

# План курса

1. Введение во врем. ряды;
2. Фильтрация, сглаживание
3. Линейные модели: AR, MA, ARIMA
4. Нейросетевые подходы: П. и А. В.Р.
5. А. и П. хаотические временные ряды
6. Фрактальный анализ.

Оценка: 4 лабы  $\times$  0.6 + 2 экзамена  $\times$  0.4

Time series is a sequence of measurements of certain quantity ordered in time.  $y = \{y_t\}_{t=1}^T, y_t \in R^n$ .

Continuous time series examples:

1. Economic: GDP, consumer price index;
2. Financial time series;
3. Biological time series: ECG, heart rate.

## Time Series Decomposition (TSD)

Typical decompositon looks like:

$$y_t = T_t + S_t + R_t$$

$T_t$  – trend,  $S_t$  – seasonality component,  $R_t$  – random fluctuations.

The decomposition can also take on the following forms:

$$y_t = T_t S_t R_t,$$

$$y_t = (T_t + S_t) R_t.$$

Decomposition algorythms:

## I. Classical TSD (using moving averages).

$$\text{ma}(y_t; m) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=-k}^k y_t, m = 2k + 1$$

The window size has to be odd. Backward formula:

$$\text{ma}(y_t; m) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=-m}^0 y_t,$$

Forward formula:

$$\text{ma}(y_t; m) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=0}^m y_t.$$

For  $m = 4$ :

$$\text{ma}(y_t; 4) = \frac{1}{4}(y_{t-1}, y_t, y_{t+1}, y_{t+2})$$

MA over MA:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ma}(\text{ma}(y_t, 4); 2) &= \frac{1}{2}[\text{ma}(y_{t-1}; 4), \text{ma}(y_t; 4)] = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{4}(y_{t-2}, y_{t-1}, y_t, y_{t+1}) + \frac{1}{4}(y_{t-1}, y_t, y_{t+1}, y_{t+2}) \right] = \\ &= \frac{1}{8}y_{t-2} + \frac{1}{4}y_{t-1} + \frac{1}{4}y_t + \frac{1}{4}y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{8}y_{t+2}. \end{aligned}$$

This is used to: 1) smoothen the data; 2) extract the trend.

Weighted moving average (WMA):

$$\text{wma}(y_t; m) = \sum_{j=-k}^k y_{t+j} \cdot w_j, w_j \geq 0, \sum w_j = 1.$$

So, the classical TSD algorithm is given as follows:

1. Compute trend component using either MA over MA if m is even or WMA if m is odd.

$$\hat{T}_t = \text{ma}(y_t; m) \text{ or } \hat{T}_t = \text{ma}(\text{ma}(y_t; m); m).$$

2. Detrend the TS:  $y_t - \hat{T}_t = S_t + R_t$ .
3. Compute  $\hat{S}_t$  by averaging detrended time series for a season.
4.  $\hat{R}_t = y_t - \hat{S}_t - \hat{T}_t$  assuming that  $S_t$  the same of each season.

## II. STL Decomposition (seasonal trend decomposition)

This algorithm realies on a technique called LOECS — a type of local regression for modeling and smoothing data  $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$ . Its key components are:

1. Kernel funciton. For example, Gaussian kernel  $w_i = \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i-x)^2}{2\tau^2}\right)$ .
2. Smoothing parameter  $\tau$ . Smaller  $\tau$  leads to narrower windows, larger  $\tau$  — to wider windows and  $\tau \rightarrow +\infty$  means that  $w_i = 1$ , hence leads to model becoming a simple linear regression.

Given data  $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^m$  or  $(t, y_t)_{t=1}^T$ , the LOECS algorithm step-by-step:

1. Choose a kernel function `kernel_fn` and  $\tau$ .
2. For all  $x_i$ :
  - 2.1. Calculate  $w_i = \text{kernel\_fn}(x_i, x, \tau)$
  - 2.2. Build weighted regression model. For example, weighted least squares:  $L = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (y_i - \Theta^T x_i)^2$ , where  $\Theta = (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T W y$ .
  - 2.3. Make predictions  $\hat{y}(X)$  for  $X$  only.
  - 2.4. “Forget” the model.

