

Data Science 11

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Master's Degree Programme in Cognitive Science
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Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

Multiple regression and forecasting

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \beta_2 x_{2,t} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + \varepsilon_t.$$

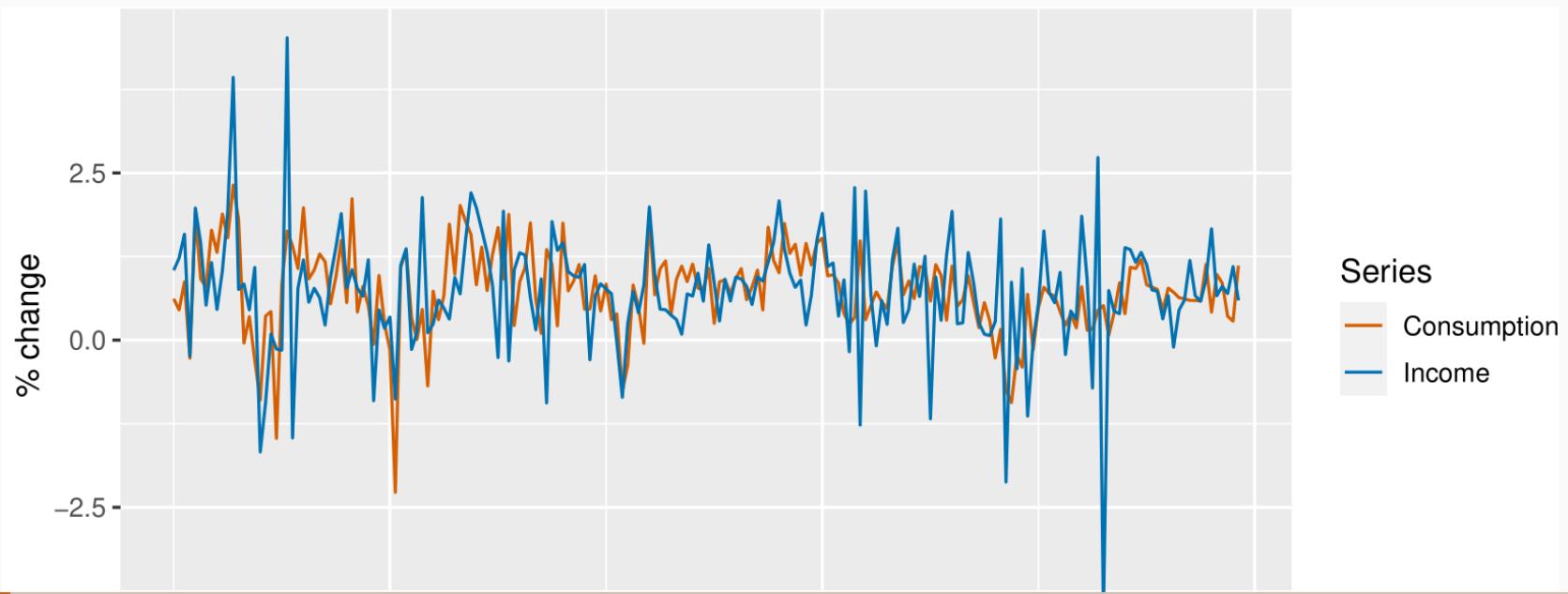
- y_t is the variable we want to predict: the “response” variable
- Each $x_{j,t}$ is numerical and is called a “predictor”. They are usually assumed to be known for all past and future times.
- The coefficients β_1, \dots, β_k measure the effect of each predictor after taking account of the effect of all other predictors in the model.

That is, the coefficients measure the **marginal effects**.

- ε_t is a white noise error term

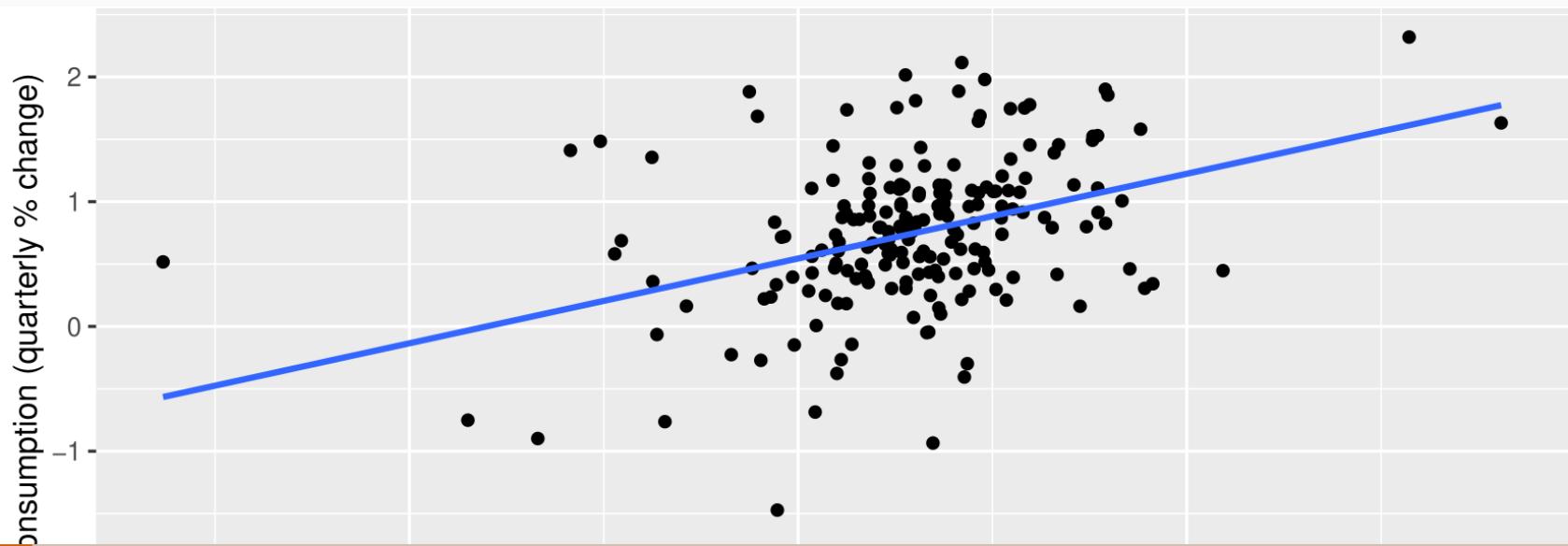
Example: US consumption expenditure

```
us_change %>%
  pivot_longer(c(Consumption, Income), names_to="Series") %>%
  autoplot(value) +
  labs(y="% change")
```



Example: US consumption expenditure

```
us_change %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = Income, y = Consumption)) +
  labs(y = "Consumption (quarterly % change)",
       x = "Income (quarterly % change)") +
  geom_point() + geom_smooth(method = "lm", se = FALSE)
```



Example: US consumption expenditure

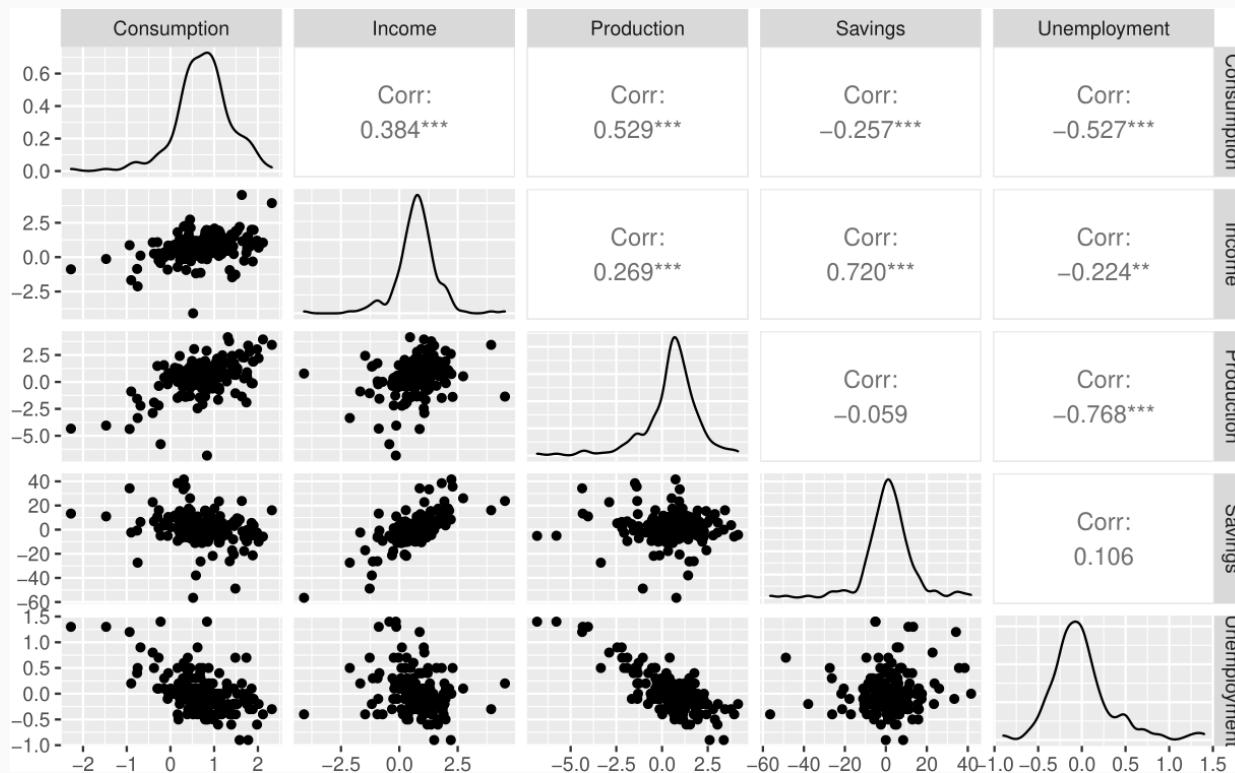
```
fit_cons <- us_change %>%
  model(lm = TSLM(Consumption ~ Income))
report(fit_cons)

## Series: Consumption
## Model: TSLM
##
## Residuals:
##    Min     1Q Median     3Q    Max
## -2.582 -0.278  0.019  0.323  1.422
##
## Coefficients:
##             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  0.5445    0.0540   10.08  < 2e-16 ***
## Income       0.2718    0.0467    5.82  2.4e-08 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.591 on 196 degrees of freedom
```

Example: US consumption expenditure



Example: US consumption expenditure



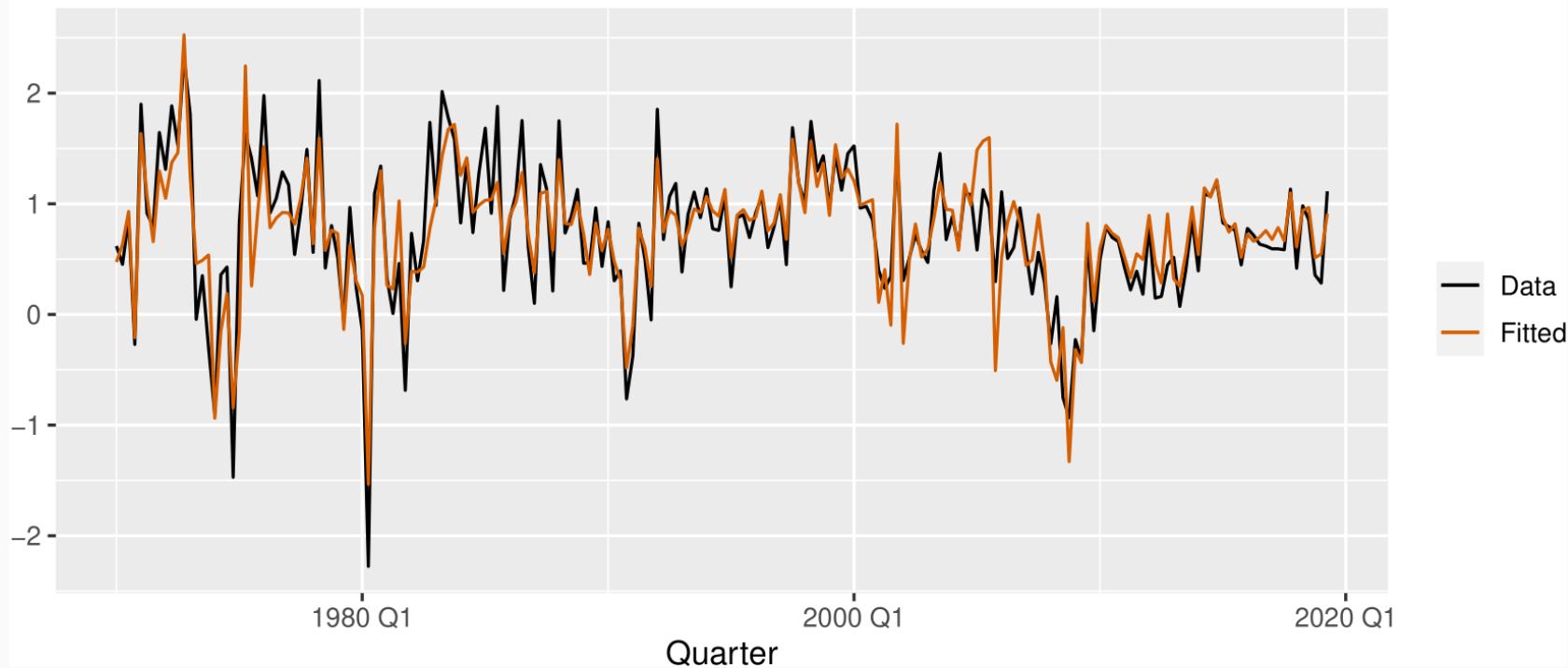
Example: US consumption expenditure

```
fit_consMR <- us_change %>%
  model(lm = TSLM(Consumption ~ Income + Production + Unemployment + Savings))
report(fit_consMR)
```

