

ETC3550 Applied forecasting for business and economics

Ch9. ARIMA models

OTexts.org/fpp3/

Outline

- 1 Stationarity and differencing
- 2 Non-seasonal ARIMA models
- 3 Estimation and order selection
- 4 ARIMA modelling in R
- 5 Forecasting
- 6 Seasonal ARIMA models
- 7 ARIMA vs ETS

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Stationarity

Definition

If $\{y_t\}$ is a stationary time series, then for all s, the distribution of (y_t, \ldots, y_{t+s}) does not depend on t.

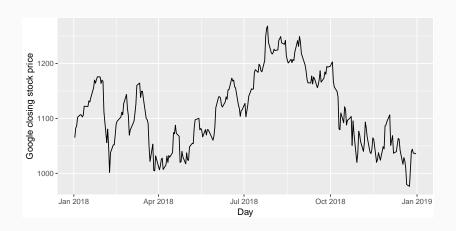
Stationarity

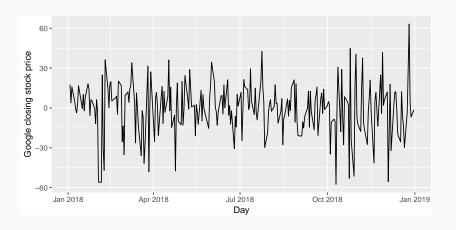
Definition

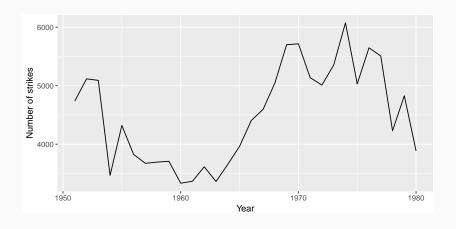
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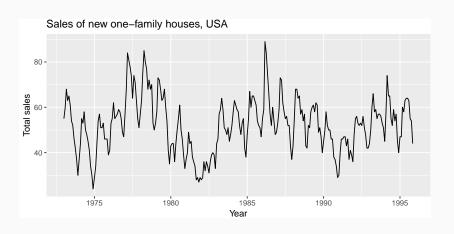
A stationary series is:

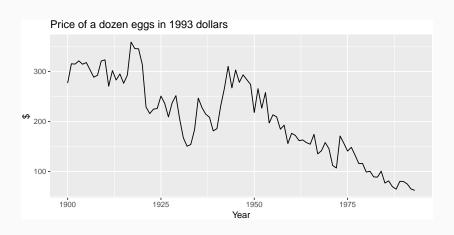
- roughly horizontal
- constant variance
- no patterns predictable in the long-term

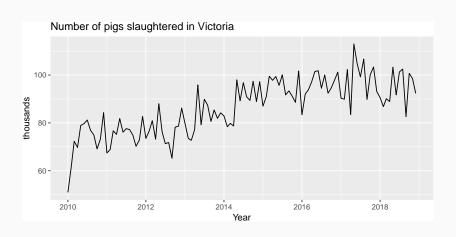


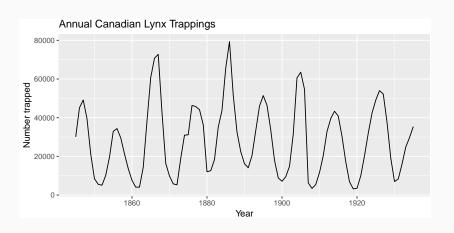


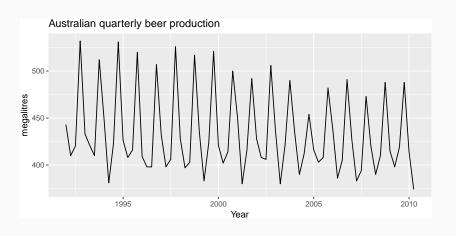












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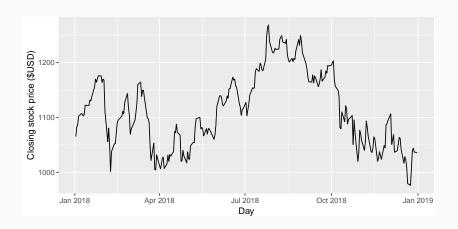
Transformations help to **stabilize the variance**.

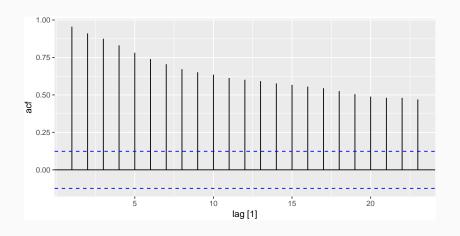
For ARIMA modelling, we also need to **stabilize the mean**.

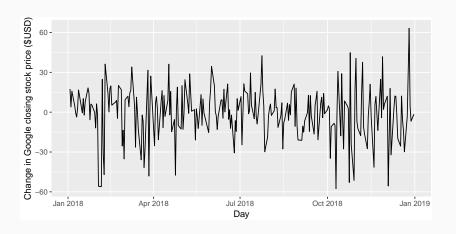
Non-stationarity in the mean

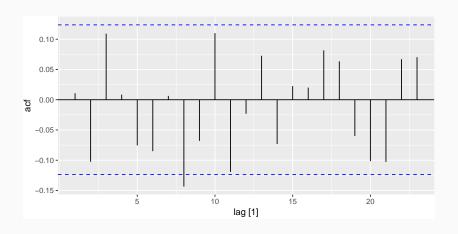
Identifying non-stationary series

- time plot.
- The ACF of stationary data drops to zero relatively quickly
- The ACF of non-stationary data decreases slowly.
- For non-stationary data, the value of r_1 is often large and positive.









Differencing

- Differencing helps to **stabilize the mean**.
- The differenced series is the *change* between each observation in the original series:

$$\mathsf{y}_t' = \mathsf{y}_t - \mathsf{y}_{t-1}.$$

■ The differenced series will have only T-1 values since it is not possible to calculate a difference y'_1 for the first observation.

Second-order differencing

Occasionally the differenced data will not appear stationary and it may be necessary to difference the data a second time:

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Occasionally the differenced data will not appear stationary and it may be necessary to difference the data a second time:

$$y_t'' = y_t' - y_{t-1}'$$

$$= (y_t - y_{t-1}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-2})$$

$$= y_t - 2y_{t-1} + y_{t-2}.$$

Second-order differencing

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- y_t'' will have T-2 values.
- In practice, it is almost never necessary to go beyond second-order differences.

A seasonal difference is the difference between an observation and the corresponding observation from the previous year.

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$$y_t' = y_t - y_{t-m}$$

where m = number of seasons.

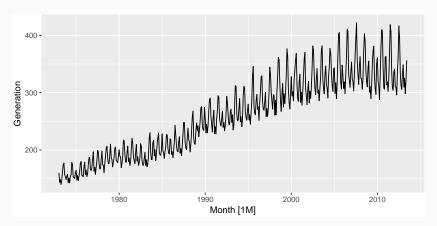
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$$y_t' = y_t - y_{t-m}$$

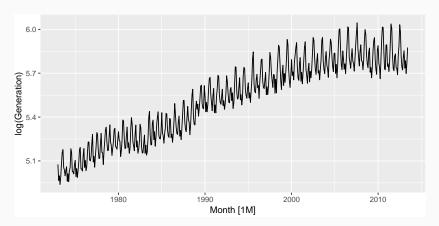
where m = number of seasons.

- For monthly data m = 12.
- For quarterly data m = 4.

