

MONASH BUSINESS SCHOOL

ETC3550/ETC5550 Applied forecasting

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

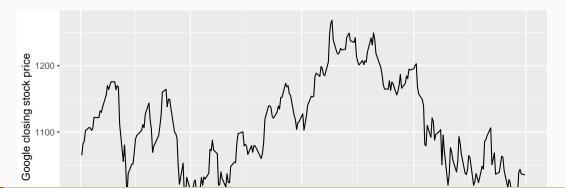
Definition

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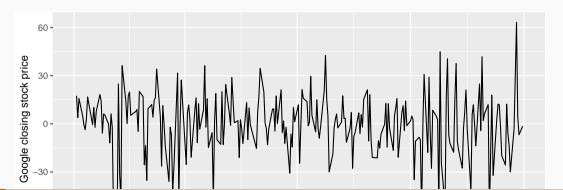
A stationary series is:

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

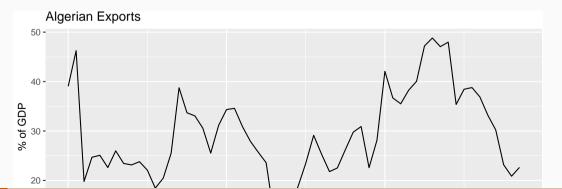
```
gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "GOOG", year(Date) == 2018) %>%
  autoplot(Close) +
  labs(y = "Google closing stock price", x = "Day")
```



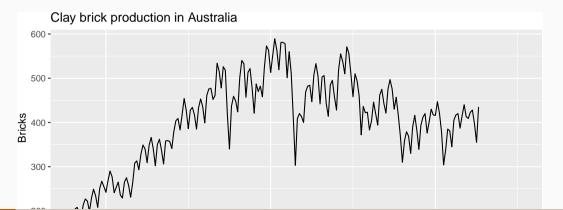
```
gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "G00G", year(Date) == 2018) %>%
  autoplot(difference(Close)) +
  labs(y = "Google closing stock price", x = "Day")
```



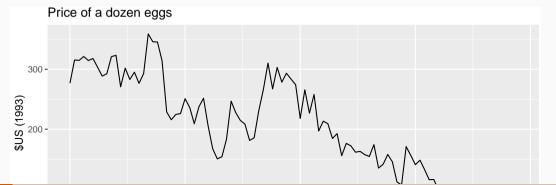
```
global_economy %>%
  filter(Country == "Algeria") %>%
  autoplot(Exports) +
  labs(y = "% of GDP", title = "Algerian Exports")
```



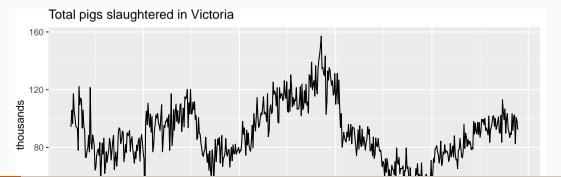
```
aus_production %>%
  autoplot(Bricks) +
  labs(title = "Clay brick production in Australia")
```



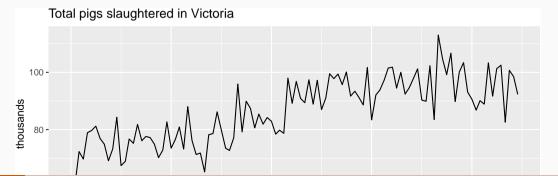
```
prices %>%
  filter(year >= 1900) %>%
  autoplot(eggs) +
  labs(y="$US (1993)", title="Price of a dozen eggs")
```



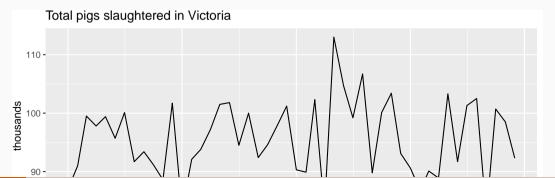
```
aus_livestock %>%
  filter(
    Animal == "Pigs", State == "Victoria",
) %>%
  autoplot(Count/1e3) +
  labs(y = "thousands", title = "Total pigs slaughtered in Victoria")
```

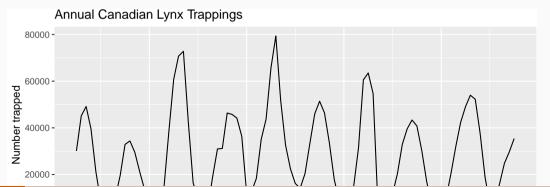


```
aus_livestock %>%
  filter(
    Animal == "Pigs", State == "Victoria", year(Month) >= 2010
) %>%
  autoplot(Count/1e3) +
  labs(y = "thousands", title = "Total pigs slaughtered in Victoria")
```



```
aus_livestock %>%
  filter(
    Animal == "Pigs", State == "Victoria", year(Month) >= 2015
) %>%
  autoplot(Count/1e3) +
  labs(y = "thousands", title = "Total pigs slaughtered in Victoria")
```





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Transformations help to **stabilize the variance**.

