



Rob J Hyndman

Forecasting using



7. Transformations and adjustments

OTexts.com/fpp/2/4/

Forecasting using R

ı

Outline

1 Exponential smoothing

2 Transformations

3 Adjustments

- Automatically chooses a model by default using the AIC, AICc or BIC.
- Can handle any combination of trend, seasonality and damping
- Produces prediction intervals for every model
- Ensures the parameters are admissible (equivalent to invertible)
- Produces an object of class ets.

- Automatically chooses a model by default using the AIC, AICc or BIC.
- Can handle any combination of trend, seasonality and damping
- Produces prediction intervals for every model
- Ensures the parameters are admissible (equivalent to invertible)
- Produces an object of class ets.

- Automatically chooses a model by default using the AIC, AICc or BIC.
- Can handle any combination of trend, seasonality and damping
- Produces prediction intervals for every model
- Ensures the parameters are admissible (equivalent to invertible)
- Produces an object of class ets.

- Automatically chooses a model by default using the AIC, AICc or BIC.
- Can handle any combination of trend, seasonality and damping
- Produces prediction intervals for every model
- Ensures the parameters are admissible (equivalent to invertible)
- Produces an object of class ets.

- Automatically chooses a model by default using the AIC, AICc or BIC.
- Can handle any combination of trend, seasonality and damping
- Produces prediction intervals for every model
- Ensures the parameters are admissible (equivalent to invertible)
- Produces an object of class ets.

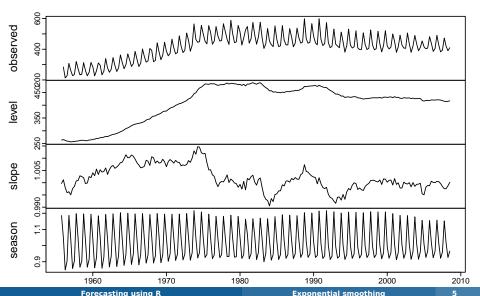
ets objects

- Methods: coef(), plot(), summary(), residuals(), fitted(), simulate() and forecast()
- plot() function shows time plots of the original time series along with the extracted components (level, growth and seasonal).

ets objects

- Methods: coef(), plot(), summary(),
 residuals(), fitted(), simulate()
 and forecast()
- plot() function shows time plots of the original time series along with the extracted components (level, growth and seasonal).

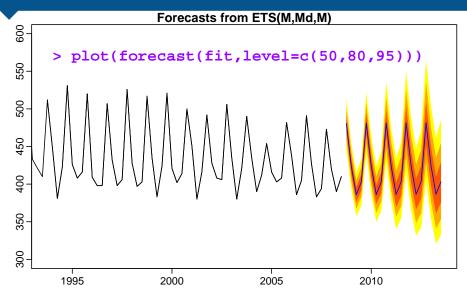
plot(fit)
Decomposition by ETS(M,Md,M) method



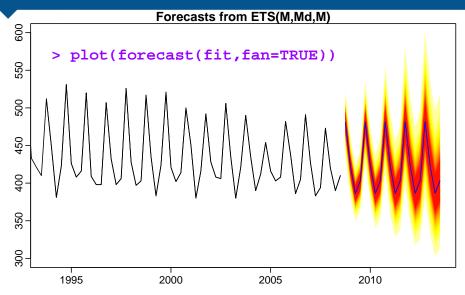
Goodness-of-fit

```
> accuracy(fit)
    ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE
0.17847 15.48781 11.77800 0.07204 2.81921 0.20705
> accuracy(fit2)
    ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE
-0.11711 15.90526 12.18930 -0.03765 2.91255 0.21428
```

Forecast intervals



Forecast intervals



ets() function also allows refitting model to new data set.

```
> usfit <- ets(usnetelec[1:45])
> test <- ets(usnetelec[46:55], model = usfit)

> accuracy(test)
    ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE
-3.35419 58.02763 43.85545 -0.07624 1.18483 0.52452

> accuracy(forecast(usfit,10), usnetelec[46:55])
    ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE
    40.7034 61.2075 46.3246 1.0980 1.2620 0.6776
```

Unstable models

- ETS(M,M,A)
- ETS(M,M_d,A)
- ETS(A,N,M)
- ETS(A,A,M)
- \blacksquare ETS(A,A_d,M)
- ETS(A,M,N)
- ETS(A,M,A)
- ETS(A,M,M)
- \blacksquare ETS(A,M_d,N)
- ETS(A,Md,A)
- \blacksquare ETS(A,M_d,M)

Unstable models

- ETS(M,M,A)
- ETS(M,M_d,A)
- ETS(A,N,M)
- ETS(A,A,M)
- ETS(A,A_d,M)
- ETS(A,M,N)
- ETS(A,M,A)
- ETS(A,M,M)
- ETS(A,M_d,N)
- ETS(A,M_d,A)
- ETS(A,M_d,M)

In practice, the models work fine for short- to medium-term forecasts provided the data are strictly positive.

