

Time Series Exercises 3: Solutions

1. Now we know that

$$\text{Cov}(X(i), X(j)) = \sigma^2 \rho(i - j)$$

for all i, j , and so

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\bar{x}) &= \frac{1}{N^2} \text{Var}\left(\sum_{t=1}^N X(t)\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{N^2} \left(\sum_{t=1}^N \text{Var}(X(t)) + 2 \sum_{j < i} \text{Cov}(X(i), X(j)) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{N^2} \left(N\sigma^2 + 2 \sum_{j < i} \sigma^2 \rho(i - j) \right) \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{N} \left(1 + \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j < i} \rho(i - j) \right). \end{aligned}$$

The double summation in the above can be written (taking each value for i in turn)

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=2}^N \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \rho(i - j) &= \rho(1) + (\rho(2) + \rho(1)) + (\rho(3) + \rho(2) + \rho(1)) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (\rho(N - 1) + \cdots + \rho(1)) \\ &= (N - 1)\rho(1) + (N - 2)\rho(2) + \cdots + (N - (N - 1))\rho(N - 1) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} (N - k)\rho(k) \end{aligned}$$

from which the result follows.

2. As there is some evidence of a trend in the data, perhaps the series should be differenced to begin with. Examining the sample acf after differencing, the first few values are $r_1 = -0.48, r_2 = 0.033, r_3 = -0.049, r_4 = -0.106, \dots$, suggesting a cut-off at lag 1. This points to an MA(1) process. So fitting an ARIMA(0, 1, 1) to the data gives Res SS = 0.6789, χ^2 test statistic = 4.5 (on 11 d.o.f.), and fitted model is

$$X(t) = 0.015 + 1.0598Z(t - 1) + Z(t).$$

We can try higher order models, e.g., and ARIMA(1, 1, 1) has $\chi^2 = 4.6$, ResSS = 0.6779, and $\hat{\alpha} = 0.0154$ is too close to zero to be considered worthy of inclusion. Similarly with higher order models, the reduction in Res SS is insufficient to warrant the extra parameters. Note that R provides both the log-likelihood function and AIC, and these numbers are worth examining, particularly as the latter penalises over-fitting. An obvious question to ask is whether the constant term should be included – i.e., is $E(X(t)) = \mu = 0$? R (and Minitab) includes a constant unless instructed not to, but as an aside be aware that we can test the hypothesis that $\mu = 0$ by examining the size of $\bar{x}/\text{e.s.e.}(\bar{x})$, where $\text{e.s.e.}(\bar{x})$ is our estimate of the standard deviation of our estimate of μ based on model. Typically we would reject that $\mu = 0$ if $|\bar{x}/\text{e.s.e.}(\bar{x})| > 2$. The $\text{e.s.e.}(\bar{x})$ depends on which model is fitted, however. As examples, the following are the estimates of the $\text{e.s.e.}(\bar{x})^2$ in low order models, where in each case N observations are taken:

Model	Estimate of $\text{var}(\bar{x})$
AR(1)	$\frac{c_0(1+r_1)}{N(1-r_1)}$
MA(1)	$\frac{c_0(1+2r_1)}{N}$
AR(2)	$\frac{c_0(1+r_1)(1-2r_1^2+r_2)}{N(1-r_1)(1-r_2)}$
MA(2)	$\frac{c_0(1+2r_1+2r_2)}{N}$
ARMA(1, 1)	$\frac{c_0}{N} \left(1 + \frac{2r_1^2}{r_1-r_2} \right)$

In our example here we can legitimately set $\mu = 0$, giving rise to an invertible model.

