

# CSC 735 – Data Analytics

## Time Series Fundamentals



# Reference

Lazzeri, Francesca, ``Machine Learning for Time Series Forecasting with Python'', Wiley, 2020.

Book Resources:

<https://github.com/FrancescaLazzeri/Machine-Learning-for-Time-Series-Forecasting>

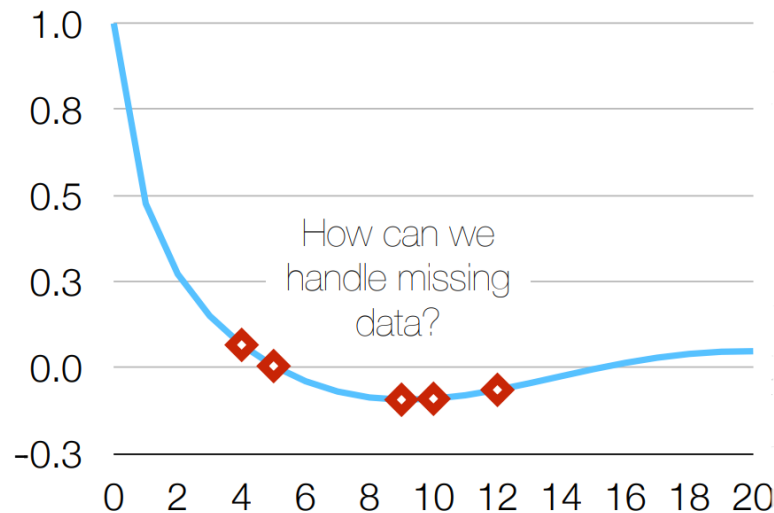
# Forecasting Aspects

## *Contiguous or noncontiguous time series*

- A time series that present a **consistent** temporal interval between each other (for example, every five minutes, every two hours, or every quarter).
- Time series that are **not uniform** over time may be defined as noncontiguous: very often the reason behind noncontiguous time series may be missing or corrupt values

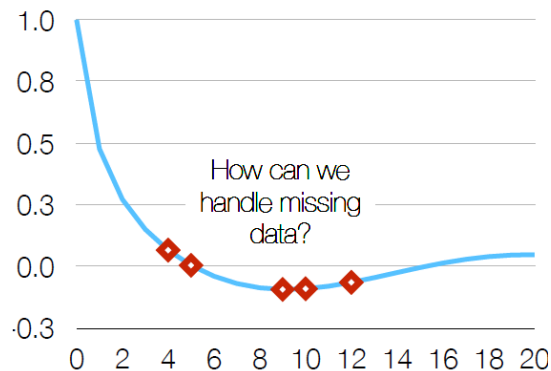
# Missing Data

- Data points can be missing due to data corruption, data collection problems, etc.
- Missing values are often represented as NaN.



# Missing Data

- Three common reasons for missing data include:
  - *Missing completely at random (MCAR)*
  - *Missing at random (MAR)*
  - *Missing not at random (MNAR)*



# Missing Data

Scenario: A survey collects data on individuals' **income levels** and various demographic factors. However, missing data occurs for some participants' income information.

# Missing Data

***Missing completely at random:*** the missingness of data is unrelated to both observed and unobserved data. The missingness occurs randomly, without any systematic pattern; the probability of data being missing is the same for all observations.

Example: some participants accidentally skip the income question due to a formatting error in the survey software. The missingness is unrelated to any participant characteristics or their actual income values. It is completely random.

# Missing Data

- **Missing at random:** the propensity for a data point to be missing is not related to the missing data but it is related to some of the observed data.
- Example: participants with higher education levels are more likely to provide their income information, while those with lower education levels tend to skip the question due to a lack of confidence in reporting. Here, the missingness of income is related to the observed variable (education level), indicating a systematic pattern. However, the missingness is not directly related to the unobserved income values themselves.



# Missing Data

- ***Missing not at random***: the missingness of data is related to unobserved (missing) data values themselves. The missingness is non-random and can be influenced by factors that are not observed in the dataset.
- Example: participants with higher income are less likely to disclose their income information due to privacy concerns. The missingness of income is directly related to the unobserved values (higher income). This missingness pattern is MNAR as it depends on unobserved data, indicating a non-random pattern.

# Missing Data

- It is safe to remove data with missing values in the first two cases:
  - *Missing completely at random*
  - *Missing at random*

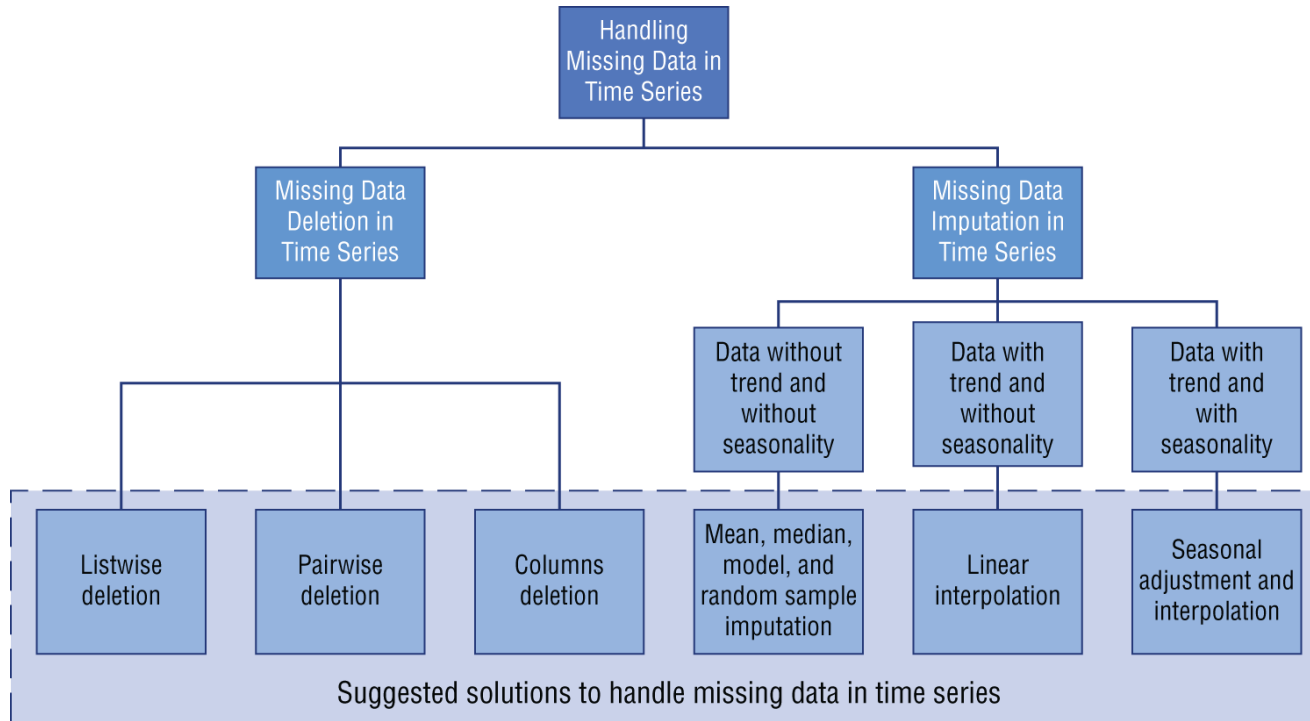
# Missing Data

- If data is not missing at random, the removal of missing values could produce a bias in your forecasting model

# Data Imputation

- **Data imputation** is where missing data is replaced with a specific value
- There are different solutions for data imputation depending on the problem you are solving

# Handling Missing Data



# Deletion in Time Series

- **Listwise deletion** removes all data for every observation that has one or more missing values
  - Not ideal in most cases
  - Listwise deletion methods produce biased parameters and estimates

# Deletion in Time Series

- **Pairwise deletion** analyzes all cases in which the variables of interest are present and thus maximizes all data available by an analysis basis
  - If you delete pairwise, then you'll end up with different numbers of observations contributing to different parts of your model, which can make interpretation difficult

# Deletion in Time Series

- **Deleting a column** is another option
- Based on the idea that there is no remaining value left in the values in the column (perhaps because too many are missing)
- Generally, it is better to keep data than to discard it



# Imputation in Time Series

- **Mean, median, and mode:** Computing the overall mean, median, or mode is a very **basic** imputation method; it is the only tested function that takes no advantage of the time series characteristics or relationship between the variables.
- It is fast
- mean imputation is suitable for variables with a roughly symmetric distribution

# Imputation in Time Series

- **Linear interpolation:** This method works well for a time series with some trend but is not suitable for seasonal data

