This paper develops an integrated framework to forecast the volatility of crude oil prices by considering the impacts of extreme events (structural breaks). The impacts of extreme events are vital to improving prediction accuracy. Aiming to demonstrate the crude oil price fluctuation and the impacts of external events, this paper employs the complementary ensemble empirical mode decomposition (CEEMD). It decomposes the crude oil price into some constituents at various frequencies to extract a market fluctuation, a shock from extreme events and a long-term trend. The shock from extreme events is found to be the most crucial element in deciding the crude oil prices. Then we combine the iterative cumulative sum of squares (ICSS) test with the Chow test to get the structural breaks and analyze the extreme event impacts. Finally, this paper combines the structural breaks, the autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model, and the support vector machine (SVM) to make a forecast of the crude oil prices. The empirical process proves that the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks performs the best when compared with the other ARIMA-type models and SVM-type models. The framework offers an insightful view to help decision-makers and can be used in many areas.

1 Introduction

Crude oil is called “industry blood,” which shows the great importance and the high value of crude oil to industry. Nowadays, the demand for crude oil is becoming larger, which reflects the greater influence of its market demand on commodity prices. Wei (2019) found that oil supply had significant impacts on China’s real import. Rafiq et al. (2009) demonstrated that the volatilities and the fluctuations of the oil prices had substantial impacts on macroeconomic particulars like unemployment. Besides, crude oil is a nonrenewable energy resource, which means it owns the advantages of mature mining technology, low exploitation cost and little utilization difficulty against renewable energy resources. Thus, it is of necessity to investigate the fluctuation characteristics of the crude oil prices. Also, the crude oil market is crucial to global financial markets. Recently, on March 9, 2020, oil prices ended down more than 10% (Martin et al. 2020). The huge impact caused the stock market to slump. The Dow Jones plunged over 2000 points in the worst day since 2008 (Catania and Proietti, 2020). The trading on Wall was frozen on this day. The forecast of the crude oil price volatility is significantly important to evaluate global financial market stability.

As one of the traditional energy products, crude oil emphasizes its financial attributes and serves more financial purposes in the past few years. Crude oil makes an increasingly big difference in diversified investment portfolios. Xiao et al. (2018) and Hu et al. (2018) discovered that the crude oil price fluctuations exerted asymmetric impacts on the Chinese stock market. Chang et al. (2013) demonstrated the volatility spillovers between the returns of stock index and those of WTI and Brent crude oil.
futures, forward and spot. In the past few years, the increase in the crude oil price volatility has raised the crude oil investment risk and also changes the investment risks in other capital assets. To investigate the volatility features of the crude oil prices, especially the intrinsic trends and the external shocks to make accurate predictions of price movements, is especially important to decrease investment risks.

The extreme events are often ignored when we forecast the volatility. It refers to significant changes of macroeconomic conditions, such as policy changes, natural catastrophes and oil crises. For instance, the coronavirus happened and has existed for three months. More than 110,000 people have already been infected by COVID-19 worldwide, which leads to the shutdowns of factories, schools, and stores and cancellations of journeys and other gatherings (Mazur et al., 2021). Owing to this extreme event, the oil price sank nearly 20% after an escalating oil-market war was intensified by Saudi Arabia and Russia (Ma et al., 2021). The Russian–Ukrainian conflict also has huge volatility in the crude oil market. Affected by the situation in Russia and Ukraine, international crude oil prices soared, among which the price of Brent crude oil futures in April rose to a high of US$105.79 per barrel during the session, hitting a new high since 2014 (Asadi et al., 2022). Thus, it is crucial to investigate the impact of extreme events on oil price in the research.

The crude oil prices had discontinuous jump variation and high volatility during some periods. Gupta and Yoon (2018) proved linear Granger causality tests were mis-specified, yielding the unreliable linear oil futures market return results with non-predictability. Therefore, crude oil prices are proved to be nonlinear and multi-scale time series. Affected by obvious financial attributes of the crude oil prices, the short-run trend deviates from the mid-run and long-run trends periodically. The midterm trend is more vulnerable to significant events, keeping in accord with the long-term trend. Ruelke et al. (2011) found that the mid-run prediction is consistent with neither short-term nor long-term forecasts. The crude oil prices consist of the fluctuations of different durations and have all of their characteristics. From macroeconomics theories, crude oil reserves and production play the key roles in determining the long-term price trend. Zhang et al. (2008) found that the long-term trend was the most crucial one among the determinants of the crude oil prices. However, this paper finds as the crude oil financial attribute appears more obvious and the Shale Oil Revolution develops further, the midterm trend affected by extreme events has become the most important factor determining the WTI spot crude oil prices. Therefore, it is substantially significant to investigate the future price in the short run, medium run and long run separately when analyzing and predicting the crude oil price volatilities.

This paper predicts the prices of crude oil and also concentrates on the impacts of significant events. Oladosu (2009) found that regardless of whether exogenous events led to actual supply loss, they could affect the short-term and midterm prices. Martina et al. (2011), Coleman (2012) and Ji and Guo (2015) figured out how macroeconomic events impacted on the crude oil market. Zhang et al. (2009) used EMD to find that the Gulf War, the Iranian War and the OPEC Oil Output Reduction Agreements rapidly increased crude oil prices. Martina et al. (2011) found that significant events changed the complex structure of the short-term crude oil market but do not change that of the long-term market. To some extent, whether significant events affect price trends and how long the effect lasts depend on the trend length. Therefore, significant events would affect the short-run and mid-run trends of the crude oil prices, respectively. However, few works of literatures have analyzed the impacts of significant events on the crude oil price volatilities in a quantitative view and took them as dummy variables of models. This paper contributes to the literature concerning the significant event impacts on the crude oil prices and increasing prediction accuracy.

