

Time Series Forecasting. 2. ARIMA

Alexey Romanenko alexromsput@gmail.com

Acknowledgement: Evgeny Riabenko for materials supplied

Содержание

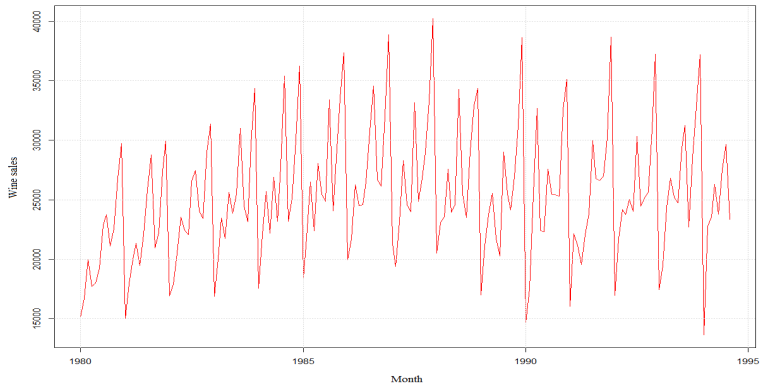
- 1 Time Series Forecasting Problem
 - Time Series Specifications
 - Stationarity
 - Transformation of Time Series

- 2 ARMA, ARIMA
 - AR and MA processes
 - Argumentation for ARMA model
 - Equivalence to ES models

- 3 Forecasting with Arima
 - Finding internal parameters (coefficients) μ, ϕ, θ
 - Defining external parameters
 - SARIMAX: ARIMA with independent variables
 - Analysis of Residuals

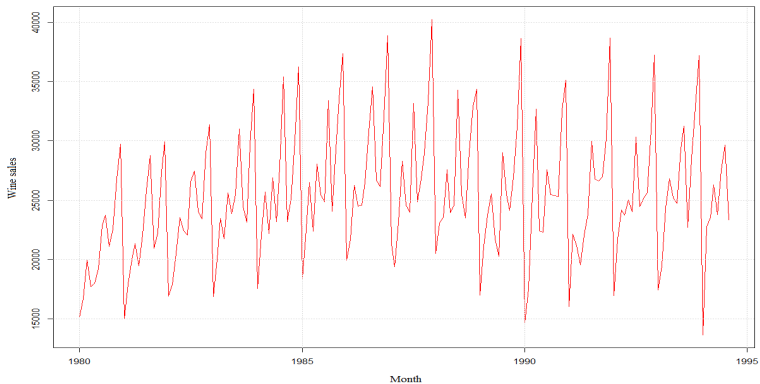
Examples of times series

Wine Sales in Australia:



Examples of times series

Wine Sales in Australia:



Which lags are most significant for forecasting y_t ?

Autocorrelation (ACF)

Observations of time series are autocorrelated.

Autocorrelation:

$$r_{\tau} = r_{y_t y_{t+\tau}} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-\tau} (y_t - \bar{y})(y_{t+\tau} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{t=1}^T (y_t - \bar{y})^2}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T y_t.$$

$r_{\tau} \in [-1, 1]$, τ — autocorrelation lag.

Significance test that the value of autocorrelation is different from zero:

time series: $Y^T = Y_1, \dots, Y_T$;

null hypotheses: $H_0: r_{\tau} = 0$;

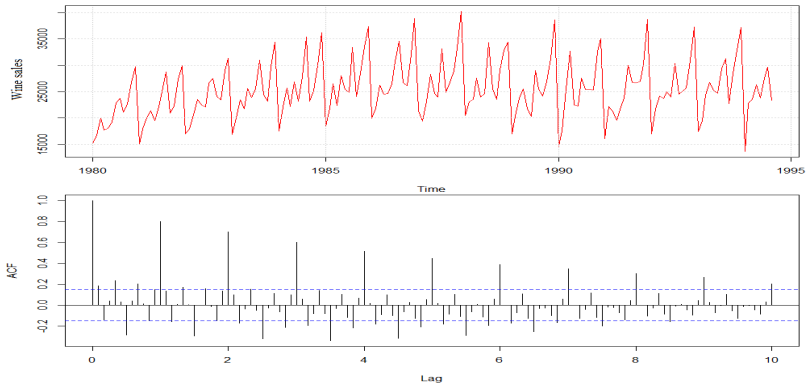
alternative: $H_1: r_{\tau} \neq 0$;

statistic: $F(Y^T) = \frac{r_{\tau} \sqrt{T-\tau-2}}{\sqrt{1-r_{\tau}^2}}$;

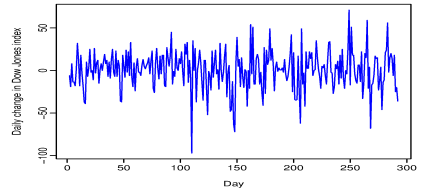
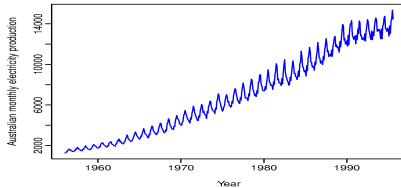
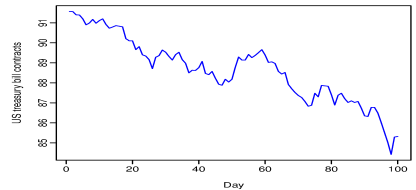
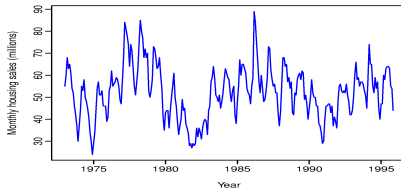
zero distribution: t — distribution $(T - \tau - 2)$.

Autocorrelation (ACF)

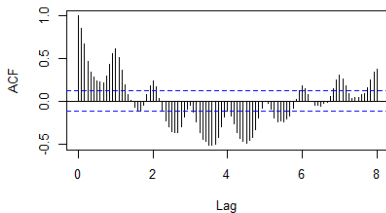
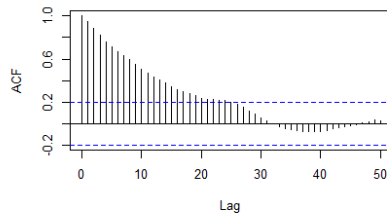
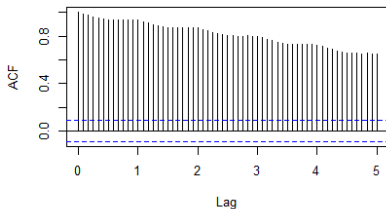
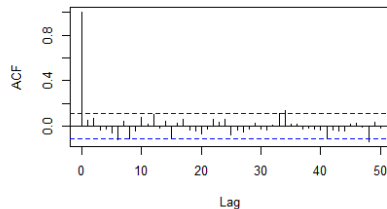
Correlogram:



