

preamble

Time Series Analysis - Tutorial 2.a

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Univariate time series in practice

- A data set whose elements are ordered with time is called a time series and in this case 'variable' is used as synonymous if no ambiguity arises.
- The univariate time series analysis is useful to check the properties of the time series in a set one at a time so that relationships between them may be given their proper meaning.
- As an example we will examine the personal income in the United States from 1-st quarter 1954 to 4-th quarter 1994, values increase with a rate which is approximately constant.

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Autocorrelation

- The possible existence of a correlation between the observations of a time series is a peculiar property that in general other data sets don't own.
- For example, many macroeconomic time series change slowly with time so that an observation at time t (the current variable) tends to be similar to that at time $t - 1$ (the lagged variable).
- This property is called 'autocorrelation', it is much less evident in the growth rate time series.

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The linear correlation coefficient

- Let X and Y denote a pair of statistical variables for which n observations are available.
- Let r denote the linear correlation coefficient between $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)'$ and $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)'$.
- The defining formula is as follows:

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

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Properties of the linear correlation coefficient

- r is always included in the interval $(-1, 1)$.
- If $r > 0$ then there is positive correlation between X and Y , while if $r < 0$ there is negative correlation and $r = 0$ means that X and Y are uncorrelated.
- $r = 1$ implies perfect positive correlation, while $r = -1$ perfect negative correlation.
- The correlation between X and Y is the same as the correlation between Y and X .
- The correlation of a statistical variable with itself is always equal to 1.

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Some comments on the linear correlation coefficient

- Correlation does not imply causation though causality often produces a non zero correlation coefficient.
- The value of r alone is inadequate to explain the relationships between two variables and knowledge about the application field helps to appreciate the estimated value.
- r is a 'nonsense correlation' between X and Y when the correlation is due to a third variable Z which is correlated with both X and Y .
- The correlation between X and Y reflects the linear relationships only.
- While independent variables are uncorrelated, in general uncorrelated variables are not independent.

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The autocorrelation function for the personal income in the United States from 1954 to 1994 (quarterly data)

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The autocorrelation function

- The estimated autocorrelation function is often used as a first approach to the analysis of a time series.
- If n observations of X_t are available, the estimated autocorrelation $\hat{r}(1)$ between X_t and X_{t-1} i.e. the correlation of a time series with its lagged version is the linear correlation coefficient between the two vectors $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1})'$ and $(x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)'$.
- Likewise $\hat{r}(h)$ is the 'order h ' autocorrelation between X_t and X_{t-h} , i.e. the linear correlation coefficient between the two vectors $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-h})'$ and $(x_{h+1}, x_{h+2}, \dots, x_n)'$.
- As a practical rule we may select a maximum value for h , h_{\max} say, and take the data from $t = h + 1$ on into account.

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The personal income in the United States

- Let us consider the quarterly time series data of the personal income in the United States from 1954, first quarter, to 1994, fourth quarter (plot in Fig. 10).
- The original variable is million dollars but it is useful to transform the data by taking the their natural logarithm.
- The time series ∇x_t represents the rate of growth of the original variable between times $t - 1$ and t (plot in Fig. 11).
- The personal income increases approximately by 1% per quarter but the variance of this growth rate varies considerably with time.
- Table 1 reports for comparison the autocorrelation functions of Y and ∇Y

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The personal income in the United States

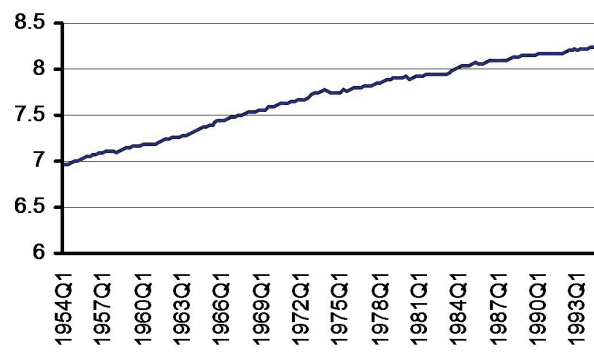


Figure 1: Natural logarithm of the personal income time series from first quarter 1954 to fourth quarter 1994

