

# 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.

## **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

## **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.

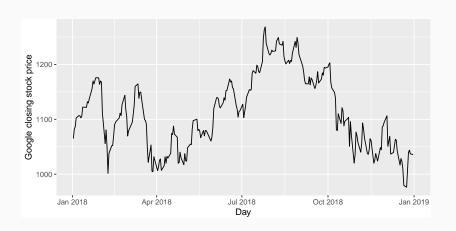
# **Stationarity**

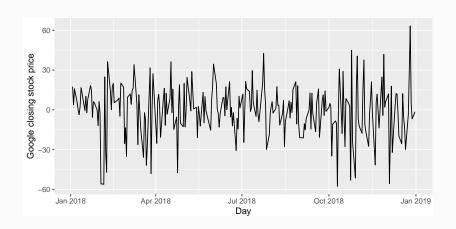
#### **Definition**

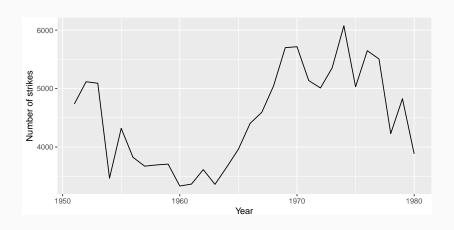
If  $\{y_t\}$  is a stationary time series, then for all s, the distribution of  $(y_t, \ldots, y_{t+s})$  does not depend on t.

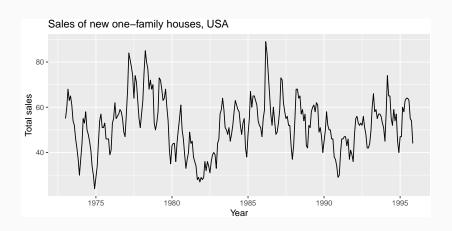
#### A stationary series is:

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

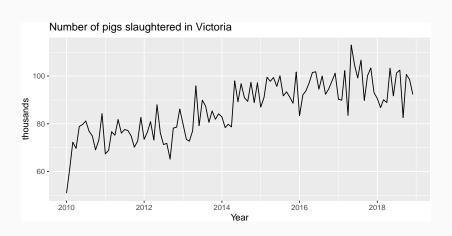


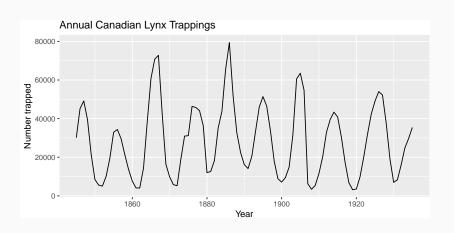












# **Stationarity**

#### **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**

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

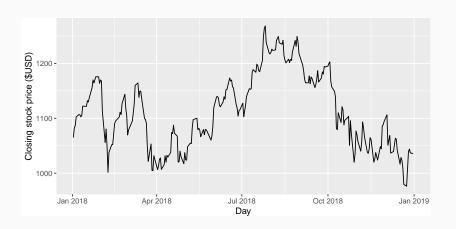
Transformations help to **stabilize the variance**.

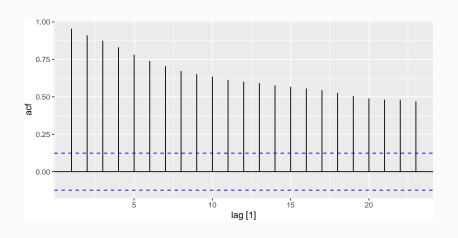
For ARIMA modelling, we also need to **stabilize the mean**.

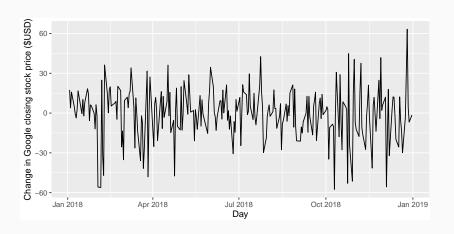
# Non-stationarity in the mean

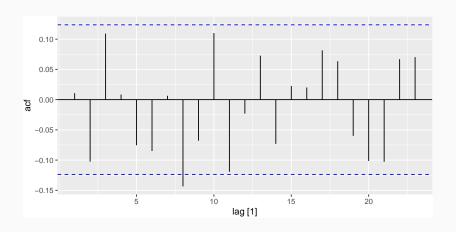
#### **Identifying non-stationary series**

- 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:
  Y' = Y

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

■ 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:

## **Second-order differencing**

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

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

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

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

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

- $y_t''$  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.

