

# TIMES SERIES

Cheikh Mbacké BEYE

2020-09-19

## Contents

INTRODUCTION	1
TIME SERIES EXAMPLES	2
Johnson and Johnson Quarterly Earnings Per Share . . . . .	2
Global mean land-ocean temperature deviations to 2015 . . . . .	3
Seismic Trace of Explosion and Earthquake . . . . .	4
WHITE NOISE	6
MOVING AVERAGE	6
AUTOREGRESSIONS	7
RANDOM WALK WITH DRIFT	8
SIGNAL IN NOISE	9
AUTOCOVARIANCE FUNCTION	11

```
library(ggplot2)
library(astsa)
library(xts)
```

## INTRODUCTION

Data obtained from observations collected sequentially over time are extremely common. In business we observe weekly interest rates, daily closing stock prices, monthly prices indices, yearly sales figures, and so forth. In meteorology, we observe daily temperatures, annual precipitation and drought indices and hourly wind speeds. In agriculture, we record annual figures for crop and livestock production, soil erosion, and export sales. In the biological science, we observe the electrical activity of the heart at millisecond intervals. In ecology, we record the abundance of animal species. The list of areas in which **times series** are studied is virtually endless. The purpose of time series analysis is generally twofold : to understand or model the stochastic mechanism that gives rise to an observed series and to predict or forecast the future values of a series based on the history of that series and possibly other related factors. We will introduce a variety of examples of time series from diverse areas of application. A somewhat unique feature of time series and their models is that we usually cannot assume that the observations are independent from a common population. Studying models that incorporate dependence is the key concept in time series analysis.

# TIME SERIES EXAMPLES

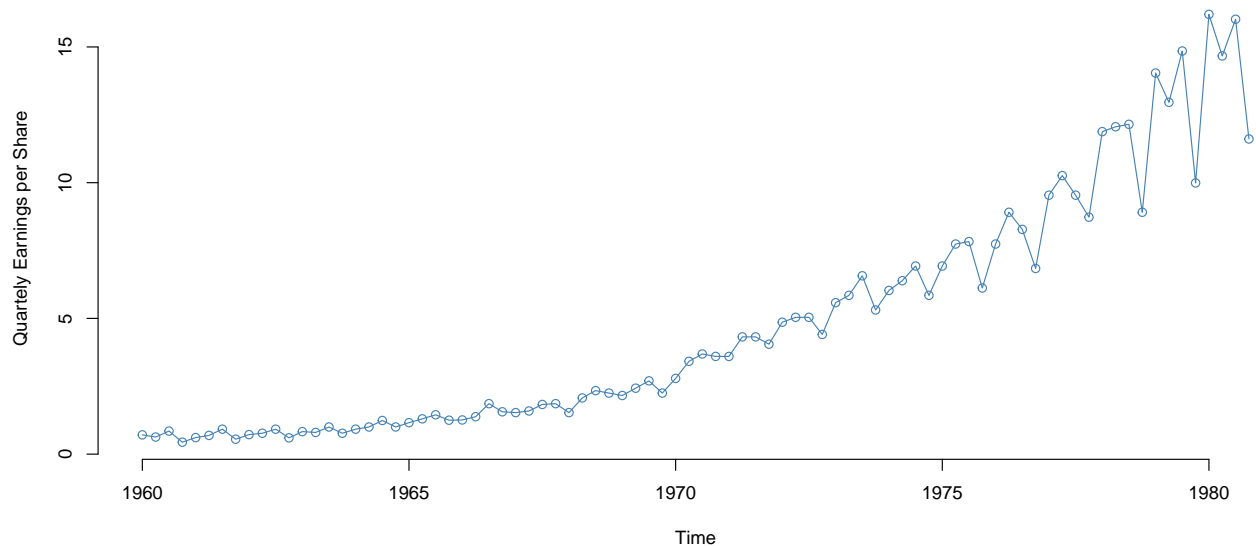
## Johnson and Johnson Quarterly Earnings Per Share

jj

	Qtr1	Qtr2	Qtr3	Qtr4
1960	0.710000	0.630000	0.850000	0.440000
1961	0.610000	0.690000	0.920000	0.550000
1962	0.720000	0.770000	0.920000	0.600000
1963	0.830000	0.800000	1.000000	0.770000
1964	0.920000	1.000000	1.240000	1.000000
1965	1.160000	1.300000	1.450000	1.250000
1966	1.260000	1.380000	1.860000	1.560000
1967	1.530000	1.590000	1.830000	1.860000
1968	1.530000	2.070000	2.340000	2.250000
1969	2.160000	2.430000	2.700000	2.250000
1970	2.790000	3.420000	3.690000	3.600000
1971	3.600000	4.320000	4.320000	4.050000
1972	4.860000	5.040000	5.040000	4.410000
1973	5.580000	5.850000	6.570000	5.310000
1974	6.030000	6.390000	6.930000	5.850000
1975	6.930000	7.740000	7.830000	6.120000
1976	7.740000	8.910000	8.280000	6.840000
1977	9.540000	10.260000	9.540000	8.729999
1978	11.880000	12.060000	12.150000	8.910000
1979	14.040000	12.960000	14.850000	9.990000
1980	16.200000	14.670000	16.020000	11.610000

```
tseries<-data(jj)
```

```
plot(jj,  
      type='o',  
      ylab='Quartely Earnings per Share',  
      frame=FALSE,  
      col='steel blue'  
)
```



This figure shows quarterly earnings per share for the US company Johnson and Johnson, furnished by Professor Paul Griffin. There are 84 quaters (84/4=21 years) measured from the first quarter of 1960 to the last quarter of 1980. Modelling such a series begins by observing the primary patterns in the time history?. In this case, note the gradually increasing underlying trend and the rather regular variation superimposed on the trend that seems to repeat over quarters .

