

# Time Series Analysis:

## 7. Multivariate processes

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All kinds of time series that have been discussed so far, and some of those that will be discussed in the future, have their multivariate (or vector) counterparts. For example, a process

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{x}_{n-1} + \mathbf{A}_2\mathbf{x}_{n-2} + \cdots + \mathbf{A}_p\mathbf{x}_{n-p} + \mathbf{B}_0\boldsymbol{\eta}_n + \mathbf{B}_1\boldsymbol{\eta}_{n-1} + \cdots + \mathbf{B}_q\boldsymbol{\eta}_{n-q} \quad (1)$$

is a vector autoregressive, moving average process VARMA(p,q). In (1),  $\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is a  $m$ -dimensional time series,  $\mathbf{x}_{n-k}$  are its past values,  $\boldsymbol{\eta}_n$  is a  $n$ -dimensional GWN, similar for its past values, and  $\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_p, \mathbf{B}_0, \dots, \mathbf{B}_q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  are constant, real matrices. It is also possible to consider series in which the dimensionality of the “innovations”  $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ 's is different from that of the time series; in that case the matrices  $\mathbf{B}_j$  are not square, but rectangular.

The need to discuss such processes arises when we observe more than one time series and we expect that they mutually influence each other.

### Example

Two processes

$$x_n = \alpha_{11}x_{n-1} + \alpha_{12}y_{n-1} + \sigma_x\eta_{x,n} \quad (2a)$$

$$y_n = \alpha_{21}x_{n-1} + \alpha_{22}y_{n-1} + \sigma_y\eta_{y,n} \quad (2b)$$

together form a VAR(1) process with uncorrelated (independent) noises.

## VAR(1)

For simplicity, we shall only deal with processes VAR(1), or of the type (2), or more generally,

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_{n-1} + \Sigma\boldsymbol{\eta}_n \quad (3)$$

where  $\Sigma = \text{diag}\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_m\}$  meaning that the individual components of the vector noise are uncorrelated.

If the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  in (3) can be diagonalized, i.e. if there exists an invertible matrix  $\mathbf{S}$  such that

$$\mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{A}_{\text{diag}} = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m\} \quad (4)$$

the vector process (3) can be “diagonalized”, or represented as a collection of series that no longer influence each other. Indeed, multiplying (1) by  $\mathbf{S}^{-1}$  from the left, we get

$$\mathbf{z}_n = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{x}_{n-1} + \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{\eta}_n = \mathbf{A}_{\text{diag}}\mathbf{z}_{n-1} + \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{\eta}_n \quad (5)$$

## Notes

1. There still may be some interdependence between different components of  $\mathbf{z}_n$  as the matrix  $\mathbf{S}^{-1}\Sigma$  is, in general, not diagonal and the noises acting on various components of  $\mathbf{z}_n$  get correlated.
2. If the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  in (3) is not symmetric, the “diagonalized” time series  $\mathbf{z}_n$  may become *complex*.
3. For processes of higher orders VAR(p), a “diagonalization” in the spirit of Eq. (5) is possible only if all the matrices  $\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_p$  *commute*.

## Embedding in a higher dimension

If we have a general VAR(p) process

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{x}_{n-1} + \mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{x}_{n-2} + \cdots + \mathbf{A}_p \mathbf{x}_{n-p} + \Sigma \boldsymbol{\eta}_n \quad (6)$$

we can formally represent it as a VAR(1) process, but in a space of dimensionality  $m \times p$ . In block notation,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_n \\ \mathbf{x}_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_{n-p+2} \\ \mathbf{x}_{n-p+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_1 & \mathbf{A}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{A}_{p-1} & \mathbf{A}_p \\ \mathbb{I} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbb{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{n-1} \\ \mathbf{x}_{n-2} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_{n-p+1} \\ \mathbf{x}_{n-p} \end{bmatrix} + \Sigma \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\eta}_n \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (7)$$

## Stationarity of VAR(1)

From the “diagonalized” form of a VAR(1) process, we can clearly see that the process is stationary, if and only if **all eigenvalues of the matrix  $A$  satisfy**

$$\forall i = 1, \dots, m: |\lambda_i| < 1, \quad (8)$$

provided these eigenvalues exist. If **any** of the eigenvalues has a modulus that is greater than 1, the process is not stationary and explodes.

Note that the similarity transformation (4) and its inverse do not change the eigenvalues.



## Cross-correlations

The most important quantity to analyse while dealing with multivariate series is the *cross-correlation*. Let  $x_n^j$  be the  $j$ -th component of the vector  $\mathbf{x}_n$ . Then

$$\rho_{jk}(l) = \frac{1}{\sigma_j \sigma_k} \left\langle \left( x_n^j - \langle x_n^j \rangle \right) \left( x_{n+l}^k - \langle x_n^k \rangle \right) \right\rangle \quad (9a)$$

where

$$\sigma_j = \sqrt{\left\langle \left( x_n^j - \langle x_n^j \rangle \right)^2 \right\rangle}. \quad (9b)$$

Note that in general,  $\rho_{jk}(l) \neq \rho_{kj}(l)$ .

Because in practice we have only a single realization of the process at our disposal, we cannot do the statistical averaging. Therefore, instead of (9) we use

$$\langle x_n^j \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^j \quad (10a)$$

$$\sigma_j = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n^j - \langle x_n^j \rangle)^2} \quad (10b)$$

$$r_{jk}(l) = \frac{1}{(N-l)\sigma_j\sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N-l} (x_n^j - \langle x_n^j \rangle) (x_{n+l}^k - \langle x_n^k \rangle) \quad (10c)$$

where  $N$  is the length of the time series.

## Formal expressions for correlations of VAR(1)

Multiplying Eq. (3) from the right by  $\boldsymbol{\eta}_n^T$  and taking the statistical average, we get

$$\langle \mathbf{x}_n \boldsymbol{\eta}_n^T \rangle = \mathbf{A} \langle \mathbf{x}_{n-1} \boldsymbol{\eta}_n^T \rangle + \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \langle \boldsymbol{\eta}_n \boldsymbol{\eta}_n^T \rangle \quad (11)$$

The first average on the right-hand side of Eq. (11) vanishes as the process is causal and cannot depend on future noises. The other average gives the unit matrix,  $\mathbb{I}$ . Therefore,

$$\langle \mathbf{x}_n \boldsymbol{\eta}_n^T \rangle = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \quad (12)$$

Now let

$$\boldsymbol{\Gamma}(l) = \langle \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_{n-l}^T \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_{n+l}^T \rangle \quad (13)$$

where the last equality holds by virtue of stationarity.

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma(0) &= \langle \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^T \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{A} \langle \mathbf{x}_{n-1} \mathbf{x}_n^T \rangle + \Sigma \langle \boldsymbol{\eta}_n \mathbf{x}_n^T \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{A} \Gamma(1)^T + \Sigma \Sigma^T\end{aligned}\tag{14}$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma(1) &= \langle \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_{n-1}^T \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{A} \langle \mathbf{x}_{n-1} \mathbf{x}_{n-1}^T \rangle + \Sigma \langle \boldsymbol{\eta}_n \mathbf{x}_{n-1}^T \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{A} \Gamma(0)\end{aligned}\tag{15}$$

$$\Gamma(2) = \mathbf{A} \Gamma(1)\tag{16}$$

$$\Gamma(3) = \mathbf{A} \Gamma(2)\tag{17}$$

...

where we have used stationarity and causality.

