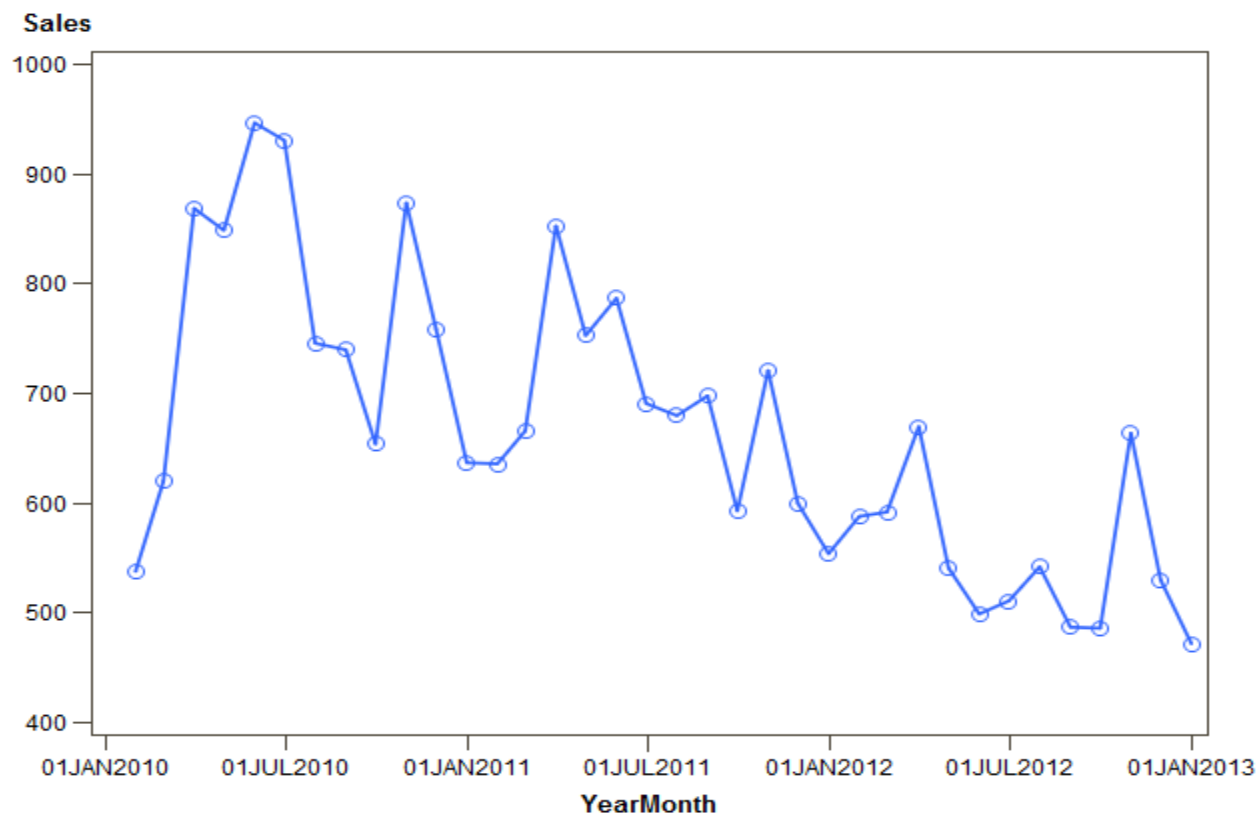


# Financial Times Series

## Lecture 4

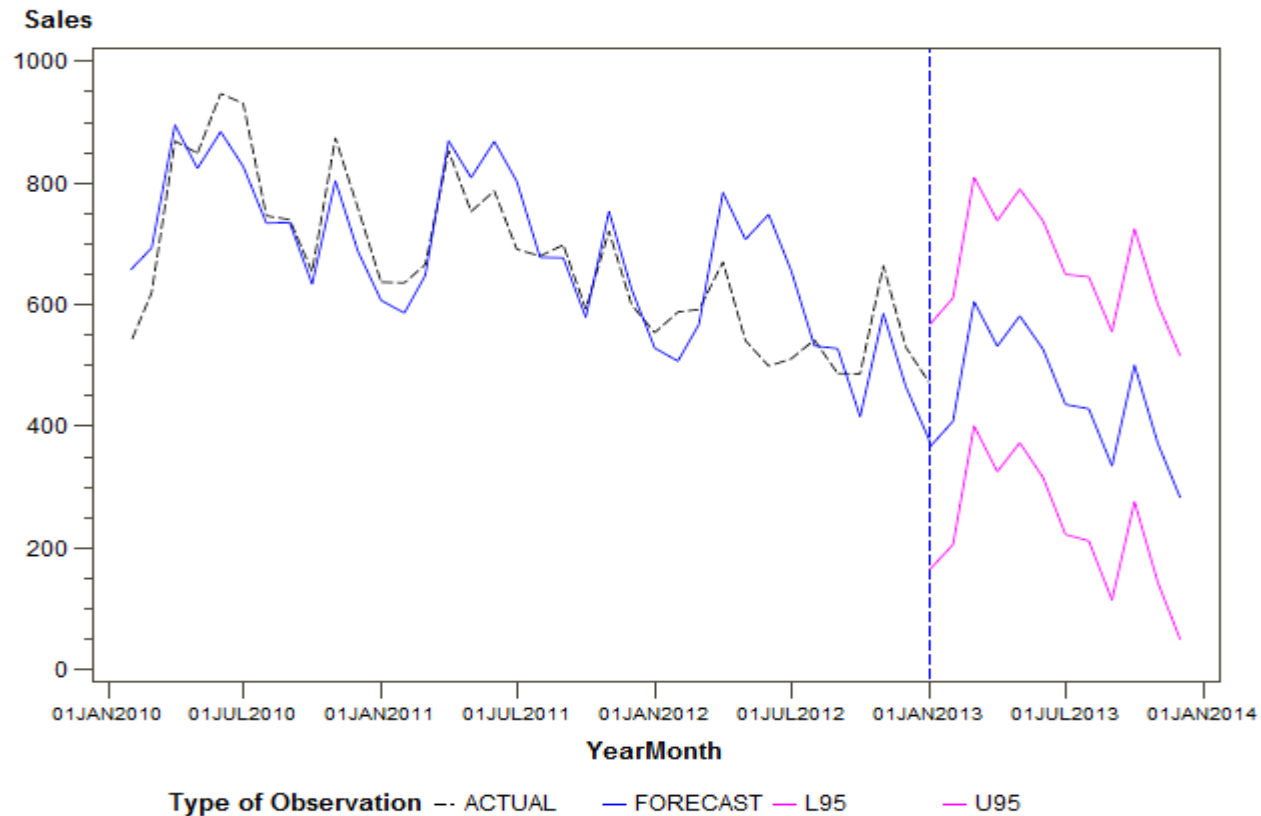
# Trends and Seasonalities



# To make predictions

- We need to estimate the trend and seasonality
- Fair to assume additive model (?)
- Linear trend?
- Period of the seasonality?

# Possible prediction



# Additive model

- $x_t = m_t + s_t + e_t$  (trend, seasonality, stationary mean zero noise)
- We first consider the case where no seasonality is present
- $x_t = m_t + e_t$

# Estimation of trend (1)

- Let  $x_1, \dots, x_T$  be the observed time series values
- By ocular inspection try/find reasonable polynomial  $m_t = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i t^i$  that minimizes

$$\sum_{t=1}^T (x_t - m_t)^2$$

# Estimation of trend (1)

- The procedure yields a polynomial

$$\hat{m}_t = \sum_{i=0}^k \hat{a}_i t^i$$

which in turn is a predictor for  $X_t$  under the assumption that the noise process has mean zero

# Estimation of trend (1)

- It may turn out that the noise series exhibits correlation
- This may be used to improve the prediction



## Estimation of trend (2)

- We may also use two-sided moving averages

$$\hat{m}_t = \frac{1}{2q+1} \sum_{j=-q}^q x_{t+j}, \quad q+1 \leq t \leq T-q$$

- Or exponential smoothing

$$\hat{m}_t = ax_t + (1-a)\hat{m}_{t-1}, \quad 0 \leq a \leq 1, t = 2, \dots, T,$$

