

Date: Thursday, November 1st, 2018.

## RECAP

- $\{Y_t\} \sim AA(p)$  if  $Y_t = \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \phi_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$   
 $\Rightarrow \phi(B) Y_t = \varepsilon_t$   
where  $\phi(z) = 1 - \phi_1 z - \phi_2 z^2 - \dots - \phi_p z^p$
- $\{Y_t\} \sim MA(q)$  if  $Y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$   
 $\Rightarrow Y_t = \theta(B) \varepsilon_t$   
where  $\theta(z) = 1 + \theta_1 z + \theta_2 z^2 + \dots + \theta_q z^q$
- $\phi(z)$  and  $\theta(z)$  are called "generating functions" aka "characteristic polynomials".  
↳ Necessary to prove stationary and invertibility conditions.

## Mathematical prerequisites

- A power series is an infinite sum representation of a function.

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

Example:

1.  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  Exponential series

2.  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$  Geometric series  
Converges for  $|x| < 1$



3.  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)(x-a)^n}{n!}$  Taylor's theorem

• **Complex numbers**

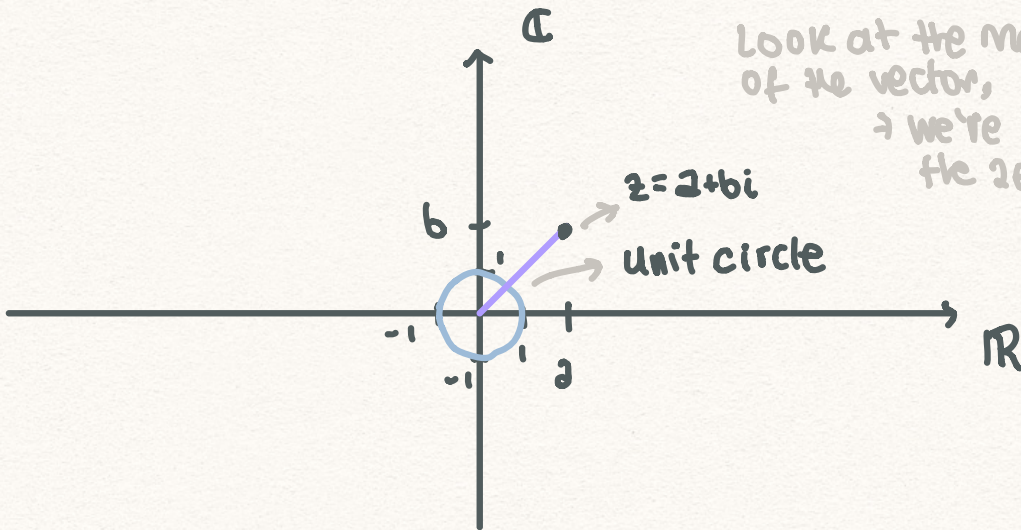
Imaginary number:  $\sqrt{-1} \equiv i$ .

A complex number can be represented generally as:

$$z = a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$$

where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

↑ Real part  
↑ Imaginary part



$|z|$ : modulus (magnitude)

$$= \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

If  $|z| > 1$ , then  $z$  lies outside the unit circle.

If  $|z| \leq 1$ , then  $z$  lies on or inside the unit circle.



# Remarks:

- MA(q) is stationary for all q.
- AR(p) = MA( $\infty$ ), if "stationary conditions" hold.
- MA(q) = AR(p), if "invertibility conditions" hold.

## Stationarity conditions

Goal: AR(p)  $\rightarrow$  MA( $\infty$ )

$$\Phi(B) Y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

$$Y_t = \frac{1}{\Phi(B)} \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

Since any function can be written as a power series, let's do that for  $\frac{1}{\Phi(B)}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\Phi(B)} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n B^n \equiv \Psi(B) \\ &= \psi_0 + \psi_1 B + \psi_2 B^2 + \psi_3 B^3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Plugging this back into (1) yields:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t &= \Psi(B) \varepsilon_t \\ &= (\psi_0 + \psi_1 B + \psi_2 B^2 + \dots) \varepsilon_t \\ &= \psi_0 \varepsilon_t + \psi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \psi_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

If  $\psi_0 = 1$ , then we see that  $Y_t$  looks like an MA( $\infty$ ) process.



Fire drill!



