

ENERGY DATA SCIENCE

Statistical models for Time series

Prof. Juri Belikov

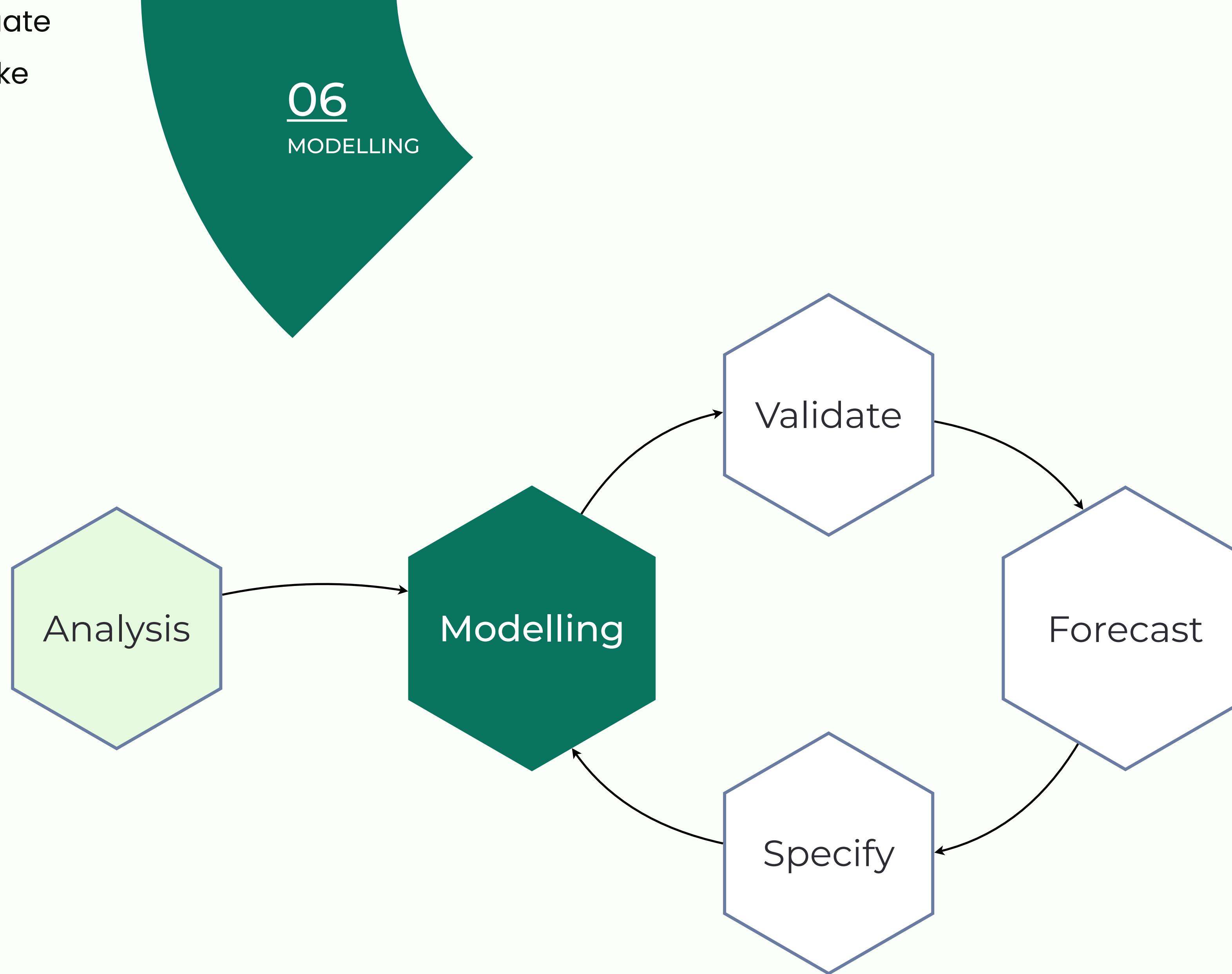
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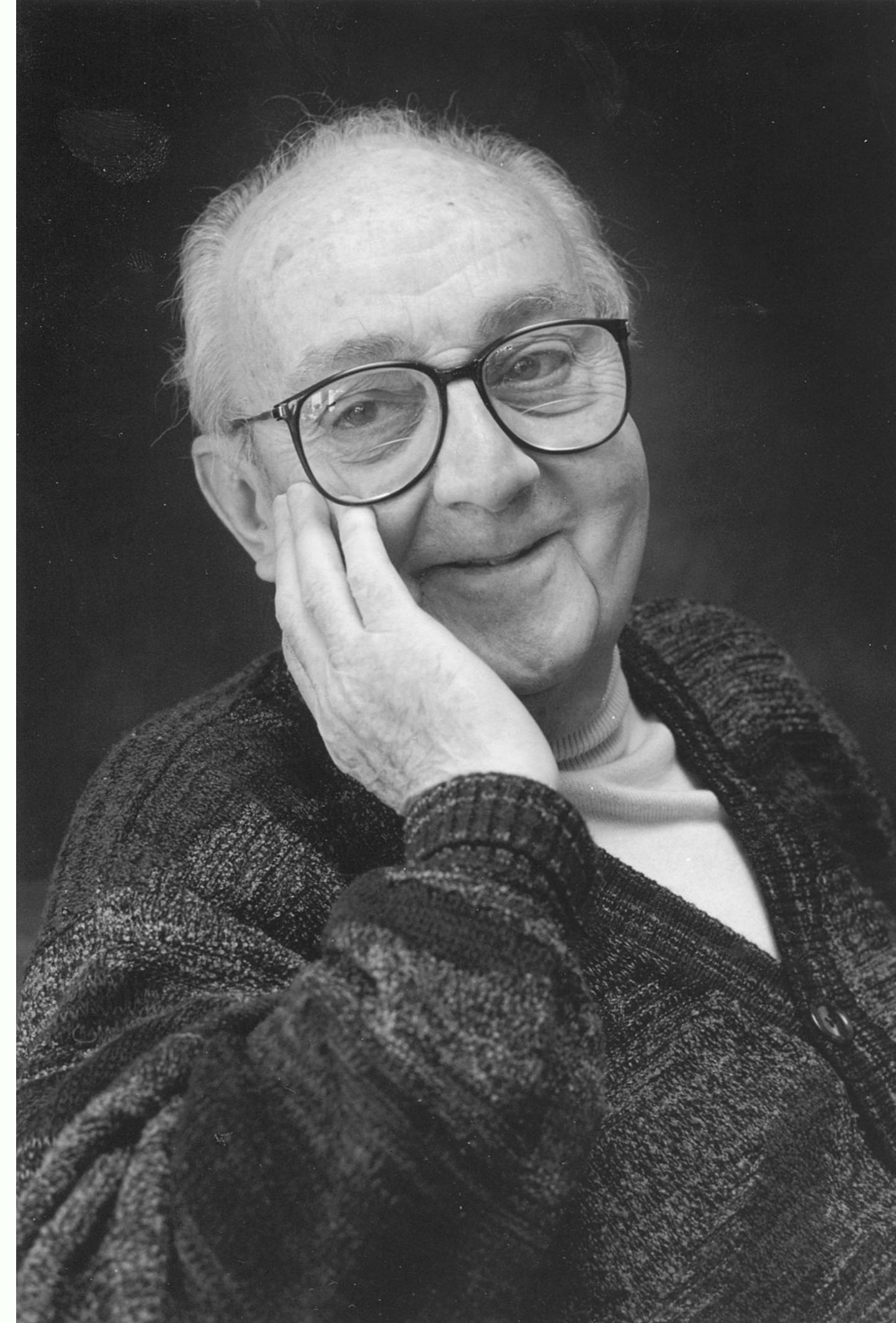
PREVIOUSLY IN COURSE ...

Key takeaways:

- Time series and why they are so special
- Components: trend, seasonality, cycle, remainder
- Classical decomposition

Train ML models, evaluate performance, and make predictions.





*"All models are wrong, but some
models are useful."*

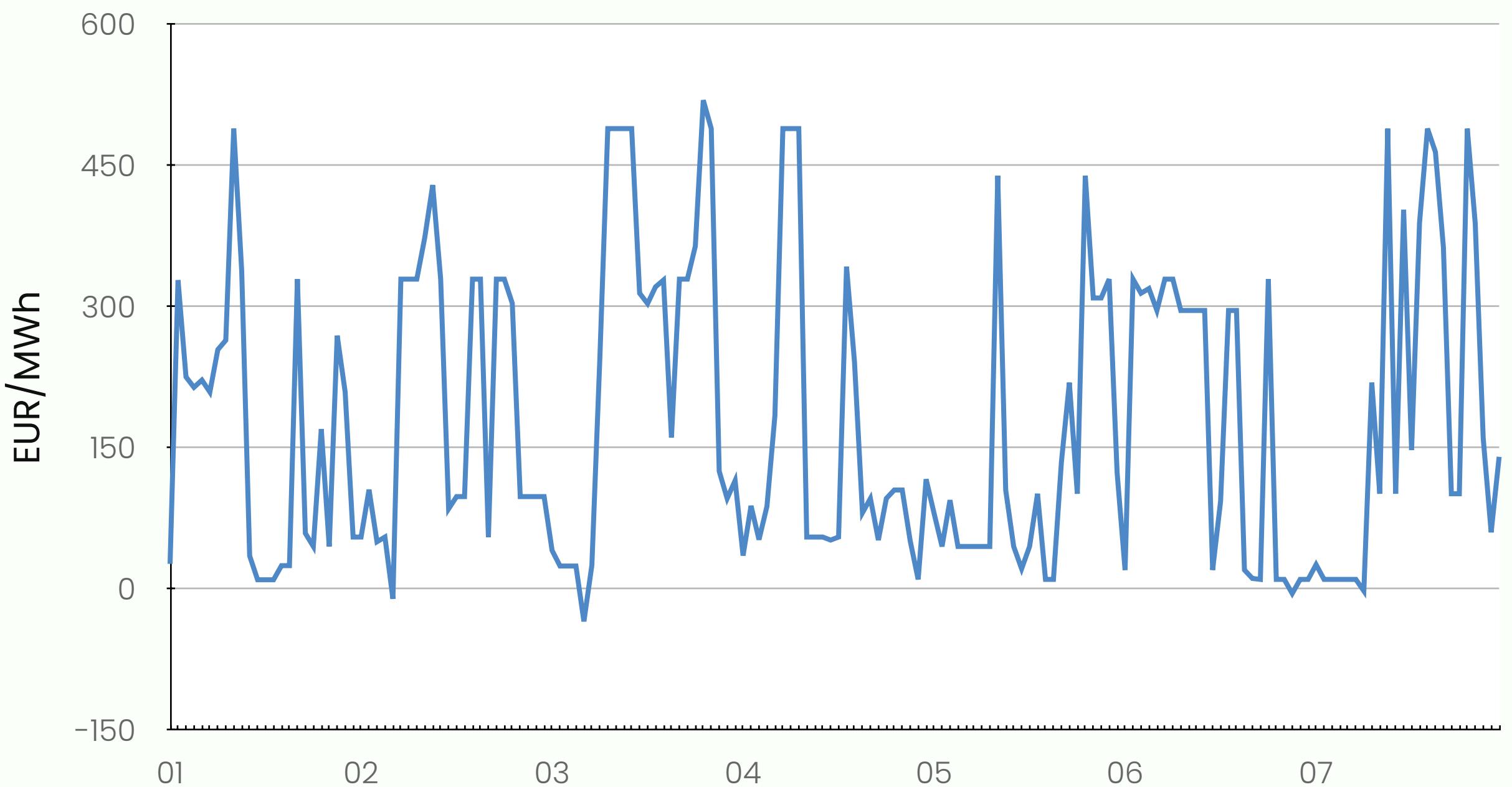
George E. P. Box (1919–2013)

Stationarity

CONSISTENCY

- ✓ Cannot have independence, but want some consistency.
- ✓ Distribution depends **only** on difference in time and **not** on location in time.

Imbalance electricity price, March 01-07, '24, Estonia



CONSISTENCY

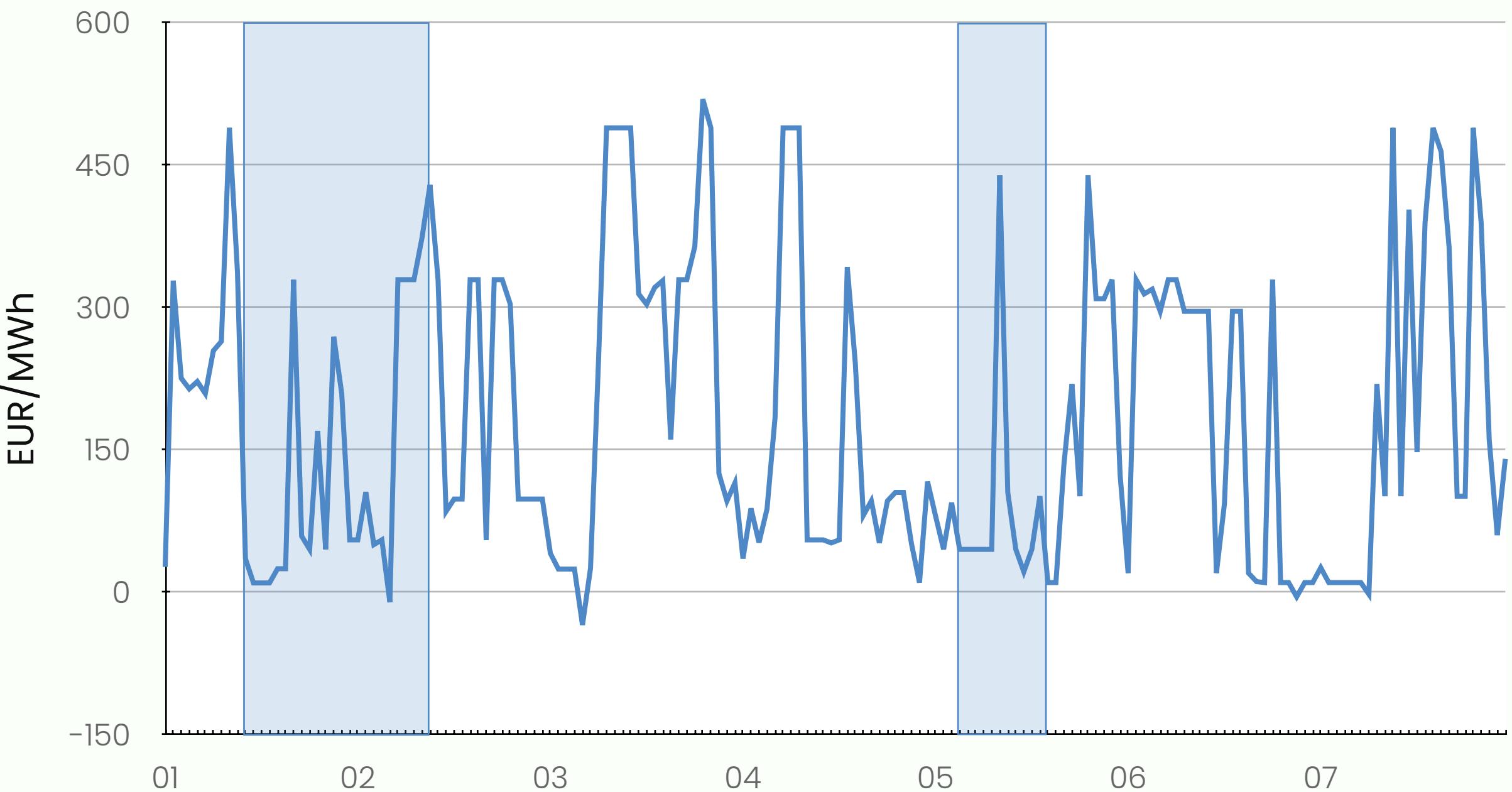
- ✓ Cannot have independence, but want some consistency.
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Different widths



Different distributions

Imbalance electricity price, March 01-07, '24, Estonia



STRONG STATIONARITY

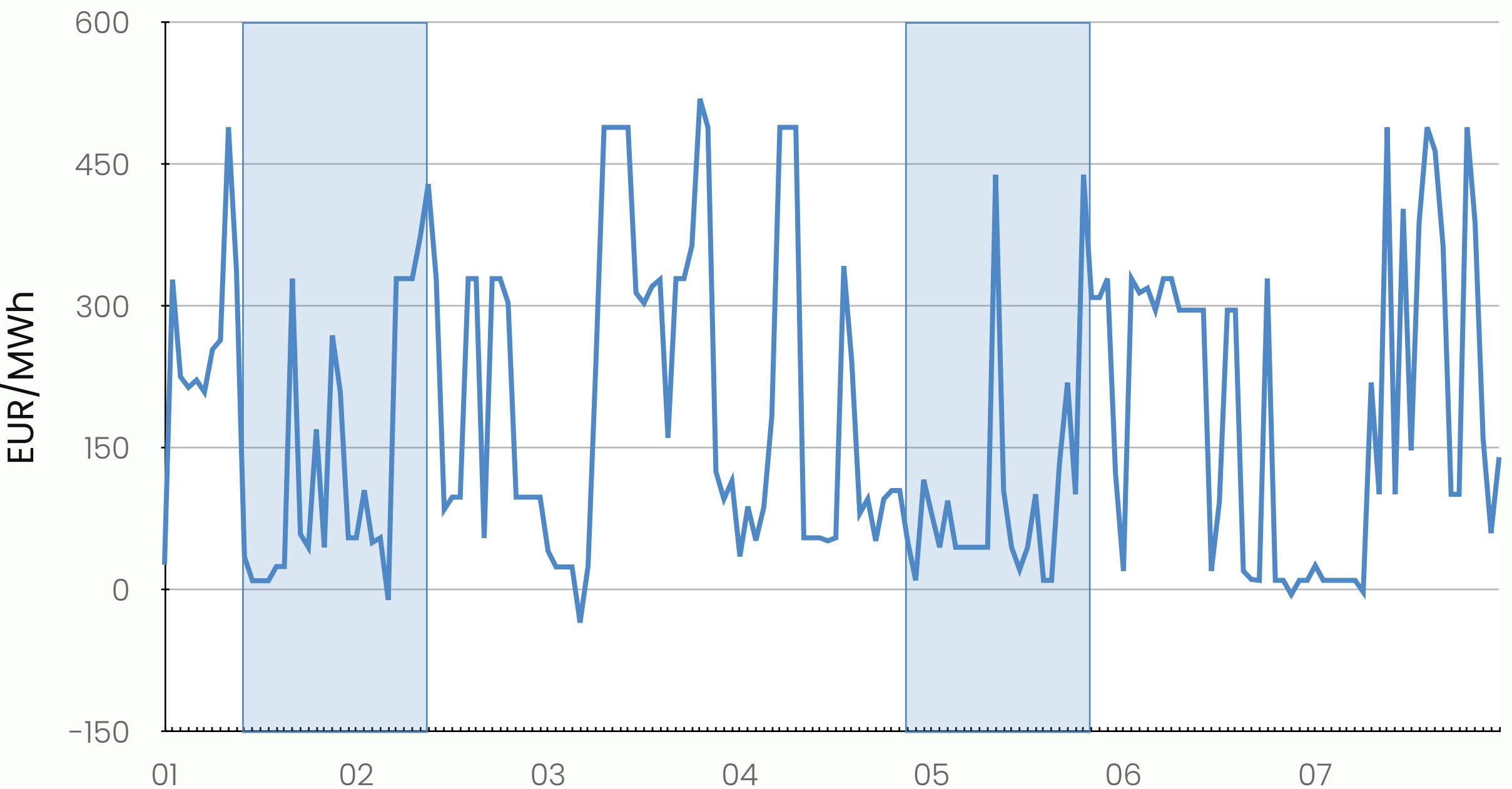
Distribution depends **only** on
difference in time and **not** on
location in time.

Same widths (any size)



Expect same distributions

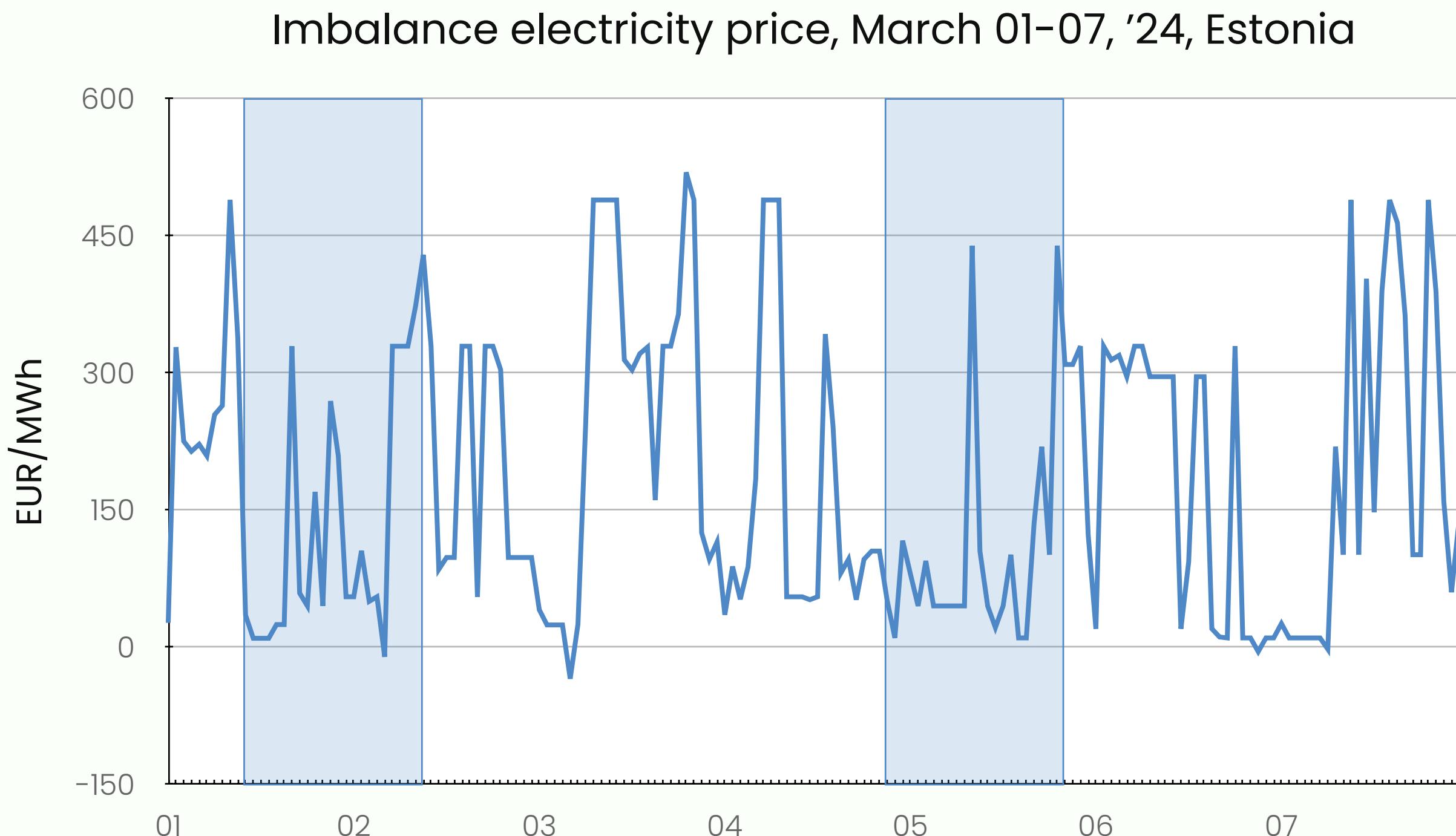
Imbalance electricity price, March 01-07, '24, Estonia



WEAK STATIONARITY

Properties depend only on difference in time,
not on location in time:

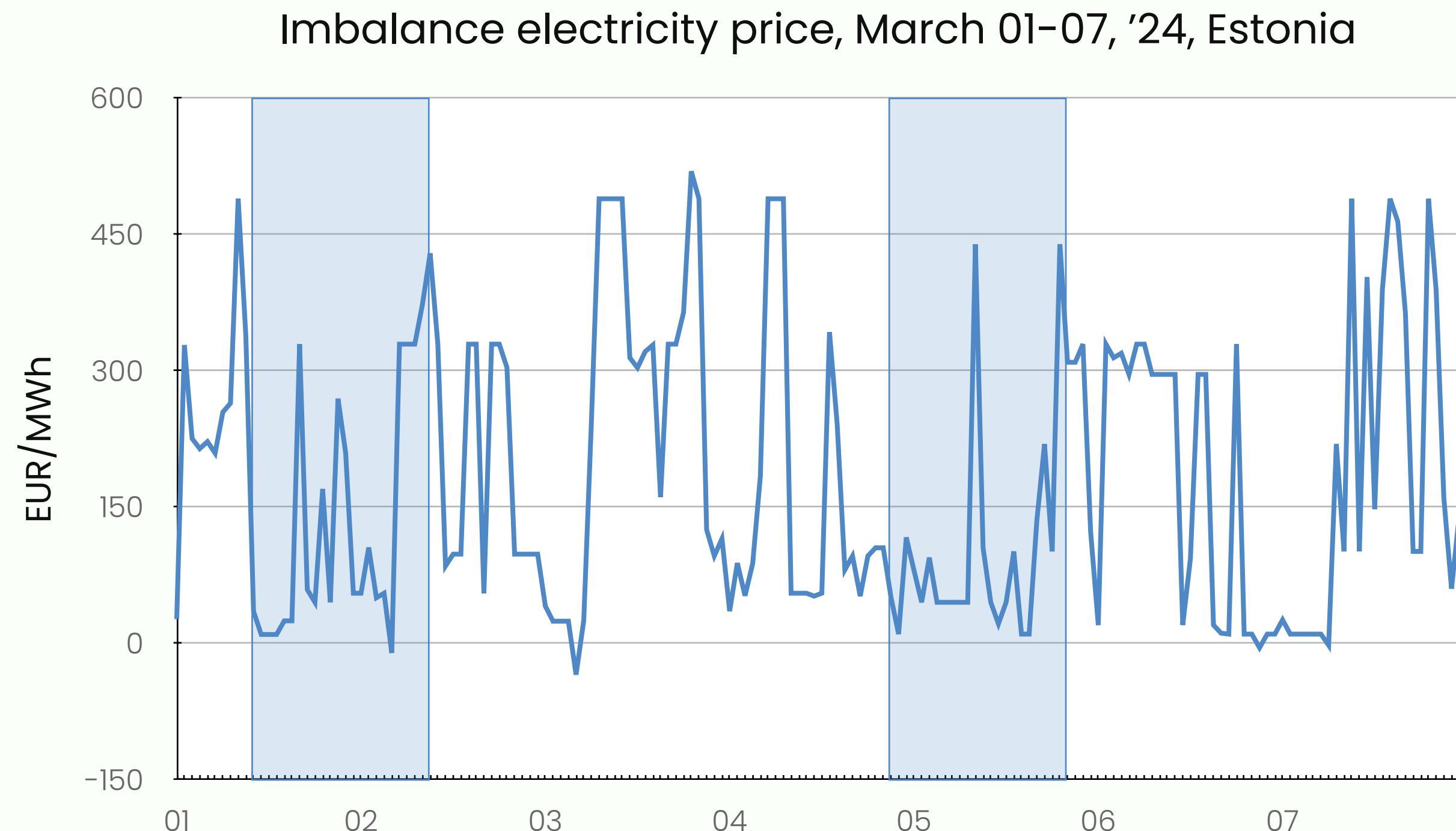
- ✓ mean is constant
- ✓ variation is constant
- ✓ no seasonality



WEAK STATIONARITY

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- ✓ mean is constant
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In most cases we only need **weak** stationarity.

WHY IS IT IMPORTANT?

Statistical properties do not change over the time:

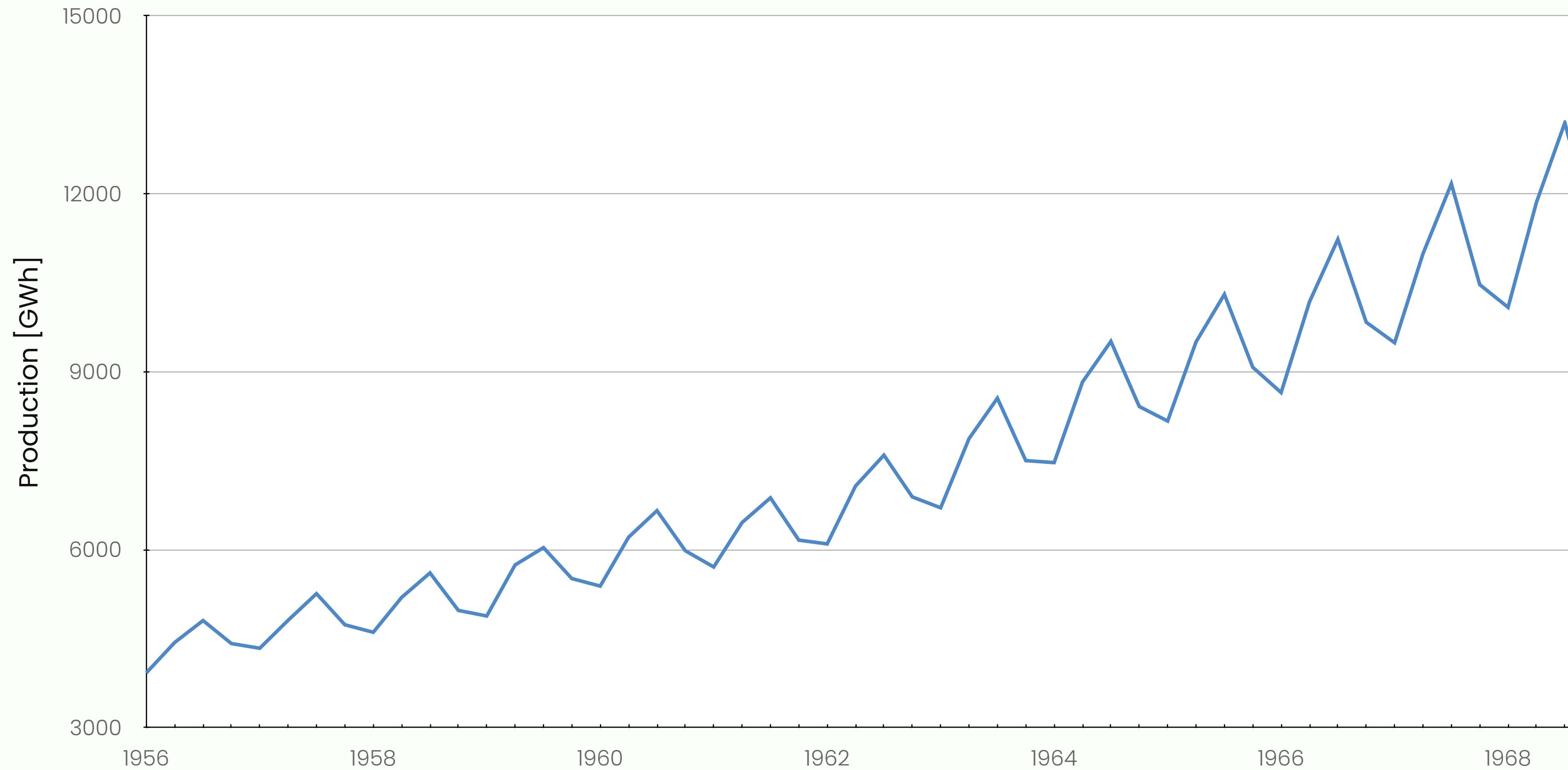
- Easy to analyse
- Easy to model

Easy to forecast.

Many existing statistical methods are applicable only when the data are stationary (e.g., ARMA-family models).

