

# **743- Regression and Time Series**

**Mamikon S. Ginovyan**

# Time Series Analysis

# **1.Introduction:**

## **A General Approach to Time Series Analysis**

# The objectives of time series analysis (TSA)

A time series refers to an ordered sequence of observations, where the ordering is in time.

- If  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T$  are observations on a RV  $Y_t$  taken at  $T$  equispaced successive points in time (  $1, 2, \dots, T$  ), then these observations, in general, are not independent.
- The main objectives of time series analysis are:

# The objectives of time series analysis (TSA)

1. To understand the nature of the dependence of observations  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T$ , and specification of a model which adequately describe the given data.
  - Thus, an important part of the analysis of a time series is the selection of a **suitable probabilistic model** for the data.
2. Use the specified model to generate forecasts (predictions) for the future values.

# The objectives of time series analysis

- To allow for the possibly unpredictable nature of future values it is natural to suppose that each observation  $y_t$  is a **realized value** of a certain RV  $Y_t$ .

## Definition 1.

A **time series model** for the observed data

$$y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T = \{y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots, T\}$$

is a specification of the joint probability distributions (or possibly only the means and covariances) of a sequence of RV's

$$\{Y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots, T\},$$

of which  $\{y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots, T\}$  are postulated to be realizations.

# The objectives of time series analysis

## Remark 1.

We will use the term “time series” for both the data  $\{\mathbf{y}_t\}$  and the process  $\{\mathbf{Y}_t\}$ .

## Remark 2.

A complete probabilistic time series model for the sequence of RV's  $\mathbf{Y}_1, \mathbf{Y}_2, \dots$ , would specify **all of the joint distributions** of the random vectors

$$(\mathbf{Y}_1, \mathbf{Y}_2, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{Y}_T)', \quad T = 1, 2, \mathbf{L},$$

or equivalently all of the probabilities

$$P(\mathbf{Y}_1 \leq \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{Y}_T \leq \mathbf{y}_T), -\infty < \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{y}_T < \infty, T = 1, 2, \mathbf{L}$$

# The objectives of time series analysis

Such a specification is rarely used in time series analysis since

- a) a complete specification is **difficult** to obtain;
- b) even if it is possible to obtain this specification, in general, it will contain **too many parameters** to be estimated from the available data.

Instead we specify only the **first-and second-order moments of the joint distributions (second-order properties)**:

- the **expected values**  $E(Y_t)$ ,  $t = 1, 2, \dots$ ; and
- the **expected products**  $E[Y_s Y_t]$ ,  $s, t = 1, 2, \dots$ .



# The objectives of time series analysis

## Remark 3.

In the special case where all the joint distributions are **multivariate normal** (in this case the process  $\{Y_t\}$  is called **normal** or **Gaussian**), the **second-order properties** of  $\{Y_t\}$  **completely determine the joint distributions**, and hence give a complete probabilistic characterization of the process  $\{Y_t\}$ .

# The objectives of time series analysis

## Remark 4.

In general, we will lose a certain amount of information by looking at time series “**through second-order spectacles**”;

however, we will see later that

the minimum mean squared error linear prediction problem requires only the **second-order properties**

of the underlying process  $Y_t$ .

# Time Series models: Stationary Model

## Definition 1.

A time series model  $\{y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots\}$  is called **stationary time series model** if

1. Has a constant mean: Exhibits **mean reversion** in that it fluctuates around a **constant long run mean**.
2. Has a finite variance that is time invariant.
3. Has a covariance between values of  $y_t$  that depends only on the difference apart in time, that is,

$$E(y_t) = m_t = m$$

$$Var(y_t) \equiv E[(y_t - m)^2] = r(0) < \infty$$

$$Cov(y_t, y_s) \equiv E[(y_t - m)(y_s - m)] = r(t - s).$$

# Time Series models: Non-Stationary Model

## Definition 2.

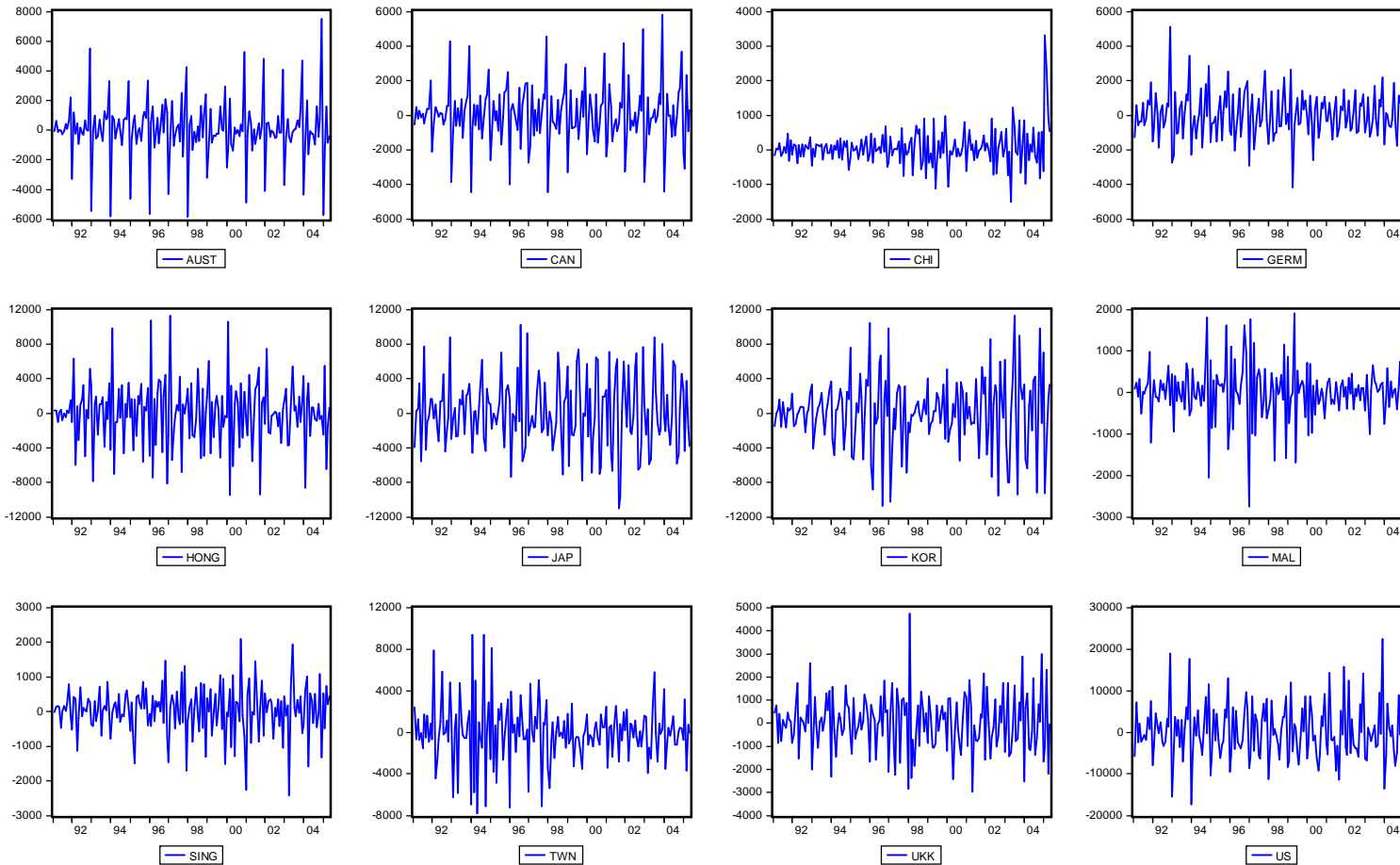
A time series model  $\{y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots\}$  is called **non-stationary time series model** if at least one of the stationarity conditions is violated:

1. There is no long-run mean to which the series returns, and/or
2. The variance is time dependent and goes to infinity as time approaches to infinity

