

Time Series Analysis

Spectral analysis I

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Informatik



Outline

- Spectral analysis
- Stochastic periodic process
- Periodogram
- Spectral density
- Spectral density of known processes
- Sample spectral density

Spectral analysis

Spectral analysis is an application of **Fourier analysis**.

Fourier analysis decomposes a time series into sinusoidal components.

- Spectral analysis interprets these components in terms of their **power spectrum**.
- **Power** quantifies how much of the TS variance is contributed by a specific frequency.
- **Spectrum** refers to the distribution of frequencies that composes the TS.

Thus, spectral analysis studies the **distribution of variance across frequencies** within a time series.

- Periodic TS: identifies **dominant** frequencies (harmonics of the fundamental frequencies).
- Aperiodic TS: identifies a **continuum** of frequencies, representing the TS characteristics.

Like a prism for light, spectral analysis separates TS into their constituent frequencies.



D-Kuru, wikipedia

Stochastic periodic process

Consider a **zero-mean periodic process** with period $P = 1/\omega$ of the form

$$X_t = R \cos(2\pi(\omega \cdot t + \phi))$$

where the magnitude (amplitude) R and the phase ϕ are both **independent random variables**.

We have seen that X_t could be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} X_t &= R(\cos(2\pi\omega t) \cos(2\pi\phi) - \sin(2\pi\omega t) \sin(2\pi\phi)) && (\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos(\alpha) \cos(\beta) - \sin(\alpha) \sin(\beta)) \\ &= A \cos(2\pi\omega t) + B \sin(2\pi\omega t) = A c_t + B s_t \end{aligned}$$

with $A = R \cos(2\pi\phi)$, $B = -R \sin(2\pi\phi)$, $c_t = \cos(2\pi\omega t)$ and $s_t = \sin(2\pi\omega t)$.

(recall that $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$)

Then $R^2 = A^2 + B^2$ and $\phi = \arctan\left(-\frac{B}{A}\right)/2\pi$.

$$A, B \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2), \text{ independent} \iff R^2 \sim \chi_2^2, \quad \phi \sim \text{Unif}(-\pi, \pi), \quad \text{independent}$$

Stationarity of the periodic process

With $A, B \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ uncorrelated, the process $X_t = Ac_t + Bs_t$ is **stationary**.

Mean:

$$E[X_t] = E[Ac_t + Bs_t] = c_t E[A] + s_t E[B] = 0$$

Auto-covariance:

$$\begin{aligned} cov(X_{t+h}, X_t) &= cov(Ac_{t+h} + Bs_{t+h}, Ac_t + Bs_t) \\ &= c_{t+h} cov(A, Ac_t + Bs_t) + s_{t+h} cov(B, Ac_t + Bs_t) \\ &= c_{t+h} c_t cov(A, A) + c_{t+h} s_t cov(A, B) + s_{t+h} c_t cov(B, A) + s_{t+h} s_t cov(B, B) \\ &= c_{t+h} c_t \sigma^2 + s_{t+h} s_t \sigma^2 = \sigma^2 c_h = \gamma_h \end{aligned}$$

($\cos(\alpha - \beta) = \cos(\alpha) \cos(\beta) + \sin(\alpha) \sin(\beta)$)

Variance:

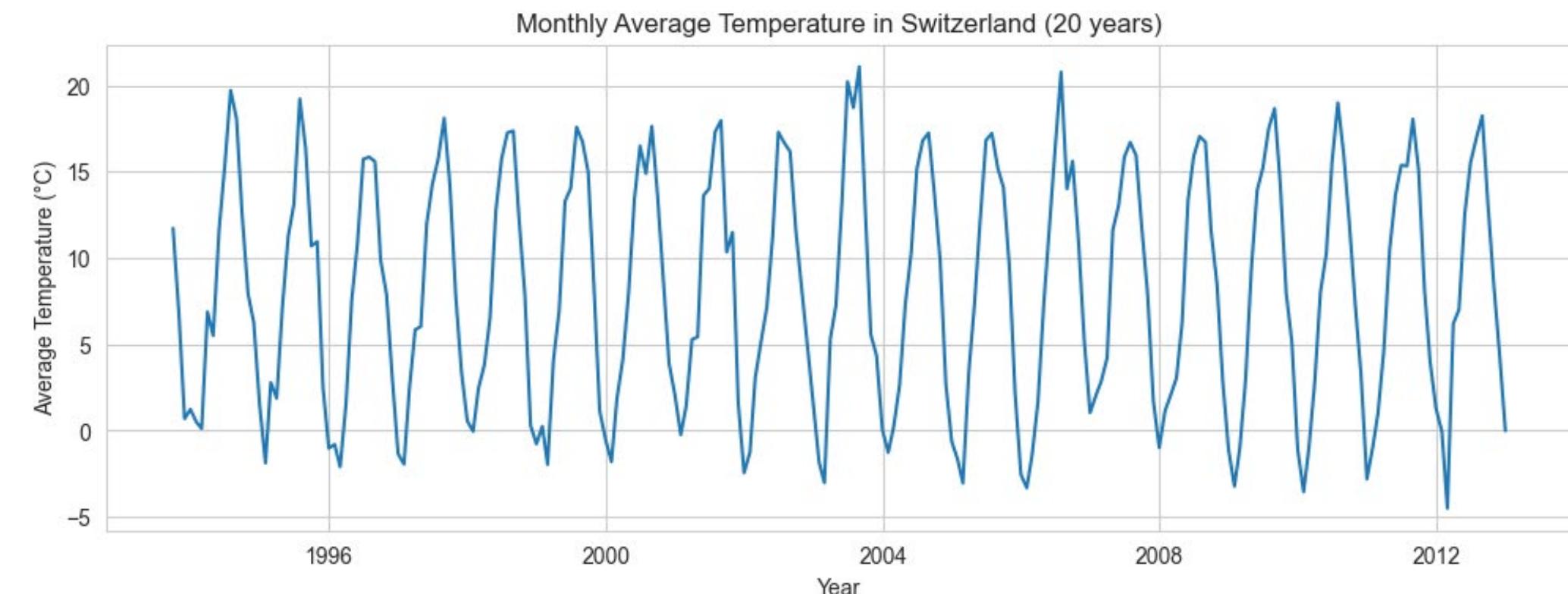
$$Var(X_t) = Var(Ac_t + Bs_t) = c_t^2 Var(A) + s_t^2 Var(B) + 2 cov(A, B) = \sigma^2(c_t^2 + s_t^2) = \sigma^2 = \gamma_0$$

Given a, b realization of A, B , then an **estimate** of σ^2 (i.e., the $E[R^2]$) is $\hat{\sigma}^2 = a^2 + b^2$.

Note on deterministic seasonality

We can model the signal using **deterministic** components:

$$X_t = \mu + r \cdot \cos(2\pi\omega t) + \epsilon_t \text{ with } \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$



The **mean** is time dependent implying **non-stationarity**:

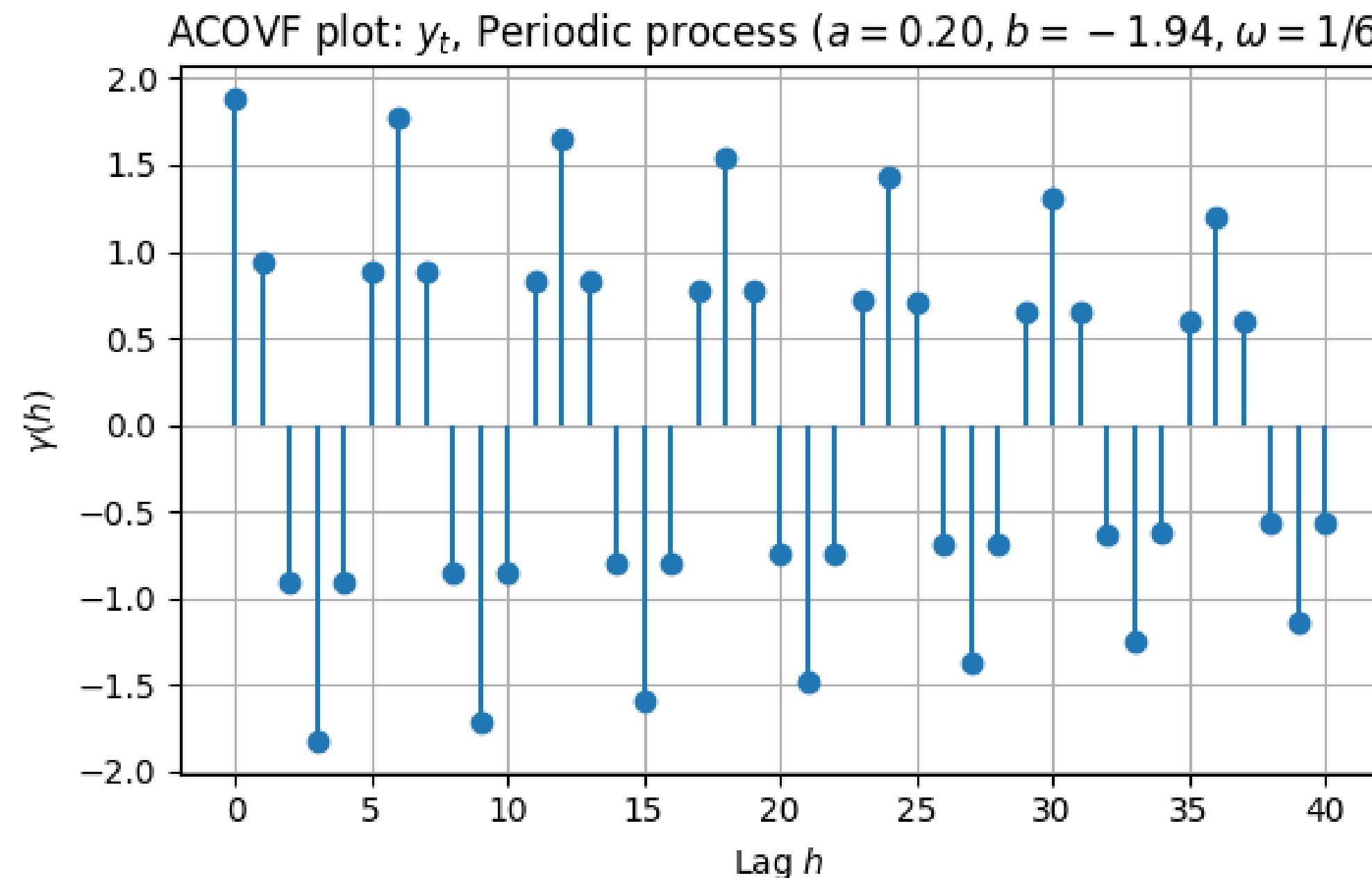
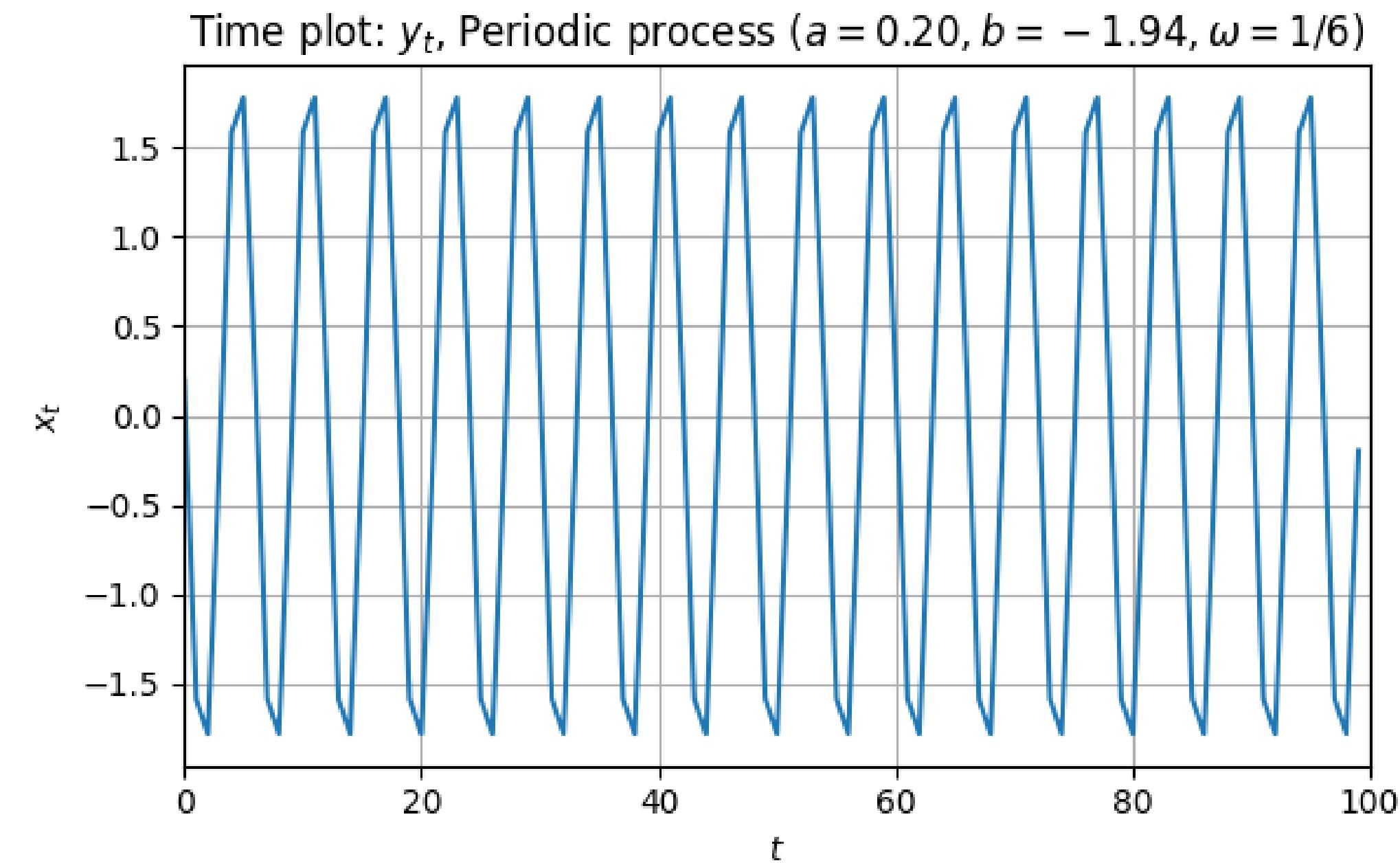
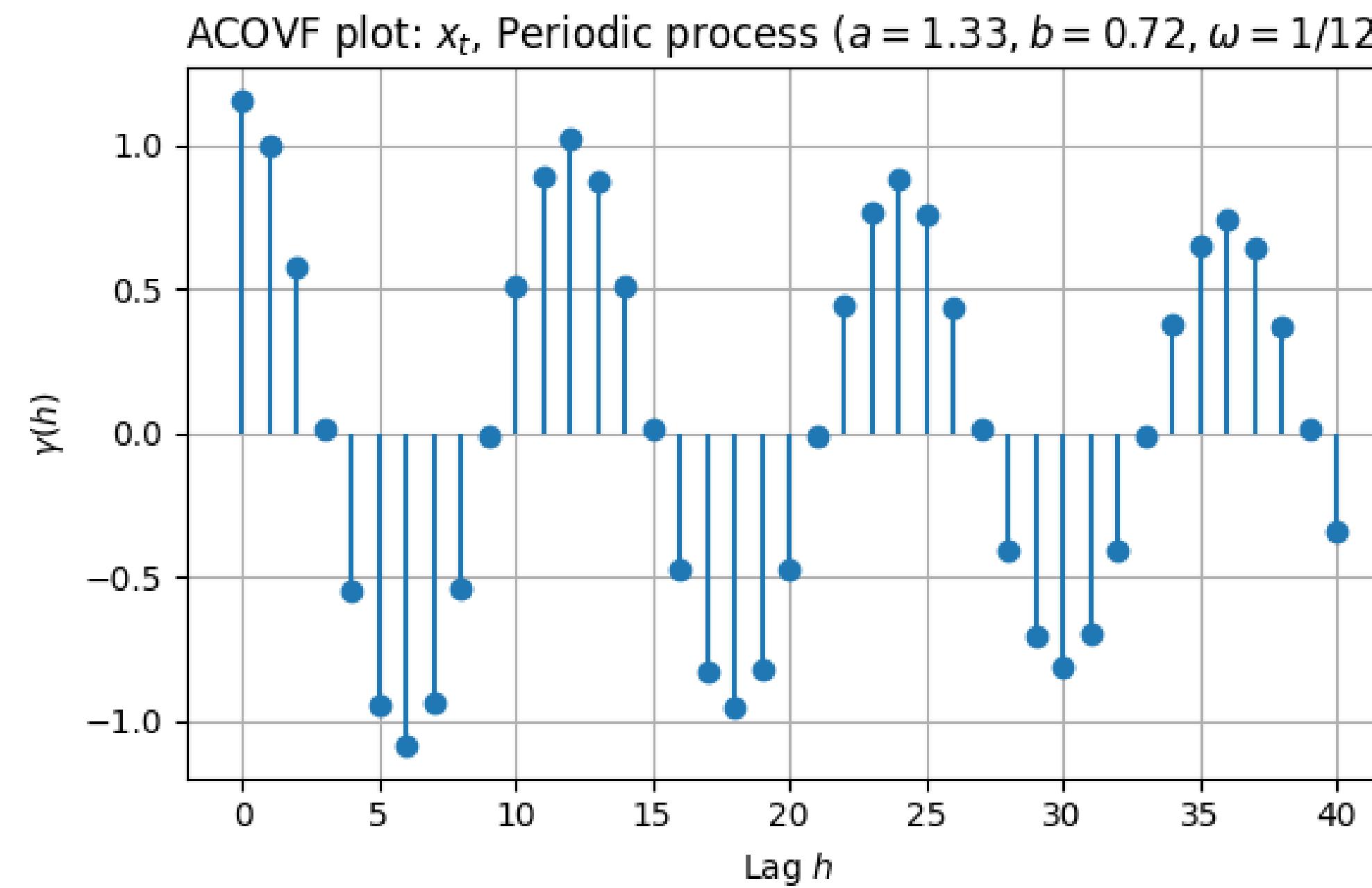
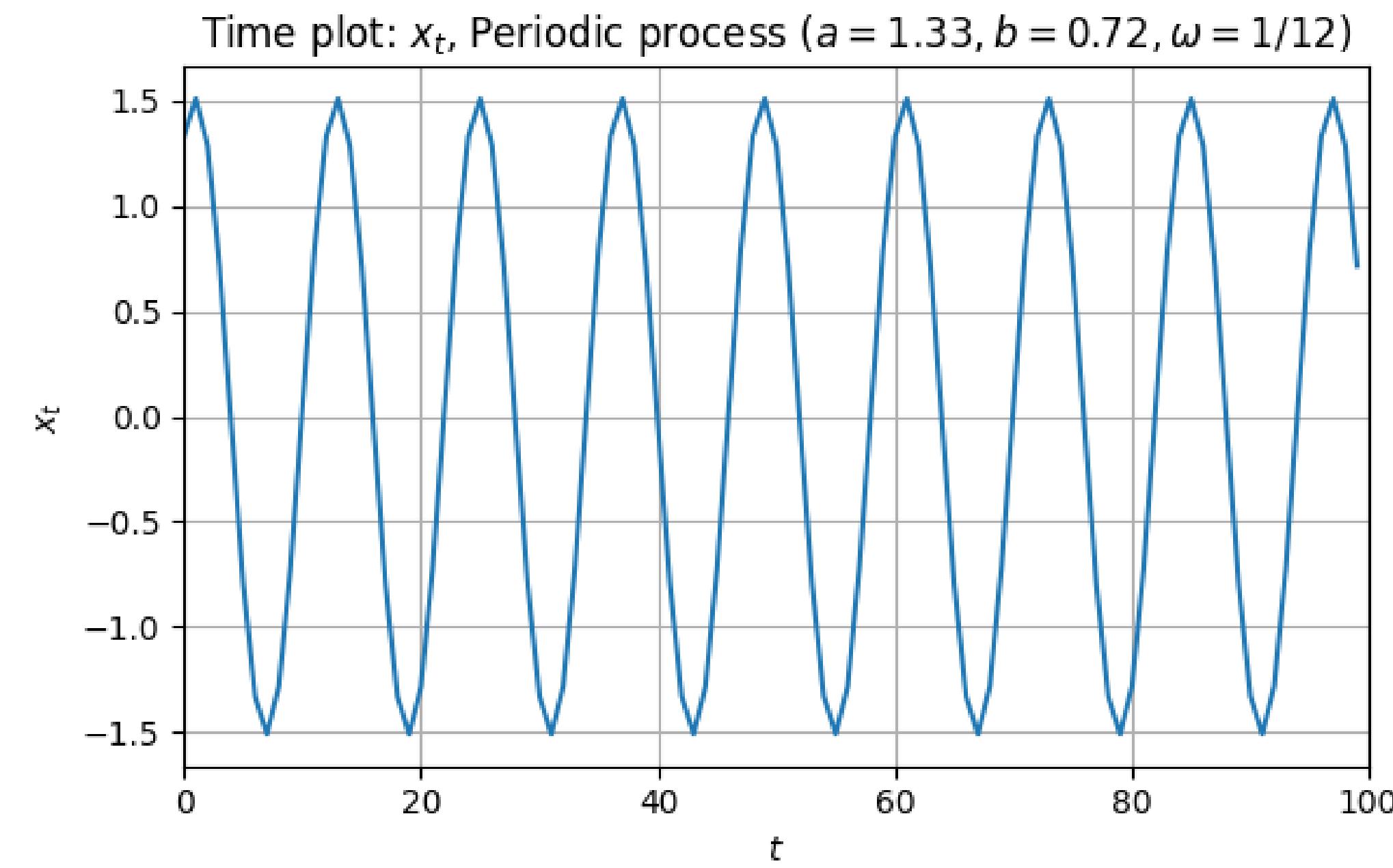
$$E[X_t] = E[\mu + r \cdot \cos(2\pi\omega t) + \epsilon_t] = \mu + r \cdot \cos(2\pi\omega t) + E[\epsilon_t] = \mu + r \cdot \cos(2\pi\omega t)$$

Intuition: if you know the month, you can predict the expected value.

- The mean in January is different from the mean in July.

With stochastic periodic process the periodic behavior comes from the autocovariance, not the mean.

- The mean remain constant, while the autocovariance depends only on lag h , implying **stationarity**.



Mixtures of periodic series

A generalization of the periodic process is

$$X_t = \sum_{j=1}^k (A_j c_{t,j} + B_j s_{t,j})$$

with $A_j, B_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_j^2)$ **uncorrelated** random variables $\forall j$, and $c_{t,j} = \cos(2\pi\omega_j t)$, $s_{t,j} = \sin(2\pi\omega_j t)$.

X_t is a **zero-mean stationary periodic** process with autocovariance

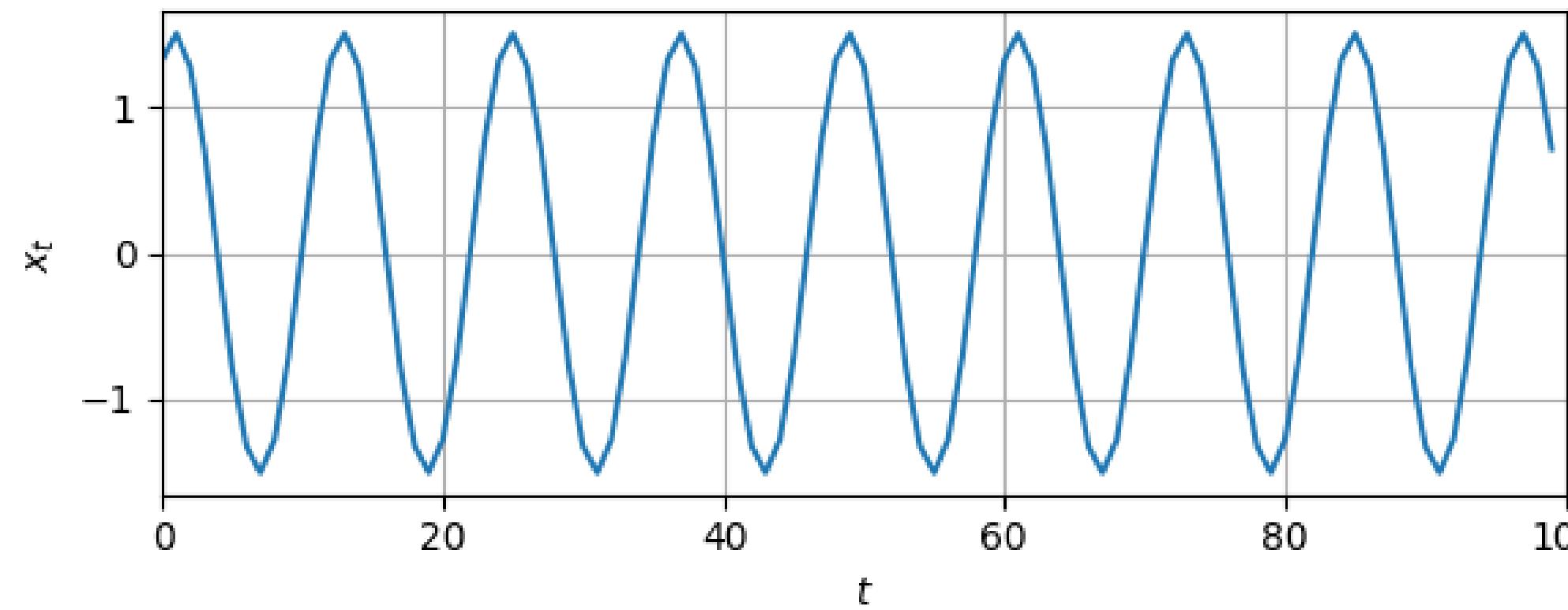
$$\gamma_h = \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j^2 c_{h,j}$$

Given a_j, b_j realization of A_j, B_j then an **estimate** of σ_j^2 (i.e., $E[R_j^2]$) is $\hat{\sigma}_j^2 = a_j^2 + b_j^2$.

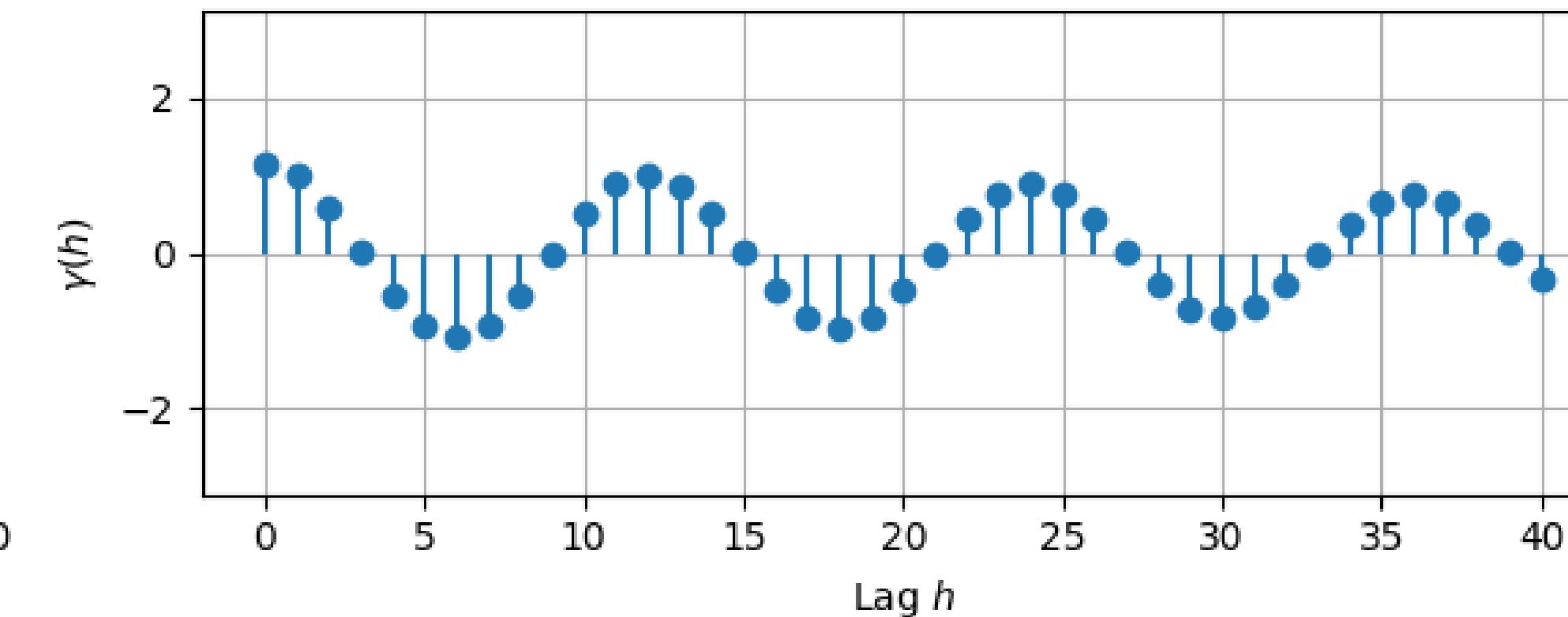
The estimate of the **total variance** is

