

# Stochastic processes

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- Defining stochastic processes
- Stationary stochastic processes
- Sample autocorrelations, partial autocorrelations,

# The core problem of modelling a time series

- 1 To model and forecast a univariate time series.
- 2 To establish the relation between a set of univariate time series.

The first involves

- 1 finding out how much of the past information matters and how much comes from the latest innovation.
- 2 finding out the distribution and behaviour of the innovation.
- 3 finding out how much of the behaviour is “permanent” and how much is “temporary”.

Once this is established for the univariate time series, the multivariate modelling can begin.

**In this course, we focus on the univariate time series modelling and forecasting problem.**

# The core problem of modelling a time series

- The biggest worry: whether the innovations are “stable” through time or not.  
If the innovation series ( $\epsilon_t$ ) are not stable – ie, the variance/covariances are a function of time – then it becomes difficult to understand what drives the DGP.
- This question of *stationarity* or *non-stationarity* of the time series is the first and important aspect of understanding a time series,  $x_t$ .
- The OLS perspective of estimation: need to explicitly deal with multicollinearity in time series.

# Part I

## Stochastic time series processes

# What is a deterministic time series process?

- *Deterministic time series processes*: when the effect of time on the next observation in the time series is deterministic.

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= a + bt + \eta_t \\y_{t-1} &= a + b(t-1) + \eta_{t-1} \\ \Delta y_t = (1-L)y_t = y_t - y_{t-1} &= b + (\eta_t - \eta_{t-1}) \\ E\Delta y_t &= b \quad \forall t\end{aligned}$$

Here, the expected change in  $y_t$  is independent of what the value of “t” really is.

# What is a stochastic time series process?

- *Stochastic time series processes*: when the effect on the next observation depends upon what happened before.

$$y_t = a + by_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

$$y_{t-1} = a + by_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}$$

$$\Delta y_t = (1 - L)y_t = y_t - y_{t-1} = b(1 - L)y_{t-1} + (\epsilon_t - \epsilon_{t-1})$$

$$E\Delta y_t = b\Delta y_{t-1}$$

The expected change in  $y_t$  is “dynamic” – changes in value every time period.

# Classification of models used for univariate time series

- 1 Linear models for the conditional expectation of the time series. For example,

$$\begin{aligned}x_t &= a + bx_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \\ \epsilon_t &\sim D(0, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

- Stationary :  $-1 < b < 1$
- Nonstationary :  $b \geq 1; b \leq -1$

- 2 Linear models for the conditional variance. For example,

$$\begin{aligned}x_t &= a + bx_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \\ \epsilon_t &\sim D(0, \sigma_t^2) \\ \sigma_t^2 &= g_0 + g_1 \sigma_{t-1}^2\end{aligned}$$



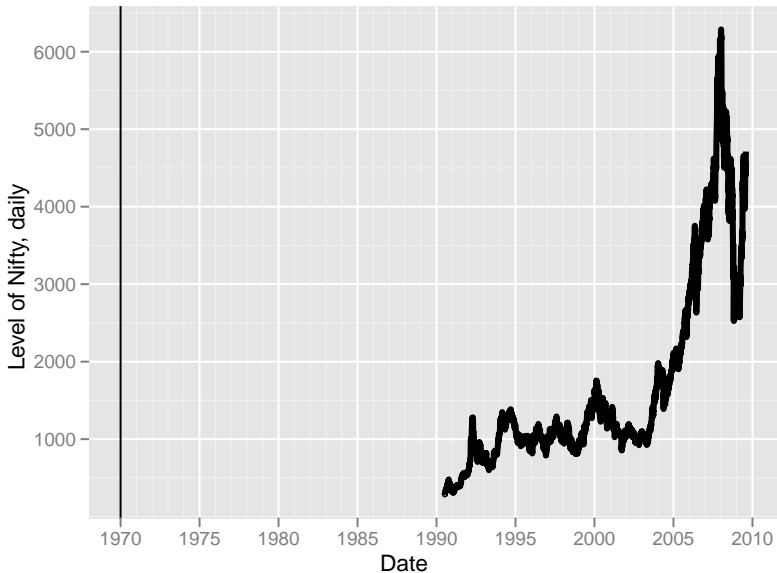
# Univariate time series models, contd.

- 1 Nonlinear models for the conditional mean – smooth transition models which can be thought of as a linear model with time-varying parameters. Example: regime switching models.
- 2 More general non-linear models: where parameters of both the conditional expectation and variance of the time series variable is time-varying.