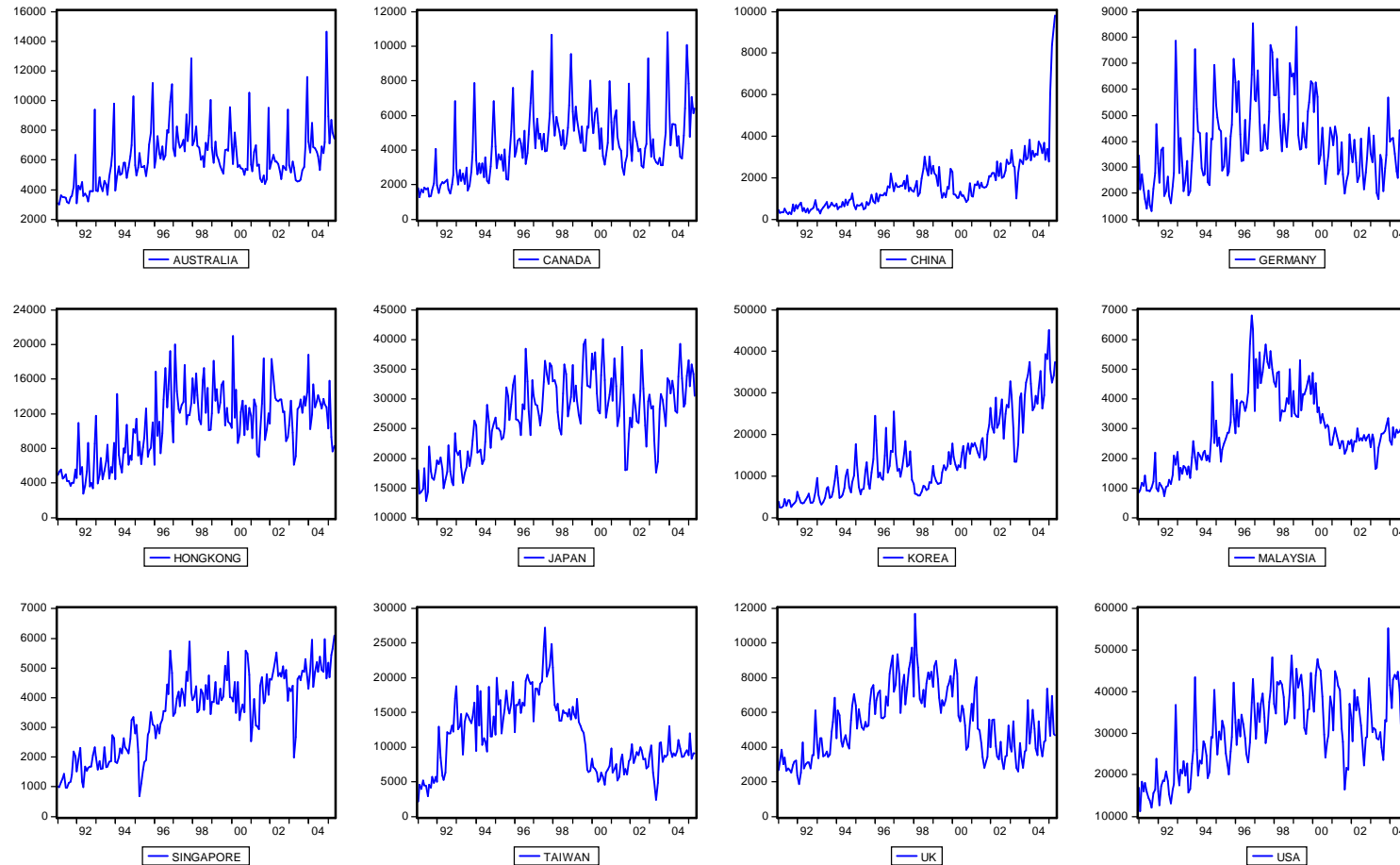
## Remark.

We will consider only **stationary time series models**, the **Standard techniques are largely invalid where data is non-stationary.**

# These are Examples of Stationary Time Series



# These are Examples of Non-Stationary Time Series



## Examples: Some zero-mean models

### Example 1. (IID Noise).

The simplest stationary time series model is one in which:

- a) the observations are **iid RV's** with zero mean, and
- b) there is no trend or seasonal component.

Such defined sequence of RV's  $\{Y_t = U_t, t = 1, 2, \dots\}$  is called **IID Noise**.

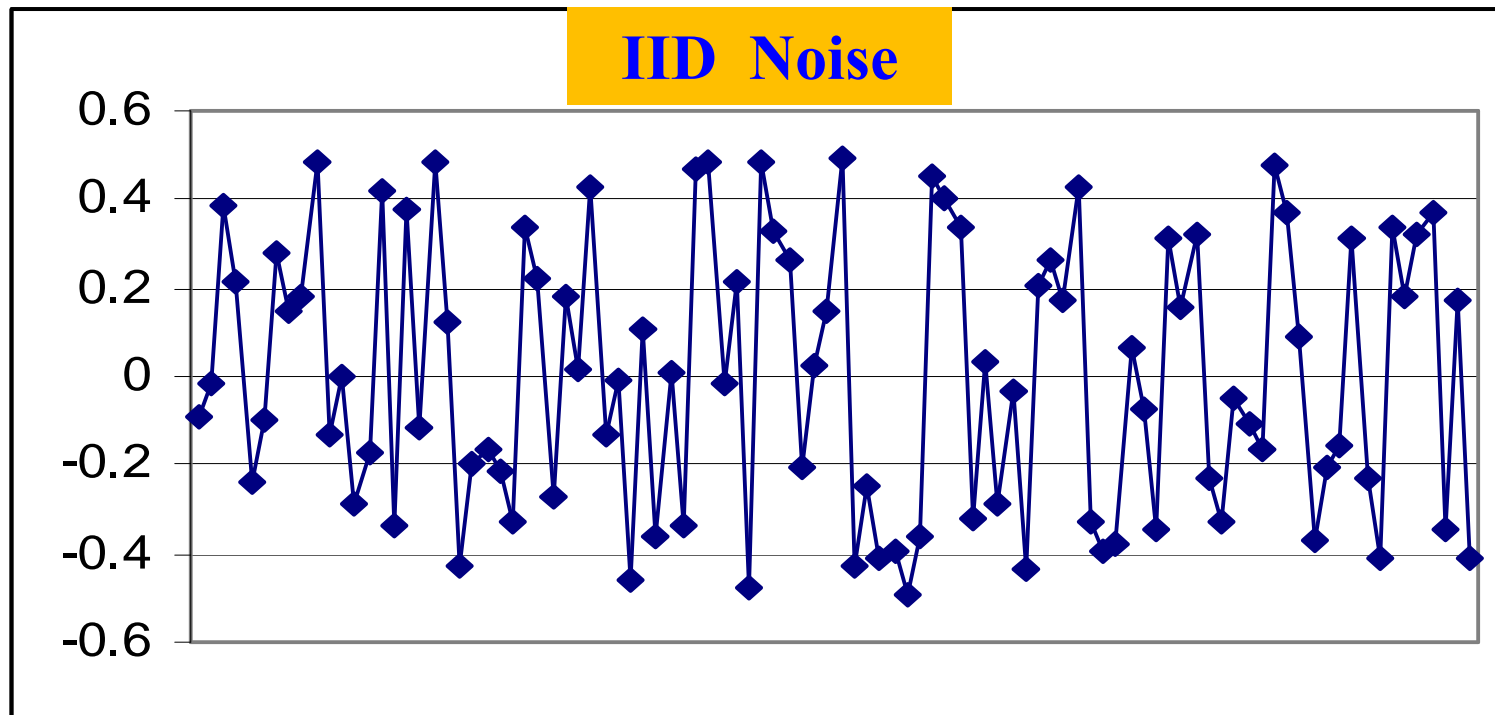
In this case, for any  $T$  and any real numbers  $u_1, \dots, u_T$ ,

$$P(U_1 \leq u_1, \dots, U_T \leq u_T) = P(U_1 \leq u_1) \dots P(U_T \leq u_T) = \prod_{t=1}^T F(u_t),$$

where  $F(\cdot)$  is the *cdf* of each *iid* RV's  $U_1, U_2, \dots$ .

## Examples: Some zero-mean models

IID (WHITE) Noise:  $Y_t = U_t = \varepsilon_t \sim IID(0, \sigma^2)$ .





## Examples: Some zero-mean models

### Remark 1.

In IID- model there is no dependence between observations.

In particular, for all  $h \geq 1$  and all  $y_1, \dots, y_T$ ,

$$P(Y_{T+h} \leq y | Y_1 = y_1, \mathbf{L}, Y_T = y_T) = P(Y_{T+h} \leq y),$$

showing that knowledge of  $Y_1, \dots, Y_T$  is of no value for predicting the future observation  $Y_{T+h}$ .