## Global mean land-ocean temperature deviations to 2015

```
globtemp
```

```
Time Series:
```

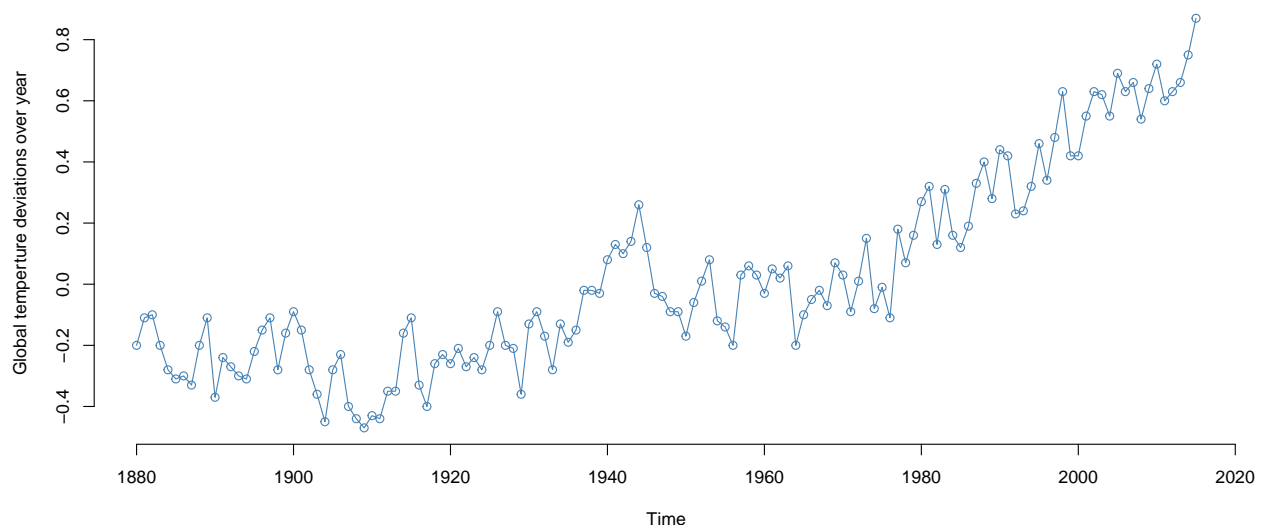
```
Start = 1880
```

```
End = 2015
```

```
Frequency = 1
```

```
[1] -0.20 -0.11 -0.10 -0.20 -0.28 -0.31 -0.30 -0.33 -0.20 -0.11 -0.37 -0.24
[13] -0.27 -0.30 -0.31 -0.22 -0.15 -0.11 -0.28 -0.16 -0.09 -0.15 -0.28 -0.36
[25] -0.45 -0.28 -0.23 -0.40 -0.44 -0.47 -0.43 -0.44 -0.35 -0.35 -0.16 -0.11
[37] -0.33 -0.40 -0.26 -0.23 -0.26 -0.21 -0.27 -0.24 -0.28 -0.20 -0.09 -0.20
[49] -0.21 -0.36 -0.13 -0.09 -0.17 -0.28 -0.13 -0.19 -0.15 -0.02 -0.02 -0.03
[61]  0.08  0.13  0.10  0.14  0.26  0.12 -0.03 -0.04 -0.09 -0.09 -0.17 -0.06
[73]  0.01  0.08 -0.12 -0.14 -0.20  0.03  0.06  0.03 -0.03  0.05  0.02  0.06
[85] -0.20 -0.10 -0.05 -0.02 -0.07  0.07  0.03 -0.09  0.01  0.15 -0.08 -0.01
[97] -0.11  0.18  0.07  0.16  0.27  0.32  0.13  0.31  0.16  0.12  0.19  0.33
[109]  0.40  0.28  0.44  0.42  0.23  0.24  0.32  0.46  0.34  0.48  0.63  0.42
[121]  0.42  0.55  0.63  0.62  0.55  0.69  0.63  0.66  0.54  0.64  0.72  0.60
[133]  0.63  0.66  0.75  0.87
```

```
tseries<-data(jj)
plot(globtemp,
     type='o',
     ylab='Global temperture deviations over year',
     frame=FALSE,
     col='steel blue'
)
```



