# Chapter 7: Parameter Estimation in Time Series Models

- In Chapter 6, we learned about how to specify our time series model (decide which specific model to use).
- The general model we have considered is the ARIMA(p, d, q) model.
- The simpler models like AR, MA, and ARMA are special cases of this general ARIMA(p, d, q) model.
- Now assume we have chosen appropriate values of p, d, and q (possibly based on evidence from the ACF, PACF, and/or EACF plots).
- Assume that our observed time series data Y<sub>1</sub>,..., Y<sub>n</sub> follow a stationary ARMA(p, q) model.
- In the case of nonstationary original data, we can assume that taking d differences has produced differenced data that displays stationarity.
- We now must estimate the unknown parameters in that stationary ARMA(p, q) model.

### Method of Moments Estimation

- One of the easiest methods of parameter estimation is the method of moments (MOM).
- The basic idea is to find expressions for the sample moments and for the population moments and equate them:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^r = E(X^r)$$

- The E(X<sup>r</sup>) expression will be a function of one or more unknown parameters.
- If there are, say, 2 unknown parameters, we would set up MOM equations for r = 1, 2, and solve these 2 equations simultaneously for the two unknown parameters.
- In the simplest case, if there is only 1 unknown parameter to estimate, then we equate the sample mean to the true mean of the process and solve for the unknown parameter.

- First, we consider autoregressive models.
- In the simplest case, the AR(1) model, given by Y<sub>t</sub> = φY<sub>t-1</sub> + e<sub>t</sub>, the true lag-1 autocorrelation ρ<sub>1</sub> = φ.
- For this type of model, a method-of-moments estimator would simply equate the true lag-1 autocorrelation to the sample lag-1 autocorrelation r<sub>1</sub>.
- So our MOM estimator of the unknown parameter  $\phi$  would be  $\hat{\phi} = r_1$ .

In the AR(2) model, we have unknown parameters φ<sub>1</sub> and φ<sub>2</sub>.
 From the Yule-Walker equations,

$$\rho_1 = \phi_1 + \rho_1 \phi_2 \text{ and } \rho_2 = \rho_1 \phi_1 + \phi_2$$

In the method of moments, we will replace the true lag-1 and lag-2 autocorrelations, ρ<sub>1</sub> and ρ<sub>2</sub>, by the sample autocorrelations r<sub>1</sub> and r<sub>2</sub>, respectively.

#### That gives the equations

$$r_1 = \phi_1 + r_1 \phi_2$$
 and  $r_2 = r_1 \phi_1 + \phi_2$ 

which are then solved for  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  to obtain

$$\hat{\phi}_1 = rac{r_1(1-r_2)}{1-r_1^2} ext{ and } \hat{\phi}_2 = rac{r_2-r_1^2}{1-r_1^2}$$

The general AR(p) model is estimated in a similar way, with the Yule-Walker equations being used to obtain the Yule-Walker estimates φ<sub>1</sub>, φ<sub>2</sub>,..., φ<sub>p</sub>.

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## MOM with MA Models

- We run into problems when trying to using the method of moments to estimate the parameters of moving average models.
- Consider the simple MA(1) model,  $Y_t = e_t \theta e_{t-1}$ .
- The true lag-1 autocorrelation in this model is  $\rho_1 = -\theta/(1+\theta^2)$ .
- If we equate  $\rho_1$  to  $r_1$ , we get a quadratic equation in  $\theta$ .
- If |r<sub>1</sub>| < 0.5, then only one of the two real solutions satisfies the invertibility condition |θ| < 1.</p>
- That solution is  $\hat{\theta} = \left(-1 + \sqrt{1 4r_1^2}\right)/(2r_1).$
- But if  $|r_1| = 0.5$ , no invertible solution exists, and if  $|r_1| > 0.5$ , then no real solution at all exists, and the method of moments fails to give any estimator of  $\theta$ .

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- With higher-order MA(q) models, the set of equations for estimating θ<sub>1</sub>,...,θ<sub>q</sub> is highly nonlinear and could only be solved numerically.
- There would be many solutions, only one of which is invertible.
- In any case, for MA(q) models, the method of moments usually produces poor estimates, so it is not recommended to use MOM to estimate MA models.

