### Time series analysis

**EDS 222** 

Tamma Carleton Fall 2023

• Assignment 04 posted, due 12/08

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- A note on depth in coming lectures

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- No class 11/23

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- A note on depth in coming lectures
- No class 11/23
- Final projects: due in 3.5 weeks!
  - Presentations: 12/12 4:00-7:00pm (Bren Hall 1424)
  - Blog posts: 12/15

What are time series data?

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Decomposition

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Autocorrelation

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Autocorrelation

Time series and OLS

## What are time series data?

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Up to this point, we focused on **cross-sectional data**.

- Sampled across a population (e.g., people, counties, countries).
- Sampled at one moment in time (e.g., Jan. 1, 2015).
- We had n individuals, each indexed i in  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ .

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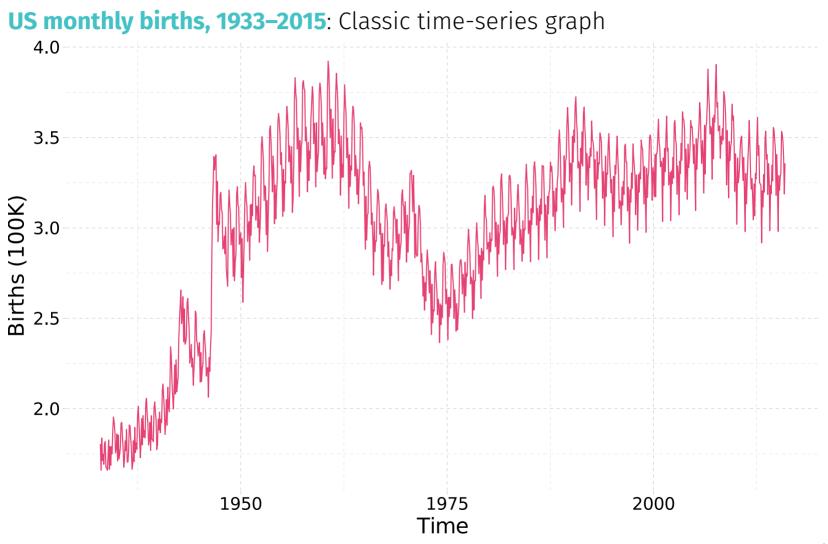
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Today, we focus on a different type of data: time-series data.

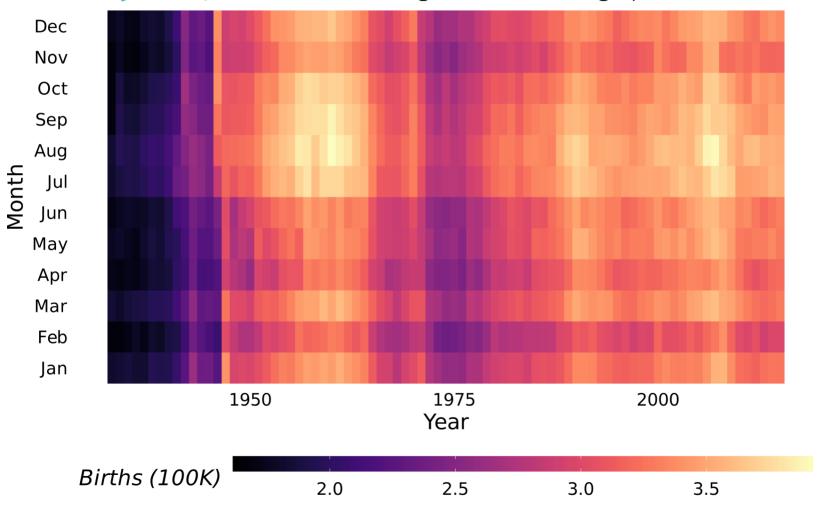
- Sampled within one unit/individual (e.g., Oregon).
- Observe multiple times for the same unit (e.g., Oregon: 1990–2020).
- We have T time periods, each indexed t in  $\{1, \ldots, T\}$ .

