Identifying Dornbusch's Exchange Rate Overshooting with Structural VECs: Evidence from Mexico*

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We propose an approach where, by imposing a rich long-run structure to a structural vector error-correction model (SVEC), we find a response of the exchange rate to monetary policy shocks consistent with Dornbusch's exchange rate overshooting hypothesis in data from Mexico. The model accommodates long-run theoretical relationships on macroeconomic variables (a purchasing power parity, an uncovered interest parity, a money demand, and a relationship between domestic and U.S. output). We identify, estimate, and test the long-run relationships using an ARDL methodology. We then impose a recursiveness assumption on the SVEC to identify the response of domestic variables to a monetary policy shock.

JEL Codes: C32, C51, E10, E17.

1. Introduction

We propose an approach to uncover Dornbusch's (1976) overshooting hypothesis which, notwithstanding its central role in international macroeconomic theory and monetary policy, has proven to be elusive in empirical work. In particular, using Mexican data, we specify

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and estimate a structural vector error-correction model (SVEC) that includes a set of explicit long-run theoretical relationships among macroeconomic variables. We then impose a recursiveness assumption to identify the response of domestic variables to a monetary policy shock. We identify, estimate, and test the long-run restrictions embedded in the model using autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) univariate models.

Empirical evidence from small open economies has not in general been supportive of Dornbusch's overshooting hypothesis; in fact, in many cases the literature has found puzzling results suggesting that exchange rate depreciates after a positive shock to domestic interest rates (see, e.g., Racette and Raynauld 1992; Sims 1992; Grilli and Roubini 1995; and Angeloni et al. 2003). This exchange rate puzzle not only contradicts the overshooting hypothesis, but is also inconsistent with the theoretical response that the value of the local currency should exhibit after a monetary policy shock. In other cases, a long and persistent hump-shaped appreciation of the currency after a contractionary monetary policy shock has been found, the so-called delayed overshooting (see Eichenbaum and Evans 1995; Grilli and Roubini 1995; and Lindé 2003). This is also inconsistent with Dornbusch's model and, in particular, with the expected depreciation that would make uncovered interest parity hold after the initial appreciation of the currency.

Other papers have argued that these results reflect an inappropriate identification strategy and, in particular, may be responding to bidirectional causality between exchange rates and interest rates (see Cushman and Zha 1997; Kim and Roubini 2000; and Bjørnland 2009). Indeed, if monetary policy responds to exchange rate shocks by increasing interest rates to avoid its inflationary consequences, this may imply a positive correlation between interest rates and exchange rates that may lead to difficulties in identifying the response of exchange rates to exogenous monetary policy shocks. In this context, the combined evidence from these papers for the non-U.S. G-7 countries Australia, New Zealand, and Sweden has shown that an appropriate identification strategy which explicitly takes into account the features of a small open economy while also considering its interactions with the rest of the world is helpful in identifying theoretically consistent exchange rate responses.

In this paper, we present evidence from Mexico supporting this view. The identification strategy we follow is based on (i) a set of long-run theoretical restrictions which we impose on an SVEC; and (ii) a recursiveness assumption which we use to identify the response of domestic variables to a monetary policy shock. While Cushman and Zha (1997) and Bjørnland (2009) also achieve identification through the estimation of a structural vector autoregressive model (VAR), our strategy differs from theirs.[1] In particular, we impose a richer long-run structure on the empirical model, which implies a large set of over-identifying restrictions. Thus, in contrast with approaches followed previously by this literature, we are able to test the validity of our identification strategy.

Our approach is based on the specification and estimation of a small quarterly macroeconometric model for the Mexican economy. We follow Garratt et al. (2006) and estimate an SVEC that considers explicitly the presence of a set of long-run theoretical restrictions on macroeconomic variables, but that otherwise leaves the short-run dynamics of the system unrestricted.[2] Prior to the full-system estimation, however, we identify, estimate, and test long-run restrictions using an ARDL methodology from Pesaran and Shin (1999) and Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001) which is robust to the degree of persistence of the regressors, thus endowing the model with a richer long-run structure. This may be especially relevant in countries like Mexico, where diverse structural breaks may affect the degree of persistence of macroeconomic time series, making it difficult to determine unambiguously whether the variables are trend stationary or first-difference stationary. The long-run relationships consider explicitly the fact that Mexico is a small open economy and, therefore, account for the relation that the core domestic macroeconomic aggregates would be expected to have with foreign variables.

[1]Cushman and Zha (1997) estimated a structural VAR that explicitly identified a monetary policy function. However, they did not restrict the model to satisfy long-run theoretical relationships. Bjørnland (2009), in contrast, assumed a long-run neutrality restriction on the exchange rate, which allowed her to impose a contemporaneous interaction between the interest rate and the exchange rate without sacrificing identification. No further long-run restrictions were imposed.

[2]See Garratt et al. (2003) for an application of this methodology to the U.K. economy and Assenmacher-Wesche and Pesaran (2009) for an application to the Swiss economy.

In particular, the model contains four long-run relationships: (i) a purchasing power parity; (ii) an uncovered interest parity; (iii) a money demand; and (iv) a relationship between domestic and U.S. output levels. We illustrate the dynamic properties of the model with generalized impulse response functions (Koop, Pesaran, and Potter 1996; Pesaran and Shin 1998), then we use the estimated model to recursively identify a monetary policy shock and to analyze the response of macroeconomic variables to this shock.

This paper differs from previous attempts to identify monetary policy shocks in the Mexican economy. In contrast to the regime-switching VARs with recursive identifying restrictions estimated by Del Negro and Obiols-Homs (2001) and Gaytán and García-González (2006), we find significant effects on output and prices. Furthermore, we find that, consistent with Dornbusch's (1976) overshooting hypothesis, a contractionary monetary policy shock induces a quick and strong appreciation of the exchange rate, followed by a gradual depreciation. In particular, we show that, once we follow our identification strategy, both the so-called price and exchange rate puzzles disappear. Moreover, our results do not exhibit the "delayed overshooting" anomaly found in previous attempts to identify the exchange rate overshooting mechanism. These results are consistent with economic theory and are broadly similar to those found by Carrillo and Elizondo (2015), who estimated a VAR model with variables expressed in gaps and use recursive and sign restrictions as identifying strategies. Our approach however, differs from theirs by providing a unified account of trends in real, financial, and foreign variables. Since the variance of many macroeconomic series seems to be dominated by low-frequency components, directly modeling the trends and their interrelations may be particularly helpful for the study of the effects of monetary policy in the long run. An additional distinguishing feature of this paper is that, by including over-identifying restrictions, the approach we propose here imposes a foundation based on economic theory that is testable and that increases the degrees of freedom for estimation. These are useful features in an environment with small samples and possibly regime changes.

The paper proceeds as follows. In section 2, we present the econometric formulation of the SVEC used in this paper. Data description and analysis of the individual long-run relationships are found in section 3. Section 4 contains estimation and testing of the model, while section 5 presents the impulse response analysis, including the response of the endogenous variables to a monetary policy shock. Section 6 provides some concluding remarks.

2. Econometric Formulation of the Model

We consider a VAR model that relates the core macroeconomic variables of the Mexican economy to current and lagged values of key foreign variables. Our modeling strategy begins with the explicit statement of the long-run relationship between the variables of the model, obtained from macroeconomic theory. We then embed deviations from these long-run relationships (i.e., the error-correcting terms) in an otherwise unrestricted VAR model to obtain a vector error-correction model, which has the structural long-run relationship as its steady-state solution. This allows us to test for the presence of the cointegrating relationships and the validity of the over-identifying restrictions implied by the long-run economic theory.

A general structural model for the determination of an $m \times 1$ vector of variables of interest, $\mathbf{z}_t$, is given by the SVEC

$$\mathbf{A}\Delta\mathbf{z}_t = \widetilde{\mathbf{a}} + \widetilde{\mathbf{b}}t - \widetilde{\mathbf{\Pi}}\mathbf{z}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \widetilde{\mathbf{\Gamma}}_i \Delta\mathbf{z}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t. \qquad (1)$$

Here, $\mathbf{A}$, $\widetilde{\mathbf{\Pi}}$, and $\widetilde{\mathbf{\Gamma}}_i$ are $m \times m$ matrices and $\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\widetilde{\mathbf{b}}$ are $m \times 1$ vectors, all containing structural parameters. The $m \times 1$ vector of errors in (1), $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$, is assumed to have zero mean and a diagonal positive definite covariance matrix $\mathbf{\Omega}$ (i.e., $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$ contains the structural shocks). If there are r cointegrating vectors, $0 < r < m$, then $\widetilde{\mathbf{\Pi}}$ will have rank r. In this case, we may decompose it as $\widetilde{\mathbf{\Pi}} = \widetilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}\boldsymbol{\beta}'$, where $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ is an $m \times r$ matrix of adjustment coefficients and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is an $m \times r$ matrix of long-run coefficients.

Within this framework, $\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{z}_{t-1}$ is interpreted as the error-correction term. In particular, as explained in Davidson et al. (1978), $\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{z}_t = \mathbf{0}$ can be interpreted as the long-run equilibrium of the dynamic system so that, whenever $\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{z}_{t-1}$ differs from zero, there are deviations from the long-run equilibrium that tend to be corrected through changes in $\mathbf{z}_t$. In some cases, these relationships can be supplemented with deterministic intercepts and trends. Thus, according to Garratt et al. (2003), the long-run relationships can be expressed as

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_t = \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{z}_t - \mathbf{b}_0 - \mathbf{b}_1 t, \tag{2}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\xi}_t$ is therefore interpreted as the deviation from the long-run equilibrium defined by the condition $\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{z}_t - \mathbf{b}_0 - \mathbf{b}_1 t = \mathbf{0}$.

Hence, the long-run relationships are embedded in the matrix $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. However, as is well known, we cannot identify $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ from $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ without additional restrictions. In particular, we need at least r^2 restrictions. Normalization readily yields r restrictions, so that we require $r^2 - r$ additional restrictions.

The most common approach to obtain identification is probably the one proposed by Johansen (1991), which is based on statistical procedures. However, an interesting alternative to obtain the missing $r^2 - r$ restrictions relies on economic theory, as proposed by Garratt et al. (2003). Since the restrictions are imposed on the cointegrating vectors, the relevant theory is that of the long run. In this context, the modeling strategy is to embed $\boldsymbol{\xi}_t$ in an otherwise unrestricted VAR(p). This strategy allows us to avoid restricting the short-run dynamics, by assuming that changes in $\mathbf{z}_t$ can be well approximated by a linear function of a finite number of past changes in $\mathbf{z}_t$ (Sims 1980). In this regard, we consider the VEC(p – 1)

$$\Delta\mathbf{z}_t = \mathbf{a}_0 - \boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i \Delta\mathbf{z}_{t-i} + \mathbf{u}_t,$$

that, given equation (2), can be written as

$$\Delta\mathbf{z}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}t - \boldsymbol{\Pi}\mathbf{z}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i \Delta\mathbf{z}_{t-i} + \mathbf{u}_t, \tag{3}$$

which is a reduced-form VEC where $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\widetilde{\mathbf{b}}$, $\boldsymbol{\Pi} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\Pi}} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}\boldsymbol{\beta}' = \boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\beta}'$, $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}_i$, $\mathbf{u}_t = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$, and $\mathbf{u}_t$ has covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ with $\boldsymbol{\Omega} = \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A}'$. The estimation of (3) can be carried out using the long-run structural modeling approach proposed by Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2000) and Pesaran and Shin (2002).

Within this framework, it is important to distinguish between endogenous and weakly exogenous variables, since this could lead to a more efficient estimation approach. We treat foreign variables as weakly exogenous, that is, they affect the domestic variables contemporaneously but they are not affected by the long-run parameters related to the domestic economy. This implies that none of the error-correction terms enter the equations for the change in the foreign variables.

