

Stationary ARMA modeling and forecasting

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CHAOYI CHEN
Institute of MNB, Corvinus University of Budapest

Empirical Financial Econometrics

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Brief Introduction to ARMA Models

- White Noise Process
- Uncorrelatedness and weak exogeneity
- Moving Average Processes
- Autoregressive Models
- Autoregressive Moving average Processes—ARMA(p,q)models

White Noise Process

- "The basis building block"
- A white noise process ε_t satisfies:

$$E[\varepsilon_t] = 0 \quad \text{for all } t \text{ (mean zero)} \quad (1)$$

$$E[\varepsilon_t^2] = \sigma^2 \quad \text{for all } t \text{ (constant variances)} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t-s}) = 0 \quad \text{for all } t, \text{ all } s \neq 0 \quad (3)$$

Relation between white noise process, normality and i.i.d process

- Assume ε_t has mean zero and variance σ^2

$$i.i.d \Rightarrow \text{whitenoise} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{white noise} \not\Rightarrow i.i.d \quad (5)$$

$$\text{white noise} + \text{normality} \Rightarrow i.i.d \quad (6)$$

Uncorrelatedness and weak exogeneity

- Weak exogeneity $E_t \varepsilon_{t+1} = 0$
- Uncorrelatedness $E[\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t+s}] = 0, s \neq 0$
- **Weak exogeneity implies Uncorrelatedness**

Proof:

Suppose: $E_t \varepsilon_{t+1} = 0$, all t (weak exogeneity)

Then: Letting $s > 0$

$$E[\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{t+s}] = E[E_{t+s-1}[\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_{(t+s)}]] \quad (7)$$

$$= E[\varepsilon_t \underbrace{E_{t+s-1}[\varepsilon_{t+s}]}] \quad (8)$$

0 by weak exogeneity

$$= E[\varepsilon_t 0] = 0 \quad (9)$$

- This means that the assumptions

$$E_t \varepsilon_{t+1} = 0 \text{ and } E[\varepsilon_t^2] = \sigma^2$$

- also satisfy the white noise assumptions above

Intuition on white noise process:

- White noise process has no memory
- The name 'white noise' is due to its putting equal weight on cycles of all frequencies, similar to white noise or white light.
- It is a very simple building block
- It is easy to simulate on Matlab or even by repeatedly rolling dice or flipping a coin.
- For example: you could simulate white noise Bernoulli type Process by repeated coin toss:

Just let t the t^{th} toss of the coin and define

$$\varepsilon_t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{toss } t \text{ is heads} \\ -1 & \text{toss } t \text{ is tails} \end{cases}$$

Moving Average Processes: Example: Average Winnings

- Let ε_t be white noise

$$x_t = \sum_{i=0}^q b_i \varepsilon_{t-i} = b_0 \varepsilon_t + b_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + b_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + b_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$$

This called a Moving Average Process of order q or $MA(q)$ for short.

- **Examples:** A) Average winnings over two fair bets

$$\varepsilon_t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Heads (win)} \\ -1 & \text{Tails (lose)} \end{cases}$$

ε_t is your one period earnings

Your average earnings over the last two periods (dice rolls) is given by

$$x_t = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_t + \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_{t-1}, \quad MA(1)$$

- This is literally an average that moves, explaining the name

- **Example B: Long-horizon (log) stock returns**

Recall that

$$r_t(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} r_{t-i} = r_t + r_{t-1} + \dots + r_{t-(k-1)}$$

- Suppose that the one-period log return is white noise
- Then the long horizon return follows a moving average:

$$r_t(k) \sim MA(k-1)$$

Moving Average Processes: Example long-horizon returns

- If we observe a white noise monthly (log) return then:
 - The quarterly return (3 months) is MA(2)
 - The yearly return (12) is MA(11)
- If we observe white noise daily log return then the weekly (5 day) return is MA(4)
- If we observe white noise weekly log return, then the monthly (4 week) return is MA(3)

Example: Shock whose impact gradually fades

- **Example C: Shock whose impact gradually fades (learning & forgetting)**

x_t = Number of French words I know at time t (stock)

