

## Motivation:

- Analyze, model and **predict** data that is observed in a sequential order
- Data is no longer independent, and so standard inferential procedures don't work anymore/are invalid
- Decompose dependent data into independent components
- We care less about finding relationships between a response variable and covariates. We typically want to forecast a response using just its past values.

*Regression\_Example.R* and *ConsIndex.txt*

## Definitions

An **observed time series**  $\{x_t : t \in T\}$  is a collection of observations of a variable of interest over time.

A **time series** is a stochastic process indexed by time. Specifically, we have a sequence of random variables  $\{X_t : t \in T\}$ , where  $T$  is an index of time points.

- if  $T$  is a discrete set, i.e.  $T = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ , then  $\{X_t\}$  is a **discrete time series**.
- if  $T$  is a continuous interval, i.e.  $T = \{t > 0\}$ , then  $\{X_t\}$  is a **continuous time series**.

A **time series model** is the specification of the joint distribution of the random variables  $\{X_t : t \in N\}$ :  $P(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2, \dots, X_n \leq x_n)$  for  $-\infty < x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n < \infty$  and  $n \in N$ . But, in general, we can't hope to estimate all of the parameters in such a model with the data we've observed.

**But**, most of the information about a distribution is contained in the first two moments:

- First Moments:  $E[X_t]$ ,  $t = 1, 2, \dots$  -> *means*
- Second Moments:  $E[X_t X_{t+h}]$ ,  $t = 1, 2, \dots$  and  $h = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  -> *variances/covariances*

Main take-away: we don't need the whole joint distribution. Our modeling will be based on **second-order properties**.

$\{x_t\}$  —observed from—>  $\{X_t\}$

## Zero Mean Models

### IID Noise

If  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k\}$  are iid random variables with  $E[X_t] = 0$ ,  $t = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , then  $P(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2, \dots, X_n \leq x_n) = \text{independence} = \prod_{t=1}^k P(X_t \leq x_t) = \text{identically distributed} = \prod_{t=1}^k F(x_t)$ . In this special case, the joint distribution is defined by one marginal distribution with zero mean.

### White noise

A white noise process is a sequence of **uncorrelated** (not necessarily independent!) random variables  $\{X_t\}$  each with mean 0, and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ .

We denote this by  $\{X_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$ .

- $E[X_t] = 0$
- $Var(X_t) = \sigma^2$  finite

- $Cov(X_i, X_j) = 0$  for  $i \neq j$

(note: IID noise is a subset of White noise)

## Classical Time Series Decomposition

$$X_t = m_t + s_t + \epsilon_t$$

- $m_t$ : trend term (average change in  $X_t$  over time)
- $s_t$ : seasonal term (regular periodic fluctuations)
- $\epsilon_t$ : error (unexplained variation in  $X_t$ 's)

Lecture 1.pptx

### Example

Consider average seasonal temperature over many years where we wish to fit a model of the form  $X_t = m_t + s_t + \epsilon_t$ .

Here, we assume  $m_t$  is a polynomial in  $t$ , and  $s_t$  can be represented with indicator/dummy variables:

- $W_1 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if spring} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $W_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if fall} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $W_3 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if winter} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$$X_t = \sum_{i=0}^p \beta_i t^i + \sum_{j=1}^3 \alpha_j W_j + \epsilon_t, \epsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2) \text{ (iid)}$$

- We typically estimate  $\alpha$ 's and  $\beta$ 's using OLS, which implies that we are making OLS assumptions (which still may not be valid).
- If the assumptions are invalid, then we use the **Box-Jenkins** class of models (i.e. AR, MA, ARMA, SARIMA)

AirPassengers Analysis.R

## Recap

- Time series  $\rightarrow \{X_t : t \in N\}$   $\leftarrow$  a time series model puts constraints on the first and second moments of these random variables.
- Observed time series  $\rightarrow \{x_t : t \in N\}$ .