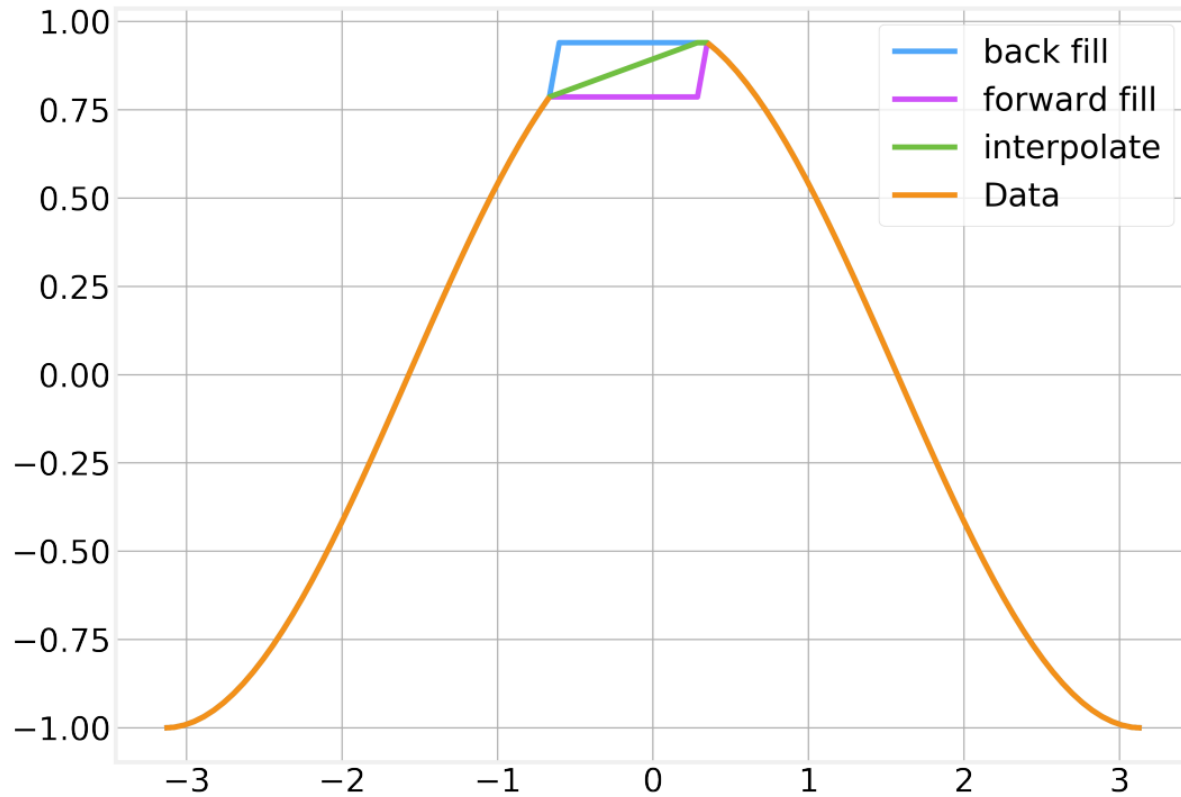
# Imputation in Time Series

- **Seasonal adjustment and linear interpolation:** This method works well for data with both trend and seasonality

# Imputation Methods

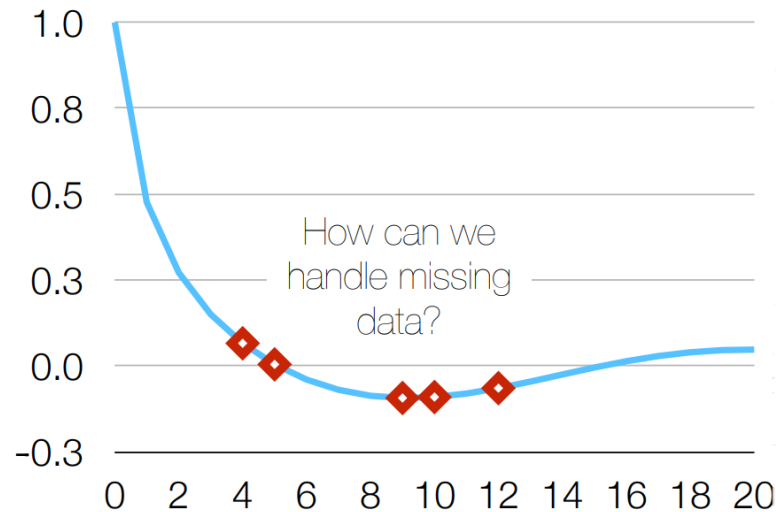
- **data imputation methods (data filling methods)**: any technique for adding values based on what we expect the missing values to be
    - **Forward fill** – substitute the last valid value
    - **Back fill** – substitute the next valid value
    - **Interpolate** – add values by interpolating between the previous and the next value (can be linear interpolation, cubic interpolation, etc.)
-

# Fill Methods



# Multiple Imputation Methods

- Use an imputation technique that draws from an appropriate distribution to choose a value to substitute for any missing value
- Repeat  $m$  times giving  $m$  complete data sets
- Perform the analysis  $m$  times
- Average the overall results from the  $m$  analyses to get the final result.



# Time Series Models

- We will cover the following time series models:
  1. Persist
  2. Exponential Smoothing (Exponential Running Average)
  3. Moving Average (MA)
  4. Autoregressive (AR)
  5. Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA)

# Persist Model

- A simple time series model in the context of univariate time series
- Recall that a univariate time series observes one variable at equally spaced time intervals
- Univariate models are easy to understand since they do not deal with inter-variable relationships




# Persist Model

- The **Persist model** uses the last value of a time series to predict the next value
- This model assumes that the next value of the series will be the same as the previous value of the series

# Persist Model

Date	End of Day Gas Price in Springfield (\$)
2022-06-10	1.85
2022-06-11	1.90
2022-06-12	1.85
2022-06-13	1.87
2022-06-14	?

1.87

For example, the Persist Model predicts that the next day's gas price will be the same as the previous day's gas price.

# Persist Model

- The **Persist model's** predicted value will lag by 1 data point for all data points
- Recall that the value of the time series at time  $t$  is given by  $x_t$  and represented as:  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$
- Let  $x'_t$  represent a predicted value at time  $t$
- Thus, the equation for the Persist model is represented as follows:

$$x'_t = ?$$

# Persist Model

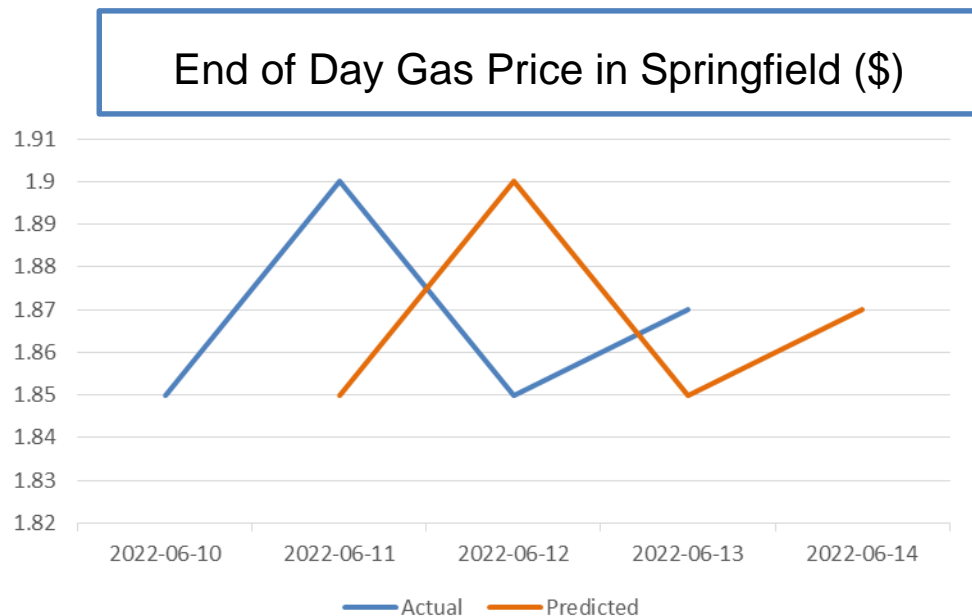
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- Let  $x'_t$  represent a predicted value at time  $t$
- Thus, the equation for the Persist model is represented as follows:

$$x'_t = x_{t-1}$$

# Persist Model

End of Day Gas Price in Springfield (\$)

$t$	Date	Actual $x_t$	Predicted $x'_t = x_{t-1}$
1	2022-06-10	1.85	-
2	2022-06-11	1.90	1.85
3	2022-06-12	1.85	1.90
4	2022-06-13	1.87	1.85
5	2022-06-14	?	1.87



NOTE: This is synthetic data for illustration purposes.