$$\hat{\gamma}_0 = \sum_{j=1}^k (a_j^2 + b_j^2)$$

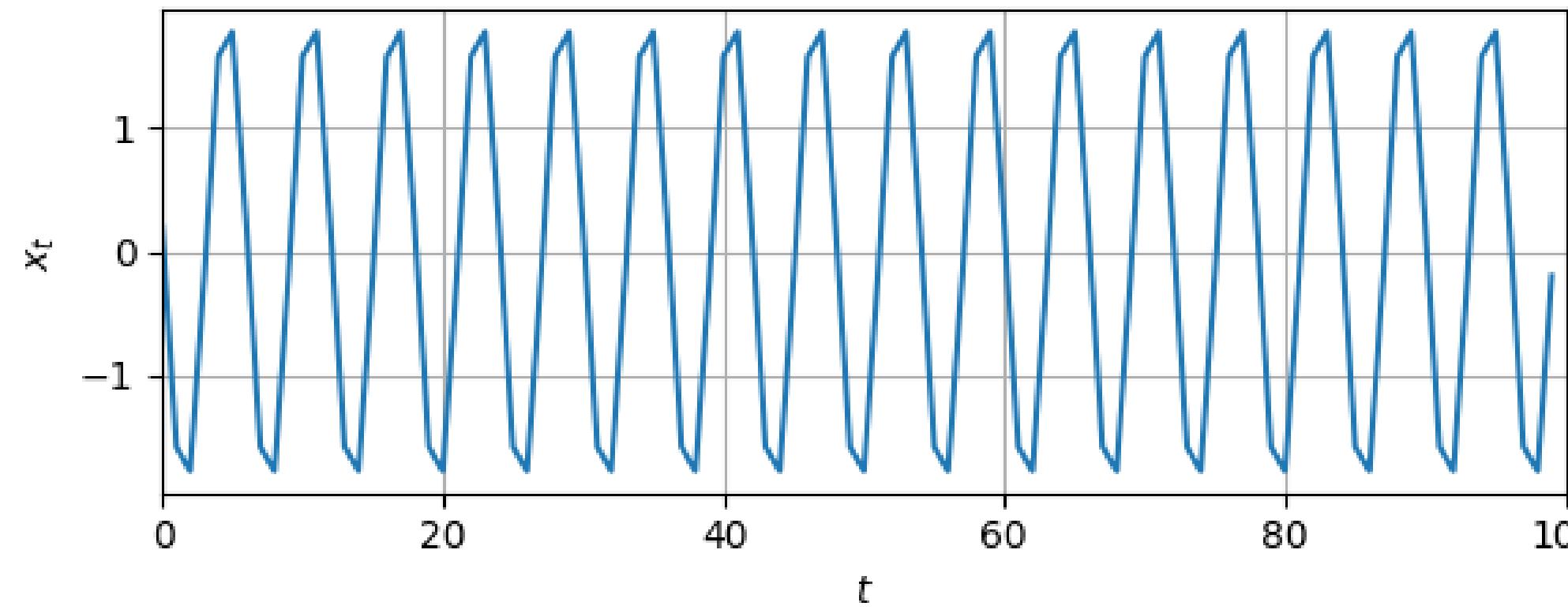
Periodic process ($a = 1.33, b = 0.72, \omega = 1/12$)



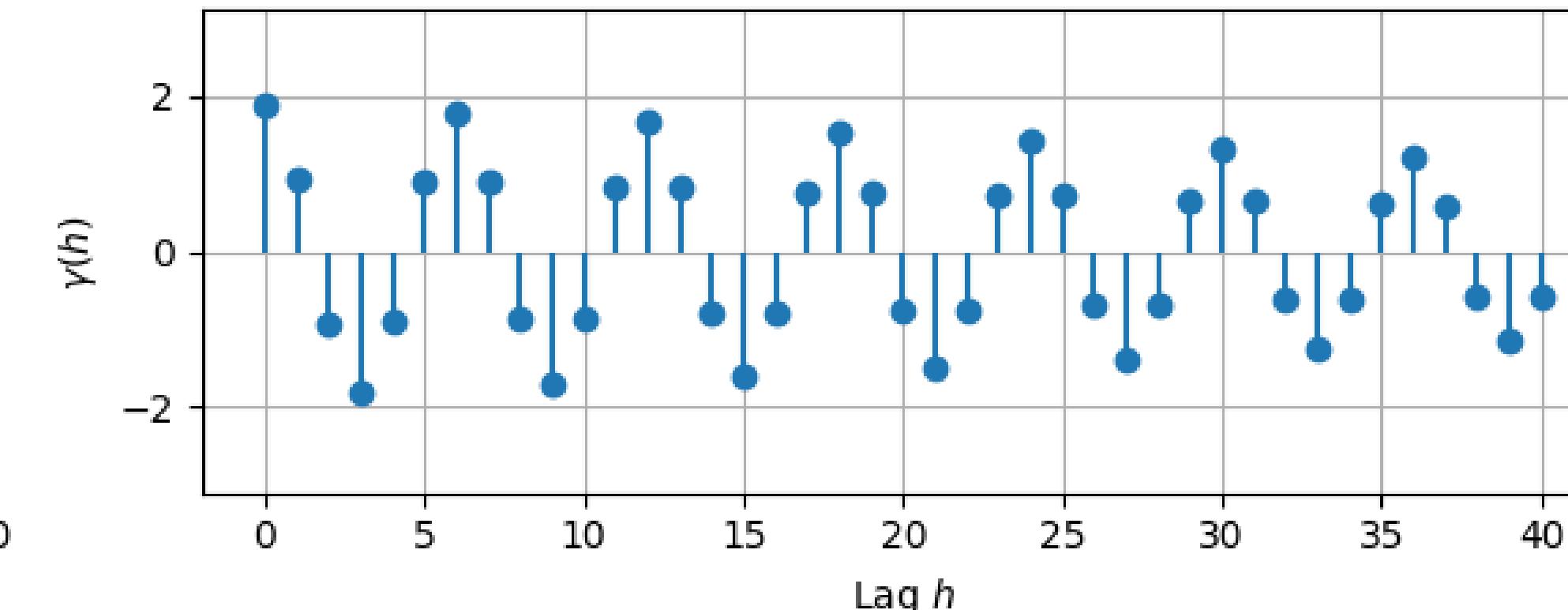
ACOVF plot: Periodic process ($a = 1.33, b = 0.72, \omega = 1/12$)



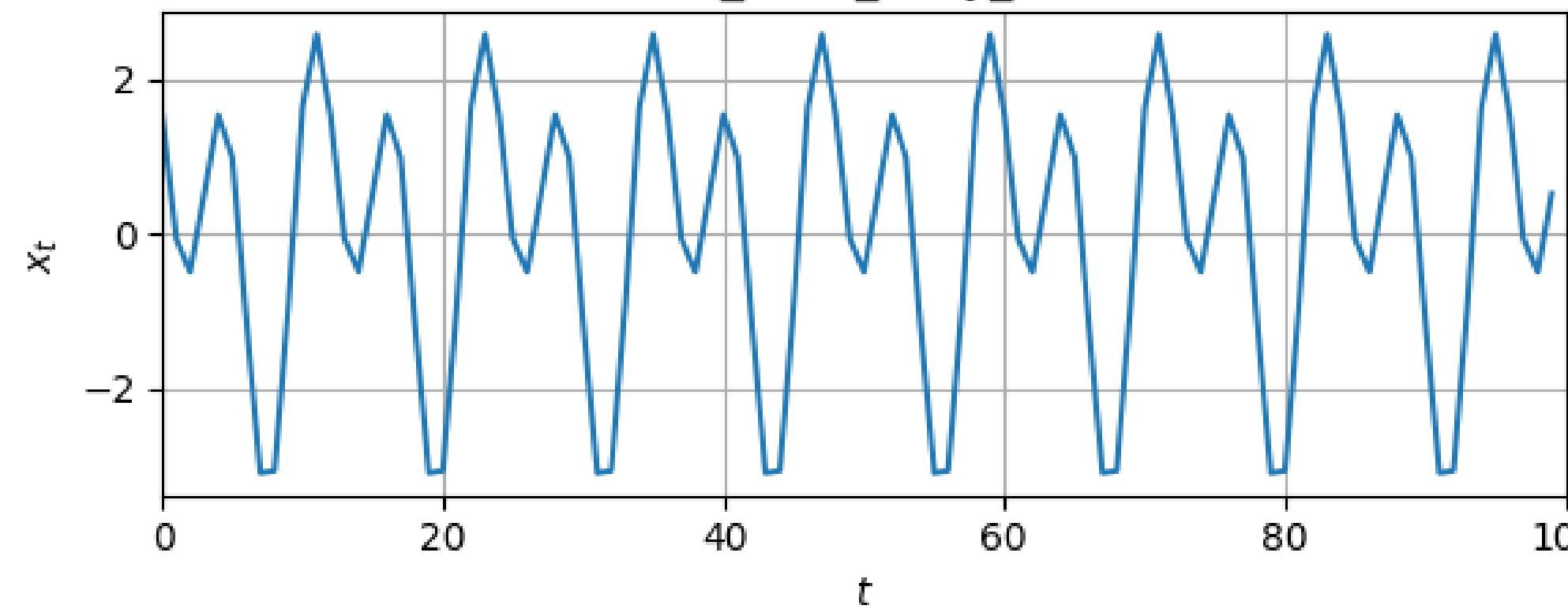
Periodic process ($a = 0.20, b = -1.94, \omega = 1/6$)



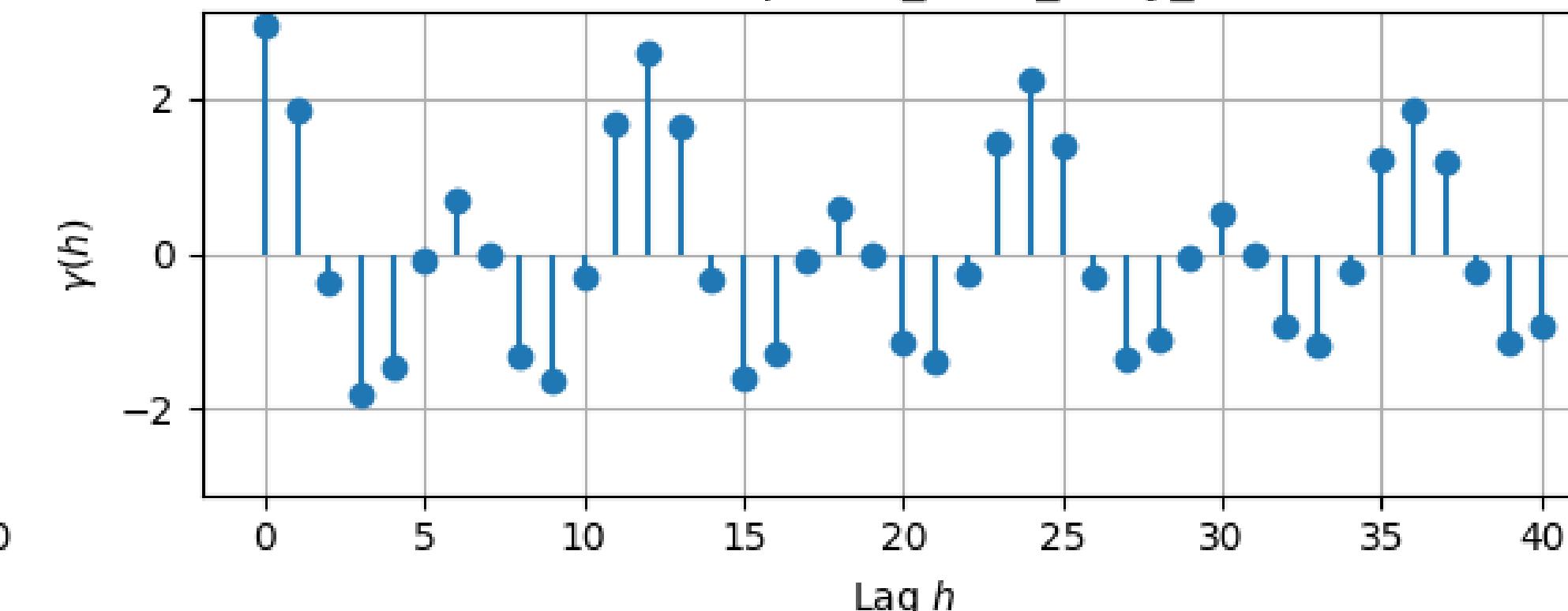
ACOVF plot: Periodic process ($a = 0.20, b = -1.94, \omega = 1/6$)



