Statistical Methods for Economists

Lecture 6

Time series (methods of sales prediction)



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No.

- Time series
- Decomposition of the time series into

the trend, seasonal, cyclic, and random component

- The trend component
- The seasonal component
- Prediction by using time series
- Autocorrelation of the random component: Durbin-Watson test
- Moving average: simple, centred, and weighted moving average



A time series is a sequence of data points listed in time order.

A time series is usually a sequence of data variable (Y) taken at equidistant points of time (such as one hour, one day, one week, one year, and so on). Without loss of generality, we can assume that the time points are t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...In other words, we usually consider <u>discrete</u>-time data.

We distinguish:

- instantaneous value type time series
- step accumulated value type time series



Instantaneous value type time series

— the measured value is taken at a particular time.

Examples: the air temperature, the wind speed

- Step accumulated value type time series
 - the measured value is take over an entire interval of time

Example: the rainfalls during the past hour



It is usually assumed that

- the main factor that affects the observed value Y mainly is the time,
- the time points at which the data are observed are equidistant; that is, the time intervals are of the same length.

The goal is to formulate a mathematical model of the time series and to use it for time series forecasting (prediction).

- We distinguish two types of prediction:
- point prediction



We usually assume that the time series can be decomposed into

the following four components:

- T_t the trend component
- S_t the seasonal component
- C_t the cyclic component
- ε_t the irregular component / the random error



We then can assume:

• either the additive model of the time series:

 $Y_t = T_t + S_t + C_t + \varepsilon_t$ for t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...

• or the multiplicative model of the time series:

 $Y_t = T_t \times S_t \times C_t \times \varepsilon_t$ for t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...

where

- T_t the trend component
- S_t the seasonal component
- C_t the cyclical component



The **trend component** T_t describes the long-term progression of the time series. It reflects the systematic and long-term effect of the main factors. A special case is if the trend is identically zero $(T_t = 0 \text{ for all } t)$; the time series has no trend then.

The **seasonal component** S_t reflects the seasonality, i.e. seasonal factors, which repeat periodically during a fixed and known period of time, often a year (sometimes a week). The seasonality is then observed over intervals shorter than a year (or a week), such as the quarter of the year / month / week



The **cyclical component** C_t captures fluctuations (rises and falls) that are repeated but have not a fixed period, such as the "business cycle" (economic cycle / trade cycle). The period is not fixed and usually longer than one year.

The random error ε_t is often assumed to be distributed normally and homoscedastic (with the same variance), that is

$$\varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$
 for every $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

and the random variables ε_t are assumed to be mutually independent.



The general (additive) model, which we assume is

$$Y_t = T_t + S_t + C_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

A special case is when the cyclical component C_t is zero:

$$Y_t = T_t + S_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

A yet more special case is when both the cyclical component C_t and the seasonal component S_t are zero:

$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

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From now on, we assume the following simple (additive) model of the time series:

 $Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$ for t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...

where T_t is the trend component.

The trend component T_t often falls into one of the following cases:

- linear / quadratic / polynomial trend
- exponential / logarithmic trend
- logistic trend
- Gompertz trend

$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

where the trend component is of the form

$$T_t = \beta_0 + \beta t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

for some (unknown but) fixed real numbers

 $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$

The parameters $\beta_0, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ can be estimated by using the method of



$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

where the trend component is of the form

$$T_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 t^2$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

for some (unknown but) fixed real numbers

 $\beta_0,\beta_1,\beta_2\in\mathbb{R}$

The parameters $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ can be estimated by using the method of



$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

where the trend component is of the form

$$T_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 t^2 + \dots + \beta_k t^k$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

for some (unknown but) fixed real numbers

 $\beta_0,\beta_1,\beta_2,\ldots,\beta_k\in\mathbb{R}$

The parameters $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, ..., \beta_k \in \mathbb{R}$ can be estimated by using the method of



$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

where the trend component is of the form

$$T_t = \beta_0 \beta^t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

for some (unknown but) fixed real numbers

 $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$

The parameters $\beta_0, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ can be estimated by using the method of



$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

where the trend component is of the form

$$T_t = \beta_0 + \beta \ln t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

for some (unknown but) fixed real numbers

 $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$

The parameters $\beta_0, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ can be estimated by using the method of



