MULTI-STEP PREDICTION FOR NONLINEAR AUTOREGRESSIVE MODELS BASED ON EMPIRICAL DISTRIBUTIONS

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Abstract: A multi-step prediction procedure for nonlinear autoregressive (NLAR) models based on empirical distributions is proposed. Calculations involved in this prediction scheme are rather simple. It is shown that the proposed predictors are asymptotically equivalent to the exact least squares multi-step predictors, which are computable only when the innovation distribution has a simple known form. Simulation studies are conducted for two- and three-step predictors of two NLAR models.

Key words and phrases: Empirical distribution, multi-step prediction, nonlinear autoregressive model.

1. Introduction

The nonlinear autoregressive (NLAR) model is a natural extension of the linear autoregressive (LAR) model and has attracted considerable interest in recent years. Important results on this model can be found in the literature; for example, Tong (1990), Tjøstheim (1990) and Tiao and Tsay (1994). Most of the important results for the LAR model have been extended to the NLAR model, except for the multi-step prediction which is one of the most important topics in time series analysis. This lack might be due to the difficulty or even impossibility of calculating the exact least squared multi-step predictors for NLAR models.

For linear models with martingale difference innovations, the least squares (linear) multi-step predictors depend on the parameters of the models and the historical observations, but not on the innovation distributions (see Box and Jenkins (1976)). Therefore, when the parameters of the LAR models are known, or good estimates are available, the multi-step predictors can be computed directly from explicit expressions and their limiting properties can be derived from those formulae. However, such is not the case for NLAR models. It will be shown that, under the assumption of i.i.d. innovations, the LAR model is the only time series model whose multi-step prediction is independent of the innovation distribution. Therefore, when the innovation distribution is unknown, one cannot calculate the exact least squares multi-step predictors for NLAR models.
Numerical and Monte Carlo methods are proposed in the literature to compute the least squares \(m\)-step \((m > 1)\) predictors (see Pemberton (1987) or Tong (1990), p.346) when both the nonlinear regression function and the innovation distribution are known. However, the use of these approaches is not very realistic since the innovation distribution is unknown in most situations. The purpose of the present study is to propose an empirical scheme to evaluate the least squares multi-step predictors for the NLAR models and to investigate the asymptotics of the newly proposed predictors. We confine ourselves to the discussion of the multi-step prediction when the NLAR model is given but the innovation distribution is unspecified. In Section 2 we propose a simple multi-step prediction method for NLAR models by using the empirical distribution of the innovation. In Section 3 we show that the proposed prediction scheme is asymptotically equivalent to the exact least squares multi-step prediction. In Section 4 simulation results are presented for two- and three-step prediction of two kinds of NLAR models. In Section 5 further discussions and generalizations are given.

2. Prediction Based on the Empirical Distributions

We first consider the following NLAR model of order one:

\[
x_t = \varphi(x_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots,
\]

(2.1)

where \(\varepsilon_t's\) are i.i.d. random variables with \(E\varepsilon_t = 0, E\varepsilon_t^2 < \infty\) and an unknown distribution \(F\), and the innovation \(\varepsilon_t\) is independent of \(x_{t-1}\). The time series \(x_t\) is assumed to be causal, that is, \(x_t\) is a function of \(\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-1}, \ldots\) Throughout this paper, we assume that the regression function \(\varphi\) is known and a set of historical data \(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\) are available. It is not difficult to see that all the results of this paper remain true when the regression function \(\varphi\) is replaced by a consistent estimator. The latter is well studied in the literature (Lai and Zhu (1991)) and will not be considered here.

For one-step prediction the least squares predictor of \(x_{n+1}\), with \(x_1, \ldots, x_n\) being given, is

\[
\hat{x}_{n+1} = E(x_{n+1}|x_n, \ldots, x_1) = E\{\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_{n+1}|x_n\} = \varphi(x_n).
\]

(2.2)

Under model (2.1), the calculation of \(\hat{x}_{n+1}\) is easy and is independent of the distribution of \(\varepsilon_{n+1}\). This is an important property of one-step-ahead prediction for both linear and non-linear AR models.

