

25 Spring 439/639 TSA: Lecture 21

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Multiplicative seasonal ARIMA model

Similar to seasonal ARMA(p, q) \times (P, Q)_s, we can also combine a nonseasonal ARIMA(p, d, q) and a seasonal ARIMA(P, D, Q)_s.

First, we need to define seasonal ARIMA(P, D, Q)_s.

Recall that in the nonseasonal version, we say $Y_t \sim \text{ARIMA}(p, d, q)$ if $\nabla^d Y_t \sim \text{ARMA}(p, q)$. Where the differencing operator ∇ is

$$\nabla Y_t = Y_t - Y_{t-1} = (1 - B) Y_t, \quad \text{so } \nabla^d Y_t = (1 - B)^d Y_t.$$

We need a seasonal analogue for this. The seasonal differencing operator of period s , is defined as

$$\nabla_s Y_t = Y_t - Y_{t-s} = (1 - B^s) Y_t.$$

We say $Y_t \sim \text{ARIMA}(P, D, Q)_s$ if $\nabla_s^D Y_t \sim \text{ARMA}(P, Q)_s$. This is called seasonal ARIMA (SARIMA).

Similarly, for multiplicative seasonal ARIMA: we say $Y_t \sim \text{ARIMA}(p, d, q) \times \text{ARIMA}(P, D, Q)_s$ if $\nabla^d \nabla_s^D Y_t \sim \text{ARMA}(p, q) \times \text{ARMA}(P, Q)_s$. In other words,

$$\text{if } \nabla^d \nabla_s^D Y_t \sim \text{ARMA}(p, q) \times \text{ARMA}(P, Q)_s, \quad \text{then } Y_t \sim \text{ARIMA}(p, d, q) \times \text{ARIMA}(P, D, Q)_s.$$

Using the AR/MA polynomial, $Y_t \sim \text{ARIMA}(p, d, q) \times \text{ARIMA}(P, D, Q)_s$ can be written as

$$\phi(B) \Phi(B) (1 - B)^d (1 - B^s)^D Y_t = \theta(B) \Theta(B) e_t,$$

where $\phi(x), \Phi(x), \theta(x), \Theta(x)$ are the AR from nonseasonal, AR from seasonal, MA from nonseasonal, MA from seasonal respectively.

Example. Consider this model

$$Y_t = 0.5 Y_{t-1} + Y_{t-4} - 0.5 Y_{t-5} + e_t - 0.3 e_{t-1}.$$

It can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - 0.5B - B^4 + 0.5B^5) Y_t &= (1 - 0.3B) e_t, \\ (1 - 0.5B)(1 - B^4) Y_t &= (1 - 0.3B) e_t. \end{aligned}$$

This is an ARIMA(1, 0, 1) \times ARIMA(0, 1, 0)₄: $(1 - 0.5B)$ and $(1 - 0.3B)$ are nonseasonal AR/MA polynomial, with orders $p = q = 1$. $(1 - B^4)^1$ is a seasonal differencing operator of period $s = 4$, with order $D = 1$.

Example. Consider this model

$$Y_t = Y_{t-4} + e_t - \theta_1 e_{t-1} - \theta_2 e_{t-2}.$$

Rewrite it as

$$(1 - B^4) Y_t = (1 - \theta_1 B - \theta_2 B^2) e_t.$$

This is an $\text{ARIMA}(0, 0, 2) \times \text{ARIMA}(0, 1, 0)_4$.

Example. Consider this model

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + Y_{t-12} - Y_{t-13} + e_t - 0.1 e_{t-1} - 0.1 e_{t-12} + 0.01 e_{t-13}.$$

Rewrite it as

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - B - B^{12} + B^{13}) Y_t &= (1 - 0.1B - 0.1B^{12} + 0.01B^{13}) e_t, \\ (1 - B)(1 - B^{12}) Y_t &= (1 - 0.1B)(1 - 0.1B^{12}) e_t. \end{aligned}$$

This is an $\text{ARIMA}(0, 1, 1) \times \text{ARIMA}(0, 1, 1)_{12}$: $(1 - 0.1B)$ and $(1 - 0.1B^{12})$ are the nonseasonal and seasonal (period $s = 12$) MA parts, with orders $q = Q = 1$. $(1 - B)^1$ and $(1 - B^{12})^1$ are nonseasonal and seasonal (period $s = 12$) differencing operators, with orders $d = D = 1$.

Cross-covariance, cross-correlation function

Previously, we studied forecasting, i.e. use the past values of (Y_t) to predict future Y_t . Now we consider a different setting. We may use the past values of another time series (X_t) to help predict Y_t .