- Note that the sample acf r_k appears to decay here, whereas the pacf cuts-off after the first lag. This strongly suggests an AR(1) model. We would estimate the parameter α_1 by $r_1 = -0.8$, and using the model-based estimator of σ^2 we would take

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\sigma}^2 &= c_0(1 - \hat{\alpha}_1 r_1) \\
&= 3.34(1 - 0.64) \\
&= 1.2024.
\end{aligned}$$

Is the mean of the underlying series zero? Well $\bar{x} = 0.03$, and in fact from above, the estimate of the standard deviation (i.e., the e.s.e.) for this estimate of μ is

$$\sqrt{\frac{c_0(1+r_1)}{N(1-r_1)}} = 0.04.$$

Now since $|\bar{x}/0.04| < 2$, we would accept that μ is zero. So we would try as an initial model the AR(1)

$$X(t) = -0.8X(t-1) + Z(t)$$

where $Z(t) \sim N(0, 1.2024)$.

4. For an AR(2) process, recall that the Yule–Walker equations are

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(1) &= \alpha_1\rho(0) + \alpha_2\rho(1) \\ \rho(2) &= \alpha_1\rho(1) + \alpha_2\rho(0),\end{aligned}$$

so the “sample” Yule–Walker equations are (since $\rho(0) = r_0 = 1$)

$$\begin{aligned}r_1 &= \alpha_1 + \alpha_2r_1 \\ r_2 &= \alpha_1r_1 + \alpha_2.\end{aligned}$$

Rearranging, we find

$$\alpha_1 = r_1(1 - \alpha_2)$$

and therefore

$$r_2 - r_1^2 = \alpha_2(1 - r_1^2)$$

suggesting estimators based on the sample acf, namely

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\alpha}_2 &= \frac{r_2 - r_1^2}{1 - r_1^2}, \\ \hat{\alpha}_1 &= \frac{r_1(1 - r_2)}{1 - r_1^2}.\end{aligned}$$

Substituting $r_1 = 0.81$ and $r_2 = 0.43$ suggests

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\alpha}_1 &= \frac{0.462}{0.349} = 1.343, \\ \hat{\alpha}_2 &= -\frac{0.226}{0.344} = -0.657.\end{aligned}$$

5. For this command, the syntax is

```
> arima.sim(model, n, rand.gen = rnorm, innov = rand.gen(n,
...), n.start = NA, start.innov = rand.gen(n.start, ...), ...)
```

The `model` argument requires the AR and MA coefficients in separate vectors, `n` is the length of the generated series, `rand.gen` stipulates the white noise distribution (Normal being the default), alternatively a series for the $Z(t)$ can be explicitly provided using the `innov` argument. The output is a vector of class `ts`. So to simulate from an AR(1) with $\alpha = 0.5$ and $\sigma^2 = 0.8$, enter

```
> arima.sim(n = 100, list(ar = 0.5), sd = sqrt(0.8))
```

For an AR(1), $\alpha_1 \approx r_1$, recalling that $\rho(1) = \alpha_1$ and r_1 estimates $\rho(1)$. The acf should just decay, and the pacf should “cut-off” after lag 1. For an AR(2), the acf decays and the pacf cuts-off at lag 2. The arguments can be modified to produce an MA(1) process, for instance, where the acf should of course cut-off after lag 1. The pacf should have no (or certainly only a spurious few) “significant” values after the first. Experimenting will demonstrate that the estimator of β found by solving

$$r_1 = \frac{\beta}{1 + \beta^2},$$

subject to $|\beta| < 1$ is relatively inefficient. However, it is a reasonable starting point, and the best we can find if an MA(1) is to be fitted without the aid of a computer.

6. Consider the process

$$X(t) = \alpha X(t-1) + Z(t) + \beta Z(t-1).$$

This can be written as a “pure” MA process by repeated back substitution:

$$\begin{aligned} X(t) &= \alpha^2 X(t-2) + Z(t) + (\alpha + \beta) Z(t-1) + \alpha\beta Z(t-2) \\ &= \alpha^3 X(t-3) + Z(t) + (\alpha + \beta) Z(t-1) + \alpha(\alpha + \beta) Z(t-2) + \alpha^2\beta Z(t-3) \\ &\vdots \\ &= Z(t) + (\alpha + \beta) Z(t-1) + \alpha(\alpha + \beta) Z(t-2) + \alpha^2(\alpha + \beta) Z(t-3) + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

Note that the general coefficient in the above is of the form $\alpha^j(\alpha + \beta)$; for stationarity, we need their sum, $(\alpha + \beta) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha^j$, to be finite (i.e., to converge). This can only happen when $|\alpha| < 1$.

