

Macroeconomic Uncertainty and Economic Performance for Germany

Hakan Berument

Department of Economics Bilkent University 06533 Bilkent Ankara Turkey;
e-mail: berument@bilkent.edu.tr

Received: February 10, 2005

Summary. This study finds that uncertainties in interest rates, commodity prices and money aggregate affect economic outcomes for Germany. Both interest rate and monetary policy uncertainty measures are positively correlated with interest rates, while commodity price uncertainty is negatively correlated with the output level. However, uncertainties in exchange rate, price and income do not have a statistically significant predictive power for income, prices or the interest rate.

Key words: Macroeconomic Uncertainty, Economic Performance and Multivariate GARCH-M Models.

1. Introduction

This study tests whether uncertainties in various macroeconomic aggregates, both financial and real variables, affect German economic performance for the period 1964:12 to 1989:12. Previous studies mostly concern whether inflation uncertainty has a negative effect on economic performance, although some studies do investigate the possible effect of uncertainty surrounding exchange rate, monetary policy, interest rate and foreign trade (both export and import) on economic performance. Even if this negative relationship between inflation uncertainty and economic performance is observed for some of the OECD countries, this negative relationship is not observed for Germany (see Froyen and Waud, 1987; Sauer and Bohara, 1995). This study tests whether other macroeconomic uncertainty variables beside inflation uncertainty have an explanatory power for the economic performance. This study, first, combines all these different macroeconomic aggregate uncertainties in a single study, and second, tests whether controlling for certain aggregates affects the nature of these correlations

between various uncertainty measures and economic outcomes. This is important because assuming only the uncertainty surrounding inflation but not other aggregates like interest rates, exchange rates and money demand matters might be a too restrictive assumption, one that could lead to a misspecified model. Furthermore, various uncertainties might be proxying another variable, such as inflation uncertainty proxying inflation. Controlling this variable may show that a particular uncertainty variable does not have statistically significant explanatory power.

One risk variable that economists follow is inflation uncertainty. They observe the effect of inflation uncertainty on output and on inflation itself. Okun (1971), for example, observed a positive association between inflation and inflation uncertainty. He suggests that when the inflation level is low, the public knows that the government prefers to keep inflation at low levels; however, if inflation is high, then the public does not know whether the government is willing to bear the cost of recession to decrease the level of inflation. (On the similar positive relationship between inflation and the measure of inflation uncertainty, see Jansen, 1989; Ball and Cecchetti, 1990; Evans, 1991; Evans and Wachtell, 1992; Holland, 1993.)

Literature is not clear about the effect of inflation uncertainty on output. Marshall (1886), Okun (1971) and Friedman (1977) argue that uncertainty about future prices does negatively affect output. Friedman (1977) notes that uncertainty about future prices can have real effects because, first, the need for new and costlier contractual arrangements will increase transaction costs, and second, the effect of volatility of relative prices increases information costs. On the other hand, Cukierman and Meltzer (1986) claim that greater uncertainty about money growth and inflation makes it easier for the government to create unanticipated inflation to increase not only output but also the inflation rate. Hence, Cukierman and Meltzer suggest that there is a positive relationship between inflation uncertainty and output.

Empirical evidence on the relationship between inflation uncertainty and output is not well established. Both Froyen and Waud (1987) and Sauer and Bohara (1995) find mixed results for different countries. Furthermore, Huizinga (1993), Jansen (1989) and Shen (1991) cannot find statistically significant evidence that uncertainty about future inflation decreases the output level for the U.S. Jansen explains this weak evidence by noting that the inflation rate may be highly predictable, thus observing the inflation uncertainty is difficult. However, Coulson and Robins (1985) find that the conditional inflation variance decreases unemployment and increases output level. Hafer (1986) and Mullineaux (1980) also find that inflation uncertainty is positively correlated with unemployment. Overall, the empirical evidence is mixed for the possible negative relationship between the inflation risk and output.

Some other studies have also examined the effects of uncertainty factors other than inflation uncertainty. Table 1 summarizes some of these studies. The

first column lists the study, the second column indicates the uncertainty variable, the third column shows the variable affected by the uncertainty variable, and the last column indicates how the macroeconomic aggregate in the third column is affected by the uncertainty variable in the second column. Overall, the table suggests that all the economic uncertainty variables negatively affect the economic activity.