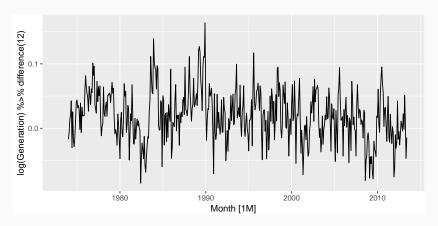
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  Generation
)
```



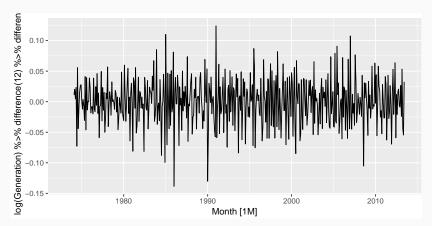
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation)
)
```



```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation) %>% difference(12)
)
```



```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation) %>% difference(12) %>% difference()
)
```



- Seasonally differenced series is closer to being stationary.
- Remaining non-stationarity can be removed with further first difference.

If $y'_t = y_t - y_{t-12}$ denotes seasonally differenced series, then twice-differenced series is

$$y_t^* = y_t' - y_{t-1}'$$

$$= (y_t - y_{t-12}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-13})$$

$$= y_t - y_{t-1} - y_{t-12} + y_{t-13}.$$

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- it makes no difference which is done first—the result will be the same.
- If seasonality is strong, we recommend that seasonal differencing be done first because sometimes the resulting series will be stationary and there will be no need for further first difference.

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- it makes no difference which is done first—the result will be the same.
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It is important that if differencing is used, the differences are interpretable.

Interpretation of differencing

- first differences are the change between one observation and the next;
- seasonal differences are the change between one year to the next.

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- seasonal differences are the change between one year to the next.

But taking lag 3 differences for yearly data, for example, results in a model which cannot be sensibly interpreted.

Unit root tests

Statistical tests to determine the required order of differencing.

- Augmented Dickey Fuller test: null hypothesis is that the data are non-stationary and non-seasonal.
- Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) test: null hypothesis is that the data are stationary and non-seasonal.
- Other tests available for seasonal data.

KPSS test

```
google_2018 %>%
features(Close, unitroot_kpss)
```

KPSS test

```
google_2018 %>%
 features(Close, unitroot_kpss)
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## Symbol Close_kpss_stat Close_kpss_pval
## <chr>
                    <dbl>
                            <dbl>
## 1 GOOG
                    0.573
                                 0.0252
google_2018 %>%
 features(Close, unitroot_ndiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 2
    Symbol Close_ndiffs
##
  <chr> <int>
##
## 1 GOOG
```

Automatically selecting differences

```
STL decomposition: y_t = T_t + S_t + R_t
Seasonal strength F_s = \max \left(0, 1 - \frac{\text{Var}(R_t)}{\text{Var}(S_t + R_t)}\right)
If F_s > 0.64, do one seasonal difference.
```

```
usmelec %>% mutate(log_gen = log(Generation)) %>%
features(log_gen, list(unitroot_nsdiffs, stl_features))
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 8
     log_gen_nsdiffs log_gen_trend_s~ log_gen_seasona~ log_gen_spike
##
##
               <int>
                                <fdb>>
                                                 <fdb>>
                                                               <fdb>>
## 1
                                0.994
                                                 0.941
                                                            1.54e-
12
## # ... with 4 more variables: log_gen_linearity <dbl>,
## # log_gen_curvature <dbl>, log_gen_seasonal_peak.year <dbl>,
## # log gen seasonal trough.year <dbl>
```

Automatically selecting differences

```
usmelec %>% mutate(log_gen = log(Generation)) %>%
  features(log_gen, unitroot_nsdiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## log_gen_nsdiffs
##
               <int>
## 1
usmelec %>% mutate(d_log_gen = difference(log(Generation), 12)) %>%
  features(d_log_gen, unitroot_ndiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
##
    d_log_gen_ndiffs
                <int>
##
## 1
```

Your turn

For the tourism dataset, compute the total number of trips and find an appropriate differencing (after transformation if necessary) to obtain stationary data.

A very useful notational device is the backward shift operator, *B*, which is used as follows:

$$By_t = y_{t-1}$$

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$$B(By_t) = B^2y_t = y_{t-2}$$

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In other words, B, operating on y_t , has the effect of shifting the data back one period. Two applications of B to y_t shifts the data back two periods:

$$B(By_t) = B^2y_t = y_{t-2}$$

For monthly data, if we wish to shift attention to "the same month last year", then B^{12} is used, and the notation is $B^{12}y_t = y_{t-12}$.

The backward shift operator is convenient for describing the process of *differencing*.

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$$y'_t = y_t - y_{t-1} = y_t - By_t = (1 - B)y_t$$

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Note that a first difference is represented by (1 - B).

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Note that a first difference is represented by (1 - B).

Similarly, if second-order differences (i.e., first differences of first differences) have to be computed, then:

$$y_t'' = y_t - 2y_{t-1} + y_{t-2} = (1 - B)^2 y_t$$

- Second-order difference is denoted $(1 B)^2$.
- Second-order difference is not the same as a second difference, which would be denoted $1 B^2$;
- In general, a dth-order difference can be written as

$$(1-B)^d y_t$$

 A seasonal difference followed by a first difference can be written as

$$(1 - B)(1 - B^m)y_t$$

The "backshift" notation is convenient because the terms can be multiplied together to see the combined effect.

$$(1 - B)(1 - B^{m})y_{t} = (1 - B - B^{m} + B^{m+1})y_{t}$$
$$= y_{t} - y_{t-1} - y_{t-m} + y_{t-m-1}.$$

The "backshift" notation is convenient because the terms can be multiplied together to see the combined effect.

$$(1 - B)(1 - B^{m})y_{t} = (1 - B - B^{m} + B^{m+1})y_{t}$$
$$= y_{t} - y_{t-1} - y_{t-m} + y_{t-m-1}.$$

For monthly data, m = 12 and we obtain the same result as earlier.

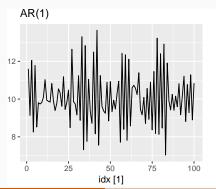
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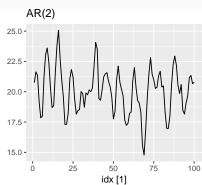
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Autoregressive models

Autoregressive (AR) models:

 $y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$, where ε_t is white noise. This is a multiple regression with **lagged values** of y_t as predictors.

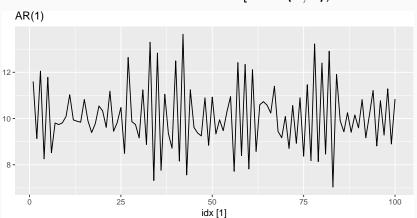




AR(1) model

$$y_t = 2 - 0.8y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

 $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, 1)$, T = 100.



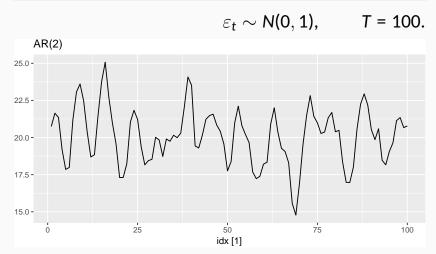
AR(1) model

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{c} + \phi_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

- When ϕ_1 = 0, y_t is **equivalent to WN**
- When ϕ_1 = 1 and c = 0, y_t is **equivalent to a RW**
- When ϕ_1 = 1 and $c \neq 0$, y_t is **equivalent to a RW** with drift
- When ϕ_1 < 0, y_t tends to oscillate between positive and negative values.

AR(2) model

$$y_t = 8 + 1.3y_{t-1} - 0.7y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$$



Stationarity conditions

We normally restrict autoregressive models to stationary data, and then some constraints on the values of the parameters are required.

General condition for stationarity

Complex roots of $1 - \phi_1 z - \phi_2 z^2 - \cdots - \phi_p z^p$ lie outside the unit circle on the complex plane.

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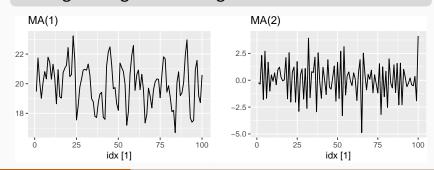
Complex roots of $1 - \phi_1 z - \phi_2 z^2 - \cdots - \phi_p z^p$ lie outside the unit circle on the complex plane.

