EC 421, Set 8

Edward Rubin 19 February 2019

# Prologue

## Schedule

### **Last Time**

Midterm + Introduction to time series + Autocorrelation

### Today

Autocorrelation

## **Upcoming**

- **Assignment** This week
- No office hours today.

## R showcase

ggplot2

I previously mentioned the R package ggplot2.

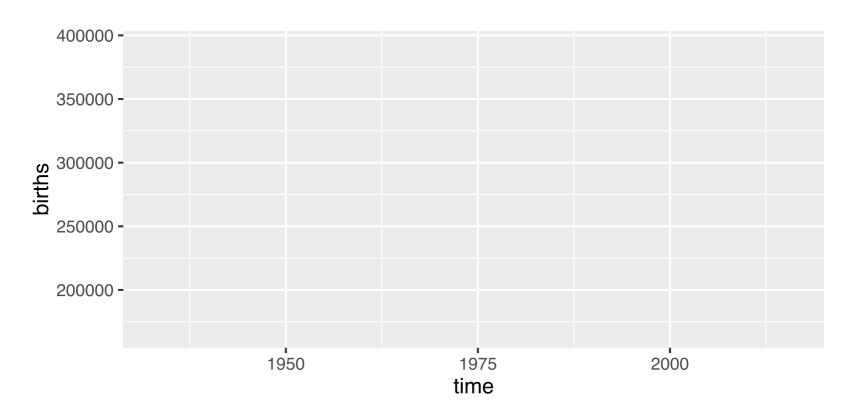
Today, I'm going to show you a bit of the basics of ggplot2.

### **Functions**

I'm also going to tell you a bit about writing your own functions.

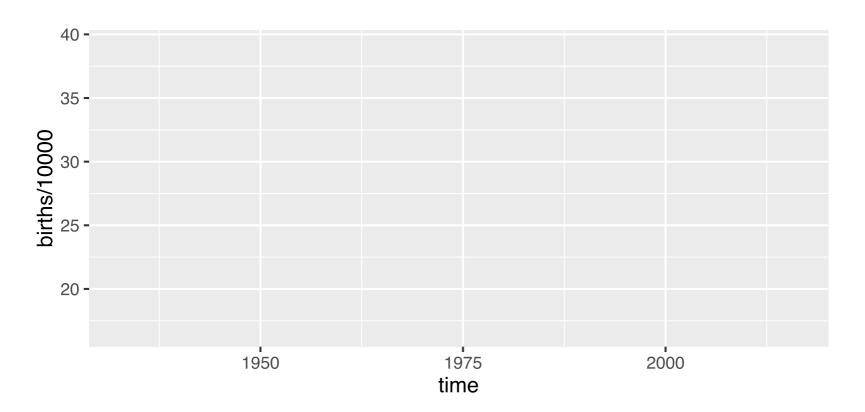
The ggplot function aes arguments define variables from data.

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births))
```



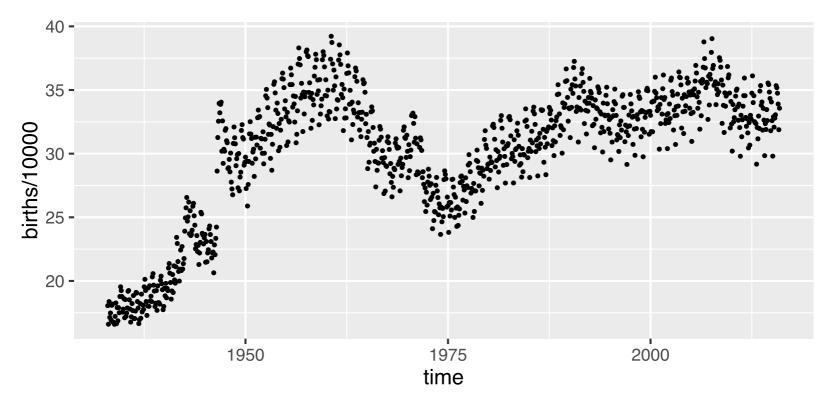
You can apply mathematical operators to the variables.

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births/10000))
```



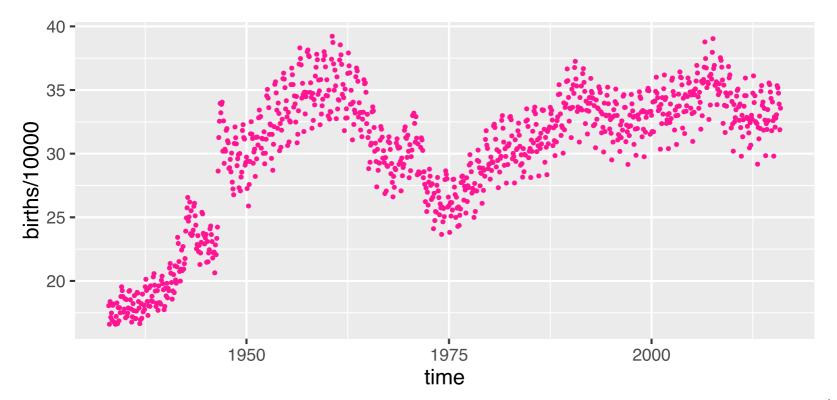
You add geometries (points, lines, etc.) layer by layer.

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births/10000)) +
  geom_point()
```



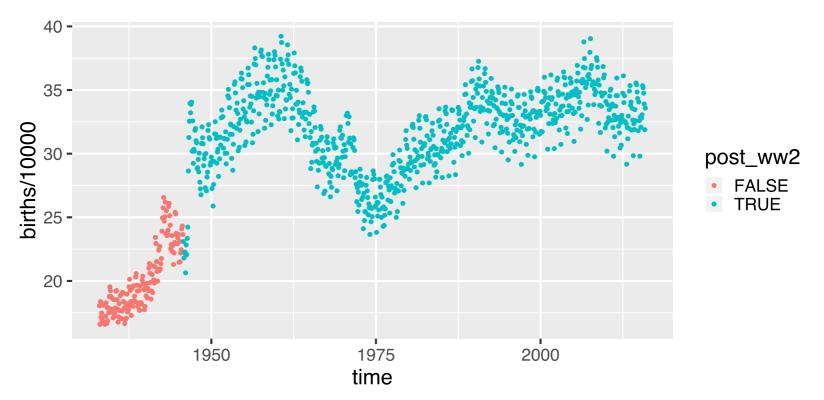
#### Color is easy.

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births/10000)) +
  geom_point(color = "deeppink")
```



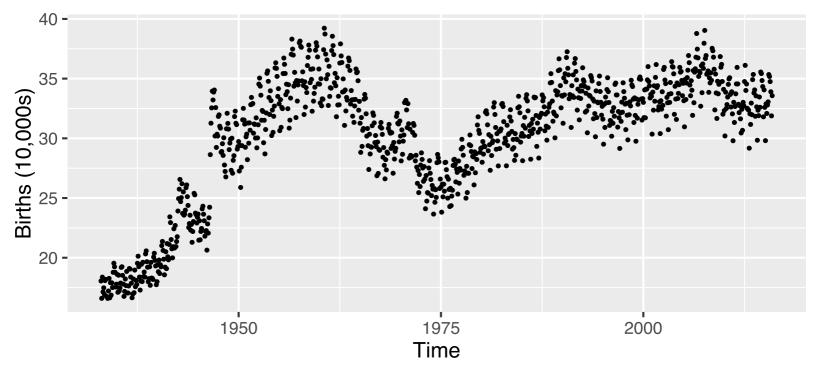
You can even use variables to color.