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## MOM Estimation of Mixed ARMA Models

- Consider only the simplest mixed model, the ARMA(1,1) model.
- Since  $\rho_2/\rho_1 = \phi$ , a MOM estimator of  $\phi$  is  $\hat{\phi} = r_2/r_1$ .
- Then the equation

$$r_1 = rac{(1- heta \hat{\phi})(\hat{\phi}- heta)}{1-2 heta \hat{\phi}+ heta^2}$$

can be used to solve for an estimate of  $\theta$ .

This is a quadratic equation in  $\theta$ , and so we again keep only the invertible solution (if any exist) as our  $\hat{\theta}$ .

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#### MOM Estimation of the Noise Variance

- We still must estimate the variance σ<sub>e</sub><sup>2</sup> of our error component.
- For any model, we first estimate the variance of the time series process itself, γ<sub>0</sub> = var(Y<sub>t</sub>), by the sample variance

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_t - \bar{Y})^2$$

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# Formulas for MOM Noise Variance Estimators in Common Models

• For AR(p) models,  $\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = (1 - \hat{\phi}_1 r_1 - \hat{\phi}_2 r_2 - \cdots - \hat{\phi}_p r_p) s^2$ .

For the AR(1) model, this reduces to  $\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = (1 - r_1^2)s^2$ .

▶ For *MA*(*q*) models,

$$\hat{\sigma}_{e}^{2} = rac{s^{2}}{1 + \hat{\theta}_{1}^{2} + \hat{\theta}_{2}^{2} + \dots + \hat{\theta}_{q}^{2}}$$

For ARMA(1,1) models,

$$\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = \frac{1 - \hat{\phi}^2}{1 - 2\hat{\phi}\hat{\theta} + \hat{\theta}^2} s^2.$$

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# MOM Estimation in Some Simulated Time Series

- The course web page has R code to estimate the parameters in several simulated AR, MA, and ARMA models.
- The estimates of the AR parameters are good, but the estimates of the MA parameters are poor.
- In general, MOM estimators for models with MA terms are inefficient.

# MOM Estimation in Some Real Time Series (Hare data)

- On the course web page, we see some estimation of parameters for real time series data.
- ► For the Canadian hare data, we employ a square-root transformation and select an *AR*(2) model:

$$(\sqrt{Y_t} - \mu) = \phi_1(\sqrt{Y_{t-1}} - \mu) + \phi_2(\sqrt{Y_{t-2}} - \mu) + e_t$$

- Note that because the mean of the process is not zero, we initially subtract off  $\mu = E(\sqrt{Y_t})$  throughout.
- Using the method of moments, we estimate the unknown parameters  $\mu$ ,  $\phi_1$ , and  $\phi_2$  (see R example).
- The final estimated model is

$$(\sqrt{Y_t} - 5.82) = 1.1178(\sqrt{Y_{t-1}} - 5.82) - 0.519(\sqrt{Y_{t-2}} - 5.82) + e_t$$

with estimated noise variance 1.97.

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# MOM Estimation in Real Time Series (Oil price data)

For the Oil price data, we select an MA(1) model for the differences of the logged oil prices:

$$(\nabla \log Y_t - \mu) = e_t - \theta e_{t-1}$$

- We again subtract off  $\mu = E(\nabla \log Y_t)$  throughout to account for the fact that the real data may not have mean zero.
- Using the method of moments, we estimate the unknown parameters  $\mu$  and  $\theta$  (see R example).

 $(\nabla \log Y_t - 0.004) = e_t + 0.222e_{t-1}$ 

with estimated noise variance 0.00686.

► Based on the standard error of the estimate of µ (see formula on page 28), it could be argued that the value of 0.004 is not significantly different from 0, so we could drop this 0.004 from the final model.

- Since method-of-moments performs poorly for some models, we examine another method of parameter estimation: Least Squares.
- We first consider autoregressive models.
- We assume our time series is stationary (or that the time series has been transformed so that the transformed data can be modeled as stationary).
- To account for the possibility that the mean is nonzero, we subtract μ from each observation and treat μ as a parameter to be estimated.

Consider the mean-centered AR(1) model:

$$Y_t - \mu = \phi(Y_{t-1} - \mu) + e_t$$

The least squares method seeks the parameter values that minimize the sum of squared differences:

$$S_{c}(\phi,\mu) = \sum_{t=2}^{n} [(Y_{t} - \mu) - \phi(Y_{t-1} - \mu)]^{2}$$

This criterion is called the *conditional sum-of-squares function* (CSS).

