

Time Series Analysis

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Outline of the lecture

Stochastic processes, 1st part:

- Stochastic processes in general: Sec 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 [except 5.3.2], 5.4.
- MA, AR, and ARMA-processes, Sec. 5.5

Stochastic Processes – in general

- Function: $X(t, \omega)$
- Time: $t \in T$
- Realization: $\omega \in \Omega$
- Index set: T
- Sample Space: Ω (sometimes called *ensemble*)
- $X(t = t_0, \cdot)$ is a random variable
- $X(\cdot, \omega)$ is a time series (i.e. one realization)
- In this course we consider the case where time is discrete and and measurements are continuous

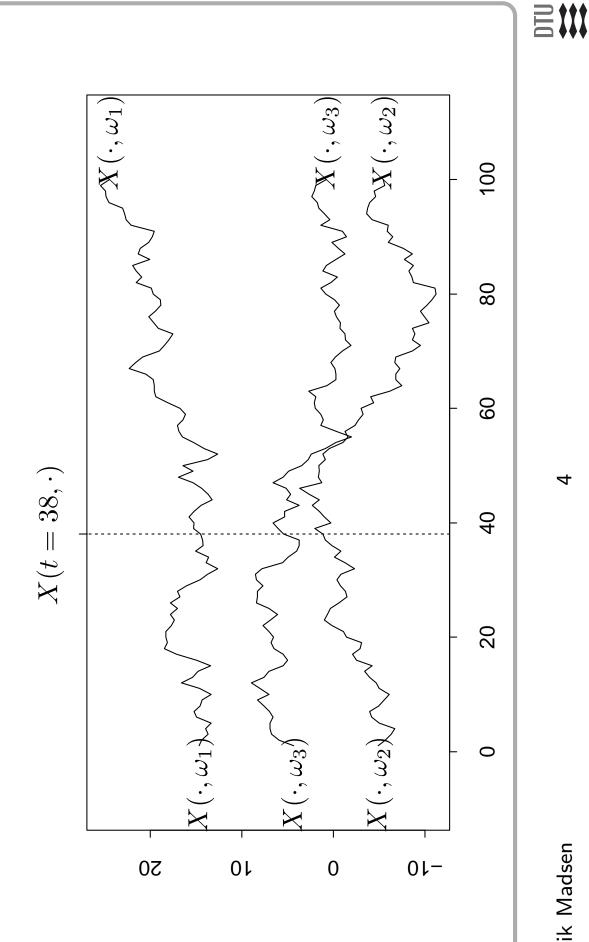




H. Madsen, Time Series Analysis, Chapmann Hall



Stochastic Processes – illustration



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Complete Characterization

n-dimensional probability distribution:

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f_{X(t_1),\ldots,X(t_n)}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)
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Family of probability distribution functions, i.e.:

• For all
$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

 \bullet and all t

is called the *family of finite-dimensional probability distribution functions for the process*. This family completely characterize the stochastic process.

2'nd order moment representation

Mean function:

$$\mu(t) = E[X(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X(t)}(x) \, dx,$$

Autocovariance function:

$$\gamma_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = \gamma(t_1, t_2) = Cov [X(t_1), X(t_2)]$$

= $E[(X(t_1) - \mu(t_1))(X(t_2) - \mu(t_2))]$

The variance function is obtained from $\gamma(t_1, t_2)$ when $t_1 = t_2 = t$:

$$\sigma^{2}(t) = V[X(t)] = E[(X(t) - \mu(t))^{2}]$$

Stationarity

• A process $\{X(t)\}$ is said to be *strongly stationary* if all finite-dimensional distributions are invariant for changes in time, i.e. for every n, and for any set (t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n) and for any h it holds

$$f_{X(t_1),\dots,X(t_n)}(x_1,\dots,x_n) = f_{X(t_1+h),\dots,X(t_n+h)}(x_1,\dots,x_n)$$

- A process {X(t)} is said to be weakly stationary of order k if all the first k moments are invariant to changes in time
- A weakly stationary process of order 2 is simply called weakly stationary or just stationary:

$$\mu(t) = \mu \quad \sigma^2(t) = \sigma^2 \quad \gamma(t_1, t_2) = \gamma(t_1 - t_2)$$

