

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

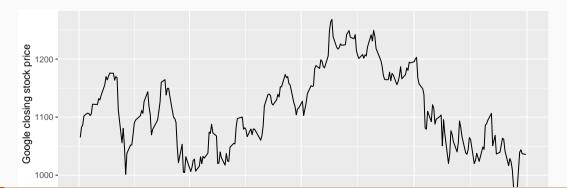
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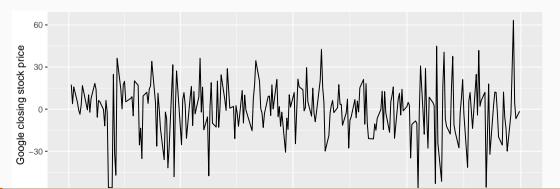
A stationary series is:

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

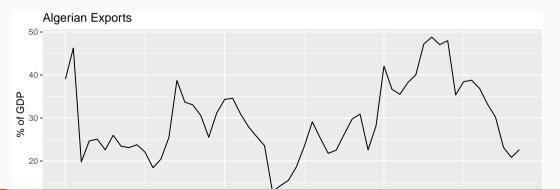
```
gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "G00G", year(Date) == 2018) %>%
  autoplot(Close) +
  labs(y = "Google closing stock price", x = "Day")
```



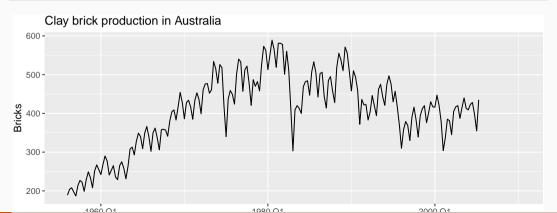
```
gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "GOOG", year(Date) == 2018) %>%
  autoplot(difference(Close)) +
  labs(y = "Google closing stock price", x = "Day")
```



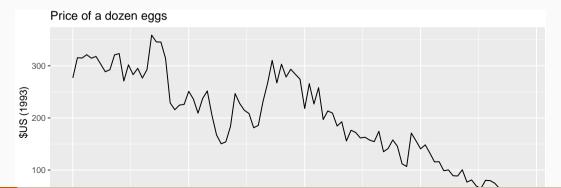
```
global_economy %>%
  filter(Country == "Algeria") %>%
  autoplot(Exports) +
  labs(y = "% of GDP", title = "Algerian Exports")
```



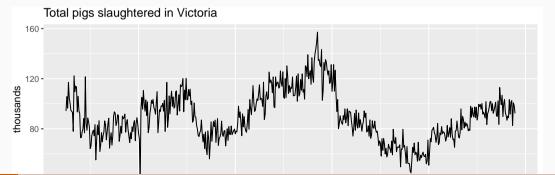
```
aus_production %>%
  autoplot(Bricks) +
  labs(title = "Clay brick production in Australia")
```



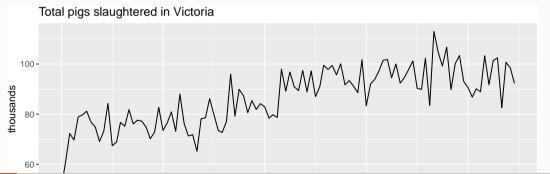
```
prices %>%
  filter(year >= 1900) %>%
  autoplot(eggs) +
  labs(y="$US (1993)", title="Price of a dozen eggs")
```



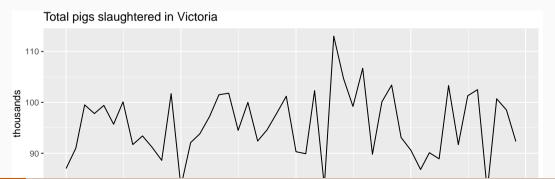
```
aus_livestock %>%
filter(
   Animal == "Pigs", State == "Victoria",
) %>%
autoplot(Count/1e3) +
labs(y = "thousands", title = "Total pigs slaughtered in Victoria")
```

