

- 1. Review: Linear prediction.
 - 2. Partial autocorrelation function.
 - 3. Recursive methods: Durbin-Levinson.
- Peter Bartlett
- Introduction to Time Series Analysis. Lecture 9.**

That is, the prediction errors ($X_u^{n+m} - X_u^n$) are uncorrelated with the prediction variables ($1, X_1, \dots, X_u^n$).

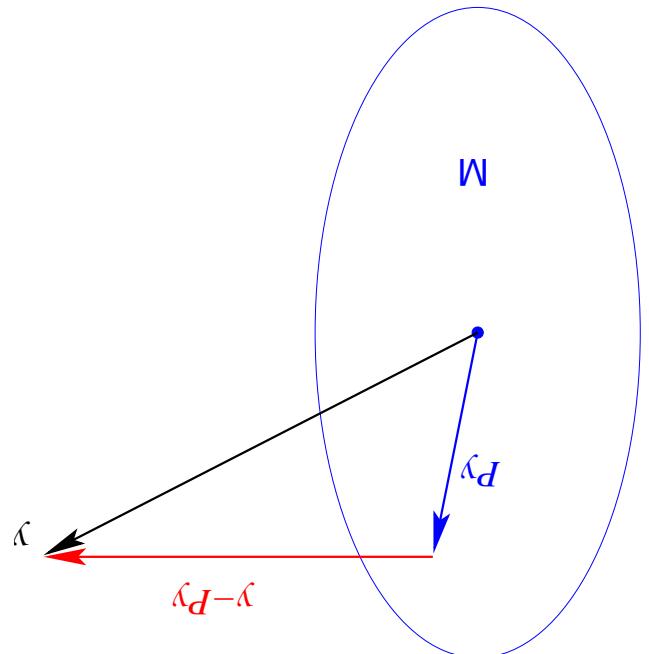
$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= E[(X_u^n - X_u^{n+m})(X_i^m - X_i^n)] \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n. \\ 0 &= E(X_u^n - X_u^{n+m})^2 \end{aligned}$$

of X_u^{n+m} satisfies the **prediction equations**

$$X_u^n = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i X_i^n + \epsilon_u^{n+m}$$

Given X_1, X_2, \dots, X_u , the best linear predictor

Review: Linear Prediction



- If H is a Hilbert space,
 M is a closed linear subspace of H ,
and $y \in H$,
1. $\|P_y - y\| \leq \|u - y\|$ for $u \in M$,
 2. $\|P_y - y\| > \|u - y\|$ for $u \in M, u \neq y$

satisfying

- (the **projection of y on M**)
then there is a point $P_y \in M$
such that
 $\langle y - P_y, u \rangle = 0$ for $u \in M$.

Review: Projection Theorem

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot ((u)\gamma \cdot \cdot \cdot , \gamma (1), \gamma (2), \cdot \cdot \cdot , \gamma (n)) = u\phi = \phi^{u_1, u_2, \cdot \cdot \cdot , u_n}$$

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot \begin{bmatrix} (0)\gamma & \cdots & (2-u)\gamma & (u-1)\gamma \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ (2-u)\gamma & (0)\gamma & (1)\gamma & (0)\gamma \\ (u-1)\gamma & \cdots & (1)\gamma & (0)\gamma \end{bmatrix} = {}^u I$$

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot - (0)\gamma = {}^2 \left({}^1 {}^u X + {}^1 {}^u X \right) E = {}^1 {}^u D$$

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot = u\phi$$

$${}^1 X^{un} \phi + \cdot \cdot \cdot + {}^1 X^{u2} \phi + {}^1 X^{u1} \phi = {}^1 {}^u X$$

Review: One-step-ahead Linear prediction

For random variables Y, Z_1, \dots, Z_n , define the best linear prediction of Y given $Z = (Z_1, \dots, Z_n)$ as the operator $P(\cdot | Z)$ applied to Y :

$$(Z \eta - Z)_{\perp} \phi + \gamma Y = (Z | Y) P(Y | Z)$$

with $\gamma = \text{Cov}(Y, Z)$ and $\eta = \text{Cov}(Z, Z)$.

where

Review: The prediction operator

1. $E(Y - P(Y|Z)) = 0$.
2. $E((Y - P(Y|Z))^2) = \text{Var}(Y) - \phi$.
3. $P(\alpha_1 Y_1 + \alpha_2 Y_2 + \dots + \alpha_0 = Z | Y_1, Y_2, \dots) = P(Y_1 = Z | Y_2, \dots) P(Y_2 = Z | Y_1, \dots) \dots P(Y_n = Z | Y_1, \dots, Y_{n-1})$.
4. $P(Z = Z | Y_1, Y_2, \dots) = 1$.
5. $P(Y|Z) = EY$ if $\gamma = 0$.

