### Time series analysis

EDS 222

Tamma Carleton Fall 2021

• Midterm graded (pass out at the end of class)

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- Assignment 04 posted by Weds 11/10, due 11/24

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- Final projects: due in 3.5 weeks!
  - Presentations: 11/2 9:30-10:45am (Bren Hall 1414); 11/7 8-10:30am
     (Bren Hall 1424)

Midterm results

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Pop "quiz" (not really) on hypothesis testing and OLS

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What are time series data?

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Autocorrelation

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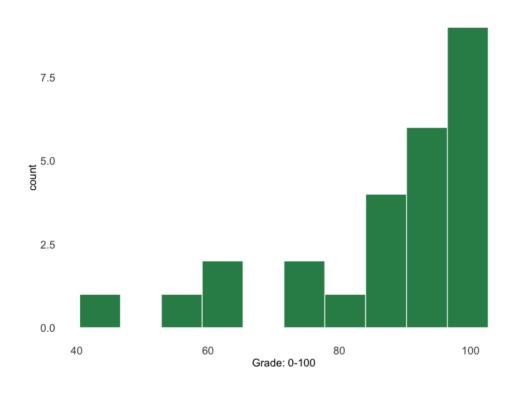
Decomposition

Autocorrelation

Time series and OLS

### Midterm scores

### Midterm scores



- 2 people got perfect scores! 💯
- Biggest mistakes: quantiles, OLS assumptions and properties

# Hypothesis testing and OLS

### Hypothesis testing in OLS

#### Example 1: Smoking and birth weight

```
summary(lm(weight ~ habit, data=ncbirths %>% filter(is.na(habit) = FALSE)))
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = weight ~ habit, data = ncbirths %>% filter(is.na(habit) =
#> FALSE))
#>
#> Residuals:
#> Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
#> -6.144 -0.704 0.166 0.916 4.606
#>
#> Coefficients:
     Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#>
#> (Intercept) 7.1443 0.0509 140.5 <2e-16 ***
#> ---
#> Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#>
#> Residual standard error: 1.5 on 997 degrees of freedom
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.00485, Adjusted R-squared: 0.00385
#> F-statistic: 4.85 on 1 and 997 DF, p-value: 0.0278
```

### Hypothesis testing in OLS

#### Example 2: Temperature and ozone

```
summary(lm(Ozone ~ Temp, data=airquality))
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Ozone ~ Temp, data = airquality)
#>
#> Residuals:
#> Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
#> -40.73 -17.41 -0.59 11.31 118.27
#>
#> Coefficients:
#> Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#> Temp
      2.429 0.233 10.42 < 2e-16 ***
#> Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#>
#> Residual standard error: 23.7 on 114 degrees of freedom
#> (37 observations deleted due to missingness)
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.488, Adjusted R-squared: 0.483
#> F-statistic: 109 on 1 and 114 DF, p-value: <2e-16
```

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Up to this point, we focused on **cross-sectional data**.

- Sampled across a population (e.g., people, counties, countries).
- Sampled at *one moment* in time (e.g., Jan. 1, 2015).
- We had n individuals, each indexed i in  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ .

#### What are time series data?

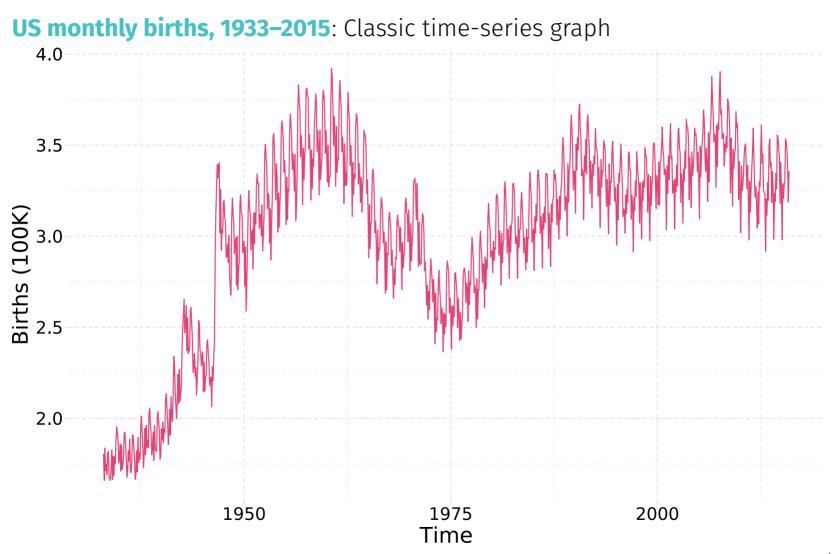
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Today, we focus on a different type of data: time-series data.

