

# Linear Time Series Analysis

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# Outline



- Stationarity
- Autocorrelations and partial autocorrelations
- White noise
- Estimation of the autocorrelations and partial autocorrelations
- Moving average and autoregressive representations of time series processes
- Stationary time series models: AR, MA, ARMA, SAR, SMA and SARMA models
- Nonstationary time series models: nonstationary in mean, nonstationary in the variance, ARIMA model and SARIMA model
- Model identification, parameter estimation, diagnostic checking and model selection
- Forecasting

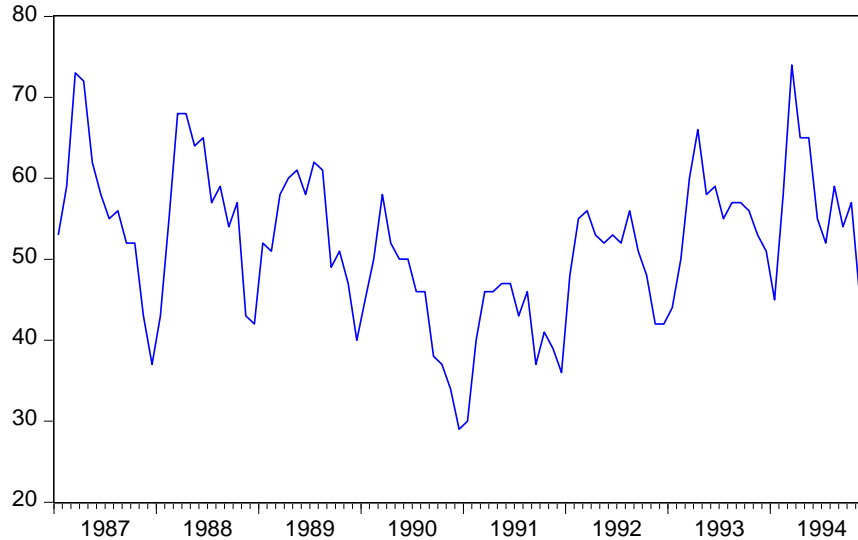
# Stationarity



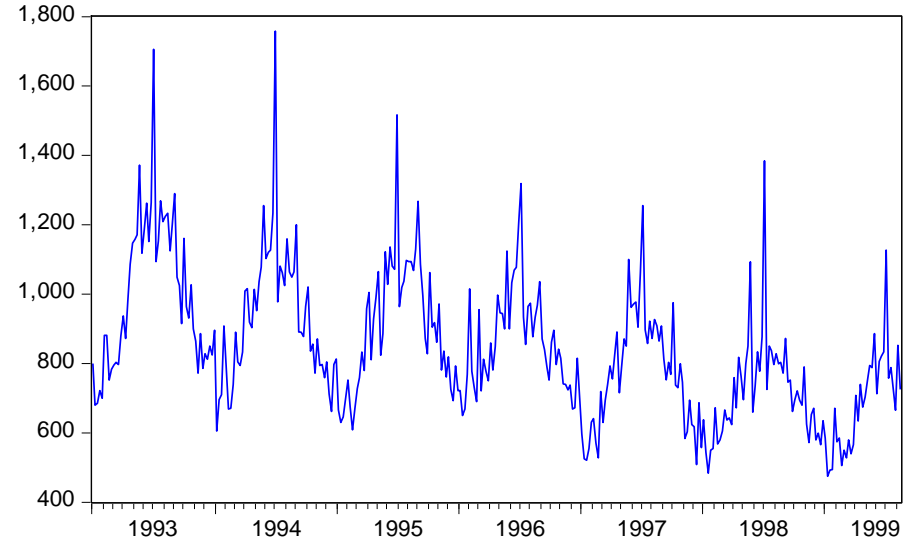
## Definition:

A **time series** is a sequence of observations over time. For example: monthly sales of new one-family houses; Daily stock indices; Weekly beer consumption; daily average temperature; Annual electricity production.

HOUSE



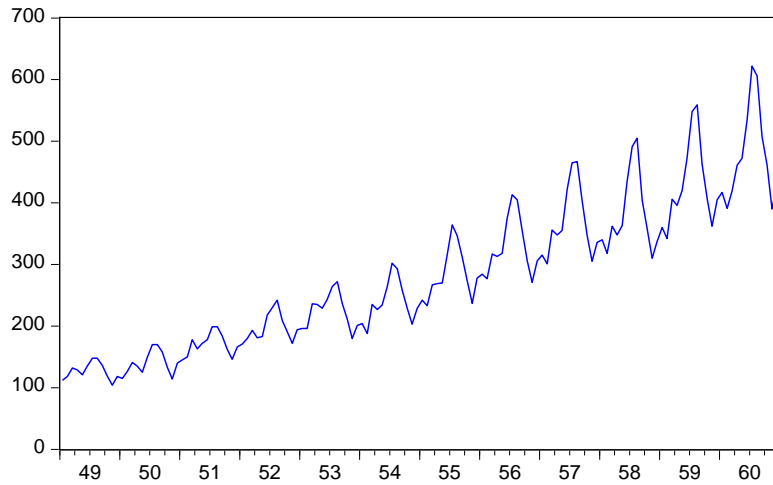
BEER



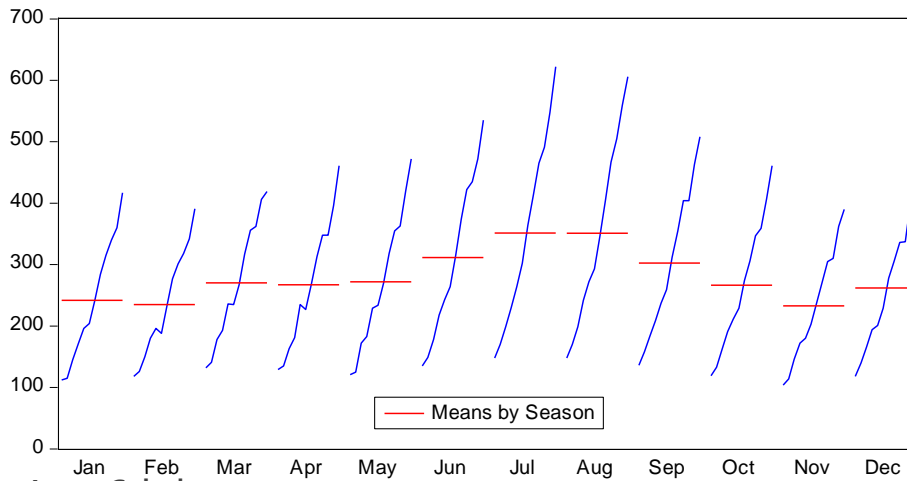
# Stationarity



PASSAG



PASSAG by Season

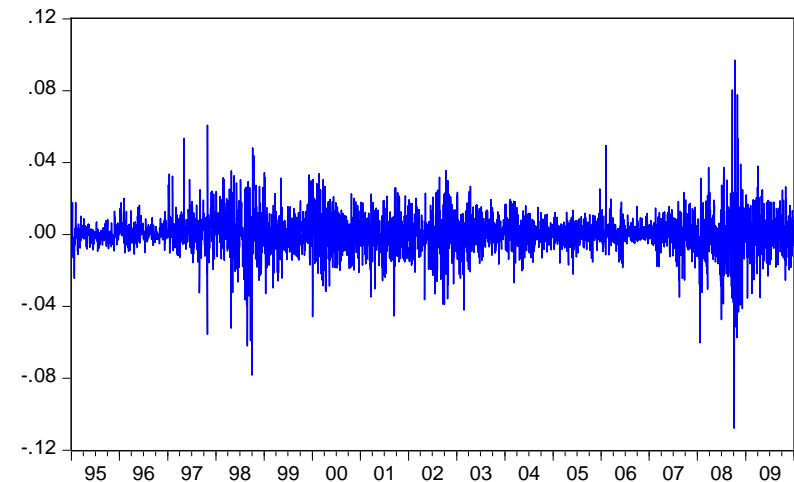


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POR



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# Stationarity



## Definitions:

A **stochastic process** is a family of time indexed random variables,  $Z(w,t)$ :  $t=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ , where  $w$  is the sample space and  $t$  is the index set.

A time series is a realization (or sample function) from a certain stochastic process,  $Y_t, t=1, 2, \dots, n$ .

A process  $Y_t, t=1, 2, \dots, n$  is said to be **strictly stationary** if it has constant mean, constant variance, and the covariance and the correlation between  $Y_t$  and  $Y_{t+k}$  depend only on time difference  $k$ .

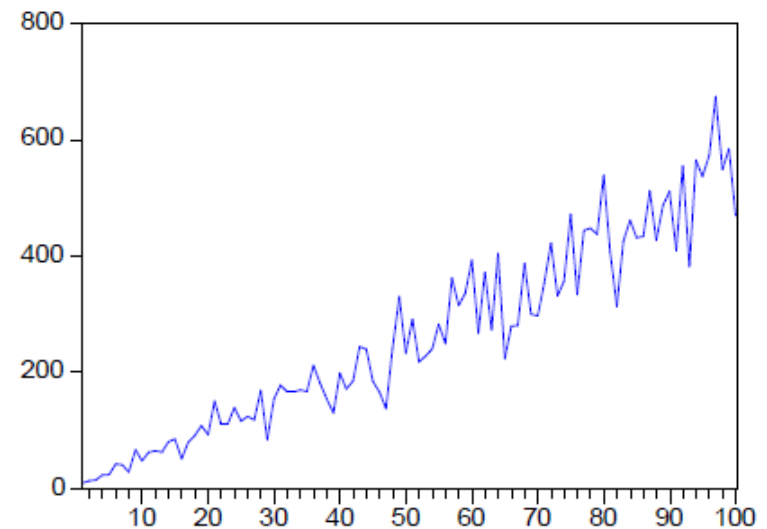
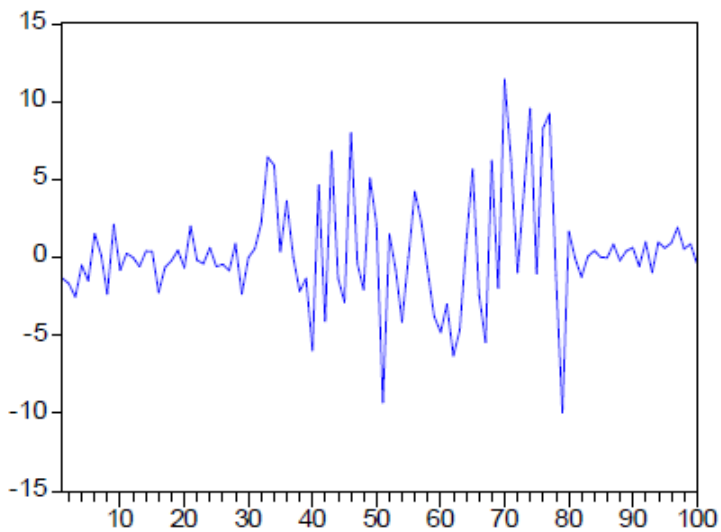
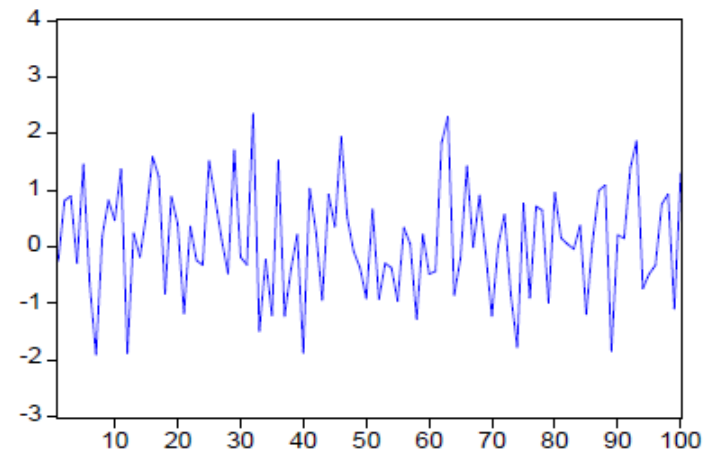
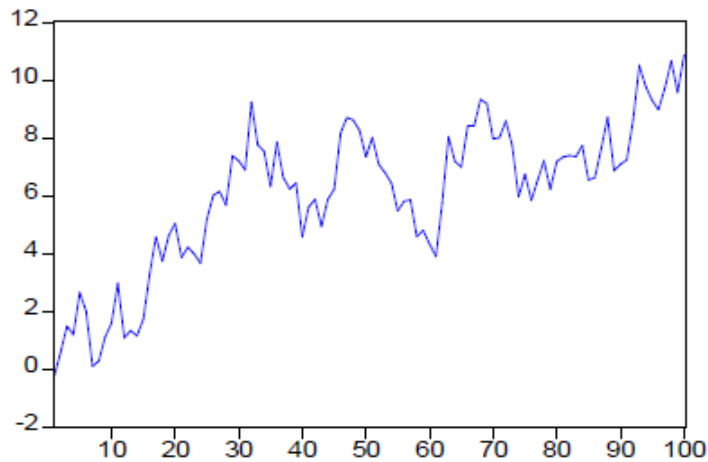
$$\mu_t = E(Y_t) = \mu,$$

$$\sigma_t^2 = \text{Var}(Y_t) = E(Y_t - \mu_t)^2 = \sigma^2,$$

$$\gamma(t_1, t_2) = E(Y_{t_1} - \mu_{t_1})(Y_{t_2} - \mu_{t_2}) = \gamma(t_1 + k, t_2 + k), \quad \forall t_1, t_2, k$$

$$\rho(t_1, t_2) = \frac{\gamma(t_1, t_2)}{\sqrt{\sigma_{t_1}^2} \sqrt{\sigma_{t_2}^2}} = \rho(t_1 + k, t_2 + k), \quad \forall t_1, t_2, k,$$

# Stationary?



# Autocorrelation



The **autocovariance function (ACOVF)** and **autocorrelation function (ACF)** represent the covariance and correlation between  $Y_t$  and  $Y_{t+k}$ , from the same process  $Y$  separated only by  $k$  time lags.

$$\gamma_k = \text{Cov}(Y_t, Y_{t+k}) = E[(Y_t - \mu)(Y_{t+k} - \mu)] \quad \rho_k = \frac{\text{Cov}(Y_t, Y_{t+k})}{\sqrt{[\text{Var}(Y_t)][\text{Var}(Y_{t+k})]}} = \frac{\gamma_k}{\gamma_0}$$

The autocovariance function and the autocorrelation function have the following properties:

- 1)  $\gamma_0 = \text{Var}(Y_t)$ ;  $\rho_0 = 1$ ;
- 2)  $|\gamma_k| \leq \gamma_0$ ;  $|\rho_k| \leq 1$ ;
- 3)  $\gamma_k = \gamma_{-k}$ ;  $\rho_k = \rho_{-k}$  for all  $k$ ;
- 4)  $\gamma_k$  and  $\rho_k$  are positive semidefinite.

