

ASTROINFORMATICS 2019

CALTECH, 2019 JUNE 24

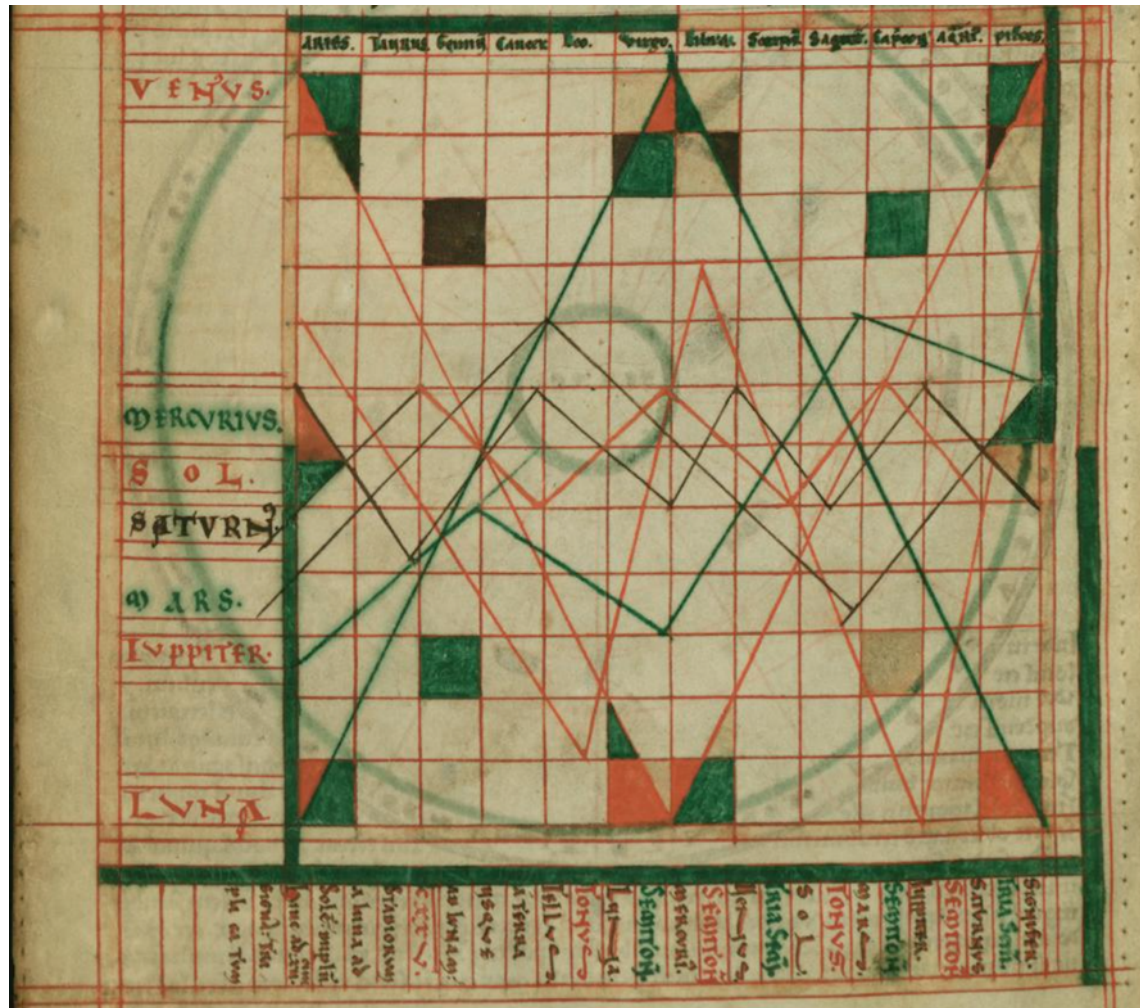
An introduction to time series analysis

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The first astronomical time series analysis

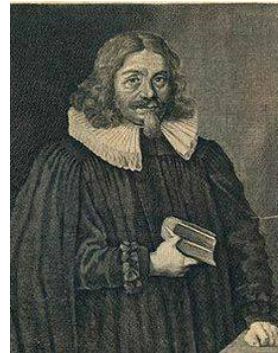


Abbo of Fleury, 10th century CE

A wondrous star in the neck of the Whale

152 HISTORIOLO
EPHEMERIS
Novæ Stellæ in collo Ceti,
Ab anno 1638, ad annum 1662.

Observa- tores.	Anus.	Monf. dies.	Hora.	OBSERVATIONES.
Magnitudo novæ Stellæ.	1638	Decemb. 1. Decemb. 25.	9 P. sp.	Stellam hanc in Ceto primò deprehendit. Ad agnoscendâ erat tam nudis oculis, quàm per Te- lescopium, quæ Stellæ terræ fulgoris excede- ret, præterea in ore, & præterea, in & Nidulo Piscium sup. verum sensibilibus quoniam mi- nor erat Stellæ secundæ magnitudinis, Man- dibulæ pinnarum atque Lucidæ in Capite A- rietis. Interim decreverat paulatim, usque dum in occasu suo belicæ appareat Stellæ quartæ circiter honoris.
Proculat deli- tuit.	1639	Mediâ æstate.		Postquam Ceti fidus Heliacæ brum aliis fuis- set, Ceti ingentissimè inventis oculis infra- vimus, vidimus ei, genam, Mandib. Ceti, ali- quæ vicinæ circumcincta Stellæ, nullam tamē novæ Stellæ tunc vestigium observari potuit.
Denuò affulsit.	1639	Decemb. 7.		Denuò apparuit eodem præcis loco, eodemque quo ante.
	1641	Septemb. 23.		Citius in conspectum non prodit.
	1642	Septemb. 23.		Denuò affulsit.
	1644	August. circ.		Nondum apparuit.
	1647	Februar. 13.		Observata est ad occasum usque belicam. In- tius magnitudinis extitit huius magnitudinis.
	1648	Julio ad 3.	Nov. aug.	Sollicitè quidem quæsitâ, sed nusquam fuit.
Nusquam ap- parebat.	1648	Januar. 5.	9 P. sp.	Major quidem Nudo Lani, & illa in ore Ceti tertiū honoris; minor tamen Luc. Mandib. 2 Magnitud. extitit.
	1659	Julio.	Sept. usque	Proximi delituit.
	1659	Decemb. 14.	9 P. sp.	Major illa ad genam Ceti 4 magn. 5 minor ta- men illa in ore Ceti 3 magn. Colore verò rufis- si & subobscurè visa est. Ab hoc autem tempo- re sensim decrevit, ad occasum usque belicæ.
Quantæ ma- gnitudinis ex- stitit an. 1660	1660	Julio imo Septemb. 1. 2.	ad finē Sept.	Nusquam apparuit, ne si funderet quæsitâ. Infra sextâ & 7 magn. Stellâ illucis. Satis clari affulgebat, instar Stellæ 4 magn. se- ræ, & minor eâ ad genam Ceti erat ali- quanto rubicundius, & obscurus; Luce & cla- ritate multo inferior Mandibulæ deprehens- sa est.
		Sept. 18 & 20.		Æqualis illi in ore Ceti; credebatur itaque.
Paulatim cre- scebat.	1660	Sept. 27. 29. 30. Octobr. 1. Octob. 4. Octob. 13. 20.	9 P. sp. 9 P. sp. 9 P. sp. 9 P. sp.	Major illa in ore Ceti. Major quidem in ore; minor tamen Mandibulâ. Æqualis fore Mandibulâ. Major Mandibulâ imò Lucidâ 7; minor vero aliquando illa in Caudâ Ceti Australi. Præter- ea, in colore albicantiore, sic etiam multo pro- vidiori, & magis vibranti lumine præditi erat.



“If the new star were outside the ordinary course of nature, it would tell us little about the constitution of the universe.”

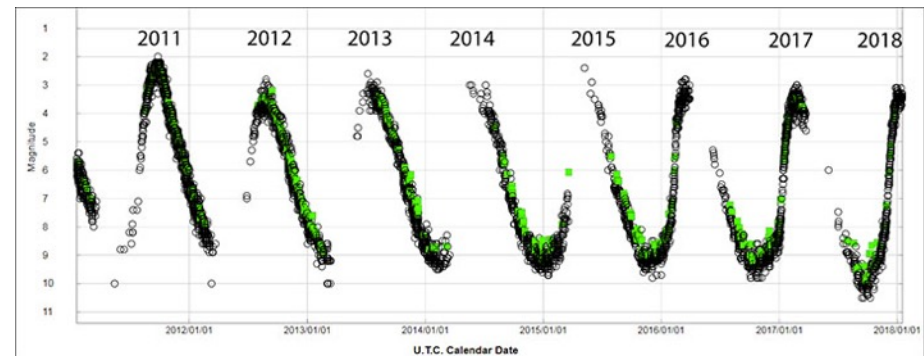
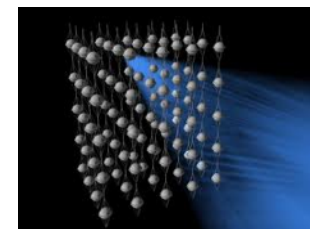
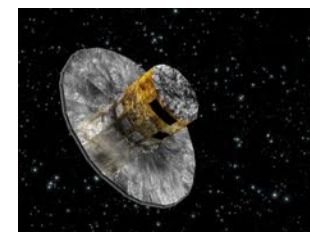
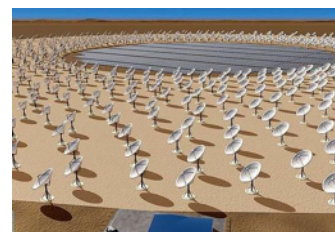
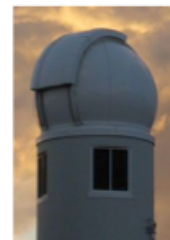
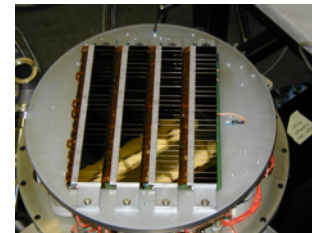
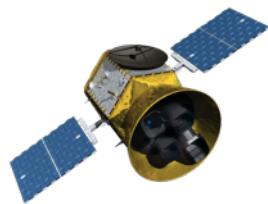
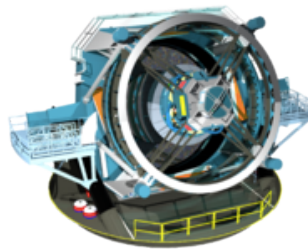


