

Time Series: A First Course with Bootstrap Starter

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insertions cf chap 3 ou 4

Lesson 6-1: Spectral Density

- We define the spectral density, which allows us to do time series analysis in the frequency (or Fourier) domain.

Definition 6.1.2.

- The *spectral density* of a stationary time series is

$$f(\lambda) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(k) e^{-i\lambda k},$$

for $\lambda \in [-\pi, \pi]$.

- Also the spectral density is the restriction of the AGF to the unit circle: $f(\lambda) = G(e^{-i\lambda})$.
- A sufficient condition for existence is absolute summability of the autocovariances. This also guarantees $f(\lambda)$ is continuous.

Remark 6.1.6. Spectral Representation of the Autocovariance.

- By Fourier inversion, we can recover the autocovariances from the spectral density:

$$\gamma(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\lambda) e^{i\lambda k} d\lambda.$$

- So for $k = 0$, we see the process' variance is the average integral of f .

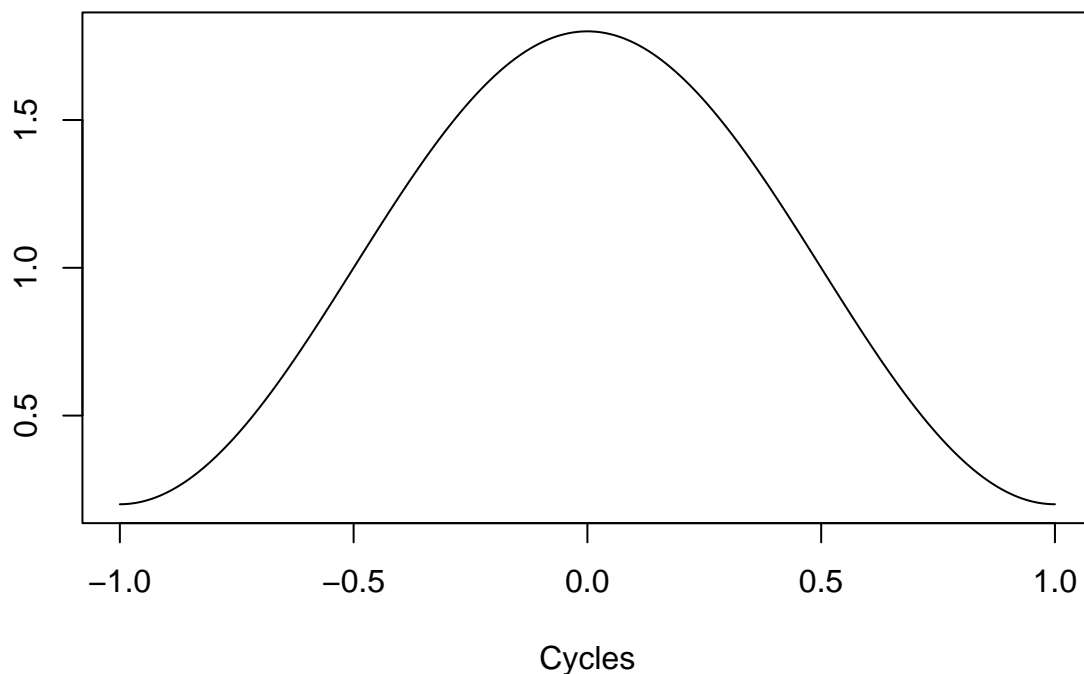
Exercise 6.4. MA(1) Spectral Density.

- For an MA(1), the spectral density is

$$f(\lambda) = \gamma(0) + 2\gamma(1) \cos(\lambda) = \gamma(0) (1 + 2\rho(1) \cos(\lambda)).$$

- We plot $f(\lambda)$ for $\rho(1) = .4$ and $\gamma(0) = 1$.
- The units are in π , called "Cycles".

```
mesh <- 1000
lambda <- pi*seq(-mesh,mesh)/mesh
rho.1 <- .4
spec <- 1 + 2*rho.1*cos(lambda)
plot(ts(spec,start=-1,frequency=mesh),xlab="Cycles",ylab="")
abline(h=0,col=2)
```



Fact 6.1.8. Further Properties of the Spectral Density

- Because $\gamma(k) = \gamma(-k)$, $f(\lambda)$ is real and even.
- Also $f(\lambda) \geq 0$ follows from positive definite property.

Exercise 6.7. MA(q) Spectral Density Computation.

- For an MA(q), the spectral density is

$$f(\lambda) = \gamma(0) \left(1 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^q \rho(k) \cos(\lambda k) \right).$$

- Since it is even, we can just focus on $\lambda \in [0, \pi]$.

```
maq.spec <- function(ma.acf,mesh)
{
  q <- length(ma.acf)-1
  lambda <- pi*seq(0,mesh)/mesh
  spec <- ma.acf[1]*cos(0*lambda)
  if(q > 0)
  {
    for(k in 1:q)
    {
      spec <- spec + 2*ma.acf[k+1]*cos(k*lambda)
    }
  }
}
```

```

    return(spec)
}

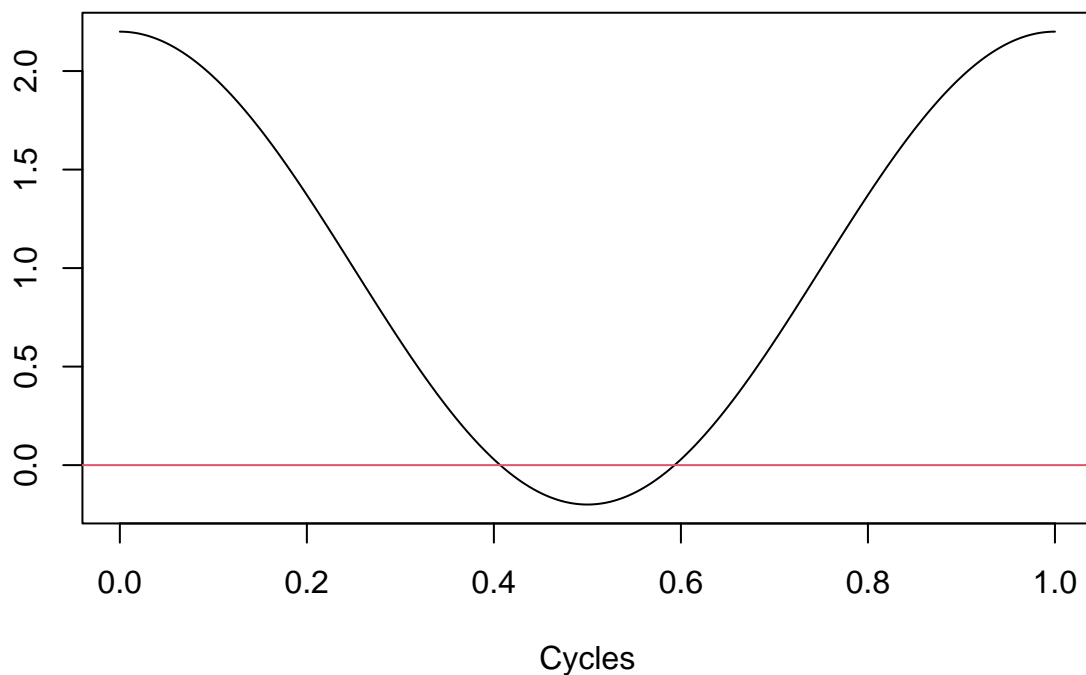
```

- We plot $f(\lambda)$ with $q = 2$, $\gamma(0) = 1$, $\rho(1) = 0$, and $\rho(2) = .6$.
- However, these values do not correspond to a positive definite autocovariance, and the resulting function takes negative values.
- Q: est ce grave ? see recording
- arguments fonction: detail ?
- variance et q autocorrelations (1 à q)
- ma.acf stocke ces q+1 valeurs, q est deduit

```

spec <- maq.spec(c(1,0,.6),mesh)
plot(ts(spec,start=0,frequency=mesh),xlab="Cycles",ylab="")
abline(h=0,col=2)

```



Corollary 6.1.9.

- Suppose we filter stationary $\{X_t\}$ with some $\psi(B)$, yielding $Y_t = \psi(B)X_t$. Then the spectral densities of input and output are related by

$$f_y(\lambda) = |\psi(e^{-i\lambda})|^2 f_x(\lambda).$$

- This follows from Theorem 5.6.6.
- We call $\psi(e^{-i\lambda})$ the *frequency response function* of the filter $\psi(B)$.
- We call $|\psi(e^{-i\lambda})|^2$ the *squared gain function* of the filter $\psi(B)$.

Theorem 6.1.12.

Let $\{X_t\}$ be a stationary ARMA(p, q) process such that $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$, for $Z_t \sim \text{WN}(0, \sigma^2)$. Suppose $\phi(z)$ has no roots on the unit circle. Then the spectral density exists:

$$f(\lambda) = \sigma^2 \frac{|\theta(e^{-i\lambda})|^2}{|\phi(e^{-i\lambda})|^2}$$

Exercise 6.12. ARMA(p, q) Spectral Density.

- We write code for the ARMA spectral density, based on the formula of Theorem 6.1.12, taking as input the $\theta(z)$ and $\phi(z)$ polynomials.

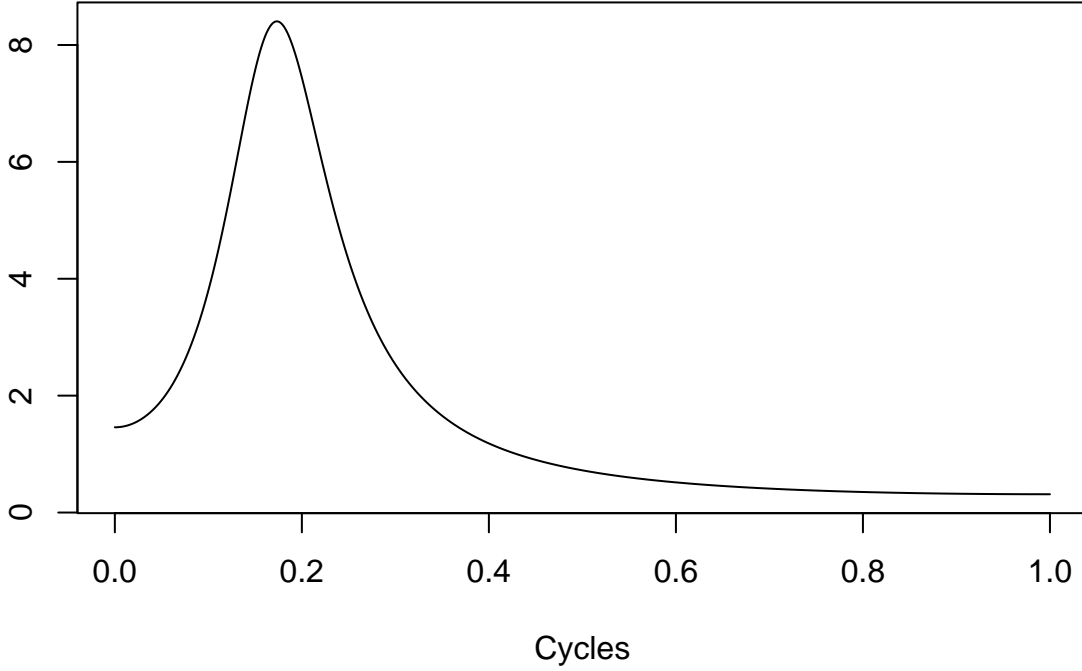
```
armapq.spec <- function(ar.coef,ma.coef,sigma,mesh)
{
  p <- length(ar.coef)
  q <- length(ma.coef)
  lambda <- pi*seq(0,mesh)/mesh
  spec.ar <- rep(1,mesh+1)
  if(p > 0)
  {
    for(k in 1:p)
    {
      spec.ar <- spec.ar - ar.coef[k]*exp(-1i*lambda*k)
    }
  }
  spec.ma <- rep(1,mesh+1)
  if(q > 0)
  {
    for(k in 1:q)
    {
      spec.ma <- spec.ma + ma.coef[k]*exp(-1i*lambda*k)
    }
  }
  spec <- sigma^2*Mod(spec.ma)^2/Mod(spec.ar)^2
  return(spec)
}
```

- We plot the spectral density of the cyclic ARMA(2,1) process of Example 5.7.2: for $\rho \in (0, 1)$ and $\omega \in (0, \pi)$, let $\{X_t\}$ satisfy

$$(1 - 2\rho \cos(\omega)B + \rho^2 B^2)X_t = (1 - \rho \cos(\omega)B)Z_t.$$

- We set $\rho = .8$ and $\omega = \pi/6$.

```
spec <- NULL
mesh <- 1000
rho <- .8
omega <- pi/6
ar.coef <- c(2*rho*cos(omega), -1*rho^2)
ma.coef <- -1*rho*cos(omega)
spec <- armapq.spec(ar.coef,ma.coef,1,mesh)
plot(ts(spec,start=0,frequency=mesh),xlab="Cycles",ylab="",main="")
```



Corollary 6.1.14.

- Let $\{X_t\}$ be a weakly stationary, mean zero time series with strictly positive spectral density of form given in Theorem 6.1.12. Then there exists a white noise $\{Z_t\}$ such that $\phi(B)X_t = \theta(B)Z_t$.
- This is proved by defining $Z_t = \psi(B)X_t$ with $\psi(z) = \phi(z)/\theta(z)$, and checking that $\{Z_t\}$ is white noise.
- This $\psi(B)$ is a *whitening filter*. It transforms a time series to white noise!

Theorem 6.1.16. MA(∞) Representation.

Let $\{X_t\}$ be a weakly stationary, mean zero time series with autocovariance function $\gamma(k)$ that is absolutely summable, and positive spectral density. Then $\{X_t\}$ is an MA(∞) process with respect to some white noise $\{Z_t\}$:

$$X_t = \sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j Z_{t-j},$$

and $\psi_0 = 1$.

Corollary 6.1.17. AR(∞) Representation.

Under the assumptions of Theorem 6.1.16, $\{X_t\}$ is an AR(∞) process with respect to the same white noise $\{Z_t\}$:

$$X_t = - \sum_{j \geq 1} \pi_j X_{t-j} + Z_t.$$

Lesson 6-2: Filtering in Frequency Domain

- Filters extract (or suppress) features of interest from a time series.

- Using Corollary 6.1.9, we can see in frequency domain how extraction and suppression occurs.

Example 6.2.1. Business Cycle in Housing Starts.

