# Chapter 9 Regression with Time Series Data: Stationary Variables

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# **Chapter Contents**

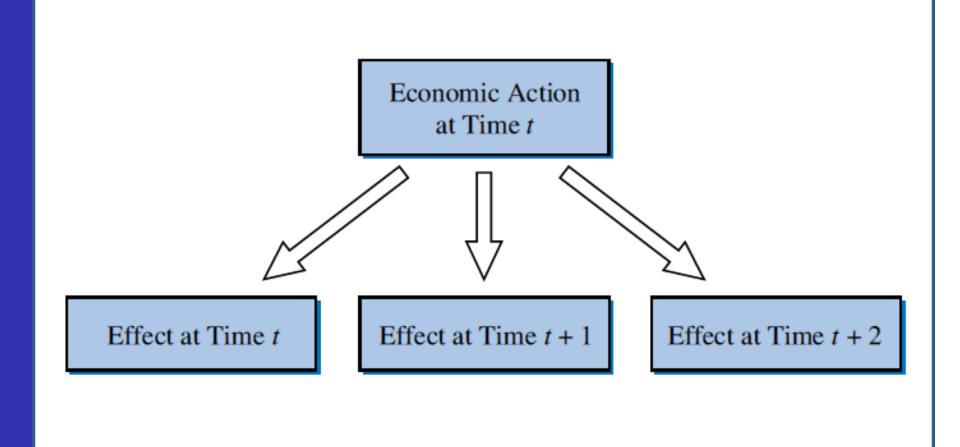
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9.1 Introduction

- When modeling relationships between variables, the nature of the data that have been collected has an important bearing on the appropriate choice of an econometric model
  - Two features of time-series data to consider:
    - 1. Time-series observations on a given economic unit, observed over a number of time periods, are likely to be correlated
    - 2. Time-series data have a natural ordering according to time

- There is also the possible existence of dynamic relationships between variables
  - A dynamic relationship is one in which the change in a variable now has an impact on that same variable, or other variables, in one or more future time periods
  - These effects do not occur instantaneously but are spread, or **distributed**, over future time periods

# FIGURE 9.1 The distributed lag effect



9.1 Introduction

### 9.1.1 Dynamic Nature of Relationships

■ Ways to model the dynamic relationship:

1. Specify that a dependent variable *y* is a function of current and past values of an explanatory variable *x* 

$$y_t = f(x_t, x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, ...)$$

• Because of the existence of these lagged effects, Eq. 9.1 is called a distributed lag model

9.1 Introduction

9.1.1 Dynamic Nature of Relationships

■ Ways to model the dynamic relationship (Continued):

2. Capturing the dynamic characteristics of timeseries by specifying a model with a lagged dependent variable as one of the explanatory variables

$$y_t = f(y_{t-1}, x_t)$$

• Or have:

$$y_{t} = f(y_{t-1}, x_{t}, x_{t-1}, x_{t-2})$$

-Such models are called **autoregressive distributed lag** (**ARDL**) models, with "autoregressive" meaning a regression of  $y_t$  on its own lag or lags

Eq. 9.2

9.1 Introduction

### 9.1.1 Dynamic Nature of Relationships

■ Ways to model the dynamic relationship (Continued):

3. Model the continuing impact of change over several periods via the error term

$$y_{t} = f(x_{t}) + e_{t}$$
  $e_{t} = f(e_{t-1})$ 

- In this case  $e_{\rm t}$  is correlated with  $e_{\rm t-1}$
- We say the errors are **serially correlated** or **autocorrelated**

9.1 Introduction

9.1.2 Least Squares Assumptions

■ The primary assumption is Assumption MR4:

$$cov(y_i, y_j) = cov(e_i, e_j) = 0$$
 for  $i \neq j$ 

• For time series, this is written as:

$$cov(y_t, y_s) = cov(e_t, e_s) = 0$$
 for  $t \neq s$ 

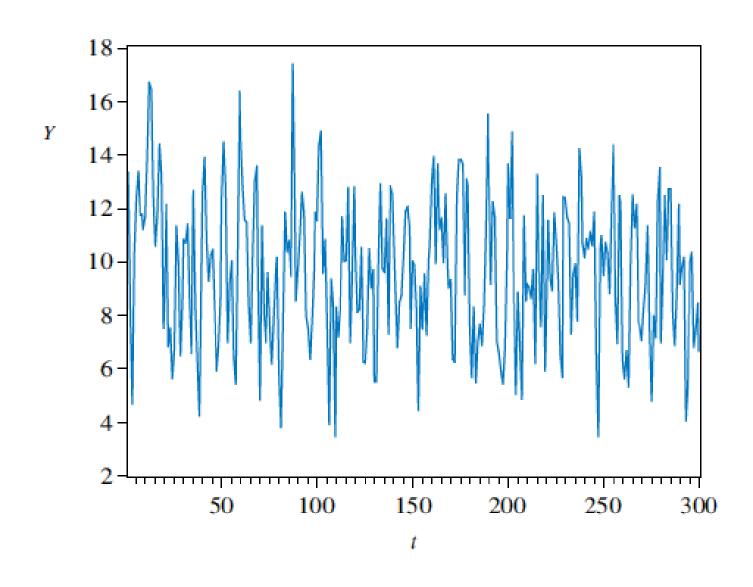
- The dynamic models in Eqs. 9.2, 9.3 and 9.4 imply correlation between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-1}$  or  $e_t$  and  $e_{t-1}$  or both, so they clearly violate assumption MR4

