Time Series Analysis

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GV903: Advanced Research Methods, Week 8



1. Introduction to Time Series Analysis

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- ► This has implications for the analysis: observations can depend on earlier observations; they are not a sample (i.e., the second Gauss-Markov assumption is possibly violated).

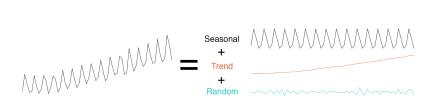
- Like in the linear regression case, we have a DV and possibly a set of IVs.
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- ► This has implications for the analysis: observations can depend on earlier observations; they are not a sample (i.e., the second Gauss-Markov assumption is possibly violated).
- We can visualise and decompose time series, and/or we can model them using regression models. We can also try to predict future values.

Examples of Time Series in Political Science

- ▶ Public opinion (on policies, candidates etc).
- ► Government approval ratings.
- Annual budgets for policies or offices.
- News media attention (via content analysis).
- Changes in POLITY scores etc of a country.
- ▶ ...

2. Time Series Decomposition

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- Or we can model time trends and seasonality all within a regression framework (shown later).
- We can also use decomposition for forecasting and anomaly detection.

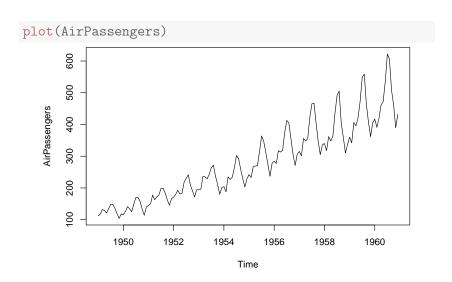
Working with ts Objects in R

```
library("forecast") # useful for decomposition
library("fpp")  # some time series data
library("Ecdat")  # more time series data
data(AirPassengers)
data(ausbeer)
class(beer)
## [1] "ts"
head(beer)
        Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun
## 1991 164 148 152 144 155 125
tail(beer)
       Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug
## 1995 152 127 151 130 119 153
```

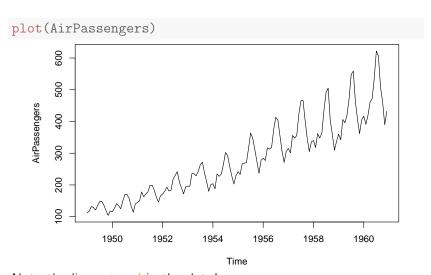
Creating New ts Objects

```
ts(1:10, frequency = 4, start = c(1959, 2))
      Qtr1 Qtr2 Qtr3 Qtr4
## 1959 1 2 3
## 1960 4 5 6 7
## 1961 8 9 10
rp \leftarrow rpois(n = 20, lambda = 10)
ts(rp, frequency = 12, start = 2010)
      Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec
## 2010 11 7 15 7 10 9 7 9 7 6 6 12
## 2011 13 14 7 7 8 11 9 13
```

Monthly Airline Passenger Numbers 1949–1960

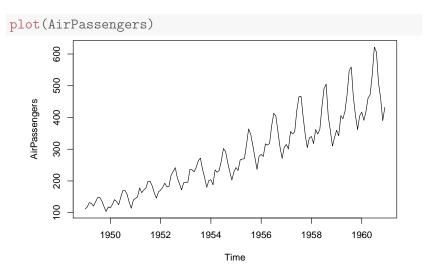


Monthly Airline Passenger Numbers 1949–1960

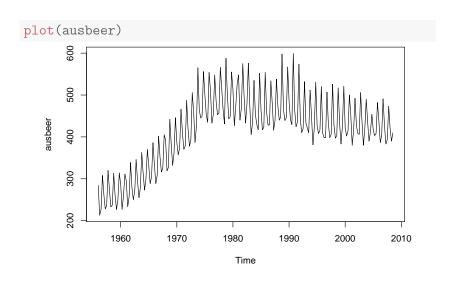


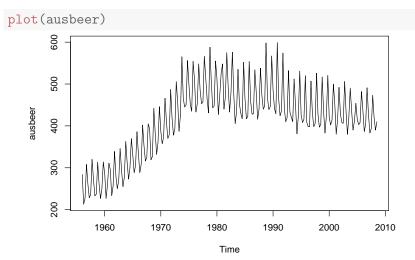
Note the linear trend in the data!