$$\hat{m}_1 = x_1$$

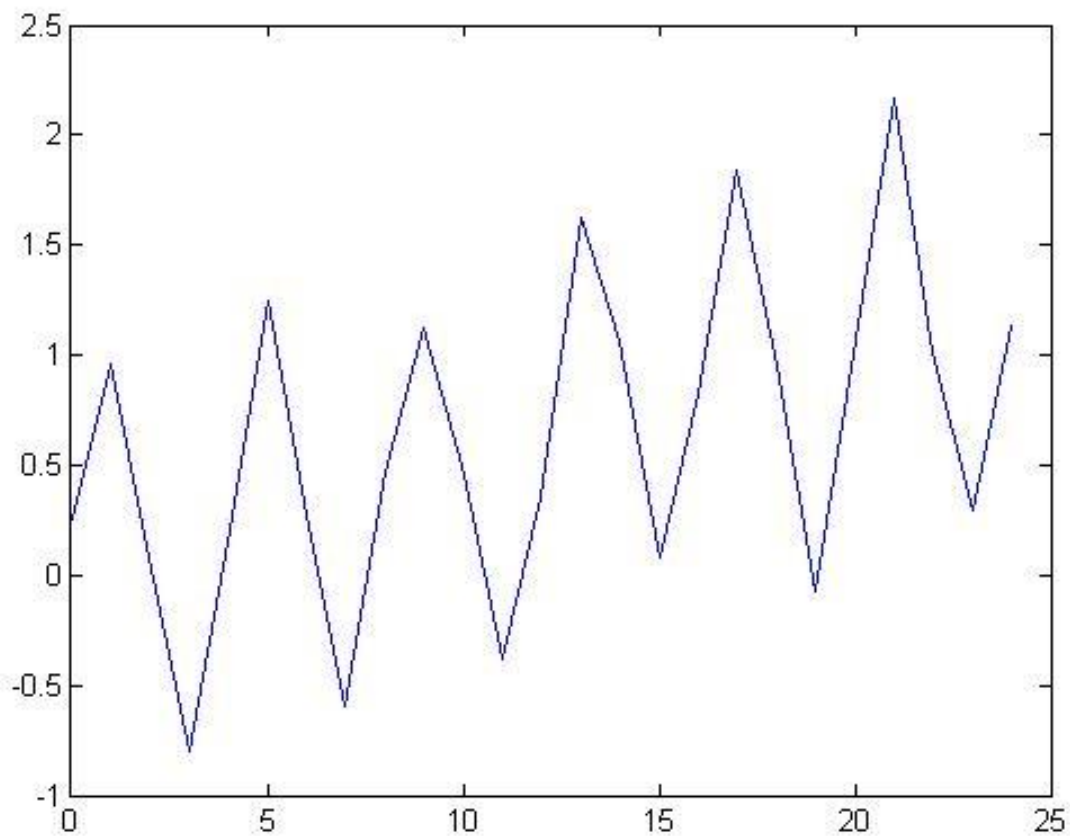
# Estimation of seasonality

- If there is no obvious trend it may be reasonable to assume that the seasonality component is given by the periodic function

$$s_t = a_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k (a_j \cos(\lambda_j t) + b_j \sin(\lambda_j t)),$$

where  $s_t = s_{t+d}$  since  $\lambda_j$  is an integer multiple of  $2\pi/d$

# Seasonality and trend



# Seasonality and trend, classical

- First, (pre-)estimate the trend for  $q < t \leq T - q$  by

$$\hat{m}_t = (0.5x_{t-q} + x_{t-q+1} + \cdots + x_{t+q-1} + 0.5x_{t+q})/d,$$

if the period  $d$  of the seasonality component is  $2q$  or by the same two-sided MA as for trend only if the period is odd.

# Seasonality and trend, classical

- Now define, for  $1 \leq k \leq d$ ,  $w_k$  as the average of  $x_{k+jd} - \hat{m}_{k+jd}$
- The seasonality estimate is then given by

$$\hat{s}_k = w_k - \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^d w_i, \quad k = 1, \dots, d$$