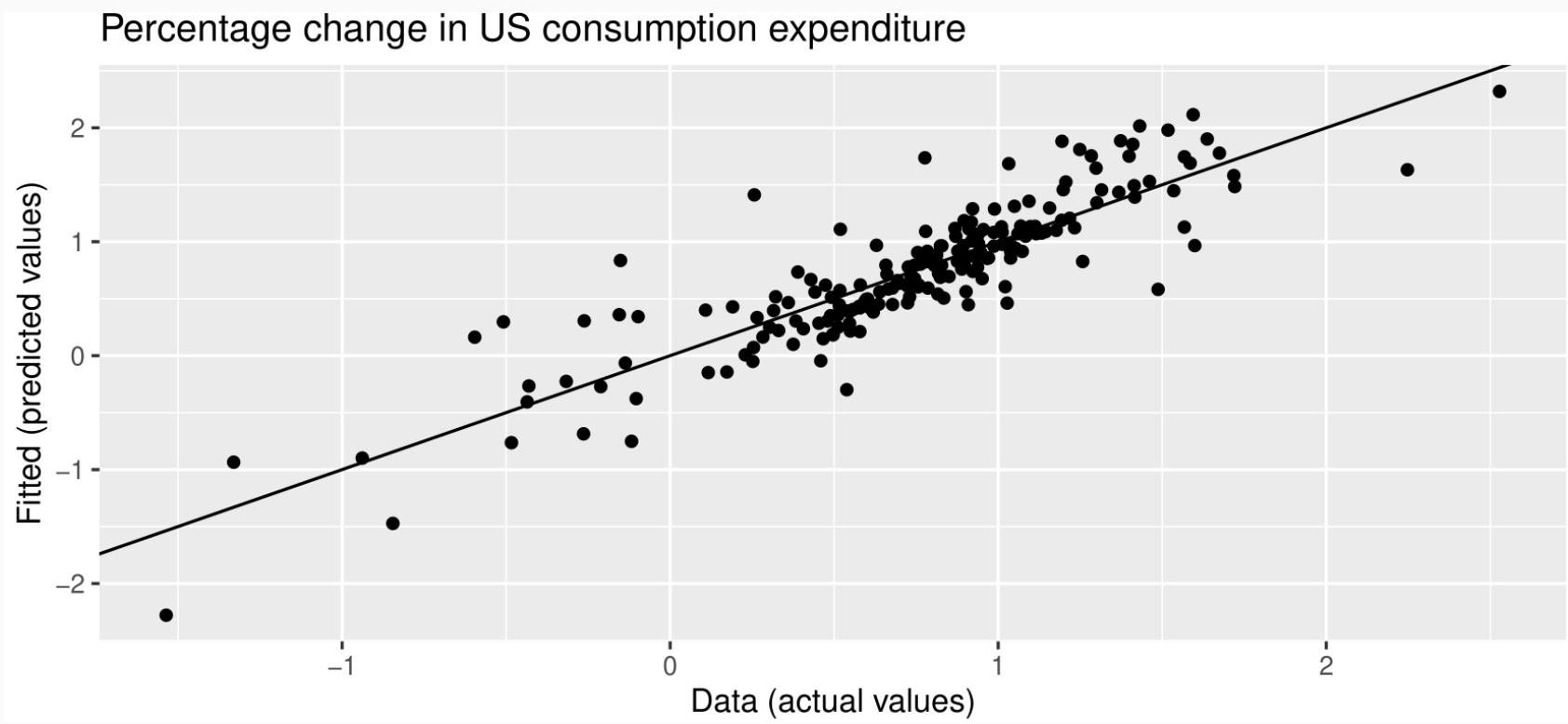
```
## Series: Consumption
## Model: TSLM
##
## Residuals:
##     Min      1Q Median      3Q     Max
## -0.906 -0.158 -0.036  0.136  1.155
##
## Coefficients:
##             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 0.25311   0.03447   7.34  5.7e-12 ***
## Income      0.74058   0.04012  18.46  < 2e-16 ***
## Production  0.04717   0.02314   2.04   0.043 *
## Unemployment -0.17469  0.09551  -1.83   0.069 .
## Savings     -0.05289  0.00292  -18.09  < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.31 on 193 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.768   Adjusted R-squared:  0.763
```

Example: US consumption expenditure

Percent change in US consumption expenditure

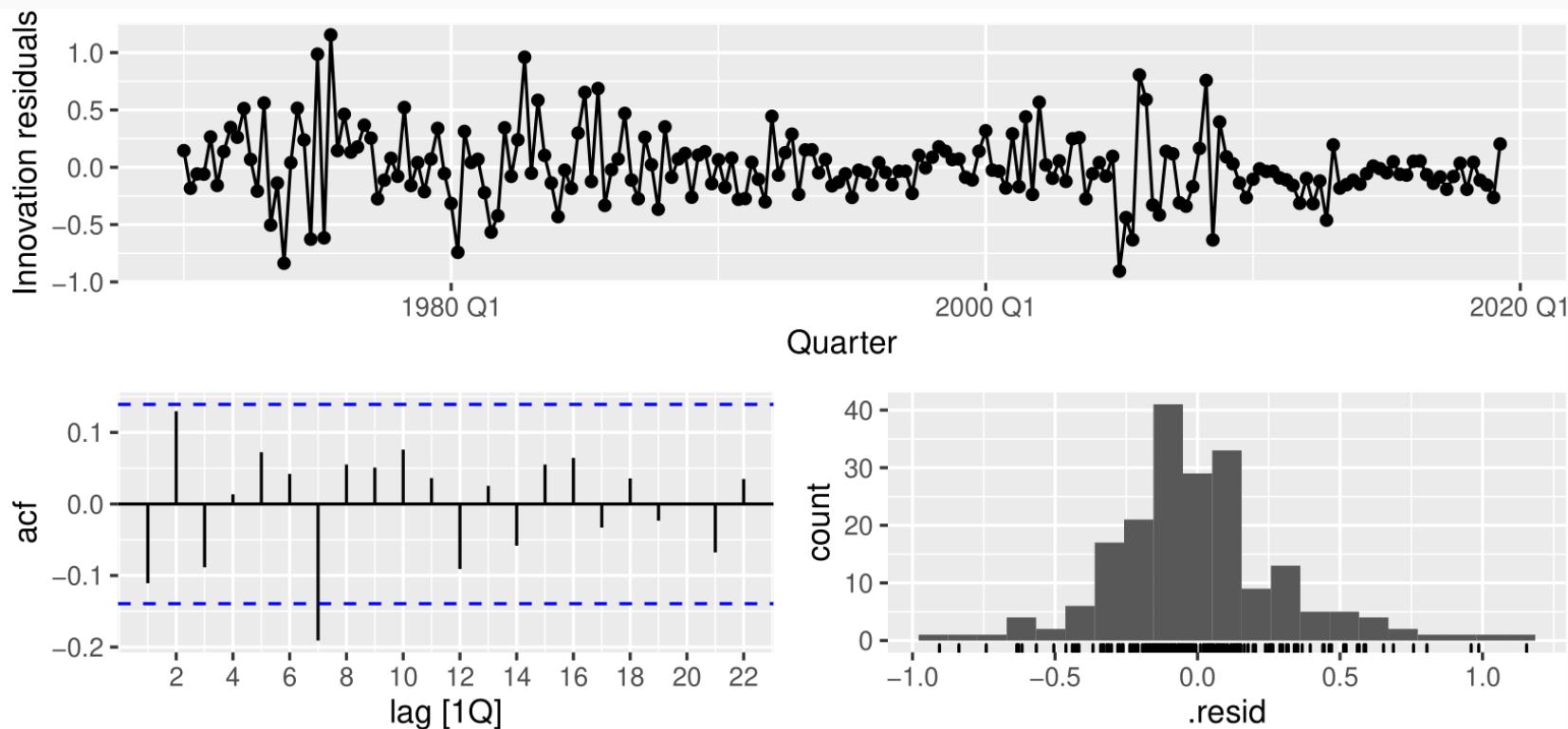


Example: US consumption expenditure



Example: US consumption expenditure

```
fit_consMR %>% gg_tsresiduals()
```



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Trend

Linear trend

$$x_t = t$$

- $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$
- Strong assumption that trend will continue.

Dummy variables

If a categorical variable takes only two values (e.g., 'Yes' or 'No'), then an equivalent numerical variable can be constructed taking value 1 if yes and 0 if no. This is called a **dummy variable**.

	A	B
1	Yes	1
2	Yes	1
3	No	0
4	Yes	1
5	No	0
6	No	0
7	Yes	1
8	Yes	1
9	No	0
10	No	0
11	No	0
12	No	0
13	Yes	1
14	No	0
...		

Dummy variables

If there are more than two categories, then the variable can be coded using several dummy variables (one fewer than the total number of categories).

	A	B	C	D	E
1	Monday		1	0	0
2	Tuesday		0	1	0
3	Wednesday		0	0	1
4	Thursday		0	0	0
5	Friday		0	0	0
6	Monday	1	0	0	0
7	Tuesday	0	1	0	0
8	Wednesday	0	0	1	0
9	Thursday	0	0	0	1
10	Friday	0	0	0	0
11	Monday	1	0	0	0
12	Tuesday	0	1	0	0
13	Wednesday	0	0	1	0
14	Thursday	0	0	0	1
15	Friday	0	0	0	0

Beware of the dummy variable trap!

- Using one dummy for each category gives too many dummy variables!
- The regression will then be singular and inestimable.
- Either omit the constant, or omit the dummy for one category.
- The coefficients of the dummies are relative to the omitted category.

Uses of dummy variables

Seasonal dummies

- For quarterly data: use 3 dummies
- For monthly data: use 11 dummies
- For daily data: use 6 dummies
- What to do with weekly data?

Outliers

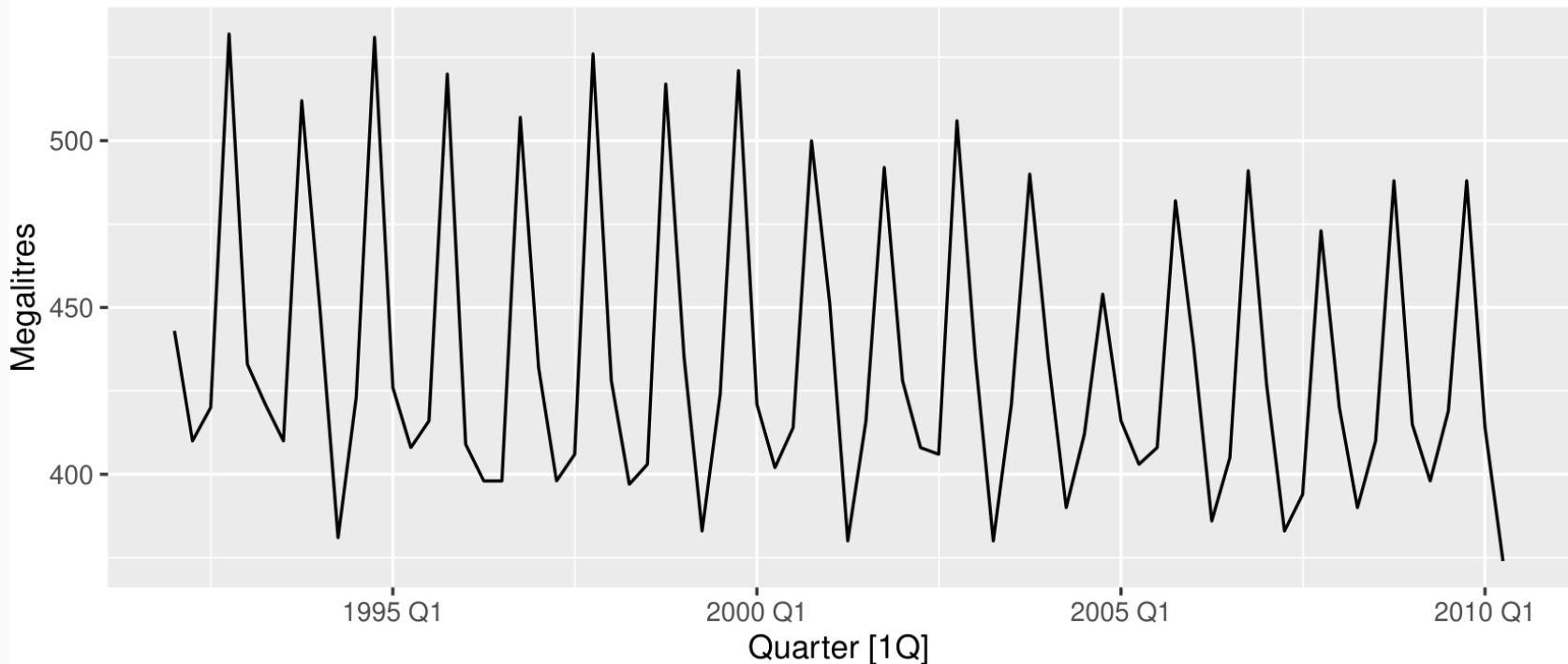
- If there is an outlier, you can use a dummy variable to remove its effect.

Public holidays

- For daily data: if it is a public holiday, dummy=1, otherwise dummy=0.

