

# Forecasting Economic and Financial Time Series

## Week4: Cycles: AR, MA and ARIMA Models

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- Cycles are thought of as the dynamics not captured by the trend and seasonal component, which can take on the form of a irregular up and down type movement, more varied and less rigid in form.
- Less regular than seasonal patterns.
- All we require is that they have some form of dynamics, some persistence, which in some way links the present with the past and future the present - where cycles are present in most series
- However, unlike the type of trend and seasonality considered, cycles are more complicated, because of their wide variety of cyclical patterns: so as outlined in Diebold, we need break down the approach into tools/methods for modelling time series, specific models which characterise univariate representations and then how we might use these models to forecast

# Stationary Time Series

- A **realisation** of a time series is an ordered set,  
 $\{\dots, y_{t-2}, y_{t-1}, y_t, y_{t+1}, y_{t+2}, \dots\}$ .
- In theory a time series realisation goes into the infinite future and past, but in practice is defined by a sample - but nonetheless the theoretical notion proves useful
- For forecasting models you need to assume that the probabilistic structure of the series is constant over time, otherwise we could not predict the future on the basis of the past, since the future process would differ
- A strongly stationary series has  $f_t(y_t) = f(y_t)$  : distribution is constant through time (after removing any deterministic elements like trend and seasonal).
- A weakly (covariance/2nd order) stationary series has constant means, variances and covariances between current and past values, again after removing deterministic elements.

# Covariance Stationary Time Series

- **Mean** of series is covariance stationary if it is constant over time, so without any need for a time subscript:

$$E(y_t) = \mu$$

- The covariance structure needs to be stable, where we use the **autocovariance function**, which is just the covariance between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-\tau}$ , which may depend on both  $t$  and  $\tau$ :

$$\gamma(t, \tau) = \text{cov}(y_t, y_{t-\tau}) = E(y_t - \mu)(y_{t-\tau} - \mu)$$

- If the structure is stationary over time, then the autocovariances depend only on displacement,  $\tau$ , not on time and therefore:

$$\gamma(t, \tau) = \gamma(\tau)$$

for all  $t$  - symmetric, so  $\gamma(\tau) = \gamma(-\tau)$

- We examine the autocovariance structure to examine the dynamic behaviour. We also require that the variance of the series - the autocovariance at displacement 0,  $\gamma(0)$ , be finite.

# Autocorrelation function 1

- Note we typically use the **autocorrelation function**, which acts like a correlation coefficient in that it normalises by dividing  $\gamma(\tau)$  by the variance:  $\gamma(0)$  :

$$\rho(\tau) = \frac{\gamma(\tau)}{\gamma(0)}, \quad \tau = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- So  $\rho(0) = 1$ , where we focus on autocorrelations beyond displacement 0.
- Also look at the partial autocorrelation function,  $p(\tau)$ , which is just the coefficient of  $y_{t-\tau}$  in the regression of  $y_t$  on  $y_{t-1}, \dots, y_{t-\tau}$
- Autocorrelation are just regular correlations between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-\tau}$  whereas the partial autocorrelation is between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-\tau}$  after controlling for earlier lags

# Autocorrelation function 2





















- We graph autocorrelations and partial autocorrelations (like regression coefficients) against  $\tau$  and examine their qualitative shape, in order that we learn something about what model best represent our data, which in turn, given covariance stationarity will form the best forecasting model.
- Many series are not covariance stationary, but is often possible to remove nonstationary components such as trend and seasonality, so that the cyclical component left over is likely to be covariance stationary
- Alternatively, simple transformations can transform a non-stationary series to covariance stationarity. Most usual here being a series non-stationary in levels may well be stationary in first differences.
- Below EViews AC and PAC for Columbian Coca production, (original and after removing quadratic trend?) and stock market volume.

# Coca Series

Date: 10/24/15 Time: 17:52

Sample: 1994Q1 2005Q3

Included observations: 47
















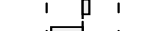




Autocorrelation		Partial Correlation		AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Pro	
				1	0.615	0.615	18.939	0.00
				2	0.289	-0.14...	23.217	0.00
				3	0.562	0.734	39.744	0.00
				4	0.775	0.213	71.906	0.00
				5	0.394	-0.42...	80.403	0.00
				6	0.070	-0.35...	80.681	0.00
				7	0.273	-0.20...	84.969	0.00
				8	0.428	0.016	95.778	0.00
				9	0.102	0.099	96.402	0.00
				1...	-0.19...	-0.06...	98.741	0.00

# Detrended Coca series

Date: 01/18/16 Time: 11:18

Sample: 1994Q1 2005Q3

Included observations: 47

Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation	AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob
		1 0.217	0.217	2.3617	0.12
		2 -0.53...	-0.61...	17.091	0.00
		3 0.079	0.672	17.418	0.00
		4 0.735	0.228	46.382	0.00
		5 0.031	-0.47...	46.436	0.00
		6 -0.64...	0.035	69.593	0.00
		7 -0.08...	-0.21...	70.019	0.00
		8 0.492	-0.10...	84.310	0.00
		9 -0.07...	0.048	84.632	0.00
		1... -0.65...	-0.24...	111.33	0.00

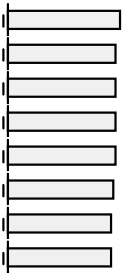
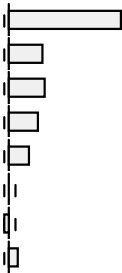


# Volume Series

Date: 11/24/15 Time: 16:34

Sample: 1/01/1947 7/01/2013

Included observations: 1747

Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation		AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob
		1	0.910	0.910	1448.1	0.00
		2	0.873	0.266	2783.6	0.00
		3	0.870	0.282	4110.8	0.00
		4	0.874	0.232	5451.3	0.00
		5	0.872	0.159	6786.6	0.00
		6	0.851	-0.00...	8058.8	0.00
		7	0.830	-0.04...	9267.3	0.00
		8	0.830	0.068	10479.	0.00

# White Noise Processes 1

- The simplest process is a **white noise** process, which forms the basis of the other processes. Suppose that:

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \varepsilon_t \\E(\varepsilon_t) &= 0, \\E(\varepsilon_t^2) &= \sigma^2 \\E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t-i}) &= 0; i \neq 0.\end{aligned}$$

so the “shock”,  $\varepsilon_t$ , is uncorrelated overtime. Therefore  $\varepsilon_t$  and hence  $y_t$  are **serially uncorrelated**.