Monthly Airline Passenger Numbers 1949–1960

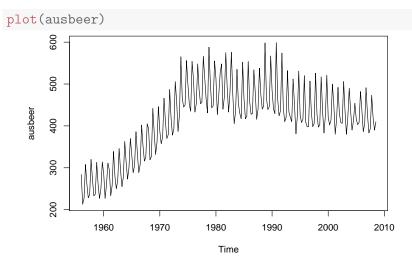


Note the linear trend in the data! Also note the seasonality!



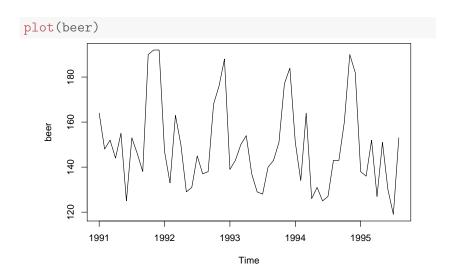


This is an example of a more complex time trend.

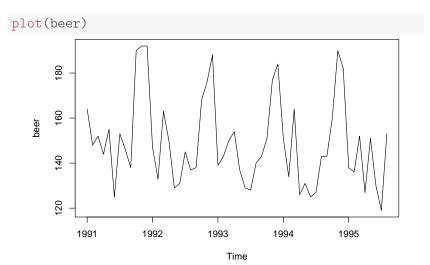


This is an example of a more complex time trend. There is also seasonality.

Monthly Australian Beer Production 1991–1995



Monthly Australian Beer Production 1991–1995

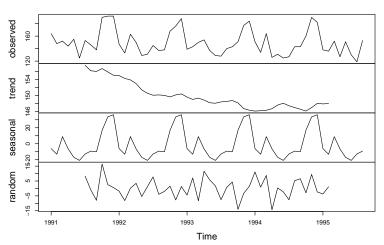


Slightly negative trend and seasonality.

Decomposition

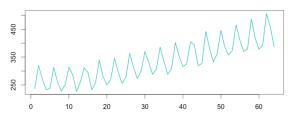
```
plot(decompose(beer, "additive"))
```

Decomposition of additive time series

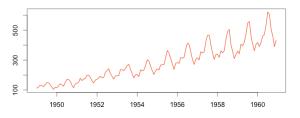


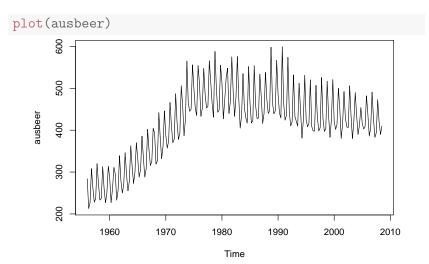
Additive versus Multiplicative Models

Additive Time Series: Seasonality stays constant.



Multiplicative Time Series: Seasonality increases.

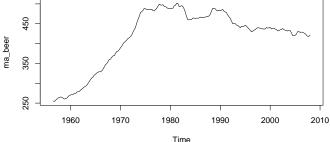




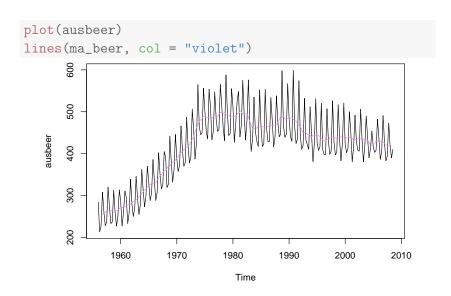
How do we compute the trend and then de-trend the time series?