### 9.1.2a Stationarity

- A stationary variable is one that is not explosive, nor trending, and nor wandering aimlessly without returning to its mean.
- It has the following properties:
  - $E(y_t) = \mu$
  - $Var(y_t) = \sigma^2$
  - $Cov(y_t, y_{t-s}) = \gamma_s$ . The covariance between two different time periods depends on the distance between them.

FIGURE 9.2 (a) Time series of a stationary variable

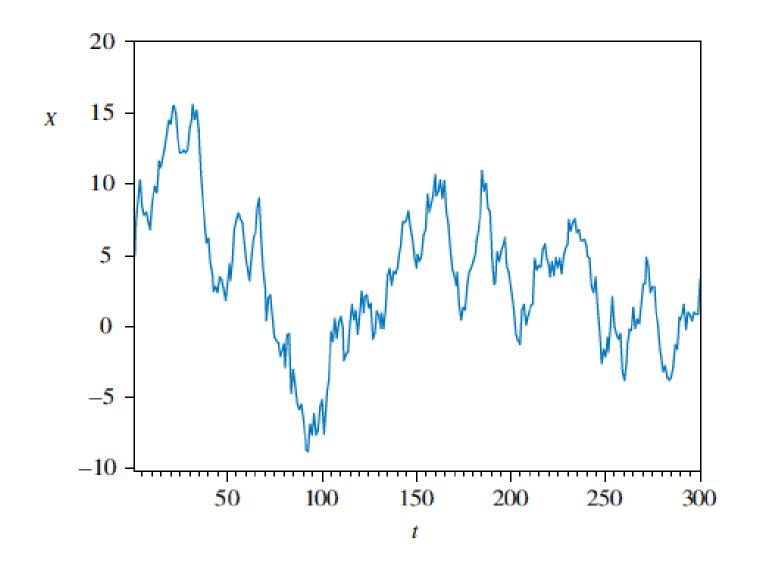
9.1.2a Stationarity



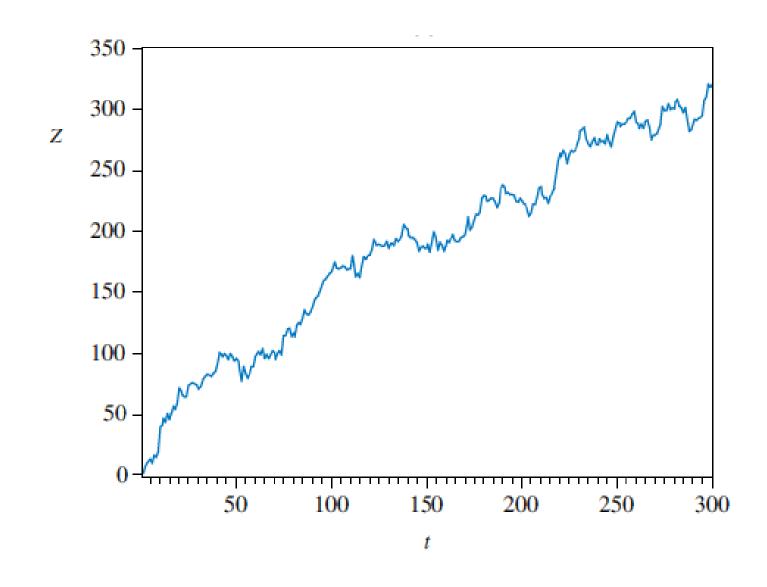
9.1 Introduction

FIGURE 9.2 (b) time series of a nonstationary variable that is "slow-turning" or "wandering"

9.1.2a Stationarity



9.1.2a Stationarity



- When  $cov(y_t, y_s) = 0$  for  $t \neq s$  likely to be violated, and how do we assess its validity?
  - When a variable exhibits correlation over time,
     we say it is autocorrelated or serially
     correlated
    - These terms are used interchangeably

■ Recall that the population correlation between two variables *x* and *y* is given by:

$$\rho_{xy} = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(x)\text{var}(y)}}$$

