

# 16:960:665 - Syllabus

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# Syllabus

Time Series: Theory and Methods. Brockwell and Davis  
Asymptotic Theory of Weakly dependent Random Process  
Martingale Limit Theory

Durrett - Probability Theory and Examples

## Questions

Ask what I need to get and review before classes start  
Measure Theory: not hardcore  
look into textbooks and ergodic theory  
Ask the professors of the classes to audit  
What is the  $X(\omega)$  notation

## Acronyms

R.V. - Random Variable  
S.P. - Stochastic Process  
fn - Function  
dist - Distribution  
G.P. - Gaussian Process  
iid - independent and identically distributed  
a.s. - Almost Surely  
w.p 1 - with probability 1

## 1 Notes

### 1.1 9/2/2025 Lecture 1

**We use Stochastic Process to model time series data**

**Definition** (Stochastic Process). A stochastic process is a family of random variables  $\{X_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  defined on a common probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ .

$\mathcal{T} = \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}$  Discrete Time

$\mathcal{T} = \mathbb{R}$  Continuous Time (not focusing on this)

$\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  Geospatial, with location and time, (not focusing on this)

$\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathbb{S}^3$  Unit Sphere w/Geophysics.

**Definition** (Realization of a S.P.). The functions  $\{X(\omega), \omega \in \Omega\}(\mathcal{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$  are realizations or sample paths of the process.

- Fix  $t$ ,  $X_t$  is a fn of  $\Omega$
- Fix an outcome  $\omega \in \Omega$ ,  $X_t(\omega)$  is a fn on  $\mathcal{T}$
- The time series we observe is a realization of the S.P.
- Conventionally the observed time series is indexed by  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  ie  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$  (known as the lens/sample size)

**Example** (1.2.1 from book). Suppose  $A \geq 0$  is a R.V and given by  $\Theta \sim Uniform(0, 2\pi)$ . and they are independent. and  $v > 0$  is a known constant

Then  $X_t = A \cos(vt + \Theta), t \in \mathbb{Z}$

Fore every  $\omega \in \Omega$ ,  $A(\omega), \Theta(\omega)$  are fixed

$X_t(\omega) = A(\omega) \cos(vt + \Theta(\omega))$

$A$  determines the amplitude and  $\Theta$  determines the phase.

What we do is we take a model, and have the data as a realization, and solve the inverse problem of determining the parameters of the model.

**Example** (1.2.2 from the book). Consider  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$  are IID and take value  $1, -1$  with probability  $1/2$

Im considering to use some binomial theorem thing...

**Example** (1.2.3 from the book). Suppose  $X_t$  coming from prior question.

$S_t = \sum_{i=1}^t X_i = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_t$   $S_t : t \in \mathbb{N}$  is a S.P. called a simple symmetric random walk

Consider a man in 1D who starts at 0, and takes a random draw to walk left or right. The path of this miserable guys is  $S_t$

The realization is a plot of  $S_t(\omega)$  against  $t$ .

**Definition** (The Distribution of a Stochastic Process). Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be the collection of all tuples  $\{\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)' \in \mathcal{T}, t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n\}$  The finite dimensional dist. fns of  $\{X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  are the collection of fns  $\{F_t(\cdot) : \mathbf{t} \in \mathcal{I}\}$  where

$$F_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathbf{x}) = P(X_{t_1} = x_1, X_{t_2} = x_2, \dots, X_{t_n} = x_n)$$

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)' \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

ie  $F_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathbf{x})$  is the joint distribution of the process of the R.V.  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Theorem 1** (Kolmogorov (consistency) Theorem). *The prob. distribution fns  $\{F_{\mathbf{t}}(\cdot) : \mathbf{t} \in \mathcal{I}\}$  are the distribution functions of some S.P.  $\iff$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)' \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $1 \leq i \leq n$*

$$\lim_{x_i \rightarrow \infty} F_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathbf{x}) = F_{\mathbf{t}_i}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

Where  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)'$ ,

$\mathbf{t}_i = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{i-1}, t_{i+1}, \dots, t_n)'$  and  $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)'$

essentially the  $i$  are the missing ones

$$F(x_1, x_2) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2)$$

$$\lim_{x_2 \rightarrow \infty} F(x_1, x_2) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1)$$

"[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kolmogorov\\_extension\\_theorem](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kolmogorov_extension_theorem)"

We essentially only need to specify the consistency of the finite dimensional distributions to define a S.P.

## 1.2 9/9/2025 Lecture 2

**Definition** (Autocovariance function). If  $X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}$  is a S.P. s.t  $E(X_t^2) < \infty$ , then for every  $t \in \mathcal{T}$  the autocovariance function is defined as

$$\gamma_x(r, s) = \text{Cov}(X_r, X_s), r, s \in \mathcal{T}$$

**Definition** (Autocorrelation function). If  $X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}$  is a S.P. s.t  $E(X_t^2) < \infty$ , then for every  $t \in \mathcal{T}$  the autocorrelation function is defined as

$$\rho_x(r, s) = \text{Corr}(X_r, X_s) = \frac{\gamma_x(r, s)}{\sqrt{\gamma_x(r, r)\gamma_x(s, s)}}, r, s \in \mathcal{T}$$

**Definition** (Stationary S.P). A stochastic process  $X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}$  is said to be stationary

- $E(X_t^2) < \infty$  for all  $t \in \mathcal{T}$
- $E(X_t) = \mu$  for all  $t \in \mathcal{T}$
- $\gamma_x(r, s) = \gamma_x(r + h, s + h)$  for all  $r, s, h \in \mathcal{T}$

Weakly Stationary/Covariance Stationary/Wide Sense Stationary/Second Order Stationary

**ASK: If our  $\mathcal{T}$  is a non convex set, does this still hold?**

Also if  $X_t$  is stationary, then  $\gamma_x(r, s) = \gamma_x(0, s - r) = \gamma_x(s - r)$  ie we can define the autocovariance as a fn of the one variable: the lag  $h = s - r$

Similarly  $\rho_x(h) = \frac{\gamma_x(h)}{\gamma_x(0)}$

**Definition** (Strict Stationarity). A stochastic process  $X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}$  is said to be strictly stationary if for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $h \in \mathcal{T}$  the random vectors  $(X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \dots, X_{t_n})'$  and  $(X_{t_1+h}, X_{t_2+h}, \dots, X_{t_n+h})'$  have the same distribution.

ie the finite dimensional distributions are shift invariant.

