

An econometric analysis of the relationship between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone

Master Thesis

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone. After the oil-price dropped 60% between July 2014 and January 2015, it seems that market consensus has evolved with respect to how the krone reacts to variations in the oil price. This raises the interesting question of whether the relation between these highly important macroeconomic variables has changed in the recent past.

Overall, we do not find statistical evidence supporting that the historical interlinkage is broken, yet we conclude that there has been a change in the relationship following the oil price collapse in 2014. We find that a long run, cointegrating relationship exists between the oil price and the respective exchange rate, solely after the oil price drop.

Time-series analyses have been carried out on daily data from 2001 to 2016, investigating the relation between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone. The analysis was split in subsamples to give room for comparison of results across different time periods, and to verify whether the results were robust when subjected to periodic events such as the financial crisis and the 2014 oil price drop. The Augmented Dickey-Fuller and Breusch-Godfrey tests were applied to investigate the nature of the variables with respect to stationarity. The test results suggested that all variables under investigation were integrated of order 1, across all samples. The two step Engle-Granger test was applied to examine whether there exists a long term relation among the variables. Where cointegration was found, error correction models were used to examine potential Granger causality in the short and long run. Granger causality from the oil price to the exchange rates was present both in the short and long term, while the reverse revealed an effect present only in the long run. For non cointegrated variables, short run Granger causality was tested using ADL models. Bilateral Granger causality was found in all samples, except for the period between January 2001 and July 2008, where unidirectional causality was present from the oil price to the exchange rates.

The thesis is supplemented with an analysis on monthly data to incorporate movements in potentially omitted variables. The section is included to provide a robustness check of the initial analyses.

The overall findings provide a mixed picture of the relation between the variables, which evidently relies on movements in a range of variables above and beyond what can be captured by the scope of econometric modelling. The thesis however provides an important contribution to the literature on the relation between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Motivation

The world economy was shocked by the radical oil price drop in the second half of 2014. The oil price plunged from \$114 to \$45 per barrel between June 2014 and January 2015, near a 60% price dive in six months. During the same period, the Norwegian krone weakened 28% against the USD while the Norwegian nominal effective krone exchange rate depreciated 13%. The vast economic effects are inevitable, as oil and gas account for almost 25% of Norwegian gross domestic product (GDP) and 50% of total exports. Not surprisingly, the shock led to devastating falls in employment, reduced investments and economic uncertainty (OECD, 2016).

The discovery of oil transformed Norway from a shipping, fishery and agricultural based nation with below average GDP per capita, to an oil nation among the richest in the world. The oil price has steadily increased since the natural resource discovery in the 1960s, up until the financial crisis. The Norwegian "oil fund" has an accumulated wealth of over \$900bn in assets, currently worth more than twice its mainland GDP (Akram & Mumtaz, 2016). Needless to say, Norway is highly dependent on oil revenues. However, as Norwegian exports only account for 2% of total oil production, the country has a limited impact on the global oil price formation (Norwegian Petroleum, 2017a).

Reading financial news, one gets the impression that the oil price and the value of the NOK are highly interdependent. In Norwegian media, the association seems unquestionable, with headlines such as *"Increased oil price strengthens the krone"*¹ (Øvrebekk Lewis, 2016), *"Krone dives after oil price sink again"* (Berglund, 2015), and *"How the krone follows in the footsteps of the oil"* (Gjendem, 2016). However, experts have recently questioned whether the relation still is as clear cut as previously expressed. The oil price recovered almost 64% by year-end 2016 from a record low in January. Simultaneously, the effective krone exchange rate and the NOK relative to USD only recovered by 6% and 3%, respectively. Speculations of whether the historical interlinkage is broken are spreading (Sundberg, 2016; Aarø & Norli, 2016), sparking the authors interest in investigating whether the oil-currency link has changed. The thesis is intended to help investors get a clearer understanding of the relationship. Is it correctly framed by analysts that the variables are intertwined, or does this information suffer from lack of proper statistical proof? If so, has this relation broken down after the dramatic 2014 oil price drop?

¹ Authors' own translation

1.2 Problem statement

- 1. To what extent does a short and/or long run relationship exist between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone?
 - a. Has there been a change in the relationship following the oil price collapse in 2014?
 - b. To what extent does a bilateral or uni-directional causal relationship exist among the variables of interest over time?

1.3 Methodology

The thesis is organized as follows. Section two provides an overview of prior literature within the field. Section three elaborates on the fundamental theories behind the determination of exchange rates as well as an overview of the factors seen as most important for oil price determination. Section four presents key factors characterising the Norwegian economy, its fiscal framework, monetary policy regimes and the likely effects of oil price changes for the Norwegian economy. In section five, the reader is given a presentation of the data and the historical development of the variables of interest. Section six presents the underlying theoretical models, empirical estimations and results. Section seven provides a robustness check of the results presented in section six. Section 8 summarizes our findings, while section nine provides a short critique of the applied methods. Section 10 opens up for alternative perspectives. Relevant calculations and SAS output not presented in the thesis can be found in appendix.

In order to answer our research questions, the authors will investigate whether the main variables of interest exhibit a long term relation by testing for cointegration. The cointegration model will be extended to additionally analyse short term effects through the error correction method. For non-cointegrated variables, the Granger causality methodology will be applied to analyse the presence of short term causality.

All data used in the thesis is based on public information. The main emphasis is put on published material from acknowledged institutions and organizations such as the Norwegian central bank, OECD and the World Bank.

2. Literature review

Oil prices and exchange rates are central macroeconomic factors, studied thoroughly throughout global literature over time. Theoretical and empirical research regarding the possible causal relationship show a wide range of results.

Krugman (1980) and Golub (1983) established a clear relation between the two variables through their theoretical work regarding the balance of payments. The authors studied how an increase in the price of oil affected the US dollar exchange rate. They reason that oil exporting nations can expect an appreciation of their exchange rate through the wealth transfer from oil-importing to oil-exporting countries, following an oil price rise. However, the effect for the oil-importing countries depend on whether it can expect a rise in exports and increased investments, caused by increased wealth of the oil-exporting countries, that more than outweighs the increased cost of imports.

Akram & Holter (1996) studied the relation between the USD and the oil price by proposing a theoretical model, tested empirically. The paper concludes that the oil price is affected by changes in the value of the USD, by that a depreciation of the USD will make the oil price in other oil exporting currencies fall. Over time this will lead to less production by oil exporters as well as an increased demand by oil importers, further leading to a higher dollar denominated oil price and therefore demand for US dollars. The resulting strengthening of the dollar, following the rise in demand, will partly or fully outweigh the fall of oil income for exporting countries.

Amano & Norden (1998) test empirically the hypothesis formulated by Krugman and Golub, and study whether the price of oil and the US real exchange rate are cointegrated. They find evidence suggesting that the persistent real exchange rate shocks in the post-Bretton Woods² period are dominantly caused by the oil price. Further evidence from their studies shows that causality runs from oil prices to exchange rate and not the opposite way, consistent with the results of Hamilton (1983).

Al-mulali & Sab (2012) investigate the impact of oil price shocks between 2000-2010 on the real exchange rate of multiple oil exporting countries located in Africa, South-East Asia, Middle East and South America using fixed and random effects models on panel data. Oil price increases caused the real exchange rate to appreciate in the 12 oil-exporting countries studied.

² The Bretton Woods system was an international fixed exchange rate collaboration between 44 countries, established after World War II in order to avoid volatile exchange rates and international political conflicts (Thygesen, n.d.).

Using monthly data, Zhang (2013) investigates the cointegrating relation between the real effective exchange rate of the US dollar and the real price of oil, allowing for structural breaks. Zhang concludes that a significant cointegrating relation does not exist between the aforementioned variables, unless the structural breaks in November 1986 and February 2015 are controlled for.

Some researchers find bilateral causality. Fratzscher, Schneider, & Robays (2014) investigate the variables from a financial point of view, questioning whether the oil price reacts to other financial assets, and whether the oil price itself is financialised. The article finds evidence supporting Killian & Vega (2011) that in general, oil prices do not react to US macroeconomic news, but rather reflect changes in other financial assets such as exchange rates. They find that a 10% increase in the oil price leads to a 0.28% depreciation of the USD effective exchange rate, as well as that a 1% depreciation of the USD causes oil prices to rise by 0.73%. The article finds evidence of other financial asset price changes affecting both the USD and the oil price, such as stock market shocks, financialisation of oil markets and changes in risk aversion.

According to Brahmasrene, Huang, & Sissoko, (2014) the exchange rate Granger-causes crude oil in the short run, while the crude oil price Granger-cause exchange rates in the long run. The effect is stronger in the latter. Through the variance decomposition model, they provide evidence that oil price shocks significantly impact exchange rates in the medium and long run, but that the effect of exchange rates on oil prices is minimal. Further, conclusions from the impulse response model show that exchange rate shocks have significant negative impacts on crude oil prices. Additionally, when oil prices are stable, currency fluctuations and uncertainty can be minimized.

The evidence concerning the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone is mixed. Some of the most influential studies on this relation have been conducted by the Norwegian central bank.

Akram (2000) investigated the relation between the oil price and the Norwegian exchange rate by testing for nonlinear effects within an equilibrium correction model, and found a negative relation. The strength of the relationship depends on whether the oil price is above, below or within the range of 14-20 USD per barrel, and if a falling or rising price trend is present. The relation is weak or non-existing when the oil price is within the range, yet relatively strong when the oil price is below 14 USD and falling. These findings were supported in his later work (Akram, 2002).

Bergvall (2004) explored the long term co-movements of real effective exchange rates³, trade balance, terms of trade, and relative labor productivity in the Nordic countries. The author found the real price of oil (exogenous terms of trade shocks) to be the most influential determinant of the real exchange rate for Norway and Denmark using cointegration models and variance decomposition. The estimated cointegration relations show that a decrease in the real price of oil depreciates the Norwegian real exchange rate, while the opposite is true for the net oil importers Sweden, Denmark and Finland.

Habib & Kalamova (2007) studied the effect of changes in the real oil price on the real exchange rates of Norway, Russia and Saudi Arabia using a coherent single-equation time series approach. Contrary to aforementioned literature, the authors provide evidence of a non-existing impact of the real oil price on the real value of the NOK. They point to the recent changes in monetary policy in Norway, as well as the implementation of the fiscal rule for oil income spending as possible explanations, which will be discussed more in section 4.2.

Newer publications such as Ellen & Martinsen (2016) estimate a structural vector autoregressive (SVAR) model to investigate the effects of oil price changes on the nominal effective exchange rate, I44. They present empirical proof for that direct and indirect effects of oil price shocks on the I44 have increased over time. They argue and prove that long term interest rate differentials have become relatively more important in explaining movements in the value of the Norwegian effective exchange rate.

The wide range of conclusions prove that findings are sensitive to methodology choices such as data frequency, time period analysed, variable choices, and applied methods.

To our knowledge, there exists a limited amount of literature focusing on whether there exists a long run relationship between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone. The authors therefore seek to contribute to the literature by analysing the relation, using recent data on the variables of interest. Additionally, the subsample focus enables us to investigate the relation particularly after the 2014 oil price collapse. The contribution is intended to provide investors with a clearer understanding of the complex relationship, and add to the perspectives presented in financial media.

³ Note: The effective exchange rate discussed by (Bergvall, 2004) is defined the following way: *"The real exchange rate index (q) is a CPI-based effective real exchange rate constructed as a competition-weighted sum of exchange rate series for 10 OECD countries".*

3. Economic theory

The following section presents the theoretical frameworks on exchange rate and oil price determination. Fundamental theories on exchange rate formation is provided to explain the theoretically grounded mechanisms. With respect to the oil price the authors seek to give an overview of what are viewed as the most important factors for its determination.

3.1 Exchange rate determination

The foreign exchange (FX) market is the world's most traded and liquid market, with an average daily turnover of US\$3.2 trillion. It is a decentralized, over-the-counter (OTC)⁴ market. Currency turnover occurs from two sources, where foreign trade accounts for approximately 5% while speculation covers the remaining 95% (Forex, n.d.).

Law of One Price

The law of one price is the fundamental underlying theory of purchasing power parities. It states that the same good should be sold for the same price in different countries once prices are converted into a common currency, given by the following relationship (Rogoff, 1996):

$$P_i = EP_i^* \tag{Eq. 3.1}$$

Where;

- P_i is the price of the good in domestic currency
- *E* is the nominal exchange rate, and
- P_i^* is the price of the good in foreign currency

It is thus a theoretical no-arbitrage condition. Thus, if the parity is violated, market participants will be able to make an arbitrage profit consisting of a risk-free profit earned by a zero net investment. In practice, deviations from the law of one price will occur frequently due to, factors such as tariff agreements, transportation costs and non-tariff barriers.

⁴ Financial markets are primarily organized in two ways: exchanges and over-the-counter (OTC). OTC is not a physical place, it is less formal, less transparent, and trading networks are centred around one or more dealers. Similar to exchanges, OTC markets are well-organized (Dodd, n.d.).

Purchasing Power Parity

Measures of purchasing power parities are designed to provide a broader measure of international price differentials. The absolute purchasing power parity is the relation containing a bundle of goods, rather than one single good, measured by the price indices such as the consumer price index (CPI) (Rogoff, 1996):

$$\sum P_i = E \sum P_i^* \tag{Eq. 3.2a}$$

The difficulties of comparing an internationally standardized bundle of goods, due to different constructions of CPIs, as well as differences in weights assigned to the goods, strengthens the relevance of using relative price measures, as the one presented below.

The relative purchasing power parity explains the relation between a percentage change in an exchange rate and the differential between the growth rate in foreign and home price indices, more commonly referred to as inflation differentials (Rogoff, 1996):

$$\frac{\sum P_{it}}{\sum P_{it-1}} = \frac{E_t}{E_{t-1}} \frac{\sum P_{it}^*}{\sum P_{it-1}^*}$$
(Eq. 3.2b)

Where;

t subscripts denote time

The long-term equilibrium state underlying the purchasing power parities is that the price level should be the same across countries when measured in one currency. An appreciation of a country's currency will theoretically lead to an increase in the price of the country's export goods and a reduction in the price of import goods, while the reverse is true given a currency depreciation (Rogoff, 1996).

Interest rate parities

The *Covered Interest Rate Parity* (CIP) explains the equilibrium relationship between interest rates and the spot and forward rates of two respective currencies. The theoretic model is based on a no-arbitrage condition, as discussed above. Multiples of violations of the parity, in the search for a risk-free profit, will force spot and future rates back to equilibrium where no possibilities of arbitrage exist. The relation is as follows (Sercu, 2009):

$$1 + r_{t,T} = \left(1 + r_{t,T}^*\right) * \frac{F_{t,T}}{S_t}$$
(Eq. 3.3a)

Where;

 $r_{t,T}$ is the domestic interest rate between time t and T

 $r_{t,T}^*$ is the foreign interest rate between time t and T

 S_t is the spot exchange rate at time t

 $F_{t,T}$ is the forward exchange rate between time t and T (in units of home currency per unit of foreign currency)

The uncovered interest rate parity (UIP) presents the case where the above condition can be satisfied without the use of hedging exchange rate risk through forward contracts. The UIP is based on the assumption that the current forward rate is equal to the expected spot rate. The following equation illustrates the relationship (Sercu, 2009).

$$1 + r_{t,T} = \left(1 + r_{t,T}^*\right) * \frac{E(S_T)}{S_t}$$
(Eq. 3.3b)

Where;

 $E(S_T)$ is the expected spot rate at time T

The relation states that the difference in interest rates between two countries is equal to the expected change in the future spot rate. In other words, the return on deposits in the domestic currency should be equal to the return on foreign deposits, if the relation holds (Sercu, 2009).

Interest rate parities rest on the assumptions of mobile capital and perfect substitutability of assets. The first assumption entails that investors can exchange domestic assets to foreign assets with ease, whereas the second describes that the assets have to be perfect substitutes in terms of risk and liquidity.

Economic literature points to fundamental long-term equilibrium theories such as the law of one price (LOP) as well as the interest- and purchasing power parities (IP) and (PPP) to explain exchange rate relations. Empirical studies by Froot & Rogoff (1994), Rogoff (1996), Isard (1996) and Macdonal (1995) provide empirical proof of convergence towards the long-run PPP rate, with a slow speed of reversion.

In general, studies reject that PPP holds in countries affected by large real shocks, such as the Norwegian economy (Akram, 2002b).

Akram (2002) although presents evidence for fast convergence towards PPP for the Norwegian real and nominal exchange rates, despite large real shocks as in the post-Bretton Woods period.

3.1.1 Supply and demand of exchange rates

As discussed, the fundamental theories explained above do not hold in reality, due to strict assumptions and "all else equal" necessities. Rogoff, Froot, & Kim (2001) state that "One of the most striking empirical regularities in international finance is the volatility and persistence of deviations from the law of one price across relatively homogenous classes of goods". This suggests the need for an extended discussion of additional factors, presented in what follows.

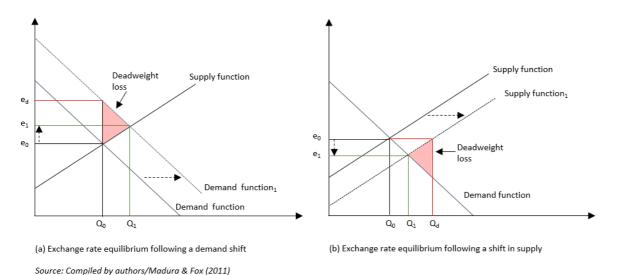
Like for any good or commodity, exchange rates are partly determined by supply and demand. For each possible currency price, there is a corresponding supply and demand to be exchanged with another currency in the money market. When demand for a currency equals its supply, the corresponding price at a specific time is said to be in equilibrium. Demand is affected by factors such as interest rates, inflation, government policy and expectations, while supply is primarily controlled by the central bank (Madura & Fox, 2011).

Given a floating exchange rate regime, shifts in demand (figure 1a) and supply (figure 1b) determine the exchange rate equilibrium. Rising demand for a currency causes a shift in the demand function to the right, as seen in figure (a). Holding currency supply constant, the exchange rate will rise to point e_d creating a deadweight loss⁵, which subsequently causes supply to rise from Q_0 to Q_1 , creating a new, higher equilibrium rate at point e_1 . Similarly, if the market is recognised by excess currency supply (figure b), the supply function will shift to the right, creating a deadweight loss and pressure on the exchange rate to move from e_0 to a new, lower level at e_1 (Madura & Fox, 2011).

In both scenarios, the equilibrium quantity increases. However, an increase in demand would cause the exchange rate to appreciate in value, whereas an increase in supply would cause a depreciation ("Lession 4: Exchange Rates and Supply and Demand," n.d.).

⁵ Deadweight loss represents inefficient allocation, i.e. economic inefficiency in terms of utility (The Economic Times, n.d.-a)





Supply and demand levels, as well as the equilibrium price levels, change continuously. Madura & Fox (2011) argue that these variations can be explained by changes in five macroeconomic variables which

can be summarized in the following function:

 $e = f(\Delta Inflation, \Delta Interest \, rate, \Delta Expetations, \Delta Income, \Delta Government \, control)$

Where;

e is the percentage change in the spot rate

 Δ *Inflation* is the change in inflationary differential between two countries

 Δ *Interest rate* is the change in interest rate differential between two countries

 $\Delta Expectations$ is the change in the future currency value expectations

 Δ *Income* is the change in the income level differential between two countries

 Δ *Government control* is the change in government control

In the following, the above factors will be discussed, as a clear understanding of these macroeconomic variables is crucial going forward. Examples are provided for illustrative purposes, where each factor is analysed independently to demonstrate the impact on the exchange rate under the ceteris paribus assumption.

Inflation

As presented above, inflation is the foundation of the PPP. Inflation represents a sustained rise in the overall price level, i.e. a decline in the value of money (Norges Bank, 2007). General inflation is caused by a fall in the purchasing power (i.e. market value) of money within an economy, in contrast to currency devaluation which represents a fall of the market value of a currency relative to other currencies. Supply disruptions can be another source of inflation. Example of such disruptions can be crop failures driving up commodity prices, war or natural disasters which may restrict the supply of for example crude oil, resulting in higher energy prices (Credan, 2006).

If for example the inflation level in Norway suddenly was to jump relative to the US, the price of Norwegian goods would increase relative to those of the US, assuming goods are substitutes. The higher price level in Norway would cause Norwegian demand for US goods to rise, and consequently increase the demand for US dollars. On the contrary, the US would see Norwegian goods as less attractive due to the relatively higher price level, resulting in lower supply of USD to be exchanged for NOK. Continued rise in Norwegian inflation would cause demand for USD to increase, while supply continues to decrease, illustrated by shifts in both the demand and supply curves, as seen in figure 2 below. The outcome would be a new equilibrium exchange rate at point e₁, in which the Norwegian krone has weakened against the US Dollar, from NOK/USD 8.80 to 9.00 (Madura & Fox, 2011).

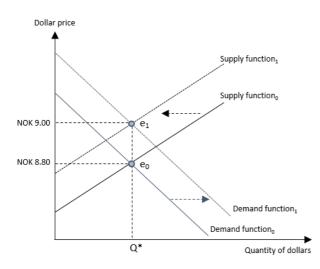


Figure 2 - A rise in the domestic price level will isolated lead to a weakening of the currency

Source: Compiled by authors/Madura & Fox (2011)

Relative interest rates

The Norwegian central bank's main monetary policy instrument is the key interest rate, and the implications of this instrument is illustrated in figure 3. Economies recognized by having well-functioning money- and credit markets will generally experience that changes in the key policy rate⁶ pass relatively fast through to money market rates⁷ (Olsen, 2015). Further, changes in the key rate affect *expectations* concerning its future evolution which is decisive for lending rates, banks' deposits and bond yields. Monetary policy operates through three distinct channels: the demand channel, the exchange rate channel and the expectations channel, illustrated in figure 3 below (Norges Bank, 2004).

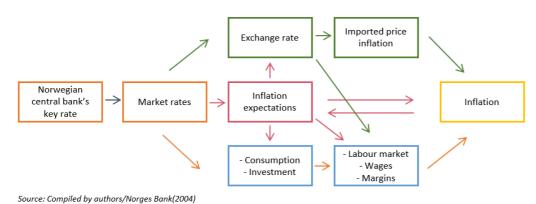
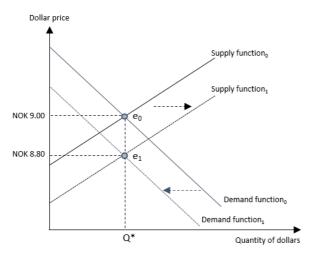


Figure 3 - Changes in the key rate, by the central bank, has widespread implications for economic variables

If Norwegian interest rates suddenly rise relatively to those of the US, investments in Norwegian interest-bearing securities would become relatively more attractive, both from a domestic and foreign investors' perspective. Norwegian investors would likely reduce their demand for US dollars, as domestic rates are seen as more attractive. At the same time US demand for NOK would increase, rising the supply of USD for sale by US investors. Similar to the inflation example presented in figure 2, both the supply and demand curves would shift as seen in figure 4, resulting in a new exchange rate equilibrium. However, in this case the Norwegian krone has strengthened against the USD, from NOK/USD 9.00 to 8.80 (Madura & Fox, 2011).

⁶ The key policy rate is defined by the Norwegian central bank as "[...] the interest rate on banks' reserves up to a specified quota in Norges Bank" (Norges Bank, n.d.-b)

⁷ Money market rates across different maturities are collectively defined as the Norwegian Interbank Offered Rate (NIBOR) (Finans Norge, n.d.)





It is important to emphasize that high interest rates alone cannot be the only factor in currency value determination. If this was the case, the currency offering the highest returns would attract all investments. Hence, other factors must exist that make portfolio managers refrain from investing funds solely in the currency offering the highest return. One such factor relates to the expectations of a potential greater offsetting effect over time, through a fall in the value of the currency with the higher interest rate (Madura & Fox, 2011). Following Irving Fisher, interest rates are a compensation for time, risk and inflation. Assuming that US and Norwegian interest rates have the same time and risk elements, Fisher argues that inflation is the only rational for differences in interest rates. Thus, a portfolio manager should only invest in the high interest currency if he or she expects that the *real interest rate* (interest rate less inflation) is going to be higher in the high interest currency compared to the low interest currency (Madura & Fox, 2011).

Expectations

Market expectations is a third factor influencing exchange rates. Common for efficient financial markets is that they react immediately to news that may affect the future demand and supply. In finance, news is defined as information that differs from expectations. Market expectations can complicate matters, as market reactions depend on whether announcements are in line with expectations or not. For example, an announcement of high inflation in the US can either have a positive, negative or no effect on the dollar value. If the announcement is unexpected, currency traders may start selling dollars, anticipating future depreciation. However, if the high inflation was lower than expected, traders may instead buy dollars as the situation turned out better than expected. Finally, if the announcement is in line with expectations the value of the dollar may remain unchanged (Madura & Fox, 2011).

Source: Compiled by authors/Madura & Fox (2011)

Relative (national) income levels

Relative income levels between countries is a fourth factor affecting exchange rates. The reasoning behind is that a rising/falling income level generally result in higher/lower demand for foreign goods, which consequently has the potential of affecting exchange rates (Madura & Fox, 2011).

Government control

Governments can affect the equilibrium exchange rates through government control. The influence can take place in several ways, including imposing foreign exchange and trade barriers, intervening in the foreign exchange markets through buying and selling currencies, and by affecting macroeconomic variables such as inflation, interest rates and income levels (Madura & Fox, 2011).

In summary, empirical evidence is not always consistent with the above theoretical frameworks on exchange rate determination. Hnatkovska and Lahiri (2008) present empirically that random walk models for exchange rate development usually outperform fundamental-based forecasting models. More specifically, most theories are built on assumptions different from what is experienced in reality, and work well under *ceteris paribus* conditions. This is one of the reasons why the authors seek to further analyse the relation between the oil price and the Norwegian krone. However, as Rogoff (2002) stated: *"No structural model can reliably explain major currency exchange-rate movements after the fact, much less predict them"*, highlighting the empirical difficulties in estimating such a relationship.

3.2 Oil price determination

The development of the thesis' other main variable of interest, the oil price, is sought to be analysed in what follows. The international market for crude oil is complex, and multiple factors are important in the price determination.

Oil is not one single homogenous commodity. Crude oil is refined into petroleum products with various applications. The products are used to fuel vehicles, heat buildings, and produce electricity among others. In the petrochemical industry, petroleum is used to produce products such as plastics, polyurethane, solvents, and other intermediate and finished goods (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2016a). Crudes have a wide range of densities, consistencies and colours, and are also differentiated by their sweetness, which depends on the total sulphate content in the oil⁸. There exist dozens of oil benchmarks, but the price is often pegged to one of three types, representing oil from different parts of the world; *Brent Blend, West Texas Intermediate (WTI)* and *Dubai/Oman* (The Intercontinental Exchange, n.d.) (Fattouh, 2006).

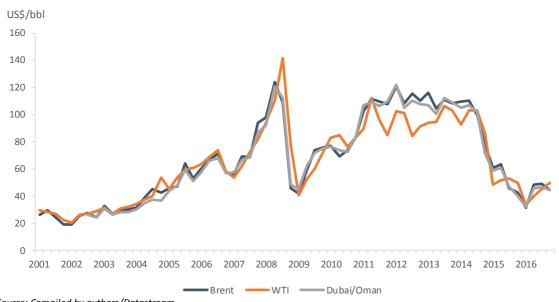


Figure 5 – The oil price benchmarks Brent Blend, WTI and Dubai/Oman have historically been closely related

Source: Compiled by authors/Datastream

Nearly all oil traded outside America and the Far East is priced using Brent Blend (further referred to as Brent Blend or simply Brent) as a benchmark. It is the largest of the well-known oil classifications, and includes numerous measures such as *Brent Crude, Brent Sweet Light Crude, Oseberg* and *Forties*

⁸ In which a total sulfate content level less than 0.5% is considered sweet and the contrary is considered sour (Cummans, 2015)

(Bjørnland, 2008). Brent Blend is a sweet low density crude oil, yet considered to be more sour than WTI. The majority of Brent Blend is produced in the Northwest regions of Europe, especially in Scandinavia, and it originates from four oil fields in the North Sea (Brent, Forties, Oseberg and Ekofisk). WTI is the main benchmark used for oil extracted in the United States, also considered a sweet oil. Dubai/Oman is the benchmark referred to for Persian Gulf crudes sold in the Asia-Pacific market, and consists of heavier, more sour grades of crude oil (The Intercontinental Exchange, n.d.) (Fattouh, 2006). As seen in figure 5 above, the different benchmarks tend to follow each other closely, despite representing different underlying classifications.

The U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) present the six key factors they argue to be most important in oil price determination. These include supply by OPEC and non-OPEC members, demand by OECD and non-OECD members, inventories, and financial markets (U.S. Energy Information Administration, n.d.-a). Figure 6 illustrates how these six factors are interrelated in the price determination process.

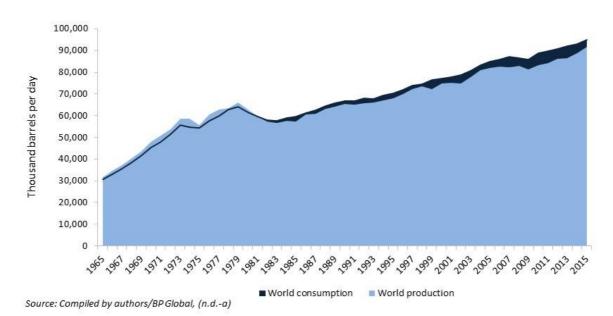


Figure 6 - The six key factors influencing the oil price, according to The U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA)

Source: Compiled by authors/U.S. Energy Information Administration, (n.d.-a)

3.2.1 Supply and demand of oil

As any other commodity, the equilibrium price of oil is fundamentally driven by the relation between supply and demand. Oil is as a high-demand global commodity, and its price fluctuations have widespread economic effects. The figure below presents the smooth uprising historical production and consumption of oil since 1965, and factors behind the development will be elaborated in what follows.





3.2.1.1 Supply

Nations with vast fossil fuel resources are located across the globe, and major oil producing countries may have a stand-alone impact on the supply of oil in the global market. According to British Petroleum (BP) Global, the global oil proved reserves⁹ have increased by 24% the past decade, and suffice for 50.7 years of future production (BP Global, n.d.-c). Global availability of oil has an actual end date, which is likely to affect price formation in the future.

The largest oil producing region is the Middle East, with a 32.4% share of global production in 2015, as illustrated in figure 8 below. Over time, the Middle East has been the dominating production region, and has prior to 2015 produced between 18 and 30% of world oil output. North America, primarily the US,

⁹ Defined as "the estimated quantities of oil which geological and engineering data demonstrate with reasonable certainty to be recoverable in future years from known reservoirs under current economic and operating conditions" (BP Global, n.d.-c)

has increased its share profoundly the past ten years, surpassing Europe and Eurasia in 2014 (BP Global, n.d.-a).

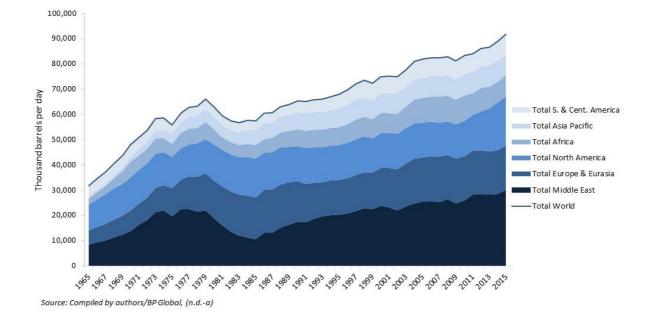
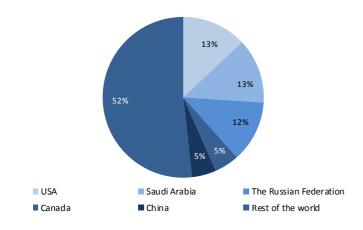


Figure 8 - The Middle East dominates as the world's largest oil producing region

Top five producers by country in 2015 where USA and Saudi Arabia with a share of 13% each, the Russian Federation with a 12.4% share, followed by Canada and China with a share of 4.9% each, as seen in the chart below.

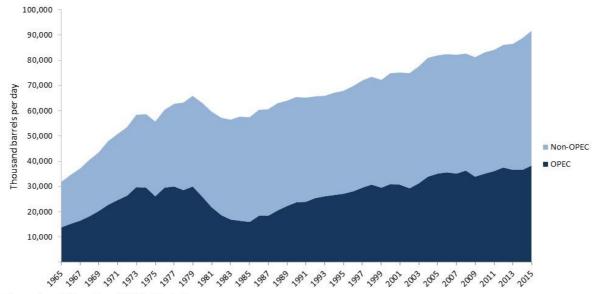




Source: Compiled by authors/BP Global, (n.d.-a)

3.2.1.1.1 Supply by OPEC

The supply of oil has popularly been described in terms of planned production by OPEC and non-OPEC countries. The Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) consists of large oil producing countries across the world, and was created in 1960 by the five founding members Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Venezuela. Later it has been joined by nine other members, namely Qatar, Indonesia¹⁰, Libya, United Arab Emirates, Algeria, Nigeria, Ecuador, Angola and Gabon. Their stated mission is to *"ensure the stabilization of oil markets […]"* (Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries, 2017). The organization regularly sets production targets, which historically has affected crude oil prices, due to its strong impact on world supply. Below is an illustration of historical production figures by OPEC and non-OPEC countries. It is clear that OPEC, with above 40% of world production, influences prices (BP Global, n.d.-a). However, as seen in figure 10, OPECs share of production has declined, due to the US' production of shale oil, among other factors.





Source: Compiled by authors/BP Global, (n.d.-a)

¹⁰ Suspended its membership in Nov 2016 (Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries, 2017).

3.2.1.1.2 Supply by non-OPEC

The Economist argues that the economics of oil began to change around 2014, and state that "[...] oil prices should be less vulnerable to shocks or manipulation" (The Economist, 2014). The reasoning behind is the increased production of shale oil in the United States, making the US a "genuine rival" to Saudi Arabia. The high oil prices experienced after the financial crisis encouraged drillers in the United States to employ *hydraulic fracturing and horizontal drilling techniques (fracking)*, to explore oil from shale formations in states such as North Dakota and Texas. The production of shale oil has been described as a game changer in the global oil markets in the recent past. The United States had a downwards spiralling trend in the amount of oil produced from the 1970s up until 2008, but after the recent revolutionary changes in the production methods, production costs have declined, lowering the breakeven point significantly. The impact of the boom has resulted in a doubling of US crude oil production between 2010 and 2016 (U.S. Energy Information Administration, n.d.-b). Shale oil drilling skyrocketed from having a few hundred productive wells before 2011, to more than 4,000 in 2012, which is more than the total number of oil and gas wells becoming productive the same year in the rest of the world. By year-end 2012, the boom brought about an overall production of over 1.5 million barrels of crude oil per day, starting from nearly zero in 2006 (Maugeri, 2013). *The International Energy Agency* (IEA) predicted an increase in American crude oil production by 45.000 barrels per day in 2012, however the actual increase turned out to be one million barrels per day. This represents one of IEA's biggest forecast mistakes in history, which was built on the perception that the resources were not economically recoverable (Qvale, 2014). Shale oil production has further been described as the key for the United States' ambition of becoming self-sufficient. Thus, the supply side of the equation is now less reliant on the previous dominating oil nation alone, namely Saudi Arabia.

3.2.1.2 Demand

The state of the global economy is an important determinant of oil demand, and it therefore largely influences the price. A higher economic activity leads to stronger demand for products fuelled by oil, which all else equal raises demand. Oil was overall the dominant fuel source in 2015, but the use of oil versus other energy inputs varies greatly across regions. As seen in the figure 11, oil is the dominant energy input in the Americas and Africa, while coal dominates in the Asia Pacific, and natural gas in Europe & Eurasia and the Middle East, according to 2015 figures.

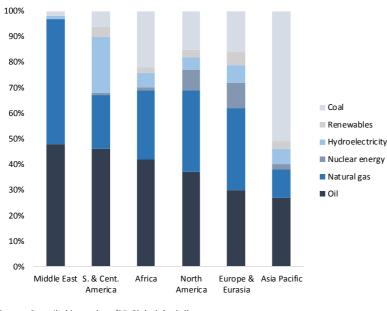


Figure 11 - Oil is the dominant energy source in the Americas and Africa

3.2.1.2.1 Demand by OECD

The *Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)* consists of 35 member countries around the globe, and includes many of the most advanced countries in the world, and to some extent also emerging countries. The OECD countries dominated oil demand until around year 2008, when approximately half of the world's demand came from non-OECD countries, as seen in figure 12. However, the year-on-year consumption growth is much lower in the OECD countries (BP Global, n.d.-a).

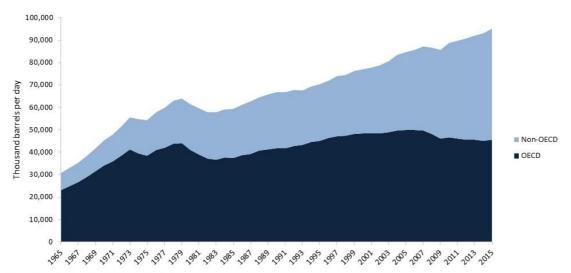
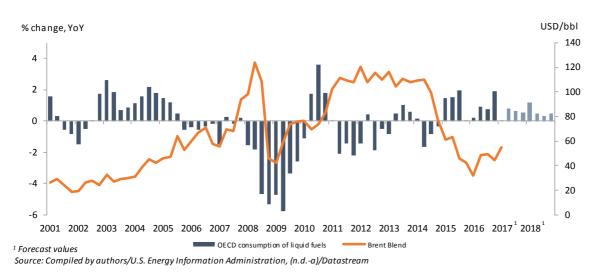


Figure 12 - Energy demand from non-OECD countries is growing at a faster pace than for OECD countries

Source: Compiled by authors/BP Global, (n.d.-a)

Source: Compiled by authors/BP Global, (n.d-d)

Figure 13 illustrates how OECD consumption has developed from 2001, and projection estimates for 2017 and 2018. We see that demand was low during the financial crisis, indicating the lower economic activity in the period. Furthermore, the graph illustrates that lower consumption historically has coincided with rises in the oil price. This price effect on consumption levels has been more prevalent for OECD than for non-OECD countries (U.S. Energy Information Administration, n.d.-a).

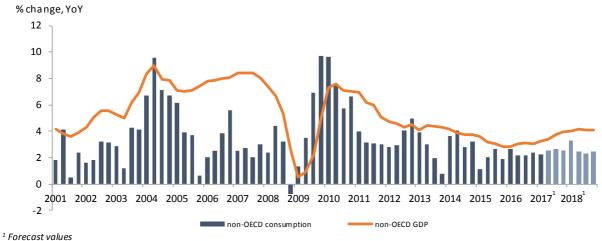


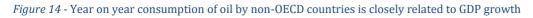


3.2.1.2.2 Demand by non-OECD

Economic growth in non-OECD countries has a great impact on oil consumption. In figure 14, we see that periods recognized by positive year on year GDP growth is associated with rising consumption. Oil consumption has historically experienced positive year-on-year growth, with the exception of the fourth quarter of 2008, associated with the financial crisis (U.S. Energy Information Administration, n.d.-c)

Development of large economies can alone have a great impact, which has been evident with the recent rise of emerging markets. For instance, it has been predicted that China becomes the world's largest energy importer by 2035, with 25% share of global energy demand, up from 12.6% in 2015 (BP Global, n.d.-b).





Source: Compiled by authors/U.S. Energy Information Administration, (n.d.-a)/Datastream

3.2.2 Other supply and demand factors

Geopolitical tensions and instability also have an impact, as this affects the relation between supplying countries as well as the relation between supplier and consumer countries, elaborated in the section 5.4.1 regarding the historical development of the oil price. Geopolitical concerns may spread reasoned or unreasoned fear of damaged oil supply from the relevant regions.

Further, natural disasters in oil producing areas may crimple supply as they can cause destruction of production and distribution. This has historically been seen for example in the aftermaths of natural disasters such as Hurricane Katrina (Cunningham, 2014) and Hurricane Ike (Nichols & Seba, 2008).

Highly relevant is the debate concerning the environmental threats posed by fossil fuels and its implications for ecosystems, human society and economic development. There is currently broad consensus among researchers that humans have played a significant role in global warming, specifically through burning fossil fuels (Cook et al., 2016). Leading researchers argue that renewable energy can replace crude oil as an energy source within a span of 50 to 130 years (Klare, 2015). As societies have gained increased knowledge of the potential environmental damage caused by production and consumption of fossil fuels, the increased demand of more environmentally sustainable energy resources has been evident. Of an overall increase in world energy consumption of 0.95%, there was an increase in the use of renewable sources of 15.24% in 2015 (BP Global, n.d.-a). Through the efforts of the United Nations, the world has reached its first comprehensive climate agreement¹¹, dealing with

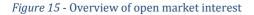
¹¹ The Paris Agreement (United Nations, n.d.)

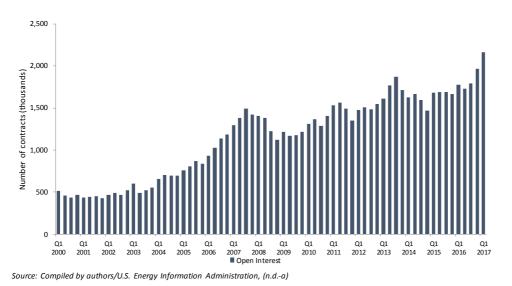
mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions. As the aim is to trigger a shift away from fossil fuels and encourage larger investments in renewable energy, this accordingly may have an impact on the demand for oil. Nevertheless, it is unneglectable that crude oil is an important energy input for the current era.

3.2.3 Additional factors

3.2.3.1 Financial markets

Further, as discussed by Fratzscher et al., (2014), among others, the oil price can be regarded as a financial asset, having the characteristic that its price reflects changes in other assets. It was found empirically that this has been evident since the early 2000s, when trading of oil futures¹² became more popular. More specifically, investors can buy oil futures without physically buying the oil as a commodity. Thus, the prices to be paid in the future are based on supply and demand for the relevant delivery date - and hence depend on expectations of future oil prices. One measure of movements in futures markets is open interest on exchanges, which is defined by IEA as "[...] the number of contracts in a trading session that have not been settled or closed" (U.S. Energy Information Administration, n.d.-a). An overview of the development of open market interest over time is seen in figure 15 below.





Oil futures trading has gained increased interest from both commercial and non-commercial investors, the former being those with a direct interest in the physical oil production, consumption or trade, and the latter being money managers and funds trading for investment purposes. Additionally, investments

¹² Defined as "A futures contract is a contract between two parties where both parties agree to buy and sell a particular asset of specific quantity and at a predetermined price, at a specified date in future." (The Economic Times, n.d.-b).

in crude oil can be done through options trading¹³. This allows the traders to limit their exposure as the potential loss is restricted, and hence functions like an insurance instrument in the case of adverse movements in the commodity prices. However, a lot of ongoing trading activity is not measured by official numbers, as it is done in the less transparent over-the-counter (OTC) market (U.S. Energy Information Administration, n.d.-a).

Market participants form their expectations based on observing market movements such as suppliers' expressed expectations about future production, inventory levels, possibilities of political instability in large consumer and/or producer countries, global demand for oil, as well as perception of changes in other macroeconomic variables thought to affect the availability or price of oil (U.S. Energy Information Administration, n.d.-a).

3.2.3.2 Inventories (balance)

During periods of overproduction, crude oil can be stored for expected future use, and hence increase inventories. On the contrary, in periods recognized by over-demand, inventories can be drawn on to supplement current production. In other words, inventories can be said to act as the balancing point between supply and demand (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2016b). Information on inventory levels is needed for long-term planning by governments and larger companies, due to the necessity of ensuring adequate supplies to meet demand. The markets react rapidly to announcements of expected inventories, which is information provided by large energy bureaus such as the American Petroleum Institute, EIA, IEA and BP Global (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2016b).

¹³ Defined as "A contract permitting the option buyer the right, without obligation, to buy or sell an underlying asset in the form of a commodity, such as precious metals, oil, or agricultural products, at a designated price until a designated date." (Business Dictionary, n.d.)

Figure 16 below illustrates that declining inventory levels historically have tended to go hand-in-hand with rising one month futures prices, i.e. declining futures spread (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2016b). The futures spread is defined as the price of twelve month's oil futures contract less the price of the next month's contracts. Generally, the more positive the spread, the higher the incentive to expand inventories.

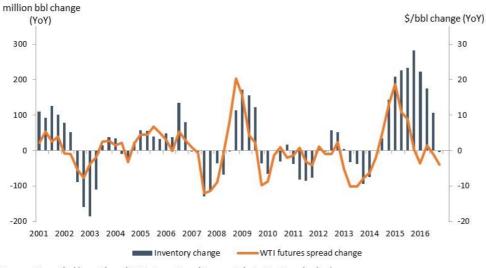


Figure 16 - Increases in future relative to current oil prices tends to go hand-in-hand with inventory changes

Source: Compiled by authors/U.S. International Energy Administration, (n.d.-a)

4. The Norwegian economy at a glance

The Norwegian economy is recognized by high GDP per capita and high standards of living (OECD, 2016). According to the World Bank, Norway was ranked as number four in the world in terms of GDP per capita in 2015 (World Bank, n.d.).

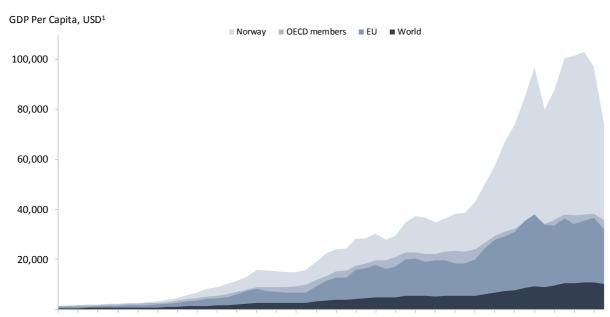


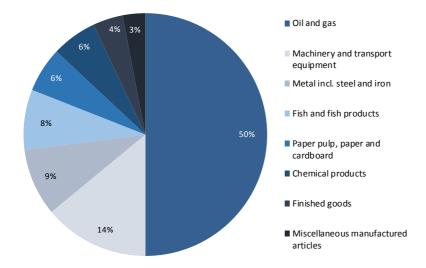
Figure 17 - Norwegian GDP per capita has steeply risen since the oil discoveries in the 1960s

1960 1963 1966 1969 1972 1975 1978 1981 1984 1987 1990 1993 1996 1999 2002 2005 2008 2011 2014 ¹ Current US Dollars

Source: Compiled by authors/World Bank, (n.d.)

The structure of the Norwegian economy has changed radically the past 60 years. Prior to the discovery of commercially viable oil in the North Sea during the 1960s, Norway was primarily a shipping, fishery and agricultural nation, with the majority of the population employed within these industries. Since the discoveries and subsequent rise in oil prices in the world markets, the traditional sectors have withdrawn, and the oil industry has become the dominating industry in the Norwegian economy. Illustratively, before the first oil was extracted in Norway in 1971, the country's GDP per capita was lower than the average for western countries, as illustrated in the figure above. Oil and gas exports account for approximately 25% of GDP, and about 50% of total exports (OECD, 2016).

Figure 18 - Oil and gas dominates Norwegian exports



Source: Compiled by authors/Government.no (2015)

Impressive standards of living have further been achieved by thorough management of the oil revenues via the sovereign wealth fund and the associated fiscal rule, which will be described further in the following section. The Norwegian state has large ownership interests in various business sectors, although a trend towards privatization has been seen in recent years (Globalis, 2016). Being characterized as a small open economy, Norway is highly dependent on, as well as influenced by, its main trading partners. The economy has become more open to foreign labour, especially from other European Economic Area (EEA) countries¹⁴, which has further supported economic activity and reduced the possibility of overheating (OECD, 2016). Despite the increased dependency on foreign economies, the global financial crisis that hit the world economy in 2008 affected the Norwegian Economy to a lower extent compared to most other advanced economies, and the contrast between the Norwegian and other European countries' economies has been more prevailing since the crisis (Norges Bank, 2017a). According to figures published by OECD, the fall in Norwegian GDP was less than 1.5% in 2009, compared to the Eurozone average of 4%. Employment was maintained at a healthy level, and it was evaluated that the crisis handling in Norway was particularly good (Gustavson, 2011).

¹⁴ The EU member states and the three EEA European Free Trade Organization (EFTA) states; Iceland, Liechtenstein, and Norway (EFTA, n.d.)

4.1 Fiscal framework

The nature of the Norwegian economy's dependence on oil revenues could in theory present challenges to ensure stable economic development. In many countries, temporary large natural resource incomes have produced short run booms followed by adjustment difficulties and diminishing revenues. In Norway, the establishment of *The Government Pension Fund Global* (the sovereign wealth fund), and the implementation of The Government Pension Fund Act (the fiscal rule), are two crucial factors contributing to stable public sector revenues (Government.no, 2015). The former is a government handled fund, administered by Norges Bank Investment Management on behalf of the Ministry of Finance, in which public petroleum revenues have been accumulated since 1990. Despite its name, it has no formal pension liabilities, and it was constructed to provide the government with room for manoeuvre in its fiscal policy in a presence of a contraction of the mainland economy or a drop in oil prices. The current size of the fund is approximately double the size of Norwegian mainland GDP (Akram & Mumtaz, 2016), and it has had a yearly return since 1998 of 5.6%¹⁵ (Norges Bank Investment Management (NBIM), n.d.-b). The fund is managed such that investments are made up of a diversified mixture of international equity, fixed income and real estate (Norges Bank Investment Management (NBIM), n.d.-a). The Government Pension Fund Act is an operational fiscal policy rule established in 2001, stating that all oil revenues are transferred to the sovereign wealth fund. An annual average of the expected real return of the fund, estimated at 4%, is to be invested abroad, with the purpose of leaving the fund capital untouched (Alstadheim, 2016). The purpose of the fiscal rule is to ensure that the petroleum wealth will benefit future generations, and to even out economic fluctuations (Government.no, 2015).

4.2 Monetary policy regimes

Norway joined the Bretton Woods system of fixed exchange rates in 1946, which entailed that the NOK was to maintain a par value in terms of gold towards the pound and the US dollar. The system collapsed in 1971, and was followed by a new fixed exchange rate system known as the Smithsonian Agreement. In 1972, Norway joined the European "snake in the tunnel" monetary cooperation¹⁶, which further limited the fluctuations of the NOK relative to the European currencies. The Smithsonian Agreement broke down in 1973, but the commitment to the "snake" continued until 1978. At this time, the krone was linked to a trade weighted basket of currencies, with various adjustments of the target introduced until the decision was made to peg the krone to the European currency unit (ECU) in October 1990. The

¹⁵ Measured in the fund's basket of currencies. The return was 3.7% after subtraction of administrative costs and inflation. ¹⁶ A monetary cooperation that attempted to "[...] limit fluctuations between various European currencies and eventually, create a single currency band for the European Economic Community" (Kilic, 2013)

link of the krone to the European Monetary System (EMS) through the ECU peg was maintained until the krone underwent such pressure that the fixed scheme was abandoned in December 1992. A *managed* float was maintained until the introduction of the Euro in 1999, when the Norwegian central bank started to use the new currency as an indicator for European currencies. The central bank although describes that the *real* floating exchange rate period did not begin until 1997 (Bernhardsen & Røisland, 2000).

From January 1999, the Norwegian central bank employed *de facto*¹⁷ inflation targeting parallel to the takeover of Svein Gjedrem as the governor of the bank. In March 2001 two important changes were introduced; de jure¹⁸ inflation targeting with a floating exchange rate regime replacing the managed float, and the introduction of the fiscal rule, as discussed in section 4.1. (Alstadheim, 2016). According to prominent monetary policy researchers, the flexible inflation regime has been characterized as close to if not the best practice (Akram & Mumtaz, 2016).

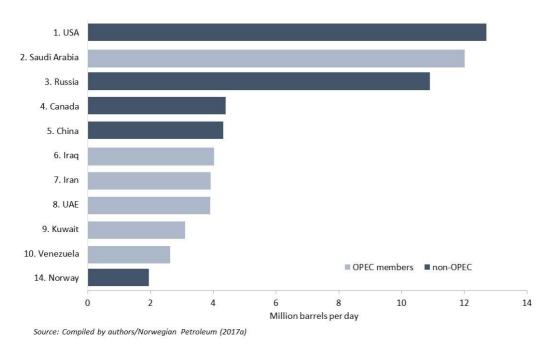
4.3 Effects of oil price changes for the Norwegian economy

As oil has become a major influencer in the world economy, it has been prevalent how significant changes in the oil price alters the wealth of nations. The positive oil price development prevailing from the beginning of the millennium until pre-financial crisis times provided oil exporters with large current account surpluses, raised the interest in these countries, and thus the demand for the respective currencies (Habib & Kalamova, 2007). The effect of changes in the oil price for different economies depend on factors such as the dependency of the oil, the amount of imports and exports, and the cost of exploring different fields for producing countries.

The petroleum production is currently Norway's largest industry measured in value creation, state income, investments and export value (Norwegian Petroleum, 2017b). According to the Norwegian Petroleum Directorate, Norway was ranked as the 14th largest oil producing country in the world in 2015, ranging below large economies such as the US, Saudi Arabia, Russia, Canada and China, as seen in figure 19. Norway supplies approximately 2% of global crude oil consumption, and the value of exported crude oil was NOK 186bn in 2016 (Norwegian Petroleum, 2017a).

¹⁷ Exchange rate regime in operation by the central bank (Bermúdez, n.d.)

¹⁸ Exchange rate regime officially declared by central banks to the IMF (Bermúdez, n.d.)





The krone exchange rate development and the oil price are of high importance in the interest rate setting due to its influence on inflation and output (Norges Bank, 2017a). Simplified, the relationship between the variables is as follows in the short run; a decline in the oil price may give rise to expectations of a weaker economy, and lower interest rates. This leads to lower demand for the Norwegian krone, and thus a weakening of its value, as foreign investors are not incentivized to keep their holdings in NOK denominated securities. As the krone weakens, imported goods become more expensive than national goods, which further leads to imported inflation (Lie, 2016). Since the inflation targeting regime was introduced in 2001, the Norwegian economy has been exposed to several shocks, being both large and persistent (Norges Bank, 2017a). These include the financial crisis starting in 2008 and the significant oil price drop in 2014, among others.

Bjørnland (1998) investigated whether the so called "Dutch disease"¹⁹ affected the Norwegian economy as was the case with the Dutch economy after its natural gas discoveries in the 1960s. In the Netherlands, the gas discoveries had adverse effects on the manufacturing sector through an appreciation of the real exchange rate, and thus made it a less competitive sector in terms of exports. According to Bjørnland, the manufacturing industry in Norway actually benefited from the Norwegian natural resource discoveries and subsequent rising oil prices. Bjørnland explains that the conduction of macroeconomic

¹⁹ A discovery of a natural resource that has harmful consequences for traditional industries in the country (Rutherford, 1992)

policy affects the result of an oil price shock to an oil exporting country. In Norway, cautious subsidies were made to maintain output from the manufacturing industry regardless of the changes in the oil sector, which resulted in maintaining low unemployment, as compared to for example the UK where the oil revenues were spent on paying off existing external debt and social security (Bjørnland, 1998).

In newer times, research has been conducted on the effect of the 2014 oil price drop for the Norwegian economy. The Norwegian government income fell by 30% from 2014 to 2015, mainly related to the fall in the oil price during the same period. Output growth slowed, following the depression of oil-related activity. Investments related to the petroleum sector started decreasing already in 2012, but showed a continuing downward trend from mid-2014. The initial investment downfall stemmed from the fact that multiple large projects were completed, as well as cost-reduction campaigns were carried out. Unemployment rose to above 4% in early 2015, compared to average of 3.34% the preceding 12 quarters (OECD, n.d.-c). However, declining interest rates, an expansionary fiscal policy, as well as rising housing wealth boosted consumption, and the resulting depreciation of the exchange rate strengthened Norway's competitive position. There was a rising trend in mainland exports²⁰, and better prospects for exports within manufacturing. A report from OECD summarises the above in the following manner "[...] the substantial oil-price falls since 2014 have been a reminder of Norway's exposure to external risks and consequently the importance of a flexible and competitive mainland economy" (OECD, 2016).

For Western oil companies, the effect of a price drop is large, as the North Sea inhabits expensive and maturing fields (Oil and Gas UK, 2016), through high-cost drillings projects such as deep water drilling or drilling in the Arctic. This is seen in comparison to countries such as Saudi Arabia where the cost of drilling is much lower, and thus also the vulnerability (The Economist Explains, 2014). Data presented by Rystad Energy shows that the total cost of producing one barrel of crude oil is almost four times higher for Norway compared to Saudi Arabia, equalling \$36.10 and \$9.90, respectively (Kristopher, 2016a).

²⁰ Exports, excluding oil and shipping (OECD, n.d.-a)

5. Data presentation

5.1 Variable choices

For the purpose of this thesis, daily observations are the desired frequency for all variables, as fluctuations in the variables of interest may occur from one day to another. Also, a large number of observations would be lost if the analyses were to be conducted on monthly, quarterly or yearly data, which potentially could make the results less robust, all else equal. The authors' choice of nominal exchange rates in favour of real exchange rates stems from the fact that the analysed exchange rates are intended to be directly relatable to those discussed in the media. Furthermore, the desired use of daily data restricts the availability of variables necessary to deflate nominal variables, such as inflation measures, which are published on monthly basis.