7. For the MA(1) model, based on data $x(1), \dots, x(N)$, we would obviously forecast the next value to be $\hat{x}(N, 1) = \hat{\theta}z(N)$, where $\hat{\theta}$ is a suitable estimate of θ and

$$z(N) = e(N) = x(N) - \hat{x}(N)$$

is the residual at time N , being an estimate of $Z(N)$. Clearly for this model

$$\hat{x}(N, l) = 0$$

for $l > 0$.

8. Now here

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{X}(N, 1) &= -\beta_1 Z(N) - \beta_2 Z(N-1) \\ \hat{X}(N, 2) &= -\beta_2 Z(N)\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\hat{X}(N, l) = 0$$

for $l = 3, 4, \dots$. Note that for any stationary process with mean μ , using the Box-Jenkins procedure to find forecasts, we have that $\hat{X}(N, l) \rightarrow \mu$ as $l \rightarrow \infty$. Of course $\mu = 0$ in the model here.

9. Taking unobserved values of $Z(t)$ to be zero, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{x}(360, 2) &= -0.3085(-4.0406) - 0.1312 \times 0.77119 - 0.2022 \times 0.442 \\ &= 1.055 \\ \hat{x}(360, 3) &= -0.1312(-4.0406) - 0.2022 \times 0.77119 \\ &= 0.374.\end{aligned}$$

10. From the information given, we see

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{x}(N, 1) &= 0.5 \times 3.24 + 0 - 0.8 \times 0.64 + 0.4 \times 0.95 \\ &= 1.488. \\ \hat{x}(N, 2) &= 0.5\hat{x}(N, 1) + 0 + 0 + 0.4 \times 0.64 = 1.00 \\ \hat{x}(N, 3) &= 0.5\hat{x}(N, 2) + 0 = 0.5.\end{aligned}$$

Given that $x(N+1) = 1.6$, we can deduce the updated forecasts

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{x}((N+1, 1)) &= 0.5 \times 1.6 + 0 - 0.8 \times 0.112 + 0.4 \times 0.64 \\ &= 0.9664 \\ \hat{x}(N+1, 2) &= 0.5 \times 0.9664 + 0 + 0 + 0.4 \times 0.112 = 0.528.\end{aligned}$$

11. We know that

$$\hat{X}(N, l) = \hat{\alpha}^l X(N)$$

for each $l = 1, 2, \dots$. To construct the confidence interval, let us write the $\{\psi_i\}$ weights in the MA representation in terms of α . Here

$$\phi(B) = 1 - \alpha B$$

and since $\theta(B) = 1$ we have

$$\phi(B)\psi(B) = (1 - \alpha B)(1 + \psi_1 B + \psi_2^2 B^2 + \dots) = 1.$$

Now we can equate coefficients in B :

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_1 - \alpha &= 0, \\ \psi_2 - \alpha\psi_1 &= 0 \\ &\vdots\end{aligned}$$

From this we see

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_1 &= \alpha, \\ \psi_2 &= \alpha^2 \\ &\vdots \\ \psi_l &= \alpha^l.\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{j=0}^{l-1} \psi_j^2 &= 1 + \alpha^2 + \dots + \alpha^{2l-2} \\ &= \frac{1 - \alpha^{2l}}{1 - \alpha^2},\end{aligned}$$

summing the g.p., assuming $|\alpha| < 1$. So an approximate 95% confidence interval for $\hat{X}(N, l)$ is

$$\hat{x}(N, l) \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{\frac{1 - \hat{\alpha}^{2l}}{1 - \hat{\alpha}^2}}.$$

