

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

ARIMA models

AR: autoregressive (lagged observations as inputs)

I: integrated (differencing to make series stationary)

MA: moving average (lagged errors as inputs)

ARIMA models

AR: autoregressive (lagged observations as inputs)

I: integrated (differencing to make series stationary)

MA: moving average (lagged errors as inputs)

An ARIMA model is rarely interpretable in terms of visible data structures like trend and seasonality. But it can capture a huge range of time series patterns.

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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.

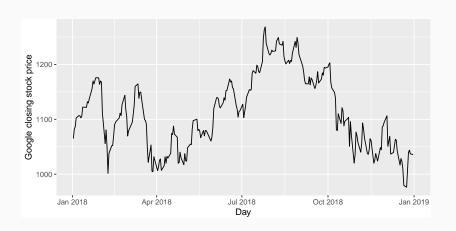
Stationarity

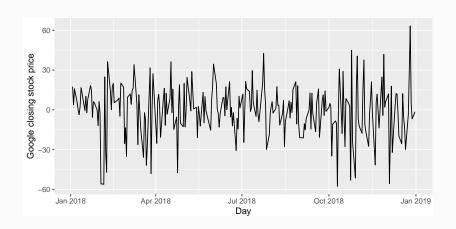
Definition

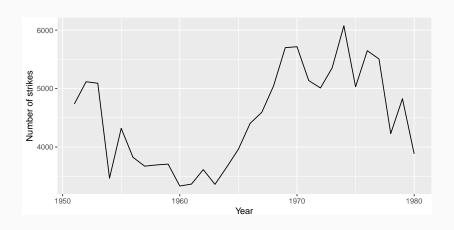
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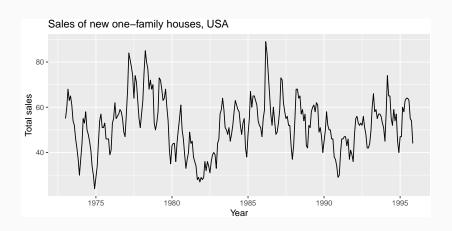
A stationary series is:

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

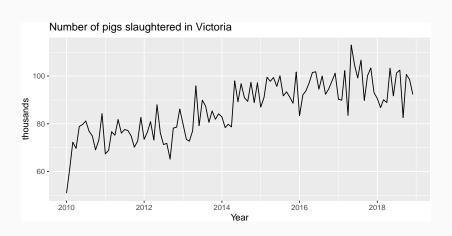


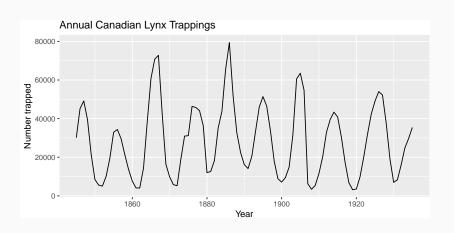












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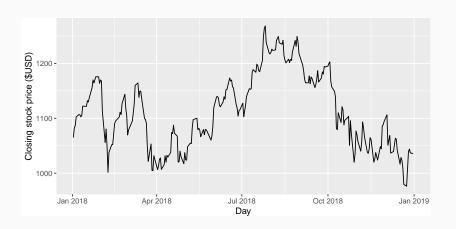
Transformations help to **stabilize the variance**.

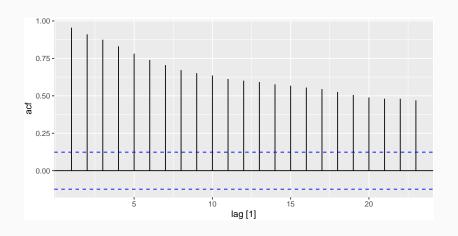
For ARIMA modelling, we also need to **stabilize the mean**.

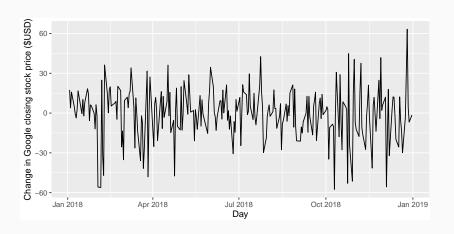
Non-stationarity in the mean

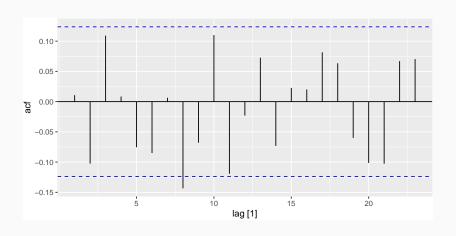
Identifying non-stationary series

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

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

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

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

- 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.