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

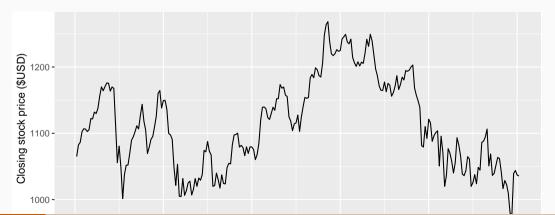
Non-stationarity in the mean

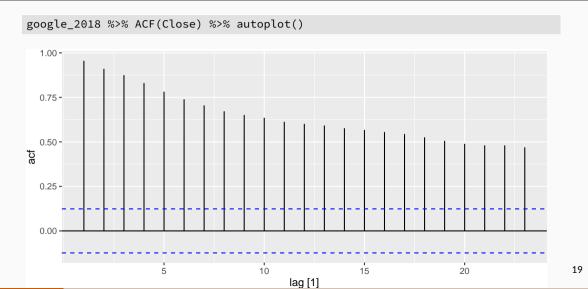
Identifying non-stationary series

- 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.

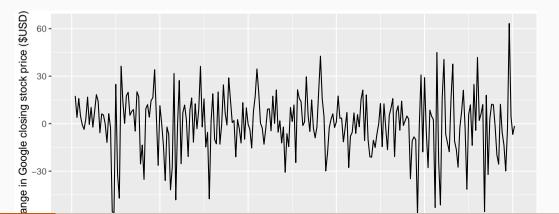
```
google_2018 <- gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "GOOG", year(Date) == 2018) %>%
  mutate(trading_day = row_number()) %>%
  update_tsibble(index = trading_day, regular = TRUE)
```

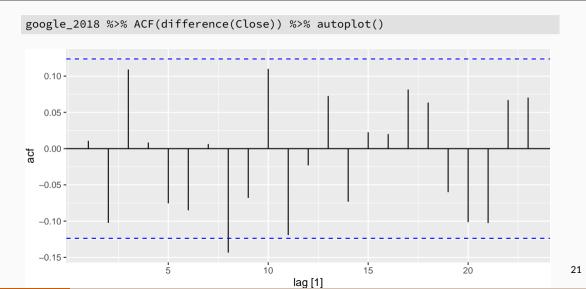
```
google_2018 %>%
  autoplot(Close) +
  labs(y = "Closing stock price ($USD)")
```





```
google_2018 %>%
  autoplot(difference(Close)) +
  labs(y = "Change in Google closing stock price ($USD)")
```





Differencing

- Differencing helps to stabilize the mean.
- The differenced series is the *change* between each observation in the original series: $y'_t = y_t y_{t-1}$.
- 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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$$= (y_t - y_{t-1}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-2})$$

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

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

Seasonal differencing

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

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$$\mathbf{y}_t' = \mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{y}_{t-m}$$

where m = number of seasons.

Seasonal differencing

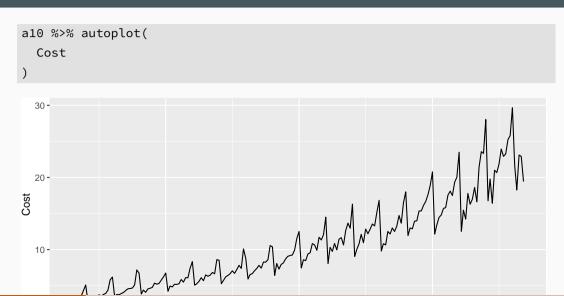
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$$\mathbf{y}_t' = \mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{y}_{t-m}$$

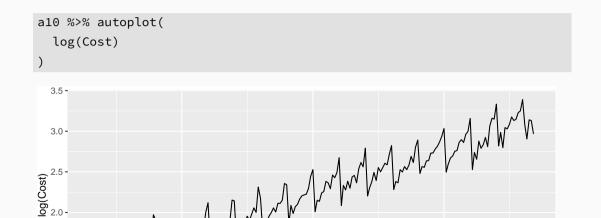
where m = number of seasons.

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

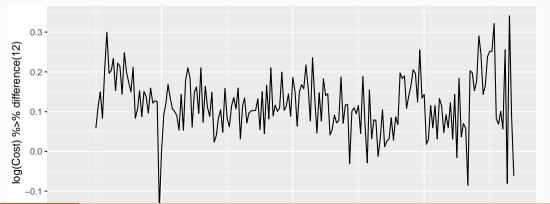
```
a10 <- PBS %>%
filter(ATC2 == "A10") %>%
summarise(Cost = sum(Cost)/le6)
```



1.5 -



```
a10 %>% autoplot(
  log(Cost) %>% difference(12)
)
```



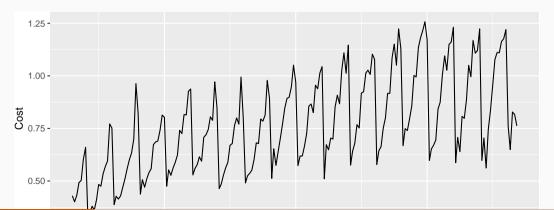
Cortecosteroid drug sales

```
h02 <- PBS %>%

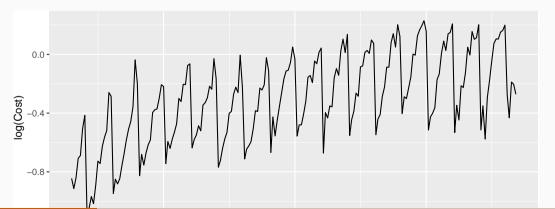
filter(ATC2 == "H02") %>%

summarise(Cost = sum(Cost)/1e6)
```

