# DS-GA 1018 Modeling Time Series Data Lab 2

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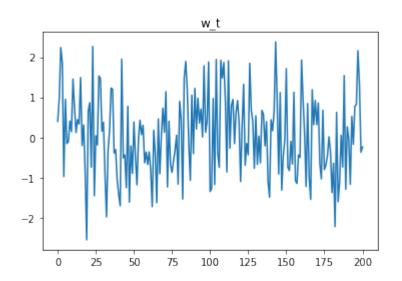
- Recap
  - Polynomial Form
  - Forecasting
  - Parameter Estimation
  - Yule-Walker Equations

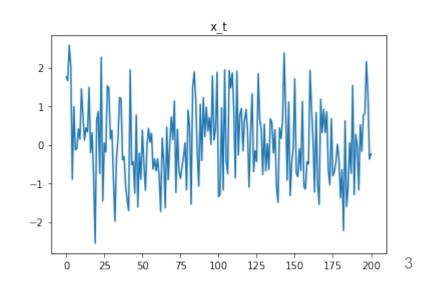
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## Motivation - Parameter Redundancy

- $\circ \quad x_t = 0.5 x_{t-1} 0.5 w_{t-1} + w_t$
- $\circ$  Is  $x_t$  the same as white noise  $w_t$ ?



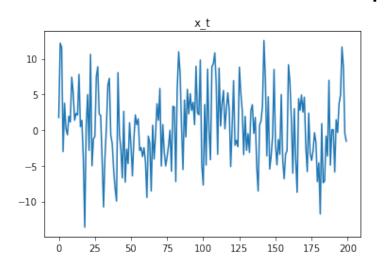


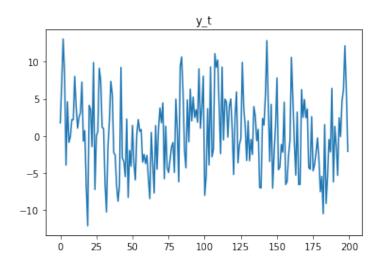


# Motivation - MA Non-uniqueness

$$egin{array}{ll} 0 & x_t = w_t + rac{1}{5}w_{t-1}, w_t \sim N(0,25), \ y_t = v_t + 5v_{t-1}, v_t \sim N(0,1). \end{array}$$

Are those two MA process the same?







## Parameter Redundancy

- When a model can be expressed using a simple model.
- How can we detect parameter redundancy?

#### Other Problems

- Stationary series that depends on future
- MA models that are not unique



## Backshift Operator

**Definition 2.4** We define the backshift operator by

$$Bx_t = x_{t-1}$$

and extend it to powers  $B^2x_t = B(Bx_t) = Bx_{t-1} = x_{t-2}$ , and so on. Thus,

$$B^k x_t = x_{t-k}.$$

Not a function, nor a polynomial. It's an operator that behaves like a polynomial.



#### Example

$$x_{t} = 0.5x_{t-1} - 0.5w_{t-1} + w_{t}$$

$$x_{t} - 0.5x_{t-1} = w_{t} - 0.5w_{t-1}$$

$$x_{t} - 0.5Bx_{t} = w_{t} - 0.5Bw_{t}$$

$$(1 - 0.5B)x_{t} = (1 - 0.5B)w_{t}$$



#### ARMA Model

**Definition 3.5** A time series  $\{x_t; t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots\}$  is **ARMA**(p, q) if it is stationary and

$$x_t = \phi_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p x_{t-p} + w_t + \theta_1 w_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q w_{t-q}, \tag{3.19}$$

with  $\phi_p \neq 0$ ,  $\theta_q \neq 0$ , and  $\sigma_w^2 > 0$ . The parameters p and q are called the autoregressive and the moving average orders, respectively. If  $x_t$  has a nonzero mean  $\mu$ , we set  $\alpha = \mu(1 - \phi_1 - \dots - \phi_p)$  and write the model as



# Polynomial Form

**Definition 3.6** The AR and MA polynomials are defined as

$$\phi(z) = 1 - \phi_1 z - \dots - \phi_p z^p, \quad \phi_p \neq 0,$$

and

$$\theta(z) = 1 + \theta_1 z + \dots + \theta_q z^q, \quad \theta_q \neq 0,$$

respectively, where z is a complex number.