METHOD 1: VISUAL INSPECTION

Quarterly electricity production, Australia



Stationary

Non-stationary

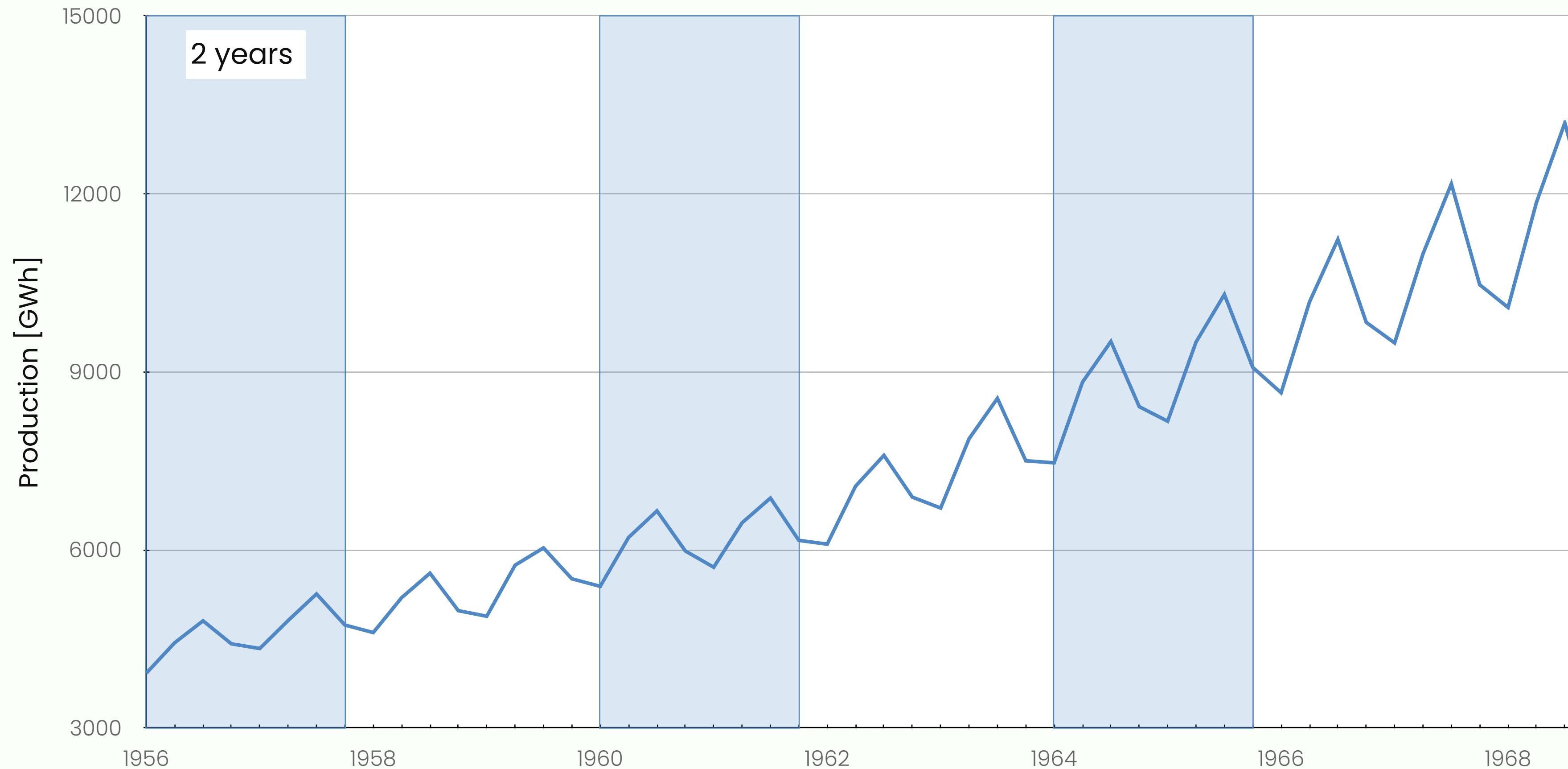
Mean (trend)

Variation

Seasonal

METHOD 1: VISUAL INSPECTION

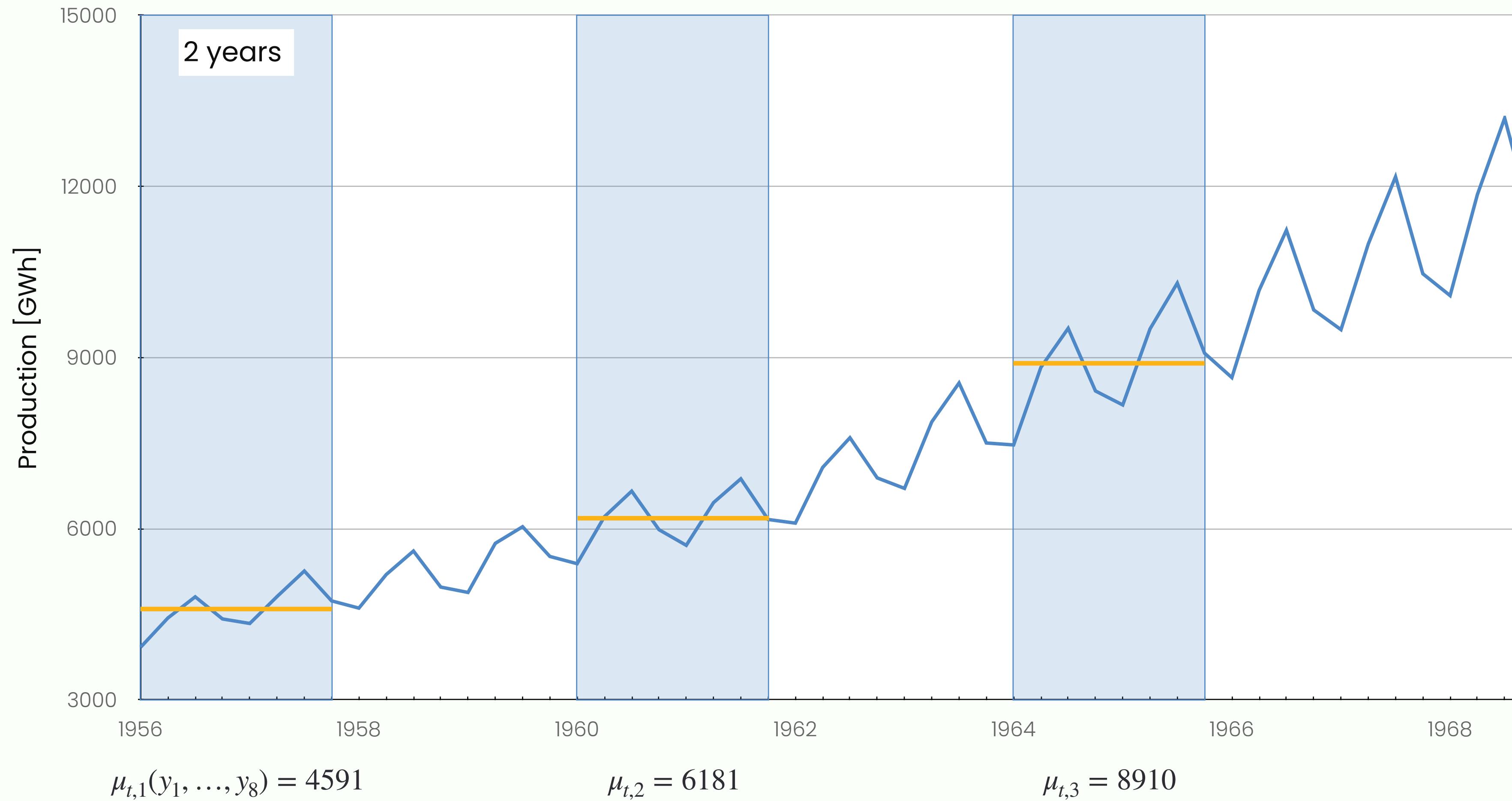
Quarterly electricity production, Australia



Stationary
Non-stationary
Mean (trend)
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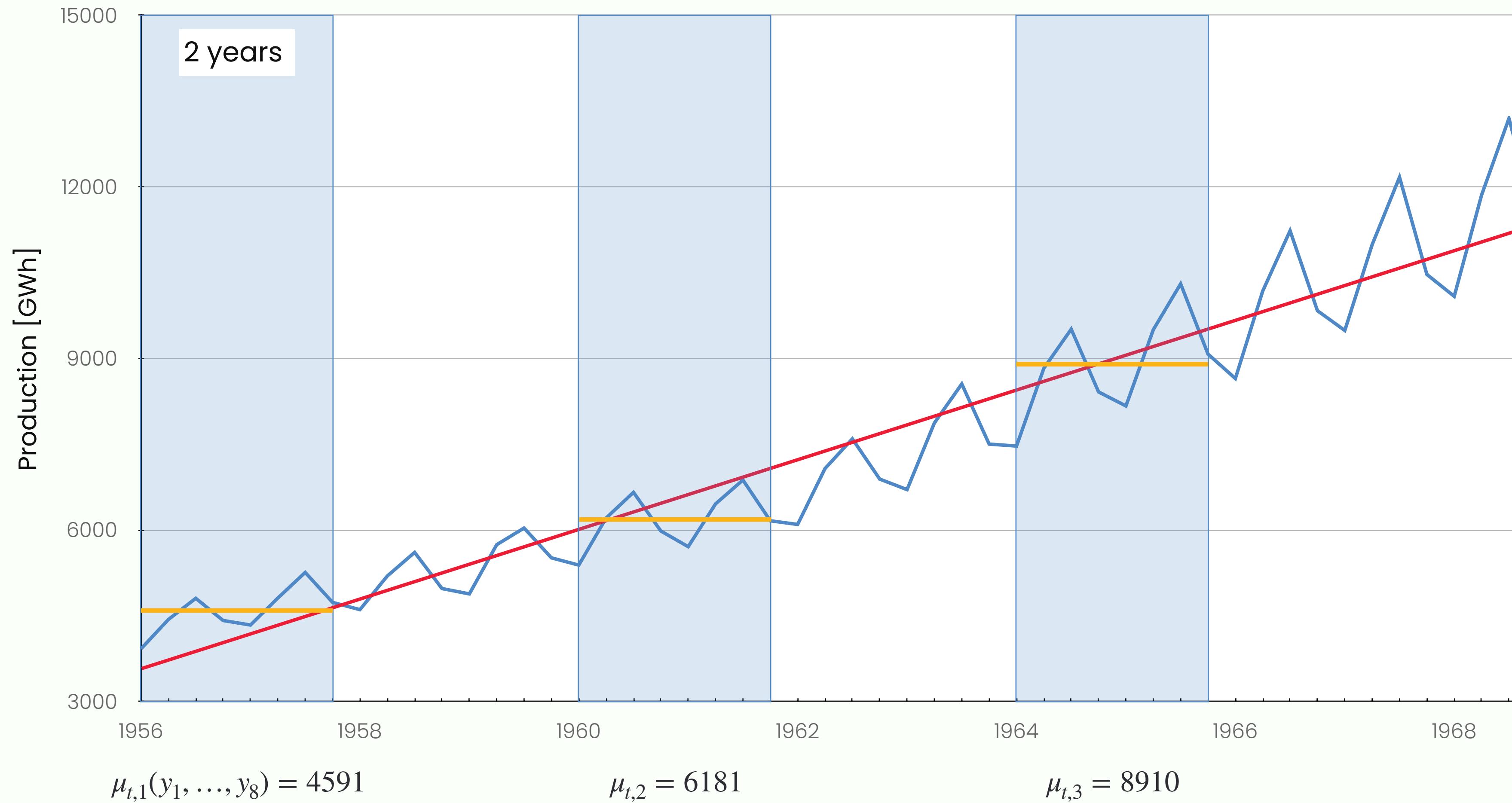
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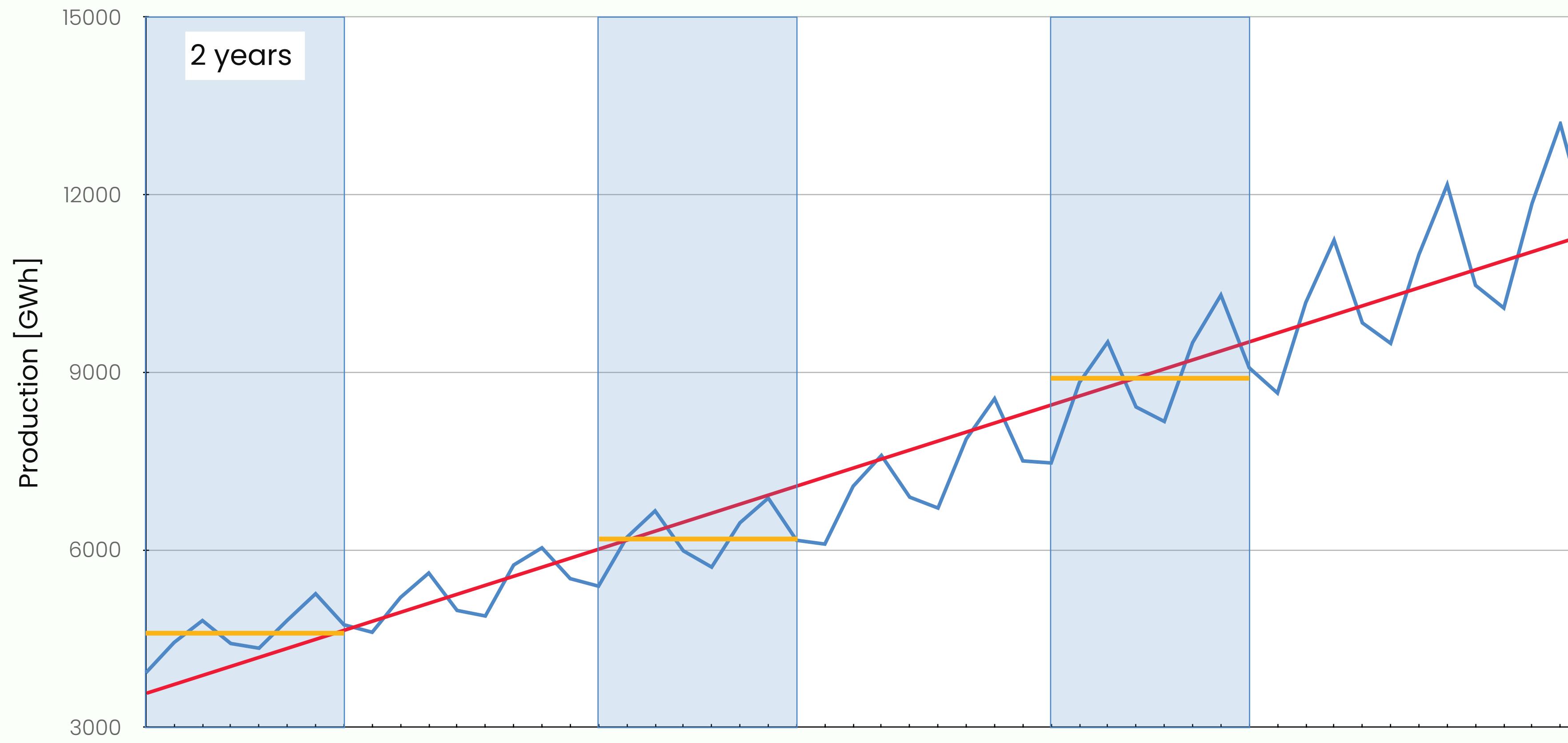


Stationary
Non-stationary
Mean (trend)
Variation
Seasonal

✗

METHOD 1: VISUAL INSPECTION

Quarterly electricity production, Australia



$$\mu_{t,1}(y_1, \dots, y_8) = 4591$$

$$\sigma_{t,1}^2 = 401$$

$$\mu_{t,2} = 6181$$

$$\sigma_{t,2}^2 = 490$$

$$\mu_{t,3} = 8910$$

$$\sigma_{t,3}^2 = 892$$

Stationary

Non-stationary

Mean (trend)



Variation

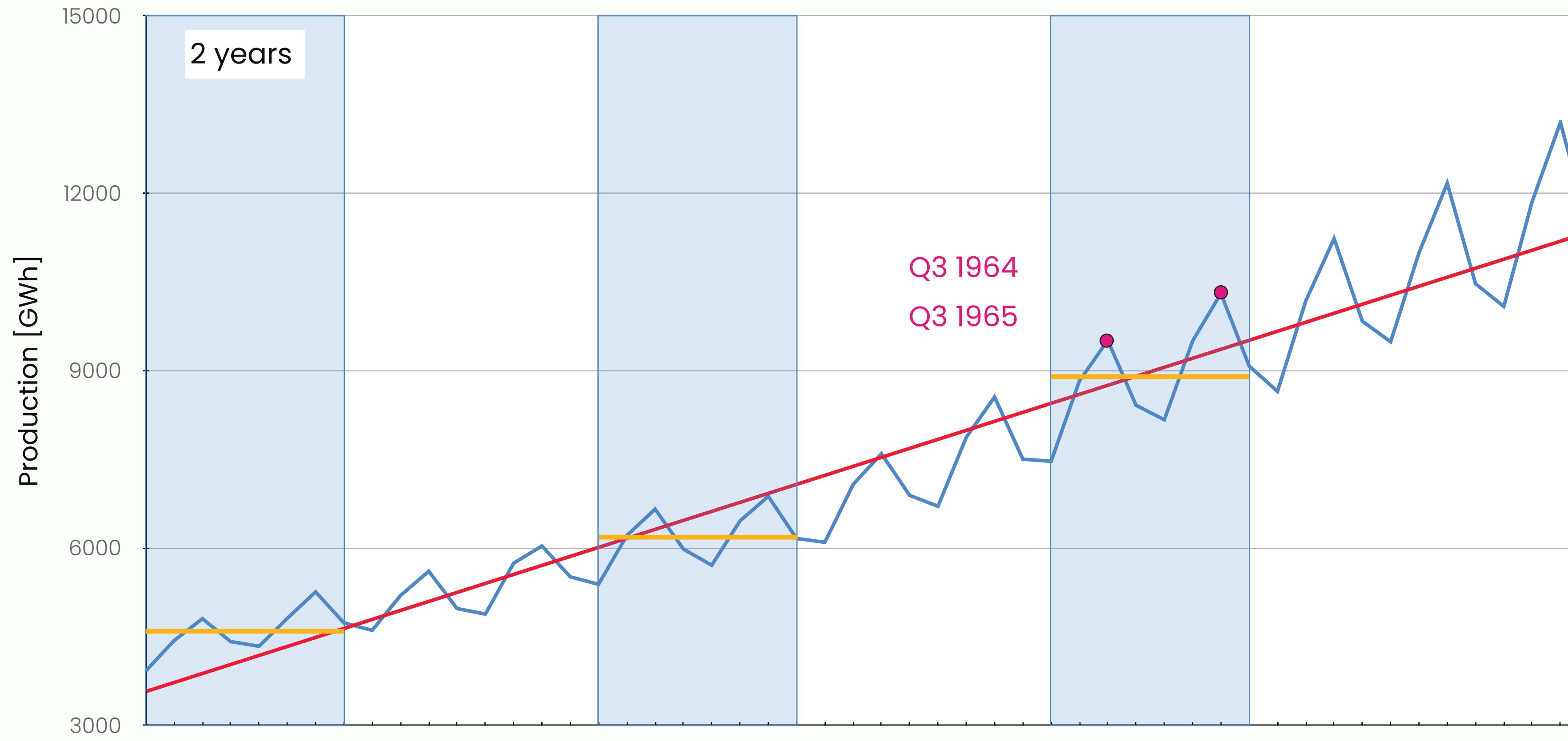


Seasonal



METHOD 1: VISUAL INSPECTION

Quarterly electricity production, Australia



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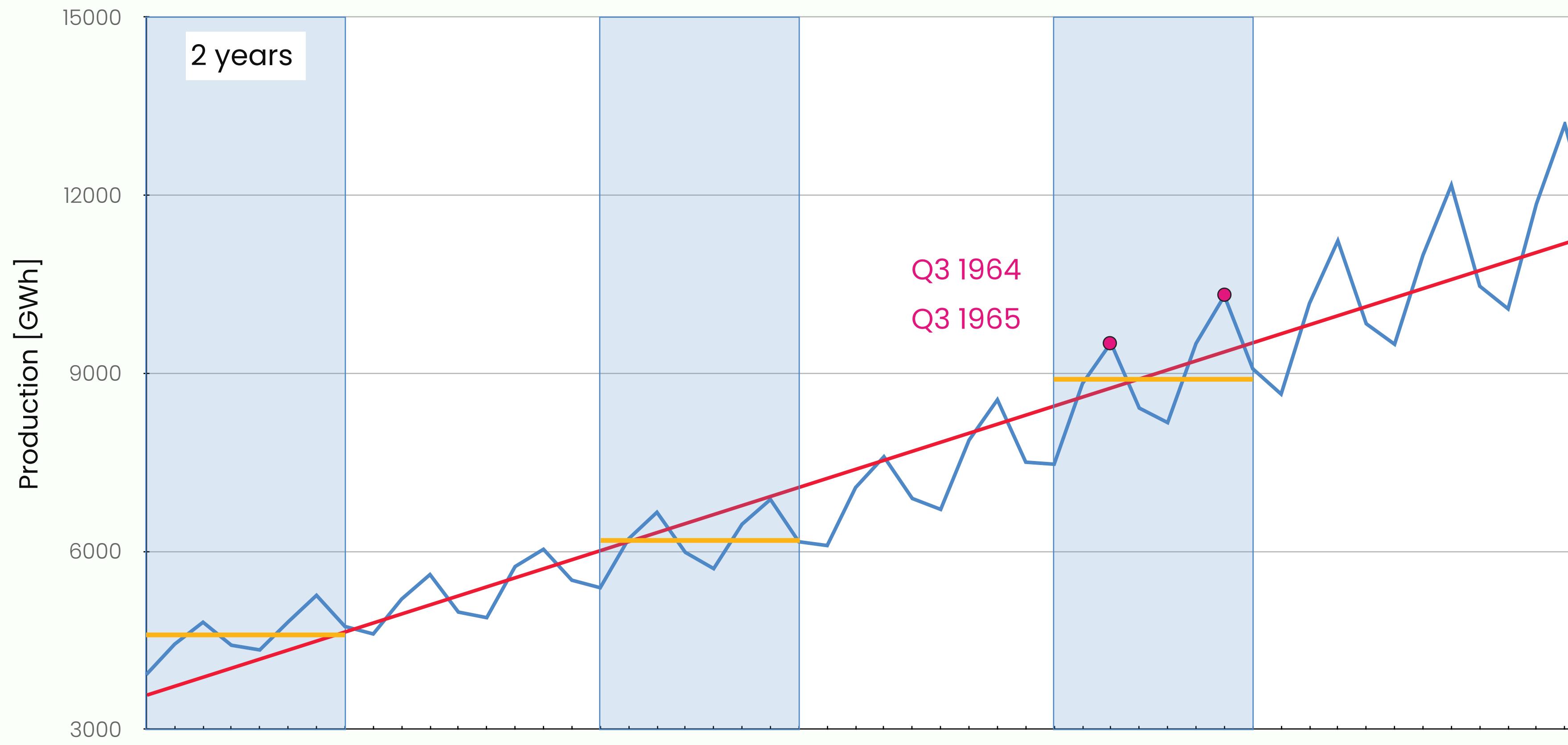
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- Stationary
- Non-stationary
- Mean (trend)
- Variation
- Seasonal



METHOD 1: VISUAL INSPECTION

Quarterly electricity production, Australia



Stationary

Non-stationary ✓

Mean (trend) ✗

Variation ✗

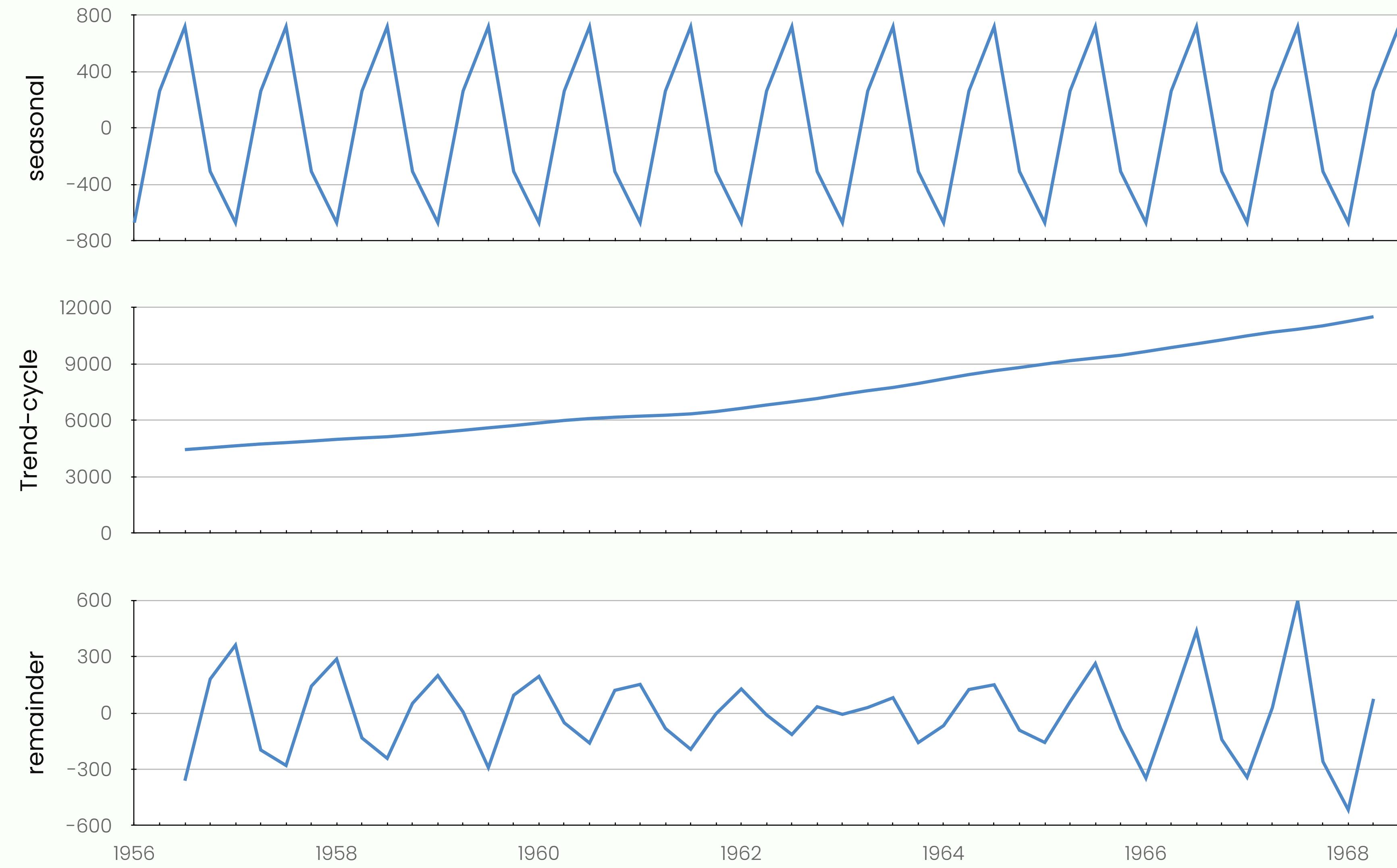
Seasonal ✗



METHOD 2: PARAMETRIC TESTS

- Dickey-Fuller test
- Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test
- Phillips-Perrone test
- Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) test

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METHOD 2: PARAMETRIC TESTS

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- Phillips–Perrone test
- Kwiatkowski–Phillips–Schmidt–Shin (KPSS) test

Original data

ADF Statistic: 2.233387

p-value: 0.998909

Critical Values:

1%: -3.578

5%: -2.925

10%: -2.601

Remainder (decomposed)

ADF Statistic: -11.701448

p-value: 0.0000

Critical Values:

1%: -3.585

5%: -2.928

10%: -2.602

ACF & PACF

AUTOCORRELATION FUNCTION (ACF)

ACF measures the self-similarity of the signal over different delay times (*lagged values*).

ACF: INTUITION

Forecast average monthly electricity price.

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y_t December

y_{t-1} November

y_{t-2} October

:

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y_{t-2}

y_{t-1}

y_t

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Forecast average monthly electricity price.

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y_{t-2}

y_{t-1}

y_t

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y_{t-2} October

:

$$\text{corr}(y_{t-2}, y_t)$$

ACF: INTUITION

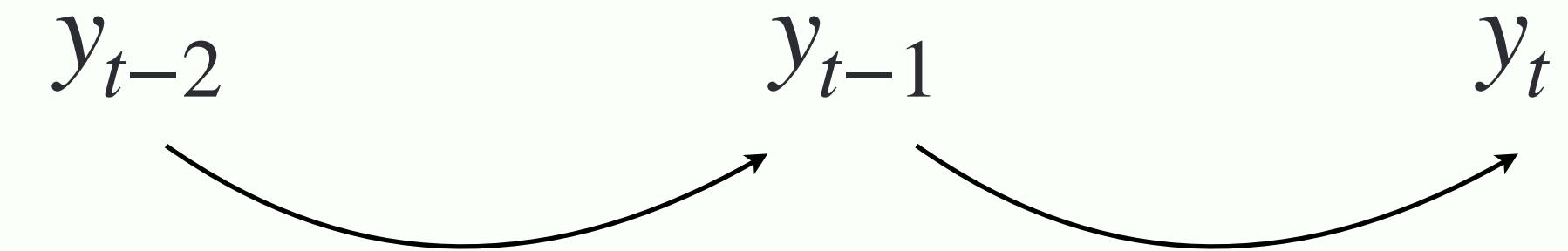
Forecast average monthly electricity price.

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y_{t-2} October

:



$$\text{corr}(y_{t-2}, y_t) \xrightarrow{\text{indirect}} y_{t-2} \rightarrow y_{t-1} \rightarrow y_t$$

ACF: INTUITION

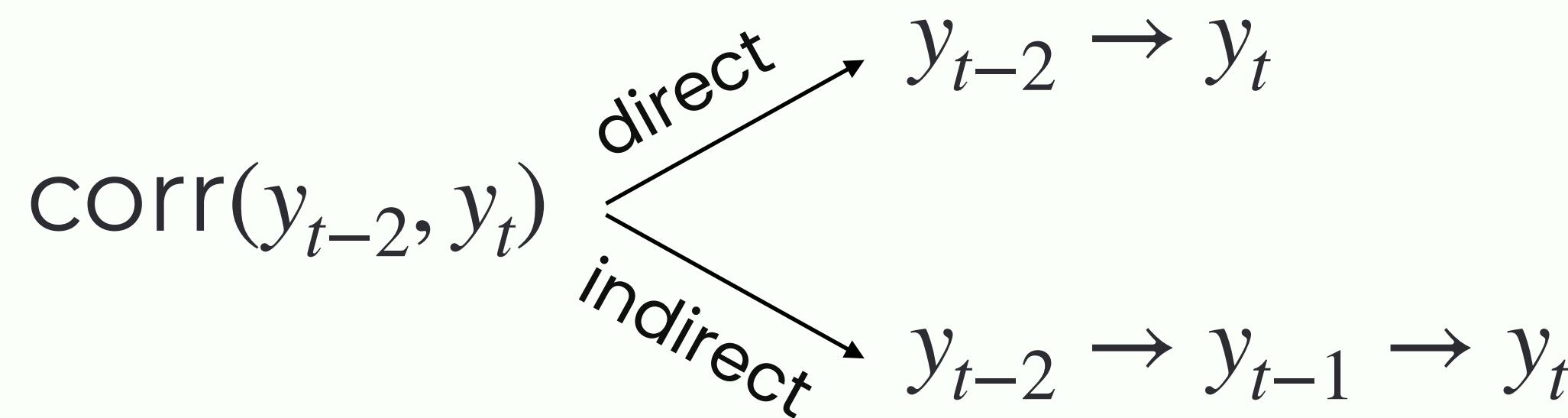
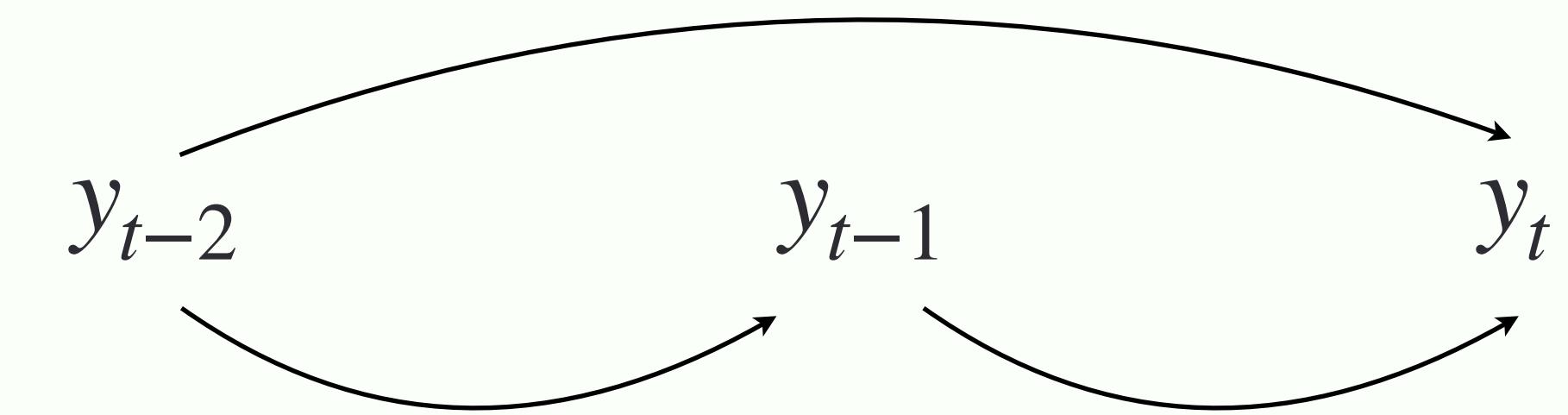
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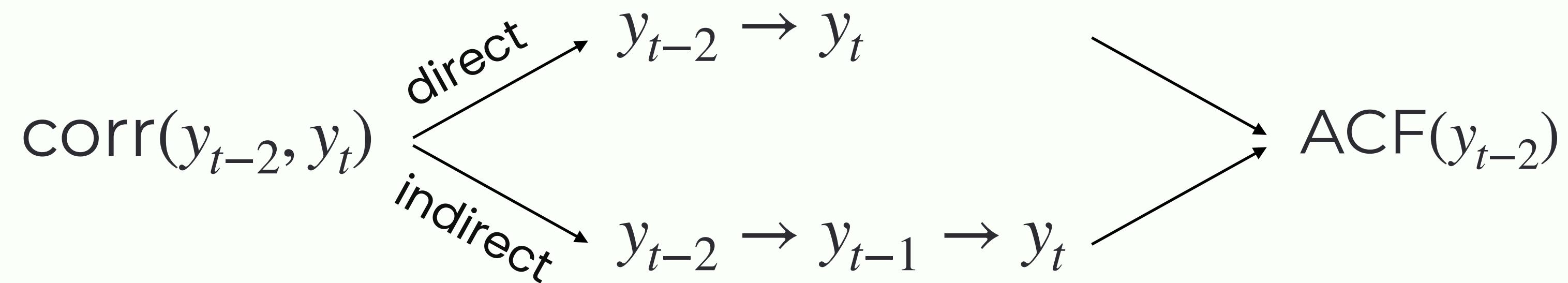
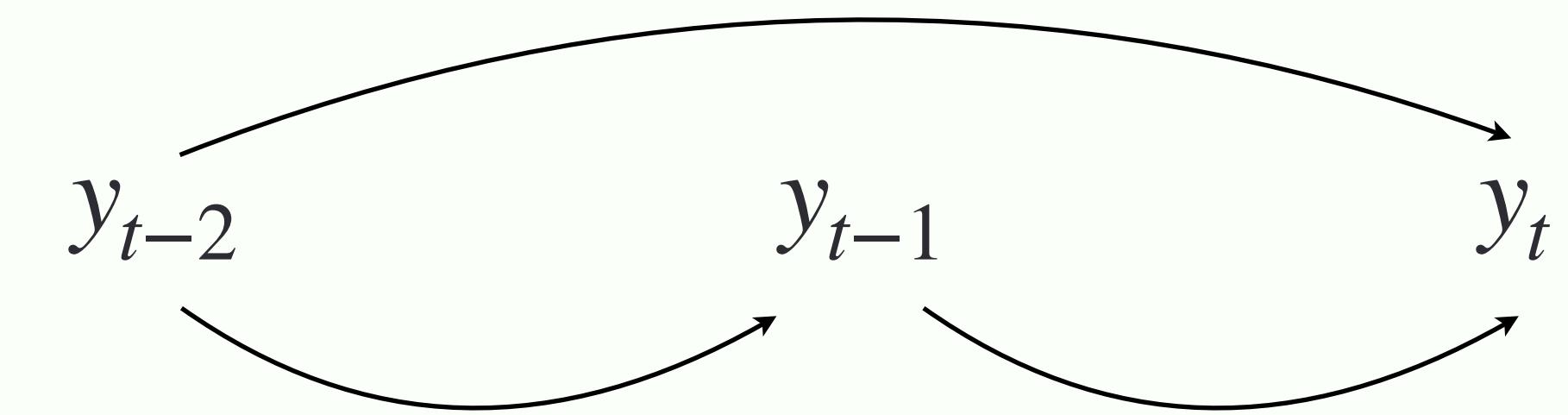
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MATHEMATICALLY SPEAKING

Let r_i denote the autocorrelation coefficient.