Beer production revisited

Australian quarterly beer production



Regression model

Beer production revisited

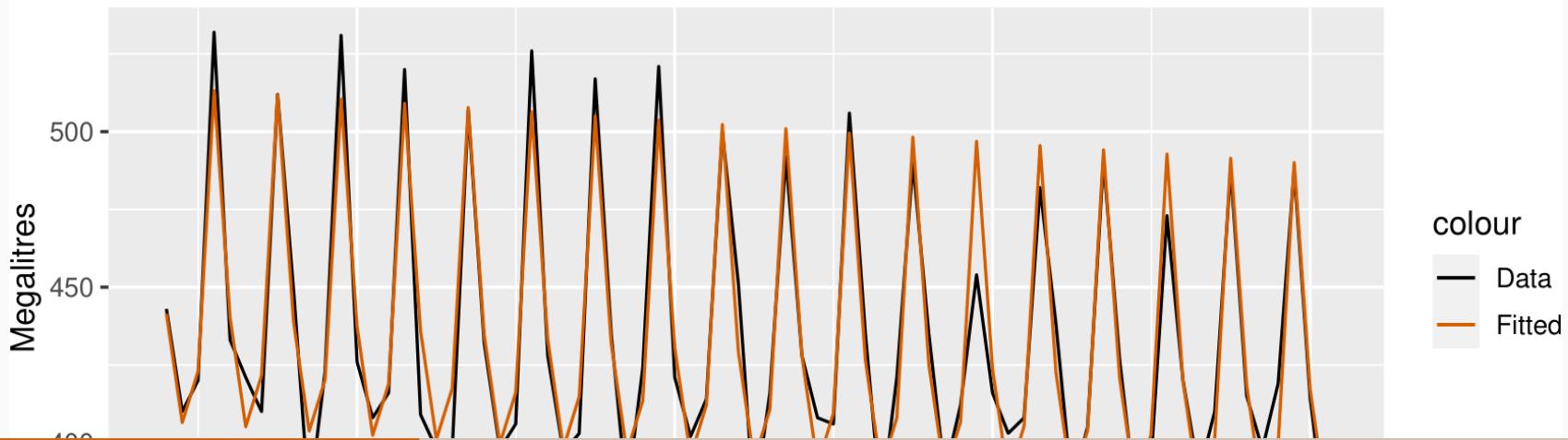
```
fit_beer <- recent_production %>% model(TSLM(Beer ~ trend() + season()))
report(fit_beer)

## Series: Beer
## Model: TSLM
##
## Residuals:
##    Min     1Q Median     3Q    Max
## -42.9   -7.6   -0.5    8.0   21.8
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)    
## (Intercept) 441.8004   3.7335 118.33 < 2e-16 ***
## trend()      -0.3403   0.0666  -5.11  2.7e-06 ***
## season()year2 -34.6597   3.9683  -8.73  9.1e-13 ***
## season()year3 -17.8216   4.0225  -4.43  3.4e-05 ***
## season()year4  72.7964   4.0230  18.09 < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 12.2 on 69 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.821   Adjusted R-squared: 0.821
```

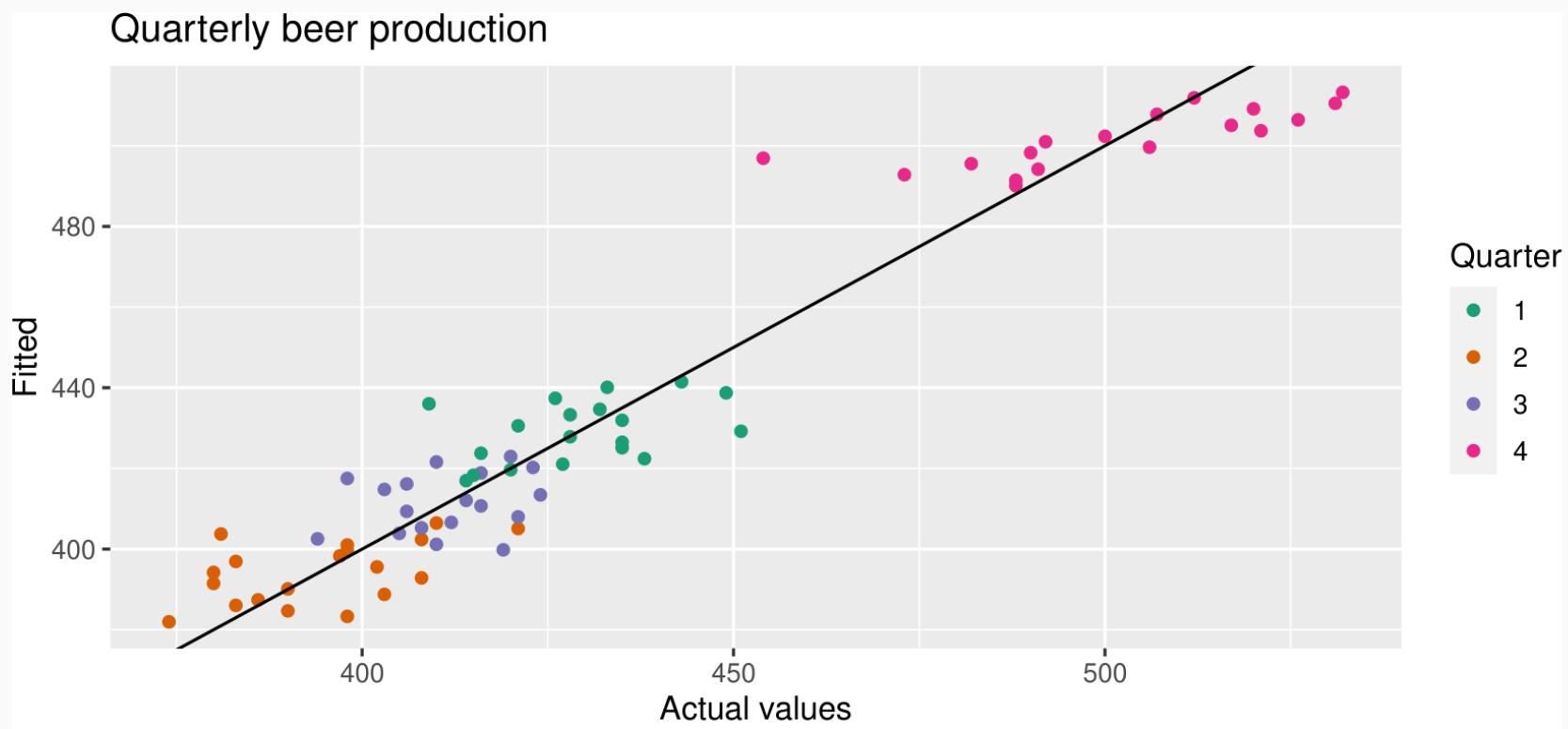
Beer production revisited

```
augment(fit_beer) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = Quarter)) +
  geom_line(aes(y = Beer, colour = "Data")) +
  geom_line(aes(y = .fitted, colour = "Fitted")) +
  labs(y="Megalitres",title ="Australian quarterly beer production") +
  scale_colour_manual(values = c(Data = "black", Fitted = "#D55E00"))
```

Australian quarterly beer production

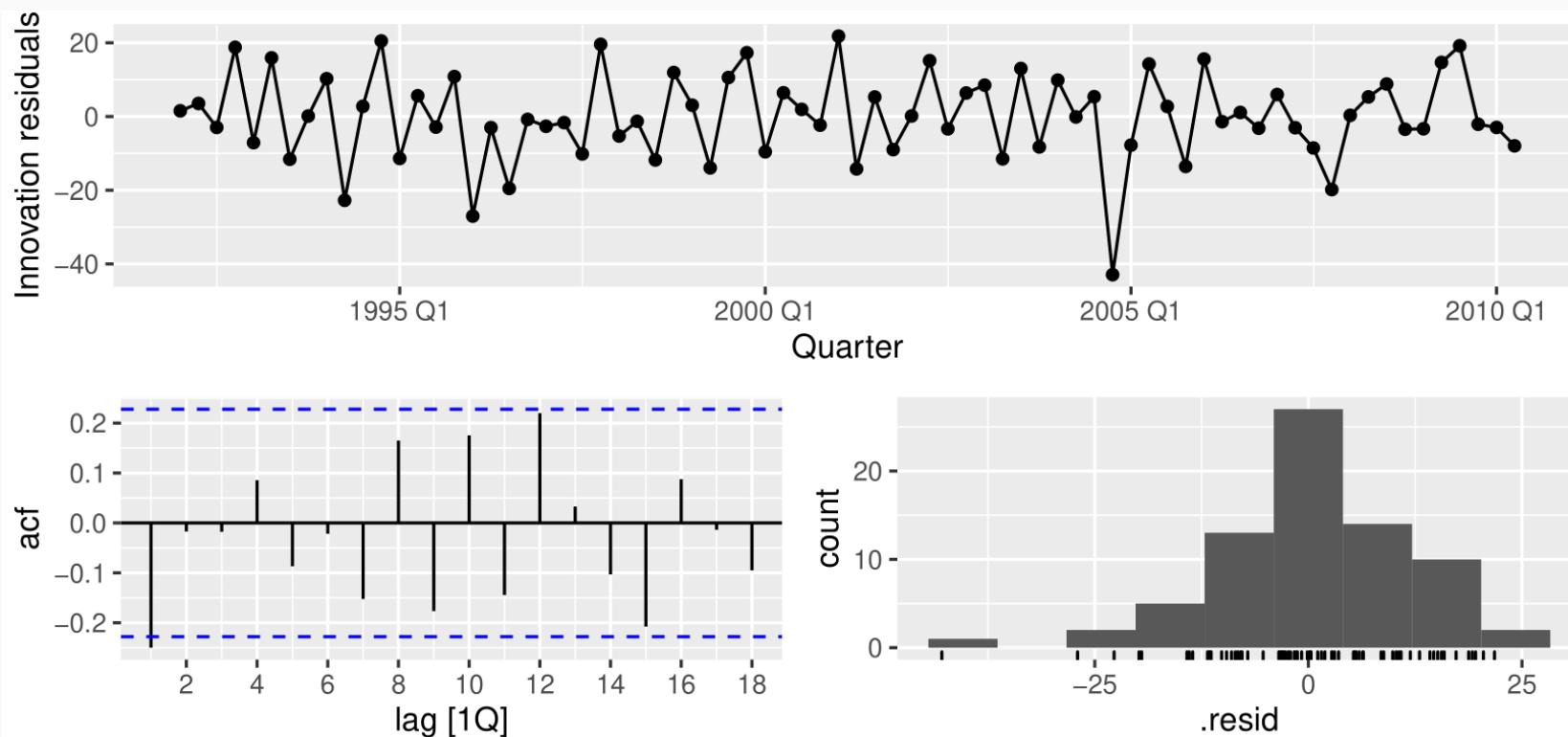


Beer production revisited



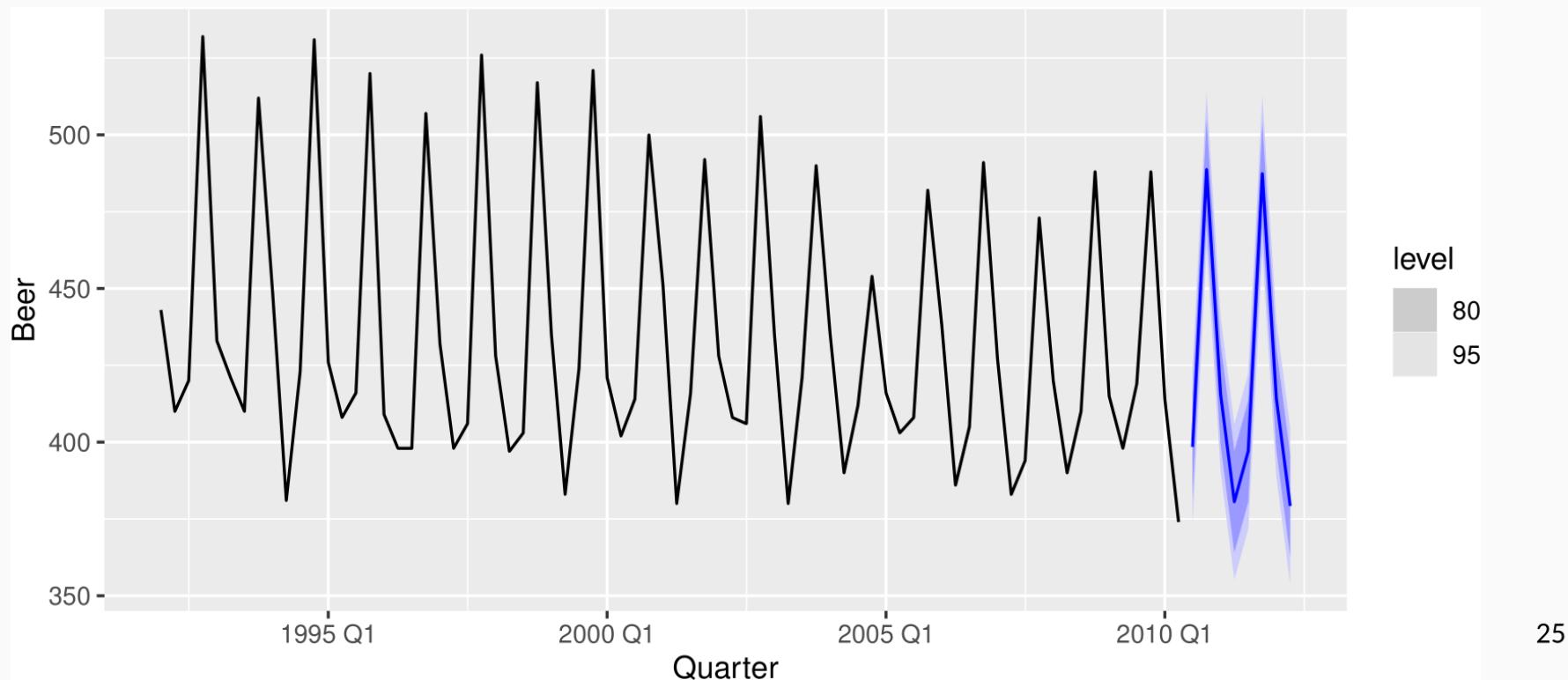
Beer production revisited

```
fit_beer %>% gg_tsresiduals()
```



Beer production revisited

```
fit_beer %>% forecast %>% autoplot(recent_production)
```



Fourier series

Periodic seasonality can be handled using pairs of Fourier terms:

$$s_k(t) = \sin\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{m}\right) \quad c_k(t) = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{m}\right)$$

$$y_t = a + bt + \sum_{k=1}^K [\alpha_k s_k(t) + \beta_k c_k(t)] + \varepsilon_t$$

- Every periodic function can be approximated by sums of sin and cos terms for large enough K .
- Choose K by minimizing AICc.
- Called “harmonic regression”

```
TSLM(y ~ trend() + fourier(K))
```