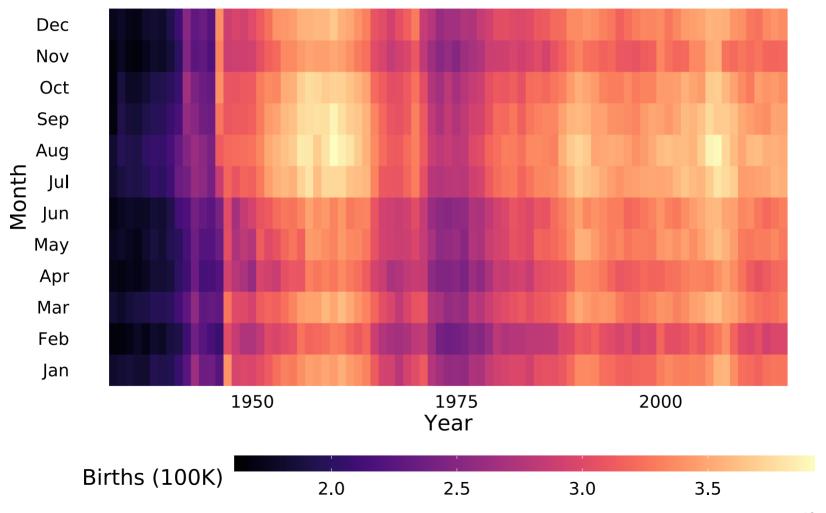
- Sampled within one unit/individual (e.g., Oregon).
- Observe multiple times for the same unit (e.g., Oregon: 1990–2020).
- We have T time periods, each indexed t in  $\{1, \ldots, T\}$ .

### Time series data: Example



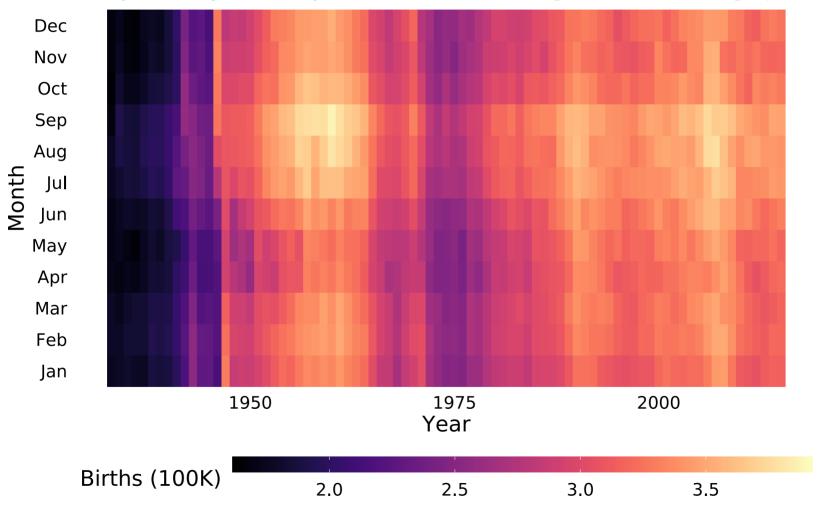
### Time series data: Example

US monthly births, 1933–2015: Newfangled time-series graph



### Time series data: Example

US monthly births per 30 days, 1933-2015: Newfangled time-series graph



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Description of airquality data:

Daily air quality measurements in New York, May to September 1973.