- Example 3.6.13 decomposed West Housing Starts into Trend, Seasonal, and Irregular.

```
hpsa <- function(n,period,q,r)
{
  # hpsa
  #   gives an HP filter for seasonal data
  #   presumes trend+seas+irreg structure
  #   trend is integrated rw
  #   seas is seasonal rw
  #   irreg is un
  #   q is snr for trend to irreg
  #   r is snr for seas to irreg

  # define trend differencing matrix

  delta.mat <- diag(n)
  temp.mat <- 0*diag(n)
  temp.mat[-1,-n] <- -2*diag(n-1)
  delta.mat <- delta.mat + temp.mat
  temp.mat <- 0*diag(n)
  temp.mat[c(-1,-2),c(-n,-n+1)] <- 1*diag(n-2)
  delta.mat <- delta.mat + temp.mat
  diff.mat <- delta.mat[3:n,]

  # define seasonal differencing matrix

  delta.mat <- diag(n)
  temp.mat <- 0*diag(n)
  inds <- 0
  for(t in 1:(period-1))
  {
    temp.mat <- 0*diag(n)
    temp.mat[-(1+inds),-(n-inds)] <- 1*diag(n-t)
    delta.mat <- delta.mat + temp.mat
    inds <- c(inds,t)
  }
  sum.mat <- delta.mat[period:n,]

  # define two-comp sig ex matrices

  #trend.mat <- solve(diag(n) + t(diff.mat) %*% diff.mat/q)
  #seas.mat <- solve(diag(n) + t(sum.mat) %*% sum.mat/r)
  trend.mat <- diag(n) - t(diff.mat) %*% solve(q*diag(n-2) + diff.mat %*%
    t(diff.mat)) %*% diff.mat
  seas.mat <- diag(n) - t(sum.mat) %*% solve(r*diag(n-period+1) + sum.mat %*%
    t(sum.mat)) %*% sum.mat

  # define three-comp sig ex matrices

  trend.filter <- solve(diag(n) - trend.mat %*% seas.mat) %*%
```

```

trend.mat %*% (diag(n) - seas.mat)
seas.filter <- solve(diag(n) - seas.mat %*% trend.mat) %*%
seas.mat %*% (diag(n) - trend.mat)
irreg.filter <- diag(n) - (trend.filter + seas.filter)

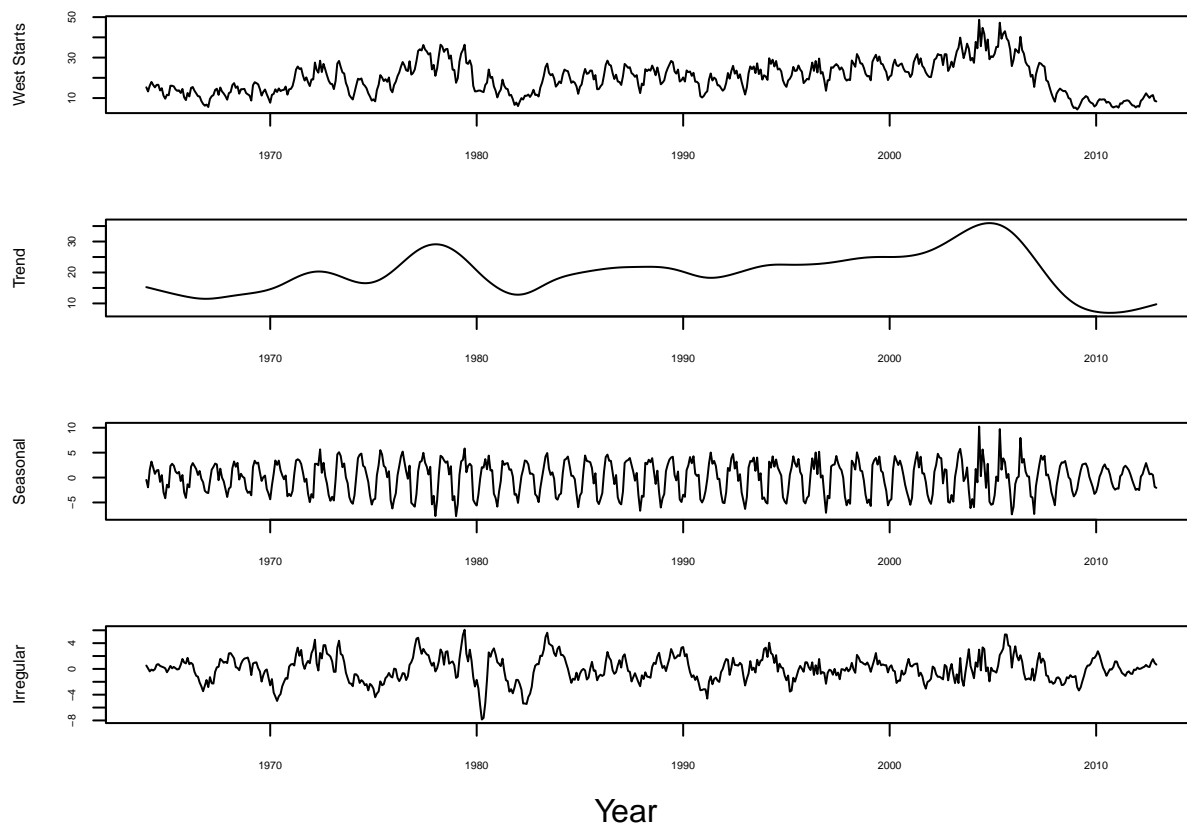
filters <- list(trend.filter,seas.filter,irreg.filter)
return(filters)
}

Wstarts <- read.table("Wstarts.b1",skip=2)[,2]
Wstarts <- ts(Wstarts,start = 1964,frequency=12)
n <- length(Wstarts)
q <- .0001
r <- 1
hp.filters <- hpsa(n,12,q,r)

wstarts.trend <- ts(hp.filters[[1]] %*% Wstarts,start=1964,frequency=12)
wstarts.seas <- ts(hp.filters[[2]] %*% Wstarts,start=1964,frequency=12)
wstarts.irreg <- ts(hp.filters[[3]] %*% Wstarts,start=1964,frequency=12)

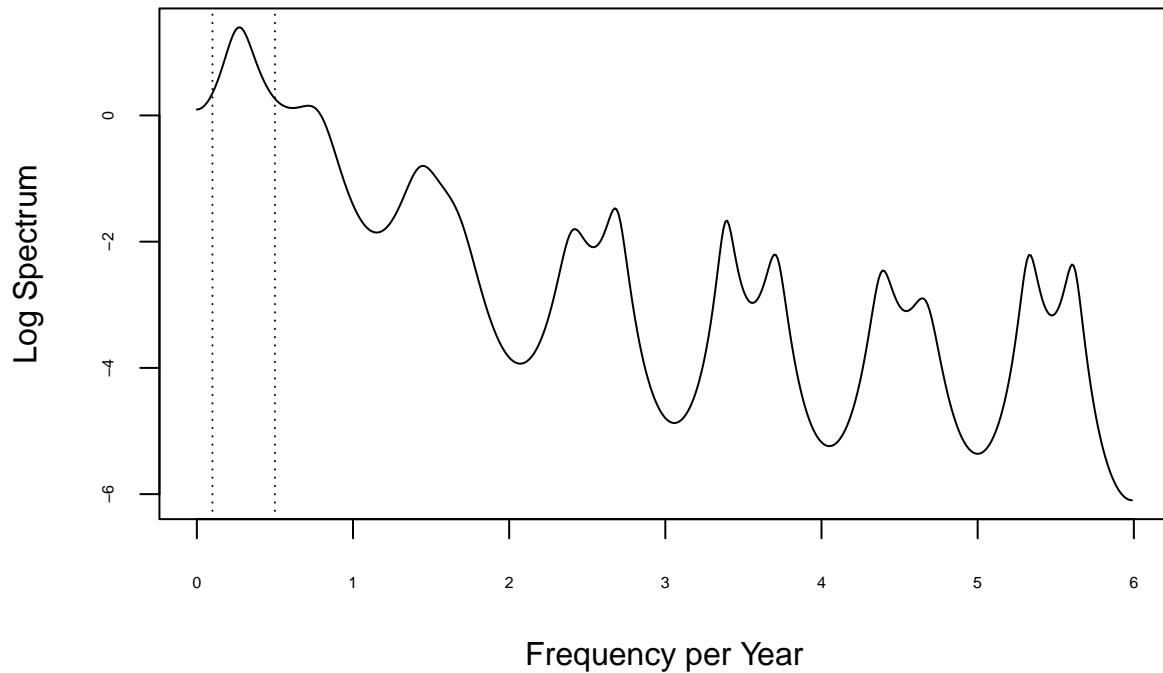
par(oma=c(2,0,0,0),mar=c(2,4,2,2)+0.1,mfrow=c(4,1),cex.lab=.8)
plot(Wstarts, ylab="West Starts",xlab="",yaxt="n",xaxt="n")
axis(1,cex.axis=.5)
axis(2,cex.axis=.5)
plot(wstarts.trend,xlab="",ylab = "Trend",yaxt="n",xaxt="n")
axis(1,cex.axis=.5)
axis(2,cex.axis=.5)
plot(wstarts.seas,xlab="",ylab = "Seasonal",yaxt="n",xaxt="n")
axis(1,cex.axis=.5)
axis(2,cex.axis=.5)
plot(wstarts.irreg,xlab="",ylab = "Irregular",yaxt="n",xaxt="n")
axis(1,cex.axis=.5)
axis(2,cex.axis=.5)
mtext(text="Year",side=1,line=1,outer=TRUE)

```

- We fit (e.g. via ordinary least squares) an AR(26) to the Irregular component, and plot the log spectral density.
- The units are in terms of $2\pi/12$, so the x-axis numbers represent multiples of $\pi/6$.
- There are vertical bands for frequency between .5 and .1, corresponding to period between 2 and 10 years. This is the *business cycle* range.

```
ar.fit <- spec.ar(ts(wstarts.irreg,frequency=12),plot=FALSE)
plot(ts(log(ar.fit$spec),start=0,frequency=500/6),xlab="Frequency per Year",
      ylab="Log Spectrum",yaxt="n",xaxt="n")
axis(1,cex.axis=.5)
axis(2,cex.axis=.5)
abline(v=.5,lty=3)
abline(v=.1,lty=3)
```



Remark 6.2.2. Spectral Peaks and Oscillation Frequencies

- Higher values of the spectral density correspond to frequencies with more variability.
- A peak in the spectral density at a frequency λ corresponds to an oscillation, or cyclical effect in the process.

Fact 6.2.5. Suppression and Extraction

- Suppose $\{X_t\}$ is filtered with $\psi(B)$, so that $Y_t = \psi(B)X_t$.
- If $\psi(e^{-i\lambda}) = 0$, then $f_y(\lambda) = 0$, and λ is *suppressed*. The set of such frequencies is the *stop-band*.
- If $\psi(e^{-i\lambda}) = 1$, then $f_y(\lambda) = f_x(\lambda)$, and λ is *extracted*. The set of such frequencies is the *pass-band*.

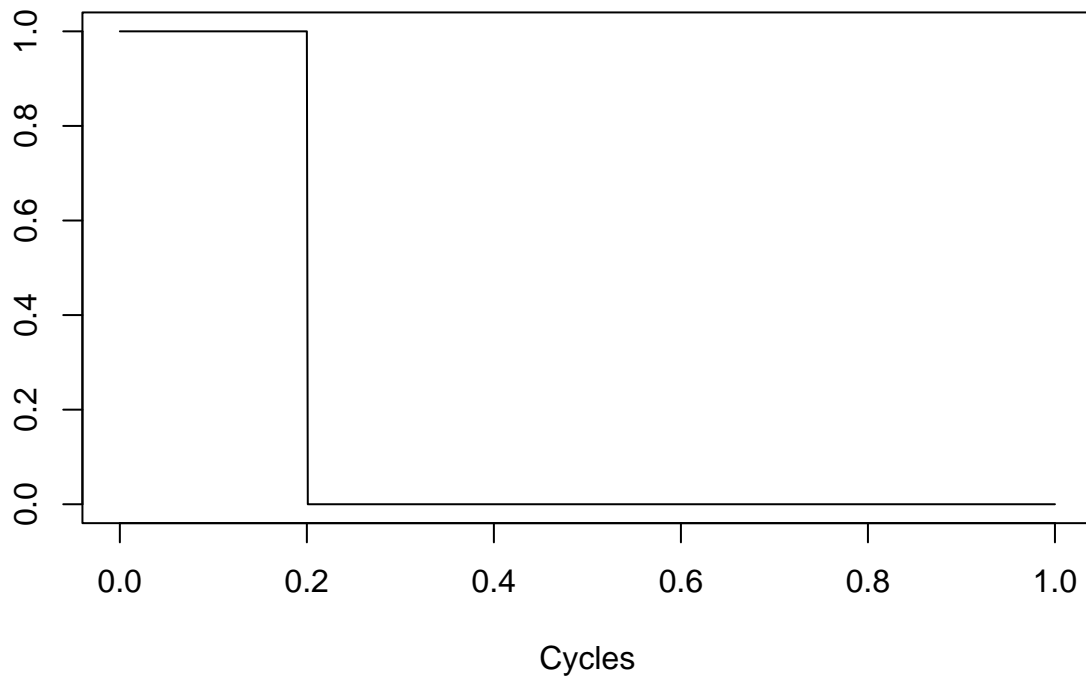
Exercise 6.22. The Ideal Low-Pass Filter

- The Ideal Low-pass is defined with frequency response function

$$\psi(e^{-i\lambda}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |\lambda| \leq \mu \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

- We plot with cut-off $\mu = \pi/5$.

```
mu <- pi/5
mesh <- 1000
lambda <- pi*seq(0,mesh)/mesh
psi.frf <- rep(0,mesh+1)
psi.frf[lambda <= mu] <- 1
plot(ts(psi.frf,start=0,frequency=mesh),ylab="",xlab="Cycles")
```



- It is hard to implement, since the filter coefficients decay slowly (and hence truncation is expensive).

