Time Series Cheat Sheet

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Basic concepts

Definitions

Time series - succession of observations ordered in time with a fixed frequency.

Given the format of a time series:

- Point-in-time (stock) a single value is recorded for each period.
- **Aggregated** (flow) values represent totals or averages over the period.
- Range/interval (OHLC) each period records multiple summary statistics, such as min, max, open, close.

Stochastic process - a sequence of random variables that are indexed in time.

Components of a time series

- Trend the long-term general movement of a series.
- Seasonal variations periodic oscillations that are produced in a period equal to or inferior than a year, and can be easily identified across different years (usually the result of climatology).
- Cyclical variations periodic oscillations that are produced in a period greater than a year (are the result of the economic cycle).
- **Residual variations** movements that do not follow a recognizable periodic oscillation (irregular events).

Type of time series models

• **Static models** - the relation between *y* and *x* is contemporary. Conceptually:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t$$

• **Distributed-lag models** - the relation between y and x is not contemporary. Conceptually:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \beta_2 x_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_s x_{t-(s-1)} + u_t$$

The long-term cumulative effect in y when Δx is:

$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \cdots + \beta_s$$

• **Dynamic models** - lags of the dependent variable (endogeneity). Conceptually:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_s y_{t-s} + u_t$$

• Combinations of the above, like the rational distributed-lag models (distributed-lag + dynamic).

Assumptions and properties

OLS model assumptions under time series

Under these assumptions, the OLS estimator will present good properties. **Gauss-Markov assumptions** extended for time series:

- t1. Parameters linearity and weak dependence.
 - a. y_t must be a linear function of the β 's.
 - b. The stochastic $\{(x_t, y_t) : t = 1, 2, ..., T\}$ is stationary and weakly dependent.
- t2. No perfect collinearity.
 - There are no independent variables that are constant: $Var(x_j) \neq 0, \ \forall j = 1, \dots, k$
 - There is no exact linear relation between independent variables.
- t3. Conditional mean zero and correlation zero.
 - a. There are no systematic errors: $E(u \mid x_1, ..., x_k) = E(u) = 0 \rightarrow \text{strong exogeneity}$ (a implies b).
 - b. There are no relevant variables left out of the model: $Cov(x_j, u) = 0, \ \forall j = 1, \dots, k \to \mathbf{weak} \ \mathbf{exogeneity}.$
- t4. **Homoscedasticity**. The variability of the residuals is the same for any x: $Var(u \mid x_1, ..., x_k) = \sigma_u^2$
- t5. **No autocorrelation**. Residuals do not contain information about any other residuals:

$$Corr(u_t, u_s \mid x_1, \dots, x_k) = 0, \ \forall t \neq s$$

- t6. **Normality**. Residuals are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.): $u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_u^2)$
- t7. **Data size**. The number of observations available must be greater than (k+1) parameters to estimate. (It is already satisfied under asymptotic situations)

Asymptotic properties of OLS

Under the econometric model assumptions and the Central Limit Theorem:

- Hold t1 to t3a: OLS is **unbiased**. $E(\hat{\beta}_j) = \beta_j$
- Hold t1 to t3: OLS is **consistent**. $plim(\hat{\beta}_j) = \beta_j$ (to t3b left out t3a, weak exogeneity, biased but consistent)
- Hold t1 to t5: **Asymptotic normality** of OLS (then, t6 is necessarily satisfied): $u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_u^2)$
- Hold t1 to t5: Unbiased estimate of σ_u^2 . $E(\hat{\sigma}_u^2) = \sigma_u^2$
- Hold t1 to t5: OLS is BLUE (Best Linear Unbiased Estimator) or efficient.
- Hold t1 to t6: Hypothesis testing and confidence intervals can be done reliably.

Trends and seasonality

Spurious regression - is when the relation between y and x is due to factors that affect y and have a correlation with x, $Corr(x_i, u) \neq 0$. Is the **non-fulfilment of t3**.

Trends

Two time series can have the same (or contrary) trend, which should lead to a high level of correlation. This can provoke a false appearance of causality; the problem is **spurious regression**. Given the model:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t$$

where:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{Trend} + v_t$$

 $x_t = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{Trend} + v_t$

Adding a trend to the model can solve the problem:

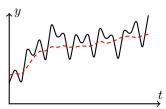
$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \beta_2 \text{Trend} + u_t$$

The trend can be linear or non-linear (quadratic, cubic, exponential, etc.)