**(Markovian Property).**

Given the values  $Y_1, \dots, Y_T$ , the function  $f(\cdot)$  minimizing **MSE**:

$$MSE = E[Y_{T+h} - f(Y_1, \mathbf{L}, Y_T)]^2 \equiv 0$$

is in fact identically zero.

## Examples: Some zero-mean models

### Remark 2.

Although the above considerations shows that IID Noise is a rather uninteresting process for forecasters, it plays an important role as a building block for more complicated (and now interesting) time series models.

### Remark 3.

An example of IID Noise is a binary process, the sequence of *iid* RV's  $\{ \varepsilon_t, t = 1, 2, \dots \}$  with

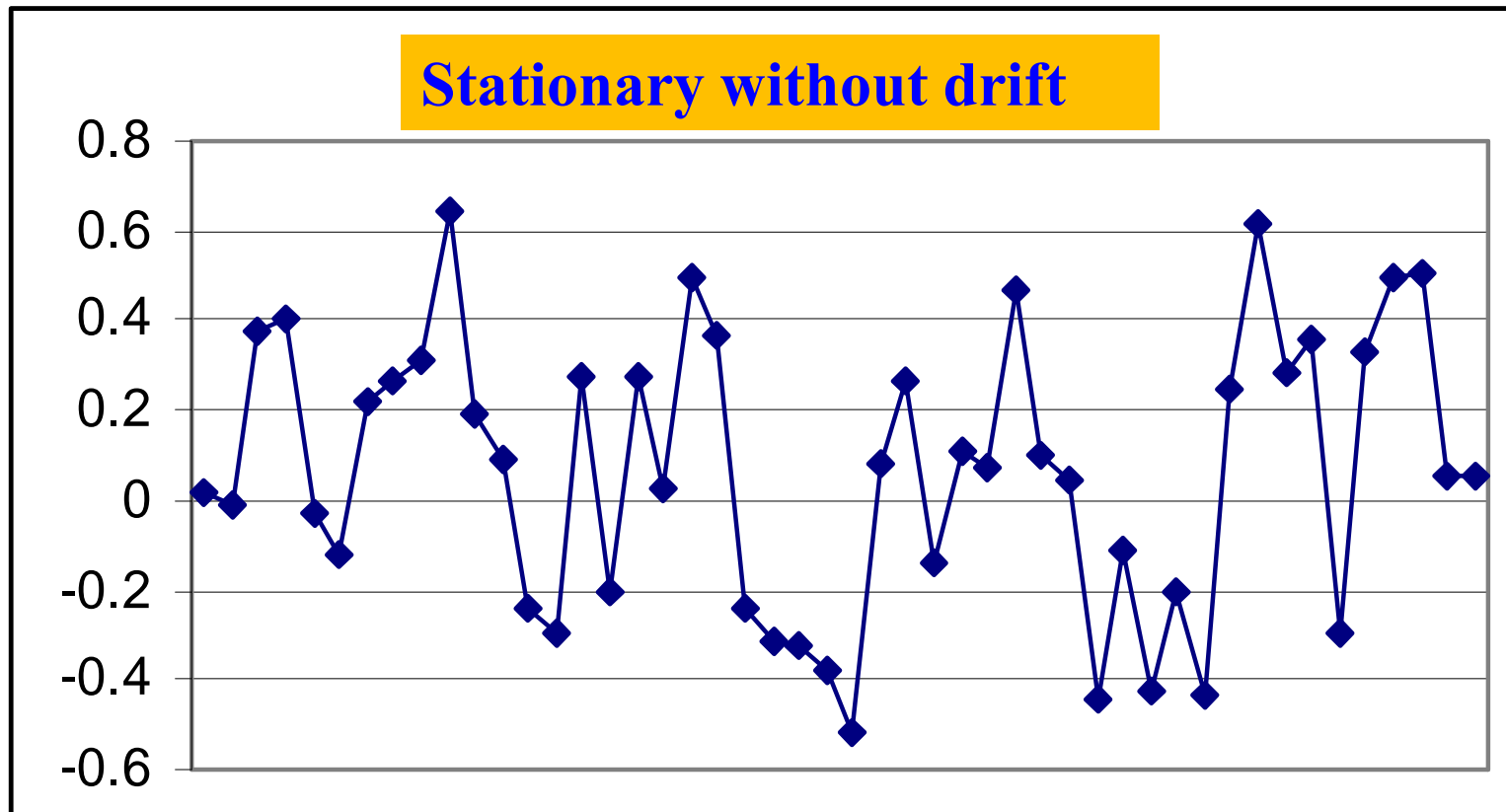
$$P(e_t = 1) = p, \quad P(e_t = -1) = 1 - p, \quad \text{where } p = 1/2.$$

The time series obtained by tossing a fair coin repeatedly and scoring **+1** for each Head and **-1** for each Tail is modeled as a realization of this process.

## Examples: Some zero-mean models

### Example 2. (Stationary without drift):

$$Y_t = (0.5)Y_{t-1} + U_t, \quad U_t \sim IID(0, \sigma^2).$$



## Examples: Some zero-mean models

### Example 3 (Random Walk without drift).

Let  $\{U_t, t = 1, 2, \dots\}$  be the IID Noise.

The **Random Walk** process  $\{Y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots\}$  (starting at zero) is obtained by cumulatively summing (or “integrating”) the iid RV’s  $\varepsilon_t$ , that is,  $Y_t$  is defined by

$Y_0 = 0$  and

$$Y_t = U_1 + U_2 + \dots + U_t, \quad \text{for } t = 1, 2, \dots \quad (1)$$

Observe that (1) is equivalent to the following

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + U_t, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, \quad Y_0 = 0, \quad (2)$$

## Examples: Some zero-mean models

### Remark 1.

If  $U_t$  is a binary process, then  $\{Y_t, t = 1, 2, \dots\}$  is called simple symmetric random walk.

### Remark 2.

The **Random Walk**  $Y_t$  is a **non-stationary** process.

### Indeed,

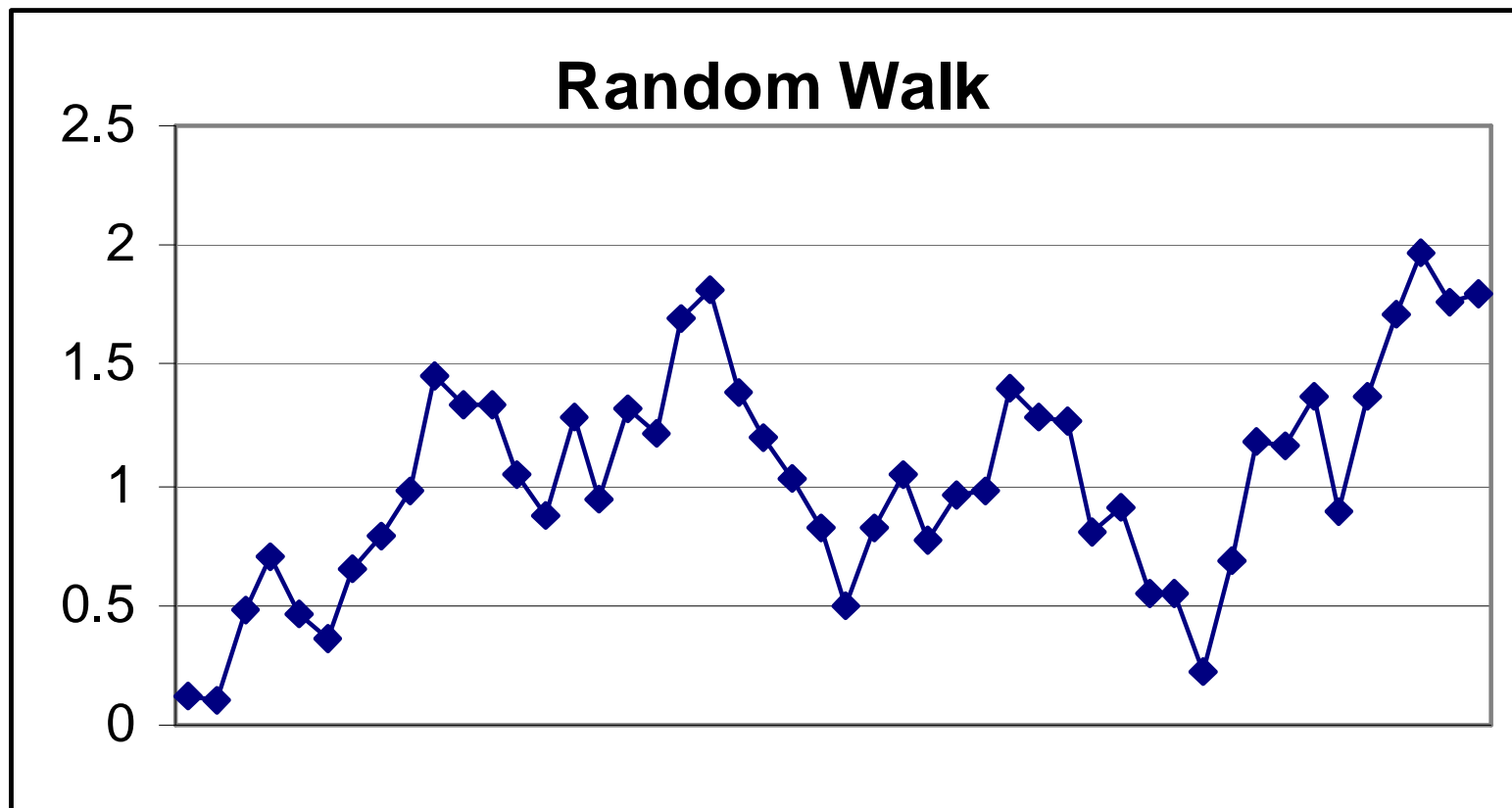
$$\text{Mean} = E(Y_t) = E(U_1 + U_2 + \dots + U_t) = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Variance} = \text{Var}(Y_t) &= \text{Var}(U_1) + \dots + \text{Var}(U_t) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \dots + \sigma^2 = t \sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, variance is not constant through time, and so,  $Y_t$  is **non-stationary**.