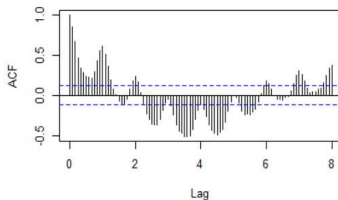
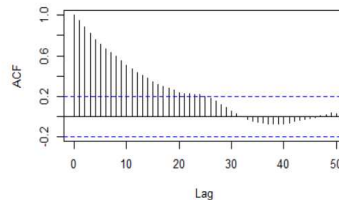
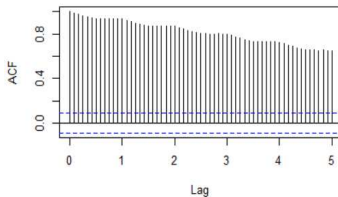
Example of correlogramm



Example of correlogramm

Monthly housing sales (millions)**US treasury bill contracts****Australian monthly electricity production****Daily change in Dow Jones index**

Example of correlogramm

Monthly housing sales (millions)**US treasury bill contracts****Australian monthly electricity production**

Too many lags! \Rightarrow These TS are non-stationary!

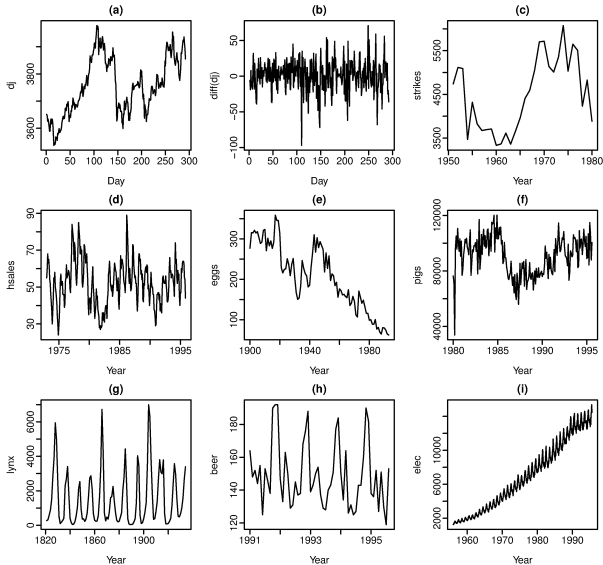
Stationarity

Time series y_1, \dots, y_T is **stationary** if $\forall s$ distribution y_t, \dots, y_{t+s} does not depend on t , i.e. its properties do not depend on time.

Time series with trend or seasonality are not stationary.

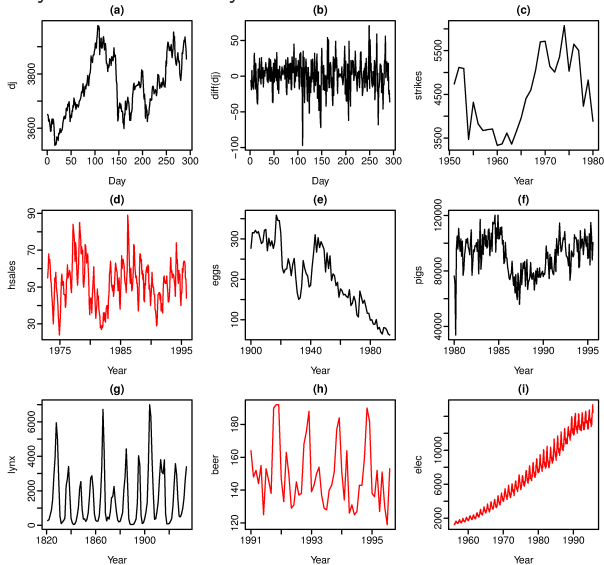
Time series with a-periodical cycles are stationary since it is impossible to predict where the maximums and minimums will be located.

Stationarity



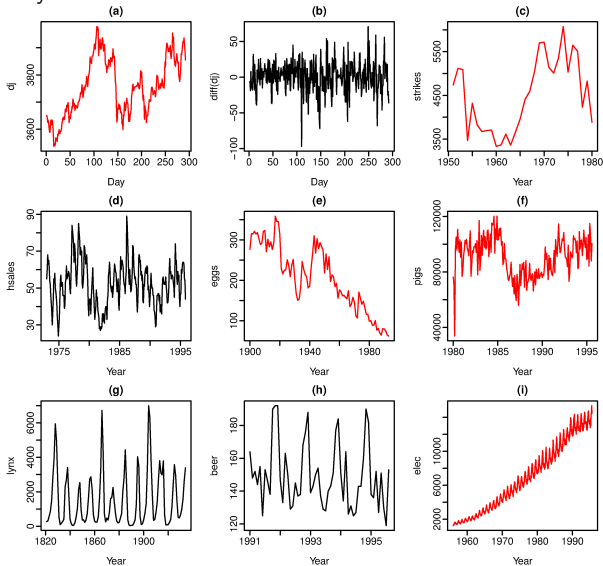
Stationarity

Non-stationary due to seasonality:



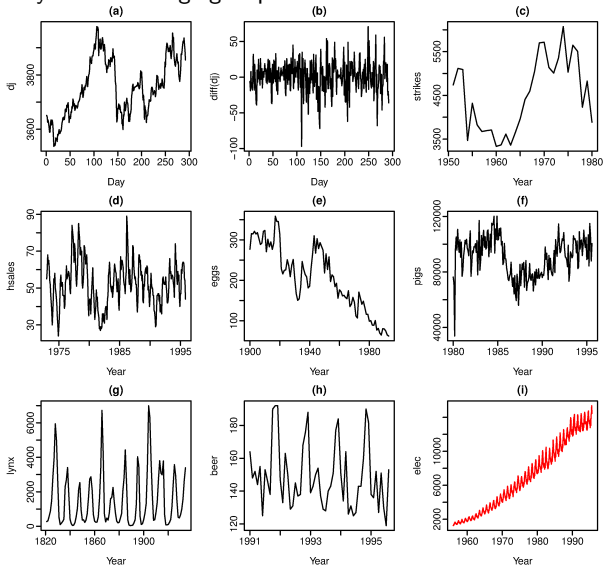
Stationarity

Non-stationary due to trend:



