

LECTURE 4 : ARMA PROCESSES

Moving-Average Processes

The MA(q) process, is defined by

$$(5.3) \quad \begin{aligned} y(t) &= \mu_0\varepsilon(t) + \mu_1\varepsilon(t-1) + \cdots + \mu_q\varepsilon(t-q) \\ &= \mu(L)\varepsilon(t), \end{aligned}$$

where $\mu(L) = \mu_0 + \mu_1L + \cdots + \mu_qL^q$ and where $\varepsilon(t)$ is white noise.

An MA model should be invertible such that $\mu^{-1}(L)y(t) = \varepsilon(t)$. This AR(∞) representation is available if and only if all the roots of $\mu(z) = 0$ lie outside the unit circle.

Example. Consider the MA(1) process

$$(5.4) \quad y(t) = \varepsilon(t) - \theta\varepsilon(t-1) = (1 - \theta L)\varepsilon(t).$$

Provided that $|\theta| < 1$, this can be written in autoregressive form as

$$(5.5) \quad \begin{aligned} \varepsilon(t) &= (1 - \theta L)^{-1}y(t) \\ &= \{y(t) + \theta y(t-1) + \theta^2 y(t-2) + \cdots\}. \end{aligned}$$

Imagine that $|\theta| > 1$ instead. Then we have to write

$$(5.6) \quad \begin{aligned} y(t+1) &= \varepsilon(t+1) - \theta\varepsilon(t) \\ &= -\theta(1 - L^{-1}/\theta)\varepsilon(t), \end{aligned}$$

where $L^{-1}\varepsilon(t) = \varepsilon(t+1)$. This gives

$$(5.7) \quad \begin{aligned} \varepsilon(t) &= -\theta^{-1}(1 - L^{-1}/\theta)^{-1}y(t+1) \\ &= -\theta^{-1}\{y(t+1)/\theta + y(t+2)/\theta^2 + y(t+3)/\theta^3 + \cdots\}. \end{aligned}$$

Normally, an expression such as this, which embodies future values of $y(t)$, would have no reasonable meaning.

The Autocovariances of an MA Process

Consider

$$\begin{aligned}
 \gamma_\tau &= E(y_t y_{t-\tau}) \\
 &= E\left\{ \sum_i \mu_i \varepsilon_{t-i} \sum_j \mu_j \varepsilon_{t-\tau-j} \right\} \\
 &= \sum_i \sum_j \mu_i \mu_j E(\varepsilon_{t-i} \varepsilon_{t-\tau-j}).
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{5.8}$$

Since $\varepsilon(t)$ is white noise, it follows that

$$E(\varepsilon_{t-i} \varepsilon_{t-\tau-j}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } i \neq \tau + j; \\ \sigma_\varepsilon^2, & \text{if } i = \tau + j. \end{cases}
 \tag{5.9}$$

Therefore

$$\gamma_\tau = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \sum_j \mu_j \mu_{j+\tau}.
 \tag{5.10}$$

Now let $\tau = 0, 1, \dots, q$. This gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 \gamma_0 &= \sigma_\varepsilon^2 (\mu_0^2 + \mu_1^2 + \dots + \mu_q^2), \\
 \gamma_1 &= \sigma_\varepsilon^2 (\mu_0 \mu_1 + \mu_1 \mu_2 + \dots + \mu_{q-1} \mu_q), \\
 &\vdots \\
 \gamma_q &= \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \mu_0 \mu_q.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{5.11}$$

Also, $\gamma_\tau = 0$ for all $\tau > q$.

Example. The MA(1) process $y(t) = \varepsilon(t) - \theta \varepsilon(t-1)$ has

$$\begin{aligned}
 \gamma_0 &= \sigma_\varepsilon^2 (1 + \theta^2), \\
 \gamma_1 &= -\sigma_\varepsilon^2 \theta, \\
 \gamma_\tau &= 0 \quad \text{if } \tau > 1.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{5.12}$$

Thus the dispersion matrix of $y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T]'$ is

$$D(y) = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \theta^2 & -\theta & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -\theta & 1 + \theta^2 & -\theta & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -\theta & 1 + \theta^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 + \theta^2 \end{bmatrix}.
 \tag{5.13}$$

LECTURE 4 : ARMA PROCESSES

Autocovariance Generating Function

This is denoted by

$$(5.14) \quad \gamma(z) = \sum_{\tau} \gamma_{\tau} z^{\tau}; \quad \text{with } \tau = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_{\tau} = \gamma_{-\tau}.$$

