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An Analysis of Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector in Gross Domestic Savings and Thus Gross Capital Formation of India

By K. Anandakumar & P. Glorinthal

Velammal Institute of Technology - Affiliated to Anna University, India

Abstract- It is an unquestionable fact that gross domestic saving is one of the most contributing factors of economic growth of a nation. It plays concrete role in fostering investment, production, employment and eventually the economic growth. The present paper endeavors to analyze and exemplifies the contributions of household sector, private corporate sector and public sector in Gross Domestic Savings (GDS) and thus Gross Capital Formation (GCF) of India. The study is based on secondary data from 2000-2013. The statistical tools like Percentage, ANOVA, Correlation and Regression analysis are used for data analysis. The analysis divulges that the maximum contribution to GDS and GCF is made by household sector followed by private corporate sector and then public sector.

Keywords: gross domestic savings, gross capital formation, household sector, private corporate sector, public sector.

GJMBR - B Classification : JEL Code : A10

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An Analysis of Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector in Gross Domestic Savings and Thus Gross Capital Formation of India

K. Anandakumar^a & P. Glorinthal^a

Abstract- It is an unquestionable fact that gross domestic saving is one of the most contributing factors of economic growth of a nation. It plays concrete role in fostering investment, production, employment and eventually the economic growth. The present paper endeavors to analyze and exemplifies the contributions of household sector, private corporate sector and public sector in Gross Domestic Savings (GDS) and thus Gross Capital Formation (GCF) of India. The study is based on secondary data from 2000-2013. The statistical tools like Percentage, ANOVA, Correlation and Recression analysis are used for data analysis. The analysis divulges that the maximum contribution to GDS and GCF is made by household sector followed by private corporate sector and then public sector.

Keywords: gross domestic savings, gross capital formation, household sector, private corporate sector, public sector.

Gross Domestic Savings = Gross Domestic Product – Final Consumption Expenditure.

The money thus saved is either held in reserve with public or is ploughing back for further investments which are known as Capital Formation. Capital Formation is one of the driving forces for the holistic economic development and insufficient or lack of capital formation in the economy may usher to under development of the economy. There are three important segments contributing to gross domestic savings and capital formation viz. household sector, private corporate sector and public sector. Considering the importance of domestic savings in capital formation and thus economic growth, this paper attempts to analyze and exemplify the contributions made by household sector, private corporate sector and public sector in gross domestic savings and thus the capital formation.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY П.

The focal objective of the study is to analyze the contribution of private sector in terms of private corporate and household sector and public sector in

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INTRODUCTION I.

nvestment made by the government is the momentous factor for enhancing and sustaining economic prosperity. In order to finance investment required, a nation suppose to generate ample domestic savings or it has to scrounge abroad and / or develops FDI. According to Solow and Harrod Domar Growth Model, saving is a crucial factor for the economic growth of any nation, since it generates opportunities for investment which in turn boost up production and stimulates employment. Domestic savings aid in sustaining high growth rates through its impact on investment and also perform as a channel for magnetizing FDI whereas the over dependence on peripheral financing may erode competitiveness through an overvalued currency, providing additional motives for wanting to stimulate domestic saving.

gross domestic savings and thus the capital formation of India.

• The other objectives are

To explore the flow of savings of each sector to the Gross Domestic Savings in order to ascertain the dominant contributing sector.

- To throw light on sectors having more contribution \checkmark towards the capital formation.
- То measure the strength and statistical significance of each sector's contribution as predictors of GDS and GCF.
- To rank the sectors based upon the highest ✓ contribution in terms of gross domestic savings and gross capital formation.

NATURE OF THE STUDY III.

The present study is of analytical nature and makes use of secondary data. The relevant secondary data has been collected from reports of Union Budget of India 2014 and the following economic survey 2013-2014, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Department of Industrial Promotion and Policy, Government of India, Centre for Monitoring Indian 2015

Year

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Economy, Reserve Bank of India, World Investment Report and World Bank national accounts data.

IV. Review of Literature

Khan and Reinhart (1990) in their empirical study titled "Private investment and economic growth in developing countries" formulated a simple growth model that separates the effect of private sector and public sector and supported the notion that private investment has a larger direct effect on growth than does public investment.

The empirical studies conducted by Hadji Michael (1996), Ben- David (1998), Hernandez-Cata (2000), Ndikumana (2000) in Africa, Asia and Latin America have established that there exists critical linkage between capital formation and the rate of growth. This exemplifies that capital formation is a key to economic growth.

Econometric evidence due to work done by Beddies 1999, Ghura and Hadji Michael 1996, Ghura 1997 indicates that private capital formation has a stronger, more favorable effect on growth rather than government capital formation probably because private capital formation is more efficient and less closely associated with corruption.

Mishra et al. (2010) studied the dynamic relationship between savings and investment in India for the period 1950-51 to 2008-09 by employing Johansen cointegration technique and Granger causality test via Vector Autoregressive framework. The authors found the presence of long run equilibrium relationship between saving and investment in India. The Granger causality test revealed directional causal relationship between the variables under study.

Inuwa Nasiru and Haruna M. Usman (2013) in their paper "The Relationship between Domestic Savings and Investment: The Feldstein-Horioka Test Using Nigerian Data" found that there is a long run relationship between savings and investment. The study used the reduced-form bi-variate model of Feldstein and Horioka (1980) to examine the long-run relationship between domestic saving and investment and measure the degree of international capital mobility.

Kanu, Success Ikechi & Ozurumba, Benedict Anayochukwu (2014) have employed multiple regression technique to study the impact of capital formation on the economic growth of Nigeria. It was ascertained that in the short run, gross fixed capital formation had no significant impact on economic growth; while in the long run; the VAR model estimate indicates that gross fixed capital formation, total exports and the lagged values of GDP had positive long run relationships with economic growth in Nigeria.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

a) Analysis of Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to Gross Domestic Savings and Gross Capital Formation

The following table shows the contributions of Household sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to Gross Domestic Savings and Gross Capital Formation from 2000 to 2013. It is clearly found that household sector contributes 73% to GDS and occupies the most dominant variable of GDS. The private corporate sector with its share of 22% to GDS holds second major contributor of GDS. Together, the private sector (Household + Private corporate) contributes 95% to GDS. It is then followed by public sector with a share of only 5%. Correspondingly, the household sector with its contributions of 68% occupies predominant position in total Gross Capital Formation and then followed by private corporate sector having 21% and public sector having only 5% and the rest 7% by other variables which are beyond the scope of this study.

Table No1 : Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to Gross Domestic Savings and Gross Capital Formation

Year	Household Sector (Rupees in Crores)	Private Corporate Sector (Rupees in Crores)	Public Sector (Rupees in Crores)	Total (Rupees in Crores)	Gross Capital Formation (Rupees in Crores)
2000-2001	463750	81062	-29266	515545	528299
2001-2002	545288	76906	-36820	585374	571146
2002-2003	564161	99217	-7148	656230	627743
2003-2004	657587	129816	36372	823775	762416
2004-2005	763685	212519	74499	1050703	1064041
2005-2006	868988	277208	88955	1235151	1279754
2006-2007	994396	338584	152929	1485909	1531433

An Analysis of Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector in Gross Domestic Savings and Thus Gross Capital Formation of India

2007-2008	1118347	469023	248962	1836332	1900762
2008-2009	1330873	417467	54280	1802620	1931380
2009-2010	1630799	540955	10585	2182338	2363132
2010-2011	1800174	620300	201268	2621742	2841457
2011-2012	2054737	658428	111295	2824459	3200633
2012-2013	2212414	713141	117919	3043474	3521399
TOTAL	15005199	4634626	1023830	20663652	22123595
% age contribution to GDS	73	22	5	100	
% age contribution to GCF	68	21	5	93 (Others = 7%)	



Figure No 1 : Sector wise Contribution to GDS & GCF

The above figure illustrates that household sector occupies the first rank in contributions towards GDS and GCF followed by private corporate sector and public sector

Table No	2: Correlation	Analysis

SECTOR	Gross Domestic Savings			Gross Capital Formation			
	R	R ²	P Value	R	R ²	P Value	
Household Sector	0.991	0.982	0.000	0.995	0.989	0.000	
Private Corporate Sector	0.996	0.991	0.000	0.991	0.981	0.000	
Public Sector	0.605	0.366	0.029	0.573	0.328	0.041	

The value R determines the strength of relationship. The value of R between household sector and GDS is 0.991 which signifies more strong relationship between them and the relation is significant since the P value 0.000 is less than 0.05. Similarly, the R value between Private Corporate sector and GDS is

0.996 which symbolizes the intense relationship between them and the relation is significant (P value = 0.000 < 0.05). Correspondingly, the value of R between Public sector and GDS is 0.605 which denotes modest relationship between them and the relation is significant (P Value=0.029 < 0.05). The

b) Analysis of Relationship between Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to Gross Domestic Savings

Table 2 reveals the strength of relationship between contributions of sectors to GDS and Capital Formation of a country.

analysis of three different values of R strongly reveals that the contribution made by Public Sector is not competent in comparison with other two sectors.

In the same way, the values of R between different sectors and GCF indicate the degree of relationship between them. The scrutiny of different R discloses that public sector has less contribution to Gross capital Formation.

c) Hypothesis Testing

Ho: The average contributions made by household sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to GDS and GCF are equal.

H1: The average contributions made by household sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to GDS and GCF are not equal.

Table No 3 : ANOVA Table

Sectors	Mean	Standard Deviation	F value	P Value	Decision
Household Sector	1154246.08	599260.81	28.53	0.000	P value <0.05,
Private Corporate Sectors	356509.69	230453.11			\therefore H _o is Rejected
Public Sectors	78756.15	87390.121			

From the above ANOVA table, since the null hypothesis is rejected it is concluded that the average contributions made by household sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector are not equal. Based on Tukey's HSD test (Table No: 4), it is found that

the contributions made by household sector is varying from other two sectors. Comparing mean values in the table No: 3, it is found that household sector's contribution to GDS and GCF is more than other two sectors.

Table No 4 : Tukey's HSD Test to determine homogeneous subset Amount in Rupees

Sectors	N	Subset for alpha = 0.08	
		1	2
Public Sector	13	78756.15	
Private Corporate Sector	13	356509.7	
Household Sector	13		1154246.1
Sig.		0.155	1

d) Analysis of relationship between Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to Gross Capital Formation

A Multiple Regression Analysis is conducted to predict causal relationship among a dependent variable (Gross capital Formation) and independent variables such as contributions of household sector, private corporate sector and public sector.

The value R called as coefficient of correlation indicates a measure of the quality of the prediction of

the dependent variable (Gross Capital Formation). From the table 5, the value R = 0.999 which indicates a good level of prediction.

From the table 5, $R^2 = 0.998$ indicates that 99.8% of the variability of the dependent variable (Gross Capital Formation) is explained by the independent variables *(Contributions of Household Sector, Private Corporate Sector and Public Sector to Gross Capital Formation).*

Table No 5 : ANOVA Table - Test for Regression Model Fit

	ANOVA [▷]								
	Model	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	R	R ²	
1	Regression	1.267E13	3	4.223E12	1743.157	.000ª	.999 ^a	.998	
	Residual	2.180E10	9	2.423E9					
	Total	1.269E13	12						
a. F	Predictors: (Cons	tant), Public Sector's (Contribution , Household Se	ctor's Contribution,	Private Corpo	rate Sect	or's Contr	ibution	

b. Dependent Variable: Gross Capital Formation

The above ANOVA table exemplifies that the regression model is a good fit of the data since F (3, 9) = 1743.157, p < .05. Hence it is concluded that the contributions made by household sector, private corporate sector and public sector statistically significantly predict the gross capital formation.

Table No 7 shows the statistical significance of the independent variables. It is obvious that the p values for household sector and public sector are less than 0.05 which reveals that those sectors' contributions are statistically significant in determining the gross capital formation. But the p value for private corporate sector is

greater than 0.05, implies the statistically not significant the model to the data obtained from table no: 7, it is contribution to capital formation of that sector. Fitting established that

GCF_{pred} = -224138.294 + 1.442 (Household Sector Contribution) + 0.513 (Private Corporate Sector) + 0.999 (Public Sector).

	Table NO 0, Statistical significance of the independent variables									
	Coefficients ^a									
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.				
		В	Std. Error	Beta						
1	(Constant)	-224138.294	50951.793		-4.399	.002				
	Household Sector's Contribution	1.442	.185	.840	7.797	.000				
	Private Corporate Sector's Contribution	.513	.541	.115	.948	.368				
	Public Sector's Contribution	.999	.342	.085	2.923	.017				
	a. Dependent Variable: Gross Capital Formation									

Table No 6: Statistical significance of the independent variables

a. To be sum it up

"A multiple regression analysis is performed to envisage gross capital formation from contributions of household sector, private corporate sector and public sector. It is found that the first two variables are statistically more significant than the third variable. F (3, 9) = 1743.157, p < .05, R2 = 0.998. All the three variables added statistically significantly to the prediction, p < 0.05."