If Strict Stationarity with finite second moments  $\implies$  Weak Stationarity.

**Definition** (Gaussian Time Series (S.P)). A Gaussian S.P. is a S.P.  $X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}$  if all the finite dimensional distributions fns of  $\{X_t\}$  are multivariate normal.

ie for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathcal{T}$  the random vector  $(X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \dots, X_{t_n})'$  has a multivariate normal distribution. - IF a G.P. is stationary, then it is strictly stationary.

**Definition** (Stationarity of IID). IID variables are strictly stationary.

**Definition** (White Noise). A S.P.  $X_t$  is said to be white noise if can also be written as  $WN(0, \sigma^2)$

- $E(X_t) = 0$  for all  $t$
- $Var(X_t) = \sigma^2 < \infty$  for all  $t$
- $Cov(X_t, X_s) = 0$  for all  $t \neq s$

It is a weakly stationary S.P.

**Example** (Example of White Noise not Strictly Stationary). Let  $X_t$  with  $t = \text{even}$  be  $N(0, 1)$  and  $X_t$  with  $t = \text{odd}$  be *Rademacher*(0, 1)  
Then  $X_t$  is white noise but not strictly stationary.

**Example** (1.3.1).  $X_t = A \cos(\Theta t) + B \sin(\Theta t)$  where  $E(A) = E(B) = 0$ ,  $Var(A) = Var(B) = 1$ ,  $Cov(A, B) = 0$

- $E(X_t) = 0$
- $Var(X_t) = E(A^2 \cos^2(\Theta t) + B^2 \sin^2(\Theta t)) = \cos^2(\Theta t) + \sin^2(\Theta t) = 1$
- $Cov(X_t, X_s) = E(X_t X_s) = E[(A \cos(\Theta t) + B \sin(\Theta t))(A \cos(\Theta s) + B \sin(\Theta s))] = E[A^2] \cos(\Theta t) \cos(\Theta s) + E[B^2] \sin(\Theta t) \sin(\Theta s) = \cos(\Theta t) \cos(\Theta s) + \sin(\Theta t) \sin(\Theta s) = \cos(\Theta(t - s))$

Note that the  $Cov(X_t, X_s)$  is only a fn of  $t - s$

Thus  $X_t$  is weakly stationary.

**Example** (1.3.2). Let  $Z_t, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  be IID(0,  $\sigma^2$ )

$$X_t = Z_t + \Theta Z_{t-1}$$

- $E(X_t) = 0$
- $Var(X_t) = Var(Z_t) + \Theta^2 Var(Z_{t-1}) = (1 + \Theta^2) \sigma^2$
- $Cov(X_t, X_s) = E(X_t X_s) = E[(Z_t + \Theta Z_{t-1})(Z_s + \Theta Z_{s-1})] = \Theta \sigma^2$  if  $|t - s| = 1$ ,  $(1 + \Theta^2) \sigma^2$  if  $t = s$ , 0 otherwise

Thus  $X_t$  is weakly stationary.

**Example** (1.3.4). Assume  $X_t$  is IID(0,  $\sigma^2$ )

$$S_t = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_t \quad t \geq 1$$

- $E(S_t) = 0$
- $Var(S_t) = t \sigma^2$  Not constant

- $Cov(S_r, S_t) = E(S_r S_t) = r\sigma^2$  WLOG  $r \leq t$
- $Cov(S_r, S_t) = (r \wedge t)\sigma^2$

**Proposition 1 (1.5.1).** Suppose  $X_t$  is weakly stationary with  $\gamma_x(h), \rho_x(h)$  as the autocovariance and autocorrelation fns. Then

- $\gamma_x(0) \geq 0$
- $|\gamma_x(h)| \leq \gamma_x(0)$  for all  $h \in \mathcal{T}$
- $\gamma_x(h) = \gamma_x(-h)$  for all  $h \in \mathcal{T}$

**Remark** (Some Statistics...). Observe  $\{X_t\}, t = 1, 2, \dots, n$  Want to estimate  $\mu, \gamma(0), \gamma(1), \dots, \gamma(n-1)$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mu} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i := \bar{X} \\ \hat{\gamma}(0) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \\ \hat{\gamma}(1) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (X_i - \bar{X})(X_{i+1} - \bar{X}) \\ \hat{\gamma}(h) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} (X_i - \bar{X})(X_{i+h} - \bar{X})\end{aligned}$$

The reason why we divide by  $n$  we want to shrink it. intuition is that we want to make autocorrelation smaller as  $n$  increases.

### 1.3 9/11/2025 Lecture 3

**Remark** (Matrix Form of Autocovariance). Observe  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$   
 $\hat{\gamma}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-h} (X_i - \bar{X})(X_{i+h} - \bar{X})$ .

$$\Gamma_n = \text{Cov} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_x(0) & \gamma_x(1) & \gamma_x(2) & \dots & \gamma_x(n-1) \\ \gamma_x(1) & \gamma_x(0) & \gamma_x(1) & \dots & \gamma_x(n-2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma_x(n-1) & \gamma_x(n-2) & \gamma_x(n-3) & \dots & \gamma_x(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

This is a Toeplitz matrix. ie constant along the diagonals. It is also positive semidefinite. ie  $a' \Gamma_n a \geq 0$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

For the Sample version, we have

$$\hat{\Gamma}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\gamma}(0) & \hat{\gamma}(1) & \hat{\gamma}(2) & \dots & \hat{\gamma}(n-1) \\ \hat{\gamma}(1) & \hat{\gamma}(0) & \hat{\gamma}(1) & \dots & \hat{\gamma}(n-2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \hat{\gamma}(n-1) & \hat{\gamma}(n-2) & \hat{\gamma}(n-3) & \dots & \hat{\gamma}(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

We use  $n$  as a common denominator to ensure that  $\hat{\Gamma}_n$  is positive semidefinite.