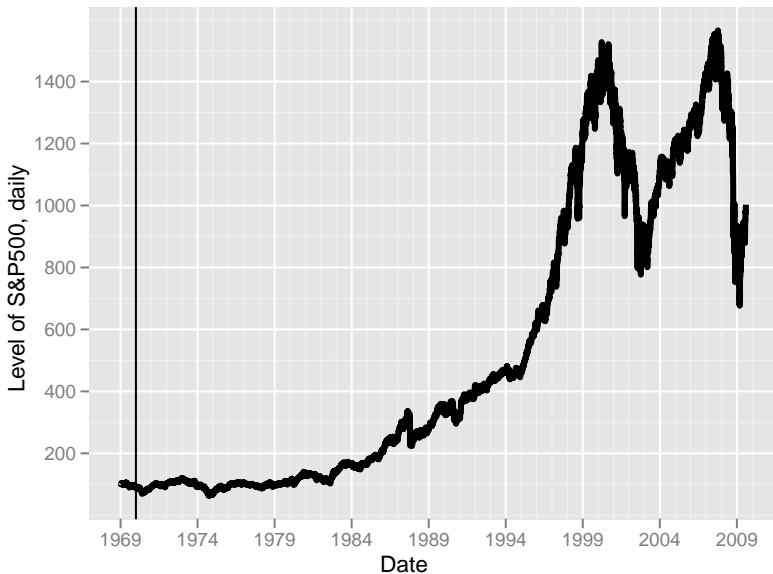
## Part II

Time series in `samples.rda`

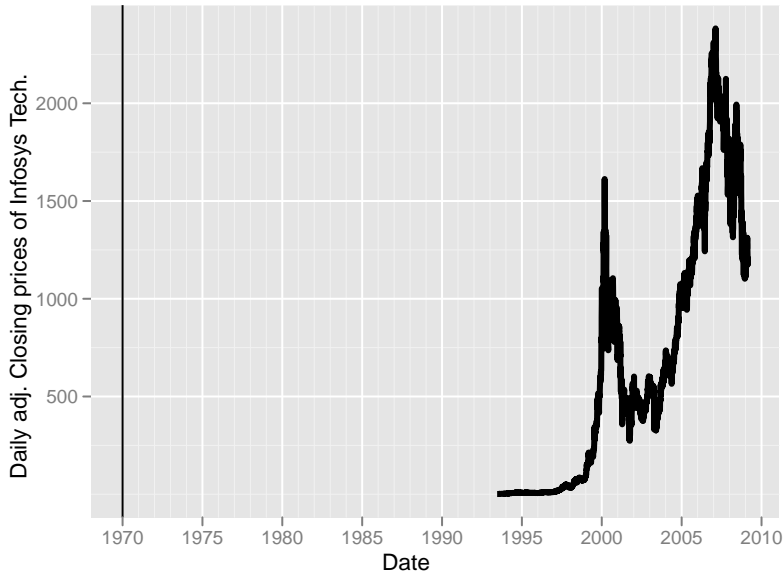
# Stock market prices (daily): Nifty



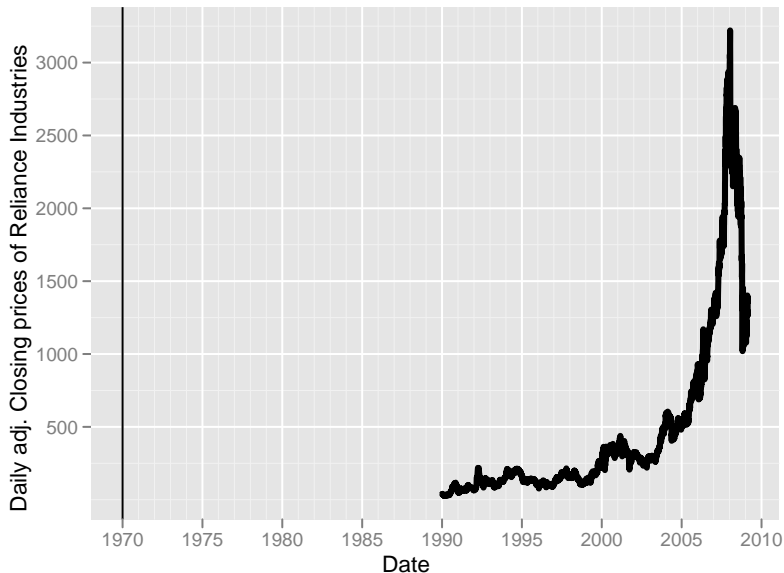