## Stationarity

### Strict stationarity

A time series  $\{X_t\}$  is said to be **strictly stationary** if the joint distribution of  $X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \dots, X_{t_n}$  is the same as that of  $X_{t_1+h}, X_{t_2+h}, \dots, X_{t_n+h}$  for all  $n, h, t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in N$ .

i.e., a strictly stationary time series preserves **all** statistical properties over time shift.

Problems:

- We often can't specify the joint distribution of these random variables and so this assumption is usually impossible to check.
- Also, this assumption tends to be too strict and is not often met.

This motivates the need for a weaker version of stationarity.

But first...

Let  $\{X_t\}$  be a time series.

- The **mean function** of  $\{X_t\}$  is  $\mu_X(t) = E(X_t)$ ,
- The **covariance function** of  $\{X_t\}$  is  $\gamma_X(r, s) = Cov(X_r, X_s) = E(X_r X_s) - \mu_X(r)\mu_X(s)$ .

### Weak stationarity

A time series  $\{X_t\}$  is **weakly stationary** if  $E(X_t^2) < \infty$  and:

- $\{X_t\}$  is  $\mu_X(t) = E(X_t)$  is independent of  $t$ ,
- $\gamma_X(t, t+h) = Cov(X_t, X_{t+h})$  is independent of  $t$  for all  $h$ .
  - covariance depends on  $h$  but not  $t$

Remarks:

- Strict stationarity  $\implies$  weak stationarity
- From now on, "stationarity" means *weak* stationarity
- For a stationary time series  $\{X_t\}$ :
  - $E(X_t) = \mu_X$
  - $Cov(X_t, X_{t+h}) = \gamma_X(t, t+h) = \gamma_X(0, h) = \gamma_X(h)$

## Definitions

Let  $\{X_t\}$  be a stationary time series.

- The **autocovariance function** (ACVF) of  $\{X_t\}$  at **lag**  $h$  is  $\gamma_X(h)$ .
- The **autocorrelation function** (ACF) of  $\{X_t\}$  at **lag**  $h$  is  $\rho_X(h) = \frac{\gamma_X(h)}{\gamma_X(0)} = Corr(X_t, X_{t+h})$ .

- $\gamma_X(h) = \gamma_X(-h)$ .

(Reminder:  $Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{SD(X)SD(Y)} = \frac{Cov(X_t, X_{t+h})}{\sqrt{Var(X_t)Var(X_{t+h})}} = \frac{Cov(X_t, X_{t+h})}{\sqrt{Cov(X_t, X_t)Cov(X_{t+h}, X_{t+h})}} = \frac{Cov(X_t, X_{t+h})}{\sqrt{\gamma_X(0)\gamma_X(0)}} = \frac{\gamma_X(h)}{\gamma_X(0)}$ )

## Examples

### First Order Autoregression: AR(1)

Assume  $\{X_t\}$  is a stationary time series satisfying the equations

$$X_t = \Phi X_{t-1} + Z_t$$

for  $t \in Z$ ,  $|\Phi| < 1$  and  $Z_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$ . Also assume  $Z_t$  and  $X_s$  are uncorrelated for all  $s < t$ . Calculate the ACVF and ACF of  $\{X_t\}$ .

- $E(X_t) = \Phi E(X_{t-1}) + E(Z_t) \rightarrow E(X_t) = \Phi E(X_{t-1}) \rightarrow E(X_t) = 0$  since  $\{X_t\}$  is stationary.
- $\gamma_X(h) = Cov(X_t, X_{t-h}) = E(X_t X_{t-h}) = E(\Phi X_{t-1} X_{t-h} + Z_t X_{t-h}) = \Phi E(X_{t-1} X_{t-h}) + E(Z_t X_{t-h}) = \Phi E(X_{t-1} X_{t-h}) = \Phi \gamma_X(h-1) = \Phi^h \gamma_X(0)$  (assume  $h > 0$ ).

