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Forecasting with Competing Models of Daily Bitcoin Price in R

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Abstract

Bitcoin price exhibits patterns predictable on its historical pasts. We adopt ARIMA(auto), ARIMA(fix) models and the Holt-Winters filter (HWF) with trend plus additive seasonal HWF (γ [0,1]), and no seasonality HWF (γ [False]) to forecast the price of Bitcoin under three datasets–Actual (observed), Polynomial (fitted) and STL-Trend (fitted). We apply daily time-series from 1/09/2014–28/12/2020, and establish 18 models to forecast the price of Bitcoin. The results show that HWF (γ [0,1]) with lower limit fitted on STL-Trend provides the best prediction on the first training-sample, while ARIMA(fix) fitted on actual data outperform in the second training-set with the smallest Mean-Absolute-Error (MAE). The training-set forecast performance of the ARIMA(fix) for the actual function provides better performance with the least MAE. The HWF is appropriate for prediction of the daily Bitcoin price with the generalise STL-Trend function, but ARIMA(fix) is more accurate for the actual series.

Keywords: Bitcoin, ARIMA, Holt-Winters, Mean Absolute Error

Introduction

The cryptocurrency 'Bitcoin (BTC)' has generated consistent attention in recent years. BTC has global influences, leading to change in payment methods, financial assets and monetary policies (Pabuçcu, Ongan & Ongan, 2020). The virtual currency shares attribute as fiat money and speculative assets (Baur, Hong & Lee, 2018). There are concerns by investors, traders and researchers about the pattern of the daily price movement. The highly volatile digital currency is associated with significant price swings in hourly, daily and long-term valuations since its invention (Hung, Liu & Yang, 2020). Bitcoin price rises by 1000% from \$0.008 in 12 July to \$0.08 in 17 July, 2010. It becomes parity with US dollars on Feb 15, 2011 and reaches a landmark high of above \$19,500 on 18 December, 2017. Since Mid-

December 2020, the price has experienced a meteoric rise fluctuation between \$24,000 and \$27,000 which is reported to be above 40% gains from its 2017 peak.

The sporadic volatility of Bitcoin price has prompted attempts to forecast its daily future price (Munim, Shakil & Alon, 2019; Chen, Li & Sun, 2020). The price of Bitcoin has exhibited patterns which is largely predictable upon its historical past. Developing a suitable and accurate forecast model for next-day forecast of its price may increase traders' returns and trading activities (Munim et al., 2019). In addition, the fact that Bitcoin is continuously traded even less stronger currencies makes prediction of its price inevitable. The information asymmetric, dynamic behaviours of miners and uncertainties in the cryptocurrency markets make forecasting the price of Bitcoin a challenging task (Kliber et al., 2019). The choice of the forecasting model can have a significant effect on the performance of Bitcoin and the make the cryptocurrency market more efficient (Caporale, Gil-Alana, & Plastun, 2018). This paper aims to find a model that enables accurate forecast of daily Bitcoin price.

We establish forecast interval that can guide market participants in the speculation of Bitcoin price. We extend the frontier of research in two ways. First, available studies (McNally, Roche & Caton, 2018; Munim et al., 2019; Mudassir et al., 2020) forecast Bitcoin price with actual time-series. There is need for generalise function data to be applied for empirical analysis, particularly for forecasting rather than actual data with which we construct the general function. Hence, our study establishes predictions predicated upon two generalisation of the daily Bitcoin price time-series. The investigations allow us to partition the dataset into training and testing fragments before the estimation of the predictive models. Second, we estimate, validate our models and explain which one is the best predictor for the Bitcoin price with more recent method of summing the absolute mean errors and obtain 18 competing models with which we decide the best performance. The rest of the study is organized as follows: Section two is the literature review, section three describes data and methodology, section four presents results and section five concludes.

Prior Review

Generally, the literature on Bitcoin and other cryptocurrencies are quite huge. However, only a few consider forecasting out-of-sample property of Bitcoin prices. Some studies focus on Bitcoin price formation and clustering (Urquhart, 2018), factors that explain and predict of Bitcoin price (Jang & Lee, 2018; Guizani & Nafti, 2019; Hung et al., 2020; Kraaijeveld & De-Smedt, 2020; Gbadebo et al., 2021; Jaquart, Dann & Weinhardt, 2021), detection of speculative bubbles in Bitcoin (Corbet, Lucey, & Yarovaya, 2018), time-of-day periodicities trading of Bitcoin (Baur, Cahill, Godfrey, & Liu, 2019), the estimation of price volatility (Troster et al., 2019; Hung et al., 2020), the examination of Bitcoin exchange and crypto-finance (Goutte, Guesmi & Saadi, 2019; Jeon, Samarbakhsh, & Hewitt, 2020).

In the context of factors that predicts Bitcoin prices, Jang and Lee (2018) adopt the Bayesian ANNs as well as benchmark linear regression to predict the daily Bitcoin price from September 2011 to August 2017. They examine the influence of blockchain information (block size, trading volume, transactions per block, number of transactions, hash rate, and miner's revenue), alongside asset and commodity prices (stock, oil, CBOE volatility index [VIX], gold). The Bayesian artificial neural networks (ANN) outperform the linear and nonlinear benchmark models in predicting the daily Bitcoin log-price time-series. Kraaijeveld and De-Smedt (2020) use bivariate causality to determine how Twitter sentiment predict prices of major cryptocurrencies (Bitcoin and other strong alternative coins as Ethereum, XRP, EOS, Bitcoin Cash, Litecoin, Stellar, Cardano and TRON). The paper finds that Twitter sentiment have low predictive power for Bitcoin, Litecoin and Bitcoin Cash returns. The outcome is connected to notable observation that around 14% of the tweets are from automated Bot platforms. Gbadebo, et al., (2021) use Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) and cointegration bounds testing to verify how the volatility of Bitcoin price responds to the overall cryptocurrency market capitalisation, equity index, Bitcoin transaction volume and Google search. The paper confirms existence of long-run cointegration. The study shows that market fundamentals, rather than information, drive volatility of Bitcoin price. Except the equity index, other variables are confirmed to positively explain Bitcoin price volatility. Jaquart et al. (2021) employ machine learning ANN, long short-term memory (LSTM), random forests (RF) and gradient boosting to analyse how indicators, such as technical, blockchain, sentiment and returns of traditional asset (stock, VIX, gold), explain minutes to

hours high-frequency Bitcoin prices forecast, during March 4, 2019 to December 10, 2019. The study show that the quantile established long-short trading strategy generates about 39% returns.