# Seasonality and trend, classical

- In turn we get the deseasonalized data as

$$d_t = x_t - \hat{s}_t$$

- From this data we re-estimate the trend using one of the above methods

# Seasonality and trend, classical

- Finally, we end up with the estimated noise

$$\hat{e}_t = x_t - \hat{m}_t - \hat{s}_t$$

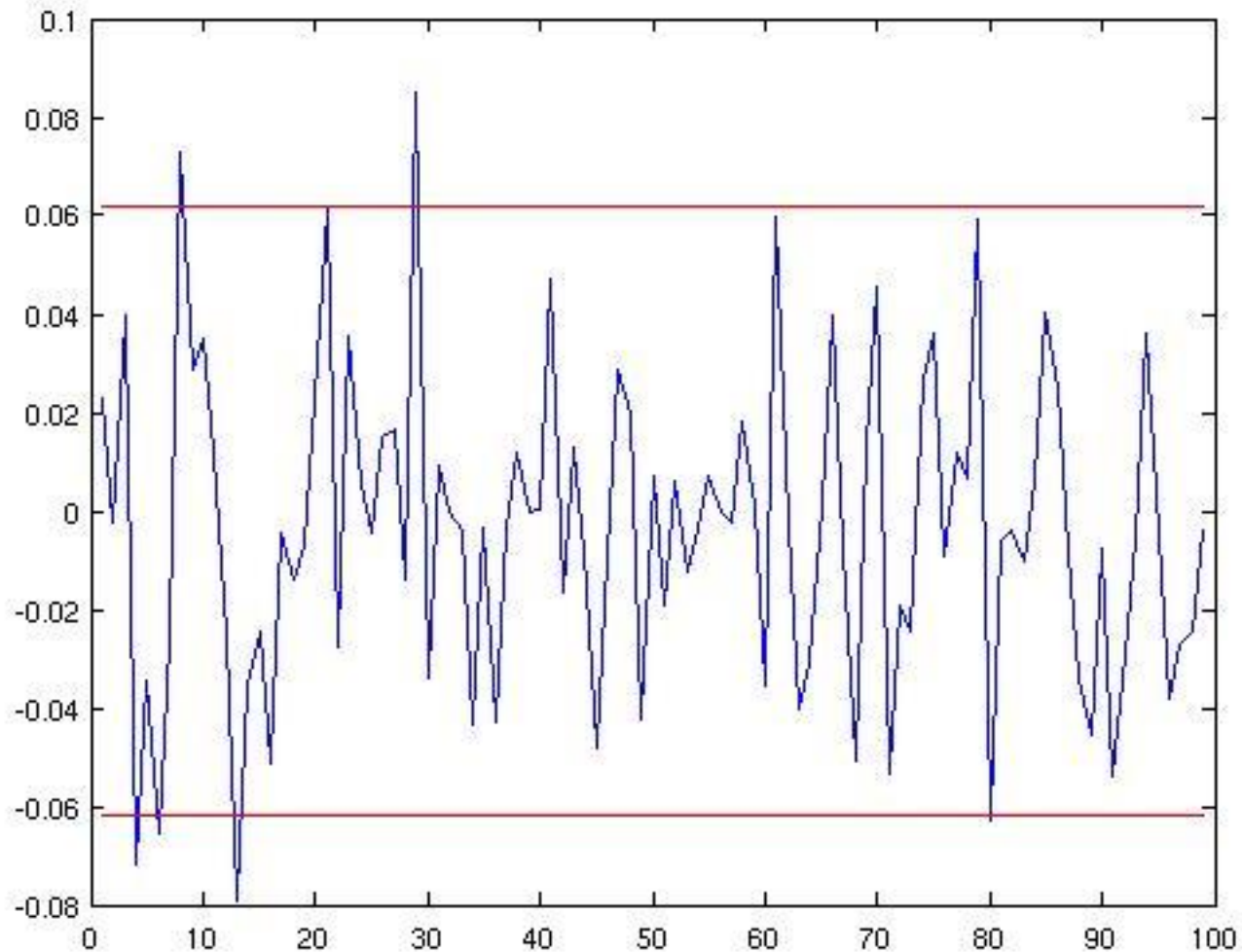
- Now we want to investigate the properties of the estimated noise
- If it turns out that there is no dependence in the noise, all further modeling that can be done is to estimate the mean and variance of the noise

# Checking noise properties

- For an iid, zero mean and finite variance series it can be shown that the sample acf:s,  $\hat{\rho}(h)$ , asymptotically follow a  $N(0, T^{-1})$  distribution
- So if we uncorrelated residuals 95% of the sample acf:s should be expected to fall within  $\pm 1.96/\sqrt{T}$



# ACF for 1000 iid, first 100 lags



# Checking noise properties

- Portmanteau test

$$Q = T \sum_{j=1}^h \hat{\rho}^2(j) \sim \chi^2_{1-\alpha}(h)$$

- Ljung-Box (faster convergence)

$$Q_{LB} = T(T+2) \sum_{j=1}^h \frac{\hat{\rho}^2(j)}{T-j} \sim \chi^2_{1-\alpha}(h)$$

# Portmanteau

- The series used for the plotted sample acf:s is based on 1000 observations
- The observed value of the Portmanteau statistic is 102.3
- The corresponding 95%  $\chi^2(100)$  quantile is 124.3 so we cannot reject the null hypothesis of the series being uncorrelated at the 5% level.

# Exercise

- Play around in matlab with, e.g.