# Stock market prices (daily): SNP500



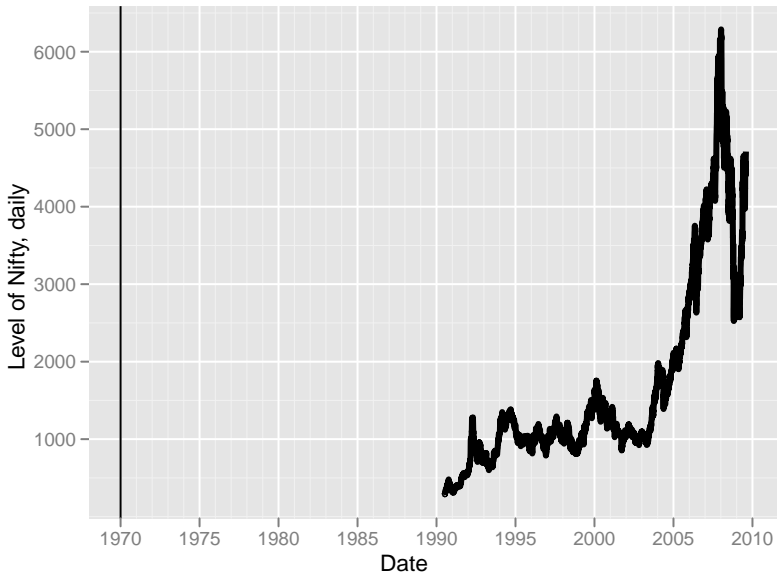
# Stock market prices (daily): Infosys Technologies



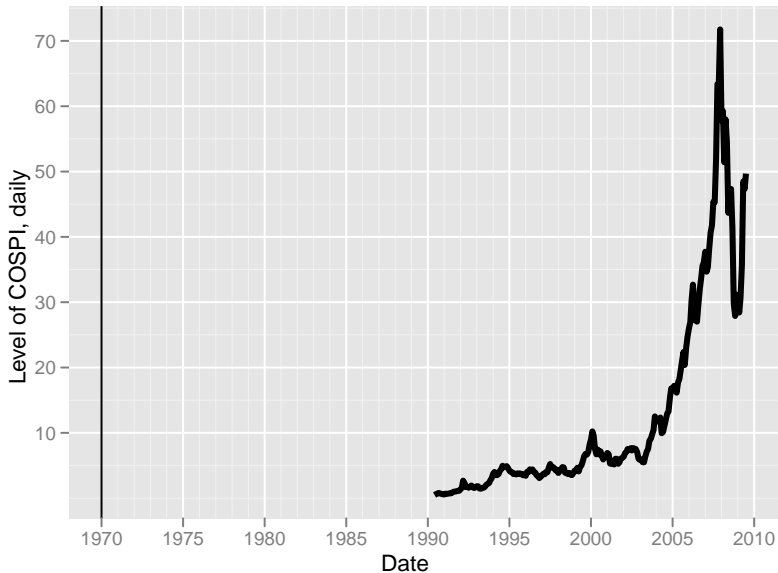
# Stock market prices (daily): Reliance Industries Ltd.