- Assuming  $\sigma^2 < \infty$ , such a process - with zero mean, constant variance and no serial correlation - is called **zero-mean white noise**, or simply **white noise**, such that we write:

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon_t &\sim WN(0, \sigma^2) \\y_t &\sim WN(0, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

# White Noise Processes 2

- Serially uncorrelated, does not necessarily imply serially independent, unless they are normally distributed. If they are serially independent and normally distributed, then we say that  $y$  is **normal/ Gaussian white noise**:

$$y_t \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$y$  is independently and identically distributed as normal, with zero mean and constant variance.

- Since there are no patterns to this type of data due to the independence over time - you cannot forecast the future of the process. Understanding and identifying white noise is important:
  - Richer processes are constructed from white noise
  - 1-step-ahead forecast errors from good models under some loss functions should be white noise - if they are not then they are serially correlated which means they are predictable, which may mean the model can be improved. Therefore we need to be able to recognise white noise.

# White Noise Processes 3

- White noise has unconditional mean and variance:

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \varepsilon_t \\ E(y_t) &= 0 \\ \text{var}(y_t) &= \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

- These are constant, as a requirement of covariance stationary processes, where constant unconditional variance imply autocovariances are a function of displacement only and not time
- The variance is the autocovariance at displacement 0, but because white noise is uncorrelated overtime, then the autocovariances and hence autocorrelations are zero beyond displacement zero. Same for the partial autocorrelation function.

# Unconditional/conditional 1

- We distinguish conditional and unconditional means (expected values) and variances.
- Means and variances may be unconditional  $E(y_t)$ ,  $V(y_t)$ , or conditional on some information for instance
  - $E(y|X) = X\beta$ ,  $V(y|X) = \sigma^2 I$  in traditional linear regression or
  - $E(y_t|\Omega_{t-1})$  and  $V(y_t|\Omega_{t-1})$  in forecasting, where  $\Omega_{t-1}$  is information at time  $t-1$ .
- For white noise which are unpredictable the conditional and unconditional means and variances are the same 0 and  $\sigma^2$

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_t) &= E(y_t|\Omega_{t-1}) = 0 \\ V(y_t) &= V(y_t|\Omega_{t-1}) = E((y_t - E(y_t|\Omega_{t-1}))^2|\Omega_{t-1}) \\ &= \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

# Unconditional/conditional 2

- For stationary AR1

$$y_t = \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

Conditional moments

$$E(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}) = \alpha + \rho y_{t-1}$$

$$V(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}) = \sigma^2$$

Unconditional moments

$$E(y_t) = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \rho}$$

$$V(y_t) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \rho^2}$$

# The Lag Operator

- We use lag operator extensively, defined by:

$$Ly_t = y_{t-1}, \quad L^2 y_t = L(L(y_t)) = Ly_{t-1} = y_{t-2}$$

- Typically operate on a series with a finite polynomial lag operator:

$$B(L) = b_0 + b_1 L + b_2 L^2 + \dots + b_m L^m$$

- Or infinite

$$B(L) = b_0 + b_1 L + b_2 L^2 + \dots = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i L^i$$

- Simple examples:

$$L^m = y_{t-m}, \quad \Delta y_t = (1 - L)y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$

- Infinite distributed lag of current and past shocks:

$$B(L)\varepsilon_t = b_0\varepsilon_t + b_1\varepsilon_{t-1} + b_2\varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i\varepsilon_{t-i}$$

- Call any deterministic part (e.g. intercept and trend),  $\mu_t$ . The Wold representation theorem says any covariance stationary process,  $\{y_t\}$ , can be represented as a linear combination of serially uncorrelated white noise terms and a linearly deterministic component.
- Let  $b_0 = 1$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i^2 < \infty$  then :

$$y_t = B(L)\varepsilon_t = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i \varepsilon_{t-i} + \mu_t$$
$$\varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$$

- Any covariance stationary series can be modelled as some infinite distributed lag of white noise errors.



# Wold Representation, continued

- The innovations,  $\varepsilon_t$ , correspond to 1-step-ahead forecast errors: the part of the evolution that is linearly unpredictable on the basis of the past and will be uncorrelated but not necessarily independent - only if Gaussian
- It is a general linear process: general because any covariance stationary series can be written this way and linear because it is expressed as a linear function of  $\varepsilon_t$ .

In practice we approximate the infinite MA by a parsimonious combination of finite AR and MA terms, after differencing enough to make it stationary

$$y_t = B(L)\varepsilon_t \approx \frac{C(L)}{A(L)}\varepsilon_t$$
$$A(L)y_t = C(L)\varepsilon_t.$$

# Wold Representation ARMA(1,1)

Consider the infinite moving average associated with an ARMA(1,1)

$$y_t = \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + \mu \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

$$A(L)y_t = C(L)\varepsilon_t$$

$$(1 - \rho L)y_t = (1 + \mu L)\varepsilon_t$$

$$y_t = \frac{(1 + \mu L)}{(1 - \rho L)} \varepsilon_t$$

$$y_t = \frac{C(L)}{A(L)} \varepsilon_t$$

$$y(t) = B(L)\varepsilon_t$$

# B(L) for ARMA(1,1)

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + \mu \varepsilon_{t-1} \\&= \rho(\rho y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_{t-1} + \mu \varepsilon_{t-2}) + \varepsilon_t + \mu \varepsilon_{t-1} \\&= \rho^2 y_{t-2} + \rho \mu \varepsilon_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t + (\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-1} \\&= \rho^2 (\rho y_{t-3} + \varepsilon_{t-2} + \mu \varepsilon_{t-3}) + \rho \mu \varepsilon_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t + (\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-1} \\&= \rho^3 y_{t-3} + \rho^2 \mu \varepsilon_{t-3} + \varepsilon_t + (\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-1} + \rho(\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-2} \\&= \rho^3 (\rho y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t-3} + \mu \varepsilon_{t-4}) \\&\quad + \rho^2 \mu \varepsilon_{t-3} + \varepsilon_t + (\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-1} + \rho(\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-2} \\&= \rho^4 y_{t-4} + \rho^3 \mu \varepsilon_{t-4} + \varepsilon_t + (\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-1} + \rho(\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-2} \\&\quad + \rho^2 (\rho + \mu) \varepsilon_{t-3}\end{aligned}$$

# Continuing the sequence

We see how a simple low order ARMA can give a a complicated Wold representation as an infinite moving average:

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + (\rho + \mu)\varepsilon_{t-1} + \rho(\rho + \mu)\varepsilon_{t-2} + \rho^2(\rho + \mu)\varepsilon_{t-3} \\ + \rho^3(\rho + \mu)\varepsilon_{t-4} + \dots$$

$$y_t = (1 + (\rho + \mu)L + \rho(\rho + \mu)L^2 + \rho^2(\rho + \mu)L^3 + \rho^3(\rho + \mu)L^4 + \dots)\varepsilon_t$$

$$y_t = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i L^i \varepsilon_t$$

$$b_0 = 1; b_i = \rho^{i-1}(\rho + \mu), \quad i \geq 1$$

# General Linear Process: Unconditional Moments

For the general linear structure, taking the means and variances we obtain the unconditional moments:

$$E(y_t) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i E(\varepsilon_{t-i}) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i \times 0 = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(y_t) &= \text{var}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i \varepsilon_{t-i}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i^2 \text{var}(\varepsilon_{t-i}) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i^2 \sigma^2 = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i^2 \end{aligned}$$

# General Linear Process: conditional moments

For information set  $\Omega_{t-1} = \{\varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t-2}, \dots\}$ , the conditional mean moves in response to the evolving information set:

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}) &= E(\varepsilon_t | \Omega_{t-1}) + b_1 E(\varepsilon_{t-1} | \Omega_{t-1}) \\ &\quad + b_2 E(\varepsilon_{t-2} | \Omega_{t-1}) + \dots \\ &= 0 + b_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + b_1 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} b_i \varepsilon_{t-i} \end{aligned}$$

The conditional variance: like the unconditional variance, is constant overtime.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}) &= E((y_t - E(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}))^2 | \Omega_{t-1}) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_t^2 | \Omega_{t-1}) = E(\varepsilon_t^2) = \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

# Moving Average (MA) Models 1

- A finite-order moving average process is a natural and obvious approximation to the Wold representation, which is an infinite moving average process
- The fact that all time series are, in various ways, driven by shocks of various sorts suggest the possibility of modeling time series as distributed lags of current and past shocks.
- The first-order moving average process, or **MA(1) process**, is:

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \varepsilon_t + \theta\varepsilon_{t-1} = (1 + \theta L)\varepsilon_t \\ \varepsilon_t &\sim WN(0, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

which defines  $y_t$  as a function of unobservable shocks

# Moving Average (MA) Models 2

- The unconditional mean and variance are:

$$\begin{aligned}E(y_t) &= E(\varepsilon_t) + \theta E(\varepsilon_{t-1}) = 0 \\ \text{Var}(y_t) &= \text{Var}(\varepsilon_t) + \theta^2 \text{Var}(\varepsilon_{t-1}) = \sigma^2 + \theta^2 \sigma^2 = \sigma^2(1 + \theta^2)\end{aligned}$$

- The conditional mean and variance, given information set  $\Omega_{t-1} = \{\varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t-2}, \dots\}$  are

$$\begin{aligned}E(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}) &= E(\varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1} | \Omega_{t-1}) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_t | \Omega_{t-1}) + \theta E(\varepsilon_{t-1} | \Omega_{t-1}) = \theta \varepsilon_{t-1} \\ \text{Var}(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}) &= E((y_t - E(y_t | \Omega_{t-1}))^2 | \Omega_{t-1}) \\ &= E(\varepsilon_t^2 | \Omega_{t-1}) = E(\varepsilon_t^2) = \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

- The conditional mean adapts to the evolving information set, unlike the constant unconditional mean. In an MA(1) only the first lag of the shock enters the conditional mean - more distant shocks have no effect: a short memory.



# Moving Average (MA) Models 3

- The autocovariance function is:

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(\tau) &= E(y_t y_{t-\tau}) = E((\varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1})(\varepsilon_{t-\tau} + \theta \varepsilon_{t-\tau-1})) \\ &= \begin{cases} \theta \sigma^2, & \tau = 1 \\ 0, & \tau > 1 \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

- The autocorrelation function, is the autocovariance function scaled by the variance:

$$\rho(\tau) = \frac{\gamma(\tau)}{\gamma(0)} = \begin{cases} \frac{\theta}{1+\theta^2}, & \tau = 1 \\ 0, & \tau > 1 \end{cases}$$

- We could estimate  $\theta$  from  $\rho(1)$ .

# Moving Average (MA) Models 4

- To compute the autoregressive representation rewrite the MA(1) as:

$$\varepsilon_t = y_t - \theta \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

- By lagging successively:

$$\varepsilon_{t-1} = y_{t-1} - \theta \varepsilon_{t-2}$$

$$\varepsilon_{t-2} = y_{t-2} - \theta \varepsilon_{t-3}$$

$$\varepsilon_{t-3} = y_{t-3} - \theta \varepsilon_{t-4}$$

- Substituting back into the MA(1) expression  $y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta \varepsilon_{t-1}$  yields:

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta y_{t-1} - \theta^2 y_{t-2} + \theta^3 y_{t-3} - \dots$$

- In lag operator notation:

$$\frac{1}{1 + \theta L} y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

# Moving Average (MA) Models

- To represent the MA process as an AR process, it must be invertible, the roots must lie outside the unit circle..
- Polynomials of degree  $m$  has  $m$  roots, Therefore, the MA(1) lag operator polynomial has one root, which is the solution to  $(1 + \theta L) = 0$ , which is  $L = -1/\theta$ , so the inverse will be less than 1 in absolute value if  $|\theta| < 1$
- Autoregressive representations are real world in the sense that they link present observables to the past history of observables based on present and past observables. Moving averages have this form if they can be inverted, which is why if we start with a MA process we restrict ourselves to invertible processes.
- Partial autocorrelation function of an MA(1) oscillates, from positive to negative, and declines to zero - this follows directly from the autoregressive representation derived.

# The MA(q) Process

- General finite-order process of order  $q$  or MA( $q$ ):

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \varepsilon_t + \theta_1\varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2\varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q\varepsilon_{t-q} = \Theta(L)\varepsilon_t \\ \varepsilon_t &\sim WN(0, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

where  $\Theta(L) = 1 + \theta_1L + \dots + \theta_qL^q$ , is a  $q$ -th order lag operator polynomial.

- $MA(q)$  is covariance stationary for any value of its parameters.
- In an MA( $q$ ), only  $q$  shocks enter the conditional mean and autocorrelations greater than  $q$  are zero.

# AR(1)

- A stationary AR1 takes the form:

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \\ y_t(1 - \rho L) &= \varepsilon_t,\end{aligned}$$

with  $|\rho| < 1$  and  $E(y_t) = \alpha/(1 - \rho)$ .

