Chapter 3. Stationarity, white noise, and some basic time series models

Objectives

- Define different concepts for stationarity.
- 2 Define white noise.
- Ise white noise to construct some basic time series models.

Definition: Weak stationarity and strict stationarity

- A time series model which is both mean stationary and covariance stationary is called weakly stationary
- A time series model for which all joint distributions are invariant to shifts in time is called **strictly stationary**.
- Formally, this means that for any collection of times (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_K) , the joint distribution of observations at these times should be the same as the joint distribution at $(t_1 + \tau, t_2 + \tau, \dots, t_K + \tau)$ for any τ .
- For equally spaced observations, this becomes: for any collection of timepoints n_1, \ldots, n_K , and for any lag h, the joint density function of $(Y_{n_1}, Y_{n_2}, \ldots, Y_{n_K})$ is the same as the joint density function of $(Y_{n_1+h}, Y_{n_2+h}, \ldots, Y_{n_K+h}).$

 In our general notation for densities, this strict stationarity requirement can be written as

$$f_{Y_{n_1},Y_{n_2},\dots,Y_{n_K}}(y_1,y_2,\dots,y_K)$$
(1)

$$= f_{Y_{n_1+h}, Y_{n_2+h}, \dots, Y_{n_K+h}}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_K).$$
(2)

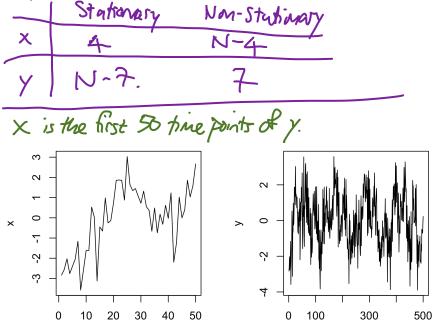
• Strict stationarity implies weak stationarity (check this).

Question 3.1. How could we assess whether a weak stationary model is appropriate for a time series dataset? Not time series. Look visually for evidence of a trend, as a violation of mean stationary. Compare variability over different fine intervals - covariane stationary implies constant variance. Question 3.2. How could we assess whether a strictly stationary model is appropriate for a time series dataset? This is Not plachical to check. We can check some moments look stable thrugh the -> weak stationary. But we can't check all moments, and ever that is not

Question 3.3. Question: Is it usual for time series to be well modeled as stationary (either weakly or strictly)? Offer there is trend or some other nonstationary behavior.

Question 3.4. Question: If data do not often show stationary behavior, why do many fundamental models have stationarity?

Statimary Models use fever parameters, su can be noise practical. Therefore, we try to transform data to look stationary. **Question 3.5**. Question: Is a stationary model appropriate for either (or both) the time series below? Explain.



A time series model $\epsilon_{1:N}$ which is weakly stationary with

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_n] = 0$$

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\epsilon_m, \epsilon_n) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2, & \text{if } m = n \\ 0, & \text{if } m \neq n \end{cases},$$

is said to be white noise with variance σ^2 .

- The "noise" is because there's no pattern, just random variation. If you listened to a realization of white noise as an audio file, you would hear a static sound.
- The "white" is because all frequencies are equally represented. This will become clear when we do frequency domain analysis of time series.
- Signal processing—sending and receiving signals on noisy channels—was a motivation for early time series analysis.

In time series analysis, a sequence of independent identically distributed (IID) Normal random variables with mean zero and variance σ^2 is known as **Gaussian white noise**. We write this model as

 $\epsilon_{1:N} \sim \text{IID } N[0,\sigma^2].$

Let $\epsilon_{1:N}$ be IID with

$$\epsilon_n = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1, & \mbox{with probability } 1/2 \\ -1, & \mbox{with probability } 1/2 \end{array} \right. .$$

We can check that $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_n] = 0$, $\operatorname{Var}(\epsilon_n) = 1$ and $\operatorname{Cov}(\epsilon_m, \epsilon_n) = 0$ for $m \neq n$. Therefore, $\epsilon_{1:N}$ is white noise. Similarly, for any $p \in (0, 1)$, we could have

$$\epsilon_n = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} (1-p)/p, & \mbox{with probability } p \\ -1, & \mbox{with probability } 1-p \end{array} \right.$$

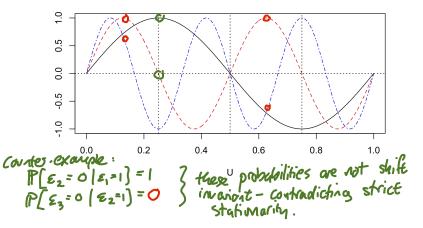
.

Let $\epsilon_n = \sin(2\pi nU)$, with a single draw $U \sim \text{Uniform}[0, 1]$ determining the time series model for all $n \in 1 : N$.

