Chapter 1. Characteristics of Time Series

September 12, 2018

Outline

Stochastic Process

Measure of Dependence

Stationarity

Joint Stationarity

Cross-Correlation Function

Basics

- A time series is a stochastic process, i.e., a set $\{x_t(\omega) = x(\omega, t) : t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \cdots\}.$
- An **observed time series** is a sample realization or a sample trajectory/path of a certain stochastic process, i.e., a set $\{x_t: t=0,\pm 1,\pm 2,\pm 3,\cdots\}$ (fixed ω).
- The complete probabilistic structure of a stochastic process is determined by the set of distributions of all finite collections of the x_f's.
- Rather than studying the joint distributions of the x_t's, we look at statistics of the stochastic process: means, variances, and covariances.

Expectation and Variance

• Let X, Y, Z be continuous rv's.

$$\bullet E(h(X)) = \int h(x)f(x)dx = \mu_{h(X)}, \qquad F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(u)du.$$

2
$$E(aX + bY + c) = aE(X) + bE(Y) + c$$
.

Variance:

1
$$\sigma_X^2 = var(X) = cov(X, X) = E((X - \mu_X)^2) \ge 0.$$

- 2
- 3

Covariance and Correlation

Covariance:

1
$$cov(X, Y) = cov(Y, X) = E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)] = E(XY) - \mu_x \mu_y$$
.

2

$$3 cov(aX + bY, Z) = acov(X, Z) + bcov(Y, Z).$$

4

Covariance and Correlation

- The correlation $\rho = corr(X, Y) = \frac{cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{var(X)var(Y)}}$ satisfies:

 - 2
 - 3 If $Y = a \pm bX$ then
- If rv's X and Y are independent then cov(X, Y) = 0, $\rho = 0$, var(X + Y) = var(X) + var(Y).

Mean and Autocovariance

• Suppose that x_t has the **probability density function (pdf)** $f_t(x)$. Then the **mean** function is given by

$$\mu_t = E(x_t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y \cdot f_t(y) \ dy, \qquad t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$$

• The **autocovariance** function, $\gamma_{t,s}$, is defined as

$$\gamma_{t,s} = cov(x_t, x_s) = E[(x_t - \mu_t)(x_s - \mu_s)]$$
 $t, s = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$

• If $s = t \pm h$ then

$$\gamma_{t,s} = \gamma_{t,t\pm h} = cov\{x_t, x_{t\pm h}\}$$

- h = t s is called the lag.
- In particular, $\gamma_{t,t} = cov(x_t, x_t) = \gamma_0 =$ variance of x_t .

Autocorelation

• The **autocorrelation** function, $\rho_{t,s}$, is given by

$$\rho_{t,s} = corr(x_t, x_s) = \frac{cov(x_t, x_s)}{\sqrt{var(x_t) \cdot var(x_s)}} = \frac{\gamma_{t,s}}{\sqrt{\gamma_{t,t} \cdot \gamma_{s,s}}}.$$

- If $\rho_{t,s} = 0$, we say that x_t and x_s are **uncorrelated**.
- If $s = t \pm h$ then we write

$$\rho_{t,s} = \rho_{t,t\pm h}$$

• We usually consider $h \ge 0$.

Example 1: White Noise Process

• Let w_1, w_2, \cdots be a white noise process. Then

$$E(w_t) = \mu_w = \mu \text{ and } var(w_t) = \sigma_w^2.$$

- For s = t (h = 0),
- For $s \neq t \ (h \neq 0)$,
- Thus, the autocovariance function is

$$\gamma_{t,s} = egin{cases} \sigma_w^2, & ext{for } |t-s=h| = 0 \ 0, & ext{for } |t-s=h|
eq 0. \end{cases}$$

Example 1: White Noise Process

• For t = s (h = 0), the autocorrelation function is

$$\rho_{t,s} = \rho_w(0) = \rho_0 = corr(w_t, w_s) = corr(w_s, w_s) = \frac{\gamma_{t,t}}{\sqrt{\gamma_{t,t}\gamma_{t,t}}} = 1.$$

