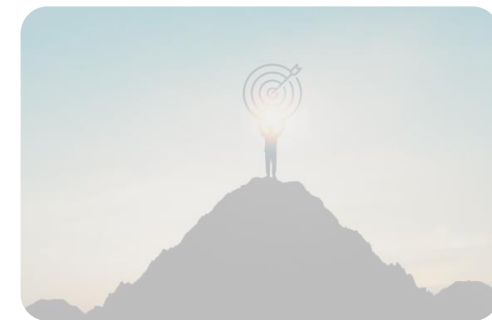


➔ Road map!

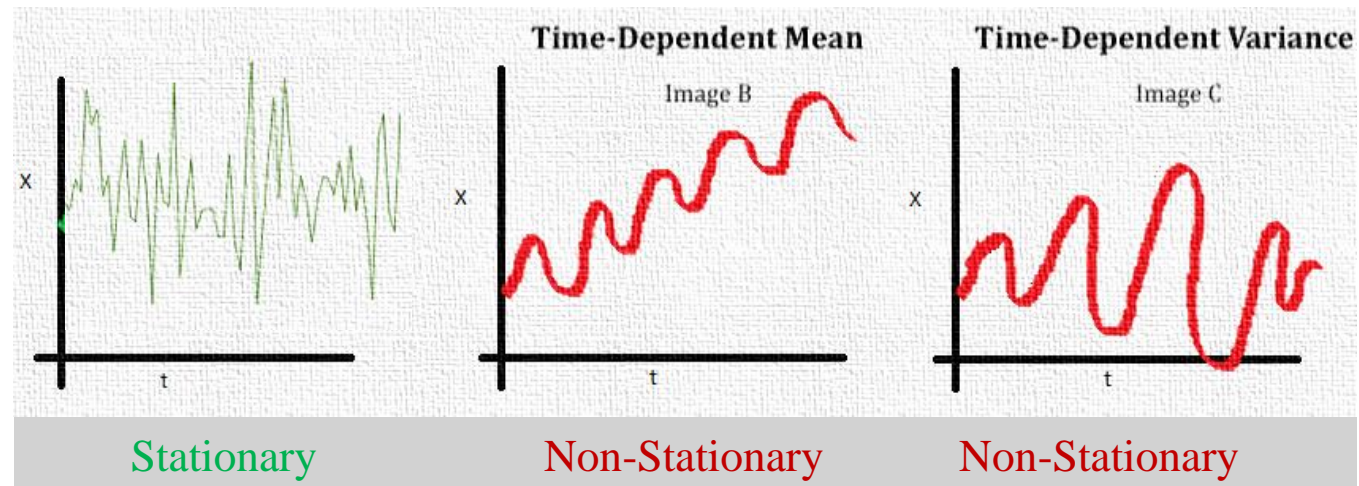
- Module 1- Introduction to Deep Forecasting
- Module 2- Setting up Deep Forecasting Environment
- Module 3- Exponential Smoothing
- **Module 4- ARIMA models**
- Module 5- Machine Learning for Time series Forecasting
- Module 6- Deep Neural Networks
- Module 7- Deep Sequence Modeling (RNN, LSTM)
- Module 8- Transformers (Attention is all you need!)
- Module 9- Prophet and Neural Prophet



Module 4 – Part I

ARIMA models' Prerequisites

ACF, PACF, Stationarity, Differencing



→ ARIMA models prerequisites

- ARIMA stands for AutoRegressive Integrated Moving Average. It is a class of **statistical models** for analyzing and forecasting time series data.
- ETS and ARIMA models are two popular models for forecasting time series data. They offer **complementary approaches** to addressing the challenges of time series forecasting.
- **ARIMA** models describe **autocorrelations** in the data, whereas **ETS** models describe **trends** and **seasonality**.
- Let's review some prerequisites before moving forward with the models:





Autocorrelation

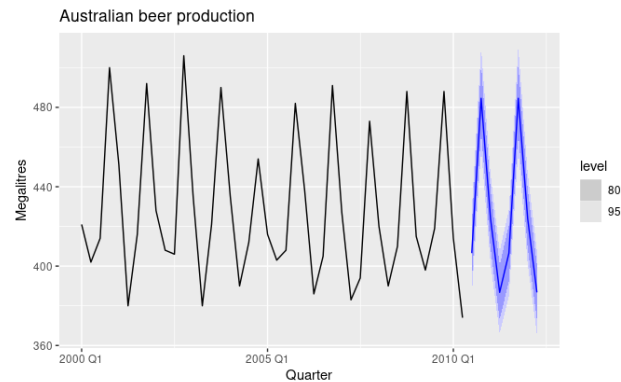
- **Autocorrelation**, also known as **serial correlation**, is a measure of the correlation between a time series and a lagged version of itself.
- It is used to assess the **degree to which** the past values of a time series **are predictive** of its future values.

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{t=k+1}^T (y_t - \bar{y})(y_{t-k} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{t=1}^T (y_t - \bar{y})^2}$$

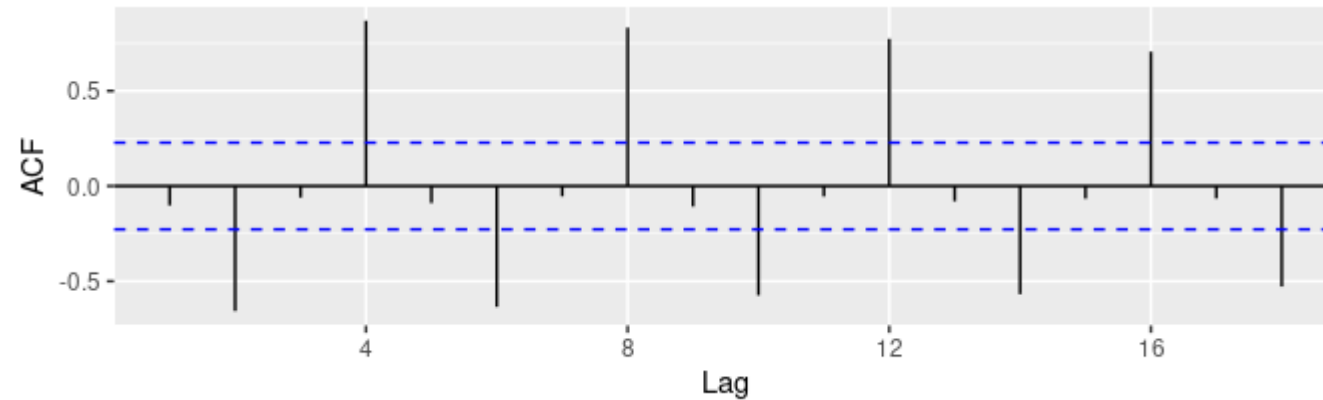


ACF: Autocorrelation Function

- The autocorrelation function (**ACF**) is a statistical tool that can be used to measure the autocorrelation of a time series.
- It calculates the correlation between the time series and lagged versions of itself at different lag periods.



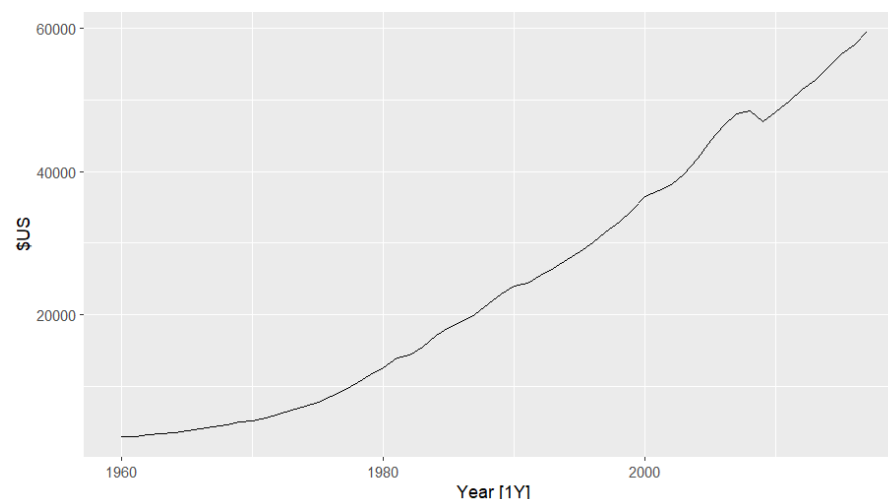
r_1	r_2	r_3	r_4	r_5	r_6	r_7	r_8	r_9
-0.102	-0.657	-0.060	0.869	-0.089	-0.635	-0.054	0.832	-0.108



➔ Partial Autocorrelation

- **Partial autocorrelation**, also known as **partial serial correlation**, is a measure of the correlation between a time series and a lagged version of itself, **controlling for the effects of intermediate lag periods**.
- y_t and y_{t-2} might be correlated, simply because they are both connected to y_{t-1} , rather than because of any new information contained in y_{t-2} . **Partial autocorrelation** overcomes this problem.

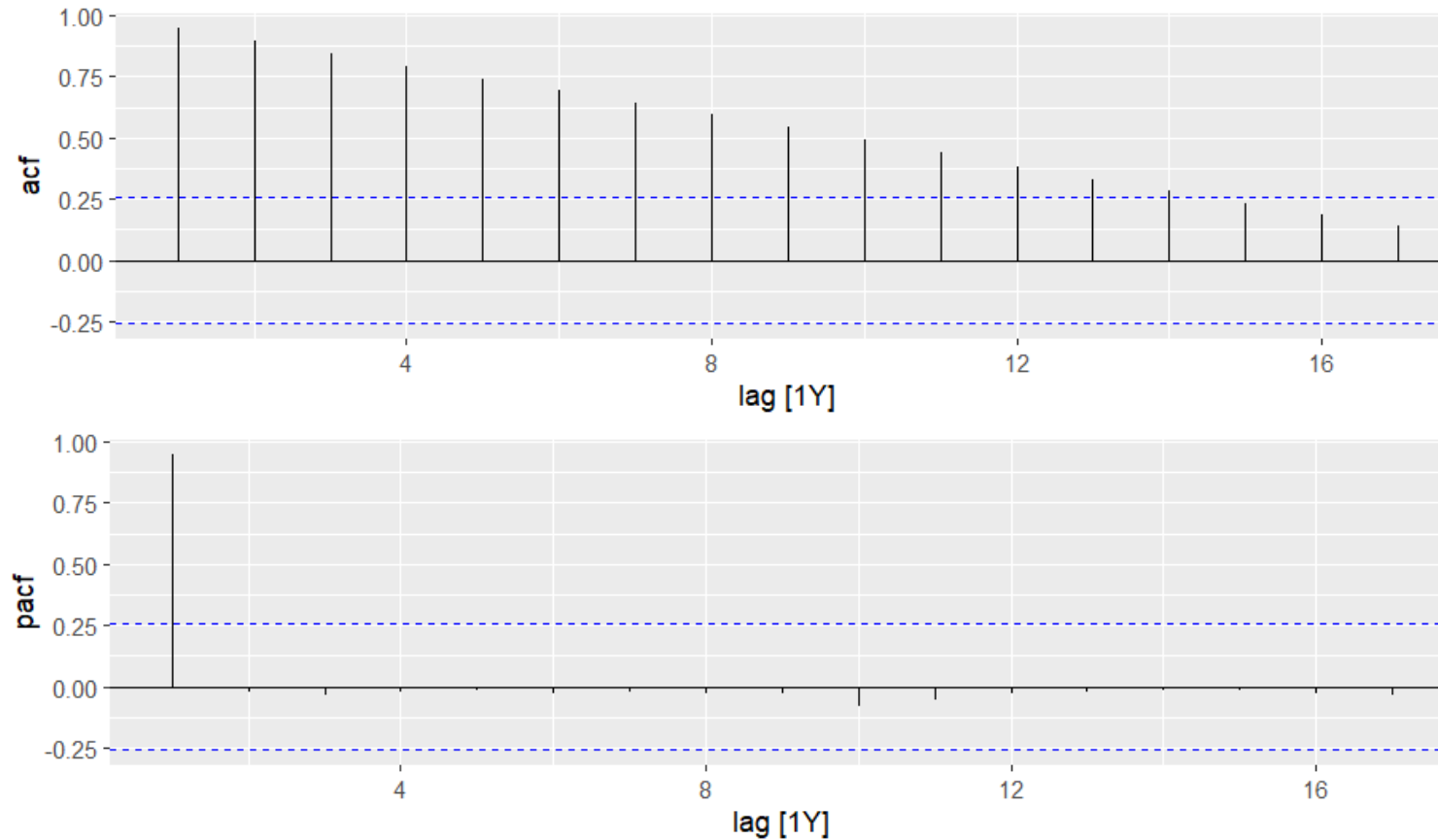
US Annual GDP per capita (1960-2017)