# Time Series Review

- A set of values measured **sequentially** in time
- Values are typically (but not always) measured at **equal intervals**,  $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4$ , etc.
- Values can be:
  - **continuous**
  - **discrete** or **symbolic** (words)
- Associated with empirical observations of time-varying phenomena:
  - Stock market prices (day, hour, minute, tick, etc.)
  - Temperature (day, minute, second, etc.)
  - Number of patients (week, month, etc.)
  - GDP (quarter, year, etc.)
- Forecasting requires predicting future values based on past behavior

# Mathematical Conventions

- The value of the time series at time  $t$  is given by  $x_t$
- The values at a given lag  $l$  are given by  $x_{t-l}$
- The mean of the overall signal is  $\mu$  and the corresponding running value is  $\mu_t^w$
- The standard deviation of the overall signal is  $\sigma$  and the running value is  $\sigma_t^w$
- **Running values** are calculated over a window of width  $w$
- A time series is represented by the set  $X$
- A forecasted time series is represented by the set  $X'$
- A forecasted value of the time series at time  $t$  is given by  $x'_t$

# Stock Market – Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJIA)





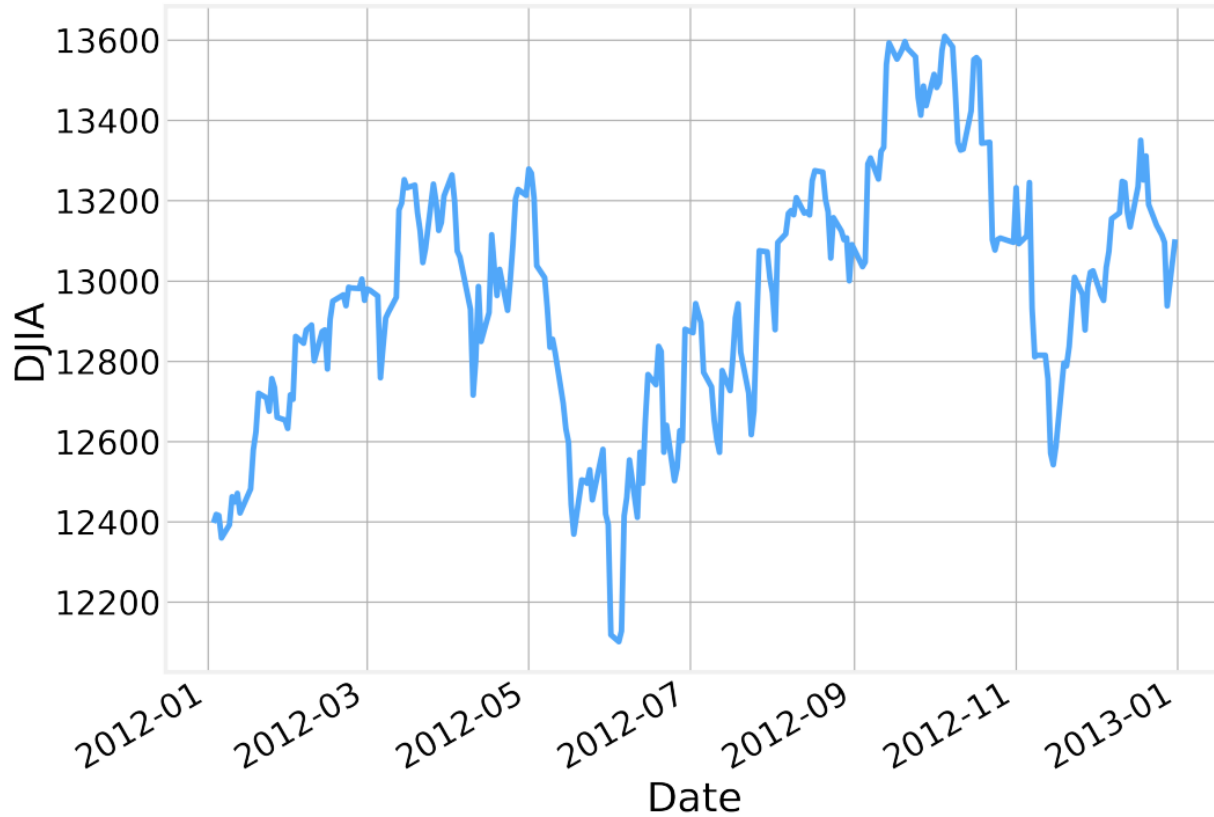
# Lagged Values

- While analyzing time series, we often refer to values that our time series took **1, 2, 3**, etc. time steps in the past
- These are known as **lagged values** and are denoted by:

$$x_{t-l}$$

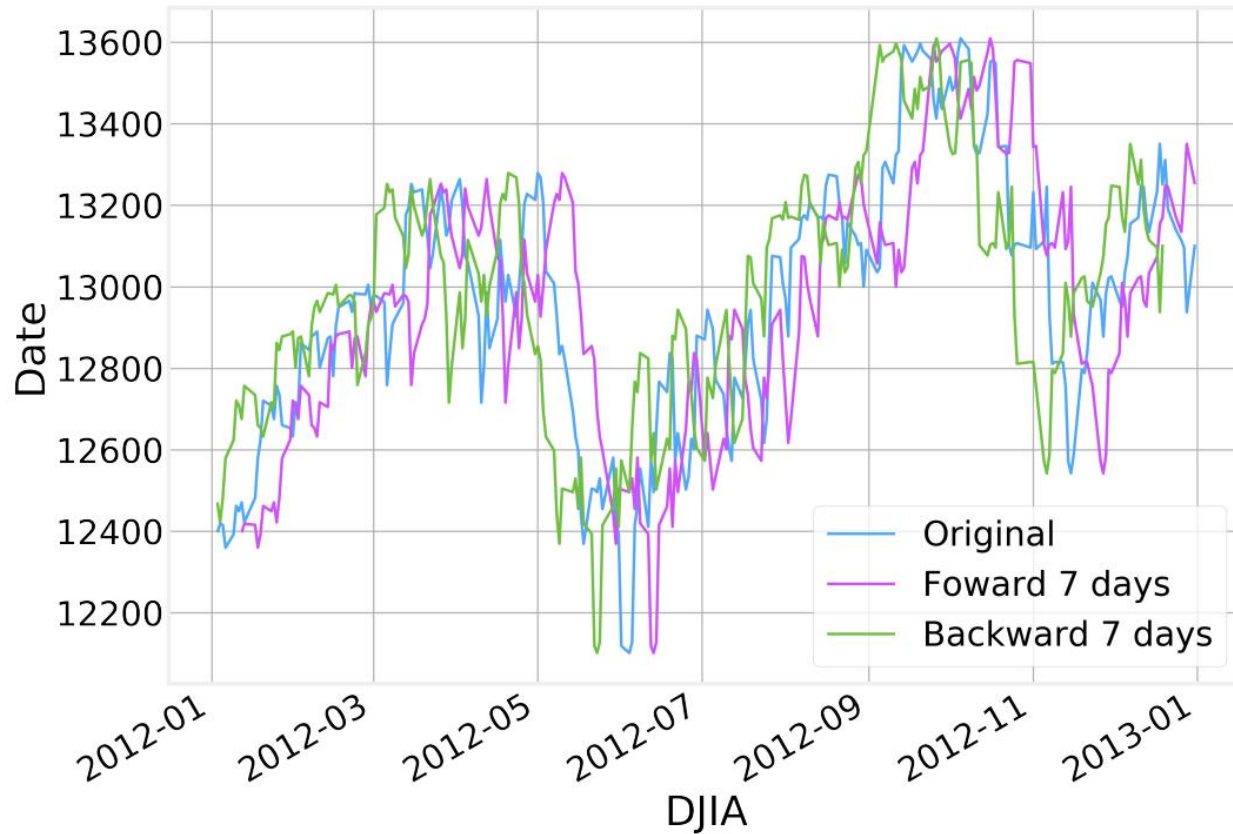
where ***l*** is the value of the lag we are considering

# Lagged Values



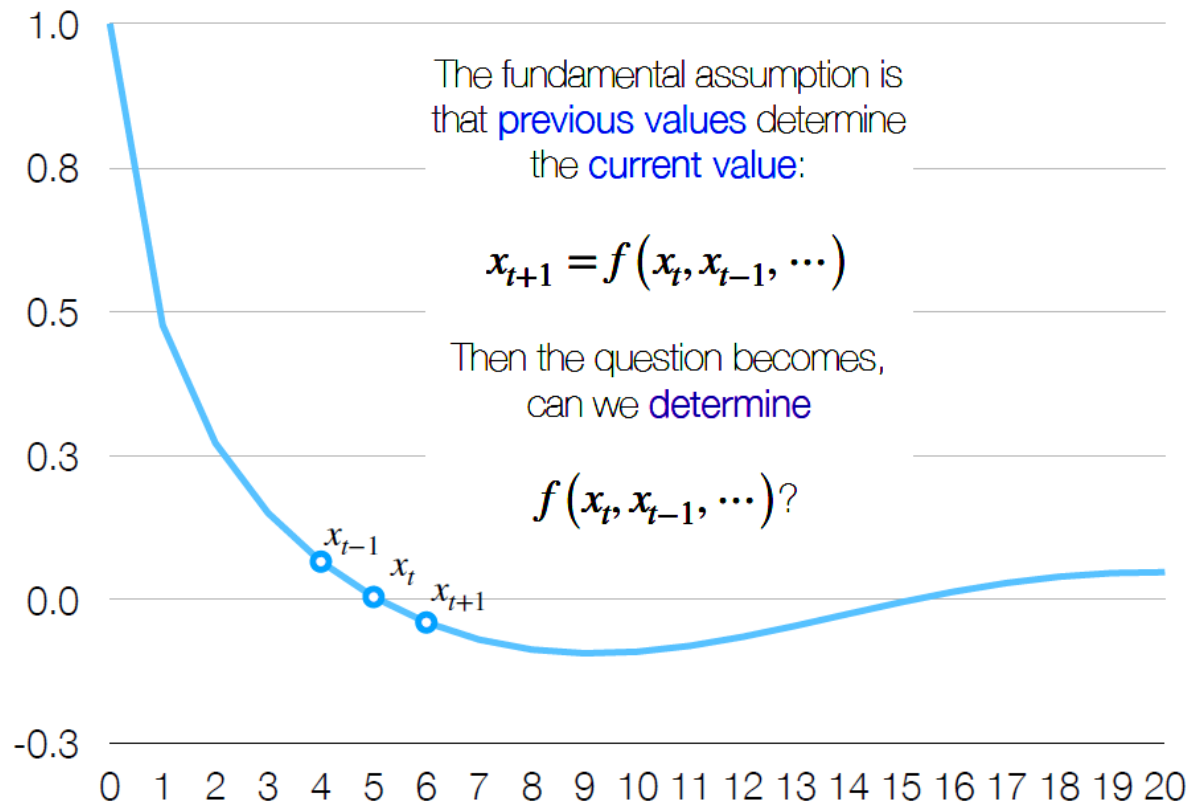
Consider the DJIA variable that gives the average stock price

