



Time Series Analysis and Forecasting

Chapter 2: ARMA Models



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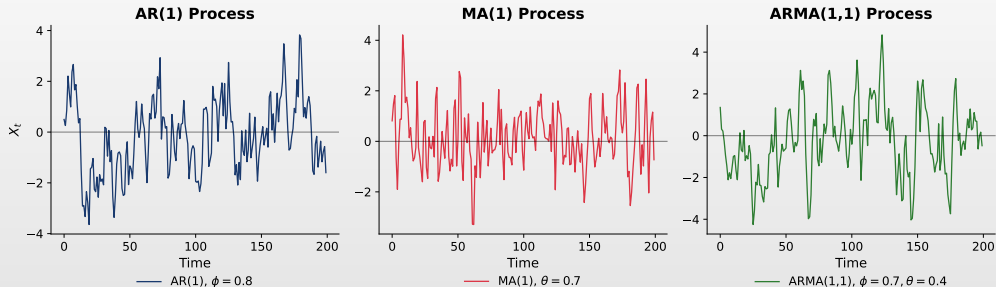
MSCA Digital Finance

Outline

- Motivation
- Introduction and Lag Operator
- Autoregressive (AR) Models
- Moving Average (MA) Models
- ARMA Models
- Model Identification
- Parameter Estimation
- Model Diagnostics
- Forecasting with ARMA
- Case Study: Real Data
- Summary

Motivating Example: Stationary Processes

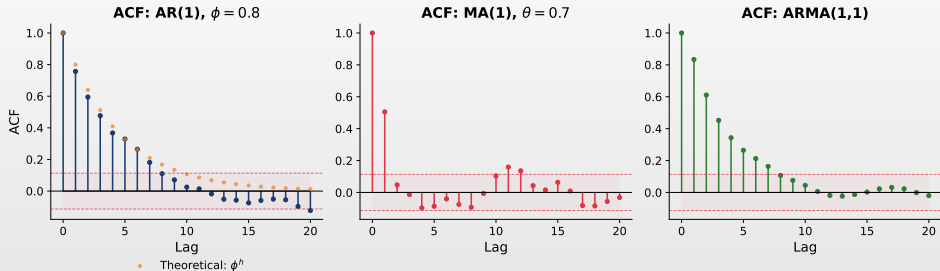
Stationary processes: AR, MA and ARMA



- **AR processes:** Current value depends on past values — mean-reverting behavior
- **MA processes:** Current value depends on past shocks — short memory
- **ARMA:** Combines both mechanisms for flexible modeling

Model Identification via ACF Patterns

Distinct ACF patterns for different models



The ACF Reveals Model Structure

- Different ARMA models produce distinct ACF patterns
- We can identify the model by examining the data!

Recap: Stationarity

From Chapter 1: A process $\{X_t\}$ is **weakly stationary** if:

1. $\mathbb{E}[X_t] = \mu$ (constant mean)
2. $\text{Var}(X_t) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ (constant, finite variance)
3. $\text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t+h}) = \gamma(h)$ (covariance depends only on lag h)

Why stationarity matters for ARMA:

- ▣ ARMA models assume the underlying process is stationary
- ▣ Non-stationary data must be differenced first (ARIMA)
- ▣ Stationarity ensures stable model parameters

Today: We build models for stationary time series using past values and past errors.

The Lag Operator (Backshift Operator)

Definition 1 (Lag Operator)

The **lag operator** L (or backshift operator B) shifts a time series back by one period:

$$LX_t = X_{t-1}$$

Properties:

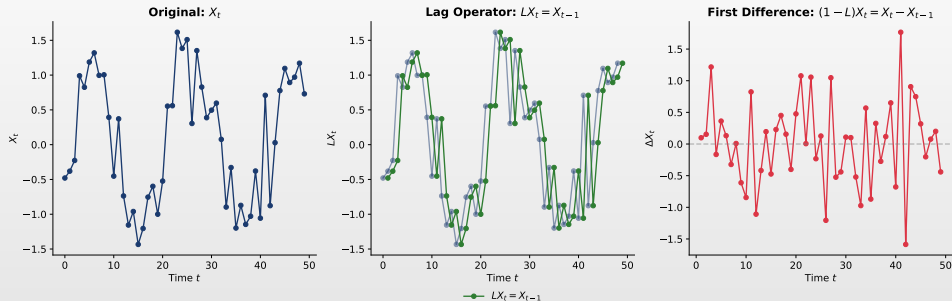
- $L^k X_t = X_{t-k}$ (shift back k periods)
- $L^0 X_t = X_t$ (identity)
- $(1 - L)X_t = X_t - X_{t-1} = \Delta X_t$ (first difference)
- $(1 - L)^d X_t = \Delta^d X_t$ (d -th difference)

Lag Polynomials:

$$\phi(L) = 1 - \phi_1 L - \phi_2 L^2 - \dots - \phi_p L^p$$

$$\theta(L) = 1 + \theta_1 L + \theta_2 L^2 + \dots + \theta_q L^q$$

Lag Operator: Visual Illustration



Key Insight

- L shifts observations back: $LX_t = X_{t-1}$; simplifies ARMA expressions

White Noise Process

Definition 2 (White Noise)

A process $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ is **white noise**, denoted $\varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$, if:

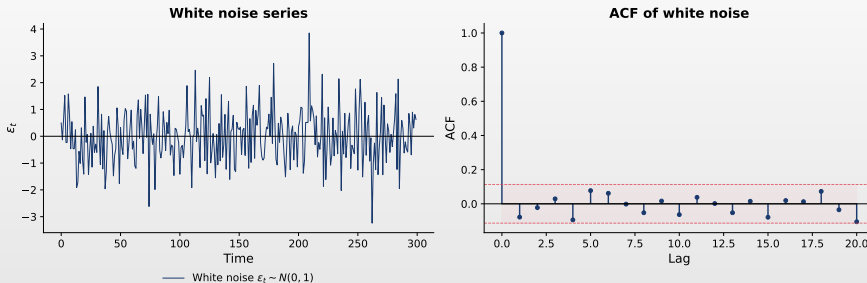
1. $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t] = 0$ for all t
2. $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma^2$ for all t
3. $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_s) = 0$ for all $t \neq s$

Properties:

- White noise is the “building block” of ARMA models
- ACF: $\rho(0) = 1$, $\rho(h) = 0$ for $h \neq 0$
- PACF: same pattern
- **Gaussian white noise:** additionally $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Note: White noise is *not* predictable — it's pure randomness.

White Noise: Visual Illustration



Key Characteristics

- **Left:** Series fluctuates randomly around mean zero with no patterns
- **Right:** ACF shows only spike at lag 0; all others within confidence bounds

AR(1) Model: Definition

Definition 3 (AR(1) Process)

An autoregressive process of order 1 is:

$$X_t = c + \phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

where $\varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$ and $|\phi| < 1$ for stationarity.

Interpretation:

- c : constant (intercept)
- ϕ : autoregressive coefficient — measures persistence
- ε_t : innovation (unpredictable shock)

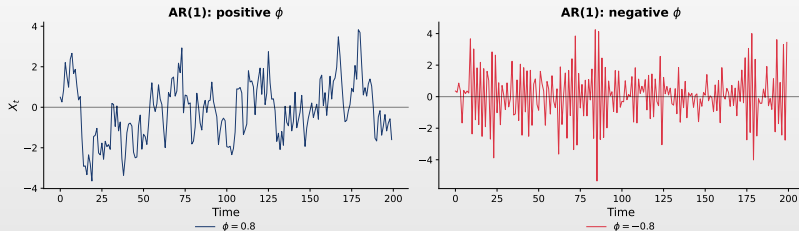
Using lag operator:

$$(1 - \phi L)X_t = c + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\phi(L)X_t = c + \varepsilon_t \quad \text{where } \phi(L) = 1 - \phi L$$

AR(1): Visual Illustration

AR(1): different behavior for positive vs negative ϕ



- Positive ϕ : Persistent, smooth fluctuations; gradual mean reversion
- Negative ϕ : Oscillating behavior; rapid sign changes
- Higher $|\phi| \Rightarrow$ slower mean reversion, more persistence

AR(1) Stationarity Condition

For AR(1) to be stationary: $|\phi| < 1$

Intuition:

- ▣ If $|\phi| < 1$: shocks decay over time \rightarrow stationary
- ▣ If $|\phi| = 1$: random walk \rightarrow non-stationary (unit root)
- ▣ If $|\phi| > 1$: explosive process \rightarrow non-stationary

Characteristic equation:

$$\phi(z) = 1 - \phi z = 0 \implies z = \frac{1}{\phi}$$

Stationarity requires the root $z = 1/\phi$ to lie **outside the unit circle**, i.e., $|z| > 1$, which means $|\phi| < 1$.

AR(1) Properties

For a stationary AR(1) with $|\phi| < 1$:

Mean:

$$\mu = \mathbb{E}[X_t] = \frac{c}{1 - \phi}$$

Variance:

$$\gamma(0) = \text{Var}(X_t) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \phi^2}$$

Autocovariance:

$$\gamma(h) = \phi^h \gamma(0) = \frac{\phi^h \sigma^2}{1 - \phi^2}$$

Autocorrelation (ACF):

$$\rho(h) = \phi^h$$

Key insight: ACF decays exponentially at rate ϕ

Proof: AR(1) Mean

Claim: For AR(1): $X_t = c + \phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$, the mean is $\mu = \frac{c}{1-\phi}$

Proof: Take expectations of both sides:

$$\mathbb{E}[X_t] = \mathbb{E}[c + \phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t] = c + \phi \mathbb{E}[X_{t-1}] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t]$$

By stationarity, $\mathbb{E}[X_t] = \mathbb{E}[X_{t-1}] = \mu$, and $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t] = 0$:

$$\mu = c + \phi \mu$$

Solving for μ :

$$\mu - \phi \mu = c \implies \mu(1 - \phi) = c \implies \boxed{\mu = \frac{c}{1 - \phi}}$$

Requirement

This requires $\phi \neq 1$. If $\phi = 1$ (unit root), the mean is undefined.

