

TESTING FOR A UNIT ROOT NONSTATIONARITY IN MULTIVARIATE AUTOREGRESSIVE TIME SERIES

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The characteristic equation of a multiple autoregressive time series involves the eigenvalues of a matrix equation which determine if the series is stationary. Suppose one eigenvalue is 1 and the rest are less than 1 in magnitude. We show that ordinary least squares may be used to estimate the matrices involved and that the largest estimated eigenvalue has distributional properties that allow us to test this unit root hypothesis using critical values tabulated by Dickey (1976). See also Fountis (1983). If a single unit root is suspected, a model can be fit whose parameters are constrained to produce an exact unit root. This is the vector analog of differencing in the univariate case. In the fitting process, canonical series can be computed thus extending the work of Box and Tiao (1977) to the unit root case.

1. Introduction. Consider the multivariate first-order autoregressive [AR(1)] process defined by the rule

$$(1.1) \quad Y_t = AY_{t-1} + e_t, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t &= [Y_{1,t}, Y_{2,t}, \dots, Y_{k,t}]^T, \\ e_t &= [e_{1,t}, e_{2,t}, \dots, e_{k,t}]^T, \\ Y_0 &= \phi, \end{aligned}$$

and $\{e_t; t = 1, 2, \dots\}$ is a sequence of independent identically distributed multivariate normal variates with mean ϕ (a vector of 0's) and variance matrix Σ . Henceforth we assume

$$(1.2) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} A^i \Sigma (A^i)^T$$

is of full rank. In linear system theory, (1.2) is the definition of controllability of $[A, \Sigma^{1/2}]$.

We also assume

$$(1.3) \quad A \text{ has an eigenvalue } 1 \text{ and the rest less than } 1 \text{ in magnitude.}$$

There exists a real matrix R such that

$$V \equiv R^{-1}AR = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \phi^T \\ \phi & D \end{bmatrix},$$

where the eigenvalues of the $(k-1) \times (k-1)$ matrix D are those of A which

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are less than 1 in magnitude. The matrix R^{-1} provides a transformation

$$(1.4) \quad R^{-1}Y_t \equiv Z_t = [z_{1,t}, Z_{2,t}^T]^T$$

for which

$$(1.5) \quad Z_t = VZ_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where

$$\varepsilon_t = R^{-1}e_t = [\varepsilon_{1,t}, \varepsilon_{2,t}^T]^T.$$

Equation (1.5) can be written as

$$(1.6) \quad \begin{aligned} z_{1,t} &= z_{1,t-1} + \varepsilon_{1,t}, \\ Z_{2,t} &= DZ_{2,t-1} + \varepsilon_{2,t}. \end{aligned}$$

Write the appropriately partitioned covariance matrix of ε_t as

$$R^{-1}\Sigma(R^{-1})^T \equiv J = \begin{bmatrix} J_{11} & J_{12} \\ J_{21} & J_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

and note that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} V^i J (V^i)^T &= \begin{bmatrix} kJ_{11} & J_{12} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (D^i)^T \\ \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} D^i J_{21} & \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} D^i J_{22} (D^i)^T \end{bmatrix} \\ &= R^{-1} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} A^i \Sigma (A^i)^T \right] (R^{-1})^T. \end{aligned}$$

Now Σ is positive definite and R is full rank so $J_{11} > 0$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} D^i J_{22} (D^i)^T$ is full rank.

LEMMA 1. *The controllability assumption (1.2) and the unit eigenvalue assumption (1.3) imply*

- (i) $n^{-1} \sum_{t=0}^n Z_{2,t} Z_{2,t}^T \rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} D^i J_{22} (D^i)^T \equiv \Phi \quad a.s.,$
- (ii) $\sum_{t=0}^n z_{1,t} Z_{2,t}^T = O_p(n),$
- (iii) $\sum_{t=0}^n z_{1,t} \varepsilon_{2,t} = O_p(n).$

PROOF. Result (i) follows from Theorem 2 of Lai and Wei (1985). Results (ii) and (iii) follow by arguments similar to those of Lemma 3.4.3 in Chan and Wei (1988). See also Dickey and Fuller (1979) and Tiao and Tsay (1983). \square