5.1.1 Exchange rates

No single exchange rate exists as it depends on the currency against which it is measured. For the purpose of the thesis it has been chosen to analyse the nominal effective krone exchange rate, I44, as well as exchange rate pair NOK/USD. The relevance of the I44 stems from the fact that it represents the value of the Norwegian krone relative to the currencies of Norway's 44 most important trading partners, calculated as a geometric average weighted by the amount of imports from the respective trading partners (Norges Bank, 2003). The Norwegian krone can appreciate against the dollar and depreciate against the Euro simultaneously. Due to this, I44 can be used as representation of the international value of the krone, as it is a measure of the value of the krone against a basket of currencies (Bernhardsen & Røisland, 2000). An increase in the I44 index equals a depreciation of the nominal effective krone exchange rate, also referred to as a depreciation of the Norwegian krone. The USD has been chosen due to its relevance as the most traded currency in the world (Desjardins, 2016)) and due to the fact that the price of Brent Blend is quoted in USD. A rise in the NOK/USD exchange rate implies a depreciation of the NOK.

5.1.2 Oil price

The thesis makes use of the Brent Blend as representative for the oil price. As discussed in section 3.2, the Brent Blend oil price represents the price of oil from the North Sea and is therefore viewed as the most relevant price for Norwegian oil (Finansdepartementet, n.d.). This is also in accordance to previous literature published by the Norwegian central bank (Akram, 2002a; Bjørnland, 2008). Some research finds that there exist seasonal aspects in the oil price, as prices have historically tended to rise during the summer season and fall with some consistency towards mid-September and October (Kristopher,

2016b). According to econometric theory, the ignorance of any calendar phenomena in the model building can potentially lead to a miss-specified model (Brooks, 2008). Due to the daily nature of the data, leading to the inclusion of more than 3500 observations, as well as technical limitations of statistical programming software, the authors believe that the ability to capture these effects are limited, and entails ignorance of this aspect.

5.1.3 Control variables

According to the economic theories presented in the theory section, as well as the research presented in the literature review, a vast number of variables may have an influence on the relation between exchange rates and the price of oil. Variables of interest in modelling exchange rates may include, the consumer price index, interest rates, GDP growth and government control, expenditures and deficits, among others.

Certain control variables have been omitted from the main analyses as they are most frequently reported on a monthly or quarterly basis. To account for this, a robustness check will be conducted in section 7, in order to include variables that occur on a monthly basis. For the main part of the empirical analyses we have included interest rates and interest rate differentials, as commonly used in exchange rate literature, see (Akram, 2002a), (Bernhardsen & Røisland, 2000) and (Ellen & Martinsen, 2016). These variables also correspond to the theory of Madura & Fox (2011) described in section 3.1.1.

As a representative for the interest rate level, the thesis makes use of three month money market rates for the relevant currencies; NIBOR and LIBOR USD (Bjørnstad & Jansen, 2007). The money market rates are adopted due to their characteristic as the key policy rate plus a risk premium added according to the individual credit ratings of the countries. Thus, the rate will capture the individual economic uncertainty for the relevant geographic areas. The three month maturity is adopted due to its characteristic as being the most commonly quoted (Investopedia, n.d.). NIBOR (Norwegian Interbank Offered Rate) is a collective term for Norwegian money market rates with different maturities, based on an average of the rates at which a panel of banks are willing to lend to each other. The rates should reflect the interest rate level a lender demands for an unsecured loan in NOK with delivery in two days (spot) (Oslo Børs, 2014). LIBOR (London Interbank Offered Rates) is the similar rate based on some of the world's leading banks, and is based on five currencies; USD, EUR, GBP, JPY and CHF²¹. LIBOR and EURIBOR are the primary benchmarks of short-term interest rates around the world (Zibel, 2008).

²¹ USD = Unites States Dollar, GBP = Great Britain Pounds, JPY = Japanese Yen, CHF = Swiss Franc (Norges Bank, 2017b).

Interest rates in relation to the I44 variable should ideally be computed as the weighted average of the trading partners interest rates, with identical countries and weights as those contained in the I44 index. However, in practice this entails difficulties due to availability of data. For simplicity and feasibility, an aggregated interest rate has therefore been calculated as a weighted average of the most important trading partners, following the Norwegian central bank (Ellen & Martinsen, 2016). Annually, the central bank publishes an overview of the weights used to calculate the I44 index. The top seven countries in this list make up around 80% of the weights in the I44 index, which is why these countries have been chosen. The relevant annual weights have been rescaled such that the relative importance of each country remains the same, which can be seen in appendix 1. Countries included yearly vary somewhat, resulting in a long list of currencies including: EUR, SEK, USD, GBP, DKK, JPY, CAD, PLN and KRW²². It should be noted that Chinese interest rate has been excluded due to the lack of data availability. China has become one of Norway most important trading partners in later years, however, inclusion of Chinese interest rates would imply a loss of 1996 observations. We view this cost higher than the benefit of inclusion.

The price of Brent Blend is retrieved from Thomson Reuters Datastream, all exchange rates are retrieved from the Norwegian central bank, while interest rates are retrieved from Bloomberg.

5.2 Logarithmic transformation and treatment of extreme values

The use of natural logarithmic transformation is common in economic time series. Firstly, logtransformation makes variance more constant by rescaling the variables (Brooks, 2008). Secondly, transformed data is more likely to satisfy linearity assumptions. Thirdly, log-transformation provide results which are easy to interpret (Koop, 2005). The following provides an example:

$$\ln(Y) = \alpha + \beta \ln(X) + \varepsilon \qquad (Eq. 5.1)$$

Where $\ln(Y)$ is the natural logarithm of the random variable *Y*, α is a constant, β is the coefficient on the explanatory variable *X*, and $\ln(X)$ is the natural logarithm of *X*. In equation 5.1 above, β can be interpreted as the elasticity of Y with respect to X. When working with the logarithm of both the dependent and the independent variables, we can say that *"Y tends to change by* β % *following a one percent change in X"*, in contrast to *unit* changes when working with non-log-transformed variables. Hence, issues related to unit measurement is ignored, all results can now be interpreted as elasticities.

²² EUR = Euro, SEK = Swedish Krona, DKK = Danish Krone, CAD = Canadian Dollar, PLN = Polish Zloty, KRW = South Korean Won (Norges Bank, 2017b).

An additional beneficial feature of working with logs is in relation to time series data, where a percentage change in a variable is approximately $100 * [ln(Y_t) - ln(Y_{t-1})]$. The latter part of the fraction is defined as the first difference of Y. This transformation enables us to interpret results as percentage changes²³ (Koop, 2005).

Mathematical difficulties arise in log-transformation when variables contain negative values (Sydsæther, Hammond, & Strøm, 2012). The I44 and EURIBOR²⁴ interest rate variables exhibit negative values in the time period from June 2016 and April 2015 respectively. There exist solutions such as translating and transforming the data, or treating negative observations as missing values. The former method has been criticized by practicing statisticians, as the method entails adding an arbitrary constant to the data. The latter is also avoided as it would yield missing observations for a highly relevant period in the time series (Wicklin, 2011).

In what follows, the expression "level" will be used to characterise variables that are both on logarithmic and non-logarithmic form, in contrast to variables that are transformed by first-differencing. Additionally, the description *log* is used to characterize the natural logarithm. For example, the natural logarithm of the price of Brent is presented as logBrent.

5.3 Choice of analysis period

The thesis is based on daily data covering the period 01-01-2001 to 31-12-2016. The start date is set to include the Norwegian economy's monetary regime shift towards the current, as well as the introduction of the Euro as a currency. The dataset contains 3595 observations, as all weekends and non-trading days are excluded. The number of trading days varies somewhat in different countries. Therefore, the variable with the fewest observations serves as the upper limit, and all other observations are matched accordingly.

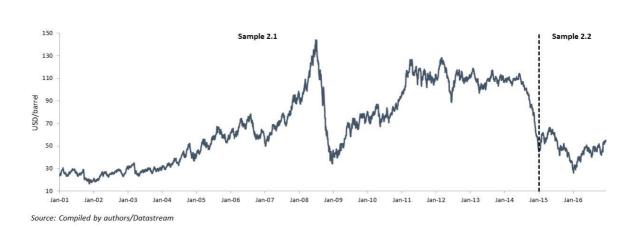
5.3.1 Subsamples

As expressed in the problem statement, the authors have an interest in investigating whether the relation between the exchange rates and oil price has changed in recent years. To be more explicit, the time series will be split in subsamples to investigate whether the results are robust across different periods.

²³ Note that in section 6.4 and 6.5, the first differencing and logarithm transformation is conducted without multiplying by 100 in order to avoid imbalance in the first step of the two-step Engle-Granger estimation.

²⁴ This also applies for the CPI variables introduced in robustness analysis presented in section 7.

The chosen subsets are first of all the following two; sample 2.1 (01-01-2001 until 13-01-2015) and sample 2.2 (14-01-2015 until 30-12-2016). The reason for this split is the interest of seeing whether the relation between the oil price and the exchange rates have changed after the major downturn in the price of Brent during 2014. The split implies that sample 2.1 represents the longer period before and including the oil price downfall, while sample 2.2 represents the short period after the price stabilized in 2015, illustrated in figure 20.





Furthermore, the analysis will be conducted on a three-part subset; sample 3.1 (01-01-2001 until 03-07-2008), sample 3.2 (4-7-2008 until 13-01-2015) and sample 3.3 (14-01-2015 until 30-12-2016). The latter is identical to sample 2.2, and is hereafter referred to as sample 2.2. This split will allow for investigation of two stable subsets, 3.1 and 3.3, and 3.2 which is more volatile. Thus, it will be used as a method for eliminating noise and volatility in the data, and checking the robustness of the analysis across subsamples which exhibit very different characteristics.

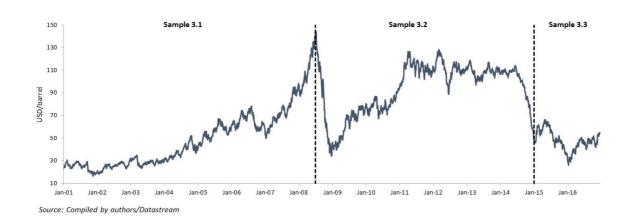


Figure 21 - Sample 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 divide between pre-and post-financial crisis, as well as pre and post oil price collapse

The following table summarizes all samples to be analysed:

Sample	Start date	End date	# of obs.	Brent oil price characteristics during the period
Full	01-01-2001	31-12-2016	3595	Includes all observations
2.1	01-01-2001	13-01-2015	3150	Covers period until the bottom was reached following the 2014 oil price drop
2.2 (Identical to 3.3)	14-01-2015	31-12-2016	445	Stable period after bottom was reached following the 2014 oil price drop
3.1	01-01-2001	03-07-2008	1676	Period until the oil price peaked in July 2008
3.2	04-07-2008	13-01-2015	1474	Volatile period including financial crisis and 2014 oil price drop

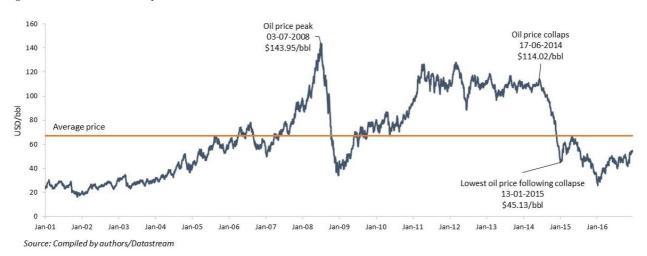
Table 1 – The thesis is split in five subsamples to analyse for changes over time

5.4 Historical development of key variables

In what follows, the historic development of the oil price as well as the chosen exchange rates will be explored, with the purpose of highlighting possible reasons for the prevalent movements. It is important to emphasize that relations that may appear obvious in the charts may not always have been as clearcut in reality. Further, the description of correlation and possible causality between variables is not based on statistical methods, but rather a comprehensive research of second hand sources.

5.4.1 Historical development of the oil price

As portrayed in the time series plot of the oil price development the past 16 years, presented in figure 22.





The rising price between 2001 and 2006 was most likely mainly driven by the world's increasing demand for oil as an energy resource, cf. section 3.2.1.2. In August 2006 the price broke the prior psychological barrier of \$60 per barrel, and by mid-2006 the oil price reached an all-time record of \$79/bbl. Geopolitically, global tensions from North Korea's missile launch (Schienberg, 2006), the ongoing Iraq war as well as unrest between Israel and Lebanon, spread fears of disturbances in supply, which may have driven the prices upwards.

The decline in crude oil prices from mid-2006 until year-end were among other factors caused by overflowing oil inventories, milder weather conditions in the winter season as well as disbelief in OPECs statement of cutting production (Hargreaves, 2006).

From the end of 2006 until prior financial crisis times, the prices saw a sharper rise. Dominating factors were assessed to be geopolitical tensions in Turkey, generating fears that supplies could be threatened,

as well as a weakening of the dollar caused by distress over the strength of the US economy (BBC News, 2007). In June 2008, specific events were among others the possibility of an Israeli attack on Iran due do Iran's lack of abandonment of its nuclear program. This was highly important as Iran was, and still is, among the top three producers within OPEC (Mouawad, 2008). Crude prices reached an all-time high on the 3rd of July 2008, at the price of \$143.95 per barrel. However, the price rise was described as puzzling to investors as there was oversupply in the market and evidence of lower demand in industrialized countries.

Following the surge was the massive collapse in financial markets after Lehman Brothers declaration of bankruptcy in September 2008. Crude oil prices hit a seven-month low due to the fear of slowdown in demand as the recession became deeper (Saefong & Lesova, 2008). In December 2008, the prices hit a low point at \$34 per barrel, which had not been experienced since end July 2004. Between July and December 2008, the price fell by almost \$110 per barrel, an equivalent of 75.5 percent.

Primary causes of price rises in January 2009 were increased tension at the Gaza strip (BBC News, 2009). This was followed by concerns about the future of the European economy, high oil inventories and a strong dollar, causing temporary lower prices in May 2010.

A volatile price development is seen until the major drop in June 2014. Contributing factors were such as political turmoil in the Middle East and North Africa, inhabiting large oil reserves (Rooney, 2011). In 2012, prices saw an uprising trend after the approval of a bailout plan for Greece, a rise in money supply in China as well as Iran's announcement to end petroleum sales to British and French companies.

The first six months of 2014, prices were pushed upwards by the dispute in Crimea, further troubles in the Middle East, and lower supplies of US petroleum (Gorondi, 2014a). In October, Brent dropped due to a strong dollar, as well as decreased overall demand, and the hitting effects of the surge in US production from shale oil reserves. In January 2015, the oil price hit its lowest since 2009, at \$45/bbl (Isidore, 2014).

During 2015, the prices saw a rise following troubling geopolitical situations in the Middle East and Ukraine, which again caused risk of reduced oil supplies (Gorondi, 2014b). These movements were followed by prices surging to record lows that had not been experienced since the financial crisis. Contributing factors were the IEA's pronounced predictions of high future oil supplies, Middle Eastern countries oversupplying the market, the expectation of Iran to increase their supply as a result of the

nuclear agreement²⁵ and slow growth in China (Krishnan & Samanta, 2015). In December 2015, OPECs president expressed that OPEC would take a "wait and watch approach", and that OPEC members would keep current production levels stable (CNBC, 2015).

During 2016, the price has seen a slight recovery to mid-2015 levels, at around \$50 per barrel. At the beginning of the year, prices dropped as supplies rose, due to increased shale production and rising production by OPEC. Prices saw a recovery after OPEC tried to work together with non-OPEC members on a plan to freeze production, although the initial talks never led through. Cuts from North American producers also had a positive effect on the price. Although, as prices saw sharper recoveries, North American companies regained confidence to increase well investments, resulting in a stabilisation of the price. In November, prices saw an upswing, as OPEC members agreed on production cuts, as well as persuaded non-OPEC members to reduce their output as well (DiLallo, 2016). Nevertheless, such announcements need to be followed through for the agreement to work, although the market expectations alone manifested in price reactions.

5.4.2 Historical development of the currency pairs

The most important drivers for the value of the NOK are argued to be the oil price, interest rate expectations, volatility in financial markets as well as Norwegian macroeconomic development relative to expectations (Hovde, 2016).

5.4.2.1 Description of NOK against USD

By looking at the time series plot of the NOK/USD exchange rate, we can see that the NOK strengthened against the USD between 2001-2008. The interest rate differential between NIBOR and LIBOR USD increased from 2001 until it peaked in November 2002, due to the NIBOR rate fluctuating around 7% while the LIBOR USD dropped from below 6% to 2%. Following this, the differential exhibited a falling trend towards March 2006, as Norwegian interest rate cuts were made to boost the economy. Between December 2002 and March 2004, the Norwegian key rate was reduced by a total of 5.25 percentage points, landing at 1.75 % (Norges Bank, n.d.-a). As discussed, changes in the key rate are proven to have substantial spill over effects on money market rates, which further affect the foreign exchange market (Bernhardsen, 2012). Lower interest rates make it more attractive to borrow and less favourable to invest in the Norwegian krone, resulting in a depreciation of the currency, all else equal.

²⁵ On April 2nd 2015 Iran and world powers reached an agreement that would lift most sanctions in exchange for Iran limiting its nuclear program (Charbonneau & Nebehaym, 2017).





Falling stock market prices from 2000-2002 led investors to become more cautious and less optimistic about positive stock market returns. As stock market prices dropped, investors wished to invest a higher fraction of their portfolios in interest-bearing securities. The Norwegian krone was perceived as attractive due to a positive, and occasionally high, interest rate differential (Naug, 2003). Accordingly, the Norwegian krone strengthened relative to the dollar. From 1999 until 2006, USA experienced increasing trade deficits²⁶, which may have led to an increase in the demand for other currencies than USD, and thus a weakening of their currency (World Bank, 2017). The price of oil has, as discussed, exhibited an upwards rising trend until the financial crisis, which may have caused increasing demand for NOK.



Figure 24 - Historical development of the NOK/USD exchange rate and interest rate differential (NIBOR-LIBORUSD)

In April 2008, the NOK reached its strongest value since the 1970s, quoted at 4.96 NOK/USD. The NOK experienced a drop in value relative to the USD during the financial crisis and a more stable development was evident between 2009-2014, followed by depreciation from the beginning of 2014 and onwards.

²⁶ In terms of Balance of Payment (BoP) (World Bank, 2017).

The development in the Brent price followed a similar pattern, substantiating the frequently stated theoretical and empirical relationship between the two variables. During the summer of 2014, the oil price began to drop substantially due to the unexpected high supply, particularly by the US, as discussed in section 3.2.1.1. The USD appreciated against the NOK and other currencies, and at year-end 2014 it was speculated whether the Euro and USD would experience a one-to-one relationship (Norges Bank, 2017b). During this period, the US experienced lower interest rates than Norway, although the interest rate differential showed a downward trend since November 2008, which contributed to the strengthening of the NOK until 2014.

5.4.2.2 Description of the nominal effective krone exchange rate, I44

Describing the specific events that has impacted the development in the I44 effective exchange rate is not straight forward, as there are multiple currency pairs underlying the index value. Further, an explanation of the I44 development should include a consideration of the main events affecting the currency pair NOK/EUR²⁷, as the Euro countries have been Norway's most important trading partners throughout the investigated sample period, accounting for between approximately 32% and 39% of the weighted I44 index. It should also be noted that the USD historically has accounted for between 5% and 7% of the weights, and that the events described for this currency pair also influence the value of the I44 index.

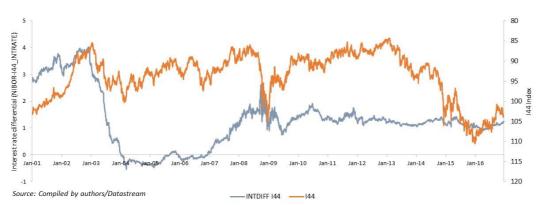


Figure 25 - Historical development of the effective krone exchange rate, I44, and Brent Blend

²⁷ The Euro was launched as a common currency within the EU Economic and Monetary Union January 1st 1999 as a virtual currency for accounting purposes and cash-less payments. January 1st 2002 banknotes and coins were taken into use. It is the official currency of 19 out of 28 EU member countries collectively known as the Eurozone. The Euro is the second most important international currency after the US dollar, and is managed by the independent European central Bank (Europa.eu, n.d.).

In the years prior to the financial crisis, the nominal effective krone exchange rate strengthened gradually²⁸. Specifically, the value of the NOK against the Euro reached a historical high in January 2003 after appreciating since the introduction of the Euro in 1999. The stronger NOK can among other factors be explained by the increasing interest rate differential between the NIBOR and EURIBOR until early 2003. From January 2003 the NOK began to depreciate, which can be partly explained by the narrowed interest rate differential resulting from monetary policy easing. As mentioned above, the interest rate differential between NIBOR and foreign money market rates dropped substantially between December 2002 and March 2004, due to the significant cuts carried out by the Norwegian central bank.

Figure 26 - Historical development of the effective krone exchange rate, I44, and the interest rate differential (NIBOR-I44 interest rate)



When the oil price dropped in July 2008, the NOK depreciated substantially against the currencies of Norway's major trading partners. The lowest value of the NOK was reached on December 22nd the same year, when the I44 index was quoted at 104.95²⁹. In the same period the Norwegian krone depreciated strongly against the Euro, at its highest quoted at 9.95 NOK/EUR on December 29th 2008. As previously described, the global financial crisis affected the Norwegian economy to a lower extent compared to most other advanced economies. Several reasons contributed to this; Norway's economy was in an upturn when the crisis hit, unemployment was at an all-time low, inflation was slightly above target and the key interest was somewhat higher than its normal levels. Additionally, the depreciation of the NOK during 2008 supported inflation and improved competitiveness through rising exports (Norges Bank, 2017a).

In the aftermath of the financial crisis, the NOK appreciated steadily with an associated development in the oil price as a possible part of the explanation. The Euro countries suffered from a severe debt crisis,

²⁸ An increase in the index equals a depreciation of the nominal effective krone exchange rate, also referred to as a depreciation of the NOK or the Norwegian krone.

²⁹ Its highest value

high unemployment, and plunging credit ratings, possibly explaining a lower trust in the EUR (Gustavson, 2011).

During the winter of 2013, the I44 exchange rate reached its strongest level since before 1986, resulting from a gradual appreciation following the crisis years. The Norwegian central bank explains the strengthening by improved terms of trade as well as a positive interest rate differential against other countries, seen in figure 24 (Norges Bank, 2017a).

In 2014, the krone again depreciated, a weakening the central bank links to falling oil prices in the period (Norges Bank, 2017a). The trend reversed somewhat during first half of 2015, before the effective krone exchange rate again weakened until the lowest level since 2001 was reached in early January 2016. At that point, the I44 exchange rate had weakened nearly 21% since the oil price started surging in mid-2014.

During 2016, the NOK appreciated, partly due to a strengthened price of oil and a rebuilt belief in the Norwegian economy. Further, the interest rate differential between NIBOR and the I44 interest rate increased. This is due to the fact that the EURIBOR, LIBOR SEK and LIBOR DKK have developed towards negative rates, while NIBOR is still above zero.

5.4.3 Summary of key statistics and correlations

The following table provides an overview of the variables in the dataset, with an explanation of its definition, as well as the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum value in the respective samples.

Table 2 - Key statistics for all variable	es across all subsamples
-------------------------------------------	--------------------------

	Full sam									
	Number of observ									
Variable name (SAS)	Explanation	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Minimum	Maximum				
Brent	Oil price (USD/bbl)	67.19	31.85	1014.33	16.51	143.95				
144	Nominal effective exchange rate (1995=100)	93.53	5.70	32.49	84.30	110.51				
USD	NOK/USD exchange rate	6.71	1.09	1.18	4.96	9.46				
144_INTRATE	Interest rate (%)	2.01	1.50	2.26	-0.06	5.40				
LIBOR_USD	Interest rate (%)	1.79	1.78	3.16	0.22	6.37				
NIBOR	Interest rate (%)	3.27	1.97	3.89	0.94	7.91				
INTDIFF_144	Interest rate differential, NIBOR - I44_INTRATE (%)	1.26	1.05	1.09	-0.53	4.04				
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD	Interest rate differential, NIBOR-LIBORUSD (%)	1.48	1.86	3.47	-2.48	5.70				
Sample 2.1 Number of observations = 3150										
Variable name (SAS)	Explanation	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Minimum	Maximum				
Brent	Oil price (USD/bbl)	69.92	32.97	1087.19	16.51	143.95				
144	Nominal effective exchange rate (1995=100)	91.99	4.08	16.66	84.30	106.03				
USD	NOK/USD exchange rate	6.50	0.97	0.95	4.96	9.46				
144 INTRATE	Interest rate (%)	2.28	1.40	1.95	0.28	5.40				
LIBOR USD	Interest rate (%)	1.97	1.83	3.34	0.22	6.37				
NIBOR	Interest rate (%)	3.57	1.93	3.72	1.41	7.91				
INTDIFF 144	Interest rate differential, NIBOR - I44 INTRATE (%)	1.28	1.12	1.24	-0.53	4.04				
INTDIFF LIBORUSD	Interest rate differential, NIBOR-LIBORUSD (%)	1.59	1.96	3.83	-2.48	5.70				
Sample 2.2/3.3										
	Number of observ									
Variable name (SAS)	Explanation	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Minimum	Maximum				
Brent	Oil price (USD/bbl)	47.84	8.47	71.68	26.01	66.33				
144	Nominal effective exchange rate (1995=100)	104.44	2.97	8.81	96.76	110.51				
USD	NOK/USD exchange rate	8.25	0.34	0.11	7.37	8.92				
144 INTRATE	Interest rate (%)	0.05	0.07	0.01	-0.06	0.28				
LIBOR USD	Interest rate (%)	0.53	0.24	0.06	0.25	1.00				
NIBOR	Interest rate (%)	1.17	0.15	0.02	0.94	1.53				
INTDIFF 144	Interest rate differential, NIBOR - 144 INTRATE (%)	1.13	0.11	0.01	0.92	1.43				
INTDIFF LIBORUSD	Interest rate differential, NIBOR-LIBORUSD (%)	0.64	0.36	0.13	0.16	1.25				
	Sample									
	Number of observ		6							
Variable name (SAS)	Explanation	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Minimum	Maximum				
Brent	Oil price (USD/bbl)	48.76	25.21	635.47	16.51	143.95				
144	Nominal effective exchange rate (1995=100)	93.14	3.97	15.79	85.47	103.22				
USD	NOK/USD exchange rate	6.93	1.10	1.21	4.96	9.46				
144_INTRATE	Interest rate (%)	3.22	0.87	0.75	2.10	4.93				
LIBOR_USD	Interest rate (%)	3.20	1.61	2.60	1.00	6.37				
NIBOR	Interest rate (%)	4.44	2.01	4.05	1.69	7.59				
INTDIFF_I44	Interest rate differential, NIBOR - I44_INTRATE (%)	1.22	1.51	2.29	-0.53	4.04				
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD	Interest rate differential, NIBOR-LIBORUSD (%)	1.24	2.57	6.61	-2.48	5.70				
	Sample	3.2								
	Number of observ									
Variable name (SAS)	Explanation	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Minimum	Maximum				
Brent	Oil price (USD/bbl)	93.99	22.64	512.53	34.16	143.95				
144	Nominal effective exchange rate (1995=100)	90.69	3.80	14.45	84.30	106.03				
USD	NOK/USD exchange rate	6.01	0.45	0.20	5.03	7.74				
144_INTRATE	Interest rate (%)	1.22	1.09	1.19	0.28	5.40				
LIBOR_USD	Interest rate (%)	0.58	0.73	0.54	0.22	4.82				
NIBOR	Interest rate (%)	2.57	1.23	1.50	1.41	7.91				
INTDIFF_I44	Interest rate differential, NIBOR - I44_INTRATE (%)	1.35	0.22	0.05	0.75	2.62				
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD	Interest rate differential, NIBOR-LIBORUSD (%)	1.99	0.61	0.37	1.16	4.22				

Below is an overview of the correlation between pairs of variables, which is conducted to measure the degree of the linear association between them. Correlation is measured by the correlation coefficient, and a further theoretical definition is found in appendix 2. It shall be noted that the correlation analysis

does not distinguish between regressor and regressand, and the underlying assumption is that both variables are stochastic (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). Correlation does not imply that changes in one variable causes changes in another, rather it suggests that movements in the variables are related to a given extent, measured by the correlation coefficient (Brooks, 2008). As seen below there is a negative correlation between the oil price and the currencies. The negative correlation is stronger for the USD, -0.79, than for the I44 exchange rate, -0.23.

Table 3 – Correlation matrix

					ts, full sample			
Number of observations = 3595								
	144	USD		144_INTRATE	LIBOR_USD	NIBOR		INTDIFF_LIBORUSD
144	1.0000	0.8142	-0.5985	-0.2169	-0.0423	-0.1739	-0.0165	-0.1438
P-value		<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0112	<.0001	0.3224	<.0001
USD		1.0000	-0.7869	-0.0368	0.0192	0.1813	0.3944	0.1736
P-value			<.0001	0.0275	0.25	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
Brent			1.0000	-0.2294	-0.2467	-0.2756	-0.1899	-0.0564
P-value				<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0007
I44_INTRATE				1.0000	0.8060	0.8524	0.1709	0.1336
P-value					<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
LIBOR_USD					1.0000	0.5100	-0.1958	-0.4138
P-value						<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
NIBOR						1.0000	0.6609	0.5720
P-value							<.0001	<.0001
INTDIFF_I44							1.0000	0.8862
P-value								<.0001
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD								1.0000
P-value								

5.5 Treatment of extreme observations

As the figures in section 5.4 illustrate, all the variables include some periods of more extreme values, among others in relation to the financial crisis in the late 2000s. Such events may move the mean of the series up or down during the sample, and in an ideal world we would be able to model these events. More often, econometricians are forced to leave the shifts unexplained, or to adjust for this by imposing a dummy variable. Imposing a dummy for the extreme observations may make the model fit better with the data, and help it pass tests of stationarity. In time series data it is not possible to remove variables from the data, as is often done in cross-sectional data to account for outliers. Further, the definition of what actually accounts for an outlier or an extreme observation is relative and subjective. To account for this in the stationarity analysis procedure, the researchers employed the method of *step dummies*³⁰ as a remedy (Sjo, 2010). Although, the method did not change the conclusions of the analyses, which resulted in the choice of eliminating the use of dummies.

³⁰ The method implies that all observations take the value of 0 except for the outlier observations which take the value of one, followed by one observation of minus one (Sjo, 2010).

6. Econometric theory and empirical estimation

In what follows, econometric theory, estimation methods and empirical findings will be presented. The objective is to investigate the possibility of a causal relationship between the price of Brent Blend and the exchange rates, both in the short and long term. Firstly, the variables are subjected to the Dickey-Fuller test for stationarity and the Breusch-Godfrey test for autocorrelation. As non-stationary variables cannot be modelled by *Ordinary Least Squares* (OLS) unless a cointegrating relationship exists, the two-step Engle-Granger procedure will be applied to test for such a relation. In cases where a cointegrating relationship is evident, the analysis will be extended to test for short and long term Granger causality through error correction models. Lastly, Granger causality is tested where no cointegration is found.

Results will be reported according to the significance level of the relevant tests with stars as symbols. ***, **, and * correspond to significance at a 1%, 5%, and 10% level respectively.

6.1 Stationarity

Stationarity analysis can be conducted in several ways and a combination of methods are recommended. The methods applied in the following analysis are based on the those prominently discussed in prior literature.

6.1.1 Theory

A key assumption when working with time series is stationarity of the underlying variables. A time series can be defined as *stationary* if its probability distribution does not change over time, meaning that in a probabilistic sense, it requires the future to be like the past. A stationary time series will revert to its long-term mean, implying that any shock to the series will cancel out over time.

Formally, the properties underlying a stationary time series are the following, where Y_t is a stochastic series (Gujarati and Porter, 2009):

Mean:	$E(Y_t) = \mu$	(Eq. 6.1a)
Variance:	$var(Y_t) = E(Y_t - \mu)^2 = \sigma^2$	(<i>Eq</i> . 6.1 <i>b</i>)
Covariance:	$\gamma_k = E[(Y_t - \mu)(Y_{t+k} - \mu)]$	(Eq. 6.1c)

Where;

```
E denotes expectation
```

 μ is the mean of *Y*

 σ^2 is the variance of *Y*

 γ_k is the covariance (or autocovariance) of *Y*. γ_k , at lag *k* represents the covariance between the values of Y_t and Y_{t+k}

If a series is nonstationary, it implies that classical regression results are invalid. Some of the implications are that hypothesis tests, confidence intervals and forecasting can be unreliable. Further, non-stationarity implies that generalization of regressions results to other time periods cannot be done (Brooks, 2008).

A variable can exhibit a persistent long-term movement, known as a *trend*, or a change in the population regression function, known as a *break*, or both. Trends can either be characterized as *deterministic* or *stochastic* (unit root), in which the former is a function of time and the latter is random and non-predictable (Stock & Watson, 2011).

A **pure random walk (RW) model** is the simplest version of a nonstationary stochastic process. If a time series follows a random walk, the series is nonstationary, meaning that over time the variance of a random walk increases, leading the distribution of Y_t to change. This model is a difference stationary process, as a first difference transformation leads it to become stationary. Formally we have (Gujarati & Porter, 2009):

$$Y_t = \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.2a}$$

Where;

 Y_{t-1} is the one period lag of Y

 u_t is a white noise error term

Secondly, a nonstationary process may follow a **random walk with drift**. Such a model has a tendency to move in one direction or the other, depending on whether the drift is positive or negative. In equation 6.2b below, β_1 represents the drift in the random walk, also known as the drift parameter or the constant.

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.2b}$$

Thirdly, a series might exhibit a **deterministic trend** which is a *trend stationary process*, meaning that it can become stationary by subtracting the expected value of Y_t from Y_t , so called detrending:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.2c}$$

Where;

t is time measured chronologically

Lastly, a nonstationary process may follow a random walk with drift and trend:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + \beta_2 t + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.2d}$$

Non-stationarity is common for economic time series. Thus, it is important to determine its proper specification prior to conducting further analyses. In order to determine whether a series exhibits stationarity, a variety of tests can be conducted, such as examining the ACF correlogram and line-plots, and applying the Dickey-Fuller and Breusch-Godfrey tests. This enables the determination of whether the variables should be first differenced or regressed on deterministic functions of time - in order to fulfil the stationarity requirement (Gujarati & Porter, 2009).

If the first difference of a variable is stationary, it is defined as an integrated variable of order one, or I(1) (Gujarati & Porter, 2009).

6.1.1.1 Autocorrelation function (ACF) and correlogram

Stationarity can be investigated by analysing the *autocorrelation function* (ACF).

Autocorrelation function at lag *k* denoted by ρ_k is defined in the following way (Gujarati & Porter, 2009):

$$\rho_{k} = \frac{\gamma_{k}}{\gamma_{0}} = \frac{covariance \ at \ lag \ k}{variance} \tag{Eq. 6.3a}$$

Plotting the sample autocorrelation of order k, $\hat{\rho}_k$, against k yields a graph known as the population correlogram. The graph will display if lags of the ACF have significant values outside the confidence bans. Time series behave differently, and their nature can be identified by how the autocorrelation function move over time. Generally, a stationary time series can be recognized by a correlogram with values close to zero. Additionally, a stationary process can also be characterised by ACF plots with high initial values that decay rapidly towards zero. On the contrary, nonstationary time series are typically recognized by having high autocorrelation coefficients at different lags that decay slowly towards zero as the lag length increases (Gujarati & Porter, 2009).

Additionally, the null hypothesis of independent residuals is tested up to lag *m*, by the so-called portmanteau statistics. The classical portmanteau test statistic is proposed by Box and Pierce:

$$Q_{BP} = n \sum_{k=1}^{m} \hat{\rho}_k^2$$
 (Eq. 6.3b)

Under the null hypothesis of no autocorrelation, the test statistic, Q_{BP} , is distributed as a chi-square, χ^2 , with (m - p - q) degrees of freedom (Arranz, 2005).

6.1.1.2 The Dickey-Fuller unit root test

The unit root test has become, out of many, a popular test of stationarity. A unit root is present if $\beta_1 = 1$ in the above equations, 6.2a-6.2d. General OLS hypothesis and test-statistics will be strongly biased if a unit root is present. For the practical application to be feasible for statistical software, a simple algebraic transformation of the regression function is needed. Using the pure random walk in equation 6.2a as an example, the transformation is as follows:

$$Y_t - Y_{t-1} = \beta_1 Y_{t-1} - Y_{t-1} + u_t$$
(Eq. 6.4a)
$$\Delta Y_t = Y_{t-1}(\beta_1 - 1) + u_t$$
(Eq. 6.4b)

By denoting $\delta = (\beta_1 - 1)$, we test the null hypothesis of whether $\delta = 0$ (identical to testing $\beta_1 = 1$), in which a unit root is present. The test allows for various specifications and can be estimated under three different null hypotheses, namely random walk, random walk with drift and random walk with drift and deterministic trend (Gujarati & Porter, 2009).

Thus,

<i>Y_t</i> is a random walk:	$\Delta Y_t = \delta Y_{t-1} + u_t$	(Eq. 6.5a)
Y_t is a random walk with drift:	$\Delta Y_{\rm t} = \beta_0 + \delta Y_{t-1} + u_t$	(Eq. 6.5b)

 Y_t is a random walk with drift and deterministic trend: $\Delta Y_t = \beta_0 + \delta Y_{t-1} + \beta_2 t + u_t$ (Eq. 6.5c)

The critical values are the so-called Dickey Fuller critical values (see appendix 4), which differ depending on the specifications of the test. If the absolute value of the computed test statistic (tau) exceeds the absolute value of the DF critical values, we reject the hypothesis that $\delta = 0$.

In the unit root test it is assumed that the error term, u_t , is uncorrelated. As for most macroeconomic time series, autocorrelation is likely to be present (Gujarati & Porter, 2009), which is why additional testing by the Breuch-Godfrey test and the augmented Dickey Fuller is conducted.

6.1.1.2 The Breusch-Godfrey test

The Breusch-Godfrey (BG) test is a stepwise general test of autocorrelation. Multiple regressors and lagged values of the dependent variable can be added to the model. The model tests autoregressive schemes up to the p^{th} order, and is here illustrated by a two-variable regression model (Gujarati & Porter, 2009):

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_t + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.6a}$$

Assume the error term u_t follows the *p*th autoregressive, AR(*p*) as follows:

$$u_{t} = \rho_{1}u_{t-1} + \rho_{2}u_{t-2} + \dots + \rho_{p}u_{t-p} + \varepsilon_{t}$$
 (Eq. 6.6b)

Where;

 ε_t is a white noise error term

u_{t-p} represent the lagged values of the error term

The null hypothesis tests whether the ρ 's equal zero, in which there is no autocorrelation, against the alternative of autocorrelation (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). Formally we have;

- $H_0: \ \rho_1 = \rho_2 = \rho_3 = \dots = \rho_p = 0$ No autocorrelation
- *H*₁: At least one $\rho_p \neq 0$ Autocorrelation

The test statistics is calculated as $(n - p) * R^2 \sim X_p^2$, where R^2 is the coefficient of determination from the auxiliary regression (Eq. 6.6b), p is the number of lags of residuals and n is the number of observations. The test follows a chi-square distribution, and if this calculated test statistic exceeds the critical chi-square value, the null hypothesis of no autocorrelation is rejected. This indicates that at least one ρ is statistically significantly different from zero (Gujarati & Porter, 2009).

6.1.1.3 The Augmented Dickey-Fuller unit root test

 Y_t is a random walk with drift:

If the error term, u_t , exhibits autocorrelation, the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test can be conducted. It is done by "augmenting" equation 6.5a-6.5c by adding lagged values of the dependent variable, ΔY_t . The critical values from the DF-test are still applicable, and the null hypothesis still test whether $\delta = 0$. The number of lags of the dependent variable to include depends on the nature of the data, and should be enough for the error term to be serially uncorrelated (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). The results of the Breusch-Godrey test can be used as an indicator when determining how many lags to include in the ADF test (Hall & Asteriou, 2015).

The ADF test can be carried out using one of the following three model specifications;

- $\Delta Y_{t} = \delta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} \Delta Y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_{t}$ Y_t is a random walk: (*Eq*. 6.7*a*) $\Delta Y_{t} = \beta_{0} + \delta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} \Delta Y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_{t}$
- Y_t is a random walk with drift and deterministic trend: $\Delta Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \delta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t$ (Eq. 6.7c)

Which of the three model specifications presented in equation 6.7a-6.7c to apply is questionable unless the data generating process is known. The graphical line-plot analysis is however useful in determining the appropriate specification.

(Eq. 6.7b)

6.1.2 Estimation method

In the following stationarity analysis, the Breusch-Godfrey test is used to indicate the number of lags to include in the Augmented Dickey-Fuller unit root rest. A time series can exhibit autocorrelation without violating the stationarity condition, as long the autocorrelation is not too high. The ADF test will primarily be conducted including the number of lags suggested by the BG test. However, for all variables, lag 1 to 5 is included to capture autocorrelation during a week (excluding weekends). If the BG test indicates autocorrelation up to lag 10, the ADF test will be conducted with a default number of lags equal to lag 1 to 5, 10 and 20, where 10 and 20 to check for autocorrelation of higher lags. The time series variables in the sample is not believed to exhibit any particular seasonality, with the exception of the oil price as discussed in section 5.1.2. As these variations are summer and winter based we do not expect to be able to capture this with the daily nature of the data, hence we do not find reasons for including a high number of lags in the ADF test. The authors feel confident that this methodology will ensure fair stationarity conclusions, as the test is supplemented by line- and ACF plots from the sample which provide relatively clear indication on the nature of the time series in question. Based on the results from the graphical inspection, the ADF test will be conducted assuming that all relevant time-series exhibit a stochastic trend, meaning that equation 6.7b (random walk with drift) is viewed to be the correct specification.

The stationarity analysis is not conducted on INTDIFF_LIBORUSD and INTDIFF_I44³¹, as linearly transformed series are expected to have the same characteristics as the time series itself (Koop, 2007). Thus, given that LIBOR, NIBOR and I44 interest rates are stationary, the differential between them is also expected to be.

 $^{^{31}}$ This also apply for the CPI_DIFF introduced in the robustness section

6.1.3 Empirical findings

Through the example of the variable logBrent, the following explains the application of the discussed tests. The line plot presented to the left in figure 27 below yields an initial clue about the nature of the time series, as it illustrates the behaviour of the variable over time. Line plots are useful to reveal if the variable exhibits any trending behaviour (Gujarati & Porter, 2009).

Figure 27 – Line and ACF plot for logBrent

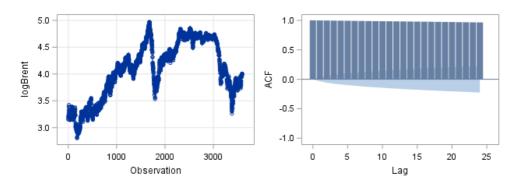


Table 4 – Autocorrelation analysis for logBrent

	Chi-Square							
Lag	test statistic	P-value		Autoco	rrelations	coefficien	its	
1-6	9999.99	<.0001	0.9990	0.9970	0.9960	0.9940	0.9930	0.9910
7-12	9999.99	<.0001	0.9900	0.9890	0.9870	0.9860	0.9840	0.9830
13-18	9999.99	<.0001	0.9820	0.9800	0.9790	0.9770	0.9760	0.9740
19-24	9999.99	<.0001	0.9730	0.9720	0.9700	0.9680	0.9670	0.9650

P-value indicates the significane level of the chi-square test statistic: <.0001 indicates significane at 0.01%.

The plot demonstrates what can be argued to look like a random walk. Over time, the series has both rising and falling behaviour, and has experienced changes in the level over the sample period, suggesting that is exhibits a stochastic trend (unit root) rather than a deterministic time trend.

In the ACF plot to the right in figure 27 above, we see what is described as general for nonstationary time series. Autocorrelation coefficients are high and decline slowly towards 0. The χ^2 (Chi-square) test statistic presented in table 4 above shows that coefficients are highly significant at 1% level, leading us to reject the null hypothesis, implying that there is severe autocorrelation in the time series. The above is general for *all* the economic time series analysed in the sample, see summary table 8 in the end of the section 6.1.3.1

The BG test indicates that zero lags are necessary to correct for autocorrelation, hence we are back to the Dickey-fuller unit root test³² specified in equation 6.5b. The absolute value of the test-statistic (tauvalue) is 1.91 which is below the Dickey-fuller critical value of 3.43 at a 10% significance level, as seen in table 5. The null hypothesis of a unit root can therefore not be rejected against the alternative of stationarity. The same conclusions are reached for *all* variables analysed, with few exceptions.

In subsample 3.2, the ADF test concluded that the interest rate variables are stationary. However, respective correlograms (see table 8) indicates the opposite. These variables exhibited high volatility in the period examined, which includes both the financial crisis and the 2014 oil-price drop. The validity of statistical tests can suffer when variables exhibit large variations, which is why the authors have chosen to emphasize the ACF plots, and conclude that the variables in fact are non-stationary.

A summary of the unit root tests for all variables, in all samples, can be seen in table 5 below. The full SAS³³ output is presented in appendix 6.

 $^{^{\}rm 32}$ Random walk with drift, as established for all variables

³³ The applied Statistical Analysis Software (SAS)

		Variables in le	evel form		
			Lag(s) in	Test statistic	Conclusion
Name	Model specification	BG-test conclusion	ADF-test	(tau-value)	(significance)
		Full Sam	ple		
logBrent	RW with drift	0	0	-1.91	Unit root
log 144	RW with drift	6	6	-2.14	Unit root
log USD	RW with drift	0	0	-1.66	Unit root
144_INTRATE	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.26/-1.61	Unit root
LIBORUSD	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-2.01/-2.05	Unit root
NIBOR	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.83/-1.84	Unit root
		Sample	2.1		
logBrent	RW with drift	0	0	-1.75	Unit root
log 144	RW with drift	3	3	-2.76	*Stationarity
log USD	RW with drift	0	0	-2.14	Unit root
144_INTRATE	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.21/-1.63	Unit root
LIBORUSD	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.74/-1.71	Unit root
NIBOR	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.68/-1.72	Unit root
		Sample	2.2 ¹		
logBrent	RW with drift	0	0	-1.54	Unit root
log 144	RW with drift	4	4	-1.85	Unit root
log USD	RW with drift	4	4	-2.29	Unit root
144_INTRATE	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.95/-1.46	Unit root
LIBORUSD	RW with drift	>10	10/20	0.18/0.33	Unit root
NIBOR	RW with drift	0	0	-2.07	Unit root
		Sample	3.1		
logBrent	RW with drift	0	0	0.16	Unit root
log 144	RW with drift	5	5	-2.45	Unit root
log USD	RW with drift	5	5	-0.63	Unit root
144_INTRATE	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-0.42/-0.53	Unit root
LIBORUSD	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.42/147	Unit root
NIBOR	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.03/-1.04	Unit root
		Sample	3.2		
logBrent	RW with drift	6	6	-0.99	Unit root
log 144	RW with drift	0	0	-1.53	Unit root
log USD	RW with drift	0	0	-1.71	Unit root
144_INTRATE	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-3.82/-3.98	***Stationarity
LIBORUSD	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-3.43/-3.28	***Stationarity
NIBOR	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-3.46/-3.32	***Stationarity

¹ Identical to sample 3.3

Critical values applicable for RW with drift: 10% = -2.57, 5% = -2.86, 1% = -3.43

6.1.3.1 Correcting for non-stationarity

Proper transformation is required for nonstationary series before further analysis can be conducted. By definition, a time series that exhibits a unit root becomes stationary by taking the first difference of the variable. This has been done for the logarithm of Brent, and its line plot in figure 28 presents a development which now looks like a stationary process. The observations vary around a constant mean, and the series' variance and auto covariance seem fairly constant. Similar characteristics are achieved for *all* variables, indicating that they are integrated of order one, I(1), as summarized in table 8 presented in the end on this section.



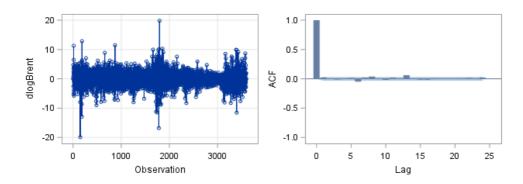


Table 6 – Autocorrelation analysis for ∆logBrent

	Chi-Square							
Lag	test statistic	P-value		Autoco	rrelations	coefficien	nts	
1-6	11.7800	0.0671	0.0230	0.0030	-0.0120	-0.0050	0.0140	-0.0490
7-12	21.1200	0.0487	0.0190	0.0390	0.0030	-0.0190	0.0180	0.0080
13-18	36.5700	0.0060	0.0610	-0.0020	-0.0140	-0.0150	0.0090	-0.0010
19-24	39.1000	0.0266	0.0000	0.0000	0.0030	0.0120	-0.0060	0.0220

P-value indicates the significane level of the chi-square test statistic

The ACF plot to the right in figure 28 shows few and very limited significant spikes outside the confidence bans³⁴ indicating that the time series is stationary and white noise is achieved. Additionally, the autocorrelation coefficients in table 6 are low and insignificant.

It should be noted that although a series in level form is recognized as a "random walk with drift", the model specification will change when we operate with the first difference of the variable. This is because the drift term, β_0 , is mathematically removed, which can be shown by the following calculation:

We have:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.8a}$$

$$Y_{t-1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-2} + u_{t-1} \tag{Eq. 6.8b}$$

Taking the difference implies subtracting equation 6.8b from equation 6.8a:

$$Y_t - Y_{t-1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + u_t - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-2} + u_{t-1})$$
 (Eq. 6.8c)

$$Y_t - Y_{t-1} = \beta_1 (Y_{t-1} - Y_{t-2}) + (u_t - u_{t-1})$$
(Eq. 6.8d)

 $^{^{34}}$ If $k=0,\rho_0=1$ (Gujarati & Porter, 2009)

The Breusch-Godfrey test on the $\Delta logBrent$ variable indicates that there is autocorrelation at lag 10, see table 7. The absolute tau-values on lag 10 and 20 are 17.81 and 12.49 respectively, much higher than the ADF-critical value of 2.58 at a 1% significance level. The null hypothesis of a unit root can therefore be rejected against the alternative of stationarity. The above conclusion is drawn on the first difference of the *all* variables, for all sub-samples, see summary table 7 below as well as full SAS output in appendix 6.

	Variables in first differences, Δ								
			Lag(s) in	Test statistic	Conclusion				
Name	Model specification	BG-test conclusion	ADF-test	(tau-value)	(significance)				
		Full San	nple						
∆logBrent	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-17.81/-12.49	***Stationarity				
∆logI44	Pure RW	1	1	-43.44	***Stationarity				
∆logUSD	Pure RW	1	1	-60.01	***Stationarity				
ΔI44_INTRATE	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-9.95/-6.85	***Stationarity				
ΔLIBORUSD	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-13.14/-11.93	***Stationarity				
ΔNIBOR	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-14.37/-9.33	***Stationarity				
		Sample	2.1						
∆logBrent	Pure RW	10	10/20	-16.23/-11.19	***Stationarity				
∆logI44	Pure RW	2	2	-34.13	***Stationarity				
ΔlogUSD	Pure RW	0	0	-56.07	***Stationarity				
ΔI44_INTRATE	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-9.30/-6.39	***Stationarity				
ΔLIBORUSD	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-12.32/-11.18	***Stationarity				
ΔNIBOR	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-13.29/-8.67	***Stationarity				
		Sample	2.2						
∆logBrent	Pure RW	0	0	-20.36	***Stationarity				
∆logI44	Pure RW	3	3	-11.91	***Stationarity				
ΔlogUSD	Pure RW	3	3	-11.77	***Stationarity				
ΔI44_INTRATE	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-4.30/-5.57	***Stationarity				
ΔLIBORUSD	Pure RW	9	9	-3.23	***Stationarity				
ΔNIBOR	Pure RW	0	0	-22.28	***Stationarity				
		Sample	3.1						
∆logBrent	Pure RW	10	10/20	-12.49/-9.25	***Stationarity				
∆logI44	Pure RW	4	4	-17.38	***Stationarity				
∆logUSD	Pure RW	4	4	-17.59	***Stationarity				
ΔI44_INTRATE	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-8.35/-6.39	***Stationarity				
ΔLIBORUSD	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-8.64/-5.67	***Stationarity				
ΔNIBOR	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-9.30/-5.59	***Stationarity				
		Sample	3.2						
∆logBrent	Pure RW	10	10/20	-10.24/-6.29	***Stationarity				
∆logI44	Pure RW	0	0	-39.02	***Stationarity				
ΔlogUSD	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-11.42	***Stationarity				
ΔI44_INTRATE	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-5.38/-3.63	***Stationarity				
 ΔLIBORUSD	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-8.24/-9.46	***Stationarity				
ΔNIBOR	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-9.05/-6.20	***Stationarity				

Table 7 - Stationarity analysis for all samples, variables in differenced form

¹ Identical to sample 3.3

Critical values applicable for simple RW 10% = -1.61, 5% = -1.95, 1% = -2.58

The following table summarises the time-series properties and autocorrelation functions for the variables in level form and in first differences in the full sample analysis.

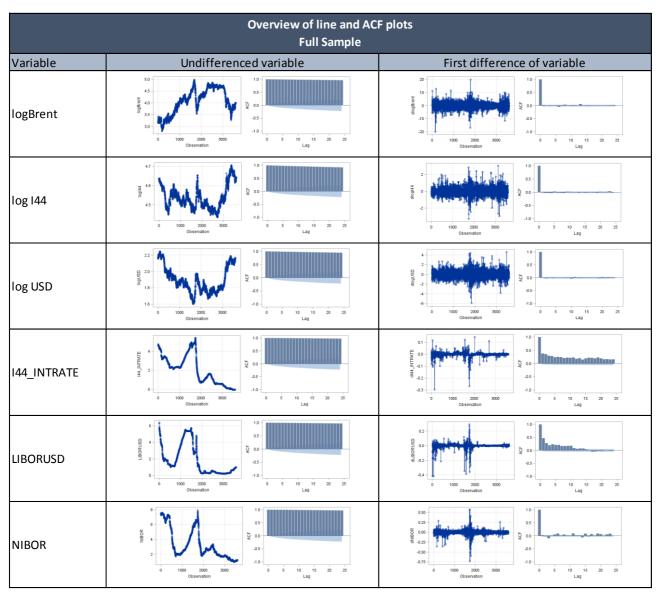


Table 8 - Summary of stationarity analysis: Line and ACF plots, full sample

The above illustrations are relatively general for the other sub-samples in question and their respective summary tables can therefore be found in appendix 7.

As mentioned in section 5.5, step dummies were applied to take care of extreme values. This was done for the interest rate variables, as they were found to exhibit moist noise, without functioning as desired. Conclusions were unchanged, and the method was therefore not applied. As seen above, all ACF plots indicate stationarity of first differenced variables.

6.4 Cointegration

As a limited amount of published literature focuses on the whether there exists a cointegrating relationship between the value of the *Norwegian krone* and the oil price, the following section is carried out with the purpose of investigating whether such a relationship exists. An investigation of a long-term relation will be done between the following variable pairs: Brent and the I44, as well as the NOK/USD exchange rates, respectively. Economic theory concerning oil exporting countries yields reasons to expect a long-term relation between the analysed exchange rates and Brent. It is anticipated that a rise in the price of oil will result in more favourable terms of trade, and a subsequent strengthening of the exchange rate, as presented in the literature review. Further, the belief of a cointegrating relation between the NOK/USD exchange rate and Brent is explained throughout literature by the fact that crude oil is quoted in USD, and that a depreciation of the USD against other currencies has tended to be followed by a rise in the price of oil. Thus, the depreciation of the dollar makes oil relatively cheaper in the currencies that the USD is quoted against. This sparks the authors interest of investigating whether there exists a long-run co-movement.

As all variables were found to be nonstationary, one could expect spurious regressions, as discovered by Yule (1926). Spurious regressions can carry on in nonstationary time series even in large samples. The possibility although exists that the two series share the same stochastic trend, implying that regression is not spurious, as the shared stochastic trend represents a long-run equilibrium relationship. Engle and Granger presented their theory of cointegration in their paper *Co-Integration and Error Correction: Representation, Estimation and Testing* from 1987, but the concept of cointegration was introduced by Granger (1981) and Granger and Weiss (1983). Engle and Granger (1987) find cointegration between variables such as income and consumption, short and long-term interest rates, and nominal GNP³⁵ and M2³⁶ (Engle & Granger, 1987). Brooks (2008) further presents examples of financial variables which may exhibit cointegration, such as spot and future prices for given commodities as well as equity prices and dividends. As presented in the *Granger Representation Theorem*, cointegration further infers that at least one of the two variables must Granger-cause the other, while bilateral causality is also a possibility. Also, cointegration implies that there exists a valid error correction representation of the data (Engle & Granger, 1987).

³⁵ Gross national product. Measures the production by any person or company from a specific country, regardless of where the production is taken place (Amadeo, 2017).

³⁶ A measure of money supply. M1 (coins and notes in circulation and other money equivalents that are easily convertible to cash) plus short-term deposits in banks and 24-hour money market funds (Financial Times, 2017).