Therefore,

$$\Gamma(l) = \mathbf{A}^l \Gamma(0)\tag{18}$$

Finally, to calculate  $\Gamma(0)$ , we can combine (14) and (15). First, we transpose (15)

$$\Gamma(1)^T = \Gamma(0)\mathbf{A}^T \quad (19)$$

as  $\Gamma(0)$  is symmetric.

Then

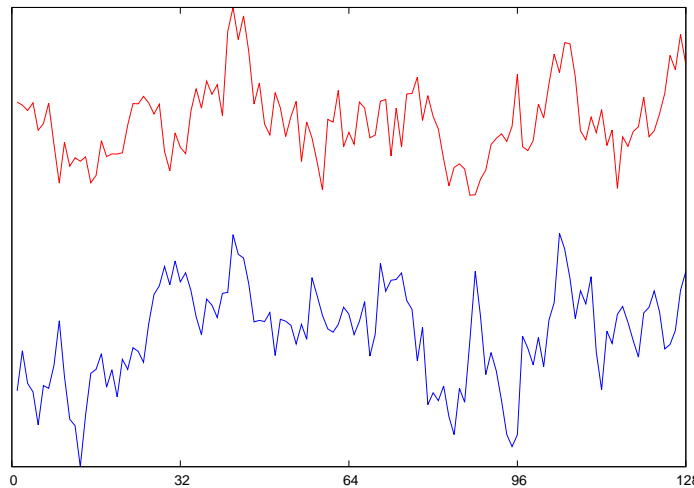
$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(0) &= \mathbf{A}\Gamma(1)^T + \Sigma\Sigma^T \\ &= \mathbf{A}\Gamma(0)\mathbf{A}^T + \Sigma\Sigma^T \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

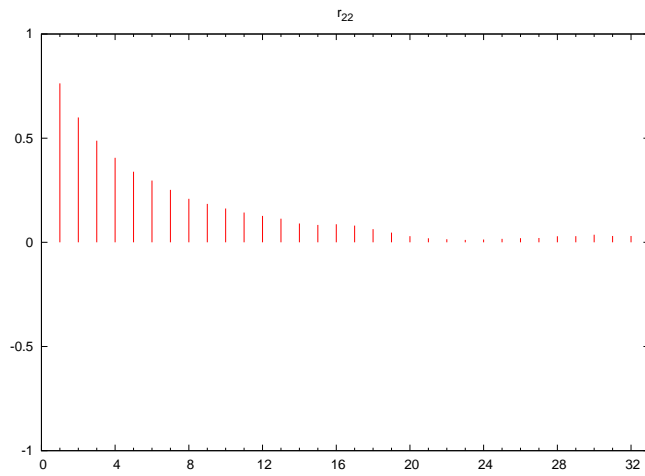
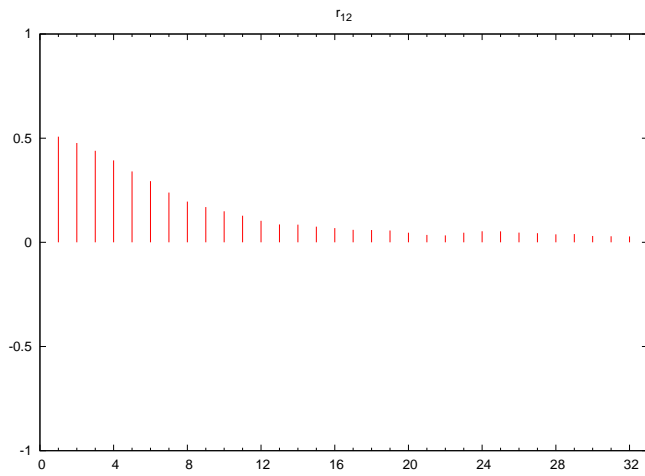
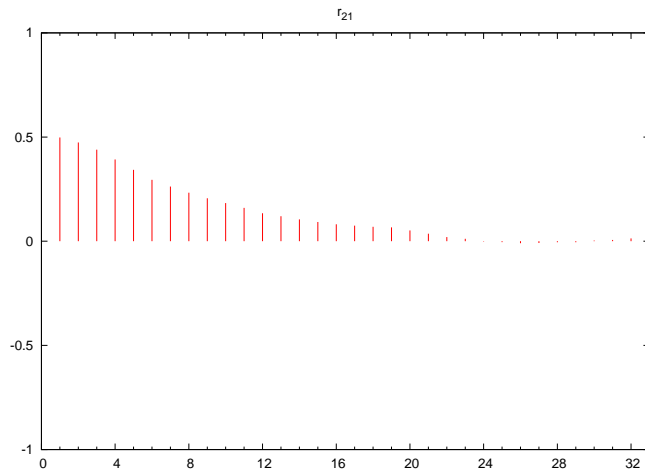
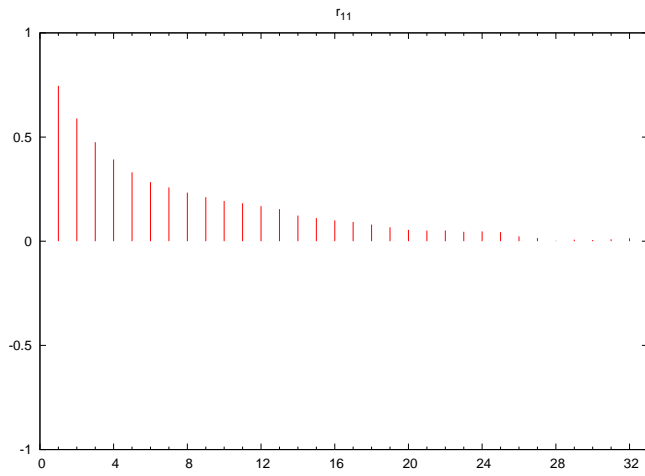
which can be solved for elements of  $\Gamma(0)$ . For stationary VAR(1) processes the solution exists.

We can see from Eq. (20) that if  $\mathbf{A}$  is not diagonal,  $\Gamma(l > 0)$  is not diagonal, either.