2. Distribution of estimators. The matrix A is a $k \times k$ real matrix whose eigenvalues determine whether the sequence $\{Y_t\}$ is stationary. If all of the eigenvalues of A are less than 1 in magnitude, we will say that the series is stationary. Otherwise we will say that it is nonstationary. This differs slightly from the convention for stationary series because we have fixed the initial value Y_0 . Given the observations Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n , define the $k \times n$ data matrices

$$Y = [Y_t; t = 1, \dots, n] \quad \text{and} \quad Y_L = [Y_{t-1}; t = 1, \dots, n].$$

The ordinary least-squares estimate of A is given by

$$\hat{A}_n = (YY_L^T)(Y_L Y_L^T)^{-1}.$$

Define $Z = R^{-1}Y$, $Z_L = R^{-1}Y_L$ and $\hat{V}_n \equiv (ZZ_L^T)(Z_L Z_L^T)^{-1} = R^{-1}\hat{A}_n R$.

LEMMA 2. *The controllability assumption (1.2) and unit eigenvalue assumption (1.3) imply $\hat{V}_n \rightarrow V$ a.s.*

PROOF. By Corollary 3 of Lai and Wei (1985), $\hat{A}_n \rightarrow A$ a.s. Hence $\hat{V}_n = R^{-1}\hat{A}_n R \rightarrow R^{-1}AR = V$ a.s. \square

By similarity, the eigenvalues of \hat{V}_n and \hat{A}_n are the same. Now let $\hat{\lambda}_n$ be the eigenvalue of \hat{A}_n (or \hat{V}_n) with largest magnitude. Lemma 2, and its assumptions (1.2) and (1.3), imply

$$(2.1) \quad \hat{\lambda}_n \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Let

$$W_{1,n} = \sum_{t=2}^n z_{1,t-1}^2, \quad W_{2,n} = \sum_{t=2}^n z_{1,t} z_{2,t-1}, \quad W_{3,n} = \sum_{t=2}^n z_{2,t-1} z_{2,t-1}^T,$$

$$W_{4,n} = \sum_{t=2}^n z_{1,t-1} \varepsilon_{1,t}, \quad W_{5,n} = \sum_{t=2}^n z_{2,t-1}^T \varepsilon_{1,t}, \quad W_{6,n} = \sum_{t=2}^n z_{1,t-1} \varepsilon_{2,t}$$

and

$$W_{7,n} = \sum_{t=2}^n z_{2,t-1} \varepsilon_{2,t}^T.$$

Then

$$\hat{V}_n - V = \begin{bmatrix} W_{4,n} & W_{5,n} \\ W_{6,n} & W_{7,n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} W_{1,n} & W_{2,n}^T \\ W_{2,n} & W_{3,n} \end{bmatrix}^{-1}.$$

Following Chan and Wei (1988) we obtain the following lemma.

LEMMA 3. *Assuming controllability (1.2) and a unit root (1.3),*

$$\begin{bmatrix} n^{-2} & W_{1,n} \\ n^{-1} & W_{4,n} \\ n^{-1/2} & W_{5,n} \\ n^{-1/2} & W_{7,n} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \begin{bmatrix} \Gamma \\ \xi \\ C \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\Gamma = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j H_j^2$, $\xi = 0.5(T_1^2 - J_{11})$, $T_1 = \sqrt{2} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j^{1/2} (-1)^{j+1} H_j$, $\gamma_j = [2/(2j - 1)\pi]^2$, H_j iid $N(0, J_{11})$ and $C \sim N(0, J \otimes \Phi)$ independent of Γ and ξ . Chan and Wei (1988) and White (1958) give expressions for Γ and ξ as functionals of a Weiner process.

Now partition \hat{V}_n as

$$\hat{V}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{V}_{11} & \hat{V}_{12} \\ \hat{V}_{21} & \hat{V}_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

LEMMA 4. *Assuming (1.2) and (1.3),*

- (a) $\|\hat{V}_{21}\| = O_p(n^{-1})$,
- (b) $\|\hat{V}_{12}\| = O_p(n^{-1/2})$

and

- (c) $n(\hat{V}_{11} - 1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \xi/\Gamma$,

where ξ/Γ has the limit distribution given in Fuller (1976), page 371.