Review: Properties of the prediction operator

In the PACE, we remove this dependence by considering the covariance of the prediction errors of X_1^2 and X_1^0 . Clearly, X_0 and X_2 are correlated through X_1 .

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \cdot = \phi_2^1 \gamma(0) \\
 & = \text{Cov}(X_0, \phi_2^1 X_0 + \phi_1^1 W_1 + W_2) \\
 & = \text{Cov}(X_0, \phi_1^1 X_1 + W_2) \\
 & \quad \gamma(2) = \text{Cov}(X_0, X_2) \\
 & \gamma(1) = \text{Cov}(X_0, X_1) = \phi_1^1 \gamma(0) \\
 & \quad \text{AR(1) model: } X_t = \phi_1^1 X_{t-1} + W_t
 \end{aligned}$$

Partial autocovariance function

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 0. \\
 &= \text{Cov}(W^2, \phi^1 X^1 - X^0) \\
 (\phi^0 X^1 - X^2, X^1 - X^0) &= \text{Cov}(\phi^1 X^1 - X^2, \phi^1 X^1 - X^0) \\
 &= \phi^1 X^1, \\
 \text{For AR(1) model: } & X^2 = \phi^1 X^1,
 \end{aligned}$$

Partial autocovariance function

$$\dots, X^{-1}, \overline{X^0}, \overbrace{X^1, X^2, \dots, X^{h-1}}^{\text{partial out}}, \overline{X^h}, X^{h+1}, \dots$$

This removes the linear effects of X^1, \dots, X^{h-1} :

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{hh} &= \text{Corr}(X^h - X^0 - X^1 - \dots - X^{h-1}) \quad \text{for } h = 2, 3, \dots \\ \phi_{11} &= \text{Corr}(X^1, X^0) = \rho(1) \end{aligned}$$

The Partial AutoCorrelation Function (PACF) of a stationary time series $\{X_t\}$ is

Partial autocorrelation function

The PACE ϕ_h is also the last coefficient in the best linear prediction of X_{h+1} given X_1, \dots, X_h :

$$X_{h+1} = \phi_h X_h + \epsilon_h$$
$$\phi_h = (\phi_{h1}, \phi_{h2}, \dots, \phi_{hh})$$

Partial autocorrelation function

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \cdot d \leq u \text{ for } u X^i \phi \sum_{d=1}^{i-1} = \\
 & (u X^i \cdots X^{i-1+u} X) D^i \phi \sum_{d=1}^{i-1} = \\
 & \left(u X^i \cdots X^{i-1+u} M + u X^i \phi \sum_{d=1}^{i-1} \right) D = \\
 & (u X^i \cdots X^{i-1+u} X) D = u^{i-1+u} X^i \\
 & M + X^i \phi \sum_{d=1}^{i-1} = X^i \text{ for } X^i
 \end{aligned}$$

Example: Forecasting an AR(p)

$d > h \geq 1 \geq i$

$$\phi^h \begin{cases} 0 & \text{otherwise.} \\ \phi^h & \text{if } 1 \leq i \end{cases}$$