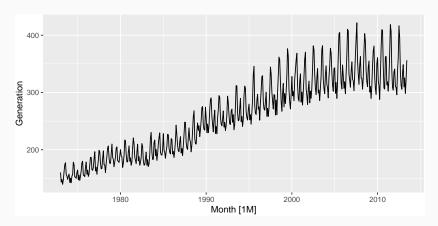
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$$y_t' = y_t - y_{t-m}$$

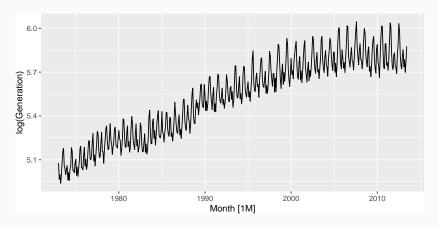
where m = number of seasons.

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

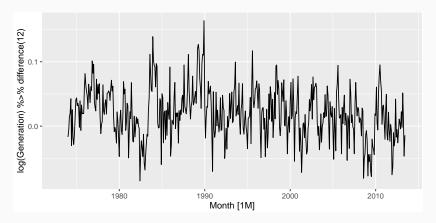
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  Generation
)
```



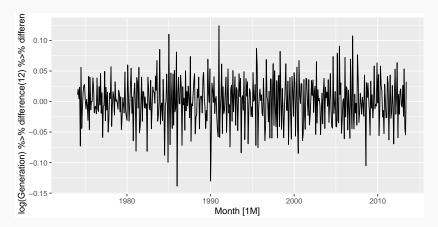
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation)
)
```



```
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

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

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

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

When both seasonal and first differences are applied...

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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 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 kpss_stat kpss_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl >
## 1 GOOG 0.573 0.0252
google_2018 %>%
  features(Close, unitroot_ndiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 2
## Symbol 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)) %>%

Automatically selecting differences

```
usmelec %>% mutate(log_gen = log(Generation)) %>%
 features(log_gen, unitroot_nsdiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## nsdiffs
## <int>
## 1
          1
usmelec %>% mutate(d_log_gen = difference(log(Generation), 12)) %>%
 features(d_log_gen, unitroot_ndiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## ndiffs
## <int>
## 1
         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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$$y'_t = y_t - y_{t-1} = y_t - By_t = (1 - B)y_t$$

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.

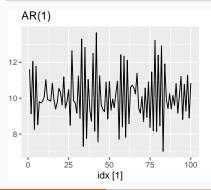
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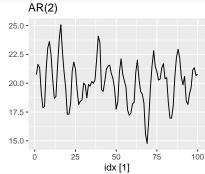
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Autoregressive models

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.

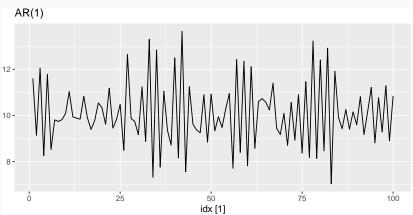




AR(1) model

$$y_t = 18 - 0.8y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

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



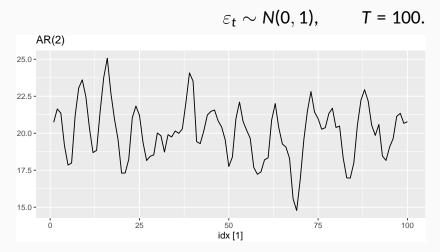
AR(1) model

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

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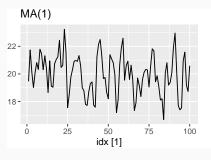
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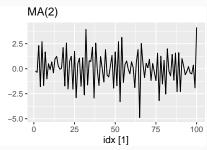
- For p = 1: $-1 < \phi_1 < 1$.
- For p = 2: $-1 < \phi_2 < 1$ $\phi_2 + \phi_1 < 1$ $\phi_2 - \phi_1 < 1$.
- More complicated conditions hold for $p \ge 3$.
- Estimation software takes care of this.