Another way is to make use of the **Hodrick-Prescott fil**ter to extract the trend and the cyclical component.

Seasonality

A time series with can manifest seasonality. That is, the series is subject to a seasonal variations or patterns, usually related to climatology conditions.



For example, GDP (black) is usually higher in summer and lower in winter. Seasonally adjusted series (dashed red) for comparison.

• Regressing time series that present seasonality can lead to spurious results.

A simple **seasonal adjustment** could be creating stationary binary variables and adding them to the model. For example, for quarterly series $(Qq_t \text{ are binary variables})$:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Q 2_t + \beta_2 Q 3_t + \beta_3 Q 4_t + \beta_4 x_{1t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$$

Another way is to seasonally adjust (sa) the variables, and then, do the regression with the adjusted variables:

$$z_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}Q2_{t} + \beta_{2}Q3_{t} + \beta_{3}Q4_{t} + v_{t} \rightarrow \hat{v}_{t} + E(z_{t}) = \hat{z}_{t}^{sa}$$
$$\hat{y}_{t}^{sa} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}\hat{x}_{1t}^{sa} + \cdots + \beta_{k}\hat{x}_{kt}^{sa} + u_{t}$$

There are much better and complex methods to seasonally adjust a time series, like the **X-13ARIMA-SEATS**.

Autocorrelation

The residual of any observation, u_t , is correlated with the residual of any other observation. The observations are not independent. Is the **non-fulfilment** of **t5**.

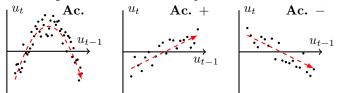
$$Corr(u_t, u_s \mid x_1, \dots, x_k) = Corr(u_t, u_s) \neq 0, \ \forall t \neq s$$

Consequences

- OLS estimators are still unbiased.
- OLS estimators are still consistent.
- OLS is **not efficient** any more, but still a LUE (Linear Unbiased Estimator).
- Variance estimations of the estimators are biased: the construction of confidence intervals and the hypothesis testing is not reliable.

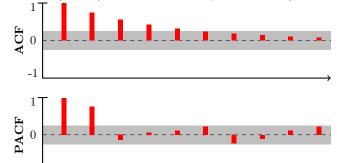
Detection

Scatter plots - look for scatter patterns on u_{t-1} vs. u_t .



Correlogram - autocorrela- • Y axis: correlation. tion function (ACF) and par- • X axis: lag number. tial ACF (PACF).

- Grey area: $\pm 1.96/T^{0.5}$



- MA(q) process. ACF: only the first q coefficients are significant, the remaining are abruptly cancelled. PACF: attenuated exponential fast decay or sine waves.
- AR(p) process. ACF: attenuated exponential fast decav or sine waves. PACF: only the first p coefficients are significant, the remaining are abruptly cancelled.

• ARMA(p,q) process. ACF and PACF: the coefficients are not abruptly cancelled and present a fast decay.

If the ACF coefficients do not decay rapidly, there is a clear indicator of a lack of stationarity in mean.

Formal tests - Generally, H_0 : No autocorrelation. Supposing that u_t follows an AR(1) process:

$$u_t = \rho_1 u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

where ε_t is white noise.

• **AR(1)** t test (exogenous regressors):

$$t = \frac{\hat{\rho}_1}{\operatorname{se}(\hat{\rho}_1)} \sim t_{T-k-1,\alpha/2}$$

 H_1 : Autocorrelation of order one, AR(1).

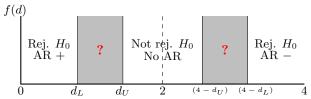
• Durbin-Watson statistic (exogenous regressors and residual normality):

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (\hat{u}_t - \hat{u}_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} \hat{u}_t^2} \approx 2 \cdot (1 - \hat{\rho}_1)$$

Where $0 \le d \le 4$

 H_1 : Autocorrelation of order one, AR(1).

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} d = & 0 & 2 & 4 \\ \hline \rho \approx & 1 & 0 & -1 \end{array}$$



• **Durbin's h** (endogenous regressors):

$$h = \hat{\rho} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{T}{1 - T \cdot \upsilon}}$$

where v is the estimated variance of the coefficient associated with the endogenous variable.

 H_1 : Autocorrelation of order one, AR(1).