# Partial autocorrelation



The **partial autocorrelation function (PACF)** measures the correlation between  $Y_t$  and  $Y_{t-k}$ , when the effects of intervening variables  $Y_{t-1}, Y_{t-2}, \dots, Y_{t-k+1}$  are removed. The partial autocorrelation coefficient of order  $k$  is denoted by  $\phi_{kk}$  and can be derived by regressing  $Y_{t+k}$  against  $Y_{t+k-1}, Y_{t+k-2}, \dots, Y_t$ :

$$Y_{t+k} = \phi_{k1}Y_{t+k-1} + \phi_{k2}Y_{t+k-2} + \dots + \phi_{kk}Y_t + e_{t+k}.$$

Multiplying  $Y_{t+k-j}$  on both sides of the equation and taking expected values, we get

$$\phi_{11} = \rho_1, \phi_{22} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_1 \\ \rho_1 & \rho_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_1 \\ \rho_1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}, \phi_{33} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_1 & \rho_2 \\ \rho_1 & 1 & \rho_2 \\ \rho_2 & \rho_1 & \rho_3 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_1 & \rho_2 \\ \rho_1 & 1 & \rho_1 \\ \rho_2 & \rho_1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}, \dots, \phi_{kk} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_1 & \rho_2 & \dots & \rho_{k-2} & \rho_1 \\ \rho_1 & 1 & \rho_1 & \dots & \rho_{k-3} & \rho_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho_{k-1} & \rho_{k-2} & \rho_{k-3} & \dots & \rho_1 & \rho_k \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_1 & \rho_2 & \dots & \rho_{k-2} & \rho_{k-1} \\ \rho_1 & 1 & \rho_1 & \dots & \rho_{k-3} & \rho_{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho_{k-1} & \rho_{k-2} & \rho_{k-3} & \dots & \rho_1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}$$



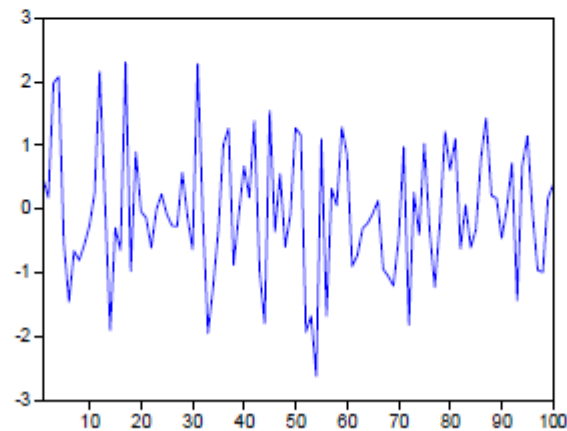
# White noise



A process is called a “white noise” process if it is a sequence of uncorrelated random variables:

$$Y_t = \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  has constant mean  $E(\varepsilon_t) = \mu_\varepsilon$  (usually assumed to be 0), constant variance  $Var(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma_\varepsilon^2$  and null covariance  $Cov(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-k}) = 0$  for all  $k \neq 0$ . The ACF and PACF of a white noise process are null for all  $k \neq 0$ .



Simulation of a white noise process with zero mean and unit variance

# Sample ACF and PACF



For a given observed time series,  $Y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , the sample autocorrelation function (ACF) is defined as

$$\hat{\rho}_k = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_k}{\hat{\gamma}_0} = \frac{\sum_{t=k+1}^n (Y_t - \bar{Y})(Y_{t-k} - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{t=1}^n (Y_t - \bar{Y})^2}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

The sample partial autocorrelation function (PACF) is obtained by a recursive method as follows:

$$\hat{\phi}_{kk} = \frac{\hat{\rho}_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \hat{\phi}_{k-1,j} \hat{\rho}_{k-j}}{1 - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \hat{\phi}_{k-1,j} \hat{\rho}_j},$$

with  $\hat{\phi}_{11} = \hat{\rho}_1$  and  $\hat{\phi}_{kj} = \hat{\phi}_{k-1,j} - \hat{\phi}_{kk} \hat{\phi}_{k-1,k-j}$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k-1$ .

# Backshift notation



A very useful notation in time series analysis is the backshift operator  $B$ , which is used as follows:

$$BY_t = Y_{t-1}.$$

In other words,  $B$  has the effect of shifting the data back one period.

For  $k$  periods, the notation is

$$B^k Y_t = Y_{t-k}.$$

For monthly data,  $B^{12}$  is used to shift attention to the same month last year,  $B^{12}Y_t = Y_{t-12}$ .

For quarterly data, the backshift operator is used as follows:  $B^4Y_t = Y_{t-4}$ .

# MA( $\infty$ ) representation



The process  $Y_t$  can be expressed as a linear combination of a sequence of uncorrelated random variables:

$$Y_t = \varepsilon_t + \psi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \psi_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \varepsilon_{t-j},$$

where  $\psi_0 = 1$ ,  $\varepsilon_t$  is a zero mean white noise with constant variance and  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j^2 < \infty$ .

It can be shown that

$$E(Y_t) = 0, \quad \text{Var}(Y_t) = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j^2, \quad E(\varepsilon_t Y_{t-k}) = \begin{cases} \sigma_\varepsilon^2, & k = 0 \\ 0, & k > 0, \end{cases}$$

$$\text{and } \rho_k = \frac{\gamma_k}{\gamma_0} = \frac{E(Y_t Y_{t+k})}{\text{Var}(Y_t)} = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \psi_{j+k}}{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j^2}$$

# AR( $\infty$ ) representation



Another useful form is to write  $Y_t$  in an autoregressive representation, as follows:

$$Y_t = \pi_1 Y_{t-1} + \pi_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots + \varepsilon_t = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \pi_j Y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t,$$

or, equivalently,

$$\pi(B)Y_t = \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\pi(B) = 1 - \pi_1 B - \pi_2 B^2 - \dots = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \pi_j B^j$  and  $1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\pi_j| < \infty$ .

# Autoregressive models



The finite-order representation of the autoregressive model described earlier, if only a finite number of  $\pi$  weights are nonzero, is given by

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

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is a zero mean white noise series. Because  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\pi_j| = \sum_{j=1}^p |\phi_j| < \infty$ , the process is always invertible. To be stationary, the roots of  $(1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p) = 0$  must be outside of the unit circle.

## AR(1) model

The first-order autoregressive model or AR(1) model is given by

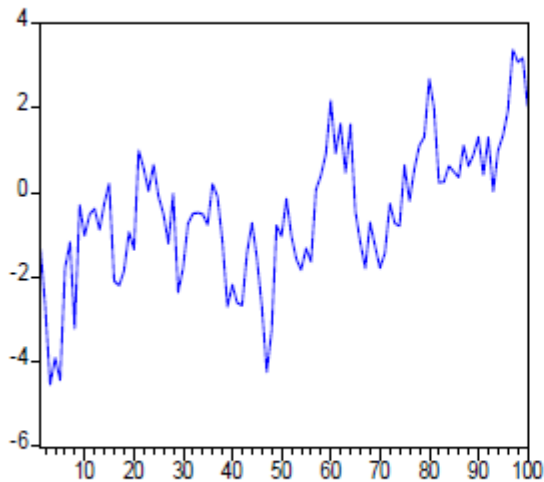
$$Y_t = \phi Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is a zero mean white noise series. The model is always invertible. To be stationary, the roots of  $(1 - \phi B) = 0$  must be outside of the unit circle. Because the root  $B = 1/\phi$ , for a stationary model, we have  $|\phi| < 1$ .

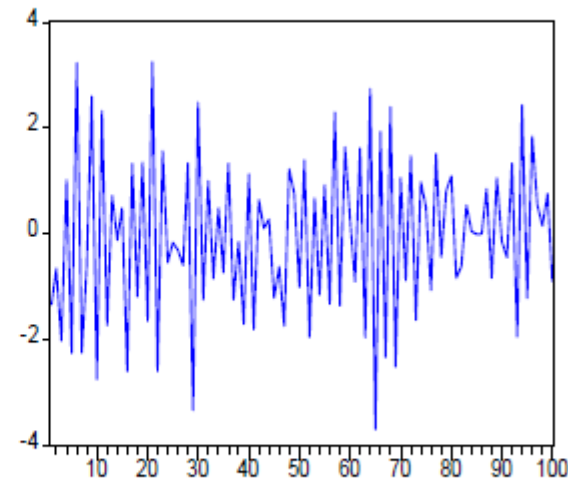
# Autoregressive models



(a)  $Y_t = 0,7Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$



(b)  $Y_t = -0,7Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$

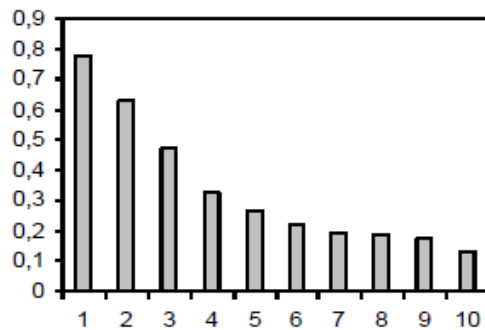


Simulated AR(1) models with  $\phi = 0.7$  and  $\phi = -0.7$

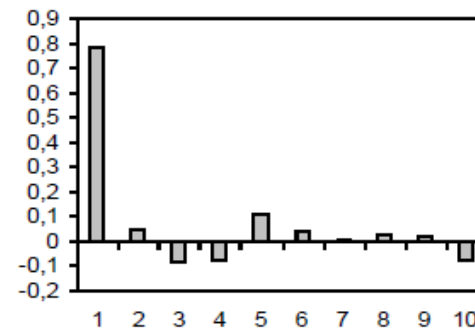
# Autoregressive models



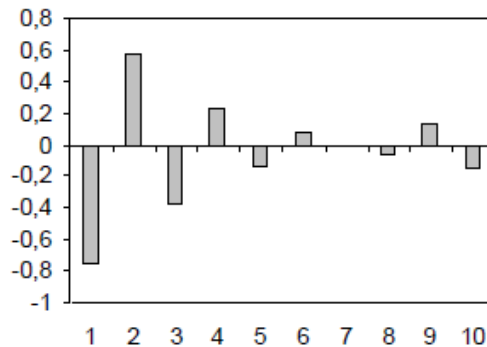
ACF of AR(1):  $Y_t = 0,7Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$



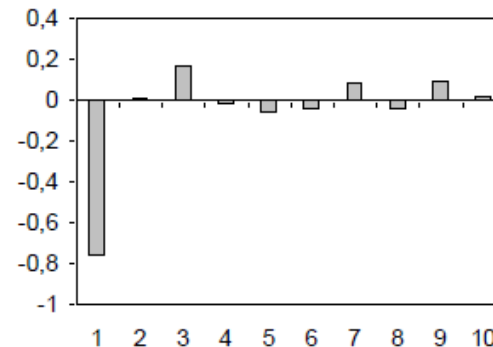
PACF of AR(1):  $Y_t = 0,7Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$



ACF of AR(1):  $Y_t = -0,7Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$



PACF of AR(1):  $Y_t = -0,7Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$



ACF and PACF of the simulated AR(1) models



# Autoregressive models



## AR(2) model

The second-order autoregressive AR(2) model is

$$Y_t = \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \phi_2 Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t,$$

or

$$\phi_2(B)Y_t = \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is a zero mean white noise series. To be stationary, the roots of  $\phi_2(B) = 1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 = 0$  must be outside of the unit circle. Thus, we have the following necessary and sufficient conditions for stationarity:

$$\phi_2 + \phi_1 < 1 \wedge \phi_2 - \phi_1 < 1 \wedge -1 < \phi_2 < 1.$$

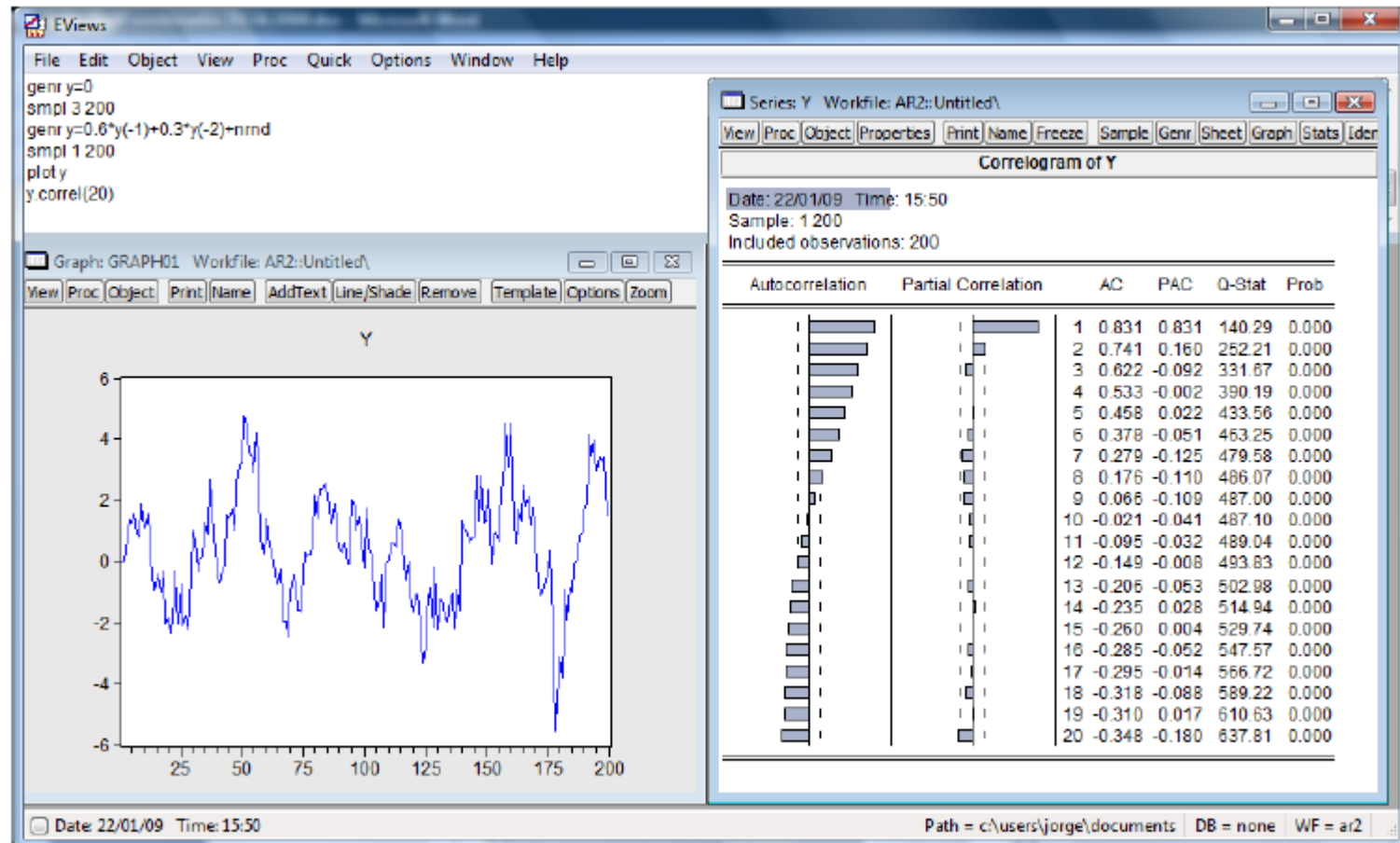
The ACF tails off as an exponential decay or a damped sine wave depending on the roots of  $\phi(B) = 0$ , and the PACF cuts off after lag 2,  $\phi_{kk} = 0$  for  $k \geq 3$ .

## AR(p) model

More complicated conditions hold for AR(p) models with  $p \geq 3$ .