### Time series data: Example



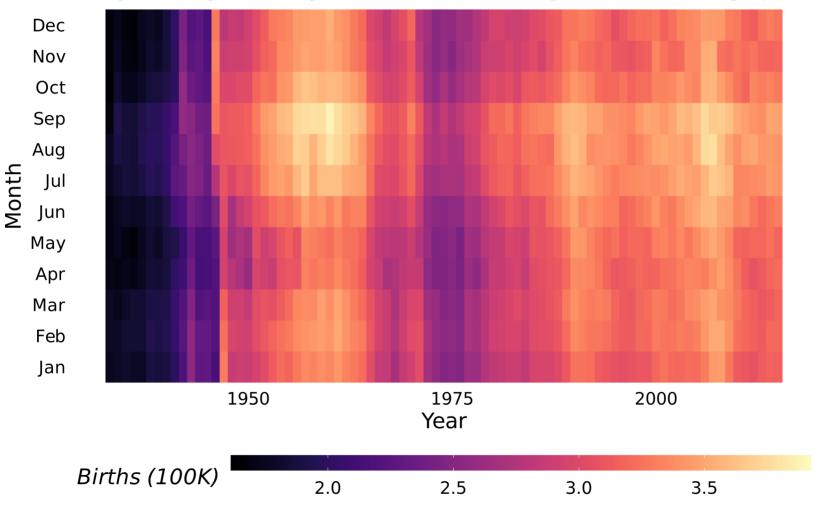
#### Time series data: Example

US monthly births, 1933–2015: Newfangled time-series graph



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US monthly births per 30 days, 1933–2015: Newfangled time-series graph



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Description of airquality data:

Daily air quality measurements in New York, May to September 1973.

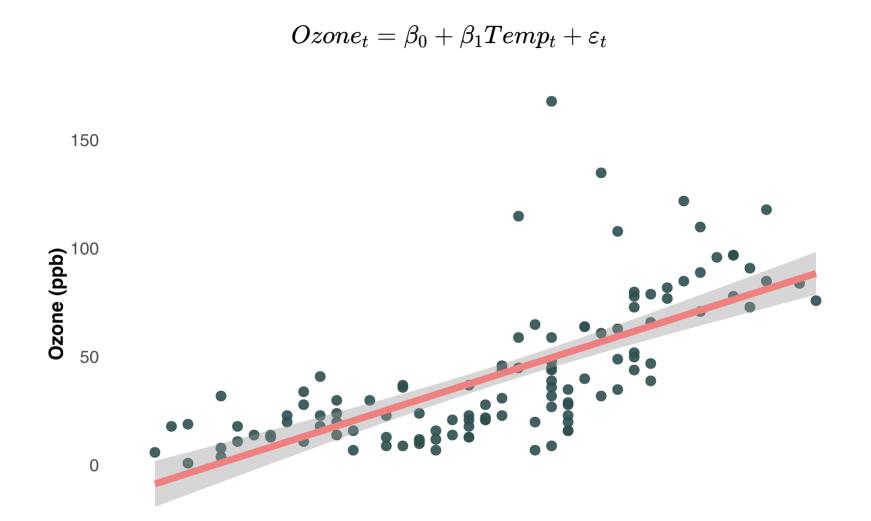
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• Description of airquality data:

Daily air quality measurements in New York, May to September 1973.

• These are **time series data** and we already ran an OLS regression with them!