# Stock market prices (daily): Nifty

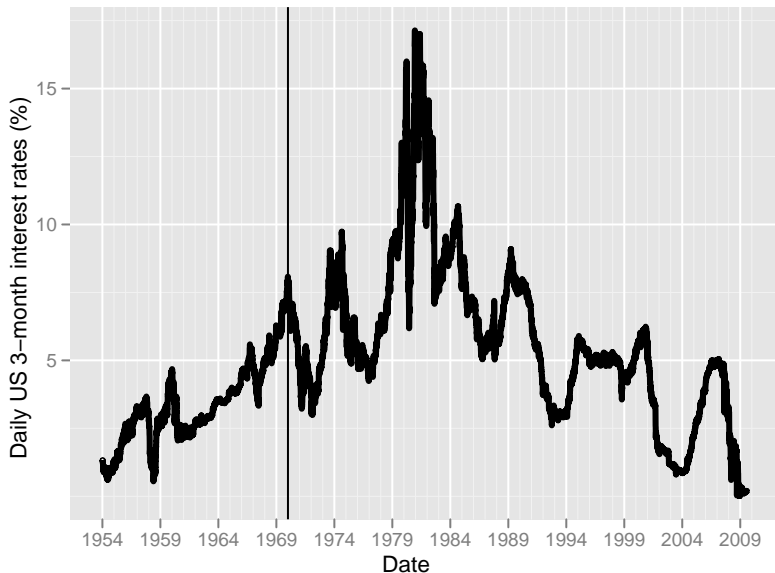


# Stock market capitalisation (monthly): COSPI





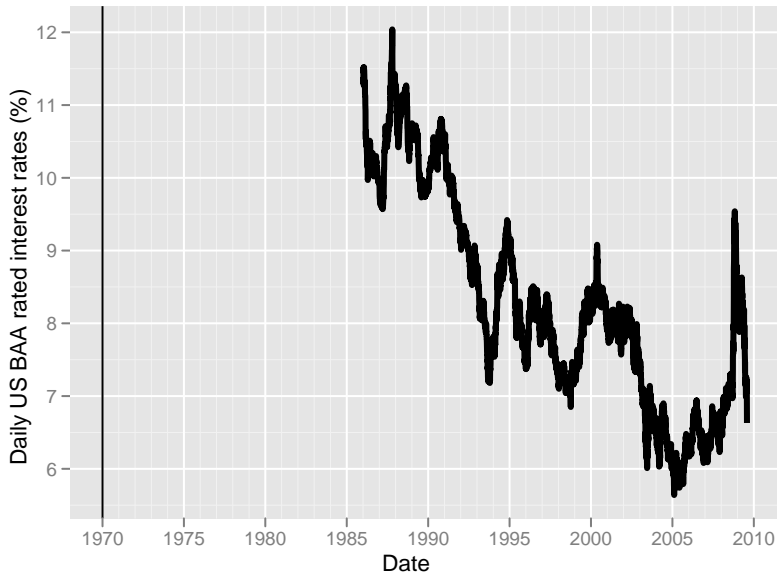
# Bond market rates (daily): US 3-month interest rates



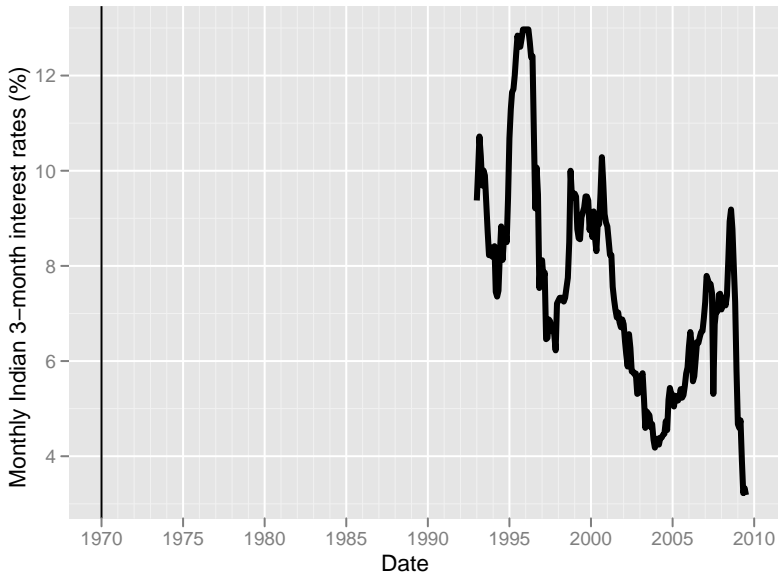
# Bond market rates (daily): US 10-year interest rates



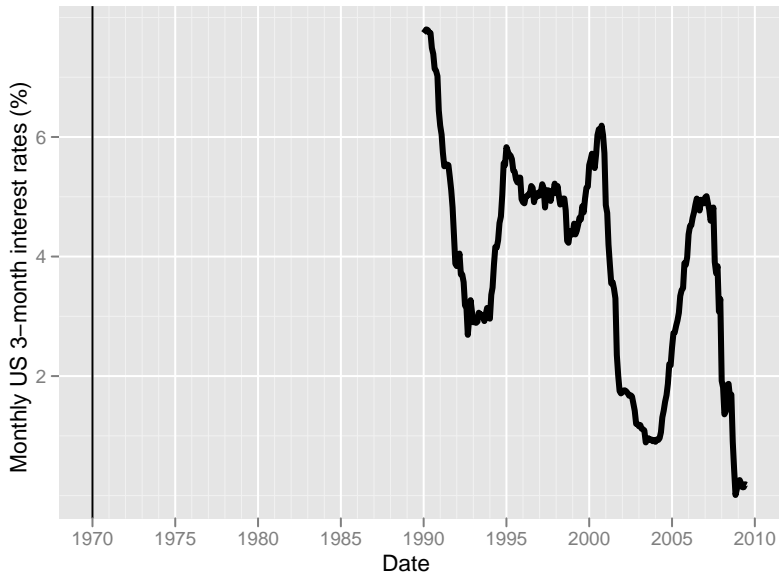
# Bond market rates (daily): US BAA-rated interest rates



