

*Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.* Wooldridge (2013), Chapter 11

- Covariance Stationary Process
- Weakly Dependent Time Series
- Examples for weakly dependent time series
  - moving average process of order one
  - autoregressive process of order one
- Assumptions for consistency and asymptotic normality of OLS
- Autoregressive distributed Lag model
- Random Walks
- Transforming Persistent Series
- Dynamically Complete Models and the Absence of Serial Correlation

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

- So far we showed that under Assumptions TS.1 to TS.6 the Ordinary Least Squares estimator has exactly the same properties that in the cross sectional case.
- However, these Assumptions are *very strong*, and will not be satisfied in some models (e.g. Assumption TS.3 [ $E(u_t|X) = 0$ ] does not hold if we have lagged dependent variables as regressors).
- It will be shown that under a different set of Assumptions the inference procedures introduced in the cross-sectional case can be used in such models in the time series context.
- In some cases we would like to have as regressors lagged dependent variables.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

**Example:** *Partial adjustment model:* Suppose  $y_t^*$  is the desired level of inventories of a firm and  $y_t$  is the actual level and  $x_t$  is the sales. Assume that the desired level of inventories depends of sales plus a error term

$$y_t^* = \alpha + \beta x_t + v_t.$$

Because of frictions in the market the gap between the actual and desired level cannot be closed instantaneously but only with some lag. That is the inventory in time  $t$  would equal that at time  $t - 1$  plus an adjustment factor.

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \lambda(y_t^* - y_{t-1}),$$
$$0 < \lambda < 1$$

In this case combining these two equations we obtain

$$y_t = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 y_{t-1} + \gamma_2 x_t + u_t$$

where  $\gamma_0 = \alpha\lambda$ ,  $\gamma_1 = (1 - \lambda)$ ,  $\gamma_2 = \beta\lambda$ ,  $u_t = \lambda v_t$ .

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Main points:

- If lagged dependent variables are included as regressors OLS is *biased* and is *not BLUE* (the Gauss Markov theorem does not hold).
- The justification for the use of the inference procedures relies on *Large Sample analysis* (If lagged dependent variables are included as regressors OLS is *consistent* and *Asymptotically normal*).

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Stability and Dependence

### Stability

- We need to assume *stability*: If we allow the relationship between two variables (say  $y_t$  and  $x_t$ ) to change arbitrarily each time period we cannot hope to learn much about how a change in one variable affects the other variable if we only have access to a single realization, hence we require a definition of stability (in time series this is given by the notion of *stationary processes*).

### Dependence

- In the cross sectional case we had a random sample  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ . Each random variable  $X_1$  to  $X_n$  were independent with the same mean  $\mu_X$  and finite variance  $\sigma_X^2$ . Under independence a Law of Large numbers (LLN) and a Central limit theorem (CLT) would be valid. That is,

$$\text{plim } \bar{X} = \mu_X, \text{ (Law of Large numbers)}$$

$$\sqrt{n} \frac{(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma_X} \overset{a}{\sim} N(0, 1), \text{ (Central limit theorem)}$$

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Stability and Dependence

- However in the time series context we do not have a random sample as the random variables  $X_1$  to  $X_n$  are not independent.
- *Dependence* is typical with time series: what happens this period and what happened last period are related, as is what happened the period before last and so on.
- Thus with time-series data we typically have to deal with *dependence* between the observations (with cross-section we typically do not have to deal with such dependence).
- We have to introduce key concepts that address these issues.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Covariance Stationary Process

### Definition

A stochastic process  $\{x_t, t = 1, \dots\}$  is *covariance stationary* if

- ▶  $E(x_t)$  is constant (does not vary with  $t$ )
  - ▶  $Var(x_t)$  is constant,
  - ▶ for any  $h \neq 0$ ,  $Cov(x_t, x_{t+h})$  depends only on  $h$  and not on  $t$ .
- **Example:** The process  $\{\varepsilon_t, t = 1, \dots\}$  such as  $E(\varepsilon_t) = 0$ ,  $Var(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma_\varepsilon^2$  and  $Cov(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t+h}) = 0$  with  $h \neq 0$  is known as a *white noise process*. It is covariance stationary.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Covariance Stationary Process

- Stationarity is important in time series because
  - if we want to understand the relationship between two or more variables using regression analysis we need to assume some sort of *stability* of the relationship over time.
  - it also simplifies the assumptions required for a *LLN* and a *CLT* to hold.



# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Weakly Dependent Time Series

We need to replace the concept of independence by a different concept in time series.

- A *stationary time series* is *weakly dependent* if  $x_t$  and  $x_{t+h}$  are “almost uncorrelated” as  $h$  increases.
- If for a covariance stationary process  $\text{Corr}(x_t, x_{t+h}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow \infty$ , we'll say this covariance stationary process is *weakly dependent*.
- We need weak dependence for LLN's and CLT's to hold.
- We won't give a rigorous technical definition of weak dependent process.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## MA(1) Process

- A stochastic process is a *moving average process of order one*, MA(1), if

$$x_t = e_t + \theta_1 e_{t-1}, t = 1, 2, \dots$$

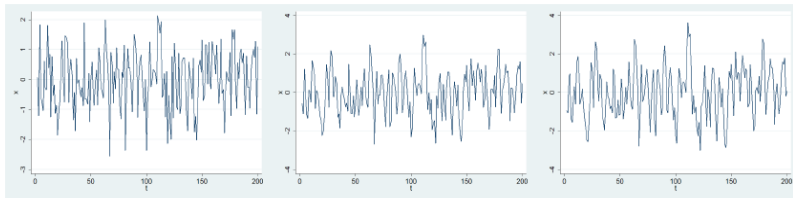
with  $e_t$  being a white noise process with variance  $\sigma_e^2$ .

- This is a stationary, weakly dependent sequence as variables 1 period apart are correlated, but 2 periods apart they are not.
- Notice that
  - $E(x_t) = 0$ .
  - $Var(x_t) = \sigma_e^2(1 + \theta_1^2)$ .
  - $Corr(x_t, x_{t-1}) = \theta_1 / (1 + \theta_1^2)$ .
  - $Corr(x_t, x_{t-h}) = 0, h \geq 2$

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## MA(1) Process

**Figure:** MA(1) with  $\theta_1 = 0.1$ ,  $\theta_1 = 0.6$ ,  $\theta_1 = 0.9$



# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## An AR(1) Process

- An *autoregressive process of order one*, AR(1), can be characterized as one where

$$x_t = \rho_1 x_{t-1} + e_t,$$

$t = 1, 2, \dots$  with  $e_t$  being a white noise process.

- A necessary condition for an AR(1) process to be stationary and weakly dependent is that  $-1 < \rho_1 < 1$ : an AR(1) process satisfying this condition is called stable.

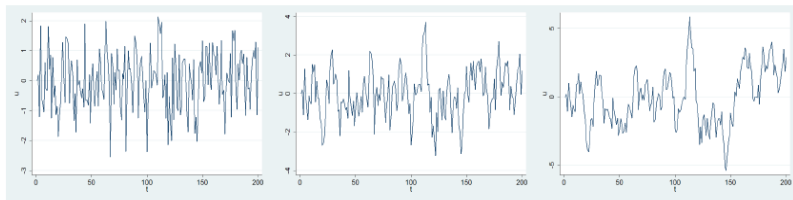
It is possible to show that if  $|\rho_1| < 1$ :

- $E(x_t) = 0$ .
- $Var(x_t) = \frac{\sigma_e^2}{1-\rho_1^2}$
- $Corr(x_t, x_{t+h}) = Cov(x_t, x_{t+h}) / Var(x_t) = \rho_1^h$  which becomes small as  $h$  increases.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

An AR(1) Process

**Figure:** AR(1) with  $\rho_1 = 0.1$ ,  $\rho_1 = 0.6$ ,  $\rho_1 = 0.9$



# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Trends Revisited

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta t + u_t,$$

where  $E(u_t) = 0$ .