Image credit: AAVSO

A billion time series and counting

- Palomar-Quest Synoptic Sky Survey
- SDSS (Stripe 82)
- Catalina Real-time Transient Survey
- Palomar Transient Factory
- Zwicky Transient Factory
- Pan-STARRs
- SkyMapper
- ASKAP
- ThunderKat (MeerKAT)
- KEPLER
- GAIA
- LIGO
- IceCUBE
- LOFAR
- LSST
- SKA
- TESS
- ASAS-SN
- MASTER
- DES
- ATLAS
- BlackGEM
- GoTo
- MeerKAT
- ASKAP
- WISE
- OGLE
- DESI
- SDSS-V
- LAMOST
- ...



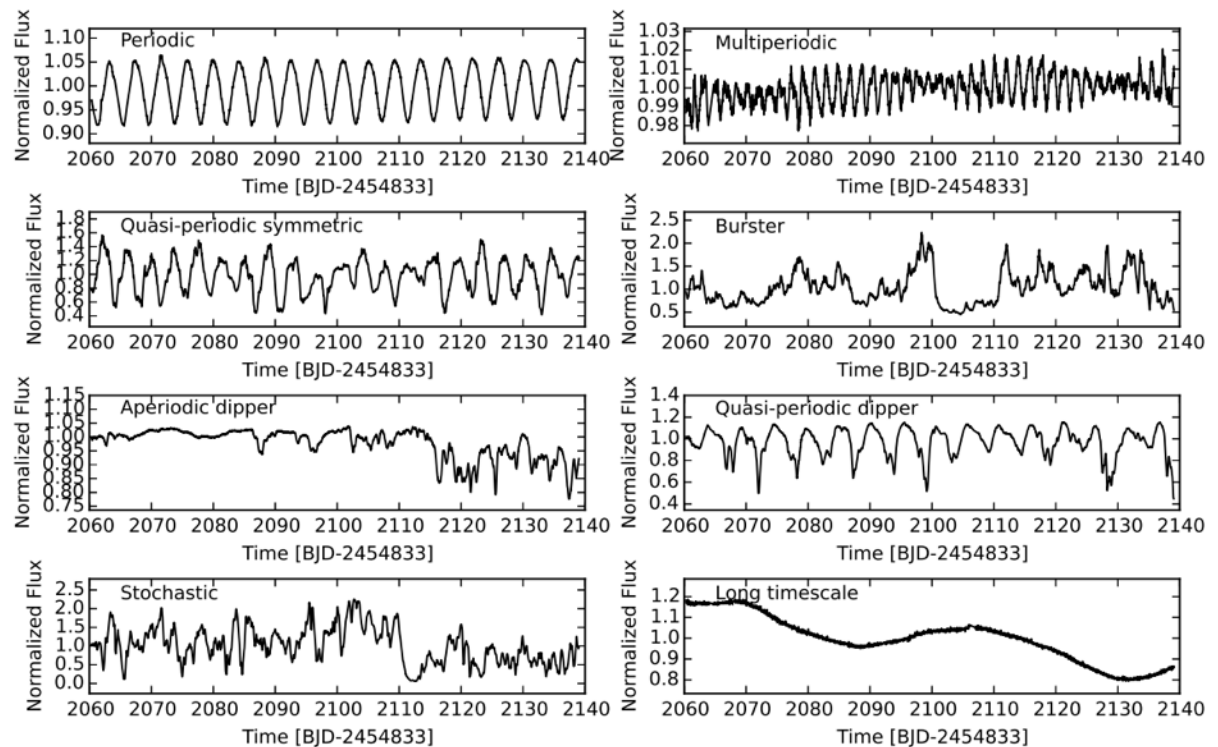
What we do ask of time series?

Population behaviors

- Characterize, categorize, classify

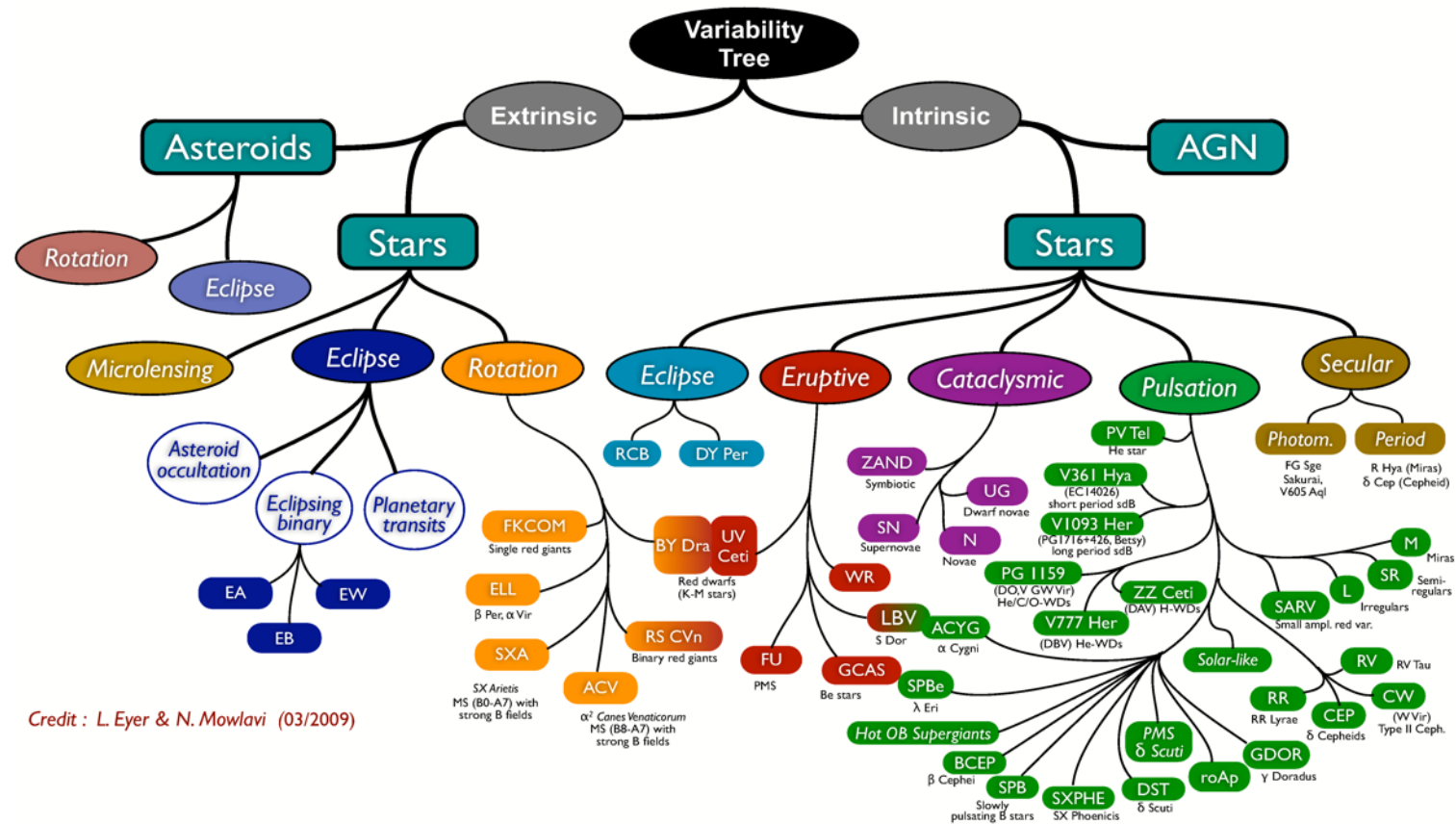
Outliers

- Extreme sources
- Physical models
 - Predictions



(Cody & Hillenbrand 2018)

Types of astronomical variability



Credit : L. Eyer & N. Mowlavi (03/2009)

Foundational concepts

A time series is a set of time-tagged measurements: $\{X_i(t_i)\}$
with observation errors σ_i

