	-2.48	-1.69

\*In order to control the possible forces that move the real exchange rate to a direction in the long run (such as Balassa-Samuleson effect), and to be consistent with past studies such as Cheung and Lai (2001), we decided to include a deterministic trend in the specification of Japanese-yen based real exchange rates.

## 6 Conclusion

This paper proposes a unit root test based on partially adaptive estimation. ADF type of regression is considered without assuming Gaussian innovations. Under general distributional assumption about the innovations, the  $t$ -statistic is shown to converge to a convex combination of a normal variate and a Dickey-Fuller component. Convergence to the DF distribution is obtained when a quadratic criterion function is used, thus including the ADF test as special case of the proposed test. Monte Carlo results indicate that the partially adaptive test has relatively pretty good finite-sample performance: there is little loss in using the proposed test when the innovations are Gaussian, and the power gains from using our partially adaptive test is substantial when there are outliers or non-Gaussian innovations.

As an empirical example, we apply the proposed test to some macroeconomic time series with heavy-tailed distributions. It is shown that US real GNP are featured with heavy-tailed distribution and that the traditional ADF test does not reject the null of unit root. However, this hypothesis is rejected when we use the PADF test, supporting the literature of transitory shocks in output. We also reported evidence for unit root in real exchange rate and nominal interest rate even when tail heaviness is accounted for.

## 7 APPENDIX

**Proof of Theorems 1 and 2.** We consider regressions of the following form:

$$\Delta y_t = \gamma' x_t + \rho y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is an iid sequence. We may consider an M estimator of  $(\gamma, \alpha, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  or  $(\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)$  that maximizes

$$Q(\gamma, \alpha, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k) = \sum_{t=2}^n \varphi \left( \Delta y_t - \gamma' x_t - \rho y_{t-1} - \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} \right)$$

for some criterion function  $\varphi$ . A similar regression, but without lags, has been studied by Lucas (1995).

Denote

$$\begin{aligned} (\gamma, \rho, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k)' &= \Pi \\ (x_t', y_{t-1}, \Delta y_{t-1}, \dots, \Delta y_{t-k})' &= Z_t \end{aligned}$$

then we can write the regression as

$$\Delta y_t = \Pi' Z_t + \varepsilon_t,$$

and the M estimator  $\widehat{\Pi}$  maximizes

$$Q(\Pi) = \sum_{t=2}^n \varphi(\Delta y_t - \Pi' Z_t).$$

For asymptotic analysis of the deterministic trend, we assume that there is a standardizing matrix  $F_n$  such that  $F_n^{-1} x_{[nr]} \rightarrow X(r)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , uniformly in  $r \in [0, 1]$ , where  $X(r)$  is a vector of limiting trend functions. In the case of a linear trend,  $F_n = \text{diag}[1, n]$  and  $X(r) = (1, r)'$ . If  $x_t$  is a general  $p$ -th order polynomial trend,  $F_n = \text{diag}[1, n, \dots, n^p]$  and  $X(r) = (1, r, \dots, r^p)$ .

The estimators solve the following equation system:

$$\begin{aligned} & Q(\alpha, \gamma, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^k) \\ &= \sum_{t=k+1}^n \varphi \left( \Delta y_t - \gamma' x_t - \rho y_{t-1} - \sum_{j=1}^k \psi_j \Delta y_{t-j} \right) \\ & Q(\theta) = \sum_t \varphi(\Delta y_t - \Pi' Z_t). \\ & \text{FOC: } \sum_t \varphi'(\Delta y_t - \widehat{\Pi}' Z_t) Z_t = 0 \end{aligned}$$

or let  $\psi = \varphi'$ ,

$$\sum_{t=1}^n \psi(\Delta y_t - \widehat{\theta}' Z_t) Z_t = 0$$

Taking a Taylor expansion with respect to  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_t = \Delta y_t - \widehat{\Pi}' Z_t$  around  $\varepsilon_t = \Delta y_t - \Pi' Z_t$  we have

$$\sum_{t=1}^n \psi(\varepsilon_t) Z_t - \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\varepsilon_t) Z_t Z_t' (\widehat{\Pi} - \Pi) + R_T = 0$$