- For $p = 1: -1 < \phi_1 < 1$.
- For p = 2:
 - $-1 < \phi_2 < 1$ $\phi_2 + \phi_1 < 1$ $\phi_2 \phi_1 < 1$.
- More complicated conditions hold for $p \ge 3$.
- Estimation software takes care of this.

Moving Average (MA) models

Moving Average (MA) models:

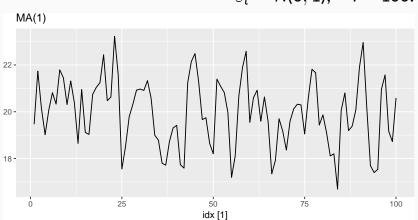
 $y_t = c + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$ where ε_t is white noise. This is a multiple regression with **past errors** as predictors. Don't confuse this with moving average smoothing!



MA(1) model

$$y_t = 20 + \varepsilon_t + 0.8\varepsilon_{t-1}$$

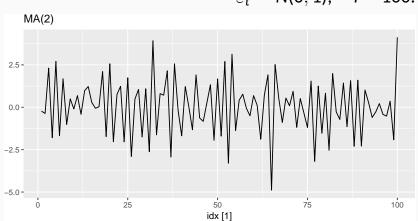
 $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, 1)$, T = 100.



MA(2) model

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_{t-1} + 0.8\varepsilon_{t-2}$$

 $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, 1)$, T = 100.



$MA(\infty)$ models

It is possible to write any stationary AR(p) process as an $MA(\infty)$ process.

Example: AR(1)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_t &= \phi_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ &= \phi_1 (\phi_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-2} + \varepsilon_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t \\ &= \phi_1^2 \mathbf{y}_{t-2} + \phi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ &= \phi_1^3 \mathbf{y}_{t-3} + \phi_1^2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \phi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \end{aligned}$$

$MA(\infty)$ models

It is possible to write any stationary AR(p) process as an $MA(\infty)$ process.

Example: AR(1)

$$y_{t} = \phi_{1}y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$$

$$= \phi_{1}(\phi_{1}y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_{t}$$

$$= \phi_{1}^{2}y_{t-2} + \phi_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$$

$$= \phi_{1}^{3}y_{t-3} + \phi_{1}^{2}\varepsilon_{t-2} + \phi_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$$

$$\dots$$

Provided $-1 < \phi_1 < 1$:

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \varepsilon_t + \phi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \phi_1^2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \phi_1^3 \varepsilon_{t-3} + \cdots$$

Invertibility

- Any MA(q) process can be written as an AR(∞) process if we impose some constraints on the MA parameters.
- Then the MA model is called "invertible".
- Invertible models have some mathematical properties that make them easier to use in practice.
- Invertibility of an ARIMA model is equivalent to forecastability of an ETS model.

Invertibility

General condition for invertibility

Complex roots of $1 + \theta_1 z + \theta_2 z^2 + \cdots + \theta_q z^q$ lie outside the unit circle on the complex plane.

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- For $q = 1: -1 < \theta_1 < 1$.
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$$-1 < heta_2 < 1$$
 $heta_2 + heta_1 > -1$ $heta_1 - heta_2 < 1$.

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ARIMA models

Autoregressive Moving Average models:

$$y_{t} = c + \phi_{1}y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_{p}y_{t-p}$$
$$+ \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{q}\varepsilon_{t-q} + \varepsilon_{t}.$$

ARIMA models

Autoregressive Moving Average models:

$$y_{t} = c + \phi_{1}y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_{p}y_{t-p}$$
$$+ \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_{q}\varepsilon_{t-q} + \varepsilon_{t}.$$

- Predictors include both lagged values of y_t and lagged errors.
- Conditions on coefficients ensure stationarity.
- Conditions on coefficients ensure invertibility.

ARIMA models

Autoregressive Moving Average models:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_t &= \mathbf{c} + \phi_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p \mathbf{y}_{t-p} \\ &+ \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q} + \varepsilon_t. \end{aligned}$$

- Predictors include both lagged values of y_t and lagged errors.
- Conditions on coefficients ensure stationarity.
- Conditions on coefficients ensure invertibility.

Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average models

- Combine ARMA model with differencing.
- $(1-B)^d y_t$ follows an ARMA model.

ARIMA models

Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average models

ARIMA(p, d, q) model

AR: p = order of the autoregressive part

I: d =degree of first differencing involved

MA: q = order of the moving average part.

- White noise model: ARIMA(0,0,0)
- Random walk: ARIMA(0,1,0) with no constant
- Random walk with drift: ARIMA(0,1,0) with const.
- \blacksquare AR(p): ARIMA(p,0,0)
- \blacksquare MA(q): ARIMA(0,0,q)

Backshift notation for ARIMA

ARMA model:

$$y_t = c + \phi_1 B y_t + \dots + \phi_p B^p y_t + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 B \varepsilon_t + \dots + \theta_q B^q \varepsilon_t$$
or
$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p) y_t = c + (1 + \theta_1 B + \dots + \theta_q B^q) \varepsilon_t$$

ARIMA(1,1,1) model:

$$(1 - \phi_1 B)$$
 $(1 - B)y_t = c + (1 + \theta_1 B)\varepsilon_t$
 \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow
AR(1) First MA(1)
difference

Backshift notation for ARIMA

ARMA model:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_t &= \mathbf{c} + \phi_1 \mathbf{B} \mathbf{y}_t + \dots + \phi_p \mathbf{B}^p \mathbf{y}_t + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \mathbf{B} \varepsilon_t + \dots + \theta_q \mathbf{B}^q \varepsilon_t \\ \text{or} \quad & (\mathbf{1} - \phi_1 \mathbf{B} - \dots - \phi_p \mathbf{B}^p) \mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{c} + (\mathbf{1} + \theta_1 \mathbf{B} + \dots + \theta_q \mathbf{B}^q) \varepsilon_t \end{aligned}$$

ARIMA(1,1,1) model:

$$(1 - \phi_1 B)$$
 $(1 - B)y_t = c + (1 + \theta_1 B)\varepsilon_t$
 \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow
AR(1) First MA(1)
difference

Written out:

$$y_t = c + y_{t-1} + \phi_1 y_{t-1} - \phi_1 y_{t-2} + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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R model

Intercept form

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \cdots - \phi_p B^p) y_t' = c + (1 + \theta_1 B + \cdots + \theta_q B^q) \varepsilon_t$$

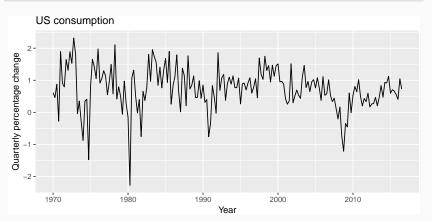
Mean form

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p)(y_t' - \mu) = (1 + \theta_1 B + \dots + \theta_q B^q)\varepsilon_t$$

- $y'_t = (1 B)^d y_t$
- \blacksquare μ is the mean of \mathbf{y}'_t .
- $c = \mu(1 \phi_1 \cdots \phi_p).$
- R uses mean form

Australian household expenditure

```
us_change <- read_csv(
  "https://otexts.com/fpp3/extrafiles/us_change.csv") %>%
  mutate(Time = yearquarter(Time)) %>%
  as_tsibble(index = Time)
```



US personal consumption

```
fit <- us change %>% model(arima = ARIMA(Consumption ~ PDO(0,0,0)))
report(fit)
## Series: Consumption
## Model: LM w/ ARIMA(1,0,3) errors
##
## Coefficients:
##
        ar1
                   ma1 ma2 ma3
                                        mean
##
       0.5885 -0.3528 0.0846 0.1739 0.7454
## s.e. 0.1541 0.1658 0.0818 0.0843 0.0930
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.3499: log likelihood=-164.81
## ATC=341.61 ATCc=342.08 BTC=361
```

