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Financial Time Series Analysis using R

Interactive Brokers Webinar Series

Presented by Majeed Simaan¹

¹Lally School of Management at RPI

June 15, 2017

Introduction		ARIMA Models	Forecasting	Summary
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About Me

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- Research Interests:
 - Banking and Risk Management
 - Financial Networks and Interconnectedness
 - Portfolio and Asset Pricing Theory
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Acknowledgment

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 - Cynthia Tomain
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 - Faculty advisor to the RPI James Student Managed Investment Fund
 - Click here for more info
- Finally, special thanks to the Lally School of Management and Technology for hosting this presentation

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- Intro to R and Financial Time Series
- Stationarity
- ARIMA Models
- Forecasting

Suggested Readings and Resources

• The classic textbook on time series analysis

- Hamilton, 1994
- Time series using R:
 - Econometrics in R, Farnsworth, 2008
 - 2 An introduction to analysis of financial data with R, Tsay, 2014
 - Manipulating time series in R, J. Ryan, 2017
- Advanced time series using R
 - Analysis of integrated and cointegrated time series with R, Pfaff, 2008
 - Ø Multivariate time series analysis, Tsay, 2013

Introduction

Introduction

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• R

- The R base system https://cran.r-project.org/
- RStudio https://www.rstudio.com/products/rstudio/
- Interactive Brokers https://www.interactivebrokers.com
 - Trader Workstation (TWS)
 - or IB Gateway



Time Series in R

• The xts package, (J. A. Ryan & Ulrich, 2014), provides efficient ways to manipulate time series¹

```
> library(xts)
> library(lubridate)
> n <- 100
> set.seed(13)
> x <- rnorm(n)
> names(x) <- as.character(date(today()) - 0:(n-1))
> x <- as.xts(x)
> x[today(),]
```

[,1] 2017-06-08 0.5543269

lubridate package, (Grolemund & Wickham, 2011), makes date format handling much easier 🕥 💷 🔗 ۹ 📀 8/39

May 22 Jun 06 2017 2017

Time Series in R

 The xts package, (J. A. Ryan & Ulrich, 2014), provides efficient ways to manipulate time series¹

```
> library(xts)
 > library(lubridate)
 > n < -100
 > set.seed(13)
 > x < - rnorm(n)
 > names(x) <- as.character(date(today()) - 0:(n-1))</pre>
 > x < -as.xts(x)
 > x[today(),]
                   [.1]
                                                     х
 2017-06-08 0.5543269
# it is easy to plot an xts object
> plot(x)
```

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Time Series in R II

• We can also look at x as a data frame instead

```
> x <- data.frame(Date = date(x), x = x[,1])
> rownames(x) <- NULL
> summary(x)
```

Da	te	x	
Min.	:2017-03-01	Min.	:-2.02704
1st Qu.	:2017-03-25	1st Qu.	:-0.75623
Median	:2017-04-19	Median	:-0.07927
Mean	:2017-04-19	Mean	:-0.06183
3rd Qu.	:2017-05-14	3rd Qu.	: 0.55737
Max.	:2017-06-08	Max.	: 1.83616

```
> # add year and month variables
> x$Y <- year(x$Date); x$M <- month(x$Date);</pre>
```

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Time Series in R II

• We can also look at x as a data frame instead

```
> x <- data.frame(Date = date(x), x = x[,1])
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> summary(x)
```

```
        Date
        x

        Min.
        :2017-03-01
        Min.
        :-2.02704

        1st Qu.:2017-03-25
        1st Qu.:-0.75623
        Median
        :-0.07927

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        Median
        :-0.06183
        3rd Qu.:2017-05-14
        3rd Qu.:
        0.55737

        Max.
        :2017-06-08
        Max.
        : 1.83616
        1.83616
```

```
> # add year and month variables
> x$Y <- year(x$Date); x$M <- month(x$Date);</pre>
```

• The package plyr, (Wickham, 2011), provides efficient data split summary

```
> library(plyr)
> max_month_x <- ddply(x,c("Y","M"),function(z) max(z[,"x"]))
> max_month_x # max value over month
```

Y M V1 1 2017 3 1.745427 2 2017 4 1.614479 3 2017 5 1.836163 4 2017 6 1.775163

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IB API			

- The IBrokers package, J. A. Ryan, 2014, provides access to IB Trader Workstation (TWS) API
- $\bullet\,$ The package also allows users to automate trades and receive real-time $data^2$

 $^{^2}$ See the recent Webinar presentation by Anil Yadav here.