$\Gamma_n$  is called the order- $n$  autocovariance matrix of the process.

$\hat{\Gamma}_n$  is called the order- $n$  sample autocovariance

**Theorem 2.** *A real valued fn defined on the integers is the autocovariance fn of a weakly stationary Time Series iff*

- It is even. ie  $\gamma(h) = \gamma(-h)$  for all  $h \in \mathcal{T}$
- It is non-negative definite. ie for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$

IE  $\sum_{i,j}^n a_i k(t_i - t_j) a_j \geq 0$  for all  $n \geq 1$ ,  $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)' \in \mathbb{N}^n$ , and  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)' \in \mathbb{R}^n$

*Proof.* **LOOK MORE INTO THIS THEOREM**

$\implies$

It is straightforward to see that  $\gamma_x(h)$  is even.

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)' \in \mathbb{N}^n$ , and  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)' \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\sum_{i,j}^n a_i \gamma_x(t_i - t_j) a_j = \sum_{i,j}^n a_i \text{Cov}(X_{t_i}, X_{t_j}) a_j = \text{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_{t_i}, \sum_{j=1}^n a_j X_{t_j}\right) = \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_{t_i}\right) \geq 0$$

$\Leftarrow$

Let  $k(h)$  be a real valued fn defined on the integers which is even and non-negative definite.

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)' \in \mathbb{N}^n$ , and  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)' \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Define  $\Gamma_n = [k(t_i - t_j)]_{i,j=1}^n$

Then  $\Gamma_n$  is a non-negative definite matrix. ie  $\mathbf{a}' \Gamma_n \mathbf{a} \geq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Thus by the spectral theorem, there exists a random vector  $\mathbf{X} = (X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \dots, X_{t_n})'$  with mean 0 and covariance matrix  $\Gamma_n$ . ie  $E(\mathbf{X}) = 0$  and  $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}) = \Gamma_n$ .

ie  $\text{Cov}(X_{t_i}, X_{t_j}) = k(t_i - t_j)$  for all  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$

By Kolmogorov's theorem, there exists a S.P.  $X_t, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  with autocovariance fn  $k(h)$ . □

**Example.** Suppose  $k(h) = \begin{cases} 1 & h = 0 \\ \rho & h = \pm 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

When is  $k$  an autocovariance fn of a weakly stationary S.P.?

- $|\rho| \leq .5$  then

Remember  $Z_t$  is IID(0,  $\sigma^2$ ),  $X_t = Z_t + \Theta Z_{t-1}$  with acovf  $\gamma_x(h) = \begin{cases} (1 + \Theta^2)\sigma^2 & h = 0 \\ \Theta\sigma^2 & h = \pm 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$\rho(1) = \frac{\Theta}{1+\Theta^2}$  then  $1 + \Theta^2 \leq 2\theta$  ie  $|\rho| \leq .5$

- If  $.5 < \rho \leq 1$  then  $k(h)$  is not an acovf.

Then you can find a  $n$  s.t.

$$\sum_{i,j}^{2n} a_i a_j k(i-j) = 2n - 2(n-1)\rho < 0$$

**Where does this formula on the RHS come from?**

- If  $-1 \leq \rho < -.5$  then  $k(h)$  is not an acovf.

**Definition** (Mixing Conditions). Suppose  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  are two sub  $\sigma$ -fields on the same probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ .  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{F}$ .

**Definition** ( $\alpha$ -mixing:).  $\alpha$ -mixing:  $\alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = \sup_{G \in \mathcal{G}, H \in \mathcal{H}} |\mathbb{P}(G \cap H) - \mathbb{P}(G)\mathbb{P}(H)|$   
 $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent  $\mathcal{G} = \sigma(X_1) = \sigma([X_1 \leq c], c \in \mathbb{R})$  and  $\mathcal{H} = \sigma(X_2)$

- $\alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = 0$  iff  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  are independent
- $0 \leq \alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) \leq .25$  for all  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  sub  $\sigma$ -fields of  $\mathcal{F}$
- $\mathbb{P}(G \cap H) - \mathbb{P}(G)\mathbb{P}(H) = \mathbb{E}[I_G I_H] - \mathbb{E}[I_G]\mathbb{E}[I_H] = \text{Cov}(I_G, I_H)$

$$|\text{Cov}(c_1 I_G, c_2 I_H)| \leq c_1 c_2 \alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$$

**Definition** ( $\phi$ -mixing:).  $\phi$ -mixing:  $\phi(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = \sup_{G \in \mathcal{G}, H \in \mathcal{H}, \mathbb{P}(G) > 0} |\mathbb{P}(H|G) - \mathbb{P}(H)|$

- $\phi(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = 0$  iff  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  are independent
- $0 \leq \phi(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) \leq 1$  for all  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  sub  $\sigma$ -fields of  $\mathcal{F}$
- $\alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) \leq \frac{1}{2} \phi(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$

**Example.**  $X$  is  $G$ -measureable and  $Y$  is  $H$ -measureable,  $|X| \leq C_1$  and  $|Y| \leq C_2$  a.s.  
Then  $|\text{Cov}(X, Y)| \leq 4C_1 C_2 \alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$

## 1.4 9/16/2025 Lecture 4

**Remark** (Last Class Review). Mixing Conditions:

Suppose  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  are two sub  $\sigma$ -fields on the same probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ .  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{F}$ . LOOK INTO TEXTBOOK ASSIGNMENTS