Study	Uncertainty Variable	Level Variable	Direction
Kormendi and Meguire (1985)	Money	Growth	Negative
Conway (1988)	Real Interest Rate	Investment	Negative
Lopez (1989)	Real Exchange Rate	Investment and Real income	Negative
Glezakos (1973), Voivodas (1974), and Ocler and Harrihan (1988)	Export	Growth	Negative
Helleiner (1986)	Import	Growth	Negative
Caballero and Cobra (1988), and Celasun and Rodrik (1989)	Exchange Rate	Export	Negative
Devarajan and de Mello (1987)	Currency	Growth	Negative
Huizinga (1993)	Real Wage	Investment	Negative
Aizenman and Marion (1993)	Government Consumption and Taxes	Private Investment	Negative

Table 1 Studies of Relationship Between Various Uncertainty Variables and Economic Activity

Various methods can be used to measure uncertainty. These are sample variance of the crosssection of the data set, a sample variance of survey data for each time period, moving average variances and conditional variance. This study uses conditional variances to measure uncertainty. Here, conditional variance is the prediction, one month in advance, of the price level. Using the conditional variances allows us first, to measure uncertainty as a time-dependent variable and second, to measure uncertainties for the future value of the inflation rate.

On the other measures of uncertainty measures, Okun (1971) uses sample variance to measure inflation uncertainty by using a particular time interval for each observation. Mullineaux (1980), however, measures the inflation uncertainty by using standard errors of the survey data that this generated by asking questions to the specialists for each time period. Katsimbris (1985) allows the mean and variance of inflation to change over time by using moving averages. These measures may, however, fail to capture time dependent inflation uncertainty for the future. Okun's method fails to deliver a time-dependent uncertainty measure. Even if using survey data or moving averages gives time dependent uncertainty measures, these methods may not measure the uncertainty for the

future value of a variable. Survey data measures uncertainty by observing the difference between point estimates of individual specialists, where uncertainty effect is already incorporated into the specialists' forecast. Hence if every specialist is uncertain about inflation and has a similar forecast, this method may still indicate that inflation uncertainty is low. The moving average method uses the unpredicted part of a current value to measure uncertainty about the future value. In sum, these methods may not necessarily measure uncertainty about the future value of a particular variable (see Jansen, 1989, for details). The conditional variability of various macroeconomic aggregates is also be used as a measure of uncertainty (see, Jansen, 1989, for a summary of these studies). This method employs all information available to forecast the time-dependent variance of a variable that can be used as a measure of uncertainty.

In sum, to avoid the problems introduced by sample variance of cross section-time series data, survey data and moving average- variance methods, this study uses conditional variances as a measure of uncertainty. In order to allow for the possibility that not only the inflation uncertainty but also other types of Juncertainties matter, we use a more general form of conditional variability, the Multivariate Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedastic, models (MGARCH) to measure uncertainty. We will allow the uncertainty measure to affect the level of the predicted future path of the series; this set of models is called MGARCH in Means models (MGARCH-M). The following section discusses the methodology of MGARCH-M modeling. Section three introduces the data. The empirical evidence is presented in section four. The last section offers conclusions.

2. Econometric Methodology

Assume a relationship between certain macroeconomic variables and the measures of uncertainty for these variables. Let z_t be a $N \times 1$ vector for the macroeconomic variables and H_t be a $N \times N$ vector as a measure of uncertainties. Here the diagonal elements of H_t measure the uncertainty of each variable and the off-diagonal elements measure the correlations among these variables. Furthermore, ε_t is the $N \times 1$ matrix of error terms at time t . The error term shows the unexplained part of the vector z_t by the systematic part of the economic variables. This relationship can be, represented in the form of (1) where A 's and G are $N \times N$ matrices of estimated coefficients. Here the coefficients of the matrix G are our concern. G measures whether any of these uncertainty factors has predictive power for the macroeconomic aggregates:

$$(1) \quad z_t = A_0 + \sum_{i=1}^p A_{t-i} z_{t-i} + GH_t + \varepsilon_t$$

Importantly, here H_t is both a measure of uncertainty and the time-dependent conditional variance-covariance matrix of ε_t . Here it is assumed that the agents'

forecast for the $E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t')$ by using all available information (that is, z_{t-1}, z_{t-2}, \dots) equals its conditional expectation.