80

**Temperature (F)** 

70

60

Plot: geom smooth() With se = TRUE

90

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```
airgts = airguality %>% mutate(date = make datetime(1973, Month, Day))
head(airgts)
    Ozone Solar. R Wind Temp Month Day
                                     date
            190 7.4
#> 1 41
                           5 1 1973-05-01
         118 8.0 72 5 2 1973-05-02
#> 2 36
                     74 5 3 1973-05-03
#> 3 12 149 12.6
#> 4 18 313 11.5
                     62 5 4 1973-05-04
#> 5
     NA
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                     56
                           5 5 1973-05-05
#> 6
      28
          NA 14.9 66
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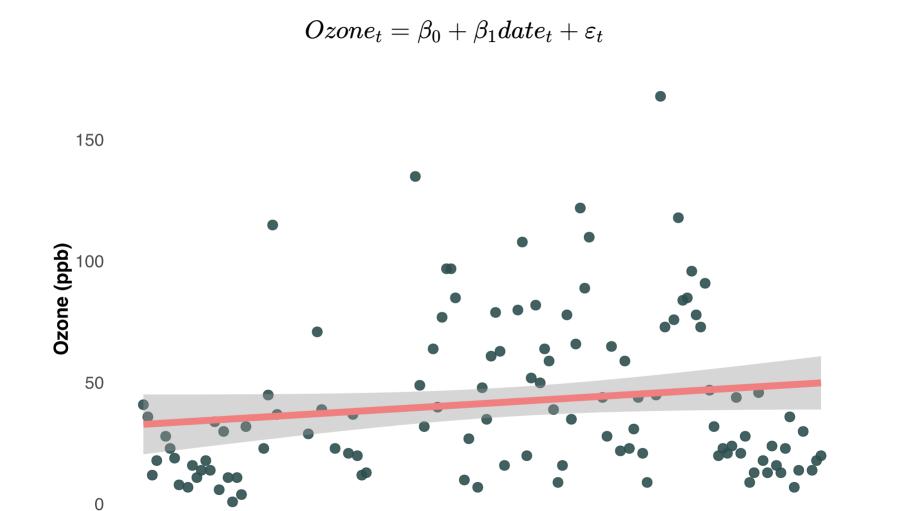
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                    56
                          5 5 1973-05-05
#> 6 28
        NA 14.9 66
                          5 6 1973-05-06
```

- Regression of Ozone on date estimates a linear trend in ozone
- Tip: make\_datetime() from the lubridate package (handy for dates and times)

$$Ozone_t = eta_0 + eta_1 date_t + arepsilon_t$$