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births/10000)) +
  geom_point(aes(color = post_ww2))
```



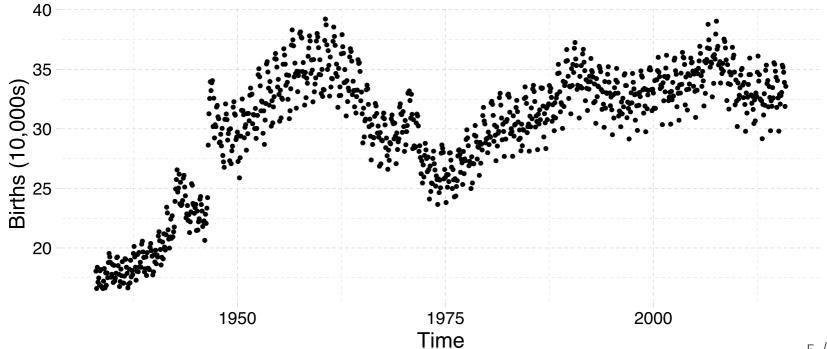
#### Add labels

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births/10000)) +
  geom_point() +
  xlab("Time") + ylab("Births (10,000s)")
```



#### Change the theme...

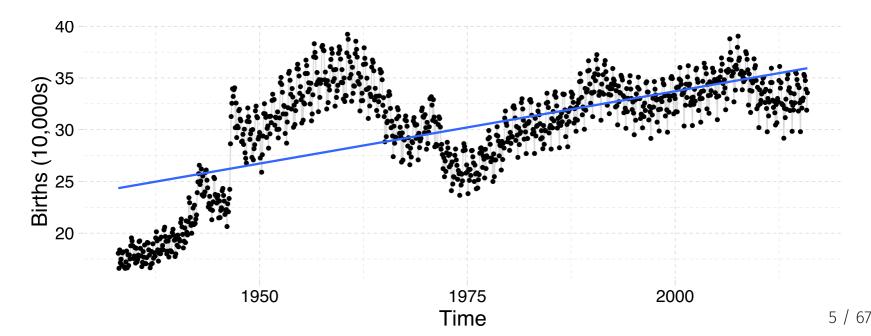
```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births/10000)) +
  geom_point() +
  xlab("Time") + ylab("Births (10,000s)") +
  theme_pander(base_size = 20)
```



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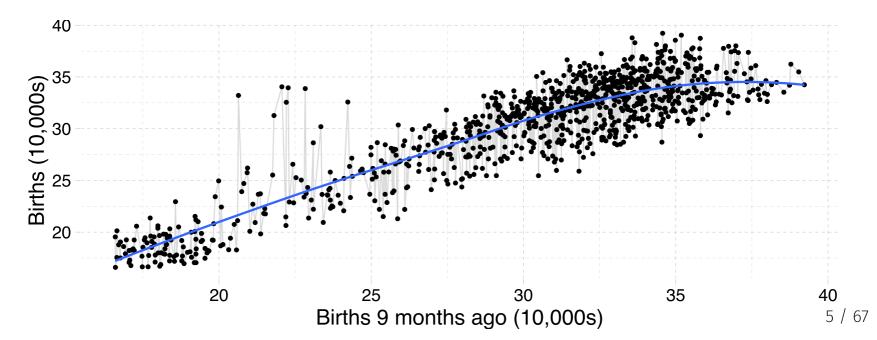
Add other geometries—e.g., connect the dots (line) and a regression line

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = time, y = births/10000)) +
  geom_line(color = "grey85") +
  geom_point() +
  geom_smooth(se = F, method = lm) +
  xlab("Time") + ylab("Births (10,000s)") +
  theme_pander(base_size = 20)
```



Compare births and its 9-month lag...

```
ggplot(data = birth_df, aes(x = lag(births, 9)/10000, y = births/10000)) +
  geom_line(color = "grey85") +
  geom_point() +
  geom_smooth(se = F) +
  xlab("Births 9 months ago (10,000s)") + ylab("Births (10,000s)") +
  theme_pander(base_size = 20)
```



### Functions are everywhere

Everything you do in R involves some sort of function, e.g.,

- mean()
- lm()
- summary()
- read\_csv()
- ggplot()
- +

The basic idea in R is doing things to objects with functions.

### Functions can help

We write functions to make life easier. Instead of copying and pasting the same line of code a million times, you can write one function.

In R, you use the function() function to write functions.

```
# Our first function
the_name ← function(arg1, arg2) {
   # Insert code that involves arg1 and arg2 (this is where the magic happens)
}
```

- the\_name: The name we are giving to our new function.
- arg1: The first argument of our function.
- arg2: The second argument of our function.

#### Our first real function

Let's write a function that multiplies two numbers. (It needs two arguments.)

```
# Create our function
the_product ← function(x, y) {
  x * y
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Let's write a function that multiplies two numbers. (It needs two arguments.)

```
# Create our function
the_product ← function(x, y) {
   x * y
}
```

Did it work?

```
the_product(7, 15)
#> [1] 105
```



### Functions can do anything

... that you tell them.

If you are going to repeat a task (*e.g.*, a simulation), then you have a good situation for writing your own function.

R offers many functions (via its many packages), but you will sometimes find a scenario for which no one has written a function.

Now you know how to write your own.

```
# An ad lib function
ad_lib ← function(noun1, noun2) {
  paste0("The next ", noun1, " of our lecture concerns the ", noun2, ".")
}
```

```
ad_lib(noun1 = "part", noun2 = "midterm")
```

#> [1] "The next part of our lecture concerns the midterm."

## Midterm

## Summary of the midterm grades

The **mean** midterm grade was 72.5.

