

Coursera: Time Series Analysis

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1 Stationarity

Suppose we have a time series $X \equiv \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ and the following notation:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(t) &\equiv \mu_t \equiv \mathbb{E}[X_t] \\ \sigma^2(t) &\equiv \sigma_t^2 \equiv \text{Var}[X_t] \\ \gamma(s, t) &\equiv \text{Cov}[X_s, X_t] \equiv \mathbb{E}[(X_s - \mu_s)(X_t - \mu_t)]\end{aligned}$$

where γ is known as the *autocovariance function*.

Definition (Strict Stationarity). X is strictly stationary if the joint distribution of $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k\}$ equals that of $\{X_{1+\tau}, X_{2+\tau}, \dots, X_{k+\tau}\}$.

If X is strictly stationary, then the X_i are identically distributed (though not necessarily independent). This implies the functions μ_t and σ_t^2 are both constant. Can also show the autocovariance function only depends on the *lag* spacing. That is, $\gamma(s, t)$ depends only on $\tau \equiv |s - t|$. Can write $\gamma(\tau)$ by slight abuse of notation.

Definition (Weak Stationarity). X is weakly stationary if the following conditions hold.

1. μ_t is constant
2. σ_t^2 is constant
3. $\gamma(s, t)$ depends only on $\tau \equiv |s - t|$

Thus, strict stationarity implies weak stationarity, but we will only consider weak stationarity.

Example. Some common stochastic processes:

- White noise **is** stationary: $X_t \sim \text{iid}(0, \sigma^2)$
- Random walks are **not** stationary: $X_t = \sum_{i=1}^t Z_i$, where $Z_t \sim \text{iid}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, since $\mu_t = \mu t$ and $\sigma_t^2 = \sigma^2 t$
- MA(q) process **is** stationary (which we will get to next)

2 MA(q) processes

Intuitively, an MA(q) process is a weighted average of current and prior “white noise” movements. Formally,

$$X_t = \beta_0 Z_t + \dots + \beta_q Z_{t-q}$$

for $Z_t \sim \text{iid}(0, \sigma^2)$, constants β_i .

Proof of stationarity: By linearity μ_t is constant (and zero) and by independence σ_t^2 is constant.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}[X_s, X_t] &= \mathbb{E}[X_s X_t] - \mathbb{E}[X_s] \mathbb{E}[X_t] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X_s X_t] \\ \implies \text{Cov}[X_t, X_{t+k}] &= \sigma^2 \sum_{i=0}^{q-k} \beta_i \beta_{i+k} \end{aligned}$$

which depends only on k .

3 AR(p) processes

Intuitively, an AR(p) process is a weighted average of its own previous values plus some additional noise. Formally,

$$X_t = Z_t + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p X_{t-p}$$

for $Z_t \sim \text{iid}(0, \sigma^2)$, constants ϕ_i .

A random walk is a (trivial) example of an AR(1) process. Thus, not all AR processes are stationary.

4 Backshift Operator

For sake of convenient notation, we define the backshift operator B so that

$$\begin{aligned} B X_t &= X_{t-1} \\ B^k X_t &= X_{t-k} \end{aligned}$$

MA(q) process:

$$\boxed{X_t = \beta(B)Z_t} \quad \text{where } \beta(B) \equiv \beta_0 + \beta_1 B + \dots + \beta_q B^q.$$

AR(p) process:

$$\boxed{\Phi(B)X_t = Z_t} \quad \text{where } \Phi(B) \equiv 1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p$$

5 Relating MA(q) and AR(p) processes

Theorem. *AR(p) processes are MA(∞) processes.*

Proof. Given an AR(p) process we can write

$$X_t = \frac{1}{\Phi(B)} Z_t$$

Since $\frac{1}{\Phi(B)}$ is of the form $\frac{1}{1-f(B)}$ for some operator f , by Taylor expansion, this fraction is equal to $1 + \theta_1 B + \theta_2 B^2 + \dots$ for some constants θ_i .

Thus, we have $X_t = (1 + \theta_1 B + \theta_2 B^2 + \dots) Z_t \in MA(\infty)$ □

Corollary. *For an AR(p) process, the following hold true.*

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_t &= 0 \\ \sigma_t^2 &= \sigma^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \theta_i^2 \\ \gamma(\tau) &= \sigma^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \theta_i \theta_{i+\tau} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem. *An AR(p) process is stationary if all of the roots of $\Phi(B)$ lie outside the unit circle.*

One can introduce a similar idea of *invertibility* that transforms an MA process to an AR process, and one can similarly show that an MA process is invertible if the roots of $\beta(B)$ lie outside the unit circle.

6 Estimating Parameters and Judging Models

Given a time series, how can we determine the *order* of an $MA(q)$ or $AR(p)$ process?

For an $MA(q)$ process, the ACF cuts off after q lags.

For an $AR(p)$ process, the PACF cuts off after p lags.

We can use the *Yule-Walker* equations to determine a closed form of the ACF (and thus the coefficients ϕ_i). Note, however, that this assumes a stationary process. Yule-Walker can be solved for using matrix algebra.

We can judge the quality of a fitted model using Akaike Information (AIC).