```
summary(lm(Ozone ~ date, data = airgts))
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Ozone ~ date, data = airgts)
#>
#> Residuals:
#> Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
#> -42.32 -24.58 -8.39 20.46 122.05
#>
#> Coefficients:
      Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#>
#> (Intercept) -1.04e+02 8.59e+01 -1.21 0.230
#> date 1.30e-06 7.65e-07 1.70 0.092 .
#> ---
#> Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#>
#> Residual standard error: 32.7 on 114 degrees of freedom
#> (37 observations deleted due to missingness)
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.0247, Adjusted R-squared: 0.0162
#> F-statistic: 2.89 on 1 and 114 DF, p-value: 0.092
```



Jul

**Date** 

Aug

Sep

May

Jun

Oct

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- But there are some new **features** we want to explore:
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- But there are some new **features** we want to explore:
  - Does my data have exhibit trending behavior?
  - Is there seasonality?
  - Is my data cyclical?
- And some new **challenges** to overcome:
  - Additional assumptions needed in OLS
  - Threat to existing assumptions: Are our error terms independent? Is exogeneity harder now?

## Decomposition

#### Seasonality

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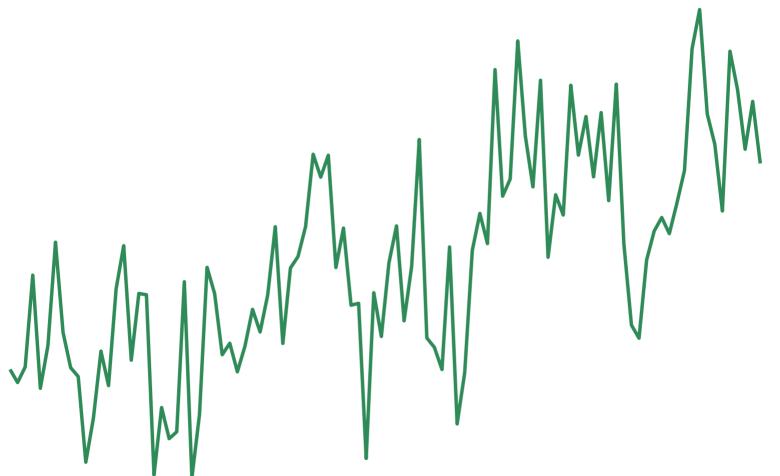
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#### **Trends**

Long-term increase or decrease in the data (not necessarily linear!)

Often, seasonality, cyclicality and trends occur all at the same time:



For many time series,\* we can decompose the data into:

$$y_t = S_t + T_t + R_t$$

where  $S_t$  is a **seasonal** component,  $T_t$  is the cycle *and* trend components, and  $R_t$  is the remainder.

## Time series components

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**Decomposition** allows us to isolate each component of the time series visually and quantitatively.

[\*]: This decomposition is "additive", which works for many time series. See Hyndman for details on more complex "multiplicative" decomposition.

## Decomposition: Moving averages

A key tool in "decomposing" a time series into its component parts is computing a **moving average** 

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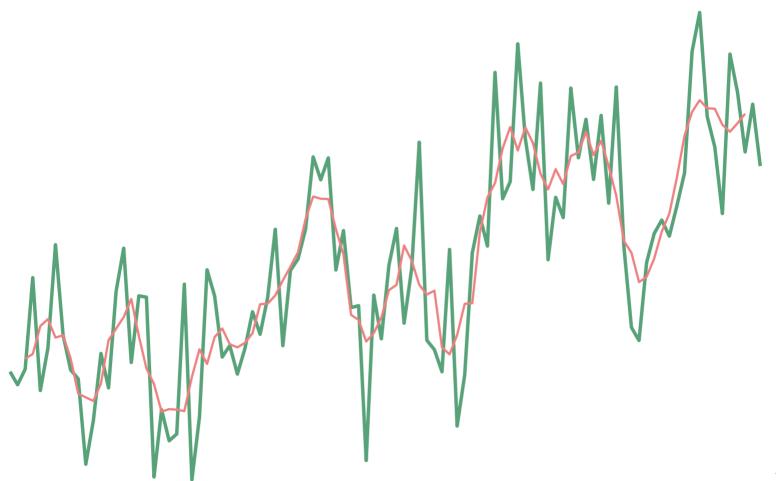
The moving average gives you an estimate of the irregular trend-cycle component T at time t by averaging values of the time series within k periods of t

Computing an m=5 moving average over the data plotted on the last slide:

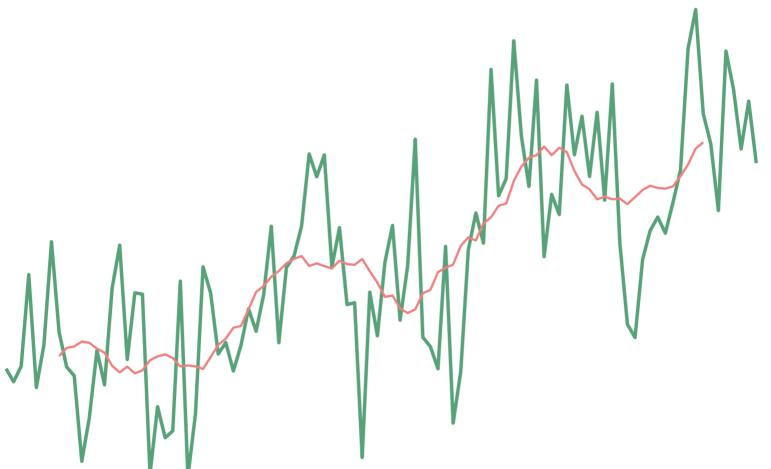
Computing an m=5 moving average over the data plotted on the last slide:

- Helpful package: slider (there are others too!)
- Opetion .complete=TRUE ensures only moving windows with complete data are computed

