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ESTIMATING THE SYSTEM ORDER BY SUBSPACE METHODS*

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Abstract

This paper discusses how to determine the order of a state-space model. To do so, we start by revising existing approaches and find in them three basic shortcomings: i) some of them have a poor performance in short samples, ii) most of them are not robust and iii) none of them can accommodate seasonality. We tackle the first two issues by proposing new and refined criteria. The third issue is dealt with by decomposing the system into regular and seasonal sub-systems. The performance of all the procedures considered is analyzed through Monte Carlo simulations.

Keywords: System order, State-space models, subspace methods, information criteria, seasonality

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1 Introduction

The order of a linear system is the number of dynamic components that must be combined to represent the data dynamics. Determining this value, also known as McMillan index, is critical in applied data modelling and, accordingly, there is an extensive literature about this subject which can be broken into two broad categories: i) preliminary data analysis, or *a priori* methods, and ii) model comparison procedures, also known as *a posteriori* methods.

The first group includes very different proposals. Some of them check whether the model dimension is too high using the condition number of the information matrix, see Stoica and Söderström (1982). Other authors, Cooper and Wood (1982), Tsay (1989), Tiao and Tsay (1989), estimate the system order using canonical correlations. In a recent paper, Toscano and Reisen (2000) revise and compare these methods. Aoki (1990) applies the same technique to state space models. Close to this approach, Bauer (2001) presents a subspace-based criterion to determine the system order, while Sorelius (1999) does it by testing the rank of a particular sample covariance matrix, see also Woodside (1971). Finally, other authors apply spectral techniques to fit an empirical transfer function, which points out what system orders are required to describe the data dynamics, see e.g., Wei (1990).

A posteriori methods typically rely on information criteria. Broadly speaking, they compare several alternative models by balancing their data fit, measured through the log-likelihood, with a penalty that depends on the sample size and a measure of model complexity. The pioneer criterion in this line is due to Akaike (1976), which seminal work motivated many other proposals such as those of Schwartz (1978) and Hannan and Quinn (1979).

When applied to economic time series, all these procedures share a basic shortcoming: they were not originally designed to cope with seasonality. On the other hand, Monte Carlo experiments reveal two additional weaknesses: (a) many procedures are not robust, meaning that their ability to choose the right system order depends critically of the dynamics of the data; and (b) some methods display a poor performance in short samples. According to this diagnostic, the contribution of this paper is threefold. First, we propose two refinements of the criteria suggested by Bauer (2001), designed to improve its finite-sample performance. Second, we present a simple automatic procedure that has a clear advantage in terms of robustness when compared with other methods. Last, we extend the use of any criterion to determine the order of the seasonal and regular sub-systems in multiplicative seasonal processes. The performance of all these proposals is analyzed through Monte Carlo simulations.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 defines the notation and introduces subspace estimation. The main order-determination procedures are reviewed in Section 3. Section 4 presents the main results of the paper. In Section 5 we discuss the performance of several methods by means of a simulation study. Finally, Section 6 provides some conclusions and indicates how to obtain a free MATLAB toolbox that implements all the algorithms proposed.

2 Model set and subspace estimation algorithms

Consider a linear fixed-coefficients system that can be described by the state space (SS) model,

$$\boldsymbol{x_{t+1}} = \boldsymbol{\Phi}\boldsymbol{x_t} + \boldsymbol{E}\boldsymbol{\psi_t} \tag{1a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{z_t} = \boldsymbol{H}\boldsymbol{x_t} + \boldsymbol{\psi_t}$$
 (1b)

where $\boldsymbol{x_t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a state vector and n denotes the true order of the system. $\boldsymbol{z_t} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is an observable output vector, $\boldsymbol{\psi_t} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is a white noise vector such that $\boldsymbol{\psi_t} \ iidN(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{Q})$ and $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\boldsymbol{E} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ and $\boldsymbol{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ are the parametric matrices of the system. The system is assumed to be stable and strictly minimumphase, so that all the eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$ and $(\boldsymbol{\Phi} - \boldsymbol{EH})$ lie inside the unit circle.

Many SS models have different errors in the transition and observation equations, as well as a coefficient matrix affecting the observation error. The innovations model (1a)-(1b) does not conform to this common specification, but is general in the sense that any fixed-coefficients SS model can be written in this specific form (see, Casals et al., 1999, Theorem 1). Also, no generality is lost by assuming that the model has no observable inputs, since any model with inputs can be decomposed into an input-related and an error-related model (see e.g., Chui and Chen, 1999).

Subspace methods derive from the representation (1a-1b) in matrix form. By

recursive substitution in (1a) we obtain,

$$x_t = \Phi^t x_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \Phi^j E \psi_{t-j-1}$$
 (2)

and substituting (2) into the observation equation (1b), we get:

$$\boldsymbol{z_t} = \boldsymbol{H} \boldsymbol{\Phi^t} \boldsymbol{x_0} + \boldsymbol{H} \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi^j} \boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{\psi_{t-j-1}} + \boldsymbol{\psi_t}$$
(3)

so the endogenous variable, z_t , depends on the initial state vector, x_0 , and the present and past innovations, ψ_t . Equation (3) can be written in matrix form as,

$$Z_i = O_i X_0 + V_i \Psi_i \tag{4}$$

where the subscript *i* is an integer that denotes the dimension of the row space of Z_i . This parameter may be set by the user or automatically chosen, depending on the specific subspace algorithm applied. In this work, we determine it using the rule $i = \max(4, h_t)$, being h_t the nearest integer to $\log T$. This is an heuristic rule supported by empirical experience, but our methods can be used with any other criterion to determine *i*.

Equation (4) requires the following matrices related to the data:

1) Block-Hankel Matrices (BHM): The dimension of the row space of these matrices are denoted by p and f, which stand, respectively, for the past and the future. The choice of these integers is discussed by Viberg (1995) and Peternell

et al. (1996). Here, for convenience and simplicity, we assume that p = f = i. Under these conditions, the output BHM would be given by:

$$Z_{p} = \begin{pmatrix} z_{0} & z_{1} & \dots & z_{T-2i} \\ z_{1} & z_{2} & \dots & z_{T-2i+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{i-1} & z_{i} & \dots & z_{T-i-1} \end{pmatrix}; \quad Z_{f} = \begin{pmatrix} z_{i} & z_{i+1} & \dots & z_{T-i} \\ z_{i+1} & z_{i+2} & \dots & z_{T-i+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{2i-1} & z_{2i} & \dots & z_{T-1} \end{pmatrix}$$
(5)

where z_0 is a vector of *m* components. In (4), Ψ_i is as Z_i but with ψ_t instead of z_t .

