

THE FORWARD PREMIUM PUZZLE REVISITED

by

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ABSTRACT

ANAN ZHUANG. The forward premium puzzle revisited. (Under the direction of
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The forward premium puzzle in currency markets is the standard empirical finding that the expected changes in currency exchange rates and interest rate differential are negatively correlated, implying a violation of uncovered interest rate parity in the data. This dissertation solves the forward premium puzzle by introducing a new generalized risk factor that consistently changes the negative slope to positive across 11 countries. In this dissertation, I conclude that, the forward premium puzzle is likely to be caused by large but infrequent shocks to the exchange spot rates. The shocks could be the market participants inability of forecasting the exchange rate movement given short-term information. Over the long run, the market participants are more likely to learn and make accurate forecasting which cause a less violation of the UIP at the long horizon. The second explanation is the carry trade holding risk. Over the long run, the carry trade unwinding happens which reduce the violation of the UIP. Finally, the empirical evidence shows that conventional theories of risk do not explain the forward premium puzzle.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

According to the hypothesis of uncovered interest rate parity (UIP), expected changes in the exchange rate between any currency pair should be positively related to the changes in the interest rates across the country currency pairs. In particular, the IRP hypothesis also implies that in the regression of exchange rate changes on the interest rate differentials, the slope coefficient should be one.¹

The forward premium puzzle, which is first famously defined in Fama (1984), reveals an empirical negative relationship between exchange rate changes and interest rate differentials for each of nine major currencies. This seminal paper is the first to conclusively explain the meaning of the negative slope and decompose a time varying risk premium from the forward exchange rates. The negative slope is due to the fact that the risk premium has large variance and is negatively correlated to the future exchange rate.² However, the author fails to provide a solution to the puzzle.

Among the previous attempts to solve the puzzle, the explanations fall into two main categories: (a) the foreign exchange risk premium which is perhaps time-varying

¹The forward premium puzzle is linked with IRP theory which suggests that, in any country's currency pair, the country with the higher interest rate should see its currency depreciate in the future spot market. If the forward rate equals the expected future spot rate, then ex-ante the two hypotheses are equivalent.

²Fama (1984) splits the forward rate, a purely deterministic rate in his setting, into an expected future spot rate and a risk premium. There are variations in both the risk premium and the expected depreciation of the spot rate components. However, this was a purely mechanical decomposition and there are multiple other potential ways of addressing the premiums in the forward market. Based on his conjecture of market efficiency and trader rationality, he attributes most of the variation in the forward currency rates to variation in the risk premium component without specifying what causes these risks. Most of the variations in forward currency rates are from the risk premium component.

and (b) investor's forecast error. The risk premium explanation assumes that investors in the foreign exchange market are rational and risk-averse. The risk premium is a compensation to investors for holding a volatile foreign asset. Thus, the interest rate differential across countries not only reflects the future exchange rate depreciation as shown in the UIP hypothesis, but also contains a risk premium as a hedge which causes a violation of the UIP hypothesis. As a result, the change of interest rate or the interest rate differential across country pairs is not an unbiased forecast of the expected exchange rate depreciation. However, a wide variety of economic models on risk premium fail to provide empirical evidence to correct the negative slope sign.³

An alternative class of explanation of the forward premium puzzle is the forecast error. Forecast error is defined as the difference between the exchange rate forecast and the exchange rate realization. Many papers in the literature argue that the foreign exchange market is a decentralized market in which market makers and traders play a central role.⁴ Market traders are not always rational which in turn introduce forecast error in the forward premium. Therefore, the forward premium puzzle may possibly be, at times, a deviation from rational expectations in foreign exchange markets.⁵

These two explanations are not mutually exclusive.⁶ Frankel and Chinn (1993) and Cavaglia et al. (1994) find evidence of both effects from survey data which helps to decompose the forward premium bias into a forecast error component and a risk premium component. But the use of survey data brings measurement and

³See Mark (1988), Backus et al. (1993), Hodrick (1989), Bansal et al.(1995), etc.

⁴See Lyons (2001), Sarno and Taylor (2001).

⁵Forecast errors can arise from both trader irrationality as well as from rational behavior on their part. So my approach subsumes that of Fama (1984).

⁶See Lewis (1995).

other errors, such as survey design bias, into play, which is criticized in many papers. Thus, the fact that the previous literature on one class of explanation fail to generate consistent empirical correction results is likely due to the existence of the other factor from time to time.

In this dissertation, I propose a new generalized solution that encompasses both factors, risk premium in the market and forecast errors caused by traders who may be irrational or rational. In my setting, the generalized risk premium factor enters the payoff function multiplicatively rather than through an additive scale factor⁷. The scale factor is decomposable and set in the dissertation to scale the payoffs across both currency pair. The scale factor varies over time and across countries. This permits the model to incorporate many different factors into the payoff function as long as the market participants well realize the uncertainty and ask for a premium in the spot exchange rates. For example, even though interest rates are deterministic, there are still risks embedded in the payment, such as implicit liquidity risk, default risk, delivery risk and expected errors on any contract. All the risks are assumed to be observed and are already estimated by the market participants to scale the payout.⁸ After the arrangement, the generalized factor comprises the standard differential of log (interest rates), log exchange rate differentials over time, local volatilities of the exchange rate and a term for all other embedded risks, which may include default

⁷The expected payoff of investing one dollar is equal to the return on the contract multiplied by a scale factor.

⁸The recent literature shows an alternative way to define risk factors. Risk factors can be derived directly from historical currency returns. In stock returns literature, like Fama and French (1993), risk factors can be defined from particular investment strategies or from stock returns characteristics. Lustig et al. (2009) first construct risk factors using excess exchange rate return. Other factors include global currency volatility factor derived by Menkhoff et al. (2012) and skewness factor by Rafferty (2010). All the factors above are from historical exchange rate returns.

and delivery risks.

This dissertation contributes to the literature by providing empirical evidence that the generalized factor consistently corrects negative signs of the slopes to positive for both monthly and daily prices in the empirical regressions.⁹ The generalized risk premium factor has considerable economic significance. It shows the possibility of using the historical factor model to solve the puzzle. The risk premium is now measurable and can be extracted from the model. However the coefficients are not significant for the long run. It is hard to find a risk premium or forecast error that can persistently cause the deviation from time to time. For example, transaction costs are expected to fall monotonically over time. Expectation errors are also corrected after a learning process. Other risk components may vary over time in different directions and the effects may be canceled out.

In the dissertation, I assume that the market participants make rational decisions on the risk premiums based on previous historical interest rates and spot rates. However, it is hard to believe that the market participants can make quick adjustment based on short term information. After comparing the short-term and long-term information model, I conclude that UIP is less violated in the long run and the investors make more accurately decisions with a long lag. In the short run, the models present evidence of incomplete and improper adjustment of exchange rate movements. Thus, my empirical finding supports the peso problem explanation which states that UIP is caused by market participant inability to forecast the spot rate movement.

⁹For the monthly regression, I use the interest rate and exchange rate of the last trading day of a month as proxies for the monthly exchange rate and interest rate. Then I can generate a time series of monthly returns. I regress monthly exchange rate changes on interest rate differentials.

Infrequent carry trade unwinding is another explanation for better long-run results. One type of risks that may not be fully captured by the generalized factor using historical returns is an unexpected change in the exchange market. However, it is reasonable to assume a change of currency policy does not count as an unexpected change under certain conditions.¹⁰ In the dissertation, I extend my study to understand whether the generalized risk factor can explain some circumstances under which risks that are hard to be captured by historical returns, like risk from the unexpected carry trade reversal.¹¹ Carry trade pays off on average, but at times produces big losses.¹² Speculators may trade in random order and when liquidity is tight or a constraint is reached, a sudden unwinding of the carry trade might happen. Investors are well aware of the risk but the size and timing of a carry trade reversal are outside the realm of investors' expectation.

In the dissertation, I also investigate whether the model could capture or even predict the carry trade unwinding. Due to the liquidity constraints, carry trade reversal is more likely to present during the crisis. The model reveals correct signs that match the empirical facts. The coefficients turn back to negative and significant for funding currencies, like Japanese Yen and Swiss Franc, during the financial crisis, which indicates the significant change of carry trade holding. The two holding

¹⁰Mitchell et al. (2007) argues that exchange market has slow moving capital to currency policy. Any risk triggered from a sudden currency adjustment could be well captured by my generalized factor.

¹¹Carry trade is a strategy in which investors borrows a certain currency with a relatively low interest rate and uses the funds to purchase another currency yielding a higher interest rate. Carry trader attempts to benefit from the appreciation of high interest rate currency, the forward rate puzzle. A reversal is the sudden selling pressure of high interest currency and the appreciation of low interest rate currency.

¹²Abreu and Brunnermeier (2003) find that there is always a crash after holding carry trade position. Plantin and Shin (2007) show carry trades are not always stable in a dynamic global environment.

currencies, Australia and Canadian dollar, all have positive coefficients, which show the depreciation of the currencies during the crisis. IMF documents Australian dollar is the biggest profit currency among overall 150 currencies and Australia economy and financial market are relatively healthy. The depreciation is largely due to the unwinding which is captured well by the model. Meanwhile, the short-term model shows evidence of the prediction ability. The coefficients of the funding currencies change signs right before the crisis starts.

Sudden order flow and unexpected unwinding may cause price fluctuation and over or under reaction to the uncertainty. In this article, I use high minus low spread as a proxy for disagreement between investors. The regression results show significance of high low spread coefficients during the financial crisis, indicating the out of control uncertainty which is not reflected in historical returns. However, the coefficient sign is mixed. Over and under reaction may cause different trading directions ¹³.

Bid and ask spread measures conventional risk, like liquidity risk and default risk. In Burnside et al. (2009), bid and ask spread has more meaning to account for forward premium puzzle. The spread is created by adverse selection problems between participants, not just a risk premium.¹⁴ My results imply that the bid ask spread

¹³During the sudden unwind, different judgement may affect trading directions. For example, when the price hit a low level, some investors believe that it is the bottom and start to buy back the decreasing currency. However, this may be wrong and in this way investors under-react to the crisis. While for the pessimistic investors, they may sell the decreasing currency even the price hit the real bottom which causes over-reaction selling.

¹⁴Burnside et al. (2009) assume there are informed and uninformed risk neutral traders in the market with market maker. Informed traders have more information than market maker, and the presence of informed investors creates an adverse-selection problem for market maker. When a currency is about to depreciate based on the public information and if the market maker receives a large purchase order, he will quote a high forward ask price because the purchase order is highly likely from informed traders. Forward premiums in ask price and bid ask spread are high in this situation. Consequently, a negative relationship is built that defines the forward premium puzzle.

is not significant as an explanatory variable. First of all, it could be because the generalized factor already captures conventional risk in the historical prices. Second, it further proves that conventional risk premiums cannot explain the puzzle.¹⁵ Third, according to Burnside et al. (2009), active trading size is not large in the foreign exchange market. So the adverse selection problem is not sufficient to generate a large and persistent effect and to create forward premium puzzle.¹⁶

One more contribution of the dissertation is that the generalized solution is measurable and simple enough to provide an efficient way to check and capture many stylized facts. For example, I find a significant difference between emerging and developed countries from sample statistics and slope sign, which matches Bansal (1997). There is no restrictive assumption for the generalized factor. Fama (1984), Bansal (1997, 2000), and Clarida et al. (2009) are now simply special cases of my model.

The solution is general enough to permit regime difference.¹⁷In this dissertation, I approach regime test on interest rate differential,¹⁸, outlying observations on both interest rate differential and the generalized factor¹⁹. There is no obvious regime difference after adding the generalized factor to the regression model. Historical prices already show how the regime difference can arise and affect the behavior of trading. The presence of general solution will correct and leave the sign of slope

¹⁵Lustig et al. (2011), Menkhoff et al. (2011) and Burnside (2011) show that traditional risk premiums have difficulty in explaining the profitability of the carry trade and instead construct empirical risk factors from the historical returns.

¹⁶Bacchetta and Wincoop (2007, 2010) also confirm the infrequent trading in foreign exchange market. They posit that only some small hedge fund managers actively manage foreign currency holdings.

¹⁷Different conditions affect the behavior of states and affect the results. Regime test allows us to check whether the forward premium puzzle is attributed to the effect of some special conditions.

¹⁸This is a replication of Bansal (1997).

¹⁹This is an approach applied first by Bilson (1981) in forward premium puzzle.

unaffected by the regime difference.

The rest of the dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter two provides a brief literature review on forward premium puzzle. Chapter three sets up the model and provides an empirical application. Chapter four introduces data and descriptive statistics. Chapter 5 is the empirical analysis. Chapter six shows the regime test and the last Chapter seven is the conclusion.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The uncovered interest rate parity (UIP) is one of the three financial relations²⁰ that are widely used in the fields of international finance and macroeconomics in both theoretical framework and practical analysis. The UIP hypothesis implies that change in the exchange rate should be positively related to interest rate differential and the coefficient should be one. However, in the empirical tests, high interest rate currencies always appreciate rather than depreciate as UIP suggests or do not depreciate as much as is implied by the theoretical relation. This empirical puzzle, known in the other name as the forward premium puzzle, and the stylized facts related to the puzzle are well documented in the literature.

2.1 Some Empirical Anomalies and Explanations

2.1.1 The Fama Result

Fama (1984) splits the forward exchange rate (F_t) into two components, an expected future spot rate, $E(S_{t+1})$ and a risk premium. He uses a simple regression test:

$$S_{t+1} - S_t = \alpha + \beta(F_t - S_t) + \epsilon_{t+1} \quad (1)$$

The purpose of this regression is to show whether the current forward-spot differential, $F_t - S_t$, has a prediction power to explain the movement in the spot rate, $S_{t+1} - S_t$.

²⁰The other two parity relationships in international finance literature are purchasing power parity (PPP) and real interest rate equality (RIE).

In other words, if the forward rate is a perfect estimation of the future spot rate, we should observe a positive relationship. However, the coefficient is not close to one and even negative for 122 observations covering the period from August 31, 1973 to December 10, 1982, which means the future spot rate moves oppositely as is stated in the theory. To explain significant negative coefficient, Fama (1984) tests sampling error and uses Zellner's (1962) SUR approach but fails to solve the negative coefficient puzzle. Fama (1984) also tests sub-periods difference because the exchange rate is not well understood by market participants until late 1970's. However none of these results provide reasonable explanations. The negative coefficients are significant and robust for all nine tested countries. Then Fama (1984) leaves a puzzle to international finance literature.

2.1.2 Other Empirical Evidence

Before Fama (1984), Bilson (1981) first introduces a regime test on developed economies to check whether the puzzle is attributed to extreme observations. He tests the model by dividing exchange rate changes into two groups, one group with observations less than ten per cent in absolute value and another group greater than ten per cent in absolute value. He finds that the forward premium puzzle does not exist for small exchange rate changes. However, large exchange rate changes are negatively related to the interest rate differential and the coefficients are greater than unity. Later empirical works, like Froot (1990) and McCallum (1994), confirm that the negative slope is robust and slope parameter in the model has large magnitude which is significantly different from one. Froot (1990) documents the average value

of the coefficient over 75 published estimates as -0.88. McCallum (1994) shows an average value for the coefficient of -4 . Besides those mentioned above, other well-known literature that document the forward premium puzzle include Hodrick (1987), Bekaert and Hodrick (1993), Bekaert (1996), Dumas and Solnik (1995), Engel (1996), Flood and Rose (1996), Bansal (1997), Bakshi and Naka (1997), Backus, Foresi, and Telmer (2001), Chinn and Meredith (2005), Brennan and Xia (2005) and etc.

2.1.3 Potential Explanations

The explanations fall into two categories, time-varying risk premium and forecast errors. Each track contains quite different assumptions and explanations. Deviations from UIP can arise from two sources: differences between actual and expected exchange rates and differences in the riskiness of the two assets.

$$E_t(S_{ij,t+T}) - S_{ij,t} = R_{j,t+T} - R_{i,t+T} \quad (2)$$

$$E_t(S_{ij,t+T}) - f_{ij,t} + f_{ij,t} - S_{ij,t} = R_{j,t+T} - R_{i,t+T} \quad (3)$$

Risk premium is defined as $E_t(S_{ij,t+T}) - f_{ij,t}$ and forecast error is expressed as $S_{ij,t+T} - E_t(S_{ij,t+T})$. If we combine the risk premium and forecast error terms, we have the excess return:

$$E_t(S_{ij,t+T}) - f_{ij,t} + S_{ij,t+T} - E_t(S_{ij,t+T}) = S_{ij,t+T} - f_{ij,t} \quad (4)$$

In Fama (1984), the expectations of future exchange rate are rational and the excess return above is entirely due to the risk premium. Thus, the variance of the risk premium should exceed the variance of the markets expectations of exchange rate

changes. In the other situation, if the risk premium is constant, then excess return is caused only by the forecast error. Then the variation of the excess return arises from the forecast error that is correlated with lagged information.

First of all, the predicted movement in the spot exchange rate could come from an equilibrium process. One possible reason that causes the puzzle is an omitted time-varying risk factor which is negatively correlated with the expected change in the exchange rate. The risk premium could be positive or negative. It is the compensation for domestic investors holding foreign risky assets and converting the return back into local currency in the future. Second, forecast errors may cause the excess returns from time to time. Under the assumption of rational investors, the exchange rate forecast error should be random. However, there are conditions that the exchange rate forecast error will be systematic over time. For example, in the sudden shift of monetary policy, when we have many irrational investors in the market, they may continually anticipate the wrong direction or the wrong return distribution. Systematic forecast error may also be caused from the difficulties in measuring expectations of the excess return. Meanwhile, the two explanations are not mutually exclusive and both of them can explain some aspects of the puzzle.

In the next part, I will briefly explain two risk premium models, static (partial) CAPM and general CAPM. I will introduce the basic idea of partial and general CAPM models and include major papers.

2.2 The Foreign Exchange Risk Premium

2.2.1 The Risk Premium in the Partial Equilibrium CAPM

In the partial equilibrium CAPM model, we always assume two representative agents in two countries, local and foreign countries. The representative agents can hold one home asset and one foreign asset in their portfolios. The investor is assumed to maximize the wealth utility function by choosing the optimal weight on home asset. The first order condition is the basic CAPM relationship. This type of model involves exchange rates, interest rates, and inflation rates as exogenous. The first order condition depends on the variability of the exchange rates and the covariance between exchange rate changes and inflation. Due to the Jensen's inequality term, even there is no risk premium and forecast error, the excess return is not zero and it is equal to the covariance between the exchange rate and inflation. However, in the empirical tests, the covariance between the exchange rate and inflation is near zero. So the Jensen's inequality term is not attributed a lot to the excess return. Engel (1984) and Cumby (1988) have shown that the nominal term and real term of the excess returns do not explain the puzzle.

There is a lot of literature on the static CAPM model. For example, Hansen and Hodrick (1983) develop three linear econometric models of the risk premiums. In economic models, the risk premium is time varying and is determined by aggregate consumption and inflation risk across countries. In their paper, the static CAPM model states that there are representative agents in two countries holding a variety of domestic and foreign assets with a utility function to maximize their returns under

exchange rate risk. Static CAPM literature include Frankel (1982, 1983), Frankel and Engel (1984), Engel and Rodrigues (1989), Branson et al. (1977, 1979), Dooley and Isard (1979, 1983) and Lewis (1988a).

However, the partial equilibrium models fail to explain the forward premium puzzle. Empirically, asset positions, the conditional variance and covariance terms from the model cannot generate a high degree of variability that is shown in the risk premium. For example, Lewis (1988) shows that the standard deviation of wealth changes measured by the historical data of outside bonds is about 1% to 3%. Basically, the excess returns change sign more frequently, and the risk premiums should also exhibit sufficient variation to explain the variability in the excess return.

2.2.2 The Risk Premium in the General Equilibrium CAPM

In a more general setting, the investors in the market can maximize their utility functions by choosing consumption of any asset. According to the law of one price, the relative price of any asset can be expressed by the nominal exchange rate, which is the marginal rate of substitution in utility between holdings of domestic and foreign money positions. With the above definition and the covered interest parity, the general CAPM model can be solved for the risk premium.

Backus et al. (1993), and Hodrick (1989) propose a general CAPM model in which the forward risk premium is time varying and is determined by aggregate consumption and inflation risks across countries. Yaron (1996) incorporates participation constraints and nominal price rigidities to the general equilibrium model and suggests these improvements may potentially solve the puzzle. Bekaert (1996) builds a

complex general CAPM model by introducing a more realistic decision interval for agents. Simulations in the paper show the time aggregation effect can generate more volatile risk premium than traditional general CAPM model.

Empirically, Mark (1985) first tests the general CAPM model using a constant relative risk aversion utility and finds the relative risk aversion parameter cannot be estimated precisely due to the over-identifying restrictions of the model. More general tests for the general CAPM model are done by relaxing the assumption of particular utility functions, like the latent variable models and Hansen-Jaganathan bounds.

For the latent variable model, Hansen and Hodrick (1983) construct constant ratios of covariance by assuming that the conditional covariance between the excess return on asset over the risk free rate and the marginal rate of substitution in consumption move in proportion to each other according to the ratios of the conditional covariance. Their empirical test works only for low frequency data, which is also shown in Lewis (1991). Other empirical tests on the latent variable model include Cumby (1988, 1990), Bekaert and Hodrick (1992). However, as argued in Lewis (1995), although this type of model shows some factors are helpful to explain the excess returns, it is too general to draw any implication since any factor works as long as there is a proportional relationship between returns over time. The Hansen-Jaganathan bounds model provide a lower bound on the volatility of the marginal rate of substitution in consumption but this type of model also fails in the empirical tests, as shown in Bekaert (1994).

Overall, empirical evidence suggests that both static and general CAPM models fail to explain the forward premium puzzle. The main problem is that the risk premium

suggested in static and general CAPM model does not match the high variability of exchange rates. As shown in Fama (1984), a negative coefficient indicates the variance of the risk premium must be greater than the variance of expected depreciation. In the static CAPM, bond position changes and conditional variances fail to exhibit large variance. In the general CAPM model, the consumption also fails to provide higher variability that matches the excess returns.

Later work by Engle (1996) concludes that the models of risk premium do not explain the negative relation between the future exchange rate differentials and forward premium even when nonstandard utility functions are applied. Verdelhan (2010) designs a two-country model in which agents are fully rational and characterized by slow-moving external habit preferences, a nonstandard utility function. He uses simulations to show a time-varying exchange risk caused by slow-moving preferences can solve the puzzle.

The implication problem of the risk premium promotes the argument that the risk premium alone cannot fully explain the puzzle. The puzzle may be caused by the systematic forecast errors. The systematic forecast errors may come from two resources: irrational traders in the market and statistical problem with measuring expectations. In the next section, I discuss each of the two explanations.

2.3 The Forecast Error

2.3.1 Inefficient Market and Irrational investors

In Fama (1984), under the rational expectations, the markets forecast error is constant and is not correlated with the forward premium. Then the variation of excess

return is completely caused by the time-varying risk premium. If the risk premium is constant, then Fama (1984) model can derive a negative correlation between the forecast error and the forward premium. Froot and Frankel (1989) decompose the risk premium and the forecast error components using survey data, and document a negative relationship between the forecast error and the forward premium, which shows that the forecast error exists and is an important component in explaining the excess return.

Theoretically, the literature argues that foreign exchange market is not an idealized and efficient market and investors in the market are not rational, which may explain why forecast errors are correlated with the lagged forward premium. Frankel and Froot (1987) find the expected exchange rate is significantly different from the realized exchange rate and is dependent on the lagged past exchange rate.

Lyons (2001) and Sarno and Taylor (2001) find that the exchange market is a decentralized, over-the-counter market. There are some irrational investors in the market, and these investors can even get higher returns than rational counterparts. Frankel and Froot (1988) show that irrational investors behavior can explain expectation errors in the survey data. Gourinchas and Tornell (2004) assume there is a distortion in investors' beliefs and this mistake will cause an under-reaction of nominal exchange rate to news. Burnside et al. (2011) explain the forward premium puzzle based upon investor overconfidence. Overconfident investors think their information signal is more precise and overreact to the signal. When the overreaction in the spot rate is reversed, forward premium rise will cause a negative relationship.

2.3.2 Rational Systematic Forecast Errors

The forecast errors in the international market can be systematic and caused by learning behavior, learning past information and learning to expect future distribution. The methodology assumes that the old information about the market is updated based on a rational learning process. When the investor is not sure about the future exchange rate distribution or any other shifts, he will use historical information and give it a probability weight. The model can show a negative correlation between the forecast error and the forward premium if the investors give a large probability on the historical information. For example, if the investors expected a weaker domestic currency from the historical regime, the expectation that is dependent on the past regime will reflect the expected change in the exchange rate, which is that the exchange rate should depreciate. Thus, if the new regime is not the case, the investors will be surprised at the appreciation of the domestic currency. This generates a negative covariance between the forecast error and the forward premium. Learning past information cannot explain the forward premium puzzle completely. Lewis (1989b) concludes that learning explains half of the variations in the excess return.

Learning process should also incorporate the information in the future. The anticipation about future shift in the economy is defined as a peso problem in the literature. Rogoff (1980) believes that the forward premium puzzle is caused by the anticipation of a devaluation in the peso. However, peso problem alone cannot explain the forward premium puzzle.

Other recent literature that is related to investors behavior: Bacchetta and Win-

coop (2007, 2010) explain the puzzle by infrequent portfolio trading. Their idea is motivated by the fact that only some small hedge fund managers actively manage foreign currency holdings. Burnside et al. (2009) argues that informed traders have more information than market maker, and the presence of informed investors creates an adverse-selection problem for market maker. They treat bid ask spread as the level of the asymmetric information between market maker and informed currency traders. When a foreign currency is about to decline based on public information but market maker receives a large purchase order instead of sell order, market maker may define these purchase volumes come from informed trader and charge a high forward ask price. Forward premium is high in this situation and a negative relationship will be observed which will theoretically solve the puzzle.

The major problem of the forecast error explanation is that it is difficult to get the forecast error from real data. Although behavioral approach can capture the negative relationship theoretically, it is hard to explain that how irrational investors can generate such significant profits on the exchange market since market maker and sophisticated investors are the main participants in the market. The challenge is how irrational behavior can persist for a long period and is not corrected by participants. These models cannot explain some other stylized facts. For example, forward premium puzzle is less severe for emerging currencies. It seems that investors are more rational on trading emerging currencies.

2.4 Discussion on the Two Components

In the literature, the risk premium model and the forecast error alone cannot explain the entire excess return. Under the assumption that the forecast error is uncorrelated with the lagged information, the risk premium dominates. However, risk premium model fails to generate a high degree of variation in the excess returns that is observed in the data. Meanwhile, literature shows evidence that actions by the investors are correlated with the historical information. We cannot exclude either one of them.

There are papers that try to decompose and test the effectiveness of both categories. Mark and Wu (1998) use both international asset pricing model and noise-trader model to explain the forward premium puzzle. They find that the noise trader model works much better while asset pricing model is unable to generate a correct sign.

Lewis (1995) points out that these potential explanations are not mutually exclusive. Frankel and Froot (1989) try to decompose the bias using survey data and conclude in the paper that there is no risk premium effect. Frankel and Chinn (1993) use survey data of 17 currencies and take care of in-sample bias in the test. However, they fail to prove the risk premium is a powerful explanation. Different from Frankel and Froot (1989), they find some evidence of both effects. The magnitude of the coefficient of risk premium effect is significantly smaller than 1, indicating the evidence of risk premium but the entire bias is also attributable to forecast errors. Frankel and Chinn (2002) use 24 currencies and find risk premium is a significant factor at the 12-month horizon but not at longer horizon. The coefficient is positive but the

magnitude of the coefficient is not close to one which indicates risk premium is not enough to explain the puzzle. Cavaglia et al. (1994) also find both time-varying risk premium and forecast error components can explain the bias. Landon et al. (2002) use quarterly data for the yen-dollar exchange rate and support the existence of a time-varying risk premium.

2.5 Carry Trade

Motivated by the failure of uncovered interest parity, there is an old and popular trading strategy in the exchange market, the carry trade. Recent empirical studies show that currency carry trade significantly affects the exchange rate movement (Fan and Lyons (2003); Gagnon and Chaboud (2007); Galati et al. (2007)).

Carry trade is a popular trading strategy in exchange rate markets which consists of buying high interest rate currencies and selling low interest rate currencies. A carry trade will generate profit if high interest rate currencies appreciate and low interest rate currencies depreciate or if the interest rate differential is not offset because of the small level appreciation of the low interest rate currency. Carry trade is risky.

During regimes of low volatility, carry trade holding of high interest rate currencies is popular, and the built-up of carry-trade position exaggerate the demand of high interest rate currencies, as shown in Brunnermeir et al. (2008) and Clarida et al. (2009). While in the crisis, we always observe carry trade positions unwind (Kohler (2010) and Coudert et al. (2011)). During the crisis, high interest rate currencies are abandoned and those low yield currencies, defined as safe-haven currencies, appreciate (Ranaldo and Soderlind (2007) and McCauley and McGuire (2009)).

Burnside et al. (2006) and Lustig et al. (2011) all show that traditional risk factors in the exchange market cannot explain the return. These risks are either not correlated with carry trade returns or too small to explain the carry trade profit. Burnside (2011) also confirms that traditional factor models, like CAPM and Fama and French 3-factor model, are not helpful to capture the risk factors in carry trade.

2.6 Recent Trend in the Literature

Lustig and Verdelhan (2007) discuss an alternative way to define risk factors. They are motivated by stock returns literature, like Fama and French (1993), in which risk factors are derived from particular investment strategies or stock returns. In Fama and French (1993), size and book-to-market ratio are two proxies of the risk factors. Such risk proxies will help to capture the estimates of risk-return trade-off in equity market, which can also be applied in the exchange rate excess return literature. They shift their focus on explaining the excess return of individual currency to explaining the excess return on portfolios of currencies. Lustig and Verdelhan (2007) sort currencies into portfolios according to their forward discount and define risk factors to price the portfolios. The first factor is called the dollar risk factor and is simply equal to the average excess return of the portfolios. The second factor is the return differentials between the portfolios. They show in the paper that the excess return is used to compensate the US investors consumption growth risk. When US consumption growth is low, high interest rate currencies depreciate, which shows no forward risk premium puzzle.

Other proxy factor papers emerge and grow to be the new trend to explain the

forward premium puzzle. Hollifield and Yaron (2001) first propose factors that can explain the forward premium in empirical work. In Lustig et al. (2011) paper, the authors propose a single global risk factor that explains most of variation in the excess return between high and low interest rate currencies. Menkhoff et. al (2012) use global currency volatility which is the average sample standard deviation of the daily log changes. Brunnermeier et al. (2009) argues that unwinding happens when liquidity dries up and high interest rate currencies are exposed to these crashes. Rafferty (2010) applies their work and propose another pricing factor, a global currency skewness. He separates currencies into two groups based on their interest differentials and calculates the average skewness difference between the two groups. These factors work well in explaining the return of carry trade.

2.7 Stylized Empirical Facts

The well-known stylized empirical facts in the forward premium puzzle literature indicate that the puzzle is not consistent over time or over countries and it is regime dependent. Chinn and Meredith (2005) find that the forward premium regression coefficients switch from negative to positive at very long horizon. Boudoukh et al. (2005) confirm this stylized fact and attribute the forward premium anomaly to anomalous behavior of short-term interest rates.

Bansal (1997) deepens the puzzle and provides new empirical evidence. He introduces regime dependent variables and finds that in some regimes the puzzle disappeared. The violation of UIP depends on the sign of the interest rate differential. When the foreign interest rate minus U.S. interest rate factor is positive, the slope

coefficient is negative and UIP is rejected. However, when the differential factor is negative, the slope is positive and the uncovered interest rate parity holds. The paper posits that risk premium has explanatory power and discusses the possibility that term structure models may explain the puzzle.

Bansal and Dahlquist (2000) document a country difference of the puzzle. The puzzle is not a pervasive phenomenon as conventional belief. After testing 28 developed and emerging economies, they find the puzzle does not present in emerging economies. There might be local risk factors, such as GNP per capita, average inflation, and inflation volatility, that can explain the puzzle for high income and relatively low inflation economies.

CHAPTER 3: MODEL

3.1 Theoretical Model

Let country i be the home country, USA and country j be the foreign country. The interest rates at time t in country i and j are $R_{i,t+T}$ and $R_{j,t+T}$ respectively (non-stochastic), for a contract of length T . If the term structure is flat then I expect $R_{i,t+1} = R_{i,t+1+T}$ and $R_{j,t+1} = R_{j,t+1+T}$, however this is not necessary for my results to hold. All the model needs is that the interest rate that is promised at time t , will apply to time $t + T$. At time t , spot exchange rate is $S_{ij,t}$. The actual future spot exchange rate, at time $t+T$, is $S_{ij,t+T}$. I can in full generality let T be 1 year but of course T can be any arbitrary length of time. The expectation at time t of the future spot exchange rate at time $t+T$, is $E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T} \mid I_t)$, where I_t is the information set. $\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}$ denotes that the future spot rate is a random variable with respect to time t information.

Now let us consider a dollar (home) investment in country i (USA), in a non-stochastic interest rate environment, for a period of time T . The expected payoff to this strategy (apparently riskless) of an investment of \$1 is, in dollars,

$$E_t [(1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})] \quad (5)$$

$\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}$ is a scale factor. The need to be able to scale the payoffs determines the choice of how risks are incorporated into the payoff function. This setting allows the

risk factor to enter the payoff function multiplicatively rather than additively. The additive specification while possible/feasible will be more arbitrary in general.

The scale factor is preference free. Even though interest rates are deterministic, there are still risks associated with the payment on the contract. There are implicit liquidity risks, default risks and delivery risks on any contract. I need to allow for the fact that if things go horribly wrong, even a domestic contract can lead to realized payments that are less than $(1 + R_{i,t+T})$. A Poisson distribution allows for this possibility as well as the lognormal and some other distributions. The lognormal specification permits that the payoff (realized) lie in the range of $0 \leq (1 + R_{i,t+T}) \leq \infty$.

It is of course not the only other specification that can lead to a scaling payoff. More complicated models that permit this sort of scaling are to be found in Duffie and Singleton (2003). $E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))$ is essentially a loss/recovery function and I can figure out the probabilities of a recovery/loss of any percentage of the payoff by looking at tables for the lognormal. It can also proxy for value at risk. Hence, if $E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})) < 1$, there is only partial recovery. If $E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})) = 1$, there is full recovery. If $E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})) > 1$, there is greater than required recovery.

A stochastic discount factor is a random variable $\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}$ such that for any payoff $\tilde{R}_{i,t+T}$ at time $t+T$,

$$E_t(\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}\tilde{R}_{i,t+T}) = p_{i,t} \quad (6)$$

That is if I take the payoff of the asset and discount it, the present value should be equal to the price of the asset, $p_{i,t}$ in the market place. Then it follows that

$$E_t(\tilde{M}_{i,t+1}\tilde{R}_{i,t+T})(p_{i,t})^{-1} = 1, \forall i, t \quad (7)$$

I will now apply this technology to the trade specified in (1). The payoff to this strategy of an investment of \$1 is, in dollars,

$$(1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}) = \text{random payoff} \quad (8)$$

Using stochastic discount factor methodology, this implies that the expected present value of the payoff is

$$E_t \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T} (1 + R_{i,t+T}) (\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})) \right] = 1 \quad (9)$$

For uncovered interest rate parity to hold in an ex-ante sense, present values of expected payoffs from both hedged and unhedged strategies (in investments that are not interest rate sensitive) must be the same in country i's currency at time t (or their expected payoffs at all points in time must be the same).