- The IBrokers package, J. A. Ryan, 2014, provides access to IB Trader Workstation (TWS) API
- The package also allows users to automate trades and receive realtime data²

```
> library(IBrokers)
> tws <- twsConnect()
> isConnected(tws) # should be true
> ac <- reqAccountUpdates(tws) # requests account details
> security <- twsSTK("SPY") # choose security of interest
> is.twsContract(security) # make sure it is identified
> P <- reqHistoricalData(tws,security, barSize = '5 mins',duration = "1 Y")</pre>
```

TWS Message: 2 -1 2100 API client has been unsubscribed from account data. waiting for TWS reply on SPY \ldots done.

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```

TWS Message: 2 -1 2100 API client has been unsubscribed from account data. waiting for TWS reply on SPY \ldots done.

> P[c(1,nrow(P))] # look at first and last data points

	SPY.Open	SPY.High	SPY.Low	SPY.Close	SPY.Volume	SPY.WAP
2016-06-09 09:3	30:00 211.51	211.62	211.37	211.41	26766	211.501
2017-06-08 15:	55:00 243.77	243.86	243.68	243.76	30984	243.772
	SPY.hasG	aps SPY.Co	ount			
2016-06-09 09:3	30:00	0 8	3378			
2017-06-08 15:	55:00	0 8	3952			

²See the recent Webinar presentation by Anil Yadav here.

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Stationarity

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Let yt denote a time series observed over t = 1, ..., T periods
yt is called weakly stationary, if

$$\mathbb{E}[y_t] = \mu \text{ and } \mathbb{V}[y_t] = \sigma^2, \forall t$$
 (1)

i.e. expectation and variance of y are time invariant

³See for instance Tsay, 2005

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yt is called weakly stationary, if

$$\mathbb{E}[y_t] = \mu \text{ and } \mathbb{V}[y_t] = \sigma^2, \forall t$$
 (1)

i.e. expectation and variance of y are time invariant

• Also, yt is called strictly stationary, if

$$f(y_{t_1}, ..., y_{t_m}) = f(y_{t_1+j}, ..., y_{t_m+j})$$
(2)

where m, j, and $(t_1, ..., t_m)$ are arbitrary positive integers³

³See for instance Tsay, 2005

Introduction	Stationarity	ARIMA Models	Forecasting	Summary
Linearity				

- In this presentation, we focus on linear time series
- Let us consider an AR(1) process in the form of

$$y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t, \tag{3}$$

where $\epsilon_t \sim D(0, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2)$ is iid

• Intuitively, ϕ denotes the serial correlation of y_t

$$\phi = cor(y_t, y_{t-1}) \tag{4}$$

 \bullet The larger the magnitude of $\mid \phi \mid \rightarrow$ 1, the more persistent the process is

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Unit Root				

• Weak stationarity holds true if $\mathbb{E}[y_t] = \mu < \infty$ for all t, such that

$$\mu = c + \phi \mu \Rightarrow \mu = \frac{c}{1 - \phi}$$
(5)

• The same applies to $\mathbb{V}[y_t] = \sigma^2 < \infty, \forall t$:

$$\sigma^2 = \phi^2 \sigma^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2 \Rightarrow \sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2}{1 - \phi^2} \tag{6}$$

• A necessary condition for weak stationarity implies $\mid \phi \mid < 1$

Unit Root

If $\phi = 1$, the process y_t is a unit root

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Problems with Non-Stationarity