Some studies compare benchmarks regression model with different deep and machine learning (ML) estimations (Roche & Caton, 2018; Adcock & Gradojevic, 2019; Mallqui & Fernandes, 2019; Munim et al., 2019; Rizwan, Narejo & Javed, 2019; Aygün & Günay Kabakçı, 2021; Mudassir et al., 2020; Basher & Sadorsky, 2022; Ye et al., 2022) to forecast bitcoin prices. McNally at a. (2018) employ both Bayesian recurrent neural network (RNN) and LSTM to forecast the daily movement in the price of Bitcoin. With the LSTM forecast the high performance with the classification accuracy achieved was approximately 52% with the root mean squared error (RMSE) of 8%. The paper presents that forecasting with nonlinear deep learning models outperformed the autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model. Velankar, Valecha and Maji (2018) use the generalized linear (GLM) model and Bayesian regression to forecast the daily average price change signals and uncover a prediction accuracy rate of 51% with the GLM. Adcock and Gradojevic (2019) use the feed-forward neural networks (FNN), GARCH-M, ARIMAX, random walk and multiple linear regression to predict Bitcoin prices. They examine how 50-200 days moving averages (MA) of bitcoin volume and VIX affect its prices, which shows little significance on its forecasts. The FNN indicates the highest accurate density and point forecasts relative to other models. Demir et al. (2019) predict the price of Bitcoin using methods such as long LSTM, NB, as well as the nearest neighbour technique. These methods achieved prediction accuracy between 81.2% and 97.2%. Mallqui and Fernandes (2019) employ artificial neural network (ANN) and support vector machines (SVM) algorithms in regression models to forecast the maximum, minimum and closing Bitcoin prices. He concludes that SVM algorithm outperformed the ANN with lowest mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) of 1.58%.

Munim et al. (2019) use ARIMA and neural network autoregression (NNAR) tools to forecast daily Bitcoin price from 1 January, 2012 to 4 October, 2018. They adopt the static forecast and predict next day Bitcoin price with and without model re-estimation of the prediction model for each step. They split the data into two- training and test sets. For the first training set, the NNAR outperforms the ARIMA, but for the second set, the ARIMA outperforms NNAR. The ARIMA with re-estimation at each step outperforms NNAR in the two test sets periods. Rizwan et al. (2019) initiates the deep learning (Bayesian ANN, RNN and LSTM) networks to complete bitcoin price forecasts. Both indicates forecast accuracy of 52% and 8%, and outperforms the ARIMA and benchmark linear regression poor predictions. Subsequent, the Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) model are applied to forecast the price. Both RNN and LSTM show GPU that beat those implemented by 94.70% for the training time.

A number of studies employ only ML approach. Mudassir et al (2020) apply regression models and high-performance ML classification for forecasting the movements daily, weekly, monthly and quarterly Bitcoin price. The feasible and high-performance with classification models scores about 65% accuracy for daily forecast and between 62-64% for others predictions. The error percentage is as low as 1.44% for the daily price forecast, while it ranges from 2.88 to 4.10% for other frequency horizons. Chen et al. (2020) verifies statistical models (ARIMA, LDA, Logit, and QDA) and machine learning (SVM, RF, XGB, and LSTM) methods to forecast 5-minute intervals (high frequency) Bitcoin prices, during July 17, 2017 to January 17, 2018. The analysis completed indicates forecast accuracy achieve 65% and 66% for the ML algorithms and statistical methods, respectively. Lahmiri & Bekiros (2020) implement the 3 ML techniques such as the SVM, Gaussian Poisson regressions (GRP), and 3 ANN (FFNN, Bayesian regularization, BRNN, and radial basis function networks, RBFNN) to predict price of Bitcoin, Ripple and Digital Cash. The entropy evaluation train and test sets identify high levels of stochasticity, long memory traits and topological complexity. The performance metrics shows optimal estimates for the SVR, GRP and FFNN through the Bayesian optimization, with the BRNN outperforming in forecast accuracy, and its convergence is remarkably fast and unhindered. Pabuccu et al. (2020) use SVM, ANN, Naïve Bayes (NB), RF, and logit model to predict Bitcoin prices for both continuous (price returns) and discrete (price direction) data. The continuous sample indicate that the RF is the most accurate, while NB is least accurate. The ANN shows highest predictive accuracy, whereas the NB is least for the price direction.

Aygün and Günay Kabakçı (2021) examine the MA, ARIMA, and ML algorithms (ANN, RNN) and convolutional neural network (CNN) of Bitcoin price predictions. Based on the MAE, MSE, and MAPE, RNN yields better results than other methods. Hamayel and Owda (2021) apply three

machine learning methods (LSTM, bi-LSTM and GRU to predict Bitcoin, Litecoin, and Ethereum, during from January 1, 2018 to June 30, 2021. The GRU has the smallest RMSE and MAPE, hence, outperformed other algorithms. RMSE is smaller for Litecoin, Ethereum and Bitcoin accordingly. Ye et al. (2022) proposes an ensemble ML model to forecast Bitcoin's next 30 minutes prices. Using the technical indicators, sentiment indexes and Bitcoin prices, they amalgamate LSTM and GRU with stacking ensemble system during September 2017 to January 2021. The results display that the near-real time forecast with MAE of 88.74% exhibit better performance than the daily forecasts. Basher and Sadorsky (2022) apply machine learning (random forests and bagging) classifiers and typical logit models to predict Bitcoin prices. The paper finds that the random forests and both bagging classifiers range between 75% and 80% for the 5-day forecasts, and above 85% for 10 to 20 days prediction.

