

# Advanced Quantitative Methods: Time-series analysis

Johan A. Elkink

University College Dublin

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- 1 Typical processes
- 2 Stationarity
- 3 Dynamic models
- 4 Cointegration
- 5 Spatial autocorrelation

## Time-series processes

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A time-series can have been generated by various different types of processes.

Which process generated the data of course affects which econometric model is more appropriate to estimate its parameters.

## Linear model

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The linear regression model looks like:

$$\mathbf{y} = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon},$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ , or, if we have no explanatory variables,  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  is a constant.

For now, we will look at the latter case,  $\mu_t = \mu$ .

In the linear model, we assume  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  to be an IID variable,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

## Moving average process

In the moving average model, we replace the assumption of entirely independent residuals by assuming that the residual at time  $t$  is a weighted average between that residual and the one at  $t - 1$ .

$$y_t = \mu + (\varepsilon_t + \phi\varepsilon_{t-1}) \quad -1 < \phi < 1$$

## Moving average process

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The above is a so-called MA(1) process, a moving average process with one lag.

This model can be generalised to more lags, the MA(q) process:

$$y_t = \mu + (\varepsilon_t + \phi_1\varepsilon_{t-1} + \phi_2\varepsilon_{t-2})$$

$$y_t = \mu + \left(\varepsilon_t + \sum_{l=1}^q \phi_l \varepsilon_{t-l}\right)$$

## Moving average process

Theoretically this model can be generalised to infinitely many lags:

$$y_t = \mu + (\varepsilon_t + \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \phi_l \varepsilon_{t-l})$$

Now, we could assume that  $\phi_l = \alpha^l$ , for some  $|\alpha| < 1$ , thus an exponentially decreasing function of the lag.

## Autoregressive process

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$$y_t = \mu + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \alpha^l \varepsilon_{t-l}$$

This can be shown to be equivalent to:

$$y_t = (1 - \alpha)\mu + \alpha y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t,$$

$$y_t = \delta + \alpha y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t,$$

which is called the **autoregressive process**.



## Autoregressive process

The AR(1) process can also be extended to the AR(p) process:

$$y_t = \delta + \sum_{l=1}^p \alpha_l y_{t-l} + \varepsilon_t$$

Whereby

$$y_t = \delta + \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \alpha_l y_{t-l} + \varepsilon_t$$

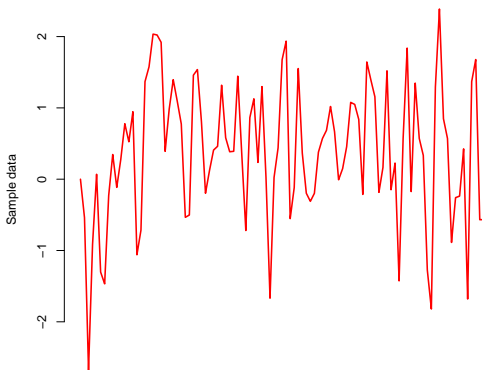
would be equivalent to a MA(1) process.

Typical processes  
Stationarity  
Dynamic models  
Cointegration  
Spatial autocorrelation