De-Trending: Computing a Moving Average

```
ma_beer <- ma(ausbeer, order = 4)
head(ma_beer) # 4 means 2 in each direction
## Qtr1 Qtr2 Qtr3 Qtr4
## 1956 NA NA 255.250 254.375
## 1957 257.375 260.000
plot(ma_beer)</pre>
```



We can also Plot this Together

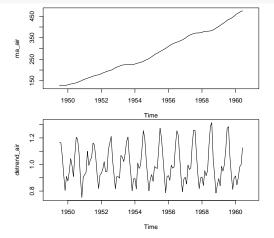


De-Trending: Additive Case

```
detrend_beer <- ausbeer - ma_beer
plot(detrend_beer)
       100
   detrend_beer
       20
       -50
                1960
                          1970
                                     1980
                                               1990
                                                         2000
                                                                    2010
                                       Time
```

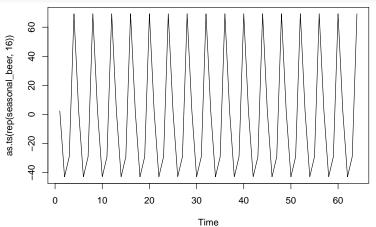
De-Trending: Multiplicative Example

```
ma_air <- ma(AirPassengers, order = 12) # monthly obs
plot(ma_air)
detrend_air <- AirPassengers / ma_air
plot(detrend_air)</pre>
```



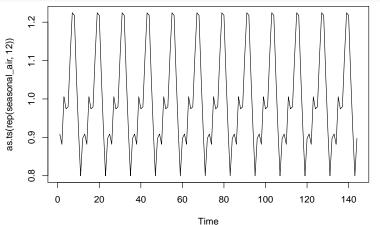
Averaging the Seasonality: Beer Example

```
mat <- matrix(detrend_beer, ncol = 4, byrow = TRUE)
seasonal_beer = colMeans(mat, na.rm = TRUE)
plot(as.ts(rep(seasonal_beer, 16)))</pre>
```

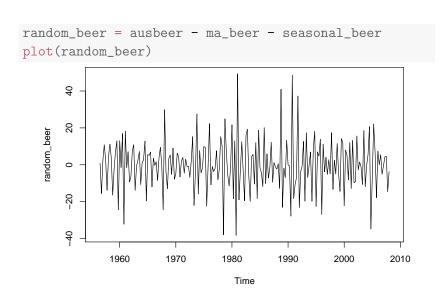


Averaging the Seasonality: Air Passengers

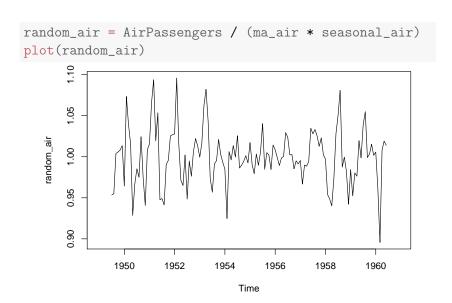
```
m_air = matrix(detrend_air, ncol = 12, byrow = TRUE)
seasonal_air = colMeans(m_air, na.rm = TRUE)
plot(as.ts(rep(seasonal_air, 12)))
```



Looking at the Residual Variance (Noise)



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Multiplicative case:

```
recomposed_air = ma_air * seasonal_air * random_air
```

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 \dots or we can find and remove anomalies (= outliers) in the three components and remove them before putting the time series back together.

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- ► There are lots of different methods that can be applied to decomposed time series.

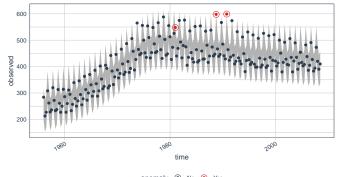
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- Or you can use it to recompose a "cleaner" time series, for example when you are interested in drawing a polarization curve that is affected by outliers.
- ► There are lots of different methods that can be applied to decomposed time series.
- Just to give you a visual idea, let's look at an example. . .