• For $t \neq s$ ($h \neq 0$), the autocorrelation function is

$$\rho_{t,s} = corr(w_t, w_s) = \frac{\gamma_{t,s}}{\sqrt{\gamma_{t,t}\gamma_{s,s}}} = 0.$$

• Hence,

$$\rho_{t,s} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } |t-s=h|=0 \\ 0, & \text{for } |t-s=h| \neq 0 \end{cases} \implies \rho_h = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } |h|=0 \\ 0, & \text{for } |h| \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

 A white noise process is not that interesting. White noise processes are used to capture/model the random component or the inherent background noise of time series data.

• We estimate the autocovariance function $\gamma_x(h)$, h=t-s by its sample analog, i.e.,

$$\hat{\gamma}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n-h} (x_{t+h} - \bar{x})(x_t - \bar{x}).$$

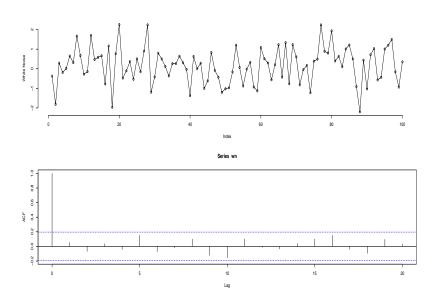
and define $\hat{\gamma}(-h) = \hat{\gamma}(h)$ for any h = 0, 1, ..., n - 1.

- The plot of $\rho(h)$ vs. h is known as the **correlogram**.
- The estimator of the autocorrelation function is

$$\hat{\rho}(h) = \frac{\hat{\gamma}(h)}{\hat{\gamma}(0)}.$$

• In R, use acf().

Example 1: White Noise Process



Random Walk

 A simple random walk or random walk without drift is defined as:

$$x_1 = w_1, \quad x_2 = w_1 + w_2,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_t = w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_t \implies x_t = x_{t-1} + w_t \implies x_t = \sum_{j=1}^t w_j.$$

- If the w_t 's are interpreted as the sizes of the steps taken (forward or backward) along a number line, then x_t is the position of the random walker at time t.
- A special case of an autoregressive TS model.

Example 2: Simple Random Walk

• Let $x_t = \sum_{i=1}^t w_i$. Then

$$\mu_t = E(x_t) = E(\sum_{j=1}^t w_j) = \sum_{j=1}^t E(w_j) = 0,$$

$$var(x_t) = var(\sum_{j=1}^t w_j) \stackrel{\text{ind}}{=} \sum_{j=1}^t var(w_j) = t\sigma_w^2.$$

• Suppose $1 \le s \le t$, then

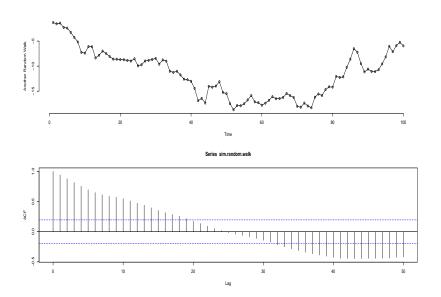
$$\gamma_{t,s} = cov(x_t, x_s) = cov(\sum_{i=1}^{t} w_i, \sum_{j=1}^{s} w_j) = s\sigma_w^2,$$

$$\rho_{t,s} = corr(x_t, x_s) = \frac{\gamma_{t,s}}{\sqrt{\gamma_{t,t}\gamma_{s,s}}} = \sqrt{\frac{s}{t}}.$$

• In general,

$$\gamma_{t,s} = \min\left\{s,t\right\}\sigma_w^2, \qquad
ho_{t,s} = \sqrt{rac{\min\{s,t\}}{\max\{s,t\}}}.$$

Example 2: Simple Random Walk



Suppose that

$$x_t = \frac{w_t + w_{t-1} + w_{t-2}}{3}.$$

Then

$$\mu_t = E(x_t) = E\left(\frac{w_t + w_{t-1} + w_{t-2}}{3}\right) = 0.$$

Also,

$$var(x_t) = var\left(\frac{w_t + w_{t-1} + w_{t-2}}{3}\right) = \frac{\sigma_w^2}{3}$$