Non-IID

- Data is sequential

Homoskedasticity

- All errors drawn from same process



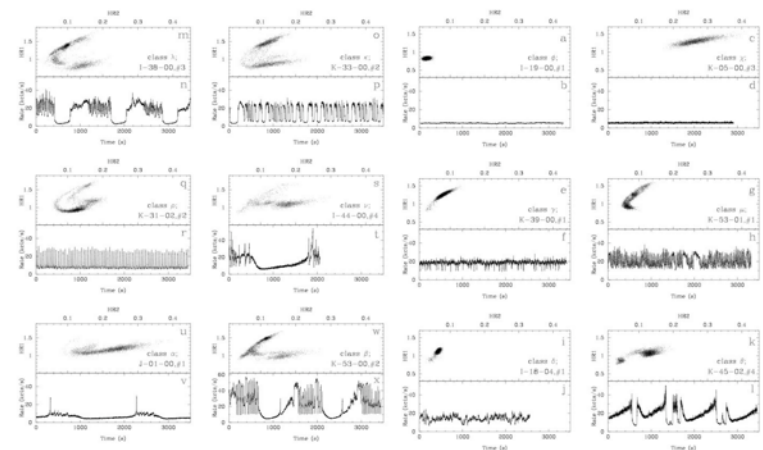
Ergodicity

- The time average for one sequence is the same as the ensemble average:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(T^k x).$$

Foundational concepts - stationarity

- The generating process is time independent:
 - Joint probability distribution is translationally invariant (strong)
 - Mean, variance, autocorrelation are constant (weak)
- Examples:
 - White noise is stationary
 - GSR 1915+215 has ~20 variability states
 - GARCH models where variance is a stochastic function of time
- Nonstationary time series do not have to be stationary in any limit



(Belloni et al. 2000)

Foundational concepts - stationarity



- Transformations to achieve stationarity (constant location and scale):

- Difference the data:

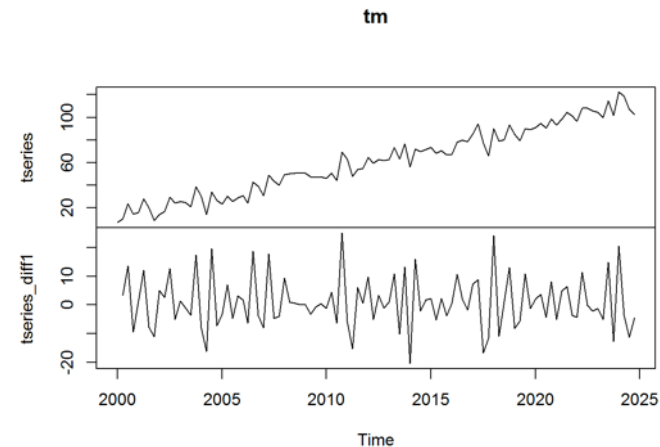
$$Z_i = X_i - X_{i-1}$$

- Detrend the data:

$$Z(t) = X(t) - f(t)$$

- Stabilize the variance:

$$Z(t) = \sqrt{(X(t) + A)} \text{ or } \log(X(t) + A)$$



Test with ACF

Foundational concepts - sampling

- Even or regular sampling:

$$y(t) = x(t_0 + n\Delta t) \text{ where } n = 0, 1, \dots, m$$

- Uneven or irregular sampling:

$$y(t) = x(t_0), \dots, x(t_m)$$

- Regularization/resampling:

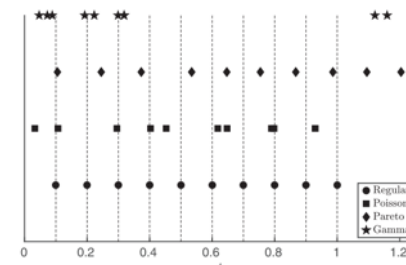
- Bin data onto regular grid: $y(t) = \frac{\sum_i w_i x_i}{\sum_i w_i}$ for $t_i \in [t_a, t_b]$

- Interpolate: linear, spline, Gaussian process

- Continuous time process:

- Observations are a random sample drawn from a continuous process described by some differential equation:

$$dX(t) = -\frac{1}{\tau} X(t) dt + \sigma \sqrt{dt} \epsilon(t) + b dt$$



Foundational concepts – power spectrum



- Power spectral density tells you everything: $PSD(\nu) = |\mathcal{F}(x)|^2$
- PSD is Fourier transform of autocorrelation function:

$$PSD(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ACF(\Delta t) e^{-2\pi i \nu \Delta t} \Delta t$$
$$ACF(\Delta t) = \mathbb{E}[(\bar{x}_t - \mu)(x_{t+\Delta t} - \mu)] / \sigma^2$$

Discrete FT:

$$X_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n e^{-2\pi i k n / N}$$

Nonuniform Discrete FT:

$$X_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n e^{-2\pi i p_n \omega_k}$$

- The structure function is related to the autocorrelation function:

$$SF(\Delta t) = \sqrt{2} \sigma_s \sqrt{1 - ACF(\Delta t)}$$
$$SF(\Delta t) = 0.742 \text{ IQR}(x)$$

Time series decomposition

Given any **stationary** process, Y , there exist:

- a linearly **deterministic process**, D
- an uncorrelated zero mean noise process, R
- a **moving average** filter, C

such that:

$$Y(t) = C \times R(t) + D(t)$$

(Wold's Decomposition Theorem (1938))

Different physical processes contribute to deterministic dominance $D(t)$ or stochastic dominance $C \times R(t)$.

Deterministic chaos vs. stochastic?

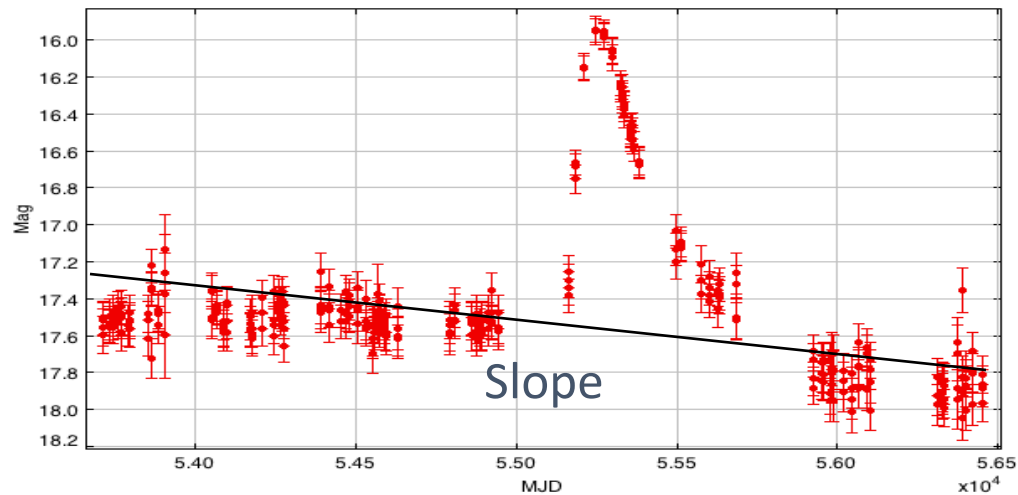


Characterization – extracting data features



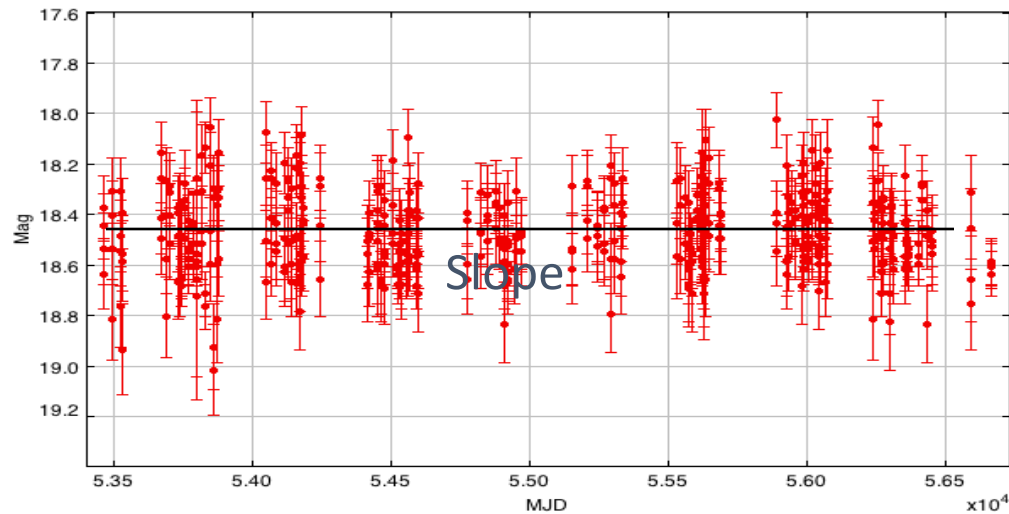
$$\sum_{i=1}^n A_i \sin(\omega t + \phi_i)$$