 $\blacksquare$  For a stationary variable  $y_t$  we define

$$\rho_{1} = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(y_{t}, y_{t-1})}{\sqrt{\operatorname{var}(y_{t})\operatorname{var}(y_{t-1})}} = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(y_{t}, y_{t-1})}{\operatorname{var}(y_{t})}$$

- The notation  $\rho_1$  is used to denote the population correlation between observations that are one period apart in time
  - This is known also as the population autocorrelation of order one.
  - The second equality in Eq. 9.5 holds because  $var(y_t) = var(y_{t-1})$ , a property of time series that are stationary

■ The first-order sample autocorrelation for *y* is obtained from Eq. 9.5 using the estimates:

$$\widehat{\text{cov}(y_{t}, y_{t-1})} = \frac{1}{T - 1} \sum_{t=2}^{T} (y_{t} - \overline{y}) (y_{t-1} - \overline{y})$$

$$\widehat{\text{var}(y_{t})} = \frac{1}{T - 1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_{t} - \overline{y})^{2}$$

■ Making the substitutions, we get:

$$r_{1} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{T} (y_{t} - \overline{y})(y_{t-1} - \overline{y})}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_{t} - \overline{y})^{2}}$$

Eq. 9.7

■ More generally, the *k*-th order sample autocorrelation for a series *y* that gives the correlation between observations that are *k* periods apart is:

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{t=k+1}^{T} (y_t - \overline{y})(y_{t-k} - \overline{y})}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_t - \overline{y})^2}$$

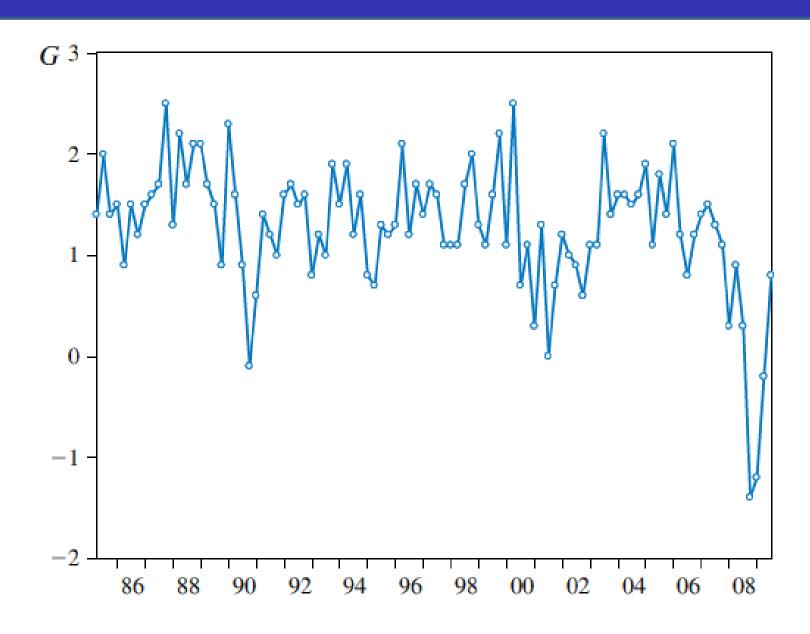
9.2.1a Computing Autocorrelation

- How do we test whether an autocorrelation is significantly different from zero?
  - The null hypothesis is  $H_0$ :  $\rho_k = 0$
  - A suitable test statistic is:

 $Z = \frac{r_k - 0}{\sqrt{1/T}} = \sqrt{T} r_k \sim N(0,1)$ 

FIGURE 9.3 Time series for U.S. GDP growth: 1985Q2 to 2009Q3

9.2.1b An example: GDP growth rate



9.2.1b An example: GDP growth rate

■ Applying this to our problem, we get for the first four autocorrelations:

$$r_1 = 0.494$$
  $r_2 = 0.411$   $r_3 = 0.154$   $r_4 = 0.200$ 

### 9.2.1b An example: GDP growth rate

■ For our problem, we have:

$$Z_1 = \sqrt{98} \times 0.494 = 4.89$$
,  $Z_2 = \sqrt{98} \times 0.414 = 4.10$ 

$$Z_3 = \sqrt{98} \times 0.154 = 1.52, \quad Z_4 = \sqrt{98} \times 0.200 = 1.98$$