- Non-stationary data cannot be modeled or forecasted
- Results based on non-stationarity can be spurious
 - e.g. false serial correlation in stock prices

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Problems with Non-Stationarity

- Non-stationary data cannot be modeled or forecasted
- Results based on non-stationarity can be spurious
 - e.g. false serial correlation in stock prices
- If y_t has a unit root (non-stationary), i.e. $\phi = 1$, with c = 0, then

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \tag{7}$$

$$y_{t-1} = y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}$$
 (8)

$$\Rightarrow y_t = \sum_{s=0}^t \epsilon_s \tag{9}$$

where $y_0 = \epsilon_0$

- The process in (7) is unstable in nature,

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Transformation and Integrated Process

 In linear time series, transformation takes the form of a first difference

$$\Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1} \tag{10}$$

• Taking the first difference of (7), we have

$$\Delta y_t = \epsilon_t \tag{11}$$

• The process in (11) is stationary and does not depend on previous shocks

Transformation and Integrated Process

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• Taking the first difference of (7), we have

$$\Delta y_t = \epsilon_t \tag{11}$$

• The process in (11) is stationary and does not depend on previous shocks

Integrated Process

If y_t has a unit root (non-stationary), while $\Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$ is stationary, then y_t is called integrated of first order, I(1).

Example I: SPY ETF Stationarity









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• Let P_t denote the price of the SPY ETF at time t and

$$p_t = \log(P_t) \tag{12}$$

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• If p_t is I(1), then Δp_t should be stationary, where

$$\Delta p_t = p_t - p_{t-1} = \log\left(\frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}\right) \approx r_t \tag{13}$$

denotes the return on the asset between t-1 and t

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Figure: SPY ETF Returns - Weak Stationarity







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- Let's take a look at the serial correlation of the prices
- We will focus on the closing price

```
> find.close <- grep("Close",names(P))
> P_daily <- apply.daily(P[,find.close],function(x) x[nrow(x),])
> dim(P_daily)
```

[1] 252 1

```
> cor(P_daily[-1],lag(P_daily)[-1])
```

SPY.Close 0.99238

- Let's take a look at the serial correlation of the prices
- We will focus on the closing price

```
> find.close <- grep("Close",names(P))
> P_daily <- apply.daily(P[,find.close],function(x) x[nrow(x),])
> dim(P_daily)
```

[1] 252 1

```
> cor(P_daily[-1],lag(P_daily)[-1])
```

SPY.Close 0.99238

• On the other hand, the corresponding statistic for returns is

```
> R_daily <- P_daily[-1]/lag(P_daily)[-1] - 1
> cor(R_daily[-1],lag(R_daily)[-1])
```

SPY.Close SPY.Close -0.06828564

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Test for L	Init Root			

- It is important to plot the time series before running any tests of unit root
- It is recommended to use reasoning where the non-stationarity might come from
 - In the case of stock prices, time is one major factor
- Assuming that a time series has a unit root when it does not can bias inference

- It is important to plot the time series before running any tests of unit root
 - It is recommended to use reasoning where the non-stationarity might come from
 - In the case of stock prices, time is one major factor
 - Assuming that a time series has a unit root when it does not can bias inference

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

- A common test for unit root is the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test
- It tests the null hypothesis whether a unit root is present in the time series
 - The more negative the statistic is the more likely to reject the null

- To test for unit root, we can use the adf.test function from the 'tseries' package, (Trapletti & Hornik, 2017)
- We look again at the daily prices and returns from Example I

```
> library(tseries)
> adf.test(P_daily);adf.test(R_daily)
```

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

```
data: P_daily
Dickey-Fuller = -2.3667, Lag order = 6, p-value = 0.4214
alternative hypothesis: stationary
```

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

```
data: R_daily
Dickey-Fuller = -6.3752, Lag order = 6, p-value = 0.01
alternative hypothesis: stationary
```

ARIMA Models

(Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average)