STL algorithm.

Input:  $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_\tau\}$ .

Parameters:  $n_p$  — # of outer iterations (1-2)

$n_i$  — # of inner iterations (1-2)

$n_l$  — trend smoothing parameter (smoothing parameter for LOECS)

$n_s$  — seasonality smoothing parameter

$n_o$  — residual smoothing parameter (optional, for residues  $R_t$ ).

Outer loop: repeat  $n_p$  times.

1. Initialization:

1) set trend  $T^{(0)} = 0$  (initialize the approximation using MA for example);

2) set weights  $w = \{1, 1, \dots, 1\}$  (optional, for residues).

2. Inner loop: repeat  $n_i$  times

2.1. Detrend time series:  $D = Y - T$ .

2.2. Compute seasonal component:

2.2.1. Split  $D$  subseries by seasons;

2.2.2. For each subseries apply the LOECS technique with  $\tau = n_l$  and weights  $W$ .

2.2.3. Assemble the smoothed subseries into a seasonal component  $C$ .

2.2.4. Compute this  $C$ .

2.3. Update seasonal component  $S = C$ .

2.4. Deseasonalize the data:  $Y_{\text{deseasonalized}} = Y - S$

2.5. Update the trend: apply LOECS for  $Y_{\text{deseasonalized}}$  with  $\tau = n_l$  and “robust” weights  $w$  (obtain  $T$ ).

3. Compute the residuals  $R = Y - T - S$ .
4. Update weights: recompute weights based on residues  $R$  to reduce the influence of outliers. Usually we use Tukey's biweight function.

Post-processing:

- 1) Normalize seasonality;
- 2) Smoothen the trend.

Result: T, S, R

STL is:

robust to outliers,  
can model non-linear trends,  
work with any seasonality.

How to update weights using Tukey's biweight function?

1. Obtain the residuals  $R = Y - S - T$
2. Compute median absolute deviation (MAD)

$$\text{MAD} = \text{median}(|R - \text{median}(R)|).$$

Normalize:  $s \approx 1.4826$ ,  $s$  – standard deviation(???????????)

3. Compute the normalized residuals:  $u_i = \frac{R_i}{C \cdot S}$ , where  $C$  is a tuning constant ( $C = 4.685$ ).
4. Bisquare function  $w_i = \begin{cases} (1-u_i)^2, & |u_i| < 1, \\ 0, & |u_i| \geq 1. \end{cases}$ .
5. If  $S = 0$ , then  $w_i = 0$  (all residuals are the same). If  $\text{MAD} = 0$ , but the residuals are not the same, we use STD instead of MAD.

For example, if  $R = [0.1, -0.2, 3.0, -0.1, 10.0]$ :

1. MAD:  $\text{median}(R) = 0.1$ , hence  $\text{MAD} = \text{median}(|R - 0.1|) = 0.3$   
whatever yada-yada...

# Stationarity and Ergoticity

*Stationarity* is a key feature of time series. There are several kinds of stationarity:

*Strict stationarity*: joint distribution of any segment of time series  $(y_{t_1}, y_{t_2}, \dots, y_{t_k})$  is equivalent to  $(y_{t_1+\tau}, y_{t_2+\tau}, \dots, y_{t_k+\tau}) \forall \tau$ .

*Weak stationarity*: (erased)

Non-stationary time series:

1. Time series with deterministic trend:

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta t + \varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2).$$

Here,  $\mathbb{E}[y_t^T] = \alpha + \beta t$ .

2. (erased)

3. Random Walk:

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2), \text{ cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_s) = 0, t \neq s$$

$$y_1 = y_0 + \varepsilon_1,$$

$$y_2 = y_1 + \varepsilon_2 = y_0 + \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2,$$

...

$$y_t = y_0 + \sum_{i=1}^t \varepsilon_i$$

So,  $\mathbb{E}[y_t] = y_0$ ,  $\mathbb{D}[y_t] = t\sigma^2$ .