Moving average  
**Autoregression**  
Autocorrelation functions

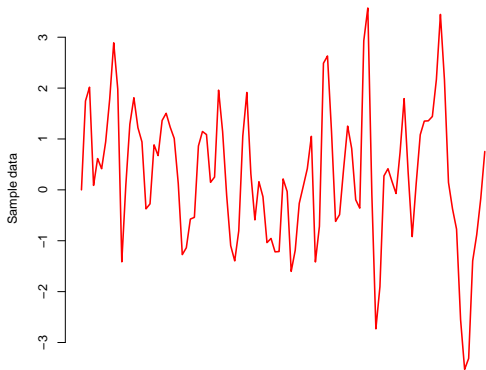
## Moving average process

Simulated data, MA(1),  $\phi = .5$



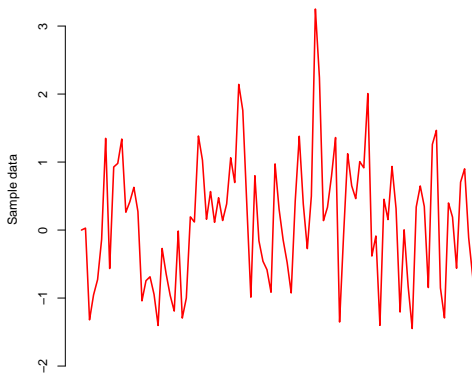
## Moving average process

Simulated data, MA(1),  $\phi = .9$



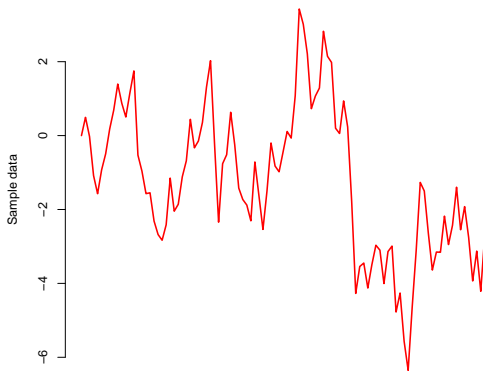
# Autoregressive process

Simulated data, AR(1),  $\alpha = .5$



# Autoregressive process

Simulated data, AR(1),  $\alpha = .9$



## ARMA(p,q)

The moving average process, MA(q), and the autoregressive process, AR(p), can be combined in the ARMA(p,q) process.

$$y_t = \mu + \sum_{l=1}^p y_{t-l} \alpha_l + \sum_{l=1}^q \varepsilon_{t-l} \phi_l + \varepsilon_t$$

## Autocorrelation function

The autocorrelation function (**ACF**), or correlogram, is the correlation between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-k}$ , as a function of  $k$ .

If we define

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(y_t) &= \text{Var}(y_{t-k}) = \gamma_0 \\ \text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t-k}) &= \gamma_k, \end{aligned}$$

then

$$\rho_k = \frac{\gamma_k}{\sqrt{\gamma_0 \gamma_0}} = \frac{\gamma_k}{\gamma_0}$$

# Autocorrelation function

For the moving average model:

$$\rho_1 = \frac{\phi}{1 + \phi^2}, \quad \rho_k = 0 \quad \forall \quad k > 0$$

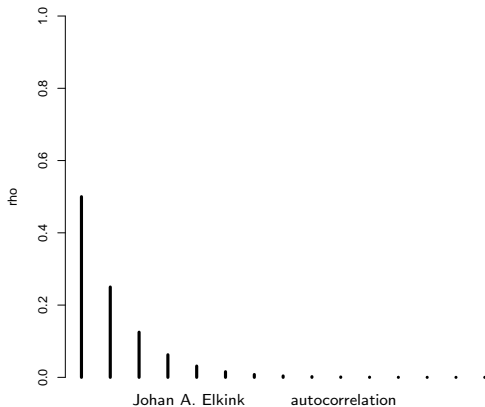
For the autoregressive model:

$$\rho_k = \alpha^k$$



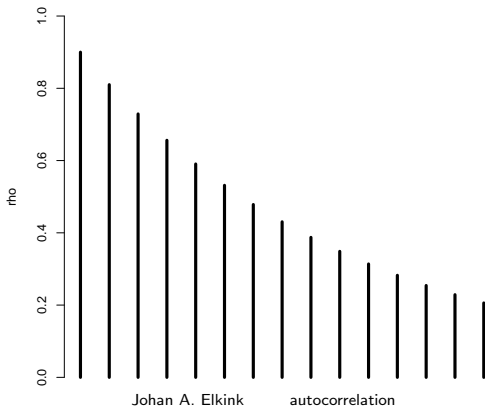
# Autocorrelation function

Theoretical ACF, AR(1) process,  $\alpha = .5$



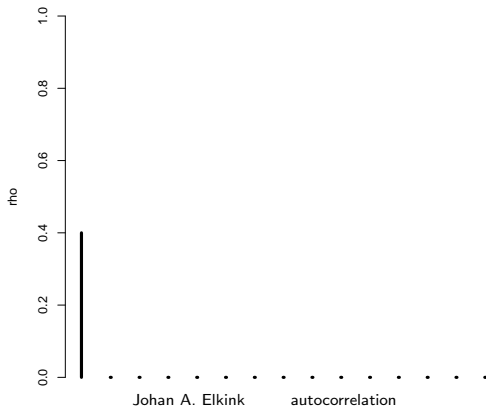
# Autocorrelation function

Theoretical ACF, AR(1) process,  $\alpha = .9$



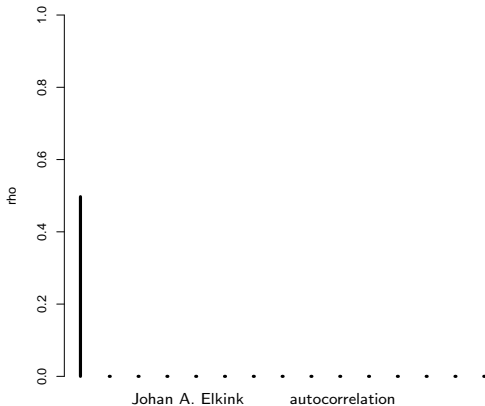
# Autocorrelation function

Theoretical ACF, MA(1) process,  $\phi = .5$



# Autocorrelation function

Theoretical ACF, MA(1) process,  $\phi = .9$



## Partial autocorrelation

Instead of looking at the autocorrelation function, one can look at the **partial autocorrelation function (PACF)**. This describes the correlation between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-k}$ , given all values of  $y$  in between.

This can quite simply be calculated by looking at  $\hat{\alpha}_k$ , the coefficient on the  $k$ th coefficient of the AR( $k$ ) model.

An AR( $p$ ) has an exponentially decreasing ACF and a sharp cut-off point in the PACF. The cut-off point suggests the proper value for  $p$ . A very slow (linear) decline in the ACF suggests a unit root. An MA( $q$ ) has a sharp cut-off point in the ACF. The cut-off point suggests the proper value for  $q$ .

## Exercise: unemployment

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Using `unemployment.dta`, look at plots of unemployment rates and exports over time and produce ACF and PACF plots for those two variables.

## Stationarity

A process is **strictly stationary** if the underlying probability distribution is constant over time.

A process is **weakly stationary** if the following conditions hold:

$$E(y_t) = \mu \quad \forall \quad t$$

$$\text{Var}(y_t) = \sigma^2 \quad \forall \quad t$$

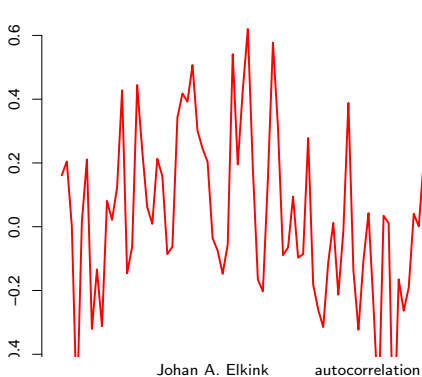
$$\text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t-k}) = \text{Cov}(y_{t+j}, y_{t+j-k}) \quad \forall \quad t, k, j$$

and it follows that the autocorrelations will depend on the lag length only:

$$\text{Cor}(y_t, y_{t-k}) = \frac{\text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t-k})}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(y_t)\text{Var}(y_{t-k})}} = \rho_k.$$

## Stationarity: example

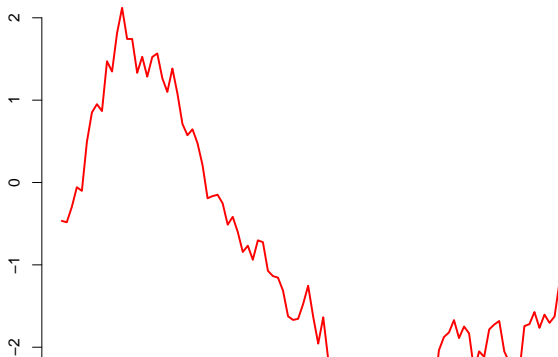
$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + 0.5\varepsilon_{t-1}$$





## Nonstationarity: example

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$



## Unit root

An AR(1) process where  $|\alpha| = 1$  (i.e.,  $y_t = \delta + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ ) is said to have a **unit root**.

Unit roots can be much harder to detect. E.g.  
 $y_t = \delta + 0.8y_{t-1} + 0.2y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$  also has a unit root.

Consequences:

- Consistency and asymptotical normality proofs of OLS, GLS, ML, IV are invalid.
- Regressing two variables with unit roots on each other leads to spurious regression.