Table No 7: Relationship between GDS and GCF

Variables	R	R ²	Adjusted	Regression		Coefficients			
			R ²	Significant		В	t	Sig	
Predictor : GDS	0 008	0 996	0 996	0.000	Constant	-160993.212	-4.265	0.001	
Dependent Variable : GCF	0.090	0.090	0.000	0.000	GDS	1.172	55.835	0.000	

Table 7 shows the contribution of GDS to GCF. The value of R = 0.998 indicates that there exist a powerful relationship between GDS and GCF i.e. the contribution of GDS to GCF is more whenever there is hike in GDS. The regression significant value 0.000 (p < 0.05) implies that the regression model is the best fit

for the data and the independent variable (GDS) is statistically more significant to predict the dependent variable (GCF) (p < 0.05). The linear relationship between GDS and GCF can be established as

GCF_{predicted} = (-160993.212) + 1.172 (GDS)

e) Research model showing the statistical significance of contributions of each sector to GDS and GCF



Note: HH – Household Sector, PCS – Private Corporate Sector, PS – Public Sector

VI. CONCLUSION

Gross Domestic Savings and Capital Formation are keys to economic growth. The central opinion of this paper is that all the three sectors such as household, private corporate and public sector are statistically significant in determining the Gross Domestic Savings and Gross Capital Formation. Of which, the paper discovered that the Household sector's contribution is more than other two sectors. It is also found that the rise in GDS leads to more capital accumulation which will enhance productive capacity of the nation and in turn stimulate growth of the economy.

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Can we Predict Inflation in Tunisia? *an Analysis Following an Unobserved Components Model*

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Abstract- Empirical analysis on the prediction of inflation is becoming more and focus on advanced economies. At least three factors explain this. First, the predominance of agriculture in developing countries makes it dependent inflation climatic conditions of economic activity (eg, Phillips curve). Then, the limits on the quality and frequency data are often limiting factors. Finally, emerging markets are likely to suffer sudden crises and reversals of macroeconomics variables and it is therefore difficult to identify an economic regularity. However, a growing body of research has begun to analyze the inflation forecasts in emerging and developing leading indicators for inflation.

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Can we Predict Inflation in Tunisia? An Analysis Following an Unobserved Components Model

Peut-on prévoir l'inflation en Tunisie ? Une étude suivant un modèle à composantes inobservables

Bechir FRIDHI

Abstract- Empirical analysis on the prediction of inflation is becoming more and focus on advanced economies. At least three factors explain this. First, the predominance of agriculture in developing countries makes it dependent inflation climatic conditions of economic activity (eg, Phillips curve). Then, the limits on the quality and frequency data are often limiting factors. Finally, emerging markets are likely to suffer sudden crises and reversals of macroeconomics variables and it is therefore difficult to identify an economic regularity. However, a growing body of research has begun to analyze the inflation forecasts in emerging and developing leading indicators for inflation.

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Résumé: Les études empiriques sur la prévision de l'inflation sont de plus en plus nombreuses et portent principalement sur les économies avancées. Au moins trois facteurs expliquent cela. Tout d'abord, la prédominance de l'agriculture dans les pays émergents rend l'inflation plus dépendante des conditions climatiques que de l'activité économique (par exemple, courbe de Phillips). Ensuite, les limites quant à la qualité et la fréquence des données sont souvent des facteurs contraignants. Enfin, les marchés émergents sont susceptibles de subir des crises soudaines et des renversements de variables macro- économigues et il est donc difficile de dégager une régularité économique. Toutefois, un nombre croissant d'études a commencé à analyser les prévisions d'inflation dans les pays émergents et à élaborer des indicateurs avancés pour l'inflation.

Mots clés : prévision de l'inflation, courbe de phillips, régularité économique, inflation sous- jacente.

I. INTRODUCTION

orecast inflation will become an essential task for the Central Bank of Tunisia (BCT) due to delays in the transmission of monetary policy on the economy, particularly on inflation. Thus, to be able to react in time, the BCT will base its monetary policy decisions not on past inflation but inflation expectations, the accuracy of these forecasts are an essential element of the inflation targeting framework. For example, it will determine the magnitude of the deviations permitted in relation to the inflation target and the time required returning inflation to the midpoint of the target range. To forecast inflation in Tunisia, it is essential to understand the dynamics and explore ways of underlying calculations of inflation. Studies in this area report several technical preconditions for inflation targeting, including:

- i) Institutional independence: Within a framework of inflation targeting, the primary objective of monetary policy is that of low inflation.

- ii) A healthy financial system: To reduce the risk of conflict with financial stabilization objectives and ensure the efficient transmission of monetary policy, the banking system must be strong and well developed capital markets.

- iii) Good infrastructure and analysis capabilities: The statistical requirements for inflation targeting are more stringent than for other regimes and monetary authorities must have a well- developed ability to forecast inflation.

Tunisia has taken important steps to establish a framework for targeting inflation, especially in regard to i) and ii). The amendment last year to the law governing the BCT strengthened the independence of the central bank and defined price stability as the primary objective of monetary policy. To boost the financial system, the authorities have recently adopted a number of measures to improve the credit culture, promoting good governance and strengthening the legal framework for banks. However, a reliable methodology for forecasting inflation is not yet available. The present work aims to: analyze trends in inflation in Tunisia, to calculate underlying inflation measures and to develop a simple framework for forecasting inflation.

II. THE SPECIFIC TARGETING RULES

The concept of targeting rule returns to [L. Svensson (1998)]. It consists in setting the interest rate in order to obtain the variable targeting criteria. A concrete example of targeting rules would be that of the

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Bank of England which has made a simple rule targeting of adjusting the interest rate in order to bring the inflation forecasts, with the two- year horizon in the target range.

This rule, both simple and operational, is not necessarily optimal. According Svensson, a targeting rule is optimal if the marginal substitution rate (TMS) and the incremental rate of transformation (TMT) between the target variables are equal.

Svensson illustrated the optimal targeting rules from a simple example, formulated a relationship of supply (Phillips Curve) and demand relationship (IS curve):

$$\Pi_{t+r,t} = \Pi_{t+r+1,t} + \alpha_x x_{t+r,t} + \alpha_z z_{t+r,t}$$

$$avec \ x_{t+r,t} = \beta(i_{t+r,t} - \Pi_{t+r+1,t}) + \beta_z z_{t+r,t}$$
(1)

 $\begin{array}{l} \Pi \\ {}_{t+r+1,t} \text{ and } x_{t+r,t} : \text{expectations of inflation and} \\ \text{output performed } t+r+1 \quad \text{in} t , \alpha_x \text{ and } \beta_x \text{: positive} \\ \text{constants, } \alpha_z \text{ and } \beta_z \text{: Suitable dimensional vectors.} \end{array}$

 $z_{t+r,t}$: Column vector representing the "deviation", ie the difference between the real model and the simplified version of the New Keynesian model. The values of these deviations are determined by the "judgments" of monetary authorities.

The identification of the optimal targeting rule requires the specification of the (TMT) and (TMS) that of between forecasts targeted variables and establish the condition of their equality.

This condition, identified by Svensson, is of the following form:

$$\Pi_{t+r,t} - \Pi^* = \frac{-\lambda}{\alpha_x} (x_{t+r,t} - x_{t+r-1,t})$$
(2)

In this example, the targeting rule, called "targeting the forecast of inflation" (inflation- forecast targeting) is based on the following steps:

- Define deviations, $z^t \equiv \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} z_{t+r,t}$ by judgments; - Prepare forecasts of inflation and output, $\Pi^t \equiv \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \Pi_{t^+r,t}$,
- $x^{t} \equiv \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} x_{t+r,t}$ Who determine the targeting rule (2) and the supply relationship;
- Identify interest rates,

$$i_t \equiv \sum_{r=0} i_{t+r,t}$$
 Who determine demand relationship;

Announcer Forecasts of inflation and output and adjust the interest rate accordingly.

This approach avoids the specification of a reaction function which is always complicated, since it is to specify how the monetary authorities should respond optimally to deviations that are determined only by judgments.

The advantage of targeting rules as specified (2) is to be empirically verifiable by publishing forecasts targeted variables. Its main drawback is, cons, related to the need to identify a precise way the (TMT) between the target variables, which is not always obvious to all models of the relationship of supply.

III. TARGETING INFLATION FORECASTS

The major difficulty in the implementation of an inflation targeting regime is related to the inability of the Central Bank to fully control inflation. This imperfection is due to uncertainty about the monetary transmission mechanisms and deadlines that are attached to; Also the influence of factors other than monetary policy actions. From then on, it would be useful to anticipate well in advance, the evolution of inflation. The for ecasts on the level of inflation can be used as effective intermediate objectives of monetary policy.

[King (1994)], which was the first to evoke the idea of using inflation forecasts as an intermediate target, he argued his idea by the need to take account of a period of time between the handling of interest rates and the expected effects on the level of inflation.

According to Svensson, the implementation of a policy based on targeting inflation forecasts may be considered according to a specific rule, as defined in the example (2). Just, indeed, to impose restrictions $\lambda = 0$ in order to move to a strict regime of inflation targeting in which the specific rule targeting becomes:

$$\Pi_{t+r,t} = \Pi^* \tag{3}$$

r: Minimum horizon assignment of the rate of inflation.

This is to establish the conditions of interest rates in order to obtain estimates of the rate of inflation in a given horizon (shortest horizon for which the rate of inflation may be affected), which will within the target range.

IV. UNDE RLYING INFLATION AS AN ESTIMATOR OF OVERALL INFLATION

The inflation is a new concept in the literature. It was introduced in the early 1970. However, it has been formally identified for the first time by [Echstein (1981)] in the early 1980s.

There is still no consensus on the concept of core inflation in relation to divergences on the basis of inflation in the recent economic theory.

Echstein (1981) developed an econometric model of the US economy. In this model, the inflation rate is divided into three components, namely:

underlying inflation, inflation linked to the supply shocks and inflation driven by demand.

According to [Roger (1998)] if the aggregate supply curves in the short term is given by:

$$\Pi_{t} = \Pi_{t}^{LT} + g(x_{t-1}) + v_{t}$$
(4)

Where:

 Π_t : Global Inflation rate applying on the date t;

 \prod_{t}^{LT} : Long-term inflation rate;

 Π_{t}^{CT} : Short-term inflation rate;

- Π_t^{SJ} : Inflation rate underlying;
- x_{t-1} : An indicator of excess supply or aggregate demand;
- v_t : A measure of inflationary pressures due to temporary supply shocks.

Then the inflation proposed by Echstein, is defined as:

$$\Pi_t^{CT} = \Pi_t - g(x_{t-1}) - v_t = \Pi_t^{LT}$$
⁽⁵⁾

While underlying inflation, Π_t^{SJ} is given by $\Pi_t^{SJ} = g(x_{t-1}) + v_t$. Under this definition, transient movements have no effect on core inflation. Therefore, the latter should not be cyclic.

[Quah and Vahey (1995)] for their part, explain the long-term verticality of the Phillips curve, generally accepted in economic theory, and identify the underlying inflation as " component of the observed inflation has no impact in the medium term and long term on actual production "

The observed inflation and divided into two parts, one respecting the long-run neutrality (underlying inflation), the other not (non-underlying inflation).

These authors estimated the inflation using a structural vector autoregression model (SVAR) combining inflation and output. They assume that the observed changes in the measurement of inflation is caused by two types of disturbances are not correlated. The first of these disturbances has no impact on production in the medium or long term. The second has unlimited effects observed inflation and production but does not influence on core inflation.

According to [Roger (1998)], the definition of [Q uah and Vahey (1995) of the underlying inflation is characterized by:

$$\Pi_{t}^{CT} = \Pi_{t} - v_{t} = \Pi_{t}^{LT} + g \quad x_{t-1}$$
(6)

While short-term inflation is defined as: $\Pi_t^{CT} = v_t$

V. The Inflation: Theoretical Basis and Practical

Unfortunately, the concept of core inflation is rarely defined with precision and calculation methods remain to multiple and varied day. Overall, there are three methods to calculate: for econometric modeling, exclusion and more recently by estimating a structural vector autoregression (VAR Structural).

A first step is to break down the inflation rate into a trend component and a cyclical component, or by the filter [Hodrick and Prescott (1980)] or by use of different decomposition techniques available. A second method proceeds by elimination of components deemed too volatile in the price index, particularly sensitive to external shocks or economic policy.

Our study focuses on the exclusion in the first stage food and energy because the exclusion of these two categories of products is due to high price volatility, dominated by fluctuations in supply on which the monetary policy has no influence. In a second step we will exclude the price index for consumer eight components likely to be the source of large changes in relative prices or exposed to significant supply shocks.

VI. Estimation and Forecasting of Inflation in Tunisia

The data used in our econometric study come from the databases of IFS (Intenational Financial Statistics) of the IMF. We consider the following sets of Tunisian quarterly basis over the period from the first quarter 1994 to fourth quarter 2014, the index of consumer prices (IPC), the index of industrial production (IPI), the real exchange rate (TCR), money supply (M1) and money supply (M2). All series are seasonally adjusted except the exchange rate. All variables are expressed in logarithms.

