# Time-series Analysis Notes

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## 1 Introduction

#### 1.1 Time-series definitions

**Definition 1.1** (Time series).

A time-series is a sequence of observations of time-indexed random variables  $(X_t)_{t\geq 0}$ . Typically, A time-series consists of three components.

- Trend  $(T_t)$ .
- Cycle  $(C_t)$ .
- $Seasonal(S_t)$ .

Finally, there is a random error (residual) term  $(R_t)$ . Note that for the sake of this course, we will hardly consider the cycle  $(C_t)$  term.

**Definition 1.2** (Multiplicative & Additive models).

The components of a time-series can be combined either additively or multiplicatively:

- Additive model:  $X_t = T_t + C_t + S_t + R_t$ .
- Multiplicative model:  $X_t = T_t \times C_t \times S_t \times R_t$ .

#### 1.2 Trend model

**Definition 1.3** (Trend model). \_

A trend model is defined as:

$$X_t = T_t + R_t$$

Remark: Consider the linear trend:

$$T_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t, \quad \beta_1 \neq 0$$

We can then estimate the time-series  $(X_t)_{t\geq 0}$  using the following methods:

• Method 1 : Least square estimate the trend component  $T_t$  by minimizing the sum squared error

$$SSE = \sum_{t>0} (X_t - T_t)^2$$

 $\bullet$   $\mathbf{Method}$   $\mathbf{2}$  : Eliminate the trend component via differencing operator.

**Definition 1.4** (Differencing operator).

We define the first difference operator  $\nabla$  by:

$$\nabla X_t = X_t - X_{t-1} = (I - B)X_t$$

Where I is the identity operator and B is the backward shift operator:

$$BX_t = X_{t-1}, \ B^i X_t = X_{t-i}$$

The i<sup>th</sup> order differencing operator is:

$$\nabla^i X_t = \nabla(\nabla^{i-1} X_t)$$

Note that  $\nabla^0 X_t = I$ .

#### Proposition 1.1: Binomial formula for $\nabla^n X_t$

Given a time-series  $(X_t)_{t\geq 0}$ , we can write the differenced data to the  $n^{th}$  order as followed:

$$\nabla^n X_t = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k B^k X_t = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k X_{t-k}$$

As a result, we can write:

$$X_{t} = \nabla^{n} X_{t} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k} X_{t-k}$$

**Proof** (Proposition 1.1).

Using the Binomial theorem, we have:

$$\nabla^{n} X_{t} = (I - B)^{n} X_{t}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} (I)^{n-k} (-B)^{k} X_{t} \quad (Binomial \ theorem)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k} B^{k} X_{t}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k} X_{t-k}$$

$$= X_{t} + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k} X_{t-k}$$

$$\implies X_{t} = \nabla^{n} X_{t} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k} X_{t-k}$$

 $\Box$ .

#### 1.3 Trend + Seasonality model

**Definition 1.5** (Trend + Seasonality model). \_\_\_\_\_\_ The model that displays both trend and seasonality is defined as:

$$X_t = T_t + S_t + R_t$$

There are two types of seasonality:

- Constant seasonality: degree of seasonality does not depend on time.
- Varying (increasing) seasonality: degree of seasonality depends on time.

**Remark**: When the time-series displays increasing seasonality, it is a common practice to transform the data so that the series display constant seasonality.

**Definition 1.6** (Box-Cox transformation). \_

For some  $\lambda > 0$ , the Box-Cox transformation is defined as:

$$z_t = \frac{x_t^{\lambda} - 1}{\lambda}$$

#### **Proposition 1.2: Box-Cox as** $\lambda \to 0$

As  $\lambda \to 0$ ,  $z_t \to \log(x_t)$ .

**Proof** (Proposition 1.2). \_

We can write:

$$\lim_{\lambda \to 0} e^{z_t} = \lim_{\lambda \to 0} \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{z_t}{n} \right)^n$$

$$= \lim_{\lambda \to 0} \left( 1 + \lambda z_t \right)^{1/\lambda} \quad \left( \text{Letting } n = \frac{1}{\lambda} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{\lambda \to 0} \left( 1 + (x^{\lambda} - 1) \right)^{1/\lambda} = x_t$$

$$\implies \lim_{\lambda \to 0} z_t = \log(x_t)$$

 $\Box$ .

