(S)AR(F)IMA Modelling

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Lecture 3

Applied Econometrics

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ARMA Model:

• AR – autoregressive models $AR(p) process: Y_t = \alpha + a_1 Y_{t-1} + a_2 Y_{t-2} + ... + a_p Y_{t-p} + e_t$

• MA – moving average models

$$MA(q)$$
 process: $Y_{t} = \beta + e_{t} + b_{1}e_{t-1} + b_{2}e_{t-2} + ... + b_{q}e_{t-q}$, $e \sim IID(0, \sigma^{2})$

combination \Rightarrow

• ARMA – autoregressive moving average models

ARMA(p,q):

$$Y_{t} = c + a_{1}Y_{t-1} + a_{2}Y_{t-2} + \dots + a_{p}Y_{t-p} + e_{t} + b_{1}e_{t-1} + b_{2}e_{t-2} + \dots + b_{q}e_{t-q}$$

Stationarity

- Stationarity (independence on time)
 - compute mean, variance and covariance
 - check time dependency
- MA process always stationary
- AR proces: stationary only, if $|\alpha| < 1$ (in case of AR(1), or sum of $\alpha < 1$ in abs. value in case of AR(k))
- A series, which becomes stationary after first differencing, is said to be integrated of order one, denoted I(1).
- If Δy_t is described by a stationary ARMA(p,q) model, we say that y_t is described by an autoregressive *integrated* moving average (ARIMA (p,v,q)) model of order (p,1,q).

Autocorrelation Function

- Autocorrelation ϱ_k correlation between X_t and X_{t-k}
- $\mathbf{\varrho}_k$ as a function of \mathbf{k} (k = 1,2,...) is called sample autocorrelation function (ACF) or correlogram
- You can do a joint test of the first *m* autocorrelations,
- Null hypothesis (H0): all correlations are 0, alternative (H1): at least one is significantly different from 0
- Use Box-Ljung test test for significance of autocorrelations

Box-Ljung test

• Test statistics:

$$Q = T(T+2) \sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{\rho_{k}}{T-k}$$

- T # of observations,k # of lags,correlation ϱ_k autocorrelation, m # of autocorrelation terms
- If Q > critical value (p-value < 0.05) at least one of the first m autocorrelations is significant, autocorrelation is significant.

Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF)

• Note that autocorrelation at lag *k* is given by the coefficient in

$$X_t = c + Q_k X_{t-k} + u_t$$

- PACF, denoted by Φ_{kk} , gives the correlation between X_t and X_{t-k} allowing for the effects of intermediate lags $X_{t-1}, \ldots, X_{t-k-1}$
- Φ_{kk} is given by the last coefficient in
- $X_t = c + \Phi_{1k} * X_{t-1} + \dots + \Phi_{kk} * X_{t-k} + u_t$

Application: Does PX-50 follows random walk?

- If $X_t = X_{t-1} + u_t$, then $\Delta X_t \sim IID(0, \sigma^2)$
- To test random walk hypothesis, look for significant autocorrelation in ΔX_v where X_t is PX-50 index

(PX-50 is the Czech stock market index, daily data from 1998-2002, roughly 2200 observations)

Application:

Does PX-50 follows random walk? (so changes in PX-50 is white noise) Results from Ljung-Box statistic

	AC	Q-Stat	P-value
1	0.128	36.002	0
2	0.091	54.296	0
3	0.059	62.046	0
4	0.019	62.836	0
5	-0.036	65.674	0
6	-0.008	65.829	0
7	0.014	66.251	0
8	0.012	66.549	0
9	0.014	67.011	0
10	0.046	71.689	0

MA(1) process

•
$$X_t = \beta + u_t + \alpha_1 u_{t-1}$$

- $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{X}_t) = \beta$
- $\mathbf{Var}(\mathbf{X}_t) = E(\beta + u_t + \alpha_1 u_{t-1} \beta)^2 =$ = $E(u_t^2 + 2\alpha_1 u_t u_{t-1} + \alpha_1^2 u_{t-1}^2) = u_t^2 (1 + \alpha_1^2)$
- $Cov(X_t, X_{t-k}) = E[(X_t E(X_t))(X_{t-k} E(X_{t-k}))] = u_t^{2*}\alpha_1$, if t = 1 and 0, if t > 1.
- Corr(X_t,X_{t-k})=Cov(X_t,X_{t-k})/Var(X_t)^{1/2}*Var(X_{t-k})^{1/2}= $\alpha_1/(1+\alpha_1^2)$ if t = 1 and 0, if t > 1.