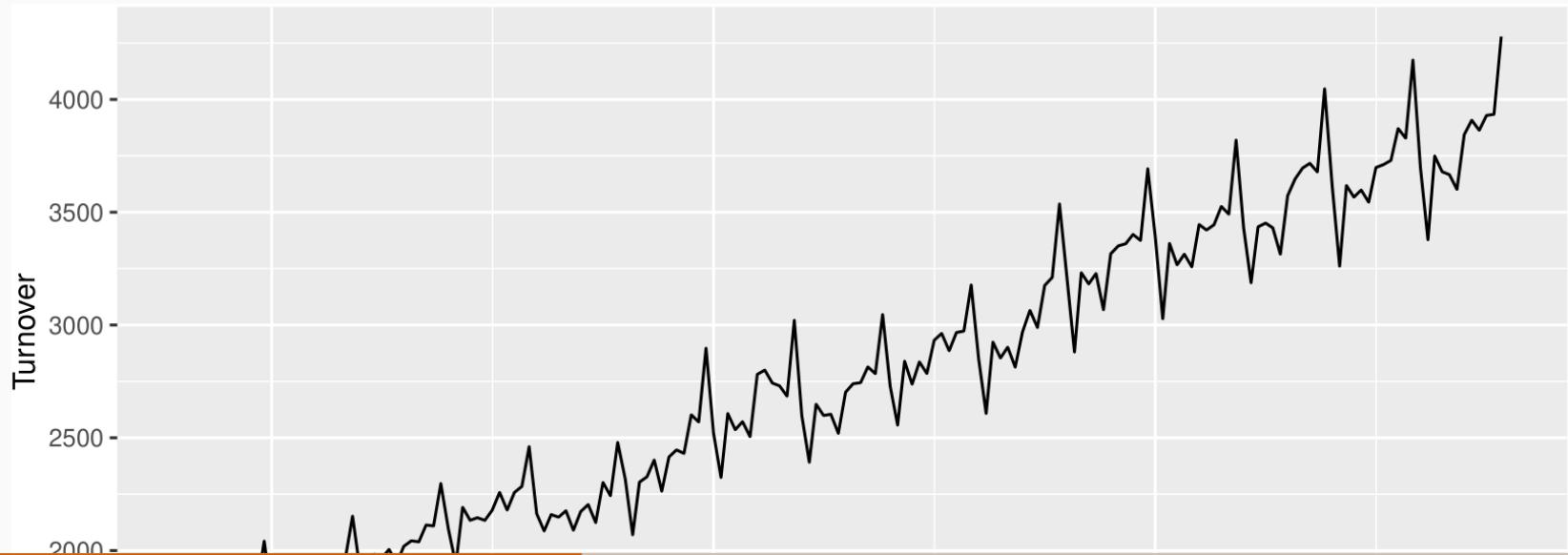
Harmonic regression: beer production

```
fourier_beer <- recent_production %>% model(TSLM(Beer ~ trend() + fourier(K=2)))
report(fourier_beer)
```

```
## Series: Beer
## Model: TSLM
##
## Residuals:
##    Min     1Q Median     3Q    Max
## -42.9   -7.6   -0.5    8.0   21.8
##
## Coefficients:
##                               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)              446.8792   2.8732  155.53 < 2e-16 ***
## trend()                  -0.3403   0.0666   -5.11  2.7e-06 ***
## fourier(K = 2)C1_4      8.9108   2.0112    4.43  3.4e-05 ***
## fourier(K = 2)S1_4   -53.7281   2.0112   -26.71 < 2e-16 ***
## fourier(K = 2)C2_4   -13.9896   1.4226   -9.83  9.3e-15 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 12.2 on 69 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.924   Adjusted R-squared: 0.92
```

Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure

```
aus_cafe <- aus_retail %>% filter(  
  Industry == "Cafes, restaurants and takeaway food services",  
  year(Month) %in% 2004:2018  
) %>% summarise(Turnover = sum(Turnover))  
aus_cafe %>% autoplot(Turnover)
```

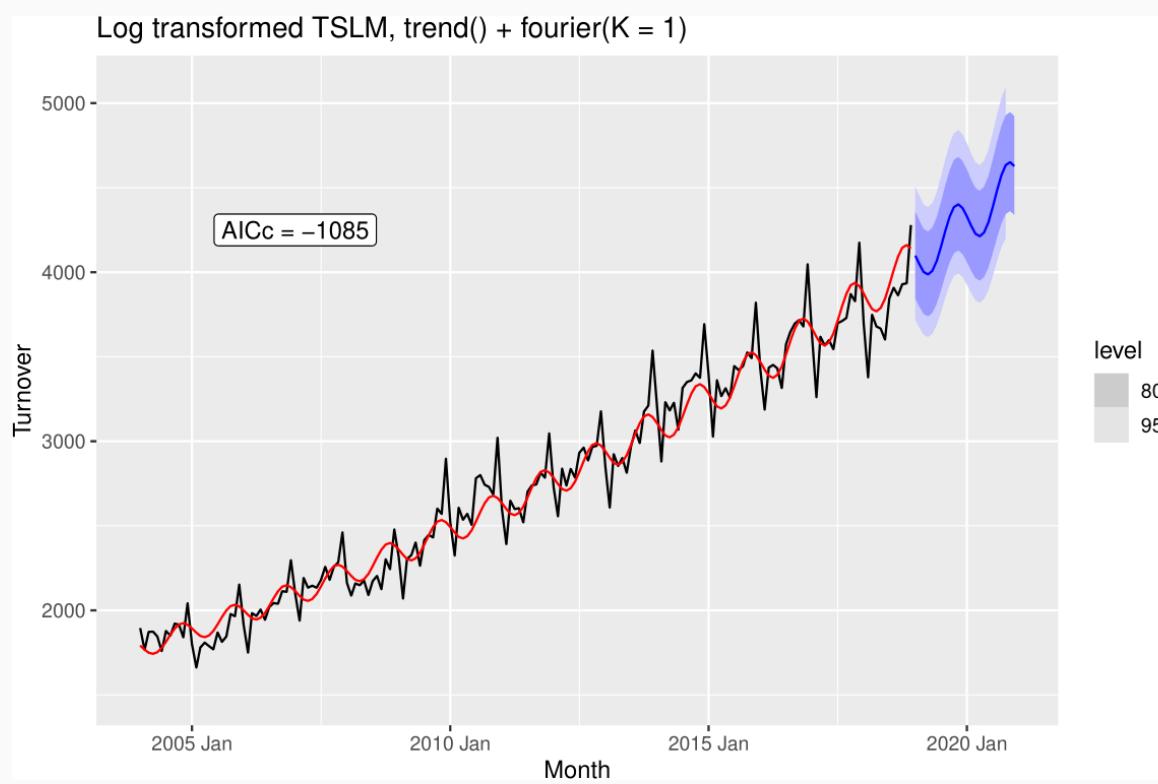


Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure

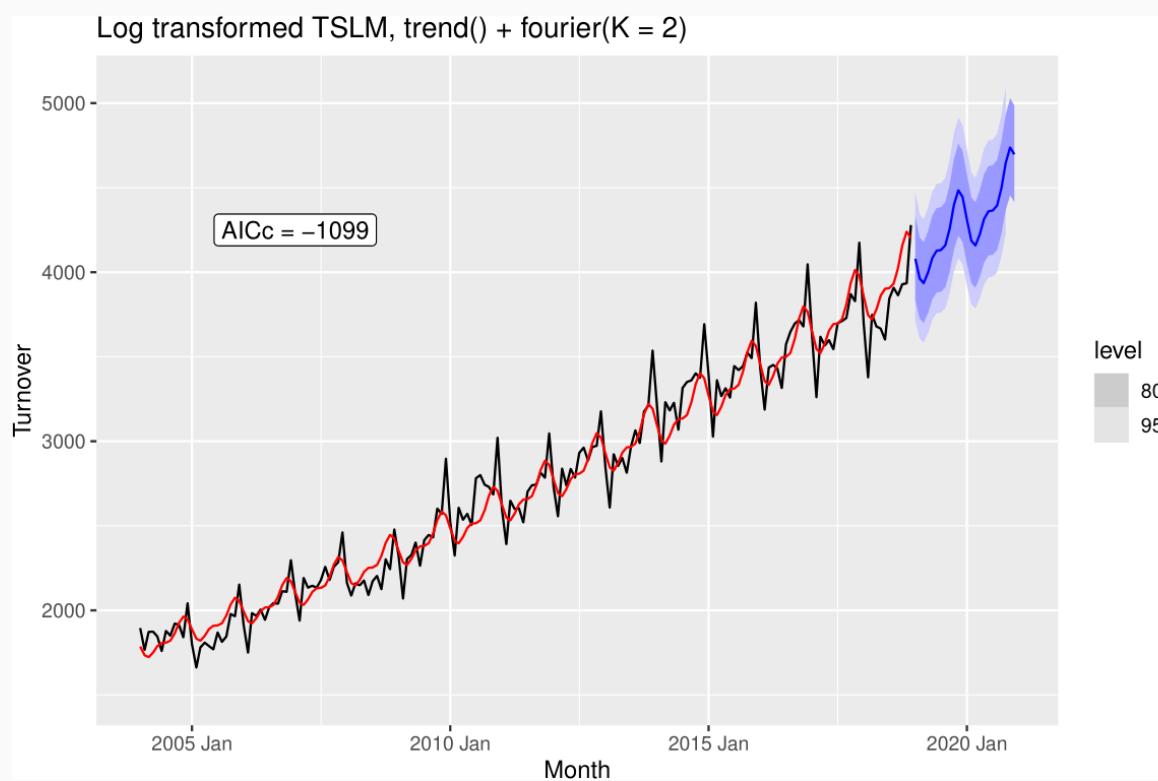
```
fit <- aus_cafe %>%
  model(K1 = TSLM(log(Turnover) ~ trend() + fourier(K = 1)),
        K2 = TSLM(log(Turnover) ~ trend() + fourier(K = 2)),
        K3 = TSLM(log(Turnover) ~ trend() + fourier(K = 3)),
        K4 = TSLM(log(Turnover) ~ trend() + fourier(K = 4)),
        K5 = TSLM(log(Turnover) ~ trend() + fourier(K = 5)),
        K6 = TSLM(log(Turnover) ~ trend() + fourier(K = 6)))
glance(fit) %>% select(.model, r_squared, adj_r_squared, AICc)
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 4
##   .model r_squared adj_r_squared    AICc
##   <chr>     <dbl>         <dbl>    <dbl>
## 1 K1       0.962         0.962 -1085.
## 2 K2       0.966         0.965 -1099.
## 3 K3       0.976         0.975 -1160.
## 4 K4       0.980         0.979 -1183.
## 5 K5       0.985         0.984 -1234.
## 6 K6       0.985         0.984 -1232.
```

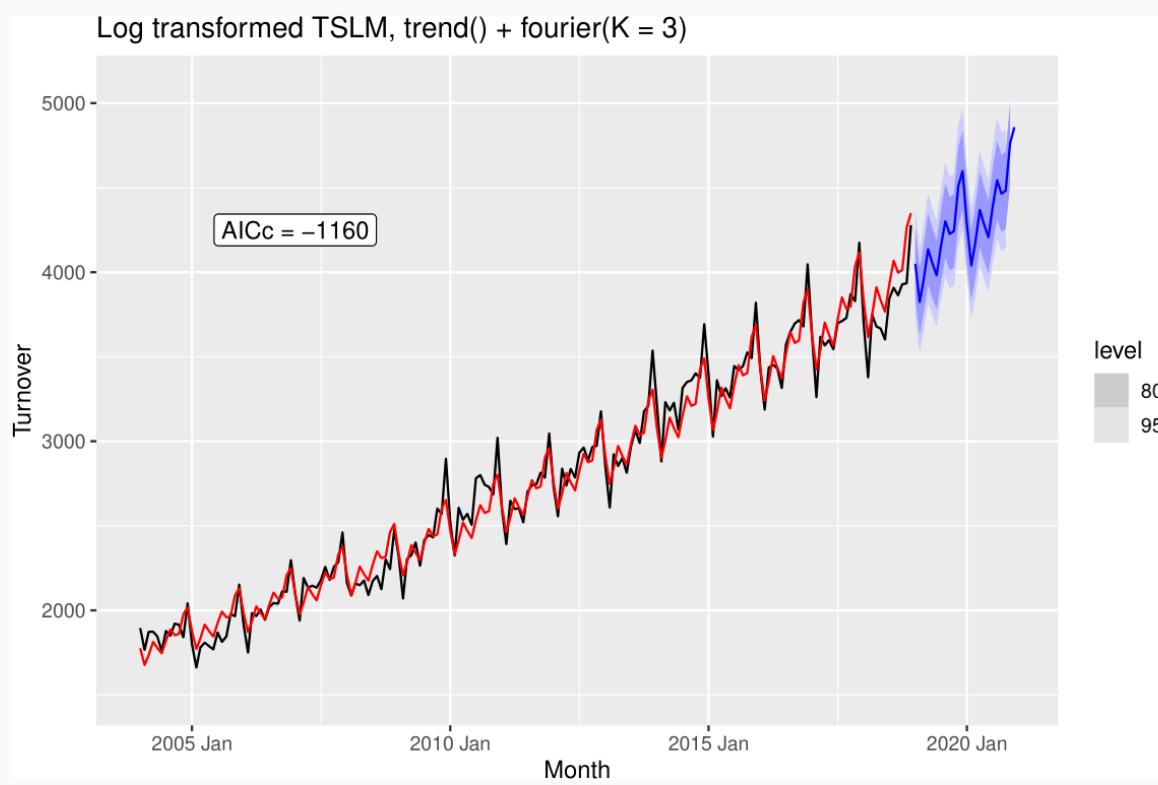
Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure



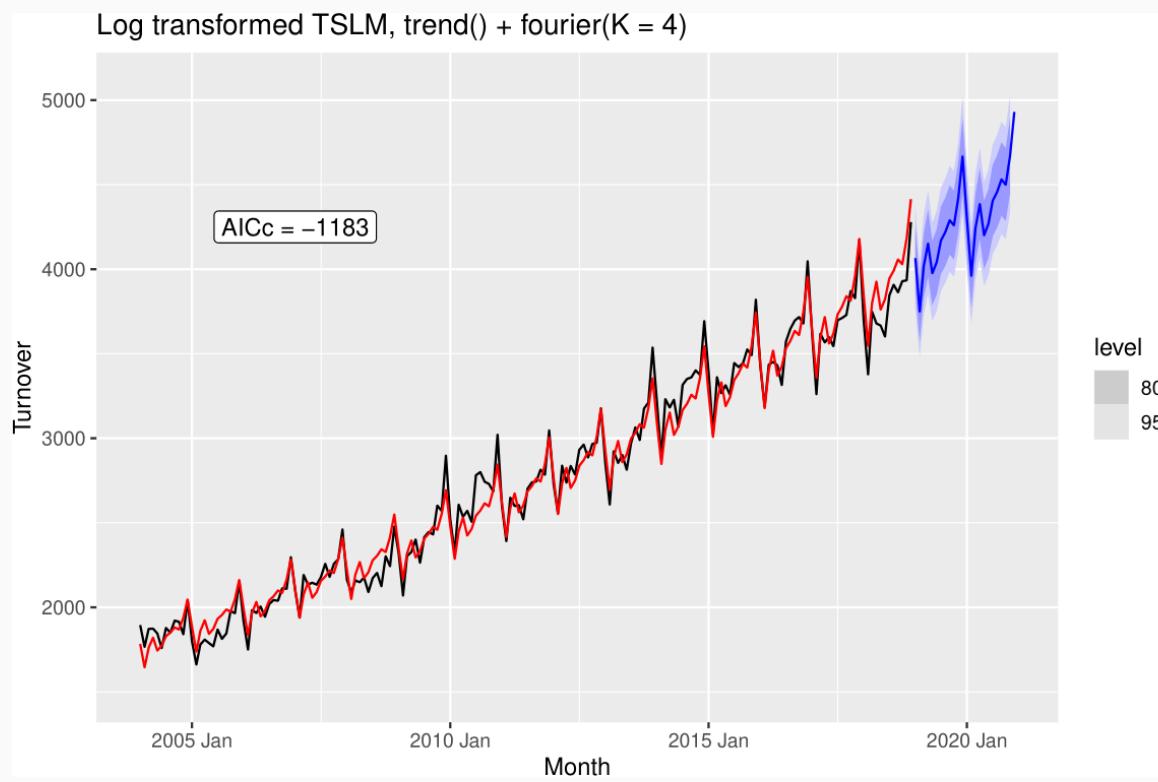
Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure



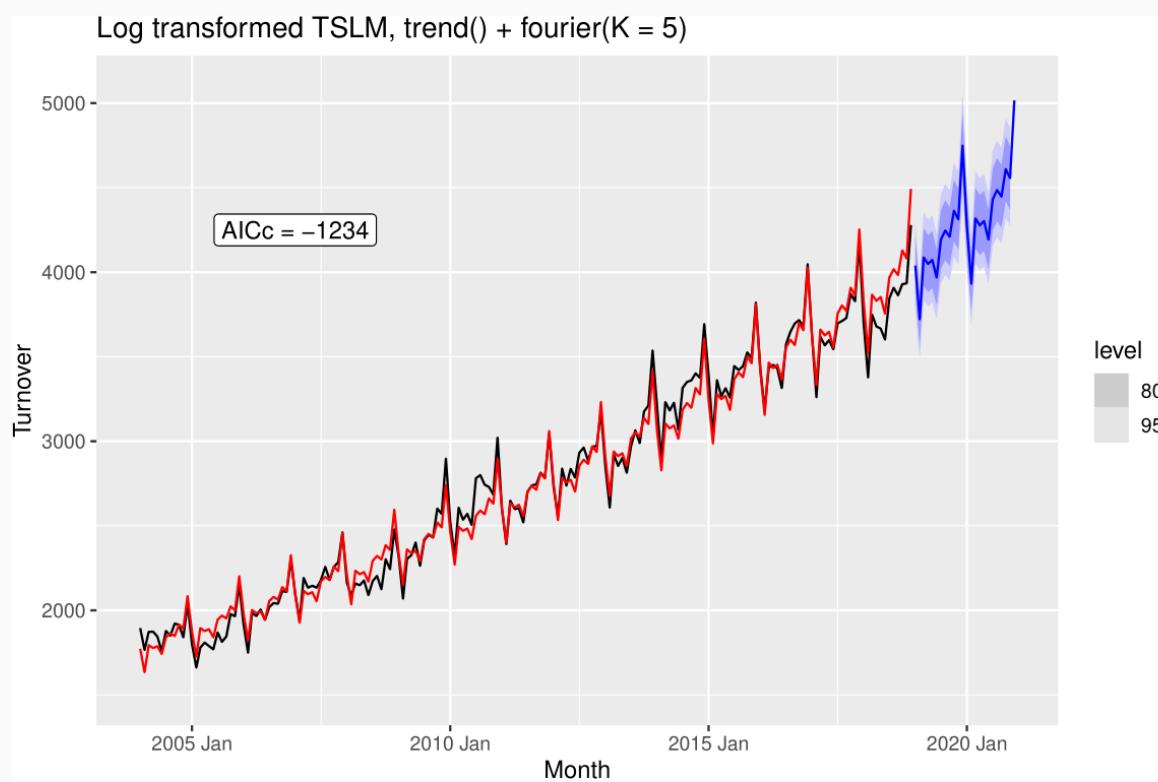
Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure



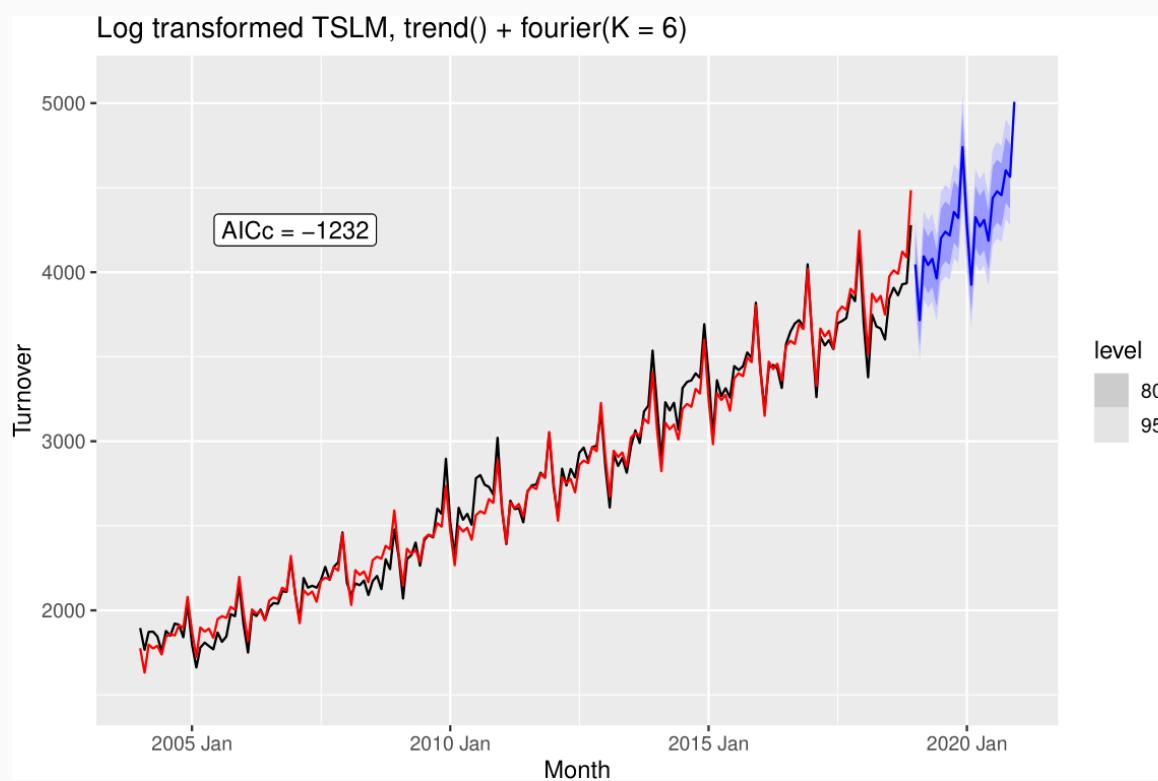
Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure



Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure



Harmonic regression: eating-out expenditure



Intervention variables

Spikes

- Equivalent to a dummy variable for handling an outlier.

Steps

- Variable takes value 0 before the intervention and 1 afterwards.

Change of slope

- Variables take values 0 before the intervention and values $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ afterwards.

Holidays

For monthly data

- Christmas: always in December so part of monthly seasonal effect
- Easter: use a dummy variable $v_t = 1$ if any part of Easter is in that month, $v_t = 0$ otherwise.
- Ramadan and Chinese new year similar.

Trading days

With monthly data, if the observations vary depending on how many different types of days in the month, then trading day predictors can be useful.

$z_1 = \# \text{ Mondays in month};$

$z_2 = \# \text{ Tuesdays in month};$

\vdots

$z_7 = \# \text{ Sundays in month}.$

Distributed lags

Lagged values of a predictor.

Example: x is advertising which has a delayed effect

x_1 = advertising for previous month;

x_2 = advertising for two months previously;

\vdots

x_m = advertising for m months previously.

Nonlinear trend

Piecewise linear trend with bend at τ

$$x_{1,t} = t$$

$$x_{2,t} = \begin{cases} 0 & t < \tau \\ (t - \tau) & t \geq \tau \end{cases}$$

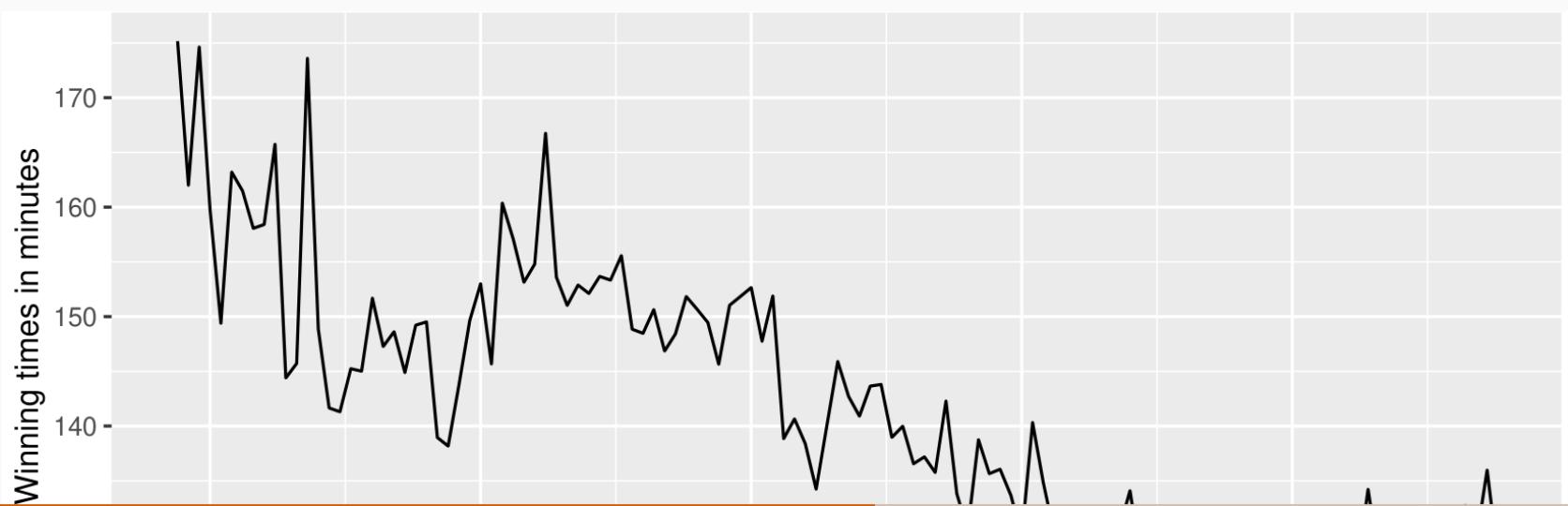
Quadratic or higher order trend

$$x_{1,t} = t, \quad x_{2,t} = t^2, \quad \dots$$

NOT RECOMMENDED!

Example: Boston marathon winning times

```
marathon <- boston_marathon %>%
  filter(Event == "Men's open division") %>%
  select(-Event) %>%
  mutate(Minutes = as.numeric(Time)/60)
marathon %>% autoplot(Minutes) +
  labs(y="Winning times in minutes")
```



Example: Boston marathon winning times

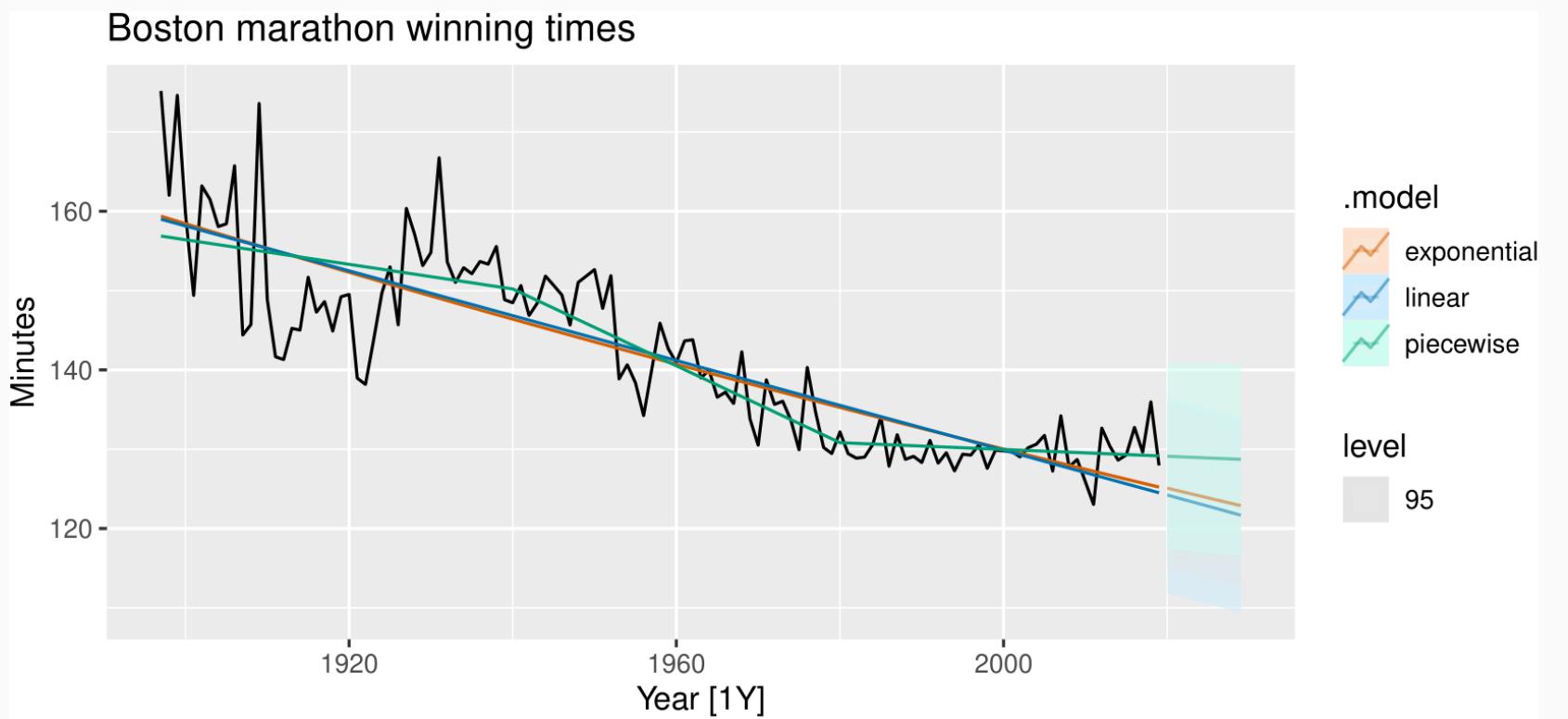
```
fit_trends <- marathon %>%
  model(
    # Linear trend
    linear = TSLM(Minutes ~ trend()),
    # Exponential trend
    exponential = TSLM(log(Minutes) ~ trend()),
    # Piecewise linear trend
    piecewise = TSLM(Minutes ~ trend(knots = c(1940, 1980))))
  )
```

```
fit_trends
```

```
## # A mable: 1 x 3
##   linear exponential piecewise
##   <model>     <model>     <model>
## 1 <TSLM>       <TSLM>       <TSLM>
```