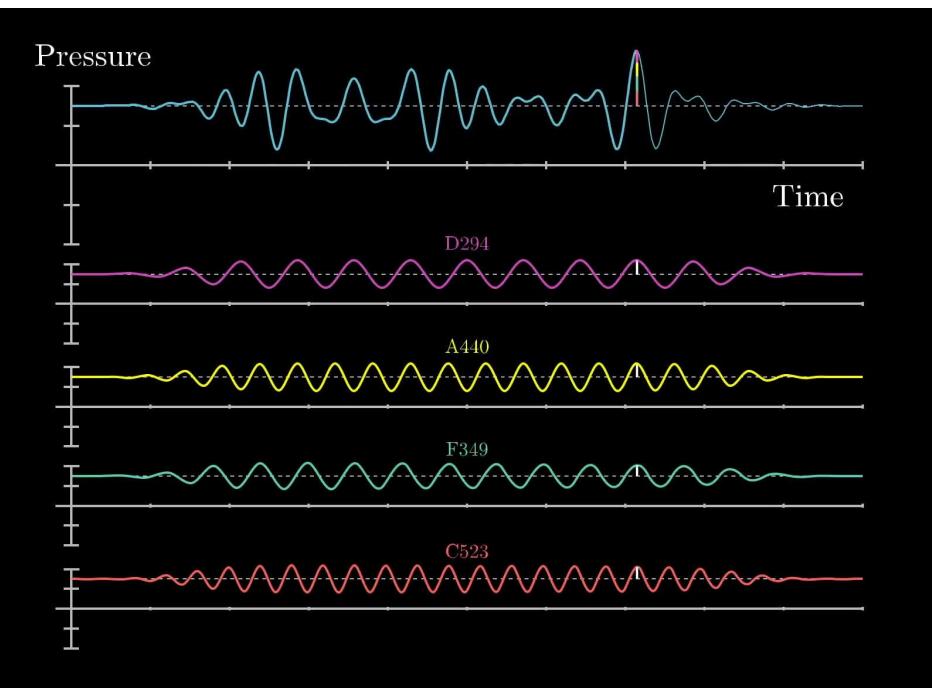
$z_t = x_t + y_t$



ACOVF plot: $z_t = x_t + y_t$



Recap – Fourier analysis



3Blue1Brown

A TS realization $x = \{x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$ can be **exactly** represented as a sum of k sinusoids at the Fourier frequencies

$$x_t = \mu + \sum_{j=1}^k (a_j c_{t,j} + b_j s_{t,j}), \quad \text{with } \omega_j = j/n \text{ for } j = 0, 1, \dots, k = \begin{cases} n/2, & n \text{ is even} \\ (n-1)/2, & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} x_t = \frac{a_0}{2}, \quad a_j = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} x_t c_{t,j}, \quad b_j = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} x_t s_{t,j}$$

The **Discrete Fourier Transform** \mathcal{F} and its inverse \mathcal{F}^{-1} are defined as

$$\mathcal{F}(x)_j = d(\omega_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} x_t e^{-2\pi i \omega_j t}, \quad \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathcal{F}(x))_t = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} d(\omega_j) e^{2\pi i \omega_j t} = x_t$$

Denoting $\mathcal{F}(x)_j$ with $d(\omega_j)$, we have shown that $d(\omega_j) = (a_j - i b_j)/2$.

Periodogram

Given a time series realization $x = \{x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$ and its DFT $d(\omega_j)$,

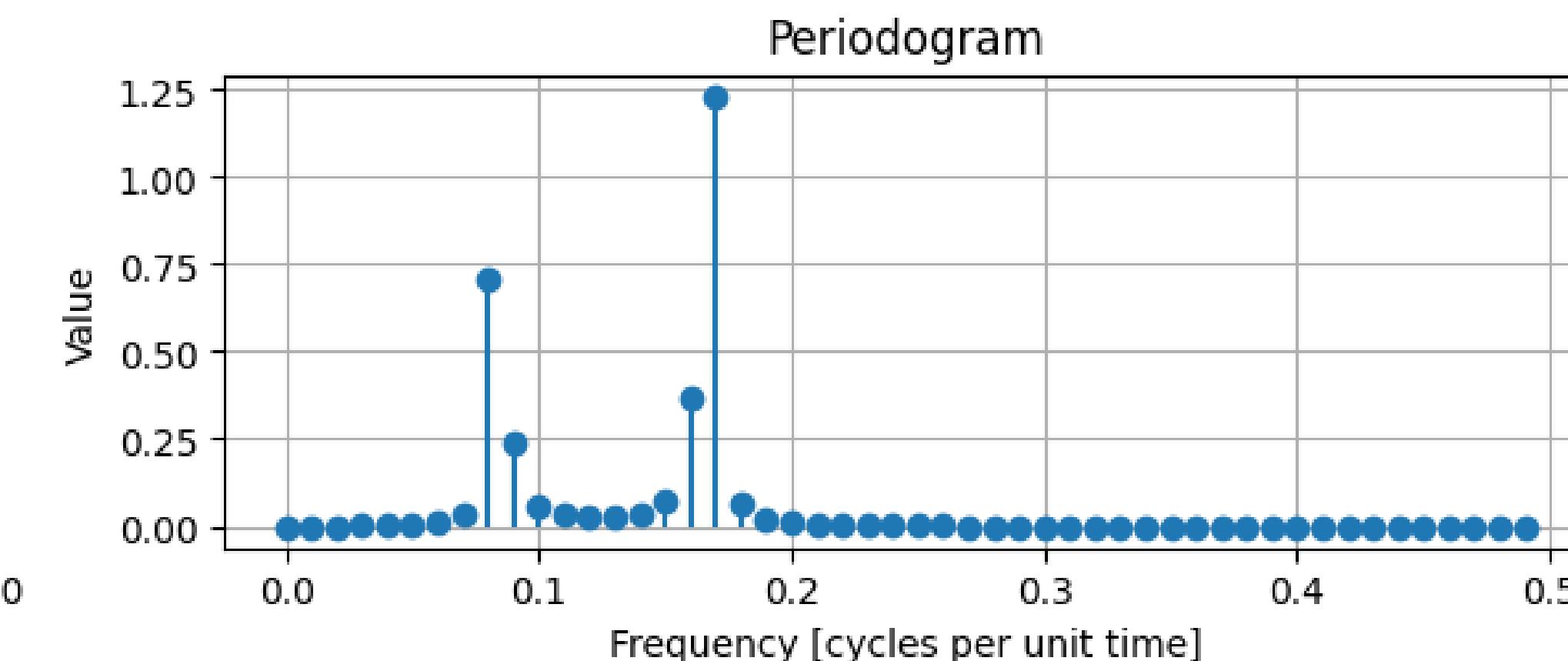
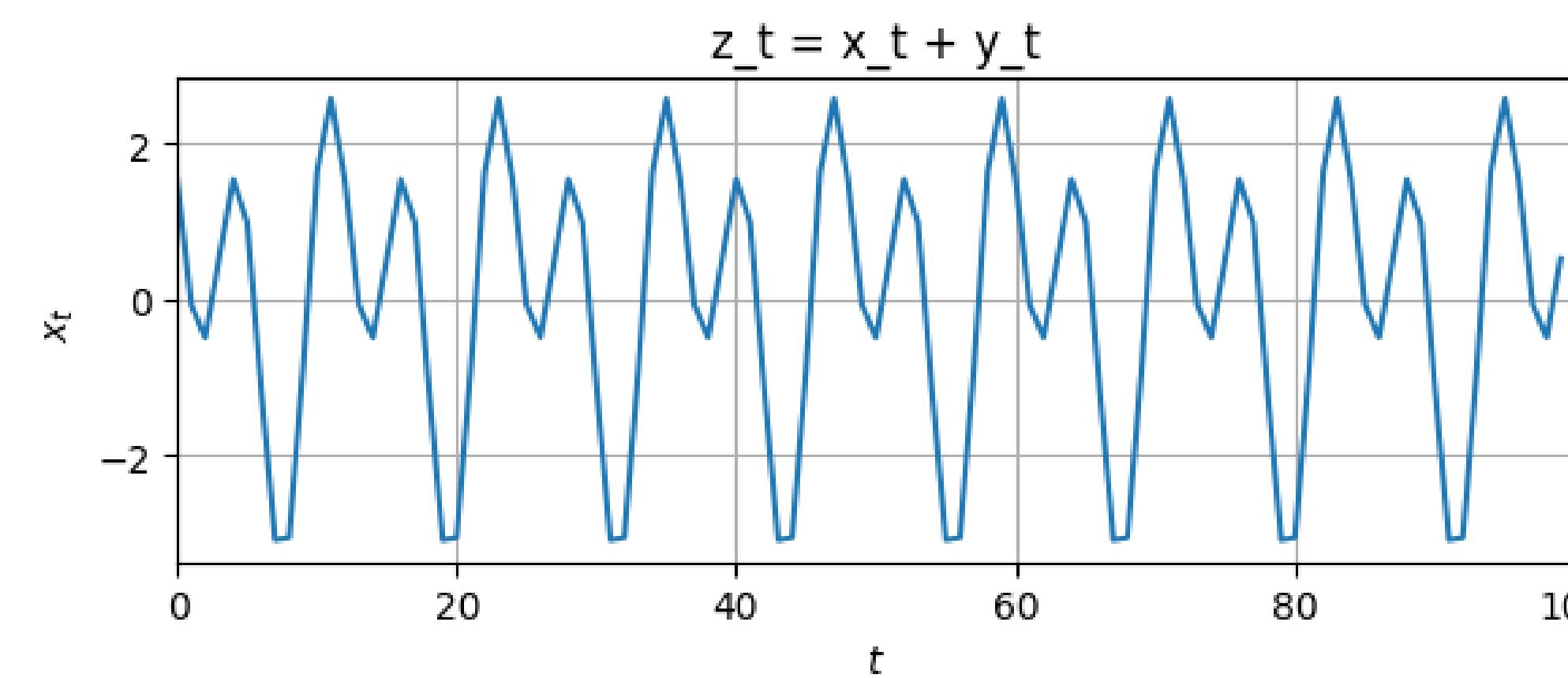
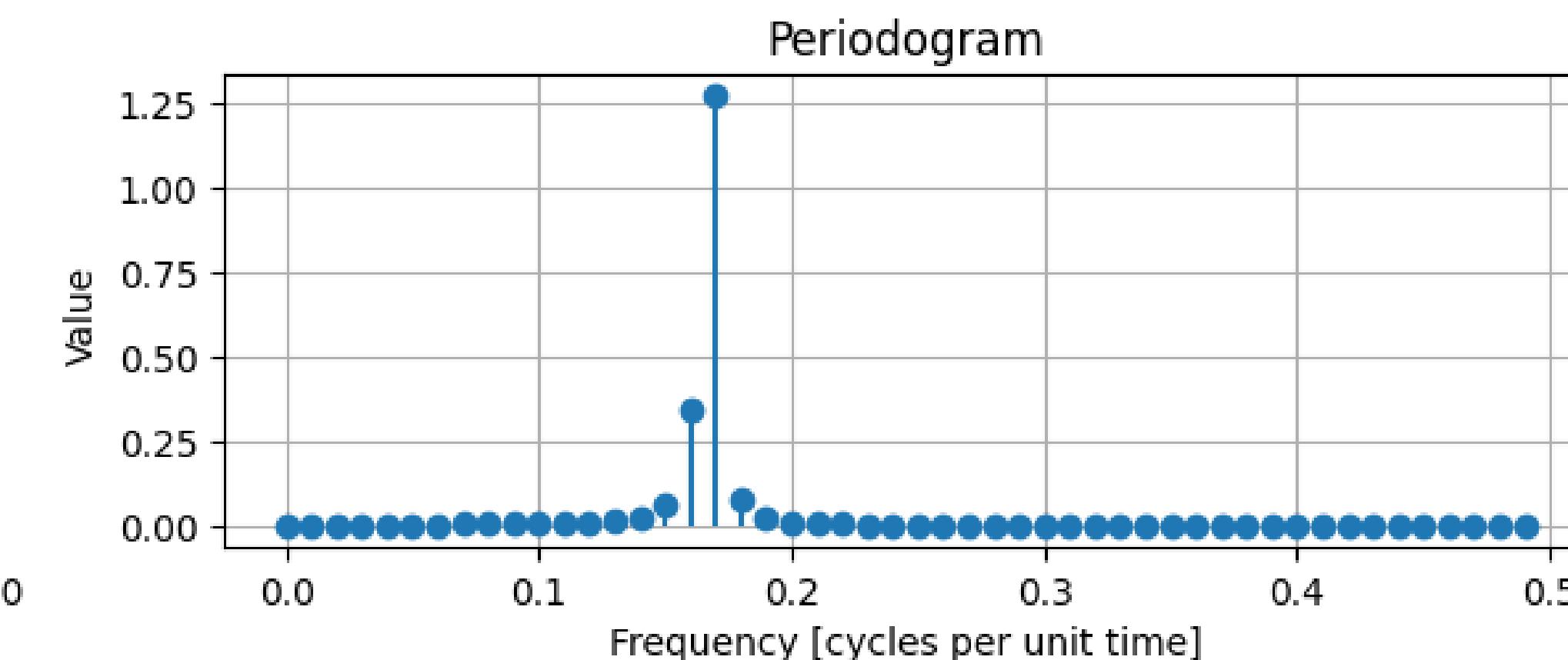
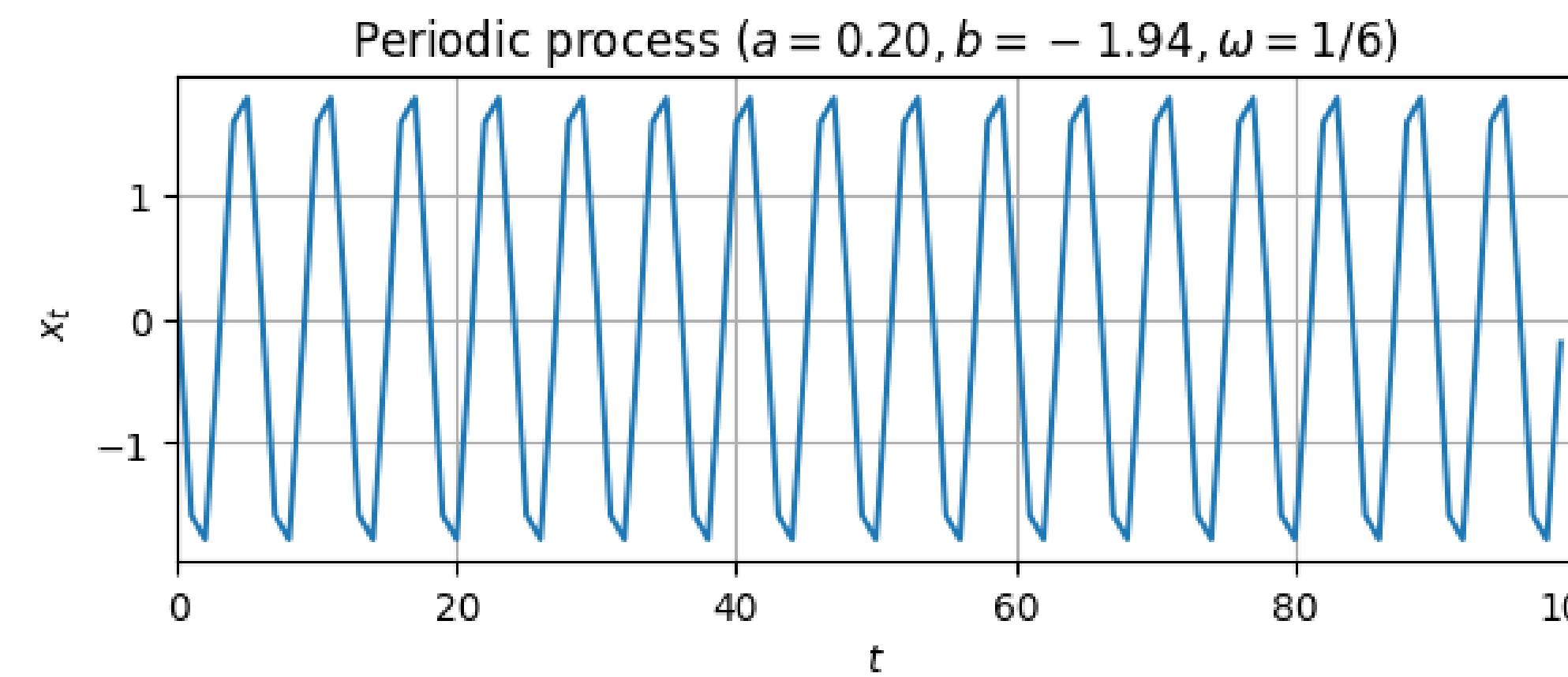
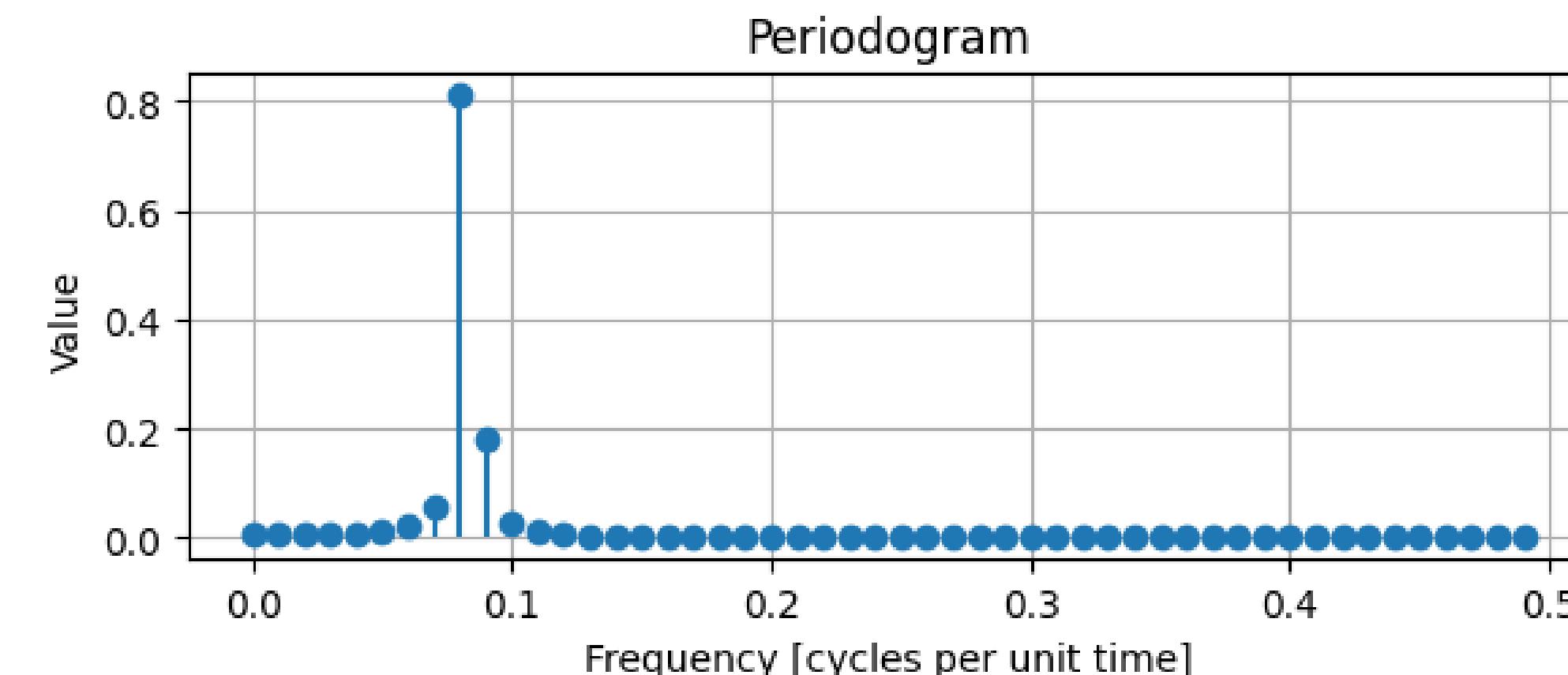
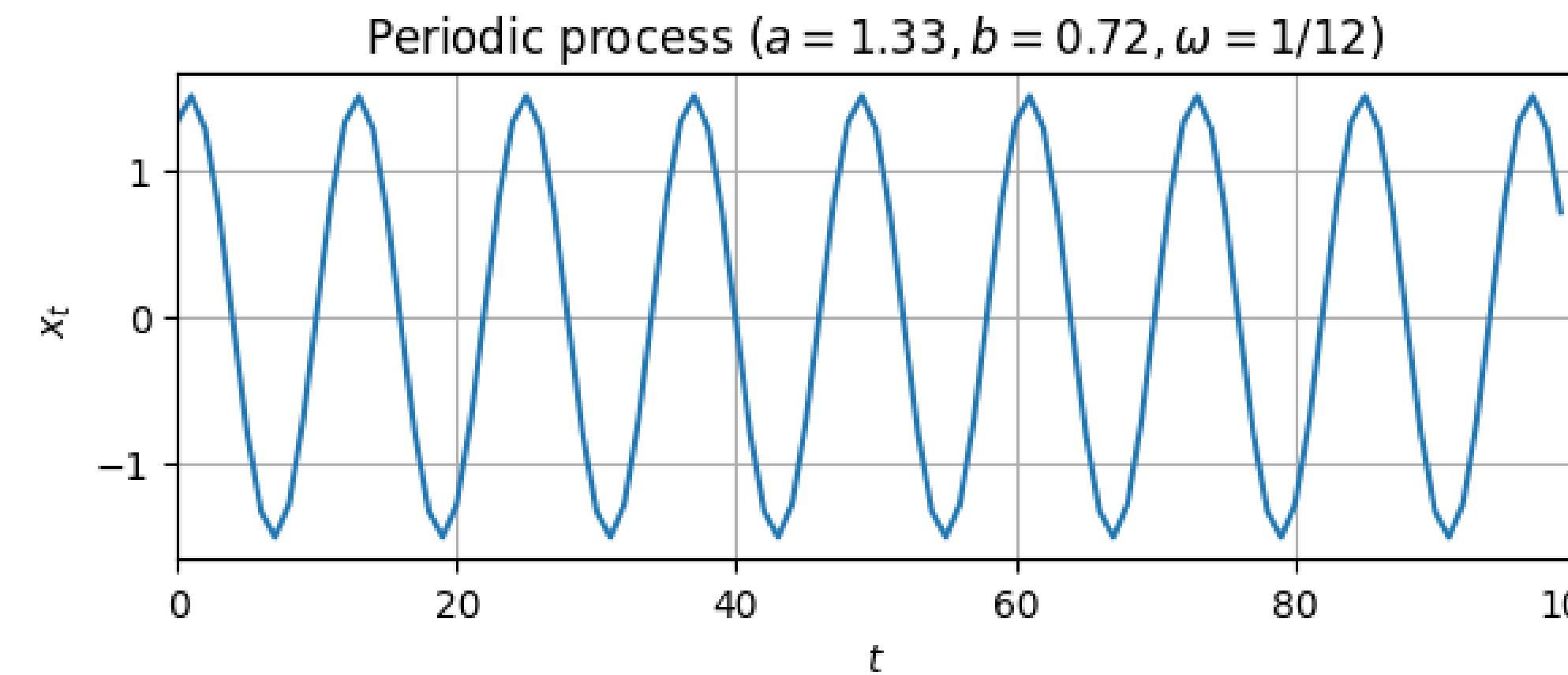
The **periodogram** is defined as the squared modulus of the DFT: $P(\omega_j) = |d(\omega_j)|^2$.