PACF: Partial Autocorrelation Function

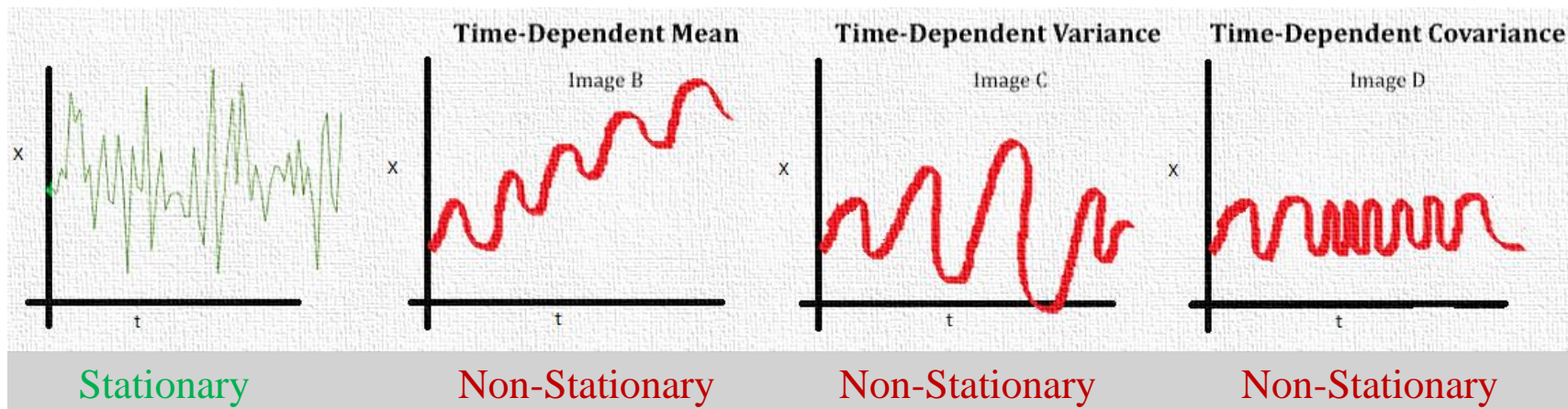
- PACF is a statistical tool that can be used to measure the partial autocorrelation of a time series.





Stationarity

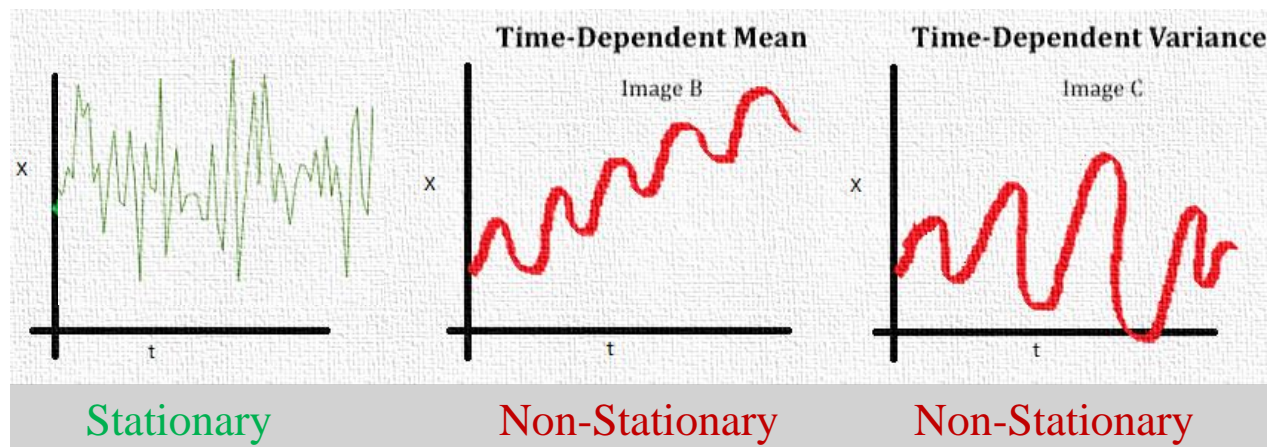
- Stationary vs Non-Stationary Data. What makes a data set **Stationary**?
- In a stationary timeseries, the statistical properties **do not depend on the time**



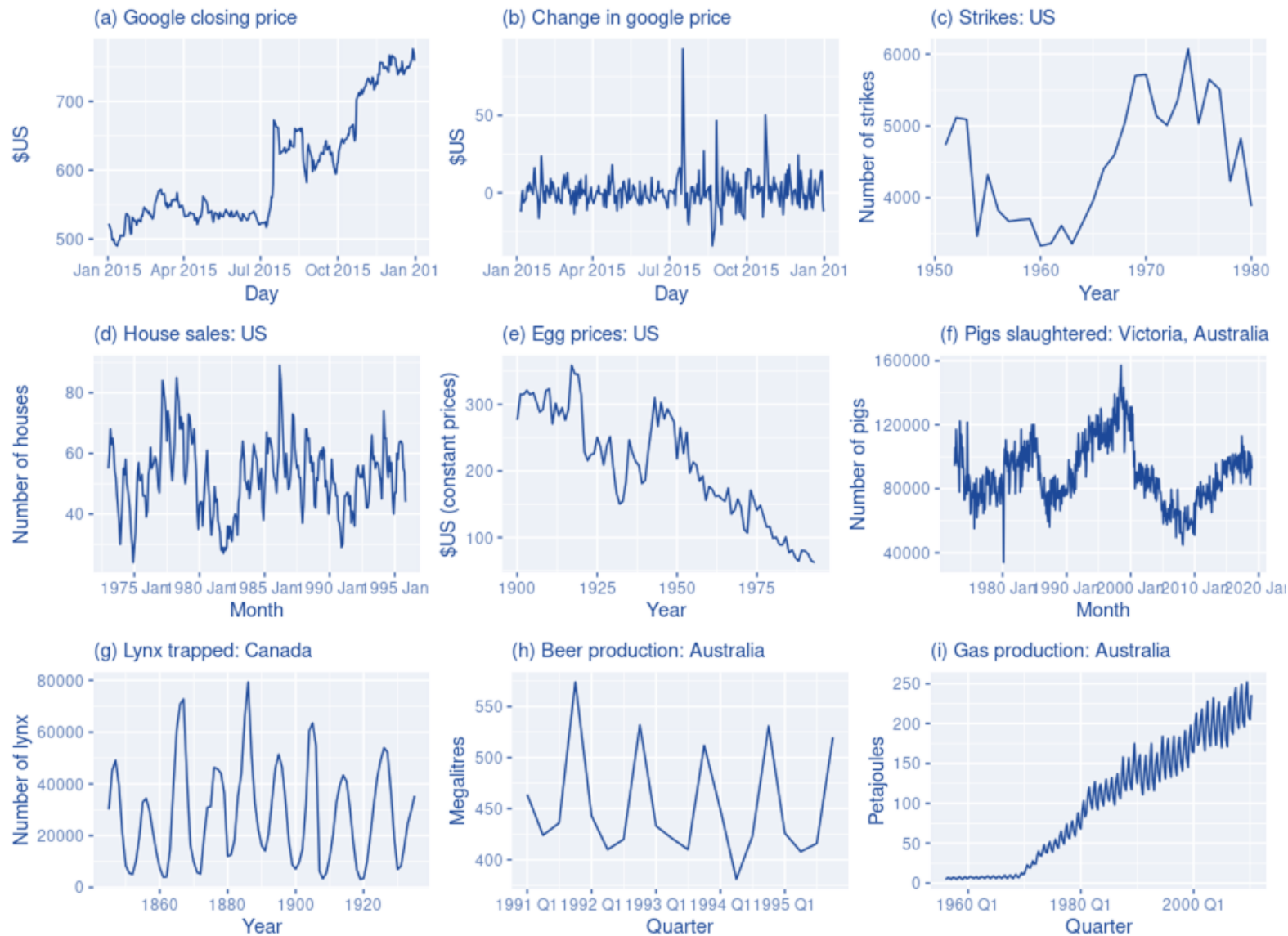
- Data with **trend** and **seasonality** are **NOT** stationary!

➔ Weak vs Strong Stationarity

- **Strong** stationarity: mean, variance and **autocovariance** are constant over time
- Weak stationarity: mean and variance are constant overtime
- ARIMA models require **weak** stationarity if the autocovariance is **not changing too rapidly over time**.