# Causality

#### Property 3.1 Causality of an ARMA(p, q) Process

An ARMA(p, q) model is causal if and only if  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  for  $|z| \leq 1$ . The coefficients of the linear process given in (3.25) can be determined by solving

$$\psi(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_j z^j = \frac{\theta(z)}{\phi(z)}, \quad |z| \le 1.$$

Another way to phrase Property 3.1 is that an ARMA process is causal only when the roots of  $\phi(z)$  lie outside the unit circle; that is,  $\phi(z) = 0$  only when |z| > 1. Finally, to address the problem of uniqueness discussed in Example 3.6, we choose the model that allows an infinite autoregressive representation.

# Invertibility

**Definition 3.8** An ARMA(p, q) model is said to be **invertible**, if the time series  $\{x_t; t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots\}$  can be written as

$$\pi(B)x_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \pi_j x_{t-j} = w_t, \tag{3.26}$$

where  $\pi(B) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \pi_j B^j$ , and  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |\pi_j| < \infty$ ; we set  $\pi_0 = 1$ .

Another way to phrase Property 3.2 is that an ARMA process is invertible only when the roots of  $\theta(z)$  lie outside the unit circle; that is,  $\theta(z) = 0$  only when |z| > 1. The proof of Property 3.1 is given in Section B.2 (the proof of Property 3.2 is similar). The following examples illustrate these concepts.



## Example

Consider the process

$$x_t = .4x_{t-1} + .45x_{t-2} + w_t + w_{t-1} + .25w_{t-2},$$

or, in operator form,

$$(1 - .4B - .45B^2)x_t = (1 + B + .25B^2)w_t.$$



## Example - Redundancy

At first,  $x_t$  appears to be an ARMA(2, 2) process. But notice that

$$\phi(B) = 1 - .4B - .45B^2 = (1 + .5B)(1 - .9B)$$

and

$$\theta(B) = (1 + B + .25B^2) = (1 + .5B)^2$$

have a common factor that can be canceled. After cancellation, the operators are  $\phi(B) = (1 - .9B)$  and  $\theta(B) = (1 + .5B)$ , so the model is an ARMA(1, 1) model,  $(1 - .9B)x_t = (1 + .5B)w_t$ , or

$$x_t = .9x_{t-1} + .5w_{t-1} + w_t. (3.27)$$



## Example - Invertibility & Causality

$$\phi(B) = (1 - .9B)$$
 and  $\theta(B) = (1 + .5B)$ .

The model is causal because  $\phi(z) = (1 - .9z) = 0$  when z = 10/9, which is outside the unit circle. The model is also invertible because the root of  $\theta(z) = (1 + .5z)$  is z = -2, which is outside the unit circle.

#### **Proof in textbook section 3.1**



#### Given a time series $X = \{x_t\}$ and an AR(p) model:

$$ullet$$
 Model Selection  $x_t = \phi_1 x_{t-1} + \phi_2 x_{t-2} + \ldots + \phi x_{t-p} + w_t$ 

- - Select the model family (AR/MA/ARMA/...)
  - Select hyper-parameters. (AR:p, MA:p, ARMA:p,q)

#### Parameter Estimation

• Given  $X = \{x_t\}$  model family, and hyper-parameters find the set of model parameters that minimizes some loss function.  $\{\phi_i\}$ 

#### Forecast

 Given model and model parameters and a set of data, calculate  $\{\phi_i\}$ 



# Best Linear Predictor for AR(p)

$$egin{array}{ll} \hat{x}_{t+1} &= argmax_{x_{t+1}}(p_X(x_{t+1}|x_t,\ldots,x_{t-p+1})) \ &= E(x_{t+1}|x_t,\ldots,x_{t-p+1}) \ &= \mu + \phi_1(x_t-\mu) + \ldots + \phi_p(x_{t-p+1}-\mu) \end{array}$$



#### Method 1: MLE

- $\circ$  Our predictor  $\hat{x}_{t+1} = f_{\phi}(x_t, x_{t-1}, \ldots, x_{t-p+1})$
- Likelihood

$$L(\Sigma_n,\mu,\phi)=(2\pi)^{-n/2}(v_0v_1\dots v_{n-1})^{-1/2}exp(-rac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^nrac{(x_j-\hat{x}_j)^2}{v_{j-1}})$$

MLE Estimator

$$\phi^* = argmax_\phi L(\Sigma_n, \mu, \phi)$$



#### Method 2: Method of Moments

#### Definitions.

- (1)  $E(X^k)$  is the  $k^{th}$  (theoretical) moment of the distribution (about the origin), for k = 1, 2, ...
- (2)  $E\left[(X-\mu)^k\right]$  is the  $k^{th}$  (theoretical) moment of the distribution (about the mean), for k=1,2,...
- (3)  $M_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^k$  is the  $k^{th}$  sample moment, for k = 1, 2, ...
- (4)  $M_k^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i \bar{X})^k$  is the  $k^{th}$  sample moment about the mean, for k = 1, 2, ...