The unhedged payoff from investing assets of 1 dollar (1 unit of currency i in country j) overseas in riskless assets, is

$$S_{ij,t} E_t \left[(1 + R_{j,t+T}) \frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}) \right] \quad (10)$$

Hence the present value of the expected payoff is

$$E_t \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T} \frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] = 1 \quad (11)$$

Generally if there is no arbitrage opportunity and if the existence of a stochastic discount factor assumes an absence of such opportunities, then

$$E_t \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T} \frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] = E_t \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T} (1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}) \right], \forall t \quad (12)$$

Where I have now applied the fundamental property that assets valued at the same price initially must generate the same risk adjusted payoff at all times.

$$E_t \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T} (1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}) \right] = E_t(\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}) E_t [(1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})] + \text{Cov} \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}, (1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}) \right] \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{aligned} E_t \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T} \frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] = \\ E_t(\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}) E_t \left[\frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] + \\ \text{Cov} \left[\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}, \left(\frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

In the model, the scale factor is defined to be a general premium that captures all time-varying risk components. Let us assume that the covariance term in (14) is zero and that the stochastic discount factor is independent of the other risk factors, then there will be a condition like (equation 15). It then follows that regardless of what the stochastic discount factor is, there must be a condition such that

$$E_t(\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}) E_t \left[\frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] = E_t(\tilde{M}_{i,t+T}) E_t [(1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})] \quad (15)$$

Now you can move on to equation (16) without any difficulties.

$$E_t \left[\frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] = E_t [(1 + R_{i,t+T}) \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})] \quad (16)$$

Now decompose both the left and right hand sides of equation (16) to get equation

(17).

$$E_t \left[\frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] E_t [\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})] + Cov \left[\frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}}, \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}) \right] =$$

$$E_t(1 + R_{i,t+T})E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})) + Cov [(1 + R_{i,t+T}), \exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})]$$
(17)

If we further assume that the covariance terms are zero then we must have equation (18).

$$E_t \left[\frac{(1 + R_{j,t+T})(S_{ij,t})}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right] E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})) = E_t(1 + R_{i,t+T})E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})) \quad (18)$$

must hold at all times. Let $\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}$ be a normal random variable. If $\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}$ is identically equal to one $\forall t$ or if $E_t(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}) = 1$, then I have the standard UIP relation. If the mean of $\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}$ is not equal to one in any time period it implies the violation of uncovered arbitrage opportunities, in that particular time period. It also implies the existence of one-way and other types of trades that are profitable. This is shown in Blenman(1997), Blenman et al. (2001 and 2005), Callier (1988) and others.

Let $\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}$ be infinitely divisible. This allows for the non-occurrence of UIP to be attributable to a variety of factors and is also model independent. These factors are essentially latent variables and can be the state of the economy, the state of the stock market, the state of the business cycle, or the risk of sovereign default etc. Some of these risks are of course picked up by increases in the spreads of the country's sovereign default risk bonds and or by the size and level of the VIX in the case of the USA.

However for low maturities, and in some developing countries there are no viable

measures of default risks. Country risk measures are too blunt and take too long to adjust. Hence the currency markets may be the best source of measuring those risks. My specification is general enough to permit regime dependency of interest rates, exchange rates and their volatilities.²¹ It nests the stochastic discount factor approach.

Let $\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}$ be normally distributed. Then $\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})$ is log-normally distributed and I can draw on the well known properties of the log-normal distribution.

Let $\log(E_t(1 + R_{i,t+T})) = r_{i,t+T}$ and $\log(E_t(1 + R_{j,t+T})) = r_{j,t+T}$. Assuming that UIP holds, then $\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})$ and $\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})$ are both equal to one. So that equation (18) will be $\log(S_{ij,t+T}) - \log(S_{ij,t}) = \log(1 + R_{j,t+T}) - \log(1 + R_{i,t+T}) = r_{j,t+T} - r_{i,t+T}$.

Also note that if one takes the logarithm of equation (18), assuming that currency risks and contract risks exist and are approximately separable, we will get

$$r_{j,t+T} - r_{i,t+T} = \log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) + \log\left\{\frac{E_t(\tilde{y}_{i,t+T})}{E_t(\tilde{y}_{j,t+T})}\right\} - \log(S_{ij,t}) \quad (19)$$

If $\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}$ is normally distributed $(\mu_{j,t+T}, \sigma_{j,t+T}^2)$, then $\tilde{y}_{j,t+T} = \exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})$ has distribution with mean $= \exp(\mu_{j,t+T} + .5\sigma_{j,t+T}^2)$ and variance $= \exp(2\mu_{j,t+T} + \sigma_{j,t+T}^2)(\exp(\sigma_{j,t+T}^2) - 1)$.

However, it is highly likely that both the mean and variance of $\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}$ are time varying. That is in general I could expect that $\mu_{j,t+T} \neq \mu_{j,t+T+1}$ and $\sigma_{j,t+T}^2 \neq \sigma_{j,t+T+1}^2$.

²¹ $E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))$ and $E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}))$ capture the excess returns to the UIP strategy and I measure these excess returns empirically by looking at past returns. So I am using ex-post measures to predict ex-ante what will occur. Hence the specifications tested by Fama (1984), Bansal (1997 and 2000) are now simply special cases of this model. It therefore is also a generalization of the approach of Clarida et al. (2009). It is also general enough to accomodate the affine currency models of Backus and Telmer (1993 and 2001) and even the newer model of Sarno et al. (2011).

Hence I can write as follows

$$\log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) = (r_{j,t+T} - r_{i,t+T}) + (\mu_{j,t+T} + .5\sigma_{j,t+T}^2) - (\mu_{i,t+T} + .5\sigma_{i,t+T}^2) \quad (20)$$

I am now able to generate a form of Clarida (1999), Bilson (1981) and Bansal (1997) type regression specifications, without making any ad hoc assumptions. Expected excess rate of returns are driven by implicit risks $\log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) - (r_{j,t+T} - r_{i,t+T}) = (\mu_{j,t+T} + .5\sigma_{j,t+T}^2) - (\mu_{i,t+T} + .5\sigma_{i,t+T}^2)$ and these can be either negative or positive.

I can use proxies for some of the variables. For instance if volatility of the spot rate is zero, then maybe $\mu_{i,t+T} = 0$ and $\sigma_{i,t+T}^2 = 0$. Rate of growth of the exchange rate over any short time period is also close to zero. My guess is that $\mu_{i,t+T} \approx 0$ almost always. The assumption is that USA is basically a no riskiness environment but there are periods when that assumption is not true.

A more general form of the specification that can be tested is of course,

$$\begin{aligned} \log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) = & \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(r_{j,t+T} - r_{i,t+T}) - \alpha_2\left(\log\left(\frac{E_t(y_{i,t+T})}{E_t(y_{j,t+T})}\right)\right) \\ & + \alpha_3(cov_t(S_{ij,t+T}, y_{j,t+T})) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

3.2 Empirical Test Model

Based on equation (11), a generalized solution $\tilde{x}_{j,t+T}$ can be simply expressed as

$$\tilde{x}_{j,t+30} = \log\left(\frac{1 + R_{i,t+30}/12}{1 + R_{j,t+30}/12}\right) + \log\left(\frac{S_{ij,t+30}}{S_{ij,t}}\right) \quad (22)$$

for monthly data and

$$\tilde{x}_{j,t+1} = \log\left(\frac{1 + R_{i,t+1}/365}{1 + R_{j,t+1}/365}\right) + \log\left(\frac{S_{ij,t+1}}{S_{ij,t}}\right) \quad (23)$$

for daily data.

After I get a series of $\tilde{x}_{j,t+30}$ and $\tilde{x}_{j,t+1}$, I need to calculate mean and variance of the generalized solution. I use the moving average method and here I show the mean and the standard deviation for daily data as follows

$$\mu_{\tilde{x}_{j,n,t+1}} = \frac{\tilde{x}_{j,1,t+1} + \tilde{x}_{j,2,t+1} + \dots + \tilde{x}_{j,n,t+1}}{n} \quad (24)$$

$$\sigma_{\tilde{x}_{j,n,t+1}} = std(\tilde{x}_{j,1,t+1} + \tilde{x}_{j,2,t+1} + \dots + \tilde{x}_{j,n,t+1}) \quad (25)$$

This method assumes that investors will observe risks and errors in the market prices, like interest rate and exchange rate, and will use the historical information to estimate risk premiums for holding the foreign assets. The generalized factor will capture the historical information and provide appropriate estimation for risk premiums. In this dissertation, I make the assumptions that investors use 3 month, 6 month and aggregate information. For example, 3 month moving average means that investors who trade today estimated the risk premiums and anticipate exchange rate movement according to previous historical 90 days information.

$$\mu_{\tilde{x}_{j,90,t+1}} = \frac{\tilde{x}_{j,1,t+1} + \tilde{x}_{j,2,t+1} + \dots + \tilde{x}_{j,90,t+1}}{90} \quad (26)$$

$$\sigma_{\tilde{x}_{j,90,t+1}} = std(\tilde{x}_{j,1,t+1} + \tilde{x}_{j,2,t+1} + \dots + \tilde{x}_{j,90,t+1}) \quad (27)$$

The 6 month moving average is similar to the 3 month method, except the anticipation horizon is 180 days. The aggregate moving average includes all the historical

information. Thus n is equal to the total number of the given currency observations.²²

The regression model is

$$\log(E_t(S_{ij,t+1})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) = \beta_1(r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}) + \beta_2(\mu_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+1}}) + \beta_3(\sigma_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+T}}^2) \quad (28)$$

The monthly regression has similar equation. If the generalized solution catches the historical risks and errors, I expect β_1 should be positive. The high interest rate currency appreciation is due to the general risk premiums captured by the generalized solution. The regression model with constant term is

$$\log(E_t(S_{ij,t+1})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) = c + \beta_1(r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}) + \beta_2(\mu_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+1}}) + \beta_3(\sigma_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+T}}^2) \quad (29)$$

I also involve bid ask spread and high minus low spread of exchange rate into the robust test model

$$\begin{aligned} \log(E_t(S_{ij,t+1})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) = & \beta_1(r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}) + \beta_2(\mu_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+1}}) + \beta_3(\sigma_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+T}}^2) + \\ & \beta_4(bid - ask)_t + \beta_5(high - low)_t \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

Now define $y = \log(E_t(S_{ij,t+1})) - \log(S_{ij,t})$, $x = r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}$, $meanrf = \mu_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+1}}$ and $devrf = \sigma_{\tilde{x}_{j,t+T}}^2$ for later results.

²²For aggregate information, I eliminate the first 30 observations in the regression, because for the first 30 observations, standard deviation varies a lot due to the moving average calculation. After 30 observations, the standard deviation seems stable and this will make less error.

CHAPTER 4: DATA

4.1 Data Description

Daily data for spot exchange rate, forward rate and interest rate are all taken from Bloomberg. There are eleven independent floating countries in the sample. They are Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and United Kingdom. Other independent floating countries available in Bloomberg, such as Armenia, Brazil, Colombia, Iceland, Mexico, Philippine, South Korea, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, the State of Israel, Uganda and Uruguay, are not tested.

I do not include Armenia, Iceland, Mexico, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, the State of Israel, Uganda and Uruguay because Bloomberg does not have enough data for monthly regression.²³ In the empirical test, I provide regression fitting using both monthly and daily data. These countries only have short period daily exchange rate and interest rate, which doesn't cover enough months to regress. I will extend daily test in the future for these countries. For Brazil, Colombia, Philippine and South Korea, they are not involved in the sample because their forward rates are not available in Bloomberg. ²⁴ Both forward rates and interest rates are available for one month,

²³For instance, Mexico has interest rate data starting from 7/2010 which is 28 monthly observations by the end of 10/2012, the last month of test period. The test result is not reliable based on such small number of observations.

²⁴Datastream has the forward rate but it does not separate prices: All tested countries in the paper have spot exchange rate, forward rate and interest rate of high, low, bid, ask, middle, open and last prices, which are unique and are only provided by Bloomberg.

Table 1: Daily data sample statistics

Panel A: Daily Exchange Rate mid price							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.75	0.16	1.10	0.48	0.33	2.05	3785
Canada	1.28	0.18	1.61	0.92	-0.10	1.83	5606
Japan	112.37	17.48	159.90	75.82	-0.06	2.73	6229
New Zealand	0.63	0.12	0.88	0.39	-0.21	1.94	4128
Norway	6.88	1.09	9.58	4.96	0.59	2.55	4294
Poland	3.43	0.58	4.71	2.03	-0.08	2.16	3736
South Africa	7.37	1.38	12.45	4.67	0.98	4.19	3937
Sweden	7.64	1.12	11.03	5.09	0.85	3.72	5403
Switzerland	1.31	0.22	1.82	0.72	-0.04	2.40	5607
Turkey	1.30	0.42	1.92	0.27	-1.17	3.31	3737
United Kingdom	1.67	0.17	2.11	1.37	0.61	2.53	4166
Panel B: Daily Deposit Rate mid price							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	5.12	0.97	8.45	2.83	0.27	3.25	3785
Canada	3.02	1.61	6.13	0.16	-0.11	1.85	3975
Japan	0.24	0.28	1.50	-0.18	1.23	3.98	4167
New Zealand	5.61	1.92	10.25	2.35	-0.12	1.92	4128
Norway	4.17	2.09	8.93	1.27	0.41	1.81	4294
Poland	7.85	5.26	22.50	2.39	1.14	2.77	3736
South Africa	10.28	4.49	26.75	4.88	1.58	5.21	3937
Sweden	3.08	1.46	6.68	0.23	0.02	2.60	4312
Switzerland	1.20	1.00	3.51	-0.57	0.63	2.28	4166
Turkey	30.60	24.94	97.00	0.00	1.06	2.85	3737
United Kingdom	4.11	2.20	7.66	0.00	-0.55	2.09	4166
United States	3.07	2.23	6.73	0.00	0.02	1.39	4210
Panel C: Daily Future mid price							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.75	0.16	1.10	0.48	0.32	2.05	3785
Canada	1.28	0.18	1.61	0.92	-0.11	1.83	5606
Japan	112.12	17.44	159.74	75.80	-0.04	2.73	6229
New Zealand	0.63	0.12	0.88	0.39	-0.21	1.94	4128
Norway	6.88	1.09	9.59	4.98	0.60	2.55	4294
Poland	3.44	0.60	4.76	2.03	-0.05	2.14	3736
South Africa	7.42	1.39	12.54	4.71	1.00	4.20	3937
Sweden	7.74	1.11	11.03	5.15	0.88	3.73	5403
Switzerland	1.31	0.22	1.82	0.72	-0.04	2.38	5607
Turkey	1.32	0.42	1.93	0.14	-1.16	3.25	3737
United Kingdom	1.67	0.17	2.11	1.37	0.61	2.53	4166

three month, six month and twelve month periods. Brazil, Colombia, Philippine and South Korea are not included in the sample test because they lack of bid, ask, high or low prices.

For a specific country, different type of observations may vary at time horizon. For example, Switzerland has forward rate and spot rate available from 5/20/1991 while its monthly interest rate starts from 11/26/1996. I regress the data from 11/26/1996 and omit previous un-matching data. I pick the last day of each month and form a series of monthly data. I also pick middle day and first day of each month but do not find significant difference. Table 1 is the daily data description. For monthly data, the sample statistics is similar, and it is reported in Table 10 in the appendix.

Table 1 shows daily data description for mid prices of eleven countries. The descriptive statistics are also available for last, bid, ask, high, and low prices, which provide similar results. I attach monthly description of mid price after the paper. There is a clear difference between the standard deviation of daily exchange rate and daily interest rate. United Kingdom has daily interest rate 10 times volatile of its exchange rate. The only exception is the Japanese yen, with relative constant interest rate. 6 out of 11 currencies have negative skewness of daily exchange rate while only 3 currencies have negative skewness of daily interest rate. Canada and New Zealand have negative skewness on both exchange rate and interest rate. South Africa has the largest exchange rate kurtosis of 4.19 and interest rate kurtosis of 5.21 among all the countries.

Table 2: Other variables description-daily data

Panel A: y							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	-0.000063	0.0037	0.0317	-0.0359	0.3201	12.2316	3754
Canada	0.000035	0.0025	0.0173	-0.0141	-0.1488	6.2803	3944
Japan	0.000040	0.0030	0.0302	-0.0239	0.4083	8.7151	4136
New Zealand	-0.000018	0.0037	0.0293	-0.0196	0.2281	5.9139	4097
Norway	0.000011	0.0033	0.0216	-0.0211	-0.0740	5.6686	4179
Poland	0.000013	0.0040	0.0284	-0.0224	-0.2362	7.2397	3705
South Africa	-0.000066	0.0048	0.0288	-0.0673	-1.0316	15.8162	3906
Sweden	-0.000003	0.0034	0.0216	-0.0183	0.0180	5.3633	4179
Switzerland	0.000038	0.0031	0.0204	-0.0395	-0.3317	11.4830	4135
Turkey	-0.000220	0.0051	0.0343	-0.1550	-8.3744	244.9313	3706
United Kingdom	0.000007	0.0025	0.0151	-0.0127	0.2435	5.2212	4135
Panel B: x							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.000028	0.000021	0.000064	-0.000015	-0.2989	1.7578	3754
Canada	0.000001	0.000011	0.000028	-0.000028	0.0155	2.3057	3944
Japan	-0.000033	0.000025	0.000006	-0.000079	-0.0395	1.4642	4136
New Zealand	0.000031	0.000020	0.000075	-0.000024	-0.5069	2.9380	4097
Norway	0.000013	0.000026	0.000069	-0.000031	0.0547	2.1062	4179
Poland	0.000060	0.000050	0.000191	-0.000016	0.5655	2.4740	3705
South Africa	0.000087	0.000046	0.000252	0.000025	1.3692	4.5322	3906
Sweden	-0.000001	0.000021	0.000074	-0.000037	-0.0040	1.8841	4179
Switzerland	-0.000022	0.000019	0.000007	-0.000056	-0.2534	1.3937	4135
Turkey	0.000327	0.000283	0.001093	-0.000003	1.1132	2.9000	3706
United Kingdom	0.000013	0.000013	0.000040	-0.000016	-0.3316	1.9018	4135
Panel C: bid-ask spread for exchange rate							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.000424	0.000304	0.0073	-0.0036	7.9601	162.7278	3754
Canada	0.000560	0.000422	0.0105	-0.0088	0.4612	163.0498	3944
Japan	0.042292	0.050393	1.1000	-1.6500	-4.6389	379.0365	4136
New Zealand	0.000601	0.000379	0.0063	-0.0023	4.8446	54.1327	3785
Norway	0.007035	0.009120	0.1610	-0.0193	6.9505	76.4089	4179
Poland	0.007801	0.027026	0.7919	-1.0540	-9.8431	873.9819	3705
South Africa	0.020363	0.026478	0.3891	-0.9950	-12.0176	574.4119	3906
Sweden	0.006827	0.005446	0.1075	-0.0235	6.0459	79.2316	4179
Switzerland	0.000574	0.000524	0.0150	-0.0062	7.6518	174.3914	4135
Turkey	0.005083	0.011854	0.4350	-0.0037	17.5234	530.2082	3644
United Kingdom	0.000602	0.002899	0.1840	-0.0056	61.3057	3878.0030	4135
Panel D: high-low spread for exchange rate							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.0090	0.0058	0.0735	0.0005	2.9352	20.3305	3754
Canada	0.0102	0.0056	0.0744	0.0000	2.5571	16.7048	3944
Japan	1.1200	0.6924	11.5500	0.0000	3.4432	30.8228	4136
New Zealand	0.0082	0.0046	0.0511	0.0005	2.2260	12.6022	3785
Norway	0.0813	0.0411	0.4592	0.0000	2.2022	12.4871	4179
Poland	0.0440	0.0290	0.2435	0.0000	2.2022	9.3633	3705
South Africa	0.1272	0.0991	1.7651	0.0000	4.7139	52.2640	3906
Sweden	0.0934	0.0489	0.4923	0.0000	1.9745	9.4176	4179
Switzerland	0.0136	0.0066	0.0786	0.0000	1.7100	9.0981	4135
Turkey	0.0177	0.0187	0.3865	0.0000	5.0185	61.2015	3706
United Kingdom	0.0142	0.0073	0.1058	0.0000	2.3360	15.1971	4135

4.2 Variables Description

In Table 2, the sample statistics of the variables also indicate a difference between emerging countries and developed countries. The exchange rate differential (the dependent variable, y) has largest negative skewness for Turkey and second largest for South Africa. Turkey and South Africa, the only two developing countries in the sample, also have large kurtosis which is significantly different from others. However, unlike the results for the dependent variable, the interest rate differentials (independent variable, x) for Turkey and South Africa are positive. The magnitude of the interest rate differential is slightly larger than others. For example, Turkey's interest rate differential skewness is 2 times higher than the one of Poland while Turkey's exchange rate differential skewness is about 40 times higher than Poland's skewness. Kurtosis of exchange rate and interest rate differential has similar conclusion.

For the bid-ask spread, kurtosis is higher for United Kingdom and Poland and there is no emerging and developed country difference of the skewness. Emerging countries and developed countries have mixed signs of skewness. Compared with bid-ask spread, high-low spread all have positive skewness and emerging countries have significantly higher skewness and kurtosis in magnitude.

My generalized solution is $\tilde{x}_{j,t+1} = \log\left(\frac{1+R_{i,t+1}/365}{1+R_{j,t+1}/365}\right) + \log\left(\frac{S_{ij,t+1}}{S_{ij,t}}\right)$. For each eleven countries, I calculate historical generalized solution skewness from daily data. From the description, I find a difference on skewness between emerging and developed countries. Australia, Japan, New Zealand, Sweden and United Kingdom have negative skewness, indicating carry trade returns have crash risk. For the two emerging coun-

tries, Turkey has a high positive 8.33 skewness and South Africa has 1.03 implying little crash risks. These numbers are much higher than other countries that also have positive skewness of the generalized solution. All these results are available to check in Table 3.

The volatility of generalized solution is in the same magnitude for all the tested currencies. However, the kurtosis values vary among different countries. Turkey's generalized solution has the largest kurtosis, indicating a sharper peak and longer fatter tails. South Africa is the second largest. These two emerging countries show a great difference from other developed countries on both skewness and kurtosis of the generalized solution. Empirical evidence in Bansal (2000) indicates the forward premium puzzle is only significant in developed countries and does not exist in emerging countries. The generalized solution does show a country difference on its sample statistics. I also have other variables description shown in Table 3. All these results are from middle price.²⁵

Table 3: Generalized solution description-daily data

General Solution Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.000030	0.0037	0.0359	-0.0317	-0.3050	12.1538	3784
Canada	-0.000037	0.0025	0.0141	-0.0173	0.1476	6.3165	3974
Japan	-0.000003	0.0030	0.0239	-0.0301	-0.4073	8.7022	4166
New Zealand	-0.000015	0.0037	0.0196	-0.0293	-0.2293	5.9419	4127
Norway	-0.000025	0.0033	0.0211	-0.0216	0.0710	5.6976	4209
Poland	-0.000065	0.0040	0.0224	-0.0285	0.2328	7.2014	3735
South Africa	-0.000018	0.0048	0.0672	-0.0289	1.0274	15.9080	3936
Sweden	0.000004	0.0034	0.0183	-0.0217	-0.0213	5.3840	4209
Switzerland	-0.000010	0.0031	0.0395	-0.0204	0.3238	11.4464	4165
Turkey	-0.000109	0.0051	0.1544	-0.0350	8.3294	245.4812	3736
United Kingdom	-0.000018	0.0025	0.0127	-0.0151	-0.2541	5.2406	4165

²⁵Other prices, last price, open price, ask price, bid price, high price and low prices are also tested. For example, I use last price of interest rate and exchange rate to get the generalized solution and replicate the regressions. The results are very similar, here I only report middle price in the paper.

4.3 Stationary Test

In this section, I investigate the stationary null hypothesis using Bloomberg data for all the tested countries. The stationary tests include test on the raw data, which includes both interest rates with different maturities and spot exchange rates with different maturities. I also test the stationarity of the variables in the regression, which include dependent variable (log exchange spot rate difference), independent variable (log interest rate difference), the generalized risk factor, the mean and the deviation of the generalized risk factor. All the stationary tests are repeated for the overall data and every five year data, from year 1998 to 2002, from 2003 to 2007, and from 2008 to 2012. The purpose of 5-year test is to check whether there is sub-period difference in the regression.

All the detailed stationary test results are reported in the Appendix. I separate the tests for all 11 countries. For example, in Appendix B, I report the stationary tests for Australia. For each country, I have stationary tests on 3 parts: The first two figures are about the raw interest rate and exchange rate data; the second two figures are the stationary tests on the dependent and independent variables; the last three figures are about generalized risk factor, the mean of the generalized risk factor and the variance of the generalized risk factor. In each figure, there are three sub-figures: The first sub-figure is the autocorrelation and partial correlation graph; the second sub-figure is the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test (ADF test) on the data to check the unit root; if the ADF test cannot reject the hypothesis that there is a unit root at some level of confidence, I continue to test whether the first difference is stationary

and report the ADF test on the first difference in the third sub-figure.

Nominal interest rates are often found to be non-stationary. In my test, I find the same conclusion. Most countries have non-stationary nominal interest, except Japan and Poland which are stationary under 1% statistical significant level of ADF test. Sweden and United Kingdom are stationary under 10% statistical significant level. However, the non-stationarity of the data is largely due to the early sub-period, 1998 to 2002. For example, the nominal interest rate Australia is overall non-stationary but the interest rate is stationary under 5% level during the sub-period 2003 to 2007 and stationary under 10% level during the sub-period 2008 to 2012. Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland and Turkey have the same pattern as Australia. Norway, South Africa, and Sweden are only stationary during 2008 to 2012. Japan and United Kingdom are different from others, with stationarity during the early period 1998 to 2002 and the late sub-period, 2008 to 2012. The spot exchange rates of all the 11 tested countries are all non-stationary. There is no obvious pattern for the sub-periods as what is shown in the nominal interest rate. Canada and Poland show stationarity during the sub-period 2003 and 2007, while Japan is stationary during 2008 and 2012. Only Turkey is stationary during the early period 1998 and 2002.

The independent variable in the dissertation is defined as the log interest rate difference, which is to the log difference between the foreign country's interest rate and local (U.S.) interest rate. For the independent variable, most countries are non-stationary, except Canada, Poland, Sweden and United Kingdom. Canada and United Kingdom are stationary under 1% significant level. Poland and Sweden are stationary under 5% significant level. For the sub-periods, the conclusion is similar, most countries

showing non-stationarity during the sub-periods. Canada and Switzerland are stationary during two sub-periods, 1998 to 2002 and 2008 to 2012. Japan is stationary during 2008 and 2012. Norway, Poland, South Africa and Turkey are stationary during 2003 to 2007. Sweden is only stationary during 2008 to 2012. The dependent variable is the log difference between exchange spot rate one period in the future and current exchange spot rate. All the countries show strong stationary evidence for the dependent variable for the overall data and sub-periods data.

The generalized risk factors for all the countries are stationary, but the mean and the deviation of the generalized risk factors are not. The mean and the deviation of the generalized risk factor are calculated based on 1-month (20 trading days), 3-month (60 trading days), 12-month (240 trading days), 2-year (480 trading days) and overall data moving average. In the Appendix, I only include the overall data graphs.

For the mean of the generalized risk factor, most countries are stationary for the overall data, except Sweden. Canada and Turkey are stationary under 5% level, but not under 1% level. For the 1-month, 3-month and 12-month moving average mean, all the countries are stationary. But for long run, the 2-year moving average, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland and United Kingdom are stationary under 5% confidence interval, not 1% level. South Africa and Turkey are stationary only under 10% level. It seems for the long run, the mean variables of the generalized factor are more and more non-stationary.

For the variance of the generalized risk factor, the conclusion is the opposite. Most countries are not stationary for the overall data, except Canada and Sweden. Canada is stationary even under 1% confidence interval while Sweden is stationary under 5%

level. For the short-run moving average, like the 1-month moving average deviation of the generalized risk factor, all the countries show stationary time series. But the moving average variance becomes more and more non-stationary when it is assumed to be calculated by 3-month, 6-month, 12-month and 2-year data. For the 3-month moving average, most countries are still stationary under 5% level, except Norway which is stationary under 10% level. For the 12-month, Australia is stationary under 5% level, Canada is stationary under 10% level but the other countries are not stationary. For the 2-year, no country is stationary.

CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL RESULTS ANALYSIS

5.1 A Replication of the Original Model

The first test is a replication of the original model without adding the impact of the generalized factor. The result is presented in Table 4 panel A. The test results match the previous literature by showing that the coefficients are negative for high interest rate countries. A negative coefficient sign indicates that when the foreign asset provides a higher interest return, the foreign currency will appreciate, a violation of UIP. Also note that the explanatory power of the original model is quite low. Low R^2 phenomenon is also documented in Fama (1984), which shows that the variation of the exchange rate movements can not be explained by interest rate changes.

The original model also shows inconsistency on the coefficient signs. Five out of eleven tested countries have positive coefficient signs. The test results are not consistent with Bansal and Dahlquist (2000)'s seminal empirical finding that developing countries have no forward premium puzzle. Using time-series information from 28 emerging and developed countries, Bansal and Dahlquist (2000) conclude that the forward premium puzzle is not a pervasive phenomenon and it is only confined to developed countries. Turkey and South Africa are the only two developing countries tested in the first round but their coefficients are both negative, South Africa -0.4327 and Turkey -0.7810. The five countries that present positive coefficients in the results are Norway, Canada, Sweden, United Kingdom and Switzerland. Switzerland

has a lower-income on the asset and Swiss Franc is always used as the funding currency. The positive interest rate differential predicts a depreciation of the exchange rate, which shows no forward premium puzzle. This fact matches Bansal (1997), in which the forward premium puzzle is confined to the high interest rate currencies, not funding currencies. Whereas Japanese Yen is classified as one of the popular funding currency, the interest rate differential coefficient is negative, which is not consistent with Swiss Franc.

The original model test confirms the previous literature that the forward premium puzzle is state dependent. The forward premium puzzle is present at high income developed countries. It means that the puzzle is confined to the developed countries when foreign interest rates of the country exceed U.S. interest rates. The expected exchange rate changes and interest rate differentials are negatively related, indicating an appreciation of the foreign currency.

Table 4: A replication regression

Original model		Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
Variables	x	-2.1717	4.3973	-0.0782	-0.6918	1.3888	-0.2930	-0.4327	1.9982	0.6840	-0.7810	0.0049
		-1.2531	1.2309	-0.0700	-0.4397	0.7813	-0.3526	-0.5556	0.8035	0.4210	-4.1169	0.0024
R-squared		0.0002	0.0002	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0026	0.0000
DW		2.0792	2.0955	2.0258	2.0162	2.0529	1.9304	2.0428	2.0582	2.0737	1.9204	1.9355

5.2 Short-term Rolling Regression Models

Fama (1984) points out that the negative relationship between the exchange rate changes and interest rate differentials implies that the risk premium should be negatively related to the exchange rate changes. Now suppose the exchange rate change can be separated into two parts, the interest rate differential and the risk premium (P) which is omitted in the model.

$$\log(E_t(S_{ij,t+1})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) = P + (r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}) \quad (31)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \beta &= \frac{\text{cov}(\log(E_t(S_{ij,t+1})) - \log(S_{ij,t}), r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1})}{\text{var}(r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1})} \\ &= \frac{\text{cov}(P + (r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}), r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1})}{\text{var}(r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1})} \\ &= \frac{\text{var}(r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}) + \text{cov}(P, (r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1}))}{\text{var}(r_{j,t+1} - r_{i,t+1})} \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

Thus, the risk premium should be negatively correlated to the interest rate differentials. Intuitively, since the interest change differentials and exchange rate changes are expected to present a positive relationship, the missing risk premium should relate to the exchange rate changes negatively to change the coefficient signs.

For the short run test, I assume investors observe risks from 2-weeks (10 days), 1-month (20 days) and 3-month (60 days) historical prices and ask for risk premiums, which are documented in the generalized risk factor. The mean and variance of the generalized risk factor come from the moving average of 10, 20 and 60 days prices, as introduced in Chapter 4. Table 5 reports the short-term rolling regression results. Investors are assumed to use 2-weeks (Panel A), 1-month (Panel B), and 3-month (Panel C) information to make adjustment on the exchange spot rate movement. The

variable x is the log term of the foreign interest rate minus the log term of the US interest rate, which is the term in the first parentheses of equation (28). The variable meanrf is the mean of the generalized risk factor and the variable devrf represents the variance of the generalized risk factor, which are the second and third independent variables in equation (28). The corresponding coefficient for each country is reported after each variable and the number under the coefficient is the t-statistics. R^2 and Durbin-Watson (DW) statistic are also reported in each panel.

For the short run regression model, the variance and the mean of the generalized risk factor (devrf and meanrf) do not present a significant negative relationship with the exchange rate changes. For the 2-weeks regression model, only Switzerland has -0.0022 coefficient of the mean of the risk factor and Sweden has -0.2165 of the deviation of the risk factor. For other short-term periods, there are more negative coefficients, but the results are not persistent. For example, the coefficient of the mean variable of Turkey is negative for 1-month rolling regression but it becomes positive for 3-month rolling model. It is not likely that the mean and deviation of the generalized risk factors in the short run to be the omitted risk premium that is missed in the original model.

Another empirical irregularity of the uncovered interest rate parity is that the coefficients are not close to one. From equation (32), the risk premiums should be more volatile than the interest rate differentials to get the negative signs. In the rolling regression model, the magnitudes of the coefficients on variance factor are consistently larger than the ones of the interest rate differentials. However, the signs of the coefficients change across countries.

For the short-run rolling model, adding the mean and variance of the historical generalized factor does not correct the negative coefficients of interest rate differentials to positive. However, the magnitudes of the negative coefficients are gradually decreased. For example, the coefficients of Australia decrease from -3.5340 of the 2-weeks rolling model, -2.8504 of the 1-month rolling model, to -1.8810 of the 3-month rolling model. Switzerland, New Zealand and United Kingdom reveal the same pattern. However, for the two developing countries, the magnitude maintains on the same level no matter what maturity the rolling model uses. Turkey has -0.8884, -0.8518 and -0.8157. South Africa even has larger negative coefficient for the 3-month rolling model.

For lower income economies, the new added factors will increase the magnitude of the coefficients, making the coefficients even more deviated from one. The coefficient of Japan is 1.3519 for the 2-weeks rolling model and it increases to 2.1086 and 2.2601 for the 1-month and 3-month rolling models. Sweden show similar evidence, with the magnitude of the coefficients increasing for longer maturity rolling models. Moreover, R^2 is increased but the explanation power of the new model is still small.

The above implications promote another assumption that investors are not traded based on short term historical information. It could also be the case that the short run information is too noisy for the market participants to observe and require proper compensation. The results also suggest that, on average, there is no major difference between 2-weeks, 1-month and 3-month rolling models.

For the relative long-term rolling regression, the mean and variance are now calculated based on 240 and 480 days moving average. The final step is the overall

regression, where all the historical information is put in and the mean and variance are achieved through the same moving average methodology as the short-term rolling models, and the results are reported in the next subsections.