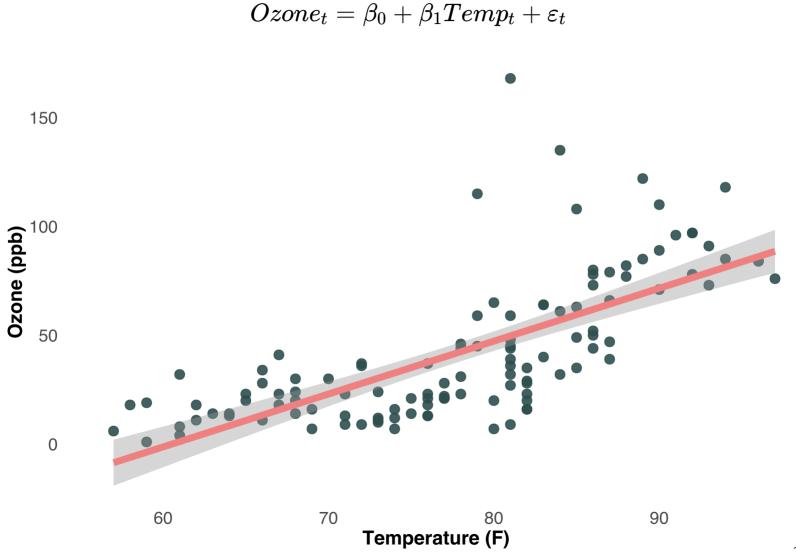
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• Description of airquality data:

Daily air quality measurements in New York, May to September 1973.

• These are **time series data** and we already ran an OLS regression with them!



Let date indicate the date, ranging from May, 1 to September 31, 1973.

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We can also estimate:

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```
airqts = airquality %>% mutate(date = make datetime(Month, Day))
head(airqts)
    Ozone Solar. R Wind Temp Month Day
                                    date
            190 7.4 67
#> 1 41
                          5 1 0005-01-01
        118 8.0 72 5 2 0005-02-01
#> 2 36
                    74 5 3 0005-03-01
#> 3 12 149 12.6
#> 4 18 313 11.5
                    62
                          5 4 0005-04-01
#> 5 NA NA 14.3
                           5 5 0005-05-01
                    56
                           5 6 0005-06-01
#> 6
      28
          NA 14.9 66
```

Let *date* indicate the date, ranging from May, 1 to September 31, 1973.

We can also estimate:

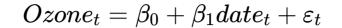
$$Ozone_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 date_t + \varepsilon_t$$

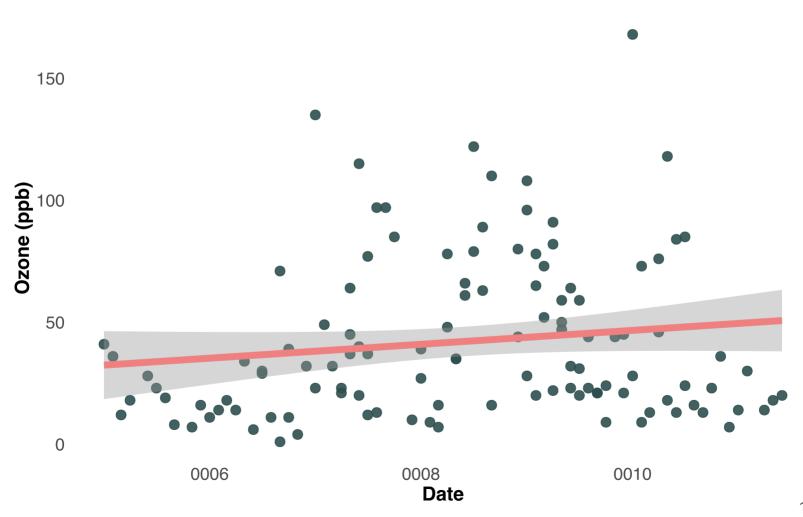
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                         5 5 0005-05-01
     28
                          5 6 0005-06-01
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```

- Regression of Ozone on date estimates a linear trend in ozone
- Tip: make\_datetime() from the lubridate package (handy for dates and times)

$$Ozone_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 date_t + \varepsilon_t$$