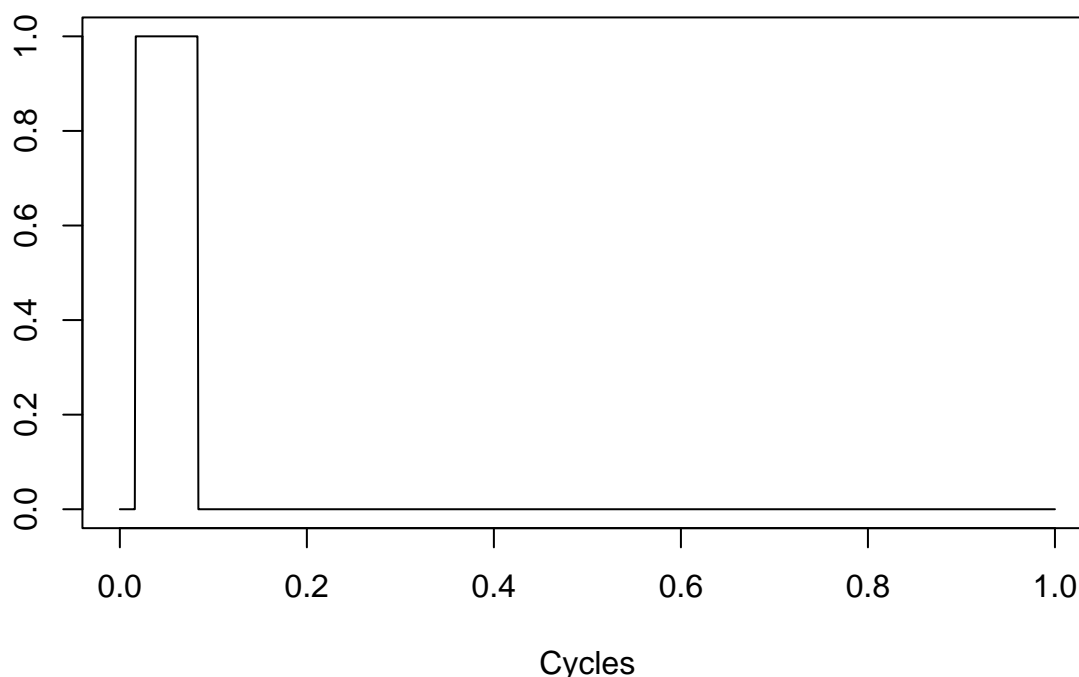
Exercise 6.23. The Ideal Band-Pass Filter

- The Ideal Band-pass is defined with frequency response function

$$\psi(e^{-i\lambda}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mu_1 < |\lambda| \leq \mu_2 \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

- We plot with cut-offs $\mu_1 = \pi/60$ and $\mu_2 = \pi/12$.

```
mu1 <- pi/60
mu2 <- pi/12
mesh <- 1000
lambda <- pi*seq(0,mesh)/mesh
psi.frf <- rep(0,mesh+1)
psi.frf[lambda <= mu2] <- 1
psi.frf[lambda <= mu1] <- 0
plot(ts(psi.frf,start=0,frequency=mesh),ylab="",xlab="Cycles")
```



Example 6.2.7. The Hodrick-Prescott Filter

- Proposed by Whitaker in 1927, but known as Hodrick-Prescott, the filter does trend extraction.
- The frequency response function resembles an ideal low-pass.
- For the decomposition of West Housing Starts, we used a modified Hodrick-Prescott that is adapted for finite samples, and accounts for seasonality.
- The Hodrick-Prescott filter depends on a parameter $q > 0$:

$$\psi(e^{-i\lambda}) = \frac{q}{q + |1 - e^{-i\lambda}|^4}.$$

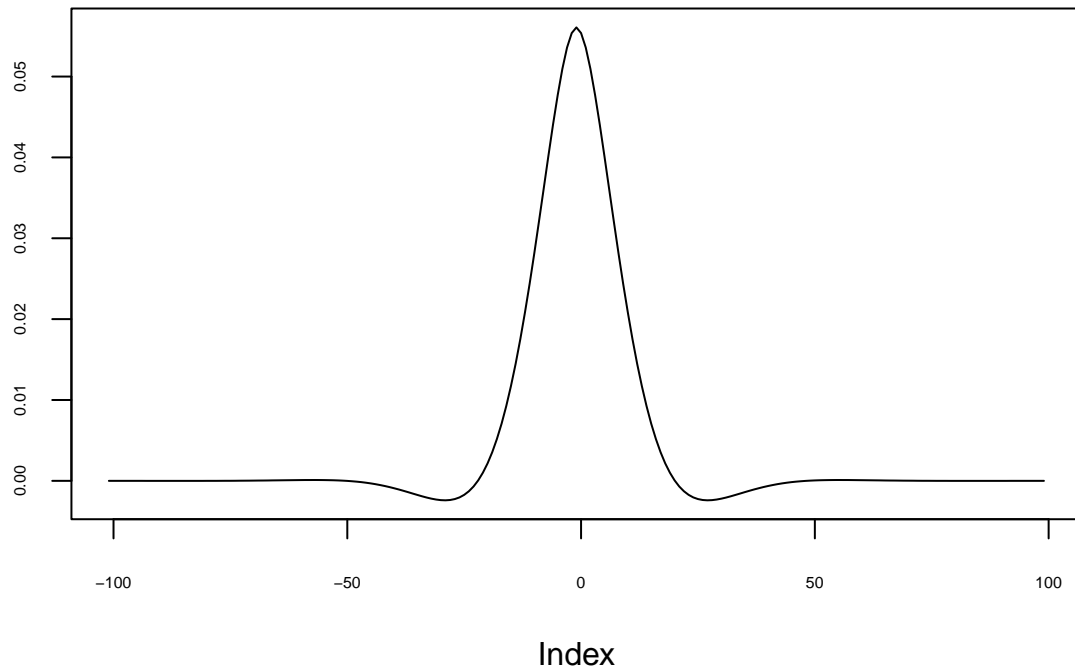
- There is a formula for the coefficients. We plot the filter coefficients with $q = 1/1600$.

```
q <- 1/1600

s <- (2*q + 2*q^(1/2)*(q+16)^(1/2))^(1/2)
r <- (q^(1/2) + (q+16)^(1/2) + s)/4
c <- q/r^2
phi1 <- 2*(q^(1/2)-(q+16)^(1/2))/(4*r)
phi2 <- (q^(1/2)+(q+16)^(1/2) - s)/(4*r)
theta <- atan(s/4)

lags <- seq(0,100)
psi <- 2*c*r^(4-lags)*sin(theta)*(r^2*sin(theta*(1+lags)) - sin(theta*(lags-1)))
psi <- psi/((1-2*r^2*cos(2*theta)+r^4)*(r^2-1)*(1-cos(2*theta)))
psi <- c(rev(psi),psi[-1])
```

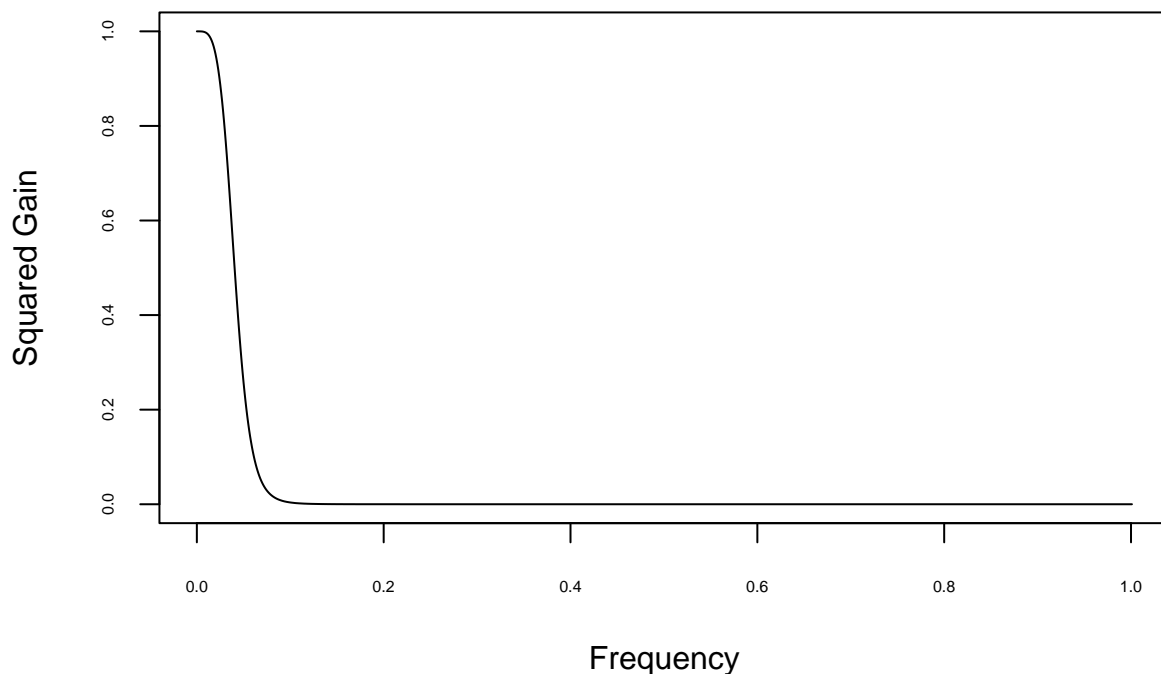
```
plot(ts(psi,start=-101),xlab="Index",ylab="",yaxt="n",xaxt="n")
axis(1,cex.axis=.5)
axis(2,cex.axis=.5)
```



- Next, we show the squared gain function.

```
grid <- 1000
lambda <- pi*seq(0,grid+1)/grid
gain <- q/(q + (2 - 2*cos(lambda))^2)
sq.gain <- gain^2

plot(ts(sq.gain,start=0,frequency=grid),xlab="Frequency",ylab="Squared Gain",
     yaxt="n",xaxt="n")
axis(1,cex.axis=.5)
axis(2,cex.axis=.5)
```



Lesson 6-3: Inverse Autocovariance

- Inverse autocovariances are related to whitening filters, and can be used for model identification.

Paradigm 6.3.1. Whitening a Time Series

- A *whitening filter* reduces a time series to white noise.
- Suppose $\{X_t\}$ is stationary with positive spectral density $f(\lambda)$. Then a whitening filter $\psi(B)$ has squared gain function

$$|\psi(e^{-i\lambda})|^2 \propto 1/f(\lambda).$$

- So $\psi(B)$ depends on the spectral density of the time series we are whitening. We can find $\psi(B)$ causal, i.e., $\psi(z)$ is a power series.

Definition 6.3.2

- A weakly stationary process is *invertible* if its spectral density is positive.
- By Corollary 6.1.17, the process has an $\text{AR}(\infty)$ representation, so we can “invert” the time series into a white noise.
- For prediction problems, a process should be invertible.

Example 6.3.3. Prediction of an MA(1) from an Infinite Past

- Let $\{X_t\}$ be an *invertible* MA(1) process with MA polynomial $1 + \theta_1 z$.
- Suppose we want to forecast 1-step ahead: we seek $\hat{X}_{t+1} = P_{\overline{\text{sp}}\{X_s, s \leq t\}}[X_{t+1}]$.
- This forecast is a causal filter: $\hat{X}_{t+1} = \sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j X_{t-j}$, with ψ_j to be determined from normal equations.

- The normal equations give us, for any $h \geq 0$:

$$\gamma(h+1) = \text{Cov}[X_{t+1}, X_{t-h}] = \text{Cov}[\hat{X}_{t+1}, X_{t-h}] = \sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j \text{Cov}[X_{t-j}, X_{t-h}] = \sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j \gamma(h-j).$$

- To solve this, rewrite the right hand side using Fourier inversion:

$$\sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j \gamma(h-j) = \sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda(h-j)} f(\lambda) d\lambda = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda h} \sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j e^{-i\lambda j} f(\lambda) d\lambda = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda h} \psi(e^{-i\lambda}) f(\lambda) d\lambda.$$

- Recall that $f(\lambda) = \sigma^2 |1 + \theta_1 e^{-i\lambda}|^2$. The invertibility assumption means that $1 + \theta_1 e^{-i\lambda}$ is non-zero for all λ .
- Claim: the prediction filter has frequency response function

$$\psi(e^{-i\lambda}) = \frac{\theta_1}{1 + \theta_1 e^{-i\lambda}},$$

which is well-defined by the invertibility assumption.

- To prove this claim, we plug in and check! The right hand side becomes

$$\sum_{j \geq 0} \psi_j \gamma(h-j) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda h} \frac{\theta_1}{1 + \theta_1 e^{-i\lambda}} f(\lambda) d\lambda = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda h} \theta_1 (1 + \theta_1 e^{i\lambda}) \sigma^2 d\lambda = 1_{\{h=0\}} \theta_1 \sigma^2.$$

This is the same as $\gamma(h+1)$ for $h \geq 0$, so the claim is true!

- To get the coefficients:

$$\psi(z) = \theta_1 (1 + \theta_1 z)^{-1} = \theta_1 \sum_{j \geq 0} (-\theta_1)^j z^j.$$

So $\psi_j = \theta_1^{j+1} (-1)^j$.

Definition 6.3.4

- Suppose $\{X_t\}$ is an invertible weakly stationary time series with autocovariance $\gamma(h)$. Then the *inverse autocovariance* is the sequence $\xi(k)$ such that

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(k) \xi(j-k) = 1_{\{j=0\}}.$$

- The inverse autocorrelation is $\zeta(k) = \xi(k)/\xi(0)$.
- We can compute the inverse autocovariance from the spectral density:

$$\xi(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda k} \frac{1}{f(\lambda)} d\lambda.$$

Example 6.3.6. The Inverse Autocovariance of an MA(1)

- Consider an MA(1) process with $\theta_1 \in (-1, 1)$, which implies it is invertible.
- So the inverse autocovariance is

$$\xi(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda k} \sigma^{-2} |1 + \theta_1 e^{-i\lambda}|^{-2} d\lambda.$$

- This resembles the autocovariance of an AR(1), with parameter $\phi_1 = -\theta_1$, and input variance σ^{-2} .
- So by using the formula for AR(1) autocovariance, we find

$$\xi(k) = \sigma^{-2} \frac{(-\theta_1)^{|k|}}{1 - \theta_1^2}.$$

Exercise 6.34. Inverse Autocovariances of an AR(1)

- Consider the AR(1) process with $\phi(z) = 1 - \phi_1 z$. What are the inverse autocovariances?
- So the inverse autocovariance is

$$\xi(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\lambda k} \sigma^2 |1 - \phi_1 e^{-i\lambda}|^2 d\lambda.$$

- This resembles the autocovariance of an MA(1), with parameter $\theta_1 = -\phi_1$, and input variance σ^2 .
- So by using the formula for MA(1) autocovariance, we find

$$\xi(k) = \sigma^2 \begin{cases} 1 + \phi_1^2 & \text{if } k = 0 \\ -\phi_1 & \text{if } k = \pm 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } |k| > 1. \end{cases}$$

Example 6.3.8. Inverse ACF and Optimal Interpolation

- Suppose $\{X_t\}$ is stationary, mean zero, and invertible.
- Suppose that X_0 is missing. What is the optimal estimator?
- We seek $\widehat{X}_0 = P_{\overline{\text{SP}}\{X_j, j \neq 0\}}[X_0]$, which is a linear filter $\psi(B)$ of the data, such that $\psi_0 = 0$.
- Claim: $\psi_j = -\zeta(j)$ for $j \neq 0$, and $\psi_0 = 0$.
- Proof: check the normal equations. First $X_0 - \widehat{X}_0 = \sum_j \zeta(j) X_{-j}$, since $\zeta(0) = 1$. The covariance of this with any X_{-k} for $k \neq 0$ is

$$\text{Cov}[X_0 - \widehat{X}_0, X_{-k}] = \sum_j \zeta(j) \gamma(k - j),$$

which is zero (since $k \neq 0$) by definition of inverse autocovariance. This verifies the normal equations!