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!

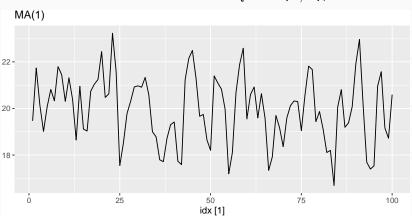




MA(1) model

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

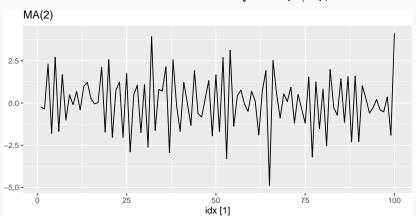
 $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, 1), \quad T = 100.$



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)

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ &= \phi_1 (\phi_1 y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t \\ &= \phi_1^2 y_{t-2} + \phi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ &= \phi_1^3 y_{t-3} + \phi_1^2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \phi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \end{aligned}$$

$\overline{\mathsf{MA}}(\infty)$ models

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

Example: AR(1)

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

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

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

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

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.

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.

- For $q = 1: -1 < \theta_1 < 1$.
- For q = 2:

$$-1 < heta_2 < 1$$
 $\qquad heta_2 + heta_1 > -1 \qquad heta_1 - heta_2 < 1.$

- More complicated conditions hold for $q \ge 3$.
- Estimation software takes care of this.

ARIMA models

Autoregressive Moving Average models:

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

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.
- \blacksquare $(1 B)^d y_t$ 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:

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

ARIMA(1,1,1) model:

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

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

Written out:

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \phi_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-1} - \phi_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-2} + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

R model

Intercept form

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

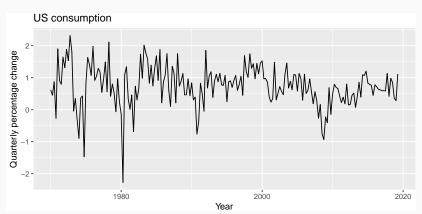
Mean form

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

- $y_t' = (1 B)^d y_t$
- \blacksquare μ is the mean of $\mathbf{y}'_{\mathbf{t}}$.
- $c = \mu(1 \phi_1 \cdots \phi_p).$
- fable uses intercept form

Australian household expenditure

```
us_change %>% autoplot(Consumption) +
  xlab("Year") +
  ylab("Quarterly percentage change") +
  ggtitle("US consumption")
```



US personal consumption

```
fit <- us_change %>% model(arima = ARIMA(Consumption ~ PDQ(0,0,0)))
report(fit)
## Series: Consumption
## Model: ARIMA(1,0,3) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1
                   ma1
                          ma2 ma3 constant
##
       0.5731 -0.3617 0.0925 0.1934 0.3160
## s.e. 0.1503 0.1607 0.0787 0.0824 0.0371
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.3334: log likelihood=-169.9
## ATC=351.8 ATCc=352.2 BTC=371.5
```

US personal consumption

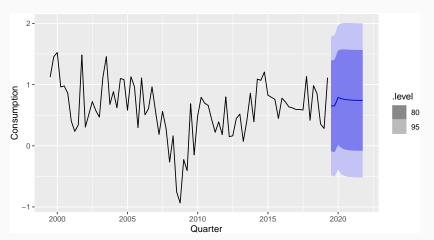
```
fit <- us change %>% model(arima = ARIMA(Consumption ~ PDO(0,0,0)))
report(fit)
## Series: Consumption
## Model: ARIMA(1,0,3) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1
                   ma1
                          ma2 ma3 constant
##
       0.5731 -0.3617 0.0925 0.1934 0.3160
## s.e. 0.1503 0.1607 0.0787 0.0824 0.0371
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.3334: log likelihood=-169.9
## ATC=351.8 ATCc=352.2 BTC=371.5
```

ARIMA(1,0,3) model:

```
y_t = 0.316 + 0.573y_{t-1} - 0.362\varepsilon_{t-1} + 0.0925\varepsilon_{t-2} + 0.193\varepsilon_{t-3} + \varepsilon_t, where \varepsilon_t is white noise with a standard deviation of 0.577 = \sqrt{0.333}.
```

US personal consumption

```
fit %>% forecast(h=10) %>%
  autoplot(tail(us_change, 80))
```



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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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

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

- The ARIMA() function 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 $-1, 2, 3, \ldots, k-1$ — are removed.