# Lagged Values

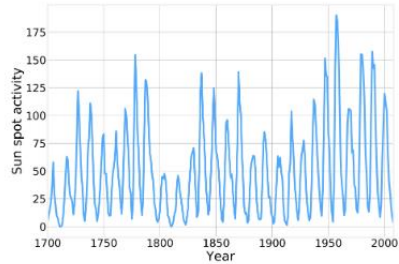
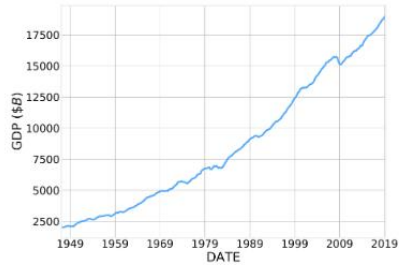
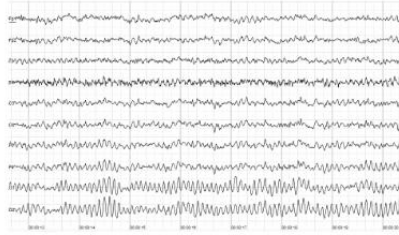


Imagine defining two new variables such that their values for some time  $t$  were identical to our variable's values at time  $t+7$  or time  $t-7$

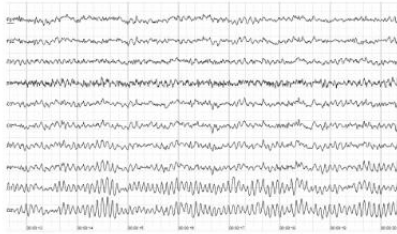
# Time Series Analysis: Recall the Goal



# Three Fundamental Behaviours

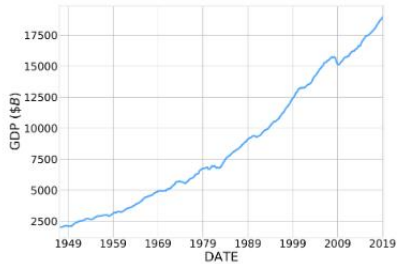


# Three Fundamental Behaviours



Stationarity

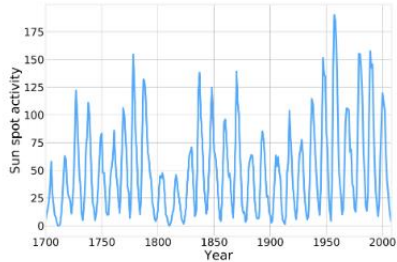
$$\langle x_t \rangle \approx \text{constant}$$



Trend

$$\langle x_t \rangle \approx ct$$

(continuous increase or decrease)



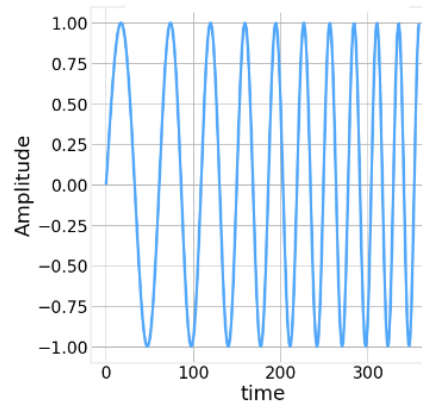
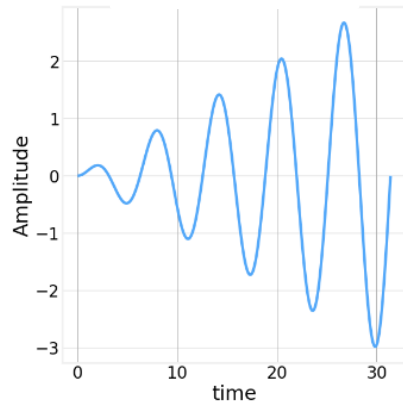
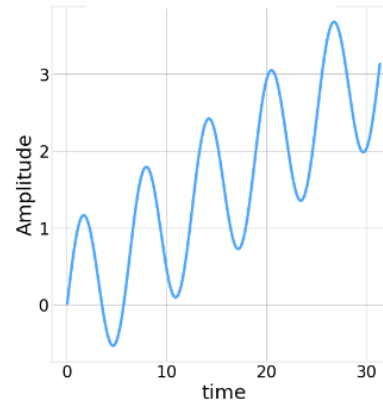
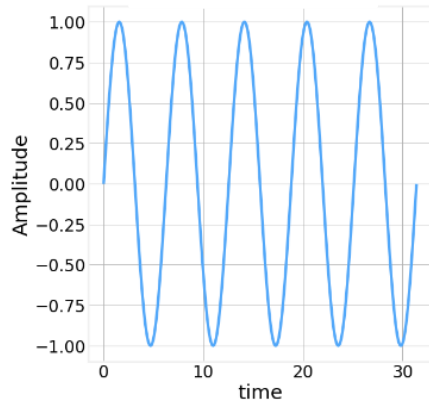
Seasonality

$$x_{t+T} \approx x_t$$

# Stationarity

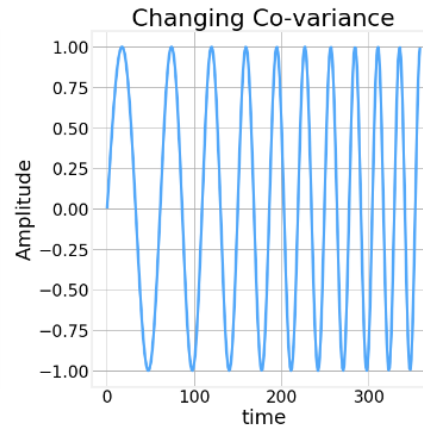
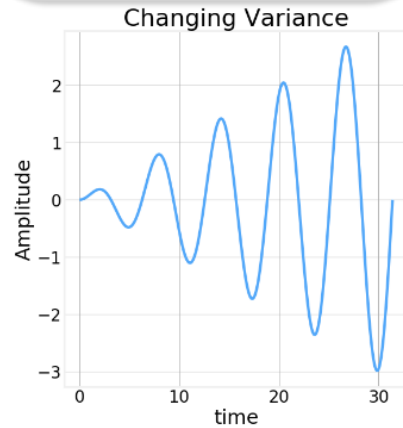
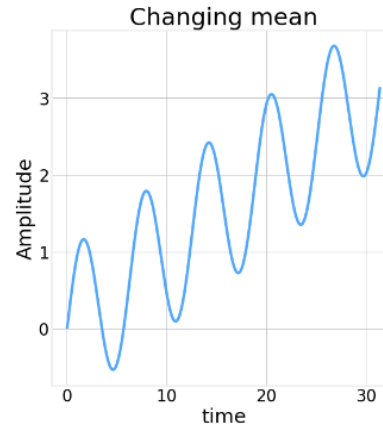
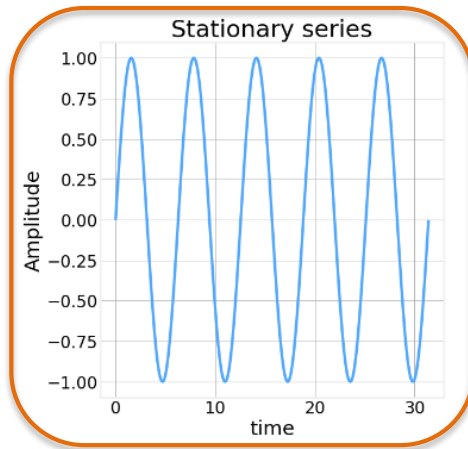
- A time series is said to be stationary if its basic statistical properties are **independent of time**
- In particular:
  - **Mean** – Average value stays constant
  - **Variance** – The width of the curve is bounded
  - **Covariance** – Correlation between points is independent of time
- Stationary processes are **easier** to analyze
- Many time series analysis algorithms assume the time series to be stationary
- Several rigorous tests for stationarity have been developed such as the **(Augmented) Dickey-Fuller** and **Hurst Exponent** tests
- Typically, the first step of any analysis is to transform the series to make it stationary