We propose an integrated framework to predict the volatilities of the crude oil prices, which consists of CEEMD, ARIMA and support vector machine (SVM). CEEMD aims to decompose price into different trends and mitigate the heterogeneous of crude oil price, which could increase prediction accuracy. The results show that the shock from extreme events makes the biggest difference in determining the prices of crude oil. ARIMA and SVM help forecast volatility. We also consider the extreme external events (structural breaks) into the models. In our work, we find that the support vector machine (SVM) algorithm performs better for the prediction of the crude oil price series than the ARIMA model. We also compare different SVM-type models and ARIMA models, some of where CEEMD is integrated into the models. Based on the results of loss function, we prove that the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model’s forecasting accuracy is the best. Besides, when we add structural breaks into the integrated framework, the performance is better compared to original basic models. We show that taking the structural breaks of the crude oil prices can effectively increase prediction accuracy.

This paper has the following research significance: (1) using CEEMD to decompose a market fluctuation and mitigate the white noise of forecasting. Thus, the forecasting result improves; (2) it can help investigate the influences of significant events on crude oil prices to combine the CEEMD method with the ICSS test and the Chow test, which not only prepares for the setting of the dummy variables, but also analyzes the impacts that
significant events have on crude oil price fluctuation; (3) this is the first work to combine CEEMD, ARIMA, SVM and impacts of structural breaks to forecast volatility. (4) The integrated framework can offer an insightful view to be applicable in tourism demand forecasting, commodity futures market forecasting and other industry.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Sect. 2 is the literature review; Sect. 3 is an introduction of the basic principles and the models utilized in this paper; Sect. 4 is the description of the data sample; Sect. 5 is the seven forecast model construction and the empirical analysis, which mainly includes the crude oil price decom-position, the test of structural breaks, the forecast results and the robustness test, and Sect. 6 concludes this paper.

2 Literature review

Our research touches upon two streams of literature in the energy area: mathematical finance models and methods to mitigate heterogeneity. For the former one, we introduce the basic concepts of volatility and discuss the crucial volatility models. For the latter one, we review many recent applications to decompose and optimize volatility forecasting results.

2.1 Mathematical finance models on volatility forecasting

Herrera et al. (2018) and Luo and Qin (2017) found that volatility was taken as a popular uncertainty proxy. To predict the volatility of financial market indices and product prices, Engle (1982) and Bollerslev (1986) successively established models like ARCH, GARCH and SV. Then SV-type models and GARCH-type models were gradually developed. Later, a lot of experts and scholars improved GARCH models to make predictions (Bekiros and Diks 2008; Wang et al. 2019; Catania and Proietti 2020; Martin et al. 2020).

Zhang et al. (2020), Jacquier et al. (2004) and Vo (2009) made breakthroughs on SV-type models. Geng et al. (2017) established the PCA-FRBF model to forecast crude oil, and it performs well. Traditional econometric models simulate and predict crude oil price fluctuations under the assumption that the fluctuations are linear and there is no structural break in them. However, the assumption is contrary to the truth, resulting in unsatisfactory results. Therefore, this paper adopts artificial intelligence models for prediction, owing to data volume increase, computing power promotion and new machine learning algorithm emergence. Movagharnejad et al. (2011) and Shabri and Samsudin (2014) predicted crude oil prices based on ANN models. Although ANN models can analyze data effectively and reduce operation difficulty, there exist some shortcomings, including a long debugging period and slow convergence, which reduce the ANN model efficiency most. Yu et al. (2017) and Risse (2019) believed that SVM models predicted better than traditional models and other artificial intelligence models.

Zhao et al. (2015) established the ARIMA-SVM model by taking into account crude oil prices, market elements and nonmarket elements to forecast the crude oil prices more accurately. Also, the SVM models and the hybrid models based on SVMs perform well in other areas. Wu et al. (2014), Kaytez et al. (2015) and Das and Padhy (2018) used the hybrid models based on SVMs for power consumption and commodity futures index forecast, achieving better results than the SVM models. From Wen et al. (2017), it is known that if inconsistency and non-synchronization of intrinsic fluctuations of the prices are neglected, the prediction error will be expanded further. Thus, this paper considers the SVM model and the hybrid models based on the multi-scale decomposition and the setting of the dummy variables to improve the forecasting results.

2.2 Methods to mitigate heterogeneity

Heterogeneity is considerably common in various financial markets, such as the commodity futures markets, the crude oil markets and the stock markets. Wen et al. (2014), Gong et al. (2017) and He et al. (2018) found that investment risks have asymmetric impacts (heterogeneous) on crude oil yield, indicating that crude oil prices are multidimensional. Meanwhile, scholars tried to solve this problem by establishing an EMD-based algorithm according to different frequencies of crude oil price fluctuations. Since Huang et al. (1998) invented the empirical mode decomposition (EMD) method, many scholars have applied EMD to analyze the influential factors of price fluctuations. He et al. (2016) used multivariate EMD models to make a prediction of the crude oil prices and depict the diverse and heterogeneous data. Zhang et al. (2008) decomposed the price series at different frequencies into a market fluctuation, a shock from extreme external events and a long-run trend and analyzed extreme event impacts.

Nevertheless, the EMD algorithm generates more components than needed to bring unnecessary low-frequency information and is likely to cause modal mixing, which does no good for further analysis. Wu and Huang (2009) optimized the EMD algorithm by adding white noise multiple times and eliminating model mixing to create EEMD. Nevertheless, the residual white noise could not be eliminated by EEMD, and thus it would increase decomposition error. Yeh et al. (2010) created CEEMD by adding or subtracting white noise to eliminate unnecessary noise.
as much as possible. Based on the above analysis, this paper adopts CEEMD to decompose the crude oil price series aim to mitigate the influences of white noise.