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Variation of the personal income in the United States

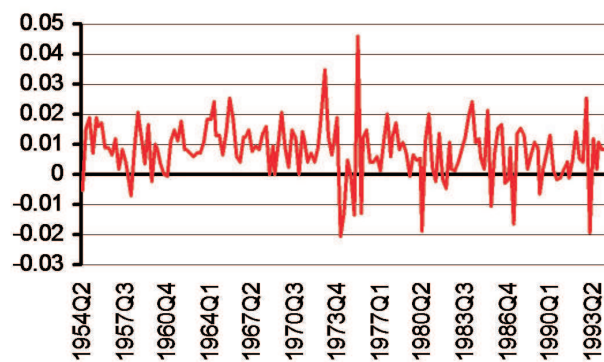


Figure 2: Variation of natural logarithm of the personal income time series from first quarter 1954 to fourth quarter 1994

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The autocorrelation function of Y and ∇Y

Table 1: Autocorrelation function at lags 1 – 12 of the personal income Y and the variations in the level $\nabla Y = Y_t - Y_{t-1}$

lag τ	personal income $r(\tau)$	variation in the level $r(\tau)$
1	0.9997	−0.01
2	0.9993	0.0121
3	0.9990	0.1341
4	0.9986	0.0082
5	0.9983	−0.1562
6	0.9980	0.0611
7	0.9978	−0.035
8	0.9975	−0.0655
9	0.9974	0.0745
10	0.9972	0.1488
11	0.9969	0.033
12	0.9966	0.0363

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Some comments on the personal income autocorrelation results

- Levels Y are highly autocorrelated up to three years ($\tau = 12$) while ∇Y shows little or no autocorrelations.
- The personal income in past quarters is a good predictor of the current personal income level while the variations in the levels are essentially useless for prediction.
- The persistence of high autocorrelations for large lags suggests that Y has 'long memory' while the variations in the levels don't own such property.
- We may think of Y as a non stationary time series and of ∇Y as a stationary one.
- The two autocorrelation functions (see Fig. 14 and Fig. 15 as well) are typical of the two cases of stationarity and non stationarity.

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Autocorrelation function of the personal income in the United States

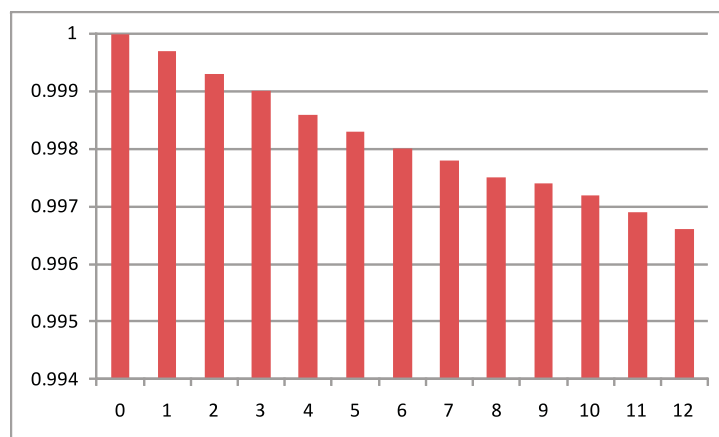


Figure 3: Autocorrelation functions of Y for lags $\tau = 1, \dots, 12$.

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Autocorrelation of the personal income increase in the United States

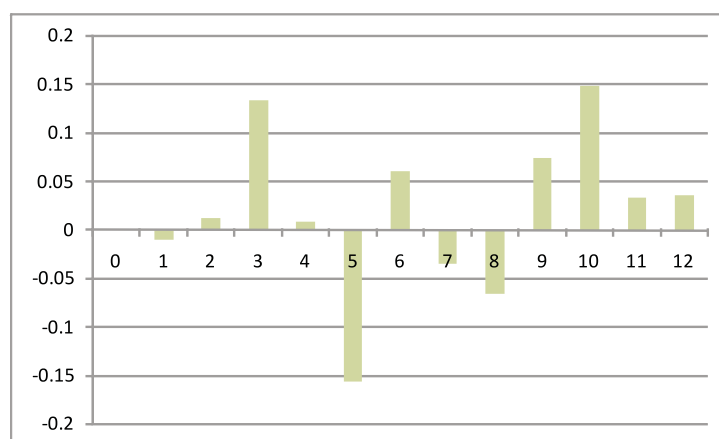


Figure 4: Autocorrelation functions of ∇Y for lags $\tau = 1, \dots, 12$.