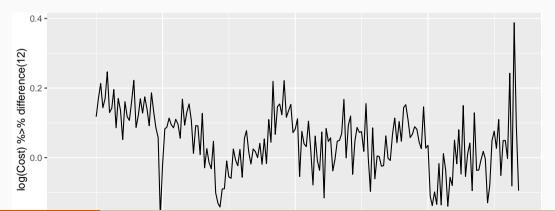
```
h02 %>% autoplot(
Cost
)
```



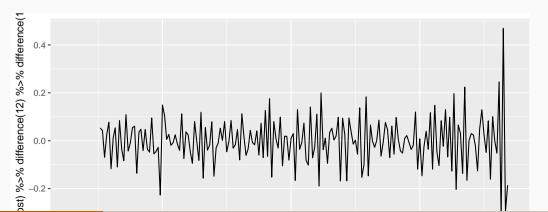
```
h02 %>% autoplot(
   log(Cost)
)
```



```
h02 %>% autoplot(
   log(Cost) %>% difference(12)
)
```



```
h02 %>% autoplot(
  log(Cost) %>% difference(12) %>% difference(1)
)
```



- 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

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

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

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

Seasonal differencing

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

Interpretation of differencing

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

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

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

Unit root tests

Statistical tests to determine the required order of differencing.

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

KPSS test

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

KPSS test

```
google_2018 %>%
 features(Close, unitroot_kpss)
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
    Symbol kpss_stat kpss_pvalue
##
   <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
##
## 1 GOOG 0.573 0.0252
google_2018 %>%
```

Symbol ndiffs ## <chr> <int> ## 1 GOOG 1

A tibble: 1 x 2

features(Close, unitroot_ndiffs)

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.

```
h02 %>% mutate(log_sales = log(Cost)) %>%
features(log_sales, list(unitroot_nsdiffs, feat_stl))
```

Automatically selecting differences

```
h02 %>% mutate(log sales = log(Cost)) %>%
 features(log sales, unitroot nsdiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## nsdiffs
## <int>
## 1
h02 %>% mutate(d_log_sales = difference(log(Cost), 12)) %>%
 features(d_log_sales, unitroot_ndiffs)
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
##
    ndiffs
## <int>
## 1
```

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

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

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

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

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

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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.

Outline

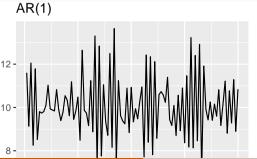
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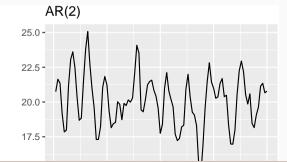
Autoregressive models

Autoregressive (AR) models:

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{c} + \phi_1 \mathbf{y}_{t-1} + \phi_2 \mathbf{y}_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p \mathbf{y}_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where ε_t is white noise. This is a multiple regression with **lagged** values of y_t as predictors.

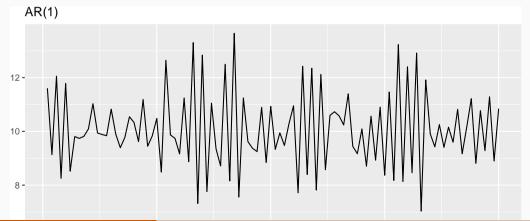




AR(1) model

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

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



AR(1) model

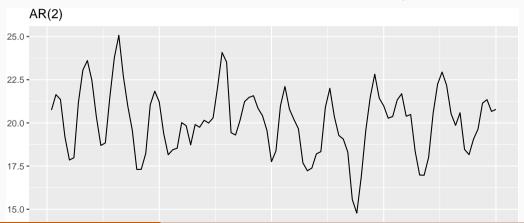
$$\mathbf{y_t} = \mathbf{c} + \phi_1 \mathbf{y_{t-1}} + \varepsilon_t$$

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

AR(2) model

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

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



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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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:

$$-1 < \phi_2 < 1$$
 $\phi_2 + \phi_1 < 1$ $\phi_2 - \phi_1 < 1$.

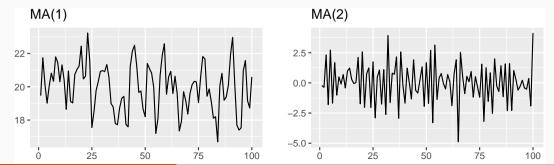
- More complicated conditions hold for $p \ge 3$.
- Estimation software takes care of this.

Moving Average (MA) models

Moving Average (MA) models:

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{c} + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$$

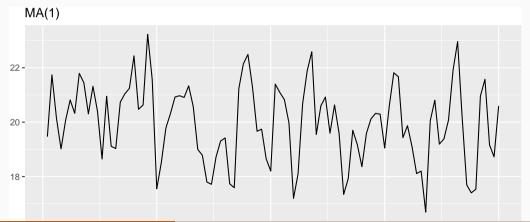
where ε_t is white noise. This is a multiple regression with **past errors** as predictors. Don't confuse this with moving average smoothing!



MA(1) model

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

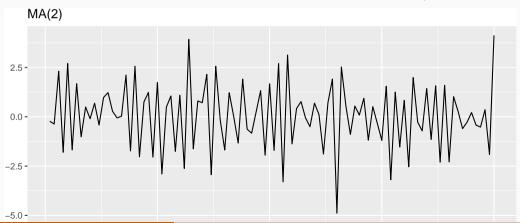
 $\varepsilon_{\rm t}\sim N(0,1),\quad T$ = 100.



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(∞) process.

Example: AR(1)

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

$MA(\infty)$ models

It is possible to write any stationary AR(p) process as an MA(∞) 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 $-1 < \phi_1 < 1$:

Invertibility

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

Invertibility

General condition for invertibility

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

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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:

$$-1 < \theta_2 < 1$$
 $\theta_2 + \theta_1 > -1$ $\theta_1 - \theta_2 < 1$.