The study charts and correlogram shows that all autocorrelations and partial autocorrelations concerned first series are significantly different from zero and slowly declining. This is indicative of non-stationary series. It is then necessary to verify this intuition by applying statistical tests of stationarity.

In what follows, we will initially estimate the trend and the cycle of the price index for consumption from various decomposition methods tend cycle.

Among these methods we are interested in unobserved component models proposed by [Harvey (2001)].

Within the framework of these models, the study series can be decomposed additively into a trend T_t , cycle C_t and irregular component ε_t . These are the "trend+ cycle" model which is based on an independent formulation of the trend and the cycle. Each of these components is then subject to a separate estimate.

 $Y_{t} = T_{t} + C_{t} + \varepsilon_{t}$ $T_{t} = T_{t-1} + \beta_{t-1} + \eta_{t}$ $\beta_{t} = \beta_{t-1} + \xi_{t}$ (7)

The irregular component \mathcal{E}_t is a white noise.

The stochastic nature of the trend is determined by the variance of the innovations of the level (σ_{η}^2) and slope (σ_{ξ}^2) of the trend. When these are both zero ($\sigma_{\eta}^2 = \sigma_{\xi}^2 = 0$), we obtain a deterministic trend. When only

the variance of the innovations of the level ($\sigma_{\eta}^2 = 0$) is set equal to zero, a random walk is obtained with drift. In the case where only the variance of the innovations acting on the slope (σ_{ξ}^2) is zero, we obtain a smooth trend "Slowly Moving Smooth Trend".

The results of the estimation of unobserved component models on the quarterly change in the price index for the Tunisian consumption are presented in the following table:

	$\sigma_{\eta}^2 = 0$	$\sigma_{\eta}^2 \neq 0$	$\sigma_{\eta}^2 = 0$
	et	et	et
	$\sigma_{\xi}^{z}=0$	$\sigma_{\xi}^{z}=0$	$\sigma_{\xi}^{z} \neq 0$
\sqrt{PEV} (Standard deviation of the forecast error)	1.625	0.241	0.238
N(Normality statistics)	7.670**	4.482	1.019
H(h)[Statistical heteroscedasticity]	6.646**	1.131	1.043
Q(p,q)[Statistical correlation]	10.620**	24.09**	10.710**
$R_D^2(Correlation \ coefficient)$	-0.440	0.004	0.032

Source: Estimates of the Author

Note: Unsatisfactory tests the null hypothesis are indicated by ** at the 5% level. The standard deviations were multiplied by 100.

To improve predictions, we need additional information. To do this, we must make use of other economic indicators. The estimated model is defined from the following equation: The latter is similar to a reduced form of the Phillips curve. The index of consumer prices depends on its long-term IPC^{LT} , component of the output gap Y_n and the index of industria I prices IPI_n .

$$IPC_{t} = \alpha \ L \ IPC_{t}^{LT} + \beta \ L \ Y_{t} + \delta \ L \ Z_{t} + \varepsilon_{t}$$

The different statistics from the estimated model are shown in the following table:

	IPC	IPI	
Diagnostics			
\sqrt{PEV} (Standard deviation of the forecast error)	0.238	2.867	
N(Normality statistics)	1.019	8.003	
H(h)[Statistical heteroscedasticity]	1.043	0.540	

Q(p,q)[Statistical correlation]	10.610**	18.200**
$R_D^2(Correlation \ coefficient)$	0.031	0.295
Parameters		
σ_{δ} (Standard deviation of the irregular component)	0.000	2.349
σ_{\hbar} (Standard deviation of the innovations of the trend)	0.000	0.000
σ_{ε} (standard deviation of innovations on the slope of the trend)	0.044	0.162
Cycle		
Frequency	0.006	0.300
cycle period in years	83.325	1.744

Source: Estimates of the Author

Note: Unsatisfactory tests the null hypothesis are indicated by ** at the 5% level. The standard deviations were multiplied by 100.

The empirical results obtained by different methods showed that there are as many differences as similarities between the different estimates of trend and cyclical components.

The unobserved components model Harvey has enabled us to provide the underlying price trend in Tunisia. It presents oriented upward trend and should continue to be in the future.

In a multivariable universe, the joint use of the index of consumer prices and industrial production index in an unobserved components model allowed us to highlight the dynamic interrelationships between these variables.

VII. Conclusion

Unlike other monetary policy regimes, that of inflation targeting assigns fundamental importance forecast, including that of the evolution of inflation which is the main intermediate target of monetary policy. Indeed, when the monetary authorities detect a deviation from the expected level of inflation relative to the target, they employ the necessary actions to eliminate this deviation. It should be noted that the consideration of inflation as the main objective for the Central Bank reduced significantly, the role of other formal intermediate targets, such as the exchange rate or monetary aggregates, since in case of conflict, it is the objective related to the level of inflation prevail. That said, monetary authorities considering aimed at targeting regime explicit inflation, should develop econometric models for their work to support forecasting. This step is particularly important because of the role of forecasts in choosing the timing of the company corrective action.

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Non-Practicing the Dialogue as a Factor of Non-Development of the Organizational Learning

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Abstract-Today we live in conditions of constant struggle for achieving financial power which enables dominance of the negative power and influence over the lives of others. This leads to destruction of the moral, ethical and other value norms alike, and the life in the organization becomes a place where we are seen through the prism of material asset. A world dominated by financial capital does not know the individual life values.

Keywords: dialogue, listening, respect, suspension, speaking, areas of conversation, organizational learning.

GJMBR - B Classification : JEL Code : F63

NONPRACTICINGTHEDIALOGUEABAFACTOROFNONDEVELOPMENTOFTHEDRGANIZATIONALLEARNING

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Non-Practicing the Dialogue as a Factor of Non-Development of the Organizational Learning

Konstantin Petkovski «, Fanche Joshevska ^o & Violeta Milenkovska ^P

Abstract- Today we live in conditions of constant struggle for achieving financial power which enables dominance of the negative power and influence over the lives of others. This leads to destruction of the moral, ethical and other value norms alike, and the life in the organization becomes a place where we are seen through the prism of material asset. A world dominated by financial capital does not know the individual life values. Such a civilization, or if you prefer cultural fragmentation results in a dangerous state of alienation of employees, feeling not belonging in the organizational systems where an individual spends his working life, which in itself brings demotivation which is a prerequisite for reduced productivity both on the individual and on the organizational level.

Dialogue is the place where these conditions can change a lot in a positive direction. That is a process and a situation in which an individual is preparing for a better way of behavior in the organizational systems. Respect of the laws of ethics are the foundation of the behavior of individuals in the realization of the dialogue. Over time, and under the influence of the ethical norms, the participants in the dialogue form their mental models, which itself incorporate the necessity of development of the organizational learning. It creates conditions in which the employees are not only seen as executors of the given organizational tasks, without taking into consideration their intellectual capacity that is the basis for building the intellectual capital of the organization.

Keywords: dialogue, listening, respect, suspension, speaking, areas of conversation, organizational learning.

I. INTRODUCTION

Why dialogue? If this question was asked a little less than two decades ago, certainly and without thinking there would have been an answer according to our belief, as well as the belief of many people, that it is a conversation between two people, and that as a term freely in any occasion, to the extent of vulgarization, may be used at any time and by everyone. Today, in regard of the present and as a result of many years of research we will conclude that it is a necessity which creates opportunities to release the spirit of the individual and developing common mental abilities of the group. Exercising the dialogue is a necessity for achieving the capacity for its conduct. By analyzing this process can be found their bright, but for certain individuals their dark sides as well. If in this process the individual enters accidentally, without intention to participate and with a resistance to it, it will certainly be put in a position to develop a sense of outrage, and the dialogue would be characterized as something insignificant. Usually they are people who stubbornly believe only in its truth and are not willing to learn. Such individuals have internal reason not to acknowledge themselves. For others it is a process of upgrading.

The dialogue is a process that creates space for its participants to explore and find solutions for usually difficult subjects. If accepted as a method of work, it should be distinguished with great care, tenderness and high level of ethics by each of his every participants. Each individual in the process of dialogue should build a clear view of the way in which is necessary to handle their own strength (i.e. to build their self-control), as well as the leading force of the process, where it is necessary to develop a sense of freedom as part of a team or group that realizes this type of communication. conversation allows This aetting to deeper understandings, perceptions, new models and routes that lead to the only truth, i.e. the collective thought.

This process results in a change of mental models, which allows individual and collective changes based on the elements of personal and shared success. The path that reaches these changes is long and arduous. It is a process for which only desire is not enough, but also great knowledge which is based on the ways of achieving the ecology of the thought, ie overcoming everything that is pathological in it.

The dialogue is a way to overcome the uncertainty and the potential problems of the future. Initially, its participants do not have (and should not have) identical views on certain issues. But such an open way of communication, which creates conditions each member to be equal with others, allows progressive harmonization of the various opinions and transform the destructive conflicts in constructive. Using this method or means of communication, the group comes to "common meaning" and "collective identity".

II. Skills for Interaction

The interaction is conditioned by the development of the four skills. The skill of listening can

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be defined as an ability to hear the speech of others, our own speaking and own congestion which occurs as a result of someone else's views that we disagree with and leave it on the side. Respect, is a skill that allows to see the best and most grateful features of each speaker. Listening and respect are skills that are mutually correlate. Listening as a process is impossible to get realized if there is not a positive attitude towards the one who speaks. Developing the skill to respect, with each participant in the dialogue, increases the positive energy, which later grows into a collective energy of the team. In this context may be noted the need to overcome the fear and embarrassment from others, to look ridiculous in front of the other interlocutors in participating in the dialogue. The practice shows that the sense of fear and embarrassment from the others to tell their own truth is common case that brings bad consequences. An individual who does not have the strength and courage to find and express their own truth is frustrated and behaves negatively to his interlocutors.

The internal pressure that the individual feels is reason big enough to cause inability to listen and respect. As for that, the need of speaking with your own voice once again confirms its necessity in the process of interaction. The fourth skill is suspension. If the hearing shows the individual's ability to concentrate in keeping the dialogue, respect is a skill that encourages a positive attitude of the individual to his interlocutors and allows positive energy in building teams that implement the dialogue. Speaking is a skill that shows the ability of the individual to self-analysis, "looking and digging" for his "silence" and the courage to tell his own truth. The suspension is a skill that shows the size of the man to suspend its own, but also the views of all members of the team that performs the dialogue. If there is this skill, then there are chances of building collective thought. The development of the suspension is a condition for coming to collective truth, much bigger and more real than the individual. Team members who have not developed such skills are not able, or do not have the foundation for building a dialogue that will run in all its fields.

Listening, respect, suspension and speaking with its own voice are skills that the modern man can hardly praise with. The modern pattern of living built individual paradigms for living and working that is based on fear, discouragement and lack of determination to tell their own truths. The modern man (especially in the countries of transition) suppressed by the traditional way of behavior, built for years in the past, had lost or perhaps had deeply suppressed the ability to apply the four skills of interaction.

III. The Dialogue and its Function of Development of the Organizational Learning

The organizational location or headquarters where the dialogue that can be successfully accomplished is the team. Formed by a number of people it gives the opportunity for overcoming the problems and making decisions for them, that will be based on the common thought of its members. The dialogue is the place where the negative energies, the threat from the environment and imposing opinions of others, in the mutual communication of the team members are unknown elements. You can reach its essence with systemic view of the individual and the team. His highest form is the one that is directed to its essence.

It is a process that enables the exchange of suggestions, beliefs and solutions through which each individual becomes richer and more powerful in the proper implementation of its activities as part of the group. Through the ability to express different aspects of a problem, each individual contributes to the development of the organizational system, and thus the organizational learning. The dialogue allows overcoming the crisis in the common opinion, while different beliefs are transformed into creative beliefs. Its foundation is based on building a common vision, which at some point rises to the level of a shared vision.

Analyzing the team, which applies the dialogue about things we learn about his real function. These teams represent a coherent whole. As a strategy of the organizational learning, the dialogue enables exploration of the source, the essence and core of things. This process reveals the assumptions that lie in it and their interconnection. The challenge that encourages enables recognition of the new thoughts that occur in every individual, after which evolves the process of their integrating into a new process where all the members of the group led to a shared vision.

Complex processes in the activities of organizational systems impose higher form of intelligence of each member. Using the dialogue creates a joint intelligence which becomes a function of the organizational system, which set in this way would move across the road to success. In the everyday practice, where the ability to interact is not developed in moments of conflict situations, its implementation is failing. Group members retreat and refuse to participate in a situation reminiscent of the "war". This environment is characterized by a state of "paralyzed dilemma" resulting from the closure of the team members themselves. It hinders the process of dialogue.

A very common occurrence in our organizational systems is the support of the so called dysfunctional learning i.e. maintaining the "status quo"

position. These areas dominated by the unproductive energy are brought into a state of accelerated "aging" and probably "dying" of the organizational systems. The only way to overcome this problem is the application of dialogue as a discipline that will provide a different way of thinking. Moving to the four fields of its development creates opportunities for creative decision making and implementation of necessary daily changes that put the organization in a state of constant growth and development.