$$(2) \quad H_t = E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t' / z_{t-1}, z_{t-2}, \dots)$$

Engle and Kroner (1993) suggested modeling vector generalization of H_t as a $MGARCH(q, w)$ where

$$(3) \quad H_t = \Delta_0 + \Delta_1 H_{t-1} \Delta_1' + \Delta_2 H_{t-2} \Delta_2' + \dots + \Delta_q H_{t-q} \Delta_q' \\ + D_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-1}' D_1' + D_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} \varepsilon_{t-2}' D_2' + \dots + D_w \varepsilon_{t-w} \varepsilon_{t-w}' D_w'$$

Here Δ_0, Δ_s and D_s for $s = 1, 2, \dots$ denote $(N \times N)$ parameter matrices. This modeling technique generates H_t as a positive definite matrix if Δ_0 is a positive definite matrix.

For a relative large N , it is necessary to restrict the $MGARCH(q, w)$ specification to decrease the number of parameters to be estimated. One such restriction is to assume both Δ_s and D_s to be diagonal matrices for $s = 1, 2, \dots$. In such a specification, the conditional covariance between $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ and $\varepsilon_{j,t}$ depends on the past values of $\varepsilon_{i,t-s}$ and $\varepsilon_{j,t-s}$, not the products or squares of other residuals

Bollerslev (1990) also assumes that the conditional correlations among the elements of ε_t are constant over time, and the conditional variances are modeled where $h_{i,t} = E(\varepsilon_{it}^2 / z_{t-1}, z_{t-2}, \dots)$. Hence, the conditional variance could be modeled as a univariate Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedastic ($GARCH$) models for each equation where the process is modeled by its squared lag innovations and lag conditional variances with constant covariances among N variables. Here, $GARCH(1,1)$ specification can be written for N equations as

$$(4) \quad h_{i,t} = \delta_{0i} + \delta_{1i} h_{i,t-1} + \delta_{2i} \varepsilon_{i,t-1}^2 \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

Hence, the number of parameters to be estimated decrease considerably. The estimation method of the model is already worked out by Engle, Ito and Lin (1990), and the modeling methodology this paper uses will be discussed in the following sections.

3. Data

We first estimate a Vector Autoregressive- (VAR) type macroeconomic model which includes six variables such that these six variables incorporate both Keynesian-Monetarist and Real Business Cycles features. Then the second moments of the residuals are modeled as a GARCH process individually and are then incorporated into the VAR process as a weakly exogenous variable. At the second stage, (1) and (4) are estimated jointly.

The six macroeconomic variables we include in the unconstrained VAR model are the same as those in Sims's (1992) paper. These variables are call rate as interest rate, Deutsche marks per SDR as exchange rate, world export commodity price index as the commodity price index, $M1$ as money aggregate, CPI as prices, and industrial production as income. All the data is obtained from International Monetary Fund-International Financial Statistics, and each variable is seasonally adjusted. The data set includes monthly observations from 1964:12 to 1989:12 for Germany; the sample is ended at 1989:12 to avoid distortion from the effect of unification.

The advantage of including this set of variables is that it includes both the standard $IS - LM$ and Real Business Cycles features. The standard assumption of the $IS - LM$ framework is that money aggregate or unexpected change in money aggregate affects the output. In a multivariate time series model, including nominal interest rates makes the effect of monetary policy smaller. Hence, we include both money aggregate and interest rate in the multivariate setting to explain the behavior of income. For the Real Business Cycle- (RBC) style models, monetary policy has little real effect.