2) The state sequence, defined as $X_t = (x_t \ x_{t+1} \ x_{t+2} \ \dots \ x_{t+T-2i})$. The past and future state sequences beginning, respectively, at t = 0 and t = i, can also be written as $X_p = X_0$ and $X_f = X_i$.

On the other hand, equation (4) includes also the following matrices related to the parameters in model (1a-1b):

3) The Extended Observability Matrix, which is:

$$\boldsymbol{O}_{\boldsymbol{i}} = \left(\boldsymbol{H}' \quad (\boldsymbol{H}\boldsymbol{\Phi})' \quad (\boldsymbol{H}\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{2})' \quad \dots \quad (\boldsymbol{H}\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\boldsymbol{i}-1})'\right)' \in \mathbb{R}^{im \times n}$$
(6)

4) The lower block triangular Toeplitz matrix, defined as:

$$V_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} I_{m} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ HE & I_{m} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ H\Phi E & HE & I_{m} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ H\Phi^{i-2}E & H\Phi^{i-3}E & H\Phi^{i-4}E & \dots & I_{m} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{im \times im}$$
(7)

Due to the linearity of the system, the future state sequence can be written as $X_f = MZ_p$, where the rank of M is n, the true system order. Therefore, shifting time subscripts in (4) and, substituting X_f , by MZ_p , we obtain,

$$Z_f = O_i M Z_p + V_i \Psi_f \tag{8}$$

where Z_f , Z_p and Ψ_f are as in (5), and O_i and V_i are respectively as in (6) and (7).

Subspace methods estimate O_i , M and V_i in (8) by solving a reduced-rank weighted least square problem. This is typically done by means of the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD, Eckart and Young, 1936) of the product $W_1Z_fW_2$, being W_1 and W_2 two weighting matrices (see, e.g., Katayama, 2005). Then, an estimation of the parameter matrices in (1a-1b) can be straightforwardly obtained from O_i , M and V_i . Computing the SVD requires specifying the matrices W_1 , W_2 . The literature provides several methods to solve this issue. For instance, Larimore-type methods (Larimore, 1983, 1990) use the weighting matrices $W_1 = (Z_f Z'_f)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ and $W_2 = Z'_p (Z_p Z'_p)^{-1} Z_p$. In this work, we will also consider the weighting matrix $W_1 = (\tilde{Z}_f \tilde{Z}'_f)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, where \tilde{Z}_f are the residuals of regressing Z_f onto Z_p in a previous step.

3 An overview of some specification procedures

Estimating the dimension of the state vector, n, is not trivial, in particular when the sample is short. In this section we describe some criteria and test statistics that can be applied to this purpose, distinguishing between *a priori* and *a posteriori* methods. The difference between both approaches is in the need of estimating a model: the latter requires to do so while the former does not.

3.1 A priori methods

Tsay (1989) approaches order determination by testing the null hypothesis that the smallest canonical correlations $\hat{\sigma}_{n+1}, \hat{\sigma}_{n+2}, \ldots, \hat{\sigma}_{im}$ are zero. To do so, he suggests the statistic D(n), that can be straightforwardly adapted to subspace methods as:

$$D(n) = -(T - 2i + 1) \sum_{k=n+1}^{im} \log\left(1 - \frac{\hat{\sigma}_k^2}{\hat{d}_k}\right)$$
(9)

with

$$\hat{d}_k = 1 + 2\sum_{l=1}^{i} \hat{\rho}_{pk}(l)\hat{\rho}_{fk}(l)$$
(10)

where $\hat{\rho}_{fk}(l)$ and $\hat{\rho}_{pk}(l)$ are the sample *l*-order autocorrelations of the canonical variables (see Tsay, 1989). Subscripts *p* and *f* refer to the past and future blocks respectively. The term \hat{d}_k is related to the asymptotic variance of the estimated canonical correlation coefficients in a context of serial correlation. Tsay (1989) proves that, under $H_0: \hat{\sigma}_{n+1} = \hat{\sigma}_{n+2} = \ldots = \hat{\sigma}_{im} = 0$, the statistic D(n) follows a χ^2 distribution with 2(im - n) degrees of freedom.

In a subspace framework, some procedures use the SVD decomposition to estimate the rank of $W_1Z_fW_2$, which is the number of singular values statistically different from zero and coincides with the system order. In this line, Bauer (2001) proposes a criterion, called *SVC* or "Singular Value Criterion", to determine the smaller non-null singular value. The criterion is defined as:

$$SVC(n) = \hat{\sigma}_{n+1}^2 + C(T)d(n)$$
 (11)

where $\hat{\sigma}_{n+1}$ is the n + 1 singular value of $W_1 Z_f W_2$ and d(n) = 2nm denotes the number of parameters of a (1a-1b) system, excluding those in the error covariance matrix. Note that the singular values are denoted by $\sigma_j \forall j = 1, 2, ..., im$ as the canonical correlations. This notation is motivated by the fact that, when Larimore-type method are used, the weighting matrices W_1 , W_2 are such that the singular values of $W_1 Z_f W_2$ coincide with the canonical correlations between Z_p and Z_f . In that case, the idea is close to that of Tsay (1989).

Equation (11) compares the information contained in $\hat{\sigma}_{n+1}$, with a penalty function weighted by the number of parameters in the model. The estimated order is obtained as the argument that minimizes (11). C(T) must fulfill some requirements to assure the consistency of the method. Bauer (2001) shows that SVC with $C(T) = \log T/T$ outperforms several information criteria when relatively large samples are analyzed, but recognizes that the penalty function is somewhat arbitrary. The author also finds that the choice of the weighting matrix W_1 , used to solve the subspace reduced-rank regression, has a large impact on the performance of SVC in finite samples.

3.2 A posteriori methods

Other useful tools to determine the system order are the, so-called, information criteria. The well-known AIC (Akaike, 1976), SBC (Schwartz, 1978) or HQ (Hannan and Quinn, 1979) belong to this family. A general representation of all these criteria is:

$$IC(n) = \frac{-2\log l(n)}{T} + C(T)d(n)$$
(12)

where, l(n) and d(n) denote, respectively, the log-likelihood function value and the number of parameters corresponding to a system of order n. C(T) is again a penalty function that depends on the criterion. In AIC C(T) = 2/T, in SBC $C(T) = \log T/T$ and in HQ, $C(T) = 2\log \log T/T$.

These *a posteriori* procedures are ell known and widely employed, see recently Stoica et al. (2004) or Bengtsson and Cavanaugh (2006). In practice they have an important drawback, as they require estimating several models and, therefore, may be computationally expensive.

4 Main results

This section presents three criteria to determine the system order. Two of them are conceived to improve the performance of the SVC in small samples, while maintaining its consistency. The third one is devised to be more robust than alternative methods. Finally, we describe a method to determine the regular and seasonal orders in series with seasonal fluctuations.