US personal consumption

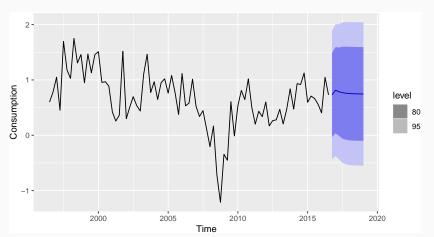
```
fit <- us change %>% model(arima = ARIMA(Consumption ~ PDO(0,0,0)))
report(fit)
## Series: Consumption
## Model: LM w/ ARIMA(1,0,3) errors
##
## Coefficients:
## ar1 ma1 ma2 ma3
                                       mean
## 0.5885 -0.3528 0.0846 0.1739 0.7454
## s.e. 0.1541 0.1658 0.0818 0.0843 0.0930
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.3499: log likelihood=-164.81
## ATC=341.61 ATCc=342.08 BTC=361
```

ARIMA(1,0,3) model:

```
y_t = c + 0.589 y_{t-1} + -0.353 \varepsilon_{t-1} + 0.0846 \varepsilon_{t-2} + 0.174 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t, where c = 0.745 \times (1 - 0.589) = 0.307 and \varepsilon_t is white noise with a standard deviation of 0.592 = \sqrt{0.350}.
```

US personal consumption

```
fit %>% forecast(h=10) %>%
  autoplot(slice(us_change, (n()-80):n()))
```



Understanding ARIMA models

- If c = 0 and d = 0, the long-term forecasts will go to zero.
- If c = 0 and d = 1, the long-term forecasts will go to a non-zero constant.
- If c = 0 and d = 2, the long-term forecasts will follow a straight line.
- If $c \neq 0$ and d = 0, the long-term forecasts will go to the mean of the data.
- If $c \neq 0$ and d = 1, the long-term forecasts will follow a straight line.
- If $c \neq 0$ and d = 2, the long-term forecasts will follow a quadratic trend.

Understanding ARIMA models

Forecast variance and d

- The higher the value of *d*, the more rapidly the prediction intervals increase in size.
- For d = 0, the long-term forecast standard deviation will go to the standard deviation of the historical data.

Cyclic behaviour

- For cyclic forecasts, $p \ge 2$ and some restrictions on coefficients are required.
- If p = 2, we need $\phi_1^2 + 4\phi_2 < 0$. Then average cycle of length

$$(2\pi)/\left[\arccos(-\phi_1(1-\phi_2)/(4\phi_2))\right]$$
.

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- 2 Non-seasonal ARIMA models
- 3 Estimation and order selection
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Maximum likelihood estimation

Having identified the model order, we need to estimate the parameters $c, \phi_1, \ldots, \phi_p, \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_q$.

Maximum likelihood estimation

Having identified the model order, we need to estimate the parameters c, ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_p , $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_q$.

 MLE is very similar to least squares estimation obtained by minimizing

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t^2$$

- The ARIMA() model allows CLS or MLE estimation.
- Non-linear optimization must be used in either case.
- Different software will give different estimates.

Partial autocorrelations

Partial autocorrelations measure relationship between y_t and y_{t-k} , when the effects of other time lags — 1, 2, 3, . . . , k-1 — are removed.

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$$\alpha_k$$
 = kth partial autocorrelation coefficient
= equal to the estimate of b_k in regression:
 $v_t = c + \phi_1 v_{t-1} + \phi_2 v_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_k v_{t-k}$.

Partial autocorrelations

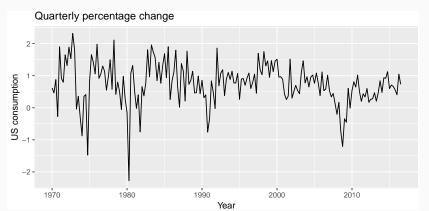
Partial autocorrelations measure relationship between y_t and y_{t-k} , when the effects of other time lags — 1, 2, 3, . . . , k-1 — are removed.

$$\alpha_k$$
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= equal to the estimate of b_k in regression:
 $v_t = c + \phi_1 v_{t-1} + \phi_2 v_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_k v_{t-k}$.

- Varying number of terms on RHS gives α_k for different values of k.
- There are more efficient ways of calculating α_k .
- $\alpha_1 = \rho_1$
- same critical values of $\pm 1.96/\sqrt{T}$ as for ACF.

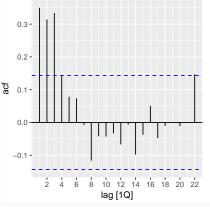
Example: US consumption

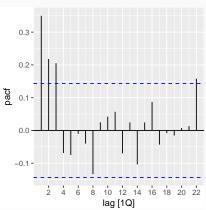
```
us_change %>% autoplot(Consumption) +
labs(x = "Year", y = "US consumption",
    title = "Quarterly percentage change")
```



Example: US consumption

```
us_change %>% ACF(Consumption) %>% autoplot()
us_change %>% PACF(Consumption) %>% autoplot()
```





AR(1)

$$\rho_k = \phi_1^k \qquad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots;$$
 $\alpha_1 = \phi_1 \qquad \alpha_k = 0 \qquad \text{for } k = 2, 3, \dots.$

So we have an AR(1) model when

- autocorrelations exponentially decay
- there is a single significant partial autocorrelation.

AR(p)

- ACF dies out in an exponential or damped sine-wave manner
- PACF has all zero spikes beyond the pth spike

So we have an AR(p) model when

- the ACF is exponentially decaying or sinusoidal
- there is a significant spike at lag p in PACF, but none beyond p

MA(1)

$$\rho_1 = \theta_1 \qquad \rho_k = 0 \qquad \text{for } k = 2, 3, \dots;$$

$$\alpha_k = -(-\theta_1)^k$$

So we have an MA(1) model when

- the PACF is exponentially decaying and
- there is a single significant spike in ACF

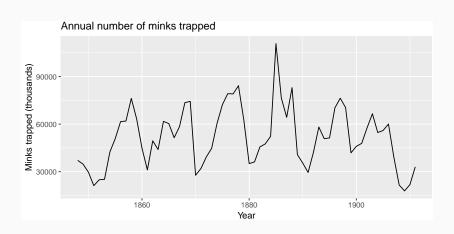
MA(q)

- PACF dies out in an exponential or damped sine-wave manner
- ACF has all zero spikes beyond the qth spike

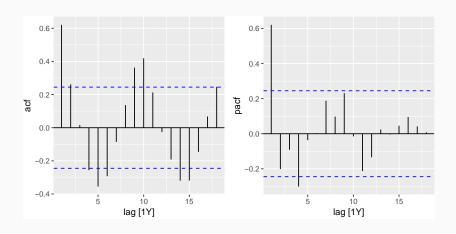
So we have an MA(q) model when

- the PACF is exponentially decaying or sinusoidal
- there is a significant spike at lag q in ACF, but none beyond q

Example: Mink trapping



Example: Mink trapping



Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC):

$$AIC = -2 \log(L) + 2(p + q + k + 1),$$

where *L* is the likelihood of the data,

$$k = 1 \text{ if } c \neq 0 \text{ and } k = 0 \text{ if } c = 0.$$

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Corrected AIC:

AICc = AIC +
$$\frac{2(p+q+k+1)(p+q+k+2)}{T-p-q-k-2}$$
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$$[\log(T) - 2](p + q + k - 1)$$
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.

Bayesian Information Criterion:

BIC = AIC +
$$[\log(T) - 2](p + q + k - 1)$$
.

Good models are obtained by minimizing either the AIC, AICc or BIC. Our preference is to use the AICc.

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How does auto.arima() work?

A non-seasonal ARIMA process

$$\phi(B)(1-B)^d y_t = c + \theta(B)\varepsilon_t$$

Need to select appropriate orders: p, q, d

Hyndman and Khandakar (JSS, 2008) algorithm:

- Select no. differences d and D via KPSS test and seasonal strength measure.
- Select p, q by minimising AICc.
- Use stepwise search to traverse model space.

How does ARIMA() work?