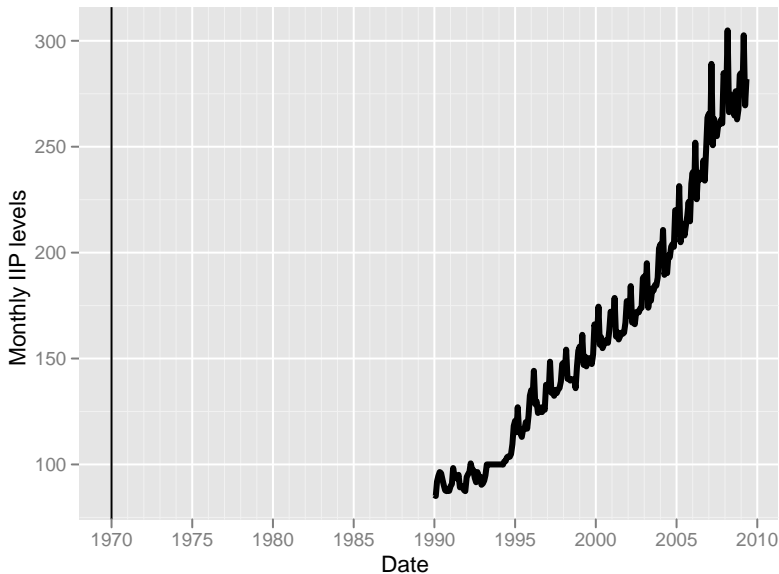
# Monthly Indian 3-month interest rates (%)



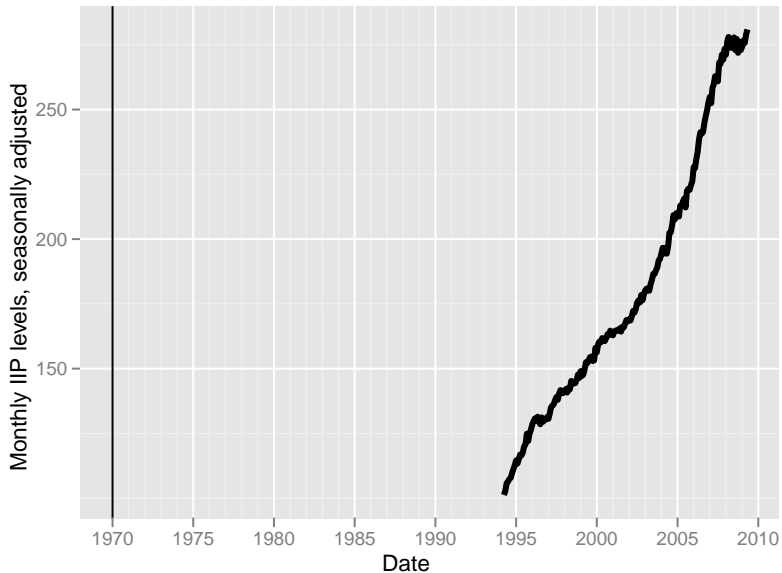
# Monthly US 3-month interest rates (%)



# Indian IIP (monthly): Raw levels



# Indian IIP (monthly): Seasonally adjusted levels



## Part III

Linear models for the conditional expectation  
of stochastic time series processes



# Stationary stochastic processes

- Any stochastic process is a collection of random variables

$$y_t, y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}, y_{t-3}, y_{t-4}, \dots$$

where each observation in the series is assumed to be generated by the previous observation.

ie,  $y_t$  is assumed to be generated/linked to  $y_{t-1}$ .

- The data itself may be only a sample – ie, there are observations before the first one and after the last one.
- Each  $t$  can be any frequency. However, the frequency is fixed for a given time series.

# Stationary stochastic processes – Definition

$y_t$  is stationary if it has first and second moments that are time-invariant.

- First moment:  $E(y_t) = \mu_y \quad \forall t \in T$
- Second moments:  $E[(y_t - \mu_y)(y_{t-h} - \mu_y)] = \gamma_h \quad \forall t \in T, \forall h$   
such that  $(t - h) \in T$ .

where  $\gamma_h$  is called the autocovariance at lag of  $h$  with respect to the data.

- The first condition: values of the series must fluctuate around a mean that is constant.  
For example, if we take subsets of data, the mean should be similar across all sets.  
**Observation:** None of the data in `samples.rda` appear to have this feature.
- The second condition implies that the variances and the covariances of the series remain constant with time as well.  
Note: Each covariance is called an *autocovariance*.  
A stationary process has variance/covariances that do not change with time.  
In addition, each covariance is a function of the number of lags  $h$ .

# Nomenclature and norms

- Sometimes, a process is called *covariance stationary* if the first and the second moments are constant.

A process is also called covariance stationary if

$$E(y_t - \mu_y)(y_{t-h} - \mu_y) = f(h) \forall h$$

- A process is called “trend stationary” when it becomes stationary when a deterministic trend (like a term “ $a + bt$ ”) is removed from it.
- At the start of a DGP, it is possible that a series appears to not be covariance stationary until some “start-up” period. Then, this series is called “asymptotically stationary”. If a process can be made stationary by modifying some initial values, that is called asymptotically stationary.