Computing an m=5 moving average:



Computing an m=15 moving average:



Step 1: estimate a moving average

Estimate an m-moving average to compute  $\hat{T}_t$ 

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De-trended series  $= y_t - \hat{T}_t$ 

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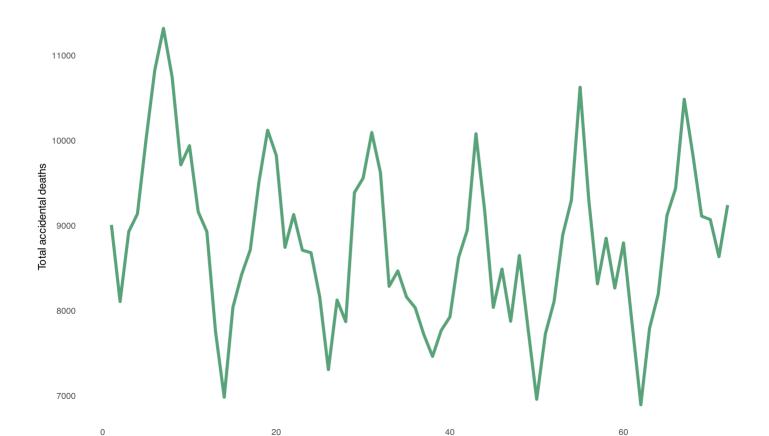
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#### Step 4: remainder

Whatever is left over

Consider a time series of monthly totals of accidental deaths in the USA:

df = USAccDeaths



Months, 1973-1978

24 / 59

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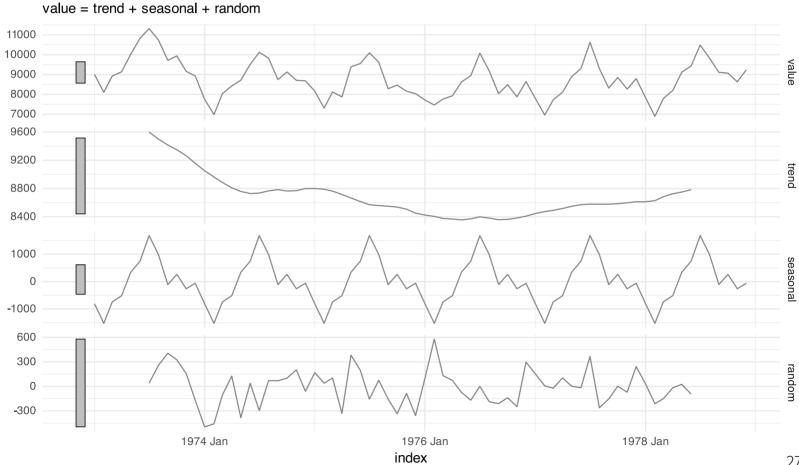
```
decomp = as tsibble(USAccDeaths) %>%
 model(
   classical decomposition(value, type = "additive")
 ) %>%
 components()
head(decomp)
#> # A dable: 6 x 7 [1M]
#> # Key: .model [1]
#> # : value = trend + seasonal + random
#> .model
                                  index value trend seasonal random season adj
#> <chr>
                                  <mth> <dbl> <dbl>
                                                      <dbl> <dbl>
                                                                          <0
#> 1 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Jan 9007
                                                   -806.
                                                               NA
                                                                          98
#> 2 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Feb 8106
                                                     -1523.
                                                                          96
                                                               NA
  3 "classical_decomposition(v... 1973 Mar 8928 NA
                                                      -741.
                                                               NA
                                                                          96
                                                   -515.
  4 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Apr 9137
                                                               NA
                                                                          96
                                                NA 340.
  5 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 May 10017
                                                                          96
                                                               NA
#> 6 "classical decomposition(v... 1973 Jun 10826
                                                NA 745.
                                                                NA
                                                                         359 59
```

#### You can do this by hand, or...