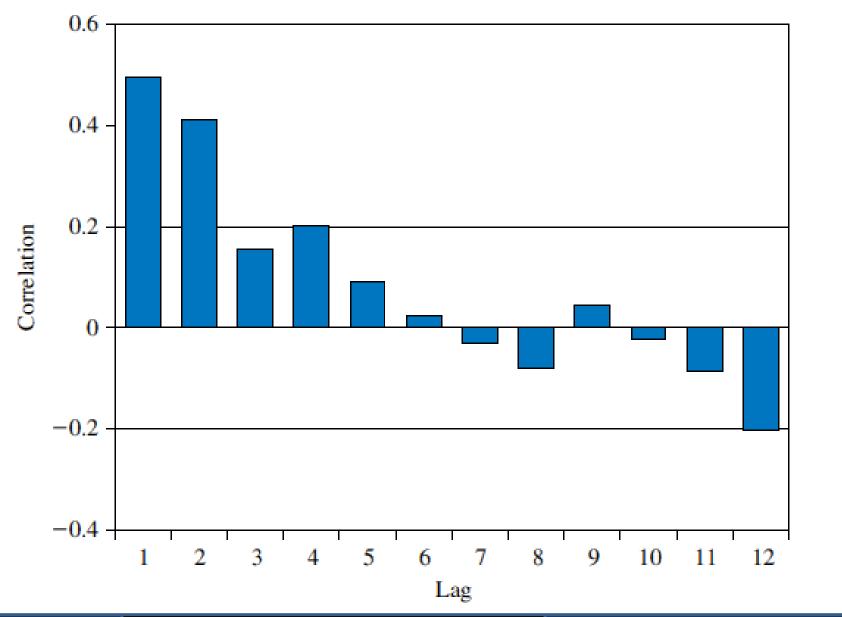
- We reject the hypotheses  $H_0$ :  $\rho_1 = 0$  and  $H_0$ :  $\rho_2 = 0$
- We have insufficient evidence to reject  $H_0$ :  $\rho_3 = 0$
- $-\rho_4$  is on the borderline of being significant.
- We conclude that the quarterly growth rate in U.S. GDP, exhibits significant serial correlation at lags one and two

9.2.1c The Correlogram

- The correlogram, also called the sample autocorrelation function, is the sequence of autocorrelations  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$ ,  $r_3$ , ...
  - It shows the correlation between observations that are one period apart, two periods apart, three periods apart, and so on

FIGURE 9.4 Correlogram for GDP growth rate

9.2.1c The Correlogram



9.2.2 Serially Correlated Errors

> The correlogram can also be used to check whether the multiple regression assumption  $cov(e_t, e_s) = 0$  for  $t \neq s$  is violated

9.2.2a A Phillips Curve

Eq. 9.10

Eq. 9.11

Consider a model for a Phillips Curve:

$$INF_{t} = INF_{t}^{E} - \gamma \left(U_{t} - U_{t-1}\right)$$

where  $INF_t$  is the inflation rate and  $U_t$  is the unemployment rate.

– If we initially assume that inflationary expectations are constant over time ( $\beta_1 = INF^E_t$ ) set  $\beta_2 = -\gamma$ , and add an error term:

$$INF_{t} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2}DU_{t} + e_{t}$$

## FIGURE 9.5 (a) Time series for Australian price inflation

9.2.2a A Phillips Curve

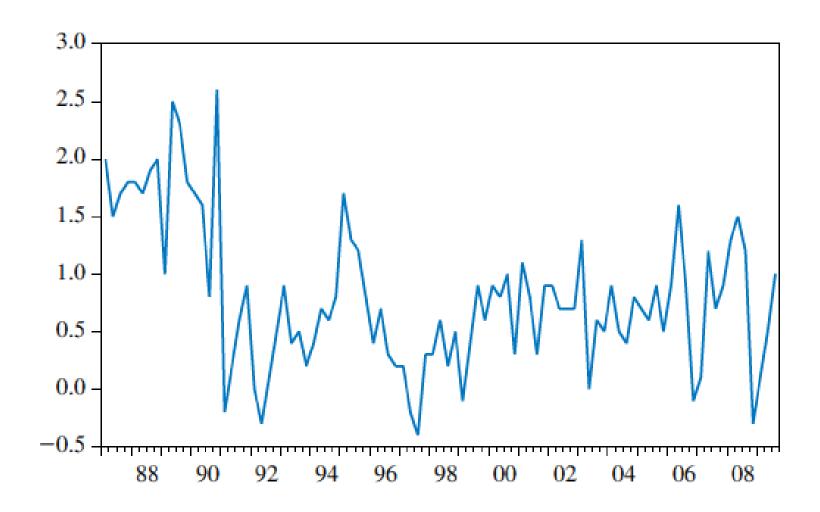
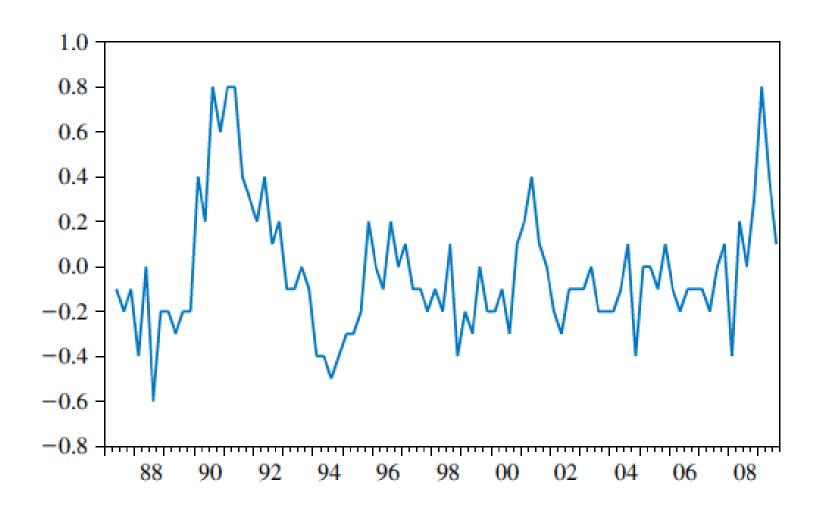