By stationarity,  $\gamma_X(h) = \gamma_X(-h)$  so  $\gamma_X(h) = \Phi^{|h|} \gamma_X(0)$ .

- $\gamma_X(0) = Cov(X_t, X_t) = E(X_t^2) = E(\Phi^2 X_{t-1}^2 + 2\Phi X_{t-1} Z_t + Z_t^2) = \Phi^2 E(X_{t-1}^2) + 2\Phi E(X_{t-1} Z_t) + E(Z_t^2) = \Phi^2 \gamma_X(0) + \sigma^2 \Rightarrow \gamma_X(0) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\Phi^2}$

$$\therefore \gamma_X(h) = \frac{\Phi^{|h|} \sigma^2}{1-\Phi^2} \text{ for } h \in Z$$

$$\therefore \rho_X(h) = \frac{\gamma_X(h)}{\gamma_X(0)} = \Phi^{|h|} \text{ for } h \in Z$$

**ACF signature for AR(1) is exponential decay.**

### First Order Moving Average: MA(1)

Consider process  $X_t = Z_t + \theta Z_{t-1}$  where  $t \in N$  and  $\{Z_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$  and  $\theta \in R$ . Show  $\{X_t\}$  is stationary and derive its ACF.

- $\mu_X = E(X_t) = E(Z_t) + \theta E(Z_{t-1}) = 0$  for all  $t$ .
- $\gamma_X(h) = Cov(X_t, X_{t+h}) = Cov(Z_t + \theta Z_{t-1}, Z_{t+h} + \theta Z_{t+h-1}) = Cov(Z_t, Z_{t+h}) + \theta Cov(Z_t, Z_{t+h-1}) + \theta Cov(Z_{t-1}, Z_{t+h}) + \theta^2 Cov(Z_{t-1}, Z_{t+h-1})$

$$\gamma_X(h) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2(1+\theta^2) & \text{if } h=0 \\ \theta\sigma^2 & \text{if } h=\pm 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \leftarrow \text{independent of } t.$$

(Reminder:  $Cov(X+Y, W+Z) = Cov(X, W) + Cov(X, Z) + Cov(Y, W) + Cov(Y, Z)$ )

$\therefore \{X_t\}$  is stationary.

- $\gamma_X(0) = \sigma^2(1+\theta^2)$

and  $\rho_X(h) = \frac{\gamma_X(h)}{\gamma_X(0)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h=0, \\ \frac{\theta}{1+\theta^2} & \text{if } h=\pm 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

**ACF signature of MA(1) is a spike for  $h=0, 1$  and then nothing for  $h > 1$ .**

We've seen that the ACF can provide information regarding which model may be appropriate for an observed time series. To do this in practice, we need a sample estimate of the ACF.

## Definitions

Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be our observed time series.

- the **sample mean** is  $\hat{\mu}_x = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ ,
- the **sample autocovariance** is  $\hat{\gamma}_x(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n-h} (x_{t+h} - \bar{x})(x_t - \bar{x})$ ,
- the **sample autocorrelation** is  $\hat{\rho}_x(h) = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_x(h)}{\hat{\gamma}_x(0)}$

Note:

- $\theta$ , a Greek letter, denotes a parameters (unknown number),
- $\hat{\theta}$ , is a sample estimate of  $\theta$  (known number),
- $\tilde{\theta}$ , is an estimator, a random variable.

The sample ACF can be used to investigate the “uncorrelatedness” in a time series. For example, we might use this to evaluate the uncorrelated assumption in residuals.

(Reminder: independence  $\Rightarrow$  uncorrelated; uncorrelated  $\nRightarrow$  independence)

For stationary time series,  $\tilde{\rho}(h) \sim N(0, \frac{1}{n})$  ( $n$  = number of data points).

Consequently, an approximate 95% confidence interval for  $\rho_x(h)$  is  $\pm \frac{1.96}{\sqrt{n}}$ .

If  $\tilde{\rho}(h)$  falls outside these limits, for any  $h$ , we judge this to be significant.