• For t = s (h = 0),

$$\gamma_{t,s} = \gamma_{t,t} = \frac{\sigma_w^2}{3}.$$

• For s = t - 1 (h = 1),

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \gamma_{t,t-1} & = & cov\{\frac{w_t + w_{t-1} + w_{t-2}}{3}, \frac{w_{t-1} + w_{t-2} + w_{t-3}}{3}\}\\ & = & \frac{cov\{w_{t-1}, w_{t-1}\} + cov\{w_{t-2}, w_{t-2}\}}{9}\\ & = & \frac{2\sigma_w^2}{9}, \end{array}$$

• For
$$s = t - 2$$
 $(h = 2)$,

$$\gamma_{t,t-2} = cov\{\frac{w_t + w_{t-1} + w_{t-2}}{3}, \frac{w_{t-2} + w_{t-3} + w_{t-4}}{3}\}$$

$$= \frac{cov\{w_{t-2}, w_{t-2}\}}{0} = \frac{\sigma_w^2}{0},$$

• For s < t - 2 (h > 2), $\gamma_{t,s} = 0$ as there are no more common white noise.

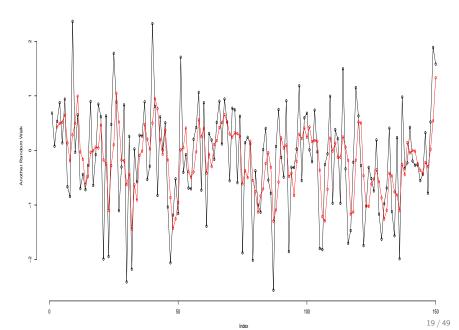
• Hence,

$$\gamma_{t,s} = \gamma_h = egin{cases} \sigma_w^2/3, & \text{for } h = 0 \ 2\sigma_w^2/9, & \text{for } h = \pm 1 \ \sigma_w^2/9, & \text{for } h = \pm 2 \ 0, & \text{for } |h| > 2 \end{cases}$$

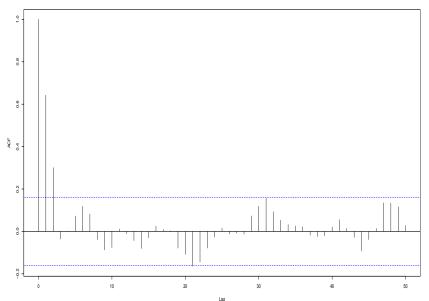
and

$$\rho_{t,s} = \rho_h = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } h = 0\\ 2/3, & \text{for } h = \pm 1\\ 1/3, & \text{for } h = \pm 2\\ 0, & \text{for } |h| > 2 \end{cases}$$

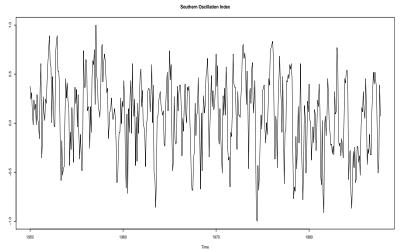
• In this example, the values of $\gamma_{t,t-h}$ and $\rho_{t,t-h}$ depend only on h (but not on t).



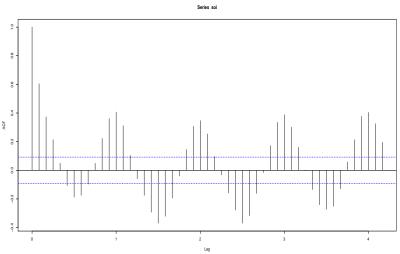
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 E.g. El Niño and Fish Population: The monthly Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) of new fish from the Pacific Environmental Fisheries Group (1957 – 1987, n = 453).



• E.g. El Niño and Fish Population: The monthly SOI's first seven ACF values: 1, 0.604, 0.374, 0.214, 0.050, -0.107, -0.187.



