# Time Series Analysis

## What is time series

A collection of stochastic random variables indexed by time, their stochastic distributions are similar but not the same, the data are correlated across time. In plain words, time series refers to a series of data points, for which they follow some kind of distribution.

The goal for studying time series, is really to investigate in those data points, and try to figure out its underlying distribution, and internal correlation

## Important Characteristics

- 1. Trend
- 2. Seasonality
- 3. Periodicity
- 4. Cyclical Trend
- 5. Heteroskedasticity
- 6. Dependence

## Presentation & Basic Decomposition

 $Y_t$ , in which t indexes time:  $Y_t = m_t + s_t + x_t$ , with:

 $m_t$  — trend component, trend means that over the time scope, the values are going up or going down,

 $s_t$  — seasonal component, seasonality means that it is a periodicity movement, it has a circle of appearance, within the circle, the overall trend should be zero.

 $x_t$  — stationary component, stationary means still, it pictures the characteristic that the component is not changing its value

## Estimate the trend

- 1. Moving Average: estimate the trend with a moving window
- 2. Parametric Regression fit in a polynomial regression to estimate
- 3. Non-Parametric Approach
  - Kernel Regression
  - Local Polynomial Regression
  - Other Approaches

Example: Temperature Data 1. Read the data file in R

- 2. Visualize the data (Avg Temp)
- 3. Estimate the trend (Moving Average)
- 4. Estimate the trend (Parametric)
- 5. Estimate the trend (Non-Parametric)
- 6. Comparison

# Estimate the Seaonality

General Approach: estimate and subtract  $m_t$  and  $s_t$ 

1. Seasonal Average  $\hat{s}_k = w_k - \frac{1}{d} \sum_{j=1}^d w_j$ 

the seasonality is monthly, then d = 12  $w_k$ : the average of all seasonal group value

2. Parametric Regression

Example: Temperature Data

- 1. Read the data file in R
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k: the seasonal group, let's say it has d groups. If Estimate the Stationary

# Important Concepts in Time Series

## 1. Auto Correlation Function (ACF)

Like correlation or covariance, the auto correlation between 2 variables can be expressed as:

$$\gamma(s,t) = Cov(X_s, X_t) = E[(X_s - \mu_s)(X_t - \mu_t)]$$
  
$$\gamma(t,t) = Var[X_t] = \sigma^2$$

then we have the auto correlation defined as:  $\gamma_k = \gamma(t,t+k) \approx c_k \to \frac{\sum (x_t - \bar{x})(x_{t+k} - \bar{x})}{N}$ 

The underlying assumption is that the time series is stationary, therefore, across all k time horizon, this auto correlation relationship exist

## 2. Auto Correlation Coefficient

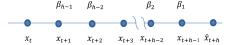
Following the auto correlation, the auto correlation coefficient can be defined as:  $\rho_K = \frac{\gamma_k}{\gamma_0} \approx r_k \to \frac{c_k}{c_0}$ 

## 3. Partial Auto Correlation Function (PACF)

For a series of data, we can do things like:

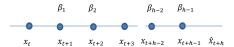
## We first start at a point and look backwards:

 $\hat{x}_{t+h} = \beta_1 x_{t+h-1} + \beta_2 x_{t+h-2} + \dots + \beta_{h-1} x_{t+1}$ Note that  $\beta$  is how far away from target variables



## Then we try looking forwards:

 $x_t = \beta_1 x_{t+1} + \beta_2 x_{t+2} + \dots + \beta_{h-1} x_{t+h-1}$ Note that  $\beta$  is how far away from target variables



# Finally we remove the predict and see residual:

 $Corr[(x_{t+h} - \hat{x}_{t+h}), (x_t - \hat{x}_t)]$ 

Therefore, this model measure the correlation with a lag, without accounting for the effect of variables in between.

Take away: Partial Out a variable, what PACF measures

### 4. Random Walk

$$X_t = X_{t-1} + Z_t$$

Z as the white noise, X as stock price

$$X_t = \sum_{i=1}^t Z_i$$

we can interpret X as accumulated white noise

 $E[X_t] = \mu t$ ,  $Var[X_t] = \sigma^2 t$ 

## 5. Moving Average Process: q

How long back need to trace, to have weighted average: The longer we trace back, distribution be smoother: For instance, the MA(2) process is correlated back in 2 steps: 9.  $X_t = Z_t + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \theta_2 Z_t - 2$  $Z_t \sim N(0,1)$ 

Moving Average is Weakly Stationary:

$$cov(X_t, X_{t+k}) = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=0}^{q-k} \beta_i \beta_{i+k}$$

### 6. Autoregressive Process: p

How long back need to trace, to have weighted average:

The longer we trace back, distribution be smoother: Example: random walk: build on historical value

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

$$Z_t = (1 - \phi_1 B + \dots + + \phi_p B^p) X_t = \Phi(B) X_t$$

$$X_t = \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \phi_1 B + \dots + + \phi_n B^p)} Z_t = (1 + \theta_1 B + \theta_2 B^2 + \dots) Z_t$$

Then we have:  $E[X_t] = 0$ ;  $Var[X_t] = \sigma_z^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \theta_i^2$  $\gamma(k) = \sigma_z^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \theta_i \theta_{i+k}$ ;  $\rho(k) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \theta_i \theta_{i+k}}{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \theta_i \theta_i}$ 

## 7. ARMA (q+p) Models

 $X_t Noise + AR + MA$ 

 $X_t = Z_t + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q}$ In terms of back function, we have:

$$AR : \phi(B)X_t = X_t - \phi_1 X_{t-1} - \dots - \phi_p X_{t-p} \\ MA : \theta(B)Z_t = Z_t + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q} \\ ARMA : \theta(B)Z_t = \phi(B)X_t$$

The goal of backward shift function is to transform a mix process to MA process:

$$\frac{\theta(B)}{\phi(B)}Z_t = X_t$$
; or :  $\frac{\phi(B)}{\theta(B)}Z_t = Z_t$ 

We can solve by geometric Series Transformation

## 8. ARIMA (q+p) Models

From ARMA

ARMA

$$X_t = Z_t + \phi_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p X_{t-p} + \theta_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q Z_{t-q}$$
  
$$\theta(B) Z_t = \phi(B) X_t$$

we expect  $\beta(z)$  and  $\phi(z)$  have all roots lie outside unit circle, z is a complex number. Such that ARMA(q,p) is stationary and invertible

We loose the stationary constraint, introduce difference operator  $\nabla$ :

$$\nabla X_t = X_t - X_{t-1} = (1-B)X_t$$
 for random walk:  $X_t = X_{t-1} + Z_t \equiv \nabla X_t = Z_t$ 

Then we define ARIMA(p,d,q) process:

$$X_t \to s.t. \to Y_t = \nabla^d X_t = (1-B)^d X_t$$
 is ARMA(p,q)

$$ARIMA : \phi(B)\nabla^d X_t = \beta(B)Z_t$$
  
or :  $\phi(B)(1-B)^d X_t = \beta(B)Z_t$ 

ARIMA is a process, when trend is removed, be ARMA d: order of differencing, usually =1 or =2over differencing may introduce dependence, and we decide whether differencing is needed by looking at ACF (when there is a slow decay)

#### SARIMA Processes: Seasonality

First we look at the seasonal ARMA process:  $ARMA(P,Q)_s: \Phi_P(B^s)X_t = \Theta_O(B^s)Z, with:$  $\Phi_P(B^s) = 1 - \Phi_1 B^s - \Phi_2 B^{2s} - \dots - \Phi_P B^{Ps}$  $\Theta_Q(B^s) = 1 + \Theta_1 B^s + \Theta_2 B^{2s} + \dots + \Theta_Q B^{Qs}$ 

Then we look at the seasonal ARIMA Process:  $SARIMA(p,d,q,P,D,Q)_s$ :

$$\Phi_P(B^S)\phi_P(B)(1-B^S)^D(1-B)^dX_t = \Theta_Q(B^S)\theta_q(B)Z_t$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \Phi_P(B^s) = 1 - \Phi_1 B^s - \Phi_2 B^{2s} - \ldots - \Phi_P B^{Ps} \\ \phi_P(B) = 1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \ldots - \phi_P B^P \\ \Theta_Q(B^s) = 1 + \Theta_1 B^s + + \Theta_2 B^{2s} + \ldots + + \Theta_Q B^{Qs} \\ \theta_q(B) = 1 + \theta_1 B + \theta_2 B^2 + \ldots + \theta_Q B^q \\ \text{In which the capital terms are seasonal part} \end{array}$$

Now we look at the ACF of SARIMA:

Ex: we have seasonality of 12, then we also have some acf at 11

## 10. Strict Stationary

Definition: shifted distribution is the same:

$$\begin{array}{l} P\{X(t_1), X(t_2) \dots X(t_k)\} = P\{X(t_{1+\tau}), X(t_{2+\tau}) \dots X(t_{k+\tau})\} \\ \mu(t) = \mu \; ; \; \sigma^2(t) = \sigma^2 \; ; \gamma(t_1, t_2) = \gamma(t_2 - t_1) = \gamma(\tau) \\ \text{Which leads to the properties:} \end{array}$$