3. Long-Run Level Relationships

Our choice of variables is determined by our objective of study, namely, modeling the monetary transmission mechanism. In this context, the model should include those relationships from economic theory that may be associated with the mechanisms through which the economy responds to monetary policy shocks. It should also include the variables that are expected to influence domestic output and inflation in a small open economy, like Mexico. We consider (i) a purchasing power parity, which links the domestic price level, the exchange rate, and the foreign (U.S.) price level; (ii) an uncovered interest rate parity, which relates the domestic nominal interest rate to the foreign (U.S.) nominal interest rate and to the depreciation rate; (iii) a condition for long-run solvency requirements, the money demand, which relates the real money stock to the real output and the interest rate; and (iv) a condition for long-run output determination, based on a relationship between domestic and foreign real output. In addition, we estimate the full VEC model considering the price of oil, the foreign (U.S.) producer price index, and the TED spread as exogenous variables in the system, given their importance as determinants of Mexico's terms of trade, prices for imported intermediate goods, and global financial liquidity shocks, respectively.[3] These variables' only role in the VEC will be to affect the short-run dynamics.

[3]The TED spread is a commonly used measure of the funding conditions and is defined as the spread between the three-month LIBOR on U.S. dollars and the three-month Treasury bill.

Table 1. List of Variables in the Model

Variable	Source
y_t := Natural Log of the Mexican Real GDP S.A. (2003 = 100)	INEGI
p_t := Natural Log of the Mexican Consumer Price Index, S.A. (2002 = 100)	INEGI
$r_t := 0.25\ \ln(1 + R_t/100)$, R_t = 91 Days CETES Interest Rate per Annum	Banco de México
m_t := Natural Log of the Mexican Real M1 Money Stock S.A. ($M1/P$)	Banco de México
e_t := Natural Log of the Nominal Peso–Dollar Effective Exchange Rate	Banco de México
y_t^* := Natural Log of the U.S. Real GDP S.A. (2009 = 100)	BEA
p_t^* := Natural Log of the U.S. Consumer Price Index S.A. (1982–1984 = 100)	BLS
$r_t^* := 0.25\ \ln(1 + R_t^*/100)$, R_t^* = Three-Month T-bill Interest Rate per Annum	Federal Reserve
p_t^o := Natural Log of the West Texas Intermediate Oil Price	IMF
pp_t^* := Natural Log of Producer Price Index for All Commodities, Index (1982 = 100)	Federal Reserve
$\tilde{r}_t^*$:= TED Spread is the Spread between the Three-Month LIBOR Based on U.S. Dollars and the Three-Month Treasury Bill	Federal Reserve

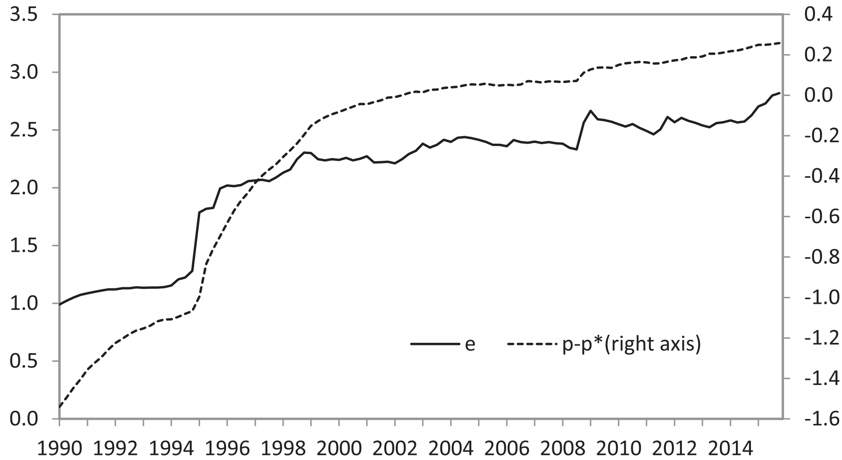
Note: S.A. means that the variables are seasonally adjusted using the TRAMO-SEATS methodology; see Gomez and Maravall (1996).

3.1 Data

We use quarterly, seasonally adjusted data for the period 1990:Q1–2015:Q4.[4] Table 1 describes the variables. Domestic variables are real gross domestic product (GDP), y_t; Mexican consumer price index, p_t; ninety-one-day CETES interest rate, r_t; money aggregate M1 in real terms, m_t^d; and the nominal exchange rate expressed as Mexican pesos per U.S. dollar, e_t. Foreign variables are U.S. real GDP,

[4]To guarantee that all regressions start at 1990:Q1 and are therefore comparable, irrespective of the lag order chosen, data before 1990:Q1 were used.

Figure 1. Exchange Rate and the Ratio of Domestic to Foreign Prices



y_t^*; U.S. consumer price index, p_t^*; three-month T-bill interest rate, r_t^*; WTI oil price, p_t^o; U.S. producer price index, pp_t^*; and the TED spread, $\widetilde{r}_t^*$. All variables, except the interest rates and the spread, are transformed to their natural logarithms.[5]

To see the extent to which the long-run relationships under investigation have held historically, the data are presented in figures 1–4. Figure 1 shows the variables included in the purchasing power parity condition and suggests that it may hold in the long run. The large devaluation associated with the crisis of the mid-90s is evident, as is the response of prices to this devaluation. The recent financial crisis resulted in the sharp depreciation observed in the last two quarters of 2008, the latter matched with a price differential response. Two further events are apparent—the financial stress stemming from the Greek debt crisis towards the end of 2011 and the sharp depreciation

[5]Interest rates are expressed as $0.25\ln(1+R/100)$, where R is the interest rate in percent per annum, to make units compatible with other rates of change used (e.g., the depreciation rate), which are computed as the first (log) difference of the quarterly levels. The Mexican real GDP, consumer price index, and M1 are seasonally adjusted using the TRAMO-SEATS methodology (Gomez and Maravall 1996). U.S. real GDP and consumer price index series are seasonally adjusted by the Bureau of Economic Analysis and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, respectively. See table 1 for details.

Figure 2. Domestic and Foreign Interest Rates and Depreciation Rate

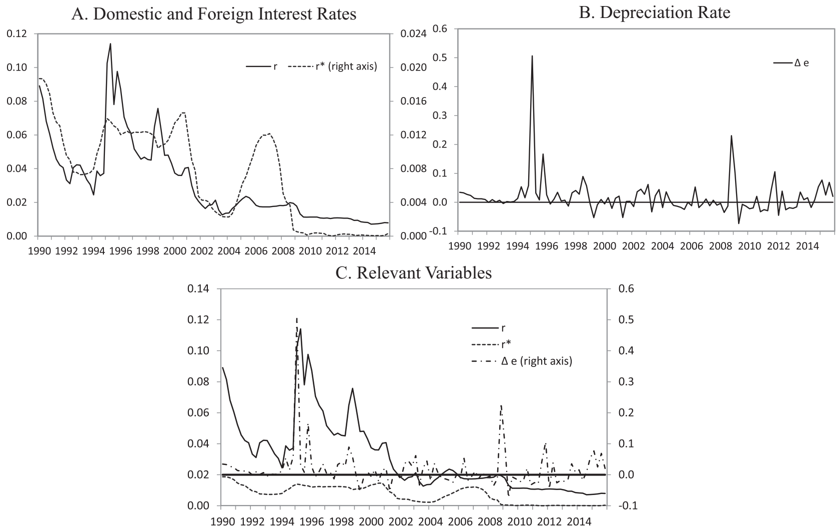
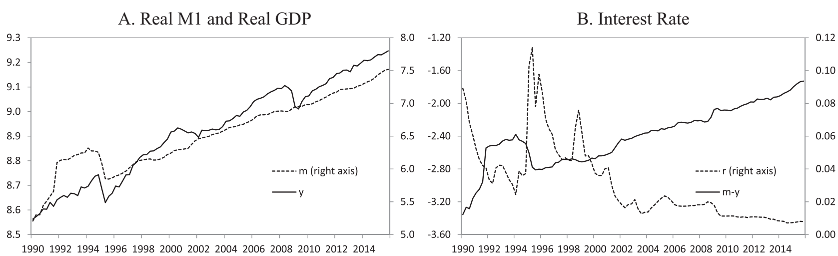


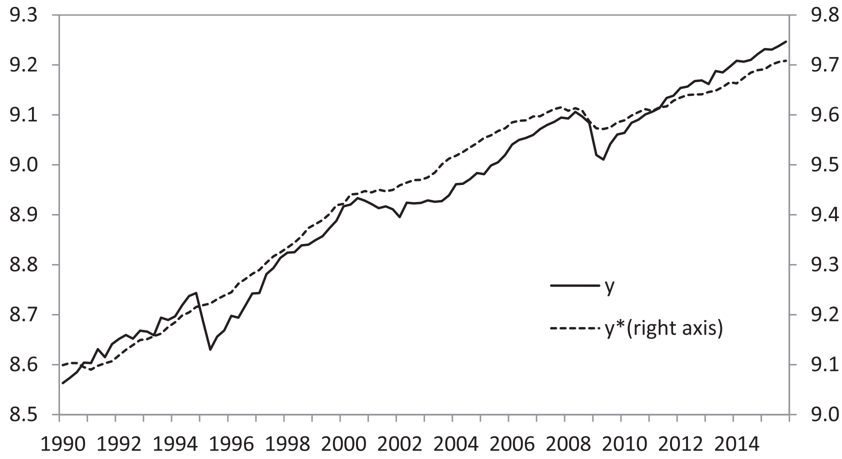
Figure 3. Real M1, Real GDP, and Interest Rate



of the Mexican currency from the last quarter of 2014 to the end of the sample, which was partially a response to the observed decrease in oil prices.

Figure 2 shows the variables included in the uncovered interest parity condition, the domestic and the foreign (U.S.) interest rates in panel A, the depreciation of the exchange rate in panel B, and all the relevant variables simultaneously in panel C. There appears to be a positive relationship between both interest rates, although the foreign rate is smoother. When both rates grow apart, the gap

Figure 4. Domestic and Foreign Real GDP



seems to be compensated, at least in part, by depreciations of the Mexican currency. This is evident during the crisis of the mid-90s, the financial crisis starting in 2008:Q3, the Greek debt stress episode in 2011:Q4, and, at the end of the sample, throughout 2015.

Figure 3 shows the variables included in the money demand equation. The levels of real M1 and real GDP appear in panel A.[6] After the crises of both the mid-90s and the end of the first decade of the 2000s, both series have similar trend properties, hence, an income elasticity of unity seems plausible. Panel B illustrates the relationship between (inverse-) velocity and the interest rate. The figure is supportive of a negative interest rate semi-elasticity.

Figure 4 shows the domestic and foreign real GDP. After the crisis in the mid-90s and up to the first half of 2008, these series display similar trends. This may reflect the production-side links

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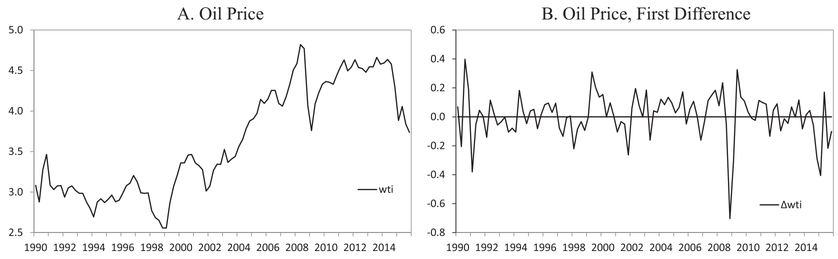
[6]M1 at constant prices increased 84 percent between 1990 and 1991. This level shift, which became apparent in the last quarter of 1991, is explained by the increase in checking accounts (151.7 percent) that occurred as a result of a change in regulation. The new regulation transferred funds in *fideicomisos abiertos de inversion de valores* and in master accounts to (interest-paying) checking accounts. To account for this shift, we include in the money equation below a dummy variable that takes the value of one from 1991:Q4 on. The Wald test statistic for the classical Chow test suggests that there was a structural break in this date. We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting this robustness check.