Ergodicity

- In time series analysis we normally assume that we have access to one realization only
- We therefore need to be able to determine characteristics of the random variable X_t from one realization x_t
- It is often enough to require the process to be mean-ergodic:

$$E[X(t)] = \int_{\Omega} x(t,\omega) f(\omega) \, d\omega = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} x(t,\omega) \, dt$$

i.e. if the mean of the ensemble equals the mean over time

Some intuitive examples, not directly related to time series: http://news.softpedia.com/news/What-is-ergodicity-15686.shtml





Special processes

- Normal processes (also called Gaussian processes): All finite dimensional distribution functions are (multivariate) normal distributions
- Markov processes: The conditional distribution depends only of the latest state of the process:

 $P\{X(t_n) \le x | X(t_{n-1}), \cdots, X(t_1)\} = P\{X(t_n) \le x | X(t_{n-1})\}$

- Deterministic processes: Can be predicted without uncertainty from past observations
- Pure stochastic processes: Can be written as a (infinite) linear combination of uncorrelated random variables
- Decomposition: $X_t = S_t + D_t$

Autocovariance and autocorrelation

- For stationary processes: Only dependent of the time difference $\tau = t_2 t_1$
- Autocovariance:

$$\gamma(\tau) = \gamma_{XX}(\tau) = Cov[X(t), X(t+\tau)] = E[X(t)X(t+\tau)]$$

Autocorrelation:

$$\rho(\tau) = \rho_{XX}(\tau) = \gamma_{XX}(\tau) / \gamma_{XX}(0) = \gamma_{XX}(\tau) / \sigma_X^2$$

Some properties of the autocovariance function:

$$\gamma(\tau) = \gamma(-\tau)$$
$$|\gamma(\tau)| = \gamma(0)$$

Linear processes

A linear process $\{Y_t\}$ is a process that can be written on the form

$$Y_t - \mu = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_i \varepsilon_{t-i}$$

where μ is the mean value of the process and

- $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ is white noise, i.e. a sequence of i.i.d. random variables.
- $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ can be scaled so that $\psi_0 = 1$
- Without loss of generality we assume $\mu=0$



$\psi\text{-}$ and $\pi\text{-weights}$

Transfer function and linear process:

$$\psi(\mathsf{B}) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \psi_i \mathsf{B}^i \qquad Y_t = \psi(\mathsf{B})\varepsilon_t$$

Inverse operator (if it exists) and the linear process:

$$\pi(\mathsf{B}) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \pi_i \mathsf{B}^i \qquad \pi(\mathsf{B})Y_t = \varepsilon_t,$$

- Autocovariance using ψ -weights:

$$\gamma(k) = Cov \left[\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_i \varepsilon_{t-i}, \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_i \varepsilon_{t+k-i} \right] = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_i \psi_{i+k}$$



Autocovariance Generating Function

Let us define autocovariance generating function:

$$\Gamma(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(k) z^{-k},$$
(1)

which is the z-transformation of the autocovariance function.



Autocovariance Generating Function

• We obtain (since $\psi_i = 0$ for i < 0)

$$\Gamma(z) = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_{i} \psi_{i+k} z^{-k}$$

$$= \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_{i} z^{i} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_{j} z^{-j}$$

$$= \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2} \psi(z^{-1}) \psi(z).$$

$$\Gamma(z) = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2} \psi(z^{-1}) \psi(z) = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2} \pi^{-1}(z^{-1}) \pi^{-1}(z).$$
(2)



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Stationarity and invertibility

• The linear process $Y_t = \psi(\mathsf{B})\varepsilon_t$ is stationary if

$$\psi(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_i z^{-i}$$

converges for $|z| \ge 1$ (i.e. old values of ε_t is weighted down)

• The linear process $\pi(B)Y_t = \varepsilon_t$ is said to be *invertible* if

$$\pi(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \pi_i z^{-i}$$

converges for $|z| \ge 1$ (i.e. ε_t can be calculated from recent values of Y_t)

Stationary processes in the frequency domain

- It has been shown that the autocovariance function is non-negative definite.
- Following a theorem of Bochner such a non-negative definite function can be written as a Stieltjes integral

$$\gamma(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega\tau} \, dF(\omega) \tag{3}$$

for a process in continuous time, or

$$\gamma(\tau) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\omega\tau} \, dF(\omega) \tag{4}$$

for a process in discrete time.