Some studies (Atsalakis et al., 2019; Kundra et al., 2022) combine different statistical or machine learnings tools to develop hybrid methods to predict Bitcoin price. Atsalakis et al. (2019) propose a hybrid Neuro-Fuzzy controller (PATSOS) to improve the accuracy of models that predict the direction of change for daily Bitcoin price. The evaluation identifies that PATSOS is more robust and outperforms alternatively advanced two computational intelligence models, one developed from a simpler Neuro-fuzzy, and the other from ANN. The simulation shows that Bitcoin returns from trading with signals of PATSOS is 71.21% higher than returns obtained from naïve or simple buy-and-hold strategy. Kundra et al. (2022) computational intelligence to develop a black widow updated rain optimization (BWURO) algorithm. BWURO integrates CNN and bidirectional long/short-term memory (BiLSTM) to form an optimal hybrid model of two-level ensemble classifier to examine the volatility of bitcoin prices. When evaluated, the result shows that the mean absolute error (MAE) of BWURO model is approximately 0.023, and it is 59.8%, 62.14%, 64.08%, and 72.2%, better than other hybrid as BWURO+Bi-LSTM, NN+BWURO, SVM+BWURO, and CNN+BWURO, respectively.

Methods

Pre-test

We start the estimation process by first checking the stochastic characterisation of the Bitcoin price time-series, denoted y_t . Munim et al. (2019) applies both Augmented-Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Philip-Perron (PP) on Bitcoin price and its log-transformation to confirm that the data is non-stationarity. We apply the Elliott–Rothenberg–Stock (ERS, 1996)'s DF-GLS and Kwiatkowski–Phillips–Schmidt–Shin (KPSS, 1992) tests.

The DF-GLS test verifies stationarity by assuming that a detrended y_t , denoted $y_t^d = y_t - \hat{\beta}_0(\alpha) - \hat{\beta}_1(\alpha)t$ [in which the intercept $\hat{\beta}_0(\alpha)$ and trend $\hat{\beta}_1(\alpha)$ are obtained by regressing $d(y_t|\alpha)$ on $d(1|\alpha)$ and $d(t|\alpha)$] follows a data generating process as:

$$y_t^d = \vartheta y_{t-1}^d + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \Delta y_{t-i}^d + a_t$$
 (1)

The null $\vartheta = 1$ (non-stationarity) tested against the alternative $\vartheta = \overline{\vartheta} < 1$ is rejected, if the test statistics, $\tau_{\tau} > ERS_{\alpha}$ critical value. The KPSS assumes that y_t follows ARIMA(0,1,1) process:

 $\Delta y_t = \theta_0 + a_t - \theta a_t - 1$ (2) The test uses a test statistic, $\tau_\eta = T^{-2} \sum_1^T \hat{S}_t^2 / \hat{\sigma}_\ell^2$; $e_t = y_t - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 t$ and $\hat{S}_{,} = \sum_{i=1}^t e_i$. $\hat{\sigma}_\ell^2$ is an estimator of the variance, σ^2 . The null, $\vartheta = 1$, $\tau_\eta = 0$ (implying y_t is stationary) tested against the alternative $\tau_\eta > 0$ is rejected, if $\tau_\eta > KPSS_\alpha$ critical value.

Generalise functions of the actual data

Here, we establish two generalised – a Polynomial and an STL (Seasonal Trend decomposition using Loess) function of the Actual data. The polynomial function (3) is a simple generalisation of y_t as time trends. The function fits y_t on time (*T*):

$$y_t = \psi_0 + \psi_1 T + \psi_1 T^2 \tag{3}$$

With its fitted value given as, $\hat{y}_p = y_t - \sum_{i=0}^2 \hat{\psi}_i T^i$.

We adopt the STL to decompose the y_t . The STL splits y_t into three - trend, seasonal and random effects. The cycle identification is done with spectral analysis which shows the characteristics of oscillations of different wave lengths. The spectrum of a process y_t with an autocorrelation function (ω_{τ}) where, $\sum_{\tau}^{n} |\omega_{\tau}| < \infty$ is:

$$y(\omega_{\tau}) = \omega + 2\sum_{\tau=1}^{\infty} \omega_{\tau} \cos(2\pi\omega\tau)$$
(4)

the function computes the correlation between data at time t, y_t and data at time τ steps before, y_{τ} . We swift the time-series components of y_t , and obtain the Trend component, \hat{y}_T .

The forecast models

The literature identifies two approaches for time-series forecasting. First is the model-based approach which uses a function of explanatory variables to forecast the future value of the dependent variable. The result is largely limited by some prior assumptions made on the distribution of data. These assumptions may have effects on forecast performance (Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, 2018). Aside, since Bitcoin lacks correlation with other financial assets (Chowdhury & Mendelson, 2014), the prediction of Bitcoin price on some economic and financial indicators is still ambiguous (Guizani & Nafti, 2019; Hung et al., 2020; Kraaijeveld & De-Smedt, 2020; Gbadebo et al., 2021). A second approach – the univariate or pure model approach – employs the historical data of a time-series. This methods absolve any defects from prior assumptions on non-linear relationships, as autocorrelation and non-stationarity. Some studies confirms the existence of correlation amongst past and present values of Bitcoin price (Caporale et al., 2018). We employ two univariate method: a seasonal ARIMA model and an exponential smoothing Holt-Winters filter (HWF).