AICc = $-2 \log(L) + 2(p+q+k+1) \left[1 + \frac{(p+q+k+2)}{T-p-q-k-2}\right]$. where *L* is the maximised likelihood fitted to the *differenced* data, k = 1 if $c \ne 0$ and k = 0 otherwise.

How does ARIMA() work?

AICc =
$$-2 \log(L) + 2(p+q+k+1) \left[1 + \frac{(p+q+k+2)}{T-p-q-k-2}\right]$$
. where L is the maximised likelihood fitted to the *differenced* data, $k=1$ if $c\neq 0$ and $k=0$ otherwise.

Step1: Select current model (with smallest AICc) from:

ARIMA(2, d, 2)

ARIMA(0, d, 0)

ARIMA(1, d, 0)

ARIMA(0, d, 1)

How does ARIMA() work?

AICc =
$$-2 \log(L) + 2(p+q+k+1) \left[1 + \frac{(p+q+k+2)}{T-p-q-k-2}\right]$$
. where L is the maximised likelihood fitted to the differenced data, $k = 1$ if $c \neq 0$ and $k = 0$ otherwise.

Step1: Select current model (with smallest AICc) from:

ARIMA(2, d, 2)

ARIMA(0, d, 0)

ARIMA(1, d, 0)

ARIMA(0, d, 1)

Step 2: Consider variations of current model:

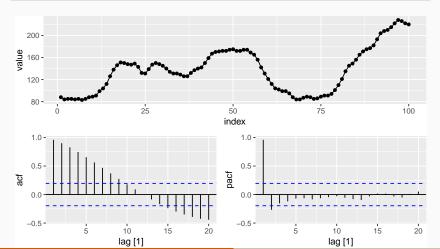
- vary one of p, q, from current model by ± 1 ;
- p, q both vary from current model by ± 1 ;
- Include/exclude *c* from current model.

Model with lowest AICc becomes current model.

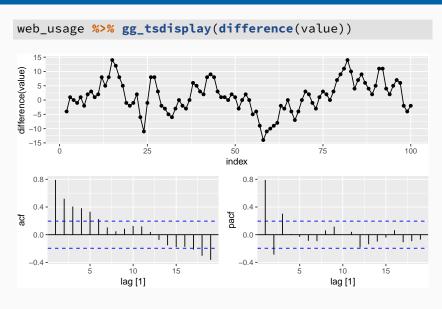
Repeat Step 2 until no lower AICc can be found.

Choosing your own model

```
web_usage <- as_tsibble(WWWusage)
web_usage %>% gg_tsdisplay(value)
```



Choosing your own model



Choosing your own model

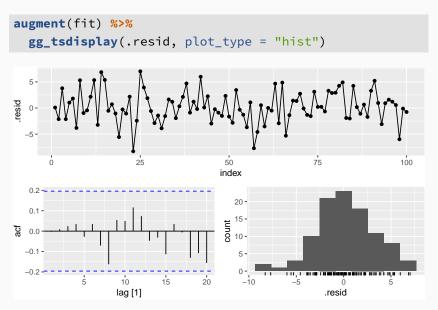
```
fit <- web_usage %>% model(
 arima = ARIMA(value ~ pdq(3, 1, 0)))
report(fit)
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(3,1,0)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1 ar2 ar3
## 1.1513 -0.6612 0.3407
## s.e. 0.0950 0.1353 0.0941
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 9.656: log likelihood=-252
## AIC=511.99 AICc=512.42
                            BIC=522.37
```

```
## Series: value
## Model: LM w/ ARIMA(0,0,0) errors
##
## Coefficients:
##
            mean
##
        137,0800
## s.e. 3.9799
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 1600:
                            log likelihood=-510.28
## AIC=1024.56 AICc=1024.68 BIC=1029.77
```

web_usage %>% model(ARIMA(value)) %>% report()

```
web_usage %>% model(ARIMA(value, stepwise = FALSE,
   approximation = FALSE)) %>% report()
```

```
## Series: value
## Model: LM w/ ARIMA(3,0,2) errors
##
## Coefficients:
##
                                       ma2
          ar1 ar2 ar3 ma1
                                               mean
## 0.9850 0.3928 -0.4071 1.2211 0.4278 143.6998
## s.e. 0.3539 0.6148 0.2886 0.3316
                                     0.1784
                                             23,9061
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 10.12: log likelihood=-257.95
## AIC=529.9 AICc=531.12 BIC=548.14
```

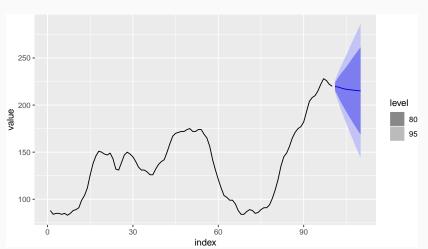


1 arima

4.49

0.722





Modelling procedure with ARIMA

- Plot the data. Identify any unusual observations.
- If necessary, transform the data (using a Box-Cox transformation) to stabilize the variance.
- If the data are non-stationary: take first differences of the data until the data are stationary.
- Examine the ACF/PACF: Is an AR(p) or MA(q) model appropriate?
- Try your chosen model(s), and use the AICc to search for a better model.
- Check the residuals from your chosen model by plotting the ACF of the residuals, and doing a portmanteau test of the residuals. If they do not look like white noise, try a modified model.
- Once the residuals look like white noise, calculate forecasts.

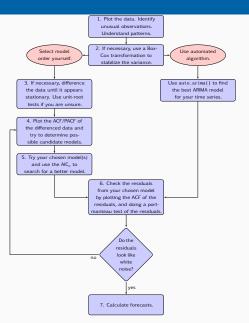
Automatic modelling procedure with ARIMA

- Plot the data. Identify any unusual observations.
- If necessary, transform the data (using a Box-Cox transformation) to stabilize the variance.

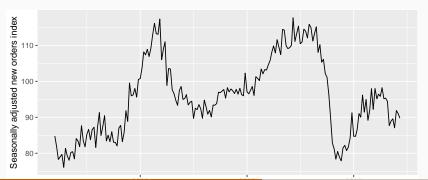
Use ARIMA to automatically select a model.

- 6 Check the residuals from your chosen model by plotting the ACF of the residuals, and doing a portmanteau test of the residuals. If they do not look like white noise, try a modified model.
- Once the residuals look like white noise, calculate forecasts.

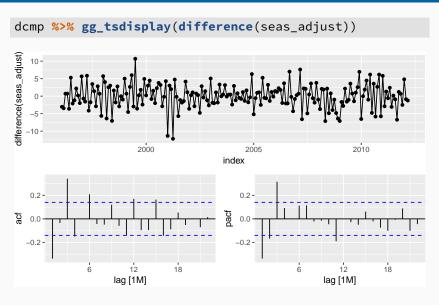
Modelling procedure



```
elecequip <- as_tsibble(fpp2::elecequip)
dcmp <- elecequip %>%
   STL(value ~ season(window = "periodic"))
dcmp %>% as_tsibble %>%
   autoplot(seas_adjust) + xlab("Year") +
   ylab("Seasonally adjusted new orders index")
```



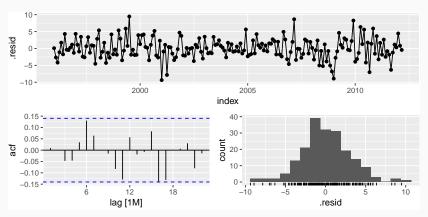
- Time plot shows sudden changes, particularly big drop in 2008/2009 due to global economic environment. Otherwise nothing unusual and no need for data adjustments.
- No evidence of changing variance, so no Box-Cox transformation.
- Data are clearly non-stationary, so we take first differences.