## Example 1

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (21)$$

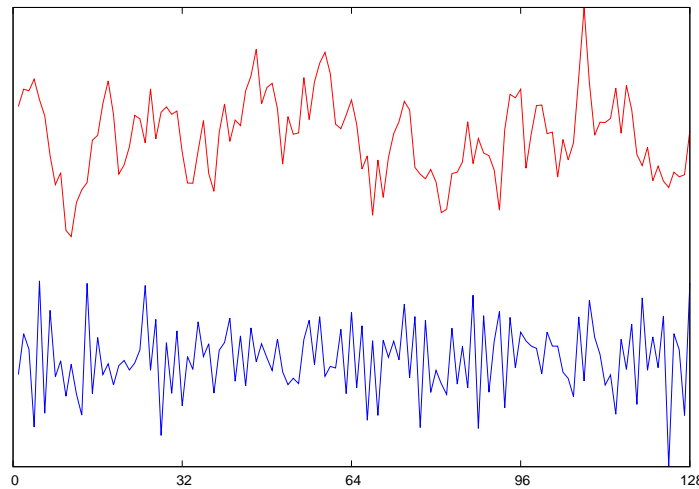


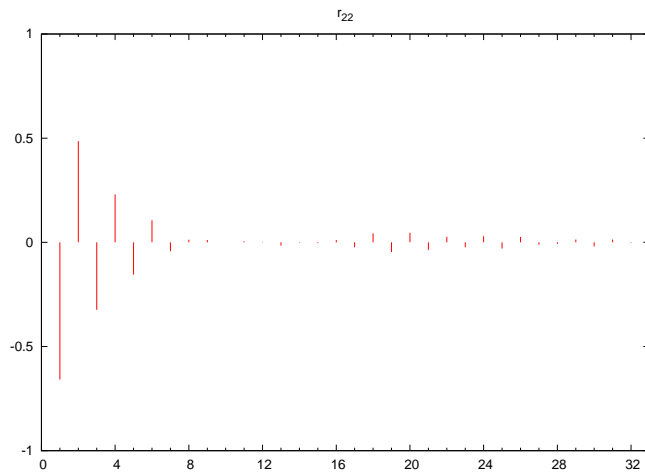
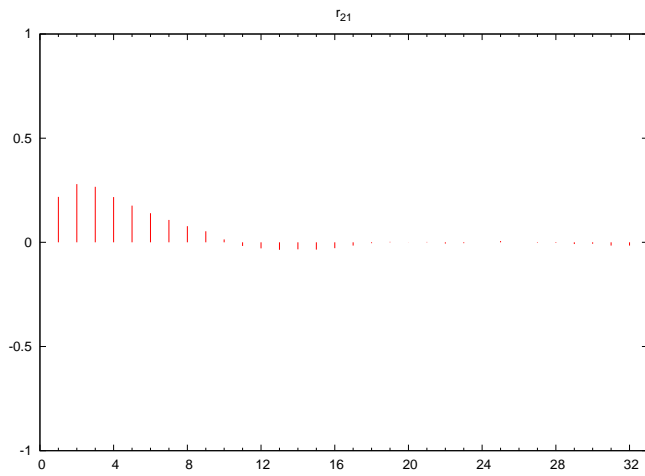
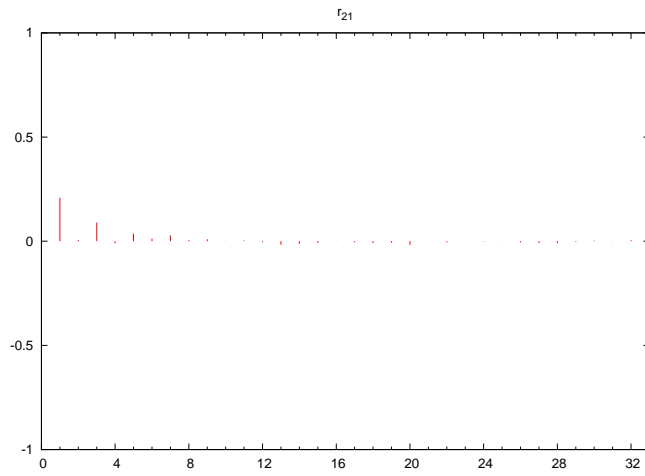
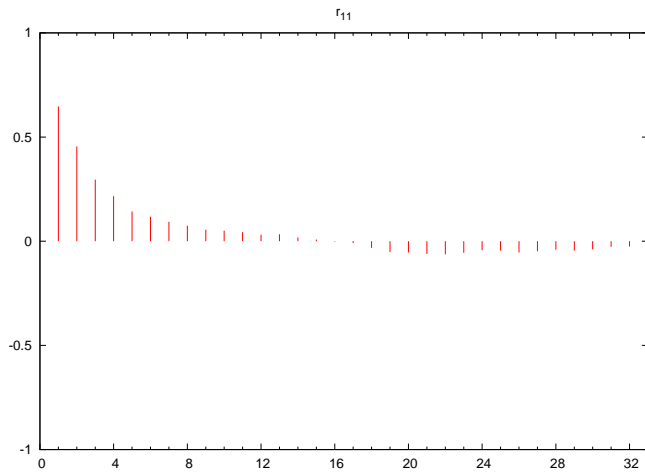




## Example 2

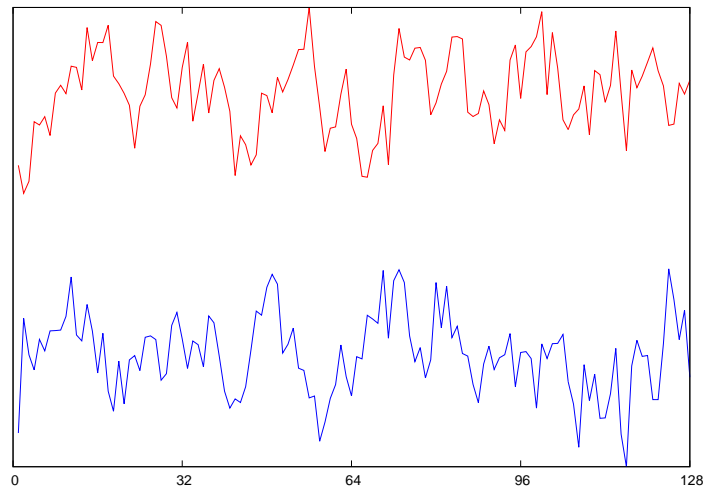
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (22)$$

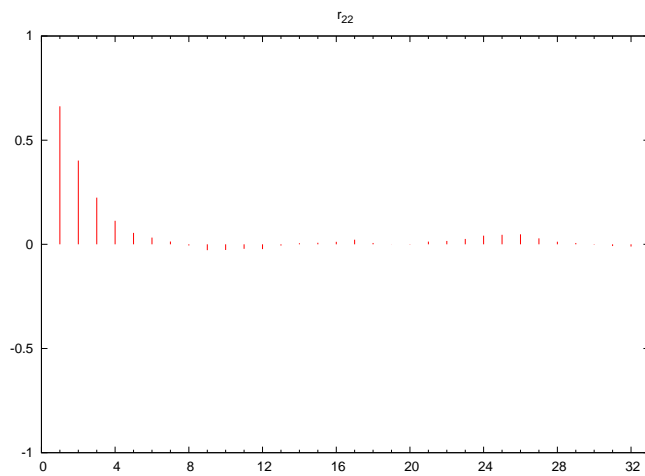
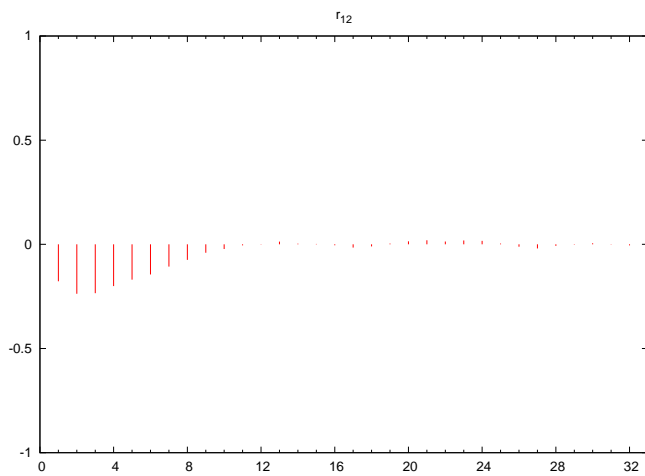
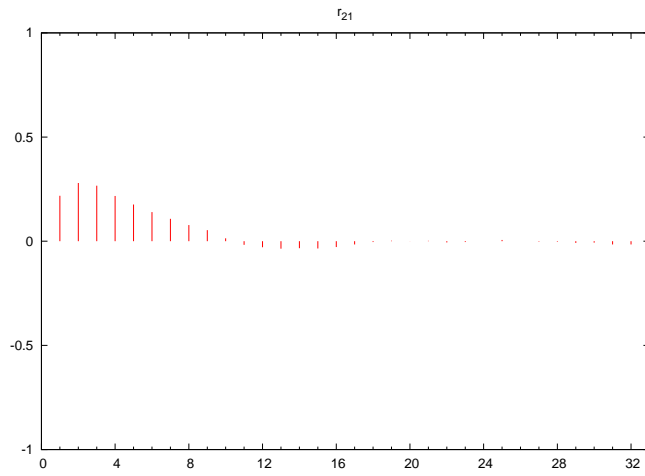
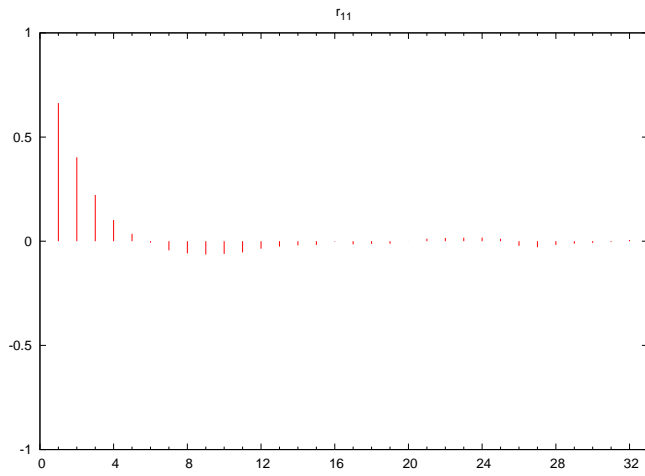