- A *trending series* cannot be stationary, since the mean is changing over time  $E(y_t) = \alpha + \beta t$ .
- A trending series is weakly dependent if  $u_t$  is weakly dependent.
- If a  $u_t$  is weakly dependent and stationary, we will call  $y_t$  a *trend-stationary process*.
- As long as a trend is included, all is well.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Assumptions for consistency and asymptotic normality of the OLS

The following Assumptions are required to show that the OLS estimator is consistent.

## Assumption (TS.1' - linearity in parameters)

*The stochastic process  $\{(y_t, x_{t1}, x_{t2}, \dots, x_{tk}); t = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$  is stationary and weakly dependent and follows the linear model:*

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{t1} + \dots + \beta_k x_{tk} + u_t$$

- Note that some regressors may be lagged values of other regressors or lagged values of  $y$ .

## Assumption (TS.2' - no perfect collinearity)

*No regressor independent variable is a constant nor a perfect linear combination of the other regressors.*

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Assumptions for consistency and asymptotic normality of the OLS

Write  $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_{t1}, \dots, x_{tk})$ .

Assumption (TS.3' - zero conditional mean)

$$E(u_t | \mathbf{x}_t) = 0, t = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Theorem

*Under assumptions TS.1' through TS.3' the OLS estimator is consistent:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{plim } \hat{\beta}_j &= \beta_j, \\ j &= 0, 1, \dots, k \end{aligned}$$



# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Assumptions for consistency and asymptotic normality of the OLS

## Remarks:

- Thus, can have correlation between  $u_{t-1}$  and  $x_t$  (OK if  $y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + u_t$ , where  $y_{t-1}$  naturally depends on  $u_{t-1}$ ). Can have feedback from  $y$  (or  $u$ ) to future values of the regressors.
- Weaker assumptions than those for unbiasedness.
- Main difference: Assumption TS.3 does not hold with lagged dependent variables as regressors ( $E(u_t|X) \neq 0$ ) hence OLS is biased. However, in this case Assumption TS.3' holds and therefore it is consistent.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Assumptions for consistency and asymptotic normality of the OLS

## Why do lagged dependent variables violate strict exogeneity?

Consider the model

$$y_t = \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + u_t \quad (1)$$

This is the simplest possible regression model with a lagged dependent variable

- *Contemporaneous exogeneity*:  $E(u_t | y_{t-1}) = 0$
- *Strict exogeneity*:  $E(u_t | y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n-1}) = 0$ .
- Strict exogeneity would imply that  $cov(y_t, u_t) = 0$  for all  $t = 1, \dots, n-1$
- But this is incompatible with model (1) as this leads to a contradiction:

- Notice that equation (1) implies that for all  $t = 1, \dots, n-1$

$$cov(y_t, u_t) = \alpha_1 cov(y_{t-1}, u_t) + var(u_t)$$

- On the other hand, strict exogeneity implies also that  $cov(y_{t-1}, u_t) = 0$ , it follows that  $cov(y_t, u_t) = var(u_t) > 0$ , hence contradiction!
- The solution to this problem is to drop the assumption of strict exogeneity and assume *contemporaneous exogeneity*.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Assumptions for consistency and asymptotic normality of the OLS

Let us consider:

Assumption (TS.4' - contemporaneous homoskedasticity)

For each  $t = 1, 2, \dots, n$  :

$$\text{Var}(u_t | \mathbf{x}_t) = \text{Var}(u_t) = \sigma^2$$

Assumption (TS.5' - No Serial Correlation)

For each  $t; s = 1, 2, \dots, n$  such that  $t \neq s$ :

$$\text{Corr}(u_t, u_s | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_s) = 0$$

Theorem

With assumptions TS.1' through TS.5', we have *asymptotic normality* of the OLS estimators. The usual *standard errors*, *t statistics*, *F statistics* and *LM statistics* are valid asymptotically (that is if the sample size is large).