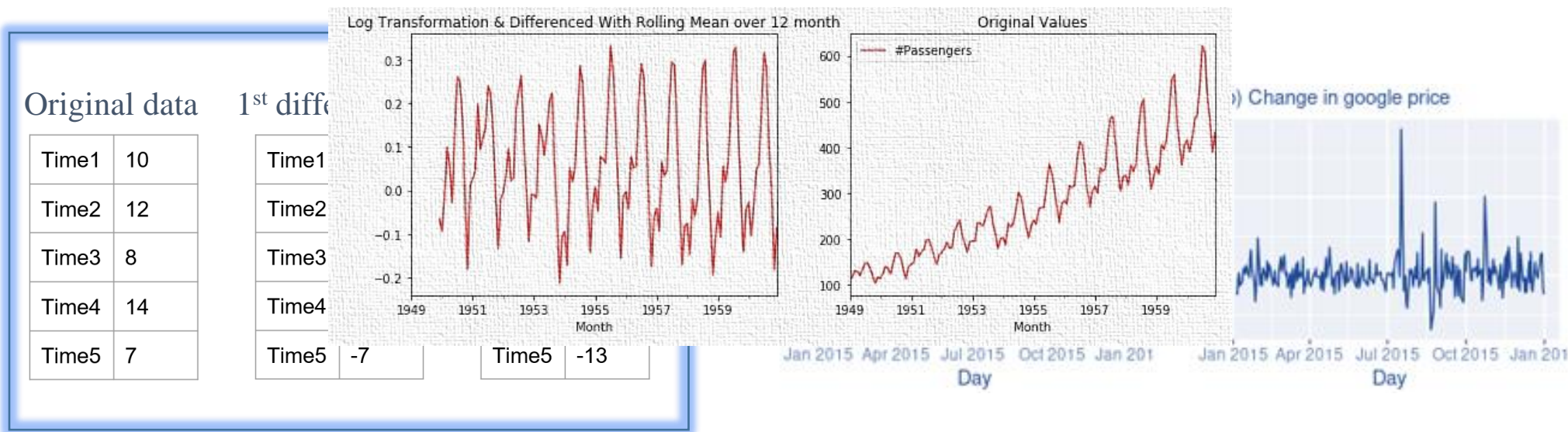
➔ Which ones are stationary?

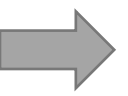




Differencing

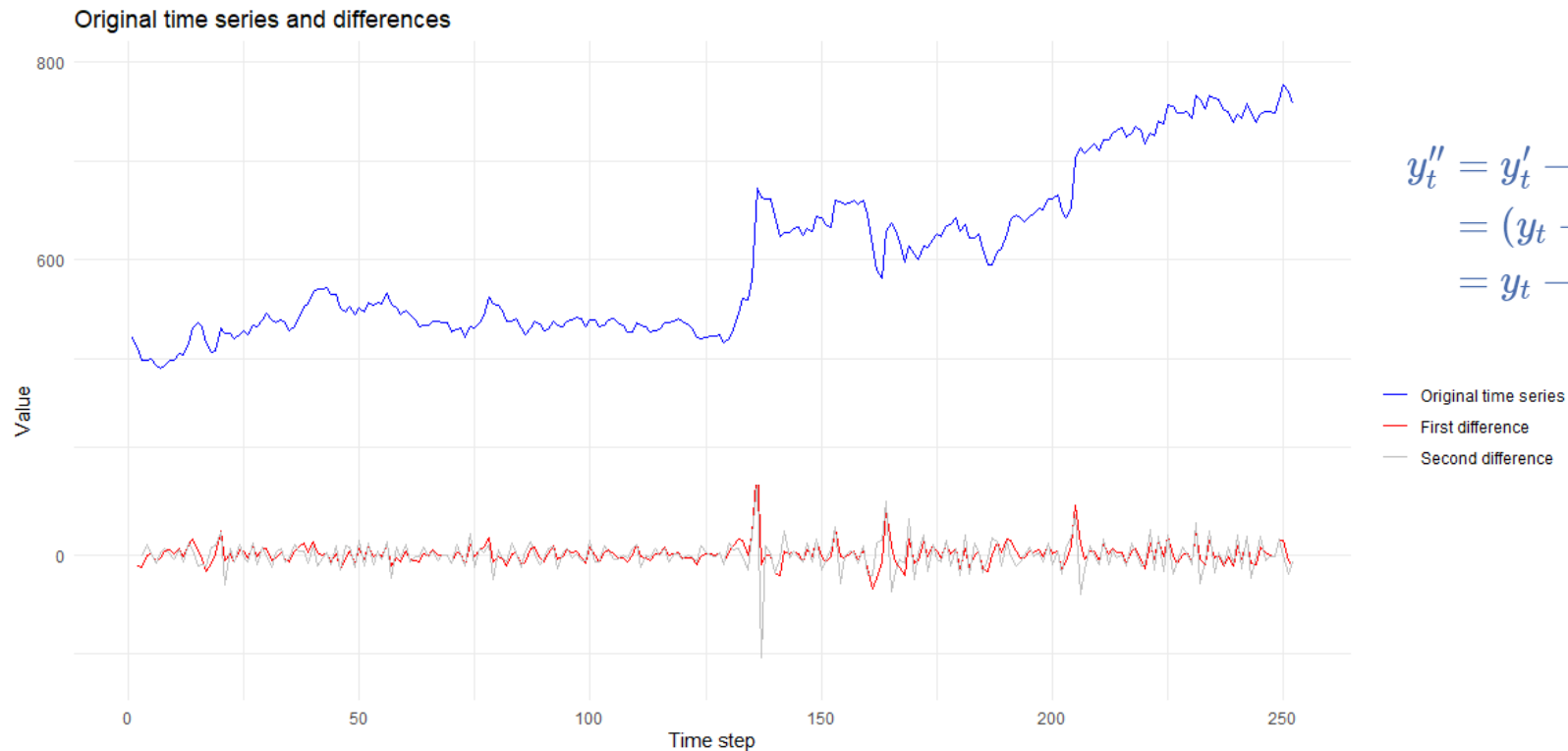
- Differencing: Computing the difference between consecutive observations.
- **Differencing** helps to **stabilize the mean** of a time series by removing changes in the level and therefore reducing the trend and seasonality.
- Recall: **Transformations** help to **stabilize the variance** of a time series.





2nd Differencing

- Occasionally the differenced data will not appear to be stationary, and it may be necessary to difference the data a **second time** to obtain a stationary series.
- Second differencing is **change in change**.
- In practice, it is almost never necessary to go beyond second-order differences.



$$\begin{aligned}y_t'' &= y_t' - y_{t-1}' \\&= (y_t - y_{t-1}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-2}) \\&= y_t - 2y_{t-1} + y_{t-2}.\end{aligned}$$

→ Seasonal Differencing

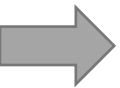
- A seasonal difference is the difference between an observation and the previous observation **from the same season**.

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

- **m** is the number of seasons. This is also called lag-**m** difference.
- If seasonal differenced is white noise, then

$$y_t = y_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t$$

- Recall:
 - **Seasonal Naïve forecast**: each forecast set to be equal to the last observed value **from the same season**



Put it together!