Proof: AR(1) Variance

Claim: $\text{Var}(X_t) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\phi^2}$

Proof: Without loss of generality, assume $c = 0$ (centered process):

$$\text{Var}(X_t) = \text{Var}(\phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t) = \phi^2 \text{Var}(X_{t-1}) + \text{Var}(\varepsilon_t) + 2\phi \text{Cov}(X_{t-1}, \varepsilon_t)$$

Since ε_t is independent of X_{t-1} , $\text{Cov}(X_{t-1}, \varepsilon_t) = 0$:

$$\gamma(0) = \phi^2 \gamma(0) + \sigma^2$$

By stationarity, $\text{Var}(X_t) = \text{Var}(X_{t-1}) = \gamma(0)$:

$$\gamma(0) - \phi^2 \gamma(0) = \sigma^2 \implies \gamma(0)(1 - \phi^2) = \sigma^2 \implies \boxed{\gamma(0) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \phi^2}}$$

Note

- ▣ Requires $|\phi| < 1$ for positive variance
- ▣ As $|\phi| \rightarrow 1$, variance $\rightarrow \infty$

Proof: AR(1) Autocorrelation Function

Claim: $\rho(h) = \phi^h$ for $h \geq 0$

Proof: First, find autocovariance $\gamma(h) = \text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t-h})$.

Multiply $X_t = \phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ by X_{t-h} and take expectations:

$$\mathbb{E}[X_t X_{t-h}] = \phi \mathbb{E}[X_{t-1} X_{t-h}] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t X_{t-h}]$$

For $h \geq 1$: $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t X_{t-h}] = 0$ (future shock uncorrelated with past values)

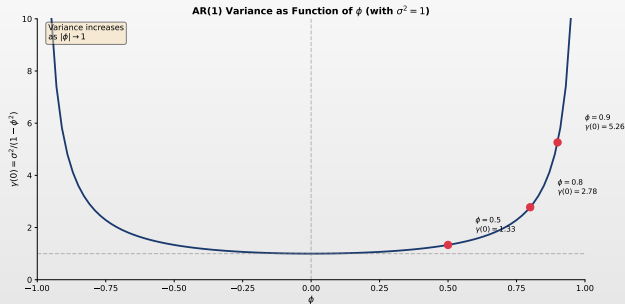
$$\gamma(h) = \phi \gamma(h-1)$$

This is a recursive relation! Starting from $\gamma(0)$:

$$\gamma(1) = \phi \gamma(0), \quad \gamma(2) = \phi \gamma(1) = \phi^2 \gamma(0), \quad \dots \quad \boxed{\gamma(h) = \phi^h \gamma(0)}$$

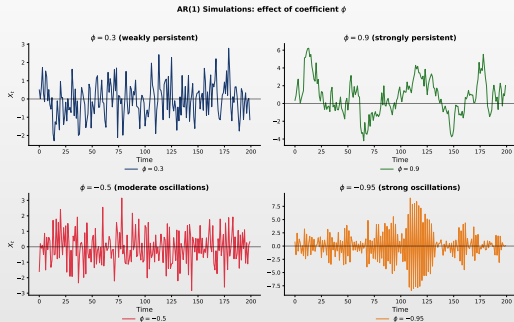
The ACF is:

$$\rho(h) = \frac{\gamma(h)}{\gamma(0)} = \frac{\phi^h \gamma(0)}{\gamma(0)} = \boxed{\phi^h}$$

AR(1) Variance as Function of ϕ 

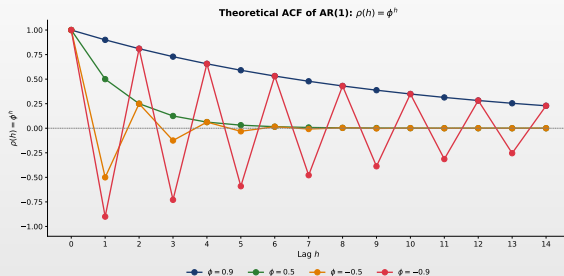
Critical Insight

- As $|\phi| \rightarrow 1$, variance $\sigma^2 / (1 - \phi^2) \rightarrow \infty$
- Unit root processes ($\phi = 1$) are non-stationary: unbounded variance

AR(1) Simulations: Effect of ϕ 

- Different ϕ values produce distinct behavior: higher $|\phi|$ means more persistence
- Positive ϕ creates smooth, trending patterns; negative ϕ creates oscillations
- As $|\phi| \rightarrow 1$, the process becomes more persistent and approaches non-stationarity

AR(1) Theoretical ACF

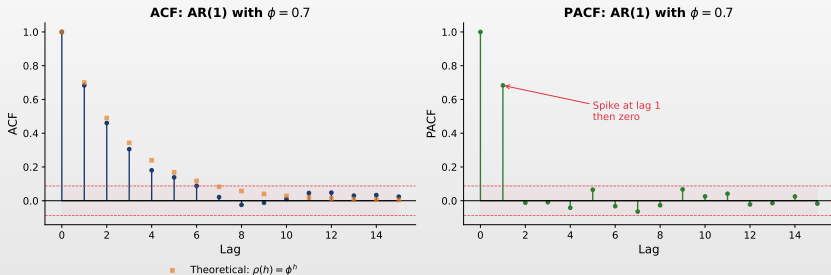


ACF Pattern

- For AR(1): $\rho(h) = \phi^h$
- Positive ϕ : smooth decay; negative ϕ : alternating decay

AR(1) ACF and PACF: Theory vs Sample

ACF and PACF for AR(1): theory vs sample



- ACF: Exponential decay at rate ϕ – theoretical formula: $\rho(h) = \phi^h$
- PACF: Single spike at lag 1, then cuts off – this identifies AR(1)
- Sample estimates (bars) fluctuate around theoretical values; use confidence bands

AR(1) ACF and PACF Patterns

ACF of AR(1):

- Decays exponentially: $\rho(h) = \phi^h$
- If $\phi > 0$: all positive, gradual decay
- If $\phi < 0$: alternating signs, decay in magnitude

PACF of AR(1):

- Cuts off after lag 1
- $\pi_1 = \phi$, $\pi_k = 0$ for $k > 1$

	ACF	PACF
AR(1)	Exponential decay	Cuts off at lag 1

This is the key identification pattern for AR(1)!

AR(p) Model: General Form

Definition 4 (AR(p) Process)

An autoregressive process of order p is:

$$X_t = c + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \phi_2 X_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$$

Using lag operator:

$$\phi(L)X_t = c + \varepsilon_t$$

where $\phi(L) = 1 - \phi_1 L - \phi_2 L^2 - \cdots - \phi_p L^p$

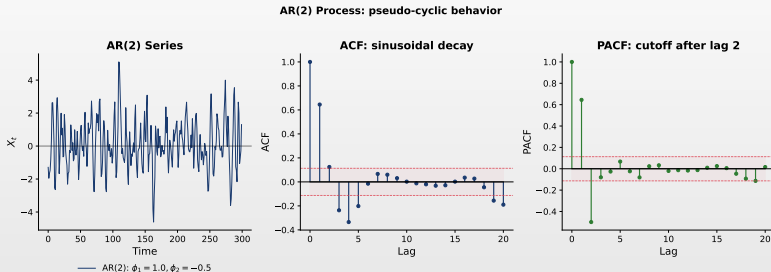
Stationarity condition:

- All roots of $\phi(z) = 0$ must lie **outside** the unit circle
- Equivalently: all roots have modulus > 1

PACF pattern:

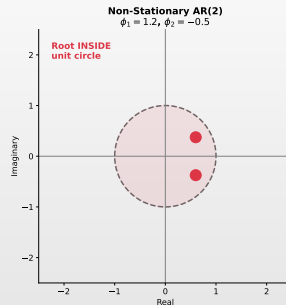
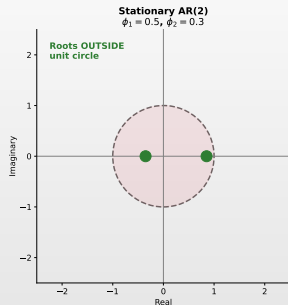
- PACF cuts off after lag p
- ACF decays (exponentially or with damped oscillations)

AR(p): Visual Illustration



- **AR(2) with real roots:** Mixture of two exponential decays in ACF
- **AR(2) with complex roots:** Pseudo-cyclic behavior
 - ▶ Damped sinusoidal ACF pattern
 - ▶ Period related to argument of complex roots
- **Key identification:** PACF cuts off after lag p (here, lag 2)
- Higher-order AR models can capture richer dynamics

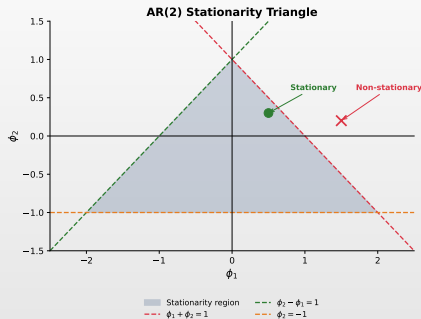
AR(2) Stationarity: Unit Circle Visualization