The anomalize Package

```
library("anomalize") # tidy anomaly detection
library("tibbletime") # tidy data structures for time
library("tsbox") # convert time series objects

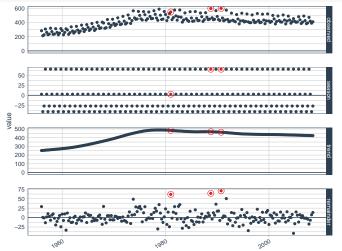
df_beer <- as_tbl_time(ts_df(ausbeer), index = time)

df_beer %>% time_decompose(value) %>%
    anomalize(remainder) %>% time_recompose() %>%
    plot_anomalies(time_recomposed = TRUE)
```



The anomalize Package

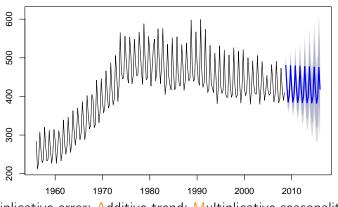
```
df_beer %>%
  time_decompose(value) %>%
  anomalize(remainder) %>%
  plot_anomaly_decomposition()
```



Forecasting with the forecast Package

```
fit <- ets(ausbeer)
fcast <- forecast(fit, h = 30) # predict 30 periods
plot(fcast)</pre>
```

Forecasts from ETS(M,A,M)



(Multiplicative error; Additive trend; Multiplicative seasonality.)

3. Time Series Regression

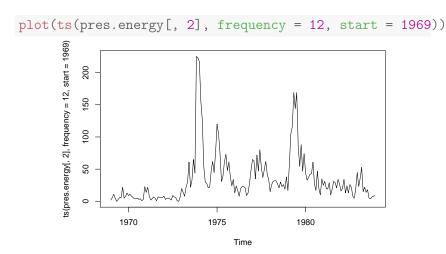
Energy Policy Monthly TV News Coverage

Data and Example from Monogan (2015): https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/ARKOTI

```
pres.energy <- read.csv("PESenergy.csv")</pre>
head(pres.energy[, 1:4])
##
     Date Energy Unemploy Approval
## 1 Jan-69
             2
                  3.4
                          59
## 2 Feb-69 6
                  3.4 60
## 3 Mar-69 11 3.4 64
  4 Apr-69 5 3.4 60
## 5 May-69 0 3.4 63
## 6 Jun-69
          3
                  3.5
                          63
```

Energy Policy Monthly TV News Coverage

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Static Time Series Regression Models

```
static.ols <- lm(Energy ~ rmn1173 + grf0175 + grf575 + jec477 + jec1177 +
 jec479 + embargo+ hostages + oilc + Approval + Unemploy, data = pres.energy)
coeftest(static.ols)
##
## t test of coefficients:
##
##
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 319.74423 46.83584 6.8269 1.511e-10 ***
## grf0175 60.79046 26.70059 2.2767 0.024063 *
## grf575 -4.26762 26.53152 -0.1609 0.872404
## jec477 47.03877 26.67596 1.7633 0.079661 .
## jec1177 15.44268 26.37859 0.5854 0.559048
## jec479 72.05191 26.50274 2.7187 0.007243 **
## embargo 96.37602 13.31055 7.2406 1.530e-11 ***
## hostages -4.52890 7.39449 -0.6125 0.541055
## oilc -5.87649 1.08478 -5.4172 2.069e-07 ***
## Approval -1.06930 0.21472 -4.9800 1.567e-06 ***
## Unemploy -3.70181 1.38610 -2.6707 0.008314 **
## ---
## Signif. codes:
## 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

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- From the perspective of current observation y_t , we need to consider the so-called lagged variables y_{t-1} , y_{t-2} etc. as IVs to make sure we have modelled all dependencies.

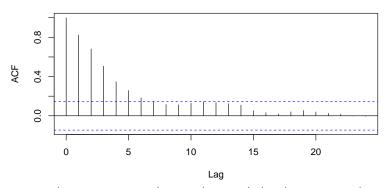
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- ▶ If we fail to do this for a non-stationary time series, we get omitted variable bias.

Autocorrelation Function

This shows the correlation between y_t and y_{t-k} .

acf(pres.energy\$Energy, lag.max = 24)

Series pres.energy\$Energy



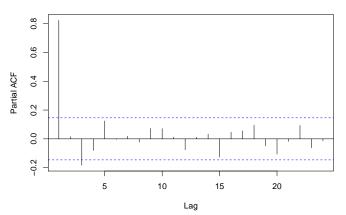
Important because we need to understand the data-generating process to be modelled. (Sometimes, we need to remove seasonality before looking at the ACF.)

Partial Autocorrelation Function

This shows the partial correlation between y_t and y_{t-k} .

pacf(pres.energy\$Energy, lag.max = 24)

Series pres.energy\$Energy



Correlation between y_t and y_{t-k} that is unaccounted for by any previous (i. e., closer) lags. A one-period lag is sufficient here.

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 - Durbin-Watson test (dwtest).
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 - ► The Cochrane—Orcutt estimator.
- Include lagged DVs.
- Estimate first-differences model.
- Estimate an ARIMA model.

Including Lagged DVs: Autoregressive Models

We call a linear model of a time series a K-order autoregressive model—or AR(K) process—if we include K lagged dependent variables:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} \delta_k y_{t-k}\right) + u$$

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In most cases (also here), an AR(1) process is sufficient:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \ldots + \frac{\delta y_{t-1}}{1} + u_t$$

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Some people in political science claim that lagged DVs are inappropriate because they are correlated with other IVs. However, they *should* be included. Once they are controlled for, the other IVs can be interpreted.

The PACF showed that a lag of 1 is sufficient...