When it comes to hybrid models, Yu et al. (2008), Zhang and Zhou (2013) and Zhu et al. (2018), respectively, established EMD-ANN models, EMD-ICDSVM models, and EMD-LSSVM models to predict the crude oil price volatility more accurately. To determine the specific time of significant events and analyze its impact on crude oil yield, Mensi et al. (2014), Wen et al. (2016) and Wen et al. (2018) used the ICSS test designed by Inclan and Tiao (1994) to recognize structural breaks based on EMD. The scholars above explained the influences of significant events on the crude oil prices. Nevertheless, they did not consider how those events impact the crude oil price volatility in the long run and short run. We try to capture the impacts of structural breaks on the crude oil prices in different situations and forecast its volatility precisely in this work.

Our work contributes the existing literature as follows. The most similar work in the existing literature compared to our study is by Yi et al. (2016). They established an EMD-VAR-SVR model to predict the executive amount of servicing outsourcing and added ARIMA models to analyze nonlinear time series. Nevertheless, the impacts of structural breaks are neglected. Besides, the white noise could be mitigated by EMD, which is not helpful for improving forecasting results. Compared to the work of Yi et al. (2016), we consider the impact of structural and CEEMD in volatility forecasting and fill the existing research gap.

Another recent work similar to ours is the article of Guliyev and Mustafayev (2022), who predicted the WTI oil prices by using advanced machine learning methods. However, the impact of extreme events on oil prices was ignored in their work. Furthermore, they predicted the oil price with original data. The white noise impact of the oil prices could not be mitigated, which would also cause a little of a bias in their prediction result. In our work, we improve the prediction model by considering extreme events and CEEMD.

Moreover, the events happening at the structural breaks of the crude oil prices are identified by the ICSS test, which helps to improve forecasting accuracy. This paper considers the above questions and utilizes the ARIMA model to emphasize the impacts that the interaction has on the crude oil price to supplement the existing literature.

3 Methodology of analysis

The specific processes of establishing the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks and the other prediction models are presented in this section. First of all, due to the fact that the original oil price contains lots of market’s noise (Tang et al. 2015), the article considers the complementary ensemble empirical mode decomposition (CEEMD) to separate these coexisting modes to improve the accuracy of the forecasting results. Then, we utilize the ICSS test and Chow test to capture the structural break points. Finally, we conduct SVM to forecast the oil price. We also introduce the CEEMD algorithm, the ICSS test, the Chow test and the support vector machine in this part.

3.1 Complementary ensemble empirical mode decomposition (CEEMD)

Tang et al. (2015) found that compared with traditional algorithms, EMD was an intuitive, empirical and adaptive algorithm, which fitted for nonstationary and nonlinear data. Based on the assumption that original data has different coexisting fluctuation modes, EMD is designed to separate these coexisting modes to analyze fluctuation characteristics of original data. Among the EMD-type algorithms, Yeh et al. (2010) invented CEEMD based on EMD and EEMD.

To analyze the multi-scale price trends, this paper adopts CEEMD to decompose crude oil prices into various IMFs and analyze the characteristics of each IMF’s fluctuation. CEEMD could eliminate unnecessary noise as much as possible by adding or subtracting white noise compared to EMD and EEMD (Yeh et al., 2010). Although the EMD algorithm can decompose diverse and heterogeneous time series data into components at different frequencies which promotes prediction accuracy, the EMD algorithm also generates more components and brings unnecessary low-frequency information, which is likely to cause modal mixing (Wu and Huang, 2009). To optimize the EMD algorithm, Wu and Huang (2009) added some white noises to the method multiple times to reduce modal mixing impacts, thus creating EEMD. However, white noises added by EEMD increase decomposition error and lower prediction accuracy. Therefore, Yeh et al. (2010) created CEEMD by adding or subtracting white noise to eliminate unnecessary noise as much as possible. Then Wen et al. (2017) proved that CEEMD performed better than EMD when analyzing price fluctuations. According to Imaouchen et al. (2017), CEEMD was more efficient in computation than EEMD by reducing unnecessary white noise. Based on the disadvantages of EMD and EEMD and the advantages of CEEMD, this paper adopts CEEMD to decompose crude oil prices into various IMFs and analyze the characteristics of each IMF’s fluctuation to analyze the multi-scale price trends.

What’s more, IMFs must satisfy the following two characteristics: (1) the number of extreme values (i.e., both maximum value and minimum value) should equal to the
number of zero crossings, or at most differs from that by one; (2) the functions must be symmetric in terms of local zero mean. For a perspective of time series, according to the conditions that its IMFs satisfy, CEEMD is established as follows:

1. Add the white noise \( w_i(t) \) \( k \) times to the primary time series \( x(t) \) and subtract the white noise \( w_i(t) \) \( k \) times from the primary time series \( x(t) \), thus getting the two complementary signals \( x_{+i}(t) \) and \( x_{-i}(t) \).

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
    x_{+i}(t) \\
    x_{-i}(t)
\end{bmatrix} = 
\begin{bmatrix}
    1 & 1 \\
    1 & -1
\end{bmatrix} 
\begin{bmatrix}
    x(t) \\
    w_i(t)
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(1)

2. Decompose the two complementary signals \( x_{+i}(t) \) and \( x_{-i}(t) \) by using EEMD proposed by Wu et al. (2014) and Zhang et al. (2008), and then we get the two parts of each IMF.

\[
\tau_{+i} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} c_{j,+i}}{N} \\
\tau_{-i} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} c_{j,-i}}{N}
\]  

(2)

3. Then the IMFs without white noise are calculated.

\[
\tau_i = \frac{c_{j,+i} + c_{j,-i}}{2}
\]  

(3)

4. Thus, the primary time series \( x(t) \) is decompounded into IMFs and a residual constituent \( r_n(t) \).

\[
x(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i(t) + r_n(t)
\]  

(4)

\( r_n(t) \) is a non-oscillating trend item representing the intrinsic regularities of the primary time series \( x(t) \).