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} n(\hat{V}_{11} - 1) & n^{1/2}\hat{V}_{12} \\ n\hat{V}_{21} & n^{1/2}(\hat{V}_{22} - D) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (\hat{V}_n - V) \begin{bmatrix} n & \phi^T \\ \phi & n^{1/2}I \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} n^{-1}W_{4,n} & n^{-1/2}W_{5,n} \\ n^{-1}W_{6,n} & n^{-1/2}W_{7,n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} n^{-2}W_{1,n} & n^{-3/2}W_{2,n}^T \\ n^{-3/2}W_{2,n} & n^{-1}W_{3,n} \end{bmatrix}^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

By Lemmas 1 and 3,

$$\left[\begin{bmatrix} n^{-2}W_{1,n} & n^{-3/2}W_{2,n}^T \\ n^{-3/2}W_{2,n} & n^{-1}W_{3,n} \end{bmatrix}, n^{-1}W_{4,n} \right] \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \left[\begin{bmatrix} \Gamma & \phi^T \\ \phi & \Phi \end{bmatrix}, \xi \right].$$

By Lemma 3 and direct moment computations on $W_{6,n}$,

$$\|n^{-1/2}W_{5,n}\| = O_p(1), \quad \|n^{-1}W_{6,n}\| = O_p(1)$$

and

$$\|n^{-1/2}W_{7,n}\| = O_p(1),$$

which completes the proof. \square

THEOREM 1. *Under assumptions (1.2) and (1.3),*

$$n(\hat{\lambda}_n - 1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \xi/\Gamma.$$

PROOF. Let $f(\lambda) = |\hat{V}_n - \lambda I|$. Then $f(\hat{\lambda}_n) = 0$. Since $\hat{V}_{22} - \hat{\lambda}_n I \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow \infty} D - I$ a.s. by Lemma 2, eventually $\hat{V}_{22} - \hat{\lambda}_n I$ is nonsingular and

$$f(\hat{\lambda}_n) = |(\hat{V}_{11} - \hat{\lambda}_n) + \hat{V}_{12}(\hat{V}_{22} - \hat{\lambda}_n I)^{-1}\hat{V}_{21}||\hat{V}_{22} - \hat{\lambda}_n I|.$$

However $|\hat{V}_{22} - \hat{\lambda}_n I| \rightarrow_{n \rightarrow \infty} |D - I| \neq 0$ a.s. Hence eventually

$$\hat{V}_{11} - \hat{\lambda}_n = -\hat{V}_{12}(\hat{V}_{22} - \hat{\lambda}_n I)^{-1}\hat{V}_{21}.$$

Consequently,

$$|\hat{V}_{11} - \hat{\lambda}_n| = O_p(\|\hat{V}_{12}\| \|\hat{V}_{21}\|) = O_p(n^{-3/2}),$$

by Lemma 4. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} n(\hat{\lambda}_n - 1) &= n(\hat{\lambda}_n - \hat{V}_{11}) + n(\hat{V}_{11} - 1) \\ &= O_p(n^{-1/2}) + n(\hat{V}_{11} - 1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \xi/\Gamma \end{aligned}$$

by Lemma 4. \square

COROLLARY 1. *Let*

$$(2.2) \quad Y_t = B_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + B_p Y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where ε_t are iid $N(0, \Sigma)$ with Σ positive definite. Assume that the characteristic equation

$$\left| \lambda^p I - \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda^{p-j} B_j \right| = 0$$

has one root $\lambda_1 = 1$ and the other $pk - 1$ roots less than 1 in modulus. Let \hat{B}_{jn} be the least-squares estimate of B_j based on observations (Y_0, \dots, Y_n) and define $\hat{\lambda}_n$ to be the root of

$$\left| \lambda^p I - \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda^{p-j} \hat{B}_{jn} \right| = 0$$

with the largest modulus. Then

$$n(\hat{\lambda}_n - 1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \xi/\Gamma.$$