FIGURE 9.5 (b) Time series for the quarterly change in the Australian unemployment rate

9.2.2a A Phillips Curve



9.2.2a A Phillips Curve

■ To determine if the errors are serially correlated, we compute the least squares residuals:

$$\hat{e}_{t} = INF_{t} - b_{1} - b_{2}DU_{t}$$

9.2.2a A Phillips Curve

■ The *k*-th order autocorrelation for the residuals can be written as:

Eq. 9.12

$$r_{k} = \frac{\sum_{t=k+1}^{T} \hat{e}_{t} \hat{e}_{t-k}}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \hat{e}_{t}^{2}}$$

- The least squares equation is:

$$\widehat{INF} = 0.7776 - 0.5279DU$$
  
(se) (0.0658) (0.2294)

9.2.2a A Phillips Curve

■ The values at the first five lags are:

$$r_1 = 0.549$$
  $r_2 = 0.456$   $r_3 = 0.433$   $r_4 = 0.420$   $r_5 = 0.339$ 

The test statistic is  $Z_1 = \sqrt{90} \times 0.549 = 5.20$  which indicates that the null  $\rho_1 = 0$  is rejected and the error term exhibits autocorrelation (of order 1).

9.3
Other Tests for Serially Correlated
Errors

9.3 Other Tests for Serially Correlated Errors

> 9.3.1 A Lagrange Multiplier Test

> > ■ An advantage of this test is that it readily generalizes to a joint test of correlations at more than one lag

9.3
Other Tests for
Serially Correlated
Errors

9.3.1 A Lagrange Multiplier Test

If  $e_t$  and  $e_{t-1}$  are correlated, then one way to model the relationship between them is to write:

Eq. 9.14

$$e_{t} = \rho e_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

We can substitute this into a simple regression equation:

$$y_{t} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2}x_{t} + \rho e_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

#### 9.3.1 A Lagrange Multiplier Test

- We have one complication:  $e_t$  is unknown but we can use the least squares residuals  $\hat{e}_t$  in place.
  - Also  $\hat{e}_0$  is unknow. Two ways to handle this are:
    - 1. Delete the first observation and use a total of *T*-1 observations
    - 2. Set  $\hat{e}_0 = 0$  and use all T observations

9.3 Other Tests for Serially Correlated Errors

> 9.3.1 A Lagrange Multiplier Test

Eq. 9.16

• To derive the relevant auxiliary regression for the autocorrelation LM test, we write the test equation as:

$$y_{t} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2}x_{t} + \rho \hat{e}_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

• But since we know that  $y_t = b_1 + b_2 x_t + \hat{e}_t$ , we get:

$$b_1 + b_2 x_t + \hat{e}_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_t + \rho \hat{e}_{t-1} + v_t$$

9.3.1 A Lagrange Multiplier Test

■ Rearranging, we get:

$$\hat{e}_{t} = (\beta_{1} - b_{1}) + (\beta_{2} - b_{2}) x_{t} + \rho \hat{e}_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

$$= \gamma_{1} + \gamma_{2} x_{t} + \rho \hat{e}_{t-1} + v$$

- If  $H_0$ :  $\rho = 0$  is true, then LM =  $T \times R^2$  has an approximate  $\chi^2_{(1)}$  distribution
  - T and  $R^2$  are the sample size and goodness-of-fit statistic, respectively, from least squares estimation of Eq. 9.17

#### 9.3.1 A Lagrange Multiplier Test

■ Considering the two alternative ways to handle  $\hat{e}_0$ :

(i) 
$$LM = (T-1) \times R^2 = 89 \times 0.3102 = 27.61$$

(ii) 
$$LM = T \times R^2 = 90 \times 0.3066 = 27.59$$

- These values are much larger than 3.84, which is the 5% critical value from a  $\chi^2_{(1)}$ -distribution
  - We reject the null hypothesis of no autocorrelation
- Alternatively, we can reject  $H_0$  by examining the p-value for LM = 27.61, which is 0.000

9.3.1a
Testing Correlation
at Longer Lags

■ For a four-period lag, we obtain:

(iii) 
$$LM = (T-4) \times R^2 = 86 \times 0.3882 = 33.4$$

(iv) 
$$LM = T \times R^2 = 90 \times 0.4075 = 36.7$$

– Because the 5% critical value from a  $\chi^2_{(4)}$ distribution is 9.49, these LM values lead us to
conclude that the errors are serially correlated

9.3.2 The Durbin-Watson Test

- This is used less frequently today because its critical values are not available in all software packages, and one has to examine upper and lower critical bounds instead
  - Also, unlike the LM and correlogram tests, its distribution no longer holds when the equation contains a lagged dependent variable
- When the error term is serially uncorrelated the D-W test statistic is equal to 2.
  - When the error term is positively serially correlated the D-W test statistic is between 0 and 2.
  - When the error term is negatively serially correlated the D-W test statistic is between 2 and 4.

- Three estimation procedures are considered:
  - 1. Least squares estimation
  - 2. An estimation procedure that is relevant when the errors are assumed to follow what is known as a first-order autoregressive model

$$e_{t} = \rho e_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

3. A general estimation strategy for estimating models with serially correlated errors

- Suppose we proceed with least squares estimation without recognizing the existence of serially correlated errors. What are the consequences?
  - 1. The least squares estimator is still a linear unbiased estimator, but it is no longer best
  - 2. The formulas for the standard errors usually computed for the least squares estimator are no longer correct
    - Confidence intervals and hypothesis tests that use these standard errors may be misleading

- It is possible to compute correct standard errors for the least squares estimator:
  - HAC (heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent) standard errors, or Newey-West standard errors
    - These are analogous to the heteroskedasticity consistent standard errors

- Consider the model  $y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_t + e_t$ 
  - The variance of  $b_2$  is:

$$\operatorname{var}(b_2) = \sum_{t} w_t^2 \operatorname{var}(e_t) + \sum_{t \neq s} \sum_{t \neq s} w_t w_s \operatorname{cov}(e_t, e_s)$$

Eq. 9.18

$$= \sum_{t} w_{t}^{2} \operatorname{var}(e_{t}) \left[ 1 + \frac{\sum_{t \neq s} \sum_{t \neq s} w_{t} w_{s} \operatorname{cov}(e_{t}, e_{s})}{\sum_{t} w_{t}^{2} \operatorname{var}(e_{t})} \right]$$

where

$$w_{t} = \left(x_{t} - \overline{x}\right) / \sum_{t} \left(x_{t} - \overline{x}\right)^{2}$$

- When the errors are not correlated,  $cov(e_t, e_s) = 0$ , and the term in square brackets is equal to one.
  - The resulting expression

$$\operatorname{var}(b_2) = \sum_{t} w_t^2 \operatorname{var}(e_t)$$

is the one used to find heteroskedasticityconsistent (HC) standard errors

 When the errors are correlated, the term in square brackets is estimated to obtain HAC standard errors

9.4.1 Least Squares Estimation

■ Let's reconsider the Phillips Curve model:

$$\widehat{INF} = 0.7776 - 0.5279DU$$

$$(0.0658) (0.2294) (incorrect se)$$

$$(0.1030) (0.3127) (HAC se)$$

9.4.1 Least Squares Estimation

## ■ The *t* and *p*-values for testing $H_0$ : $\beta_2 = 0$ are:

$$t = -0.5279/0.2294 = -2.301$$
  $p = 0.0238$  (from LS standard errors)  
 $t = -0.5279/0.3127 = -1.688$   $p = 0.0950$  (from HAC standard errors)

9.4.2 Estimating an AR(1) Error Model

■ Return to the Lagrange multiplier test for serially correlated errors where we used the equation:

Eq. 9.20

$$e_t = \rho e_{t-1} + v_t$$

- Assume the  $v_t$  are uncorrelated random errors with zero mean and constant variances:

$$E(v_t) = 0$$
  $var(v_t) = \sigma_v^2$   $cov(v_t, v_s) = 0$  for  $t \neq s$ 

#### 9.4.2 Estimating an AR(1) Error Model

- Eq. 9.30 describes a first-order autoregressive model or a first-order autoregressive process for  $e_t$ 
  - The term **AR(1) model** is used as an abbreviation for first-order autoregressive model
  - It is called an autoregressive model because it can be viewed as a regression model
  - It is called **first-order** because the right-handside variable is  $e_t$  lagged one period

9.4
Estimation with
Serially Correlated
Errors

■ We assume that:

Eq. 9.22

$$-1 < \rho < 1$$

■ The mean and variance of  $e_t$  are:

$$E(e_t) = 0$$
  $var(e_t) = \sigma_e^2 = \frac{\sigma_v^2}{1 - \rho^2}$ 

■ The covariance term is:

$$\operatorname{cov}(e_{t}, e_{t-k}) = \frac{\rho^{k} \sigma_{v}^{2}}{1 - \rho^{2}}, \quad k > 0$$