Figure 5. Oil Price



formed between the manufacturing sectors of both economies, especially after the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) was enacted (see Graham and Wada 2000). After the 2008 crisis, however, the U.S. GDP growth rate seems to have been somewhat slower than that of Mexico, which experienced a sharper decrease in economic activity in 2009. The relationship between GDP growth rates in Mexico and the United States experienced further changes, in particular during the financial turbulence of late 2011, in which the latter experienced a marked deceleration. We note, however, that the relationship seems to be reestablished from the end of 2014 to the end of the sample period.[7]

The exogenous variables that we use in the estimation of the full system are displayed in figures 5–7. Figure 5 shows oil prices with three steep declines, the first related to the 1998 Asian debt crisis, a second decline during the 2009 financial crisis, and the last decline beginning the second half of 2014. The behavior of the U.S. producer

[7] To account for these changes in 2009:Q1, 2012:Q1, and 2015:Q1, we include three dummy variables that take the value of one from the date on in the equation relating output from Mexico and the United States below. Results from Bai and Perron's (1998, 2003a, 2003b) test of the level and trend of Mexican GDP suggest that 2009:Q1 and 2012:Q2 are dates where there is a structural break but are mute on the dummy for 2015:Q1, since it is near the end of the sample. To assess the importance of the latter dummy, we run an OLS regression of the Mexican GDP on a constant, a trend, and the three dummies. Wald tests are not able to reject that the estimates related to the dummy 2015:Q1 by itself, and the three dummies jointly, are zero. Finally, Chow tests for the three relevant dates confirm that a structural break occurred in these dates. These tests were conducted on a regression of the difference between Mexican and U.S. GDP on a constant. We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting this additional robustness check.

Figure 6. U.S. Producer Price Index

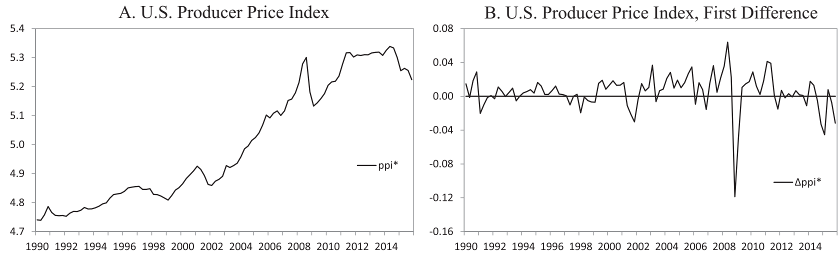
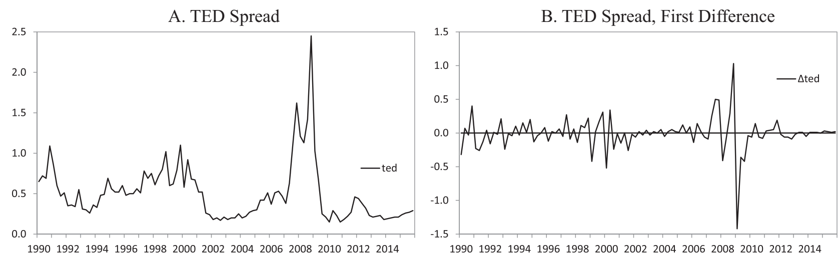


Figure 7. TED Spread



price index is contained in figure 6, while that of the behavior of the TED spread is displayed in figure 7.

3.2 Testing for the Existence of a Relationship in Levels

Before conducting the full-system estimation, we undertake a single-equation analysis of each of the long-run relationships, as mentioned above. We first test for the existence of a long-run relationship between the levels of the series in each equation using the bounds testing approach of Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001). Then, given that the data do not seem to reject the existence of a levels relationship, we use the ARDL modeling approach of Pesaran and Shin (1999) to estimate its coefficients. The estimates from the ARDL long-run relationships will indicate which parameter restrictions are likely to be valid in the full-system estimation. Importantly, the ARDL approach is robust to the unit-root properties of the data, and hence knowledge of the integration order of the variables is not necessary. This is particularly useful for the case of nominal variables in

Mexico, given that a change in their persistence may have occurred in 2001 (Chiquiar, Noriega, and Ramos-Francia 2010).

The individual models that we estimate correspond to the four long-run relationships that we expect to find: purchasing power parity (PPP), uncovered interest rate parity (UIP), money demand (MD), and output determination (OUT). We estimate each ARDL in error-correction form. To determine the appropriate lag length, we estimate each model by ordinary least squares including one to eight lags. We select the best specification using the Schwarz information criterion (BIC). Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001) provide bounds for the critical values for a t-test of the significance of the coefficient associated with the error-correction term (speed of adjustment) and for a joint test of the exclusion of the lagged levels. These bounds provide a lower and an upper critical value for the null of no level relationship (i.e., no cointegration if the variables contain a unit root). When the test statistic lies outside the bounds (in absolute value), the null is rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis of the existence of a level relationship among the variables included in the equation, irrespective of the persistence properties of the variables involved.[8]

The tests for the existence of long-run level relationships are summarized in table 2. The second column shows the coefficient of the error-correction term, and the next column shows the t-statistics with their respective lower and upper bound critical values at the 10 percent level. The following three columns show the F-statistic for the exclusion of the levels of the variables and the corresponding lower and upper 10 percent critical values. Finally, we present the adjusted R^2 and the final specification of each ARDL model.[9] In the four models we get negative and significant error-correction coefficients, as can be seen by the fact that the t-statistic exceeds the bounds (in absolute value).[10] In addition, the F-statistic also exceeds the upper bound in the four cases with non-negligible R^2.

[8]If the test statistic lies within the interval formed by the upper and lower bounds, we would need to know the order of integration of the variables to make conclusive inference as suggested by Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001).

[9]In the last column, p is the number of lags of the dependent variable, and m_k are the lags of the k-th regressor.

[10]In the case of the output relationship, the test statistic is slightly higher than the critical value at the 10 percent significance level upper bound.

Table 2. Autoregressive Distributed Lag Models

	EC	***t*-stat.**	**CV Bounds**		***F*-stat.**	**CV Bounds**		$\bar{R}^2$	**ARDL (p, m_1, . . . m_k)**
PPP	−0.07	−6.38	−3.21	−2.57	9.87	2.63	3.35	0.89	(2,2,2)
UIP	−1.10	−14.95	−3.21	−2.57	53.26	2.63	3.35	0.75	(1,1,0)
MD	−0.10	−8.10	−3.46	−2.57	6.43	2.63	3.35	0.78	(1,1,0) $D914$
OUT	−0.19	−3.61	−3.66	−2.57	3.70	3.02	3.51	0.28	(1,2) $D091$, $D121$, $D151$

Notes: PPP denotes purchasing power parity, UIP the uncovered interest rate parity, MD money demand, and OUT the relationship between domestic and U.S. output. Columns correspond to the error-correction term (EC), its t-ratio, and the lower and upper bound of the associated 5 percent critical values (CV Bounds). F-statistic corresponds to the test for exclusion of the levels variables and their respective 10 percent lower and upper critical-value bounds. The adjusted $\bar{R}^2$ refers to that of the regression in first differences. The specification shows the number of lags according to the BIC criterion: p corresponds to the number of lags of the dependent variable, m_k is the number of lags for the k-th regressor (e.g., for PPP the dependent variable is p, the first regressor is p^*, and the second regressor is e); in each case a (restricted) constant was included. $D914$, $D091$, $D121$, and $D151$ are *dummy* variables defined in the text.

Thus, there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no level relationship in all the long-run relationships. Hence, we find evidence of the existence of four stable long-run relationships, which we estimate and show below, with delta method standard errors in parentheses. The order is PPP, UIP, MD, and OUT:

$$p_t = \underset{(0.818)}{0.019} + \underset{(0.196)}{0.491} p_t^* + \underset{(0.055)}{1.015} e_t,$$

$$\Delta e_t = \underset{(0.007)}{0.001} + \underset{(0.274)}{1.154} r_t - \underset{(1.159)}{2.329} r_t^*,$$

$$m_t^d = -\underset{(3.553)}{2.867} + \underset{(0.176)}{0.019} D914_t + \underset{(0.383)}{1.113} y_t - \underset{(3.482)}{13.978} r_t,$$

$$y_t = \underset{(0.471)}{0.437} + \underset{(0.028)}{0.047} D091_t + \underset{(0.032)}{0.042} D121_t + \underset{(0.044)}{0.010} D151_t + \underset{(0.050)}{0.897} y_t^*.$$

Notice that all relationships were estimated with a constant and without a trend, and that we include the following shift dummies discussed previously: $D914_t$ accounts for the level change in real money balances after 1991:Q4; $D091_t$, $D121_t$, and $D151_t$ account for shifts in the GDP series in 2009:Q1, 2012:Q1, and 2015:Q1, respectively. We did not find evidence in favor of a linear trend in any of the long-run relationships at conventional levels. All the relevant coefficient estimates are significant at the 5 percent significance level and have the expected signs.[11]

For the PPP condition, the long-run specification shows that it is not unreasonable to impose a unit elasticity in both the foreign price level and the exchange rate.[12] Concerning the UIP condition, and according to the theory, we find that the Wald tests are unable to reject the individual null hypotheses of unit coefficients with opposite signs for r_t and r_t^* at the 5 percent significance level. This is

[11] We note that the Wald test for the dummy variables included in OUT being zero jointly is rejected with a p-value of 0.07, and they are all significant when estimated with maximum likelihood within the VAR below.

[12] The Wald test for the estimate related to e_t is unable to reject the null that the coefficient equals one. The corresponding test for the estimate related to p_t^* rejects with a p-value of 0.01, but we note that a joint Wald test rejects the null that both coefficients are equal with a p-value of 0.034. This may reflect the fact that both p_t and p_t^* include non-tradable goods in their definitions, as opposed to the theoretical derivation of this condition. The likelihood-ratio test for over-identifying restrictions within the VECM estimated below will confirm that these restrictions are valid in the system estimation.

also true for the joint Wald tests of their equality to one.[13] With regard to the demand for money, a unit income elasticity cannot be rejected. In particular, the p-value of this test is 0.786. Finally, we claim that, with the available evidence, the relationship between the real domestic and foreign output has a unit elasticity in the long run.[14] These long-run relationships are consistent with a broad class of open-economy macroeconomic models (e.g., Clarida, Galí, and Gertler 2001; Garratt et al. 2003).

Given the results described above, it seems reasonable to assume that PPP and UIP hold in the long run, and that money demand exhibits a unit elasticity with respect to output. It also seems suitable to restrict the cointegration space so that domestic output has a unit elasticity with respect to foreign output. In this context, abstracting from constant terms without loss of generality, once we estimate the full system in the following section we will impose the following (over-identifying) restrictions into the cointegrating space, which correspond to the PPP, UIP, MD, and OUT long-run relationships:[15]

$$\begin{aligned} p_t &= p_t^* + e_t + \xi_{1t}, \\ \Delta e_t &= r_t - r_t^* + \xi_{2t}, \\ m_t^d &= \beta_{D914} D914_t + y_t + \beta_r r_t + \xi_{3t}, \\ y_t &= \beta_{D091} D091_t + \beta_{D121} D121_t + \beta_{D151} D151_t + y_t^* + \xi_{4t}. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that these four long-run relationships can be expressed compactly as

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_t = \boldsymbol{\beta}' \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{z}_t \\ \mathbf{D}_t \end{pmatrix} - \mathbf{b}_0,$$

[13]The p-value of the Wald test for the null that the coefficient of the domestic interest rate is one is 0.577. On the other hand, the test for the null that the coefficient related to the foreign interest rate is one is 0.255. Finally, the p-value for the joint test that both coefficients are one is 0.434.