Table 5: Short-term rolling regressions

Panel A: 2-weeks Rolling Regression											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	-3.5340	5.6704	1.3519	-1.3734	2.4324	0.5836	-0.6703	2.2087	-0.4683	-0.8884	-2.8022
meanrf	-1.8754	1.5395	0.9811	-0.7072	1.2414	0.6388	-0.7403	0.8808	-0.2631	-4.5039	-1.1622
	0.1047	0.1214	0.0299	0.0459	0.1506	0.0969	0.0804	0.0687	-0.0022	0.0751	0.0427
devrf	1.8955	2.3031	0.5615	0.8988	2.8279	1.7791	1.4144	1.3194	-0.0437	1.1638	0.8672
	3.4544	-2.0767	7.3988	1.9292	2.8740	5.8148	1.3776	-0.2165	5.3373	1.7938	13.8357
R-squared	1.7143	-0.5486	1.7880	0.5741	0.8673	2.2525	0.7269	-0.0699	1.5452	2.7392	2.7259
DW	0.0016	0.0016	0.0006	0.0003	0.0021	0.0019	0.0008	0.0006	0.0005	0.0071	0.0018
	2.0593	2.0733	2.0223	2.0076	2.0256	1.9123	2.0257	2.0449	2.0771	1.8990	1.9305
Panel B: 1-month Rolling Regression											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	-2.8504	5.9918	2.1086	-1.6788	2.9393	0.1693	-0.6122	2.4001	-1.4398	-0.8518	-1.6979
meanrf	-1.4645	1.6005	1.4326	-0.8221	1.4589	0.1802	-0.6371	0.9535	-0.7812	-4.1537	-0.6921
	0.0701	0.1595	0.1077	0.0420	0.1256	-0.0760	0.0062	0.0749	-0.0364	-0.0896	-0.0282
devrf	0.8708	2.0402	1.4046	0.5759	1.6423	-0.9988	0.0768	1.0151	-0.5171	-0.9860	-0.3979
	1.7362	-3.0682	11.1450	2.8560	-5.2035	-3.1577	1.0126	-2.4729	-9.4616	0.7462	8.9293
R-squared	0.7447	-0.7654	2.2851	0.7422	-1.3900	-1.0985	0.4450	-0.7507	-2.2936	0.8299	1.6265
DW	0.0004	0.0013	0.0012	0.0002	0.0011	0.0008	0.0001	0.0005	0.0012	0.0029	0.0008
	2.0734	2.0812	2.0182	2.0125	2.0416	1.9332	2.0421	2.0507	2.0816	1.9271	1.9388
Panel C: 3-month Rolling Regression											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	-1.8810	4.7185	2.2601	-0.3874	2.0013	0.2910	-1.5411	2.6259	-0.5652	-0.8157	-1.1567
meanrf	-0.8718	1.2028	1.3625	-0.1756	0.9529	0.2908	-1.3810	1.0130	-0.2949	-3.4230	-0.4657
	0.0715	0.1163	0.1711	-0.0101	0.0578	0.0466	-0.0076	0.1012	0.0944	0.0492	0.0505
devrf	0.4891	0.8453	1.2116	-0.0787	0.4419	0.3555	-0.0558	0.7883	0.7382	0.3137	0.3978
	-0.9819	1.2298	13.4286	-0.9943	-1.6205	-3.2525	4.9368	-0.3490	-3.9998	0.0086	6.5813
R-squared	-0.3099	0.2743	2.2128	-0.2172	-0.3889	-0.9631	1.5602	-0.0997	-0.8560	0.0058	1.0993
DW	0.0003	0.0004	0.0010	0.0000	0.0002	0.0003	0.0006	0.0003	0.0001	0.0028	0.0003
	2.0776	2.0922	2.0253	2.0163	2.0509	1.9223	2.0441	2.0517	2.0732	1.9191	1.9302

5.3 Relative Long-term Rolling Regression Models

Adding the mean and variance of the historical generalized factor correct the negative coefficients of interest rate differentials to positive for 12-month rolling and 2-year rolling models, especially, higher income economies. However, the coefficients are significantly different from one.

These relative long term rolling models work much better than the short run models, especially for the higher interest rate countries, like Australia, New Zealand and United Kingdom. The coefficients of Australia and United Kingdom become positive for the 12-month and 2-year rolling regression. New Zealand has a coefficient of 2.006 for the 12-month rolling model. For lower income economies, the new added factors will not change the positive coefficients in the short-run model. It still just increase the magnitude of the coefficients, making the coefficients even more deviated from one. Moreover, R^2 is increased but the explanation power of the new model is still small.

This empirical fact indicates the possibility that the risks captured by the generalized fact are due to the carry trade holding. Carry-trade is an old and popular strategy in international market. It consists of borrowing low interest rate currencies such as the Japanese yen, and simultaneously longing finance high interest rate currencies such as the New Zealand dollar. The violation of UIP theory shows that high interest rate currency will appreciate which means holding such currencies will generate profits for investors. Carry trade holdings, in turn, exaggerate the forward premium puzzle.

Since the model works better for popular high interest carry trade currencies, the risks captured in the model may reflect the danger of carry trade holding. Given the short time frame, carry trade may dominate the exchange rate movement which causes a violation from UIP hypothesis until carry trade unwinds. Carry trade pays off on average but the volatility is high. At times the strategy produces big losses and this is often called carry trade unwinding. Carry trade unwinding happens from time to time, but the timing and the magnitude is not certain in the short run. Assume there is a small probability that a substantial appreciation of foreign currency will occur. During the long run, carry trade unwinding will happen for sure and the benefits of carry trade are eliminated. Thus, market participant may observe risks and ask for proper compensation in the long run. I will do more analysis on this part when I compare different rolling models.

Table 6: Long-term rolling regressions

PanelA: 12-month Rolling Regression											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	0.4033	3.4083	2.4987	2.0060	1.3312	0.3883	-2.2012	3.2513	0.8224	-1.2908	1.0170
meanrf	0.1374	0.8111	1.2279	0.7798	0.5732	0.3438	-1.5219	1.1478	0.3690	-3.3648	0.3786
	0.0252	0.1899	0.3324	-0.1147	0.2818	0.4382	-0.0804	0.2449	0.0759	-0.3198	-0.0172
devrf	0.0749	0.6982	0.9370	-0.4594	0.9866	1.5502	-0.3251	0.8960	0.2576	-1.0705	-0.0620
	-6.9925	6.8939	13.6127	-8.9776	1.8899	-0.4334	9.4463	2.0453	2.1401	5.2206	-2.6247
	-1.3433	1.3303	1.7740	-1.5322	0.4015	-0.1099	2.0184	0.5262	0.3703	1.7633	-0.3647
R-squared	0.0009	0.0005	0.0006	0.0006	0.0004	0.0007	0.0011	0.0005	0.0002	0.0026	0.0000
DW	2.0925	2.0955	2.0182	2.0118	2.0456	1.9230	2.0480	2.0501	2.0632	1.9212	1.9291
PanelB: 2-year Rolling Regression											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	0.0609	3.1630	3.7164	-0.1652	0.8824	0.7271	-2.5755	2.7082	2.2373	-1.5796	1.5826
meanrf	0.0144	0.7418	1.6734	-0.0480	0.3798	0.5495	-1.1680	0.9221	0.8104	-2.6785	0.5003
	0.0774	0.4077	1.0978	0.0610	0.3033	0.2790	0.1305	0.1591	0.1790	-0.3422	-0.1435
devrf	0.1178	0.8764	2.1808	0.1240	0.7118	0.6013	0.3470	0.3981	0.3746	-0.9154	-0.3030
	-6.1109	7.6392	21.2593	-4.1944	2.4383	-0.3429	9.7289	2.5146	6.9546	8.3916	-3.1937
	-0.7906	1.3062	2.4545	-0.5420	0.4704	-0.0793	1.4209	0.5903	0.9323	1.7280	-0.3649
R-squared	0.0005	0.0004	0.0015	0.0002	0.0002	0.0001	0.0005	0.0003	0.0000	0.0021	0.0001
DW	2.0895	2.0986	2.0275	2.0099	2.0442	1.9221	2.0499	2.0525	2.0711	1.9206	1.9370

5.4 Overall Rolling Regression

In the overall rolling regression, I assume that the market participants will use all the historical prices to observe the risks and errors. I first test my model on total monthly data and the results are reported in Table 7. The purpose of this overall regression which covers more than 10 years time period for all currencies is to check whether the risks that investors might ask for a premium over time to compensate for holding foreign assets are due to long-term risks and whether the risk premiums that have been asked for are more appropriate in the long run. If the long-term risks and errors are well understood by investors in the market and are captured by the historical exchange rate and interest rate prices, then the generalized solution should solve the forward premium puzzle by changing the negative coefficients to positive and the results should be better than the short-term model.

My finding is consistent with what I expect. It is shown that for each of the eleven countries, all of the interest rate differential coefficients are positive after adding mean and variance of the generalized solution. For the daily regression shown in the appendix, the coefficients sign are mixed. For example, Japan and Turkey have negative coefficients in the model without constant term. This is consistent with the stylized fact in the literature that UIP holds better in monthly data.²⁶

Compared with the short-term rolling and the relative long-term rolling models, overall rolling model work even better. The major improvement is that all the co-

²⁶This stylized fact is well documented by Chinn and Meredith (2005), Boudoukh et al. (2005) and Chinn (2006). In the latest Chinn and Quayyum (2012), they extend their previous work to the period up to 2011 and show this stylized fact is still hold. Monthly data disclose less forward premium puzzle than short daily data.

efficients are positive. The coefficients of the two developing countries, Turkey and South Africa are not just positive but also significant, which is not shown in the other models. The mean of the generalized factor is not significant for many countries but the coefficients are all negative and have large magnitude. The deviation of the generalized factor are negative for the high interest rate countries with large magnitude but positive for the low interest rate countries, like Japan, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. As shown in the previous sections, this indicates over the long run the mean of the generalized factor might capture the omitted risk premiums and the deviation of the generalized factor might capture the risk premiums for the high interest rate currencies, the carry trade risks. It seems that the information captured by the long run prices is more accurate to correct the puzzle than the short run. Forward premium puzzle indicates higher interest rates are associated with future appreciation of exchange rate at short horizon. Over the long run, like 10 years, the temporary effects fade. Exchange rate will drop to reflect more fundamental dynamics as shown in UIP hypothesis.

In short run test, I state that carry trade holding will cause the deviation from UIP hypothesis. But in the long run, unwinding will happen to carry trade currencies when investors reach the liquidity limit. Carry trade reversal will cut the profitability of carry trade, making the total returns not far away from UIP's prediction. The insignificant long run test continuously confirms the argument on carry trading holding risks.

The results are robust on regressions with constant and regressions with high-low spread and bid-ask spread. However most of the interest rate coefficients are not

significant, except South Africa and Turkey. This indicates conventional risks are not dominant reasons to drive exchange rate movement. Transaction costs are expected to fall monotonically over time and these conventional risks are fade over time. Risk premiums vary in the long run. For example, country risk and political risk change from time to time. The recession of early 90's US economy brings lower US interest rates. Investors trade in high yield emerging markets. Later US interest rates increase while Japanese interest rates fall to almost zero. Contagious crises associated with Russia and LTCM of 1998 change the currency trade again the market. Forecast errors are also corrected after a learning process. Thus long horizon movement reflects more fundamental dynamics and the returns are moderate.

R^2 results further provide evidence for this stylized fact. Most countries have less than 3% R^2 , except South Africa (6%) and Turkey (17%). The coefficients of generalized factor's mean are negative for all countries, which is consistent with the 3-month information regression. Thus, the foreign currencies tend to appreciate when the expected risk captured by the generalized solution increase. The coefficients of the volatility provide meaningful results. Most high interest rate currencies have negative coefficients on the volatility term. This shows that when the currency is more volatile from the historical trading pattern exchange rate is more likely to appreciate to compensate investors. There are four countries that have negative coefficients and three of them are low interest rate currencies. Interestingly, bid-ask spread coefficients are not significant which hints that the movement of exchange rate is not derived by conventional transaction costs.

The low R^2 in the regression motivates me to test for a special time period, the

financial crisis. During the crisis, investors are more likely to reach the liquidity constraint and have to give up the holdings on risky currencies. Expected carry trade holding risk premium disappears because of the capital liquidity constraint and carry trade reversal. The generalized solution from historical returns has no predictability on the timing of carry trade reversal. The unexpected change in exchange market will make the generalized factor useless since now there is no forward premium anomaly and the risk premiums from carry trade holding should not correct the coefficient sign. Hence, I continue to provide short run tests focusing on this special time period, financial crisis.

Table 7: Overall monthly regression result

PanelA: without constant coefficient											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	4.6453	1.8824	0.8283	2.5015	0.7764	0.3003	6.1264	1.1968	1.1346	1.9360	0.9164
meanrf	1.2064	0.5840	0.5460	0.9176	0.4906	0.2186	2.6621	0.6370	0.4788	2.8061	0.4604
	-3.4092	-1.8408	-3.4307	-1.5716	-1.1319	-3.9504	-5.0431	-0.8221	-0.7309	-9.9011	-2.7189
	-1.8249	-1.3721	-1.9979	-1.8053	-1.2739	-2.2557	-3.0520	-1.0501	-0.7931	-4.5481	-1.6553
devrf	-30.8224	-0.4013	23.6977	-30.6843	3.2765	-37.7288	-43.8143	9.0113	16.7763	-140.1248	-19.0335
	-1.6161	-0.0296	2.5071	-1.7593	0.3927	-1.8487	-2.8657	1.0355	1.7744	-4.2989	-1.2325
R-squared	0.0251	0.0121	0.0307	0.0254	0.0103	0.0349	0.0632	0.0130	0.0117	0.1702	0.0176
PanelB: with constant coefficient											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
c	0.0056	0.0057	0.0004	-0.0003	0.0162	-0.0515	0.0074	0.0081	0.0149	0.0169	-0.0066
	0.6465	1.6105	0.0906	-0.0295	1.4347	-2.2450	0.4503	0.7543	0.8230	0.7873	-1.0146
x	5.2853	2.9664	0.7882	2.5524	0.7914	2.5558	6.1786	1.6964	2.6193	2.4205	2.0991
	1.3268	0.9055	0.4973	0.7893	0.5017	1.5157	2.6741	0.8505	0.8789	2.6161	0.9101
meanrf	-3.6589	-3.5235	-3.4182	-1.6037	-2.4881	-13.8514	-5.8777	-1.6612	-1.1327	-10.5152	-3.5076
	-1.9142	-2.0790	-1.9779	-1.1494	-1.9208	-2.9247	-2.3641	-1.2207	-1.0852	-4.5416	-1.9303
devrf	-57.7385	-69.1516	22.0132	-29.6842	-93.6916	50.2242	-63.0254	-34.1297	-66.2478	-182.0055	40.3177
	-1.2604	-1.5445	1.0548	-0.7778	-1.3758	1.1404	-1.3901	-0.5899	-0.6538	-2.9162	0.6664
R-squared	0.0280	0.0291	0.0308	0.0254	0.0229	0.0691	0.0645	0.0165	0.0159	0.1739	0.0240
PanelC: with other variables											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	4.7837	1.9305	0.8153	2.4410	1.2534	0.3897	8.5538	1.5682	2.0774	1.6433	0.6092
	1.2354	0.5968	0.5281	0.8890	0.7722	0.2848	3.6425	0.8449	0.8996	2.5422	0.3037
meanrf	-3.9178	-1.3939	-3.2480	-1.6268	-0.7698	-3.2128	-4.3791	-0.4493	-1.2867	-6.2031	-2.7412
	-2.0324	-0.9142	-1.8859	-1.8308	-0.7681	-1.8159	-2.7114	-0.4914	-1.3092	-2.8760	-1.4007
devrf	-50.9241	29.3461	12.1862	-36.9934	25.2384	-4.8880	-27.6629	36.8630	3.1072	-74.7805	-48.9742
	-2.1304	1.0280	0.9727	-1.5738	1.2866	-0.1996	-1.7756	2.1999	0.1875	-2.2763	-1.7488
bid-ask	2.5341	0.9643	-0.0200	-0.3658	-0.1948	-0.1857	-0.0270	-0.5646	-4.0787	-0.1900	0.7477
	0.5937	0.4288	-0.6951	-0.1630	-0.8960	-1.0088	-0.4598	-2.4759	-3.1517	-0.8014	0.3017
high-low	0.3407	-0.2652	0.0031	0.1856	-0.0326	-0.1189	-0.0789	-0.0131	0.4376	-0.5071	0.1633
	1.1332	-1.4802	2.0067	0.4687	-0.8869	-1.7892	-3.0969	-0.4219	2.1992	-4.7338	1.1076
R-squared	0.0390	0.0267	0.0569	0.0268	0.0214	0.0730	0.1313	0.0583	0.0863	0.3032	0.0285

5.5 Comparison of Different Rolling Period Models

The model in the dissertation assumes that market participants anticipate risks or forecast errors and asks for appropriate risk premiums. It is not clear and materialized in the literature how market participants anticipate the risks and the movement of the exchange rate. In this section, I will make an empirical investigation on the forecast behavior of market participants.

I assume that investors anticipate risks or forecast errors using 2-weeks, 1-month, 3-month, 12-month, 2-year, and overall data rolling regressions for all the countries. For example, for 2-weeks information model, investors anticipate risks or errors from 10 trading days. The generalized risk factor is calculated using 10 days exchange spot rate and interest rate. The mean and deviation are derived from the 10 days generalized factors moving average. 2-weeks, 1-month, 3-month information are categorized as short-term information model. 12-month, 2-year model and overall data are long-term model.

Fisher (1930) discusses the Fish Equation that market participants generally did not adjust at all accurately and promptly to changes in the behavior of prices but did so only with a long lag. Friedman and Schwartz (1991) also state the problems of stochastic disturbances in the short run and importance of long-run relations. From the comparison, I reach the similar conclusion: For UIP, market participants have inaccurate and delayed adjustment of the nominal interest rate differentials and exchange rate differences in the short run. However, in the long run, the failures of UIP are not persistent.

In the 2-weeks rolling regression model, Australia has a significant negative coefficient of -3.5340, which indicates the model doesn't work. Market participants are not likely to get an accurate risk premium from 2-weeks nominal interest rate and exchange rate information. For other short-run model, the coefficients are still negative, -2.8504 for the 1-month rolling regression and -1.8810 for the 3-month rolling regression, with decreased magnitude of the coefficients. The coefficient becomes positive first in the 12-month rolling regression, which indicates the improvement in the performance of the model. In other words, market participants could anticipate risk premiums more properly when they average the data over longer time periods. The coefficient maintains positive in the 2-year and overall rolling regressions. Other countries show similar pattern. United Kingdom and Switzerland also provide evidence of stable longer horizon analysis, with positive coefficients in the 12-month and 2-year rolling regressions.

New Zealand, South Africa, Turkey have negative coefficients in the short-term rolling regression and relative long-term rolling regression model, but become positive in the overall data rolling regression. For example, Turkey has coefficients -0.8884 in the 2-weeks rolling regression, -0.8518 in the 1-month rolling regression, -0.8157 in the 3-month rolling regression, -1.2908 in the 12-month rolling regression, and -1.5796 in the 2-year rolling regression. But from the overall rolling regression, the coefficient becomes positive eventually. New Zealand and South Africa reveals similar pattern. New Zealand has the coefficient of 2.5015, South Africa has a significant positive coefficient of 6.1264 and the coefficient of Turkey is also significant and positive 1.9360. It seems for the two developing countries, Turkey and South Africa, it takes a longer

horizon to anticipate the risk premiums. All these evidence indicate that there is an improvement in the performance of UIP in the long term.

The evidence shown in the empirical rolling regressions can be related to the peso problem, which refers to the effects of low-probability events. The peso-problem type explanation is first discussed by Irving Fisher. He argued that UIP is caused by the market participants inability to forecast the movement of the exchange rates. Agents may overestimate or underestimate occasionally but in the long run the agents are able to forecast the interest rates more certainly so the UIP is less violated in the long horizon.

My results support peso problem explanation. Traditional risk factors are not proper explanation for the puzzle, which is wildly argued in the literature. In my model, agents observe the historical trading pattern and ask for the appropriate risk premiums. If the compensation for the agents comes from the traditional risk factors, which is high frequent and easily to be observed, then there should not be any difference between the short run rolling regression and long run rolling regression results. However, that is not the case in my empirical test. It seems that the market participants are not able to make appropriate adjustment from the nominal interest rate differential to estimate the movement of the exchange rate changes. Then it has to be low-probability events that do not occur often in sample that cause this difference. In the long run, peso problem is not that important and UIP is less violated.

5.6 Rolling Model Regression During the Financial Crisis

I set 8/01/2007 to 8/01/2008 as my regression test period for the financial crisis.²⁷ Table 8 shows my regression results using daily data.²⁸ More models are tried in this part. Panel A is the result without the constant term while Panel B adds the bid-ask variable which is the bid and ask spread of the spot rate and high-low variable which is the highest price on a trading day minus the lowest price. The corresponding coefficient for each country is reported after each variable and the number under the coefficient is the t-statistics. Figure 1 shows the spot rate movement during the financial crisis for each country.

The coefficients turn back to negative for Canada, Japan, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland and UK. Among them, Japan, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and UK are significant negative during the financial crisis which shows the likelihood of disappearance of carry trade and relevant risk components.

The recent financial crisis means high uncertainty and risk aversion itself. The "safe haven currencies", Japanese yen and Swiss Franc, appear more attractive than others, since such currencies represent hedge assets with low risk or high liquidity. Thus, previous literature also documents the fact that for periods of high risk aversion, we always observe appreciation of the yen and the Swiss franc against the dollar. The negative coefficients on interest rate differential seem to capture this effect and the appreciation of the two safe haven currencies is related to the volatility of the

²⁷Financial crisis starts early in equity market and moves to exchange market in August 2007.

²⁸For Monthly data, I used a two year rolling model. Monthly data show even more significant results for two year period with 24 observations. Since the observations are too small to indicate the results are convincing, I do not report the monthly result here.

generalized factor. Meanwhile, in 2006, the Bank of England cut interest rates due to inflationary concerns. The pound appreciated against the dollar and it continued to appreciate in the following year, while the US dollar declined. However, the UK currency started to lose its value until December 2008 at a rapid rate and it is not a holding currency during financial crisis. Canada and Norway are also used as safe-haven currencies from time to time by investors. Canada and Norway are always treated as commodity safe-haven currencies. These facts are consistent with the negative coefficients during the time period as what I observe in the regression results. There is no clear reason showing why Sweden also experience currency appreciation during the crisis, since there is a long-term debate on whether the Swedish Krona is a safe-haven currency.²⁹

For the 9 tested developed countries, the Australian and New Zealand dollars are two strong carry trade holding (target) currencies. IMF documents that Australian dollar is the biggest profitable currency among overall 150 currencies in the financial crisis. The effect of the financial crisis on Australia is less than most of the other countries, given the fact that the Australia economy does not experience severe recessions or rises in unemployment as the other developed economies. The local economy and the financial market are relatively healthy. Thus, unwinding of the carry trade positions for the Australian may largely explain the depreciation of the currency during the financial crisis. The impact of the financial crisis on Australia started later in 2008. New Zealand has unwinding impact during financial crisis which also happens

²⁹Arguments in favor of the Swedish Krona as a safe-haven currency include: Free floating currency inside Europe, budget balance, taxes, small and open economy, and C/A surplus; Arguments against the Swedish Krona as a safe-haven currency include: a negative net international investment position, no safe-haven banking sector, no commodity safe-haven sector and etc.

later than other currencies. The slow unwinding starts from March 2008. However, the coefficients are all positive as what is expected, indicating the depreciation of the two currencies. Two emerging countries, South Africa and Turkey, provide no evidence on carry trade unwinding but they both show impact from the financial crisis. The magnitude of the coefficients is large for both countries, 31.54 for South Africa and 28.58 for Turkey, but they are not significant.

Compared with original model, the generalized factor model are more consistent with the empirical facts. For example, both Australia and New Zealand have positive coefficients which show the depreciation of the currencies, while in the original model Australia has the negative coefficient but New Zealand has the positive sign. South Africa and United Kingdom also have coefficient signs that do not match the empirical facts. From figure 1, South African rand declined during the crisis, while in the original model the coefficient is negative not positive as it should be.

Adding high-low spread and bid-ask spread does not change the sign of interest rate differential. In my regression, for all tested countries, bid-ask spread coefficients are not significant. This could be because my solution is general enough to capture these conventional risks required by market participants. The generalized solution comes from historical exchange rate and interest rate, which already involves historical risk factors and errors. Another possible reason is that during the financial crisis, there is less insider information.³⁰

High-low spread measures the market participants' preference. 7 out of 11 high-low

³⁰See Burnside et al. (2009)'s explanation of bid ask spread which is also discussed in the literature review.

spread coefficients are significant and help to increase R^2 . But the signs are mixed, indicating less consistent preference and judgement on future price movement. Emerging countries, South Africa and Turkey, all have significant negative coefficients while developed countries show both positive slope, such as Australia and New Zealand, and negative sign, such as Norway and Canada. One noticeable thing is that the magnitude of the coefficients is relatively small compared with interest rate differential coefficients. This is because for interest rate differential I am using the log price. The largest two happen to be Australia and New Zealand, which also have the significant positive interest rate differential coefficients. For comparison, the magnitude of Australia's high-low spread coefficient is 20 times the one of Canada and 60 times the one of Japan. It seems market participants have stronger disagreement on holding Australian dollar and New Zealand dollar during financial crisis.

The mean of the generalized solution has negative relationship with the exchange rate differential under all two tested cases. Most negative coefficients are significant and have very large magnitude. From Panel A, the coefficients of mean are all significant, except Australia and Poland. The historical risk components do accelerate the downturn momentum of currencies during financial crisis. The volatility of the risk factor captured by generalized solution does not fully help to understand the movement of exchange rate changes. The coefficients of the volatility factor are not consistent. Japan, Sweden and United Kingdom have positive coefficients. It seems the historical volatilities of these three currencies will smooth the decrease of exchange rate. While for most other countries, historical volatility is an accelerating factor.

The greater R^2 after adding high-low spread implies that there are some risks or

errors that may be not fully captured by the generalized factor. These types of risk are out of expectation and are not captured by the historical interest rate and exchange rate differentials. One possible explanation is expectation errors caused by over or under reaction to the financial crisis. This might explain the mixed signs. Since this is not a sudden unwinding, these negative coefficients are not as large as the later sudden unwinding coefficients in next section. Mitchell et al. (2007) shows that exchange market has slow movement to currency policy and the comparison between the sudden unwinding and my result of financial crisis unwinding well captures this fact.

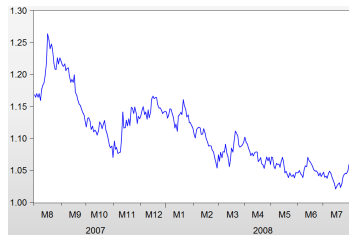
To sum up, carry trade unwind caused crisis-related movements reversed strongly for Australia and New Zealand. During the financial crisis, safe haven effects dominate carry trade effects. UIP is less violated and interest rate differentials explain more of the crisis-related exchange rate movements in 2008-2009 than in the past. The generalized factor model works well since the information captured from the historical pattern reveal the risks of the crisis.

Now, I am turning to run short term rolling model. I use 1-month rolling model which assumes the market participants ask for risk premiums from the previous 20 trading-day information, interest rate and exchange spot rate. Then I do the regressions for a 3-month rolling period in Table 9. Panel A means the regression is from 5/01/2007 to 7/01/2008, Panel B is from 6/01/2007 to 8/01/2008, Panel C is from 7/01/2007 to 9/01/2008 and Panel D is from 8/01/2007 to 10/01/2008. In this way, I could check whether the generalized factor model has the prediction ability for the financial crisis.

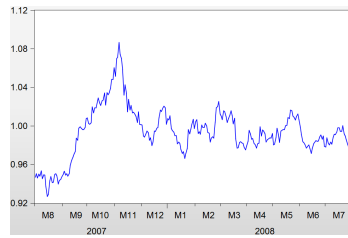
The short term rolling model reveals some evidence on the forecasting ability. Both Japanese Yen and Swiss Franc switch coefficient signs right before the financial crisis. Japanese Yen changes to negative coefficient since June, 2007, which is due to the demand of the safe haven currency. Swiss Franc also switches from positive coefficient to negative in July, 2007. All these facts reveal a gradually changed demand from target currency to safe haven currency. For the carry trade holding currencies, Australian and New Zealand dollars, it seems that the market participants start to sell Australian dollars earlier than New Zealand dollars. But the evidence is not clear here, since the coefficients are not significant. It seems that the generalized model do provide us some evidence on the forecasting.

Table 8: The financial crisis-from 8/1/2007 to 8/1/2008

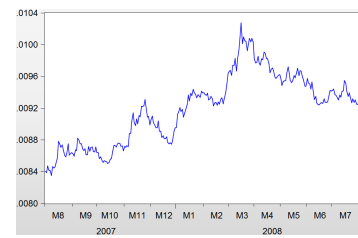
Panel A: without constant coefficient												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	41.6489	-2.2488	-102.5313	36.7979	-63.9076	-24.6048	31.5453	-45.9625	-83.8285	28.5794	-51.4919	
	2.2619	-0.0707	-3.1988	1.7733	-2.7326	-1.0364	1.5080	-1.7814	-2.2754	1.2819	-2.5167	
meanrf	-171.2618	-77.6347	-184.1121	-163.4579	-195.2106	-43.8536	-102.6581	-117.9931	-125.6428	-66.7374	-190.2604	
	0.0022	-2.1008	-3.0885	-3.1510	-2.8584	-1.2438	-2.3079	-1.9144	-2.2602	-1.9994	-3.1080	
devrf	617.99	-1018.36	426.20	-441.57	-678.38	-556.88	-236.06	41.21	-49.16	-532.95	752.16	
	0.0049	-2.0218	2.6020	-2.6572	-2.6714	-1.1398	-1.8910	1.6946	-1.0912	-2.3597	3.0857	
R-squared	0.0355	0.0194	0.0386	0.0372	0.0313	0.0063	0.0201	0.0139	0.0199	0.0215	0.0361	
Panel B: with other variables												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	46.7642	-3.1266	-90.7308	52.7136	-60.5550	-23.1177	25.2725	-43.7818	-84.7540	29.1941	-58.8080	
	2.6427	-0.0990	-2.6161	2.4519	-2.5796	-0.9672	1.2258	-1.6819	-2.2944	1.3139	-2.8863	
meanrf	-131.3924	-98.2172	-158.6228	-153.3080	-181.1628	-38.7031	-65.7193	-110.9488	-133.3297	-46.2561	-210.9935	
	-2.4391	-2.5977	-2.4098	-2.9717	-2.6337	-1.0893	-1.4597	-1.7739	-2.3551	-1.0758	-3.4638	
devrf	146.41	-966.87	299.68	-651.64	-481.54	-415.69	-27.65	85.99	-16.99	-395.06	584.02	
	0.6107	-1.9051	1.4186	-3.4178	-1.7464	-0.8246	-0.2019	1.1648	-0.1908	-1.3337	2.3526	
bid-ask	-0.2569	-0.4816	0.0062	0.0849	-0.0465	-0.0157	-0.0134	-0.0032	0.2587	0.1890	0.3993	
	-0.1861	-0.6289	0.7219	0.0998	-0.7988	-0.1205	-0.6116	-0.0530	0.6410	0.3585	0.9083	
high-low	0.2169	-0.0914	0.0003	0.1311	-0.0143	-0.0254	-0.0195	-0.0055	-0.0321	-0.0648	0.0626	
	4.9461	-2.1924	0.6784	2.5689	-1.7245	-1.2705	-3.4960	-0.7563	-0.7228	-2.0139	2.7185	
R-squared	0.1191	0.0401	0.0424	0.0612	0.0449	0.0125	0.0661	0.0161	0.0236	0.0366	0.0663	
Panel C: Original Model												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	-2.6485	-17.6421	-5.3228	1.6044	3.3942	13.8476	-0.2542	2.4947	-10.4572	1.2343	1.0940	
	-0.4871	-0.6586	-1.0742	0.3755	0.4547	2.1745	-0.0744	0.2548	-1.2239	0.7524	0.2015	
R-squared	0.0006	0.0012	0.0019	0.0002	0.0031	0.0115	0.0000	0.0034	0.0000	0.0005	0.0003	



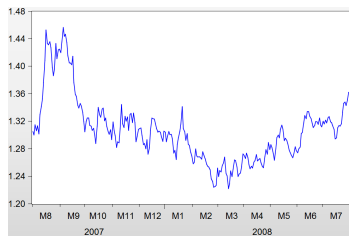
(a) Australia exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



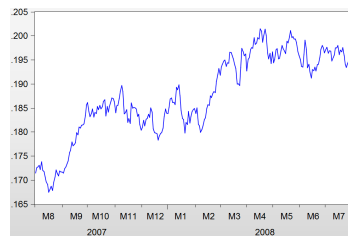
(b) Canada exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



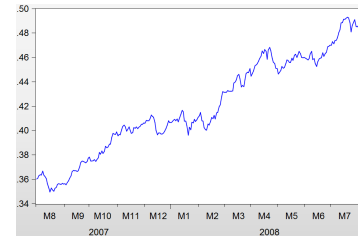
(c) Japan exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



(d) New Zealand exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



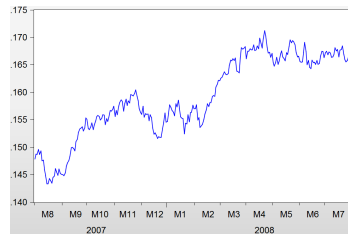
(e) Norway exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



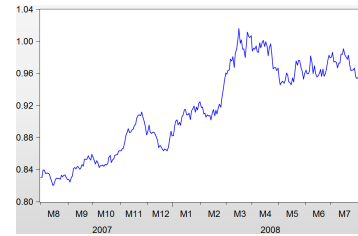
(f) Poland exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



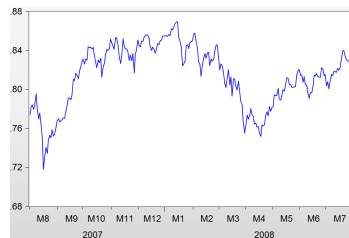
(g) South Africa exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



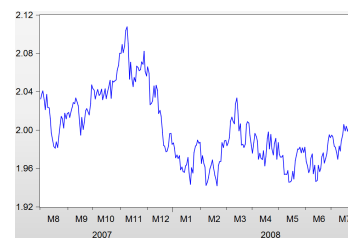
(h) Sweden exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



(i) Switzerland exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



(j) Turkey exchange spot rate during the financial crisis



(k) United Kingdom exchange spot rate during the financial crisis

Figure 1: Exchange spot rate during the financial crisis

Table 9: The financial crisis-every 3 months

Panel A: May												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	45.3581	-337.9024	0.5992	-14.5763	126.5384	76.2663	35.7694	91.3867	32.2115	23.4374	-167.6388	
meanrf	0.4356	-3.1118	0.0303	-0.4677	2.0085	0.7058	1.2275	3.2105	1.3113	2.4986	-1.3149	
	0.3401	3.1111	-0.5192	0.1133	1.0133	-0.0001	0.6676	0.1914	1.0948	3.9626	0.8422	
devrf	0.4174	2.7938	-0.3363	0.1593	1.6732	-0.0003	0.9090	0.5179	1.1929	3.1998	0.9078	
	-187.1563	-500.6608	77.1025	35.8880	458.6146	204.4765	-190.9356	560.3495	401.1314	-123.8031	382.6795	
R-squared	-0.7564	-2.4453	0.1948	0.2576	2.4013	0.7044	-1.2345	3.3059	1.3551	-1.0712	1.1356	
	0.0139	0.1244	0.0251	0.0004	0.0819	0.0078	0.0284	0.1470	0.0290	0.1381	0.0245	
Panel B: June												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	76.4735	-156.7874	-12.6790	-26.0576	34.7639	12.5668	14.3792	48.2704	12.9601	17.6274	-193.2719	
meanrf	0.8520	-1.7317	-1.1491	-0.5140	0.3243	0.1333	0.6495	1.3087	0.4799	1.7952	-1.8707	
	-0.5821	2.2882	-0.7815	0.3593	-0.0072	-0.2439	1.1515	-0.2335	0.6083	3.3245	0.9203	
devrf	-0.5788	2.1683	-0.7306	0.3514	-0.0124	-0.4928	1.3424	-0.5214	0.7037	2.2954	1.3364	
	-83.9546	-172.2111	-105.4968	92.5648	112.5436	40.0546	-77.0663	236.0751	160.4772	-98.8793	505.8539	
R-squared	-0.7752	-1.3773	-0.7930	0.7280	0.6321	0.2040	-0.8363	1.4133	0.6098	-1.6716	1.7797	
	0.0112	0.0699	0.0107	0.0171	0.0065	0.0034	0.0279	0.0311	0.0085	0.0791	0.0479	
Panel C: July												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	107.8385	-3.6165	-24.2887	48.0809	166.2304	207.7016	21.5500	93.4956	-46.9582	6.6292	-118.8391	
meanrf	1.2566	-0.0382	-1.7074	1.1635	1.7897	1.6671	0.7759	2.2714	-1.3256	0.5061	-1.1244	
	-1.1817	-0.2287	0.1407	-1.0243	-0.3826	-0.7045	0.7335	-0.6344	0.5360	0.4073	0.9858	
devrf	-1.6836	-0.3665	0.1465	-1.6331	-0.9482	-1.7141	0.8164	-1.6861	0.6790	0.3559	1.2939	
	-129.2768	47.5870	-104.5626	-98.5186	309.0229	423.7521	-59.3359	417.2511	-319.8440	-12.6134	286.4149	
R-squared	-1.7497	0.4115	-1.2052	-1.3867	2.2291	1.8893	-0.6588	2.6935	-0.9922	-0.2049	1.0007	
	0.0547	0.0082	0.0288	0.0420	0.0745	0.0595	0.0111	0.1078	0.0261	0.0027	0.0271	
Panel D: August												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	43.2048	-17.6038	-26.1088	41.7597	-43.8944	63.1632	52.0156	56.0924	-26.0117	-2.7780	-120.4935	
meanrf	0.5533	-0.1555	-1.3993	0.7745	-0.7111	0.8799	1.5413	1.1538	-0.8218	-0.1669	-1.4585	
	-0.5585	-0.2442	-0.0170	-0.5363	-0.2925	-0.3295	0.9507	-0.0153	1.2639	-0.3469	1.4124	
devrf	-0.8280	-0.4437	-0.0213	-0.9368	-0.5648	-0.7803	1.1596	-0.0342	1.5155	-0.2925	1.8235	
	-71.8713	60.5872	-127.7084	-72.3844	33.2887	168.6434	-132.9491	220.7164	-120.3464	29.4524	273.3497	
R-squared	-0.9984	0.5592	-1.2063	-0.8429	0.5150	1.5264	-1.2926	1.5006	-0.4478	0.3959	1.2160	
	0.0185	0.0152	0.0248	0.0146	0.0051	0.0274	0.0290	0.0329	0.0379	0.0027	0.0593	

5.7 Sudden Reversal for Japanese Yen: A Case Regression

Table 10: Sudden carry trade reversal of Japanese Yen

Panel A: without constant coefficient			
Variables	10/01/1998 – 1/01/1999	5/01/2006 – 8/01/2006	2/01/2007 – 5/01/2007
x	–572.8937	–835.6291	–917.2908
	–2.7255	–1.7083	–2.0964
meanrf	–16.3630	–270.3607	–685.0517
	–0.7369	–2.1167	–2.7804
devrf	–1966.538	–4102.147	–1649.261
	–2.7373	–1.4707	–0.0390
R-squared	0.1108	0.0672	0.1128
Panel B: with other variables			
Variables	10/01/1998 – 1/01/1999	5/01/2006 – 8/01/2006	2/01/2007 – 5/01/2007
x	–395.2462	–712.3993	–995.0325
	–2.1658	–1.4354	–2.3698
meanrf	–16.9365	–258.8899	–529.4194
	–0.8847	–1.9575	–2.1763
devrf	–1544.404	–3449.258	–3367.392
	–2.5014	–1.2040	–1.7999
bid-ask	–0.0073	0.0497	0.0258
	–0.8020	1.4287	1.0863
high-low	0.0018	–0.0006	0.0019
	5.1046	–0.7140	2.5575
R-squared	0.3753	0.0996	0.2144

The recent major financial crisis in 2008 is still not a perfect case to test our model. Investors can well predict the possible liquidity constraint and forecast the future carry trade reversal, which is revealed in the last part of the previous section. This fact may explain why the magnitudes of the negative coefficients are significantly large. Hence, an extension test I provide here is one for sudden Japanese Yen carry trade unwinding. During the sudden unwinding, the model with the generalized factor should capture a larger magnitude and the appreciation of the foreign exchange rate.