# Tools to detect second moment autocovariances: autocorrelations and partial autocorrelations

- Unlike in the case of the consistency of first moments in the DGP, it is difficult to visually inspect data for stationarity in the second moments.
- Statistics used to test for second-moment stationarity: sample autocovariances or autocorrelations and partial autocorrelations.

- 1 Autocorrelations (ACs):

$$\tilde{\rho}_h = \tilde{\gamma}_h / \tilde{\gamma}_0$$

where  $\gamma_h = E(y_t - \mu_y)(y_{t-h} - \mu_y)$

- 2 Partial Autocorrelations (PACs): correlation between  $y_t, y_{t-h}$  conditional on  $y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}, \dots, y_{t-h+1}$ .

# Calculating sample autocorrelations

- ACs are calculated as

autocovariance / variance.

where the autocovariances are calculated at a fixed lag,  $h$ .  
ACs are denoted as **AC(h)**.

- Sample AC(h) is calculated as  $\tilde{\gamma}_h$ :

$$\tilde{\gamma}_h = \frac{1}{(T-h)} \sum_{t=h+1}^T (y_t - \bar{y})(y_{t-h} - \bar{y})$$

$$\bar{y} = \sum_{t=1}^T y_t$$

- **Observation:**  $H_0 : \gamma_h = 0$  for stationary series.  
At worst, under the null of stationarity,  $\gamma_h$  should grow as  $h$ .  
For a stationary series, the sample ACs die out quickly.

# Calculating sample partial autocorrelations

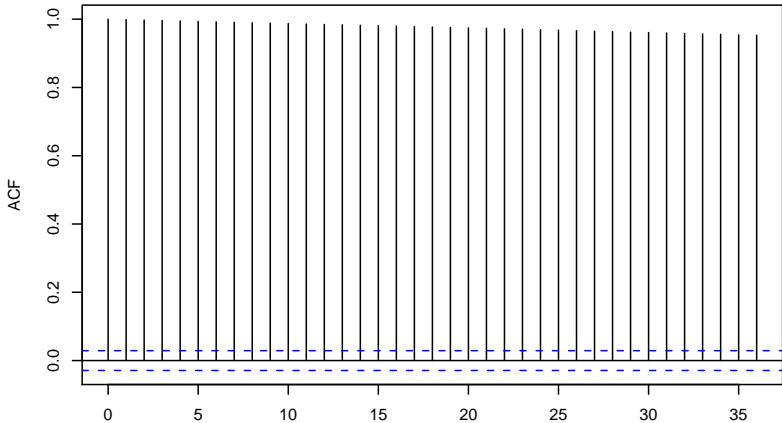
- PACs are calculated from the regression:

$$y_t = \nu + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \alpha_2 y_{t-2} + \alpha_3 y_{t-3} + \dots + \alpha_h y_{t-h} + u_t$$

where sample PAC(h) = the OLS estimate  $\hat{\alpha}_h$  in the above regression.

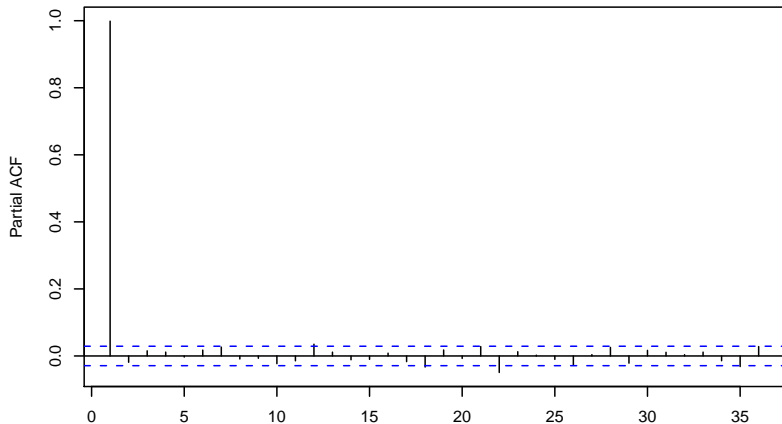
- **Observation:**  $H_0 : \alpha_h \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow \infty$  for stationary series. For a stationary series, the sample PACs die out quickly.