### Example 3

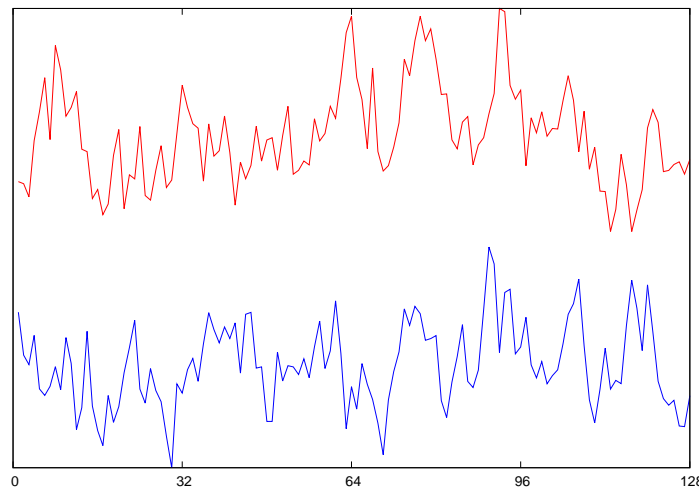
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{5} \\ -\frac{1}{5} & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (23)$$

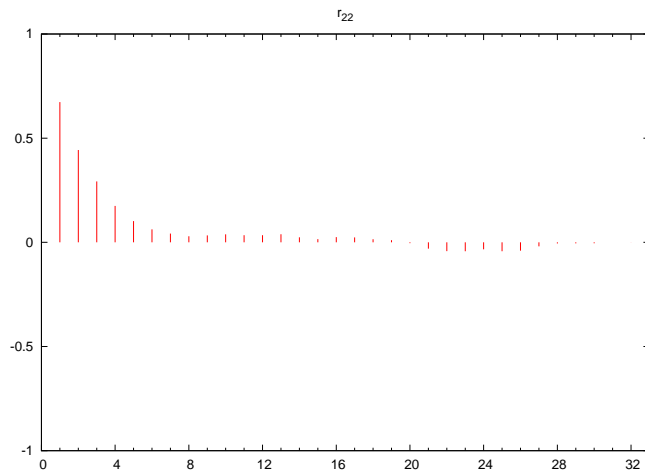
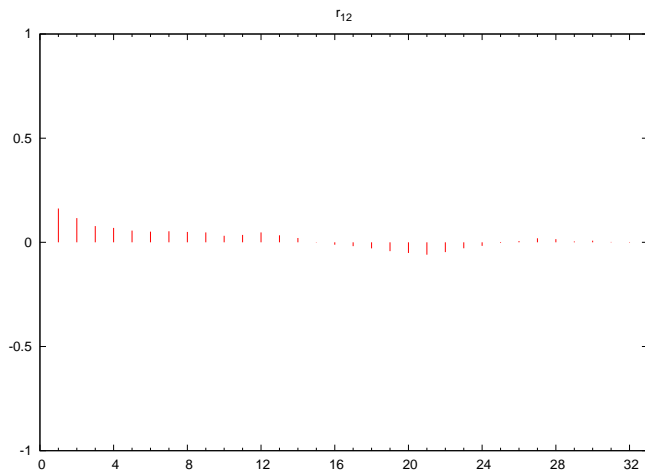
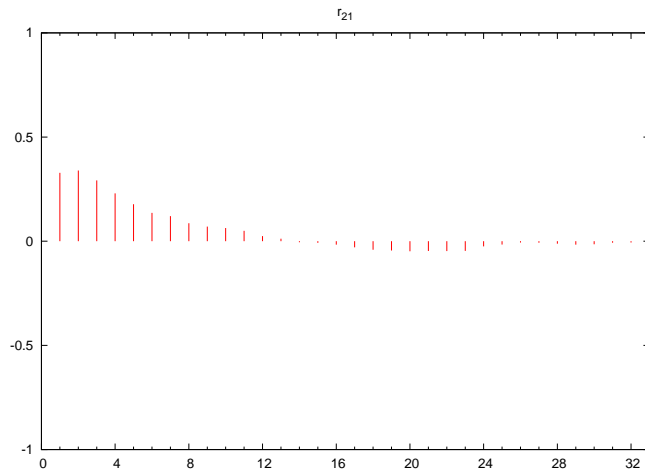
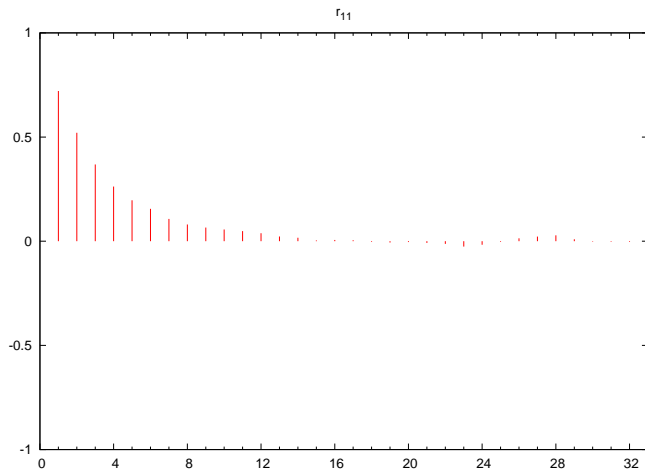




## Example 4 — one process drives another

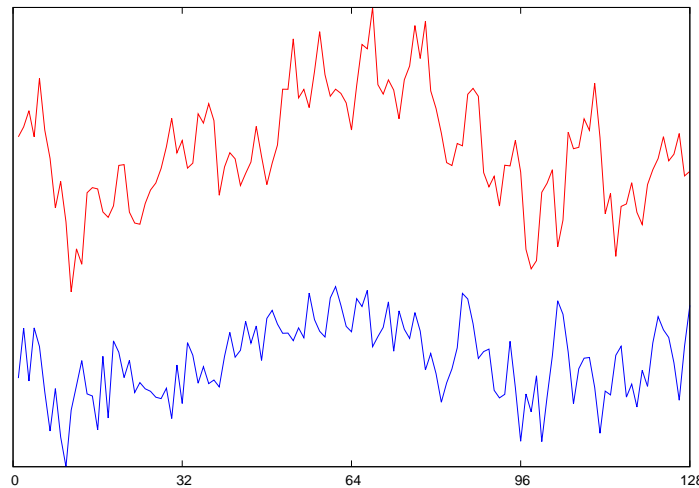
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{5} \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (24)$$