```
as_tsibble(USAccDeaths) %>%
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) %>%
  components() %>%
  autoplot() +
  labs(title = "Classical additive decomposition of accidental deaths in the USA
```

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Classical additive decomposition of accidental deaths in the USA



- As outlined in Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, classical decomposition has some drawbacks:
  - Assumes the seasonal component is fixed over time
  - Loses data at the start and end (due to moving average)
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- Seasonal and Trend Decomposition using Loess (STL)
  - Flexible and versatile method
  - Seasonal compoenent can change over time
  - Robust to outliers
  - use stl() in place of classical\_decomposition()

#### Why decompose a time series?

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  - Do summers tend to have higher crime?
  - Is there an positive trend in ocean temperatures?
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#### 2. To aid in **forecasting**

- You can forecast using estimated seasonality and trend-cycles
- Details are not covered in this class, see Hyndman &
   Athanasopoulos for an overview and implementation in R

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This matters both for interpreting OLS output (in a few slides), and for understanding our data (helpful for identifying any seasonality).

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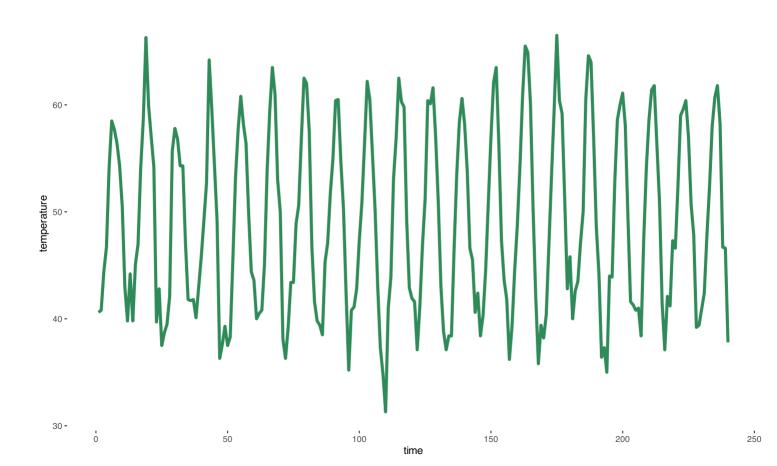
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- Today's temperature may have **no correlation** with temperatures 7 days ago:  $cor(y_t,y_{t-7})=0$

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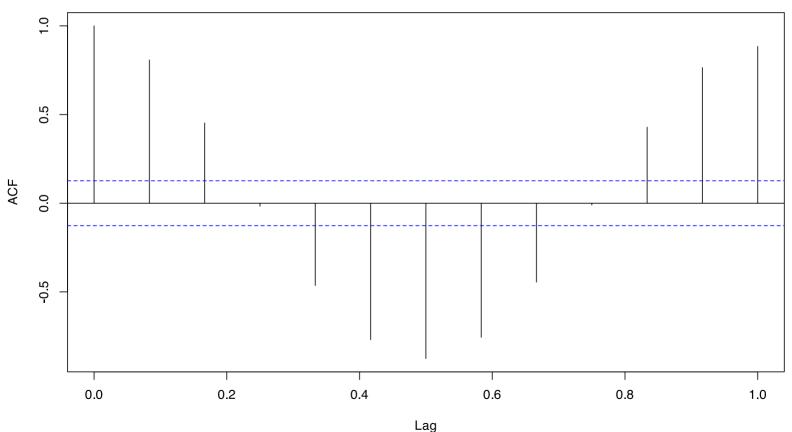
Consider a monthly temperature time series for Nottingham Castle



# Autocorrelation Function (ACF)

acf(nottdf\$temperature, lag.max=12)

#### Series nottdf\$temperature



### Autocorrelation Function (ACF)

- acf() plots an ACF for you!
- The height of each line indicates the correlation between temperature today and temperature *l* days ago
- Confidence intervals are shown in blue by default -- indicate if  $cor(y_t,y_{t-l})$  is statistically distinguishable from zero (or not)
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- Helps to identify periodicity of seasonality

Definition: **white noise** is a random time series in which there is no correlation across time periods (rare in the real world!). Here, the ACF would look noisy and correlations would largely fall within the blue confidence interval.

# Time series and OLS

#### Intro to time series and OLS

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where t-1 denotes the time period prior to t (lagged income or births).

### **Assumptions**

- 1. New: Weakly persistent outcomes—essentially,  $x_{t+k}$  in the distant period t + k is weakly correlated with period  $x_t$  (when k is "big").
- 2.  $y_t$  is a **linear function** of its parameters and disturbance.
- 3. There is **some variation** in our explanatory variables
- 4. Harder to satisfy: The  $u_t$  have conditional mean of zero (exogeneity),  $\boldsymbol{E}[u_t|X]=0.$
- 5. Harder to satisfy: The  $u_t$  are normally distributed and homoskedastic with zero correlation between  $u_t$  and  $u_s$ , i.e.,  $u_t \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\operatorname{Var}(u_t|X) = \operatorname{Var}(u_t) = \sigma^2$ , and  $\operatorname{Cor}(u_t, u_s|X) = 0$ .