Empirical evidence also suggests that price levels moves counter cyclically to disturbances of all kinds. In the Sims (1992) specification, RBC models do not directly compete with the $IS - LM$ interpretations that can rationalize the behavior of interest rates, money, income and prices. We also include two other variables, the exchange rate (to account for the effect of the foreign sector) and commodity prices (to resolve the price puzzle).¹

We first examine whether there is a unit root in these series. Table 2 reports the Augmented Dickey-Fuller unit root tests for these six series. τ_t tests the unit root of levels of variables with a constant and a time trend. τ_μ tests the unit roots using the first difference of the variables. All the variables except the interest rates are in their logarithmic forms. The table suggests that for all the variables but the interest rates, we cannot reject the null hypothesis of unit roots at the 5% level. However, for all of the series, when their first difference is taken, the null hypothesis of the unit root at the 5% level can be rejected.² suggests that all the variables except the interest rate are nonstationary. Unless there is a linear combination of these five variables such that this linear combination is stationary, the multivariate analysis upon these nonstationary variables cannot be performed. In other words, these five series must be cointegrated.

We next examine the existence of cointegrating relationships among these five nonstationary variables. If there is a cointegrating relationship among them, then there is at least one stationary relationship among them as well, and these five nonstationary variables and the interest rates can be used at their levels

¹Omitting the commodity prices could indicate that tight monetary policy leads to high prices see Christiano, Eichenbaum and Evans (1996).

²We also tested the unit root of these series at their levels with a constant; the results are similar to those for the unit root of these series with a constant and a time trend.

for multivariate analyses. Table 3 reports Johansen's cointegration tests for the five nonstationary series.

Variables	τ_1	τ_2
Interest Rates	-3.65*	-3.50*
Exchange Rate	-2.08	-8.78*
Money	-1.85	-7.33*
Commodity Prices	-1.77	-6.03*
Prices	-0.11	-5.51*
Industrial Production	-2.36	-5.89*

^a *Significant at the 5% level.

Table 2 Augmented Dickey-Fuller Tests^a

Panel A reports the Maximum Eigenvalue tests and Panel B reports the Trace tests. The first column of each panel reports the λ statistics, while the second and third columns specify the null and alternative hypotheses, respectively. The fourth columns of each panel report the critical values for the λ statistics at the 90% level from Johansen and Juselius (1990, Table 2). Both statistics reported in Table 3 suggest that there are three independent cointegrated vectors at the 10% level of significance; stationary relationships exist among these five nonstationary macroeconomic variables. Hence, (1) and (4) can be estimated jointly to observe the effects of uncertainty measures on these six macroeconomic variables when the levels of the series are used.

Panel A: Maximum Eigenvalue Tests				Panel B: Trace Tests			
λ_{\max}	Null	Alternative	$\lambda_{\max,90}$	λ_{trace}	Null	Alternative	$\lambda_{trace,90}$
40.72*	r=0	r=1	20.90	85.67*	r=0	r \geq 1	67.74
20.19*	r=1	r=2	17.15	44.96*	r \leq 1	r \geq 2	43.84
16.94*	r=2	r=3	13.39	24.77*	r \leq 2	r \geq 3	26.70
6.46	r=3	r=4	10.60	7.83	r \leq 3	r \geq 4	13.31
1.36	r=4	r=5	2.71	1.36	r \leq 4	r=5	2.71

^a *Significant at the 10% level.

Table 3 Johansen's Cointegration Tests^a

4. Empirical Evidence

This section discusses how the conditional variance of the six macroeconomic aggregates affects the variables at their levels. In order to observe the effects of conditional variances on their levels.

(1) and (4) are first specified and then estimated. Because Sims (1992) has already discussed the relationship among these six variables, the author will not cover that aspect here, but the author refer interested readers to his research for more details.

In order to specify the model, we first determine the lag structure of the VAR system. We used the Bayesian Information Criteria that suggest the order of the VAR process, which is one. We could also have used the Final Prediction Error Criteria to determine different lag structures for each equation within the VAR system, but we avoided these criteria to preserve the symmetry of the system. Second, we modeled the variances of the residual terms for each single equation in the VAR system as a *GARCH*(1,1) process. Here we model the conditional variances as a function of the unexpected movement of each variable from (1) and the lag value of the conditional variance itself. The model also incorporates the conditional variance of the residuals, which could affect the variable itself. Incorporation of the conditional variances to the VAR process allows us to see how the measure of the uncertainties for each variable influences other variables. To avoid overparameterizing the model, we also assumed that the covariance between each residual is constant. Finally, the two sets of (1) and (4) are estimated jointly to test the basic hypotheses of the paper.³

Table 4 presents the empirical evidence for (1) and (4), where only the effects of the various uncertainty variables on the variable itself are reported. The table reports the estimated coefficients as well as the p-values. The p-values are the marginal significance levels of particular variable uncertainty factors on levels.