IV. FIELDS OF CONVERSATION

Each interaction is implemented in a particular location which is characterized by a variety of conditions and features. During its performance, with each participant are present feelings directly influenced by the type and quality of energy that comes from the middle where such an interaction is performed. Different qualities of the environment are called fields of conversation. (Isaacs, NW, 1999) Their structural elements are the atmosphere, energy and memory of the participants in the interaction called dialogue, which can only be performed by creating the conditions for building the denominator.

The dialogue is moving through the fields of conversation. Passes from one field to another, without announcement or immediately noticeable an manifestations. Its movement is perfect and is accomplished through four fields of conversation, which are characterized by a variety of features, as well as their own crises. In the first field the participants talk with a calmness dose of seeming and politeness. Consequently appears crisis that occurs in each participant and develops a sense of frustration due to the inability to achieve the dialogue. If the group has experienced the crisis of its own emptiness, then it moves to the second field of the "disintegration of the container." In this field of conversation, the listening and respect are low, while the suspension does not exist at all. Then occurs "crisis of suspension" as a result of the need to impose their views to each individual. Such talks move chaoticly through different routes. Overcoming this situation can be achieved if it is made collective switching of the group in the area of "reflection", where each participant will see the reasons for their own behavior as a result of what is created a situation in which arises equal accepting of others and their own truths based on what will be built the collective thought. The group moves to the third field that allows the formation of a collective identity. In the fourth field of conversation, the group reaches culmination of interaction and creativity.

V. Empirical Research

The value of the dialogue is displayed in its procedural dimension. It means that this value comes

from the process of building a capacity for its guidance, indicating that the survey is based on the principle of qualitative paradigm. The test was done during 2013 and 2014. During the implementation of the research were applied procedures and instruments for recording the changes that occur during the performance of the dialogue. Based on the interpretation of the qualitative records are determined the progress and development of the capacity for dialogue. As a result of the need for interpretation of quantitative-qualitative relations, a big part of the data is processed quantitatively. For this purpose it was used the method of observation, for whose needs have been used previously prepared lists for observation.

Along with this method to achieve the objectives of the survey, was also used the experimental method. For its needs are established experimental and two control groups. Each group numbered 30 participants. Through the experimental group was aimed to investigate the impact of the functional training in the acquisition of theoretical knowledge and practical skills for developing and maintaining dialogue. On the other hand, the second element of the experimental factor was the impact of the integrator in the running dialogue through its fields of conversation. All other conditions (structure and number of group members, as well as the topics for dialogue) were identical for all three groups. The survey was conducted over a period of three months.

In order to understand the impact of theoretical knowledge for skills development, and thus the way of building capacity for dialogue, the experimental group was put in a situation for its implementation without basic knowledge of it. The first attempt for a dialogue was conducted through three fields. We got low marks as expected, due to the low level of skill to respect. On Fig. 1 are represented the movements of the dialogue through eight circles of which the first three are held in the first field of the conversation, in the next four circles is felt the moving to the early stages of the second field and in the last round of group conversation it returned again to first field of courtesy.



Figure 1: Graphic-numerical display for the movement of the dialogue through the fields of conversation

The experimental group used to develop skills to engage in dialogue every day. Therefore, occurred the need of identifying the impact of the integrator. Consequently, was conducted a dialogue in experimental and one of the control groups, except that in the control group that did not go to the functional training and had no theoretical and practical knowledge of this process, active participation took trained integrator, while the experimental group conducted the process of dialogue with the participation of the integrator who was not competent and had no skills arising from this role. Consequently was get data, as shown in Fig. 2 of which can be found the necessity of trained integrator, which usually is one of the skills of the team leader or the group.



Figure 2 : Common chart data of the experimental and the control group

The everyday development of the skills for dialogue, as well as the well-known topic of conversation, enabled the group to enter the third field (Fig. 3). The data obtained from the observation showed a very low level of application of the suspension, by which was practically confirmed the crisis of suspension which is a feature of the second field, but when it exceeds, it creates secure conditions for entry into the third field of the dialogue.





In the further course of the research was measured the capacity for a dialogue and its movement through the fields of the conversation between the experimental and the control group. What we wanted to achieve was once again to ascertain the impact of the formal training to develop the capacity for dialogue and the influence of the trained integrator. These two conditions were provided in the experimental group. The movement of the dialogue is represented in Fig. 4.



Figure 4: Common graphic-numerical display for the data of the experimental and the control group

The movement of the dialogue and its development during the whole training is presented in Fig. 5. The experimental group is characterized by a constant development of the skills for his guidance, as well as active participation of the trained integrator. The control group 1 was having a dialogue led by trained integrator, while the control group 2 was trying to do it without developing the skills of its guidance, and without the participation of an integrator. The achievements of the experimental group once again confirmed the theoretical established fact that there can only be dialogue if the participants have developed capacity (skills) for its guidance, and active participation of the team leader who usually takes the role of integrator.



Figure 5 : Graphic-numerical display for the development of the capacity dialogue

VI. CONCLUSION

Developing the capacity to engage in a dialogue is a process that must be realized continuously and for long periods. The prerequisite for its continuous building are conditions and need for development of the organizational learning. What can be concluded is that the organizations in our environment can not praise themselves as systems which wish to practice this type of learning that provides the basis for the constant evolving and growing of the organizational learning, raising the capacity for dialogue is possible only with the

introduction of trained integrator to facilitate the dialogue (team leader) and frequent formal training for the leading activity and roles of participants in the dialogue that will develop skills for its guidance. By the permanent practice of the dialogue are created opportunities to develop personal mastery, are built mental models, is reached the common vision of the organization, is practiced the everyday learning as a teamwork. The dialogue is subject into the development of systemic thinking, as the fifth discipline, which builds the causal connection between the other four elements. This opens opportunities for developing a system of organizational learning.

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Interaction between Fiscal and Monetary Policies: Directions of Causality in Case of Jordan 1990-2011

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Abstract- This paper is an effort to explore the interaction between fiscal and monetary policies in Jordan through investigating the short-term and long-term relationship between government expenditure as a fiscal policy, money supply as a monetary policy, and inflation as a result and cause of these policies. Using annual data for the period 1990-2011, the study applies cointegration test, Granger-causality, and VECM techniques to inspect the long-term and short-term relationship and the directions of causality, also the speed of adjustment toward long-term equilibrium between the variables.

Keywords: fiscal policy, monetary policy, government expenditure, money supply, inflation, granger-causality, co-integration, jordan.

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Interaction between Fiscal and Monetary Policies: Directions of Causality in Case of Jordan 1990-2011

Hussein Ali Al-Zeaud

Abstract- This paper is an effort to explore the interaction between fiscal and monetary policies in Jordan through investigating the short-term and long-term relationship between government expenditure as a fiscal policy, money supply as a monetary policy, and inflation as a result and cause of these policies. Using annual data for the period 1990-2011, the study applies cointegration test, Grangercausality, and VECM techniques to inspect the long-term and short-term relationship and the directions of causality, also the speed of adjustment toward long-term equilibrium between the variables. The estimation of cointegration, Grangercausality and VECM tests reveal that there is no significant direct interaction between government expenditure as fiscal policy and money supply as monetary policy or indirect interaction through inflation among them. This study does not provide much support for the hypothesis that government expenditure causes monetary expansion and, therefore, leads to inflation or vice versa.

The study suggests that policies makers should considered these findings while designing the fiscal and monetary policies to deal with the economic problem, and pay attention to others factors which induce inflation especially the external factors mainly international prices of food and oil.

Keywords: fiscal policy, monetary policy, government expenditure, money supply, inflation, granger-causality, co-integration, jordan.

I. INTRODUCTION

ordan has been experiencing economic deformations, which includes chronic deficits in the budget and trade account, high level of unemployment and public debt. Theoretically, there are a number of factors that cause economic deformations, so the government of Jordan has taken a number of fiscal and monetary measures as tools to tackle these problems and to achieve economic stabilization. Monetary policy is controlled by the Central Bank of Jordan, which is responsible to take on monetary measures to provide the appropriate amount of domestic liquidity (Money Supply) in order to encourage growth, and to sustain the stability of the Jordanian dinar. Tools of monetary policy include open market operations, discount policy and reserve requirements. These tools affects both real variables (real GDP, Unemployment) and nominal variables (inflation and

Author: Al al-Bayt University, Mafraq, Jordan. e-mail: husseinhah@yahoo.com the exchange rate ...) in the short-term, but, in the longterm, only nominal variables could be controlled by these tools. On the other hand, Ministry of Finance is responsible for Fiscal policy, which involves deliberate changes in government expenditures and taxes to control economic activity. Government budget is the main tool through which fiscal policy is carried out. Government expenditures are a vital element of aggregate demand. So, it directly affect the level of economic activity; while transfer payments and taxes affect disposable income and consequently influence the other two major elements of aggregate demand, consumption and investment. Therefore, Fiscal policy works through changes in government budget like increasing expenditure to induce economic growth and creation of jobs. This may induce inflation and possible crowding out effect, which in turn affects interstate rate. Likewise, government expenditure is affected by Inflation and interest rate.

The interaction between fiscal and monetary policies and the different agencies responsible for implementation of these policies imply there are no exclusive effective fiscal and monetary measurements for dealing with these deformations, given that each policy has its own supporters. So, most countries have been adopting monetary policy, fiscal policy, or a mix of both policies to tackle their economic problems.

In the late 1980s, Jordan started to face serious economic problems, seeing that inflows of both official transfers and remittances fell, with substantial unfavorable consequences on budgetary revenues. Initially, the authorities resorted to external borrowing to fill the revenue gap, leading to a sharp increase in external debt. In 1989, Jordan had a 30-35 percent unemployment rate and was struggling with its inability to pay its loans. Structural weaknesses in Jordan's public finances and balance of payments were soon exposed, leading the authorities to request the country's first arrangement with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1989 to facilitate orderly external financial relations and reverse a sharp decline in economic growth.

Thus, Economic reforms were initiated as part of an agreement between Jordan and the IMF. The key objectives of the economic reforms in the kingdom focused on the reduction of public debts, reduction of the government expenditures, controlling of inflation, tax reforms, credit policy reforms, investment incentives, privatization and easier trade policies. Nevertheless, a highly growing population and the unstable political situation in the region have been major impediments to immediately reaping the benefits of IMF-introduced economic reforms.

During 2011-2012 Jordan's economy has been suffering from exogenous shocks. Repeated and extensive disruption to the flow of natural gas from Egypt due to the damage of the Sinai Peninsula pipeline, together with high and rising oil prices have required imports of expensive fuel products for electricity generation. At the same time, regional tensions and the global economic downturn have adversely affected tourism, worker remittances, and foreign direct investment. As a result, growth has slowed. Despite improvement in tourism income and remittances in 2012, along with the projected decline in oil prices, the external current account deficit is expected to widen to an estimated 14 percent of GDP in 2012, from 12 percent of GDP in 2011.

In response to the negative external shocks, the Jordanian government has asked for financial assistance from the IMF, and adopted another reform program. In this context, it took significant measures to bring back fiscal and energy policies to a sustainable path.

Government expenditure may exceed its revenue for a given period. This generates budget deficit, so it is important to find remedy for financing government expenditure to eliminate the negative effects. Government expenditure could be financed by increasing seigniorage revenue. In this case the central bank is assumed to print money for the treasury department without there being any obligation on the part of the government to pay interest or repay the principal. As the government spends this cash it simultaneously increases aggregate demand and the currency in circulation, leading to the growth of the financial wealth of the private sector and of the broad money supply. Broad money demand, private consumption and private investment are affected with a lag of two or three periods. In turn, it increases price level which induces inflation. Likewise, inflation is critical in the determination of government revenue and spending which induces government expenditure.

General notions imply that steadily high government expenditures increase inflation and inflation induces government expenditure. However, the results of empirical studies which examines this issue are inconclusive, demonstrating that the link from government expenditures to monetary expansion and then to inflation and vice versa from inflation to government expenditure might be less crucial in determining the track of relationship. Furthermore, lack of monetization in the face of increasing government expenditures presents an additional argument on that point. Nevertheless, even when a central bank does not monetize the budget deficit, adjustments in the private sector to higher deficit policies may lead to inflation.

In general, there is little disagreement that in the long-run inflation is primarily a monetary phenomenon. Jordan's experience is not different in that respect as inflation is generally associated with monetary expansion. Therefore, a rise in the general price level can most often be traced to money supply growth. However, the developments in the fiscal sector are also considered to be an important factor in explaining price fluctuations.

Following five years of inflation running below 2%, as measured by the change in the consumer price index, it has started to climb in the last few years, reaching 5.4% in 2007. However, it is still lower than its record high of 6.3% recorded the previous year. Inflationary pressures continue in 2008 with inflation hitting 12% on the back of the full liberalization of oil prices in the domestic market which took place in early February 2008. It will also be affected by the general salary increases in the public sector and the escalation in food and metal prices in the international market. The government also raised the price of water and electricity. Data show that inflation in September of 2008 reached 20% year on year. Then, it slows down to reach 5.5% in 2011.