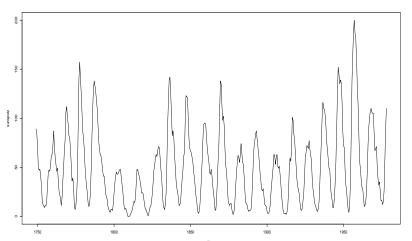
• Testing for White Noise: Any white noise x_t with the finite fourth moment (that clearly includes Gaussian noise) has the sample autocorrelation function (for each fixed h),

$$\sqrt{n}\hat{\rho}(h) \sim N(0,1)$$
.

• A large-sample test for $H_o: \rho_{\mathsf{x}}(h) = 0$ vs $H_a: \rho_{\mathsf{x}}(h) \neq 0$ at level α is to reject $H_o(\text{in favor of } H_a)$ if the p-value $2P(Z > |\sqrt{n}\hat{\rho}(h)|) \leq \alpha$ or if $|\sqrt{n}\hat{\rho}(h)| > z_{\alpha/2}$.

 The p-value is the probability of observing a value of the test statistic which is at least as extreme as what was already observed, if the H_o is true. Use multiplicity correction methods in testing several lag h's (e.g., Bonferroni, etc).

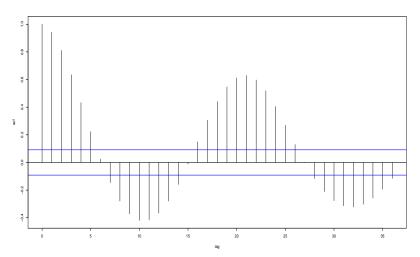
• **E.g. Sunspot Data:** Monthly count of sunspots (n = 459). These are highly correlated with solar storms (intense bursts of magnetic energy, disrupting communications systems on Earth) and others.



• E.g. Sunspot Data:

```
> eg2 = acf(sunspotz,9)
> mat = cbind(0:9, eg2$acf)
> mat
     [,1]
                  [,2]
 [1,]
        0 1.000000000
 [2,] 1 0.943268450
 [3,]
        2 0.810296900
 [4,]
        3 0.634430886
 [5,]
        4 0.432717891
 [6,]
        5 0.223065311
 [7,]
        6 0.024495760
 [8,] 7 -0.145762754
 [9.] 8 -0.279109772
「10.]
        9 -0.371856111
```

• E.g. Sunspot Data: Or add the 95% limits: $\pm 1.96 \frac{1}{\sqrt{459}}$



[9,] 8 2.235114e-09 [10,] 9 1.628999e-15 [11.] 10 2.833295e-19

• E.g. Sunspot Data: Or calculate the p-values. > pv=2*pnorm(sqrt(459)*abs(mat[,2]),lower.tail = FALSE) > cbind(0:36, pv) pv [1.] 0 7.934308e-102 [2.] 1 8.182851e-91 [3.] 2 1.656312e-67 [4,] 3 4.453133e-42 [5,] 4 1.849776e-20 [6,] 5 1.761562e-06 [7,] 6 5.997193e-01 [8,] 7 1.791012e-03

Strict Stationarity

• **Def'n.** A process $\{x_t\}$ is **strictly stationary** if the joint distribution of $x_{t_1}, x_{t_2}, \cdots, x_{t_n}$ is the same as the joint distribution of $x_{t_1-h}, x_{t_2-h}, \cdots, x_{t_n-h}$ for all choices of time points t_1, t_2, \cdots, t_n and all choices of time lag h, i.e.,

$$F_{x_{t_1},x_{t_2},\cdots,x_{t_n}} = F_{x_{t_1-h},x_{t_2-h},\cdots,x_{t_n-h}}.$$

- If x_{t_i} 's are independent then $F_{x_{t_1},x_{t_2},\cdots,x_{t_n}} = \prod_{j=1}^n F_{x_{t_j}}$ easier.
- Under strict stationarity, the x_t 's are (marginally, n = 1) identically distributed. In particular,

$$E(x_t) = E(x_s), \quad var(x_t) = var(x_s).$$
 (free of t) (1)

• For a (strictly) stationary process, the covariance $\gamma_{t,s}$ depends only on the time difference t-s=h.