Lesson 6-4: Toeplitz Matrices

- We discuss a decomposition of Toeplitz matrices, with connections to the spectral density.
- This is useful for model fitting and prediction.

Fact 6.4.2. Spectral Representation of a Symmetric Matrix

- Let A^* denote the conjugate transpose of a matrix A .
- A matrix A is Hermitian if $A^* = A$.
- A matrix U is unitary if $U^{-1} = U^*$.
- For any Hermitian A , there exists unitary U such that $A = UDU^*$, where D is diagonal with real entries.
- The columns of U are the eigenvectors of A , and D has the eigenvalues of A .

Definition 6.4.3. Fourier Frequencies

- For any n , the *Fourier frequencies* are defined as $\lambda_\ell = 2\pi\ell/n$, for $[n/2] - n + 1 \leq \ell \leq [n/2]$.
- When n is even, this excludes the frequencies π and $-\pi$ both being in the set, since these are redundant.
- We define an $n \times n$ -dimensional matrix Q , whose entries are complex exponentials evaluated at Fourier frequencies:

$$Q_{jk} = n^{-1/2} e^{ij\lambda_{[n/2]-n+k}}.$$

- The matrix Q is unitary, and can be used in an approximation result for Toeplitz matrices.

Theorem 6.4.5. Spectral Decomposition of Toeplitz Covariance Matrices

- Let Γ_n denote the autocovariance matrix of a sample of size n from a stationary time series. Suppose the autocovariances $\gamma(k)$ are absolutely summable. Then

$$\Gamma_n \approx Q\Lambda Q^*,$$

with Λ diagonal with entries $f(\lambda_{[n/2]-n+k})$. The approximation \approx means that the difference entry-by-entry tends to zero as n tends to ∞ .

- It can also be shown that $\Lambda \approx Q^* \Gamma_n Q$.
- If the process is invertible, then $\Gamma_n^{-1} \approx Q \Lambda^{-1} Q^*$ as well.

Remark 6.4.11. Positive Spectral Density

Since the eigenvalues of a symmetric non-negative definite matrix Γ_n are real and non-negative, we can show that the spectral density of a stationary process must be non-negative.

Exercise 6.43. Eigenvalues of an MA(1) Toeplitz Matrix.

- Consider an MA(1) with parameter $\theta = .8$.
- Compute the eigenvalues of Γ_n for various n , and compare to the spectral density evaluated at the Fourier frequencies.

```
theta <- .8

n <- 10
lambda <- 2*pi*seq(0,n-1)/n
Gamma <- toeplitz(c(1+theta^2, theta, rep(0,n-2)))
eigen(Gamma)$values

## [1] 3.1751888 2.9860057 2.6877772 2.3046640 1.8677037 1.4122963 0.9753360
## [8] 0.5922228 0.2939943 0.1048112

rev(sort(1+theta^2 + 2*theta*cos(lambda)))

## [1] 3.2400000 2.9344272 2.9344272 2.1344272 2.1344272 1.1455728 1.1455728
## [8] 0.3455728 0.3455728 0.0400000

n <- 20
lambda <- 2*pi*seq(0,n-1)/n
Gamma <- toeplitz(c(1+theta^2, theta, rep(0,n-2)))
eigen(Gamma)$values

## [1] 3.22212932 3.16891649 3.08155019 2.96198204 2.81288299 2.63758368
## [7] 2.44000000 2.22454564 1.99603349 1.75956815 1.52043185 1.28396651
## [13] 1.05545436 0.84000000 0.64241632 0.46711701 0.31801796 0.19844981
## [19] 0.11108351 0.05787068

rev(sort(1+theta^2 + 2*theta*cos(lambda)))

## [1] 3.2400000 3.1616904 3.1616904 2.9344272 2.9344272 2.5804564 2.5804564
## [8] 2.1344272 2.1344272 1.6400000 1.6400000 1.1455728 1.1455728 0.6995436
## [15] 0.6995436 0.3455728 0.3455728 0.1183096 0.1183096 0.0400000

n <- 30
lambda <- 2*pi*seq(0,n-1)/n
Gamma <- toeplitz(c(1+theta^2, theta, rep(0,n-2)))
eigen(Gamma)$values

## [1] 3.23179092 3.20724791 3.16662281 3.11033250 3.03895459 2.95322151
## [7] 2.85401300 2.74234707 2.61936957 2.48634242 2.34463064 2.19568840
## [13] 2.04104405 1.88228444 1.72103867 1.55896133 1.39771556 1.23895595
## [19] 1.08431160 0.93536936 0.79365758 0.66063043 0.53765293 0.42598700
## [25] 0.32677849 0.24104541 0.16966750 0.11337719 0.07275209 0.04820908
```

```
rev(sort(1+theta^2 + 2*theta*cos(lambda)))
```

```
## [1] 3.24000000 3.20503616 3.20503616 3.10167273 3.10167273 2.93442719
## [7] 2.93442719 2.71060897 2.71060897 2.44000000 2.44000000 2.13442719
## [13] 2.13442719 1.80724554 1.80724554 1.47275446 1.47275446 1.14557281
## [19] 1.14557281 0.84000000 0.84000000 0.56939103 0.56939103 0.34557281
## [25] 0.34557281 0.17832727 0.17832727 0.07496384 0.07496384 0.04000000
```

Exercise 6.45. Eigenvalues of an MA(1) Inverse Toeplitz Matrix.

- Consider an MA(1) with parameter $\theta = .8$.
- Compute the eigenvalues of Γ_n^{-1} for various n , and compare to the reciprocal spectral density evaluated at the Fourier frequencies.

```
theta <- .8
```

```
n <- 10
lambda <- 2*pi*seq(0,n-1)/n
Gamma <- toeplitz(c(1+theta^2, theta, rep(0,n-2)))
eigen(solve(Gamma))$values
```

```
## [1] 9.5409612 3.4014259 1.6885536 1.0252877 0.7080667 0.5354168 0.4339027
## [8] 0.3720547 0.3348955 0.3149419
```

```
1/sort(1+theta^2 + 2*theta*cos(lambda))
```

```
## [1] 25.0000000 2.8937462 2.8937462 0.8729257 0.8729257 0.4685098
## [7] 0.4685098 0.3407820 0.3407820 0.3086420
```

```
n <- 20
lambda <- 2*pi*seq(0,n-1)/n
Gamma <- toeplitz(c(1+theta^2, theta, rep(0,n-2)))
eigen(solve(Gamma))$values
```

```
## [1] 17.2799081 9.0022362 5.0390574 3.1444765 2.1407913 1.5566230
## [7] 1.1904762 0.9474593 0.7788365 0.6577079 0.5683213 0.5009936
## [13] 0.4495300 0.4098361 0.3791349 0.3555071 0.3376118 0.3245120
## [19] 0.3155653 0.3103538
```

```
1/sort(1+theta^2 + 2*theta*cos(lambda))
```

```
## [1] 25.0000000 8.4524013 8.4524013 2.8937462 2.8937462 1.4295035
## [7] 1.4295035 0.8729257 0.8729257 0.6097561 0.6097561 0.4685098
## [13] 0.4685098 0.3875283 0.3875283 0.3407820 0.3407820 0.3162865
## [19] 0.3162865 0.3086420
```

```
n <- 30
lambda <- 2*pi*seq(0,n-1)/n
Gamma <- toeplitz(c(1+theta^2, theta, rep(0,n-2)))
eigen(solve(Gamma))$values
```

```
## [1] 20.7429793 13.7453088 8.8201163 5.8938806 4.1485958 3.0601769
## [7] 2.3474895 1.8599359 1.5137056 1.2599892 1.0690964 0.9222441
## [13] 0.8071312 0.7154532 0.6414527 0.5810445 0.5312693 0.4899453
## [19] 0.4554380 0.4265064 0.4021972 0.3817713 0.3646511 0.3503838
## [25] 0.3386133 0.3290605 0.3215090 0.3157938 0.3117938 0.3094260
```

```
1/sort(1+theta^2 + 2*theta*cos(lambda))
```

```
## [1] 25.0000000 13.3397651 13.3397651 5.6076674 5.6076674 2.8937462
## [7] 2.8937462 1.7562623 1.7562623 1.1904762 1.1904762 0.8729257
## [13] 0.8729257 0.6789998 0.6789998 0.5533282 0.5533282 0.4685098
## [19] 0.4685098 0.4098361 0.4098361 0.3689208 0.3689208 0.3407820
## [25] 0.3407820 0.3224067 0.3224067 0.3120090 0.3120090 0.3086420
```

Lesson 6-5: Partial Autocorrelation

- Recall from linear models that partial correlation allows us to explore the relationship between a dependent variable and a covariate, while accounting for other covariates.
- We apply this concept to stationary time series, where we look at the relationship between time present and time past, while accounting for the in-between times.

Definition 6.5.1.

- The partial correlation function (PACF) of stationary time series $\{X_t\}$ is a sequence $\kappa(h)$ defined by $\kappa(1) = \text{Corr}[X_1, X_0]$ and

$$\kappa(h) = \text{Corr}[X_h, X_0 | X_1, \dots, X_{h-1}]$$

when $h \geq 2$. The conditioning stands for projection (of the demeaned time series) on the random variables.

- What does this mean? Linearly predict X_h from X_1, \dots, X_{h-1} , and call that \hat{X}_h . Also linearly predict X_0 from X_1, \dots, X_{h-1} , and call that \hat{X}_0 . Then $\kappa(h)$ is the correlation of the prediction errors:

$$\kappa(h) = \text{Corr}[X_h - \hat{X}_h, X_0 - \hat{X}_0].$$

- Because of stationarity, we could also write

$$\kappa(h) = \text{Corr}[X_{t+h}, X_t | X_{t+1}, \dots, X_{t+h-1}]$$

for any t .

Example 6.5.2. Partial Autocorrelation of an AR(p) Process

- Suppose $\{X_t\}$ is an AR(1), where $\phi(z) = 1 - \phi_1 z$. Then $\kappa(1) = \phi_1$.
- Also for $h \geq 2$, $\hat{X}_h = \phi_1 X_{h-1}$ and $\hat{X}_0 = \phi_1 X_1$ (follows from the normal equations).
- The prediction errors are then

$$X_h - \hat{X}_h = Z_h$$

$$X_0 - \hat{X}_0 = (1 - \phi_1^2)X_0 - \phi_1 Z_1.$$

These are uncorrelated for $h \geq 2$. So $\kappa(h) = 0$.

- The argument can be generalized to the case of an AR(p), for which $\kappa(h) = 0$ when $h > p$.

Proposition 6.5.5.

If $\{X_t\}$ has mean zero, the PACF at lag h is given by solving the Yule-Walker equations of order h , and taking the last coefficient, i.e., letting \underline{e}_h denote the length h unit vector with one in the last position,

$$\kappa(h) = \underline{e}_h' \Gamma_h^{-1} \underline{\gamma}_h.$$

Exercise 6.54. PACF of MA(q)

- We use the formula of Proposition 6.5.5 to compute the PACF for the MA(3) process with $\theta(z) = 1 + .4z + .2z^2 - .3z^3$.
- First we load the ARMAauto.r function from earlier notebooks.

```

polymult <- function(a,b) {
  bb <- c(b,rep(0,length(a)-1))
  B <- toeplitz(bb)
  B[lower.tri(B)] <- 0
  aa <- rev(c(a,rep(0,length(b)-1)))
  prod <- B %*% matrix(aa,length(aa),1)
  return(rev(prod[,1]))
}

ARMAauto <- function(phi,theta,maxlag)
{
  p <- length(phi)
  q <- length(theta)
  gamMA <- polymult(c(1,theta),rev(c(1,theta)))
  gamMA <- gamMA[(q+1):(2*q+1)]
  if (p > 0)
  {
    Amat <- matrix(0,nrow=(p+1),ncol=(2*p+1))
    for(i in 1:(p+1))
    {
      Amat[i,i:(i+p)] <- c(-1*rev(phi),1)
    }
    Amat <- cbind(Amat[, (p+1)],as.matrix(Amat[, (p+2):(2*p+1)] +
      t(matrix(apply(t(matrix(Amat[,1:p],p+1,p)),2,rev),p,p+1)))
    Bmat <- matrix(0,nrow=(q+1),ncol=(p+q+1))
    for(i in 1:(q+1))
    {
      Bmat[i,i:(i+p)] <- c(-1*rev(phi),1)
    }
    Bmat <- t(matrix(apply(t(Bmat),2,rev),p+q+1,q+1))
    Bmat <- matrix(apply(Bmat,2,rev),q+1,p+q+1)
    Bmat <- Bmat[,1:(q+1)]
    Binv <- solve(Bmat)
    gamMix <- Binv %*% gamMA
    if (p <= q) { gamMix <- matrix(gamMix[1:(p+1),],p+1,1)
      } else gamMix <- matrix(c(gamMix,rep(0,(p-q))),p+1,1)
    gamARMA <- solve(Amat) %*% gamMix
  } else gamARMA <- gamMA[1]

  gamMA <- as.vector(gamMA)
  if (maxlag <= q) gamMA <- gamMA[1:(maxlag+1)] else gamMA <- c(gamMA,rep(0,(maxlag-q)))
  gamARMA <- as.vector(gamARMA)
  if (maxlag <= p) gamARMA <- gamARMA[1:(maxlag+1)] else {
    for(k in 1:(maxlag-p))
    {
      len <- length(gamARMA)
      acf <- gamMA[p+1+k]
      if (p > 0) acf <- acf + sum(phi*rev(gamARMA[(len-p+1):len]))
      gamARMA <- c(gamARMA,acf)
    }
  }
  return(gamARMA)
}