4.1 Estimating the order of non-seasonal systems

To improve the performance of SVC we propose two enhancements: refining the choice of the weighting matrix and optimizing the penalty function through simulation.

The first improvement consists of substituting $W_1 = (Z_f Z'_f)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, hereafter Ω_1 , by $W_1 = (\tilde{Z}_f \tilde{Z}'_f)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, from now on Ω_2 , where \tilde{Z}_f contains the residuals of regressing Z_f onto Z_p in a previous step. This choice is supported by the fact that Ω_2 is the prediction error covariance matrix obtained from an autocorrelated noise term and therefore, as in generalized least squares, it should be an adequate weighting matrix. The choice of this weighting matrix will change the finite sample results of the procedure but its consistency will not be affected, provided that $rank(\Omega_2) \ge n$.

The second enhancement consists of using a refined penalty function, denoted by H(T, i), which depends not only on the sample size, but also on the dimension of the row space of the output BHM. Building on this idea, we define the criterion NIDC, which stands for "*n* identification criterion", as:

$$NIDC(n) = \hat{\sigma}_{n+1}^2 + H(T, i)d(n) \tag{13}$$

where, again, d(n) = 2nm denotes the number of parameters. To specify H(T, i)with good performance both, when $T \to \infty$ and also in finite samples, we build on the idea of Bengtsson and Cavanaugh (2006), who optimize the small sample performance of AIC-type criteria through Monte Carlo simulations.

In the following simulations, we will consider the data generating process (DGP) $z_t = a_t$, with $a_t \sim iidN(0, 1)$ and, accordingly, we will optimize the penalty criterion to check whether the DGP is white noise. These decisions are mitivated by the fact that the resulting criterion will be applied to a sequence of models, with increasing orders, until finding the minimum n which corresponding model filters the data autocorrelation to white noise residuals. On the other hand, choosing a white noise DGP has a secondary advantage, as the properties needed by NIDC to assure a consistent order estimation are straightforward. In this case, NIDC will determine $\hat{n} = 0$ instead of $\hat{n} = 1$, if NIDC(0) < NIDC(1), or substituting, if $\hat{\sigma}_1^2 < \hat{\sigma}_2^2 + 2H(T, i)$, since, in this particular case, d(n) = 2n. Rearranging terms we obtain, $(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 - \hat{\sigma}_2^2)/2 < H(T, i)$. Likewise, to obtain $\hat{n} = 0$ instead of $\hat{n} = 2$, it must fulfill, $(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 - \hat{\sigma}_3^2)/4 < H(T, i)$ and so on. Thus, we define ν_j as:

$$\nu_j = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_1^2 - \hat{\sigma}_{j+1}^2}{2j}$$

with j = 1, ..., i - 1. Therefore the optimal penalty term must be larger than ν_j assuring a correct performance of the criterion for this specific process.

[INSERT FIGURE 1]

Figure 1 shows that $H(T, i) = e^{-2}T^{-.9}i^{1.6}$ is an estimate of the lower bound below which one can find (by simulations) about the 95% of the realizations of ν_1 , a larger percentile of ν_2 and in general of ν_j for j = 3, ..., i - 1. As we can see in the Figure, $C(T) = \log T/T$ is systematically above H(T,i) in short samples, but the distance between them decreases when $T \to \infty$. This partially explains the different performance of both criteria in Section 5. Moreover, following the Proposition 4.1, the use of H(T, i) in *NIDC* can be extended to other DGPs.

Proposition 4.1 The penalty function $H(T, i) = e^{-2}T^{-.9}i^{1.6}$, that fits ν_1 , assures the almost sure consistency of the system order estimated by minimizing NIDC(n).

The proof is given in Appendix A.

By construction, *NIDC* tends to overestimate n in finite samples when compared to SVC, although both criteria lead to consistent estimation of the system order. Note that this is not a drawback since, as we will see in the simulations, SVC shows a significant underestimate bias in short samples. This happens because C(T) is systematically smaller than the 95 percentile of the realizations of ν_1 , see Figure 1. Moreover, provided that the sample size is reasonable, we think that overestimating is better than underestimating n, as further steps in modelbuilding may lead, through the pruning of insignificant parameters, to the correct dimension. In comparison, the standard diagnostics provided by estimation will not reveal the right dimension if the initial value is underestimated.

In any case, the performance of the different methods depends on the DGP and the sample size. This fact explains why there are so many procedures in the literature: none of them dominates systematically the rest and, as a consequence, the ability of each method to choose the right system order depends critically on the dynamics of the data. This lack of robustness motivates the idea of combining several methods, to avoid extreme (sometimes good, sometimes bad) performances. To this end, we suggest the following procedure:

- 1) Compute all (or a selection of) the criteria discussed in Sections 3 and 4: i) SVC_{Ω_2} , which is the Bauer's original SVC but computed with our weighting matrix $\tilde{Z}_f \tilde{Z}'_f$, ii) the proposed NICD, iii) AIC, SBC and HQ, and iv) the χ^2 test due to Tsay (1989). Despite the large number of criteria involved the computational cost is acceptable because, for each n, we only need to run a single least-squares subspace regression.
- 2) Set n̂ as the value chosen by most methods, i.e., the sample mode. The mode is not necessarily unique, as different values of n̂ can be chosen by the same number of methods. In this case, given our preference for overparametrization, we suggest picking the larger n̂.

As we will see in Section 5, this Mode-based Criterion (MbC) is robust and diversifies the risk of error when choosing the system order.

4.2 Estimating the order in seasonal systems

An important limitation of existing methods is that they cannot cope with multiplicative seasonal processes. To see this, consider the very common MA(1)× MA(1)_s process, where the seasonal frequency of the data is s = 12. In the best case, a standard order-determination method would choose $\hat{n} = 13$. In comparison, a seasonality-tolerant method, such as that of Box and Jenkins (1976), would choose two different orders: one for the regular subsystem and another one for the seasonal subsystem. We will denote these orders by n_r and n_s respectively. Obviously, none of the previously revised methods could provide this double choice.

To solve this issue, we propose decomposing the process (1a-1b) into a seasonal subsystem:

$$\boldsymbol{x_{t+s}^s} = \boldsymbol{\Phi_s x_t^s} + \boldsymbol{E_s r_t}$$
(14a)

$$\boldsymbol{z_t} = \boldsymbol{H_s} \boldsymbol{x_t^s} + \boldsymbol{r_t} \tag{14b}$$

and a regular subsystem:

$$\boldsymbol{x_{t+1}^r} = \boldsymbol{\Phi_r x_t^r} + \boldsymbol{E_r \psi_t}$$
(15a)

$$\boldsymbol{r_t} = \boldsymbol{H_r} \boldsymbol{x_t^r} + \boldsymbol{\psi_t}$$
 (15b)

and applying the methods previously described to determine the order of each subsystem. Note that these processes are defined in different frequencies, as x_t^s propagates in increments of s periods in (14a), while x_t^r propagates in increments of one period in (15a); r_t is an unobserved input of the seasonal subsystem (14a-14b) representing the regular structure of the original process. To estimate sequentially both subsystems, we assume that r_t is a white noise term in the s frequency, uncorrelated with $x_t^s \forall t$. To support this assumption, Appendix B shows that the expectation of $r_{t+j}r'_t$ for all j = s, 2s, ... converges to zero at a speed governed by the seasonal period s and the eigenvalues of Φ_r .