Weak Stationarity

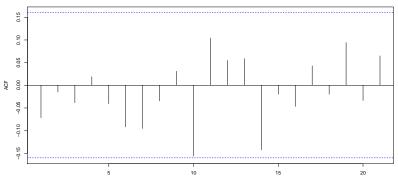
- **Def'n.** A stochastic process $\{x_t\}$ is said to be **weakly or second-order stationary** if it satisfies 1 and 2 below for all indices t and s, i.e.,
 - **1** All $\{x_t\}$'s have constant mean (independent of t), i.e., $\mu_t = E(x_t) = constant$ and
 - 2 the covariance between any two observations $\gamma_{t,t-h}$ depends only on lag h.
- We use the term "stationary process," to mean that the process is weakly stationary.
- Strict stationarity
 weak stationarity. The converse is not true, in general, i.e., weak stationarity
 strict stationarity.

• White Noise: That is $\{w_t\}$ consists of iid rv's with $E(w_t) = \mu_w = 0$ and $var(w_t) = \sigma_w^2$ (both constant and free of t). The acf is

$$\gamma_h = cov\{w_t, w_{t-h}\} = \begin{cases} \sigma_w^2, & h = 0\\ 0, & h \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Hence, stationary.

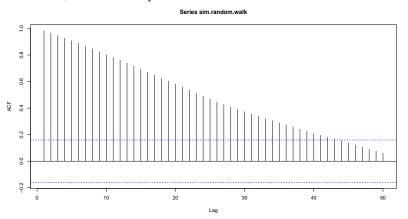
Series ts(wn)



• Simple Random Walk: $x_t = x_{t-1} + w_t$. We know that $E(x_t) = 0$ (constant and free of t). However,

$$\gamma_h = cov\{x_t, x_{t-h}\} = (t-h)\sigma_w^2.$$

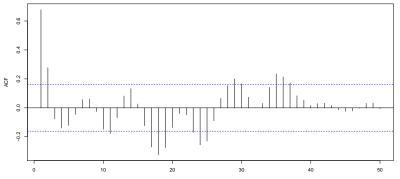
Therefore, nonstationary.



• Moving Average: $x_t = \frac{w_t + w_{t-1} + w_{t-2}}{3}$. We know that $E(x_t) = 0$ and $\gamma_h = \begin{cases} \sigma_w^2/3, & \text{for } h = 0\\ 2\sigma_w^2/9, & \text{for } h = 1\\ \sigma_w^2/9, & \text{for } h = 2\\ 0, & \text{for } h > 2 \end{cases}$

Hence, stationary.

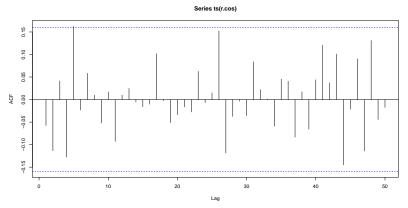
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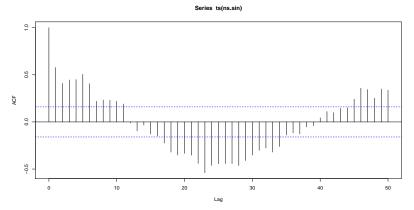
• Random Cosine Wave Process: Let

$$x_t = \cos[2\pi(\frac{t}{12} + \Phi)],$$

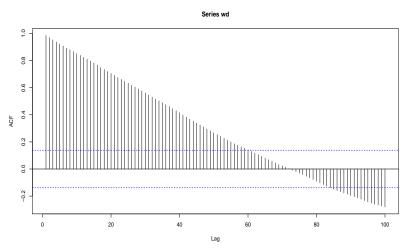
where $\Phi \stackrel{d}{=} U(0,1)$. It is shown on pp 18-19 (CaC) that this process is surprisingly stationary.