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The autoregressive model

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Autoregressive model for univariate time series

- The autoregressive (AR) model may be viewed as a regression model where the input variables are the lagged values of the response variable.
- The simplest AR model is the AR model of order 1, or AR(1), where the response variable is y_t and the input variable is y_{t-1} :

$$y_t = \alpha + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t.$$

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The behavior of a AR(1) depends on the coefficient ϕ

- Simulated time series from an AR(1) with $\phi = 0$, $\phi = 1$ and $\phi = 0.8$, and fixed α , are very different each other:
 - $\phi = 0$, casual fluctuations similar to the 'level variations' which is often observed for differenced time series $\nabla y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$.
 - $\phi = 1$, a trend as in most 'level' time series.
 - $\phi = 0.8$, a behavior which is half way between the previous two cases.
- We may distinguish however the case $\phi = 1$, typical of non stationary time series, from the other cases ($\phi = 0$ and $\phi = 0.8$) which characterize stationary time series.

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Stationarity of an AR(1) time series

- A time series generated by an AR(1) is stationary if $|\phi| < 1$
 - is stationary if $|\phi| < 1$,
 - non stationary if $|\phi| = 1$.
- The case $|\phi| > 1$ in general is not to be considered as it implies the 'explosive' behavior of the time series, this is of little relevance in practical applications.
- Often non stationary is used to mean every situation where the stationarity hypothesis is untenable.

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A non stationarity case: the unit root

- If a time series is generated by an AR(1) with $\phi = 1$ then it is said to have an 'unit root'.
- If y_t has an unit root, then the autocorrelations are close to 1 and are slowly decreasing as the lag increases.
- If y_t has an unit root, then y_t is a 'long memory' random process.
- If y_t has an unit root a trend is present in the time series behavior and this is specially apparent when α is non zero.
- If y_t has an unit root then ∇y_t is a stationary random process and y_t is called 'difference stationary'.

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A difference time series model

- Let y_t be generated from an AR(1) model.
- Then ∇y_t follows the model, where $\rho = \phi - 1$,

$$\nabla y_t = \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t.$$

- For this model it is possible to test the hypothesis $\rho = 0$ that the time series y_t has an unit root.
- Notice that the stationarity condition $-1 < \phi < 1$ is equivalent to $-2 < \rho < 0$.
- If $\rho = 0$, or, which it is the same, $\phi = 1$, and, in addition, $\alpha = 0$, then the AR(1) model is said to be a 'random walk' $y_t = y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$.

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Extension of the AR(1) to the AR(p) model

- The AR(p) model is obtained by assuming as input variables beside y_{t-1} the lagged variables y_{t-2}, \dots, y_{t-p} .

$$y_t = \alpha + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \epsilon_t.$$

- The properties of the AR(p) model though similar are more general than those of the AR(1).
- An useful property consists in that the AR(p), $p > 1$, may be used for modeling not only a trend but the (pseudo) periodic fluctuations of the time series as well.

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The unit roots in the AR(p) model

- The AR(p) model may be written in the equivalent form:

$$\nabla y_t = \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \gamma_1 \nabla y_{t-1} + \dots + \gamma_{p-1} \nabla y_{t-p+1} + \epsilon_t.$$

- The coefficients $\rho, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}$ may be calculated from ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_p .
- If $\rho = 0$ the time series y_t has a unit root while it is stationary if $-2 < \rho < 0$.
- If $\rho = 0$ the time series y_t is difference stationary, i.e. ∇y_t follows an AR(p) model.