*SACF Examples.R*

## Recap

- Autocovariance function (ACVF):  $\gamma_X(h) = Cov(X_t, X_{t-h})$  for all  $h \in Z$
- Autocorrelation function (ACF):  $\rho_X(h) = Corr(X_t, X_{t-h}) = \frac{\gamma_X(h)}{\gamma_X(0)}$ 
  - Properties of ACVF:
    - \*  $\gamma_X(0) = Var(X_t)$
    - \*  $\gamma_X(-h) = \gamma_X(h)$
    - \*  $|\rho_X(h)| \leq 1$

Why is stationarity important?

In order to build a model that forecasts with any accuracy, we require an assumptions that something doesn't vary with time. After accounting for deterministic trend and/or seasonality, we hope that the remaining randomness can be described as stationary.

In the Box-Jenkins class of models, we can use AR (autoregressive), MA (moving average), and ARMA models to model stationary time series.

First, notation:

**Backshift operator:**  $B$ , where  $BX_t = X_{t-1}$  i.e.  $B^2X_t = X_{t-2}$ .

Generally,  $B^n X_t = X_{t-n}$  and  $B^0 = I$

## MA(q) Process

A process/time series  $\{X_t\}$  is called a **moving average process of order q** if

$$X_t = \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \epsilon_{t-q}$$

where  $\{\epsilon_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$  and  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q$  are constants.

Remarks:

- MA(q) processes are stationary (*exercise: prove this!*)
- An MA(q) process is **q-correlated** (i.e.,  $\rho_X(h) = Corr(X_t, X_{t-h}) = 0$  for  $h > q$  and not necessarily 0 for  $h \leq q$ )

Thus, **the ACF signature of an MA(q) process is non-zero spikes for  $h = 0, 1, 2, \dots, q$  and then no spikes for ever after.**

- An MA(q) process can be denoted as:  $X_t = \epsilon_t + \theta_1 B^1 \epsilon_t + \dots + \theta_q B^q \epsilon_t = (1 + \sum_{s=1}^q \theta_s B^s) \epsilon_t = \theta^q(B) \epsilon_t$

where  $\theta^q(z) = 1 + \sum_{s=1}^q \theta_s z^s$  is the **generating function**.

- An MA(q) is **invertible** if the complex roots of  $\theta^q(z)$  lie outside the unit circle. i.e. For all  $z$  such that  $\theta^q(z) = 0$ , then  $|z| > 1$ .

### Example

$$X_t = \epsilon_t + 0.2\epsilon_{t-1} + 0.7\epsilon_{t-2}$$

$$\theta(z) = 1 + 0.2z + 0.7z^2$$

The roots of  $\theta(z)$  are  $z = \frac{-0.2 \pm \sqrt{0.2^2 - 4(0.7)(1)}}{2(0.7)} = \frac{-0.2 \pm \sqrt{2.76}i}{1.4} \Rightarrow z = -0.14 \pm 1.19i$

$$|z| = \sqrt{(-0.14)^2 + (1.19)^2} = 1.198 > 1$$

So  $\{X_t\}$  is invertible.

Reminders:

- The zeros of a quadratic of the form  $ax^2 + bx + c$  are  $x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$
- $c = a + ib \Rightarrow |c| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$

## AR(p) Process

The process  $\{X_t\}$  is called an **autoregressive process of order p** if

$$X_t = \Phi_1 X_{t-1} + \Phi_2 X_{t-2} + \dots + \Phi_p X_{t-p} + \epsilon_t$$

where  $\epsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$  and  $\Phi_1, \Phi_2, \dots, \Phi_p$  are constants.