[14]The p-value for this test is 0.043. The discussed changes in the behavior of the output series, particularly in the post-2009 period, seem to be weakening their long-run relationship; the latter situation, however, may be temporary. Indeed, if we estimate the relationship up to 2008:Q2, prior to the financial crisis, we find that the p-value is 0.555.

[15]The validity of these restrictions will be tested jointly in the full-system estimation below and, as will be seen, is not rejected in that context.

where $\mathbf{z}_t = \left(y_t, p_t, r_t, \Delta e_t, m_t^d, p_t^* + e_t, y_t^*, r_t^*\right)'$ and $\mathbf{D}_t = (D914_t, D091_t, D121_t, D151_t)'$, $\mathbf{b}_0$ is a vector of constants, and $\boldsymbol{\xi}_t$ are the deviations from long-run equilibrium. From now on, we treat $p_t^* + e_t$ as a single variable, which we refer to as foreign prices in domestic currency. The cointegrating matrix is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & \beta_r & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \beta_{D914} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & \beta_{D091} & \beta_{D121} & \beta_{D151} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4}$$

The only long-run coefficients that we leave unrestricted, to be estimated from the data, are the interest semi-elasticity of the money demand and the coefficients for the shift dummies. All other parameters are restricted to their long-run theoretical values. We now define $\widetilde{\mathbf{z}}_t = (\mathbf{z}_t', \mathbf{D}_t')'$ and separate $\mathbf{z}_t$ into endogenous and weakly exogenous variables. The endogenous variables are $\mathbf{x}_t = \left(y_t, p_t, r_t, \Delta e_t, m_t^d, p_t^* + e_t\right)'$, and the weakly exogenous variables are $\mathbf{x}_t^* = (y_t^*, r_t^*)'$. Also notice that the error-correction terms for PPP, UIP, MD, and OUT will be denoted by ξ_{1t}, ξ_{2t}, ξ_{3t}, and ξ_{4t}, respectively.

4. Estimation and Testing of the Model

4.1 Unit-Root Tests

Before we describe the estimation of the full system, in this subsection we summarize the results of the unit-root tests on the variables included in the model. Table 3 presents the augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test from Dickey and Fuller (1979) and Said and Dickey (1984) statistics and the DF-GLS test from Elliott, Rothenberg, and Stock (1996). We test the variables in levels and first differences.

The results of both the ADF and the DF-GLS tests suggest that we can treat $y_t, r_t, m_t^d, e_t, y_t^*, p_t^*, r_t^*, p_t^o, \widetilde{r}_t^*$, and pp_t^* as I(1) variables. There is some ambiguity regarding the order of integration of the domestic price level, p_t. Given the results in table 3 and a further ADF test on $\Delta^2 p_t$, the evidence suggests that the domestic price level seems to behave like an I(2) variable. However, specific tests

Table 3. Unit-Root Tests

Variable	ADF	Lag Structure	DF-GLS	Lag Structure
Tests with a Constant and a Trend				
y_t	−2.81	0	−2.28	0
p_t	−1.55	5	−0.91	3
m_t^d	−3.24	1	−1.78	1
e_t	−1.63	0	−1.52	3
y_t^*	−1.08	2	−1.14	2
p_t^*	−1.95	2	−0.70	1
p_t^o	−1.81	2	−1.76	5
pp_t^*	−1.69	2	−1.64	2
Tests with a Constant				
r_t	−2.48	4	−0.63	4
r_t^*	−2.07	4	−0.69	4
$\tilde{r}_t^*$	−2.72	3	−0.99	3
Δy_t	−8.91	0	−2.24	6
Δp_t	−2.34	2	−2.03	2
Δr_t	−4.72	2	−2.96	10
Δm_t^d	−3.56	3	−2.36	5
Δe_t	−4.50	2	−0.66	6
Δy_t^*	−2.35	8	−2.00	8
Δp_t^*	−1.88	11	−1.89*	11
Δr_t^*	−3.24	2	−1.73*	2
Δp_t^o	−8.47	0	−7.84	0
$\Delta \tilde{r}_t^*$	−11.86	0	−2.01	12
Δpp_t^*	−6.82	0	−1.52	12

Notes: The 5 percent CVs for the augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) tests are −3.45 (constant and a trend) and −2.88 (constant); see Dickey and Fuller (1979) and Said and Dickey (1984). The 5 percent CVs for the Elliott, Rothenberg, and Stock (1996) DF-GLS tests are −3.02 (constant and a trend) and –1.94 (constant). The lag structure is selected using the modified Akaike criterion from Ng and Perron (2001). *p-value $\leq$ 10 percent.

for inflation in Mexico have shown that there is a change in its persistence around the beginning of 2001 (Chiquiar, Noriega, and Ramos-Francia 2010). Hence, the price level would seem to behave like an I(2) series only for the first part of the sample, and as an I(1) variable for the second part. In the analysis we will treat p_t as being an I(1) variable.[16]

4.2 System Estimation

We now undertake the system estimation of the SVEC describing the full dynamic behavior of the variables included in the macroeconomic model. The SVEC embeds the structural long-run relationships described before as the steady-state solution, while the short-run dynamics are estimated from the data without restrictions. Formally, the long-run relationships we identified previously in (4) are included in an otherwise unrestricted VAR in differences. In particular, the VAR includes lags of the differenced series of Mexico's macroeconomic variables, as well as the first lag, $\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t-1}$, of the deviations from the long-run equilibrium conditions (i.e., the error-correction terms). The U.S. interest rate and GDP also enter the VAR, although we assume these variables are weakly exogenous and, thus, are not supposed to respond to the lagged error-correcting terms. In error-correction form, the model to be estimated can be written as

$$\Delta \mathbf{z}_t = \mathbf{a} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\beta}'\widetilde{\mathbf{z}}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i \Delta \mathbf{z}_{t-i} + \mathbf{u}_t. \tag{5}$$

We first determine the specification of (5) by choosing its appropriate lag length and assessing whether it is appropriate to assume that the long-run solution may be represented by a set of four cointegrating relationship; that is, we test whether it is reasonable to set the rank of the $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ matrix to four. In this context, we first determine the lag order of the underlying VAR. In order to do so, we estimate a VAR in levels including $y_t, p_t, \Delta e_t, r_t, m_t^d, y_t^*, r_t^*$, and $p_t^* + e_t$. We also include the set of dummy variables and Δp_t^o, $\Delta \widetilde{r}_t^*$, and Δpp_t^* with one lag as exogenous variables. We carry out all computations over the period 1990:Q1 to 2015:Q4. Table 4 shows the results from

[16] Treating inflation as a variable without a stochastic trend is consistent with our sample corresponding to a time period when fiscal dominance was absent (see Capistrán and Ramos-Francia 2009). For instance, Mexico started the public debt renegotiations with the so-called Brady Plan on July 1989.

Table 4. Lag Length Selection

Lags	**AIC**	**HQ**	**FPE$\times$10^{-35}**	**LM(k)**
1	−79.00	−77.51	5.93	0.00
2	−79.76	−77.61*	2.96*	0.36
3	−79.88	−77.07	2.97	0.09
4	−80.05*	−76.59	3.04	0.33

Notes: AIC is the Akaike information criterion, HQ is the Hannan-Quinn criterion, and FPE is the final prediction error. LM is the p-value of the LM test for autocorrelation of order k. An asterisk (*) denotes the suggested lag order for the VAR estimated from 1990:Q1 to 2015:Q4.

the application of different lag-order selection criteria: the Akaike information criterion (AIC), the Hannan-Quinn criterion (HQ), and Lütkepohl's final prediction error (FPE). Notice that the AIC points to a lag order of 4, whereas the HQ and FPE criteria favor a lag of order $p = 2$. The table also displays the p-values associated with the LM test for autocorrelation of lag order k. We proceed with a lag length of 2 because, given our sample size, considering a higher number of lags did not seem appropriate, as the number of coefficients to be estimated would rise quickly. Moreover, a lag order of 2 is able to remove autocorrelation from the residuals.[17]

Having decided on the lag order of the VAR, we now need to determine the appropriate number of cointegrating relationships that should be included (or cointegrating rank, R). To do so, we compute the corresponding trace test statistics. Note that the usual critical values for these may not be applicable in our model, given the inclusion of the dummy variables and of a set of weakly exogenous variables. We therefore simulate the critical values for the test.[18] Table 5 shows the eigenvalues and the trace statistic, together with their simulated 5 percent critical values and the corresponding tests' p-values. Note that the test indicates the presence of four cointegrating vectors, that is $R = 4$. This seems a sensible choice, considering

[17] We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting this additional criterion.

[18] See the details of the CATS procedure to simulate these critical values in Dennis (2006).

Table 5. Trace Test and Simulated Critical Values

Rank	Eigenvalue	Trace	95% Crit.	P-value
0	0.83	393.35	170.23	0.00
1	0.54	213.67	134.28	0.00
2	0.43	134.28	101.28	0.00
3	0.37	77.55	72.46	0.02
4	0.21	29.95	46.75	0.56
5	0.06	6.41	24.34	0.93

Notes: The sample period is 1990:Q1 to 2015:Q4. Critical values are simulated with 5,000 replications.

the four long-run theoretical restrictions described in the previous section.

Given the results above, we now restrict the cointegrating space to include the four long-run relationships identified with the ARDL models described previously. In particular, we impose over-identifying restrictions on $\boldsymbol{\beta}'$ as in (4). To test the validity of these restrictions, we conduct a likelihood-ratio (LR) test as outlined in Garratt et al. (2006). We first define a set of $R^2 = 16$ exactly identifying restrictions on $\boldsymbol{\beta}'$ as a subset of those contained in (4) as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}'_{EI} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{1,1} & 1 & \beta_{1,2} & \beta_{1,3} & \beta_{1,4} & \beta_{1,5} & \beta_{1,6} & \beta_{1,7} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta_{2,2} & \beta_{2,3} & 1 & \beta_{2,5} & \beta_{2,6} & 0 & \beta_{2,8} & 0 & \beta_{2,10} & 0 & \beta_{2,12} \\ \beta_{3,1} & 0 & \beta_r & \beta_{3,4} & 1 & 0 & 0 & \beta_{3,8} & \beta_{D914} & \beta_{3,10} & 0 & \beta_{3,12} \\ 1 & 0 & \beta_{4,3} & \beta_{4,4} & 0 & 0 & \beta_{4,7} & \beta_{4,8} & 0 & \beta_{D091} & \beta_{D121} & \beta_{D151} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{6}$$

The over-identified model contains forty-seven restrictions: thirty-nine directly seen in (4) and eight that stem from the fact that r_t^* and y_t^* are assumed to be weakly exogenous. Hence there are twenty-three over-identifying restrictions, and the LR test statistic should distribute as a chi-square with 23 degrees of freedom (Pesaran and Shin 2002). However, given the relatively large dimension of the VAR model and the available degrees of freedom, we proceed to test the significance of the LR statistic using critical values computed using bootstrapping techniques.[19] We obtain the critical values from a parametric bootstrap with 1,000 replications. For each replication, we generate an artificial data set, assuming first that (6) is the cointegrating matrix of the data generating process and then that (4) is so. We do this using the observed initial values of each variable, the estimated model under both sets of restrictions, and a set of random innovations, and taking the (weakly) exogenous variables as fixed across replications.[20]

We carry out the LR test on the validity of the over-identifying restrictions on each of the simulated data sets, and we compute the empirical distribution of the test statistic across all the replications. The LR test statistic is 93.56, while the simulated critical values are 148.95 for the 5 percent and 141.11 for the 10 percent significance levels. Interestingly, our estimates from the full VAR model fail to reject the validity of the imposed long-run over-identifying restrictions.