• This is an exercise in working with sines and cosines. As well as providing a concrete example of a weakly stationary time series that is not strictly stationary, this example gives practice working with sines and cosines will come in handy later when we work in the frequency domain.

Question 3.6 A. Show that $\epsilon_{1:N}$ is weakly stationary, and is white noise! $E[\epsilon_n] = \int \sin(2\pi n u) du = \frac{1}{2\pi n} [\cos(2\pi n u)]_0^{-\epsilon} O$ $Gv(\epsilon_m, \epsilon_n) = E[\epsilon_m \epsilon_n] = \int \sin(2\pi n u) \sin(2\pi n u) du$ $= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\epsilon} [Gos(2\pi(n-m)u) - \cos(2\pi(n+m)u)] du$ if n=M, $Gv(\epsilon_m, \epsilon_n) = \frac{1}{2}$, otherwise, for k+O, $\int_0^{\epsilon} \cos(2\pi k u) du = O$ $so Gov(\epsilon_m, \epsilon_n) = O$. **Question 3.7 B**. Show that $\epsilon_{1:N}$ is NOT strictly stationary.

Hint: consider the following plot of $\epsilon_{1:3}$ as a function of U. ϵ_1 is shown as the black solid line; ϵ_2 is the red dashed line; ϵ_3 is the blue dot-dash line.



Reminder: Why do we even need time series models?

- All statistical tests (i.e., whenever we use data to answer a question) rely on having a model for the data. The model is sometimes called the **assumptions** for the test.
- If our model is wrong, then any conclusions drawn from it may be wrong. Our error could be small and insignificant, or disastrous.
- Time series data collected close in time are often more similar than a model with IID variation would predict. We need models that have this property, and we must work out how to test interesting hypotheses for these models.

 $\bullet\,$ The order p autoregressive model, abbreviated to AR(p), is

[M1]
$$Y_n = \phi_1 Y_{n-1} + \phi_2 Y_{n-2} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{n-p} + \epsilon_n$$
,

where $\{\epsilon_n\}$ is a white noise process.

- Often, we consider the **Gaussian AR(p)** model, where $\{\epsilon_n\}$ is a Gaussian white noise process.
- M1 is a stochastic difference equation. It is a [difference equation (also known as a recurrence relation)](https: //en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Recurrence_relation) since each time point is specified recursively in terms of previous time points. Stochastic just means random.

- To complete the model, we need to **initialize** the solution to the stochastic difference equation. Supposing we want to specify a distribution for $Y_{1:N}$, we have some choices in how to set up the **initial values**.
- **(**) We can specify $Y_{1:p}$ explicitly, to get the recursion started.
- **2** We can specify $Y_{1-p:0}$ explicitly.
- For either of these choices, we can define these initial values either to be additional parameters in the model (i.e., not random) or to be specified random variables.

If we want our model is strictly stationary, we must initialize so that $Y_{1:p}$ have the proper joint distribution for this stationary model.

- Assuming the initialization has mean zero, M1 implies that $\mathbb{E}[Y_n] = 0$ for all n. For additional generality, we could add a constant mean μ .
- Let's investigate a particular Gaussian AR(1) process, as an exercise.

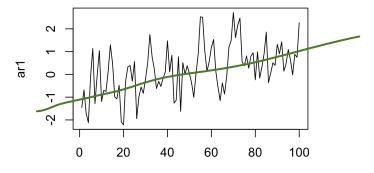
[M2] $Y_n = 0.6Y_{n-1} + \epsilon_n$,

where $\epsilon_n \sim \text{IID}N[0, 1]$. We will initialize with $Y_1 \sim N[0, 1.56^2]$.

Simulating an autoregressive model

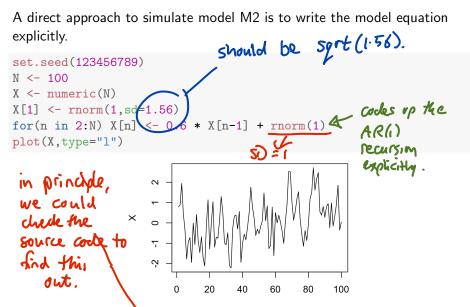
Looking at simulated sample paths is a good way to get some intuition about a random process model. We will do this for the AR(1) model M2. One approach is to use the arima.sim function in R.

```
set.seed(123456789)
ar1 <- arima.sim(list(ar=0.6),n=100,sd=1)
plot(ar1,type="1")</pre>
```



Time

- Does your intuition tell you that these data are evidence for a model with a linear trend?
- The eye looks for patterns in data, and often finds them even when there is no strong statistical evidence.
- That is why we need statistical tests!
- It is easy to see patterns even in white noise. Dependent models produce spurious patterns even more often.
- Play with simulating different models with different seeds to train your intuition. *recommended ophined home wolk*.