However, for multi-step prediction, this is true only for linear models. Indeed, if \(\varphi\) is linear, say \(\varphi(x) = ax + b\), then from (2.2) we have

\[
\hat{x}_{n+2} = \int [a(ax_n + b + \varepsilon) + b]dF(\varepsilon)
\]

\[
= (a^2 x_n + ab + b) + a \int \varepsilon dF(\varepsilon)
\]

\[
= (a^2 x_n + ab + b) = a\hat{x}_{n+1} + b.
\]

(2.3)
By induction, the $l$-step ahead predictor of the linear model can also be computed as
\[ \hat{x}_{n+l} = a\hat{x}_{n+l-1} + b = \cdots = a^l x_n + a^{l-1} b + \cdots + ab + b. \] (2.4)

Note that formula (2.3) does not require knowledge of the distribution $F$ except for its first two moments.

For non-linear models the situation becomes more complicated. For example, the two-step least squares predictor for model (2.1) is
\[ \hat{x}_{n+2} = E(x_{n+2}|x_n, \ldots, x_1) = E\{\varphi(x_{n+1}) + \varepsilon_{n+2}|x_n\} \]
\[ = E\{\varphi(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_{n+1})|x_n\} = \int \varphi(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon)dF(\varepsilon), \] (2.5)
where $F(\cdot)$ is the distribution of $\varepsilon_t$. Now the right hand side of (2.5) depends on $F$, and can not be further reduced, as in (2.3). Indeed, linear models are the only models with the property that the multi-step prediction is independent of the innovation distribution.

In fact if the two-step prediction is independent of $F$, the right side of (2.5) remains the same when $F$ is concentrated at $a$ and $-a$ with equal probabilities, for any $x$ and $a \geq 0$. Thus, by taking $a > 0$ and $= 0$ respectively, we obtain
\[ \varphi(x + a) + \varphi(x - a) = 2\varphi(x). \]

This, together with measurability of $\varphi$, implies $\varphi$ is a linear function.

We propose a prediction procedure when the innovation distribution is unknown. In most practical situations a set of historical records $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ of the NLAR model (2.1) is available and, in general, the regression function $\varphi$ is either known or can be well estimated. Thus throughout this paper we assume that $\varphi$ is known. Hence, to compute the multi-step predictors, one needs a good estimator of the innovation distribution. Note that when $\varphi$ is given, the innovations $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ can be calculated exactly from the data since $\varepsilon_k = x_k - \varphi(x_{k-1}), \quad k = 2, 3, \ldots, n$. Then, the empirical distribution $F_n$ of the innovations $\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_n$ can be taken as an estimate of the innovation distribution, where
\[ F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} I(\varepsilon_k < x), \] (2.6)
and $I(\varepsilon_k < x)$ denotes the indicator function of the set $(\varepsilon_k < x)$. We propose
\[ \hat{x}^*_n = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} \varphi(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_k) \] (2.7)
as our two-step predictor.
The prediction procedure (2.7) can be easily extended to the \( l \)-step prediction for \( l > 2 \). For instance, for three-step prediction, the exact least squares predictor is
\[
\hat{x}_{n+3} = \int \int \varphi(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon) dF(\varepsilon) dF(\varepsilon').
\] (2.8)
As at (2.6), we take
\[
\hat{x}^*_{n+3} = \frac{1}{(n-1)(n-2)} \sum \sum_{2 \leq k \neq j \leq n} \varphi(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_k) + \varepsilon_j
\] (2.9)
as the three-step predictor. In general, the exact \( l \)-step least squares predictor is
\[
\hat{x}_{n+l} = \int \cdots \int \varphi(\cdots (\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_1) + \cdots + \varepsilon_{l-1}) dF(\varepsilon_1) \cdots dF(\varepsilon_{l-1})
\]
and our proposed predictor is
\[
\hat{x}^*_{n+l} = \frac{(n-l)!}{(n-1)!} \sum_{(l-1,n)} \varphi(\cdots (\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_{i_1}) + \cdots + \varepsilon_{i_{l-1}}),
\] (2.10)
where the summation \( \sum_{(l-1,n)} \) runs over all possible \( (l-1) \)-tuples of distinct \( i_1, \ldots, i_{l-1} \).