$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

where the trend component is of the form

$$T_t = \frac{\kappa}{1 + \beta_0 \beta^t}$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

for some (unknown but) fixed real numbers

$$\kappa > 0$$
 and $\beta_0 > 0$ and $0 < \beta < 1$



$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

where the trend component is of the form

$$T_t = ab^{c^t}$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

for some (unknown but) fixed real numbers

a > 0 and 0 < b < 1 and 0 < c < 1





Rule	Suggested Trend
$\Delta^1 y_t \approx \text{const.}$	Linear
$\Delta^1 y_t \approx \text{linear } \& \Delta^2 y_t \approx \text{const.}$	Quadratic
$\Delta^1 y_t \approx \text{Gaussian curve}$	Logistic

where

$$\Delta^1 y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$
$$\Delta^2 y_t = \Delta^1 y_t - \Delta^1 y_{t-1}$$



Assume that each period of time t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ... consists of s_0 seasons. For example, a year consists of $s_0 = 4$ quarters or $s_0 = 12$ months;

a week consists of $s_0 = 7$ days.

We thus assume that the time series

is of the form

$$Y_{ts} = T_t + S_s + \varepsilon_{ts}$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$ and $s = 1, 2, ..., s_0$

where

- T_t is the trend component
- S_s is the seasonal component



We here assume the constant seasonality.

That is, the time series is of the form

$$Y_{ts} = T_t + S_s + \varepsilon_{ts}$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$ and $s = 1, 2, ..., s_0$

and the numbers $S_1, S_2, ..., S_{s_0} \in \mathbb{R}$ are such that

$$\sum_{s=1}^{s_0} S_s = 0$$

The trend component T_t is then assumed to be linear or polynomial, say.



Assuming the constant seasonality, the model of the time series is written as

$$Y_{ts} = T_t + \gamma_0 + \gamma_2 x_2 + \gamma_3 x_3 + \dots + \gamma_{s_0} x_{s_0}$$

where

$$\gamma_0 = S_1$$
 and $\gamma_2 = S_2 - S_1$ $\gamma_3 = S_3 - S_1$... $\gamma_{S_0} = S_{S_0} - S_1$

and

$$x_2 = x_3 = \dots = x_{s_0} = 0$$
 if $s = 1$

and

$$x_s = 1$$
 if $s \in \{2, 3, \dots, s_0\}$

and

$$x_2 = \dots = x_{s-1} = 0 = x_{s+1} = \dots = x_{s_0}$$



If the trend is polynomial, say, we obtain:

$$Y_{ts} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 t^2 + \dots + \beta_k t^k + \gamma_2 x_2 + \gamma_3 x_3 + \dots + \gamma_{s_0} x_{s_0}$$

The term $\gamma_0 = S_1$ is included in the constant (intercept) term β_0 .

We have as above:

$$x_2 = x_3 = \dots = x_{s_0} = 0$$
 if $s = 1$

and

$$x_s = 1$$
 if $s \in \{2, 3, \dots, s_0\}$

and

$$x_2 = \dots = x_{s-1} = 0 = x_{s+1} = \dots = x_{s_0}$$

Prediction by using Time Series



Assume that there is no seasonal component in the time series and that the time series follows the linear trend

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

or the quadratic trend

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 t^2 + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

Assume that we have a sample

 y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n

of observations of the variable Y for t = 1, 2, ..., n.





Having the sample

 y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n

of observations of the variable Y for t = 1, 2, ..., n, we estimate

the parameters β_0, β or $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$, respectively, by using the Linear Regression.

Let b_0 , b or b_0 , b_1 , b_2 be the estimates of the parameters β_0 , β or β_0 , β_1 , β_2 , respectively.



Then the point estimate \tilde{Y}_{n+h} of the variable Y at the time t = n + h, for h > 0, is simply

$$\tilde{Y}_{n+h} = b_0 + b(n+h)$$

or

$$\tilde{Y}_{n+h} = b_0 + b_1(n+h) + b_2(n+h)^2$$

respectively.