# Stationarity



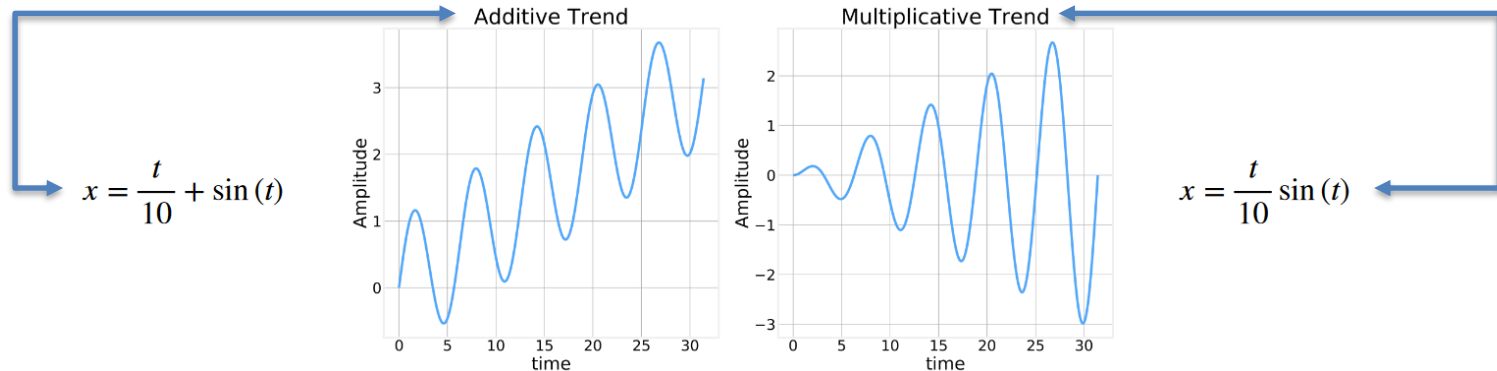


# Stationarity



# Trend

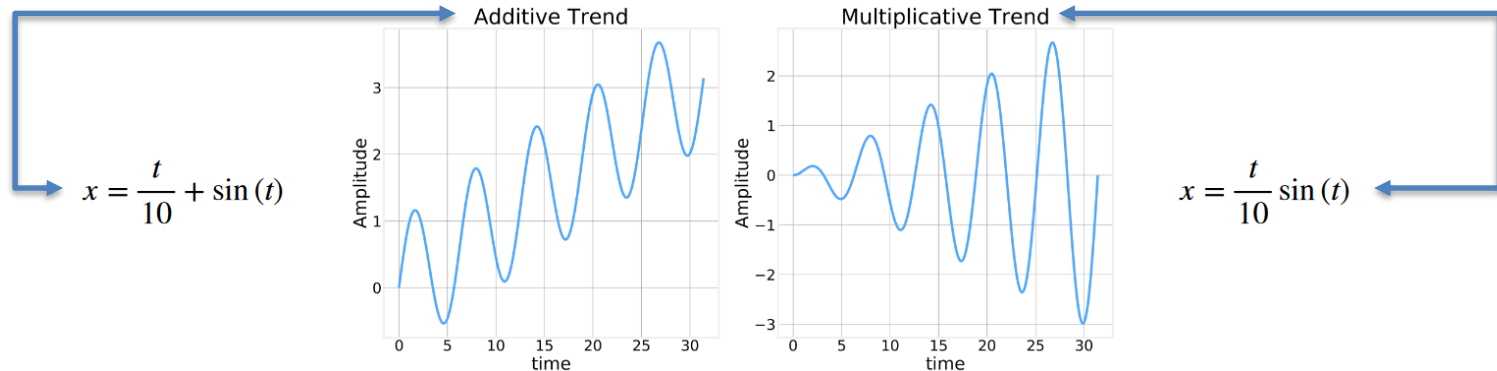
- Many time series have a clear trend or tendency:
  - Stock market indices tend to go up over time
  - Number of cases of preventable diseases tends to go down over time
- Trend can be **additive** or **multiplicative**:



- Such trends can be removed by **subtraction** or **division** of the correct values
- One simple way to determine the trend is to calculate a **running average** over the series
- $m_t = (x_{t-k+1} + x_{t-k+2} + \dots + x_t)/k$ .