12. In general

$$\begin{aligned} e(N, l) &= Z(N + l) + \psi_1 Z(N + l - 1) + \cdots + \psi_{l-1} Z(N + 1) \\ e(N, l + 1) &= Z(N + l + 1) + \psi_1 Z(N + l) + \cdots + \psi_l Z(N + 1) \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(e(N, l), e(N, l + 1)) &= E(e(N, l) e(N, l + 1)) \\ &= \sigma^2 \sum_{j=0}^{l-1} \psi_j \psi_{j+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the correlation between $e(N, l)$ and $e(N, l + 1)$ is

$$\frac{\sum_{j=0}^{l-1} \psi_j \psi_{j+1}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=0}^{l-1} \psi_j^2 \sum_{j=0}^l \psi_j^2}}.$$

Now in this example a 95% confidence interval is of the form

$$\hat{x}(60, l) \pm 1.96 \times 0.8 \sqrt{\sum_{j=0}^l \psi_j^2}.$$

To find some $\{\psi_j\}$ values, note that

$$\theta(B) = \phi(B) \psi(B)$$

and here this implies

$$1 = (1 - 0.9B + 0.4B^2) (1 + \psi_1 B + \psi_2 B^2 + \cdots).$$

Now equating coefficients in powers of B , we see

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_1 &= 0.9, \\ \psi_2 - 0.9\psi_1 + 0.4 &= 0\end{aligned}$$

and so $\psi_2 = 0.41$. In general

$$0.4\psi_{j-2} - 0.9\psi_{j-1} + \psi_j = 0.$$

The confidence interval for x (61) is

$$0.9 \times 0.8 - 0.4 \times 1.2 \pm 1.96 \times 0.8\sqrt{1},$$

i.e., 0.24 ± 1.568 , or $(-1.328, 1.808)$. For x (62) we have

$$0.9 \times 0.24 - 0.4 \times 0.8 \pm 1.96 \times 0.8\sqrt{1 + 0.9^2},$$

i.e., -0.104 ± 2.10 , or $(-2.20, 2.00)$. Similarly for x (63),

$$0.9 \times (-0.104) - 0.4 \times 0.24 \pm 1.96 \times 0.8\sqrt{1 + 0.9^2 + 0.41^2},$$

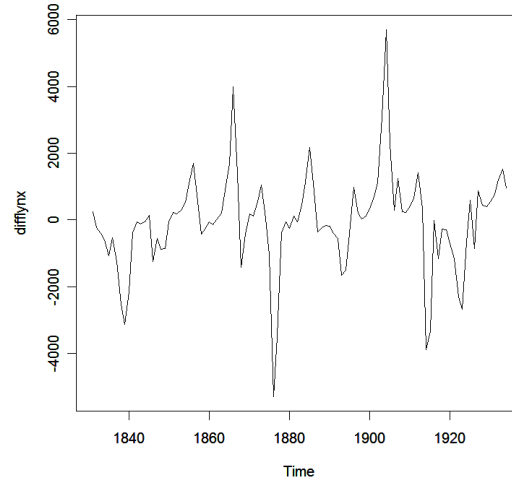
i.e., -0.1896 ± 2.20 , or $(-2.39, 2.01)$. For the estimated correlations,

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\rho}(e(60, 1), e(60, 2)) &= \frac{1 \times 0.9}{\sqrt{1 \times (1 + 0.9^2)}} = 0.669, \\ \hat{\rho}(e(60, 2), e(60, 3)) &= \frac{1 \times 0.9 + 0.9 \times 0.41}{\sqrt{(1 + 0.9^2)(1 + 0.9^2 + 0.41^2)}} = 0.671.\end{aligned}$$

13. .

- (a) The function **rev** reverses a vector.
- (b) Note that the final value of **lynx** is 3396.
- (c) The best value of α here is 1, either found by trial and error or by plotting the estimated value against α . The prediction of 2657 is poor, however. The problem is that the series has some cyclical effects, which the simple exponential smoothing is ignoring.