Original data



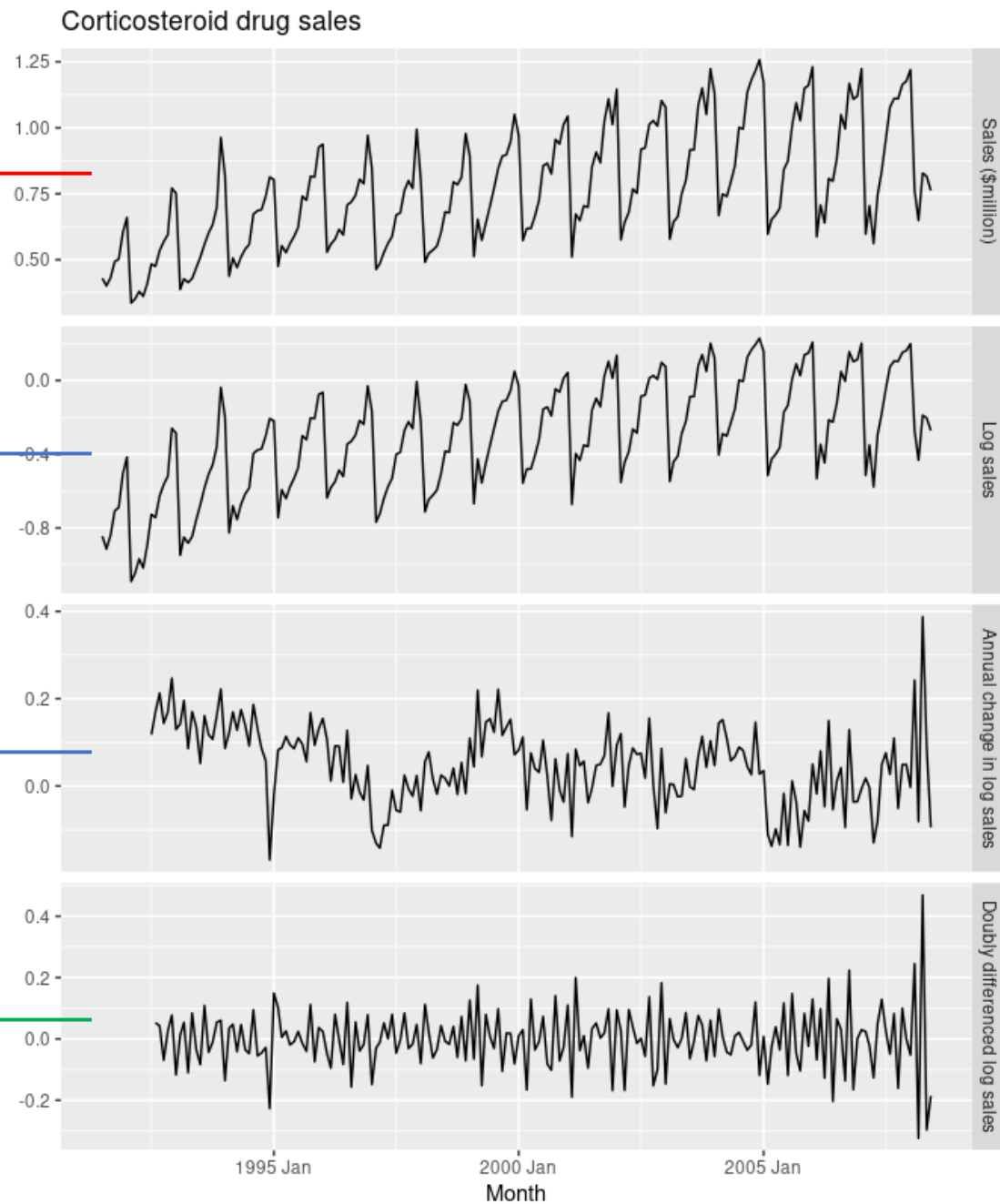
Log transformed



Seasonal difference



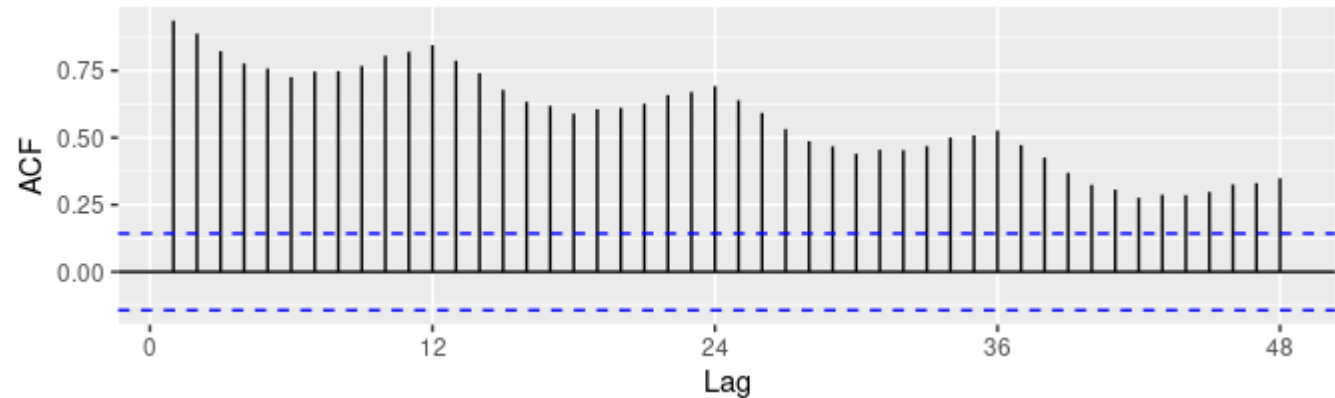
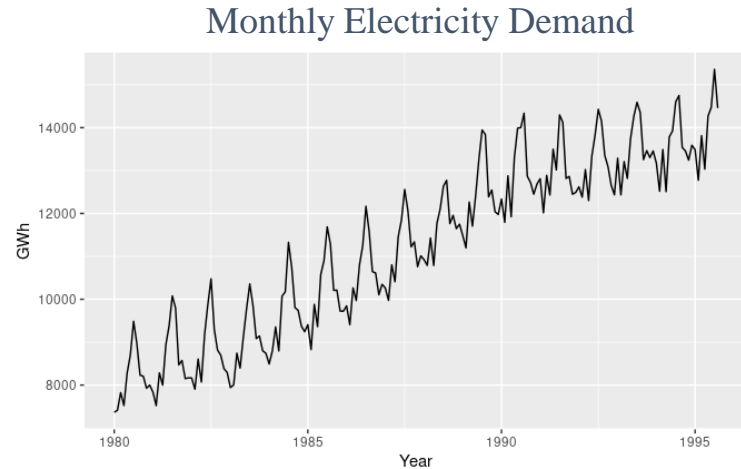
1st differenced seasonal difference





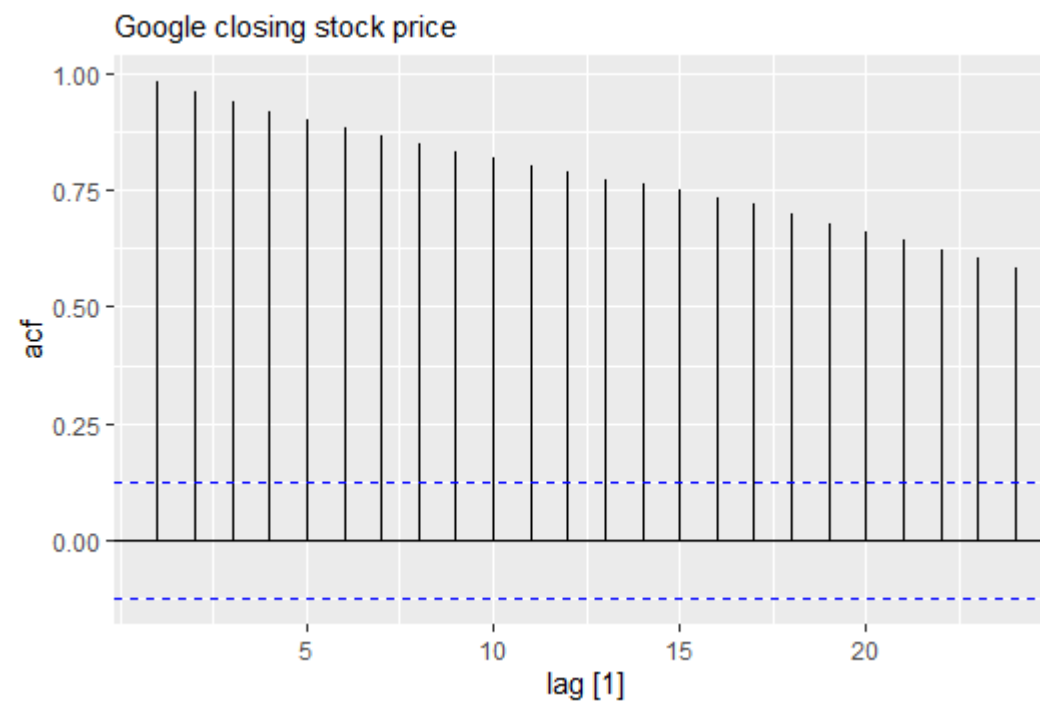
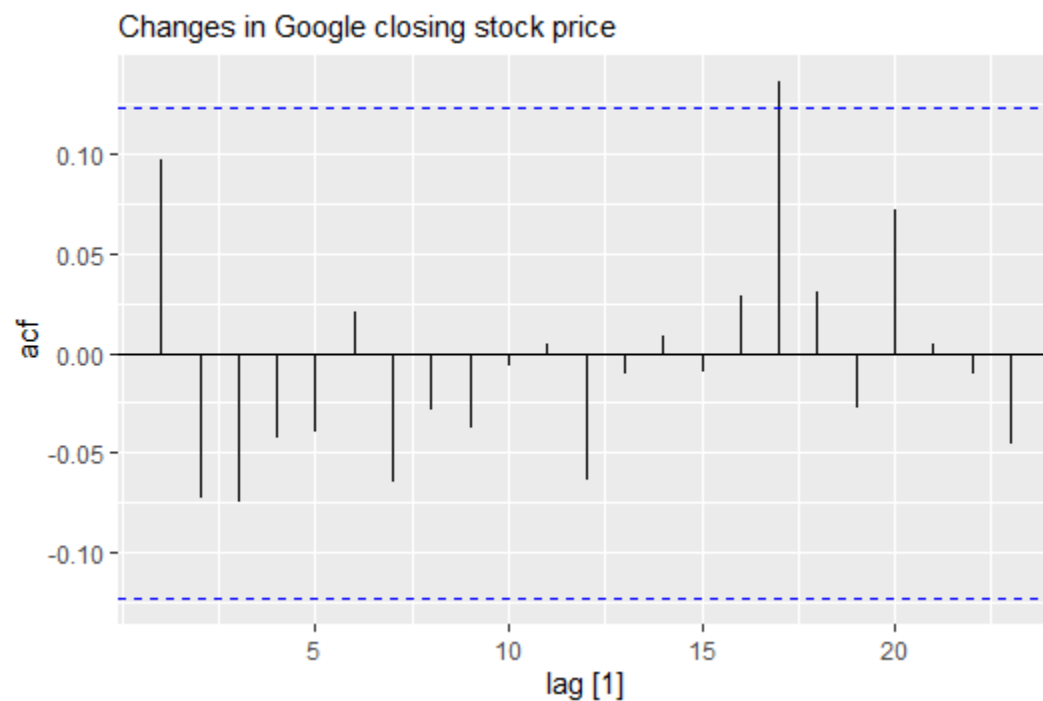
Recall: Trend and seasonality in ACF plots

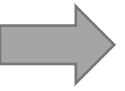
- Autocorrelation can be useful for **identifying patterns and trends** in time series data.
- The ACF of **trended** time series tend to have **positive values that slowly decrease** as the lags increase.
- For seasonal data, the autocorrelations **are larger** for the **seasonal lags** than for other lags.



➔ ACF plots and Stationarity

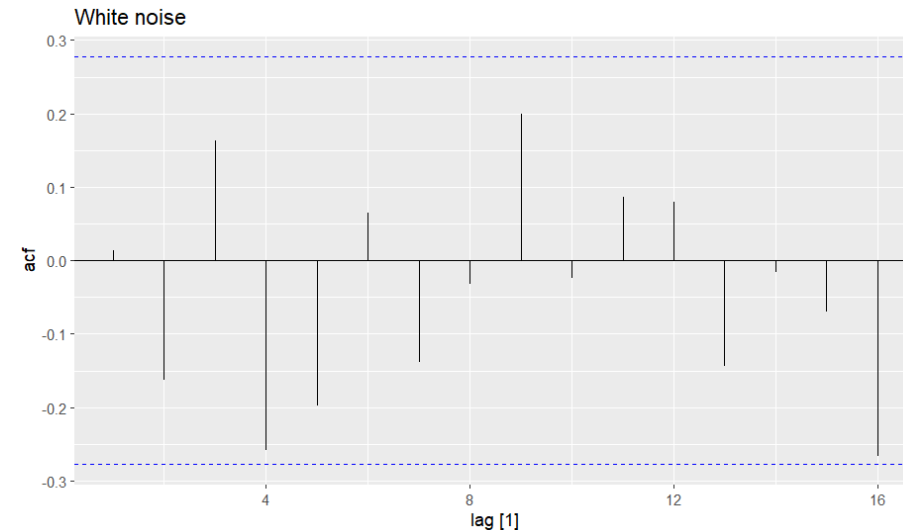
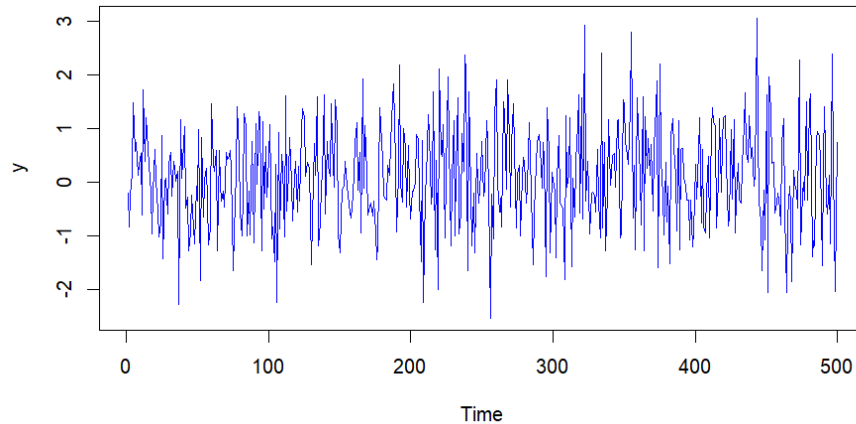
- For stationary data,
 - The ACF plot drops to **zero quickly**.
 - r_1 is mostly large and positive.

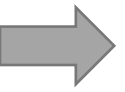




White Noise

- White noise can be thought of as a random **sequence of iid values** (independent and identically distributed) characterized by a distribution.
- White noise has **zero mean** and **finite variance**. $\epsilon_t \sim D(0, \sigma^2)$
- White noise data show **no autocorrelation**.