- If it is stationary and repeated substitution, gives an  $MA(\infty)$  :

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \alpha/(1 - \rho) + \varepsilon_t + \rho\varepsilon_{t-1} + \rho^2\varepsilon_{t-2} + \rho^3\varepsilon_{t-3} \dots \quad (1) \\ y_t &= \alpha/(1 - \rho) + (1 - \rho L)^{-1}\varepsilon_t,\end{aligned}$$

- $\text{Var}(y_t) = E(y_t - E(y_t))^2 = E(y_t - \alpha/(1 - \rho))^2 = \sigma^2/(1 - \rho^2)$  and the correlations between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-i}$ ,  $r_i = \rho^i$ , so decline exponentially.
- If stationary, the parameters can be estimated consistently by OLS, though the estimates will not be unbiased ( $y_{t-1}$  is uncorrelated with  $\varepsilon_t$  but not independent since it is correlated with  $\varepsilon_{t-1}$ ); the estimate of  $\rho$  will be biased downwards.

- An AR(p) takes the form:

$$y_t = \rho_1 y_{t-1} + \rho_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \rho_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$y_t - \rho_1 y_{t-1} - \rho_2 y_{t-2} - \dots - \rho_p y_{t-p} = \varepsilon_t$$

$$\begin{aligned}(1 - \rho_1 L - \rho_2 L^2 - \dots - \rho_p L^p) y_t &= \varepsilon_t; \\ A^p(L) y_t &= \varepsilon_t.\end{aligned}$$

- $A^p(L)$  is a polynomial in the lag operator.

- The process is stationary if all the roots (solutions),  $z_i$ , of  $1 - \rho_1 z - \rho_2 z^2 - \dots - \rho_p z^p = 0$  lie outside the unit circle (are greater than one in absolute value).
- The condition is sometimes expressed in terms of the inverse roots, which must lie inside the unit circle.
- Usually we just check that  $-1 < \sum \rho_i < 1$  for stationarity.
- For an AR1 process, for stability, the solution to  $(1 - \rho z) = 0$ , must be greater than unity in absolute value, since this implies  $z = 1/\rho$  this requires  $-1 < \rho < 1$ .
- For an AR2 the real parts of solution to the two solutions to the quadratic  $(1 - \rho_1 z - \rho_2 z^2)$  must be greater than unity.

# Random Walk and I(1)

- If a root lies on the unit circle, some  $z_i = 1$ , the process is said to exhibit a unit root.; stationary after being differenced once I(1)
- A special case of an I(1) variable is a random walk (with drift) where  $\rho = 1$  in the AR1:

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \alpha + \varepsilon_t;$$

- Substituting back shocks have permanent effects and there is both a deterministic and stochastic trend

$$y_t = \alpha t + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-i} + y_0;$$

- $\Delta y_t$  is stationary, I(0), but  $y_t$  is non-stationary, I(1). If there is no drift the expected value of  $y_t$  will be constant at zero, if  $y_0 = 0$ , but the variance will increase with t. If there is a drift term the expected value of  $y_t$ , as well as the variance, will increase with t.



- Combining the AR and MA processes, gives the ARMA process. The first order ARMA(1,1) with intercept is

$$y_t = \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + \mu \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

- To make them stationary the data are differenced  $d$  times, then modelled as an ARMA process of order  $p$  and  $q$ . This gives the Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average, ARIMA( $p,d,q$ ) process:

$$A^p(L)\Delta^d y_t = \alpha + B^q(L)\varepsilon_t.$$

- The ARIMA(1,1,1) process is

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha + \rho \Delta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + \mu \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

# ML Estimation 1

- For the LRM with normal (Gaussian) errors the ML estimator has a closed form solution. For MA errors, this is not the case and an iterative procedure is required.
- Consider maximising a quadratic function of a vector of  $k$  parameters  $\theta$ , where  $\mathbf{C}$  is a positive definite matrix

$$F(\theta) = a + \mathbf{b}'\theta - \frac{1}{2}\theta'\mathbf{C}\theta$$

the first order conditions for a maximum and the closed form solution are

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial F(\theta)}{\partial \theta} &= \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{C}\theta = 0 \\ \theta &= \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{b}.\end{aligned}$$

# ML Estimation 2

- If  $F(\theta)$  is the likelihood function, or GMM minimand, for a non-linear model, estimation is usually done using an iterative algorithm, where starting from some initial guesses,  $\theta_0$  the estimates are updated as

$$\theta_1 = \theta_0 + \lambda_0 \Delta_0 \quad (2)$$

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \lambda_t \Delta_t \quad (3)$$

$\lambda_t$  is the step size and  $\Delta_t$  the direction. This continues until it stops once it has converged to a maximum.

- The most commonly used algorithms are gradient methods. Define the gradient and Hessian

$$\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{g}(\theta) = \frac{\partial F(\theta)}{\partial \theta}; \quad \mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial^2 F(\theta)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'}.$$

# Gradient Methods

- The simplest gradient method is Newton's method based on a linear Taylor series expansion around  $\theta_0$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial F(\theta)}{\partial \theta} &\simeq \mathbf{g}_0 + \mathbf{H}_0(\theta - \theta_0) = 0 \\ \theta &\simeq \theta_0 - \mathbf{H}_0^{-1} \mathbf{g}_0.\end{aligned}$$

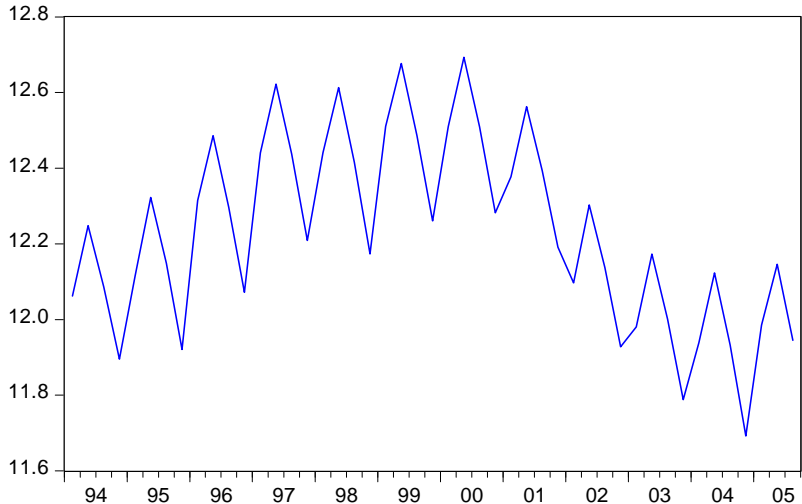
In (2) this sets  $\lambda_t = 1$  and  $\Delta_t = \mathbf{H}_t^{-1} \mathbf{g}_t$ .