. We introduce the standardization matrix:

$$D_n = \text{diag}\{\sqrt{n}F_n, n, \sqrt{n}, \dots, \sqrt{n}\}$$

under our regularity conditions, (Under the assumptions of Theorem 1)

$$D_n(\widehat{\Pi} - \Pi) = \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\varepsilon_t) D_n^{-1} Z_t Z_t' D_n^{-1} + o_p(1) \right]^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^n \psi(\varepsilon_t) D_n^{-1} Z_t$$

the following asymptotics hold:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\varepsilon_t) D_n^{-1} Z_t Z_t' D_n^{-1} \\
&= \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\varepsilon_t) \begin{pmatrix} n^{-1/2} F_n^{-1} x_t \\ n^{-1} y_{t-1} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Delta y_{t-1} \\ \dots \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Delta y_{t-k} \end{pmatrix} \left( n^{-1/2} x_t' F_n^{-1}, n^{-1} y_{t-1}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Delta y_{t-1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Delta y_{t-1} \right) \\
&= \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\varepsilon_t) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{n} F_n^{-1} x_t x_t' F_n^{-1} & n^{-2} y_{t-1}^2 & \frac{1}{n} (\Delta y_{t-1})^2 & & \\ n^{-3/2} y_{t-1} x_t' F_n^{-1} & \frac{1}{n^{3/2}} \Delta y_{t-1} y_{t-1} & \frac{1}{n} (\Delta y_{t-1})^2 & & \\ \dots & & & \dots & \\ \frac{1}{n} \Delta y_{t-k} x_t' F_n^{-1} & \frac{1}{n^{3/2}} \Delta y_{t-k} y_{t-1} & \frac{1}{n} \Delta y_{t-k} \Delta y_{t-1} & & \frac{1}{n} (\Delta y_{t-k})^2 \end{pmatrix} \\
&\Rightarrow \delta \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_y(r) \bar{B}_y(r)' dr & 0 \\ 0 & \Gamma_y \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\Gamma_y = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_y(0) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ \gamma_y(k-1) & & \gamma_y(0) \end{bmatrix}, \bar{B}_y(r)' = (X(r)', B_y(r))'.$$

and

$$\sum_{t=1}^n \psi(\varepsilon_t) D_n^{-1} Z_t = \sum_{t=1}^n \psi(\varepsilon_t) \begin{pmatrix} n^{-1/2} F_n^{-1} x_t \\ n^{-1} y_{t-1} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Delta y_{t-1} \\ \dots \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \Delta y_{t-k} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_y(r) dB_\psi(r) \\ \Phi \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus,

$$D_n(\hat{\theta} - \theta) \Rightarrow \delta^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_y(r) \bar{B}_y(r)' dr & 0 \\ 0 & \Gamma_y \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_y(r) dB_\psi(r) \\ \Phi \end{pmatrix}.$$

In particular,

$$\begin{bmatrix} (n^{-1/2} F_n^{-1} (\hat{\gamma} - \gamma)) \\ n \hat{\rho} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \delta^{-1} \left( \int \bar{B}_y(r) \bar{B}_y(r)' dr \right)^{-1} \int \bar{B}_y(r) dB_\psi(r)$$

To construct a t-statistic, we estimate the covariance matrix by

$$\hat{\Omega} = \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\hat{\varepsilon}_t) Z_t Z_t' \right]^{-1} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \psi(\hat{\varepsilon}_t)^2 Z_t Z_t' \right] \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\hat{\varepsilon}_t) Z_t Z_t' \right]^{-1}.$$

This is a heteroskedasticity consistent type covariance matrix estimator as in White (1980). If we consider the t-ratio statistic of  $\hat{\rho}$

$$t_{\hat{\rho}} = \frac{\hat{\rho}}{se(\hat{\rho})}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\hat{\varepsilon}_t) D_n^{-1} Z_t Z_t' D_n^{-1} \right]^{-1} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \psi(\hat{\varepsilon}_t)^2 D_n^{-1} Z_t Z_t' D_n^{-1} \right] \left[ \sum_{t=1}^n \psi'(\hat{\varepsilon}_t) D_n^{-1} Z_t Z_t' D_n^{-1} \right]^{-1} \\ \rightarrow & \frac{\omega_{\varphi}^2}{\delta^2} \begin{bmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) \bar{B}_u(r)' dr & 0_{2 \times k} \\ 0_{k \times 2} & \Gamma \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\Omega}^{-1/2} D_n(\hat{\theta} - \theta) & \Rightarrow \frac{\delta}{\omega_{\varphi}} \begin{bmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) \bar{B}_u(r)' dr & 0_{2 \times k} \\ 0_{k \times 2} & \Gamma \end{bmatrix}^{1/2} \frac{1}{\delta} \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) \bar{B}_u(r)' dr & 0_{2 \times k} \\ 0_{k \times 2} & \Gamma \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \\ & \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) dB_{\varphi}(r) \\ \Phi \end{pmatrix} \\ & = \frac{1}{\omega_{\varphi}} \begin{bmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) \bar{B}_u(r)' dr & 0_{2 \times k} \\ 0_{k \times 2} & \Gamma \end{bmatrix}^{-1/2} \begin{pmatrix} \int \bar{B}_u(r) dB_{\varphi}(r) \\ \Phi \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{\Omega}_{**}^{-1/2} \begin{bmatrix} (n^{-1/2} F_n^{-1}(\hat{\gamma} - \gamma)) \\ n\hat{\rho} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \left( \int \bar{W}_1(r) \bar{W}_1(r)' dr \right)^{-1/2} \int \bar{W}_1(r) dW_{\varphi}(r).$$