A vast amount of previous research has been carried out with the interest of investigating the long-term relationship between the oil prices and various currencies. In addition to causality analyses, such as the before mentioned paper by Krugman (1980) and Golub (1983), several researches have employed cointegration tests and error correction models to explore the causality direction over time. Amano & Norden (1998a, 1998b), Benassy-Quere, Mignon, & Penot (2007) and Chaudhuri & Daniel B.C. (1997) among others, find that the oil price and the US dollar exchange rate are cointegrated, and that causation runs from the oil price to the dollar exchange rate.

6.4.1 Theory

According to Brooks (2008), nonstationary variables were usually modelled by taking the first differences when the concept of nonstationarity was introduced in the 1970s. The problem with first difference-based models is that they have no long-run solution. Consider the two series Y_t and X_t , which are both I(1)³⁷. One may consider modelling the series by estimating a model on their first differences:

$$\Delta Y_t = \beta_0 \Delta X_t + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.9}$$

A long-run variable is defined as a variable that is no longer changing, and has hence converged upon its long-term value. This yields that: $Y_t = Y_{t-1} = Y$ and $X_t = X_{t-1} = X$. As $\Delta Y_t = Y_t - Y_{t-1}$, and $\Delta X_t = X_t - X_{t-1}$, the equation above cancels out, and the model has no long-term solution (Brooks, 2008).

Cointegration refers to the special case where two I(1)-series have a stochastic trend in common, or more specifically when *Y* and *X* are I(1)³⁸ but the error term in the relationship between them is stationary. Time series which are non-stationary can still "move together" over time, implying that there might exist some forces causing the two series to be bound by some relationship in the long run. Two cointegrated series can also be viewed as a long-term or equilibrium phenomenon, as deviations from the variable-relationship might occur in the short run, while in the long-run their association will return. Thus, the difference between the two series will return to a stable, constant value after being disturbed by a shock (Brooks, 2008).

A simplified cointegration regression with one coefficient and no trend is expressed as follows (Gujarati & Porter, 2009):

$$Y_t = \beta_1 X_t + u_t \tag{Eq. 6.10}$$

³⁷ Integrated variable of order one, cf. section 6.1

³⁸ Higher order of integration is possible.

However, it is important to remember that the order of integration of Y and X must match for the regression to make economic sense (REED College, 2015).

Suppose both Y_t and X_t are integrated of order one, hence are nonstationary. If, for some coefficient β_1 , (the cointegration coefficient) $Y_t - \beta_1 X_t$ is integrated of order zero, then X_t and Y_t are said to be cointegrated, and share a stochastic trend. Isolating u_t , implies that the residuals from the cointegration regression, $Y_t - \beta_1 X_t$, are obtained (Stock & Watson, 2011).

To decide whether a set of time series contain cointegrated variables, several methods should be applied. These include expert knowledge, applying economic theory, graphical analysis as well as statistical tests (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). Decisions also need to be made on whether to include and intercept and/or a time trend in the cointegration regression. Including an intercept implies that we allow for the long-term relationship among the variables to have a mean different from zero³⁹, while the inclusion of a time trend will imply constant growth (Kennedy, 2008).

6.4.1.1 Engle-Granger Test for cointegration

The test for cointegration is conducted by obtaining the residuals from the cointegration regression of interest, and test whether the residuals exhibit stationarity by the DF- or ADF tests. Since the unit root tests are carried out on the residuals, they should have mean zero, and an intercept is therefore often not included. Additionally, it is important to notice that since the estimated residuals are based on the estimated cointegrating parameter, the relevant critical values should be the specific values calculated by Engle and Granger (1987) presented in appendix 5. Formally, from the estimated cointegration regression (equation 6.11a), we obtain the residuals (equation 6.11b):

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_t + \hat{u}_t & (Eq. \ 6.11a) \\ \hat{u}_t &= Y_t - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X_t & (Eq. \ 6.11b) \end{aligned}$$

The DF test takes the following form (Gujarati & Porter, 2009):

$$\Delta \hat{u}_t = \delta \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{Eq. 6.12}$$

Where:

 ε_t is a white noise distributed error term

The hypothesis tested is the following:

 $H_0: \delta = 0$ No cointegration

 $H_1: \delta < 0$ Cointegration

³⁹ Random walk with drift, cf. section 6.1.1

The above cointegration regression 6.11a was represented as a bivariate relation. However, several variables might be of interest, and the model can accordingly be expanded to allow for several explanatory variables, resulting in a multiple regression model. The Engle-Granger test presented above can still be carried out in the same manner, but when three or more variables are included, new difficulties arise. Namely the possibility of having more than one cointegrating relationship. If *K* variables are included, at most *K*-1 cointegrating relationships can exist. In this case, one option is to use Johansen's multivariate Vector Autoregression (VAR) method. Alternatively, one can carry out multiple Engle-Granger tests and include different combinations of the variables in question (Koop, 2007).

6.4.1.2 The Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt, and Shin (KPSS) unit root test and Shin cointegration test

For many time series, standard unit root tests fail to reject the null hypothesis of a unit root. This is due to the fact that classical hypothesis tends to favour the acceptance of the null hypothesis unless there is strong evidence against it. Thus, the explanation for frequent failure to reject a unit root is a combination of the low power of among others the Dickey-Fuller test, and the fact that most economic time series *"are not very informative about whether or not there is a unit root […]"* (Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt, & Shin, 1992). For this reason, there have been developed tests favouring stationarity (in comparison to unit root tests), like the KPSS test. The joint use of stationarity and unit root tests is known as *confirmatory data analysis* (Brooks, 2008). For the results to be robust, both types of tests should yield the same results.

The null hypothesis of the KPSS test states that the time series is stationary, in contrast to the Dickey-Fuller and Augmented Dickey-Fuller test. The former therefore tends to discard a random walk more often. The null hypothesis depends on whether or not an intercept is included. If an intercept is excluded, the KPSS tests three null hypotheses: zero mean, single mean, and deterministic trend (Kwiatkowski et al., 1992).

The Shin cointegration test works as a multivariate extension of the KPSS. Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt and Shin (1992) developed the stationarity test for the univariate case, using the component model. Shin extended this method to test the cointegration regression where non-stationary, I(1), regressors are added (Shin, 1994).

The underlying assumption is that the series is expressed as the sum of the deterministic trend, random walk and stationary error, also known as the random walk with drift around a deterministic trend:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + r_t + u_t$$
 (Eq. 6.13a)
 $r_t = r_{t-1} + e_t$ (Eq. 6.13b)

Where

 β_0 is an intercept

 $\beta_1 t$ is a deterministic trend component

 r_t is a random walk component

 u_t is a stationary error

 $e_t \sim iid(0, \sigma_e^2)$

The hypothesis is formulated as follows:

 $H_0: \sigma_e^2 = 0$ Trend stationarity $H_1: \sigma_e^2 \neq 0$ Random walk

The main hypothesis is that $\sigma_e^2 = 0$. If the $\beta_1 = 0$ restriction is added, the process is specified as level stationary. If both $\beta_1 = 0$ and $\beta_0 = 0$, we test for zero-mean stationarity. The test is thus extended to test the joint hypothesis of zero mean stationarity or level stationarity (Hobijn, Franses, & Ooms, 1998).

6.4.2 Estimation method

If the dependent variable is determined by other factors than those associated with the included independent variable(s), then the omission of these factors should theoretically prevent findings of statistically significant cointegrating relationships (Amano & Norden, 1998b). Evidence of cointegration on the other hand, indicates that the included variables are able to capture the dominant source of persistent innovations in the dependent variable over the sample period (Amano & Norden, 1998).

To the potential cointegration relations, relevant control variables have therefore been added to review the robustness of the results as well as account for the potential necessity of these to establish a cointegrating relationship. When testing for cointegration between the I44 exchange rate and the Brent Blend oil price, the interest rate differential between NIBOR and the I44 interest rate is considered relevant. This is to capture any deviation between the respective interest rates and thus potential depreciation/appreciation pressure on the exchange rates, cf. the interest rate parities.

Similar argumentation is used when testing for cointegration between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price. However, the interest rate differential applied in this case is represented by the difference between LIBOR USD and NIBOR interest rates.

The interest rate level in the US is represented by LIBOR USD, which is included due to the desire of capturing the close relation between US interest level, the value of the dollar, and the oil price. Interest rates are set by the central bank to impact the economic activity and cuts are often done to stimulate the economy. Higher economic activity is often seen by rising production levels. As energy is an essential input in industrial production, the demand for oil and other energy sources is therefore expected to rise, which subsequently is expected to impact the oil price (Bayar & Kilic, 2014).

When control variables are added, we run into the aforementioned potential problem of having more than one cointegrating relationship. One potential solution is to apply the Johansen test, however, this analysis is beyond the authors main interest.

If cointegration is established, there is no need to worry about spurious regressions. One important limitation is although still present. One cannot draw inference about the significance of parameters using resulting test statistics and P-values, because the variables independently are non-stationary (Brooks, 2008). Hence, we cannot with certainty say whether the estimated coefficients are significantly different from zero, implying the one should be cautious in interpreting the estimated coefficients. However, in the proceeding, the authors will interpret the coefficients under the assumption of

statistical significance. Due to the unreliability of the significance levels obtained, they will not be reported in what follows.

As discussed, the determination of whether to include an intercept or time trend should reflect the nature the underlying variables, established in the stationarity analysis. All variables analysed in the sample have previously been established independently to follow a "random walk with drift", leading us to include an intercept in the respective cointegration models.

In practical application, the KPSS gives the option to choose the applied kernel used in the test. This can either be *Newey-West/Bartlett* or *quadratic spectral (QS)*. The equations behind the QS specification yields a lag length that the authors find to be too low for the expected autocorrelation in the series. The KPSS specification applied in the following therefore includes the kernel specified as Newey-West/Bartlett, as this gives room for the expected autocorrelation by including more lags.

Financial theory may suggest whether regressions should be estimated using the levels or the logarithms of the variables. It should be noted that if a series is cointegrated in levels, it will also be cointegrated in logarithmic form (Brooks, 2008). In all proceeding models, the variables will be in logarithm form if this is allowed by their nature⁴⁰, due to the benefits described in section 5.2.

An overview of the models tested is found in table 9. The models have also been tested in the reverse specification, by having *logBrent* as the dependent variable. This is done to verify the strength of the results. An elaboration of the reverse model specification will only follow in cases where the two models yield contradicting results.

Overview of cointegration models tested (applicable in all samples)					
Model specification					
I44 and Brent					
Model 1	$\log I44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + u_t$				
Model 2	$\log I44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_1 I44_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_U SD_t + u_t$				
NOK/USD and Brent					
Model 3	$\log USD_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 logBrent_t + u_t$				
Model 4	$\log USD_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + u_t$				

⁴⁰ Variables that exhibit periods of negative values cannot be log-transformed, cf. section 5.2

6.4.3 Empirical findings

Table 10 below presents an overview of the cointegration findings. Each model specification has been tested in all sub-samples with, the interest of analysing if cointegrating relationships exist and whether the relations possibly have changed over time. Cointegration is only found in subsample 2.2⁴¹, and will be further analysed in the following. As previously described, subsample 2.2 represents the relatively stable period after the oil price hit bottom in early 2015, until December 2016. During this period, the oil price rose steadily and interest rates stabilized.

It should be noted that there might exist cointegrating relations in the subsamples preceding 2.2 which is not detected due to noise in the data, as this makes statistical modelling relatively more challenging. The phenomenon coincides with the findings of Zhang (2013), who explains that a significant cointegrating relation is only found when controlling for structural breaks. Brahmasrene et al., (2014) argue that currency fluctuations can be minimized when oil prices are stabilized. During periods of uncertainty, financial variables often possess above normal volatility, which may lead market participants to act irrationally.

Overview of models where cointegration was established Sample 2.2						
Model	Model specification	# of lags to ensure	Test statistic	Stationarity conclusion on		
		no sign. autocorr ¹	(tau-value)	regression residuals		
I44 and Brent						
Model 1	$\log I44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + u_t$	1	*-3.14	Stationarity		
Model 2	$\log I44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_I44_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + u_t$	2	*-3.16	Stationarity		
NOK/USD and Brent						
Model 3	$\log USD_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 logBrent_t + u_t$	9	*-2.98	Stationarity		
Model 4	$\log USD_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + \beta_3 LIB$	<i>u</i> _t 9	*-3.16	Stationarity		

Table 10 - Overview of stationarity analysis on regressions residuals, sample 2.2

¹ The number of lags of the models residuals included in the ADF test

Engle-Granger critical values (applicable to ADF test): 10% = -2.84, 5% = -3.17,1% = -3.77

6.4.3.1 The relation between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price

Model 1

Model 1 tests whether the underlying hypothesis of a cointegrating relationship between the effective krone exchange rate I44 and the oil price can be confirmed. Formally we have:

$$logI44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 logBrent_t + u_t$$
 (Eq. 6.14a)

⁴¹ Identical to subsample 3.3

Due to Norway's high dependency on oil, we can contemplate if it is reasonable to believe that the exchange rate and the oil price can drift apart over longer time horizons. As previously discussed, economic theory suggests that for oil-exporting nations as Norway, rising (falling) oil prices will in isolation lead to an appreciation (depreciation) of the exchange rate because of improved (deteriorated) terms of trade (Bernhardsen & Røisland, 2000).

The estimation yields the following results:

Table 11 - Cointegration coefficient estimates, model 1

Dependent variable = logI44				
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error		
Intercept	5.1247	0.0168		
logBrent	-0.1237	0.0044		

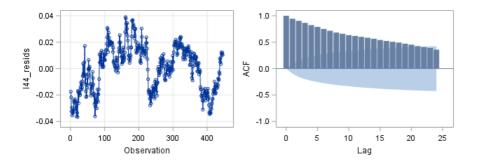
Based on the Breusch-Godfrey analysis, the ADF test is carried out including one lag of the dependent variable. The subsequent unit root test on the residuals, \hat{u}_t , from the regression (Eq. 6.14a) indicates stationarity, as the null hypothesis of a unit root is rejected at 10%, seen in table 12 below. The ACF plot in figure 29 shows that autocorrelation coefficients fall relatively fast towards zero. It should be noted that the speed of deterioration towards zero could have been higher, and the results are therefore evaluated as borderline. The KPSS-test fails to reject the null hypothesis of stationarity at a 5% significance level, indicating again that the stationarity result is somewhat borderline.

Table 12 - Stationarity analysis on regression residuals, model 1

Stationarity analysis on regression residuals					
ADF test KPSS test					
# of lags to ensure no sign. autocorr	1	17			
Test statistic	*-3.14	*0.29			
Conclusion Stationarity Stationarity					

Engle-Granger critical values (applicable to the ADF test): 10% = -2.84, 5% = -3.17, 1% = -3.77

Figure 29 - Line and ACF plot on regression residuals, model 1



The estimated model is presented in equation 6.14b:

$$logI44_t = 5.12 - 0.12logBrent_t$$
 (Eq. 6.14b)

The estimated coefficient on *logBrent*, $\hat{\beta}_1$, represents the long-run multiplier. Assuming coefficients are significant, we can say that a 1% rise in the oil price is associated with a 0.12% decrease in the I44 index, implying an appreciation of the NOK, in line with expectations.

Model 2

Model 2 is represented by the following, which is an extension of model 1 above. The model is tested to investigate whether the cointegrating relationship found in model 1 is stronger when control variables are included.

$$logI44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 logBrent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_144_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + u_t$$
 (Eq. 6.15a)

The underlying hypothesis is that we expect a long-run equilibrium between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price, when controlling for the interest rate LIBOR USD as well as the interest rate differential between the I44 interest rate and NIBOR. In addition to the economic theories on the association between the value of the Norwegian krone and the oil price presented in section 3.1, economic theory presents explanation for how exchange rates are expected to move given deviations between the respective interest rates. As explained, the interest rate differential is equal to the expected change in the spot exchange rate. When market participants act on this arbitrage opportunity, spot and futures rates will be forced back to equilibrium (Isard, 1996).

The resulting estimates from the regression model in equation 6.15a are:

Table 13 - Cointegration coefficient estimates, model 2

Dependent variable =	logI44	
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error
Intercept	5.1189	0.0161
logBrent	-0.0885	0.0050
INTDIFF_I44	-0.1083	0.0082
LIBORUSD	-0.0142	0.0031

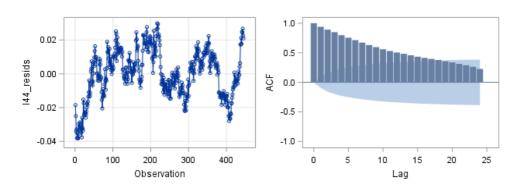
The Breusch-Godfrey analysis indicated the necessity of two lags to ensure no significant autocorrelation. The unit root test in table 14 indicates stationarity, as the null hypothesis of a unit root is rejected at 10%. The ACF plot below shows that autocorrelation coefficients exhibit some persistence,

but decline relatively fast towards zero. The KPSS-test for stationarity fails to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% significance level, indicating again that residuals are stationary while somewhat borderline. The stationarity conclusion is somewhat stronger compared to model 1, as the ADF test here rejects the null hypothesis at a 5% level.

Stationarity analysis on regression residuals					
ADF test KPSS test					
# of lags to ensure no sign. autocorr	2	17			
Test statistic	*-3.16	**0.23			
Conclusion Stationarity Stationarity					

Table 14 - Stationarity analysis on regression residuals, model 2

Engle-Granger critical values (applicable to the ADF test): 10% = -2.84, 5% = -3.17, 1% = -3.77





The results show the following relationship:

$$logI44_{t} = 5.12 - 0.09 logBrent_{t} - 0.11 INDIFF_{I44_{t}} - 0.01 LIBORUSD_{t}$$
(Eq. 6.15b)

The coefficient on logBrent, $\hat{\beta}_1$, reflects the elasticity of the Brent with respect to the I44 exchange rate. Stated otherwise, in the long run, a 1% increase in the price of Brent is associated with a 0.09% decline in the I44 index, all else equal. Hence, when the oil price rises, the index declines, representing an appreciation of NOK.

The coefficient on the interest rate differential between the I44 interest rate and NIBOR⁴², $\hat{\beta}_2$, equals -0.11. The regression coefficient, $\hat{\beta}_2$, is approximately the percentage change in I44 given a one unit change in INTDIFF_I44. A one percentage point increase in the interest rate differential⁴³ yields an

⁴² NIBOR minus I44 interest rate

⁴³ Interest rate variables included in the dataset are in percent and not in decimal form, implying that a change from 1.00 to 2.00 equals a 1% increase

expected decrease of the I44 index equal to 0.11%, thus an appreciation of the NOK, ceteris paribus. As the cointegrating relation is a long-term association, the above result in fact contradicts the interest rate parity, as an increase in the differential theoretically implies depreciation pressure on the high interest currency, while the above results indicate an appreciation of the value of NOK. In the short term, the regression estimate is believed to present an accurate picture of the market movements, as the high-interest currency is seen as more attractive.

LIBOR USD was included as the interest rate level in the US is expected to influence the value of the dollar, which again is expected to affect the dollar denominated Brent Blend oil price. The LIBOR USD coefficient, $\hat{\beta}_3$, equals -0.01. If the LIBOR USD interest rate increases by one unit, results imply that the NOK appreciates by 0.01%, all else equal. In line with the interest rate parity, higher interest rates in the US over time implies depreciation pressure on the dollar compared to other currencies, assuming corresponding interest rates are held constant. A potential explanation for the appreciation of the NOK is that the value of the US dollar is captured within the I44 index, as it makes up between 5-7% of the trade weighted exchange rate, I44.

6.4.3.2 The relation between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price

Model 3

Model 3 investigates whether a cointegrating relationship exists between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the Brent Blend oil price. The hypothesis is similar to the one presented in model 1 and 2, with respect to how the oil price is expected to affect the exchange rate for an oil exporting nation as Norway.

Model 3 is formulated in the following way:

$$logUSD_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 logBrent_t + u_t$$
 (Eq. 6.16a)

Table 15 - Cointegration coefficient estimates, model 3

Dependent variable = logUSD					
Variable Estimate Std. Erro					
Intercept	2.7542	0.0271			
logBrent	-0.1674	0.0070			

Formally we have:

$$log \overline{USD}_t = 2.75 - 0.17 log Brent_t$$

(Eq. 6.16b)

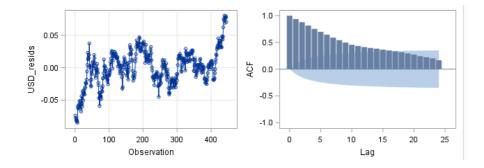
Residuals from the above regression are stationary, as the ADF test in table 16 rejects the null hypothesis of a unit root at a 5% level. Again, the ACF plot shows that autocorrelation coefficients fall relatively fast towards zero, although some persistence is present. The KPSS test rejects stationarity at a 1% level, which contradicts the results from the ADF test. The authors have chosen to emphasize the ADF test in conjunction with the ACF plot, as the KPSS was included for confirmatory purposes, and thus conclude that cointegration is present.

Table 16 - Stationarity analysis on regression residuals, model 3

Stationarity analysis on regression residuals					
ADF test KPSS test					
# of lags to ensure no sign. autocorr	7	17			
Test statistic	**-3.21	***0.68			
Conclusion Stationarity Unit root					

Engle-Granger critical values (applicable to the ADF test): 10% = -2.84, 5% = -3.17, 1% = -3.77

Figure 31 – Line and ACF plot on regression residuals, model 3



The coefficient on logBrent, $\hat{\beta}_1$, reflects the long-run multiplier, implying that in the long run, a 1% rise in the price of Brent is associated with a 0.17% decline in the NOK/USD exchange rate, holding all else equal. In other words, when the oil price rises, the NOK/USD declines, representing an appreciation of the Norwegian krone, in line with expectations.

Note that the results from the reverse specification 3R⁴⁴ did not provide proof of a cointegrating relationship. Theoretically, the two specifications should yield a similar cointegration conclusion. Hence, the conclusion for model 3R is questionable, due to the lack of cointegration in the reverse specification.

⁴⁴ Model 3R: $logBrent_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 logUSD_t + u_t$

Model 4

The following model is an expansion of model 3 above, conducted to establish whether the results are robust when controlling for the interest rate differential between NIBOR and LIBOR USD, as well as the interest rate level in the US.

Formally, we test the following model:

$$logUSD_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}logBrent_{t} + \beta_{2}INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t} + \beta_{3}LIBORUSD_{t} + u_{t}$$
(Eq. 17a)

Table 17 - Cointegration coefficient estimates, model 4

Dependent variable = logUSD					
Variable Estimate Std. Erro					
Intercept	2.6489	0.0275			
logBrent	-0.1240	0.0078			
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD	-0.0645	0.0120			
LIBORUSD	-0.0386	0.0167			

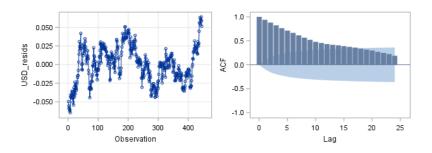
The unit root test on the residuals, \hat{u}_t , from the above regression indicates that residuals are stationary, as the null hypothesis of a unit root is rejected at 10%, as seen in table 18. The ACF plot in figure 32 is similar to those seen in previous models. The KPSS-test presented below rejects the null hypothesis of stationarity at a 5% level, which is an indication that the results from the ADF test may be subject to certain weaknesses. As in model 3, the authors accentuate the ADF test in conjunction with the ACF plot, and thus conclude that cointegration is present, although questionable.

Table 18 - Stationarity analysis on regression residuals, model 4

Stationarity analysis on regression residuals					
ADF test KPSS test					
# of lags to ensure no sign. autocorr	8	17			
Test statistic	*-3.16	**0.18			
Conclusion Stationarity Stationarity					

Engle-Granger critical values (applicable to the ADF test): 10% = -2.84, 5% = -3.17, 1% = -3.77

Figure 32 – Line and ACF plots on regression residuals, model 4



The estimated model yields the following:

$$logUSD_t = 2.65 - 0.12logBrent_t - 0.06INTDIFF LIBORUSD_t - 0.04LIBORUSD_t$$
 (Eq. 6.17b)

The estimated coefficient on logBrent equals -0.12 implying that a 1% rise in the oil price is associated with a decline of the NOK/USD exchange rate by of 0.12%, all else equal. This is again in line with economic theory, which states that a rise in the oil price is expected to strengthen the currency value for nations highly dependent on oil exports, and depreciate the currency value for oil importers.

Furthermore, we see that a rise by one percentage point of the interest rate differential between NIBOR and LIBOR USD is expected to strengthen the NOK by 0.06%, all else equal. As for the interest rate differential in model 2, the sign is opposite of what is expected from the interest rate parity, given the long term perspective underlying the cointegration methodology.

On the contrary, the coefficient on LIBOR USD equals -0.04, meaning that if LIBOR USD rises by one percentage point, the NOK/USD exchange rate will decline by 0.04%, implying a strengthening of the NOK, in line with expectations. In the long run, higher interest rates in the US compared to Norway, implies depreciation pressure on the dollar given that Norwegian interest rates remain constant, c.f. the interest rate parity.

6.4.4 Conclusion cointegration

Cointegration analyses were carried out in all subsamples, and results indicated that cointegration is only established in subsample 2.2⁴⁵, representing the period after the oil price hit bottom in January 2015 and until end the of 2016. A cointegrating relationship was found between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price, and results were robust when interest rates variables were added to the model. The same applies for the relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price. In other words, we found indication of a long-term relationship between the exchange rates and Brent Blend. Results are although slightly borderline, as the applied stationary tests occasionally yield mixed results.

6.5 Error correction models

According to the Granger Representation theorem, if a cointegrating relationship is found in a system of variables, there exists a valid error correction representation of the data (Engle & Granger, 1987). We therefore estimate an *error correction model* (ECM) in order to investigate the short and long-run dynamics between the variables of interest simultaneously. In the short-run, the relation may exhibit a disequilibrium, in which the error correction models are useful in estimating the speed at which the dependent variable will return to the equilibrium value after a change in the explanatory variables. Further, tests for cointegration do not propose the direction of causality. Granger causality analyses are therefore applied within the ECM to investigate which variable Granger causes the other.

6.5.1 Theory

6.5.1.1 Error correction models

The *error correction mechanism* was introduced by Sargan (1964), and was later interpreted by Engle and Granger (1987). The error term in the cointegration equation relating the two variables of interest can be treated as the *equilibrium error*, and can be used to tie the short-run behaviour of the Y variable to its long-run value. The following equation, a linear transformation of the cointegration equation 6.11a, defines the error correction term (Gujarati & Porter, 2009):

$$u_t = Y_t - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_t \tag{Eq. 6.18a}$$

The following represents an error correction model:

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \theta_1 \Delta X_t + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{Eq. 6.18b}$$

⁴⁵ Identical to subsample 3.3

Where;

 u_{t-1} is the lagged value of the error term in Eq. 6.18a

 ε_t is a white noise error term

The equation states that the change in Y, ΔY , depends on the change in X, ΔX , and the equilibrium error term from the previous period, u_{t-1} . If the equilibrium error term (hereafter also referred to as the EC-term) is nonzero, the model is in disequilibrium.

For example, if ΔX is zero and $u_{t-1} > 0$, Y_{t-1} is above its equilibrium value of $\alpha_0 + \theta_1 X_{t-1}$. As we expect φ to be negative, φu_{t-1} is negative and ΔY_t will be negative to re-enter into equilibrium. Thus, if Y_t is larger than its equilibrium value, it will exhibit a downwards trend to correct the equilibrium error, and vice versa. By this, we understand that the absolute value of φ describes how quickly the equilibrium is reinstated, or stated otherwise, the speed of the movement towards the equilibrium. θ_1 shows how quickly changes in the independent variable are reflected in the dependent variable (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). If φ is above 0, the equilibrium errors will be magnified instead of corrected, which is inconsistent with cointegration (Koop, 2007).

The introduction of the equilibrium error from the preceding period as an explanatory variable in this representation allows us to move towards a new equilibrium, while the term ε_t is a stationary disturbance that leads temporary deviations from the equilibrium path. More generally, the β_j coefficients above will capture the long-term relation between the variables of interest through the cointegration relation, while θ_1 and φ will estimate the short-run relationships through the error correction model (Gujarati & Porter, 2009).

6.5.1.2. Granger causality with cointegrated variables

Within the error correction models, the authors have conducted Granger-causality tests to investigate the direction of causality.

Granger (1969) specifies that Granger's concept of causality is based on *forecast ability* or *predictability* rather than causality in the sense of a cause and effect relationship. The idea behind Granger causality is to exploit the fact that time does not run backwards. Thus, if event 1 happens before event 2, it may be possible that event 1 causes event 2, but not the other way around. However, if Granger causality is found, it does not *guarantee* that event 1 causes event 2. Yet, if past values of one variable has explanatory power for another, it suggests there *may* be some causality (Koop, 2007).

The Granger test assumes that the time series data on the variables of interest contains *all* relevant information to predict the dependent variable (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). If Y_t and X_t are two series, X_t is said to Granger cause Y_t if lagged values of X_t has statistically important information about the future values of Y_t . The test may yield either *unidirectional causality* from X to Y or from Y to X, meaning that for example in a regression of Y on lagged values of X, the latter corresponding coefficients are statistically different from zero as a group, or vice versa. There may exist *bilateral causality*, in which the sets of lagged Y's or X's are statistically significantly different from zero in both regressions. Lastly, the results may yield *independence*, in which the lagged explanatory variables are not statistically significant in any of the regressions. A limitation of this test is that it can only be applied to pairs of variables. Thus, if the true relation encompasses three or more variables, the test may yield misleading results (Brahmasrene et al., 2014). The two variable relation could be expanded to contain multivariate causality through the vector autoregression (VAR) (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). This is however regarded as beyond the main interest of this thesis.

The Granger causality method tests the null hypothesis that the coefficients on the explanatory variables in a time series regression with multiple predictors are zero. In other words, the null hypothesis is that the tested regressors have no predictive content for the dependent variable beyond that contained in other regressors. The critical values are based on the F-distribution (Koop, 2007).

Consider the following autoregressive distributed lag (ADL) model⁴⁶:

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta Y_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta Y_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta X_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta X_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \tag{Eq. 6.19a}$$

The Granger causality hypothesis would formally be stated the following way:

$$H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \dots = \theta_q = 0$$

$$H_1$$
: At least one $\theta_q \neq 0$

In the case of cointegrated variables, the ADL model from above is extended to include the error correction term, φu_{t-1} . As explained above, past values of X also appear in this term, as $u_{t-1} = Y_{t-1} - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{t-1}$ (Koop, 2007). The augmented model from above can be written as:

⁴⁶ This is defined as a regression model which includes "[...] lagged values of the dependent variable and current and lagged values of one or more explanatory variables" (Chen, n.d.). Note that current values of the explanatory variables are not included, as we do not allow for *contemporaneous causality* (Koop, 2007)

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta Y_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta Y_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta X_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta X_{t-j} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{Eq. 6.19b}$$

The hypothesis test is extended to:

$$H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \dots = \theta_i = 0 \text{ and } \varphi = 0$$

 H_1 : At least one of the above $\neq 0$

The first part of the null hypothesis can be referred to as the "short run non-causality", and the second as the "long-run non-causality". If the null hypothesis is rejected, there exists a causal relationship between *Y* and *X* at least once, either in the short or long term, or both (Lee, Lin, & Wu, 2002).

6.5.2 Estimation method

As the authors are not interested in contemporaneous causality, the contemporaneous value of X is not included. Consequently, we seek only to estimate the effect of the past values of the explanatory variables, and not the current (Koop, 2007).

The inclusion of the particular control variables in the specific relations is done following the same argumentation as in the test for cointegration presented in section 6.4.2.

Some important assumptions and characteristics behind the test are to be mentioned. In the process of determining the number of lags to include in the ECM, thorough analysis has been carried out to ensure that autocorrelation is removed, and that the residuals exhibit white noise. The direction and acceptance of causality may depend critically on the number of lagged terms included (Gujarati & Porter, 2009), as seen in the comprehensive Granger causality results overview in appendix 10. Each model has been tested with the inclusion of 1 to 15 lags of all included variables, and the corresponding Breusch-Godfrey tests and ACF plots have been analysed in conjunction (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). The maximum lag length examined is 15, which implies a cut-off equal to three business weeks. This is found to be reasonable, as an effect exceeding three weeks is not expected, in accordance with efficiency of financial markets, as discussed in section 3.1.1. All variables in a specific model were restricted to have identical lag lengths, to reduce the number of possible model specifications, following Amano & Norden (1998b) and Brahmasrene et al. (2014). The potential drawback of applying the identical lag length method is a quick increase in the number of parameters to be estimated, and the risk of having an over parametrized system relative to the total number of observations. The latter can potentially lead to poor and inefficient estimates (Hoover, 1995). However, in this specific case, the authors believe that the number of observations are sufficient to avoid the problem.

As the models partly investigate short-term relations, the first difference of the variables are analysed. Additionally, the Granger causality test assumes that the variables are stationary, which is satisfied by the first-difference specification.

Table 19 below presents the error correction models based on the cointegration findings in section 6.4.3. The models are also tested in the reverse specification, in order to analyse whether causality exists in the opposite direction.

	Overview of error correction models tested for Granger causality
Model	Model specification
	Does the oil price Granger cause the exchange rates?
Model 1.1	$\Delta \log I44_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log I44_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log Brent_{t-j} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$
Model 2.1	$ \Delta \log I44_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log 44_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log Brent_{t-j} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_I44_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_p \Delta INTDIFF_I44_{t-p} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_n \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-n} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t $
Model 3.1	$\Delta \log USD_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log USD_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log Brent_{t-j} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$
Model 4.1	$ \Delta \log USD_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta log USD_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta log Brent_{t-j} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_p \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-p} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_n \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-n} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t $
	Does the exchange rate Granger cause the oil price?
Model 1.1R ¹	$\Delta \log Brent_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_{m} \Delta \log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_{1} \Delta \log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{j} \Delta \log I44_{t-j} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$
Model 2.1R	$ \Delta \log Brent_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta log I44_{t-j} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_I44_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_p \Delta INTDIFF_I44_{t-p} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_n \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-n} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t $
Model 3.1R	$\Delta \log Brent_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta log USD_{t-j} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$
Model 4.1R	$ \Delta \log Brent_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_{m} \Delta log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_{1} \Delta \log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{j} \Delta log USD_{t-j} + \vartheta_{1} \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_{p} \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-p} + \tau_{1} \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_{n} \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-n} + \varphi u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t} $

Table 19 - Overview of error co	a second and a second all a	and a stift and the second star large	to the d form Commence	124
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¹ R represents the reverse model specification. Models are conversely specified to check for causality in the oppsite direction

6.5.3 Empirical findings

Table 20 below summarizes the error correction models and Granger causality findings. Granger causality is found in all models in sample 2.2, and all specifications exhibit equilibrium correcting properties, with the exception of model 1.1, where the error correction term is insignificant. The error correction models are presented one by one in what follows. Following literature, emphasis and analysis on day-to-day fluctuations in dynamic models is not common, which is why the coefficients will not be interpreted extensively. Table 29 in the end of this section presents the models' corresponding ACF plots, confirming that no significant autocorrelation is present.

<i>Table 20</i> – Overview of Granger causality test results for cointegrated variables, sample 2.2	

	Granger causality for cointegrated variables Sample 2.2						
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	# of lags to ensure	F-value	Error correction	Coefficient on	Conclusion
	from $X \rightarrow Y$		no sign. autocorr.		term	lag of ∆X	
		Does the oil price (Granger cause the ex	change rates?			
Model 1.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 144$	-	4	***4.97	-0.0189	***-0.0411	GC in SR ¹
Model 2.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 144$	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	4	***5.37	*-0.0372	***-0.0406	GC in SR and LR ²
Model 3.1	$\Delta logBrent \rightarrow \Delta logUSD$	-	4	***3.61	*-0.0314	***-0.0466	GC in SR and LR
Model 4.1	$\Delta logBrent \rightarrow \Delta logUSD$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	6	***3.98	***-0.0569	***-0.0536	GC in SR and LR
		Does the exchange	e rate Granger cause	the oil price?			
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	-	1	***4.70	***-0.2451	0.2941	GC in LR
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	1	*2.32	*-0.1687	0.4656	GC in LR
Model 3.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	-	1	*2.40	**-0.1123	0.0955	GC in LR
Model 4.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	1	1.46	-0.0857	0.1927	No GC

¹ SR = Short run

² LR = Long run

6.5.2.1 The relation between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price

Model 1.1 – Does Brent Granger cause the I44 exchange rate?

Based on the autocorrelation analysis, it is established that four lags were necessary make the error term uncorrelated, leading us to estimate the model presented in equation 6.20 below:

$$\Delta logI44_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta logI44_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_{4} \Delta logI44_{t-4} + \theta_{1} \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{4} \Delta logBrent_{t-4} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$$

$$(Eq. 6.20)$$

Table 21 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 1.1

Dependent variable =	∆logi44			
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value
Intercept	0.0001	0.0003	0.3000	0.7625
∆logI44 _{t-1}	-0.1103	0.0505	-2.1900	0.0294
∆logI44 _{t-2}	-0.0375	0.0507	-0.7400	0.4604
∆logI44 _{t-3}	0.0863	0.0504	1.7100	0.0877
∆logI44 _{t-4}	-0.1103	0.0492	-2.2400	0.0255
∆logBrent _{t-1}	-0.0411	0.0091	-4.5400	<.0001
∆logBrent _{t-2}	0.0011	0.0092	0.1200	0.9042
∆logBrent _{t-3}	0.0090	0.0092	0.9700	0.3319
∆logBrent _{t-4}	0.0084	0.0093	0.9100	0.3624
\hat{u}_{t-1}	-0.0189	0.0158	-1.2000	0.2298
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value
F-test			4.97	0.0002

In model 1.1, Granger causality is found in the short run, from the oil price to the I44 exchange rate.

This is given by the presence of a highly significant F-test and the significance of the first lag of the explanatory variable, $\Delta logBrent_{t-1}$. However, an insignificant error correction, \hat{u}_{t-1} , term leads us to

conclude that past values of the oil price might not influence the I44 in the long run. This is because the error correction term captures the effect of past values of Brent, in a long-term relation, through the cointegration model. Hence, we have indication of *short-term* Granger-causality from the oil price to the I44 exchange rate, by using 4 daily lags. As the coefficient on changes in Brent is negative, the implication is that a rise in the oil price leads to a fall in the I44 index, associated with a strengthening of the NOK. This evidence supports theory for oil-exporting nations, expressing that a rise in the oil price will, in isolation, lead to an appreciation of the exchange rate because of enhanced terms of trade (Bernhardsen & Røisland, 2000).

Possible explanations for the fact that Granger causality is found in the short term solely might be that oil price changes are quickly incorporated in the exchange markets. Forward looking agents seem to view exchange rates as asset prices, and changes in the oil price are incorporated as a part of public information used to determine the position in the market (Amano & Norden, 1998a; Fratzscher et al., 2014).

Following a cointegrating relationship, there exists an error correction model with a significant EC-term in the system (Engle & Granger, 1987). The EC-term in model 1.1 was insignificant, which implies that in order to verify the found cointegrating relationship, the EC-term in model 1.1R needs to be significant.

Model 1.1R – Does the I44 exchange rate Granger cause Brent?

Model 1.1R is the reverse of model 1.1, implying that the oil price represents the dependent variable and I44 the independent variable. Autocorrelation analyses suggest one lag of the respective variables to be included. The following models is tested:

$$\Delta logBrent_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \theta_{1} \Delta logI44_{t-1} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$$
(Eq. 6.21)

Dependent variable = ∆logBrent						
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value		
Intercept	0.0003	0.0014	0.2200	0.8246		
∆logBrent _{t-1}	0.0469	0.0491	0.9500	0.3404		
∆logI44 _{t-1}	0.2941	0.2651	1.1100	0.2680		
\widehat{u}_{t-1}	-0.2451	0.0814	-3.0100	0.0028		
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value		
F-test			4.70	0.0096		

Table 22 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 1.1R

The results display that Granger causality is found from the I44 exchange rate to the Brent Blend oil price, solely in the long run.

The F-value is sufficiently high to reject the null hypothesis at a 1% level. The results show that $\Delta log I44_{t-1}$ is insignificant, implying that we find no short-term effect from the I44 index to the oil price. The error correction term, \hat{u}_{t-1} , is negative and significant at 1%, indicating that over the long run, past values of the I44 index have significant explanatory power for changes of current values of the oil price.

In summary, the findings indication that the oil price has predictive content for the I44 in the short run, while the causality is reversed in the long run. A possible explanation for the short term effect from the oil price to the I44 is that the FX market quickly reacts to changes in the oil price, which is consistent with the financial newspapers' persuasion and frequently stated headlines. Over the long run, the system seems to be more open, with a long term effect proven through the cointegrating relationship, with an indication that causality runs from the exchange rate to the oil price.

The relatively large and negative value of the EC-term indicates that if the oil price is above its equilibrium value, a great amount of the discrepancy is corrected each day. This is in line with nature of the error correction term, as it being less than zero indicates a move towards equilibrium instead of being magnified (Koop, 2007).

As stated in the Granger Representation Theorem, cointegration infers that at least one of the two variables must Granger-cause the other. The conclusion of Granger causality in specification 1.1R thus confirms the cointegrating relationship found in section 6.4.3.1 model 1, which otherwise would have been doubtful.

In summary, the result of model 1.1 and 1.1R together present the picture that past values of the oil price can explain the value of the I44 *and* vice versa, but that the effect depends on the time horizon.

Model 2.1 – Does Brent Granger cause the I44 exchange rate (with control variables)

Model 2.1 is an extended version of model 1.1 as interest rates variables are included. The autocorrelation analysis established that four lags are necessary to avoid autocorrelation, leading us to estimate the model presented in equation 6.22 below.

$$\Delta logI44_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta logI44_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_{4} \Delta logI44_{t-4} + \theta_{1} \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{4} \Delta logBrent_{t-4} + \theta_{1} \Delta INTDIFF_{I}I44_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{4} \Delta INTDIFF_{I}I44_{t-4} + \tau_{1} \Delta LIBOR_{I}USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_{4} \Delta LIBOR_{I}USD_{t-4} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$$

$$(Eq. 6.22)$$

Dependent variable = ∆logi	144			
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value
Intercept	-0.0001	0.0003	-0.3700	0.7108
∆logI44 _{t-1}	-0.1549	0.0572	-2.7100	0.0071
∆logI44 _{t-2}	-0.1198	0.0577	-2.0700	0.0386
∆logI44 _{t-3}	0.1076	0.0567	1.9000	0.0584
∆logI44 _{t-4}	-0.0959	0.0553	-1.7300	0.084
∆logBrent _{t-1}	-0.0406	0.0092	-4.4300	<.0001
∆logBrent _{t-2}	-0.0075	0.0094	-0.8000	0.4269
∆logBrent _{t-3}	0.0076	0.0094	0.8000	0.4216
∆logBrent _{t-4}	0.0105	0.0094	1.1200	0.2619
ΔINTDIFF_I44 _{t-1}	-0.0135	0.0117	-1.1600	0.2467
ΔINTDIFF_I44 _{t-2}	-0.0360	0.0117	-3.0700	0.0023
ΔINTDIFF_I44 _{t-3}	0.0023	0.0118	0.1900	0.8479
ΔINTDIFF_I44 _{t-4}	-0.0040	0.0118	-0.3400	0.7315
ΔLIBORUSD _{t-1}	0.1125	0.0505	2.2300	0.0265
ΔLIBORUSD _{t-2}	0.0412	0.0518	0.8000	0.4269
ΔLIBORUSD _{t-3}	-0.0264	0.0516	-0.5100	0.6085
ΔLIBORUSD _{t-4}	-0.0063	0.0509	-0.1200	0.9018
\hat{u}_{t-1}	-0.0372	0.0198	-1.8800	0.0603
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value
F-test			5.37	<.0001

Table 23 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 2.1

As seen in table 23, Granger causality is found from the oil price to the exchange rate in both the short and long run, when controlling for interest rates.

The F-value implies that the null hypothesis is rejected at a 1% level. Hence, at least one of the coefficients tested have explanatory power for the dependent variable, $\Delta logI44$. The first lag of Brent, $\Delta logBrent_{t-1}$, is negative and highly significant, indicating that Brent seems to have a short term effect on the I44 exchange rate. This shows that positive changes in the oil price leads the I44 index to fall, signifying a strengthening of the NOK, in line with expectations as discussed in 6.4.3. As described above, the coefficient on lag one of the change in the oil price, θ_1 , shows how quickly changes in the independent variable are reflected in the dependent variable. If $\Delta logBrent$ suddenly increases by 1%, the I44 index exchange rate would instantly decrease by 0.04%.

Further, a significant error correction term indicates that past values of Brent has statistically important information about the future values of the I44 exchange rate in the *long run*, but the result is weak, due to a significance level of 10%. Control variables included in the present specification might have resolved a potential problem of omitted variables in model 1.1.

The negative value of the EC-term of -0.04 indicates that if the I44 index is above equilibrium in one period, its value would fall in the next period⁴⁷ to restore equilibrium, and vice versa. This is in line with correcting nature of the error correction term, as described above. The absolute value of the error term coefficient, φ , describes how quickly the equilibrium is reinstated.

Model 2.1R – Does the I44 exchange rate Granger cause Brent (with control variables)?

Model 2.1R is the reverse model specification of model 2.1. The autocorrelation analysis established that one lag is necessary implying estimation of the following model.

$$\begin{split} \Delta logBrent_t &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \Delta logI44_{t-1} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_I44_{t-1} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} \\ &+ \varepsilon_t \end{split} (Eq. 6.23)$$

Dependent variable = ∆logBrent						
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value		
Intercept	0.0015	0.0014	1.0400	0.2994		
∆logBrent _{t-1}	0.0530	0.0495	1.0700	0.2850		
∆logI44 _{t-1}	0.4656	0.2964	1.5700	0.1170		
ΔINTDIFF_I44 _{t-1}	0.0893	0.0630	1.4200	0.1569		
ΔLIBORUSD _{t-1}	-0.7183	0.2665	-2.7000	0.0073		
\widehat{u}_{t-1}	-0.1687	0.0988	-1.7100	0.0886		
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value		
F-test			2.32	0.0999		

Table 24 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 2.1R

In model 2.1R, the I44 exchange rate is found to Granger cause the oil price solely in the long run.

The result shows a significant F-value at a 10% level, indicating that at least one of the coefficients tested have predictive content for the oil price. The coefficient on $\Delta logI44_{t-1}$ is insignificant, indicating that short term causality is not present.

The EC term is negative and significant at a 5% level, which indicates long-run Granger causality. The result supports the conclusion found in model 1.1R.

The negative and significant EC-term proves that the error correction mechanism moves in the expected direction, by correcting for oil price values above or below its equilibrium value.

⁴⁷ One day in this specific case

6.5.2.2 The relation between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price

Model 3.1 – Does Brent Granger cause the NOK/USD exchange rate?

Model 3 investigates the relation between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price, applying four lags.

```
\begin{split} \Delta logUSD_t &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta logUSD_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_4 \Delta logUSD_{t-4} + \theta_1 \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_4 \Delta logBrent_{t-4} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} \\ &+ \varepsilon_t \end{split}
(Eq. 6.24)
```

Dependent variable =/	\logUSD	Dependent variable =∆logUSD							
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value					
Intercept	0.000324	0.0004	0.81	0.4186					
$\Delta logUSD_{t-1}$	-0.0348	0.0501	-0.69	0.4878					
$\Delta logUSD_{t-2}$	0.007551	0.0501	0.15	0.8802					
∆logUSD _{t-3}	0.0865	0.0501	1.73	0.0847					
∆logUSD _{t-4}	-0.124	0.0498	-2.49	0.0131					
∆logBrent _{t-1}	-0.0466	0.0144	-3.24	0.0013					
∆logBrent _{t-2}	0.0103	0.0145	0.71	0.4789					
∆logBrent _{t-3}	0.0246	0.0145	1.7	0.0908					
∆logBrent _{t-4}	0.00488	0.0145	0.34	0.7372					
\hat{u}_{t-1}	-0.0314	0.0162	-1.94	0.0525					
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value					
F-test			3.61	0.0033					

Table 25 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 3.1

In model 3.1, Granger causality is evident from the oil price to the USD exchange rate in the short and long run.

Testing for Granger causality in model 3.1, we are able to reject the null hypothesis at a 10% level, implying that at least one of the coefficients tested have predictive content for the USD exchange rate. Additionally, $\Delta logBrent_{t-1}$ is negative and significant at 1%, also in line with expectations. Positive changes in the oil price leads to a strengthening of the NOK.

The error correction term is negative and significant at a 1% level, leading us to conclude that there is both a long and short-term relation between the USD and the oil price. Stated differently, past values of the oil price have explanatory power for current values of the US dollar applying 4 lags. The sign of the error correction is in line with expectations.

Model 3.1R – Does the NOK/USD exchange rate Granger cause Brent?

No cointegration was found in model 3R⁴⁸. However, as cointegration was evident for model 3, it leads us to investigate model 3.1R also in order to establish which direction the causality may run.

$$\Delta logBrent_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \theta_1 \Delta logUSD_{t-1} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$
(Eq. 6.25)

Table 26 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 3.1R

Dependent variable =∆logBrent						
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value		
Intercept	0.0003	0.0014	0.2000	0.8379		
∆logBrent _{t-1}	0.0399	0.0493	0.8100	0.4183		
∆logUSD _{t-1}	0.0955	0.1698	0.5600	0.5741		
\widehat{u}_{t-1}	-0.1123	0.0515	-2.1800	0.0296		
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value		
F-test			2.40	0.0920		

In model 3.1R, Granger causality is found from the USD exchange rate to the oil price in the long run.

The F-test for this specification rejects the null hypothesis at a 10% level. As seen in table 26, $\Delta logUSD_{t-1}$ is insignificant, implying no short term causality. The EC-term on the other hand is significant at a 5% level, suggesting that Granger causality is present solely in the long term horizon. As explained, the quotation of Brent in USD is an explanation for the value of the dollar.

The negative sign of the error correction term indicates that the correcting mechanism is moving in the expected direction, by lowering the value of Brent if it is higher than its equilibrium value, and vice versa.

Model 4.1 – Does Brent Granger cause the NOK/USD exchange rate (with control variables)?

Model 4.1 represents the extended version of model 3.1 as interest rates variables are added to the model to check the robustness of the above established results and prevent possible implications of omitted variables. Autocorrelation analysis indicate the necessity of six included lags, which imply that Eq.6.26 below is tested.

$$\begin{split} \Delta logUSD_{t} &= \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta logUSD_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_{6} \Delta logUSD_{t-6} + \theta_{1} \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{6} \Delta logBrent_{t-6} \\ &+ \vartheta_{1} \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_{6} \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-6} + \tau_{1} \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} + \dots \\ &+ \tau_{6} \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-6} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t} \end{split}$$
(Eq. 6.26)

⁴⁸ This is not explicitly shown in the thesis, but was conducted for verification purposes.

Dependent variable = ∆logUSD				
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value
Intercept	0.0002	0.0005	0.4100	0.6801
∆logUSD _{t-1}	-0.0650	0.0557	-1.1700	0.2435
∆logUSD _{t-2}	-0.0185	0.0555	-0.3300	0.7383
∆logUSD _{t-3}	0.1325	0.0547	2.4200	0.0159
$\Delta \log USD_{t-4}$	-0.1043	0.0548	-1.9000	0.0578
∆logUSD _{t-5}	0.0102	0.0543	0.1900	0.8518
∆logUSD _{t-6}	0.0880	0.0542	1.6200	0.1053
∆logBrent _{t-1}	-0.0536	0.0146	-3.6600	0.0003
∆logBrent _{t-2}	-0.0049	0.0148	-0.3300	0.7399
∆logBrent _{t-3}	0.0248	0.0148	1.6800	0.0940
∆logBrent _{t-4}	0.0061	0.0148	0.4100	0.6823
∆logBrent _{t-5}	-0.0220	0.0147	-1.4900	0.1361
∆logBrent _{t-6}	-0.0106	0.0147	-0.7200	0.4711
∆LIBORUSD _{t-1}	0.1320	0.0837	1.5800	0.1156
∆LIBORUSD _{t-2}	-0.0132	0.0851	-0.1600	0.8766
∆LIBORUSD _{t-3}	-0.0842	0.0845	-1.0000	0.3198
∆LIBORUSD _{t-4}	0.1074	0.0847	1.2700	0.2057
∆LIBORUSD _{t-5}	-0.0306	0.0853	-0.3600	0.7201
∆LIBORUSD _{t-6}	0.0287	0.0846	0.3400	0.7346
∆INTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-1}	-0.0081	0.0185	-0.4400	0.6611
AINTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-2}	-0.0465	0.0183	-2.5400	0.0116
∆INTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-3}	0.0006	0.0185	0.0300	0.9757
∆INTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-4}	0.0058	0.0185	0.3100	0.7545
∆INTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-5}	0.0293	0.0184	1.5900	0.1116
∆INTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-6}	0.0570	0.0185	3.0900	0.0022
\hat{u}_{t-1}	-0.0569	0.0197	-2.8900	0.0041
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value
			3.98	0.0003

Table 27 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 4.1

Model 4.1 test results show that the oil price is found to Granger cause the USD exchange rate in the short and long run.

The F-value is significant at a 1% level, leading us to reject the null hypothesis of no explanatory power of the tested coefficients.

 $\Delta logBrent_{t-1}$ is negative and significant at 1%, while $\Delta logBrent_{t-3}$ is positive and significant at 10%⁴⁹. The negative coefficient on lag one indicates that positive changes in the oil price leads to a strengthening of the NOK, through a decrease in the NOK/USD exchange rate, as expected.

The error correction term is small, negative, and significant at a 1% level, indicating that the error is corrected towards equilibrium if the value of the USD is higher or lower than its equilibrium value. By

⁴⁹ As discussed, a comprehensive analysis of the day-to-day fluctuations is not carried out, as this is not meaningful in a dynamic model.

adding the relevant control variables, the result found in model 3.1 are strengthened, indicating that these might have been missing in the previous specification. Stated otherwise, this points toward the fact that changes in LIBOR USD and the interest rate differential between NIBOR and LIBOR USD are important factors in the analysed relationship.

Model 4.1R – Does the NOK/USD exchange rate Granger cause Brent (with control variables)?

Model 4.1R represents the reverse of model 4.1. Autocorrelation analysis indicate the necessity of one lag respectively, yielding the following equation to be tested.

 $\Delta logBrent_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \theta_{1} \Delta logUSD_{t-1} + \vartheta_{1} \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \tau_{1} \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$ (Eq. 6.27)

Dependent variable = ∆logBrent						
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value		
Intercept	0.0015	0.0014	1.0600	0.2886		
∆logBrent _{t-1}	0.0422	0.0492	0.8600	0.3920		
∆logUSD _{t-1}	0.1927	0.1813	1.0600	0.2883		
ΔLIBORUSD _{t-1}	-0.7105	0.2732	-2.6000	0.0096		
ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-1}	0.0350	0.0619	0.5600	0.5725		
\widehat{u}_{t-1}	-0.0857	0.0579	-1.4800	0.1398		
Granger causality test P-value P-value						
F-test			1.46	0.2339		

Table 28 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 4.1R

Results from testing model 4.1R provide evidence of no Granger causality from the NOK/USD exchange rate to the oil price, neither in the short nor the long term.

The F-value is insignificant, revealing that we fail to reject the null hypothesis of no Granger causality. As explained above, the test of whether the NOK/USD Granger causes Brent (without control variables)⁵⁰ showed no significant Granger causality in the short term. This is confirmed when control variables are added to the relation, as seen by the insignificant coefficient on $\Delta logUSD_{t-1}$. Further, the insignificant EC term in model 4.1R shows that Granger causality is not present through the cointegration relation either.

The below table summarizes all the models' corresponding line and ACF plots. The illustrations show that no significant autocorrelation is present.

⁵⁰ Model 3.1R

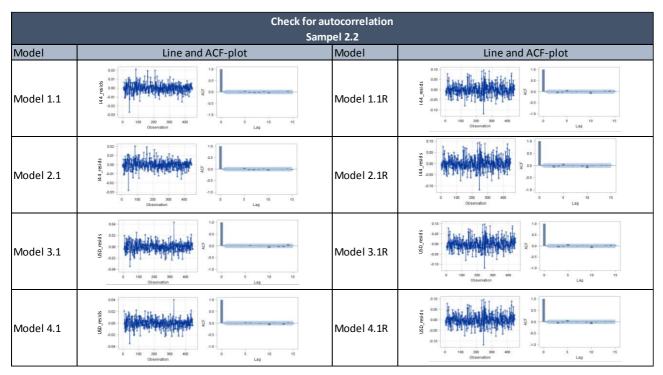


Table 29 - Summary of autocorrelation analysis, all models, sample 2.2

6.5.4 Conclusion error correction models

The establishment of cointegration in subsample 2.2 led the authors to test for Granger causality in the short and long term through the corresponding dynamic error correction models. The findings revealed that the coefficient of the error correction term, φ , was negative in all models, indicating that the error is corrected in the expected direction when the dependent variable is beyond its equilibrium value. The absolute value of the EC-term is larger having Brent as the dependent variable, indicating that a larger part of the discrepancy is corrected each day if the oil price it beyond its equilibrium value.

Granger causality was evident in both the short and long term from the oil price to the exchange rates, while solely long run causality was evident when testing for the opposite direction. This result was slightly in contrast to the findings by Brahmasrene, Huang, & Sissoko, (2014), who found that exchange rates Granger caused crude oil in the short run, while crude oil Granger caused exchanges rates in the long run. Potentially, the short run causality effect on exchange rates can be explained by a more rapid absorption of information by market participants. Further, it is possible that oil price determination on the other hand is largely determined by fundamental changes in supply and demand.