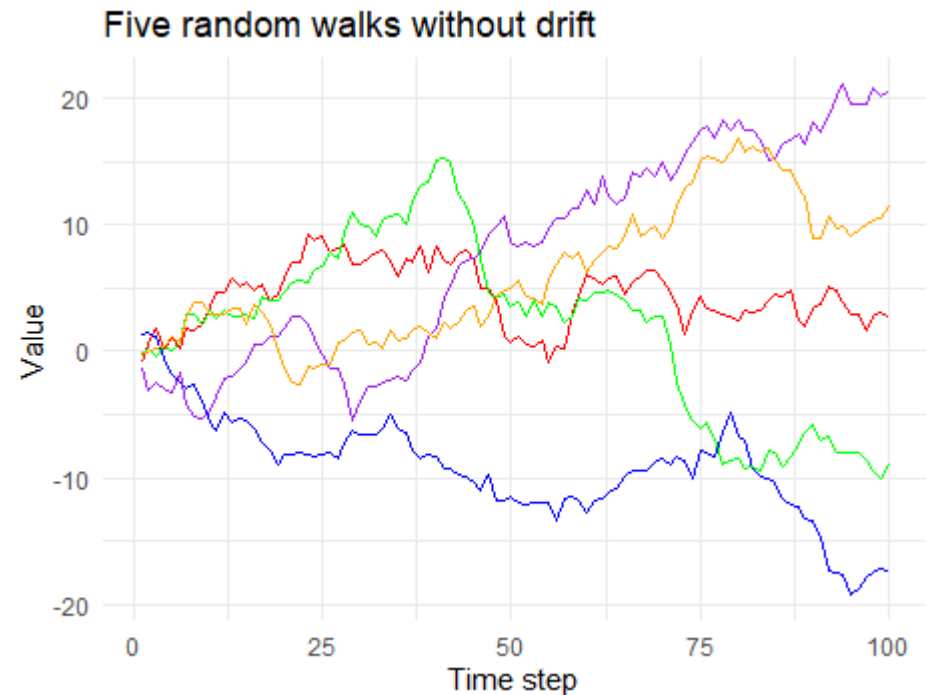


Random Walk

- Random Walk: When the 1st differenced series is white noise

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

- Random walk models are widely used for non-stationary data, particularly **financial** and economic data.
- Random walks typically have **long periods of up or down trend** + **sudden change in direction**.
- Random walk with **no drift** = **Naïve** forecasting model

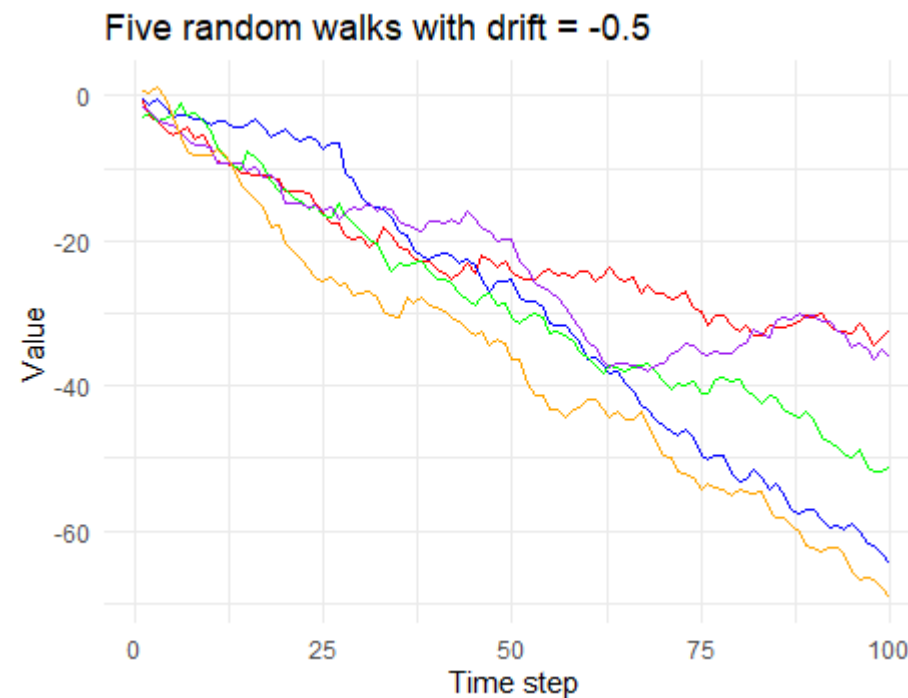
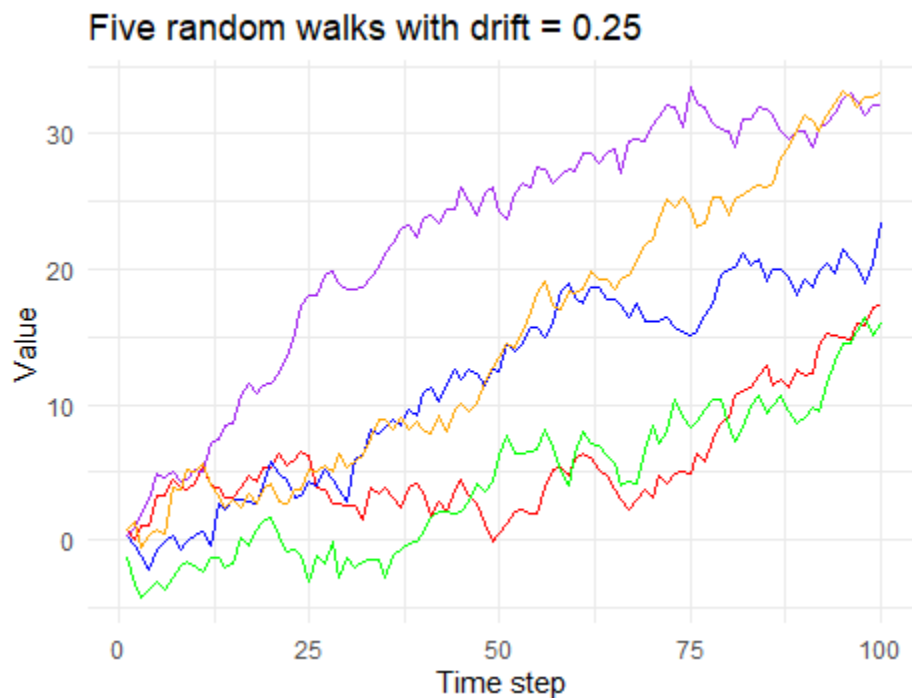


➔ Random Walk with Drift

- Random walk with drift c (the 1st difference does not have zero average):

$$y_t - y_{t-1} = c + \varepsilon_t \quad \text{or} \quad y_t = c + y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

- C is the average change between consecutive observations.



→ Testing for Stationarity

- Unit root test is a statistical test used to determine whether a time series **has a unit root**, which is a characteristic of a **non-stationary time series**
- There are several different unit root tests including:
 1. Augmented Dickey-Fuller (**ADF**) test.
 2. Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (**KPSS**) test.

Hypothesis Test	Null	Alternative	P-value to get stationarity
ADF	Non-Stationary	Stationary	Small
KPSS	Stationary	Non-Stationary	Large

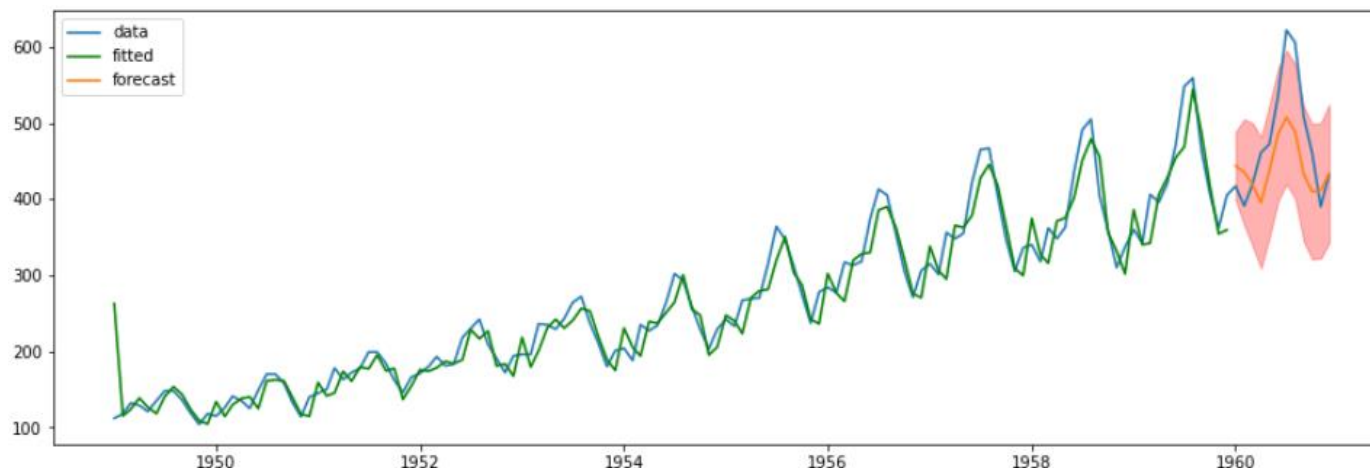
	ADF	KPSS
ADF statistic	-12.533939	0.012944
p-value	0.0	0.1
should we difference?	?	
conclusion		

Components of ARIMA model

1. Autoregressive (AR) term - captures the autocorrelation in the data
2. Integrated (I) term - removes the non-stationarity in the data
3. Moving Average (MA) term - captures the error term or noise in the data

How it works?

- The AR term models the current **value** of the time series as a **linear combination** of its past **values**.
- The I term models the **differences** between the current **value** and the past **value**.
- The MA term models the current **error** term as a **linear combination** of the past **error** terms.



Module 4 – Part II

ARIMA models



→ Components of ARIMA model

ARIMA

1. Autoregressive (**AR**) term - captures the autocorrelation in the data
2. Integrated (**I**) term - removes the non-stationarity in the data
3. Moving Average (**MA**) term - captures the error term or noise in the data

→ Autoregressive models

- An autoregressive (AR) model is a statistical model (multiple linear regression model) that uses **lagged** variable as **predictors**
- Autoregression = regression of the variable against **itself**
- AR(**p**) model, autoregressive model of order **p**.

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

- In AR(1) model:
 - when $\phi_1 = 0$ and $c = 0$, y_t is equivalent to ?
 - when $\phi_1 = 1$ and $c = 0$, y_t is equivalent to ?
 - when $\phi_1 = 1$ and $c \neq 0$, y_t is equivalent to ?
 - when $\phi_1 < 0$, y_t tends to oscillate around the mean.