(Harrison 2009: 42-46)

## Dickey-Fuller test

Subtracting  $y_{t-1}$  from both sides of  $y_t = \alpha y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$  gives:

$$\Delta y_t = (\alpha - 1)y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t = \beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

so we can regress  $(y_t - y_{t-1})$  on  $y_{t-1}$  to test whether there is a unit root.

However, under the  $H_0$  of a unit root,  $\Delta y_t \sim I(0)$  and  $y_t \sim I(1)$ , so  $t$ -test is invalid. Critical values  $\tau_{nc}$ ,  $\tau_c$  and  $\tau_{ct}$  have been published for processes without constant, with constant, and with constant and trend, respectively.

The test assumes no autocorrelation in  $\varepsilon$ .

(Harrison 2009: 46-47)

## Augmented Dickey-Fuller test

The DF test only works for AR(1) processes without autocorrelation in  $\varepsilon$ . For AR(p) processes or AR(1) processes with autocorrelated errors, we can use the ADF test.

$$\Delta y_t = \beta^* y_{t-1} + \sum_{k=1}^p \delta_k \Delta y_{t-k} + \varepsilon_t$$

and the same  $\tau$ 's can be used as critical values for  $t_{\beta^*}$ .

The power of this test is low (i.e. detects unit root too easily). The power depends on the type and strength of the autocorrelation.

(Davidson & MacKinnon 1999: 610-613; Harrison 2009: 48)

## Dickey-Fuller test

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Dickey-Fuller test:

```
library(tseries)  
adf.test(x, k = 0)
```

Augmented Dickey-Fuller test:

```
adf.test(x)  
adf.test(x, k = 2)
```

## Exercise: unemployment

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Using `unemployment.dta`, test for stationarity in unemployment rates and exports.

# Integrated

If  $E(y_t)$ ,  $Var(y_t)$  and  $Cov(y_t, y_{t-k})$  converge to limits  $\mu^*$ ,  $\sigma^{*2}$  and  $\rho_k^*$ , respectively, as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , then the process is called **asymptotically stationary**, or **integrated of order zero**, or  $I(0)$ .

A stationary process is thus  $I(0)$ , but an  $I(0)$  process not necessarily stationary.

(Harrison 2009: 40)

# Dynamic models

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If a regression model depends on lagged values of (one or more) dependent variables, it is called a **dynamic model**.

(Davidson & MacKinnon 1993: 680)



## Partial adjustment model

A common model dynamic model is the **partial adjustment model**. Imagine that theory suggests that  $y_t^* = \mathbf{X}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}^* + \varepsilon_t$ . We can imagine that it takes time for  $\mathbf{y}$  to adjust when  $\mathbf{X}$  changes. Thus,  $\Delta y_t$  depends on the distance of  $y_{t-1}$  from it's expected (or equilibrium) value:

$$\begin{aligned}y_t - y_{t-1} &= (1 - \delta)(y_t^* - y_{t-1}) + v_t \\y_t &= y_{t-1} - (1 - \delta)y_{t-1} + (1 - \delta)\mathbf{X}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}^* + (1 - \delta)\varepsilon_t + v_t \\&= \mathbf{X}_t\boldsymbol{\beta} + \delta y_{t-1} + u_t,\end{aligned}$$

with  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (1 - \delta)\boldsymbol{\beta}^*$  and  $u_t = (1 - \delta)\varepsilon_t + v_t$ .

In political science, most time-dependence is assumed to be captured simply by adding a lagged dependent variable to the model. The partial adjustment model is thus ubiquitous in the field.

## Partial adjustment model

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$$y_t = \mathbf{X}_t\boldsymbol{\beta} + \delta y_{t-1} + u_t$$

Because  $y_{t-1}$  will be correlated with  $u_t$ , OLS estimates are biased, but they are still consistent.