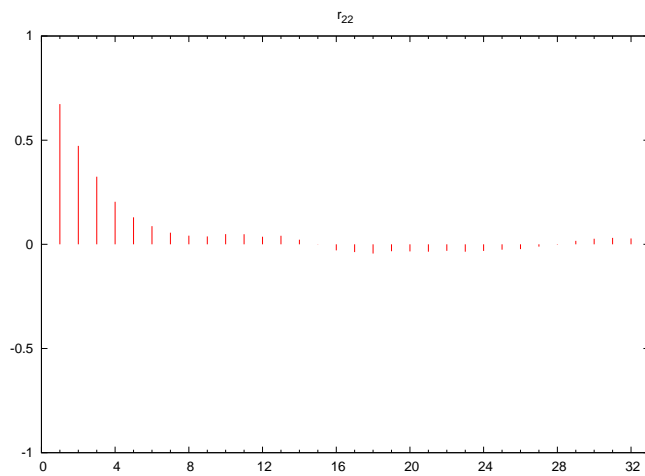
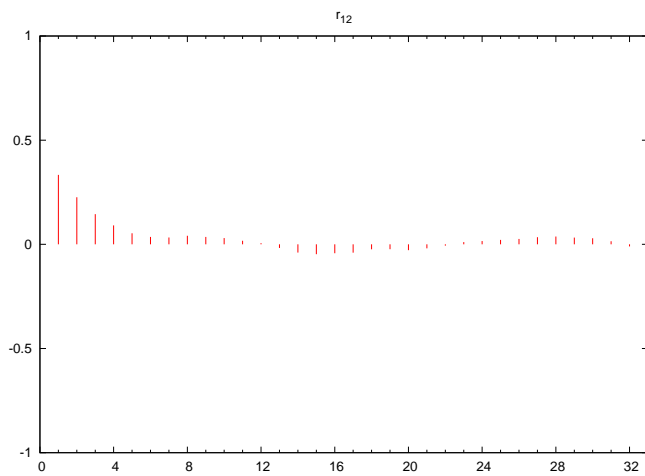
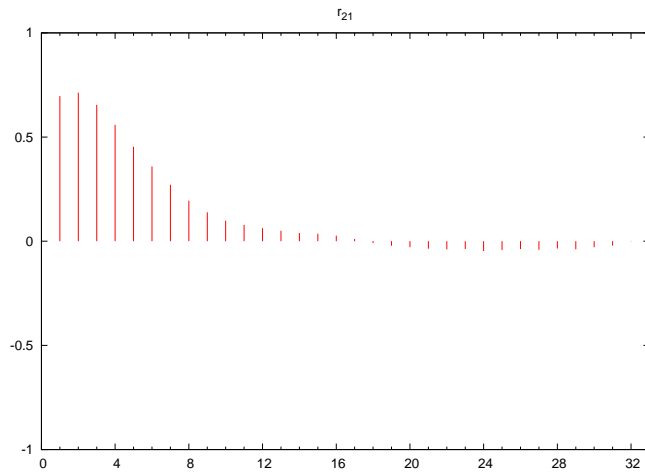
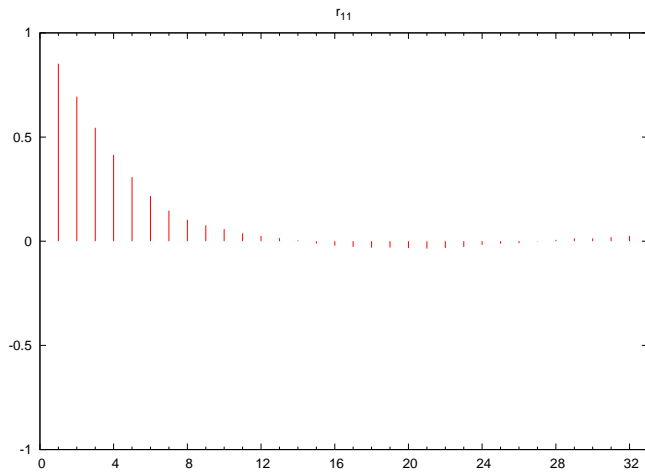