➔ Autoregressive Models (Example)

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

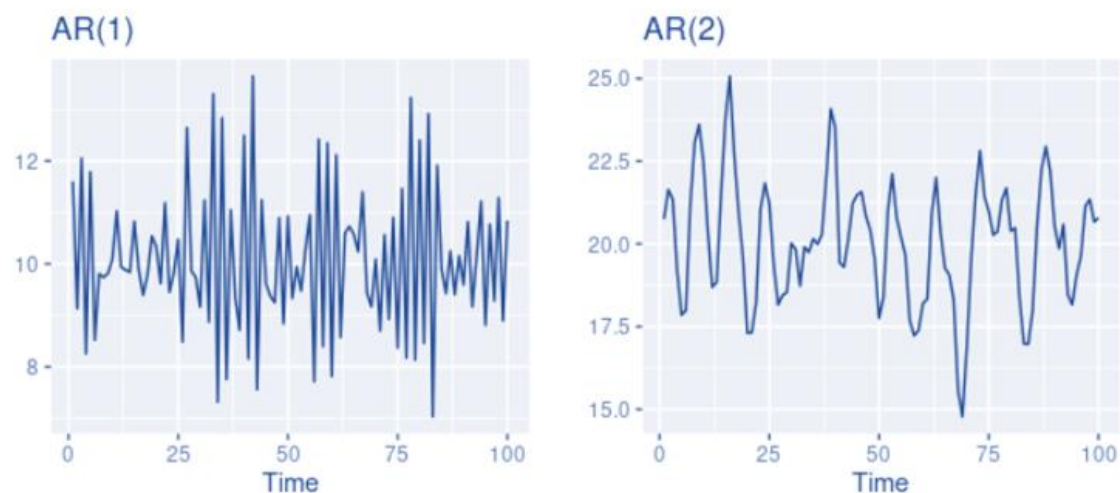


Figure 9.5: Two examples of data from autoregressive models with different parameters. Left: AR(1) with $y_t = 18 - 0.8y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$. Right: AR(2) with $y_t = 8 + 1.3y_{t-1} - 0.7y_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$. In both cases, ε_t is normally distributed white noise with mean zero and variance one.

→ Moving Average Models

- A moving average model uses past forecast **errors** in a regression-like model
- MA(**q**) model, a moving average model of order **q**.

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

- y_t can be thought of as a weighted moving average of the past few forecast errors
- We require $|\phi| < 1$, the most recent observations carry a greater weight than those from the distant past.

→ Moving Average Models

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

- Do **NOT** confuse this model with simple moving average method or exponentially weighted moving average method.
- Moving average **models** is used for forecasting future values!
- Moving average **smoothing** (SMA, EWMA, ...) is used for estimating the trend-cycle of past values.



➔ Moving Average Models (Example)

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

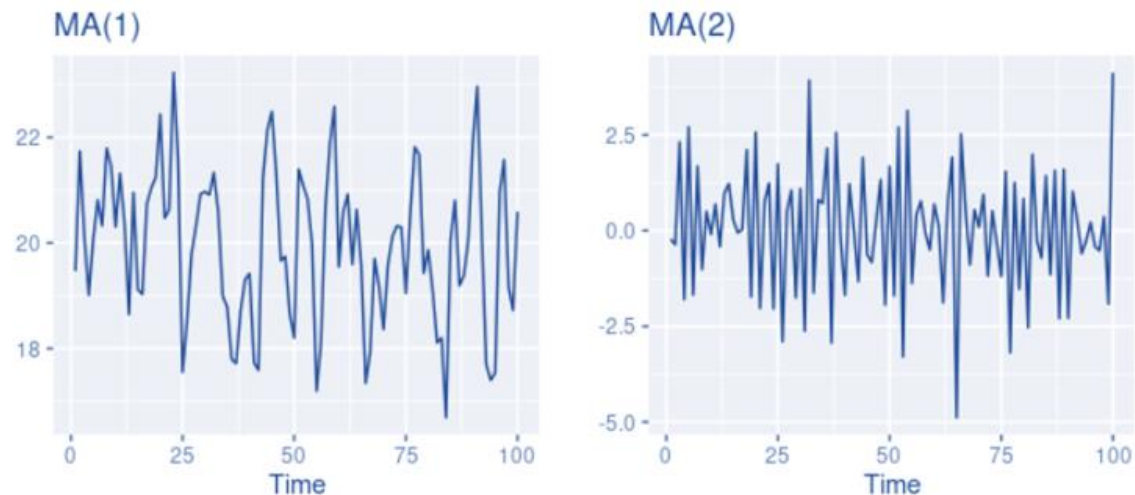


Figure 9.6: Two examples of data from moving average models with different parameters. Left: MA(1) with $y_t = 20 + \varepsilon_t + 0.8\varepsilon_{t-1}$. Right: MA(2) with $y_t = \varepsilon_t - \varepsilon_{t-1} + 0.8\varepsilon_{t-2}$. In both cases, ε_t is normally distributed white noise with mean zero and variance one.



ARIMA (AutoRegressive Integrated Moving Average)

- ARIMA model combines three models, autoregressive (**AR**) model, an integrated (**I**) model, and a moving average (**MA**) model.
- ARIMA(**p**, **d**, **q**) model.

$$y'_t = c + \phi_1 y'_{t-1} + \cdots + \phi_p y'_{t-p} + \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \cdots + \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q} + \varepsilon_t$$

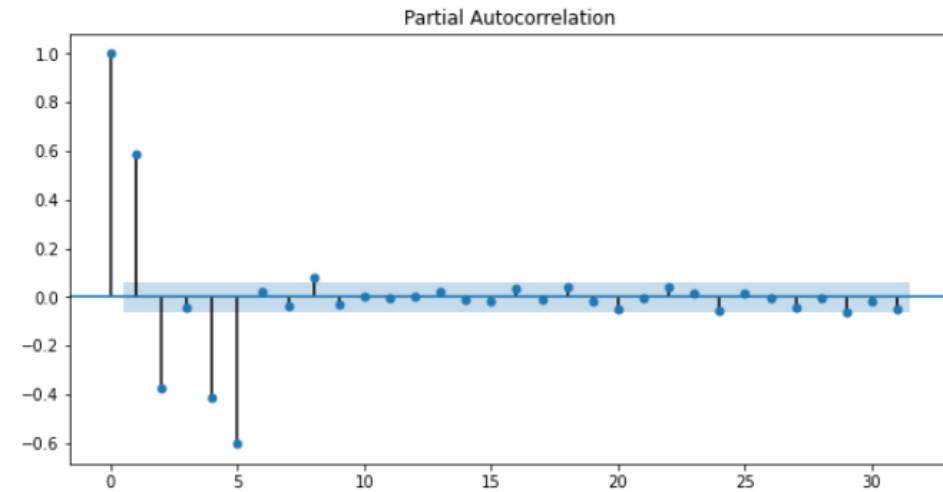
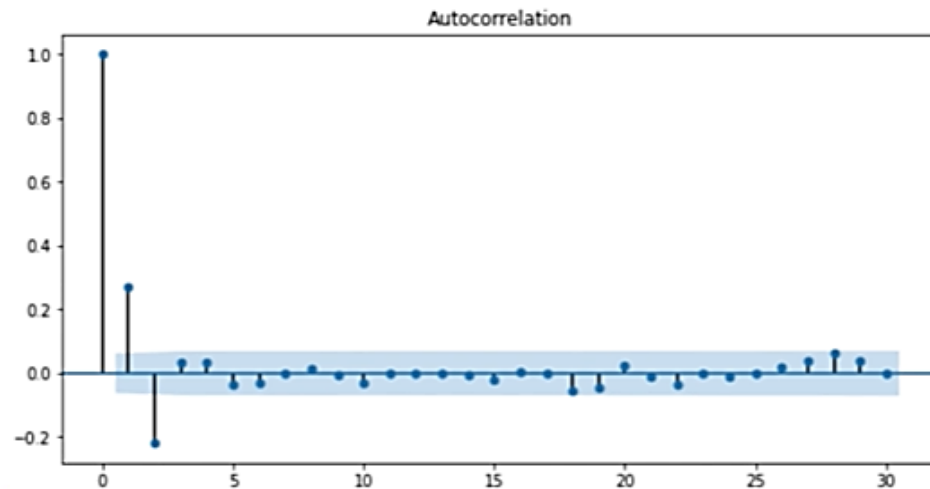
- y'_t is the differenced time series.
- d degree of first difference involved.
- Note: p , d , and q are estimated using **MLE**.

?	ARIMA(0,0,0) with no constant
?	ARIMA(0,1,0) with no constant
?	ARIMA(0,1,0) with a constant
?	ARIMA(p ,0,0)
?	ARIMA(0,0, q)



Selecting (p, q) orders using ACF and PAC

- Some rough guidelines:
- Identification of an **AR** model is often best done with the **PACF**
 - **p** set to be the maximum significant non-zero lag in PACF typically followed by a **sharp decline**.
- Identification of an **MA** model is often best done with the **ACF**
 - **q** set to be the maximum significant non-zero lag in ACF typically followed by a **sharp decline**.





Model selection

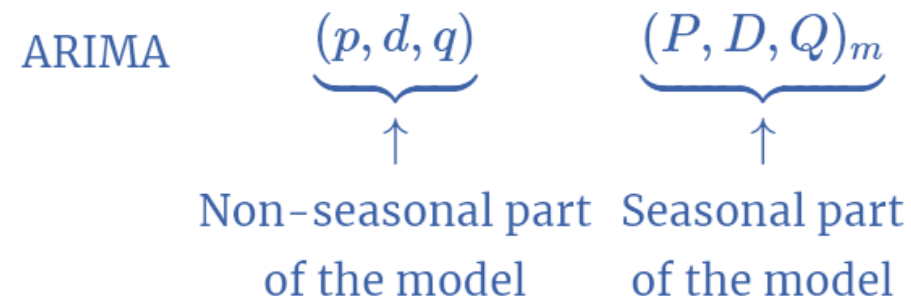
- For model selection we can either use **information criteria** or any **cross validated** performance metrics like R^2 , MSE, RMSE, MAPE, sMAPE.