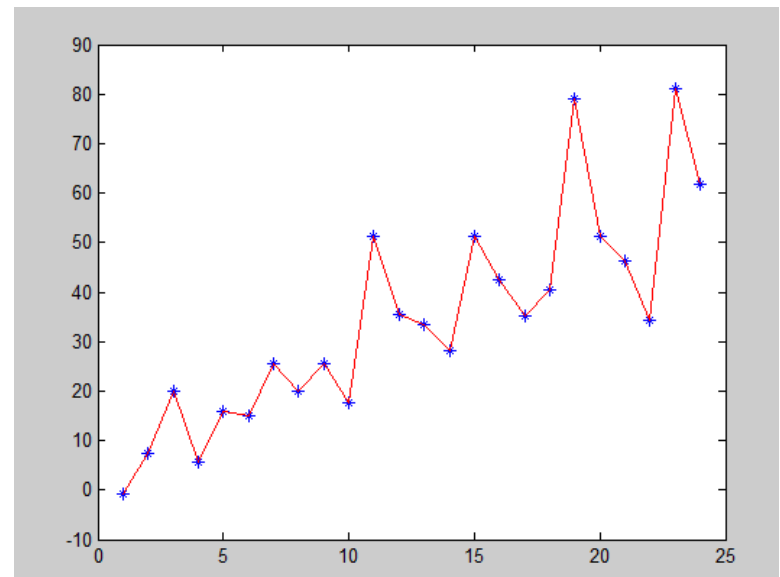
```
%Season and trend time series  
time=0:24;  
season=sin(pi/2*time);  
trend=0.05*time;  
WN=normrnd(0,0.2,1,length(time));  
Y=season+trend+WN;  
plot(time,Y)
```

# Exercise

- Try the classical decomposition scheme and check for iid residuals using the suggested tests.

# Multiplicative seasonal models

- $x_t = m_t s_t e_t$  (trend, seasonality, stationary mean zero noise)
- We use this model if the seasonal variation seems to increase with increased trend or decrease with decreasing trend



# Multiplicative seasonal models

- If the periodicity is denoted  $d$  it is often the case that a seasonal series  $\{x_t\}$  can be defined by

$$(1 - B^d)(1 - B)x_t = (1 - \theta B)(1 - \Theta B^d)a_t$$

where  $|\theta| < 1$ ,  $|\Theta| < 1$  and  $a_t$  is WN

# Multiplicative seasonal models

- Note that the AR part (LHS) contains difference and seasonal differences, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}(1 - B^d)(1 - B)x_t &= (1 - B^d)(x_t - x_{t-1}) \\ &= x_t - x_{t-1} - (x_{t-d} - x_{t-d-1})\end{aligned}$$

whereas for the MA part (RHS) it holds that its expectation is zero and its ACF is (show this)

$$\rho_1 = \frac{-\theta}{1 + \theta^2}, \rho_d = \frac{-\Theta}{1 + \Theta^2},$$

$$\rho_{d-1} = \rho_{d+1} = \frac{\theta\Theta}{(1+\theta^2)(1+\Theta^2)} \text{ and 0 otherwise}$$



# Multiplicative seasonal models

- The model with the MA part as above is called a multiplicative model
- If the MA part instead is