```

- Then we implement Proposition 6.5.5.

```

armapq.pacf <- function(ar.coefs,ma.coefs,max.lag)
{
  gamma <- ARMAauto(ar.coefs,ma.coefs,max.lag)
  kappa <- NULL
  for(k in 1:max.lag)
  {
    new.kappa <- solve(toeplitz(gamma[1:k]),gamma[2:(k+1)])[k]
    kappa <- c(kappa,new.kappa)
  }
  return(kappa)
}

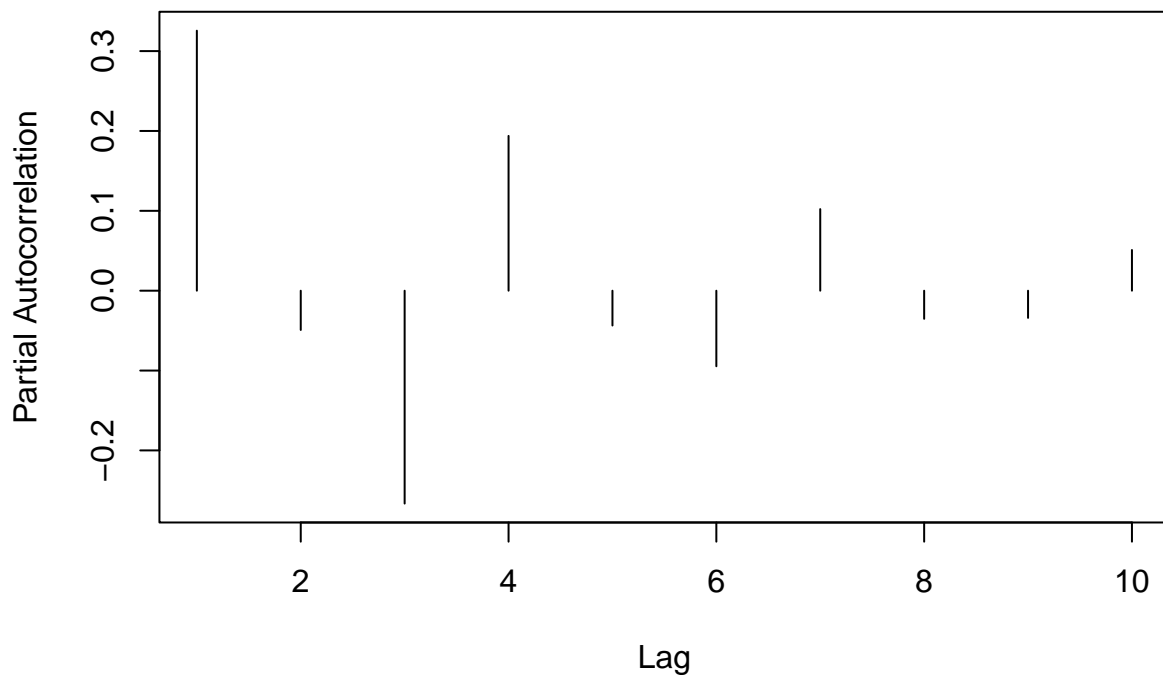
```

- Then we apply to the given MA(3) process.

```

ma.coefs <- c(.4,.2,-.3)
kappa <- armapq.pacf(NULL,ma.coefs,10)
plot(ts(kappa,start=1),xlab="Lag",ylab="Partial Autocorrelation",
      ylim=c(min(kappa),max(kappa)),type="h")

```



Exercise 6.55. PACF pf ARMA(p,q)

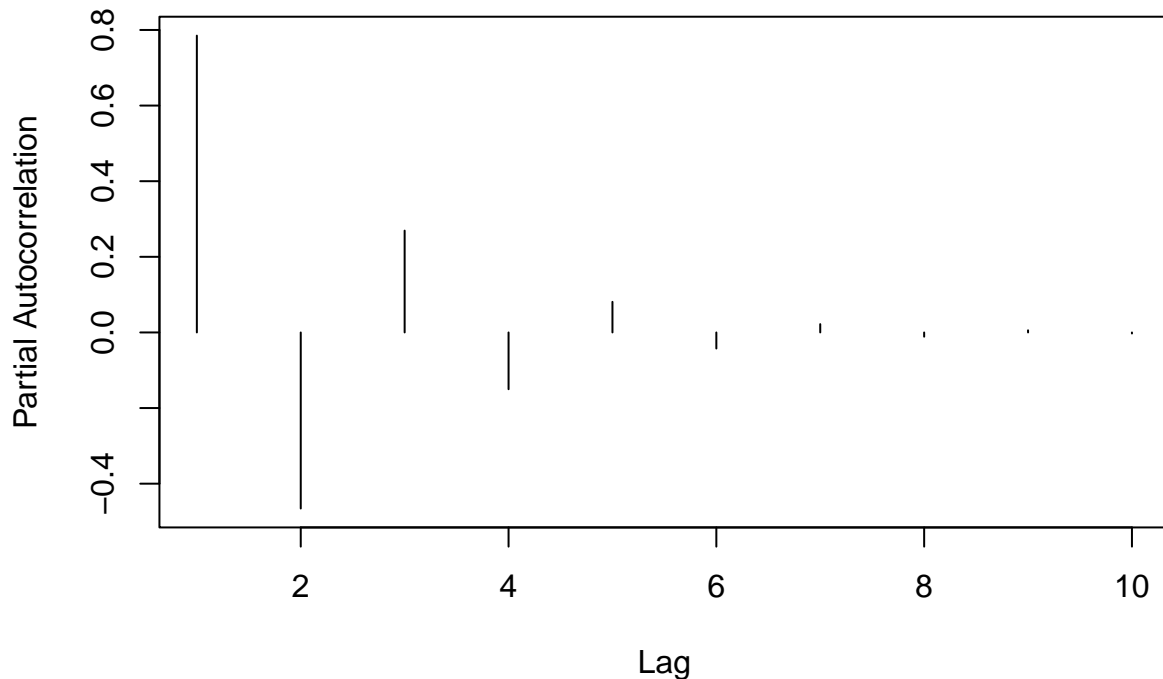
- Compute the PACF of Example 5.5.7, which is an ARMA(1,2) with $\phi(z) = 1 - .5z$ and $\theta(z) = 1 + (5/6)z + (1/6)z^2$.

```

phi1 <- .5
theta1 <- 5/6
theta2 <- 1/6

```

```
kappa <- armapq.pacf(phi1,c(theta1,theta2),10)
plot(ts(kappa,start=1),xlab="Lag",ylab="Partial Autocorrelation",
     ylim=c(min(kappa),max(kappa)),type="h")
```



Lesson 6-6: AR and MA Identification

- How do we determine a model to be fitted? AR, MA, ARMA, or something else?
- How do we determine the order of the model?

Paradigm 6.6.1. Characterizing AR and MA Processes

- The autocorrelation function (ACF), inverse autocorrelation (IACF), and partial autocorrelation function (PACF) have distinctive behavior for AR and MA processes.

ACF

- For an $MA(q)$ process, the ACF truncates at lag q , i.e., $\gamma(h) = 0$ if $|h| > q$. However, it is possible for $\gamma(h) = 0$ for $0 < h < q$ as well.
- For an $AR(p)$ process, or for an $ARMA(p,q)$ process (with $p > 0$), the ACF decays at geometric rate. The correlations can oscillate, but they are bounded by some $Cr^{|h|}$ for $0 < r < 1$ and $C > 0$.

IACF

- Generalize Exercise 6.34 to get IACF behavior for $AR(p)$ processes.
- For an $AR(p)$ process, the IACF truncates at lag p , i.e., $\zeta(h) = 0$ if $|h| > p$.
- for an $MA(q)$ process, or for an $ARMA(p,q)$ process (with $q > 0$), the IACF decays at geometric rate.

PACF

- For an $AR(p)$ process, the PACF truncates at lag p , i.e., $\kappa(h) = 0$ if $|h| > p$.
- for an $MA(q)$ process, or for an $ARMA(p,q)$ process (with $q > 0$), the PACF decays at geometric rate.

Finding Truncation

We can plot estimates of the ACF and PACF, and see if there is a lag cut-off where one or the other seems to negligible.

Example 6.6.2. MA(3) Identification

- Suppose we observe the ACF, IACF, and PACF of a process.

```
polymult <- function(a,b) {
  bb <- c(b,rep(0,length(a)-1))
  B <- toeplitz(bb)
  B[lower.tri(B)] <- 0
  aa <- rev(c(a,rep(0,length(b)-1)))
  prod <- B %*% matrix(aa,length(aa),1)
  return(rev(prod[,1]))
}

ARMAauto <- function(phi,theta,maxlag)
{
  p <- length(phi)
  q <- length(theta)
  gamMA <- polymult(c(1,theta),rev(c(1,theta)))
  gamMA <- gamMA[(q+1):(2*q+1)]
  if (p > 0)
  {
    Amat <- matrix(0,nrow=(p+1),ncol=(2*p+1))
    for(i in 1:(p+1))
    {
      Amat[i,i:(i+p)] <- c(-1*rev(phi),1)
    }
    Amat <- cbind(Amat[, (p+1)],as.matrix(Amat[, (p+2):(2*p+1)] +
      t(matrix(apply(t(matrix(Amat[,1:p],p+1,p)),2,rev),p,p+1)))
    Bmat <- matrix(0,nrow=(q+1),ncol=(p+q+1))
    for(i in 1:(q+1))
    {
      Bmat[i,i:(i+p)] <- c(-1*rev(phi),1)
    }
    Bmat <- t(matrix(apply(t(Bmat),2,rev),p+q+1,q+1))
    Bmat <- matrix(apply(Bmat,2,rev),q+1,p+q+1)
    Bmat <- Bmat[,1:(q+1)]
    Binv <- solve(Bmat)
    gamMix <- Binv %*% gamMA
    if (p <= q) { gamMix <- matrix(gamMix[1:(p+1),],p+1,1)
      } else gamMix <- matrix(c(gamMix,rep(0,(p-q))),p+1,1)
    gamARMA <- solve(Amat) %*% gamMix
  } else gamARMA <- gamMA[1]

  gamMA <- as.vector(gamMA)
  if (maxlag <= q) gamMA <- gamMA[1:(maxlag+1)] else gamMA <- c(gamMA,rep(0,(maxlag-q)))
}
```

```

gamARMA <- as.vector(gamARMA)
if (maxlag <= p) gamARMA <- gamARMA[1:(maxlag+1)] else {
  for(k in 1:(maxlag-p))
  {
    len <- length(gamARMA)
    acf <- gamMA[p+1+k]
    if (p > 0) acf <- acf + sum(phi*rev(gamARMA[(len-p+1):len]))
    gamARMA <- c(gamARMA,acf)
  } }
  return(gamARMA)
}

armapq.pacf <- function(ar.coefs,ma.coefs,max.lag)
{
  gamma <- ARMAauto(ar.coefs,ma.coefs,max.lag)
  kappa <- NULL
  for(k in 1:max.lag)
  {
    new.kappa <- solve(toeplitz(gamma[1:k]),gamma[2:(k+1)])[k]
    kappa <- c(kappa,new.kappa)
  }
  return(kappa)
}

```

- We construct and plot these functions for an MA(3) process.

```

ma.coefs <- c(.4,.2,-.3)
gamma <- ARMAauto(NULL,ma.coefs,10)
rho <- gamma/gamma[1]
xi <- ARMAauto(-1*ma.coefs,NULL,10)
zeta <- xi/xi[1]
kappa <- armapq.pacf(NULL,ma.coefs,10)

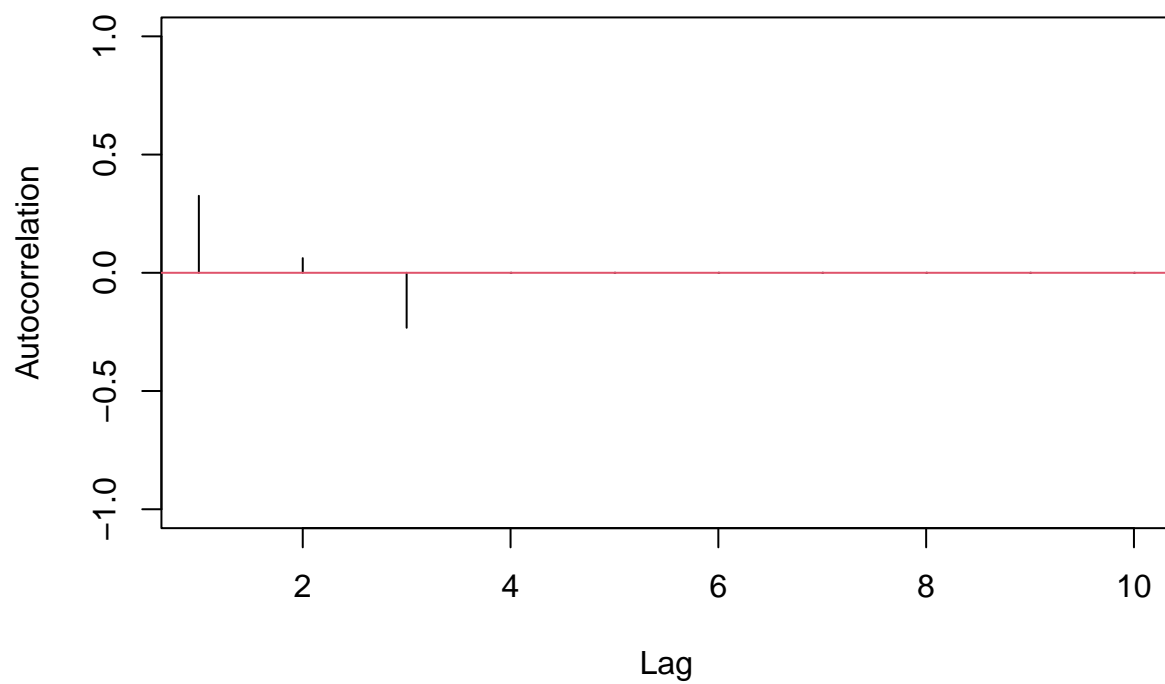
```