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

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

where m = number of seasons.

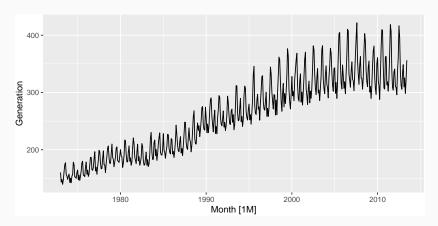
A seasonal difference is the difference between an observation and the corresponding observation from the previous year.

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

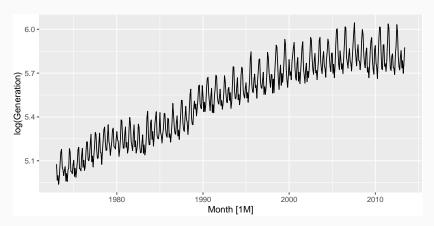
where m = number of seasons.

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

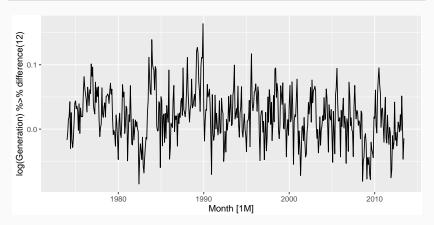
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  Generation
)
```



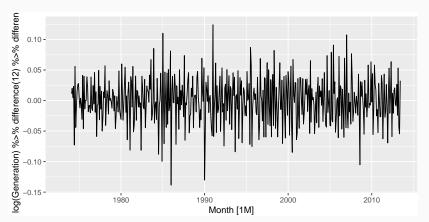
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation)
)
```



```
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...

When both seasonal and first differences are applied...

- 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.

When both seasonal and first differences are applied...

- 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.

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.

# 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.

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:

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

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

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

In other words, B, operating on  $y_t$ , has the effect of shifting the data back one period.

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

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

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:

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

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

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

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.

The backward shift operator is convenient for describing the process of *differencing*. A first difference can be written as

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

The backward shift operator is convenient for describing the process of *differencing*. A first difference can be written as

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

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

The backward shift operator is convenient for describing the process of *differencing*. A first difference can be written as

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

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.

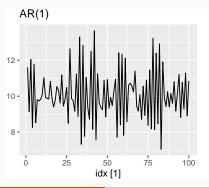
### **Outline**

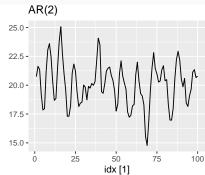
- 1 Stationarity and differencing
- 2 Non-seasonal ARIMA models
- 3 Estimation and order selection
- 4 ARIMA modelling in R
- 5 Forecasting
- 6 Seasonal ARIMA models
- 7 ARIMA vs ETS

## 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  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. This is a multiple regression with **lagged values** of  $y_t$  as predictors.

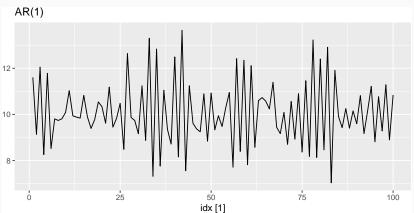




# AR(1) model

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

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



# AR(1) model

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

- When  $\phi_1$  = 0,  $y_t$  is equivalent to WN
- When  $\phi_1$  = 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  $\phi_1$  < 0,  $y_t$  tends to oscillate between positive and negative values.

# AR(2) model

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

 $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, 1),$ T = 100.AR(2) 25.0 -22.5 -20.0 -17.5 -15.0 -25 50 75 100 idx [1]

## **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.

# **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**

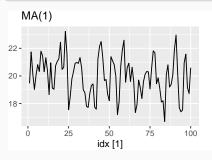
Complex roots of  $1 - \phi_1 z - \phi_2 z^2 - \cdots - \phi_p z^p$  lie outside the unit circle on the complex plane.

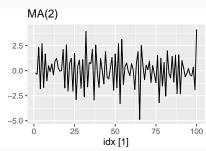
- For p = 1:  $-1 < \phi_1 < 1$ .
- For p = 2:  $-1 < \phi_2 < 1$   $\phi_2 + \phi_1 < 1$   $\phi_2 \phi_1 < 1$ .
- More complicated conditions hold for  $p \ge 3$ .
- Estimation software takes care of this.

# 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  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise. This is a multiple regression with **past errors** as predictors. Don't confuse this with moving average smoothing!

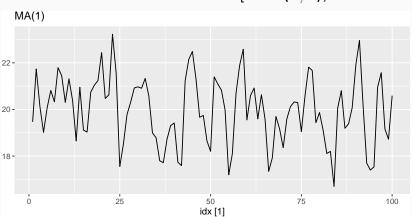




# MA(1) model

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

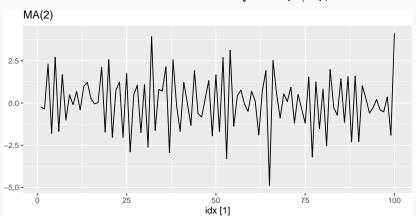
 $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, 1), \quad T = 100.$ 



# 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( $\infty$ ) 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:

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

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

### **ARIMA** models

### **Autoregressive Moving Average models:**

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

### **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<sub>t</sub> and lagged errors.
- Conditions on coefficients ensure stationarity.
- Conditions on coefficients ensure invertibility.

#### **ARIMA** models

## **Autoregressive Moving Average models:**

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

- 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

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

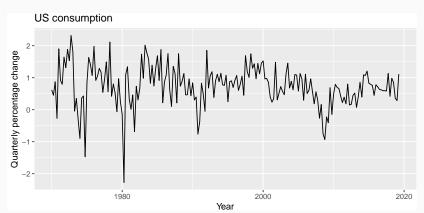
#### Mean form

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

- $y_t' = (1 B)^d y_t$
- $\blacksquare$   $\mu$  is the mean of  $y'_t$ .
- $c = \mu(1 \phi_1 \cdots \phi_p).$
- 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**

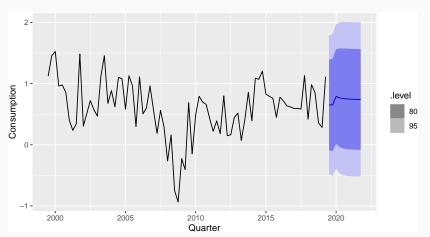
```
fit <- us change %>% model(arima = ARIMA(Consumption ~ PDO(0,0,0)))
report(fit)
## Series: Consumption
## Model: ARIMA(1,0,3) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1
                   ma1
                          ma2 ma3 constant
##
       0.5731 -0.3617 0.0925 0.1934 0.3160
## s.e. 0.1503 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-2} + \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.