Before starting to interpret the estimates, we should state that to save space we will discuss only the statistically significant coefficients.⁴ Interest rate uncertainty and money demand uncertainty both positively correlate with interest rates. Interest rate uncertainty may discourage agents from holding currency. Therefore, money demand or loanable funds decrease. Hence, interest rate: increase. Note also that there is a negative and statistically significant correlation that will be discussed below between interest rate uncertainty and money demand. This result is consistent with the hypothesis that risk-averse agents like to avoid risky assets; greater uncertainty about money demand discourages agents from holding money, and this may further decrease the interest rates.

Exchange rate is influenced by interest and exchange rate uncertainties. Interest rate uncertainty decreases, while exchange rate uncertainty increases, the exchange rate. Note that the exchange rate is the foreign exchange value of domestic currency. An increase in the exchange rate indicates the appreciation of domestic currency. Again, for risk-averse agents, as the interest rate uncertainty increases, holding domestic currency becomes riskier, demand for foreign currency increases and/or demand for domestic currency decreases and the domestic currency depreciates.

³After specifying the MGARCH-M process with its first lags, we also included additional lags. However, the Bayesian Information Criteria still indicated that additional lags are not needed.

⁴The level of significance is 10% unless otherwise noted. Abbreviations.

Effect of Uncertainty Variable	On Levels	Estimated Coefficients	p-values
Interest Rate	Interest Rate	0.1736	0.0000**
Exchange Rate	Interest Rate	5.9057	0.3490
Commodity Prices	Interest Rate	-2.7156	0.1435
Money	Interest Rate	20.9584	0.0297**
Prices	Interest Rate	-41.8722	0.3227
Income	Interest Rate	-9.2580	0.6916
Interest Rate	Exchange Rate	-0.0433	0.0263**
Exchange Rate	Exchange Rate	1.3569	0.0022**
Commodity Prices	Exchange Rate	0.3118	0.1677
Money	Exchange Rate	-0.6891	0.3082
Prices	Exchange Rate	-3.2462	0.1578
Income	Exchange Rate	-0.8124	0.5421
Interest Rate	Money	-0.0224	0.0034**
Exchange Rate	Money	-0.0621	0.7673
Commodity Prices	Money	0.1536	0.0620*
Money	Money	-0.2762	0.3295
Prices	Money	0.7981	0.3848
Income	Money	0.2519	0.5866
Interest Rate	Commodity Prices	0.1123	0.0001**
Exchange Rate	Commodity Prices	-0.5581	0.5411
Commodity Prices	Commodity Prices	-1.0774	0.0017**
Money	Commodity Prices	0.3464	0.5728
Prices	Commodity Prices	-0.8212	0.8195
Income	Commodity Prices	-1.9245	0.3105
Interest Rate	Prices	0.0037	0.0146**
Exchange Rate	Prices	-0.0771	0.2804
Commodity Prices	Prices	-0.0512	0.0347**
Money	Prices	-0.0400	0.6506
Prices	Prices	-0.4702	0.1088
Income	Prices	-0.0593	0.5852
Interest Rate	Income	0.0090	0.4161
Exchange Rate	Income	0.2487	0.2257
Commodity Prices	Income	-0.1591	0.0837*
Money	Income	0.1483	0.6451
Prices	Income	-1.4593	0.2231
Income	Income	-0.5702	0.1825
^a ** Significant at the 5% level.			
^a * Significant at the 10% level.			

Table 4 Effects of Various Economic Uncertainties on Macroeconomic Variables for Germany^a

Similarly, as foreign currency becomes risky, as indicated by higher uncertainty in foreign exchange, then demand for foreign currency decreases and/or demand

for domestic currency increases. Domestic interest rate then increase as the demand for domestic currency increases.