6.6 Granger causality

For the models in which cointegration was not detected, there might still exist short term relations between the variables of interest. For this reason, short term Granger causality will be investigated for non cointegrated variables. The authors seek to understand whether the media's emphasis on the oil price as a main factor in determining the value of the NOK can be statistically proven, or if causality runs in the opposite direction.

As earlier described, past literature presents differing empirical results on the direction and causation between the oil price and various exchange rates, see for example Krugman (1980) and Golub (1983), Amano & Norden (1998), Hamilton (1983), Brahmasrene et al. (2014) and Ellen & Martinsen, (2016). As discussed, Krugman (1980) and Golub (1983) found that oil exporting nations experience an appreciation of their currency through the wealth-transfer effect, tested empirically by Amano & Norden (1998). The latter, consistent with Hamilton (1983) proved that Granger causality ran from oil prices to exchange rates and not the other way. A comparable result was also found by (Benassy-Quere et al., 2007) and (Chaudhuri & Daniel B.C., 1997).

6.6.1 Estimation method

The estimation method for non-cointegrated variables generally follow the same methods explained for the Granger causality tests within the error correction models.

Firstly, we also here seek only to estimate the effect of the past values of X, and not the contemporaneous, as explained in 6.5.2. To conform with the stationarity assumption behind Granger causality testing, the first differenced variables are used. The lag length is applied in the same manner as in section 6.5.2.1, with a maximum lag length of 15. The assumptions regarding autocorrelations applies also in this section, in which a model is only accepted if it yields no significant autocorrelation.

We are also interested in investigating differences between the subsets chosen, which is why each subsample will be presented separately. The full sample period as well as all subsamples, with the exception of sample 2.2, will be reviewed⁵¹. The inclusion of specific control variables in the relations is done following the same argumentation as in the test for cointegration presented in section 6.4.2.

An overview of the models that have been estimated is as follows:

⁵¹ Cointegration was established in subsample 2.2. Granger causality was therefore tested within the error correction models.

Figure 33 – Overview of model specifications to be tested for Granger causality

	Overview of models tested for Granger causality				
Model	Granger causality Model specification from $X \rightarrow Y$ Model specification				
		Does the oil price Granger cause the exchange rates?			
Model 1.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 144$	$\Delta \log I44_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log I44_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log Brent_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t$			
Model 2.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 144$	$ \Delta \log I44_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta log 44_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta log Brent_{t-j} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_l 44_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_p \Delta INTDIFF_l 44_{t-p} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_U SD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_n \Delta LIBOR_U SD_{t-n} + \varepsilon_t $			
Model 3.1	$\Delta logBrent \rightarrow \Delta logUSD$	$\Delta \log USD_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log USD_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log Brent_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t$			
Model 4.1	$\Delta logBrent \rightarrow \Delta logUSD$	$ \Delta \log USD_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log USD_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log Brent_{t-j} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_p \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-p} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_n \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-n} + \varepsilon_t $			
		Does the exchange rate Granger cause the oil price?			
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	$\Delta \log Brent_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log I44_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t$			
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	$ \Delta \log Brent_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log I44_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log I44_{t-j} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_I44_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_p \Delta INTDIFF_I44_{t-p} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_n \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-n} + \varepsilon_t $			
Model 3.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	$\Delta \log Brent_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta \log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta \log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta \log USD_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t$			
Model 4.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	$ \Delta \log Brent_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta log Brent_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_m \Delta log Brent_{t-m} + \theta_1 \Delta \log USD_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_j \Delta log USD_{t-j} + \vartheta_1 \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} + \dots + \vartheta_p \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-p} + \tau_1 \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \dots + \tau_n \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-n} + \varepsilon_t $			

6.6.2 Empirical findings

An overview of the results from the Granger causality tests can be found in table 30 below.

Table 30 - Overview of Granger causality test results for non-cointegrated variables across all samples

Granger causality test results ¹							
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	Full sample	Sample 2.1	Sample 3.1	Sample 3.2	
	from $X \rightarrow Y$						
Does the oil price Granger cause the exchange rate?							
Model 1.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 44$	-	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	
Model 2.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 144$	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	
Model 3.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log USD$	-	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	
Model 4.1	$\Delta logBrent \rightarrow \Delta logUSD$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	Yes, 1%	
	Doe	s the exchange rate Granger cause t	he oil price?				
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	-	Yes, 10%	Yes, 10%	No	Yes, 1%	
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	Yes, 10%	Yes, 5%	No	Yes, 1%	
Model 3.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	-	Yes, 5%	Yes, 1%	No	Yes, 5%	
Model 4.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	Yes, 5%	Yes, 5%	No	Yes, 1%	

¹% indicates the significance level of the F-value

6.4.2.1 Full sample period

The results from the Granger causality tests in the full sample are summarized in table 31 below.

Granger causality test results Full sample							
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	# of lags to ensure	F-value			
	from $X \rightarrow Y$		no sign. autocorr.				
	Does the oil	price Granger cause the exchange ra	ites?				
Model 1.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 144$	-	4	***17.05			
Model 2.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log 144$	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	15	***5.60			
Model 3.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogUSD	-	1	***54.49			
Model 4.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log USD$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	1	***51.27			
	Does the exe	change rate Granger cause the oil pr	ice?				
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	-	15	*1.64			
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	11	*1.67			
Model 3.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	-	13	**2.11			
Model 4.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	11	**2.23			



6.4.2.1.1 The relationship between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price – model 1.1, 2.1, 1.1R and 2.1R Firstly, the results of the models testing for Granger causality from the oil price to the I44 exchange rate will be discussed. By investigating model 1.1, the results reveal that $\Delta logBrent$ Granger cause $\Delta logI44$ applying 4 daily lags. Analysing model 2.1, we see that the results are robust when adding control variables, although more lags are necessary to eliminate autocorrelation. The implication of these results are that past information on changes in the crude oil price may improve forecasts of the exchange rate. The findings are consistent with Amano & Norden (1998) and Hamilton (1983), who found Granger causality from the oil price to the exchange rates, when investigating the US real exchange rate and the oil price. As discussed in the introduction of the thesis, the popular perception in financial media is that the oil price has a large impact on the value of the Norwegian krone, which relates to the above findings.

Further, we examine Granger causality from the I44 exchange rate to the oil price, through the reverse specifications, model 1.1R and 2.1 R. The result from model 1.1R shows that the null hypothesis, that lagged values of $\Delta logI44$ do not have predictive content for $\Delta logBrent$, is rejected at a 10% level. This result is consistent when adding control variables to the relation, through specification 2.1R. Thus, it seems that changes in the I44 exchange rate can be used to predict changes in the oil price in the short run. For example, a weakening of the NOK can be related to pessimistic economic outlook for Norway, which often is thought to occur in association with a downwards trending oil price. The significance level although indicates a somewhat weak result.

6.4.2.1.2 The relationship between the USD and the oil price – model 3.1, 4.1, 3.1R and 4.1R

In the full sample period, causality is analysed also between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price. Results from model specification 3.1, testing whether $\Delta logBrent$ Granger cause $\Delta logUSD$, shows a highly significant F-value at a 1% level. This result holds when control variables are added to the model, through specification 4.1, by applying one lag. The results are in line with expectations, as the oil price is expected to affect the exchange rate for an oil exporting nation such as Norway, c.f. previous discussions in 6.4.3.2.

When investigating whether the NOK/USD exchange rate Granger causes Brent, through model 3.1R and 4.1R, the null hypothesis can again be rejected, although at a 5% level. Results are robust when control variables are added to the model, yielding a slightly higher F-value, indicating that $\Delta LIBORUSD$ and $\Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD$ are important variables to account for in the relationship. Results therefore indicate that $\Delta logUSD$ Granger cause $\Delta logBrent$. This result is possibly an implication of the previously discussed characteristic that the oil price is quoted in US dollar. Therefore, changes in the value of the US dollar against the Norwegian krone are found to have "forecast-ability" for changes in the oil price.

The findings yield bilateral Granger causality between both the I44 exchange rate and the oil price, as well as between the NOK/USD and the oil price.

6.4.2.2 Sample 2.1

Sample 2.1 ranges from the initiation of the full sample period (01-01-2001) until post oil price collapse in 2014 (13-01-2015). The variables of interest occasionally experienced strong volatility during both the financial crisis and the 2014 oil price drop. The results from sample 2.1 are summarized in table 32.

Granger causality test results Sample 2.1						
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	# of lags to ensure	F-value		
	from $X \rightarrow Y$		no sign. autocorr.			
	Does the oil	price Granger cause the exchange ra	ites?			
Model 1.1	∆logBrent → ∆logI44	-	2	***22.38		
Model 2.1	∆logBrent → ∆logI44	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	15	***4.14		
Model 3.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log USD$	-	1	***43.01		
Model 4.1	$\Delta \log Brent \rightarrow \Delta \log USD$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	1	***41.52		
	Does the ex	change rate Granger cause the oil pr	ice?			
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	-	13	*1.66		
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	11	**1.91		
Model 3.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	-	15	***2.21		
Model 4.1R	ΔlogUSD → ΔlogBrent	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	7	**2.30		

Table 32 - Overview of Granger causality test results for non-cointegrated variables, sample 2.1

6.4.2.2.1 The relationship between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price – model 1.1, 2.1, 1.1R and 2.1R

Results from model 1.1 reveal that $\Delta logBrent$ Granger cause $\Delta logI44$ using 2 daily lags, as the F-value is significant at a 1% level. When adding control variables, and thereby testing model specification 2.1, we see that the results are robust, although more lags are necessary to eliminate autocorrelation, similar to the findings in the full sample. Information on changes in crude oil prices may support forecasts of the I44 effective exchange rate. The findings are in line with previous literature and the authors expectations.

Further, the reverse specifications, model 1.1R and 2.1R, are examined to test for Granger causality from the I44 exchange rate to the oil price. For model 1.1R, the null hypothesis, that lagged values of $\Delta log I44$ do not have predictive content for $\Delta log Brent$, is rejected at a 10% level also in this sample. This result is strengthened when adding control variables to the relation, through specification 2.1R.

The results are overall consistent with the findings in the full sample.

6.4.2.2.2 The relationship between the USD and the oil price - model 3.1, 4.1, 3.1R and 4.1R

For the relation between the oil price and the US dollar, the results are similar to the ones presented in the full sample. The resulting F-value from model specification 3.1, testing whether $\Delta logBrent$ Granger cause $\Delta logUSD$, is highly significant. The result is robust in model 4.1, where $\Delta LIBOUSD$ and $\Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD$ are added to the model. As the oil price is expected to affect the exchange rate for oil exporting nations, the result is in line with expectations.

When investigating model 3.1R, whether the NOK/USD exchange rate Granger causes Brent, the null hypothesis can again be rejected at a 1% level. Results are robust in model 4.2R, where control variables

are added to the model, however yielding a slightly lower F-value. Results therefore indicate that changes in the NOK/USD exchange rate contain predictive content for changes in the oil price, in the short run, in line with the expectations.

Also in subsample 2.1, we find bilateral Granger causality between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price, as well as between the NOK/USD and the oil price.

6.4.2.4 Sample 3.1

Sample 3.1 runs from the beginning of the full sample period (01-01-2001) until the beginning of the financial crisis (03-07-2008), where the oil price peaked at \$144/bbl. The period is characterized by stable increases in the Brent oil price. Results from Granger causality in sample 3.1 differ from other subsamples. Granger causality is *not* found from the exchange rates to the oil price, both with respect to the I44 and the NOK/USD. A summary of the samples' results is found in table 33.

Table 33 - Overview of Granger	causality test results for r	non-cointegrated variables, sample 3.1	
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		Granger causality test results Sample 3.1			
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	# of lags to ensure	F-value	
	from $X \rightarrow Y$		no sign. autocorr.		
	Does the oil	price Granger cause the exchange ra	ites?		
Model 1.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogI44	-	5	***4.09	
Model 2.1	∆logBrent → ∆logI44	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	5	***4.24	
Model 3.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogUSD	-	4	***6.48	
Model 4.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogUSD	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	4	***6.67	
Does the exchange rate Granger cause the oil price?					
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	-	5	0.40	
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	5	0.39	
Model 3.1R	ΔlogUSD → ΔlogBrent	-	6	1.59	
Model 4.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	6	1.59	

6.4.2.4.1 The relationship between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price – model 1.1, 2.1, 1.1R and 2.1R

As seen above, the Granger causality tests in model 1.1 and 2.1 imply that we reject the null hypothesis of no explanatory power at a 1% level. As found in the full sample, as well as the samples preceding 3.2, oil price changes have predictive content for changes in the I44 exchange rate.

However, when testing the reverse specifications in model 1.1R and 2.1R, we are not able to reject the null hypothesis. Tests therefore indicate that information on changes in the I44 exchange rate cannot improve forecasts on changes in the oil price.

6.4.2.4.2 The relationship between the USD and the oil price – model 3.1, 4.1, 3.1R and 4.1R

When testing the relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price, the results reveal that Granger causality runs from the oil price to the exchange rate. The null hypothesis is rejected at a 1% level, both in model specification 3.1 and 4.1.

In model 3.1R and 4.1R, we do not find evidence causation due to the resulting insignificant F-value, hence we cannot reject the null hypothesis that the tested coefficients have no predictive content for the oil price. Results reveal that information on US dollar exchange rate movements cannot significantly be used to predict changes in the oil price in this subsample.

To summarize the findings in subsample 3.1, we found that causality runs from the oil price to the respective exchange rates, but not the converse. This was consistent when control variables are added to the models. As described, this period is recognised by less volatility, and the findings of no Granger causality might be that low expectations of radical changes in the markets cushioned the effect of occurring events. A further explanation might be that the financialisation of oil as a commodity was not as strong at this time (Morgan Stanley, n.d.). Stated differently, as oil behaves more like a financial asset, the less the price formation is affected by the forces of supply and demand. Sample 3.1 is characterised by a lower average open interest in crude oil than the following samples. Thus, market information on the development of other financial assets, as the exchange rates, might not have been as strongly absorbed in the oil price determination in the early 2000s.

6.4.2.5 Sample 3.2

Sample 3.2 covers the period from pre-financial crisis (04-07-2008) until the initiation of the oil price drop in 2014 (13-01-2015). It might be described as the most volatile period of the sample, as there are large variations in the financial variables under consideration. Results from the Granger causality tests can be found in table 34.

		Granger causality test results				
		Sample 3.2				
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	# of lags to ensure	F-value		
	from $X \rightarrow Y$		no sign. autocorr.			
	Does the oil	price Granger cause the exchange ra	ites?	-		
Model 1.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogI44	-	1	***33.29		
Model 2.1	∆logBrent → ∆logI44	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	1	***32.73		
Model 3.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogUSD	-	2	***14.51		
Model 4.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogUSD	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	13	***3.15		
	Does the exchange rate Granger cause the oil price?					
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	-	13	***2.19		
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	10	**2.09		
Model 3.1R	ΔlogUSD → ΔlogBrent	-	13	***2.24		
Model 4.1R	ΔlogUSD → ΔlogBrent	ΔLIBORUSD, ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD	15	***1.77		

Table 34 - Overview of Granger causality test results for non-cointegrated variables, sample 3.2

6.4.2.5.1 The relationship between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price

By investigating model 1.1 and model 2.1, we find that the F-value is sufficient to reject the null hypothesis at a 1% level. With strong statistical significance, we verify that $\Delta logBrent$ Granger cause $\Delta logI44$, also when controlling for $\Delta INTDIFF_I44$ and $\Delta LIBORUSD$.

Reversing the relation, investigating model 1.1R and 2.1R, we find similar results. Information on changes in the I44 exchange rate is useful when predicting changes in the oil price.

6.4.2.5.2 The relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price

Investigating model 3.1 and 4.1, we see that the F-value is large, and suffices to reject the null hypothesis at a 1% level for both specifications. Changes in Brent has predictive content for changes in the NOK/USD exchange rate.

Model 3.1R and 4.1R reveal that the null hypothesis can be rejected at a 5% and 1% level, respectively. The bilateral relation between the oil price and the NOK/USD is evident, and supports findings in the full sample as well as sample 2.1

Summarizing sample 3.2, we see that bilateral Granger causality is found both between the oil price and the I44 exchange rate, as well as the NOK/USD, almost exclusively at a 1% significance level. Sample 3.2 therefore stands out as the sample with the strongest causality results. This gives the authors reason to believe that more variation in the data yields stronger Granger causality results.

6.6.3 Conclusion Granger causality

The overall findings reveal bilateral causality across all subsamples with the exception of sample 3.1. Subsample 3.1, characterised by less volatility, showed no Granger causality from exchange rates to the oil price, even when controlling for relevant variables. One potential reason might be that low expectations of radical changes in the markets cushioned the effect of occurring events. Further, as it is believed that the financialisation of the oil price was limited, the oil price might not have reacted to the same extent to changes in other financial assets, such as the exchange rates. On the other hand, the most volatile period, sample 3.2, indicated the strongest causality results.

6.7 Conclusion empirical analysis

The findings cannot be said to provide a clear picture of the relation between the oil price and the exchange rate, as the results differ depending on the sample investigated, the time horizon, and the model specifications.

Overall, the stationarity analysis concluded that all variables were integrated of order 1. These results led to investigation of a cointegrating relation between the oil price and the respective exchange rates, where a long term relation was confirmed both between the I44 and the oil price, as well as the NOK/USD and the oil price. Where cointegration was established, in subsample 2.2, the relation was further examined through error correction models, and subsequent Granger causality analyses investigated both potential short and long term causality relations. Findings enabled the authors to conclude that causation was evident from the oil price to exchange rates was evident both in the short and long term. Investigation of causation from the oil price to the exchange rates was, on the contrary, only evident in the long run.

Further analysis of Granger causality in specifications where no cointegration was established, indicated that bilateral causality existed for both relations across all subsamples, with the exception of subsample 3.1. Most significant results where prominent in subsample 3.2, where the variables could be said to have exhibited the most volatility.

7. Robustness check

In empirical studies, it is often desired to examine the robustness of the empirical results. The relations may be augmented by adding or removing regressors or examining other data frequencies. As discussed in section 5.1.3, certain control variables where omitted from the previous analyses, as these were not obtainable on the desired frequency. In order to include some of these potentially important variables,

further empirical analyses have been conducted on a monthly basis. It is worth mentioning that on one hand, this might increase the robustness. On the other hand, the frequency change yields fewer observations, which might reduce the strength of the results.

7.1 Variable choices

The robustness data set analysed represents monthly data covering the full sample period from January 2001 to December 2016. The robustness analyses will not be carried out on subsamples, due to the limited number of observations.

As described in the theory section, multiple variables are relevant to consider when modelling relations between the oil price and the exchange rates.

Firstly, additional variables can be included to control for the changes in the exchange rates. As described by Madura & Fox (2011) and discussed in 3.1.1, the variations in the supply and demand levels of currencies can be explained by changes in inflation, interest rates, government income, government control and expectations. Inflation is also emphasized in fundamental theories such as PPP. With regards to the oil price, theory and historical examination of the price development suggest that geopolitical tensions, the development of the world economy, natural disasters and financial markets development among others are influential variables, cf. section 3.2.1. Good proxies for government control, expectations, natural disasters, geopolitical tensions and the movements in the financial markets as a whole are not readily available. Control variables are added in correspondence with previous literature by Akram (2002) and Habib & Kalamova (2007). These are *industrial production* and *inflation* (measured by the Consumer Price Index, CPI) for the relevant geographical areas.

Common for previous literature is the established negative relationship between changes in the oil price and productivity variables such as GDP, economic growth and industrial production⁵², see for example (Cobo-Reyes & Quirós, 2005; Hamilton, 1983; Kim & Willet, 2000). As argued in section 3.2.1, the state of the global economy may have an influence on the oil price, through its effect on energy demand. Industrial production is argued to be one of the leading indicators of gross domestic product⁵³ which reflects the overall economic performance of a country. Stated differently, increases or decreases in industrial production indicate whether an economy is expanding or contracting (Bayar & Kilic, 2014). A

⁵² Industrial production is according to OECD "the output of industrial establishments", and includes sectors as manufacturing, public utilities (electricity, gas and water) and mining. It is measured in an index with base year 2010, and expresses change in the volume of production output (OECD, 2017).

⁵³ GDP is reported solely on a quarterly basis, which is why the chosen proxy is industrial production

relatively higher growth in productivity is believed to raise the value of a country's currency (Balassa, n.d.). Prior research emphasizes oil and gas as crucial inputs to the industrial production, as about one-half of the world's total delivered energy is consumed by the industrial sector.

The inclusion of consumer price indices⁵⁴ stems from their ability to capture the respective countries' price levels. As previously explained, high domestic inflation would generally result in increased demand for lower priced foreign goods, which consequently results in rising demand for foreign currency. As theoretically explained, this is expected to impact the exchange rates.

Weighted indices for both industrial production and CPI are constructed to represent the respective variables in accordance with the trade-weighted exchange rate I44. Identical weights as applied to the I44 interest rate⁵⁵ are used to construct these. Data on both variables are retrieved from OECD.

7.2 Stationarity

The stationarity analysis conducted in the following section is conducted in a similar manner as the analysis carried out in section 6.4.2-6.4.3. Graphical analysis, correlogram analysis and stationarity tests will be performed to establish the nature of the variables under investigation.

7.2.1 Empirical estimation and findings

Table 35 summarises the findings from stationarity analyses conducted on variables in level form, in the robustness sample. With the exception of the three CPI variables, all other variables clearly exhibit a unit root. The price index variables show mixed conclusions, both with respect to the ADF test and the ACF plot. The authors have chosen to require that the null hypothesis of a unit root is rejected at a 1 or 5% level, to ensure that no non-stationary variables are included in the subsequent analyses. On the basis of this, the final conclusion is that the CPI variables exhibit a unit root, and that proper transformation is required.

⁵⁴ CPI is a measure for inflation, defined by OECD as the "change in the prices of a basket of goods or services [...]". It is measured in terms of the annual growth rate of prices, and in an index with base year 2010 (OECD, n.d.-b).

⁵⁵ See appendix 1

Variables in level form Robustness sample					
Name	Model specification	BG-test conclusion	Lag(s) in ADF-test	Test statistic (tau-value)	Conclusion (significance)
logBrent	RW with drift	>10	10/20	0.80/0.84	Unit root
logI44	RW with drift	9	9	-2.71	Unit root
logUSD	RW with drift	1	1	-1.71	Unit root
44_INTRATE	RW with drift	8	8	-1.4	Unit root
LIBORUSD	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-1.65/-1.69	Unit root
NIBOR	RW with drift	5	5	-1.81	Unit root
ogINDPRO_144	RW with drift	3	3	-2.87	Unit root
ogINDPRO_USD	RW with drift	4	4	-2.71	Unit root
ogINDPRO_NOK	RW with drift & trend	>10	10/20	-2.37/-2.38	Unit root
CPI_144	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-2.79/-2.54	*Stationarity /Unit root
CPI_USD	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-2.81/-2.76	*Stationarity/*Stationari
CPI_NOK	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-2.88/-2.43	**Stationarity/Unit root

Table 35 - Stationarity analysis for all samples, variables in level form, monthly data

Critical values applicable for RW with drift: 10% = -2.57, 5% = -2.86, 1% = -3.43 / Critical values applicable for RW with drift & trend: 10% = -3.12, 5% = -3.41, 1% = -3.96

7.2.2 Correcting for non-stationarity

As previously discussed, time series that exhibit a unit root becomes stationary by taking the first difference of the variable. Thus, the first difference of the variables has been analysed.

The results show that all variables become stationary after the transformation, and the null hypothesis of a unit root in rejected at a 1% significance level, with the exception of $\Delta LIBORUSD$ which is rejected at a 10% level, see table 36. However, the respective ACF plot is in line with expectations, leading the authors to believe that the somewhat lower test-statistic is due to extreme values in the time series. The results can be seen in summary table 37.

	Variables in first differences, Δ Robustness sample				
Name	Model specification	BG-test conclusion	Lag(s) in ADF-test	Test statistic (tau-value)	Conclusion (significance)
∆logBrent	Pure RW	0	0	-11.50	***Stationary
∆logI44	Pure RW	8	8	-4.98	***Stationary
ΔlogNOK/USD	Pure RW	0	0	-9.22	***Stationary
ΔI44_INTRATE	Pure RW	0	0	-6.34	*Stationary
ΔLIBORUSD	Pure RW	9	9	-1.63	***Stationary
ΔNIBOR	Pure RW	7	7	-4.09	***Stationary
ΔlogINDPRO_144	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-3.39/-2.76	***Stationary
ΔlogINDPRO_USD	Pure RW	6	6	-3.62	***Stationary
ΔlogINDPRO_NOK	RW with drift	>10	10/20	-3.97/-3.66	***Stationary
ΔCPI_144	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-3.73/-3.04	***Stationary
ΔCPI_USD	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-4.62/-3.58	***Stationary
ΔCPI_NOK	Pure RW	>10	10/20	-4.52/-3.75	***Stationary

Table 36 - Stationarity analysis for all samples, variables in differenced form, monthly data

Critical values applicable for Pure RW: 10% = -1.61, 5% = -1.95, 1% = -2.58/ Critical values applicable for RW with drift: 10% = -2.57, 5% = -2.86, 1% = -3.43

The following table summarises the time-series properties and autocorrelation functions for the variables in level and first differenced form. We clearly see that autocorrelation is reduced when variables in first differences are analysed.

	Overview of line and ACF plots Robustness sample				
Variable	Undifferenced varibale	First difference of variable			
logBrent					
log 144					
log USD					
I44_INTRATE	and the second s				
LIBORUSD					
NIBOR					
log (INDPRO_144)					
log (INDPRO_USD)					
log (INDPRO_NOK)					
CPI_144					
CPI_USD					
CPI_NOK					

Table 37 - Summary of stationarity analysis: Line and ACF plots, monthly data

7.3 Cointegration

As discussed, we run the risk of not finding a significant cointegrating relationship if relevant factors associated with the dependent variable are omitted. To investigate whether prior analyses have been subject to misspecification, we further analyse whether the inclusion of industrial production and consumer price indices alter the until now established conclusions.

The following table summarises the cointegration models tested and the corresponding findings.

Overview of cointegration models tested Robustness						
Model	Model specification	# of lags to ensure no sign. autocorr ¹	Test statistic (tau-value)	Stationarity conclusion on regression residuals		
	144 and Brent	Signiacocon	(
Nodel 1	$\log I44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + u_t$	14	-2.81	Unit root		
Vodel 2	$\log I44_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_1 44_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + u_t$	11	-2.77	Unit root		
/lodel 5	$\begin{split} \log I44_t &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_I44_T + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + \beta_4 logINDPRO_USD_t + \\ &\beta_5 logINDPRO_NOK_t + \beta_6 logINDPRO_144_t + \beta_7 CPIDIFF_I44_t + u_t \end{split}$	11	-2.83	Unit root		
	NOK/USD and Brent					
Aodel 3	$\log USD_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 logBrent_t + u_t$	2	-2.31	Unit root		
Nodel 4	$\log USD_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + u_t$	2	-1.78	Unit root		
/lodel 6	$\begin{split} \log USD_t &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Brent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_t + \beta_3 LIBOR_USD_t + \beta_4 logINDPRO_US\\ \beta_5 logINDPRO_NOK_t + \beta_6 CPIDIFF_USD_t + u_t \end{split}$	$SD_t + 0$	***-4.80	Stationarity		

Table 38 - Overview of cointegration model specifications, monthly data

¹Significance level depends on the number of lags i model.

Engle-Granger critical values (applicable to the ADF test): 10% = -2.84, 5% = -3.17, 1% = -3.77

Overall, the results from the robustness analyses both support and contradict the conclusions reached in the analyses conducted on daily data in the full sample in section 6.4.3. With respect to the I44 exchange rate and the oil price, the results support the findings of no cointegration, also when controlling for industrial production and inflation. However, the conclusion changes when analysing the relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price, when the two formerly omitted control variables are added to the relation (model 6). The latter is further analysed in what follows.

Model 6

Model 6 tests whether the inclusion of Norwegian and US industrial production as well as the price level differential between Norway and the US changes the results previously established.

Formally we test the following model

$$\begin{split} logUSD_t &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 logBrent_t + \beta_2 INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_t + \beta_3 LIBORUSD_t + \beta_4 logINDPRO_USD_t \\ &+ \beta_5 logINDPRO_NOK_t + \beta_6 CPIDIFF_USD_t + u_t \end{split} (Eq. 7.1)$$

Table 39 - Cointegration coefficient estimates, model 6

Dependent variable = log	USD	
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error
Intercept	4.4161	0.9328
logBrent	-0.3309	0.0125
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD	0.0038	0.0029
LIBORUSD	0.0103	0.0041
logINDPRO_USD	0.5357	0.1165
logINDPRO_NOK	-0.7913	0.1144
CPIDIFF_USD	0.0145	0.0030

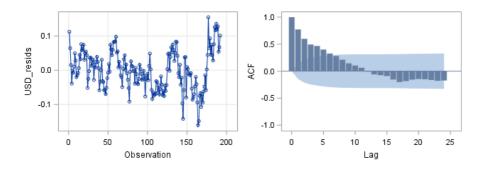
 $logUSD_t = 4.42 - 0.33 logBrent_t + 0.004 INT DIFF_LIBORUSD_t + 0.01 LIBORUSD_t + 0.54 logINDPRO_USD_t - 0.79 logINDPRO_NOK_t + 0.01 CPIDIFF_USD_t + u_t$

The Breusch-Godfrey test indicates that no lags are necessary to ensure no significant autocorrelation. The results from the ADF⁵⁶ test shows that the null hypothesis of a unit root is rejected at a 1% level, see table 40. The ACF plot below shows that autocorrelation coefficients decline fast towards zero, supporting the ADF test conclusion. The KPSS-test however rejects the null hypothesis of stationarity at a 1% significance level, contradicting the ADF test. The authors have chosen to emphasize the ADF test in conjunction with the ACF plot, and thus conclude that cointegration is present.

Table 40 - Stationarity analysis on regression residuals, model 6

Stationarity analysis on regression residuals			
	ADF test	KPSS test	
# of lags to ensure no sign. autocorr	0	14	
Test statistic	***-4.80	***0.14	
Conclusion	Stationarity	Unit root	

Engle-Granger critical values (applicable to the DF test): 10% = -2.84, 5% = -3.17, 1% = -3.77





⁵⁶ In this case the Dickey-Fuller are zero lags are included in the model

7.4 Error correction models

Following the previously conducted analyses, error correction models will be estimated where a cointegrating relationship was found.

7.4.1 Empirical estimation and findings

The results from the Granger causality tests for cointegrated variables are found in table 41 below.

Granger causality for cointegrated variables Robustness							
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	# of lags to ensure	F-value	Error	Coefficient on	Conclusion
	from $X \rightarrow Y$		no sign. autocorr.		correction term	lag of ∆X	
	Does the oil price Granger cause the exchange rates?						
Model 6.1	0 0	ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD, ΔLIBORUSD, ΔlogINDPRO_NOK, ΔlogINDPRO_USD, ΔCPIDIFF_USD	1	*2.54	**-0.0758	0.0055	GC in LR
Does the exchange rate Granger cause the oil price?							
Model 6.1R		ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD, ΔLIBORUSD, ΔlogINDPRO_NOK, ΔlogINDPRO_USD, ΔCPIDIFF_USD	1	***6.60	-0.2098	***-0.9227	GC in SR

7.4.1.1 The relation between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price

Model 6.1

Grange causality is tested from the oil price to the NOK/USD exchange rate, and the converse. Model 6.1 is an extension of error correction model 3.1 which was estimated on daily data, with the inclusion of the control variables industrial production and CPI.

$$\begin{split} \Delta log USD_{t} &= \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta log USD_{t-1} + \theta_{1} \Delta log Brent_{t-1} + \vartheta_{1} \Delta LIBOR_{USD_{t-1}} + \tau_{1} \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} \\ &+ \omega_{1} \Delta log INDPRO_NOK_{t-1} + \lambda_{1} log INDPRO_USD_{t-1} + \eta_{1} CPIDIFF_USD_{t-1} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} \\ &+ \varepsilon_{t} \end{split}$$

$$(Eq. 7.2)$$

Dependent variable = ∆log	USD			
Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value
Intercept	0.0005	0.0018	0.3000	0.7663
$\Delta logUSD_{t-1}$	0.3513	0.0799	4.4000	<.0001
∆logBrent _{t-1}	0.0055	0.0215	0.2500	0.8003
ΔLIBORUSD _{t-1}	-0.0209	0.0086	-2.4300	0.0162
Δ INTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-1}	-0.0110	0.0080	-1.3700	0.1724
$\Delta logINDPRO_NOK_{t-1}$	-0.0046	0.0585	-0.0800	0.9370
$\Delta logINDPRO_USD_{t-1}$	-0.2829	0.2640	-1.0700	0.2854
$\Delta CPIDIFF_USD_{t-1}$	0.0033	0.0030	1.1100	0.2705
\widehat{u}_{t-1}	-0.0758	0.0342	-2.2100	0.0281
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value
F-test			2.54	0.0819

Figure 35 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 6.1

The results from model 6.1 show that the oil price Granger causes the NOK/USD in the long run.

The F-value is significant at a 10% level, leading us to reject the null hypothesis of no Granger causality. The coefficient on $\Delta logBrent_{t-1}$ is insignificant, rejecting any short-term causality. The error correction term is significant at a 5% level, leading the causality results to prevail from the long-run relation. The EC term is small and negative, in line with expectations.

When controlling for industrial production and CPI, we now find a cointegrating relationship with a corresponding error correction model. The cointegration findings may indicate that specification 4.1⁵⁷ tested in the full sample suffered from omitted variable bias. This indicates that these variables contain important information about the relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price.

Model 6.1R

Model 6.1R represents the reverse specification of model 6.1

$$\begin{split} \Delta logBrent_{t} &= \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \Delta logBrent_{t-1} + \theta_{1} \Delta logUSD_{t-1} + \vartheta_{1} \Delta LIBOR_USD_{t-1} + \tau_{1} \Delta INTDIFF_LIBORUSD_{t-1} \\ &+ \omega_{1} \Delta logINDPRO_NOK_{t-1} + \lambda_{1} logINDPRO_USD_{t-1} + \eta_{1} CPIDIFF_USD_{t-1} + \varphi \hat{u}_{t-1} \\ &+ \varepsilon_{t} \end{split}$$

$$(Eq. 7.3)$$

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P-value
Intercept	-0.0042	0.0069	-0.6000	0.5505
∆logBrent _{t-1}	0.0656	0.0831	0.7900	0.4312
∆logUSD _{t-1}	-0.9227	0.3086	-2.9900	0.0032
∆LIBORUSD _{t-1}	0.0653	0.0332	1.9700	0.0505
∆INTDIFF_LIBORUSD _{t-1}	0.0066	0.0311	0.2100	0.8317
∆logINDPRO_NOK _{t-1}	0.4502	0.2261	1.9900	0.0480
$\Delta logINDPRO_USD_{t-1}$	1.4126	1.0198	1.3900	0.1677
∆CPIDIFF_USD _{t-1}	-0.0158	0.0116	-1.3600	0.1767
\widehat{u}_{t-1}	-0.2098	0.1322	-1.5900	0.1143
Granger causality test			F-value	P-value
F-test			6.60	0.0017

Figure 36 - Error correction model coefficient estimates and Granger causality test, model 6.1R

The result from model 6.1R displays that the NOK/USD exchange rate Granger causes the oil price in the short run.

Model 6.1R has a significant F-value at a 1% level, and the null hypothesis of no Granger causality is rejected here as well. The coefficient on $\Delta logUSD_{t-1}$ is highly significant and negative, indicating that an increase in the exchange rate may lead to a decrease in Brent. This is in line with economic theory, explaining that the phenomenon results from US dollar denomination of the oil price. The error correction term is insignificant, leading us to reject that long-run Granger causality is present. This result thus contrasts the conclusion of model 4.1R.

7.5 Granger causality

Table 44 below presents the results of the Granger causality test conducted on monthly data, followed by a discussion of the findings. The test is conducted on the model specification where no cointegration was found.

Granger causality test results Full sample, robustness				
Model	Granger causality	Control variables	# of lags to ensure	F-value
	from $X \rightarrow Y$		no sign. autocorr.	
		Does the oil price Granger cause the exchange rates	;?	
Model 1.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogI44	-	13	1.14
Model 2.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogI44	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	4	**3.33
Model 5.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogI44	ΔINTDIFF 144, ΔLIBORUSD, ΔlogINDPRO NOK,	4	**2.78
		ΔlogINDPRO_144, ΔlogINDPRO_USD, ΔCPIDIFF_144		
Model 3.1	ΔlogBrent → ΔlogUSD	-	1	0.54
Model 4.1	$\Delta logBrent \rightarrow \Delta logUSD$	ΔINTDIFF_LIBORUSD, ΔLIBORUSD	1	0.14
		Does the exchange rate Granger cause the oil price	?	
Model 1.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	-	11	***2.41
Model 2.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_I44, ΔLIBORUSD	10	**1.94
Model 5.1R	ΔlogI44 → ΔlogBrent	ΔINTDIFF_144, ΔLIBORUSD, ΔlogINDPRO_NOK,	14	1.42
		ΔlogINDPRO_144, ΔlogINDPRO_USD, ΔCPIDIFF_144		
Model 3.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	-	11	***4.04
Model 4.1R	$\Delta \log USD \rightarrow \Delta \log Brent$	ΔINTDIFF LIBORUSD, ΔLIBORUSD	11	***3.09

Table 42 - Overview of Granger causality test results for non-cointegrated variables, monthly data

7.5.1 The relationship between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price

As presented above, the results show that the null hypothesis of Granger non-causality cannot be rejected for model 1.1, in contrast to the findings on daily data. When adding the interest rate differential and LIBOR USD as control variables, in model 2.1, causality is established, and the results correspond to those from daily data. Conclusions from model 2.1 are unchanged when controlling for industrial production and inflation (CPI), in model 5.1⁵⁸.

For the reverse specifications, model 1.1R, 2.1R and 5.1R, we find that $\Delta logI44$ Granger cause $\Delta logBrent$. The results are surprisingly strongest when no control variables are included. In the daily dataset, the results were significant at a 10% level, whereas we find significance at a 5% and 1% level for models in the monthly dataset. The stronger results analysing monthly data might indicate that the oil price requires more time than a few days to adjust to changes in the I44 exchange rate.

⁵⁸ Although with a somewhat lower F-value

7.5.2 The relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price

By testing for Granger causality from the oil price to the NOK/USD exchange rate, we find no significant causal relationships using monthly data. This opposes to the strong results found in the daily data, where causality was established at a 1% significance level. A possible reason for this might be that the effect of changes in the oil price are internalized more rapidly in the exchange rates, implying that monthly data is not able to capture the changes. This might follow from the fact that monthly data represents the average of daily data. The result indicates solid efficiency of the exchange rate markets, and corresponds to financial media's presentation of the relationship.

When investigating causality from NOK/USD to the oil price, the results are similar to the daily data, although the significance level is strengthened. Changes in the NOK/USD exchange rate thus seem to affect the oil price both through day-to-day and monthly variations.

7.6 Conclusion robustness check

The conclusions from the cointegration analysis carried out on daily data in the full sample were confirmed by the findings using monthly data, before controlling for industrial production and inflation, that were thought to be missing in the daily specifications. When these are included, we find a cointegrating relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and Brent.

The major differences when analysing monthly data is that we find no Granger causality from the oil price to the NOK/USD exchange rate. The differences in the findings may, as discussed, be due to the rapidness of the information flow from one variable to another. Daily and monthly changes are not directly comparable when investigating financial markets. If the results where more clear cut, it might yield additional reliability to the initial findings. However, in this specific case, it is difficult to determine whether one result is more correct than another.

8. Conclusion

The objective of the thesis was to analyse the relationship between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone. The Norwegian economy's dependence on oil has significantly risen since the discovery in the 1960s, and one gets the impression that their development is closely intertwined. The large oil price drop in 2014 further sparked the authors interest in investigating whether this caused a change to the relationship, as experts have recently questioned whether the relation still is as clear cut as earlier expressed.

In summary, statistical evidence did not support that the historical interlinkage is broken. However, we concluded that the relationship has changed following the 2014 oil price collapse. Our findings concluded that a long run, cointegrating relation exists between the oil price and the respective exchange rate, solely after the collapse.

Analyses were conducted on daily data from 2001 to 2016, investigating the relation between the Brent Blend and the nominal effective exchange rate I44, as well as between Brent and the NOK/USD exchange rate. The results of the unit root and stationarity tests concluded that all variables were integrated of order 1, across all samples. To investigate whether a long run cointegrating relationship existed between the variables, the two-step Engle-Granger methodology was applied. This led us to conclude that a long run relationship was found both between the oil price and the I44 exchange rate, as well as between Brent and the NOK/USD exchange rate, after the oil price collapse in 2014. Results were robust when interest rates variables were added to the model. The empirical results imply that the price of Brent Blend, the interest rate differential between the relevant countries, as well as the interest rate level in the US are important determinants of the exchange rates.

The establishment of cointegration led us to estimate the corresponding error correction models, and test for Granger causality in the short and long term through these dynamic models. The coefficient on the error correction term, i. e. the speed of the correcting parameter φ , was negative in all models. This indicates that the error is corrected in the expected direction when the dependent variable is beyond its equilibrium value. Granger causality was evident in both the short and long term from the oil price to the exchange rates, and when testing for the opposite direction, causality was found solely in the long run. A potential explanation is that the FX market is the worlds most traded and liquid market, implying that relevant information, such as oil price changes, is rapidly absorbed by market participants. Potential reasons for the long run causality from the exchange rates to the oil price are that the price development of Brent Blend is more affected by fundamental changes in supply and demand, and that changes in other assets, such as exchange rates, are not absorbed as rapidly in this relation.

Where cointegration was not found, tests for short run Granger causality were carried out through the use of ADL models. The period from January 2001 to July 2008 yielded proof of unidirectional causality from the oil price to the exchange rates, whereas bidirectional causality was found for all other samples.

Lastly, a robustness check on monthly data was conducted to review the strength of the aforementioned findings, as well as to incorporate the possibility of modelling variables that are solely available on a monthly basis. Conclusion with the respect to the relationship between the I44 exchange rate and the oil price were unchanged, while the inclusion of industrial production and consumer prices indices resulted in the establishment of a cointegrating relationship between the NOK/USD exchange rate and the oil price. This altered result can be an indicator that initial tests were subject to omitted variable bias.

We believe that our findings can help investors obtain a clearer understanding of the complexity that underlies the relation between the oil price and the value of the krone, and subsequently include a wider range of elements in their investment decisions.

9. Criticism

Econometric analyses will never yield a perfect presentation of the real world as methods are largely based on assumptions that might affect the result. A short critique of the methodology is provided, in order to elaborate on possible pitfalls in the conducted analyses. Firstly, specifically for analyses covering data from various countries, there is a risk of measurement error, as data may be defined differently across geographic areas. Attempting to account for the potential problem, the authors collected all similar variables from the same source. Secondly, the elimination of possibly important variables due to the use of daily data may have led to omitted variable bias. The same might be true for the control variables that were eliminated due to the lack of good proxies. Thirdly, another possible effect on the results is that borderline cases are difficult to judge, and the final results are to some extent based on subjective decision made by the authors. Further, the results might be affected by the specific subsamples chosen at what was viewed as the extreme points, namely the oil price peak July 3rd 2008 and the oil price bottom January 13th 2015.

10. Additional perspectives

There exist numerous possibilities of extending the work of this thesis, and some aspects will be considered in what follows. Firstly, the authors have not investigated whether the relation between the oil price and the exchange rate was subject to nonlinearity. There exists a possibility for that the results of the specifications were affected by the level of the observations. With regards to the oil price, this could be a logical hypothesis, as the effect of oil price changes most probably depends on its price range. Specifically, for lower values of the oil price, oil producers may run the risk of producing oil at lower than break-even levels. As stated by an analyst from Danske Bank Markets: "[...] an oil price fall of 10 percentage near an historical bottom should have a larger effect on the krone than the oil price rise of 50 percent that we have seen the recent months"⁵⁹ (Sundberg, 2016). As found by Akram (2000, 2002a), the strength of the relationship between the oil price and the Norwegian exchange rate was relatively stronger when then oil price was below \$14 and falling. A nonlinear relation of the data might also be a reason for the difference between subsamples.

An additional aspect to consider is the fact that global oil reserves eventually will come to an end. One might speculate whether this over time will alter the structure of the price formation, as oil becomes a scarce resource. On the other hand, the increasing availability of alternative energy sources, such as

⁵⁹ Authors' own translation

renewables, may lead to decreased demand for oil, potentially having the ability to limit or outweigh this effect.

Arbitrary movements in financial variables may to an unknown extent be affected by market movements caused by speculators. Investors striving for short term profits may shake up the markets by selling or buying large holdings. The effect may result in drastic changes of asset prices, without necessarily having a well-reasoned explanation. This further leads to the discussion about the importance of expectations. Even though certain actions, such as interest rate cuts or production limits set by OPEC, are expected to have a specific impact, it all depends on whether or not the actions are factored in by market participants. For example, experts explain that even though interest rate cuts by the Norwegian central bank are generally followed by a depreciation of the krone, the policy may not function as intended (Aarø, 2017). Due to the close to zero interest rate level, the extent to which the interest rate can continue to fall is limited. Additionally, if the cuts were expected, the interaction of these factors may cause an appreciation of the krone, contrary to the intention.

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An econometric analysis of the relationship between the oil price and the value of the Norwegian krone

APPENDIX

Master Thesis

MSc in Applied Economics and Finance Copenhagen Business School May 15th 2017

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Norways 6 largest trading partners, 2001-2016															
20	01	20	02	2003		2004		2005		2006		2007		2008	
Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight
EUR	43.9%	EUR	46.4%	EUR	47.6%	EUR	47.3%	EUR	49.1%	EUR	48.9%	EUR	49.3%	EUR	48.4%
SEK	19.4%	SEK	19.9%	SEK	20.2%	SEK	21.3%	SEK	21.1%	SEK	19.8%	SEK	21.0%	SEK	20.5%
USD	10.8%	GBP	10.3%	DKK	10.4%	DKK	10.4%	DKK	9.9%	DKK	10.1%	DKK	9.6%	GBP	9.6%
GBP	10.7%	USD	9.3%	GBP	9.6%	GBP	9.5%	GBP	8.8%	GBP	9.9%	GBP	8.9%	DKK	8.9%
DKK	8.4%	DKK	9.2%	USD	8.1%	USD	6.8%	USD	6.5%	USD	6.9%	USD	7.4%	USD	6.6%
JPY	6.8%	JPY	4.9%	JPY	4.0%	JPY	4.8%	JPY	4.6%	JPY	4.4%	JPY	3.8%	CAD	6.0%
Sum	100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%
20	09	20	10	20	11	2012 2013		13	2014		2015		2016		
Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight	Currency	Weight
EUR	49.4%	EUR	48.6%	EUR	47.3%	EUR	47.4%	EUR	47.9%	EUR	48.3%	EUR	48.9%	EUR	47.8%
SEK	20.4%	SEK	20.0%	SEK	21.3%	SEK	20.3%	SEK	20.6%	SEK	20.0%	SEK	18.3%	SEK	17.5%
DKK	9.8%	DKK	9.8%	DKK	9.4%	DKK	9.6%	DKK	9.4%	GBP	9.6%	GBP	9.6%	USD	9.9%
GBP	8.6%	USD	8.9%	GBP	8.9%	GBP	8.5%	GBP	9.3%	DKK	9.1%	USD	9.2%	GBP	9.8%
USD	7.7%	GBP	8.7%	USD	8.2%	USD	8.1%	USD	8.2%	USD	8.1%	DKK	9.1%	DKK	8.7%
CAD	4.0%	PLN	4.0%	CAD	4.9%	CAD	6.1%	PLN	4.6%	PLN	4.9%	PLN	4.8%	KRW	6.3%
	100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%		100.0%

1. Calculation of I44 weighted variables

Source: Compiled by authors/Norges Bank (2017)

2. Correlation

The measure of the degree of linear association is given by the following (Gujarati & Porter, 2009):

$$r = \pm \sqrt{R^2} \quad Eq. 2.1$$

or

$$r = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sqrt{(\sum x_i^2)(\sum y_i^2)}} = \frac{n \sum X_i Y_i - (\sum X_i)(\sum Y_i)}{\sqrt{[n \sum X_i^2 - (\sum X_i)^2][n \sum Y_i^2 - (\sum Y_i)^2]}} \quad Eq. 2.2$$

Where

 \mathbb{R}^2 is the coefficient of determination, most commonly used to measure the goodness of fit of a regression line

n is the number of observations

 x_i and y_i are given values of x and y from the sample

 X_i and Y_i are given values of X and Y from the population

3. Correlation

					nts, sample 2.1			
	44	USD		ber of observa	LIBOR USD	NIBOR	INTRIEF 144	INTDIFF LIBORUSD
144	1.0000	0.7364	-0.6470	0.2346	0.2285	0.1901	0.0349	-0.0258
P-value	1,0000	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.05	0.1476
USD		1.0000	-0.8082	0.3084	0.1960	0.5147	0.5041	0.3247
P-value		1,0000	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
Brent			1.0000	-0.4051	-0.3277	-0.4149	-0.2103	-0.1032
P-value			1.0000	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
I44 INTRATE				1.0000	0.8061	0.8218	0.1690	0.0580
P-value				1.0000	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0011
LIBOR USD					1.0000	0.4585	-0.2167	-0.4814
P-value					1.0000	<.0001	-0.2107 <.0001	<.0001
NIBOR						1.0000	0.7005	0.5583
						1.0000		
P-value							<.0001	<.0001
INTDIFF_I44							1.0000	0.8931
P-value								<.0001
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD								1.0000
P-value								
				tion coefficier	nts, sample 2.2			
	44	USD		144 INTRATE	LIBOR USD	NIBOR	INTDIFF 144	INTDIFF LIBORUSD
144	1.0000	0.8498	-0.8223	-0.2694	0.2167	-0.6896	-0.7541	-0.4344
P-value	1.0000	<.0001	<.0001	-0.2094 <.0001	<.0001	-0.0890 <.0001	<.0001	<.0001
USD		1.0000	-0.7698	-0.4927	0.5077	-0.6517	-0.5500	-0.6146
P-value		1.0000	-0.7098 <.0001					
				<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
Brent			1.0000	0.2681	-0.4095	0.6544	0.7072	0.5496
P-value				<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
144_INTRATE				1.0000	-0.8751	0.7090	0.2812	0.8860
P-value					<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
LIBOR_USD					1.0000	-0.6588	-0.2982	-0.9492
P-value						<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
NIBOR						1.0000	0.8761	0.8621
P-value							<.0001	<.0001
INTDIFF_I44							1.0000	0.5674
P-value								<.0001
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD								1.0000
P-value								
			Correla	tion coefficier	nts, sample 3.1			
			Num	ber of observa	tions = 1676			
	144	USD	Brent	144_INTRATE	LIBOR_USD	NIBOR	INTDIFF_I44	INTDIFF_LIBORUSD
144	1.0000	0.7209	-0.5784	-0.1048	-0.0697	0.0184	0.0845	0.0581
P-value		<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0043	0.451	0.0005	0.0174
USD		1.0000	-0.8183	-0.0631	-0.2853	0.4628	0.6518	0.5409
P-value			<.0001	0.0097	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
Brent			1.0000	0.4598	0.5316	-0.1279	-0.4332	-0.4332
P-value				<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
I44_INTRATE				1.0000	0.5420	0.7206	0.3863	0.2241
– P-value					<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
LIBOR_USD					1.0000	0.0051	-0.3034	-0.6228
P-value						0.8344	<.0001	<.0001
NIBOR						1.0000	0.9179	0.7792
P-value							<.0001	<.0001
INTDIFF_I44							1.0000	0.9083
P-value							1.0000	<.0001
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD								1.0000
P-value								1.0000
I -vulue								

Correlation coefficients, sample 3.2 Number of observations = 1474										
	144	USD		144 INTRATE	LIBOR USD	NIBOR	INTDIFF 144	INTDIFF LIBORUSD		
144	1.0000	0.8646	-0.7111	0.1586	0.2632	0.1277	-0.0727	-0.0602		
P-value		<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0052	0.0208		
USD		1.0000	-0.7461	-0.0240	0.1352	-0.0174	0.0216	-0.1981		
P-value			<.0001	0.358	<.0001	0.5056	0.4066	<.0001		
Brent			1.0000	-0.1257	-0.2274	-0.1474	-0.1943	-0.0227		
P-value				<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.3835		
I44_INTRATE				1.0000	0.9393	0.9880	0.5368	0.8577		
P-value					<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001		
LIBOR_USD					1.0000	0.9289	0.5089	0.6653		
P-value						<.0001	<.0001	<.0001		
NIBOR						1.0000	0.6608	0.8945		
P-value							<.0001	<.0001		
INTDIFF_I44							1.0000	0.7176		
P-value								<.0001		
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD								1.0000		
P-value										

4. ADF critical values

Agumented Dickey-Fulles cri	itical values,	large samp	oles
Deterministic regressors	10%	5%	1%
No intercept	-1.61	-1.95	-2.58
Intercept only	-2.57	-2.86	-3.43
Intercept and time trend	-3.12	-3.41	-3.96

Source: Gujarati & Porter (2009)

5. Engle-Granger critical values

ROBERT F. ENGLE AND C. W. J. GRANGER

TABLE III Critical Values and Power with Lags

$\Delta y_t = .8\Delta y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_t$, $\Delta x_t = .8\Delta x_{t-4} + \eta_t$; 100 observations,	10,000 replications,
$p = 4, \epsilon_1, \eta_1$ independent standard normal.	