Forecastability conditions

```
ets(y, model="ZZZ", damped=NULL, alpha=NULL,
    beta=NULL, gamma=NULL, phi=NULL,
    additive.only=FALSE,
    lower=c(rep(0.0001,3),0.80),
    upper=c(rep(0.9999,3),0.98),
    opt.crit=c("lik","amse","mse","sigma"),
    nmse=3,
    bounds=c("both", "usual", "admissible"),
    ic=c("aic","aicc","bic"), restrict=TRUE)
```

The magic forecast() function

- forecast returns forecasts when applied to an ets object (or the output from many other time series models).
- If you use forecast directly on data, it will select an ETS model automatically and then return forecasts.

The magic forecast() function

- forecast returns forecasts when applied to an ets object (or the output from many other time series models).
- If you use **forecast** directly on data, it will select an ETS model automatically and then return forecasts.

Outline

1 Exponential smoothing

2 Transformations

3 Adjustments

If the data show different variation at different levels of the series, then a transformation can be useful.

Denote original observations as y_1, \ldots, y_n and transformed observations as w_1, \ldots, w_n .

Mathematical transformations for stabilizing variation

Square root
$$w_t = \sqrt{y_t}$$

be root
$$w_t = \sqrt[3]{v_t}$$
 Increasing

Logarithm
$$w_t = \log(y_t)$$
 strength

If the data show different variation at different levels of the series, then a transformation can be useful.

Denote original observations as y_1, \ldots, y_n and transformed observations as w_1, \ldots, w_n .

Mathematical transformations for stabilizing variation

Square root
$$w_t = \sqrt{y_t}$$
 \downarrow Cube root $w_t = \sqrt[3]{y_t}$ Increasing

If the data show different variation at different levels of the series, then a transformation can be useful.

Denote original observations as y_1, \ldots, y_n and transformed observations as w_1, \ldots, w_n .

Mathematical transformations for stabilizing variation

Square root $w_t = \sqrt{y_t}$

Cube root $w_t = \sqrt[3]{y_t}$ Increasing

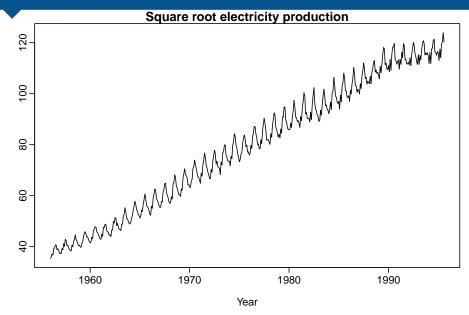
Logarithm $w_t = \log(y_t)$ strength

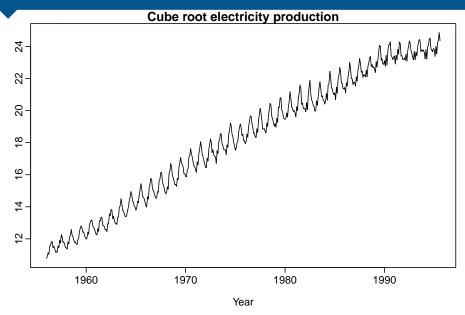
If the data show different variation at different levels of the series, then a transformation can be useful.

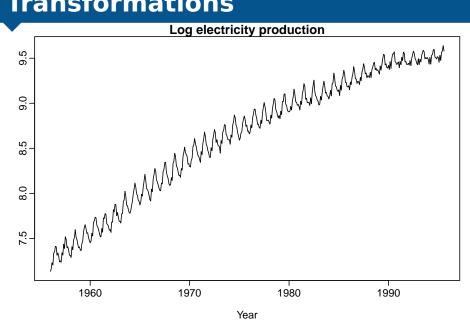
Denote original observations as y_1, \ldots, y_n and transformed observations as w_1, \ldots, w_n .