Stationarity Condition

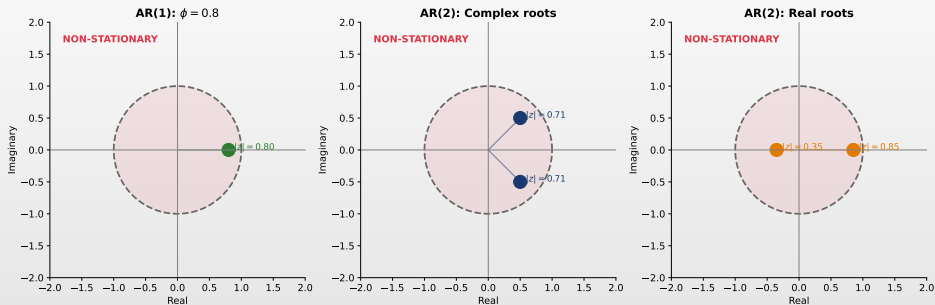
- All roots of $\phi(z) = 1 - \phi_1 z - \phi_2 z^2 = 0$ must lie **outside** the unit circle
- Equivalently, all roots must have modulus > 1

AR(2) Stationarity Triangle



- The triangular region defines all stationary AR(2) parameter combinations
- Boundaries: $\phi_1 + \phi_2 < 1$, $\phi_2 - \phi_1 < 1$, and $|\phi_2| < 1$
- Points outside this region lead to non-stationary or explosive processes

Characteristic Polynomial Roots



Interpretation

- Complex conjugate roots produce oscillatory ACF behavior
- Closer to unit circle \Rightarrow more persistent oscillations; real roots \Rightarrow monotonic decay

AR(2) Model

Definition 5 (AR(2) Process)

$$X_t = c + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \phi_2 X_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$$

Stationarity conditions for AR(2):

1. $\phi_1 + \phi_2 < 1$
2. $\phi_2 - \phi_1 < 1$
3. $|\phi_2| < 1$

ACF behavior depends on roots:

- **Real roots:** mixture of two exponential decays
- **Complex roots:** damped sinusoidal pattern (pseudo-cycles)

PACF: Cuts off after lag 2 ($\pi_k = 0$ for $k > 2$)

Quiz: AR Stationarity

Question

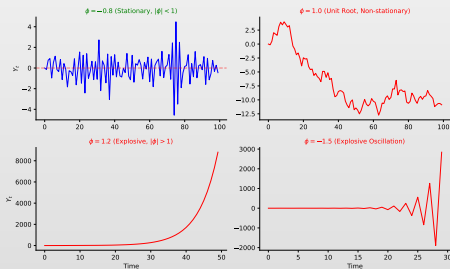
For which value of ϕ is the AR(1) process $X_t = c + \phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ stationary?

- (A) $\phi = 1.2$
- (B) $\phi = 1.0$
- (C) $\phi = -0.8$
- (D) $\phi = -1.5$

Quiz: AR Stationarity – Answer

Correct Answer: (C) $\phi = -0.8$

- AR(1) stationary iff $|\phi| < 1$; only $|-0.8| = 0.8 < 1$



MA(1) Model: Definition

Definition 6 (MA(1) Process)

A moving average process of order 1 is:

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

where $\varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$.

Interpretation:

- μ : mean of the process
- θ : MA coefficient — measures impact of past shock
- Current value depends on current and one past shock

Using lag operator:

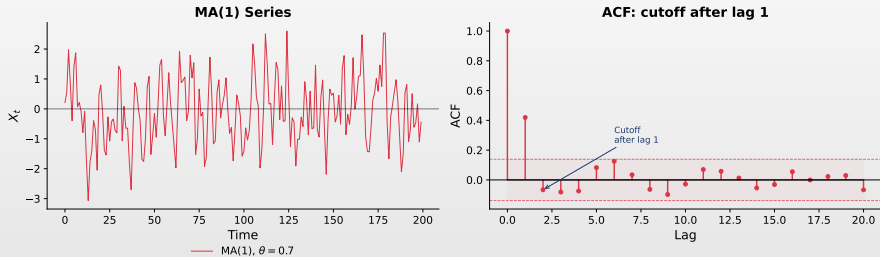
$$X_t = \mu + \theta(L)\varepsilon_t$$

where $\theta(L) = 1 + \theta L$

Key property: MA processes are **always stationary** for any finite θ

MA(1): Visual Illustration

MA(1): short memory series with ACF cutoff



- Left panel: MA(1) series — less persistent than AR(1), rapid mean reversion
- Right panel: ACF shows characteristic **cutoff after lag 1**
 - Only $\rho(1) \neq 0$; all higher lags are zero
 - This sharp cutoff is the key identifier for MA models
- PACF decays exponentially (opposite pattern to AR)

MA(1) Properties

For MA(1): $X_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}$

Mean:

$$\mathbb{E}[X_t] = \mu$$

Variance:

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

Autocovariance:

$$\gamma(1) = \theta\sigma^2, \quad \gamma(h) = 0 \text{ for } h > 1$$

Autocorrelation (ACF):

$$\rho(1) = \frac{\theta}{1 + \theta^2}, \quad \rho(h) = 0 \text{ for } h > 1$$

Key insight: ACF cuts off after lag 1

Proof: MA(1) Variance and Autocovariance

Setup: $X_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}$ (assuming $\mu = 0$)

Variance:

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(0) &= \text{Var}(X_t) = \text{Var}(\varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= \text{Var}(\varepsilon_t) + \theta^2\text{Var}(\varepsilon_{t-1}) + 2\theta\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-1}) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \theta^2\sigma^2 + 0 = \boxed{\sigma^2(1 + \theta^2)}\end{aligned}$$

Autocovariance at lag 1:

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(1) &= \text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t-1}) = \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta\varepsilon_{t-2}) \\ &= \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-1}) + \theta\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-2}) + \theta\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t-1}) + \theta^2\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t-2}) \\ &= 0 + 0 + \theta\sigma^2 + 0 = \boxed{\theta\sigma^2}\end{aligned}$$

Autocovariance at lag $h \geq 2$: No overlapping ε terms $\Rightarrow \gamma(h) = 0$

Proof: MA(1) ACF Maximum

Claim: $|\rho(1)| \leq 0.5$ for any value of θ

Proof: The ACF at lag 1 is:

$$\rho(1) = \frac{\gamma(1)}{\gamma(0)} = \frac{\theta\sigma^2}{\sigma^2(1+\theta^2)} = \frac{\theta}{1+\theta^2}$$

To find the maximum, take derivative w.r.t. θ and set to zero:

$$\frac{d\rho(1)}{d\theta} = \frac{(1+\theta^2) - \theta(2\theta)}{(1+\theta^2)^2} = \frac{1-\theta^2}{(1+\theta^2)^2} = 0$$

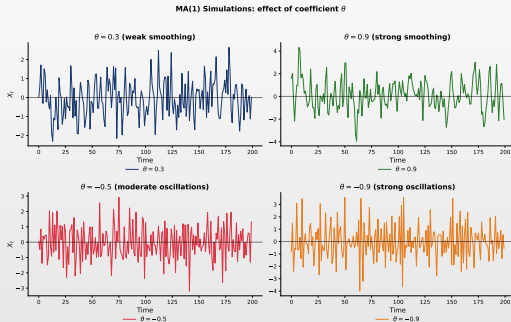
Solution: $\theta = \pm 1$. At these values:

$$\rho(1)|_{\theta=1} = \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \rho(1)|_{\theta=-1} = \frac{-1}{1+1} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

Implication

- If you estimate $|\hat{\rho}(1)| > 0.5$ from data, the process is **not** MA(1)

MA(1) Simulations: Effect of θ



- MA(1) is always stationary regardless of θ – finite memory of only one lag
- Positive θ smooths the series; negative θ creates more rapid fluctuations
- Unlike AR(1), MA(1) shocks only affect the process for one period

MA(1) ACF and PACF Patterns

ACF of MA(1):

- Cuts off after lag 1
- $\rho(1) = \frac{\theta}{1+\theta^2}$, $\rho(h) = 0$ for $h > 1$
- Note: $|\rho(1)| \leq 0.5$ always (maximum at $\theta = \pm 1$)

PACF of MA(1):

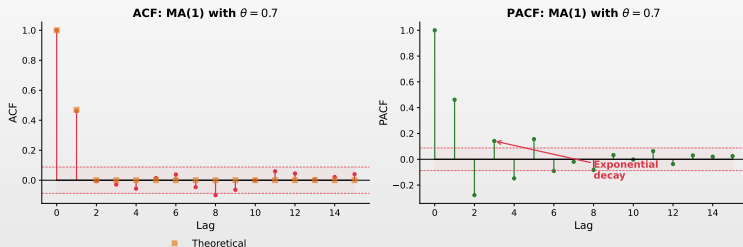
- Decays exponentially (or with alternating signs)
- Does *not* cut off

	ACF	PACF
MA(1)	Cuts off at lag 1	Exponential decay

This is the opposite pattern from AR(1)!