- The ACF plot. We start at lag 1, since the lag 0 value is always zero.

```

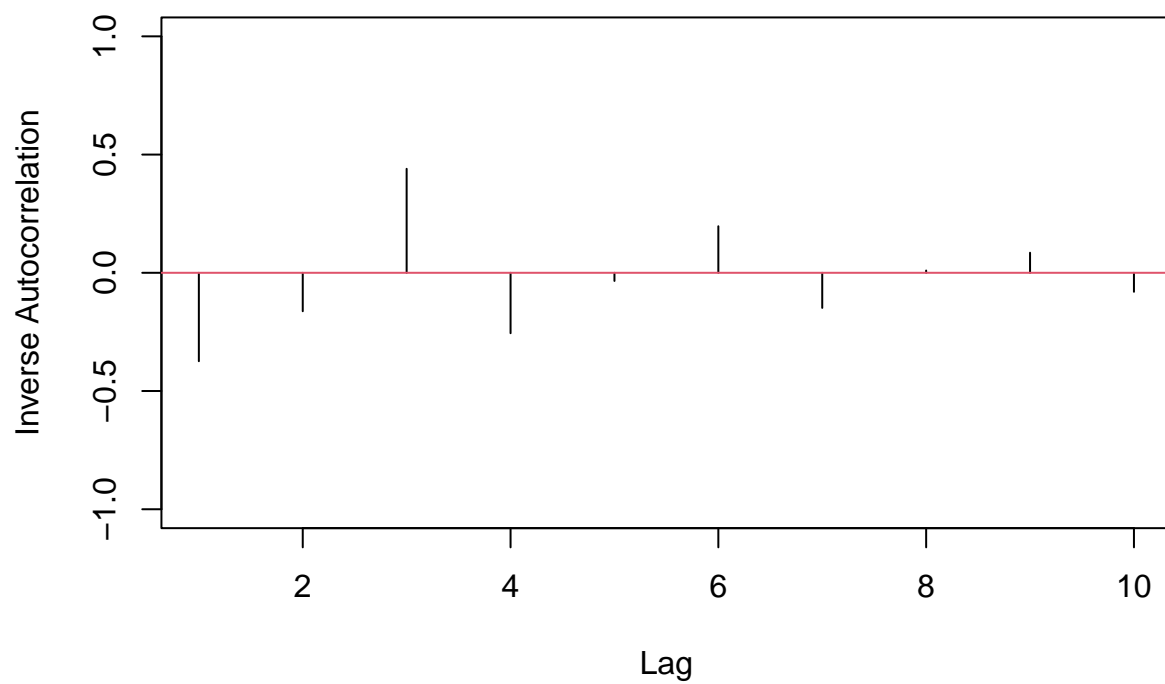
plot(ts(rho[-1],start=1),xlab="Lag",ylab="Autocorrelation",
      ylim=c(-1,1),type="h")
abline(h=0,col=2)

```

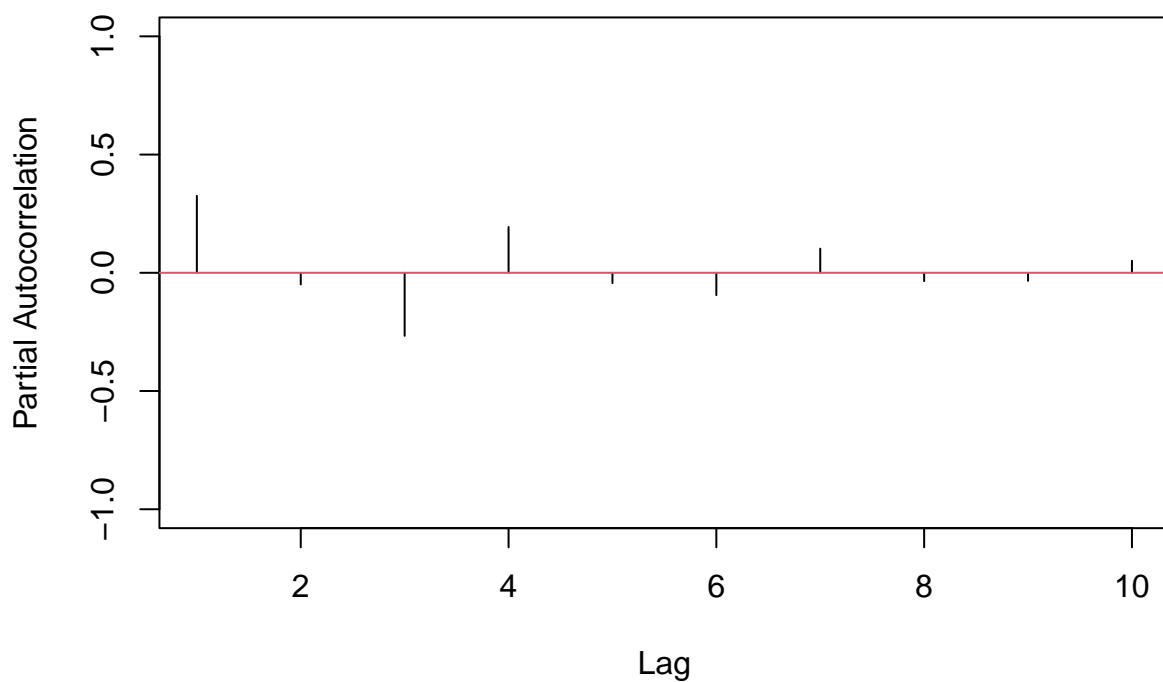
- The IACF plot. We start at lag 1, since the lag 0 value is always zero.

```
plot(ts(zeta[-1],start=1),xlab="Lag",ylab="Inverse Autocorrelation",  
     ylim=c(-1,1),type="h")  
abline(h=0,col=2)
```



- The PACF plot. We start at lag 1, since the lag 0 value is not defined.

```
plot(ts(kappa,start=1),xlab="Lag",ylab="Partial Autocorrelation",
     ylim=c(-1,1),type="h")
abline(h=0,col=2)
```



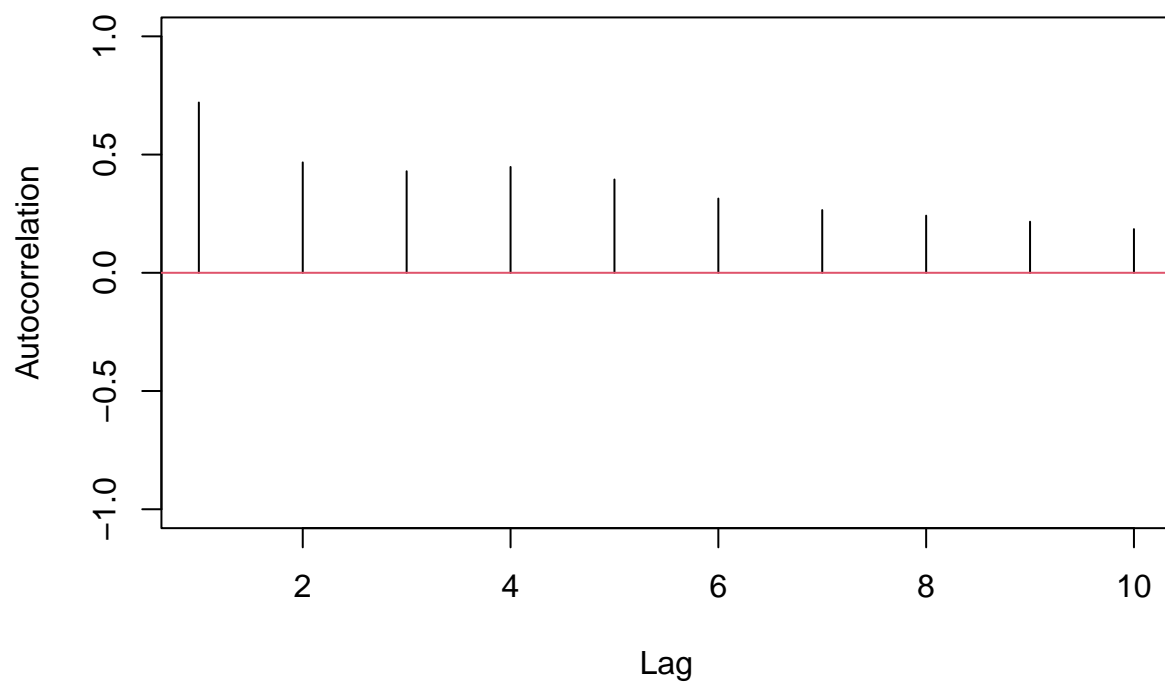
Example 6.6.3. AR(4) Identification

- Suppose we observe the ACF, IACF, and PACF of a process.
- We construct and plot these functions for an AR(4) process.

```
ar.coefs <- c(.8, -.3, .2, .1)
gamma <- ARMAauto(ar.coefs, NULL, 10)
rho <- gamma/gamma[1]
xi <- ARMAauto(NULL, -1*ar.coefs, 10)
zeta <- xi/xi[1]
kappa <- armapq.pacf(ar.coefs, NULL, 10)
```

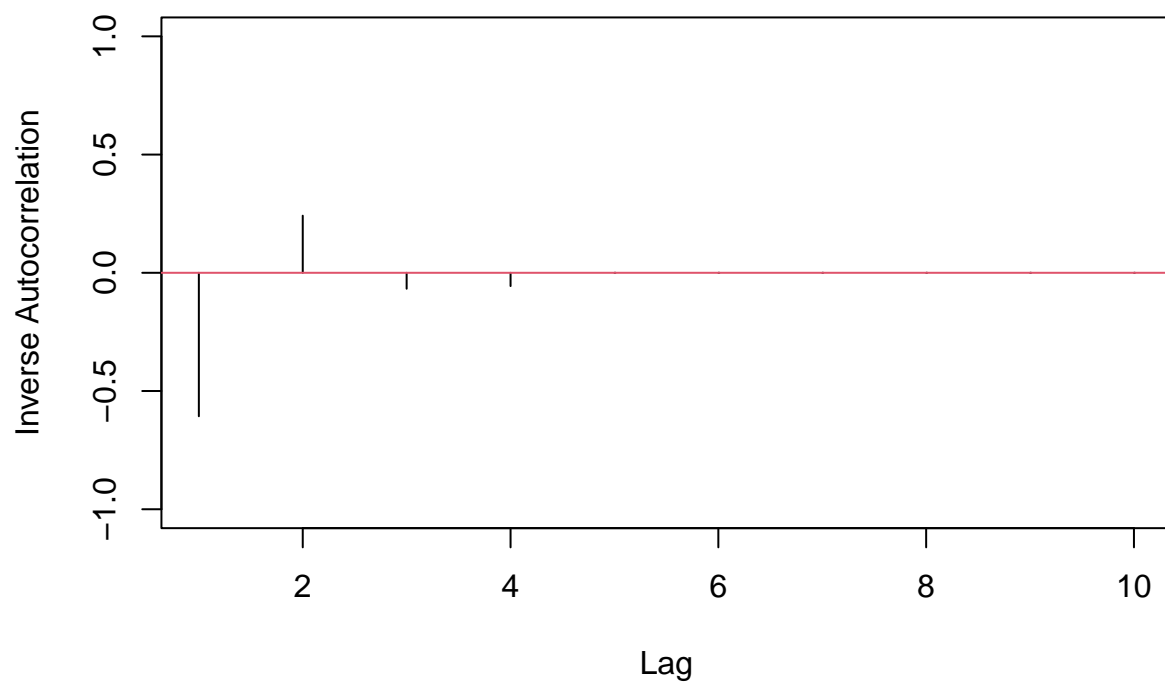
- The ACF plot. We start at lag 1, since the lag 0 value is always zero.

```
plot(ts(rho[-1], start=1), xlab="Lag", ylab="Autocorrelation",
     ylim=c(-1,1), type="h")
abline(h=0, col=2)
```



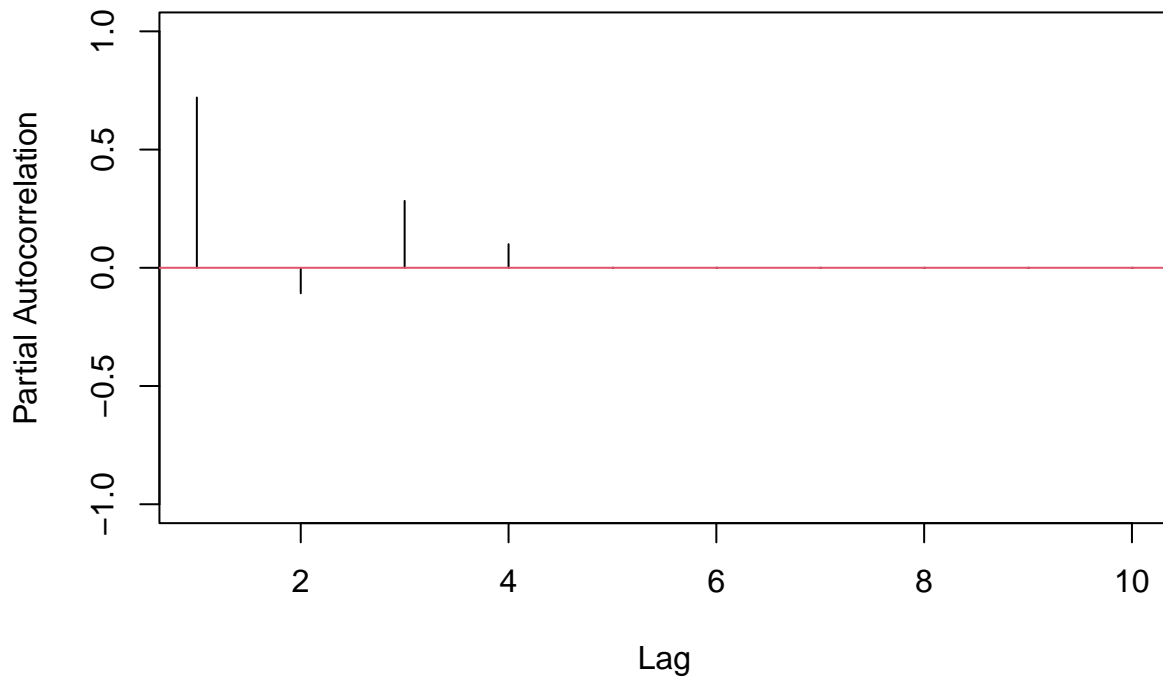
- The IACF plot. We start at lag 1, since the lag 0 value is always zero.

```
plot(ts(zeta[-1],start=1),xlab="Lag",ylab="Inverse Autocorrelation",  
     ylim=c(-1,1),type="h")  
abline(h=0,col=2)
```



- The PACF plot. We start at lag 1, since the lag 0 value is not defined.

```
plot(ts(kappa,start=1),xlab="Lag",ylab="Partial Autocorrelation",
     ylim=c(-1,1),type="h")
abline(h=0,col=2)
```



Paradigm 6.6.7. Identification by Whitening

- Suppose we apply some filter $\psi(B)$ to the data $\{X_t\}$, and the output appears to be white noise $\{Z_t\}$ (e.g., we ran some statistical tests of serial independence).
- $\psi(B)$ is called a *whitening filter*.
- We infer that $X_t = \psi(B)^{-1}Z_t$, which gives a model for $\{X_t\}$.
- So we can try out classes of filters $\psi(B)$, attempt to whiten the data, and deduce the original model.

Example 6.6.8. $AR(p)$ Whitening Models

- Consider the class of filters $\psi(B) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^p \psi_j B^j$, which are AR polynomial filters.
- We would apply these to the data, seeking p and coefficient values such that the data is whitened.
- We can estimate coefficients using ordinary least squares (or the Yule-Walker method, discussed later), for any p . These are fast to calculate, so we can just try over many choices of p .