• Sinusoidal Process: $x_t = 5 \sin[2\pi(1/52)t + .7\pi] + w_t$, where $\{w_t\}$ is white noise process with mean zero and $var(w_t) = \sigma_w^2$. We see that $E(x_t) = a \sin(2\pi wt + \phi)$, where a is the amplitude, w is the frequency of oscillation, and ϕ is the phase shift; hence, non-stationary.



• Random Walk with Drift: Let $x_t = .2t + \sum_{j=1}^t w_j$. Then $E(x_t) = \delta t$, which is dependent on t, thus, not stationary.



Stationary vs Non-Stationary

- For a stationary series, $\hat{\rho}(h)$ commonly exhibits **short memory**: a few large values of $\hat{\rho}(h)$ for small h are followed by even smaller ones.
- For a non-stationary series, $\rho(h)$ usually tapers off very slowly as h increases.
- Several operations can be carried out to transform a non-stationary series to stationary and thus allows us to employ the methods of this course.

- Suppose two (or more) time series $\{x_t\}$ and $\{y_t\}$ are available and we want to study relationships between two time series, possibly to predict (forecast) one from the other.
- The **cross-covariance** function between the two series x_t and y_t is

$$\gamma_{xy}(s,t) = cov(x_s, y_t) = E[(x_s - \mu_{xs})(y_t - \mu_{yt})].$$

The cross-correlation function is

$$\rho_{xy}(s,t) = \frac{\gamma_{xy}(s,t)}{\sqrt{\gamma_x(s,s)\gamma_y(t,t)}}.$$

• In R, use ccf().

• **Def'n.** Two series x_t and y_t are **jointly stationary** if each one of them is stationary, and their cross-covariance function

$$\gamma_{xy}(h) = cov(x_{t+h}, y_t)$$

is a function of the lag h only.

• The cross-correlation function of the jointly stationary time series x_t and y_t is

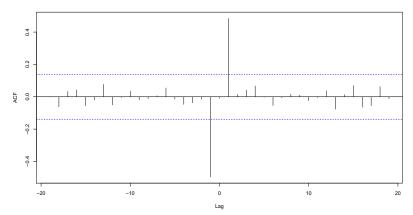
$$\rho_{xy}(h) = \frac{\gamma_{xy}(h)}{\sqrt{\gamma_x(0)\gamma_y(0)}}.$$

- The cross-covariance function is *not symmetric*: $\rho_{xy}(h) \neq \rho_{xy}(-h)$.
- However,

$$\rho_{xy}(h) = \rho_{yx}(-h).$$

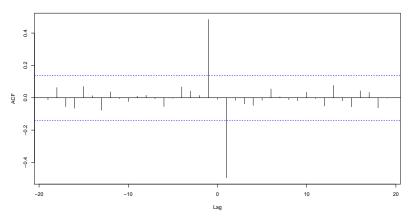
• **E.g.** Consider $x_t = w_t + w_{t-1}$ and $y_t = w_t - w_{t-1}$. Verify that

$$ho_{xy}(h) = \left\{ egin{array}{l} 0,\, h=0 \ rac{1}{2},\, h=1 \ -rac{1}{2},\, h=-1 \ 0,\, |h| \geq 2. \end{array}
ight.$$



• **E.g.** Consider $x_t = w_t + w_{t-1}$ and $y_t = w_t - w_{t-1}$. Verify that

$$\rho_{yx}(h) = \begin{cases} 0, h = 0\\ -\frac{1}{2}, h = 1\\ \frac{1}{2}, h = -1\\ 0, |h| \ge 2. \end{cases}$$

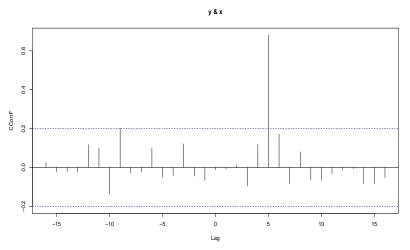


• **E.g.** Let x_t and y_t be related as

$$y_t = Ax_{t-1} + w_t$$

• We say that x_t leads y_t if l > 0 and lags y_t if l < 0.