- $\alpha$ -mixing:  $\alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = \sup_{G \in \mathcal{G}, H \in \mathcal{H}} |\mathbb{P}(G \cap H) - \mathbb{P}(G)\mathbb{P}(H)|$
- $\phi$ -mixing:  $\phi(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = \sup_{G \in \mathcal{G}, H \in \mathcal{H}, \mathbb{P}(G) > 0} |\mathbb{P}(H|G) - \mathbb{P}(H)|$

1.  $\alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = 0$  iff  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  are independent



2.  $0 \leq \alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) \leq .25$  for all  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  sub  $\sigma$ -fields of  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $0 \leq \phi(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) \leq 1$  for all  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  sub  $\sigma$ -fields of  $\mathcal{F}$
3.  $\alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) \leq \frac{1}{2}\phi(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$

Equal definition:  $\alpha(X, Y) = \sup_{c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}} |\mathbb{P}(X \leq c_1, Y \leq c_2) - \mathbb{P}(X \leq c_1)\mathbb{P}(Y \leq c_2)|$   
 Equal definition:  $\phi(X, Y) = \sup_{c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{P}(X \leq c_1) > 0} |\mathbb{P}(Y \leq c_2 | X \leq c_1) - \mathbb{P}(Y \leq c_2)|$

**Theorem 3** (Ibragimov 1962).  $\mathbb{P}(G \cap H) - \mathbb{P}(G)\mathbb{P}(H) = \text{Cov}(I_G, I_H)$

$|\text{Cov}(c_1 I_G, c_2 I_H)| \leq c_1 c_2 \alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$

Sup.  $|X| \leq C_1$  and  $|Y| \leq C_2$  a.s.

Then  $|E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)| \leq 4c_1 c_2 \alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) &= E[X(Y - E(Y))] \\ &= E[X(E(Y|X) - E(Y))] \\ &= E[E(XY|X) - E(Y)] \\ |E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)| &= |E[X(E(Y|X) - E(Y))]| \\ &\leq c_1 E|E(Y|X) - E(Y)| \end{aligned}$$

Define  $\eta = \text{sign}(E(Y|X) - E(Y))$

$$\begin{aligned} &= c_1 E[\eta(E(Y|X) - E(Y))] \\ \eta E(Y|X) &= E(\eta Y|X) \\ c_1 E[E(\eta Y|X) - \eta E(Y)] &= c_1 [E(\eta Y) - E(\eta)E(Y)] \\ E(\eta Y) - E(\eta)E(Y) &\leq E[Y[E(\eta|Y) - E(\eta)]] \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\xi = \text{sign}(E(\eta|Y) - E(\eta))$

$$\begin{aligned} E(\eta Y) - E(\eta)E(Y) &\leq c_2 (E[\xi \eta] - E(\xi)E(\eta)) \\ E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) &\leq c_1 c_2 (E[\xi \eta] - E(\xi)E(\eta)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\eta = I_{\eta=1} - I_{\eta=-1}, \xi = I_{\xi=1} - I_{\xi=-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\xi, \eta) &= \text{Cov}(I_{\xi=1} - I_{\xi=-1}, I_{\eta=1} - I_{\eta=-1}) \\ &= \text{Cov}(I_{\xi=1}, I_{\eta=1}) + \text{Cov}(I_{\xi=-1}, I_{\eta=-1}) \\ &\quad - \text{Cov}(I_{\xi=1}, I_{\eta=-1}) - \text{Cov}(I_{\xi=-1}, I_{\eta=1}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\implies |\text{Cov}(\xi, \eta)| \leq 4\alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$$

$$|E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)| \leq 4c_1 c_2 \alpha(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$$

□

*Why are we doing this?*

Consider  $X_1, X_2, \dots \text{IID}(0, \sigma^2)$

$$\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

Now how do we get CLT?

Consider  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  is a weakly stationary S.P, with  $E(X_t) = 0$

$$\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

We can see this is the variance  $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$

$$\text{Var}(S_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$$

$$= n\gamma_x(0) + 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (\gamma_x(j-i))$$

$$= n\gamma_x(0) + 2 \sum_{h=1}^{n-1} (n-h)\gamma_x(h)$$

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = \gamma_x(0) + 2 \sum_{h=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{h}{n}\right) \gamma_x(h)$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Var}\left(\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = \gamma_x(0) + 2 \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \gamma_x(h)$$

We want this infinite series to converge. ie  $\sum_{h=1}^{\infty} |\gamma_x(h)| < \infty$ .

Consider  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  is a strictly stationary S.P.

Define  $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\alpha_n = \alpha(X_0, X_n)$  for  $n \geq 1$

Assume  $E|X_0|^p < \infty$  for some  $p > 2$

$$\text{Then } |\gamma_x(k)| = |\text{Cov}(X_0, X_k)| \leq 8 \|X_0\|_p^2 \alpha_k^{1-\frac{2}{p}}$$

**Corollary** (Only  $Y$  is bounded). Suppose  $E[X^2] < \infty$  for some  $p > 1$  and  $|Y| \leq C$  a.s.

Then  $E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) \leq 6C \|X\|_p [\alpha(X, Y)]^{1-\frac{1}{p}}$  where  $\|X\|_p = (E|X|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

*Proof.* Through Truncation:

$$X_1 = XI_{|X| \leq C_1} \text{ and } X_2 = X - X_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} |E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)| &\leq |E(X_1Y) - E(X_1)E(Y)| + |E(X_2Y) - E(X_2)E(Y)| \\ &\leq 4CC_1\alpha(X, Y) + 2CE|X_2| \end{aligned}$$

$$E|X_2| = E|XI_{|X| > C_1}| \leq \frac{E|X|^p}{C_1^{p-1}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I_{|X| > C_1} &< \frac{|X|^p}{C_1^{p-1}} \\ &= \frac{\|X\|_p^p}{C_1^{p-1}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus } |E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)| \leq 4CC_1\alpha(X, Y) + \frac{\|X\|_p^p}{C_1^{p-1}}.$$

Take  $C_1 = \alpha^{-\frac{1}{p}} \|X\|_p$  to get best bound.