This looks similar to the arima.sim simulation, except near the start. Can you explain this? Hint How does arima.sim initialize the simulation?

Question 3.8. What are the advantages and disadvantages of arima.sim over the direct simulation method? over the direct simulation method? Using software is guicker - the software may be better written & more general than our own code. Testing software against our own code on simple examples builds understanding. $Y_n = 0.6 \ Y_{n-1} + E_n$, $E_n \sim N(0, 1)$. only an zero terms $= 0.6 \ O(0.6 \ Y_{n-2} + E_{n-1}) + E_n$ when the noise $= 0.6 \ O(0.6 \ Y_{n-2} + E_{n-1}) + E_n$ when the noise $= 0.6 \ O(0.6 \ Y_{n-2} + E_{n-2}) + 0.6 \ E_{n-1} + E_n$ forms (are at the same lag. Question 3.9. Compute the autcovariance function for model M2. in the stationary case, * Yn= Zk=0(0.6) En-k $\delta h^{=}_{Cov}(\gamma_{n+h},\gamma_{n}) = Cov \left[\sum_{k=0}^{10} 0.6^{k} \varepsilon_{n+k}, \sum_{\ell=0}^{10} 0.6^{\ell} \varepsilon_{n+h-\ell} \right]$ $= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} 0.6^{k+\ell} GV(E_{n-k}, E_{n+k-\ell}) \qquad \text{$$$ trainworky:} \\ = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 0.6^{k} 0.6^{2k} = 0.6^{k} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 0.6 \qquad \text{we con talk} \\ = 0.6^{k} = (0.6^{k}) \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution of } \\ = 0.6^{k} = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution of } \\ = 0.6^{k} = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution of } \\ = 0.6^{k} = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution of } \\ = 0.6^{k} = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution of } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution of } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ = 0.6^{k} \times 1.56. , \text{for } h > 0. \text{ distribution } \\ =$ Matre Value ON.

• The order q moving average model, abbreviated to MA(q), is [M3] $Y_n = \epsilon_n + \theta_1 \epsilon_{n-1} + \dots + \theta_q \epsilon_{n-q}$,

where $\{\epsilon_n\}$ is a white noise process.

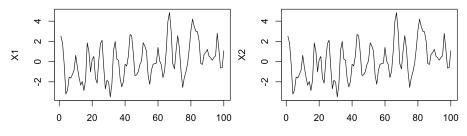
- To fully specify $Y_{1:N}$ we must specify the joint distribution of $\epsilon_{1-q:N}$.
- Often, we consider the **Gaussian MA(q)** model, where $\{\epsilon_n\}$ is a Gaussian white noise process.
- In M3, we've defined a zero mean process. We could add a mean μ .
- Let's investigate a particular Gaussian MA(2) process, as an exercise.
 [M4] Y_n = ε_n + 1.5ε_{n-1} + ε_{n-2},

where $\epsilon_n \sim \text{IID}N[0, 1]$.

Simulating a moving average model

We simulate M4 using the same methods as for the autoregressive model.

```
N <- 100
set.seed(123456789)
X1 <- arima.sim(list(ma=c(1.5,1)),n=N,sd=1)
set.seed(123456789)
epsilon <- rnorm(N+2)
X2 <- numeric(N)
for(n in 1:N) X2[n] <- epsilon[n+2]+1.5*epsilon[n+1]+epsilon[n]
plot(X1,type="1") ; plot(X2,type="1")</pre>
```





Index

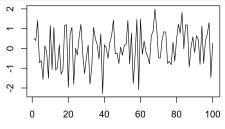
X1 and X2 look identical. We can check this

all(X1==X2)

[1] TRUE

Do you agree that the spurious evidence for a trend that we saw for the AR(1) model is still somewhat present for the MA(2) simulation? Let's see if we can also see it in the underlying white noise process:

```
N <- 100
set.seed(123456789)
epsilon <- rnorm(N)
plot(epsilon,type="1")
```



Index

The random walk model

• The random walk model is

[M5]
$$Y_n = Y_{n-1} + \epsilon_n$$
,

where $\{\epsilon_n\}$ is white noise. Unless otherwise specified, we usually initialize with $Y_0=0.$

- If $\{\epsilon_n\}$ is Gaussian white noise, then we have a Gaussian random walk.
- The random walk model is a special case of AR(1) with $\phi_1 = 1$.
- The stochastic difference equation in M5 has an exact solution,

$$Y_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \epsilon_k.$$

- We can also call Y_{0:N} an **integrated white noise process**. We think of summation as a discrete version of integration.
- If data y_{1:N} are modeled as a random walk, the value of Y₀ is usually an unknown. Rather than introducing an unknown parameter to our model, we may initialize our model at time t₁ with Y₁ = y₁.