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

If p = 2, we need  $\phi_1^2 + 4\phi_2 < 0$ . Then average cycle of length

## **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

## 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,  $\phi_1, \ldots, \phi_p$ ,  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_q$ .

 MLE is very similar to least squares estimation obtained by minimizing

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

- The ARIMA() 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.

#### **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.

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

## **Partial autocorrelations**

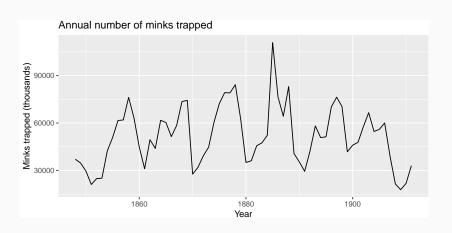
Partial autocorrelations measure relationship between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-k}$ , when the effects of other time lags  $-1, 2, 3, \ldots, k-1$  — are removed.

$$\alpha_k$$
 = kth partial autocorrelation coefficient  
= equal to the estimate of  $\phi_k$  in regression:

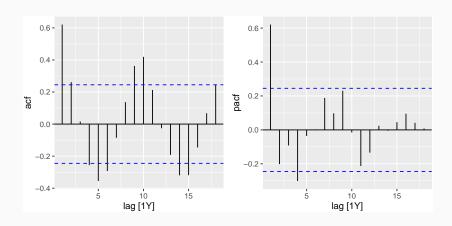
$$y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_k y_{t-k}.$$