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

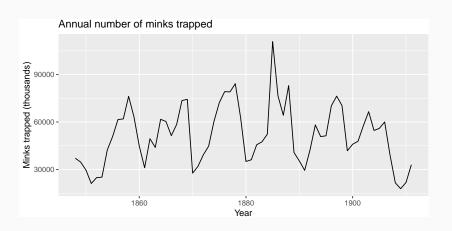
Partial autocorrelations

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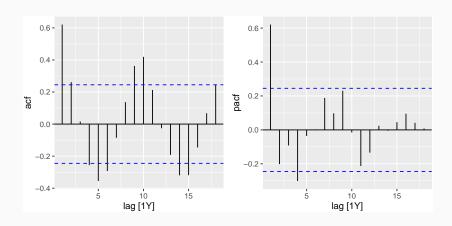
$$\alpha_k$$
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 $y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_k y_{t-k}$.

- Varying number of terms on RHS gives α_k for different values of k.
- $\alpha_1 = \rho_1$
- same critical values of $\pm 1.96/\sqrt{T}$ as for ACF.
- Last significant α_k indicates the order of an AR model.

Example: Mink trapping

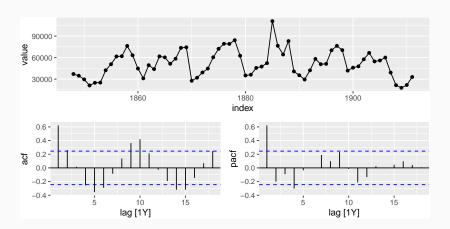


Example: Mink trapping



Example: Mink trapping

mink %>% gg_tsdisplay(value, plot_type='partial')



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

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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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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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.

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.

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)

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)</pre>
web_usage %>% gg_tsdisplay(value, plot_type = 'partial')
  200 -
value
  160 -
  120 -
   80 -
                           25
                                               50
                                                                                     100
                                             index
   1.0 -
                                                 1.0 -
   0.5
                                                 0.5 -
                                              oact
acf
                                                 0.0
                                                -0.5 -
  -0.5 -
               5
                       10
                                15
                                                                              15
                                                                                       20
                                                                     10
                      lag [1]
                                                                    lag [1]
```

Choosing your own model

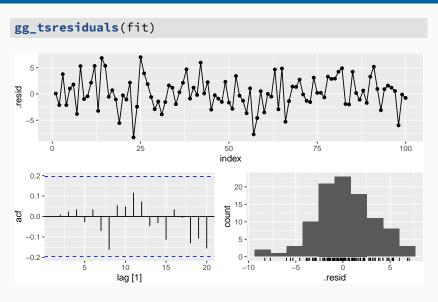
```
web_usage %>% mutate(diff = difference(value)) %>%
   gg_tsdisplay(diff, plot_type = 'partial')
   15 -
   10-
    5 -
    0 -
   -5-
  -10 -
  -15 -
                          25
                                                                75
                                             50
                                                                                  100
                                            index
   0.8 -
                                               0.8 -
   0.4
                                                0.4 -
                                            pacf
act
                                                0.0
                                               -0.4 -
  -0.4 -
               5
                       10
                                15
                                                                             15
                     lag [1]
                                                                  lag [1]
```

Choosing your own model

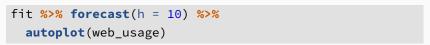
```
fit <- web_usage %>%
 model(arima = ARIMA(value ~ pdq(3, 1, 0)))
report(fit)
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(3,1,0)
##
## Coefficients:
##
       ar1 ar2 ar3
## 1.151 -0.6612 0.3407
## s.e. 0.095 0.1353 0.0941
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 9.656: log likelihood=-252
## AIC=512 AICc=512.4 BIC=522.4
```

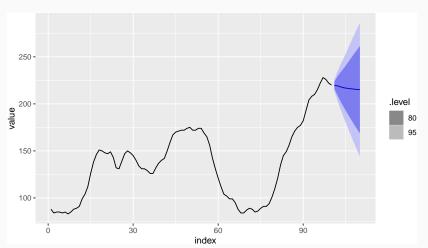
```
web_usage %>%
 model(ARIMA(value ~ pdq(d=1))) %>%
report()
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(1,1,1)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           arl mal
## 0.6504 0.5256
## s.e. 0.0842 0.0896
##
  sigma^2 estimated as 9.995: log likelihood=-254.2
## AIC=514.3 AICc=514.5 BIC=522.1
```