Both domestic and foreign factors have had a say in the rise in consumer prices in Jordan over the last five years. Rising international prices of food, oil and metals, as well as the weakening of the US dollar against other major currencies, were major external factors contributing to higher inflation rates, whereas expansionary fiscal and monetary policies were among the leading domestic factors.

This paper aims to explore the interaction monetary policy and fiscal policy in Jordan for the period 1990 – 2011, through investigation of the short-term and long-term relationship, and direction of causality among between supply of money (M2) as monetary policy, government expenditure (G) as fiscal policy and inflation (INF) as a result and cause of these policies.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides a brief review of literature. Section 3 shows model specification for the study. The methodology is introduced in Section 4, while Section 5 contains data description and empirical findings. Section 6 concludes the study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In economic literature, numerous models have been developed to analyze the long-run relationship among government expenditure, money supply and inflation. However, evidence from the empirical literature is mixed:-

Sulaiman D Mohammad, S Khurram Arslan Wasti, Irfan Lal and Adnan Hussain (2009) investigate long run relationship among M2, inflation, government expenditure impact and economic growth in case of Pakistan. Using Johnson co integration test to find out long run association and Granger causality test to find out bilateral and unilateral causality, based on annual data from 1977 to 2007. The finding shows that there is unidirectional causality running from public expenditure cause to money supply inflation, and bidirectional causality between money supply and inflation. This study lends support for the hypothesis that government expenditure causes monetary expansion and, therefore, leads to inflation. As well, Ignacio Lozano (2008) analyzed the evidence of the causal long-term relationship between government expenditure, money growth and inflation in Colombia considering the standard (M1), the narrowest (M0-Base) and the broadest (M3) definitions of money supply. Using a vector error correction (VEC) model with guarterly data over the last 25 years, the study found a close relationship between inflation and money growth on the one hand, and between money growth and fiscal deficit, on the other. Likewise, Agha and Khan (2006) examine the long-run relationship between inflation and fiscal indicators in Pakistan for the period 1973-2003. The empirical results, using Johansen co-integration analysis, indicate that in the long-run inflation is not only related to fiscal imbalances but also to the sources of fiscal deficit financing. The authors conclude that inflation in Pakistan is strongly affected by government's bank borrowing for budgetary support as well as fiscal deficits and, consequently, that fiscal policy is an important factor in explaining price movements. Also, the study by Catao and Terrones (2003) shows that there is a strong positive relationship between government expenditures and inflation among developing countries as well as countries characterized by high inflation, but not among advanced economies with low-inflation. Durevall and Ndung'u (2001), using a dynamic error correction model of inflation for Kenya, find that money supply affects prices only in the shortrun. Vieira (2000) investigates the relationship between fiscal deficit and inflation in the case of six major European economies. The results provide little support for the proposition that government expenditure has been an important contributing factor to inflation in these economies over the last 45 years. Similarly, De Haan and Zelhorst (1990) analyze the relationship between government expenditure and money growth in developing countries. The overall conclusion of this study does not provide much support for the hypothesis that government expenditure causes monetary expansion and, therefore, leads to inflation.

III. MODEL SPECIFICATIONS FOR THE STUDY

Using annual data from CBJ's database and IMF's database the present paper examines the relationship between government expenditure, money supply and inflation in Jordan, while our model will be:

$$NF_{t} = \alpha + \beta_{1}M2_{t} + \beta_{2}G_{t} + U_{t}$$
(1)

Where G_t is government expenditure, M2 is money supply and INF_t is inflation which is measured by consumer price index (CPI_t) while α and β are the coefficient to be estimated and the U_t is error term.

This can be reformulated to examine the link between government expenditure and other variables as follows:-

$$G_{t} = \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{1}M\boldsymbol{2}_{t} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2}INF_{t} + U_{t}$$
(2)

Taking the logarithm form of equation (1) will yield equation (3) below with "In" standing for the natural logarithm

$$InG_{t} = \alpha + \beta_{1}InM2_{t} + \beta_{2}InINF_{t} + U_{t}$$
(3)

IV. Econometric Methodology

The objective of this section is to examine the presence of interdependence and the direction of causality between government expenditure, money supply and inflation in Jordan.

In order to examine the relationship and the directions of causality between government expenditure, money supply and inflation in Jordan, a two-step procedure is adopted. The first step investigates the existence of a long-run relationship between the variables through a co-integration analysis. The second step explores the causal relationship between the series as follows:-

a) Long run relationship

We perform our investigation of existence of cointegration which clarifies the long run relationship between variables in two steps. First, we test for unit root vs. stationary. Then we test for no co-integration vs. cointegration.

b) Unit root test

The objective of unit root test to empirically examine whether a series contains a unit root. Since many macroeconomic series are non stationary (Nelson and Plosser 1982), unit root test are useful to determine the order of integration of the variables and, therefore, to provide the time-series properties of data. If the series contains a unit root, this means that the series is nonstationary. Otherwise, the series will be categorized as stationary. In order to implement a more rigorous test to verify the presence of a unit root in the series, an Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) is employed.

c) Co-integration test

Johansen and Juselius procedure is applied to test for the existence of co-integration. The Johansen technique enables us to test for the existence of non-unique co-integration relationships in more than two variables cases. Through Johansen procedure of co-integration two tests statistics are suggested to determine the number of co-integration vectors determined based on a likelihood ratio test (LR): the trace test ($\lambda_{\rm trace}$) and the maximum eigenvalues test statistics ($\lambda_{\rm max}$).

d) Granger-causality test

Pair wise causality relationship between variables should be tested through the implementation Granger causality test; Granger (1969), the concept of "causality" assumes a different meaning with respect to the more common use of the term. The statement(y) Granger causes (x) or vice versa, in fact, does not imply that (y) and (x) is the effect or the result of (y) and (x), but represents how much of the current (y) and (x) can be explained by the past values of (y) and (x) and whether adding lagged values of (y and x) can improve the explanation. For this reason, the causality relationship between (y and x) can be evaluated by estimating the following regressions:

$$\Delta Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{ii} \Delta Y_{i-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{2i} \Delta X_{i-i} + \varepsilon_{i}$$
(4)

$$\Delta X_{t} = \beta_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{\nu} \Delta Y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{2i} \Delta X_{t-i} + \mathcal{E}_{i} \quad (5)$$

Where (m and n) represents the lag length and should set equal to the longest time over which one series could reasonable help to predict the other.

Following this approach, the null hypothesis that (x) does not granger cause (y) in regression (4) and that (y) does not Granger cause (y) in regression (5) can be tested through the implementation of a simple F-test for the joint significance of, respectively, the parameters β 1i and β 2i. Following the equations (4) and (5) were estimated using four lags of each variable which should represent and adequate lag-length over which one series could help to predict the other.

The results of stationarity and cointegration tests determine how Granger-causality test should be applied, as follows:

If the variables (y) and (x) are stationary, the standard Granger-causality test should be carried out by estimating the following regressions:-

$$Y_{i} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i} Y_{i-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{2i} X_{i-i+} \mathcal{E}$$
(6)

$$X_{t} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{ii} Y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{2i} X_{t-i+} \mathcal{E}_{i}$$
(7)

If the variables (y) and (x) are non-stationary and integrated of order (1), but, they are not cointegrated, the Granger-causality test could be carried out by estimating regression models (4 and 5) using the first difference series of both variables (Yoo and Kwak, 2004). In general, if the origin series of both variables are non-stationary and the variables are not cointegrated, the Granger-causality test could be performed by using the same order of integration for both series, and reforming model (5 and 6) to suit the order of difference series.

In model (4 and 6), (Y) is caused by past values of both (Y) and (X). Likewise, in model (5 and 7), (X) is caused by past values of the two variables. According to Granger, (X) causes (Y) in model (4 and 6) if (β 2i) is significant from zero, and that (Y) causes (X) in model (5 and 7) if (β 1i) is significant from zero. On other hand, (X) does not cause (Y) if (β 2i) in model (4 and 6) is insignificant from zero, and that (Y) does not cause (X) if (β 1i) in model (5 and 7) is insignificant from zero. These hypotheses can be verified depending on the joint significance of the parameters (β 1i, β 2i) which can be tested through the implementation of a simple F-test.

If the variables (Y) and (X) are non-stationary, integrated of the same order (d), and co-integrated which means that they have a long-run equilibrium relationship, the Granger-causality test should be carried out through estimating Error Correction Model (VECM) which could have the following form:

$$\Delta Y_{i} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{\perp} \Delta Y_{i-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{2i} \Delta X_{i-i} + \beta_{3} \eta_{i-1} + \varepsilon_{i}$$
(8)

$$\Delta X_{i} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i} \Delta X_{i-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{2i} \Delta Y_{i-i} + \beta_{3} \eta_{i-1} + \varepsilon_{i}$$
(9)

Where $(\eta_{t^{-1}})$ is error-correction term. The error correction term $(\eta_{t^{-1}})$ is the lagged value of the residuals from the OLS regression of Y_t on X_t in (8), and the lagged value of the residuals from the OLS regression of X_t on Y_t in (9). In (8) and (9), ΔY_t , ΔX_t and \mathcal{E} i are stationary, implying that their right-hand side must also be stationary. It is obvious that (8) and (9) compose a bivariate VAR in first differences augmented by the error-correction terms $(\eta_{t^{-1}})$, indicating that ECM model and co-integration are equivalent representations.

According to Granger (1969; 1988), in a cointegrated system of two series expressed by ECM representation causality must run in at least one way. Within the ECM equation (8), (X_t) does not Granger cause (Y_t) if all $\beta 2i = 0$ and $\beta 3 = 0$. Equivalently, in

equation (9) (Y_t) does not Granger cause (X_t) if all β 2i = 0 and β 3 = 0. Also, (β 3s) the parameters of the error correction term indicate the speed of adjustment of any short-run disequilibrium towards a long-run equilibrium between both variables.

The Granger-causality could be claimed if the parameters (β 2i and β 3) in (8) and, or (β 2i and β 3) in (9) are jointly significant from zero which can be tested by a simple F-test. Similarly, Long-run causality could be claimed if (β 3) the parameter of the error correction term in (8 or 9) is statistically significant which can be tested by t-test.

What have been mentioned above clarifies that testing of stationary then co-integration are an essential requirements which determine how we do Grangercausality test.

Finally, as co-integration, causality tests and VECM model are sensitive to lag length (m) the choice of the number of lag actually employed was assigned to

LR: sequential modified LR test statistic (each test at 5% level).

V. Estimation and Interpretation of Results

This study uses annual observations for the period 1990-2011 for three variables: government expenditure (G), money supply (M2) and inflation (consumer price index (CPI)) in order to analyze the possibility of co-integration and causality relationship among them.

a) Unit root test

The first step in analysis is to test the unit roots in each variable. Consequently, we apply augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root test on logarithms of G, M2 and INF (LG, LM2 and LINF). From the results of the ADF test presented in Table 1.

Series	With intercept	With intercept and trend	Decision	Order of integration
Levels	ADF	ADF		
LG	-1.418137 [-3.012363]	-1.100418 [-3.644963]	Not stationary	-
LM2	0.722843 [-3.012363]	-0.773098 [-3.644963]	Not stationary	-
LINF	-0.030729 [-3.012363]	-1.361985 [-3.644963]	Not stationary	-
First difference				
ΔLG	-4.140659* [-3.020686]	-4.865945* [-3.658446]	stationary	l(1)
ΔLM2	-3.190892* [-3.020686]	-3.622737 [-3.658446]	stationary	l(1)
ΔLINF	-4.834829* [-3.020686]	-4.862575* [-3.658446]	stationary	l(1)

Table 1 : Unit Root Tests

- Note: * test critical values which denotes significant at 5% level.

The number in parenthesis is the [t] statistic value.

As a sum up, (LG, LM2 and LINF) are stationaries in the first difference. This implies that all the series are integrated of order one I(1). This making co-integration tests relevant.

b) Testing Co-integration and Error Correction mechanism

Since the first difference series are stationary, Let us examine the existence of co-integration between

variables on bivariate bases. Johansen-Juselius procedure is used to test for co-integration between variables. Tables 3-1,3-2,3-3 reports the results obtained from the co-integration tests and presents the result of

the trace test (λ trace) and maximum eigenvalues test (λ max) statistics for the evidence of long run

 λ max) statistics for the existence of long run equilibrium between the variables:

Null Hypothesis	$\lambda_{ ext{trace}}$	$\lambda_{_{ m max}}$			
r=0	11.49574	10.38150			
	[15.49471]	[14.26460]			
$r \leq 1$	1.114242 [3.841466]	1.114242 [3.841466]			

Table 3-1 : Co-integration test: (LG↔LM2)

- *terms in [] indicates 5% level critical value.
The null hypothesis of no Cointegration (r=0) based on both the trace test and the maximum eigenvalues test between government expenditure (LG) and money supply (LM2) could not be rejected at (5%)

level of significance. The estimated tests indicate that there is no Cointegration vector between the two variables.

