Chapter 1:

Characteristics of economic time series data

- (1) What is time series? What is Stochastic processes
- (2) Important steps for the Econometric Analsis
- (3) Descriptive statistics
- (4) Autocorrelation function
- (5) Partial autocorrelation function
- (6) Stationarity
- (7) Ergodicity

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To indicate the dependence on time, we adopt new notation, and use the subscript t to denote the individual observation, and T to denote the number of observations.

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We can separate time series into two categories:

1) Univariate where $x_t \in \mathbb{R}$ is scalar

Example: *GDP*_t =Gross Domestic Product at time t

2) Multivariate where $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is vector-valued

Example:

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$$\begin{pmatrix}
GDP_t \\
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$$\left(\begin{array}{c}GDP_t\\r_t\\P_t\\M_t\end{array}\right)$$

We distinguish between discrete and continuos time series:

If t are discrete \Rightarrow discrete time series

Example: GDP, Consumption,...

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Example: Stock price

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 \rightarrow The process can be written { $Y_t : t \in T_0$ }.

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Suppose we have time series data (one or several economic variables) and we wish to study its evolution in time or/and to understand the relationship between the variables (how one variable affect another one). We have to follow the following main steps:

1) Descriptive statistics, graphical analysis and visual inspection of the data \implies Mean, variance, covariance,..., Plot (figures) and analyze visually the data: stationary & non stationary, seasonality,...

2) Analyze the properties of the data: Autocorrelation and partial autocorrelation functions

3) Model selection and Estimation

4) Validation

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• Mean:

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$$\boldsymbol{E}(\boldsymbol{Y}_t) = \mu_t = \int Y_t f(\boldsymbol{y}_t) d\boldsymbol{y}_t$$

• Variance:

$$Var(Y_t) = E[(Y_t - E(Y_t))^2] = E(Y_t^2) - E(Y_t)^2$$

• Standard deviation:

$$\sigma_X = \sqrt{Var(\cdot)}$$

• Covariance:

Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))] = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)

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• Correlation:

$$Corr(X,Y) = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \in [-1,1]$$

• $Cov(X, Y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow E(XY) = E(X)E(Y) \Leftrightarrow$ no correlation between X and Y.

- X and Y independent $\Rightarrow Cov(X, Y) = 0$, but not vice versa
- Useful properties:
- (1) Expectation is linear: E(aX + bY) = aE(X) + bE(Y)
- (2) Variance is **NOT** linear: $Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$
- (3) and $Var(X \pm Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) \pm 2Cov(X, Y)$

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• Autocovariance:

The autocovariance function of a stochastic process Y_t is a covariance between two elements of the series, i.e.,

 $\gamma_{t_1,t_2} = cov(Y_{t_1}, Y_{t_2}),$

is the autocovariance between element t_1 and t_2 . If $t_1 = t_2 = t$, then the autocovariance function is equal to the variance.

$$\gamma_{t_1,t_2} = \sigma_t^2$$

Variances and autocovariances are all expressed in terms of the squared unit of measure of Y_t .

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• Correlation:

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$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \in [-1, 1]$$

• Autocorrelation Function (ACF): Useful normalization of autocovariance function is given by Autocorrelation Function ρ_{t_1,t_2}

$$\rho_{t_1,t_2}=\frac{\gamma_{t_1,t_2}}{\sigma_{t_1}\sigma_{t_2}},$$

where

$$\sigma_{t_1} = \sqrt{Var(Y_{t_1})}, \ \sigma_{t_2} = \sqrt{Var(Y_{t_2})}$$

For $t_1 = t_2 = t \Longrightarrow \rho_{t_1, t_2} = 1$.

• ACF is a (crucial) starting point to describe time dependencies in a stochastic process.

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The Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF)

An important part of the correlation between Y_t and Y_{t-k} may arise from their correlation with the intermediate variables $Y_{t-1}, ..., Y_{t-k+1}$. To control for this, we define the Partial Autocorrelation Function P_k (PACF):

$$P_k = Corr(Y_t, Y_{t-k}|Y_{t-1}, ..., Y_{t-k+1}).$$

The PACF varies between -1 and 1 (like ACF), with values near \pm indicating stronger correlation. The PACF filters out the effect of "shorter" lags autocorrelation from the correlation at "longer" lags.

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The Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF)

• How to calculate PACF? We can obtain from Yule-Walker equations:

$$P_{k} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_{1} & \dots & \rho_{k-2} & \rho_{1} \\ \rho_{1} & 1 & \dots & \rho_{k-3} & \rho_{2} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \rho_{k-1} & \rho_{k-2} & \dots & \rho_{1} & \rho_{k} \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \rho_{1} & \dots & \rho_{k-2} & \rho_{k-1} \\ \rho_{1} & 1 & \dots & \rho_{k-3} & \rho_{k-2} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \rho_{k-1} & \rho_{k-2} & \dots & \rho_{1} & 1 \end{vmatrix}}.$$

• Examples for P_1 , P_2 and P_3 ?

Stationarity and Ergodicity

• A stochastic process can be described by *n*-dimentional probability distributions. In particular,

Definition (Distribution of a stochastic process)

A distribution function of a stochastic process $\{Y_t : t \in T_0\}$ can be defined by specifying, for each subset $t_1, ..., t_n \in T$ with $n \ge 1$, the joint distibution function of $(Y_{t_1}, ..., Y_{t_n})$, i.e.,

$$F(y_1,...,y_n;t_1,...,t_n) = P[Y_{t_1} \le y_1,...,Y_{t_n} \le y_n].$$

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Remark

Specifying the complete shape of the distribution is too ambitious. Why?Consider only first and second moments of a stochastic process:

- $\mathbb{E}(Y_t) = \mu_t$ for each t = 1, ..., T. This gives T values.
- $\mathbb{E}(Y_t \mu_t)^2 = \sigma_t^2$ for each t = 1, ..., T. Also gives T values.
- $\mathbb{E}[(Y_{t_1} \mu_{t_1})(Y_{t_2} \mu_{t_2})] = \gamma_{t_1, t_2}$ for each $t_1, t_2 = 1, ..., T$, which gives $\frac{T(T-1)}{2}$.