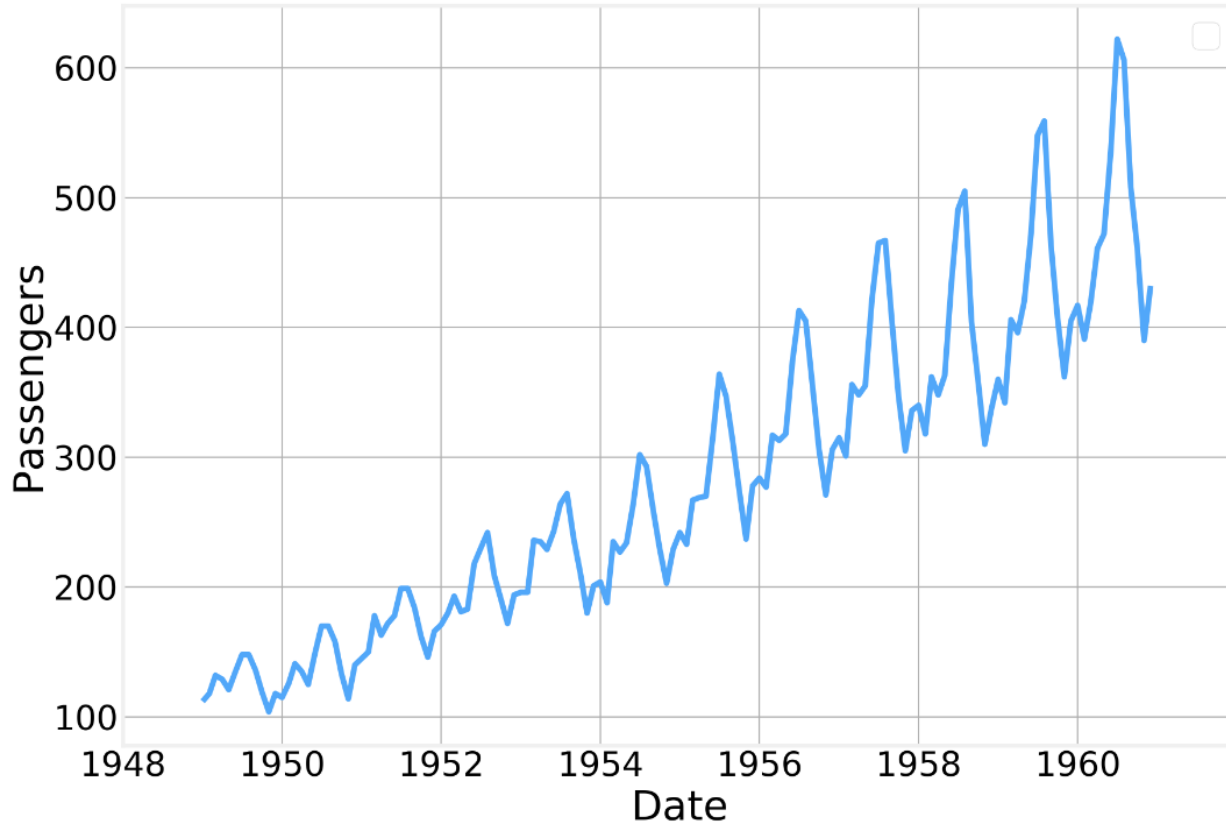
# Trend

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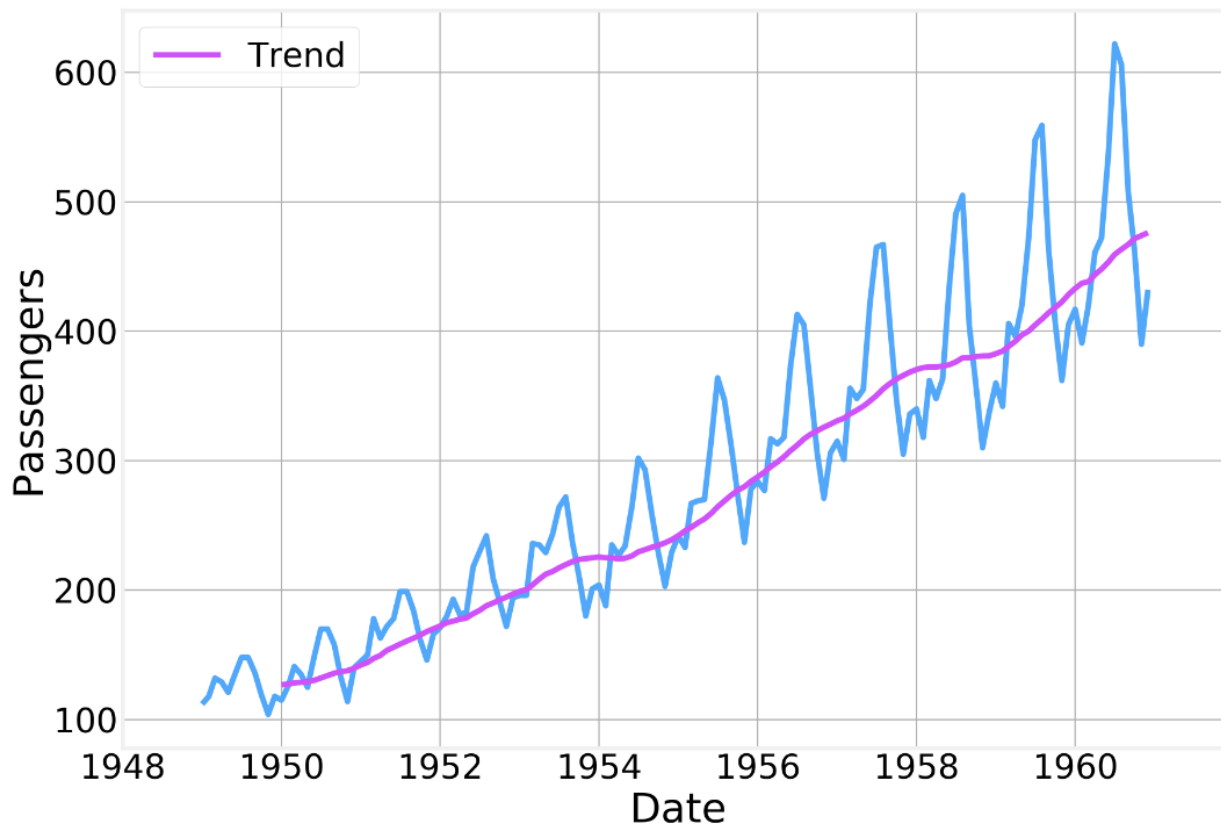
- Such trends can be removed by **subtraction** or **division** of the correct values
- One simple way to determine the trend is to calculate a **running average** over the series
- $m_t = (x_{t-k+1} + x_{t-k+2} + \dots + x_t) / k$ . If  $t = 16$ ,  $k = 3$ , then  $m_{16} = (x_{14} + x_{15} + x_{16}) / 3$

# Trend



Consider this graph of the number of air traffic passengers

# Trend



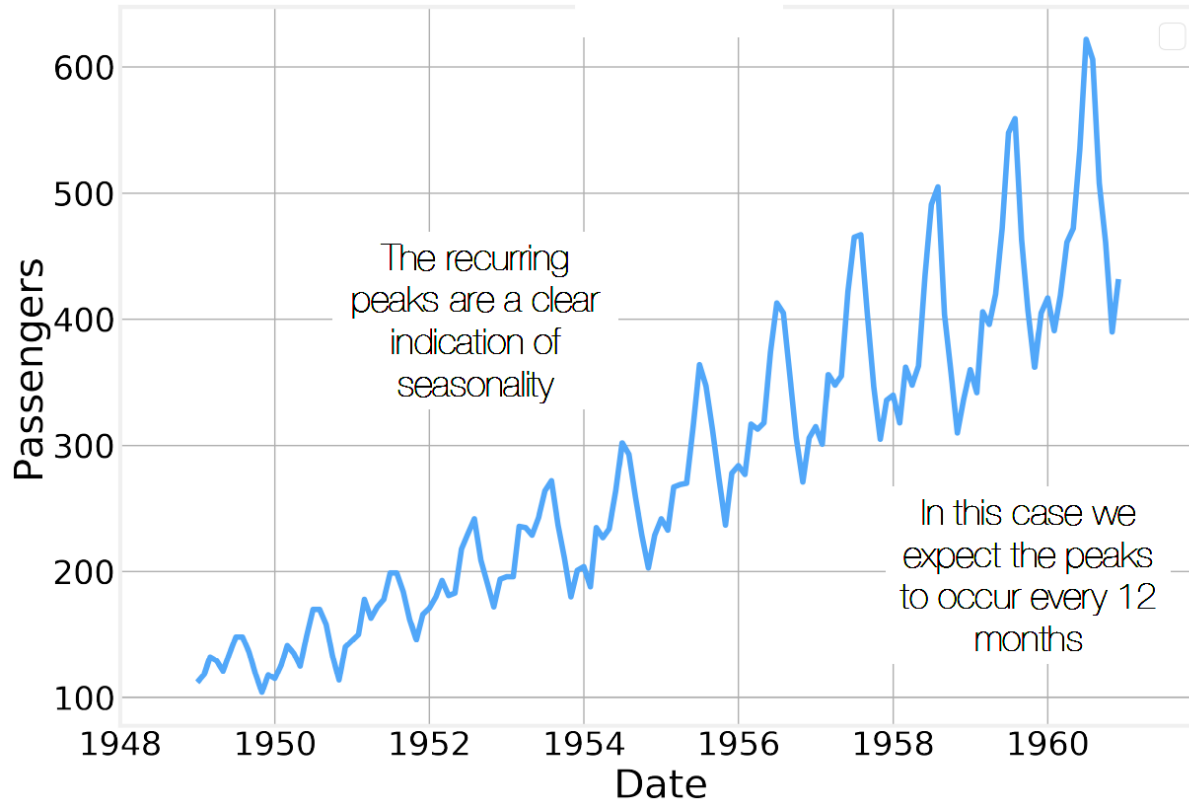
If we calculate the running average, we readily see the trend.

# Seasonality

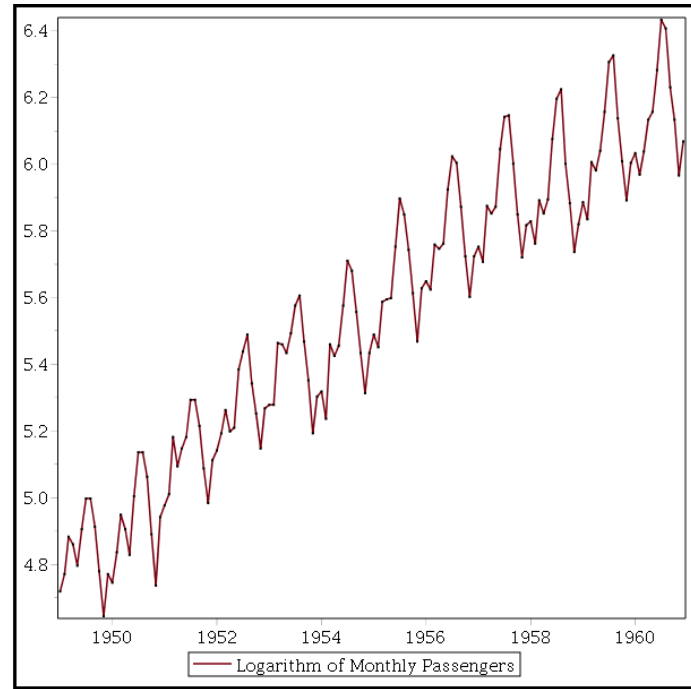
- Many of the phenomena we might be interested in, vary in time in a **seasonal** or **cyclical** fashion:
  - Ice-cream sales peak in the **summer** and drop in the **winter**
  - Number of cell phone calls made is larger during the day than during the night
  - Many types of crime are more frequent at **night** than during the **day**
  - Visits to museums are more frequent on **weekend** days than on **weekdays**
  - The stock market generally grows during **bull** periods and shrinks during **bear** periods
- Understanding the seasonality of a time series provides important information about its long-term behaviour and is extremely useful in predicting future values
- If the period is **fixed** it's called seasonality, while if the period is **irregular** it's called cyclical

# Seasonality

<https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/chirag19/air-passengers>