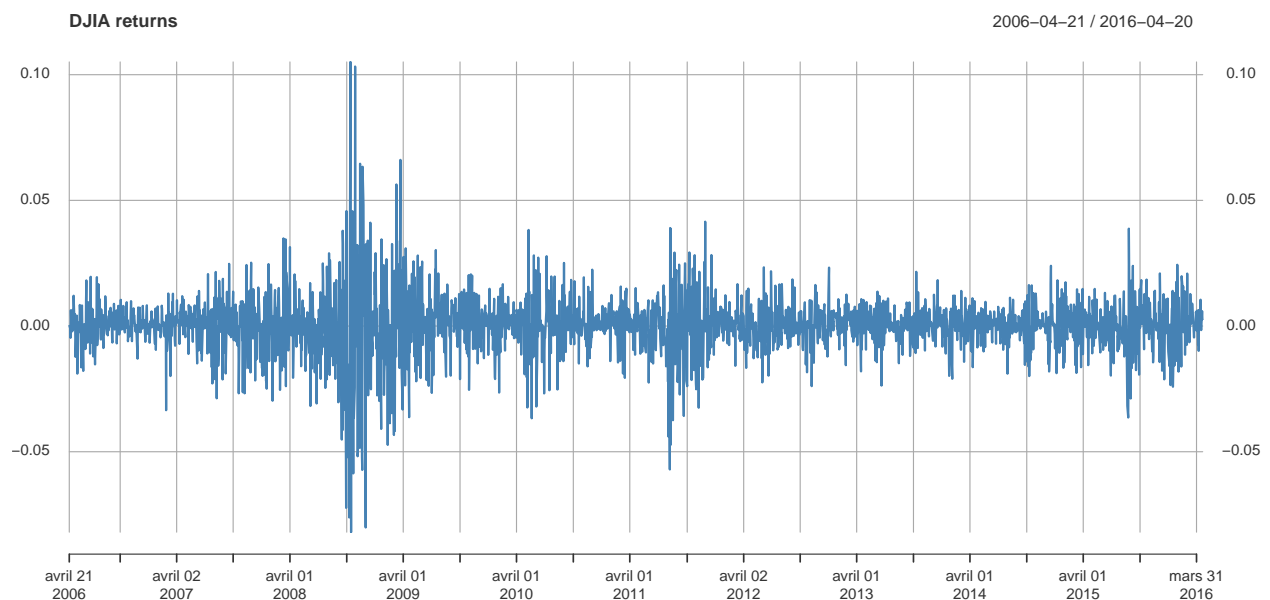
The figure shows the global temperature series record. The data are the global mean land-ocean temperature index from 1880 to 2015. We note an apparent upward trend in the series during the latter part of the twentieth century that has been used as an argument for the global warming hypothesis. Note also the

leveling off at about 1935 and then another rather sharp upward trend at about 1970. ## Dow Jones Industrial Average

```
djia[1:10]
```

	Open	High	Low	Close	Volume
2006-04-20	11278.53	11384.11	11275.05	11342.89	336420000
2006-04-21	11343.45	11405.88	11316.79	11347.45	325090000
2006-04-24	11346.81	11359.70	11305.83	11336.32	232000000
2006-04-25	11336.56	11355.37	11260.84	11283.25	289230000
2006-04-26	11283.25	11379.87	11282.77	11354.49	270270000
2006-04-27	11349.53	11416.93	11275.30	11382.51	361740000
2006-04-28	11358.33	11417.66	11347.21	11367.14	738440000
2006-05-01	11367.78	11428.37	11329.44	11343.29	365970000
2006-05-02	11345.21	11427.65	11345.13	11416.45	335420000
2006-05-03	11414.69	11424.93	11362.42	11400.28	380540000

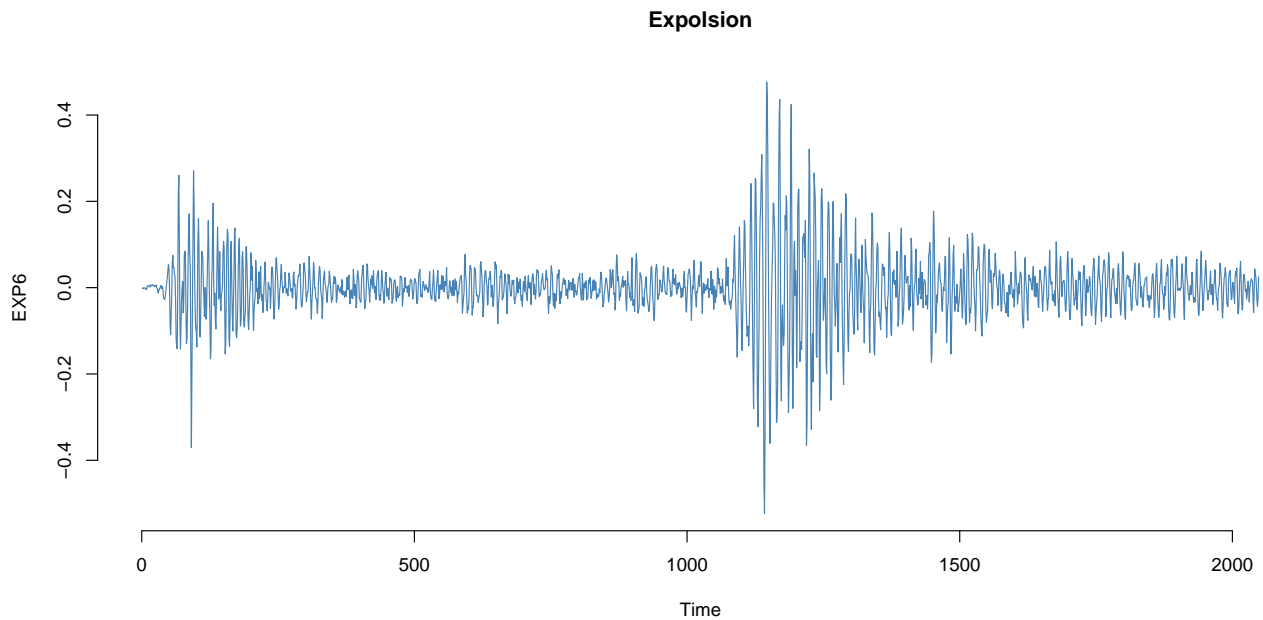
```
djiaReturns<-diff(log(djia$Close))[-1]
plot(djiaReturns,
     main='DJIA returns',
     frame=FALSE,
     col='steel blue'
)
```