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Autoregressive distributed Lag model

Now we have the tools to estimate a dynamic model with lagged dependent variables as regressors.

The *Autoregressive distributed Lag model* is given by

$$y_t = \alpha + \sum_{i=0}^q \beta_{i+1} x_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^p \gamma_i y_{t-i} + u_t$$

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Autoregressive distributed Lag model

Let us consider a simple case

$$y_t = \alpha + \gamma_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_1 x_t + \beta_2 x_{t-1} + u_t,$$
$$|\gamma_1| < 1$$

We are going to study the change in  $y_t, y_{t+1}, y_{t+2}$  as  $x$  changes *temporarily* or *permanently* in period  $t$  :

The change in  $y_t$  as  $x$  changes *temporarily* in period  $t$  :

$$\frac{\partial y_t}{\partial x_t} = \beta_1$$

The change in  $y_t$  as  $x$  changes *permanently* in period  $t$  :

$$\frac{\partial y_t}{\partial x_t} = \beta_1$$

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Autoregressive distributed Lag model

Now in period  $t + 1$ :

$$y_{t+1} = \alpha + \gamma_1 y_t + \beta_1 x_{t+1} + \beta_2 x_t + u_t$$

The change in  $y_{t+1}$  as  $x$  changes *temporarily* in period  $t$  :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial y_{t+1}}{\partial x_t} &= \gamma_1 \frac{\partial y_t}{\partial x_t} + \beta_2 \\ &= \gamma_1 \beta_1 + \beta_2\end{aligned}$$

The change in  $y_{t+1}$  as  $x$  changes *permanently* in period  $t$  :

$$\frac{\partial y_{t+1}}{\partial x_t} + \frac{\partial y_{t+1}}{\partial x_{t+1}} = \gamma_1 \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_1$$

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Autoregressive distributed Lag model

Now in period  $t + 2$  :

$$y_{t+2} = \alpha + \gamma_1 y_{t+1} + \beta_1 x_{t+2} + \beta_2 x_{t+1} + u_t$$

The change in  $y_{t+2}$  as  $x$  changes *temporarily* in period  $t$  :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial y_{t+2}}{\partial x_t} &= \gamma_1 \frac{\partial y_{t+1}}{\partial x_t} \\ &= \gamma_1(\gamma_1 \beta_1 + \beta_2)\end{aligned}$$

The change in  $y_{t+2}$  as  $x$  changes *permanently* in period  $t$  :

$$\frac{\partial y_{t+2}}{\partial x_{t+2}} + \frac{\partial y_{t+2}}{\partial x_{t+1}} + \frac{\partial y_{t+2}}{\partial x_t} = \beta_1 + \gamma_1 \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \gamma_1(\gamma_1 \beta_1 + \beta_2).$$

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Autoregressive distributed Lag model

## Long run multiplier

Suppose that the economy were in a *steady state* in which all of the variables were constant over time. Hence  $x_t = x_{t-1} = x$ ,  $y_t = y$  and in the steady state  $u_t = 0$ . The long run relation is given by

$$y = \alpha + \gamma_1 y + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x$$

Hence the *long-run relationship* is given by

$$y = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \gamma_1} + \frac{\beta_1 + \beta_2}{1 - \gamma_1} x$$

the *long run multiplier (propensity)* is given by  $\frac{\beta_1 + \beta_2}{1 - \gamma_1}$ .