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

# **Example: Mink trapping**

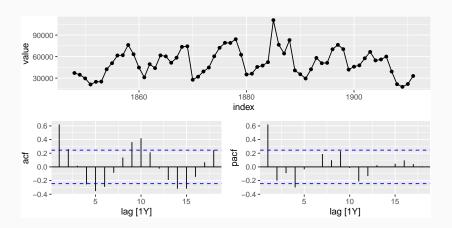


# **Example: Mink trapping**



# **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,

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

#### **Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC):**

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

where L is the likelihood of the data,

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

#### **Corrected AIC:**

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

#### **Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC):**

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

where L is the likelihood of the data,

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

#### **Corrected AIC:**

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

#### **Bayesian Information Criterion:**

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

## **Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC):**

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

where L is the likelihood of the data,

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

#### **Corrected AIC:**

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

#### **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.

## **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

#### 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  $\pm 1$ ;
- p, q both vary from current model by  $\pm 1$ ;
- 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**

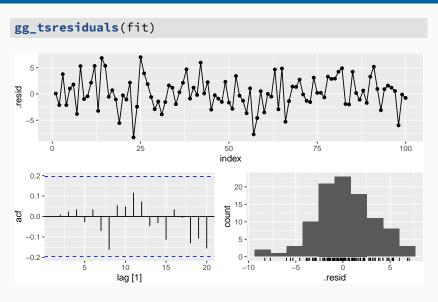
```
web_usage %>% mutate(diff = difference(value)) %>%
   gg_tsdisplay(diff, plot_type = 'partial')
   15 -
   10-
    5 -
    0 -
   -5-
  -10 -
  -15 -
                          25
                                                                75
                                             50
                                                                                  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
```

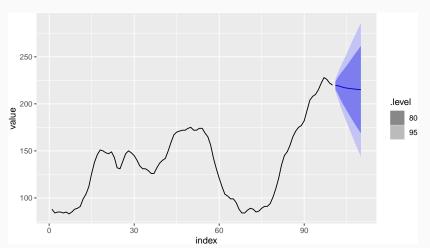
```
web_usage %>%
 model(ARIMA(value ~ pdq(d=1))) %>%
report()
## Series: value
## Model: ARIMA(1,1,1)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           arl mal
## 0.6504 0.5256
## s.e. 0.0842 0.0896
##
  sigma^2 estimated as 9.995: log likelihood=-254.2
## AIC=514.3 AICc=514.5 BIC=522.1
```

```
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.

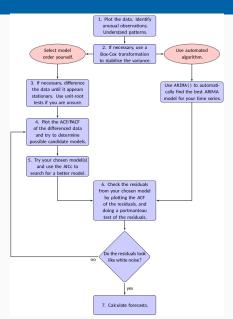
# Automatic modelling procedure with ARIMA

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

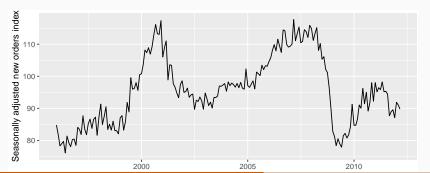
Use ARIMA to automatically select a model.

- 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.

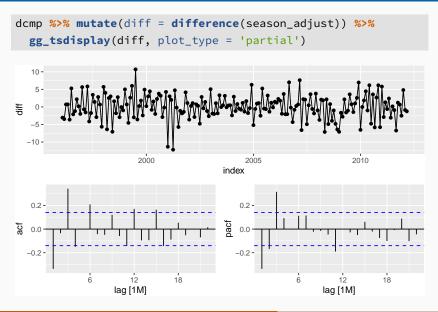
# **Modelling procedure**



```
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.

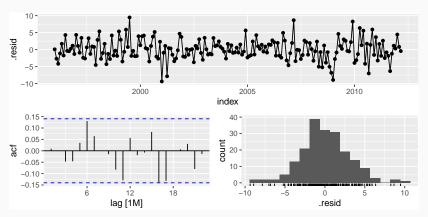


- PACF is suggestive of AR(3). So initial candidate model is ARIMA(3,1,0). No other obvious candidates.
- Fit ARIMA(3,1,0) model along with variations: ARIMA(4,1,0), ARIMA(2,1,0), ARIMA(3,1,1), etc. ARIMA(3,1,1) has smallest AICc value.

```
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
```