The value of r_i can be calculated as:

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

where T is the length of the time series, and \bar{y} is the average of a time series signal.

AUTOCORRELATION PLOT

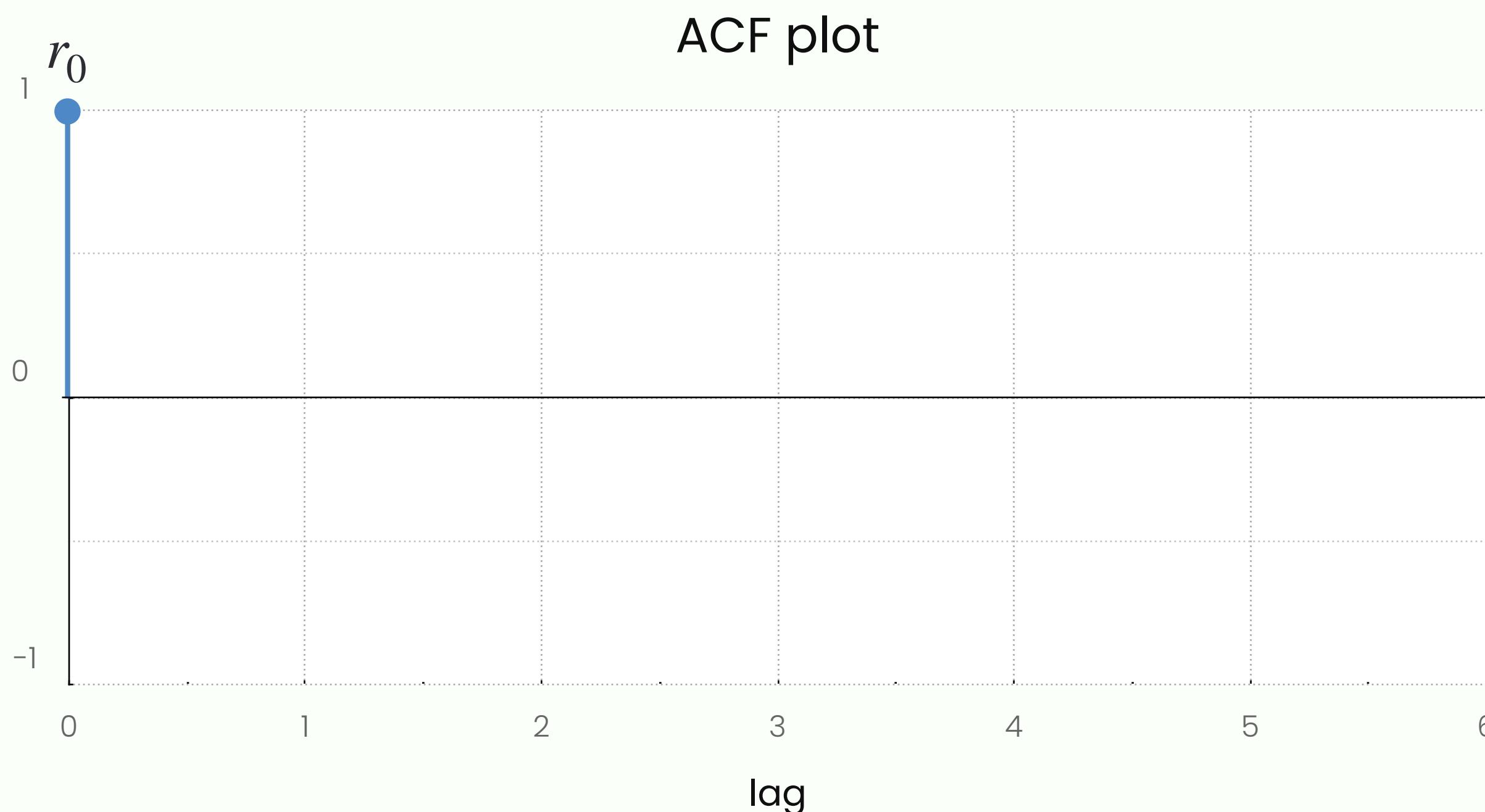
Autocorrelation coefficient r_i measures the relationship between y_t and y_{t-i} .

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For example,

- r_0 measures the relationship between y_t and itself;

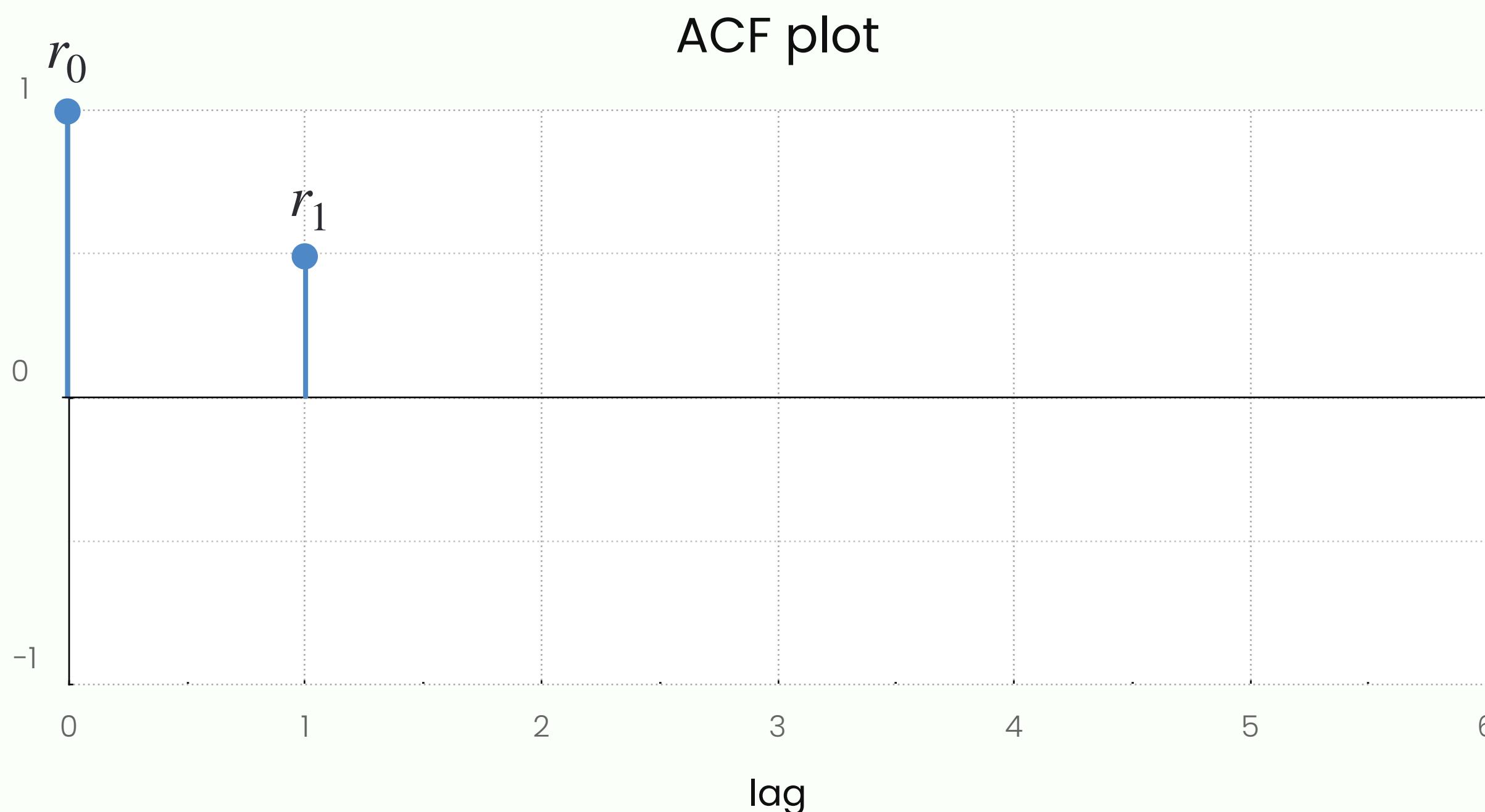


AUTOCORRELATION PLOT

Autocorrelation coefficient r_i measures the relationship between y_t and y_{t-i} .

For example,

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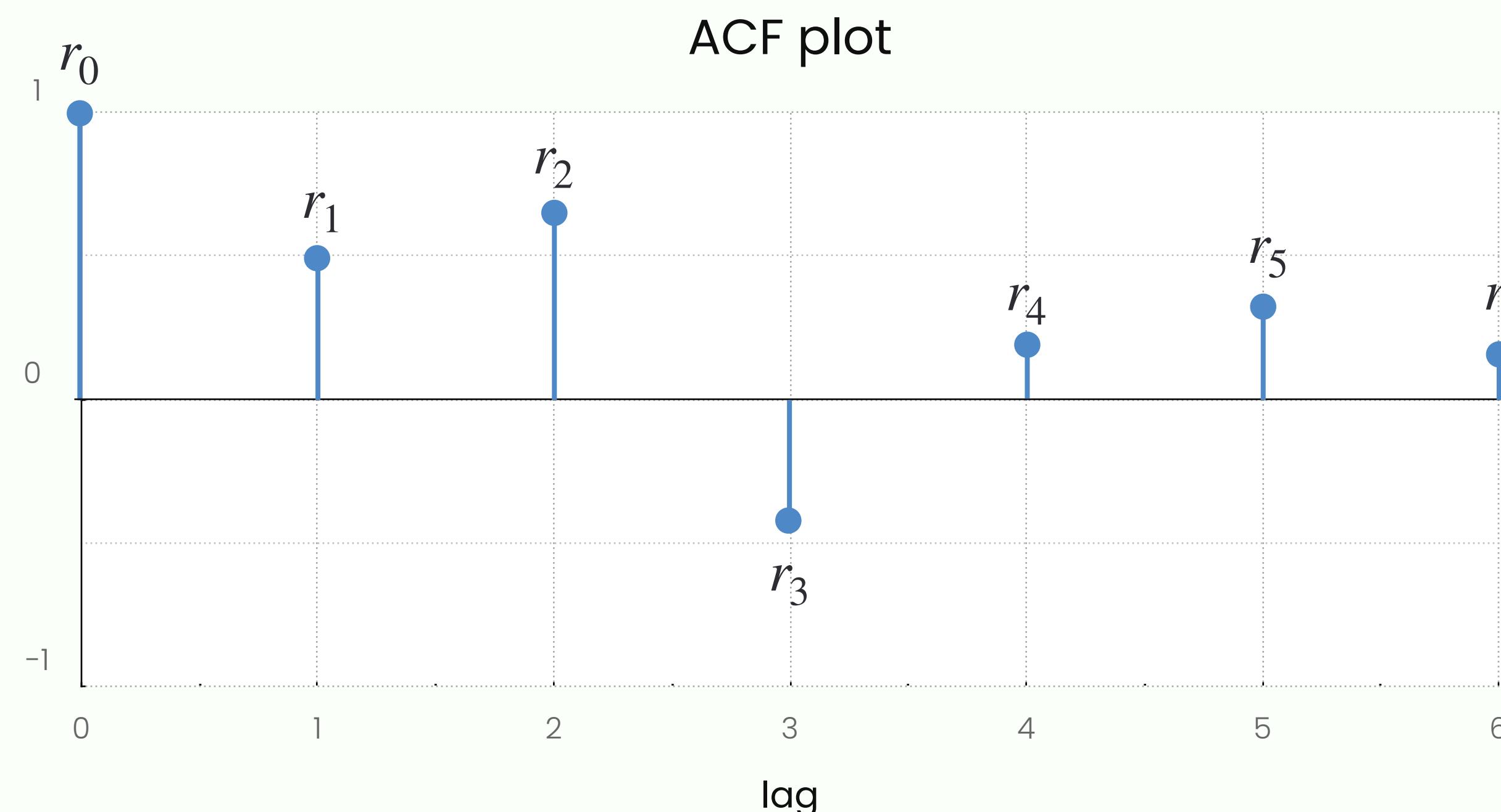


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Autocorrelation coefficient r_i measures the relationship between y_t and y_{t-i} .

For example,

- r_0 measures the relationship between y_t and itself;
- r_1 between y_t and y_{t-1} ;
- r_2 between y_t and y_{t-2} ;
- ...

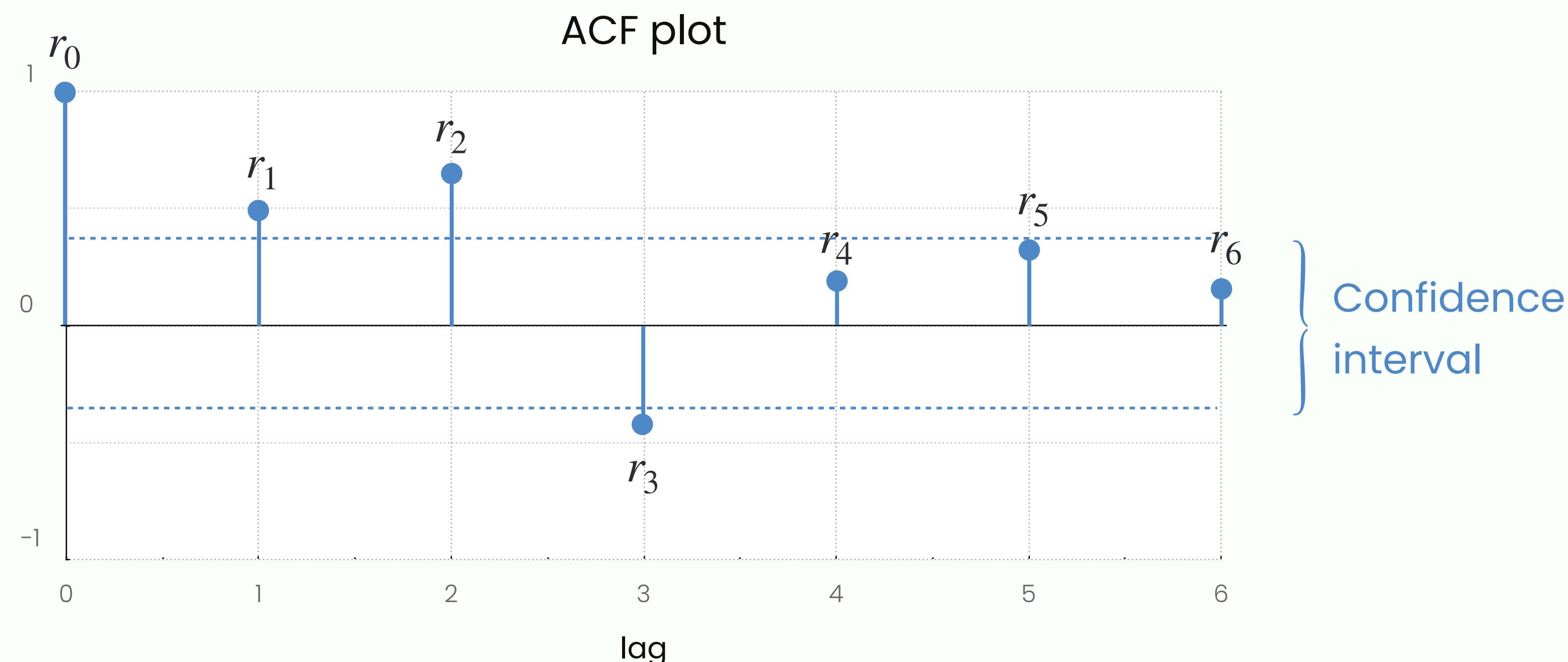


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- r_2 between y_t and y_{t-2} ;
- ...



INTERPRETATION

Positive ACF at lag i indicates a positive correlation between the current observation (y_t) and the observation at lag i (y_{t-i}).

Negative ACF at lag i indicates a negative correlation between the current observation (y_t) and the observation at lag i (y_{t-i}).

Decay in ACF as lag increases often signifies the presence of a trend or seasonality in the time series.

Significant ACF values at certain lags may suggest potential patterns or relationships in the time series.

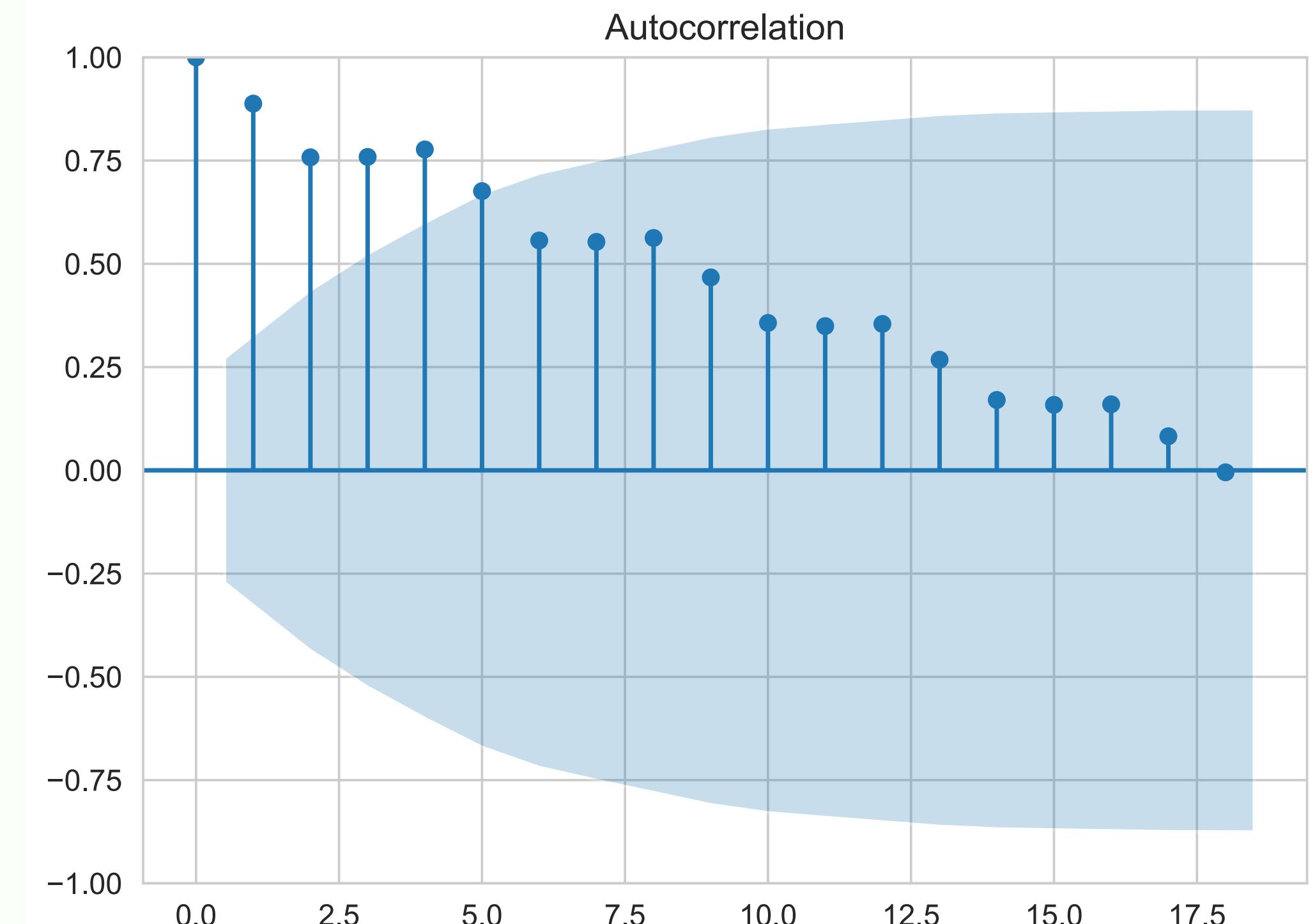
ACF: EXAMPLE

Recall original Australian quarterly electricity production data.

Lag (1Q)	0	1	2	3	4	5
AC coef (r_i)	1	0.8879	0.7579	0.7588	0.777	0.676

When data have a trend, the autocorrelations for small lags tend to be large and positive because observations nearby in time are also nearby in value.

That's why ACF for the non-stationary data does not make sense.



ACF: DATA TRANSFORMATION

Seasonal difference (m is the number of seasons):

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

Difference:

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

ACF: DATA TRANSFORMATION

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Difference:

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

The final transformation (for $m = 4$) is then given as:

$$\begin{aligned}(1 - B)(1 - B^4)y_t &= (1 - B - B^4 + B^5)y_t \\ &= y_t - y_{t-1} - y_{t-4} + y_{t-5}\end{aligned}$$

ACF: DATA TRANSFORMATION (2)

When both seasonal and first differences are applied:

- ▶ Order does not matter—result will be the same.
- ▶ Try seasonal first as there might no need for further first difference.

ACF: DATA TRANSFORMATION (2)

When both seasonal and first differences are applied:

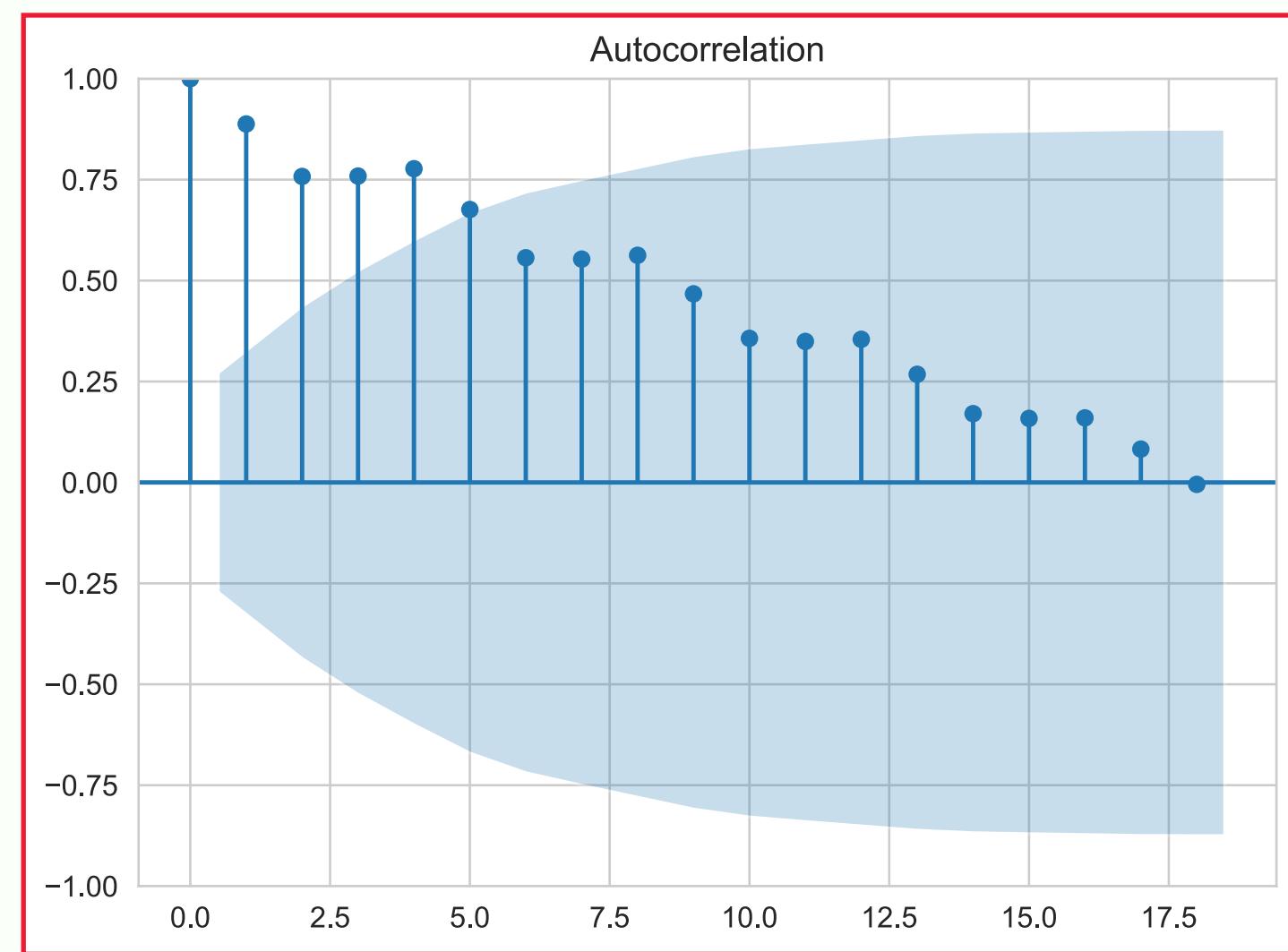
- ▶ Order does not matter—result will be the same.
- ▶ Try seasonal first as there might no need for further first difference.

NB! Differences must be interpretable.

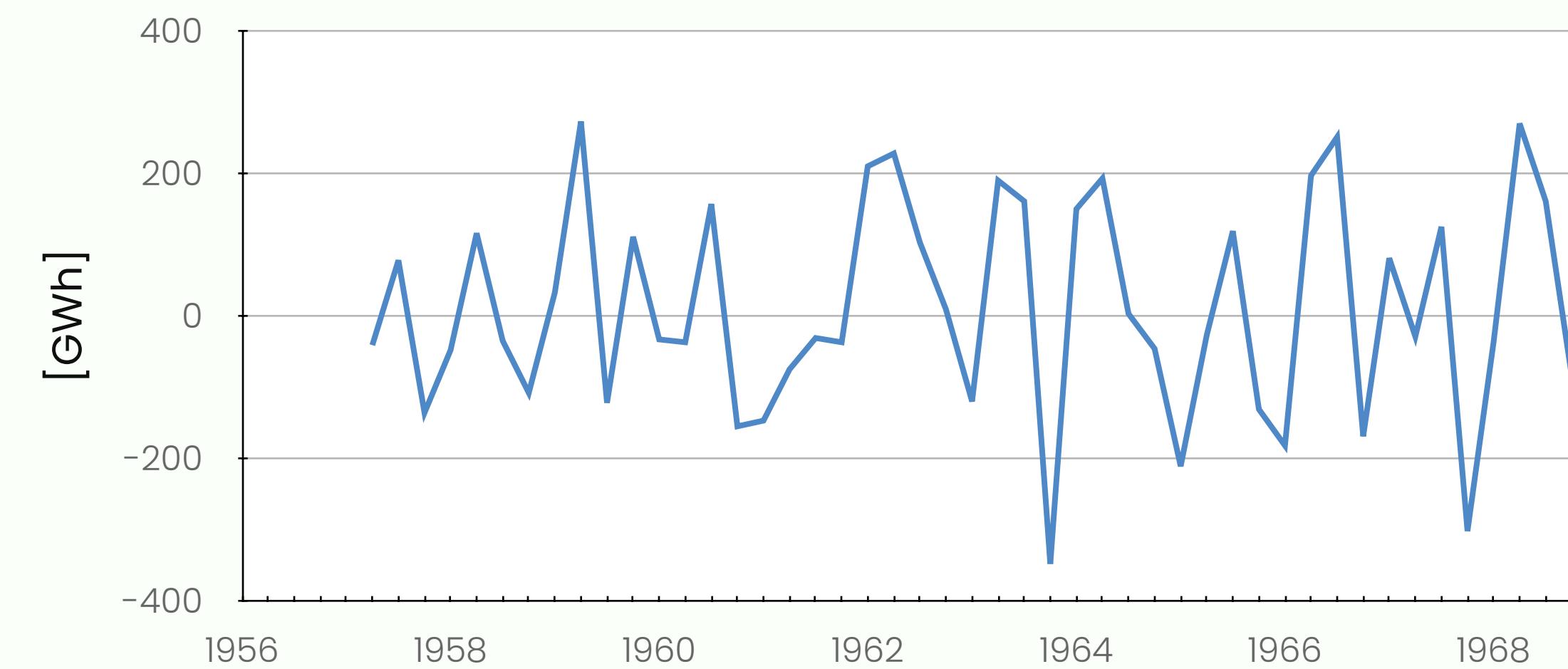
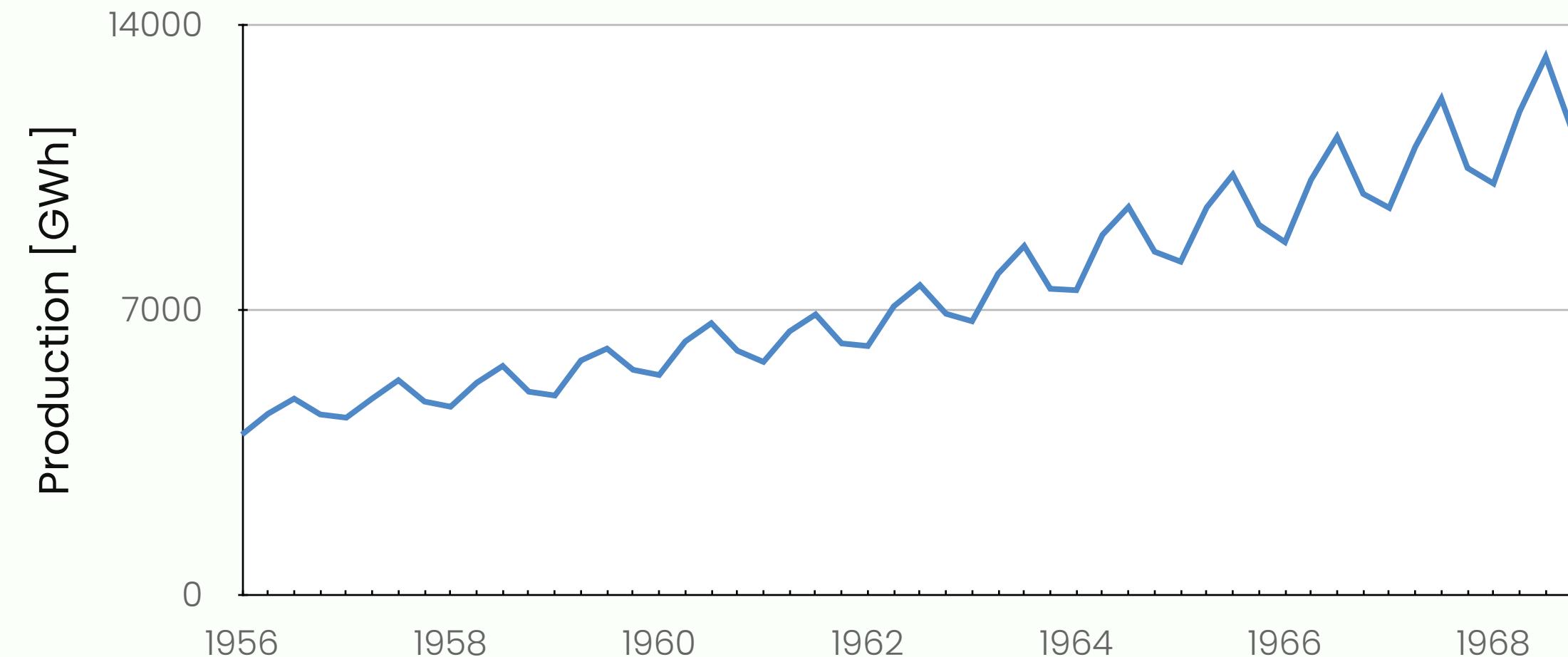
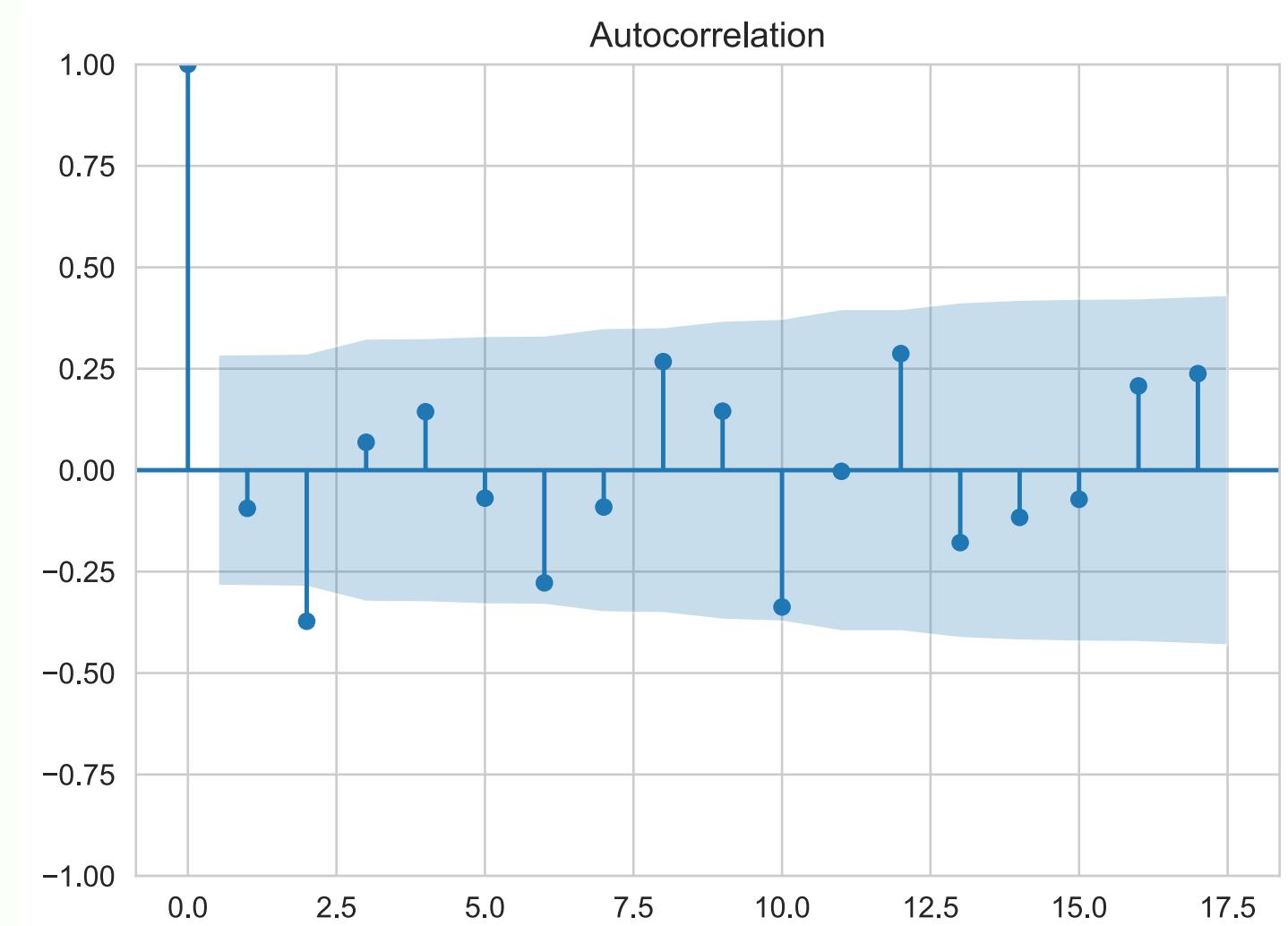
- ✓ First differences are the change between close observations.
- ✓ Seasonal differences are the change between corresponding observations.
- ✓ But, for example, $(1 - B^3)$ difference (lag3) for quarterly data is not interpretable.

