Recitation 10

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Time series: Setting up the approach

- Collect data on same observational unit *i* for multiple time periods.
- Primary uses: Forecasting, modeling risks, and analyzing dynamic causal effects
- Time series differs in that errors are likely to be autocorrelated and thus require different ways to calculate the standard error.
- Let Y_t be the time series data captured at certain period t GDP
- Lags are characterized as Y_{t-1} and leads are defined as Y_{t+1} .
- $\Delta Y_t \equiv Y_t Y_{t-1}$: The **first difference** at time t.

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AR and ADL: Number of lags for dependent and independent variables

• AR(p): Y_t is regressed against its own lagged values by p times:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + ... + \beta_p Y_{t-p} + u_t$$

- **Each** coefficient β_k indicates how past values are useful in forecasting
- ADL(p, q): p lags of dependent variable and q lags for X variable

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + ... + \beta_p Y_{t-p} + \delta_1 X_{t-1} + ... + \delta_q X_{t-q} + u_t$$

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AR and ADL: Selecting number of lags

• Right amount of p and q minimizes the following information criteria

$$AIC: \ln\left(rac{SSR(p,q)}{T}
ight) + (K)rac{2}{T} \quad BIC: \ln\left(rac{SSR(p,q)}{T}
ight) + (K)rac{\ln T}{T}$$

where K = 1 + p + q

• Granger causality: Test that helps us see whether X is useful in predicting Y

$$H_0: \delta_1 = ... = \delta_q = 0, \ H_1: \neg H_0$$

If the null hypothesis is rejected, we say that X Granger-causes Y

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Forecasting: What is a good forecast?

- Forecast inteval captures how accurate your forecasts are.
- Assume an ADL(1,1) type of equation, with forecast error $Y_{T+1} \hat{Y}_{T+1|T}$, or

$$[(\beta_0 - \hat{\beta}_0) + (\beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1)Y_T + (\delta_1 - \hat{\delta}_1)X_T] + u_{T+1}$$

Mean squared forecast error (MSFE): standard errors used to create forecast interval

$$E[(Y_{T+1} - \hat{Y}_{T+1|T})^2] = E[u_{T+1}^2] + E\left[\left((\beta_0 - \hat{\beta}_0) + (\beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1)Y_T + (\delta_1 - \hat{\delta}_1)X_T\right)^2\right]$$
$$= var(u_{T+1}) + var[(\beta_0 - \hat{\beta}_0) + (\beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1)Y_T + (\delta_1 - \hat{\delta}_1)X_T]$$

• As sample size increases, the uncertainty part (variance term), converges to 0. So MSFE is approximately equal to $var(u_{T+1})$.

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Forecasting: How volatile is the forecast?

- Root mean squared forecast error (RMSFE) is just $\sqrt{E[(Y_{T+1} \hat{Y}_{T+1|T})^2]}$
- Measures the spread of the forecast error distribution (magnitude of an 'error in forecasting')
- In practice, we estimate RMSFE using either SER (from several lectures ago) or based on actual forecast history for $t = t_1, ..., T$ and get

$$MSFE = \frac{1}{T - t_1 + 1} \sum_{t=t_1-1}^{T-1} (Y_{t+1} - \hat{Y}_{t+1|t})^2$$

Forecast interval: The bounds for the forecast intervals if size 95% is constructed as

$$\hat{Y}_{T+1|T} \pm 1.96 \times \widehat{\textit{RMSFE}}$$

where *RMSFE* is obtained using one of the two methods mentioned.

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Stationarity: Is the distribution of the data stable across time or not?