To find the autocovariance generating function of the MA(q) process, consider

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(z)\mu(z^{-1}) &= \sum_i \mu_i z^i \sum_j \mu_j z^{-j} \\ (5.15) \quad &= \sum_i \sum_j \mu_i \mu_j z^{i-j} \\ &= \sum_{\tau} \left(\sum_j \mu_i \mu_{j+\tau} \right) z^{\tau}, \quad \tau = i - j. \end{aligned}$$

From (10) it follows that

$$(5.16) \quad \gamma(z) = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 \mu(z) \mu(z^{-1}).$$

Autoregressive Processes

The AR(p) process, is defined by

$$(5.17) \quad \alpha_0 y(t) + \alpha_1 y(t-1) + \cdots + \alpha_p y(t-p) = \varepsilon(t).$$

This can be written as $\alpha(L)y(t) = \varepsilon(t)$, where $\alpha(L) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 L + \cdots + \alpha_p L^p$. For the process to be stationary, the roots of $\alpha(z) = 0$ must lie outside the unit circle. In that case the AR process can be written as an MA(∞) process: $y(t) = \alpha^{-1}(L)\varepsilon(t)$.

The autocovariance generating function for the AR(p) process is

$$(5.23) \quad \gamma(z) = \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\alpha(z)\alpha(z^{-1})}.$$

Example. Consider the AR(1) process defined by

$$(5.18) \quad \begin{aligned} \varepsilon(t) &= y(t) - \phi y(t-1) \\ &= (1 - \phi L)y(t). \end{aligned}$$

Provided that $|\phi| < 1$, this can be represented in MA form as

$$(5.19) \quad \begin{aligned} y(t) &= (1 - \phi L)^{-1} \varepsilon(t) \\ &= \{\varepsilon(t) + \phi \varepsilon(t-1) + \phi^2 \varepsilon(t-2) + \cdots\}. \end{aligned}$$

The autocovariances of the AR(1) process can be obtained via the formula (10) for the autocovariances of an MA process. Thus

$$(5.20) \quad \begin{aligned} \gamma_\tau &= E(y_t y_{t-\tau}) \\ &= E\left\{ \sum_i \phi^i \varepsilon_{t-i} \sum_j \phi^j \varepsilon_{t-\tau-j} \right\} \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j \phi^i \phi^j E(\varepsilon_{t-i} \varepsilon_{t-\tau-j}); \end{aligned}$$

and it follows from (9) that

$$(5.21) \quad \begin{aligned} \gamma_\tau &= \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \sum_j \phi^j \phi^{j+\tau} \\ &= \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2 \phi^\tau}{1 - \phi^2}. \end{aligned}$$

The dispersion matrix of $y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T]'$ is

$$(5.22) \quad D(y) = \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{1 - \phi^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \phi & \phi^2 & \cdots & \phi^{T-1} \\ \phi & 1 & \phi & \cdots & \phi^{T-2} \\ \phi^2 & \phi & 1 & \cdots & \phi^{T-3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi^{T-1} & \phi^{T-2} & \phi^{T-3} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

LECTURE 4 : ARMA PROCESSES

The Yule-Walker Equations

For an alternative way of finding the AR autocovariances, consider multiplying $\sum_i \alpha_i y_{t-i} = \varepsilon_t$ by $y_{t-\tau}$ and taking expectations to give

$$(5.24) \quad \sum_i \alpha_i E(y_{t-i} y_{t-\tau}) = E(\varepsilon_t y_{t-\tau}).$$

Given that $\alpha_0 = 1$, it follows that

$$(5.25) \quad E(\varepsilon_t y_{t-\tau}) = \begin{cases} \sigma_\varepsilon^2, & \text{if } \tau = 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } \tau > 0. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, on setting $E(y_{t-i} y_{t-\tau}) = \gamma_{\tau-i}$, equation (24) gives

$$(5.26) \quad \sum_i \alpha_i \gamma_{\tau-i} = \begin{cases} \sigma_\varepsilon^2, & \text{if } \tau = 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } \tau > 0. \end{cases}$$

The second of these is a homogeneous difference equation which enables us to generate the sequence $\{\gamma_p, \gamma_{p+1}, \dots\}$ once p starting values $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}$ are known. By letting $\tau = 0, 1, \dots, p$ in (26), we generate a set of $p + 1$ equations which can be arrayed in matrix form as follows:

$$(5.27) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 & \dots & \gamma_p \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \dots & \gamma_{p-1} \\ \gamma_2 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \dots & \gamma_{p-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma_p & \gamma_{p-1} & \gamma_{p-2} & \dots & \gamma_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_p \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

These are called the Yule-Walker equations, and they can be used either for generating the values $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_p$ from the values $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_p, \sigma_\varepsilon^2$ or vice versa.