Some examples:

1.  $y_t = S_t, \varepsilon_t \sim \text{iid } N(0, \sigma^2)$  - white noise. In this case,

$$\mathbb{E}[y_t] = 0, \mathbb{D}[y_t] = \varepsilon^2 < \infty \rightarrow \text{stationary}, \text{ cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_s) = 0$$

2.  $y_t = \beta y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \beta \in (-1, 1), \varepsilon_t \sim \text{iid } N(0, \sigma^2)$   
(erased)

$$1. \quad \mathbb{E}[y_t] = \beta_1^t \mathbb{E}[y_0] + \hat{\beta}^{t-1} \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_1] + \dots + \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_t]$$

$$= \beta_1^t y_0 \quad \text{if } t \rightarrow \infty, \beta_1^t \rightarrow 0.$$

$$2. \quad \mathbb{D}[\beta^t y_0 + \beta^{t-1} \varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_t] =$$

$$= \beta^{2t-2} \mathbb{D}(\varepsilon_1) + \beta^{2t-4} \mathbb{D}(\varepsilon_2) + \dots + \mathbb{D}[\varepsilon_t] =$$

$$= (\beta^{2t-2} + \beta^{2t-4} + \dots + 1) \sigma^2$$

(erased)

$$3. \text{cov } (y_t, y_{t+1}) =$$

$$= \text{cov}(\beta^t y_0 + \beta^{t-1} \varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_t, \beta^{t+1} y_0 + \beta^t \varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_{t+1}) =$$

$$= \beta \text{cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_t) + \beta^3 \text{cov}(\varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon) \dots \text{(erased)}$$

## Unit root

$$y_t = \varphi \cdot y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2), \quad \varphi \text{ is constant.}$$

1.  $|\varphi| < 1$  means that the process is stationary;
2.  $|\varphi| = 1$  is the unit root case, not stationary;
3.  $|\varphi| > 1$  is a non-stationary or explosive time series.

## Why unit root?

$$Ly_t = y_{t-1}, \quad y_t = \varphi Ly_t + S_t \rightarrow (1 - \varphi L) \text{ (erased)}$$

$$\text{If } (1 - \varphi z) = 0, \quad z = \frac{1}{\varphi} = 1 \rightarrow \varphi = 1$$

2. Dickey-Fuller test

1)

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

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

$$\Delta y_t = (\varphi - 1)y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t = \gamma y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t.$$

2)

$H_0 : \gamma = 0$  ( $\varphi = 1$ )  $\rightarrow$  unit root  $\rightarrow$  non-stationary time series.

$H_1 : \gamma > 0$  ( $\varphi < 1$ )  $\rightarrow$  no unit root  $\rightarrow$  stationary process.

3) Evaluate  $\gamma$  by fitting regression:

$$\Delta y_t = \gamma y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t t_{\text{stat}} = \frac{\hat{\gamma}}{\text{SE}(\hat{\gamma})}$$

4) Distributed Dickey-Fuller:

S.L. Crit.Val.

1% -3.43

5% -2.86

10% -2.57

5) If  $t_{\text{stat}} < \text{crit. val.} \rightarrow H_0$  is rejected,

If  $t_{\text{stat}} > \text{crit. val.} \rightarrow H_0$  is not rejected.

## Modification

(erased)

1)  $p \approx \sqrt[3]{T}$ ,  $p \neq (?) \sqrt{T}$ .

2) Test different  $p$ , choose  $p$  which gives you the “best” regression: BIC, AIC, MQIC.

## 4. KPSStat

1) KPSS assumes that the time series is dependant on  $y_t = \xi_t + r_t + \varepsilon_t$ , where  $\xi_t \dots$  (FINISH LATER!!!!!!)