- Breusch-Godfrey test (endogenous regressors): it can detect MA(q) and AR(p) processes (ε_t is w. noise):
- MA(q): $u_t = \varepsilon_t m_1 u_{t-1} \cdots m_q u_{t-q}$
- AR(p): $u_t = \rho_1 u_{t-1} + \cdots + \rho_n u_{t-n} + \varepsilon_t$

Under H_0 : No autocorrelation:

$$T \cdot R_{\hat{u}_t}^2 \sim \chi_q^2$$
 or $T \cdot R_{\hat{u}_t}^2 \sim \chi_p^2$

 H_1 : Autocorrelation of order q (or p).

• Liung-Box Q test:

 H_1 : Autocorrelation up to lag h.

Correction

- Use OLS with a variance-covariance matrix estimator that is robust to heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation (HAC), for example, the one proposed by Newey-West.
- Use Generalized Least Squares (GLS). Supposing $y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t$, with $u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$, where $|\rho| < 1$ and ε_t is white noise.
- If ρ is known, use a quasi-differentiated model:

$$y_t - \rho y_{t-1} = \beta_0 (1 - \rho) + \beta_1 (x_t - \rho x_{t-1}) + u_t - \rho u_{t-1}$$
$$y_t^* = \beta_0^* + \beta_1' x_t^* + \varepsilon_t$$

where $\beta'_1 = \beta_1$; and estimate it by OLS.

- If ρ is **not known**, estimate it by -for examplethe Cochrane-Orcutt iterative method (Prais-Winsten's method is also good):
 - 1. Obtain \hat{u}_t from the original model.
 - 2. Estimate $\hat{u}_t = \rho \hat{u}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ and obtain $\hat{\rho}$.
 - 3. Create a quasi-differentiated model: $y_t - \hat{\rho}y_{t-1} = \beta_0(1-\hat{\rho}) + \beta_1(x_t - \hat{\rho}x_{t-1}) + u_t - \hat{\rho}u_{t-1}$ $y_t^* = \beta_0^* + \beta_1' x_t^* + \varepsilon_t$

where $\beta'_1 = \beta_1$; and estimate it by OLS.

- 4. Obtain $\hat{u}_t^* = y_t (\hat{\beta}_0^* + \hat{\beta}_1' x_t) \neq y_t (\hat{\beta}_0^* + \hat{\beta}_1' x_t^*).$
- 5. Repeat from step 2. The algorithm ends when the estimated parameters vary very little between iterations.
- If not solved, look for **high dependence** in the series.

Exponential smoothing

Given $\{y_t\}$, the smoothed series $\{f_t\}$:

$$f_t = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha) f_{t-1}$$

where $0 < \alpha < 1$ is the smoothing factor and $f_0 = y_0$.

Predictions

Two types of predictions:

- Of the mean value of y for a specific value of x.
- Of an individual value of y for a specific value of x.

Theil's U statistic - compares the forecast results with the ones of forecasting with minimal historical data.

$$U = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \left(\frac{\hat{y}_{t+1} - y_{t+1}}{y_t}\right)^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \left(\frac{y_{t+1} - y_t}{y_t}\right)^2}}$$

- < 1: The forecast is better than guessing.
- \bullet = 1: The forecast is about as good as guessing.
- \bullet > 1: The forecast is worse than guessing.

Stationarity

Stationarity allows to correctly identify relations –that stay unchanged with time– between variables.

- Stationary process (strict stationarity) the joint probability distribution of the process remains unchanged when shifted h periods.
- Non-stationary process for example, a series with trend, where at least the mean changes with time.
- Covariance stationary process it is a weaker form of stationarity:
 - $E(x_t)$ is constant. $Var(x_t)$ is constant.
 - For any $t, h \ge 1$, $Cov(x_t, x_{t+h})$ depends only of h, not of t.

Weak dependence

Weak dependence replaces the random sampling assumption for time series.

- An stationary process $\{x_t\}$ is **weakly dependent** when x_t and x_{t+h} are almost independent as h increases without a limit.
- A covariance stationary process is **weakly dependent** if the correlation between x_t and x_{t+h} tends to 0 fast enough when $h \to \infty$ (they are not asymptotically correlated).

Weakly dependent processes are known as **integrated of** order zero, I(0). Some examples:

• Moving average - $\{x_t\}$ is a moving average of order q, MA(q):

$$x_t = e_t + m_1 e_{t-1} + \dots + m_q e_{t-q}$$

where $\{e_t : t = 0, 1, ..., T\}$ is an *i.i.d.* sequence with zero mean and σ_e^2 variance.