	Critical	Values		
Statistic	Name	1%	5%	10%
1	CRDW	.455	.282	.209
2	DF	3.90	3.05	2.71
3	ADF	3.73	3.17	2.91
4	RVAR	37.2	22.4	17.2
5	ARVAR	16.2	12.3	10.5
6	UVAR	59.0	40.3	31.4
7	AUVAR	28.0	22.0	19.2

	Rejections per	$\rho = 0.00$	9	
Statistic	Name	1%	5%	10%
1	CRDW	15.6	39.9	65.0
2	DF	9.4	25.5	37.5
3	ADF	36.0	61.2	72.2
4	RVAR	.3	4.4	10.9
5	ARVAR	26.4	48.5	62.3
6	UVAR	.0	.5	3.
7	AUVAR	9.4	26.8	40.
	Rejections per	$r 100: \rho = .$	8	
Statistic	Name	1%	5%	10%
1	CRDW	77.5	96.4	98.6
2	DF	66.8	89.7	96.0
3	ADF	68.9	90.3	94.4
4	RVAR	7.0	42.4	62.5
5	ARVAR	57.2	80.5	89.3
	UVAR	2.5	10.8	25.9
6	01/11			

(Engle & Granger, 1987)

6. Stationarity analysis

6.1 Full Sample

6.1.1 Autocorrelation analysis

confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied. Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-10 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market dark green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the

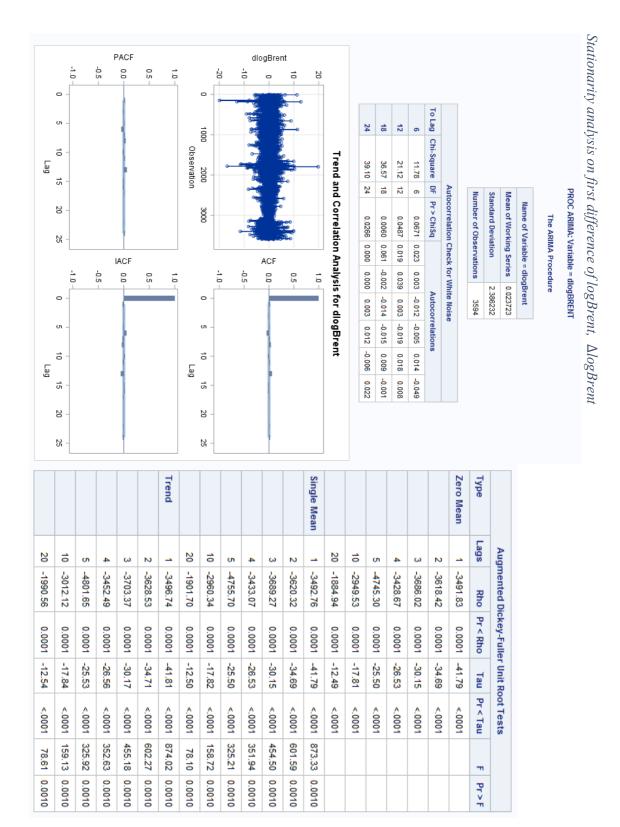
Cells market with **light** green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

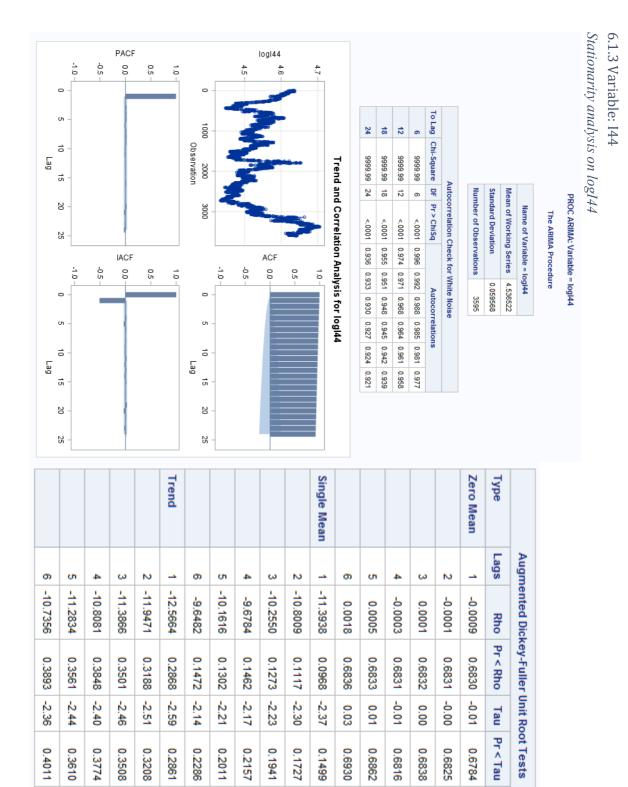
The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

			Aut	Autocorrelation analysis - Breusch Godfrey-test Sample 3.2	n analysis - Breu Sample 3.2	Breusch Go 3.2	dfrey-test				
Variable	0 lag	1 lag	2 lag	3 lag	4 lag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	8 lag	9 lag	10 lag
logI44	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
logUSD	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
logBrent	insig	insig	insig	*	*	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig
144_intrate		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* *	* * *
LIBORUSD		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* *	* * *
NIBOR		* * *	***	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	***	***	***	* * *
∆logl44	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔlogUSD	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	*	*	*
ΔlogBrent		insig	*	* * *	insig	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔI44_INTRATE		* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *	***	***	***	* * *
ALIBORUSD		* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *	***	***	***	* * *
ΔNIBOR		* * *	***	***	* * *	* * *	* * *	***	***	***	* *



	Augme	ented Dic	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit R	oot Tests		
Ű	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr>F
Mean	0	0.1199	0.7113	0.34	0.7848		
	_	0.1170	0.7106	0.33	0.7805		
	2	0.1077	0.7084	0.30	0.7733		
	ω	0.1079	0.7084	0.31	0.7745		
	4	0.1087	0.7086	0.31	0.7755		
	5	0.1117	0.7093	0.31	0.7765		
le Mean	0	-5.1713	0.4196	-1.91	0.3258	2.01	0.5556
	-	-5.3474	0.4034	-1.93	0.3171	2.04	0.5485
	2	-5.2138	0.4156	-1.88	0.3423	1.91	0.5798
	ω	-5.1070	0.4256	-1.86	0.3508	1.88	0.5880
	4	-5.0825	0.4279	-1.86	0.3517	1.88	0.5884
	5	-5.2780	0.4097	-1.90	0.3318	1.96	0.5669
ā	0	-5.0894	0.8145	-1.48	0.8349	1.83	0.8106
	_	-5.3699	0.7937	-1.53	0.8196	1.87	0.8035
	2	-5.3080	0.7984	-1.51	0.8273	1.77	0.8241
	ω	-5.1528	0.8099	-1.48	0.8366	1.73	0.8309
	4	-5.1046	0.8134	-1.47	0.8393	1.73	0.8316
	5	-5.3371	0.7962	-1.51	0.8250	1.81	0.8157





3.76 3.76

0.4194

0.4200

3.57 0.4590

3.92

0.3872

3.81 0.4096

4.09 0.3526

2.29

0.4829

2.36

0.4645

2.64 0.3932

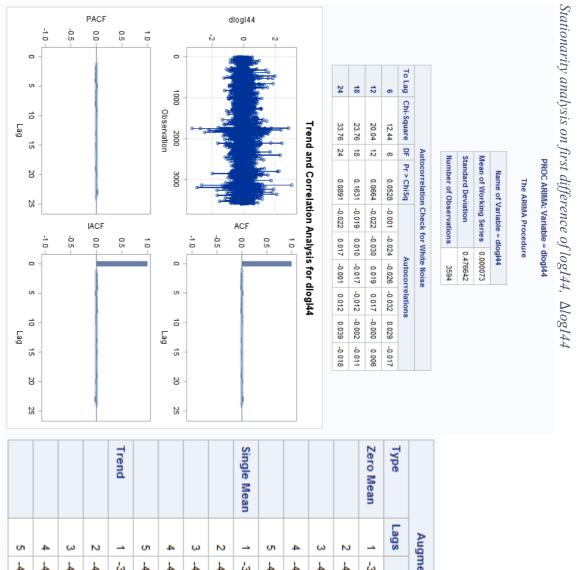
2.81 0.3486

П

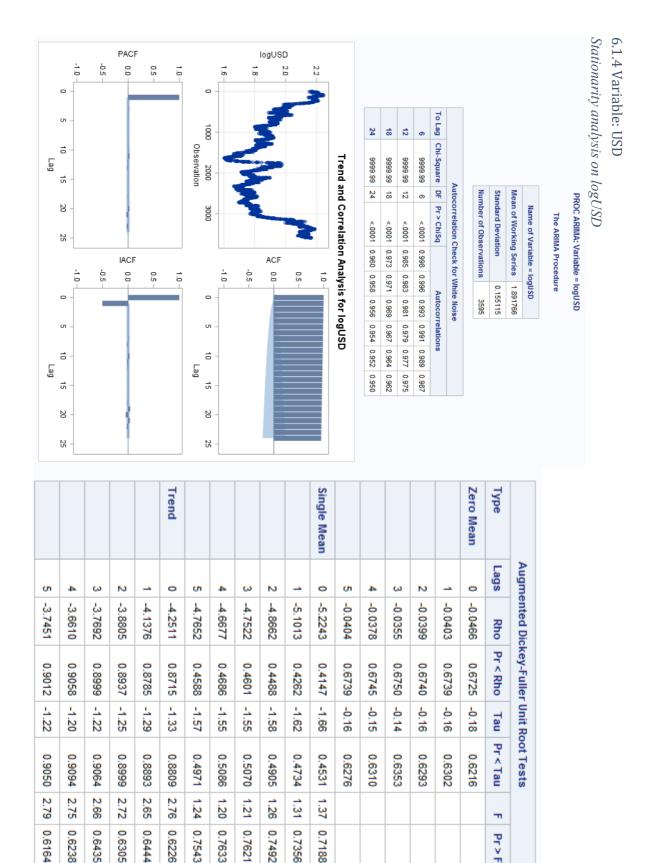
Pr>F

2.50 0.4303

2.45 0.4417



	Aug	mented Di	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	er Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
Zero Mean	_	-3775.14	0.0001	-43.44	<.0001		
	2	-4092.62	0.0001	-36.09	<.0001		
	ω	-4737.76	0.0001	-31.94	<.0001		
	4	-4047.46	0.0001	-27.40	<.0001		
	5	-4622.23	0.0001	-25.41	<.0001		
Single Mean	_	-3775.14	0.0001	-43.43	<.0001	943.14	0.0010
	2	-4092.63	0.0001	-36.09	<.0001	651.11	0.0010
	ω	-4737.77	0.0001	-31.93	<.0001	509.87	0.0010
	4	-4047.47	0.0001	-27.40	<.0001	375.38	0.0010
	5	-4622.27	0.0001	-25.41	<.0001	322.80	0.0010
Trend	_	-3779.94	0.0001	-43.45	<.0001	944.03	0.0010
	2	-4103.71	0.0001	-36.11	<.0001	652.01	0.0010
	ω	-4762.50	0.0001	-31.96	<.0001	510.85	0.0010
	4	-4076.29	0.0001	-27.43	<.0001	376.23	0.0010
	5	-4672.49	0.0001	-25.44	<.0001	323.64	0.0010



2.79

0.6164 0.6238 0.6435 2.72

0.6305

2.65 0.6444 2.76 0.6226

2.66

1.21 0.7621

1.20

0.7633

1.26

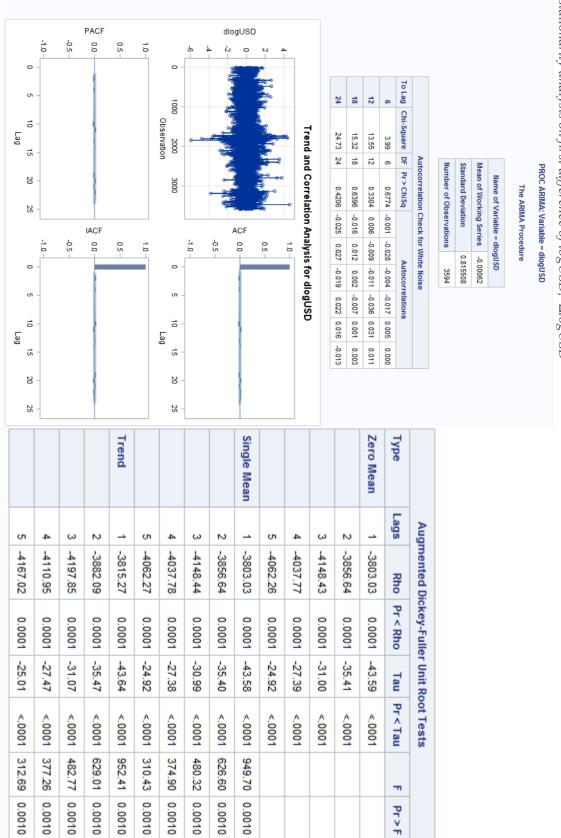
0.7492

1.31 0.7356

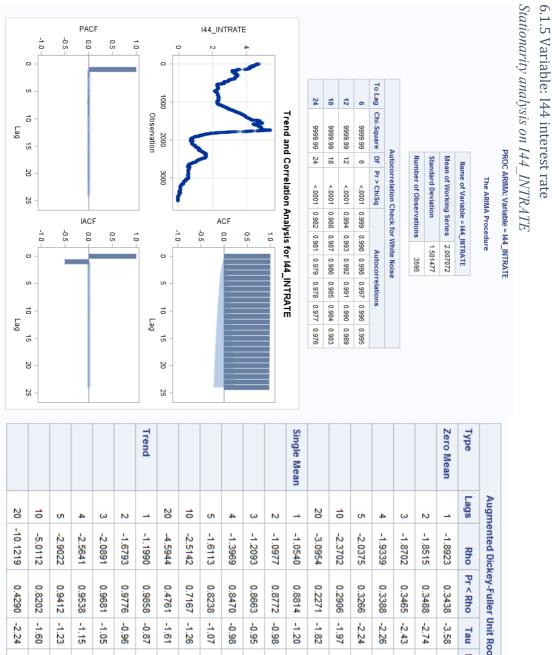
0.7188

-

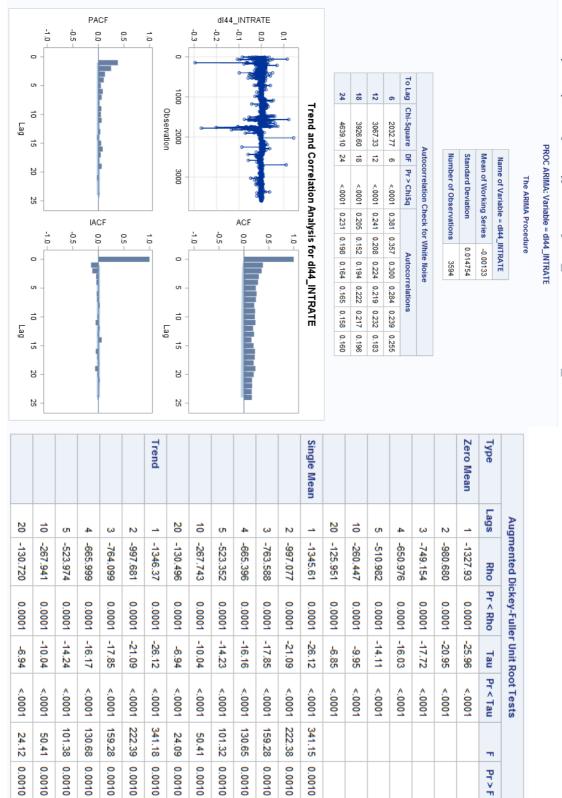
Pr>F



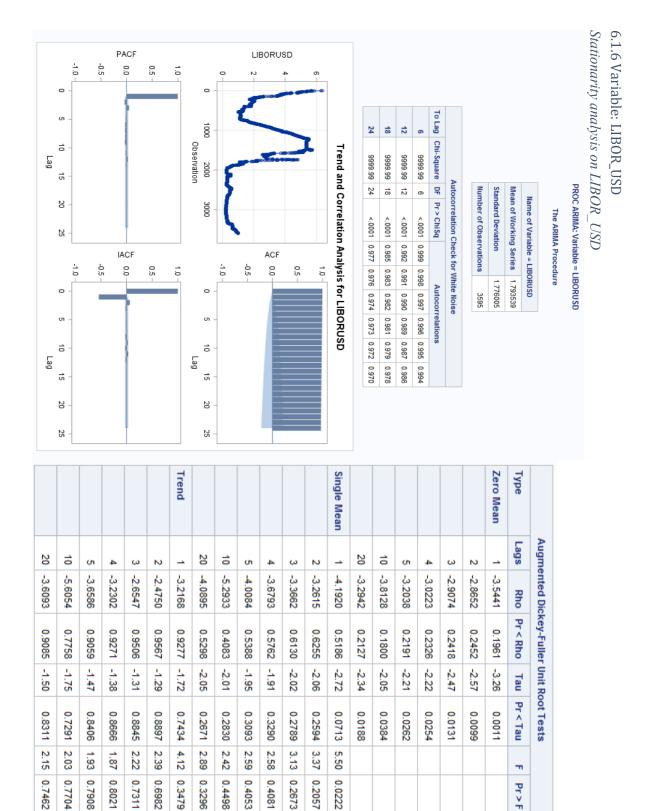
Stationarity analysis on first difference of logUSD, \(\Delta logUSD\)



						Trend							Single Mean							Zero Mean	Туре	
20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	20	10	5	4	ω	2	4	Lags	Augm
-10.1219	-5.0112	-2.9022	-2.5641	-2.0891	-1.6793	-1.1990	-4.5944	-2.5142	-1.6113	-1.3969	-1.2093	-1.0977	-1.0540	-3.0954	-2.3702	-2.0375	-1.9339	-1.8702	-1.8515	-1.8923	Rho	ented Dicl
0.4290	0.8202	0.9412	0.9538	0.9681	0.9776	0.9858	0.4761	0.7167	0.8238	0.8470	0.8663	0.8772	0.8814	0.2271	0.2906	0.3266	0.3388	0.3465	0.3488	0.3438	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-2.24	-1.60	-1.23	-1.15	-1.05	-0.96	-0.87	-1.61	-1.26	-1.07	-0.98	-0.95	-0.98	-1.20	-1.82	-1.97	-2.24	-2.26	-2.43	-2.74	-3.58	Tau	Unit Ro
0.4682	0.7917	0.9023	0.9182	0.9357	0.9480	0.9575	0.4766	0.6507	0.7291	0.7617	0.7734	0.7635	0.6781	0.0654	0.0466	0.0240	0.0234	0.0147	0.0062	0.0004	Pr < Tau	ot Tests
2.53	1.33	0.83	0.72	0.61	0.57	0.73	1.87	1.95	2.58	2.65	3.16	4.09	7.10								F	
0.6693	0.9111	0.9848	0.9900	0.9900	0.9900	0.9900	0.5923	0.5711	0.4084	0.3900	0.2584	0.0808	0.0010								Pr > F	



Stationarity analysis on first difference of I44_INTRATE , Δ I44_INTRATE



1.87 0.8021

2.22 0.7311

2.39 0.6982

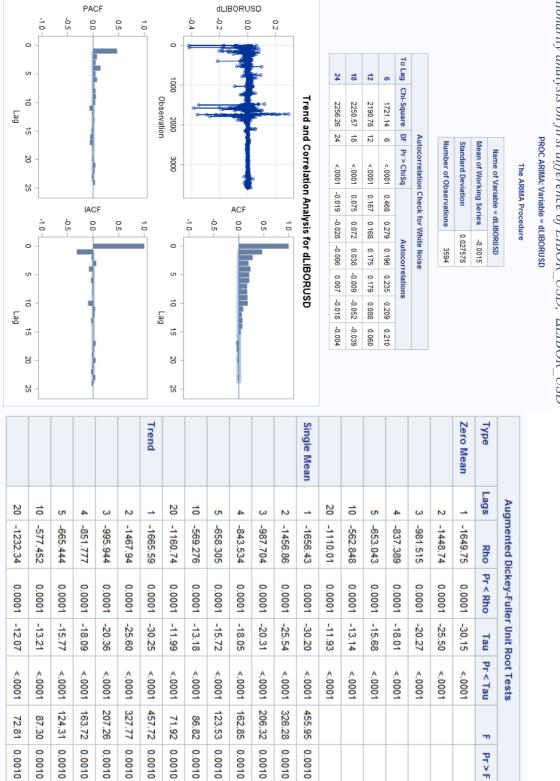
2.59 0.4053

2.58 0.4081

3.13 0.2673

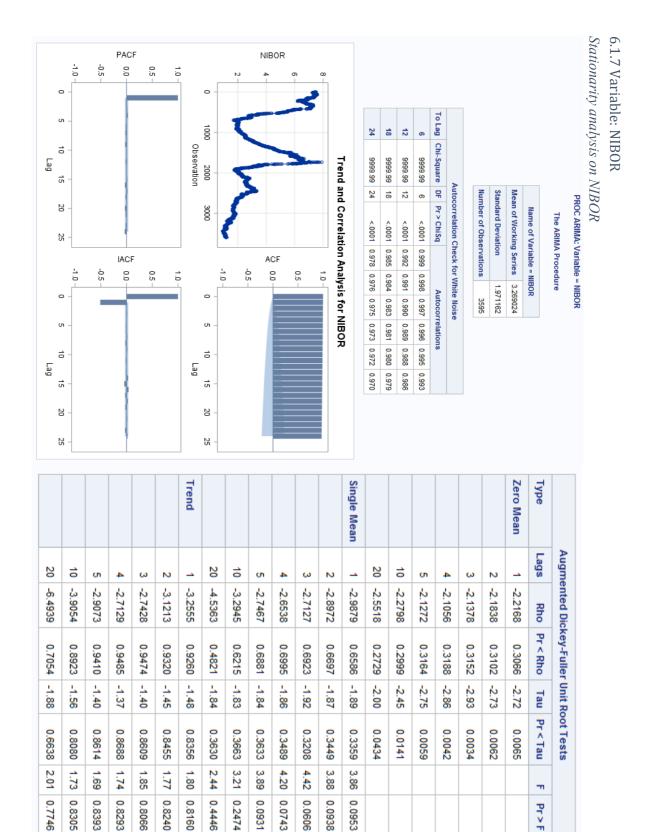
-11

Pr>F



Stationarity analysis on first difference of LIBOR_USD, \DLIBOR_USD

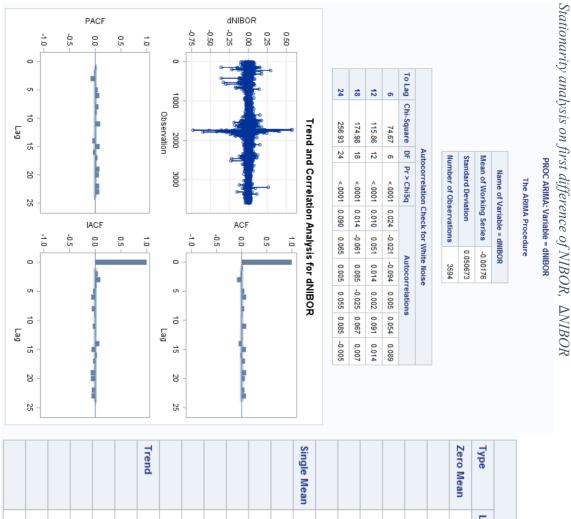
Pr > F



0.0953

TH.

Pr>F



			Auromonted Dickey Fuller Unit Deet Tests	- Ilait D	ant Tanto		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr>F
Zero Mean	-	-3644.49	0.0001	-42.68	<.0001		
	2	-4878.02	0.0001	-38.10	<.0001		
	ω	-4637.72	0.0001	-31.81	<.0001		
	4	-3517.13	0.0001	-26.68	<.0001		
	5	-2316.04	0.0001	-22.48	<.0001		
	10	-861.041	0.0001	-14.37	<.0001		
	20	-326.898	0.0001	-9.33	<.0001		
Single Mean	-	-3657.34	0.0001	-42.75	<.0001	913.64	0.0010
	2	-4918.84	0.0001	-38.18	<.0001	729.03	0.0010
	ω	-4705.24	0.0001	-31.90	<.0001	508.79	0.0010
	4	-3583.28	0.0001	-26.77	<.0001	358.36	0.0010
	5	-2361.74	0.0001	-22.57	<.0001	254.76	0.0010
	10	-884.287	0.0001	-14.46	<.0001	104.53	0.0010
	20	-338.594	0.0001	-9.41	<.0001	44.29	0.0010
Trend	-	-3661.76	0.0001	-42.77	<.0001	914.46	0.0010
	2	-4933.01	0.0001	-38.21	<.0001	730.05	0.0010
	ω	-4728.21	0.0001	-31.93	<.0001	509.67	0.0010
	4	-3605.76	0.0001	-26.80	<.0001	359.11	0.0010
	5	-2376.98	0.0001	-22.60	<.0001	255.35	0.0010
	10	-891.886	0.0001	-14.48	<.0001	104.90	0.0010
	20	-342.442	0.0001	-9.44	<.0001	44.54	0.0010

6.2 Sample 2.1

6.2.1 Autocorrelation analysis

confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied. Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-10 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market dark green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the

Cells market with **light** green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

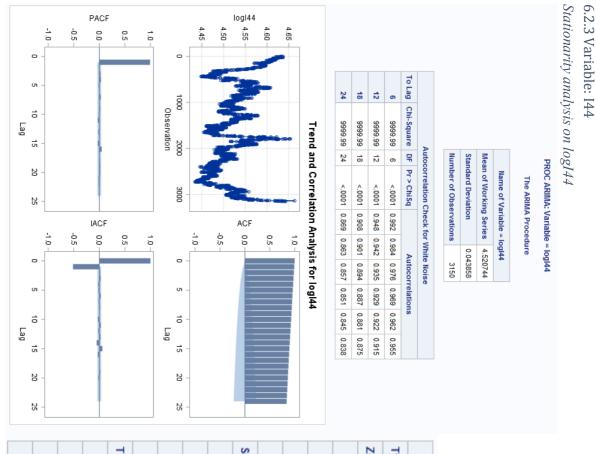
			Aut	Autocorrelation analysis - Breusch-Godfrey test Sample 2.1	n analysis - Bre Sample 2.1	Breusch-Gou 2.1	dfrey test				
Variable	01ag	1 lag	2 lag	3 lag	41ag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	8 lag	9 lag	10 lag
logI44		*	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	*	insig
logUSD	insig	insig	*	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
logBrent	insig	insig	insig	*	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
144_intrate		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *
LIBORUSD		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *
NIBOR		* *	* * *	* * *	* *	* *	***	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *
∆logl44		* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔlogUSD	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
∆logBrent		insig	insig	* * *	* * *	* *	***	* *	* *	* *	*
ΔI44_INTRATE		* *	* *	* * *	* *	* *	***	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *
ALIBORUSD		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *	***	* * *	* *	* *	*
ANIBOR		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	***	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *



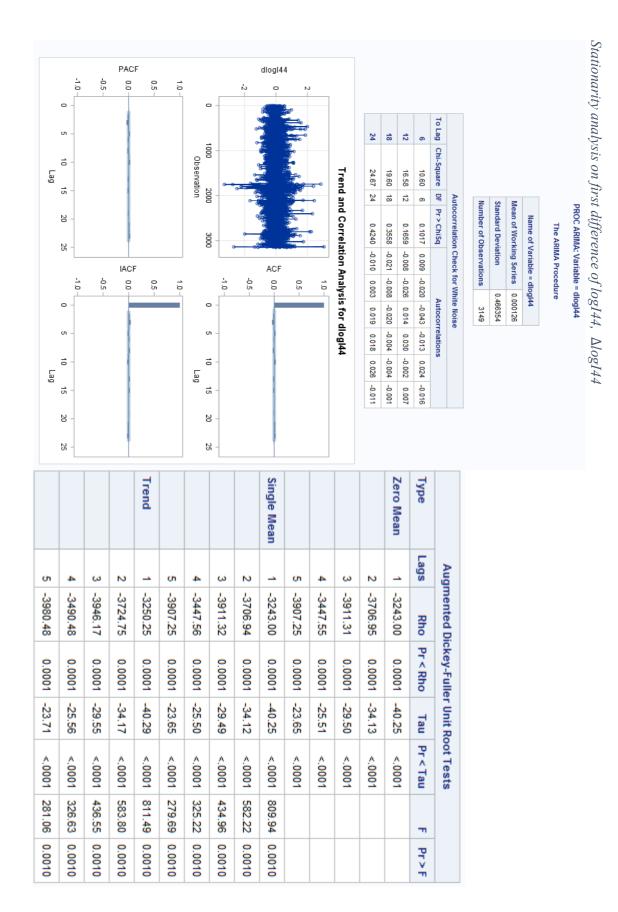
PACF dlogBrent -1--0.5 0.0 0.5 10 -20 5 0 6 20 0 c To Lag Chi-Square DF Pr > ChiSq S 12 24 . 6 1000 Observation 6 Trend and Correlation Analysis for dlogBrent 42.14 21.67 Lag 12.10 6 39.07 18 5 2000 12 24 Autocorrelation Check for White Noise PROC ARIMA: Variable = dlogBRENT Number of Observations Standard Deviation Mean of Working Series 0.020817 Name of Variable = dlogBrent 20 0.0124 0.0414 0.027 0.042 0.005 -0.003 0.023 0.004 0.0028 0.066 -0.013 -0.021 0.001 0.019 0.012 0.0599 0.020 0.004 -0.001 -0.000 -0.002 -0.058 The ARIMA Procedure 3000 25 -0.009 IACF ACF 0.000 -1 0 --0 5 5 0.0 5 0.0 1.0 0.5 1.0 0.5 2.307406 Autocorrelations 3149 0 0 0.000 0.002 -0.009 сh сn 10 10 Lag Lag 0.028 5 ц, 20 20 25 25 Type Trend Single Mean Zero Mean Lags **Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests** 8 20 20 10 3 6 رم 4 ω N cn ω Ν -ن 4 ω N -4 -1395.14 -2278.10 -1308.94 -3058.60 -1297.40 -4742.80 -3134.16 -3066.06 -2210.30 -3066.41 -3057.88 -3094.65 -3082.27 -3070.87 -3067.85 -2203.34 -3093.93 -3068.48 -4644.94 -3097.78 -4633.85 Rho Pr < Rho 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 0.0001 -11.28 -11.19 -16.23 -11.19 -16.29 -24.19 -24.99 -32.12 -39.13 -27.82 -16.23 -24.13 -24.93 -32.07 -27.87 -24.13 -24.93 -32.07 -39.09 -27.82 -39.09 Tau Pr < Tau <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 <.0001 312.24 0.0010 515.72 0.0010 514.23 310.77 131.72 0.0010 132.61 292.62 0.0010 765.54 0.0010 291.08 0.0010 387.01 0.0010 763.92 388.45 0.0010 63.70 0.0010 62.66 Th. 0.0010 0.0010 0.0010 0.0010 0.0010 Pr>F

Stationarity analysis on first difference of logBrent, $\Delta logBrent$

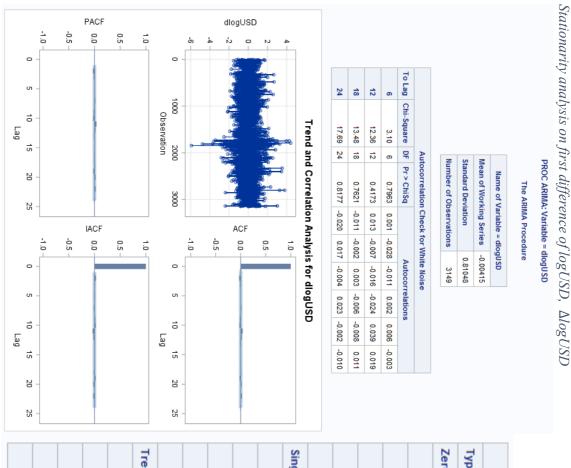
24



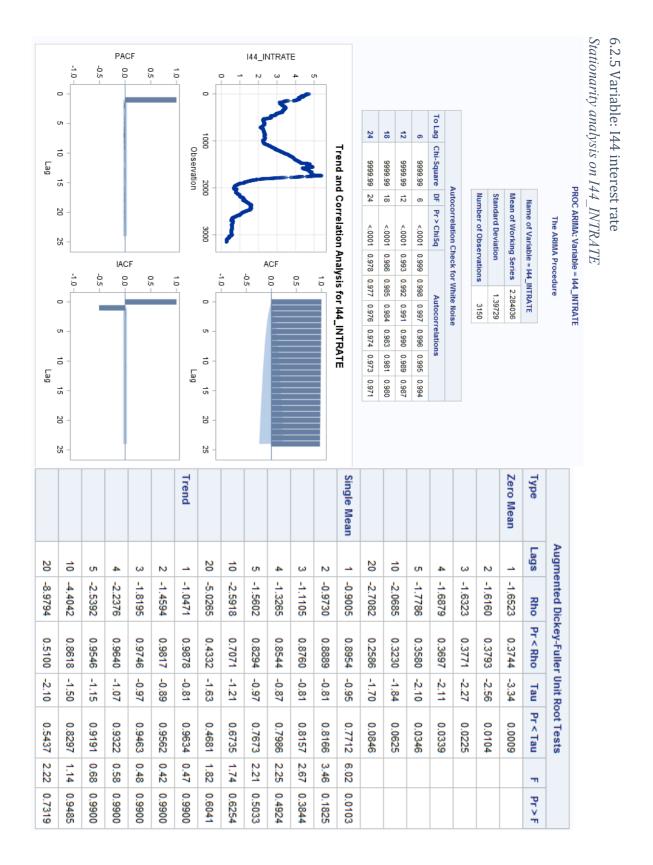
	Augm	ented Dic	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit Ro	ot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F
Zero Mean	_	-0.0003	0.6831	-0.01	0.6814		
	2	0.0004	0.6832	0.01	0.6854		
	ω	0.0005	0.6833	0.01	0.6864		
	4	0.0001	0.6832	0.00	0.6836		
	5	0.0010	0.6834	0.02	0.6889		
Single Mean	_	-17.9468	0.0194	-2.96	0.0392	4.39	0.0622
	2	-17.1891	0.0234	-2.88	0.0485	4.15	0.0772
	ω	-15.8209	0.0327	-2.76	0.0657	3.80	0.0989
	4	-15.6725	0.0339	-2.75	0.0666	3.78	0.1000
	5	-16.2858	0.0292	-2.78	0.0622	3.86	0.0951
Trend	_	-17.2538	0.1208	-2.54	0.3064	4.42	0.2872
	2	-16.3503	0.1438	-2.45	0.3557	4.18	0.3340
	ω	-14.6228	0.1987	-2.27	0.4485	3.88	0.3963
	4	-14.3526	0.2087	-2.25	0.4633	3.88	0.3962
	5	-15.1951	0.1787	-2.31	0.4278	3.92	0.3876

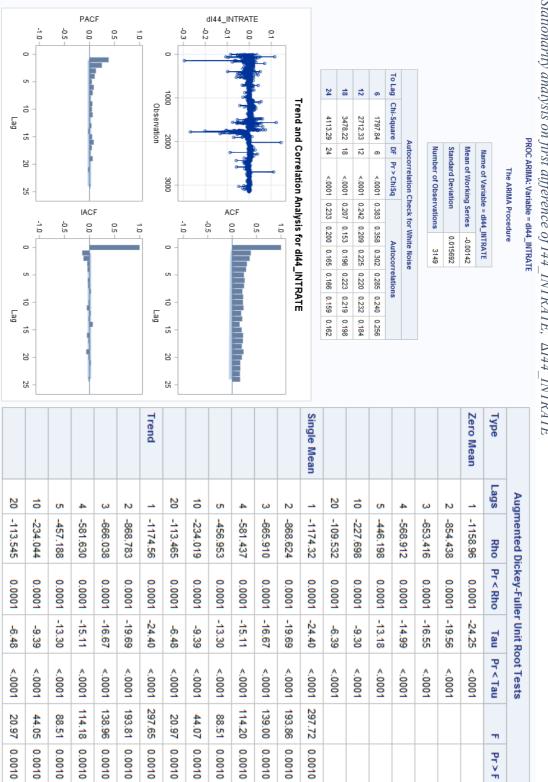




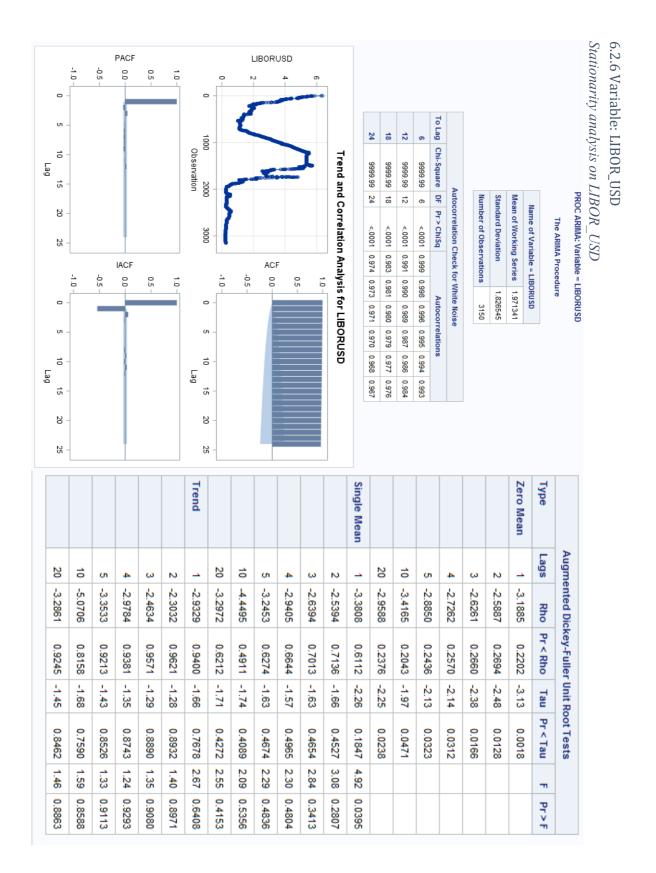


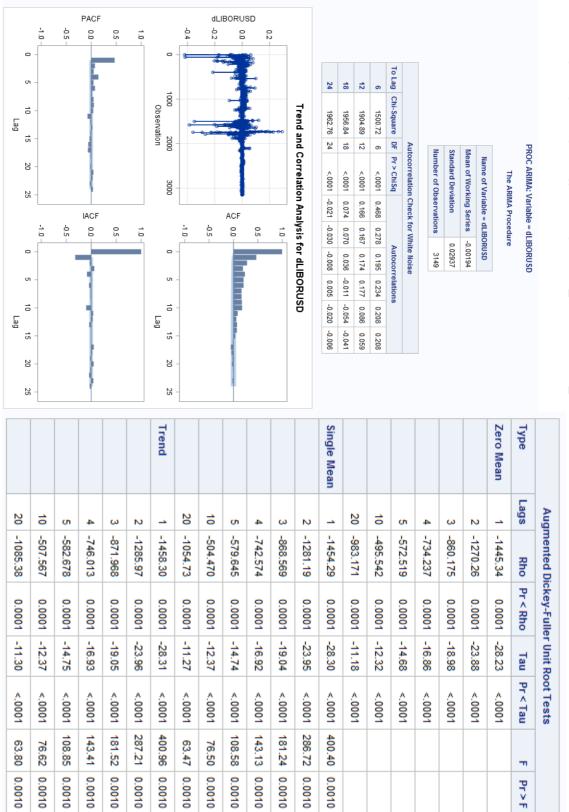
	Aug	mented D	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	er Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
Zero Mean	0	-3145.77	0.0001	-56.07	<.0001		
	_	-3327.54	0.0001	-40.78	<.0001		
	2	-3446.21	0.0001	-33.35	<.0001		
	ω	-3430.53	0.0001	-28.62	<.0001		
	4	-3323.72	0.0001	-25.33	<.0001		
	5	-3389.24	0.0001	-23.14	<.0001		
Single Mean	0	-3145.85	0.0001	-56.07	<.0001	1571.65	0.0010
	_	-3327.79	0.0001	-40.77	<.0001	831.14	0.0010
	2	-3446.73	0.0001	-33.35	<.0001	556.13	0.0010
	ω	-3431.44	0.0001	-28.62	<.0001	409.58	0.0010
	4	-3325.09	0.0001	-25.33	<.0001	320.75	0.0010
	5	-3391.23	0.0001	-23.14	<.0001	267.65	0.0010
Trend	0	-3149.41	0.0001	-56.12	<.0001	1574.64	0.0010
	_	-3339.19	0.0001	-40.83	<.0001	833.73	0.0010
	2	-3471.12	0.0001	-33.42	<.0001	558.48	0.0010
	ω	-3473.64	0.0001	-28.70	<.0001	411.85	0.0010
	4	-3386.54	0.0001	-25.41	<.0001	322.96	0.0010
	5	-3479.29	0.0001	-23.23	<.0001	269.77	0.0010



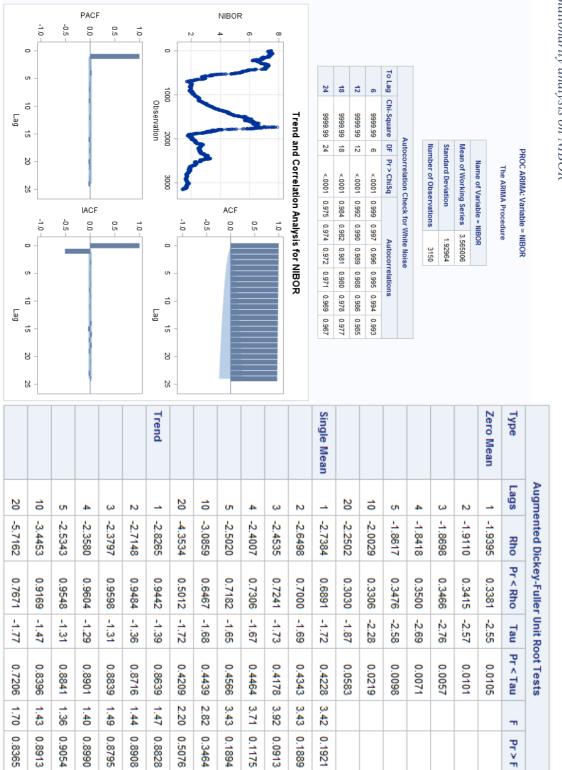


Stationarity analysis on first difference of I44_INTRATE, Δ I44_INTRATE

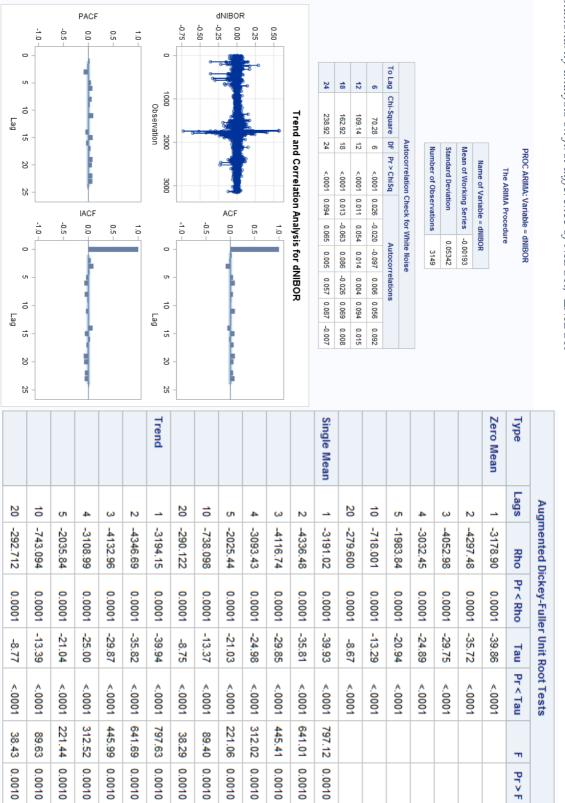




Stationarity analysis on first difference of LIBOR_USD, \DLIBOR_USD



6.2.7 Variable: NIBOR Stationarity analysis on NIBOR



6.3 Sample 2.2

6.3.1 Autocorrelation analysis

confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied. Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-10 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market dark green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the

Cells market with **light** green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

			Aut	Autocorrelation analysis - Breusch-Godfrey test Sample 2.2	n analysis - Bre Sample 2.2	Breusch-Go 2.2	dfrey test				
Variable	0 lag	1 lag	2 lag	3 lag	4 lag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	81ag	9 lag	10 lag
logI44		* *	*	* * *	insig	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig
logUSD		*	*	* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig		insig
logBrent	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
144_intrate		* * *	* *	*	* *	* *	* *	insig	insig	insig	*
LIBORUSD		* * *	* *	* *	insig	insig	*	*	* *	* *	*
NIBOR	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
∆logI44		* *	* * *	insig	insig	*	*	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔlogUSD		*	* *	insig	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
∆logBrent	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig					insig
∆I44_INTRATE		* *	* *	* * *	* *	* * *	* *	insig	insig	*	*
ALIBORUSD		* *	* * *			*	*	* *	*	insig	insig
ANIBOR	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig

6.3.2 Variable: Brent

Stationarity analysis on logBrent PROC ARIMA: Variable = logBRENT

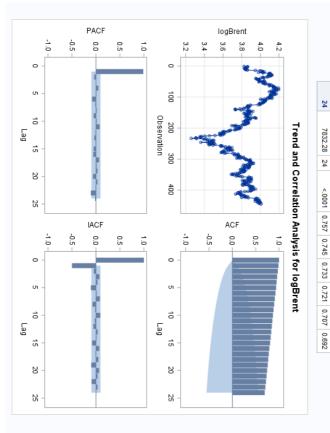
			The ARIMA Procedure	A Proce	edure				
			Name of Variable = logBrent	iable =	ogBre	#			
		Me	Mean of Working Series 3.851414	g Serie	s 3.8	51414			
		Sta	Standard Deviation	ion	0.1	0.185183			
		Nun	Number of Observations	ervation	S	445			
	Þ	uto	Autocorrelation Check for White Noise	heck fo	or White	e Noise			
Lag	Lag Chi-Square DF Pr > ChiSq	PF	Pr > ChiSq		A	Autocorrelations	relation	S	
6	2463.60	თ	<.0001	0.987 0.973 0.960 0.948 0.936 0.923	0.973	0.960	0.948	0.936	0.923

То

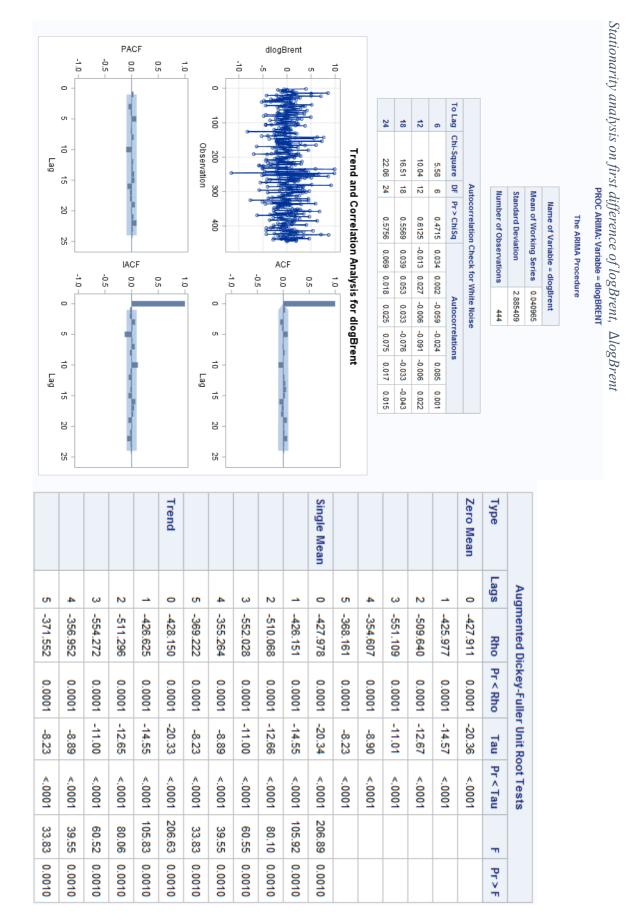
12

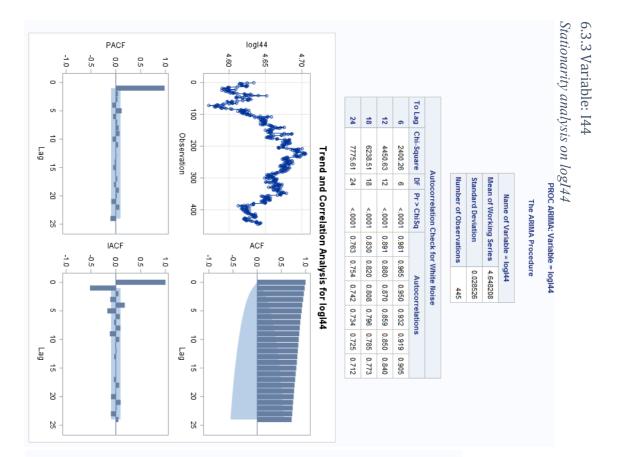
4567.21 12 6347.31 18

<.0001
 0.909
 0.896
 0.881
 0.882
 0.887
 0.887
 0.887
 0.887
 0.793
 0.768

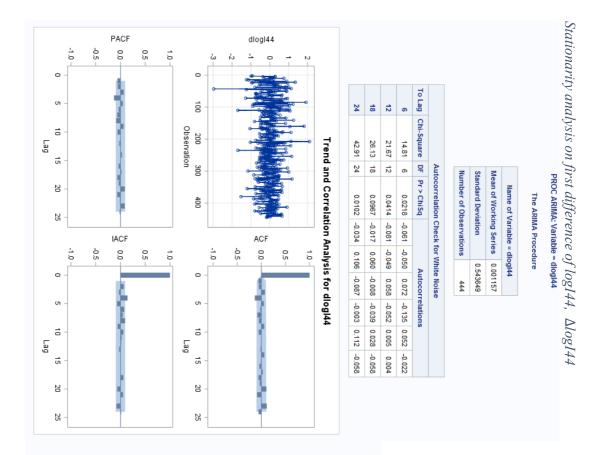


Туре	Augm	ented Dic Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests Lags Rho Pr < Rho Tau Pr < Tau	Unit R	oot Tests Pr < Tau	T	Pr > F
Zero Mean	•	0.0355	0.6909	0.22	0.7514		
	_	0.0241	0.6883	0.15	0.7289		
	2	0.0260	0.6887	0.16	0.7323		
	ω	0.0277	0.6891	0.18	0.7383		
	4	0.0323	0.6902	0.21	0.7481		
	5	0.0303	0.6897	0.18	0.7393		
Single Mean	0	-5.0448	0.4297	-1.54	0.5141	1.23	0.7572
	_	-5.4526	0.3921	-1.59	0.4850	1.30	0.7395
	2	-5.5290	0.3854	-1.60	0.4830	1.30	0.7373
	ω	-4.9176	0.4420	-1.50	0.5354	1.15	0.7768
	4	-4.7723	0.4563	-1.47	0.5503	1.12	0.7857
	5	-5.8294	0.3598	-1.62	0.4727	1.34	0.7275
Trend	0	-5.3450	0.7941	-1.51	0.8254	1.21	0.9355
	_	-5.6639	0.7696	-1.53	0.8181	1.28	0.9213
	2	-5.7952	0.7592	-1.54	0.8131	1.29	0.9192
	ω	-5.0962	0.8127	-1.43	0.8521	1.12	0.9507
	4	-5.0103	0.8189	-1.41	0.8562	1.09	0.9557
	5	-6.2570	0.7223	-1.59	0.7971	1.34	0.9097

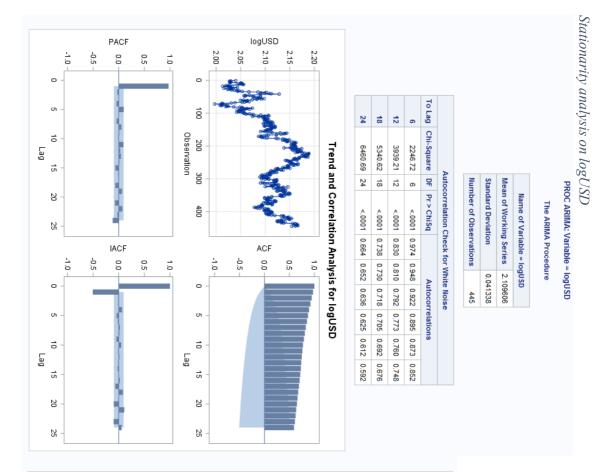




				Trend					Single Mean					Zero Mean	Type L	A
л	4	ω	Ν	<u> </u>	5	4	ω	Ν	<u>_</u>	5	4	ω	Ν	<u> </u>	Lags	ugme
-6.8706	-6.1434	-8.0416	-6.8842	-7.6353	-6.9751	-6.3384	-8.0087	-6.9712	-7.4564	0.0047	0.0049	0.0045	0.0047	0.0027	Rho	ented Dic
0.6725	0.7315	0.5782	0.6714	0.6106	0.2754	0.3198	0.2153	0.2756	0.2457	0.6838	0.6838	0.6837	0.6838	0.6833	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-1.78	-1.69	-1.94	-1.80	-1.90	-1.91	-1.85	-2.05	-1.94	-1.96	0.22	0.24	0.19	0.22	0.12	Tau	r Unit R
0 7153	0.7550	0.6319	0.7019	0.6558	0.3269	0.3581	0.2653	0.3154	0.3037	0.7496	0.7556	0.7426	0.7488	0.7199	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
1.82	1.71	2.10	1.87	1.93	1.85	1.73	2.12	1.90	1.93						-	
0.8125	0.8354	0.7578	0.8030	0.7915	0.5969	0.6272	0.5278	0.5848	0.5764						Pr > F	



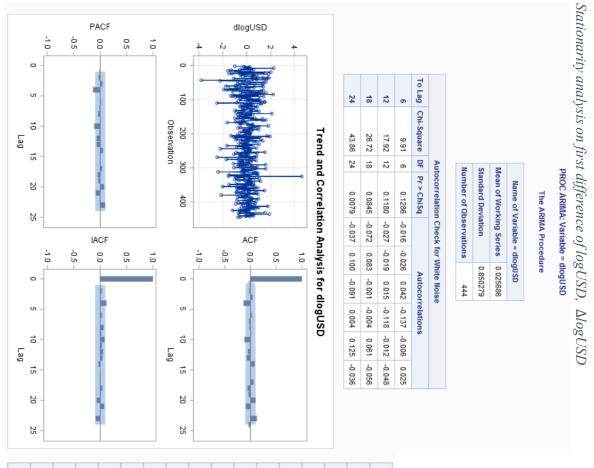
	4	3	2	Trend 1	5	4	3	2	Single Mean 1	5	4	3	2	Zero Mean 1	Type Lags	Aug
	-592.071	-805.208	-430.044	-527.653	-793.152	-583.331	-797.104	-428.375	-526.760	-790.946	-582.475	-796.191	-428.211	-526.683	Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	Pr < Rho	ickey-Fulle
	-9.85	-11.91	-12.01	-16.32	-9.21	-9.83	-11.90	-12.01	-16.32	-9.22	-9.84	-11.91	-12.02	-16.34	Tau	r Unit R
	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
5	48.53	70.98	72.19	133.24	42.45	48.34	70.77	72.07	133.16						т	
	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010						Pr>F	



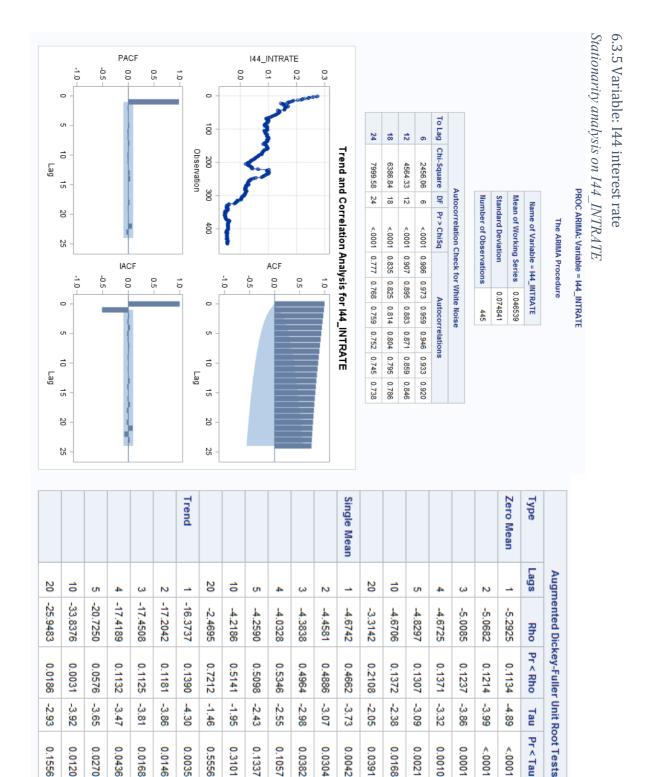
6.3.4 Variable: USD

				Trend					Single Mean					Zero Mean	Туре	
5	4	ω	2	_	5	4	ω	2	_	5	4	ω	2	_	Lags	Augm
-12.7884	-12.6259	-16.1034	-14.3998	-14.6255	-9.3164	-9.2271	-11.5580	-10.4985	-10.6158	0.0563	0.0563	0.0551	0.0563	0.0548	Rho	ented Dic
0.2710	0.2790	0.1465	0.2023	0.1940	0.1572	0.1606	0.0912	0.1181	0.1148	0.6957	0.6957	0.6955	0.6957	0.6954	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-2.52	-2.53	-2.84	-2.73	-2.76	-2.29	-2.29	-2.53	-2.45	-2.46	0.76	0.76	0.65	0.69	0.66	Tau	Unit Ro
0.3160	0.3152	0.1823	0.2261	0.2138	0.1746	0.1748	0.1087	0.1287	0.1273	0.8778	0.8772	0.8555	0.8643	0.8572	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
3.27	3.27	4.11	3.79	3.87	2.96	2.95	3.45	3.28	3.27						-	
0.5221	0.5215	0.3519	0.4159	0.4013	0.3140	0.3149	0.1867	0.2312	0.2344						Pr > F	

40



	Aug	mented Di	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	er Unit Ro	pot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
Zero Mean	4	-472.346	0.0001	-15.33	<.0001		
	2	-414.245	0.0001	-11.82	<.0001		
	ω	-770.225	0.0001	-11.77	<.0001		
	4	-801.285	0.0001	-10.28	<.0001		
	5	-689.474	0.0001	-9.04	<.0001		
Single Mean	4	-474.044	0.0001	-15.34	<.0001	117.64	0.0010
	2	-417.148	0.0001	-11.83	<.0001	70.01	0.0010
	ω	-783.894	0.0001	-11.79	<.0001	69.49	0.0010
	4	-825.409	0.0001	-10.31	<.0001	53.17	0.0010
	5	-718.005	0.0001	-9.08	<.0001	41.19	0.0010
Trend	4	-474.253	0.0001	-15.33	<.0001	117.49	0.0010
	2	-417.557	0.0001	-11.83	<.0001	69.94	0.0010
	ω	-785.752	0.0001	-11.78	<.0001	69.43	0.0010
	4	-829.285	0.0001	-10.31	<.0001	53.14	0.0010
	5	-722.779	0.0001	-9.08	<.0001	41.20	0.0010



Pr < Tau

T

Pr > F

<.0001 <.0001

0.1556 0.0120

4.52

0.2692

8.04 0.0073

0.0436 0.0168 0.0146 0.0035

7.21

9.03 9.35

0.0010

0.0010 0.0010 0.4362

0.0270

7.59

0.0167 0.0247 0.1337 0.1057 0.0382 0.0304 0.0042 0.0391 0.0168 0.0021 0.0010 0.0001