```
web_usage %>%
 model(ARIMA(value ~ pdq(d=1),
   stepwise = FALSE, approximation = FALSE)) %>%
  report()
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(3,1,0)
##
## Coefficients:
        ar1 ar2 ar3
##
## 1.151 -0.6612 0.3407
## s.e. 0.095 0.1353 0.0941
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 9.656: log likelihood=-252
## AIC=512 AICc=512.4 BIC=522.4
```



```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 10, dof = 3)
```





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.

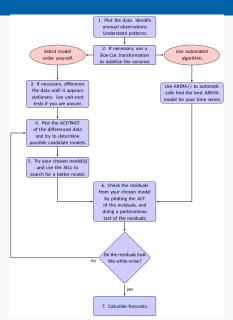
Automatic modelling procedure with ARIMA

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

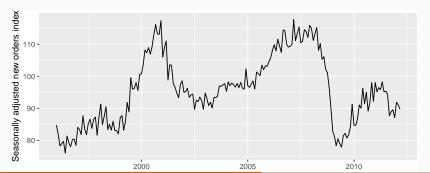
Use ARIMA to automatically select a model.

- 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.

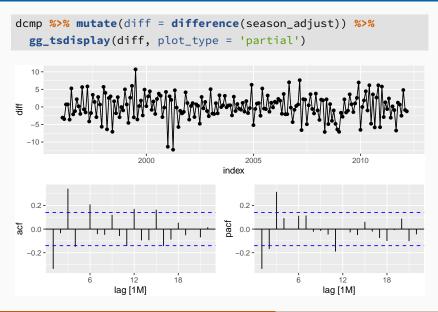
Modelling procedure



```
elecequip <- as_tsibble(fpp2::elecequip)
dcmp <- elecequip %>%
  model(STL(value ~ season(window = "periodic"))) %>%
  components() %>% select(-.model)
dcmp %>% as_tsibble %>%
  autoplot(season_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.

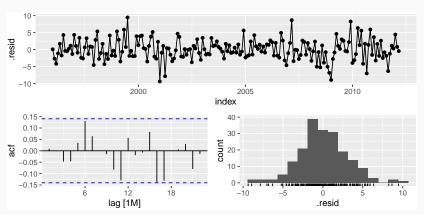


- PACF is suggestive of AR(3). So initial candidate model is ARIMA(3,1,0). No other obvious candidates.
- Fit ARIMA(3,1,0) model along with variations: ARIMA(4,1,0), ARIMA(2,1,0), ARIMA(3,1,1), etc. ARIMA(3,1,1) has smallest AICc value.

```
fit <- dcmp %>%
 model(arima = ARIMA(season_adjust))
report(fit)
## Series: season adjust
## Model: ARIMA(3,1,0)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1 ar2 ar3
## -0.3418 -0.0426 0.3185
## s.e. 0.0681 0.0725 0.0682
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 9.639: log likelihood=-493.8
## AIC=995.6 AICc=995.8 BIC=1009
```

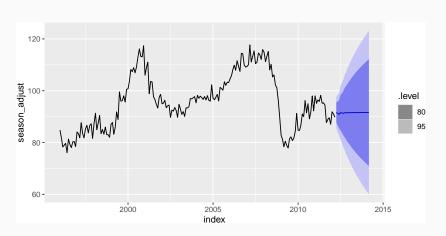
```
fit <- dcmp %>%
 model(arima = ARIMA(season_adjust, approximation=FALSE))
report(fit)
## Series: season adjust
## Model: ARIMA(3,1,1)
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1 ar2 ar3 ma1
## 0.0044 0.0916 0.3698 -0.3921
## s.e. 0.2201 0.0984 0.0669 0.2426
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 9.577: log likelihood=-492.7
## ATC=995.4 ATCc=995.7 BTC=1012
```

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



```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 arima 24.0 0.241
```





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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, ...