■ The correlation implied by the covariance is:

$$\rho_k = \operatorname{corr}(e_t, e_{t-k})$$

$$= \frac{\operatorname{cov}(e_{t}, e_{t-k})}{\sqrt{\operatorname{var}(e_{t})\operatorname{var}(e_{t-k})}}$$

$$= \frac{\operatorname{cov}(e_{t}, e_{t-k})}{\operatorname{var}(e_{t})}$$

$$= \frac{\rho^k \sigma_v^2 / (1 - \rho^2)}{\sigma_v^2 / (1 - \rho^2)}$$

$$= \rho^k$$

Eq. 9.26

■ Setting k = 1:

$$\rho_1 = \operatorname{corr}(e_t, e_{t-1}) = \rho$$

- ρ represents the correlation between two errors that are one period apart
  - It is the **first-order autocorrelation** for *e*, sometimes simply called the autocorrelation coefficient
  - It is the population autocorrelation at lag one for a time series that can be described by an AR(1) model
  - $r_1$  is an estimate for  $\rho$  when we assume a series is AR(1)

Eq. 9.27

■ Each  $e_t$  depends on all past values of the errors  $v_t$ :

$$e_t = v_t + \rho v_{t-1} + \rho^2 v_{t-2} + \rho^3 v_{t-3} + \cdots$$

- For the Phillips Curve, we find for the first five lags:

$$r_1 = 0.549$$
  $r_2 = 0.456$   $r_3 = 0.433$   $r_4 = 0.420$   $r_5 = 0.339$ 

- For an AR(1) model, we have:

$$\hat{\rho}_1 = \hat{\rho} = r_1 = 0.549$$

## ■ For longer lags, we have:

$$\hat{\rho}_2 = \hat{\rho}^2 = (0.549)^2 = 0.301$$

$$\hat{\rho}_3 = \hat{\rho}^3 = (0.549)^3 = 0.165$$

$$\hat{\rho}_4 = \hat{\rho}^4 = (0.549)^4 = 0.091$$

$$\hat{\rho}_5 = \hat{\rho}^5 = (0.549)^5 = 0.050$$

#### 9.4.2b Nonlinear Least Squares Estimation

 $\blacksquare$  Our model with an AR(1) error is:

Eq. 9.28

$$y_{t} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2}x_{t} + e_{t}$$
 with  $e_{t} = \rho e_{t-1} + v_{t}$ 

with 
$$-1 < \rho < 1$$

– For the  $v_t$ , we have:

$$E(v_t) = 0$$
  $var(v_t) = \sigma_v^2$   $cov(v_t, v_{t-1}) = 0$  for  $t \neq s$ 

9.4
Estimation with
Serially Correlated
Errors

9.4.2b Nonlinear Least Squares Estimation

■ With the appropriate substitutions, we get:

$$y_{t} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2} x_{t} + \rho e_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

– For the previous period, the error is:

$$e_{t-1} = y_{t-1} - \beta_1 - \beta_2 x_{t-1}$$

– Multiplying by ρ:

$$\rho e_{t-1} = e_t y_{t-1} - \rho \beta_1 - \rho \beta_2 x_{t-1}$$

9.4.2b Nonlinear Least Squares Estimation

■ Substituting, we get:

$$y_{t} = \beta_{1} (1 - \rho) + \beta_{2} x_{t} + \rho y_{t-1} - \rho \beta_{2} x_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

9.4.2b Nonlinear Least Squares Estimation

- The coefficient of  $x_{t-1}$  equals  $-\rho\beta_2$ 
  - Although Eq. 9.33 is a linear function of the variables  $x_t$ ,  $y_{t-1}$  and  $x_{t-1}$ , it is not a linear function of the parameters ( $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\rho$ )
  - The usual linear least squares formulas cannot be obtained by using calculus to find the values of  $(\beta_1, \beta_2, \rho)$  that minimize  $S_v$ 
    - These are nonlinear least squares estimates

9.4.2b Nonlinear Least Squares Estimation

Our Phillips Curve model assuming AR(1) errors is:

Eq. 9.34

$$INF_{t} = \beta_{1}(1-\rho) + \beta_{2}DU_{t} + \rho INF_{t-1} - \rho\beta_{2}DU_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

 Applying nonlinear least squares and presenting the estimates in terms of the original untransformed model, we have:

$$\widehat{INF} = 0.7609 - 0.6944DU$$
  $e_t = 0.557e_{t-1} + v_t$  (se) (0.1245) (0.2479) (0.090)

9.4.2c Generalized Least Squares Estimation

■ Nonlinear least squares estimation of Eq. 9.33 is equivalent to using an iterative generalized least squares estimator called the Cochrane-Orcutt procedure