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

Autoregressive Moving Average models:

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

Autoregressive Moving Average models:

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

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

Autoregressive Moving Average models:

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

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

Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average models

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

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.
 - = AR(p): ARIMA(p,0,0)

58

Backshift notation for ARIMA

ARMA model:

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

ARIMA(1,1,1) model:

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

 $V_t = C + V_{t-1} + \theta_1 V_{t-1} - \theta_1 V_{t-2} + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$

Written out:

R model

Intercept form

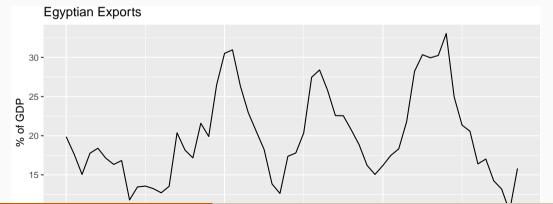
$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p) y_t' = c + (1 + \theta_1 B + \dots + \theta_q B^q) \varepsilon_t$$

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 μ is the mean of y'_t .
- $c = \mu(1 \phi_1 \cdots \phi_p).$
- fable uses intercept form

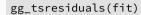
```
global_economy %>%
  filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
  autoplot(Exports) +
  labs(y = "% of GDP", title = "Egyptian Exports")
```

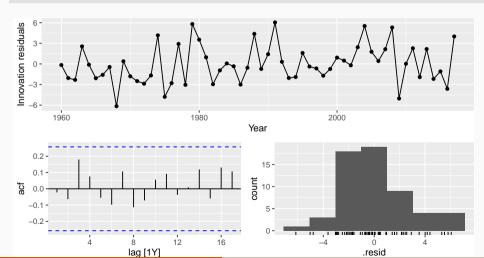


```
fit <- global_economy %>% filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
 model(ARIMA(Exports))
report(fit)
## Series: Exports
## Model: ARIMA(2,0,1) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
   ar1 ar2 ma1 constant
##
  1.676 -0.8034 -0.690 2.562
## s.e. 0.111 0.0928 0.149 0.116
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 8.046: log likelihood=-142
## ATC=293 ATCc=294
                    BTC=303
```

```
fit <- global_economy %>% filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
 model(ARIMA(Exports))
report(fit)
## Series: Exports
## Model: ARIMA(2,0,1) w/ mean
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##
## sigma^2 estimated as 8.046: log likelihood=-142
## ATC=293 ATCc=294
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```

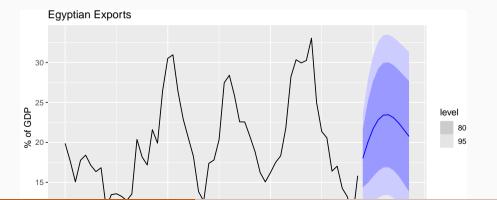
ARIMA(2,0,1) model:





1 Egypt, Arab Rep. ARIMA(Exports) 5.78 0.448

```
fit %>% forecast(h=10) %>%
  autoplot(global_economy) +
  labs(y = "% of GDP", title = "Egyptian Exports")
```



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

- \blacksquare 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, ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_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} + \varepsilon_t.
```

Partial autocorrelations

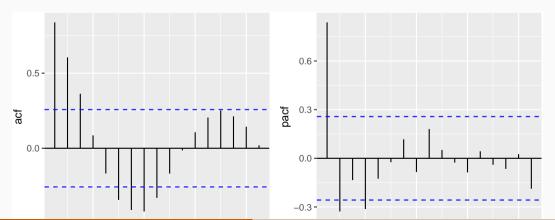
Partial autocorrelations measure relationship

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

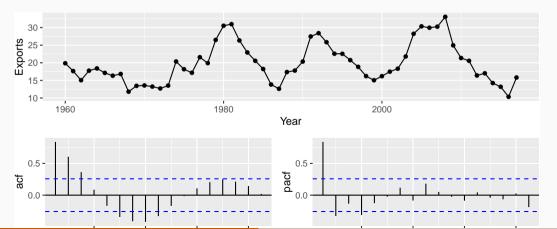
$$\alpha_k$$
 = k th partial autocorrelation coefficient
= equal to the estimate of ϕ_k in regression:
 $y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_k y_{t-k} + \varepsilon_t$.

- 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.

```
egypt <- global_economy %>% filter(Code == "EGY")
egypt %>% ACF(Exports) %>% autoplot()
egypt %>% PACF(Exports) %>% autoplot()
```



```
global_economy %>% filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
   gg_tsdisplay(Exports, plot_type='partial')
```



AR(1)

$$\rho_k = \phi_1^k$$
 for $k = 1, 2, ...$;
 $\alpha_1 = \phi_1$ $\alpha_k = 0$ for $k = 2, 3, ...$

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)

$$\rho_1 = \theta_1/(1 + \theta_1^2) \qquad \rho_k = 0 \qquad \text{for } k = 2, 3, ...;$$

$$\alpha_k = -(-\theta_1)^k/(1 + \theta_1^2 + \dots + \theta_1^{2k})$$

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
- \blacksquare 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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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):

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

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

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.