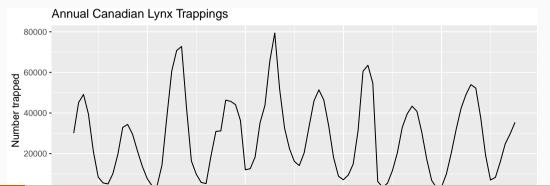


```
aus_livestock %>%
filter(
    Animal == "Pigs", State == "Victoria", year(Month) >= 2010
) %>%
autoplot(Count/1e3) +
labs(y = "thousands", title = "Total pigs slaughtered in Victoria")
```



```
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**.

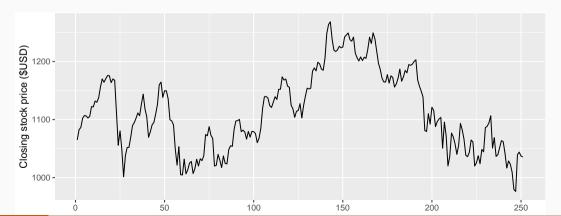
Non-stationarity in the mean

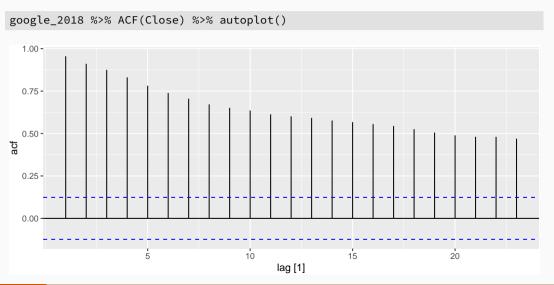
Identifying non-stationary series

- 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.

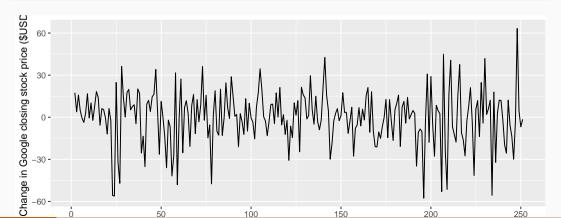
```
google_2018 <- gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "GOOG", year(Date) == 2018) %>%
  mutate(trading_day = row_number()) %>%
  update_tsibble(index = trading_day, regular = TRUE)
```

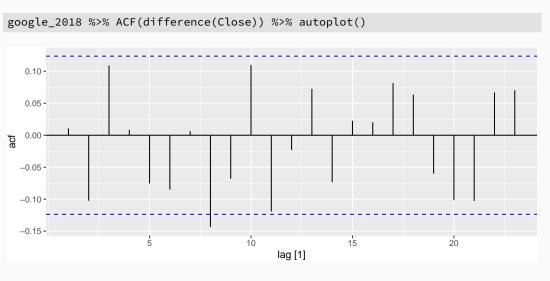
```
google_2018 %>%
  autoplot(Close) +
  labs(y = "Closing stock price ($USD)")
```





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

- 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

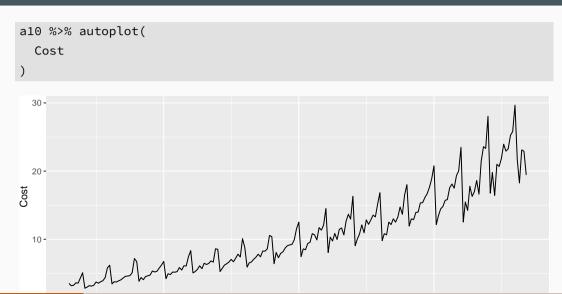
A seasonal difference is the difference between an observation and the corresponding observation from the previous year.

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

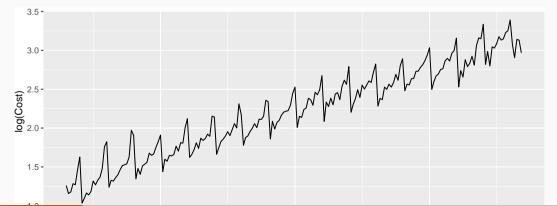
where m = number of seasons.

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

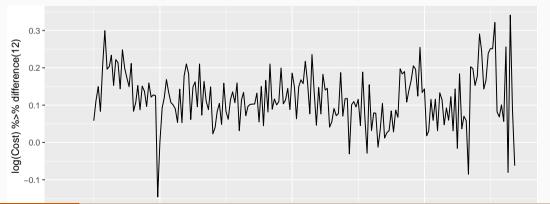
```
a10 <- PBS %>%
filter(ATC2 == "A10") %>%
summarise(Cost = sum(Cost)/le6)
```



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



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



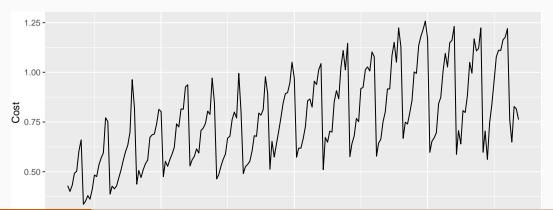
Cortecosteroid drug sales