- Stationary: Distribution of $(Y_{t+1}, ..., Y_{t+s})$ does not depend on t.
- In other words, the distribution of Y does not change over time
- Nonstationary: When there is a trend or a break in the movement of the data (or any change in underlying parameters),
- Trends
 - **Deterministic trend** is a nonrandom function of time, $(Y_t = \alpha t^2)$
 - Stochastic trend is random, and time-variant distribution, such as the random walk $Y_t = Y_{t-1} + u_t$ (You can check that $var(Y_t) = t\sigma_u^2$)
 - Any other case where $\beta_1 > 1$ is also nonstationary

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Stationarity: Testing for this in AR(1)

- Eyeball test: Check graphically
- Dickey-Fuller test: Check for the existence of a 'unit root' by testing

$$H_0: \beta_1 \geq 1, \ H_1: \beta_1 < 1$$

For a general case with AR(p),

$$Y_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} Y_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_{p} Y_{t-p} + u_{t}$$

$$= \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} Y_{t-1} - \beta_{2} Y_{t-1} + \beta_{2} Y_{t-1} + \beta_{2} Y_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_{p} Y_{t-p} + u_{t}$$

$$\dots$$

$$= \beta_{0} + (\beta_{1} + \dots + \beta_{p}) Y_{t-1} - (\beta_{2} + \dots + \beta_{p}) \Delta Y_{t-1} - \dots - \beta_{p} \Delta Y_{t-p+1} + u_{t}$$

► Test whether $H_0: \beta_1 + ... + \beta_p \ge 1, H_1: \beta_1 + ... + \beta_p < 1$

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Stationarity: Testing structural breaks

- ullet Assume a ADL(1,1) structure, but that we know when the structural break occurs at year au
- Let $D_t(\tau) = 1$ if year $t \ge \tau$ and 0 otherwise.
- Then we write the equation as

$$Y_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} Y_{t-1} + \delta_{1} X_{t-1} + \gamma_{1} D_{t}(\tau) + \gamma_{2} D_{t}(\tau) Y_{t-1} + \gamma_{3} D_{t}(\tau) X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

• To check for structural break, test joint hypothesis of the following form:

$$H_0: \gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = \gamma_3 = 0, H_1: \neg H_0$$

This is the idea behind the **Chow test**.

If structural break is unknown, we can do a Quandt Likelihood Ratio test that implements
multiple Chow tests and finds the point where structural break most likely happened, if it
occurred.

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Dynamic Causal analysis with distributed lag models

- **Dynamic causal effect** captures the effect of *X* on *Y* over time.
- Write the distributed lag model as

$$Y_t = \alpha + \beta_0 X_t + \beta_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_p X_{t-p} + u_t$$

- β_0 captures the contemporaneous impact of X on Y, holding past values of X constant.
- $\beta_j, j \in [1, p]$ captures the impact of X from j period(s) ago on Y, holding X from other periods constant

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Dynamic Causal analysis: Implementation

- Cumulative effect: Cumulative effect can be captured by summing over multiple β 's
- Specifically, we can write

$$Y_{t} = \alpha + \beta_{0}X_{t} + \beta_{1}X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

$$= \alpha + \beta_{0}X_{t} - \beta_{0}X_{t-1} + \beta_{0}X_{t-1} + \beta_{1}X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

$$= \alpha + \beta_{0}\Delta X_{t} + (\beta_{0} + \beta_{1})X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

- Assumptions
 - ▶ (Sequential) Exogeneity: $E[u_t|X_t, X_{t-1}, ..., X_1] = 0$. Or that error terms should not be correlated with current and past values of X
 - Stationarity: Y and X should have stationary distributions and (Y_t, X_t) and (Y_{t-j}, X_{t-j}) becomes independent as j gets large.
 - Y and X has nonzero finite moments
 - There is no perfect multicollinearity

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Dynamic Causal analysis: Standard errors

- Given that there is a possibility that autocorrelation can exist, we need a standard error that takes into account autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity.
- This is known as heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent errors (HAC errors).
- The takeaway is that standard errors in the typical STATA output can be wrong and we need to take a slightly different approach.
- Use newey in STATA, with *m* lags for standard errors

$$m = 0.75 \times T^{1/3}$$

where T is the total time periods in the data

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