```
summary(lm(Ozone ~ date, data = airqts))
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Ozone ~ date, data = airgts)
#>
#> Residuals:
#> Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
#> -42.3 -24.9 -7.3 19.3 121.3
#>
#> Coefficients:
     Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#>
#> (Intercept) 5.63e+03 3.65e+03 1.54 0.13
#> date 9.03e-08 5.90e-08 1.53 0.13
#>
#> Residual standard error: 32.8 on 114 degrees of freedom
#> (37 observations deleted due to missingness)
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.0202, Adjusted R-squared: 0.0116
#> F-statistic: 2.34 on 1 and 114 DF, p-value: 0.128
```





• Many of the summary statistics, regression, and hypothesis testing tools apply to time series data without much adjustment

## You already have (many of) the tools

- Many of the summary statistics, regression, and hypothesis testing tools apply to time series data without much adjustment
- But there are some new **features** we want to explore:
  - Does my data have exhibit trending behavior?
  - Is there **seasonality**?
  - Is my data cyclical?

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- But there are some new **features** we want to explore:
  - Does my data have exhibit trending behavior?
  - Is there seasonality?
  - Is my data cyclical?
- And some new **challenges** to overcome:
  - Additional assumptions needed in OLS
  - Threat to existing assumptions: Are our error terms independent? Is exogeneity harder now?

### Seasonality

A repeated pattern over known and equal periods (e.g., month; quarter, decade)

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A broader cyclical trend with unknown and/or unequal periods (e.g., business cycle, ENSO)

#### **Trends**

Long-term increase or decrease in the data (not necessarily linear!)

Often, seasonality, cyclicality and trends occur all at the same time:

For many time series,\* we can decompose the data into:

$$y_t = S_t + T_t + R_t$$

,

where  $S_t$  is a **seasonal** component,  $T_t$  is the cycle *and* trend components, and  $R_t$  is the remainder.

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**Decomposition** allows us to isolate each component of the time series visually and quantitatively.

[\*]: This decomposition is "additive", which works for many time series. See Hyndman for details on more complex "multiplicative" decomposition.

### Decomposition: Moving averages

A key tool in "decomposing" a time series into its component parts is computing a **moving average** 

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where m=2k+1.

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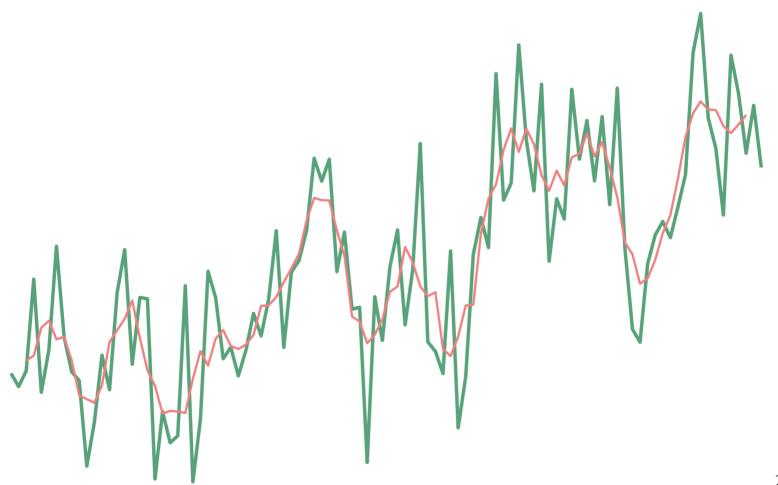
The moving average gives you an estimate of the irregular trend-cycle component T at time t by averaging values of the time series within k periods of t

Computing an m=5 moving average over the data plotted on the last slide:

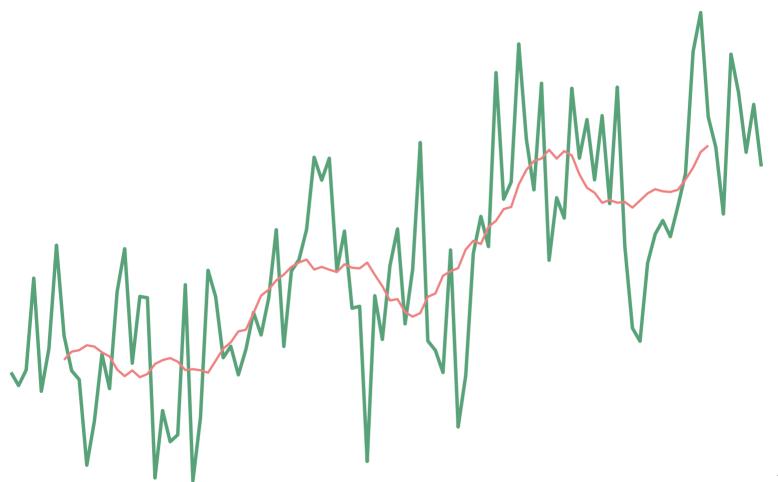
Computing an m=5 moving average over the data plotted on the last slide:

• Helpful package: slider (there are others too!)

Computing an m=5 moving average:



Computing an m=15 moving average:



Step 1: estimate a moving average

Estimate an m-moving average to compute  $\hat{T}_t$ 

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De-trended series  $= y_t - \hat{T}_t$ 

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Simple average over de-trended series for each season s

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Simple average over de-trended series for each season  $oldsymbol{s}$ 

#### Step 4: remainder

Whatever is left over

Consider a time series of monthly totals of accidental deaths in the USA:

```
head(USAccDeaths)
#> [1] 9007 8106 8928 9137 10017 10826
```

Let's decompose the accidental deaths time series.

You can do this by hand, or...

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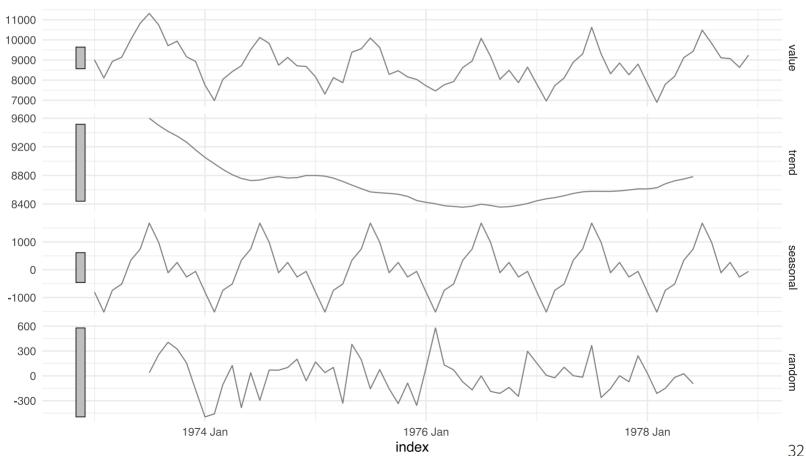
```
decomp = as tsibble(USAccDeaths) %>%
 model(
   classical decomposition(value, type = "additive")
 ) %>%
 components()
head(decomp)
#> # A dable: 6 x 7 [1M]
#> # Kev: .model [1]
#> # : value = trend + seasonal + random
#> model
                                  index value trend seasonal random season adj
#> <chr>
                                  <mth> <dbl> <dbl>
                                                     <dbl> <dbl>
                                                                          <0
#> 1 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Jan 9007
                                                   -806.
                                                                          98
                                                               NA
  2 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Feb 8106
                                                     -1523.
                                                                          96
                                                              NA
  3 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Mar 8928 NA
                                                   -741.
                                                                          96
                                                               NA
#> 4 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Apr 9137
                                                NA -515.
                                                               NA
                                                                          96
#> 5 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 May 10017
                                                   340.
                                                                          96
                                                               NA
#> 6 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Jun 10826
                                                NA 745.
                                                               NA
```

#### You can do this by hand, or...

