

A Fast Primer on Time Series

(One Way To Deal With Time Correlated Data)

James Horine, M.S.

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A Reminder

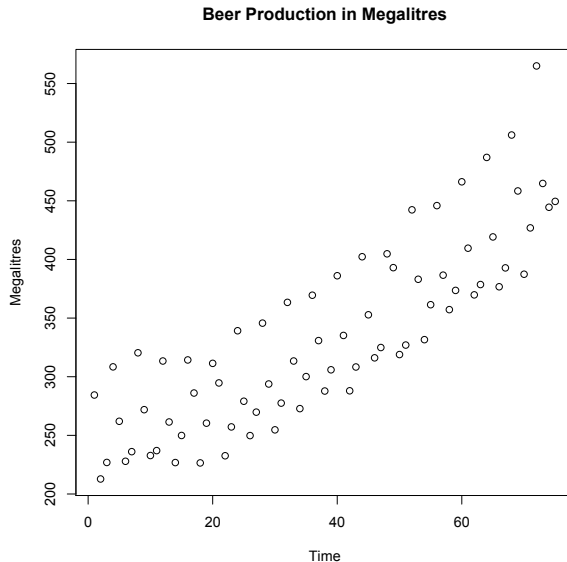
“Essentially, all models are wrong, but some are useful”

- Box

Quarterly Beer Production Data

The beer data may be seen from the R package

<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/fpp2/index.html> accompanying the second edition of "Forecasting: Principles and Practice."



Usual (Linear Model) Assumptions

In the usual regression setting, we may (and shall) assume:

- ▶ The observations are independent (from each other) and identically distributed
- ▶ The errors terms are IID *normal* with mean $\mu = 0$ and constant variance $\sigma^2 < \infty$
- ▶ Some sort of (intrinsically) linear relationship

With population model:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \beta\mathbf{X} + \epsilon$$

And “best” predictors (under the Gauss-Markov assumptions)

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

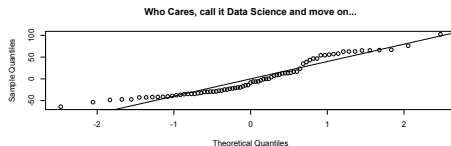
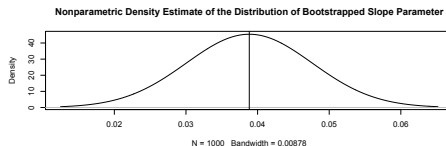
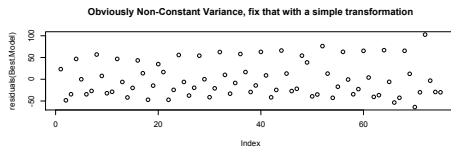
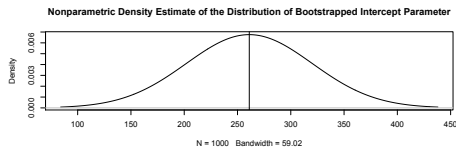
Lets Try A Linear Regression

The estimated population model is:

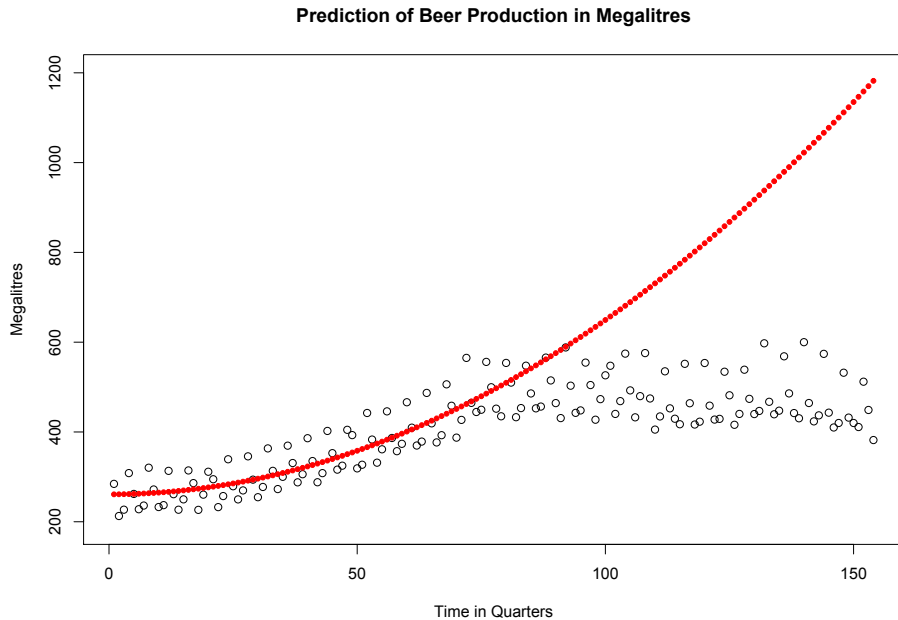
$$\text{Estimated Quarterly Beer Production} = 261.04917 + 0.038849(\text{Time})^2$$