This approximation, which is exact when the regular system follows an MA(q)with q < s, allows us to estimate both subsystems using subspace methods. However, in (14a-14b) the states propagate in increments of s periods and, as a consequence, we cannot use the standard BHM defined in (5). This issue can be solved by defining the Seasonal Block Hankel Matrices (SBHM) of period s, as:

$$\boldsymbol{Z_{p}^{s}} = \begin{pmatrix} z_{1} & \dots & z_{T-s(2i-1)} \\ z_{s+1} & \dots & z_{T-s(2i-2)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{s(i-1)+1} & \dots & z_{T-si} \end{pmatrix}; \quad \boldsymbol{Z_{f}^{s}} = \begin{pmatrix} z_{si+1} & \dots & z_{T-s(i-1)} \\ z_{s(i+1)+1} & \dots & z_{T-s(i-2)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ z_{s(2i-1)+1} & \dots & z_{T} \end{pmatrix}$$
(16)

Note that these matrices are analogous to the standard ones, although the time indices in each row are adapted to the seasonal period. Similarly, we denote both, the past and future-seasonal information blocks by Z_p^s and Z_f^s respectively. Building on these matrices, one can estimate the seasonal parameters and, accordingly, the order of the seasonal subsystem, n_s , by applying any subspace method to the seasonal regression model:

$$Z_f^s = O_i^s M^s Z_p^s + V_i^s \Psi_f^s$$
⁽¹⁷⁾

instead of the standard subspace regression (8).

This generalization of conventional subspace methods allows us to apply the procedures discussed in Sections 3 and 4.1 to determine the seasonal and regular orders, by means of the following structured method:

1) Create the SBHM and compute the seasonal order \hat{n}_s by applying the procedures previously described to the seasonal subsystem (14a-14b).

- 2) Estimate the seasonal subsystem, conditional to the choice done in step 1), using e.g., the techniques shown in Section 2. Compute the residuals of this subsystem, \hat{r}_t .
- 3) Determine the order of the regular subsystem, \hat{n}_r , by applying standard methods to \hat{r}_t .

Note that if SVD methods $(SVC_{\Omega_1}, SVC_{\Omega_2} \text{ or } NIDC)$ are applied to determine the system orders, the seasonal subsystem (14a-14b) does not need to be estimated, as \hat{n}_s can be directly obtained from $W_1Z_f^sW_2$, where W_1 and W_2 are as in Section 2 but replacing Z_p by Z_p^s and Z_f by Z_f^s .

The order of steps 1) to 3) in the previous procedure could be reversed, to determine first \hat{n}_r and, afterwards, \hat{n}_s . However this is not advisable because: i) in series with a short seasonal period, e.g. quarterly data with s = 4, it would be difficult to determine the correct regular order in the first step, and ii) the choice of \hat{n}_r is often more complex than that of \hat{n}_s , increasing the chance to contaminate the second decision with the effects of a previous specification error.

5 Monte Carlo results

This section analyzes the performance of several criteria by simulating univariate and multivariate models. Tables 1 to 8 show the percentage of replications where each criterion chose n and the contiguous dimensions, n - 1 and n + 1 in nonseasonal processes, while Tables 9 and 10 offer the relative frequency of hits in two seasonal models. In all cases, we discard the first 50 draws of each replication to improve randomization. Each table shows the results obtained using SVC_{Ω_2} , NICD, AIC, SBC, HQ, the χ^2 test and MbC. Additionally, SVC_{Ω_1} , as presented in Bauer (2001), is included.

The specific formulations employed in this exercise have been chosen to show how any individual criterion may perform both, very well and badly, depending on the dynamic structure of the DGP and the sample size.

On the other hand, the univariate GDPs assumed in the first five tables show a sequence of common nonseasonal ARMA models, with increasingly complex dynamic structures. Accordingly, the white noise DGP in Table 1 is followed by an AR(1) process with low persistence, a strong MA(1) structure, an AR(2) with complex roots in Table 4 and, finally, an ARMA(2,1) in Table 5. These basic results are supplemented by the three vector processes assumed in tables 6, 7 and 8, being the last two of them taken from the literature. The last two processes were chosen to illustrate the performance of the proposed decomposition for seasonal processes. The model in Table 9 adds a seasonal MA(1) term to the AR(2) with complex roots that was previously assumed and, finally, the model in Table 10 is a somewhat artificial combination of different seasonal factors, that we specified to show how our decomposition procedure is able to cope with multiple periods.

Table 1 shows that the best estimates are provided by SBC. In this case there is no risk of underestimation, as the DGP is a white noise, so SVC_{Ω_1} dominates our two alternative criteria which, in small samples tend to overestimate n. The second model considered is an autoregressive process with small persistence. This structure deteriorates the performance of all the methods. In this case: i) *AIC* displays the best performance for almost every sample size, ii) SVC_{Ω_2} and *NIDC* widely dominate SVC_{Ω_1} and iii) assuming that a small overparametrization can lead to an adequate model in next steps, *NIDC* shows remarkable results in very small samples. The DGP M3 has also n = 1, but the moving average parameter is large enough to improve the outcomes of all the methods. Again *SBC* exhibits the best behavior, reaching the asymptotic value with a moderate sample size.

Table 4 displays the results obtained with an autoregressive model with complex roots. This time NIDC beats the rest of the methods for almost all the samples analyzed. Surprisingly, SBC presents the worst results, with less than 10% of correct estimates even with a large sample.

The DGP M5 is an ARMA(2,1) model with complex roots, so its order is again 2. Including a moving average term improves substantially the results provided by all the methods. Again, NIDC and AIC show the best behavior in small and large samples, respectively.