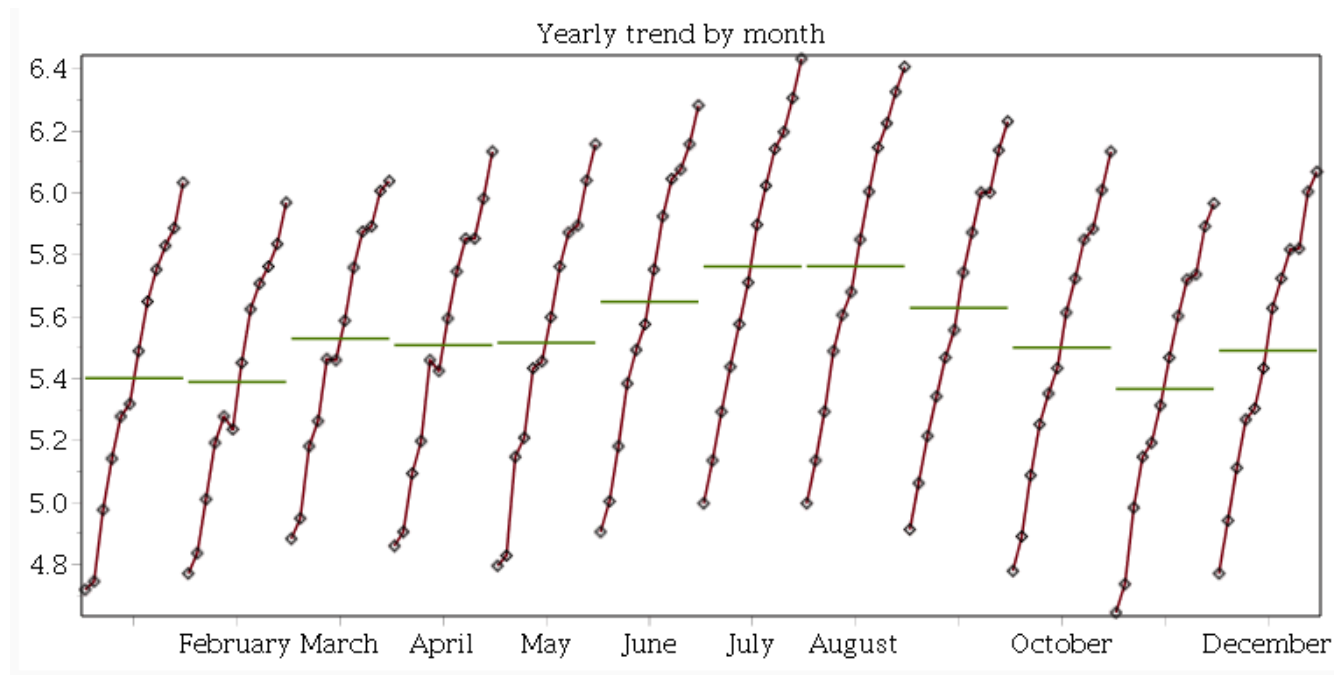


# Logarithm of Air Passengers



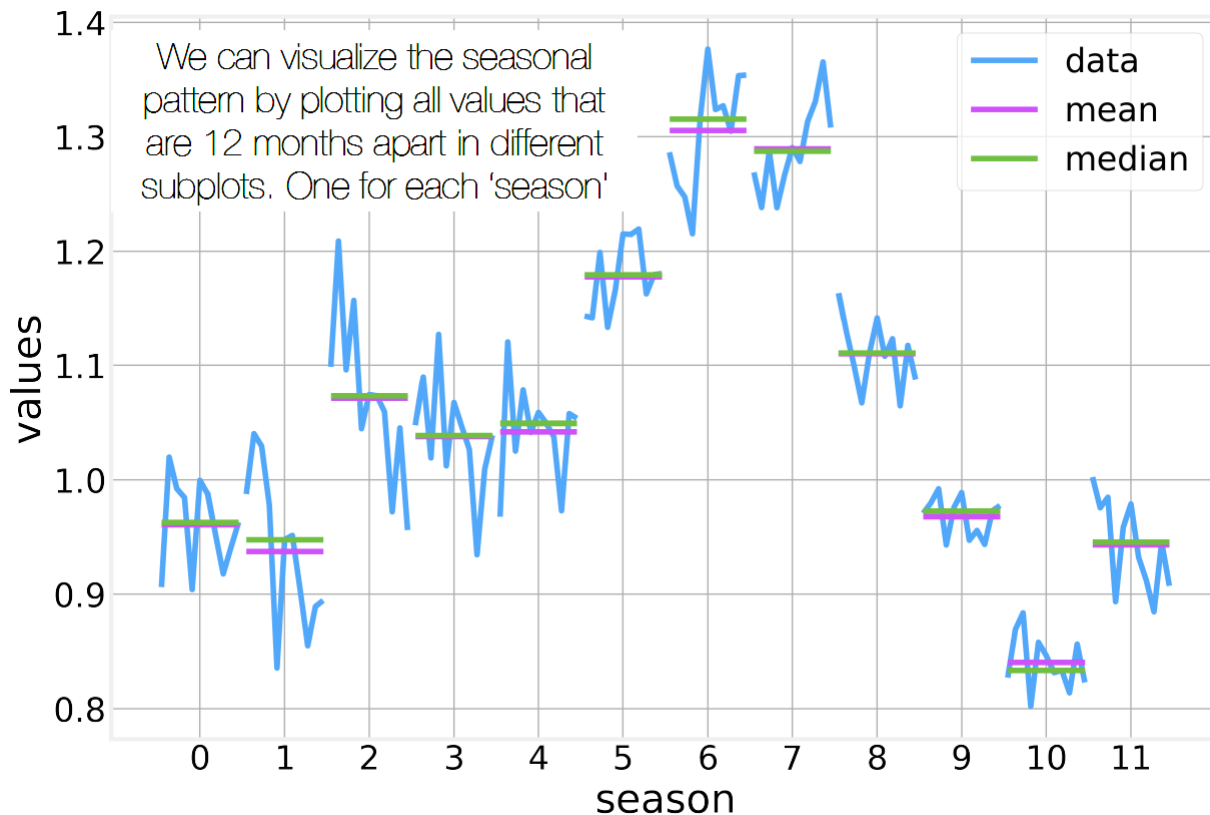


# Seasonality of Logarithms of Air Passengers



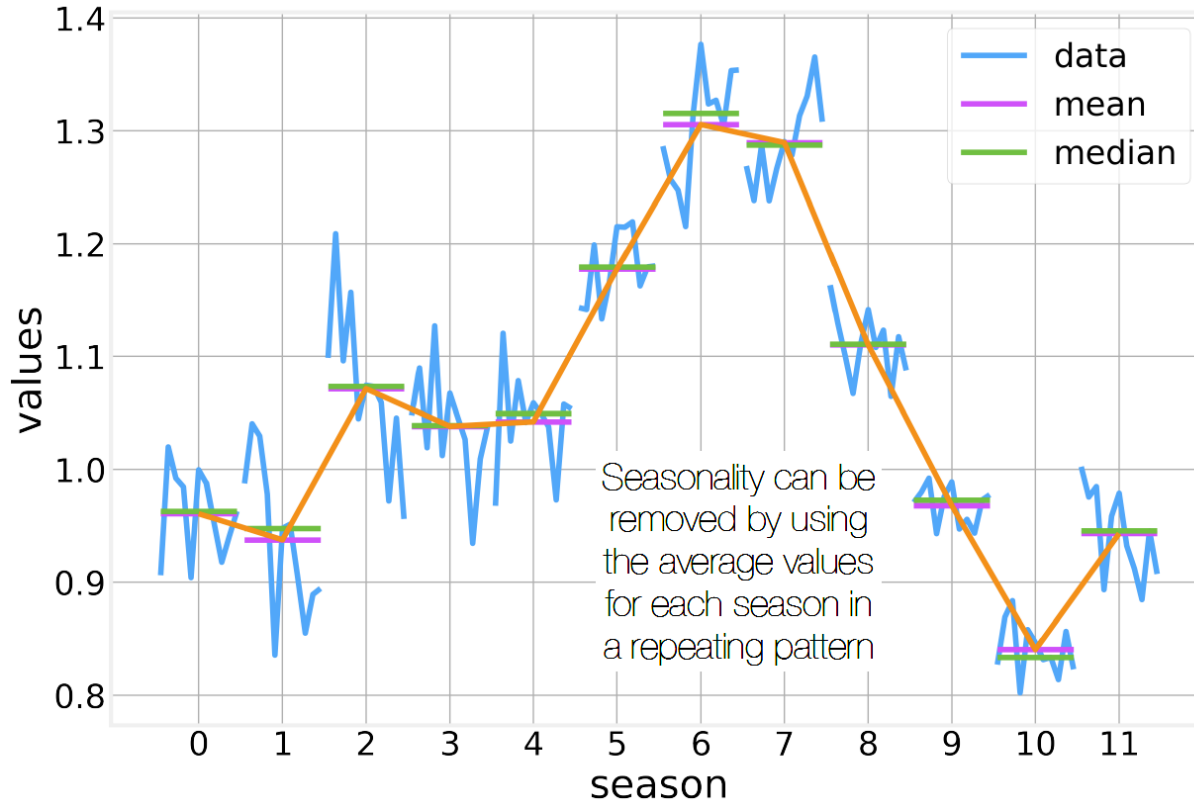
Here a season  
is one month  
long.