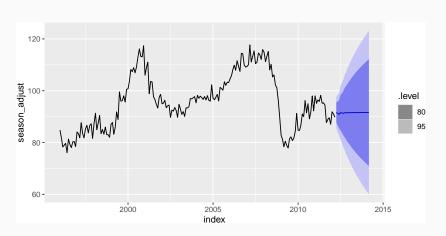
```
fit <- dcmp %>%
 model(arima = ARIMA(season_adjust, approximation=FALSE))
report(fit)
## Series: season adjust
## Model: ARIMA(3,1,1)
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1 ar2 ar3 ma1
## 0.0044 0.0916 0.3698 -0.3921
## s.e. 0.2201 0.0984 0.0669 0.2426
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 9.577: log likelihood=-492.7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





## **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

- 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, ...

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

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

$$[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4] y_t$$
  
=  $(1 + \theta_1B)\varepsilon_t$ ,

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

$$[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4] y_t$$
  
=  $(1 + \theta_1B)\varepsilon_t$ ,

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

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

$$[1 - (1 + \phi_1)B + (\phi_1 - \phi_2)B^2 + (\phi_2 - \phi_3)B^3 + \phi_3B^4] y_t$$
  
=  $(1 + \theta_1B)\varepsilon_t$ ,

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

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

## 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

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

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

## 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)

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

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

# 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

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

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

### 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( $\infty$ ) 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 errors<sub>100</sub>

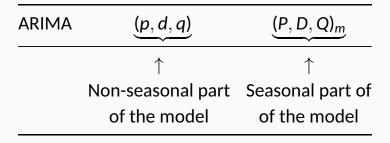
### Your turn

### 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

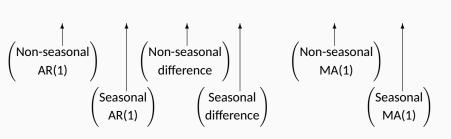


where m = number of observations per year.

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

E.g., ARIMA(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)<sub>4</sub> 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)<sub>4</sub> 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)<sub>4</sub> 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) <sub>m</sub>	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.

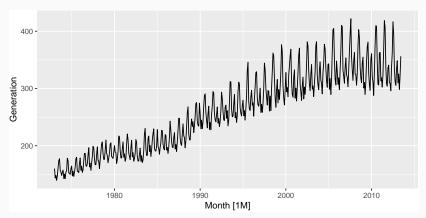
#### ARIMA $(0,0,0)(0,0,1)_{12}$ will show:

- 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, ....

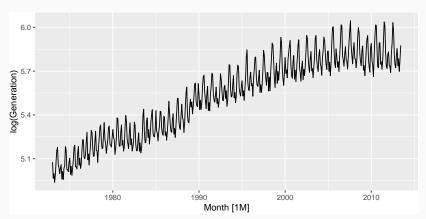
#### ARIMA $(0,0,0)(1,0,0)_{12}$ will show:

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

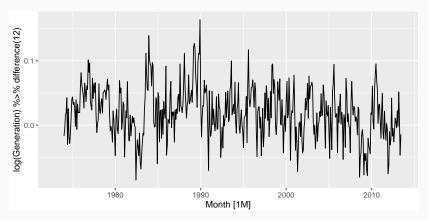
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  Generation
)
```



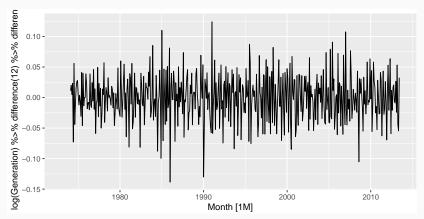
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation)
)
```



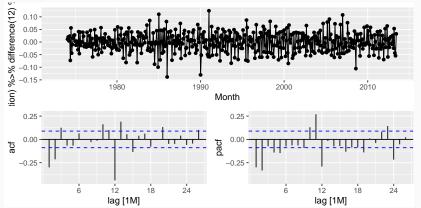
```
usmelec %>% autoplot(
  log(Generation) %>% difference(12)
)
```



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



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



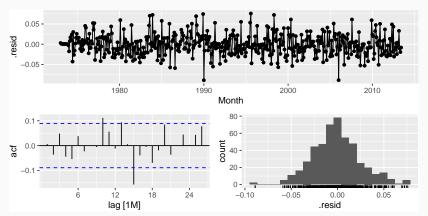
- $\blacksquare$  d = 1 and D = 1 seems necessary
- $\blacksquare$  P = 0 and Q = 1 suggested by seasonal lags
- p = 0 and q = 3 suggested by non-seasonal lags.