First is the ARIMA model which is a Box-Jenkins (1976) approach with extensive empirical applications. Typically, an ARIMA model has an autoregressive [AR(p)] and a moving average [MA(q)] components with three parameters (p, d, q), often denoted as ARIMA (p, d, q), where the *p* is the order of the AR component, *d* is the number of differencing required to attain a stationary [ARMA(p, q)] model and *q* is the order of the MA component. We define, $D_1 = (y_t - y_{t-1}), D_2 = (y_t - y_{t-1}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-2}), \dots, D_d = (y_t - y_{t-1}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-d})$ as first, second, ..., and *d* differencing, respectively:

$$y_{t} = \mu$$

$$+ \theta_{1}y_{t-1} + \theta_{2}y_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_{p}y_{t-p}$$

$$+ \delta_{1}\varepsilon_{t-1} + \delta_{2}\varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \delta_{q}\varepsilon_{t-q}$$

$$+ d_{1}D_{t-1} + d_{2}D_{t-2} \dots d_{d}D_{t-d} + \varepsilon_{t}$$
(5)

 μ is the intercept (drift or mean of the time series, which is often zero), and the model has a variance, σ^2 . y_{t-i} (i = 1, ...p) is previous time series periods until lag p, θ_i is the parameter for y_{t-i} , ε_t is the error term in time t, ε_{t-j} is the error term of all previous periods until lag q and δ_j (j = 1, ...q) is the parameter for ε_{t-j} . We find the order on automatic iteration [ARIMA (auto)], select a fix parameters for ARIMA (fix), estimate the variance, σ^2 (Table 3), compute the MAE (Table 4) and present plots for *h*-step-ahead predictions (Fig.4a – 4g). Some studies have applied the ARIMA for Bitcoin price prediction (McNally et al., 2018; Munim et al., 2019).

Second is the Holt-Winters filter (HWF) attributed to Holt (1957) and Winters (1960). The model is an extension of exponential smoothing model extensively apply in time-series forecasting. It is a typical deterministic model containing a trend, seasonal fluctuations and stochastic error components. The HWF computes a smoothed series $\hat{y}_{t+h|t}$ with recursive schemes of updating equations which allows for an iterative computation of an *h*-step-ahead predictions based on two algorithms – an additive and a multiplicative protocol (Hyndman & Athanasopoulos 2018). For this study, we adopt the additive method which parameters are defined:

$$p_{t} = \alpha(y_{t} - s_{t-k}) + (1 - \alpha)(p_{t-1} + b_{t-1})$$

$$b_{t} = \beta^{*}(p_{t} - p_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta^{*})b_{t-1}$$

$$s_{t} = \gamma(y_{t} - p_{t-1} - b_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)s_{t-k}$$

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = p_{t} + hb_{t} + s_{t-k+h_{k}^{+}}$$
(6)
(7)

The equations for the time series level (p_t) , trend (b_t) , and seasonality (s_t) depend on three The algorithm weights or smoothing parameters $(\alpha, \beta, \text{ and } \gamma)$ belonging to close interval [0, 1] is estimated for y_t with intrinsic assumption that older data have lesser power to the forecasted data relative to current ones. Equation (7) is the forecast $(\hat{y}_{t+h|t})$ at time t + h given data up to time t, and the constant k is the seasonality. The Estimation of , β , and γ is through the minimization of randomly chosen measures of errors (e.g., the sum of absolute values of the residuals of the model). We present prediction intervals for the HWF with trend plus additive seasonal HWF ($\gamma[0,1]$), as well as with trend

but no seasonal component HWF (γ [False]). We estimate , β , and γ (Table 3), compute the MAE (Table 4) and present plots for 730-step-ahead predictions (Fig.4a – 4g). Some papers (Brügner, 2017) applied the Holt-winters method.

Forecast Accuracy

The mean absolute error (MAE) is adopted to judge the best prediction technique when we run the predictions. We use the values of the forecast to evaluate predictions with the historic data from the same period. The model with the least minimum errors is considered as the best prediction model.

MAE =
$$\sum_{t}^{n} (\hat{y}_{t+h|t} - y_t) / n$$
 (8)

The measure $(\hat{y}_{t+h|t} - y_t) = e_t$ is the forecast error, $\hat{y}_{t+h|t}$ is forecasted price at time t, n is the total # of observations. For the HWF, we added two additional predictions – the prediction interval forecast which provides uncertainty around a single (the fitted) value, i.e., the upper limit HWF(γ [0,1]; upper) and the lower limit HWF($\gamma[0,1]$; lower). The HWF is done at 5% precision level. In all, we obtain forecast for 18 predictive models. Before we compute the MAE and determine which model best predict the Bitcoin price, we arbitrarily divided the actual daily Bitcoin data into training-sample (insample) and test-sample (out-sample) periods. In line with Munim et al. (2019), we consider predictions for the two different training-samples and tests-samples.

We apply a *library(forecast)* and *library(fpp)* in RStudio software for the estimation. The R programme reports ARIMA(p, d, q), but we follow textbook liturgy and report our result as ARIMA(p,q,d) earlier defined. For the ARIMA(auto) model, the *auto.arima()* function returns the best ARIMA model, based on either Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) or Bayesian information criterion (BIC) value. The estimation is done with loglikelihood (LL) method. We adopt Autocorrelation Function (ACF) and Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF) to decide the parameter (p,q,d) for the ARIMA(fix) model. We employ the *HoltWinter()* function to obtain the parameters of HWF. The *HoltWinter()* [*, *] reports upper and lower limits, based on the predictions interval.