Thus the t-ratio

$$\begin{aligned} t_{\hat{\rho}} & = \frac{\hat{\rho}}{se(\hat{\rho})} \\ & \Rightarrow \frac{\omega_{\varphi}}{\omega_{\varphi}} \left( e' \int \bar{W}_1(r) \bar{W}_1(r)' dr \right)^{-1/2} e' \int \bar{W}_1(r) dW_{\varphi}(r) \\ & = \left( \int W_X(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int W_X(r) dW_{\varphi}(r) \end{aligned}$$

where  $W_X(r) = W_1(r) - \int_0^1 W_1(s) X'(s) ds \left( \int_0^1 X(s) X(s)' ds \right)^{-1} X(r)$  is the Hilbert projection in  $L_2[0, 1]$  of  $W_1(r)$  onto the space orthogonal to  $X$ .

Notice that  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  is simply the M regression counterpart of the well-known ADF  $t$ -ratio test for a unit root.

The limiting distribution of  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  is not standard and depend on nuisance parameters since  $W_1$  and  $W_{\varphi}$  are correlated Brownian motions. However, the limiting distribution of the t-statistic  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  can be decomposed as a simple combination of two (independent) well-known distributions. In addition, related critical values are tabulated in the literature and thus are ready for us to use in applications. Notice that we can decompose

$$\int B_u(r) dB_{\varphi}(r)$$

(see, e.g. Hansen and Phillips (1990) and Phillips (1995)) as

$$\int B_u dB_{\varphi,u} + \lambda_{u\psi} \int B_u dB_u,$$

where  $\lambda_{u\varphi} = \sigma_{u\varphi}/\omega_u^2$  and  $B_{\varphi,u}$  is a Brownian motion with variance

$$\sigma_{\varphi,u}^2 = \omega_\varphi^2 - \sigma_{u\varphi}^2/\omega_u^2$$

and is independent with  $B_u$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{\Omega}_{**}^{-1/2} D_n(\widehat{\Pi} - \Pi) &\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\omega_\varphi} \left[ \int \overline{B}_u(r) \overline{B}_u(r)' dr \right]^{-1/2} \int \overline{B}_u(r) dB_\varphi(r) \\ &= \frac{1}{\omega_\varphi} \left[ \int \overline{B}_u(r) \overline{B}_u(r)' dr \right]^{-1/2} \left( \int B_u dB_{\varphi,u} + \lambda_{u\psi} \int B_u dB_u \right) \\ &= \frac{\sigma_{\varphi,u}}{\omega_\varphi} \left[ \int \overline{W}_1(r) \overline{W}_1(r)' dr \right]^{-1/2} \int W_1 dW_{\varphi,1} \\ &\quad + \frac{\lambda_{u\psi} \omega_u}{\omega_\varphi} \left[ \int \overline{W}_1(r) \overline{W}_1(r)' dr \right]^{-1/2} \int W_1 dW_1 \\ &= \frac{\sigma_{\varphi,u}}{\omega_\varphi} \left[ \int \overline{W}_1(r) \overline{W}_1(r)' dr \right]^{-1/2} \int W_1 dW_{\varphi,1} \\ &\quad + \frac{\sigma_{u\psi}}{\omega_\varphi \omega_u} \left[ \int \overline{W}_1(r) \overline{W}_1(r)' dr \right]^{-1/2} \int W_1 dW_1 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that

$$\left( \frac{\sigma_{\varphi,u}}{\omega_\varphi} \right)^2 = \frac{\omega_\varphi^2 - \sigma_{u\varphi}^2/\omega_u^2}{\omega_\varphi^2} = \frac{\omega_\varphi^2 \omega_u^2 - \sigma_{u\varphi}^2}{\omega_\varphi^2 \omega_u^2} = 1 - \frac{\sigma_{u\varphi}^2}{\omega_\varphi^2 \omega_u^2}$$

The limiting distribution of  $t_{\hat{\rho}}$  can then be decomposed into

$$\begin{aligned} t_{\hat{\rho}} &= \frac{\hat{\rho}}{se(\hat{\rho})} \Rightarrow \sqrt{1 - \lambda^2} \left( \int W_X(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int W_X(r) dW_{\varphi,1}(r) \\ &\quad + \lambda \left( \int W_X(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int W_X dW_1 \\ &= \sqrt{1 - \lambda^2} N(0, 1) + \lambda \left( \int W_X(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \int W_X dW_1 \end{aligned}$$

■



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