MA(1) ACF and PACF: Visual Comparison

ACF and PACF for MA(1): opposite pattern to AR(1)



Key Identification Pattern

- **ACF**: Single spike at lag 1, then cuts off — the MA(1) signature
- **PACF**: Exponential decay — opposite of AR(1)
- This ACF/PACF reversal distinguishes MA from AR

Invertibility of MA Models

Definition 7 (Invertibility)

An MA process is **invertible** if it can be written as an infinite AR process:

$$X_t = \mu + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \pi_j (X_{t-j} - \mu) + \varepsilon_t$$

For MA(1): Invertible if $|\theta| < 1$

For MA(q): All roots of $\theta(z) = 0$ must lie outside the unit circle

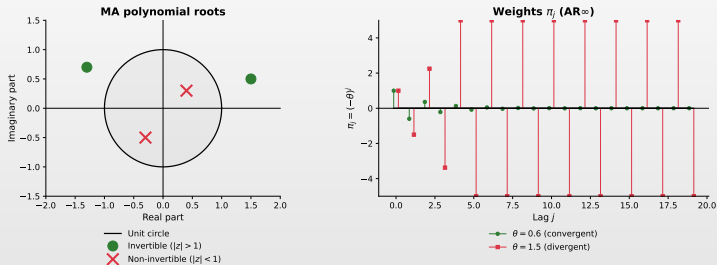
Why invertibility matters:

- ▣ Ensures unique representation
- ▣ Required for forecasting and estimation
- ▣ Creates correspondence: $\text{AR}(\infty) \leftrightarrow \text{MA}(q)$

Note: Stationarity is for AR, Invertibility is for MA

Invertibility: Visual Illustration

Invertibility of MA models



- **Left:** Roots of $\theta(z) = 0$ must lie outside unit circle (for MA(1): $|\theta| < 1$)
- **Right:** Invertible weights $\pi_j = (-\theta)^j$ decay; non-invertible explode
- **Importance:** Ensures unique model representation and valid forecasts

MA(q) Model: General Form

Definition 8 (MA(q) Process)

A moving average process of order q is:

$$X_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$$

Using lag operator:

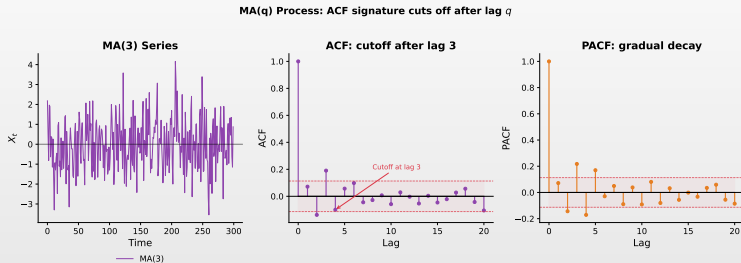
$$X_t = \mu + \theta(L)\varepsilon_t$$

where $\theta(L) = 1 + \theta_1 L + \theta_2 L^2 + \cdots + \theta_q L^q$

Properties:

- Always stationary (finite variance)
- ACF cuts off after lag q : $\rho(h) = 0$ for $h > q$
- PACF decays gradually
- Invertible if all roots of $\theta(z) = 0$ lie outside unit circle

MA(q): Visual Illustration



- **MA(3) example:** Process depends on current and 3 past shocks
- **ACF signature:** Cuts off sharply after lag q (here, lag 3)
 - ▶ Non-zero correlations only at lags 1, 2, 3
 - ▶ All higher lags are exactly zero (within sampling error)
- **PACF:** Gradual exponential/oscillating decay
- Sharp ACF cutoff is the key identifier for pure MA processes

Quiz: ACF/PACF Pattern Recognition

Question

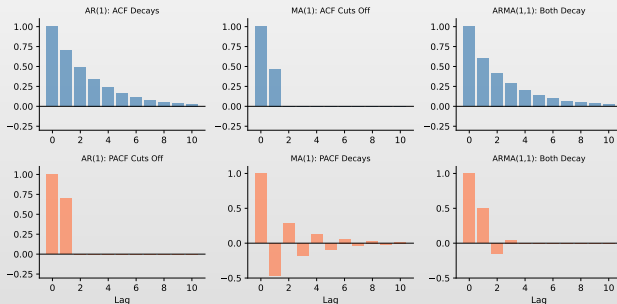
You observe: ACF has spike at lag 1, then cuts off. PACF decays gradually. What model?

- (A) AR(1)
- (B) MA(1)
- (C) ARMA(1,1)
- (D) White noise

Quiz: ACF/PACF Pattern Recognition – Answer

Correct Answer: (B) MA(1)

ACF cuts off \rightarrow MA process; PACF decays \rightarrow confirms MA(1)



Quiz: MA Invertibility

Question

Is MA(1) $X_t = \varepsilon_t + 1.5\varepsilon_{t-1}$ invertible?

- (A) Yes, MA processes are always invertible
- (B) Yes, because $1.5 > 0$
- (C) No, because $|\theta| = 1.5 > 1$
- (D) No, MA processes are never invertible

Quiz: MA Invertibility

Question

Is MA(1) $X_t = \varepsilon_t + 1.5\varepsilon_{t-1}$ invertible?

- (A) Yes, MA processes are always invertible
- (B) Yes, because $1.5 > 0$
- (C) No, because $|\theta| = 1.5 > 1$
- (D) No, MA processes are never invertible

Answer: (C)

Invertibility requires $|\theta| < 1$. Here $|\theta| = 1.5 > 1$, so not invertible.

ARMA(p,q) Model: Definition

Definition 9 (ARMA(p,q) Process)

An **autoregressive moving average process** of order (p,q) is:

$$X_t = c + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \cdots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$$

Compact form using lag operators:

$$\phi(L)(X_t - \mu) = \theta(L)\varepsilon_t$$

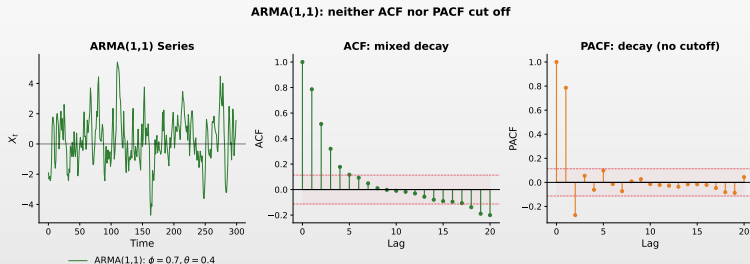
or equivalently:

$$\phi(L)X_t = c + \theta(L)\varepsilon_t$$

where $\mu = \frac{c}{1 - \phi_1 - \cdots - \phi_p}$

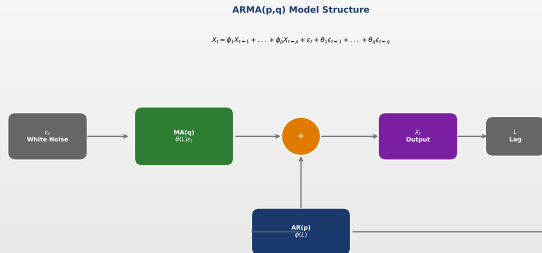
Key idea: Combines AR and MA components for more flexible modeling

ARMA: Visual Illustration



- **ARMA(1,1) combines** AR persistence with MA shock response
- **ACF pattern:** Decays after initial lag (not sharp cutoff like pure MA)
 - ▶ First lag influenced by both ϕ and θ
 - ▶ Subsequent lags decay geometrically like AR
- **PACF pattern:** Also decays (no sharp cutoff like pure AR)
- Neither ACF nor PACF cuts off — key identifier for mixed models

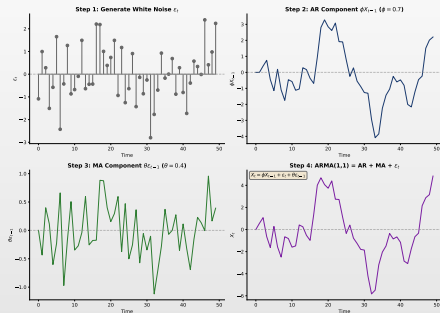
ARMA Model Structure



Model Components

- ARMA combines AR (past values) and MA (past shocks) components
- AR captures persistence; MA captures short-term shock effects

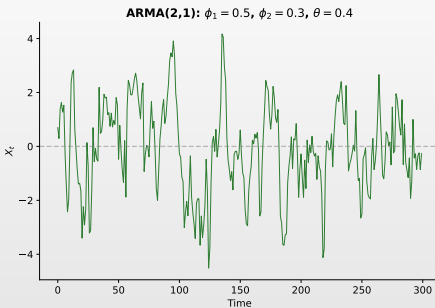
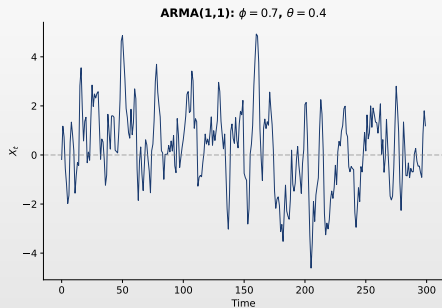
How ARMA Simulation Works



Simulation Algorithm

- Generate white noise ε_t , apply MA filter, then AR recursion

ARMA Examples



Key Observation

- Different ARMA specifications produce visually similar series but distinct ACF/PACF
- Model identification requires examining autocorrelation structure

ARMA(1,1) Model

Definition 10 (ARMA(1,1) Process)

$$X_t = c + \phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

Properties (assuming stationarity and invertibility):