ACF: EXAMPLE

ORIGINAL



TRANSFORMED
SEAS + 1st DIFF



PARTIAL ACF (PACF)

Partial ACF measures the correlation between a variable and its lagged values, excluding the linear influence of the intermediate lags.

PACF: INTUITION

Forecast average monthly electricity price.

y_t December

y_{t-1} November

y_{t-2} October

:

y_{t-2}

y_{t-1}

y_t

PACF: INTUITION

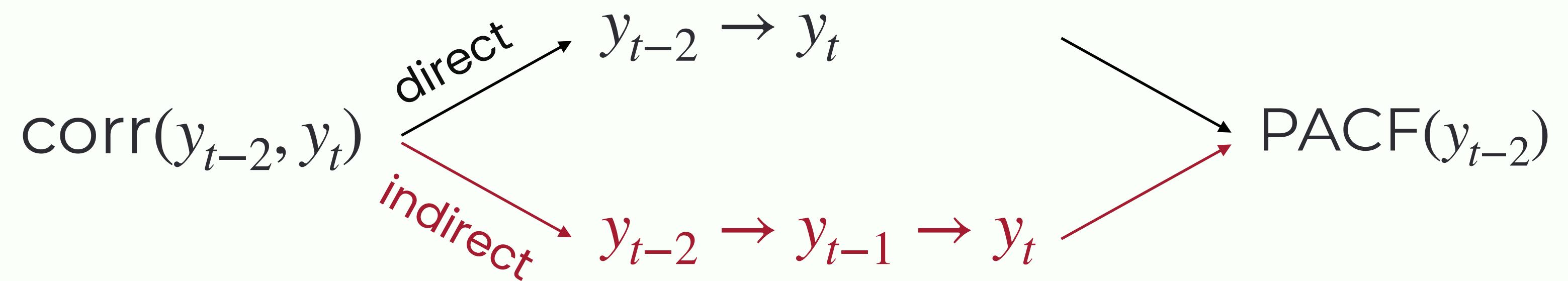
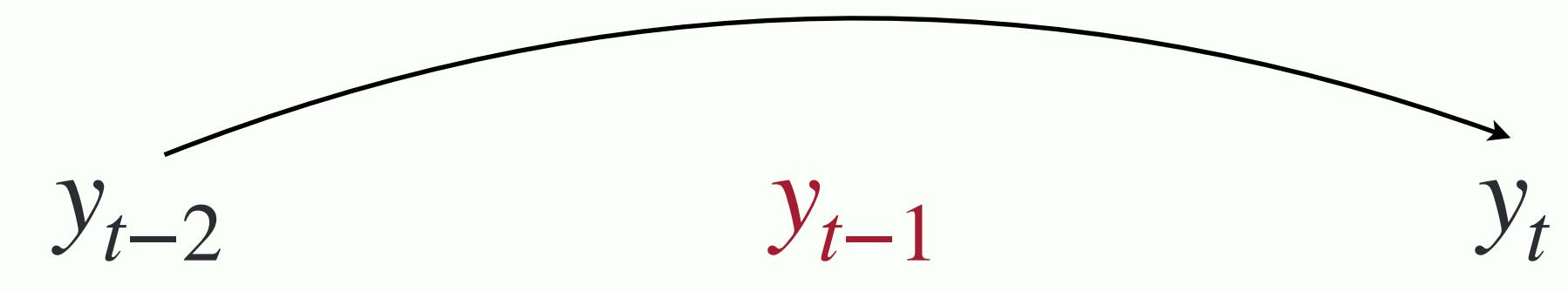
Forecast average monthly electricity price.

y_t December

y_{t-1} November

y_{t-2} October

:



PACF: INTUITION

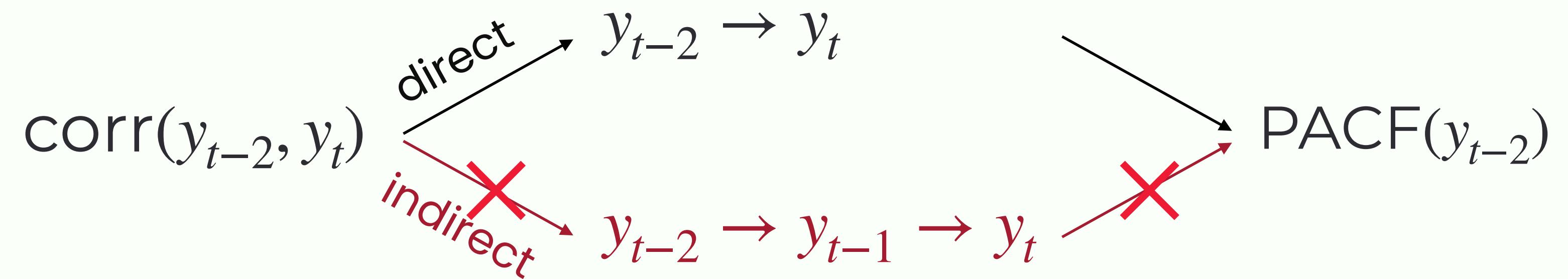
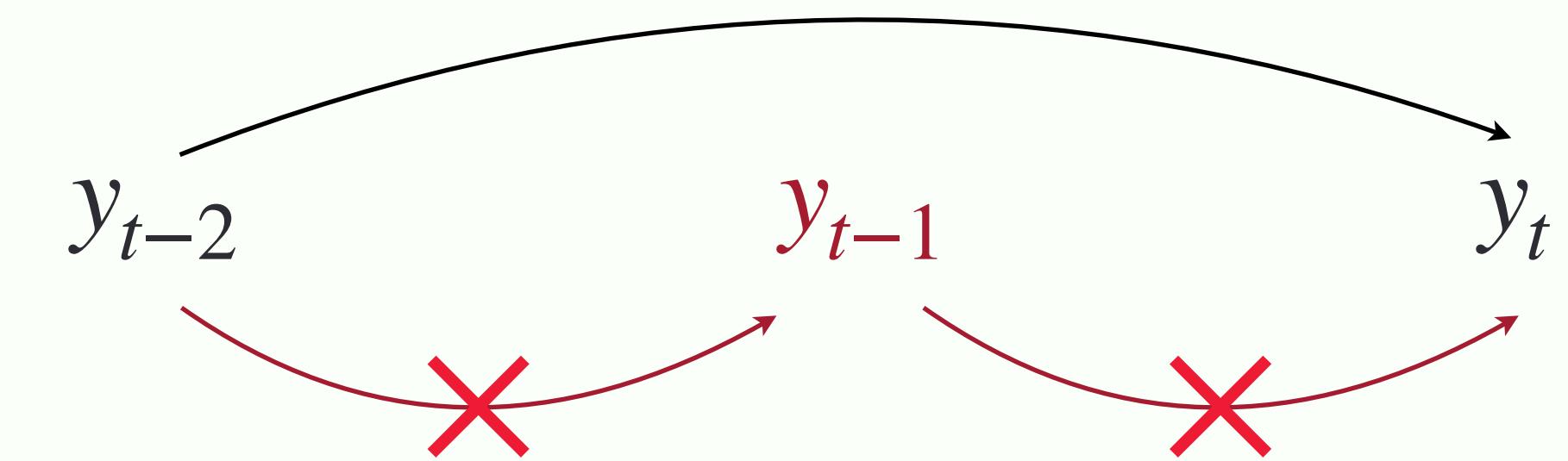
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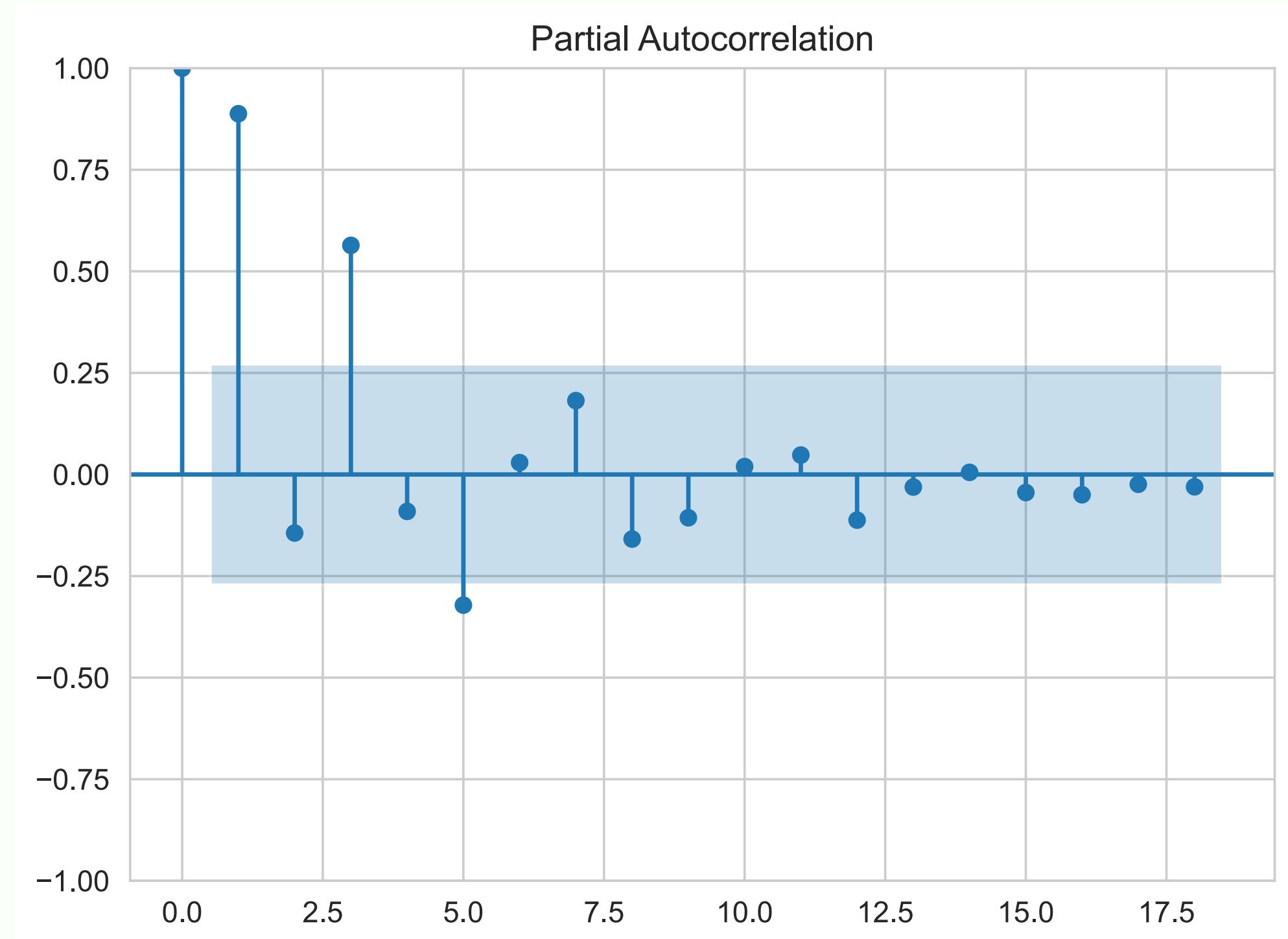
y_{t-2} October

:

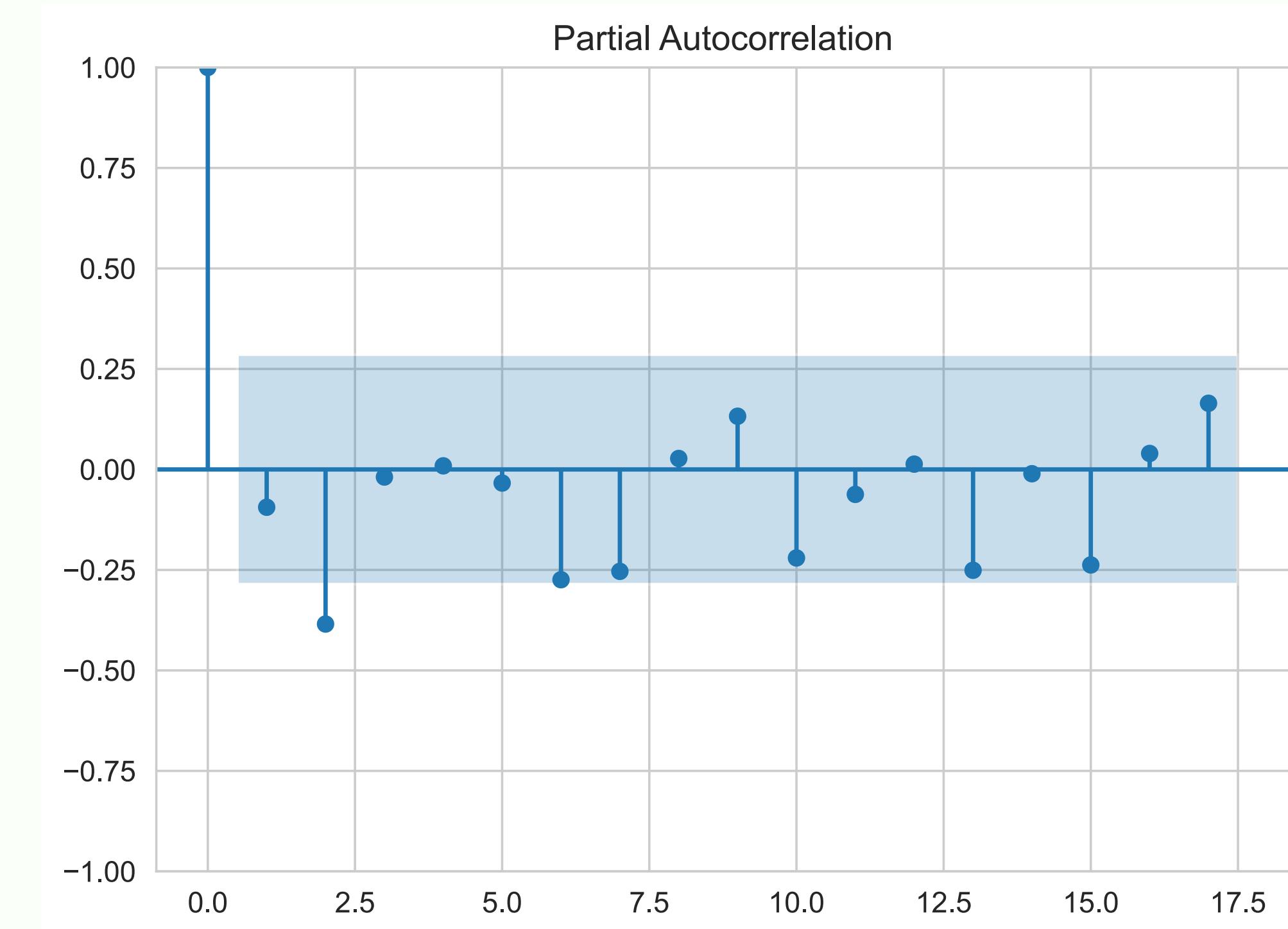


EXAMPLE

ORIGINAL



TRANSFORMED
SEAS + 1st DIFF



ACF VS PACF

Autocorrelation (ACF) and Partial Autocorrelation (PACF) are both measures used in time series analysis to understand the relationships between observations at different time points.

ACF	PACF
Shows order of a moving average (MA) process	Shows order of an autoregressive (AR) process
Represents the overall correlation structure of the time series	Highlights the direct relationships between observations at specific lags
Measures the linear relationship between an observation and its previous observations at different lags	Measures the direct linear relationship between an observation and its previous observations at a specific lag, excluding the contributions from intermediate lags

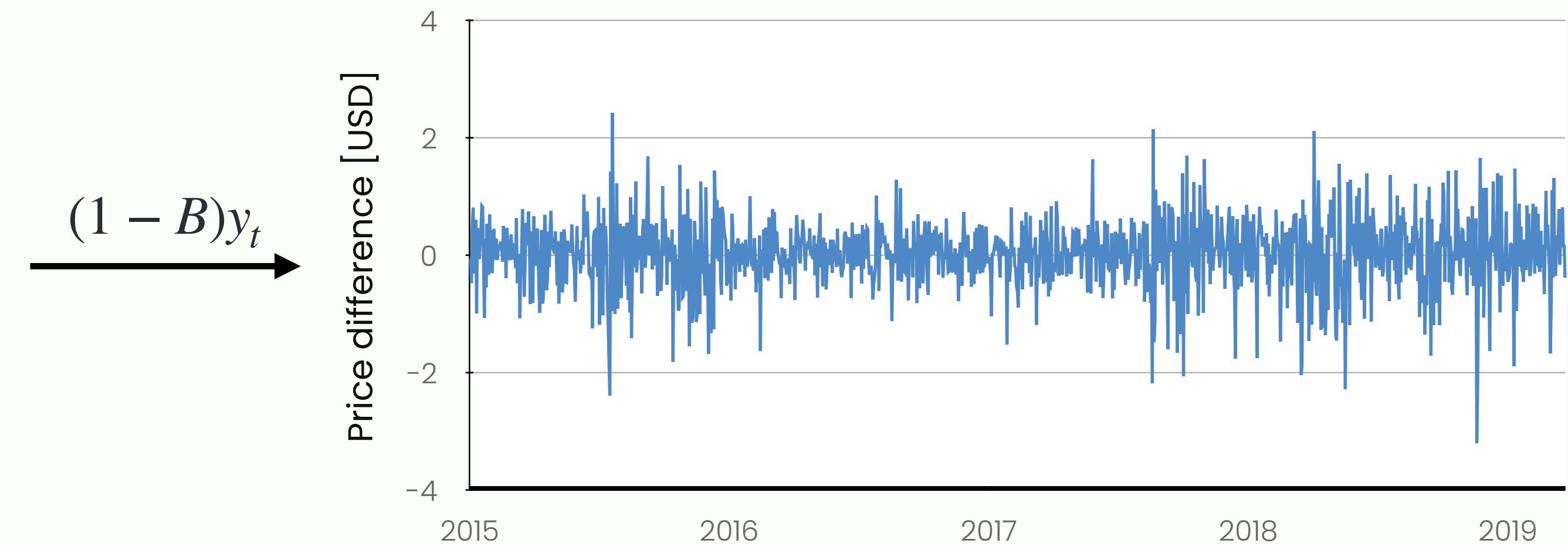
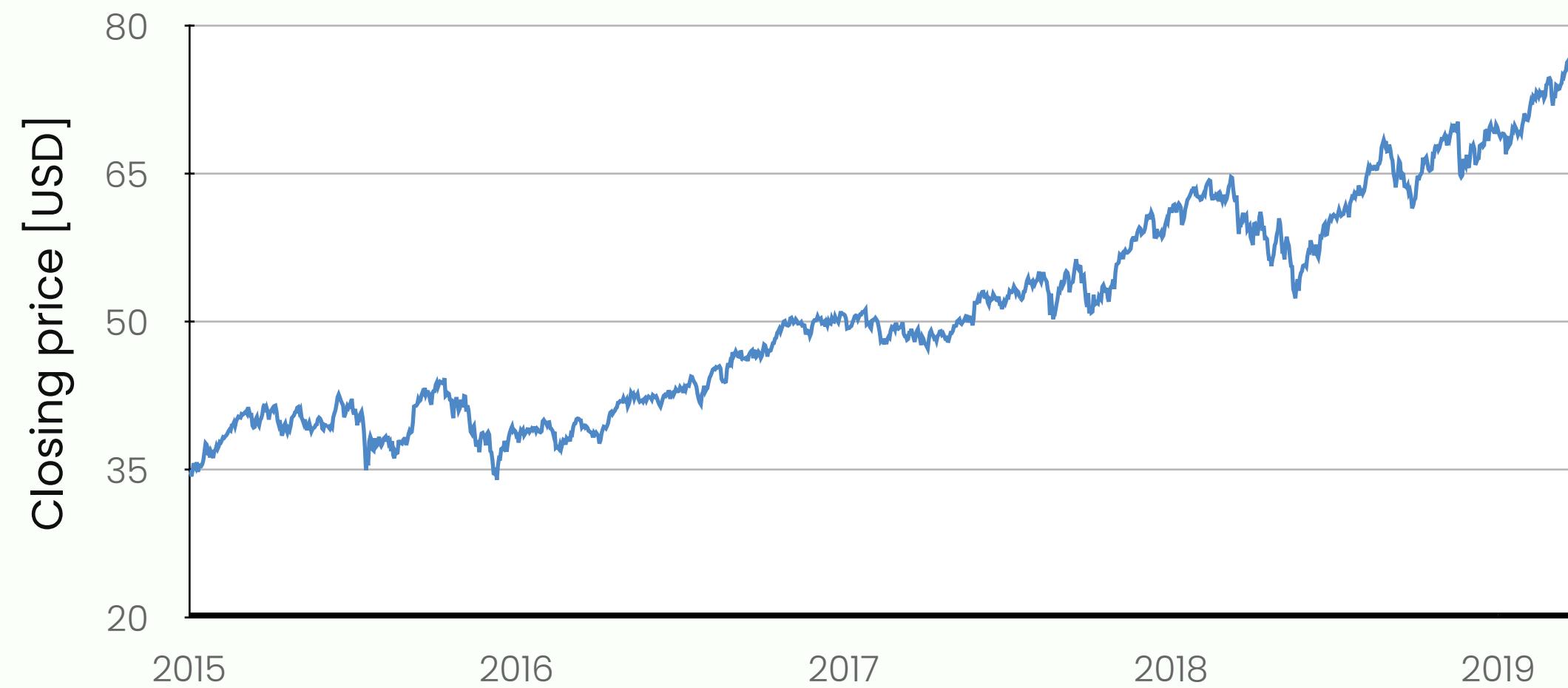
ACF & PACF AT STOCK MARKET

iShares NASDAQ-100 UCITS ETF (DE) (EXXT.DE)