- Check your DFT implementation normalization!

The **scaled periodogram** is defined as $P^*(\omega_j) = a_j^2 + b_j^2 = \hat{\sigma}_j^2 = 4P(\omega_j)$

- Sample variance at each frequency component i.e., an estimate of σ_j^2 .
- Squared magnitude r_j^2 of the j -th sinusoid with r_j a realization of R_j .
- Measures how strongly the oscillation with frequency ω_j is represented in the data.

For **real** x_t , we have $P(\omega_j) = P(1 - \omega_j)$ due to the **conjugate symmetry** of the DFT.



Spectral distribution

Given a **stationary process** X_t with auto-covariance function $\gamma(h)$, there exists an unique monotonically increasing function $F(\omega)$, called the **spectral distribution function**, satisfying

$$\gamma(h) = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} e^{2\pi i \omega h} dF(\omega) \quad \text{with } F(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0, & \omega \leq -\frac{1}{2} \\ \gamma(0), & \omega \geq +\frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

Note that the integral is a Riemann–Stieltjes integration:

- Regular integration integrate with respect to an uniform increment dx .
- Here, integrate with respect to $dF(\omega)$, which allows to weight contributions non-uniformly based on changes in $F(\omega)$.
- Especially useful in cases where $F(\omega)$ is not smooth e.g., **discrete** case.

$F(\omega)$ is a **cumulative distribution function**, not of probabilities, but of **variances**.

- Captures how the *total variance* of the process accumulates as you sweep through frequencies.
- $F(\infty) = \gamma(0)$ is the **total variance** of the process X_t .
- Discontinuous in the presence of deterministic seasonality.

Spectral density

If $\gamma(h)$ satisfies $\sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(h)| < \infty$, then $F(\omega)$ is **continuous** and we can take its **derivative**

$$dF(\omega) = f(\omega)d\omega \text{ and } \gamma(h) = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} e^{2\pi i \omega h} f(\omega) d\omega$$

$f(\omega)$ is called the **spectral density** or **power spectrum**:

$$f(\omega) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(h) e^{-2\pi i \omega h} \text{ with } -1/2 \leq \omega \leq 1/2$$

The spectral density is non-negative and symmetric $f(\omega) = f(-\omega)$.

The **total variance** (also referred as the **total power**) of the process X_t is $\gamma(0) = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} f(\omega) d\omega$.

- The **normalized** spectral density is $f^*(\omega) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(h) e^{-2\pi i \omega h}$.

Spectral density and autocovariance

Observe that $\gamma(h)$ and $f(\omega)$ are **Fourier transform pairs**.

Time domain: the auto-covariance expresses information in terms of **lags**.

$\gamma(h)$ quantifies the co-variance i.e., the **similarity** of TS values at different **lags**.

Frequency domain: the spectral density expresses the same information in terms of **cycles**.

$f(\omega)$ quantifies the TS variance i.e., the **power** at different **frequencies**.

Spectral density – White noise process

Stationary process composed of uncorrelated zero-mean RVs with constant finite variance σ^2 .

The auto-covariance is $\gamma_h = \begin{cases} \sigma^2, & h = 0 \\ 0, & h \neq 0 \end{cases}$

The spectral density is

$$f(\omega) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(h) e^{-2\pi i \omega h} = \sigma^2$$

White noise contains an equal mix of all frequencies.

- Analogy to white light, which contains all frequencies in the color spectrum at the same level of intensity.

Spectral density – MA(1) process

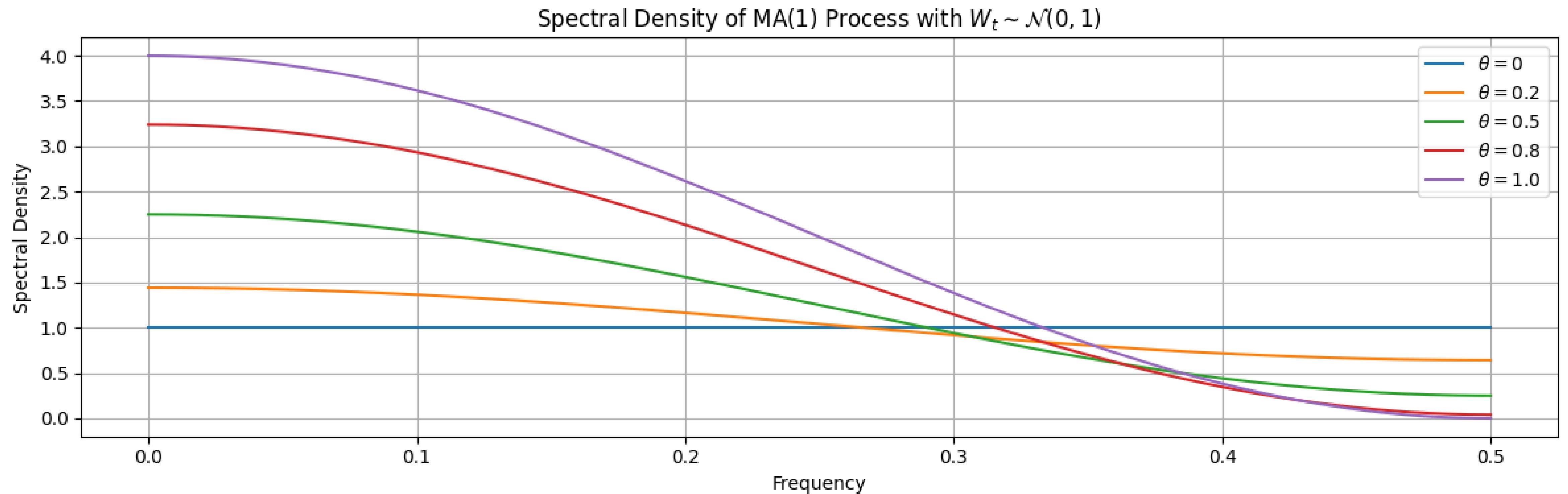
Consider a zero-mean stationary MA(1) process $X_t = W_t + \theta W_{t-1}$ with $W_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$.