# Basic Regression Analysis with Time Series Data

Inference on the long-run propensity

- Inference on  $\frac{\beta_1 + \beta_2}{1 - \gamma_1}$ .
- Suppose the null hypothesis is  $H_0 : \frac{\beta_1 + \beta_2}{1 - \gamma_1} = a$ , where  $a$  is a constant.
- Notice that this is equivalent to  $H_0 : \beta_1 + \beta_2 + a\gamma_1 = a$
- Use the *t-statistic*

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 + a\hat{\gamma}_1 - a}{se(\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 + a\hat{\gamma}_1)}$$

where  $se(\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 + a\hat{\gamma}_1)$  is the standard error of  $\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 + a\hat{\gamma}_1$ .

# Basic Regression Analysis with Time Series Data

Inference on the long-run propensity

- Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 + a\hat{\gamma}_1) &= \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) + \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_2) + a^2\text{Var}(\hat{\gamma}_1) \\ &\quad + 2\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) + 2a \times \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\gamma}_1) \\ &\quad + 2a \times \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_2, \hat{\gamma}_1). \end{aligned}$$

- Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 + a\hat{\gamma}_1)^2 &= \text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1)^2 + \text{se}(\hat{\beta}_2)^2 + a^2\text{se}(\hat{\gamma}_1)^2 \\ &\quad + 2 \times s(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) + 2a \times s(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\gamma}_1) \\ &\quad + 2a \times s(\hat{\beta}_2, \hat{\gamma}_1), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)$  is the standard error of  $\hat{\beta}_j$ ,  $\text{se}(\hat{\gamma}_1)$  is the standard error of  $\hat{\gamma}_1$  and  $s(.,.)$  is an estimator of  $\text{Cov}(.,.)$ .

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Autoregressive distributed Lag model

**Example:** Consumption ( $lc$ ) is expected to depend on income ( $ly$ ) and inflation ( $ir$ ). The latter variable is a proxy for wealth effects.

$$lc_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 ly_t + \beta_2 ir_t + \beta_3 ly_{t-1} + \beta_4 ir_{t-1} + \beta_5 lc_{t-1} + u_t,$$

We estimate the dynamic model by OLS and obtained the following results:

lct	Coef.	Std. Err.	t
ly <sub>t</sub>	0.7619	0.0468	16.2700
ir <sub>t</sub>	-0.0724	0.2605	-0.2800
lc <sub>t-1</sub>	0.8353	0.1169	7.1400
ly <sub>t-1</sub>	-0.5975	0.1300	-4.6000
ir <sub>t-1</sub>	0.3000	0.2372	1.2600
intercept	-0.0708	0.1510	-0.4700

R-squared= 0.9979

Number of observations=32

Residual sum of squares= 0.003757558

Compute the change in  $lc_t$ ,  $lc_{t+1}$  as  $ly$  changes permanently in period  $t$ .

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Autoregressive distributed Lag model

The variance covariance matrix of the Ordinary Least squares estimator is given by

	$ly_t$	$ir_t$	$lc_{t-1}$	$ly_{t-1}$	$ir_{t-1}$	intercept
$ly_t$	0.0022					
$ir_t$	0.0014	0.0679				
$lc_{t-1}$	-0.0001	0.0191	0.0137			
$ly_{t-1}$	-0.0019	-0.0216	-0.0143	0.0169		
$ir_{t-1}$	0.0004	-0.0527	-0.0149	0.0155	0.0563	
intercept	-0.0020	0.0187	0.0134	-0.0131	-0.0165	0.0228

Test the hypothesis that the long-run multiplier of income is equal to 1.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Random Walks

- A *random walk* is an  $AR(1)$  model where  $\rho_1 = 1$ , meaning the series is not weakly dependent:

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + e_t.$$

- $e_t$  is a white noise process with variance  $\sigma_e^2$ .
- With a random walk, the expected value of  $y_t$  is always  $y_0$  – it doesn't depend on  $t$
- $Var(y_t) = \sigma_e^2 t$ , so it increases with  $t$
- A random walk is *not covariance stationary*.
- We say a random walk is *highly persistent* since  $E(y_{t+h}|y_t) = y_t$  for all  $h \geq 1$
- Contrast conditional expectation of random walk,  $E(y_{t+h}|y_t) = y_t$ , with conditional expectation of the stable  $AR(1)$  process,  $E(y_{t+h}|y_t) = \rho_1^h y_t$ .
- For stable  $AR(1)$  process ( $|\rho_1| < 1$ )  $E(y_{t+h}|y_t)$  approaches zero (unconditional expected value) exponentially fast as  $h \rightarrow \infty$ .