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- Let y_t follow an ARIMA(p, d, q) model, where
 - p is the order of autoregressive (AR) model
 - 2 d is the order of differencing to yield a I(0) process
 - **(3)** q is the order of the moving average (MA) model

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- Let y_t follow an ARIMA(p, d, q) model, where
 - p is the order of autoregressive (AR) model
 - 2 d is the order of differencing to yield a I(0) process
 - **(3)** q is the order of the moving average (MA) model
- For instance,

$$AR(p) = ARIMA(p, 0, 0)$$
(14)
$$MA(q) = ARIMA(0, 0, q)$$
(15)

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For instance,

$$AR(p) = ARIMA(p, 0, 0)$$
(14)
$$MA(q) = ARIMA(0, 0, q)$$
(15)

Special Case

- If y_t has a unit root, i.e. I(1), then first difference, Δy_t , yields a stationary process
- Also, if Δy_t follows an AR(1) process, then we conclude that y_t has an ARIMA(1,1,0) process

ARIMA Identification

- Identification of ARIMA can be facilitated as follows
 - **(**) Find the order of integration I(d) of the time series
 - e.g. most stock prices are integrated of order 1, d = 1
 - ${\textcircled{0}}$ Look at indicators in the data for AR and MA orders
 - A common approach is to refer to the **PACF** and **ACF**, respectively⁴
 - Consider an information criteria, e.g. AIC (Sakamoto, Ishiguro, & Kitagawa, 1986)
 - Finally, test whether the residuals of the identified model follow a white noise process

⁴See this **discussion** for further reading.

ARIMA Identification

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 - **(**) Find the order of integration I(d) of the time series
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 - Finally, test whether the residuals of the identified model follow a white noise process

Ljung-Box Statistic

- This statistic is useful to test whether residuals are serially correlated
- A value around zero (large p.value) implies a good fit

Example II: Identifying ARIMA Models

- We consider a simulated time series from a given ARIMA model
- Specifically, we consider an ARIMA(3,1,2) process

```
> N <- 10^3
> set.seed(13)
> y <- arima.sim(N,model = list(order = c(3,1,2), ar = c(0.8, -0.5,0.4),
+ ma = c(0.5,-0.3))) + 200
# Note that y is a ts object rather than xts</pre>
```

Step 1: Plot and Test for Unit Root

```
> plot(y);
> ADF <- adf.test(y); ADF$p.value
[1] 0.4148301
# lag on ts object should be assigned as -1
> delta_y <- na.omit(y - lag(y,-1) )
> plot(delta_y);
> ADF2 <- adf.test(delta_y); ADF2$p.value
[1] 0.01
```

- Step 1 tells us that d = 1, i.e. y_t follows an ARIMA(p, 1, q)
- We need to identify p and q

Step 2: Identify p and q using the AIC information criterion

> p.seq <- 0:4 > q.seq <- 0:4 > pq.seq <- 0:4 > http://www.example.com/ > AIC.list <- lapply(1:nrow(pq.seq),function(i) + AIC(arima(y,c(pq.seq[i,1],1,pq.seq[i,2])))) > AIC.matrix <- matrix(unlist(AIC.list),length(p.seq)) > rownames(AIC.matrix) <- p.seq > colnames(AIC.matrix) <- q.seq</pre>

AIC.matrix							
$p \setminus q$	0	1	2	3	4		
0 1 2 3 4	3973.32 3542.07 3407.54 3053.10 2987.36	3075.67 2983.22 2949.70 2851.96 2845.46	2923.06 2916.50 2912.02 2844.42 2846.41	2914.88 2916.88 2907.37 2846.41 2847.81	2916.86 2883.02 2866.26 2848.31 2850.41		