The auto-covariance is $\gamma_h = \begin{cases} \sigma^2(1 + \theta^2), & h = 0 \\ \sigma^2\theta, & |h| = 1 \\ 0, & |h| > 1 \end{cases}$

The spectral density is

$$\begin{aligned} f(\omega) &= \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(h) e^{-2\pi i \omega h} \\ &= \sigma^2 \theta e^{2\pi i \omega} + \sigma^2(1 + \theta^2) e^0 + \sigma^2 \theta e^{-2\pi i \omega} \\ &= \sigma^2(1 + \theta^2) + \sigma^2 \theta (e^{2\pi i \omega} + e^{-2\pi i \omega}) \\ &= \sigma^2(1 + \theta^2 + 2\theta \cos(2\pi \omega)) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{recall that } \cos(\varphi) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi}) \text{ with } e^{i\varphi} = \cos(\varphi) + i \sin(\varphi))$$

Spectral density – MA(1) process



This process has a **decaying spectral density**. The **larger** the value of θ , the **steeper** the decay.

Spectral density – AR(1) process (1)

Consider a zero-mean stationary AR(1) process $X_t = \phi X_{t-1} + W_t$ with $W_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$ and $|\phi| < 1$.

The auto-covariance is $\gamma_h = \sigma^2 \frac{\phi^{|h|}}{1-\phi^2}$.

The spectral density is

$$\begin{aligned} f(\omega) &= \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(h) e^{-2\pi i \omega h} \\ &= \gamma(0) + \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \gamma(h) (e^{2\pi i \omega h} + e^{-2\pi i \omega h}) \\ &= \gamma(0) + \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \gamma(h) 2 \cos(2\pi \omega h) \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\phi^2} \left(1 + 2 \underbrace{\sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \phi^{|h|} \cos(2\pi \omega h)}_S \right) \end{aligned}$$

(Symmetry $\gamma_h = \gamma_{-h}$ for stationary process)
(recall that $\cos(\varphi) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi})$)

Spectral density – AR(1) process (2)

The infinite sum S can be rewritten as a **geometric series**

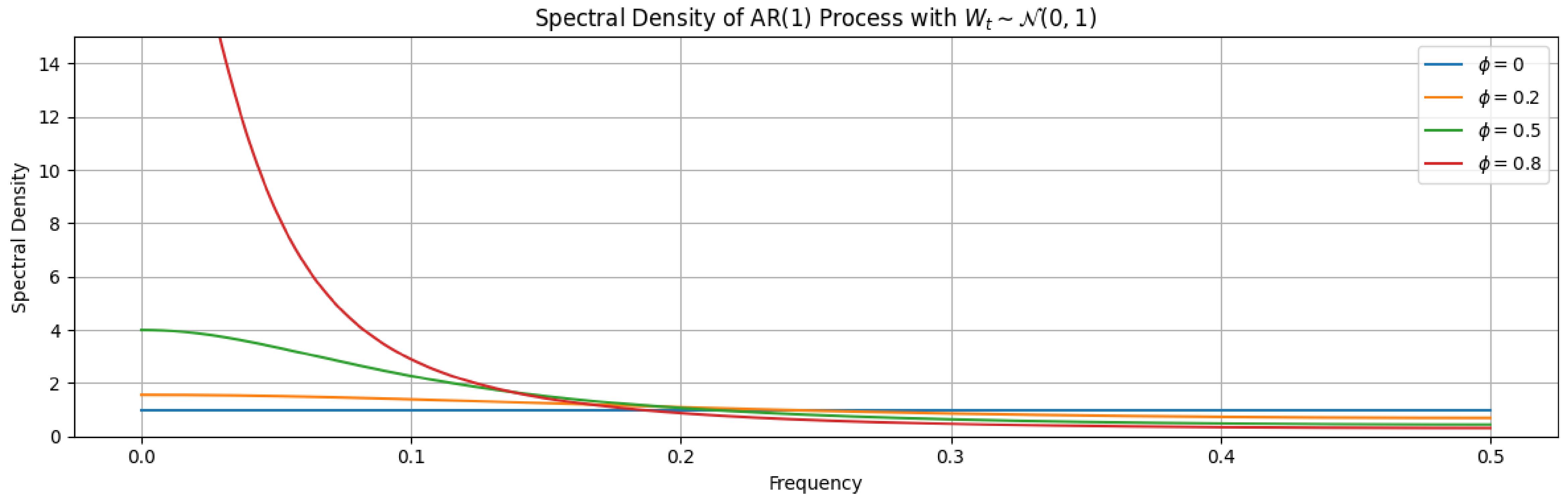
(recall that when $|r| < 1$, $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} r^j = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r^j - 1 = \frac{1}{1-r} - 1 = \frac{r}{1-r}$)

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \phi^{|h|} \cos(2\pi\omega h) = \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \phi^{|h|} \operatorname{Re}(e^{-2\pi i \omega h}) = \operatorname{Re} \left(\sum_{h=1}^{\infty} (\phi e^{-2\pi i \omega})^h \right) \\
 &= \operatorname{Re} \left(\frac{\phi e^{-2\pi i \omega}}{1 - \phi e^{-2\pi i \omega}} \right) = \operatorname{Re} \left(\frac{\phi e^{-2\pi i \omega}}{1 - \phi e^{-2\pi i \omega}} \frac{1 - \phi e^{2\pi i \omega}}{1 - \phi e^{2\pi i \omega}} \right) \quad (\text{Multiply with conjugate}) \\
 &= \operatorname{Re} \left(\frac{\phi(\cos(2\pi\omega) - \phi) - i \phi \sin(2\pi\omega)}{1 - 2\phi \cos(2\pi\omega) + \phi^2} \right) = \frac{\phi(\cos(2\pi\omega) - \phi)}{1 - 2\phi \cos(2\pi\omega) + \phi^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Substituting back,

$$f(\omega) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \phi^2} \left(1 + 2 \frac{\phi(\cos(2\pi\omega) - \phi)}{1 - 2\phi \cos(2\pi\omega) + \phi^2} \right) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - 2\phi \cos(2\pi\omega) + \phi^2}$$

Spectral density – AR(1) process (2)



Spectral density is concentrated at low frequencies. The **larger** the value of ϕ , the more the density **flattens**.

Spectral density – ARMA(p,q) process

Considering a zero-mean stationary ARMA(p,q),

$$\Phi(B)X_t = \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i B^i \right) X_t = \left(1 + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i B^i \right) W_t = \Theta(B)W_t$$

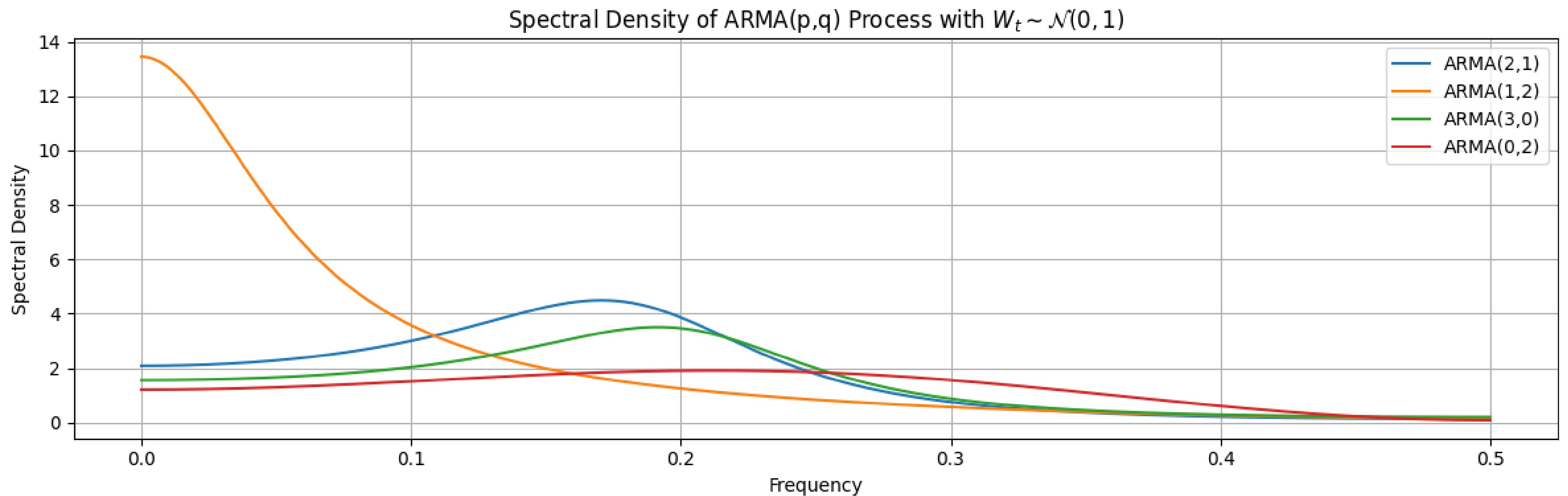
with $W_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$.

The spectral density of X_t is given by

$$f(\omega) = \sigma^2 \frac{|\Theta(e^{-2\pi i \omega})|^2}{|\Phi(e^{-2\pi i \omega})|^2}$$

with $\Phi(z) = (1 - \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i z^i)$ and $\Theta(z) = (1 + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i z^i)$

Spectral density – ARMA(p,q) process



Periodogram and spectral density (1)

The DFT can be rewritten in terms of the mean-subtracted data by decomposing x_t into its mean μ and its deviation from the mean $x_t - \mu$.

$$\begin{aligned} d(\omega_j) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} x_t e^{-2\pi i \omega_j t} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (\mu + (x_t - \mu)) e^{-2\pi i \omega_j t} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\mu \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} e^{-2\pi i \omega_j t} + \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (x_t - \mu) e^{-2\pi i \omega_j t} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (x_t - \mu) e^{-2\pi i \omega_j t} \quad (\text{orthogonality of complex exponentials for } j \neq 0) \end{aligned}$$

We can then compute the periodogram using this formulation of the DFT.