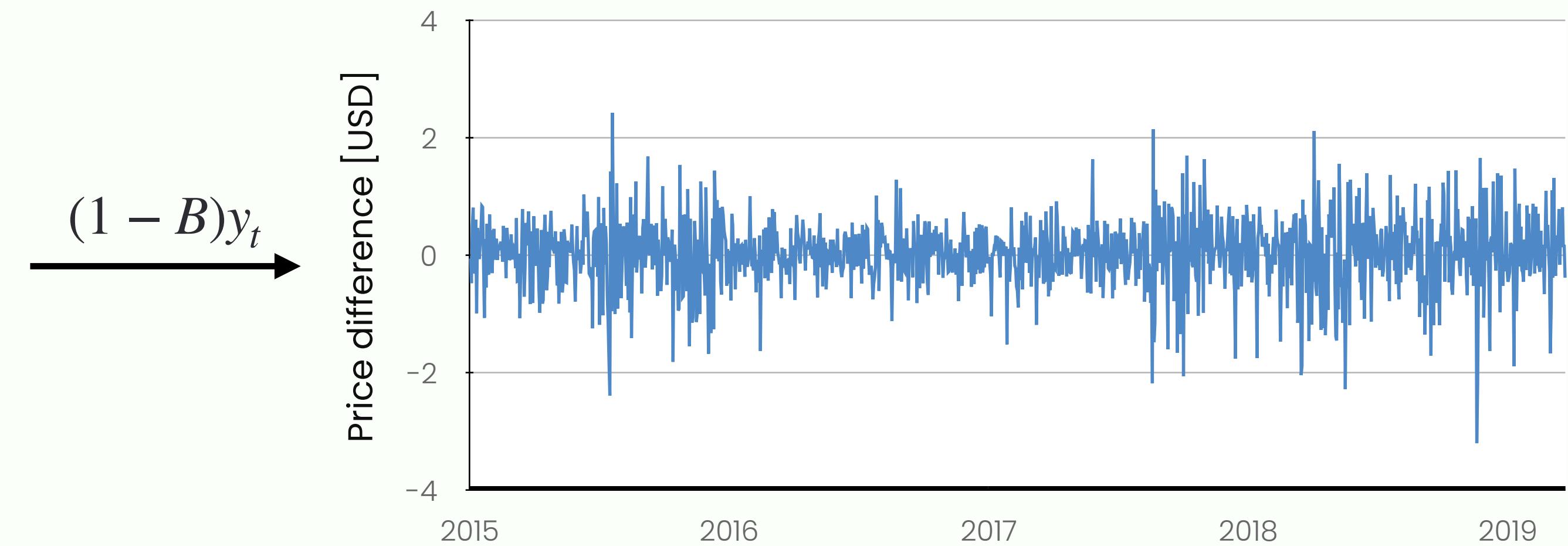
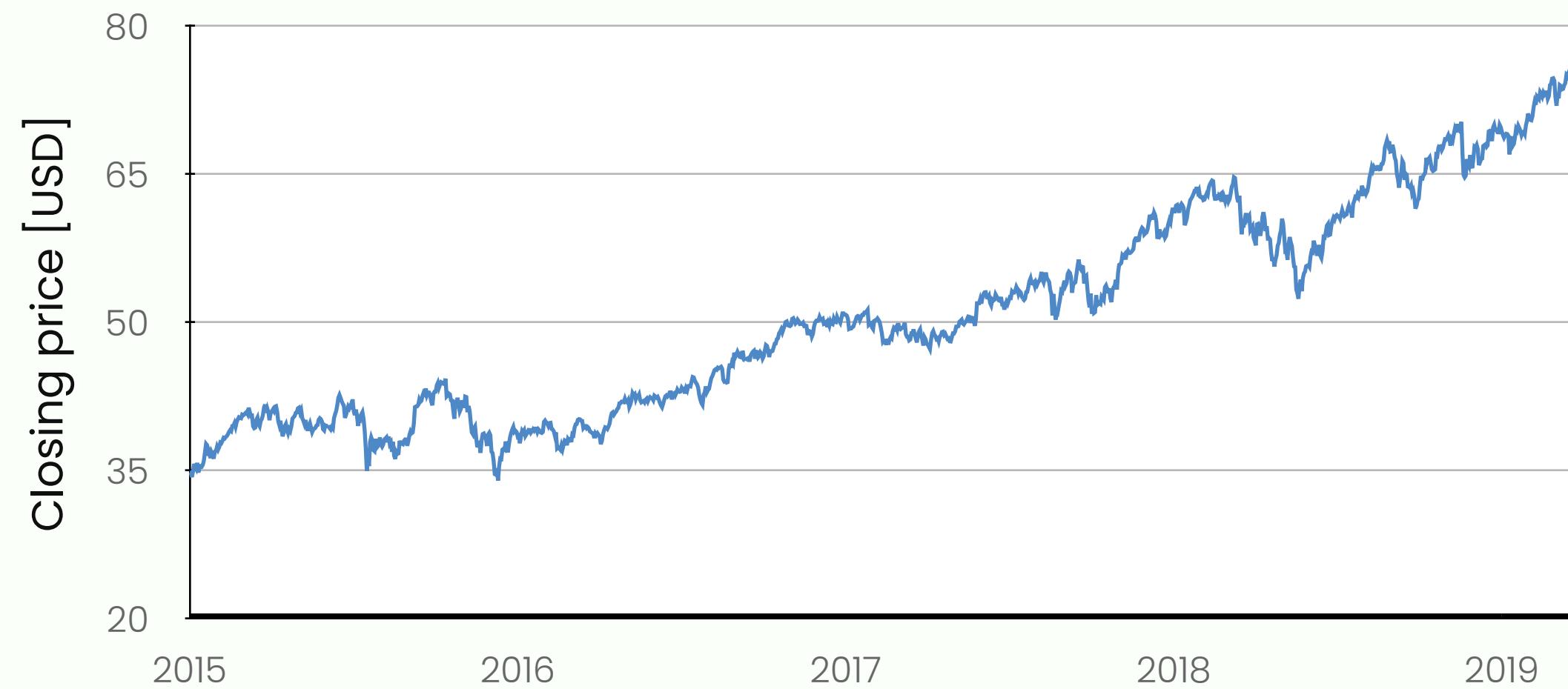
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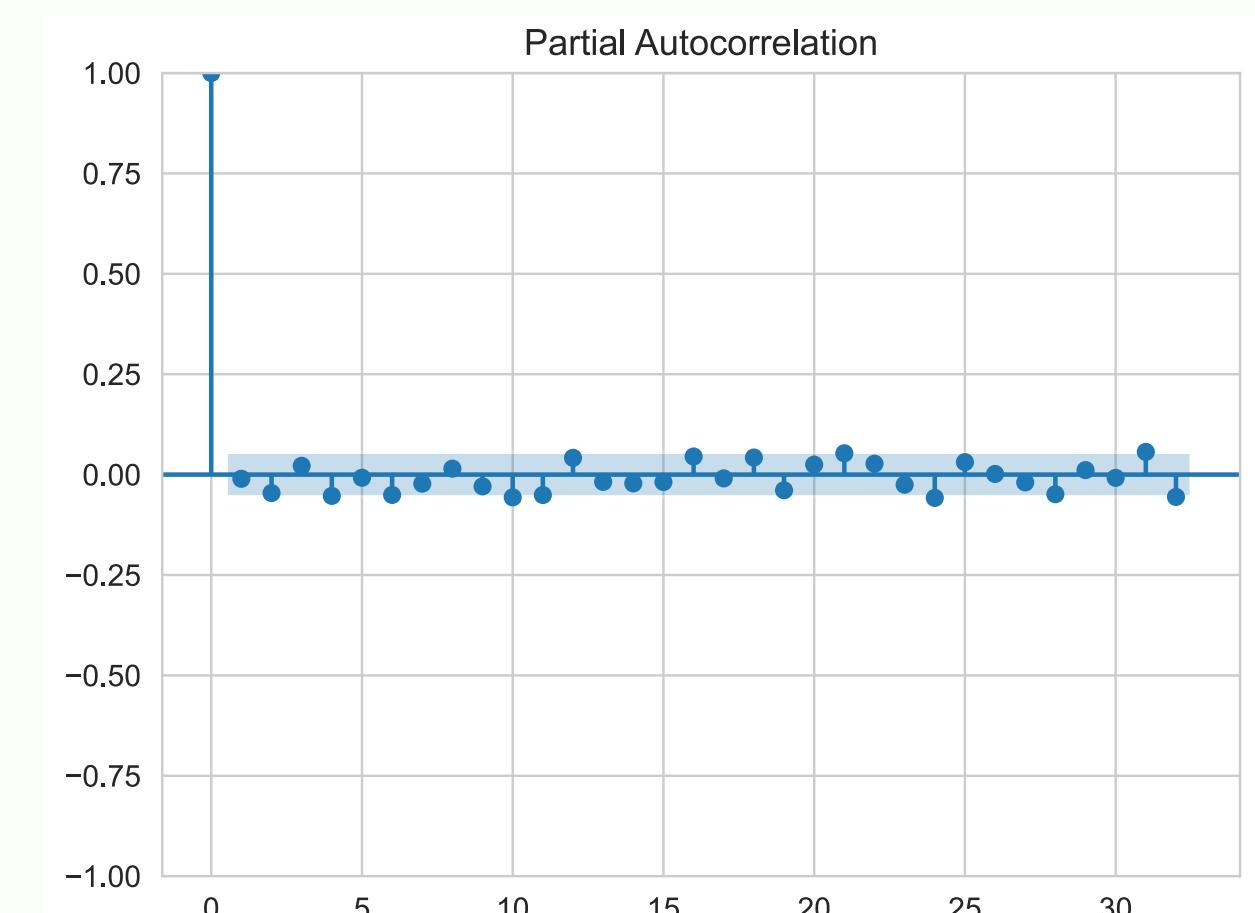
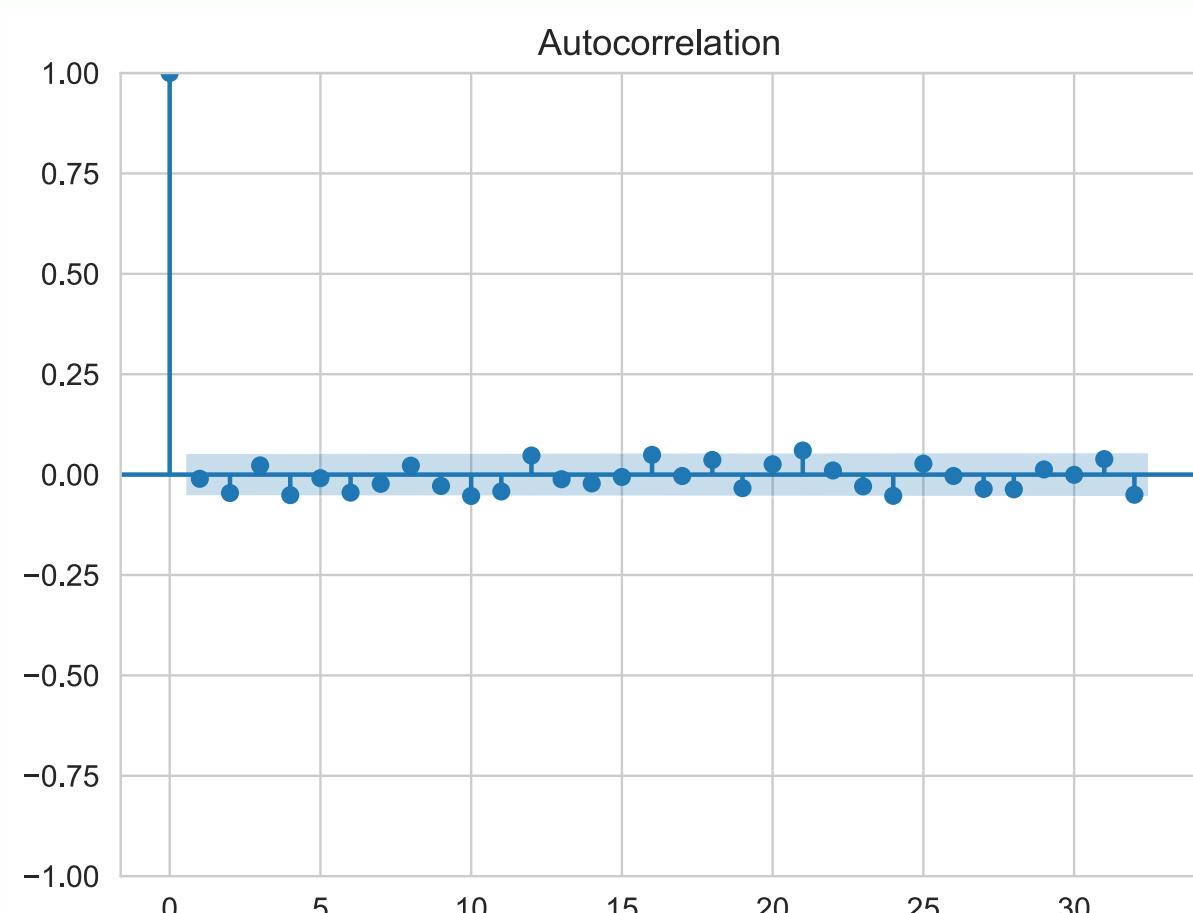


ACF & PACF AT STOCK MARKET

iShares NASDAQ-100 UCITS ETF (DE) (EXXT.DE)



No significant lags in
both ACF and PACF



MODELLING METHODS

TRADITIONAL (STATISTICAL)

- Simple methods
- Regression methods
- ARMA family methods
- Exponential smoothing
- Kalman filter

MACHINE LEARNING

- Artificial neural networks
- Support vector machines
- Fuzzy logic
- Decision tree
- Genetic algorithm
- Knowledge-based expert systems
- LSTM

Autoregressive Models

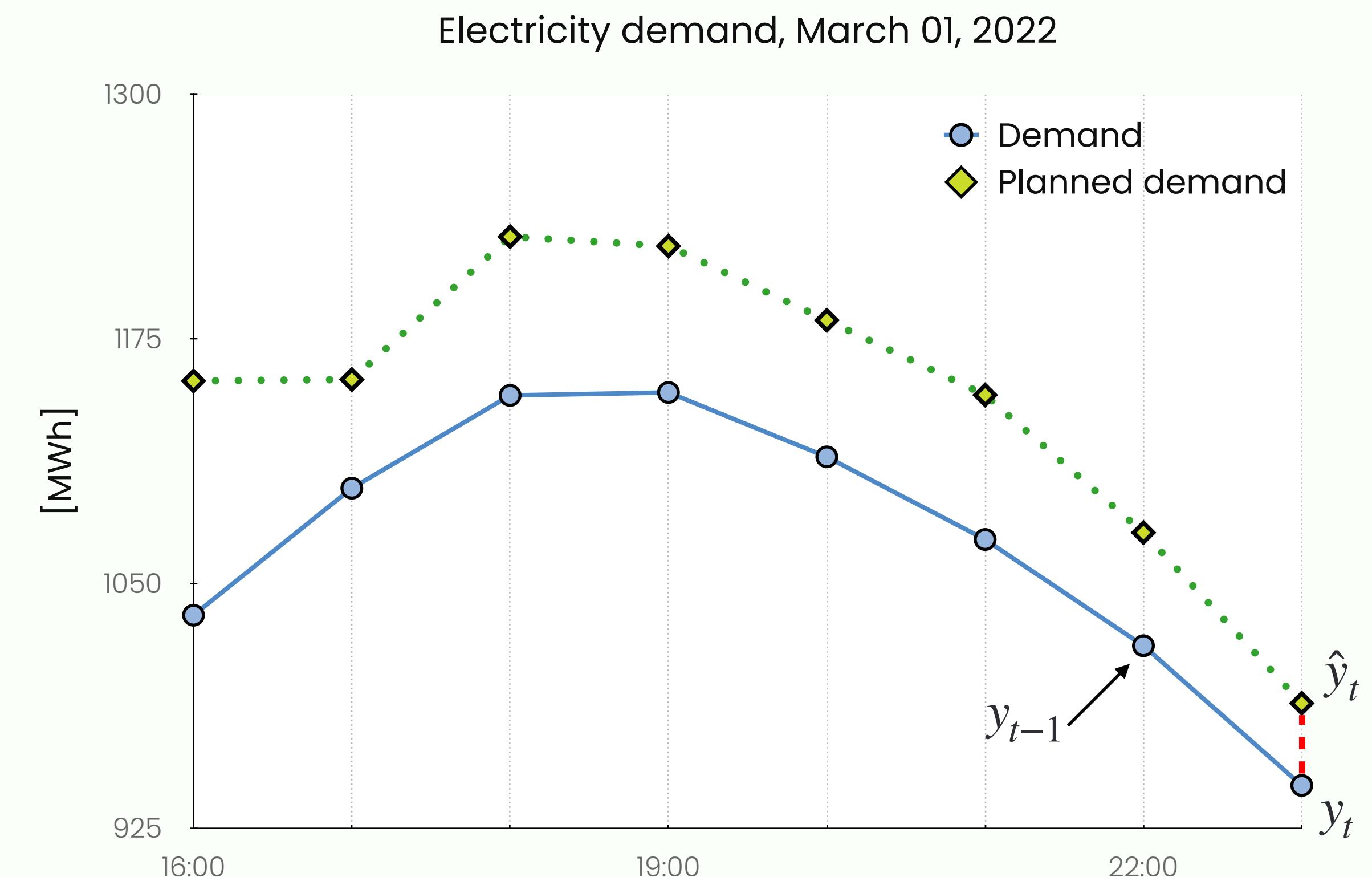
AUTOREGRESSION

The term *autoregression* indicates that it is a regression of the variable against itself (*past values of the same variable*).

AR(1) MODEL

For example, autoregressive model of order 1 (or AR(1)) can be written as

$$y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t.$$

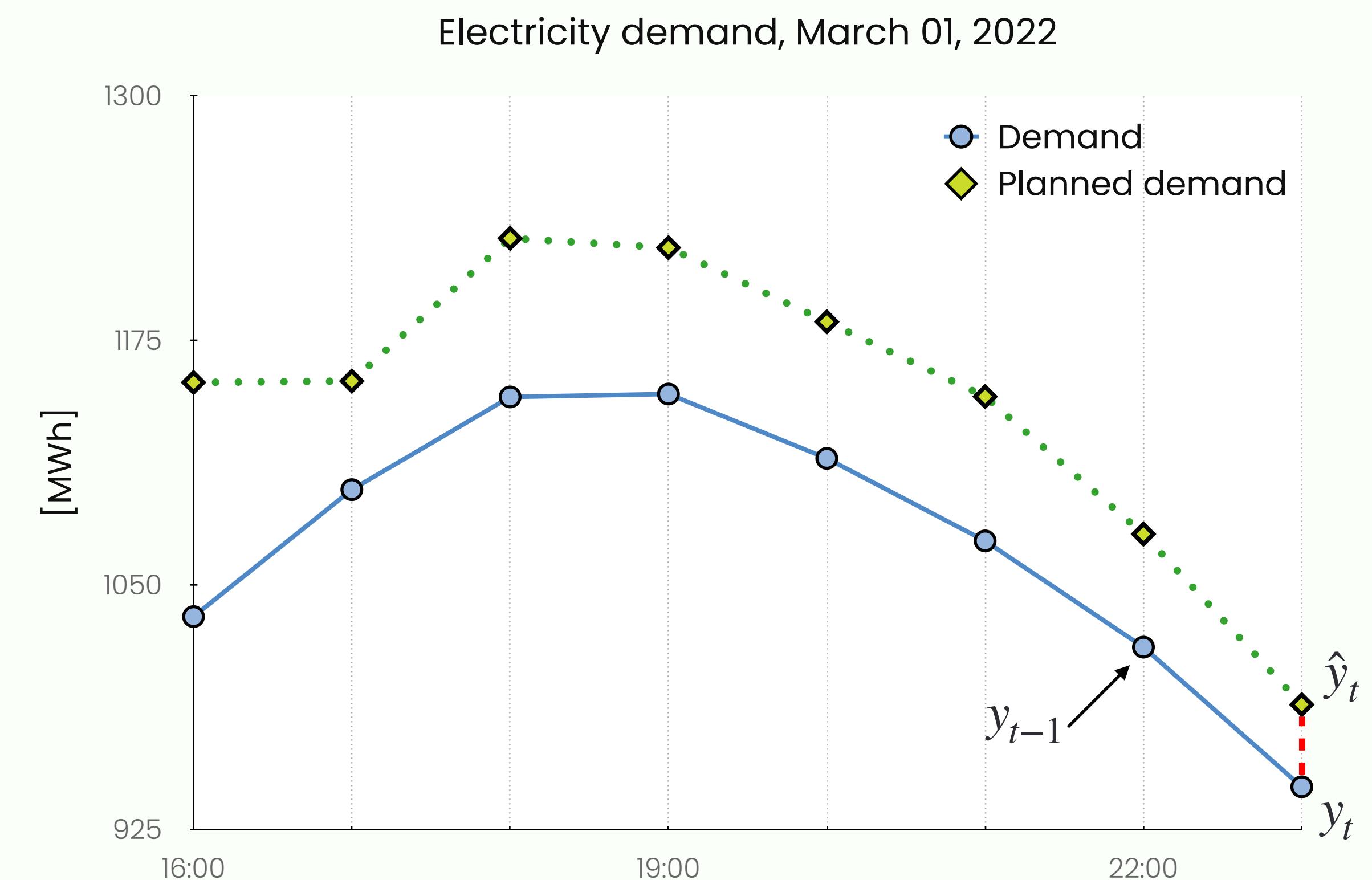


AR(1) MODEL

For example, autoregressive model of order 1 (or AR(1)) can be written as

$$y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

↑
target



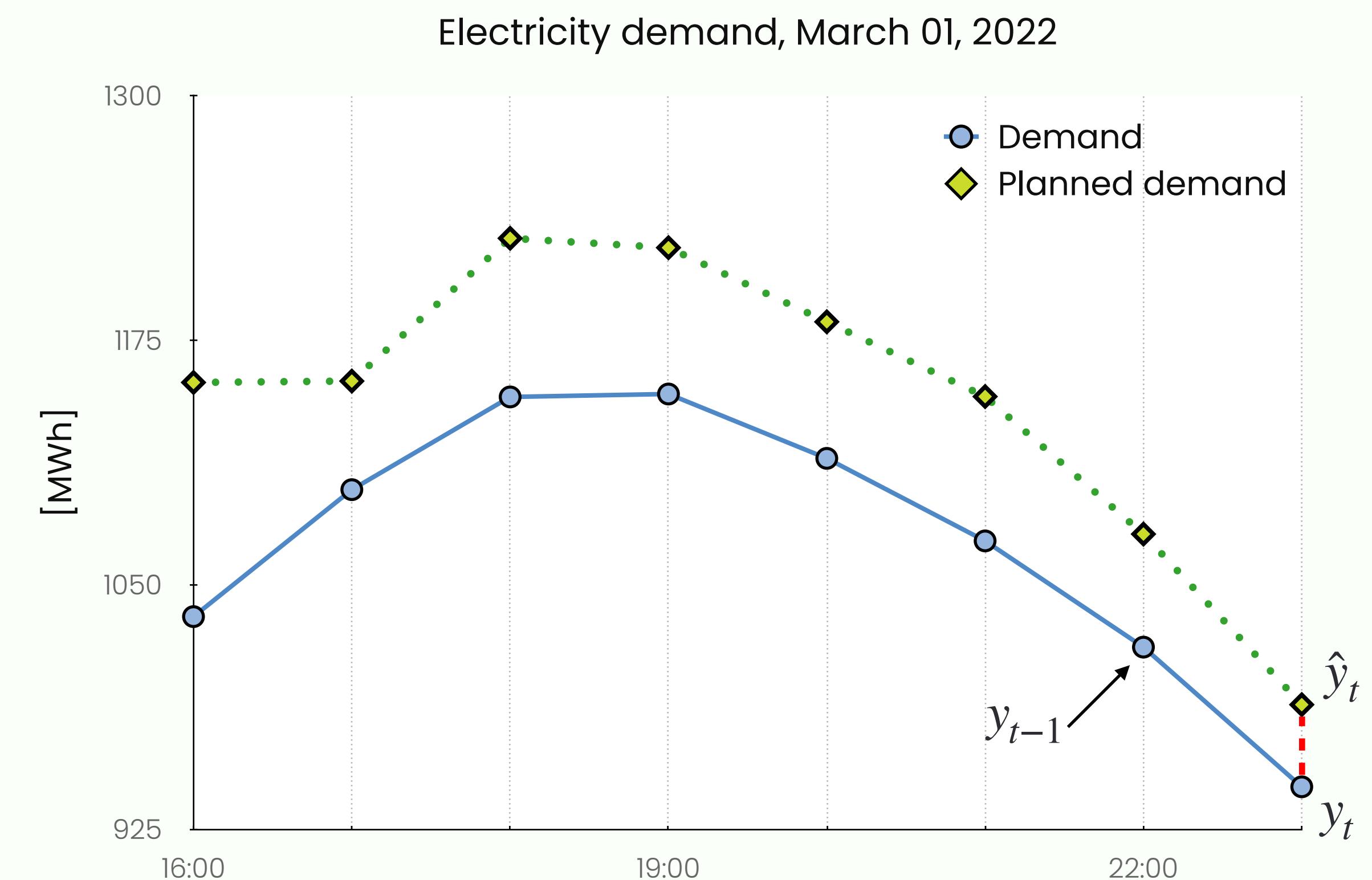
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For example, autoregressive model of order 1 (or AR(1)) can be written as

$$y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

target

intercept coefficient



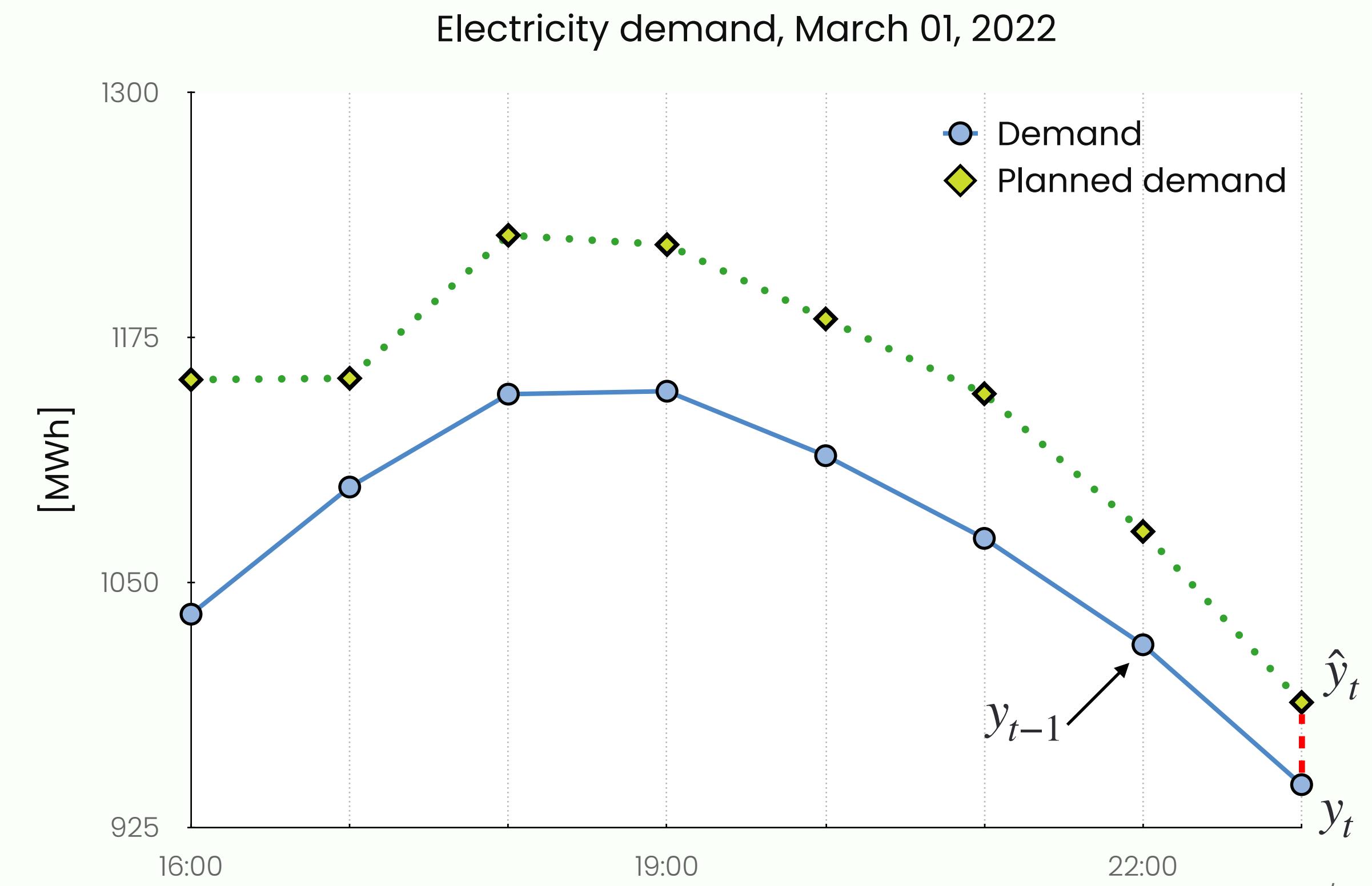
AR(1) MODEL

For example, autoregressive model of order 1 (or AR(1)) can be written as

intercept coefficient error
↓ ↓
 $y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$
↑
target

Practical observation (there are no perfect models):

$$\hat{y}_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2}$$



AR(1) MODEL

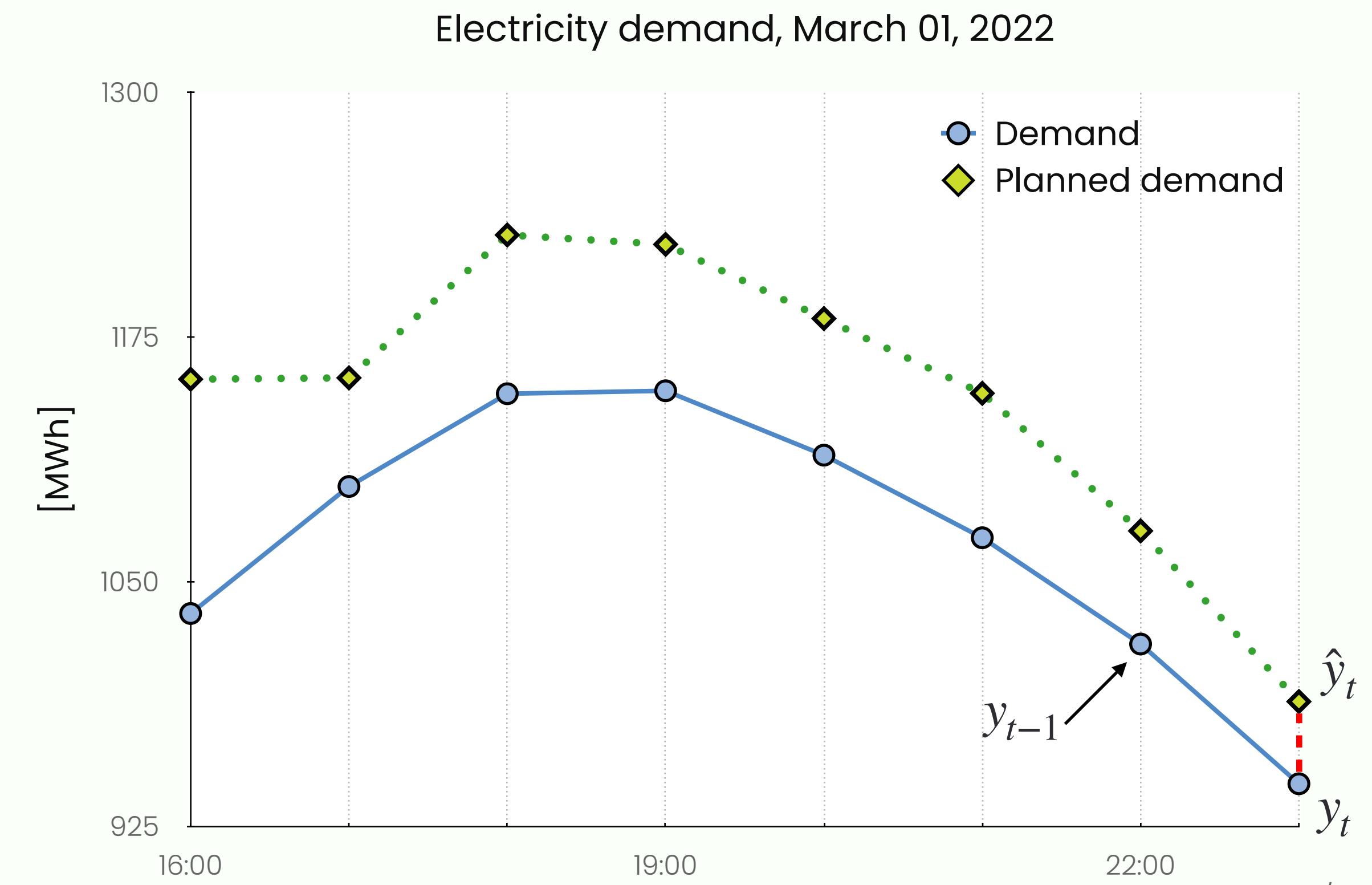
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$$y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

intercept coefficient error
target lagged target

Practical observation (there are no perfect models):

$$\hat{y}_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2}$$



AR(1) MODEL

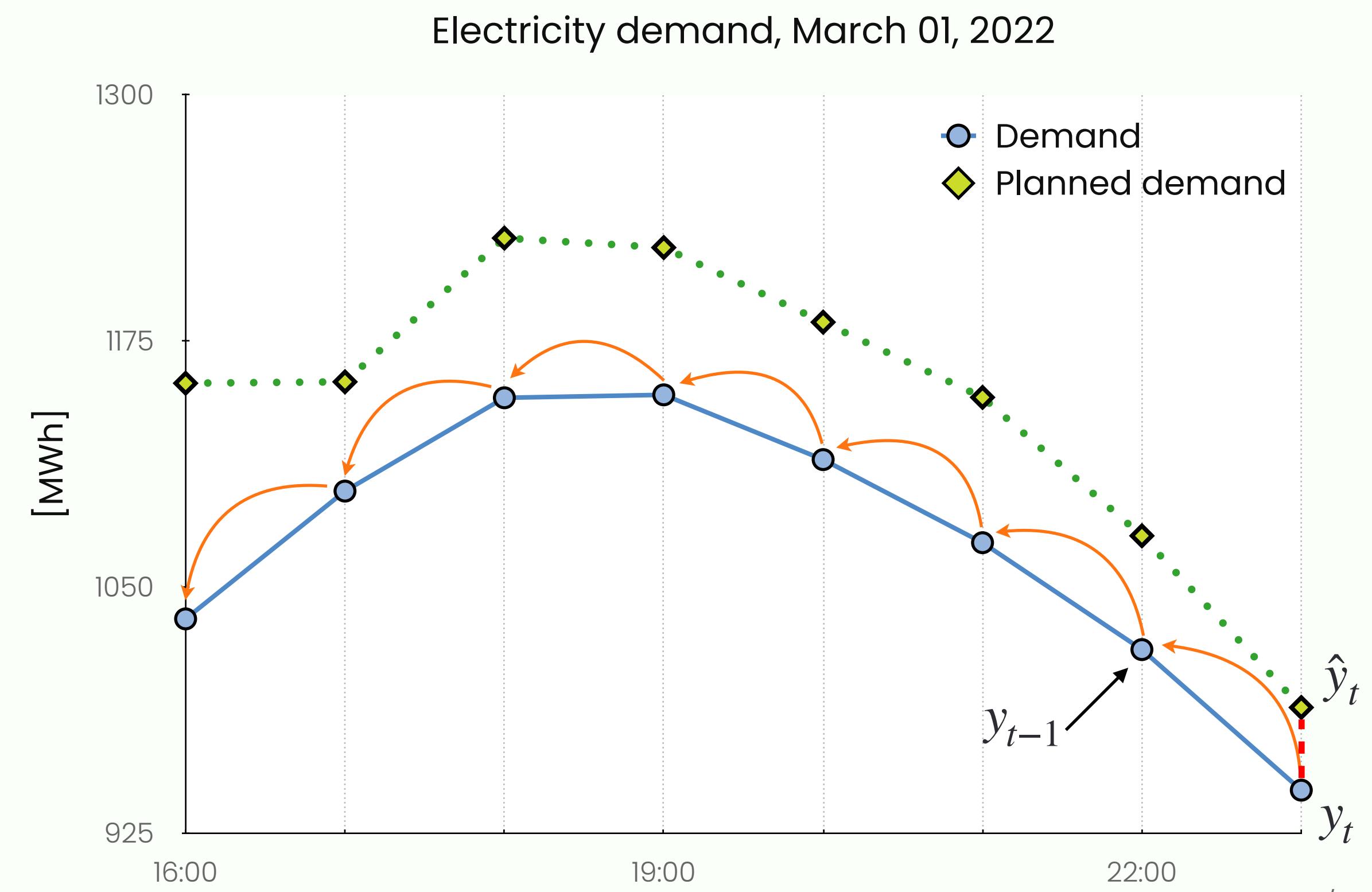
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intercept coefficient error
target lagged target

Practical observation (there are no perfect models):

$$\hat{y}_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2}$$



LONG MEMORY MODELS

Recursion goes back until the beginning of the series.

$$y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

$$y_{t-1} = c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}$$

$$y_{t-2} = c + \phi y_{t-3} + \epsilon_{t-2}$$

LONG MEMORY MODELS

Recursion goes back until the beginning of the series.

$$\boxed{y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t}$$
$$y_{t-1} = c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}$$
$$y_{t-2} = c + \phi y_{t-3} + \epsilon_{t-2}$$
$$y_t = c + \phi(c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t$$

LONG MEMORY MODELS

Recursion goes back until the beginning of the series.

$$\begin{array}{l} y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \\ y_{t-1} = c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1} \\ y_{t-2} = c + \phi y_{t-3} + \epsilon_{t-2} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\quad} \\ \xrightarrow{\quad} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} y_t = c + \phi(c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t \\ \downarrow \text{simplify} \\ y_t = c^* + \phi^2 y_{t-2} + \phi \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \end{array}$$

LONG MEMORY MODELS

Recursion goes back until the beginning of the series.

$$\begin{array}{c} \boxed{y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t} \\ y_{t-1} = c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1} \\ y_{t-2} = c + \phi y_{t-3} + \epsilon_{t-2} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\quad} y_t = c + \phi(c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t$$

↓ simplify

$$y_t = c^* + \phi^2 y_{t-2} + \phi \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

↓

$$y_t = c^* + \phi^3 y_{t-3} + \phi^2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \phi \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

LONG MEMORY MODELS

Recursion goes back until the beginning of the series.

The diagram illustrates the iterative simplification of a time series equation. It starts with the equation $y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$, which is highlighted with a red box. An arrow points from this equation to the next step, where it is substituted into the equation $y_{t-1} = c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}$. This results in $y_t = c + \phi(c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t$. A downward arrow labeled "simplify" leads to the next step, where the equation is further simplified to $y_t = c^* + \phi^2 y_{t-2} + \phi \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$. Another downward arrow leads to the final step, where the equation is fully simplified to $y_t = \frac{c}{1 - \phi} + \phi^t y_1 + \phi^{t-1} \epsilon_2 + \phi^{t-2} \epsilon_3 + \dots + \epsilon_t$. A circular arrow icon is placed between the second and third steps.