# Seasonality



Seasonality of  
differences of  
logarithms

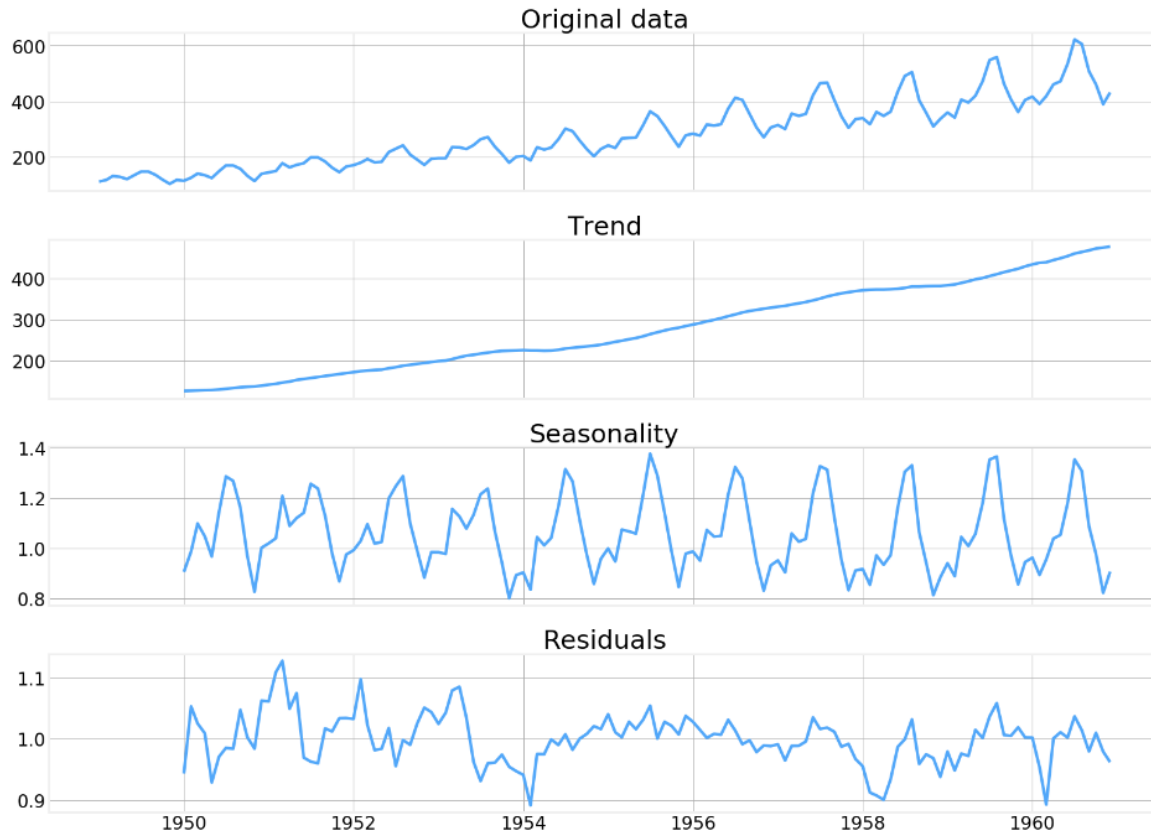
# Seasonality



# Time Series Decomposition

- A time series can be decomposed into **three components**:
  - Trend,  $T_t$
  - Seasonality,  $S_t$
  - Residuals,  $R_t$
- Decompositions can be:
  - additive:  $x_t = T_t + S_t + R_t$
  - multiplicative:  $x_t = T_t \cdot S_t \cdot R_t$
- The residuals are simply what is left of the original signal after we **remove the trend and the seasonality**
- Residuals are typically **stationary**

# Time Series Decomposition



# Differences

- Perhaps the most common use case for lagged values is for the calculation of **differences** of the form:

$$x_t - x_{t-l}$$

where  $l \geq 1$  is the value of the lag we are interested in

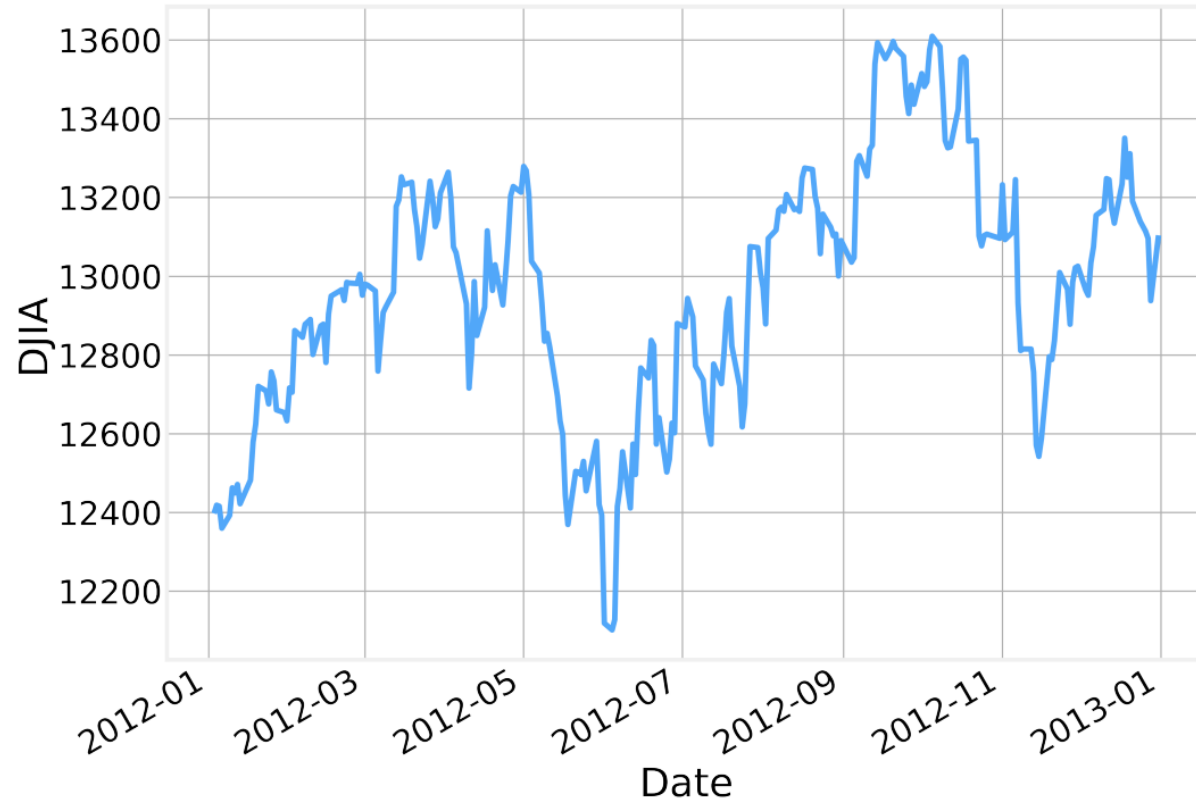
- Naturally, higher-order differences can also be used, in which case, the difference of the difference is calculated:

$$y_t = x_t - x_{t-l}$$

$$z_t = y_t - y_{t-l} \equiv x_t - 2x_{t-l} + x_{t-2l}$$

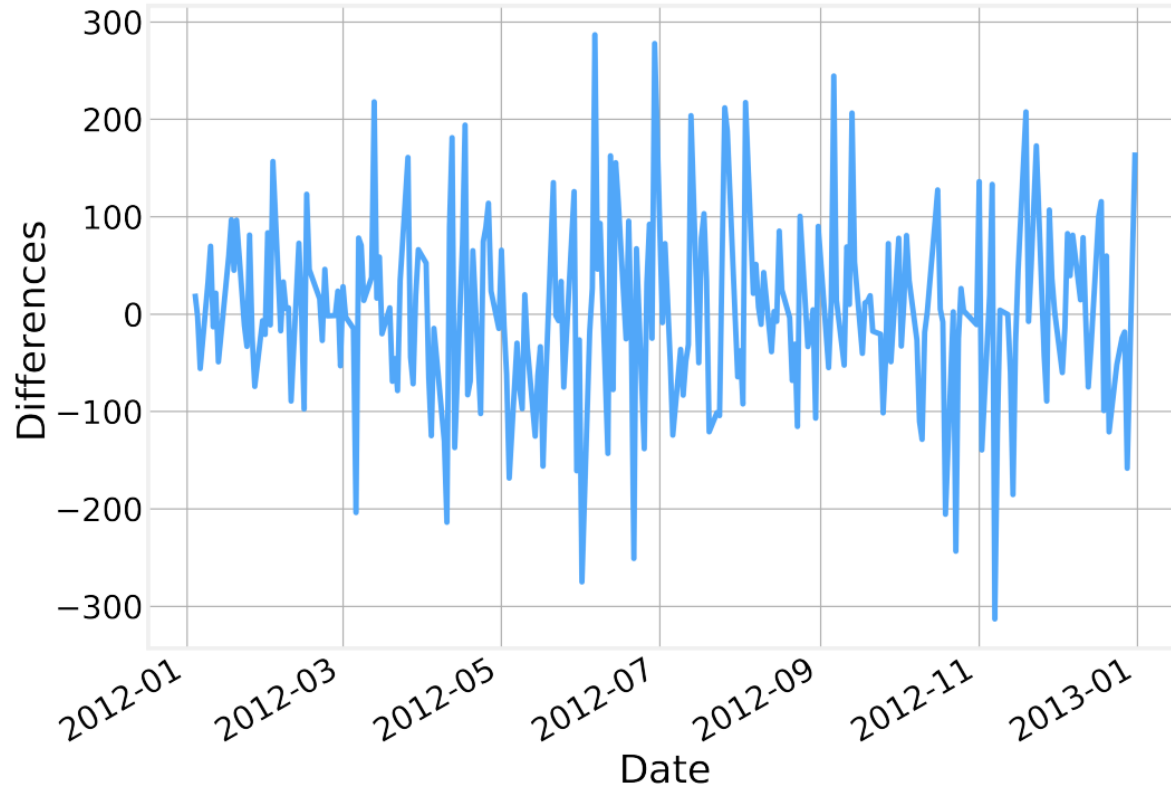
- This can be thought of as a discrete version of the usual derivative of a function
- Differences are also a particularly simple way to **detrend** a time series

# Differences



Consider again the DJIA variable that gives the average stock price

# Differences



The differences look more like a stationary series.