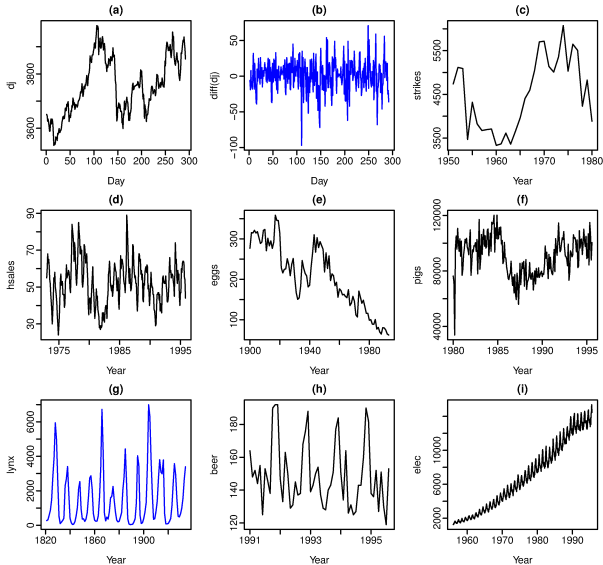
Stationarity

Non-stationary due to changing dispersion:



Stationarity

Stationary:



KPSS (Kwiatkowski-Philips-Schmidt-Shin)

- time series of forecast errors: $\varepsilon^T = \varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_T$;
- null hypotheses: H_0 : time series ε^T is stationarity;
- alternative: H_1 : time series ε^T is described by model of the kind $\varepsilon_t = \alpha \varepsilon_{t-1}$;
- statistic: $KPSS(\varepsilon^T) = \frac{1}{T^2} \sum_{i=1}^T \left(\sum_{t=1}^i \varepsilon_t \right)^2 / \lambda^2$;
- null distribution: as in table.

Other tests to check for stationarity: Dickey-Fuller, Phillips-Perron and their many modifications (see Patterson K. *Unit root tests in time series, volume 1: key concepts and problems*. — Palgrave Macmillan, 2011).

Differentiation

Time series differentiation — is a shift to pairwise difference of its neighboring values:

$$y_1, \dots, y_T \longrightarrow y'_2, \dots, y'_T,$$

$$y'_t = y_t - y_{t-1}.$$

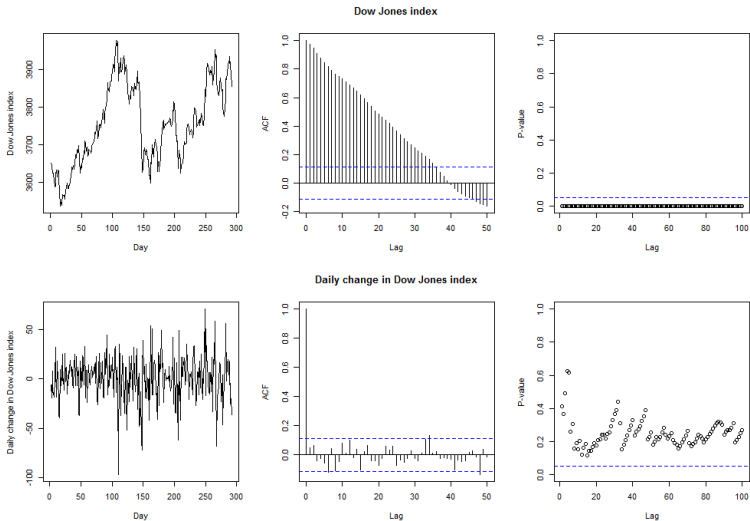
By differentiation it is possible to stabilize the average value of time series and to get rid of trend and seasonality.

Repeated differentiation may be used; for example, for second degree:

$$y_1, \dots, y_T \longrightarrow y'_2, \dots, y'_T \longrightarrow y''_3, \dots, y''_T,$$

$$y''_t = y'_t - y'_{t-1} = y_t - 2y_{t-1} + y_{t-2}.$$

Differentiation



KPSS criterion: for the initial time series $p < 0.01$, for the time series of first differences — $p > 0.1$.

Seasonal Differentiation

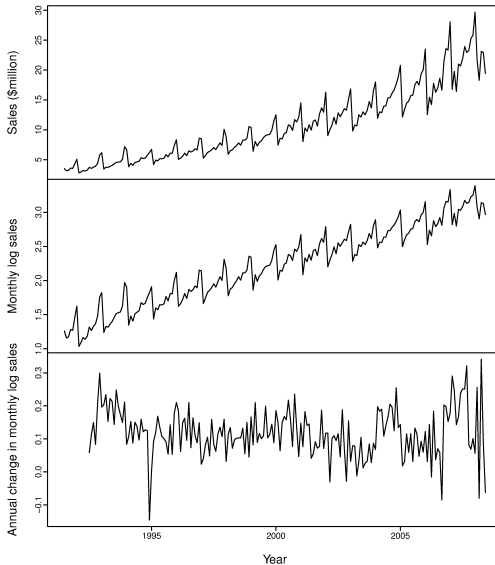
Seasonal differentiation of time series — is a shift to pairwise differences of its values in neighboring seasons:

$$y_1, \dots, y_T \longrightarrow y'_{s+1}, \dots, y'_T,$$

$$y'_t = y_t - y_{t-s}.$$

Seasonal Differentiation

Antidiabetic drug sales



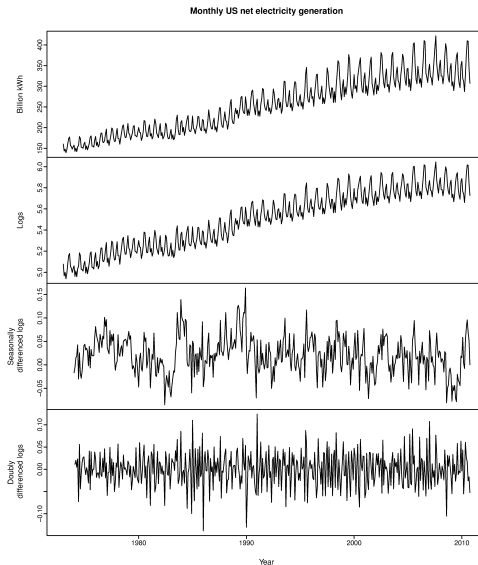
KPSS criterion: for the initial time series $p < 0.01$, for logarithmated — $p < 0.01$, after seasonal differentiation — $p > 0.1$.

Combinated Differentiation

Seasonal and simple differentiation may be applied to the same time series in any order.

If the time series has a clear seasonality profile it is recommended to start with seasonal differentiation — it may be enough to make the time series stationary.

Combinated Differentiation

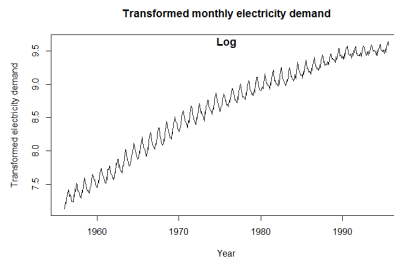
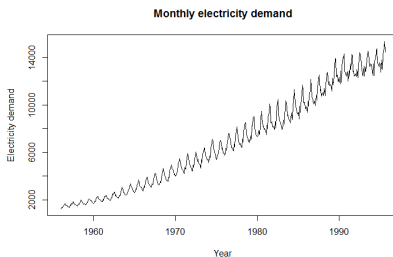


KPSS criterion: for the initial time series $p < 0.01$, for the logarithmated one — $p < 0.01$, after seasonal differentiation — $p = 0.0355$, after one more differentiation — $p > 0.1$.