# ACFs for daily levels of Nifty

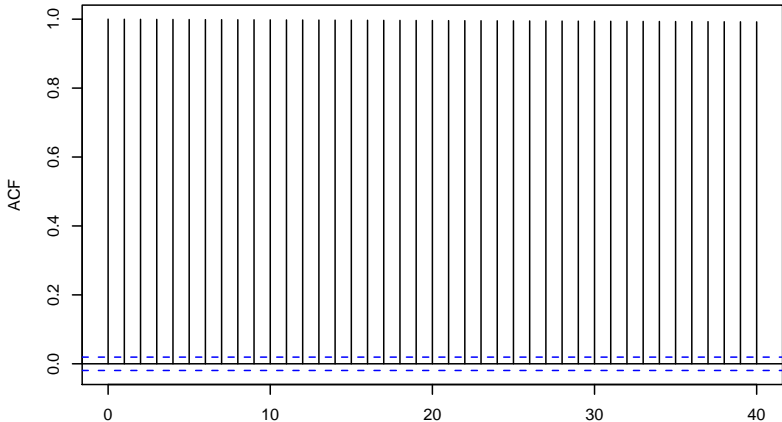




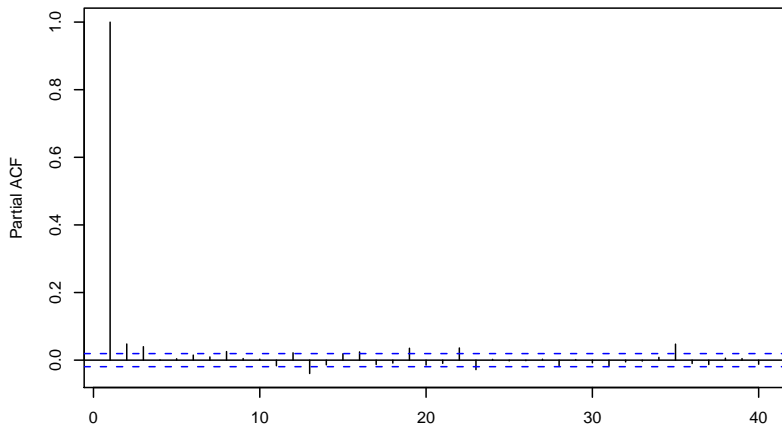
# PACs for daily levels of Nifty



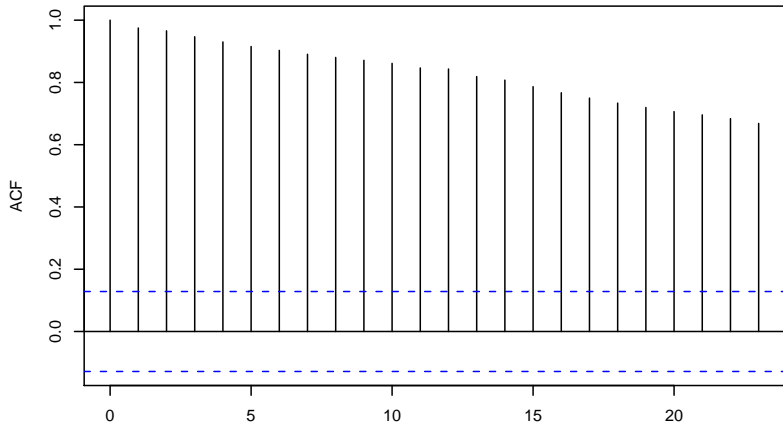
# ACFs for daily levels of S&P500



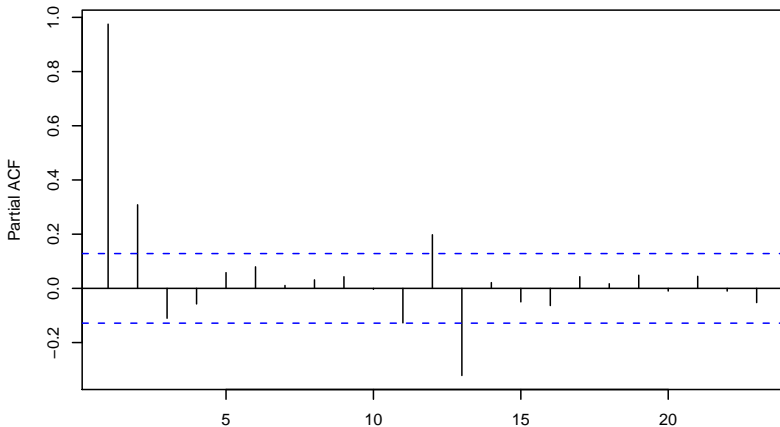
# PACs for daily levels of S&P500



# ACFs for monthly levels of Indian IIP



# PACs for monthly levels of Indian IIP



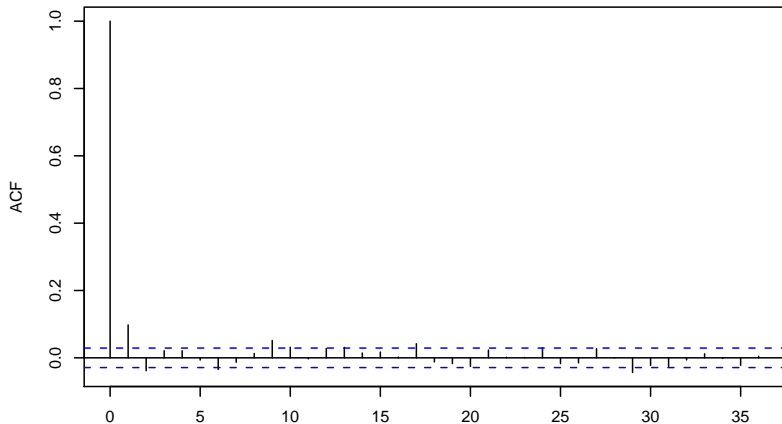
## Part IV

# Data transformations and filters

# Log transformations and rates of change

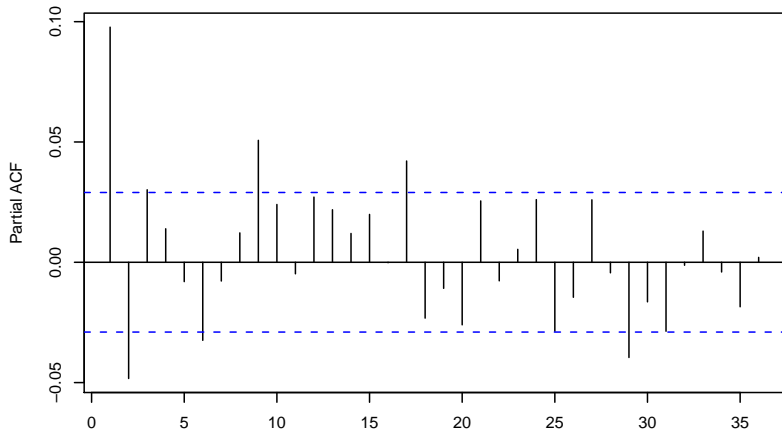
- Sometimes simple transformations can move a series closer to stationarity.
  - 1 Sometimes it is observation about the data – does the series show larger fluctuations for larger values of the series?  
Suggested transform: a log transform may help to identify a trend in the series.
  - 2 Sometimes the data is explicitly seasonal.  
For instance, there is seasonality in the IIP data. This might be a deterministic or a stochastic seasonality.
  - 3 Sometimes, theory suggests the transformation.  
For instance, prices are modelled as log-normal. Then the difference of the log(prices) –  $\Delta \log P_t = r_t$  or returns – become stationary.

# ACFs for daily levels of Nifty returns





# PACs for daily levels of Nifty returns



# Data filtering

- Sometimes time series are filtered to remove a specific feature, transforming it from one series into another.
- Typically, a filter is a linear function.
- Example:  $y_t, y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}, \dots$  might be filtered to  $x_t, x_{t-1}, \dots$  using:

$$x_t = \sum_{j=-k}^l \omega_j y_{t-j}, t = k + 1, \dots, T - l$$

where  $\omega_j$  is a weight on lag  $j$ .

- Usually, the weights are designed to add upto 1.