The basic idea behind this form of the method is to:

- (1) Equate the first sample moment about the origin  $M_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i = \bar{X}$  to the first theoretical moment E(X).
- (2) Equate the second sample moment about the origin  $M_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i^2$  to the second theoretical moment  $E(X^2)$ .
- (3) Continue equating sample moments about the origin,  $M_k$ , with the corresponding theoretical moments  $E(X^k)$ , k = 3, 4, ... until you have as many equations as you have parameters.
- (4) Solve for the parameters.



# Use Method of Moments on AR(p) model

- $\circ$  Express moments as functions of  $\phi$
- Replace theoretical moments with empirical moments
- $\circ$  Solve for  $\phi$

#### Assumption

 $\circ$  AR(p) process with  $\mu=0$ 



• Step 1: Express moments as functions of  $\phi$  Consider the general AR(p)

$$x_{i+1} = \phi_1 x_i + \phi_2 x_{i-1} + \dots + \phi_n x_{i-n+1} + \xi_{i+1}.$$

• multiply by  $x_{i-p-1}$ ,

$$x_{i-p+1}x_{i+1} = \sum_{j=1}^{p} (\phi_j x_{i-p+1} x_{i-j+1}) + x_{i-p+1} \xi_{i+1},$$

• take expectance,

$$\langle x_{i-p+1}x_{i+1}\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(\phi_j \langle x_{i-p+1}x_{i-j+1}\rangle\right) + \langle x_{i-p+1}\xi_{i+1}\rangle$$



# • Step 1: Express moments as functions of $\phi$

• eliminate the zero correlation forcing term

$$\langle x_{i-p+1}x_{i+1}\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(\phi_j \langle x_{i-p+1}x_{i-j+1}\rangle\right)$$

• divide through by (N-1), and use  $c_{-l}=c_l$ ,

$$c_p = \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_j c_{j-p}$$

• divide through by  $c_o$ ,

$$r_p = \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_j r_{j-p}.$$



$$r_p = \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_j r_{j-p}$$
.

Rewriting all the equations together yields



which can also be written as

$$\left( egin{array}{c} r_1 \ r_2 \ dots \ r_{p-1} \ r_p \end{array} 
ight) = \left( egin{array}{ccccc} r_o & r_1 & r_2 & \cdots & r_{p-2} & r_{p-1} \ r_1 & r_o & r_1 & \cdots & r_{p-3} & r_{p-2} \ dots & dots & dots \ r_{p-2} & r_{p-3} & r_{p-4} & \cdots & r_o & r_1 \ r_{p-1} & r_{p-2} & r_{p-3} & \cdots & r_1 & r_o \end{array} 
ight) \left( egin{array}{c} \phi_1 \ \phi_2 \ dots \ \phi_2 \ dots \ \phi_{p-1} \ \phi_p \end{array} 
ight).$$

Recalling that  $r_o = 1$ , the above equation is also

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \\ \vdots \\ r_{p-1} \\ r_p \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{r}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & r_1 & r_2 & \cdots & r_{p-2} & r_{p-1} \\ r_1 & 1 & r_1 & \cdots & r_{p-3} & r_{p-2} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ r_{p-2} & r_{p-3} & r_{p-4} & \cdots & 1 & r_1 \\ r_{p-1} & r_{p-2} & r_{p-3} & \cdots & r_1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{R}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \phi_{p-1} \\ \phi_p \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{\Phi}}$$

or succinctly

**Yule-Walker Equations**  $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{\Phi} = \mathbf{r}$ .



- Step 2: Replace theoretical moments with empirical moments
  - Replace auto-correlation  $r_i$  with empirical auto-correlations
      $\hat{r}_i$
  - $R\Phi = r$  now becomes  $\hat{R}\Phi = \hat{r}$
  - We can estimate  $\hat{R}$  and  $\hat{r}$  from data!



- Step 3: Solve for  $\phi$ 
  - $\hat{\Phi}=\hat{R}^{-1}\hat{r}$
  - Direct matrix inverse takes  $O(n^3)$



• Due Date 10/05/2021 11:59 pm on Brightspace

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