Taking the derivative of CSS with respect to μ, setting equal to 0 and solving for μ, we obtain the LS estimator of μ:

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{(n-1)(1-\phi)} \left[ \sum_{t=2}^{n} Y_t - \phi \sum_{t=2}^{n} Y_{t-1} \right]$$

For large *n*, this  $\hat{\mu} \approx \bar{Y}$ , regardless of the value of  $\phi$ .

# LS Estimation of $\phi$ for the AR(1) Model

Taking the derivative of CSS with respect to φ, setting equal to 0 and solving for φ, we obtain the LS estimator of φ:

$$\hat{\phi} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (Y_t - \bar{Y}) (Y_{t-1} - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (Y_{t-1} - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- ► This estimator is almost identical to  $r_1$ : it's just missing one term in the denominator,  $(Y_n \bar{Y})^2$ .
- So, especially for large n, the LS and MOM estimators are nearly identical in the AR(1) model.
- In the general AR(p) model, the LS estimators of μ and of φ<sub>1</sub>,..., φ<sub>p</sub> are approximately equal to the MOM estimators, especially for large samples.

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#### LS Estimation for Moving Average Models

Consider now the MA(1) model:

$$Y_t = e_t - \theta e_{t-1}$$

Recall that this can be written as

$$Y_t = -\theta Y_{t-1} - \theta^2 Y_{t-2} - \theta^3 Y_{t-3} - \cdots + e_t.$$

So a least squares estimator of  $\theta$  can be obtained by finding the value of  $\theta$  that minimizes

$$S_c(\theta) = \sum [Y_t + \theta Y_{t-1} + \theta^2 Y_{t-2} + \theta^3 Y_{t-3} + \cdots]^2$$

But this is nonlinear in θ, and the infinite series causes technical problems.

#### LS Estimation for Moving Average Models

Instead, we proceed by conditioning on one previous value of e<sub>t</sub>. Note that

$$e_t = Y_t + \theta e_{t-1}$$

- ▶ If we set  $e_0 = 0$ , then we have the set of recursive equations  $e_1 = Y_1$ ,  $e_2 = Y_2 + \theta e_1, \ldots, e_n = Y_n + \theta e_{n-1}$ .
- Since we know Y<sub>1</sub>, Y<sub>2</sub>,..., Y<sub>n</sub> (these are the observed data values) and can calculate the e<sub>1</sub>, e<sub>2</sub>,..., e<sub>n</sub> recursively, the only unknown quantity here is θ.
- ▶ We can do a numerical search for the value of  $\theta$  (within the invertible range between -1 and 1) that minimizes  $\sum (e_t)^2$ , conditional on  $e_0 = 0$ .
- A similar approach works for higher-order MA(q) models, except that we assume e<sub>0</sub> = e<sub>-1</sub> = ··· = e<sub>-q</sub> = 0 and the numerical search is multidimensional, since we are estimating θ<sub>1</sub>,...,θ<sub>q</sub>.

#### LS Estimation for ARMA Models

▶ With the *ARMA*(1,1) model:

$$Y_t = \phi Y_{t-1} + e_t - \theta e_{t-1},$$

we note that

$$e_t = Y_t - \phi Y_{t-1} + \theta e_{t-1}$$

and minimize  $S_c(\phi, \theta) = \sum_{t=2}^{n} e_t^2$ ; note that the sum starts at t = 2 to avoid having to choose an "initial" value  $Y_0$ .

- With the general ARMA(p, q) model, the procedure is similar, except that we assume e<sub>p</sub> = e<sub>p-1</sub> = ··· = e<sub>p+1-q</sub> = 0, and we estimate φ<sub>1</sub>,..., φ<sub>p</sub>, θ<sub>1</sub>,..., θ<sub>q</sub>.
- ▶ For *large samples*, when the parameter sets yield invertible models, the initial values for e<sub>p</sub>, e<sub>p-1</sub>,..., e<sub>p+1-q</sub> have little effect on the final parameter estimates.

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#### Maximum Likelihood Estimation

On the other hand, for small to moderate sample sizes (and for stochastic seasonal models), assuming

 $e_p = e_{p-1} = \cdots = e_{p+1-q} = 0$  can greatly affect the final parameter estimates, which is undesirable.