Data

We use daily closing price of Bitcoin between 01 Sept., 2014 and 28 Dec., 2020. This period is chosen putting into consideration the large volume of transactions in the bitcoin and the pattern of price movements that occurred during these dates. Unlike some machine learning studies (McNally et al., 2018; Mallqui, 2019) that show forecast for bitcoin returns, we focus on bitcoin price according to Munim et al. (2019). We filter the daily series and eliminate data for leap years (29\02\2016 and 29\02\2020) which may interruption the consistency and unification of data frequency of 365/year during estimation. The data which covers 2309 days is sourced from Blockchain.com (01\09\2014 - $14\langle 09 \rangle 2014$) and Finance.yahoo.com $(15\langle 09 \rangle 2014 - 28 \rangle 12 \rangle 20)$.

Results

Statistical Description

Fig.1a shows the plot of daily bitcoin price, y_t (full sample). The price hits above \$700 in 2014 but would later fall. In same year a leading Bitcoin exchanges (Mt. Gox) which controls about 70% transactions globally was reportedly hacked and a total of 850,000 BTCs own by customers were stolen. The exchange suspended trading activities and the incident pose lack of confidence on the security of Bitcoin exchange. Hence, the price dropped and stood at \$434 at 2015 end. Bitcoin experience spectacular price increase in 2017 to an all-time high of \$19,483.06 on 18 December, 2017, but later dropped to \$12,616.64 on Dec., 23. The price decline continued during 2018 and 2019 below its 2017 peak, but experience a full recovery from previous peak by Dec., 2020. The price has shown a trajectory path of a close reverse L-shape pattern between 2014 and 2018. The shape would later turn an omega ω – an indication of drastic fall and recovery between 2017 peak and Dec., 2020. A cursory look at the plot shows the data may not be stationary, as would be later confirmed. The plots of difference (Fig.1b) and log-differences (Fig.1c) show large volatility clustering around zero with notable outliers.

Table 1 presents the statistical properties of Bitcoin price data. The standard deviations of the price indicate higher spread in the full sample than in the training and test samples. The distributions of all the series are asymmetric (positively skewed), although the full sample is less skewed as compare to the sub-samples. Both the test-sample and full-sample appear to be mesokurtic (moderately peaked), while the training sample is leptokurtic (high peaked). The Jarque-Bera values for all series are significant, rejecting the normality null.

We observe that the ERS test statistics for the training dataset confusingly signals stationarity, but this was dislodged when linear trend was incorporated. The ERS_{α} statistics suggest we accept the test null of non-stationarity since $\tau_{\tau} > ERS_{\alpha}$, with or without trends inclusion in the test equation. With the all the KPSS, we reject the test null of stationarity as the test are highly significance at 1%. Hence, all results confirm non-stationarity for the training-, test- and full sample for all data frequencies. For the first difference series of bitcoin price, we reject the null (of non-stationarity) for the DF-GLS test, and accept the null of stationarity for the KPSS test, both at 1% and 5%. This indicates the bitcoin price is integrated order of one, I(1).

Generalise (Polynomial and STL) Functions

The actual series depicted by Fig.1a looks chaotic, and for prediction purpose we estimate the polynomial and STL functions. For the polynomial model, we obtain $\psi_0 = 7.784e+08$, $\psi_1 =$ -7.741e+05 and $\psi_2 = 1.925e+02$. The fitted values, $\hat{y}_p = 7.784e+08 - 7.741e+05T + 1.925e+02T^2$, was plotted (the purple line in Fig.3a) which would be later use for predictions. Fig.2 shows how the SLT decompose the actual data (topmost graph) into key time-series components. We observe that the trend is explosives, the remainder is convergence and mean reversing, and the seasonality is both oscillatory and stable around it zero mean. For STL split, we adopt the STL Trend (third line) for prediction purpose.

Figure 3a shows a plot of the Actual data, STL-Trend and Polynomial function of BTC price. The actual function looks chaotic, nonlinear with spiky striations. The Polynomic function is so general and simple that its prediction smooths the actual data. For nonlinear series, Lahmiri et al. (2018) suggest a log-transformed comparism to obtain suitable estimates. Figure 3b presents an analogous logarithmic transformation plot. Unlike the level form and as it would be expected, the log-transformation exhibits similar nonlinear but relative smooth striations with protrusions in periods of price peaks.

Estimated ARIMA and HWF Models

The study aims to find a model that enables more accurate prediction of daily bitcoin price. To do this, we find the order of the ARIMA model and the HWF optimal smoothing parameters for the forecast models. The Table 3 shows the appropriate order chosen for the Polynomial, STL and Actual series are ARIMA(0,5,2), ARIMA(0,0,2) and ARIMA(5,2,2), respectively. These orders are applied to construct the ARIMA forecast models and for the prediction of the three Bitcoin price functions. These HWF parameters, α , β and γ are presented for the STL, Polynomial and Actual functions. The parameter would be applied to construct the Holt-Winters models and predict Bitcoin price for 730 days, until 27-12-2023. The forecast interval is shown for the polynomial, STL-trend and Actual data.

	Sample (↓))
Training	Test	Full
1343.72	8689.83	4851.59
450.28	8343.28	3857.72
19497.40	23869.83	23869.83
178.10	3236.76	178.10
2391.39	3482.74	4709.02
4.19	1.29	0.91
24.72	5.96	3.50
27210.39	710.19	339.82
0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
1205	1105	2309
	Training 1343.72 450.28 19497.40 178.10 2391.39 4.19 24.72 27210.39 0.0000 1205	Training Test 1343.72 8689.83 450.28 8343.28 19497.40 23869.83 178.10 3236.76 2391.39 3482.74 4.19 1.29 24.72 5.96 27210.39 710.19 0.0000 0.0000 1205 1105