9.4.3 Estimating a More General Model

Eq. 9.36

Eq. 9.37

■ We have the model:

$$y_{t} = \beta_{1}(1-\rho) + \beta_{2}x_{t} + \rho y_{t-1} - \rho \beta_{2}x_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

- Suppose now that we consider the model:

$$y_{t} = \delta + \theta_{1} y_{t-1} + \delta_{0} x_{t} + \delta_{1} x_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

- This new notation correspond to a general class of autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) models
  - −Eq. 9.37 is a member of this class

9.4.3 Estimating a More General Model

■ Note that Eq. 9.37 is the same as Eq. 9.36 since:

Eq. 9.38

$$\delta = \beta_1 (1 - \rho)$$
  $\delta_0 = \beta_2$   $\delta_1 = -\rho \beta_2$   $\theta_1 = \rho$ 

– Eq. 9.36 is a restricted version of Eq. 9.37 with the restriction  $\delta_1 = -\theta_1 \delta_0$  imposed

9.4.3 Estimating a More General Model

■ Applying the least squares estimator to Eq. 9.37 using the data for the Phillips curve example yields:

$$\widehat{INF}_{t} = 0.3336 + 0.5593INF_{t-1} - 0.6882DU_{t} + 0.3200DU_{t-1}$$
  
(se) (0.0899) (0.0908) (0.2575) (0.2499)

#### 9.4.3 Estimating a More General Model

• The equivalent AR(1) estimates are:

$$\hat{\delta} = \hat{\beta}_1 (1 - \hat{\rho}) = 0.7609 \times (1 - 0.5574) = 0.3368$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 = \hat{\rho} = 0.5574$$

$$\hat{\delta}_0 = \hat{\beta}_2 = -0.6944$$

$$\hat{\delta}_1 = -\hat{\rho}\hat{\beta}_2 = -0.5574 \times (-0.6944) = 0.3871$$

- These are similar to our other estimates.
- One can test the validity of the AR(1) error term assumption by testing the hypothesis  $\delta_1 = -\theta_1 \delta_0$ .

#### 9.4.4 Assumptions

- When the simple regression model was introduced, we have assumed that the independent variable x is not random (SR5).
- We cannot maintain this assumption anymore in timeseries models. Both y and x are sampled jointly so we do not know the value of x prior to sampling.
- We substitute SR5 with TSMR2 (see next page).
- This assumption in conjunction with the others guarantees that OLS estimators are unbiased and efficient.
- Adding TSMR6 the *t* and *F*-statistics follows the *t* and *F* distributions, respectively.

#### ASSUMPTIONS OF THE DISTRIBUTED LAG MODEL

9.4.4 Assumptions

TSMR1.  $y_t = \alpha + \beta_0 x_t + \beta_1 x_{t-1} + \beta_2 x_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_q x_{t-q} + e_t, \quad t = q+1, \dots, T$ 

TSMR2. y and x are stationary random variables, and  $e_t$  is independent of current, past and future values of x.

TSMR3.  $E(e_t) = 0$ 

TSMR4.  $var(e_t) = \sigma^2$ 

TSMR5.  $cov(e_t, e_s) = 0$   $t \neq s$ 

TSMR6.  $e_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ 

#### 9.4.4 Assumptions

■ The ARDL model is more general than the previous specification. It includes a lagged dependent variable in the right-hand-side:

$$y_{t} = \delta + \theta_{1} y_{t-1} + \delta_{0} x_{t} + \delta_{1} x_{t-1} + v_{t}$$

■ The model can be written as:

$$y_{t+1} = \delta + \theta_1 y_t + \delta_0 x_{t+1} + \delta_1 x_t + v_{t+1}$$

- $\mathbf{v}_t$  is correlated with  $y_t$  so assumption TSMR2 is violated.
- This means that the least squares estimator is no longer unbiased but it **consistent** (under TSMR2A).
- The estimator is said to be consistent when it converges to the population parameter as the sample size tends to infinity.

### Serially Correlated ASSUMPTION FOR MODELS WITH A LAGGED DEPENDENT VARIABLE

TSMR2A In the multiple regression model  $y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{t2} + \dots + \beta_K x_{tK} + v_t$  Where some of the  $x_{tk}$  may be lagged values of y,  $v_t$  is uncorrelated with all  $x_{tk}$  and their past values.

Key Words Chapter 9: Regression with Time Series Data:

- $\blacksquare$  AR(1) error
- ARDL model
- autocorrelation
- Autoregressive distributed lags
- autoregressive error
- autoregressive model
- correlogram

- dynamic models
- finite distributed lag
- HAC standard errors
- lag operator
- lagged dependent variable

- LM test
- nonlinear least squares
- sample autocorrelations
- serial correlation
- T x R<sup>2</sup> form of LM test