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A non-seasonal ARIMA process

$$\phi(\mathsf{B})(\mathsf{1}-\mathsf{B})^d\mathsf{y}_t=\mathsf{c}+\theta(\mathsf{B})\varepsilon_t$$

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)

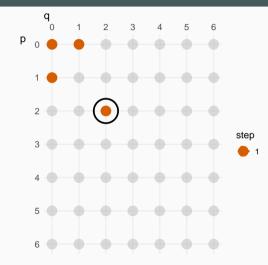
ARIMA(1, d, 0)

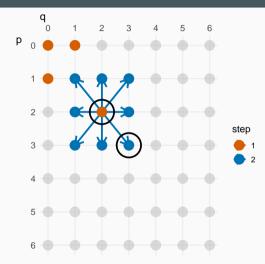
ARIMA(0, d, 1)

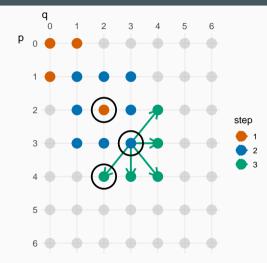
Step 2: Consider variations of current model:

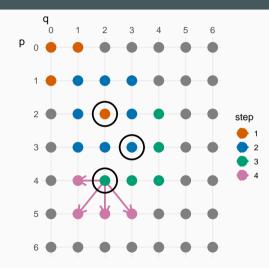
- vary one of p, q, from current model by ± 1 ;
- p, q both vary from current model by ± 1 ;
- Include/exclude *c* from current model.

Model with lowest AICc becomes current model.









Egyptian exports

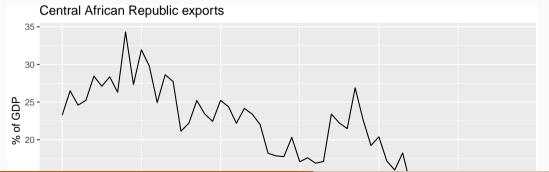
```
global_economy %>% filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
  gg_tsdisplay(Exports, plot_type='partial')
  30 -
Exports 25 - 20 -
  15 -
  10 -
        1960
                                      1980
                                                                     2000
                                                   Year
  0.5 -
                                                      0.5 -
                                                   pacf
acf
                                                      0.0
```

Egyptian exports

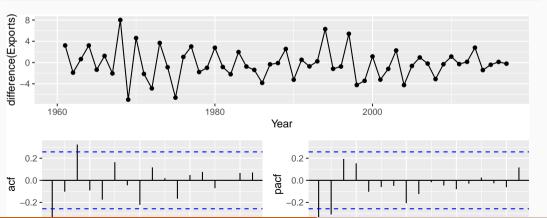
```
fit1 <- global_economy %>%
 filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
 model(ARIMA(Exports ~ pdq(4,0,0)))
report(fit1)
## Series: Exports
## Model: ARIMA(4,0,0) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1 ar2 ar3 ar4 constant
##
  0.986 - 0.172 \ 0.181 - 0.328 \ 6.692
## s.e. 0.125 0.186 0.186 0.127 0.356
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 7.885: log likelihood=-141
## AIC=293 AICc=295
                      BIC=305
```

Egyptian exports

```
fit2 <- global_economy %>%
 filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
 model(ARIMA(Exports))
report(fit2)
## Series: Exports
## Model: ARIMA(2,0,1) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
         ar1 ar2 ma1 constant
## 1.676 -0.8034 -0.690 2.562
## s.e. 0.111 0.0928 0.149 0.116
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 8.046: log likelihood=-142
## AIC=293 AICc=294
                      BIC=303
```



```
global_economy %>%
  filter(Code == "CAF") %>%
  gg_tsdisplay(difference(Exports), plot_type='partial')
```

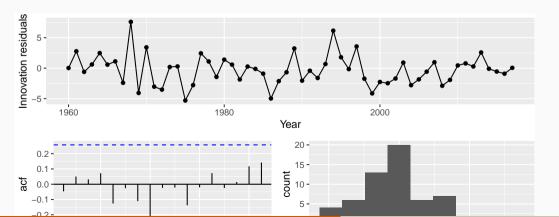


```
caf_fit <- global_economy %>%
  filter(Code == "CAF") %>%
  model(arima210 = ARIMA(Exports ~ pdq(2,1,0)),
        arima013 = ARIMA(Exports ~ pdq(0,1,3)),
        stepwise = ARIMA(Exports),
        search = ARIMA(Exports, stepwise=FALSE))
```

```
## # A mable: 4 x 3
  # Key: Country, Model name [4]
                               `Model name`
##
     Country
                                                      Orders
##
     <fct>
                               <chr>
                                                     <model>
  1 Central African Republic arima210
                                             \langle ARIMA(2,1,0) \rangle
  2 Central African Republic arima013
                                             <ARIMA(0,1,3)>
  3 Central African Republic stepwise
                                             < ARIMA(2,1,2) >
## 4 Central African Republic search
                                             <ARIMA(3,1,0)>
```

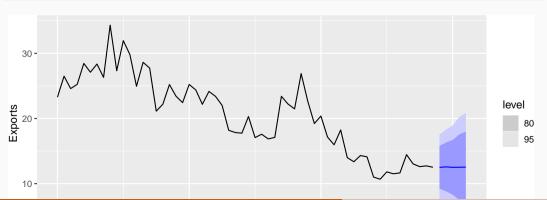
```
glance(caf_fit) %>% arrange(AICc) %>% select(.model:BIC)
```

```
caf_fit %>%
  select(search) %>%
  gg_tsresiduals()
```



```
augment(caf_fit) %>%
filter(.model=='search') %>%
features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 10, dof = 3)
```

```
caf_fit %>%
  forecast(h=5) %>%
  filter(.model=='search') %>%
  autoplot(global_economy)
```



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.

