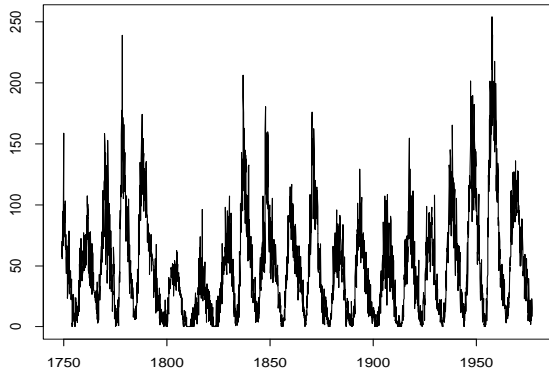


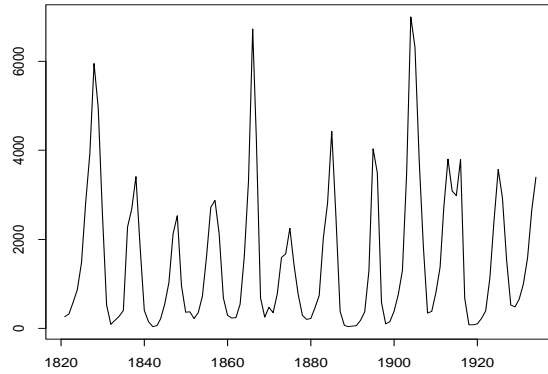
STAT 804: Lecture 1

I begin the course by presenting plots of some time series and then present some discussion of the series using some of the jargon we will study. Then I will introduce some basic technical ideas.

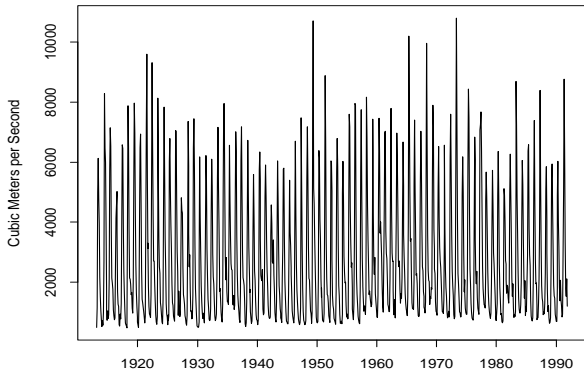
Mean Monthly Sunspot Numbers



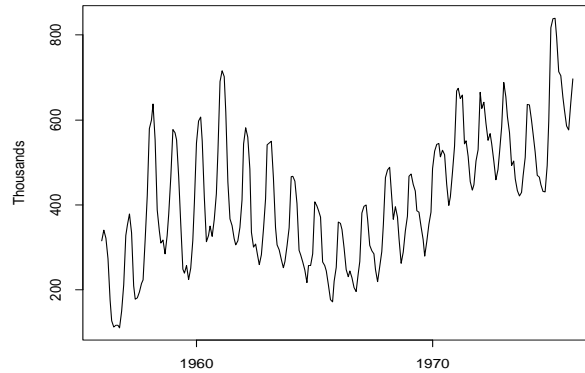
Annual Sales of Lynx to Hudson's Bay Co.



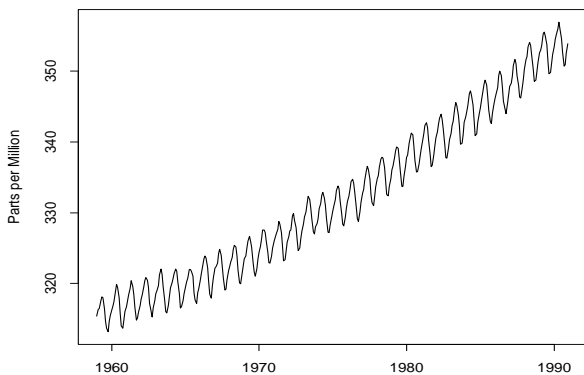
Mean Monthly Flow Fraser River at Hope



Unemployment: Canada



CO2 concentration: Mauna Loa



Changes in length of day



Comments on the data sets:

- Top left: Sunspot data. Each month the average number of sunspots is recorded. Notice:
 - the apparent periodicity
 - the large variability when the series is at a high level and the small variability when the series is at a small level.

This series is likely to be quite stationary over the time span we have been able to observe it, though it may have a nearly perfectly periodic component.

- Top right: Annual sales of lynx pelts to the Hudson's Bay Company. Notice:
 - Clear cycle of about 10 years in length.
 - Might there be a longer term cycle?
 - Is the cycle produced by a strictly periodic phenomenon or by a dynamic system close to a periodic system?
- Middle left: Mean monthly flow rates for the Fraser River at Hope. There are signs of lower variability at low levels suggesting transformation. There is a clear annual cycle which will have to be removed to look for stationary residuals.
- Middle right: Monthly unemployment numbers in Canada. Notice the probably presence of a slow upward trend; such a trend should be present in the presence of a growing population. This series is not stationary. The trend is not too linear with some apparent long term cycles perhaps which produce an S shaped curve.
- Lower left: Carbon Dioxide above Mauna Loa (a Hawaiian volcano). There is a clear trend and an annual cycle but you might well hope that after compensating for these the remainder would be stationary.
- Lower right: Changes in the length of the Earth's day. This sort of very smooth graph with long runs going up and down suggests integration. We will look at differencing as a method of producing a series with less long range dependence.