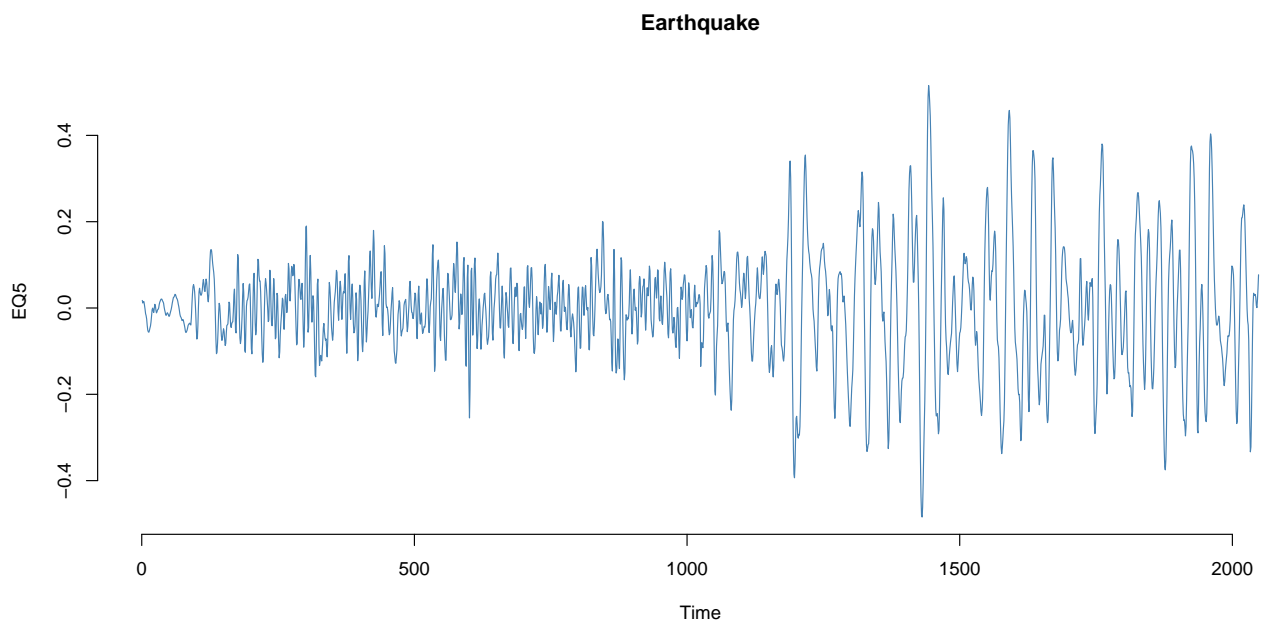
This is an example of financial time series data. It shows the daily returns of the Dow Jones Industrial Average from April 20, 2006, to April 20, 2016. This is a typical return data. The mean of the series appears to be stable with an average return approximately zero. A problem in the analysis of this type of financial data is to forecast the volatility of future returns. It's easy to spot the financial crisis of 2008.

## Seismic Trace of Explosion and Earthquake

```
plot(EXP6,
     main='Explosion',
     frame=FALSE,
     col='steel blue'
)
```



```
plot(EQ5,
     main='Earthquake',
     frame=FALSE,
     col='steel blue'
)
```



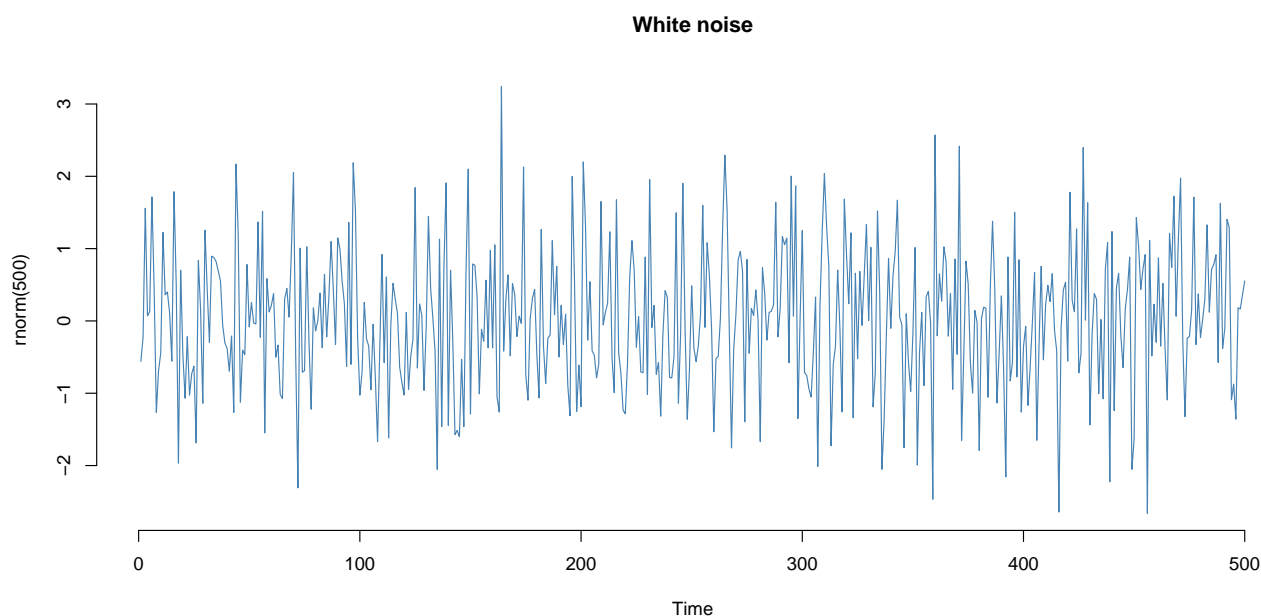
These two last examples represent two phases denoted by  $P(t = 1, \dots, 1024)$  and  $S(t = 1025, \dots, 2048)$  at a seismic recording station. The recording instruments in Scandinavia are observing earthquake and mining explosion. The general problem of interest is in distinguishing or discriminating between waveforms generated by earthquakes and those generated by explosion. We can also focus on the amplitude ratios between the two phases, which tend to be smaller for earthquakes than for explosions.