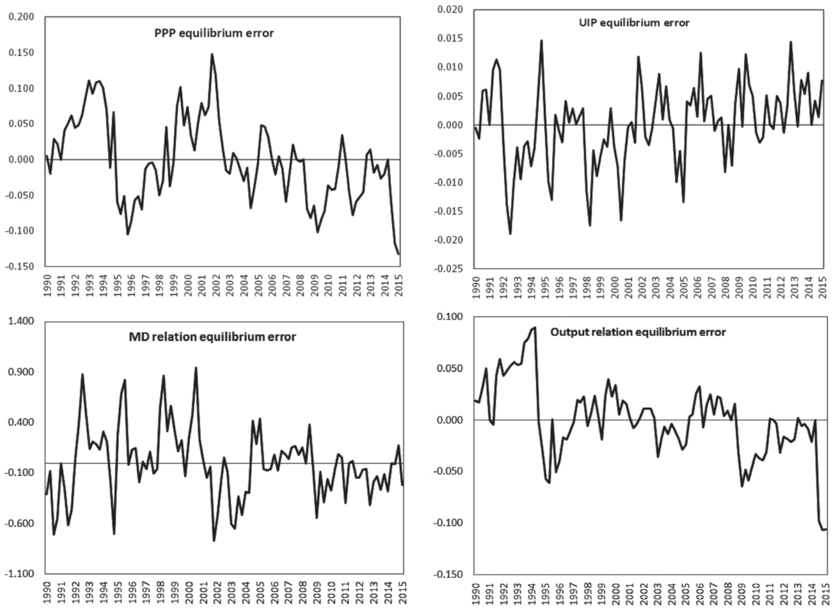
We now turn to a brief description of the results of the estimation of $\boldsymbol{\beta}'$ in (4). The estimation method employed is quasi maximum likelihood.[21] As previously mentioned, apart from constant terms, only five long-run coefficients are estimated unrestrictedly (the semi-elasticity of money demand with respect to the interest rate and the coefficients for the shift dummies). We fix the rest of the long-run coefficients at their theoretical values. The estimate of the semi-elasticity of money demand with respect to the interest rate is -55.434, with a t-statistic of -18.891. This result means, as expected, that money demand responds negatively to the interest rate. On the other hand, the $D914_t$ shift dummy enters the money demand equation with a coefficient of -0.015, which is estimated imprecisely (its t-statistic is -0.112). The shift dummies

[19]The asymptotic approximation is only valid when relatively large samples of data are available (see Abadir, Hadri, and Tzavalis 1999). However, even if the asymptotic distribution were valid, the bootstrap often greatly reduces the error in the rejection probability typically found when using small sample sizes (Horowitz 2001).

[20]The random innovations are obtained from a normal multivariate distribution with mean equal to zero and a covariance matrix equal to the covariance matrix estimated from the residuals of each model.

[21]See Pesaran and Shin (2002) for the properties of quasi maximum likelihood in this context.

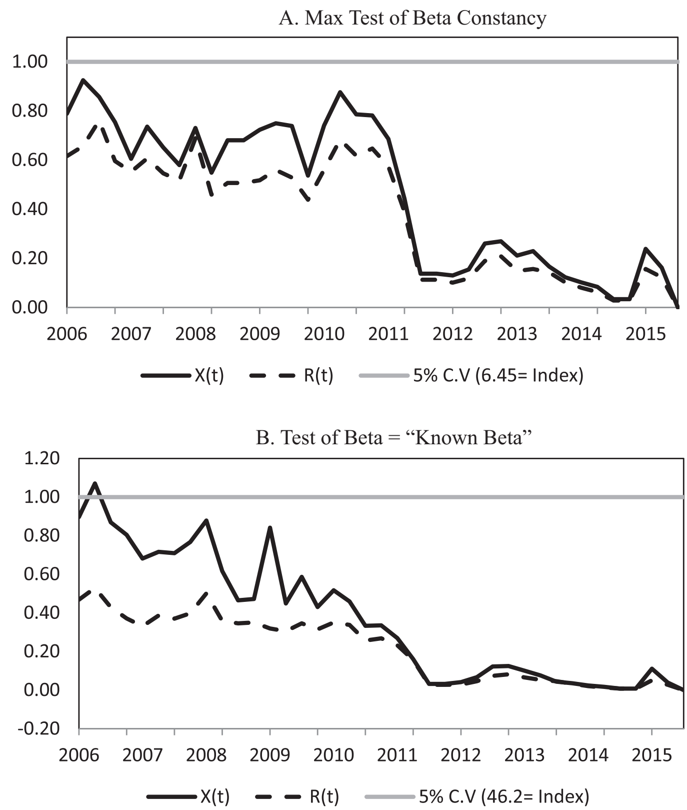
Figure 8. Cointegrating Relationships



included in the OUT relationship are all positive and significant at the 5 percent level; $D091_t$ has an associated parameter 0.065 with a t-statistic of 5.761; $D121_t$ has an associated parameter 0.028 with a t-statistic of 2.058; and $D151_t$ has an associated parameter 0.120 with a t-statistic of 5.321.

The time plots of the four cointegrating relationships are shown in figure 8. In particular, we plot each equilibrium error, corrected for short-run dynamics. We should expect these series to be stationary. We note that, although deviations from PPP seem to be relatively persistent, there indeed seems to be an error-correcting behavior that leads this equilibrium error to be stationary. The UIP condition and the money demand function seem to exhibit an even clearer error-correcting behavior. Finally, apart from the large shocks during the Tequila Crisis (1994–95), the financial crisis in 2009, and the last part of the sample in 2015, deviations from the output long-run relationship seem to behave in a stationary fashion, although they are also quite persistent.

Figure 9. Test of Beta



As a last robustness check, we test the recursive stability of the long-run estimates by means of the approach in Hansen and Johansen (1999). In particular, starting from a base sample going from 1990:Q1 to 2006:Q2, we reestimate recursively the model, adding an additional observation at a time. Let $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(T)}$ denote the estimate of the long-run parameters using the full sample, and $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(t)}$ denote the estimate using a sample going from 1990:Q1 to t, for $t =$ 2006:Q3....2015:Q4. Then, we compute two tests for the constancy of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. Figure 9 displays the max test on the difference between $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(T)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(t)}$ (max test of beta constancy) in panel A and the recursive test of $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(T)} \in span\{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(t)}\}$ (test of beta = "known beta"; see Dennis 2006) in panel B. We scale the test statistics by the corresponding 5 percent critical value, so that a test statistic larger than unity would lead to a rejection of the null of stability. We include the test statistics when all the parameters are reestimated in each recursion (X form) and when the short-run dynamics are concentrated out with the full sample estimates (R form). As may be noted, we find no evidence of structural instability in the long-run cointegration relationships with the max test, and only one period of instability about 2006:Q2 when looking at the known beta test without correcting for short-run dynamics. Had we scaled the test statistics in this case with the 10 percent critical value, we would not be able to reject the null of stability.[22] We should note that, even if most of the long-run parameters were fixed from the start, an important misspecification would lead to instability of the parameters that were indeed estimated.

4.3 Error-Correction Equations

We now turn to a brief analysis of the estimates of the reduced-form error-correction equations. Table 6 summarizes these estimates and includes some diagnostic test statistics. The deviations from the long-run relationships are statistically significant, at conventional levels, in several equations. In particular, deviations from PPP, $\xi_{1,t-1}$, are statistically significant in the equation for the domestic interest rate and domestic prices, suggesting that the latter tend to adjust to attain PPP in the long-run through short-run changes in the level of inflation. Domestic prices also respond in a statistically significant manner, with a positive sign, to positive deviations of GDP from its long-run relationship with U.S. output, $\xi_{4,t-1}$. In turn, as expected, real money balances adjust to correct short-run deviations from money demand, $\xi_{3,t-1}$. Similarly, domestic output exhibits a significant error-correcting behavior with respect to deviations from its long-run equilibrium relation with the U.S. output level. These deviations, in turn, also enter significantly into the money and interest rate equations. Finally, it is worth mentioning that interest rate changes seem to lead to an appreciation of the currency and to an error-correcting behavior of the interest rate. The first of these results would seem to be consistent with a Dornbusch

[22] When we test with an estimation sample that runs from 1990:Q1 to 2008:Q2, that is, prior to the financial crisis, we find no evidence of instability.

Table 6. Reduced-Form Error-Correction Equations

	Δp_t	$\Delta(p_t^* + e_t)$	Δm_t^d	Δy_t	Δr_t	$\Delta\Delta e_t$	Δy_t^*	Δr_t^*
$\xi_{1,t-1}$	-0.078^{***}	0.059	0.055	0.004	-0.043^{**}	0.051	—	—
	(0.02)	(0.144)	(0.066)	(0.023)	(0.02)	(0.145)		
$\xi_{2,t-1}$	0.044	0.563	-2.504^{***}	-0.134	0.338	0.165	—	—
	(0.216)	(1.599)	(0.737)	(0.25)	(0.217)	(1.603)		
$\xi_{3,t-1}$	0.005	0.007	-0.049^{***}	-0.003	0.002	0.000	—	—
	(0.004)	(0.032)	(0.015)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.032)		
$\xi_{4,t-1}$	0.148^{***}	0.255	-0.303^{***}	-0.092^{**}	0.116^{***}	0.267	—	—
	(0.031)	(0.232)	(0.107)	(0.036)	(0.031)	(0.233)		
Δp_{t-1}	0.238^{**}	-0.132	0.536	0.217^{*}	-0.154	-0.211	0.041	-0.007
	(0.104)	(0.768)	(0.354)	(0.120)	(0.104)	(0.770)	(0.071)	(0.008)
$\Delta(p_{t-1}^* + e_{t-1})$	0.078	0.086	2.170^{***}	0.024	-0.294	-0.502	0.003	0.003
	(0.214)	(1.582)	(0.729)	(0.247)	(0.214)	(1.586)	(0.146)	(0.017)
Δm_{t-1}^d	-0.012	-0.172	0.074	0.022	-0.031^{*}	-0.178	0.014	0.000
	(0.016)	(0.119)	(0.055)	(0.019)	(0.016)	(0.120)	(0.011)	(0.001)
Δy_{t-1}	-0.129	0.577	0.522	0.237^{**}	-0.106	0.580	0.158^{**}	0.013
	(0.097)	(0.716)	(0.330)	(0.112)	(0.097)	(0.718)	(0.066)	(0.008)
Δr_{t-1}	-0.241	-2.812^{**}	-0.125	0.170	-0.440^{***}	-2.849^{**}	0.153	-0.003
	(0.146)	(1.080)	(0.497)	(0.168)	(0.146)	(1.082)	(0.099)	(0.012)
$\Delta\Delta e_{t-1}$	0.031	-0.145	0.074	0.024	0.018	-0.159	-0.011	-0.003^{**}
	(0.020)	(0.147)	(0.068)	(0.023)	(0.020)	(0.148)	(0.014)	(0.002)
Δy_{t-1}^*	0.034	-0.429	-0.431	0.185	0.110	-0.458	0.383^{***}	0.056^{***}
	(0.171)	(1.263)	(0.582)	(0.197)	(0.171)	(1.266)	(0.116)	(0.014)
Δr_{t-1}^*	0.506	15.311^{**}	-5.820^{*}	0.162	2.031^{**}	15.501^{**}	0.257	0.578^{***}
	(0.944)	(6.975)	(3.213)	(1.089)	(0.944)	(6.991)	(0.643)	(0.075)
R^2	0.909	0.303	0.821	0.630	0.411	0.612	0.398	0.662
Ser. Corr. Test	1.287	0.055	1.87	1.582	1.511	0.039	4.23^{**}	1.475
p-value	0.257	0.815	0.171	0.209	0.219	0.843	0.040	0.225
Normality Test	36.246^{***}	248.134^{***}	61.739^{***}	63.94^{***}	132.254^{***}	255.467^{***}	7.339^{**}	24.287^{***}
p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.025	0.000
ARCH(2) Test	1.493	0.049	0.168	0.132	0.009	0.047	5.253^{*}	1.578
p-value	0.474	0.976	0.919	0.936	0.995	0.977	0.072	0.454
RESET Test	86.415^{***}	8.956^{***}	5.142^{**}	11.963^{***}	49.262^{***}	6.948^{***}	0.235	0.238
p-value	0.000	0.004	0.026	0.001	0.000	0.010	0.629	0.627

Notes: Standard errors are included in parentheses. The error-correction terms $\xi_{i,t-1}$ are defined in the main text. The estimates related to the dummy variables are $\beta_{D914} = 0.015$ (0.136), $\beta_{D091} = -0.065$ (0.011), $\beta_{D121} = -0.028$ (0.014), and $\beta_{D151} = -0.120$ (0.023). Constants are not shown. *, **, and *** denote significance at the 10 percent, 5 percent, and 1 percent level, respectively. "Serial correlation test" refers to a Breusch-Godfrey serial correlation LM test. "Normality test" refers to a Doornik-Hansen test for normality.