Null Hypothesis	$\lambda_{ ext{trace}}$	$\lambda_{_{ m max}}$
r=0	16.87893	14.40104
	[15.49471]	[14.26460]
$r \leq 1$	2.477893	2.477893
1 - 1	[3.841466]	[3.841466]

	Table	3-2:	Co-integration	test:	(LG↔LINF
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- *terms in [] indicates 5% level critical value.

The null hypothesis of no Cointegration (r=0) based on both the trace test and the maximum eigenvalues test between government expenditure (LG) and inflation (LINF) is rejected at (5%) level of

significance. However, the null hypothesis that $(r \le 1)$ could not be rejected. The estimated tests indicate that there is only one Cointegration vector between the two variables.

Null Hypothesis	$\lambda_{ ext{trace}}$	$\lambda_{_{ m max}}$
r=0	10.12480	8.948506
	[15.49471]	[14.26460]
$r \leq 1$	1.176294	1.176294
1 - 1	[3.841466]	[3.841466]

Table 3-3 : Co-integration test: $(LM2 \leftrightarrow LINF)$

- *terms in [] indicates 5% level critical value.

The null hypothesis of no Cointegration (r=0) based on both the trace test and the maximum eigenvalues test between money supply (LM2) and inflation (LINF) could not be rejected at (5%) level of significance. The estimated tests indicate that there is no Cointegration vector between the two variables.

c) Causality test

Now we can turn our attention to the question of direction of causality. It contains three elements: (a) does government expenditure cause money supply, or does money supply cause government expenditure? (b) Does money supply cause inflation, or does inflation cause money supply? And (c) does government expenditure cause inflation, or does inflation cause government expenditure?

As the variables (LG) and (LINF) are nonstationary at level, integrated of the same order (d), and co-integrated, the Granger-causality test is carried out through estimating Vector Error Correction Model (VECM). Table 4-1 shows the findings of VECM for both variables government expenditure (LG) and inflation (LINF):-

Table 4-1 : Vector Error Correction Model.(LG↔LINF)

Regression	ΔLG	ΔLINF
CONSTANT	0.066760 [1.94392]	0.048762 [4.34105]
Error Correction Term (η_{r-1})	-0.173714 [-0.74059]	-0.225798 [-2.94314]
ΔLG ₋₁	0.006863 [0.02267]	-0.023081 [-0.23311]
ΔLINF.1	0.390044 [0.62228]	-0.225798 [-1.52933]
R ²	0.045572	0.469093
S.E	0.075045	0.024546

- *terms in [] are t – statistics.

The lagged error term coefficient (η_{r-1}) in (LG) equation is negative and statistically insignificant. Likewise, the lagged error term coefficient (η_{r-1}) in (LINF) equation is positive and statistically significant. These results indicate that there is no long-run equilibrium relationship between the variables government expenditure and inflation Furthermore, the estimates of the VECM does not support the existence of causation relationship in the short run between them.

Then, the existence of Granger-causality between government expenditure (LG) and money supply (LM2) are investigated by estimating regression models (4 and 5) using the first difference series of each variable. Since, they are non-stationary at level and integrated of order (1), but, they are not co-integrated. Table 4-2 shows the results of estimation:

Table 4-2 : Granger-causality test	(LG↔LM2)
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Regression	Lag	F-statistics	P-Value	Granger-causality
Δ LG on Δ LM2 Null hypothesis: Δ LM2 does not granger cause Δ LG	1	0.63976	0.4348	NO
Δ LM2 on Δ LG Null hypothesis: Δ LG does not granger cause Δ LM2	1	1.40816	0.2517	NO

The results of Granger-causality test in Table 4-2 reveal that there is no causation between government expenditure (Δ LG) and money supply (Δ LM2).

Similarly, the existence of Granger-causality between money supply (LM2) and inflation (LINF) are

investigated by estimating regression models (4 and 5) using the first difference series of each variable. Since, they are non-stationary at level and integrated of order (1), but, they are not co-integrated. Table 4-3 shows the results of estimation:

Regression	Lag	F-statistics	P-Value	Granger-causality
Δ LM2 on Δ LINF Null hypothesis: Δ LINF does not granger cause Δ LM2	1	0.25069	0.6230	NO
Δ LINF on Δ LM2 Null hypothesis: Δ LM2 does not granger cause Δ LINF	1	0.19143	0.6672	NO

Table 4-3 : Granger-causality test (LG \leftrightarrow LM2)

The results of Granger-causality test in Table 4-3 reveal that there is no causation between money supply (LM2) and inflation (LINF).

The findings of Granger-causality test and VECM reveal that there is no significant direct interaction between government expenditure as fiscal policy and money supply as monetary policy or indirect interaction through inflation among them.

VI. CONCLUSION

In the last three decades Jordan has been suffering from serious Economic deformations, which includes chronic deficits in the budget and trade account, high level of unemployment and public debt. This highlights the need of efficient fiscal and monetary policies to tackle these problems and to achieve economic stabilization. The interaction between fiscal and monetary policies and the different agencies responsible for implementation of these policies imply there are no exclusive effective fiscal and monetary measurements for dealing with these deformations, given that each policy has its own supporters. So, most countries have been adopting monetary policy, fiscal policy, or a mix of both policies to tackle their economic problems.

In Jordan, notions imply that expansionary fiscal and monetary policies were crucial domestic factors in rise in consumer prices in the country over the last two decades .whereas, raising international prices of food, oil and metals, as well as the weakening of the US dollar against other major currencies, were major external factors contributing to higher inflation rates in Jordan.

Based on annual data covering the period 1990-2011for Jordan. This study has used Grangercausality, cointegration and VECM techniques to investigate short-run and long-run relationships also the directions of causality between government expenditure as fiscal policy, money supply which belongs to monetary policy and inflation which is mainly induced by money supply and affects government expenditure and vice versa.

The estimation of cointegration, Grangercausality and VECM tests reveal that there is no significant direct interaction between government expenditure as fiscal policy and money supply as monetary policy or indirect interaction through inflation among them. This study does not provide much support for the hypothesis that government expenditure causes monetary expansion and, therefore, leads to inflation or vice versa. Which confirm the findings of De Haan and Zelhorst (1990) and Vieira (2000).

The study suggests that policies makers should considered these findings while designing the fiscal and monetary policies to deal with the economic problem, and pay attention to others factors which induce inflation especially the external factors mainly international prices of food and oil.

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Stock Market Anomalies: Case of Calendar Effects on the Tunisian Stock Market

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Abstract- The aim of this work is to analyze the effect of financial market anomalies, specifically calendar anomalies, on the behavior of financial investors in terms of decisions and profit. Analyzed in the context of Tunisian financial market into two periods; with two different political regimes, this work examines four calendar effects, which are the weekend effect, the end of the month effect, the January effect and Ramadhan one, contrary to previous studies that have focused on a single effect.

Keywords: stock market, garch, financial sector sensitivity.

GJMBR - B Classification : JEL Code: H54



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Stock Market Anomalies: Case of Calendar Effects on the Tunisian Stock Market

Jihen Jbenieni Gouider^a, Amira Kaddour^a & Azza Hmaid^e

Abstract- The aim of this work is to analyze the effect of financial market anomalies, specifically calendar anomalies, on the behavior of financial investors in terms of decisions and profit. Analyzed in the context of Tunisian financial market into two periods; with two different political regimes, this work examines four calendar effects, which are the weekend effect, the end of the month effect, the January effect and Ramadhan one, contrary to previous studies that have focused on a single effect. The results of the empirical approach analyzing the stock market returns using Tunindex to determine whether there anomalies calendar on the Tunisian market, based on a GARCH specification showed that most of the anomalies exist on the Tunisian stock market; the weekend effect was determined, there is a yield variation between the beginning of the week (low and negative returns) and the end of the week; this variation is affected in terms of significance between the two periods under different political regimes. The effect of the holy month is twice higher than the rest of the year.

Keywords: stock market, garch, financial sector sensitivity.

I. INTRODUCTION

n era of behavioural finance, moral hazard and asymmetry of information, financial market seems to be affected by different subjective and non financial factors. In the case of this work we try to assess the impact of such elements on the financial market, specifically, calendar anomalies' effect on the stock market. In fact Kuhn (1970) initiated the term anomaly in the field of finance; in this case financial anomalies are factors far away from any central paradigm or theory. Fama (1970) presented the theory of weak form market efficiency, suggesting the limit of financial efficiency. (2003)highlighted through empirical Schwert investigation that these elements don't hold up over different sample period. Israel and Moskowitz (2011) using an analysis on US equity over 86 years and, international equity and assets, over 40 years, showed that trading costs or institutional and hedge fund affect significantly size, ownership, value, and momentum returns. Latif and al (2011) analysed market

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efficiency and its relevance to the different types of market anomalies, they stipulated that there is a consistent effect of these later on the market returns, the effect can be from oneperiod to other or constant over time.

Market anomalies are many; researches on this field had presented different types; we found fundamental anomalies, technical anomalies and calendar anomalies. These later are subject of our investigation.

In fact Hansen and Lunde (2003) tested the significance of this specific types, they assess, using of full universe sample, a significant effect on returns. Lim and Chia (2010) evaluated the weak form market efficiency, on the basis of 5 Asian stock market, they found different results from one market to an other; evidence of standard effect is not available. Khan and al (2012) investigated the effect of calendar anomalies on the case of Karachi stock exchange; results showed an impact on daily return and a little effect on month's one.

II. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this paper is to analyse the evidence of calendar effect on Tunisian Stock market, for this end we use the following elements:

a) Period

From 02 January 2006, to 31 July 2013. This period encompasses the Tunisian revolution that led to the closure of the stock market for two weeks. We have a total of 1875 observations, after elimination of weekends and holidays.

This period is divided into two periods: the period before the revolution (2006-2010) and period after the revolution (2011-2013), in order to mitigate the availability of investigated calendar effect on these two periods.

b) Data

The data collected for our empirical study are daily data consisting Tunisian Stock Market Index TUNINDEX closing price. Tunindex is the main index of Tunis stock market; it is composed of fifty main market capitalization of the country. During our sample period, more precisely since 02/01/2009, the index Tunindex changed its method of calculation.

Indeed, it is not weighted by market capitalization but by floating capitalization.

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This calculation method, already used by other major indices around the world, will ensure greater coherence between the stock market reality of companies and its translation in the indices. These data allowed us to calculate the daily performance that will be our dependent variable of the model.

Dependent variable: Performance

The daily performance of the index represents the dependent variable. The daily yield is calculated as the percentage of the logarithmic change in the retarded value of the index.

Rt = ln (vt / vt-1) * 100

With:

Vt is the Tunindex value of the day t.

Vt-1 is the lag value of Tunindex du day (t-1).

The monthly return, it is calculated as the geometric mean of the daily returns.

Independent variables: The explanatory variables will be classified according to the studied calendar effect:

 Weekend effect: we have five dummy explanatory variables that correspond to each day of the week: D1, D2, D3, D4, D5.

D1 = 1 if day t is a Monday, and 0 otherwise.

- The month's end effect: one explanatory variable dummy DTOM this period contains five

days prior to the first day of the month and five days after, as follows:

DTOM = 1 if day t belongs to the period of the month's end, and 0 otherwise.

- The January's effect: there are 12 dummy variables for each month of the year: D1, D2...D12.

D1 = 1 if the month is january, and 0 otherwise.

- The Ramadan effect: one dummy explanatory variable DRAM, which is the period of the

month of Ramadhan (30 or 29 days).

DRAM, = 1 if we are in the month of Ramadhan, and 0 otherwise.

c) Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics of daily returns of Tunindex. The total number of observations is 1875. The average yield is positive (0.03699). The standard deviation is equal to (0.5215). The series has a negative Skewess (-0.6848), which is usually typical for all stock returns. A negative Skewess implies a higher probability of generating a negative return over a symmetric distribution. Similarly, the series displays a high Kurtosis, which means that the distribution is leptokurtic (distribution that rises high enough then falls relatively abruptly), with a value that is six times greater than the reference value of a normal distribution which is equal to 3. The series shows positive returns in 1055 times and 820 negative returns during the entire study period. We present in Figure 4, the daily values of Tunindex and stock performance of the index during the period 02/01/2006 - 31/07/2013.

During the first years of the sample period, the Tunisian stock market was relatively stable. Then there was a period of rapid growth of Tunindex which peaked during the period December 2010-January 2011. The daily yields were stable at the beginning of the sample period, but they have experienced greater volatility at the end of 2010 to reach negative values with the end of the period (year 2013). This high volatility during the year 2011 can be explained by the Tunisian revolution.

i. Weekend effect

Table 2 shows the average daily returns for each of the five days of the week. The table shows that the only day that displays a negative return is Tuesday, (-0.0036), then Monday with a weak value equal to (0.0158). In contrast, the average return on Friday is positive and important equal to (0.1387). This proves that most of the cumulative average returns are generated during the second half of the week, from Wednesday to Friday.