Japanese Yen is the most commonly traded carry trade currency. Market participants use Japanese Yen as a funding currency because it had the lowest interest rates in the world for more than 10 years. Chaboud and Gagnon (2007) show the evidence of substantial carry positions from bank loans and bond holdings of Japanese Yen. They document three sudden and rapid Japanese Yen carry trade unwinding in his-

tory, October 1998, May 2006, and February 2007. For example, in one week of 1998 (October 4 – 10), Japanese yen rose 16% against the dollar. This sudden appreciation reversed profitable carry trade using Japanese yen as the funding currency.

I provide test results in Table 10 for these three unwinding. To involve enough observations, the test starts from the carry trade reversal and lasts for a 3-month period. Compared with the results in the major financial crisis, the generalized solution captures the large appreciation of sudden unwinding by large magnitude negative coefficients. For example, the first sudden reversal has coefficient -572.89 which is negative and significantly different from unity. The large magnitude is because we use log price but it is still much greater than the slopes of the financial crisis. The mean values of the generalized factor are significant for 2006 and 2007 unwinding.

The second regression still shows bid-ask spreads are still helpful to explain the loss. This indicates that conventional risks are not enough to generate unwinding and losses. What causes these carry trade unwinding? Since conventional events, like slow tightening monetary policy, cannot explain, the reversal should be triggered by unforeseen movement. Every once in a while, carry trade reverses. The reversal is not surprising but the timing when a sudden revaluation upward of the low interest rate currency happens is not predictable. The rejection of uncovered interest rate parity tells us carry trade is profitable but the risk is also large as shown in the model. There is no clue that which new information may cause investors suddenly to sell the high

Two of the three high-low spreads are significant. These signs are all consistent with the results from financial crisis expect that under sudden unwinding regression results show much greater R^2 . It is also noticeable that even compared with the results in

Panel A and B, involving significant high-low spread largely increases R^2 . For 1998 unwinding R^2 increases from 11% to 37% and for 2007 the empirical evidence shows a 10% increase in R^2 . But for 2006 unwinding which has a non-significant high-low spread, R^2 does not change much. Compared with financial crisis results, the main difference is the magnitude of the interest rate differential coefficients. Our results provide evidence that sudden and rapid unwinding is much more painful to investors.

CHAPTER 6: REGIME TESTS

The first two dummy variables separate the interest rate differential (x) into periods of positive and negative values. Bansal (1997), the empirical evidence indicates an interest rate regime difference. When the interest rate differential is positive, the slope coefficient is negative which rejects the uncovered interest rate parity. However, the slope coefficient is positive when the interest rate differential is negative, and in this case the forward premium puzzle disappears.

$$\begin{cases} dummy1 = x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ dummy2 = x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases} \quad (33)$$

The regime test on the interest rate differential does not show that there are nonlinearities in relationship. In particular, the sign and magnitude of the slope coefficient do not depend on whether the interest rate differential is positive or not. Table 7 panel A reports this regression result. I also include bid ask spread and high low price differential in the model, but the results are very similar to the case without these variables.

The empirical test shows that the regime difference of interest rate differential does not exist after the model involving the generalized factor's mean and variance. Only Poland and Switzerland show similar coefficient signs as Bansal (1997). These two countries have negative coefficients when the interest rate differential is positive and

positive coefficients when the differential is negative. But the magnitude is not close to one and the coefficients are not significant. Four countries, Canada, New Zealand, Norway and Sweden, show the opposite results with positive coefficients when the interest rate differential is positive and negative coefficients the other way around. Australia, Japan and United Kingdom show no regime difference in the test. These countries have the same coefficient signs for both positive and negative differentials. South Africa and Turkey both have significant positive coefficient even in the long run monthly regressions and these two countries have special regime test results. After adding generalized solution's mean and deviation, South Africa and Turkey both have only positive differential and the regime test is not applicable on these two countries.

Regime difference on interest rate differential disappears after the model including the generalized factor. The meaning of the generalized solution is that it captures whatever reason that causes forward premium puzzle. When the interest rate differential is positive, the slope coefficient is negative without generalized solution and the solution is proved to correct it to positive in previous sections. This could be caused by a carry trade holding. The slope coefficient is positive when the interest rate differential is negative when there is no carry trade. Thus, after adding the generalized solution, regime difference should disappear or not generate consistent result which is shown in the results.

The next two dummies, dummy 3 and 4, are designed to check whether there is a regime difference of the generalized factor's mean. Generalized factor's mean could be positive or negative. Since the both directions make the slope sign to be positive,

there should be no regime difference.

$$\begin{cases} dummy3 = meanrf & \text{if } meanrf > 0 \\ dummy4 = meanrf & \text{if } meanrf < 0 \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

The evidence confirms that there seems no difference between positive and negative mean values. All the countries show negative coefficients when the mean values are negative. Canada, Norway and South Africa have significant negative coefficients for negative mean regime. However, for the positive mean regime, the coefficients are mixed. Most countries have negative coefficients even for the positive mean regime except Canada and Norway. Since all the coefficients for the positive mean regime are not significant, there is no nonlinearity of this regime. Japan has all positive mean values of generalized factor while New Zealand, Poland and Turkey have almost all negative mean values. Thus, these four countries are not testable. From the magnitude of the coefficients, the negative mean values affect the model much more than the positive mean values, except Australia. This means that negative risk premium derived from the generalized factor will largely decrease the exchange rate differential while positive risk premium has mixed effect on the direction of the exchange rate differential.

As stated in Bilson (1981), any regression results are possible to be derived by the impact of a small number of outlying observations. This is also very likely to trigger positive coefficients in my model's regression since the generalized factor has positive skewness. For example, South Africa and Turkey both have significant positive coefficients on interest rate differential even for the long run monthly regression. Table 2

shows that both countries have very large positive skewness. Under the assumption that the errors are temporally uncorrelated, it is very likely that my results come from the extreme positive values of interest rate differential, mean value of generalized factor or volatility of the factor. Thus, I continue to design several dummies to check whether my results are biased because of outliers.

Followed Bilson (1981), Dummy 5 and 6 divide the interest rate differentials into two groups, those less than ten percent in absolute value and those greater than ten percent in absolute value. Dummy 7 and 8 divide the observations into two wider range groups, those less than twenty percent in absolute value and those greater than twenty percent in absolute value.

$$x_{diff} = x_{maximum} - x_{minimum} \quad (35)$$

$$\begin{cases} dummy5 = x & \text{if } x < x_{minimum} + 10\% * x_{diff} \\ dummy6 = x & \text{if } x > x_{maximum} - 10\% * x_{diff} \end{cases} \quad (36)$$

$$\begin{cases} dummy7 = x & \text{if } x < x_{minimum} + 20\% * x_{diff} \\ dummy8 = x & \text{if } x > x_{maximum} - 20\% * x_{diff} \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

Table 8 reports this regime test results. Some positive coefficients of interest rate differential are partially due to the large outlying observations. Norway, South Africa and Sweden's results provide evidence that the exchange rate differential is determined by 10% largest outlying interest rate differential while Canada and New Zealand show the same result in 20% largest outlying range. That is when interest rate differential increases, the exchange rate of foreign country to US will appreciate indicating that uncovered interest rate parity holds.

Table 11: Regime test on interest rate differential

Panel A: generalized factor

Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
<i>dummy1</i>	3.7405 0.9591	7.4433 1.4780	564.2635 1.6778	2.7474 0.9602	1.2199 0.5540	-0.0538 -0.0345	NA NA	3.0719 0.6638	-123.5838 -1.2347	NA NA	0.4554 0.2086
<i>dummy2</i>	186.0838 1.3611	-7.5367 -1.2016	0.6123 0.4044	-6.2613 -0.2076	-0.6851 -0.1299	6.7273 0.5019	NA NA	-0.3353 -0.0852	1.4915 0.6259	NA NA	8.4133 0.5778
meanrf	-3.4682 -1.8610	-1.9598 -1.6340	-3.3646 -1.9700	-1.4553 -1.5163	-1.1297 -1.2677	-4.2702 -2.2746	NA NA	-1.0102 -1.1324	-0.8115 -0.8799	NA NA	-2.9937 -1.7313
devrf	-25.9197 -1.3378	-18.3123 -0.9945	22.1949 2.3508	-31.4284 -1.7779	0.6519 0.0529	-37.7278 -1.8435	NA NA	4.4380 0.3286	19.9502 2.0408	NA NA	-17.1720 -1.0808
R-squared	0.0373	0.0245	0.0477	0.0259	0.0108	0.0365	NA	0.0142	0.0214	NA	0.0193

Panel B: mean of generalized factor

Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
x	4.8038 1.2444	3.9390 1.1450	NA NA	NA NA	1.1694 0.7326	NA NA	7.9071 3.1679	1.1197 0.5835	0.8571 0.3557	NA NA	0.9452 0.4725
<i>dummy3</i>	-7.9956 -1.3303	1.5120 0.7181	NA NA	NA NA	0.2413 0.1924	NA NA	-2.3502 -1.0510	-0.7990 -1.0080	-0.5930 -0.6269	NA NA	-7.0818 -0.3708
<i>dummy4</i>	-1.8388 -0.6795	-8.4893 -1.9483	NA NA	NA NA	-9.0457 -1.7406	NA NA	-13.3030 -2.6922	-11.1849 -0.2294	-11.1884 -0.7154	NA NA	-2.5343 -1.3819
devrf	-22.1989 -1.0132	-50.9905 -1.4710	NA NA	NA NA	-20.8268 -1.1785	NA NA	-78.4021 -3.1709	8.4886 0.9361	13.2111 1.2160	NA NA	-17.2811 -1.0005
R-squared	0.0296	0.0266	NA	NA	0.0249	NA	0.0830	0.0133	0.0145	NA	0.0179

Table 12: Regime test on extreme generalized factor values

Panel A: 10percentage											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
<i>dummy5</i>	230.8031 1.7457	-2.7570 -0.4394	3.1803 1.6701	2.1940 0.0774	-1.2331 -0.2360	6.8478 0.5540	-8.6277 -1.2655	-1.9262 -0.5283	0.4742 0.1427	-0.8051 -0.6930	4.3892 0.3055
<i>dummy6</i>	5.7405 1.6715	7.0957 0.9422	65.9859 1.5979	4.8215 1.5046	4.7349 2.0194	0.3676 0.2363	3.8533 2.2363	10.8587 2.2438	-60.4503 -1.0847	-0.0782 -0.1669	1.3444 0.3764
meanrf	-3.1126 -1.9014	-1.8083 -1.3660	-5.6667 -2.9141	-1.4739 -1.6384	-1.3139 -1.5022	-4.3465 -2.3014	-3.3361 -2.5074	-1.5005 -1.8558	-0.8002 -0.9399	-4.6532 -3.7333	-2.9211 -1.6661
devrf	-11.1424 -1.7307	-1.1288 -0.0839	36.7663 3.1713	-19.5561 -2.1976	1.9165 0.2595	-39.0875 -2.1049	-8.5195 -1.5606	8.0852 0.9470	11.8424 1.3084	-54.3469 -3.9573	-16.8588 -1.2297
R-squared	0.0546	0.0168	0.0541	0.0343	0.0337	0.0371	0.0618	0.0411	0.0178	0.1261	0.0177
Panel B: 20 percentage of generalized factor											
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK
<i>dummy7</i>	17.8534 0.6713	-2.6943 -0.4462	2.2094 1.2884	2.2069 0.0779	0.0437 0.0093	3.6003 0.3389	-1.4697 -0.4168	-1.4565 -0.4348	-0.8279 -0.3366	-1.6828 -1.4640	9.0077 0.6433
<i>dummy8</i>	3.2802 1.4214	9.6028 1.7237	-9.4578 -1.1644	4.1696 1.6955	3.1944 1.5877	0.5189 0.3611	3.6882 2.3852	2.7596 0.7374	-26.4573 -1.1823	0.0604 0.1367	0.8559 0.3570
meanrf	-3.3201 -1.8652	-1.9291 -1.4656	-4.4782 -2.4937	-1.5124 -1.6266	-1.3741 -1.5315	-4.1420 -2.2892	-3.1406 -2.3824	-1.1403 -1.3511	-1.0619 -1.2624	-5.9933 -3.3061	-3.1410 -1.7771
devrf	-16.4848 -2.0636	-4.1432 -0.3035	26.6486 2.4561	-21.1428 -2.3186	2.4111 0.3053	-38.1129 -2.0818	-9.7608 -1.6291	5.8744 0.5708	10.4034 1.1055	-64.0371 -3.5218	-17.4218 -1.2067
R-squared	0.0307	0.0300	0.0534	0.0380	0.0244	0.0363	0.0589	0.0141	0.0191	0.1366	0.0198

Compared with these countries, Australia has significant positive coefficients on both sides of the outlying observations. However, the magnitude on the smallest 10% group is much larger than the largest 10% group, indicating the exchange rate differential for Australia is largely due to the small interest rate differential. Japan yen, another popular carry trade currency, has the similar result as Australian dollar. However, the magnitude of the coefficient of Japan is not large and is significant only in 10% range. Poland, Switzerland, Turkey and United Kingdom's results are not much affected by the outlying results, under both 10% and 20% range.

The results from interest rate differentials are mixed. The mixed effect could be due to adding generalized factor into the model. It is interesting to check whether the puzzle is solved because of the outliers in the mean and volatility of generalized factor.

Followed the same procedure, dummy 9 – 12 are designed to separate extreme values in the mean of generalized factor and dummy 13 – 16 are help to check whether extreme volatility values have consistent effect on the model.

$$meanrf_{diff} = meanrf_{maximum} - meanrf_{minimum} \quad (38)$$

$$devrf_{diff} = devrf_{maximum} - devrf_{minimum} \quad (39)$$

$$\begin{cases} dummy9 = meanrf & \text{if } meanrf < meanrf_{minimum} + 10\% * meanrf_{diff} \\ dummy10 = meanrf & \text{if } meanrf > meanrf_{maximum} - 10\% * meanrf_{diff} \end{cases} \quad (40)$$

$$\begin{cases} dummy11 = meanrf & \text{if } meanrf < meanrf_{minimum} + 10\% * meanrf_{diff} \\ dummy12 = meanrf & \text{if } meanrf > meanrf_{maximum} - 10\% * meanrf_{diff} \end{cases} \quad (41)$$

$$\begin{cases} dummy13 = x & \text{if } devrf < devrf_{minimum} + 10\% * devrf_{diff} \\ dummy14 = x & \text{if } devrf > devrf_{maximum} - 10\% * devrf_{diff} \end{cases} \quad (42)$$

$$\begin{cases} dummy15 = x & \text{if } devrf < devrf_{minimum} + 20\% * devrf_{diff} \\ dummy16 = x & \text{if } devrf > devrf_{maximum} - 20\% * devrf_{diff} \end{cases} \quad (43)$$

The results are all attached in the appendix.³¹ The generalized factor's mean value does not have regime difference. The coefficients are all negative for both the largest and smallest 20% mean values, except Poland and Turkey. Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, Turkey, and United Kingdom have significant negative coefficient when the mean of the generalized factor is within 20% smallest value. Japan and Switzerland have the opposite results. They show significant negative coefficients in the other regime, the 20% largest mean values. It seems when the generalized risk is high, the funding currencies, Japanese yen and Swiss franc, are not attractive and the exchange rate of foreign country to US will depreciate. When the generalized risk is low, the popular carry trade currencies, like New Zealand dollar, tend to appreciate. Thus, this fact indicates the generalized factor is a measure of the risk of carry trade reversal. Among the 11 tested countries, only Turkey provides evidence for the regime difference. The noticeable feature of Turkey's result is that the magnitude of the coefficient of largest mean regime is 20 times higher than the one of smallest mean regime. It seems that Turkey does not have carry trade reversal risk and forward premium puzzle.

Further, the volatility of the generalized factor also shows no evidence about the

³¹See Table 11 and 12.

regime difference. New Zealand, South Africa and United Kingdom have significant negative coefficients when volatility is within 20% largest values, indicating when generalized factor is more volatile, the exchange rate tend to depreciate. This result is not consistent on other countries.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND POSSIBLE EXTENSIONS

The generalized factor proposed in the dissertation provides empirical correction for the UIP. Now the long-term risk premiums are measurable by the model. In the dissertation, I conclude that there are long-run deviations from parity conditions that appear to be caused by large, but infrequent, shocks to the monetary environment. There are two possible explanations of the large and infrequent shocks. First one is the market participant inability of forecasting that may systematically affect the change in exchange rates. Over the long run, the market participants are more likely to make accurate forecasting which cause a less violation of the UIP at the long horizon. Second explanation is the carry trade holding risk. Over the long run, the carry trade unwinding happens which reduce the violation of the UIP.

There are several possible extensions. For the generalized solution, I assume that it follows normal distribution. I find the evidence that generalized factor is related to the carry trade. In Brunnermeier et al. (2009), they document positive interest rate differential skewness for funding currencies, like JPY. While for investment currencies, especially NZD and AUD, the skewness is negative. My generalized solution may also have country difference on its distribution. Other distributions, besides normal, can be tested in the model. I also plan to involve more sudden unwinding case studies for NZD and AUD.

Another extension of the dissertation is the prediction of the model. From the

financial crisis test, the generalized factor model cannot fit the data well. Since the generalized factor is related to the carry trade risk, it present weak prediction power when carry trade effect disappears and safe heaven currency effect dominates. However, this empirical finding motivates the possibility to use the data under certain episodes to predict similar future scenario analysis. For instance, generalized factor can be extracted from Asian crisis of 1997 to 1998 and the crisis following the Russian debt default in 1998 and then be used to replicate the crisis scenario.

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APPENDIX A: A MORE GENERAL EMPIRICAL REGRESSION FORM

From equation (14), we have

$$S_{ij,t} E_t \left(\frac{1 + R_{j,t+T}}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right) E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T})) = E_t(1 + R_{i,t+T}) E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T})) \quad (44)$$

Then take log on both sides will derive

$$\log(S_{ij,t}) + \log \left[E_t \left(\frac{1 + R_{j,t+T}}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right) \right] + \log \left[\frac{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}))}{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))} \right] = \log [E_t(1 + R_{i,t+T})] \quad (45)$$

Then the generalized solution is expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} & \log \left[\frac{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}))}{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))} \right] = \\ & \log [E_t(1 + R_{i,t+T})] - \log(S_{ij,t}) - \\ & \log \left[E_t(1 + R_{j,t+T}) E_t \left(\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right) + cov \left((1 + R_{j,t+T}), \left(\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}} \right) \right) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (46)$$

Compared with the previous expression

$$\begin{aligned} & \log \left[\frac{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}))}{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))} \right] = \\ & \log [E_t(1 + R_{i,t+T})] - \log(S_{ij,t}) - \\ & \left[\log(E_t(1 + R_{j,t+T})) - \log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (47)$$

The last term of the right hand side of equation (42) and (43) is different due to the co-

variance. Now define $A = E_t(1+R_{j,t+T})E_t(\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}})$ and $B = cov\left[(1+R_{j,t+T}), (\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}})\right]$

$$\begin{aligned} \log(E_t(1+R_{j,t+T})E_t(\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}}) + cov\left[(1+R_{j,t+T}), (\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}})\right] &= \log(A+B) \\ &= \log\left[A\left(\frac{B}{A} + 1\right)\right] = \log(A) + \log\left(\frac{B}{A} + 1\right) \end{aligned} \quad (48)$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \log\left[\frac{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}))}{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))}\right] &= \\ \log(E_t(1+R_{j,t+T})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) - \log(E_t(1+R_{j,t+T})) + & \quad (49) \end{aligned}$$

$$\log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) - \log\left(\frac{B}{A} + 1\right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) &= \\ \log(E_t(1+R_{j,t+T})) - \log(E_t(1+R_{i,t+T})) + & \quad (50) \end{aligned}$$

$$\log\left[\frac{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}))}{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))}\right] + \log\left(\frac{B}{A} + 1\right)$$

$$\log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} r_{j,t+T} - r_{i,t+T} + & \quad (51) \\ \log\left[\frac{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{j,t+T}))}{E_t(\exp(\tilde{w}_{i,t+T}))}\right] + \log\left[\frac{cov((1+R_{j,t+T}), (\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}}))}{E_t(1+R_{j,t+T})E_t(\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}})} + 1\right] \end{aligned}$$

Now, we have the final testable expression:

$$\begin{aligned} \log(E_t(\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T})) - \log(S_{ij,t}) &= \\ r_{j,t+T} - r_{i,t+T} + (\mu_{j,t+T} + .5\sigma_{j,t+T}^2) + & \quad (52) \\ \log\left[\frac{cov((1+R_{j,t+T}), (\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}}))}{E_t(1+R_{j,t+T})E_t(\frac{1}{\tilde{S}_{ij,t+T}})} + 1\right] \end{aligned}$$

Compared with (28), we have two changes:

- 1) $(\mu_{j,t+T} + .5\sigma_{j,t+T}^2)$ would be different, since it comes from a new expression, equation (51).
- 2) We also involve a new term in the regression due to the covariance.

APPENDIX B: STATIONARY TEST: AUSTRALIA

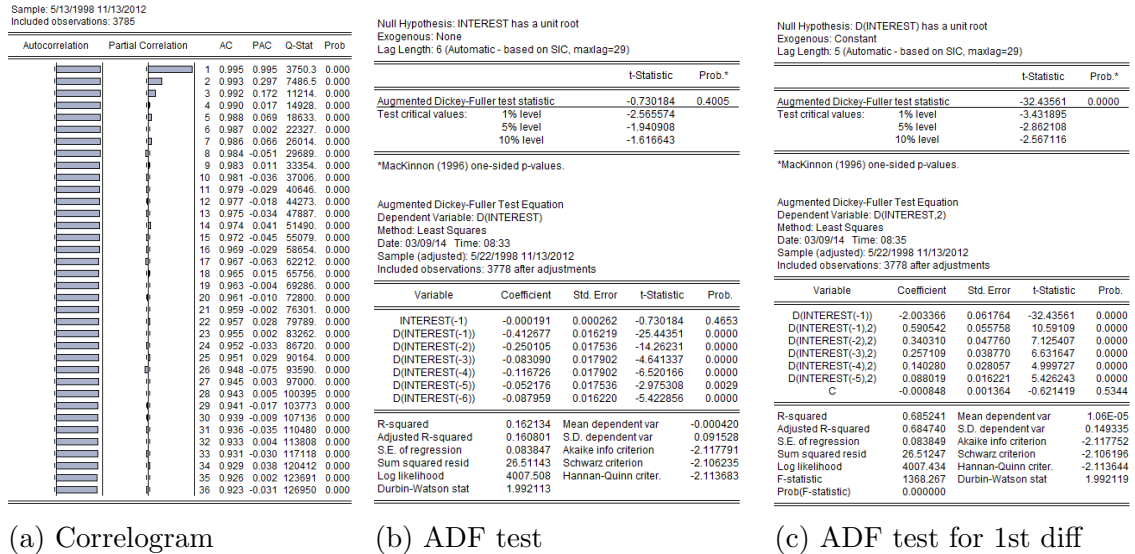


Figure 2: Australia: interest rate stationary test

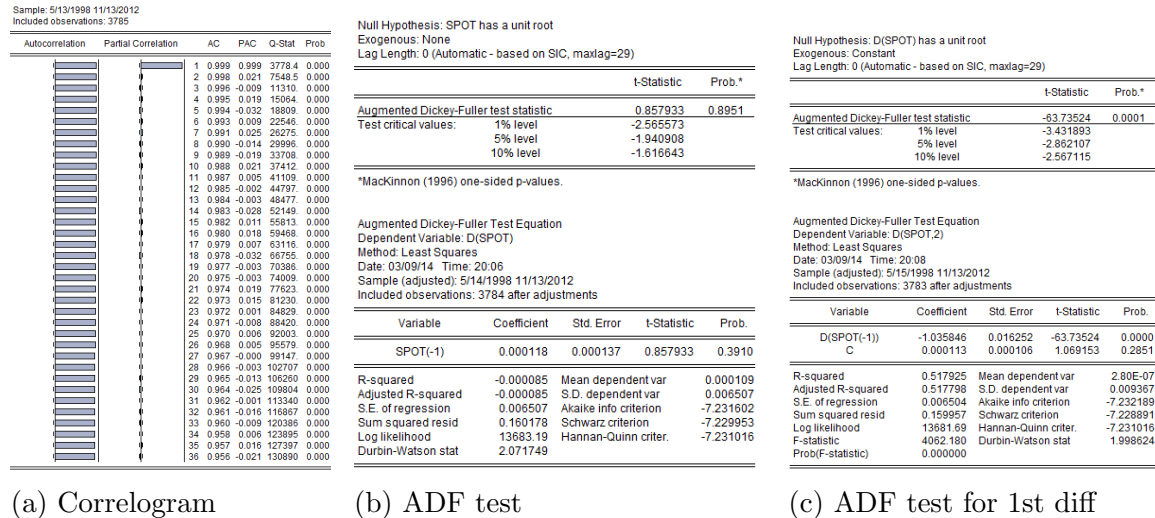
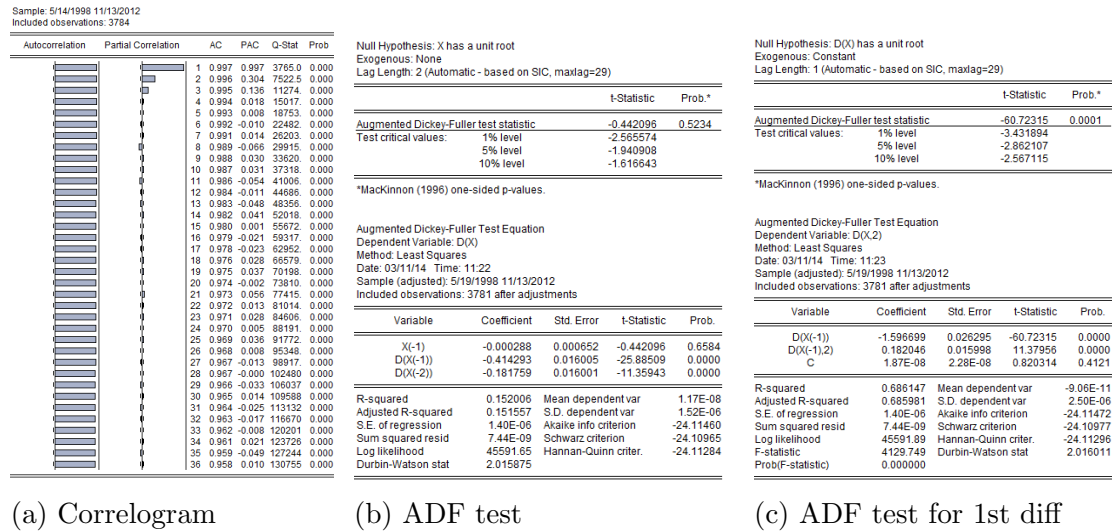


Figure 3: Australia: exchange spot rate stationary test

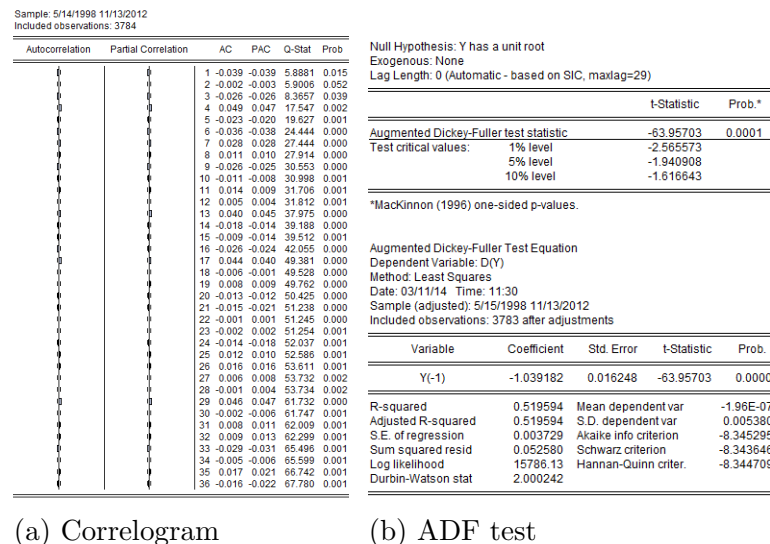


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

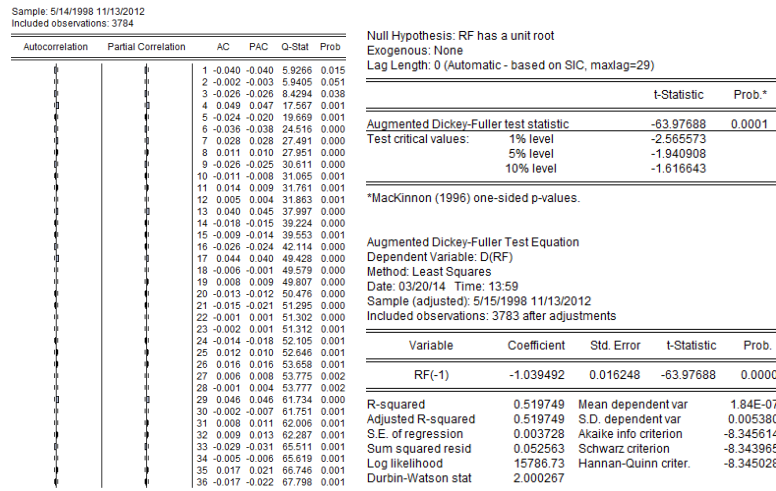
Figure 4: Australia: log interest rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

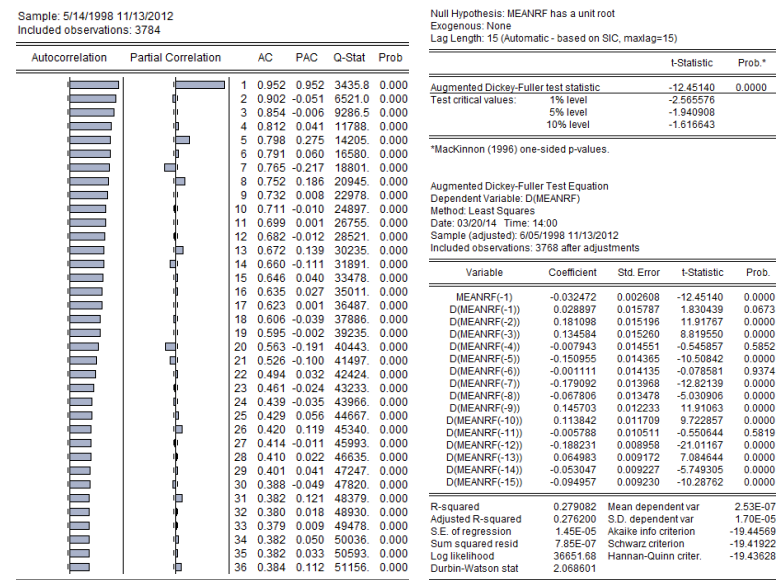
Figure 5: Australia: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 6: Australia: the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 7: Australia: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

Sample: 5/14/1998 11/13/2012
Included observations: 3784

Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation	AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob	
		1	0.993	0.993	3736.1	0.000
		2	0.986	-0.062	7416.7	0.000
		3	0.978	-0.034	11039	0.000
		4	0.970	0.012	14604	0.000
		5	0.964	0.153	18129	0.000
		6	0.961	0.154	21629	0.000
		7	0.958	0.048	25112	0.000
		8	0.955	-0.059	28574	0.000
		9	0.952	0.017	32015	0.000
		10	0.948	-0.057	35425	0.000
		11	0.942	-0.012	38798	0.000
		12	0.937	-0.030	42130	0.000
		13	0.931	0.010	45424	0.000
		14	0.926	0.033	48684	0.000
		15	0.923	0.049	51920	0.000
		16	0.919	-0.020	55133	0.000
		17	0.915	0.026	58325	0.000
		18	0.914	0.034	61500	0.000
		19	0.910	-0.001	64654	0.000
		20	0.905	-0.122	67773	0.000
		21	0.899	-0.102	70948	0.000
		22	0.892	0.018	73879	0.000
		23	0.885	0.011	76895	0.000
		24	0.880	0.028	79815	0.000
		25	0.879	0.334	82763	0.000
		26	0.879	-0.061	85709	0.000
		27	0.879	0.010	88656	0.000
		28	0.879	0.006	91602	0.000
		29	0.878	0.076	94545	0.000
		30	0.877	0.066	97478	0.000
		31	0.875	0.041	100401	0.000
		32	0.873	-0.054	103314	0.000
		33	0.872	-0.002	106215	0.000
		34	0.871	0.040	109114	0.000
		35	0.871	-0.018	112011	0.000
		36	0.870	-0.030	114904	0.000

