Lecture 6: Estimation of ARMA Models

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Intro

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- So far, we took parameters as given when working with ARMA models;
- In practice, we need to estimate these parameters from data;
- There many ways to estimate ARMA models: maximum likelihood, method of moments, Kalman filter, etc;
- We will focus on MLE estimation;
- Usually, good software for ARMA estimation gives you several options;
- More than mastering math tricks and details, it is important to understand the big picture;

A Preview

- It is always the MA part that will complicate things;
- \bullet A natural estimator for AR(p) models is just the OLS estimator: regress y_t on $y_{t-1},\dots,y_{t-p};$
- Mild conditions will guarantee consistency, asymptotic normality, bla, blah, blah...
- ullet But for ARMA(p,q) models, we cannot do that! We do not observe $\varepsilon_t!!!$

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- Mild conditions will guarantee consistency, asymptotic normality, bla, blah, blah...
- But for ARMA(p,q) models, we cannot do that! We do not observe $\varepsilon_t!!!$
- MLE will require a distributional assumption for ε_t ;
- We will relax that later when we touch on "quasi-MLE";
- ullet We will start with *given* values of p and q and discuss model choice later;

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- ullet First step: characterize the joint distribution of the sample $\mathbf{y}=(y_1,\dots,y_T)'$;
- Denote this distribution by $f_{y_T,y_{T-1},\dots,y_1}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta})$;

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- Denote this distribution by $f_{y_T,y_{T-1},\dots,y_1}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta});$
- $\bullet \ \ \text{Recall:} \ f_{Y|X}(y,x) = f_{Y,X}(y,x)/f_X(x) \implies f_{Y,X}(y,x) = f_{Y|X}(y,x)f_X(x)$

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- \bullet We will denote by Θ the vector of parameters to be estimated;
- First step: characterize the joint distribution of the sample $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_T)'$;
- Denote this distribution by $f_{y_T,y_{T-1},...,y_1}(\mathbf{y};\boldsymbol{\Theta})$;
- Recall: $f_{Y|X}(y,x) = f_{Y|X}(y,x)/f_X(x) \implies f_{Y|X}(y,x) = f_{Y|X}(y,x)f_X(x)$
- For any integer $k \geq 1$:

$$f_{y_T,y_{T-1},\dots,y_1}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta}) = f_{y_k,\dots,y_1}(y_k,\dots,y_1;\mathbf{\Theta}) \cdot \prod_{t=k+1}^T f_{y_t \mid y_{t-1},\dots,y_1} \big(y_t \mid y_{t-1},\dots,y_1;\mathbf{\Theta} \big)$$



• Consider the AR(p) model below and let $\Theta = (c, \phi_1, \dots, \phi_p, \sigma^2)$:

$$y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \ldots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{i.i.d. } N(0,\sigma^2)$$

• Notice that $y_t|y_{t-1},...,y_{t-p} \sim N(c+\phi_1y_{t-1}+...+\phi_py_{t-p},\sigma^2)$. Therefore:

$$f_{y_t|y_{t-1},\dots,y_1}(y_t|y_{t-1},\dots,y_1;\mathbf{\Theta}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}e^{-\frac{(y_t-c-\phi_1y_{t-1}-\dots-\phi_py_{t-p})^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

• Consider the AR(p) model below and let $\Theta = (c, \phi_1, ..., \phi_n, \sigma^2)$:

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- ullet The likelihood of the first p observations, $f_{y_n,\dots,y_1}(y_p,\dots,y_1;oldsymbol{\Theta})$, is more involved;
- Notice that the $p \times 1$ vector $\mathbf{y}_{1:p} = (y_1, \dots, y_p)'$ is multivariate normal;

$$\mathbf{y}_{1:p} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Omega}), \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{c}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi_i} \mathbf{1}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{ij} = \gamma(|i-j|) \quad \forall i, j \in \{1, \dots, p\}$$

• The likelihood of the first p observations is given by:

$$f_{y_p,\dots,y_1}(y_p,\dots,y_1;\mathbf{\Theta}) = (2\pi)^{-p/2} |\mathbf{\Omega}^{-1}|^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}_{1:p}-\boldsymbol{\mu})'\mathbf{\Omega}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_{1:p}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}$$