0.0395

0.3266

12.36

8.26

0.0010 0.0010

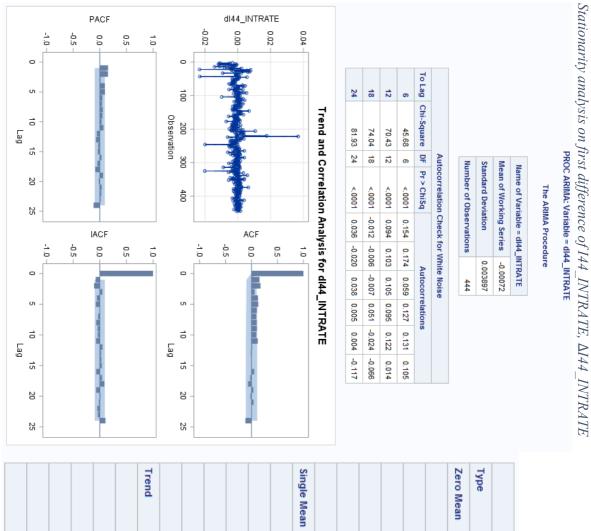
7.77 0.0010

5.79 0.0164

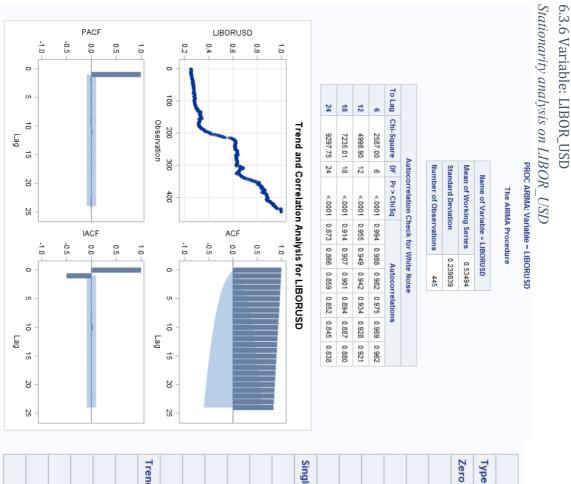
0.5556 0.3101

2.48 2.91 4.95

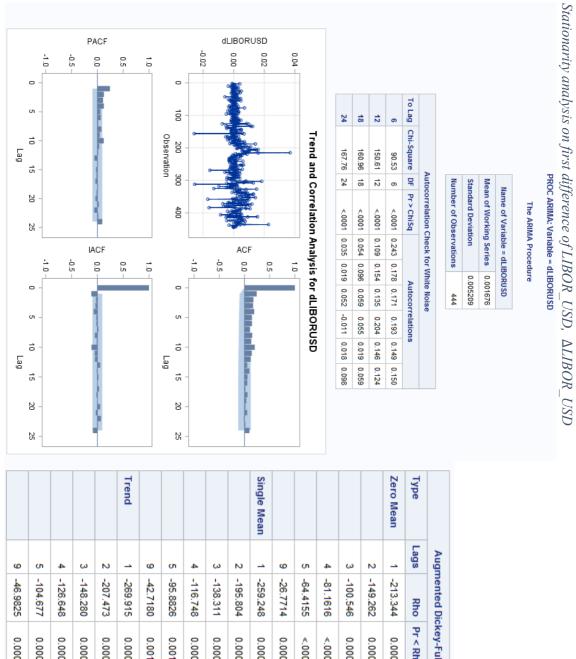
12.37



Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F
Zero Mean	_	-256.523	0.0001	-11.44	<.0001		
	2	-238.280	0.0001	-9.79	<.0001		
	ω	-179.286	0.0001	-8.24	<.0001		
	4	-128.392	0.0001	-6.86	<.0001		
	5	-105.981	0.0001	-6.08	<.0001		
	10	-49.3163	<.0001	-4.30	<.0001		
	20	-246.186	0.0001	-5.57	<.0001		
Single Mean	_	-275.399	0.0001	-11.82	<.0001	69.81	0.0010
	2	-265.938	0.0001	-10.18	<.0001	51.84	0.0010
	ω	-204.699	0.0001	-8.57	<.0001	36.75	0.0010
	4	-148.829	0.0001	-7.16	<.0001	25.64	0.0010
	5	-125.148	0.0001	-6.38	<.0001	20.35	0.0010
	10	-59.1106	0.0017	-4,48	0.0003	10.09	0.0010
	20	-3893.96	0.0001	-5.83	<.0001	17.28	0.0010
Trend	_	-286.082	0.0001	-12.00	<.0001	72.07	0.0010
	2	-282.108	0.0001	-10.37	<.0001	53.83	0.0010
	ω	-218.831	0.0001	-8.71	<.0001	37.97	0.0010
	4	-160.258	0.0001	-7.28	<.0001	26.57	0.0010
	5	-136.352	0.0001	-6.51	<.0001	21.21	0.0010
	10	-63.2906	0.0007	-4.50	0.0017	10.23	0.0010
	20	4580.959	0.9999	-5.74	<.0001	17.05	0.0010



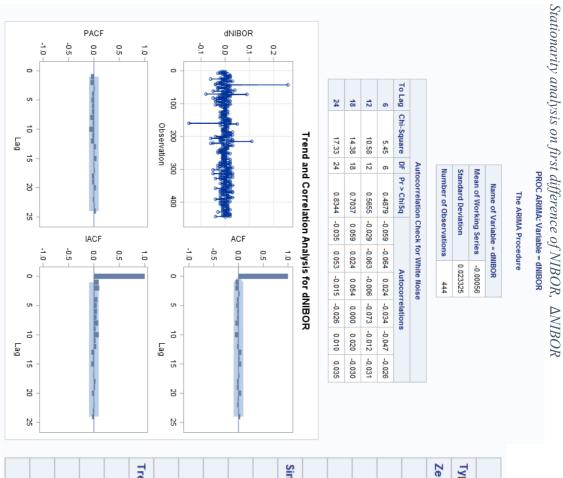
	Augn	ented Dic	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
Zero Mean	-	1.3283	0.9534	5.29	0.9999		
	2	1.3122	0.9518	4.48	0.9999		
	ω	1.3008	0.9507	3.89	0.9999		
	4	1.2824	0.9489	3.31	0.9998		
	5	1.2709	0.9477	3.05	0.9995		
	10	1.2093	0.9409	1.95	0.9881		
	20	1.1942	0.9392	2.10	0.9918		
Single Mean	_	0.9955	0.9888	1.70	0.9997	14.19	0.0010
	2	0.9633	0.9882	1.45	0.9992	10.18	0.0010
	ω	0.8882	0.9868	1.19	0.9981	7.73	0.0010
	4	0.7923	0.9848	0.93	0.9959	5.69	0.0186
	5	0.7348	0.9835	0.81	0.9942	4.88	0.0416
	10	0.2387	0.9679	0.18	0.9713	2.26	0.4923
	20	0.3883	0.9735	0.33	0.9798	2.52	0.4244
Trend	-	-3.9462	0.8891	-1.74	0.7315	4.00	0.3737
	2	-4.8608	0.8297	-1.90	0.6557	3.82	0.4110
	ω	-5.6361	0.7717	-1.96	0.6192	3.48	0.4781
	4	-6.8879	0.6711	-2.11	0.5415	3.39	0.4972
	5	-7.6364	0.6104	-2.18	0.4985	3.40	0.4953
	10	-14.6514	0.1930	-2.71	0.2347	4.07	0.3600
	3	-15 4784	0 1850	5 8	0 2724	ŝ	0 2805



					Trend						Single Mean						Zero Mean	Туре	
9	5	4	ω	2	_	9	5	4	ω	2	_	9	5	4	ω	2	_	Lags	Augr
-46.9825	-104.677	-126.648	-148.280	-207.473	-269.915	-42.7180	-95.8826	-116.748	-138.311	-195.804	-259.248	-26.7714	-64.4155	-81.1616	-100.546	-149.262	-213.344	Rho	mented Di
0.0007	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0017	0.0017	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-3.97	-5.87	-6.57	-7.38	-9.10	-11.56	-3.88	-5.73	-6.41	-7.21	-8.91	-11.34	-3.23	-4.95	-5.61	-6.37	-7.96	-10.31	Tau	r Unit Ro
0.0103	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0025	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0013	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	Pr < Tau	ot Tests
7.91	17.25	21.61	27.23	41.40	66.79	7.51	16.41	20.56	25.99	39.67	64.34							-	
0.0100	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010							Pr > F	



	Augm	ented Dicl	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit Ro	ot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F
Zero Mean	0	-0.3175	0.6105	-0.76	0.3861		
	-	-0.2987	0.6147	-0.76	0.3875		
	2	-0.2872	0.6173	-0.78	0.3783		
	ω	-0.2709	0.6211	-0.73	0.4029		
	4	-0.2572	0.6242	-0.71	0.4079		
	5	-0.2504	0.6257	-0.73	0.4012		
Single Mean	0	-6.7944	0.2874	-2.07	0.2579	2.27	0.4907
	-	-6.1723	0.3324	-1.97	0.2995	2.08	0.5393
	2	-5.6167	0.3778	-1.90	0.3308	1.96	0.5690
	ω	-5.6092	0.3784	-1.86	0.3526	1.85	0.5980
	4	-5.2482	0.4106	-1.79	0.3852	1.73	0.6295
	5	-4.8888	0.4448	-1.74	0.4098	1.65	0.6489
Trend	0	-11.1538	0.3591	-2.19	0.4943	2.76	0.6231
	-	-9.9318	0.4381	-2.02	0.5877	2.43	0.6904
	2	-8.5688	0.5372	-1.83	0.6884	2.13	0.7506
	ω	-9.0560	0.5005	-1.87	0.6701	2.12	0.7525
	4	-8.3817	0.5516	-1.77	0.7206	1.94	0.7897
	5	-7.4672	0.6240	-1.63	0.7794	1.75	0.8267



Туре	Aug	mented Di Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests ags Rho Pr < Rho Tau Pr < Tau	r Unit R Tau	oot Tests Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F
Zero Mean	0	-468.660	0.0001	-22.28	<.0001		
	_	-535.127	0.0001	-16.29	<.0001		
	2	-507.366	0.0001	-12.65	<.0001		
	ω	-596.126	0.0001	-11.21	<.0001		
	4	-831.253	0.0001	-10.35	<.0001		
	5	-1297.12	0.0001	-9.64	<.0001		
Single Mean	0	-468.923	0.0001	-22.27	<.0001	248.00	0.0010
	_	-536.027	0.0001	-16.29	<.0001	132.67	0.0010
	2	-509.079	0.0001	-12.64	<.0001	79.94	0.0010
	ω	-599.888	0.0001	-11.21	<.0001	62.83	0.0010
	4	-841.801	0.0001	-10.35	<.0001	53.61	0.0010
	5	-1330.40	0.0001	-9.64	<.0001	46.50	0.0010
Trend	0	-469.673	0.0001	-22.28	<.0001	248.25	0.0010
	_	-539.322	0.0001	-16.31	<.0001	133.09	0.0010
	2	-515.240	0.0001	-12.67	<.0001	80.26	0.0010
	ω	-613.240	0.0001	-11.24	<.0001	63.17	0.0010
	4	-880.952	0.0001	-10.39	<.0001	54.01	0.0010
	5	-1464.40	0.0001	-9.68	<.0001	46.88	0.0010

6.4 Sample 3.1

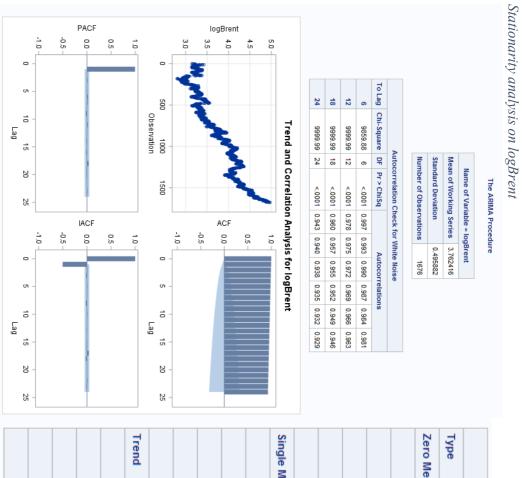
6.4.1 Autocorrelation analysis

confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied. Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-10 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market dark green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the

Cells market with **light** green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

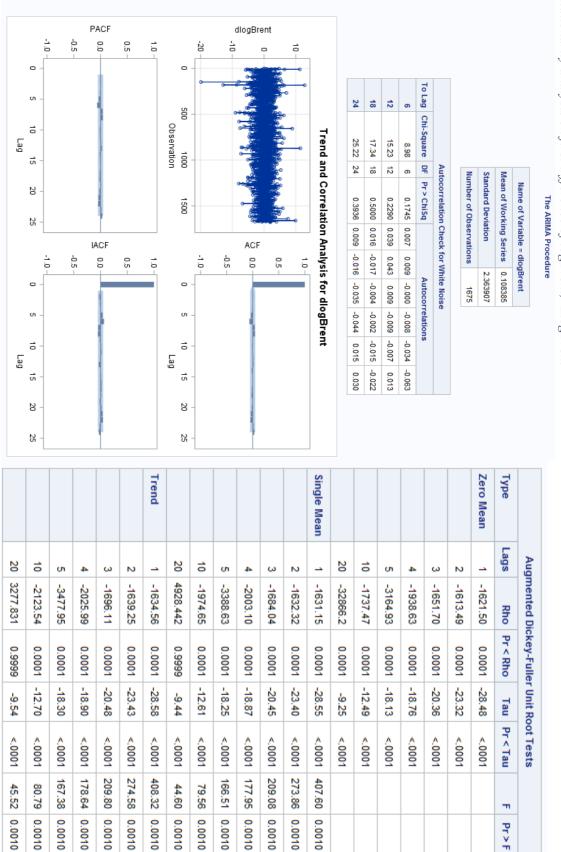
The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

			Aut	ocorrelatior	ı analysis - Bre Sample 3.1	Autocorrelation analysis - Breusch-Godfrey test Sample 3.1	lfrey test				
Variable	0 lag	1lag	2 lag	3 lag	4 lag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	8 lag	9 lag	10 lag
log144		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
logUSD	*	insig	* *	*	*	insig	insig	* * *	insig	insig	insig
logBrent	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
144_intrate		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *	* *	* *	* *	* * *	*
LIBORUSD		* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *
NIBOR		* *	* *	* * *	* *	***	* * *	* * *	***	*	*
∆logI44		* * *	* * *	* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔlogUSD		* *	*	*	insig	insig	* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig
∆logBrent	insig	insig	insig	* *	*	* * *	*	*	* *	* * *	*
ΔI44_INTRATE		* * *	* *	* * *	* *	* *	*	* *	**	*	*
ALIBORUSD		* * *	* *	* * *	* *	* *	* * *	* * *	**	* * *	*
ANIBOR		* * *	***	* * *	* *	* *	* * *	* * *	***	*	*



6.4.2 Variable: Brent

4 -20.2922 0.0655 -3.01 0.1308		3 -20.3911 0.0642 -3.03 0.1251	2 -20.0508 0.0688 -3.01 0.1309	1 -18.9402 0.0861 -2.89 0.1654	Trend 0 -18.4105 0.0958 -2.86 0.1767	5 0.4549 0.9760 0.24 0.9749	4 0.4081 0.9744 0.21 0.9731	3 0.3842 0.9736 0.19 0.9722	2 0.3650 0.9730 0.18 0.9716	1 0.2824 0.9699 0.14 0.9689	Single Mean 0 0.3089 0.9709 0.16 0.9699	5 0.4739 0.8007 1.90 0.9866	4 0.4670 0.7989 1.81 0.9836	3 0.4663 0.7987 1.80 0.9830	2 0.4680 0.7992 1.80 0.9833	1 0.4791 0.8020 1.86 0.9855	Zero Mean 0 0.4797 0.8022 1.88 0.9861	Type Lags Rho Pr <rho pr<tau<="" tau="" th=""><th>Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests</th></rho>	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
	.01 0.1308			.89 0.1654										.80 0.9830		.86 0.9855	.88 0.9861		t Root Tests
Î	5.19	5.25	5.17	4.75	4.66	1.80	1.64	1.61	1.63	1.74	1.77							-	
	0.1298	0.1179	0.1341	0.2192	0.2371	0.6099	0.6508	0.6577	0.6540	0.6248	0.6168							Pr > F	

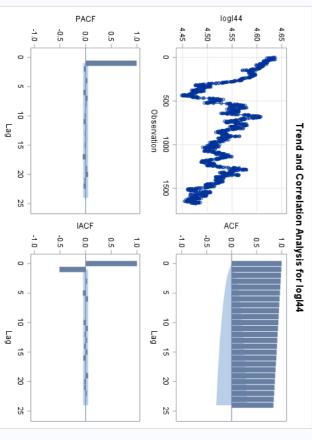


Stationarity analysis on first difference of logBrent, \DlogBrent

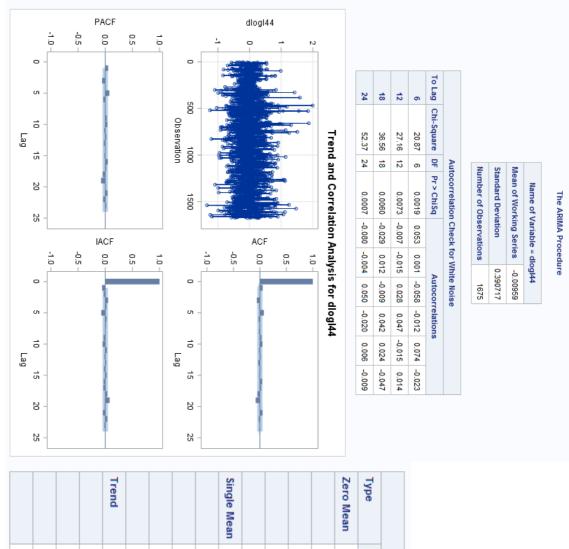
50

6.4.3 Variable: 144 Stationarity analysis on log144

					H					
	24	18	12	6	To Lag					
4	9999.99	9999.99	9999.99	9621.22	Chi-Square DF Pr > ChiSq					
	24	₿	12	თ	P	Autoo	N	Sta	Me	
	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	Pr > ChiSq	Autocorrelation Check for White Noise	Number of Observations	Standard Deviation	Mean of Working Series	Name of Variable = logl44
	0.871	0.914	0.953	0.993		heck fo	ervatio	ion	g Serie	ariable
	0.865	0.907	0.947	0.986	A	or Whit	su	0.0		= logl44
	0.858	0.900	0.941	0.980	utocor	e Noise	1676	0.042377	4.533207	-
	0.851	0.893	0.934	0.973	Autocorrelations					
	0.843	0.886	0.927	0.967	S					
	0.836	0.878	0.921	0.960						



				Trend					Single Mean					Zero Mean	Туре	
5	4	ω	2	_	5	4	ω	2	_	5	4	ω	2	-	Lags	Augm
-13.6353	-12.0047	-11.9247	-13.1664	-13.2583	-10.0552	-9.0730	-8.9594	-9.8017	-9.9387	-0.0345	-0.0356	-0.0350	-0.0351	-0.0358	Rho	ented Dic
0.2369	0.3149	0.3192	0.2575	0.2533	0.1332	0.1685	0.1732	0.1416	0.1370	0.6752	0.6749	0.6751	0.6750	0.6749	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-2.71	-2.59	-2.57	-2.69	-2.72	-2.45	-2.39	-2.36	-2.45	-2.49	-0.91	-1.02	-1.00	-0.94	-0.96	Tau	Unit Ro
0.2341	0.2858	0.2948	0.2412	0.2291	0.1291	0.1434	0.1532	0.1291	0.1186	0.3207	0.2772	0.2846	0.3078	0.3000	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
3.74	3.46	3.40	3.71	3.80	3.39	3.37	3.27	3.42	3.54						-	
0.4237	0.4802	0.4932	0.4309	0.4120	0.1994	0.2065	0.2324	0.1924	0.1618						Pr > F	



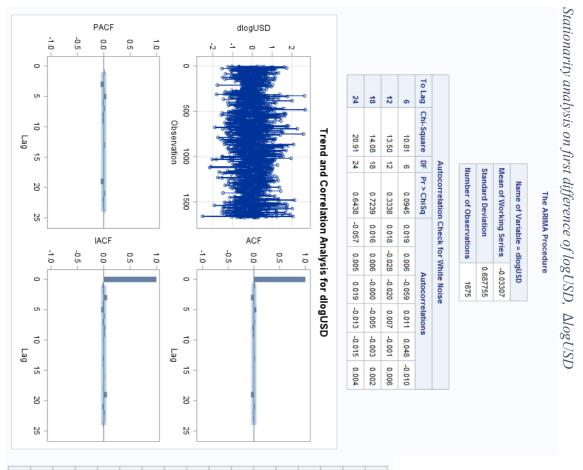
Stationarity analysis on first difference of log144, \Dog144

	Aug	mented Di	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	er Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	F	Pr > F
Zero Mean	4	-1586.11	0.0001	-28.15	<.0001		
	2	-1887.54	0.0001	-24.54	<.0001		
	ω	-1930.62	0.0001	-21.13	<.0001		
	4	-1329.43	0.0001	-17.38	<.0001		
	5	-1614.42	0.0001	-16.58	<.0001		
Single Mean	-	-1588.71	0.0001	-28.17	<.0001	396.68	0.0010
	2	-1894.20	0.0001	-24.56	<.0001	301.62	0.0010
	ω	-1942.82	0.0001	-21.16	<.0001	223.78	0.0010
	4	-1339.21	0.0001	-17.40	<.0001	151.40	0.0010
	5	-1632.28	0.0001	-16.60	<.0001	137.77	0.0010
Trend	1	-1589.28	0.0001	-28.16	<.0001	396.58	0.0010
	2	-1895.55	0.0001	-24.56	<.0001	301.58	0.0010
	ω	-1945.26	0.0001	-21.16	<.0001	223.79	0.0010
	4	-1340.99	0.0001	-17.40	<.0001	151.40	0.0010
	5	-1635.23	0.0001	-16.60	<.0001	137.76	0.0010

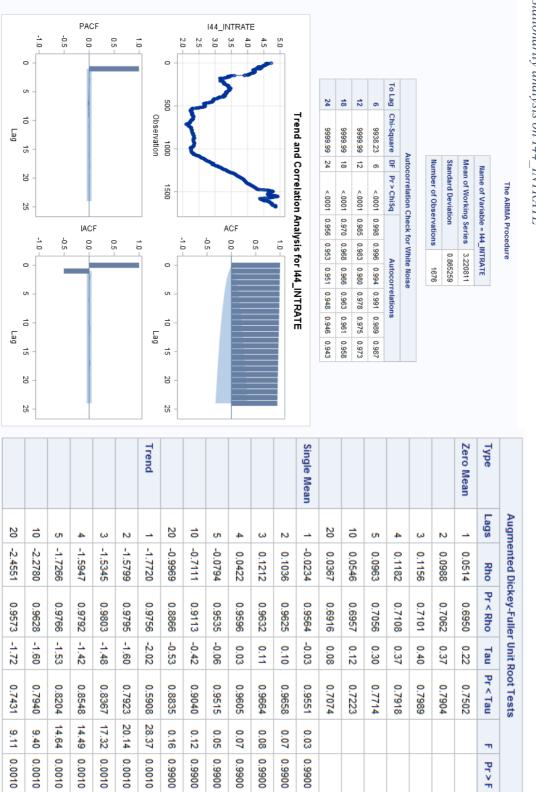


6.4.4 Variable: USD

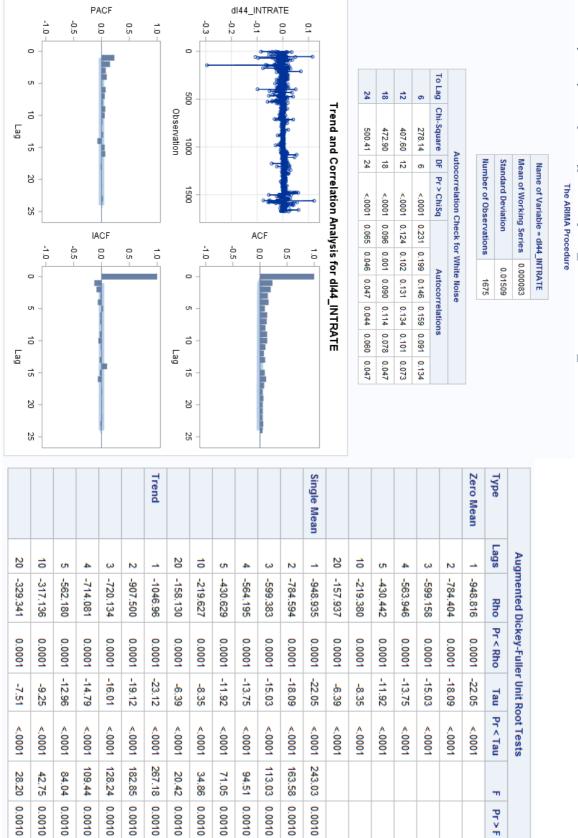
				Trend					Single Mean					Zero Mean	Туре	
5	4	ω	2	_	5	4	ω	2	_	5	4	ω	2	_	Lags	Augm
-13.5976	-12.1945	-11.7668	-13.2413	-12.9945	-1.1804	-0.9684	-0.8653	-1.1229	-1.0716	-0.2915	-0.2878	-0.2845	-0.2893	-0.2877	Rho	ented Dic
0.2385	0.3049	0.3278	0.2541	0.2654	0.8691	0.8892	0.8984	0.8747	0.8796	0.6167	0.6175	0.6183	0.6172	0.6176	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-2.54	-2.41	-2.37	-2.52	-2.51	-0.63	-0.54	-0.49	-0.60	-0.58	-1.93	-2.00	-2.01	-1.93	-1.93	Tau	Unit Ro
0.3089	0.3749	0.3945	0.3162	0.3249	0.8625	0.8810	0.8907	0.8684	0.8734	0.0512	0.0432	0.0424	0.0514	0.0512	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
3.27	2.96	2.89	3.24	3.20	1.98	2.08	2.08	1.96	1.95						-	
0.5194	0.5820	0.5971	0.5255	0.5332	0.5641	0.5370	0.5373	0.5682	0.5696						Pr > F	



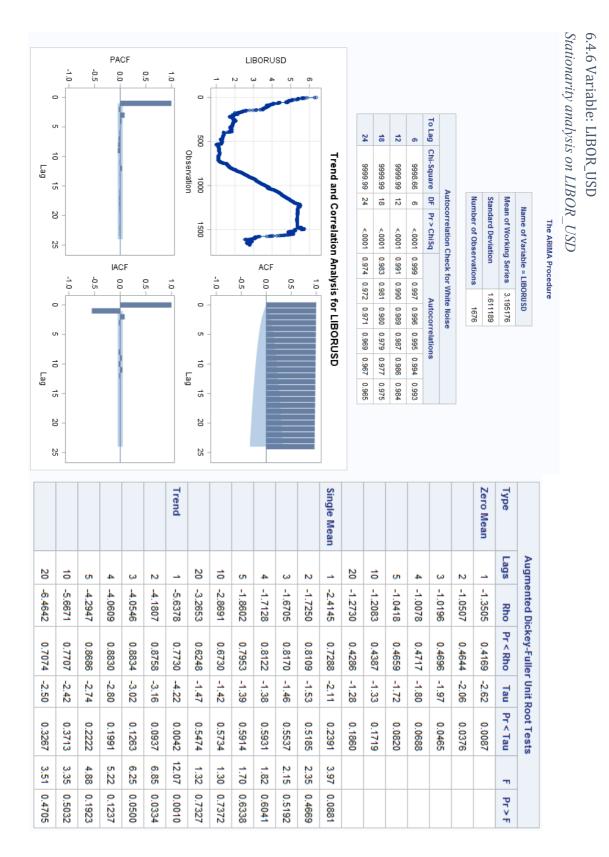
	Aug	mented Di	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	r Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
Zero Mean	4	-1612.10	0.0001	-28.38	<.0001		
	2	-1923.47	0.0001	-24.70	<.0001		
	ω	-1793.78	0.0001	-20.78	<.0001		
	4	-1401.14	0.0001	-17.59	<.0001		
	5	-1510.77	0.0001	-16.37	<.0001		
Single Mean	4	-1622.70	0.0001	-28.46	<.0001	405.05	0.0010
	2	-1950.59	0.0001	-24.80	<.0001	307.53	0.0010
	ω	-1836.49	0.0001	-20.89	<.0001	218.13	0.0010
	4	-1444.74	0.0001	-17.70	<.0001	156.69	0.0010
	5	-1578.45	0.0001	-16.49	<.0001	135.91	0.0010
Trend	-	-1622.97	0.0001	-28.46	<.0001	404.89	0.0010
	2	-1951.44	0.0001	-24.80	<.0001	307.45	0.0010
	ω	-1837.78	0.0001	-20.88	<.0001	218.07	0.0010
	4	-1445.94	0.0001	-17.70	<.0001	156.65	0.0010
	5	-1580.53	0.0001	-16.49	<.0001	135.90	0.0010

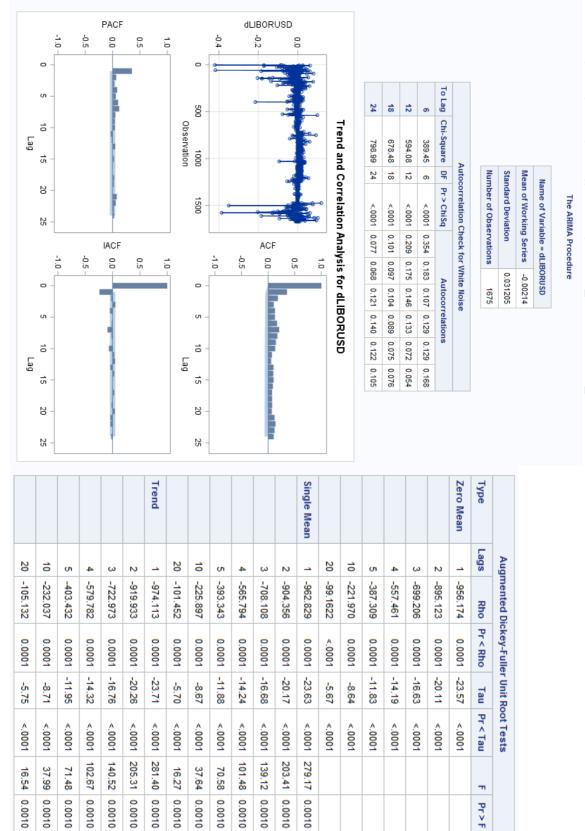


6.4.5 Variable: 144 interest rate Stationarity analysis on 144_INTRATE





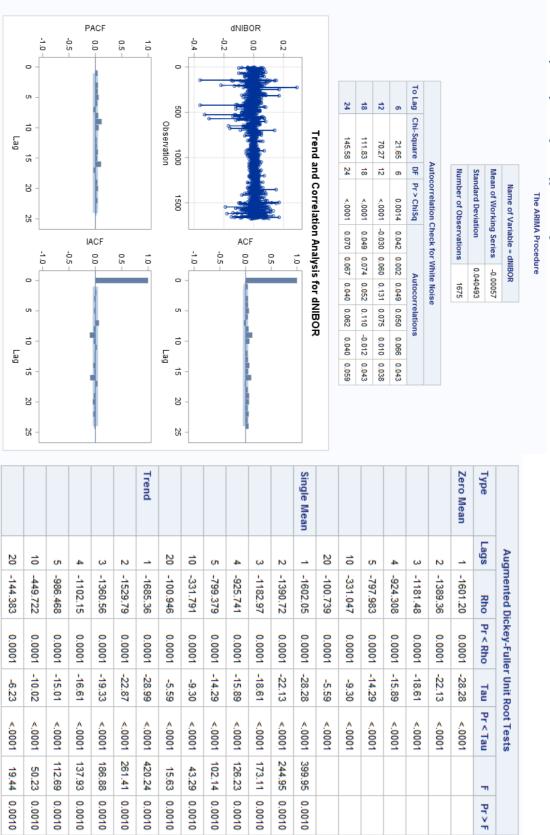






6.4.7 Variable: NIBOR Stationarity analysis on NIBOR

	-1.0	-0.5	PAC		, <u>-</u>	<u>_</u>			NIB																
	• -	5		0	n c		•	2	4	<u>б</u>	5														
	υ -						500				5			24	18	12	6	To Lag							
Lag	- 6					Observation		-5	100			Tre					999	Chi-Square							
	15 -					ation	1000	V				end an		9999.99 24	99999.99 18	9999.99 12		iare DF	Aut	N	St	M			
	20 -						7					Id Col							ocorre	umber	tandard	ean of	Nam	Ŧ	
	25 -						1500					Trend and Correlation Analysis for NIBOR		<.0001	<.0001	<.0001 0.991 0.990	<.0001 0.999	Pr > ChiSq	Autocorrelation Check for White Noise	Number of Observations	Standard Deviation	Mean of Working Series	Name of Variable = NIBOR	The ARIMA Procedure	
		<u>.</u>	IAC			_			AC			on An		0.976	0.984	0.991			heck fo	rvation	on	g Series	riable =	A Proce	
	-1.0 -	-0.5 -	0.0	0.0						j i	ר ה ה	1.0 - 1.0		0.974	0.983		0.998	Au	r White		2.011264	4.438932	NIBOR	dure	
												for N		0.973	0.981	0.989	0.996	Autocorrelations	Noise	1676	1264	8932			
	υ –						σı –					BOR		0.971 0	0.980 0	0.988 0.986	0.995 0.994	lations							
Lag	10 -					Lag	10 -							0.970 0	0.978 0	.986 0	.994 0								
	5 -						5 -							0.968	0.977	0.985	0.993								
	20 25						20 25																		
													60										Z	-	
						Trend							Single Mean										Zero Mean	Туре	
20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	5	3	10	5		4	ω	2		_	Lags	Augm
0.1131	0.5669	0.7959	0.8420	0.8332	0.8715	0.8414	-1.8328	-1.3229	-1.0197	-0.9715	-1.0009	-0.9529	-0.9832	-0.000	0.0000	-0.3698	-0.3279		-0.3230	-0.3449	-0.3343		-0.3472	Rho	Augmented Dicl
0.9968	0.9982	0.9987	0.9988	0.9988	0.9988	0.9988	0.7985	0.8547	0.8845	0.8889	0.8862	0.8906	0.8879	0.0021	0 5007	0.5990	0.6084		0.6096	0.6046	0.6070		0.6041	Pr < Rho	ickey-Fulle
0.07	0.47	0.80	0.89	0.90	0.98	0.93	-1.04	-1.03	-1.01	-1.03	4.11	-1.11	-1.14	6.50		-0.69	-0.79		<mark>-</mark> 0.83	-0.92	-0.94		-0.98	Tau	r Unit R
0.9970	0.9992	0.9998	0.9999	0.9999	0.9999	0.9999	0.7413	0.7453	0.7498	0.7445	0.7151	0.7150	0.7007	0.4100	0 4702	0.4169	0.3757		0.3586	0.3163	0.3090		0.2931	Pr < Tau	key-Fuller Unit Root Tests
3.81	7.04	10.53	11.88	13.25	14.36	14.30	0.55	0.57	0.60	0.63	0.74	0.75	0.81											-	
0.4094	0.0282	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.9387	0.9312	0.9233	0.9137	0.8808	0.8782	0.8644											Pr>F	



6.5 Sample 3.2

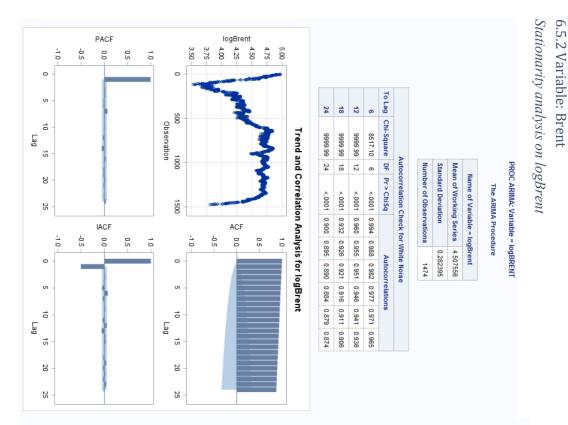
6.5.1 Autocorrelation analysis

confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied. Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-10 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market dark green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the

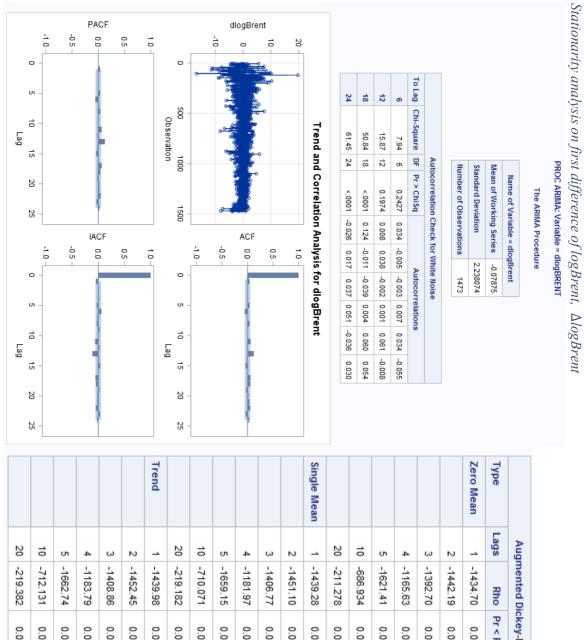
Cells market with **light** green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

			Aut	Autocorrelation analysis - Breusch Godfrey-test Sample 3.2	ו analysis - Bre Sample 3.2	Breusch Goo 3.2	dfrey-test				
Variable	0 lag	1 lag	2 lag	3 lag	4 lag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	8 lag	9 lag	10 lag
logI44	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
logUSD	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
logBrent	insig	insig	insig	*	*	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig
144_intrate		* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *
LIBORUSD		* * *	* * *	***	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *
NIBOR		* * *	* *	**	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *
∆logI44	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔlogUSD	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	*	*	*
ΔlogBrent		insig	*	***	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔI44_INTRATE		* * *	* * *	***	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *
ΔLIBORUSD		* * *	* * *	***	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *
DNIBOR		* * *	* * *	***	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *



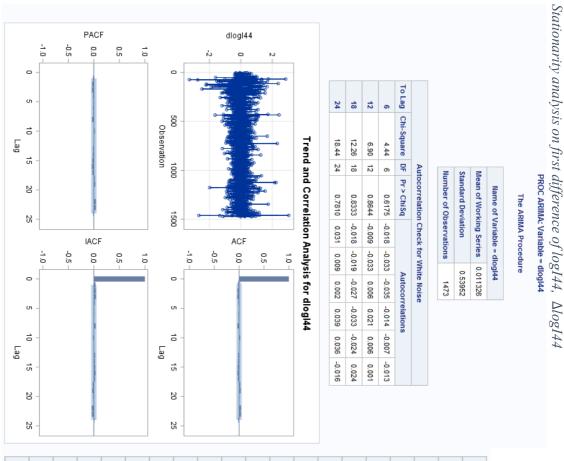
					Trend						Single Mean						Zero Mean	Туре	
6	5	4	ω	2	_	6	5	4	ω	2	_	6	5	4	ω	2	_	Lags	Augmo
-3.3544	-4.1292	-2.8226	-2.5115	-2.5280	-3.1046	-3.0991	-3.6384	-2.9530	-2.7900	-2.8027	-3.0701	-0.2648	-0.2716	-0.2551	-0.2513	-0.2516	-0.2615	Rho	ented Di
0.9212	0.8789	0.9443	0.9554	0.9549	0.9326	0.6449	0.5807	0.6626	0.6826	0.6810	0.6484	0.6227	0.6212	0.6250	0.6258	0.6258	0.6235	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-0.88	-1.02	-0.73	-0.66	-0.67	-0.82	-0.99	-1.10	-0.93	-0.89	-0.89	-0.97	-1.37	-1.33	-1.30	-1.29	-1.29	-1.33	Tau	r Unit R
0.9571	0.9395	0.9700	0.9749	0.9745	0.9628	0.7594	0.7193	0.7801	0.7931	0.7918	0.7656	0.1579	0.1705	0.1805	0.1829	0.1833	0.1710	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
0.49	0.62	0.43	0.40	0.40	0.47	1.35	1.40	1.20	1.16	1.16	1.28							-	
0.9900	0.9900	0.9900	0.9900	0.9900	0.9900	0.7241	0.7121	0.7637	0.7749	0.7745	0.7436							Pr > F	



						Trend							Single Mean							Zero Mean	Туре	
20	10	5	4	ω	2	-	20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	28	10	5	4	ω	2	_	Lags	Aug
-219.382	-712.131	-1662.74	-1183.79	-1408.86	-1452.45	-1439.98	-219.182	-710.071	-1659.15	-1181.97	-1406.77	-1451.10	-1439.28	-211.278	-686.934	-1621.41	-1165.63	-1392.70	-1442.19	-1434.70	Rho	mented Di
0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-6.37	-10.31	-15.81	-16.29	-18.88	-21.99	-26.82	-6.35	-10.30	-15.81	-16.28	-18.88	-21.98	-26.82	-6.29	-10.24	-15.75	-16.23	-18.83	-21.94	-26.78	Tau	r Unit R
<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
20.47	53.21	125.01	132.61	178.26	241.69	359.61	20.20	53.03	124.97	132.59	178.18	241.61	359.58								Ŧ	
0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010								Pr > F	



	Augmo	ented Dic	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F
Zero Mean	0	0.0364	0.6915	0.79	0.8836		
	_	0.0366	0.6915	0.81	0.8867		
	2	0.0358	0.6914	0.82	0.8884		
	ω	0.0350	0.6912	0.83	0.8905		
	4	0.0346	0.6911	0.83	0.8910		
	5	0.0352	0.6912	0.85	0.8945		
Single Mean	0	-7.7272	0.2320	-1.53	0.5188	1.49	0.6878
	-	-7.3867	0.2515	-1.48	0.5460	1.43	0.7049
	2	-6.6095	0.3018	-1.36	0.6058	1.26	0.7470
	ω	-5.7881	0.3648	-1.22	0.6665	1.10	0.7882
	4	-5.4521	0.3937	-1.16	0.6920	1.04	0.8061
	5	-5.3490	0.4029	-1.15	0.6997	1.03	0.8072
Trend	0	-7.2733	0.6420	-1.43	0.8531	1.38	0.9027
	_	-6.9123	0.6711	-1.37	0.8696	1.30	0.9167
	2	-6.0810	0.7381	-1.24	0.9019	1.18	0.9402
	ω	-5.2029	0.8059	-1.09	0.9290	1.07	0.9576
	4	-4.8230	0.8333	-1.02	0.9395	1.03	0.9626
	5	-4.7137	0.8409	-1.00	0.9422	1.00	0.9671



Type Zero Mean Single Mean	Augn Lags 0 1 1 2 2 3 4 4 5 5 5 1 1	nented Di Rho -1497.25 -1596.69 -1788.14 -1788.14 -1917.87 -2023.57 -2023.57 -2270.71 -1497.92 -1598.81 -1793.21	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests ags Rho Pr < Rho	r Unit R Tau -39.02 -28.23 -23.55 -20.37 -18.13 -16.61 -16.61 -39.02 -23.57 -23.57	Pr < Tau	F 761.36 398.79	о <u>668</u>
gio mom	o	-1598.81	0.0001	-28.24	6 4	01	
	2	-1793.21	0.0001	-23.57	<u>^</u> 00	2	
	ω 4	-1927.95 -2041.07	0.0001	-20.39 -18.15	<.0001	<0001	001 207.82 001 164.66
	5	-2301.42	0.0001	-16.63	4	<.0001	001 138.25
Trend		-1498.65	0.0001	-39.03	^	<.0001	0001 761.58
	•		0.0001	-28.25	٨	<.0001	0001 399.17
	- 0	-1601.23		-23.59	~	<.0001	0001 278.15
	2 1 0	-1601.23	0.0001		^	<.0001	_
	3 2 1	-1601.23 -1799.31 -1940.95	0.0001	-20.41			208.33
	4 3	-1601.23 -1799.31 -1940.95 -2063.22	0.0001	-20.41 -18.17		<.0001	

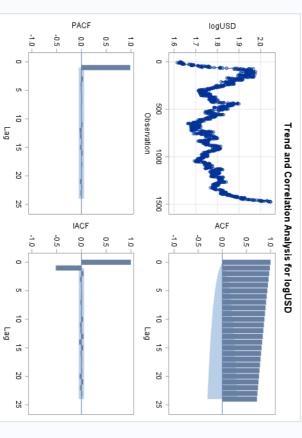
6.5.4 Variable: USD Stationarity analysis on logUSD

PROC ARIMA: Variable = logUSD

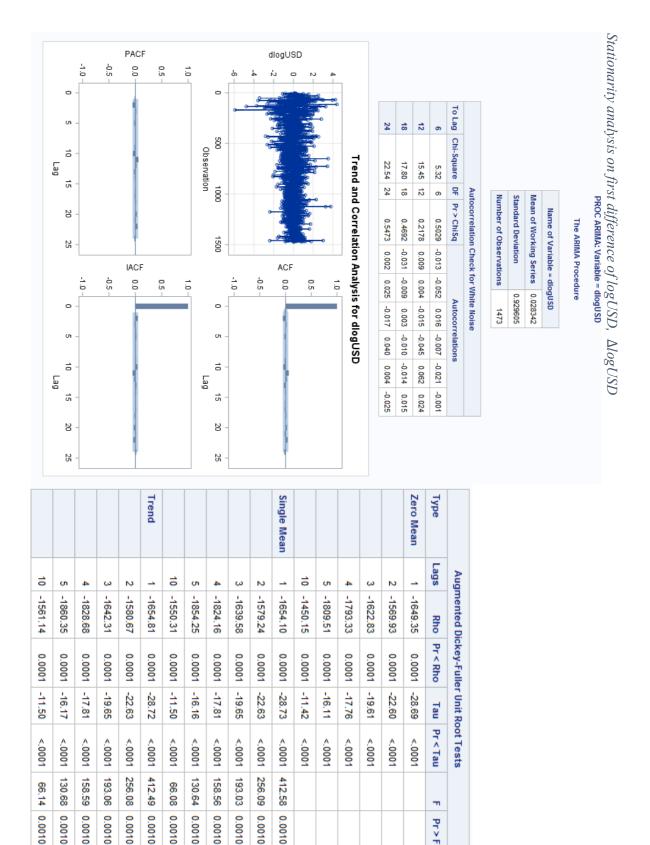
The ARIMA Procedure

Numb	Standa	Mean	Na
Number of Observations	Standard Deviation	Mean of Working Series	Name of Variable = logUSD
1474	0.07244	1.790457	gusd

To Lag	To Lag Chi-Square DF Pr > ChiSq	PF	Pr > ChiSq		A	Autocorrelations	relation	Ś	
6	8062.11	თ	<.0001 0.986 0.972 0.959 0.946 0.933 0.920	0.986	0.972	0.959	0.946	0.933	0.920
12	9999.99	12	<.0001 0.908 0.896 0.884 0.873 0.862	0.908	0.896	0.884	0.873	0.862	0.851
18	9999.99	8	<.0001 0.838 0.827 0.814 0.803 0.792 0.782	0.838	0.827	0.814	0.803	0.792	0.782
24	9999.99	24	<.0001	0.771	0.761	0.750	0.740	<.0001 0.771 0.761 0.750 0.740 0.729 0.719	0.719



					Trend						Single Mean						Zero Mean	Туре	
5	4	ω	2	_	•	5	4	ω	2	_	0	ۍ	4	ω	2	_	0	Lags	Augm
-7.1746	-7.2698	-7.4473	-7.1074	-8.2325	-8.4764	-7.2170	-7.3062	-7.4731	-7.1230	-8.2391	-8.4735	0.2219	0.2176	0.2183	0.2200	0.2189	0.2191	Rho	ented Dio
0.6499	0.6423	0.6280	0.6553	0.5660	0.5472	0.2617	0.2563	0.2464	0.2676	0.2055	0.1943	0.7361	0.7351	0.7352	0.7357	0.7354	0.7354	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-1.51	-1.51	-1.55	-1.51	-1.67	-1.71	-1.52	-1.52	-1.55	-1.51	-1.67	-1.71	1.20	1.16	1.15	1.18	1.11	1.10	Tau	r Unit R
0.8269	0.8260	0.8136	0.8263	0.7636	0.7452	0.5260	0.5253	0.5082	0.5276	0.4445	0.4237	0.9417	0.9367	0.9360	0.9391	0.9317	0.9301	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
1.25	1.27	1.32	1.26	1.51	1.57	1.95	1.89	1.94	1.91	2.10	2.15							-	
0.9268	0.9231	0.9140	0.9250	0.8765	0.8630	0.5720	0.5858	0.5739	0.5806	0.5325	0.5181							Pr > F	



256.09

0.0010 0.0010

412.58

-

Pr > F

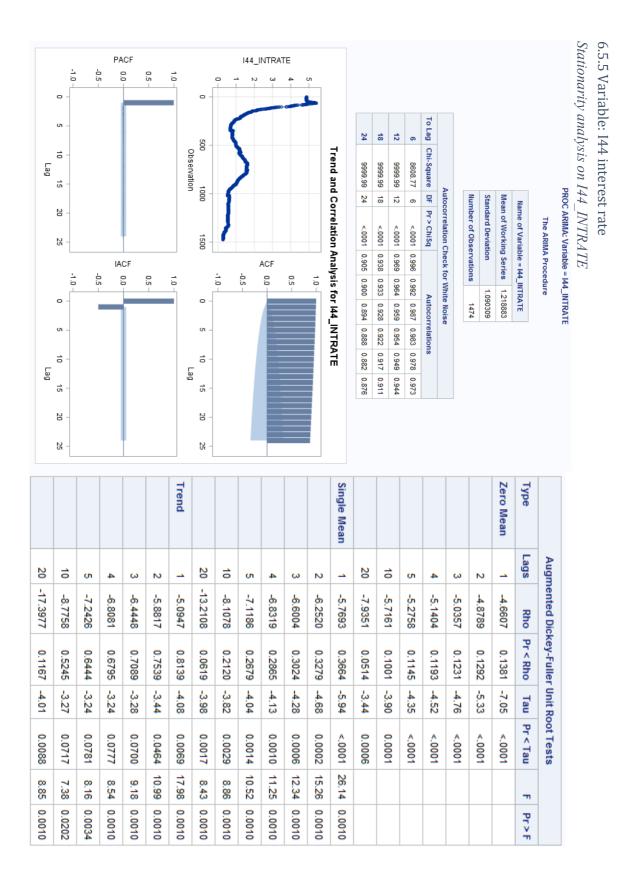
158.59 0.0010

66.14 0.0010

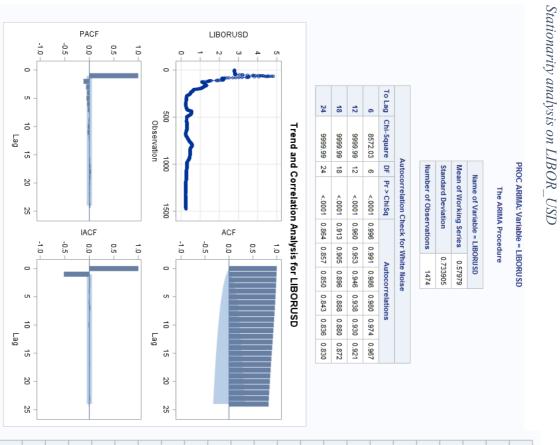
256.08 0.0010 412.49 0.0010 130.64 0.0010

66.08 0.0010

158.56 0.0010 193.03 0.0010







6.5.6 Variable: LIBOR_USD

	Augm	ented Dic	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit Ro	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
Zero Mean	_	-7.2595	0.0629	-3.07	0.0022		
	2	-7.3761	0.0607	-3.06	0.0022		
	ω	-7.9888	0.0506	-3.04	0.0024		
	4	-10.3071	0.0257	-3.04	0.0024		
	5	-9.7884	0.0298	-3.04	0.0024		
	10	-11.6601	0.0176	-3.15	0.0017		
	20	-7.2058	0.0639	-3.41	0.0007		
Single Mean	-	-9.0538	0.1692	-3.01	0.0346	5.19	0.0309
	2	-9.2498	0.1615	-3.02	0.0344	5.17	0.0316
	ω	-10.2416	0.1273	-3.06	0.0308	5.20	0.0307
	4	-14.0679	0.0501	-3.25	0.0181	5.59	0.0203
	5	-13.2114	0.0619	-3.21	0.0201	5.51	0.0220
	10	-16.4177	0.0280	-3.43	0.0105	6.16	0.0072
	20	-8.9419	0.1738	-3.28	0.0165	6.30	0.0041
Trend	-	-9.6644	0.4599	-2.63	0.2647	4.58	0.2544
	2	-9.9475	0.4405	-2.66	0.2551	4.59	0.2511
	ω	-11.3922	0.3488	-2.78	0.2038	4.78	0.2127
	4	-17.1870	0.1217	-3.23	0.0793	5.76	0.0770
	5	-15.8394	0.1576	-3.14	0.0988	5.54	0.0892
	10	-20.7238	0.0598	-3.48	0.0424	6.55	0.0417
	20	-9.0003	0.5077	-2.72	0.2272	5.37	0.0981



91.33

0.0010 0.0010 0.0010 T

Pr>F

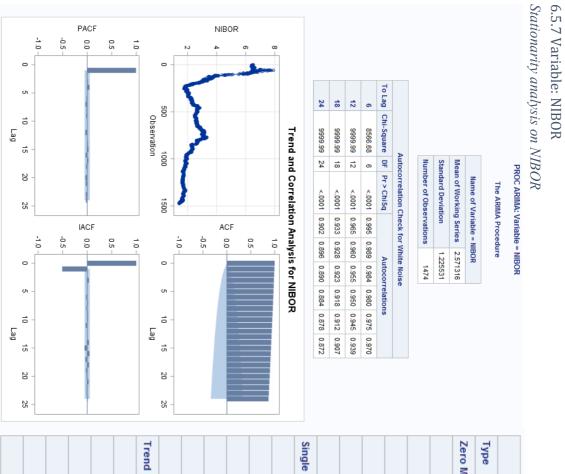
0.0010

0.0010 0.0010

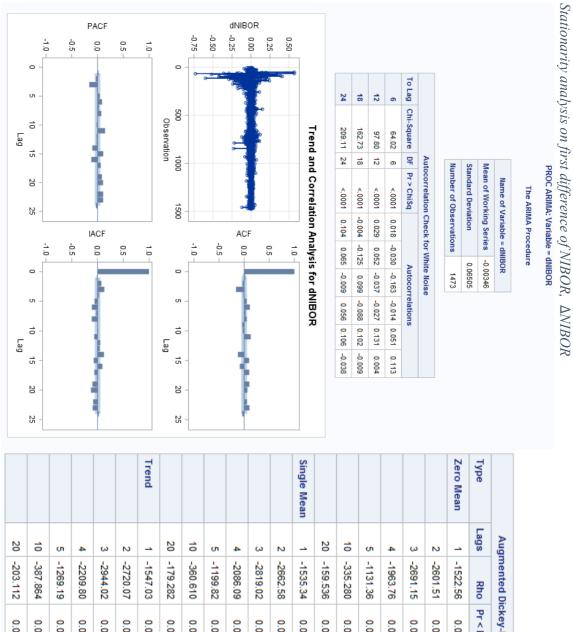
0.0010

0.0010

0.0010



	Augm	ented Dic	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit Ro	ot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
Zero Mean	-	-2.8999	0.2423	-3.25	0.0012		
	2	-2.8429	0.2470	-3.28	0.0011		
	ω	-2.7295	0.2567	-3.71	0.0002		
	4	-2.7095	0.2584	-3.71	0.0002		
	5	-2.7378	0.2560	-3.59	0.0004		
	10	-2.9357	0.2394	-3.25	0.0012		
	20	-3.2268	0.2173	-2.74	0.0061		
Single Mean	4	-6.9457	0.2790	-3.35	0.0132	7.64	0.0010
	2	-6.7274	0.2936	-3.35	0.0136	7.69	0.0010
	ω	-6.1485	0.3358	-3.60	0.0062	9.34	0.0010
	4	-6.0860	0.3407	-3.60	0.0062	9.36	0.0010
	5	-6.2449	0.3285	-3.53	0.0076	8.88	0.0010
	10	-7.2373	0.2605	-3.46	0.0095	7.91	0.0010
	20	-9.0434	0.1696	-3.32	0.0149	6.59	0.0010
Trend	_	-7.6159	0.6145	-2.78	0.2066	5.69	0.0807
	2	-7.2840	0.6411	-2.74	0.2215	5.64	0.0833
	ω	-6.2693	0.7230	-2.78	0.2066	6.46	0.0441
	4	-6.1731	0.7307	-2.77	0.2102	6.46	0.0442
	5	-6.4268	0.7104	-2.76	0.2113	6.25	0.0502
	10	-7.9170	0.5907	-2.89	0.1653	6.06	0.0604
	20	-10.9863	0.3729	-3.07	0.1145	5.80	0.0747



Single Mean Trend	Type Zero Mean	Aug Lags 1	mented Di Rho -1522.56	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests ags Rho Pr < Rho	er Unit R Tau -27.58	oot Tests Pr < Tau <.0001 <.0001		-
Mean Mean		3 2	-2601.51 -2691.15	0.0001	-26.25 -21.78	<u>^</u> ^	<.0001	0001
Mean		4	-1963.76	0.0001	-18.05		<.0001	0001
Mean		5	-1131.36	0.0001	-14.89		<.0001	<.0001
Mean		10	-335.280	0.0001	-9.05		<.0001	<.0001
Mean		20	-159.536	0.0001	-6.20		<.0001	<.0001
	gle Mean	_	-1535.34	0.0001	-27.68		<.0001	<.0001 383.18
		2	-2662.58	0.0001	-26.40		<.0001	<.0001 348.55
		ω	-2819.02	0.0001	-21.95		<.0001	<.0001 240.81
		4	-2086.09	0.0001	-18.22		<.0001	<.0001 165.94
		5	-1199.82	0.0001	-15.05		<.0001	<.0001 113.29
		10	-360.610	0.0001	-9.21		<.0001	<.0001 42.38
Trend		20	-179.282	0.0001	-6.37		<.0001	<.0001 20.31
	bu	_	-1547.03	0.0001	-27.78		<.0001	<.0001 385.79
		2	-2720.07	0.0001	-26.54		<.0001	<.0001 352.15
		ω	-2944.02	0.0001	-22.10		<.0001	<.0001 244.12
		4	-2209.80	0.0001	-18.37		<.0001	<.0001 168.79
		5	-1269.19	0.0001	-15.20		<.0001	<.0001 115.57
		10	-387.864	0.0001	-9.36		<.0001	<.0001 43.81
		20	-203.112	0.0001	-6.55		<.0001	<.0001 21.43