Money demand decreases with higher levels of interest rate uncertainty and increases with commodity price uncertainty. The reason for this type of relationship could be that higher interest rate uncertainty discourages agents from holding money and agents try to hold alternative assets. However, the risk of higher commodity prices increases the money demand possible because of the precautionary demand for money. Here, it is interesting to note that even if both the consumer price index uncertainty and commodity prices uncertainty are positively associated with money demand, the commodity price index, not the consumer price index, explains the behavior of the money demand in a statistically significant fashion.

Commodity prices are positively affected by interest rate risk and are negatively affected by their own risk. The positive effect of interest rate risk on commodity prices may suggest that higher interest-rate risk discourages firms from producing primary products, and this relationship may increase commodity prices. The negative effect of commodity prices uncertainty on the commodity prices is admittedly puzzling. However, this result may mean that commodity price risk increases the import demand so that commodity prices decrease.

Prices are positively associated with interest rate uncertainty and negatively associated with commodity price risk. This relationship can be explained as first, the interest rate uncertainty increasing aggregate consumption, a result consistent with the lower money demand, and second higher aggregate demand increasing the price level. Interest rate uncertainty also increases income; however, the evidence is not statistically significant. Lastly, commodity price uncertainty decrease: prices and income, possibly because of higher imports or because the risk premium decreases the aggregate demand.

Note that the estimated coefficient on the effect inflation uncertainty has on output is negative as Friedman and others suggest. However, the estimated coefficients for the income equation on all the uncertainty measures except the commodity price uncertainty measure are not statistically significant. Two explanations may exist for the insignificant coefficients for these uncertainty measures. First, the interest rate is the transmission mechanism such that higher money demand and interest rate uncertainties decrease the economic performance due to higher interest rates. Next both money aggregate and interest rate are more readily available for corresponding month than price levels. German agents may prefer not to monitor the monthly price uncertainty for the current month, but their decisions were mostly influenced by the monetary aggregate or interest rate uncertainty measure, *ceteris paribus*

5. Conclusian

This study uses a Multivariate GARCH-M model to see how the various macroeconomic variable uncertainties affect the macroeconomic outeomes for Germany for the monthly sample from 1964:1: to 1989:12. We tested whether uncertainty surrounding interest rate, exchange rate, commodity prices, money demand, prices and income affect their own levels. We chose Germany as the country for which to observe these uncertainty effects because earlier studies could not find that inflation uncertainty had affected the economic performance of this country. However, uncertainty surrounding other variables beside inflation could affect economic performance. Like other studies, this study could not find supporting evidence for the hypothesis that inflation uncertainty affects the output This paper did find, though, that money and interest rate uncertainties affect the interest rate positively, and commodity price uncertainty decrea.ses income. Hence, uncertainty beside inflation could have an effect on economic performance. that earlier univariate studies could not perceive.

References

1. Aizenman, J. and Nancy P. M. (1993): Policy Uncertainty, Persistence and Growth, *Review of International Economics*, 1:2, 1993, 145-163.
2. Ball, L. and Stephen C. (1990): Inflation and Uncertainty at Short and Long Run Horizons, *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, 1990, 215-54.
3. Bollerslev T. (1990): Modeling the Coherence in Short-Run Nominal Exchange Rates: A Multivariate Generalized ARCH model, *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 72, 498-505.
4. Caballero, Richardo J. and Vittorio Cobra, "Real Exchange Rate Uncertainty and Exports: MultiCountry Empirical Evidence" World Bank mimeo, 1988.
5. Celasun M. and Dani R. (1989): Debt, Adjustment, and Growth: Turkey, in Susan Collins and Jeffrey Sachs, eds., *Developing Country Debt and Economic Performance*, vol. 3, The University of Chicago Press, IL.
6. Christiano L. and Martin J. (1996): Eichenbaum and Charles Evans, The Effects of Monetary Policy Shocks: Evidence from the Flow of Funds, *Review of Economics and Statistics*, May, 16-34.
7. Conwav, P. (1988): The Impact of Uncertainty on Private Investment in Turkey Department of Economics, University of North Carolina, 1988.
8. Coulson N. E. and Russell P. R. (1985): Aggregate Economic activity and the Variance of Inflation: Another look *Economic Letter*, January, 71-75.
9. Cukierman, A. and Meltzer A. (1986): A Theory of Ambiguity, Credibility, and Inflation Under Discretion and Asymmetric Information *Econometrica* 54 September, 1099-1128.
10. Devarajan S. and De Melo J. (1987): Evaluating Participation in African Monetary Unions A Statistical Analysis of the CFA Zones *World Development*, April, 483-496.

