

Modeling cycles: AR(), MA(), and ARMA()

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CBS

Cycles

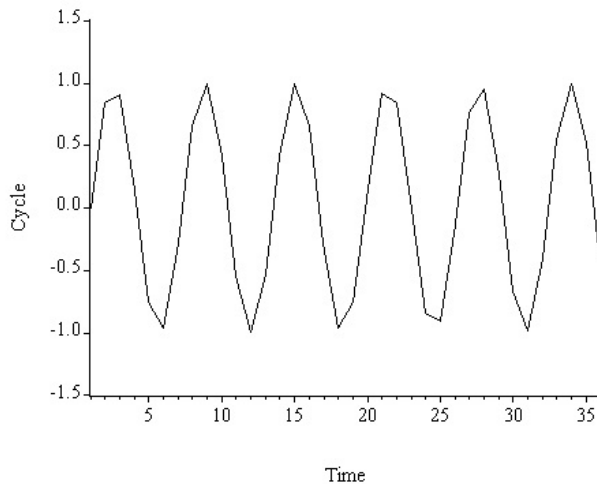
- Recall the component decomposition

$$\mu_t = T_t + S_t + C_t$$

- The cycle component C_t should be free of trend and seasonal
- We will focus on pure cycle models

$$\mu_t = C_t$$

A Rigid Cyclical Pattern



Mean Stationary

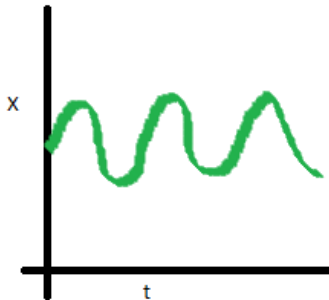
- **Definition:** A time series Y_t has a constant mean, or is **mean stationary**, if

$$E(Y_t) = \mu$$

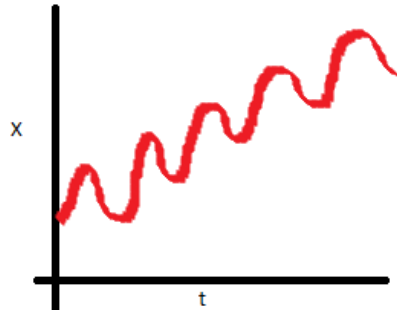
is constant (stable) over time.

- Counter-example:
 - A trended time series is not mean stationary
- We assume the cyclical component C_t is mean stationary

Mean Stationary



Stationary series



Non-Stationary series

Variance Stationary

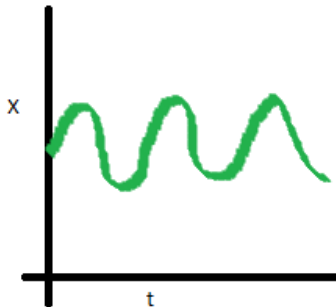
- **Definition:** A time series Y_t has a constant variance, or is **variance stationary**, if

$$\text{var}(Y_t) = \sigma^2$$

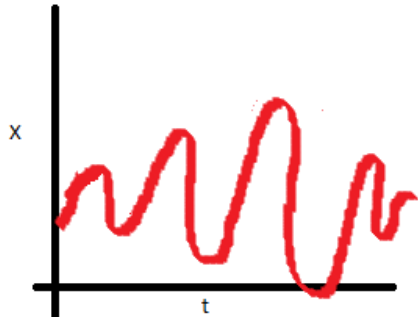
is constant (stable) over time.