## Example 5 — “non-diagonalizable” process

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (25)$$

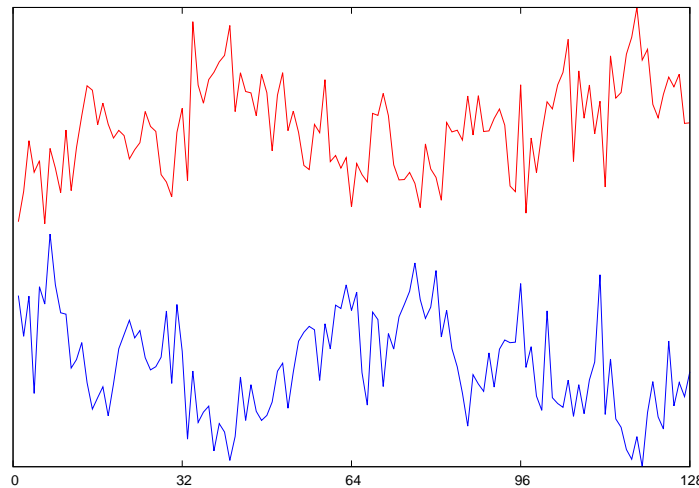


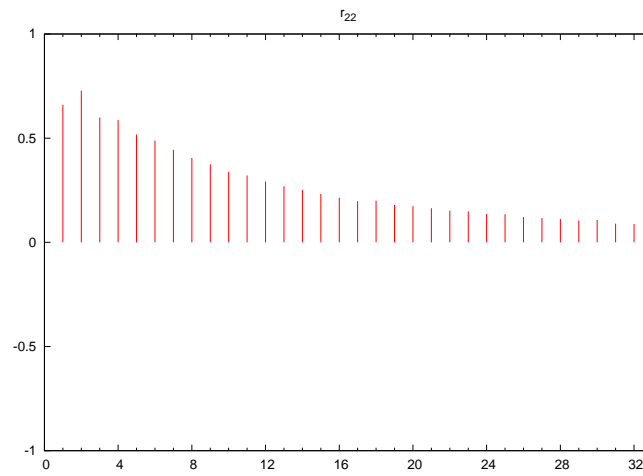
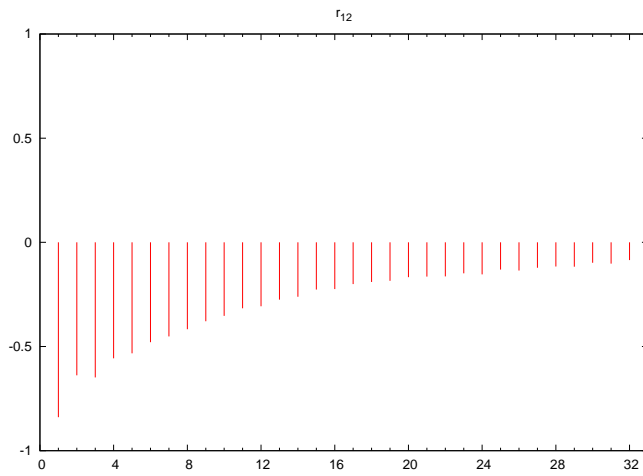
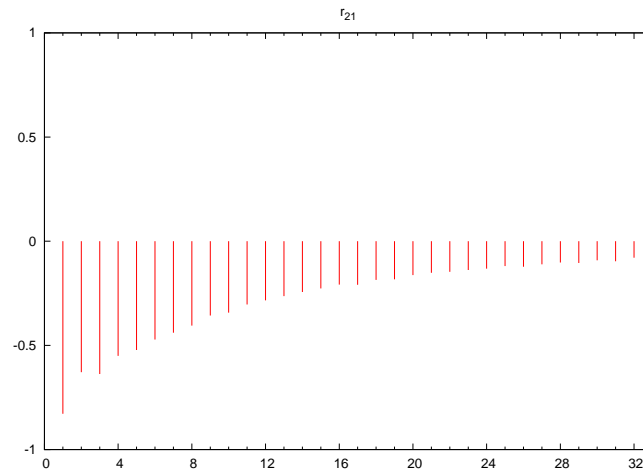
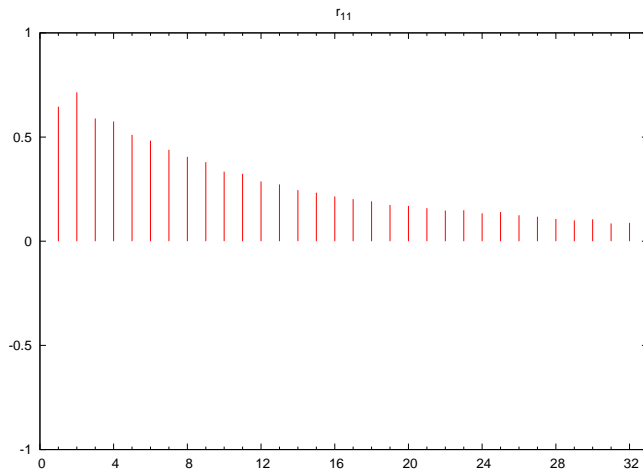




## Example 6 — non-symmetric matrix, negative cross-correlations

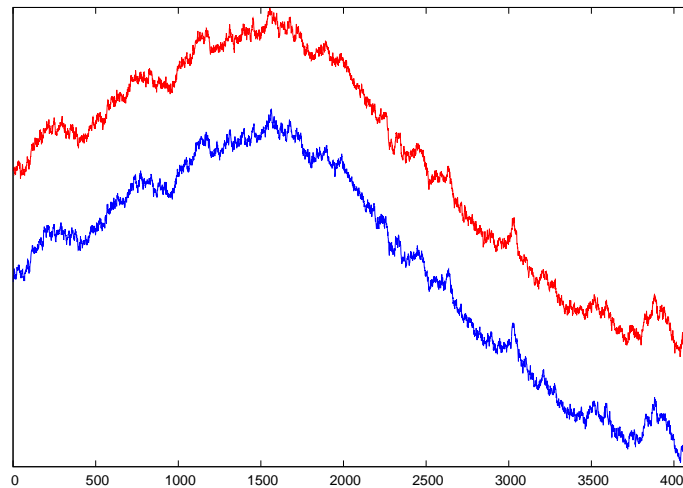
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ -\frac{3}{4} & \frac{1}{5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (26)$$



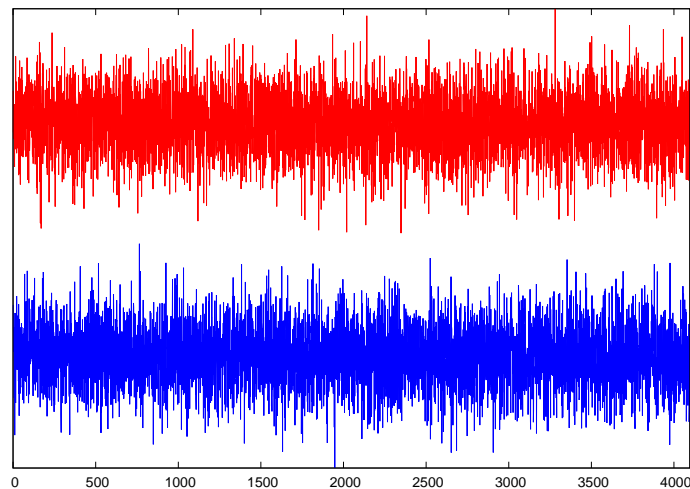


## Example 7 — a linear trend

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{3}{4} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (27)$$



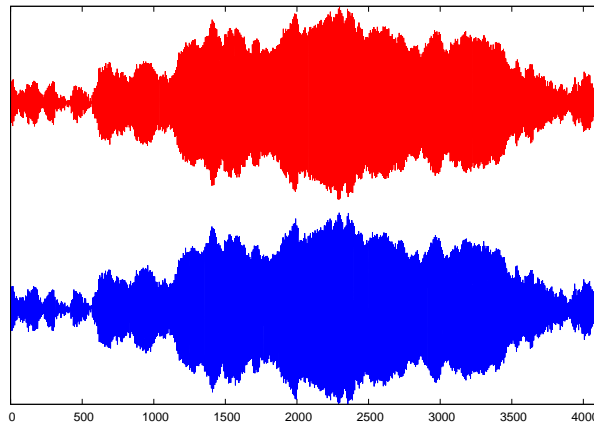
The matrix in (27) has eigenvalues  $1, \frac{1}{2}$ . The unit eigenvalue causes a linear trend. The series of first differences,  $x_{n+1}^1 - x_n^1, x_{n+1}^2 - x_n^2$  are stationary.



## Example 8 — another kind of nonstationarity

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1}^1 \\ x_{n-1}^2 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_n^1 \\ \eta_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (28)$$

This matrix has eigenvalues  $\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1 \pm i)$ ,  $|\lambda_{1,2}| = 1$ .



## Noise induced correlations

If the noises are correlated, components of a multivariate process can be correlated even though there is no *direct* interactions between them — see note below Eq. (20). Consider process (3) but with a *diagonal*  $\mathbf{A} = \text{diag}\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m\}$  and a *not diagonal*  $\Sigma$ . In Eqns. (18),(18)  $\mathbf{A}^l$  are diagonal, but as  $\Sigma\Sigma^T$  is not diagonal,  $\Gamma(l)$  has off-diagonal terms corresponding to cross-correlations.