• Minimum: 22

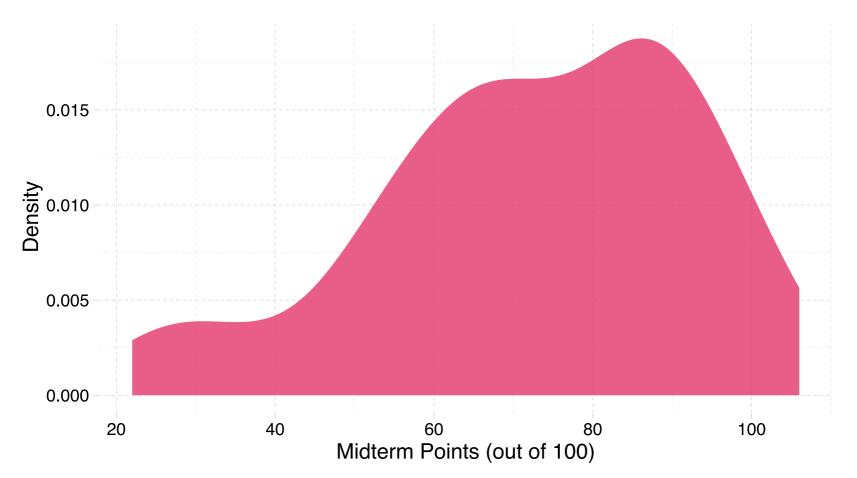
• 25<sup>th</sup> percentile: 61.2

• Median: 73.5

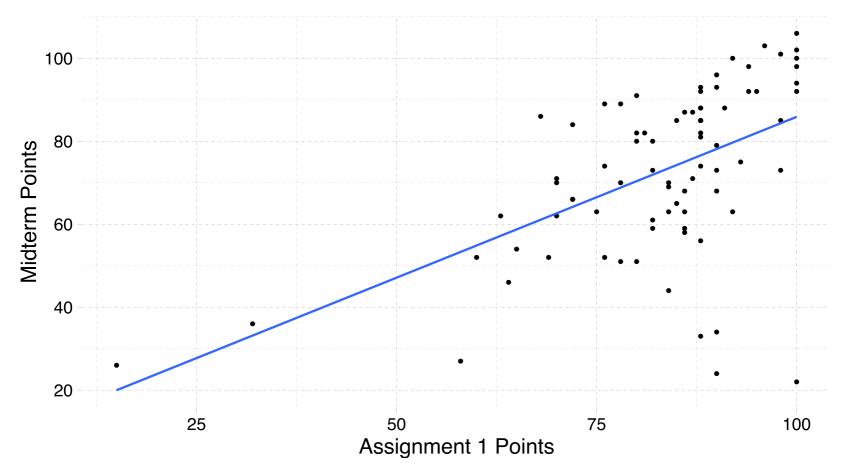
• 75<sup>th</sup> percentile: 88

• Maximum: 106

```
ggplot(data = grades_df, aes(x = midterm)) +
  geom_density(color = NA, fill = red_pink, alpha = 0.85) +
  labs(x = "Midterm Points (out of 100)", y = "Density") +
  theme_pander(base_size = 20)
```



```
ggplot(data = grades_df, aes(x = ps1, y = midterm)) +
  geom_point() + geom_smooth(method = lm, se = F) +
  labs(x = "Assignment 1 Points", y = "Midterm Points") +
  theme_pander(base_size = 20)
```



# Time series

Review

## Time series

#### Review

Changes to our model/framework.

- Our model now has t subscripts for time periods.
- Dynamic models allow lags of explanatory and/or outcome variables.
- We changed our **exogeneity** assumption to **contemporaneous** exogeneity, i.e.,  $\boldsymbol{E}[u_t|X_t]=0$
- Including lags of outcome variables can lead to biased coefficient estimates from OLS.
- Lagged explanatory variables make OLS inefficient.

### What is it?

**Autocorrelation** occurs when our disturbances are correlated over time, *i.e.*,  $Cov(u_t, u_s) \neq 0$  for  $t \neq s$ .

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Note: Serial correlation and autocorrelation are the same thing.

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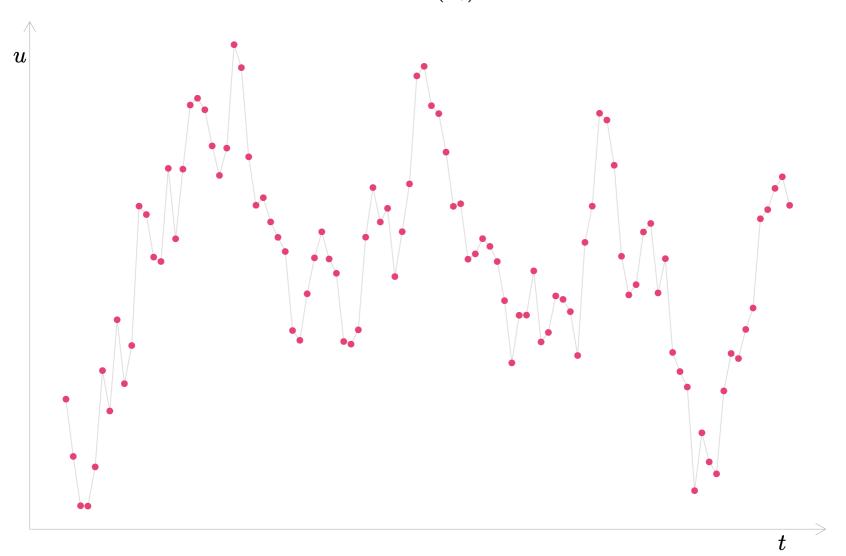
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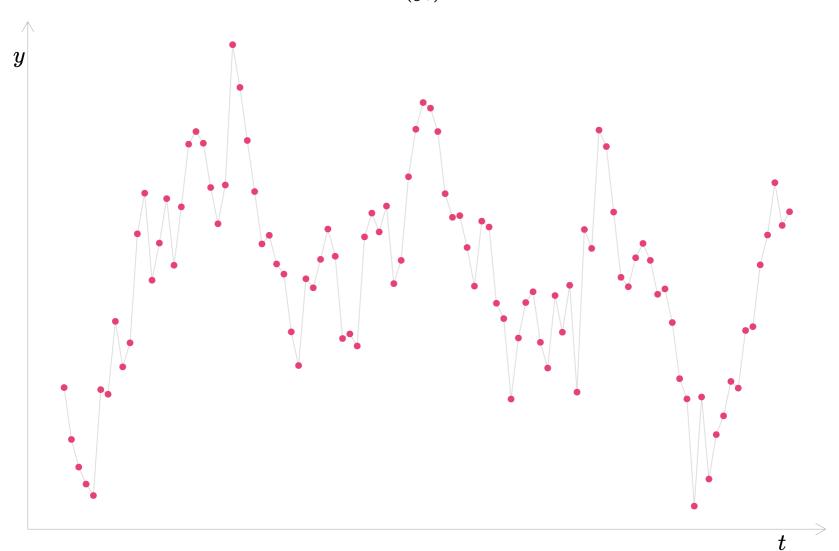
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Why is autocorrelation prevalent in time-series analyses?