## WHITE NOISE

A simple kind of generated series might be a collection of uncorrelated random variables,  $(\epsilon_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  with mean 0 and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . The time series generated from uncorrelated variables is used as a model for noise in engineering applications where it is called *white noise*. The designation white originates from the analogy with white light and indicates that all possible periodic oscillations are present with equal strength.

We will sometimes require the noise to be independent and identically distributed (iid). A particularly useful white noise series is Gaussian white noise where  $\epsilon_t \approx \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

```
set.seed(123)
plot.ts(rnorm(500),
        frame=FALSE,
        main='White noise',
        col='steel blue'
        )
```



We note mixture of many different kinds of oscillations. But the white noise alone cannot explain all time series behavior. If it was the case, classical statistical methods would suffice. To model a time series for forecasting or predicting purpose, we should take account of serial correlation between observations.

## MOVING AVERAGE

We might replace the white noise series  $\epsilon_t$  by a moving average that smooths the series. For example, consider replacing  $\epsilon_t$  by an average of its current value and its immediate neighbors in the past and future. That is, let

$$X_t = \frac{1}{3}(\epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t + \epsilon_{t+1})$$

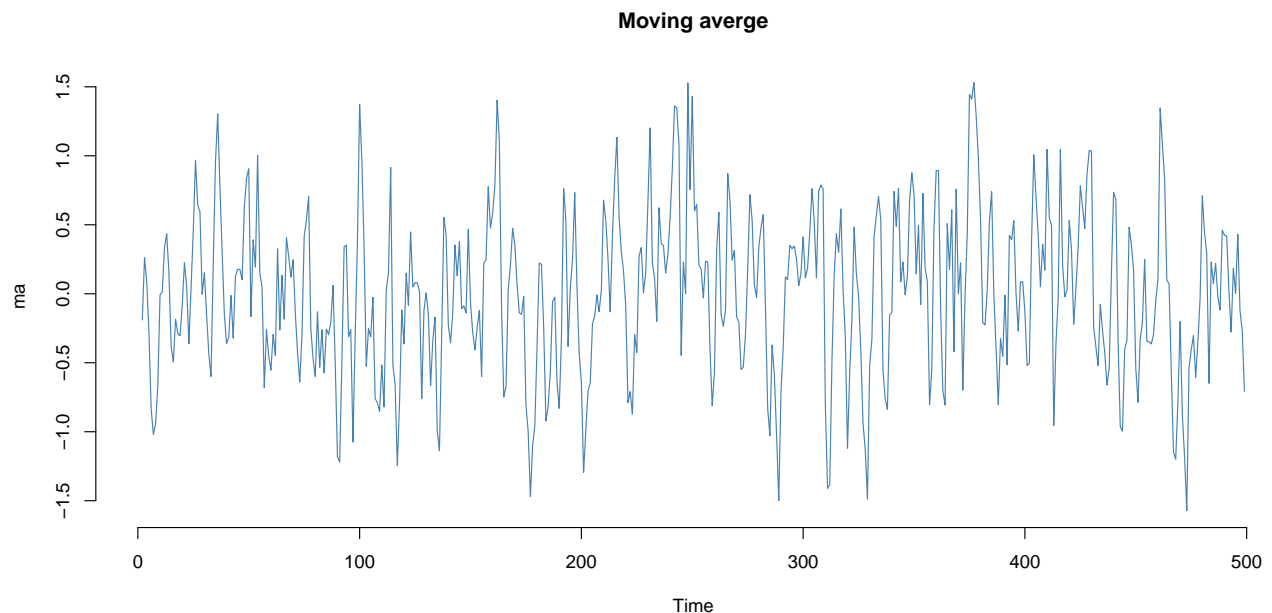
To get the moving average we can use the command *filter* in *stats* package.

```
filter(x, filter, method= c("convolution", "recursive"), sides= 2, circular = FALSE)
```

**Arguments:**

- `x` a univariate or multivariate time series.
- `filter` a vector of filter coefficients in reverse time order (as for AR or MA coefficients).
- `method` Either *convolution* or *recursive* (and can be abbreviated). If “convolution” a moving average is used: if “recursive” an autoregression is used.
- `sides` for convolution filters only. If `sides = 1` the filter coefficients are for past values only; if `sides = 2` they are centred around lag 0. In this case the length of the filter should be odd, but if it is even, more of the filter is forward in time than backward.
- `circular` for convolution filters only. If TRUE, wrap the filter around the ends of the series, otherwise assume external values are missing (NA).

```
ma<-stats::filter(rnorm(500),
                  sides = 2,
                  method = 'convolution',
                  filter=rep(1/3,3),
                  )
plot.ts(ma,
        main = 'Moving average',
        frame.plot = FALSE,
        col='steel blue'
        )
```



Oscillations are more apparent and some of the faster oscillations are taken out.