- Newton Method often works well, but may be improved by adjusting  $\lambda_t$ .
- It may be difficult to calculate  $\mathbf{H}_t^{-1}$  and it may not be positive definite.
- In ML examples the outer product gradient, OPG, method uses  $\left[\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{g}_t \mathbf{g}_t'\right]^{-1}$  instead of  $(-H)^{-1}$ . This is always positive definite and only requires calculating first derivatives. It is the basis of BHHH, Berndt, Hall, Hall & Hausman.

# Issues: where to start, how to climb, when to stop

- Start: Try to choose sensible initial values,  $\theta_0$ , e.g. based on linear approximations and try different values to check for local maxima.
- Climb depends on choice of  $\lambda_t$  and  $\Delta_t$ , programs will often switch between procedures or give you a choice.
- Stop: convergence criteria:  $\mathbf{g}_t < \varepsilon$ , and  $F(\theta)_t - F(\theta_{t-1}) < \varepsilon$  are sensitive to scaling, the units the variables are measured in.  $\mathbf{g}'\mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{g}$  is less sensitive. Programs give you a choice over tolerances,  $\varepsilon$ , for the coefficients, log likelihood and Hessian scaled gradient.
- If in the linear case  $X'X$  is singular, it will be obvious, you get no estimates. This may not be so obvious in the non-linear case and the program may provide estimates even if the likelihood is quite flat.
- For less well behaved functions there are algorithms like simulated annealing and genetic algorithms.

# Coca example



# EViews estimation for Coca

- For estimation of an equation with quadratic trend plus ARMA(1,1)  
enter : LD C @trend @trend^2 AR(1) MA(1)
- In options box, you have a choice of
  - Method: ML, Conditional LS, GLS
  - Information Matrix: OPG, Hessian observed
  - Starting ARMA coefficient values
  - Optimisation method
  - Step method
  - Maximum iterations
  - Convergence tolerance

Dependent Variable: LD  
 Method: ARMA Maximum Likelihood (OPG - BHHH)  
 Date: 01/21/16 Time: 11:54  
 Sample: 1995Q2 2005Q3  
 Included observations: 42  
 Convergence achieved after 17 iterations  
 Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	12.02174	0.255329	47.08330	0.0000
@TREND	0.037550	0.022483	1.670184	0.1041
@TREND^2	-0.000903	0.000412	-2.190490	0.0354
@SEAS(2)	0.181753	0.043377	4.190050	0.0002
@SEAS(4)	-0.217444	0.028539	-7.619200	0.0000
AR(1)	0.794253	0.219806	3.613428	0.0010
MA(1)	-0.140253	0.503474	-0.278571	0.7823
SIGMASQ	0.004387	0.001087	4.036928	0.0003
R-squared	0.929183	Mean dependent var	12.25090	
Adjusted R-squared	0.914603	S.D. dependent var	0.251919	
S.E. of regression	0.073617	Akaike info criterion	-2.191651	
Sum squared resid	0.184264	Schwarz criterion	-1.860666	
Log likelihood	54.02467	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-2.070332	
F-statistic	63.73046	Durbin-Watson stat	1.926742	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Inverted AR Roots	.79			
Inverted MA Roots	.14			

Equation Estimation

Specification Options

Coefficient covariance  
 Covariance method: Ordinary  
 Information matrix: OPG

ARMA  
 Method: ML  
 Starting ARMA coefficient values: Automatic  
☒ Backcast MA terms

Optimization  
 Optimization method: OPG - BHHH  
 Step method: Marquardt

Maximum iterations: 500  
 Convergence tolerance: 0.0001  
☐ Display settings in output

Coefficient name  
 c



Going to consider a number of models on a common sample 1995Q2-2005Q3. Not fixing sample is a common mistake, all models should have 42 observations, to allow for LD(-4). Could have 47 observations for first model.

- A. Seasonals 2 and 4 plus quadratic trend (as in week 2)
- B. ARMA(1,1) with quadratic trend
- C. ARMA(1,1) with seasonals and quadratic trend (C1 by ML and C2 Conditional Least Squares)
- D. ARIMA(4,1,0) with seasonals  $S12=S1+S2$
- E. ARMA(1-4,0,0) with constant and 3 seasonals

# A: S2+S4 + t+ t^2 OLS

Dependent Variable: LD

Method: Least Squares

Date: 10/30/15 Time: 16:01

Sample: 1995Q2 2005Q3

Included observations: 42

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	12.00834	0.070160	171.1572	0.0000
@SEAS(2)	0.179869	0.036646	4.908346	0.0000
@SEAS(4)	-0.226602	0.037832	-5.989694	0.0000
@TREND	0.042356	0.006041	7.011784	0.0000
@TREND^2	-0.001042	0.000116	-8.993149	0.0000
R-squared	0.862558	Mean dependent var	12.25090	
Adjusted R-squared	0.847699	S.D. dependent var	0.251919	
S.E. of regression	0.098313	Akaike info criterion	-1.689976	
Sum squared resid	0.357622	Schwarz criterion	-1.483111	
Log likelihood	40.48950	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.614152	
F-statistic	58.05115	Durbin-Watson stat	0.599440	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

# B: ARIMA(1,0,1) + t + t^2 ML

Dependent Variable: LD

Method: ARMA Maximum Likelihood (OPG - BHHH)

Date: 10/30/15 Time: 15:45

Sample: 1995Q2 2005Q3

Included observations: 42

Convergence achieved after 17 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	12.04827	0.163253	73.80139	0.0000
@TREND	0.037515	0.014034	2.673241	0.0112
@TREND^2	-0.000945	0.000265	-3.562633	0.0011
AR(1)	-0.076041	0.372282	-0.204256	0.8393
MA(1)	0.712942	0.254481	2.801550	0.0081
SIGMASQ	0.020372	0.008504	2.395497	0.0219

R-squared	0.671157	Mean dependent var	12.25090
Adjusted R-squared	0.625485	S.D. dependent var	0.251919
S.E. of regression	0.154168	Akaike info criterion	-0.755594
Sum squared resid	0.855644	Schwarz criterion	-0.507356
Log likelihood	21.86748	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-0.664605
F-statistic	14.69498	Durbin-Watson stat	2.029000
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

Inverted AR Roots -.08

Inverted MA Roots -.71

# C1: ARIMA(1,0,1) + t+ t^2+S2+S4 ML

Dependent Variable: LD

Method: ARMA Maximum Likelihood (OPG - BHHH)