$\mu + \varepsilon_t$ = Number of new French words I learn at time t (flow)

- Suppose that I forget 1/3 of the new words after I just learned after one month, another 1/3 after two months, and the remaining third after three months.
- Let ε_t be white noise. Then my stock of french vocabulary follows an MA(2) with intercept:

$$\begin{aligned}x_t &= (\mu + \varepsilon_t) + \frac{2}{3}(\mu + \varepsilon_{t-1}) + \frac{1}{3}(\mu + \varepsilon_{t-2}) \\ &= 2\mu + \varepsilon_t + \frac{2}{3}\varepsilon_{t-1} + \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon_{t-2}\end{aligned}$$

- Let ε_t be white noise and let

$$y_t = a_0 + a_1 y_{t-1} + a_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + a_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$$

Then we call y_t an **autoregressive process of order p** or $AR(p)$

Autoregressive Models: Oversimplified Examples

- **Examples** (Over-simplified, but illustrative)

A) Wealth Accumulation

$$W_t = \text{Wealth at time } t \quad (10)$$

$$S_t = \text{Savings at time } t \quad (11)$$

$$i = \text{constant interest rate(over-simplified)} \quad (12)$$

$$W_t = (1 + i)W_{t-1} + S_t$$

- Suppose that every year your target savings is \bar{S} , but you miss this target by an random amount(ε):

$$S_t = \bar{S} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$W_t = \underbrace{\bar{S}}_{a_0} + \underbrace{(1 + i)}_{a_1} W_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad AR(1)$$

- B) Capital Accumulation**

Suppose each year your firm has a target investment of \bar{I} and you miss this target by ε_t , which is white noise

$$\begin{array}{ll} \bar{I} = & \text{target investment} & I_t = \bar{I} + \varepsilon_t & \text{actual investment} \\ K_t = & \text{Capital Stock at time } t & \delta = & \text{Depreciation rate} \end{array}$$

Then the capital stock follows an $AR(1)$

$$K_t = K_{t-1} - \delta K_{t-1} + I_t \quad (13)$$

$$K_t = (1 - \delta)K_{t-1} + \bar{I} + \varepsilon_t \quad (14)$$

$$\underbrace{K_t}_{y_t} = \underbrace{\bar{I}}_{a_0} + \underbrace{(1 - \delta)}_{a_1} \underbrace{K_{t-1}}_{y_{t-1}} + \varepsilon_t \quad (15)$$

Autoregressive Moving average Processes—ARMA(p, q) models

$$\varepsilon_t = WN(0, \sigma^2) \quad \text{WN means the white noise here} \quad (16)$$

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i y_{t-i}}_{AR(p)} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^q b_i \varepsilon_{t-i}}_{MA(q)} \quad ARMA(p, q) \quad (17)$$

$$y_t = a_0 + a_1 y_{t-1} + a_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + a_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t + b_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + b_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$$

Expressing MA, AR, and ARMA models using summation and lag notation. In brief:

$$a(L)y_t = b(L)\varepsilon_t$$

where

$$a(L) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^p a_i L^i = 1 - a_1 L - a_2 L^2 - \dots - a_p L^p$$

and

$$b(L) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^q b_i L^i = 1 + b_1 L + b_2 L^2 + \dots + b_q L^q$$

At home: Rewrite MA, AR, and ARMA models first using summation notation and then using lag notation

- Stationary and Stationary restrictions
- Strict Stationary
- Covariance Stationary
- When does covariance Stationary holds?
- Moving Average Models Example
- Stationary of AR(1) when $|\alpha_1| < 1$
- Non-stationary Example: Random walk

Stationary and Stationary restrictions

- **Stationary and Stationary restrictions**
- Define $Y \stackrel{d}{=} X$ to mean that Y and X share the same CDF.¹
- **Note:**
- This does **NOT** mean that $x = y$
- It does mean that x and y are drawn from the same distribution.
- And it means that any probability statement you make about Y is true for X and vice versa.
- e.g: If $P(0 \leq Y \leq 1) = \frac{1}{2}$, then $P(0 \leq X \leq 1) = \frac{1}{2}$