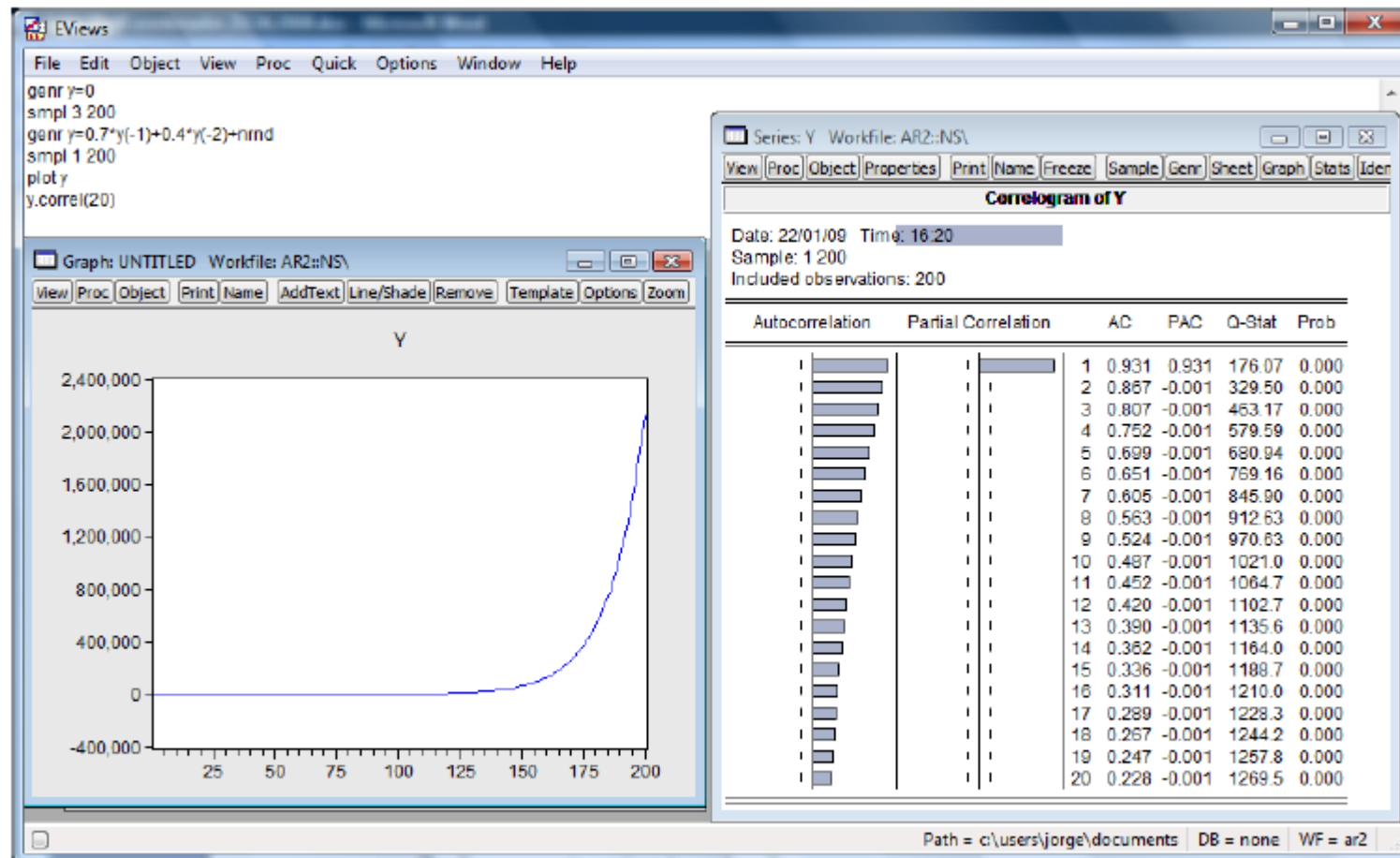
Econometric software (EViews among others) takes care of this.

# Autoregressive models



ACF and PACF of a simulated stationary AR(2) model:  $Y_t = 0,6Y_{t-1} + 0,3Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$

# Autoregressive models



ACF and PACF of a simulated nonstationary AR(2) model:  $Y_t = 0,7Y_{t-1} + 0,4Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$

# Moving average models



The finite-order representation of the moving average model described earlier, if only a finite number of  $\psi$  weights are nonzero, is given by

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

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is a zero mean white noise series. Because  $1 + \theta_1^2 + \dots + \theta_q^2 < \infty$ , the process is always stationary. To be invertible, the roots of  $(1 - \theta_1 B - \dots - \theta_q B^q) = 0$  must be outside of the unit circle.

## MA(1) model

The first-order moving average model or MA(1) model is

$$Y_t = \varepsilon_t - \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1},$$

or

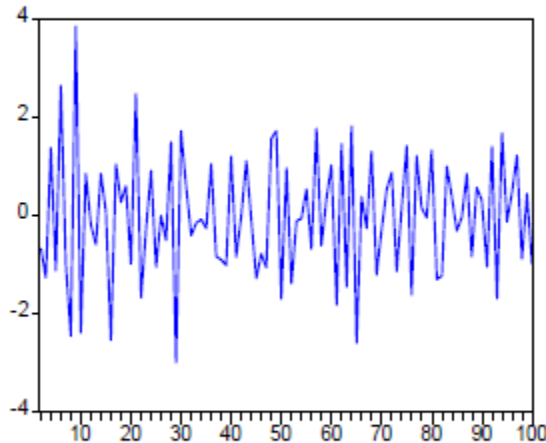
$$Y_t = \theta(B) \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\theta(B) = 1 - \theta_1 B$  and  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. To be invertible, the root of  $\theta(B) = 0$  must lie outside the unit circle. Thus, we require  $|\theta_1| < 1$ .

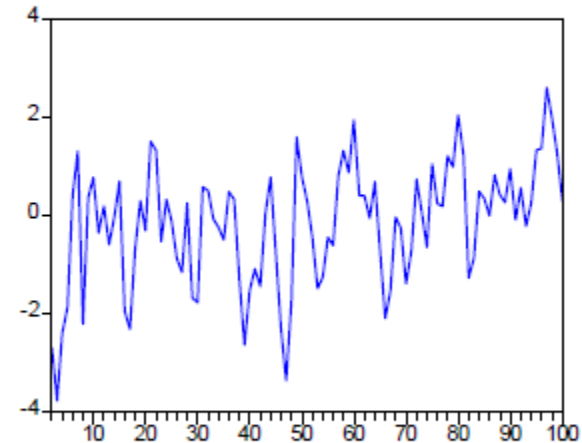
# Moving average models



(a)  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t - 0.75\varepsilon_{t-1}$



(b)  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t + 0.75\varepsilon_{t-1}$

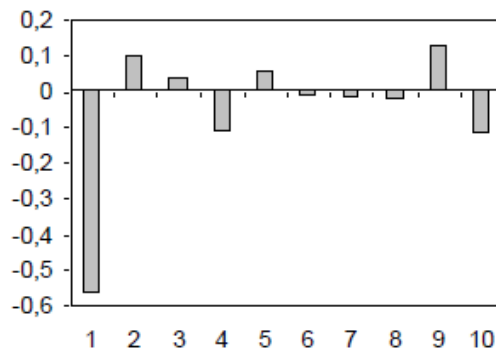


Simulated MA(1) models

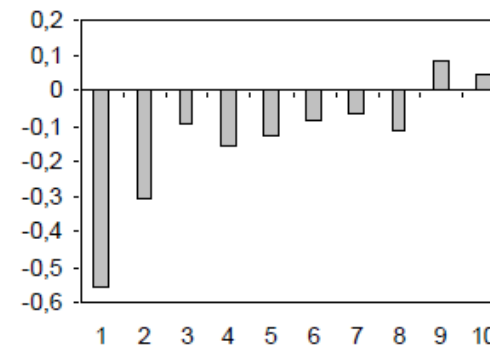
# Moving average models



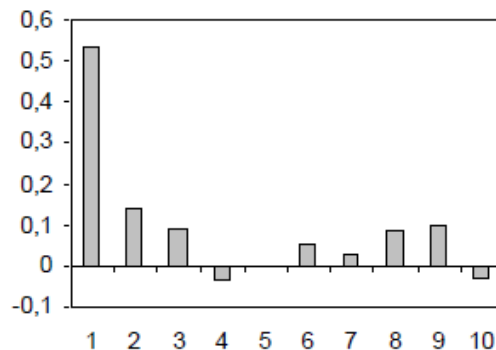
ACF of MA(1):  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t - 0.75\varepsilon_{t-1}$



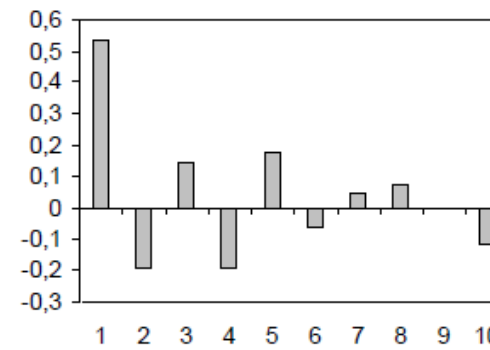
PACF of MA(1):  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t - 0.75\varepsilon_{t-1}$



ACF of MA(1):  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t + 0.75\varepsilon_{t-1}$



PACF of MA(1):  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t + 0.75\varepsilon_{t-1}$



# Moving average models



## MA(2) model

The second-order moving average MA(2) model is given by

$$Y_t = \varepsilon_t - \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} - \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2},$$

or

$$Y_t = \theta_2(B)\varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\theta_2(B) = 1 - \theta_1 B - \theta_2 B^2$  and  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. To be invertible, the roots of  $\theta_2(B) = 0$  must lie outside the unit circle. Hence, we have the following conditions:

$$\theta_2 + \theta_1 < 1 \wedge \theta_2 - \theta_1 < 1 \wedge -1 < \theta_2 < 1.$$

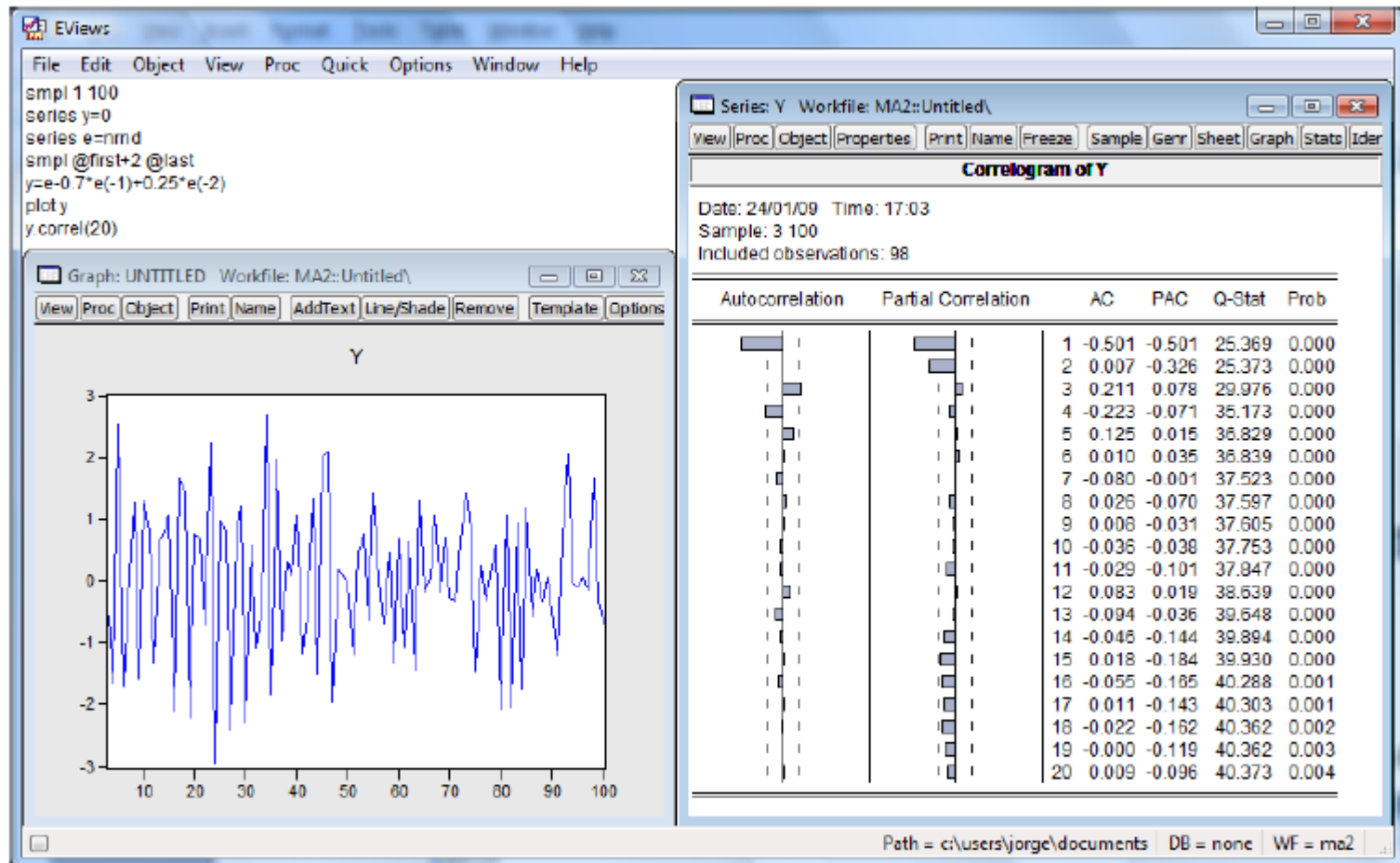
ACF of the MA(2) model cuts off after lag 2 and PACF tails off as an exponential decay or a damped sine wave depending on the roots of  $\theta_2(B) = 0$ .

## MA( $q$ ) model

More complicated conditions hold for MA( $q$ ) models with  $q \geq 3$ .

Econometric software (EViews among others) takes care of this.

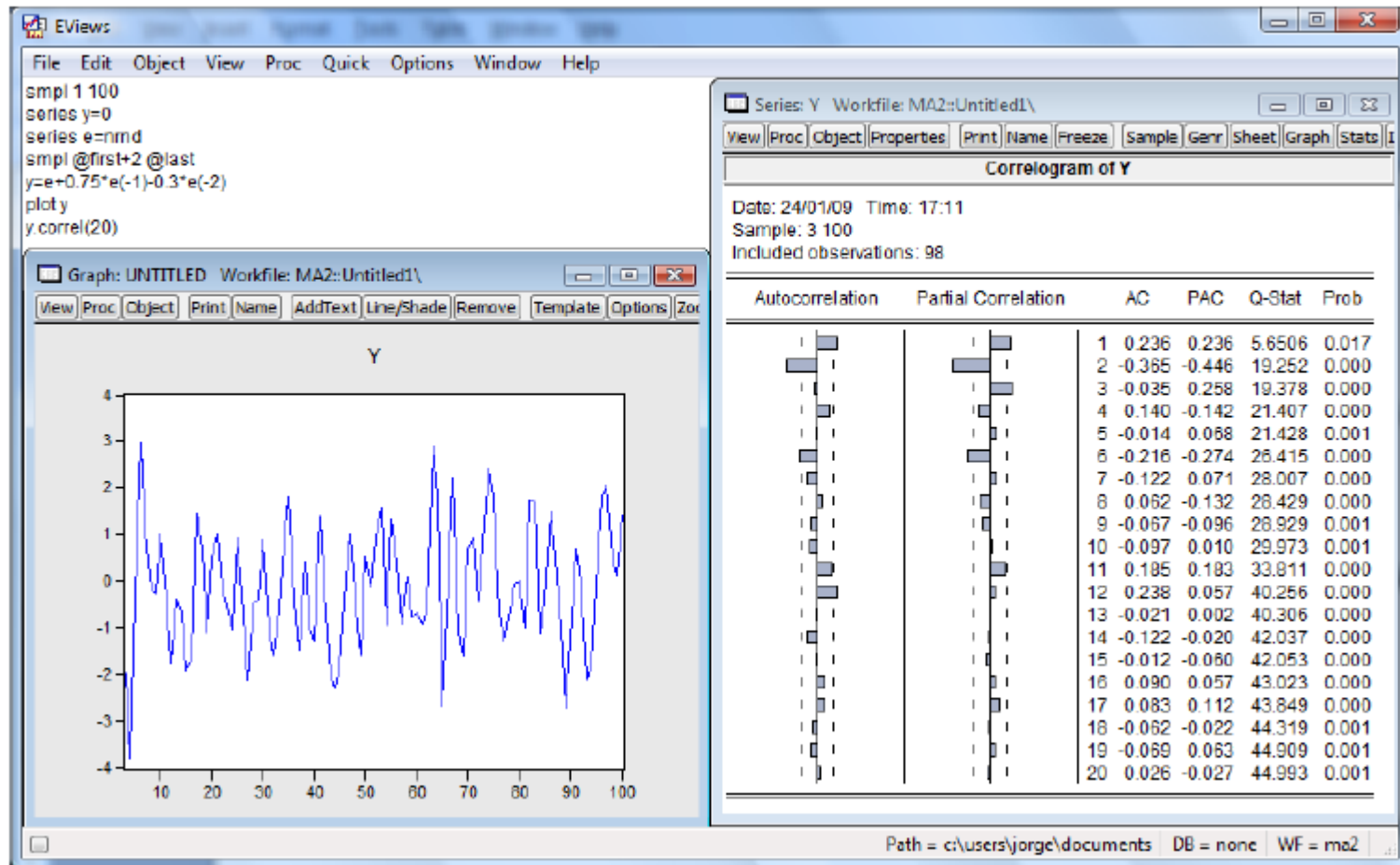
# Moving average models



ACF and PACF of the simulated MA(2) model:  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t - 0,7\varepsilon_{t-1} + 0,25\varepsilon_{t-2}$



# Moving average models



ACF and PACF of the simulated MA(2) model:  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t + 0,75\varepsilon_{t-1} - 0,2\varepsilon_{t-2}$

# Autoregressive and moving average models



## ARMA(1,1) model

The mixed autoregressive and moving average ARMA(1,1) model includes the autoregressive AR(1) and moving average MA(1) models as special cases.

$$Y_t = \phi Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t - \theta \varepsilon_{t-1},$$

or

$$\phi(B)Y_t = \theta(B)\varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\phi(B) = 1 - \phi B$ ,  $\theta(B) = 1 - \theta B$  and  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. To be stationary, the root of  $\phi(B) = 0$  must lie outside the unit circle, i.e.,  $-1 < \phi < 1$ . To be invertible, the root of  $\theta(B) = 0$  must lie outside the unit circle, i.e.,  $-1 < \theta < 1$ .