6.6 Robustness sample

6.6.1 Autocorrelation analysis

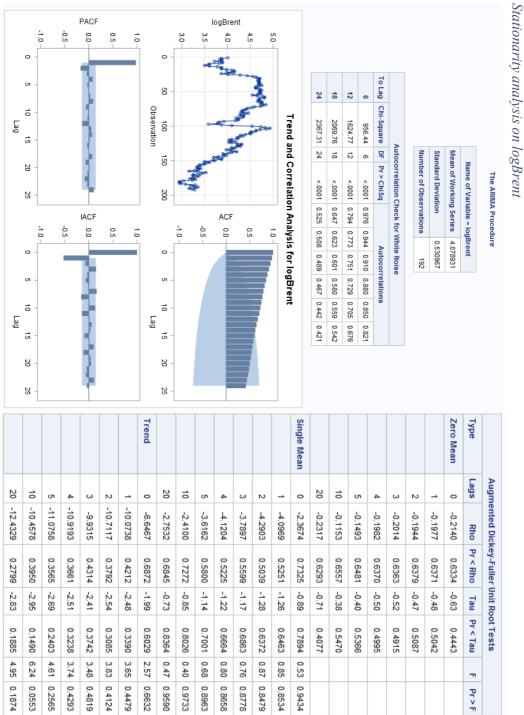
confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied. Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-10 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market dark green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the

Cells market with **light** green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

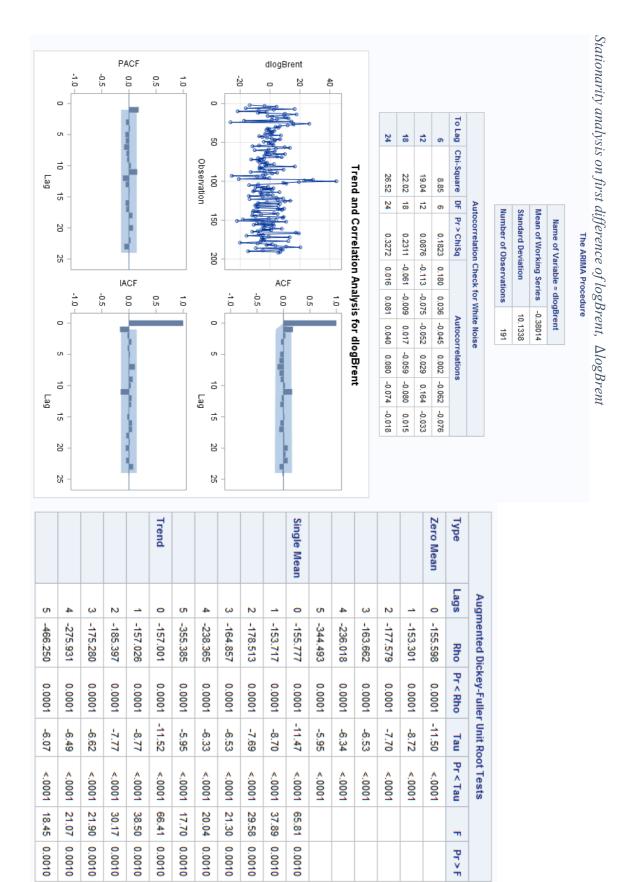
The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

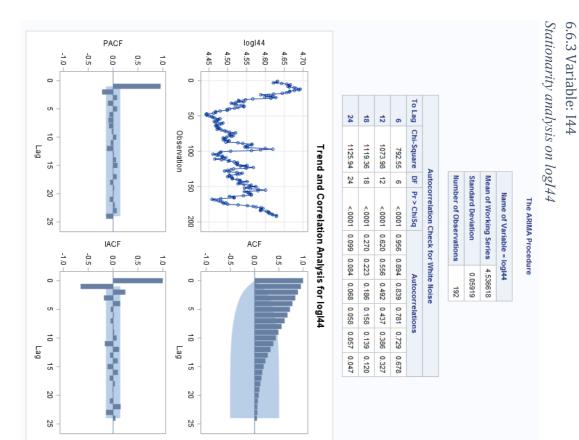
				Aut	tocorrelation an: Robu	Autocorrelation analysis - Breusch-Godfrey test Robustness sample	dfrey test				
Variable	0 lag	1 lag	2 lag	3 lag	4 lag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	8 lag	9 lag	10 lag
logI44		* *	*	* *	insig	* *	*	×	×	insig	insig
logUSD	* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
logBrent	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	*	insig	insig	*	insig	* *
144_INTRATE	* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	*	*	insig	insig	insig
LIBORUSD		insig	insig	×	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	insig
NIBOR		* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	insig	insig	×	insig	insig	insig
logINDPRO_144		* * *	* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig	×	insig	insig	insig
logINDPRO_USD		* * *	* * *	* * *	insig	insig	×	insig	insig	*	insig
logINDPRO_NOK		* * *	* * *	* *	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	* * *	* * *
CPI_144		insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	*	* *	* * *	* * *	* * *
		* *	insig	*	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	* * *	* * *
CPI_NOK		insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	* *	***	* *	* *

				Au	tocorrelation an Robu	Autocorrelation analysis - Breusch-Godfrey test Robustness sample	odfrey test				
Variable	0 lag	1 lag	2 lag	3 lag	4 lag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	8 lag	9 lag	10 lag
Δlog144		*	×	insig	*	×	insig	* *	insig	insig	insig
ΔlogUSD	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig
ΔlogBrent	insig	insig	insig	insig	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig	×	insig
ΔI44_INTRATE	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	×	*	insig	insig	insig	insig
ALIBORUSD		insig	insig	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	* * *	insig	insig
ANIBOR		* * *	* * *	* * *	*	* *	* *	insig	insig	insig	insig
∆logINDPRO_144		* * *	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	ž	insig	insig	*
∆logINDPRO_USD		* * *	* * *	insig	*	*	insig	insig	*	insig	insig
∆logINDPRO_NOK		* * *	* * *	* *	insig	insig	insig	* * *	* * *	* * *	* *
ΔCPI_144		insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	* * *	* * *	* *	* * *
ACPI_USD		insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	insig	* *	* * *	* *	* *
ΔCPI_NOK		* *	*	insig	insig	insig	*	* * *	* * *	***	* * *

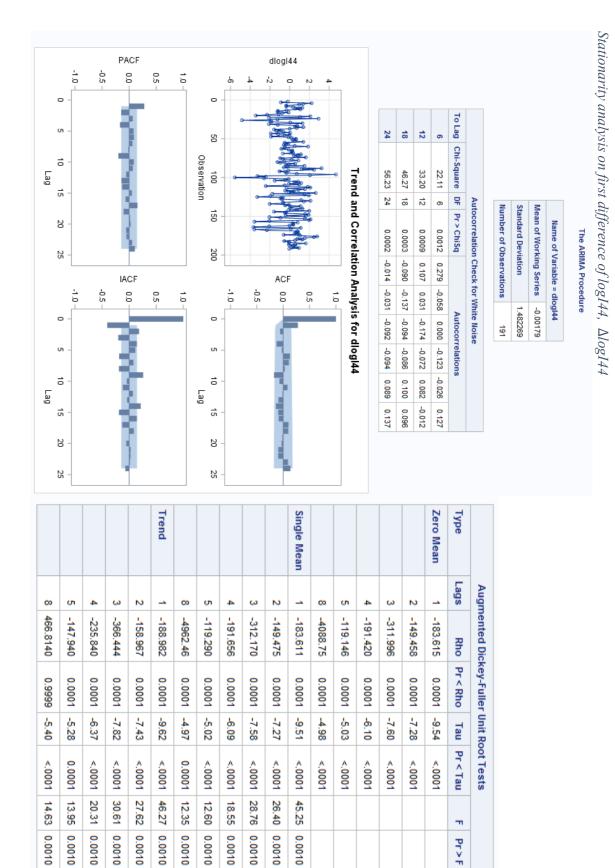


6.6.2 Variable: Brent Stationarity analysis on logBre





					Trend						Single Mean						Zero Mean	Туре	
9	сл	4	ω	2	_	9	5	4	ω	2	_	9	5	4	ω	2	_	Lags	Augm
-11.8360	-9.9311	-7.5880	-10.3961	-7.7444	-10.5595	-15.3097	-11.7925	-8.9693	-11.6440	-8.5962	-11.3205	-0.0134	-0.0106	-0.0075	-0.0069	0.0003	-0.0020	Rho	ented Dic
0.3122	0.4313	0.6096	0.3995	0.5970	0.3890	0.0338	0.0832	0.1676	0.0864	0.1837	0.0937	0.6789	0.6796	0.6803	0.6804	0.6821	0.6816	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-2.45	-2.20	-1.89	-2.19	-1.82	-2.20	-2.71	-2.46	-2.15	-2.40	-2.01	-2.36	-0.28	-0.21	-0.16	-0.12	0.01	-0.03	Tau	Unit Ro
0.3519	0.4850	0.6550	0.4907	0.6929	0.4862	0.0748	0.1277	0.2247	0.1420	0.2841	0.1535	0.5829	0.6108	0.6279	0.6407	0.6838	0.6712	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
5.12	4.01	3.34	3.49	2.52	3.14	3.70	3.04	2.32	2.89	2.01	2.79							-	
0.1532	0.3768	0.5091	0.4806	0.6746	0.5496	0.1273	0.2971	0.4787	0.3334	0.5584	0.3592							Pr > F	



28.76

0.0010

T

Pr>F

18.55

0.0010 0.0010

12.60

0.0010

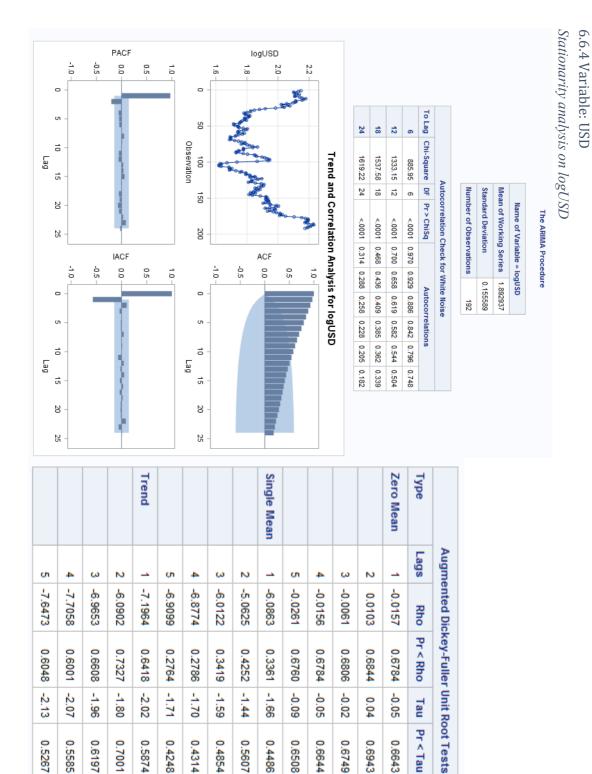
0.0010

30.61 0.0010

13.95 20.31

0.0010

79



-1.71

1.46 0.6983

-1.70

0.4314 1.44 0.7032

-1.59

0.4854

1.27

0.7468

-1.80

0.7001

2.99 0.5798

0.6197

3.35

0.5088

0.5585

-2.02

0.5874 0.4248

3.35

0.5084

-2.13 -2.07 -1.96

0.5267

4.12 0.3544 3.60 0.4581 -1.44 -1.66

0.5607 1.05 0.8024

-0.09 -0.05

0.6508

0.4486

1.39 0.7177

-0.02

0.6749 0.6943

0.6644

0.04

-0.05

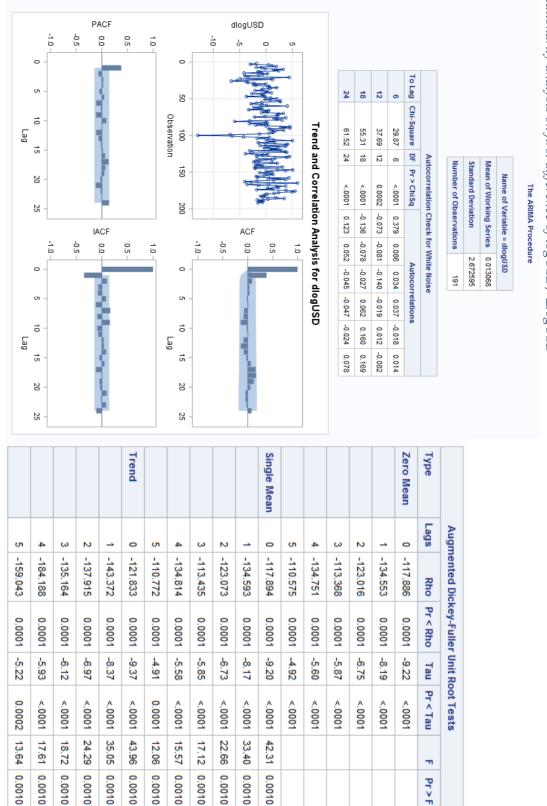
0.6643

Tau

Pr < Tau

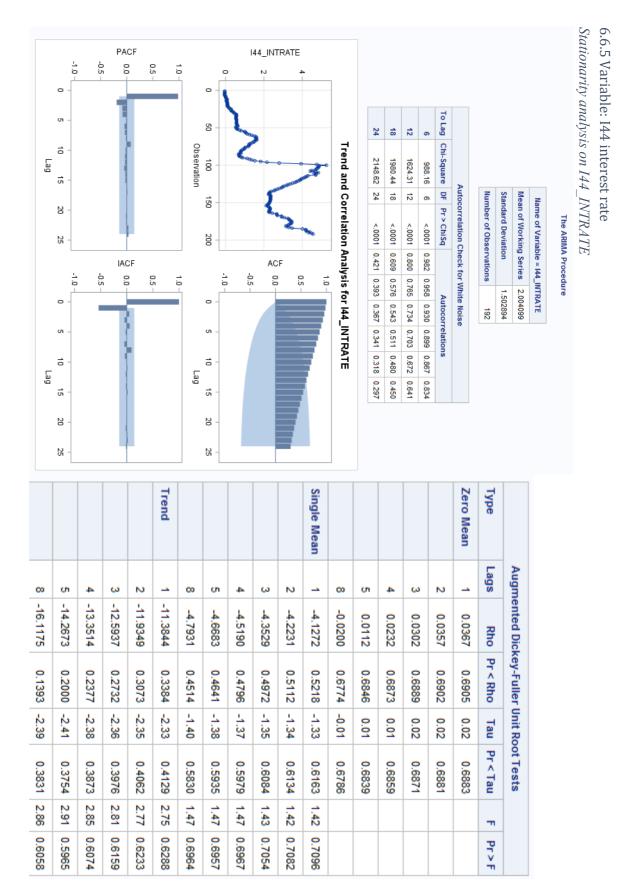
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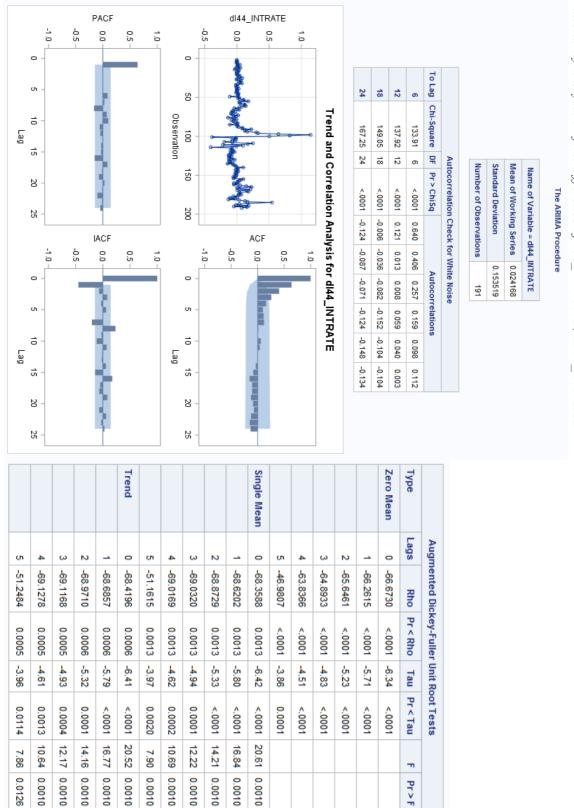
Pr>F



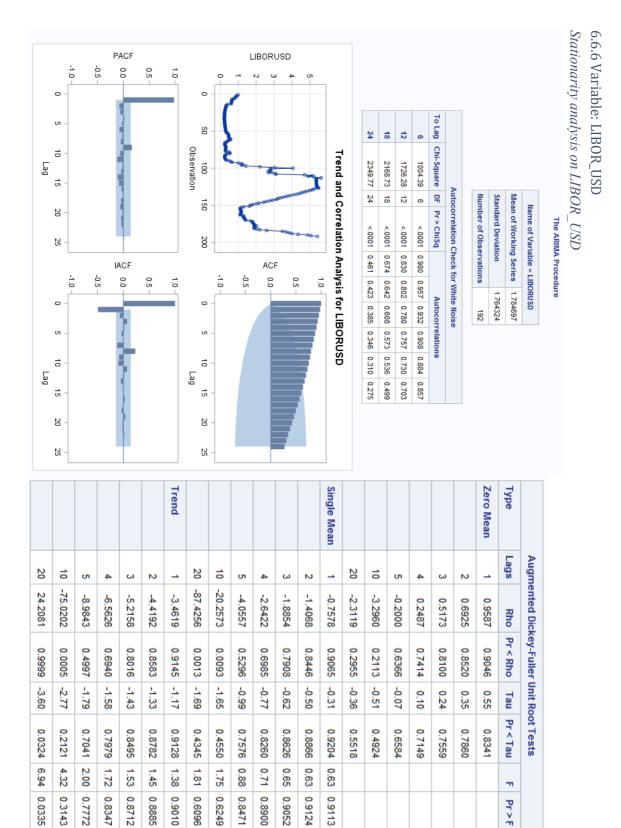
Pr > F

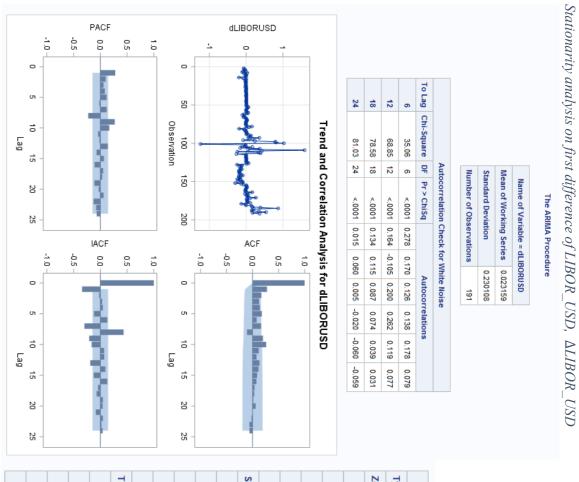
0.0010



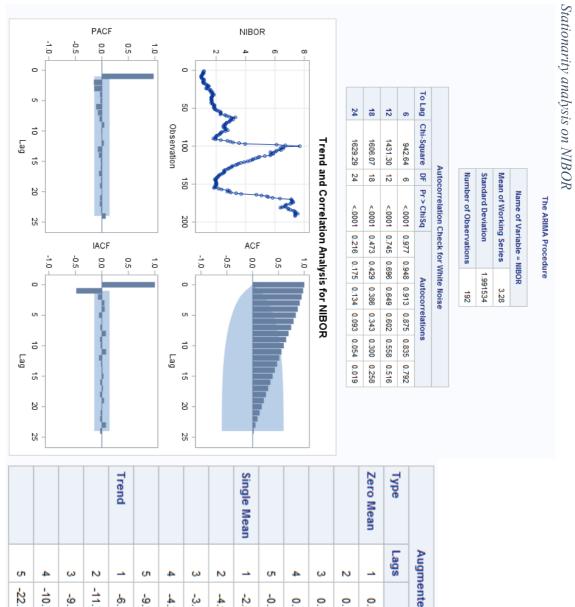


Stationarity analysis on first difference of 144_INTRATE, $\Delta 144$ _INTRATE



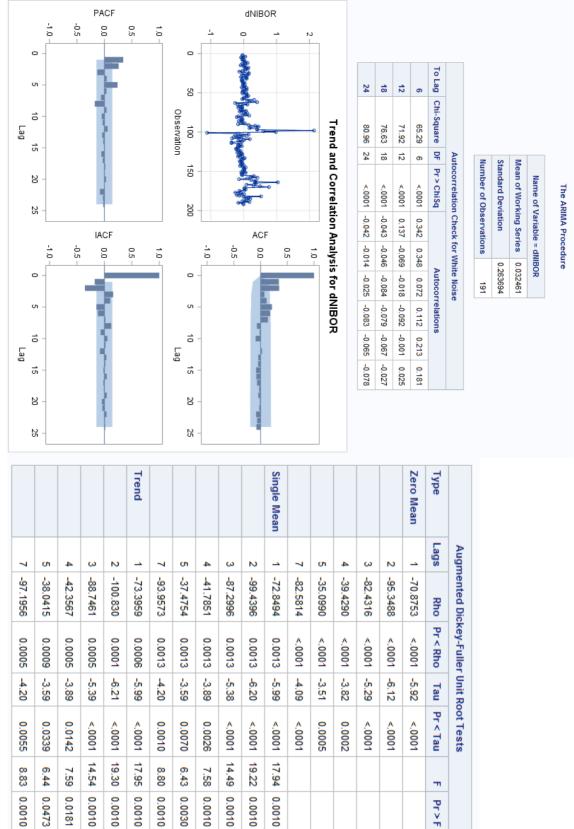


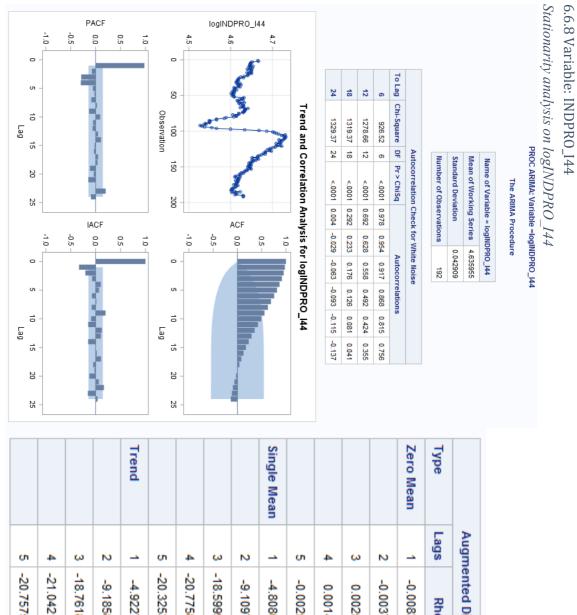
	Augn	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	key-Fuller	Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	F	Pr > F
Zero Mean	_	-108.212	0.0001	-7.24	<.0001		
	2	-89.4457	<.0001	-5.82	<.0001		
	ω	-67.0849	<.0001	-4.72	<.0001		
	4	-45.1972	<.0001	-3.80	0.0002		
	5	-47.0257	<.0001	-3.65	0.0003		
	9	-9.0449	0.0359	-1.45	0.1366		
Single Mean	_	-110.425	0.0001	-7.31	<.0001	26.71	0.0010
	2	-92.1285	0.0013	-5.89	<.0001	17.40	0.0010
	ω	-69.6469	0.0013	-4.80	0.0001	11.56	0.0010
	4	-47.2751	0.0013	-3.88	0.0027	7.60	0.0010
	5	-49.5867	0.0013	-3.74	0.0043	7.08	0.0010
	9	-9.9059	0.1329	-1.56	0.5026	1.44	0.7044
Trend	_	-112.959	0.0001	-7.38	<.0001	27.28	0.0010
	2	-95.0240	0.0006	-5.98	<.0001	17.89	0.0010
	ω	-72.2844	0.0005	-4.88	0.0005	11.98	0.0010
	4	-49.2033	0.0005	-3.96	0.0116	7.92	0.0114
	5	-51.6719	0.0005	-3.81	0.0179	7.34	0.0231
	9	-10.3656	0.4011	-1.63	0.7794	1.69	0.8402



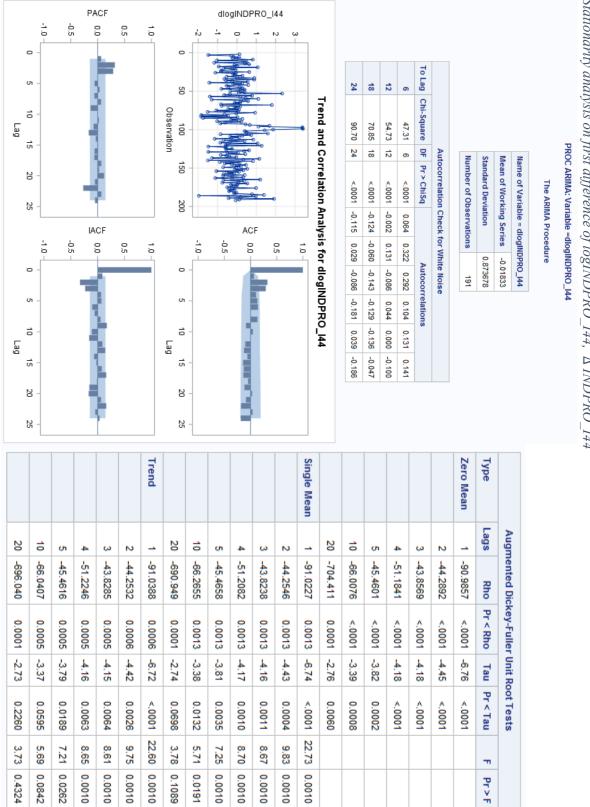
6.6.7 Variable: NIBOR

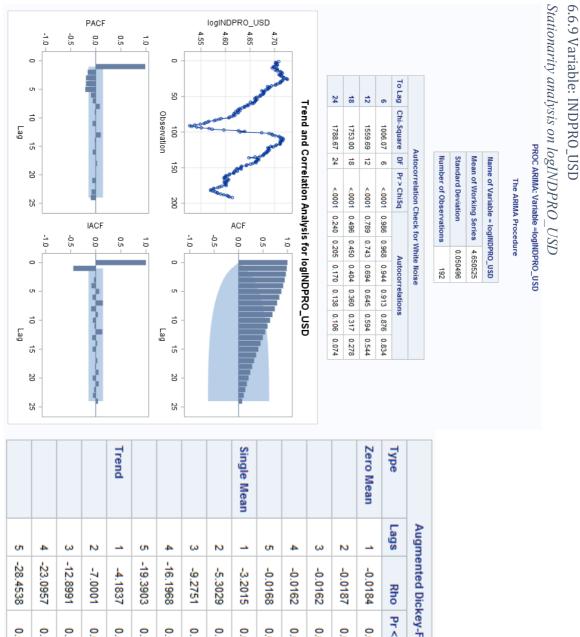
Augm	ented Dic	key-Fuller	Unit Ro	oot Tests				
Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F		
_	0.8697	0.8888	0.62	0.8496				
2	0.1600	0.7196	0.09	0.7091				
ω	0.5557	0.8196	0.33	0.7811				
4	0.4441	0.7914	0.25	0.7586				
5	-0.5596	0.5564	-0.24	0.6003				
-	-2.0193	0.7749	-0.75	0.8312	0.98	0.8215		
2	-4.9434	0.4367	-1.34	0.6115	1.31	0.7358		
ω	-3.4268	0.6025	-1.04	0.7397	1.05	0.8028		
4	-4.2042	0.5133	-1.17	0.6861	1.19	0.7687		
5	-9.2889	0.1549	-1.81	0.3756	1.95	0.5739		
_	-6.1127	0.7309	-1.63	0.7760	1.53	0.8714		
2	-11.7251	0.3189	-2.27	0.4463	2.68	0.6425		
ω	-9.1897	0.4845	-1.96	0.6175	2.08	0.7617		
4	-10.7184	0.3787	-2.08	0.5535	2.28	0.7226		
5	-22.1515	0.0391	-2.82	0.1919	4.03	0.3727		
	Augm	Augmented Dic Lags Rho 1 0.8697 2 0.1600 3 0.5557 4 0.4441 5 -0.5596 1 -2.0193 2 -4.9434 3 -3.4268 4 -4.2042 5 -9.2889 1 -6.1127 2 -11.7251 3 -9.1897 4 -10.7184 5 -22.1515	Hags Rho Pr < Rho	Augurented Dickey-Fuller Unit Rad Lags Rho $Pr < Rho$ Tau 1 0.8697 0.8888 0.62 2 0.1600 0.7196 0.09 3 0.5557 0.8196 0.33 4 0.4441 0.7914 0.25 5 -0.5596 0.5564 -0.24 1 -2.0193 0.7749 -0.25 2 -4.9434 0.4367 -1.34 3 -3.4268 0.6025 -1.04 4 -4.2042 0.5133 -1.17 5 -9.2889 0.1549 -1.81 1 -6.1127 0.3189 -2.27 2 -11.7251 0.3189 -2.27 3 -9.1897 0.4845 -1.96 2 -10.7184 0.3787 -2.08 5 -22.1515 0.0391 -2.82	nented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Rho Tau Pr <rho< th=""> Tau Pr<rho< th=""> Pr<rho< th=""> Tau Pr<rho< th=""> Tau Pr<rho< th=""> Pr</rho<> Pr</rho<> Pr</rho<> Pr</rho<> Pr</rho<> Pr</rho<> Pr</rho<> <th colspan="2" p<="" th=""><th>nented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root TauPr < Rho</th>TauRho$Pr < Rho$Tau$Pr < Tau$</th>0.86970.88880.620.84960.16000.71960.090.70910.55570.81960.330.78110.55570.81960.330.78110.44410.79140.250.70910.44410.79140.250.78110.44410.79140.250.78110.44410.77490.75860.8312-2.01930.7749-0.240.6003-2.01930.7749-1.340.6115-3.42680.6025-1.040.7397-4.20420.5133-1.170.6861-9.28890.1549-1.810.3756-6.11270.7309-1.630.7760-11.72510.3189-2.270.4463-9.18970.4845-1.960.6175-10.71840.3787-2.080.5535-22.15150.0391-2.820.1919</rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<></rho<>	<th>nented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root TauPr < Rho</th> TauRho $Pr < Rho$ Tau $Pr < Tau$		nented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root TauPr < Rho



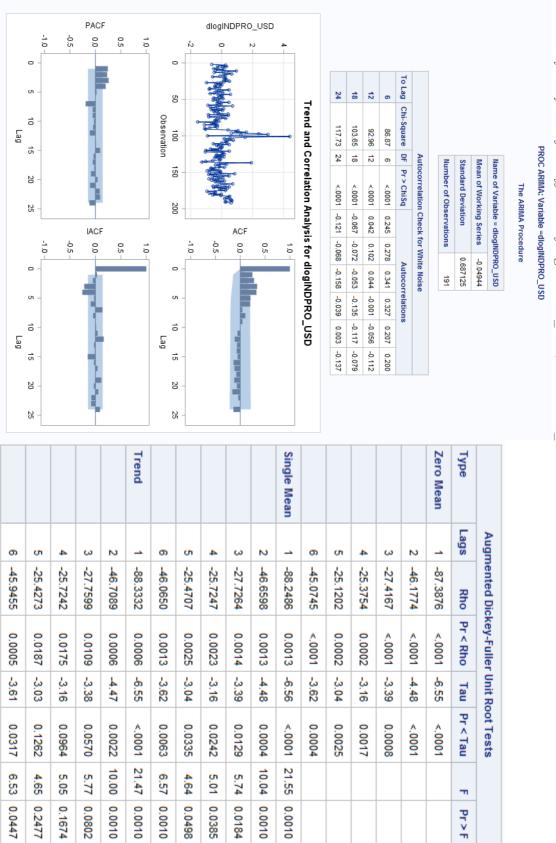


Type Zero Mean	Augm Lags	ented Dic Rho -0.0083	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root TestsLagsRhoPr < Rho	Unit Rc Tau -0.30	oot Tests Pr < Tau 0.5781	-	Pr > F
	2	-0.0037	0.6812	-0.09	0.6506		
	ω	0.0025	0.6826	0.05	0.6971		
	4	0.0014	0.6823	0.03	0.6905		
	5	-0.0025	0.6814	-0.05	0.6655		
Single Mean	_	-4.8080	0.4501	-1.58	0.4908	1.29	0.7422
	2	-9.1097	0.1620	-2.09	0.2485	2.19	0.5132
	ω	-18.5999	0.0144	-2.87	0.0507	4.14	0.0802
	4	-20.7758	0.0082	-2.94	0.0435	4.31	0.0693
	5	-20.3253	0.0092	-2.84	0.0555	4.03	0.0869
Trend	_	-4.9227	0.8234	-1.61	0.7856	1.35	0.9073
	2	-9.1858	0.4848	-2.10	0.5448	2.20	0.7387
	ω	-18.7618	0.0812	-2.88	0.1714	4.15	0.3485
	4	-21.0421	0.0499	-2.95	0.1501	4.35	0.3089
	5	-20.7575	0.0530	-2.86	0.1771	4.11	0.3563

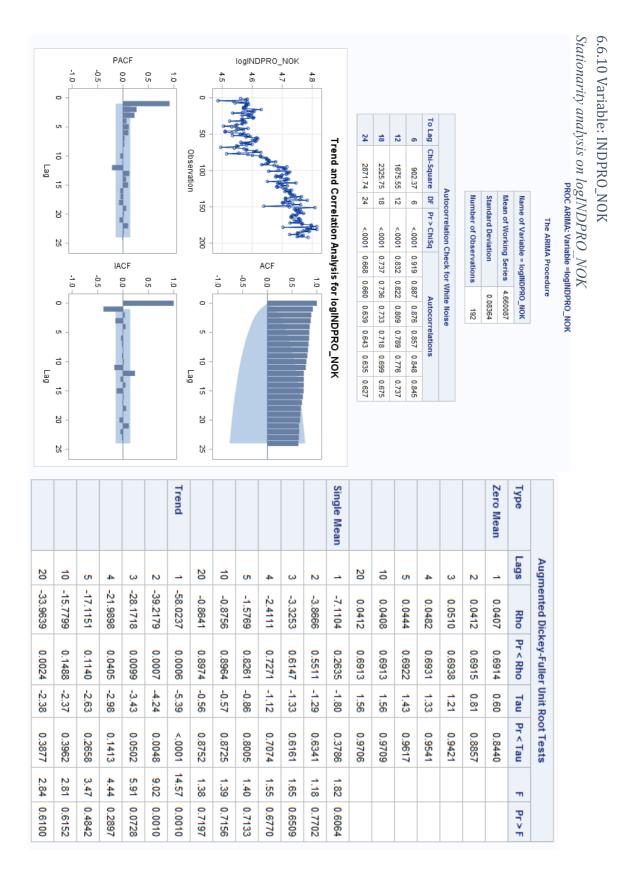


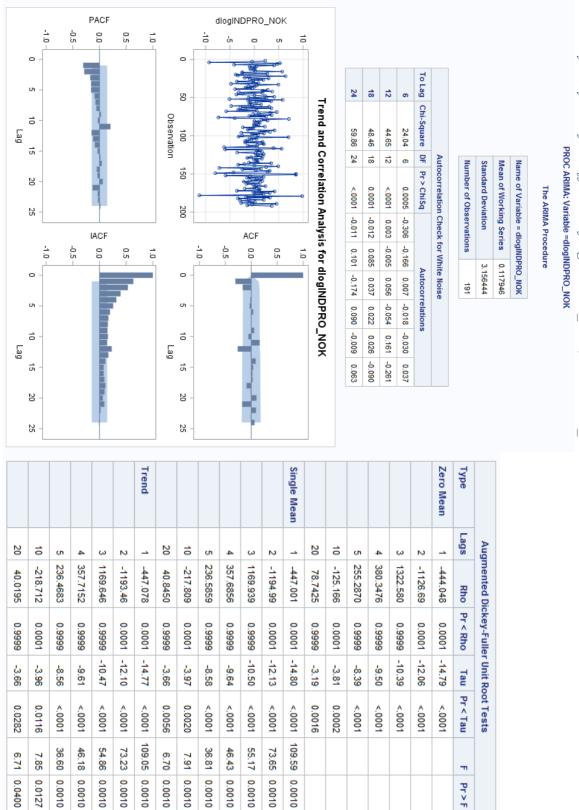


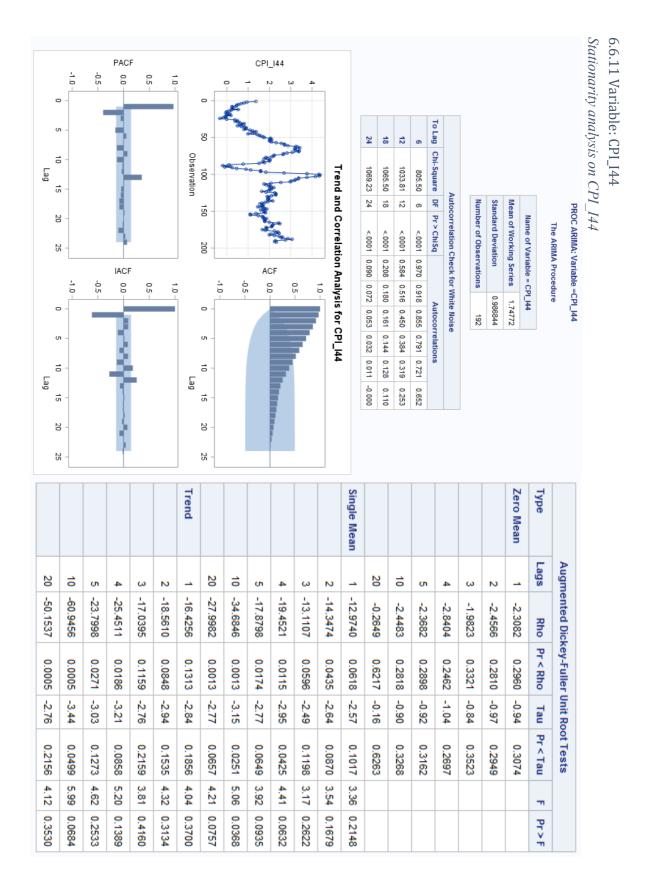
	Augm	ented Dicl	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit Ro	ot Tests		
pe	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	Ŧ	Pr > F
ro Mean	1	-0.0184	0.6778	-0.70	0.4142		
	2	-0.0187	0.6777	-0.55	0.4750		
	ω	-0.0162	0.6783	-0.36	0.5519		
	4	-0.0162	0.6783	-0.29	0.5800		
	5	-0.0168	0.6781	-0.29	0.5790		
ngle Mean	-	-3.2015	0.6297	-1.31	0.6247	1.09	0.7919
	2	-5.3029	0.4027	-1.67	0.4446	1.54	0.6781
	ω	-9.2751	0.1555	-2.13	0.2337	2.32	0.4786
	4	-16.1968	0.0269	-2.71	0.0738	3.72	0.1231
	5	-19.3903	0.0117	-2.87	0.0512	4.16	0.0789
end	_	-4.1837	0.8735	-1.42	0.8514	1.04	0.9624
	2	-7.0001	0.6579	-1.82	0.6924	1.69	0.8396
	ω	-12.8991	0.2584	-2.40	0.3789	2.90	0.5973
	4	-23.0957	0.0317	-3.03	0.1267	4.66	0.2470
	5	-28.4538	0.0093	3.19	0.0887	5.18	0.1414

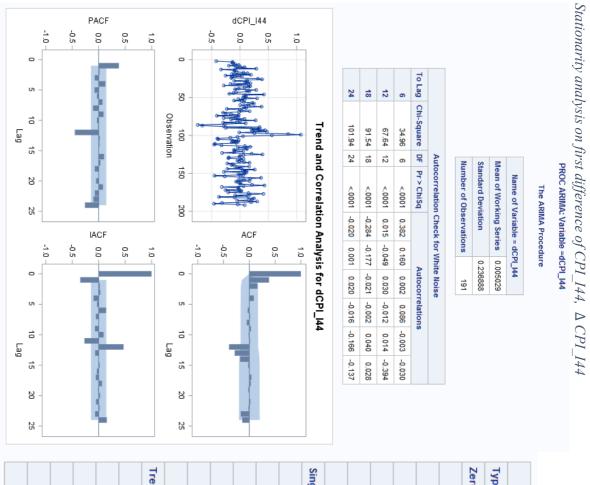


Stationarity analysis on first difference of logINDPRO_USD, Δ INDPRO_USD

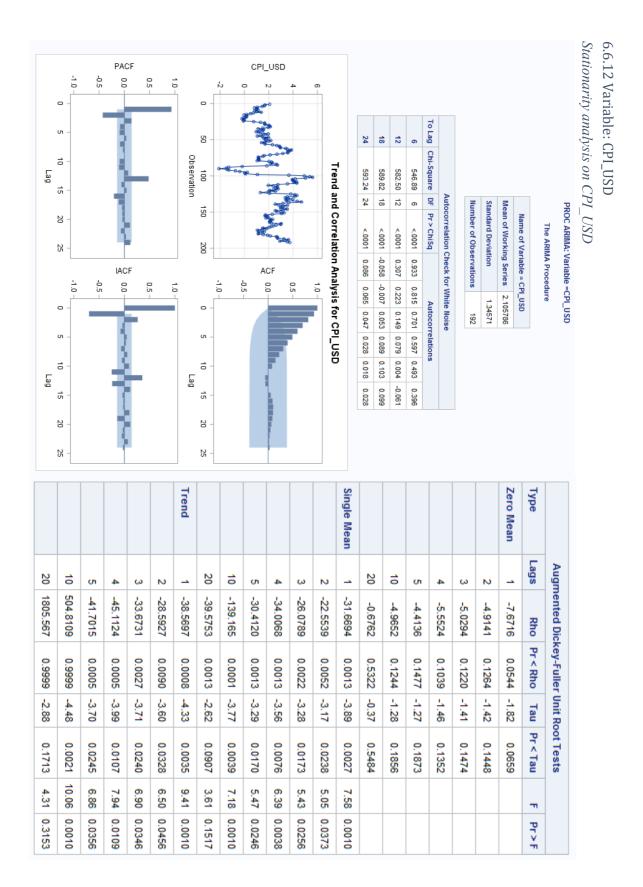


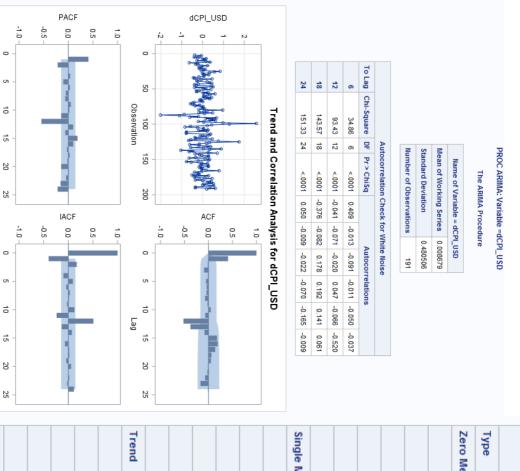






	Augn	nented Dic	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	Unit Ro	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F
Zero Mean	_	-112.813	0.0001	-7.51	<.0001		
	2	-138.513	0.0001	-7.08	<.0001		
	ω	-91.8377	<.0001	-5.51	<.0001		
	4	-121.060	0.0001	-5.47	<.0001		
	5	-142.088	0.0001	-5.21	<.0001		
	10	-114.298	0.0001	-3.73	0.0002		
	20	123.1745	0.9999	-3.04	0.0025		
Single Mean	_	-112.989	0.0001	-7.50	<.0001	28.14	0.0010
	2	-139.065	0.0001	-7.08	<.0001	25.05	0.0010
	ω	-92.4740	0.0013	-5.51	<.0001	15.19	0.0010
	4	-122.352	0.0001	-5.47	<.0001	14.96	0.0010
	5	-144.277	0.0001	-5.22	<.0001	13.60	0.0010
	10	-117.897	0.0001	-3.74	0.0044	6.98	0.0010
	20	99.3161	0.9999	-3.12	0.0270	4.89	0.0419
Trend	_	-112.982	0.0001	-7.48	<.0001	28.00	0.0010
	2	-138.974	0.0001	-7.06	<.0001	24.93	0.0010
	ω	-92.2775	0.0005	-5.50	<.0001	15.16	0.0010
	4	-122.013	0.0001	-5.46	<.0001	14.92	0.0010
	5	-143.898	0.0001	-5.20	0.0002	13.57	0.0010
	10	-118.686	0.0001	-3.73	0.0228	6.96	0.0330
	20	87.2077	0.9999	-3.19	0.0906	5.09	0.1592





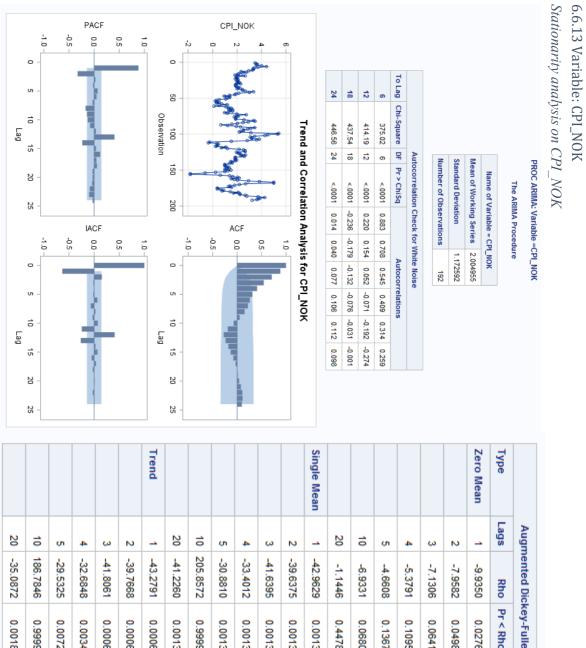
Stationarity analysis on first difference of CPI_USD, Δ CPI_USD

	Augn	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests	key-Fuller	Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	-	Pr > F
Zero Mean	_	-173.477	0.0001	-9.25	<.0001		
	2	-170.265	0.0001	-7.59	<.0001		
	ω	-147.556	0.0001	-6.38	<.0001		
	4	-248.751	0.0001	-6.36	<.0001		
	5	-197.504	0.0001	-5.52	<.0001		
	10	306.0560	0.9999	-4.62	<.0001		
	20	45.5465	0.9999	-3.58	0.0004		
Single Mean	-	-173.557	0.0001	-9.22	<.0001	42.55	0.0010
	2	-170.508	0.0001	-7.58	<.0001	28.72	0.0010
	ω	-148.012	0.0001	-6.37	<.0001	20.29	0.0010
	4	-250.177	0.0001	-6.36	<.0001	20.21	0.0010
	5	-198.778	0.0001	-5.51	<.0001	15.20	0.0010
	10	302.3851	0.9999	-4.61	0.0002	10.63	0.0010
	20	44.8317	0.9999	-3.61	0.0067	6.53	0.0010
Trend	_	-173.683	0.0001	-9.20	<.0001	42.36	0.0010
	2	-170.717	0.0001	-7.56	<.0001	28.57	0.0010
	ω	-148.118	0.0001	-6.35	<.0001	20.17	0.0010
	4	-250.470	0.0001	-6.34	<.0001	20.09	0.0010
	5	-199.116	0.0001	-5.50	<.0001	15.12	0.0010
	10	303.6655	0.9999	-4.60	0.0014	10.58	0.0010
	20	43.0756	0.9999	-3.65	0.0288	6.65	0.0413

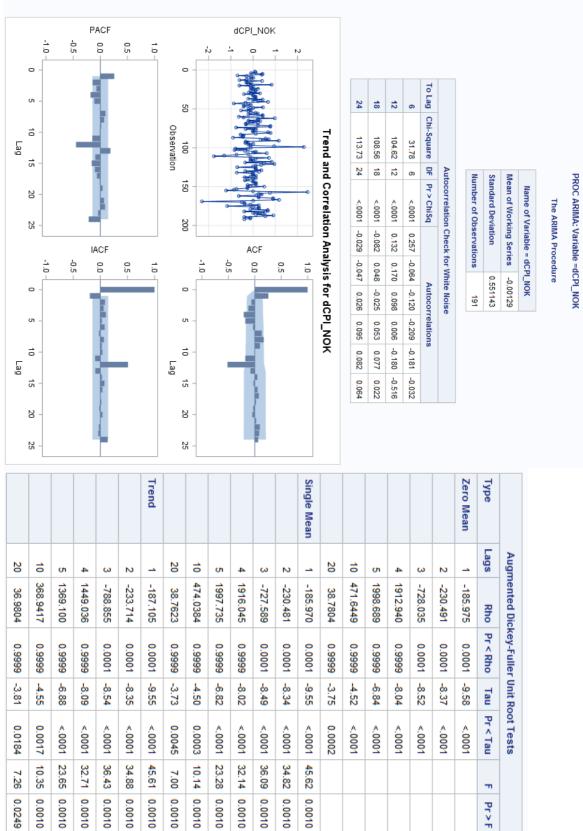
97

Lag

Lag



						Trend							Single Mean							Zero Mean	Туре	
20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	20	10	5	4	ω	2	_	Lags	Augn
-35.0872	186.7846	-29.5325	-32.6848	-41.8061	-39.7668	-43.2791	-41.2260	205.8572	-30.8810	-33.4012	-41.6395	-39.6375	-42.9629	-1.1446	-6.9331	-4.6608	-5.3791	-7.1306	-7.9582	-9.9350	Rho	nented Dic
0.0018	0.9999	0.0072	0.0034	0.0006	0.0006	0.0006	0.0013	0.9999	0.0013	0.0013	0.0013	0.0013	0.0013	0.4478	0.0680	0.1367	0.1095	0.0641	0.0498	0.0276	Pr < Rho	Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests
-2.29	-4.83	-3.32	3.53	-4.04	-4.18	-4.60	-2.43	-4.89	-3.47	-3.65	-4.10	-4.23	-4.63	-0.73	-1.66	-1.58	-1.66	-1.86	-2.00	-2.25	Tau	Unit Ro
0.4391	0.0006	0.0662	0.0390	0.0090	0.0058	0.0014	0.1362	0.0001	0.0099	0.0058	0.0013	0.0008	0.0002	0.4000	0.0921	0.1070	0.0919	0.0596	0.0436	0.0237	Pr < Tau	oot Tests
3.00	11.94	6.11	6.65	8.36	8.91	10.68	2.94	11.97	6.05	6.66	8.41	8.95	10.72								-	
0.5776	0.0010	0.0623	0.0415	0.0024	0.0010	0.0010	0.3206	0.0010	0.0116	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010	0.0010								Pr>F	



7. Summary of line and ACF plots

7.1 Sample 2.1

	Overview of line and AC Sample 2.1	F plots
Variable	Undifferenced variable	First difference of variable
logBrent	s d d d d d d d d d d d d d d d d d d d	20 10 -0 -0 -0 -0 -0 -0 -0 -0 -0 -
log 144	485 485 485 485 485 485 485 485	Provide the second seco
log USD	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	Grifee 4 4 4 5 100 100 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 200 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2
144_INTRATE		01 10 01 01 01 01 01 01 01 01
LIBORUSD	000000 000000 000000 0000000 0000000 0000	02 00 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02
NIBOR	9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	0.50 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25

7.2 Sample 2.2

	Overview of line and AC Sample 2.2	F plots
Variable	Undifferenced variable	First difference of variable
logBrent	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	
log 144	4 20 4 40 4 40 4 0 5 0 5 0 5 0 5 0 5 0 5 0 5 0 5	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
log USD	22 21 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	
I44_INTRATE	a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a	0.04 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02 0.02
LIBORUSD	2 december 2 2	
NIBOR	Poly Poly Poly Poly Poly Poly Poly Poly	

7.3 Sample 3.1

	Overview of line and AC Sample 3.1	F plots
Variable	Undifferenced variable	First difference of variable
logBrent	50 45 40 35 30 0 0 50 0 50 0 0 50 0 150 15	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 0 10 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
log 144	4.65 - 4.50 - 4.65 - 4.50 - 4.65 - 4.50 - 4.65 - 4.50 - 4.65 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 - 4.50 -	Hop 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 10
log USD	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	
144_INTRATE	5 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45	
LIBORUSD	00000 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100 - 100	000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 00
NIBOR		02 00 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 0

7.4 Sample 3.2

	Overview of line and AC Sample 3.2	F plots
Variable	Undifferenced variable	First difference of variable
logBrent	500 415 415 415 415 415 415 415 415	
log 144	4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.65 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4.55 4	2 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
log USD	2 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
144_INTRATE	10 05 00 05 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	
LIBORUSD	onvoid	
NIBOR	egg egg egg egg egg egg egg egg	0.50 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5

8. Cointegration models

8.1 Sample 2.2 Model 1

8.1.1 Model 1: Cointegration model

Ordir	nary Least So	quares Estimates	3
SSE	0.12849893	DFE	443
MSE	0.0002901	Root MSE	0.01703
SBC	-2351.658	AIC	-2359.8542
MAE	0.01438041	AICC	-2359.827
MAPE	0.30957566	HQC	-2356.6223
Durbin-Watson	0.1081	Total R-Square	0.6451

The AUTOREG Procedure

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test							
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM					
AR(1)	397.3735	<.0001					
AR(2)	398.1114	<.0001					
AR(3)	398.1199	<.0001					
AR(4)	398.2167	<.0001					
AR(5)	398.4103	<.0001					

Shin Cointegration Test								
Туре	Lags	Eta	Pr > Eta					
Single Mean	17	0.2913	0.0604					
Trend	17	0.2992	0.0005					

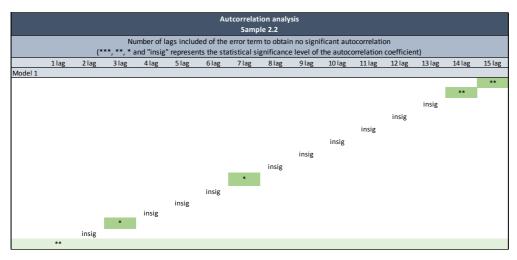
KERNEL=NW, SCHW=12

Parameter Estimates									
Variable	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > t				
Intercept	1	5.1247	0.0168	304.85	<.0001				
logBrent	1	-0.1237	0.004360	-28.38	<.0001				

8.1.2 Model 1: Autocorrelation analysis to determine the number of lags in the ADF test

Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-15 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied.

Rows market with green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.



The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

Conclusion: 1 lag

8.1.3 Model 1: ADF test on regression residuals

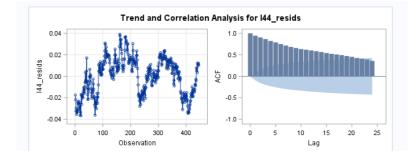
24

4408.95 24

ADF-test on I44 residuals									
The ARIMA Procedure									
Name of Variable = 144_resids									
		Mea	an of Workin	g Serie	s 2.3	86E-15			
		Star	Standard Deviation 0.016993						
		Nun	nber of Obse	ervatio	ıs	445			
	A	uto	correlation C	heck fo	or Whit	e Noise	•		
To Lag	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq		A	utocor	relation	IS	
6	1945.31	6	<.0001	0.944	0.904	0.865	0.822	0.789	0.751
12	3112.71	12	<.0001	0.716	0.683	0.659	0.633	0.618	0.601
18	3912.71	18	<.0001	0.584	0.565	0.542	0.523	0.508	0.493

<.0001 0.472 0.453 0.426 0.408 0.390 0.358

Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	F	Pr>
Zero Mean	1	-19.1561	0.0020	-3.14	0.0018		
	2	-18.9288	0.0022	-3.17	0.0016		
	3	-20.9058	0.0012	-3.28	0.0011		
	4	-18.6030	0.0024	-3.13	0.0018		
	5	-20.3428	0.0014	-3.21	0.0014		
Single Mean	1	-19.1512	0.0137	-3.14	0.0252	4.97	0.03
	2	-18.9185	0.0145	-3.17	0.0232	5.10	0.03
	3	-20.8895	0.0089	-3.27	0.0171	5.44	0.02
	4	-18.5834	0.0157	-3.13	0.0258	5.01	0.03
	5	-20.3174	0.0103	-3.21	0.0206	5.26	0.02
Trend	1	-19.1346	0.0801	-3.13	0.1012	4.91	0.19
	2	-18.8627	0.0847	-3.15	0.0959	5.03	0.16
	3	-20.8327	0.0563	-3.26	0.0743	5.38	0.09
	4	-18.5126	0.0909	-3.12	0.1041	4.95	0.18
	5	-20.2443	0.0637	-3.20	0.0863	5.20	0.13



106

8.2 Sample 2.2 - Model 2

8.2.1 Model 2: Cointegration model

Ordinary Least Squares Estimates							
SSE	0.09038279	DFE	441				
MSE	0.0002049	Root MSE	0.01432				
SBC	-2496.0426	AIC	-2512.4349				
MAE	0.01150908	AICC	-2512.344				
MAPE	0.24775141	HQC	-2505.9711				
Durbin-Watson	0.1120	Total R-Square	0.7504				

The AUTOREG Procedure

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test								
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM						
AR(1)	395.0540	<.0001						
AR(2)	395.4775	<.0001						
AR(3)	395.5997	<.0001						
AR(4)	395.9847	<.0001						
AR(5)	396.1015	<.0001						

Shin Cointegration Test									
Туре	Lags	Eta	Pr > Eta						
Single Mean	17	0.2317	0.0175						
Trend	17	0.0724	0.0859						

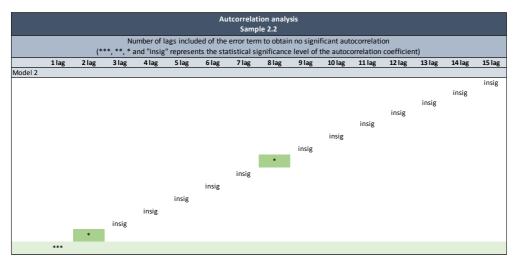
KERNEL=NW, SCHW=12

Parameter Estimates										
Variable	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > t	Variable Label				
Intercept	1	5.1189	0.0161	317.51	<.0001					
logBrent	1	-0.0885	0.005020	-17.64	<.0001					
INTDIFF_144	1	-0.1083	0.008246	-13.13	<.0001	INTDIFF 144				
LIBORUSD	1	-0.0142	0.003061	-4.63	<.0001	LIBORUSD				

8.2.2 Model 2: Autocorrelation analysis to determine the number of lags in the ADF test

Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-15 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied.