## AUTOREGRESSIONS

$$X_t = X_{t-1} - 9X_{t-2} + \epsilon_t$$

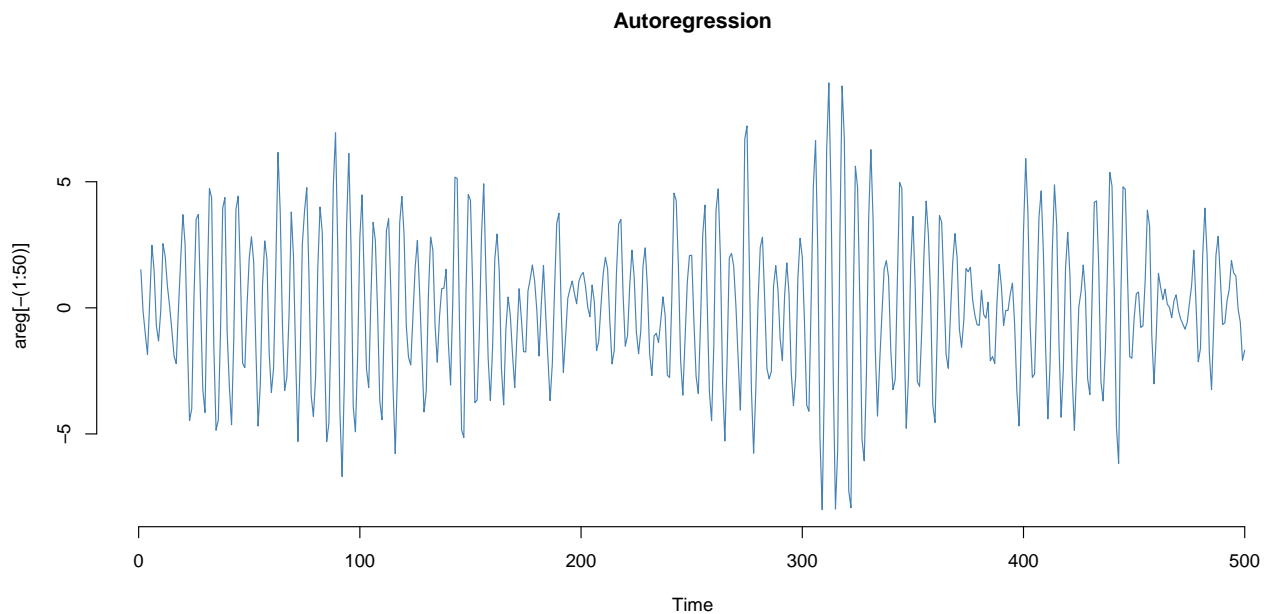
This equation represents a regression or prediction of the current value  $X_t$  of a time series as a function of the past two values of the series. A problem with startup values exists because the equation depends on the initial conditions.

The function *filter* uses zero for the initial values. To fix that we can run *filter* for more than needed and remove the initial values.

```

areg<-stats::filter(rnorm(550),
                    method = 'recursive',
                    filter=c(1,-.9)
                )
plot.ts(areg[-(1:50)],
        main = 'Autoregression',
        frame.plot = FALSE,
        col='steel blue'
    )

```



## RANDOM WALK WITH DRIFT

A model for analysing trend such as seen in the global temperature data is the random walk with drift model given by

$$X_t = \delta + X_{t-1} + \epsilon_t; \quad X_0 = 0$$

$\delta$  is called drift and when  $\delta = 0$  is called simply a random walk.

$$X_t = \delta t + \sum_{i=1}^t \epsilon_i$$

```

wn<-rnorm(200)
rwd<-cumsum(wn+0.2)
rw<-cumsum(wn)
plot.ts(rwd,
        main='Random walk with drift',
        col='steel blue',
        frame=FALSE,
        ylim=c(-5,50)
    )
lines(rw,
      col='blue'
    )

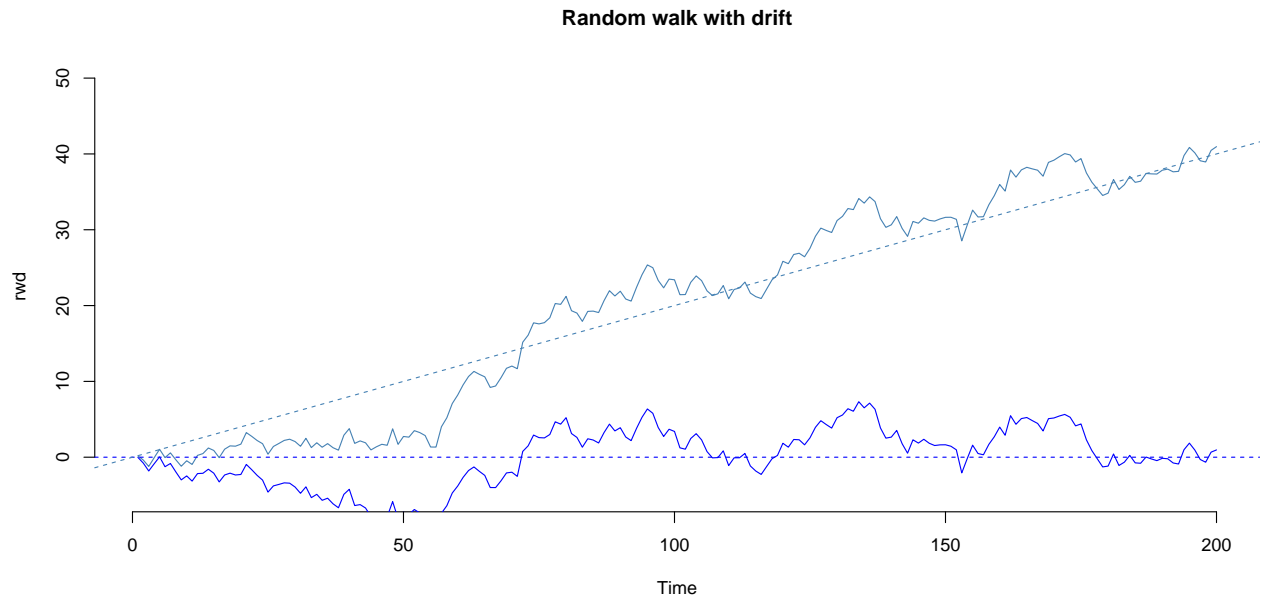
```



```

)
abline(h=0,
      lty=2,
      col='blue'
)
abline(a=0,
      b=0.2,
      lty=2,
      col='steel blue'
)