The ARMA(1,1) model can be written in a pure moving average representation as

$$Y_t = \psi(B)\varepsilon_t,$$

where

$$\psi(B) = (1 + \psi_1 B + \psi_2 B^2 + \dots) = \frac{1 - \theta B}{1 - \phi B}.$$

# Autoregressive and moving average models



The ARMA(1,1) model can be written in a pure autoregressive representation as

$$\pi(B)Y_t = \varepsilon_t,$$

where

$$\pi(B) = 1 - \pi_1 B - \pi_2 B^2 - \dots = \frac{1 - \phi B}{1 - \theta B}.$$

Both the ACF and PACF of a mixed ARMA(1,1) model tail off as  $k$  increases, with its shape depending on the signs and magnitudes of  $\phi$  and  $\theta$ .

## ARMA(p,q) model

The general mixed autoregressive and moving average ARMA(p,q) model is given by

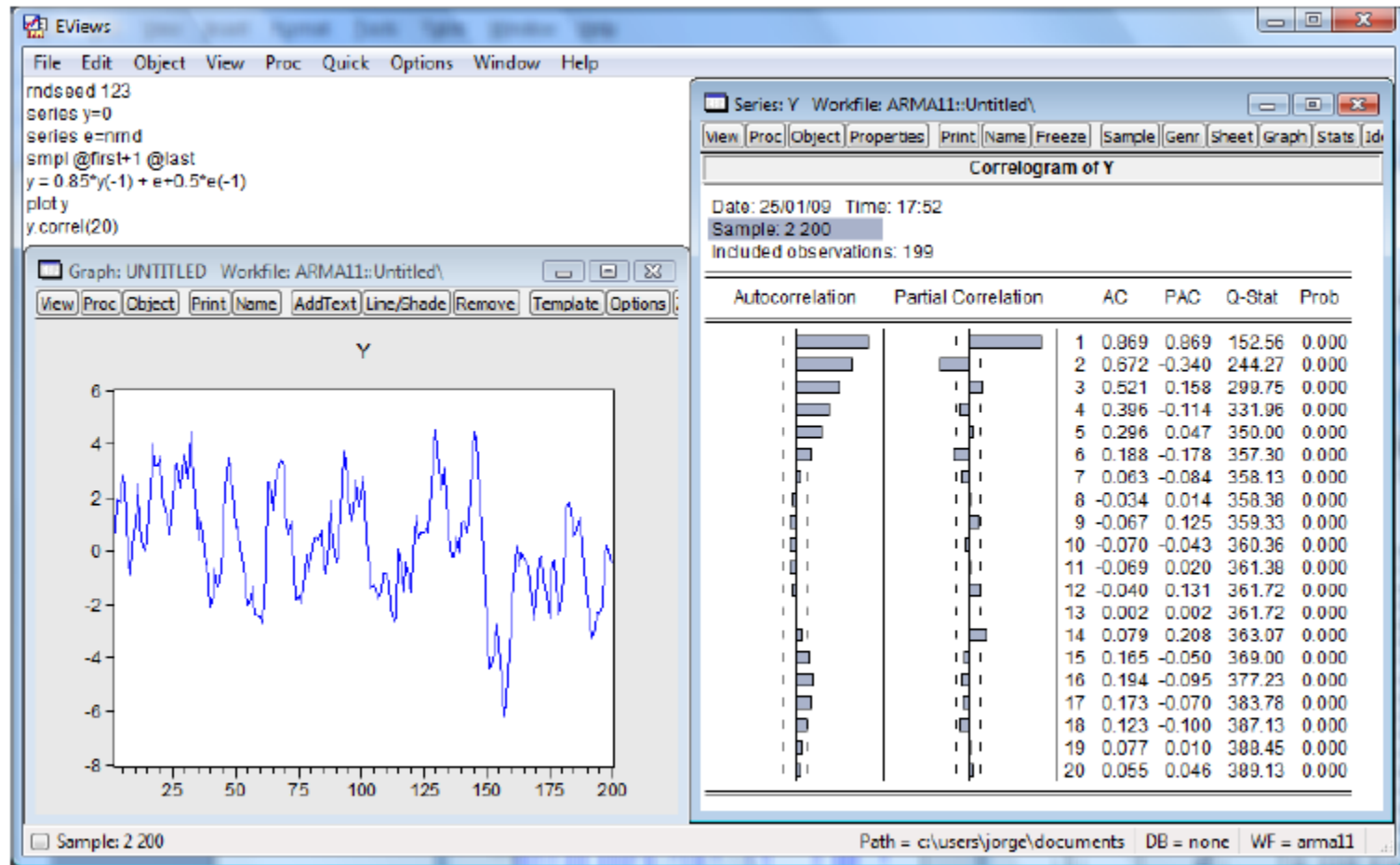
$$Y_t = \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t - \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} - \dots - \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$$

or

$$\phi_p(B)Y_t = \theta_q(B)\varepsilon_t,$$

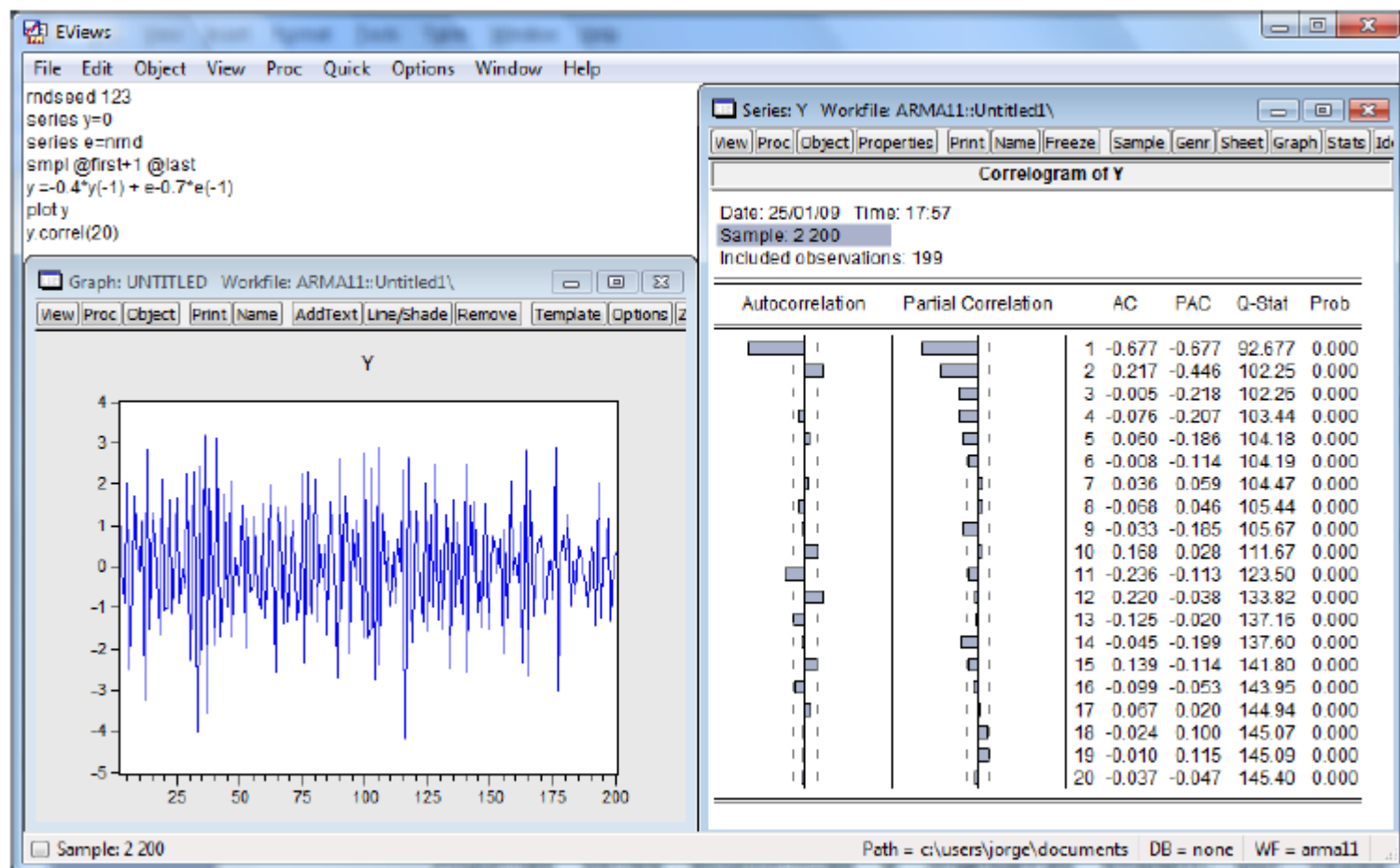
where  $\phi_p(B) = 1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p$ ,  $\theta_q(B) = 1 - \theta_1 B - \dots - \theta_q B^q$  and  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. To be stationary, the roots of  $\phi_p(B) = 0$  must lie outside the unit circle. To be invertible, the roots of  $\theta_q(B) = 0$  must lie outside the unit circle.

# Autoregressive and moving average models



ACF and PACF of the ARMA(1,1) model:  $Y_t = 0,85Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + 0,5\varepsilon_{t-1}$

# Autoregressive and moving average models



ACF and PACF of the ARMA(1,1) model:  $Y_t = -0,4Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t - 0,7\varepsilon_{t-1}$

# Seasonal ARMA models



## Seasonal autoregressive and moving average SARMA( $P, Q$ ) $_s$ model

The seasonal SARMA( $P, Q$ ) $_s$  model is represented by

$$Y_t = \Phi_1 Y_{t-s} + \dots + \Phi_P Y_{t-Ps} + \varepsilon_t - \Theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-s} - \dots - \Theta_Q \varepsilon_{t-Qs},$$

or

$$\Phi_P(B^s)Y_t = \Theta_Q(B^s)\varepsilon_t,$$

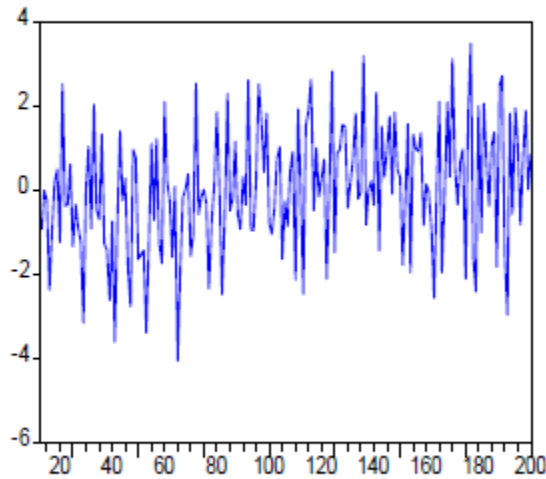
where  $\Phi_P(B^s) = 1 - \Phi_1 B^s - \dots - \Phi_P B^{Ps}$ ,  $\Theta_Q(B^s) = 1 - \Theta_1 B^s - \dots - \Theta_Q B^{Qs}$  and  $\varepsilon_t$  is a zero mean white noise. To be stationary and invertible, the roots of  $\Phi_P(B^s) = 0$  e  $\Theta_Q(B^s) = 0$  must lie outside of the unit circle, respectively.

Both the ACF and PACF of the SARMA( $P, Q$ ) $_s$  model exhibit exponential decays and damped sine waves at the seasonal lags.

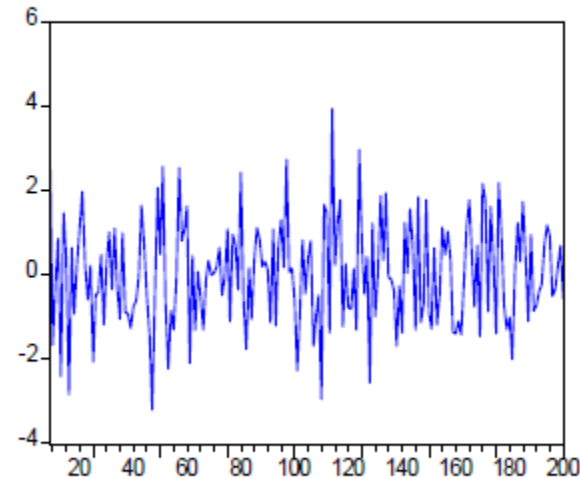
# Seasonal ARMA models



(i)  $(1 - 0.65B^{12})Y_t = (1 + 0.25B^{12})\varepsilon_t$



(ii)  $(1 - 0.3B^4)Y_t = (1 - 0.4B^4 + 0.15B^8)\varepsilon_t$



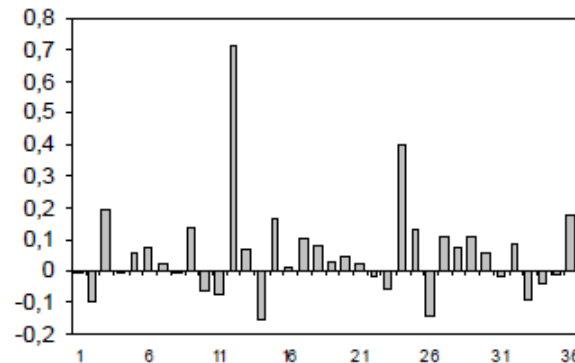
Simulated SARMA(1,1)<sub>12</sub> and SARMA(1,2)<sub>4</sub> models