(a) Correlogram

Null Hypothesis: D(DEVRF) has a unit root
Exogenous: Constant
Lag Length: 15 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=15)

		t-Statistic	Prob.*	
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		-0.049425	0.6663	
Test critical values:				
	1% level	-2.565576		
	5% level	-1.940908		
	10% level	-1.616643		
*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.				
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation				
Dependent Variable: D(DEVRF)				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 03/20/14 Time: 14:01				
Sample (adjusted): 6/05/1998 11/13/2012				
Included observations: 3768 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
DEVRF(-1)	-1.13E-05	0.000229	-0.049425	0.9606
D(DEVRF(-1))	0.074122	0.016208	4.573329	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-2))	0.014263	0.016205	0.880140	0.3788
D(DEVRF(-3))	0.050821	0.016109	3.154824	0.0016
D(DEVRF(-4))	-0.063504	0.015707	-4.043069	0.0001
D(DEVRF(-5))	-0.014885	0.015719	-0.947554	0.3434
D(DEVRF(-6))	-0.053483	0.015700	-3.405554	0.0007
D(DEVRF(-7))	-0.011533	0.015601	-0.739272	0.4598
D(DEVRF(-8))	0.031988	0.015390	2.078463	0.0377
D(DEVRF(-9))	0.106747	0.015305	6.974486	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-10))	0.057087	0.015345	3.720256	0.0002
D(DEVRF(-11))	0.000776	0.014901	0.052060	0.9585
D(DEVRF(-12))	0.131172	0.014447	9.079609	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-13))	-0.098386	0.014600	-6.738558	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-14))	-0.014786	0.014658	-1.008709	0.3132
D(DEVRF(-15))	-0.055364	0.014542	-3.807320	0.0001
R-squared	0.081747	Mean dependent var	1.35E-09	
Adjusted R-squared	0.078076	S.D. dependent var	1.68E-07	
S.E. of regression	1.61E-07	Akaike info criterion	-28.44531	
Sum squared resid	9.71E-11	Schwarz criterion	-28.41684	
Log likelihood	53603.21	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-28.43390	
Durbin-Watson stat	1.960770			

(b) ADF test

Null Hypothesis: D(DEVRF) has a unit root
Exogenous: Constant
Lag Length: 9 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=10)

		t-Statistic	Prob.*	
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic				
		-17.52698	0.0000	
Test critical values:				
	1% level	-3.431897		
	5% level	-2.862109		
	10% level	-2.567116		
*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.				
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation				
Dependent Variable: D(DEVRF.2)				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 03/20/14 Time: 14:02				
Sample (adjusted): 5/29/1998 11/13/2012				
Included observations: 3773 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(DEVRF(-1))	-0.798868	0.045579	-17.52698	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-1),2)	-0.159580	0.043614	-3.658905	0.0003
D(DEVRF(-2),2)	-0.113991	0.040750	-2.797330	0.0052
D(DEVRF(-3),2)	-0.092227	0.037343	-2.469719	0.0136
D(DEVRF(-4),2)	-0.125186	0.033146	-3.776775	0.0002
D(DEVRF(-5),2)	-0.190072	0.029143	-6.521954	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-6),2)	-0.245866	0.026115	-9.414453	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-7),2)	-0.257986	0.023234	-11.10388	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-8),2)	-0.167206	0.019830	-8.432110	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-9),2)	-0.051962	0.014886	-3.490656	0.0005
C	1.19E-09	2.73E-09	0.434839	0.6637
R-squared	0.487372	Mean dependent var	6.54E-11	
Adjusted R-squared	0.486010	S.D. dependent var	2.34E-07	
S.E. of regression	1.67E-07	Akaike info criterion	-28.36424	
Sum squared resid	1.05E-10	Schwarz criterion	-28.34606	
Log likelihood	53520.14	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-28.35778	
F-statistic	357.6660	Durbin-Watson stat	1.997022	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 8: Australia: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX C: STATIONARY TEST: CANADA

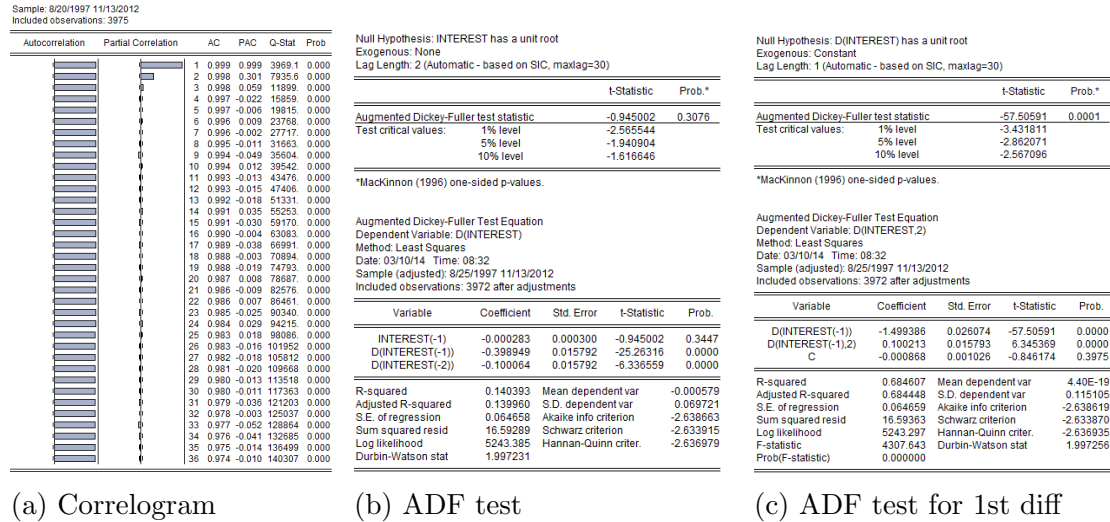


Figure 9: Canada: interest rate stationary test

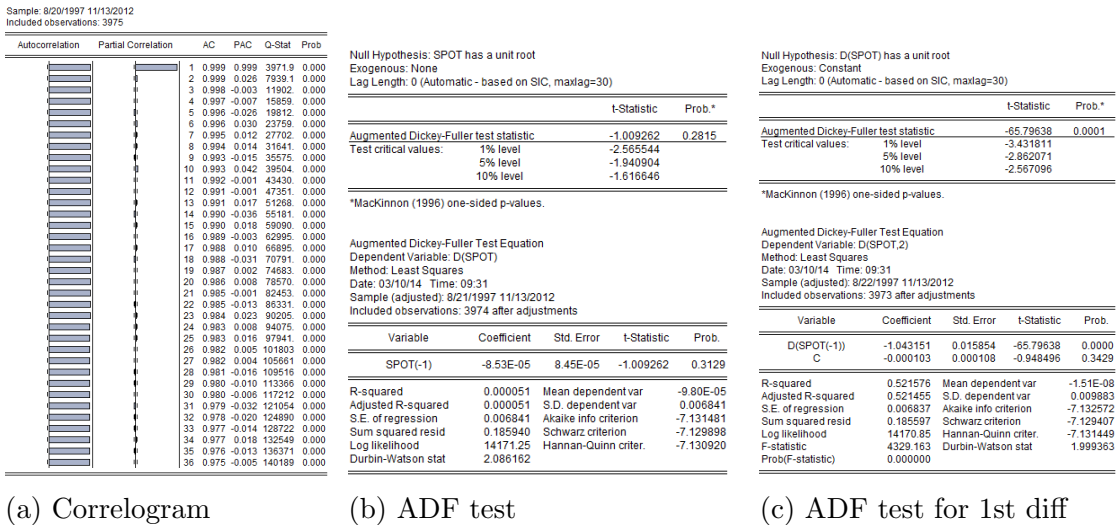


Figure 10: Canada: exchange spot rate stationary test

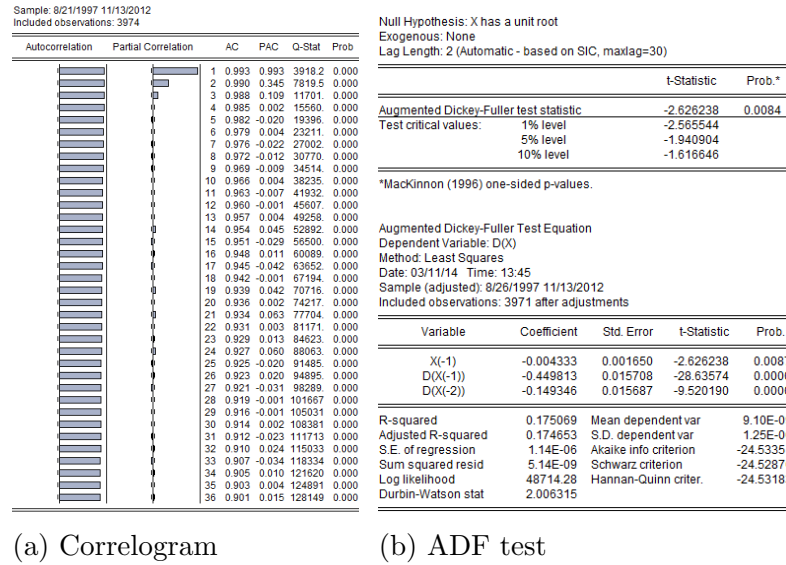


Figure 11: Canada: log interest rate difference stationary test

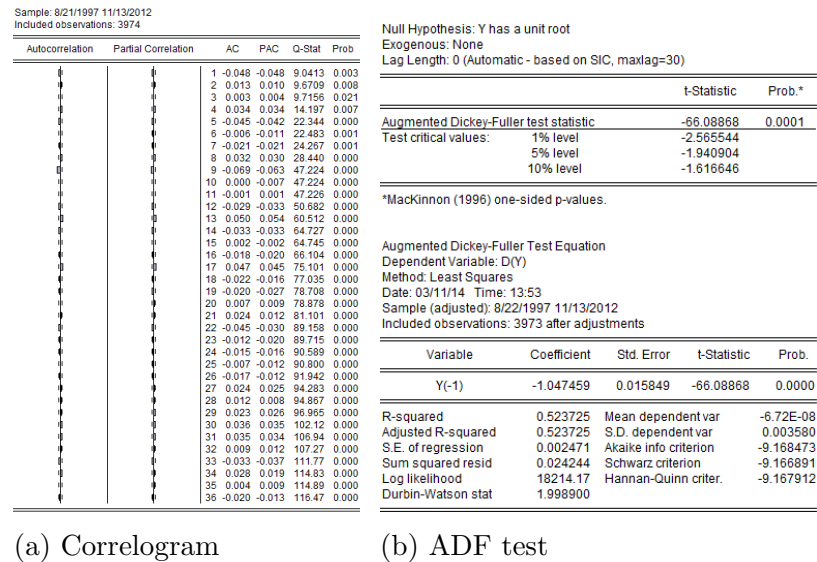


Figure 12: Canada: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test

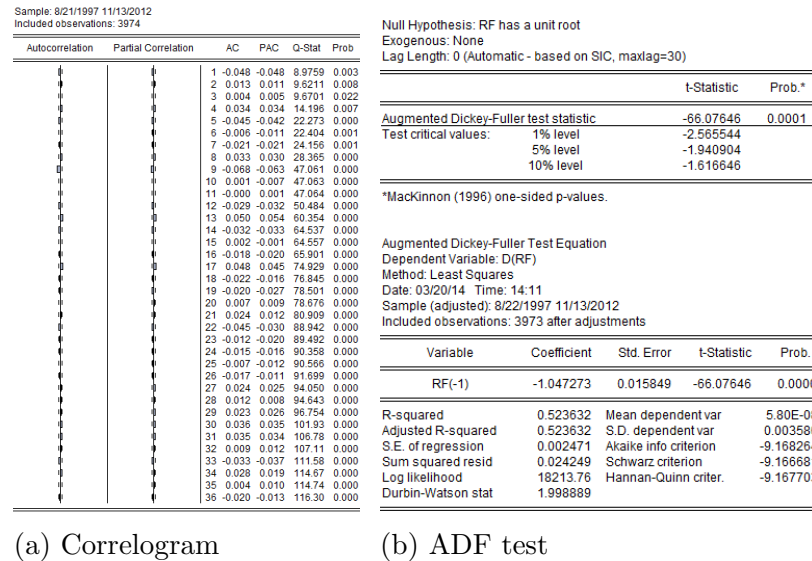


Figure 13: Canada: the generalized risk factor stationary test

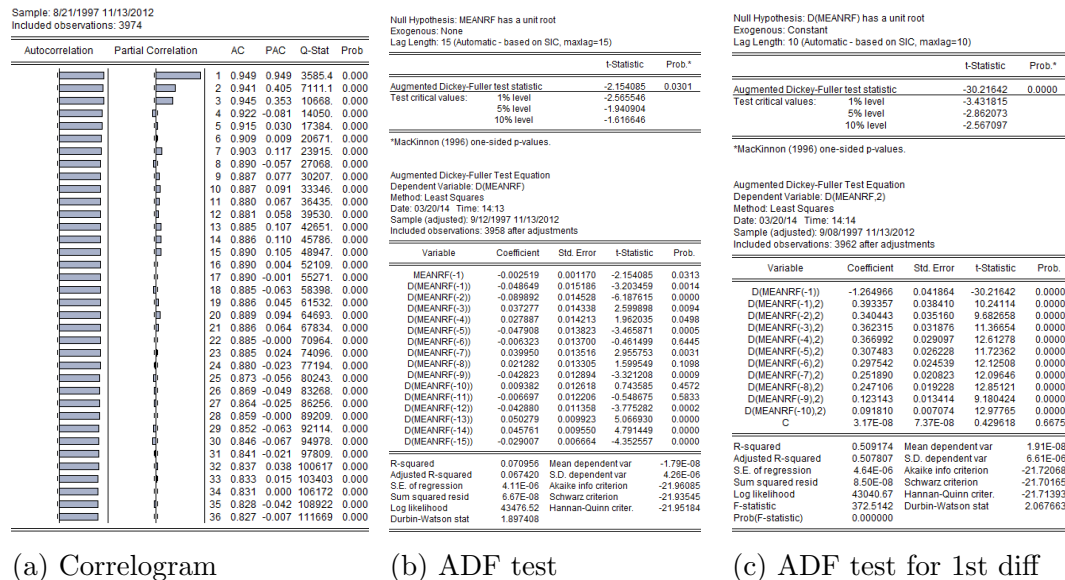
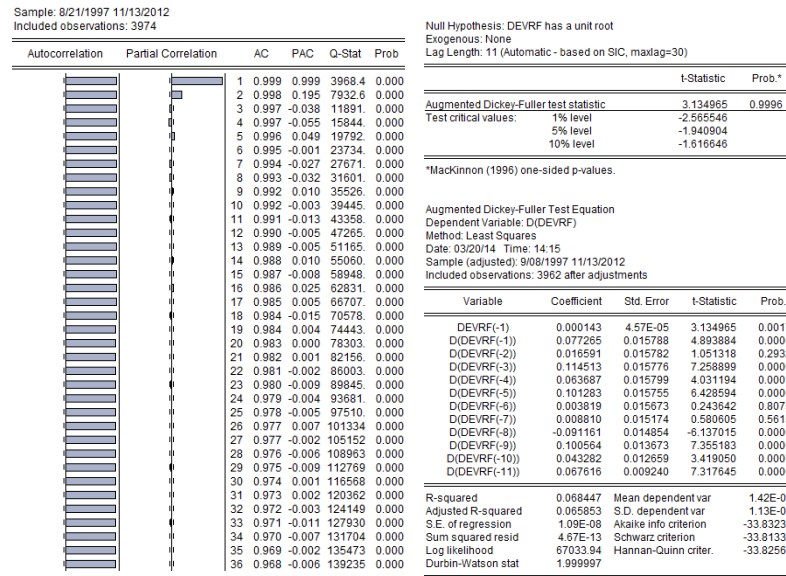


Figure 14: Canada: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 15: Canada: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX D: STATIONARY TEST: JAPAN

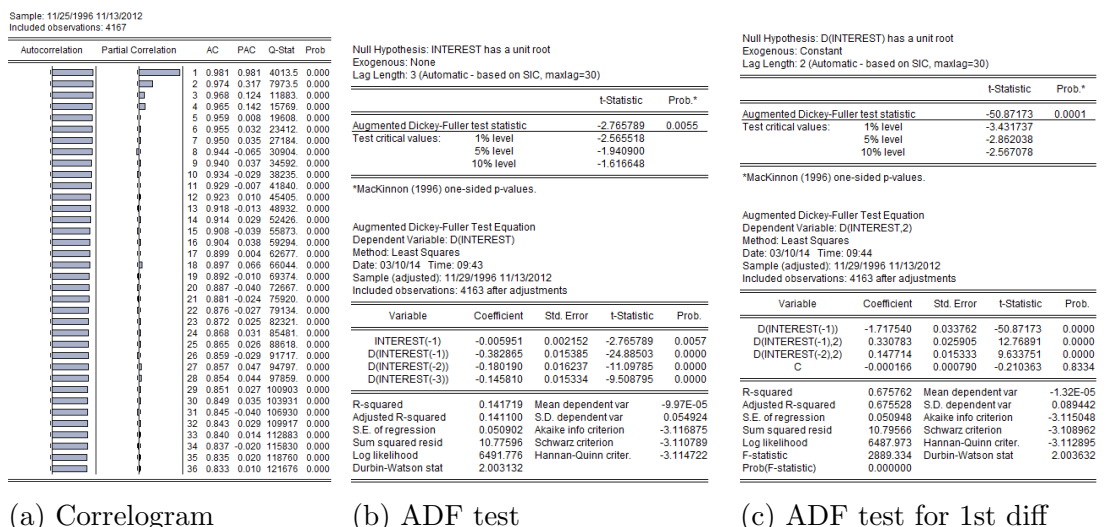


Figure 16: Japan: interest rate stationary test

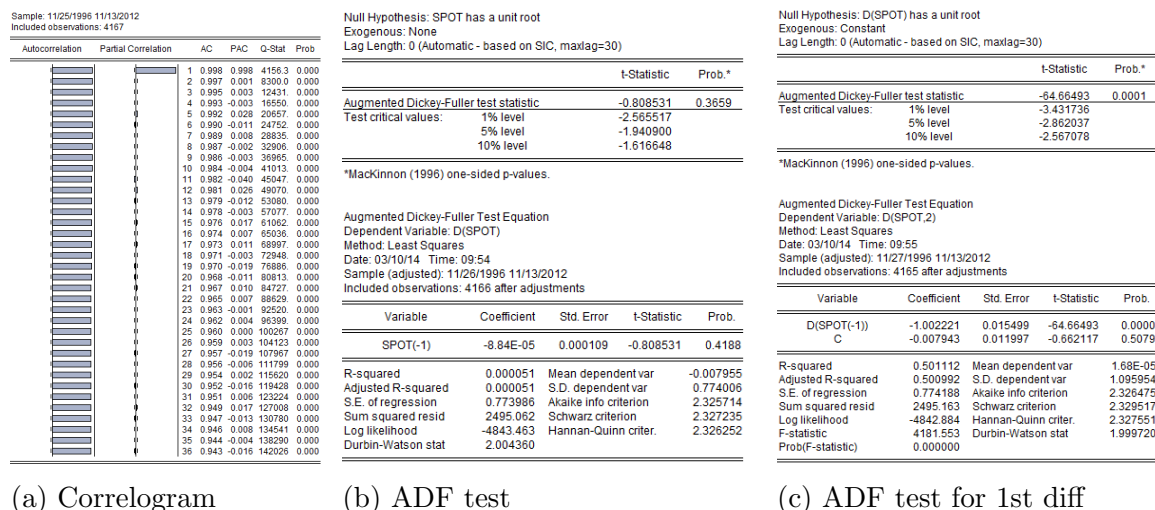
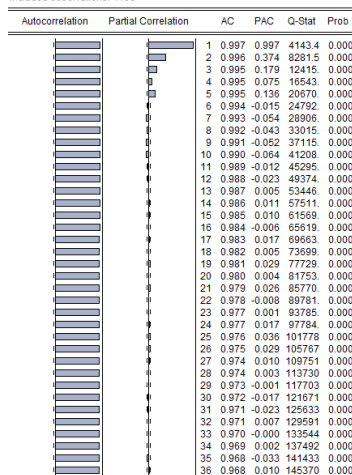


Figure 17: Japan: exchange spot rate stationary test

Sample: 11/26/1996 11/13/2012
Included observations: 4166



(a) Correlogram

Null Hypothesis: X has a unit root
Exogenous: None
Lag Length: 4 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=30)

		t-Statistic	Prob.*	
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		-0.720347	0.4048	
Test critical values:	1% level	-2.565518		
	5% level	-1.940900		
	10% level	-1.616648		
*Mackinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.				
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation				
Dependent Variable: D(X)				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 03/11/14 Time: 15:14				
Sample (adjusted): 12/03/1996 11/13/2012				
Included observations: 4161 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
X(-1)	-0.000341	0.000473	-0.720347	0.4714
D(X(-1))	-0.547664	0.012151	-45.07111	0.0000
D(X(-2))	-0.295566	0.013767	-21.46843	0.0000
D(X(-3))	-0.133592	0.013764	-9.705634	0.0000
D(X(-4))	-0.035454	0.012146	-2.918875	0.0035
R-squared	0.329530	Mean dependent var	-1.54E-09	
Adjusted R-squared	0.328885	S.D. dependent var	1.56E-06	
S.E. of regression	1.28E-06	Akaike info criterion	-24.30021	
Sum squared resid	6.80E-09	Schwarz criterion	-24.29260	
Log likelihood	50561.59	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-24.29752	
Durbin-Watson stat	1.267039			

(b) ADF test

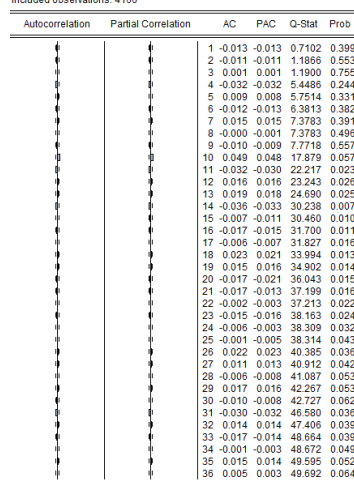
Null Hypothesis: D(X) has a unit root
Exogenous: Constant
Lag Length: 3 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=30)

		t-Statistic	Prob.*	
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		-53.61243	0.0001	
Test critical values:	% level			
	1% level	-3.431737		
	5% level	-2.862038		
	10% level	-2.567078		
*Mackinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.				
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation				
Dependent Variable: D(X,2)				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 03/11/14 Time: 15:16				
Sample (adjusted): 12/03/1996 11/13/2012				
Included observations: 4161 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(X(-1))	-2.013075	0.037549	-53.61243	0.0000
D(X(-1),2)	0.465133	0.031239	14.88946	0.0000
D(X(-2),2)	0.169337	0.022329	7.583648	0.0000
D(X(-3),2)	0.035566	0.012148	2.927611	0.0034
C	1.29E-08	1.98E-08	0.648327	0.5168
R-squared	0.815185	Mean dependent var	-1.58E-08	
Adjusted R-squared	0.815007	S.D. dependent var	2.97E-06	
S.E. of regression	1.28E-06	Akaike info criterion	-24.30019	
Sum squared resid	6.80E-09	Schwarz criterion	-24.29258	
Log likelihood	50561.54	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-24.29750	
F-statistic	4582.845	Durbin-Watson stat	1.267102	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 18: Japan: log interest rate difference stationary test

Sample: 11/25/1996 11/13/2012
Included observations: 4166



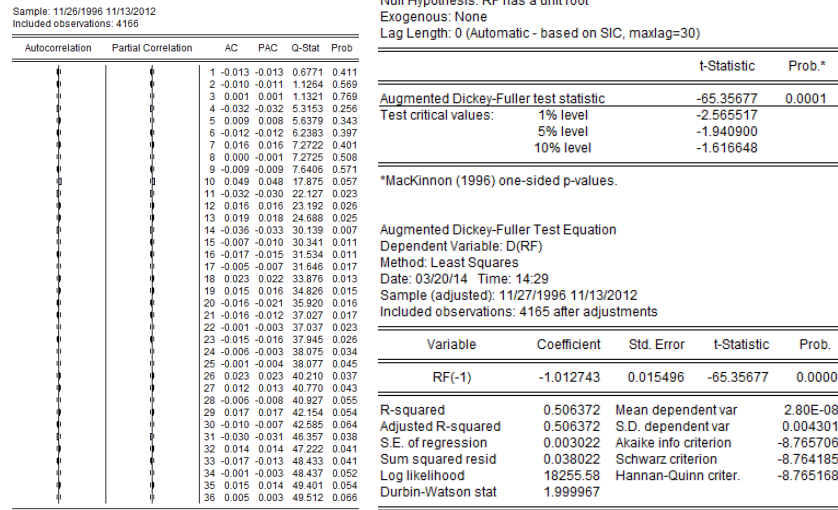
(a) Correlogram

Null Hypothesis: Y has a unit root
Exogenous: None
Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=30)

Aug Length: 6; p-value: 0.0001 (one-sided, MacKinnon-Do)
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic
Test critical values:
1% level
5% level
10% level
Mackinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation
Dependent Variable: D(Y)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 03/11/14 Time: 15:27
Sample (adjusted): 11/27/1996 11/13/2012
Included observations: 4165 after adjustments
Variable Coefficient Std. Error t-Statistic Prob.
Y(-1) -1.012906 0.015496 -65.36742 0.0000
R-squared 0.506454 Mean dependent var -4.18E-08
Adjusted R-squared 0.506454 S.D. dependent var 0.004301
S.E. of regression 0.003022 Akaike info criterion -8.765874
Sum squared resid 0.038016 Schwarz criterion -8.764353
Log likelihood 18255.93 Hannan-Quinn criter. -8.765336
Durbin-Watson stat 1.999976

(b) ADF test

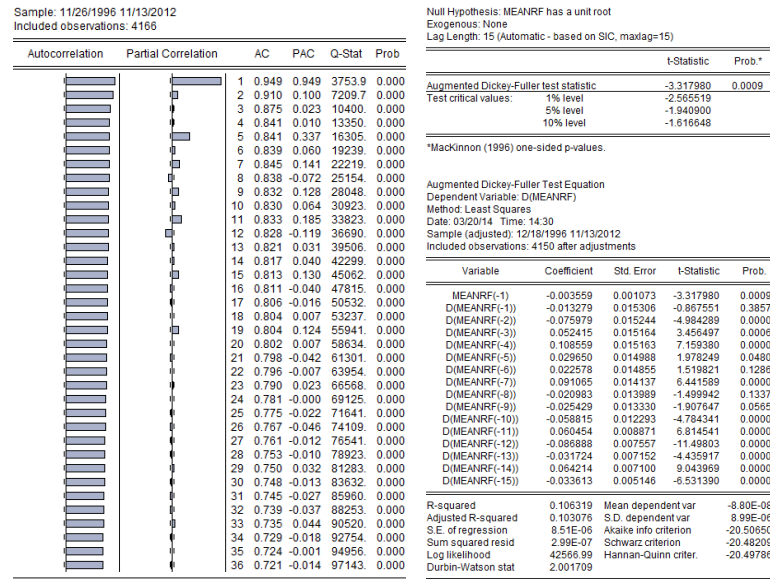
Figure 19: Japan: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 20: Japan: the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 21: Japan: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

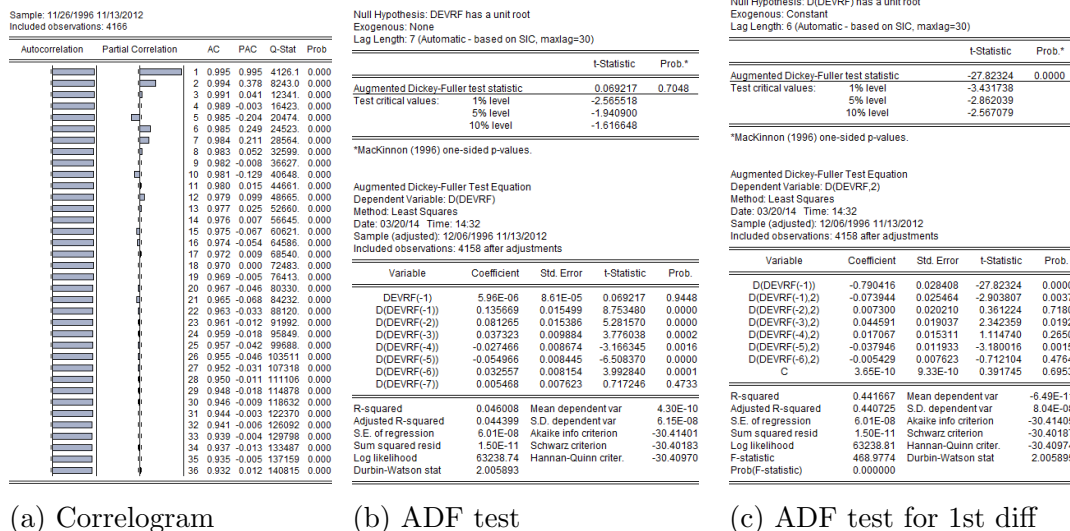
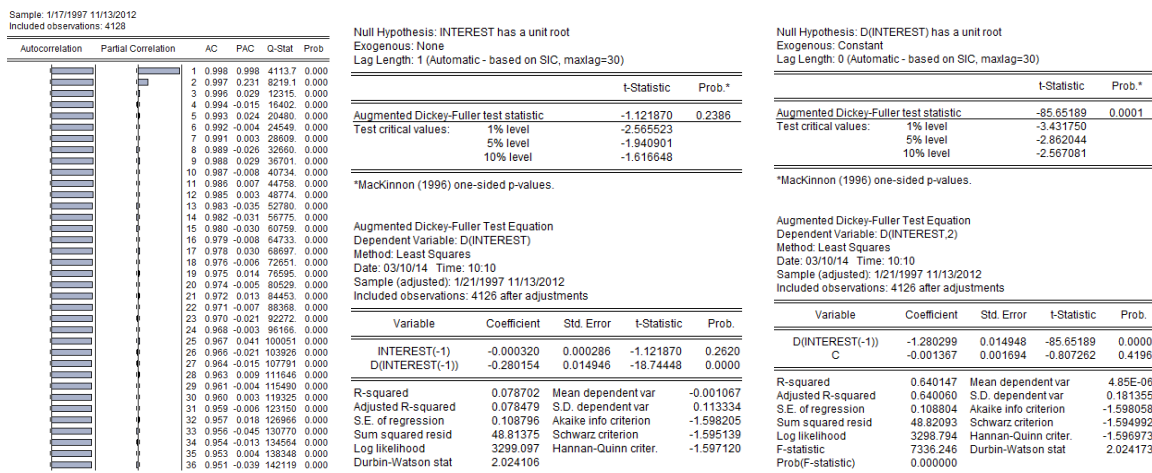


Figure 22: Japan: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX E: STATIONARY TEST: NEW ZEALAND

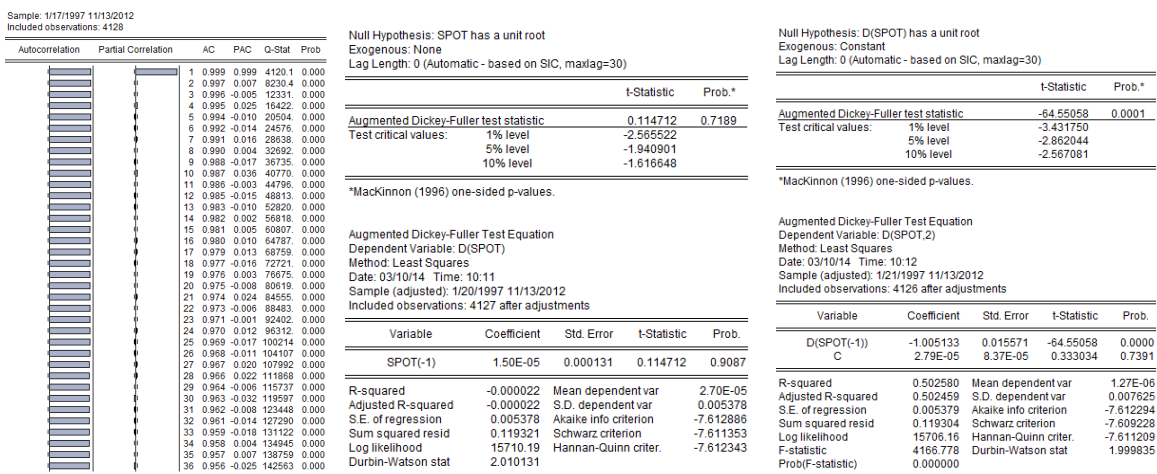


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 23: New Zealand: interest rate stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 24: New Zealand: exchange spot rate stationary test

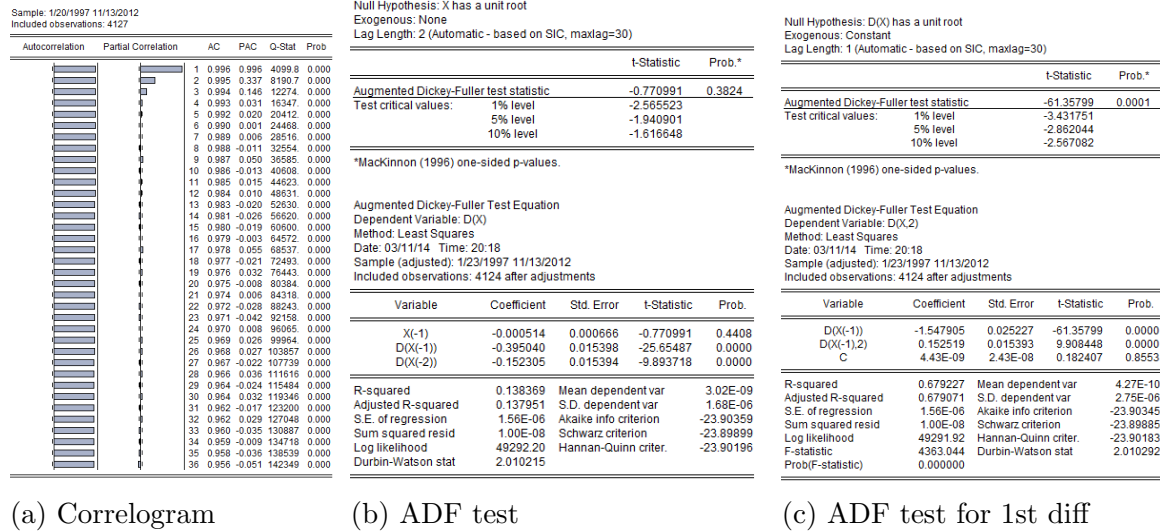


Figure 25: New Zealand: log interest rate difference stationary test

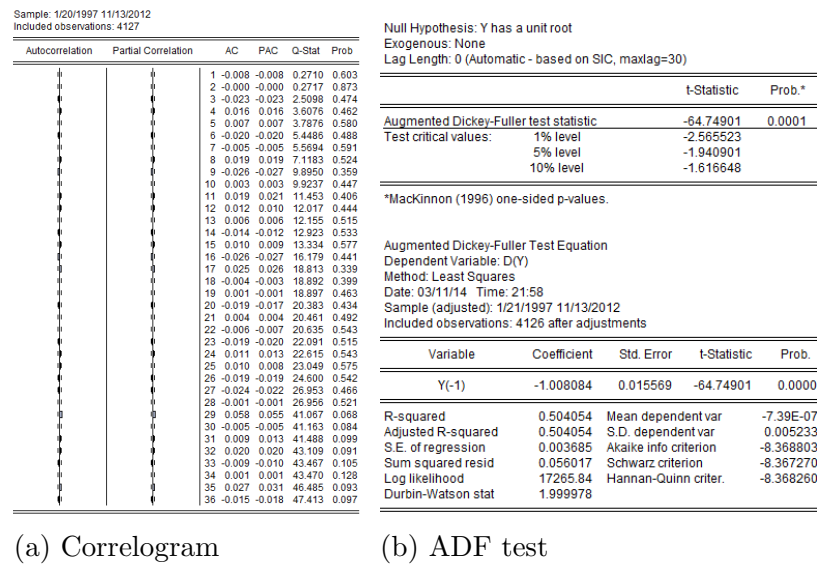
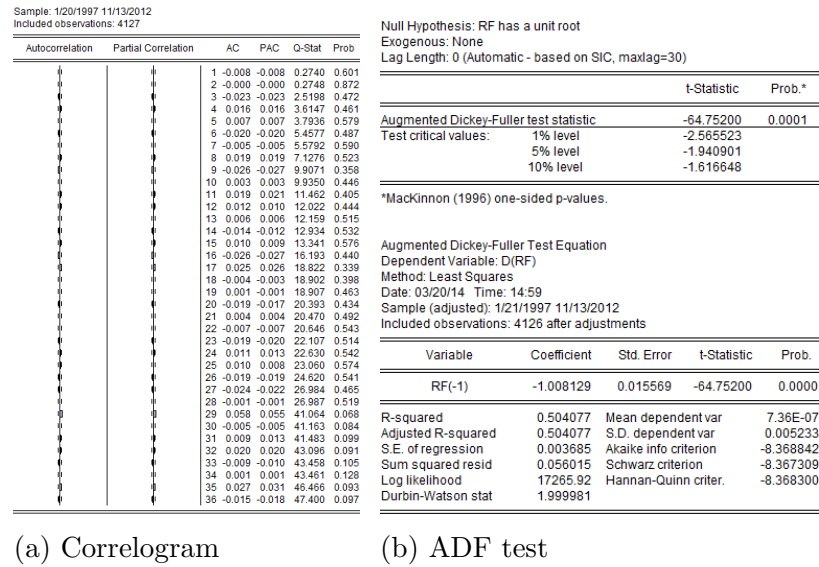