```
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
```

115

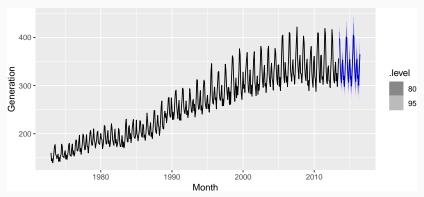
```
fit <- usmelec %>%
  model(arima = ARIMA(log(Generation)))
gg_tsresiduals(fit)
```



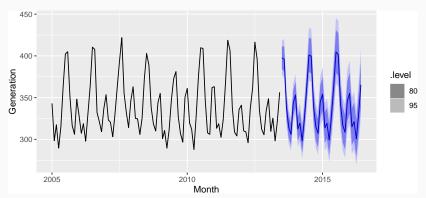
```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 24, dof = 5)
```

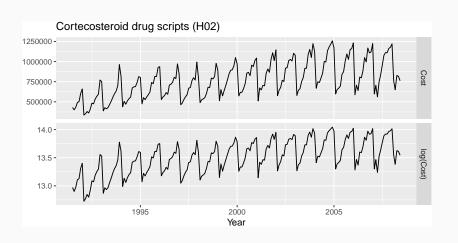
```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 arima 38.7 0.00484
```

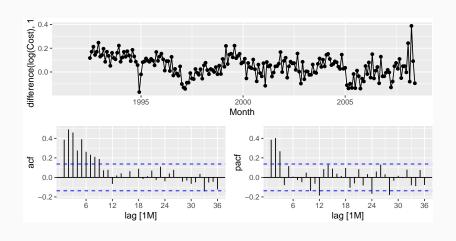
```
usmelec %>%
  model(arima = ARIMA(log(Generation))) %>%
  forecast(h = "3 years") %>%
  autoplot(usmelec)
```



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



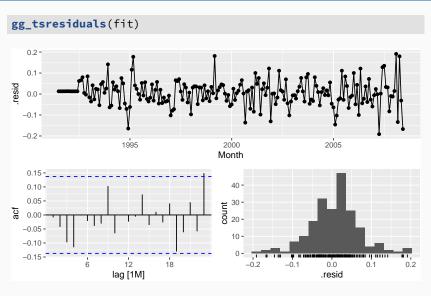




- Choose D = 1 and d = 0.
- Spikes in PACF at lags 12 and 24 suggest seasonal AR(2) term.
- Spikes in PACF suggests possible non-seasonal AR(3) term.
- Initial candidate model: ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)<sub>12</sub>.

.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
```

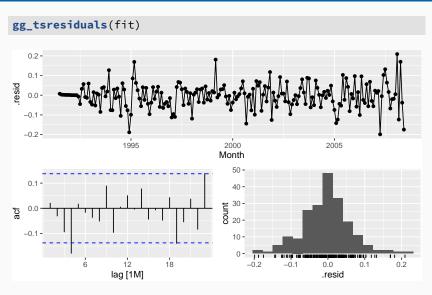


```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 6)
```

```
## # 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
```

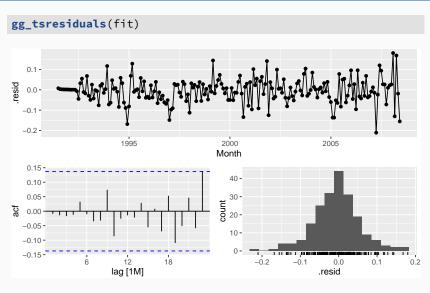
127



```
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
```

Training data: July 1991 to June 2006

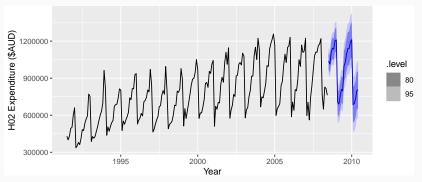
Test data: July 2006-June 2008

```
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

- 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**

- 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 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)	$\theta_1$ = $\alpha$ + $\beta$ $-$ 2
		$\theta_{\mathrm{2}}$ = 1 $-\alpha$
ETS(A,A,N)	ARIMA(1,1,2)	$\phi_1 = \phi$
		$\theta_1$ = $\alpha$ + $\phi\beta$ $-$ 1 $ \phi$
		$\theta_2$ = (1 $-\alpha$ ) $\phi$
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) $_m$	