- Counter-example:
 - A time-series with trended (increasing) variance is not variance stationary
- We assume the cyclical component C_t is variance stationary

Variance Stationary



Stationary series



Non-Stationary series

Covariance

- The covariance of two random variables X and Z is

$$\text{cov}(X, Z) = E((X - EX)(Z - EZ))$$

- The covariance measures the linear dependence between X and Z

Autocovariance

- The first **autocovariance** of a time series Y_t is the covariance of Y_t with its value in the preceding time period Y_{t-1}
- We call Y_{t-1} the first **first lag** of Y_t
- We write the first autocovariance as

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(1) &= \text{cov}(Y_t, Y_{t-1}) \\ &= E((Y_t - \mu)(Y_{t-1} - \mu))\end{aligned}$$

Autocovariances

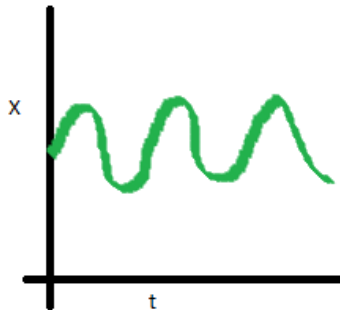
- The k 'th **autocovariance** of a time series Y_t is the covariance of Y_t with its lag Y_{t-k}
- It is written as

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(k) &= \text{cov}(Y_t, Y_{t-k}) \\ &= E((Y_t - \mu)(Y_{t-k} - \mu))\end{aligned}$$

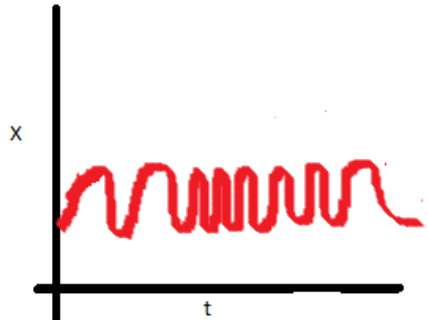
Covariance Stationary

- **Definition:** A time series Y_t is **covariance stationary** if its mean $E(Y_t)$, variance, and autocovariance function $\gamma(k)$ are constant (stable) over time
- Counter-example:
 - A time-series with changing correlations is not covariance stationary
- We assume the cyclical component C_t is covariance stationary

Covariance Stationary



Stationary series



Non-Stationary series

Correlation

- The correlation normalizes the covariance

$$\text{corr}(X, Z) = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Z)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(X)\text{var}(Z)}}$$

- Correlations lie between -1 and 1
 - $\text{corr}(X, Z) = 0$ means no linear association
 - $\text{corr}(X, Z) = 1$ means $X = Z$
 - $\text{corr}(X, Z) = -1$ means $X = -Z$

Autocorrelation

- The first **autocorrelation** of a time series Y_t is the correlation of Y_t with Y_{t-1}
- We write the first autocorrelation as

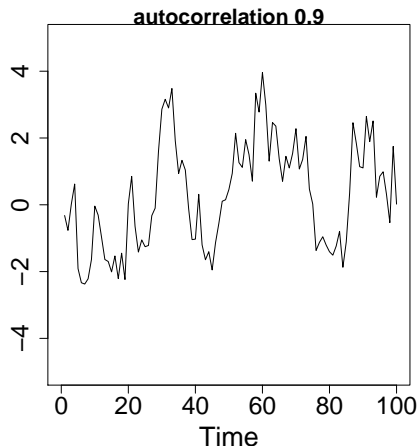
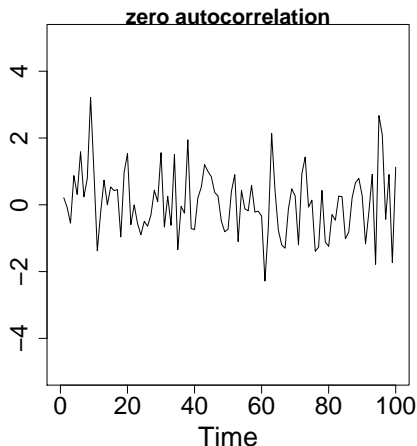
$$\begin{aligned}\rho(1) &= \text{corr}(Y_t, Y_{t-1}) \\ &= \frac{\text{cov}(Y_t, Y_{t-1})}{\sqrt{\text{var}(Y_t)\text{var}(Y_{t-1})}} \\ &= \frac{\text{cov}(Y_t, Y_{t-1})}{\text{var}(Y_t)}\end{aligned}$$