Fourier



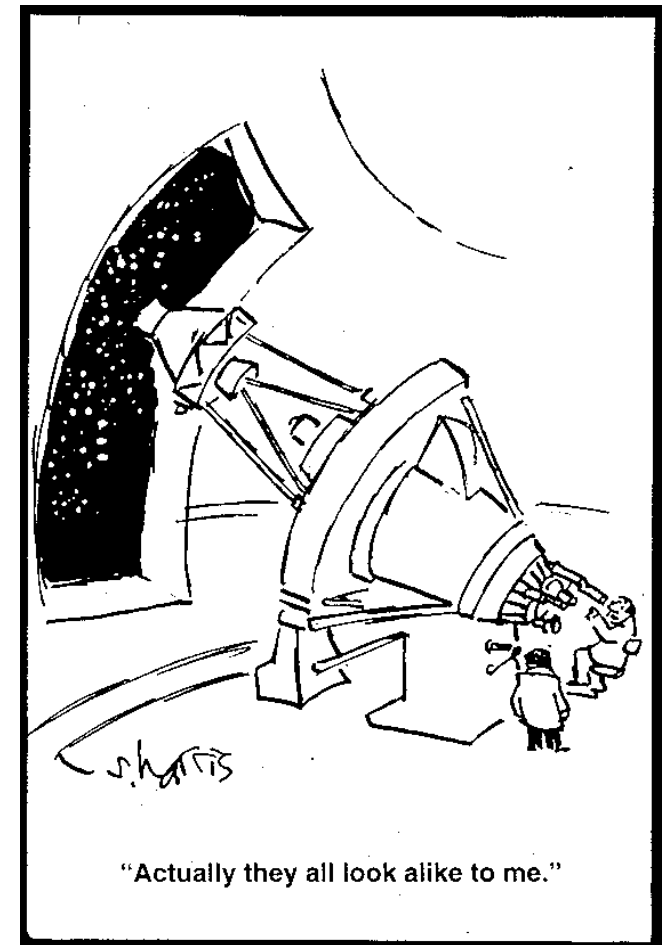
$$\sum_{i=1}^n A_i \sin(\omega t + \phi_i)$$

Fourier

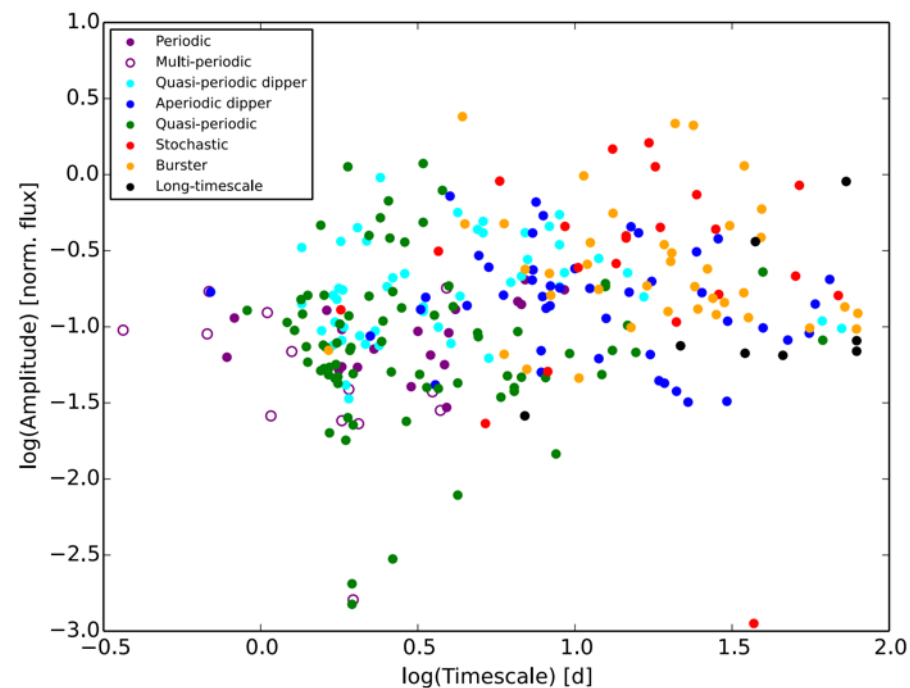
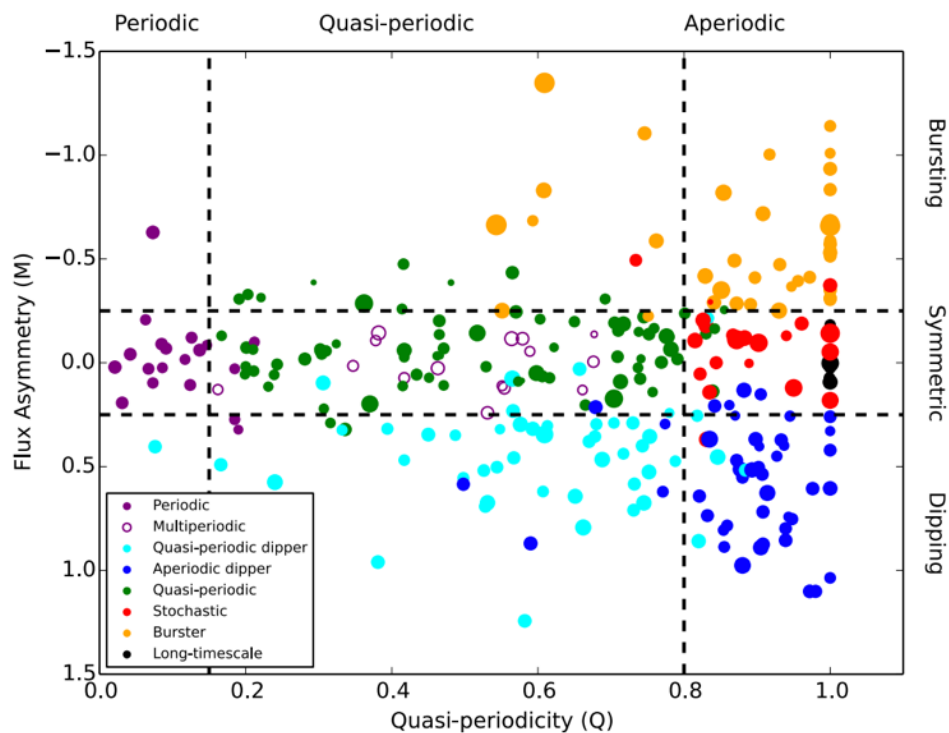


Common statistical features

- Timescales:
 - Lomb-Scargle
- Variability:
 - von Neumann variability (phase-folded)
 - Stetson K index
- Morphology:
 - Skewness
 - Kurtosis
 - IQR
 - Cumulative sum index (phase-folded)
 - Ratio of magnitudes brighter/fainter than mean
- Trends:
 - Slope percentiles (phase-folded)
- Model:
 - Fourier amplitude ratios
 - Fourier phase differences
 - Fourier amplitude
 - Shapiro-Wilk normality test

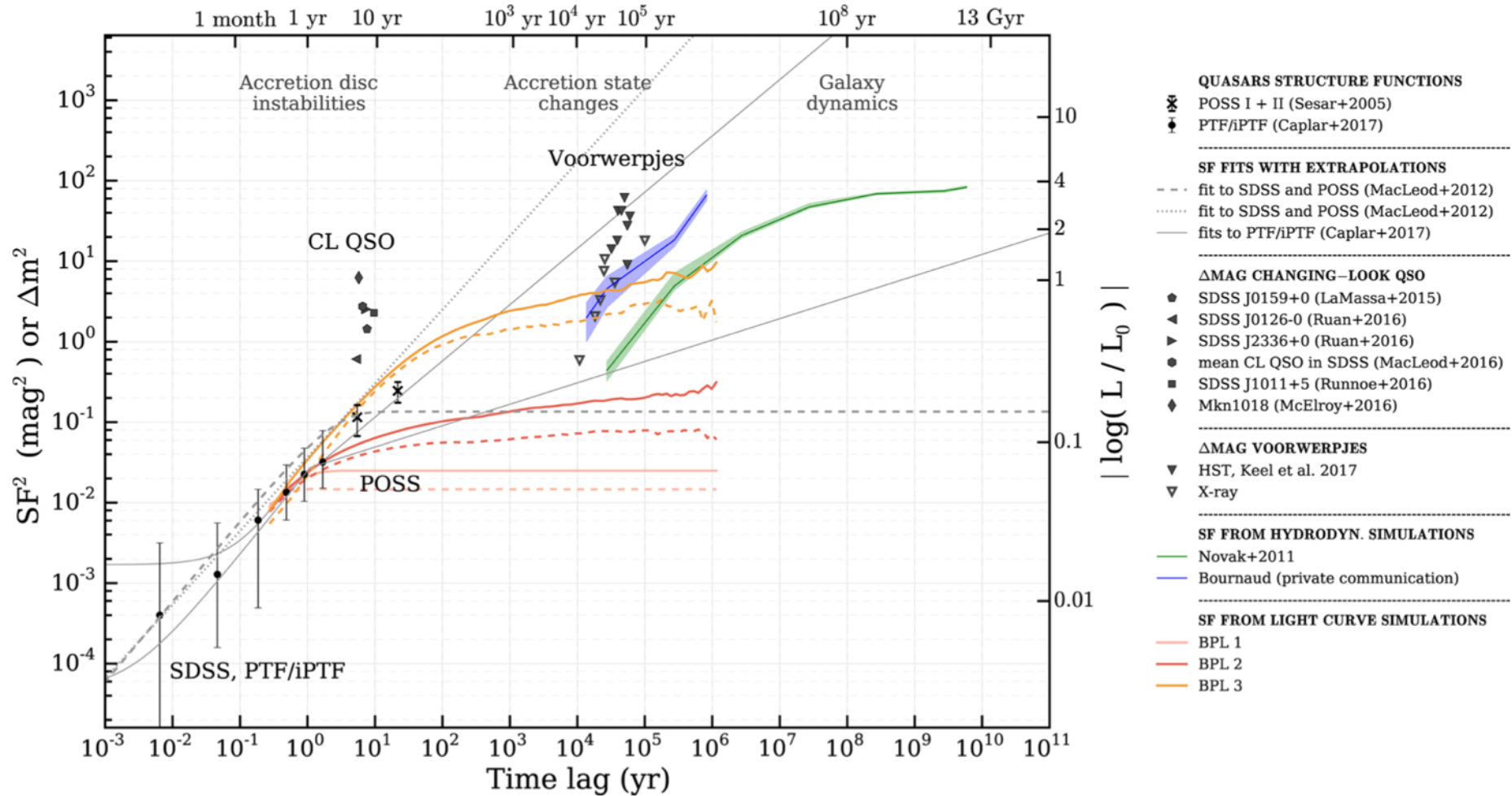


Categorization



(Cody & Hillenbrand 2018)