To obtain an interval estimate, we apply Theorem 6: If $\operatorname{rank}(X) = k + 1$, then $p^{\mathrm{T}}b \sim \mathcal{N}(p^{\mathrm{T}}\beta, \sigma^{2}p^{\mathrm{T}}Cp)$ and $\frac{p^{\mathrm{T}}b - p^{\mathrm{T}}\beta}{\sqrt{s^{2}}\sqrt{p^{\mathrm{T}}Cp}} \sim t_{n-(k+1)}$



Choose the level of significance, a small number $\alpha > 0$, such as $\alpha = 5$ %. If the trend is <u>linear</u> $(T_t = \beta_0 + \beta t)$,

then the probability that the unknown

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta(n+h) \end{pmatrix} \in \\ \in \left[\tilde{Y}_{n+h} - t_{n-2} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \sqrt{s^2} \sqrt{Q_n(h)}, \quad \tilde{Y}_{n+h} + t_{n-2} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \sqrt{s^2} \sqrt{Q_n(h)} \right]$$

is about $1-\alpha = 95$ %,

where $t_{n-2}(q)$ is the quantile function of Student's *t*-distribution with n-2 d.f.:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\tau_{n-2}(q)} f(t) \, \mathrm{d}t = q$$



where

$$s^{2} = \frac{\text{RSS}}{n - \text{rank}(X)} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (y_{t} - \hat{y}_{t})^{2}}{n - 2} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} y_{t}^{2} - \sum_{t=1}^{n} \hat{y}_{t}^{2}}{n - 2} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (y_{t} - b_{0} - bt)^{2}}{n - 2}$$

where

and

 $b_{0} = c_{00} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} + c_{01} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} t^{2} \sum_{t=1}^{n} y_{t} - \sum_{t=1}^{n} t \sum_{t=1}^{n} t y_{t}}{n \sum_{t=1}^{n} t^{2} - (\sum_{t=1}^{n} t)^{2}}$ $b = c_{10} \sum_{t=1}^{n} y_{i} + c_{11} \sum_{t=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i} = \frac{n \sum_{t=1}^{n} t y_{t} - \sum_{t=1}^{n} t \sum_{t=1}^{n} y_{t}}{n \sum_{t=1}^{n} t^{2} - (\sum_{t=1}^{n} t)^{2}}$

Time series: Prediction: Interval estimates

No.

notice that

$$\sum_{t=1}^{n} t = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{t=1}^{n} t^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

and that

$$n\sum_{t=1}^{n} t^2 - \left(\sum_{t=1}^{n} t\right)^2 = \frac{n^2(n^2 - 1)}{12}$$



where

$$Q_n(h) = \mathbf{x} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}$$
 where $\mathbf{x} = (1 \quad n+h)$

where

$$C = (X^{T}X)^{-1}$$
 where $X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n \end{pmatrix}$

$$Q_n(h) = \frac{2}{n(n+1)} \left(2n+1 + 6(n+h) \frac{h-1}{n+1} \right)$$



Choose the level of significance, a small number $\alpha > 0$, such as $\alpha = 5$ %. If the trend is <u>quadratic</u> $(T_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 t^2)$,

then the probability that the unknown

$$(\beta_0 + \beta_1(n+h) + \beta_2(n+h)^2) \in \\ \in \left[\tilde{Y}_{n+h} - t_{n-3} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \sqrt{s^2} \sqrt{Q_n(h)}, \quad \tilde{Y}_{n+h} + t_{n-3} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \sqrt{s^2} \sqrt{Q_n(h)} \right]$$

is about $1-\alpha = 95$ %,

where $t_{n-3}(q)$ is the quantile function of Student's *t*-distribution with n-3 d.f.:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{t_{n-3}(q)} f(t) \, \mathrm{d}t = q$$

Time series: Prediction: Interval estimates



where

$$s^{2} = \frac{\text{RSS}}{n - \text{rank}(X)} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (y_{t} - \hat{y}_{t})^{2}}{n - 3} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} y_{t}^{2} - \sum_{t=1}^{n} \hat{y}_{t}^{2}}{n - 3} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (y_{t} - b_{0} - b_{1}t - b_{2}t^{2})^{2}}{n - 3}$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{b} = \boldsymbol{C}\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y}$$

 $\boldsymbol{C} = \left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}$

where

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n & n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

where

Time series: Prediction: Interval estimates

where

$$X = (X^{T}X)^{-1}$$
 where $X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n & n^{2} \end{pmatrix}$

and where

$$Q_n(h) = xCx^T$$
 where $x = (1 \ n+h \ (n+h)^2)$



Autocorrelation of the random component



• Durbin-Watson test

We here consider the time series of the form

$$Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

or

$$Y_{ts} = T_t + S_s + \varepsilon_{ts}$$
 for $t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$ and $s = 1, 2, ..., s_0$

with $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{s_0} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\sum_{s=1}^{s_0} S_s = 0$, where

- T_t is the trend component
- S_s is the seasonal component
- ε_t or ε_{ts} is the random component

Let us consider the first case $(Y_t = T_t + \varepsilon_t)$ only for simplicity.