- The third equality holds by variance stationarity

Autocorrelation

- The autocorrelation $\rho(1)$ lies between -1 and 1
- $\rho(1)$ is close to 1 for highly correlated series
- $\rho(1)$ is close to -1 if the correlation is negative - if there are movements back and forth
- $\rho(1) = 0$ if the series is uncorrelated

Autocorrelation: two examples



Autocorrelations

- The k 'th **autocorrelation** of a time series Y_t is the correlation of Y_t with Y_{t-k}
- It is written as

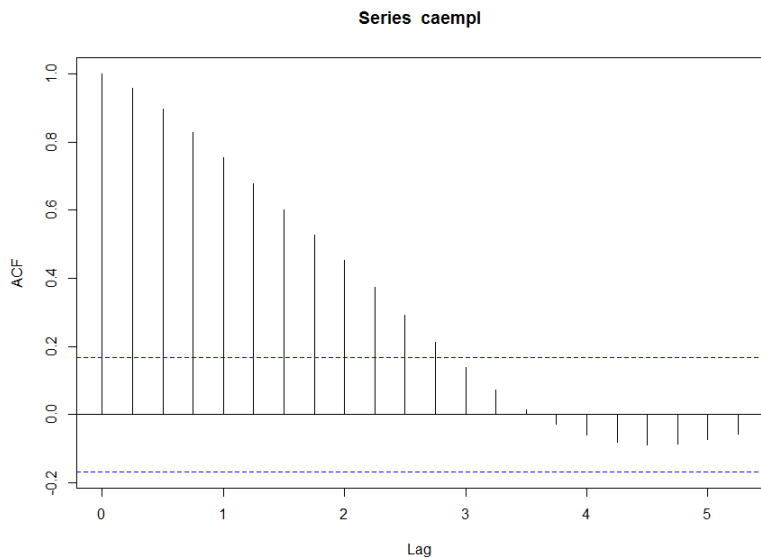
$$\begin{aligned}\rho(k) &= \frac{\text{cov}(Y_t, Y_{t-k})}{\sqrt{\text{var}(Y_t)\text{var}(Y_{t-k})}} \\ &= \frac{\text{cov}(Y_t, Y_{t-k})}{\text{var}(Y_t)}\end{aligned}$$

- Autocorrelations lie between -1 and 1

Autocorrelation Function

- The autocovariance $\gamma(k)$ and autocorrelation $\rho(k)$ are functions of the lag k .
- We call $\rho(k)$ the **autocorrelation function**.
- Plotted as a function of k it shows us how the dependence pattern alters with the lag.

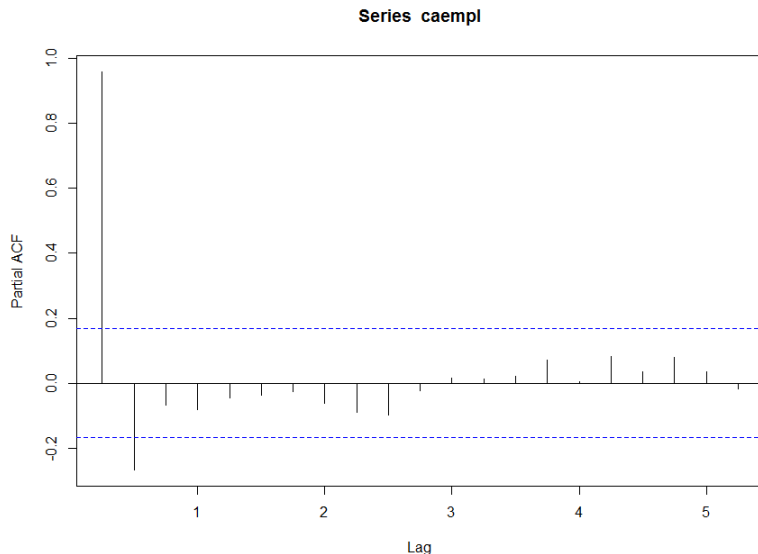
Autocorrelation Function



Partial Autocorrelation Function

- **Partial autocorrelation function**, $p(k)$ is sometimes useful.
- $p(k)$ is just the coefficient on y_{t-k} in a population linear regression of y_t on y_{t-1}, \dots, y_{t-k} .
- We call such a regression an **autoregression**, because the variable is regressed on lagged values of itself.
- The partial autocorrelations measure the association between y_t and y_{t-k} after *controlling* for the effects of $y_{t-1}, \dots, y_{t-k+1}$.