### 3.2 The ICSS test

The iterative cumulative sum of squares algorithm (ICSS) established by Inclan and Tiao (1994) has wide applications in examining structural breaks (Li et al. 2020). The series is assumed to show a steady variance in the beginning until the variance and the level of the previous fluctuation change. Then the variance of the series keeps at the new level before another structural break happens. A time series usually repeats the above process and obtains unknown times of variance change. Because the price mutation causes the variance of the price series to change during a certain period, the ICSS test fits for detecting structural breaks. This paper uses ICSS to examine structural breaks of each component and determine the specific time of each extreme event.

If there is a time series \( Y_k = \mu + \varepsilon_k \), where \( \mu \) means the mean of an unknown constant and \( \sigma^2 \) presents the unknown constant variance of the series \( \varepsilon_k \). With its mean of 0 and its variance of \( \sigma_k^2 \), the iterative residual sequence \( \{\varepsilon_k\} \) is assumed to be a time sequence. The variance of the time sequence in each segment is \( \sigma_k^2 (i = 1, 2, \cdots, N_T) \), where \( N_T \) means the number of variance breaks for \( T \) observations. Meanwhile, \( 1 < K_1 < K_2 < \cdots < K_{N_T} < T \) is the combination of breaks.

To investigate the breaks of variance and each change duration, the cumulative square sum \( C_k \) is used.

\[
C_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \varepsilon_i^2, \quad k = 1, \ldots, T.
\]  

(5)

The equation is used to calculate the cumulative sums of squares of the sequence observations from the start point to the \( K \) th point. Estimate the statistic \( D_k \) as follows.

\[
D_k = \frac{C_k}{C_T} + \frac{k}{T}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, T, \quad D_0 = D_T = 0.
\]  

(6)

The statistic \( D_k \) moves around zero, if there is no break in the variance for the observations. But if there is one or more breaks, the value will be significantly different from zero. \( k^* \) is defined as the value of \( k \) at \( \max_k |D_k| \). And if \( \max_k \sqrt{(T/2)}|D_k| \) goes out of the range of the assumed confidence level, the \( k^* \) is seen as an assumed break and \( T/2 \) is seen as the standardised factor.

### 3.3 The Chow test

The Chow test is a method for discriminating whether a significant variance mutation has happened at a time point set before. The time sequence is assumed to be decomposed into two parts, and then the F test is employed to examine whether the structure undergoes a significant mutation according to whether the parameters calculated from the previous part of the data are the same as the parameters calculated from the later part of the data. Ho and Huang (2015) and Kekolaiti et al. (2016) used the Chow test to calculate the structural breaks of stock indexes, mobile phone sales and the gold price. The Chow test is utilized to determine whether the significant events calculated by the ICS Krüchene S test have significant impacts on the crude oil prices.

Concerning the preset time point for one specific structural break, the time sequence is decomposed into two parts with \( n_1 \) and \( n_2 \) values. And this paper utilizes the ARIMA model to establish two regression models with error terms being \( \mu_j \sim N(0, \sigma^2) \), \( \mu_j^\prime \sim \text{N}(0, \sigma^2) \). And the errors are uncorrelated with each other. First, calculate the sum of squared residual errors SSE of the overall time sequence, and its degree of freedom is \( n_1 + n_2 - m - 1 \); then sum up the squared residual errors SSE\(_1\) and SSE\(_2\) of the above two parts, respectively. And their degrees of
freedom are \( n_1 - m - 1 \) and \( n_2 - m - 1 \). Considering \( \mu'_i \) and \( \mu''_i \) are not correlated with each other, the statistic \( F \) is defined as

\[
F = \frac{\frac{SSE_{0} - SSE_{1}}{m + 1}}{\frac{SSE_{2} - SSE_{1}}{n_1 + n_2 - 2m - 2}}
\]  

(7)

and it is obvious that \( F \sim F(m + 1, n_1 + n_2 - 2m - 2) \). Given a confidence level \( \alpha \), if the calculation result of the \( F \) test does not equal to the threshold value, it indicates that the statistical regression model is structurally unstable, which proves the preset time point represents a structural break.

In this paper, the structural break is preliminarily determined by the ICSS test, setting a time interval of 90 days before and after the assumed time point as the period where the extreme event happens, and the final structural break time is determined by the Chow test.

### 3.4 Support vector machine (SVM)

Vapnik (1995) established the SVM model for price forecast. The model is based on the Vapnik–Chervonenkis dimension theory and the structural risk minimization principle. The SVM model enjoys a lot of advantages, including simple construction, global optimization, strong generalization and fast learning. It can solve problems of high dimension, nonlinearity, small samples and local optimum. Yu et al. (2017) and Ren et al. (2019) believed that the SVM model had a better performance than the traditional models and other artificial intelligence models. Most artificial intelligence models have the shortcomings of a long debugging period and slow convergence, which decrease the efficiency of the ANN model most. Therefore, this paper prefers the SVM algorithm to predict crude oil prices. And this paper combines CEEMD, the ICSS test, the Chow test with SVM models for prediction.