Information Criteria	Formula
Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC)	$AIC = -2 \log(L) + 2k$
AIC corrected for small sample bias (AICc)	$AIC_c = AIC + \frac{2k(k+1)}{T-k-1}$
Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)	$BIC = AIC + k[\log(T) - 2]$

- **L** is the likelihood of the model and **K** is the total number of parameters (including the variance of residuals)
- The model with the **minimum information criteria** is often the best model for forecasting

➔ SARIMA (Seasonal ARIMA) models

- SARIMA is an extension of an ARIMA model that includes **additional seasonal terms**.
- It is used to model time series data that exhibits seasonal patterns

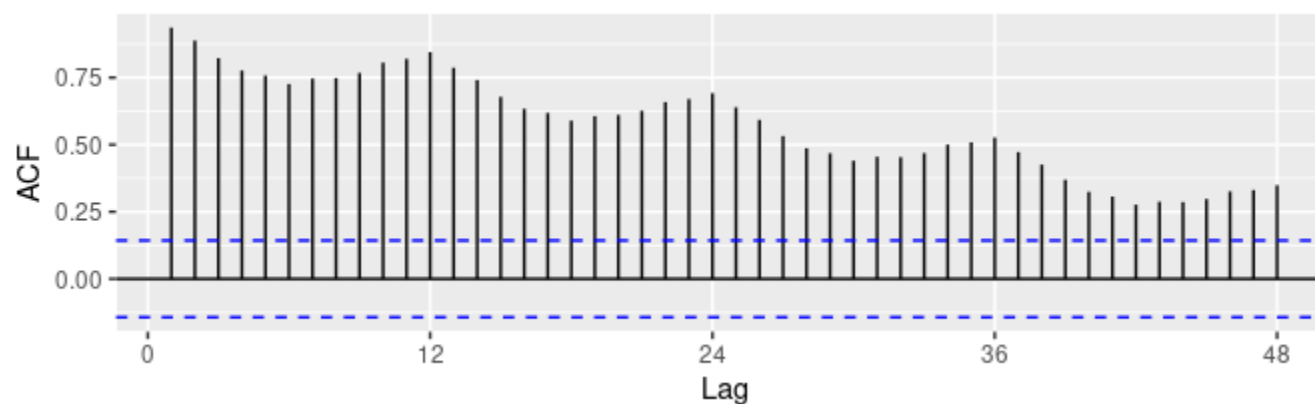
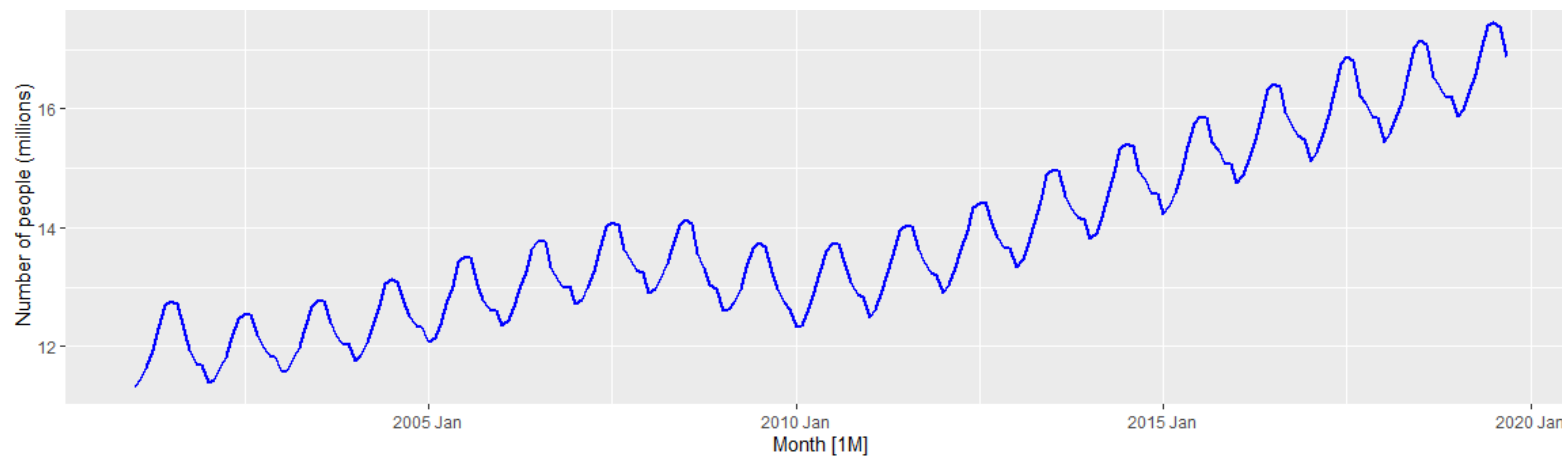


- p, d, q are defined as before.
- P is the order of the **seasonal** autoregressive component
- D is the degree of **seasonal** differencing
- Q is the order of the **seasonal** moving average component
- m is the **period of the seasonality**. $m = 4, 12$ is for quarterly and monthly seasonality, respectively.



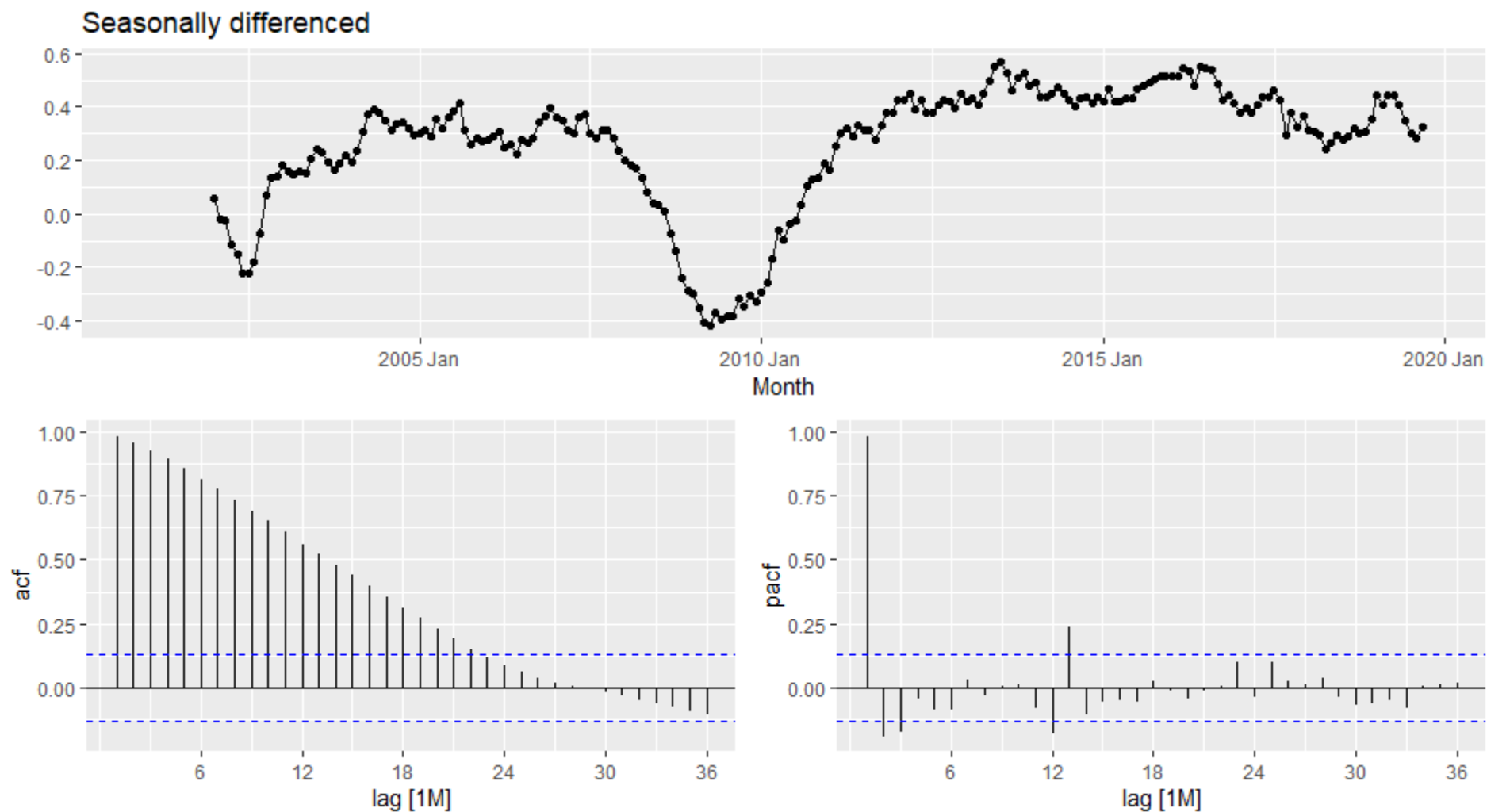
SARIMA example

Monthly US leisure and hospitality employment, 2001-2019.