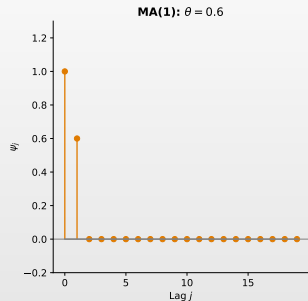
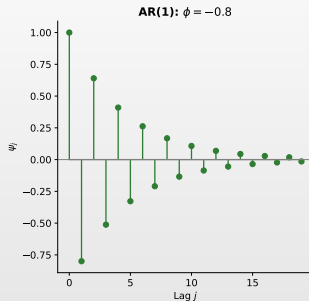
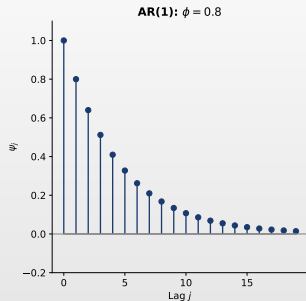
- Mean: $\mu = \frac{c}{1-\phi}$
- Variance: $\gamma(0) = \frac{(1+2\phi\theta+\theta^2)\sigma^2}{1-\phi^2}$

ACF:

$$\rho(1) = \frac{(1 + \phi\theta)(\phi + \theta)}{1 + 2\phi\theta + \theta^2}$$
$$\rho(h) = \phi \cdot \rho(h-1) \quad \text{for } h \geq 2$$

Pattern: ACF decays exponentially after lag 1 (like AR), but starting point depends on both ϕ and θ

Impulse Response Functions



Interpretation

- IRF shows how a unit shock $\varepsilon_t = 1$ propagates over time
- For stationary processes, IRF decays to zero as $h \rightarrow \infty$

Stationarity and Invertibility Summary

For ARMA(p,q) to be well-behaved:

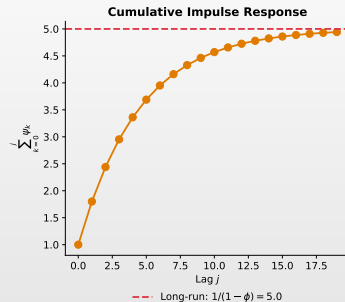
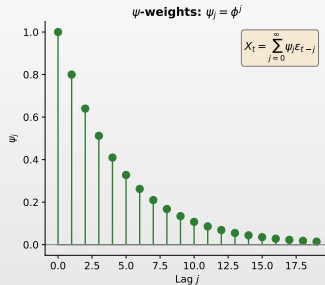
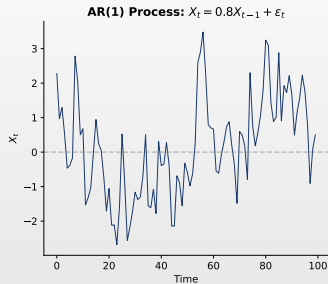
Condition	Requirement
Stationarity	Roots of $\phi(z) = 0$ outside unit circle
Invertibility	Roots of $\theta(z) = 0$ outside unit circle

Implications:

- **Stationarity:** Can write as MA(∞): $X_t = \mu + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \varepsilon_{t-j}$
- **Invertibility:** Can write as AR(∞): $X_t = \mu + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \pi_j (X_{t-j} - \mu) + \varepsilon_t$

Causal representation: X_t depends only on *past* shocks (not future)

Wold's Decomposition Theorem



Fundamental Result

- Any stationary process: $X_t = \mu + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j \varepsilon_{t-j}$ with $\psi_0 = 1$, $\sum \psi_j^2 < \infty$
- ARMA models are parsimonious approximations to this infinite representation

Quiz: ARMA Representation

Question

The compact form $\phi(L)X_t = \theta(L)\varepsilon_t$ represents which model?

- (A) Pure AR model
- (B) Pure MA model
- (C) ARMA model
- (D) None of the above

Quiz: ARMA Representation

Question

The compact form $\phi(L)X_t = \theta(L)\varepsilon_t$ represents which model?

- (A) Pure AR model
- (B) Pure MA model
- (C) ARMA model
- (D) None of the above

Answer: (C) ARMA model

□ $\phi(L)$ is the AR polynomial, $\theta(L)$ is the MA polynomial \rightarrow ARMA(p,q)

Quiz: Lag Operator

Question

What is $(1 - L)^2 X_t$?

- (A) $X_t - X_{t-1}$
- (B) $X_t - 2X_{t-1} + X_{t-2}$
- (C) $X_t + X_{t-1} + X_{t-2}$
- (D) $X_t - X_{t-2}$

Quiz: Lag Operator

Question

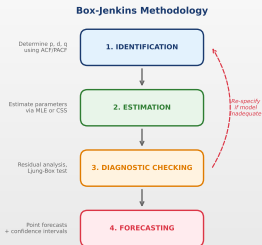
What is $(1 - L)^2 X_t$?

- (A) $X_t - X_{t-1}$
- (B) $X_t - 2X_{t-1} + X_{t-2}$
- (C) $X_t + X_{t-1} + X_{t-2}$
- (D) $X_t - X_{t-2}$

Answer: (B)

- ☐ $(1 - L)^2 = 1 - 2L + L^2$
- ☐ $(1 - L)^2 X_t = X_t - 2X_{t-1} + X_{t-2}$

The Box-Jenkins Methodology



Three-Stage Process

- **Identification**: ACF/PACF \rightarrow orders (p, q) ; **Estimation**: MLE; **Diagnostics**: white noise residuals

Model Identification Summary Table

Model Identification: ACF/PACF Patterns

Model	ACF Pattern	PACF Pattern
AR(p)	Exponential decay or damped oscillation	Cuts off after lag p
MA(q)	Cuts off after lag q	Exponential decay or damped oscillation
ARMA(p,q)	Exponential decay after lag q-p	Exponential decay after lag p-q

Practical tip: Start simple (low p , q), increase if diagnostics fail

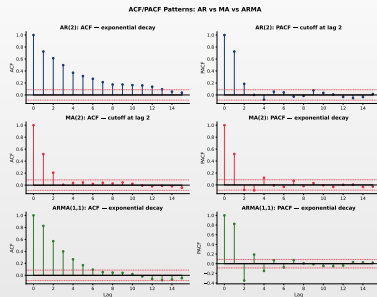


ACF/PACF Identification Rules

Theoretical patterns for stationary processes:

Model	ACF Pattern	PACF Pattern
AR(1)	Exponential decay	Spike at lag 1, then 0
AR(2)	Damped exponential/sine	Spikes at lags 1-2, then 0
AR(p)	Decays gradually	Cuts off after lag p
MA(1)	Spike at lag 1, then 0	Exponential decay
MA(2)	Spikes at lags 1-2, then 0	Damped exponential/sine
MA(q)	Cuts off after lag q	Decays gradually
ARMA(p,q)	Decays	Decays

ACF/PACF Patterns: Visual Guide



Practical Identification

- **AR**: ACF decays, PACF cuts off — use PACF for order p
- **MA**: ACF cuts off, PACF decays — use ACF for order q
- **ARMA**: Both decay — use AIC/BIC

Information Criteria

Purpose: Balance goodness-of-fit against model complexity

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC):

$$AIC = -2 \ln(\hat{L}) + 2k$$

Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC/SBC):

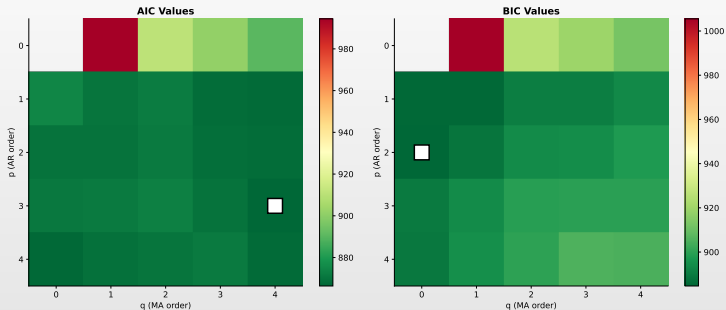
$$BIC = -2 \ln(\hat{L}) + k \ln(n)$$

where \hat{L} = maximized likelihood, k = number of parameters, n = sample size

Usage:

- Lower values are better
- BIC penalizes complexity more strongly than AIC
- AIC tends to choose larger models; BIC more parsimonious
- Compare models fit to the *same data*

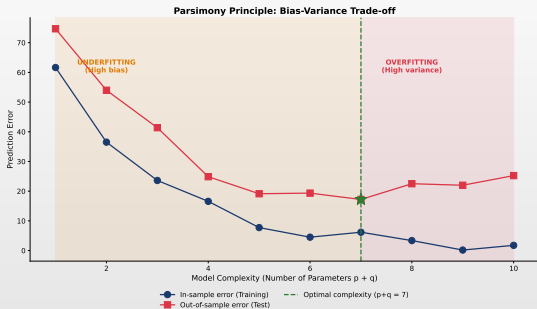
AIC vs BIC: Model Selection



Interpretation

- White square = best model; lower values (green) better; BIC prefers simpler models

Parsimony Principle: Bias-Variance Trade-off



Key Principle

- Simple models underfit (high bias); complex models overfit (high variance)
- Optimal model balances fit and complexity — “as simple as possible, but no simpler”

Automatic Model Selection

Grid search approach:

1. Fit ARMA(p, q) for $p = 0, 1, \dots, p_{max}$ and $q = 0, 1, \dots, q_{max}$
2. Select model with lowest AIC or BIC
3. Verify with diagnostic checks

In Python (statsmodels):

- ▣ `pm.auto_arima()` from `pmdarima` package
- ▣ Automatically tests stationarity, searches over orders
- ▣ Returns best model by AIC/BIC

Caution:

- ▣ Automatic selection is a starting point, not final answer
- ▣ Always check diagnostics
- ▣ Consider domain knowledge

Quiz: Information Criteria

Question

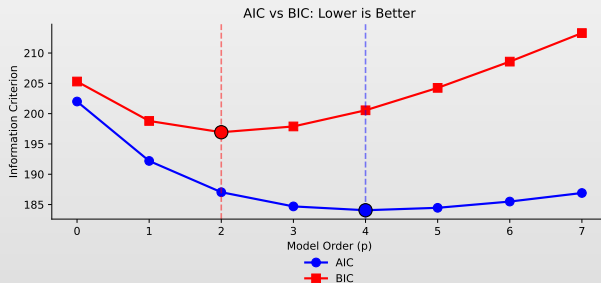
Comparing ARMA(1,1) vs ARMA(2,1) using BIC, which is correct?