Then the corollary follows.

Look into bernstein inequality

□

**Corollary** (No bounded (Davydov 1968)). Suppose  $E|X|^p < \infty$  and  $E|Y|^q < \infty$  for some  $p, q > 1$  and  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} < 1$  then

$$|E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)| \leq 8 \|X\|_p \|Y\|_q [\alpha(X, Y)]^{1-\frac{1}{p}-\frac{1}{q}}$$

## Review of Hilbert Spaces

**Definition** (Inner Product Space). A vector space  $\mathcal{V}$  over the field  $\mathbb{F}$  is called an inner product space if there exists a fn  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$

- $\langle u, v \rangle = \overline{\langle v, u \rangle}$  for all  $u, v \in \mathcal{V}$
- $\langle u + v, w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle$  for all  $u, v, w \in \mathcal{V}$
- $\langle cu, v \rangle = c\langle u, v \rangle$  for all  $u, v \in \mathcal{V}$  and  $c \in \mathbb{F}$
- $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $u \in \mathcal{V}$
- $\langle u, u \rangle = 0$  iff  $u = 0$

We will see that for the prob space  $\langle X, Y \rangle = E[XY]$  but this only holds a.s.

## 1.5 9/18/2025 Lecture 5

**Definition** (Inner Product Space).  $\mathcal{H}$  is an inner product space with inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$

**Example** (2.2.2).  $L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) = \{X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} | X \text{ is measurable and } E(X^2) < \infty\}$

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = E(XY) = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega)Y(\omega)d\mathbb{P}(\omega)$$

$$\langle X, X \rangle = E(X^2) = 0 \implies X = 0 \text{ a.s.}$$

Define an equivalence relation  $X \sim Y$  if  $X = Y$  a.s.

- The elements of  $L^2$  are equivalence classes
- $\|X\| = \sqrt{\langle X, X \rangle} = \sqrt{E(X^2)}$  is a norm on  $L^2$

**Remark.** IP Properties:

- $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$  (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality)
- $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$  (Triangle Inequality)
- If  $\|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$  and  $\|y_n - y\| \rightarrow 0$  then  $\langle x_n, y_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle$  (Continuity of Inner Product)

**Definition** (Limit of a Sequence in Hilbert Space). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert Space and  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{H}$

We say that  $x_n \rightarrow x$  if  $\|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Suppose  $\{X_n\}$  is a sequence of random variables in  $L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  which converges to  $X$ . Then consider the RV 1 (constant)

$$\text{Consider } \langle X_n, 1 \rangle \rightarrow \langle X, 1 \rangle$$

$$\text{ie } E(X_n) \rightarrow E(X)$$

$$X_n \rightarrow X$$

$$\langle X_n, X_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle X, X \rangle \text{ ie } E(X_n^2) \rightarrow E(X^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} X_n &\rightarrow X, Y_n \rightarrow Y \\ \langle X_n, Y_n \rangle &\rightarrow \langle X, Y \rangle \\ \text{ie } E(X_n Y_n) &\rightarrow E(XY) \end{aligned}$$

**Definition** (Cauchy Sequence). A sequence of elements  $\{x_n\}$  in an inner product space  $\mathcal{H}$  is called a Cauchy sequence if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon$  for all  $n, m \geq N$ .

**Definition** (Hilbert Space). An inner product space  $\mathcal{H}$  is called a Hilbert Space if every Cauchy sequence in  $\mathcal{H}$  converges to an element in  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Example.** Consider  $\mathcal{M}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) = \{X : |X| \leq C, C > 0\}$

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = E(XY)$$

$$X \sim N(0, 1)$$

$$X_n = XI_{|X| \leq n}$$

$$E|X - X_n|^2 = E[X^2 I_{|X| > n}] \rightarrow 0 \text{ by DCT (Dominated Convergence Theorem)}$$

So  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in  $L^2$  but  $X \notin \mathcal{M}$

Thus  $\mathcal{M}$  is not a Hilbert Space.

**Definition** (Complex Random Variable). A complex random variable is a fn  $Z : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $Z = X + iY$  where  $X, Y$  are real random variables.

**Definition** (Closed Subspace). A linear subspace of a Hilbert Space  $\mathcal{H}$  is called a closed subspace if  $\mathcal{M}$  contains its limit points. ie if  $\{x_n\} \subset \mathcal{M}$  and  $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $\mathcal{H}$  then  $x \in \mathcal{M}$ .

**Proposition 2** (2.3.1). Review the definition If  $\mathcal{M}$  is a closed subset of a H.S  $\mathcal{H}$  then the orthogonal complement  $\mathcal{M}^\perp = \{x \in \mathcal{H} : x \perp y, \forall y \in \mathcal{M}\}$  closed linear subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Theorem 4** (2.3.1 Projection Theorem). If  $\mathcal{M}$  is a closed linear subspace of a H.S  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  then

(i) there is a unique element  $\hat{x} \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\|x - \hat{x}\| = \inf_{y \in \mathcal{M}} \|x - y\|$

(ii)  $\hat{x} \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\|x - \hat{x}\| = \inf_{y \in \mathcal{M}} \|x - y\|$  iff  $\hat{x} \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $x - \hat{x} \in \mathcal{M}^\perp$

**Definition** (2.4.1 Closed Span). The closed span  $\overline{\text{sp}}\{X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  of any subset  $\{X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  of a H.S  $\mathcal{H}$  is the smallest closed linear subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$  containing  $\{X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}\}$ .