Thus, ϕ^h

$$X^i \phi \sum_d^{i=1} = {}^i u X^i$$

$$X^i \phi \sum_d^{i=1} = {}^i u X^i$$

For t ,

$$W_t + X^i \phi \sum_d^{i=1} = {}^i u X^i$$

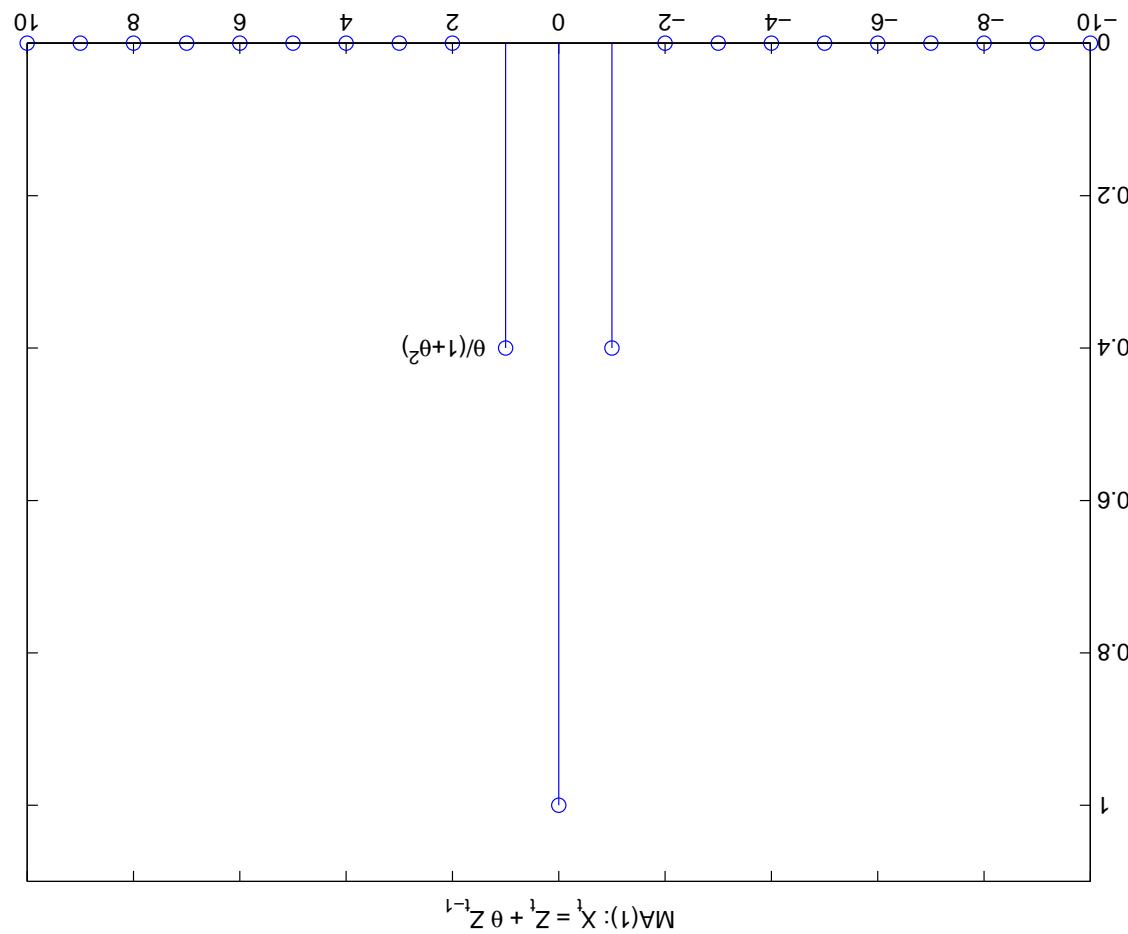
Example: PACF of an AR(p)

In general, $\phi_{hh} \neq 0$.