- (A) Lower BIC always means better forecasts
- (B) BIC penalizes complexity less than AIC
- (C) The model with lower BIC is preferred
- (D) BIC can only compare models with same # of parameters

Quiz: Information Criteria – Answer

Correct Answer: (C) Lower BIC is preferred

Lower BIC indicates better fit-complexity trade-off. BIC penalizes complexity more than AIC.



Estimation Methods Overview

Three main approaches:

1. Method of Moments / Yule-Walker (AR only)

- ▣ Match sample autocorrelations to theoretical values
- ▣ Simple, closed-form for AR models
- ▣ Not efficient for MA components

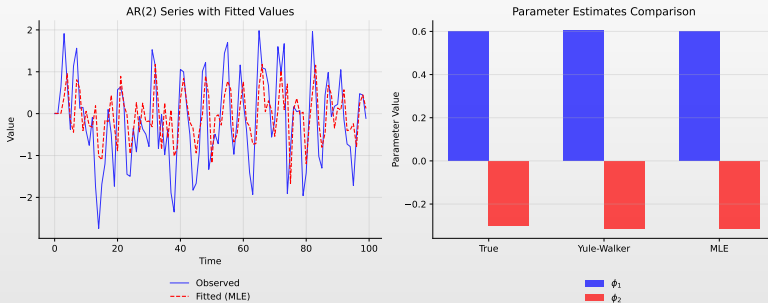
2. Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- ▣ Most common approach
- ▣ Requires distributional assumption (usually Gaussian)
- ▣ Efficient and consistent

3. Conditional Least Squares

- ▣ Minimize sum of squared residuals
- ▣ Conditioning on initial observations
- ▣ Computationally simpler than exact MLE

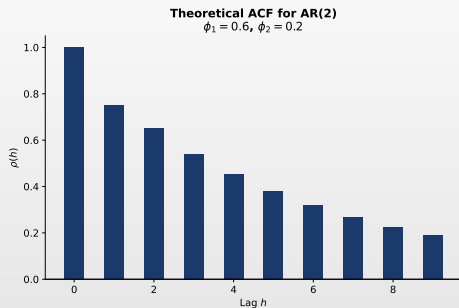
Estimation Methods Comparison



Method Selection

- Yule-Walker: Fast, closed-form for AR; MLE: Most efficient; CSS: Good balance

Yule-Walker Equations for AR(p)



Yule-Walker Equations

$$\rho(1) = \phi_1 + \phi_2 \rho(1)$$

$$\rho(2) = \phi_1 \rho(1) + \phi_2$$

$$\text{Matrix form: } R \cdot \phi = \rho$$

R = autocorrelation matrix

$$\text{Solution: } \hat{\phi} = R^{-1} \rho$$

Key Property

- Exploits relationship between AR parameters and autocorrelations
- Replace $\rho(k)$ with sample $\hat{\rho}(k)$ for estimation

Yule-Walker Equations: Matrix Form

For AR(p): $X_t = \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \cdots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$

Yule-Walker equations:

$$\rho(k) = \phi_1 \rho(k-1) + \phi_2 \rho(k-2) + \cdots + \phi_p \rho(k-p)$$

for $k = 1, 2, \dots, p$

Matrix form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho(0) & \rho(1) & \cdots & \rho(p-1) \\ \rho(1) & \rho(0) & \cdots & \rho(p-2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho(p-1) & \rho(p-2) & \cdots & \rho(0) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \phi_p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho(1) \\ \rho(2) \\ \vdots \\ \rho(p) \end{pmatrix}$$

Estimation: Replace $\rho(k)$ with sample autocorrelations $\hat{\rho}(k)$

Proof: Yule-Walker Equations

Goal: Derive the relationship $\rho(k) = \phi_1\rho(k-1) + \dots + \phi_p\rho(k-p)$

Proof: Start with AR(p): $X_t = \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$

Multiply both sides by X_{t-k} and take expectations:

$$\mathbb{E}[X_t X_{t-k}] = \phi_1 \mathbb{E}[X_{t-1} X_{t-k}] + \dots + \phi_p \mathbb{E}[X_{t-p} X_{t-k}] + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t X_{t-k}]$$

For $k \geq 1$: $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t X_{t-k}] = 0$ (future shock uncorrelated with past)

Using $\gamma(k) = \mathbb{E}[X_t X_{t-k}]$ (assuming zero mean):

$$\gamma(k) = \phi_1 \gamma(k-1) + \phi_2 \gamma(k-2) + \dots + \phi_p \gamma(k-p)$$

Dividing by $\gamma(0)$:

$$\rho(k) = \phi_1 \rho(k-1) + \phi_2 \rho(k-2) + \dots + \phi_p \rho(k-p)$$

AR(1) Special Case

$$\square \quad \rho(k) = \phi_1 \rho(k-1) = \phi_1^k \text{ (using } \rho(0) = 1)$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Assuming Gaussian errors: $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Log-likelihood for ARMA(p,q):

$$\ell(\phi, \theta, \sigma^2) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} \ln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^n \varepsilon_t^2$$

where ε_t are the innovations computed recursively.

Estimation procedure:

1. Initialize: use method of moments or OLS for starting values
2. Optimize: numerical methods (e.g., BFGS, Newton-Raphson)
3. Iterate until convergence

In practice: Use `statsmodels.tsa.arima.model.ARIMA`

Standard Errors and Inference

Asymptotic distribution of MLE:

$$\hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{d} N\left(\theta_0, \frac{1}{n}I(\theta_0)^{-1}\right)$$

where $I(\theta)$ is the Fisher information matrix.

Standard errors: Square root of diagonal of $\frac{1}{n}\hat{I}^{-1}$

Hypothesis testing:

- $H_0 : \phi_j = 0$ (or $\theta_j = 0$)
- Test statistic: $z = \frac{\hat{\phi}_j}{SE(\hat{\phi}_j)} \sim N(0, 1)$ asymptotically
- Reject if $|z| > 1.96$ at 5% level

Confidence interval: $\hat{\phi}_j \pm 1.96 \cdot SE(\hat{\phi}_j)$

Residual Analysis

If model is correctly specified, residuals should be white noise:

1. Plot residuals over time

- Should fluctuate around zero
- No obvious patterns or trends
- Constant variance (no heteroskedasticity)

2. Check ACF of residuals

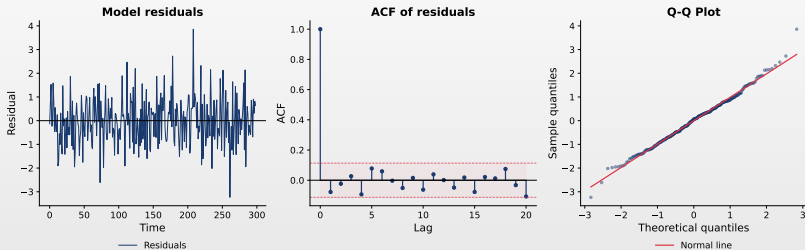
- All correlations should be within confidence bands
- No significant spikes → white noise

3. Check histogram / Q-Q plot

- Should be approximately normal (if assuming Gaussian)
- Heavy tails suggest non-normal errors

Residual Diagnostics: Example

AR(1) Model Diagnostics: white noise residuals



What to Look For

- **Residual plot:** Random scatter around zero, constant variance
- **ACF:** No significant spikes (white noise)
- **Q-Q plot:** Points on diagonal (normality)

Ljung-Box Test

Definition 11 (Ljung-Box Test)

Tests whether residuals are independently distributed (no autocorrelation).

Test statistic:

$$Q(m) = n(n+2) \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\hat{\rho}_k^2}{n-k}$$

Hypotheses:

- ▣ H_0 : Residuals are white noise (no autocorrelation up to lag m)
- ▣ H_1 : Residuals are autocorrelated

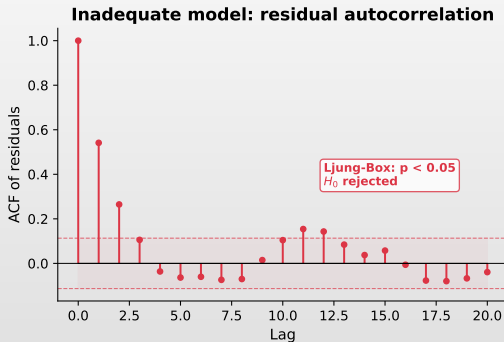
Distribution: Under H_0 , $Q(m) \sim \chi^2(m-p-q)$ approximately

Decision:

- ▣ $p\text{-value} > 0.05 \rightarrow$ fail to reject $H_0 \rightarrow$ residuals look like white noise (good!)
- ▣ $p\text{-value} < 0.05 \rightarrow$ significant autocorrelation remains \rightarrow model inadequate

Ljung-Box Test: Visual Illustration

Ljung-Box Test: good model vs inadequate model



Left: Good model – residuals are white noise (no significant ACF). Right: Poor model – residuals show autocorrelation.