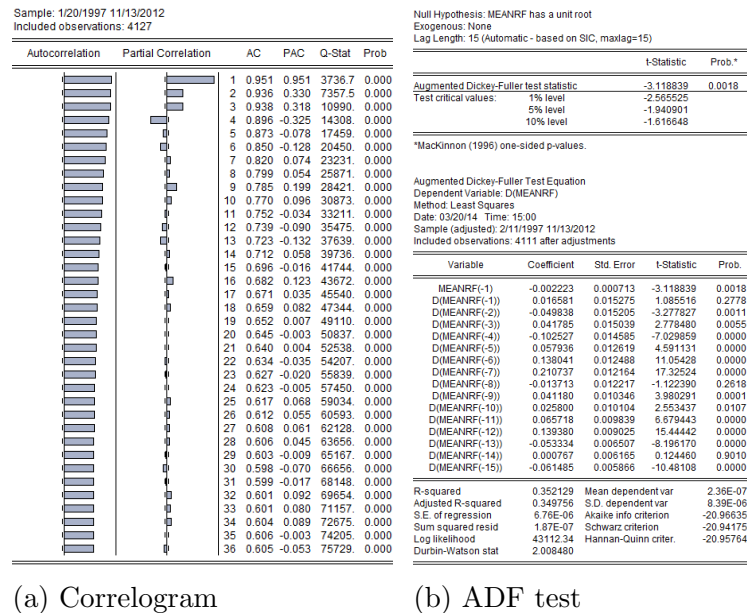
Figure 26: New Zealand: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 27: New Zealand: the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 28: New Zealand: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

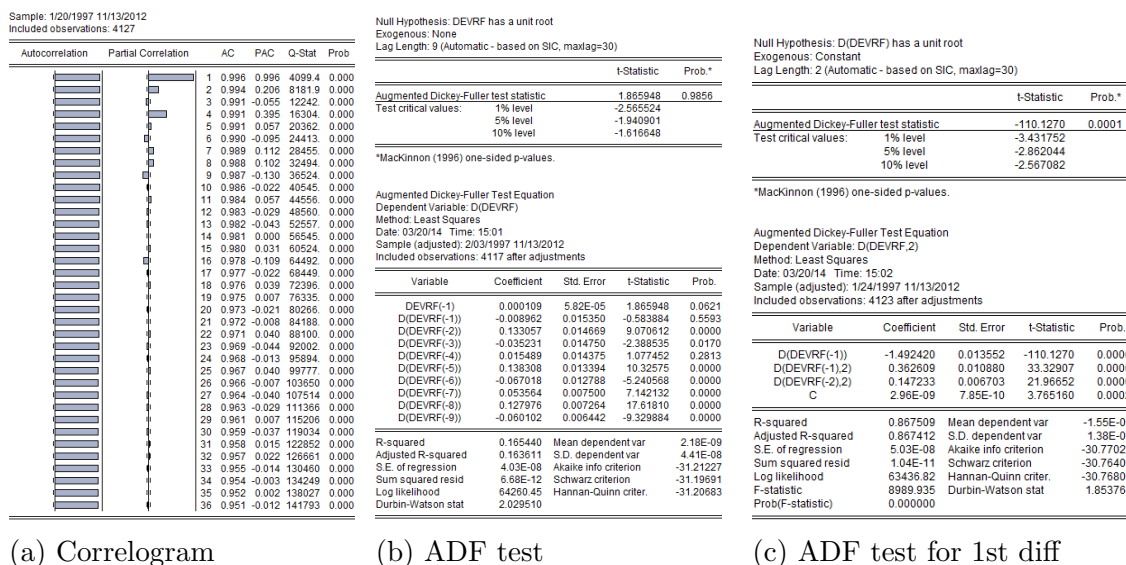
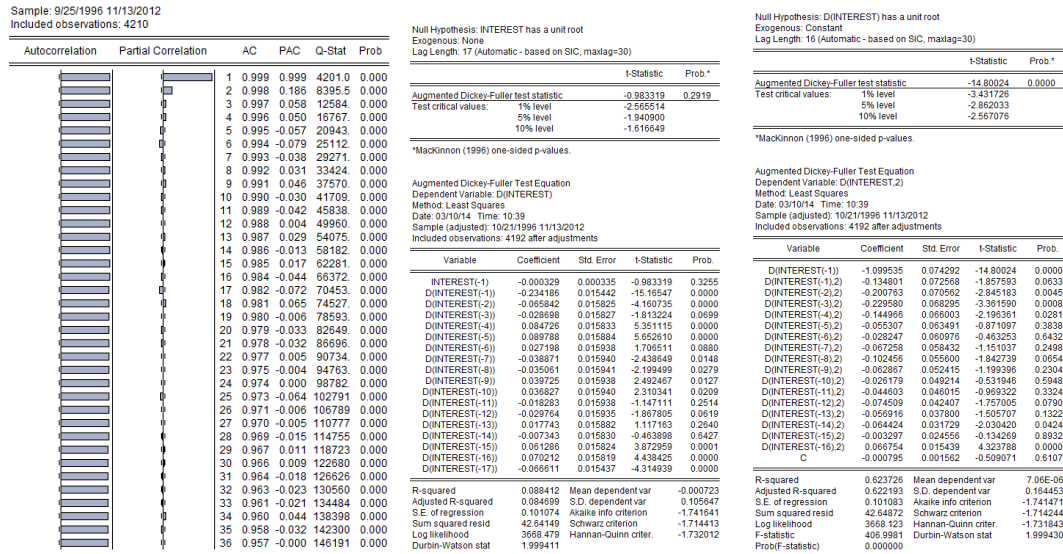


Figure 29: New Zealand: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX F: STATIONARY TEST: NORWAY

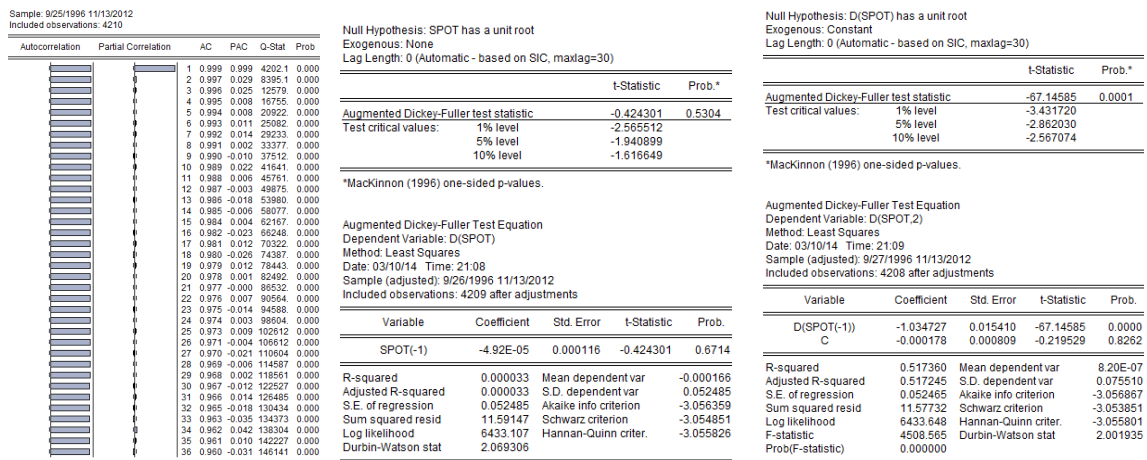


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 30: Norway: interest rate stationary test

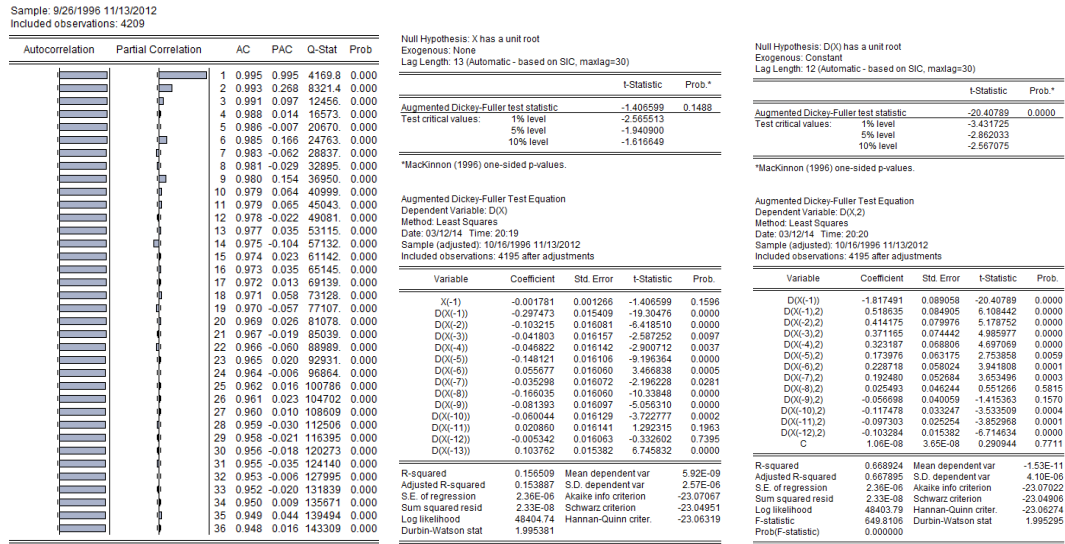


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 31: Norway: exchange spot rate stationary test

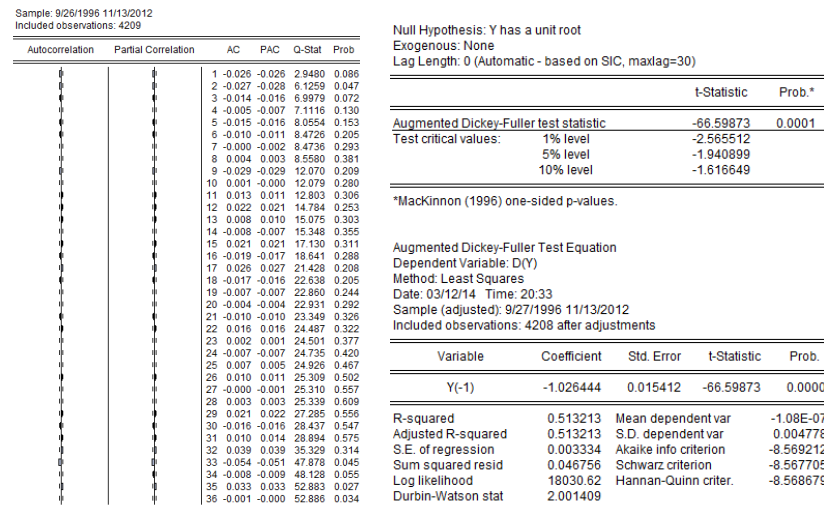


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

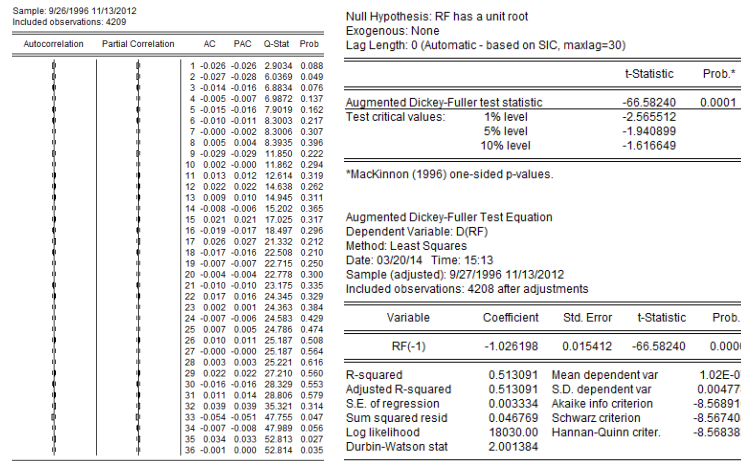
Figure 32: Norway: log interest rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

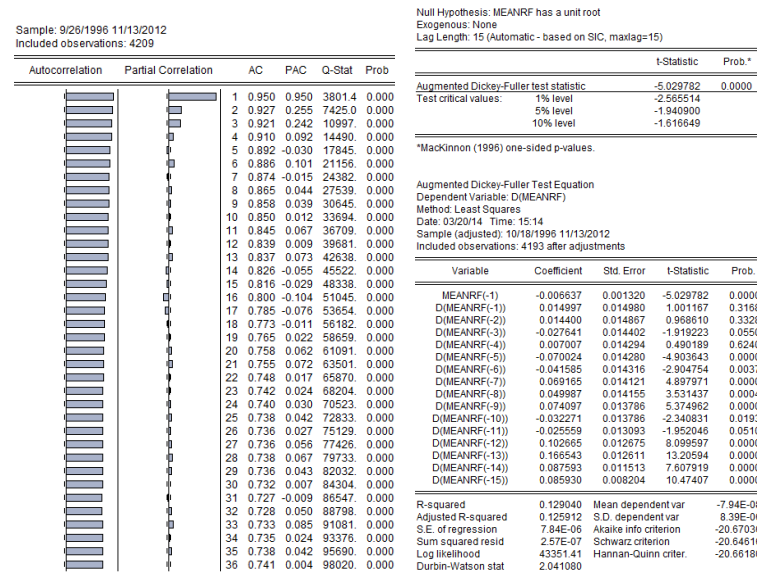
Figure 33: Norway: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 34: Norway: the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 35: Norway: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

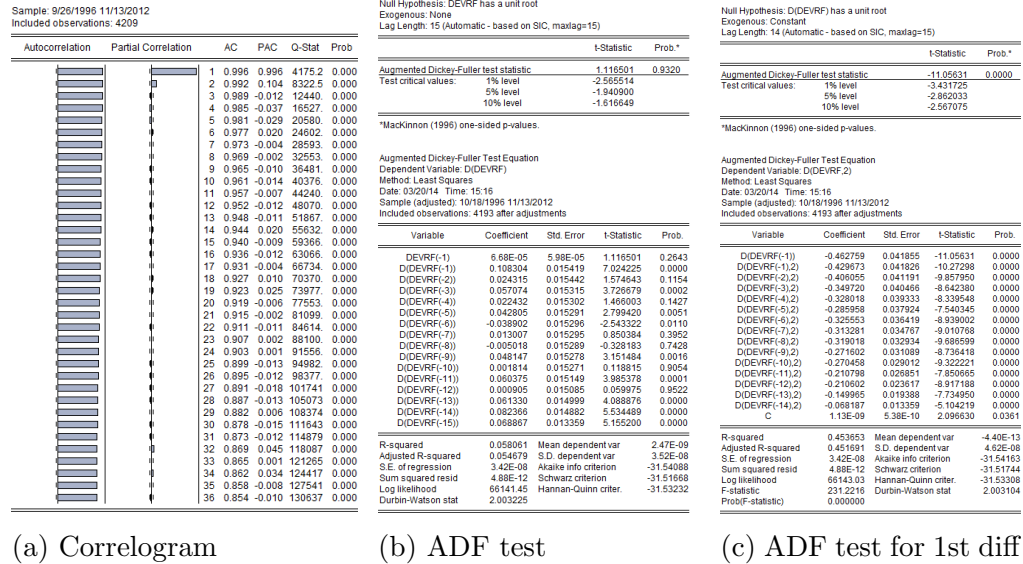


Figure 36: Norway: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX G: STATIONARY TEST: POLAND

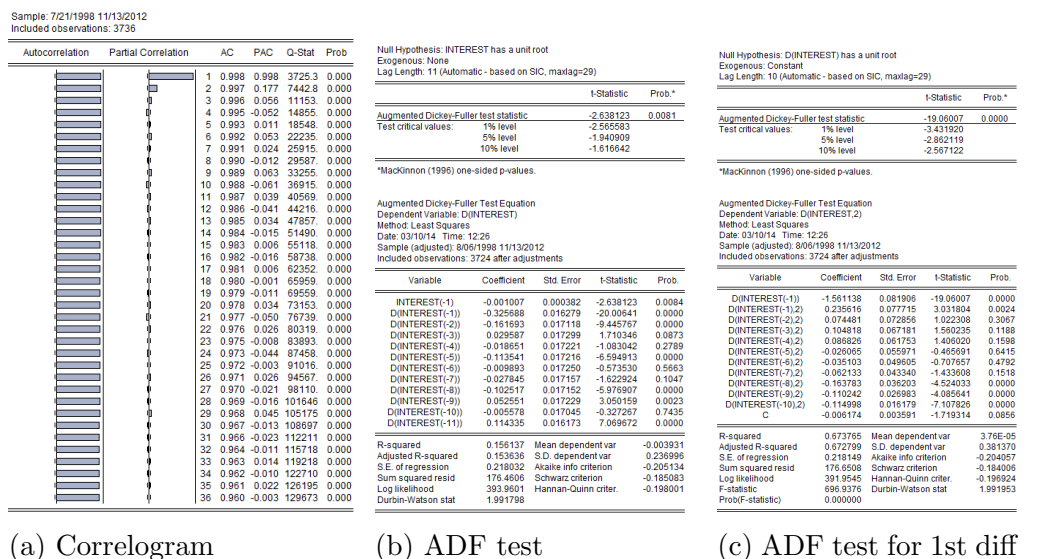


Figure 37: Poland: interest rate stationary test

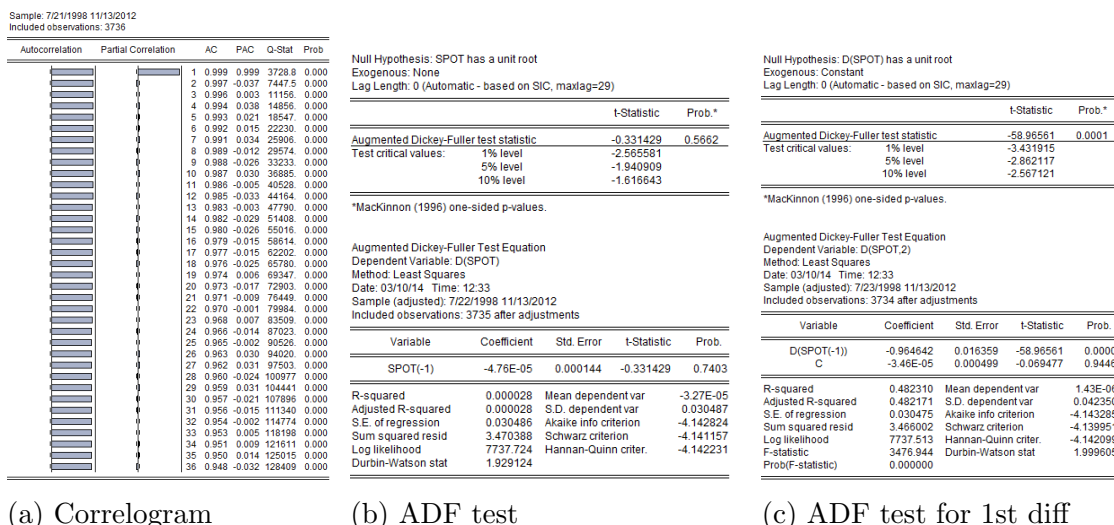


Figure 38: Poland: exchange spot rate stationary test

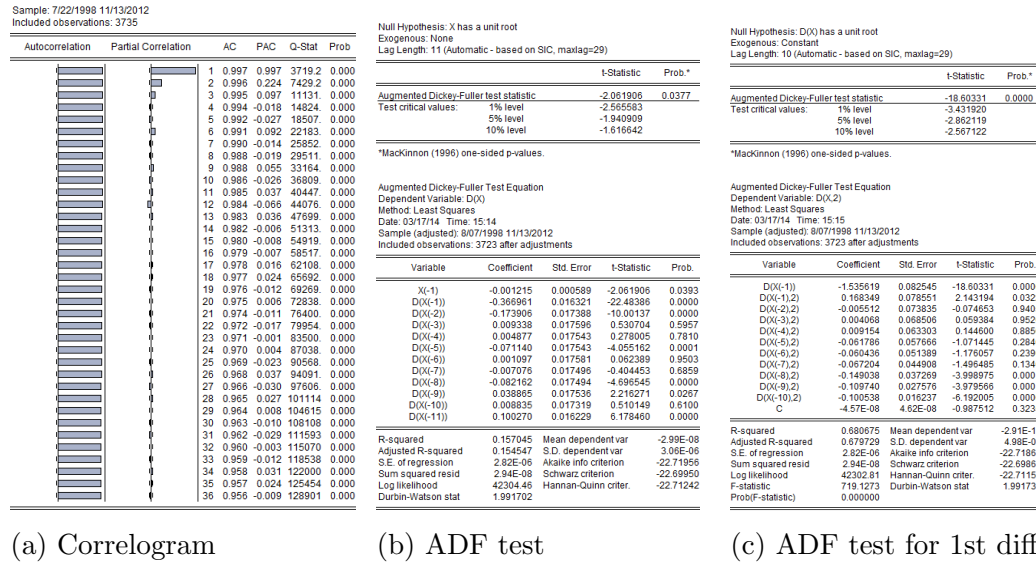


Figure 39: Poland: log interest rate difference stationary test

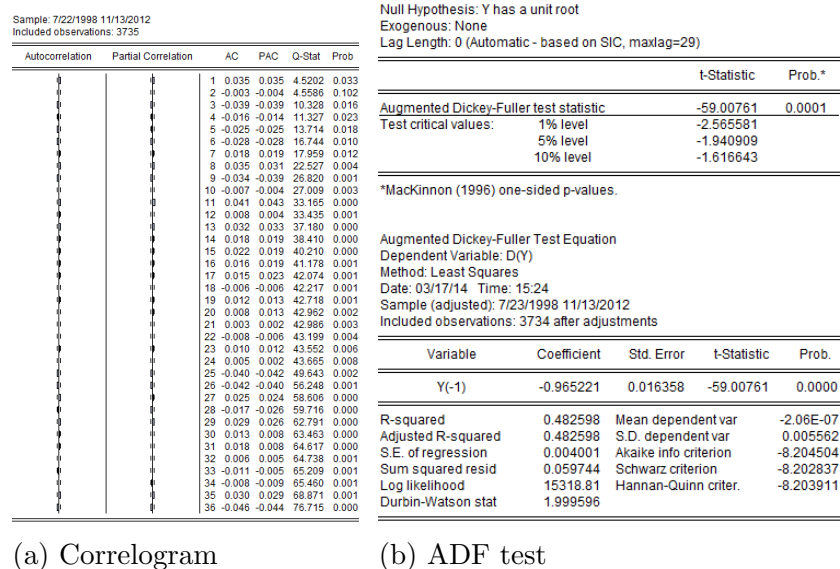
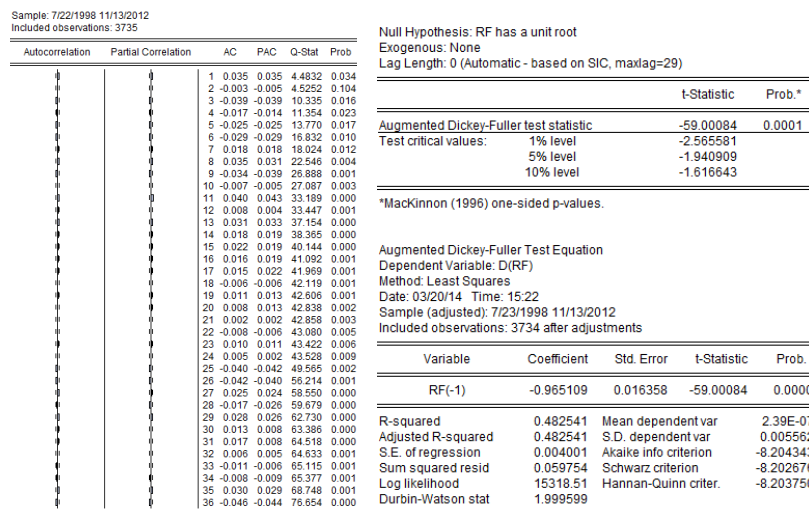


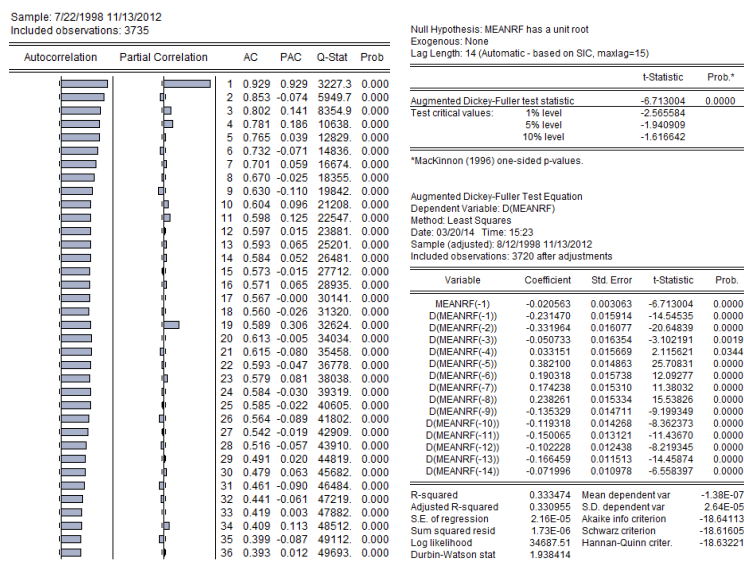
Figure 40: Poland: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 41: Poland: the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 42: Poland: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

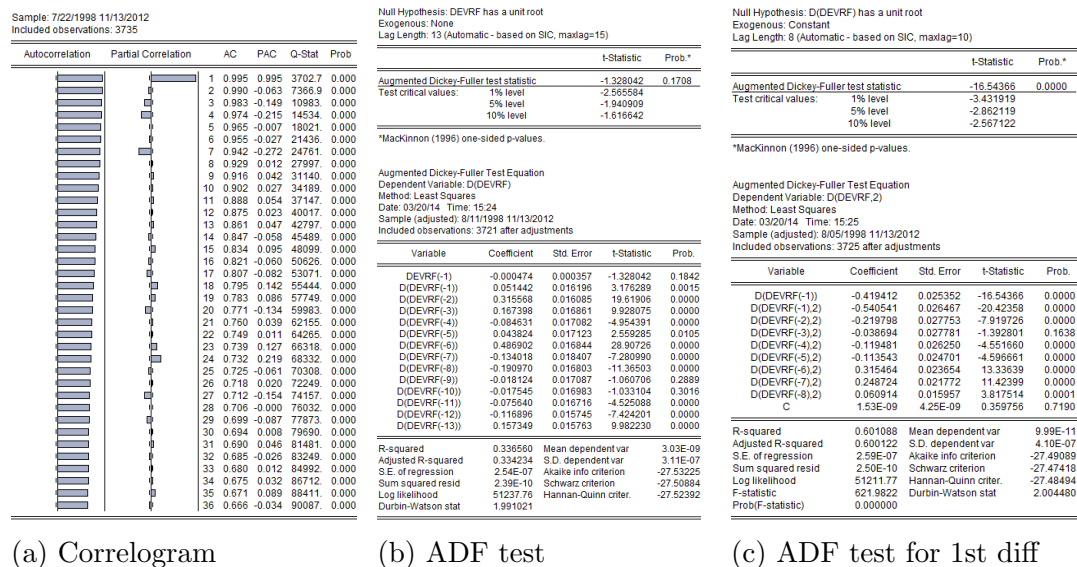


Figure 43: Poland: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX H: STATIONARY TEST: SOUTH AFRICA

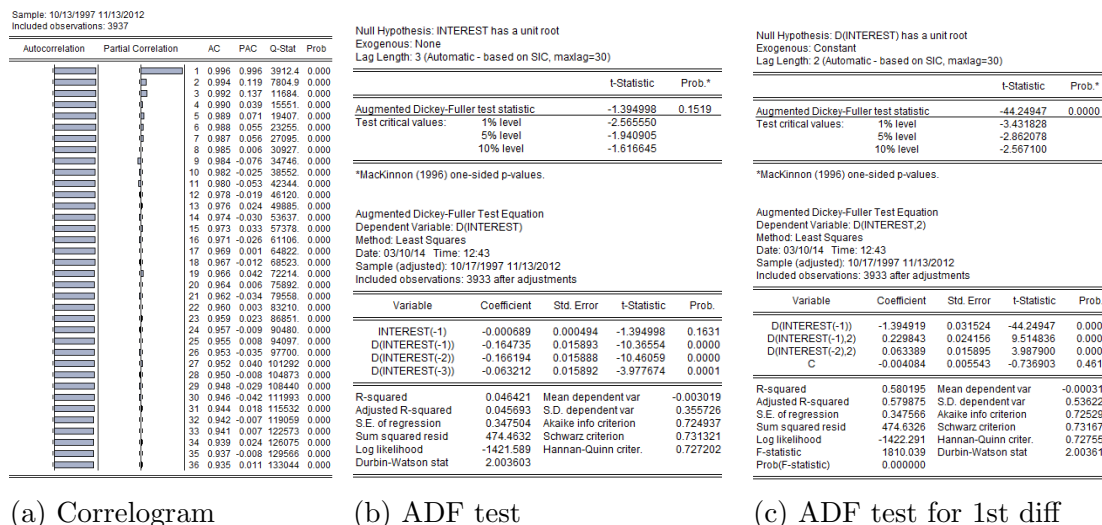


Figure 44: South Africa: interest rate stationary test

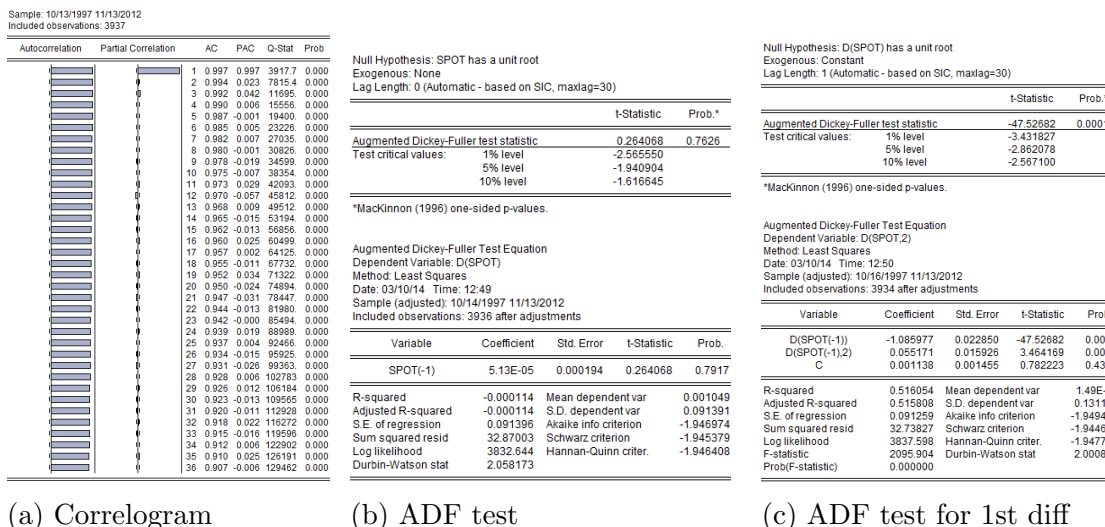


Figure 45: South Africa: exchange spot rate stationary test

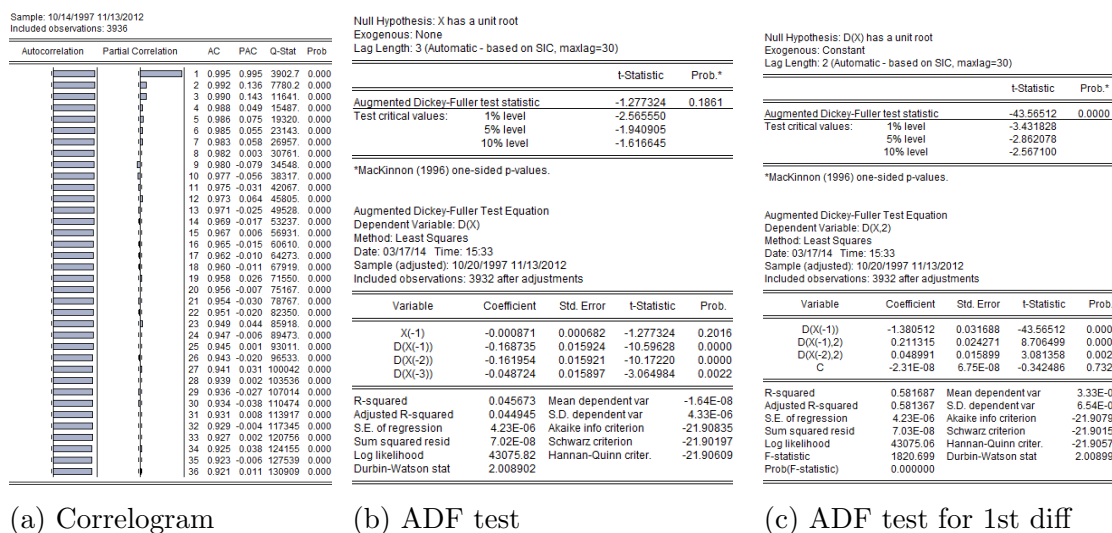


Figure 46: South Africa: log interest rate difference stationary test

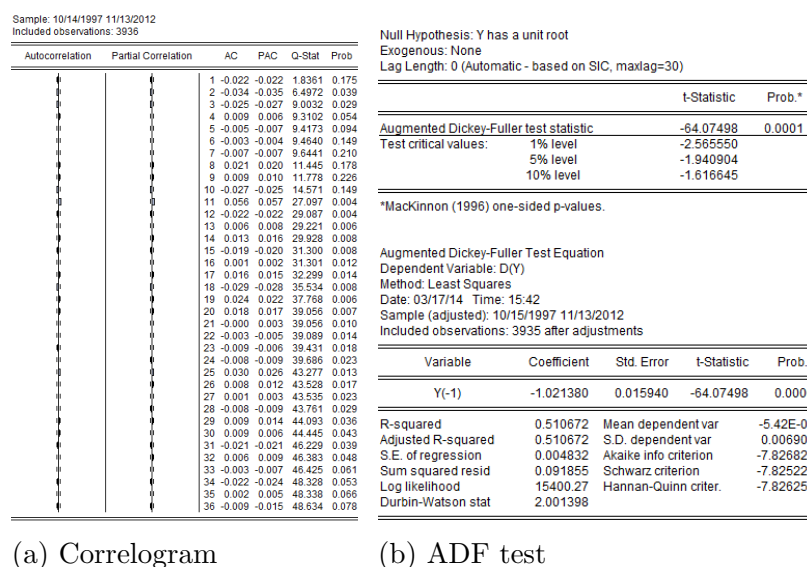
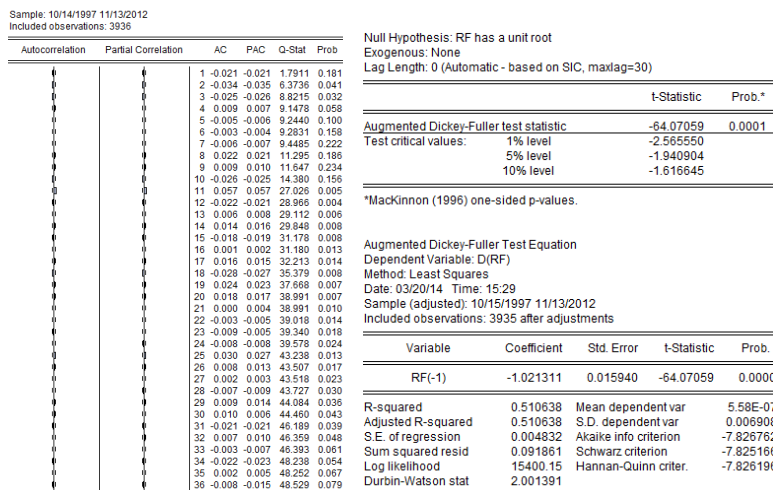