**Definition** (Orthonormal Set). A set  $\{e_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  of element of an IP space is said to be

$$\text{orthonormal if } \langle e_s, e_t \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & s = t \\ 0 & s \neq t \end{cases} \text{ for all } s, t \in \mathcal{T}$$

**Definition** (Complete Orthonormal Set). An orthonormal set  $\{e_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  in a H.S  $\mathcal{H}$  is said to be complete if  $\overline{\text{sp}}\{e_t, t \in \mathcal{T}\} = \mathcal{H}$

**Definition** (Seperability). The HS is separable if it has a finite or countable infinite complete orthonormal set.

**Example** (Separable HS). 1.  $\mathbb{R}^d$   
 2.  $L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

**Theorem 5** (2.4.2). If  $\mathcal{H}$  is a separable H.S and  $\mathcal{H} = \overline{\text{sp}}\{e_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  where  $\{e_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  is an orthonormal set then

- The set of all finite linear combinations of  $\{e_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$  is dense in  $\mathcal{H}$ . ie for every  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $y = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j e_{t_j}$  such that  $\|x - y\| < \epsilon$
- $x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle x, e_i \rangle e_i$  for each  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  ie  $\|x - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle x, e_i \rangle e_i\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_i \rangle|^2$  for each  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  (Parseval's Identity)
- $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle x, e_i \rangle \langle y, e_i \rangle$  for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$
- $x = 0 \iff \langle x, e_i \rangle = 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$

## 1.6 9/23/2025 Lecture 6

**Definition** (ARMA models:  $\text{ARMA}(p, q)$ ). Let  $\{Z_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$ . The process  $\{X_t, t \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is said to be an  $\text{ARMA}(p, q)$  process if

- $\{X_t\}$  is stationary for all  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$
- $X_t - \phi_1 X_{t-1} - \dots - \phi_p X_{t-p} = Z_t + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q}$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_p, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$  are real constants with  $\phi_p, \theta_q \neq 0$ .

**Remark.** There are a few special cases of the  $\text{ARMA}(p, q)$  model:

- When  $q = 0$  we can write the model as  $X_t - \phi_1 X_{t-1} - \dots - \phi_p X_{t-p} = Z_t$  and call it an  $\text{AR}(p)$  model.
- When  $p = 0$  we can write the model as  $X_t = Z_t + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q}$  and call it a  $\text{MA}(q)$  model.
- When  $p = 0$  and  $q = 0$  we have  $X_t = Z_t$  and call it a white noise model.
- $\{X_t\}$  is defined relative to the white noise process  $\{Z_t\}$ .
- Stationarity is a critical requirement for the  $\text{ARMA}(p, q)$  model.
- AR polynomial:  $\phi(z) = 1 - \phi_1 z - \dots - \phi_p z^p$
- MA polynomial:  $\theta(z) = 1 + \theta_1 z + \dots + \theta_q z^q$
- Backshift operator:  $BX_t = X_{t-1}$ ,  $B^2 X_t = X_{t-2}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $B^k X_t = X_{t-k}$
- $\text{AR}(p)$  model:  $\phi(B)X_t = Z_t$
- $\text{MA}(q)$  model:  $X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$

- ARMA( $p, q$ ) model:  $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$
- More general model with a mean:  $\{X_t + \mu : t \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- Can also be characterized by  $X_t = \phi_0 + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + Z_t + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q}$  where  $\phi_0 = \mu(1 - \phi_1 - \dots - \phi_p)$

**Example** (Stationary solution to AR(1)).

$$\begin{aligned}
X_t &= \phi X_{t-1} + Z_t \\
&= Z_t + \phi(Z_{t-1} + \phi X_{t-2}) = Z_t + \phi Z_{t-1} + \phi^2 X_{t-2} \\
&= Z_t + \phi Z_{t-1} + \phi^2(Z_{t-2} + \phi X_{t-3}) = Z_t + \phi Z_{t-1} + \phi^2 Z_{t-2} + \phi^3 X_{t-3} \\
&\vdots \\
&= Z_t + \phi Z_{t-1} + \phi^2 Z_{t-2} + \dots + \phi^k Z_{t-k} + \phi^{k+1} X_{t-(k+1)}
\end{aligned}$$

If  $|\phi| < 1$  then  $\phi^{k+1} X_{t-(k+1)} \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$

Thus the stationary solution is  $X_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \phi^j Z_{t-j}$

If  $|\phi| \geq 1$  then there is no stationary solution since we can see that  $X_{t+1} = \phi X_t + Z_{t+1} \iff X_t = -\frac{1}{\phi} Z_{t+1} + \frac{1}{\phi} X_{t+1}$

$$\begin{aligned}
X_t &= \phi^{-1} X_{t+1} - \phi^{-1} Z_{t+1} \\
&= \phi^{-1}(\phi^{-1} X_{t+2} - \phi^{-1} Z_{t+2}) - \phi^{-1} Z_{t+1} \\
&= \phi^{-2} X_{t+2} - \phi^{-1} Z_{t+1} - \phi^{-2} Z_{t+2} \\
&\vdots \\
&= \phi^{-k} X_{t+k} - \sum_{j=1}^k \phi^{-j} Z_{t+j} \\
&= -\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \phi^{-j} Z_{t+j}
\end{aligned}$$

We will see later that why this is the unique stationary solution when  $|\phi| < 1$

**Remark.** Uniqueness of stationary solution to AR(1):

- If  $X_t = \phi X_{t-1} + Z_t$ , where  $|\phi| > 1$  then we can rewrite this as  $X_t = \phi^* X_{t-1} + Z_t^*$  with  $\phi^* < 1$  and  $Z_t^* \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$  Homework problem

**Definition** (3.1.3: Causality). An ARMA( $p, q$ ) process  $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$  is said to be causal if there exists a sequence of constants  $\{\psi_j\}$  such that  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty$  and  $X_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j Z_{t-j}$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proposition 3 (3.1.1).** *If  $\{X_t, t \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a sequence of rv st.  $\sup_t E|X_t| < \infty$  and if  $\{\psi_j\}_{j \geq 0}$  is a sequence of numbers s.t  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty$  then the series  $\psi(B)X_t = \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j B^j\right) X_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j X_{t-j}$  converges absolutely w.p 1  
If in addition  $\sup_t E(X_t^2) < \infty$  then the series converges in  $L^2$  to the same limit.*