Partial Autocorrelation Function



MA(1) Process

- The **first-order moving average** process, or **MA(1)** process, is

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

where ε_t is $WN(0, \sigma^2)$

- The MA coefficient θ controls the degree of serial correlation. It may be positive or negative.
- The innovations ε_t impact y_t over two periods
 - An contemporaneous (same period) impact
 - A one-period delayed impact

Mean of MA(1)

- The unconditional mean of y_t is

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_t) &= E(\varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_t) + \theta E(\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Variance of MA(1)

- The unconditional variance of y_t is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(y_t) &= \text{var}(\varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= \text{var}(\varepsilon_t) + \text{var}(\theta\varepsilon_{t-1}) + 2\text{cov}(\varepsilon_t, \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \theta^2\sigma^2 + 0 \\ &= (1 + \theta^2)\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

- This is a function of both the innovation variance σ^2 and the MA coefficient θ .

Autocovariance of MA(1)

- The first autocovariance is

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(1) &= E(y_t y_{t-1}) \\ &= E((\varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1})(\varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta \varepsilon_{t-2})) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t-1}) + \theta E(\varepsilon_{t-1}^2) + \theta E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t-2}) + \theta^2 E(\varepsilon_{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-2}) \\ &= 0 + \theta E(\varepsilon_{t-1}^2) + 0 + 0 \\ &= \theta \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

Autocovariance of MA(1)

- The autocovariance for $k > 1$ are

$$\begin{aligned}
 \gamma(k) &= E(y_t y_{t-k}) \\
 &= E((\varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1})(\varepsilon_{t-k} + \theta \varepsilon_{t-k-1})) \\
 &= E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t-k}) + \theta E(\varepsilon_{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-k}) + \theta E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t-k-1}) + \theta^2 E(\varepsilon_{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-k-1}) \\
 &= 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

- Thus the autocovariance function is zero for $k > 1$

Autocorrelations of MA(1)

- Since

$$\gamma(0) = \text{var}(y_t) = (1 + \theta^2)\sigma^2$$

$$\gamma(1) = \theta\sigma^2$$

$$\gamma(k) = 0, k \geq 2$$

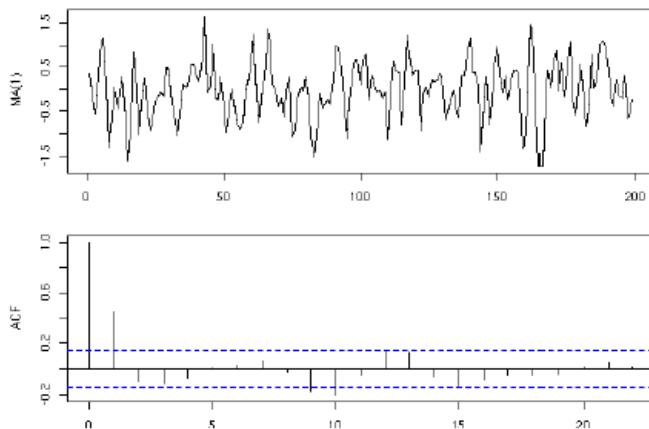
then

$$\rho(1) = \frac{\theta\sigma^2}{(1 + \theta^2)\sigma^2} = \frac{\theta}{1 + \theta^2}$$