```
h02 <- PBS %>%

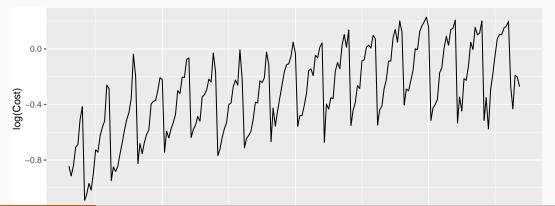
filter(ATC2 == "H02") %>%

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

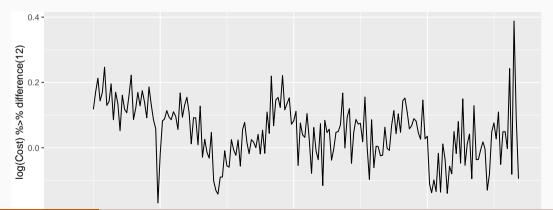
```
h02 %>% autoplot(
Cost
)
```



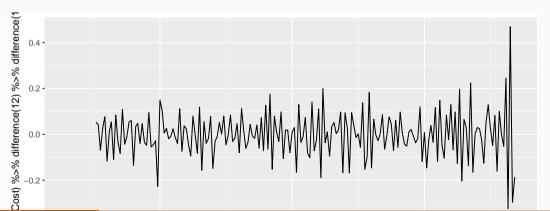
```
h02 %>% autoplot(
   log(Cost)
)
```



```
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.

Seasonal differencing

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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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

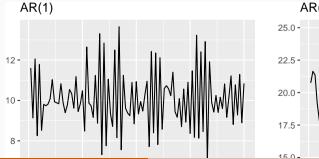
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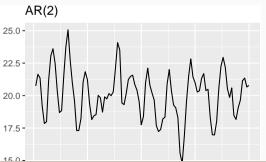
Autoregressive models

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.

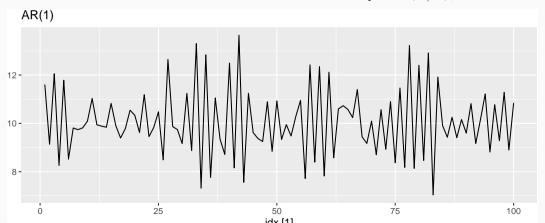




AR(1) model

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

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



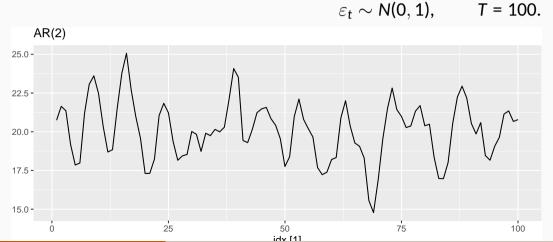
AR(1) model

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

- 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

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



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:

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

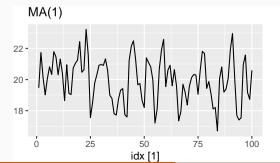
- More complicated conditions hold for $p \ge 3$.
- Estimation software takes care of this.

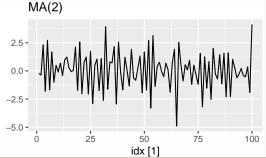
Moving Average (MA) models

Moving Average (MA) models:

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

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

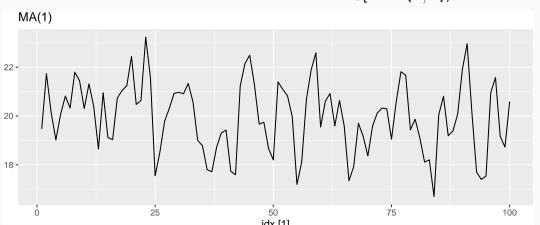




MA(1) model

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

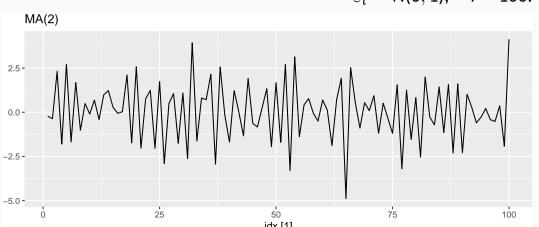
 $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, 1), \quad T = 100.$



MA(2) model

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

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



$MA(\infty)$ 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)

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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

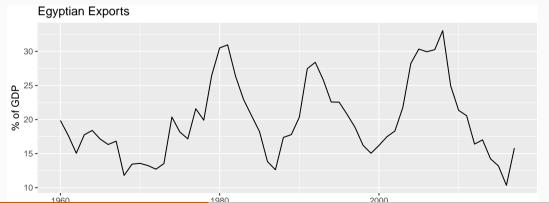
$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \dots - \phi_p B^p) y_t' = c + (1 + \theta_1 B + \dots + \theta_q B^q) \varepsilon_t$$

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

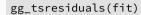
```
global_economy %>%
  filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
  autoplot(Exports) +
  labs(y = "% of GDP", title = "Egyptian Exports")
```

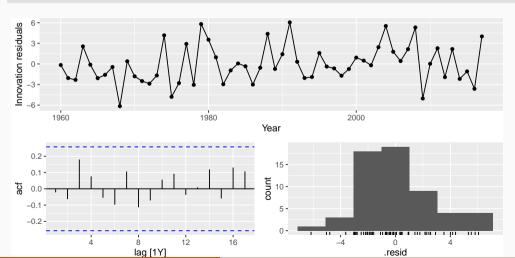