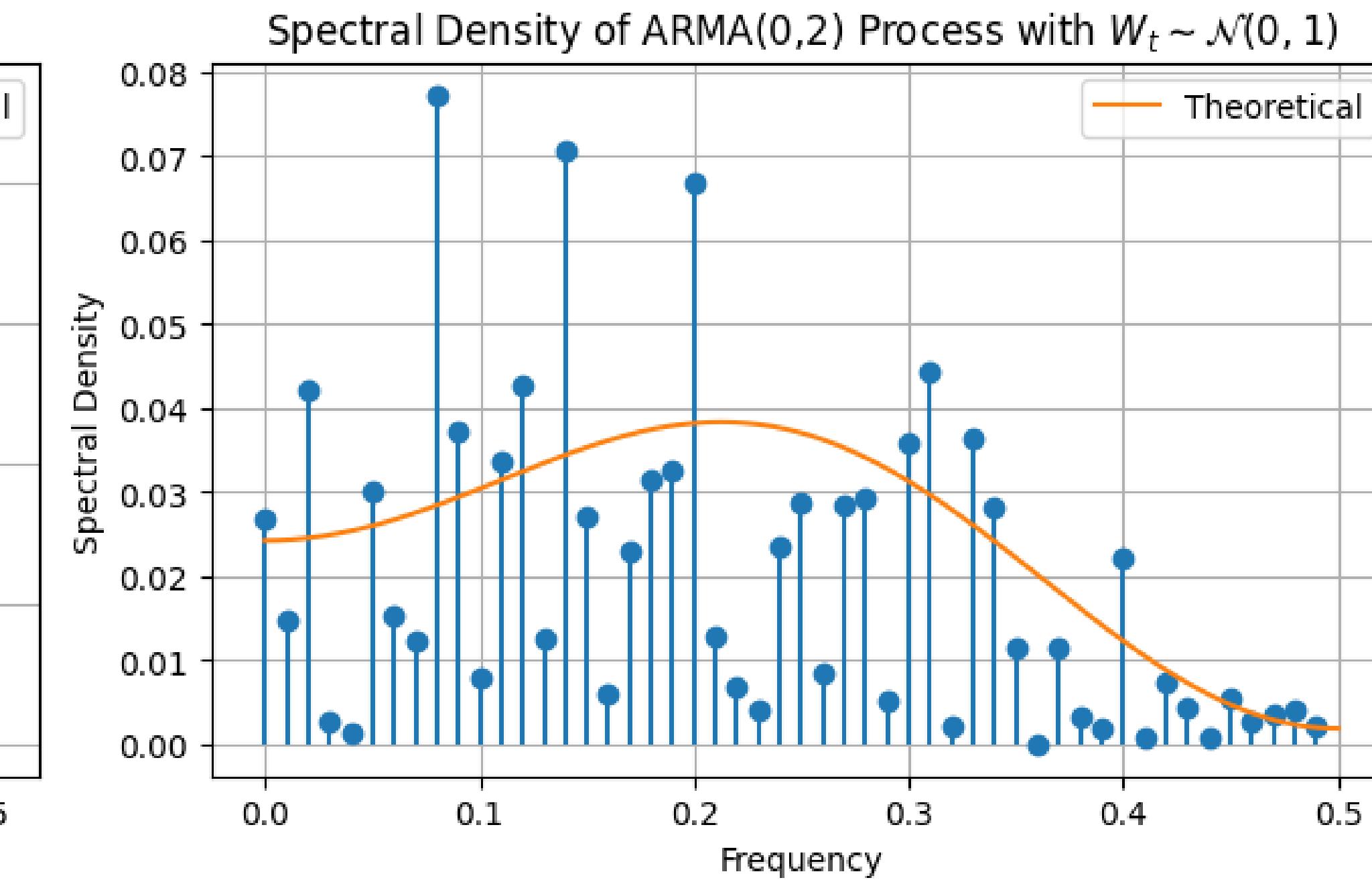
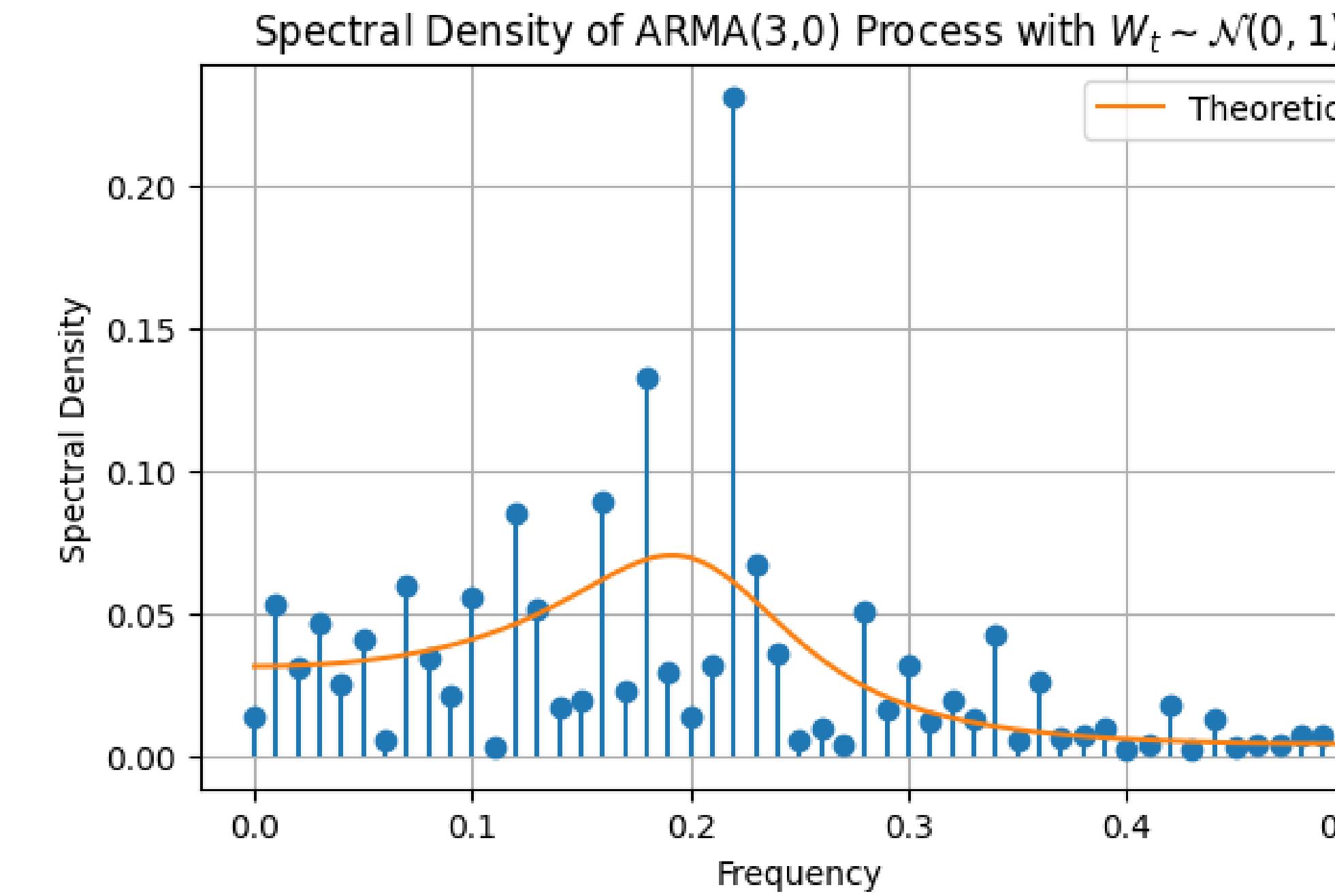
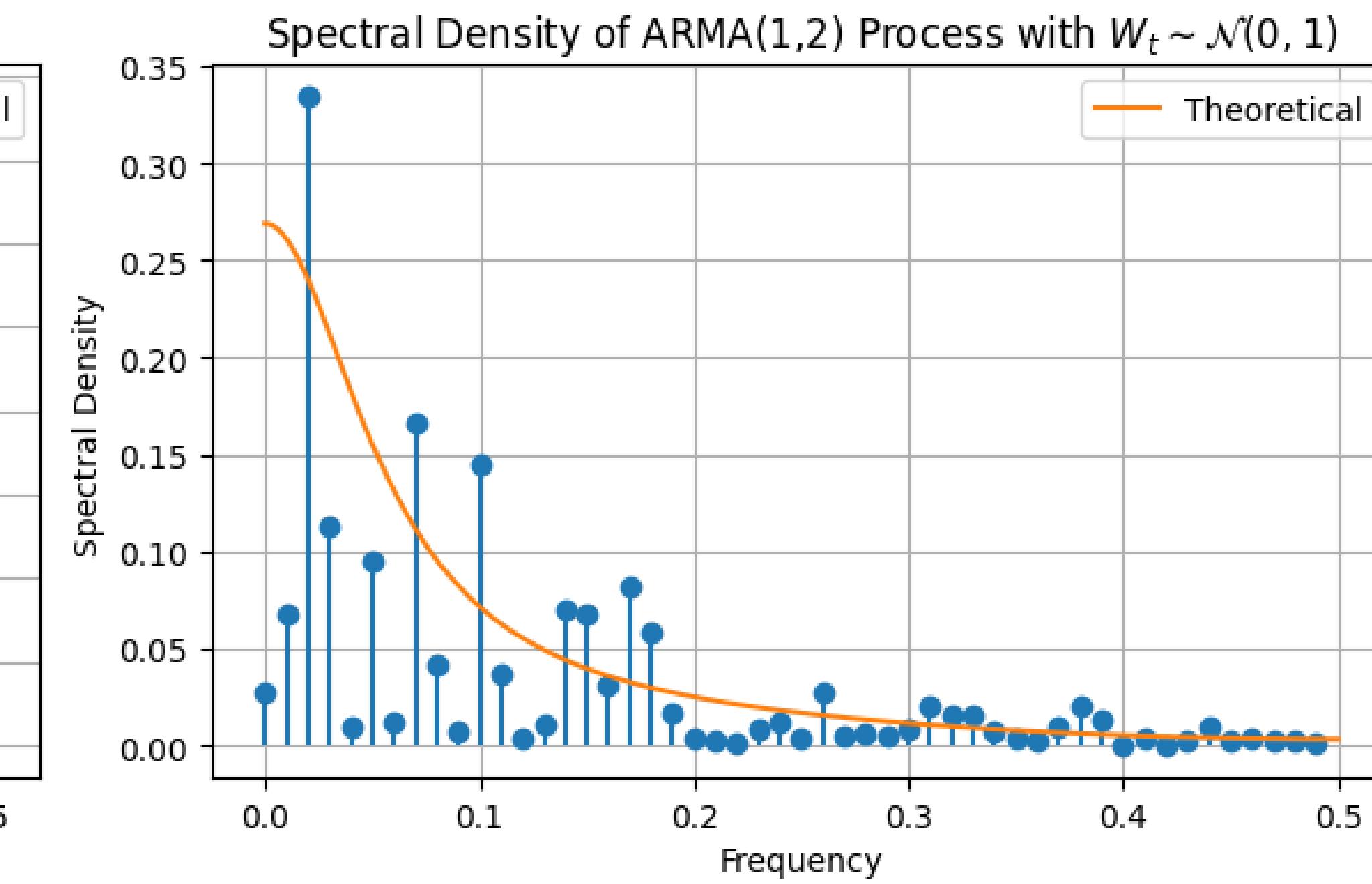
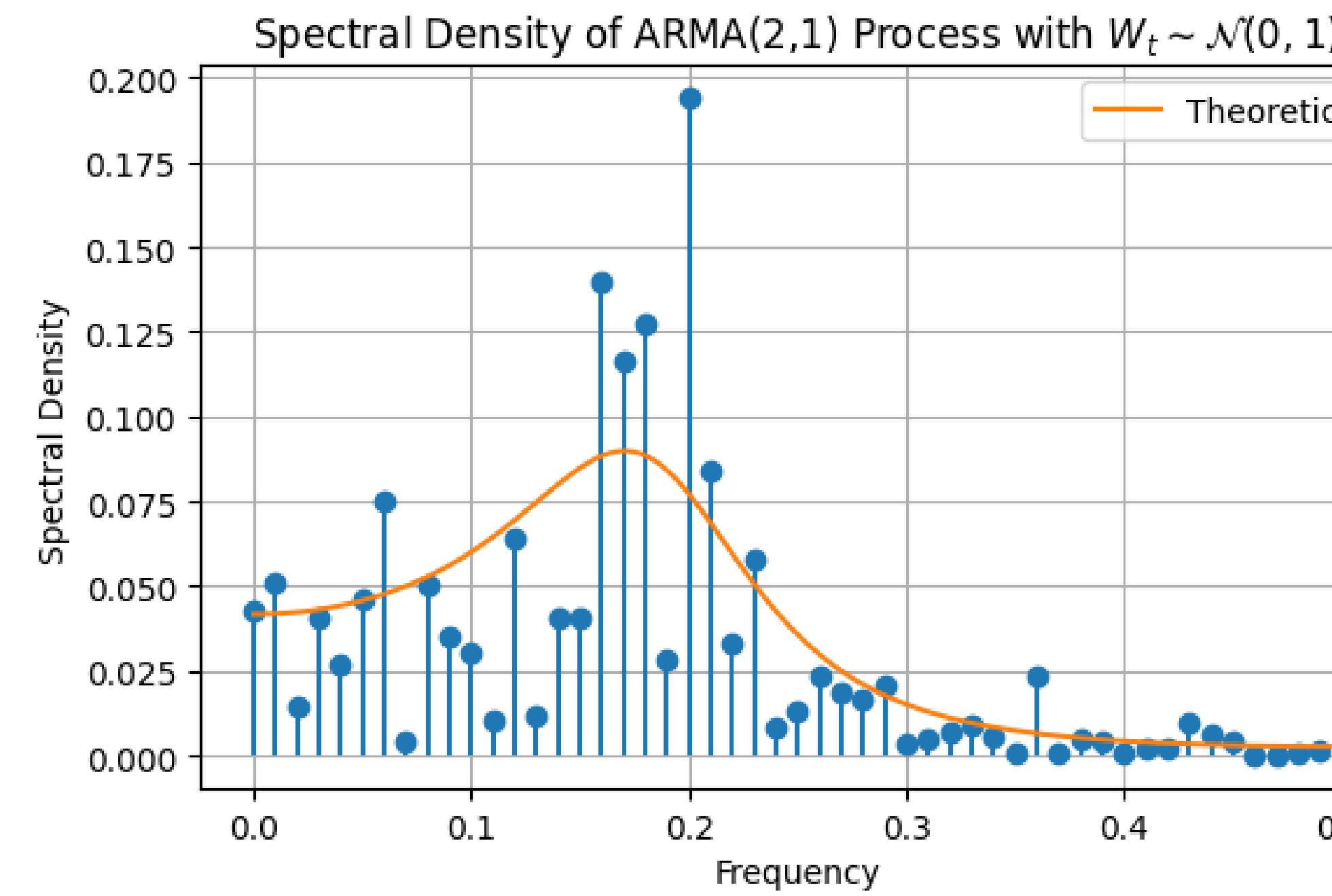
Periodogram and spectral density (2)

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\omega_j) &= |d(\omega_j)|^2 = d(\omega_j)\overline{d(\omega_j)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} (x_s - \mu) e^{-2\pi i \omega_j s} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (x_t - \mu) e^{2\pi i \omega_j t} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (x_s - \mu)(x_t - \mu) e^{-2\pi i \omega_j (t-s)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{h=-(n-1)}^{n-1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-|h|} (x_{t+|h|} - \mu)(x_t - \mu) e^{-2\pi i \omega_j h} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{h=-(n-1)}^{n-1} \hat{\gamma}(h) e^{-2\pi i \omega_j h} = \frac{1}{n} \hat{f}(\omega_j)
 \end{aligned}$$

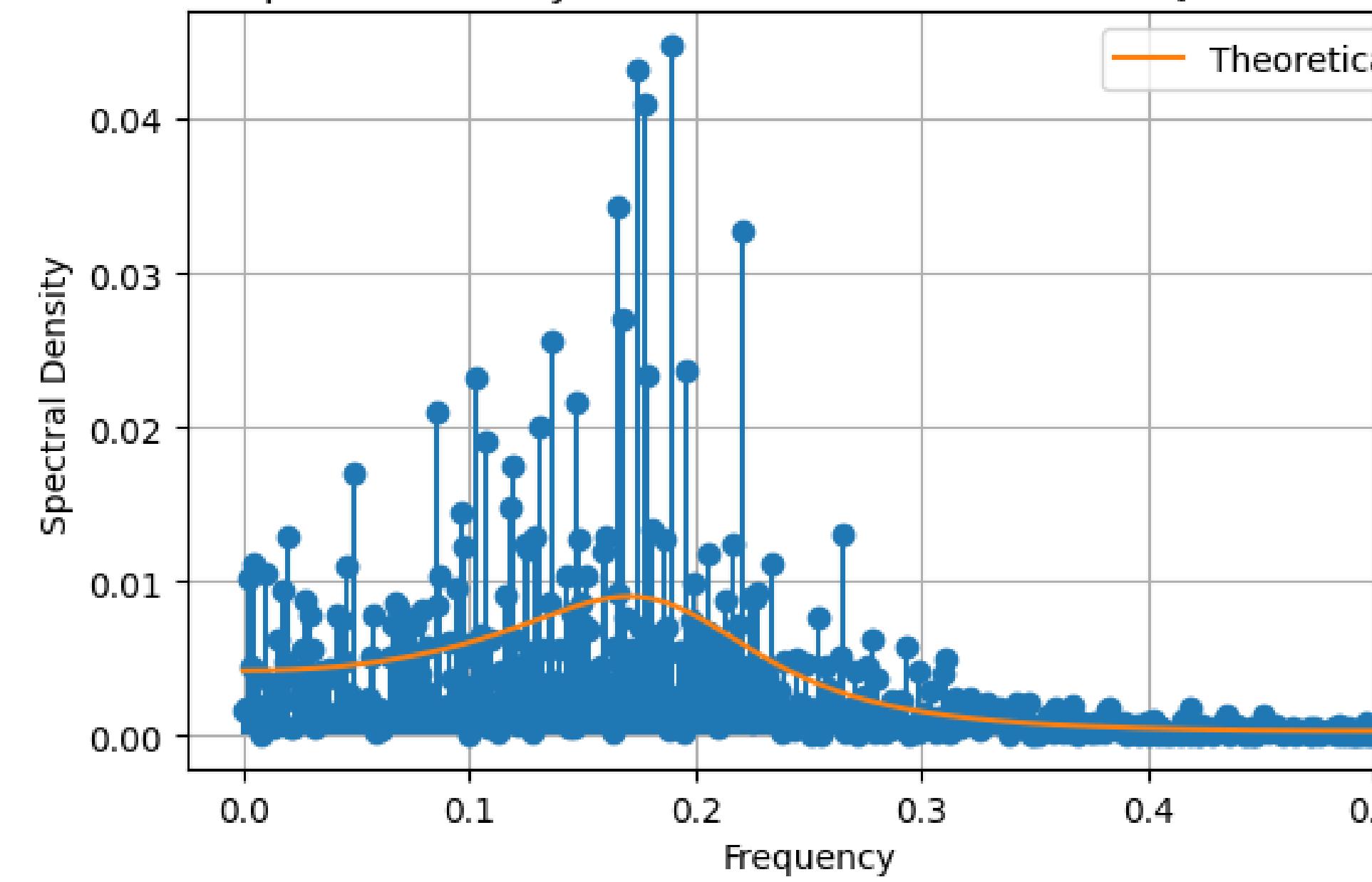
$(h = t - s)$

(recall that $\hat{\gamma}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-|h|} (x_{i+|h|} - \hat{\mu})(x_i - \hat{\mu})$)