We then adopt the classical assumptions that

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$$

is a random vector such that

 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I})$

so that

- $Var(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma^2$ for t = 1, 2, ..., n (homoskedasticity)
- $cov(\varepsilon_s, \varepsilon_t) = 0$ if $s \neq t$ for s, t = 1, 2, ..., n (no correlation)

The latter assumption is often violated in time series.



No.

Consider the equation

$$\varepsilon_{t-1} = \rho \varepsilon_t + u_t$$
 for $t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, ...$

where $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$ and the random variables are $u_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ are independent. If

- $\rho = 0$ then no autocorrelation is present
- $\rho > 0$ then positive autocorrelation AR(1) is present
- $\rho < 0$ then negative autocorrelation AR(1) is present

Our purpose is to test the null hypothesis

$$H_0: \quad \rho = 0$$

We have a sample

 y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n

of observations of the variable Y for t = 1, 2, ..., n.

By using the Linear Regression, we estimate the respective parameters $\beta_0, \beta_1, ..., \beta_k$ and we calculate the corresponding theoretical values $\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_2, ..., \hat{y}_n$

and the residuals

$$e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_t$$
 for $t = 1, 2, ..., n$



No.

We calculate the statistic

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\text{RSS}} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t^2}$$

and formulate the null hypothesis

$$H_0: \quad \rho = 0$$

The alternative hypothesis is

- either

— or

$$H_1: \quad \rho > 0$$
$$H_1: \quad \rho < 0$$



Assume that the matrix X is of type $n \times (1 + k)$, so that the parameters to be estimated are $\beta_0, \beta_1, ..., \beta_k$, and assume for simplicity that $\operatorname{rank}(X) = k + 1$

If the null hypothesis (H_0 : $\rho = 0$) holds true, then it is probable that

$$d_{\rm L} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} \kappa_{k+t} z_t^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} z_t^2} \le d \le \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} \kappa_t z_t^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} z_t^2} = d_{\rm U}$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{z}: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^{n-(k+1)}$$
 $\boldsymbol{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I})$



If the null hypothesis (H_0 : $\rho = 0$) holds true, then it is probable that

$$d_{\rm L} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} \kappa_{k+t} z_t^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} z_t^2} \le d \le \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} \kappa_t z_t^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n-(k+1)} z_t^2} = d_{\rm U}$$

where the random variables

$$z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{n-(k+1)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

are mutually independent and

$$\kappa_t = 2\left(1 - \cos\frac{(n-t)\pi}{n}\right) \quad \text{for} \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Notice that it holds

Calculate the statistic

and observe that

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\text{RSS}} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t^2}$$

Since $\kappa_{n-t} = 4 - \kappa_t$, it holds for the quantile functions

 $d_{\rm L}(1-\alpha) = 4 - d_{\rm U}(\alpha)$ and $d_{\rm U}(1-\alpha) = 4 - d_{\rm L}(\alpha)$

Remark: The values of the quantile functions can be found



Calculate the statistic

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\text{RSS}} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t^2}$$

and calculate the estimate of the paired correlation coefficient

$$r = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} e_t e_{t-1}}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t^2}$$

If r > 0 or r < 0, then the alternative hypothesis is H_1 : $\rho > 0$ or H_1 : $\rho < 0$,





Durbin-Watson test of the null hypothesis H_0 : $\rho = 0$ against

the alternative hypothesis H_1 : $\rho > 0$:

- Choose the level of significance, a small number $\alpha > 0$, such as $\alpha = 5$ %.
- Calculate the statistic

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\text{RSS}} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t^2}$$

- If $d \leq d_{\rm L}(\alpha)$, then <u>reject</u> the null hypothesis.
- If $d_{\rm U}(\alpha) \leq d$, then <u>do not reject</u> the null hypothesis.
- If $d_{\rm L}(\alpha) < d < d_{\rm U}(\alpha)$, then the test is indecisive.