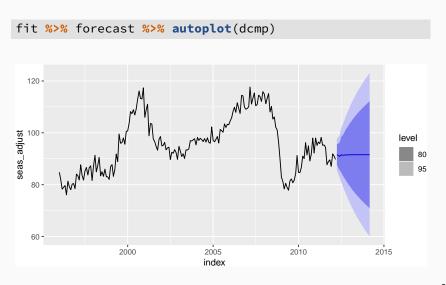


- PACF is suggestive of AR(3). So initial candidate model is ARIMA(3,1,0). No other obvious candidates.
- Fit ARIMA(3,1,0) model along with variations: ARIMA(4,1,0), ARIMA(2,1,0), ARIMA(3,1,1), etc. ARIMA(3,1,1) has smallest AICc value.

```
fit <- dcmp %>%
 model(
   arima = ARIMA(seas\_adjust \sim pdq(3,1,1) + PDQ(0,0,0))
report(fit)
## Series: seas_adjust
## Model: ARIMA(3,1,1)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           arl ar2 ar3 ma1
## 0.0044 0.0916 0.3698 -0.3921
## s.e. 0.2201 0.0984 0.0669 0.2426
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 9.577: log likelihood=-492.69
## AIC=995.38
              AICc=995.7 BIC=1011.72
```

ACF plot of residuals from ARIMA(3,1,1) model look like white noise.





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- Rearrange ARIMA equation so y_t is on LHS.
- Rewrite equation by replacing t by T + h.
- On RHS, replace future observations by their forecasts, future errors by zero, and past errors by corresponding residuals.

Start with h = 1. Repeat for h = 2, 3, ...

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \phi_3 B^3)(1 - B)y_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)\varepsilon_t,$$

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \phi_3 B^3)(1 - B)y_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)\varepsilon_t,$$

$$[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4] y_t$$

= $(1 + \theta_1B)\varepsilon_t$,

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \phi_3 B^3)(1 - B)y_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)\varepsilon_t,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4\right] y_t \\ &= (1 + \theta_1B)\varepsilon_t, \\ y_t - (1 + \phi_1)y_{t-1} + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)y_{t-2} + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)y_{t-3} \\ &+ \phi_3y_{t-4} = \varepsilon_t + \theta_1\varepsilon_{t-1}. \end{aligned}$$

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \phi_3 B^3)(1 - B)y_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)\varepsilon_t,$$

$$[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4] y_t$$

= $(1 + \theta_1B)\varepsilon_t$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_{t} - (\mathbf{1} + \phi_{1})\mathbf{y}_{t-1} + (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})\mathbf{y}_{t-2} + (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})\mathbf{y}_{t-3} \\ + \phi_{3}\mathbf{y}_{t-4} &= \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}. \end{aligned}$$

$$y_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1})y_{t-1} - (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})y_{t-2} - (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})y_{t-3} - \phi_{3}y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}.$$

Point forecasts (h=1)

$$y_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1})y_{t-1} - (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})y_{t-2} - (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})y_{t-3} - \phi_{3}y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}.$$

Point forecasts (h=1)

$$y_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1})y_{t-1} - (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})y_{t-2} - (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})y_{t-3} - \phi_{3}y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}.$$

$$y_{T+1} = (1 + \phi_1)y_T - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)y_{T-1} - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)y_{T-2} - \phi_3y_{T-3} + \varepsilon_{T+1} + \theta_1\varepsilon_T.$$

Point forecasts (h=1)

$$y_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1})y_{t-1} - (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})y_{t-2} - (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})y_{t-3} - \phi_{3}y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}.$$

ARIMA(3,1,1) forecasts: Step 2

$$y_{T+1} = (1 + \phi_1)y_T - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)y_{T-1} - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)y_{T-2} - \phi_3y_{T-3} + \varepsilon_{T+1} + \theta_1\varepsilon_T.$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathsf{T+1}|\mathsf{T}} = (\mathbf{1} + \phi_1)\mathbf{y}_{\mathsf{T}} - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)\mathbf{y}_{\mathsf{T-1}} - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)\mathbf{y}_{\mathsf{T-2}} - \phi_3\mathbf{y}_{\mathsf{T-3}} + \theta_1\mathbf{e}_{\mathsf{T}}.$$

Point forecasts (h=2)

$$y_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1})y_{t-1} - (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})y_{t-2} - (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})y_{t-3} - \phi_{3}y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}.$$

Point forecasts (h=2)

$$y_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1})y_{t-1} - (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})y_{t-2} - (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})y_{t-3} - \phi_{3}y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}.$$

$$y_{T+2} = (1 + \phi_1)y_{T+1} - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)y_T - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)y_{T-1} - \phi_3y_{T-2} + \varepsilon_{T+2} + \theta_1\varepsilon_{T+1}.$$

Point forecasts (h=2)

$$y_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1})y_{t-1} - (\phi_{1} - \phi_{2})y_{t-2} - (\phi_{2} - \phi_{3})y_{t-3} - \phi_{3}y_{t-4} + \varepsilon_{t} + \theta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1}.$$

ARIMA(3,1,1) forecasts: Step 2

$$y_{T+2} = (1 + \phi_1)y_{T+1} - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)y_T - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)y_{T-1} - \phi_3y_{T-2} + \varepsilon_{T+2} + \theta_1\varepsilon_{T+1}.$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{T+2|T} = (1+\phi_1)\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{T+1|T} - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)\mathbf{y}_T - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)\mathbf{y}_{T-1} - \phi_3\mathbf{y}_{T-2}.$$

95% prediction interval

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{v_{T+h|T}}$$

where $v_{T+h|T}$ is estimated forecast variance.

95% prediction interval

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{v_{T+h|T}}$$

where $v_{T+h|T}$ is estimated forecast variance.

- $\mathbf{v}_{T+1|T} = \hat{\sigma}^2$ for all ARIMA models regardless of parameters and orders.
- Multi-step prediction intervals for ARIMA(0,0,q):

$$y_{t} = \varepsilon_{t} + \sum_{i=1}^{q} \theta_{i} \varepsilon_{t-i}.$$

$$v_{T|T+h} = \hat{\sigma}^{2} \left[1 + \sum_{i=1}^{h-1} \theta_{i}^{2} \right], \quad \text{for } h = 2, 3, \dots.$$

95% Prediction interval

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{v_{T+h|T}}$$

where $v_{T+h|T}$ is estimated forecast variance.

Multi-step prediction intervals for ARIMA(0,0,q):

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i \varepsilon_{t-i}.$$

$$v_{T|T+h} = \hat{\sigma}^2 \left[1 + \sum_{i=1}^{h-1} \theta_i^2 \right], \quad \text{for } h = 2, 3, \dots.$$

95% Prediction interval

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{v_{T+h|T}}$$

where $v_{T+h|T}$ is estimated forecast variance.

Multi-step prediction intervals for ARIMA(0,0,q):

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i \varepsilon_{t-i}.$$

$$v_{T|T+h} = \hat{\sigma}^2 \left[1 + \sum_{i=1}^{h-1} \theta_i^2 \right], \quad \text{for } h = 2, 3, \dots.$$

- AR(1): Rewrite as MA(∞) and use above result.
- Other models beyond scope of this subject.

- Prediction intervals increase in size with forecast horizon.
- Prediction intervals can be difficult to calculate by hand
- Calculations assume residuals are uncorrelated and normally distributed.
- Prediction intervals tend to be too narrow.
 - the uncertainty in the parameter estimates has not been accounted for.
 - the ARIMA model assumes historical patterns will not change during the forecast period.
 - ▶ the ARIMA model assumes uncorrelated future errors₁00

Your turn

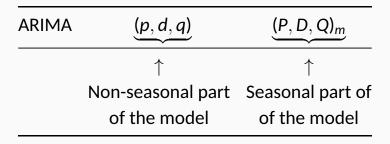
For the United States GDP data (from global_economy):

- if necessary, find a suitable Box-Cox transformation for the data;
- fit a suitable ARIMA model to the transformed data;
- check the residual diagnostics;
- produce forecasts of your fitted model. Do the forecasts look reasonable?

Outline

- 1 Stationarity and differencing
- 2 Non-seasonal ARIMA models
- 3 Estimation and order selection
- 4 ARIMA modelling in R
- 5 Forecasting
- 6 Seasonal ARIMA models
- 7 ARIMA vs ETS

Seasonal ARIMA models



where m = number of observations per year.