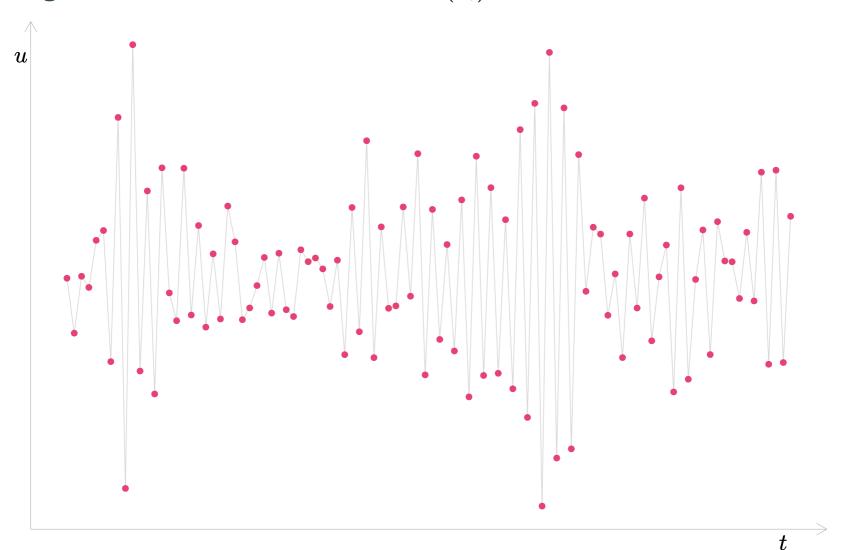
### **Positive autocorrelation**: Disturbances $(u_t)$ over time



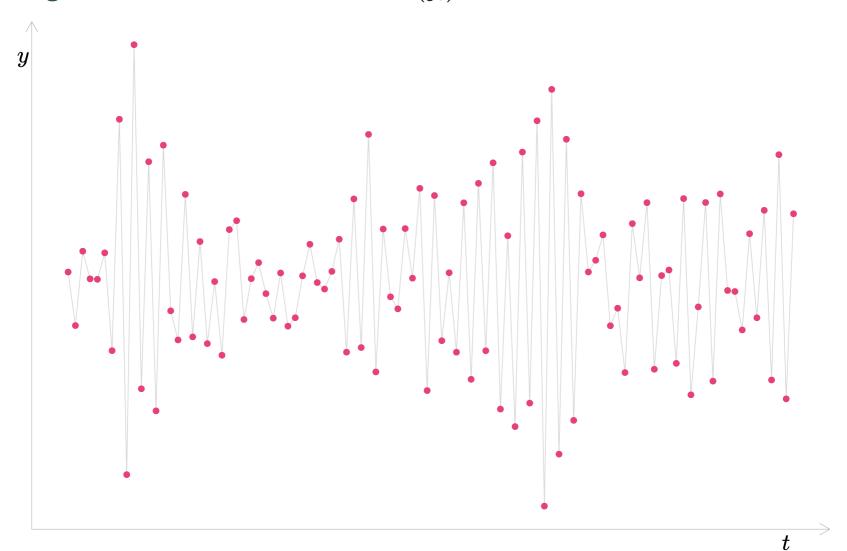
### **Positive autocorrelation**: Outcomes $(y_t)$ over time



### **Negative autocorrelation**: Disturbances $(u_t)$ over time



### **Negative autocorrelation**: Outcomes $(y_t)$ over time



### In static time-series models

Let's start with a very common model: a static time-series model whose disturbances exhibit **first-order autocorrelation**, a.k.a. AR(1):

$$\text{Births}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + u_t$$

where

$$u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

and the  $\varepsilon_t$  are independently and identically distributed (i.i.d.).

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**Second-order autocorrelation**, or AR(2), would be

$$u_t = \rho_1 u_{t-1} + \rho_2 u_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$$

#### In static time-series models

An AR(p) model/process has a disturbance structure of

$$u_t = \sum_{j=1}^p 
ho_j u_{t-j} + arepsilon_t$$

allowing the current disturbance to correlated with up to p of its lags.

#### OLS

For **static models** or **dynamic models with lagged explanatory variables**, in the presence of autocorrelation

- 1. OLS provides **unbiased** estimates for the coefficients.
- 2. OLS creates **biased** estimates for the standard errors.
- 3. OLS is inefficient.

Recall: Same implications as heteroskedasticity.

Autocorrelation get trickier with lagged outcome variables.

#### OLS and lagged outcome variables

Consider a model with one lag of the outcome variable—ADL(1, 0)—model with AR(1) disturbances

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + \beta_2 Births_{t-1} + u_t$$

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**Problem:** 

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**Q:** Why is this a problem?

**A:** It violates contemporaneous exogeneity, i.e.,  $Cov(x_t, u_t) \neq 0$ .

#### OLS and lagged outcome variables

To see this problem, first write out the model for t and t-1:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Births}_t &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + \beta_2 \text{Births}_{t-1} + u_t \\ \text{Births}_{t-1} &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \beta_2 \text{Births}_{t-2} + u_{t-1} \end{aligned}$$

and now note that  $u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ . Substituting...

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + \beta_2 Births_{t-1} + (\rho u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t)$$
 (1)

$$Births_{t-1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_{t-1} + \beta_2 Births_{t-2} + u_{t-1}$$
 (2)

In (1), we can see that  $u_t$  depends upon (covaries with)  $u_{t-1}$ .

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... This model violates our contemporaneous exogeneity requirement.

#### OLS and lagged outcome variables

Implications: For models with lagged outcome variables and autocorrelated disturbances

- 1. The models violate contemporaneous exogeneity.
- 2. OLS is **biased and inconsistent** for the coefficients.

#### OLS and lagged outcome variables

Intuition? Why is OLS inconsistent and biased when we violate exogeneity?

Think back to omitted-variable bias...

$$y_t = eta_0 + eta_1 x_t + u_t$$

When  $Cov(x_t, u_t) \neq 0$ , we cannot separate the effect of  $u_t$  on  $y_t$  from the effect of  $x_t$  on  $y_t$ . Thus, we get inconsistent estimates for  $\beta_1$ .

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$$\mathrm{Births}_t = eta_0 + eta_1 \mathrm{Income}_t + eta_2 \mathrm{Births}_{t-1} + \overbrace{(
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#### Simulation

To see how this bias can look, let's run a simulation.