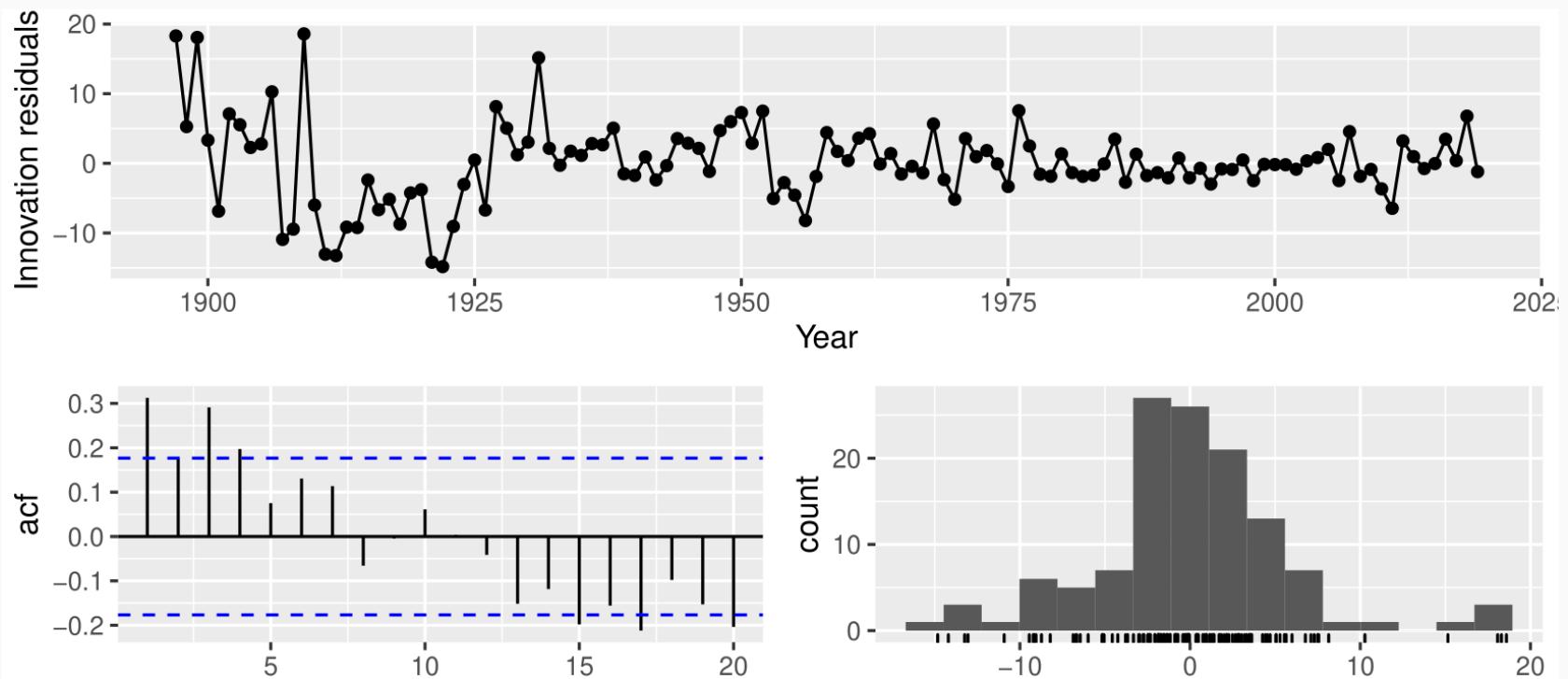
Example: Boston marathon winning times

```
fit_trends %>% forecast(h=10) %>% autoplot(marathon)
```



Example: Boston marathon winning times

```
fit_trends %>% select(piecewise) %>%
  gg_tsresiduals()
```



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Multiple regression and forecasting

For forecasting purposes, we require the following assumptions:

- ε_t are uncorrelated and zero mean
- ε_t are uncorrelated with each $x_{j,t}$.

It is **useful** to also have $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ when producing prediction intervals or doing statistical tests.

Residual plots

Useful for spotting outliers and whether the linear model was appropriate.

- Scatterplot of residuals ε_t against each predictor $x_{j,t}$.
- Scatterplot residuals against the fitted values \hat{y}_t
- Expect to see scatterplots resembling a horizontal band with no values too far from the band and no patterns such as curvature or increasing spread.

Residual patterns

- If a plot of the residuals vs any predictor in the model shows a pattern, then the relationship is nonlinear.
- If a plot of the residuals vs any predictor **not** in the model shows a pattern, then the predictor should be added to the model.
- If a plot of the residuals vs fitted values shows a pattern, then there is heteroscedasticity in the errors. (Could try a transformation.)

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Comparing regression models

Computer output for regression will always give the R^2 value. This is a useful summary of the model.

- It is equal to the square of the correlation between y and \hat{y} .
- It is often called the “coefficient of determination”.
- It can also be calculated as follows:

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum(\hat{y}_t - \bar{y})^2}{\sum(y_t - \bar{y})^2}$$

- It is the proportion of variance accounted for (explained) by the predictors.

Comparing regression models

However ...

- R^2 does not allow for “degrees of freedom”.
- Adding *any* variable tends to increase the value of R^2 , even if that variable is irrelevant.

To overcome this problem, we can use *adjusted R^2* :

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{T - 1}{T - k - 1}$$

where k = no. predictors and T = no. observations.

Maximizing \bar{R}^2 is equivalent to minimizing $\hat{\sigma}^2$.

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{T - k - 1} \sum_t \varepsilon_t^2$$

Akaike's Information Criterion

$$AIC = -2 \log(L) + 2(k + 2)$$

where L is the likelihood and k is the number of predictors in the model.

- AIC penalizes terms more heavily than \bar{R}^2 .
- Minimizing the AIC is asymptotically equivalent to minimizing MSE via **leave-one-out cross-validation** (for any linear regression).

Corrected AIC

For small values of T , the AIC tends to select too many predictors, and so a bias-corrected version of the AIC has been developed.

$$AIC_C = AIC + \frac{2(k + 2)(k + 3)}{T - k - 3}$$

As with the AIC, the AIC_C should be minimized.

Bayesian Information Criterion

$$\text{BIC} = -2 \log(L) + (k + 2) \log(T)$$

where L is the likelihood and k is the number of predictors in the model.

- BIC penalizes terms more heavily than AIC
- Also called SBIC and SC.
- Minimizing BIC is asymptotically equivalent to leave- v -out cross-validation when $v = T[1 - 1/(\log(T) - 1)]$.

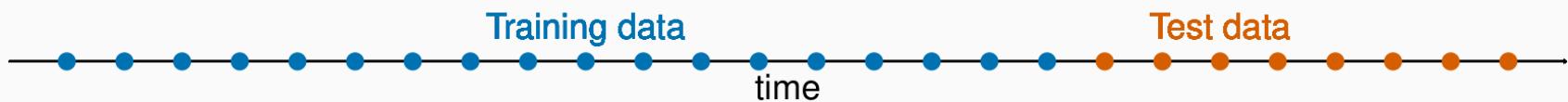
Leave-one-out cross-validation

For regression, leave-one-out cross-validation is faster and more efficient than time-series cross-validation.

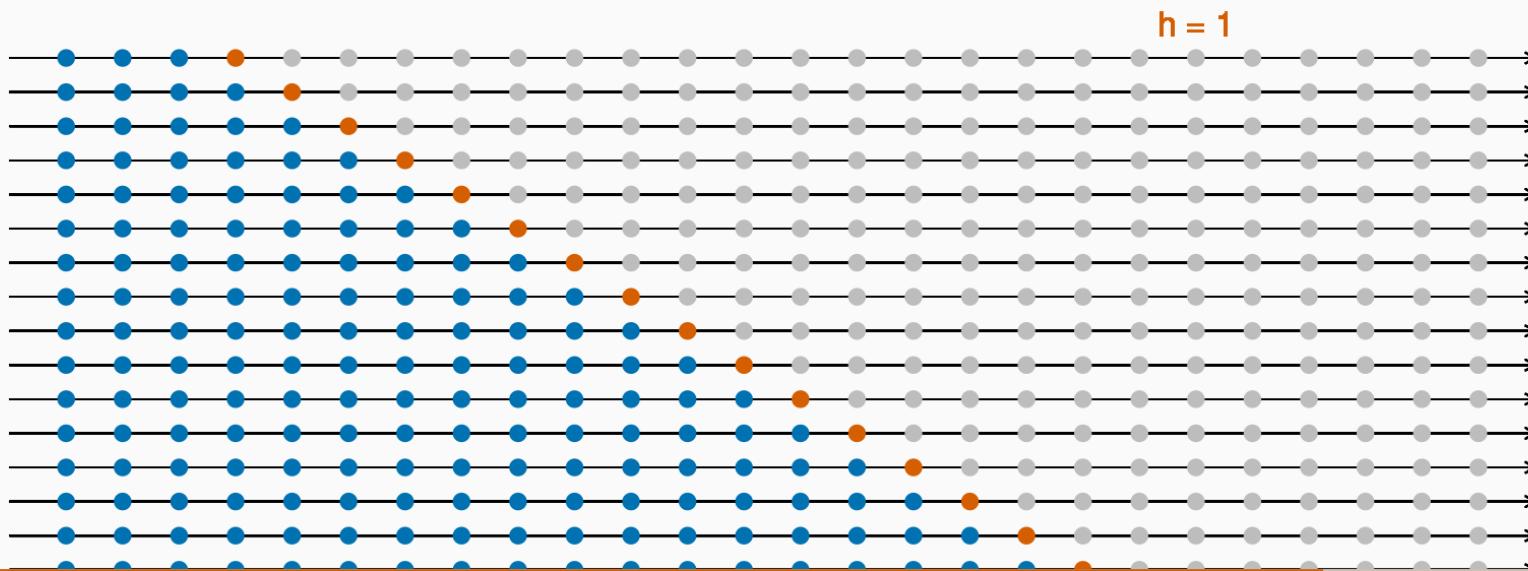
- Select one observation for test set, and use *remaining* observations in training set. Compute error on test observation.
- Repeat using each possible observation as the test set.
- Compute accuracy measure over all errors.

Cross-validation

Traditional evaluation

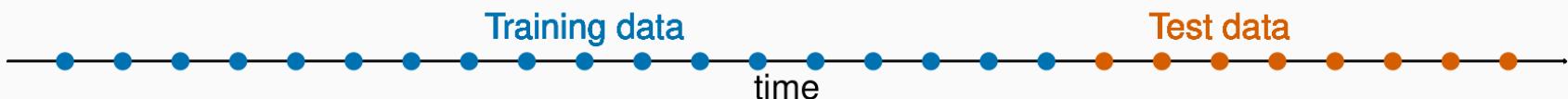


Time series cross-validation

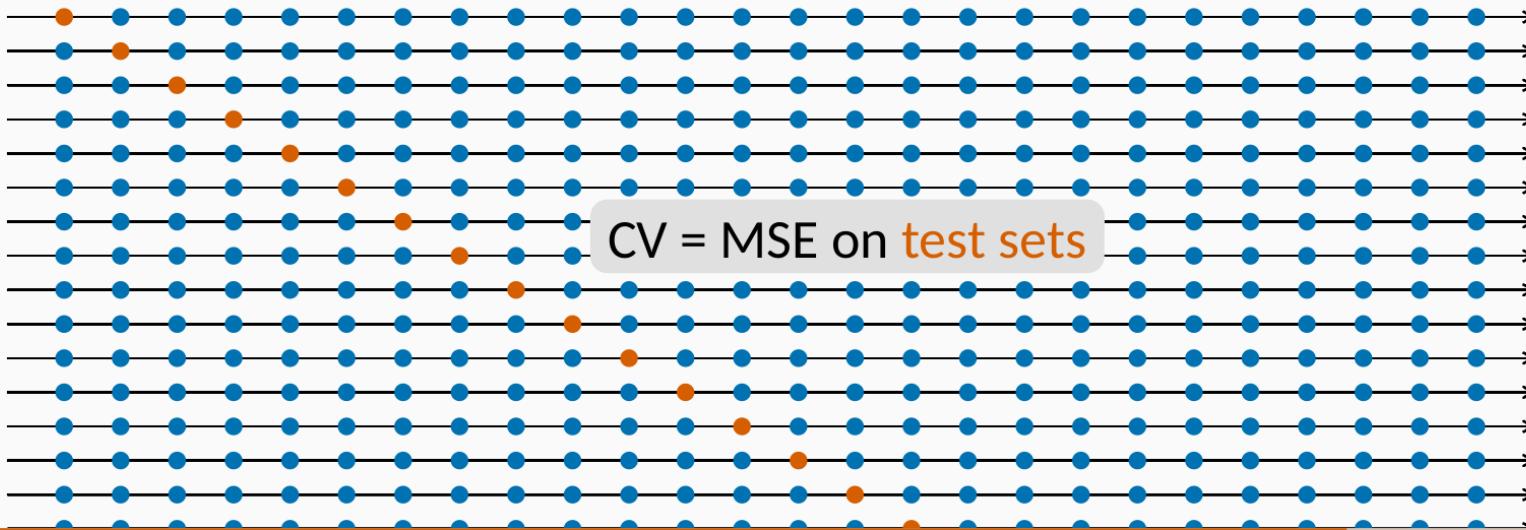


Cross-validation

Traditional evaluation



Leave-one-out cross-validation



Comparing regression models

```
glance(fit_trends) %>%  
  select(.model, r_squared, adj_r_squared, AICc, CV)  
  
## # A tibble: 3 x 5  
##   .model      r_squared adj_r_squared    AICc        CV  
##   <chr>          <dbl>           <dbl> <dbl>     <dbl>  
## 1 linear       0.728         0.726  452.  39.1  
## 2 exponential  0.744         0.742 -779.  0.00176  
## 3 piecewise    0.767         0.761  438.  34.8
```

- Be careful making comparisons when transformations are used.