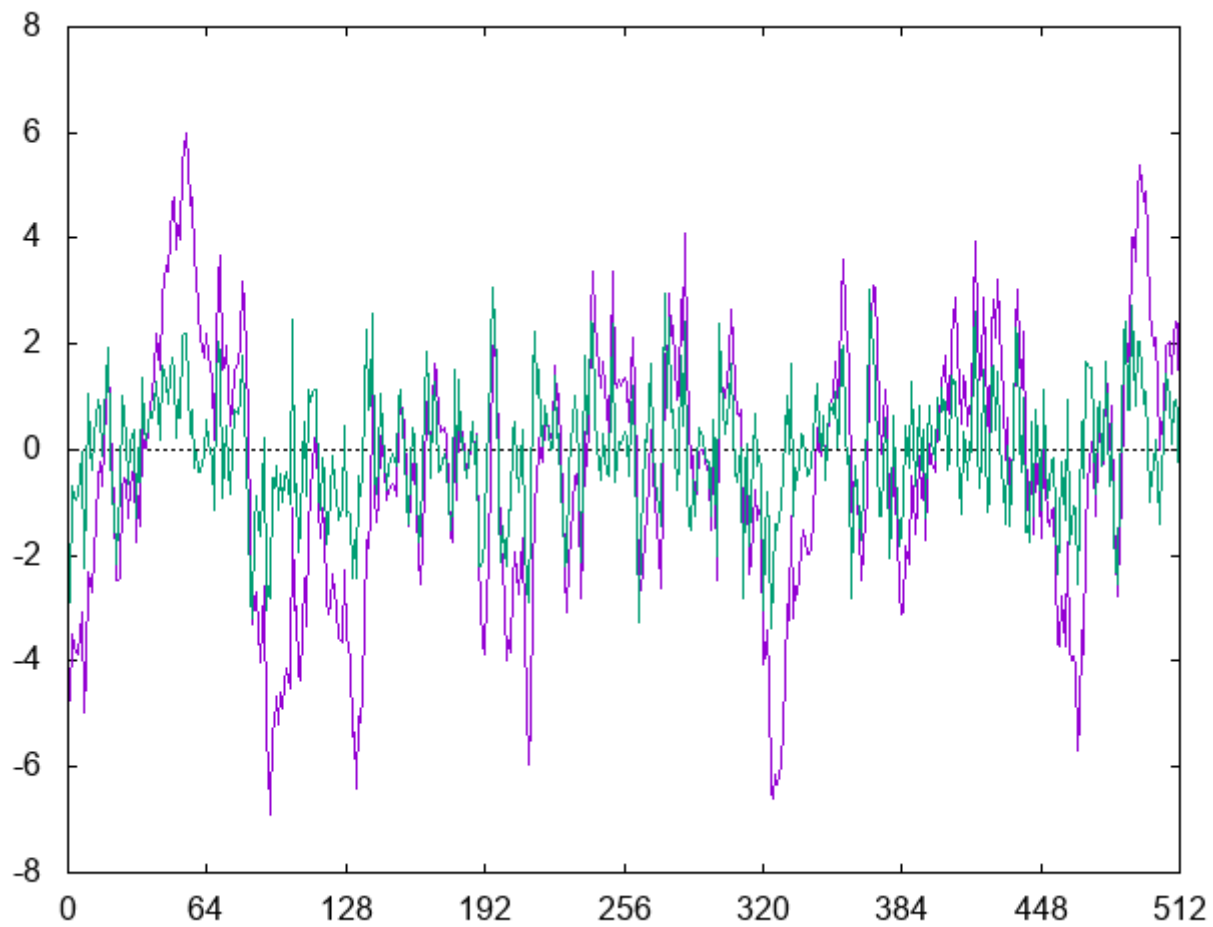
## Example 9

The simplest case of noise-induced correlations occurs when the noises acting on all components of a multivariate process are identical. Consider

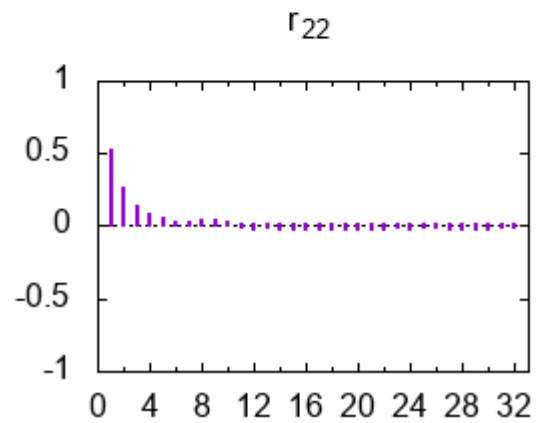
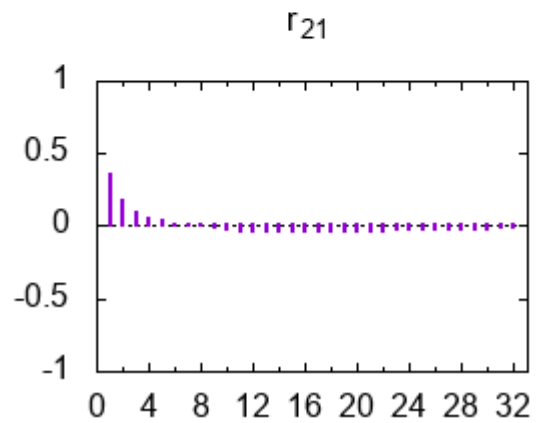
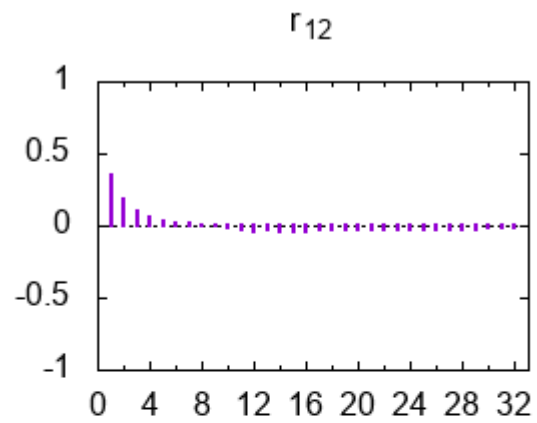
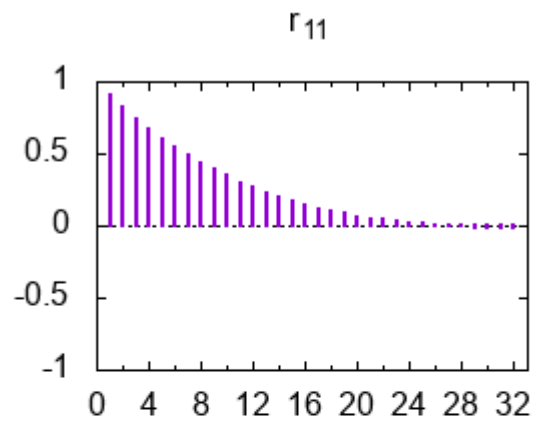
$$x_n^1 = \alpha_1 x_{n-1}^1 + \sigma \eta_n \quad (29a)$$

$$x_n^2 = \alpha_2 x_{n-1}^2 + \sigma \eta_n \quad (29b)$$

with  $\alpha_1 = 0.9$ ,  $\alpha_2 = 0.5$ ,  $\sigma = 1$ .





