### 6.3 Forecasting ARMA processes

The purpose of forecasting is to predict future values of a TS based on the data collected to the present. In this section we will discuss a linear function of $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{n}, X_{n-1}, \ldots, X_{1}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$ predicting a future value of $X_{n+m}$ for $m=1,2, \ldots$.

We call a function

$$
f_{(n)}(\boldsymbol{X})=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{n}+\ldots+\beta_{n} X_{1}=\beta_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} X_{n+1-i}
$$

the best linear predictor (BLP) of $X_{n+m}$ if it minimizes the prediction error

$$
S(\boldsymbol{\beta})=\mathrm{E}\left[X_{n+m}-f_{(n)}(\boldsymbol{X})\right]^{2},
$$

where $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is the vector of the coefficients $\beta_{i}$ and $\boldsymbol{X}$ is the vector of variables $X_{n+1-i}$.

Since $S(\boldsymbol{\beta})$ is a quadratic function of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and is bounded below by zero there is at least one value of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ that minimizes $S(\boldsymbol{\beta})$. It satisfies the equations

$$
\frac{\partial S(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_{i}}=0, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, n
$$

Evaluation of the derivatives gives so called prediction equations

$$
\begin{gather*}
\frac{\partial S(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_{0}}=\mathrm{E}\left[X_{n+m}-\beta_{0}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} X_{n+1-i}\right]=0  \tag{6.18}\\
\frac{\partial S(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_{j}}=\mathrm{E}\left[\left(X_{n+m}-\beta_{0}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} X_{n+1-i}\right) X_{n+1-j}\right]=0 \tag{6.19}
\end{gather*}
$$

Assuming that $\mathrm{E}\left(X_{t}\right)=\mu$ the first equation can be written as

$$
\mu-\beta_{0}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \mu=0
$$

which gives

$$
\beta_{0}=\mu\left(1-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}\right)
$$

The set of equations (6.20) gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\mathrm{E}\left(X_{n+m} X_{n+1-j}\right)-\beta_{0} \mu-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \mathrm{E}\left(X_{n+1-i} X_{n+1-j}\right) \\
& =\mathrm{E}\left(X_{n+m} X_{n+1-j}\right)-\mu^{2}\left(1-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \mathrm{E}\left(X_{n+1-i} X_{n+1-j}\right) \\
& =\gamma(m-(1-j))-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \gamma(i-j)
\end{aligned}
$$

That is we obtain the following form of the prediction equations (6.20).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma(m-1+j)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \gamma(i-j), \quad j=1, \ldots, n \tag{6.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

We obtain the same set of equations when $\mathrm{E}\left(X_{t}\right)=0$. Hence, we assume further that the TS is a zero-mean stationary process. Then $\beta_{0}=0$ too.

### 6.3.1 One-step-ahead Prediction

Given $\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ we want to forecast the value of $X_{n+1}$. The BLP of $X_{n+1}$ is

$$
f_{(n)}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} X_{n+1-i} .
$$

The coefficients $\beta_{i}$ satisfy (6.21), where $m=1$, that is

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \gamma(i-j)=\gamma(j), \quad j=1,2, \ldots, n
$$

A convenient way of writing these equations is using matrix notation. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma_{n} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{n}=\gamma_{n} \tag{6.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n} & =\{\gamma(i-j)\}_{j, i=1,2, \ldots, n} \\
\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n} & =\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{n}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \\
\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n} & =(\gamma(1), \ldots, \gamma(n))^{\mathrm{T}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ is nonsingular than the unique solution to (6.22) exists and is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n}=\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n} . \tag{6.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then the forecast of $X_{n+1}$ based on $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{n}, \ldots, X_{1}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$ can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{n+1}^{(n)}=\left(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{X} \tag{6.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

The mean square one-step-ahead prediction error denoted by $P_{n+1}^{(n)}$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
P_{n+1}^{(n)} & =\mathrm{E}\left(X_{n+1}-X_{n+1}^{(n)}\right)^{2} \\
& =\mathrm{E}\left(X_{n+1}-\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}\right)^{2} \\
& =\mathrm{E}\left(X_{n+1}^{2}-2 \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{X} X_{n+1}+\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}\right)  \tag{6.24}\\
& =\gamma(0)-2 \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}+\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n} \\
& =\gamma(0)-\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n} .
\end{align*}
$$

## Example 6.6. Prediction for an $\operatorname{AR}(2)$

Let

$$
X_{t}=\phi_{1} X_{t-1}+\phi_{2} X_{t-2}+Z_{t}
$$

be a causal $\operatorname{AR}(2)$ process. Suppose we have one observation of $X_{1}$. Then one-step-ahead prediction function is

$$
f_{(1)}=\beta_{1} X_{1},
$$

where

$$
\beta_{1}=\Gamma_{1}^{-1} \gamma_{1}=\frac{\gamma(1)}{\gamma(0)}=\rho(1)=\phi_{11}
$$

and we obtain

$$
X_{2}^{(1)}=\rho(1) X_{1}=\phi_{11} X_{1} .
$$

To predict $X_{3}$ based on $X_{2}$ and $X_{1}$ we need to calculate $\beta_{1}$ and $\beta_{2}$ in the prediction function