Choosing regression variables

Best subsets regression

- Fit all possible regression models using one or more of the predictors.
- Choose the best model based on one of the measures of predictive ability (CV, AIC, AICc).

Warning!

- If there are a large number of predictors, this is not possible.
- For example, 44 predictors leads to 18 trillion possible models!

Choosing regression variables

Backwards stepwise regression

- Start with a model containing all variables.
- Try subtracting one variable at a time. Keep the model if it has lower CV or AICc.
- Iterate until no further improvement.

Notes

- Stepwise regression is not guaranteed to lead to the best possible model.
- Inference on coefficients of final model will be wrong.

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Ex-ante versus ex-post forecasts

- *Ex ante forecasts* are made using only information available in advance.
 - ▶ require forecasts of predictors
- *Ex post forecasts* are made using later information on the predictors.
 - ▶ useful for studying behaviour of forecasting models.
- trend, seasonal and calendar variables are all known in advance, so these don't need to be forecast.

Scenario based forecasting

- Assumes possible scenarios for the predictor variables
- Prediction intervals for scenario based forecasts do not include the uncertainty associated with the future values of the predictor variables.

Building a predictive regression model

- If getting forecasts of predictors is difficult, you can use lagged predictors instead.

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t-h} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,t-h} + \varepsilon_t$$

- A different model for each forecast horizon h .

US Consumption

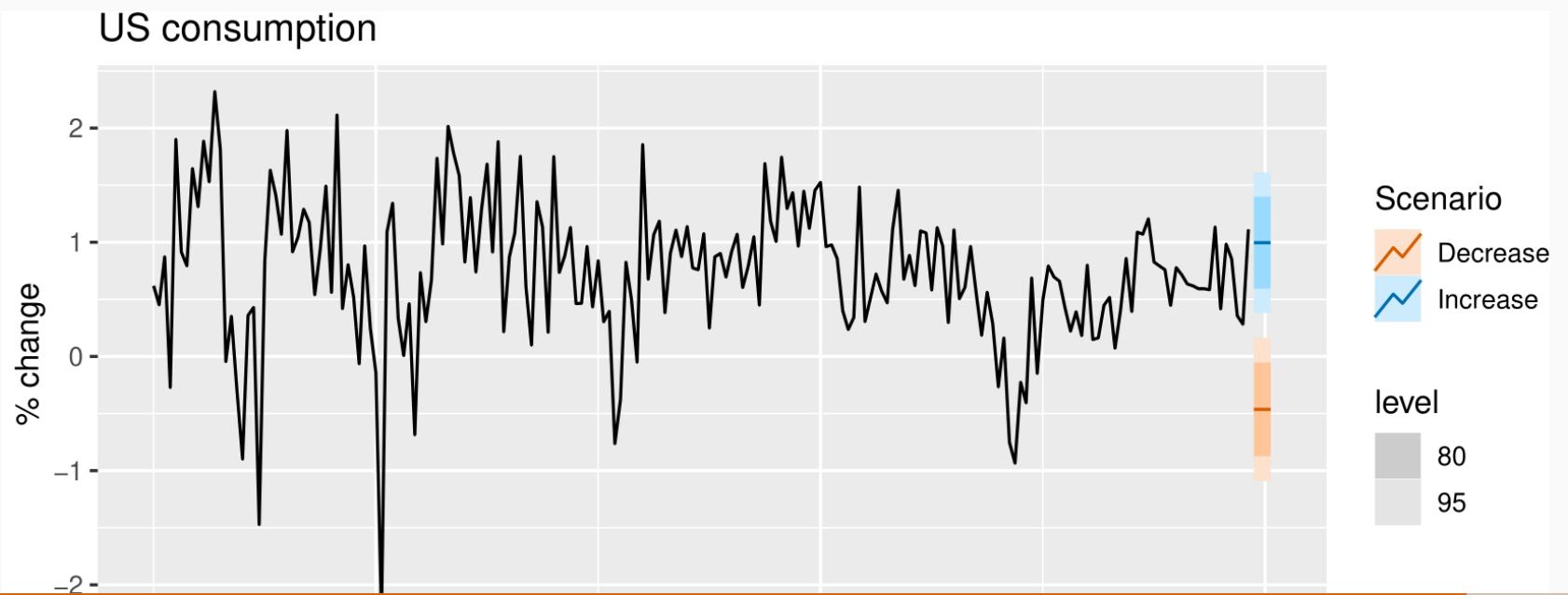
```
fit_consBest <- us_change %>%
  model(
    TSLM(Consumption ~ Income + Savings + Unemployment)
  )

future_scenarios <- scenarios(
  Increase = new_data(us_change, 4) %>%
    mutate(Income=1, Savings=0.5, Unemployment=0),
  Decrease = new_data(us_change, 4) %>%
    mutate(Income=-1, Savings=-0.5, Unemployment=0),
  names_to = "Scenario")

fc <- forecast(fit_consBest, new_data = future_scenarios)
```

US Consumption

```
us_change %>% autoplot(Consumption) +  
  labs(y = "% change in US consumption") +  
  autolayer(fc) +  
  labs(title = "US consumption", y = "% change")
```



Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

Matrix formulation

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \beta_2 x_{2,t} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + \varepsilon_t.$$

Let $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_T)'$, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_T)'$, $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)'$ and

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{1,1} & x_{2,1} & \dots & x_{k,1} \\ 1 & x_{1,2} & x_{2,2} & \dots & x_{k,2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1,T} & x_{2,T} & \dots & x_{k,T} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

Matrix formulation

Least squares estimation

Minimize: $(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$

Differentiate wrt β gives

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

(The “normal equation”.)

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{T - k - 1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta})'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta})$$

Note: If you fall for the dummy variable trap, $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})$ is a singular matrix. 69

Likelihood

If the errors are iid and normally distributed, then

$$\mathbf{y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}).$$

So the likelihood is

$$L = \frac{1}{\sigma^T (2\pi)^{T/2}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \right)$$

which is maximized when $(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$ is minimized.

So MLE = OLS.

Multiple regression forecasts

Optimal forecasts

$$\hat{y}^* = E(y^* | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{x}^* \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{x}^* (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{y}$$

where \mathbf{x}^* is a row vector containing the values of the predictors for the forecasts (in the same format as \mathbf{X}).

Forecast variance

$$\text{Var}(y^* | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{x}^*) = \sigma^2 [1 + \mathbf{x}^* (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{x}^*)']$$

- This ignores any errors in \mathbf{x}^* .
- 95% prediction intervals assuming normal errors:

$$\hat{y}^* \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\text{Var}(y^* | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{x}^*)}.$$

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Correlation is not causation

- When x is useful for predicting y , it is not necessarily causing y .
- e.g., predict number of drownings y using number of ice-creams sold x .
- Correlations are useful for forecasting, even when there is no causality.
- Better models usually involve causal relationships (e.g., temperature x and people z to predict drownings y).

Multicollinearity

In regression analysis, multicollinearity occurs when:

- Two predictors are highly correlated (i.e., the correlation between them is close to ± 1).
- A linear combination of some of the predictors is highly correlated with another predictor.
- A linear combination of one subset of predictors is highly correlated with a linear combination of another subset of predictors.

Multicollinearity

If multicollinearity exists...

- the numerical estimates of coefficients may be wrong (worse in Excel than in a statistics package)
- don't rely on the p -values to determine significance.
- there is no problem with model *predictions* provided the predictors used for forecasting are within the range used for fitting.
- omitting variables can help.
- combining variables can help.

Outline

- 1 Exponential smoothing
- 2 Simple exponential smoothing
- 3 Models with trend
- 4 Models with seasonality
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- 6 Forecasting with exponential smoothing

Historical perspective

- Developed in the 1950s and 1960s as methods (algorithms) to produce point forecasts.
- Combine a “level”, “trend” (slope) and “seasonal” component to describe a time series.
- The rate of change of the components are controlled by “smoothing parameters”: α , β and γ respectively.
- Need to choose best values for the smoothing parameters (and initial states).
- Equivalent ETS state space models developed in the 1990s and 2000s.

Big idea: control the rate of change

α controls the flexibility of the **level**

- If $\alpha = 0$, the level never updates (mean)
- If $\alpha = 1$, the level updates completely (naive)

β controls the flexibility of the **trend**

- If $\beta = 0$, the trend is linear
- If $\beta = 1$, the trend changes suddenly every observation

γ controls the flexibility of the **seasonality**

- If $\gamma = 0$, the seasonality is fixed (seasonal means)
- If $\gamma = 1$, the seasonality updates completely (seasonal naive)

A model for levels, trends, and seasonalities

We want a model that captures the level (ℓ_t), trend (b_t) and seasonality (s_t).

How do we combine these elements?

Additively?

$$y_t = \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t$$

Multiplicatively?

$$y_t = \ell_{t-1} b_{t-1} s_{t-m} (1 + \varepsilon_t)$$

Perhaps a mix of both?

$$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1}) s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t$$

How do the level, trend and seasonal components evolve over time?

ETS models

General notation E T S : ExponenTial Smoothing
 ↖ ↑ ↵
 Error Trend Season

Error: Additive ("A") or multiplicative ("M")

Trend: None ("N"), additive ("A"), multiplicative ("M"), or damped ("Ad" or "Md").

Seasonality: None ("N"), additive ("A") or multiplicative ("M")

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Simple methods

Time series y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T .

Random walk forecasts

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T$$

Average forecasts

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T y_t$$

- Want something in between these methods.
- Most recent data should have more weight.

Simple Exponential Smoothing

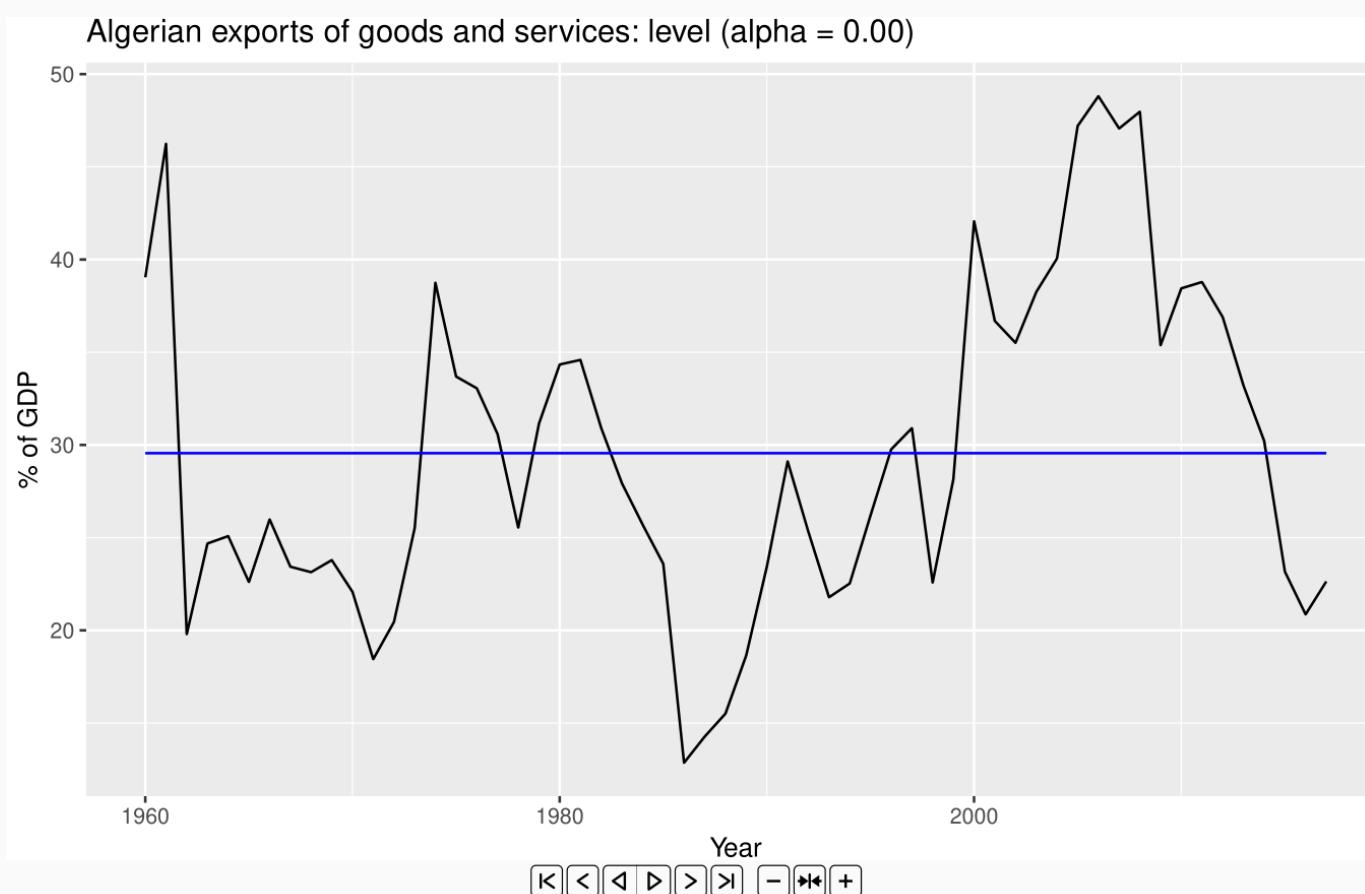
Forecast equation

$$\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = \alpha y_T + \alpha(1 - \alpha)y_{T-1} + \alpha(1 - \alpha)^2 y_{T-2} + \dots,$$

where $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$.

Observation	Weights assigned to observations for:			
	$\alpha = 0.2$	$\alpha = 0.4$	$\alpha = 0.6$	$\alpha = 0.8$
y_T	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8
y_{T-1}	0.16	0.24	0.24	0.16
y_{T-2}	0.128	0.144	0.096	0.032
y_{T-3}	0.1024	0.0864	0.0384	0.0064
y_{T-4}	$(0.2)(0.8)^4$	$(0.4)(0.6)^4$	$(0.6)(0.4)^4$	$(0.8)(0.2)^4$
y_{T-5}	$(0.2)(0.8)^5$	$(0.4)(0.6)^5$	$(0.6)(0.4)^5$	$(0.8)(0.2)^5$

Simple Exponential Smoothing



Simple Exponential Smoothing

Component form

Forecast equation

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = \ell_t$$

Smoothing equation

$$\ell_t = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha) \ell_{t-1}$$

- ℓ_t is the level (or the smoothed value) of the series at time t.
- $\hat{y}_{t+1|t} = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha) \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$

Iterate to get exponentially weighted moving average form.

