

Lecture 07

Assumptions:

$$(C.6) \quad u_t \perp u_s, \quad \forall t \neq s$$

$$(C.7) \quad u_t \perp x_t, \quad \forall t \in \{1, 2, \dots, T\}$$

Considering (C.7):

- Given the model $y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + u_t$, then $\hat{\beta}_2^{OLS} = \frac{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})(y_t - \bar{y})}{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})^2}$.
- Use that $(y_t - \bar{y}) = \beta_2(x_t - \bar{x}) + (u_t - \bar{u})$ - with $\bar{u} = 0$ -, since $\hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{x}$ (more [here](#)).
- We have $\hat{\beta}_2^{OLS} = \beta_2 \frac{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})^2} + \frac{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})u_t}{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})^2} = \beta_2 + \frac{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})u_t}{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})^2}$
 - Let $a_t := \frac{x_t - \bar{x}}{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})^2}$, then $\hat{\beta}_2 = \beta_2 + \sum a_t u_t$.
- To show it is unbiased, we take the expected value: $E(\hat{\beta}_2) = \beta_2 + E[\sum (a_t u_t)]$.
 - If a_t and u_t are uncorrelated, then $E(\hat{\beta}_2) = \beta_2 + \sum [E(a_t)E(u_t)]$.
 - Since $E(u_t) = 0$, then $E(\hat{\beta}_2) = \beta_2$, provided that a_t and u_t are uncorrelated.
 - a_t depends upon **all** x_t , $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$.
- If x_t (current) and u_t are correlated, then $\hat{\beta}_2$ is biased ($E(\hat{\beta}_2) \neq \beta_2$) and inconsistent - $\text{plim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\beta}_2 \neq \beta_2$.
 - More on the bias and consistency of an estimator [here](#) and [here](#), respectively.
- If x_t and u_t are uncorrelated, but x_t and u_s are correlated, for $t \neq s$, then $\hat{\beta}_2$ is biased but consistent.

Basic models

$$(1) \quad y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + u_t, \quad u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + e_t$$

- In this case, $\hat{\beta}_2$ is unbiased and consistent, but inefficient, because u_t and u_{t-1} are correlated.
 - (C.6) might be an example.
 - More on the efficiency of an estimator [here](#).

$$(2) \quad y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \beta_3 y_{t-1} + u_t, \quad u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + e_t$$

- y_{t-1} is a function of u_{t-1} .
 - y_{t-1} is correlated to u_{t-1} .
 - In other words, the error is correlated with a variable that is not its contemporaneous.
- In this case, $\hat{\beta}_2$ is biased and inefficient but consistent.

$$(3) \quad y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \beta_3 y_{t-1} + u_t, \quad u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + e_t$$

- The model can be rewritten as: $y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \beta_3 y_{t-1} + \rho u_{t-1} + e_t$.
- Since u_{t-1} is inside y_{t-1} , then u_{t-1} and y_{t-1} are correlated.
 - Now, the errors are dependent upon its contemporaneous *and* other variables.

- Then, $\hat{\beta}_2$ is biased, inefficient and inconsistent.

For the model:

$$(1) \quad y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + u_t, \quad u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + e_t$$

- It violates the assumption (C.6), because the errors are correlated.
- $\hat{\beta}$ is thus unbiased, inconsistent and inefficient.
 - When positive serial correlation exists (i. e., $\rho > 0$), the standard errors are too small.
 - The t statistic $t = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta^{H_0}}{\sigma_{\hat{\beta}}}$ then blows up.
 - F statistics will get too big, as well.
- Misspecification can also give rise to serial correlation:
 - Suppose a serially correlated variable x_3 (say, GDP) is left out of the model.
 - The effect of that variable would be added to the errors, making them serially correlated, as well.
 - Trying to fit a non-linear relation (say, quadratic) through linear regression may give the impression of serial correlation.
 - If the line is secant to the curve, for instance, the errors would be positive-negative-positive (or negative-positive-negative) and would *seem* serially correlated.

Durbin-Watson test for autocorrelation

This is a test for first order serial correlation **only**.

- For instance, a model $y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + u_t, \quad u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + e_t$ with $|\rho| < 1$.
- This is called a first-order autoregressive process (or AR(1)), because it has one lag.
 - Analogously, if the errors were defined as $u_t = \rho_1 u_{t-1} + \rho_2 u_{t-2} + \rho_3 u_{t-3} + e_t$, it would be an AR(3).
 - Since there is no lag on the term e_t , this is a 0th order moving average process (MA(0)).
 - An error defined as, say, $u_t = \rho_1 u_{t-1} + \rho_2 u_{t-2} + \rho_3 u_{t-3} + \delta_1 e_{t-1} + \delta_2 e_{t-2}$ would be classified as an autoregressive moving average model ARMA(3, 2).
 - More generally, an ARMA(p, q) is given by $u_t = \sum_{i=1}^p \rho_i u_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^q \delta_j e_{t-j}$, for $p, q < t$.
 - For more on autoregressive models, see [this link](#).