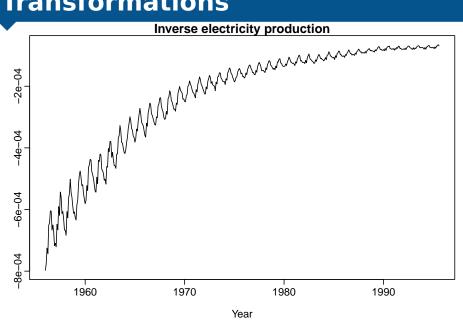
Mathematical transformations for stabilizing variation

Square root $w_t = \sqrt{y_t}$ \downarrow Cube root $w_t = \sqrt[3]{y_t}$ Increasing Logarithm $w_t = \log(y_t)$ strength









Each of these transformations is close to a member of the family of **Box-Cox transformations**:

$$w_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \log(y_t), & \lambda = 0; \ (y_t^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda
eq 0. \end{array}
ight.$$

 $\lambda = 1$: (No substantive transformation)

 $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$: (Square root plus linear transformation)

 $\lambda = 0$: (Natural logarithm)

$$w_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \log(y_t), & \lambda = 0; \ (y_t^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda
eq 0. \end{array}
ight.$$

- $\lambda = 1$: (No substantive transformation)
- $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$: (Square root plus linear transformation)
- $\lambda = 0$: (Natural logarithm)
- $\lambda = -1$: (Inverse plus 1)

$$w_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \log(y_t), & \lambda = 0; \ (y_t^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda
eq 0. \end{array}
ight.$$

- $\lambda = 1$: (No substantive transformation)
- $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$: (Square root plus linear transformation)
- $\lambda = 0$: (Natural logarithm)
- $\lambda = -1$: (Inverse plus 1)

$$w_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \log(y_t), & \lambda = 0; \ (y_t^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda
eq 0. \end{array}
ight.$$

- $\lambda = 1$: (No substantive transformation)
- $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$: (Square root plus linear transformation)
- $\lambda = 0$: (Natural logarithm)
- $\lambda = -1$: (Inverse plus 1)

$$w_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \log(y_t), & \lambda = 0; \ (y_t^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda
eq 0. \end{array}
ight.$$

- $\lambda = 1$: (No substantive transformation)
- $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$: (Square root plus linear transformation)
- $\lambda = 0$: (Natural logarithm)
- $\lambda = -1$: (Inverse plus 1)

Forecasting using R Transformations 16

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a constant to all values**.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- \blacksquare Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

Forecasting using R

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a** constant to all values.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- lacksquare Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

Forecasting using R

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a** constant to all values.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- lacktriangle Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

Forecasting using R

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a** constant to all values.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- lacktriangle Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a** constant to all values.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- lacktriangle Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

Forecasting using R Transformations

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a** constant to all values.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- lacktriangle Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

Forecasting using R Transformations

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a** constant to all values.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- lacktriangle Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

Forecasting using R Transformations

- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by **adding a** constant to all values.
- Choose a simple value of λ . It makes explanation easier.
- lacktriangle Results are relatively insensitive to value of λ
- Often no transformation ($\lambda = 1$) needed.
- Transformation often makes little difference to forecasts but has large effect on PI.
- Choosing $\lambda = 0$ is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

Back-transformation

We must reverse the transformation (or back-transform) to obtain forecasts on the original scale. The reverse Box-Cox transformations are given by

$$y_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \exp(w_t), & \lambda = 0; \ (\lambda W_t + 1)^{1/\lambda}, & \lambda
eq 0. \end{array}
ight.$$

```
plot(BoxCox(elec,lambda=1/3))
fit <- snaive(elec, lambda=1/3)
plot(fit)
plot(fit, include=120)</pre>
```

Back-transformation

We must reverse the transformation (or back-transform) to obtain forecasts on the original scale. The reverse Box-Cox transformations are given by

$$y_t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \exp(w_t), & \lambda = 0; \ (\lambda W_t + 1)^{1/\lambda}, & \lambda
eq 0. \end{array}
ight.$$

```
plot(BoxCox(elec,lambda=1/3))
fit <- snaive(elec, lambda=1/3)
plot(fit)
plot(fit, include=120)</pre>
```

BoxCox.lambda(elec)

- This attempts to balance the seasonal fluctuations and random variation across the series.
- Always check the results
- A low value of λ can give extremely large prediction intervals.

BoxCox.lambda(elec)

- This attempts to balance the seasonal fluctuations and random variation across the series.
- Always check the results.
- A low value of λ can give extremely large prediction intervals.

BoxCox.lambda(elec)

- This attempts to balance the seasonal fluctuations and random variation across the series.
- Always check the results.
- A low value of λ can give extremely large prediction intervals.