Processes in the frequency domain

For a purely stochastic process we have the following relations between the spectrum and the autocovariance function

$$f(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega\tau} \gamma(\tau) d\tau$$
(continuous time) (5)

$$\gamma(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega\tau} f(\omega) d\omega$$

$$f(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(k) e^{-i\omega k}$$
(discrete time) (6)

$$\gamma(k) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{ik\omega} f(\omega) d\omega$$



Processes in the frequency domain

- We have seen that any stationary process can be formulated as a sum of a purely stochastic process and a purely deterministic process.
- Similar, the spectral density can be written

$$F(\omega) = F_S(\omega) + F_D(\omega), \tag{7}$$

where $F_S(\omega)$ is an even continuous function and $F_D(\omega)$ is a step function.

Processes in the frequency domain

For a pure deterministic process

$$Y_t = \sum_{i=1}^k A_i \cos(\omega_i t + \phi_i), \tag{8}$$

 F_S will become 0, and thus $F(\omega)$ will become a step function with steps at the frequencies $\pm \omega_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$.

In this case F can be written as

$$F(\omega) = F_D(\omega) = \sum_{\omega_i \le \omega} f(\omega_i)$$
(9)

and $\{f(\omega_i); i = 1, ..., k\}$ is often called the *line spectrum*.







Linear process as a statistical model?

$$Y_t = \varepsilon_t + \psi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \psi_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \psi_3 \varepsilon_{t-3} + \dots$$

- Observations: $Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, \ldots, Y_N$
- Task: Find an infinite number of parameters from N observations!
- Solution: Restrict the sequence $1, \psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \ldots$



MA(q), AR(p), and ARMA(p,q) processes

$$Y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$$

$$Y_t + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{t-p} = \varepsilon_t$$

$$Y_t + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{t-p} = \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$$

 $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ is white noise

$$Y_t = \theta(\mathsf{B})\varepsilon_t$$

$$\phi(\mathsf{B})Y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

$$\phi(\mathsf{B})Y_t = \theta(\mathsf{B})\varepsilon_t$$

 $\phi(B)$ and $\theta(B)$ are polynomials in the backward shift operator B, (B $X_t = X_{t-1}$, B² $X_t = X_{t-2}$)



Stationarity and invertibility

- MA(q)
 - Always stationary
 - ▶ Invertible if the roots in $\theta(z^{-1}) = 0$ with respect to z all are within the unit circle
- AR(p)
 - Always invertible
 - Stationary if the roots of $\phi(z^{-1}) = 0$ with respect to z all lie within the unit circle
- ARMA(p,q)
 - Stationary if the roots of $\phi(z^{-1}) = 0$ with respect to z all lie within the unit circle
 - ▶ Invertible if the roots in $\theta(z^{-1}) = 0$ with respect to z all are within the unit circle



Autocorrelations MA(2) MA(2): ACF(k) $Y_t = (1 + 0.9 \mathbf{B} + 0.8 \mathbf{B}^2) \varepsilon_t$ 2 zero after lag 2 0.2 AR(1) AR(1): $(1-0.8\mathbf{B})Y_t = \varepsilon_t$ ACF(k) exponential decay (damped sine in case of com--0.2 plex roots) 2 ARMA(1,2) ARMA(1,2): 0.6 $(1 - 0.8\mathbf{B})Y_t = (1 + 0.9\mathbf{B} + 0.8\mathbf{B}^2)\varepsilon_t$ ACF(k) exponential decay from lag q+1-p=2+1-1=2 (damped sine in case of complex roots) 2



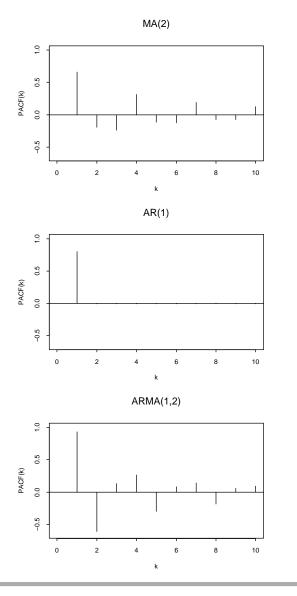


Partial autocorrelations

MA(2): $Y_t = (1 + 0.9B + 0.8B^2)\varepsilon_t$

AR(1): $(1 - 0.8B)Y_t = \varepsilon_t$ zero after lag 1

ARMA(1,2): $(1 - 0.8B)Y_t = (1 + 0.9B + 0.8B^2)\varepsilon_t$





Inverse autocorrelation

- The process: $\phi(\mathsf{B})Y_t = \theta(\mathsf{B})\varepsilon_t$
- The dual process: $\theta(B)Z_t = \phi(B)\varepsilon_t$
- The inverse autocorrelation is the autocorrelation for the dual process
- Thus, the IACF can be used i a similar way as the PACF