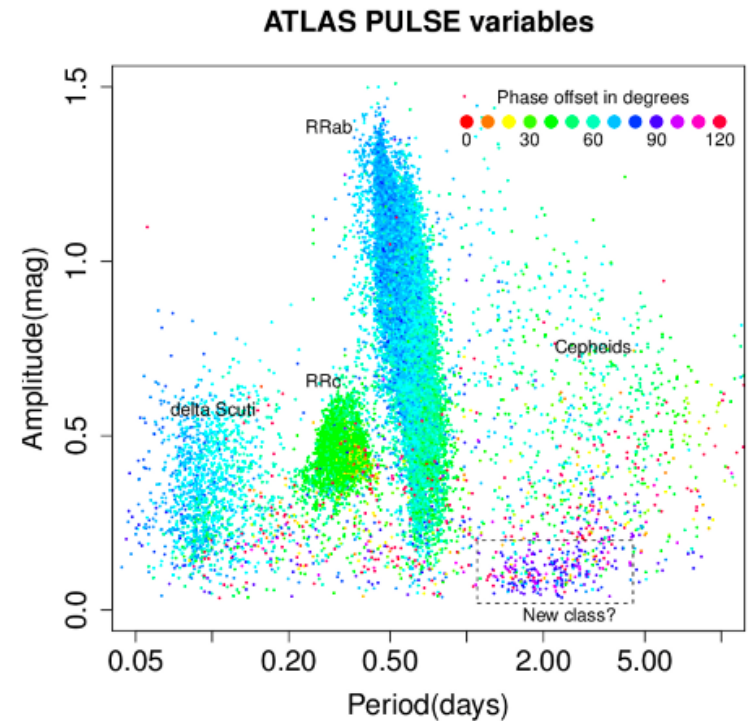
Characteristic timescales



(Sartori et al. 2018)

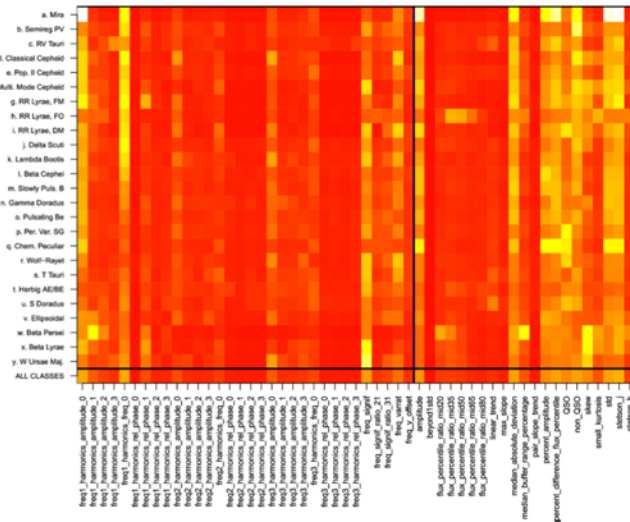
Data-derived classes

Class	Description
CBF	Close binary, full period
CBH	Close binary, half period
DBF	Distant binary, full period
DBH	Distant binary, half period
dubious	Star might not be a real variable
IRR	Irregular: catch-all for difficult short-period cases
LPV	Long period variable: catch-all for difficult cases
MIRA	High-amplitude, long-period red variable
MPULSE	Modulated Pulse: likely multi-modal pulsator
MSINE	Modulated Sine: multiple cycles of sine-wave were fit
NSINE	Noisy Sine: pure sine was fit, but residuals are large or non-random
PULSE	Pulsating variable
SHAV	Slow High-Amplitude Variable, too blue or irregular for Mira
SINE	Pure sine was fit with small residuals
STOCH	Stochastic: certainly variable, yet more incoherent even than IRR

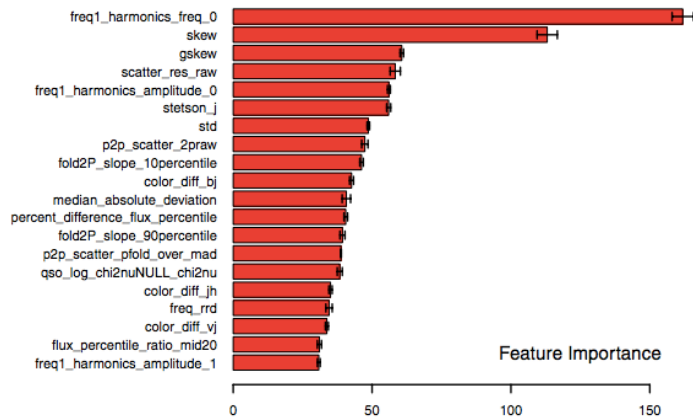


(Heinze et al. 2018)