PROOF. Let

$$X_t = \begin{bmatrix} Y_t \\ \vdots \\ Y_{t-p+1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & \cdots & B_p \\ I & \cdots & \emptyset \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \emptyset & \cdots & I & \emptyset \end{bmatrix}, \quad e_t = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_t \\ \emptyset \\ \vdots \\ \emptyset \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then B satisfies (1.3) and the covariance matrix of e_t is $\begin{bmatrix} \Sigma & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset \end{bmatrix} = \Sigma^*$. It is known that $(B, \Sigma^{*1/2})$ satisfies (1.2) [cf. Lai and Wei (1985)]. Now observe that

$$(2.3) \quad X_t = BX_{t-1} + e_t.$$

The least-squares estimate of B is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{B}_n &= \sum_{t=1}^n X_t X_{t-1}^T \left(\sum_{t=1}^n X_{t-1} X_{t-1}^T \right)^{-1} \\ &= B + \sum_{t=1}^n \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_t \\ \emptyset \\ \vdots \\ \emptyset \end{bmatrix} X_{t-1}^T \left(\sum_{t=1}^n X_{t-1} X_{t-1}^T \right)^{-1} \\ &= B + \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{t=1}^n \varepsilon_t X_{t-1}^T \left(\sum_{t=1}^n X_{t-1} X_{t-1}^T \right)^{-1} \\ \emptyset \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \hat{B}_{1n} & \cdots & \hat{B}_{pn} \\ I & \cdots & \emptyset \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \emptyset & \cdots & I & \emptyset \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $\hat{\Lambda}_n$ is the eigenvalue of \hat{B}_n with the largest modulus. Clearly Theorem 1 is applicable. \square

3. Stationarity transformation. Reparameterize (2.2) as

$$\nabla Y_t = -CY_{t-1} - \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} W_j \nabla Y_{t-j},$$

where $C = I - B_1 - \cdots - B_p$ and $W_j = B_{j+1} + B_{j+2} + \cdots + B_p$. Note that C has exactly one zero eigenvalue. Let g_1 be the right eigenvector $Cg_1 = \emptyset$. This implies $g_1 = (\sum B_i)g_1$ so that $BG_1 = G_1$, where B is given in (2.3) and $G_1^T = (g_1^T, g_1^T, g_1^T, \dots, g_1^T)^T$. Thus we can find a real matrix R such that $R^{-1}BR$ is block diagonal with upper-left block 1 and with the first column of R being G_1 . Let l^T be the left eigenvector of C corresponding to the zero eigenvalue. Then there is a matrix T with $T^{-1}CT$ having 0 in all first row and all first

column entries and with the first row of T^{-1} being l^T . Let the first row of R^{-1} be partitioned as $(\gamma_1^T, \gamma_2^T, \gamma_3^T, \dots, \gamma_p^T)$. Since this is a left eigenvector of B corresponding to the unique unit eigenvalue, we see that $\gamma_i^T = \gamma_1^T B_i + \gamma_{i+1}^T$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$, where $\gamma_{p+1} = \emptyset$. Summing over i we get $\gamma_1^T(I - B_1 - B_2 - \dots - B_p) = \emptyset$ so that γ_1 can be taken to equal l and all other γ 's can be obtained from l^T and the B_i 's.

The transformation matrix T transforms Y_t into $T^{-1}Y_t$ which has a unit root process (not necessarily a pure random walk) as first entry and a stationary vector process forming the other $k - 1$ entries. To see this, note that the matrix R^{-1} transforms X_t into $Z_t = R^{-1}X_t$ which has a random walk z_{1t} as its first entry and remaining entries forming a stationary process Z_{2t} . Define the $k \times kp$ matrix $H = [I, \emptyset, \emptyset, \dots, \emptyset]$ and note from (2.3) that $HX_t = Y_t$. We have $T^{-1}Y_t = T^{-1}HRZ_t$ and we note that the first column of $T^{-1}HR$ is $(1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)^T$ which shows that only the first element of $T^{-1}Y_t$ involves z_{1t} . Granger and Weiss (1983) refer to the situation where linear combinations of nonstationary series are stationary as "cointegration." The last $k - 1$ rows of T^{-1} provide cointegrating vectors in our case.