(Davidson & MacKinnon 1993: 681)

## Autoregressive distributed lag

A generalization of the partial adjustment model is the ADL( $p, q$ ) model:

$$y_t = \alpha + \sum_{l=1}^p \beta_l y_{t-l} + \sum_{l=0}^q \gamma_l x_{t-l} + u_t$$

Note that many models are special cases of ADL(1,1):

Static model	$\beta_1 = \gamma_1 = 0$
AR(1)	$\gamma_0 = \gamma_1 = 0$
Partial adjustment	$\gamma_1 = 0$
AR(1) errors	$\gamma_1 = -\beta_1 \gamma_0$
First differences	$\beta_1 = 1$ and $\gamma_1 = -\gamma_0$

(Davidson & MacKinnon 1993: 682)

## ADL(1,1)

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \gamma_0 x_t + \gamma_1 x_{t-1} + u_t$$

The immediate effect of  $x$  on  $y$  would be

$$\frac{dy_t}{dx_t} = \gamma_0$$

The effect after one time period would be

$$\frac{dy_{t+1}}{dx_t} = \beta_1 \left( \frac{dy_t}{dx_t} \right) + \gamma_1 = \beta_1 \gamma_0 + \gamma_1$$

The **long-run multiplier** would be

$$\frac{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1}{1 - \beta_1}$$

## ADL(1,1) and error correction

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \alpha + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \gamma_0 x_t + \gamma_1 x_{t-1} + u_t \\ \Delta y_t &= \alpha + (\beta_1 - 1)y_{t-1} + \gamma_0 x_t + \gamma_1 x_{t-1} + u_t \\ &= \alpha + (\beta_1 - 1)\left(y_{t-1} + \frac{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1}{\beta_1 - 1} x_{t-1}\right) + \gamma_0 \Delta x_t + u_t \\ &= \alpha + (\beta_1 - 1)(y_{t-1} - \lambda x_{t-1}) + \gamma_0 \Delta x_t + u_t,\end{aligned}$$

with  $\lambda = \frac{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1}{1 - \beta_1}$ , the long-run multiplier.

(Davidson & MacKinnon 1993: 683; Greene 2003: 579)

## Error correction model

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha + (\beta_1 - 1)(y_{t-1} - \lambda x_{t-1}) + \gamma_0 \Delta x_t + u_t$$

- $\Delta y_t = \alpha + \gamma_0 \Delta x_t + u_t$  is the **equilibrium relationship**;
- $(\beta_1 - 1)(y_{t-1} - \lambda x_{t-1})$  the **equilibrium error**;
- $y_{t-1} - \lambda x_{t-1}$  measures how much  $y_{t-1}$  deviates from its long-run equilibrium with  $x$ ;
- $\beta_1 - 1$  is the amount of adjustment in time  $y_t$  as a result of this disequilibrium.

(Davidson & MacKinnon 1993: 683; Greene 2003: 579)

## Dynamic models

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“The key fact to remember when attempting to specify dynamic regression models is that there are generally a great many a priori plausible ways to do so. It is a serious mistake to limit attention to one particular type of model, such as (...) partial adjustment models. (...) the ADL( $p,q$ ) family of models will often provide a good place to start.”

I.e. do not just throw in  $y_{t-1}$  as a variable to fix time dependence.

(Davison & MacKinnon 1993: 684)

## Exercise: unemployment

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Using `unemployment.dta`, study the extent to which unemployment rates can be blamed on the party affiliation of the president in office.

Inspired by (Hibbs 1977)



# Integrated

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If  $E(y_t)$ ,  $Var(y_t)$  and  $Cov(y_t, y_{t-k})$  converge to limits  $\mu^*$ ,  $\sigma^{*2}$  and  $\rho_k^*$ , respectively, as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , then the process is called **asymptotically stationary**, or **integrated of order zero**, or  $I(0)$ .

A stationary process is thus  $I(0)$ , but an  $I(0)$  process not necessarily stationary.

(Harrison 2009: 40)

## Integrated

We can also have higher orders of integration, such as  $I(1)$  or  $I(2)$ .  $I(1)$  means that the series will be  $I(0)$  when taking first differences. E.g.

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \delta + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\y_t - y_{t-1} &= \delta + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t - y_{t-1} \\ \Delta y_t &= \delta + \varepsilon_t,\end{aligned}$$

which is a stationary process.

## Example: demand for money

According to economic theory, demand for money  $m$  is proportional to price levels  $p$  (if money is worth less, people want to hold more in their accounts) and as real income  $y$  and transactions increase, people will want to hold more. The cost of holding money is based on the interest rate  $r$ .

$$\text{Equilibrium: } m = p y^{\beta_y} e^{\beta_r r}.$$

(Enders 2004: 320)

$$m_t = p_t^{\beta_p} y_t^{\beta_y} e^{\beta_r r_t} \varepsilon_t^*$$

$$\log m_t = \beta_0 + \beta_p \log p_t + \beta_y \log y_t + \beta_r r_t + \varepsilon_t,$$

with theory implying  $\beta_p = 1$ ,  $\beta_y > 0$ ,  $\beta_r < 0$  and  $\varepsilon_t$  stationary.