## Examples: Some zero-mean models

Non-Stationary without drift:  $Y_t = Y_{t-1} + U_t$ ,  $U_t \sim IID(0, \sigma^2)$ .



## Examples: Some zero-mean models

Suppose we wanted to make a forecast for random walk process  $Y_t = U_1 + U_2 + \dots + U_t$ .

The one-step forecast is given by

$$\hat{Y}_{T+1} = E[Y_{T+1} | Y_T, \mathbf{L}, Y_1] = Y_T + E[U_{T+1}] = Y_T. \quad (3)$$

The two-step forecast (or forecast two periods ahead) is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Y}_{T+2} &= E[Y_{T+2} | Y_T, \mathbf{L}, Y_1] = E[Y_{T+1} + U_{T+2}] \\ &= E[Y_T + U_{T+1} + U_{T+2}] = Y_T. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the  $k$ -step forecast is also  $Y_T$ , that is,

$$\hat{Y}_{T+k} = Y_T, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (4)$$

## Examples: Some zero-mean models

Observe that although

the forecast  $\hat{Y}_{T+k} = Y_T$  for any  $k = 1, 2, \dots$

the variance of the forecast error will grow as  $k$  becomes larger.

For one-step forecast the error  $e_1$  is given by

$$e_1 = Y_{T+1} - \hat{Y}_{T+1} = Y_T + U_{T+1} - Y_T = U_{T+1}.$$

Hence

$$\text{Var}(e_1) = \text{Var}(U_{T+1}) = \sigma_U^2.$$



## Examples: Some zero-mean models

For two-step forecast the error  $e_2$  we have

$$e_2 = Y_{T+2} - \hat{Y}_{T+2} = Y_T + U_{T+1} + U_{T+2} - Y_T = U_{T+1} + U_{T+2}.$$

Hence

$$\text{Var}(e_2) = \text{Var}(U_{T+1} + U_{T+2}) = \text{Var}(U_{T+1}) + \text{Var}(U_{T+2}) = 2\sigma_U^2.$$

Similarly, for k-step forecast the error  $e_k$  we have

$$\text{VAR}(e_k) = k\sigma_U^2.$$

Thus, the standard error of forecast increase with  $\sqrt{k}$ .

Therefore, we can obtain confidence intervals for our forecast, and these intervals will become wider as the forecast horizon increases.

# Models with Trend and Seasonality

## 1.Models with Trend

In some situations, there is a clear trend in the time series data. In such cases, a **zero-mean model** for the data is clearly inappropriate.

A model of the form

$$X_t = m_t + Y_t \quad (1)$$

will fit the data appropriately,

where

$m_t$  is a slowly varying function known as a trend component, and  $Y_t$  is a **zero-mean model**:

$$E[Y_t] = 0.$$

# Models with Trend

## Remark 1.

- The long-term tendency (Trend) is usually one of three: **growth, decline, or constant.**
- Reasons for trends include:
- Population growth -- greater demand for products and services, and greater supply of products and services.
- Technology -- impacts on efficiency, supply, and demand.
- Innovation -- impacts efficiency as well as supply and demand.

## Models with Trend

### Remark 2.

A useful technique for estimating  $m_t$  is the least squares method (some other methods will be considered later).

In the least squares procedure we attempt to fit a parametric family of functions, for example,

$$m_t = a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2$$

to the data  $x_1, \dots, x_T$  by choosing the parameters  $(a_0, a_1, a_2)$  to minimize the sum

$$\sum_{t=1}^T (x_t - m_x)^2.$$

This is least squares regression method of curve fitting.

## Models with Trend

A simple example of a time series model with trend is the random walk with drift, given by

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + d + e_t. \quad (2)$$

Observe that the process will trend to move upward if  $d > 0$ , and downward if  $d < 0$ .

For model (2), the one-step forecast is

$$\hat{Y}_{T+1} = E[Y_{T+1} | Y_T, \mathbf{L}, Y_1] = Y_T + d,$$

and the k-step forecast is

$$\hat{Y}_{T+k} = Y_T + kd.$$

The standard error of forecast will be the same as before:

$$VAR(e_k) = k\sigma_U^2.$$

## Models with Trend

For one-step forecast

$$e_1 = Y_{T+1} - \hat{Y}_{T+1} = Y_T + d + e_{T+1} - Y_T - d = e_{T+1}.$$

Thus, for the model random walk with drift, the standard error of forecast again will increase with  $\sqrt{k}$ , and we can obtain CI's for forecasts.

## Models with Trend: Stationary vs. Non-stationary

Assume that a time series model is given by equation:

$$Y_t = \alpha + \rho Y_{t-1} + u_t, \quad u_t \sim IID(0, \sigma^2).$$

Then

$\rho < 1$    stationary process

- “process forgets past”