- An AR(p) process can be denoted as:

$$X_t - \Phi_1 X_{t-1} - \Phi_2 X_{t-2} - \dots - \Phi_p X_{t-p} = \epsilon_t$$

$$\Leftrightarrow X_t - \Phi_1 B^1 X_t - \Phi_2 B^2 X_t - \dots - \Phi_p B^p X_t = \epsilon_t$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (1 - \sum_{r=1}^p \Phi_r B^r) X_t = \epsilon_t$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \Phi^p(B) X_t = \epsilon_t$$

where  $\Phi^p(z) = 1 - \sum_{r=1}^p \Phi_r z^r$  is the **generating function**.

- An AR(p) process is **stationary** if the complex roots of  $\Phi^p(z)$  lie outside the unit circle. i.e. For all  $z$  such that  $\Phi(z) = 0$ , we require  $|z| > 1$ .

### Example

$$X_t = \Phi X_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \Rightarrow (1 - \Phi B) X_t = \epsilon_t$$

$$\Phi(z) = 1 - \Phi z \Rightarrow \Phi(z) = 0 \text{ if } z = \frac{1}{\Phi}$$

For stationarity, we need  $|z| > 1 \Rightarrow |\frac{1}{\Phi}| > 1 \Rightarrow |\Phi| > 1$ .

## Partial Autocorrelation Function(PACF)

For a stationary process, the ACF of lag  $h$  measures the correlation between  $X_t$  and  $X_{t+h}$ . This correlation could be due to a direct connection between  $X_t$  and  $X_{t+h}$ , but it may also be influenced by observations at intermediate lags:  $X_{t+1}, X_{t+2}, \dots, X_{t+h-1}$ .

The PACF of lag  $h$  measures the correlation between  $X_t$  and  $X_{t+h}$  once the influence of the intermediate lags has been removed/accounted/controlled for.

We remove this effect using **linear predictors**:

$$\hat{X}_t = \text{Pred}(X_t | X_{t_1}, X_{t+2}, \dots, X_{t+h-1})$$

$$\hat{X}_{t+h} = \text{Pred}(X_{t+h} | X_{t_1}, X_{t+2}, \dots, X_{t+h-1})$$

where this prediction is commonly based on a linear regression.

Thus, for a stationary time series  $\{X_t\}$ , the **partial autocorrelation function of lag h** is:  $\alpha_X(h) =$

$$\begin{cases} \text{Corr}(X_t, X_t) = 1, & \text{if } h = 0 \\ \text{Corr}(X_t, X_{t+1}) = \rho_X(1), & \text{if } h = 1 \\ \text{Corr}(X_t, X_{t+h}) = \text{Corr}(X_t - \hat{X}_t, X_{t+h} - \hat{X}_{t+h}), & \text{if } h > 1 \end{cases}$$

(assume without loss of generality that  $h \geq 0$ )

### Example

Derive the PACF of an AR(1) process  $X_t = \Phi X_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$ .

$$\alpha_X(h) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } h = 0 \\ \rho(1) = \Phi & \text{if } h = 1 \end{cases}$$

If  $h = 2$ :

$$-\alpha(2) = \text{Corr}[X_t - \hat{X}_t, X_{t+2} - \hat{X}_{t+2}] = \text{Corr}[X_t - f(X_{t+1}), X_{t+2} - \Phi X_{t+1}] = \text{Corr}[X_t - f(X_{t+1}), \epsilon_{t+2}] = \text{Corr}[X_t, \epsilon_{t+2}] - \text{Corr}[f(X_{t+1}), \epsilon_{t+2}] = 0 - 0 = 0$$

We can see that  $\alpha(h) = 0$  for any  $h \geq 2$ .

So **PACF for an AR(1) has non-zero spikes for  $h = 0, 1$  and is zero for all  $h \geq 2$ .**

Remarks:

- If  $\{X_t\} \sim AR(p)$ , then the PACF satisfies  $\alpha(h) = 0$  for all  $h > p$  and  $\alpha(h) \neq 0$  necessarily for  $h \leq p$ .
- Whereas an ACF can be used to determine the order of an MA process, a PACF can be used to determine the order of an AR process.