AR(1) process

- Similarly as for MA(1), first invert AR(1) to MA process this is simple difference equation, for variance you have to sum up infinite series
- $\bullet \quad X_t = \alpha X_{t-1} + u_t$
- $E(X_t) = 0$
- $Var(X_t) = u_t^2/(1-\alpha^2)$
- $Cov(X_{t}, X_{t-k}) = \alpha^{k^*} u_t^2 / (1 \alpha^2)$
- Corr(X_t, X_{t-k})= α^k correlogram declines exponentially with k

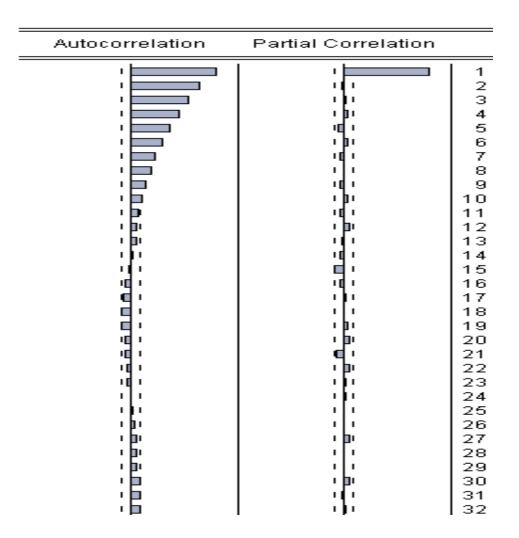
ACF, PACF

to determine a number of AR and MA terms

- AR(p) ACF declines, PACF = 0 if k > p
- MA(q) ACF = 0 if k > q, PACF declines
- **ARMA(p,q)** ACF, PACF declines
- For ACF see the previous slides, where *corr* of MA and AR processes were derived
- To realize that PACF for AR(p) is PACF = 0 if k > p, note that there is no direct connection between Y_t and Y_{t-k} as AR(p) is: $Y_t = \alpha + a_1 Y_{t-1} + a_2 Y_{t-2} + ... + a_p Y_{t-p} + e_t$
- To realize that PACF declines for MA(q), need to invert MA(q) to AR(∞)

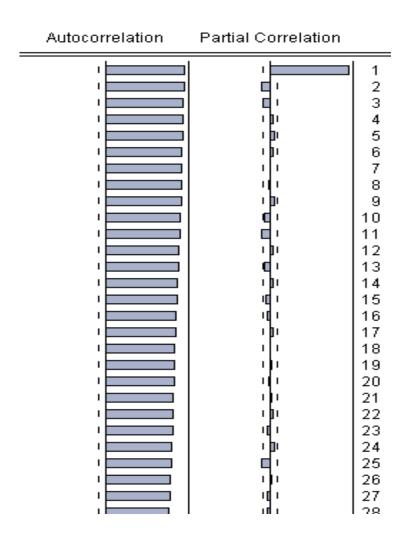
Examples -AR(1)

- Simulated data
- $X_t = 0.8 * X_{t-1} + u_t$
- ACF decays
- PACF drops to 0 for 2nd lag and higher



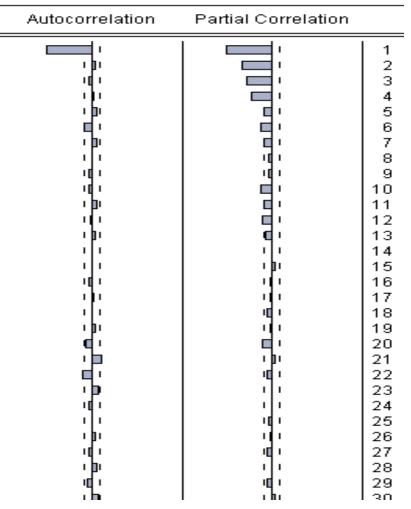
Examples – Random walk

- Simulated data
- $X_t = 1*X_{t-1} + u_t$
- ACF decays extremely slowly
- PACF drops to 0 for 2nd lag and higher



Examples - MA(1)

- Simulated data
- $X_t = u_t 0.9 * u_{t-1}$
- ACF drops to 0 for 2nd lag and higher
- PACF decays slowly