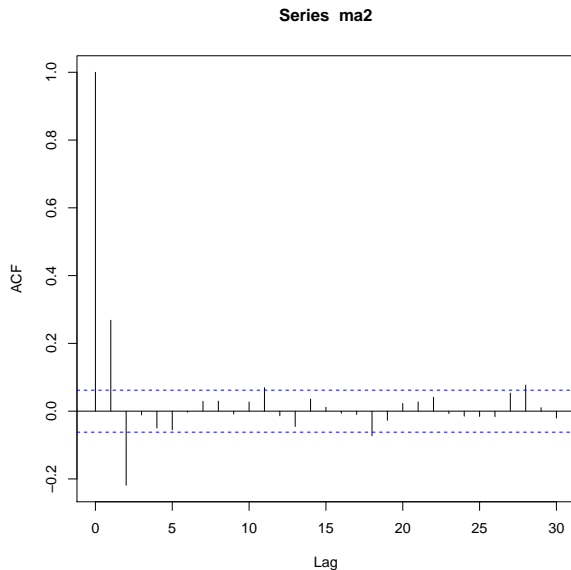
$$\rho(k) = 0, k \geq 2$$

- The autocorrelation function of an MA(1) is zero after the first lag.

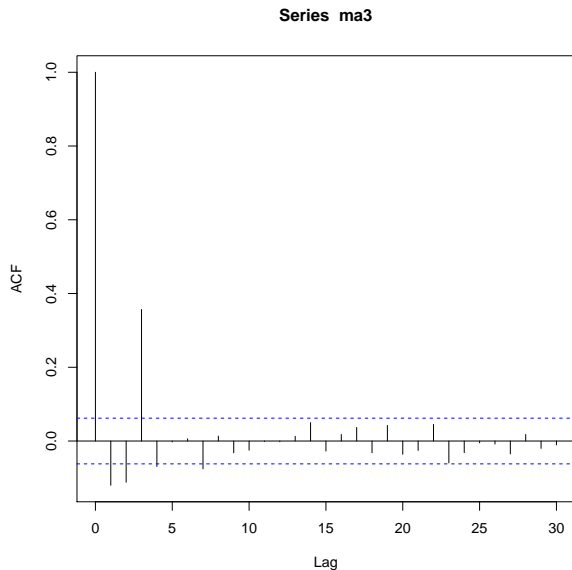
Autocorrelation Function of MA(1)



ACF for MA(2)



ACF for MA(3)



AR(1) Process

- The first-order autoregressive process, AR(1) is

$$y_t = \beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

where ε_t is $WN(0, \sigma^2)$

Variance of AR(1)

- Take variance of both sides of

$$y_t = \beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

- Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(y_t) &= \text{var}(\beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t) \\ &= \text{var}(\beta y_{t-1}) + \text{var}(\varepsilon_t) \\ &= \beta^2 \text{var}(y_{t-1}) + \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

- If y is variance stationary, we solve and find

$$\text{var}(y_t) = \text{var}(y_{t-1}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \beta^2}$$

$$|\beta| < 1$$

- We calculated that

$$\text{var}(y_t) = \beta^2 \text{var}(y_{t-1}) + \sigma^2$$

- When $|\beta| = 1$, then

$$\text{var}(y_t) = \text{var}(y_{t-1}) + \sigma^2 > \text{var}(y_{t-1})$$

so the variance is increasing with t

- $|\beta| = 1$ is inconsistent with variance stationarity.
- $|\beta| < 1$ is necessary for stationarity.

Random Walk

- An AR(1) with $\beta = 1$ is known as a random walk or unit root process

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

- By back-substitution

$$y_t = y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^t \varepsilon_{t-i}$$

- The past never disappears. Shocks have permanent effects.

Autocovariance of AR(1)

- Take the equation

$$y_t = \beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

- And then multiply both sides by y_{t-k}

$$y_{t-k}y_t = \beta y_{t-k}y_{t-1} + y_{t-k}\varepsilon_t$$

- Then take expectations. Since ε_t is white noise, it is uncorrelated with

$$E(y_{t-k}y_t) = \beta E(y_{t-k}y_{t-1}) + E(y_{t-k}\varepsilon_t)$$

or

$$\gamma(k) = \beta\gamma(k-1)$$

Autocorrelations of AR(1)

- Dividing by the variance, this implies

$$\rho(k) = \beta \rho(k-1)$$

- We know

$$\rho(0) = 1$$

- Then

$$\rho(1) = \beta \rho(0) = \beta$$

$$\rho(2) = \beta \rho(1) = \beta^2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\rho(k) = \beta^k$$