LONG MEMORY MODELS

Recursion goes back until the beginning of the series.

The diagram illustrates the iterative substitution and simplification process for deriving the general form of an Autoregressive (AR) model of order p .

Initial Equation: $y_t = c + \phi y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$ (boxed)

Substitution: $y_{t-1} = c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}$ is substituted into the initial equation.

Intermediate Equations:

- $y_t = c + \phi(c + \phi y_{t-2} + \epsilon_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t$ (simplified)
- $y_t = c^* + \phi^2 y_{t-2} + \phi \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$
- $y_t = c^* + \phi^3 y_{t-3} + \phi^2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \phi \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$

General Form: The process continues until the p -th lag is reached, resulting in the general AR(p) equation:

$$y_t = \frac{c}{1 - \phi} + \phi^t y_1 + \phi^{t-1} \epsilon_2 + \phi^{t-2} \epsilon_3 + \cdots + \epsilon_t$$

A red circle highlights the term $\phi^t y_1$, which corresponds to the initial value y_1 in the AR(1) case.

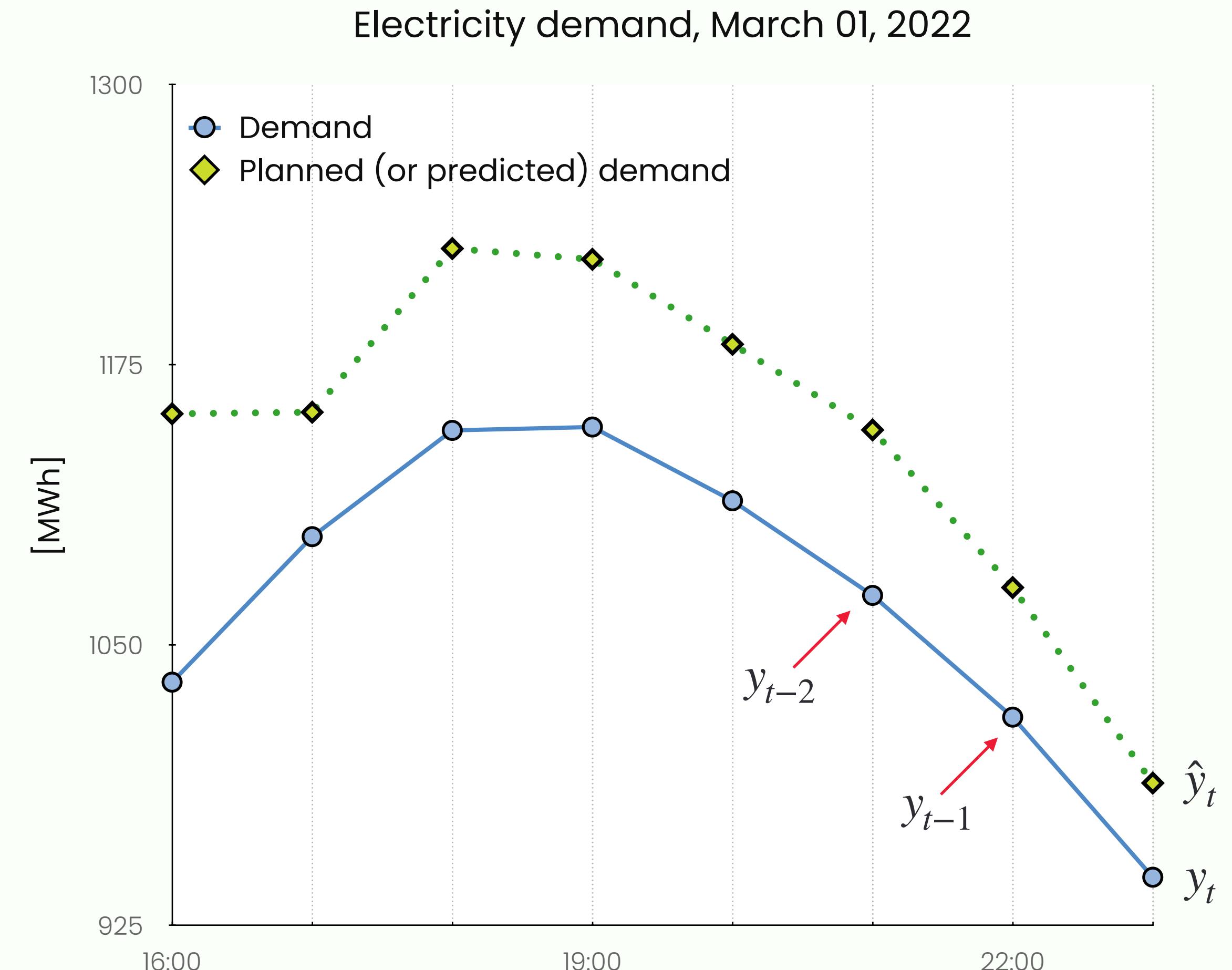
- ✓ Effects from past have little effect on the present if $|\phi| < 1$.
 - ✓ Stationarity – the dependence of previous observations declines over time.

AR(2) MODEL

A linear function of 2 past values or AR(2) can be written as

$$y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \epsilon_t$$

lagged targets



AUTOREGRESSIVE (AR) MODEL

An autoregressive model of order p can be written as

$$y_t = c + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-i} + \epsilon_t = c + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \epsilon_t$$

where $\epsilon_t \sim wn(0, \sigma_w^2)$ is white noise, ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_p are parameters, c is intercept.

We refer to this as an AR(p) model, an autoregressive model of order p .

MA(2) MODEL

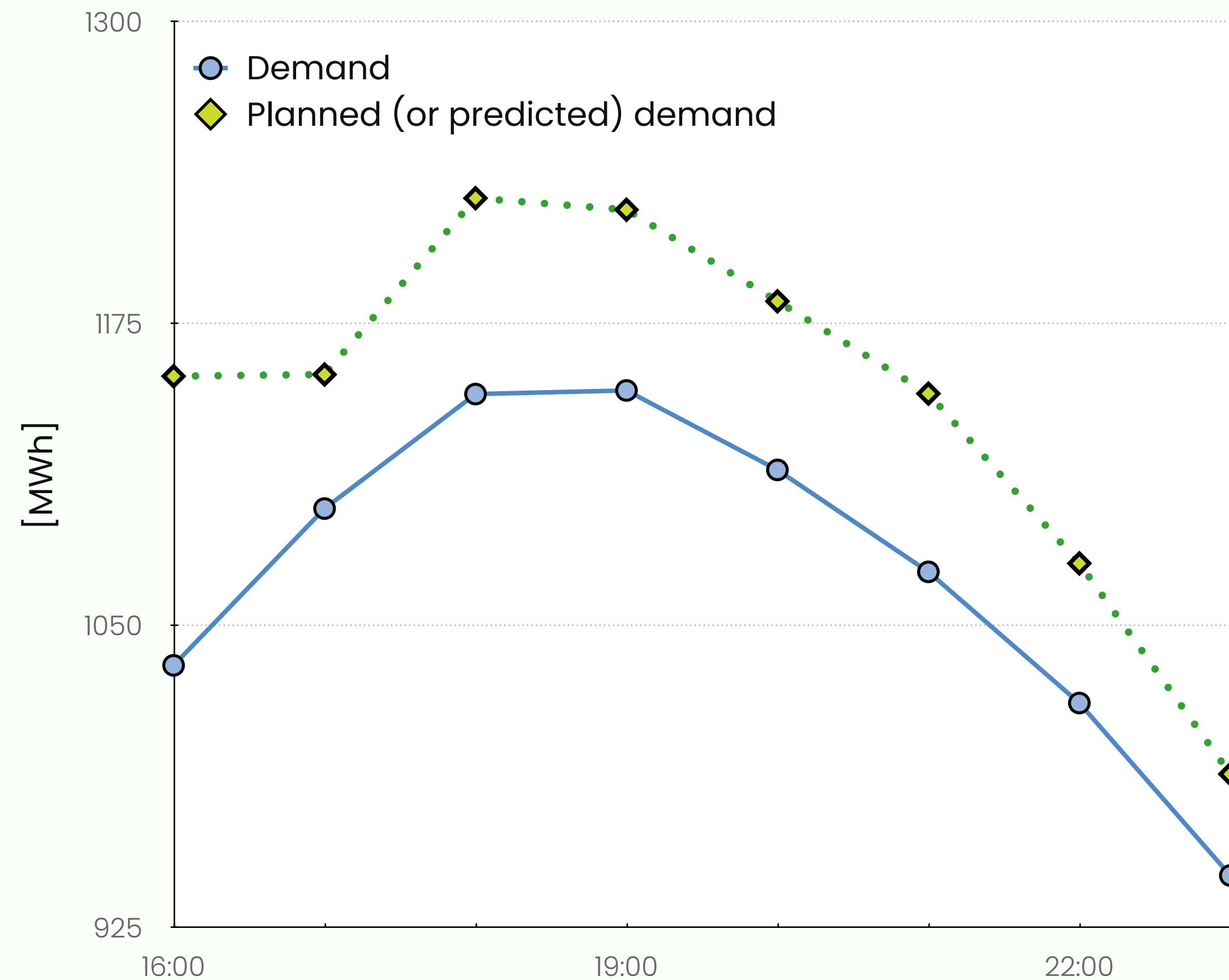
For example, moving average model MA(2) can be written as

$$y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2}.$$

MA(2) MODEL

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$$y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t + \theta_1\epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2\epsilon_{t-2}.$$



MA(2) MODEL

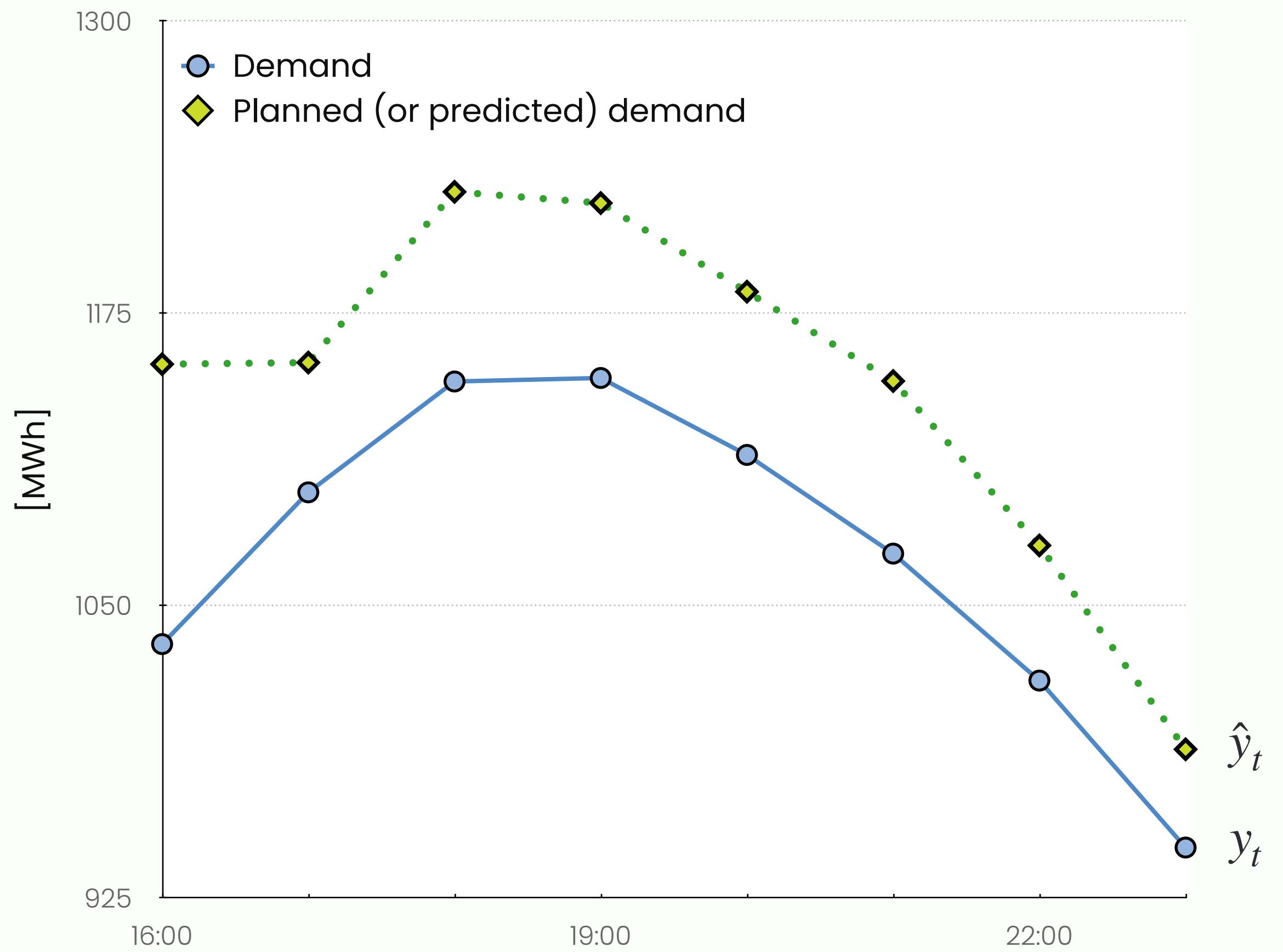
For example, moving average model MA(2) can be written as

$$y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2}.$$

MA helps to correct the error made in the previous time step.

Practical observation (we do not have access to the current error ϵ_t):

$$\hat{y}_t = \mu + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2}.$$



MA(2) MODEL

For example, moving average model MA(2) can be written as

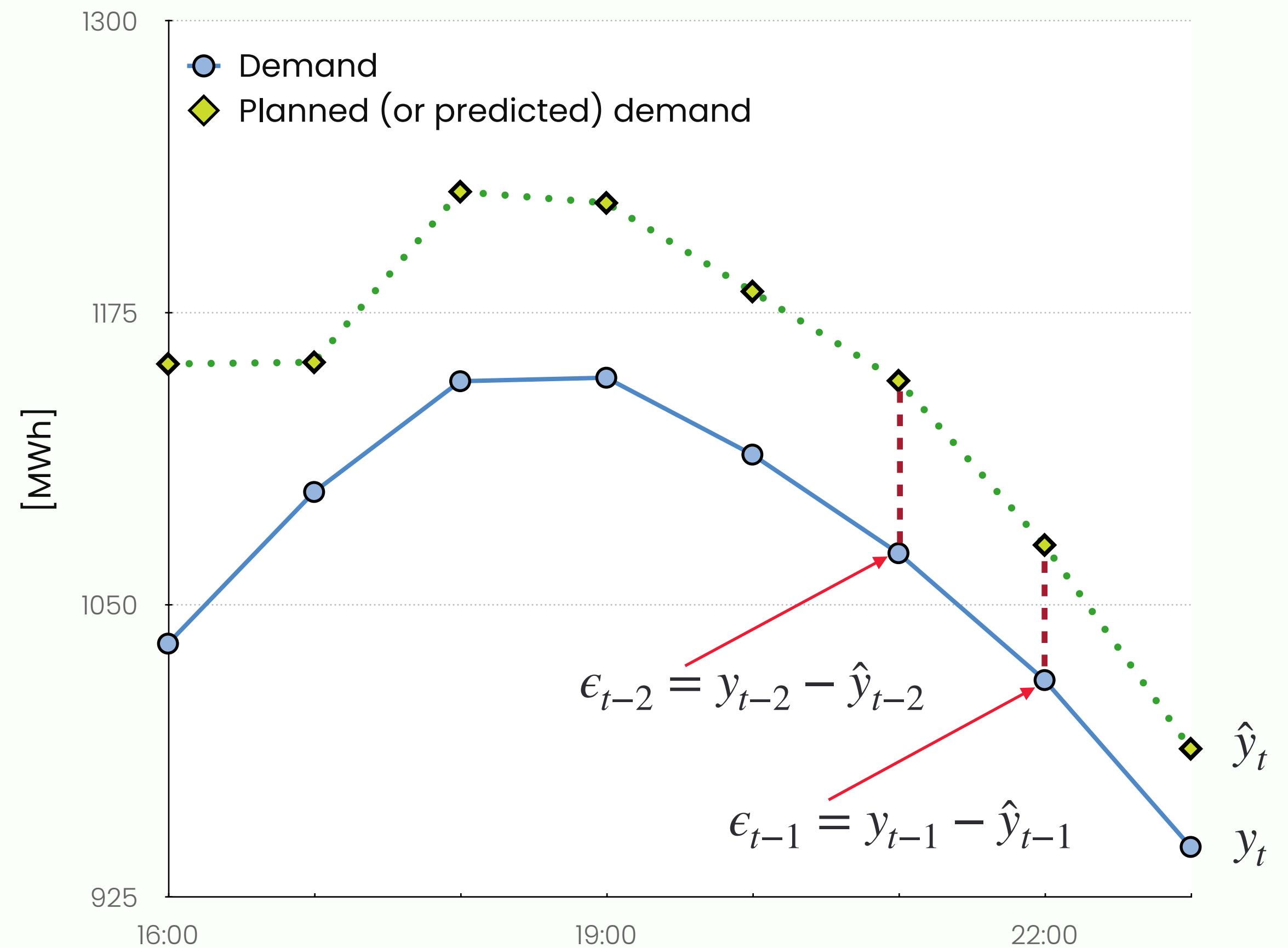
$$y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2}$$

lagged errors

MA helps to correct the error made in the previous time step.

Practical observation (we do not have access to the current error ϵ_t):

$$\hat{y}_t = \mu + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2}$$



MOVING AVERAGE (MA) MODEL

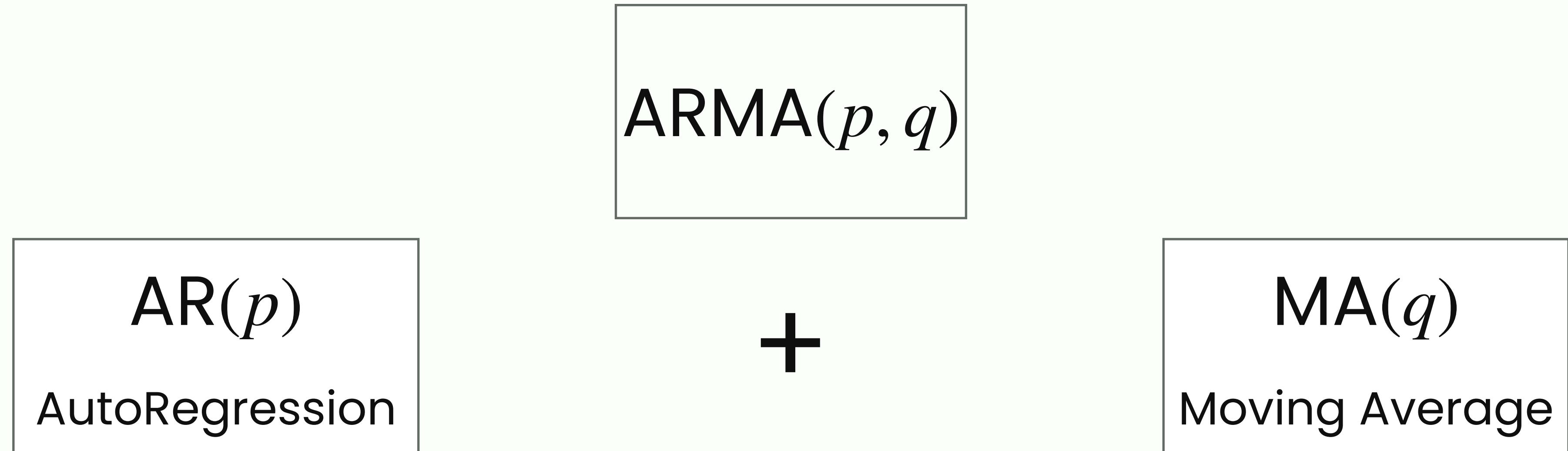
Rather than using past values of the target variable in a regression, a moving average model uses past errors and can be written as

$$y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t + \sum_{j=1}^q \theta_j \epsilon_{t-j} = \mu + \epsilon_t + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \cdots + \theta_q \epsilon_{t-q}$$

where $\epsilon_t \sim wn(0, \sigma_w^2)$ is white noise, $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$ are parameters, μ is the mean of the series.

We refer to this as an MA(q) model, a moving average model of order q .

AUTOREGRESSIVE MOVING AVERAGE (ARMA)



AR models a series based solely on the past values in the series (lags).

MA models a series based solely on the past errors in the series (error lags).

The family of methods is reach:

SARIMA, VARIMA, FARIMA, ARCH, VAR, etc.

ARMA: FULL MODEL

The full model can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= c + \epsilon_t + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^q \theta_j \epsilon_{t-j} \\&= c + \epsilon_t + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \cdots + \phi_p y_{t-p} + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \cdots + \theta_q \epsilon_{t-q}.\end{aligned}$$

We call this an ARMA(p, q) model, where

- p is the number of lag observations,
- q is the order of the moving average part.

ARMA: EXAMPLE

For example, ARMA(2,1) can be written as

$$\hat{y}_t = \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1}$$

or using backward shift (lag) notation as

$$(1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2) \hat{y}_t = (1 + \theta_1 B) \epsilon_t$$

ESTIMATING ARMA ORDERS

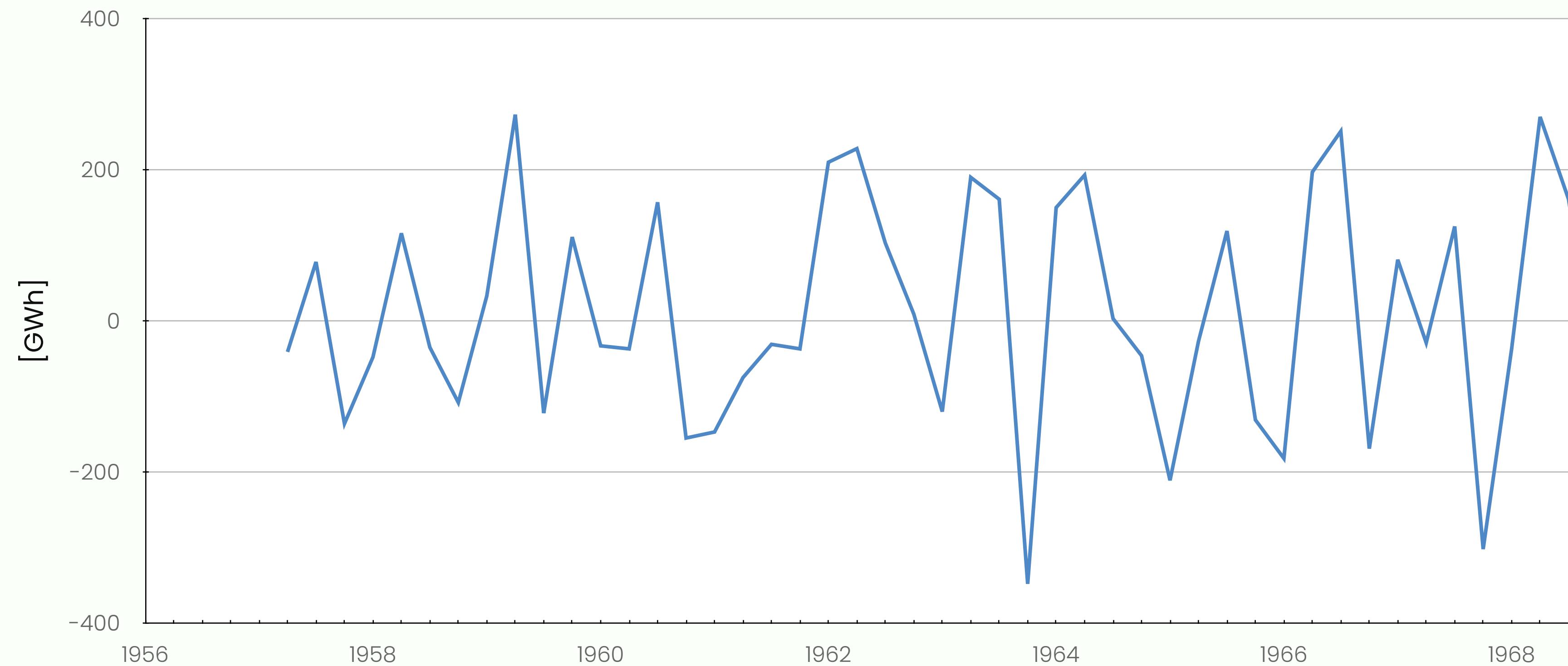
Note that the selection for p and q is not unique, and one can use:

- ACF and PACF plots
- information criteria (IC) (Akaike's IC or Bayesian IC)
- performance metrics (MSE or RMSE)

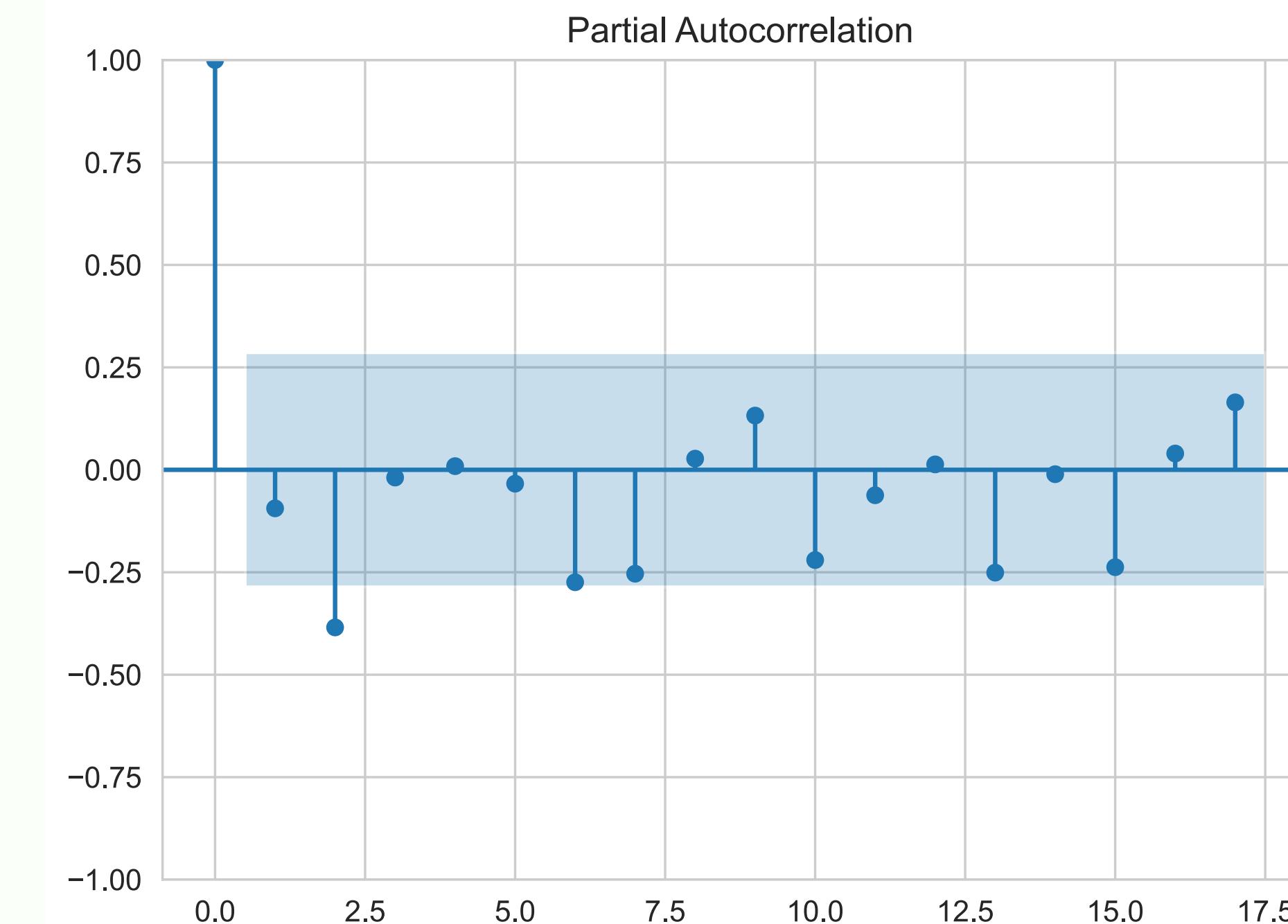
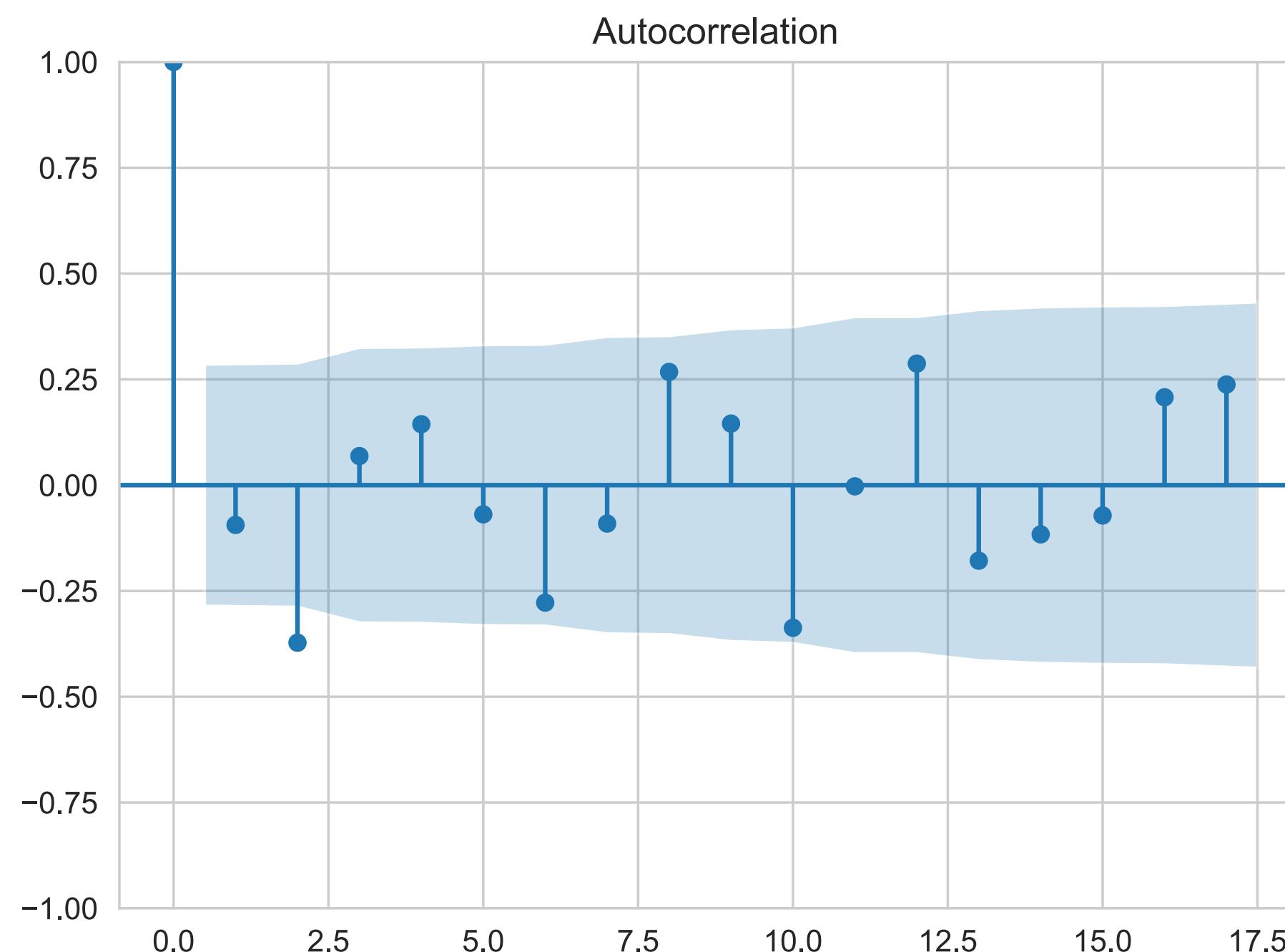
$AR(p)/MA(q)$	0	1	2	3	...
0					
1					
2					
3					
...					