# Seasonal ARMA models

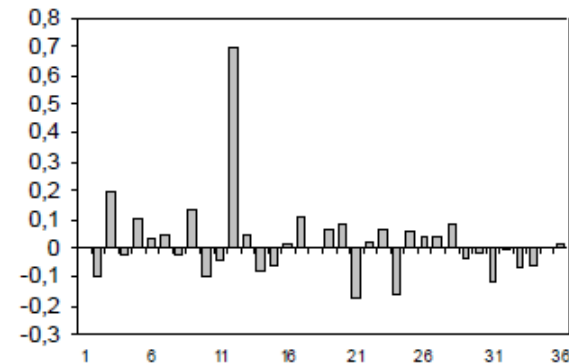


ACF of SARMA(1,1)<sub>12</sub>

$$(1 - 0.65B^{12})Y_t = (1 + 0.25B^{12})\varepsilon_t$$

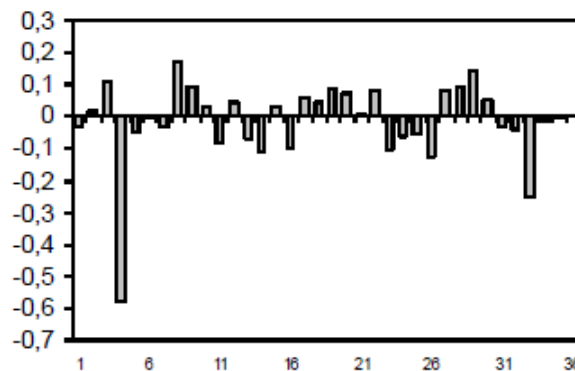


PACF of SARMA(1,1)<sub>12</sub>

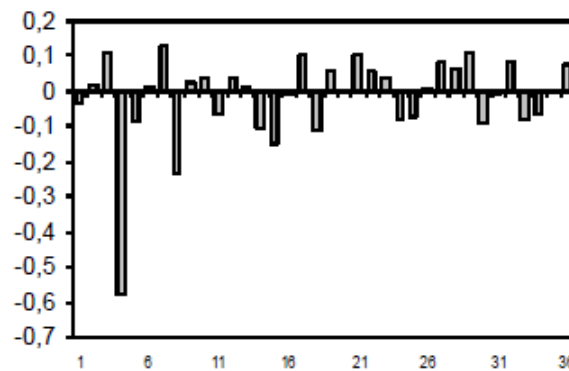


ACF of SARMA(1,2)<sub>4</sub>

$$(1 - 0.3B^4)Y_t = (1 - 0.4B^4 + 0.15B^8)\varepsilon_t$$



PACF of SARMA(1,2)<sub>4</sub>





# General multiplicative ARMA models

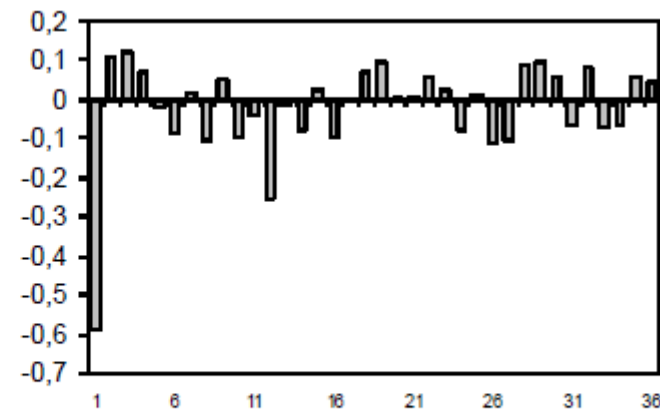
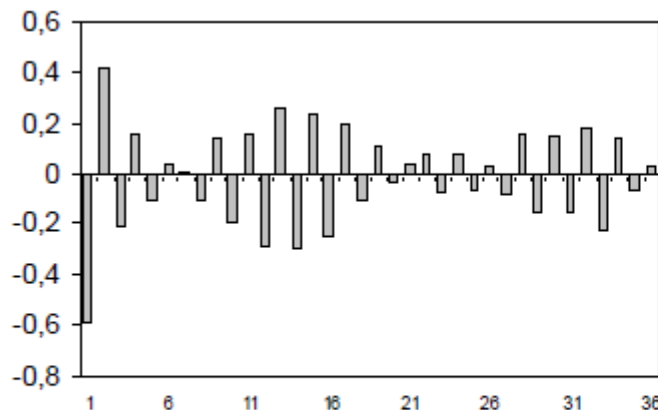


If we combine non-seasonal ARMA( $p, q$ ) and seasonal SARMA( $P, Q$ ) $_s$  models, we obtain a general multiplicative model of order  $(p, q) \times (P, Q)_s$

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p)(1 - \Phi_1 B^s - \dots - \Phi_P B^{Ps})Y_t = (1 - \theta_1 B - \dots - \theta_q B^q)(1 - \Theta_1 B^s - \dots - \Theta_Q B^{Qs})\varepsilon_t,$$

or

$$\phi_p(B)\Phi_P(B^s)Y_t = \theta_q(B)\Theta_Q(B^s)\varepsilon_t.$$



ACF and PACF of a simulated SARMA(1,0)(1,0) $_{12}$  model:  $(1 - 0.7B)(1 + 0.25B^{12})Y_t = \varepsilon_t$

# Linear nonstationary time series models

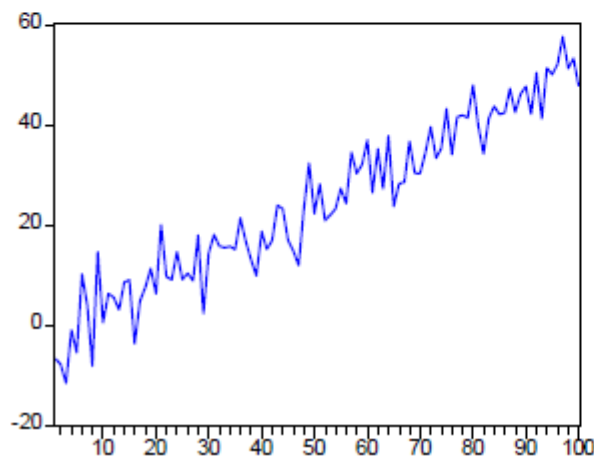


## Nonstationary model in the mean

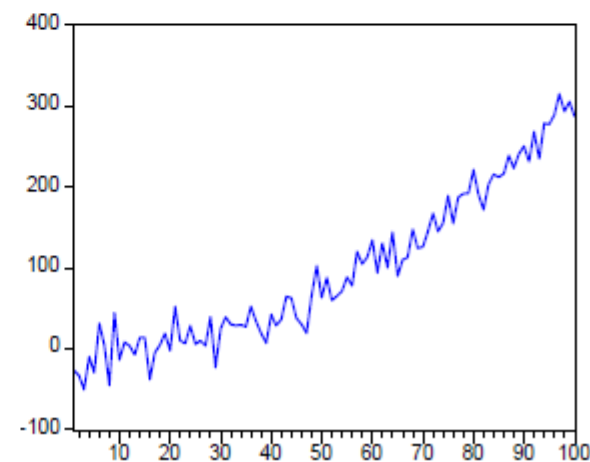
The mean function of a nonstationary model can be represented essentially by two models: deterministic trend models and stochastic trend models.

For a deterministic trend model, one can use the linear trend model,  $Y_t = a + bt + \varepsilon_t$  or the quadratic trend model,  $Y_t = a + bt + ct^2 + \varepsilon_t$ .

Linear trend model



Quadratic trend model



# Linear nonstationary time series models



## Differencing and stochastic trend model

The  $d$ th differenced series, for some integer  $d \geq 1$ , is given by

$$\nabla^d Y_t = (1-B)^d Y_t.$$

For  $d = 1$ , we have first differences

$$\nabla Y_t = (1-B)Y_t = Y_t - Y_{t-1}.$$

For seasonal time series, we can use a  $s$ th seasonal differencing

$$\nabla^s Y_t = (1-B^s)Y_t = Y_t - Y_{t-s}.$$

Finally, a  $s$ th seasonal differencing of order  $D$ , for some integer  $D \geq 1$  is given by

$$(\nabla^s)^D Y_t = (1-B^s)^D Y_t.$$

Usually  $D = 1, 2$  is sufficient to obtain seasonal stationarity.

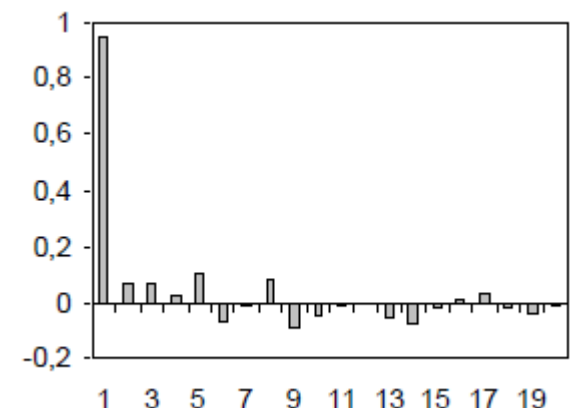
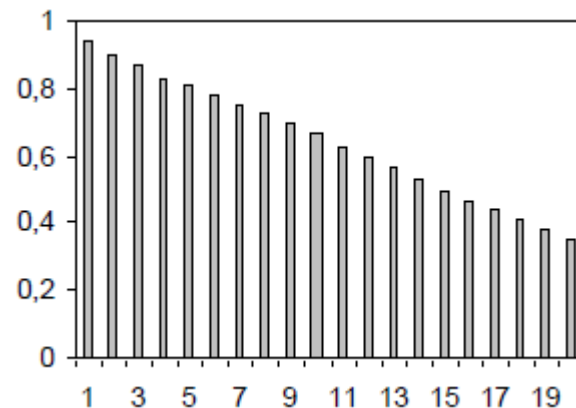
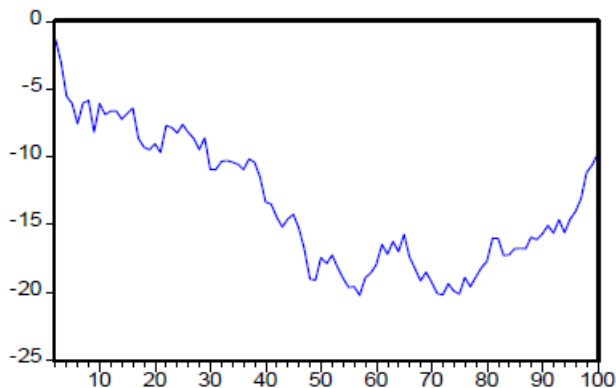
# Linear nonstationary time series models



A special case of the nonstationary models is the **stochastic trend model**,

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. This is the so-called “*random walk*” model.



ACF and PACF of a simulated random walk model

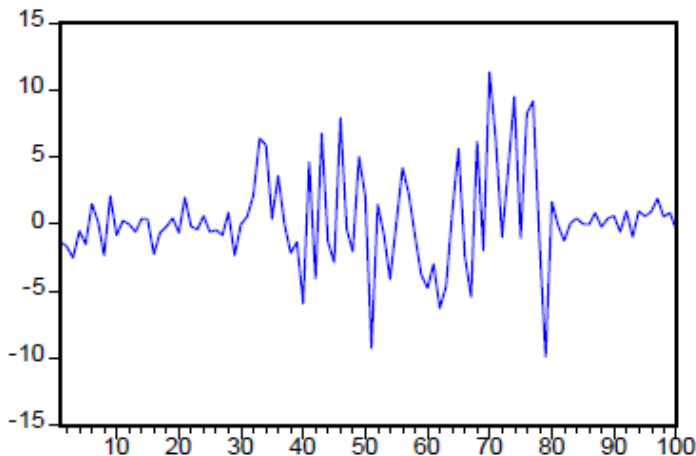
# Linear nonstationary time series models



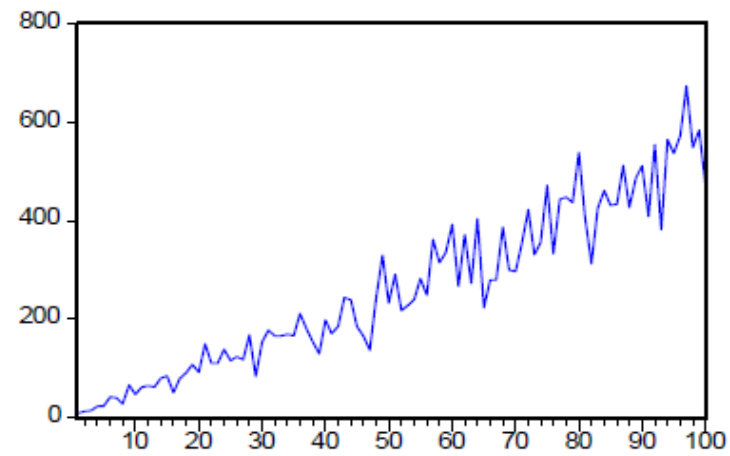
## Nonstationarity in the variance

Many time series are stationary in the mean but are nonstationary in the variance. To reduce this type of nonstationarity, we need variance stabilizing transformations such as the power transformation of Box-Cox (1964),

$$X_t = T(Y_t) = \begin{cases} Y_t^\lambda, & \lambda \neq 0 \\ \log(Y_t), & \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$



A simulated time series nonstationary in the variance but stationary in the mean



A simulated time series nonstationarity in both the mean and variance

# Linear nonstationary time series models



In practice, we fit the model to  $Y_t^{(\lambda)} = \frac{Y_t^\lambda - 1}{\lambda \tilde{Y}^{\lambda-1}}$ , for various values of  $\lambda \neq 0$ , where  $\tilde{Y}$  is the geometric mean of the series  $Y_t$ , and choose the value of  $\lambda$  that results in the smallest residual sum of squares. For  $\lambda = 0$ , we have  $Y_t^{(0)} = \tilde{Y} \log(Y_t)$ .

## Autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) models

A general model for representing nonstationary nonseasonal time series is given by the autoregressive integrated moving average ARIMA( $p, d, q$ ) model

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p)(1 - B)^d Y_t = (1 - \theta_1 B - \dots - \theta_q B^q) \varepsilon_t$$

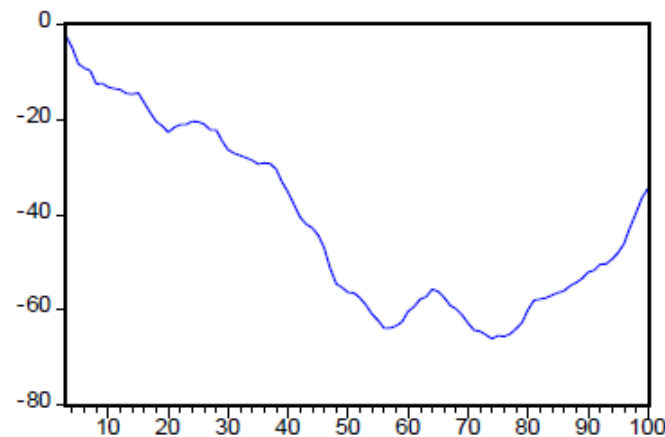
or

$$\phi_p(B)(1 - B)^d Y_t = \theta_q(B) \varepsilon_t,$$

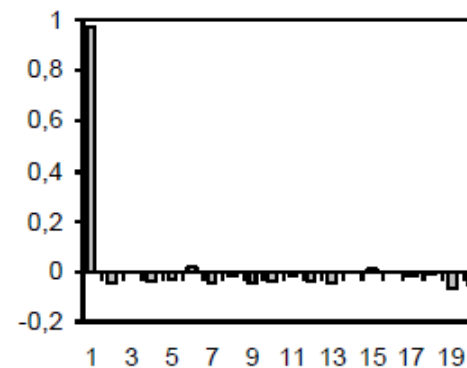
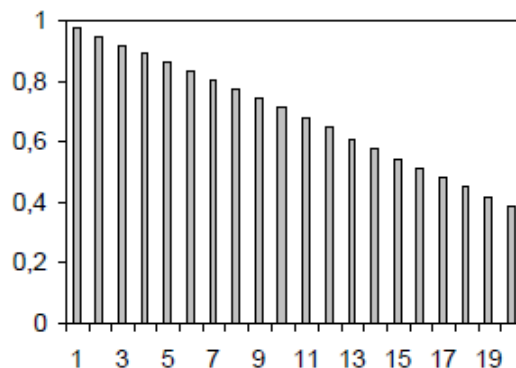
where  $(1 - B)^d$  is the differencing operator of order  $d$ , for  $d \geq 1$ ,  $\phi_p(B)$  is a stationary autoregressive (AR) operator,  $\theta_q(B)$  is an invertible moving average (MA) operator and  $\varepsilon_t$  is a zero mean white noise.