Or, using the bootstrap with 1000 samples using 2.146 seconds of computing time:

$$\text{Estimated Quarterly Beer Production}^* = 261.0492 + 0.0388394(\text{Time})^2$$



Predictions Using the Best Linear Model



The Beer Data

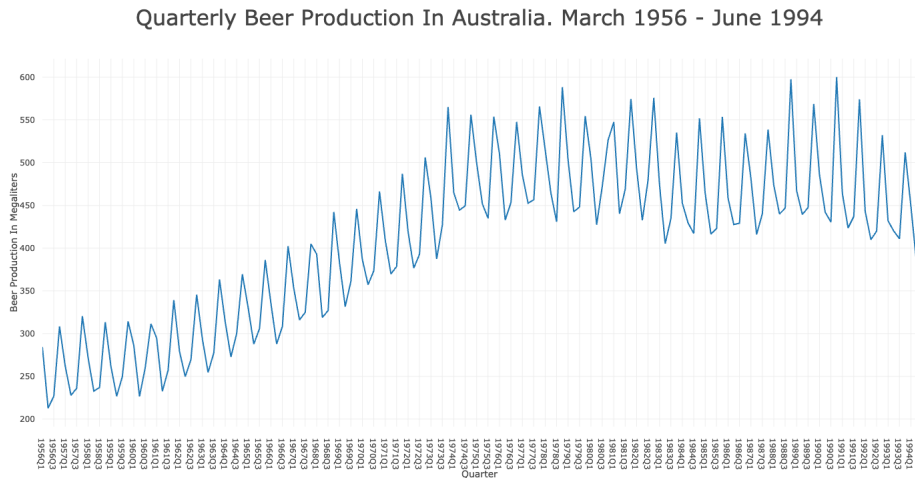


Figure: A more complete picture of the beer data...

Defⁿ: A Time Series

Formally a Time Series is a stochastic (random) process whose *regularly-spaced* realizations (random variables) are indexed by an ordered set T , (usually \mathbb{N}).

\implies What does that mean?

We will index EACH observation from the random process that we are interested in by the time we observe it, and record the value. So at time $T=\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, we record a measurement.

Some Time Series Preliminaries

Time Series, like many other modeling paradigms has a few basic assumptions.

- ▶ First, we ASSUME the observations to be correlated with each-other.
- ▶ Second, we assume (hope) the process is *stationary*. That is, the process has zero mean (or if not a zero mean, a mean level that may and shall be easily removed from the process), and the second moment of the process depends only on the *lag* between observations.

You may see the notation as: Let X_t be a stationary process with $E(X_t) = 0$, $E(X_t X_t) = \sigma_x^2$, and $E(X_t X_{t-k}) = \gamma_k$.

Notice that the first two moments are free of time! They are assumed to be constant throughout the process.

The Autoregressive Model

Autoregressive models are one of the most popular modeling paradigms in time series today. The autoregressive process of order P is defined as:

$$X_t = \alpha_1 X_{t-1} + \alpha_2 X_{t-2} + \dots + \alpha_p X_{t-p} + Z_t, \quad \text{where } Z_t \sim N(0, \sigma_Z^2)$$

Remember from the previous slide, when modeling an autoregressive process, we are concerned with weak (second order) stationary. That is, where we have a zero-mean process, or one that can be arithmetically centered to have zero mean, AND where the autocovariances do not evolve over time.

As a mathematical consequence, the AR(P) process is considered to be (casual) stationary if the roots of the back-shift operator polynomial are outside of the unit circle on the complex plane. That is the function

$$\phi(B) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^p \alpha_k B^k$$

where the α 's are the autoregressive weights, has roots with modulus greater than 1.

The Moving Average Model

Alternatively, we may model the process as a linear combination of past noise. Formally, a moving average process of order Q is defined as

$$X_t = Z_t + \beta_1 Z_{t-1} + \beta_2 Z_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_p Z_{t-p}, \quad \text{where } Z_t \sim WN(0, \sigma_Z^2)$$

Estimation of the model parameters for a MA(Q) process is messy as the shocks or innovations or errors are NOT observable. Moreover, It may be shown that an any MA(Q) may be represented as an AR(P) (and vice versa). Therefore, we may (and shall) approximate any MA(Q) process with an AR(P) of sufficiently high order.

Besides, the theory dealing with an AR(P) is just more fun.

Model Identifiably

We intentionally glossed over some key points earlier. Lets revisit them now. Most of the Greek letters used here are just definitions and notation - nothing too wild.