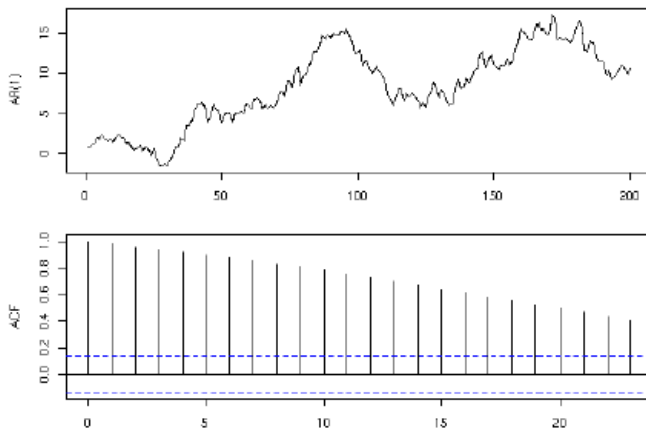
Autocorrelations of AR(1)

- We have derived

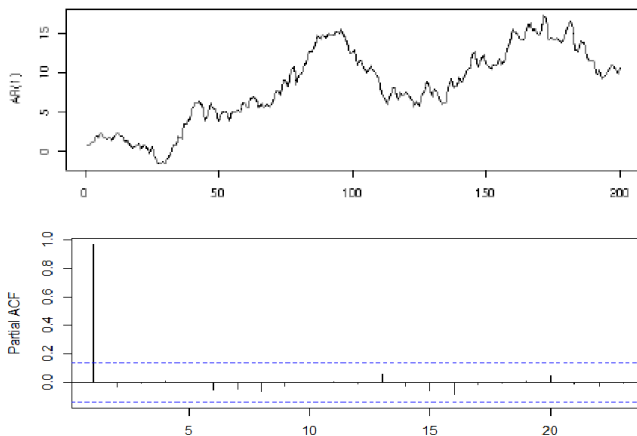
$$\rho(k) = \beta^k$$

- The autocorrelation of the stationary AR(1) is a simple geometric decay ($|\beta| < 1$)
- If β is small, the autocorrelations decay rapidly to zero with k
- If β is large (close to 1), then the autocorrelations decay moderately
- The AR(1) parameter describes the persistence in the time series

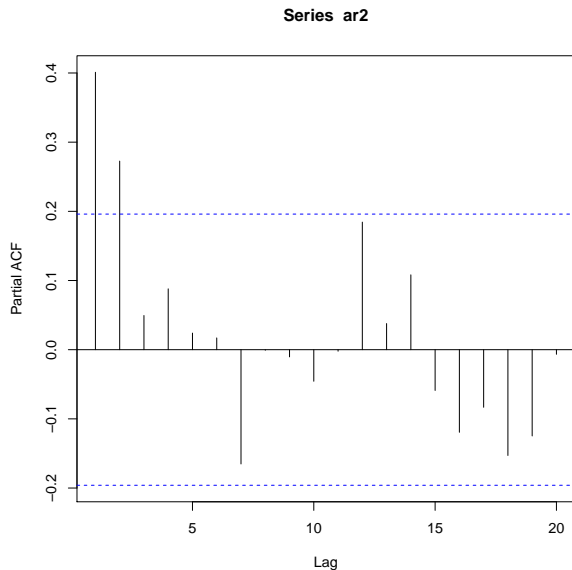
Autocorrelation Function of AR(1)



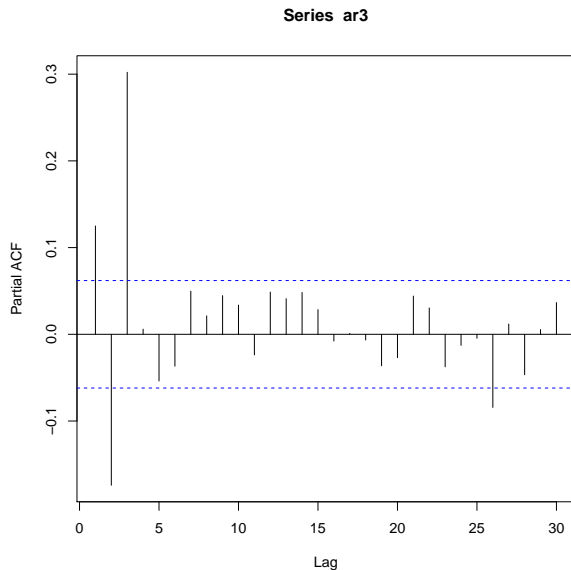
Autocorrelation Function of AR(1)