```
fit <- global_economy %>% filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
 model(ARIMA(Exports))
report(fit)
## Series: Exports
## Model: ARIMA(2,0,1) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
   ar1 ar2 ma1 constant
##
  1.676 -0.8034 -0.690 2.562
## s.e. 0.111 0.0928 0.149 0.116
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 8.046: log likelihood=-142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

```
fit <- global_economy %>% filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
 model(ARIMA(Exports))
report(fit)
## Series: Exports
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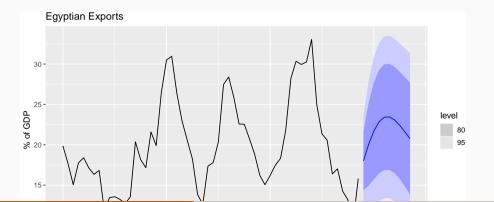
ARIMA(2,0,1) model:





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

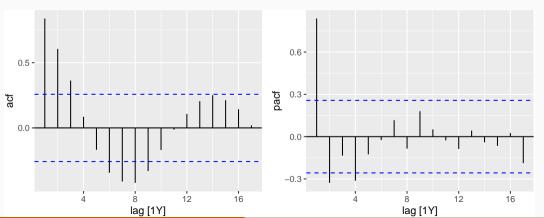
Partial autocorrelations measure relationship

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

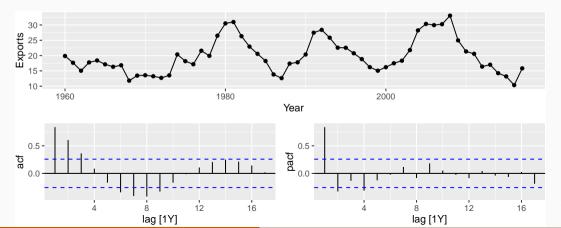
- Varying number of terms on RHS gives α_k for different values of k.
- $\alpha_1 = \rho_1$
- same critical values of $\pm 1.96/\sqrt{T}$ as for ACF.
- Last significant α_k indicates the order of an AR model.

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



71

```
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):

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

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.

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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)

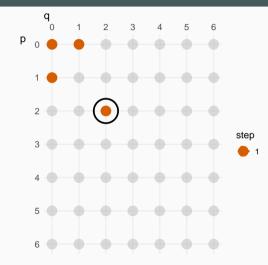
ARIMA(1, d, 0)

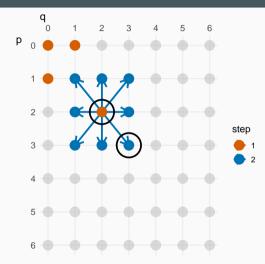
ARIMA(0, d, 1)

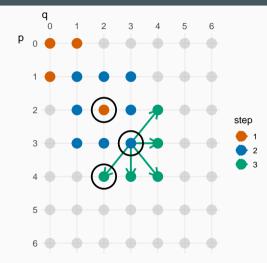
Step 2: Consider variations of current model:

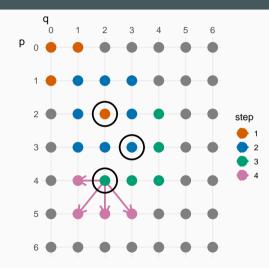
- vary one of p, q, from current model by ± 1 ;
- p, q both vary from current model by ± 1 ;
- Include/exclude *c* from current model.