¹Recall that this is Short for Cumulative Distribution Function, which is the function $F(x) = P(X < x)$ where P stands for probability

Stationary and Stationary restrictions

- We can apply the same concept to a vector of random variables.
- Let $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)'$ and $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)'$
 $k \times 1$ $k \times 1$
- Then by $y \stackrel{d}{=} x$, we mean that x and y share the same joint CDF

- **Intuitive Definition:** y_t is strictly stationary if its distribution does not change over time.
- **Formal Definition:** The sequence y_t is strictly stationary if for all t and s .

$$y_t \stackrel{d}{=} y_{t+s} \quad (18)$$

And for all t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k and s

$$(y_{t_1}, y_{t_2}, \dots, y_{t_k}) \stackrel{d}{=} (y_{t_1+s}, y_{t_2+s}, \dots, y_{t_k+s}) \quad (19)$$

- **Discussion** equation 18 tells us that distribution of y_t doesn't change over time.
- Suppose we let $t_1 = t$ and $t_2 = t + 1$ and plug this into equation 19. Then we get:

$$(y_t, t_t + 1) \stackrel{d}{=} (y_{t+s}, y_{t+1+s})$$

Which tells us that the joint distribution of (y_t, t_{t+1}) also doesn't change over time.

Covariance Stationary

- **Intuitive definition:** y_t is covariance stationary if the first 2 moments of y_t (the expectation, the variance and the covariance) don't change over time.
- **Formal Definition:** The sequence y_t is covariance stationary if for a t, h and s .

$$E[x_t] = E[x_{t+s}] \quad (20)$$

$$\text{var}(x_t) = \text{var}(x_{t+s}) \quad (21)$$

$$\text{cov}(x_t, x_{t+h}) = \text{cov}(x_{t+s}, x_{t+s+h}) \quad (22)$$

- **Discussion:**

equation 22 says that $cov(x_t, x_{t+h})$ depends only on h , the distance in time between the two variables, but not on t .

- **How to check Covariance Stationary?**

- 1) calculate $E[y_t]$
- 2) calculate $var[y_t]$
- 3) calculate $cov(y_t, y_{t+h})$

If any of these are infinite vary with t then y_t is **not** stationary. If they are finite and do not vary with t then y_t is Covariance Stationary.

Moving Average Models

- (A) MA(1) is always stationary

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$$

- **Step 1:**

$$E[y_t] = E[\varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}] = \underbrace{E[\varepsilon_t]}_0 + \beta_1 \underbrace{E[\varepsilon_{t-1}]}_0 = 0,$$

which is finite and not dependent on t

- **Step 2:**

$$\text{var}(y_t) = \text{var}(\varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}) \quad (23)$$

$$= \text{var}(\varepsilon_t) + \text{var}(\beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}) + 2\text{cov}(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-1}) \quad (24)$$

$$= \sigma^2 + \beta_1^2 \sigma^2 \quad (25)$$

$$= (1 + \beta_1^2) \sigma^2 \quad \text{finite \& not depending on } t \quad (26)$$

Moving Average Models

- **Step 3:** Calculate $cov(y_t, y_{t+h}), h = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- When $h = 1$

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2) \quad (27)$$

$$cov(y_t, y_{t+1}) = cov(\varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t+1} + \beta_1 \varepsilon_t) \quad (28)$$

$$= cov(\varepsilon_t, \beta_1 \varepsilon_t) \quad (29)$$

$$= \beta_1 cov(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_t) \quad (30)$$

$$= \beta_1 var(\varepsilon_t) \quad (31)$$

$$= \beta_1 \sigma^2 \quad \text{Finite and does not depend on } t \quad (32)$$

- $h = 2$

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim WN(0, \sigma^2) \quad (33)$$

$$\text{cov}(y_t, y_{t+2}) = \text{cov}(\varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}, \varepsilon_{t+2} + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t+1}) \quad (34)$$

$$= 0 \quad (35)$$

- $\text{cov}(y_t, y_{t+h}) = 0$ for $h = 3, 4, 5$, same reason.
- **Try at home:** Argue that MA(2) is covariance stationary.
- **General Rule:** Finite order moving average processes, i.e., MA(k) for any finite k, are always stationary.