*Proof.* • Consider  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| |X_{t-j}|$ , which always exists (may be infinite)

- Monotone Convergence Theorem implies  $E\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| |X_{t-j}|\right) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| E|X_{t-j}| \leq (\sup_t E|X_t|) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty \implies \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| |X_{t-j}| < \infty$  w.p 1
- $\implies \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j X_{t-j}$  converges absolutely w.p 1, call the limit  $W_t$ .
- Verify  $\sum_{j=0}^n \psi_j X_{t-j}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $L^2$ : We do this by showing  $\|\sum_{j=n}^m \psi_j X_{t-j}\|_2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$ .
- So it converges in  $L^2$  to some limit  $S_t$ .
- $E(S_t - W_t)^2 = E[\liminf_n (S - \sum_{j=0}^n \psi_j X_{t-j})^2]$  by Fatou's Lemma  
 $\leq \liminf_n E(S - \sum_{j=0}^n \psi_j X_{t-j})^2 = 0$   
 $\implies S_t = W_t$  a.s. since the second moment is 0.

□

## 1.7 9/25/2025 Lecture 7

**Remark (Review).** Review of last week:

- ARMA( $p, q$ ) process:  $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$  where  $\{Z_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$
- MA( $q$ ) process:  $X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$

**Proposition 4 (3.1.2).** *If  $\{X_t\}$  is a stationary process with autocovariance function  $\gamma_x(\cdot)$  and if  $\{\psi_j\}_{j \geq 0}$ ,  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty$ , define  $Y_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j X_{t-j}$  (converges absolutely, w.p 1). Then  $Y_t$  is also stationary with autocovariance function  $\gamma_y(h) = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_j \psi_k \gamma_x(h + j - k)$  where  $\psi_j = 0$  for  $j < 0$ .*

*Proof.* We need to show that  $E(Y_t)$  is constant and  $\text{Cov}(Y_{t+h}, Y_t)$  depends only on  $h$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
E(Y_t) &= E\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j X_{t-j}\right) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j E(X_{t-j}) = \mu_x \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \text{ (constant)} \\
\text{Cov}(Y_{t+h}, Y_t) &= E[(Y_{t+h} - E(Y_{t+h}))(Y_t - E(Y_t))] \\
&= E\left[\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j (X_{t+h-j} - \mu_x)\right) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_k (X_{t-k} - \mu_x)\right)\right] \\
&= E\left[\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \psi_k (X_{t+h-j} - \mu_x)(X_{t-k} - \mu_x)\right] \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \psi_k E[(X_{t+h-j} - \mu_x)(X_{t-k} - \mu_x)] \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \psi_k \gamma_x(h+j-k) \\
&= \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_j \psi_k \gamma_x(h+j-k) \text{ where } \psi_j = 0 \text{ for } j < 0
\end{aligned}$$

□

**Remark.** Let  $\alpha(B) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_j B^j$  and  $\beta(B) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_j B^j$   $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\alpha_j| < \infty$   $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\beta_j| < \infty$ . Then the product  $\psi(B) = \alpha(B)\beta(B) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j B^j$  then  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty$

**Theorem 6** (3.1.1.a). *If  $\phi(z)$  and  $\theta(z)$  have no common zeros, if  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for  $|z| = 1$  and if  $\{Z_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$  then exists a unique stationary solution given by*

$$X_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j Z_{t-j} \text{ where } \psi(z) = \frac{\theta(z)}{\phi(z)} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j z^j$$

and  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty$ . so that  $X_t$  is well-defined and causal.

*Proof.* (i) Find Solution

If  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for  $|z| = 1$  then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{\phi(z)} &:= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \zeta_j z^j =: \zeta(z), |z| \leq 1 + \epsilon \\
&\implies |\zeta_j| \leq (1 + \epsilon/2)^{-j} \text{ for some } K > 0
\end{aligned}$$

Consider  $\frac{1}{1-z} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} z^j$  for  $|z| < 1$

Consider  $\frac{1}{1-0.5z} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (0.5z)^j$  for  $|z| < 2$

$\phi(z) = \prod_{j=1}^p (1 - w_j z)$ , ie each of the roots are  $\frac{1}{w_j}$ .

Then  $\frac{1}{\phi(z)} = \prod_{j=1}^p \frac{1}{1-w_j z}$



$$\implies \frac{1}{\phi(z)} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \zeta_j z^j \text{ for } |z| < \min_{1 \leq j \leq p} |w_j|^{-1}$$

We know that  $\forall j, |w_j| < 1$  and then if we take  $\epsilon = \min_{1 \leq j \leq p} |w_j|^{-1} - 1 > 0$  then we are done.

(ii) Find Stationary Solution

Define  $X_t = \frac{\theta(B)}{\phi(B)} Z_t$  which is stationary

$$\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$$

(iii) Uniqueness of Stationary Solution

Suppose  $\{W_t\}$  is another stationary solution to  $\phi(B)W_t = \theta(B)Z_t$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(B)W_t &= \theta(B)Z_t \\ \zeta(B[\phi(B)W_t]) &= \zeta(B[\theta(B)Z_t]) \\ \implies W_t &= \zeta(B)[\theta(B)Z_t] = \frac{\theta(B)}{\phi(B)} Z_t = X_t \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 7** (3.1.1.b). Assume  $\phi(z)$  and  $\theta(z)$  have no common zeros. If there exists a stationary solution which is also causal then  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for  $|z| \leq 1$ .