11. Engle R., Ito T. and Lin W. L. (1990): Meteor Showers or Heat Waves Heteroscedastic Intra-Daily Volatility in the Foreign Exchange Market *Econometrica* 58(3), 525-42.
12. Engle R. and Kenneth F. K. (1993): Multivariate Simultaneous Generalized ARCH UC SI Mimeo.
13. Evans M. (1991): Discovering the Link Between Inflation Rates and Inflation Uncertainty, *Journal of Money Credit and Banking*, May, 169-184.
14. Evans M. and Wachtel P. (1993): Inflation Regimes and the Source of Inflation Uncertainty, *Journal of Money Credit and Banking*, August, Part 2, 475-511.
15. Friedman M. (1977): Nobel Lecture: Inflation Uncertainty and Unemployment, *Journal of Politicc Economy*, 45-72.
16. Froyen R. and Waud R. (1987): An Examination of Aggregate Price Uncertainty in Four Countries and Some Implications for Real Output, *International Economic Review* 28:2, June, 353-372.
17. Glezakos C. (1973): Export Instability of Economic Growth: A Statistical Verification, *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 21, 670-678.
18. Hafer, R.W. (1986): Inflation Uncertainty and a Test of the Friedman Hypothesis, *Journal of macroeconomics*, 365-72.
19. Holland S. (1993): Uncertainty Effects of Money and the Link Between the Inflation Rate and Inflation Uncertainty, *Economic Inquiry*, 31, January, 39-51.
20. Huizinga J. (1993): Inflation Uncertainty, Relative Price Uncertainty, and Investment in U.S. Manufacturing, *Journal of Money Credit and Banking*, August, 521-549.
21. Jansen D. (1989): Does Inflation Uncertainty Affect Output Growth Further Evidence, *Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis Review*, July / August, 43-54.
22. Johansen S and Juselius K. (1990): The full information maximum likelihood procedure for inference on cointegration-with applications to the demand for money, *Oxford Bulletin of Economics an Statistics*, 52, 1990, 169-210.
23. Katsimbris, G. M. (1985): The Relationship between the Inflation Rate, Its Variability, and Output growth Variability: Disaggregated International Evidence, *Journal of Money Credit and Banking* May, 179-88.
24. Kormendi, R. C. and Merguire P. C. (1985): Macroeconomic Determinants of Growth: Cross Country Evidence, *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 16, 141- 163.
25. Lopez R. (1989): Economic Growth, Capital Accumulation and Trade Policy in LDCs, World Bank Washington DC.
26. Marshall A. (1926): Answers to Questions on the Subject of Currency and Prices Circulated by the Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade and Industry, *Official Papers of Alfred Marshall* Macmillan, London.
27. Mullinaux D. (1980): Unemployment, industrial production and inflation uncertainty in the United States, *Review of Economics and Statistics*, May, 163-69.
28. Okun, A. (1971): The Mirage of Steady Inflation, *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, 4898.

29. Ozer, S. and Harrihan J. (1988): Export Stability and Growth, Department of Economics, UCLA Working Paper 486.
30. Sauer C. and Bohara A. K. (1995): Monetary Policy and Inflation Uncertainty in the United States and Germany, *Southern Economic Journal*, 62(1), July, 139-163.
31. Shen C. H. (1991): Asymmetric Effect of Inflation Uncertainty on Output, mimeo.

32. Sims C. (1992): Interpreting the Macroeconomic Time Series Facts, *European Economic Review* 36, 975-1011.
33. Voivodas D. (1974): The Effect of Foreign Exchange Instability on Growth, *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 56, 410-412.

MGARCH: Multivariate Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedastic models.

MGARCH-M: Multivariate Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedastic in Mean models.

GARCH: Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedastic models.

VAR: Vector Autoregressive models.

RRC: Real Business Cycle models.