$\rho = 1$    non-stationary process

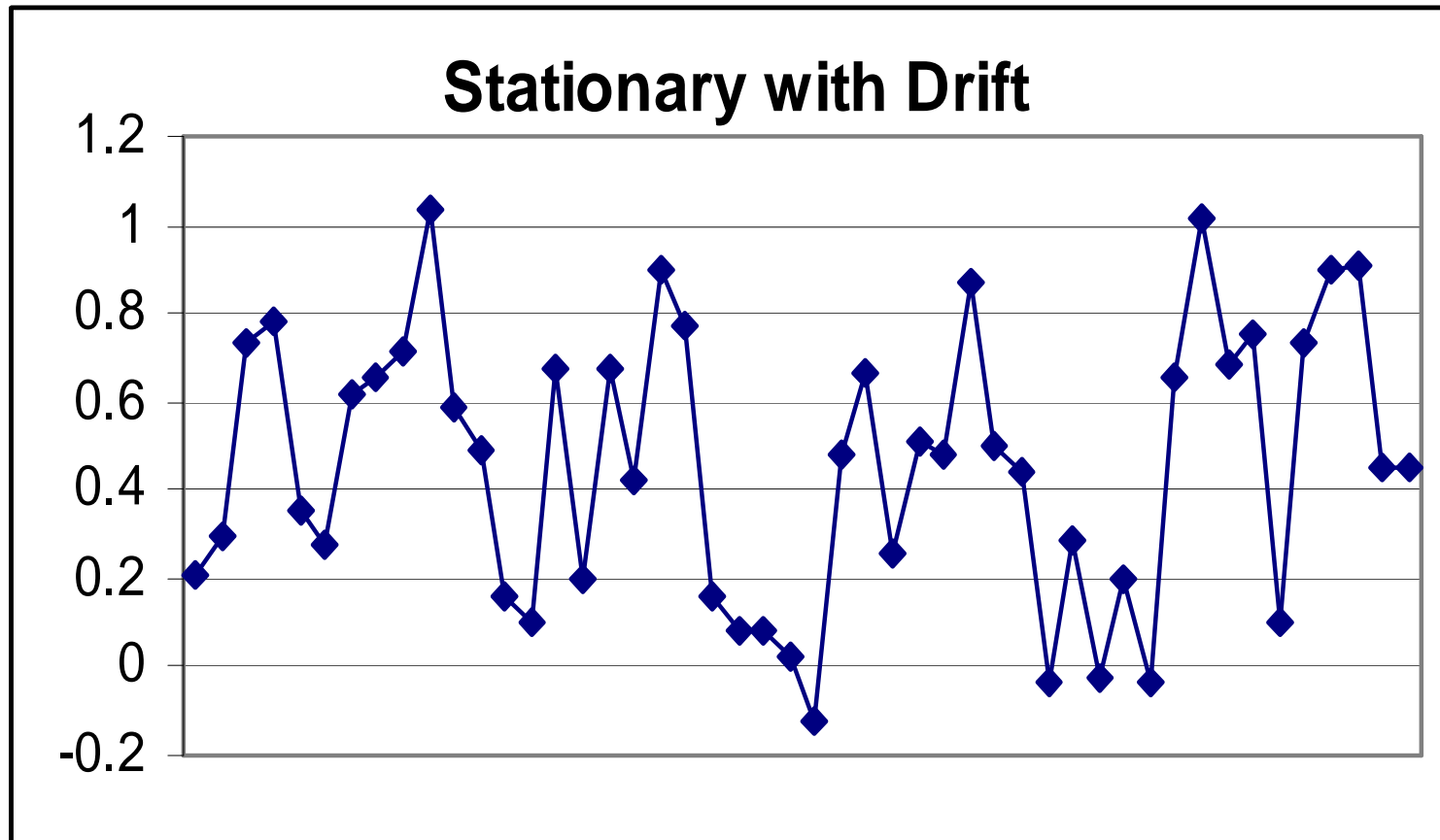
- “process does not forget past”

$\alpha = 0$    without drift

$\alpha \neq 0$    with drift

## Example: Stationary time series with drift

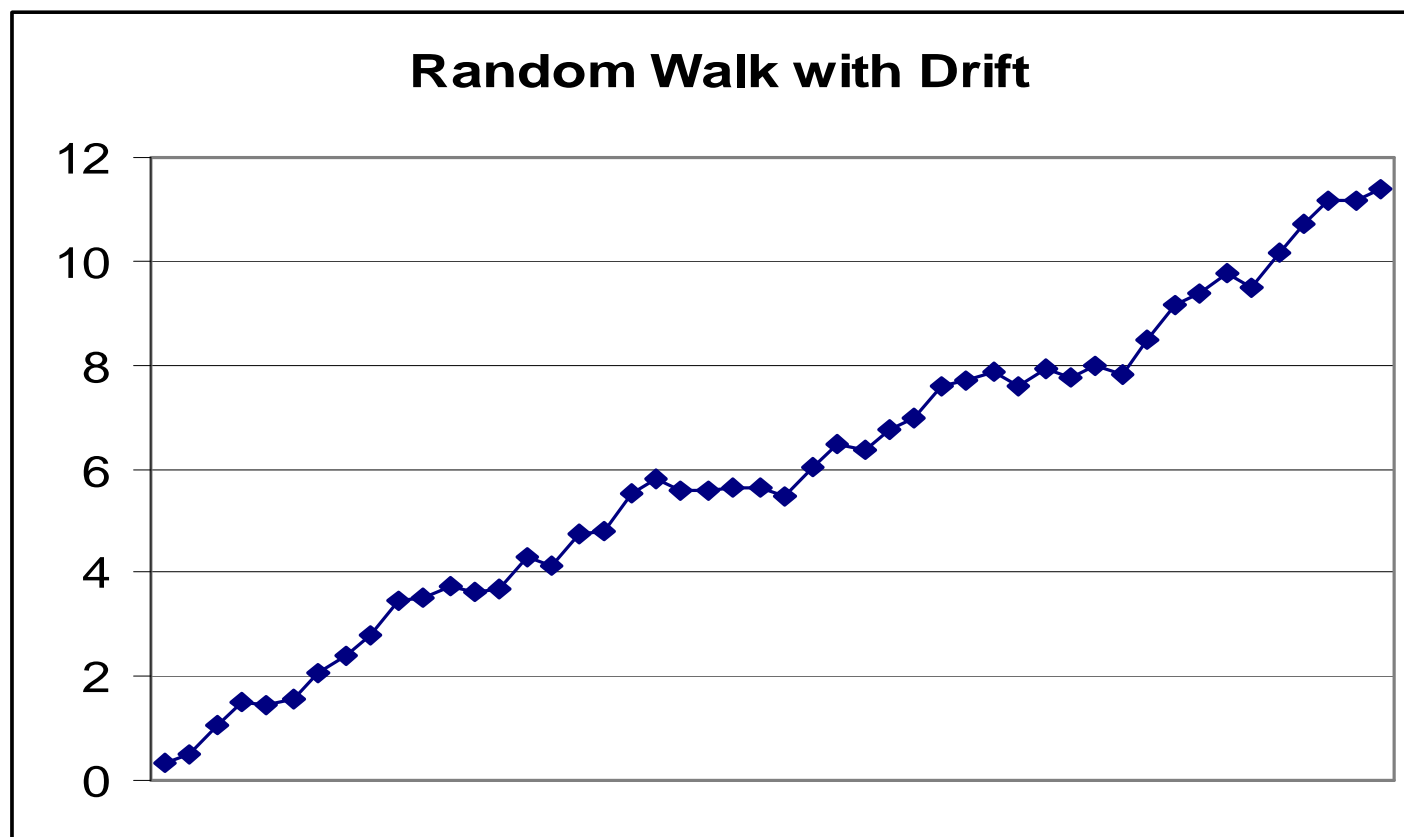
$$Y_t = \alpha + (0.5)Y_{t-1} + U_t \quad U_t \sim IID(0, \sigma^2)$$





**Example:** Non-stationary time series with drift

$$Y_t = \alpha + Y_{t-1} + U_t, \quad U_t \sim IID(0, \sigma^2)$$



## Example: Types of Models

$$Y_t = m + f_1 Y_{t-1} + b t + e_t$$

	Parameter Set	Description
1	$m \neq 0,  f_1  < 1, b \neq 0$	Deterministic Trend With Stationary AR(1) components
2	$m \neq 0, f_1 = 1, b \neq 0$	Random Walk with Drift and Deterministic Trend
3	$m \neq 0, f_1 = 1, b = 0$	Random Walk with Drift
4	$m \neq 0, f_1 = 0, b \neq 0$	Deterministic Trend
5	$m = 0, f_1 = 1, b = 0$	Pure Random Walk

## Models with seasonality (Harmonic Regression)

Many time series models are influenced by seasonally varying factors such as the weather, the effect of which can be modeled by a periodic component with fixed known period.

In order to represent such a seasonal effect, allowing for noise but assuming no trend, we can use the so-called Harmonic Regression model given by

$$X_t = S_t + Y_t,$$

where  $S_t$  is a periodic function of  $t$  with period  $l$ .

## Models with seasonality

### Remark 1.

A convenient choice for  $S_t$  is a sum of harmonics (or sine - waves) given by

$$S_t = a_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k (a_j \cos(l_j t) + b_j \sin(l_j t)),$$

where  $a_0, \dots, a_k$  and  $b_0, \dots, b_k$  are unknown parameters to be estimated from the data, and  $\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_k$  are fixed frequencies, each being some integer multiple of  $2\pi/l$ .

## Models with seasonality

### Remark 2.

- Upward and downward movements which repeat **at the same time each year.**
- Reasons for seasonal influences include:
  - Weather -- both outdoor and indoor activities can impact demand because of the number of people involved
  - supplies of products and services may depend on the weather
- Events, Holidays -- often impact supply and demand.