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

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

$$\begin{split} \left[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4\right] y_t \\ &= (1 + \theta_1B)\varepsilon_t, \end{split}$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{split} \left[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4 \right] y_t \\ &= (1 + \theta_1 B)\varepsilon_t, \end{split}$$

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

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

Point forecasts (h=1)

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

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

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

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

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

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)

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

$$\mathbf{y}_{T+2} = (1 + \phi_1)\mathbf{y}_{T+1} - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)\mathbf{y}_T - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)\mathbf{y}_{T-1} - \phi_3\mathbf{y}_{T-2} + \varepsilon_{T+2} + \theta_1\varepsilon_{T+1}.$$

Point forecasts (h=2)

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

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

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

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

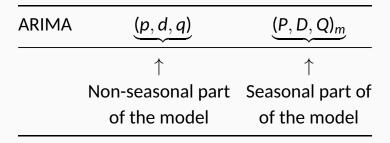
Your turn

For the GDP data (from global_economy):

- fit a suitable ARIMA model to the logged data for all countries
- check the residual diagnostics for Australia;
- produce forecasts of your fitted model for Australia.

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

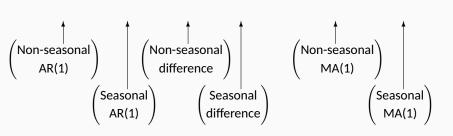


where m = number of observations per year.

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)
$$(1-\phi_1B)(1-\Phi_1B^4)(1-B)(1-B^4)y_t = (1+\theta_1B)(1+\Theta_1B^4)\varepsilon_t$$
.

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.



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.

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.

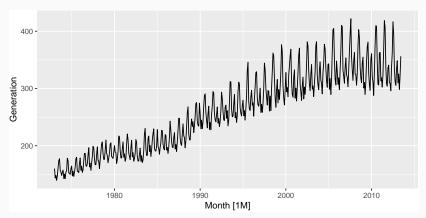
ARIMA $(0,0,0)(0,0,1)_{12}$ will show:

- 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,

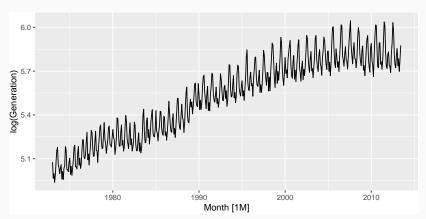
ARIMA $(0,0,0)(1,0,0)_{12}$ will show:

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

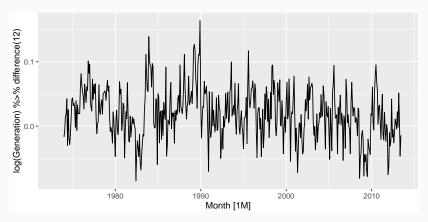
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  Generation
)
```



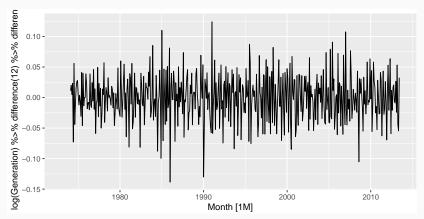
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation)
)
```



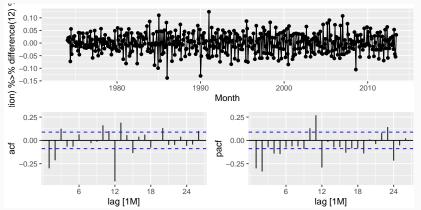
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation) %>% difference(12)
)
```



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



```
usmelec %>% gg_tsdisplay(
  log(Generation) %>% difference(12) %>% difference(),
  plot_type = "partial")
```

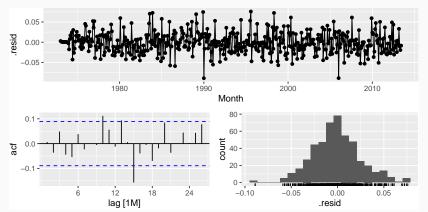


- \blacksquare d = 1 and D = 1 seems necessary
- \blacksquare P = 0 and Q = 1 suggested by seasonal lags
- p = 0 and q = 3 suggested by non-seasonal lags.