```
as_tsibble(USAccDeaths) %>%
  model(
    classical_decomposition(value, type = "additive")
) %>%
  components() %>%
  autoplot() +
  labs(title = "Classical additive decomposition of accidental deaths in the USA
```

#### You can do this by hand, or...

Classical additive decomposition of accidental deaths in the USA value = trend + seasonal + random



- As outlined in Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, classical decomposition has some drawbacks:
  - Assumes the seasonal component is fixed over time
  - Loses data at the start and end (due to moving average)
  - Can be sensitive to outliers/short-run anomalous behavior

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  - Assumes the seasonal component is fixed over time
  - Loses data at the start and end (due to moving average)
  - Can be sensitive to outliers/short-run anomalous behavior
- Seasonal and Trend Decomposition using Loess (STL)
  - Flexible and versatile method
  - Seasonal compoenent can change over time
  - Robust to outliers
  - use STL() in place of classical\_decomposition()

### Why decompose a time series?

- 1. To **better understand** your data
  - Do summers tend to have higher crime?
  - Is there an positive trend in ocean temperatures?
  - Does deforestation follow business cycles?

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#### 2. To aid in **forecasting**

- You can forecast using estimated seasonality and trend-cycles
- Details are not covered in this class, see Hyndman & Athanasopoulos for details.

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That is,  $y_t$  may be correlated with  $y_{t-1}$ ,  $y_{t-2}$ ,  $y_{t-12}$ , etc.

This matters both for interpreting OLS output (in a few slides), and for understanding our data (helpful for identifying any seasonality).

#### For example:

• Today's temperature is **positively** correlated with yesterday's temperature:  $cor(y_t,y_{t-1})>0$ 

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#### For example:

- Today's temperature is **positively** correlated with yesterday's temperature:  $cor(y_t,y_{t-1})>0$
- Today's temperature is **negatively** correlated with temperatures 6 months ago:  $cor(y_t, y_{t-182}) < 0$
- Today's temperature may have **no correlation** with temperatures 7 days ago:  $cor(y_t,y_{t-7})=0$

### Autocorrelation

We can describe autocorrelation using an **autocorrelation function** or ACF.

### Autocorrelation

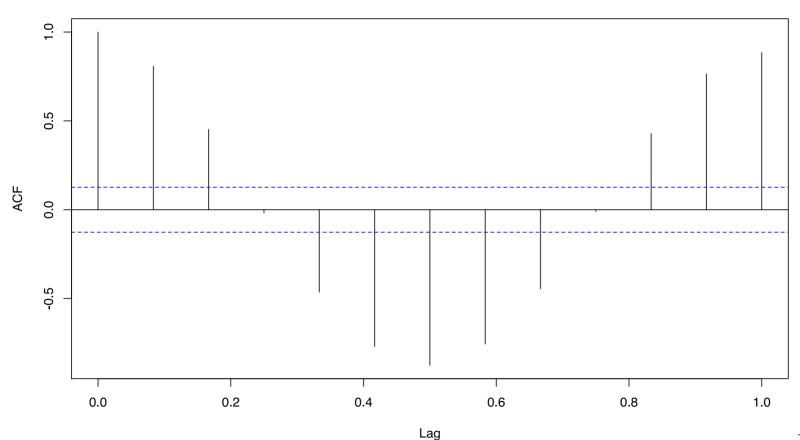
We can describe autocorrelation using an **autocorrelation function** or ACF.

Consider a **monthly** temperature time series for Nottingham Castle

# Autocorrelation Function (ACF)

acf(nottdf\$temperature, lag.max=12)

#### Series nottdf\$temperature



## Autocorrelation Function (ACF)

- acf() plots an ACF for you!
- The height of each line indicates the correlation between temperature today and temperature *l* days ago
- Confidence intervals are shown in blue by default -- indicate if  $cor(y_t,y_{t-l})$  is statistically distinguishable from zero (or not)
- Helps to identify periodicity of seasonality

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- Helps to identify periodicity of seasonality

Definition: **white noise** is a random time series in which there is no correlation across time periods (rare in the real world!). Here, the ACF would look noisy and correlations would largely fall within the blue confidence interval.

# Time series and OLS

Our model now looks something like

$$\text{Births}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + u_t$$

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or perhaps

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$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + \beta_3 Income_{t-1} + \beta_4 Births_{t-1} + u_t$$

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where t-1 denotes the time period prior to t (lagged income or births).

#### Time-series models

#### **Assumptions**

- 1. New: Weakly persistent outcomes—essentially,  $x_{t+k}$  in the distant period t + k is weakly correlated with period  $x_t$  (when k is "big").