Example. Consider the second-order autoregressive process. We have

$$(5.28) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_2 \\ \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_0 \\ \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 + \alpha_2 & 0 \\ \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 \\ \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Given $\alpha_0 = 1$ and the values for $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \gamma_2$, we can find σ_ε^2 and α_1, α_2 . Conversely, given $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2$ and σ_ε^2 , we can find $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \gamma_2$.

The Partial Autocorrelation Function

Let $\alpha_{r(r)}$ be the coefficient associated with $y(t-r)$ in an autoregressive process of order r whose parameters correspond to the autocovariances $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_r$. Then the sequence $\{\alpha_{r(r)}; r = 1, 2, \dots\}$ of such coefficients, whose index corresponds to models of increasing orders, constitutes the partial autocorrelation function. In effect, $\alpha_{r(r)}$ indicates the role in explaining the variance of $y(t)$ which is due to $y(t-r)$ when $y(t-1), \dots, y(t-r+1)$ are also taken into account.

The sequence of partial autocorrelations may be computed efficiently via the recursive Durbin–Levinson Algorithm which uses the coefficients of the AR model of order r as the basis for calculating the coefficients of the model of order $r+1$.

Imagine that we already have the values $\alpha_{0(r)} = 1, \alpha_{1(r)}, \dots, \alpha_{r(r)}$. Then, by extending the set of r th-order Yule–Walker equations to which these values correspond, we can derive the system

$$(5.29) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \dots & \gamma_r & \gamma_{r+1} \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \dots & \gamma_{r-1} & \gamma_r \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \gamma_r & \gamma_{r-1} & \dots & \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_{r+1} & \gamma_r & \dots & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha_{1(r)} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{r(r)} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{(r)}^2 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ g \end{bmatrix},$$

wherein

$$(5.30) \quad g = \sum_{j=0}^r \alpha_{j(r)} \gamma_{r+1-j} \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha_{0(r)} = 1.$$

The system can also be written as

$$(5.31) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \dots & \gamma_r & \gamma_{r+1} \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \dots & \gamma_{r-1} & \gamma_r \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \gamma_r & \gamma_{r-1} & \dots & \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_{r+1} & \gamma_r & \dots & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \alpha_{r(r)} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{1(r)} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \sigma_{(r)}^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The two systems of equations (29) and (31) can be combined to give

$$(5.32) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \dots & \gamma_r & \gamma_{r+1} \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \dots & \gamma_{r-1} & \gamma_r \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \gamma_r & \gamma_{r-1} & \dots & \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_{r+1} & \gamma_r & \dots & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha_{1(r)} + c\alpha_{r(r)} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{r(r)} + c\alpha_{1(r)} \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{(r)}^2 + cg \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ g + c\sigma_{(r)}^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

LECTURE 4 : ARMA PROCESSES

If we take the coefficient of the combination to be

$$(5.33) \quad c = -\frac{g}{\sigma_{(r)}^2},$$

then the final element in the vector on the RHS becomes zero and the system becomes the set of Yule–Walker equations of order $r + 1$. The solution of the equations, from the last element $\alpha_{r+1(r+1)} = c$ through to the variance term $\sigma_{(r+1)}^2$ is given by

$$(5.34) \quad \alpha_{r+1(r+1)} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{(r)}^2} \left\{ \sum_{j=0}^r \alpha_{j(r)} \gamma_{r+1-j} \right\}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{1(r+1)} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{r(r+1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{1(r)} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{r(r)} \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_{r+1(r+1)} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{r(r)} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{1(r)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{(r+1)}^2 = \sigma_{(r)}^2 \{1 - (\alpha_{r+1(r+1)})^2\}.$$

Thus the solution of the Yule–Walker system of order $r + 1$ is easily derived from the solution of the system of order r , and there is scope for devising a recursive procedure. The starting values for the recursion are

$$(5.35) \quad \alpha_{1(1)} = -\gamma_1/\gamma_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_{(1)}^2 = \gamma_0 \{1 - (\alpha_{1(1)})^2\}.$$

Autoregressive Moving Average Processes

The ARMA(p, q) process, is defined by

$$(5.36) \quad \begin{aligned} & \alpha_0 y(t) + \alpha_1 y(t-1) + \cdots + \alpha_p y(t-p) \\ & = \mu_0 \varepsilon(t) + \mu_1 \varepsilon(t-1) + \cdots + \mu_q \varepsilon(t-q). \end{aligned}$$

This can also be written as $\alpha(L)y(t) = \mu(L)\varepsilon(t)$. If the roots of $\alpha(z) = 0$ lie outside the unit circle, then the process has an MA(∞) form: $y(t) = \alpha^{-1}(L)\mu(L)\varepsilon(t)$. If the roots of $\mu(z) = 0$ lie outside the unit circle, then it has an AR(∞) form: $\mu^{-1}(L)\alpha(L)y(t) = \varepsilon(t)$.