$$y_t = 1 + 2x_t + 0.5y_{t-1} + u_t \ u_t = 0.9u_{t-1} + arepsilon_t$$

One (easy) way generate 100 disturbances from AR(1), with  $\rho = 0.9$ :

```
arima.sim(model = list(ar = c(0.9)), n = 100)
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**Q:** Will this simulation tell us about *bias* or *consistency*?

**A:** Bias. We would need to let  $T o \infty$  to consider consistency.

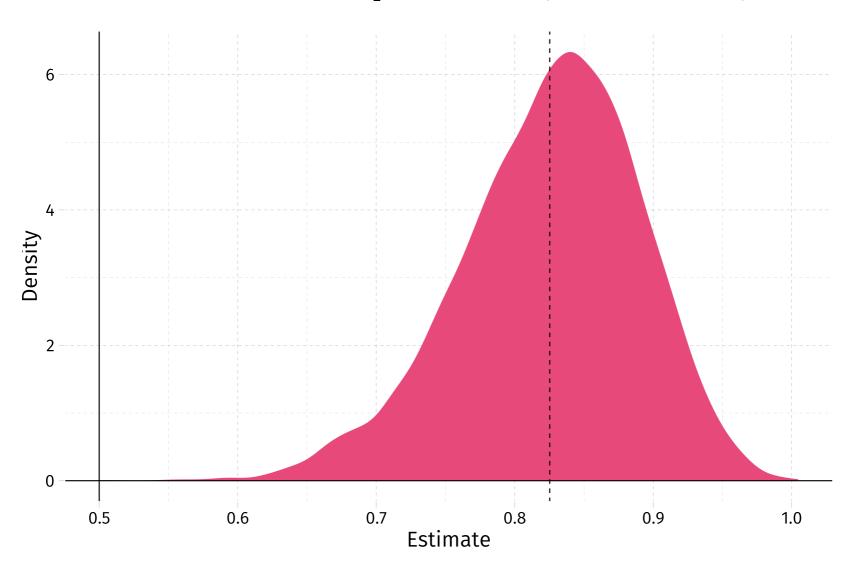
#### Simulation

Outline of our simulation:

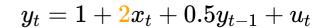
```
1. Generate T=100 values of x
2. Generate T=100 values of u
      o Generate T=100 values of ε
      • Use \epsilon and \rho=0.9 to calculate u_{+}=\rho~u_{+-1}+\epsilon_{+}
3. Calculate y_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} x_{t} + \beta_{2} y_{t-1} + u_{t}
4. Regress y on x; record estimates
Repeat 1-4 10,000 times
```

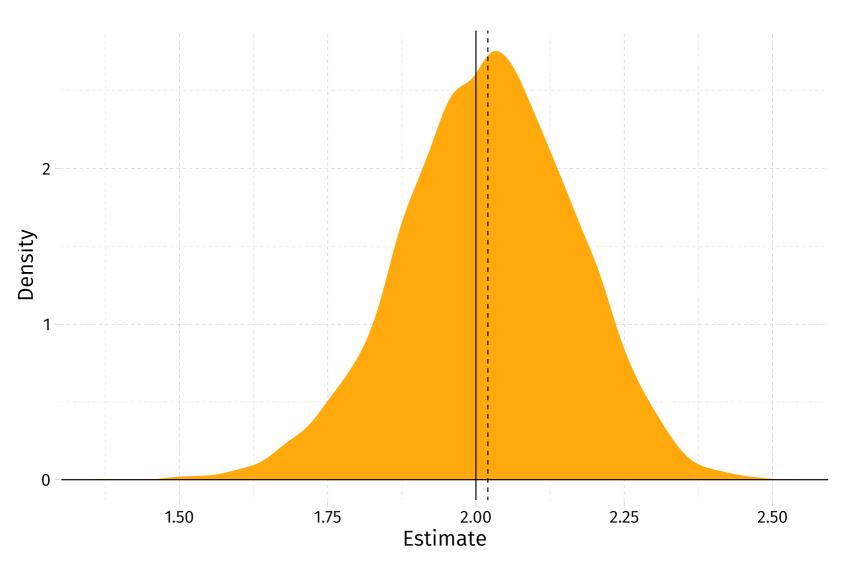
#### Distribution of OLS estimates, $\hat{eta}_2$

$$y_t = 1 + 2x_t + \frac{0.5}{9}y_{t-1} + u_t$$



#### Distribution of OLS estimates, $\hat{\beta}_1$





#### Static models

Suppose we have the **static model**,

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + u_t \tag{A}$$

and we want to test for an AR(1) process in our disturbances  $u_t$ .

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**Test for autocorrelation:** Test for correlation in the lags of our residuals:

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

Does  $\hat{\rho}$  differ significantly from zero?

Familiar idea: Use residuals to learn about disturbances.

#### Static models

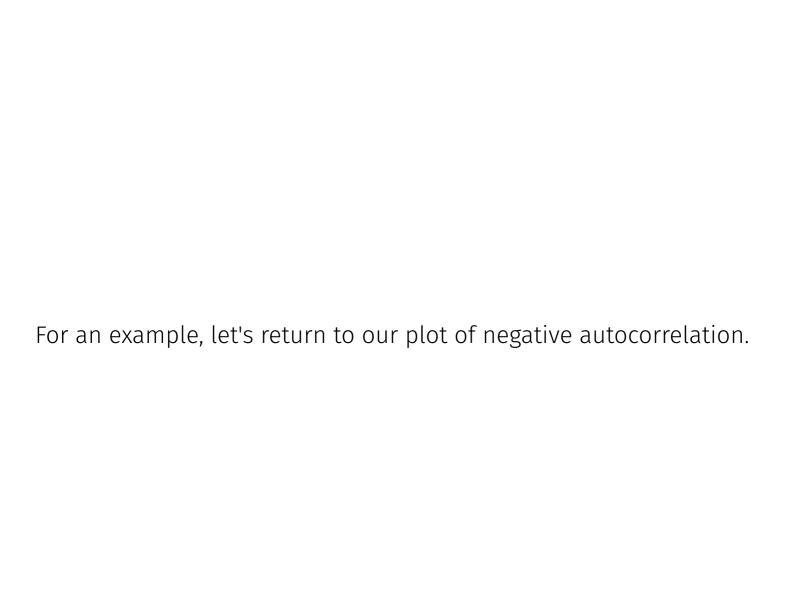
Specifically, to test for AR(1) disturbances in the static model

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + u_t$$
 (A)

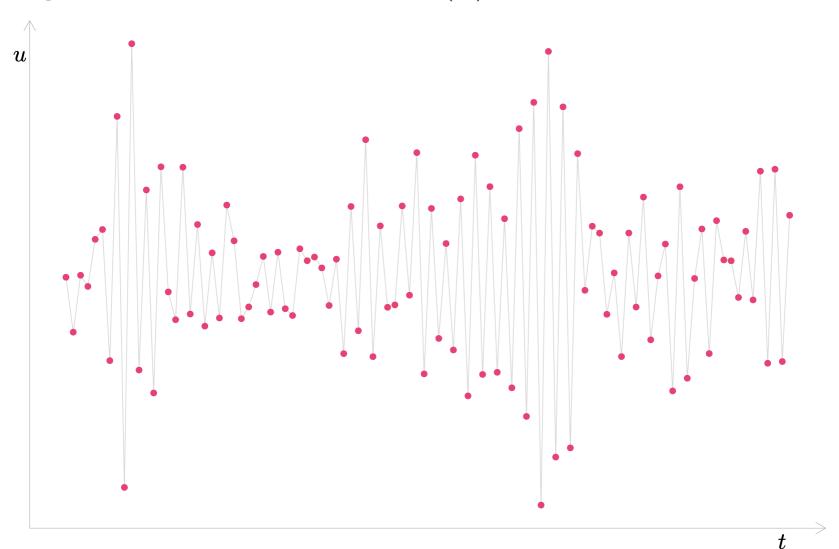
- 1. Estimate (A) via OLS.
- 2. Calculate residuals from the OLS regression in step 1.
- 3. Regress the residuals on their lags (without an intercept).

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

- 4. Use a t test to determine whether there is statistically significant evidence that  $\rho$  differs from zero.
- 5. Rejecting  $H_0$  implies significant evidence of autocorrelation.



#### **Negative autocorrelation**: Disturbances $(u_t)$ over time



#### Example: Static model and AR(1)

**Step 1:** Estimate the static model  $(y_t = eta_0 + eta_1 x_t + u_t)$  with OLS

```
reg_est \leftarrow lm(y \sim x, data = ar_df)
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```
ar_df$e ← residuals(reg_est)
```

**Step 3:** Regress the residual on its lag (**no intercept**)

```
reg_resid \leftarrow lm(e \sim -1 + lag(e), data = ar_df)
```

#### Example: Static model and AR(1)

<chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>

#> 1 lag(e) -0.851 0.0535 -15.9 6.88e-29

#>

**Step 4:** t test for the estimated  $(\hat{\rho})$  coefficient in step 3.