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Random Walks (continued)

- A random walk is a special case of what's known as a *unit root process*. A unit root process is defined as

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + e_t.$$

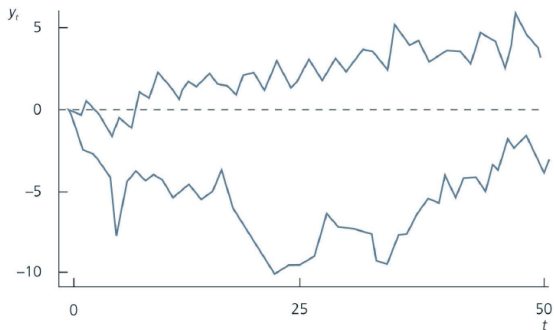
where  $e_t$  is a weakly dependent process (like an AR(1) or MA(1) etc...).

- **Example:** GDP is (most likely) a unit root process.
- A *random walk with drift (intercept)* is an example of a highly persistent series that is trending

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + y_{t-1} + e_t$$

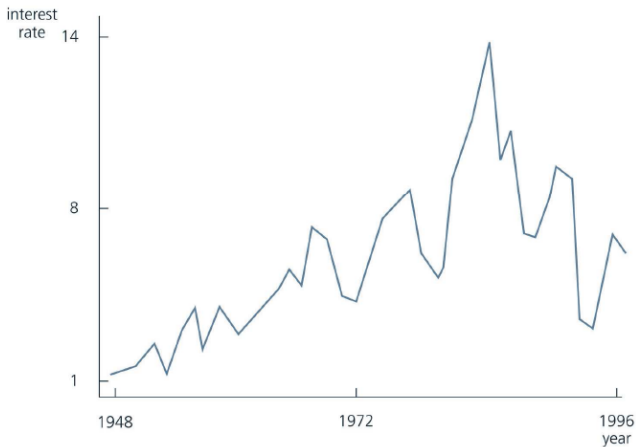
# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

Two realizations of the random walk  $y_t = y_{t-1} + e_t$ , with  $y_0 = 0$ ,  
 $e_t \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$ , and  $n = 50$ .



# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

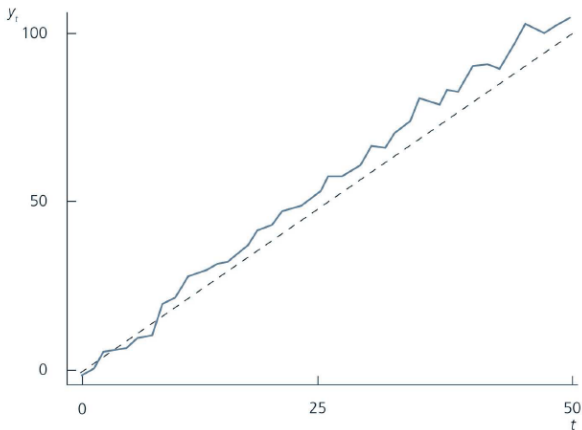
The U.S. three-month T-bill rate, for the years 1948–1996.





# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

A realization of the random walk with drift,  $y_t = 2 + y_{t-1} + e_t$ , with  $y_0 = 0$ ,  $e_t \sim \text{Normal}(0, 9)$ , and  $n = 50$ . The dashed line is the expected value of  $y_t$ ,  $E(y_t) = 2t$ .



# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Transforming Persistent Series

- In order to use a highly persistent series and get meaningful estimates and make correct inferences, we want to transform it into a weakly dependent process.
- To have consistency and make inference, since TS.1' fails! TS.1' through TS.6' are hard to get with highly persistent series!
- We refer to a weakly dependent process as being *integrated of order zero*,  $[I(0)]$
- A random walk (or in general a unit-root process) is *integrated of order one*,  $[I(1)]$ , meaning a first difference will be  $I(0)$ . ( $\Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$ ) are  $I(0)$ .
- In practice we do not know whether a series is  $I(0)$  or  $I(1)$ .

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Deciding Whether a Time Series Is I(1)

- A simple tool for determining if the process is I(1) is to consider an AR(1) model

$$y_t = \rho_1 y_{t-1} + u_t.$$

- If the process is *I(0)*,  $|\rho_1| < 1$ , but it is *I(1)* if  $\rho_1 = 1$ .
- $\rho_1 = \text{Corr}(y_t, y_{t-1})$ , thus we can estimate it from the sample correlation between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-1}$ :  $\hat{\rho}_1 = \widehat{\text{Corr}}(y_t, y_{t-1})$ ; it is called *first order autocorrelation* of  $\{y_t\}$ .
- If the sample first order autocorrelation is close to one, this suggests that the time series may be highly persistent (= contains a unit root)
- When estimating  $\rho_1$ , we should consider a trend in the series; detrend the series first, or include a trend in the regression.
- Both unit root and trend may be eliminated by differencing.
- It is possible to test the hypothesis  $H_0 : \rho_1 = 1$ , although we are not going to cover these tests in this module.

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Deciding Whether a Time Series Is I(1)

**Example:** Fertility equation:

$$gfr_t = \alpha_0 + \delta_0 pe_t + \delta_1 pe_{t-1} + \delta_2 pe_{t-2} + u_t$$


- For large sample analysis, the fertility series and the series of the personal tax exemption have to be stationary and weakly dependent. This is questionable because the two series are highly persistent::

$$\hat{\rho}_{gfr} = .977, \hat{\rho}_{pe} = .964$$

- It is therefore better to estimate the equation in first differences. This makes sense because if the equation holds in levels, it also has to hold in first differences:

$$\Delta \widehat{gfr} = - .964 - .036 \Delta pe - .014 \Delta pe_{-1} + .110 \Delta pe_{-2}$$

(.468) (.027) (.028) (0.027)



$$n = 69, R^2 = .233, \bar{R}^2 = .197 \qquad \delta_2$$

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Dynamically Complete Models and the Absence of Serial Correlation

- Consider the general model

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t,$$

where the explanatory variables  $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_{1t}, \dots, x_{kt})$  may or may not contain lags of  $y_t$  or  $x_{jt}$ .

- A model is said to be *dynamically complete model*. if enough lagged variables have been included as explanatory variables so that further lags do not help to explain the dependent variable:

$$E(y_t | \mathbf{x}_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \dots) = E(y_t | \mathbf{x}_t).$$

- This implies that  $E(u_t | \mathbf{x}_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \dots) = 0$ .
- A dynamically complete model *must* satisfy assumption about uncorrelated regression errors (TS 5')

$$E(u_t u_s | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_s) = 0.$$

- One can easily test for dynamic completeness: If lags cannot be excluded, this suggests there is serial correlation

# Further Issues in Using OLS with Time Series Data.

## Dynamically Complete Models and the Absence of Serial Correlation

### *Sequential exogeneity*

- A set of explanatory variables is said to be sequentially exogenous if "enough" lagged explanatory variables have been included:

$$E(u_t | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \dots) = E(u_t) = 0.$$

- Sequential exogeneity is *weaker* than strict exogeneity
- Sequential exogeneity is equivalent to dynamic completeness if the explanatory variables contain a lagged dependent variable
- Should all regression models be dynamically complete?
- Not necessarily: If sequential exogeneity holds,  $E(y_t | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \dots)$  will be correctly estimated; absence of serial correlation is not crucial.