$p_t$ ,  $y_t$  and  $r_t$  are all taken to be nonstationary  $I(1)$  variables.

For  $\varepsilon_t$  to be stationary  $m_t - \beta_0 - \beta_p \log p_t - \beta_y \log y_t - \beta_r r_t$  has to be stationary. Thus the evolution over  
 Johan A. Elkink autocorrelation

## Cointegration

A set of independent variables  $\mathbf{X}$  are said to be cointegrated of order  $d$ ,  $b$ ,  $\mathbf{X} \sim CI(d, b)$ , iff

- all variables in  $\mathbf{X}$  are  $I(d)$ ,
- and there exists a vector  $\beta$  such that  $\mathbf{X}\beta$  is  $I(d - b)$ ,  $b > 0$ .

The most common scenario is  $CI(1, 1)$ , such as the example of money demand.

Taking this example,

- $\beta$  is the **cointegrating vector**,
- $\varepsilon_t$  is the **equilibrium error**.

# Cointegration

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- If  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are  $\sim CI(1, 1)$ , regressing  $\mathbf{y}$  on  $\mathbf{x}$  is **super-consistent**.
- If  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are each  $\sim I(1)$ , but not  $\sim CI(1, 1)$ , regressing  $\mathbf{y}$  on  $\mathbf{x}$  is spurious.

Determining whether the two are really cointegrated is thus crucial.

## Testing for cointegration

Engle-Granger testing procedure (for  $\sim I(1, 1)$ ):

- ① Use ADF-test to determine order of integration of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  - must be both  $\sim I(1)$ .
- ② Regress  $\mathbf{y}$  on  $\mathbf{x}$ :  $y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \varepsilon_t$ .
  - If the two variables are cointegrated,  $\varepsilon_t$  should be  $\sim I(0)$ .
  - We use the (A)DF-test on  $\Delta e_t = \alpha e_{t-1} + u_t$ .
  - Because  $e$  is an estimate, the usual (A)DF tables do not apply. The corrected version is called the **(augmented) Engle-Granger, or (A)EG, test**.

The Phillips-Perron test is similar to the Engle-Granger version, but because it is resistant to heteroscedastic and autocorrelated residuals, it has slightly weaker power. This test is implemented in R, while AEG is not.

(Enders 2004: 335-339; Davidson & MacKinnon 1993: 720-722)

## Exercise: unemployment

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Using `unemployment.dta`, regress *unemployment* on the log of the ratio of *money* and *deflator*, the log of *purchases*, the log of *exports*, and *year*. Test whether these variables are cointegrated.

## Cointegration and error correction

When two variables are cointegrated, there is a long-term equilibrium relation between the two, but on the short term there might be deviations.

We can thus expect that there is an adjustment at time  $t$  for any deviation from equilibrium at  $t - 1$  towards the equilibrium relationship. Thus cointegration and error correction are closely related.

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha + (\beta_1 - 1)(y_{t-1} - \lambda x_{t-1}) + \gamma_0 \Delta x_t + u_t$$

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha + (\beta_1 - 1)\varepsilon_{t-1} + \gamma_0 \Delta x_t + u_t$$



## Cointegration and error correction

Taking the same example of money demand:

$$\log m_t = \beta_0 + \beta_p \log p_t + \beta_y \log y_t + \beta_r r_t + \varepsilon_t$$

In error correction formulation:

$$\Delta \log m_t = \alpha + (\beta_1 - 1)\hat{\varepsilon}_{t-1} + \gamma_p \Delta \log p_t + \gamma_y \Delta \log y_t + \gamma_r \Delta r_t + u_t$$

Thus,  $(\hat{\beta}_1 - 1)$  is the estimated short term adjustment to disequilibrium;  $\hat{\gamma}_y$  the short-term elasticity of  $y$  on  $m$  and  $\hat{\beta}_y$  the long-run elasticity.