• Illustration in R using ccf(): Let l=5 and $y_t=x_{t-5}+w_t$. Generate x=rnorm(100); y=lag(x,-5) + rnorm(100) and using ccf(y,x, ...) gives



Note that peaks at positive lags indicate x leads v.

Cross-Correlation

Estimator for cross-covariance function is

$$\hat{\gamma}_{xy}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n-h} (x_{t+h} - \bar{x})(y_t - \bar{y})$$

with
$$\hat{\gamma}_{xy}(-h) = \hat{\gamma}_{yx}(h)$$
.

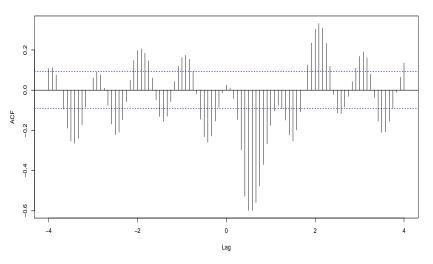
Estimator for cross-correlation function is

$$\hat{\rho}_{xy}(h) = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_{xy}(h)}{\sqrt{\hat{\gamma}_x(0)\hat{\gamma}_y(0)}}.$$

Cross-Correlation

• **SOI** (*x*) and Recruitment (*y*) Correlation Analysis: Simultaneous monthly readings.

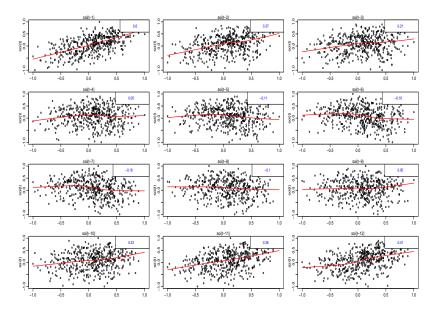




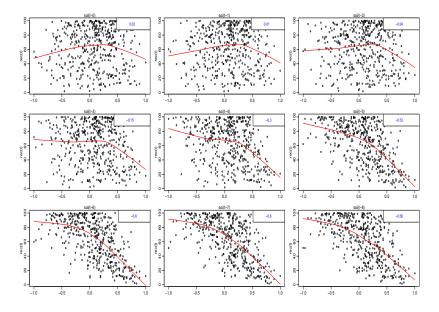
Cross-Correlation

- SOI (x) and Recruitment (y) Correlation Analysis: Obvious negative peak at h = 6.
- Meaning, SOI measured at time t-6 is correlated with Recruitment measured at time t. Hence, SOI leads Recruitment by six months with most CCF values in the preceding/after six months being significant.
- CCF also suggests regressing Recruitment y_t with the lagged SOI x_{t-1} , particularly l = 6.
- This indicates that an increase in SOI is likely to lead to a
 decrease in Recruitment about 6 months later. And, a decrease in
 SOI is associated with a likely increase in Recruiment 6 months
 later.

Cross-Correlation: EDA for SOI



Cross-Correlation: EDA for SOI vs REC



Summary

- Review of basic properties of mean, variance, covariance, and correlation of random variables.
- Definitions of mean functions, autocovariance functions, autocorrelation functions of a stochastic process.
- Stationarity in strict and weak forms.
- Examples of stationary and non-stationary processes.
- Cross-correlation analyses for two time series and estimation.

Lab for Today

- 1. For SOI data, calculcate the 95% bounds for the autocorrelation.
- 2. Verify your results in 1 by superimposing those bounds on the corresponding correlogram.
- 3. Consider two data sets: oil and gas from astsa package. Are any of these datasets stationary? Why or why not?
- 4. Apply the transformation $\nabla \log x_t$, where $\nabla y_t = y_t y_{t-1}$ to both data sets. Are any of these datasets stationary? Why or why not?
- 5. Produce a cross-correlation plot for the transformed data.

Note: At most 5 pages all in all.