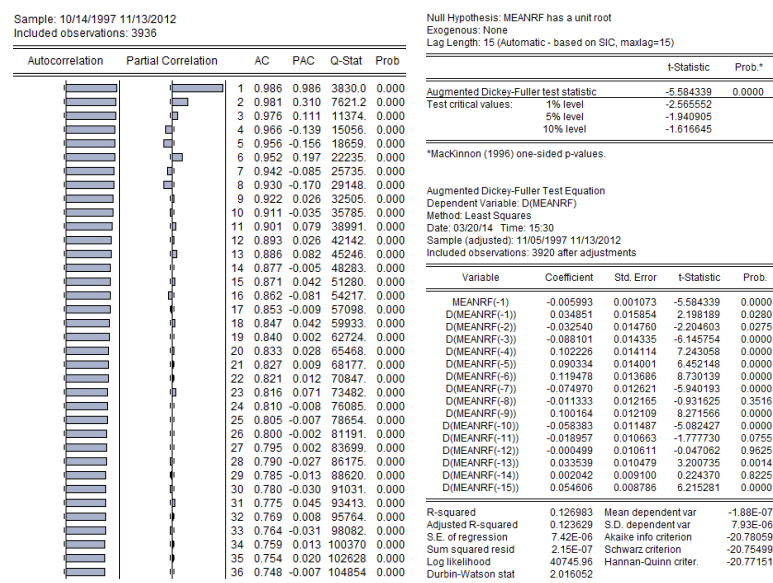
Figure 47: South Africa: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 48: South Africa: the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 49: South Africa: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

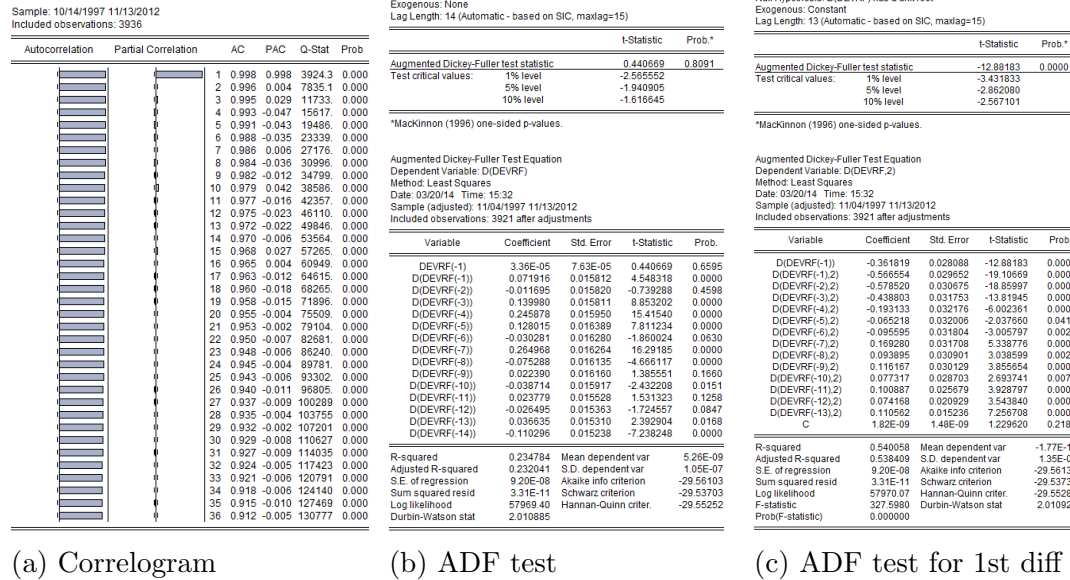


Figure 50: South Africa: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX I: STATIONARY TEST: SWEDEN

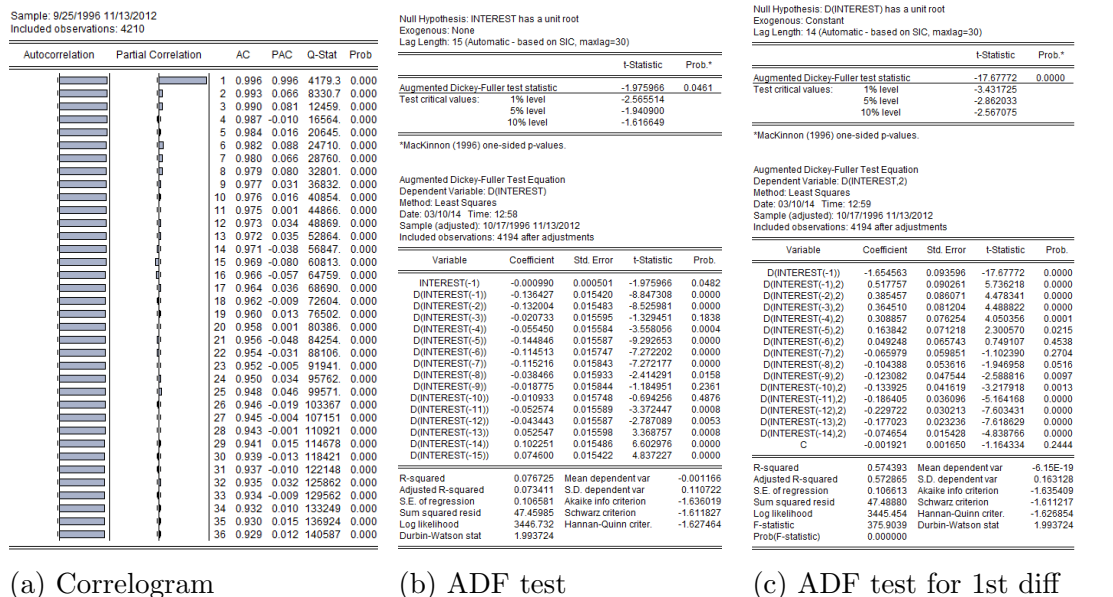


Figure 51: Sweden: interest rate stationary test

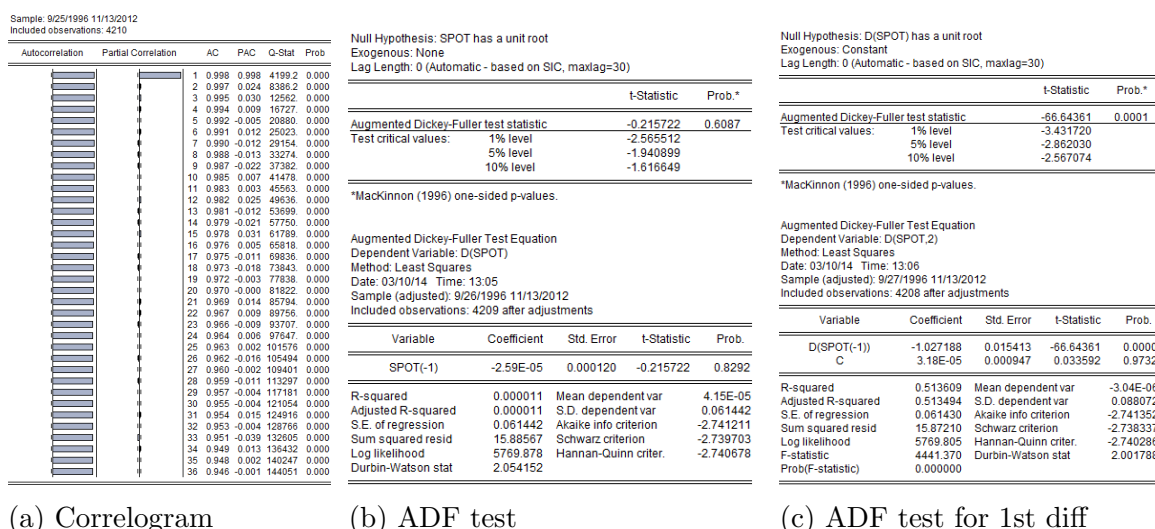


Figure 52: Sweden: exchange spot rate stationary test

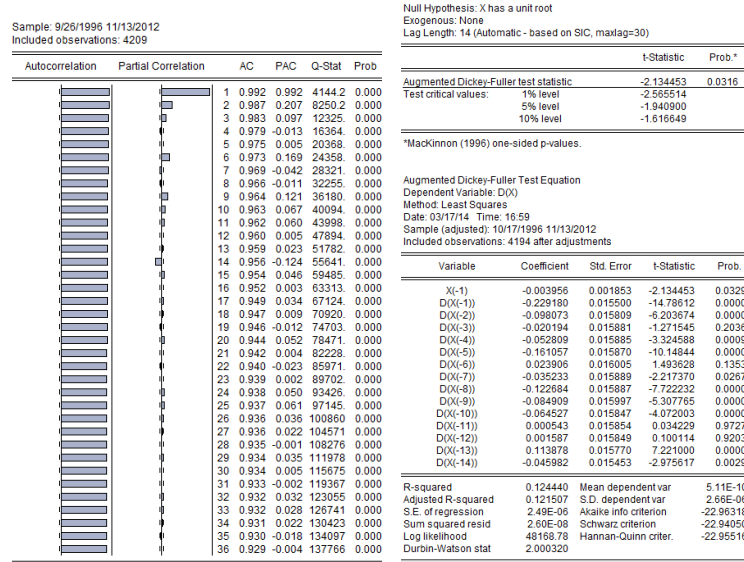


Figure 53: Sweden: log interest rate difference stationary test

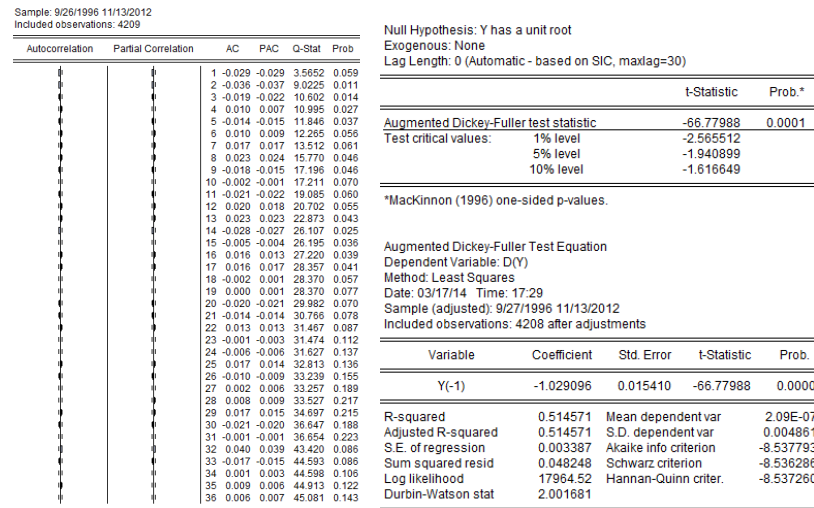


Figure 54: Sweden: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test

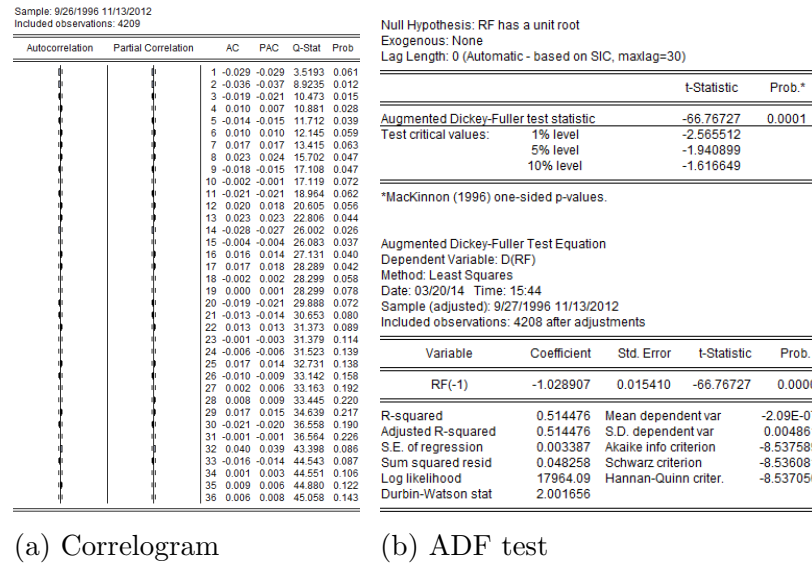


Figure 55: Sweden: the generalized risk factor stationary test

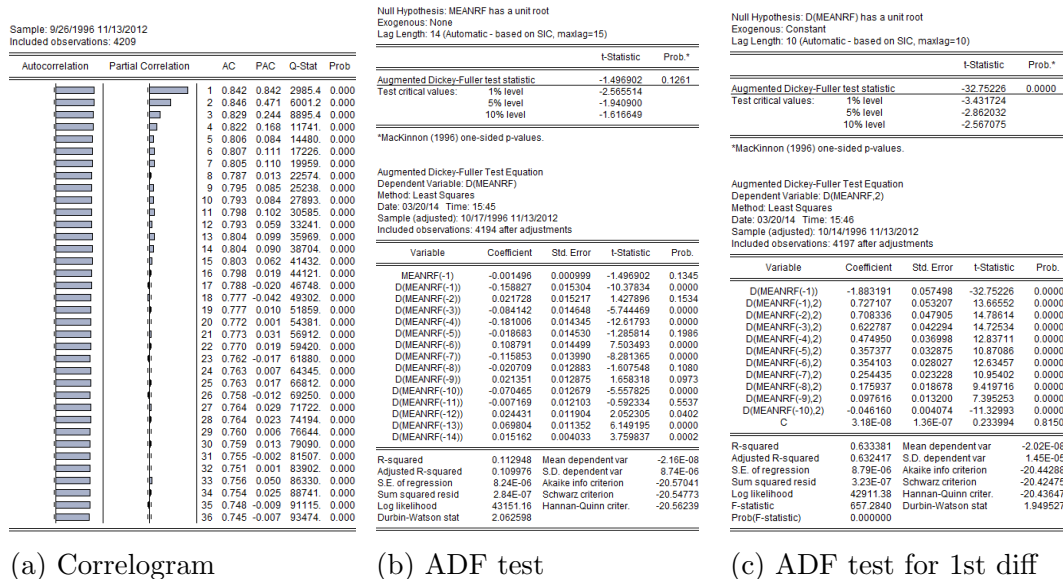
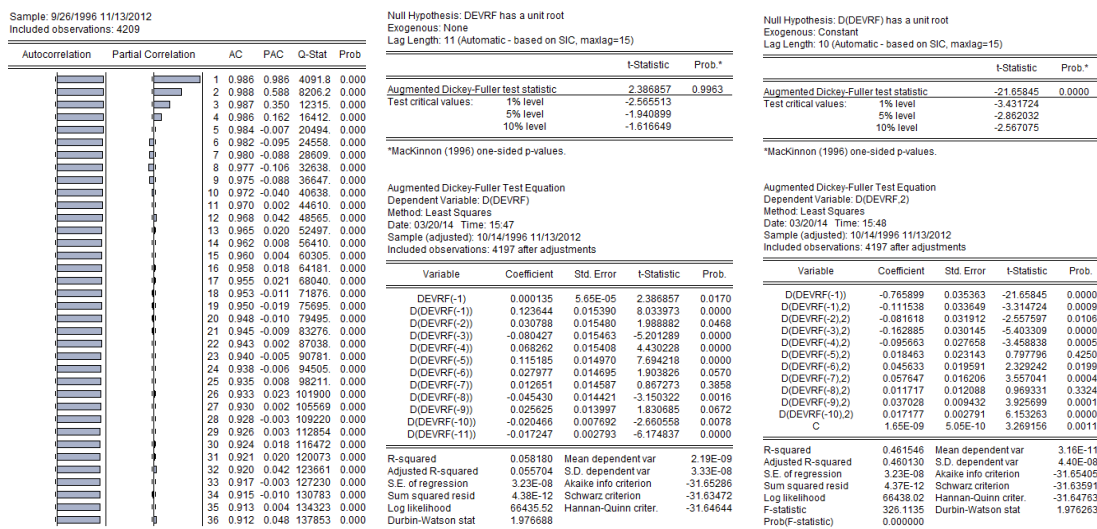


Figure 56: Sweden: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 57: Sweden: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX J: STATIONARY TEST: SWITZERLAND

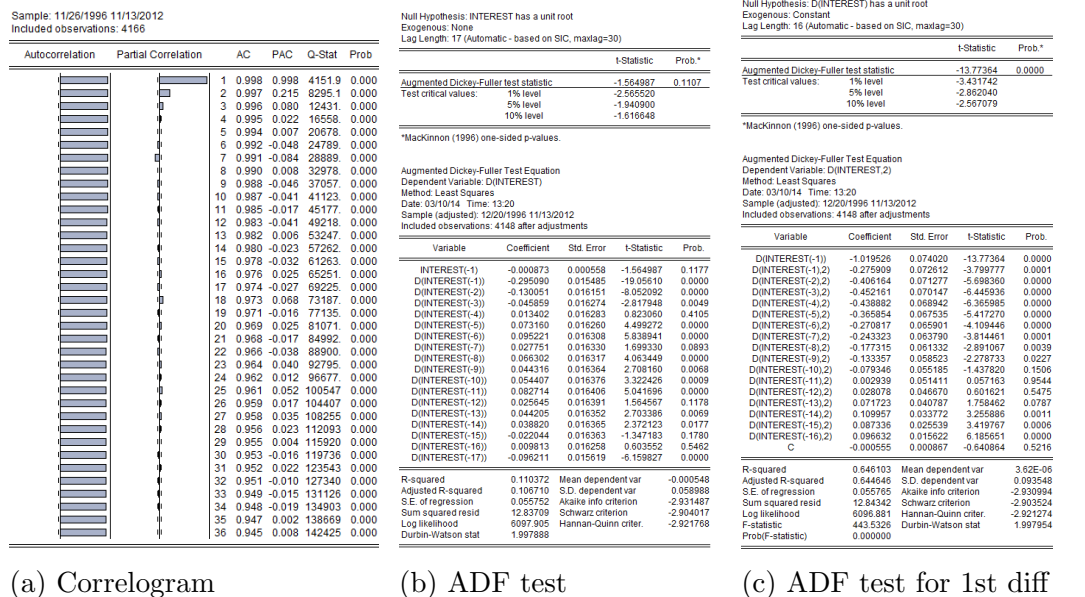


Figure 58: Switzerland: interest rate stationary test

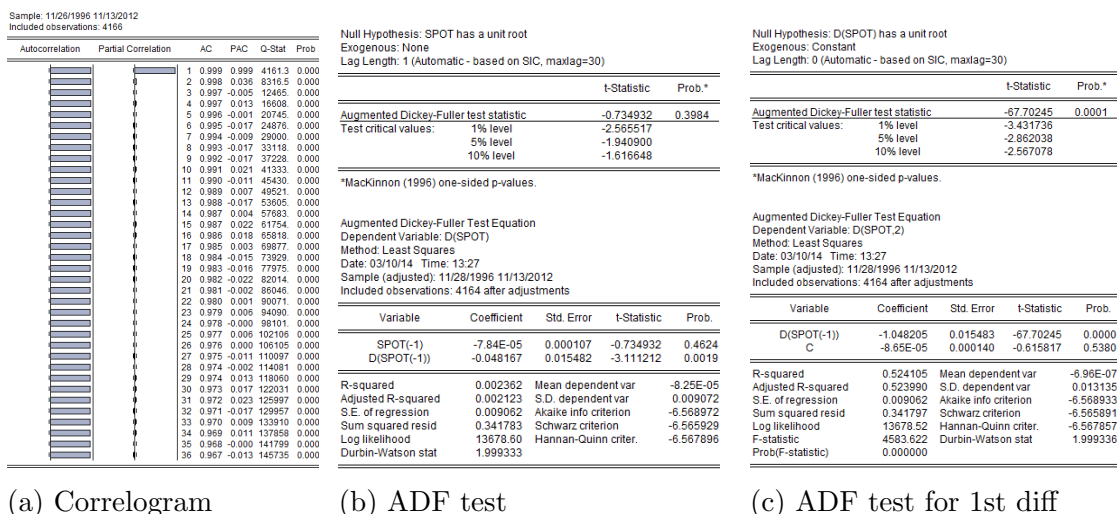


Figure 59: Switzerland: exchange spot rate stationary test

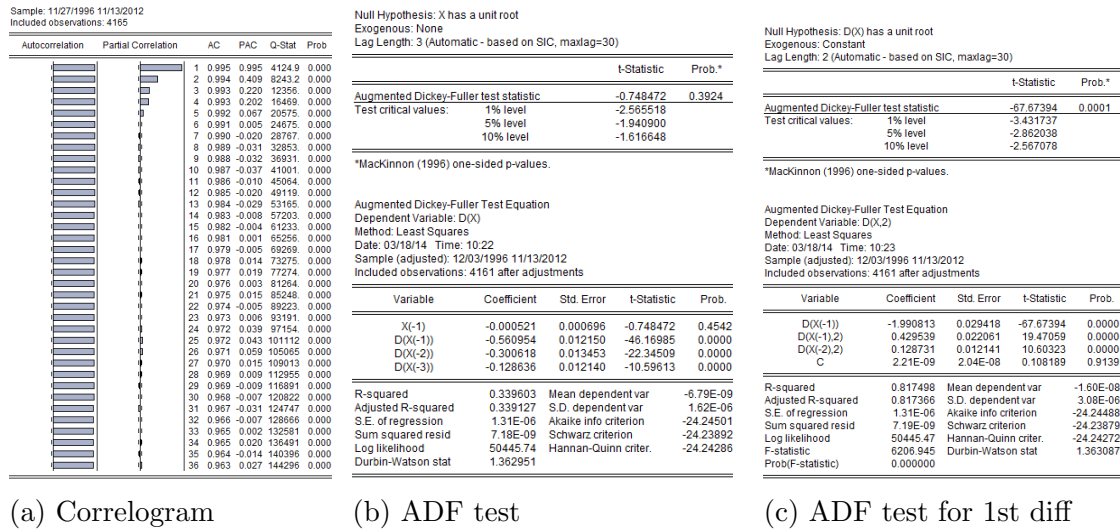


Figure 60: Switzerland: log interest rate difference stationary test

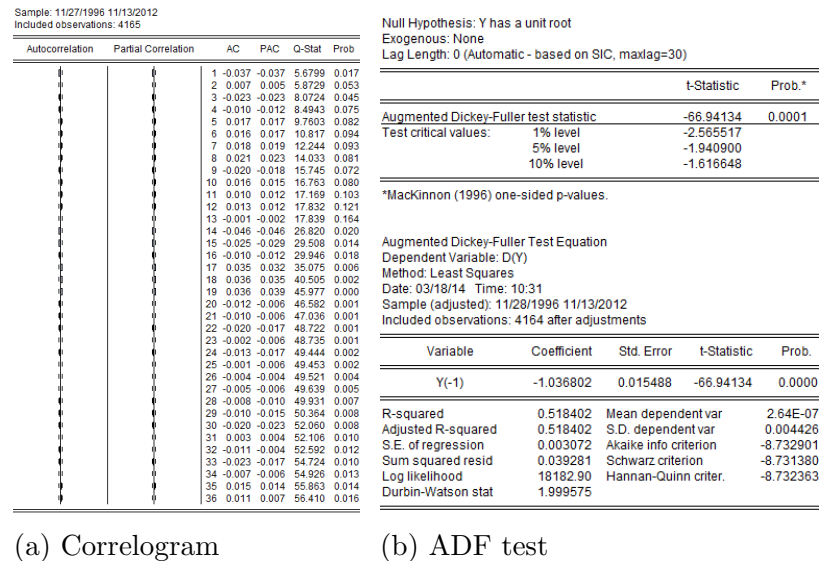


Figure 61: Switzerland: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test

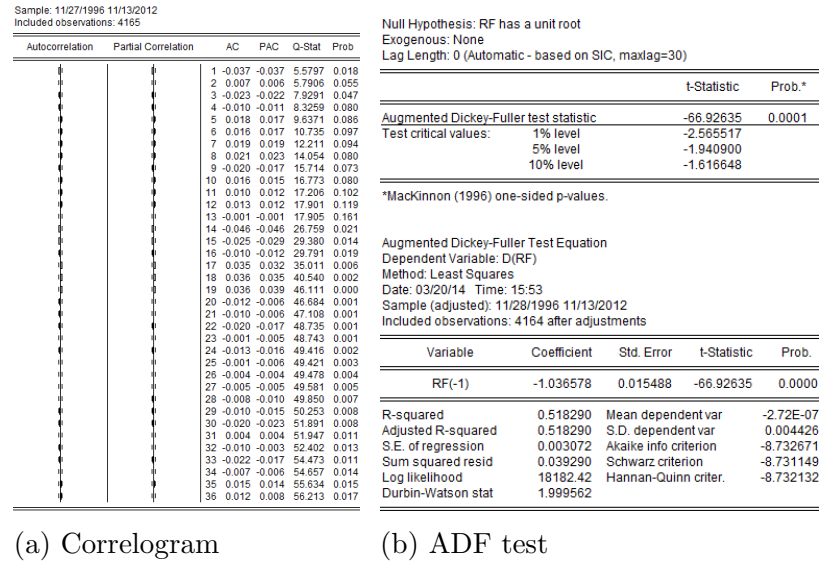


Figure 62: Switzerland: the generalized risk factor stationary test

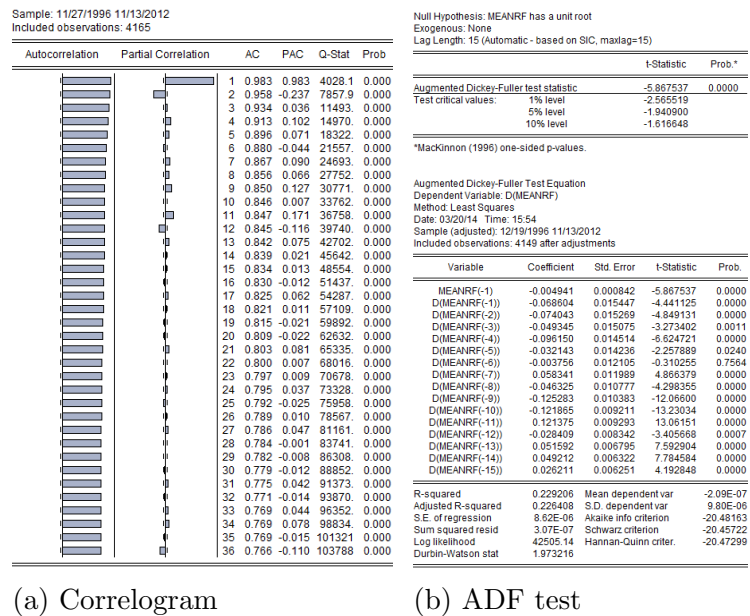
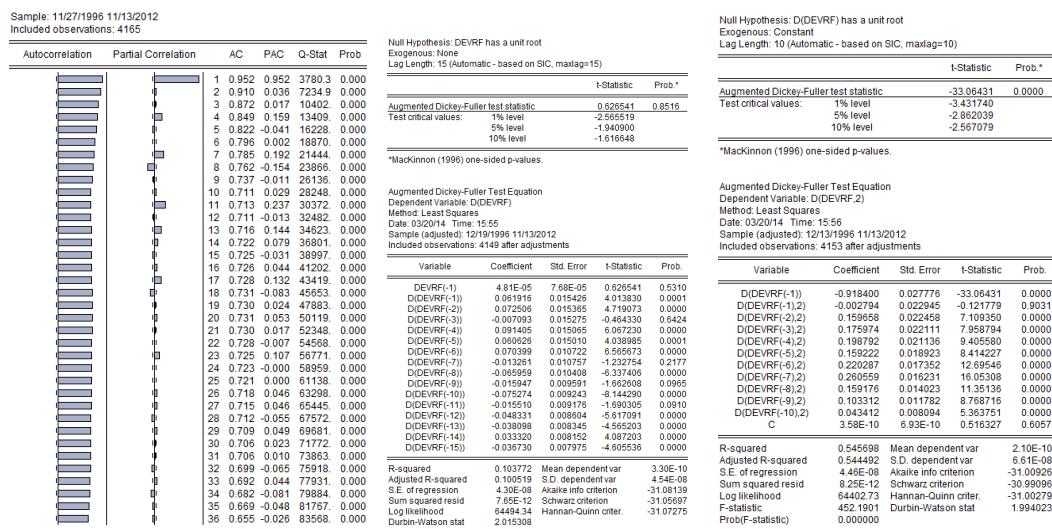


Figure 63: Switzerland: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test



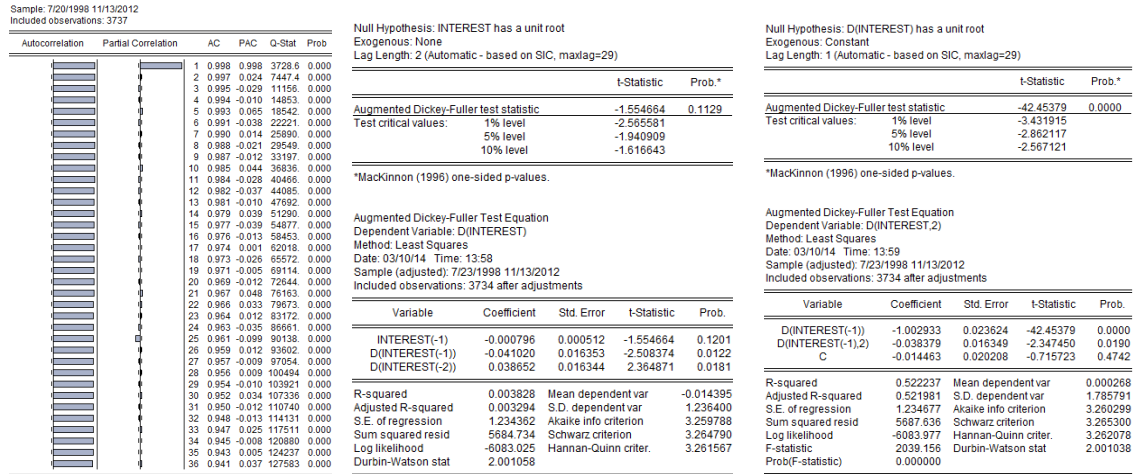
(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 64: Switzerland: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX K: STATIONARY TEST: TURKEY

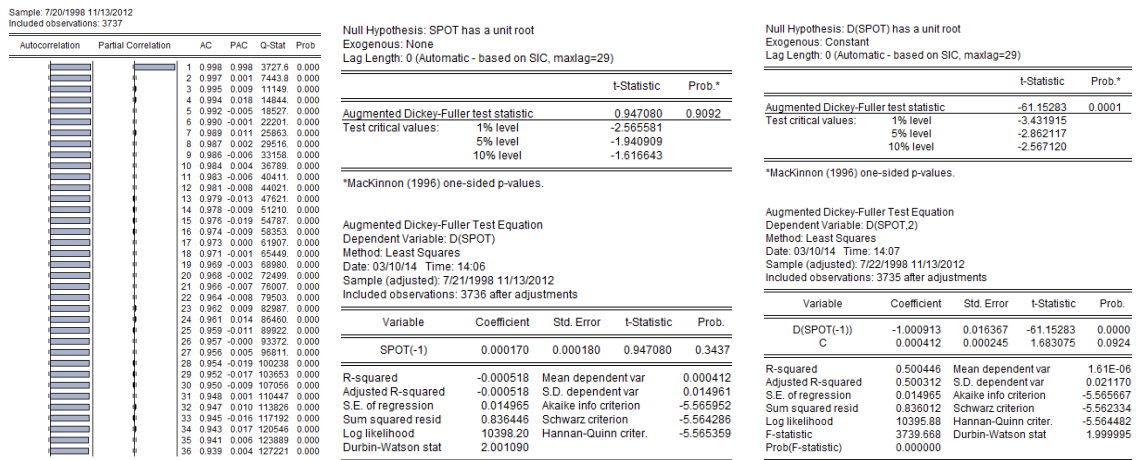


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 65: Turkey: interest rate stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 66: Turkey: exchange spot rate stationary test