```
tidy(reg_resid)

#> # A tibble: 1 x 5

#> term estimate std.error statistic p.value
```

### Example: Static model and AR(1)

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That's a very small *p*-value—much smaller than 0.05.

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**Step 5:** Conclude. Statistically significant evidence of autocorrelation.

### Example: Static model and AR(3)

What if we wanted to test for AR(3)?

- We add more lags of residuals to the regression in Step 3.
- We **jointly** test the significance of the coefficients (*i.e.*, LM or F).

Let's do it.

### Example: Static model and AR(3)

**Step 1:** Estimate the static model  $(y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t)$  with OLS

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```

**Step 2:** Add the residuals to our dataset

```
ar_df$e ← residuals(reg_est)
```

**Step 3:** Regress the residual on its lag (**no intercept**)

```
reg_ar3 \leftarrow lm(e \sim -1 + lag(e) + lag(e, 2) + lag(e, 3), data = ar_df)
```

### Example: Static model and AR(3)

**Step 1:** Estimate the static model  $(y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t)$  with OLS

```
reg_est \leftarrow lm(y ~ x, data = ar_df)
```

**Step 2:** Add the residuals to our dataset

```
ar_df$e ← residuals(reg_est)
```

**Step 3:** Regress the residual on its lag (**no intercept**)

```
reg_ar3 \leftarrow lm(e \sim -1 + lag(e) + lag(e, 2) + lag(e, 3), data = ar_df)
```

Note: lag(v, n) from dplyr takes the n<sup>th</sup> lag of the variable v.

### Example: Static model and AR(3)

**Step 4:** Calculate the LM =  $n \times R_e^2$  test statistic—distributed  $\chi_k^2$ . k is the number of regressors in the regression in *Step 3* (here, k=3).

```
# Grab R squared
r2_e ← summary(reg_ar3)$r.squared
# Calculate the LM test statistic: n times r2_e
(lm_stat ← 100 * r2_e)