### Model options

Time-series modeling boils down to two classes of models.

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- 2. **Dynamic models:** Allow for persistent effects.
  - Models with lagged explanatory variables
  - Autoregressive, distributed-lag (ADL) models

### **Option 1: Static models**

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Can be a very restrictive way to consider time-series data.

**Option 2: Dynamic models** 

**Dynamic models** allow the outcome to depend upon other periods.

Option 2a: Dynamic models with lagged explanatory variables

These models allow the outcome to depend upon the explanatory variable(s) in other periods.

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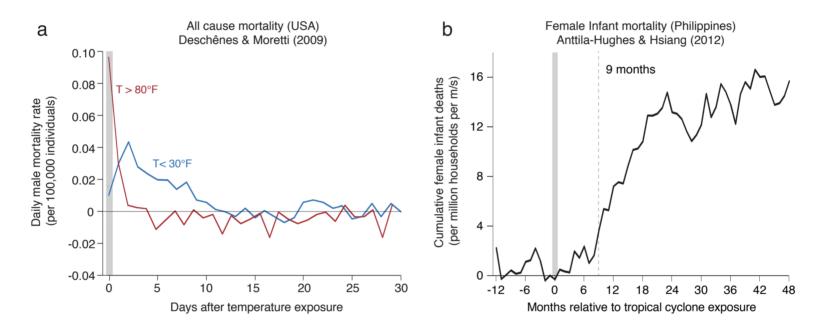
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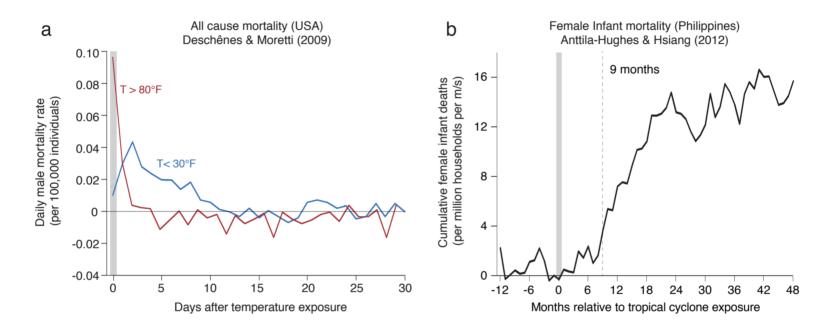
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Lagged explanatory variables in empirical research:



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Q: Can you think of other examples of lagged effects?

### Option 2b: Autoregressive distributed-lag (ADL) models

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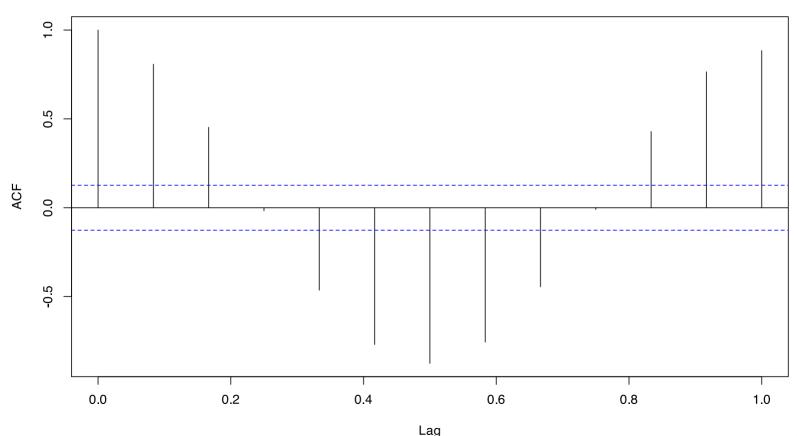
Here, current income affects affects current births and future births.

In addition, current births affect future births—we're allowing lags of the outcome variable.

## Do you need an ADL?

### Hint: Autocorrelation Function (ACF)

#### Series nottdf\$temperature



### Numbers of lags

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Example: ADL(2, 2)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Births}_t = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + \beta_2 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \beta_3 \text{Income}_{t-2} \\ & + \beta_4 \text{Births}_{t-1} + \beta_5 \text{Births}_{t-2} + u_t \end{aligned}$$

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which we can substitute in for  $Births_{t-1}$  in the first equation, *i.e.*,

$$ext{Births}_t = eta_0 + eta_1 ext{Income}_t + \\ ext{} \beta_2 \underbrace{\left(eta_0 + eta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + eta_2 ext{Births}_{t-2} + u_{t-1}\right)}_{ ext{Births}_{t-1}} + u_t$$

Continuing...

$$ext{Births}_t = eta_0 + eta_1 ext{Income}_t + eta_2 (eta_0 + eta_1 ext{Income}_{t-1} + eta_2 ext{Births}_{t-2} + u_{t-1}) + u_t \\ ext{Births}_{t-1} = eta_0 (1 + eta_2) + eta_1 ext{Income}_t + eta_1 eta_2 ext{Income}_{t-1} + eta_2^2 ext{Births}_{t-2} + u_t + eta_2 u_{t-1}$$

Continuing...

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Births}_t = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + \\ & \beta_2 \underbrace{\left(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \beta_2 \text{Births}_{t-2} + u_{t-1}\right)}_{\text{Births}_{t-1}} + u_t \\ = & \beta_0 \left(1 + \beta_2\right) + \beta_1 \text{Income}_t + \beta_1 \beta_2 \text{Income}_{t-1} + \\ & \beta_2^2 \text{Births}_{t-2} + u_t + \beta_2 u_{t-1} \end{aligned}$$

We could then substitute in the equation for  $Births_{t-2}$ ,  $Births_{t-3}$ , ...

Eventually we arrive at

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### The point?

By including just **one lag of the dependent variable**—as in a ADL(1, 0)—we implicitly include for *many lags* of the explanatory variables and disturbances.<sup>†</sup>