- In those cases, rather than using least squares, it may be advantageous to use maximum likelihood (ML) estimation.
- An advantage of ML estimation is that it uses all of the information in the data (not just the first few moments as in MOM).
- Also, many large-sample results are known about the sampling distribution of ML estimators.
- A disadvantage of ML estimation is that we must assume the form of the joint probability distribution of the time series process.

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- ► The *likelihood function* is the joint density function of the data, but treated as a function of the unknown parameters, given the observed data Y<sub>1</sub>,..., Y<sub>n</sub>.
- For the models we have studied, the likelihood *L* is a function of the  $\phi$ 's,  $\theta$ 's,  $\mu$ , and  $\sigma_e^2$ , given the observed  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ .
- The maximum likelihood estimates (MLEs) are the values of the parameters that maximize this likelihood function, i.e., that are the "most likely" parameter values given the data we actually observed.

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#### Maximum Likelihood in the AR(1) Model

- ln the AR(1) model with an unknown but constant mean, the parameters we must estimate are  $\phi$ ,  $\mu$ , and  $\sigma_e^2$ .
- ► To perform ML estimation in the *AR*(1) model, we must assume a distribution for our data.
- The typical assumption is that the {e<sub>t</sub>} in the AR(1) model are iid N(0, σ<sub>e</sub><sup>2</sup>) random variables.
- Under this assumption, the likelihood function (details are given on page 159) is:

$$L(\phi, \mu, \sigma_e^2) = (2\pi\sigma_e^2)^{-n/2} (1-\phi^2)^{1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_e^2} S(\phi, \mu)\right]$$

where

$$S(\phi,\mu) = \sum_{t=2}^{n} [(Y_t - \mu) - \phi(Y_{t-1} - \mu)]^2 + (1 - \phi^2)(Y_1 - \mu)^2.$$

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- This S(φ, μ) is called the unconditional sum-of-squares function.
- We must find estimates φ̂, μ̂, and σ̂<sub>e</sub><sup>2</sup> that maximize the likelihood function (in practice, we typically maximize the log-likelihood function, which produces equivalent estimates).
- The estimator of the noise variance σ<sup>2</sup><sub>e</sub>, in terms of the other estimates, is

$$\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = \frac{S(\hat{\phi}, \hat{\mu})}{n}.$$

► Note that dividing by n - 2 rather than n produces a less biased estimator, but for large sample sizes, this makes little practical difference.

- We still need to estimate  $\phi$  and  $\mu$ .
- Comparing the unconditional sum-of-squares function to the conditional sum-of-squares function we saw earlier, note that S(φ, μ) = S<sub>c</sub>(φ, μ) + (1 − φ<sup>2</sup>)(Y<sub>1</sub> − μ)<sup>2</sup>, so for large sample sizes, S(φ, μ) ≈ S<sub>c</sub>(φ, μ).
- This implies that our ML estimates of φ and μ will be very similar to the LS estimates, at least for large sample sizes.
- The likelihood function for general ARMA models is more complicated, but ML estimates can usually be found in these models.
- In practice, for AR models, MA models, or general ARMA or ARIMA models, we can often find either the LS estimates or the ML estimates easily using R.

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- Recall that LS estimators and ML estimators become approximately equal for large samples.
- So the large-sample properties of LS estimators and ML estimators are identical for basic ARMA-type models.
- For large n, these estimators are approximately unbiased and normally distributed.
- Note: For AR models, MOM estimators have identical large-sample properties as LS and ML estimators.
- But for models with MA terms, MOM estimators have poor performance and should not be used!
- For some common models, variance and correlation results for the estimators are given on page 161.

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- For example, for the AR(1) model,  $var(\hat{\phi}) \approx (1 \phi^2)/n$ , and for the MA(1) model,  $var(\hat{\theta}) \approx (1 \theta^2)/n$ .
- Clearly, the variance of the estimator decreases (i.e., the precision improves) as n increases.
- For the AR(1) model, the variance of the estimator  $\hat{\phi}$  will be low when the true  $\phi$  is near 1.
- For the MA(1) model, the variance of the estimator θ̂ will be low when the true θ is near 1.