Moreover, the volatility of returns (std. Dev) is important at the beginning of the week, especially on Monday and it decreases to its lowest level on Friday.

These results may indicate that the weekend effect is present in the Tunisian stock market but it occurs more precisely on Tuesday. Thus, we can clearly understand that the weak and negative returns occur during the first part of the week (Monday to Tuesday) and positive returns during the second part of the week (Wednesday to Friday).

ii. The month's end effect

Table 3 and 4 show that, the average yield during the first week of the month (0.0931) is higher than the other weeks of the month and twice high. Similarly, the number of positive returns during the period the month's end is 1.5 higher than the number of negative returns.

We can conclude that there is an end of the month effect on the Tunisian stock market.

iii. The January's effect

Many previous studies have verified the presence of end of year's effect, also known as the effect of January. According to this, the stock returns are higher in January compared to other months of the year. Table 5 and 6 show the average monthly returns for each of the 12 months of the year. As we can see, the average yield of January is positive but it is not the highest. On the other hand, we can also notice seasonality in months; the variances of January and February are higher compared to the rest of the month. We can therefore conclude that there is a January effect on the Tunisian stock market appearing during the first part of the month.

iv. The Ramadan effect

Several studies have shown that market activity increases during the month of Ramadan in Arab countries, and yields during this month are higher compared to other months. Indeed, from Table 7 shows that the average yield for the month of Ramadan is twice as high as the rest of the year. This effect can be explained by the change in the social mood. Indeed, during the holy month investors tend to be more optimistic that affects their investment decisions. To better study this effect, we have scaled the month of Ramadan in three dozen days, see Table 8.

We note that the performance of the first ten days is significantly higher than the rest of the month. As against, the lower yield has occurred during the second decade of the month. This reconfirms the existence of Ramadan effect on the Tunisian stock market.

d) Estimation

We empirically analyze the four effects and their impact on the dynamics of financial markets and investor decisions. The Ramadan effect was not treated well at the previous empirical studies due to lack of data. To achieve our aim, we will study these effects on the whole chosen period from 02/01/2006 until 31/07/2013 then we'll divide it into two periods:

- Before the Tunisian Revolution (02/01/2006 13/01/2011)
- After the Tunisian revolution (14/01/2011 31/07/2013).

This comparison of the two periods will allow us to check whether the anomalies detected before the revolution still exist after the revolution and vis-versa, and see if the behavior of investors after the revolution has an impact on changes in share prices on the Tunisian market.

Most previous studies on the calendar anomalies have used the model of ordinary least squares (OLS) using dummy variables as proxy for abnormalities. Using conventional MCO in this manner can have two major drawbacks. First, the error term can cause a problem autocorrelation and heteroscedasticity. Second, the variance of the error term may not be constant in time. Both disadvantages can invalidate the assumptions of the OLS estimate.

Given these concerns, we will use the model autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity, GARCH (1,1), to test the effects. ARCH models were first proposed by Engle (1982), they are widely used in financial modeling of time series with an instantaneous volatility timedependent.

The ARCH model was, subsequently generalized by Bollerslev (1986) to propose the GARCH model. Most studies use the GARCH (1, 1) model which allows a general representation of processes of conditional volatility.

i. The weekend effect

To test for the weekend effect on the Tunisian stock market, the GARCH (p, q) has the following form:

$$\mathbf{R}_{t} = \mathbf{a}_{1} \mathbf{D}_{1t} + \mathbf{a}_{2} \mathbf{D}_{2t} + \mathbf{a}_{3} \mathbf{D}_{3t} + \mathbf{a}_{4} \mathbf{D}_{4t} + \mathbf{a}_{5} \mathbf{D}_{5t} + \lambda \sigma^{2} + \varepsilon_{t}$$
Where $\sigma^{2}_{t} = \theta_{0} + \varepsilon^{2}_{t=1} \theta_{i} \varepsilon^{2}_{t-1} + \varepsilon^{2}_{t=1} \phi_{i} \sigma^{2}_{t-i}$

From this equation, we can deduce the GARCH (1,1) that we will use in the following:

$$\sigma^2_{t} = \theta_0 + \theta \ \epsilon^2_{t-1} + \phi \ \sigma^2_{t-1}$$

Whith:

R_t: return on day t

 a_t : the average yield for each day of the week

D_{it} : dummy variable for the 5 days of the week

 σ^2 : the conditional variance of the GARCH (1,1)

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\varphi}:$ terms which represent the ARCH and GARCH effect with

 $0 \le \theta, \varphi \le 1$ and $(\theta + \varphi) < 1$

 $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{t}$: the error term.

The null hypothesis and the alternative can be expressed as follows:

H0: a1 = a2 = a3 = a4 = a5 = 0.

H1: at least two coefficients are different from zero.

The rejection of the null hypothesis implies that the average daily returns (at) are significantly different from each other. It follows that there is seasonality in daily returns between the different days of the week.

In this context, we postulate the following hypothesis:

Hyp1: There is a weekend effect on the Tunisian stock market.

ii. End of the month Effect

To examine the effect of the end of the month, the same form of the GARCH (1, 1) will be maintained:

$$\mathbf{R}_t = \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{D}_{TOM} + \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{D}_{RM} + \mathbf{a}_3 \sigma^2 + \varepsilon_t$$

With:

Rt: return on day t

a1: the average return period of rest of the month

 a_2 : the average return of the late period of the month

 D_{TOM} : dummy variable which corresponds to the end of the period of the month

 D_{RM} dummy variable corresponding to the period of the rest of the month

 $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{t}$: the error term.

The null hypothesis and the alternative may be as follows

H0: a1 = a2 = 0

H1: a1 and a2 are different from zero.

The rejection of the null hypothesis implies that the average yield for the end of the period of the month and the rest of the month are significantly different which proves that there is end the month's effect on the Tunisian stock market.

Since there is no consensus on the definition of a specific window for the end of period, we will choose a window [-5, 5] and study the average returns of the index of the month on this interval. Therefore, on day -1 is the last trading day of the month, day 1 is the first trading day of the month, day 2 is the second trading day of the month and so on.

In this context, we will test the following hypothesis:

Hyp 2: There is an anomaly in end of the month on the Tunisian stock market.

iii. January Effect

To test for the January effect the GARCH (1, 1) model has the following form:

$\mathbf{R}_{t} = \mathbf{a}_{1}\mathbf{D}_{1} + \mathbf{a}_{2}\mathbf{D}_{2} + \dots + \mathbf{a}_{12}\mathbf{D}_{12} + \mathbf{a}_{13} \,\sigma^{2} + \varepsilon_{t}$

Rt: the monthly return in month t

at: the average return in month t

 $\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{t}}\!\!:$ dummy variables corresponding to the twelve months of the year

 $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{t}$: the error term.

We considered the following hypothesis:

H0: a1 = a2 = ... = a12 = 0.

H1: At least two coefficients are different from zero.

The rejection of the null hypothesis implies that the average monthly returns (at) are significantly different from each other. It follows that there is seasonality in monthly returns.

In this case, we will apply the following hypothesis:

Hyp 3: There is seasonality in monthly returns.

Ramadan effect

To test the presence of Ramadan effect, we will estimate the following model:

$\mathbf{R}_{t} = \mathbf{a}_{1} \mathbf{D}_{RA} + \mathbf{a}_{2} \mathbf{D}_{RAM} + \mathbf{a}_{3} \sigma^{2} + \varepsilon_{t}$

With:

R_t: appropriate return on day t

 a_1 : the average return period of rest of the year

 a_2 : the average return for the month of Ramadan

 D_{RAM} dummy variable corresponding to the period of the month of Ramadan

 $\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{RA}}\!\!:$ dummy variable that corresponds to the off Ramadan (rest of the year)

 $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{t}$: the error term.

The null hypothesis and the alternative are as follows:

H0: a1 = a2 = 0

H1: a1 and a2 are different from zero

The rejection of the hypothesis means that the average return for the month of Ramadan and the rest of the year are significantly different; It follows that there is a significant Ramadan effect.

In this context, we will test the following hypothesis:

Hyp 4: There is a Ramadan effect on the Tunisian stock market.

iv. Stationarity test

A series is said to be stationary when its mean and variance are constant over time, that is to say, when there is no significant temporal variation. To test the stationarity of our time series, we will resort to increased Dickey Fuller test.

The assumptions of the test, are defined as follows:

H0: The series is non-stationary. The process admits a unit root.

H1: The series is stationary. The process follows an AR (1) does not admit a unit root.

This test involves estimating the following three models:

-
$$\Delta Y t = a Y_{t-1} + b + ct + \varepsilon_t$$

$$- \Delta Y t = a Y_{t-1} + b + \varepsilon_t$$

$$- \Delta Y t = a Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

In our case, the results of the first test model are shown in Table 9. The value of the ADF test is less than the critical value and the p-value is less than 5%, which excludes the hypothesis of the existence of a unit root. We note that the trend was significant (p-value <5%). Therefore, we will differentiate the series and repeat the same test.

The results obtained are shown in Table 10. After differentiated the series once, the lack of a unit root is maintained and the trend became non-significant (p value> 5%). This proves that the series of performance is integrated of order 1 and shows no significant trend.

v. Heteroscedasticity test errors

This test is used to check if the error variance is constant for each case, which means that the error variances are constant on the first diagonal. The test assumptions are:

H0: $V(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{it}) = \sigma^2$ H1: $V(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{it}) \neq \sigma^2$

If the p-value ${<}5\%$ then the error term is said heteroscedastic.

The results of the Breusch-Pagan test are shown in Table 11. The value of the p-value is less than

5% then we conclude that the error term is heteroscedastic.

vi. Autocorrelation error test

We are in the presence of autocorrelation in errors when errors are bound by a reproduction process. To detect this problem, you have to use a residue analysis. The test for checking the presence of error autocorrelation is the Durbin Watson.

The corresponding test assumptions are:

H0 : *P* = 0

H1 : **µ ≢ 9**

The results of the Durbin Watson test are reported in the Table 12. The value of the p-value is less than 5%, which verifies the existence of autocorrelation of errors.

III. Results

a) The weekend effect

The estimation's results of the first model are reported in Table 13, show that the average yield for the five days of the week for the period before the Revolution (02/01/2006 until 13/01/2011) and the period after the revolution (14/01/2011 to 31/07/2013) and for the entire study period. The results show that there is seasonality in average yields. Thus, it appears that the average yields are significantly different depending on week' days.

For the entire period, average yields are all negative except returns on Friday, which are the only positive and high (0.1328). The lowest yields occur during the first part of the week and they increase during the second. The lowest average yield is the Tuesday (-0.1253). As expected returns on Monday seem to be consistently low over the three periods, involving evidence of an effect of Monday, in the Tunisian stock market. Otherwise, average yields from Friday through periods seem to be the highest, suggesting the presence of a Friday effect.

Thus, for the period before the revolution, average yields are all negative except Friday, the lowest significant returns occur on Monday and Tuesday (-0.1303 -0.1871 and) from wednesday the average yield increases to 0.1789 on Friday, which is the highest level of the week. Therefore, we can confirm the presence of a weekend effect on the Tunisian market during this period.

However the results in the context of the second sub-period (after Revolution) show that there is no significant associations between changes in stock returns and day of the week in the case of our sample. Indeed, we can notice that the daily average yields of the week are not significant, they are negative on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday and Friday positive. We can suggest that the disappearance of daily anomalies after the revolution can be caused by pessimism and skepticism of investors during the severe recession of the market (after the revolution).

We can therefore conclude that there is a Monday and Friday effect on the Tunisian stock market for the entire period, which affirms the hypothesis of the presence of a weekend effect on the Tunisian stock market during these times. For the post revolution period, there is disappearance of daily anomalies.

These results are similar to results found in most previous studies especially those found by *Mehdianb and Stoica (2012)* on the Romanian market.

b) The month's end effect

Table 14 presents the average yields of the month's end period and the period of rest of the month. Let us recall that we chose the window [-5, 5] to the end of the month.

Table 14 presents the average returns of the month's end period and the rest of the month and that for the entire study period and the two sub-periods. First, we can notice that the return for the end of the month is statistically significant, positive and higher, whereas the return of the rest of the month is significantly negative for the period of (2006-2013).

Same conclusion for the period before the revolution, average yields are significant, the return of the end of the month is much higher, it is positive 0.1056 while the yield of the rest of the month is negative (-0.0641). In the case of the second sub-period, average yields are no longer significant; they became weak and even negative for the end of period.

For this, we can say for the whole sample period and for the first sub-period the existence of an end of month effect is statistically significant. Whereas on the second sub-period, we have not detected an effect of month's end, average yields are no longer significant, this can be explained by the lack of investor confidence and the recession that the Tunisian stock market known after the revolution.

c) The January's effect

Table 15 shows the average monthly returns. For the entire period, significant returns are those January, February, April, August, and September. The highest yield is in January (0.1235). The end of year returns (November, December) are the only negative but they arenot significant. This proves the existence of a January effect on the Tunisian stock market for the total period of the sample.