(Gujarati & Porter 2009: 763-765)

## Estimation

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- As long as the errors are not autocorrelated, OLS is consistent and efficient.
- If the errors have an MA( $q$ ) component, maximum likelihood is generally required. In R: `arima()`.
- If any of the variables is not stationary, the model needs to be reformulated first.

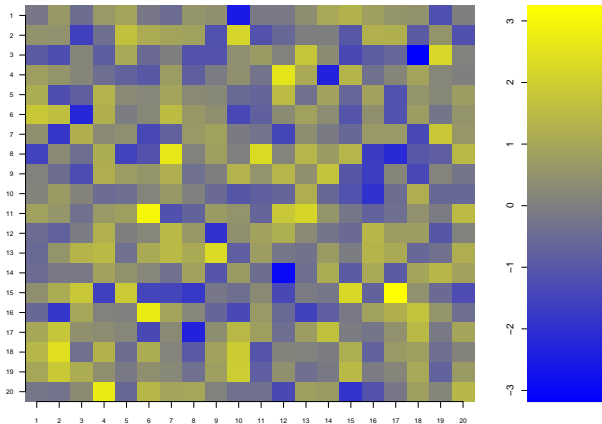
## Exercise: unemployment

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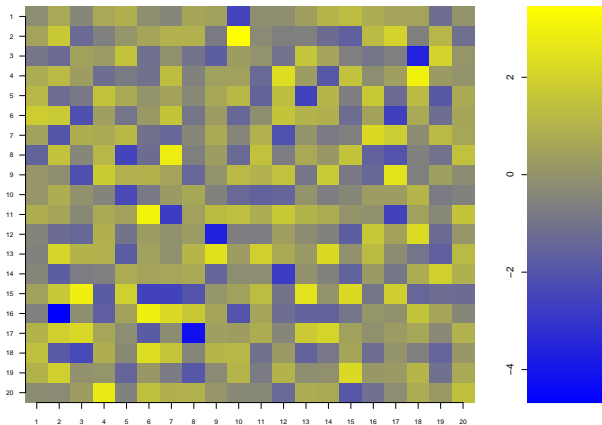
Using `unemployment.dta`, regress *unemployment* on the log of the ratio of *money* and *deflator*, the log of *purchases*, the log of *exports*, and *year*.

Calculate the short-term and long-term elasticities of the effect of exports on unemployment.

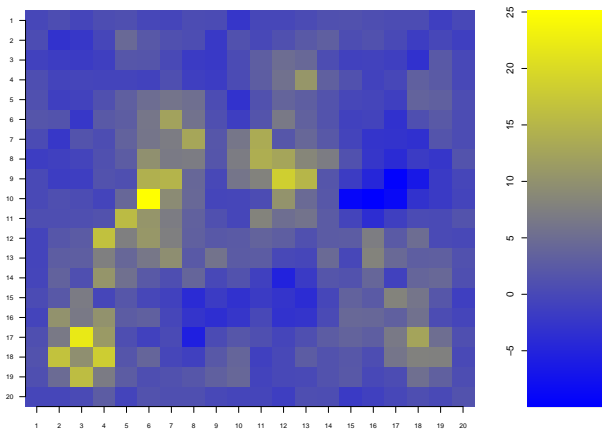
# No spatial autocorrelation



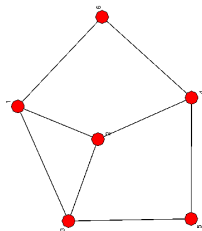
# Negative spatial autocorrelation



# Positive spatial autocorrelation



# Connection matrix



$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{W} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Spatial processes

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Spatial autocorrelation has processes somewhat analogous to serial autocorrelation.

Spatial error process:  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \lambda\mathbf{W}\mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ .

Spatial lag process:  $\mathbf{y} = \rho\mathbf{W}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ .

(Anselin 1988)



## Moran's $I$

$$I = \frac{\sum_i \sum_j \tilde{w}_{ij} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_j - \bar{x})}{\sum_i \sum_j \tilde{w}_{ij}} \cdot \frac{n}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sim N(\mu_I, \sigma_I^2)$$

$$\mu_I = E(I) = \frac{-1}{n-1}$$

$$\sigma_I^2 = \text{Var}(I) = \frac{n^2 S_1 - n S_2 + 3 S_0^2}{S_0^2 (n^2 - 1)},$$

where

$$S_0 = \sum_i \sum_j (w_{ij} + w_{ji}), S_1 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j (w_{ij} + w_{ji})^2, S_2 = \sum_i \sum_j (\tilde{w}_{ij} + \tilde{w}_{ji})^2$$

## Moran's $I$

---

```
library(ape)
Moran.I(y, W)
Moran.I(residuals(lm(y ~ x1 + x2)), W)
```

Moran's  $I$  can only be calculated with a known  $\mathbf{W}$  matrix. Higher order lags are also possible, e.g.  $\mathbf{W}^2$ .

## Example: democracy

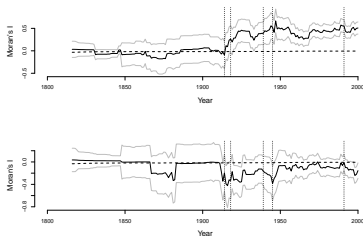


Figure : Spatial clustering, Polity IV dichotomized,  $I(y_t)$  and  $I(\Delta y_t)$ , 1800-2003

(Elkink 2011)

## Checking residuals

$$I = \frac{n}{\sum_i \sum_j w_{ij}} \frac{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}}{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}} \sim N(\mu_I, \sigma_I^2)$$

$$LM_{err} = \frac{n^2 \left( \frac{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}}{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}} \right)^2}{tr(\mathbf{W}'\mathbf{W} + \mathbf{W}^2)} \sim \chi^2(1)$$

$$LM_{lag} = \frac{n^2 \left( \frac{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}} \right)^2}{(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}^{OLS})' \mathbf{M}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}^{OLS} / \sigma^2 + tr(\mathbf{W}'\mathbf{W} + \mathbf{W}^2)} \sim \chi^2(1),$$

with  $LM_{err}$  and  $LM_{lag}$  referring to tests for spatial error and spatial lag processes, respectively.

(Anselin & Hudak 1992: 520)

# Appendix

## MA(1) properties

$$y_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t + \phi\varepsilon_{t-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_t) &= E(\mu + \varepsilon_t + \phi\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= E(\mu) + E(\varepsilon_t) + \phi E(\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= \mu + 0 + 0 = \mu \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(y_t) &= \text{Var}(\mu + \varepsilon_t + \phi\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= \text{Var}(\varepsilon_t) + \phi^2 \text{Var}(\varepsilon_{t-1}) - 2\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_t, \phi\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \phi^2 \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

## AR(1) properties

$$y_t = \delta + \alpha y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_t) &= E(\delta + \alpha y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t) \\ &= E(\delta) + \alpha E(y_{t-1}) + E(\varepsilon_t) \\ &= \delta + \alpha E(y_t) + 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$(1 - \alpha)E(y_t) = \delta$$

$$E(y_t) = \frac{\delta}{1 - \alpha}$$

Note that stating that  $E(y_t) = E(y_{t-1})$  assumes stationary process!

## Markov chains

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When the dependent variable is categorical, there are different ways of modeling this (e.g. survival analysis). One approach is that of a Markov chain.



## Markov chains

$$Pr(y_t = 1) = \mathcal{F}(y_{t-1}(\mathbf{X}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}) + (1 - y_{t-1})(\mathbf{X}_t\boldsymbol{\alpha}))$$

$\mathcal{F}()$  can be a logistic or probit transformation.

For examples:

- Adam Przeworski & Fernando Limongi (1997), "Modernization: theories and facts." *World Politics* 49:2, 155-183.
- Kristian S. Gleditsch & Michael D. Ward (2006), "Diffusion and the international context of democratization." *International Organization* 60:4, 911-933.

## Other topics

A number of important topics have not been covered, among which:

- Vector autoregression (VAR) models, e.g.

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \alpha_1 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \gamma_1 x_{t-1} + u_{1,t} \\x_t &= \alpha_2 + \beta_2 y_{t-1} + \gamma_2 x_{t-1} + u_{2,t}\end{aligned}$$

- Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity models, e.g.

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha + \gamma_1 u_{t-1}^2 \quad \text{ARCH}$$

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^p \gamma_i u_{t-i}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^q \delta_i \sigma_{t-i}^2 \quad \text{GARCH}(p,q)$$