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# Parameter Estimation with Some Simulated Time Series

- See the course web page for R examples for parameter estimation for two different simulated AR(1) series, each with n = 60, using the MOM, LS, and ML methods.
- See the course web page for R examples for parameter estimation for a simulated AR(2) series, with n = 120, using the MOM, LS, and ML methods.
- See the course web page for R examples for parameter estimation for a simulated ARMA(1,1) series, with n = 100, using the LS and ML methods (why not MOM here?).
- For these sample sizes, the various methods perform similarly in terms of their accuracy of estimation.
- With smaller sample sizes, the methods may produce more different results.

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# Parameter Estimation with the Color Property Time Series

- For the color property time series, we had specified an AR(1) model.
- The R examples show the estimation of  $\phi$  using the MOM, LS, and ML methods (note n = 35 here).
- From the ML estimate, the estimated AR(1) model would be

$$Y_t = 0.57 Y_{t-1} + e_t$$

Since the mean of the color property series is clearly not zero, it is better to estimate a *mean-centered* version of the model, and using the arima function tells us that  $\hat{\mu} = 74.33$ :

$$(Y_t - 74.33) = 0.57(Y_{t-1} - 74.33) + e_t$$

where the noise variance is estimated to be 24.83.

Since ρ<sub>k</sub> = φ<sup>k</sup> for an AR(1) process, we see that the autocorrelations will be positive for any lag, but will die off as the lag k increases.

# Parameter Estimation with the Hare Abundance Time Series

- For the Canadian hare abundance data, recall that we will take the square root of the original abundance values.
- In the previous MOM example, we modeled the data with an AR(2) model, but here we choose an AR(3) model, which may be more appropriate based on the PACF.
- The R examples show the estimation of φ<sub>1</sub>, φ<sub>2</sub>, φ<sub>3</sub> and μ (as well as σ<sub>e</sub><sup>2</sup>) using the MOM, LS, and ML methods (note n = 31 here).
- The final estimated model (from the ML estimates) is:

$$(\sqrt{Y_t} - 5.69) = 1.052(\sqrt{Y_{t-1}} - 5.69) - 0.229(\sqrt{Y_{t-2}} - 5.69) - 0.393(\sqrt{Y_{t-3}} - 5.69) + e_t$$

with estimated noise variance 1.066.

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# Parameter Estimation with the Hare Abundance Time Series (Continued)

- From the standard errors of the estimates, the lag-2 coefficient does not appear significantly different from zero.
- So we could optionally drop the lag-2 term and refit the AR model with only the lag-1 and lag-3 terms.

#### Parameter Estimation with the Oil Price Time Series

- Our earlier analysis specified an MA(1) model for the differences of the logged oil prices.
- The R example shows the estimation of θ using several methods.
- Again, the method of moments is not recommended for the MA(1) model.

- See the R examples on parameter estimation for several other data sets:
- We estimate the parameters of an AR(2) model for the recruitment data.
- We estimate the parameters of an MA(1) model for the differenced logged varve data.
- Either an AR(1) model or an MA(2) model seems to fit the differences of the logged GNP data well.

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#### Large-sample Inference about the Model Parameters

- When the model parameters are estimated by the ML method, then the ML estimators are approximately normally distributed when n is large.
- So we can use normal-based inference to get, say, confidence intervals for the true values of the parameters.
- For example, it may be of interest to know whether 0 is a plausible value of some parameter.
- For large samples, a  $(1 \alpha)100\%$  CI for a parameter takes the form:

estimate  $\pm (z_{lpha/2})$ (estimated standard error)

For example, in an AR(1) model, a 95% CI for  $\phi$  is:

$$\hat{\phi}\pm 1.96\sqrt{(1-\hat{\phi}^2)/n}$$

For example, in an MA(1) model, a 90% CI for  $\theta$  is:

$$\hat{ heta} \pm 1.645 \sqrt{(1-\hat{ heta}^2)/n}$$
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## Small-sample Inference about the Model Parameters

- The ML estimators are not necessarily approximately normally distributed when n is small.
- So when n is small, we can use a more general approach, bootstrap-based inference, to get confidence intervals for the true values of the parameters.
- Section 7.6 gives details about bootstrap intervals.
- Some R examples give code for calculating 95% bootstrap CIs for ARIMA-type model parameters using four different methods; note that Method IV makes the fewest assumptions about the error distribution.
- The bootstrap method also makes it possible to construct Cls about relevant functions of the model parameters.