```



## SIGNAL IN NOISE

Many realistic models for generating time series assume an underlying signal with some consistent periodic variation, contaminated by adding a random noise.

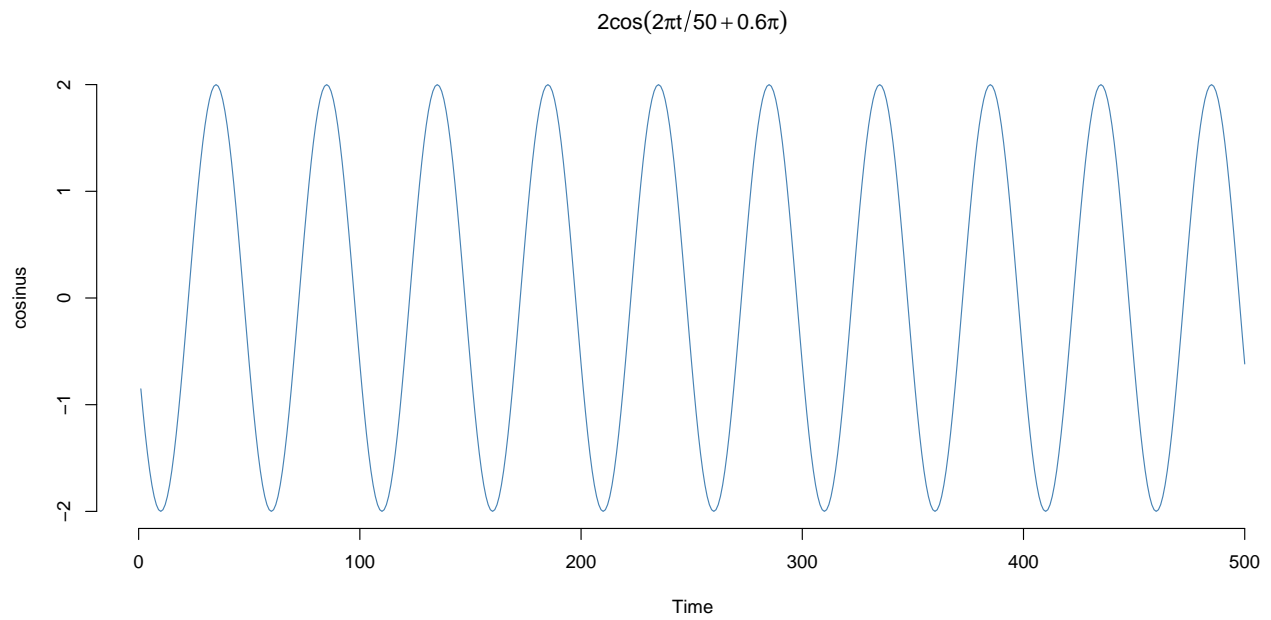
$$X_t = 2 \cos\left(2\pi \frac{t+15}{50}\right) + \epsilon_t$$

- $A=2$  is the amplitude
- $\omega = \frac{1}{50}$  is the frequency of oscillations (one cycle every 50 time points)
- $\phi = 2\pi \frac{15}{50} = 0.6\pi$  is the phase shift