(1976) type of mechanism. That is, a monetary policy shock (here assumed to correspond to a rise in the interest rate) would lead to an appreciation of the currency that overshoots the exchange rate's long-run response. This holds until its value is consistent with devaluation expectations that, given the increase in the domestic interest rate, satisfy the UIP condition. We will see further results supporting the presence of this mechanism below.

Concerning the results of the diagnostic statistics, the Doornik and Hansen (2008) test for normality suggests that the residuals of all equations corresponding to domestic variables exhibit non-normality. A visual analysis of the residuals suggests that this reflects large outliers associated with the first quarter of 1995, when the Tequila Crisis kicked in. By reestimating the model with a dummy accounting for these outliers, we find that the departure from normality derived from this shock does not seem to have significant effects on our main findings, particularly since we are estimating through quasi maximum likelihood. In contrast with the strong rejection of normality, ARCH tests cannot reject the null of homoskedasticity of errors in any of the equations, while serial correlation LM tests reject the null of no serial correlation at a 10 percent significance level only in the case of the U.S. GDP. Finally, a Ramsey RESET test rejects the null of no misspecification for all cases except for the U.S. GDP and U.S. interest rate. However, trying to correct for this problem by including further lags would possibly imply a significant loss of degrees of freedom.

5. Impulse Response Analysis

In this section, we illustrate the dynamic properties of the model estimated previously by means of the relevant impulse response functions. While the long-run response of each endogenous variable is ultimately driven by the long-run relationships that are embedded in the model, the study of the short-run dynamic responses to different shocks, as summarized by these impulse response functions, may be relevant in its own right for forecasting and policymaking. This analysis may give a more complete picture of the short-run dynamics of the system than the partial, equation-by-equation, results presented above.

We first analyze the response of each variable to non-structural shocks. In particular, we illustrate the effect of a one-standard-error shock to each variable on the time path of all the endogenous variables in the model. The analysis is based on the computation of generalized impulse response functions (GIRFs) (see Koop, Pesaran, and Potter 1996 and Pesaran and Shin 1998). The GIRFs are invariant to the ordering of the variables in the VAR and do not require specific identifying assumptions. Instead, their computation relies on the estimated reduced-form errors covariances that consider the contemporaneous linkages between shocks that have prevailed historically.

Having described the main dynamic properties of the model through the use of GIRFs, we conduct an exercise intended to identify the dynamic response of the main endogenous variables of the model to a monetary policy shock. We do not attempt to describe the effects of other structural shocks. To identify the monetary policy shock, in this particular exercise we rely on a Cholesky decomposition based on a specific ordering of the variables in the VAR, as suggested by Sims (1980). In particular, we follow an identification approach that satisfies a recursiveness assumption, wherein we suppose that monetary policy shocks are orthogonal to the information set that the monetary authority is assumed to have when setting its policy instrument (see Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans 1999 and Garratt et al. 2003).

Specifically, we assume that when Mexico's central bank makes its monetary policy decisions, reflected in the short-run interest rate, it observes the current values of the U.S. interest rates and output levels, the foreign prices in domestic currency, and the domestic price level. This assumption allows us to identify a monetary policy feedback rule that sets the interest rate as a function of current values of these variables and of lags of all variables in the system.[23] This,

[23]Garratt et al. (2003) show that this identification scheme may be rationalized by a decision-based approach in which an interest rate policy rule is derived by assuming that the central bank minimizes a quadratic loss function in inflation and output growth. The latter is subject to a structural model that links the interest rate to the target variables, conditioning on the available information. Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999) choose not to include current GDP after the interest rate solely on the basis that a restrictive shock to the latter implies a non-negative response of the former. We, however, do not encounter

along with the recursiveness assumption, allows us to recover the series of monetary policy shocks which, in this context, are orthogonal to current shocks in U.S. interest rates and output levels, foreign prices in domestic currency, domestic prices, and lags of all variables in the system.[24]

To make this identification scheme operational, we order the variables in the VAR as follows:

$$\mathbf{z}_t = \left(r_t^*, y_t^*, e_t + p_t^*, p_t, \vdots\, r_t, \vdots\, \Delta e_t, y_t, m_t^d \right)', \tag{7}$$

that is, we order the equations in the VAR so that all variables whose current values are assumed to be known by the central bank locate prior to the interest rate equation, while those that are assumed to be observed with a lag locate at the end of the $\mathbf{z}_t$ vector. With the ordering (7), the Cholesky decomposition-based impulse responses of each variable to shocks in the interest rate equation may be interpreted as the dynamic responses of each variable to the monetary policy shock.[25] As shown in Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999) and in Garratt et al. (2003), these dynamic responses will be invariant to the particular ordering of the equations within the

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such a puzzle and follow the more sensible assumption that the central bank does not know the current level of GDP at the time of the shock, as argued by Rudebusch (1998).

[24]Results are invariant to the inclusion of the peso–dollar exchange rate before or after the interest rate in the recursive order of the VAR. We choose the latter ordering since our main concern is to assess the effect of monetary policy on the exchange rate. We thank an anonymous referee for this suggestion. Note that this identification scheme in turn implies that, in the VAR, foreign prices in domestic currency, domestic prices, U.S. interest rates, and output levels can only respond with a lag to monetary policy shocks.

[25]For this exercise, we are considering the short-term interest rate as the monetary policy instrument. However, during our sample Banco de México has used different monetary policy instruments. Before the Tequila Crisis, Mexico had a target zone for the exchange rate. With the crisis, Mexico was forced to float the currency, and between 1995 and January 2008, Banco de México used a nonborrowed reserve requirements target, called the "Corto," to affect interest rates. Nonetheless, by April 2004, Banco de México had started to send signals to the market about its desired level of interest rates, although the de jure switch to the use of the overnight interest rate as the monetary policy instrument was made in January 2008 (Banco de México 1996, 2007).

blocks of variables that appear before and after the interest rate in the VAR.[26]

5.1 Response to Non-structural Shocks

Figures 10–12 illustrate the response of each endogenous variable to a unit standard error shock in each of the variables in the model.[27] As discussed before, these are responses to observable, non-structural shocks. Thus, it is hard to identify the underlying mechanisms that lead to the dynamic correlations that are illustrated in these GIRFs. In particular, while these impulse response functions summarize the dynamic interrelation observed historically among the variables in the model, they may not be directly linked to the response to any particular structural shock. This limits the economic interpretation of these functions. It is important to emphasize from the start, however, that the identification of these responses may be especially reliant on the large macroeconomic shock that led to the crisis of the Mexican economy of the mid-90s, in which a large devaluation led to high inflation and a decrease in money demand, in a context of a deep recession and high interest rates. As may be seen in figures 10–12, the historical (reduced-form) correlation observed among the variables in the model suggests the presence of positive links between the dynamics of exchange rate, prices, and interest rates, as well as a negative correlation of these variables with money demand and output.

Concerning the responses of output to different observable shocks displayed in figure 10A, there are several findings that deserve attention. As expected, in the long-run, Mexico's GDP is fundamentally determined by shocks in U.S. output levels. In the short run, however, output also responds in a non-negligible way to other shocks. In particular, GDP seems to respond negatively to exchange rate, prices, and interest rate shocks. The response to exchange rate shocks is larger in absolute value than the response to prices in the short run. Results seem to suggest that real devaluations may

[26] If we were interested in identifying the dynamic effects of other structural shocks, then the ordering of the variables in the blocks that appear before and after the interest rate would become relevant.

[27] We used the response functions of the depreciation rate and of the price level to compute the implied responses of the exchange rate and the inflation rate.

Figure 10. Generalized Impulse Response Functions of GDP and Domestic Price Level

A. Generalized Responses of GDP

B. Generalized Responses of Price Level

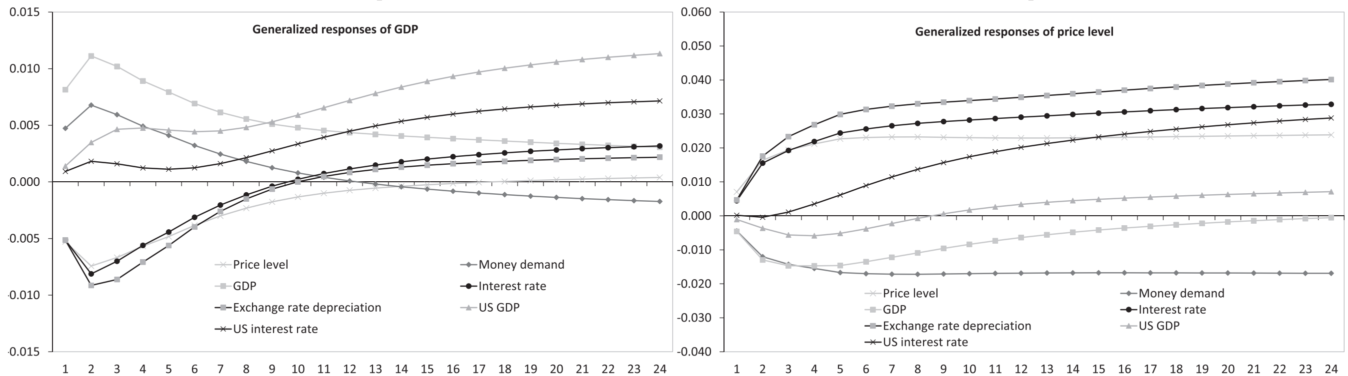
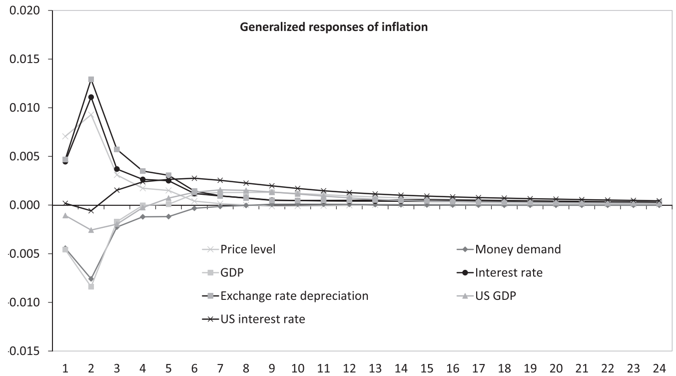


Figure 11. Generalized Impulse Response Functions of Inflation and the Exchange Rate