Diagnostic Checklist

A good ARMA model should satisfy:

1. **Stationarity:** AR roots outside unit circle
✓ Check with `arroots`
2. **Invertibility:** MA roots outside unit circle
✓ Check with `maroots`
3. **White noise residuals:** No significant ACF
✓ ACF plot, Ljung-Box test
4. **Normal residuals:** (if assumed)
✓ Q-Q plot, Jarque-Bera test
5. **No heteroskedasticity:** Constant variance
✓ Plot residuals, ARCH test
6. **Parsimonious:** Lowest AIC/BIC among adequate models

If diagnostics fail: Return to identification, try different orders

Quiz: Ljung-Box Test

Question

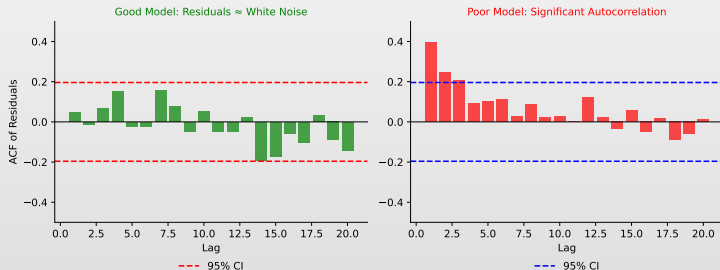
After fitting an ARMA model, you run the Ljung-Box test on residuals and get $p\text{-value} = 0.03$. What does this mean?

- (A) Model is adequate, residuals are white noise
- (B) Model is inadequate, residuals have autocorrelation
- (C) Need to increase sample size
- (D) Test is inconclusive

Quiz: Ljung-Box Test – Answer

Correct Answer: (B) Model is inadequate

- ☐ p-value < 0.05 rejects H_0 (white noise)
- ☐ Indicates remaining autocorrelation in residuals



Point Forecasts

Optimal forecast: Conditional expectation minimizes MSE

$$\hat{X}_{n+h|n} = \mathbb{E}[X_{n+h}|X_n, X_{n-1}, \dots]$$

For AR(1): $X_t = c + \phi X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$

$$\hat{X}_{n+1|n} = c + \phi X_n$$

$$\hat{X}_{n+2|n} = c + \phi \hat{X}_{n+1|n} = c(1 + \phi) + \phi^2 X_n$$

$$\hat{X}_{n+h|n} = \mu + \phi^h (X_n - \mu)$$

Key property: Forecasts converge to mean μ as $h \rightarrow \infty$

For MA(1): $X_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1}$

$$\hat{X}_{n+1|n} = \mu + \theta \varepsilon_n$$

$$\hat{X}_{n+h|n} = \mu \quad \text{for } h > 1$$

Forecast Uncertainty

Forecast error:

$$e_{n+h|n} = X_{n+h} - \hat{X}_{n+h|n}$$

Mean squared forecast error (MSFE):

$$\text{MSFE}(h) = \mathbb{E}[e_{n+h|n}^2] = \sigma^2 \sum_{j=0}^{h-1} \psi_j^2$$

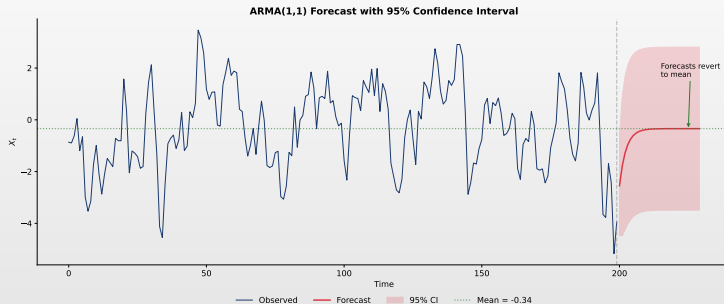
where ψ_j are the $\text{MA}(\infty)$ coefficients.

For AR(1): $\psi_j = \phi^j$

$$\text{MSFE}(h) = \sigma^2 \frac{1 - \phi^{2h}}{1 - \phi^2} \rightarrow \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \phi^2} = \text{Var}(X_t)$$

Key insight: Forecast uncertainty increases with horizon, eventually reaching unconditional variance

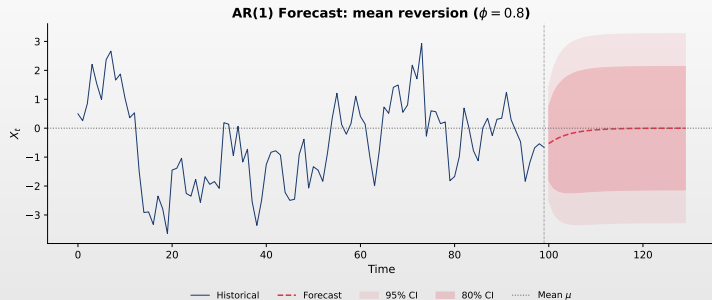
ARMA Forecasting with Confidence Intervals



Forecast Properties

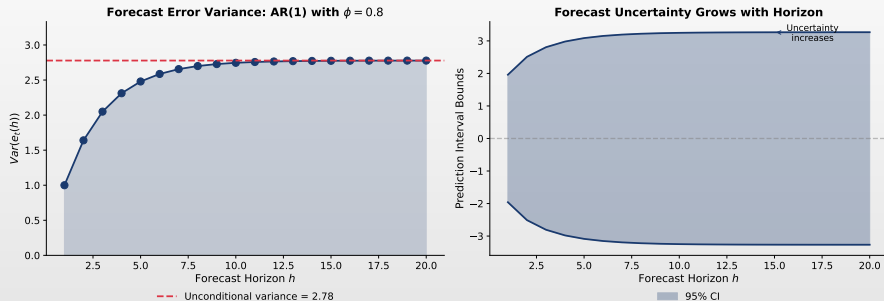
- Forecasts converge to mean; confidence intervals widen with horizon

AR(1) Forecasting: Mean Reversion



- ▣ Forecasts converge to μ as horizon increases; rate depends on $|\phi|$
- ▣ Confidence intervals widen, eventually reaching unconditional variance

Forecast Error Variance Over Horizon



Variance Decomposition

- Forecast error variance grows with h ; converges to $\gamma(0)$ as $h \rightarrow \infty$

Confidence Intervals for Forecasts

Assuming Gaussian errors:

$$X_{n+h}|X_n, \dots \sim N\left(\hat{X}_{n+h|n}, \text{MSFE}(h)\right)$$

$(1 - \alpha)$ confidence interval:

$$\hat{X}_{n+h|n} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sqrt{\text{MSFE}(h)}$$

where $z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$ for 95% CI.

Properties:

- Intervals widen as horizon increases
- Eventually converge to unconditional interval: $\mu \pm z_{\alpha/2}\sigma_X$
- Width depends on model parameters (AR coefficients, etc.)

In Python: `model.get_forecast(h).conf_int()`

Forecast Evaluation

Out-of-sample testing:

1. Split data: training set (fit model) and test set (evaluate)
2. Generate forecasts for test period
3. Compare forecasts to actual values

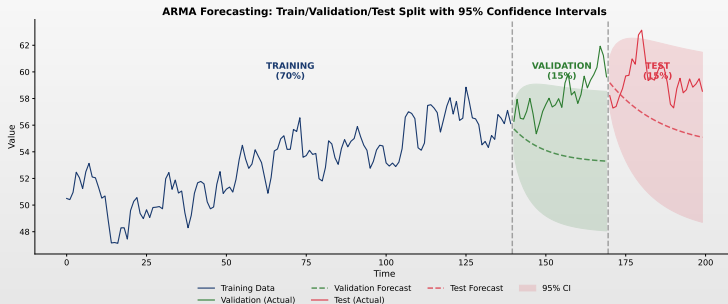
Metrics (from Chapter 1):

- $MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum |e_t|$
- $RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum e_t^2}$
- $MAPE = \frac{100}{n} \sum \left| \frac{e_t}{X_t} \right|$

Rolling/expanding window:

- Re-estimate model as new data arrives
- More realistic assessment of forecast performance

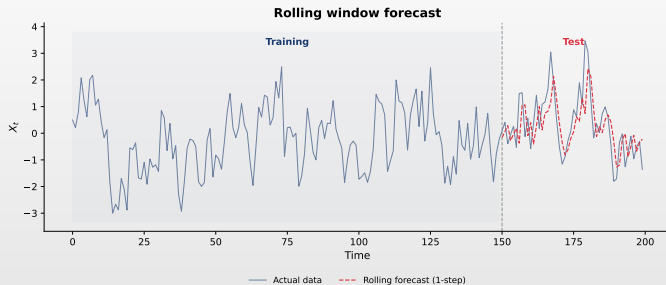
Train/Validation/Test Forecasting Example



Best Practice

- ☐ Evaluate forecasts on held-out data: train for fitting, validation for selection, test for assessment

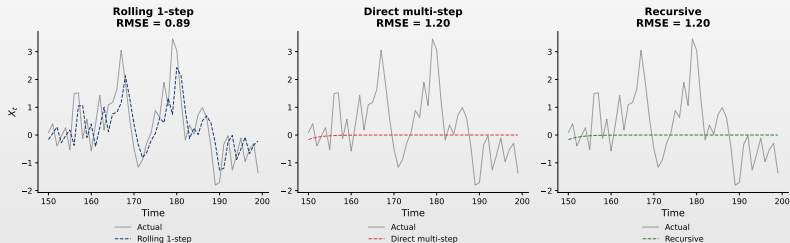
Rolling Window Forecasting



- **Fixed window:** Re-estimate using most recent w observations
- **Expanding window:** Use all data up to forecast origin
- Generate 1-step forecast, move window forward, repeat