- 2.  $y_t$  is a **linear function** of its parameters and disturbance.
- 3. There is **some variation** in our explanatory variables
- 4. Harder to satisfy: The  $u_t$  have conditional mean of zero (exogeneity),  $\boldsymbol{E}[u_t|X]=0.$
- 5. Harder to satisfy: The  $u_t$  are normally distributed and homoskedastic with zero correlation between  $u_t$  and  $u_s$ , i.e.,  $u_t \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\operatorname{Var}(u_t|X) = \operatorname{Var}(u_t) = \sigma^2$ , and  $\operatorname{Cor}(u_t, u_s|X) = 0$ .

### Time-series models

#### Model options

Time-series modeling boils down to two classes of models.

- 1. Static models: Do not allow for persistent effect.
- 2. **Dynamic models:** Allow for persistent effects.

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Time-series modeling boils down to two classes of models.

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- 2. **Dynamic models:** Allow for persistent effects.
  - Models with lagged explanatory variables
  - Autoregressive, distributed-lag (ADL) models

#### **Option 1: Static models**

**Static models** assume the outcome depends upon only the current period.

$$\text{Births}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + u_t$$

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We also need to believe current births do not depend upon previous births.

Can be a very restrictive way to consider time-series data.

**Option 2: Dynamic models** 

**Dynamic models** allow the outcome to depend upon other periods.

Option 2a: Dynamic models with lagged explanatory variables

These models allow the outcome to depend upon the explanatory variable(s) in other periods.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Births}_t = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + \beta_2 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \\ & \beta_3 \text{Income}_{t-2} + \beta_4 \text{Income}_{t-3} + u_t \end{aligned}$$

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Here, income **immediately** affects the number of births *and* affects **future** numbers of births. In other words: Births today depend today's income and *lags* of income—*e.g.*, last month's income, last year's income, ...

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Here, income **immediately** affects the number of births *and* affects **future** numbers of births. In other words: Births today depend today's income and *lags* of income—*e.g.*, last month's income, last year's income, ...

Estimate total effects by summing lags' coefficients, e.g.,  $\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 + \beta_4$ .

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Note: We still assume current births don't affect future births.

#### **Option 2b: Autoregressive distributed-lag (ADL) models**

These models allow the outcome to depend upon the explanatory variable(s) and/or the outcome variable in prior periods.

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Here, current income affects affects current births and future births.

In addition, current births affect future births—we're allowing lags of the outcome variable.

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ADL models are often specified as ADL(p, q), where

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{Births}_t = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + \beta_2 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \beta_3 \text{Income}_{t-2} \\ & + \beta_4 \text{Births}_{t-1} + \beta_5 \text{Births}_{t-2} + u_t \end{aligned}$$

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which we can substitute in for  $\operatorname{Births}_{t-1}$  in the first equation, *i.e.*,

$$ext{Births}_t = eta_0 + eta_1 ext{Income}_t + eta_2 (eta_0 + eta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + eta_2 ext{Births}_{t-2} + u_{t-1}) + u_t$$

## Complexity

Continuing...

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Continuing...