Date: 01/21/16 Time: 11:54

Sample: 1995Q2 2005Q3

Included observations: 42

Convergence achieved after 17 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	12.02174	0.255329	47.08330	0.0000
@TREND	0.037550	0.022483	1.670184	0.1041
@TREND^2	-0.000903	0.000412	-2.190490	0.0354
@SEAS(2)	0.181753	0.043377	4.190050	0.0002
@SEAS(4)	-0.217444	0.028539	-7.619200	0.0000
AR(1)	0.794253	0.219806	3.613428	0.0010
MA(1)	-0.140253	0.503474	-0.278571	0.7823
SIGMASQ	0.004387	0.001087	4.036928	0.0003

R-squared	0.929183	Mean dependent var	12.25090
Adjusted R-squared	0.914603	S.D. dependent var	0.251919
S.E. of regression	0.073617	Akaike info criterion	-2.191651
Sum squared resid	0.184264	Schwarz criterion	-1.860666
Log likelihood	54.02467	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-2.070332
F-statistic	63.73046	Durbin-Watson stat	1.926742
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

Inverted AR Roots .79

Inverted MA Roots .14

# C2: ARIMA(1,0,1) + t+ t^2+S2+S4, CLS, rho close to one

Dependent Variable: LD

Method: ARMA Conditional Least Squares (Gauss-Newton / Marquardt steps)

Date: 01/21/16 Time: 11:52

Sample: 1995Q2 2005Q3

Included observations: 42

Failure to improve likelihood (non-zero gradients) after 128 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

MA Backcast: 1995Q1

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	57.79258	796.3761	0.072569	0.9426
@TREND	-0.813540	9.717920	-0.083715	0.9338
@TREND^2	0.004762	0.039408	0.120830	0.9045
@SEAS(2)	0.182742	0.019753	9.251273	0.0000
@SEAS(4)	-0.218083	0.020607	-10.58272	0.0000
AR(1)	0.980376	0.129864	7.549227	0.0000
MA(1)	-0.462778	0.221021	-2.093822	0.0436
R-squared	0.932986	Mean dependent var	12.25090	
Adjusted R-squared	0.921498	S.D. dependent var	0.251919	
S.E. of regression	0.070583	Akaike info criterion	-2.313037	
Sum squared resid	0.174370	Schwarz criterion	-2.023426	
Log likelihood	55.57378	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-2.206883	
F-statistic	81.21308	Durbin-Watson stat	1.830749	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

# D: ARMA(4,0,0) with constant and S1+S2+ S3

Dependent Variable: LD

Method: Least Squares

Date: 10/30/15 Time: 16:50

Sample (adjusted): 1995Q2 2005Q3

Included observations: 42 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.798403	0.668797	1.193789	0.2411
LD(-1)	0.889572	0.140214	6.344368	0.0000
LD(-2)	0.035800	0.184509	0.194027	0.8473
LD(-3)	0.050633	0.186741	0.271138	0.7880
LD(-4)	0.568246	0.189046	3.005863	0.0050
LD(-5)	-0.617848	0.145874	-4.235490	0.0002
@SEAS(1)	0.154994	0.081184	1.909171	0.0650
@SEAS(2)	0.187649	0.108110	1.735729	0.0919
@SEAS(3)	0.061987	0.080263	0.772299	0.4454
R-squared	0.946172	Mean dependent var	12.25090	
Adjusted R-squared	0.933122	S.D. dependent var	0.251919	
S.E. of regression	0.065148	Akaike info criterion	-2.436900	
Sum squared resid	0.140061	Schwarz criterion	-2.064542	
Log likelihood	60.17489	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-2.300416	
F-statistic	72.50737	Durbin-Watson stat	2.264424	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

# E: ARIMA(4,1,0) with $S12=S1+S2$

Dependent Variable: D(LD)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 10/30/15 Time: 15:53

Sample (adjusted): 1995Q2 2005Q3

Included observations: 42 after adjustments

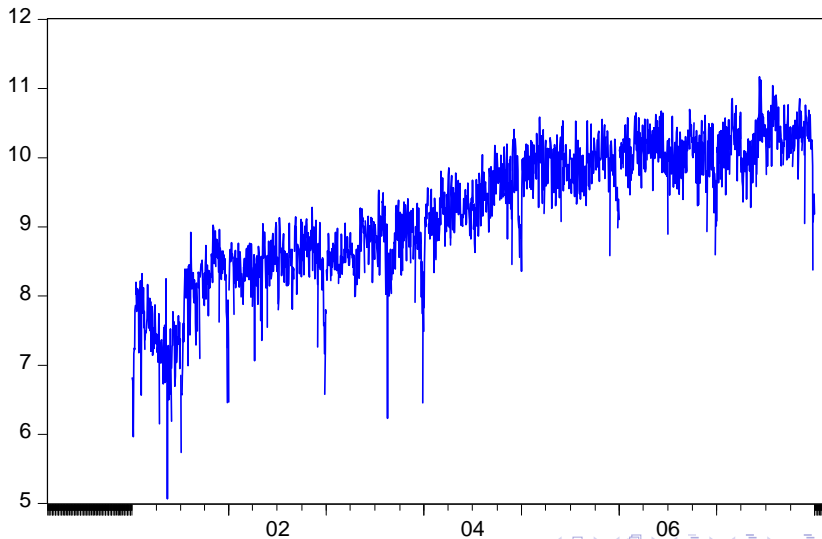
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-0.082782	0.029583	-2.798301	0.0079
D(LD(-4))	0.604159	0.132136	4.572242	0.0000
S12	0.161225	0.055151	2.923362	0.0057
R-squared	0.919085	Mean dependent var	-0.004035	
Adjusted R-squared	0.914936	S.D. dependent var	0.214891	
S.E. of regression	0.062675	Akaike info criterion	-2.632968	
Sum squared resid	0.153197	Schwarz criterion	-2.508849	
Log likelihood	58.29233	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-2.587474	
F-statistic	221.4939	Durbin-Watson stat	2.372920	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

- A:-1.48: Seasonals plus quadratic trend as before
- B:-0.51: ARIMA(1,0,1) with quadratic trend
- C:-1.86: ARIMA(1,0,1) with seasonals and quadratic trend
- D:-2.06: ARMA(1-4,0,0) with constant and 3 seasonals
- E:-**2.51**: ARIMA(4,1,0) with seasonals  $S_{12}=S_1+S_2$

Specification E developed from looking at D.