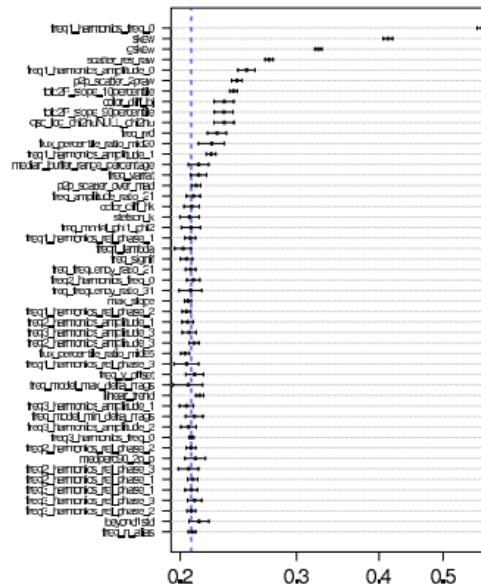
Not all features are equal



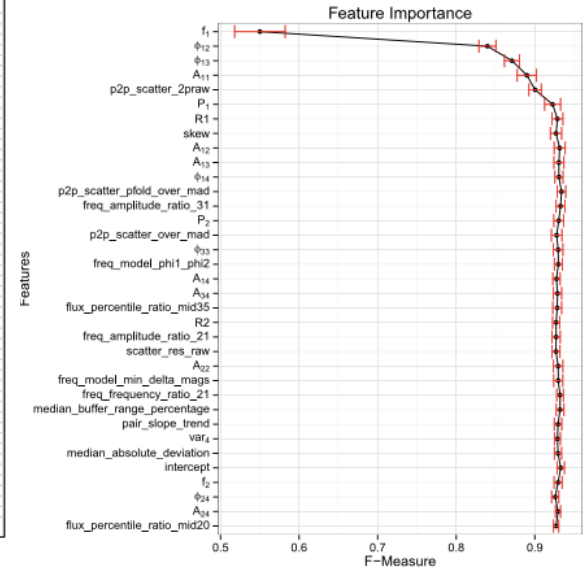
Richards et al. 2011



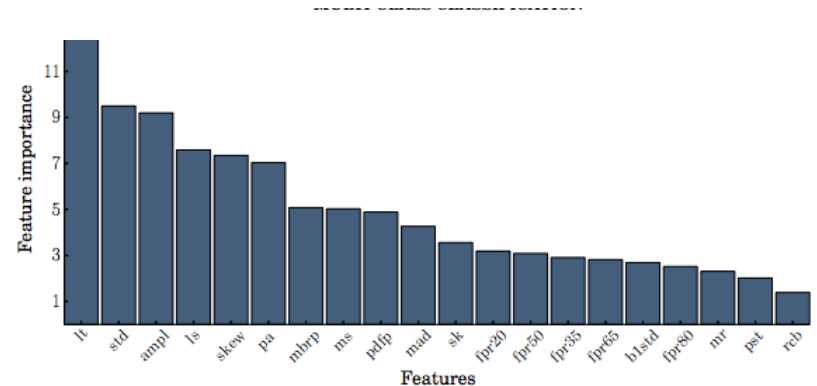
Richards et al. 2012



Dubath et al. 2012



Elorietta et al. 2016



D'Isanto et al. 2016

Periodicity

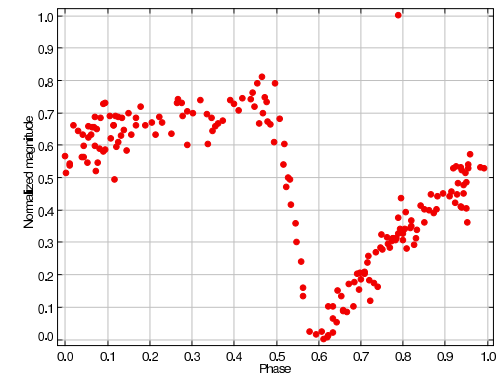
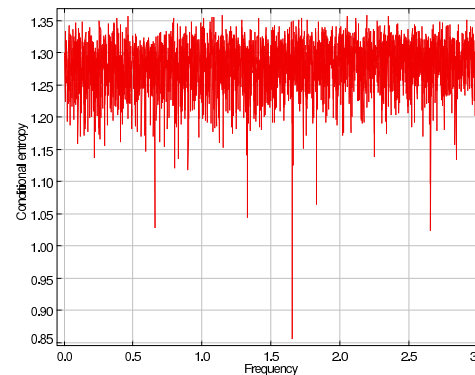
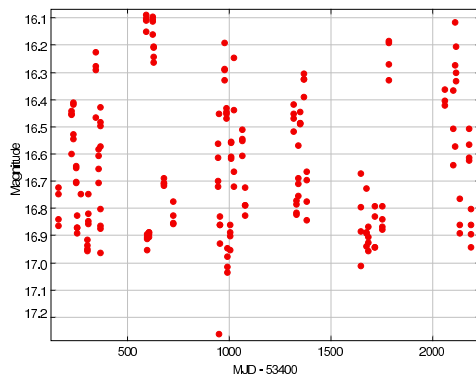
$$x(t + P) = x(t); f = 1/P$$

$$x(t, f) = A_f \sin 2\pi f(t - \varphi_f)$$
$$\chi^2(f) = \sum_n \left(\frac{x_n - x(t_n; f)}{\sigma_n} \right)^2$$
$$P(f) = \frac{1}{2} [\hat{\chi}_0^2 - \hat{\chi}^2(f)]$$

$$\varphi(t, f) = tf - \text{int}(tf)$$

$$\theta(f) = g(\varphi_n, x_n; f)$$

$$P(f) = h(\theta(f))$$



Period finding is not a single algorithm

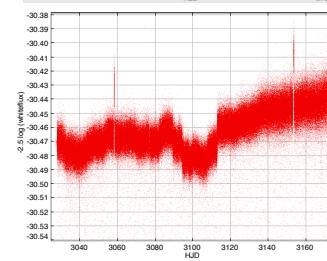
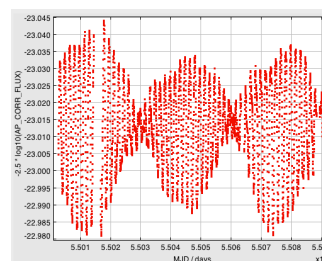
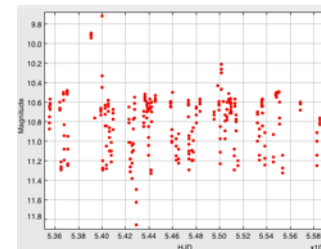
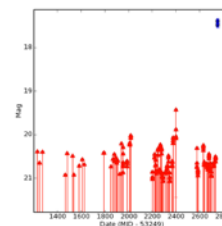


- Minimized (least-squares) fit to a set of basis functions:
 - Lomb-Scargle and its variants
 - Wavelets
- Minimize dispersion measure in phase space:
 - Means (PDM)
 - Variance (AOV)
 - String length
 - Entropy
- Rank ordering (in phase space)
- Bayesian
- Neural networks
- Gaussian process regression
- Convolved algorithms



The most important feature: period

- Many features used to characterize light curves rely on a derived period:
 - Dubath et al. (2011) show a 22% misclassification error rate for non-eclipsing variable stars with an incorrect period
 - Richards et al. (2011) estimate that periodic feature routines account for 75% of computing time used in feature extraction
 - Deep learning still applied to folded light curves
- Domain knowledge constraints
 - RR Lyrae: Blazho behavior (30%), small amplitude cycle-to-cycle modulations (RRabs)
 - Close binaries, LPVs: cyclic period changes over multidecade baselines
 - Semi-regular variables: double periods, multiperiodicity
 - ARMA models: quasi-periodicity
- Trustworthiness of quoted periods



What can we say about period finding



- No algorithm is generally better than ~60% accurate
- All methods are dependent on the quality of the light curve and show a decline in period recovery with lower quality light curves as a consequence of:
 - fewer observations
 - fainter magnitudes
 - noisier data and an increase in period recovery with higher object variability;
- All algorithms are stable with a minimum bin occupancy of ~ 10 ($\Delta\phi = 0.1$)
- A bimodal observing strategy consisting of pairs (or more) of short Δt observations per night and normal repeat visits is better
- The algorithms work best with pulsating and eclipsing variable classes
- LS/GLS are strongly effected by half-period issue (eclipsing binaries)
- Specific algorithms work better with irregular sampling, bright magnitudes (containing saturated values), or with performance constraints

Gaussian processes



- Fundamental idea:

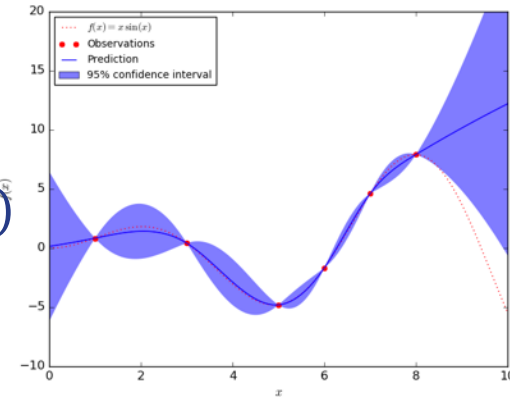
$$P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, (\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\varphi})) = \mathcal{N}[\boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\varphi}), \mathbf{K}]$$
$$K_{nm} \equiv \text{cov}[\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m] = k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Hyperparameter estimation:

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T K_y^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) - \frac{1}{2} \log |K_y| - \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi$$

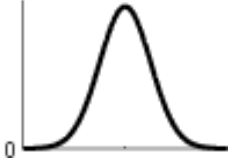
- Prediction:

$$p(\mathbf{y}_*) = \mathcal{N}[\mathbf{m}_*, \mathbf{C}_*]$$
$$\mathbf{m}_* = \boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{x}_*) + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})^{-1}(\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{x}))$$
$$\mathbf{C}_* = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})^{-1}\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_*)^T$$



Popular kernels


- Squared exponential:

$$K_{SE}(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2l^2}\right), \quad r = \|x - x'\|$$


- Ornstein-Uhlenbeck:

$$K_{OU}(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{|r|}{l}\right)$$

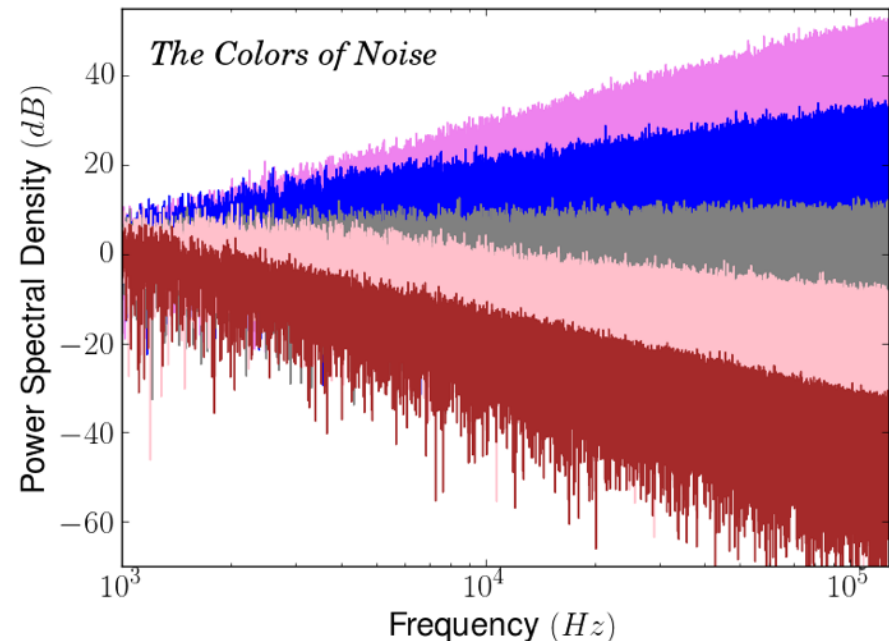
- Periodic:

$$K_P(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{2 \sin^2\left(\frac{r}{2}\right)}{l^2}\right)$$


$$K_{celerite} = \sum_{j=1} J[a_j \exp(-c_j r) \cos d_j r + b_j \exp(-c_j r) \sin d_j r]$$

Autoregressive models

- Purely random: $x_t = z_t$ where $\{z_t\}$ are iid
- Random walk (Brownian motion): $x_t = x_{t-1} + z_t$
- Autoregressive: $x_t = \alpha_1 x_{t-1} + \alpha_2 x_{t-2} + \dots + z_t$
- Moving average: $x_t = z_t + \beta_1 z_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_{t-q} z_{t-q}$
- ARMA(p,q): $x_t = \alpha_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_{t-p} x_{t-p} + z_t + \beta_1 z_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_q z_{t-q}$
- ARIMA(p, d, q), ARFIMA(p,d, q):
- $(1 - B)^d x_t = z_t$