Dispersion Stabilization

It is possible to use stabilizing transformation for time series with a monotonously changing dispersion.

Logarithmation is often used:

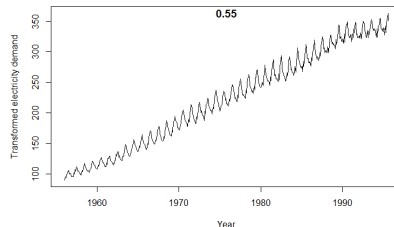
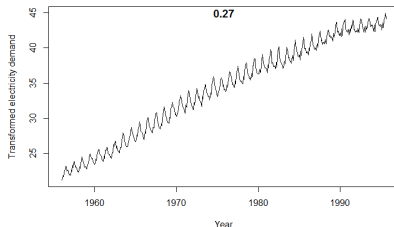


Box-Cox Transformation

Parametric family of transformations that stabilize dispersion:

$$y'_t = \begin{cases} \ln y_t, & \lambda = 0, \\ (y_t^\lambda - 1) / \lambda, & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Such parameter λ is chosen that dispersion is minimized and model plausibility maximized.



Box-Cox Transformation

After the forecast for the transformed time series is built it should be transformed into forecast of the initial time series:

$$\hat{y}_t = \begin{cases} \exp(\hat{y}'_t), & \lambda = 0, \\ (\lambda \hat{y}'_t + 1)^{1/\lambda}, & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

- if some $y_t \leq 0$, Box-Cox transformations are impossible (we must add a constant to the time series)
- it often turns out that no transformation at all is needed
- it is possible to round the value of λ in order to simplify interpretation
- as a rule, stabilizing transformation has little influence on the forecast and strong influence on the forecast interval

Autoregression

$$AR(p): \quad y_t = \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where y_t — is a stationary time series with zero average, ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_p — are constants ($\phi_p \neq 0$), ε_t — is gaussian white noise with zero average and constant dispersion σ_ε^2 .

Autoregression

$$AR(p): \quad y_t = \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where y_t — is a stationary time series with zero average, ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_p — are constants ($\phi_p \neq 0$), ε_t — is gaussian white noise with zero average and constant dispersion σ_ε^2 .

If the average equals μ the model looks like

$$y_t = \alpha + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where $\alpha = \mu(1 - \phi_1 - \cdots - \phi_p)$.

Autoregression

$$AR(p): \quad y_t = \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where y_t — is a stationary time series with zero average, ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_p — are constants ($\phi_p \neq 0$), ε_t — is gaussian white noise with zero average and constant dispersion σ_ε^2 .

If the average equals μ the model looks like

$$y_t = \alpha + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t,$$

where $\alpha = \mu(1 - \phi_1 - \cdots - \phi_p)$.

Another way to note:

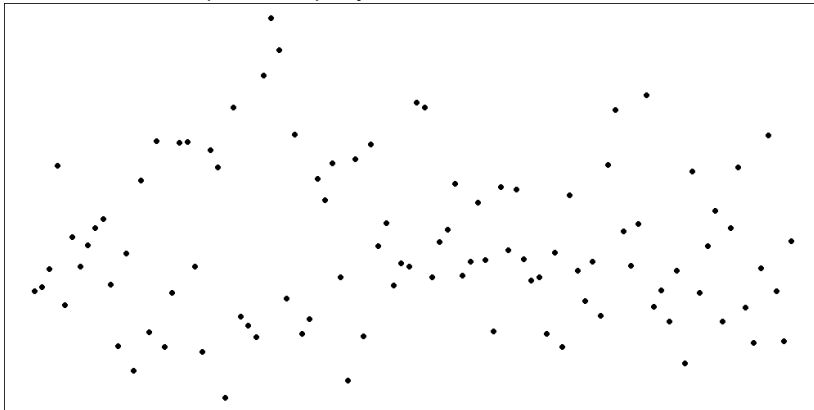
$$\phi(B)(y_t - \mu) = (1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \cdots - \phi_p B^p)(y_t - \mu) = \varepsilon_t,$$

where B — is difference operator

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

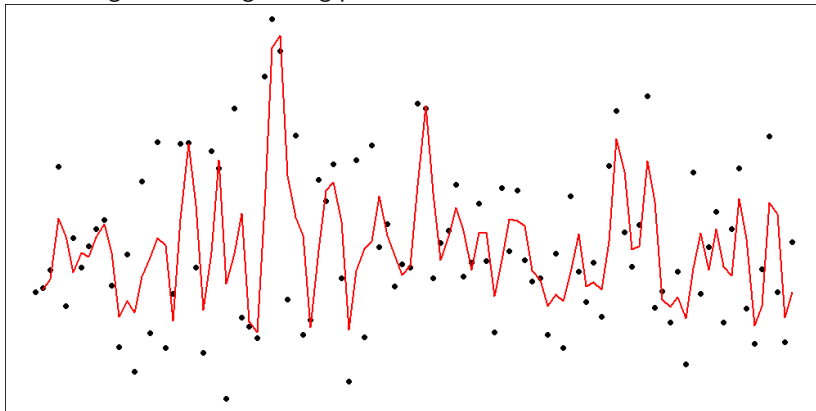
Moving Average

Let us have an independent equally distributed in time noise ε_t :



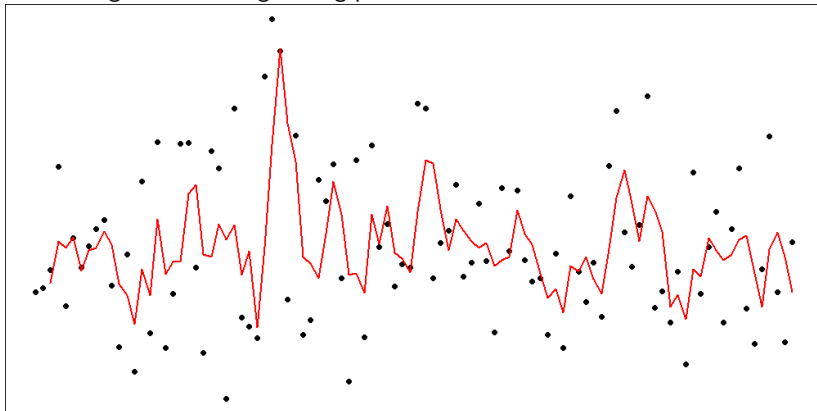
Moving Average

The average of two neighboring points:



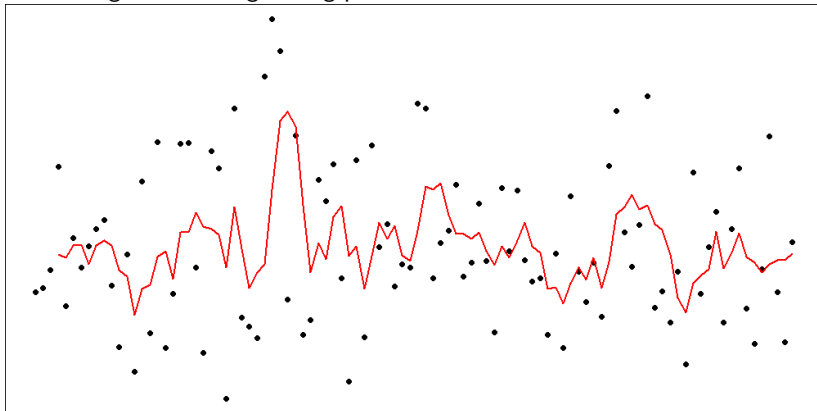
Moving Average

The average of three neighboring points:



Moving Average

The average of four neighboring points:



Moving Average

$$MA(q): \quad y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$$

where y_t — is a stationary time series with zero average, $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$ — are constants ($\theta_q \neq 0$), ε_t — is gaussian white noise with zero average and constant dispersion σ_ε^2 .

Moving Average

$$MA(q): \quad y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$$

where y_t — is a stationary time series with zero average, $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$ — are constants ($\theta_q \neq 0$), ε_t — is gaussian white noise with zero average and constant dispersion σ_ε^2 .

If the average equals μ the model looks like

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

Moving Average

$$MA(q): \quad y_t = \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$$

where y_t — is a stationary time series with zero average, $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$ — are constants ($\theta_q \neq 0$), ε_t — is gaussian white noise with zero average and constant dispersion σ_ε^2 .

If the average equals μ the model looks like

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

Another way to note:

$$y_t - \mu = \theta(B) \varepsilon_t = (1 + \theta_1 B + \theta_2 B^2 + \cdots + \theta_q B^q) \varepsilon_t,$$

where B — is difference operator.

ARMA (Autoregressive moving average)

$$ARMA(p, q): y_t = \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$$

where y_t — is a stationary time series with zero average,

$\phi_1, \dots, \phi_p, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$ — are constants ($\phi_p \neq 0, \theta_q \neq 0$), ε_t — is gaussian white noise with zero average and constant dispersion σ_ε^2 .

If the average equals μ the model looks like

$$y_t = \alpha + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q},$$

where $\alpha = \mu(1 - \phi_1 - \dots - \phi_p)$.

Another way to note:

$$\phi(B)(y_t - \mu) = \theta(B)\varepsilon_t.$$

Argumentation of ARMA model

Theorem (Wold, 1938)

Every covariance-stationary (WSS) time series y_t can be written as the sum of two time series, one deterministic and one stochastic, formally:

$$y_t = \theta(B) \varepsilon_t + \eta_t$$

where η_t is a deterministic time series, such as one represented by a sine wave.

Definition

Covariance-stationary (or weak-sense stationarity, wide-sense stationarity, WSS) random processes only require that 1st moment (i.e. the mean) and autocovariance do not vary with respect to time:

$$E[y_t] = m_y(t) = m_t(t + \tau) \quad \text{for all } \tau \in \mathbb{R}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} E[(y(t_1) - m_y(t_1))(y(t_2) - m_y(t_2))] &= C_y(t_1, t_2) = C_y(t_1 + (-t_2), t_2 + (-t_2)) \\ &= C_y(t_1 - t_2, 0). \end{aligned}$$

ARIMA (Autoregressive integrated moving average)

What if?

$$\phi(B) = (1 - B)^d \phi_1(B)$$

Note: $(1 - B)$ is **non** invertible operator!

ARIMA (Autoregressive integrated moving average)

What if?

$$\phi(B) = (1 - B)^d \phi_1(B)$$

Note: $(1 - B)$ is **non** invertible operator!

Then TS $\nabla^d y_t = (1 - B)^d y_t$ is described by $ARMA(p_1, q)$:

$$\phi_1(B) \nabla^d y_t = \theta(B) \varepsilon_t.$$

Seasonal ARMA/ARIMA

$ARMA(p, q) \times (P, Q)_s :$

$$\Phi_P(B^s) \phi(B) (y_t - \mu) = \Theta_Q(B^s) \theta(B) \varepsilon_t,$$

where

$$\Phi_P(B^s) = 1 - \Phi_1 B^s - \Phi_2 B^{2s} - \dots - \Phi_P B^{Ps},$$

$$\Theta_Q(B^s) = 1 + \Theta_1 B^s + \Theta_2 B^{2s} + \dots + \Theta_Q B^{Qs}.$$

SARIMA:

$$\Phi_P(B^s) \phi(B) \nabla_s^D \nabla^d (y_t - \mu) = \Theta_Q(B^s) \theta(B) \varepsilon_t.$$

Equivalence to some ES models

ARIMA contains all ES models with linear trend and additive seasonality

- ARIMA(p=0,d=1,q=1) is equivalent to Simple ES with

$$(1 - B)y_t = (1 - \phi_1 B)\varepsilon_t$$

$$\phi_1 = 1 - \alpha$$

Proof:

$$y_t - y_{t-1} = \varepsilon_t - \phi_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} = y_t - \hat{y}_t - (1 - \alpha) \cdot (y_{t-1} - \hat{y}_{t-1})$$

$$\hat{y}_t = y_{t-1} - y_{t-1} + \alpha y_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \hat{y}_{t-1} = \hat{y}_{t-1} + \alpha \cdot e_{t-1}$$

- ARIMA(p=0,d=2, q=2) is equivalent to Holt (linear trend) with:

$$(1 - B)^2 Y_t = (1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2)\varepsilon_t$$

$$\phi_1 = 2 - \alpha - \alpha\beta, \quad \phi_2 = \alpha - 1$$

Equivalence to some ES models

- damped-trend linear exponential smoothing is the ARIMA(1,1,2) model

$$(1 - \phi B)(1 - B)Y_t = (1 - \theta_1 B - \theta_2 B^2)\epsilon_t$$

$$\theta_1 = 1 + \phi - \alpha - \alpha\beta\phi, \theta_2 = (\alpha - 1)\phi$$

ϕ — coefficient of damped trend;