The SVM mechanism is to find an optimal categorization of the hyperplane, making the blank margins maximized on both sides of the hyperplane to guarantee categorization accuracy. Take the two-type data classification as an example. Given the training set \( (x_i, y_i), i = 1, 2, \ldots, 1, x \in R^d, y \in \{ \pm 1 \} \), and the hyperplane notated as \( (\omega x) + b = 0 \), the classification hyperplane must satisfy the following constraint: \( y_i[(\omega x_i) + b] \geq 1, i = 1, 2, \ldots, 1 \).

The categorization interval can be expressed as \( 2/\|\omega\| \), so the problem of the optimum hyperplane construction is turned into that of solving the problem as follows under the constraint:

\[
\min \ \varphi(\omega) = \frac{1}{2} \|\omega\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} (\omega' \omega)
\]  

(8)

To solve this optimization problem subject to the constraint, the Lagrange function is employed:

\[
L(\omega, b, a) = \frac{1}{2} \|\omega\|^2 - a(y(\omega \cdot x) + b - 1)
\]  

(9)

where \( a_i > 0 \) and \( a_i \) are the Lagrange multipliers. The optimization problem’s solution is decided by the Lagrange function’s saddle point.

To make a balance between the two goals of least sample misclassification and maximum classification margin, the object function is turned into:

\[
\min \ \varphi(\omega, \xi) = \frac{1}{2} \|\omega\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_i
\]  

(10)

C is a constant larger than 0. The equation is called the penalty function, which decides the degree of punishment for sample misclassification.

As for the nonlinear problem, it can be turned into a dual problem by a high-dimensional space set by the SVM model. This paper uses the RBF kernel function, which is shown as follows.

\[
k(x, x_i) = e^{-\gamma \|x - x_i\|^2}
\]  

(11)

### 3.5 Crude oil price prediction process

The prediction model for crude oil prices is constructed as follows, as shown in Fig. 1.

**Step 1:** Use CEEMD to decompose the crude oil prices into some IMFs and one residual component, which is conducted by Matlab R2017b. To guarantee that white noise should not affect extrema distribution with high frequency and it should reduce the interval distribution of low-frequency components, this paper sets sampling frequency as 100 and ratio of the added noise’s standard deviation to the original time series’ standard deviation as 0.2.

**Step 2:** Referring to the method proposed by Zhang et al. (2008), this paper extracts the three new sequences which include the short-run market fluctuation, the shock from extreme external events and the long-run trend. This paper first calculates the mean of each IMF and performs a t-statistic test to investigate whether the mean of each component is zero. Then this paper calculates the sum of the IMFs which fluctuate around zero to obtain the crude oil price part at high frequency. Later, this paper sums up the IMFs whose means are not zero with statistical significance to get the crude oil price trend at a low frequency. According to Huang et al. (1998), the rest of the components is proved to be the long-term trend.

**Step 3:** In terms of the three sub-sequences, this paper uses the ICSS test and the Chow test to determine the specific time and impact of each external event. This paper sets a time interval of 90 days before and after the assumed time point as the period where the extreme event happens.
and use the ICSS test to detect the potential structural breaks of each component by finding the points where the variance of the component does not keep steady as before. Then this paper uses the Chow test to discriminate whether a significant variance mutation has happened at a time point which is set by the ICSS test.

**Step 4:** This paper sets the corresponding dummy variables according to the effect of each event, assuming the impacts of the events which cause the structural breaks of the midterm price trends are bigger than those of the events which cause the structural breaks of the short-term trends.

**Step 5:** Then this paper establishes ARIMA models separately to identify the future changes of the market fluctuation, the shock from extreme events and the long-run price trend.

**Step 6:** This paper adds the results of the ARIMA models and the dummy variables into the hybrid models based on SVMs to predict the crude oil prices.

**Step 7:** Finally, this paper establishes the CEEMD-SVM models with or without structural breaks, the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM models without structural breaks, the ARIMA model, the cluster analysis model, the SVM model, the CEEMD-ARIMA model to forecast the crude oil prices separately, and compare their forecast results with that of the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks.

### 4 Data and summary statistics

The validity of the proposed models is tested using the spot FOB price of WTI, which is acquired from the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). In 2004, the WTI spot FOB price exceeded $40, fluctuating more and more violently, which was not in accord with the previous price trends, so many scholars used January 2004 as the starting point of the data set (Han et al. 2017). Therefore, after deleting days with excessively few transactions or shortened trading sessions, the daily data sample period spans from January 5, 2004, to December 31, 2019, and 4019 daily observations are obtained.

Table 1 reports the overall statistic characteristics of the WTI prices in this paper. It discovers that the maxima and the minima have a great difference. The value of the standard deviation shows the WTI price fluctuates dramatically. The skewness and kurtosis values tell us that the time series data are “right-skewed” and peaked and pricing high occurs more than pricing relatively low. The original price series does not pass the stationarity test and it needs further decomposition.

Figure 2 presents the original series and volatility of the crude oil price. The crude oil price trend can be approximately separated into six stages. From January 2004 to July 2008, the international WTI market returned bullish with the WTI price jumping from $33.71 to $145.31 per barrel. From July 2008 to February 2009, the WTI price experienced a cliff-like decline, falling to $34.03 per barrel. From February 2009 to June 2014, the WTI price rose to $107.95 per barrel. From June 2014 to February 2016, the WTI price again fell to $26.19 per barrel. From February 2016 to June 2018, the WTI prices kept rising to $77.41 per barrel. From June 2018 to December 2019, the WTI prices kept decreasing.

From the right panel of Fig. 2, the crude oil price fluctuated with a difference of 20 dollars before 2008. But the volatility of the WTI price has increased significantly in recent years, and it is difficult to grasp its characteristics simply through the statistical description of the original
WTI price series. To better characterize the volatility of the WTI price, this paper utilizes CEEMD to figure out the characteristics of the WTI price volatilities.