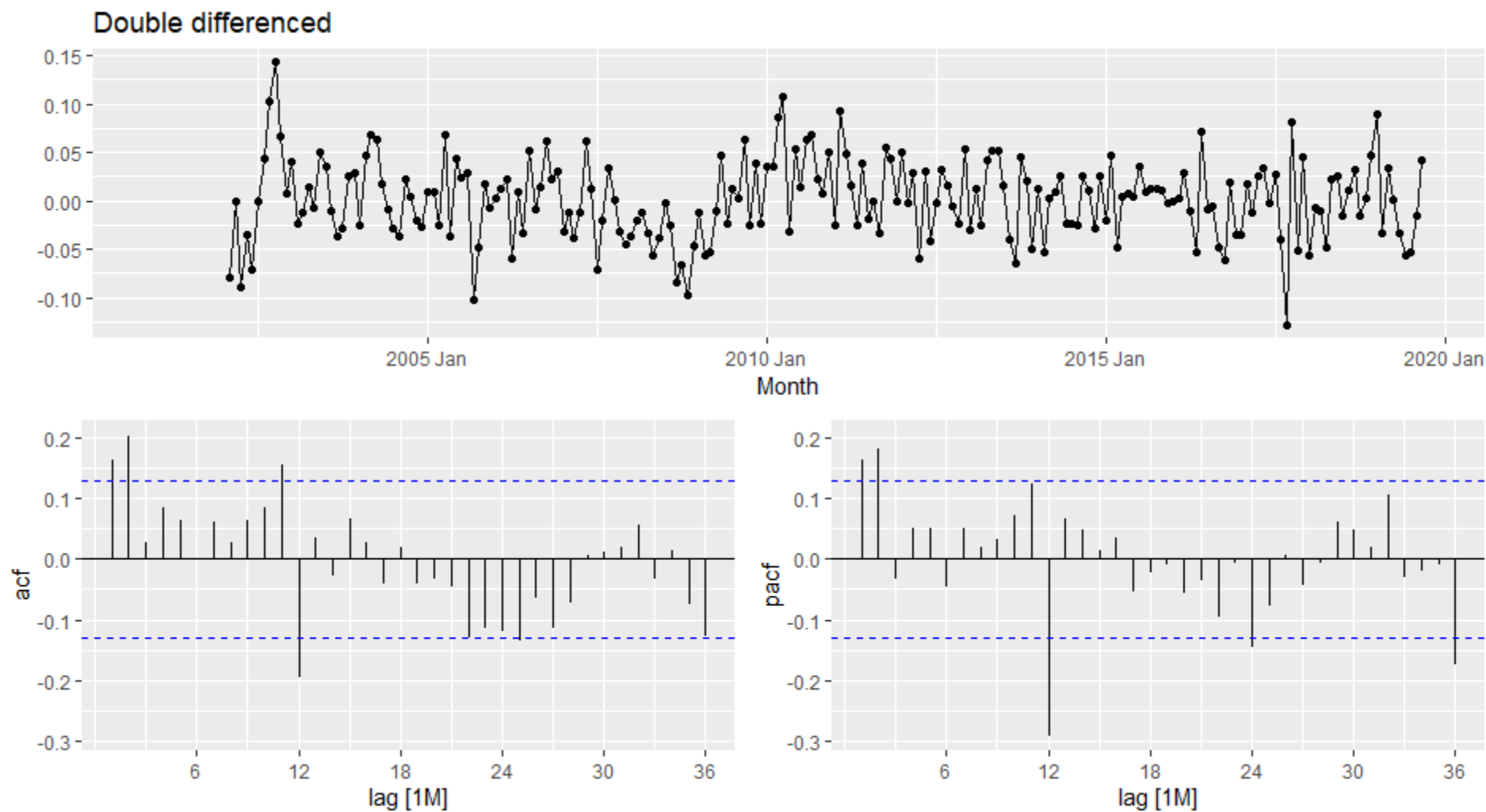


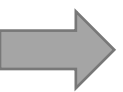
SARIMA example





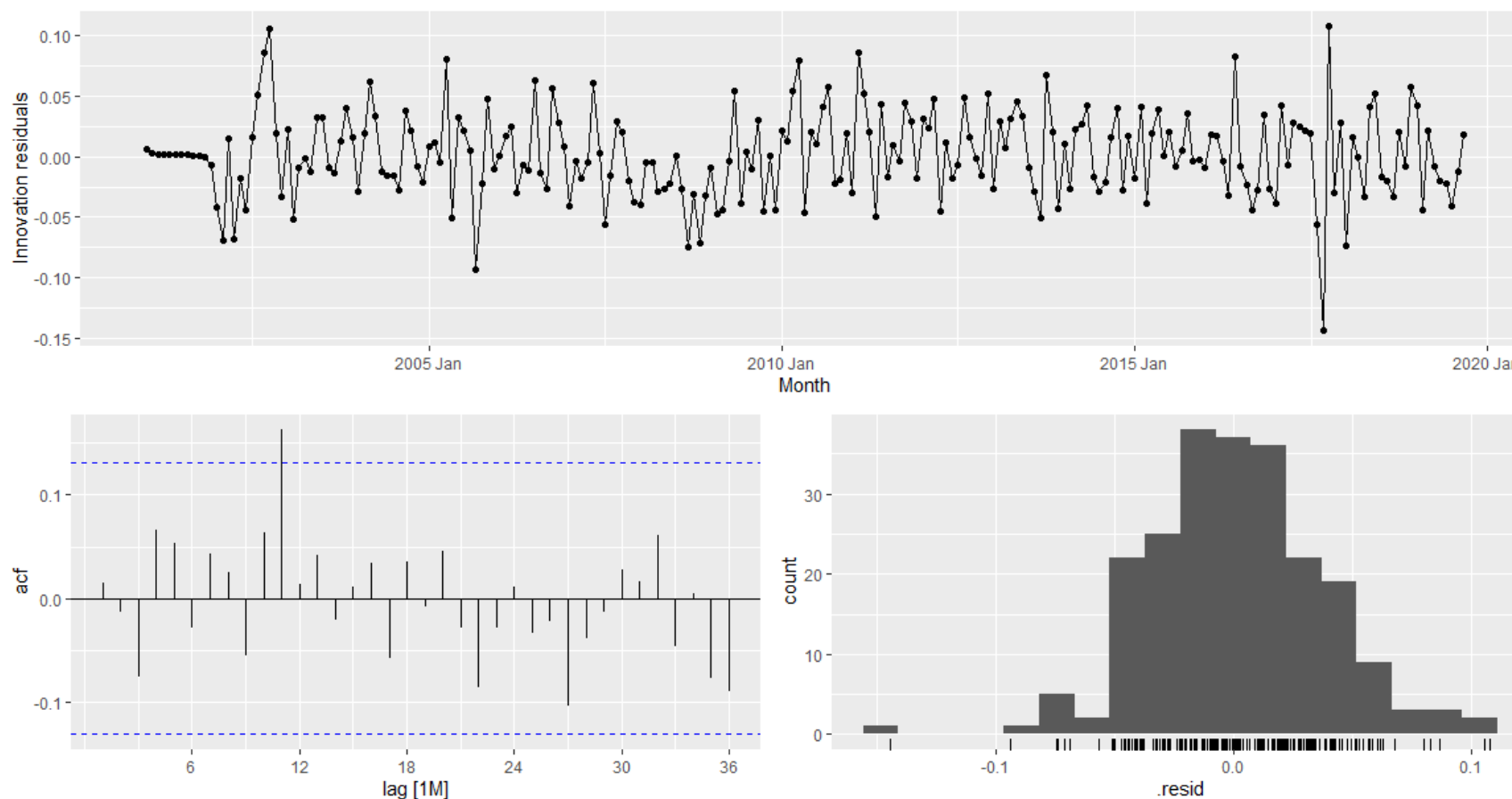
SARIMA example





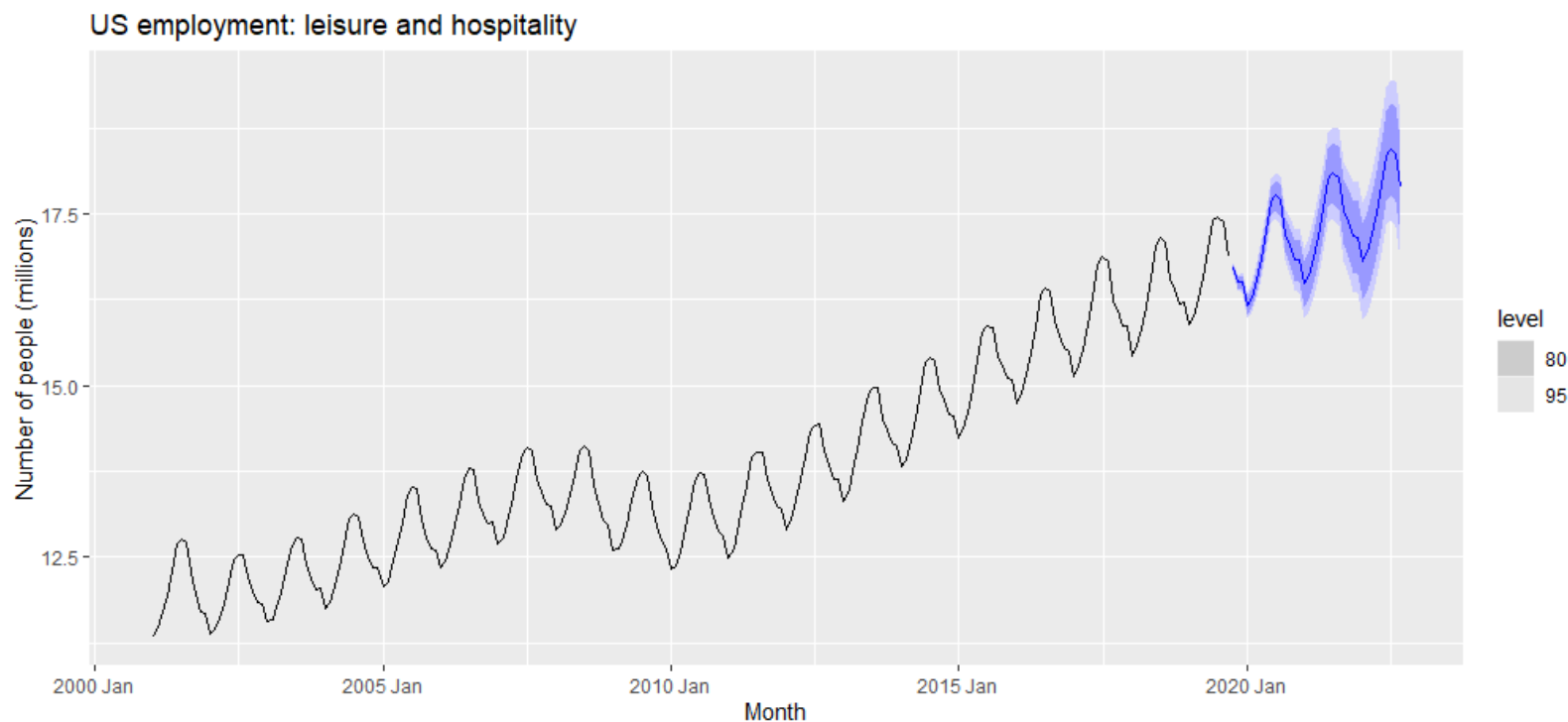
SARIMA example

- Using Auto-SARIMA, the winning model is **SARIMA(2,1,0)(1,1,1)₁₂**
- Plotting residuals to confirm they are like Gaussian white noise.



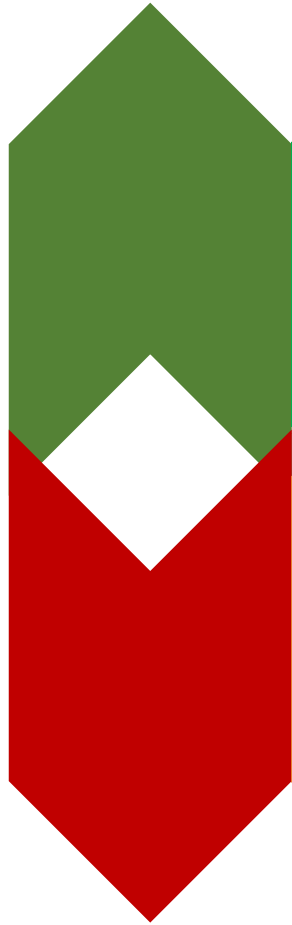
➔ SARIMA example, Forecasting

- We now have a seasonal ARIMA model that passes the required checks and is ready for **forecasting**.
- The forecasts have captured the **seasonal** pattern very well, and the increasing **trend** extends the recent pattern. The trend in the forecasts is induced by the double differencing.





ARIMA: Advantages and Disadvantages



- Flexible and can be used with a wide range of time series data.
- Able to capture both linear and non-linear relationships
- Easy to implement and interpret

- Difficult to tune and get accurate forecasts, especially for time series with complex patterns or multiple seasonality
- It is sensitive to the choice of parameters and can produce unstable forecasts if the parameters are not chosen carefully.

➔ Road map!

- ✓ Module 1- Introduction to Deep Forecasting
- ✓ Module 2- Setting up Deep Forecasting Environment
- ✓ Module 3- Exponential Smoothing
- ✓ Module 4- ARIMA models
- Module 5- Machine Learning for Time series Forecasting
- Module 6- Deep Neural Networks
- Module 7- Deep Sequence Modeling (RNN, LSTM)
- Module 8- Transformers (Attention is all you need!)
- Module 9- Prophet and Neural Prophet