A. Generalized Responses of Inflation



B. Generalized Responses of Exchange Rate

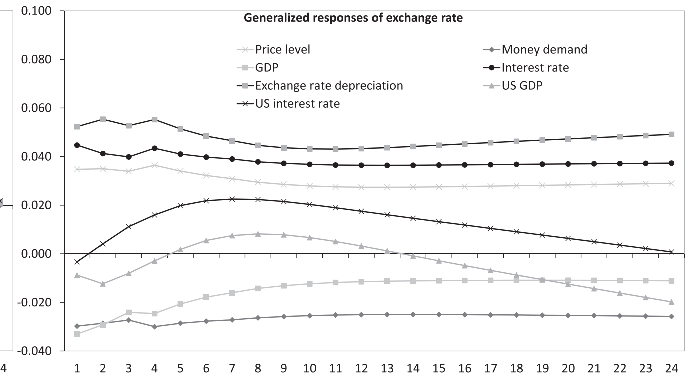
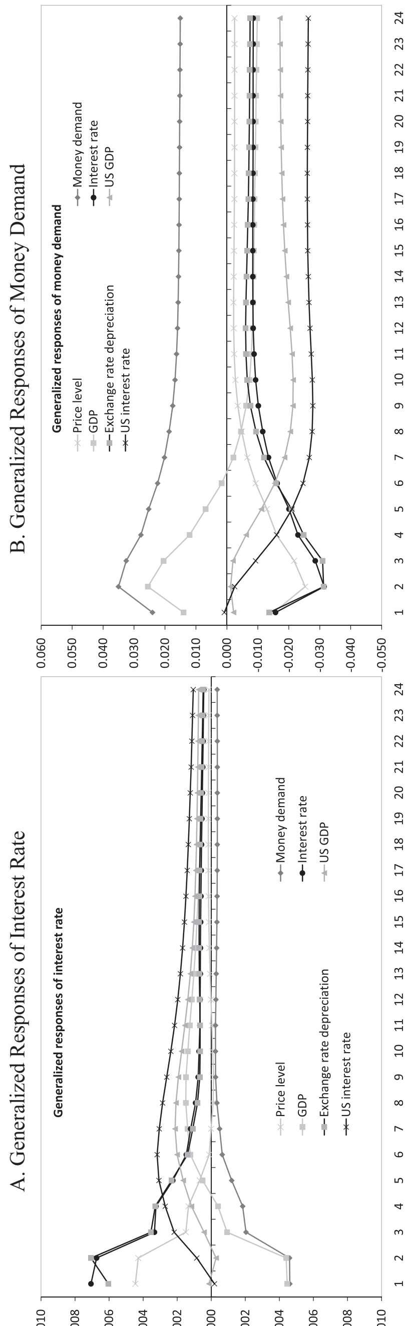


Figure 12. Generalized Impulse Response Functions of the Interest Rate and Money Demand



have an initially negative impact on domestic demand that offsets their positive effect on exports, so that their net effect on output is negative in the short run.[28] In the long run, however, the depreciation of the exchange rate does have an expansionary effect on domestic GDP. Indeed, this mechanism seems to be driving the positive response of domestic GDP to an increase in the U.S. interest rate, since the latter causes a depreciation (see figure 11B) and, in turn, a decrease in the relative price of Mexican exports. On the other hand, while the short-run negative response of output to domestic interest rate shocks could in principle reflect a monetary transmission mechanism, we will show in the identification exercise below that the apparent negative response of output to monetary policy shocks seems to be much more delayed than what the results described here suggest. Thus, the apparent negative short-run response of output to interest rate shocks we find here seems to be driven mainly by some other unobservable shock that leads simultaneously to increases in interest rates and decreases in output levels.

According to the GIRFs analysis, inflation increases temporarily after an exchange rate shock is observed (see figure 11A). This is the mechanism through which the domestic price level adjusts to satisfy the purchasing power parity condition in the long run (see figure 10B). In contrast, as expected, a money demand shock seems to lead to a reduction in inflationary pressures. Also as expected, after approximately one year, demand pressures as measured by shocks to Mexican or U.S. GDP levels seem to increase inflation temporarily.

[28] This result may be linked to the literature on the contractionary effects of devaluations. In particular, while a real devaluation may stimulate output by inducing an increase in the production and exports of traded goods, this result could be offset in the short run by balance sheet effects, by a contraction of supply when imported inputs and capital are used in production, or by a redistribution of resources towards groups with higher propensities to save. In this context, the net effect on output of a real devaluation could become negative (see Diaz-Alejandro 1963; Krugman and Taylor 1978; Agénor 1991; Gavin 1992; Céspedes, Chang, and Velasco 2004; and Frankel 2005). The empirical evidence from developing countries tends to suggest that these mechanisms may indeed be sufficiently strong to induce a negative effect of devaluations on output (see Edwards 1989 and Moreno 1999). For the particular case of Mexico, Kamin and Rogers (2000) find evidence that real devaluations are contractionary. The negative response of output to real exchange rate shocks in the short run that we uncover in our analysis is consistent with their findings.

A result that may seem odd but resembles the findings in Racette and Raynauld (1992), Sims (1992), and Grilli and Roubini (1995), is the fact that an increase of the domestic interest rate seems to lead to a temporary increase in inflation and to a depreciation of the currency, as shown in figures 11A and 11B, respectively. That is, these impulse response functions exhibit both the price and the exchange rate puzzles. If we consider a monetary transmission mechanism when UIP holds, we would expect a negative response of inflation and a quick appreciation of the currency, followed by a gradual depreciation, after an interest rate shock consistent with Dornbusch (1976). As mentioned before, however, in this GIRFs analysis we do not claim to be identifying the response to structural shocks in general, nor to monetary policy shocks in particular. Indeed, the results we find here could be affected by two-way causality between the interest rate and the exchange rate. In particular, the monetary authority could be reacting endogenously to exchange rate shocks by raising interest rates to avoid their inflationary consequences; consistent with this possibility, we find a strong positive response of the interest rate to shocks in the exchange rate (see figure 12A). This response would make it difficult to uncover the causal relation going from the interest rate to the exchange rate, unless we use a specific identification strategy to isolate exogenous monetary policy shocks. This is the main insight of Cushman and Zha (1997) and Bjørnland (2009). We pursue this in the next subsection.

We observe that money demand shocks tend to lead to an appreciation of the currency, while U.S. interest rate shocks tend to depreciate it; both phenomena are displayed in figure 11B. These results seem to be driven by the effects of investors' portfolio decisions on the foreign exchange market. In particular, an increase in the demand for pesos would tend to reduce demand pressures in the foreign exchange market, while an increase in the foreign interest rate would lead to a depreciation of the exchange rate.

Responses of domestic interest rates are shown in figure 12A. We already noted that they seem to show an especially strong short-run positive response to exchange rate and price shocks. We also note a positive response of domestic interest rates to shocks in the U.S. interest rates. For a given exchange rate, this seems to be associated with the UIP condition identified previously. The estimated response of interest rates to domestic and foreign output shocks is positive for horizons beyond four quarters. This could suggest that we are either identifying the positive effect on interest rates from demand shocks (i.e., shifts of the IS schedule) or a monetary policy rule responding to demand shocks.

Money demand responds positively to output shocks in the short run but, in contrast with the long-run relationship identified previously, the response seems to turn negative after several quarters (see figure 12B). This holds even when the money demand long-run relationship is satisfied by the GIRFs illustrated here. The reason why this odd result may be appearing is that, as already seen, an output shock also leads to an increase in interest rates after several quarters, which itself reduces money demand directly and indirectly through an eventual negative effect on output itself. Finally, an increase in interest rates, prices, and the exchange rate seems to be negatively correlated with money demand.

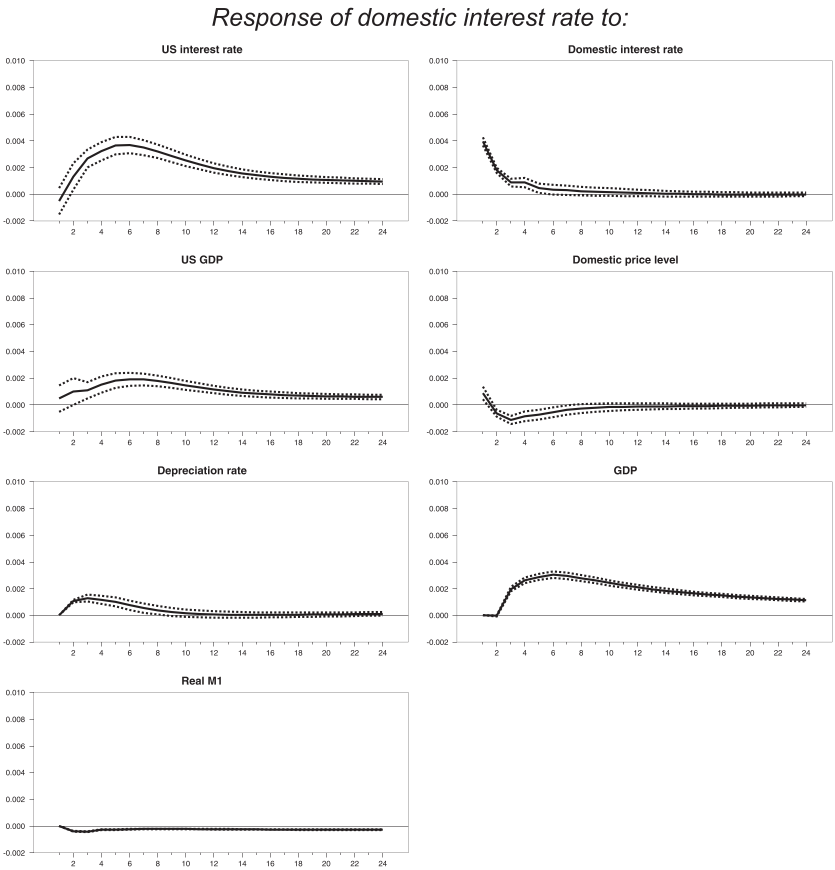
5.2 Responses to a Monetary Policy Shock

We first discuss the main features of the monetary policy rule implied by the recursive identification given by the Cholesky ordering in (7). Figure 13 contains the orthogonalized shocks. To illustrate the statistical significance of the estimated responses, we approximate their distribution with a Monte Carlo integration exercise.[29] Following Sims and Zha (1999), we show the 16 percent and 84 percent quantiles from these distributions as confidence bands. These quantiles would correspond to approximately one standard deviation if we were doing symmetrical error bands based upon estimates of the variance. As may be noted, the estimated responses of the short-term interest rate to diverse shocks are sensible and consistent with a standard monetary policy rule.[30] In particular, the monetary authority seems to increase interest rates after demand shocks or perceived inflationary pressures. This is evident by noting that interest rates

[29]The exercise was conducted using the RATS software. The procedure computes the first moments and variances of the posterior distribution of the orthogonalized impulse responses, using a Monte Carlo integration exercise based on Zellner (1971). We conducted 5,000 replications of the estimates for the impulse response functions. For further details, see example 13.3 in Doan (2004).

[30]We restrict the scale of the vertical axis in all the graphs that appear in figure 13 to be the same, given that they all show the effect on the interest rate.