Suppose (X_t, Y_t) is a vector time series,

$$(X_1, Y_1), (X_2, Y_2), \dots, (X_t, Y_t), \dots$$

The **Cross-covariance function (CCVF)** is defined as

$$\gamma_{t,s}(X, Y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{Cov}(X_t, Y_s).$$

We can also define the **joint (weak) stationarity** for the vector time series (X_t, Y_t) (which is a generalization of the weak stationarity of a single time series (Y_t)). A vector time series (X_t, Y_t) is (weakly) stationary if it satisfies

- $\mathbb{E}[X_t]$ is a constant μ_X for all t , $\mathbb{E}[Y_t]$ is a constant μ_Y for all t .
- $\text{Var}(X_t)$ is a constant for all t , $\text{Var}(Y_t)$ is a constant for all t .
- ACVF $\gamma_{t,s}(X) = \text{Cov}(X_t, X_s)$ only depends on the lag difference $t - s$, $\gamma_{t,s}(Y) = \text{Cov}(Y_t, Y_s)$ only depends on the lag difference $t - s$.
- CCVF $\gamma_{t,s}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X_t, Y_s)$ only depends on the lag difference $t - s$.

So the first three conditions are just saying (X_t) and (Y_t) are both stationary. The only new requirement is the last condition on CCVF.

If the joint stationarity holds, then we can replace the notation $\gamma_{t,s}(X, Y)$ by $\gamma_{t-s}(X, Y)$, since it only depends on the lag difference $t - s$. For example, assuming joint stationarity,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_0(X, Y) &= \gamma_{t,t}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X_t, Y_t), \text{ for any } t \\ \gamma_1(X, Y) &= \gamma_{t+1,t}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X_{t+1}, Y_t), \text{ for any } t \\ \gamma_{-1}(X, Y) &= \gamma_{t-1,t}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X_{t-1}, Y_t), \text{ for any } t \end{aligned}$$

Note: For a single stationary time series (Y_t) , the ACVF has the property that $\gamma_k(Y) = \gamma_{-k}(Y)$ by the symmetry of covariance. But for a joint stationary vector time series (X_t, Y_t) , in general, $\gamma_k(X, Y) \neq \gamma_{-k}(X, Y)$.

Similarly, we can define **cross-correlation function (CCF)**. For simplicity, assume the vector time series (X_t, Y_t) is jointly stationary. The CCF is

$$\rho_k(X, Y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{corr}(X_t, Y_{t-k}) = \frac{\gamma_k(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\gamma_0(X) \cdot \gamma_0(Y)}}.$$

Example. Consider (X_t, Y_t) , where $X_t \sim \text{iid}(0, \sigma_x^2)$, and

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{t-d} + e_t, \quad e_t \sim \text{iid}(0, \sigma_e^2),$$

and $(X_t), (e_t)$ are independent. For this vector time series (X_t, Y_t) , we can show that the CCF is

$$\begin{cases} \rho_{-d}(X, Y) = \text{corr}(X_t, Y_{t+d}) = \frac{\beta_1 \sigma_x}{\sqrt{\beta_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_e^2}} \\ \rho_k(X, Y) = 0, \quad \text{if } k \neq -d. \end{cases}$$

Exercise: verify this CCF.

Bartlett's theorem on sample CCF

Given the observed samples from a vector time series (X_t, Y_t) , we can also obtain sample CCF $r_m(X, Y)$. (Similar to the way we constructed sample ACF.)

We also have another version of Bartlett's theorem for sample CCF: when sample size n is large, the sampling distribution of the sample CCF $r_m(X, Y)$ is approximately

$$r_m(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\rho_m(X, Y), \frac{1}{n} \left(1 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \rho_k(X) \rho_k(Y) \right) \right).$$

This may lead to “**spurious correlation**”: even the theoretical CCF $\rho_m(X, Y)$ is small (or zero), the sample CCF $r_m(X, Y)$ may still be “large” which seemingly implies correlation at lag m . *Note:* here “large” is in the sense of comparing to the standard “ $\frac{2}{\sqrt{n}}$ rule” used in the software.

Example. Suppose $X_t \sim \text{AR}(1)$, $Y_t \sim \text{AR}(1)$, and $(X_t), (Y_t)$ are independent. So the theoretical CCF $\rho_m(X, Y) = 0$ for any m , and the variance term in Bartlett theorem above is

$$\text{Var}(r_m(X, Y)) = \frac{1}{n} \left(1 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \phi_X^k \phi_Y^k \right) = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1 + \phi_X \phi_Y}{1 - \phi_X \phi_Y} \right).$$

For example, if $\phi_X = \phi_Y = \frac{1}{2}$, then $\text{Var}(r_m(X, Y)) \approx \frac{1.67}{n}$. So the sampling distribution has larger variance than the standard $\frac{1}{n}$, which makes the standard “ $\frac{2}{\sqrt{n}}$ rule” not reliable here.