Let ξ_t denote the first element of $T^{-1}Y_t$. Note that ξ_t can be expressed as a linear combination $\beta_0 z_{1t} + \alpha_0^T Z_{2t}$ with $\beta_0 \neq 0$ using the arguments of the preceding paragraph. Similarly note that $Y_t = HRZ_t$ implies that the i th element of Y_t can be expressed as $Y_{it} = \beta_i z_{1t} + \alpha_i^T Z_{2t}$, where $g_1 = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k)^T$ is the previously mentioned eigenvector of C . Using the orders of convergence of sums of squares and cross products for stationary and unit root processes, a simple regression of x_{it} on ξ_t produces a regression coefficient converging to β_i/β_0 . Now $x_{it} - (\beta_i/\beta_0)\xi_t = (\alpha_i^T - (\beta_i/\beta_0)\alpha_0^T)Z_{2t}$ so the residuals from this regression are (approximately) stationary. Plots of these residual series show interrelationships of component series adjusted for the system nonstationarity. This regression approach was originally suggested to us by David Findley.

Note that $n^{-2}\sum Y_t Y_t^T$ converges to a random ($\lim n^{-2}\sum z_{1t}^2$) multiple of $g_1 g_1^T$ so g_1 is approximated by the eigenvector of $n^{-2}\sum Y_t Y_t^T$ associated with the largest in magnitude eigenvalue of $\sum Y_t Y_t^T$. This is an extension of Box and Tiao's (1977) approach for the stationary case.

4. Example. Consider the U.S. birthrate as measured in births per thousand married women from 1948 through 1980. A logarithmic transformation seems to be appropriate. Let $y_{1,t}$ be the log of birthrate for mothers age 20-24 and let $y_{2,t}$ be the log of birthrate for mothers age 25-29. The data were obtained from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Define the column vector $Y_t = (y_{1,t}, y_{2,t})^T$. A plot of the data is given by the solid lines in Figure 1.

Our estimated equation is

$$(4.1) \quad Y_t = \begin{bmatrix} -0.1874 \\ 0.2925 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1.4085 & 0.1829 \\ 0.2907 & 1.3060 \end{bmatrix} Y_{t-1} - \begin{bmatrix} 0.5727 & -0.0226 \\ 0.1797 & 0.4797 \end{bmatrix} Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t.$$

FIGURE 1: U. S. BIRTHRATES LOG SCALE

ORIGINAL SERIES SOLID LINES
 (TOP AGE 20-24, BOTTOM AGE 25-29)
 BROKEN CURVE IS TRANSFORMED SERIES X1

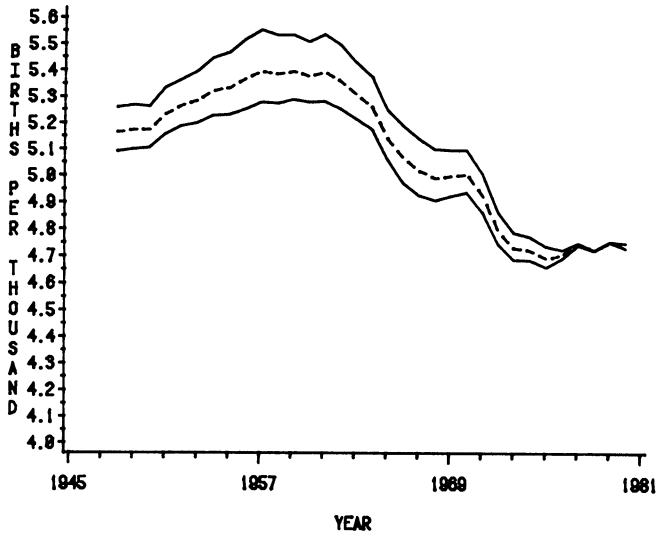


FIG. 1.

The test consists of finding the solutions m to

$$|m^2I - \hat{B}_1 \quad m - \hat{B}_2| = (m - 0.943589)(m - 0.716984) \times (m^2 - 1.0539695m + 0.4121333) = 0.$$

Then compare $33(0.943589 - 1) = -1.86$ to the left tail critical values of the top display of Table 8.5.1 of Fuller (1976). The unit root hypothesis cannot be rejected at any reasonable level of significance.