```
usmelec %>%
 model(arima = ARIMA(log(Generation) \sim pdq(0,1,3) + PDQ(0,1,1))) %>%
 report()
## Series: Generation
## Model: ARIMA(0,1,3)(0,1,1)[12]
## Transformation: log(.x)
##
## Coefficients:
##
            ma1
                     ma2
                             ma3
                                     sma1
##
       -0.4266 -0.2496 -0.0439 -0.8358
## s.e. 0.0462 0.0516 0.0430 0.0262
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.0006904: log likelihood=1045
## ATC=-2080 ATCc=-2080 BTC=-2059
```

```
usmelec %>%
 model(arima = ARIMA(log(Generation))) %>%
 report()
## Series: Generation
## Model: ARIMA(1,1,1)(2,1,1)[12]
## Transformation: log(.x)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1
                   ma1
                        sar1 sar2 sma1
##
       0.4116 -0.8483 0.0100 -0.1017 -0.8204
## s.e. 0.0617 0.0348 0.0561 0.0529
                                          0.0357
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.0006841: log likelihood=1047
## AIC=-2082 AICc=-2082 BIC=-2057
```

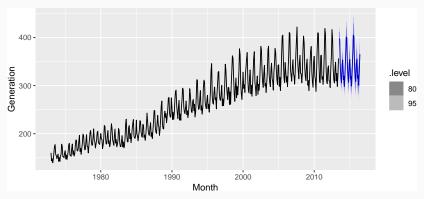
```
fit <- usmelec %>%
  model(arima = ARIMA(log(Generation)))
gg_tsresiduals(fit)
```



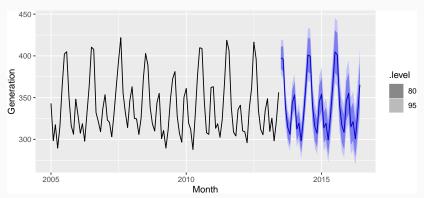
```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 24, dof = 5)
```

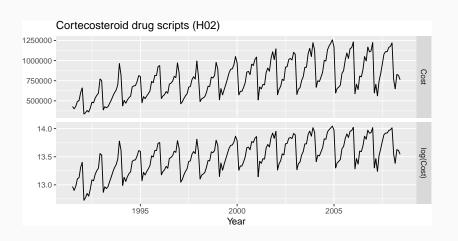
```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 arima 38.7 0.00484
```

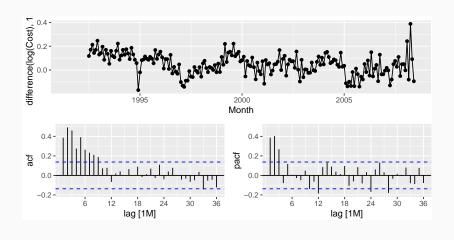
```
usmelec %>%
model(arima = ARIMA(log(Generation))) %>%
forecast(h = "3 years") %>%
autoplot(usmelec)
```



```
usmelec %>%
model(arima = ARIMA(log(Generation))) %>%
forecast(h = "3 years") %>%
autoplot(filter(usmelec, year(Month) >= 2005))
```



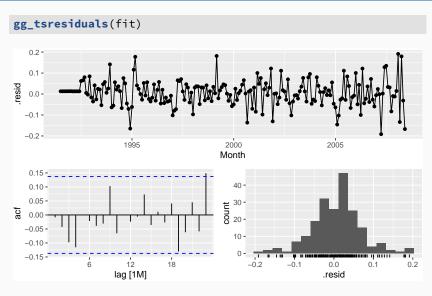




- Choose D = 1 and d = 0.
- Spikes in PACF at lags 12 and 24 suggest seasonal AR(2) term.
- Spikes in PACF suggests possible non-seasonal AR(3) term.
- Initial candidate model: ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)₁₂.

.model	AICc
ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12]	-485.5
ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,1)[12]	-484.3
ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12]	-483.7
ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12]	-476.3
ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)[12]	-475.1
ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12]	-474.9
ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12]	-463.4