$$x_t = (1 - \theta B - \Theta B^s)a_t$$

the model is called non-multiplicative

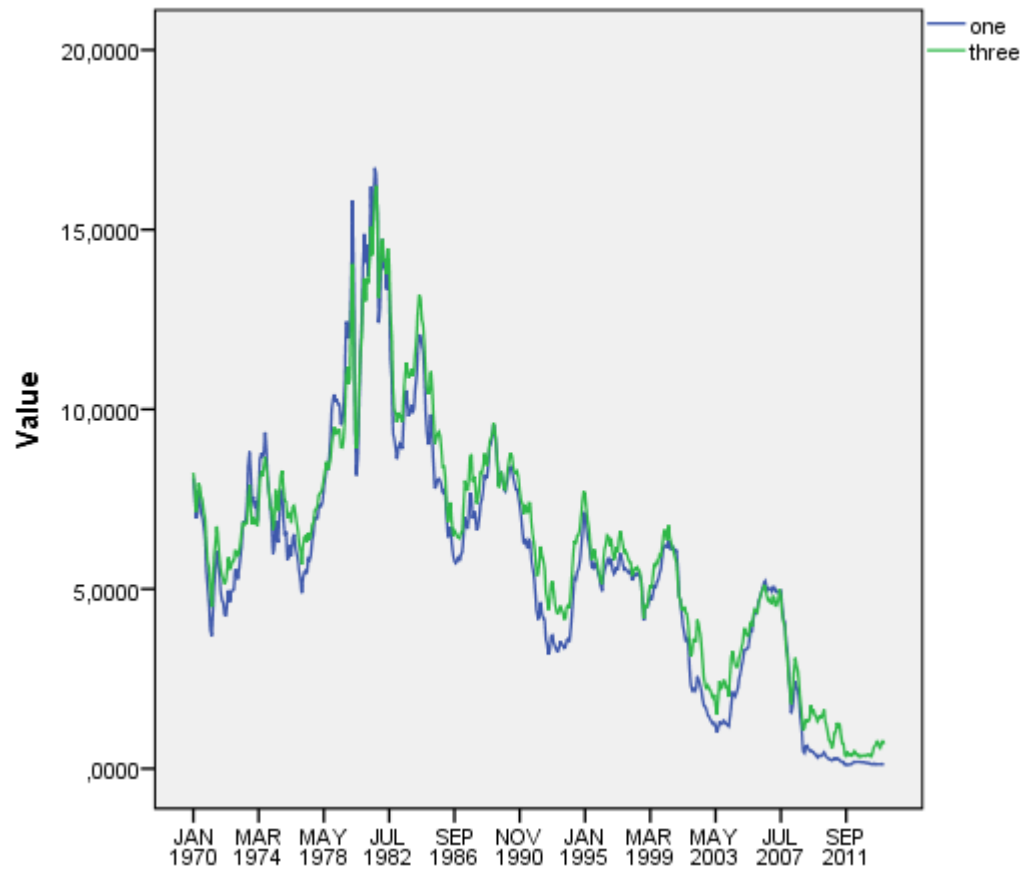
# Regression models with correlated errors

- In many situations we want to fit a model that predicts returns of a single stock from the returns of an index

$$r_{1t} = \alpha + \beta r_{2t} + e_t$$

- Using OLS to fit the model, i.e. to estimate  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is OK if  $\{e_t\}$  is WN
- However, in practice it is common that  $\{e_t\}$  exhibits serial correlation, i.e. autocorrelation and if so OLS will not give consistent parameter estimates

# Example, 3-year interest rates vs. 1-year interest rates



# Example, 3-year interest rates vs. 1-year interest rates

- We want to predict the 3-year rate from the 1-year rate

$$r_{3t} = \alpha + \beta r_{1t} + e_t$$

- OLS gives

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,987 <sup>a</sup>	,975	,975	,5267994	,092

a. Predictors: (Constant), one

b. Dependent Variable: three

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5702,540	1	5702,540	20548,392	,000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	146,529	528	,278		
	Total	5849,069	529			

a. Dependent Variable: three

b. Predictors: (Constant), one

# OLS assumptions

- Remember that OLS assumes uncorrelated constant variance (homoskedastic) normal residuals
- This is many times overlooked by practitioners
- May lead to inconsistent models/tests...

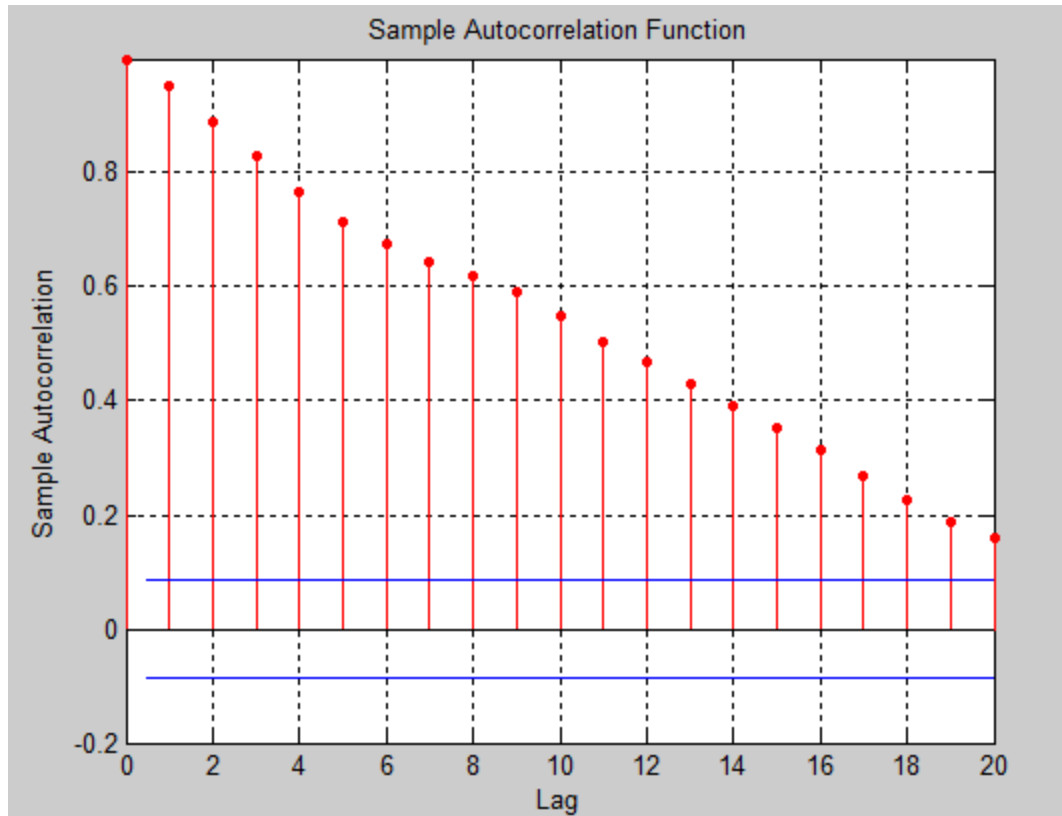
# Durbin-Watson test for correlated residuals