Table 1: Data Determinist	ic Characteristics
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	-			D	F-GLS	KPSS					
	ata		Ν	ull (H_0) :	Non-station	nary Null (H_0) : Stationary				arv	
	Д	Sample (\downarrow)	т	1%	5%	Prob	Т.,	1%	5%	Proh	
		The factor of	ι _τ	2.57	1.04	0.00	<u>τη</u>	0.74	0.46	0.00	
	y_t	Training	3.91	-2.57	-1.94	0.00	2.13	0.74	0.46	0.00	
		lest	-0.54	-2.57	-1.94	0.59	1.24	0.74	0.46	0.00	
		Full	1.62	-2.57	-1.94	0.11	2.29	0.74	0.46	0.00	
		Training	-0.02	-3.48	-2.89	0.98	0.63	0.22	0.15	0.00	
		Test	0.25	-3.48	-2.89	0.81	0.53	0.22	0.15	0.00	
		Full	-1.14	-3.48	-2.89	0.25	0.19	0.22	0.15	0.00	
	Δy_t	Training	2.78	-2.57	-1.94	0.01	1.02	0.74	0.46	0.30	
		Test	-2.43	-2.57	-1.94	0.02	1.01	0.74	0.46	0.77	
		Full	-46.35	-2.57	-1.94	0.00	0.29	0.74	0.46	0.12	
		Training	1.67	-3.48	-2.89	0.00	0.12	0.22	0.15	0.11	
		Test	-2.69	-3.48	-2.89	0.01	0.10	0.22	0.15	0.41	
		Full	-46.74	-3.48	-2.89	0.00	0.09	0.22	0.15	0.52	
	The	bold figures ind	licate interc	ept with li	near trend, a	ll others are	with no (ti	me) trend			
									Sourc	e: Authors	
		Fig1a: Daily Bitcoin P	rice in USD (01-	09-14 to 28-12	-2020)	1	Fig.1b: Daily Bite	coin Price Differ	ences (Returns) fr	rom 01-09-14 to 28-12	-2020
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Table 2: Stationarity Test for BTC price



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Discussions

We check the model's performance and decide the model suitable for predicting the Bitcoin price. For cross-validation, we arbitrarily split the actual Bitcoin data into two different training-samples and test-samples. While there is no theoretical underpinning in choosing the sample duration, we are concern about the pattern the bitcoin plots (Fig.1a) formed overtime. We introspect the pattern formed choose the periods from 01/09/14 to 18/12/17 (1205 days) as first training-sample. The first test-sample data range from 19/12/17 - 28/12/2020, with 1104 days. The second training-sample is considered from 01/09/14 to 30/06/19 (1764 days), with test-sample data set of 01/07/19 - 28/12/2020 (545 days). We compare the computed MAE for 18 models, and adjudge the one with the least MAE as best predictor. Table 4 shows that although the HWF(γ [0,1]; lower-limit) for the STL-trend provides the best prediction on the first training-sample with the smallest MAE of \$1586.408, but the MAE of \$1005.855 for the ARIMA on the actual function outperform it in the second training-sample. The discussion show that the Holt-Winters model is more appropriate for prediction of the daily bitcoin price with STL-trend as the time series, while ARIMA(fix) model provide more accurate when actual data is applied.

Fig. 4a-4g show the predictions for the models. The black lines represent actual data function, red represents the STL-Trend, and purple represents the polynomial function. Each prediction line is identified by the legend on the plots. The other two variants of green lines "yellow green" and "green4" are for the HWF(γ [0,1]; upper limit) and HWF(γ [0,1]; lower limit) prediction interval, respectively. Fig.4a shows the predictions for the polynomial function. The plot shows that with the polynomial series, the predictions are closed within similar interval with little precisions. The various prediction is within regions that are not too different from each other. The prediction with similar techniques. This changes when same prediction models are applied for STL-Trend and Actual function. Fig. 4b and 4c present predictions for the STL-Trend based and Actual function, respectively. Both plots show quite different predictions values for the future with larger variability for the predictions when compare with Fig 4a. Fig. 4d, 4f and 4g, respectively show plots for all predictions in level form with predictions interval (shaded regions) based on actual, polynomial and STL-trend functions of the bitcoin price. Fig.4e show plot for predictions for log-transform with predictions based on STL-trend function of the full-sample of the Bitcoin price.



Fig.4a: 730-days ahead predictions for BTC price with polynomial function











Fig.4d: Predictions for All Models with Polynomial, STL-Trend and Actual Functions



Fig.4f: Predictions for All Models with Polynomial, STL-Trend and Actual Functions



Fig.4e: Predictions for Log of All Models with Polynomial, STL-Trend & Actual Functions









