

Nov1 Note

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Recap:

- $\{Y_t\} \sim AR(p)$ if

$$Y_t = \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \phi_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{t-p} + \epsilon_t$$

$$\phi(B)Y_t = \epsilon_t$$

$$\text{where } \phi(Z) = 1 - \phi_1 Z - \phi_2 Z^2 - \dots - \phi_p Z^p$$

- $\{Y_t\} \sim MA(q)$ if

$$Y_t = \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \epsilon_{t-q}$$

$$Y_t = \theta(B)\epsilon_t$$

$$\text{where } \theta(Z) = 1 + \theta_1 Z + \theta_2 Z^2 + \dots + \theta_q Z^q$$

- $\phi(Z)$ and $\theta(Z)$ are “**generating functions**” AKA “**characteristic polynomials**”

Mathematical Prerequisites

A **power series** is an infinite sum representation of a function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

- EX1:

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \text{ (exponential series)}$$

- EX2:

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \text{ (geometric series) Converges if } |x| < 1$$

- EX3:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)(x-a)^n}{n!} \text{ (Taylor Series)}$$

- EX4:

$$\frac{1}{1-x+x^2-2x^3} = \frac{1}{1-(x-x^2+2x^3)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x-x^2+2x^3)^n \text{ converges if } |x-x^2+2x^3| < 1$$

Complex Numbers:

$\sqrt{-1} \equiv i$ (imaginary number)

A **complex number** can be generally written as:

$Z = a + bi \in C$ where $a, b \in R$, a is the real part and bi is the complex part.

(there is a graph)

- $|Z| > 1$ implies that Z lies outside the unit circle
- $|Z| \leq 1$ implies that Z lies on/inside the unit circle