Exercise 6.6.1. Whitening an $AR(p)$ Process

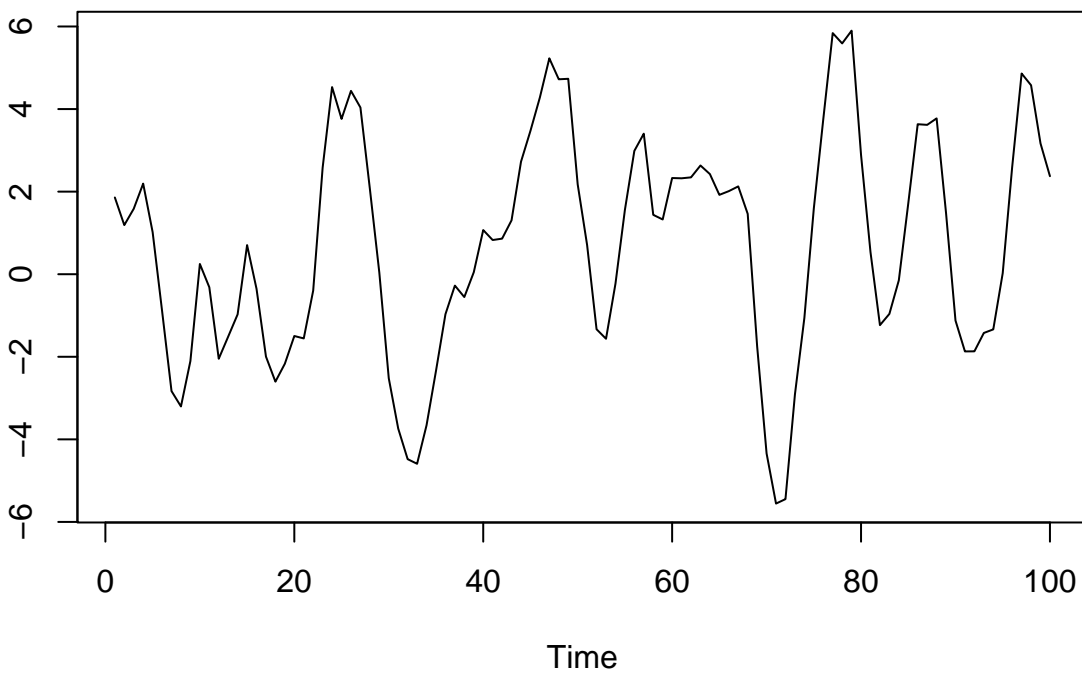
- We implement the method of Example 6.6.8, and apply to an $AR(2)$ simulation.

```
arp.sim <- function(n,burn,ar.coefs,innovar)
{
  p <- length(ar.coefs)
  z <- rnorm(n+burn+p,sd=sqrt(innovar))
  x <- z[1:p]
  for(t in (p+1):(p+n+burn))
  {
```

}

- First we generate a simulation of a cyclic AR(2).

```
plot.ts(x.sim,ylab="")
```



- Then we obtain fitted autoregressive filters, for various p up to 5.
- We use OLS to fit. Note that regression residuals are the filter output.

{

```

ar.fit <- lm(x.sim[-seq(1,p)] ~ covars - 1)
coeffs[[p]] <- ar.fit$coefficients
resids[[p]] <- ar.fit$residuals
covars <- cbind(covars[-1,], x.sim[-seq(n-p,n)])
}

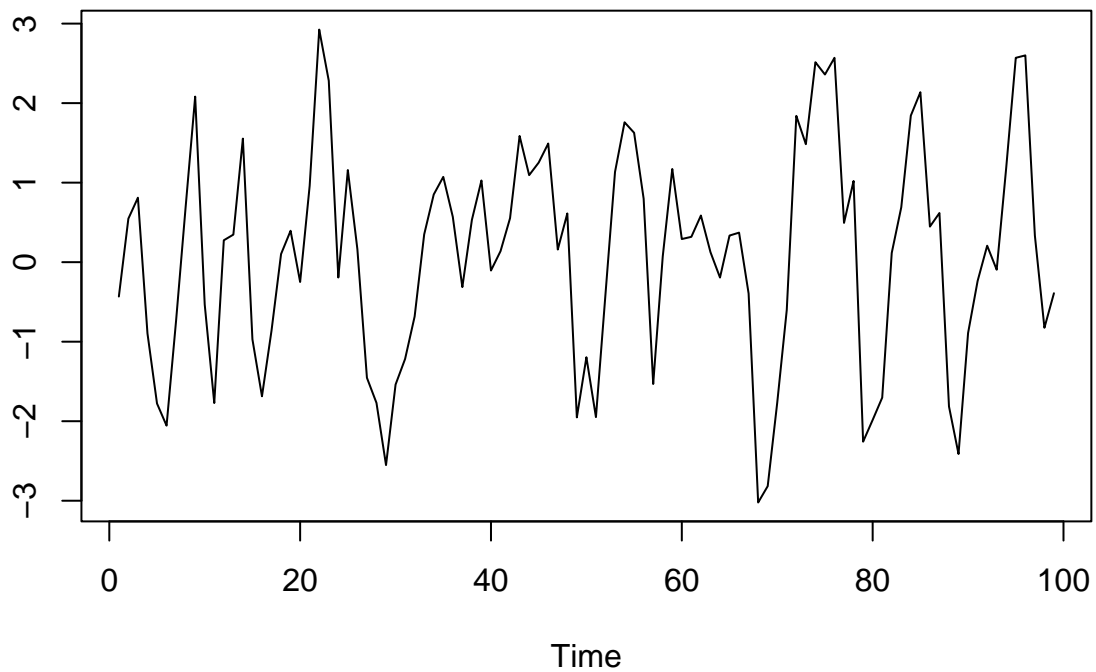
```

- We plot the filter outputs (the regression residuals) and estimates of the ACF.

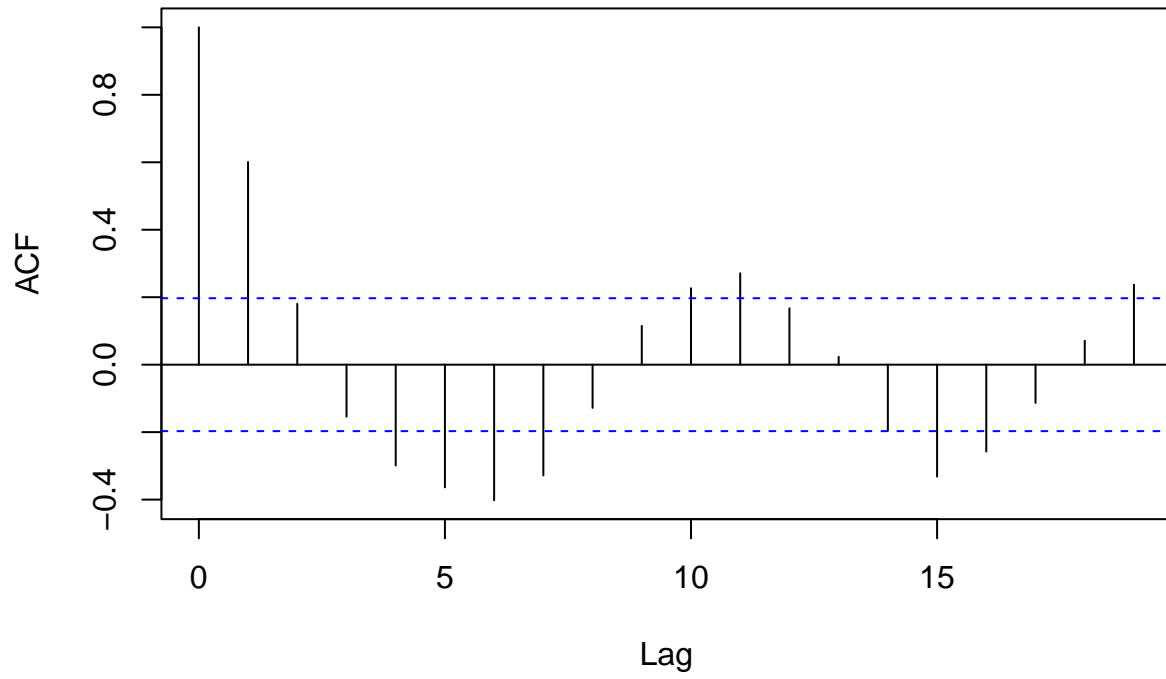
```

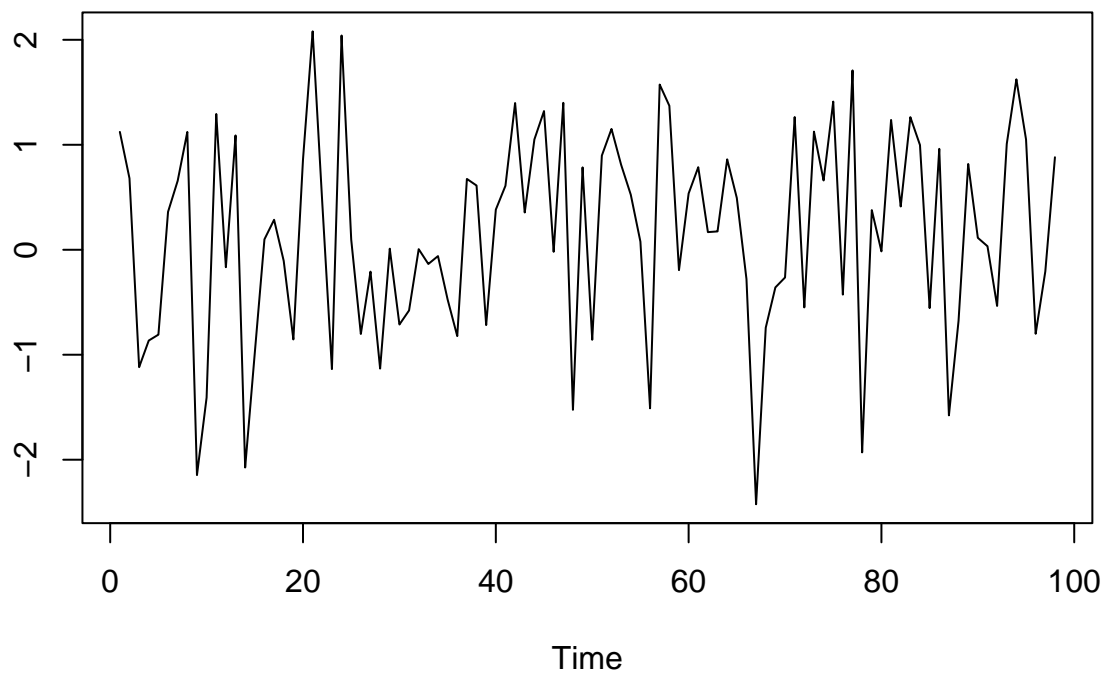
for(p in 1:5)
{
  plot.ts(resids[[p]], ylab="")
  acf(resids[[p]])
}

```

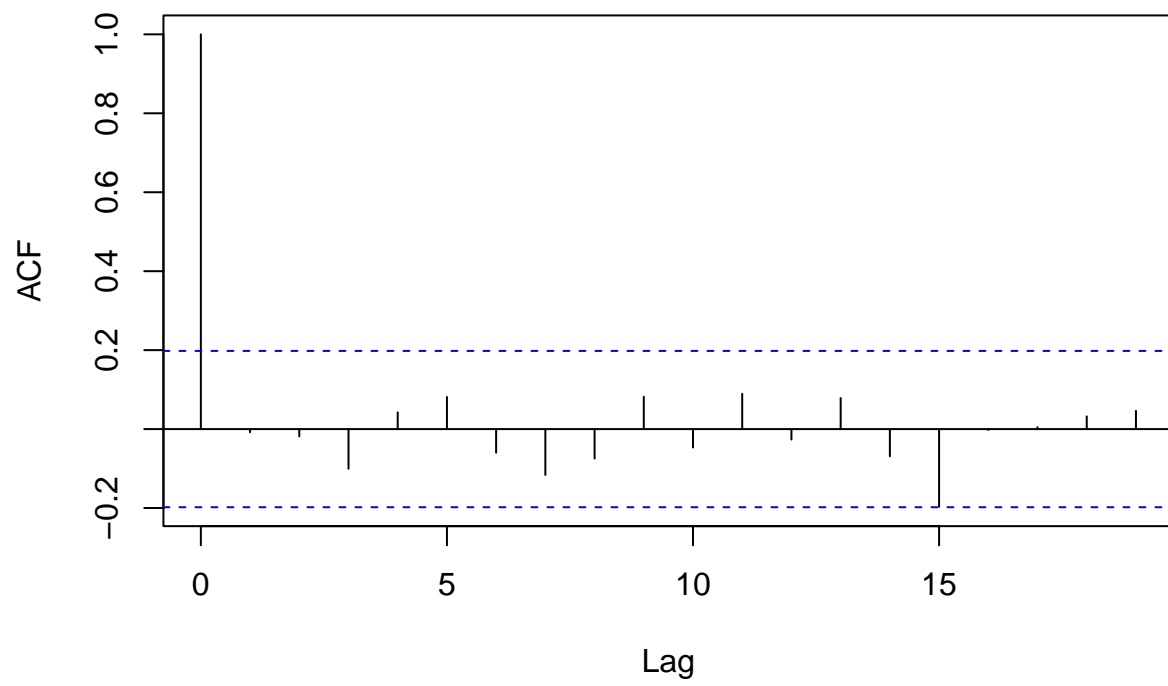


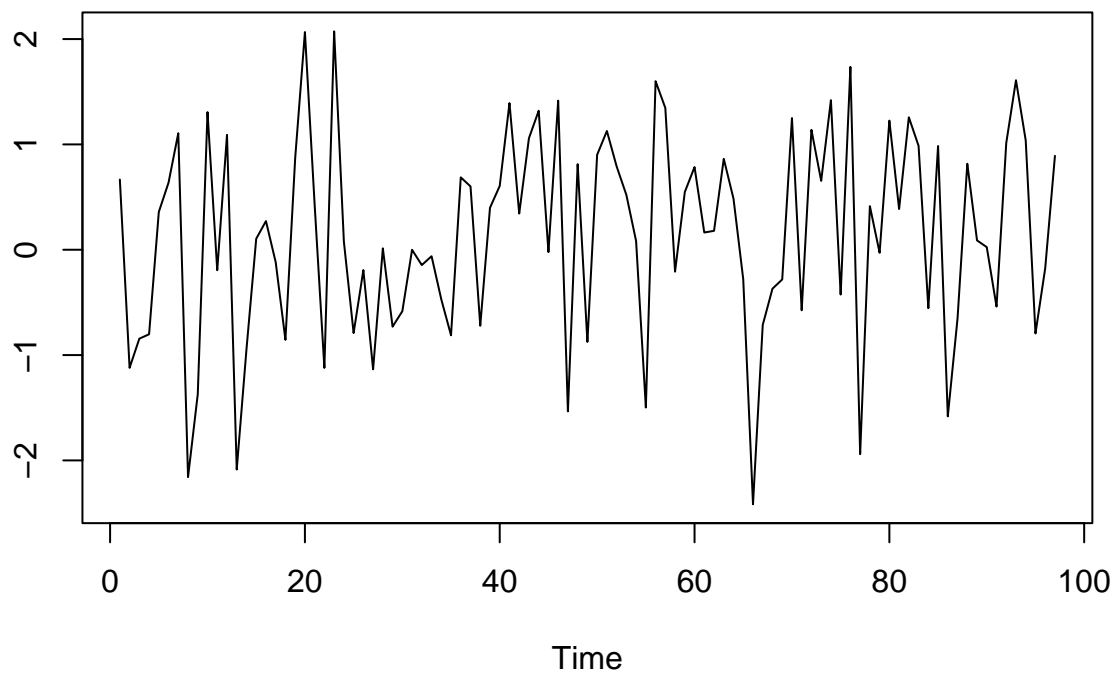
Series residu[[p]]