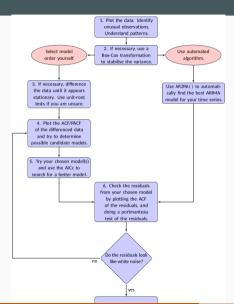
Automatic modelling procedure with ARIMA()

- 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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_t &= (\mathbf{1} + \phi_1) \mathbf{y}_{t-1} - (\phi_1 - \phi_2) \mathbf{y}_{t-2} - (\phi_2 - \phi_3) \mathbf{y}_{t-3} \\ &- \phi_3 \mathbf{y}_{t-4} + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}. \end{aligned}$$

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)

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

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

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

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

$$\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = (1 + \phi_1)y_T - (\phi_1 - \phi_2)y_{T-1} - (\phi_2 - \phi_3)y_{T-2} - \phi_3y_{T-3} + \theta_1e_T.$$

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

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

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

Prediction intervals

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

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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):

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

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

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

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

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

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

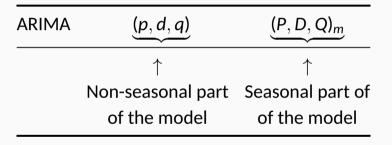
$$v_{T|T+h} = \hat{\sigma}^{2} \left[1 + \sum_{i=1}^{h-1} \theta_{i}^{2} \right], \quad \text{for } h = 2, 3, \dots.$$

- 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 errors

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where m = number of observations per year.

E.g., ARIMA(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)₄ model (without constant)

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$$(1 - \phi_1 B)(1 - \Phi_1 B^4)(1 - B)(1 - B^4)y_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)(1 + \Theta_1 B^4)\varepsilon_t.$$

E.g., ARIMA(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)₄ model (without constant)
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$$(Non-seasonal) \qquad (Non-seasonal) \qquad (Non-seasonal) \qquad (Non-seasonal) \qquad (Non-seasonal) \qquad (Seasonal) \qquad ($$

E.g., ARIMA(1, 1, 1)(1, 1, 1)₄ model (without constant)

$$(1 - \phi_1 B)(1 - \Phi_1 B^4)(1 - B)(1 - B^4)y_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)(1 + \Theta_1 B^4)\varepsilon_t.$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= (1+\phi_1)y_{t-1} - \phi_1y_{t-2} + (1+\Phi_1)y_{t-4} \\ &- (1+\phi_1+\Phi_1+\phi_1\Phi_1)y_{t-5} + (\phi_1+\phi_1\Phi_1)y_{t-6} \\ &- \Phi_1y_{t-8} + (\Phi_1+\phi_1\Phi_1)y_{t-9} - \phi_1\Phi_1y_{t-10} \\ &+ \varepsilon_t + \theta_1\varepsilon_{t-1} + \Theta_1\varepsilon_{t-4} + \theta_1\Theta_1\varepsilon_{t-5}. \end{aligned}$$

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

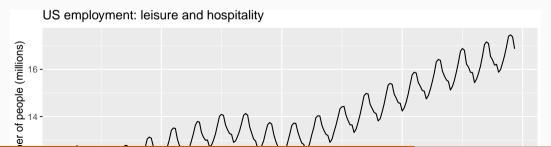
The seasonal part of an AR or MA model will be seen in the seasonal lags of the PACF and ACF.

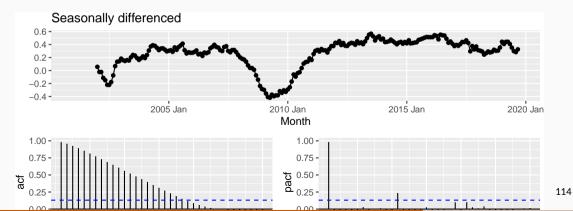
ARIMA $(0,0,0)(0,0,1)_{12}$ will show:

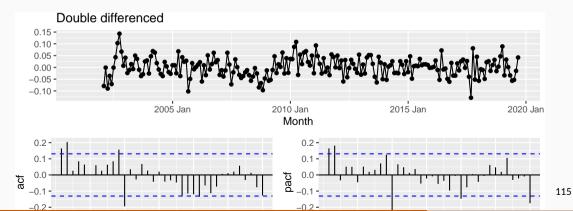
- a spike at lag 12 in the ACF but no other significant spikes.
- The PACF will show exponential decay in the seasonal lags; that is, at lags 12, 24, 36,

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.

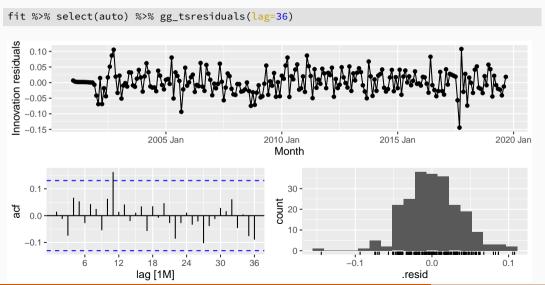


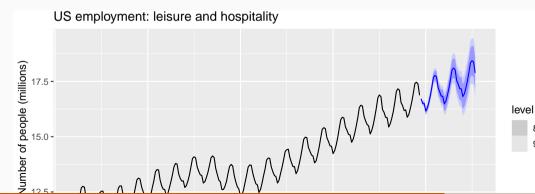




```
## # A mable: 3 x 2
## # Key: Model name [3]
## `Model name` Orders
## 

chr> <model>
## 1 arima012011 <ARIMA(0,1,2)(0,1,1)[12]>
## 2 arima210011 <ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12]>
## 3 auto <ARIMA(2,1,0)(1,1,1)[12]>
```