• Autoregressive process - $\{x_t\}$ is an autoregressive process of order p, AR(p):

$$x_t = \rho_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + \rho_p x_{t-p} + e_t$$

where $\{e_t : t = 1, 2, ..., T\}$ is an *i.i.d.* sequence with zero mean and σ_e^2 variance.

Stability condition: if $1-\rho_1z-\cdots-\rho_pz^p=0$ for |z|>1 then $\{x_t\}$ is an AR(p) stable process that is weakly dependent. For AR(1), the condition is: $|\rho_1|<1$.

• **ARMA process** - is a combination of the previous; $\{x_t\}$ is an ARMA(p,q):

$$x_t = e_t + m_1 e_{t-1} + \dots + m_q e_{t-q} + \rho_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + \rho_p x_{t-p}$$

Unit roots

A process is integrated of order d, I(d), if applying differences d times makes the process stationary.

When $d \geq 1$, the process is said to have a **unit root**. A process has a unit root when the stability condition is not met (there are roots on the unit circle).

Strong dependence

Generally, economic series are highly persistent in time. Some examples of **unit root** I(1):

• Random walk - an AR(1) process with $\rho_1 = 1$.

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + e_t$$

where $\{e_t : t = 1, 2, ..., T\}$ is an *i.i.d.* sequence with zero mean and σ_e^2 variance.

• Random walk with a drift - an AR(1) process with $\rho_1 = 1$ and a constant.

$$y_t = \beta_0 + y_{t-1} + e_t$$

where $\{e_t: t=1,2,\ldots,T\}$ is an *i.i.d.* sequence with zero mean and σ_e^2 variance.

Unit root tests

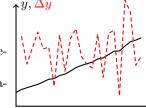
Test	H_0	Reject H_0
ADF	I(1)	tau < Critical value
KPSS	I(0) level	mu > Critical value
	I(0) trend	tau > Critical value
Phillips-Perron	I(1)	Z-tau < Critical value
Zivot-Andrews	I(1)	tau < Critical value

From unit root to weak dependence

Integrated of **order one**, I(1), means that **the first difference** of the process is **weakly dependent** or I(0) (and usually, stationary). Let $\{y_t\}$ be a random walk:

 $\Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1} = e_t$ where $\{e_t\} = \{\Delta y_t\}$ is i.i.d. Note:

- The first difference of a series removes its trend.
- Logarithms of a series stabilizes its variance.



From unit root to percentage change

When an I(1) series is strictly positive, logs are often used before differencing to approximate percentage changes:

$$\Delta \log(y_t) = \log(y_t) - \log(y_{t-1}) \approx \frac{y_t - y_{t-1}}{y_{t-1}}$$

Ergodicity

A strictly stationary process $\{y_t\}$ is **ergodic** if time averages converge to their ensemble averages (expectations). This is often ensured by **strong mixing**, which implies asymptotic independence of distant events.

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t \xrightarrow{a} E(y_t)$$

Without it, sample moments may not reflect population moments. Estimators are inconsistent.

Cointegration

Two I(1) series are **cointegrated** if a linear combination is I(0). In that case, a regression between them is not spurious but reflects a valid **long-run** relationship. Cointegrated variables share a common stochastic trend.

For example, $\{x_t\}$ and $\{y_t\}$ are I(1), but $y_t - \beta x_t = u_t$ where $\{u_t\}$ is I(0). (β is the cointegrating parameter).

Cointegration test

- 1. Estimate $y_t = \alpha + \beta x_t + \varepsilon_t$ and obtain $\hat{\varepsilon}_t$.
- 2. Perform an ADF test on $\hat{\varepsilon}_t$ with a modified distribution. The result of this test is equivalent to:
 - H_0 : $\beta = 0$ (no cointegration)
 - H_1 : $\beta \neq 0$ (cointegration)

if test statistic > critical value, reject H_0 .

Heteroscedasticity in time series

The assumption affected is t4, which leads OLS to be not efficient.

Use tests like Breusch-Pagan or White's, where H_0 : No heteroscedasticity. For these tests to work, there should be no autocorrelation.

ARCH

An autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity (ARCH) model is used to analyse a form of dynamic heteroscedasticity, where the error variance follows an AR(p) process. Given the model: $y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_t + u_t$ where, there is AR(1) and heteroscedasticity:

$$E(u_t^2 \mid u_{t-1}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 u_{t-1}^2$$

GARCH

A general ARCH (GARCH) model is similar to ARCH, but the error variance follows an ARMA(p,q) process.