<sup>†</sup> These lags enter into the equation in a very specific way—not the most flexible specification.

### **Assumptions**

- 1. New: Weakly persistent outcomes—essentially,  $x_{t+k}$  in the distant period t + k is weakly correlated with period  $x_t$  (when k is "big").
- 2.  $y_t$  is a **linear function** of its parameters and disturbance.
- 3. There is **some variation** in our explanatory variables
- 4. Harder to satisfy: The  $u_t$  have conditional mean of zero (exogeneity),  $\boldsymbol{E}[u_t|X]=0.$
- 5. Harder to satisfy: The  $u_t$  are normally distributed and homoskedastic with zero correlation between  $u_t$  and  $u_s$ , i.e.,  $u_t \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\operatorname{Var}(u_t|X) = \operatorname{Var}(u_t) = \sigma^2$ , and  $\operatorname{Cor}(u_t, u_s|X) = 0$ .

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The second part of our exogeneity assumption—requiring that  $u_t$  is independent of all regressors in other periods—fails with dynamic models with lagged outcome variables.

Thus, OLS is biased for dynamic models with lagged outcome variables.

To see why dynamic models with lagged outcome variables violate our exogeneity assumption, consider two periods of our simple ADL(1, 0) model.

$$Births_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_t + \beta_2 Births_{t-1} + u_t$$
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This correlation violates the second part of our exogeneity requirement.

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With contemporaneous exogeneity, OLS estimates for the coefficients in a time series model are **consistent** (whew)

### Autocorrelation in the error term

The time series version of our assumption about OLS errors includes the following:

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#### Are we worried? In a static model with lagged explanatory variables:

- OLS is **inefficient**, i.e., no longer the lowest variance unbiased estimator
- That is, your standard errors are no longer correct
- However, violating this assumption does not introduce bias (whew!)

### OLS and lagged outcome variables

Consider a model with one lag of the outcome variable—ADL(1, 0)—model with AR(1) disturbances

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**Q:** Why is this a problem?

**A:** It violates contemporaneous exogeneity, i.e.,  $\mathrm{Cov}(x_t,\,u_t) \neq 0$ .

## Testing for serial/autocorrelation

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- o Implement in R with: dwtest(), bgtest()
- Autocorrelation may arise because your model is misspecified.
   Consider adding additional lags and/or explanatory variables if errors are correlated

## Summary: Time series and OLS

- Our model now has t subscripts for time periods.
- Dynamic models allow lags of explanatory and/or outcome variables.
- We changed our **exogeneity** assumption to **contemporaneous** exogeneity, i.e.,  $E[u_t|X_t]=0$
- Including lags of outcome variables can lead to biased coefficient estimates from OLS (but fortunately they are still consistent)
- Lagged explanatory variables make OLS inefficient (i.e., mess up our standard errors)
- Autocorrelation in the error + lagged dependent variables make OLS biased. Watch out! Test for serial/autocorrelation, check for misspecification of your model.

Slides created via the R package **xaringan**.

Some slide components were borrowed from Ed Rubin and Allison Horst.