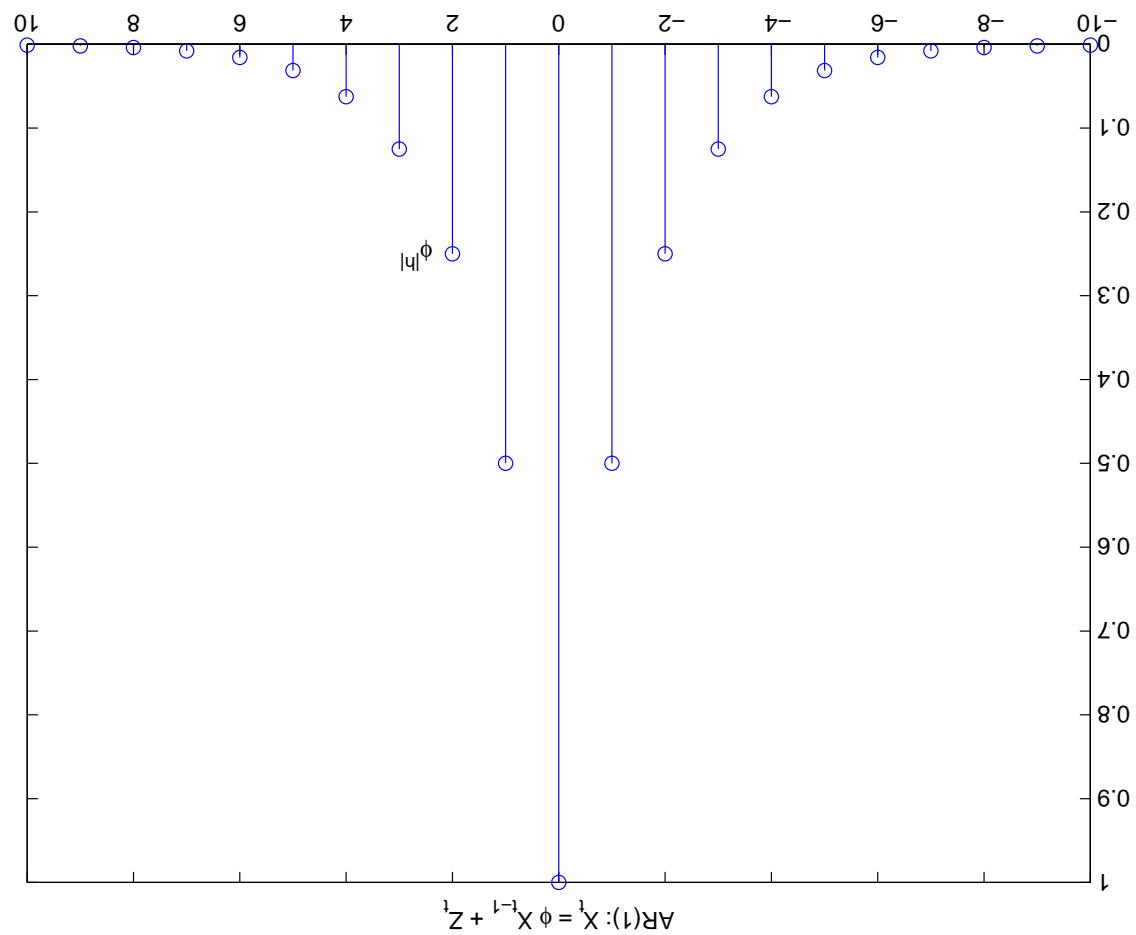
$$\begin{aligned}
 & \cdot ({}^u X, \dots, {}^1 X | {}^{u+1-i}, \dots, {}^1 X) D^i \sum_{\infty}^{i=1} + {}^{i-1-i} X^i D \sum_u^{i=1} = \\
 & ({}^u X, \dots, {}^1 X | {}^{u+1-i}, \dots, {}^1 X) D^i \sum_{\infty}^{i=1} = \\
 & \left({}^u X, \dots, {}^1 X | {}^t M + {}^{i-1-i} X^i D \sum_{\infty}^{i=1} \right) D = \\
 & ({}^u X, \dots, {}^1 X | {}^{u+1-i}, \dots, {}^1 X) D = {}^u X
 \end{aligned}$$

$${}^t M + {}^{i-t} X^i D \sum_{\infty}^{i=1} - = {}^t X \quad \text{for } \theta^i M^{t-i} + M^t,$$