Some important special cases of the ARIMA model are ARIMA(0,1,0), ARIMA(1,1,0), ARIMA(0,1,1) and ARIMA(1,1,1) models.

# Linear nonstationary time series models



A simulated series from ARIMA(1,1,0) model:  $(1 - 0,75B)(1 - B)Y_t = \varepsilon_t$



ACF and PACF of the ARIMA(1,1,0) model:  $(1 - 0,75B)(1 - B)Y_t = \varepsilon_t$

# Linear nonstationary time series models



## Multiplicative autoregressive integrated moving average models

The multiplicative seasonal ARIMA model is an extension of the nonseasonal ARIMA model, by adding seasonal autoregressive and moving average factors. The model, often denoted as SARIMA( $p, d, q$ )( $P, D, Q$ ) $_s$ , is represented by

$$\phi_p(B)\Phi_p(B^s)(1-B)^d(1-B^s)^D Y_t = \theta_q(B)\Theta_q(B^s)\varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\phi_p(B)$  and  $\theta_q(B)$  are regular (nonseasonal) autoregressive and moving average factors, respectively,  $\Phi_p(B^s)$  and  $\Theta_q(B^s)$  are seasonal autoregressive and moving average factors, respectively, and  $s$  is the seasonal period.

For example, consider the SARIMA(0,1,1)(0,1,1) $_{12}$  model

$$(1-B)(1-B^{12})Y_t = (1-\theta_1 B)(1-\Theta_1 B^{12})\varepsilon_t$$



# Model identification



## Steps for model identification

- Plot the time series and examine whether the series contains a trend, seasonality, outliers, nonconstant variances and other nonstationary phenomena. Choose proper variance-stabilizing (Box-Cox's power transformation) and differencing transformations.
- Compute the sample ACF and the sample PACF of the original series and identify the degree of differencing  $d$  and  $D$  necessary to achieve stationarity. In practice,  $d$  and  $D$  are either 0, 1, or 2.
- Compute the sample ACF and the sample PACF of the transformed and differenced and identify the orders  $p$  and  $q$  for the regular autoregressive and moving average operators and the orders  $P$  and  $Q$  for the seasonal autoregressive and moving average operators, respectively. Usually, the needed orders of integers  $p$ ,  $q$ ,  $P$  and  $Q$  are less or equal to 3.

# Model identification



Theoretical ACF and PACF patterns for ARMA models

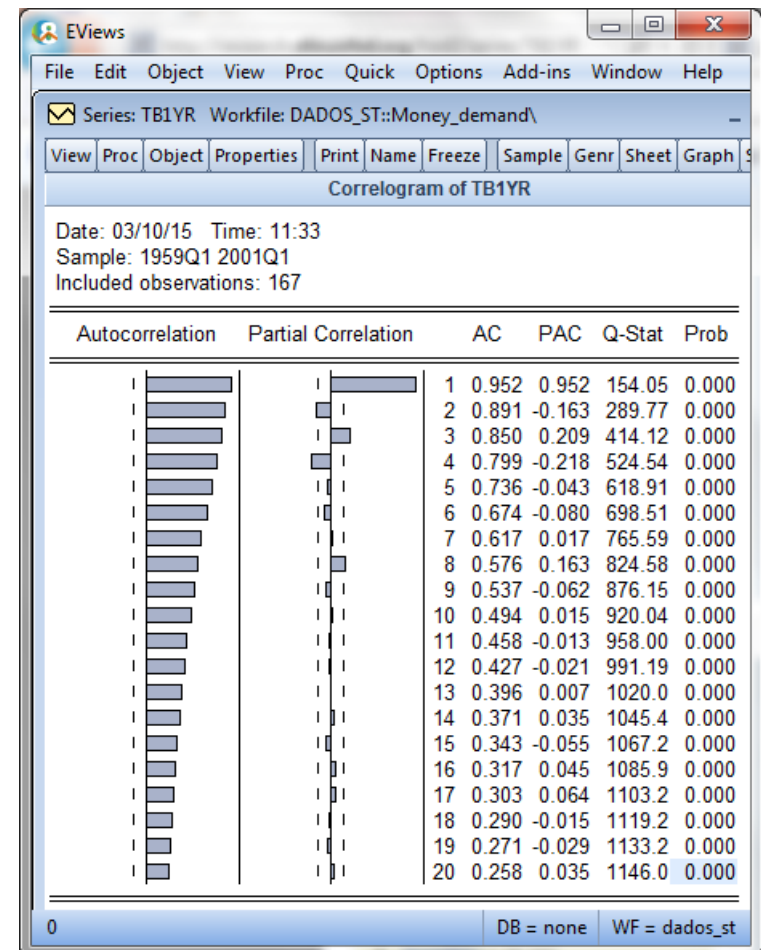
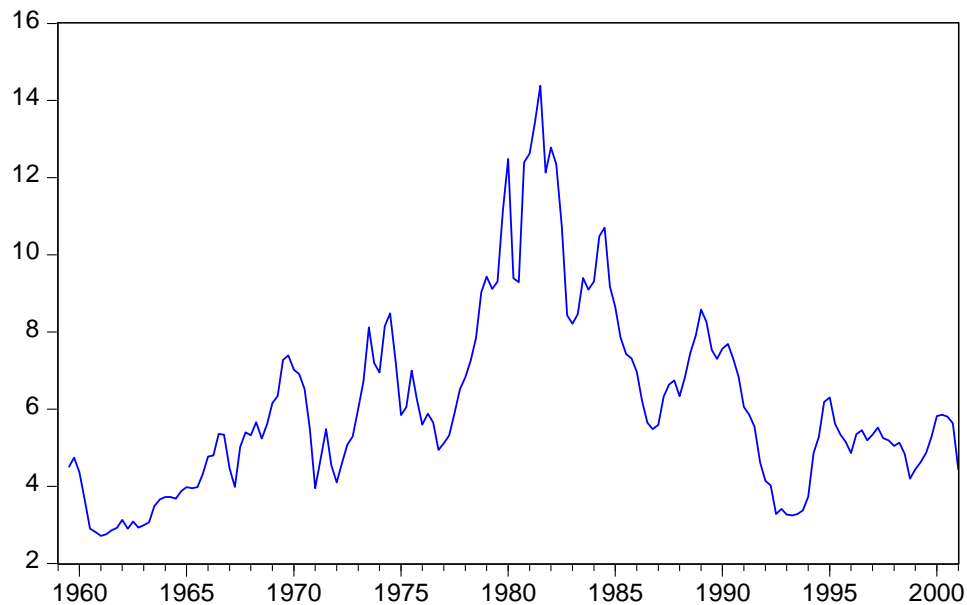
Model	ACF	PACF
$AR(p)$	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave	Cuts off after lag $p$
$MA(q)$	Cuts off after lag $q$	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave
$ARMA(p,q)$	Tails off after lag $(q-p)$	Tails off after lag $(q-p)$
$SAR(P)$	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave at the seasonal lags $s, 2s, \dots$	Cuts off after lag $P \times s$
$SMA(Q)$	Cuts off after lag $Q \times s$	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave at the seasonal lags $s, 2s, \dots$
$SARMA(P,Q)$	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave at the seasonal lags $s, 2s, \dots$	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave at the seasonal lags $s, 2s, \dots$
$SARMA(p,q)(P,Q)_s$	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave at the seasonal and nonseasonal lags	Tails off as exponential decay or damped sine wave at the seasonal and nonseasonal lags

# Model identification



## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill: Secondary Market Rate

TB1YR

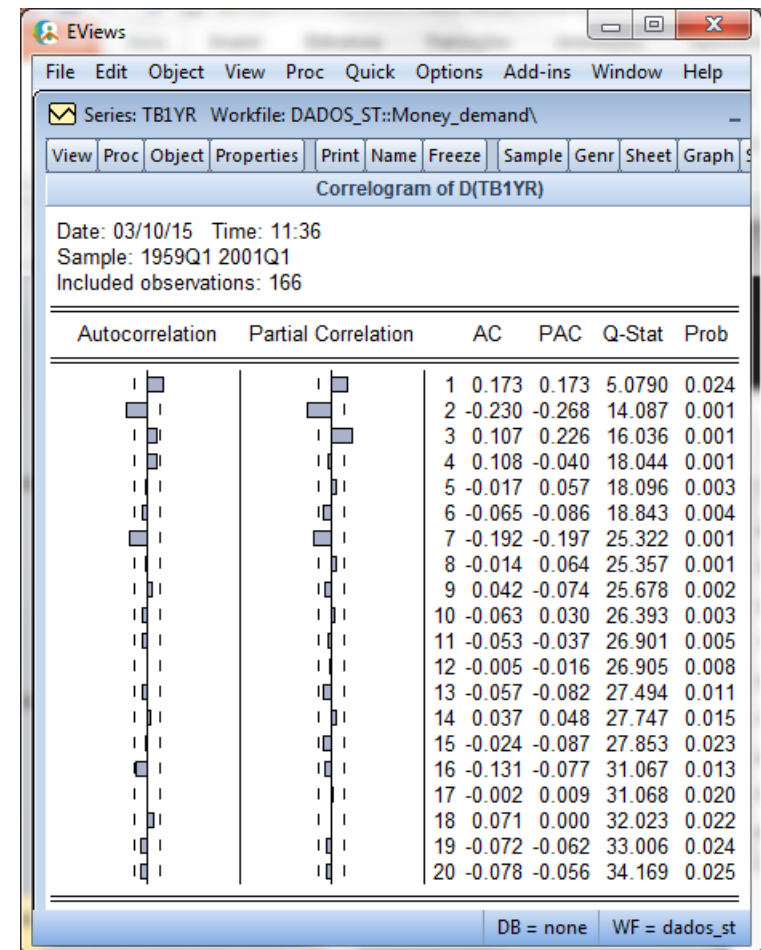
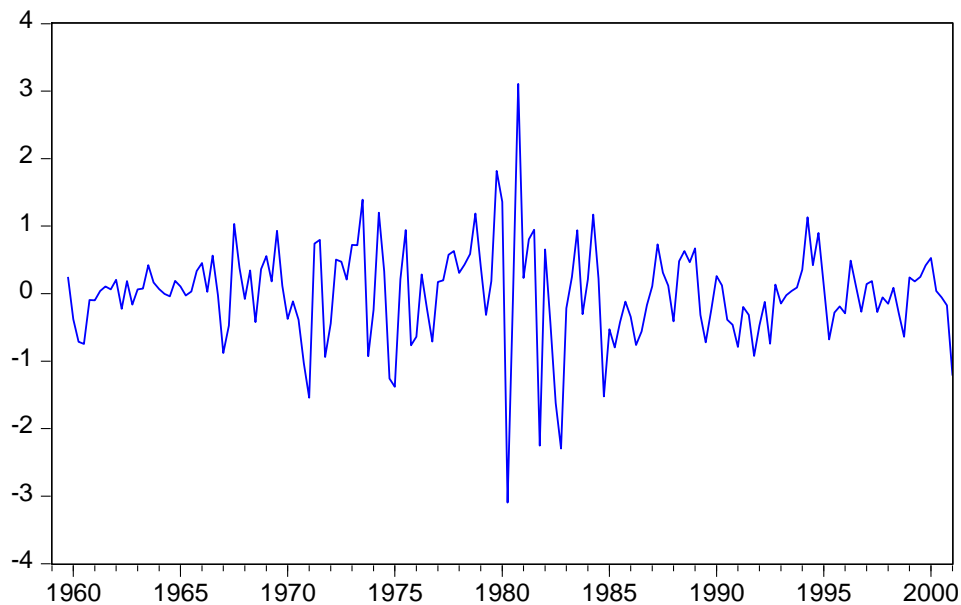


# Model identification



## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill: Secondary Market Rate

Differenced TB1YR



# Model identification

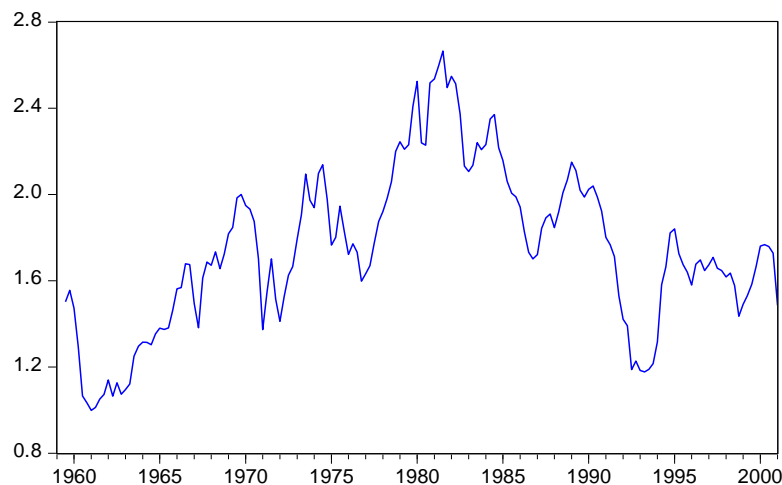


## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill - ARIMA(0,1,2) model

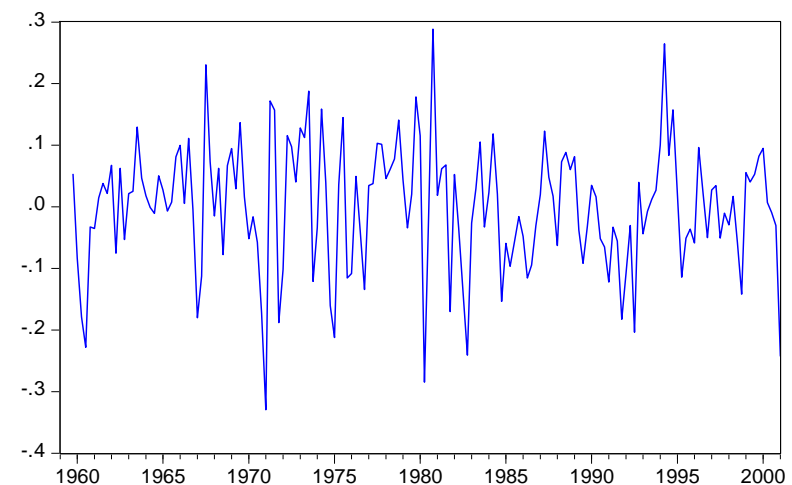
Box-Cox's power transformation on the 1-year Treasury Bill data

$\lambda$	Residual sum of squares
1	74.49
0.5	56.24
0	50.04
-0.5	52.04
-1	61.10

Log TB1YR



Log Differenced TB1YR



# Model estimation



After identifying a tentative model, we need to estimate the parameters of the model.

We discuss two widely used estimation procedures:

- **Maximum likelihood estimators (MLE) method**

The parameter values of the ARIMA model are obtained by minimizing the conditional log-likelihood function

$$\ln L_*(\phi, \theta, \sigma_\varepsilon) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln 2\pi\sigma_\varepsilon^2 - \frac{S_*(\phi, \theta)}{2\sigma_\varepsilon^2}$$

where  $S_*(\phi, \theta) = \sum_{t=p+1}^n \sigma_\varepsilon^2(\phi, \theta | Y)$  is the conditional sum of squares function.

- **Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method**

OLS is the most commonly used regression method in data analysis.