The autocovariance generating function for the ARMA process is

$$(5.37) \quad \gamma(z) = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \frac{\mu(z)\mu(z^{-1})}{\alpha(z)\alpha(z^{-1})}.$$

To find the autocovariances in practice, consider multiplying the equation $\sum_i \alpha_i y_{t-i} = \sum_i \mu_i \varepsilon_{t-i}$ by $y_{t-\tau}$ and taking expectations. This gives

$$(5.38) \quad \sum_i \alpha_i \gamma_{\tau-i} = \sum_i \mu_i \delta_{i-\tau},$$

where $\gamma_{\tau-i} = E(y_{t-\tau} y_{t-i})$ and $\delta_{i-\tau} = E(y_{t-\tau} \varepsilon_{t-i})$. Since ε_{t-i} is uncorrelated with $y_{t-\tau}$ whenever it is subsequent to the latter, it follows that $\delta_{i-\tau} = 0$ if $\tau > i$. Since the index i in the RHS of the equation (38) runs from 0 to q , it follows that

$$(5.39) \quad \sum_i \alpha_i \gamma_{i-\tau} = 0 \quad \text{if } \tau > q.$$

Given the $q+1$ nonzero values $\delta_0, \delta_1, \dots, \delta_q$, and p initial values $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{p-1}$, the equations can be solved recursively for $\{\gamma_p, \gamma_{p+1}, \dots\}$.

To find the requisite values $\delta_0, \delta_1, \dots, \delta_q$, consider multiplying the equation $\sum_i \alpha_i y_{t-i} = \sum_i \mu_i \varepsilon_{t-i}$ by $\varepsilon_{t-\tau}$ and taking expectations. This gives

$$(5.40) \quad \sum_i \alpha_i \delta_{\tau-i} = \mu_\tau \sigma_\varepsilon^2,$$

where $\delta_{\tau-i} = E(y_{t-i} \varepsilon_{t-\tau})$. The equation may be rewritten as

$$(5.41) \quad \delta_\tau = \frac{1}{\alpha_0} \left(\mu_\tau \sigma_\varepsilon^2 - \sum_{i=1} \delta_{\tau-i} \right),$$

and, by setting $\tau = 0, 1, \dots, q$, we can generate recursively the required values $\delta_0, \delta_1, \dots, \delta_q$.

LECTURE 4 : ARMA PROCESSES

Example. Consider the ARMA(2, 2) model which gives the equation

$$(5.42) \quad \alpha_0 y_t + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \alpha_2 y_{t-2} = \mu_0 \varepsilon_t + \mu_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \mu_2 \varepsilon_{t-2}.$$

Multiplying by y_t , y_{t-1} and y_{t-2} and taking expectations gives

$$(5.43) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 & \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_0 & \delta_1 & \delta_2 \\ 0 & \delta_0 & \delta_1 \\ 0 & 0 & \delta_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu_0 \\ \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Multiplying by ε_t , ε_{t-1} and ε_{t-2} and taking expectations gives

$$(5.44) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \delta_0 & 0 & 0 \\ \delta_1 & \delta_0 & 0 \\ \delta_2 & \delta_1 & \delta_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\varepsilon^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_\varepsilon^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu_0 \\ \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

When the latter equations are written as

$$(5.45) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 & 0 \\ \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_0 \\ \delta_1 \\ \delta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \begin{bmatrix} \mu_0 \\ \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

they can be solved recursively for δ_0 , δ_1 and δ_2 on the assumption that the values of α_0 , α_1 , α_2 and σ_ε^2 are known. Notice that, when we adopt the normalisation $\alpha_0 = \mu_0 = 1$, we get $\delta_0 = \sigma_\varepsilon^2$. When the equations (43) are rewritten as

$$(5.46) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 + \alpha_2 & 0 \\ \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0 \\ \gamma_1 \\ \gamma_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_0 & \mu_1 & \mu_2 \\ \mu_1 & \mu_2 & 0 \\ \mu_2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_0 \\ \delta_1 \\ \delta_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

they can be solved for γ_0 , γ_1 and γ_2 . Thus the starting values are obtained which enable the equation

$$(5.47) \quad \alpha_0 \gamma_\tau + \alpha_1 \gamma_{\tau-1} + \alpha_2 \gamma_{\tau-2} = 0; \quad \tau > 2$$

to be solved recursively to generate the succeeding values $\{\gamma_3, \gamma_4, \dots\}$ of the autocovariances.