## Models with Cyclical Component

- Similar to seasonal variations except that there is likely not a relationship to the time of the year.

Examples of cyclical influences include:

- Inflation/deflation -- energy costs, wages and salaries, and government spending
- Stock market prices -- bull markets, bear markets
- Consequences of unique events -- severe weather, law suits.

It is important for economic time series models.

## Models with Irregular Component

- Unexplained variations which we usually treat as **randomness**. This is the equivalent of the **error term** in the analysis of variance model and the regression model.
- These are short-term effects, usually. We treat them as independent from one time period to the next.
- The length of the duration of these effects would then be shorter than one time period, that is, one month for monthly data, one year for annual data.

## Summary: Components of a Time Series

### – *Long Term Trend*

- A time series may be stationary or exhibit trend over time.
- Long term trend is typically modeled as a linear, quadratic or exponential function.

### – *Seasonal Variation*

- When a repetitive pattern is observed over some time horizon, the series is said to have seasonal behavior.
- Seasonal effects are usually associated with calendar or climatic changes.
- Seasonal variation is frequently tied to yearly cycles.

### – *Cyclical Variation*

- An upturn or downturn not tied to seasonal variation.
- Usually results from changes in economic conditions.

### – *Random effects*



# General Time-Series Model

- The four components of time series come together to form a time series model.
- There are two popular time series models:

- **Additive Model:**

$$Y_t = T_t + S_t + C_t + I_t$$

- **Multiplicative Model:**

$$Y_t = (T_t)(S_t)(C_t)(I_t),$$

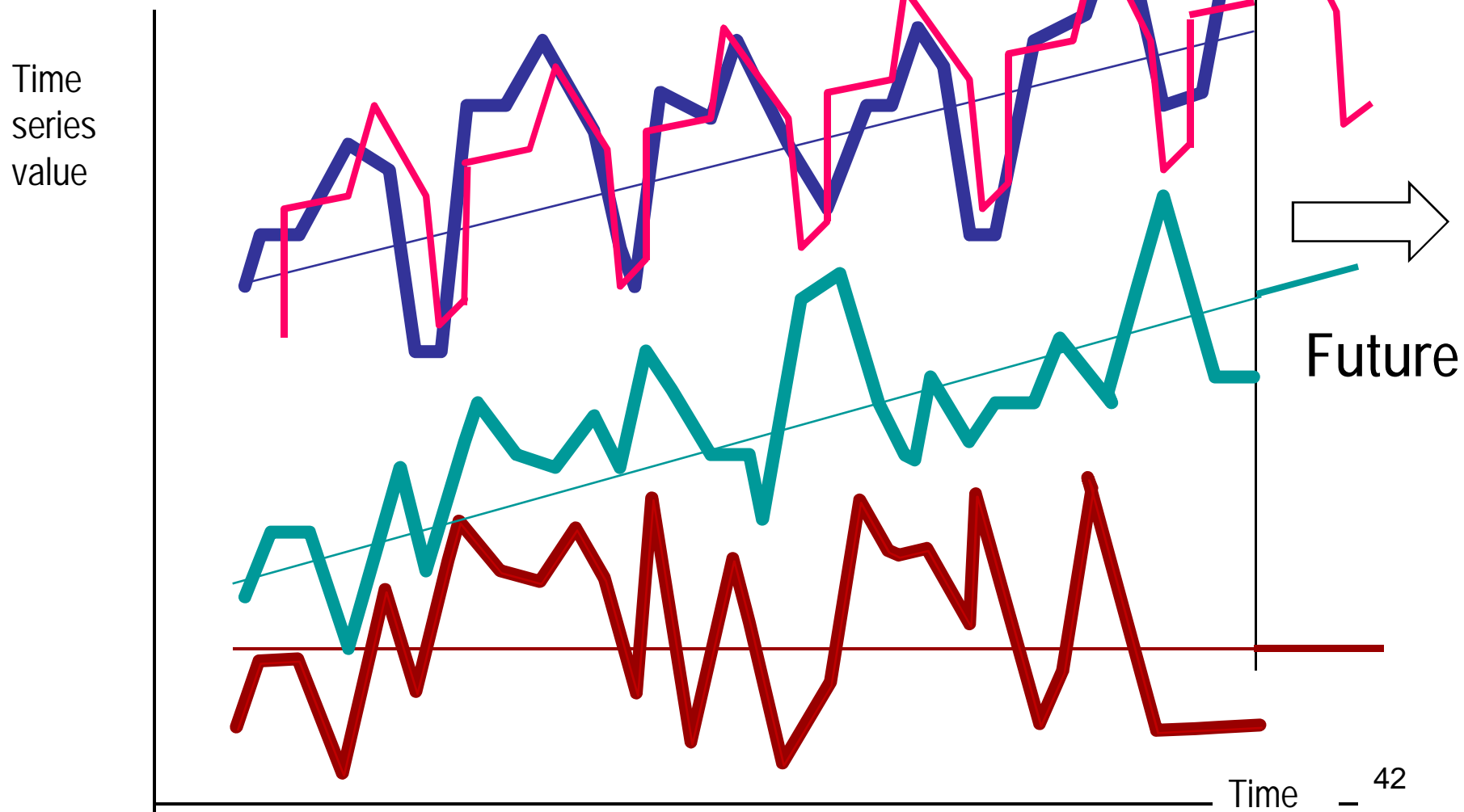
where  $T_t$  is the trend,  $S_t$  is the seasonal,  $C_t$  is the cyclical and  $I_t$  is the irregular components.

# Components of a Time Series

**Linear trend and seasonality time series**

**Linear trend time series**

**A stationary time series**



# A General Approach to Time Series Modeling

**The following recommendation can be useful in the Time Series Modeling and Analysis.**

**1. Plot the series (data)** and examine the main features of the graph, checking in particular whether there is:

- a) a trend component**
- b) a seasonal component**
- c) any apparent sharp changes in behavior,**
- d) any outlying observations.**

**2. Remove the trend and seasonal components to get stationary residuals.** To achieve this goal it may be necessary to transform the underlying data.

## A General Approach to Time Series Modeling

3. **Chose a model** to fit the residuals, making use of various sample statistics including the sample autocorrelation function to be defined below.
4. **Forecasting** will be achieved by forecasting the residuals and then inverting the transformations to arrive at forecasts of the original series  $\{Y_t\}$ .
5. **An extremely** useful alternative approach is to express the series in terms of its **Fourier components**, which are sinusoidal waves of different frequencies.

## **2. Stochastic Processes**

# Stochastic Processes

## 1. Definition and Remarks.

### Definition 1.

Let  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  be a given probability space and  $T$  be a given index set.

A **stochastic (or random) process (SP)** indexed by  $T$  is a family (or collection) of random variables

$$\{X(t) = X(t, \omega), \quad t \in T\}$$

defined on  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  and taking values in a set  $S$  which is called the **state space** of the process.

Thus, a SP is a function of two variables:

$$X(t, \omega) : \Omega \times T \rightarrow S.$$

## Definition and Remarks

- Remark 1.

If  $t \in T$  represents time (in seconds, minutes, hours, days, months, years, etc.), then the process  $X(t)$  is called a “time-series”.

- Remark 2.

If  $w \in \Omega$  is fixed, say  $\omega = \omega_0$ , then

$$X(w_0, t) = X_0(t) = g(t)$$

is a deterministic (non-random) function, which is called the realization or sample function or path of the process

$$X(t) = X(t, \omega).$$

In this case we have deterministic time series.

## Definition and Remarks

- Remark 3.

If  $t \in T$  is fixed, say  $t = t_0$ , then

$$X(w, t_0) = X_0(w) = x(w)$$

is a random variable, and in this case we have **no** “time-series”.

- Remark 4 (Example).

A simple way to construct a SP is:

take any RV  $x(w)$ ,  $w \in \Omega$ ,

and any “usual” function  $g(t)$ ,  $t \in T$  and multiply to get

$$X(w, t) = x(w)g(t).$$



# Specification of Stochastic Processes

- In the theory of stochastic process the **Basic Question** are:

**1. How to specify the stochastic process  $X(t)$ ?**

**2. How to describe the distribution of  $X(t)$ ?**

**The main elements**, distinguishing stochastic processes are in the nature of

- **the index set  $T$**
- **the state space  $S$ , and**
- **the dependence relations among the random variables**

$$X(t) = X(t, \omega), t \in T.$$

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## (A) The Index set :

(A -1). If  $T = Z = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$  or  $T = N = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ , then  $X(t)$  is called discrete-time (-parameter) process, or time-series.