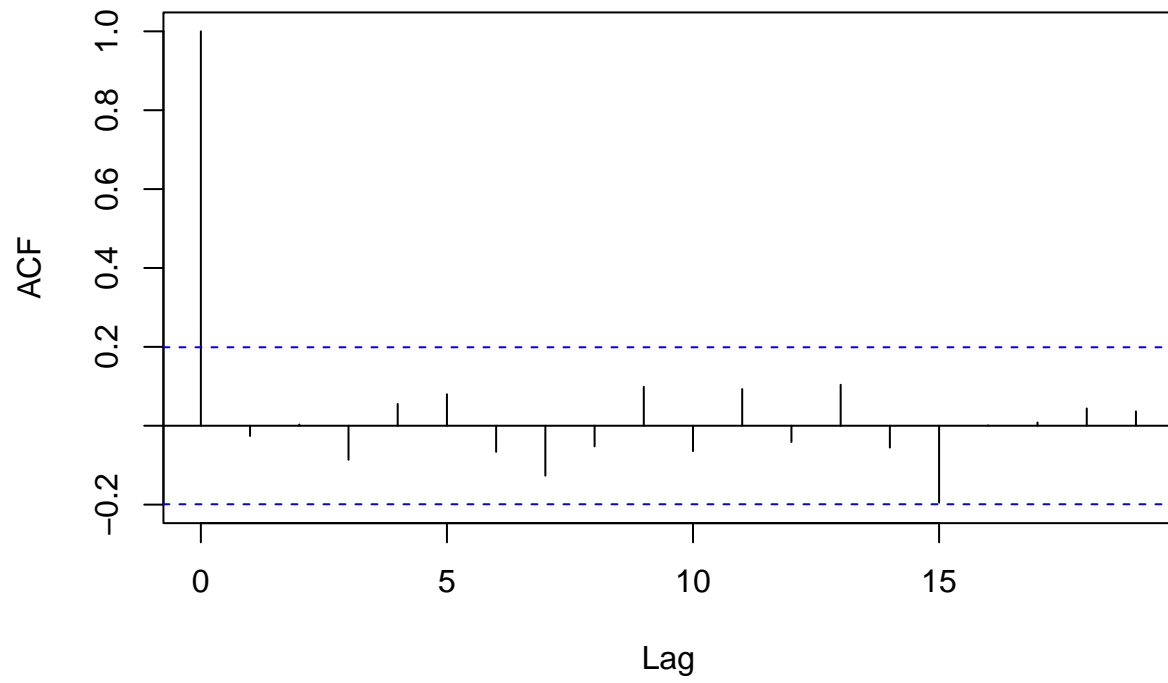


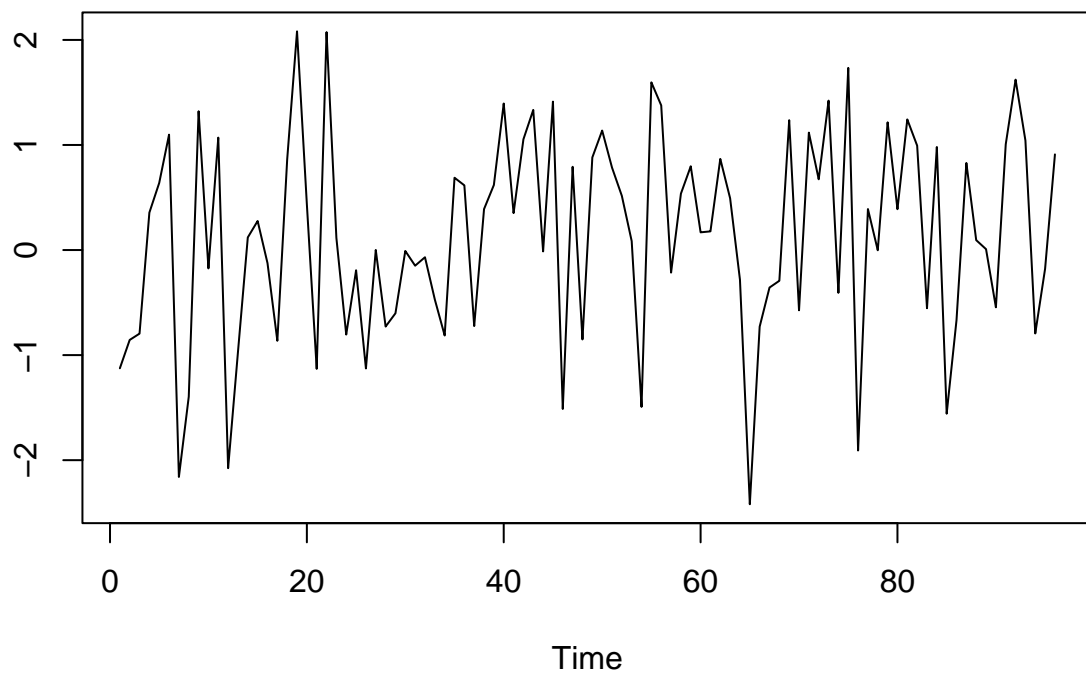
Series resid_s[[p]]



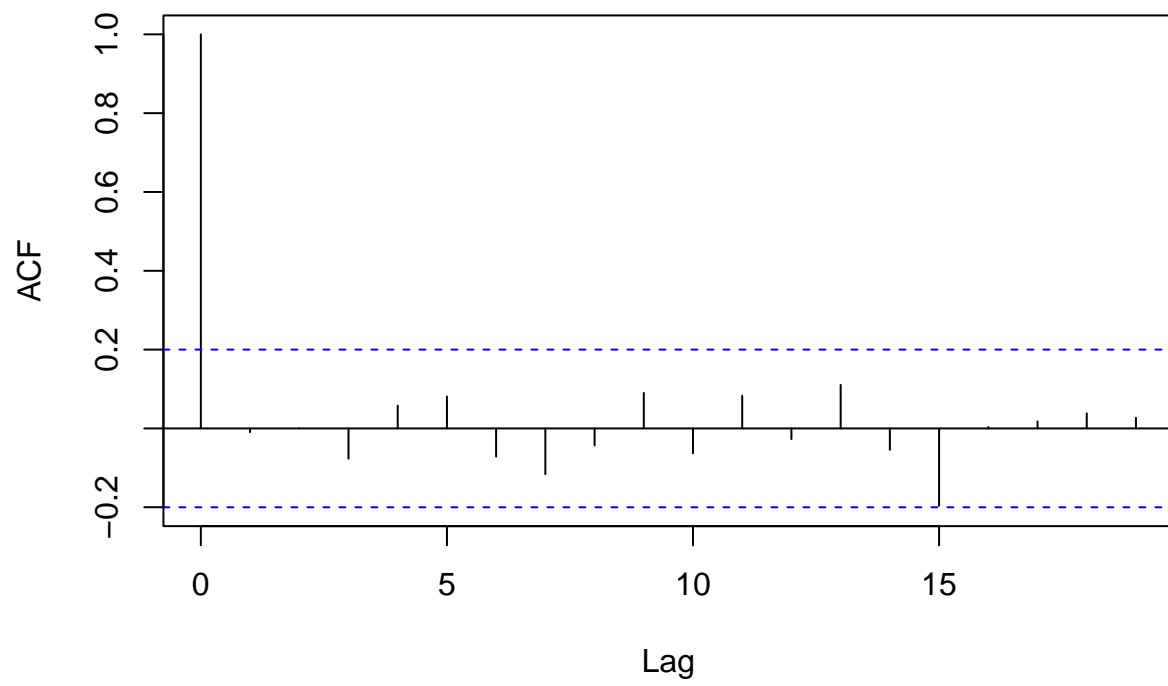


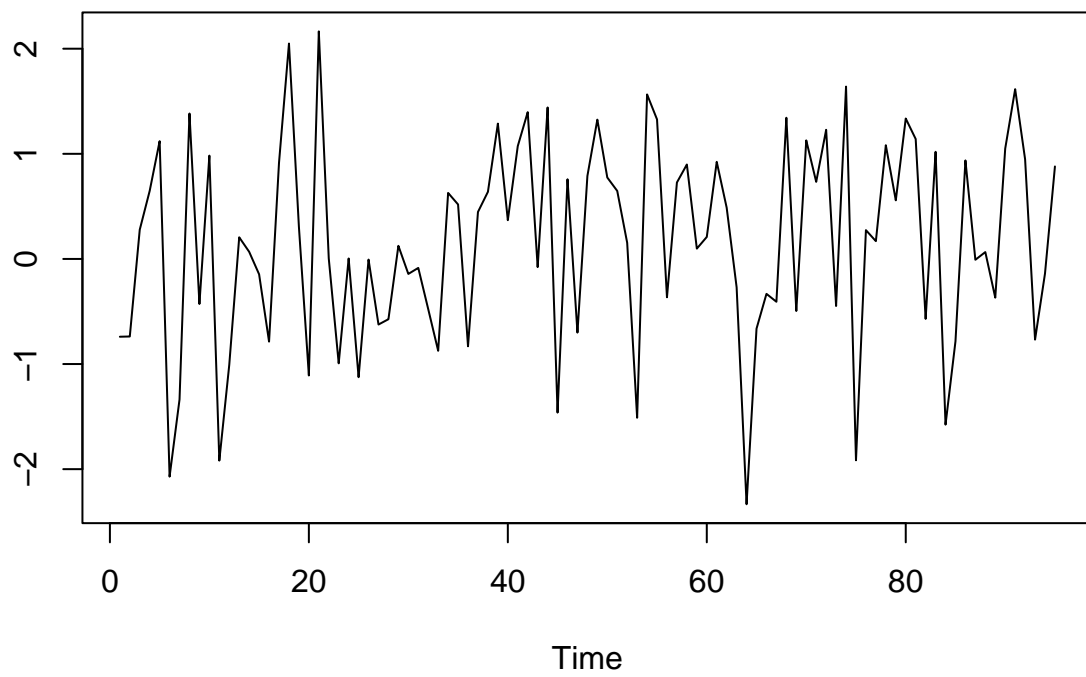
Series resid_s[[p]]

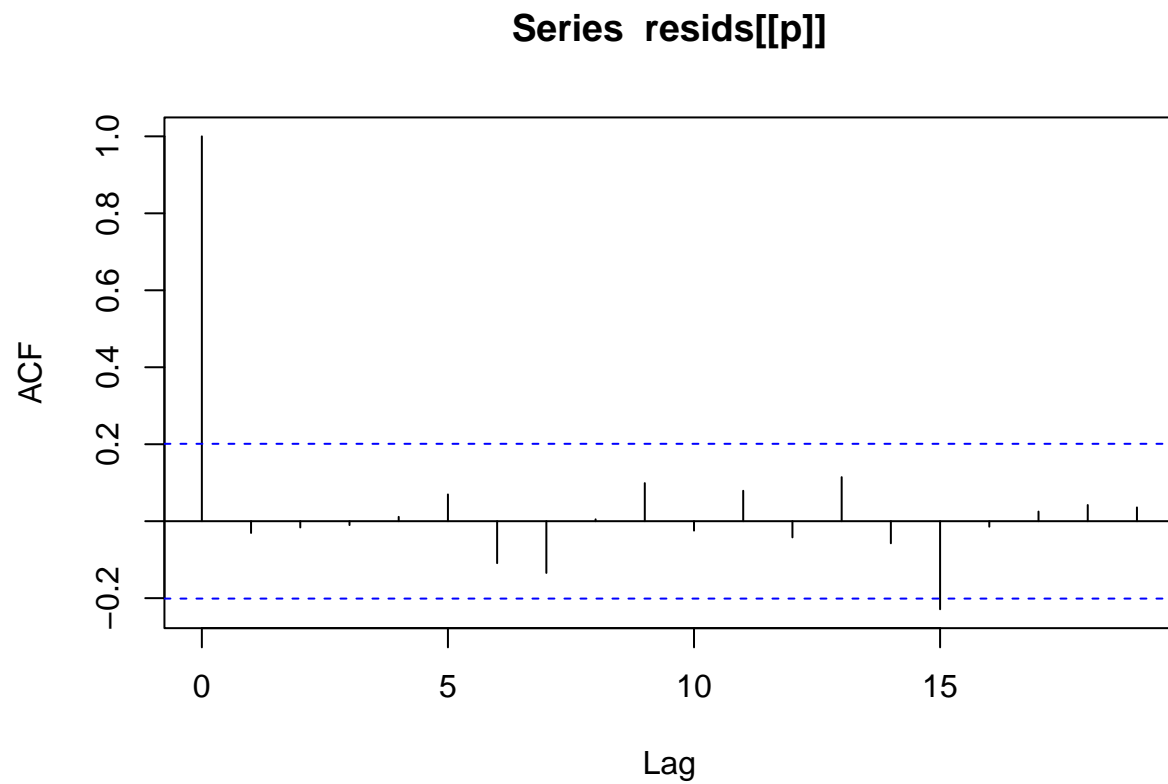




Series residu[[p]]







- The correct filter is for $p = 2$. We print the coefficients and their estimates.

```
print(c(phi1,phi2))
```

```
## [1]  1.385641 -0.640000
```

```
print(coeffs[[2]])
```

```
##   covars1   covars2
```

```
##  1.4773729 -0.6966449
```