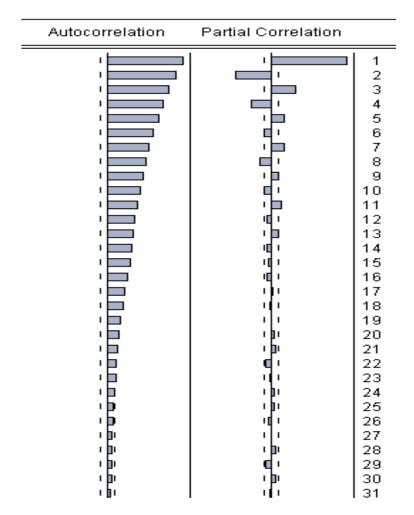


Examples – White noise

- Simulated data
- $X_t = u_t$
- ACF close to 0
- PACF close to 0

Examples - ARMA(1,1)

- Simulated data
- $X_t = 0.9*X_{t-1} + u_t 0.9*u_{t-1}$
- ACF decays slowly
- PACF decays slowly



Fitting ARMA Models: Box-Jenkins Methodology

- 1. Visually examine the time plot of series, ACF and PACF
- 2. Estimate the degree of integration and difference the data to achieve stationarity
- 3. Estimate ARIMA model and select the 'best' model based on following criteria:
 - parsimony (do not overfit),
 - goodness of fit (based on information criteria)

Information Criteria

- Information Criteria often use model selection for non-nested alternatives (non-nested: different set of explanatory variables among the regression models)
- Schwarz criterion = -2L/T + (k*log(T))/T
- Akaike information criterion = -2L/T + 2k/T
 - where $L = -T/2(1 + \log(2\pi) + \log(RSS/T))$...log likelihood function, T...number of obs., k...number of explanatory variables+1, RSS ... residual sum of squares
- AIC and SC trade off parsimony and goodness of fit
- So AIC or SC should be as low as possible

Forecasting

- In the long run the forecast converges to a constant (for stationary model)
- In the short run, estimate the model and simply take the expected value in order to get the next period forecast

$$X_{t} = aX_{t-1} + u_{t}$$
 $E(X_{t+1}) = E(aX_{t} + u_{t+1}) = aX_{t}$
 $E(X_{t+2}) = aX_{t+1} = aaX_{t}$
 $E(X_{t+k}) = a^{k}X_{t}$

- As k becomes large, the forecast converges to a constant, which is 0 in our case.
- ARMA modelling is for short-term forecasting, not long-

Evaluating Forecasting Performance

- Forecast error, e: error = fitted actual value
- Root square mean error (RMSE)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} e_{T+j}^2}$$

Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

$$MAE = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} |\boldsymbol{e}_{T+j}|$$

• Mean absolute percentage error (MAPE)

$$MAPE = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{e_{T+j}}{y_{T+j}} *100\%$$

Evaluating Forecasting Performance (cont.)

% correct sign predictions =
$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} z_{t+s}$$

where
$$z_{t+s} = 1$$
 if $(x_{t+s} \cdot f_{t,s}) > 0$
 $z_{t+s} = 0$ otherwise

 $f_{t,s}$ forecast s periods ahead

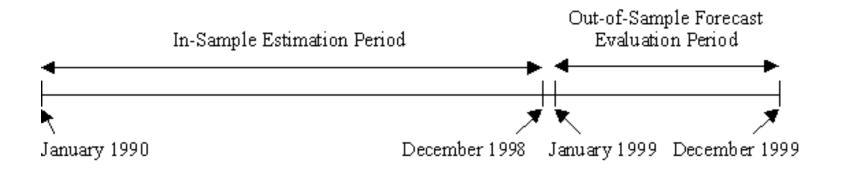
Analogously, one can form % correct direction change predictions (these two statistics proved to be more profitable for market trading strategies)

Evaluating Forecasting Performance (cont.)