```
library("dynlm")
energy.ts <- ts(pres.energy$Energy, frequency = 12, start = 1969)
dynamic.ols <- dynlm(energy.ts ~ pres.energy$rmn1173 +
    pres.energy$grf0175 + pres.energy$grf575 + pres.energy$jec477 +
    pres.energy$jec1177 + pres.energy$jec479 + pres.energy$embargo +
    pres.energy$hostages + pres.energy$oilc + pres.energy$Approval +
    pres.energy$Unemploy + lag(energy.ts, -1))</pre>
```

The dynlm package can use ts objects with the right time structure as a DV.

It also provides convenient model terms for including time trends, seasonality etc. We can also include lags for various IVs if that's what our theory tells us.

Lagged DV in the Energy Example

	Static	Dynamic
(Intercept)	319.74 (46.84)***	62.11 (36.97)
rmn1173	78.83 (28.80)**	171.63 (20.15)***
grf0175	60.79 (26.70)*	51.70 (17.73)**
grf575	-4.27 (26.53)	7.06 (17.62)
jec477	47.04 (26.68)	39.02 (17.71)*
jec1177	15.44 (26.38)	-10.78 (17.59)
jec479	72.05 (26.50)**	28.68 (17.83)
embargo	96.38 (13.31)***	10.54 (10.61)
hostages	-4.53 (7.39)	-2.51 (4.91)
oilc	-5.88 (1.08)***	-1.14 (0.81)
Approval	-1.07 (0.21)***	-0.15(0.16)
Unemploy	-3.70 (1.39)**	-0.89(0.97)
lag(energy.ts, -1)		0.74 (0.05)***
R ²	0.59	0.82
Adj. R ²	0.57	0.81
Num. obs.	180	179

^{***}p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05

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This removes any trending and seasonality and thus autocorrelation.

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If K = 2, use second-order differences:

$$\Delta(\Delta y) = (y_t - y_{t-1}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-2})$$

Use PACF to determine K.

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Use PACF to determine K.

Note that differencing will also require having changes on the IV side rather than static IVs.

▶ There are many things we can do to model a time series:

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- ► See De Boef and Keele (2008).

More Advanced Time Series Topics

- ARIMA models <u>Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average model</u>. This is a combination of all of the above (and some more), where the analyst can decide what components to include (e.g., first- or second-order differencing, moving average, lags, trends...).
- VAR models \underline{V} ector \underline{A} utoregression model. Use this is you have multiple time series that interact with each other.
- GARCH models <u>Generalized Autoregressive Conditional</u>
 <u>Heteroskedasticity model</u>. Deals with volatility. For example, stock market data have volatile and calm periods and thus heteroskedasticity.