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Births}_{t} = & \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} \operatorname{Income}_{t} + \\ & \beta_{2} \underbrace{\left(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1} \operatorname{Income}_{t-1} + \beta_{2} \operatorname{Births}_{t-2} + u_{t-1}\right)}_{\operatorname{Births}_{t-1}} + u_{t} \\ = & \beta_{0} \left(1 + \beta_{2}\right) + \beta_{1} \operatorname{Income}_{t} + \beta_{1} \beta_{2} \operatorname{Income}_{t-1} + \\ & \beta_{2}^{2} \operatorname{Births}_{t-2} + u_{t} + \beta_{2} u_{t-1} \end{aligned}$$

We could then substitute in the equation for  $Births_{t-2}$ ,  $Births_{t-3}$ , ...

Eventually we arrive at

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#### The point?

By including just **one lag of the dependent variable**—as in a ADL(1, 0)—we implicitly include for *many lags* of the explanatory variables and disturbances.<sup>†</sup>

<sup>†</sup> These lags enter into the equation in a very specific way—not the most flexible specification.

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The second part of our exogeneity assumption—requiring that  $u_t$  is independent of all regressors in other periods—fails with dynamic models with lagged outcome variables.

Thus, OLS is biased for dynamic models with lagged outcome variables.

To see why dynamic models with lagged outcome variables violate our exogeneity assumption, consider two periods of our simple ADL(1, 0) model.

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + \beta_2 Births_{t-1} + u_t$$
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$$Births_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_{t+1} + \beta_2 Births_t + u_{t+1}$$
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This correlation violates the second part of our exogeneity requirement.

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With contemporaneous exogeneity, OLS estimates for the coefficients in a time series model are **consistent** (whew)

## Autocorrelation in the error term

The time series version of our assumption about OLS errors includes the following:

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#### Are we worried? In a static model with lagged explanatory variables:

- OLS is **inefficient**, i.e., no longer the lowest variance unbiased estimator
- That is, your standard errors are no longer correct
- However, violating this assumption does not introduce bias (whew!)

### OLS and lagged outcome variables

Consider a model with one lag of the outcome variable—ADL(1, 0)—model with AR(1) disturbances

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + \beta_2 Births_{t-1} + u_t$$

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**Q:** Why is this a problem?

**A:** It violates contemporaneous exogeneity, i.e.,  $\mathrm{Cov}(x_t,\,u_t) \neq 0$ .

# Testing for serial/autocorrelation

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  - $\circ$  Test whether  $\hat{ heta}$  is statistically distinguishable from zero in

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- o Implement in R with: dwtest(), bgtest()
- Autocorrelation may arise because your model is misspecified.
   Consider adding additional lags and/or explanatory variables if errors are correlated

# Summary: Time series and OLS

- Our model now has t subscripts for time periods.
- Dynamic models allow lags of explanatory and/or outcome variables.
- We changed our **exogeneity** assumption to **contemporaneous** exogeneity, i.e.,  $E[u_t|X_t]=0$
- Including lags of outcome variables can lead to biased coefficient estimates from OLS (but fortunately they are still consistent)
- Lagged explanatory variables make OLS inefficient (i.e., mess up our standard errors)
- Autocorrelation in the error + lagged dependent variables make OLS biased. Watch out! Test for serial/autocorrelation, check for misspecification of your model.

Slides created via the R package **xaringan**.

Some slide components were borrowed from Ed Rubin and Allison Horst.