(A -2). If  $T = R = (-\infty, \infty)$  or  $T = (a, b) \subset R$ , then  $X(t)$  is called continuous-time (-parameter) process, or continuous-time time-series.

(A -3). If  $T = Z^m$  or  $T = R^m$ , then  $X(t) = X(t_1, \dots, t_m)$  is called discrete-time or continuous-time (respectively)  $m$  - dimensional Random Field.

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## (B) The State Space $S$ :

(the space of possible values of  $X(t)$ .)

(B -1). If  $S = R = ( - \infty, \infty )$ , then  $X(t)$  is called real-valued process.

(B -2). If  $S = C$  (the complex numbers), then  $X(t)$  is called complex-valued process.

(B -3). If  $S = Z = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \}$ , then  $X(t)$  is called integer-valued or discrete-state process.

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## **(C) Specification of Stochastic Processes.**

**Dependence relations among the random variables,**

$$X(t) = X(t, \omega), t \in T.$$

**Dependence** relations among the random variables

$X(t) = X(t, \omega), t \in T$  are specified by the

**family of finite-dimensional distribution functions**

of the process  $X(t)$ .

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## Remark.

Observe that

(a) A RV  $X(\omega)$  is completely specified by its *cdf*

$$F(x) = P(X(w) \leq x);$$

(b) A random vector  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is completely specified by its *cdf*

$$F_n(x_1, \mathbf{L}, x_n) = P(X_1(w) \leq x_1, \mathbf{L}, X_n(w) \leq x_n).$$

If  $T$  is infinite it is not easy to specify the process

$$X(t) = X(t, w), t \in T.$$

## Specification of Stochastic Processes

We shall regard the SP  $X(t), t \in T$ , as being specified, if

1. for each  $t_1 \in T$  there is defined the distribution function

$F_{t_1}(x)$  of RV  $X(t_1)$ :

$$F_{t_1}(x) = P\{X(t_1) \leq x\}.$$

2. for each  $t_1, t_2 \in T$  we are given the *cdf* of 2-dimensional random vector  $(X(t_1), X(t_2))$ .

$$F_{t_1, t_2}(x_1, x_2) = P(X(t_1) \leq x_1, X(t_2) \leq x_2)$$

and so on....

## Specification of Stochastic Processes

3. for **any** finite number of elements  $t_1, \mathbf{L} t_n \in T$  ( $n \in N$ ),  
we are given the *cdf* of  $n$ -dimensional random vector  
 $(X(t_1), \dots, X(t_n))$  :

$$F_{t_1, \mathbf{L}, t_n}(x_1, \mathbf{L} x_n) = P(X(t_1) \leq x_1, \mathbf{L}, X(t_n) \leq x_n).$$

Thus for an **infinite** set  $T$  the SP  $X(t), t \in T$  is completely  
specified by the **whole family of finite  $n$ -dimensional *cdf*'s**

$$\left\{ F_{t_1, \mathbf{L}, t_n}(x_1, \mathbf{L} x_n), \quad n = 1, 2, \mathbf{L} \right\}.$$

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## Definition 1.

The **finite-dimensional distribution functions** of the process  $X(t), t \in T$ , are the functions

$$\left\{ F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x}) = F_{t_1 \dots t_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad \bar{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_n)' \in \mathfrak{S}, \quad n = 1, 2, \mathbf{L} \right\}$$

where

$$F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x}) = F_{t_1 \dots t_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = P\{X(t_1) \leq x_1, \dots, X(t_n) \leq x_n\}. \quad (1)$$

**Thus,** the **finite-dimensional distribution functions** of the stochastic process  $X(t)$  are the distributions of the finite-dimensional vectors

$$(X(t_1), \dots, X(t_n)), \quad t_1, \dots, t_n \in T,$$

for all possible choices of times  $t_1, \dots, t_n \in T$  and every  $n \geq 1$ .



# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## The Consistency Condition

### Notation:

For a vector  $\bar{h} = (h_1, \mathbf{L}, h_n)$  we denote

$$\bar{h}(k) = (h_1, \mathbf{L}, h_{k-1}, h_{k+1}, \mathbf{L}, h_n),$$

that is,  $\bar{h}(k)$  is a  $(n - 1)$ -component vector obtained by  $\bar{h}$  deleting the  $k$ -th component of  $\bar{h}$ .

It follows from the Def. 1 that the finite-dimensional distribution functions  $F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x})$  of the process  $X(t), t \in T$  satisfy the following

### Consistency Condition:

$$\lim_{x_k \rightarrow \infty} F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x}) = F_{\bar{t}(k)}(\bar{x}(k)). \quad (2)$$

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## The Consistency Condition

### Remark.

**The Consistency condition states that:**

Each function  $F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x})$  should have marginal distributions which coincide with the specified lower dimensional distribution functions.

## Specification of Stochastic Processes

Thus, we have seen that the family of finite-dimensional distribution functions of a process  $X(t), t \in T$ , necessarily satisfies the consistency condition.

Now we ask the following question:

Let a family of finite-dimensional distribution functions  $\{F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x})\}$  with the parameter set  $T$  is apriori given, that is, for any  $n$ , and  $t_1, \mathbf{L}, t_n \in T$ ,

$$F_{t_1, \mathbf{L}, t_n}(x_1, \mathbf{L} x_n) = F(x_1, \mathbf{L} x_n)$$

is an  $n$ -dimensional distribution function,  
**under what conditions** can this family be the family of finite-dimensional distribution functions of a stochastic process?

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

## Or more precisely,

Given  $\{F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x})\}$  with parameter set  $\mathbf{T}$ , under what conditions do there exist

- a probability  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  space and
- a stochastic process  $X(t) = X(t, \omega), t \in T$ , defined on  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$ , such that

$$P(X(t_1) \leq x_1, \mathbf{L}, X(t_n) \leq x_n) = F_{t_1, \mathbf{L}, t_n}(x_1, \mathbf{L}, x_n) \quad (= F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x}))$$

**Kolmogorov's famous theorem is the answer to this question, and it is remarkable that all such conditions are covered by a single condition: the consistency condition.**

# Specification of Stochastic Processes

**Theorem** (Kolmogorov's Theorem on existence of a stochastic Process).

Let a family of distributions  $\{F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x}), t \in \mathfrak{T}\}$  with the parameter set  $T$  be apriori given.

**Then** a **necessary and sufficient condition** for the existence of a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{T}, P)$  and a stochastic process  $X(t) = X(t, w)$ ,  $t \in T$  defined on  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{T}, P)$ , such that

$$P(X(t_1) \leq x_1, X(t_2) \leq x_2, \dots, X(t_n) \leq x_n) = F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x})$$

is that given family  $\{F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x})\}$  satisfies the **consistency condition**:

$$\lim_{x_k \rightarrow \infty} F_{\bar{t}}(\bar{x}) = F_{\bar{t}(k)}(\bar{x}(k)).$$

### **3. Some Classes of Stochastic Processes**

# Some Classes of Stochastic Processes

## 1. The Class of Strictly Stationary SP's.

### Definition 1.

Let  $X(t) = X(t, w), t \in T$  be a stochastic process defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  with finite-dimensional distribution functions:

$$F_{t_1, \mathbf{L}, t_n}(x_1, \mathbf{L}, x_n) = P(X(t_1) \leq x_1, \mathbf{L}, X(t_n) \leq x_n).$$

Then  $X(t)$  is called

- **1<sup>st</sup> order Stationary** SP if

$$F_{t_1+t}(x_1) = F_{t_1}(x_1) \text{ for all } t_1 \in T \text{ and } t > 0.$$

- **2<sup>nd</sup> order Stationary** SP if

$$F_{t_1+t, t_2+t}(x_1, x_2) = F_{t_1, t_2}(x_1, x_2) \text{ for all } t_1, t_2 \in T \text{ and } t > 0.$$

# The Class of Strictly Stationary Processes

- **n - order stationary** SP if

$$F_{t_1+t \dots t_n+t}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = F_{t_1 \dots t_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \text{ for all } t_1, \dots, t_n \in T \text{ and } t > 0.$$

## Definition 2.

A stochastic process  $X(t) = X(t, w), t \in T$  is called **Strictly (or Strongly) Stationary** SP if it is **n - order stationary** process for any  $n$ .