- seasonal exponential smoothing is the ARIMA(0,1,s+1)(0,1,0)_s model

$$(1 - B)(1 - B^s)Y_t = (1 - \theta_1 B - \theta_2 B^s - \theta_3 B^{s+1})\epsilon_t$$

$$\theta_1 = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\theta_2 = 1 - \gamma(1 - \alpha)$$

$$\theta_3 = (1 - \alpha)(\gamma - 1)$$

Equivalence to some ES models

- $\text{ARIMA}(0, 1, s+1)(0, 1, 0)_s$ is equivalent to additive seasonality ES model with:

$$(1 - B)(1 - B^s)Y_t = [1 - \sum_{i=1}^{s+1} \theta_i B^i] \epsilon_t$$

$$\theta_j = \begin{cases} 1 - \alpha - \alpha\beta & j = 1 \\ -\alpha\beta & 2 \leq j \leq s-1 \\ 1 - \alpha\beta - \gamma(1 - \alpha) & j = s \\ (1 - \alpha)(\gamma - 1) & j = s+1 \end{cases}$$

Choosing parameters of ARIMA

How to find optimal parameters of ARIMA (p, d, q, P, D, Q) ?

d, D

- The degrees of differentiation are chosen so that the time series becomes stationary
- Once more: if the time series is seasonal, seasonal differentiation should be applied first
- The fewer times we differentiate the less will be dispersion of the final forecast

q, Q, p, P

- Hyperparameters cannot be chosen using ML: *Likelihood* is always taken into account with their growth
- Informational criteria may be used to compare models of different q, Q, p, P
- Initial approximations may be chosen using autocorrelations

Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF)

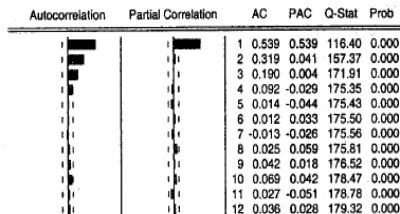
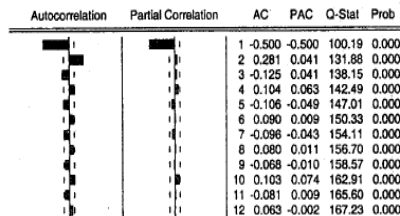
Partial autocorrelation of a stationary time series y_t — is autocorrelation of autoregression residuals of the previous order:

$$\phi_{hh} = \begin{cases} r(y_{t+1}, y_t), & h = 1, \\ r(y_{t+h} - \hat{y}_{t+h}, y_t - \hat{y}_t), & h \geq 2, \end{cases}$$

where \hat{y}_{t+h} и \hat{y}_t — are predictions of regressions y_{t+h} and y_t by $y_{t+1}, y_{t+2}, \dots, y_{t+h-1}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y}_t &= \beta_1 y_{t+1} + \beta_2 y_{t+2} + \dots + \beta_{h-1} y_{t+h-1}, \\ \hat{y}_{t+h} &= \beta_1 y_{t+h-1} + \beta_2 y_{t+h-2} + \dots + \beta_{h-1} y_{t+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Behavior of ACF and PACF for different AR and MA components

Рис. 11.9. AR(1). $Y_t = 0.5Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$. Корень $\mu = 2$ Рис. 11.10. AR(1). $Y_t = -0.5Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$. Корень $\mu = -2$

Behavior of ACF and PACF for different AR and MA components

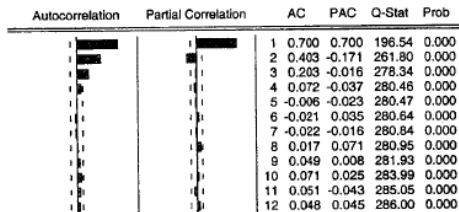


Рис. 11.11. AR(2). $Y_t = 0.8Y_{t-1} - 0.2Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$.
Корни $\mu_1 = 2 + i, \mu_2 = 2 - i$

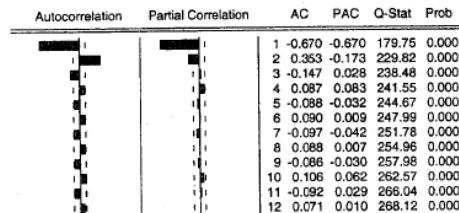
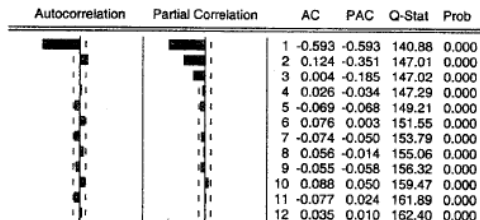
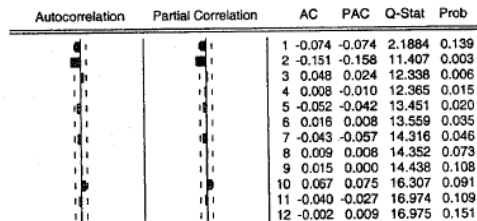


Рис. 11.12. AR(2). $Y_t = -0.8Y_{t-1} - 0.2Y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$.
Корни $\mu_1 = -2 + i, \mu_2 = -2 - i$

Behavior of ACF and PACF for different AR and MA components

Рис. 11.16. MA(2). $Y_t = \varepsilon_t - 0.9\varepsilon_{t-1} + 0.2\varepsilon_{t-2}$.Рис. 11.17. MA(2). $Y_t = \varepsilon_t - 0.1\varepsilon_{t-1} - 0.2\varepsilon_{t-2}$.

Behavior of ACF and PACF for different AR and MA components

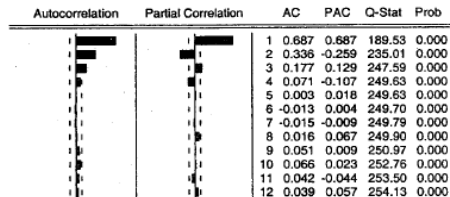


Рис. 11.20. ARMA(1,1). $Y_t = 0.4Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t + 0.5\varepsilon_{t-1}$.
Корни $\mu_{AR} = 2, \mu_{MA} = -2$

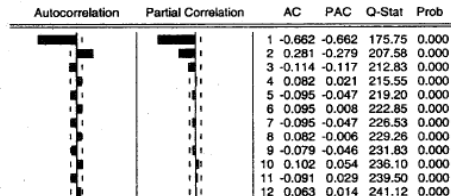


Рис. 11.21. ARMA(1,1). $Y_t = -0.4Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t - 0.5\varepsilon_{t-1}$.
Корни $\mu_{AR} = -2, \mu_{MA} = 2$

q, Q, p, P

- Model $ARIMA(p, d, 0)$: ACF dumps exponentially or is sinusoidal, PACF is significantly different from zero at lag p
- Model $ARIMA(0, d, q)$: PACF dumps exponentially or is sinusoidal, ACF is significantly different from zero at lag q

⇒ initial approximation for p, q, P, Q :