Autoregressive GPs

- A process is said to be autoregressive if the psd of the kernel can be written in the form:

$$S(\omega) = \frac{1}{\left| \sum_{k=0}^m \alpha_k (i\omega)^k \right|^2}$$

- Matern kernel:

$$C_\nu(d) = \sigma^2 \frac{2^{1-\nu}}{\Gamma(\nu)} \left(\sqrt{2\nu} \frac{d}{\rho} \right)^\nu K_\nu \left(\sqrt{2\nu} \frac{d}{\rho} \right)$$

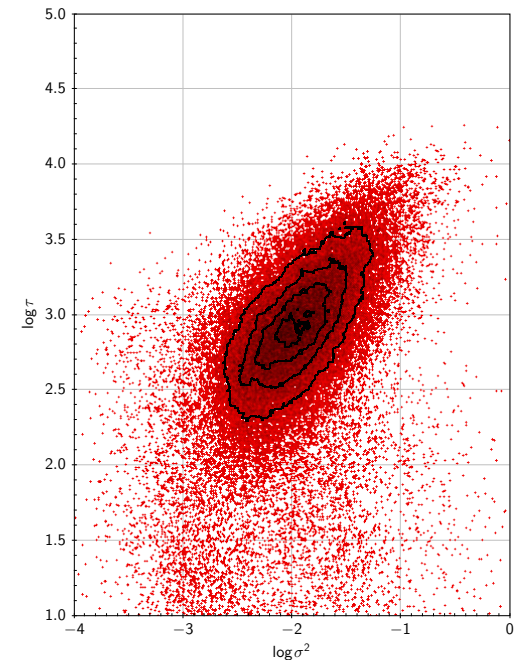
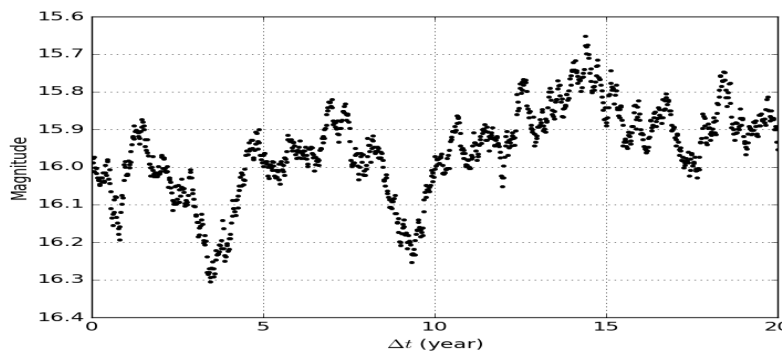
$$S_\nu(\omega) = \frac{1}{\left| \sqrt{\frac{\Gamma(\nu)\theta^{2\nu}}{2\sigma^2\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma(\nu + \frac{1}{2})(2\nu)^\nu}} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu}}{\theta} + i\omega \right)^{\nu + \frac{1}{2}} \right|^2}$$

Quasar variability as a damped random walk



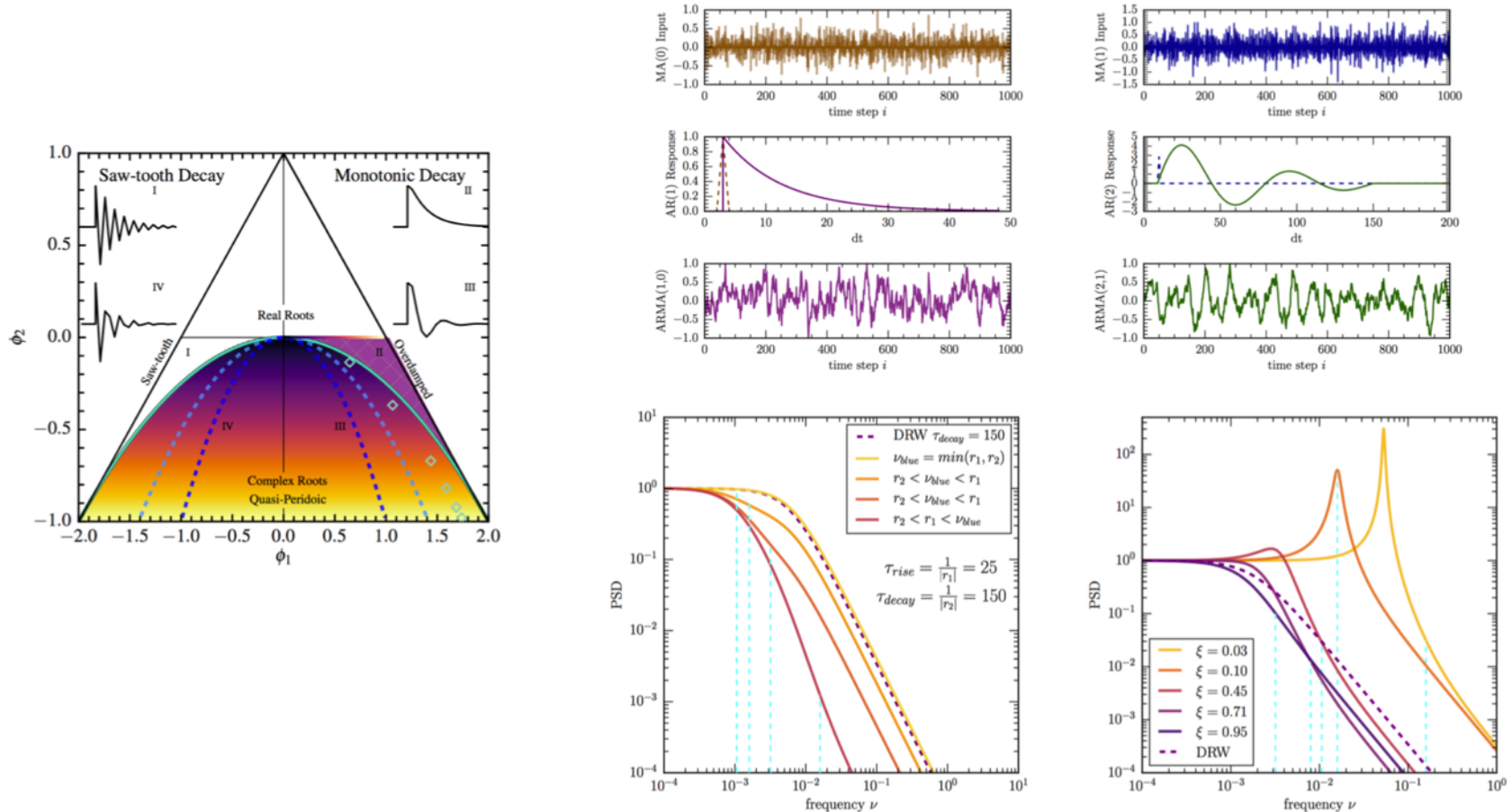
$$dX(t) = -\frac{1}{\tau} X(t)dt + \sigma\sqrt{dt}\epsilon(t) + bdt \quad \tau, \sigma, t > 0$$
$$X_{i+1} = X_i e^{-\Delta t/\tau} + G\left[\sigma^2(1 - e^{-2\Delta t/\tau})\right] + b$$

- Characterized by variability amplitude and timescale
- Basis for stochastic models of variability
- Deviations noted (e.g., Mushotzky 2011, Zu et al. 2013, Graham et al. 2014)
- Degenerate model – can be best fit for a non-DRW process (Kozłowski 2016)



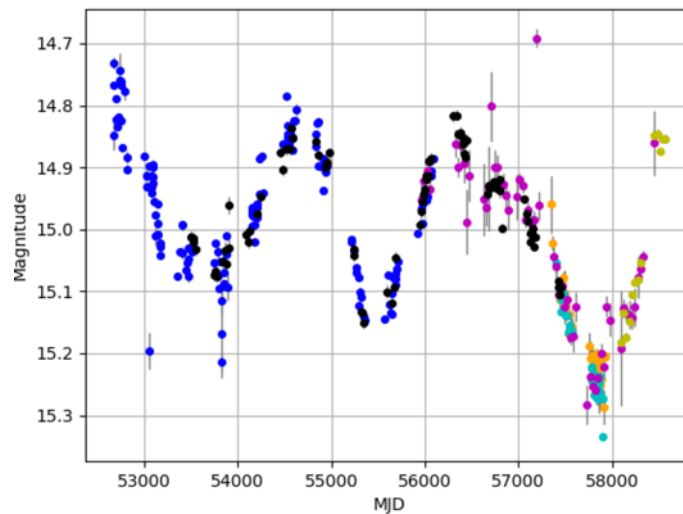
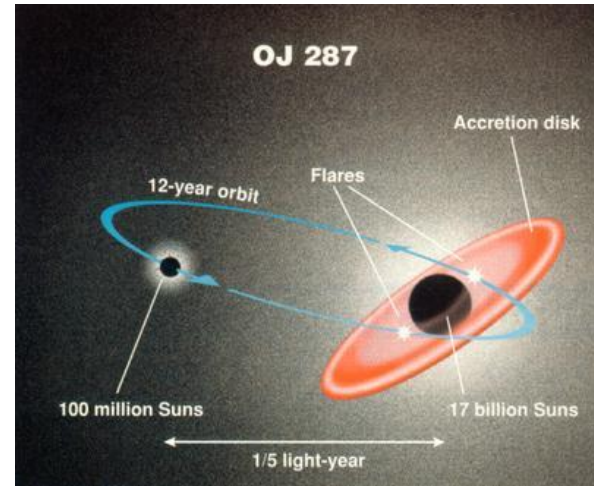
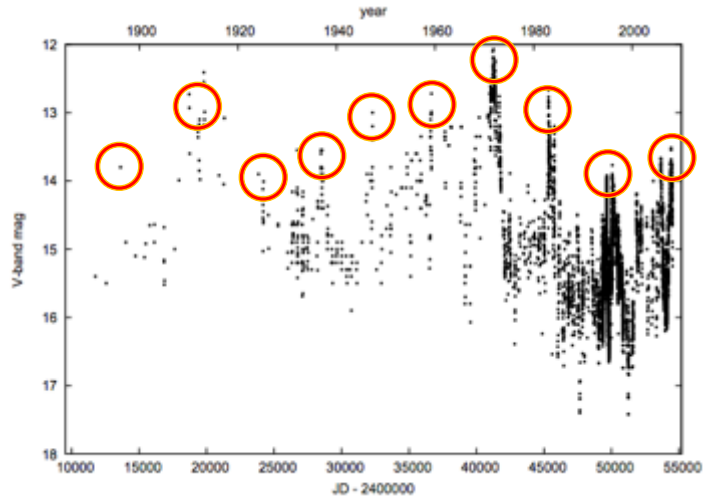
More autoregressive – CARMA(2,1)