Thus, a SP  $X(t)$  is **strictly stationary** if the finite-dimensional distribution functions of  $X(t)$  are **invariant with respect to time-shift.**



# The Class of Second Order Processes

## 2. The Class of Second Order SP's.

### Definition 1.

A stochastic process  $X(t) = X(t, \omega), t \in T$ , defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  is called

**Second Order** SP if for all  $t \in T$

$$E[X(t)]^2 = \int_{\Omega} |X(t, \omega)|^2 dP(\omega) < \infty.$$

We now define the **mean** and **covariance** functions of a stochastic process  $X(t)$ .

## The Class of Second Order Processes

### Definition 2.

The mean function  $m(t)$  of the process  $X(t)$  is defined to be

$$m(t) = E[X(t)], \quad t \in T.$$

### Definition 3.

The covariance function  $r(t,s)$  of the process  $X(t)$  is defined to be

$$r(t,s) = E \left[ (X(t) - m(t))(X(s) - m(s)) \right], \quad t, s \in T.$$

### Remark 1.

It follows from Cauchy-Schwarz inequality that the mean function  $m(t)$  and covariance function  $r(t,s)$  of the second order process  $X(t)$  exist (  $E[X(t)]^2 < \infty$  ).

## Some Classes of Stochastic Processes

### 3. The Class of Second Order (Wide) Stationary SP's.

#### Definition 1.

Let  $X(t), t \in T$ , be a second order SP defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  with mean and covariance functions  $m(t)$  and  $r(t,s)$ , respectively.

**Then**  $X(t)$  is called **Second Order Stationary** if

$$(a) \quad m(t) = m = \text{const}(= 0) \text{ for all } t \in T.$$

$$(b) \quad r(t,s) = R(t-s) \text{ for all } t,s \in T.$$

# The Class of Second Order Stationary Processes

## •Remark 1.

In the class of second order process (  $E[X(t)]^2 < \infty$  )  
**strict stationarity implies wide stationarity.**

**The converse**, in general, is **not true**.

For Gaussian processes, however, the **converse is true**, that is,  
**in the class of Gaussian processes**  
**“strict stationarity” and “wide stationarity” coincide.**



# Some Classes of Stochastic Processes

## 4. The Class of Gaussian Processes.

### Definition 1.

We say that an  $n$ -dimensional random vector  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  has a MND with mean vector  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)'$  and variance-covariance matrix  $R = \|r_{kj}\|_{kj=1..n}$ , and write  $\mathbf{X} \sim N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, R)$  if for all  $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n) \in R^n$  the mgf  $M_X(u)$  (or CF  $j_X(u)$ ) of  $\mathbf{X}$  is given by

$$M_X(u) = \exp \left\{ (u, \mathbf{m}) + \frac{1}{2} (Ru, u) \right\} = \exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n u_k m_k + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{kj=1}^n r_{kj} u_k u_j \right\}$$
$$j_X(u) = \exp \left\{ i \sum_{k=1}^n u_k m(t_k) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{kj=1}^n r_{kj} u_k u_j \right\}.$$

## The Class of Gaussian Processes

where  $\mathbf{m}_k = E[X_k]$  and  $r_{kj} = E[X_k - \mathbf{m}_k][X_j - \mathbf{m}_j]$ .

For *pdf* of  $\mathbf{X}$  we have for  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in R^n$ ,

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |R|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{kj=1}^n a_{kj} (x_k - \mathbf{m}_k)(x_j - \mathbf{m}_j) \right\},$$

where  $a_{kj}$  are the elements of the inverse matrix  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}$ :

$$R^{-1} = \|a_{kj}\|_{kj=\overline{1..n}},$$

and

$$|R| = \det R.$$

# The Class of Gaussian Processes

## Definition 2.

Let  $X(t), t \in T$  be a second order SP defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  with mean and covariance functions  $m(t)$  and  $r(t, s)$ , respectively.

Then we say that  $X(t)$  is a Gaussian Process with mean function  $m(t)$  and covariance function  $r(t, s)$ , and write

$$X(t) \sim N(m(t), r(t,s)),$$

if the finite-dimensional distribution functions of  $X(t)$  are Gaussian.

## The Class of Gaussian Processes

That is, for any  $n \in N$  and any  $t_1, \dots, t_n \in T$  the  $n$ -dimensional random vector  $X = (X(t_1), \dots, X(t_n))$  has a MND with mean vector  $\mu = (m(t_1), \dots, m(t_n))'$  and variance-covariance matrix

$$R = \|r_{kj}\|_{kj=1..n}, r_{kj} = r(t_k, s_j) = E\left[(X(t_k) - m(t_k))(X(s_j) - m(s_j))\right]$$

So the Characteristic Function  $\varphi_X(u)$  of  $X(t)$  is given by

$$j_X(u) = \exp \left\{ i \sum_{k=1}^n u_k m(t_k) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{kj=1}^n r_{kj} u_k u_j \right\}$$

### Remark 1.

A Gaussian process  $X(t)$  is completely specified by the mean function  $m(t)$  and covariance function  $r(t, s)$ .



# The Class of Gaussian Processes

## Remark 2.

W.l.o.g we can assume that mean function  $m(t) = 0$ .

Otherwise instead of  $X(t)$  we can consider a new process  $Y(t)$  defined by  $Y(t) = X(t) - m(t)$  for which

$$\begin{aligned} m_Y(t) &= E[Y(t)] = E[X(t) - m(t)] \\ &= E[X(t)] - m(t) = m(t) - m(t) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

# The Class of Gaussian Processes

## Definition 3.

A real-valued function of two variables  $h(t, s)$  is called **non-negative definite** (**nnd**), if for any  $n \in N$ , for any  $t = (t_1, \dots, t_n) \in T$  and any numbers  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in R$ ,

$$\sum_{k,j=1}^n h(t_k, s_j) a_k a_j \geq 0. \quad (3)$$

## Theorem 2.

The covariance function  $r(t, s)$  of any second order process  $X(t)$  ( $E[X(t)]^2 < \infty$ ) is a **nnd**-function, that is,  $r(t, s)$  satisfies (3).

## The Class of Gaussian Processes

### Proof.

Indeed, since  $r(t, s) = \text{Cov}(X(t), X(s)) = E[(X(t)X(s))]$   
we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{kj=1}^n r(t_k, s_j) a_k a_j &= \sum_{kj=1}^n E[(X(t_k)X(s_j))] a_k a_j = E\left[\sum_{kj=1}^n X(t_k)X(s_j) a_k a_j\right] \\ &= E\left[\sum_{k=1}^n X(t_k) a_k \sum_{j=1}^n X(s_j) a_j\right] = E\left[\sum_{k=1}^n X(t_k) a_k\right]^2 \geq 0.\end{aligned}$$

The next result shows that the converse also is true.

# The Class of Gaussian Processes

## Theorem 3

### (Existence of a Gaussian Processes with given Covariance).

Assume that we are given a parameter set  $T$  and a real-valued nnd-function  $r(t, s)$ ,  $t, s \in T$ .

**Then** there exist a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$  and a real-valued Gaussian process  $X(t) = X(t, \omega)$ ,  $t \in T$ , defined on  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{F}, P)$ , such that

$$\text{Cov}(X(t), X(s)) = E[(X(t)X(s))] = r(t, s).$$

# Examples of Gaussian Process

## 1. Brownian motion ( or Wiener process).

Let  $T = [0, \infty)$ . The process  $X(t)$ ,  $t \in T$ , with  $X(0)=0$ , and covariance  $R(t,s) = \min(t,s)$  is Gaussian.

Observe that  $X(t)$  has independent increment, i.e., for arbitrary,  $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$ ,

$X(t_2) - X(t_1), \dots, X(t_n) - X(t_{n-1})$  are independent.

## 2. Conditional Wiener Process (Brownian Bridge Process).

$T = [0, 1]$ ,  $X(0) = 0$ ,  $R(s, t) = \min(s, t) - st$ .

## 3. Gauss-Markov Process.

$T = R$ ,  $R(s, t) = e^{-|t-s|}$ .