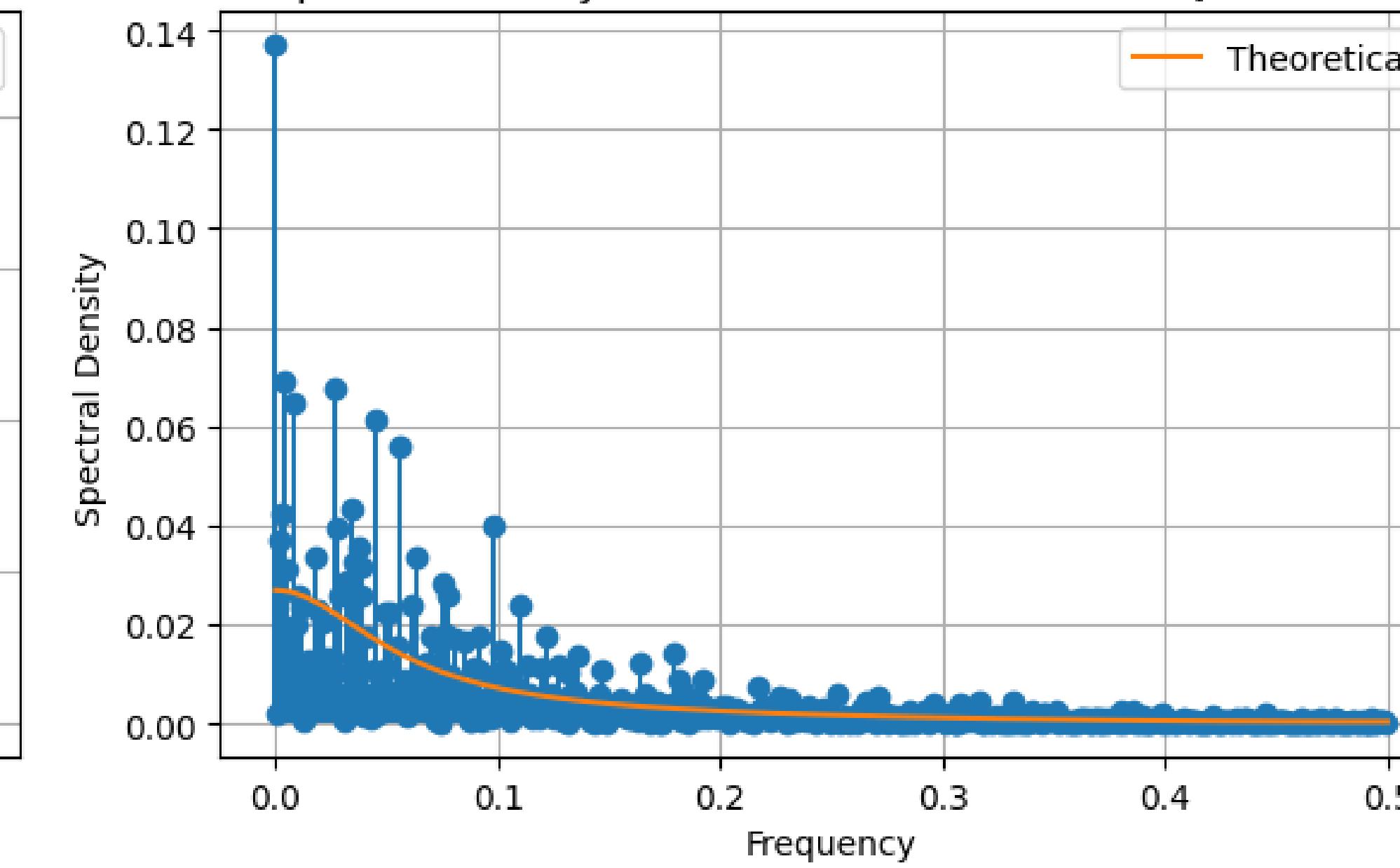
Thus, the periodogram is a rough **sample spectral density** estimator at **discrete** frequencies $\omega_j, j = 0, \dots n - 1$.



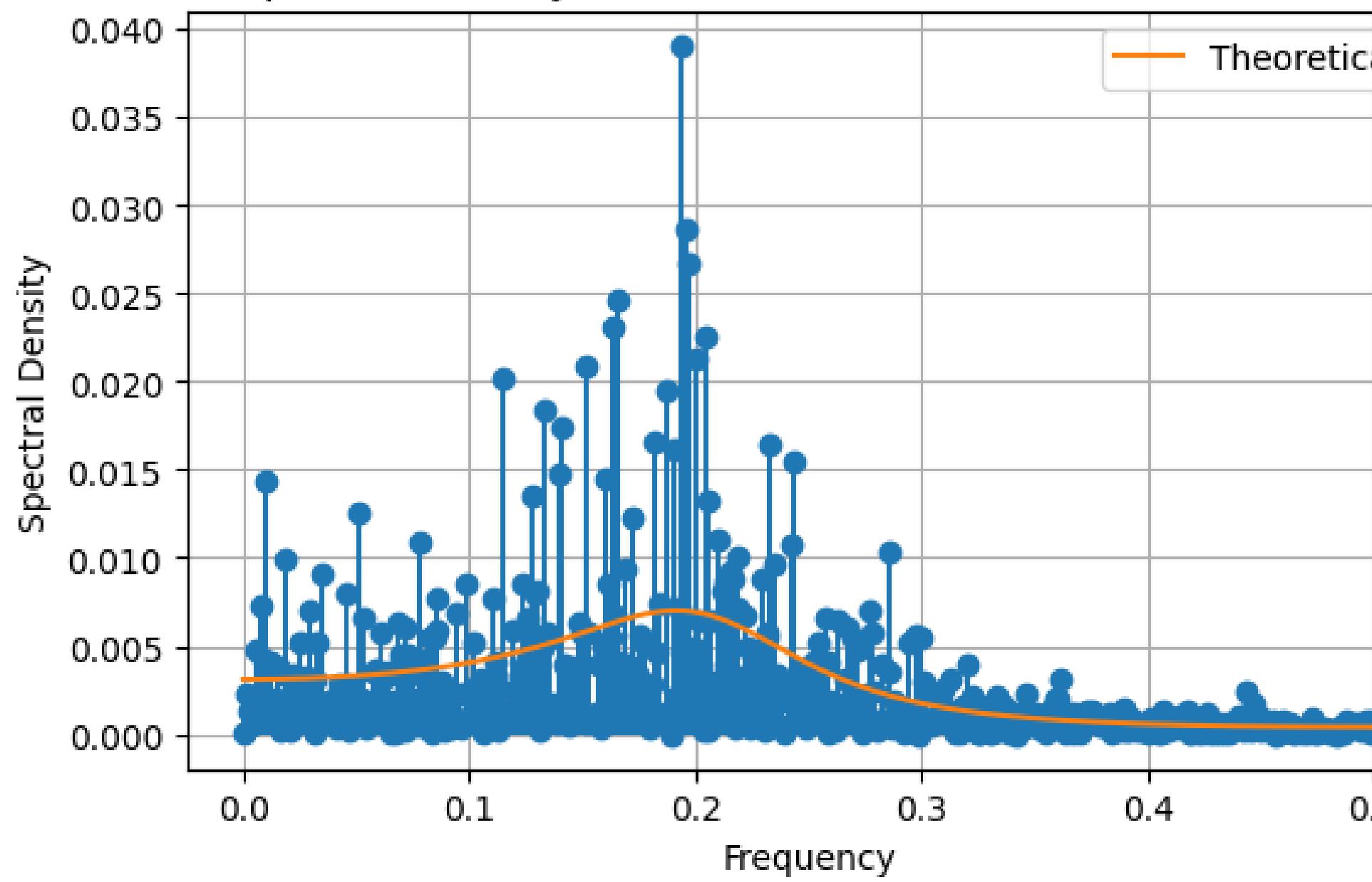
Spectral Density of ARMA(2,1) Process with $W_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$



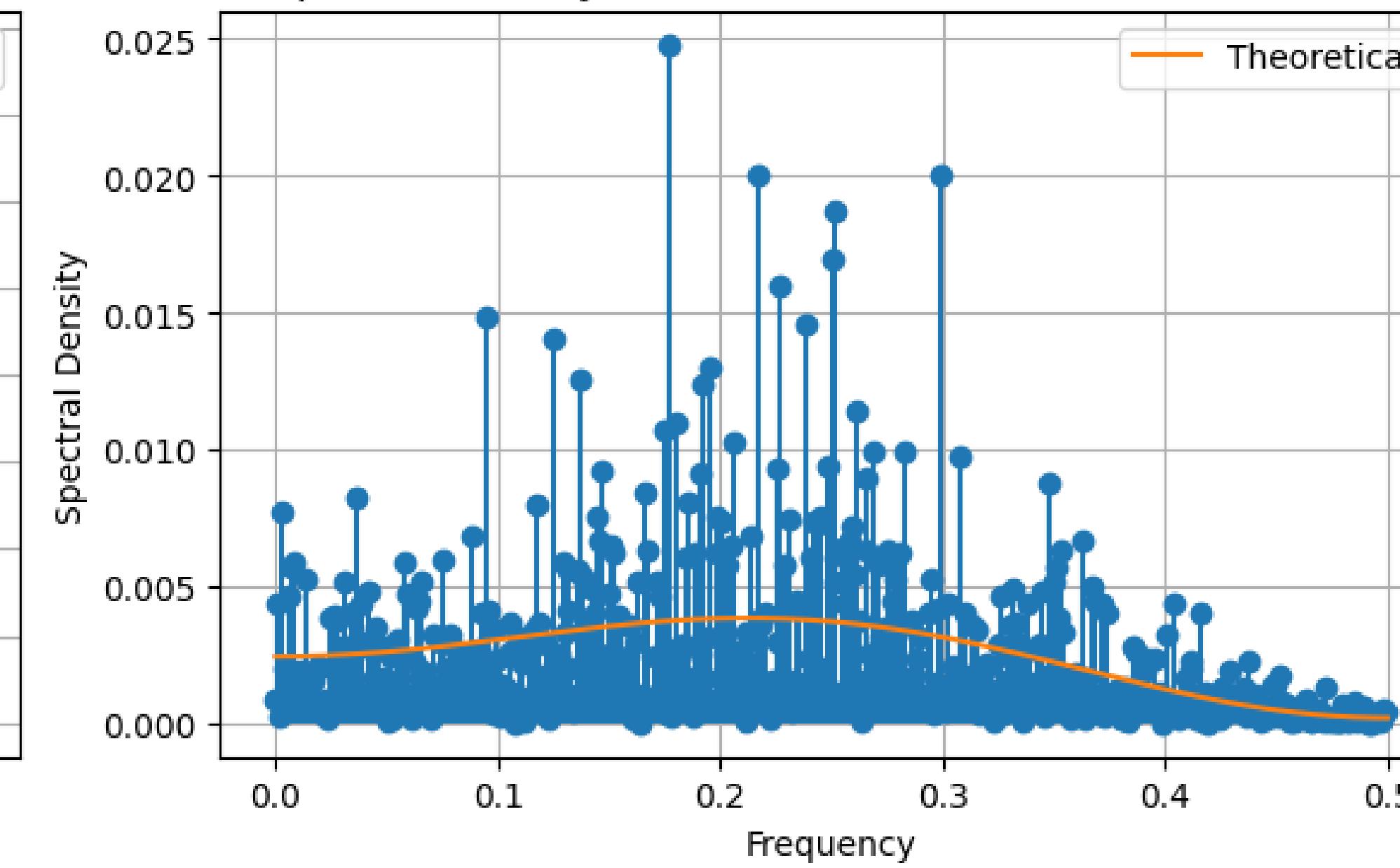
Spectral Density of ARMA(1,2) Process with $W_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$



Spectral Density of ARMA(3,0) Process with $W_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$



Spectral Density of ARMA(0,2) Process with $W_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$



Exercise

Simulate different synthetic periodic/aperiodic signals.

- Review time-plot, ACF and auto-covariance plots.
- Compute periodogram and review spectra.
- Repeat exercise with noisy synthetic signals.

Analyze the spectral density of known processes.

- Review how parameters affect the spectral density.
- Integrate the spectral density to confirm it matches the total variance.
- Generate signals and compare periodogram with spectral density.

Study real-world time series.

- Compute periodogram and review spectra.