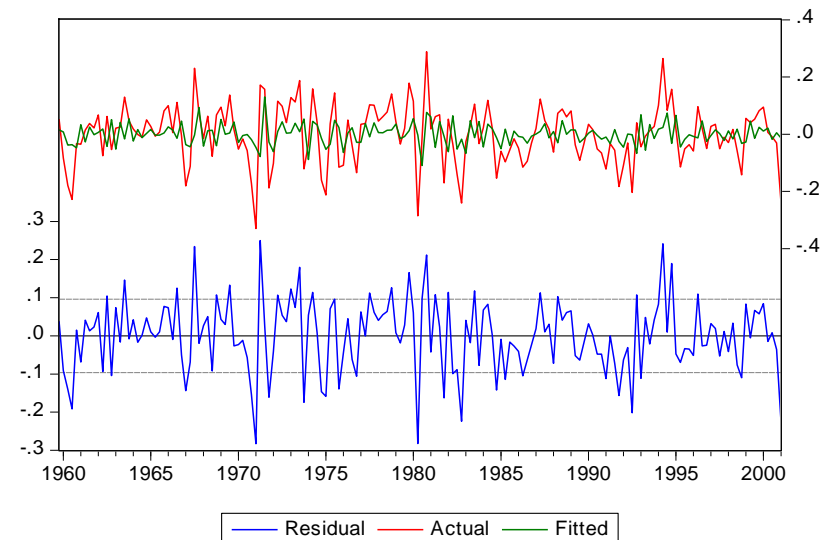
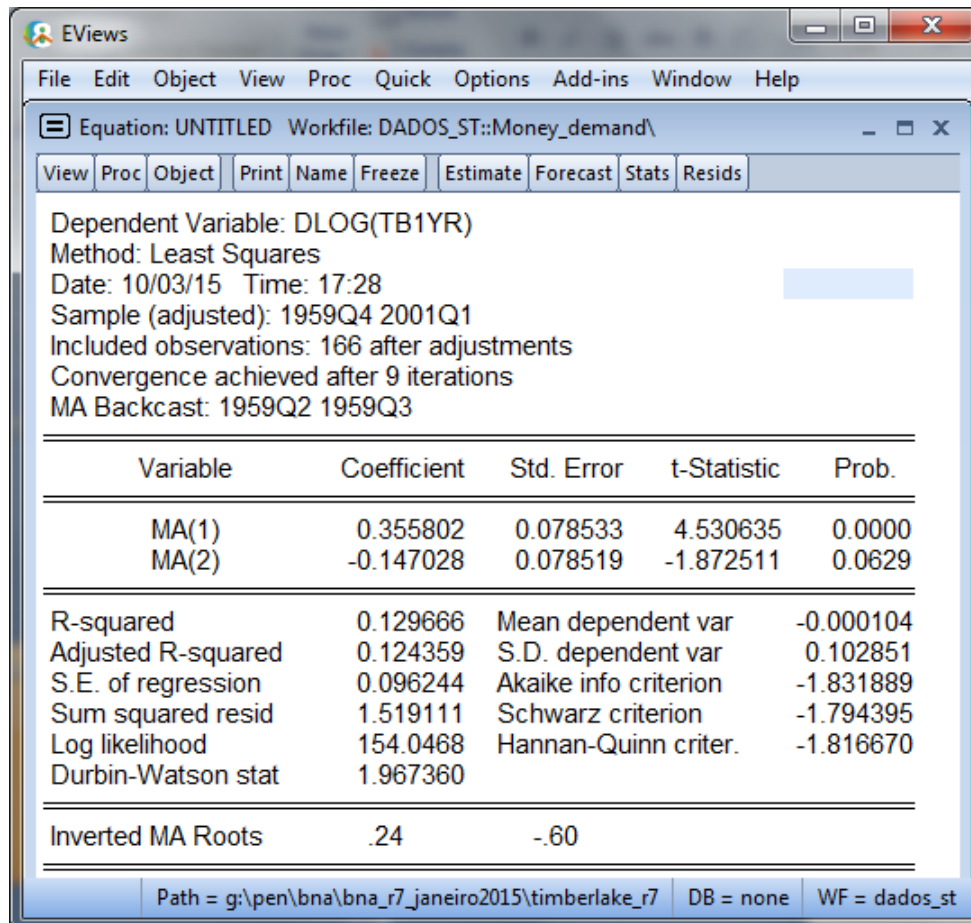
However, for ARMA( $p, q$ ) models, the OLS estimator will be inconsistent unless we have  $q=0$ . For more details, see Wei (2006).

Different software will give different estimates. We use the EViews software.

# Model estimation



## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill - ARIMA(0,1,2) model



### Coefficient covariance matrix

	MA(1)	MA(2)
MA(1)	0.006167	0.002640
MA(2)	0.002640	0.006165

# Model diagnostic checking



Check on whether a particular model is adequate or not. This involves:

- **Analysis of the quality of parameter estimates.** Inspecting the statistical significance of individual parameter estimates provides some insight into the potential relative goodness of fit of the ARIMA model. To test the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \beta_i = 0$ , we use the test statistic:

$$|t| = \left| \frac{\hat{\beta}_i}{\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_i}} \right| > t_{(n-m)} \Rightarrow \text{Reject } H_0 : \beta_i = 0.$$

- **Check whether the residuals are approximately white noise.** Compute the sample ACF and sample PACF of the residuals to check whether they are uncorrelated. Box and Pierce (1970) introduced a 'portmanteu' test to check the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \rho_1 = \rho_2 = \dots = \rho_k = 0$ , with the test statistic

$$Q = n \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{\rho}_j^2,$$

which is asymptotically distributed as  $\chi^2$  with  $k - m$  degrees of freedom, with  $m$  the number of estimated parameters.



# Model diagnostic checking



Ljung e Box (1978) proposed a modified version of the statistic  $Q$ ,

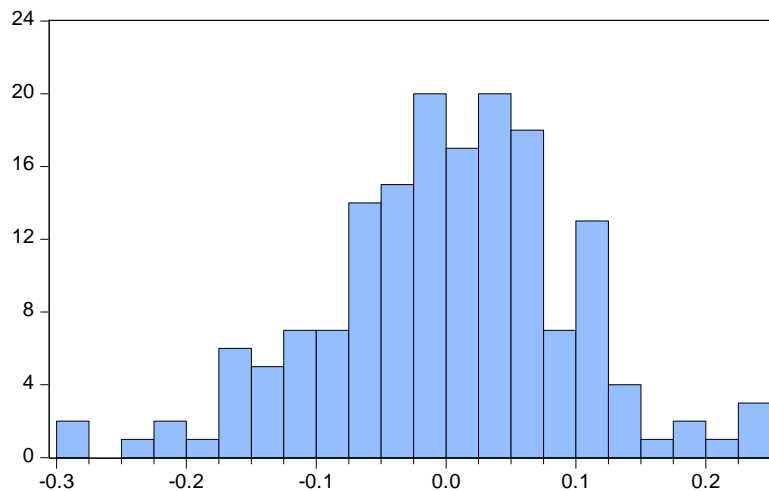
$$Q^* = n(n+2) \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{\hat{\rho}_j^2}{n-j}.$$

This modified form of the 'portmanteu' test statistic is much closer to the  $\chi^2(k-m)$  distribution for typical sample sizes  $n$ . Thus, if the calculated  $Q^*$  statistic exceeds the value  $\chi^2(k-m)$  then the adequacy of the fitted ARMA model would be questioned.

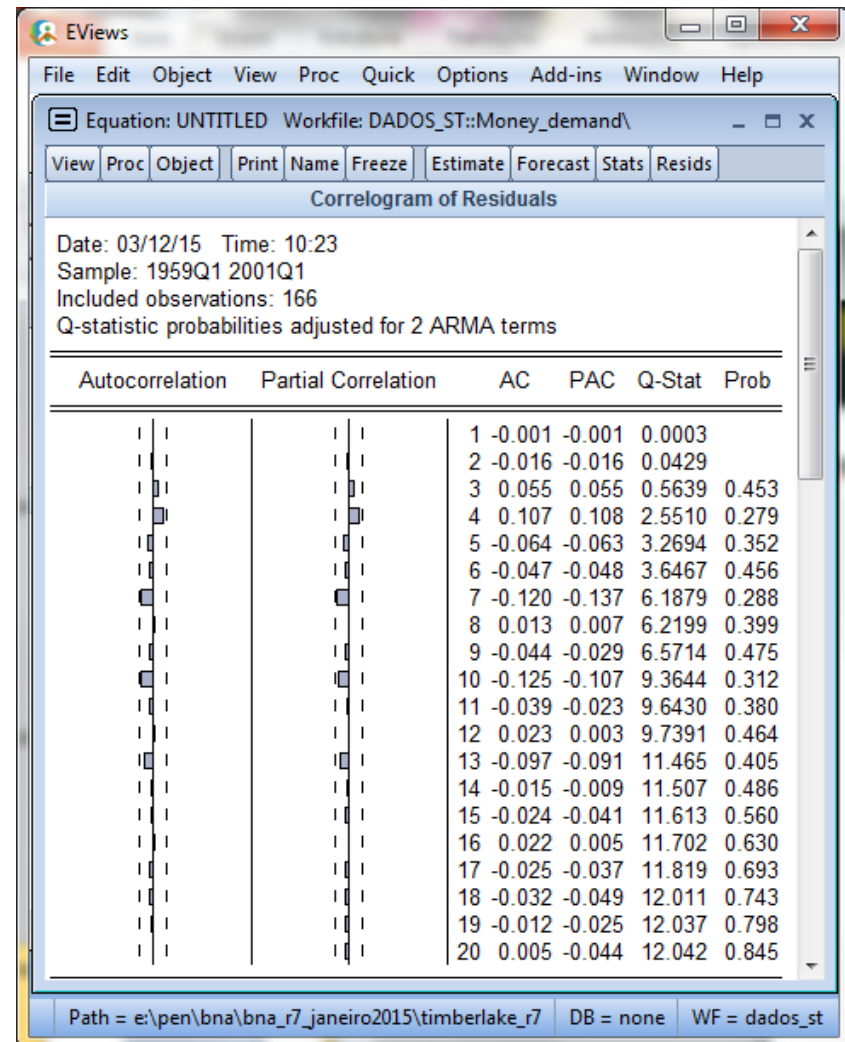
# Model diagnostic checking



## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill ARIMA(0,1,2) model



Series: Residuals	
Sample 1959Q4 2001Q1	
Observations 166	
Mean	-0.000345
Median	0.004791
Maximum	0.249859
Minimum	-0.282943
Std. Dev.	0.095951
Skewness	-0.229303
Kurtosis	3.464358
Jarque-Bera	2.946140
Probability	0.229221



# Model selection criteria



Selection criteria are based on summary statistics from residuals, computed from a fitted model (or on forecast errors calculated from out-of-sample forecasts).

- **Akaike Information Criteria (AIC)**

Assume that a statistical model of  $m$  parameters is fitted to a given time series. Akaike (1974) introduced an information criterion defined as

$$AIC = -2\ln L + 2m,$$

where  $L$  is the maximum likelihood and  $n$  is the effective number of observations (or number of computed residuals from the series). The EViews software computes the AIC value as

$$AIC = n\ln\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2 + 2m,$$

where  $\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2$  is the residual variance for the fitted model.

- **Schwartz Bayesian criterion (SBC).** Schwartz (1978) introduced the following Bayesian criterion of model selection:

$$SBC = n\ln\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2 + m\ln n,$$

where  $\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2$  is the residual variance for the fitted model,  $m$  is the number of parameters and  $n$  is the effective number of observations.

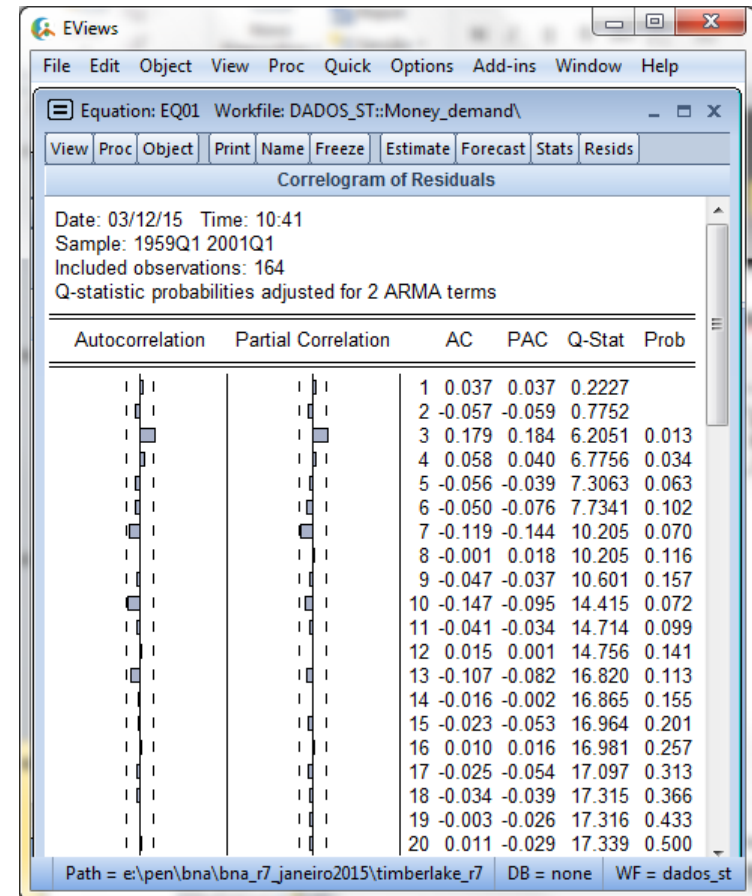
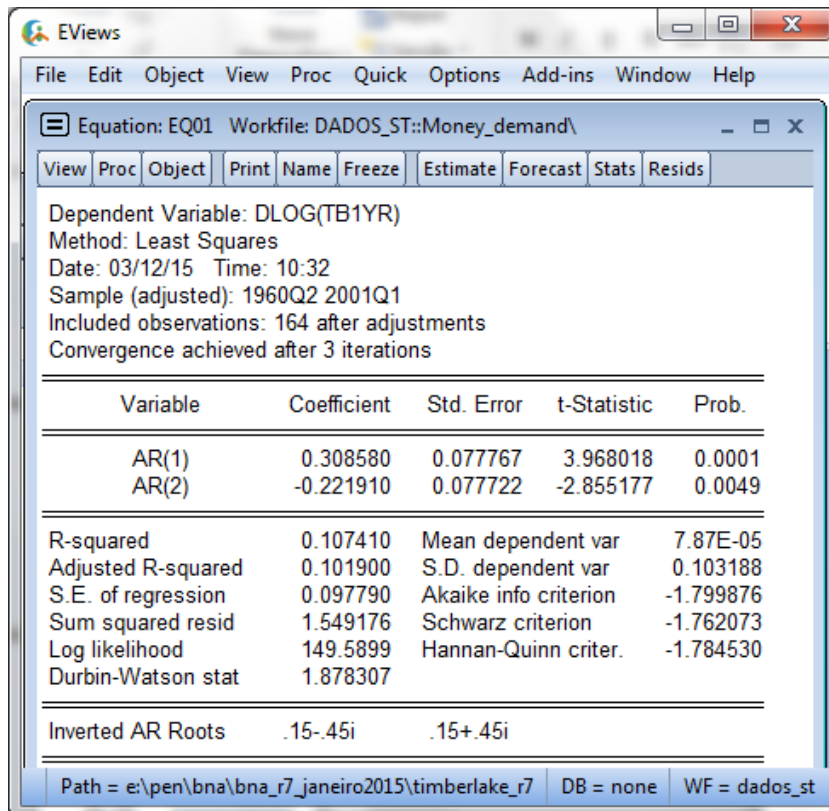
# Model selection criteria



## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill

AIC, BIC and HQ values for TB1YR models

	ARIMA(0,1,2)	ARIMA(2,1,0)
AIC	-1.832	-1.800
BIC	-1.794	-1.762
HQ	-1.817	-1.785



Suppose that at time  $t = T$  we have the observations  $Y_T, Y_{T-1}, Y_{T-2}, \dots$

The minimum mean square error forecast of future value  $Y_{T+m}$  is defined in terms of the conditional expectation as a linear function of current and previous observations  $Y_T, Y_{T-1}, Y_{T-2}, \dots$

$$\hat{Y}_T(m) = E_T(Y_{T+m}) = E(Y_{T+m} | Y_T, Y_{T-1}, Y_{T-2}, \dots),$$

where  $\hat{Y}_T(m)$  is the  $m$ -step ahead forecast of  $Y_{T+m}$ ,  $T$  is the forecast *origin* and  $m$  is the *lead time* (or forecast horizon).

