

# L13: Time series essentials



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# Today we are going to learn...

- 1 The lag operators
- 2 The difference operators
- 3 Linear models for stationary time series
- 4 Stationary
- 5 White noise

## The lag operators

- Suppose  $X_t$  is the GDP for past ten years ( $t = 1, 2, \dots, 10$ ).
- The  $X_{t-1}$  is called the GDP with a lapse of time (i.e. **a lag**).
- In time series analysis, the **lag operator** or **backshift (L is the notation) operator** operates on an element of a time series to produce the previous element.
  - Given some time series  $X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots\}$
  - then  $LX_t = X_{t-1}$  for all  $t > 1$
  - or equivalently  $X_t = LX_{t+1}$  for all  $t \geq 1$
  - and this also works  $L^{-1}X_t = X_{t+1}$
  - and  $L^k X_t = X_{t-k}$ .
- How many lags can we have maximumly?

# Why lags?

- Psychological reasons
  - Those who become instant millionaires by winning lotteries may not change the lifestyles intermediately.
  - People do not change their consumption habits immediately following a price decrease or an income increase.
- Technological reasons
  - We obtained the data from the stock market maybe always 5 seconds behind real time due to technological reasons.
  - The data obtain from authorities maybe always delayed due to confidential reasons.
- Institutional reasons
  - Employers often give their employees a choice among several health insurance plans, but once a choice is made, an employee may not switch to another plan for at least 1 year.
  - You are only allowed to take the re-exam next year if you fail this time.

## The difference operator

- Assume your yearly salaries are  $X_t$ , how much do you earn compared to previous year?
- That should be  $\Delta_t X_t = X_t - X_{t-1}$  which is called **the first difference** operator in time series analysis.
- It could be written in terms of lag operators  $\Delta_t X_t = X_t - X_{t-1} = (1 - L)X_t$
- Similarly, the second difference operator works as follows:

$$\Delta(\Delta X_t) = \Delta X_t - \Delta X_{t-1}$$

$$\Delta^2 X_t = (1 - L)\Delta X_t$$

$$\Delta^2 X_t = (1 - L)(1 - L)X_t$$

$$\Delta^2 X_t = (1 - L)^2 X_t .$$

## Autocovariance and Autocorrelation Functions

- The covariance between  $y_t$  and its value at another time period, say,  $y_{t+k}$  is called the **autocovariance** at lag  $k$ ,

$$\gamma_k = \text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t+k}) = E((y_t - \mu)(y_{t+k} - \mu))$$

- The collection of the values of  $\gamma_k$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  is called the **autocovariance function**.
- The autocovariance at lag  $k = 0$  is just the variance of the time series;
- The **autocorrelation coefficient** at lag  $k$  is

$$\rho_k = \frac{\text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t+k})}{\text{Var}(y_t)} = \frac{\gamma_k}{\gamma_0}$$

- Note that by definition  $\rho_0 = 1$ .
- The collection of the values of  $\rho_k$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  is called the **autocorrelation function (ACF)**.
- The ACF is independent of the scale of measurement of the time series.
- The autocorrelation function is symmetric around zero  $\rho_k = \rho_{-k}$ .

## Sample autocorrelation function partial autocorrelation I

- It is necessary to estimate the autocovariance and autocorrelation functions from a time series of finite length. The usual estimate of the autocovariance function is

$$c_k = \hat{\gamma}_k = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T-k} (y_t - \bar{y})(y_{t+k} - \bar{y})$$

- The autocorrelation function is estimated by the **sample autocorrelation function**

$$r_k = \hat{\rho}_k = \frac{c_k}{c_0}$$

## Sample autocorrelation function partial autocorrelation II

- The **partial correlation** is the correlation between two variables after being adjusted for a common factor that may be affecting them.
- The partial correlation between  $X$  and  $Y$  after adjusting for  $Z$  is defined as

$$\text{Corr}(X - \hat{X}, Y - \hat{Y})$$

where  $\hat{X} = \alpha_1 + b_1 Z$  and  $\hat{Y} = \alpha_2 + b_2 Z$

- The **partial autocorrelation function** between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-k}$  is the autocorrelation between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-k}$  after adjusting for  $y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}, \dots, y_{t-k+1}$  and  $y_{t-k}$ .