E.g., ARIMA $(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)_4$ model (without constant)

E.g., ARIMA(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)₄ model (without constant)
$$(1-\phi_1B)(1-\Phi_1B^4)(1-B)(1-B^4)y_t = (1+\theta_1B)(1+\Theta_1B^4)\varepsilon_t$$
.

E.g., ARIMA(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)₄ model (without constant)
$$(1-\phi_1B)(1-\Phi_1B^4)(1-B)(1-B^4)y_t = (1+\theta_1B)(1+\Theta_1B^4)\varepsilon_t.$$
 (Non-seasonal difference) (Non-seasonal MA(1)) (Seasonal difference) (Seasonal MA(1))

E.g., ARIMA(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)₄ model (without constant)
$$(1-\phi_1B)(1-\Phi_1B^4)(1-B)(1-B^4)y_t = (1+\theta_1B)(1+\Theta_1B^4)\varepsilon_t$$
.

All the factors can be multiplied out and the general model written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= (1+\phi_1)y_{t-1} - \phi_1 y_{t-2} + (1+\Phi_1)y_{t-4} \\ &- (1+\phi_1+\Phi_1+\phi_1\Phi_1)y_{t-5} + (\phi_1+\phi_1\Phi_1)y_{t-6} \\ &- \Phi_1 y_{t-8} + (\Phi_1+\phi_1\Phi_1)y_{t-9} - \phi_1\Phi_1 y_{t-10} \\ &+ \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \Theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-4} + \theta_1 \Theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-5}. \end{aligned}$$

Common ARIMA models

The US Census Bureau uses the following models most often:

| ARIMA(0,1,1)(0,1,1) _m | with log transformation |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| $ARIMA(0,1,2)(0,1,1)_m$ | with log transformation |
| $ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)_m$ | with log transformation |
| $ARIMA(0,2,2)(0,1,1)_m$ | with log transformation |
| $ARIMA(2,1,2)(0,1,1)_m$ | with no transformation |

The seasonal part of an AR or MA model will be seen in the seasonal lags of the PACF and ACF.

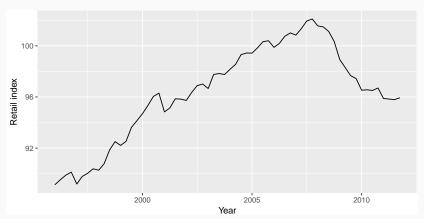
ARIMA $(0,0,0)(0,0,1)_{12}$ will show:

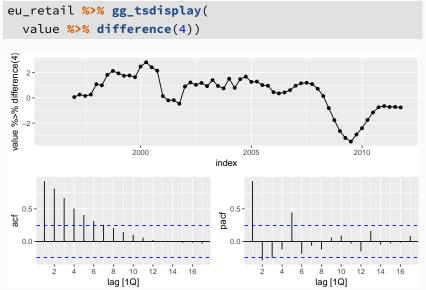
- a spike at lag 12 in the ACF but no other significant spikes.
- The PACF will show exponential decay in the seasonal lags; that is, at lags 12, 24, 36,

ARIMA $(0,0,0)(1,0,0)_{12}$ will show:

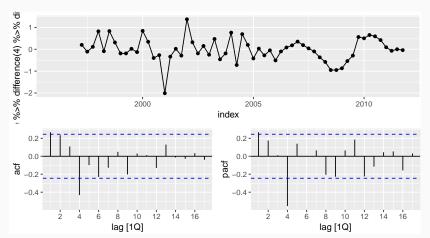
- exponential decay in the seasonal lags of the ACF
- a single significant spike at lag 12 in the PACF.

```
eu_retail %>% autoplot(value) +
    xlab("Year") + ylab("Retail index")
```

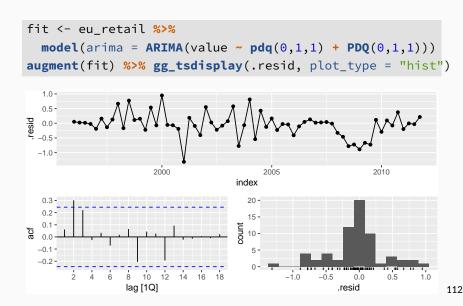




```
eu_retail %>% gg_tsdisplay(
  value %>% difference(4) %>% difference(1))
```



- \blacksquare d = 1 and D = 1 seems necessary.
- Significant spike at lag 1 in ACF suggests non-seasonal MA(1) component.
- Significant spike at lag 4 in ACF suggests seasonal MA(1) component.
- Initial candidate model: ARIMA(0,1,1)(0,1,1)₄.
- We could also have started with $ARIMA(1,1,0)(1,1,0)_4$.



```
augment(fit) %>%
  features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 8, dof = 2)
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
```

10.7

<dbl>

0.0997

.model .resid_lb_stat .resid_lb_pval

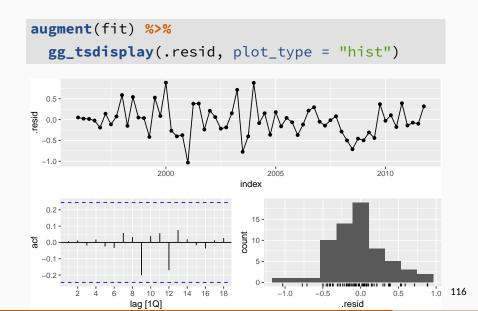
<dbl>

<chr>

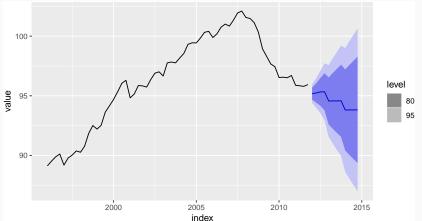
1 arima

- ACF and PACF of residuals show significant spikes at lag 2, and maybe lag 3.
- AICc of ARIMA(0,1,1)(0,1,1)₄ model is 75.72
- AICc of ARIMA(0,1,2)(0,1,1)₄ model is 74.27.
- AICc of ARIMA(0,1,3)(0,1,1)₄ model is 68.39.
- AICc of ARIMA(0,1,4)(0,1,1)₄ model is 70.73.

```
fit <- eu retail %>%
 model(
   arima013011 = ARIMA(value \sim pdq(0,1,3) + PDQ(0,1,1))
report(fit)
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(0,1,3)(0,1,1)[4]
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ma1 ma2 ma3 sma1
## 0.2630 0.3694 0.4200 -0.6636
## s.e. 0.1237 0.1255 0.1294 0.1545
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.156: log likelihood=-28.63
                                                     115
## AIC=67.26 AICc=68.39
                          BIC=77.65
```



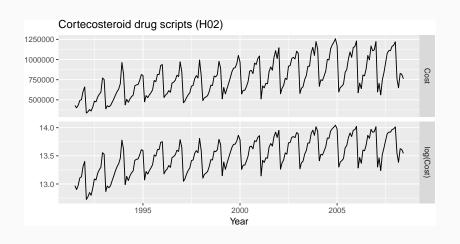
```
fit %>% forecast(h = "3 years") %>%
  autoplot(eu_retail)
```

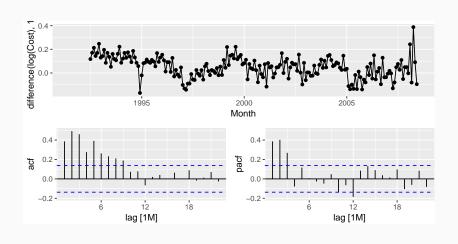


```
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(0,1,3)(0,1,1)[4]
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ma1
                  ma2
                          ma3
                                 sma1
##
        0.2630 0.3694 0.4200 -0.6636
## s.e. 0.1237 0.1255 0.1294 0.1545
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.156: log likelihood=-28.63
## AIC=67.26 AICc=68.39 BIC=77.65
```

eu retail %>% model(ARIMA(value)) %>% report()

```
eu retail %>% model(ARIMA(value, stepwise = FALSE,
 approximation = FALSE)) %>% report()
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(0,1,3)(0,1,1)[4]
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ma1 ma2 ma3 sma1
## 0.2630 0.3694 0.4200 -0.6636
## s.e. 0.1237 0.1255 0.1294 0.1545
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.156: log likelihood=-28.63
## AIC=67.26 AICc=68.39 BIC=77.65
```