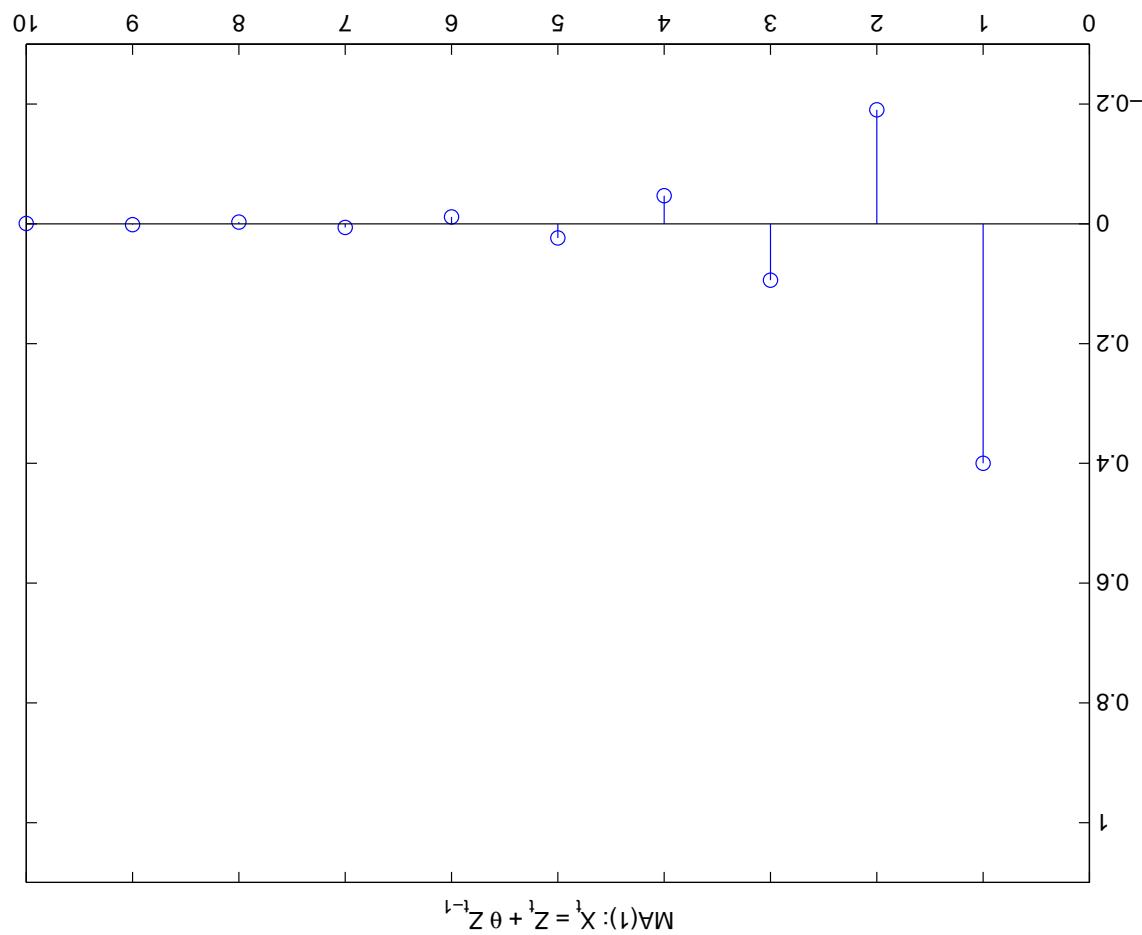
Example: PACE of an invertible MA(q)