Finally, we describe the conditional variance of \( x_{n+2} \) given \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \), useful for interval prediction of \( x_{n+2} \). Note that
\[
\text{Var} \ (x_{n+2}|x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \text{Var} \ (x_{n+2}) = \int \varphi^2(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon) dF(\varepsilon) - \hat{x}^2_{n+2}.
\] (2.11)
Following the same idea as in the construction of the predictors, we may replace the unknown \( F \) in (2.11) by the empirical distribution \( F_n \) and obtain the following estimator of \( \text{Var}(x_{n+2}|x_n) \):
\[
\text{Var}^*(x_{n+2}|x_n) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} \varphi^2(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_k) - (\hat{x}^*_{n+2})^2.
\] (2.12)

3. Asymptotic Equivalence of \( \hat{x}^*_{n+l} \) and \( \hat{x}_{n+l} \)

In this section, we show that the proposed \( l \)-step predictor \( \hat{x}^*_{n+l} \) is asymptotically equivalent to the exact least squares predictor \( \hat{x}_{n+l} \).

As an illustration we first consider the LAR model, say \( \varphi(x) = ax + b \). By (2.6) and (2.3),
\[
\hat{x}^*_{n+2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} \{ a(ax_n + b + \varepsilon_k) + b \}
= a^2 x_n + ab + b + \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} a \varepsilon_k = \hat{x}_{n+2} + \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} a \varepsilon_k.
\] (3.1)
It is trivial that \( \hat{x}_{n+2}^* - \hat{x}_{n+2} \to 0 \) a.s. by the strong law of large numbers. That is, the proposed predictor \( \hat{x}_{n+2}^* \) is asymptotically equivalent to \( \hat{x}_{n+2} \).

For the NLAR models, we cannot rely on a formula similar to (3.1). Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, the variable \( x_n \) is dependent on the innovations \( \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3, \ldots, \varepsilon_n \). Thus the summands in (2.7) are no longer independent of each other. Fortunately, the following lemma, interesting in its own right, enables us to establish the equivalence.

Lemma 3.1. Suppose that \( \{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \ldots, \} \) is a sequence of iid. random variables and \( X \) is a random \( p \)-vector possibly dependent on \( \{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \ldots, \} \). Let \( \psi(x, e_1, \ldots, e_k) \) be a measurable function in \( R^{p+k} \) which is uniformly equicontinuous in \( x \), that is, for each given \( \eta > 0 \) there is a constant \( \delta > 0 \) such that

\[
\sup_{e_1, \ldots, e_k} \left| \psi(x_1, e_1, \ldots, e_k) - \psi(x_2, e_1, \ldots, e_k) \right| < \eta,
\]

when \( \|x_1 - x_2\| \leq \delta \), where \( \| \cdot \| \) is any norm equivalent to the Euclidean norm. Assume that for each fixed \( x \), \( E[\psi(x, \varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_k)] < \infty \).

Then with probability one,

\[
\frac{(n-k)!}{n!} \sum_{(k,n)} \psi(x, e_{i_1}, \ldots, e_{i_k}) \to \int \cdots \int \psi(x, e_1, \ldots, e_k) F(de_1) \cdots F(de_k),
\]

where the summation \( \sum_{(k,n)} \) is defined as in (2.10) and \( F \) is the common distribution of the random variables \( \varepsilon \)'s.

Proof. Write

\[
g_n(x) = \frac{(n-k)!}{n!} \sum_{(k,n)} \psi(x, e_{i_1}, \ldots, e_{i_k})
\]

and

\[
g(x) = \int \cdots \int \psi(x, e_1, \ldots, e_k) F(de_1) \cdots F(de_k).
\]

For any given \( \eta > 0 \), by the assumption on \( \psi \) there is a constant \( \delta > 0 \) such that (3.2) is true. For any large but fixed \( M > 0 \), we may split the \( p \)-dimensional ball \( B(M) = \{x, \|x\| \leq M\} \) into disjoint subsets \( A_i \) with \( a_i \in A_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), such that for any point \( x \in B(M) \), \( \|x - a_i\| < \delta \) for some integer \( i \leq m \). For brevity, we denote the indicator function \( I(X \in A_i) \), \( i = 1, \ldots, m \) by \( A_i \). For convenience, write \( A_0 = I(X \notin B(M)) \).