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				Ē	ainine-Samn	le Estimations					Test-Samule	Estimations		
Forecast		Model		First	- 		Second			First			Second	
Models		Information	Polynomial	STL	Actual	Polynomial	STL	Actual	Polynomial	STL	Actual	Polynomial	STL	Actual
ARIMA (Auto)		(p, q, d)	(0,5,2)	(0,0,2)	(5,2,2)	(0,2,5)	(0, 2, 0)	(1,1,1)	(0,5,2)	(0,2,0)	(5,2,0)	(5, 2, 0)	(0,2,0)	(1, 2, 1)
		σ^2	0.01	0.52	29182.00	0.00	0.52	73078.00	0.01	0.13	165619.00	0.00	0.45	136457.00
		TL	-5705.94	-2529.17	-7909.38	11608.46	-2529.17	24779.59	-5705.94	-465.58	-8161.03	11608.46	1788.90	-3966.86
	s	AIC	11399.88	5060.34	15834.76	-23204.92	5060.34	-12386.79	11399.88	933.17	16334.06	-23204.92	3579.81	7939.73
	oitei	AICc	-11399.81	5060.34	15834.88	-23204.87	5060.34	24779.60	-11399.81	933.17	16334.14	23204.87	3579.81	7939.77
	itati	BIC	-11369.31	5066.09	15875.52	-23172.06	5066.09	24796.02	-11369.31	938.26	16364.08	23172.06	3585.28	7952.61
ARIMA (Fix)	5	(p, q, d)	(3, 3, 3)	(1, 1, 3)	(4, 2, 3)	(3, 3, 3)	(1, 3, 1)	(4, 3, 2)	(3, 3, 3)	(1, 1, 3)	(4, 3, 2)	(3, 3, 3)	(1, 1, 3)	(4, 3, 2)
		σ^2	4.25E-13	0.5253	89615	2.09E-15	0.5253	89615	4.25E-13	0.1265	142979	2.09E-15	0.4457	136629
		TL	15452.88	-2531.85	16427.47	27293.62	-2531.85	-16427.5	15452.88	-466.44	-8082.61	27293.62	-1791.24	-3966.69
		AIC	-30891.76	5069.71	32868.93	-54573.24	5069.71	32868.93	-30891.76	938.89	16179.23	-54573.24	3588.48	7947.38
HWF (False)		α	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.9559388	1	1	1
		β	1	-	0.015636	-	-	0.00182	_	-	0.07731518	-	-	0.076719
		γ	False	False	False	False	False	False	False	False	False	False	False	False
	sıə	p_t	6931.2063	15395.39	15802.9	8225.109	15395.39	10801.68	6931.2063	8081.15	22910.7002	8225.1094	5729.807	22903.08
	ıəu	b_t	18.94676	26.45913	116.4888	6.708271	26.45913	9.76225	18.94676	25.5562	144.8431	6.708271	2.196545	144.6835
	Para	s_t						NOT APP	LICABLE					
HWF(γ [0,1]; fitted)	gui	α	0.996374	1	1	0.999179	1	1	0.996374	1	0.9773821	0.9991793	1	0.977382
	qtoc	<i>a</i>	0.0106042	7020CV U	0.015083 5	1721000	702067 U		0.0106942	012560	0069220000	2032100.0	0 120210	676600
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		b_{t}	1.77E+01	25.95497	113.4674	5.96E+00	25.95497	0.447356	1.77E+01	25.4731	88.733767	5.96E+00	2.17862	88.73377
		S,			-			NOT REI	ORTED					
HWF(γ [0,1]; upper)					PREI	DICTION BAS	ED ON FIT	TED HWF(0) UPPER LIM	IT INTERV	'AL			
HWF(γ [0,1]; lower)					PREL	DICTION BAS	ED ON FIT	TED HWF(0)	LOWER LIN	IT INTERV	/AL			
Source: Authors Co		tation with	RStudio.											

Table 3: Statistics and Parameters of Forecast Models

		18 Prediction	Trainin	g-Sample	Test-Sample	
		Models	First	Second	First	Second
1		ARIMA (Auto)	6881.624	3729.450	6547.115	7828.758
2	al	ARIMA (Fix)	6881.624	3729.450	6547.117	7828.759
3	Om	$HWF(\gamma[False])$	6881.647	3729.452	6547.092	7828.757
4	ulyn	HWF($\gamma[0,1]$; Fitted)	6882.859	3730.205	6545.880	7828.445
5	P(HWF(γ [0,1]; Upper limit)	6846.122	3689.361	6582.617	7868.848
6		HWF(γ [0,1]; Lower limit)	6919.596	3771.050	6509.143	7787.159
7		ARIMA (Auto)	1590.049	3460.579	7703.647	5328.943
8	pu	ARIMA (Fix)	1590.081	3460.611	7703.681	5328.97
9	Ire	$HWF(\gamma[False])$	1590.049	3460.579	7703.647	5328.943
10		HWF(γ [0,1]; Fitted)	1590.043	3460.573	7703.624	5328.888
11	Š	HWF(γ [0,1]; Upper limit)	1593.678	3464.209	7710.414	5332.452
12		HWF(γ [0,1]; Lower limit)	1586.408*	3456.938	1696.834	5325.325
13		ARIMA (Auto)	2125.847	1111.299	2474.710	2597.810
14		ARIMA (Fix)	2219.458	1005.855**	2669.360	2661.210
15	Actual	$HWF(\gamma[False])$	2087.589	1149.830	2652.480	2644.751
16		HWF(γ [0,1]; Fitted)	2089.433	1154.919	2826.200	2826.267
17		HWF(γ [0,1]; Upper limit)	2532.024	1560.190	2647.930	2647.930
18		HWF(γ [0,1]; Lower limit)	1646.843	1749.648	2004.480	2004.481
	244	Best for only the first training sample; **	*Overall best f	or the 18 predic	tions	

 Table 4: Computed Mean Absolute Errors

*Best for only the first training sample; **Overall best for the 18 predict Source: Author's Computed with RStudio

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Implications

The study predicts daily bitcoin prices using observed data, and datasets from constructed generalise functions based on pattern exhibited by the price fluctuations. Because of markets information asymmetric, increasing economic uncertainties, erratic behaviours of cryptocurrency miners and other markets dynamics, adopting a predictive model to understand the directions and possible predictable value of Bitcoins is important. Hence, the findings of this study have some significant implications for Bitcoin, cryptocurrency and general financial markets, as well as for research in the field of empirical finance.

First, the results provide guide for investors to make informed decisions when considering investment in the cryptocurrency market given the excessive volatile nature of Bitcoin. Accurate predictions minimize potential losses-risks for investors, traders and users. Bitcoin has attracted stakeholders, including individual and institutional investors since its inventions. We suppose that the model completed offer best accurate price forecasts for Bitcoin. Second, the forecast models has implications to drive asset allocations. Our optimal model offers warnings signals to financial markets investors in order circumvent massive losses from sporadic volatility in the price. Asset managers may want to avoid potential risk by adopting least error forecast models to predict likely direction and value of the Bitcoin price. Since Bitcoin is now becoming save haven, and possible substitute for other traditional assets, and commodities (Kliber et al., 2019), the predictive models. Lastly, the findings offer significant implication in empirical finance, particularly to researchers interested in the bitcoin and cryptocurrency. Extant attempt at Bitcoin price predictions focused on the use of observed data. Actual data is too noisy and increases the risk of inaccurate predictions. Hence, a generalised function transformation offers better predictions as our result supposed. Our functions can be applied to construct hybrid models for future price forecast.