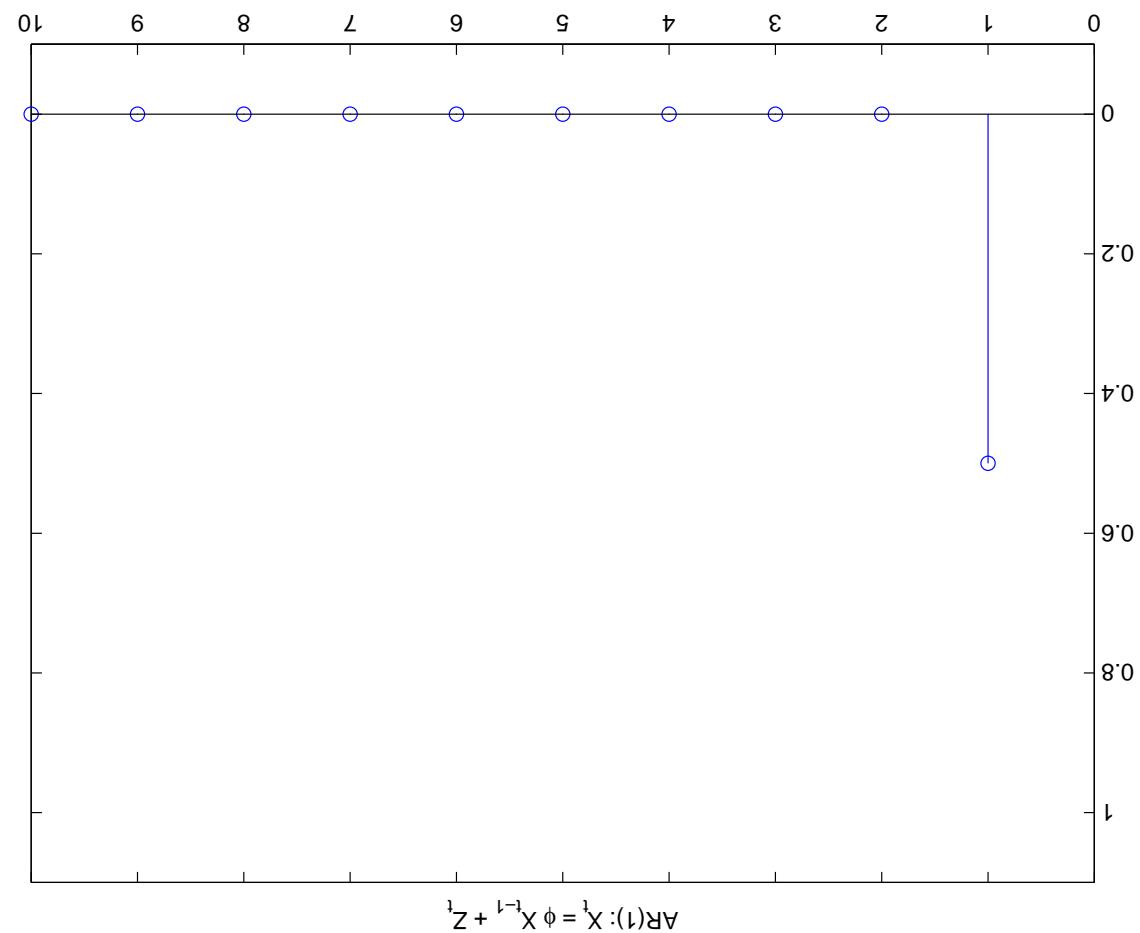
ACF of the MA(1) process



ACF of the AR(1) process



PACF of the MA(1) process



PACF of the AR(1) process

		Model:
PACF:	ACF:	
$p < h$	zero for $h < p$	AR(p)
$b < h$	zero for $h < b$	MA(b)
	decays	ARMA(p,b)

PACF and ACF

For a realization x_1, \dots, x_n of a time series,
the sample PACF is defined by

$$\phi_{\downarrow 00} = 1$$

$\phi_{\downarrow hh}$ = last component of ϕ_h ,

where $\phi_h = \prod_{j=1}^h \gamma_j$.

Sample PACF

$$\Pr(|X - \mathbb{E}X| \geq t\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}) \leq \frac{1}{t^2}.$$

For a Gaussian process, the prediction error has distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, D_{n+1}^n)$, so $C_0/2 = 1.96$ gives a 95% prediction interval. For any process with finite second moments, we can apply Chebyshhev's inequality:

$$X_n \pm C\alpha/2\sqrt{D_{n+1}^n}.$$

After seeing X_1, \dots, X_n , we forecast X_{n+1} . The expected squared error of our forecast is D_{n+1}^n . We can construct a prediction interval:

$$\Gamma^n \phi^n = \gamma^n, \quad D_{n+1}^n = \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} - \gamma_{n+1})^2 = \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} - \gamma_n)^2 + \gamma_n \Gamma_{n+1} \gamma_n.$$

$$X_{n+1} = \phi^{n,1} X_1 + \phi^{n,2} X_2 + \dots + \phi^{n,n} X_n$$

The importance of D_{n+1}^n : Prediction intervals

solving another linear system $\mathbb{L}^u \phi^u = \gamma^u$?
 compute the coefficients ϕ^u of X^{u+1} , without
 i.e., given the coefficients ϕ^{u-1} of X^{u-1} , how can we
 How can we compute these quantities recursively?

$$\mathbb{P}^{u+1} = \mathbb{E}(X^{u+1} - \gamma^u \mathbb{L}^{-1} \gamma^u).$$

$$\mathbb{L}^u \phi^u = \gamma^u,$$

$$X^1 \phi + \dots + X^{u-1} \phi^u + X^u \phi^{u+1} = \gamma^{u+1}$$

Computing linear prediction coefficients

$$\cdot((\mathbf{l})\mathcal{L}, \dots, (\mathbf{u})\mathcal{L}) = {}^u\tilde{\mathcal{L}} \quad , ((\mathbf{u})\mathcal{L}, \dots, (\mathbf{l})\mathcal{L}) = {}^u\mathcal{L}$$