Table 6 summarizes the results obtained with a bivariate VARMA(1,1) process, with n = 2. One of the series has an autoregressive term close to be cancelled out by a moving average root. The performance, which is good in all cases for large samples, is very heterogeneous in small samples. SVC_{Ω_1} tends to underestimate n, while this is corrected in SVC_{Ω_2} and NIDC that clearly dominate it when $T \leq 100.$

Tables 7 and 8 display the results corresponding to two trivariate VARMA(1,1) models, with n = 3. In both cases, we omit the smaller sample sizes due to the complexity of the systems. The first one, M7, is taken from Koreisha and Pukkila (1989). The results obtained are similar to those of previous cases, but the differences in performance are amplified by the increased complexity of the order selection problem. SVC_{Ω_1} shows a clear bias towards underestimation and does not find any $\hat{n} = n - 1$ even when $T \leq 100$. Its enhanced versions produce much better results, as NIDC and SVC_{Ω_2} show a reasonably good behavior. Note, also, that MbC presents remarkably good results. The second process, M8, is taken from Reinsel et al. (1992). The results are better than those of Table 7, because the structure of M7 is closer to a lower-order representation. In this case the χ^2 test beats all the criteria when $T \leq 100$, and all the methods behave well when the sample is large.

Tables 9 and 10 present two seasonal models. Here we are interested in assessing their performance when combined with the method described in Section 4.2. In both models the sample sizes are increased to represent the typical size of a seasonal data sample. The orders are estimated by following the stages stated in Section 4.2, using MbC to obtain the residuals in step 2).

M9 adds to M4 a monthly MA(1) term. In this case all the methods compared behave well, although the χ^2 test has some difficulties when T = 100. In the second step, the results are similar to those in Table 4. This suggests that the method employed to determine the seasonal order does not distort the estimation of the regular order.

Model M10 has multiple seasonal factors at frequencies 3, 9 and 36. This could happen, for instance, with financial data observed once each 10 days. Table 10 reveals: i) the remarkable performance of SBC in these models, and ii) the outstanding ability our decomposition to estimate the seasonal order in each frequency, in combination with all the criteria considered. Note that, when using a posteriori criteria, we have estimated only 12 models as we have tried $n_s = 0, 1, 2$ for each factor. On the other hand, if we search the dynamic of this data using the same methods over the currently BHM, we should estimate, at least, 50 models as 49 is the order of the original process.

Previous results support the consistency of all the methods compared and also provide specific clues about their specific performance.

Criteria based on SVD. In small samples the performance of SVC_{Ω_1} is worst than that of SVC_{Ω_2} and NIDC. This difference is even more remarkable in multivariate processes. Note also that NIDC is often the best method when the persistence is small.

Information Criteria. The information criteria considered display different performances. AIC occasionally overestimates n in univariate process but provides good enough results with multivariate DGPs (see Gonzalo and Pitarakis, 2002). SBC is one of the best options in both, univariate and multivariate processes, when the sample is large and/or the parameters persistent enough. Nevertheless, it shows the worst performance with low-persistence DGPs. HQ displays an intermediate performance: i) better than SBC (but worst than AIC) in low-persistence AR processes or when there are AR and MA factors close to cancellation, but ii) worst than SBC (better than AIC) in other cases.

 χ^2 test. The χ^2 test shows poor results in small samples, improving substantially as the sample size grows. In univariate process it is not the best option while in multivariate systems its performance improves remarkably.

Mode-based criterion. This procedure is very robust, as it is never the worst option, but sometimes is the best (see Table 7, $T \ge 300$). In our opinion, this should be the method-of-choice for automatic implementations useful, e.g., when the analyst has to work with a large set of series.

6 Conclusions

This paper discusses how can one estimate the order of a SS process using subspace methods. These methods are powerful, flexible and computationally efficient.

Our first contribution consists of proposing two new criteria that improve the small-sample performance of Bauer (2001) SVC method. Second, we propose an automatic model-building procedure based on the sample mode of several methods. A simulation analysis confirms that the mode-based procedure is more robust than any specific criterion. Last, we extend the use of any criterion to processes

with seasonality. Monte Carlo results show that the resulting criteria display a remarkable performance, even in a complex multiple seasonality framework.

In comparison with the popular VAR approach, which is very close to ours in terms of simplicity and computational efficiency, the methodology illustrated here has pros and cons. On the minus side, the rank-deficient GLS regressions required by subspace methods are more complex than OLS or GLS VAR. However it has two clear advantages over VAR, as it: i) supports seasonal time series and ii) is intrinsically more parsimonious, as it looks for the right system order by increasing the dimension of the state vector one-by-one. To clarify this remark, consider e.g., a vector of m time series and the decision to increase the order of a VAR(p) model to VAR(p +1). To do so implies increasing the dimension of the state vector by adding m new states, while our method would try all the possible choices in the sequence of 1, 2, m additional states.

The algorithms described in this article are implemented in a MATLAB toolbox for time series modeling called E^4 . The source code of this toolbox is freely provided under the terms of the GNU General Public License and can be downloaded at www.ucm.es/info/icae/e4. This site also provides a complete user manual for the Toolbox and other reference materials.

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Appendix A

Proof. The conditions on the penalty function that are sufficient for the almost sure consistency of the order estimated by minimizing (13) are: 1) H(T,i)T > 0, 2) $H(T,i) \rightarrow 0$ and, 3) $H(T,i)T/(i^2 \log \log T) \rightarrow \infty$, when $T \rightarrow \infty$ (see Bauer, 2001, Theorem 3).

Although in practice we implement $i = \max(4, h_t)$, being h_t the integer closer to log T, in sections 2) and 3) of this proof we consider, without lost of generality, that $i = \log T$. Let $H(T, i) = aT^{-b}i^c$ with $a = e^{-2}$, b = .9 and c = 1.6, under these conditions:

1) It is straightforward to see that,

$$H(T,i)T = aT^{-b+1}i^c > 0, \quad \forall T > 0$$

2) The limit,

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} aT^{-b} (\log T)^c = \frac{a(\log T)^c}{T^b}$$

converges to the indeterminate $\frac{\infty}{\infty}.$ Applying twice L'Hôpital rule we obtain,

$$\lim_{T\to\infty}\frac{ac(c-1)(\log T)^{c-2}}{b^2T^b}=0$$

and as the numerator tends to zero and the denominator to infinity, we get:

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} H(T, i) = 0$$

3) Finally,

$$\frac{H(T,i)T}{i^2\log\log T} = \frac{aT^{-b+1}(\log T)^{c-2}}{\log\log T}$$

where the numerator can be written as,

$$aT^{-b+1}(\log T)^{c-2} = \frac{a(\log T)^{c-2}}{T^{b-1}}$$

that gives the indeterminate $\frac{0}{0}.$ By L'Hôpital we get,

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{a(-b+1)T^{-b+3}}{(-c+2)(\log T)^{-c+1}} = \infty$$

and therefore both, the numerator and the denominator, tend to infinity. We can then apply L'Hôpital to the initial limit, obtaining:

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{aT^{-b+1}(\log T)^{c-2}}{\log \log T} = \lim_{T \to \infty} aT^{1-b} \left[(1-b)(\log T)^{c-1} + (c-2)(\log T)^{c-2} \right] = \infty$$

Appendix B

By recursive substitution in (15a) and shifting time subscripts, the regular subsystem (15a-15b) can be expressed as:

$$x_{t+s}^r = \Phi_r^{s-1} x_{t+1}^r + \sum_{j=0}^s \Phi_r^j E_r \psi_{t+s-j-1}$$
 (A.1a)

$$\boldsymbol{r}_{t+s} = \boldsymbol{H}_{\boldsymbol{r}} \boldsymbol{x}_{t+s}^{\boldsymbol{r}} + \boldsymbol{\psi}_{t+s}$$
 (A.1b)

From these two equations, it is easy to see that:

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{r}_{t+s}\mathbf{r}_{t}'] = \mathbf{E}[(\mathbf{H}_{r}\mathbf{x}_{t+s}^{r} + \psi_{t+s})\mathbf{r}_{t}'] = \mathbf{H}_{r}\Phi_{r}^{s-1}\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{x}_{t+1}^{r}\mathbf{r}_{t}']$$
(A.2)

where $E[\cdot]$ is the mathematical expectation. Since z_t is stationary, and as a consequence all the eigenvalues of Φ_r are inside the unit circle, then, provided that s is large enough, we will assume that:

$$\mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{r_{t+j}r_t'}] \simeq \mathbf{0}, \quad \forall j = s, 2s, \dots$$
(A.3)

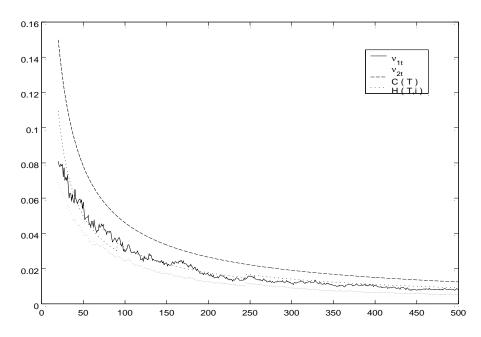


Figure 1: Estimated penalty function of NIDC. ν_1 and ν_2 are computed using the singular values obtained as the 95 percentile of 2000 simulations of the univariate model $z_t = a_t$. H(T,i) is the lost function fitted to ν_1 , proposed in NIDC. C(T) is the penalty term suggested in Bauer (2001).

M1 $(n = 0)$: $z_t = a_t, a_t \sim iidN(0, 1).$									
Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC	
	$\hat{n} = n$								
30	0.945	0.812	0.703	0.828	0.965	0.846	0.948	0.899	
50	0.948	0.850	0.726	0.816	0.979	0.889	0.950	0.919	
100	0.918	0.862	0.797	0.768	0.975	0.908	0.955	0.927	
300	0.905	0.889	0.867	0.722	<u>0.990</u>	0.944	0.939	0.948	
500	0.934	0.919	0.892	0.711	<u>0.993</u>	0.947	0.950	0.953	
			\hat{n} =	= n + 1					
30	0.053	0.152	0.250	0.156	0.035	0.141	0.040	0.098	
50	0.050	0.132	0.266	0.172	0.020	0.115	0.031	0.065	
100	0.075	0.118	0.184	0.203	0.025	0.092	0.036	0.057	
300	0.083	0.096	0.110	0.239	0.010	0.055	0.042	0.041	
500	0.059	0.071	0.092	0.239	0.007	0.063	0.034	0.031	

Table 1: System order estimates, M1 model *.

	$M2(n = 1): (1 - 0.2B)z_t = a_t, a_t \sim MaN(0, 1).$								
Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC	
	$\hat{n} = n - 1$								
30	0.913	0.801	0.384	0.680	0.866	0.682	0.878	0.721	
50	0.861	0.728	0.445	0.551	0.818	0.672	0.841	0.657	
100	0.782	0.676	0.498	0.314	0.697	0.521	0.729	0.532	
300	0.486	0.415	0.373	0.037	0.273	0.130	0.246	0.212	
500	0.243	0.204	0.166	0.007	0.081	0.027	0.051	0.078	
			$\hat{n} = \hat{n}$	n					
30	0.086	0.185	0.385	0.315	0.134	0.305	0.098	0.272	
50	0.133	0.244	0.395	0.435	0.182	0.311	0.127	0.324	
100	0.204	0.290	0.408	<u>0.649</u>	0.301	0.470	0.238	0.446	
300	0.490	0.548	0.575	<u>0.916</u>	0.724	0.849	0.713	0.771	
500	0.724	0.757	0.778	0.967	0.915	0.961	0.906	0.922	
			$\hat{n} = n \cdot$	+1					
30	0.001	0.014	0.211	0.005	0.0	0.013	0.019	0.016	
50	0.006	0.027	0.115	0.013	0.0	0.017	0.026	0.019	
100	0.013	0.033	0.081	0.036	0.002	0.009	0.023	0.019	
300	0.020	0.036	0.047	0.043	0.003	0.021	0.027	0.015	
500	0.032	0.039	0.054	0.024	0.004	0.012	0.029	0.025	

Table 2: System order estimates, M2 model*. M2(n = 1): $(1 - 0.2B)z_t = a_t$, $a_t \sim iidN(0, 1)$.

$MIS(n = 1): \ z_t = (1 - 0.8D)a_t, a_t \sim maN(0, 1).$								
Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC
	$\hat{n} = n - 1$							
30	0.179	0.032	0.021	0.021	0.057	0.025	0.284	0.020
50	0.019	0.001	0.0	0.0	0.006	0.0	0.018	0.0
100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
300	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
500	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
			$\hat{n} = \hat{n}$	n				
30	0.793	0.819	0.761	0.932	<u>0.934</u>	0.929	0.676	0.919
50	0.929	0.850	0.767	0.932	<u>0.988</u>	0.978	0.946	0.960
100	0.941	0.907	0.813	0.935	<u>0.998</u>	0.981	0.965	0.967
300	0.949	0.934	0.918	0.915	1.0	0.984	0.971	0.973
500	0.954	0.944	0.931	0.909	1.0	0.981	0.966	0.980
			$\hat{n} = n \cdot$	+1				
30	0.027	0.124	0.166	0.045	0.009	0.041	0.03	0.055
50	0.048	0.120	0.171	0.067	0.006	0.022	0.017	0.029
100	0.052	0.076	0.126	0.063	0.002	0.019	0.012	0.034
300	0.044	0.053	0.062	0.082	0.0	0.016	0.013	0.019
500	0.040	0.047	0.053	0.090	0.0	0.019	0.01	0.014

Table 3: System order estimates, M3 model^{*}. M3(n = 1): $z_t = (1 - 0.8B)a_t$, $a_t \sim iidN(0, 1)$.