• The first difference time series $z_{2:N}$ is defined by

$$z_n = \Delta y_n = y_n - y_{n-1}$$

- From a time series of length N, we only get N-1 first differences.
- A random walk model for y_{1:N} is essentially equivalent to a white noise model for z_{2:N} = Δy_{2:N}, apart from the issue of initialization.

• The **random walk with drift** model is given by the difference equation

$$[\mathsf{M6}] \qquad \qquad Y_n = Y_{n-1} + \mu + \epsilon_n,$$

driven by a white noise process $\{\epsilon_n\}$. This has solution

$$Y_n = Y_0 + n\mu + \sum_{k=1}^n \epsilon_k.$$

- Here, μ is the mean of the **increments** rather than the random walk process itself.
- As for the random walk without drift, we must define Y_0 to initialize the model and complete the model specification. Unless otherwise specified, we usually initialize with $Y_0 = 0$.

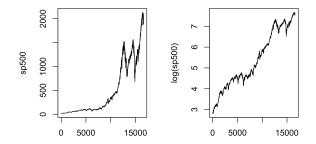
Question 3.10. Compute the mean and covariance functions for the random walk model with and without drift.

See HW2.

Modeling financial markets as a random walk

The theory of efficient financial markets suggests that the logarithm of a stock market index (or, for that matter, the value of an individual stock or other investment) might behave like a random walk with drift. We test this on daily S&P 500 data, downloaded from yahoo.com.

```
dat <- read.table("sp500.csv",sep=",",header=TRUE)
N <- nrow(dat)
sp500 <- dat$Close[N:1] # data are in reverse order in sp500.csv
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(sp500,type="l"); plot(log(sp500),type="l")</pre>
```



To train our intuition, we can compare the data with simulations from a fitted model. A simple starting point is a Gaussian random walk with drift, having parameters estimated from the data.

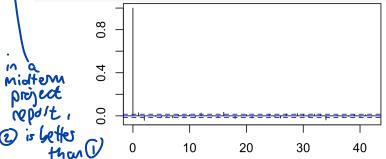
```
mu <- mean(diff(log(sp500)))
sigma <- sd(diff(log(sp500)))
set.seed(95483123)
X1 <- log(sp500[1])+cumsum(c(0,rnorm(N-1,mean=mu,sd=sigma)))
set.seed(324324587)
X2 <- log(sp500[1])+cumsum(c(0,rnorm(N-1,mean=mu,sd=sigma)))
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(X1,type="l"); plot(X2,type="l")</pre>
```

```
par(mai=c(0.8,0.5,0.1,0.1))
```

- This seems reasonable so far. Now we plot the sample autocorrelation function (sample ACF) of diff(log(sp500)).
- It is bad style to refer to quantities using computer code notation. We should set up mathematical notation in the text. Let's try again...
 - Let $y_{1:N}$ be the time series of S&P 500 daily closing values
 - downloaded from yahoo.com. Let $z_n = \Delta \log y_n = \log y_n \log y_{n-1}$. The temporal difference of the log of the value of an investment is
 - called the **return** on the investment. We plot the sample autocorrelation function of the time series of S&P 500 returns, $z_{2:N}$.

```
z <- diff(log(sp500))</pre>
```





- This looks pretty close to the ACF of white noise. There is some evidence for a small nonzero autocorrelation at lags 0 and 1.
- Here, we have have a long time series (N = 16616). For such a long time series, statistically significant effects may be practically insignificant.

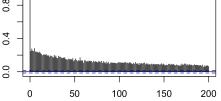
Question 3.11. Why may the length of the time series be relevant when

considering practical versus statistical significance? For small data sets, small effects of no proutical significance will also usually be statistically insignificant.

 It seems like the S&P 500 returns (centered, by subtracting the sample mean) may be a real-life time series well modeled by white noise.

 However, things become less clear when we look at the absolute value of the centered returns.

Question 3.12. How should we interpret the following plot? To what extent does this plot refute the white noise model for the centered returns (or, equivalently, the random walk model for the log index value)? vote: Magnitudes are correlated, thoop actual values are not. This contradicts independent white noise as a model. It doesn't contradict a weak white noise assumption of uncorrelation at lags h>0. acf(abs(z-mean(z)),lag.max=200) 0.8



- Nowadays, nobody is surprised that the sample ACF of a financial return time series shows little or no evidence for autocorrelation.
- Deviations from the efficient market hypothesis, if you can find them, are of interest.
- Also, it remains a challenge to find good models for **volatility**, the conditional variance process of a financial return model.

- These notes build on previous versions at ionides.github.io/531w16 and ionides.github.io/531w18.
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