## ARMA(p,q) Process

$\{X_t\}$  is an **autoregressive moving average process of orders p and q** if

$$X_t - \Phi_1 X_{t-1} - \Phi_2 X_{t-2} - \dots - \Phi_p X_{t-p} = \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \epsilon_{t-q}$$

$$\Phi^p(B)X_t = \theta^q(B)\epsilon_t$$

where  $\{\epsilon_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$  and  $\Phi^p(z)$  and  $\theta^q(z)$  are the AR and MA generating functions, and **we require them to have distinct roots**.

Remark:

- $ARMA(p, 0) = AR(p)$
- $ARMA(0, q) = MA(q)$



**Example: ARMA(1,2)**

$$\Phi^1(B)X_t = \theta^2(B)\epsilon_t \Rightarrow (1 - \Phi B)X_t = (1 + \theta_1 B + \theta_2 B^2)\epsilon_t \Rightarrow X_t - \Phi X_{t-1} = \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2}$$

We require 
$$\begin{cases} \Phi^1(z) = 1 - \Phi z \\ \theta^2(z) = 1 + \theta_1 z + \theta_2 z^2 \end{cases}$$

	<b>ACF</b>	<b>PACF</b>
<b>MA(q)</b>	Spike for $h \leq q$ and negligibly small spikes for $h > q$	Exponential decay
<b>AR(p)</b>	Exponential decay	Spiked for $h \leq p$ and "nothing" for $h > p$
<b>ARMA(p,q)</b>	q spikes then decay	p spikes then decay

## ARMA Stationarity and Invertibility Conditions

**ARMA(p,q):**  $\Phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)\epsilon_t$ ,  $\{\epsilon_t\} \sim WN(o, \sigma^2)$

where  $\Phi(z) = 1 - \Phi_1 z - \Phi_2 z^2 - \dots - \Phi_p z^p$

and  $\theta(z) = 1 + \theta_1 z + \theta_2 z^2 + \dots + \theta_q z^q$ .

$\{X_t\} \sim ARMA(p, q)$  is stationary if

- $\Phi(z) = 1 - \Phi_1 z - \Phi_2 z^2 - \dots - \Phi_p z^p \neq 0$  for all  $z$  such that  $|z| \leq 1$  i.e., the modulus of all roots/zeros are  $> 1$  (the complex roots of this generating function lie outside the unit circle in the complex plane).

A **causal** ARMA process is stationary.

$\{X_t\} \sim ARMA(p, q)$  is invertible if

- $\theta(z) = 1 + \theta_1 z + \theta_2 z^2 + \dots + \theta_q z^q \neq 0$  for all  $z$  such that  $|z| \leq 1$  i.e., the modulus of all roots/zeros are  $> 1$  (the complex roots of this generating function lie outside the unit circle in the complex plane).

This criterion is equivalent to requiring that  $\epsilon_t$  can be written as an infinite weighted sum of the  $X_t$ 's.

**Note:** we require an MA(q) process, or the MA component of an ARMA(p,q) process to be invertible so that

- (i) we can estimate the  $\theta$ 's in the model
- (ii) we can forecast with the model

For the sake of usefulness, we'll restrict attention to ARMA(p,q) models that are stationary/causal and invertible.

### Example (quiz question)

**ARMA(2,1)**

$$\Phi^2(B)X_t = \theta^1(B)\epsilon_t$$

- Represent this in "expanded notation"

$$(1 - \Phi_1 B - \Phi_2 B^2)X_t = (1 + \theta B)\epsilon_t$$

$$X_t - \Phi_1 X_{t-1} - \Phi_2 X_{t-2} = \epsilon_t + \theta \epsilon_{t-1}$$

$$\text{Let } \Phi_1 = 0.75, \Phi_2 = -0.5625, \theta = 1.25$$

- Is  $\{X_t\}$  stationary?

$$\Phi^2(z) = 1 - 0.75z + 0.5625z^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \Phi^2(z) = 0 \Leftrightarrow z = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} = \frac{0.75 \pm \sqrt{(0.75^2 - 4(0.5625)(1))}}{2(0.5625)} = 2\left(\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{3}\right) = \frac{2 \pm 2i\sqrt{3}}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow z_1 = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{3}i, z_2 = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{3}i$$

$$\Rightarrow |z_1| = |z_2| = \sqrt{(2/3)^2 + (2\sqrt{3}/3)^2} = \frac{4}{3}$$

So  $|z_1| = |z_2| > 1$ .