By (3.2), we have

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i |g_n(X) - g_n(a_i)| < \eta
\]
and
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i |g(X) - g(a_i)| < \eta. \]
Therefore
\[ |g_n(X) - g(X)| \leq 2\eta + \infty \cdot A_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i |g_n(a_i) - g(a_i)|. \]

Write \( h_i(e_1, \ldots, e_k) = (k!)^{-1} \sum_{(\pi)} \psi(a_i, e_{\pi(1)}, \ldots, e_{\pi(k)}) \), where the summation \( \sum_{(\pi)} \) runs over all permutations of \( \{1, \ldots, k\} \). It follows that \( g_n(a_i) \) can be viewed as a \( U \)-statistic with the kernel \( h_i \) so \( g_n(a_i) \to g(a_i) \) a.s., by the strong law of large numbers for \( U \)-statistics (see Chow and Teicher (1988), p. 389).

Consequently, with probability one,
\[ \lim \sup |g_n(X) - g(X)| \leq 2\eta + \infty \cdot A_0. \]
Since \( \eta \) can be chosen arbitrarily small and \( M \) can be arbitrarily large, we finally obtain
\[ \lim |g_n(X) - g(X)| = 0, \text{ a.s.} \]

Here is a theorem for two-step predictors.

**Theorem 3.2.** Suppose that the function \( \varphi \) and the distribution of \( \varepsilon_t \) in model (2.1) satisfy the following conditions,

(i) \( \varphi \) is uniformly equi-continuous, and for some constants \( 0 < \rho < 1, M > 0 \),
\[ |\varphi(x)| \leq \rho|x|, \quad |x| \geq M; \]

(ii) the innovations \( \varepsilon_t \) have zero mean, finite variance and a density which is positive everywhere.

Then we have
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} (\tilde{x}_{n+2} - \hat{x}_{n+2}) = 0, \text{ in probability} \] (3.4)
and
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} (\text{Var}^*(x_{n+2}|x_n) - \text{Var}(x_{n+2}|x_n)) = 0, \text{ in probability}. \] (3.5)

**Proof.** By An and Huang (1996), under conditions (i) and (ii), model (2.1) has a unique stationary solution which is geometrically ergodic. Then, by Chen and An (1997), the condition \( E \varepsilon_t^2 < \infty \) implies \( Ex_t^2 < \infty \). Hence by condition (i), \( E\varphi^2(x_t) < \infty \) and \( E\varphi^2(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon) < \infty \). With stationarity, it is sufficient for (3.4) to show that
\[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varphi(\varphi(x) + \varepsilon_i) \to \int \varphi(\varphi(x) + \varepsilon)dF(\varepsilon), \text{ as } n \to \infty, \] (3.6)
in probability. In fact, (3.6) is a direct consequence of Lemma 3.1 by taking $k = 1$ and $\psi(x, e) = \varphi(\varphi(x) + e)$. Conclusion (3.5) can be proved similarly.

It is straightforward to establish the asymptotic equivalence of the proposed $l$-step predictor and the exact least squares predictors along the same lines. Moreover, the restrictions on $\varphi$ and the distribution of $\varepsilon_t$ can be relaxed to a certain extent. This is discussed in Remarks 3.1 and 3.2. Stronger versions of Theorem 3.2 are conjectured in Remark 3.3.

**Remark 3.1.** The positiveness of the innovation density is only used to guarantee the existence of a stationary solution to model (2.1). Therefore if the function $\varphi$ is bounded, say $|\varphi(x)| \leq K$, the innovation density can be weakened to be positive on the interval $(-K, K)$. See An and Huang (1996) about this.

**Remark 3.2.** An important time series model is the **Threshold Autoregressive** (TAR) model (see Tong (1990) Chan (1993)), for which, unfortunately, the $\varphi$ function is discontinuous and hence does not satisfy the conditions of Theorem 3.2. However, the continuity condition there can be weakened to cover the TAR case as follows.

For each $\eta > 0$ and each compact sub-set $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$, there exists a constant $\delta > 0$ such that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$, there are two points $a_1$ and $a_2$ in the ball $B(x, \delta) = \{y : \|y - x\| \leq \delta\}$ so that for any $y \in B(x, \delta)$ and any $(e_1, \ldots, e_k) \in E$,

$$|\varphi(y, e_1, \ldots, e_k) - \varphi(a_j, e_1, \ldots, e_k)| < \eta,$$

(3.2') holds for either $j = 1$ or $2$.