# Log Volume



# Volume ARMA(1,1)+trend

Dependent Variable: LV

Method: ARMA Maximum Likelihood (OPG - BHHH)

Date: 01/18/16 Time: 15:55

Sample: 1/02/2001 12/31/2007

Included observations: 1747

Convergence achieved after 23 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using observed Hessian

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	7.376531	0.100814	73.16980	0.0000
@TREND	0.001679	8.38E-05	20.02995	0.0000
AR(1)	0.921293	0.015534	59.30896	0.0000
MA(1)	-0.596586	0.034126	-17.48181	0.0000
SIGMASQ	0.123055	0.004164	29.55499	0.0000
R-squared	0.867028	Mean dependent var	9.219225	
Adjusted R-squared	0.866723	S.D. dependent var	0.962264	
S.E. of regression	0.351295	Akaike info criterion	0.748900	
Sum squared resid	214.9776	Schwarz criterion	0.764543	
Log likelihood	-649.1638	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.754683	
F-statistic	2839.623	Durbin-Watson stat	1.802580	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Inverted AR Roots	.92			
Inverted MA Roots	.60			

# ARMA(2,2) +trend and LDV

Dependent Variable: D(LV)

Method: ARMA Maximum Likelihood (BFGS)

Date: 01/18/16 Time: 16:33

Sample: 1/03/2001 12/31/2007

Included observations: 1746

Convergence achieved after 18 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.985202	0.128571	7.662697	0.0000
@TREND	0.000219	3.17E-05	6.897615	0.0000
LV(-1)	-0.132540	0.017548	-7.553067	0.0000
AR(1)	0.510996	0.092592	5.518810	0.0000
AR(2)	-0.463155	0.041198	-11.24208	0.0000
MA(1)	-0.928566	0.087923	-10.56117	0.0000
MA(2)	0.466813	0.072240	6.461988	0.0000
SIGMASQ	0.116660	0.002564	45.49260	0.0000
R-squared	0.288629	Mean dependent var		0.001356
Adjusted R-squared	0.285764	S.D. dependent var		0.405076
S.E. of regression	0.342340	Akaike info criterion		0.698805
Sum squared resid	203.6878	Schwarz criterion		0.723846
Log likelihood	-602.0571	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.708063
F-statistic	100.7387	Durbin-Watson stat		2.044408
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Inverted AR Roots	.26+.63i	.26-.63i		
Inverted MA Roots	.46-.50i	.46+.50i		

# ARIMA(1,1,1) worse

Dependent Variable: D(LV)

Method: ARMA Maximum Likelihood (BFGS)

Date: 01/18/16 Time: 16:09

Sample: 1/03/2001 12/31/2007

Included observations: 1746

Convergence achieved after 8 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.004666	0.003118	1.496414	0.1347
@TREND	-2.94E-06	2.59E-06	-1.134790	0.2566
AR(1)	0.326724	0.024708	13.22366	0.0000
MA(1)	-0.892794	0.012254	-72.85916	0.0000
SIGMASQ	0.120751	0.002581	46.78916	0.0000
R-squared	0.263682	Mean dependent var		0.001356
Adjusted R-squared	0.261990	S.D. dependent var		0.405076
S.E. of regression	0.347991	Akaike info criterion		0.730162
Sum squared resid	210.8310	Schwarz criterion		0.745812
Log likelihood	-632.4313	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.735948
F-statistic	155.8669	Durbin-Watson stat		1.973592
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			
Inverted AR Roots	.33			
Inverted MA Roots	.89			

# ARIMA(1,1,2)+LDV+GARCH + t distribution for errors

Dependent Variable: D(LV)

Method: ML ARCH - Student's t distribution (BFGS / Marquardt steps)

Date: 01/18/16 Time: 16:15

Sample (adjusted): 1/03/2001 12/31/2007

Included observations: 1746 after adjustments

Convergence achieved after 81 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Presample variance: backcast (parameter = 0.7)

GARCH = C(7) + C(8)\*RESID(-1)^2 + C(9)\*GARCH(-1)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.317928	0.066564	4.776276	0.0000
@TREND	6.39E-05	1.52E-05	4.206212	0.0000
LV(-1)	-0.041417	0.008910	-4.648071	0.0000
AR(1)	-0.038071	0.119159	-0.319495	0.7494
MA(1)	-0.519126	0.118646	-4.375435	0.0000
MA(2)	-0.234902	0.082894	-2.833761	0.0046

## Variance Equation

C	0.028912	0.010230	2.826276	0.0047
RESID(-1)^2	0.099170	0.030172	3.286862	0.0010
GARCH(-1)	0.648830	0.106388	6.098719	0.0000

T-DIST. DOF	6.650946	0.820755	8.103446	0.0000
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R-squared	0.274348	Mean dependent var	0.001356
Adjusted R-squared	0.272263	S.D. dependent var	0.405076
S.E. of regression	0.345561	Akaike info criterion	0.611231
Sum squared resid	207.7770	Schwarz criterion	0.642532
Log likelihood	-523.6051	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.622803
Durbin-Watson stat	1.928213		

Inverted AR Roots	-.04	
Inverted MA Roots	.81	-.29

# ARIMA(2,1,2)+GARCH+ t Distrib

Dependent Variable: D(LV)

Method: ML ARCH - Student's t distribution (BFGS / Marquardt steps)

Date: 01/18/16 Time: 16:39

Sample (adjusted): 1/03/2001 12/31/2007

Included observations: 1746 after adjustments

Convergence achieved after 73 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Presample variance: backcast (parameter = 0.7)

GARCH = C(8) + C(9)\*RESID(-1)^2 + C(10)\*GARCH(-1)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.048226	0.128224	8.174972	0.0000
@TREND	0.000220	2.95E-05	7.453931	0.0000
LV(-1)	-0.138628	0.017165	-8.075996	0.0000
AR(1)	0.505295	0.087280	5.789364	0.0000
AR(2)	-0.457146	0.040520	-11.28203	0.0000
MA(1)	-0.928034	0.085403	-10.86657	0.0000
MA(2)	0.439411	0.068911	6.376516	0.0000
Variance Equation				
C	0.040666	0.011335	3.587547	0.0003
RESID(-1)^2	0.133809	0.035273	3.793468	0.0001
GARCH(-1)	0.508729	0.115038	4.422250	0.0000
T-DIST. DOF	6.732139	0.842945	7.986450	0.0000
R-squared	0.285635	Mean dependent var		0.001356
Adjusted R-squared	0.283170	S.D. dependent var		0.405076
S.E. of regression	0.342961	Akaike info criterion		0.596938
Sum squared resid	204.5452	Schwarz criterion		0.631369
Log likelihood	-510.1270	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.609667
Durbin-Watson stat	2.015783			
Inverted AR Roots	.25+-.63i	.25+-.63i		
Inverted MA Roots	.46+-.47i	.46+-.47i		

# AR(1,4,5)+t GARCH

Dependent Variable: LV

Method: ML ARCH - Student's t distribution (BFGS / Marquardt steps)