Model with lowest AICc becomes current model.

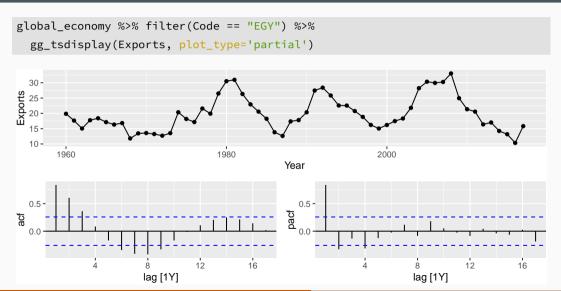








Egyptian exports

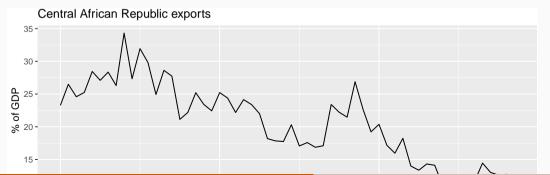


Egyptian exports

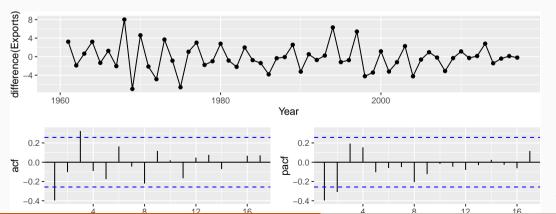
```
fit1 <- global_economy %>%
 filter(Code == "EGY") %>%
 model(ARIMA(Exports ~ pdq(4,0,0)))
report(fit1)
## Series: Exports
## Model: ARIMA(4,0,0) w/ mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1 ar2 ar3 ar4 constant
##
  0.986 - 0.172 \ 0.181 - 0.328 \ 6.692
## s.e. 0.125 0.186 0.186 0.127 0.356
##
## 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')
```

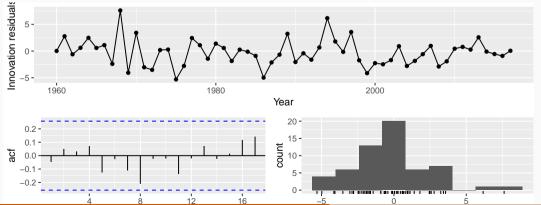


```
caf_fit <- global_economy %>%
  filter(Code == "CAF") %>%
  model(arima210 = ARIMA(Exports ~ pdq(2,1,0)),
        arima013 = ARIMA(Exports ~ pdq(0,1,3)),
        stepwise = ARIMA(Exports),
        search = ARIMA(Exports, stepwise=FALSE))
```

```
## # 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)>
```