**Remark 3.3.** In the linear case, the convergence of $\hat{x}_{n+2} - \bar{x}_{n+2}$ is in the strong version. It is natural to conjecture that (3.4) can be strengthened to the a.s. version. Also, when $\varphi$ is linear, by the iid assumption and $E\varepsilon_t^2 = \sigma^2 < \infty$, from (3.1) we know that $(n)^{1/2}(-\hat{x}_{n+2} - \bar{x}_{n+2}) \sim N(0, a^2\sigma^2)$. This implies that $\hat{x}_{n+2} - \bar{x}_{n+2} = O_p(1/(n)^{1/2})$. We therefore conjecture that this should still be true for the nonlinear case under the conditions of Theorem 3.2. It might also be of interest to establish the asymptotic normality under stronger conditions than those proposed in Theorem 3.2.

### 4. Simulation Results

In this section, two examples of NLAR models are discussed and simulated to compare the proposed two- and three-step predictors with the exact least squares predictors.

The first NLAR model used in the simulation is

$$x_t = \frac{-x_{t-1}}{1 + x_{t-1}^2} + \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 1, \ldots, n.$$  (4.1)
If \( \{\varepsilon_t\} \) is uniformly distributed on the interval \([-1, 1]\) then, by (2.3), the exact least squares predictor for the second step is given by

\[
\hat{x}_{n+2} = \int \varphi(\varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon) dF(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \varphi(c + \varepsilon) d\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \varphi(x) dx
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{-x}{1 + x^2} dx = \frac{1}{4} \log \frac{1 + [\varphi(x_n) - 1]^2}{1 + [\varphi(x_n) + 1]^2}, \tag{4.2}
\]

where \( c = \varphi(x_n) \). The second NLAR model used in the simulation is the threshold NLAR model:

\[
x_t = \begin{cases} 
1 - 0.5x_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, & x_{t-1} < 0; \\
0.5x_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, & x_{t-1} \geq 0.
\end{cases} \tag{4.3}
\]

If \( \varepsilon_t \) has the double exponential density \( f(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|\varepsilon|} \), then by (2.3) and further calculations, we have

\[
\hat{x}_{n+2} = \begin{cases} 
1 - \varphi(x_n) / 2, & \text{if } \varphi(x_n) < 0; \\
\varphi(x_n) / 2 + e^{-\varphi(x_n)}, & \text{if } \varphi(x_n) \geq 0.
\end{cases} \tag{4.4}
\]

The analytic form of the higher multi-step predictors for models (4.1) and (4.3) is rather involved and thus difficult to present.

In the following we compare \( \hat{x}_{n+k} \) with \( \hat{x}_{n+k}^* \), \( k = 2, 3 \), for NLAR models (4.1) and (4.3). First we generate \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) from model (4.1) with uniform innovation and from model (4.3) with double exponential innovation, respectively. The exact two-step predictors \( \hat{x}_{n+2} \) for models (4.1) and (4.3) are calculated directly by formulae (4.2) and (4.4), respectively, while the three-step predictors \( \hat{x}_{n+3} \) are calculated by using formulae (2.8) via numerical integration. The proposed predictors \( \hat{x}_{n+2}^* \) and \( \hat{x}_{n+3}^* \) are computed by (2.7) and (2.9), respectively. The sample sizes \( (n) \) in our simulation studies are chosen as 100, 200 and 400 with 1,000 replications each. For the \( i \)th replication, \( i = 1, \ldots, 1000 \), let \( d_{k,i} = \hat{x}_{n+k} - \hat{x}_{n+k}^* \) for \( k = 2, 3 \). Let \( \bar{d}_k = \frac{1}{1000} \sum_{i=1}^{1000} d_{k,i} \) be the sample mean of the \( k \)th step prediction errors and \( \text{MSE}_k \) be the sample mean squared error of \( \hat{x}_{n+k} \) for \( k = 2, 3 \), respectively.