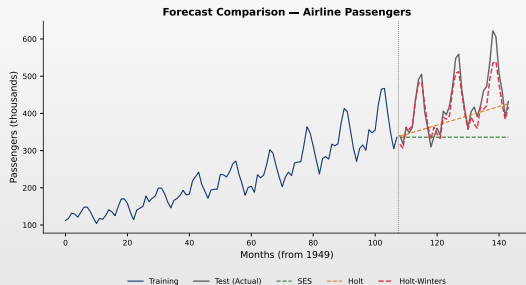
Rolling vs Multi-Step Forecasting

Comparison: Rolling vs Multi-step vs Recursive



- **Rolling 1-step:** More accurate, requires frequent re-estimation
- **Direct multi-step:** Estimate separate model for each horizon h
- **Recursive multi-step:** Iterate 1-step forecasts (error accumulation)

Real Data Application: Forecasting Comparison



- Real data often exhibits non-stationarity, structural breaks
- Compare multiple models: ARMA, exponential smoothing, naive
- Use cross-validation or rolling evaluation for robust assessment

Quiz: Forecast Properties

Question

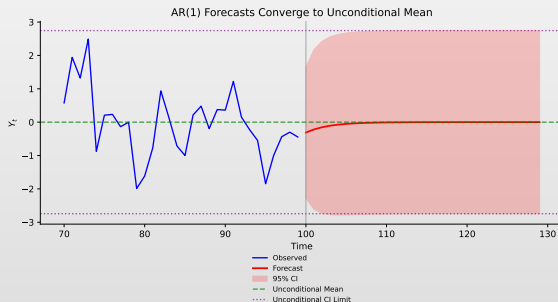
For a stationary AR(1) model, what happens to forecasts as horizon $h \rightarrow \infty$?

- (A) Forecasts grow without bound
- (B) Forecasts oscillate forever
- (C) Forecasts converge to the unconditional mean μ
- (D) Forecasts become more accurate

Quiz: Forecast Properties – Answer

Correct Answer: (C) Forecasts converge to μ

$$\square \hat{X}_{n+h|n} = \mu + \phi^h(X_n - \mu) \rightarrow \mu \text{ as } h \rightarrow \infty \text{ (since } |\phi| < 1)$$



Workflow Summary

1. Data preparation

- ▶ Check for missing values, outliers
- ▶ Transform if necessary (log, differencing)

2. Stationarity check

- ▶ Visual inspection: time plot, ACF
- ▶ Formal tests: ADF, KPSS
- ▶ Difference if non-stationary

3. Model identification

- ▶ ACF/PACF patterns
- ▶ Information criteria grid search

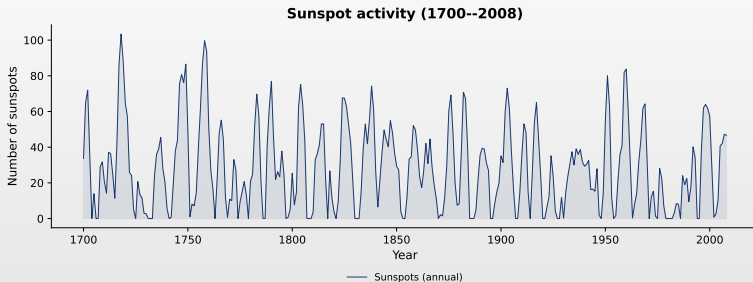
4. Estimation and diagnostics

- ▶ Fit model, check significance
- ▶ Residual analysis, Ljung-Box test

5. Forecasting

- ▶ Point forecasts with confidence intervals
- ▶ Out-of-sample validation

Case Study: Sunspot Numbers

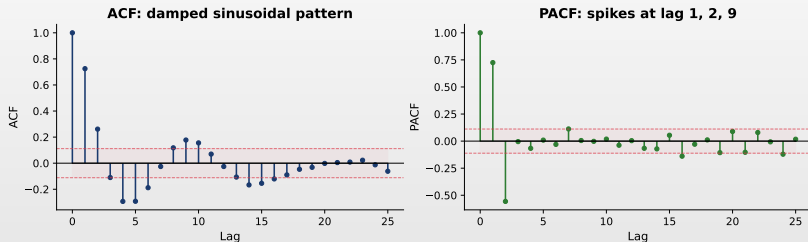


Data Description

- **Yearly sunspot numbers (1700–2008):** Classic dataset, stationary with 11-year cycles
- We will apply the complete Box-Jenkins methodology

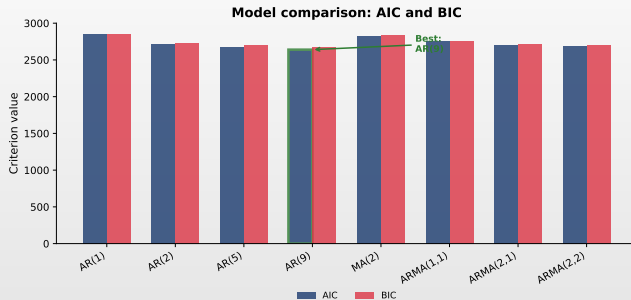
Step 1: ACF/PACF Analysis

ACF/PACF analysis for sunspots



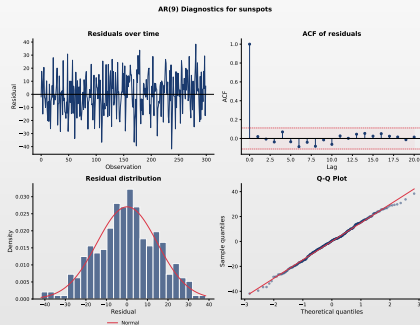
- **ACF:** Slow, sinusoidal decay — suggests AR process
- **PACF:** Significant spikes at lags 1, 2, 9 — suggests AR(9) or AR(2)
- Series appears stationary (no differencing needed, $d = 0$)

Step 2: Model Comparison



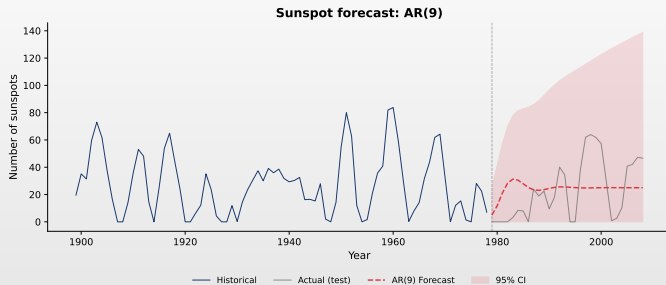
We compare candidate models using AIC. The **AR(9)** model has the lowest AIC, capturing the 11-year solar cycle.

Step 3: Diagnostic Checking



Residuals resemble white noise: zero mean, constant variance, no significant ACF, approximately normal.

Step 4: Forecasting



- AR(9) captures the cyclical nature of sunspots
- 95% CI covers most actual values; RMSE ≈ 30 (reasonable)

Key Takeaways

1. **AR(p)**: Depends on p past values; stationarity requires roots outside unit circle; PACF cuts off at lag p
2. **MA(q)**: Depends on q past shocks; always stationary; ACF cuts off at lag q
3. **ARMA(p,q)**: Combines AR and MA; both ACF and PACF decay
4. **Box-Jenkins**: Identify \rightarrow Estimate \rightarrow Diagnose \rightarrow Forecast
5. **Diagnostics**: Residuals must be white noise
6. **Forecasts**: Converge to mean; uncertainty increases with horizon

Next Chapter Preview

Chapter 3: ARIMA and Seasonal Models

- ▣ ARIMA(p,d,q): Integrated models for non-stationary data
- ▣ Seasonal ARIMA: SARIMA(p,d,q)(P,D,Q)_s
- ▣ Seasonal differencing
- ▣ Real-world applications with seasonal patterns

Reading:

- ▣ Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, *Forecasting: Principles and Practice*, Ch. 9
- ▣ Box, Jenkins, Reinsel & Ljung, *Time Series Analysis*, Ch. 3-4

References



Box, G.E.P., Jenkins, G.M., Reinsel, G.C., & Ljung, G.M. (2015). *Time Series Analysis: Forecasting and Control*. 5th ed., Wiley.



Hamilton, J.D. (1994). *Time Series Analysis*. Princeton University Press.



Hyndman, R.J., & Athanasopoulos, G. (2021). *Forecasting: Principles and Practice*. 3rd ed., OTexts.



Brockwell, P.J., & Davis, R.A. (2016). *Introduction to Time Series and Forecasting*. 3rd ed., Springer.



Shumway, R.H., & Stoffer, D.S. (2017). *Time Series Analysis and Its Applications*. 4th ed., Springer.

Data Sources

Real Data – Case Studies

- ▣ **Sunspot Numbers:** Monthly (1749–2024)
 - ▶ Source: SIDC – Royal Observatory of Belgium
- ▣ **All illustrations:** Reproducible via QuantLet links

Software & Tools

- ▣ **Python:** statsmodels (ARIMA), numpy, matplotlib
 - ▶ Key functions: ARIMA(), acf(), pacf()
- ▣ **R:** forecast, tseries packages
 - ▶ Key functions: auto.arima(), Arima(), adf.test()

Thank You!

Questions?