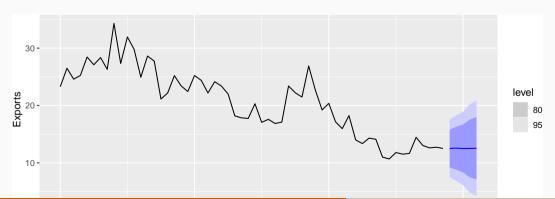
```
glance(caf_fit) %>% arrange(AICc) %>% select(.model:BIC)
```

```
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.

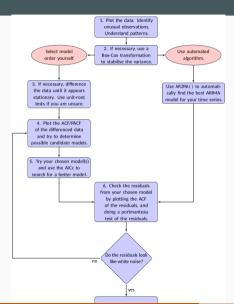
Automatic modelling procedure with ARIMA()

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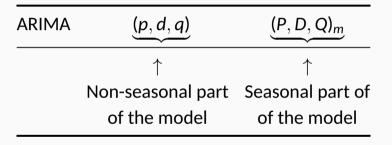
$$v_{T|T+h} = \hat{\sigma}^{2} \left[1 + \sum_{i=1}^{h-1} \theta_{i}^{2} \right], \quad \text{for } h = 2, 3, \dots.$$

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

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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

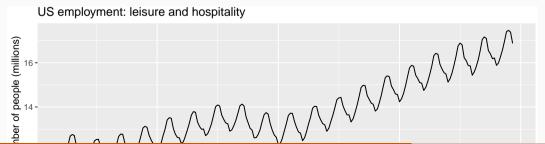
The seasonal part of an AR or MA model will be seen in the seasonal lags of the PACF and ACF.

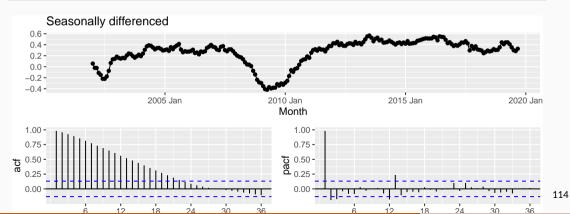
ARIMA $(0,0,0)(0,0,1)_{12}$ will show:

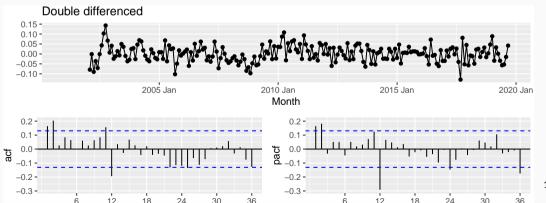
- a spike at lag 12 in the ACF but no other significant spikes.
- The PACF will show exponential decay in the seasonal lags; that is, at lags 12, 24, 36,

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.

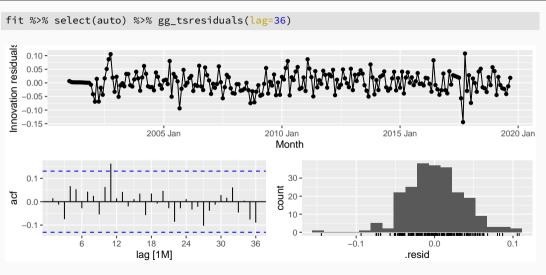


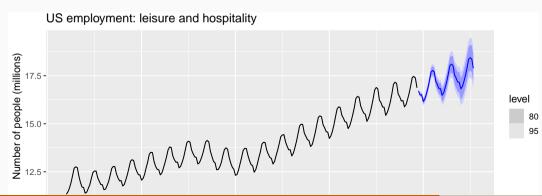




```
## # A mable: 3 x 2
## # Key: Model name [3]
## `Model name` Orders
## 

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]>
```



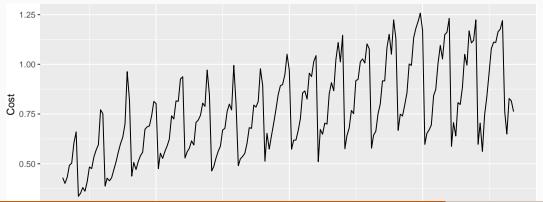


```
h02 <- PBS %>%

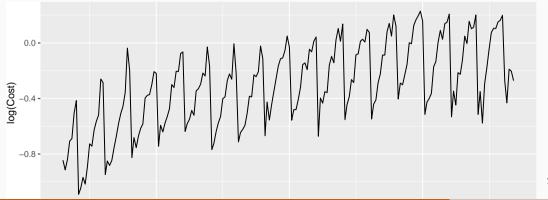
filter(ATC2 == "H02") %>%

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

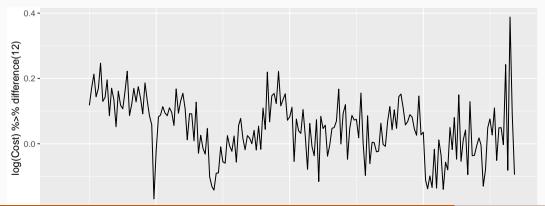
```
h02 %>% autoplot(
Cost
)
```



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



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



lag [1M]

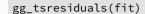
```
h02 %>% gg_tsdisplay(difference(log(Cost),12),
                       lag_max = 36, plot_type = 'partial')
2000 Jan
                            1995 Jan
                                                                                2005 Jan
                                                       Month
       0.4 -
                                                           0.4 -
                                                        pacf
   acf
      -0.2 -
                                                          -0.2 -
                        12
                                            30
                                                                                         24
                                                                                                30
                                     24
                 6
                                                                     6
                                                                            12
                                                                                   18
```