Forecasting using R

BoxCox.lambda(elec)

- This attempts to balance the seasonal fluctuations and random variation across the series.
- Always check the results.
- A low value of λ can give extremely large prediction intervals.

Forecasting using R

ETS and transformations

- A Box-Cox transformation followed by an additive ETS model is often better than an ETS model without transformation.
- A Box-Cox transformation followed by STL + ETS is often better than an ETS model without transformation.
- It makes no sense to use a Box-Cox transformation and a non-additive ETS model.

ETS and transformations

- A Box-Cox transformation followed by an additive ETS model is often better than an ETS model without transformation.
- A Box-Cox transformation followed by STL + ETS is often better than an ETS model without transformation.
- It makes no sense to use a Box-Cox transformation and a non-additive ETS model.

ETS and transformations

- A Box-Cox transformation followed by an additive ETS model is often better than an ETS model without transformation.
- A Box-Cox transformation followed by STL + ETS is often better than an ETS model without transformation.
- It makes no sense to use a Box-Cox transformation and a non-additive ETS model.

Outline

1 Exponential smoothing

2 Transformations

3 Adjustments

Calendar adjustments

Some of the variation in a time series may be due to the variation in the number of trading days each month. It is a good idea to adjust for this known source of variation to allow study of other interesting features.

- Month length
- Trading day

Calendar adjustments

Some of the variation in a time series may be due to the variation in the number of trading days each month. It is a good idea to adjust for this known source of variation to allow study of other interesting features.

- Month length
- Trading day

Month length adjustment

If this is not removed, it shows up as a seasonal effect, which may not cause problems though it does make any seasonal pattern hard to interpret. It is easily adjusted for:

$$egin{aligned} y_t^* &= y_t imes rac{ ext{no. of days in an average month}}{ ext{no. of days in month } t} \ &= y_t imes rac{365.25/12}{ ext{no. of days in month } t} \end{aligned}$$

where y_t has already been transformed if necessary.

monthdays gives the number of days in each month or quarter.

Forecasting using R Adjustments 23

Month length adjustment

If this is not removed, it shows up as a seasonal effect, which may not cause problems though it does make any seasonal pattern hard to interpret. It is easily adjusted for:

$$egin{aligned} y_t^* &= y_t imes rac{ ext{no. of days in an average month}}{ ext{no. of days in month } t} \ &= y_t imes rac{365.25/12}{ ext{no. of days in month } t} \end{aligned}$$

where y_t has already been transformed if necessary.

monthdays gives the number of days in each month or quarter.

Forecasting using R Adjustments 23

- occurs in monthly data when there is also a weekly cycle, since proportions of various days in given month vary from year to year.
- number of trading days is predictable, but effects of various days are unknown.
- **Simplest case:** All trading days assumed to have same effect.
 - $y_t^* = y_t \times \frac{\text{no. of trading days in average month}}{\text{no. of trading days in month } t}$ where y_t has already been adjusted for month length and transformed if necessary.
- If weekly cycle more complex, these effects must be estimated from data

Forecasting using R Adjustments

- occurs in monthly data when there is also a weekly cycle, since proportions of various days in given month vary from year to year.
- number of trading days is predictable, but effects of various days are unknown.
- **Simplest case:** All trading days assumed to have same effect.
 - $y_t^* = y_t \times \frac{\text{no. of trading days in average month}}{\text{no. of trading days in month } t}$ where y_t has already been adjusted for month length and transformed if necessary.
- If weekly cycle more complex, these effects must be estimated from data.

Forecasting using R Adjustments

- occurs in monthly data when there is also a weekly cycle, since proportions of various days in given month vary from year to year.
- number of trading days is predictable, but effects of various days are unknown.
- **Simplest case:** All trading days assumed to have same effect.

$$y_t^* = y_t \times \frac{\text{no. of trading days in average month}}{\text{no. of trading days in month } t}$$
 where y_t has already been adjusted for month length and transformed if necessary.

If weekly cycle more complex, these effects must be estimated from data.

Forecasting using R Adjustments

- occurs in monthly data when there is also a weekly cycle, since proportions of various days in given month vary from year to year.
- number of trading days is predictable, but effects of various days are unknown.
- Simplest case: All trading days assumed to have same effect.
 - $y_t^* = y_t \times \frac{\text{no. of trading days in average month}}{\text{no. of trading days in month } t}$ where y_t has already been adjusted for month length and transformed if necessary.
- If weekly cycle more complex, these effects must be estimated from data.

Forecasting using R Adjustments

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law

Examples:

- Calendar variation
- Increasing population
- Inflation
- Strikes
- Changes in government
- Changes in law