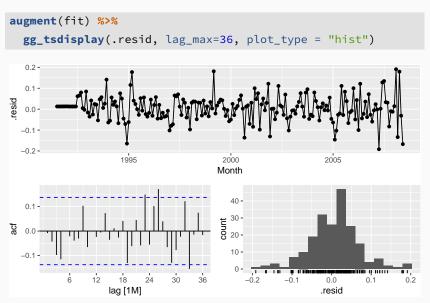




- Choose D = 1 and d = 0.
- Spikes in PACF at lags 12 and 24 suggest seasonal AR(2) term.
- Spikes in PACF suggests possible non-seasonal AR(3) term.
- Initial candidate model: ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)₁₂.

| .model | AICc |
|-------------------------|---------|
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12] | -485.48 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,1)[12] | -484.26 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12] | -483.67 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] | -476.31 |
| ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)[12] | -475.13 |
| ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] | -474.89 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] | -463.40 |

```
fit <- h02 %>%
 model(best = ARIMA(log(Cost) \sim pdq(3,0,1) + PDQ(0,1,2)))
report(fit)
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12]
## Transformation: log(.x)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1 ar2 ar3 ma1 sma1 sma2
## -0.1602 0.5481 0.5678 0.3826 -0.5222 -0.1769
## s.e. 0.1636 0.0878 0.0942 0.1895 0.0861 0.0872
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.004289: log likelihood=250.05
## AIC=-486.09 AICc=-485.48 BIC=-463.29
```



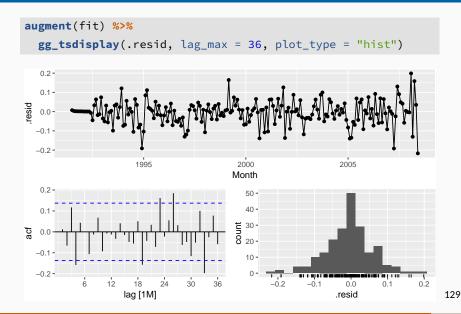
1 best

50.5

0.0109

```
fit <- h02 %>% model(auto = ARIMA(log(Cost)))
report(fit)
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(0,1,3)(0,1,2)[12]
## Transformation: log(.x)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ma1 ma2
                           ma3 sma1 sma2
       -0.8650 0.3768 -0.2138 -0.5586 -0.1596
##
## s.e. 0.0764 0.1087 0.0893 0.0814 0.0837
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.004384: log likelihood=246.06
## ATC=-480.13 ATCc=-479.67 BTC=-460.62
```

128

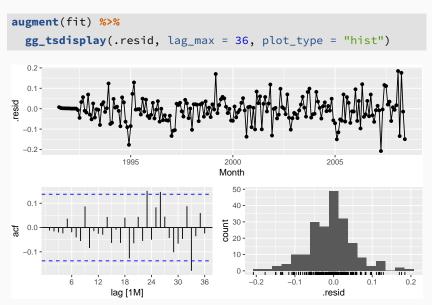


1 auto

60.0

0.00135

```
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(4,1,1)(0,1,2)[12]
## Transformation: log(.x)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1 ar2 ar3
                                 ar4
                                         ma1
                                                 sma1
                                                         sma2
## -0.0335 0.2307 0.2155 -0.2264 -0.7668 -0.5497 -
0.1874
## s.e. 0.1860 0.1604 0.1077 0.0807 0.1749 0.0824
                                                       0.0904
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.00415: log likelihood=251.91
## ATC=-487.83 ATCc=-487.03 BTC=-461.81
```



1 best

42.3

0.0307

Training data: July 1991 to June 2006

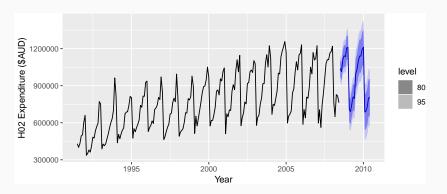
Test data: July 2006-June 2008

```
fit <- h02 %>%
  filter_index(~ "2006 Jun") %>%
  model(
    ARIMA(log(Cost) \sim pdq(3, 0, 0) + PDQ(2, 1, 0)),
    ARIMA(log(Cost) \sim pdq(3, 0, 1) + PDQ(2, 1, 0)),
    ARIMA(log(Cost) \sim pdq(3, 0, 2) + PDQ(2, 1, 0)),
    ARIMA(log(Cost) \sim pdq(3, 0, 1) + PDO(1, 1, 0))
    # ... #
fit %>%
  forecast(h = "2 years") %>%
  accuracy(h02 %>% filter index("2006 Jul" ~ .))
```

| .model | RMSE |
|-------------------------|----------|
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,1)[12] | 61878.42 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12] | 62141.92 |
| ARIMA(2,1,4)(0,1,1)[12] | 62707.56 |
| ARIMA(2,1,3)(0,1,1)[12] | 62854.50 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12] | 62947.45 |
| ARIMA(3,0,2)(0,1,1)[12] | 62968.43 |
| ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12] | 63114.27 |
| ARIMA(3,0,3)(0,1,1)[12] | 63283.66 |
| ARIMA(2,1,5)(0,1,1)[12] | 63610.31 |
| ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] | 65145.92 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] | 65269.86 |
| ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] | 66643.83 |
| ADJA4/0 0 0\/0 4 0\[40] | //045.04 |

- Models with lowest AICc values tend to give slightly better results than the other models.
- AICc comparisons must have the same orders of differencing. But RMSE test set comparisons can involve any models.
- Use the best model available, even if it does not pass all tests.

```
fit <- h02 %>% model(ARIMA(Cost ~ pdq(3,0,1) + PDQ(0,1,2)))
fit %>% forecast %>% autoplot(h02) +
   ylab("H02 Expenditure ($AUD)") + xlab("Year")
```



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ARIMA vs ETS

- Myth that ARIMA models are more general than exponential smoothing.
- Linear exponential smoothing models all special cases of ARIMA models.
- Non-linear exponential smoothing models have no equivalent ARIMA counterparts.
- Many ARIMA models have no exponential smoothing counterparts.
- ETS models all non-stationary. Models with seasonality or non-damped trend (or both) have two unit roots; all other models have one unit roots,

Equivalences

| ETS model | ARIMA model | Parameters |
|------------|----------------------------|---|
| ETS(A,N,N) | ARIMA(0,1,1) | $\theta_1 = \alpha - 1$ |
| ETS(A,A,N) | ARIMA(0,2,2) | θ_1 = α + β $-$ 2 |
| | | θ_{2} = 1 $-\alpha$ |
| ETS(A,A,N) | ARIMA(1,1,2) | ϕ_1 = ϕ |
| | | θ_1 = α + $\phi\beta$ $-$ 1 $ \phi$ |
| | | θ_2 = (1 $-\alpha$) ϕ |
| ETS(A,N,A) | $ARIMA(0,0,m)(0,1,0)_m$ | |
| ETS(A,A,A) | $ARIMA(0,1,m+1)(0,1,0)_m$ | |
| ETS(A,A,A) | ARIMA $(1,0,m+1)(0,1,0)_m$ | |

Your turn

For the fma::condmilk series:

- Do the data need transforming? If so, find a suitable transformation.
- Are the data stationary? If not, find an appropriate differencing which yields stationary data.
- Identify a couple of ARIMA models that might be useful in describing the time series.
- Which of your models is the best according to their AIC values?
- Estimate the parameters of your best model and do diagnostic testing on the residuals. Do the residuals resemble white noise? If not, try to find another ARIMA model which fits better.
- Forecast the next 24 months of data using your preferred model.