## 1.8 9/30/2025 Lecture 8

**Remark** (Review). Prior class review:

- ARMA( $p, q$ ) process:  $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$  where  $\{Z_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$

$\phi(z)$  and  $\theta(z)$  have no common zeros.

**Theorem 8** (3.1.1.a & .b). (a) If  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for all  $|z| \leq 1$  then there exists a unique stationary solution given by

$$X_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j Z_{t-j} \text{ where } \psi(z) = \frac{\theta(z)}{\phi(z)} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j z^j$$

and they satisfy  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty$ .

(b) If there exists a stationary solution which is also causal then  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for all  $|z| \leq 1$ .

**Remark.** Not proving

- If  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for all  $|z| = 1$  then there a unique stationary solution.
- If  $\phi(z) = 0$  for some  $|z| = 1$  then there is no stationary solution.
- If  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for all  $|z| = 1$  and  $\{X_t\}$  is the unique stationary solution then one can find  $\hat{\phi}(z)$  and  $WN\{Z_t^*\}$  st  $\hat{\phi}(z)X_t = \phi(B)Z_t^*$  and  $\hat{\phi}(z) \neq 0$  for all  $|z| \leq 1$ .
- Only Focus on Causal and Invertable ARMA models

**Definition** (3.1.4). Suppose  $\{X_t\}$  is a stationary solution of  $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$ , it is said to be invertible if  $\exists \pi_j$  such that  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\pi_j| < \infty$  and  $Z_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \pi_j X_{t-j}$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 9** (3.1.2). Suppose  $X_t$  is the unique stationary solution of  $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$ , then it is invertible iff  $\theta(z) \neq 0$  for all  $|z| \leq 1$ .

When the condition holds  $\{\pi_j\}$  are determined by  $\pi(z) = \frac{\phi(z)}{\theta(z)} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \pi_j z^j$ .

**Remark.** IF the definition of invertability is relaxed to:

$$Z_t \in \overline{\text{sp}}\{X_t, X_{t-1}, \dots\}$$

then the condition relaxed to  $\theta(z) \neq 0$  for all  $|z| < 1$

**Definition** (3.2.1). Suppose  $\{Z_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$ , we say  $\{X_t\}$  is an infinite order moving average denoted by  $MA(\infty)$  if

$$\exists \{\psi_j\} \text{ such that } \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\psi_j| < \infty \text{ and } X_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j Z_{t-j}$$

May relax condition to  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j^2 < \infty$  then take  $X_t$  as the  $L^2$  limit.  
Sometimes  $MA(\infty)$  is called the linear process.

This is related to the Wold Decomposition Theorem.

**Proposition 5** (3.2.1). If  $\{X_t\}$  is a zero-mean stationary process with autocovariance function  $\gamma_x(\cdot)$  such that  $\gamma_x(h) = 0$  for  $|h| > q$  and  $\gamma_x(q) \neq 0$  then  $\{X_t\}$  is an  $MA(q)$  process.

IE:  $\exists WN\{Z_t\}$  s.t.  $X_t = Z_t + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q}$  where  $\theta_q \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* • Find the WN  $\{Z_t\}$

- Show that  $X_t = Z_t + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q}$  for some  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$  with  $\theta_q \neq 0$

□

**Definition** (Linear Predictor). Suppose  $Y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $E[Y] = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $E[\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{0}$ .

$$\text{Cov}\left(\begin{bmatrix} Y \\ \mathbf{X} \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_Y^2 & \sigma'_{\mathbf{YX}} \\ \sigma_{\mathbf{YX}} & \Sigma_X \end{bmatrix}$$

A linear predictor takes the form  $C^T \mathbf{X}$  where  $C \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

The best linear predictor (BLP) of  $Y$  based on  $\mathbf{X}$  is the linear predictor  $\hat{Y} = C^T \mathbf{X}$  that minimizes the mean squared error  $\min_{C \in \mathbb{R}^d} E[(Y - C^T \mathbf{X})^2]$ .

$$\begin{aligned} E[(Y - C^T \mathbf{X})^2] &= E[Y^2] - 2C^T E[Y\mathbf{X}] + C^T E[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T]C \\ &= \sigma_Y^2 - 2C^T \sigma_{\mathbf{YX}} + C^T \Sigma_X C \end{aligned}$$

The best solution is given taking the partial derivative and setting it to 0:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial C} E[(Y - C^T \mathbf{X})^2] &= -2\sigma_{\mathbf{YX}} + 2\Sigma_X C = 0 \\ \implies \hat{C} &= \Sigma_X^{-1} \sigma_{\mathbf{YX}} \\ \implies \hat{Y} &= \hat{C}^T \mathbf{X} = \sigma'_{\mathbf{YX}} \Sigma_X^{-1} \mathbf{X} \\ E[(Y - \hat{Y})^2] &= \sigma_Y^2 - \sigma'_{\mathbf{YX}} \Sigma_X^{-1} \sigma_{\mathbf{YX}} \end{aligned}$$

**Remark.**  $\{X_t\}$  is a mean-zero stationary process.  
 Want to predict  $X_{k+1}$  based on  $\{X_1, \dots, X_k\}$ .

$$\min_{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_k} E[(X_{k+1} - \hat{X}_{k+1})^2]$$

Where  $\hat{X}_{k+1} = \sum_{j=1}^k \phi_j X_{k+1-j}$

$$Gamma_{k+1} = \text{Cov}\left(\begin{bmatrix} X_{k+1} \\ X_k \\ \vdots \\ X_1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma(0) & \gamma(\mathbf{k})' \\ \gamma(\mathbf{k}) & \Gamma_k \end{bmatrix}$$

Where  $\mathbf{gamma}(\mathbf{k}) = [\gamma(1), \dots, \gamma(k)]'$  and  $\Gamma_k = [\gamma(i-j)]_{i,j=1}^k$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\phi}_1 \\ \hat{\phi}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\phi}_k \end{bmatrix} = \Gamma_k^{-1} \gamma(\mathbf{k})$$