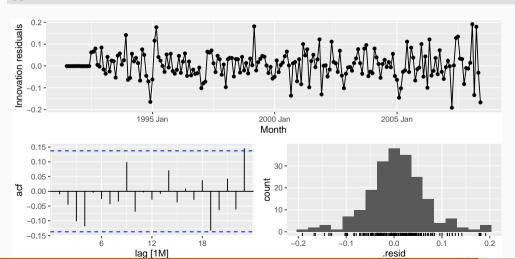
lag [1M]

- 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
```



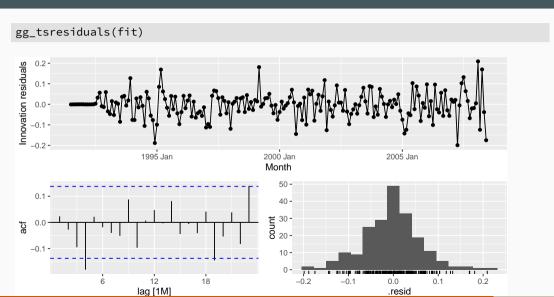


```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 6)
```

```
## # 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

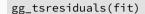
```
fit <- h02 %>% model(auto = ARIMA(log(Cost)))
report(fit)
## Series: Cost
## Model: ARIMA(2,1,0)(0,1,1)[12]
## Transformation: log(Cost)
##
## Coefficients:
##
            ar1
                 ar2
                             sma1
##
        -0.8491 -0.4207 -0.6401
## s.e. 0.0712 0.0714 0.0694
##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

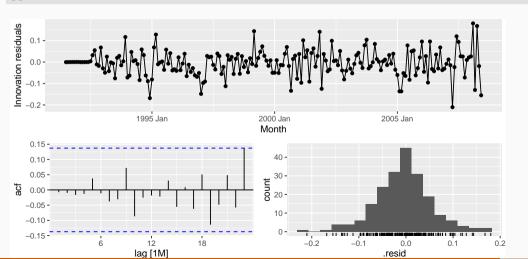


```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 36, dof = 3)
```

```
## # 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

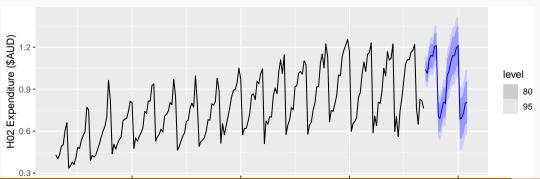
Test data: July 2006-June 2008

```
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)")
```



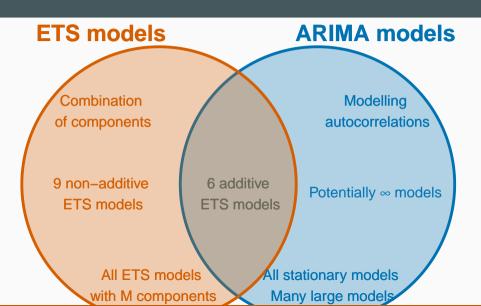
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ARIMA vs ETS

- 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

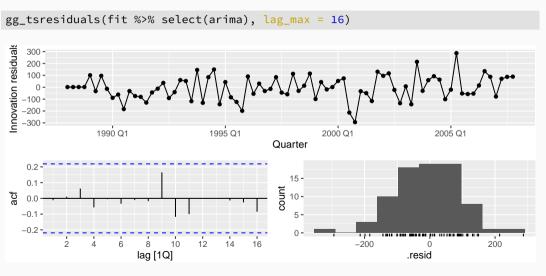


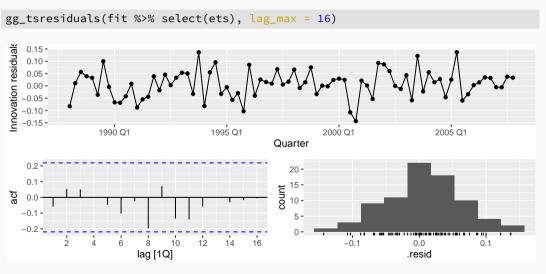
```
cement <- aus_production %>%
  select(Cement) %>%
  filter_index("1988 Q1" ~ .)
train <- cement %>% filter_index(. ~ "2007 Q4")
fit <- train %>%
  model(
    arima = ARIMA(Cement),
    ets = ETS(Cement)
)
```

```
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
##
```

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

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

```
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> <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> 1.27 1.26
## 2 ets Test 222. 191. 8.85 1.30 1.29
```