Let X_t be, at least, a weakly stationary process with

- ▶ Mean $E(X_t) = 0$
- ▶ Variance $E(X_t X_t) = \sigma_x^2$
- ▶ Autocovariance $E(X_t X_{t-k}) = \gamma_k$.

We will normalize the autocovariance by dividing out by the autocovariance at lag 0 to obtain the *Autocorrelation Function*.

Additionally we call the *partial* autocorrelation function as

$$pACF_k = \frac{\text{Corr}(X_t, X_{t+k} | X_{t+1}, \dots, X_{t+k-1})}{\text{Cov}(X_t, X_t)}$$

It may be easily shown that:

- ▶ The pACF “Shuts Off” at lag $P+1$ for a true AR(P) process.
- ▶ The ACF “Shuts Off” at lag $Q+1$ for a true MA(Q) process.

Estimation

Estimation of model parameters is easily carried out through the use of the Yule-Walker Equations, Ordinary Least Squares, or (and more complicatedly) Maximum Likelihood Estimation. Most software packages, including R, allow the user to specify which estimation procedure to use.

The Yule-Walker Equations are formulated as multiplying random variables of the process by lagged random variables, taking expectation, and dividing through by $N-1$. You may choose to divide the system again by the constant $E(X_t X_t) = \langle X_t X_t \rangle = \gamma_0$ and instead work with correlations, opposed to covariances.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 \\ \gamma_3 \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_p \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_{-1} & \gamma_{-2} & \dots \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \gamma_{-1} & \dots \\ \gamma_2 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \gamma_{p-1} & \gamma_{p-2} & \gamma_{p-3} & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}$$

Identification

The “Shut Off” behavior of the ACF and pACF for generating processes gives us Autoregressive and Moving Average “Signature.”

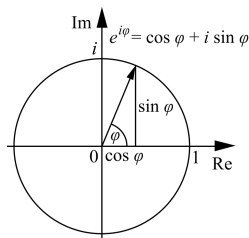
- ▶ AR(P):
 - ▶ Long damped sinusoidal or exponential decay in the ACF.
 - ▶ Abrupt Shut Off in the pACF at order P.
- ▶ MA(Q):
 - ▶ Long damped sinusoidal or exponential decay in the pACF.
 - ▶ Abrupt Shut Off in the ACF and order Q.
- ▶ ARMA(P,Q): Long damped sinusoidal or exponential decay *potentially* seen in both ACF and pACF.

Identification and Implications of the Backshift Operator Polynomial

Recall the AR backshift polynomial:

$$\Phi(B) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^p \alpha_k B^k$$

where the α 's are the autoregressive weights. This polynomial has roots in \mathbb{C} .



The *modulus* of a root relates to the strength of that component of process, the closer to 1 in modulus the root is, the closer to non-invertible the system becomes and thus more explosive. The angle ψ yields a periodicity. Remember that roots in the complex plane arrive in conjugate pairs, except for when $\psi = 0$ or π , in which case we see no periodicity or infinite periodicity.

An AR(P) process will have P-many roots-pairs and periodicities!

Identification and The Sample Spectrum

Moving from the Time Domain to the Frequency Domain is facilitated through the use of the Fourier Transform of the *data*. Taking the modulus squared Fourier transform of the data IS the same as taking the Fourier transform of the autocovariance sequence.

Let the Sample Spectral Density or Periodogram be given as:

$$\begin{aligned} I_{n\omega_k} &= \frac{1}{n} \left| \sum_{n=1}^N X_n e^{-i\omega_k t} \right|^2 \\ &= \sum_{|h| < N} \gamma_h e^{-ih\omega_k} \end{aligned}$$

Where $\omega_k = \frac{2\pi}{n}$

The theoretical spectral density is given by:

$$f(\omega) = \frac{\sigma_z^2}{2\pi} \frac{|\Theta e^{-i\omega}|^2}{|\Phi e^{-i\omega}|^2}$$

Where Θ is the MA backshift operator polynomial and Φ is the AR backshift operator polynomial. Roots in Θ yield dips in the spectral density, and roots in Φ yield peaks!