Stationary of AR(1) when $|\alpha_1| < 1$

- Stationary AR(1) model

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (36)$$

$$|\alpha_1| < 1 \quad (37)$$

$$E_{t-1} \varepsilon_t = 0 \quad (38)$$

$$\text{var}(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma^2 \quad (39)$$

Stationary of AR(1) when $|\alpha_1| < 1$

- To observe that this model is stationary, first convert it to its $MA(\infty)$ representation

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (40)$$

$$y_t - \alpha_1 y_{t-1} = \alpha_0 + \varepsilon_t \quad (41)$$

$$(1 - \alpha_1 L)y_t = \alpha_0 + \varepsilon_t \quad (42)$$

$$y_t = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha_1 L} (\alpha_0 + \varepsilon_t) \quad (43)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (\alpha_1 L)^j (\alpha_0 + \varepsilon_t) \quad (44)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \underbrace{(L^j \alpha_0)}_{\alpha_0} + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \underbrace{L^j \varepsilon_t}_{\varepsilon_{t-j}} \quad (45)$$

Stationary of AR(1) when $|\alpha_1| < 1$

- MA(∞) representation of AR(1)

$$y_t = \alpha_0 \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \varepsilon_{t-j} \quad (46)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \alpha_1} + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \varepsilon_{t-j} \quad (47)$$

- Now confirm covariance stationary

$$E[y_t] = E\left[\underbrace{\frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \alpha_1}}_c + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \varepsilon_{t-j}\right] \quad (48)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \alpha_1} + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \underbrace{E[\varepsilon_{t-j}]}_0 = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \alpha_1} \quad (49)$$

Stationary of AR(1) when $|\alpha_1| < 1$

- And for the variance:

$$\text{var}[y_t] = \text{var}\left[\underbrace{\frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \alpha_1}}_c + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \varepsilon_{t-j}\right] \quad (50)$$

$$= \text{var}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_1^j \varepsilon_{t-j}\right) \quad (51)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (\alpha_1^j)^2 \underbrace{\text{var}(\varepsilon_{t-j})}_{\sigma^2} \quad (\varepsilon_t \text{ uncorrelated}) \quad (52)$$

$$= \sigma^2 \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (\alpha_1^2)^j \quad (53)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{1 - \alpha_1^2} \quad (\text{finite and not depend on } t) \quad (54)$$

- same result for $\text{cov}(y_t, y_{t+h})$, but we will skip this to save time.

Non-stationary Example: Random walk

- Random walk model($AR(1)$ with $\alpha_1 = 1$)

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (55)$$

$$y_0 = 0 \quad [\text{Initialization}] \quad (56)$$

$$E_{t-1}\varepsilon_t = 0 \quad (57)$$

$$\text{var}(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma^2 \quad (58)$$

Non-stationary Example: Random walk

- We calculate the variances as:

$$\text{var}(y_0) = 0 \quad (59)$$

$$\text{var}(y_1) = \text{var}(y_0 + \varepsilon_1) = \text{var}(\varepsilon_1) = \sigma^2 \quad (60)$$

$$\text{var}(y_2) = \text{var}(y_1 + \varepsilon_2) = \text{var}(\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2) = 2\sigma^2 \quad (61)$$

$$\text{var}(y_3) = 3\sigma^2 \quad (62)$$

$$\vdots \quad (63)$$

$$\text{var}(y_t) = t\sigma^2 \quad (\text{variance depends on } t, \text{non-stationary}) \quad (64)$$

- Note that if we did not initialize then $\text{var}(y_t)$ would be infinite

Non-stationary Example: Random Walk (continued)

- **Note:** The first difference of a random walk is white noise, which is both stationary and unpredictable white noise. Since

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

it follow that

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

- **Example:** If log stock price $\ln P_t$ follows a random walk then the return (excluding dividends),

$$r_t = \Delta \ln P_t$$

is white noise and unpredictable.