5 Empirical results

5.1 In-sample analysis

5.1.1 Multi-scale analysis of crude oil price

This paper uses CEEMD to decompose the WTI crude oil price sequence. The IMFs and the residual component are presented in Fig. 3. As for CEEMD, considering that white noise should not affect the distribution of extrema with high-frequency and it should reduce the interval distribution of low-frequency components, the integrated used here is 100, and the white noise variance is 0.2. From Table 2, the crude oil price is a nonlinear and nonstationary time series, the relevant regularity defying characterization. As shown in Fig. 3, the price series is divided into 9 IMFs at different frequencies and 1 residual element.

To investigate the impacts of the short-term, the mid-term and the long-term trends on crude oil prices better, this paper first calculates the mean of each IMF and performs a t-statistic test to investigate whether the mean of each component is zero. It is found that the means of IMF1 to IMF4 fluctuate around zero. This paper uses the method proposed by Zhang et al. (2008) and sums up IMF1 to IMF4 to obtain the crude oil price part at high frequency. It means the crude oil price market fluctuations in common cases, i.e., the influences of the short-run fluctuations on the WTI price. The means of IMF5 to IMF9 is not zero with statistical significance. And they consist of the crude oil price part at low frequency, which demonstrates the impacts that the extreme events have on the WTI price, i.e., the effects of the medium-term price fluctuations. Huang et al. (1998) pointed out the rest of the components, i.e., residuals, proved to be the long-term trend. The graphs of the combined IMFs and the residuals for the crude oil price series are shown in Fig. 4.

From Table 2 and Fig. 4, this paper makes the following summarization.

1. The long-run trend can be observed from the rest of the components, which contributes only 31.1367% of the variance and has a positive but lower correlation to the crude oil price (0.3147) than the shock from extreme events. Therefore, it does not make the greatest difference in the movements of the crude oil price. The shock from extreme events rather than the market fluctuation determines the crude oil price trend. The conclusion is different from Zhang et al. (2008), which can be explained from three perspectives. Firstly, Zhang’s sample period is from 1946 to 2006, when economic globalization developed slower than from 2004 to 2019 and the events which occurred in non-oil producing areas hardly affected the oil producing areas. Secondly, as a kind of financial subject matter, crude oil can obtain the goal of speculation and investment value which cannot be achieved in the Zhang’s period. At that time, crude oil prices appear lower volatility since the WTI crude oil futures began in 1983 and the Brent crude oil futures began in 1988, with their trading volumes expanding continuously after that. Thirdly, the US Shale Oil Revolution has greatly reduced the crude oil prices by offering the great substitute and lessening the power of crude oil depletion theory.
Fig. 3 IMFs of the WTI price and the residual components

Table 2 Descriptive statistics of the IMF Constituents and the residual

|          | Mean    | Correlation coefficient | Variance | Variance percentage (%) |
|----------|---------|-------------------------|----------|-------------------------|
| IMF1     | 0.0034  | 0.0385 **               | 0.7824   | 0.1378                  |
| IMF2     | -0.0089 | 0.0672 ***              | 1.0578   | 0.1863                  |
| IMF3     | 0.0089  | 0.0673 ***              | 2.0634   | 0.3635                  |
| IMF4     | -0.0025 | 0.0874 ***              | 3.2350   | 0.5699                  |
| IMF5     | 0.0182  | 0.2835 ***              | 6.8539   | 1.2073                  |
| IMF6     | 0.2988  | 0.4000 ***              | 40.4483  | 7.1252                  |
| IMF7     | 2.9592  | 0.4376 ***              | 104.3398 | 18.3800                 |
| IMF8     | -0.6237 | 0.4780 ***              | 130.1268 | 22.9225                 |
| IMF9     | -1.2630 | 0.4749 ***              | 102.0168 | 17.9708                 |
| Resid    | 76.7175 | 0.3147 ***              | 176.7577 | 31.1367                 |
| Total    | 567.6819| 100.0000                | 567.6819 | 100.0000                |

* denote significance at the 10% level. ** denote significance at the 5% level. *** denote significance at the 1% level.

Fig. 4 The three combined IMFs for crude oil price series. Note: himf is the market fluctuation, limf is the shock from extreme events and res is the residual component.
Therefore, the influences of the long-term crude oil price trend has also been greatly reduced. Besides, from Fig. 4, it can be observed that the long-term trend decreased gradually before February 2007 but moved upwards steadily after that time.

(2) The mid-run trend can be known from the term representing the impacts of extreme events. Its cumulative variance contribution rate was 67.6058%. This illustrates that the term for extreme events is the most essential element determining the crude oil price, with significant events which indicate the global economic situation and have dramatic effects on the crude oil price, such as geopolitical events and the 2008 financial crisis. As exhibited in Table 2, IMF8 makes a big difference in affecting the mid-run price trend of the WTI spot crude oil price, reaching the variance contribution rate of 22.925% and having a negative correlation to the crude oil price. That proves most geopolitical events have negative effects on the crude oil prices. During the economic boom, investors pay more attention to the financial derivatives of crude oil and invest in the industries related to crude oil more, thereby leading the crude oil prices to increase obviously. And investors do the opposite during the economic recession.

(3) From the market fluctuation term, the short-run price trend is not so much correlated to the changes of crude oil prices according to Table 2. The correlation coefficient of IMF1 to IMF4 is 0.0385, 0.0672, 0.0673 and 0.0874, respectively. This is very low compared to the correlation coefficient of the mid-run trend and the long-run trend. Besides, its cumulative variance contribution rate 1.2575%, which is significantly low. The impact of the short-run price on the oil price reaches to 0.0009%, which means the short-run price has little impact on oil price’s volatility. This proves that the impacts that the market fluctuations on the crude oil prices are limited. The crude oil price is generally believed to fluctuate in the short run is affected by political or economic factors, but it can adjust itself in the short term and fluctuates moderately and temporarily under the influence of factors such as the governments’ macroeconomic policies. Also, investors do not react to these events as strongly as to the events of systematic importance.