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There are two concepts of stationarity of stochastic processes: Strict and weak stationarity.

Definition (Strict stationarity)

A process is said to be strictly stationary if for any values of $(s_1, s_2, ..., s_n)$ the joint distribution of $(Y_{t+s_1}, ..., Y_{t+s_n})$ depends only on the intervals separating the dates $s_1, s_2, ..., s_n$ and not on the date itself (t).

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Definition (Weak stationarity)

The process Y_t is said to be weakly-stationary or covariance-stationary if

•
$$\mathbb{E}(Y_t) = \mu$$
 for all t ;

•
$$\mathbb{E}[(Y_{t_1} - \mu)(Y_{t-j} - \mu)] = \gamma_j$$
 for all t and any j .

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Examples of stationary stochastic processes

One of the most basic processes:

Example (White Noise)

A sequence of random variables $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ is called a white noise if the following holds

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t) &= 0 \text{ for all } t; \\ \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t^2) &= \sigma^2 \text{ for all } t; \\ \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_s) &= 0 \text{ for all } t \neq s. \end{split}$$

Example (Example 2)

We have a process:

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 $Z_t = \begin{cases} Y_t, \text{ if } t \text{ is odd,} \\ Y_t + 1, \text{ if } t \text{ is even,} \end{cases}$

where Y_t is a stationary series. Is Z_t weakly stationary?

Example (Example 3)

Define the process

 $S_t = Y_1 + \ldots + Y_t,$

where Y_t is iid $(0, \sigma^2)$. Show that for h > 0

 $Cov(S_{t+h}, S_t) = t\sigma^2$

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Ergodicity

In order to do the empirical analysis with time series observations stationarity assumption is not enough. Why?

Until now, we only defined theoretical moments(population moments) of a stochastic process. However these moments are unknown in practice and we need to estimate them from a single observed realization $\{Y_t\}_{t=1}^{T}$ of a stochastic process.

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In order to make use the population moments we need to estimate them and for that we need to assume additionally ergodicity.
- Informally speaking, a stochastic process $\{Y_t\}$ is ergodic if any two collections of random variables partitioned far apart in the sequence are almost independently distributed.
- The formal definition is a bit technical:

Definition (Ergodicity)

A stationary stochastic process $\{Y_t\}$ is called ergodic if for any t, k, l and any bounded functions g and h

 $\lim_{T \to \infty} Cov \left(g(Y_t, ..., Y_{t+k}), h(Y_{t+k+T}, ..., Y_{t+k+T+l}) \right) = 0.$

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Example

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Consider a process $Y_t = Z + U_t$, where $\{U_t\}$ are iid[0, 1] and Z is random variable distributed as N(0, 1). Z and U_t are independent. Is Y_t weakly stationary? Is it ergodic for the mean?

- Sample mean: $\overline{Y}_T = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T Y_t$ is an estimator of $\mathbb{E}[Y_t]$.
- Sample Covariance: $\hat{\gamma}_k = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (Y_t \overline{Y}_T) (Y_{t-k} \overline{Y}_T)$ is an estimator of $Cov(Y_t, Y_{t-1})$
- Sample Correlation: $\hat{\rho}_k = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_k}{\hat{\gamma}_0}$ is an estimator of *Corr*(Y_t, Y_{t-1})

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Theorem (Law of Large Numbers, LLN)

Let $\{Y_t\}$ be a stationary and ergodic stochastic process. Then

$$\overline{Y}_T = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T Y_t \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{E}[Y_t].$$

Theorem

If Y_t is strictly stationary and ergodic and $\mathbb{E}(Y_t^2) < \infty$, then as $T \to \infty$, (1) $\widehat{\gamma_k} \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_k$; (2) $\widehat{\rho_k} \xrightarrow{p} \rho_k$.

• LLN tells us that \overline{Y}_T is a consistent estimator of $\mathbb{E}[Y_t]$.

• Recall from Econometrics I: Sufficient conditions for the consistency of an estimator $\hat{\theta}_{\mathcal{T}}$ are

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(\widehat{\theta}_{T}) = \theta, \text{ and } \lim_{T \to \infty} Var(\widehat{\theta}_{T}) = 0.$$
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We have:

- 1 $\mathbb{E}[\overline{Y}_T] = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t \mathbb{E}(Y_t) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t \mu = \mu;$
- 2 $Var(\overline{Y}_{T}) = \frac{1}{T^{2}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{T} Cov(Y_{t}, Y_{s}) = \frac{1}{T^{2}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{T} \gamma_{t-s}$ = $\frac{1}{T^{2}} \sum_{k=-(T-k)}^{T-1} (T-|k|) \gamma_{k} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k} (1-\frac{|k|}{T}) \gamma_{k}$

Finally, when do we have

$$\lim_{T\to\infty} Var(\overline{Y}_T) = \lim_{T\to\infty} \left(\frac{1}{T}\right) \left(\sum_k \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{T}\right) \gamma_k\right)$$

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Discussion: Sufficient condition for ergodicity

Remark

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A sufficient condition for ergodicity for the mean

$$\sum_{k} |\gamma_{k}| < \infty.$$