```
fit <- h02 %>%
 model(best = ARIMA(log(Cost) \sim 0 + 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=250.1
## ATC=-486.1 ATCc=-485.5 BTC=-463.3
```

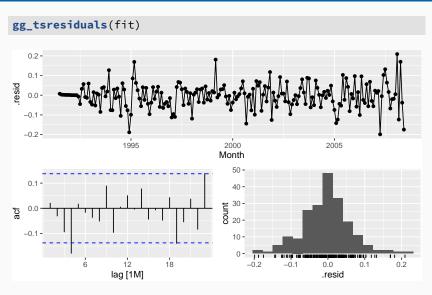


```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 6)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 best 50.5 0.0109
```

```
fit <- h02 %>% model(auto = ARIMA(log(Cost)))
report(fit)
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12]
## Transformation: log(.x)
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1 ar2 sma1
       -0.8491 -0.4207 -0.6401
##
## s.e. 0.0712 0.0714 0.0694
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.004399: log likelihood=245.4
## ATC=-482.8 ATCc=-482.6 BTC=-469.8
```

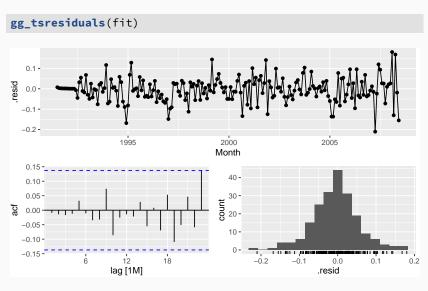
127



```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 3)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 auto 57.5 0.00513
```

```
fit <- h02 %>%
 model(best = ARIMA(log(Cost), stepwise = FALSE,
               approximation = FALSE,
               order constraint = p + q + P + 0 \le 9)
report(fit)
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12]
## Transformation: log(.x)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1 ar2 ar3 ar4
                                         mal sar1
## -0.0426 0.2097 0.2016 -0.2273 -0.7423 0.6213
## s.e. 0.2167 0.1814 0.1144 0.0810 0.2075 0.2421
## sar2 sma1 sma2
## -0.3832 -1.2018 0.4958
## s.e. 0.1185 0.2492 0.2136
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.004061: log likelihood=254.3
## ATC=-488.6 ATCc=-487.4 BTC=-456.1
```



```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 9)
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3

## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue

## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 best 35.1 0.136
```

Training data: July 1991 to June 2006

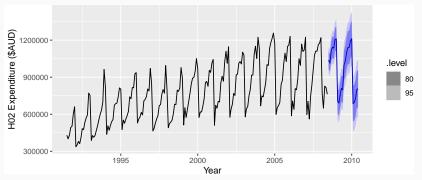
Test data: July 2006-June 2008

```
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) + PDQ(1, 1, 0))
   # ... #
fit %>%
  forecast(h = "2 years") %>%
  accuracy(h02)
```

.model RMSE ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,1)[12] 61878 ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12] 62142 ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12] 62947 ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12] 62984 ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12] 63114 ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] 65146 ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] 65270 ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644 ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)[12] 66816		
ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12] 62142 ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12] 62947 ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12] 62984 ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12] 63114 ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] 65146 ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] 65270 ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644	.model	RMSE
ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12] 62947 ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12] 62984 ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12] 63114 ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] 65146 ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] 65270 ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644	ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,1)[12]	61878
ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12] 62984 ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12] 63114 ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] 65146 ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] 65270 ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644	ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12]	62142
ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12] 63114 ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] 65146 ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] 65270 ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644	ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12]	62947
ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12] 65146 ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] 65270 ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644	ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12]	62984
ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12] 65270 ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644	ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12]	63114
ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12] 66644	ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12]	65146
	ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12]	65270
ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)[12] 66816	ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12]	66644
	ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)[12]	66816

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



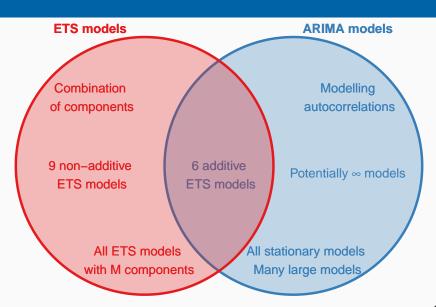
Outline

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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.

ARIMA vs ETS



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 $(1,0,m+1)(0,1,0)_m$	