$$d^2x + \alpha_1 d^1x + \alpha_2 x = \beta_0 z_t + \beta_1 z_{t-1}$$



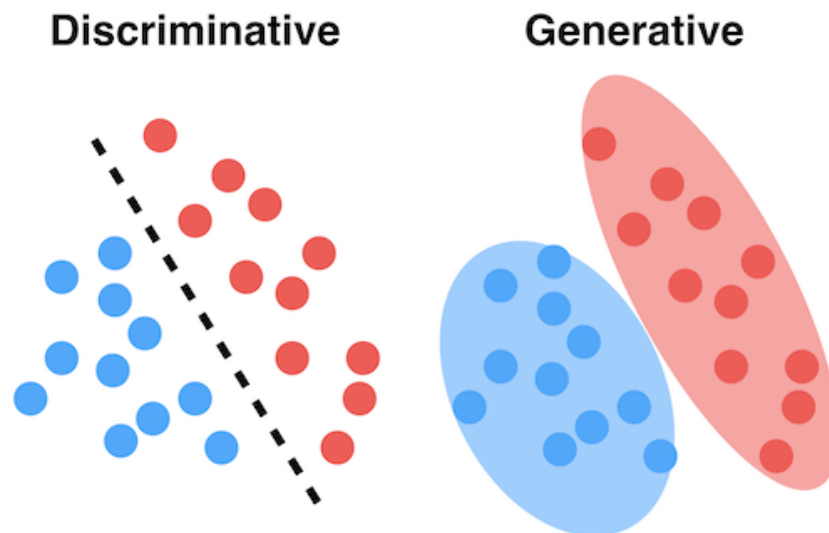
(Moreno et al. 2019)

Periodic quasars?



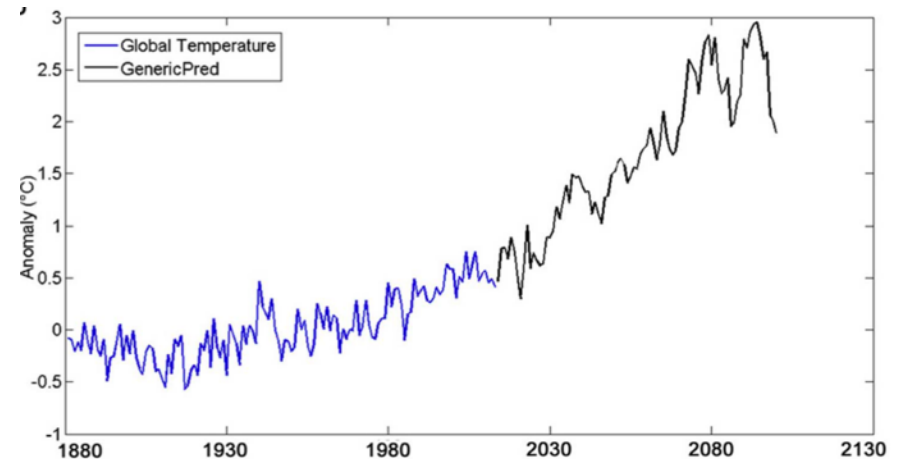
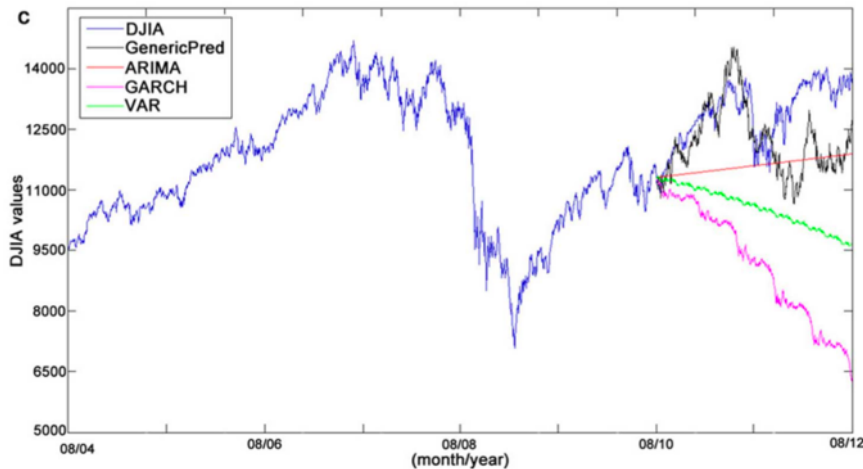
Generative vs. discriminative

- Current statistical models of variability are designed to discriminate between classes, e.g. stars/galaxies – $p(y|x)$
- Better to learn time series (shape) rather than determining some parameterizable form – $p(y, x)$
- Generative approach that supports predictions



Forecasting

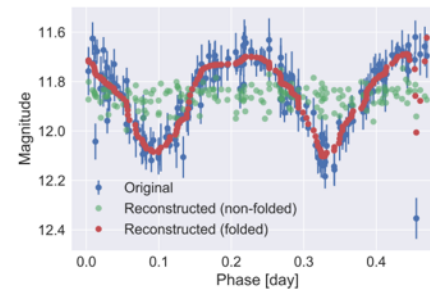
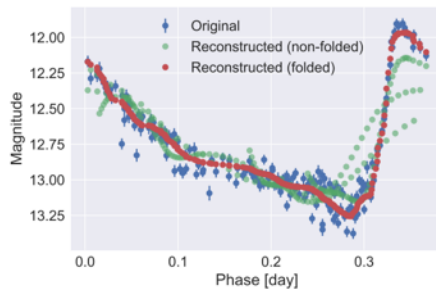
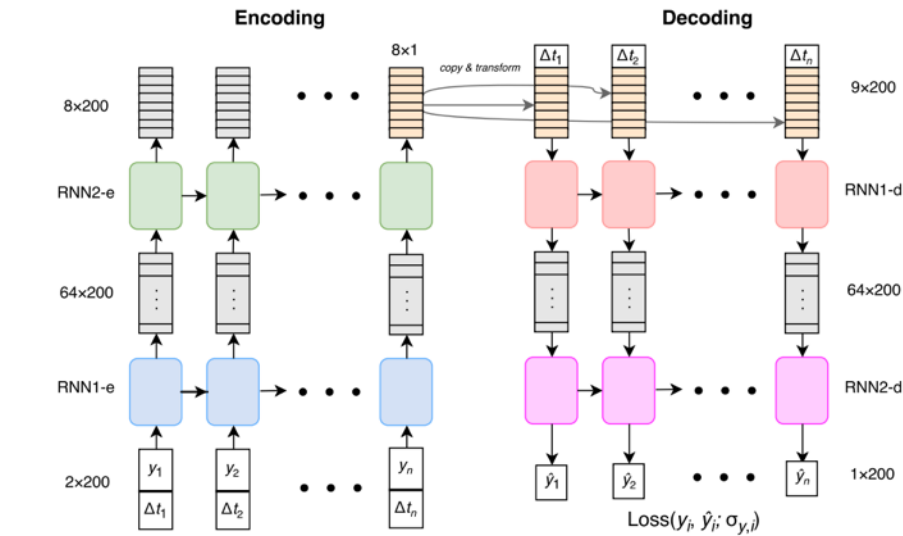
- Predicting periodic behavior is trivial
- Predict aperiodic (chaos or stochastic) behavior:
 - Stock market
 - Climate change
 - Epileptic seizures
 - Earthquakes
- ARIMA, ARFIMA, GARCH models
- Gaussian processes



(Golestani & Gras 2014)

Deep time series

- Learn features directly from the data
- Networks for sequential data



(Naul et al. 2018)

Summary

- Traditional time series analyses in astronomy involve:
 - (simple) discriminative features as (possible) inputs to machine learning algorithms
 - outlier detections based on Gaussian tails
 - little predictive power
- Data volumes now mean that we can *model individual* sources:
 - capturing full time series behavior
 - better identifying extrema
 - with generative approaches
- Next generation surveys enable real-time validation of predicted behaviors and swift identification of deviance