Conclusions

The sporadic nature of Bitcoin price has prompted attempts to forecast its daily future price (Munim et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Hung et al., 2020). We establish accurate forecast models that better predict the price of Bitcoin. The is done by considering the model with the least value of MAE for the actual daily bitcoin price, and two generalised (polynomial and STL) functions adopted to forecast the time-series. We establish that although the Holt-Winters Filter with trend and additive seasonality use on the STL-trend HWF(γ [0,1]; lower limit) provides the best prediction on the first training-sample with the smallest MAE of 1586.408, but when validated with the MAE of 1005.855 of the ARIMA(fix) model applied on the Actual function in the second training-sample, the later outperform the former. The results show that the Holt-Winters model is more appropriate for prediction of the daily price of Bitcoin with STL-trend as the time-series, while ARIMA(fix) model provide more accurate when actual data is applied. This finding would serve as a guide to investors, traders, regulators and other participants in the cryptocurrency market.

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Appendix

R Scripts read.csv("BTC.csv", header= T) #Read in data BTC <- read.csv("BTC.csv", header= T) $tsBTC \le ts(BTC, start = c(2014, 243), frequency = 365)$ $t1 \le eq(2014, 2020, length = length(tsBTC))$ #Estimating a polynomial model from the actual data $t12 < -t1^2$ PolyBTC <- lm(tsBTC ~ t1 + t12) **#Polynomial model** tsBTCtrend1 <- ts(PolyBTC\$fit, start = c(2014, 243), frequency = 365) stlBTC <- stl(tsBTC[,1], s.window ="periodic") #STL decomposition</pre> **Prediction Functions** autofit1 <- auto.arima(tsBTCtrend1)</pre> fitA1 <- arima(tsBTCtrend1, order=c(3,3,3)) HWBTC1 ng <- HoltWinters(tsBTCtrend1, gamma = FALSE) HWBTC1 <- HoltWinters(tsBTCtrend1) autofit2 <- auto.arima(tsBTCtrend2)</pre> fitA2 <- arima(tsBTCtrend2, order=c(1, 3, 1)) HWBTC2_ng <- HoltWinters(tsBTCtrend2, gamma = FALSE) HWBTC2 <- HoltWinters(tsBTCtrend2) autofitr <- auto.arima(tsBTC)</pre> fitAr <- arima(tsBTC, order=c(4, 3, 2)) HWBTCr_ng <- HoltWinters(tsBTC, gamma = FALSE) HWBTCr <- HoltWinters(tsBTC) **Combination all competing models** plot(forecast(autofit1, h=730), ylim =c(0, 35000), col= "purple") lines(forecast(fitA1, h=730)\$mean, lw=2, col= "blue") lines(predict(HWBTC1_ng, n.ahead = 730), lw=2, col= "pink") lines(predict(HWBTC1, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 1], lw=2, col= "green") lines(predict(HWBTC1, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 2], lw=2, col= "green4") lines(predict(HWBTC1, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 3], lw=2, col= "yellowgreen") lines(forecast(autofit2, h=730)\$mean, lw=2, col= "grey15") lines(forecast(fitA2, h=730)\$mean, lw=2, col= "blue") lines(predict(HWBTC2_ng, n.ahead = 730), lw=2, col= "pink") lines(predict(HWBTC2, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 1], lw=2, col= "green") lines(predict(HWBTC2, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 2], lw=2, col= "green4") lines(predict(HWBTC2, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 3], lw=2, col= "yellowgreen") lines(forecast(autofitr, h=730)\$mean, lw=2, col= "grey15") lines(forecast(fitAr, h=730)\$mean, lw=2, col= "blue") lines(predict(HWBTCr_ng, n.ahead = 730), lw=2, col= "pink") lines(predict(HWBTCr, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 1], lw=2, col= "green") lines(predict(HWBTCr, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 2], lw=2, col= "green4") lines(predict(HWBTCr, n.ahead = 730, prediction.interval = T, level = 0.95)[, 3], lw=2, col= "vellowgreen") abline(v=2017.97, lty=3, lw=1, col= "brown") abline(v=2019.5, lty=3, lw=1, col= "brown") abline(v=2020.99, lty=3, lw=1, col= "brown") lines(tsBTC, lw=1, col= "black") lines(tsBTCtrend2, lw=2, col= "red") Predictions and computation of MAE train <- window(tsBTC, end = 2017.97); test <- window(tsBTC, start = 2017.97) autofitr <- auto.arima(train)</pre> fitAr <- arima(train, order=c(4, 3, 2)) HWBTCr_ng <- HoltWinters(train, gamma = FALSE) HWBTCr <- HoltWinters(train) for (i in 1:length(test))

 $\{ \\ mae[1,i] <- abs(predautofit1[i] - test [i]) \\ mae[2,i] <- abs(predfitA1[i] - test [i]) \\ mae[3,i] <- abs(predHWBTC1_ng[i] - test [i]) \\ mae[4,i] <- abs(predHWBTC1[i] - test [i]) \\ mae[5,i] <- abs(predHWBTC11[i] - test [i]) \\ & \vdots \vdots \vdots \\ mae[15,i] <- abs(predHWBTCr_ng [i] - test [i]) \\ mae[16,i] <- abs(predHWBTCr[i] - test [i]) \\ \end{cases}$

mae[10,1] <- abs(predHWB1Cr[1] - test [1])mae[17,i] <- abs(predHWBTCr1 [i] - test [i])

mae[18,i] <- abs(predHWBTCr2 [i] - test [i])