- q : the number of the last lag $\tau < S$ at which ACF was significant
- $Q * S$: the number of the last seasonal lag at which ACF was significant
- p : the number of the last lag $\tau < S$ at which PACF was significant
- $P * S$: the number of the last seasonal lag at which PACF was significant

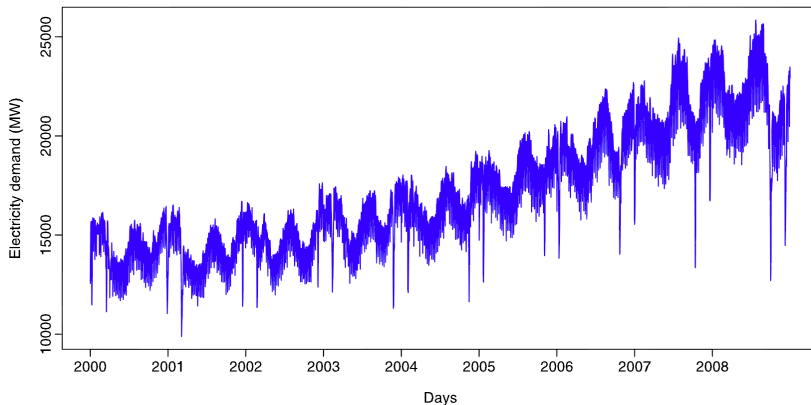
Model Parameters Estimation

- ❶ Check stationarity of parameters, if there is non-stationarity, shift to differences. For the sake of easier interpretation the difference operator should also be applied to parameters.
- ❷ A regression is built for the time series of differences in supposition that errors are described by a model of initial approximation (as a rule it is either $AR(2)$ or $SARMA(2, 0) \times (1, 0)_s$).
- ❸ A suitable model $ARMA(p_1, q_1)$ for residuals of regression \hat{z}_t is selected.
- ❹ Regression is rebuilt in supposition that the errors are described by model $ARMA(p_1, q_1)$.
- ❺ Residuals $\hat{\varepsilon}_t$ are analyzed.

Formal check of parameters significance is highly important for the sub-task of regression, in order to select parameters it is necessary to compare the values of models AIC to all subsets x_j .

Example: <https://www.otexts.org/fpp/9/1>

Electricity Consumption in Turkey



- weekly seasonality
- yearly seasonality
- holidays according to islamic calendar (the year is about 11 days shorter than according to Gregorian calendar)

SARIMAX

The effects of floating holidays, short-term promotions and other irregular events with a known date may be modeled with regARIMA:

$$\Phi_P(B^s)\phi(B)\nabla_s^D\nabla^dz_t = \Theta_Q(B^s)\theta(B)\varepsilon_t$$

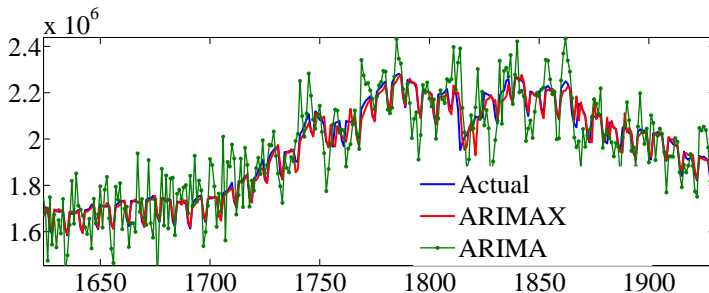
$$+$$

$$y_t = \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{jt} + z_t$$

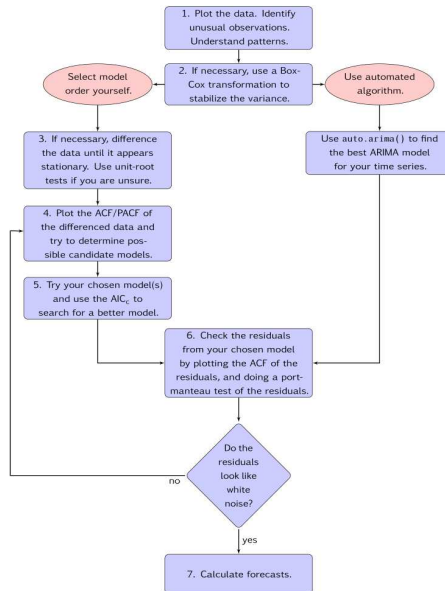
$$=$$

$$\Phi_P(B^s)\phi(B)\nabla_s^D\nabla^d\left(y_t - \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{jt}\right) = \Theta_Q(B^s)\theta(B)\varepsilon_t.$$

Модель SARIMAX



Scheme of TS forecasting with SARIMAX



Scheme of TS forecasting with SARIMAX

- 1 The graph of time series is built, outliers are identified.
- 2 Dispersion is stabilized through transformation if needed.
- 3 If the time series is non-stationary the differentiation degree is chosen.
- 4 ACF/PACF are analyzed in order to understand whether AR(p)/MA(q) may be used.
- 5 Candidate models are trained, their AIC/AICc is compared.
- 6 Unbiasedness, stationarity and non-autocorrelation of the residuals of the obtained model are tested; if the tests fail model modifications are reviewed.
- 7 In the final model we replace t with $T + h$, future observations with their forecasts, future errors with zeros, previous errors with residuals.

Residuals

Residuals are the difference between fact and forecast:

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_t = y_t - \hat{y}_t.$$

Forecasts \hat{y}_t may be built with a fixed delay:

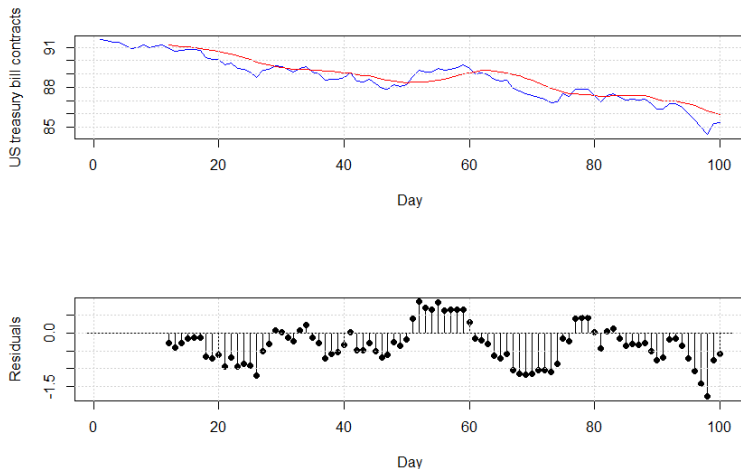
$$\hat{y}_{R+d|R}, \dots, \hat{y}_{T|T-d},$$

or with a fixed end of history at different delays:

$$\hat{y}_{T-D+1|T-D}, \dots, \hat{y}_{T|T-D}.$$

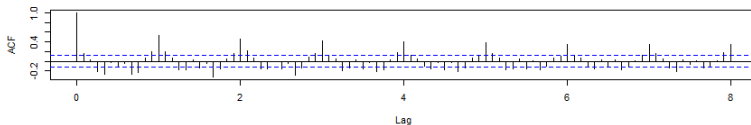
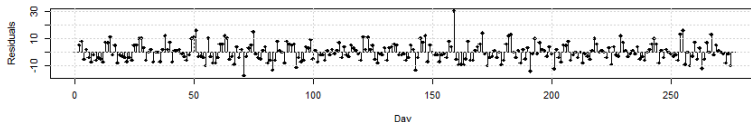
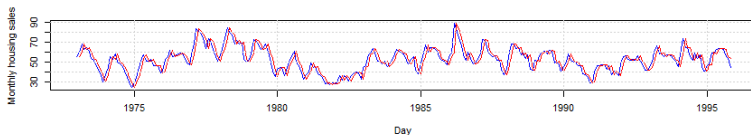
Necessary Characteristics of Forecast Residuals

- Unbiasedness means equality of the average value to zero:



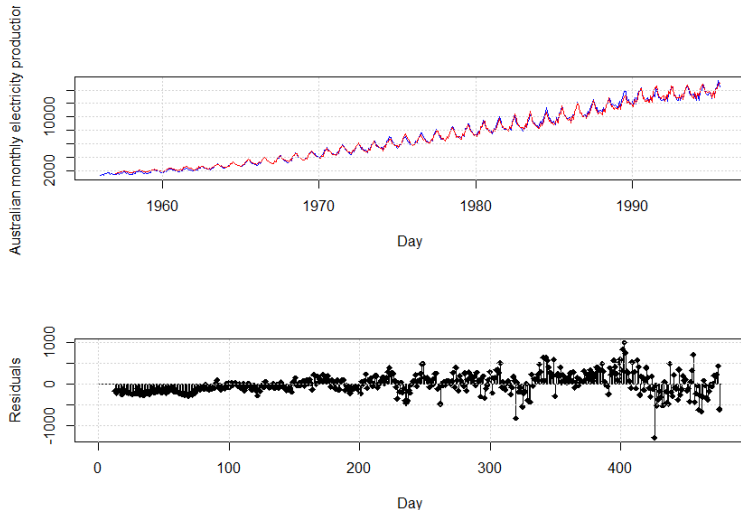
Necessary Characteristics of Forecast Residuals

- No autocorrelation means absence of the unaccounted dependency on previous observations:



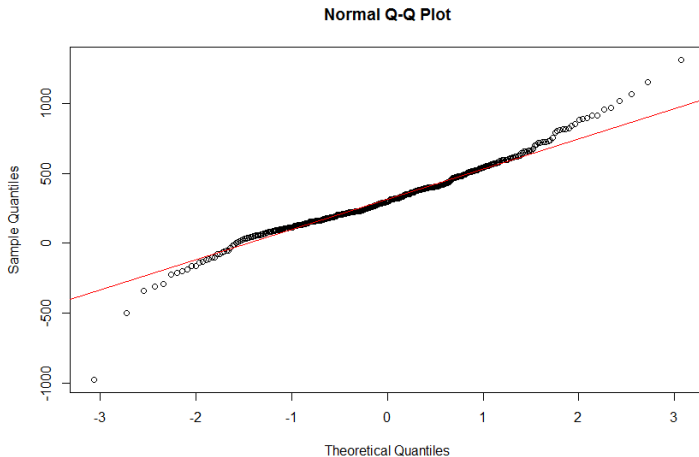
Necessary Characteristics of Forecast Residuals

- Stationarity means absence of dependency on time:



Desirable Characteristics of Forecast Residuals

- Normality:



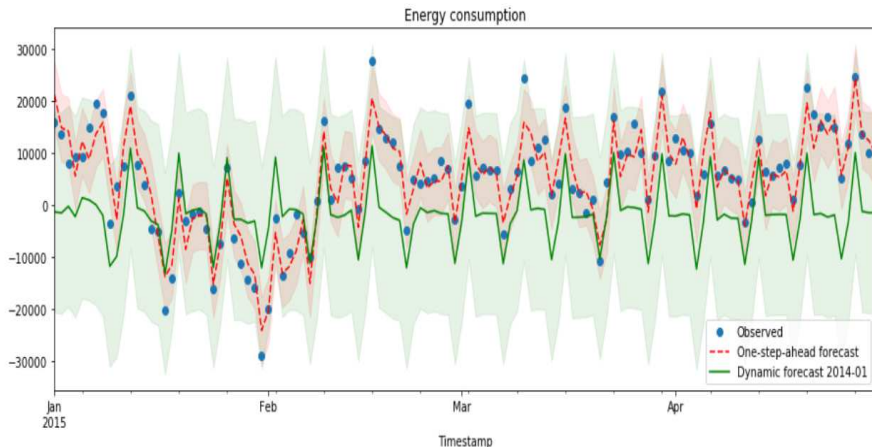
Check of Residual Characteristics

- Unbiasedness — Student or Wilcoxon.
- Stationarity — visual analysis, KPSS.
- No autocorrelation — correlogram, Ljung-Box Q-test.
- Normality — q-q plot, Shapiro-Wilk test.

Specification of Confidence Interval

2 ways to specify confidential interval:

- 1 theoretically ($\hat{y}_{T+1|T} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon$);
- 2 simulate (bootstrapping)



Conclusion

PRO ARIMA models:

- have strong theoretical argumentation for stationary TS
- can be applied to time series for trends and seasonality
- allow to take into account independent variables

CONS:

- do not work for time series with missing values
- finding of internal coefficients α, ϕ, θ is complicated
- it is not easy to find p, q, d, P, Q, D you need look at ACF, PACF
- ARIMA is based in assumption of iid from Normal distribution:
 - it's not true for all time series
 - it can not be checked for short time series

Literature

Магнус Я.Р. и др. Эконометрика. Начальный Курс М.: Дело, 2007,
<http://math.isu.ru/ru/chairs/me/files/books/magnus.pdf>

Hyndman R.J., Athanasopoulos G. Forecasting: principles and practice. — OTexts,
<https://www.otexts.org/book/fpp>

Лукашин Ю. П. Адаптивные методы краткосрочного прогнозирования временных рядов. Финансы и статистика, 2003, <http://www.arshinov74.ru/files/files/3.pdf>

Jonathan D. Cryer, Kung-Sik Chan Time Series Analysis With Applications in R. Second Edition. Springer, 2008

Unit roots tests. <https://faculty.washington.edu/ezivot/econ584/notes/unitroot.pdf>