I made these plots with S-Plus using the following code:

```
postscript("tsplots.ps",horizontal=F)
par(mfrow=c(3,2))
tsplot(sunspots,main="Mean Monthly Sunspot Numbers")
tsplot(lynx, main="Annual Sales of Lynx\n to Hudson's Bay Co.")
tsplot(flow, ylab="Cubic Meters per Second",
        main="Mean Monthly Flow\nFraser River at Hope")
tsplot(unemployment, main="Unemployment: Canada",ylab="Thousands")
tsplot(co2, main="CO2 concentration: Mauna Loa",
```

```

        ylab="Parts per Million")
tsplot(changes, main="Changes in length of day", ylab="Seconds?")
dev.off()

```

Basic jargon

We will study data of the sort plotted here using the idea of a stochastic process. Technically, a **stochastic process** is a family $\{X_i; i \in I\}$ of random variables indexed by a set I . In practice the jargon is used only when the X_i are *not* independent.

If $I \subset \text{Real Line}$, then we often call $\{X_i; i \in I\}$ a time series. Of course the usual situation is that i actually indexes a time point at which some measurement was made.

Two important special cases are I an interval in R , the real line, in which case we say X is a series in continuous time, and where $I \subset \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ in which case X is in discrete time.

Here is a list of some models used for time series:

- Stochastic Process Models (note the conflict of jargon).
 - Population models
 - * Birth and Death Processes — which describe the size of a population in terms of random births and deaths.
 - * Markov chain models — where the future depends on the present and not, in addition, on the past. Birth and Death processes are special cases.
 - * Galton-Watson-Bienaymé processes — a Markov chain model for the size of generations of a populations. The model specifies that the size of the n th generation is the sum of the family sizes of each individual in the $n - 1$ st generation and that these family sizes have an iid distribution. Many generalizations are in use.
 - * Branching processes — are a continuous time version of the Galton-Watson-Bienaymé process.
 - Diffusion models
 - * Brownian Motion
 - * Random Walk
 - * Stochastic Differential Equations — models like

$$dX_t = \mu(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t)dB_t$$

where B is a Brownian motion.

- Linear Time Series Models — linear filters applied to white noise.

This course is about the discrete time version of these linear time series models. We will assume throughout that we have data X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{T-1} where the X_t are real random variables.

A **model** is a family $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$ of possible joint distributions for $\{X_0, \dots, X_{T-1}\}$.

Goal: guess the true value of θ . (Notice that it is an assumption that the distribution of the data is, in fact one of the possibilities.)

The question is this: is it possible to guess the true value of θ ? Will collecting more data (increasing T) make more accurate estimation of θ possible? The answer is no, in general. For instance in the Galton Watson process even when you watch infinitely many generations you don't get enough data to nail down the parameter values.

Example: Suppose that (X_0, \dots, X_{T-1}) has a multivariate normal distribution with mean vector $(\mu_0, \dots, \mu_{T-1})$ and $T \times T$ variance covariance matrix Σ . The big problem is that with T data points you have $T + T(T - 1)/2$ parameters to estimate; this is not possible. To make progress you must put restrictions on the parameters μ and Σ . For instance you might assume one of the following:

1. Constant mean: $\mu_t \equiv \mu$.
2. Linear trend; $\mu_t = \alpha + \beta t$.
3. Linear trend and sinusoidal variation:

$$\mu_t = \alpha + \beta t + \gamma_1 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi t}{12}\right) + \gamma_2 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi t}{12}\right)$$

We can estimate the μ here by regression but we still have a problem – we can't get standard errors. For instance, we might estimate μ in 1) above using \bar{X} . In that case

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\bar{X}) &= T^{-2} \text{Var}(\sum X_t) \\ &= T^{-2} \mathbf{1}^t \Sigma \mathbf{1} \\ &= T^{-2} \sum_{s,t} \Sigma_{st} \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{1}$ is a column vector of T 1s. SO: we must model Σ as well as μ .

The assumption we will make in this course is of stationarity:

$$\text{Cov}(X_t, X_s) = \text{Cov}(X_{t+1}, X_{s+1}) = \text{Cov}(X_{t+2}, X_{s+2}) \cdots$$

If so then for all t and h we find

$$\text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t+h}) = \text{Cov}(X_0, X_h) \equiv C_X(h)$$

(which we will call the autocovariance function of X). Then we see the a Σ has $C(0)$ down the diagonal, $C(1)$ down the first sub and super diagonals, $C(2)$ down the next sub and super diagonals and so on. Such a matrix is called a Toeplitz matrix.