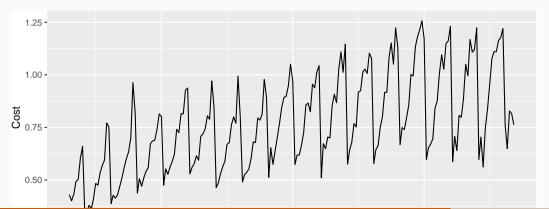


```
h02 <- PBS %>%

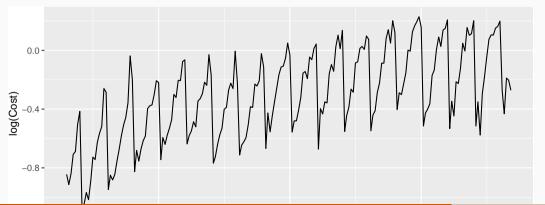
filter(ATC2 == "H02") %>%

summarise(Cost = sum(Cost)/1e6)
```

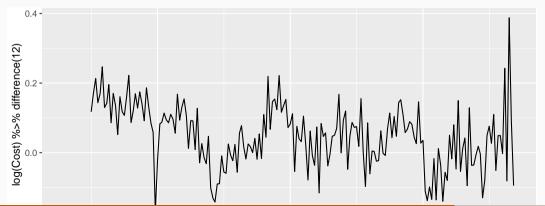
```
h02 %>% autoplot(
Cost
)
```



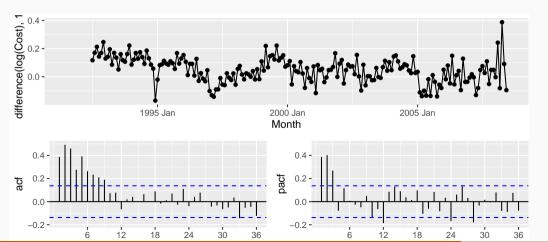
```
h02 %>% autoplot(
   log(Cost)
)
```



```
h02 %>% autoplot(
   log(Cost) %>% difference(12)
)
```



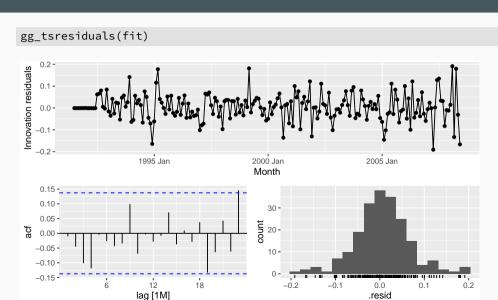
```
h02 %>% gg_tsdisplay(difference(log(Cost),12),
lag_max = 36, plot_type = 'partial')
```



- 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
ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,1)[12]	-484
ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12]	-484
ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12]	-476
ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)[12]	-475
ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12]	-475
ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12]	-463

```
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(Cost)
##
## Coefficients:
##
       ar1 ar2 ar3 ma1 sma1
                                               sma2
## -0.160 0.5481 0.5678 0.383 -0.5222 -0.1768
## s.e. 0.164 0.0878 0.0942 0.190 0.0861 0.0872
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.004278: log likelihood=250
## AIC=-486 AICc=-485 BIC=-463
```

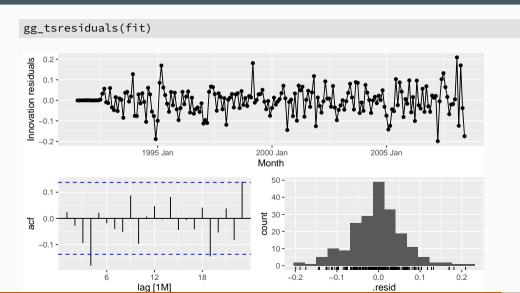


```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 6)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 best 50.7 0.0104
```

ATC=-483 ATCc=-483 BTC=-470

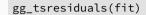
```
fit <- h02 %>% model(auto = ARIMA(log(Cost)))
report(fit)
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12]
## Transformation: log(Cost)
##
## Coefficients:
##
            ar1
                 ar2
                             sma1
##
        -0.8491 -0.4207 -0.6401
## s.e. 0.0712 0.0714 0.0694
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.004387: log likelihood=245
```

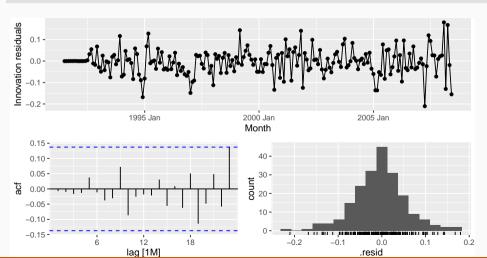


```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 3)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 auto 59.3 0.00332
```

```
fit <- h02 %>%
 model(best = ARIMA(log(Cost), stepwise = FALSE,
               approximation = FALSE,
               order_constraint = p + q + P + Q \le 9)
report(fit)
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12]
## Transformation: log(Cost)
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1
               ar2 ar3 ar4 ma1 sar1 sar2 sma1
                                                                sma2
  -0.0425 0.210 0.202 -0.227 -0.742 0.621 -0.383 -1.202 0.496
##
## s.e. 0.2167 0.181 0.114 0.081 0.207 0.242 0.118 0.249 0.213
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.004049: log likelihood=254
## ATC=-489 ATCc=-487 BTC=-456
```





```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 9)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 best 36.5 0.106
```