$$
f_{(2)}=\beta_{1} X_{2}+\beta_{2} X_{1} .
$$

These can be obtained from (6.23) as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\binom{\beta_{1}}{\beta_{2}} & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\gamma(0) & \gamma(1) \\
\gamma(1) & \gamma(0)
\end{array}\right)^{-1}\binom{\gamma(1)}{\gamma(2)} \\
& =\frac{1}{\gamma^{2}(0)-\gamma^{2}(1)}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\gamma(0) & -\gamma(1) \\
-\gamma(1) & \gamma(0)
\end{array}\right)\binom{\gamma(1)}{\gamma(2)} \\
& =\frac{1}{\gamma^{2}(0)-\gamma^{2}(1)}\binom{\gamma(0) \gamma(1)-\gamma(1) \gamma(2)}{-\gamma^{2}(1)+\gamma(0) \gamma(2)} \\
& =\binom{\frac{\gamma(1)(\gamma(0)-\gamma(2))}{\gamma^{2}(0)-\gamma^{2}(1)}}{\frac{\gamma(0) \gamma(2)-\gamma^{2}(1)}{\gamma^{2}(0)-\gamma^{2}(1)}}=\binom{\frac{\rho(1)(1-\rho(2))}{1-\rho^{2}(1)}}{\frac{\rho(2)-\rho^{2}(1)}{1-\rho^{2}(1)}}
\end{aligned}
$$

From the difference equations (6.17) calculated in Example 6.4 we know that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \rho(1)=\frac{\phi_{1}}{1-\phi_{2}} \\
& \rho(2)-\phi_{1} \rho(1)-\phi_{2} \rho(0)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

That is

$$
\rho(2)=\phi_{1} \rho(1)+\phi_{2} .
$$

It finally gives

$$
\binom{\beta_{1}}{\beta_{2}}=\binom{\phi_{1}}{\phi_{2}} .
$$

In fact, we can obtain this result directly from the model taking

$$
X_{3}^{(2)}=\phi_{1} X_{2}+\phi_{2} X_{1}
$$

which satisfies the prediction equations, namely

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{E}\left[\left(X_{3}-\phi_{1} X_{2}-\phi_{2} X_{1}\right) X_{1}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[Z_{3} X_{1}\right]=0 \\
& \mathrm{E}\left[\left(X_{3}-\phi_{1} X_{2}-\phi_{2} X_{1}\right) X_{2}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[Z_{3} X_{2}\right]=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

In general, for $n \geq 2$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{n+1}^{(n)}=\phi_{1} X_{n}+\phi_{2} X_{n-1} \tag{6.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e., $\beta_{j}=0$ for $j=3, \ldots, n$.

Similarly, it can be shown that a one-step-ahead prediction for $\operatorname{AR}(\mathrm{p})$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{n+1}^{(n)}=\phi_{1} X_{n}+\phi_{2} X_{n-1}+\ldots+\phi_{p} X_{n-p+1}, \text { for } n \geq p . \tag{6.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 6.8. An interesting connection between the PACF and vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n}$ is that in fact $\phi_{n n}=\beta_{n}$, the last element of the vector. For this reason, the vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n}$ is usually denoted by $\phi_{n}$ in the following way

$$
\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\beta_{1} \\
\beta_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\beta_{n}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\phi_{n 1} \\
\phi_{n 2} \\
\vdots \\
\phi_{n n}
\end{array}\right)=\boldsymbol{\phi}_{n}
$$

The prediction equation (6.22) for a general $\operatorname{ARMA}(\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q})$ model is more difficult to calculate, particularly for large values of $n$ when we would have to calculate an inverse of matrix $\Gamma_{n}$ of large dimension. Hence some recursive solutions to calculate the predictor (6.24) and the mean square error (6.25) were proposed, one of them by Levinson in 1947 and by Durbin in 1960.

The method is known as the Durbin-Levinson Algorithm. Its steps are following:

Step 1 Put $\phi_{00}=0, P_{1}^{(0)}=\gamma(0)$.
Step 2 For $n \geq 1$ calculate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{n n}=\frac{\rho(n)-\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \phi_{n-1, k} \rho(n-k)}{1-\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \phi_{n-1, k} \rho(k)} \tag{6.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

where, for $n \geq 2$

$$
\phi_{n k}=\phi_{n-1, k}-\phi_{n n} \phi_{n-1, n-k}, \quad k=1,2, \ldots, n-1 .
$$

Step 3 For $n \geq 1$ calculate

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n+1}^{(n)}=P_{n}^{(n-1)}\left(1-\phi_{n n}^{2}\right) . \tag{6.28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 6.9. Note, that the Durbin-Levinson algorithm gives an iterative method to calculate the PACF of a stationary process.