- The null hypothesis is that there is no (one lag) autocorrelation in the residuals  $e_t, t = 1, 2, \dots, n$
- The test statistic is

$$D = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^n (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n (e_t)^2}$$

- If we observe  $D > d_U$  we do not reject  $H_0$ , if we observe  $D < d_L$  we reject  $H_0$  but if  $d_L < D < d_U$  the test is indecisive. Values of  $d_L$  and  $d_U$  can be found in the econometrics literature
- In our example  $d_L \approx 1.85$  for 5% significance level

# ACF of residuals



- So clearly we have autocorrelation in the residual series

# Remedy? Differencing

- We could try to model

$$(1 - B)r_{3t} = \alpha + \beta(1 - B)r_{1t} + e_t$$

- OLS gives

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,933 <sup>a</sup>	,871	,871	,14370	1,637

a. Predictors: (Constant), onediff

b. Dependent Variable: threediff

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	73,320	1	73,320	3550,886	,000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	10,882	527	,021		
	Total	84,202	528			

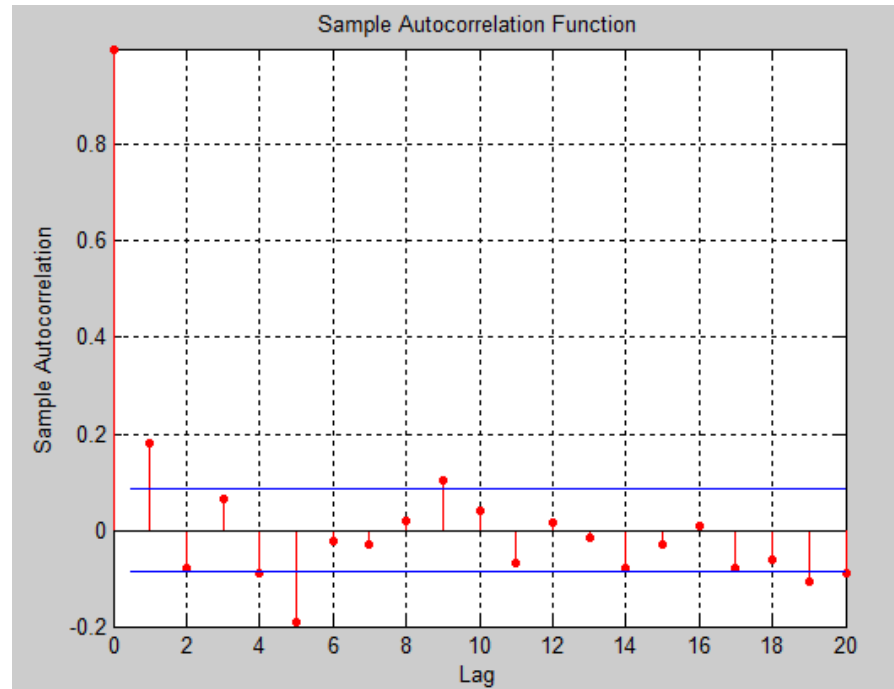
a. Dependent Variable: threediff

b. Predictors: (Constant), onediff



# Remedy...

- The Durbin-Watson test still says that there is autocorrelation at the 5% level but
- Only one lag
- So if we model the residuals as an AR(1) we are good to go