Hypotheses:

$$H_0 : \rho = 0$$

$$H_1 : \rho \neq 0$$

Steps:

1. Estimate $y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$ by OLS, save \hat{u}_t .

2. Compute the test statistic $d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^T (\hat{u}_t - \hat{u}_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{u}_t^2}$, so that $0 < d < 4$.
- $0 < d < 2$ would suggest a positive serial correlation one-tailed test, while $2 < d < 4$, a negative serial correlation one-tailed test.
3. (a) For the one-tailed test version of the test $H_1 : \rho > 0$ (testing for positive serial correlation), obtain from the [table](#) (external link [here](#)) the critical lower and upper values d_L and d_U for the N observations, k variables and significance α .
- For the positive test, the area of interest will be the interval $[0, 2]$, so that $d_L, d_U \in [0, 2]$ with $d_L < d_U$.
 - If the test statistic $d_U < d_{\text{test}} < 2$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.
 - If $0 < d_{\text{test}} < d_L$, we reject the null hypothesis.
 - Otherwise, if $d_L < d_{\text{test}} < d_U$, the (positive serial correlation) test is inconclusive.
 - Usually, another test is performed (namely, the LM test).
3. (b) For the other one-tailed version of the test $H_1 : \rho < 0$ (testing for negative serial correlation), obtain d_L and d_U for the given N , k and α .
- For the negative test, the area of interest will be the interval $[2, 4]$ so that $(4 - d_U), (4 - d_L) \in [2, 4]$ with $(4 - d_U) < (4 - d_L)$.
 - If $2 < d_{\text{test}} < (4 - d_U)$ - *id est*, $(4 - d) > d_U$ -, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.
 - If $(4 - d_L) < d_{\text{test}} < 4$ - *id est*, $(4 - d) < d_L$ -, we reject the null hypothesis.
 - Otherwise, if $(4 - d_U) < d_{\text{test}} < (4 - d_L)$ - *id est*, $d_L < (4 - d) < d_U$ -, the (negative serial correlation) test is inconclusive.

For more on the Durbin-Watson test, see [this link](#).

Why is d between 0 and 4?

- The correlation can be estimated by $\hat{\rho} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^T \hat{u}_t \hat{u}_{t-1}}{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{u}_t^2}$.
 - Then, $\hat{\rho} = \frac{\frac{1}{(N-k)} \sum_{t=2}^T \hat{u}_t \hat{u}_{t-1}}{\frac{1}{(N-k)} \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{u}_t^2} \approx \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(\hat{u}_t, \hat{u}_{t-1})}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_t)}$: note that the sum in the numerator is missing one term.
- The test statistic is given by $d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^T (\hat{u}_t - \hat{u}_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{u}_t^2}$.
 - Expanding the numerator $d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^T (\hat{u}_t^2 - 2\hat{u}_t \hat{u}_{t-1} + \hat{u}_{t-1}^2)}{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{u}_t^2}$.

- $$(N - k - 1) \sum_{t=2}^T \frac{1}{(N - k - 1)} (\hat{u}_t^2 - 2\hat{u}_t \hat{u}_{t-1} + \hat{u}_{t-1}^2)$$
- Rewriting it: $d = \frac{(N - k - 1) \sum_{t=2}^T \frac{1}{(N - k - 1)} (\hat{u}_t^2 - 2\hat{u}_t \hat{u}_{t-1} + \hat{u}_{t-1}^2)}{(N - k) \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{(N - k)} \hat{u}_t^2}$.
 - $\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{(N - k)} \hat{u}_t^2$ is an estimate of the variance.
 - $\sum_{t=2}^T \frac{1}{(N - k - 1)} \hat{u}_t^2$ is an estimate of the variance (with one less observation: \hat{u}_1).
 - $\sum_{t=2}^T \frac{1}{(N - k - 1)} \hat{u}_{t-1}^2$ is also an estimate of the variance (short of one observation: \hat{u}_T).
 - $\sum_{t=2}^T \frac{1}{(N - k - 1)} \hat{u}_t \hat{u}_{t-1}$ is an estimate of the covariance of \hat{u}_t and \hat{u}_{t-1} .
 - The test statistic may be thus estimated

$$d = \frac{N - k - 1}{N - k} \left(\frac{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_t) - 2\widehat{\text{Cov}}(\hat{u}_t, \hat{u}_{t-1}) + \widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_{t-1})}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_t)} \right).$$
 - The larger the number of observations, the closer $\frac{N - k - 1}{N - k}$ is to 1.
 - $\frac{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_t) - 2\widehat{\text{Cov}}(\hat{u}_t, \hat{u}_{t-1}) + \widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_{t-1})}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_t)} = 2 \left(1 - \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(\hat{u}_t, \hat{u}_{t-1})}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{u}_t)} \right).$
 - Thus, $d \approx 2(1 - \hat{\rho})$.
 - Asymptotically, as $t \rightarrow \infty$, $d = 2(1 - \rho)$.
 - If there is perfect positive correlation ($\rho = 1$), then $d = 0$.
 - If there is no correlation ($\rho = 0$), then $d = 2$.
 - If there is perfect negative correlation ($\rho = -1$), then $d = 4$.

Observation:

$$\hat{\beta}_2^{\text{OLS}} = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

If we multiply both the numerator and denominator by $\frac{1}{N - k}$:

$$\hat{\beta}_2^{\text{OLS}} = \frac{\frac{1}{N - k} \sum (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\frac{1}{N - k} \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

then the numerator becomes an estimate of the covariance of X and Y , whereas the denominator turns into an estimate of the variance of X :

$$\hat{\beta}_2^{\text{OLS}} = \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(X, Y)}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(X)}.$$