	M4(n =	= 2): (1 -	0.4B + 0.	$(3B^2)z_t =$	$= a_t, a_t$	$u_t \sim iid$	N(0, 1).	
Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC
	$\hat{n} = n - 1$							
30	0.247	0.419	0.415	0.652	0.441	0.628	0.257	0.563
50	0.439	0.555	0.480	0.800	0.673	0.803	0.520	0.664
100	0.653	0.640	0.517	0.814	0.939	0.909	0.767	0.756
300	0.487	0.445	0.401	0.460	0.958	0.796	0.464	0.527
500	0.290	0.263	0.233	0.229	0.908	0.605	0.204	0.249
			\hat{n}	n = n				
30	0.026	0.147	0.326	0.085	0.022	0.062	0.082	0.110
50	0.079	0.179	0.376	0.126	0.018	0.049	0.111	0.167
100	0.199	0.283	0.402	0.182	0.019	0.081	0.157	0.216
300	0.500	0.532	0.567	0.539	0.042	0.204	0.481	0.463
500	0.689	0.710	0.728	0.771	0.092	0.395	0.738	0.738
			\hat{n} =	= n + 1				
30	0.0	0.006	0.039	0.002	0.0	0.0	0.012	0.009
50	0.001	0.005	0.053	0.001	0.0	0.0	0.021	0.006
100	0.004	0.015	0.043	0.003	0.0	0.0	0.023	0.004
300	0.013	0.023	0.032	0.001	0.0	0.0	0.055	0.010
500	0.021	0.027	0.038	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.058	0.013

Table 4: System order estimates, M4 model*. M4(n-2): $(1-0AB+0B^2)^2 = a_1 - a_2 = a_1 + iidN(0,1)$

M5	(n = 2):	(1 - 0.4B)	$+0.3B^{2})z$	$z_t = (1 - 1)^{-1}$	-0.7B)a	a_t, a_t	$\sim iidN($	(0, 1).
Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC
	$\hat{n} = n - 1$							
30	0.337	0.461	0.363	0.444	0.256	0.386	0.243	0.393
50	0.589	0.588	0.360	0.483	0.481	0.510	0.478	0.524
100	0.611	0.502	0.353	0.280	0.675	0.429	0.604	0.408
300	0.168	0.129	0.115	0.015	0.204	0.051	0.152	0.060
500	0.038	0.030	0.021	0.001	0.032	0.008	0.017	0.008
			$\hat{n} = \hat{n}$	n				
30	0.069	0.252	0.449	0.294	0.081	0.286	0.136	0.289
50	0.186	0.321	0.516	0.459	0.146	0.402	0.229	0.394
100	0.365	0.469	0.581	<u>0.712</u>	0.310	0.571	0.341	0.587
300	0.802	0.837	0.835	<u>0.973</u>	0.796	0.947	0.802	0.929
500	0.931	0.928	0.927	0.997	0.968	0.992	0.935	0.984
			$\hat{n} = n \cdot$	+1				
30	0.0	0.007	0.066	0.004	0.0	0.013	0.026	0.011
50	0.0	0.008	0.092	0.003	0.0	0.014	0.023	0.009
100	0.008	0.027	0.069	0.008	0.0	0.012	0.026	0.008
300	0.028	0.031	0.044	0.011	0.0	0.015	0.021	0.011
500	0.029	0.040	0.047	0.002	0.0	0.004	0.022	0.008

Table 5: System order estimates, M5 model^{*}.

	M6(n = 2): $(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{\Phi}B)\mathbf{Z}_t = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{\Theta}B)\mathbf{a}_t, \mathbf{a}_t \sim iidN(0, \mathbf{\Sigma}_a)$								
	$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} -0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$0.4 0 \\ 0 -0.8$	$\Big);{oldsymbol \Theta}=\Big($	-0.7 -0.3 -	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5\\ -0.7 \end{pmatrix};$	$\Sigma_{a} = igg($	$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{array}$)	
Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC	
			$\hat{n} = n \cdot$	- 1					
30	0.002	0.355	0.287	0.519	0.536	0.581	0.540	0.614	
50	0.068	0.491	0.358	0.517	0.702	0.632	0.699	0.665	
100	0.432	0.323	0.196	0.302	0.701	0.501	0.554	0.410	
300	0.007	0.002	0.002	0.005	0.249	0.078	0.054	0.012	
500	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.035	0.0	0.005	0.001	
			$\hat{n} = \hat{n}$	n					
30	0.0	0.311	0.329	0.270	0.080	0.203	0.097	0.201	
50	0.001	0.354	0.429	0.379	0.137	0.275	0.171	0.275	
100	0.199	0.611	0.655	0.617	0.290	0.470	0.414	0.555	
300	0.975	0.957	0.943	0.885	0.751	0.909	0.825	0.970	
500	0.982	0.972	0.958	0.896	0.965	<u>0.992</u>	0.851	0.984	
			$\hat{n} = n \cdot$	+1					
30	0.0	0.183	0.224	0.081	0.008	0.031	0.007	0.033	
50	0.0	0.072	0.143	0.084	0.003	0.026	0.011	0.021	
100	0.001	0.047	0.112	0.071	0.001	0.027	0.024	0.035	
300	0.018	0.040	0.053	0.106	0.0	0.014	0.119	0.018	
500	0.018	0.028	0.040	0.098	0.0	0.002	0.148	0.015	

Table 6: System order estimates, M6 model^{*}. M6(n = 2): $(I + \Phi B)Z_t = (I + \Theta B)a_t, \quad a_t \sim iidN(0, \Sigma)$

	Table 7: System order estimates, M7 model*.								
	M7(n = 3): $(I + \Phi B)Z_t = (I + \Theta B)a_t$, $a_t \sim iidN(0, \Sigma_a)$								
Φ		$ \begin{array}{ccc} -0.7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -0 \end{array} $	$\begin{pmatrix} 0\\ 0\\ .4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \mathbf{\epsilon}$	$\mathbf{\Phi} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{array}{ccc} 1.1 \\ -0.6 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\.5 \end{pmatrix}; \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\delta}}$	$a = \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)$		$\begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.4 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
	Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC
				$\hat{n} = n$	- 1				
	50	0.0	0.232	0.274	0.362	0.644	0.604	0.344	0.535
	100	0.0	0.485	0.484	0.215	0.678	0.399	0.298	0.382
	300	0.164	0.026	0.020	0.0	0.043	0.004	0.003	0.006
	500	0.001	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
				$\hat{n} = \hat{n}$	n				
	50	0.0	0.353	0.429	0.345	0.149	0.276	0.330	0.334
	100	0.0	0.448	0.449	0.638	0.317	0.590	<u>0.641</u>	0.594
	300	0.836	0.965	0.966	0.954	0.957	0.962	0.943	<u>0.991</u>
	500	0.997	0.995	0.992	0.968	<u>1.0</u>	0.999	0.945	<u>1.0</u>
				$\hat{n} = n \cdot$	+1				
	50	0.0	0.270	0.246	0.178	0.013	0.052	0.023	0.099
	100	0.0	0.060	0.060	0.125	0.0	0.010	0.031	0.024
	300	0.0	0.009	0.014	0.044	0.0	0.004	0.047	0.003
	500	0.002	0.005	0.008	0.031	0.0	0.001	0.051	0.0