#> [1] 72.38204

# Calculate the p-value
(pchisq(q = lm_stat, df = 3, lower.tail = F))

#> [1] 1.318485e-15
```

Example: Static model and AR(3)

Step 5: Conclude.

### Example: Static model and AR(3)

**Step 5:** Conclude.

Recall: Our hypotheses consider the model

$$e_t = \rho_1 e_{t-1} + \rho_2 e_{t-2} + \rho_3 e_{t-3}$$

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$$\mathsf{H}_0$$
:  $ho_1=
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eq 0$  for at least one  $j$  in  $\{1,\,2,\,3\}$ 

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Our p-value is less than 0.05. Reject H<sub>0</sub>.

Conclude there is statistically significant evidence of autocorrelation.

#### Dynamic models with lagged outcome variables

**Recall:** OLS is biased and inconsistent when our model has both

- 1. a lagged dependent variable
- 2. autocorrelated disturbances

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 $\therefore$  We can't apply our nice trick of *just* using  $e_t$  to learn about  $u_t$ .

Solution: Breusch-Godfrey test includes the other explanatory variables,

$$e_t = \underbrace{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 x_{1t} + \gamma_2 x_{2t} + \cdots}_{\text{Explanatory variables}} + \underbrace{\rho_1 e_{t-1} + \rho_2 e_{t-2} + \cdots}_{\text{Lagged residuals}} + \varepsilon_t$$

#### Dynamic models with lagged outcome variables

Specifically, to test for AR(2) disturbances in the ADL(1, 0) model

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + \beta_2 Births_{t-1} + u_t$$
 (B)

- 1. Estimate (B) via OLS.
- 2. Calculate residuals  $(e_t)$  from the OLS regression in step 1.
- 3. Regress residuals on an intercept, explanatory variables, and lagged residuals.

$$e_t = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \operatorname{Income}_t + \rho_1 e_{t-1} + \rho_2 e_{t-2} + v_t$$

- 4. Conduct LM or F test for  $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0$ .
- 5. Rejecting  $H_0$  implies significant evidence of AR(2).

### Dynamic models with lagged outcome variables

For an example, let's consider the relationship between monthky presidential approval ratings and oil prices during President George W. Bush's<sup>†</sup> presidency.

We will specify the process as ADL(1, 0) and test for an AR(2) process in our disturbances.

$$Approval_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Approval_{t-1} + \beta_2 Price_t + u_t$$

### Dynamic models with lagged outcome variables

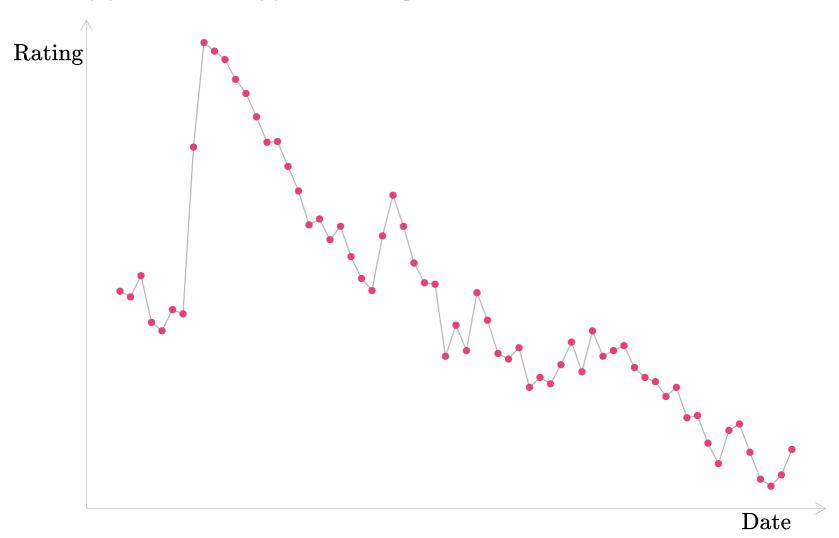
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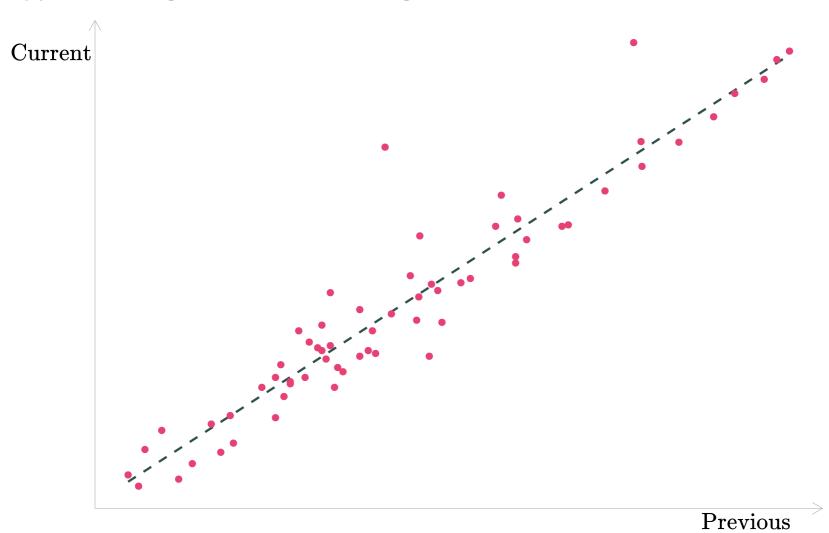
$$\operatorname{Approval}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \operatorname{Approval}_{t-1} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Price}_t + u_t$$

*Note:* We're ignoring any other violations of exogeneity for the moment.

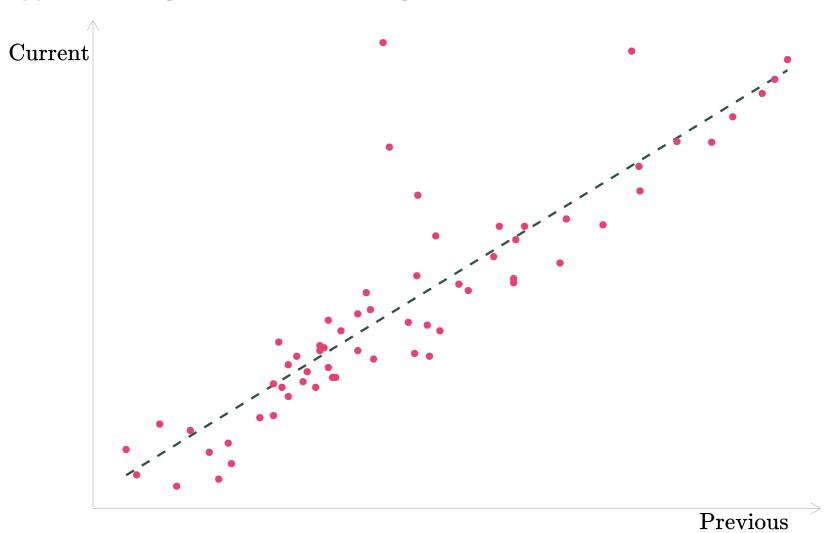
#### Monthly presidential approval ratings, 2001–2006



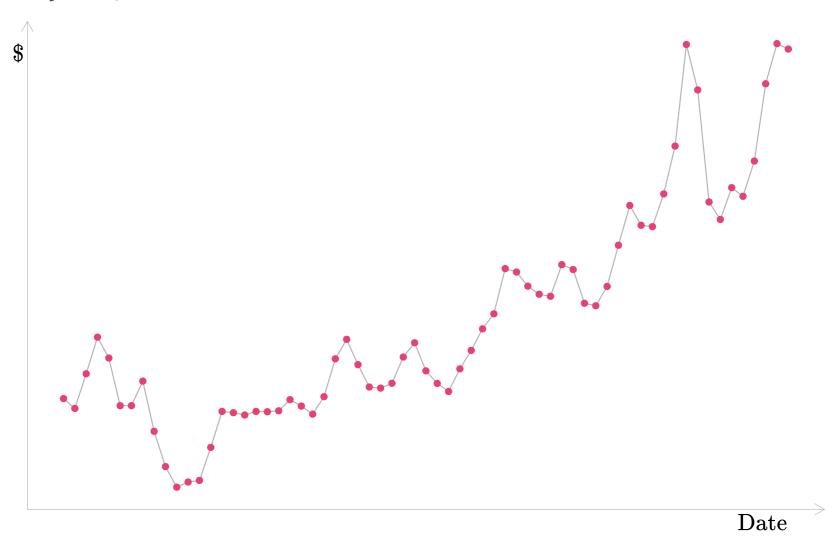
#### Approval rating vs. its one-month lag, 2001–2006



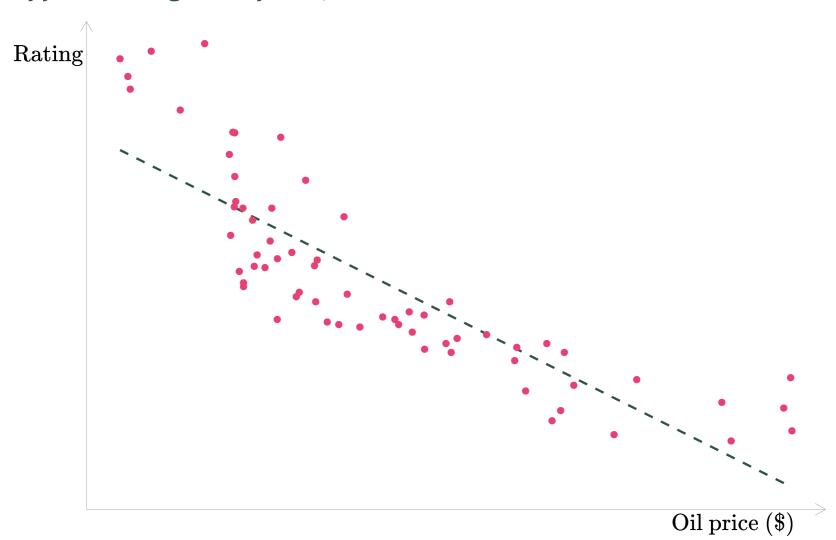
#### Approval rating vs. its two-month lag, 2001–2006



#### Oil prices, 2001–2006



#### Approval rating vs. oil prices, 2001–2006



### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 1:** Estimate our ADL(1, 0) model with OLS.

```
# Estimate the model
ols_est ← lm(
  ap ~ lag(approve) + price_oil,
  data = approval_df
)
# Summary
tidy(ols_est)
```

### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 2:** Record residuals from the OLS regression.

```
# Grab residuals

approval_df$e \leftarrow c(NA, residuals(ols_est))
```

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E.g., \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\} = x
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\{?, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\} = lag(x)
\{?, ?, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\} = lag(x, 2)
```

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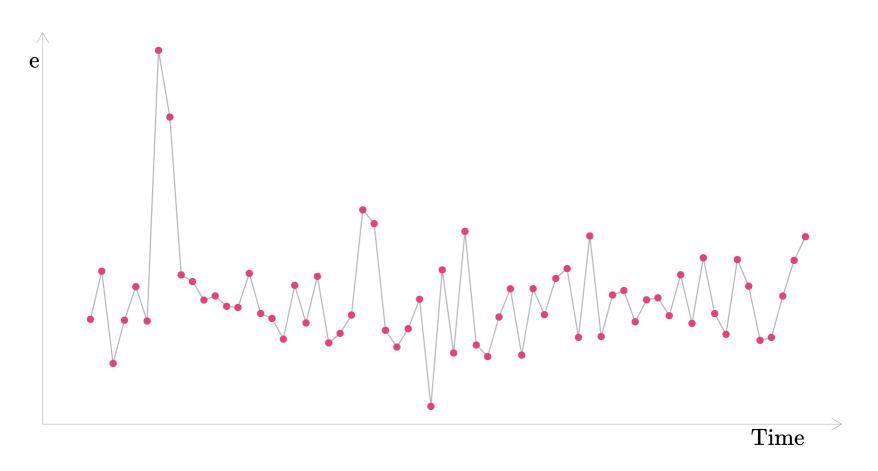
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\{?, ?, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\} = lag(x, 2)

\{?, ?, ?, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} = lag(x, 3)
```

### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices



### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 3:** Regress residuals on an intercept, the explanatory variables, and lagged residuals.