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Unit roots and the stochastic trend

- We could see that the time series data have to be 'differenced' to obtain a stationary time series in the presence of a unit root.
- This simple statement of fact is of importance in practice because time series may be jointly modeled only if they are stationary.
 - An important exception is the case of 'cointegration', i.e. a linear combination of non stationary time series exists which is found to be stationary.
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Unit roots and the stochastic trend (cont'd)

- Unit root time series contain a stochastic trend.
 - To see this, consider for example an AR(1) with $\phi = 1$ and assume that the time series is known at an initial time $t = 1$ in the past.
 - Then we may write recursively:
$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t, \\ y_{t-1} &= y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1} \Rightarrow y_t = y_{t-2} + \epsilon_t + \epsilon_{t-1}, \\ y_{t-2} &= y_{t-3} + \epsilon_{t-2} \Rightarrow y_t = y_{t-3} + \epsilon_t + \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t-2}, \\ &\vdots \\ y_t &= y_1 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-2} \epsilon_{t-i}. \end{aligned}$$
- The summation $\sum_{i=0}^{t-2} \epsilon_{t-i}$ is said to be the stochastic trend.

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Deterministic trend

- The unit root AR models have a trend, but time series with trend exist that are not unit root AR.
- An example of a 'deterministic trend' in an AR model is:

$$y_t = \alpha + \phi y_{t-1} + \delta t + \epsilon_t.$$

- If in a deterministic trend model the random process is modeled by a stationary AR(1) ($|\phi| < 1$), the time series is said to be 'around trend stationary'.

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The AR(p) model with deterministic trend

- Often the following model proved useful in many applications:

$$\nabla y_t = \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \gamma_1 \nabla y_{t-1} + \dots + \gamma_{p-1} \nabla y_{t-p+1} + \delta t + \epsilon_t.$$

- We have to check if a unit root is present: it suffices to test the hypothesis $\rho = 0$.
- In general $y_{t-1}, \nabla y_{t-2}, \dots, \nabla y_{t-p+1}$ result uncorrelated variables unlike $y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}, \dots, y_{t-p}$.
- For time series with seasonal periodicities trend is a complicated polynomial function of time.

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The AR(p) model with deterministic trend and seasonal dummy variables

- If a time series includes a seasonal component with period s the dummy variables (or 'dummies') D_1, D_2, \dots, D_{s-1} may be defined that equal 1 if there is an observation in this period while equal zero otherwise.
- The observations which are not accompanied by a dummy are intended to refer to the period s .
- All dummies and trend coefficients are to be included in the linear regression and may be estimated by the ordinary least square (OLS) method.

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The AR(p) model with deterministic trend and seasonal dummy variables (cont'd)

- If the time series are quarterly data then $s = 4$ and we may write the model

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla y_t = & \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \gamma_1 \nabla y_{t-1} + \gamma_2 \nabla y_{t-2} + \gamma_3 \nabla y_{t-3} \\ & + \delta_1 D_{1t} + \delta_2 D_{2t} + \delta_3 D_{3t} + \delta t + \epsilon_t. \end{aligned}$$

- The usual test for checking if the coefficients are equal to zero apply to the coefficients of the dummies and of time.

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Exercises

- Simulate 100 observation from the model $\nabla y_t = \alpha + \rho y_{t-1} + \delta t + \epsilon_t$ where $\{\epsilon_t\}$ is a sequence of independent identically distributed normal random variables with zero mean and variance $\sigma_\epsilon = 7.85 \times 10^{-5}$, for the following values of α, ρ, δ :
 1. 0.0078, -0.95 , 1.45×10^{-5}
 2. 0.0087, -0.2155 , 1.9×10^{-5}
 3. 0.004, -0.1758 , 0.0016×10^{-5}
 4. 0.018, -0.78 , 0.0097
- Perform the unit root test for each of the 4 time series.

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[FIGURES: Immagine1.eps, Immagine2.eps, Immagine31.eps, Immagine32.eps] [Data files and electronic sheets: * Example: FIG95.xls, FIG96.xls, FIG97.xls, FIG98.xls * Personal income, time series: income.xls * Personal income, correlations: CORRELATIONS.xls]

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