PACF of AR(2)



PACF of AR(3)

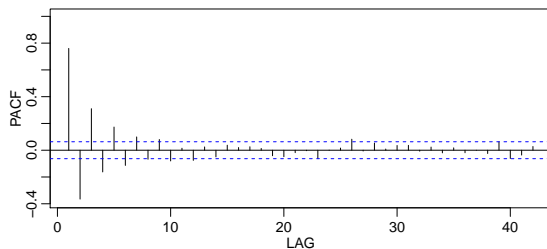
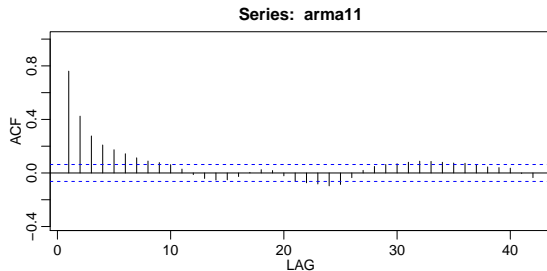


ARMA(1,1) Process

- The random shocks that drives an autoregressive process is itself a moving average process.
- It can arise from aggregation (sum of AR or of AR and MA).
- AR processes observed with measurement error.
- ARMA(1,1)

$$y_t = \beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1}$$
$$\varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$$

ACF and PACF ARMA(1,1)



ARMA(p,q) Process

- ARMA models have a fixed unconditional mean but a time-varying conditional mean.
- Neither the autocorrelation nor partial autocorrelation functions of ARMA process cut off at any particular displacement.
- Autocorrelation and partial autocorrelation functions damp gradually, with the precise pattern depending on the process.

Akaike Information criterion (AIC)

The Akaike Information criterion is effectively an estimate of the out-of-sample forecast error variance:

$$AIC = \exp \left\{ \frac{2k}{T} \right\} \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\varepsilon}_t^2}{T}$$

where k is the number of estimated parameters.

- Larger models have smaller sum of squared residuals, but larger k .
- AIC is designed to find models with low forecast risk.
- AIC assumes all models are approximations, and is trying to find the model which makes the best forecast.
- Akaike recommended selecting forecasting models by finding the one model with the smallest AIC.

Best fitting ARMA(p,q) model

- Neither the ACF nor PACF of ARMA process cut off at any particular displacement. Therefore, ACF and PACF may not be helpful in determining the order p and q for the model.
- One way of choosing the best fitting model is to try them all and compare.
- We can estimate as many ARMA(p,q) models as we can and choose the one with the smallest AIC.
- If you let both p and q vary between 1 and 4, you will estimate and consider 16 different models.

AIC for ARMA(p,q)

	MA(q)	1	2	3	4
AR(p)					
1		502.0	497.5	498.4	499.1
2		494.8	496.6	497.8	499.8
3		497.0	498.7	499.8	501.4
4		498.8	499.7	501.6	503.6

AIC for ARMA(p,q)

	MA(q)	1	2	3	4
AR(p)					
1		502.0	497.5	498.4	499.1
2		494.8	496.6	497.8	499.8
3		497.0	498.7	499.8	501.4
4		498.8	499.7	501.6	503.6

Best fitting ARMA(p,q) model using *auto.arima*

- We can let the algorithm in *auto.arima* to pick the best fitting model.
- The algorithm loops over pairwise values of $p \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ and $q \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ to estimate ARMA(p,q) and calculate the AIC.
- The algorithm will choose the order p and q in ARMA(p,q) such that the AIC is the smallest.