The Beer Data One Last Time

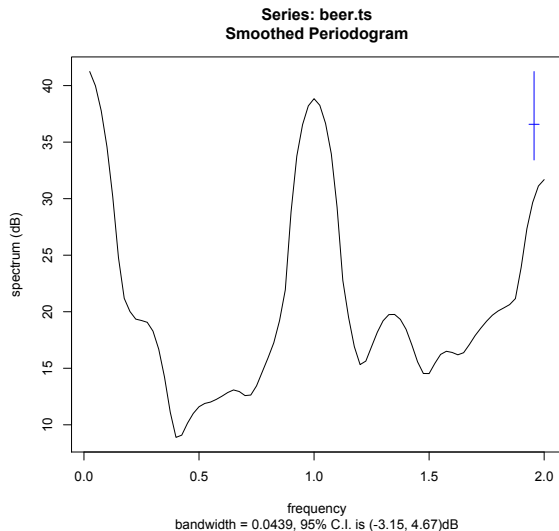
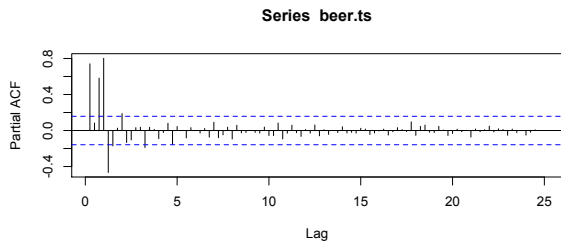
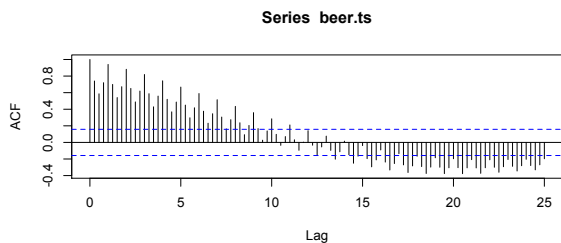


Figure: Sample ACF/pACF and Sample Periodogram

The Fitted Model

Series: beer.ts

ARIMA(4,0,1)(0,1,0)[4] with drift

Coefficients:

	ar1	ar2	ar3	ar4	ma1	drift
	0.0680	0.3024	0.3829	-0.1814	-0.0911	1.1036
s.e.	0.3008	0.0799	0.1069	0.1434	0.2973	0.7556

sigma² estimated as 312.5: log likelihood=-624.95

AIC=1263.9 AICc=1264.69 BIC=1284.97

Beer R Code

```
#Time Series Beer Code!
require(forecast)
beer <- read.table("/Users/jimmy/Desktop/beer_data.csv", sep=",", header=T)
beer.ts <- ts(beer$Megalitres, frequency=4, start=c(1956,1))
plot.ts(beer.ts)

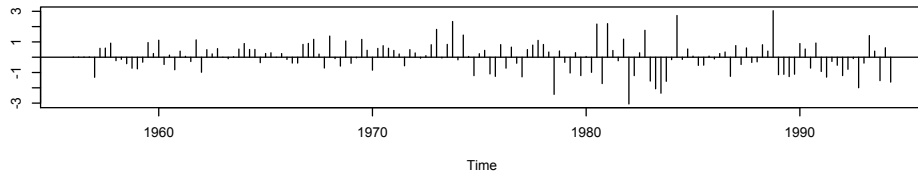
#Some Sample Statistics
par(mfrow=c(2,1))
acf(beer.ts, lag.max=100)
pacf(beer.ts, lag.max=100)
par(mfrow=c(1,1))
spec.pgram(beer.ts, spans=c(5,5), taper=.15, log="dB")

#Examining the data for trend components
beer.decomp <- decompose(beer.ts, type="additive")
plot(beer.decomp)

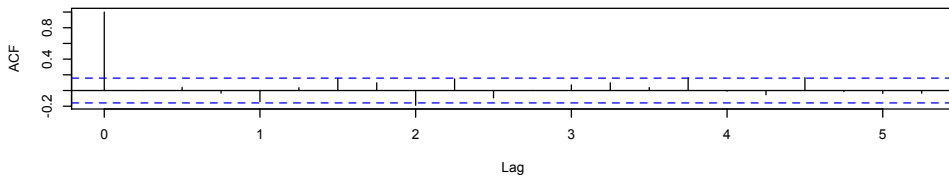
#fitting an ARIMA model using the forecast package
beer.model <- Arima(beer.ts, order=c(4,0,1), seasonal=c(0,1,0), include.drift=TRUE)
beer.model
tsdiag(beer.model)
beer.forecasts <- forecast(beer.model)
plot(beer.forecasts)
```

Beer Model Diagnostics

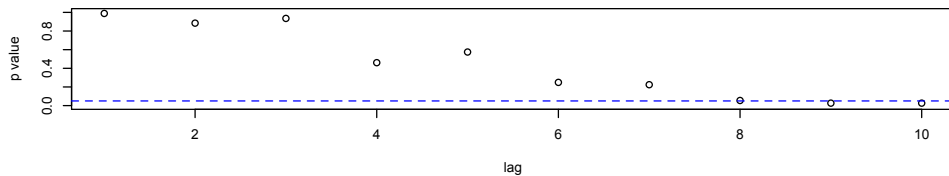
Standardized Residuals



ACF of Residuals



p values for Ljung-Box statistic



Beer Model Forecasts

Forecasts from ARIMA(4,0,1)(0,1,0)[4] with drift