The same conclusion can be deduced from the second column of the table. Significant average yields are those of January, April, August, September and October. The highest yields are from January and September. So we can conclude that there is an effect January on the Tunisian stock market during this period. Regarding the second sub-period, we can notice that all means returns are statistically insignificant except for the return of the month of March, which invalidates the hypothesis of the existence of a January effect on the Tunisian stock market after the revolution.

In conclusion, the results in Table 15 prove the existence of a January effect on the Tunisian market during the entire period of the sample and the first subperiod. We can also note that, apart from the month of January, the months of August and September have high significant returns. Therefore, we suggest the existence of a Holiday effect on the Tunisian stock market.

On the other hand, and as in the case of daily returns, after the revolution all returns have become weaker and not significant. We can explain this by the lack of investors and prudence.

d) The Ramadan effect

Table 16 shows the average yields of the month of Ramadan and the rest of the year. The study of the entire period allowed us to record a significantly higher average performance during the month of Ramadan (0.0892) against a negative return for the rest of the year (- 0.0432). We therefore confirm the existence of Ramadan effect on the Tunisian market.

In line with the results already interpreted the pre-revolution period registered an average yield of 0.1085 during the month of Ramadan, which is statistically significant Whereas a significant average yield of 0.0562 for the rest of the year. The return of the month of Ramadan is 2 times higher than those of the off-Ramadan. In contrast, the second sub-period was marked by low and insignificant average return for the month of Ramadan and the rest of the year. Which excludes, the existence of Ramadan effect during this period (post-Revolution).

From Table 16, we confirm the hypothesis of the existence of Ramadan effect on the Tunisian stock market during the entire period and the first sub-period. By Wherease, during the second sub-period, returns are not significant which invalidates our hypothesis for this period.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results found allowed us to confirm the four assumptions. This means that there are on the Tunisian stock market the four expected effects.

The results found for the weekend effect is similar to the majority of the results of previous studies. Thus, many studies have shown the negative and low yields during the first half of the week (Monday and Tuesday) and high yields in the second. Lower yields and high volatility on Monday means that investors are prudent to take positions during the first day of the week when investor expectations are still not clear after the weekend.

It seems that this is consistent with the hypothesis of the closing of the market, French (1980). Also, low yields on Monday may be explained by the

lack of liquidity and market information after the weekend. This lack of information leads investors to avoid taking decisions on Mondays. The upward trend of the return on the Tunisian stock market confirms that the yield increases when more public information reaches the market during the week. This explains the low yield of Monday, and high performance on Friday.

The second proven effect on the Tunisian market is the end of the month effect seems to be similar to existing literature. In addition to important and positive returns during the month's end, we found a concentration of returns around the first ten days of the month. It was found that the first ten days of the month have higher average returns than the rest of the month.

The covering of balance sheets and the rebalancing of portfolios at the end of each month seem to explain the effect of the end of the month. Thus, the reason behind this trend may be cognitive beliefs of investors related to news of the coming months. With the start of the new month, investors are starting to buy in hoping to achieve more profit on the basis of new information which explains the high yields from the beginning of the month.

The third anomaly detected on the Tunisian stock market is January's effect. Thus we find significant returns higher during the month of January compared to other months. This result is in line with previous studies although a number of them confirm the absence of this anomaly in some markets. In the case of the Tunisian stock market, it seems that the assumption of covering balance sheets, portfolio rebalancing and the lack of information with the beginning of the year could explain as this anomaly. Thus, investors tend to buy at the beginning of the year and hope to earn more profit during the months when the information about the new year increase more and more. The hypothesis of investor sentiment could also explain the January effect. In fact, investors tend to be optimistic and in good spirits with the beginning of the year, which affects their investment decisions by purchasing securities during the period of January.

The last effect studied is that of Ramadan. By studying the average yields of the holy month and the rest of the year, we noticed that the average return for the month of Ramadan is much higher. This result is similar to the results of Redhead and Rodgers (2011) who studied the existence of this anomaly in Middle Eastern markets (Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Turkey). They find a significant and positive effect on Ramadan most of the markets.

This anomaly can be explained by the positive mood that exists throughout the month of Ramadan. The result that we found through these calendar anomalies, stipulate important implications for investors. The existence of these anomalies on the Tunisian stock market is against the principle of efficiency of financial markets because it can generate abnormal economic profits to investors by taking account of these anomalies.

All these anomalies and their effects on stock returns and volatility could allow investors to take advantage of price changes that are relatively regular, designing investment strategies representing predictable patterns. Also the presence of these anomalies can provide fund managers the ability for timing optimal decisions based on changes in daily and monthly price.

V. CONCLUSION

Through this paper, we examined the stock returns of Tunindex to verify the existence of calendar anomalies on the Tunisian market. The results show, for the sample period, the weak and negative returns during the first part of the week (Monday and Tuesday), and positive and high yields during the second half of the week (Wednesday, Thursday and Friday). The highest and the positive performance only occurs on Friday. This proves the existence of a weekend effect on the Tunisian market.

Regarding the sub-period first (before revolution), the effect Monday has disappeared because Monday and Tuesday returns are not significant. The yields of the second part of the week are always significant and high, and the highest yield was recorded on Friday. For post-revolution period, the yields are not significant. Next, we examined the effect of the end of the month and have found, for the entire period and for the pre-revolution period of end of the month is much higher than the rest of the month. It is almost 2.5 times greater. So, we can say that there is in fact end the month effect on the Tunisian market. As the case of daily returns, we are seeing non-significant returns during the period after the revolution.

Another effect has been studied is the effect of January. By examining the average yields of each month, we did not detect a significant effect on of January in the Tunisian market. In fact and in the three periods, the majority of returns are not significant, significant yields and the higher occur in the months of April, August and September. We have suggested the existence of a significant in fact Holiday.

Finally, we studied the existence of the Ramadan effect. From the results, we found a significant effect Ramadan; In fact the average yield of the holy month is twice as high as the rest of the year. This is valid for the entire period and the period before revolution. For the second sub-period, yields still not significant.

These results show, in general, the existence calendar anomalies on the Tunisian stock market. Most of the anomalies can be explained by the combination of various factors such as the suspension of trading during the weekend, portfolio rebalancing, the time of the publication of information and investor sentiment. On the other hand, we can also deduce results found high volatility and lower stock returns after the revolution, which led to the disappearance of anomalies on the Tunisian market. This phenomenon can be explained by the uncertainty and lack of confidence among investors under the new country's situation.

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Appendix

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of daily returns over the entire study period

Statistics	value
Mean	0,03699
Std	0,5215
Skewness	-0,6848
Kurtosis	20,0215
Min (%)	-5.0037
Max (%)	4.1086
Positive returns	1055
Negative returns	820
Nbr of observation	1875



Figure 1: (a) and (b) Daily Values Tunindex, and stock performance of the index during the period 02/01/2006 -31/07/2013

	Mond	Tues	Wedn	Thursd	Frid	All
Mean	0,0158	-0,0036	0,0479	0,0602	0,1387	0,037
Max	4,1086	3,5213	3,6133	3,2493	3,137	4,1086
Min	-5,0037	-3,727	-4,0708	-4,1439	-2,6618	-5,0037
Std. Dev	0,6585	0,6323	0,6444	0,5995	0,532	0,5215
Skewness	-0,6094	0,5948	-1,6324	-0,936	-0,4601	-0,6848
Kurtosis	17,2497	12,419	15,946	13,0118	9,9569	20,0215

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of daily stock returns

Table 3 : Descriptive statistics of weekly stock returns.

	Week 1	Weak 2	Week 2	Week A
	Week 1	Week 2	week 5	Week 4
Moyenne	0,0931	-0,0074	0,0425	0,0169
Max	4,1086	3,5213	2,1631	1,6420
Min	-5,0037	-4,1439	-1,7194	-2,6618
Std. Dev	0,0931	-0,0074	0,0425	0,0170
Skewness	-0,2148	-1,4000	0,2467	-1,1469
Kurtosis	22,7564	16,8260	7,7395	10,3391

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of stock market returns during the end of the month, excluding period of the end of the month

	End of month	Hors période de fin du mois
Moyenne	0,0560	0,0265
Max	3,6133	4,1086
Min	- 5,0037	- 4,1439
Std. Dev	0,5500	0,5049
Skewness	-1,2485	-0,2929
Kurtosis	22,6276	17,9054

-

	Mean	Max	Min	Std. Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis
January	0,063	1,935	-4,1439	0,6286	-3,1172	21,6741
February March	-0,0109 0,0926 0,0986	3,137 4,1086 3,6133	-3,7572 -1,3861	0,6826 0,5137 0,5508	-0,7284 3,6575 1,5948	12,7009 26,8613 13,0122
April May June	-0,0074 0,0394	1,5807 1,0653	-2,0922 -1,8166 -2,1246	0,4249 0,3767	-0,5021 -0,9617	6,1335 8,3722
July August	0,017 0,1173 0.0847	1,2485 2,0638	-1,6699 -2,1555	0,3565 0,4055 0,4399	-0,4337 0,3434 0,1453	6,3689 10,4212 5,5671
September October November	-0,0509 -0,001	3,2493 3,1269	-5,0037 -1,9721	0,4399 0,837 0,4424	-1,4566 1,0162	13,3656 16,5427
December	-0,0059	1,5108	-1,9722	0,3582	-0,4518	8,5492

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Table 6: Average yields of January.

	First 10 days	Second 10 days	Last 10 days
Mean	0,1919	-0,0374	0,0387
Max	1,935	1,3432	1,9452
Min	-2,6832	-4,1439	-2,6661
Std. Dev	0,5346	0,8359	0,4492

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of the average yields of the month of Ramadan and the rest of the year

	ramadhan	No ramadhan
Mean	0,0784	0,0332
Max	1,3993	4,1086
Min	-2,1556	-5,0037
Std. Dev	0,4439	0,5278
Skewness	-0,5394	-0,6850
Kurtosis	7,6657	20,4428

Table 8: Descriptive statistics of average returns during the month of Ramadan.

	Fisrt Ramadan 10 days	Second Ramadan 10 days	Third Ramadan 10 days
Mean	0,1017	0,0397	0,0961
Max	1,3993	1,2738	1,0281
Min	-2,1556	-1,6699	-1,1974
Std. Dev	0,4992	0,4306	0,3912
Skewness	-0,6644	-0,7549	0,0508
Kurtosis	8,2359	7,6487	4,409

Table 9: Results of the ADF test (Rt)

	ADF	Trend	Mackinnon p-value
Rt	-43,332	-0,0000336 (p-value=0,006)	0,00000

Table 10: Results of the ADF test (d.Rt).

	ADF	Trend	Mackinnon p-value	Integration order
d.Rt	-84,252	2,83 e-07 (p-value=0,984)	0,00000	1
		Table 11 : Heteroscedas	ticity result test.	
		The calculated chi-square	statistic P-value	-

Table 12: Results of the autocorrelation test errors.

0,0001

	Chi-deux	P-value	DW
Rt	91,709	0,0000	1,231759

15,91

Table 13: Average yield depending on the day of the week.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Average return (all the period)	- 0,0911***	-0,1253***	-0,0557*	-0,0451	0,1328***
Average return (before Tunisian revolution)	-0,1303***	-0,1871***	-0,0686*	-0,0566	0,1789***
Average return (After Tunisian revolution)	-0,0061	-0,0343	-0,0254	-0,0169	0,0472

*p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

Rt

Table 14: Average yield for the period of the end of the month and the rest of the month.

	End of month period	Period of rest of month
Average mean	0,0762***	-0,0410**
Average return (before Tunisian	0,1056***	- 0,0641***
revolution) Average return (After Tunisian revolution)	-0,0015	0,0199

p<0.05, *p<0.01

	Average mean	Average mean before Tunisian revolution	Average mean after Tunisian revolution
January	0,1235***	0,1656***	0,0582
Feb	0,0801*	0,0320	0,1097
March	0,0454	0,0106	0,1988**
April	0,0884*	0,1060*	0,0433
May	0,0220	0,0170	-0,0413
June	0,0554	0,0455	0,0803
July	0,0182	-0,0260	0,1135
August	0,1029**	0,1316***	0,0872
September	0,1078**	0,1684***	0,0241
October	0,0670	0,1017**	0,0055
November	-0,0017	0,0182	-0,0446
December	-0,0024	-0,0182	0,0220

Table 15 : Average mean for each month.

*p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

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- 3. Submission of Manuscripts,
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- Exact spelling, clearness of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else

Introduction:

The **Introduction** should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable to comprehend and calculate the purpose of your study without having to submit to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give most important references but shun difficult to make a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. In the introduction, describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will have no attention in your result. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here. Following approach can create a valuable beginning:

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- Shield the model why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? You strength remark on its appropriateness from a abstract point of vision as well as point out sensible reasons for using it.
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Approach:

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- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

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- Report the method (not particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology)
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- Simplify details how procedures were completed not how they were exclusively performed on a particular day.
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Approach:

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- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

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The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part a entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

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