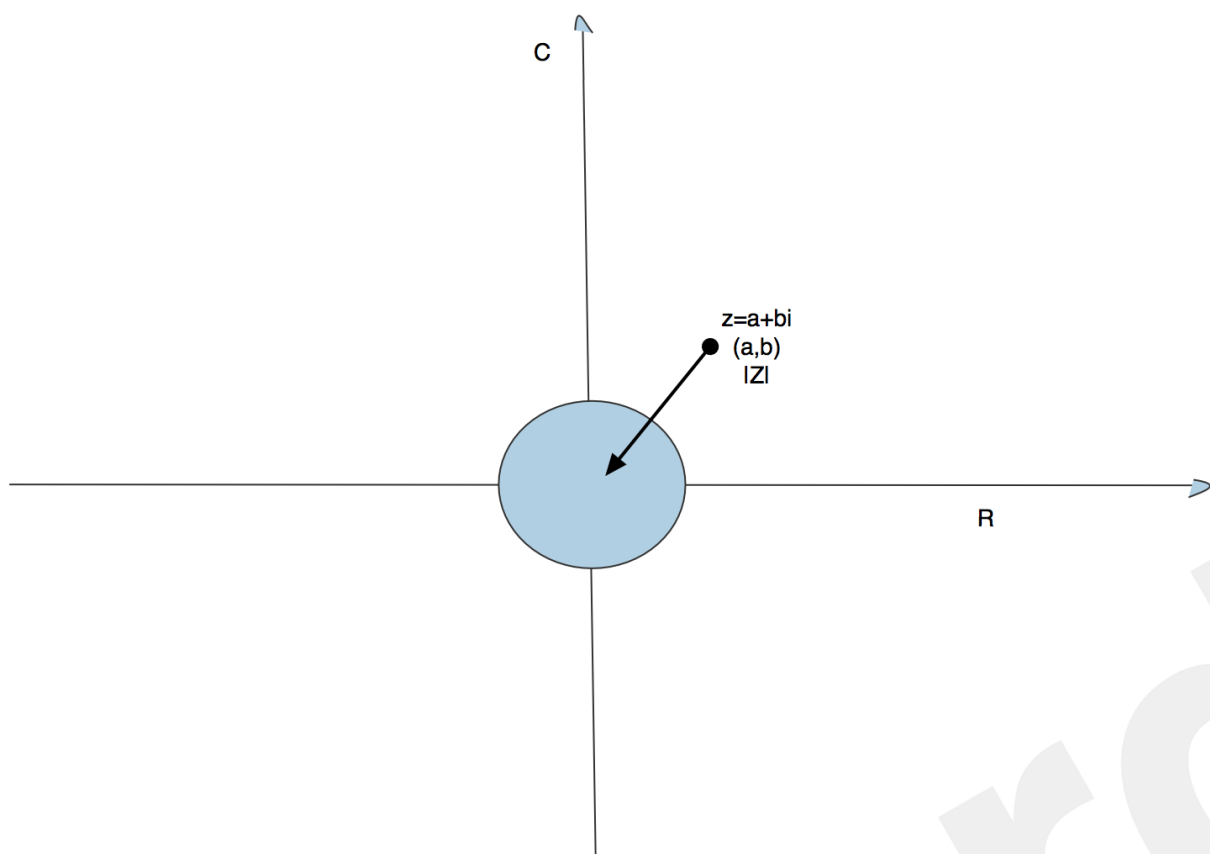


Figure 1: A caption

Remarks

- $MA(q)$ is stationary for all q
- $AR(p) = MA(\infty)$ if “stationary conditions” hold
- $MA(q) = AR(\infty)$ if “invertibility conditions” hold

Stationarity Conditions

we know $\phi(B)Y_t = \epsilon_t$, $Y_t = \frac{1}{\phi(B)}\epsilon_t$ (1) (inverse the function)

because any function has a powerseries representation we know

$$\frac{1}{\phi(B)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n B^n = \psi_0 + \psi_1 B + \psi_2 B^2 + \dots \equiv \psi(B)$$

let's substitute this into equation(1)

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t &= \psi(B)\epsilon_t \\ &= (\psi_0 + \psi_1 B + \psi_2 B^2 + \dots)\epsilon_t \\ &= \psi_0 \epsilon_t + \psi_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \psi_2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \psi_3 \epsilon_{t-3} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

if $\psi_0 = 1$, this looks like $MA(\infty)$.

In order for this to be useful, we require that $\psi_0 \epsilon_t + \psi_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \psi_2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \psi_3 \epsilon_{t-3} + \dots$ converges. This converges if $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n Z^n$ converges which happens if and only if the zeros(roots) of $\psi(Z)$ lie outside the unit circle in the complex plane.

Thus, an $AR(p)$ model can be written as an $MA(\infty)$ model is $\phi(Z)$, the AR generating function, has zeros outside the unit circle in the complex plane.

$$\phi(z) \neq 0 \text{ for any } Z \text{ such that } |Z| \leq 1$$

or equivalently $\phi(Z) = 0$ only for Z such that $|Z| > 1$ (stationary condition)

Invertibility Conditions

We know $Y_t = \theta(B)\epsilon_t$ if $\{Y_t\} \sim MA(q)$

$$\frac{1}{\theta(B)}Y_t = \epsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Because any function has a power series representation we know

$$\frac{1}{\theta(B)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n B^n = \lambda_0 + \lambda_1 B + \lambda_2 B^2 + \dots \equiv \lambda(B)$$

substituting this into equation(2) yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(B)Y_t &= \epsilon_t \\ (\lambda_0 + \lambda_1 B + \lambda_2 B^2 + \dots)Y_t &= \epsilon_t \\ \lambda_0 Y_t + \lambda_1 Y_{t-1} + \lambda_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots &= \epsilon_t \end{aligned}$$

if $\lambda_0 = 1$, this looks like $AR(\infty)$

In order for this to be useful we require $\lambda_0 Y_t + \lambda_1 Y_{t-1} + \lambda_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots$ to converge which happens if and only if the zeros of $\theta(Z)$ lie outside the unit circle in the complex plane.

Thus an $MA(q)$ model is invertible iff:

$$\theta(z) \neq 0 \text{ for any } Z \text{ such that } |Z| \leq 1$$

or equivalently $\theta(Z) = 0$ only for z such that $|Z| > 1$