- Filtering is often used to seasonally adjust data like quarterly data.
- A more generic filter is the Hodrick-Prescott filter, which is used to adjust cyclical data.

Often used in the context of business cycle analysis.

# Data filtering using moving averages

- Example:  $\omega = (\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8})$

$$x_t = \frac{1}{8}y_{t-2} + \frac{1}{4}y_{t-1} + \frac{1}{4}y_t + \frac{1}{4}y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{8}y_{t+2}$$

gives  $x_t$  as a weighted moving average transformation of  $y_t$

- Such type of filters are often used to remove “excessive noise” from the underlying data, which in turn helps identify patterns more readily.
- This can be more efficiently re-written as:

$$x_t = (\frac{1}{8}L^{-2} + \frac{1}{4}L^{-1} + \frac{1}{4}L^0 + \frac{1}{4}L^{+1} + \frac{1}{8}L^{+2})y_t$$

# Data filtering using differencing



$$x_t = \Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$

If  $y_t$  is a non-stationary process, this filter gives  $x_t$  as a stationary process.

- $y_t$  is said to be an *integrated time series*.
- If by differencing once, the resultant series  $x_t$  becomes stationary, then  $y_t$  is said to be integrated to the order one. Typically written as  $y_t$  is an  $I(1)$  series.
- Sometimes  $y_t$  can have *seasonal integration*. Example, if IIP is a seasonally stochastic monthly time series. Then,

$$x_t = \Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-12}$$

will be the resulting stationary series.

# Textbooks with detailed treatment of time series models

- Fuller 1976: *Introduction to statistical time series*
- Priestly 1981: *Spectral analysis and time series*
- Brockwell and Davis 1987: *Time series: Theory and methods*
- Hamilton 1994: *Time series analysis*