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

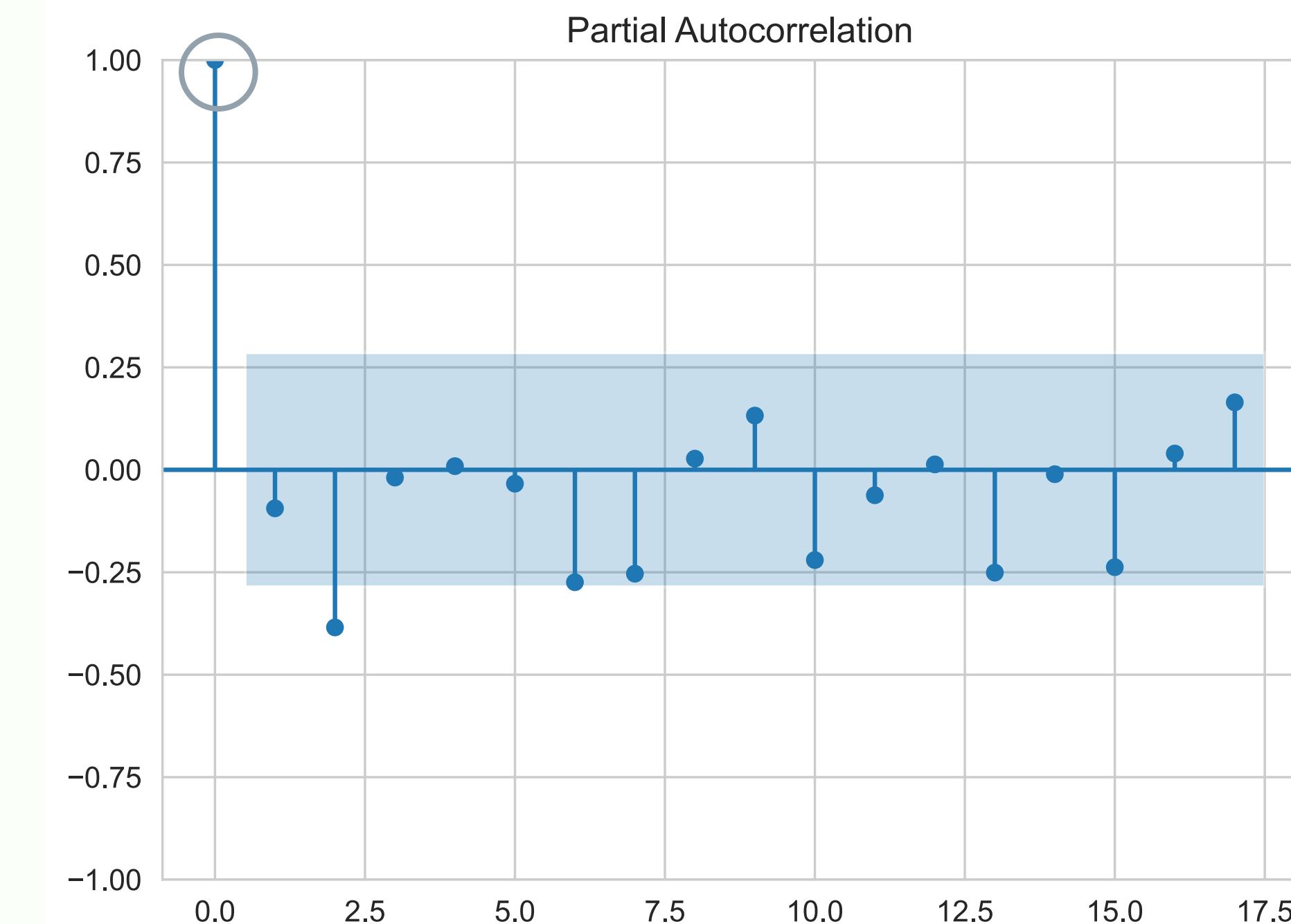
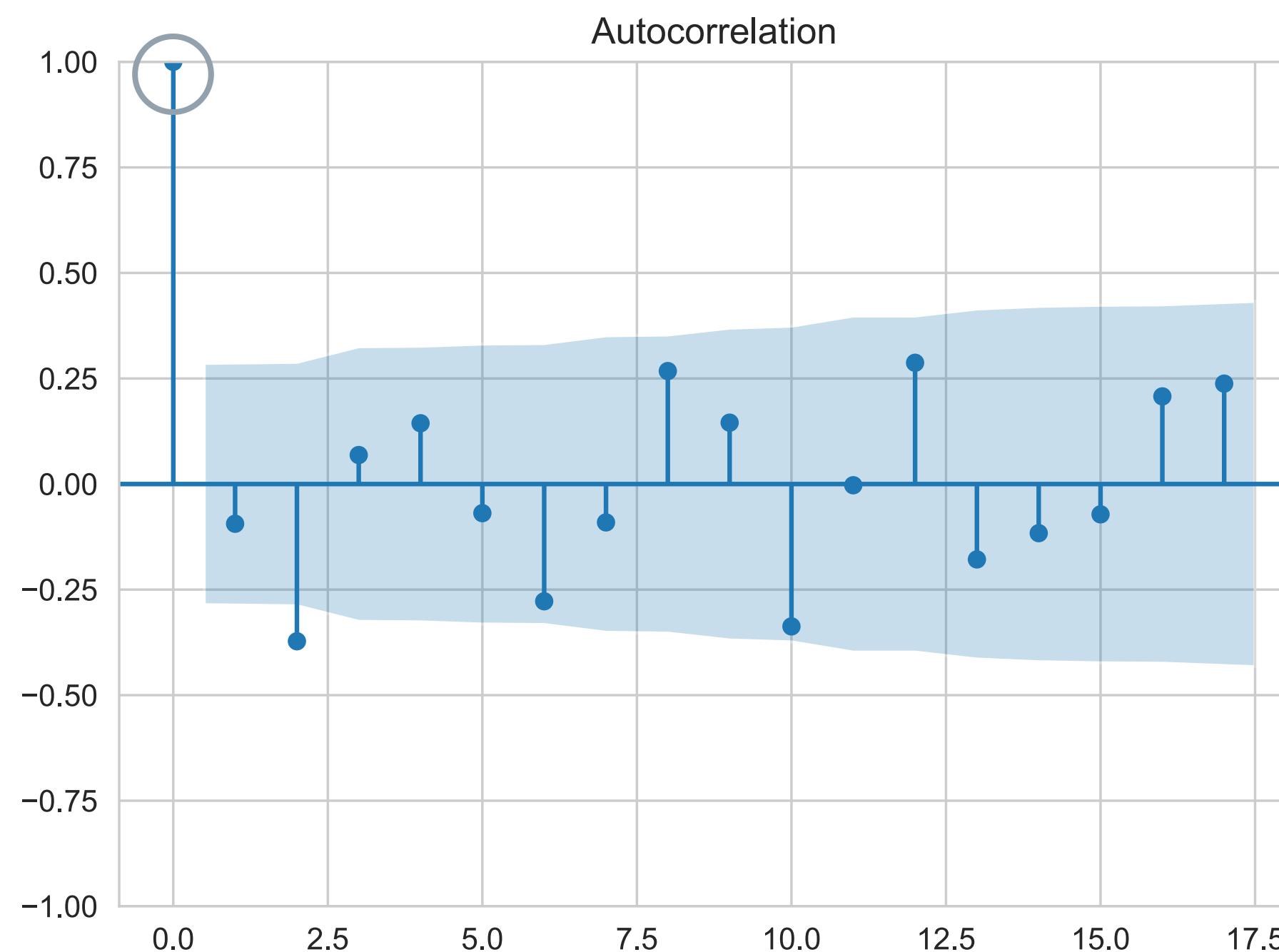
Consider Australian electricity production data after seasonal
and first difference transformation $(1 - B)(1 - B^4) y_t$.



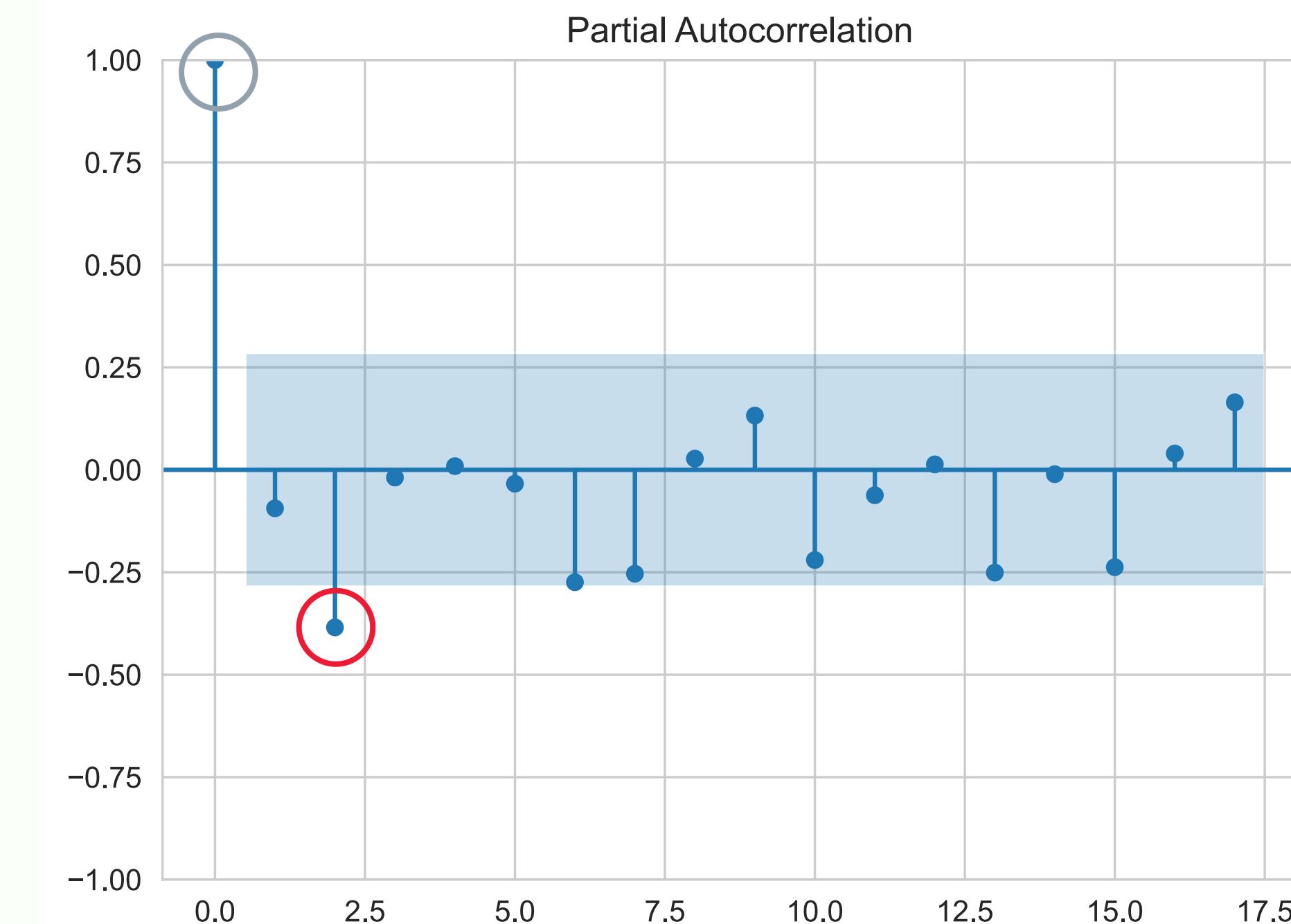
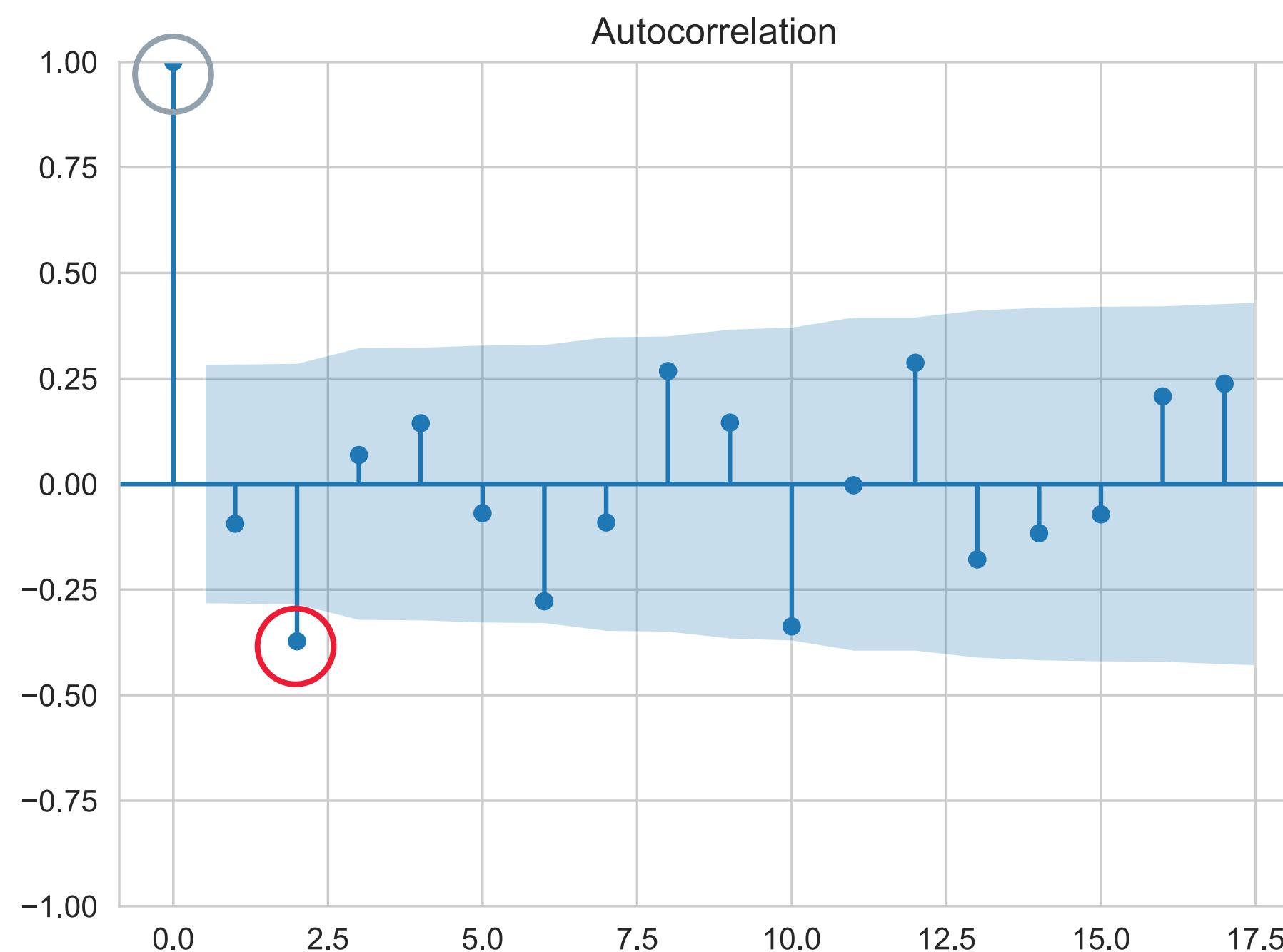
ACF & PACF



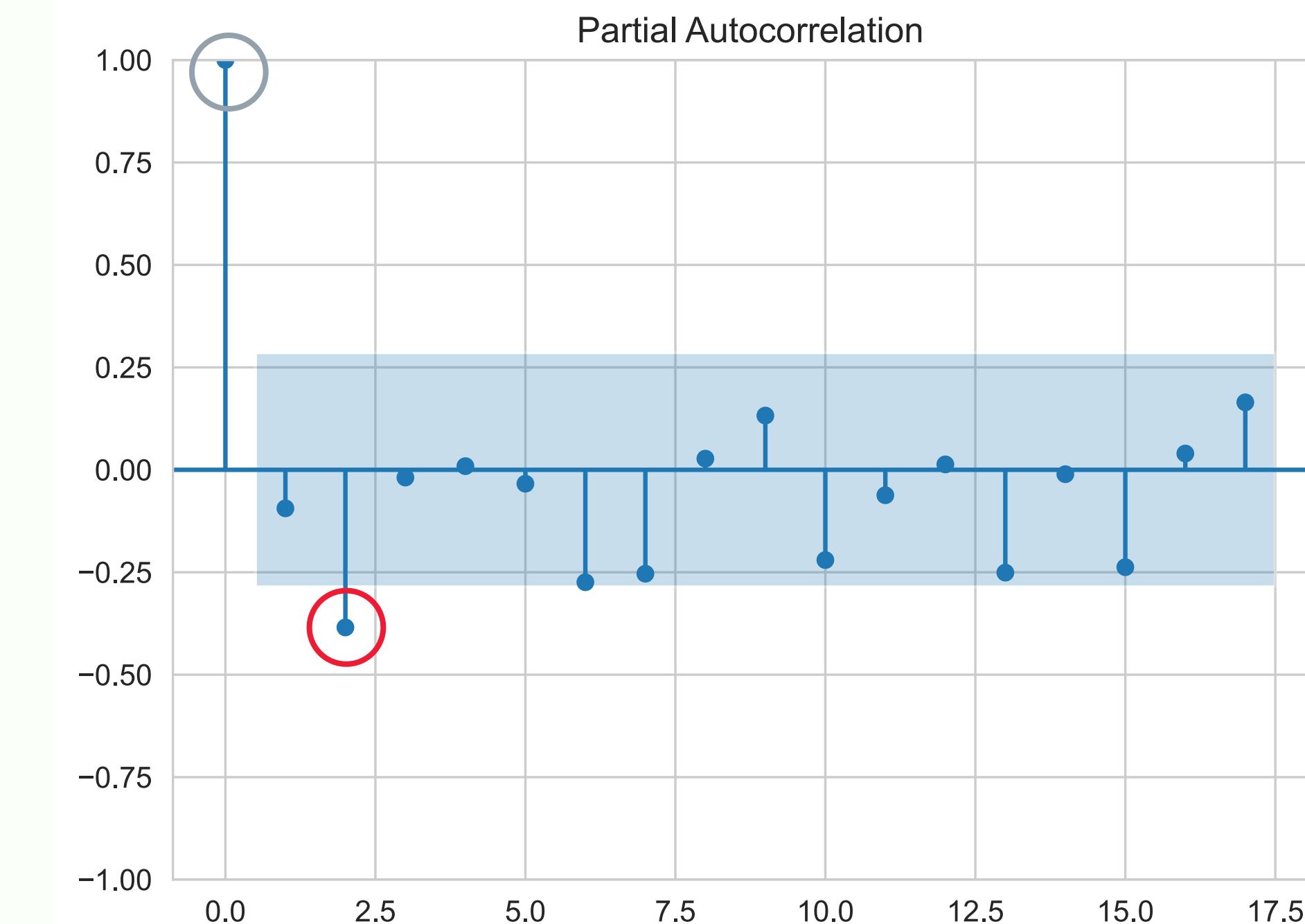
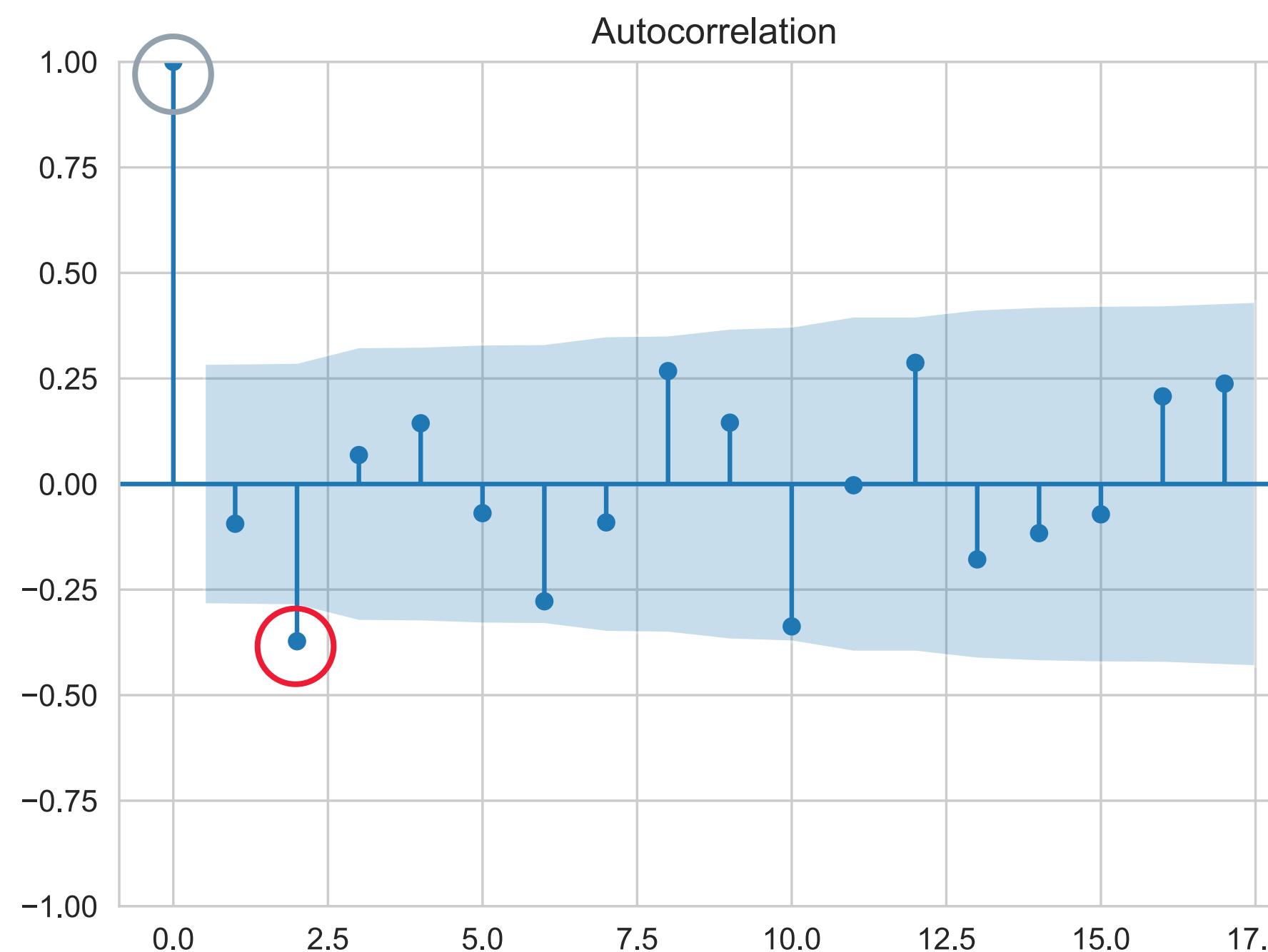
ACF & PACF



ACF & PACF



ACF & PACF



Based on ACF q option is:
MA(2)

Based on PACF p option is:
AR(2)

ESTIMATION

SARIMAX Results						
<hr/>						
Dep. Variable:	electricity	No. Observations:	44			
Model:	ARIMA(2, 0, 2)	Log Likelihood	-277.270			
Date:	Tue, 22 Jul 2025	AIC	566.539			
Time:	15:12:58	BIC	577.244			
Sample:	06-01-1957 - 03-01-1968	HQIC	570.509			
Covariance Type:	opg					
<hr/>						
	coef	std err	z	P> z	[0.025	0.975]
const	4.6923	18.744	0.250	0.802	-32.044	41.429
ar.L1	0.0975	0.217	0.449	0.653	-0.328	0.523
ar.L2	-0.9488	0.144	-6.567	0.000	-1.232	-0.666
ma.L1	-0.2016	0.333	-0.606	0.544	-0.853	0.450
ma.L2	0.8692	0.273	3.189	0.001	0.335	1.404
sigma2	1.791e+04	6557.285	2.732	0.006	5060.488	3.08e+04
<hr/>						
Ljung-Box (L1) (Q):	0.23	Jarque-Bera (JB):	1.23			
Prob(Q):	0.63	Prob(JB):	0.54			
Heteroskedasticity (H):	1.39	Skew:	-0.04			
Prob(H) (two-sided):	0.53	Kurtosis:	2.18			
<hr/>						

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ESTIMATION

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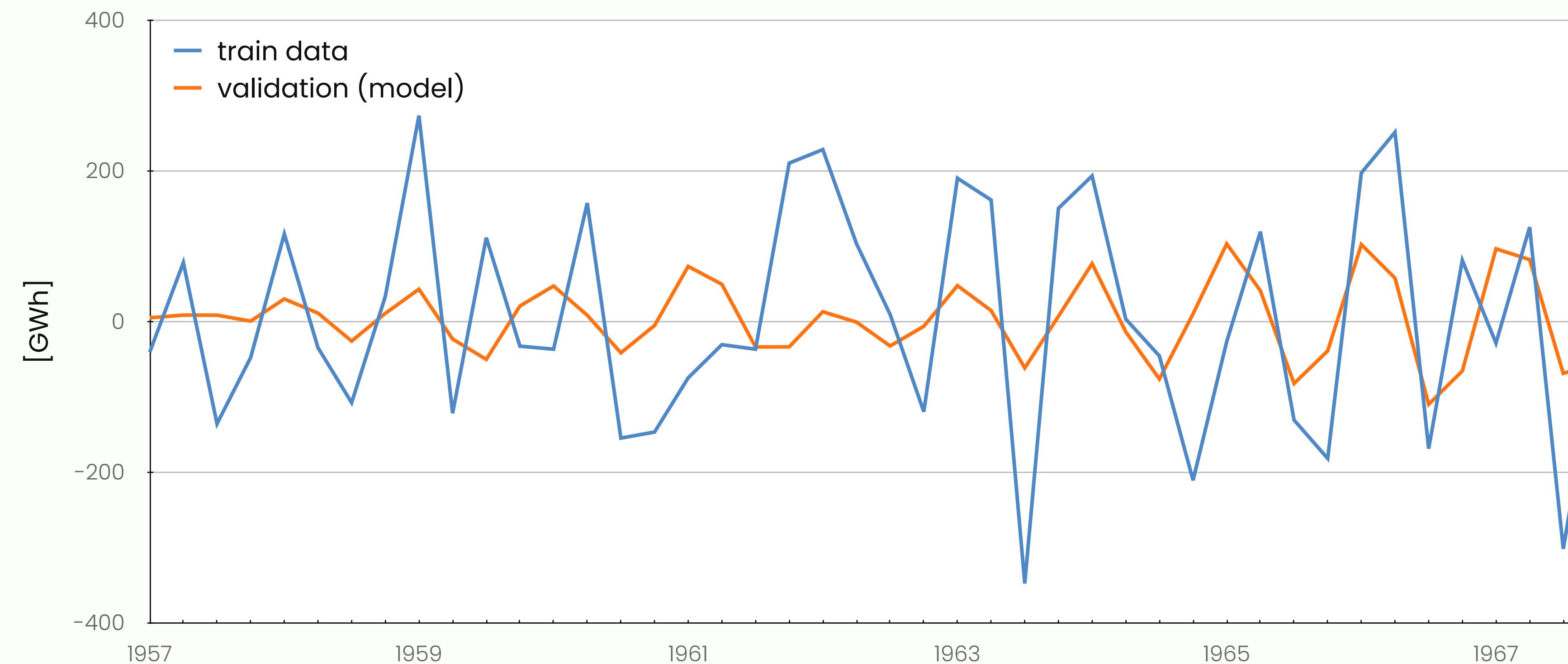
ESTIMATION

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The final ARMA(2,2) model (with B^1 lags and intercept excluded) reads as:

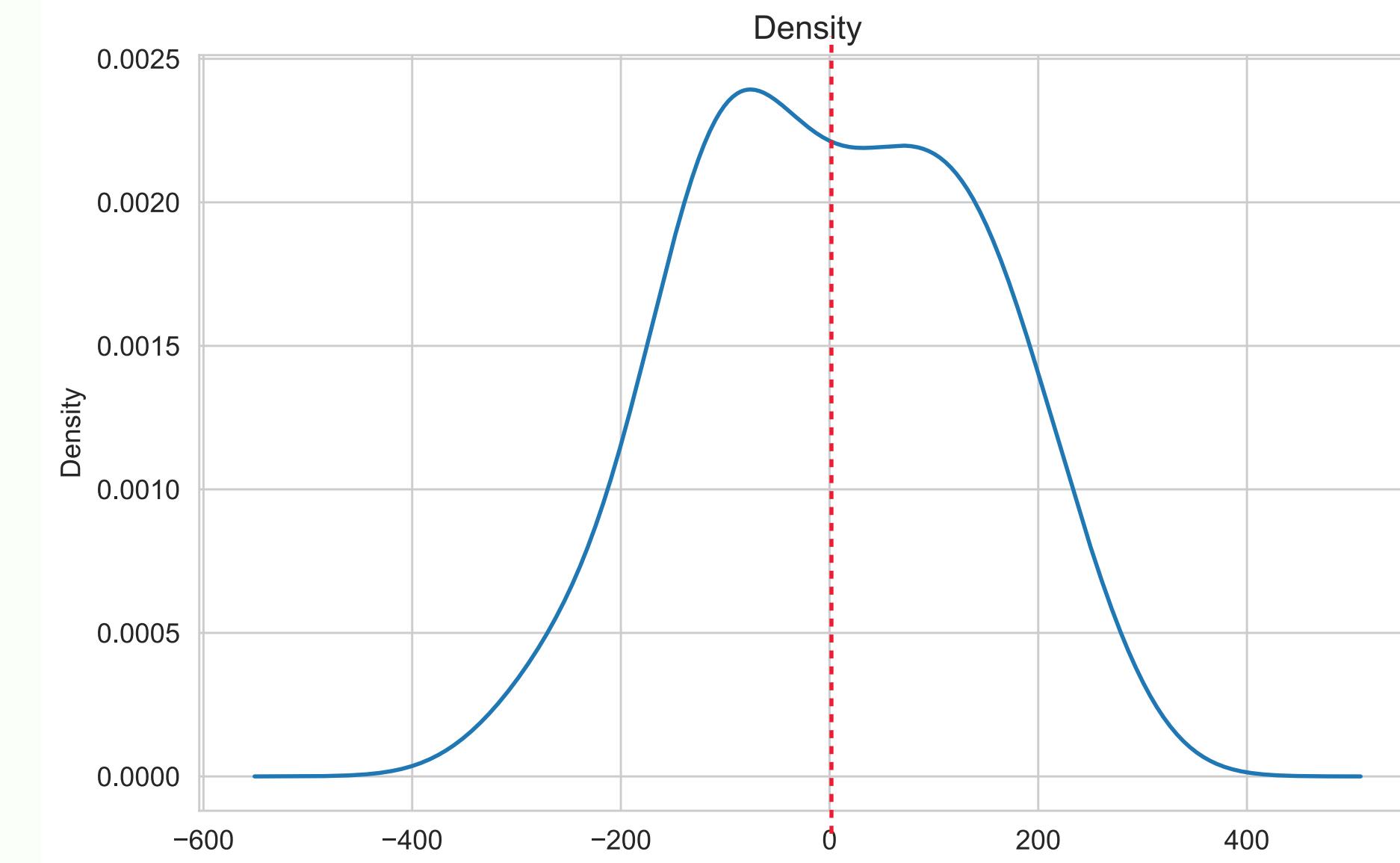
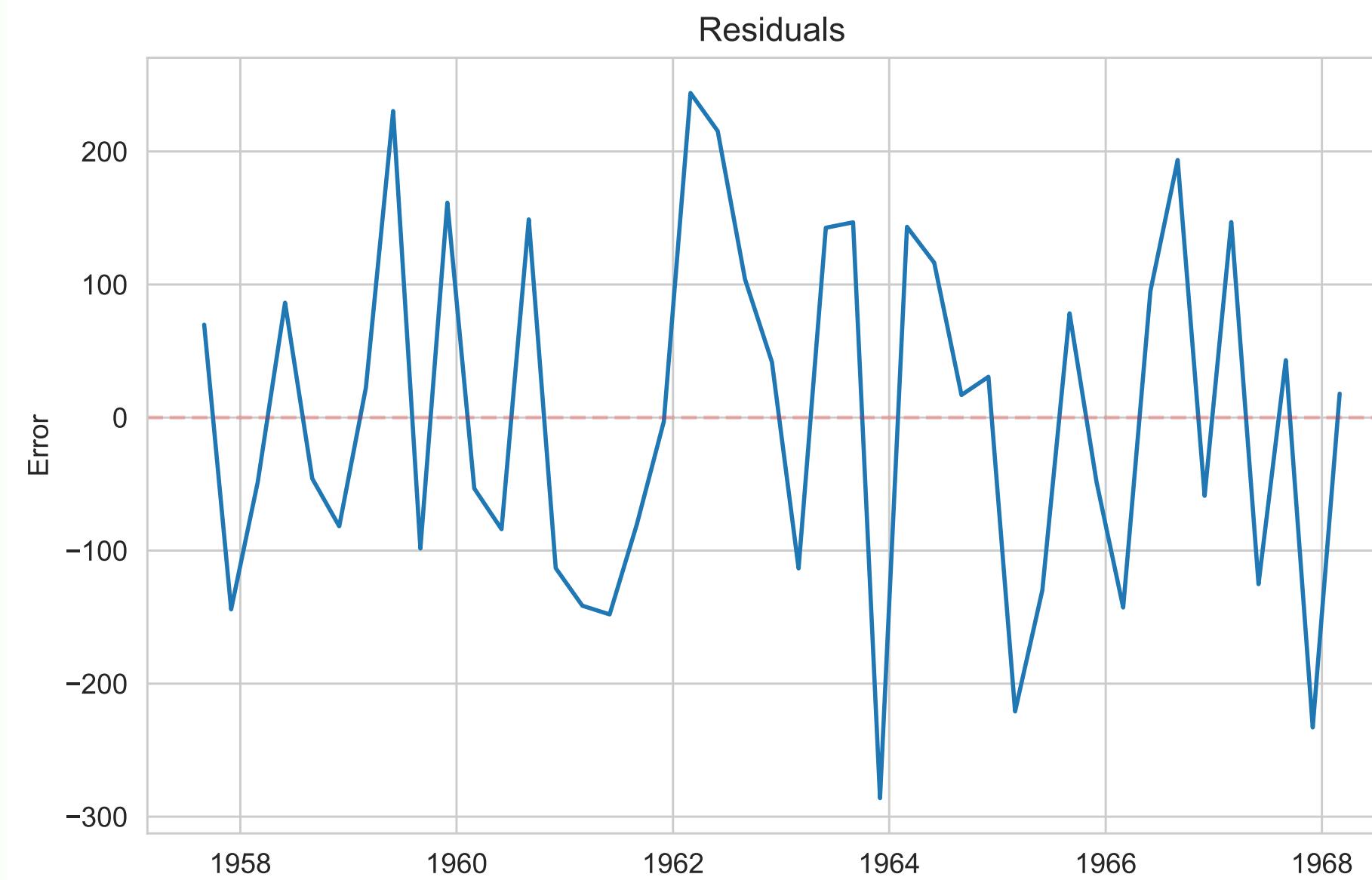
$$\hat{y}_t = -0.9488y_{t-2} + 0.8692\epsilon_{t-2}.$$