- (d) Use the command
`difflynx <- diff(newlynx, lag=10)`
 The plot is below:



- (e) Since

$$d(t) = x(t) - x(t-10),$$

for $t = 11, \dots, 113$, then rearranging we find

$$x(t+1) = d(t) + x(t-9).$$

So for prediction we might use

$$\hat{x}(N, 1) = \hat{d}(N, 1) + x(N-9).$$

Here $N = 113$, so we have

$$\hat{x}(113, 1) = \hat{d}(113, 1) + x(104),$$

with $x(104) = 2432$. So we need to forecast the value of $d(114)$. Following the approach above, we might use `es` on the values up to $t = 112$, and see which value of α best predict $d(113) = 1525$. Again $\alpha = 1$ seems best, giving an estimate of 1191. This leads to $\hat{x}(113, 1) = 2432 + 1191 = 3623$, a rather better forecast than before.

14. .

- (a) The acf is decaying slowly, indicating possibly a non-stationary model, or else an AR (or maybe ARMA) model with long-term dependence. The pacf cuts off noticeably at lag 2, suggesting an AR(2) could be suitable. We can examine this model via
- ```
> ar2Huron <- ar(LakeHuron, order.max=2, method='ols',
demean=T)
```

The model fitted to  $Y(t) = X(t) - \hat{\mu}$  is

$$Y(t) = 1.0217Y(t-1) - 0.2376Y(t-2) + Z(t),$$

with  $\hat{\sigma} = 0.6738$ . Checking this model is stationary, we find the roots of

$$0.2376x^2 - 1.0217x + 1 = 0$$

are 1.5067 and 2.7934, and both are outside the unit circle.

An alternative method is via

```
> ar2Huron <- arima(LakeHuron, order=c(2,0,0))
```

This fits

$$X(t) - 597.047 = 1.0436(X(t-1) - 597.047) - 0.2495(X(t-2) - 597.047) + Z(t)$$

with  $\hat{\sigma} = 0.69197$ . This is fitted via a hybrid approach – conditional least squares giving starting values for m.l.e.; hence the model is slightly different to the one given earlier. Probably this model is preferable.

- (b) To examine the residuals, note the first two values are na's in the fit, since the `ols` used above fixes the first  $p = 2$  values. We can still plot the residuals, and note that few fall outside the range  $(-1.5, 1.5)$ . To view the acf, we can use

```
> acf(ar2Huron$resid[3:98])
```

Pleasingly, there are no significant lags after lag 0. The goodness-of-fit tests will be non-significant. The `tsdiag` command works on the model fitted by the `arima` command, and indicates a reasonable fit.

- (c) The `predict` command on the model fitted via `arima` gives

$$\hat{x}(98, 1) = 579.7896,$$

$$\hat{x}(98, 2) = 579.5942,$$

$$\hat{x}(98, 3) = 579.4329$$

with e.s.e.s being 0.69197, 1.00016, 1.1567. Consequently 95% prediction intervals are

$$\begin{aligned} 579.7896 \pm 1.96 \times 0.69197 &= (578.43, 581.15), \\ 579.5942 \pm 1.96 \times 1.00016 &= (577.63, 581.55), \\ 579.4329 \pm 1.96 \times 1.1567 &= (577.17, 581.70), \end{aligned}$$

with all figures in feet. Note of course these are progressively wider. The forecasts from the model fitted by least squares are slightly different.

(d) Easiest is via

```
> ARMAtoMA(ar=c(1.0436136,-0.249497), lag.max=3)
```

which gives output

```
1.0436136 0.8396323 0.6158733
```

These figures estimate  $\psi_1$ ,  $\psi_2$  and  $\psi_3$  in turn. Now since  $\psi_0 = 1$  we check

$$\begin{aligned} 0.69197\sqrt{1} &= 0.69197, \\ 0.69197\sqrt{1 + 1.0436^2} &= 1.00015, \\ 0.69197\sqrt{1 + 1.0436^2 + 0.8396^2} &= 1.1566 \end{aligned}$$

and the confidence intervals above are attained, more or less.

BD