Relationship between Covariance and Strict Stationary



Strict Stationary \Rightarrow Covariance Stationary (65)

Covariance Stationary $\not\Rightarrow$ Strict Stationary (66)

Covariance Stationary + Normality \Rightarrow Strict Stationary (67)

• Intuition

The distribution determines the moments [equation 65]

But the first 2 moments do not by themselves determine the distribution [equation 66]

Except, if the data is normally distributed [equation 67]

- Invertibility
- Invertibility: MA(1) process
- Over-differenced process as non-invertible example
- Non-invertibly

- 1 **Intuitive Definition:** A process is invertible if it can be approximated by a finite order auto-regressive process.
- 2 We can estimate the AR(p) model by OLS so can estimate an invertible process
- 3 The MA(1) model

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t - \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

has an AR(∞) representation of the form:²

$$y_t = - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t, \quad AR(\infty) \text{ representation} \quad (68)$$

- 4 When $\beta < 1$ we drop the distant lags to approximate this by an AR(p)

²We derive this a few slides later

$$y_t = - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t, \quad AR(\infty) \text{ representation} \quad (69)$$

- 1 However $\beta = 1$ the distant lags are too important to drop and the process

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_{t-1}$$

is said to be over-differenced.

- 2 This is because it differences an already stationary process
- 3 Below we provide a more precise technical definition and the derivation of equation (68)

- **Invertibility** An ARMA process is **invertible** if it can be expressed as AR process that is either **finite order** or **convergent**
- **Finite AR process:** An $AR(p)$, where p is finite.
- **Convergent AR process:**

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \alpha_j y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t, \quad \text{where } \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_j| < \infty$$

- **Intuition:** We can approximate it by an $AR(p)$ for finite p

- **Invertible MA(1) process:**

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t - \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} \quad |\beta_1| < 1 \quad (\text{Invertibility condition}) \quad (70)$$

$$E_{t-1} \varepsilon_t = 0 \quad \text{var}(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma^2 \quad (71)$$

Can express this as a convergent AR(∞)

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t - \beta_1 L \varepsilon_t \quad (72)$$

$$= (1 - \beta_1 L) \varepsilon_t \quad (73)$$

$$\frac{1}{1 - \beta_1 L} y_t = \varepsilon_t \quad (74)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j L^j y_t = \varepsilon_t \quad (75)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} = \varepsilon_t \quad (76)$$

Invertibility: MA(1) process

Pull out the $j = 0$ term in the sum from the top of the last page:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} = \varepsilon_t \quad (77)$$

$$\beta_1^0 y_{t-0} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} = \varepsilon_t \quad (78)$$

$$y_t + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} = \varepsilon_t \quad (79)$$

$$(80)$$

Solving for y_t it is recognizable as an $AR(\infty)$:

$$y_t = - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t, \quad AR(\infty) \text{ representation} \quad (81)$$

The MA(∞) representation:

$$y_t = - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t, \quad (82)$$

is a convergent AR(∞) because

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |\beta_1|^j = \frac{1}{1 - |\beta_1|} < \infty, \quad \text{for } |\beta_1| < 1$$

That means that the MA(1) is invertible

Over-differenced process as non-invertible example

- When $\beta_1 = 1$ the process is said to be over-differenced since

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_{t-1} = \Delta\varepsilon_t \quad (83)$$

takes a first difference of a series that is already stationary, and thus not requiring differencing.

- It is an example of a **non-invertible** process. To convince yourself simply Substitute $\beta_1 = 1$ into the sum in the convergence condition:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\beta_1|^j = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty$$

- Since this sum is infinite the $AR(\infty)$ is **not convergent**
- Therefore the $MA(1)$ process with $|\beta_1| = 1$ is **not invertible**.

Non-invertibly

- Non-invertible cause estimation problems
- Intuitively, we cannot estimate an $MA(1)$ directly by a regression
- What if we could approximate it by $AR(p)$ where p is not too large?
- If its invertible, then we can do this by omitting the terms for large j in the $AR(\infty)$

$$y_t = - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta_1^j y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t, \quad AR(\infty) \text{ representation} \quad (84)$$

since β_1^j gets small when j gets large if $\beta < 1$

- But this is surely **not** the case when $\beta = 1$