VALIDATION: TRAIN DATA



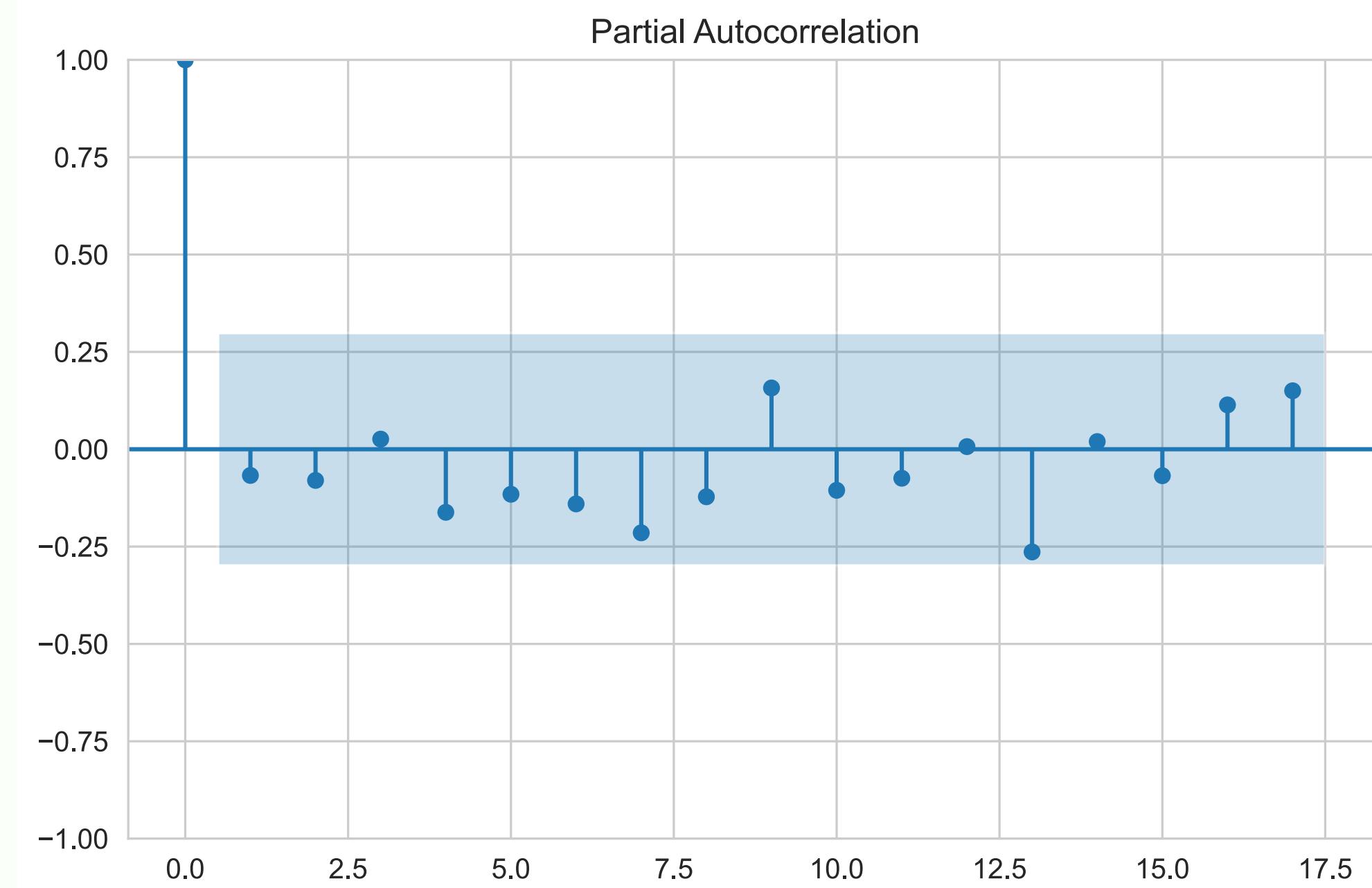
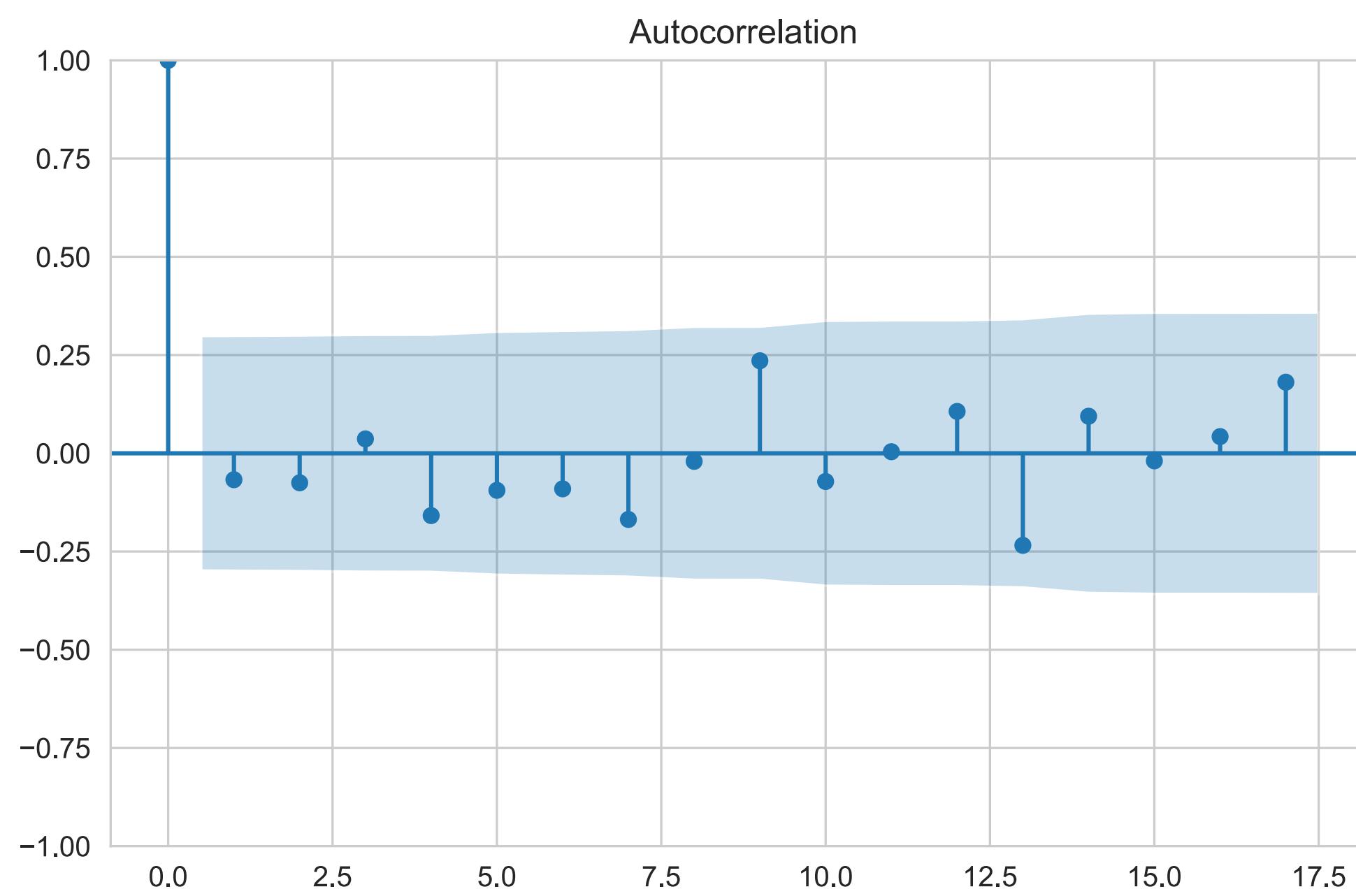
VALIDATION: RESIDUALS

The residuals look random in general, and their density looks kind of normally distributed with a mean close to 0.



VALIDATION: RESIDUALS (2)

ACF and PACF of the residuals



These show that the residuals are close to white noise, and the model can be further utilised.

ARMA EXTENDED

ARMA(p, q)

ARMA EXTENDED

ARMA(p, q)



d is the degree of first differencing

AR|MA(p, d, q)

ARMA EXTENDED

ARMA(p, q)



d is the degree of first differencing

AR|MA(p, d, q)



Seasonal: AR(P), first differencing (D), and MA(Q) parts

m is the number of observations per year

SARIMA($p, d, q)(P, D, Q)_m$

OUTRO

Evaluating Time Series models

TIME SERIES VS CROSS-SECTIONAL

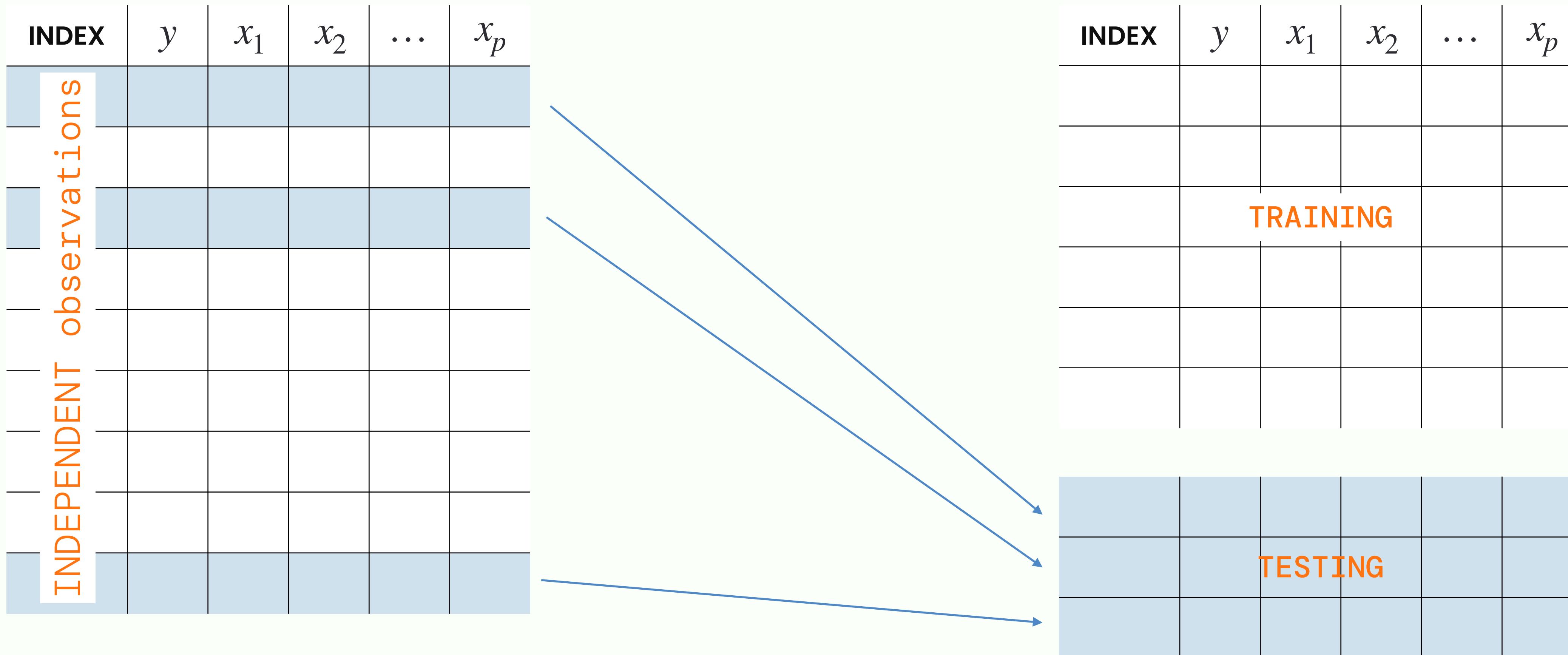
Time Series

Set of ordered data values
consistently collected over an
interval of time.

Cross-sectional

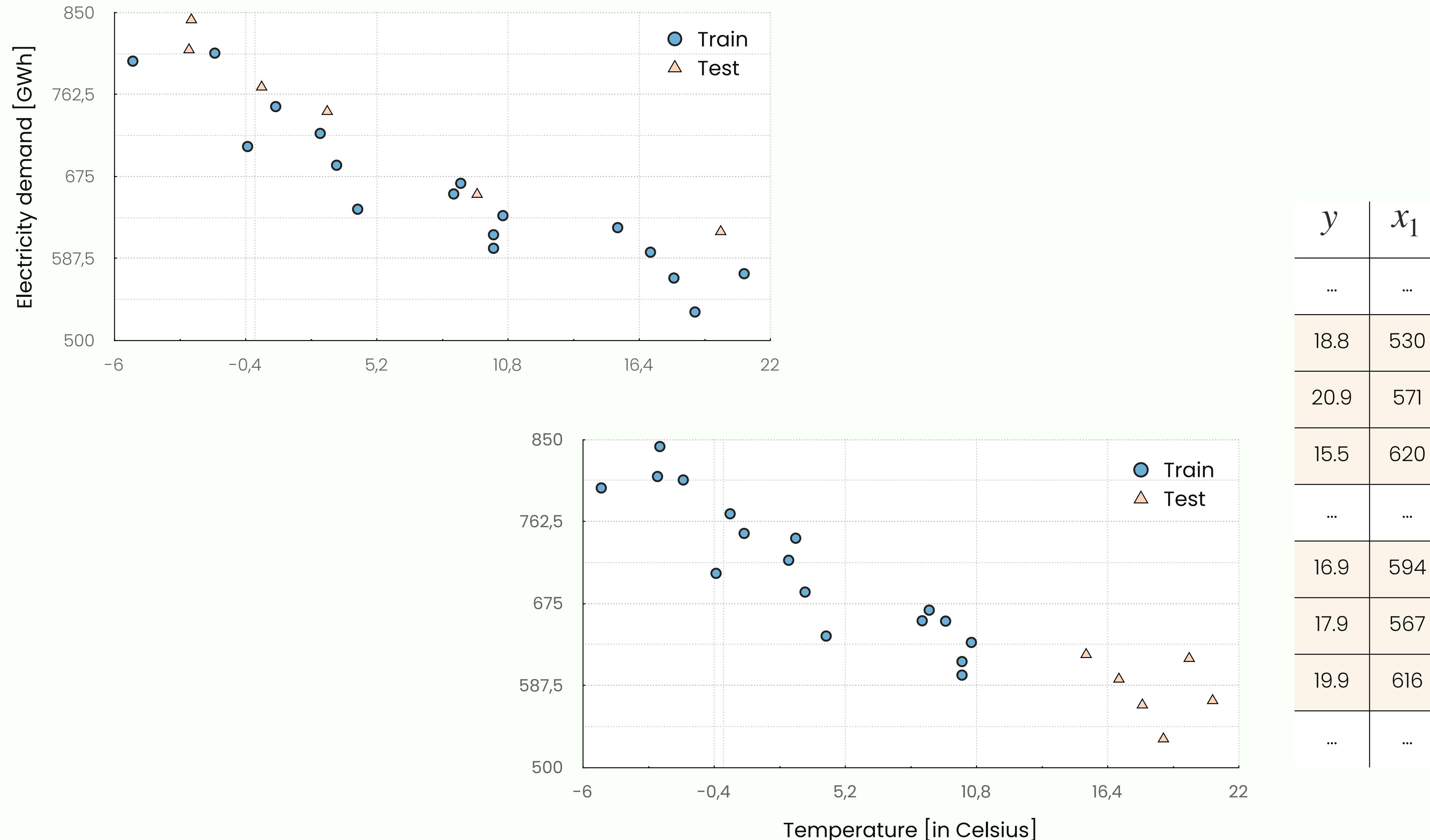
Set of data values collected at a
fixed point in time, or where time
is of *no significance*.

CS: RANDOM SPLIT FOR TRAINING/TESTING



(UN)LUCKY SPLIT?

y	x_1
-2.7	842
...	...
0.3	771
...	...
3.1	745
...	...
9.5	656
...	...
-2.8	810



K-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION

K-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION

INDEX	y	x_1	x_2	...	x_p
1					
2					
3					
4					
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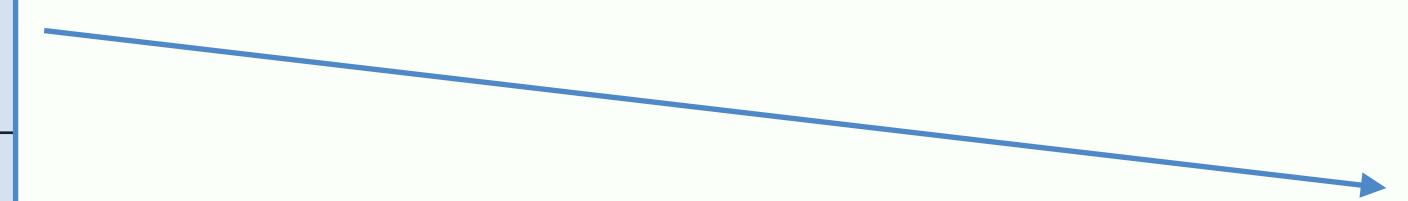
K-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION

INDEX	y	x_1	x_2	\dots	x_p
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2					
3					
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9					
10					
11					
12					
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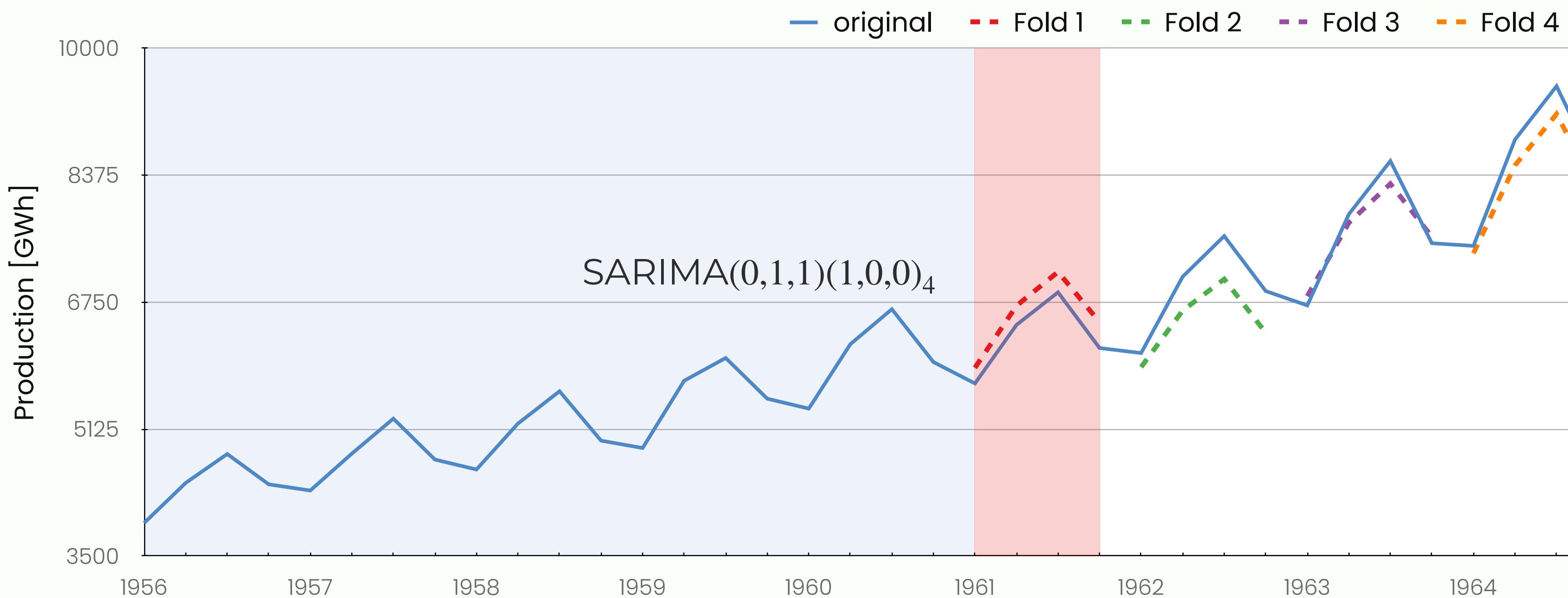
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TS: ~~RANDOM~~ SPLIT FOR TRAINING/TESTING



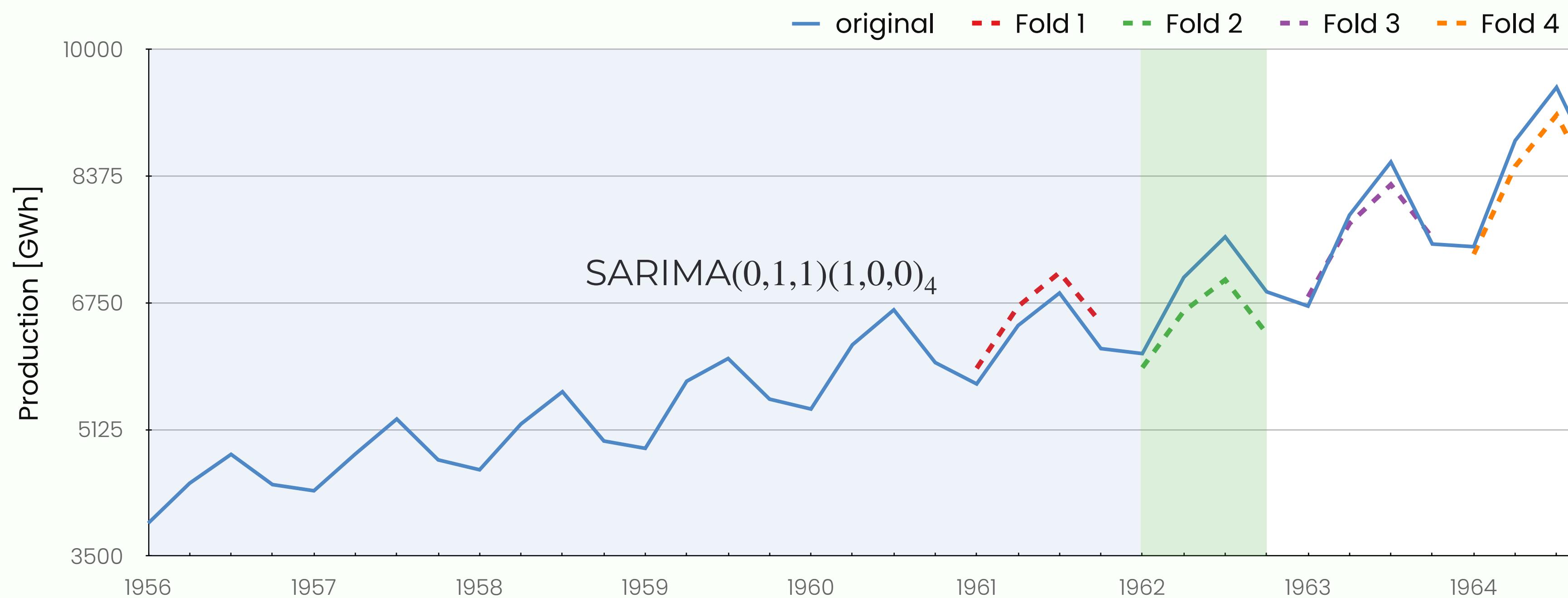
WALK-FORWARD VALIDATION



	Q1'56-Q4'60	Q1-Q4'61	Q1-Q4'62	Q1-Q4'63	Q1-Q4'64	SARIMA (0,1,1)(1,0,0) ₄	SARIMA (0,1,2)(1,0,0) ₄
Fold 1	train	test				4.13	2.62
Fold 2	train	train	test			6.02	3.69
Fold 3	train	train	train	test		1.91	3.14
Fold 4	train	train	train	train	test	3	4.66
			avg MAPE			3.76	3.53

Alternative method is **sliding window validation** which uses fixed-size window for training.

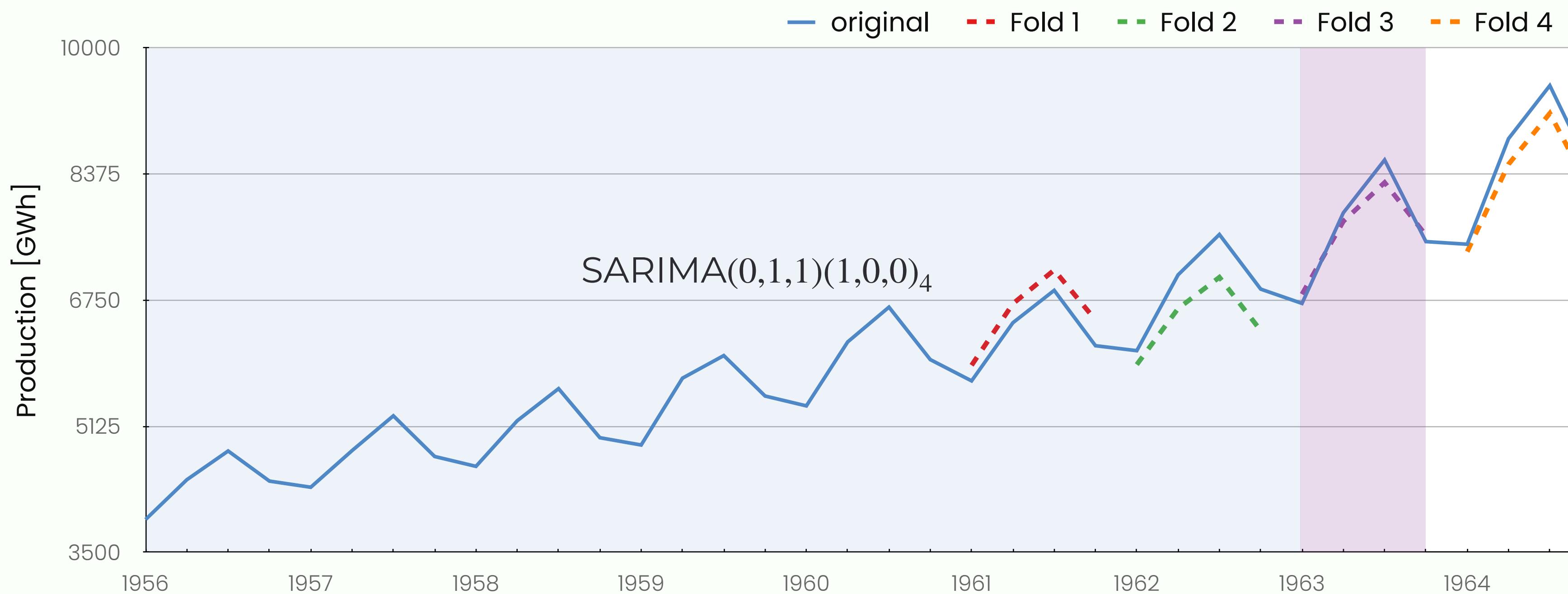
WALK-FORWARD VALIDATION



	Q1'56-Q4'60	Q1-Q4'61	Q1-Q4'62	Q1-Q4'63	Q1-Q4'64	SARIMA (0,1,1)(1,0,0) ₄	SARIMA (0,1,2)(1,0,0) ₄
Fold 1	train	test				4.13	2.62
Fold 2	train	train	test			6.02	3.69
Fold 3	train	train	train	test		1.91	3.14
Fold 4	train	train	train	train	test	3	4.66
			avg MAPE			3.76	3.53

Alternative method is **sliding window validation** which uses fixed-size window for training.

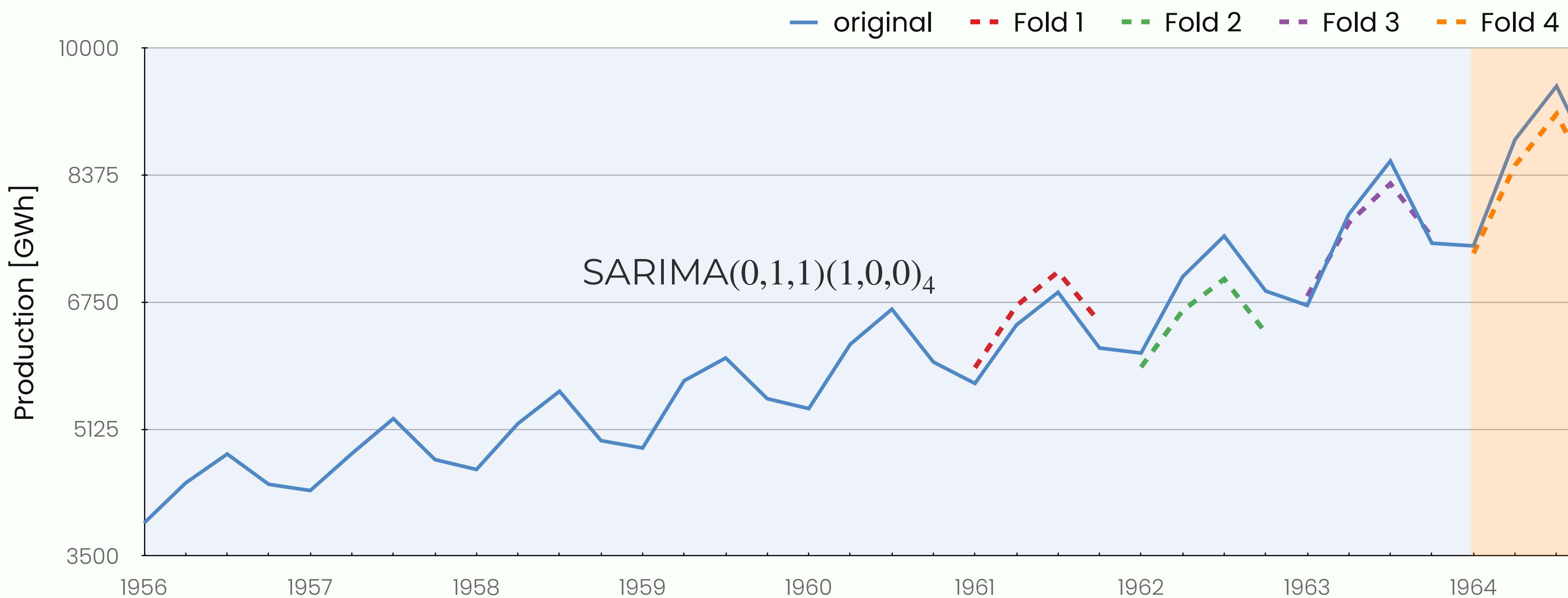
WALK-FORWARD VALIDATION



	Q1'56-Q4'60	Q1-Q4'61	Q1-Q4'62	Q1-Q4'63	Q1-Q4'64	SARIMA (0,1,1)(1,0,0) ₄	SARIMA (0,1,2)(1,0,0) ₄
Fold 1	train	test				4.13	2.62
Fold 2	train	train	test			6.02	3.69
Fold 3	train	train	train	test		1.91	3.14
Fold 4	train	train	train	train	test	3	4.66
avg MAPE						3.76	3.53

Alternative method is **sliding window validation** which uses fixed-size window for training.

WALK-FORWARD VALIDATION



	Q1'56-Q4'60	Q1-Q4'61	Q1-Q4'62	Q1-Q4'63	Q1-Q4'64	SARIMA (0,1,1)(1,0,0) ₄	SARIMA (0,1,2)(1,0,0) ₄
Fold 1	train	test				4.13	2.62
Fold 2	train	train	test			6.02	3.69
Fold 3	train	train	train	test		1.91	3.14
Fold 4	train	train	train	train	test	3	4.66
				avg MAPE		3.76	3.53

Alternative method is **sliding window validation** which uses fixed-size window for training.

HOME ACTIVITIES & BRAIN EXERCISE

- * Try other orders for ARMA model and compare results.
- * Try different lengths of a dataset.
- * Try other transformations (incl. variation stabilisation) and compare results.
- * Given a time series y_t of the length T . Compare the results calculated by

$$r_i = \text{ACF}(y_{t-i})$$

and

$$\text{Pearson's coefficient } r_i = \text{corr}(y_t, y_{t-i})$$

for an arbitrary $i \in \{1, \dots, T - 1\}$.

Thank you!

Questions?