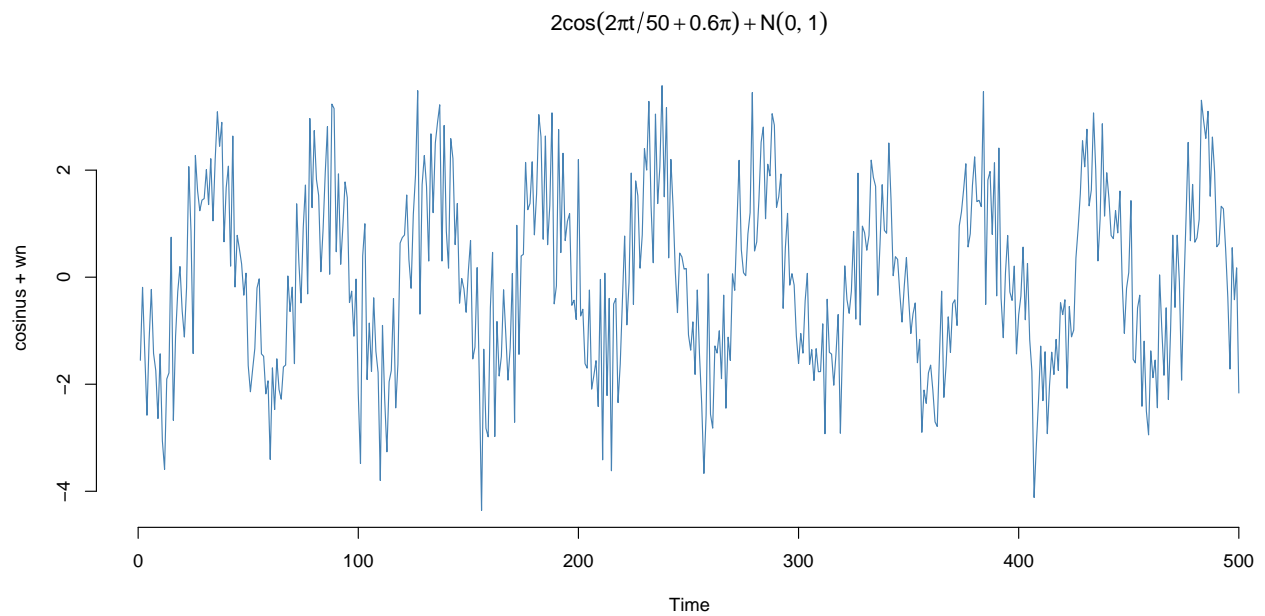
```

wn<-rnorm(500)
cosinus<-2*cos(2*pi*1:500/50+.6*pi)
plot.ts(cosinus,
      col='steel blue',
      frame=FALSE,
      main=expression(2*cos(2*pi*t/50+.6*pi))
)

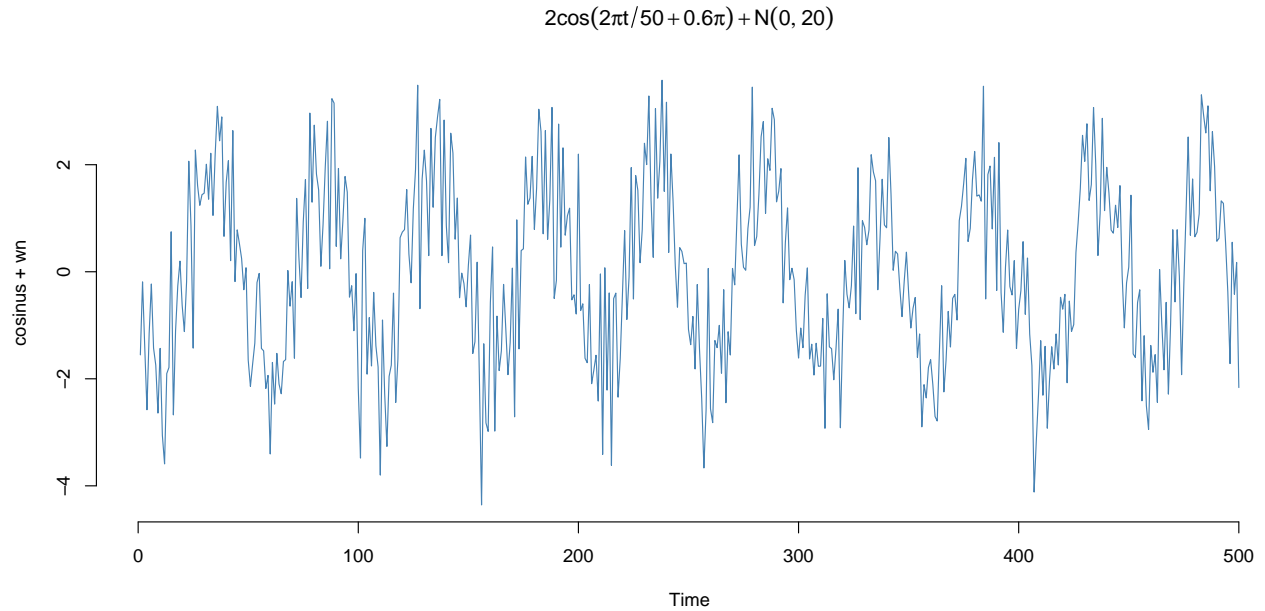
```



```
plot.ts(cosinus+wn,
  col='steel blue',
  frame=FALSE,
  main=expression(2*cos(2*pi*t/50+.6*pi)+N(0,1))
)
```



```
plot.ts(cosinus+wn,
  col='steel blue',
  frame=FALSE,
  main=expression(2*cos(2*pi*t/50+.6*pi)+N(0,20))
)
```



#### # MEAN FUNCTION

The mean function is defined as

$$\mu_t = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x X_t dx$$

Example the mean function of the moving average seen in the preview chapter is

$$\mu_t = \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{3}[\epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t + \epsilon_{t-2}]\right)$$

$$\mu_t = 0$$

**Random walk :**

$$\mu_t = \mathbb{E}\left(\delta t + \sum_{i=1}^t \epsilon_i\right)$$

$$\mu_t = \delta t$$

The mean function of a random walk is a straight line with a slope equal to the random walk's drift  $\delta$ .

## AUTO-COVARIANCE FUNCTION

The autocovariance function is defined as the second moment product

$$\gamma(s, t) = \text{cov}(X_t, X_s) = \mathbb{E}[(X_t - \mu_t)(X_s - \mu_s)]$$

The autocovariance measures the linear dependence between two points of the same series observed at the different times. Very smooth series exhibit autocovariance functions that stay large even when the  $t$  and  $s$  are far apart, whereas choppy series tend to have autocovariance functions that are nearly zero for large separations.

If  $\gamma(s, t) = 0$ , there is no linear dependence between  $X_t$  and  $X_s$  but there still may be some dependence structure. However if  $X_t$  and  $X_s$  are bivariate normal,  $\gamma(s, t) = 0$  ensures their independences.

$$\text{var}(X_t) = \mathbb{E}[(X_t - \mu_t)^2] = \gamma(t)$$