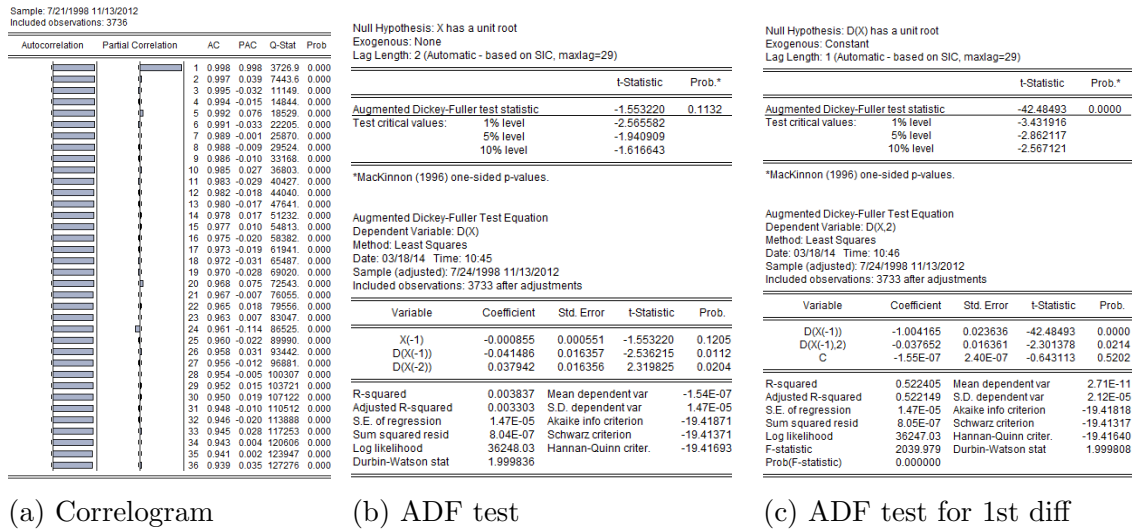


Figure 67: Turkey: log interest rate difference stationary test

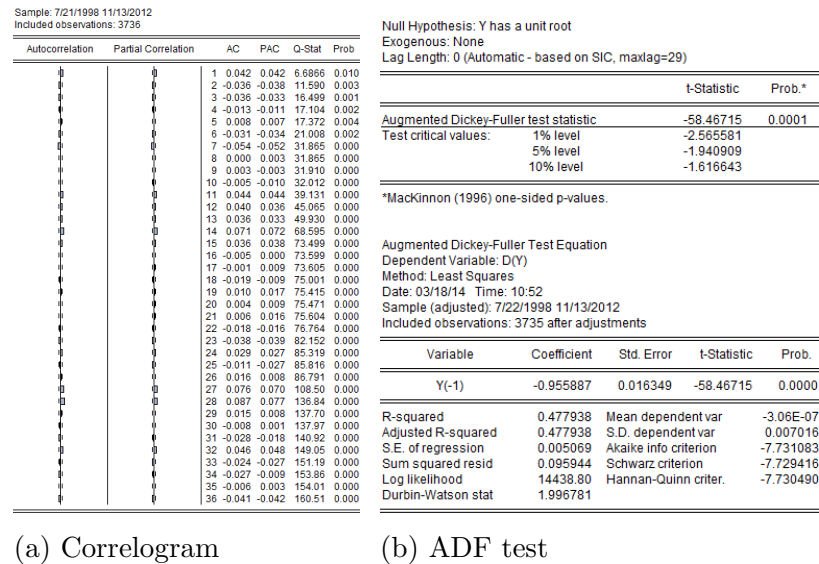


Figure 68: Turkey: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test

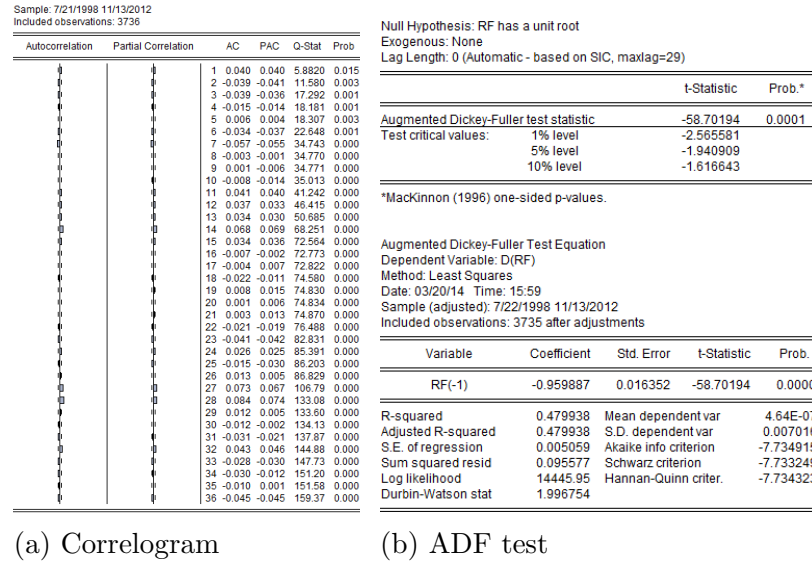


Figure 69: Turkey: the generalized risk factor stationary test

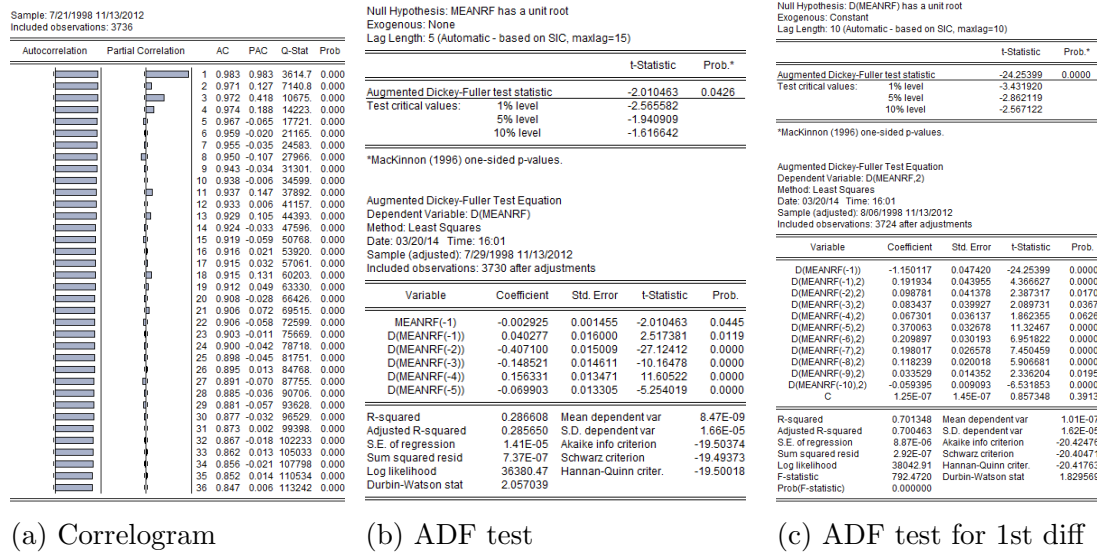


Figure 70: Turkey: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

Sample: 7/23/1998 11/13/2012
Included observations: 3734

Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation	AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob	
		1	0.999	0.999	3729.3	0.000
		2	0.997	-0.040	7449.2	0.000
		3	0.996	-0.019	11159	0.000
		4	0.994	0.006	14860	0.000
		5	0.993	-0.007	18550	0.000
		6	0.991	-0.015	22231	0.000
		7	0.990	0.003	25901	0.000
		8	0.988	-0.011	29561	0.000
		9	0.987	0.014	33212	0.000
		10	0.985	-0.019	36852	0.000
		11	0.984	-0.023	40481	0.000
		12	0.982	0.004	44100	0.000
		13	0.981	-0.009	47708	0.000
		14	0.979	0.022	51306	0.000
		15	0.978	-0.015	54893	0.000
		16	0.976	-0.006	58470	0.000
		17	0.974	-0.002	62035	0.000
		18	0.973	-0.007	65590	0.000
		19	0.971	-0.009	69134	0.000
		20	0.970	-0.003	72667	0.000
		21	0.968	0.001	76189	0.000
		22	0.966	-0.006	79700	0.000
		23	0.965	-0.004	83200	0.000
		24	0.963	-0.003	86689	0.000
		25	0.961	-0.001	90165	0.000
		26	0.960	-0.005	93632	0.000
		27	0.958	-0.007	97087	0.000
		28	0.956	-0.017	100530	0.000
		29	0.954	-0.084	103960	0.000
		30	0.952	0.010	107377	0.000
		31	0.950	0.002	110781	0.000
		32	0.948	-0.004	114172	0.000
		33	0.946	-0.011	117550	0.000
		34	0.944	0.000	120914	0.000
		35	0.942	-0.009	124265	0.000
		36	0.940	-0.001	127602	0.000

Null Hypothesis: DEVRF has a unit root
Exogenous: None
Lag Length: 1 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=29)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-0.321830	0.5698
Test critical values:		
1% level	-2.565581	
5% level	-1.940909	
10% level	-1.616843	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation
Dependent Variable: D(DEVRF)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 03/20/14 Time: 16:02
Sample (adjusted): 7/23/1998 11/13/2012
Included observations: 3734 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
DEVRF(-1)	-9.23E-05	0.000287	-0.321830	0.7476
D(DEVRF(-1))	0.069365	0.016331	4.247440	0.0000

R-squared 0.004696 Mean dependent var 6.83E-09
Adjusted R-squared 0.004429 S.D. dependent var 5.90E-07
S.E. of regression 5.88E-07 Akaike info criterion -25.85349
Sum squared resid 1.29E-09 Schwarz criterion -25.85015
Log likelihood 48270.46 Hannan-Quinn criter. -25.85230
Durbin-Watson stat 2.004435

Null Hypothesis: D(DEVRF) has a unit root
Exogenous: Constant
Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=29)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-57.00120	0.0001
Test critical values:		
1% level	-3.431915	
5% level	-2.862117	
10% level	-2.567121	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation
Dependent Variable: D(DEVRF.2)
Method: Least Squares
Date: 03/20/14 Time: 16:03
Sample (adjusted): 7/23/1998 11/13/2012
Included observations: 3734 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(DEVRF(-1))	-0.930830	0.016330	-57.00120	0.0000
C	6.36E-09	9.63E-09	0.660495	0.5090

R-squared 0.465417 Mean dependent var -2.84E-11
Adjusted R-squared 0.465273 S.D. dependent var 8.05E-07
S.E. of regression 5.88E-07 Akaike info criterion -25.85358
Sum squared resid 1.29E-09 Schwarz criterion -25.85024
Log likelihood 48270.63 Hannan-Quinn criter. -25.85239
F-statistic 3249.136 Durbin-Watson stat 2.004396
Prob(F-statistic) 0.000000

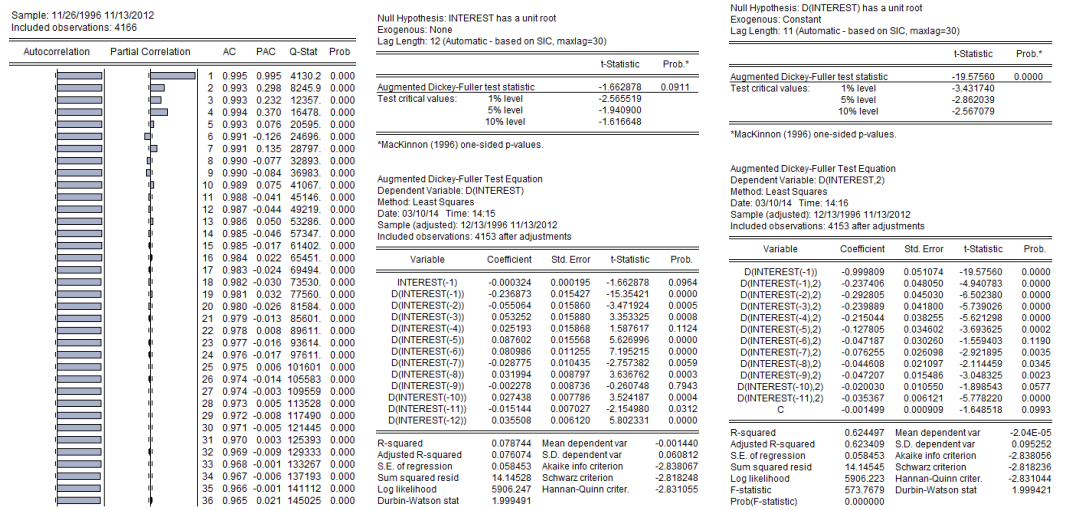
(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 71: Turkey: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX L: STATIONARY TEST: UNITED KINGDOM

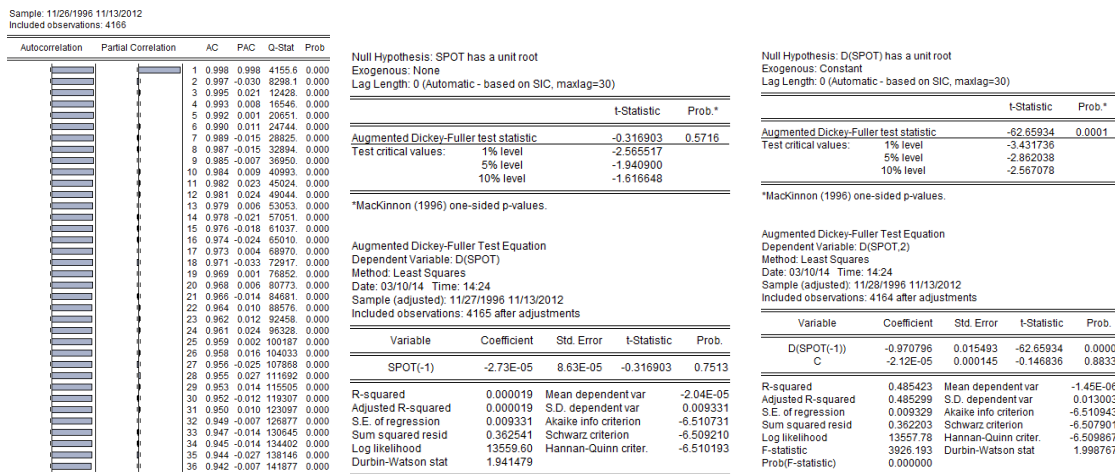


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 72: United Kingdom: interest rate stationary test

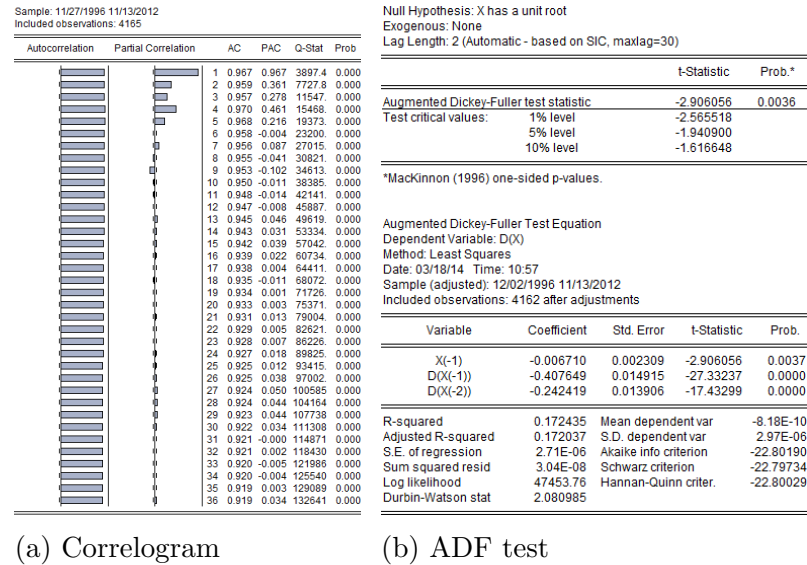


(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

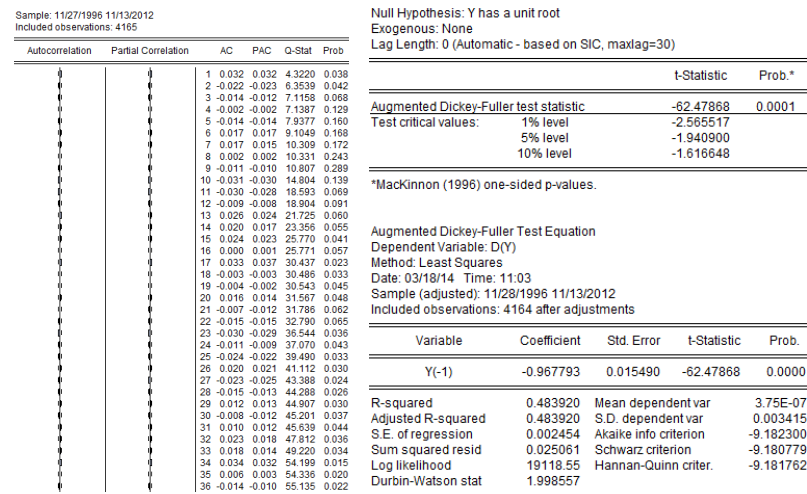
Figure 73: United Kingdom: exchange spot rate stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

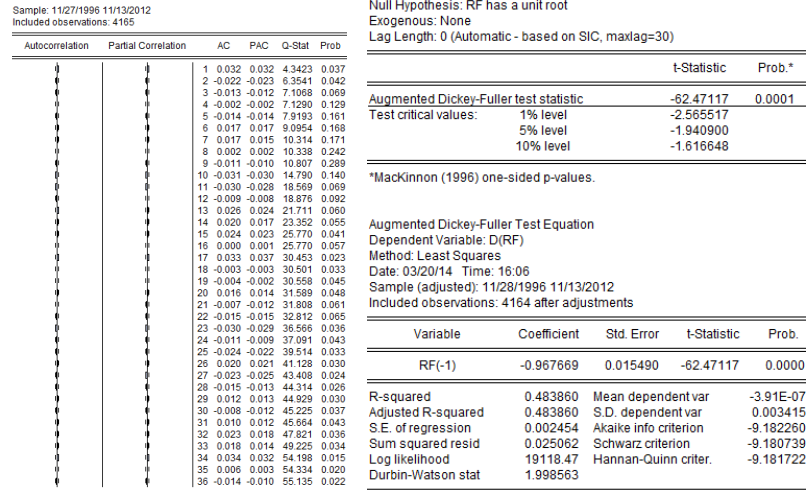
Figure 74: United Kingdom: log interest rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

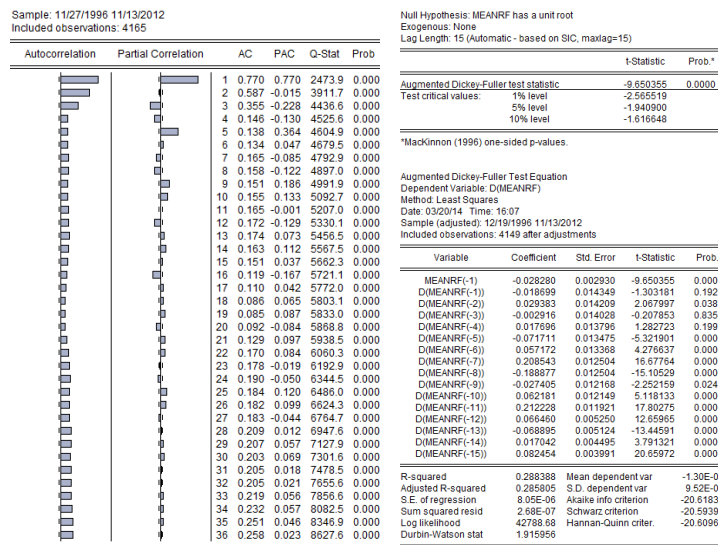
Figure 75: United Kingdom: log exchange spot rate difference stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 76: United Kingdom: the generalized risk factor stationary test



(a) Correlogram

(b) ADF test

Figure 77: United Kingdom: the mean of the generalized risk factor stationary test

Sample: 11/27/1996 11/13/2012
Included observations: 4165

Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation	AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob
		1 0.917	0.917	3503.1	0.000
		2 0.857	0.101	6562.2	0.000
		3 0.813	0.090	9317.4	0.000
		4 0.758	-0.067	11711.0	0.000
		5 0.749	0.253	14051.0	0.000
		6 0.738	0.047	16324.0	0.000
		7 0.728	0.080	18539.0	0.000
		8 0.725	0.033	20732.0	0.000
		9 0.723	0.120	22916.0	0.000
		10 0.717	0.016	25065.0	0.000
		11 0.712	0.052	27185.0	0.000
		12 0.709	0.042	29287.0	0.000
		13 0.706	0.063	31367.0	0.000
		14 0.703	0.031	33436.0	0.000
		15 0.703	0.051	35501.0	0.000
		16 0.703	0.047	37570.0	0.000
		17 0.706	0.064	39657.0	0.000
		18 0.711	0.059	41775.0	0.000
		19 0.713	0.031	43903.0	0.000
		20 0.717	0.059	46053.0	0.000
		21 0.713	-0.001	48183.0	0.000
		22 0.711	0.052	50303.0	0.000
		23 0.706	-0.007	52395.0	0.000
		24 0.702	0.040	54459.0	0.000
		25 0.699	0.007	56508.0	0.000
		26 0.698	0.045	58548.0	0.000
		27 0.698	0.018	60592.0	0.000
		28 0.699	0.037	62641.0	0.000
		29 0.694	-0.020	64664.0	0.000
		30 0.691	0.027	66668.0	0.000
		31 0.689	0.015	68660.0	0.000
		32 0.686	0.022	70636.0	0.000
		33 0.686	0.013	72610.0	0.000
		34 0.684	0.011	74576.0	0.000
		35 0.684	0.025	76541.0	0.000
		36 0.686	0.030	78521.0	0.000

(a) Correlogram

Null Hypothesis: D(DEVRF) has a unit root
Exogenous: None
Lag Length: 15 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=15)

		t-Statistic	Prob.*	
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic				
Test critical values:	1% level	-2.565519	0.2810	
	5% level	-1.940900		
	10% level	-1.616648		
*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.				
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation				
Dependent Variable: D(DEVRF)				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 03/20/14 Time: 16:09				
Sample (adjusted): 12/19/1996 11/13/2012				
Included observations: 4149 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(DEVRF(-1))	-0.000100	9.91E-05	-1.010470	0.312
D(DEVRF(-1))	-0.218640	0.015423	-14.17616	0.000
D(DEVRF(-2))	0.172538	0.015684	11.00114	0.000
D(DEVRF(-3))	-0.040283	0.015762	-2.555799	0.010
D(DEVRF(-4))	-0.123260	0.014406	-8.556352	0.000
D(DEVRF(-5))	-0.053794	0.014242	-3.777145	0.000
D(DEVRF(-6))	-0.107773	0.014246	-7.565190	0.000
D(DEVRF(-7))	-0.158544	0.013841	-11.45445	0.000
D(DEVRF(-8))	0.214930	0.013668	15.72467	0.000
D(DEVRF(-9))	0.128155	0.013685	9.364536	0.000
D(DEVRF(-10))	0.005063	0.012278	0.412402	0.680
D(DEVRF(-11))	0.031548	0.011908	2.649293	0.008
D(DEVRF(-12))	-0.011333	0.002693	-4.207614	0.000
D(DEVRF(-13))	-0.004541	0.002247	-2.020388	0.043
D(DEVRF(-14))	-0.020313	0.002083	-9.748570	0.000
D(DEVRF(-15))	-0.010075	0.001818	-5.542476	0.000
R-squared	0.249397	Mean dependent var	-5.94E-10	
Adjusted R-squared	0.246672	S.D. dependent var	3.84E-08	
S.E. of regression	3.33E-08	Akaike info criterion	-31.59184	
Sum squared resid	4.59E-12	Schwarz criterion	-31.56743	
Log likelihood	6553.27	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-31.58320	
Durbin-Watson stat	1.981132			

(b) ADF test

Null Hypothesis: D(DEVRF) has a unit root
Exogenous: Constant
Lag Length: 10 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=10)

Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		-28.67849	0.0000	
Test critical values:				
1% level		-3.431740		
5% level		-2.862039		
10% level		-2.567079		
*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.				
Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation				
Dependent Variable: D(DEVRF,2)				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 03/20/14 Time: 16:10				
Sample (adjusted): 12/13/1996 11/13/2012				
Included observations: 4153 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(DEVRF(-1))	-0.709702	0.024747	-28.67849	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-1,2))	-0.395911	0.023785	-16.64566	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-2,2))	-0.116392	0.023463	-4.960622	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-3,2))	-0.063740	0.020757	-3.070848	0.0021
D(DEVRF(-4,2))	-0.109032	0.018616	-5.855771	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-5,2))	-0.125435	0.017691	-7.090271	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-6,2))	-0.035552	0.014816	-2.399633	0.0165
D(DEVRF(-7,2))	0.011903	0.005608	2.122370	0.0339
D(DEVRF(-8,2))	0.007554	0.004431	1.704965	0.0883
D(DEVRF(-9,2))	0.026633	0.003235	8.233811	0.0000
D(DEVRF(-10,2))	0.021097	0.001988	10.61013	0.0000
C	-3.51E-10	5.78E-10	-0.606259	0.5444
R-squared	0.637853	Mean dependent var	2.18E-10	
Adjusted R-squared	0.636891	S.D. dependent var	6.17E-08	
S.E. of regression	3.72E-08	Akaike info criterion	-31.37268	
Sum squared resid	5.73E-12	Schwarz criterion	-31.35438	
Log likelihood	65157.37	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-31.36621	
F-statistic	683.0535	Durbin-Watson stat	2.078916	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

(c) ADF test for 1st diff

Figure 78: United Kingdom: the deviation of the generalized risk factor stationary test

APPENDIX M: OTHER TEST RESULTS TABLES

Table 13: Monthly data sample statistics

PanelA: Monthly Exchange Rate mid price							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.75	0.17	1.10	0.49	0.34	2.09	174
Canada	1.28	0.19	1.60	0.94	-0.10	1.83	258
Japan	109.26	15.44	144.66	76.27	-0.36	2.58	258
New Zealand	0.63	0.12	0.88	0.39	-0.20	1.97	190
Norway	6.87	1.10	9.37	5.08	0.58	2.52	198
Poland	3.43	0.59	4.65	2.06	-0.10	2.13	172
South Africa	7.35	1.36	11.96	4.82	0.98	4.18	181
Sweden	7.63	1.13	10.85	5.15	0.84	3.71	249
Switzerland	1.31	0.22	1.80	0.79	-0.03	2.40	258
Turkey	1.29	0.42	1.89	0.27	-1.17	3.31	172
United Kingdom	1.67	0.17	2.08	1.41	0.62	2.54	192

PanelB: Monthly Deposit Rate mid price							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	5.13	0.99	8.45	3.03	0.39	3.56	174
Canada	3.03	1.62	5.81	0.20	-0.10	1.86	183
Japan	0.24	0.29	1.50	-0.13	1.32	4.58	192
New Zealand	5.61	1.93	9.75	2.55	-0.13	1.93	190
Norway	4.19	2.10	8.93	1.34	0.41	1.81	198
Poland	7.82	5.24	19.83	2.54	1.14	2.76	172
South Africa	10.26	4.49	24.25	4.90	1.60	5.30	181
Sweden	3.08	1.45	6.23	0.28	0.01	2.59	198
Switzerland	1.19	1.00	3.44	-0.39	0.62	2.29	192
Turkey	31.00	25.57	97.00	5.30	1.06	2.83	172
United Kingdom	4.13	2.21	7.56	0.45	-0.56	2.10	192
United States	3.09	2.24	6.72	0.13	0.00	1.39	194

PanelC: Monthly Future mid price							
Country	Mean	Std	Max	Min	Skew	Kurt	Obs
Australia	0.75	0.17	1.09	0.49	0.33	2.09	174
Canada	1.27	0.21	1.60	0.94	0.07	1.48	183
Japan	109.00	15.38	144.03	76.24	-0.34	2.57	258
New Zealand	0.63	0.12	0.88	0.39	-0.20	1.97	190
Norway	6.88	1.10	9.39	5.10	0.60	2.52	198
Poland	3.44	0.60	4.70	2.06	-0.07	2.11	172
South Africa	7.39	1.38	12.05	4.86	1.00	4.19	181
Sweden	7.76	1.16	10.85	5.95	0.91	3.28	198
Switzerland	1.29	0.25	1.80	0.79	0.11	2.15	192
Turkey	1.31	0.42	1.90	0.28	-1.16	3.26	172
United Kingdom	1.67	0.17	2.08	1.41	0.62	2.55	192

Table 14: Overall daily regression result

PanelA: without constant coefficient												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	2.2748	3.2767	-0.2328	3.6712	0.8022	0.6669	5.3444	0.4288	0.1807	-1.0740	1.4333	
meanrf	0.7099	0.8608	-0.1022	1.2026	0.3916	0.4670	2.3984	0.1656	0.0637	-4.1590	0.5083	
	-2.3904	-1.0895	1.2087	-1.4781	-1.3707	-1.2829	-3.9729	-1.1456	-0.8158	-1.1754	-3.1315	
	-2.4169	-1.5024	-2.3103	-2.9012	-2.2641	-1.5854	-3.4925	-2.2598	-2.0103	-1.8865	-2.8431	
devrf	-13.3222	5.5893	10.5454	-26.6242	5.6607	-7.3469	-19.7613	10.2063	12.0692	1.8609	-17.2309	
	-1.3800	0.5325	1.3663	-2.2464	0.7976	-0.6892	-2.0799	1.4359	1.4903	0.5496	-1.4866	
R-squared	0.0018	0.0010	0.0016	0.0022	0.0014	0.0007	0.0030	0.0014	0.0014	0.0039	0.0020	
PanelB: with constant coefficient												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
c	0.0004	0.0002	0.0001	-0.0002	0.0001	-0.0003	-0.0003	0.0002	0.0017	-0.0009	0.0000	
	1.3455	1.3786	0.4470	-0.4046	0.1719	-1.0818	-0.6305	0.3592	1.6593	-2.7104	0.0307	
x	2.2529	4.2500	-0.5390	4.4835	0.8290	1.7522	5.4010	0.7006	2.1263	-0.6057	1.3952	
	0.7031	1.0979	-0.2266	1.2270	0.4034	1.0041	2.4217	0.2597	0.6924	-1.9504	0.4528	
meanrf	-2.3852	-1.9989	-1.3072	-1.7575	-1.4146	-2.0142	-3.5620	-1.3307	-0.9491	-3.0479	-3.1345	
	-2.4118	-2.0392	-2.3025	-2.0479	-2.1527	-1.9102	-2.7168	-1.8409	-2.2947	-3.2775	-2.8349	
devrf	-49.0502	-42.3556	-0.3089	-14.8530	-1.0289	9.5421	-7.8546	-6.4641	-182.1368	17.3616	-19.0278	
	-1.7361	-1.1659	-0.0121	-0.4728	-0.0260	0.5048	-0.3715	-0.1377	-1.5525	2.6128	-0.3191	
R-squared	0.0022	0.0015	0.0017	0.0023	0.0014	0.0010	0.0031	0.0014	0.0020	0.0059	0.0020	
PanelC: with other variables												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	-3.2300	3.5973	0.0608	1.6176	1.6841	1.7391	4.9307	0.5484	0.4324	-0.3960	-0.5409	
	-0.9856	0.9434	0.0270	0.4646	0.8080	1.2113	2.2250	0.2114	0.1521	-1.4875	-0.1903	
meanrf	-2.8498	-1.3575	-2.4733	-1.7517	-1.0091	-2.1645	-2.3241	-1.0272	-0.9137	2.0411	-3.8356	
	-2.8907	-1.5985	-4.5697	-2.4820	-1.5976	-2.6293	-2.0113	-1.9206	-2.2021	2.8114	-3.4529	
devrf	-67.1443	11.6742	-53.2786	-74.3699	28.1098	29.3439	16.5519	18.6379	-2.5505	63.0022	-86.8574	
	-4.6997	0.5464	-5.0976	-4.0563	-2.1822	2.3514	1.4964	1.4003	-0.1834	13.4444	-4.7226	
bid-ask	-0.1162	0.1329	-0.0007	-0.1194	0.0023	-0.0010	0.0022	0.0010	-0.0614	-0.0362	0.0111	
	-0.5819	1.4183	-0.7776	-0.7382	0.3942	-0.4017	0.7163	0.0990	-0.6648	-4.4732	0.8462	
high-low	0.0888	-0.0094	0.0007	0.0779	-0.0030	-0.0121	-0.0059	-0.0010	0.0130	-0.0897	0.0256	
	7.7389	-1.3463	10.2516	5.4248	-2.2832	-5.4793	-6.8547	-0.8543	1.7454	-17.1796	4.8029	
R-squared	0.0175	0.0017	0.0264	0.0088	0.0026	0.0091	0.0153	0.0016	0.0022	0.1027	0.0077	

Table 15: Regime test on extreme mean values of the generalized factor

PanelA: 10 percentage												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	NA	0.8087	2.7019	1.7206	-0.0810	-0.1247	3.1369	1.3000	0.5388	-0.4533	0.8793	
	NA	0.2551	1.6689	0.6474	-0.0526	-0.0827	1.7091	0.7017	0.2381	-1.1220	0.4401	
<i>dummy9</i>	NA	-4.3389	-11.5740	-3.5932	-5.5870	-3.7207	-5.7377	1.8784	-13.4477	-0.8103	-3.6757	
	NA	-1.1450	-1.0179	-1.5632	-1.6163	-1.9054	-2.2450	0.1166	-0.8742	-1.1389	-1.4127	
<i>dummy10</i>	NA	-3.4849	-5.6155	0.8809	-2.4439	3.1631	-6.7010	-2.0506	-1.5634	8.7596	-10.0466	
	NA	-1.3214	-2.8479	0.1953	-1.3748	0.4603	-1.8341	-1.5989	-1.3137	1.5921	-0.5576	
<i>devrf</i>	NA	9.4726	17.6410	-15.6401	-0.7939	0.4803	-21.2854	5.8822	9.9136	0.2484	-4.0246	
	NA	0.8069	2.2828	-1.0121	-0.0835	0.0497	-1.8936	0.7460	0.9655	0.0381	-0.3303	
R-squared	NA	0.0206	0.0577	0.0210	0.0309	0.0273	0.0580	0.0223	0.0228	0.0727	0.0155	
PanelB: 20 percentage												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	5.9088	2.1061	1.7466	2.5192	1.0090	0.1020	6.9579	0.0797	0.4091	0.9266	0.8469	
	1.5751	0.6538	1.0757	0.9278	0.6254	0.0719	2.8858	0.0394	0.1818	2.1227	0.4254	
<i>dummy11</i>	-7.4174	-4.9153	0.6097	-2.2177	-6.2104	-1.3859	-10.5154	-5.7517	-0.4291	-0.9271	-2.7498	
	-2.0653	-1.9538	0.1051	-2.2789	-1.3425	-0.9126	-2.8155	-1.0229	-0.0518	-1.8635	-1.6089	
<i>dummy12</i>	-8.3204	-1.3271	-3.0937	-7.3927	-0.8799	3.8774	-4.7101	-1.8441	-1.5949	21.7736	-8.2620	
	-1.6383	-0.6684	-2.0846	-1.5670	-0.7030	1.1774	-1.8274	-2.0241	-1.7057	5.3524	-0.5267	
<i>devrf</i>	-26.9265	-12.9093	13.0414	-47.3004	-10.9231	2.4777	-64.2020	15.8800	14.1350	-16.3172	-6.6842	
	-1.5018	-0.7302	1.5971	-2.2087	-0.6854	0.2595	-3.0409	1.4883	1.5469	-2.3406	-0.5458	
R-squared	0.0528	0.0344	0.0346	0.0375	0.0241	0.0171	0.0798	0.0320	0.0258	0.2328	0.0191	

Table 16: Regime test on extreme volatility of the generalized factor

PanelA: 10 percentage												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	-1.1368	2.7550	0.4524	-0.9975	0.7786	-0.4498	0.5389	0.4147	-0.8823	-0.7986	-0.5195	
	-0.8021	0.8493	0.3122	-0.6599	0.5245	-0.3685	0.6018	0.1833	-0.4050	-2.8111	-0.3027	
meanrf	-1.8935	-3.9365	-0.5235	-0.3063	-1.5134	0.0230	-0.9596	0.0893	0.0376	-0.7361	-2.4777	
	-1.1074	-2.1005	-0.4331	-0.3359	-1.4165	0.0223	-0.7521	0.1056	0.0384	-1.7693	-1.2141	
<i>dummy</i> 13	-4.7944	75.9970	13.3043	32.1518	24.6765	30.8098	-50.9594	-42.4241	-38.3197	-7.7414	-15.3417	
	-0.2122	1.2678	1.7923	0.6534	0.6574	1.7308	-1.5052	-0.9001	-0.9912	0.6964	-0.3641	
<i>dummy</i> 14	-1.6901	-21.9839	37.9432	-12.9214	0.2281	-6.3092	-5.0226	7.0195	-22.7139	-7.3799	-20.1089	
	-0.0996	-1.1051	2.7026	-0.8845	0.0130	-0.3957	-0.5766	0.4664	-1.1858	-0.5525	-1.1557	
R-squared	0.0073	0.0252	0.0512	0.0135	0.0120	0.0352	0.0281	0.0120	0.0072	0.0644	0.0166	
PanelB: 20 percentage												
Variables	Australia	Canada	Japan	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	UK	
x	-1.0605	0.6547	1.5976	0.3609	0.6413	-0.4451	2.2770	0.8975	-0.8530	-0.9394	0.7979	
	-0.5802	0.1993	0.9406	0.2146	0.4331	-0.3452	2.1357	0.4438	-0.3621	-2.7658	0.4489	
meanrf	-2.0067	-4.0202	0.1343	0.4589	-3.6957	0.1794	-4.1842	0.1564	-0.3257	-0.9353	-5.5258	
	-1.1086	-2.3114	0.1071	0.4237	-2.0284	0.1234	-2.4194	0.1145	-0.3554	-1.9173	-2.5825	
<i>dummy</i> 15	4.2211	99.1458	11.2301	66.2676	64.9311	21.2126	-28.1864	-23.2219	-3.7087	-7.0810	-76.1099	
	0.2381	1.8957	1.5391	1.3526	1.5772	1.0638	-1.1237	-0.4828	-0.1671	0.8618	2.1550	
<i>dummy</i> 16	-3.3847	-12.5593	23.9087	-17.6928	-9.5950	-0.3249	-26.2867	8.8635	-22.9052	1.6980	-34.7429	
	-0.2350	-0.6717	2.0877	-1.6622	-0.6061	-0.0220	-2.7700	0.7381	-1.1922	0.1668	-1.9601	
R-squared	0.0082	0.0356	0.0263	0.0330	0.0249	0.0203	0.0734	0.0112	0.0012	0.0645	0.0431	