Remark 6.10. When we predict a value of the TS based only on one preceding datum, that is $n=1$, we obtain

$$
\phi_{11}=\rho(1),
$$

and hence the predictor $X_{2}^{(1)}=\rho(1) X_{1}$, or in general

$$
X_{n+1}^{(1)}=\rho(1) X_{n}
$$

and its mean square error

$$
P_{2}^{(1)}=\gamma(0)\left(1-\phi_{11}^{2}\right) .
$$

When we predict $X_{n+1}$ based on two preceding values, that is $n=2$, we obtain

$$
\phi_{22}=\frac{\rho(2)-\phi_{11} \rho(1)}{1-\phi_{11} \rho(1)}=\frac{\rho(2)-\rho^{2}(1)}{1-\rho^{2}(1)}
$$

which we have also obtained solving the matrix equation (6.22) for $\beta_{2}$,

$$
\phi_{21}=\phi_{11}-\phi_{22} \phi_{11}=\rho(1)\left(1-\phi_{22}\right) .
$$

Then the predictor is

$$
X_{n+1}^{(2)}=\phi_{21} X_{n}+\phi_{22} X_{n-1}
$$

and its mean square error

$$
P_{3}^{(2)}=\gamma(0)\left(1-\phi_{11}^{2}\right)\left(1-\phi_{22}^{2}\right) .
$$

We could continue these steps for $n=3,4, \ldots$.

Example 6.7. Prediction for an AR(2), continued

Using the Durbin-Levinson algorithm for $\operatorname{AR}(2)$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \phi_{11}=\rho(1)=\frac{\phi_{1}}{1-\phi_{2}} \\
& \phi_{22}=\frac{\rho(2)-\rho^{2}(1)}{1-\rho^{2}(1)}=\phi_{2} \\
& \phi_{21}=\rho(1)\left(1-\phi_{22}\right)=\phi_{1} \\
& \phi_{33}=\frac{\rho(3)-\phi_{1} \rho(2)-\phi_{2} \rho(1)}{1-\phi_{1} \rho(1)-\phi_{2} \rho(2)}=0 \\
& \phi_{31}=\phi_{21}-\phi_{33} \phi_{22}=\phi_{1} \\
& \phi_{32}=\phi_{22}-\phi_{33} \phi_{21}=\phi_{2} \\
& \phi_{44}=\frac{\rho(4)-\phi_{1} \rho(3)-\phi_{2} \rho(2)}{1-\phi_{1} \rho(1)-\phi_{2} \rho(2)}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

The results for $\phi_{33}$ and $\phi_{44}$ come from the fact that in the numerator we have the difference which is zero (difference equation).

Hence, one-step-ahead predictor for $\operatorname{AR}(2)$ is based only on two preceding values, as there are only two nonzero coefficients in the prediction function. As before, we obtain the result

$$
X_{n+1}^{(2)}=\phi_{1} X_{n}+\phi_{2} X_{n-1} .
$$

Remark 6.11. The PACF for $\operatorname{AR}(2)$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
\phi_{11} & =\frac{\phi_{1}}{1-\phi_{2}} \\
\phi_{22} & =\phi_{2}  \tag{6.29}\\
\phi_{\tau \tau} & =0 \text { for } \tau \geq 3 .
\end{align*}
$$

### 6.3.2 m-step-ahead Prediction

Given values of variables $\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ the m-steps-ahead predictor is

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{n+m}^{(n)}=\phi_{n 1}^{(m)} X_{n}+\phi_{n 2}^{(m)} X_{n-1}+\ldots+\phi_{n n}^{(m)} X_{1}, \tag{6.30}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\phi_{n j}^{(m)}=\beta_{j}$ satisfy the prediction equations (6.21). In matrix notation the prediction equations are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n} \boldsymbol{\phi}_{n}^{(m)}=\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{(m)}, \tag{6.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{(m)}=(\gamma(m), \gamma(m+1), \ldots, \gamma(m+n-1))^{\mathrm{T}}
$$

and

$$
\phi_{n}^{(m)}=\left(\phi_{n 1}^{(m)}, \phi_{n 2}^{(m)}, \ldots, \phi_{n n}^{(m)}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} .
$$

The mean square m-step-ahead prediction error is

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n+m}^{(n)}=\mathrm{E}\left[X_{n+m}-X_{n+m}^{(n)}\right]^{2}=\gamma(0)-\left(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{(m)}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{n}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}^{(m)} \tag{6.32}
\end{equation*}
$$

The mean square prediction error assesses the precision of the forecast and it is used to calculate so called prediction interval (PI). When the process is Gaussian the the PI is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{X}_{n+m}^{(n)} \pm u_{\alpha} \sqrt{\widehat{P}_{n+m}^{(n)}}, \tag{6.33}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $u_{\alpha}$ is such that $P\left(|U|<u_{\alpha}\right)=1-\alpha$, where $U$ is a standard normal r.v. For $\alpha=0.5$ we have $u_{\alpha} \approx 1.96$ and the $95 \%$ prediction interval boundaries are

$$
\left(\widehat{X}_{n+m}^{(n)}-1.96 \sqrt{\widehat{P}_{n+m}^{(n)}}, \widehat{X}_{n+m}^{(n)}+1.96 \sqrt{\widehat{P}_{n+m}^{(n)}}\right) .
$$

Here we have used the "hat" notation as usually we do not know the values of the model parameters and we have to use their estimators. We will discuss the model parameter estimation in the next section.