Date: 02/14/19 Time: 14:49

Sample (adjusted): 1/09/2001 12/31/2007

Included observations: 1742 after adjustments

Convergence achieved after 61 iterations

Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients

Presample variance: backcast (parameter = 0.7)

GARCH = C(6) + C(7)\*RESID(-1)^2 + C(8)\*GARCH(-1)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.797635	0.165345	10.87200	0.0000
@TREND	0.000371	3.97E-05	9.329573	0.0000
LV(-1)	0.401197	0.021946	18.28101	0.0000
LV(-4)	0.201800	0.021437	9.413672	0.0000
LV(-5)	0.160326	0.022225	7.213834	0.0000

## Variance Equation

C	0.031763	0.008950	3.548874	0.0004
RESID(-1)^2	0.131672	0.033413	3.940768	0.0001
GARCH(-1)	0.589996	0.094990	6.211125	0.0000

T-DIST. DOF	6.196534	0.748680	8.276607	0.0000
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R-squared	0.870484	Mean dependent var	9.226750
Adjusted R-squared	0.870186	S.D. dependent var	0.953041
S.E. of regression	0.343378	Akaike info criterion	0.576999
Sum squared resid	204.8071	Schwarz criterion	0.605222
Log likelihood	-493.5662	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.587435
Durbin-Watson stat	1.944553		

# AR(1,4,5)+t OLS

Dependent Variable: LV

Method: Least Squares

Date: 02/14/19 Time: 14:51

Sample (adjusted): 1/09/2001 12/31/2007

Included observations: 1742 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.672537	0.169893	9.844664	0.0000
@TREND	0.000366	4.20E-05	8.714920	0.0000
LV(-1)	0.445218	0.021235	20.96574	0.0000
LV(-4)	0.188124	0.023269	8.084621	0.0000
LV(-5)	0.142385	0.023822	5.976934	0.0000
R-squared	0.871143	Mean dependent var	9.226750	
Adjusted R-squared	0.870846	S.D. dependent var	0.953041	
S.E. of regression	0.342503	Akaike info criterion	0.697796	
Sum squared resid	203.7649	Schwarz criterion	0.713475	
Log likelihood	-602.7799	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.703593	
F-statistic	2935.768	Durbin-Watson stat	2.040717	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			



- A. 0.7645: ARMA(1,1)+trend
- B. 0.7238: ARMA(2,2) +trend and LDV
- C. 0.7458: ARIMA(1,1,1)
- D. 0.6425: ARIMA(1,1,2)+LDV+GARCH + t distribution for errors
- E. 0.6314: ARIMA(2,1,2)+GARCH+ t Distrib
- F. 0.60522: AR(1,4,5) +t+GARCH t distribution of errors
- G. 0.70359: AR(1,4,5) + t OLS

G fits a lot worse than F, but the coefficients in the mean equation are very similar so their point forecasts are likely to be very similar.

- Identification of ARIMA( $p,d,q$ ) models more art than science. Note identification is choice of  $pdq$ , not like econometric identification.
- There are a large number of computational issues and different programs or different estimation methods will give different results.
- The ultimate test is practical forecasting, but a well established process may change when you come to forecast.
- Models that look very different may give very similar forecasts.
- May be difficult to beat very "naive" models out of sample, so in-sample significance should not be give too much weight.

- Hamilton alternative to HP: a regression of  $y_{t+h}$  on the four (for quarterly) most recent values as of date  $t$  provides a robust alternative to detrending that achieves the objectives sought by HP users with none of its drawbacks. Corresponds to a Beveridge Nelson, long horizon, trend in some cases. Linear projection.

$$y_{t+h} = \alpha + \beta_0 y_t + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_2 y_{t-2} + \beta_3 y_{t-3} + \beta_4 y_{t-4} + u_t$$

- Unbiased forecast, e.g. in the case of the log transform. A prediction is unbiased if

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_{T+1}) &= y_{T+1,T} \\ y_{T+1} &= E(y_{T+1}) + u_{T+1} = y_{T+1,T} + u_{T+1} \end{aligned}$$

for white noise  $u_t$ , so, we require  $\alpha = 0$ , and  $\beta = 1$  in a regression of actual on forecast

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta y_{T+1,T} + u_t$$

# Holt Winters (Exponential) Smoothing, estimates a local mean

- Initialise at time  $t = 1 : \bar{y}_1 = y_1$
- Update:  $\bar{y}_t = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha)\bar{y}_{t-1}$
- Forecast:  $\bar{y}_{T+h,T} = \bar{y}_T$
- Note

$$\bar{y}_t = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \alpha(1 - \alpha)^j y_{t-j}$$

- Choose  $0 < \alpha < 1$  to reflect the relative importance of signal in  $y_t$  (large  $\alpha$ ) relative to noise (small  $\alpha$ ).

# Holt Winters smoothing allowing for trend

- Initialise at time  $t = 2$  :  $\bar{y}_2 = y_2$ ;  $F_2 = y_2 - y_1$
- Update

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{y}_t &= \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha)(\bar{y}_{t-1} + F_{t-1}) \\ F_t &= \beta(\bar{y}_t - \bar{y}_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta)F_{t-1}, \\ t &= 3, 4, \dots, T\end{aligned}$$

- Forecast:  $y_{T+h,T} = \bar{y}_T + hF_T$

# Holt Winters smoothing allowing for seasonal

- Initialise at  $t = s$  :  $\bar{y}_s = \sum_{t=1}^s y_t / s$ ;  $F_s = 0$ ;  $G_j = y_j - \bar{y}_s$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, s$
- Update for  $t = s + 1, \dots, T$

$$\bar{y}_t = \alpha(y_t - G_{t-s}) + (1 - \alpha)(\bar{y}_{t-1} + F_{t-1})$$

$$F_t = \beta(\bar{y}_t - \bar{y}_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta)F_{t-1},$$

$$G_t = \gamma(y_t - \bar{y}_t) + (1 - \gamma)G_{t-s}$$

- Forecast

$$y_{T+h,T} = \bar{y}_T + hF_T + G_{T+h-s}; \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, s$$

$$y_{T+h,T} = \bar{y}_T + hF_T + G_{T+h-2s}; \quad h = s + 1, s + 2, \dots, 2s$$

# Exam Question

In Moodle there are a number of documents relevant to the Autumn 2018 Bank of England forecasts and Monetary Policy Committee decision and the OBR forecasts for the Budget decisions.

Some questions on the exam will require you to use information from these forecasting and decision processes to answer the questions.

Start by asking the basic questions for forecasters for each of the organisations.