- Root square mean error penalizes disproportionally more larger than smaller errors
- Mean absolute error penalizes <u>proportionally</u> equally large errors as small errors
- Sign prediction error <u>does not penalize</u> large errors any more than small errors

In-Sample Versus Out-of-Sample Forecasting

- Expect the "forecast" of the model to be good in-sample.
- Say we have some data e.g. monthly FTSE returns for 120 months: 1990M1 1999M12. We could use all of it to build the model, or keep some observations back:



- A good test of the model since we have not used the information from 1999M1 onwards when we estimated the model parameters.
- Pseudo-out-of-sample forecasting (pretending to have the data up to Jan 1999 but knowing the future)

Fitting ARIMA models

- Same as for ARMA
 - Use augmented ADF test to evaluate the order of integration
 - Difference the data to achieve stationarity

Fractional integration

- Some series are autocorrelated up to very high lag
- Long-memory processes
- So far, we assumed that series is I(0) or I(1)
- But series can be I(d), where 0 < d < 1
- Fractional integration
- ARFIMA a generalization of ARIMA

Fractional integration (II)

- AR(1) proces can be written as $(1 \phi B)Y_t = e_t$
- B backshift operator (L is a lag operator, B or L is alternative notation but identical meaning)
- Note that $BY_t = Y_{t-1}$, $BBY_t = Y_{t-2}$, $B^2Y_t = Y_{t-2}$,
- $(1-\phi B)^d Y_t = e_t$, fractional integration of order d
- $d \ge 0.5$ non-stationary process
- d < 0.5 stationary process
- ARFIMA: $\phi_p(B)$ (1 B)^d $Y_t = \theta_q(B) \epsilon_t$

ARFIMA Model Estimation

- ARFIMA(0; d; 0). For example, ARFIMA(0; 0,55; 0)
- Two-step method: 1) d is estimated, 2) ARIMA is estimated
- One-step method: Joint estimation with maximum likelihood
- Two-step method needs a lot of observations
- One-step method: local maxima, computational complexity, initial values issues

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Short vs. Long Memory

- No memory ACF is zero
- Short memory stationary
 - exponential decay in the ACF
- Long memory stationary
 - The "differencing" exponent (d) is between
 - $-0 < |d| < \frac{1}{2}$.
 - Hyperbolic (slower) decay in the ACF
- Non-stationary random walk

Spatial econometrics

- Space matters
 - Two geographically close countries more likely to adopt similar reforms because of knowledge spillovers
 - Two central banks with identical monetary policy regimes more likely to cooperate
 - House prices depend on location

If there are spatial effects, OLS can be either inefficient with wrong standard errors, or biased and inconsistent

Weighting

- Assumption: structure of spatial dependence is *a priori* known, not estimated
- The specification of the weighting matrix "is a mater of considerable arbitrariness and a wide range of suggestions in the literature"
- "Connectivity matrix" specifies the degree of interdependence among observations
 - Based either on contiguity, Euclidean distance, or even non-geographical distance-based measure
- Strong assumption, but not as strong as assuming it is zero and all observations are spatially independent

Weighting (II)

- Denote the weighting matrix, W
- Contiguity matrix
 - NxN symetric matrix where $w_{ij} = 1$ when i and j are neighbors and 0 when they are not
 - W matrix is usually standardized so all rows sum to 1
 - $\bullet \ \ \mathbf{w}^{s}_{ij} = \mathbf{w}_{ij} \ / \ \Sigma_{j} \, \mathbf{w}_{ij}$
 - Makes operations with the W matrix as an average of neighboring values

Weighting (III)

- W matrix used to generate spatial lag operator,
 Wy
 - $-\Sigma_j w_{ij} y_j$, Weighted average of the y values based on neighbors

W matrix:

: Ó	1	0	1
1	0	0	0
0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0

Type of models

- Spatial lag model
 - Spatial lag model corresponds to the time-series lagged dependent variable model
- Spatial error model
 - Spatial error model analogous to time-series serially correlated errors

Spatial lag model

Model

$$-y = \varphi w_i y_i + \beta x_i + e_i$$

- Can also include w_ix_i term
- OLS in this case is biased and inconsistent

- Can be extended to spatial Durbin model
- $y = \varphi w_i y_i + \beta x_i + \beta w_i x_i + e_i$

Spatial error model

- Model
 - Start with basic OLS model
 - $y = \beta_x + e e \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$
 - $-y = \beta x + e + \lambda we$
 - If λ =0, reduces to OLS, if λ ≠0, OLS is unbiased and consistent, but SE will be wrong and the betas will be inefficient if spatial errors ignored

Testing for spatial effects

- Morans' I test
 - Indicates general spatial misspecification
 - -I = e'We'/e'e (for row standard weights)
 - e = vector of OLS residuals
 - W = spatial weights
 - Similar to the Durbin-Watson test
 - Does not provide insight into suggesting which alternative regression specification to use