In the third and fourth columns of Tables 1 and 2, we list \( \bar{d}_k \) and \( \text{MSE}_k \) for \( k = 2, 3 \), and \( n = 100, 200 \) and 400 for models (4.1) and (4.3), respectively. Furthermore, in order to investigate the effect of assuming an incorrect innovation density, we also generate \( n \) observations from model (4.1) when \( \{\varepsilon_t\} \) has the following exponential mixture density:

\[
f(x) = \frac{7}{8}(7e^{7x}I_{[x \leq 0]}) + \frac{1}{8}(e^{x}I_{[x > 0]}).
\]
Table 1. Compare $\hat{x}_{n+k}$ with $\hat{x}^*_n+k$ for model (4.1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_t \sim U[-1,1]$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_t \sim \text{Exponential Mixture}$</th>
<th>Pseudo Predictor</th>
<th>$d_{\text{wnp}}^{(1)}$</th>
<th>$MSE_k^{(1)}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd step</td>
<td>10.9 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>11.3 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>13.7 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>3.21 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-4.34 × 10^{-2}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd step</td>
<td>9.52 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>3.34 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>3.13 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>1.46 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-2.56 × 10^{-2}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd step</td>
<td>3.80 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>5.71 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>9.49 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>1.72 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-4.38 × 10^{-2}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd step</td>
<td>6.11 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>1.66 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-1.18 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>0.73 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-2.60 × 10^{-2}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd step</td>
<td>1.05 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>2.67 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>2.86 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>0.81 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-4.45 × 10^{-2}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd step</td>
<td>0.58 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>0.82 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-0.27 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>0.34 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>-2.59 × 10^{-2}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First we compute the exact predictors $\hat{x}_{n+k}(k = 2, 3)$ from (2.5) and (2.8) by numerical integration and the proposed predictors $\hat{x}^*_n+k$ as before. The simulation results are listed on the fifth and sixth columns of Table 1. Next we calculate the pseudo $k$-step predictors $\bar{w}_n\bar{m}_{n+k,i}$, with a false density of $N(0, \frac{1}{2})$ at the $i$th repetition, from (2.5) and (2.8) via numerical integration, $k = 2, 3$, and $i = 1, 2, \ldots, 1000$. Let $d_{\text{wnp}}^{(1)} = \bar{w}_{n+k,i} - \bar{w}_n\bar{m}_{n+k,i}$, $k = 2, 3$ and $i = 1, 2, \ldots, 1000$, $\bar{d}_{\text{wnp}}^{(1)}$ be the sample mean and $MSE_k^{(1)}$ be the sample mean squared error of $\bar{w}_n\bar{m}_{n+k,i}$. The results are listed in the 7th and 8th columns of Table 1. Similarly, for model (4.2) with double exponential innovation, we compute the pseudo $k$th step predictors at the $i$th iteration $\bar{w}_n\bar{m}_{n+k,i}$, $k = 2, 3$, and $i = 1, 2, \ldots, 1000$, from (2.2) and (2.8) and with a false density of $N(0, 2)$. With $d_{\text{wnp}}^{(2)}$ as the sample mean of the prediction errors of $\bar{w}_n\bar{m}_{n+k,i}$'s and $MSE_k^{(2)}$ the sample mean squared error of $\bar{w}_n\bar{m}_{n+k,i}$'s, the results are listed in columns 5 and 6 of Table 2.

Table 2. Compare $\hat{x}_{n+k}$ with $\hat{x}^*_n+k$ for model (4.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_t \sim \text{Double Exponential}$</th>
<th>Pseudo Predictor</th>
<th>$d_{\text{wnp}}^{(2)}$</th>
<th>$MSE_k^{(2)}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd step</td>
<td>6.99 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>41.3 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>6.64 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>10.1 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd step</td>
<td>5.71 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>40.5 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>5.99 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>7.66 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd step</td>
<td>-6.85 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>20.9 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>6.50 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>7.83 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd step</td>
<td>-3.99 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>21.2 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>5.89 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>5.62 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd step</td>
<td>1.05 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>9.48 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>6.58 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>6.65 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd step</td>
<td>-0.48 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>9.71 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>5.92 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>4.52 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 1 and 2 reveal the following phenomena.

(1) From columns 3 and 5 of Table 1 and column 3 of Table 2, the sample
means of the two- and three-step prediction errors decrease as sample size $n$ increases. This illustrates the asymptotic equivalence of the two predictors.