	Table 8: System order estimates, M8 model [⋆] .								
	$M8(n = 3): (\boldsymbol{I} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}B)\boldsymbol{Z_t} = (\boldsymbol{I} + \boldsymbol{\Theta}B)\boldsymbol{a_t}, \boldsymbol{a_t} \sim iidN(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma_a})$								
Φ =	= (-	$\begin{array}{rrr} 0.4 & -0.3 \\ 0 & -0.8 \\ 0.3 & 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.6 \\ -0.4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\mathbf{\Theta} = \begin{pmatrix} - & - & - & - & - & - & - & - & - & -$	-0.7 (-0.1 -(0.4 -($\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 0 \\ 0.2 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0.1 \end{array}$	$); \Sigma_a =$	$= \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 0.5\\ 0.4 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.4 \\ 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.7 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
	Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC
				$\hat{n} = n$	- 1				
	50	0.0	0.199	0.228	0.257	0.658	0.440	0.284	0.345
	100	0.002	0.314	0.311	0.055	0.295	0.110	0.057	0.116
	300	0.025	0.002	0.001	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	500	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
				$\hat{n} = \hat{n}$	n				
	50	0.0	0.380	0.429	0.428	0.264	0.490	<u>0.602</u>	0.547
	100	0.0	0.607	0.608	0.789	0.700	0.869	<u>0.908</u>	0.861
	300	0.971	0.978	0.974	0.979	<u>0.999</u>	0.998	0.966	0.992
	500	0.998	0.987	0.983	0.987	<u>1.0</u>	0.999	0.961	0.997
				$\hat{n} = n$	+1				
	50	0.0	0.286	0.270	0.226	0.026	0.068	0.047	0.101
	100	0.0	0.071	0.073	0.123	0.005	0.021	0.033	0.023
	300	0.004	0.020	0.025	0.021	0.001	0.002	0.034	0.008
	500	0.002	0.013	0.017	0.013	0.0	0.001	0.038	0.003

М	$9(n_r =$	$= 2, n_s =$	1): $(1 - 0)$	0.4B + 0.3	$B^2)z_t =$	(1 - 0.0)	$(6B^s)a_t,$	$a_t \sim i$	idN(0,1).
	Т	SVC_{Ω_1}	SVC_{Ω_2}	NIDC	AIC	SBC	HQ	χ^2	MbC
				$\hat{n}_s = n_s,$	s = 4				
	30	0.453	0.634	0.734	<u>0.816</u>	0.569	0.747	0.470	0.690
	50	0.771	0.842	0.786	0.954	0.887	0.943	0.664	0.905
	100	0.925	0.897	0.819	0.952	<u>0.996</u>	0.985	0.888	0.961
	300	0.916	0.896	0.876	0.943	1.0	0.991	0.884	0.960
	500	0.920	0.907	0.883	0.943	1.0	0.996	0.890	0.962
				$\hat{n}_r = n_r,$	s = 4				
	30	0.020	0.121	0.288	0.065	0.011	0.037	0.071	0.061
	50	0.041	0.117	0.314	0.068	0.009	0.031	0.104	0.071
	100	0.133	0.197	0.331	0.122	0.009	0.043	0.142	0.120
	300	0.415	0.457	0.497	0.443	0.021	0.152	0.467	0.400
	500	0.651	0.673	0.712	0.703	0.061	0.329	<u>0.747</u>	0.654
				$\hat{n}_s = n_s, s$	s = 12				
	100	0.969	0.972	0.960	0.984	0.992	<u>0.996</u>	0.460	0.988
	300	0.944	0.935	0.930	0.971	1.0	0.996	0.878	0.972
	500	0.946	0.938	0.931	0.942	<u>1.0</u>	0.998	0.894	0.975
				$\hat{n}_r = n_r, s$	s = 12				
	100	0.181	0.264	0.401	0.162	0.023	0.071	0.205	0.187
	300	0.495	0.529	0.562	0.487	0.040	0.192	0.536	0.476
	500	0.712	0.733	0.762	0.759	0.089	0.396	<u>0.802</u>	0.753

Table 9: System orders estimates, M9 model^{*}.

$M10(n_{36} = 1, n_9 = 1, n_3 = 1, n_1 = 1):$ $z_t = (1 - 0.6B)(1 - 0.5B^3)(1 - 0.4B^9)(1 - 0.3B^{36})a_t, a_t \sim ii$	$\frac{dN(0,1)}{MbC}$
	· · · /
T = CVCI = CVCI = MIDCI = AICI = CDCI = IICI = -2	MbC
T SVC_{Ω_1} SVC_{Ω_2} NIDC AIC SBC HQ χ^2	
$\hat{n}_{36} = n_{36}$	
$400 0.890 0.887 0.879 0.947 0.981 \underline{0.984} 0.57$	3 0.939
$600 0.902 0.888 0.866 0.955 \underline{0.997} 0.992 0.76$	4 0.952
$1000 0.846 0.832 0.867 0.949 \underline{0.998} 0.991 0.76$	0 0.930
$\hat{n}_9 = n_9$	
400 0.937 0.917 0.897 0.967 <u>0.999</u> 0.994 0.92	2 0.980
600 0.931 0.920 0.896 0.972 <u>0.999</u> 0.995 0.98	9 0.996
$1000 0.929 0.918 0.942 0.980 \underline{1.0} 0.997 0.98$	9 0.996
$\hat{n}_3 = n_3$	
400 0.958 0.950 0.937 0.983 1.0 0.998 0.98	9 0.996
$600 0.950 0.946 0.934 0.987 \overline{1.0} 0.998 0.98$	8 0.996
$1000 0.932 0.928 0.944 0.985 \overline{1.0} 1.0 0.98$	8 0.992
$\hat{n}_1 = n_1$	
$400 0.974 0.969 0.962 0.994 \underline{1.0} 0.999 0.99$	5 0.997
$600 0.981 0.979 0.971 0.996 \overline{1.0} 1.0 0.99$	
$1000 0.963 0.959 0.970 0.986 \overline{1.0} \overline{1.0} 0.98$	9 0.997

Table 10: System orders estimates, M10 model^{*}.