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- It follows from Step 2 that the optimal combination is (p = 3, q = 2)
- Alternatively, we can use the auto.arima function

```
> identify.arima <- auto.arima(y)</pre>
> identify.arima
Series: v
ARIMA(3, 1, 2)
Coefficients:
         ar1
                  ar2
                           ar3
                                   ma1
                                             ma2
      0.7758 - 0.4821 0.3875 0.5376
                                         -0.2752
     0.0785 0.0448
                       0.0315 0.0836
                                          0.0796
s.e.
sigma<sup>2</sup> estimated as 0.9965: log likelihood=-1416.21
ATC=2844.42
              ATCc=2844.5
                           BTC=2873.87
```

• In either case, we get consistent results indicating that the model is ARIMA(3,1,2)

• Finally, we look at the residuals of the fitted model

```
Step 3: check residuals
```

```
> Box.test(residuals(identify.arima),type = "Ljung-Box")
```

```
Box-Ljung test
```

```
data: residuals(identify.arima)
X-squared = 0.00087004, df = 1, p-value = 0.9765
```

```
> library(forecast)
```

```
> Acf(residuals(identify.arima),main = "")
```



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Summary

Forecasting



- So far, we learned how to identify a time series model
- For application, we are interested in forecasting future values of the time series
- Such decision will be based on a history of T periods
 - *T* periods to fit the model
 - and a number of lags to serve as forecast inputs
- Hence, our decision will be based on the quality of
 - 💶 the data
 - 2 the fitted model

- We will use a rolling window approach to perform and evaluate forecasts
- Set t = 150 and perform the following steps

 - 3 Use T = 150 historic days of data (including day t) to fit an ARIMA model
 - **③** Make a forecast for next period, i.e. t+1
 - Set $t \to t+1$ and go back to Step 1
- The above steps are repeated until *t* + 1 becomes the last observation in the time series

Example III: Forecast the SPY ETF

- In total we have 252 days of closing prices for the SPY ETF
- To avoid price non-stationary, we focus on returns alone
- This leaves us with 101 days to test our forecasts⁵
- We consider three models for forecast
 - Dynamically fitted ARIMA(p,0,q) model
 - Oynamically fitted AR(1) model
 - Plain moving average (momentum)

```
> library(forecast)
> T. <- 150
> arma.list <- numeric()
> ar1.list <- numeric()
> ma.list <- numeric()
> for(i in T.:(length(R_daily)-1) ) {
+ arma.list[i] <- list(auto.arima(R_daily[(i-T.+1):i])) # ARIMA(p,0,q)
+ ar1.list[i] <- list(arima(R_daily[(i-T.+1):i],c(1,0,0))) # AR(1)
+ ma.list[i] <- list(mean(R_daily[(i-T.+1):i])) # momentum
+ }
```

⁵The experiment relies on the forecast package, Hyndman, 2017^(D) (\square) ((

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	> y_hat <- sa	apply(arma.list	t[T.:length(arma.list)]		
	+	function	(x) forecast(x,1)[[4]])	
	> y_hat2 <- s	sapply(ar1.list	t[T.:length(ar1.list)],		
	+	function	n(x) forecast(x,1)[[4]])	
	> y_hat3 <- s	sign(unlist(ma.	.list))		

- > forecast_accuracy <- cbind(mean(sign(y_hat) == sign(y)),</pre>
- + mean(sign(y_hat2) == sign(y)),

```
+ mean(sign(y_hat3) == sign(y)))
```

• Finally, summarize the forecast accuracy in a table

	ARIMA	AR(1)	Momentum
Accuracy	55.45%	53.47%	52.48%

- Among the three, ARIMA performs the best
 - Could be attributed to more flexibility in fitting the model over time

- While AR(1) is a constrained ARIMA model, note that the autoregressive coefficient still changes dramatically over time
 - Red line denotes the SPY ETF daily return
 - Black line denotes the estimated AR(1) coefficient over time, i.e. ϕ



Summary

- Importance of stationarity
- Non-stationary models could imply spurious results
- Plots are always insightful
- Use tests carefully
- Consider multiple time series to form forecasts
 - Hence the idea of multivariate time series analysis

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Good Luck!

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