# Final model

- So ur final model is

$$(1 - B)r_{3t} = \alpha + \beta(1 - B)r_{1t} + e_t$$

$$e_t = a_t + \rho a_{t-1}$$

- Which is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - B)r_{3t} \\ = \alpha + \beta(1 - B)r_{1t} + \rho(1 - B)r_{3t-1} - \beta\rho(1 - B)r_{1t-1} + \tilde{a}_t \end{aligned}$$

where  $\tilde{a}_t = e_t - \rho e_{t-1}$  constitutes a WN series

# Model fit

**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,936 <sup>a</sup>	,876	,875	,14118	1,961

a. Predictors: (Constant), onediff1ag, onediff, threediff1ag

b. Dependent Variable: threediff

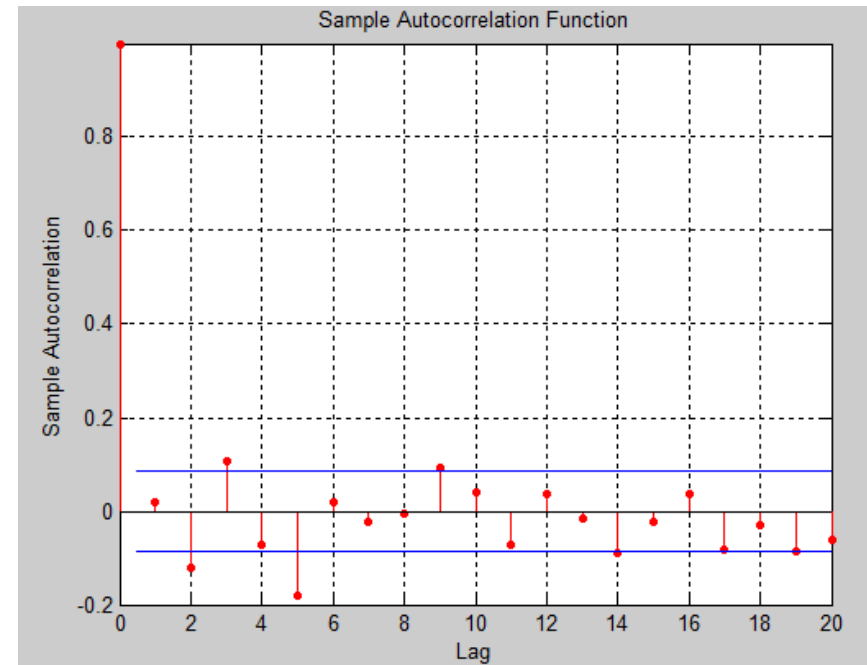
**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	73,567	3	24,522	1230,245	,000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	10,445	524	,020		
	Total	84,012	527			

a. Dependent Variable: threediff

b. Predictors: (Constant), onediff1ag, onediff, threediff1ag

- Here the observed value of the DW-test is 1.96 which is above  $d_U \approx 1.86$  for 5% significance level



# Compensation of autocorrelation and/or heteroskedasticity

- What if our main goal is to make inference about  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in the regression model but residuals exhibit autocorrelation and/or heteroskedasticity?
- The problems can be solved by using the appropriate covariance structures for the coefficient estimators

# OLS as we (used to) know it

- So we want to fit the model

$$y_t = \mathbf{x}'_t \boldsymbol{\beta} + e_t$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_{1t}, \dots, x_{kt})'$  where  $x_{1t} = 1$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)$

- The OLS estimates are given by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \left[ \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right]^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t y_t, \quad \text{Cov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2_e \left[ \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right]^{-1}$$

# Autocorrelation and/or heteroskedasticity

- To compensate for heteroskedasticity use

$$\begin{aligned} & Cov(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})_{HC} \\ &= \left[ \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right]^{-1} \left[ \frac{T}{T-k} \sum_{t=1}^T (\hat{e}_t)^2 \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right] \left[ \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right]^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

where  $\hat{e}_t = y_t - \mathbf{x}'_t \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$

# Autocorrelation and/or heteroskedasticity

- To compensate for autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity use

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})_{HAC} = \left[ \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right]^{-1} \hat{C}_{HAC} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t \right]^{-1}$$

where

$$\hat{C}_{HAC} = \sum_{t=1}^T (\hat{e}_t)^2 \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}'_t + \sum_{j=1}^l w_j \sum_{t=j+1}^T (\mathbf{x}_t \hat{e}_t \hat{e}_{t-j} \mathbf{x}'_{t-j} + \mathbf{x}_{t-j} \hat{e}_{t-j} \hat{e}_t \mathbf{x}'_t)$$

for  $w_j = 1 - \frac{j}{l+1}$  and (suggested)  $l = 4(T/100)^{2/9}$