$$, (\mathbf{l}^u\phi, \dots, {}^u\mathbf{u}\phi) = {}^u\tilde{\phi} \quad , ({}^u\mathbf{u}\phi, \dots, \mathbf{l}^u\phi) = {}^u\phi$$

$$\cdot \frac{\mathbf{l}^u\mathcal{L} \mathbf{l}^u\phi - (0)\mathcal{L}}{\mathbf{l}^u\tilde{\mathcal{L}} \mathbf{l}^u\phi - (\mathbf{u})\mathcal{L}} = {}^{uu}\phi \quad , \begin{pmatrix} {}^{uu}\phi \\ \mathbf{l}^u\tilde{\phi} {}^{uu}\phi - \mathbf{l}^u\phi \end{pmatrix} = {}^u\phi$$

$$, \frac{(0)\mathcal{L}}{(\mathbf{l})\mathcal{L}} = \mathbf{l}^1\phi \quad , \phi^1 = \phi^{11},$$

$$, 0 = {}^{00}\phi \quad , 0 = {}^0\phi$$

Durbin-Leviinson

$$X_1^2 = X_1 \phi_1, \quad X_2^3 = (X_2, X_1) \phi_2, \quad X_3^4 = (X_3, X_2, X_1) \phi_3, \dots$$

This algorithm computes $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots$, where

$$\begin{aligned} & \cdot \frac{\phi - (0)\phi}{\phi - (u)\phi} = {}^u\phi \quad , \quad \left(\begin{array}{c} \phi \\ \phi - (u)\phi \\ \vdots \\ \phi - (0)\phi \end{array} \right) = {}^u\phi \\ & \phi_1 = \phi_{11}, \\ & \phi_0 = {}^0\phi \end{aligned}$$

Durbin-Levinson: Example

$$\text{etc.} \quad \left(\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\gamma(0) - \gamma(1)}{\gamma(2) - \gamma(1)} & \\ & \frac{\gamma(0) - \gamma(1)}{\gamma(1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\gamma(0) - \gamma(1)}{\gamma(2) - \gamma(1)} & \\ & 1 - \frac{\gamma(0) - \gamma(1)}{\gamma(1)} \end{pmatrix} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_{22} \\ \phi_1 - \phi_{22}\phi_{11} \end{pmatrix} = \phi^2 = \phi^1, \quad (0)\gamma/(1)\gamma = \phi^1$$

$$\cdot \frac{\gamma^{1-u}\phi - (0)\gamma}{\gamma^{1-u}\phi - (u)\gamma} = {}^u\phi \quad , \quad \begin{pmatrix} {}^u\phi \\ \gamma^{u-1}\phi - {}^u\phi \end{pmatrix} = {}^u\phi$$

$$\therefore \frac{(0)\gamma}{(1)\gamma} = \phi_{11}, \quad \phi^1 = \phi_{11},$$

Durbin-Leviinson: Example

$$\cdot \gamma =$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} (\mathbf{T}^{n-1}\phi^n - \gamma^{n-1}) \\ \gamma^{n-1} \end{array} \right) =$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \phi^n \\ \phi^{n-1} - \gamma^{n-1} \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} (\mathbf{0})\gamma \\ \mathbf{T}^{n-1} \gamma \end{array} \right) = \mathbf{T}^n \phi^n$$

Suppose $\mathbf{T}^{n-1}\phi^n = \gamma^{n-1}$. Then $\mathbf{T}^{n-1}\phi^n = \gamma^{n-1}$, and so

Clearly, $\mathbf{T}^1\phi^1 = \gamma_1$.

Durbin-Levinson: Why it works

i.e., variance reduces by a factor $1 - \phi_2^{2n}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \cdot (1 - \phi_2^{2n}) D_{n-1}^u = \\
 & ((0)\lambda - \phi_1^n \lambda^{n-1} \lambda^{n-1}) u_n \phi - D_{n-1}^u = \\
 & ((u)\lambda - \phi_1^n \lambda^{n-1} \lambda^{n-1}) u_n \phi - D_{n-1}^u = \\
 & \left(\begin{array}{c} (u)\lambda \\ \lambda^{n-1} \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} u_n \phi \\ \lambda^{n-1} \phi - u_n \phi \end{array} \right) - (0)\lambda = \\
 & D_{n+1}^u - (0)\lambda =
 \end{aligned}$$

Durbin-Levinson: Evolution of mean square error