Rows market with green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.



The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.

8.2.3 Model 2: ADF test on regression residuals

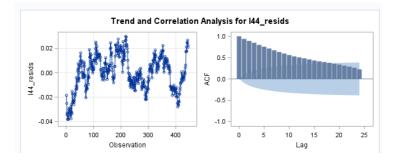
ADF-test on logI44 residuals:

The ARIMA Procedure

Name of Variable = I44_resids					
Mean of Working Series	1.5E-15				
Standard Deviation	0.014252				
Number of Observations	445				

Autocorrelation Check for White Noise										
To Lag	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq	Autocorrelations						
6	1853.74	6	<.0001	0.940	0.892	0.849	0.798	0.755	0.714	
12	2791.08	12	<.0001	0.672	0.631	0.596	0.560	0.529	0.505	
18	3300.96	18	<.0001	0.483	0.457	0.433	0.414	0.396	0.378	
24	3554.46	24	<.0001	0.356	0.337	0.312	0.288	0.263	0.226	

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests										
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	F	Pr > I			
Zero Mean	1	-20.6599	0.0013	-3.24	0.0013					
	2	-18.9044	0.0022	-3.16	0.0016					
	3	-22.9780	0.0006	-3.44	0.0006					
	4	-21.0859	0.0011	-3.34	0.0009					
	5	-21.8821	0.0009	-3.33	0.0009					
Single Mean	1	-20.6388	0.0095	-3.23	0.0193	5.36	0.026			
	2	-18.8629	0.0147	-3.16	0.0237	5.22	0.031			
	3	-22.9046	0.0055	-3.44	0.0106	6.12	0.009			
	4	-20.9916	0.0087	-3.34	0.0141	5.86	0.014			
	5	-21.7673	0.0072	-3.33	0.0146	5.81	0.016			
Trend	1	-20.8744	0.0558	-3.24	0.0777	5.26	0.1202			
	2	-18.9445	0.0833	-3.15	0.0966	4.98	0.175			
	3	-22.9835	0.0356	-3.42	0.0496	5.90	0.071			
	4	-20.9794	0.0546	-3.32	0.0649	5.56	0.089			
	5	-21.7646	0.0462	-3.31	0.0659	5.53	0.091			



8.3 Sample 2.2 - Model 3

8.3.1 Model 3: Cointegration model

Ordinary Least Squares Estimates					
SSE	0.3329937	DFE	443		
MSE	0.0007517	Root MSE	0.02742		
SBC	-1927.9277	AIC	-1936.1239		
MAE	0.02091997	AICC	-1936.0967		
MAPE	0.99489043	HQC	-1932.892		
Durbin-Watson	0.0976	Total R-Square	0.5621		

The AUTOREG Procedure

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test					
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM			
AR(1)	395.5415	<.0001			
AR(2)	395.6140	<.0001			
AR(3)	395.7044	<.0001			
AR(4)	395.7971	<.0001			
AR(5)	395.9423	<.0001			

Shin Cointegration Test					
Туре	Lags	Eta	Pr > Eta		
Single Mean	17	0.6805	0.0036		
Trend	17	0.2052	0.0053		

KERNEL=NW, SCHW=12

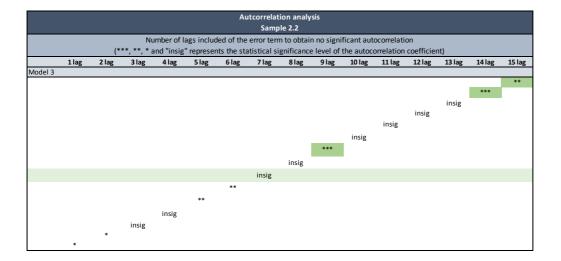
Parameter Estimates							
Variable	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > t		
Intercept	1	2.7542	0.0271	101.77	<.0001		
logBrent	1	-0.1674	0.007018	-23.85	<.0001		

8.3.2 Model 3: Autocorrelation analysis to determine the number of lags in the ADF test

Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-15 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied.

Rows market with green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.



8.3.3 Model 3: ADF test on regression residuals

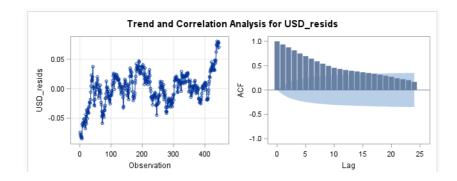
ADF-test on logUSD residuals:

The ARIMA Procedure

Name of Variable = 144_	resids
Mean of Working Series	5.59E-17
Standard Deviation	0.027355
Number of Observations	445

	A	uto	correlation C	heck fo	or White	e Noise			
To Lag	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq		A	utocor	relation	IS	
6	1697.69	6	<.0001	0.936	0.877	0.814	0.751	0.697	0.645
12	2359.03	12	<.0001	0.589	0.540	0.496	0.456	0.433	0.412
18	2714.46	18	<.0001	0.395	0.382	0.365	0.349	0.335	0.314
24	2871.47	24	<.0001	0.292	0.272	0.241	0.222	0.201	0.166

Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	F	Pr > F
Zero Mean	1	-20.6527	0.0013	-3.26	0.0012		
	2	-23.1254	0.0006	-3.44	0.0006		
	3	-25.9874	0.0002	-3.56	0.0004		
	4	-23.0835	0.0006	-3.37	0.0008		
	5	-23.8456	0.0004	-3.37	0.0008		
	7	-25.7979	0.0002	-3.21	0.0014		
Single Mean	1	-20.5849	0.0096	-3.25	0.0181	5.70	0.0184
	2	-22.9995	0.0054	-3.43	0.0108	6.30	0.0049
	3	-25.7948	0.0028	-3.56	0.0073	6.71	0.0010
	4	-22.8512	0.0055	-3.36	0.0133	6.14	0.0085
	5	-23.5485	0.0047	-3.36	0.0132	6.16	0.0080
	7	-25.3775	0.0031	-3.20	0.0211	5.50	0.0230
Trend	1	-25.5633	0.0203	-3.60	0.0306	6.50	0.0444
	2	-28.5732	0.0103	-3.78	0.0186	7.15	0.0265
	3	-32.3834	0.0043	-3.93	0.0118	7.72	0.0141
	4	-28.6040	0.0103	-3.69	0.0244	6.80	0.0360
	5	-29.6666	0.0081	-3.69	0.0241	6.82	0.0356
	7	-33.5228	0.0033	-3.61	0.0304	6.51	0.0442



8.4 Sample 2.2 - Model 4

8.4.1 Model 4: Cointegration model

Ordinary Least Squares Estimates					
SSE	0.26837189	DFE	441		
MSE	0.0006086	Root MSE	0.02467		
SBC	-2011.7403	AIC	-2028.1326		
MAE	0.01981508	AICC	-2028.0417		
МАРЕ	0.94120465	HQC	-2021.6688		
Durbin-Watson	0.1034	Total R-Square	0.6471		

The AUTOREG Procedure

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test				
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM		
AR(1)	396.5596	<.0001		
AR(2)	396.6038	<.0001		
AR(3)	396.6095	<.0001		
AR(4)	396.7218	<.0001		
AR(5)	396.9588	<.0001		

Shin Cointegration Test						
Туре	Lags	Eta	Pr > Eta			
Single Mean	17	0.1761	0.0386			
Trend	17	0.0943	0.0342			

KERNEL=NW, SCHW=12

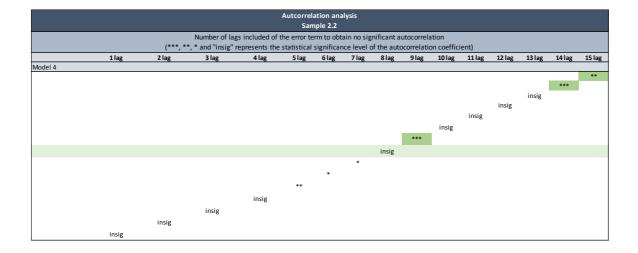
Parameter Estimates							
Variable	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > t	Variable Label	
Intercept	1	2.6489	0.0275	96.43	<.0001		
logBrent	1	-0.1240	0.007846	-15.80	<.0001		
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD	1	-0.0645	0.0120	-5.37	<.0001	INTDIFF LIBORUSD	
LIBORUSD	1	-0.0386	0.0167	-2.32	0.0209	LIBORUSD	

8.4.2 Model 4: Autocorrelation analysis to determine the number of lags in the ADF test

Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-15 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied.

Rows market with green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.



8.4.3 Model 4: ADF test on regression residuals

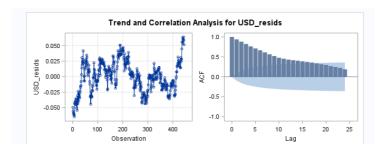
ADF-test on logUSD residuals:

The ARIMA Procedure

Name of Variable = I44_resids				
Mean of Working Series	-62E-17			
Standard Deviation	0.024558			
Number of Observations	445			

Autocorrelation Check for White Noise												
To Lag	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq	Autocorrelations								
6	1742.57	6	<.0001	0.939	0.882	0.824	0.763	0.713	0.666			
12	2468.83	12	<.0001	0.614	0.565	0.522	0.479	0.454	0.432			
18	2872.11	18	<.0001	0.417	0.405	0.389	0.374	0.358	0.337			
24	3063.53	24	<.0001	0.317	0.298	0.268	0.247	0.224	0.188			

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Tests											
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	F	Pr > F				
Zero Mean	1	-22.0061	0.0008	-3.33	0.0009						
	2	-23.1348	0.0006	-3.40	0.0007						
	3	-26.4765	0.0002	-3.56	0.0004						
	4	-23.0291	0.0006	-3.32	0.0010						
	5	-23.2493	0.0005	-3.29	0.0011						
	8	-25.5305	0.0002	-3.16	0.0017						
Single Mean	1	-21.9605	0.0069	-3.33	0.0147	5.77	0.0168				
	2	-23.0510	0.0053	-3.39	0.0122	6.01	0.0114				
	3	-26.3443	0.0024	-3.56	0.0072	6.57	0.0010				
	4	-22.8699	0.0055	-3.31	0.0152	5.82	0.0158				
	5	-23.0498	0.0053	-3.28	0.0167	5.72	0.018				
	8	-25.1963	0.0032	-3.15	0.0242	5.22	0.0308				
Trend	1	-22.0371	0.0437	-3.33	0.0633	5.54	0.0906				
	2	-23.0942	0.0348	-3.39	0.0546	5.74	0.0799				
	3	-26.3771	0.0169	-3.55	0.0352	6.32	0.049				
	4	-22.8738	0.0365	-3.31	0.0663	5.48	0.093				
	5	-23.0470	0.0351	-3.28	0.0717	5.37	0.0992				
	8	-25.1941	0.0220	-3.15	0.0968	4.96	0.1812				



8.5 Robustness sample – Model 6

8.5.1 Model 6: Cointegration model

Regression logI44 on logBrent: Saving resids

Ordir	nary Least So	quares Estimates	;
SSE	0.61171015	DFE	185
MSE	0.00331	Root MSE	0.05750
SBC	-522.13162	AIC	-544.93409
MAE	0.04533458	AICC	-544.32539
MAPE	2.37382655	HQC	-535.69892
Durbin-Watson	0.4180	Total R-Square	0.8684

Godfrey's	Serial Corr Test	relation
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM
AR(1)	119.5488	<.0001
AR(2)	119.6266	<.0001
AR(3)	120.2188	<.0001
AR(4)	122.8886	<.0001
AR(5)	122.9532	<.0001

Shin Co	ointegr	ation Te	st
Туре	Lags	Eta	Pr > Eta
Single Mean	14	0.1379	0.0064
Trend	14	0.1285	0.0008

KERNEL=NW, SCHW=12

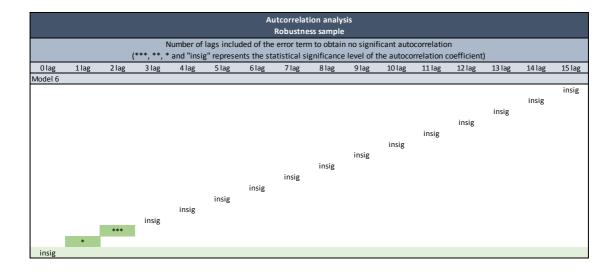
		Para	meter Esti	mates		
Variable	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > t	Variable Label
Intercept	1	4.4161	0.9328	4.73	<.0001	
logBrent	1	-0.3309	0.0125	-26.44	<.0001	
INTDIFF_LIBORUSD	1	0.003819	0.002874	1.33	0.1856	INTDIFF LIBORUSD
LIBORUSD	1	0.0103	0.004135	2.50	0.0134	LIBORUSD
logINDPRO_USD	1	0.5357	0.1165	4.60	<.0001	
logINDPRO_NOK	1	-0.7913	0.1144	-6.92	<.0001	
CPIDIFF_USD	1	0.0145	0.003035	4.79	<.0001	CPIDIFF USD

8.5.2 Model 6: Autocorrelation analysis to determine the number of lags in the ADF test

Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-15 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied.

Rows market with green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

The BG-test indicates the number of lags included in the ADF-test.



8.5.3 Model 6: ADF test on regression residuals

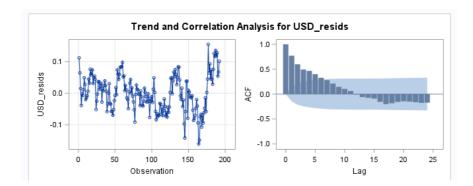
ADF-test on USD residuals:

The ARIMA Procedure

Name of Variable = 144_	resids
Mean of Working Series	-156E-17
Standard Deviation	0.056445
Number of Observations	192

		Aut	ocorrelation	Check	for Whit	te Noise			
To Lag	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq		1	Autocor	relation	s	
6	331.08	6	<.0001	0.772	0.599	0.493	0.467	0.400	0.327
12	363.31	12	<.0001	0.281	0.212	0.145	0.104	0.063	-0.010
18	387.98	18	<.0001	-0.060	-0.075	-0.091	-0.155	-0.201	-0.184
24	422.22	24	<.0001	-0.157	-0.145	-0.151	-0.163	-0.178	-0.172

	Augn	nented Did	key-Fuller	Unit R	oot Tests		
Туре	Lags	Rho	Pr < Rho	Tau	Pr < Tau	F	Pr > F
Zero Mean	0	<mark>-40.9</mark> 846	<.0001	-4.80	<.0001		
	1	-40.3473	<.0001	-4.42	<.0001		
	2	-33.6320	<.0001	-3.80	0.0002		
	3	-20.0108	0.0014	-2.80	0.0052		
	4	-23.6375	0.0004	-2.93	0.0036		
	5	-23.4097	0.0004	-2.79	0.0054		
Single Mean	0	-40.9901	0.0013	-4.79	0.0001	11.48	0.0010
	1	-40.3503	0.0013	-4.40	0.0005	9.70	0.0010
	2	-33.6162	0.0013	-3.78	0.0037	7.17	0.0010
	3	-19.9422	0.0102	-2.79	0.0624	3.94	0.0923
	4	-23.5469	0.0041	-2.91	0.0469	4.27	0.0719
	5	-23.2569	0.0044	-2.77	0.0650	3.90	0.0945
Trend	0	-40.7480	0.0006	-4.72	0.0009	11.46	0.0010
	1	-40.1245	0.0006	-4.35	0.0033	9.67	0.0010
	2	-33.4235	0.0028	-3.73	0.0226	7.13	0.0283
	3	-19.6584	0.0672	-2.73	0.2277	3.89	0.4001
	4	-23.2174	0.0309	-2.84	0.1855	4.22	0.3345
	5	-22.9662	0.0326	-2.70	0.2383	3.82	0.4135



9. Error correction models 9.1 Sample 2.2 - Model 1.1

The AUTOREG Procedure

Ordir	nary Least Sc	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates	
SSE	0.01186029 DFE	DFE	430
MSE	0.0000276 Root MSE	Root MSE	0.00525
SBC	-3319.8535 AIC	AIC	-3360.7212
MAE	0.00381704 AICC	AICC	-3360.2084
MAPE	136.026684	HQC	-3344.5989
Durbin-Watson	1.9809	1.9809 Total R-Square	0.0818

Alternative AR(1) AR(2) AR(3) AR(3) AR(4) AR(6) AR(7) AR(7) AR(8) AR(8) AR(9) AR(10)	
6	Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test
LM 2.1025 2.2728 2.4676 4.7087 4.9078 4.9078 7.3443 8.0439 8.1209 8.1209 8.2302	ierial Co Test
Pr>LM 0.1471 0.3210 0.4812 0.4812 0.4812 0.4272 0.2902 0.2902 0.3287 0.3287 0.3287 0.3211 0.4217	rrelation

Denominator 430 0.000027582

Source Numerator

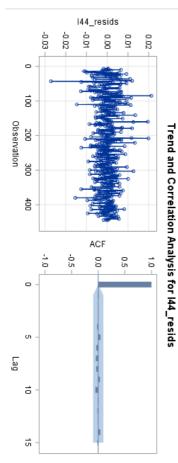
5 0.000137

4.97 0.0002

P

Mean Square F Value Pr > F

	144_resids_1	dlogBrent_4	dlogBrent_3	dlogBrent_2	dlogBrent_1	dlogl44_4	dlogl44_3	dlogl44_2	dlogl44_1	Intercept	Variable	
	-	-	<u> </u>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	PF	
Test 1	-0.0189	0.008446	0.008977	0.001113	-0.0411	-0.1103	0.0863	-0.0375	-0.1103	0.0000757	Estimate	Parameter Estimates
11	0.0158	0.009263	0.009241	0.009246	0.009053	0.0492	0.0504	0.0507	0.0505	0.000251	Standard Error	Estimates
	-1.20	0.91	0.97	0.12	-4.54	-2.24	1.71	-0.74	-2.19	0.30	t Value	
	0.2298	0.3624	0.3319	0.9042	<.0001	0.0255	0.0877	0.4604	0.0294	0.7625	Approx Pr > t	



9.2 Sample 2.2 - Model 1.1R

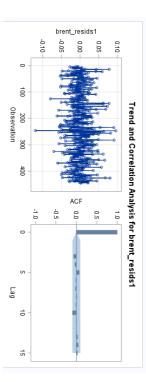
The AUTOREG Procedure

SSE Ordi	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates 0.36000776 DFE 0.0008201 Root MSE 4576 4576	quares Es DFE Root Ms	itimates
	-1870.4795 AIC	AIC	
MAE	0.02137731	A100	
MAPE	153.687024 HQC	AICC	
Durbin-Watson		HQC	

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test	Serial Cor Test	relation
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM
AR(1)	0.0374	0.8466
AR(2)	0.0374	0.9815
AR(3)	2.0455	0.5630
AR(4)	2.6462	0.6187
AR(5)	5.0229	0.4131
AR(6)	5.2089	0.5173
AR(7)	5.6283	0.5838
AR(8)	5.9237	0.6558
AR(9)	5.9753	0.7424
AR(10)	11.5800	0.3141

		Parameter Estimates	Estimates		
Variable	PF	DF Estimate	Standard Error	ndard Error t Value Pr > t	Approx Pr > t
Intercept	-	0.000302	0.000302 0.001361	0.22	0.8246
dlogBrent_1	<u> </u>	0.0469	0.0491	0.95	0.3404
dlogl44_1	<u> </u>	0.2941	0.2651	1.11	0.2680
144_resids_1	4	-0.2451	0.0814	-3.01	0.0028

		Test 1		
Source	PF	Mean Square	Mean Square F Value Pr > F	Pr > F
Numerator	Ν	2 0.003851	4.70	4.70 0.0096
Denominator 439 0.000820	439	0.000820		



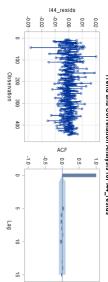
9.3 Sample 2.2 - Model 2.1

	MAPE	MAE	SBC	MSE	SSE	Ordi
1.9778	145.80333 HQC	0.00373744 AICC	-3290.2297 AIC	0.0000269	0.01135722 DFE	nary Least Sc
1.9778 Total R-Square	HQC	AICC	AIC	0.0000269 Root MSE	DFE	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates
0.1207	-3334.7714	-3362.167	-3363.7917	0.00519	422	

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test Alternative LM Pr > LM	erial Co Test LM	rrelation Pr > LM
Alternative AR(1)	3.1058	0.0780
AR(2)	3.4053	0.1822
AR(3)	3.4063	0.3331
AR(4)	3.4077	0.4920
AR(5)	3.4129	0.6366
AR(6)	6.5898	0.3605
AR(7)	7.6742	0.3622
AR(8)	7.8664	0.4466
AR(9)	7.9415	0.5401
AR(10)	9.5717	0.4788

		Test 1		
Source	DF	Mean Square	Mean Square F Value Pr > F	Pr > F
Numerator	5	0.000144	5.37	5.37 <.0001
Denominator 422 0.000026913	422	0.000026913		

-1.88	0.0198	-0.0372	-	144_resids_1
	0.0509	-0.006287	. 🖃	dLIBORUSD_4
	0.0516	-0.0264	_	dLIBORUSD_3
	0.0518	0.0412	-	dLIBORUSD_2
	0.0505	0.1125		dLIBORUSD_1
-0.34	0.0118	-0.004049	-	dintdiff_144_4
	0.0118	0.002267	-	dintdiff_I44_3
	0.0117	-0.0360	-	dintdiff_144_2
	0.0117	-0.0135	-	dintdiff_144_1
	0.009353	0.0105	-	dlogBrent_4
	0.009399	0.007561	-	dlogBrent_3
	0.009411	-0.007484		dlogBrent_2
	0.009172	-0.0406		dlogBrent_1
	0.0553	-0.0959		dlogl44_4
	0.0567	0.1076		dlogl44_3
	0.0577	-0.1198		dlogl44_2
	0.0572	-0.1549		dlogl44_1
	0.000281	-0.000104	<u> </u>	Intercept
t Value	Standard Error	Estimate	PF	Variable
	Estimates	Parameter Estimates		



9.4 Sample 2.2 - Model 2.1R

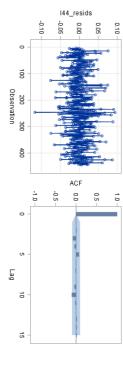
The AUTOREG Procedure

Durbin-Watson 2.0129 Total R-Square	MAPE 150.04858 HQC	MAE 0.02108754 AICC	SBC -1862.9057 AIC	MSE 0.0008153 Root MSE	SSE 0.35627819 DFE	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates
Juare 0.0322	-1877.7803	-1887.2744	-1887.4671	0.02855	437	imates

	Test	
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM
AR(1)	0.7844	0.3758
AR(2)	0.8158	0.6651
AR(3)	3.1924	0.3629
AR(4)	3.9464	0.4133
AR(5)	6.4182	0.2676
AR(6)	6.4760	0.3720
AR(7)	6.7143	0.4592
AR(8)	6.8514	0.5527
AR(9)	7.3949	0.5961
AR(10)	13.8202	0.1814

144_resids_1	dLIBORUSD_1	dintdiff_144_1	dlogl44_1	dlogBrent_1	Intercept	Variable D		
-	<u> </u>	-	-	-	-	٩F	-	
-0.1687	-0.7183	0.0893	0.4656	0.0530	0.001484	Estimate	Parameter Estimates	
0.0988	0.2665	0.0630	0.2964	0.0495	0.001429	Standard Error	Estimates	
-1.71	-2.70	1.42	1.57	1.07	1.04	ndard Error tValue		
0.0886	0.0073	0.1569	0.1170	0.2850	0.2994	Approx Pr > t		

Denominator 437 0.000815	Numerator	Source	
437	2	DF	
0.000815	2 0.001888	Mean Square	Test 1
	2.32	Mean Square F Value Pr > F	
	2.32 0.0999	Pr > F	



Trend and Correlation Analysis for I44_resids

9.5 Sample 2.2 - Model 3.1

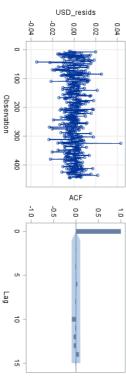
Durbin-Watson	MAPE	MAE	SBC	MSE	SSE	Ordii
1.9970	289.519869	0.00621724 AICC	-2911.0043 AIC	0.0000699 Root MSE	0.03003605	nary Least Sc
1.9970 Total R-Square	HQC	AICC	AIC	Root MSE	DFE	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates
0.0607	-2935.7497	-2951.3592	-2951.8721	0.00836	430	w.

Alternative LM Pr > LN AR(1) 0.0289 0.8651 AR(2) 2.0182 0.3646 AR(3) 3.0005 0.3916 AR(3) 3.4242 0.4895 AR(4) 3.4742 0.4895 AR(5) 3.8769 0.6933 AR(6) 5.6075 0.5867 AR(7) 5.6075 0.5893 AR(8) 5.7133 0.6793 AR(9) 6.4003 0.6993 AR(10) 12.2712 0.2677	Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test	èerial Cor Test	relation
0.0289 2.0182 3.0005 3.4242 3.7920 3.8769 5.6075 5.6075 5.7133 6.4003	Alternative	LM	Pr > LM
2.0182 3.0005 3.4242 3.7920 3.8769 5.6075 5.7133 6.4003 1.2.2712	AR(1)	0.0289	0.8651
3.0005 3.4242 3.7920 3.8769 5.6075 5.7133 6.4003 12.2712	AR(2)	2.0182	0.3646
3.4242 3.7920 3.8769 5.6075 5.7133 6.4003 1.2.2712	AR(3)	3.0005	0.3916
3.7920 3.8769 5.6075 5.7133 6.4003) 12.2712	AR(4)	3.4242	0.4895
3.8769 5.6075 5.7133 6.4003 12.2712	AR(5)	3.7920	0.5797
5.6075 5.7133 6.4003 12.2712	AR(6)	3.8769	0.6933
5.7133 6.4003)) 12.2712	AR(7)	5.6075	0.5862
6.4003) 12.2712	AR(8)	5.7133	0.6793
12.2712	AR(9)	6.4003	0.6993
	AR(10)	12.2712	0.2673

USD_resids_1	dlogBrent_4	dlogBrent_3	dlogBrent_2	dlogBrent_1	dlogUSD_4	dlogUSD_3	dlogUSD_2	dlogUSD_1	Intercept	Variable	
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		PF	_
-0.0314	0.004880	0.0246	0.0103	-0.0466	-0.1240	0.0865	0.007551	-0.0348	0.000324	Estimate	Parameter Estimates
0.0162	0.0145	0.0145	0.0145	0.0144	0.0498	0.0501	0.0501	0.0501	0.000400	Standard Error	Estimates
-1.94	0.34	1.70	0.71	-3.24	-2.49	1.73	0.15	-0.69	0.81	t Value	
0.0525	0.7372	0.0908	0.4789	0.0013	0.0131	0.0847	0.8802	0.4878	0.4186	Approx Pr > t	



		Test 1		
Source	DF	Mean Square	Mean Square F Value Pr > F	Pr
Numerator	5	0.000252	3.61 0.0033	0.00
Denominator 430 0.000069851	430	0.000069851		



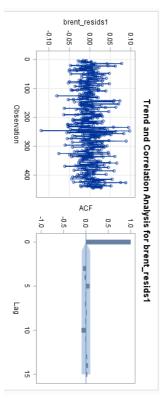
9.6 Sample 2.2 - Model 3.1R

439
0.0008286 Root MSE 0.02878
-1882.2911
-1882.1998
-1875.8332
1.9998 Total R-Square 0.0120
ASE R-Square

AR	AR(9)	AR(8)	AR(7)	AR(6)	AR(5)	AR(4)	AR(3)	AR(2)	AR(1)	Alt	G
AR(10)	(9)	(8)	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	Alternative	odfrey's S
11.4041	5.8435	5.7874	5.4486	5.1571	5.0733	2.2287	1.7861	0.0139	0.0119	LM	Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test
0.3269	0.7555	0.6710	0.6054	0.5238	0.4070	0.6938	0.6180	0.9931	0.9130	Pr > LM	relation

	_	Parameter Estimates	Estimates		
Variable	PF	DF Estimate	Standard Error	ndard Error t Value Pr > t	Approx Pr > t
Intercept	_	0.000280 0.001369	0.001369	0.20	0.8379
dlogBrent_1	-	0.0399	0.0493	0.81	0.4183
dlogUSD_1	_	0.0955	0.1698	0.56	0.5741
USD_resids_1	-	-0.1123	0.0515	-2.18	-2.18 0.0296

Denominator 439 0.000829	Numerator	Source	
439	2	무	
0.000829	2 0.001987	Mean Square	Test 1
	2.40	Mean Square F Value Pr > F	
	2.40 0.0920	Pr > F	



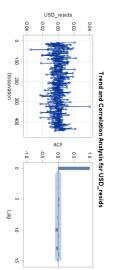
9.7 Sample 2.2 - Model 4.1

Ordir	iary Least Sc	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates	
SSE	0.02793392 DFE	DFE	412
MSE	0.0000678 Root MSE	Root MSE	0.00823
SBC	-2830.0102 AIC	AIC	-2936.1479
MAE	0.00597884 AICC	AICC	-2932.7319
MAPE	322.727529 HQC	HQC	-2894.2687
Durbin-Watson	1.9908	1.9908 Total R-Square	0.1263

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test	Serial Cor Test	relation
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM
AR(1)	0.2019	0.6532
AR(2)	1.1726	0.5564
AR(3)	1.7724	0.6210
AR(4)	2.0648	0.7238
AR(5)	7.9311	0.1601
AR(6)	9.1836	0.1635
AR(7)	9.4855	0.2197
AR(8)	9.5306	0.2995
AR(9)	9.8928	0.3592
AR(10)	15.8182	0.1050

		0.000067801	412	Denominator 412 0.000067801
3.98 0.0003	3.98	0.000270	7	Numerator
Pr > F	Mean Square F Value Pr > F	Mean Square	DF	Source
		Test 1		

	Para	Parameter Estimates	mates		
Variable	무	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > [t]
Intercept	-	0.000192	0.000464	0.41	0.6801
dlogUSD_1	-	-0.0650	0.0557	-1.17	0.2435
dlogUSD_2	-	-0.0185	0.0555	-0.33	0.7383
dlogUSD_3	-	0.1325	0.0547	2.42	0.0159
dlogUSD_4	<u> -</u>	-0.1043	0.0548	-1.90	0.0578
dlogUSD_5	<u> -</u>	0.0102	0.0543	0.19	0.8518
dlogUSD_6	<u> -</u>	0.0880	0.0542	1.62	0.1053
dlogBrent_1	-	-0.0536	0.0146	-3.66	0.0003
dlogBrent_2	-	-0.004926	0.0148	-0.33	0.7399
dlogBrent_3	-	0.0248	0.0148	1.68	0.0940
dlogBrent_4	-	0.006050	0.0148	0.41	0.6823
dlogBrent_5	-	-0.0220	0.0147	-1.49	0.1361
dlogBrent_6	-	-0.0106	0.0147	-0.72	0.4711
dLIBORUSD_1	-	0.1320	0.0837	1.58	0.1156
dLIBORUSD_2	-	-0.0132	0.0851	-0.16	0.8766
dLIBORUSD_3	-	-0.0842	0.0845	-1.00	0.3198
dLIBORUSD_4	-	0.1074	0.0847	1.27	0.2057
dLIBORUSD_5	-	-0.0306	0.0853	-0.36	0.7201
dLIBORUSD_6	-	0.0287	0.0846	0.34	0.7346
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_1	-	-0.008103	0.0185	-0.44	0.6611
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_2	-	-0.0465	0.0183	-2.54	0.0116
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_3	-	0.000562	0.0185	0.03	0.9757
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_4	-	0.005787	0.0185	0.31	0.7545
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_5	-	0.0293	0.0184	1.59	0.1116
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_6	-	0.0570	0.0185	3.09	0.0022
USD_resids_1	-	-0.0569	0.0197	-2.89	0.0041



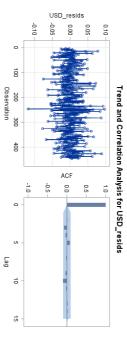
9.8 Sample 2.2 - Model 4.1R The AUTOREG Procedure

0.0272	2.0103 Total R-Square	2.0103	Durbin-Watson
-1875.5052	HQC	142.33937	MAPE
-1884.9994	AICC	0.02114948 AICC	MAE
-1885.192	AIC	-1860.6306 AIC	SBC
0.02863	Root MSE	0.0008195 Root MSE	MSE
437	DFE	0.35811261 DFE	SSE
	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates	iary Least Sq	Ordin

AR(10)	AR(9)	AR(8)	AR(7)	AR(6)	AR(5)	AR(4)	AR(3)	AR(2)	AR(1)	Alternative	Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test
12.6526	6.8794	6.5101	6.3481	6.1016	6.0639	3.3018	2.7387	0.6394	0.6241	LW	Serial Cor Test
0.2438	0.6497	0.5903	0.4997	0.4119	0.3000	0.5087	0.4337	0.7264	0.4295	Pr > LM	rrelation

			Test 1		
0.1398	-1.48	0.0579	-0.0857	-	USD_resids_1
0.5725	0.56	0.0619	0.0350		dintdiff_LIBORUSD_1
0.0096	-2.60	0.2732	-0.7105	-	dLIBORUSD_1
0.2883	1.06	0.1813	0.1927		dlogUSD_1
0.3920	0.86	0.0492	0.0422		dlogBrent_1
0.2886	1.06	0.001434	0.001523	-	Intercept
Approx Pr > t	ndard Error tValue	Standard Error	Estimate	PF	Variable
		mates	Parameter Estimates	Para	

		Test 1		
Source	P		Mean Square F Value Pr > F	Pr > F
Numerator	2	2 0.001195	1.46	1.46 0.2339
Denominator 437 0.000819	437	0.000819		



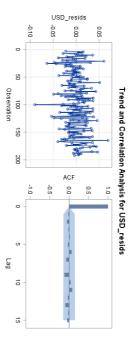
9.9 Robustness sample – Model 6.1

Ordin	iary Least Sc	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates	
SSE	0.10806653 DFE	DFE	181
MSE	0.0005971 Root MSE	Root MSE	0.02443
SBC	-833.26627 AIC	AIC	-862.48949
MAE	0.01857289 AICC	AICC	-861.48949
MAPE	314.929312 HQC	HQC	-850.65159
Durbin-Watson	2.0384	2.0384 Total R-Square	0.2060

Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test	Serial Cor Test	relation
Alternative	LM	Pr > LM
AR(1)	0.5271	0.4678
AR(2)	4.9035	0.0861
AR(3)	6.7592	0.0800
AR(4)	6.7770	0.1482
AR(5)	7.3486	0.1960
AR(6)	8.5484	0.2006
AR(7)	9.2052	0.2383
AR(8)	9.4512	0.3057
AR(9)	12.3785	0.1928
AR(10)	12.7102	0.2403

	Para	Parameter Estimates	mates		
Variable	먂	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > [t]
Intercept	<u> </u>	0.000535	0.001799	0.30	0.7663
dlogUSD_1	<u> </u>	0.3513	0.0799	4.40	<.0001
dlogBrent_1	<u> </u>	0.005453	0.0215	0.25	0.8003
dLIBORUSD_1	<u> </u>	-0.0209	0.008589	-2.43	0.0162
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_1	<u> </u>	-0.0110	0.008044	-1.37	0.1724
dlogINDPRO_NOK_1	<u> </u>	-0.004635	0.0585	-0.08	0.9370
dlogINDPRO_USD_1	<u> </u>	-0.2829	0.2640	-1.07	0.2854
dCPIDIFF_USD_1	<u> </u>	0.003327	0.003010	1.11	0.2705
USD_resids_1	<u> </u>	-0.0758	0.0342	-2.21	0.0281

		Test 1		
Source	DF	Mean Square	Mean Square FValue Pr>F	Pr > F
Numerator	2	2 0.001515	2.54	2.54 0.0819
Denominator 181 0.000597	181	0.000597		



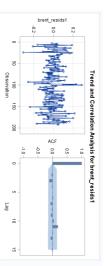
9.10 Robustness sample – Model 6.1R

	Godfrey's Serial Correlation	odfrey's Seri	G
0.1705	2.0111 Total R-Square	2.0111	Durbin-Watson
-337.14687	HQC	139.138298 HQC	MAPE
-347.98477	AICC	0.07169053 AICC	MAE
-348.98477	AIC	-319.76155 AIC	SBC
0.09438	0.00891 Root MSE	0.00891	MSE
181	DFE	1.6122782 DFE	SSE
	Ordinary Least Squares Estimates	nary Least S	Ordi

AR(10)	AR(9)	AR(8)	AR(7)	AR(6)	AR(5)	AR(4)	AR(3)	AR(2)	AR(1)	Alternative	Godfrey's Serial Correlation Test
6.3781	6.2457	5.6857	5.5591	4.1086	4.0882	3.8420	3.4931	0.4723	0.0515	LM	erial Co Test
0.7826	0.7151	0.6824	0.5921	0.6620	0.5368	0.4278	0.3217	0.7897	0.8204	Pr > LM	rrelation

	P	ara	Parameter Estimates	mates		
Variable	0	Ŗ	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Approx Pr > t
Intercept		-	-0.004155	0.006947	-0.60	0.5505
dlogBrent_1		-	0.0656	0.0831	0.79	0.4312
dlogUSD_1		-	-0.9227	0.3086	-2.99	0.0032
dLIBORUSD_1		-	0.0653	0.0332	1.97	0.0505
dintdiff_LIBORUSD_1	USD_1	-	0.006610	0.0311	0.21	0.8317
dlogINDPRO_NOK_1	IOK_1	-	0.4502	0.2261	1.99	0.0480
dlogINDPRO_USD_1	ISD_1	-	1.4126	1.0198	1.39	0.1677
dCPIDIFF_USD_1	<u> </u>		-0.0158	0.0116	-1.36	0.1767
USD_resids_1		-	-0.2098	0.1322	-1.59	0.1143
			Test 1			

Denominator 181 0.008908	Numerator	Source	
181	Ν	DF	
0.008908	2 0.058760	Mean Square	Test 1
	6.60	Mean Square F Value Pr > F	
	6.60 0.0017	Pr > F	

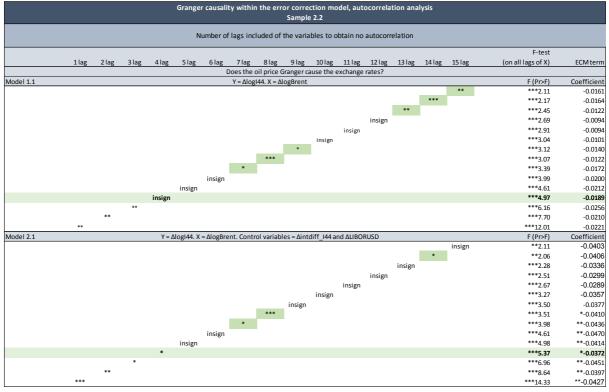


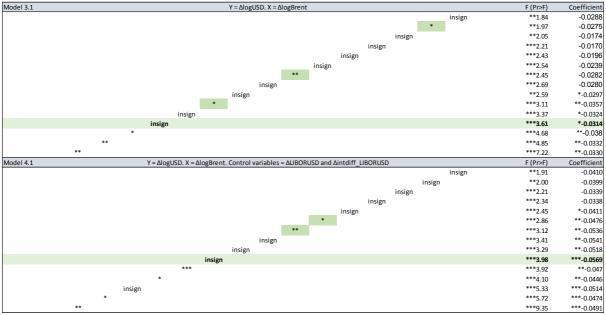
10. Granger causality, autocorrelation analysis in error correction models

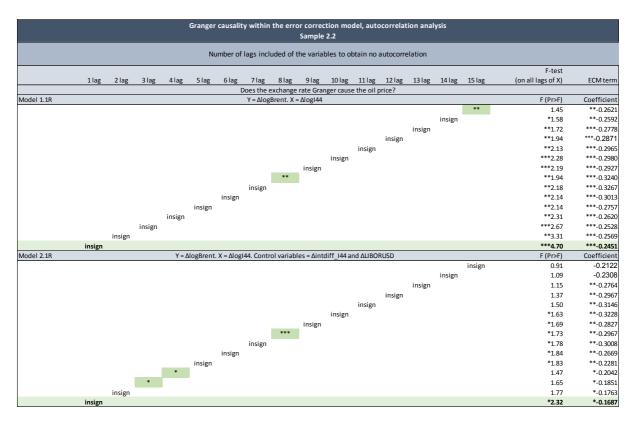
Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-15 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied.

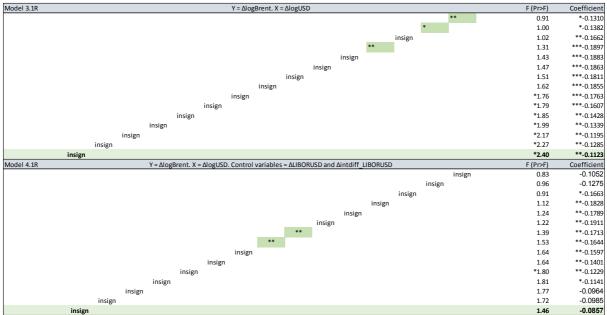
Rows market with green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

10.1 Sample 2.2





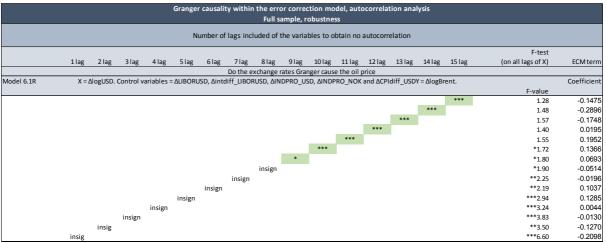




10.2 Robustness sample

					Grange	r causali	ty withir			ction mo obustne		ocorrela	ition ana	lysis			
					N	umber o	f lags inc	luded of	the varia	bles to o	btain no	autocor	relation				
																F-test	
	1 lag	2 lag	3 lag	4 lag	5 lag	6 lag	7 lag	8 lag	9 lag	10 lag	11 lag	12 lag	13 lag	14 lag	15 lag	(on all lags of X)	ECM term
							Does the	oil price O	Granger o	ause the e	exchange	rates?					
Model 6.1		Y = ∆logU	SD. X = Δ	logBrent.	Control	variables	= ∆intdiff	_144, ∆LIE	ORUSD,	INDPRO_	ΝΟΚ, ΔΙΝ	NDPRO_I	14 and ΔC	PIdiff_I44		F-value	Coefficient
															***	1.06	**-0.2388
														insig		0.80	**-0.1714
													*			0.73	**-0.1996
												insig				0.87	**-0.2050
											**					0.65	**-0.1581
										insig						0.69	**-0.1439
									insig							1.10	***-0.1642
								**								1.05	**-0.1309
							***									0.91	**-0.1109
						***										1.23	**-0.1077
					insig											1.66	**-0.1129
				insig												1.81	**-0.0997
			insig													*2,09	**-0.0862
		insig														**2.66	**0.0840
	insig															*2.54	**-0.0758

***, **, * and "insig" represents the statistical significance level of respective tests

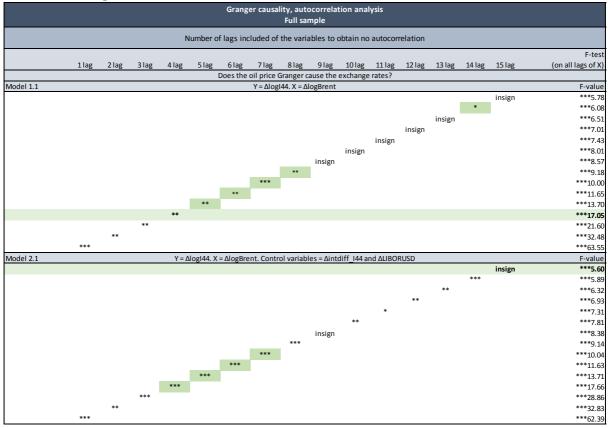


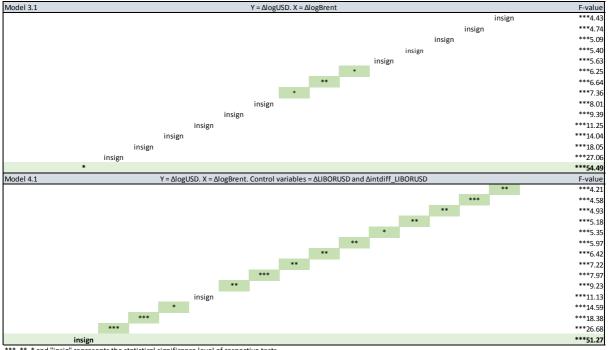
11. Granger causality, autocorrelation analysis

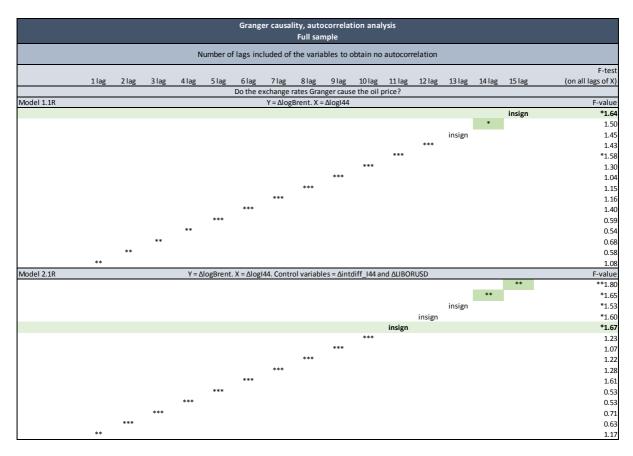
Columns market by stars in correspondence with lag 1-15 represent at which level the Breusch-Godfrey test for no autocorrelation is rejected. Cells market green represent tests where no autocorrelation by the BG test was rejected, but where the ACF plot show no spikes outside the confidence bans. Therefore, the conclusion for these are that the no autocorrelation condition is satisfied.

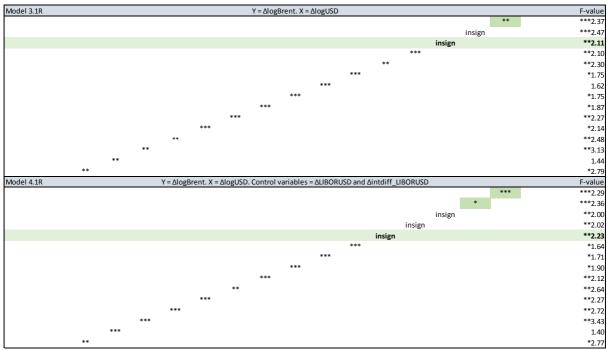
Rows market with green represent the acceptable model, where no significant autocorrelation is present.

11.1 Full sample

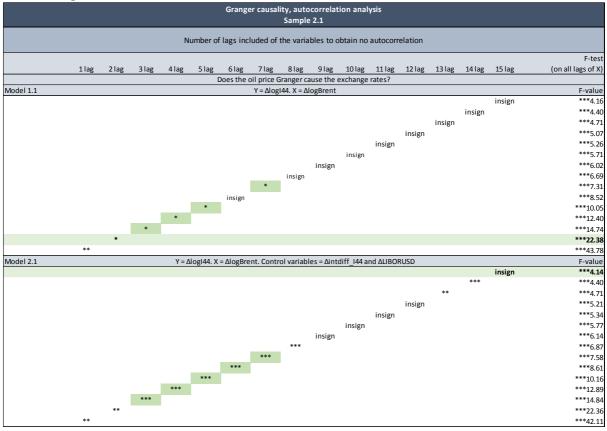


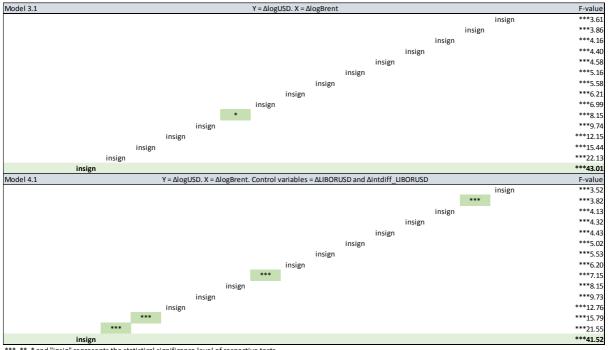


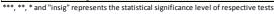


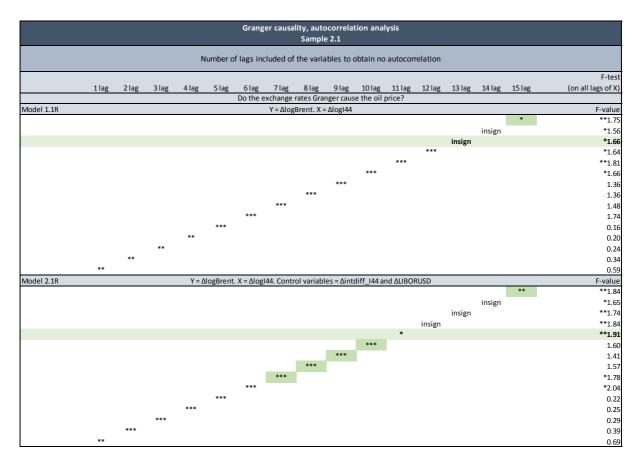


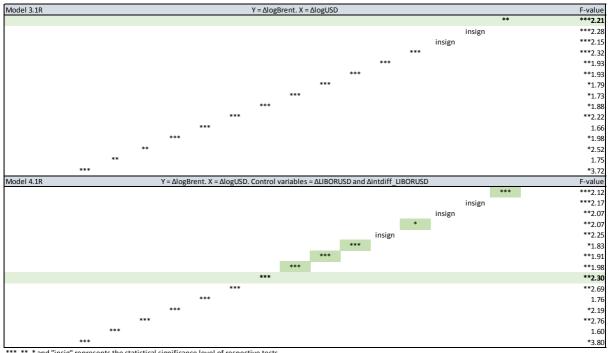
11.2 Sample 2.1



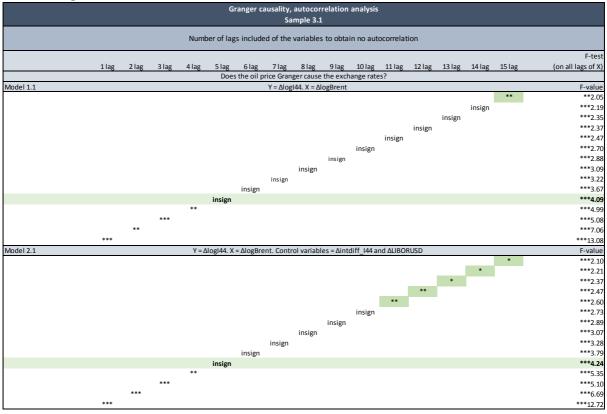


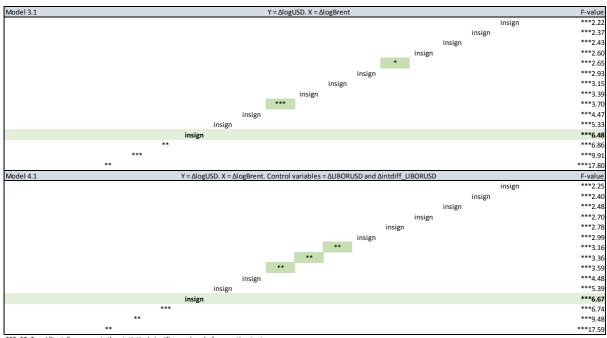


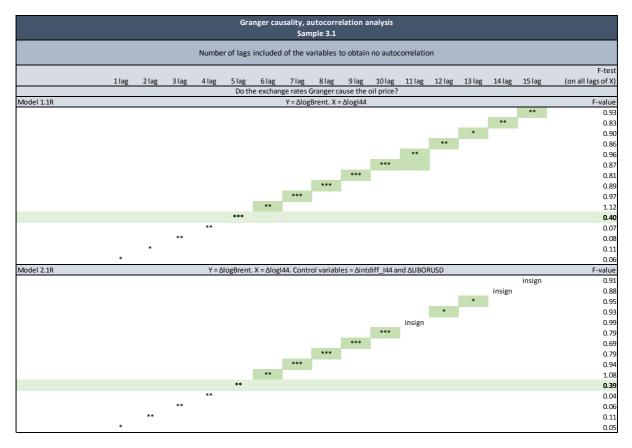


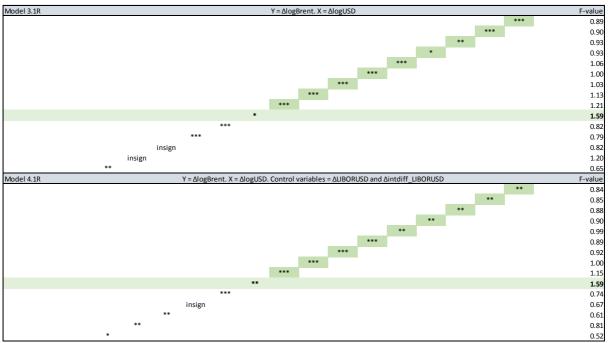


11.3 Sample 3.1



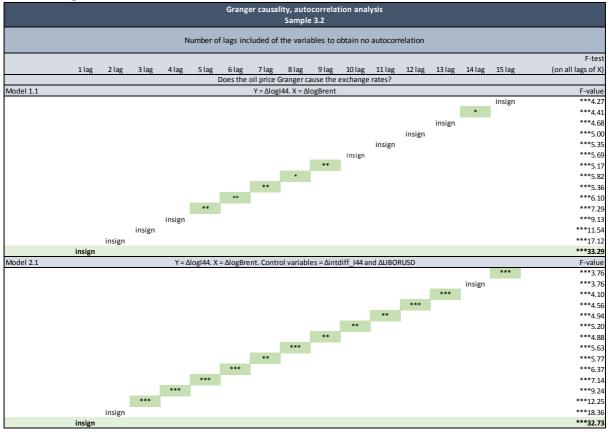


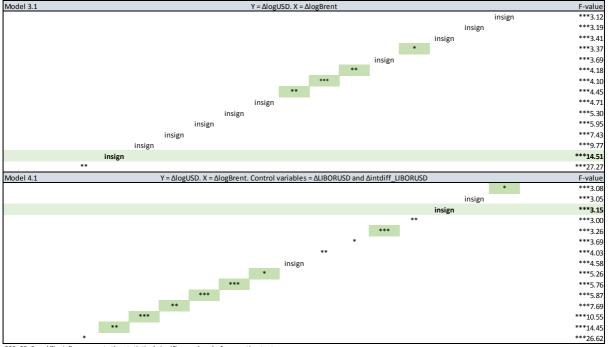


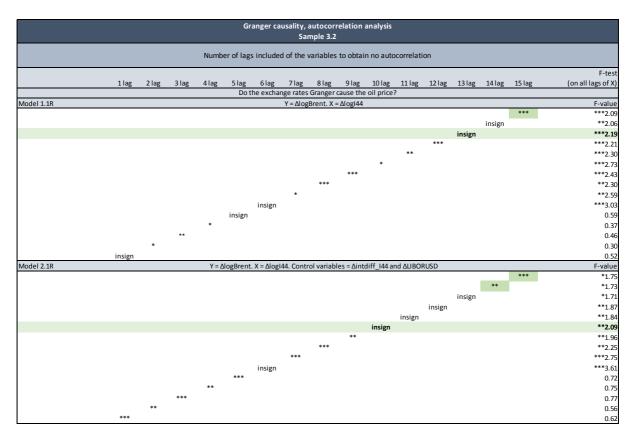


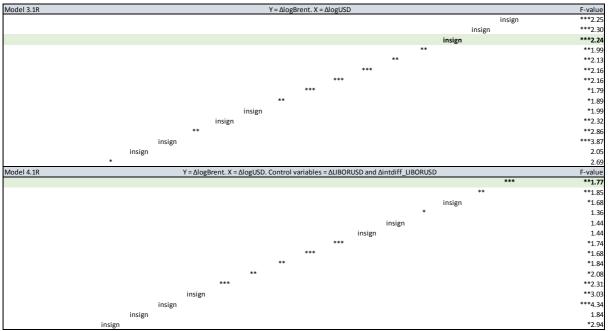
***, **, * and "insig" represents the statistical significance level of respective tests

11.4 Sample 3.4









^{***, **, *} and "insig" represents the statistical significance level of respective tests

11.5 Robustness Sample