### 1.4 Modelling seasonality using dummy variables

**Definition 1.7** (Dummy variables for seasonality). \_

The seasonal factor (supposing that there are L seasons) expressed using dummy variables can be written as:

$$S_t = \beta_1^{(s)} D_1(t) + \dots + \beta_{L-1}^{(s)} D_{L-1}(t)$$

Where we have:

$$D_k(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } t \text{ belongs to season } k \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We can write the time-series whose seasonality is modelled using dummy variables as:

$$X_t = T_t + \sum_{k=1}^{L-1} \beta_k^{(s)} D_k(t) + R_t$$

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**Remark**: Take a time-series with linear trend and seasonality modelled using dummy variables as an example. Suppose that we have 4 seasons, the time-series will take the form:

$$X_{t} = \underbrace{\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}t}_{T_{t}} + \underbrace{\beta_{1}^{(s)}D_{1}(t) + \beta_{2}^{(s)}D_{2}(t) + \beta_{3}^{(s)}D_{3}(t)}_{S_{t}} + R_{t}$$

We can estimate the parameters  $\beta = \left(\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_1^{(s)}, \beta_2^{(s)}, \beta_3^{(s)}\right)$  the same way we do for linear regression models:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} (X^T y), \quad X \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times 5}$$

Where T is the length of the time-series.

#### 1.5 Autocorrelation & autocorrelation function (ACF)

**Definition 1.8** (Autocovariance & Autocorrelation functions). Given a time-series  $(X_t)_{t\geq 0}$ , the autocovariance  $\gamma(h)$  and autocorrelation  $\rho(h)$  are defined as followed:

$$\gamma(h) = Cov\left(X_{t+h}, X_t\right)$$
$$\rho(h) = \frac{\gamma(h)}{Var(X_t)} = \frac{\gamma(h)}{\gamma(0)}$$

When we are given a set of observations  $(x_t)_{t=1}^n$ , we can estimate  $\gamma, \rho$  by using their sample counterparts:

$$\hat{\gamma}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n-h} (x_{t+h} - \overline{x})(x_t - \overline{x})$$

$$\hat{\rho}(h) = \frac{\hat{\gamma}(h)}{\hat{\gamma}(0)} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-h} (x_{t+h} - \overline{x})(x_t - \overline{x})}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (x_t - \overline{x})^2}$$

We have the following useful identities:

- $\gamma_0 = Var(X_t)$ .
- $\gamma_k = \gamma_{-k}$  (symmetric).
- $\rho_0 = 1$ .
- $\rho_k = \rho_{-k}$  (symmetric).

## 2 Stationary time-series

### 2.1 Strict vs. Weak stationarity

- $Mean: \mu(t) = \mathbb{E}[X_t], t \in T.$
- Covariance:  $\gamma(t,s) = Cov(X_t, X_s), t, s \in T.$
- Variance:  $\sigma^2(t) = \gamma(t,t) = Var(X_t), t \in T.$

**Definition 2.2** (Strict stationarity).

A time-series is said to be strictly stationary if,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, h \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have:

$$(X_1,\ldots,X_n)\stackrel{d}{\simeq}(X_{1+h},\ldots,X_{n+h})$$

Meaning the two tuples are equal in distribution.

**Remark**: Note that in practice, strict stationarity is often hard to achieve. Hence, we have some relaxed conditions for stationarity.

**Definition 2.3** (Weak stationarity). \_

A time-series  $(X_t)_{t\geq 0}$  is said to be weakly stationary if the following two conditions are met:

- $\mu(t)$  does not depend on t.
- $\gamma(t,h)$  does not depend on t for all  $h \in \mathbb{N}$ .

## 2.2 Moving Average - MA(q) model

**Definition 2.4** (White noise).

A process  $(Z_t)_{t \in T}$  is called **white noise** if it satisfies:

- $Cov(Z_t, Z_s)$  for all  $s \neq t$ .
- $Var(Z_t) = \sigma^2, \ \forall t \in T.$

We denote that  $Z_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$ .

**Definition 2.5** (MA(q) model). \_

The moving average of order q is defined as followed:

$$X_t = Z_t + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \theta_j Z_{t-j}, \ Z_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$$

**Remark**: The following propositions are proven to provide the insight into the properties of the MA(a) model.

Proposition 2.1: Stationarity of MA(q)

Proposition 2.2: Cut-off of ACF in MA(q)

A I	ist of Definitions
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D :	Important Propositions
1.1 1.2 2.1 2.2	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

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