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• From here, we can write the full likelihood function:

$$\begin{split} f_{y_T,\dots,y_1}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta}) &= f_{y_k,\dots,y_1}(y_k,\dots,y_1;\mathbf{\Theta}) \cdot \prod_{t=k+1}^T f_{y_t \mid y_{t-1},\dots,y_1} \big(y_t \mid y_{t-1},\dots,y_1;\mathbf{\Theta} \big) \\ &= (2\pi)^{-p/2} |\mathbf{\Omega}^{-1}|^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y}_{1:p} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \mathbf{\Omega}^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_{1:p} - \boldsymbol{\mu})} \cdot \prod_{t=p+1}^T \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y_t - c - \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-i})^2}{2\sigma^2}} \\ &= (2\pi)^{-T/2} \sigma^{-(T-p)} |\mathbf{\Omega}^{-1}|^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y}_{1:p} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \mathbf{\Omega}^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_{1:p} - \boldsymbol{\mu})} \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{t=p+1}^T (y_t - c - \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-i})^2} \end{split}$$

 $\bullet \ \ \text{We always optimize the log-likelihood function} \ \ \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{\Theta}|\mathbf{y}) = \log \left(f_{y_T,\dots,y_1}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta}) \right)$

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{\Theta}|\mathbf{y}) &= \log\left(f_{y_T,\dots,y_1}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta})\right) \\ &= -\frac{T}{2}\log\left(2\pi\right) \\ &- (T-p)\log\left(\sigma\right) + \frac{1}{2}\log\left(|\mathbf{\Omega}^{-1}|\right) \\ &- \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}_{1:p} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\mathbf{\Omega}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_{1:p} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{t=p+1}^T(y_t - c - \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-i})^2 \end{split}$$

- The blue part looks like the OLS objective function;
- The red part is "distorting" this objective function;

- Full ML estimation requires optimizing this function w.r.t. Θ ;
- ullet Notice that this requires inverting a $p \times p$ matrix any time we evaluate the function;



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- Notice that this requires inverting a $p \times p$ matrix any time we evaluate the function;



- Wait a minute... what if T >> p?
- In that case the main contribution to the log-likelihood function comes from the blue part;
- This suggests a simpler approach: conditional MLE;
- Assume that the first p observations are fixed (non-random);
- $\bullet \ \text{Approximate} \ \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}|\mathbf{y}_{1:T}) \ \text{by} \ \log\left(f_{y_{p+1},\dots,y_{T}|y_{1:p}}(\mathbf{y};\boldsymbol{\Theta})\right)$

The Numerical Shortcut for the AR(p) Case

• Recall that, up to a constant, we have:

$$\log\left(f_{y_{p+1},\dots,y_T|y_{1:p}}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta})\right) = -\sum_{t=p+1}^T \frac{(y_t-c-\sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-i})^2}{2\sigma^2} - (T-p)\log\left(\sigma\right)$$

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- \bullet Estimators for c and ϕ_i 's are the same as the OLS from regressing y_t on y_{t-1},\dots,y_{t-p} ;
- Super simple closed-form solutions! 😊
- ullet The estimator for σ^2 is just the (biased) sample variance of the OLS residuals;

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- ullet Estimators for c and ϕ_i 's are the same as the OLS from regressing y_t on y_{t-1},\ldots,y_{t-p} ;
- Super simple closed-form solutions!
- The estimator for σ^2 is just the (biased) sample variance of the OLS residuals;
- If T is large, this is a very good approximation to the full MLE;
- ullet $\mathcal{L}(\Theta|\mathbf{y})$ is efficiently computed using the Kalman filter darker magic for the next year!



The MA(q) Case

• Consider the MA(q) model below and let $\Theta = (\mu, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_q, \sigma^2)$:

$$y_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \ldots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{i.i.d. } N(0,\sigma^2)$$

- There is no hope to get an "OLS"-type trick... we do not see the shocks...
- There are again two main approaches: full MLE and conditional MLE;
- We will focus on the conditional MLE approach;
- You can see the full MLE approach in Hamilton's book (Chapter 5);
- ullet If T is large, the two approaches will give very similar results;
- Similar to the forecasting exercise in the last lecture!

The MA(q) Case

- $\bullet \ \ \text{The key observation is that} \ y_t|\varepsilon_{t-1},\ldots,\varepsilon_{t-q}\sim N(\mu+\theta_1\varepsilon_{t-1}+\ldots+\theta_q\varepsilon_{t-q},\sigma^2);$
- \bullet But how is that useful if we do not observe $\varepsilon_t?$

The MA(q) Case

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- But how is that useful if we do not observe ε_t ?
- ullet Let's assume that $arepsilon_{-q+1}=arepsilon_{-q+2}=...=arepsilon_0=\mathbb{E}[arepsilon_t]=0$;
- We can start a recursion, like in the forecasting case:

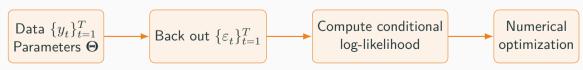
$$\begin{split} \varepsilon_1 &= y_1 - \mu \\ \varepsilon_2 &= y_2 - \mu - \theta_1 \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_3 &= y_3 - \mu - \theta_1 \varepsilon_2 - \theta_2 \varepsilon_1 \\ &\vdots \\ \varepsilon_t &= y_t - \mu - \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} - \dots - \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q} \\ &\vdots \\ \varepsilon_T &= y_T - \mu - \theta_1 \varepsilon_{T-1} - \dots - \theta_q \varepsilon_{T-q} \end{split}$$

The Conditional Log-Likelihood Function

• From here, we can write the conditional log-likelihood function:

$$\begin{split} \log\left(f_{y_t,\dots,y_1|\varepsilon_{-q+1}=\varepsilon_{-q+2}=\dots=\varepsilon_0=0}(\mathbf{y};\mathbf{\Theta})\right) &= \sum_{t=q+1}^T \log\left(f_{y_t|\varepsilon_{t-1},\dots,\varepsilon_{t-q}}(y_t|\varepsilon_{t-1},\dots,\varepsilon_{t-q};\mathbf{\Theta})\right) \\ &= -\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{(\varepsilon_t)^2}{2\sigma^2} - (T-q)\log\left(\sigma\right) \end{split}$$

• When there is an MA component, the logical flow is:





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• Consider a Guassian ARMA(p,q) model and let $\Theta = (c,\phi_1,\ldots,\phi_p,\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_q,\sigma^2)$: $y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \ldots + \phi_n y_{t-n} + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \ldots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{i.i.d. } N(0,\sigma^2)$

- We can combine the two previous approaches;
- Given Θ , we will back out ε_t recursively;
- $\bullet \text{ We also note that } y_t|y_{t-1},\ldots,y_1,\varepsilon_{t-1},\ldots,\varepsilon_{t-q} \sim N(c+\phi_1y_{t-1}+\ldots+\phi_py_{t-p},\sigma^2)$
- Then we are ready to use the conditioning trick once again!

The Recursion

- As we did with the AR(p), assume y_1, \dots, y_n are fixed;
- \bullet Assume that $\varepsilon_p=\varepsilon_{p-1}=\ldots=\varepsilon_{p-q+1}=0$
- \bullet The first shock to be backed out is $\varepsilon_{p+1} = y_{p+1} c \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{p+1-i}$
- \bullet Then we get $\varepsilon_{p+2}=y_{p+2}-c-\sum_{i=1}^p\phi_iy_{p+2-i}-\theta_1\varepsilon_{p+1}$
- And so on...
- ullet You might be skeptical of "assuming values" for the shock... but usually p and q are small compared to T!
- ullet You will almost never see q>10 and p>20 in practice!

The Conditional Log-Likelihood Function

• The conditional log-likelihood function, up to a constant, is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}|\mathbf{y}) = \log\left(f_{y_t,\dots,y_1|\varepsilon_{-q+1}=\varepsilon_{-q+2}=\dots=\varepsilon_0=0}(\mathbf{y};\boldsymbol{\Theta})\right) = -\sum_{t=n+1}^T \frac{(\varepsilon_t)^2}{2\sigma^2} - (T-p)\log\left(\sigma\right)$$

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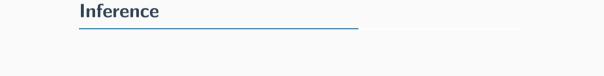
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Regarding numerical optimization:

- Do we have guarantees the numerical method will converge to the global maximum? No.
- ullet Is it much harder as we increase p and q? Yes and no: increasing p is fine, but q is hell;
- Where to start the optimization? OLS estimates for ϕ are a good shot;
- What about θ ? Start with zeros or small values;
- Try several different starting points and make sure you get similar answers;



Inference

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Inference

- Ok great, we can estimate ARMA(p, q) models;
- How to do inference?
- We will use standard MLE results;
- ullet Important assumptions: a correctly specified model and Θ_0 must be an interior point;
- Recall that, if the model is correctly specified, then:

$$\sqrt{T} \left(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}} - \mathbf{\Theta}_0 \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \mathcal{I}^{-1}(\mathbf{\Theta}_0))$$

where $\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{\Theta})$ is the Fisher information matrix;

 $\bullet \ \ \text{Recall that, in this case, } \mathcal{I}(\Theta) = -\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}(\Theta|\mathbf{y})}{\partial \Theta \partial \Theta'}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\Theta|\mathbf{y})}{\partial \Theta}\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\Theta|\mathbf{y})}{\partial \Theta'}\right];$

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- Theory suggests two equally valid ways of estimating it. Let us define two objects:
- 1. The Hessian:

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2. The score function and its associated *outer product*:

$$\mathcal{S}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}})_t \equiv \frac{\partial \log \left(f_{y_t | \mathbf{y_{t-1}}}(y_t | \mathbf{y}_{t-1}; \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}) \right)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Theta}}; \qquad \mathcal{O}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}) \equiv \frac{1}{T-p} \cdot \sum_{t=p+1}^T \mathcal{S}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}})_t \mathcal{S}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}})_t'$$

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- (Adjust the starting point of the sum as needed, it doesn't matter asymptotically);

Quasi-MLE

- What if ε_t is not Gaussian?
- The MLE is still consistent under some conditions (e.g. finite fourth moment);
- The idea, and the term Quasi-MLE, is due to White (Econometrica, 1982);

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- The idea, and the term Quasi-MLE, is due to White (Econometrica, 1982);
- The asymptotic distribution is now:

$$\sqrt{T} \Big(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}} - \mathbf{\Theta}_0 \Big) \overset{d}{\to} N \left(0, \underbrace{\mathcal{H}^{-1}(\mathbf{\Theta}_0) \mathcal{I}(\mathbf{\Theta}_0) \mathcal{H}^{-1}(\mathbf{\Theta}_0)'}_{\text{the "sandwich" variance}} \right)$$

- The "bread" uses the Hessian and the "meat" uses the outer product of the score;
- $\bullet \ \ \text{The estimator for the sandwich is} \ \left[-\mathcal{H}^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}})\mathcal{O}(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}})\mathcal{H}^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}})' \right]$

Some Simulations



How to choose p and q?

The Model Selection Problem

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 - Adding parameters can never decrease the maximized log-likelihood;
 - Converges to a perfect fit in_sample as $(p,q) \to \infty$ (overfitting);
- We need a formal criterion that penalizes model complexity;
- This leads to information criteria: balance fit vs. parsimony;

Information Criteria: General Framework

• The general form of information criteria is:

$$\mathsf{IC} = -2 \cdot \mathcal{L}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}|\mathbf{y}) + \mathsf{penalty}(k,T)$$

where k is the number of parameters and T is the sample size;

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- The first term measures **goodness-of-fit** (we want it small);
- The second term **penalizes complexity** (increases with *k*);
- We choose the model that minimizes the IC;

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$$\mathsf{IC} = -2 \cdot \mathcal{L}(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}}|\mathbf{y}) + \mathsf{penalty}(k,T)$$

where k is the number of parameters and T is the sample size;

- The first term measures **goodness-of-fit** (we want it small);
- The second term **penalizes complexity** (increases with *k*);
- We choose the model that minimizes the IC;
- Different penalties lead to different criteria;
- ullet The key trade-off: smaller penalty \Longrightarrow more likely to select larger models;

The Main Information Criteria

Let k = p + q + 2 be the number of parameters in an ARMA(p, q) model (including c and σ^2).

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$$\mathsf{AIC} = -2 \cdot \mathcal{L}(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}}|\mathbf{y}) + 2k$$

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Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) or Schwarz Criterion (SIC):

$$\mathsf{BIC} = -2 \cdot \mathcal{L}(\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}}|\mathbf{y}) + k \log(T)$$

- It approximates the model with the highest posterior probability (assuming equal priors);
- It is **consistent**: selects the true model (if it is in the candidate set) with probability $\to 1$ as $T \to \infty$;

Comparing the Penalties

ullet Notice that for T>8, we have $\log(T)>2$, so BIC penalizes more heavily than AIC;

Sample Size	AIC penalty	BIC penalty
T = 50	2k	3.91k
T = 100	2k	4.61k
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- As $T \to \infty$: BIC penalty grows much faster than AIC;
- Implication: BIC tends to select more parsimonious models than AIC;

How to Use Information Criteria in Practice

Step-by-step procedure:

- 1. Choose a maximum order p_{max} and q_{max} (often based on theory or exploratory analysis);
- 2. Estimate all ARMA(p,q) models for $p \in \{0,1,\ldots,p_{\max}\}$ and $q \in \{0,1,\ldots,q_{\max}\}$;
- 3. Compute your chosen IC for each model;
- 4. Select the model with the **minimum** IC value;

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Important notes:

- All models must be estimated on the **same sample** (same *T*);
- \bullet Start with reasonable $p_{\rm max}$ and $q_{\rm max}$ (e.g., 5-10 for quarterly data, 12-24 for monthly);
- If the selected model is at the boundary, consider increasing the maximum orders;



References

- Chapter 5 from Hamilton's book for ARMA estimation;
- Chapter 28 from Hansen's book on model selection for MLE;