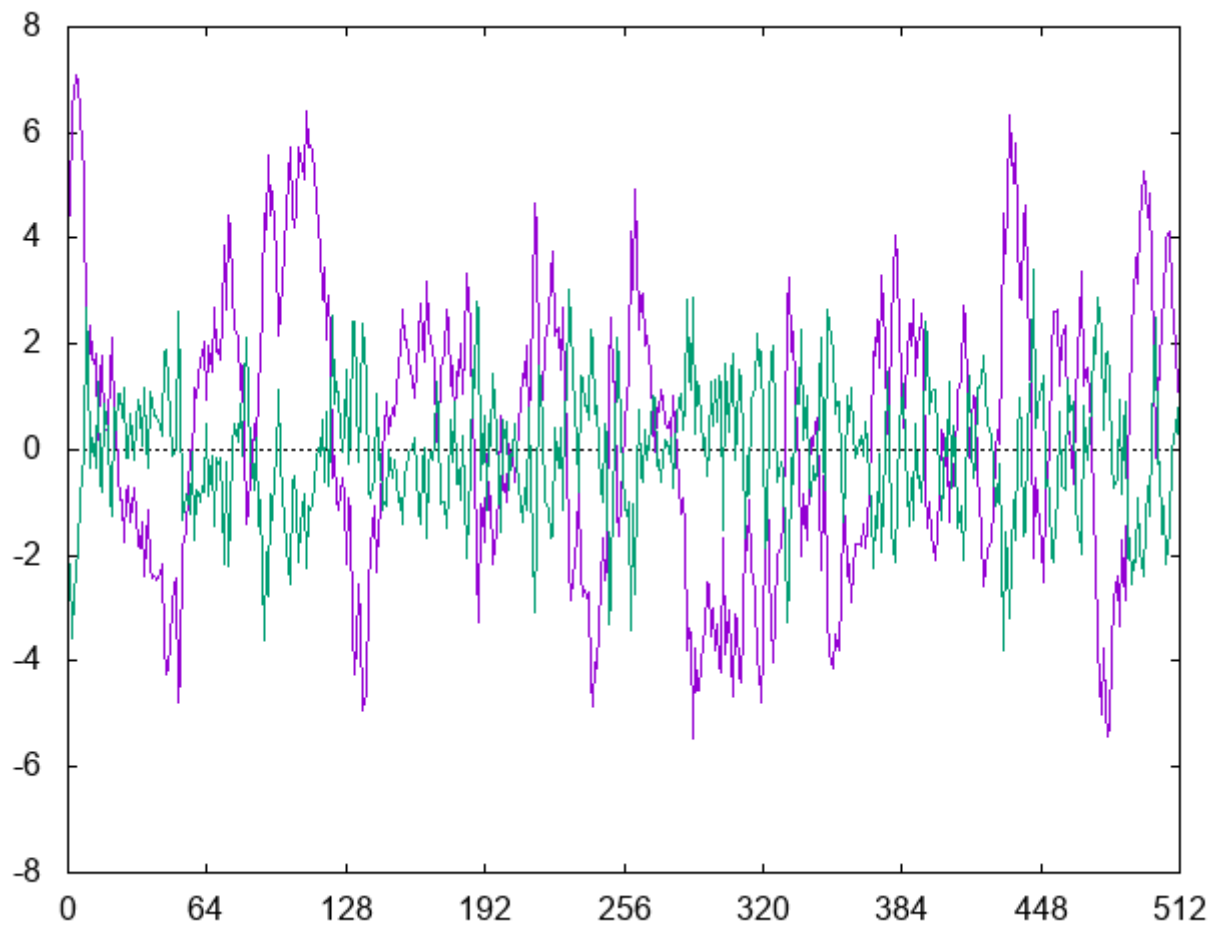


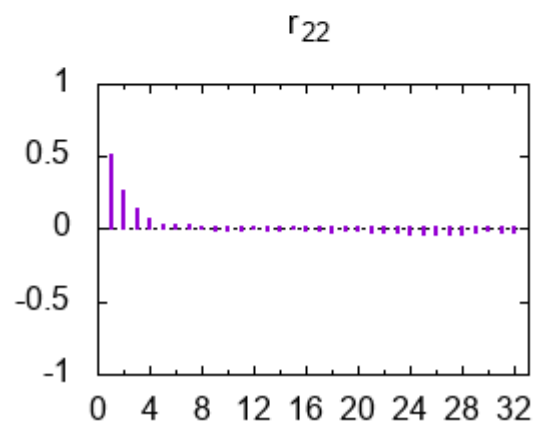
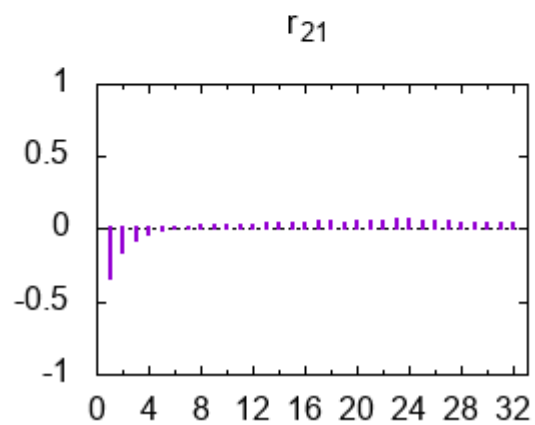
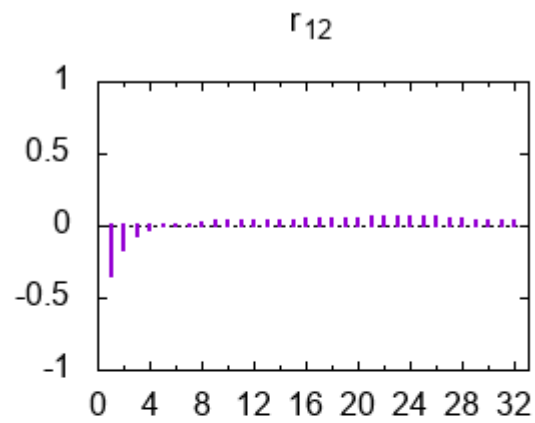
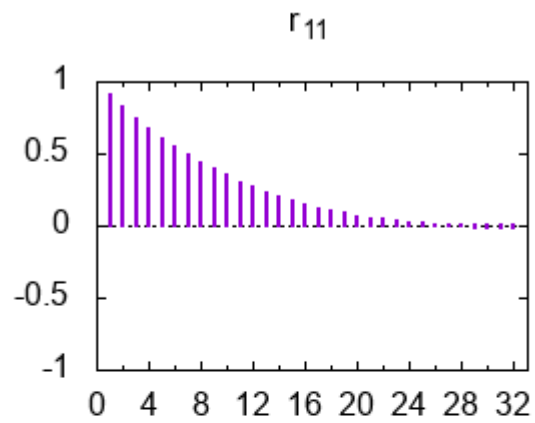
## Example 10

$$x_n^1 = \alpha_1 x_{n-1}^1 + \sigma \eta_n \quad (30a)$$

$$x_n^2 = \alpha_2 x_{n-1}^2 - \sigma \eta_n \quad (30b)$$

with  $\alpha_1 = 0.9$ ,  $\alpha_2 = 0.5$ ,  $\sigma = 1$ .





## Fitting parameters to a VAR(1) model

The following procedure works for stationary VAR(1) processes only. If components of a multivariate process display apparent nonstationarity, like trends or seasonalities, we should detrend them first by taking series of first differences, or of differences between terms offset by some  $k > 1$  in case of seasonalities, and fit parameters to the stationary series that results.

We replace exact values of  $\Gamma(l)$  by their “experimental” approximations, calculated from the multivariate series at hand. Then we use Eq. (15) to calculate elements of  $\mathbf{A}$ :

$$\Gamma(1) = \mathbf{A}\Gamma(0) \quad (31)$$

This is a set of linear equations for elements of  $\mathbf{A}$ . It is quite easy to solve, but the approximations obtained can possibly carry some error. Therefore, we sometimes extend our set of equations to

$$\Gamma(1) = \mathbf{A}\Gamma(0) \quad (32a)$$

$$\Gamma(2) = \mathbf{A}\Gamma(1) \quad (32b)$$

$$\Gamma(3) = \mathbf{A}\Gamma(2) \quad (32c)$$

...

$$\Gamma(p) = \mathbf{A}\Gamma(p-1) \quad (32d)$$

The set of linear equations (32) for elements of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is overdetermined and we cannot solve it exactly. We can, however, find its *best approximate* (in the sense of least squares) solution by using *SVD* or by a direct minimisation.

Finally, having calculated  $\mathbf{A}$ , we can use Eq. (14) to calculate elements of  $\Sigma\Sigma^T$ . One could think of using Eq. (12) to calculate elements of  $\Sigma$ . Unfortunately, we usually do not know the noise.