5.1.2 Structural breaks

To validate the impacts that extreme events have on the crude oil prices, this paper employs the ICSS test and the Chow test. They can help to calculate the structural breaks from the short-run trend, the mid-run trend and the long-run trend which are extracted by CEEMD. The confidence level is set to be higher than 99% for the null hypothesis that there is no structural breaks in the series. The 2693 daily observations spanning from January 5, 2004, to September 17, 2014, is selected as the test set. This paper first combines the ARIMA model, the ICSS test with the Chow test and detects 34 breaks in the significant event term. The assumed time period for structural breaks is set to be 90 days before and after the breakpoints, and the criterion of the minimum F-statistic for the Chow test is applied to confirm the happening time for each breakpoint finally.

(1) Analysis of the external events based on the mid-run crude oil price trend.

This paper regards the market fluctuation term in Fig. 4 as the middle-run price volatility which affects the crude oil price movement temporarily and is estimated from the happening time point of the minimum price to that of the maximum price. As is shown in Table 3, there are 34 structural breaks identified by the ICSS test and the Chow test in the market fluctuation.

5.2 Out-of-sample forecast

To prove that taking multi-scale intrinsic characteristics between the crude oil price series, the trends at different frequencies and impacts of significant events into account can promote prediction accuracy, this paper uses the seven models in Sect. 5 to forecast the crude oil prices. All the ARIMA-type models and the linear regression with vce are established via the Stata 14.0 and the individual SVM model and the CEEMD-based support vector machine are implemented using the software package invented by Farto and LIBSVM 3.22 provided by Chang and Lin (2001). The empirical study is run on Matlab R2017b. The CEEMD-SVM models apply SVM for combination and price prediction. The CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM models use the ARIMA model to predict market fluctuation, the shock from the extreme events and the long-term trend, and the use of SVM here is as same as in the CEEMD-SVM models. Comparing the performances of these models without and with structural breaks, this paper tests whether taking significant event impacts into account can promote prediction accuracy. And comparing the performances of the SVM model, the ARIMA model, the CEEMD-ARIMA type models, the CEEMD-SVM type models and the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM type models, this paper tests whether taking nonlinearity and irregularity of crude oil prices and external event impacts into account can promote prediction accuracy.
From January 2004, crude oil prices have been rising rapidly and fluctuating more violently than before. This paper selects 4019 daily observations, which spans from January 5, 2004, to September 17, 2014. The first part, the 2693 observation values is taken as the training data set, and the remaining part, 1326 observation values, is taken as the test dataset. This paper adopts three popular loss functions, i.e., mean squared error (MSE), mean absolute error (MAE) and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) (Wen et al. 2016; Gong et al. 2017). The MSE, MAE and MAPE index can be written as

\[
\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \hat{x}_i)^2
\]

\[
\text{MAE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} |x_i - \hat{x}_i|
\]

\[
\text{MAPE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \left| \frac{x(t) - \hat{x}(t)}{x(t)} \right|
\]

where \(x_i\) denotes the real crude oil prices and \(\hat{x}_i\) are the predicted values.

Besides, the statistic valuable \(D_{\text{stat}}\) can measure the capability of forecasting movement direction or changing point. It is proposed by Yao and Tan (2000). The direction change statistics can be written as

\[
D_{\text{stat}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} a_t \times 100\%
\]

Because the short-run fluctuation term, the significant event term and the long-run crude oil price trend identify its own tendency, it is greatly essential to promote forecasting accuracy and predict the crude oil prices as accurately as possible. In this paper, the LIBSVM algorithm with the RBF kernel is chosen to predict its volatility of different scales (Lin, 2001.).

From Table 4, the ARIMA model has the biggest prediction error and the SVM-type models have a better performance than the ARIMA-type models in terms of the values of MSE and MAE. That indicates it can promote forecast accuracy to take the multi-scale volatilities and the nonlinearity of the crude oil prices into consideration. And from the predictions of SVMs, this paper shows that the extreme events impact on the crude oil price greatly and are essential factors when predicting the time series.

From Table 5, the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks has less prediction error than that without structural breaks, which also indicates the importance of adding the impacts of extreme events to the prediction model.

From Tables 4 and 5, the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks has the least prediction error from the value of MSE and MAPE. This proves that when forecasting the crude oil price, it is of great importance and necessity to take into account the nonlinearity of the price series and the impacts of significant events. And the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM models can have a more accurate prediction of the crude oil prices than the models in Table 6. It means the multi-scale volatilities are nonlinear and complex and the previous price trends have influences on the later ones.

### 5.3 Robustness check

Furthermore, this paper examines whether the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model keeps good prediction accuracy in other periods by changing the test set. Since the crude oil prices have the features of complexity, irregularity and nonlinearity and the CEEMD-SVM type models have larger prediction errors. Utilizing different window regions could examine the robustness of the model (Rossi and Inoue 2012). This paper mainly examines the robustness of the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM type models by decreasing