$\therefore$  this ARMA(2,1) process is stationary.

- Is  $\{X_t\}$  invertible?

$$\theta(z) = 1 + 1.25z$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta(z) = 0 \Leftrightarrow 1 + 1.25z = 0 \Leftrightarrow z = -0.8$$

$$\Rightarrow |z| = 0.8 < 1.$$

$\therefore$  this ARMA(2,1) process is **not** invertible.

**Note:** also, the roots of the polynomials are **distinct**, so the process is in fact an ARMA(2,1) process, and not a simpler one.

In practice, with an observed time series, we decide whether it is stationary and/or invertible with “**unit root tests**”.

## “Box-Jenkins Approach”

- **Identification:** identify the orders of the model  $\leftarrow$  use ACF/PACF plot
- **Estimation:** estimate the parameters of the model identified in step 1
- **Verification:** ensure that the model is appropriate  $\leftarrow$  residual diagnostics

## Estimating ARMA(p,q) Models

**Goal:** estimate  $\Phi_1, \Phi_2, \dots, \Phi_p, \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q, \sigma^2$  ins a stationary and invertible ARMA(p,q) process:  $\Phi^p(B)X_t = \theta^q(B)\epsilon_t$ .

- we assume that  $\{X_t\}$  has zero mean, or has been “mean-corrected”

These parameters are estimated using the observed time series  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ .

Many methods (cf. Chap. 5) exist for doing this, but we’ll just focus, at a high level, on Maximum Likelihood and Least Squares.

### Maximum Likelihood method for ARMA(p,q)

- We have to make distributional assumptions, which may not be valid
- We typically assume  $\{X_t\}$  is a “Gaussian” time series i.e.,  $\vec{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)^T \sim MVN$ 
  - This seems limiting, but in practice it’s not bad

$L(\Phi_1, \Phi_2, \dots, \Phi_p, \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q, \sigma^2 | \vec{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Gamma_n|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \vec{x}^T \Gamma_n^{-1} \vec{x} \right\}$  where  $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$  and  $\Gamma_n = Cov(\vec{X}, \vec{X}^T)$  (this is the matrix with  $\gamma_X(0)$  in the diagonal,  $\gamma_X(1)$  in the 1-subdiagonals,  $\dots$ ,  $\gamma_X(n-1)$  in the two corners)

We want to find the values of the parameters that maximize this function in light of the observed data. We typically numerically maximize  $l(\cdot)$ , the log-likelihood function to find  $(\hat{\Phi}_1, \hat{\Phi}_2, \dots, \hat{\Phi}_p, \hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_q, \hat{\sigma}^2)$ .

The usual asymptotic properties of ML estimators exist here as well. This is the basis for CI calculations.

### Least Squares method for ARMA(p,q)

The goal is to minimize  $S(\Phi, \theta) = S(\Phi_1, \Phi_2, \dots, \Phi_p, \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  rather than maximize  $L(\cdot)$ , where

$$S(\Phi, \theta) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{(X_j - \hat{X}_j)^2}{r_{j-1}}$$

where  $E[(X_j - \hat{X}_j)^2] = \sigma^2 r_{j-1} \rightarrow$  LSE of  $\sigma^2$  is  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{S(\hat{\Phi}, \hat{\theta})}{n-p-q}$  ( $r_{j-1} = \text{Var}(X_j - \hat{X}_j)$ )  
 LSE is good because no distributional assumptions need to be made.