```
# BG regression
bg_reg ← lm(
  e ~ lag(approve) + price_oil + lag(e) + lag(e, 2),
  data = approval_df
)
```

```
#> Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

#> (Intercept) 7.92474 9.30455 0.852 0.3979

#> lag(approve) -0.08503 0.09192 -0.925 0.3589

#> price_oil -0.01690 0.02407 -0.702 0.4854

#> lag(e) 0.25236 0.14648 1.723 0.0903 .

#> lag(e, 2) 0.07865 0.14471 0.544 0.5889
```

### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 4:** F (or LM) test for  $ho_1=
ho_2=0$ .

Recall: We can test joint significance using an F test that compares the restricted (here:  $ho_1=
ho_2=0$ ) and unrestricted models.

$$F_{q,\,n-p} = rac{\left( ext{SSE}_r - ext{SSE}_u
ight)ig/q}{ ext{SSE}_uig/\left(n-p
ight)}$$

where q is the number of restrictions and p is the number of parameters in our unrestricted model (include the intercept).

We can use the waldtest() function from the lmtest package for this test.

### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 4:** F (or LM) test for  $ho_1=
ho_2=0$ .

```
# BG regression
bg_reg ← lm(
  e ~ lag(approve) + price_oil + lag(e) + lag(e, 2),
  data = approval_df
)
# Test significance of the lags using 'waldtest' from 'lmtest' package
p_load(lmtest)
waldtest(bg_reg, c("lag(e)", "lag(e, 2)"))
```

Here, we're telling waldtest to test

- the model we specified in bg\_reg (our unrestricted model)
- against a model without lag(e) and lag(e, 2) (our restricted model)

## Testing for autocorrelation

#### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 4:** F (or LM) test for  $ho_1=
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## Testing for autocorrelation

#### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 5:** Conclusion of hypothesis test

With a p-value of  $\sim$ 0.208, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

- We cannot reject  $\rho_1=\rho_2=0$ .
- We cannot reject "no autocorrelation".

## Testing for autocorrelation

#### Example: Approval ratings and oil prices

**Step 5:** Conclusion of hypothesis test

With a p-value of  $\sim$ 0.208, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

- We cannot reject  $\rho_1=\rho_2=0$ .
- We cannot reject "no autocorrelation".

However, we tested for a specific type of autocorrelation: AR(2).

We might get different answers with different tests.

The p-value for AR(1) is 0.0896—suggestive of first-order autocorrelation.

# Living with autocorrelation

### Working with it

Suppose we believe autocorrelation is present. What do we do?

### Working with it

Suppose we believe autocorrelation is present. What do we do?

I'll give you three options.<sup>†</sup>

- 1. Misspecification
- 2. **Serial-correlation robust standard errors** (a.k.a. *Newey-West*)
- 3. **FGLS**

<sup>†</sup> You should take EC 422 to go much deeper into time-series analysis/forecasting.

#### Option 1: Misspecification

**Misspecification** with autocorrelation is very similar to our discussion with heteroskedasticity.

By incorrectly specifying your model, you can create autocorrelation.

Omitting variables that are correlated through time will cause your disturbances to be correlated through time.

#### Option 1: Misspecification

**Example:** Suppose births depend upon income and previous births

$$\text{Births}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Births}_{t-1} \beta_2 \text{Income}_t + u_t$$

#### Option 1: Misspecification

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but we write down the model as only depending upon previous births, i.e.,

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*Note:* This autocorrelation has nothing to do with  $u_t$ .

#### Option 2: Newey-West standard errors

As was also the case with heteroskedasticity, you can still estimate consistent standard errors (and inference) in the presence of autocorrelation.

These standard errors are called serial-correlation robust standard errors (or Newey-West standard errors).

We are not going to derive the estimator for these standard errors.

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If we do not have a lagged outcome variable, then feasible generalized least squares (FGLS) can give us efficient and consistent standard errors.

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Let's start with a simple static model that includes an AR(1) disturbance  $u_t$ .

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + u_t \tag{1}$$

$$u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{2}$$

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Now our old trick: Write out (1) for period t-1 (and then multiple by ho)

$$Births_{t-1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_{t-1} + u_{t-1}$$
(3)

$$\rho \text{Births}_{t-1} = \rho \beta_0 + \rho \beta_1 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \rho u_{t-1}$$
(4)

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(3)

$$\rho \text{Births}_{t-1} = \rho \beta_0 + \rho \beta_1 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \rho u_{t-1}$$
 (4)

And now subtract (4) from (2)...

#### Option 3: FGLS

$$egin{aligned} ext{Births}_t - 
ho ext{Births}_{t-1} = & eta_0 \left( 1 - 
ho 
ight) + \ eta_1 ext{Income}_t - 
ho eta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + \ u_t - 
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which gives us a very specific dynamic model

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ho 
ight) + 
ho ext{Births}_{t-1} + \ & eta_1 ext{Income}_t - 
ho eta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + elows_t \end{aligned}$$

that happens to be **free of autocorrelation**.

#### Option 3: FGLS

This **transformed model** is free of autocorrelation.

$$ext{Births}_t = \beta_0 (1 - \rho) + \rho ext{Births}_{t-1} + \\ \beta_1 ext{Income}_t - \rho \beta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

**Q:** How do we actually estimate this model? (We don't know  $\rho$ .)

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This **transformed model** is free of autocorrelation.

$$ext{Births}_t = \beta_0 (1 - \rho) + \rho ext{Births}_{t-1} + \\ \beta_1 ext{Income}_t - \rho \beta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

**Q:** How do we actually estimate this model? (We don't know  $\rho$ .)

**A:** FGLS (of course)...

#### Option 3: FGLS

This **transformed model** is free of autocorrelation.

$$ext{Births}_t = eta_0 (1 - 
ho) + 
ho ext{Births}_{t-1} + \ eta_1 ext{Income}_t - 
ho eta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + elowstack{arepsilon}_t$$

**Q:** How do we actually estimate this model? (We don't know  $\rho$ .)

**A:** FGLS (of course)...

- 1. Estimate the original (untransformed) model; save residuals.
- 2. Estimate  $\rho$ : Regress residuals on their lags (no intercept).
- 3. Estimate the **transformed model**, plugging in  $\hat{
  ho}$  for ho.

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