Durbin-Watson test of the null hypothesis H_0 : $\rho = 0$ against

the alternative hypothesis H_1 : $\rho < 0$:

- Choose the level of significance, a small number $\alpha > 0$, such as $\alpha = 5$ %.
- Calculate the statistic

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\text{RSS}} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{n} (e_t - e_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t^2}$$

- If $d_{U}(1-\alpha) \leq d$, then <u>reject</u> the null hypothesis.
- If $d \le d_L(1 \alpha)$, then <u>do not reject</u> the null hypothesis.
- If $d_{\rm L}(1-\alpha) < d < d_{\rm U}(1-\alpha)$, then the test is indecisive.

Moving average



- Simple moving average
- Weighted moving average



A moving average is a method of the synthetic approach to the trend analysis.

- It consists in averaging a moving sample of consecutive observations
- of the random variable Y.
- The values smoothed in this way describe the sole trend contained in the
- time series, i.e. the trend without the external factors.

The new series of the averages can be analysed then.

Let a sample

$$y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$$

of observations of the random variable Y for t = 1, 2, ..., n be given.

Choose the length m of the moving part of the time series.

We usually choose the length

$$m = 2p + 1$$
 for some $p \in \left\{1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \right\rfloor\right\}$

i.e. an odd number.

Remark: If the seasonal component is assumed, then the length m is chosen



Simple moving average

Having chosen the length

$$m = 2p + 1$$

and having the sample

 y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n

we consider the new time series

$$\overline{y}_{p+1}, \overline{y}_{p+2}, \dots, \overline{y}_{n-p}$$

of the moving averages

$$\bar{y}_{\tau} = \frac{1}{2p+1} \sum_{t=\tau-p}^{\tau+p} y_t$$
 for $\tau = p+1, p+2, ..., n-p$



Simple moving average: Example



A time series and its moving averages of length m = 5:

t	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
y_t	34	40	37	42	45	47	44	51	52	58
average			39,6	42,2	43,0	45,8	47,8	50,4	52,0	56,0

t	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
y_t	55	64	59	66	68	62	72	75	72	77
average	57,6	60,4	62,4	63,8	65,4	68,6	69,8	71,6		

Simple moving average: Example



Numbers of passengers of SABENA per quarter: moving averages – interval of 4 time periods





In general, we choose:

- the length m of the moving window,
- the order $k \in \{1, 2, ..., m 1\}$ of the approximating polynomial.

We then approximate each segment

$$y_{\tau-p}, \ldots, y_{\tau}, \ldots, y_{\tau+p}$$

by a polynomial

$$y_{\tau+x} \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \dots + \beta_k x^k$$
 for $x = -p, \dots, 0, \dots, +p$

by using the Least Squares Method (i.e. Multiple Linear Regression)



That is, we calculate

$$\sum_{x=-p}^{+p} \left(y_{\tau+x} - b_0 - b_1 x - b_2 x^2 - \dots - b_k x^k \right)^2 \longrightarrow \min$$

and let

$$\bar{y}_{\tau} = b_0$$

for each $\tau = p + 1, p + 2, ..., n - p$.

- The choice k = 1 (approximation by a linear polynomial) yields the simple moving average, as above.
- The choice k = 2, 3, ... (approximation by a quadratic, cubic, ... polynomial) yields other <u>centred moving averages</u>.

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<u>Remark:</u> Instead of the simple moving average

$$\bar{y}_{\tau} = \frac{1}{2p+1} \sum_{t=\tau-p}^{\tau+p} y_t$$
 for $\tau = p+1, p+2, ..., n-p$

we can also consider a weighted moving average

$$\bar{y}_{\tau} = \frac{1}{\sum_{x=-p}^{+p} w_x} \sum_{x=-p}^{+p} w_x y_{\tau+x}$$
 for $\tau = p+1, p+2, ..., n-p$

where $w_{-p}, \ldots, w_0, \ldots, w_{+p} \ge 0$ are weights.



Moving average: Weighted moving average