For  $\psi_0 \varepsilon_t + \psi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \psi_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots$  to converge, we require that the zeros of  $\phi(z)$  lie strictly outside the unit circle in the complex plane.

Thus, an AR( $p$ ) model is stationary if the zeros of its generating function lie outside the unit circle in complex plane:

$$\phi(z) \neq 0 \text{ for any } z \text{ such that } |z| \leq 1$$

Equivalently,

$$\phi(z) = 0 \text{ only for } z \text{ such that } |z| > 1$$

↑ AR Stationarity condition ↓

## Invertibility condition

Goal: MA( $q$ )  $\rightarrow$  AR( $\infty$ )

$$y_t = \theta(B) \varepsilon_t$$

$$\frac{1}{\theta(B)} y_t = \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Using the fact that any function has a power series representation, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\theta(B)} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n B^n \equiv \lambda(B) \\ &= \lambda_0 + \lambda_1 B + \lambda_2 B^2 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Plugging this back into (2) yields:

$$\lambda(B) y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

$$(\lambda_0 + \lambda_1 B + \lambda_2 B^2 + \dots) y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

$$\lambda_0 y_t + \lambda_1 y_{t-1} + \lambda_2 y_{t-2} + \dots = \varepsilon_t$$

This looks, if  $\lambda_0 = 1$ , like an AR( $\infty$  model).



For  $\lambda_0 Y_t + \lambda_1 Y_{t-1} + \lambda_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots$  to converge, we require that the zeros of  $\Theta(z)$  lie outside the unit circle in the complex plane.

In this case we say the MA( $q$ ) process is "invertible".

$\Theta(z) \neq 0$  for any  $z$  such that  $|z| \leq 1$

Equivalently,

$\Theta(z) = 0$  only for  $z$  such that  $|z| > 1$

↑ MA invertibility condition ↓

## Consequences of:

•  $AR(p) = MA(\infty)$

↳ ACF of an AR( $p$ ) process shows exponential decay because the ACF for MA( $q$ ) "shuts off" for  $h > q$ . But here  $q = \infty$ , and so AR( $q$ ) never "shuts off" on an ACF plot.

•  $MA(q) = AR(\infty)$

↳ PACF of an MA( $q$ ) shows exponential decay because a PACF for AR( $p$ ) "shuts off" for  $h > p$ . But here  $p = \infty$  and so MA( $q$ ) never "shuts off" on a PACF plot.



Example:  $\{Y_t\} \sim \text{AR}(2)$

$$\text{with } Y_t = 0.75 Y_{t-1} - 0.5625 Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$$

is  $\{Y_t\}$  stationary?

SOLN:  $Y_t - 0.75 Y_{t-1} + 0.5625 Y_{t-2} = \varepsilon_t$

$$Y_t - 0.75 B Y_t + 0.5625 B^2 Y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

$$(1 - 0.75 B + 0.5625 B^2) Y_t = \varepsilon_t$$

$$\therefore \phi(z) = 1 - 0.75 B + 0.5625 B^2$$

For what values of  $z$  is  $\phi(z) = 0$ ?

$$\phi(z) = 0 \text{ if}$$

$$z = \frac{-(-0.75) \pm \sqrt{(-0.75)^2 - 4(1)(0.5625)}}{2(0.5625)}$$

$$= 2 \left( \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{3}i}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow z_1 = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{2\sqrt{3}i}{3} \quad z_2 = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2\sqrt{3}i}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow |z_1| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \left(-\frac{2\sqrt{3}}{3}\right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{4}{3} > 1$$

Both roots lie outside the unit circle.

$\therefore \{Y_t\}$  is stationary.



Example:  $\{y_t\} \sim \text{MA}(1)$

$$\text{with } y_t = \varepsilon_t + 1.25\varepsilon_{t-1}$$

Is it invertible?

SOLN:  $y_t = \varepsilon_t + 1.25\varepsilon_{t-1}$

$$= \varepsilon_t + 1.25B\varepsilon_t$$

$$= (1 + 1.25B)\varepsilon_t$$

$$\therefore \theta(z) = 1 + 1.25z$$

For what values of  $z$  is  $\theta(z) = 0$ ?

$$\theta(z) = 0 \text{ if}$$

$$1 + 1.25z = 0$$

$$z = -\frac{1}{1.25} = -0.8$$

$$\Rightarrow |z| = 0.8 < 1$$

$\therefore \{y_t\}$  is not invertible.