| Number | Actual time   | Number | Actual time   | Number | Actual time   |
|--------|---------------|--------|---------------|--------|---------------|
| 1      | 2004/3/25     | 2      | 2004/9/7      | 3      | 2005/3/8      |
| 4      | 2005/4/7      | 5      | 2005/5/18     | 6      | 2005/7/15     |
| 7      | 2006/2/23     | 8      | 2006/4/20     | 9      | 2006/10/2     |
| 10     | 2007/3/26     | 11     | 2007/5/10     | 12     | 2007/6/27     |
| 13     | 2007/7/27     | 14     | 2007/8/31     | 15     | 2007/10/23    |
| 16     | 2008/2/13     | 17     | 2008/4/25     | 18     | 2008/8/29     |
| 19     | 2008/11/3     | 20     | 2009/5/27     | 21     | 2010/4/9      |
| 22     | 2010/11/16    | 23     | 2011/3/1      | 24     | 2011/7/12     |
| 25     | 2011/12/1     | 26     | 2012/4/18     | 27     | 2012/8/30     |
| 28     | 2013/4/9      | 29     | 2013/5/21     | 30     | 2013/6/27     |
| 31     | 2013/10/8     | 32     | 2014/4/10     | 33     | 2014/7/16     |
| 34     | 2014/8/20     |        |               |        |               |
Table 4 The comparison of SVM-type models and ARIMA-type models

| Model                                            | MSE   | MAE   | MAPE  | $D_{stat}$ (%) |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|
| The ARIMA model                                  | 0.5923| 0.6364| 2.8590| 51.59          |
| The cluster analysis model with VCE              | 0.5278| 0.6135| 2.5097| 51.02          |
| The CEEMD-ARIMA model                            | 0.4207| 0.5434| 2.3086| 50.68          |
| The SVM model                                    | 0.3070| 0.4235| 3.6458| 49.39          |
| The CEEMD-SVM model without structural breaks    | 0.3054| 0.4224| 3.6364| 49.39          |
| The CEEMD-SVM model with structural breaks       | 0.2944| 0.4107| 3.5504| 49.70          |

Table 5 The comparison of CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model

| Model                                            | MSE   | MAE   | MAPE  | $D_{stat}$ (%) |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|
| The CEEMD-ARIMA- SVM model without structural breaks | 0.1604| 0.3098| 2.2408| 50.68          |
| The CEEMD-ARIMA -SVM model with structural breaks | 0.1404| 0.3400| 1.6991| 50.64          |

Table 6 The loss function values of multi-situations without structural breaks

| Test set                                         | MSE   | MAE   | MAPE  | $D_{stat}$ (%) |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|
| September 18, 2014 to May 23, 2018               | 0.2252| 0.4029| 3.1096| 49.24          |
| September 18, 2014 to October 15, 2018          | 0.2046| 0.3744| 2.8279| 49.80          |
| September 18, 2014 to March 14, 2019            | 0.1871| 0.3486| 2.5925| 50.09          |
| September 18, 2014 to August 7, 2019            | 0.1729| 0.3293| 2.3997| 51.15          |
| September 18, 2014 to December 31, 2019         | 0.1604| 0.3098| 2.2408| 50.68          |

Table 7 The loss function values of multi-situations with structural breaks

| Test set                                         | MSE   | MAE   | MAPE  | $D_{stat}$ (%) |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|
| September 18, 2014 to May 23, 2018               | 0.1711| 0.3787| 2.1436| 47.71          |
| September 18, 2014 to October 15, 2018          | 0.1614| 0.3756| 1.9897| 48.43          |
| September 18, 2014 to March 14, 2019            | 0.1521| 0.3632| 1.8610| 48.84          |
| September 18, 2014 to August 7, 2019            | 0.1457| 0.3554| 1.7564| 50.00          |
| September 18, 2014 to December 31, 2019         | 0.1404| 0.3490| 1.6991| 50.64          |

400, 300, 200 and 100 market days, respectively, based on the time interval of the out-of-sample prediction, which is following the works of Gong (2017). The results are as follows.

From Tables 6 and 7, it is found that the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks has smaller values which are calculated from the loss functions except the index $D_{stat}$. The CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks has a better performance than the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model without structural breaks during different test periods which is consistent with our original results, indicating the good robustness of the CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model with structural breaks.

6 Conclusions

We consider the impacts of extreme events and establish an integrated model named CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM model to make a forecast of the crude oil price volatility. CEEMD decomposes the crude oil price into the price constituents at various frequencies to extract a market fluctuation, a shock from extreme events and a long-run trend. Shocks from extreme events are significantly vital to impact on volatility. We used the above price trends, respectively, and utilized the SVM and ARIMA models to make a forecast of the price volatility. Compared with the ARIMA models and the linear regression with vce, the SVM models perform better in predicting the crude oil prices, which
means the crude oil prices are nonlinear and complex. Thus, investors should work out speculation and investment plans according to their financial needs, capital capacity and risk preference when they make crude oil investments.

Moreover, without considering the impacts of extreme events, CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM has the highest accuracy and the lowest calculation results of loss function, which means it performs best, compared to the other models, such as SVM, ARIMA, the linear regression with vce, CEEMD-SVM and CEEMD-ARIMA. Considering the impact of extreme events, we examine the points of structural breaks in different periods by the ICSS test and the Chow test. After adding the structural break factors into the model, the forecasting results improved based on CEEMD-ARIMA-SVM. Besides, we examine the robustness of the model.

There also exits limitations of our model as follows. (1) We neglect some multimodal data features of the crude oil prices. As a result, it may lower the prediction accuracy. (2) We just identify the external events which had great impacts on the short-term crude oil prices and the midterm ones and simplify the dynamic changes of the event impacts, which may also lower the prediction accuracy. (3). Crude oil price changes usually causes different decisions of different crude oil investors, which is affected by their alternative risk measures and affect crude oil prices as well. So it remain worth exploring how investors who have different risk measures affect crude oil prices differently.

The framework of our study can be utilized in different fields such as tourism demand forecasting, silver future price forecasting and carbon emission forecasting. It can help different industries’ decision-makers to make optimal decisions and support-related industry policies.

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Declarations

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