- 1. random variables are **independently** distributed
- 2. the mean and variance function is identical
- 3. the covariance (ACF) depends only on lag spaces

## 11. Weak Stationary

Definition: constant mean and ACF

## 12. Backward Shift Operator

 $BX_t = X_{t-1}$ ;  $B^2X_t = X_{t-2}$ ;  $B^kX_t = X_{t-k}$ Further decompose the equation, we can have relationship between X and Z: For MA(q):

 $X_t - \mu = \beta(B)Z_t$  $\beta(B) = \phi_0 + \phi_1 B + \dots + \phi_n B^q$ 

For AR(p):  $\phi(B)X_t = Z_t$ 

$$\phi(B) = 1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \dots - \phi_p B^p$$

### 13. Invertibility

#### Definition:

Stochastic process:  $\{X_t\}$ ,

Innovation (random process):  $\{Z_t\}$ 

if 
$$Z_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \pi_k X_{t-k}$$
 (AR), then  $\{X_t\}$  invertible

We try to see if we can make the invert:

#### Invert a MA process to AR process:

- 1. First try to express  $Z_t$  using  $X_t, X_{t-1}$
- 2. Change the  $Z_t$  in MA definition using  $X_{t-1}$
- 3. Therefore we change MA to a AR

#### 14. Duality

a). Invertibility Condition for MA(q)

 $\beta(B) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 B + \dots + \beta_q B^q$ 

its roots all lies **outside** in unit circle,  $\rightarrow$ , invertible

b). Stationarity Condition for AR(p)

 $\phi(B) = 1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \dots - \phi_p B^p$ 

its roots all lies **outside** in unit circle,  $\rightarrow$ , invertible

c). How MA and AR are related

if Invertible:  $MA(q) \longrightarrow AR(\infty)$ if Stationary:  $AR(p) \longrightarrow MA(\infty)$ 

## 15. Mean-Square Convergence

## 16. Difference Equation

Recall the way we solve recursive series for general form Difference equation is dealing with the same problems.

## 17. Yule-Walker Equations

A set of Difference Equations, that governs AR's ACF It is useful in estimating AR's parameters:

1. AR(p):

$$X_t = \phi_0 + \phi_1 x_{t-1} + \phi_2 x_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p x_{t-p} + Z_t$$

## $2.\ {\bf Expectation\ Form}$ :

$$\mu = \phi_0 + \phi_1 \mu + \phi_2 \mu + \dots + \phi_p \mu + 0$$

3. Subtract and redefine variable :

$$X_t - \mu = 0 + \phi_1(x_{t-1} - \mu) + \dots + \phi_p(x_{t-p} - \mu) + Z_t$$

$$\sim x_t = x_t - \mu \; ; \; E[\sim x_t = 0]$$

$$\sim x_t = \phi_1 \sim x_{t-1} + \phi_2 \sim x_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p \sim x_{t-p} + Z_t$$

4. Since the new process is stationary its ACF follows the Yule-Walker Equation:

$$\rho(k) = \phi_1 \rho(k-1) + \phi_2 \rho(k-2) + \dots + \phi_p \rho(k-p)$$

5. fitting in k = 1,2,...p and since  $\rho(k) = \rho(-k)$  this gives us a matrix form.

we can use sample to solve and estimate all the  $\Phi$ 

## 18. Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

This is measuring whether a model is good enough, we can see it as some sort of scores for deciding which model to explain the data

#### 19. Q-Statistics

Original Q statistics:

$$Q^*(m) = T \sum l = 1^m r_l^2$$

for null hypothesis:  $H_0: \rho_1 = \rho_2 = ... = \rho_m = 0$  alternative hypothesis:  $H_1: some \rho_i \neq 0$ 

when  $r_t$  is i.i.d:  $Q^*(m) \sim \chi^2(df = m)$ 

Ljung and Box Q statistics:

$$Q(m) = T(T+2) \sum_{l=1}^{m} \frac{r_l^2}{T-l}$$
 reject null hypothesis, when:

$$Q(m) > \chi_{\alpha}^2$$

usually: we use  $m \approx log(T)$ 

## 20. Putting it all together:

- 1. Trend: there is a trend, we may want differencing
- 2. Variation of variance: transformation is needed, such as log transformation
- 3. ACF: tells us the order of MA
- 4. PACF: tells us the order of AR
- 5. AIC: tells us which model seems to be better, but remember to consider whether it is worthy to introduce the complexity
- 6. SSE:
- 7. Ljung-Box Q-statistics
- 8. Estimation

## 21. Prediction: Exponential Smoothing:

- 1. Simple Exponential Smoothing
- 2. Second Exponential Smoothing
- 3. Third Exponential Smoothing

Take Away: explain SES