Training data: July 1991 to June 2006

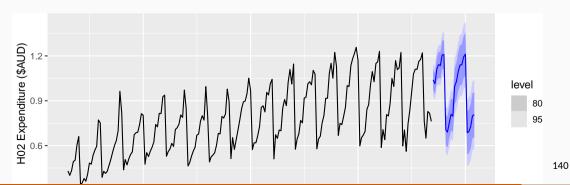
Test data: July 2006-June 2008

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

.model	RMSE
ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,1)[12]	0.0619
ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,2)[12]	0.0621
ARIMA(3,0,1)(0,1,1)[12]	0.0630
ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12]	0.0630
ARIMA(4,1,1)(2,1,2)[12]	0.0631
ARIMA(3,0,2)(2,1,0)[12]	0.0651
ARIMA(3,0,1)(2,1,0)[12]	0.0653
ARIMA(3,0,1)(1,1,0)[12]	0.0666
ARIMA(3,0,0)(2,1,0)[12]	0.0668

- 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) +
  labs(y = "H02 Expenditure ($AUD)")
```



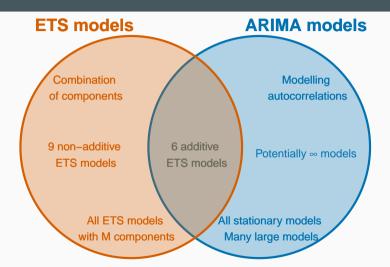
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ARIMA vs ETS

- 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 root

ARIMA vs ETS



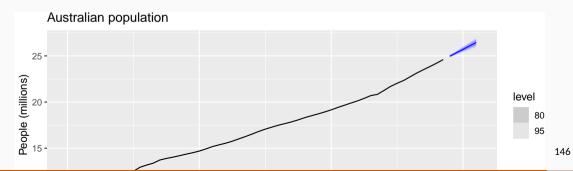
Equivalences

ETS model	ARIMA model	Parameters
ETS(A,N,N)	ARIMA(0,1,1)	θ_1 = α $-$ 1
ETS(A,A,N)	ARIMA(0,2,2)	θ_1 = α + β $-$ 2
		θ_{2} = 1 $-\alpha$
$ETS(A,A_d,N)$	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 $(0,1,m+1)(0,1,0)_m$	
$ETS(A,A_d,A)$	ARIMA $(1,0,m+1)(0,1,0)_m$	

Example: Australian population

```
aus economy <- global economy %>% filter(Code == "AUS") %>%
 mutate(Population = Population/1e6)
aus_economy %>%
 slice(-n()) %>%
 stretch_tsibble(.init = 10) %>%
 model(eta = ETS(Population),
       arima = ARIMA(Population)
  ) %>%
  forecast(h = 1) \%
  accuracy(aus_economy) %>%
 select(.model, ME:RMSSE)
```

Example: Australian population

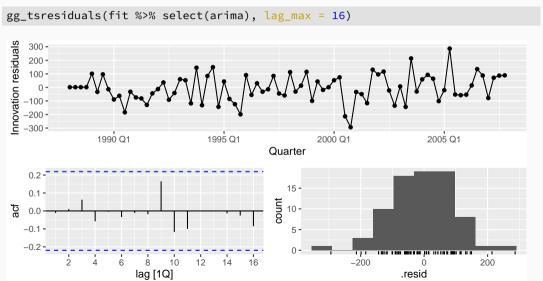


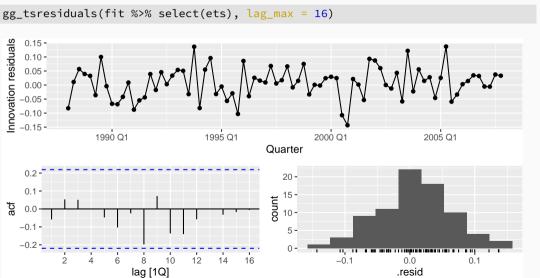
```
cement <- aus_production %>%
  select(Cement) %>%
  filter_index("1988 Q1" ~ .)
train <- cement %>% filter_index(. ~ "2007 Q4")
fit <- train %>%
  model(
    arima = ARIMA(Cement),
    ets = ETS(Cement)
)
```

```
fit %>%
 select(arima) %>%
 report()
## Series: Cement
## Model: ARIMA(1,0,1)(2,1,1)[4] w/ drift
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1
              mal sar1 sar2 smal constant
##
  0.8886 -0.237 0.081 -0.234 -0.898
                                              5.39
## s.e. 0.0842 0.133 0.157 0.139 0.178
                                              1.48
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 11456: log likelihood=-464
## ATC=941 ATCc=943 BTC=957
```

```
fit %>%
 select(ets) %>%
 report()
## Series: Cement
## Model: ETS(M,N,M)
##
    Smoothing parameters:
   alpha = 0.753
##
##
      gamma = 1e-04
##
##
    Initial states:
  l[0] s[0] s[-1] s[-2] s[-3]
##
##
   1695 1.03 1.05 1.01 0.912
##
    sigma^2: 0.0034
##
##
   AIC AICC BIC
##
```

149





```
fit %>%
  select(arima) %>%
  augment() %>%
  features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 16, dof = 6)

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

```
fit %>%
  select(ets) %>%
  augment() %>%
  features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 16, dof = 6)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 ets 10.0 0.438
```

```
fit %>%
  forecast(h = "2 years 6 months") %>%
  accuracy(cement) %>%
  select(-ME, -MPE, -ACF1)
```

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 7
## .model .type RMSE MAE MAPE MASE RMSSE
## <chr> <chr> <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> 1.27 1.26
## 2 ets Test 222. 191. 8.85 1.30 1.29
```