## Forecasts for ARMA models

Consider the general stationary ARMA( $p, q$ ) model:

$$\phi(B)Y_t = \theta(B)\varepsilon_t,$$

Because the model is stationary, it has an equivalent moving average representation

$$Y_t = \varepsilon_t + \psi_1\varepsilon_{t-1} + \psi_2\varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j\varepsilon_{t-j} = \psi(B)\varepsilon_t,$$

where  $\psi_0 = 1$ ,  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise and  $\psi(B) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j B^j = \frac{\theta(B)}{\phi(B)}$ .

Suppose we have the observations  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_T$ . For  $t = T + m$ , we have

$$Y_{T+m} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \varepsilon_{T+m-j}.$$

Standing at origin  $T$ , the forecast  $\hat{Y}_T(m)$  of  $Y_{T+m}$  is defined as a linear combination of current and previous shocks  $\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t-2}, \dots$

$$\hat{Y}_T(m) = \psi_m^* \varepsilon_T + \psi_{m+1}^* \varepsilon_{T-1} + \psi_{m+2}^* \varepsilon_{T-2} + \dots$$

where the weights  $\psi_m^*, \psi_{m+1}^*, \psi_{m+2}^*, \dots$  are to be determined. Then, the mean square error of the forecast is

$$E[Y_{T+m} - \hat{Y}_T(m)]^2 = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \psi_j^2 + \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} [\psi_{m+j} - \psi_{m+j}^*]^2,$$

which is minimized when  $\psi_{m+j} = \psi_{m+j}^*$ . Hence,

$$\hat{Y}_T(m) = \psi_m \varepsilon_T + \psi_{m+1} \varepsilon_{T-1} + \psi_{m+2} \varepsilon_{T-2} + \dots$$

Since  $E(\varepsilon_{T+m} | Y_T, Y_{T-1}, Y_{T-2}, \dots) = 0, j > 0$ , then the minimum mean square error forecast of  $Y_{T+m}$  is the conditional expectation. That is

$$\hat{Y}_T(m) = \psi_m \varepsilon_T + \psi_{m+1} \varepsilon_{T-1} + \psi_{m+2} \varepsilon_{T-2} + \dots = E_T(Y_{T+m})$$

# Forecasting



The forecast error for lead time  $m$  is

$$e_T(m) = Y_{T+m} - \hat{Y}_T(m) = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \psi_j \varepsilon_{T+m-j}.$$

Since  $E_T[e_T(m)] = 0$ , the variance of the forecast error is

$$\text{Var}[e_T(m)] = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \psi_j^2.$$

Assuming the normality of  $\varepsilon$ 's, the forecast limits are

$$Y_T(m) \pm z_{\alpha/2} \left[ 1 + \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \psi_j^2 \right]^{1/2} \sigma_\varepsilon,$$

where  $z_{\alpha/2}$  is the standard normal deviate such that  $P(Z > z_{\alpha/2}) = \alpha/2$ .

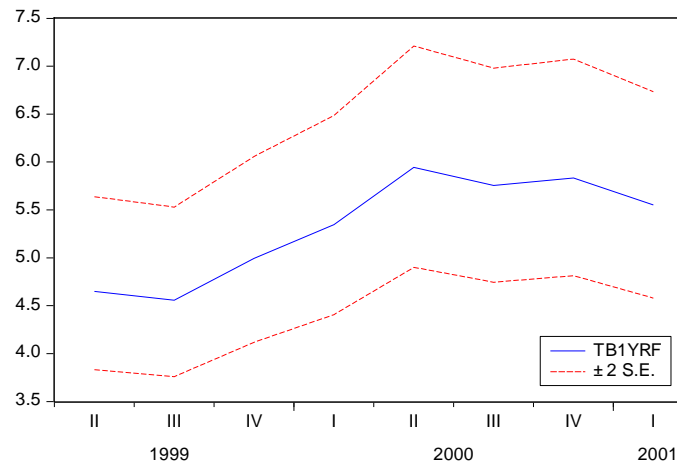
Find the  $m$ -step ahead forecast  $\hat{Y}_T(m)$ , the forecast error and the variance of the forecast error for AR(1), MA(1) and ARMA(1,1) models

# Forecasting



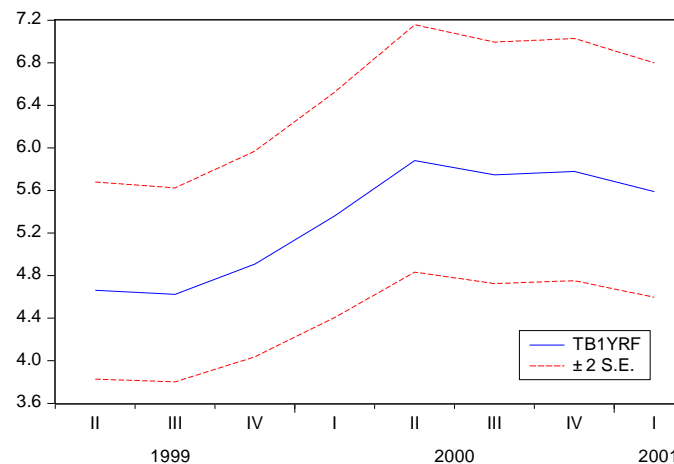
## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill – Static Forecasting

ARIMA(0,1,2) model  
log(TB1YR) series



Forecast: TB1YRF
Actual: TB1YR
Forecast sample: 1999Q2 2001Q1
Included observations: 8
Root Mean Squared Error 0.467643
Mean Absolute Error 0.322565
Mean Abs. Percent Error 6.540790
Theil Inequality Coefficient 0.043831
Bias Proportion 0.007367
Variance Proportion 0.006927
Covariance Proportion 0.985705

ARIMA(2,1,0) model  
log(TB1YR) series



Forecast: TB1YRF
Actual: TB1YR
Forecast sample: 1999Q2 2001Q1
Included observations: 8
Root Mean Squared Error 0.476301
Mean Absolute Error 0.315519
Mean Abs. Percent Error 6.439636
Theil Inequality Coefficient 0.044692
Bias Proportion 0.004036
Variance Proportion 0.015674
Covariance Proportion 0.980290

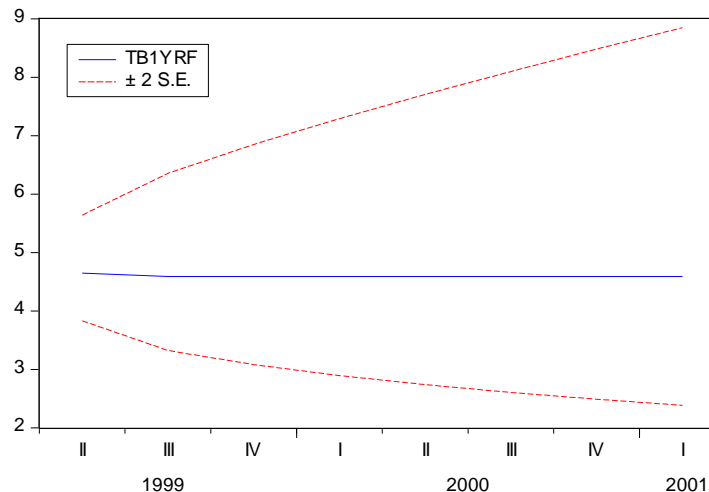


# Forecasting



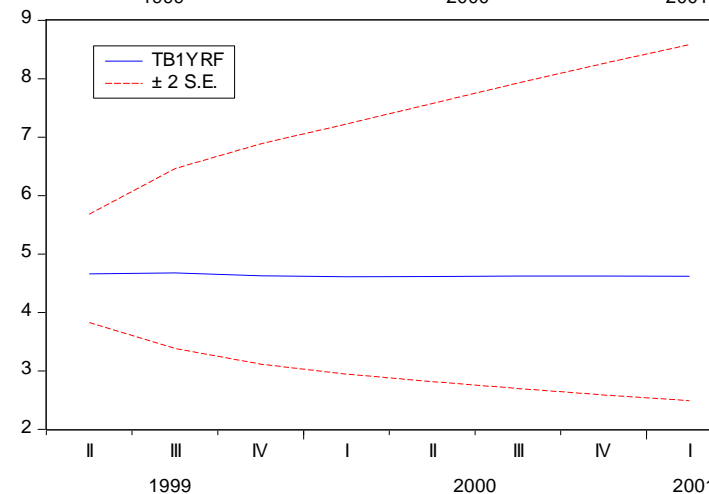
## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill – Dynamic Forecasting

ARIMA(0,1,2) model  
 log(TB1YR) series



Forecast: TB1YRF	
Actual: TB1YR	
Forecast sample: 1999Q2 2001Q1	
Included observations: 8	
Root Mean Squared Error	0.883607
Mean Absolute Error	0.740036
Mean Abs. Percent Error	13.18370
Theil Inequality Coefficient	0.089116
Bias Proportion	0.609898
Variance Proportion	0.351946
Covariance Proportion	0.038155

ARIMA(2,1,0) model  
 log(TB1YR) series



Forecast: TB1YRF	
Actual: TB1YR	
Forecast sample: 1999Q2 2001Q1	
Included observations: 8	
Root Mean Squared Error	0.861252
Mean Absolute Error	0.717839
Mean Abs. Percent Error	12.78505
Theil Inequality Coefficient	0.086577
Bias Proportion	0.582794
Variance Proportion	0.366424
Covariance Proportion	0.050782

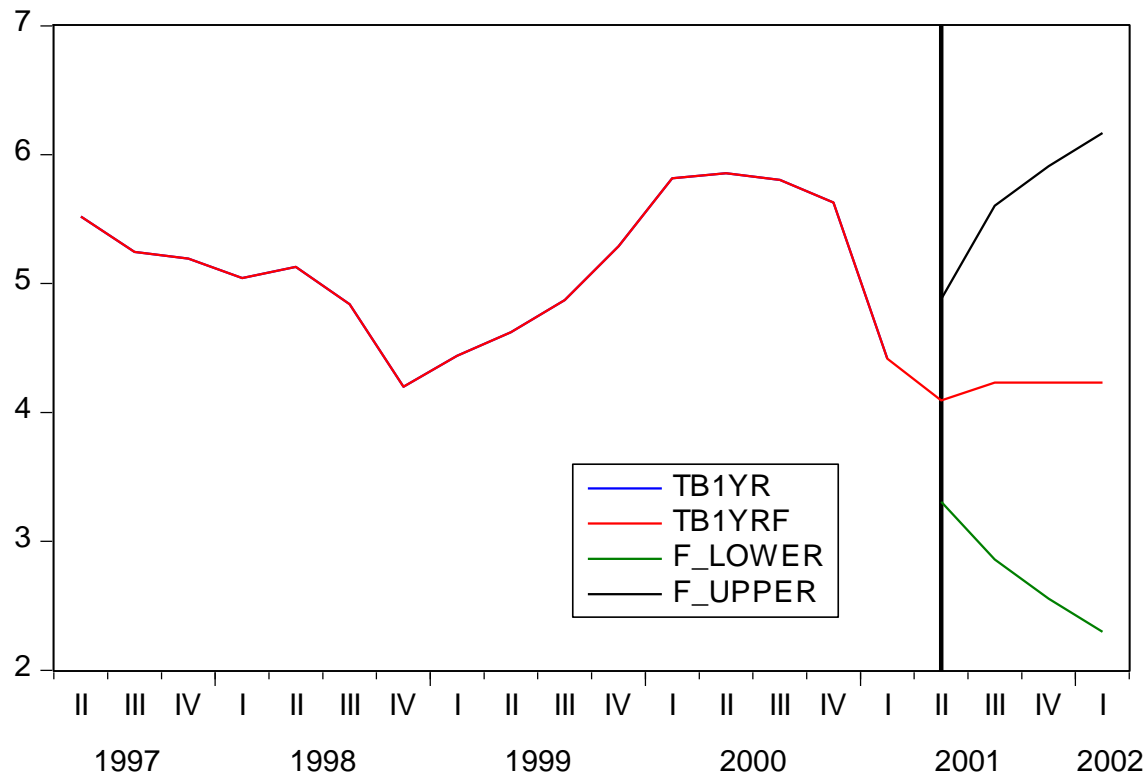
# Forecasting



## Example: 1-Year US Treasury Bill

Forecasts for  $h=1,2,3$  and 4 steps ahead and 95% forecast limits

ARIMA(0,1,2) model



# Exercises



1. Consider the quarterly unemployment rate (URATE) in U.S. between 1960:Q1 and 2008:Q1 (193 obs.) given in the EViews file “data\_financial\_econ.wk1” (Sheet ‘Quarterly\_US’).

- Describe the time plot. Do the data need transformation?
- Identify a couple of ARIMA models that might be appropriate for the series.
- Fit your best ARIMA model and carry out diagnostic checking on the residuals.
- Produce forecasts for the next 4 periods using your preferred model.
- Find the 95% forecast limits for forecasts in (d).

2. Consider the model

$$(1-B^4)(1-B)Y_t = (1-0.2B)(1-0.6B^4)\varepsilon_t$$

where  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. Find the eventual forecast function that generates the forecasts.

# Exercises



3. Let  $Y_t$  be a stationary zero-mean process. Consider the models

$$X_t = (1 - 0.4B)Y_t \quad \text{and} \quad W_t = (1 - 2.5B)Y_t$$

- Find the autocovariance generating functions of  $X_t$  and  $W_t$ .
- Show that ACF of the above processes are identical.

4. Consider the ARIMA(0,2,3) model.

- Write the model in terms of the backshift operator and without using the backshift operator.
- Find the eventual forecast function.

5. Consider the ARIMA(0,1,1) model. Show that

$$\text{Var}[e_t(m)] = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 [1 + (m-1)(1-\theta)^2]$$

# Exercises



6. Consider the model

$$(1 - 0.2B)(1 - B)Y_t = (1 - 0.8B)\varepsilon_t$$

where  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2 = 4$ . Suppose we have the observations  $Y_{49} = 30$ ,  $Y_{48} = 25$  and  $\varepsilon_{49} = -2$ . Compute the forecast  $\hat{Y}_{49}(m)$ , for  $m = 50, 51, 52$  and  $53$ .

7. Consider the AR(2) model

$$(1 - 0.3B - 0.6B^2)Y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

- Find the MA representation of this model.
- Find the PACF.

8. Consider the model

$$Y_t = 2 + 1.3Y_{t-1} - 0.4Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t + \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

- Find the mean of  $Y_t$ .
- Is the model invertible?

# Exercises



9. Consider the model:

$$Y_t = 2 + \varepsilon_t - 0.6\varepsilon_{t-1}, \text{ with } \sigma_\varepsilon = 0.1$$

- Find the eventual forecast function.
- Find the variance of the forecast error.

10. Consider the ARMA(1,1) model. Show that

$$\text{Var}[e_t(m)] = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \left( 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \phi^{2(j-1)} (\phi - \theta)^2 \right)$$

11. Consider the SARIMA(0,1,1)(0,1,1)<sub>12</sub> model

$$(1-B)(1-B^{12})Y_t = (1-\theta_1 B)(1-\Theta_1 B^{12})\varepsilon_t$$

- Write the model without using the backshift operator.
- Suppose that  $\theta_1 = 0.33$  e  $\Theta_1 = 0.82$ . Find the eventual forecast function.