(2) From columns 4 and 6 in Table 1 and column 4 in Table 2, the two- and three-step mean squared errors of our predictors are approximately inversely-proportional to the sample size $n$. This result is in accordance with our conjecture in Remark 3.3 that $\hat{x}_{n+2} - \hat{x}_{n+2} = O_p(n^{-1/2})$. Furthermore, the normal probability plot of $d_{3,i}$ (see Fig. 1) for model (4.1), with uniform innovation and $n=400$, strongly supports our asymptotic normality conjecture.

(3) The accuracy of the proposed predictor does not rely on knowledge of the innovation density. However, the accuracy of $\hat{x}_{n+2}$ and $\hat{x}_{n+3}$ computed from (2.5) and (2.8) is greatly influenced by the correctness of the innovation distribution (see columns 7 and 8 in Table 1 and columns 5 and 6 in Table 2). For example, for model (4.1) with exponential mixture innovation, $\hat{d}_3 = 10^{-3}d_{\text{imp}_{2}}$ and $MSE_3 = 0.05MSE_3^{(1)}$ when $n = 400$.

\[ \text{Figure 1. Normal Probability plot, } n = 400 \]

5. Further Discussions

An advantage of the multi-step prediction scheme proposed in this paper is its simplicity of calculation. Although it is a disadvantage to assume that the autoregressive function $\varphi$ of the NLAR model is known, this can be overcome by replacing the unknown autoregressive function $\varphi$ with a good estimator. It is easy to see from the proof of Theorem 3.2 that this replacement does not alter the
asymptotic equivalence provided the estimator of the autoregressive function is consistent. An example of such replacement can be found in Lai and Zhu (1991).

For simplicity we discussed only the approximation of the multi-step prediction for NLAR models of order one. The approach can be easily extended to higher orders. For example, consider the following NLAR model of order $p$:

$$x_t = \varphi(x_{t-1}, \ldots, x_{n-p}) + \varepsilon_t. \quad (5.1)$$

When $\varphi$ is given and $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ are available,

$$\varepsilon_t = x_t - \varphi(x_{t-1}, \ldots, x_{n-p}), t = p + 1, \ldots, n.$$  

Consequently, the two-step predictor $\hat{x}_{n+2}$ can be approximated by

$$\hat{x}_{n+2}^* = \frac{1}{n - p} \sum_{k=p+1}^{n} \varphi(x_n, x_{n-1}, \ldots, x_{n-p+1}) + \varepsilon_k, x_n, \ldots, x_{n-p+2}). \quad (5.2)$$

The multi-step predictors can be approximated in a similar manner, and one can easily establish the asymptotic equivalence of the proposed and exact predictors. The details are omitted.

Another generalization is to consider NLAR models with conditional heteroscedasticity (see Chen and An (1997)). As an example, we consider the model

$$x_t = \varphi(x_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t \sigma(x_{t-1}), \quad t = 1, \ldots, n, \quad (5.3)$$

where the functions $\varphi(\cdot)$ and $\sigma(\cdot)$ are known, and the $\varepsilon_t$'s are assumed to satisfy $E\varepsilon_t^2 = 1$ for purposes of identifiability. When $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ are obtained,

$$\varepsilon_t = \{x_t - \varphi(x_{t-1})\}/\sigma(x_{t-1}), t = 2, 3, \ldots, n.$$ 

Hence, the two-step predictor can be obtained by employing the empirical distribution of $\varepsilon_t$, i.e.,

$$\hat{x}_{n+2}^* = \frac{1}{n - 1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} \varphi(x_n) + \varepsilon_k \sigma(x_n)). \quad (5.4)$$

Finally, we emphasize that this approach can be adapted to the so-called autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity (ARCH) models (see Engle (1982)).

An example is

$$\begin{cases} 
  x_t = \varphi(x_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t h_t^{1/2} \\
  h_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \{x_{t-1} - \varphi(x_{t-2})\}^2,
\end{cases} \quad (5.5)$$

where the $\varepsilon_t$'s are assumed to be the same as in model (5.3). Substituting the second equation into the first in (5.5), we have

$$x_t = \varphi(x_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t \{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 [x_{t-1} - \varphi(x_{t-2})]^2\}^{1/2}. \quad (5.6)$$
This turns out to be an NLAR model with conditional heteroscedasticity
\[ \sigma^2(x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \{x_{t-1} - \varphi(x_{t-2})\}^2. \]

Therefore, the multi-step predictors based on the empirical distribution of \( \varepsilon_t \)'s can be easily obtained.

References