From (4.1) we get an estimate $\hat{C} = I - \hat{B}_1 - \hat{B}_2$, where \hat{B}_1 and \hat{B}_2 are the estimated coefficient matrices. Computing the eigenvalues and vectors gives

$$\hat{T}^{-1}\hat{C}\hat{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.63303 & 0.83493 \\ 0.60788 & -0.85342 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.1642 & -0.2055 \\ -0.1110 & 0.1737 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.814504 & 0.796860 \\ 0.58016 & -0.60417 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.01784 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.32006 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Computing $T^{-1}Y_t \equiv U_t$ and the first difference ∇U_t we fit (2.3), using least squares to get the coefficients for each row.

$$(4.2) \quad \nabla U_t = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1256 \\ -0.3636 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -0.0179 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.3201 \end{bmatrix} U_{t-1} + \begin{bmatrix} 0.6416 & 0.1751 \\ -0.0868 & 0.4109 \end{bmatrix} \nabla U_{t-1} + \eta_t.$$

In the univariate case the coefficient on U_{t-1} would be a scalar near 0 and an exact unit root for U_t would be imposed by setting this coefficient to 0 in (4.2), that is, omitting U_{t-1} from the regression. The vector analog is to omit U_{t-1} from the first row regression in (4.2). If we also leave out the intercept in the first row (0.1256 has standard error 0.2367) we get

$$(4.3) \quad \nabla U_t = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -0.3636 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.3201 \end{bmatrix} U_{t-1} + \begin{bmatrix} 0.6431 & 0.0904 \\ -0.0868 & 0.4109 \end{bmatrix} \nabla U_{t-1} + \eta_t.$$

Now the entire matrix system can easily be recast into the original Y scale using \hat{T} on the restricted estimates (4.3),

$$Y_t = \begin{bmatrix} -0.2897 \\ 0.2197 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1.3765 & 0.2549 \\ 0.2679 & 1.3573 \end{bmatrix} Y_{t-1} - \begin{bmatrix} 0.5315 & 0.0373 \\ 0.1504 & 0.5224 \end{bmatrix} Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t.$$

This model contains an exact unit root and its forecasts are, then, the analog of forecasts from a differenced univariate series.

A plot of $y_{1,t}$, $y_{2,t}$ and the canonical unit root process ξ_t is given in Figure 1. The canonical series displays the overall trend in the data. We could plot the other canonical series but we feel it is more informative to regress each element $y_{i,t}$ on ξ_t and plotting the (singular) system of residuals as suggested earlier. A

FIGURE 2: RESIDUALS FROM REGRESSION ON X1

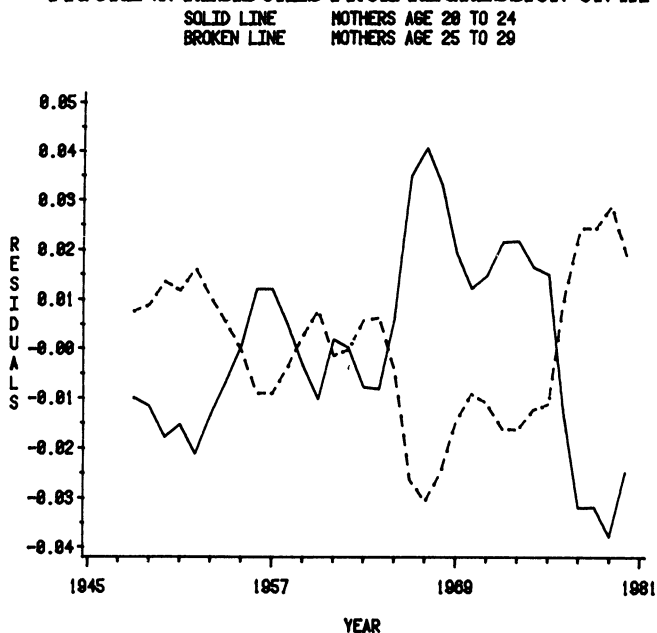


FIG. 2.

plot of the regression residuals for the birth series is given in Figure 2. A study of this graph helps to reveal changing preference over time for motherhood earlier in life versus later in life.

We do not claim that the adjusted series are white noise, only that they are stationary. Since the adjusted series taken together form a singular bivariate system, the autocorrelation structure of the two component series is the same. The first six autocorrelations are 0.83, 0.52, 0.23, 0.03, -0.05 and -0.08 . An autoregressive model of order 2 with coefficients 1.3 and -0.5 fits the data well. The fitted autoregression has two complex roots with magnitude 0.75 which is consistent with an assumption of stationarity for these adjusted series. Whether 0.75 is significantly less than 1 would ideally be decided by a statistical hypothesis test, however it is unclear what the effect of our adjustment might be on available unit root tests.

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