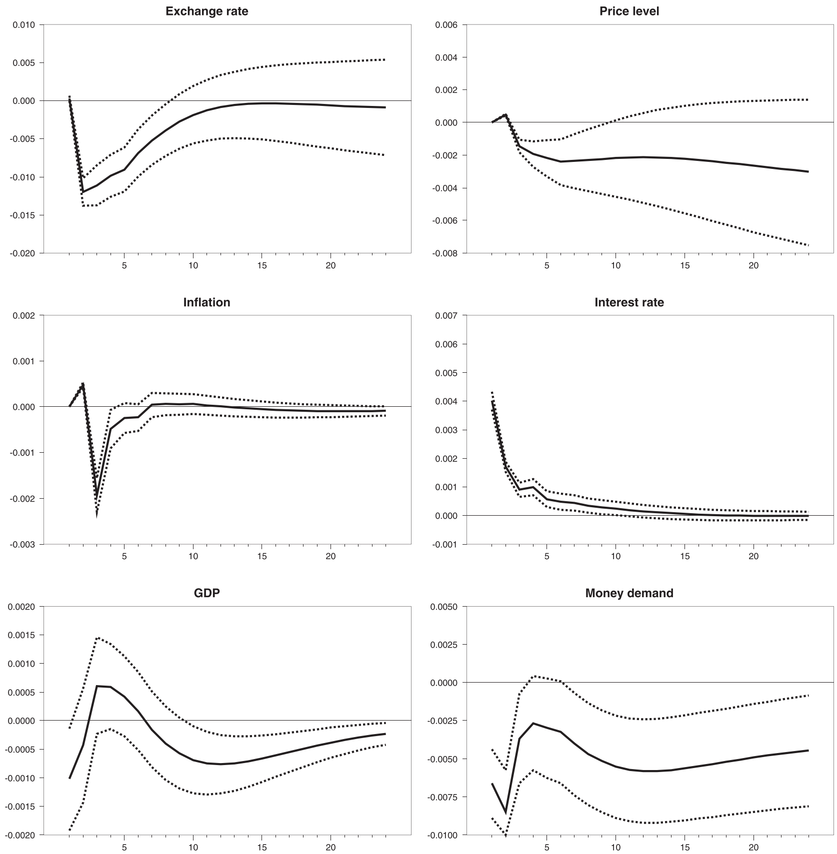
Figure 13. Impulse Response Functions from a Monetary Policy Rule



Note: The 16 percent and 84 percent quantiles from the posterior distributions are displayed as dotted lines.

rise after both Mexico and U.S. output shocks, or after an exchange rate shock (which, as noted before, tends to lead to higher inflation). This policy-induced response of the interest rate to exchange rate shocks is precisely the mechanism that we claim may have made it difficult to identify a Dornbusch type of response of the exchange rate in the previous subsection. We note that interest rates also rise after a shock to U.S. interest rates. This may reflect the fact that, to avoid an unwanted depreciation of the currency that could lead

Figure 14. Impulse Response Functions to a Monetary Policy Shock



Note: The 16 percent and 84 percent quantiles from the posterior distributions are displayed as dotted lines.

to higher inflation, the monetary authority would need to increase domestic rates after an increase in foreign interest rates.

We now illustrate the response of the economy to a monetary policy shock, as identified through the recursive ordering in (7) described previously. Figure 14 summarizes the results. As before, impulse responses include the 16 percent and 84 percent quantiles from the distribution approximated with the Monte Carlo integration exercise. In general, results are consistent with prior expectations concerning the response the economy should exhibit to a monetary contraction. An important result, in contrast with those of the previous subsection, is that our identification strategy leads to responses that do not exhibit the price or the exchange rate puzzles anymore.

In particular, results suggest that the main mechanism through which monetary policy affects inflation in Mexico seems to be fundamentally linked to its short-run effects on the exchange rate which, in turn, is a significant determinant of the price level. The mechanism that leads to these results seems to be consistent with a Dornbusch (1976) type model: a contractionary monetary policy shock induces a strong immediate appreciation of the exchange rate, followed by a gradual depreciation.[31] The timing and the direction of the exchange rate response to a monetary policy shock we uncover here is similar to those found by Bjørnland (2009) for other small open economies.[32]

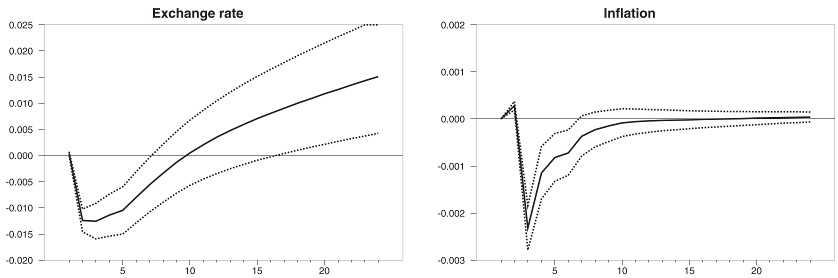
This result, in turn, is reflected in the response of prices to the monetary policy shock. Driven by the quick effect that the monetary policy shock has on the nominal exchange rate, a monetary contraction seems to lead to a temporary reduction in inflation.[33] In particular, a tightening of monetary policy tends to temporarily appreciate

[31]The support we find for Dornbusch's (1976) overshooting result may in part reflect the fact that we imposed UIP as one of the long-run restrictions in our model. It is relevant to recall, however, that we tested the validity of this restriction before imposing it, both in the single-equation analysis and within the full-system estimation. Moreover, the Cholesky identification scheme implies that the Mexican interest rate shock may be a spillover from a U.S. interest rate shock. To disentangle domestic from foreign monetary policy shocks, we imposed a zero restriction on the U.S. interest rate at the time of the shock by moving said rate to the end of the Cholesky ordering. Impulse responses for the level of the exchange rate and inflation are displayed in figure 15. We note that the main results for inflation are maintained, while those for the exchange rate change very slightly. We do not find evidence of a delayed overshooting, although the exchange rate remains constant for one period and then continuously appreciates. We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting this robustness check.

[32]Using an identification strategy that allowed for contemporaneous effects, Bjørnland (2009) found that the maximum impact on the exchange rate occurred within one to two quarters. The response we find is also very sharp, and more in line with the Dornbusch effect than with delayed overshooting.

[33]The initial response of inflation to an increase of the interest rate may be rationalized as a one-time increase in the credit costs for producers. We note nonetheless that said response is particularly small.

Figure 15. Impulse Response Functions to a Domestic Monetary Policy Shock Imposing a Zero Restriction on the U.S. Interest Rate at the Time of the Shock



Note: The 16 percent and 84 percent quantiles from the posterior distributions are displayed as dotted lines.

the domestic currency and, through this channel, reduce inflationary pressures. This transmission mechanism seems to be fairly fast, as the largest impact on inflation occurs within the first year after the shock. Moreover, both on impact and in the medium term, the monetary policy shock seems to have the expected negative effect on output.

Our results differ significantly from previous attempts to identify the exchange rate monetary transmission mechanism in Mexico in different dimensions. First, the results presented in figure 14 do not show a delayed, hump-shaped response of the exchange rate to monetary policy shocks that violates uncovered interest parity (e.g., Martínez, Sánchez, and Werner 2001; Gaytán and García-González 2006). Second, previous studies have been unable to uncover significantly large effects on output and prices (e.g., Del Negro and Obiols-Homs 2001) or have found overall positive responses of output to monetary policy shocks that are hard to rationalize theoretically (e.g., Gaytán and García-González 2006). Just as in the case of the identification of an exchange rate overshooting mechanism, the reason why we are able to identify stronger and theoretically consistent output and price responses as opposed to the previous literature may be linked to our identification strategy and to the explicit use of long-run equilibrium conditions in our estimation procedure. We note that our results are broadly similar to those found by Carrillo and Elizondo (2015), but we use a model that considers explicitly long-run relationships and trends. At the same time, we use a more extended sample, which indicates that results are robust across different regimes of exchange rate and inflation.[34]

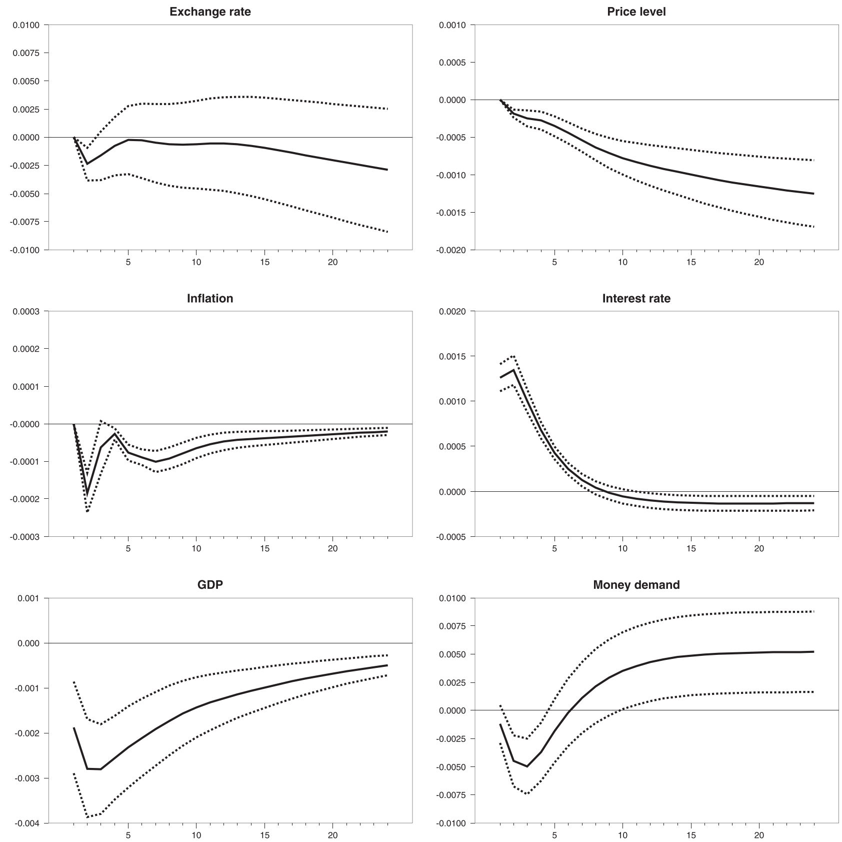
6. Concluding Remarks

In this paper we propose an approach that can be used to model a small open economy, such as Mexico, which allows us to uncover evidence consistent with Dornbusch's overshooting hypothesis. In particular, we find that four long-run relationships suggested by economic theory are satisfied by data in our sample: a purchasing power parity, an uncovered interest parity, a money demand, and a relationship between Mexico's and U.S. real outputs. We then use these relationships as the foundation of a structural vector error-correction model for the Mexican economy. The approach allows us to model the trends in the data directly, while leaving the short-run dynamics unrestricted. The model reflects that Mexico is a small open economy, with both real and financial links to the U.S. economy. In addition, the model includes money, a variable that has been missing in some models recently used by central banks but that plays an important role as suggested by our data.

The model we estimate can be used to analyze the dynamics of the Mexican economy and to produce forecasts. In this paper we have advanced in the former. First, we use the model to analyze the implied (unconditional) dynamics of the economy via the generalized impulse responses. We find positive links between the dynamics of the exchange rate, prices, and interest rates, as well as negative correlations of these variables with money and output. Second, we use the model to analyze the transmission mechanism of monetary policy, using a recursive strategy for identification. We find that a contractionary monetary policy shock seems to have a temporary negative effect on output and prices, and that it induces a sharp appreciation followed by a gradual depreciation of the exchange rate,

[34]We include in figure 16 the impulse response functions that result from reestimating the short-run dynamics of the VAR within the period 2001–15. The results are qualitatively similar to those included in figure 14. We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting this robustness check.

Figure 16. Impulse Response Functions to a Monetary Policy Shock (sample: 2001–15)



Note: The 16 percent and 84 percent quantiles from the posterior distributions are displayed as dotted lines.

as predicted by Dornbusch's overshooting hypothesis. The timing of the effects points to the exchange rate channel as one of the main channels through which monetary policy could be affecting prices in the Mexican economy.

Future research should look at the forecasting ability of the model. For this purpose, the long-run restrictions may help in terms of the typical tradeoff between bias and variance, since they may reduce the variance of the forecasting errors by reducing parameter uncertainty, without a large effect on the bias. The model can also be used as the core model to help specific, satellite, models, as advanced by Garratt et al. (2006)—for instance, a sectoral model to analyze output in different sectors of the economy, or a satellite model to analyze different components of inflation, such as the inflation of tradables and non-tradables. Under this approach, a block-recursive structure could allow variables and error-correction terms in the core model to influence the dynamics of the satellite models, but not vice versa.

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