## Linear models for stationary time series

- Consider a linear operation from one time series  $x_t$  to another time series  $y_t$

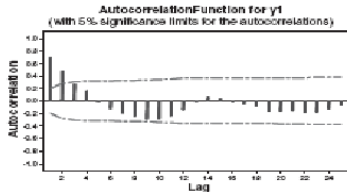
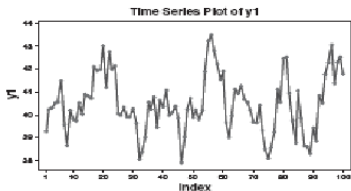
$$y_t = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_i x_{t-i}$$

which is called a **linear filter**.

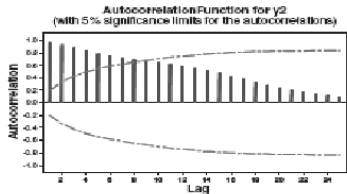
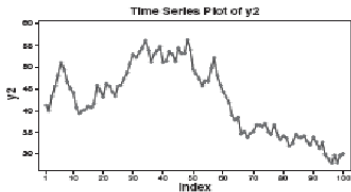
- The linear filter should have the following properties
  - **Time-invariant**:  $\psi$  do not depend on time.
  - **Stable** if  $\sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi_i| < \infty$

# Stationary

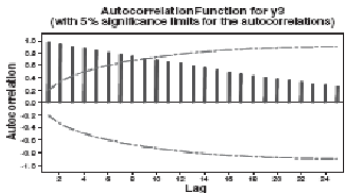
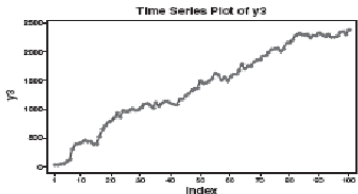
- A **stationary time series** exhibits similar "statistical behavior" in time and this is often characterized as a **constant** probability distribution (in terms of mean, variance, skewness, kurtosis, or even higher moments) in time.
- If we only consider the first two moments of the time series, we are talking about **weak stationarity** which is defined
  - The expected value of the time series does not depend on time.
  - The autocovariance function defined as  $\text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t-k})$  for any lag  $k$  is only a function of  $k$  and not time  $t$ .
- If the time series is not stationary, it can be examined by observing **autocorrelation function (ACF)** and **partial autocorrelation function (PACF)**.



$$(a) y_{1,t} = 10 + 0.75y_{1,t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$



$$(b) y_{2,t} = 2 + 0.95y_{2,t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$



$$(c) y_{3,t} = 20 + y_{3,t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

**Example:** Calculating ACF with R.

# White noise

- If a time series consists of uncorrelated observations and has constant variance, we say that it is **white noise**.
- If in addition, the observations in this time series are normally distributed, the time series is **Gaussian white noise**.
- If a time series is white noise, the distribution of the sample autocorrelation coefficient at lag  $k$  in large samples is approximately normal with mean zero and variance  $1/T$ .

# Stationary time series

- Many time series do not exhibit a stationary behavior.
- The stationarity is in fact a rarity in real life.
- However it provides a foundation to build upon since (as we will see later on) if the time series is not stationary, its first difference ( $y_t - y_{t-1}$ ) will often be stationary.

## Stationary time series

- For a time-invariant and stable linear filter and a stationary input time series  $x_t$

$$y_t = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_i x_{t-i}$$

with  $\mu_x = E(x_t)$  and  $\gamma_x(k) = \text{Cov}(x_t, x_{t+k})$ .

- The output time series  $y_t$  is also a stationary time series where

$$E(y_t) = \mu_y = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_i \mu_x$$

$$\gamma_y(k) = \text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t+k}) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_i \psi_j \gamma_x(i - j + k)$$

## Stationary time series

- The following stable linear process with white noise time series,  $\epsilon_t$ ,

$$y_t = \mu + \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_i \epsilon_{t-i}$$

is also stationary where  $\epsilon_t$  has  $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$  and

$$\gamma_{\epsilon}(k) = \text{Cov}(\epsilon_t, \epsilon_{t+k}) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & k = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- The autocovariance function of  $y_t$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_y(k) &= \text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t+k}) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \psi_i \psi_j \gamma_{\epsilon}(i - j + k) \\ &= \sigma^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \psi_i \psi_{i+k} \end{aligned}$$



## Reading material

*Introduction to Time Series Analysis and Forecasting* by Montgomery, Jennings and Kulahci (**Chapter 5**)

Available at <http://feng.li/files/ec2013fall/ARIMA-Models.pdf>