Weighted average form

$$\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = \sum_{j=0}^{T-1} \alpha(1 - \alpha)^j y_{T-j} + (1 - \alpha)^T \ell_0$$

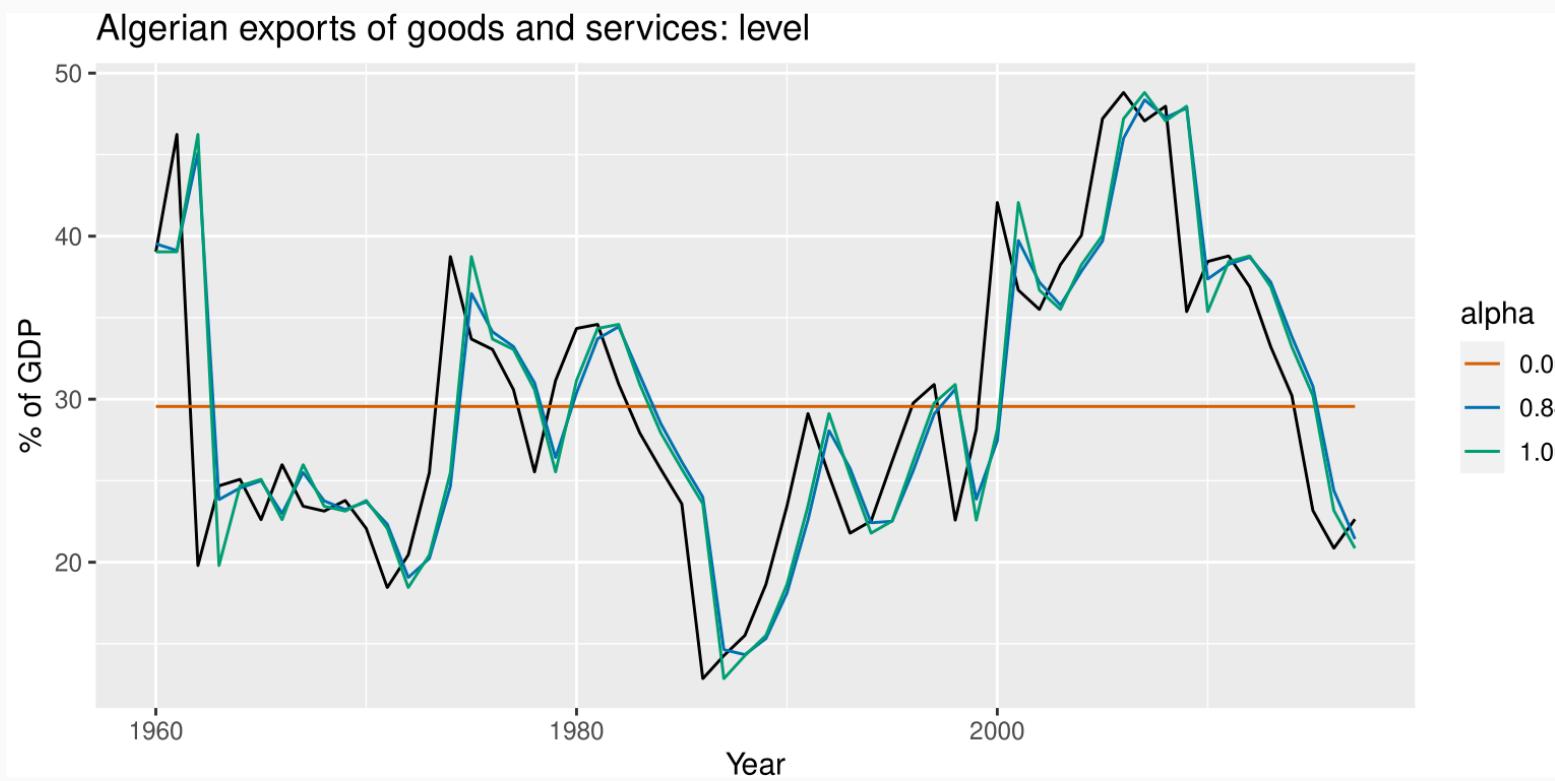
Optimising smoothing parameters

- Need to choose best values for α and ℓ_0 .
- Similarly to regression, choose optimal parameters by minimising SSE:

$$\text{SSE} = \sum_{t=1}^T (y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1})^2.$$

- Unlike regression there is no closed form solution — use numerical optimization.
- For Algerian Exports example:
 - ▶ $\hat{\alpha} = 0.8400$
 - ▶ $\hat{\ell}_0 = 39.54$

Simple Exponential Smoothing



Models and methods

Methods

- Algorithms that return point forecasts.

Models

- Generate same point forecasts but can also generate forecast distributions.
- A stochastic (or random) data generating process that can generate an entire forecast distribution.
- Allow for “proper” model selection.

ETS(A,N,N): SES with additive errors

Component form

Forecast equation

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = \ell_t$$

Smoothing equation

$$\ell_t = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha) \ell_{t-1}$$

Forecast error: $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1} = y_t - \ell_{t-1}$.

Error correction form

$$y_t = \ell_{t-1} + e_t$$

$$\ell_t = \ell_{t-1} + \alpha(y_t - \ell_{t-1})$$

$$= \ell_{t-1} + \alpha e_t$$

Specify probability distribution for e_t , we assume $e_t = \varepsilon_t \sim \text{NID}(0, \sigma^2)$. ¹⁶

ETS(A,N,N): SES with additive errors

Measurement equation

$$y_t = \ell_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

State equation

$$\ell_t = \ell_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t$$

where $\varepsilon_t \sim \text{NID}(0, \sigma^2)$.

- “innovations” or “single source of error” because equations have the same error process, ε_t .
- Measurement equation: relationship between observations and states.
- State equation(s): evolution of the state(s) through time.

ETS(M,N,N): SES with multiplicative errors.

- Specify relative errors $\varepsilon_t = \frac{y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}}{\hat{y}_{t|t-1}} \sim \text{NID}(0, \sigma^2)$
- Substituting $\hat{y}_{t|t-1} = \ell_{t-1}$ gives:
 - ▶ $y_t = \ell_{t-1} + \ell_{t-1}\varepsilon_t$
 - ▶ $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1} = \ell_{t-1}\varepsilon_t$

Measurement equation

$$y_t = \ell_{t-1}(1 + \varepsilon_t)$$

State equation

$$\ell_t = \ell_{t-1}(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$$

- Models with additive and multiplicative errors with the same parameters generate the same point forecasts but different prediction intervals.

ETS(A,N,N): Specifying the model

```
ETS(y ~ error("A") + trend("N") + season("N"))
```

By default, an optimal value for α and ℓ_0 is used.

α can be chosen manually in `trend()`.

```
trend("N", alpha = 0.5)
trend("N", alpha_range = c(0.2, 0.8))
```

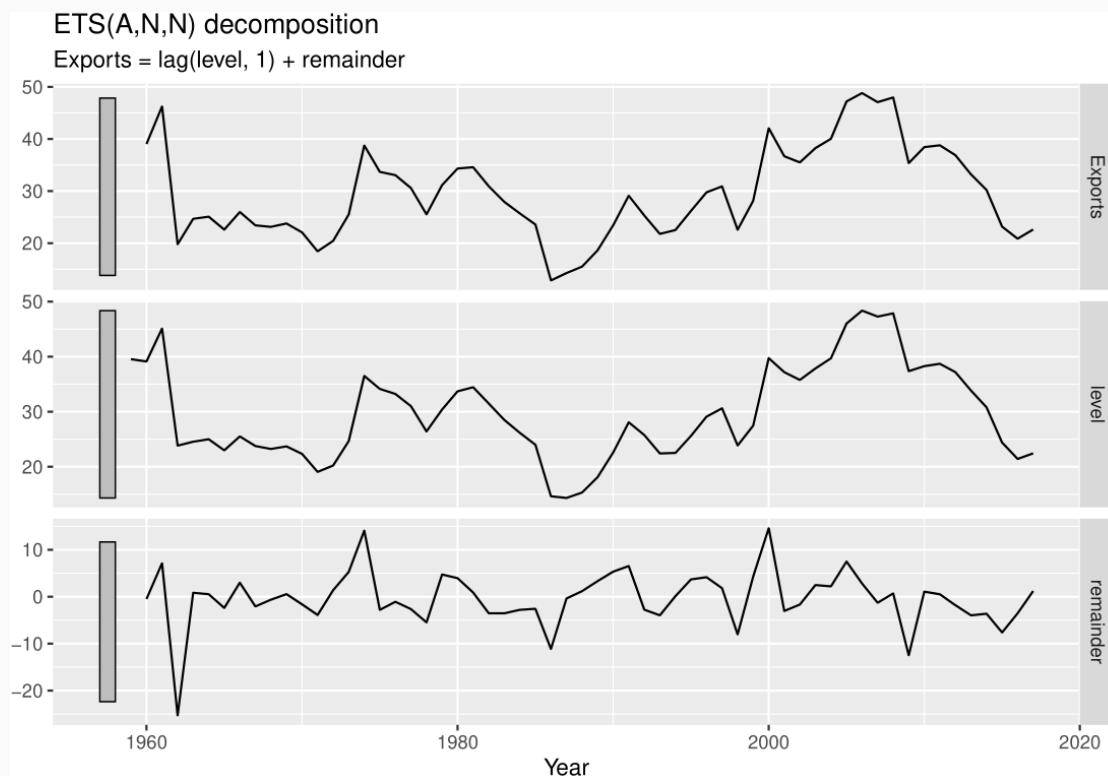
Example: Algerian Exports

```
algeria_economy <- global_economy %>%
  filter(Country == "Algeria")
fit <- algeria_economy %>%
  model(ANN = ETS(Exports ~ error("A") + trend("N") + season("N")))
report(fit)
```

```
## Series: Exports
## Model: ETS(A,N,N)
##   Smoothing parameters:
##     alpha = 0.84
##
##   Initial states:
## l[0]
## 39.5
##
## sigma^2:  35.6
##
## ATC ATCc BTC
```

Example: Algerian Exports

```
components(fit) %>% autoplot()
```



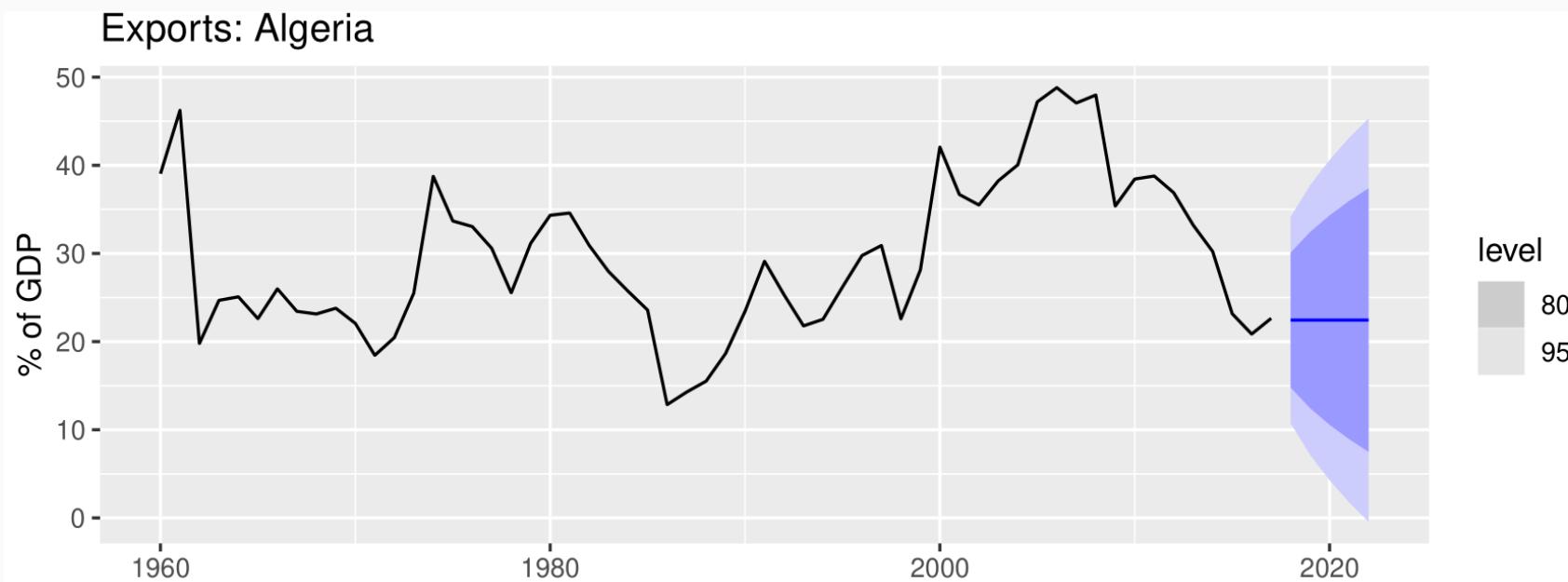
Example: Algerian Exports

```
components(fit) %>%
  left_join(fitted(fit), by = c("Country", ".model", "Year"))

## # A dable: 59 x 7 [1Y]
## # Key:      Country, .model [1]
## # :          Exports = lag(level, 1) + remainder
## #   Country .model Year Exports level remainder .fitted
## #   <fct>   <chr>  <dbl>  <dbl>  <dbl>    <dbl>
## # 1 Algeria ANN    1959     NA    39.5     NA      NA
## # 2 Algeria ANN    1960    39.0    39.1   -0.496    39.5
## # 3 Algeria ANN    1961    46.2    45.1     7.12    39.1
## # 4 Algeria ANN    1962    19.8    23.8   -25.3    45.1
## # 5 Algeria ANN    1963    24.7    24.6     0.841   23.8
## # 6 Algeria ANN    1964    25.1    25.0     0.534   24.6
## # 7 Algeria ANN    1965    22.6    23.0    -2.39    25.0
## # 8 Algeria ANN    1966    26.0    25.5     3.00    23.0
## # 9 Algeria ANN    1967    23.4    23.8    -2.07    25.5
## # 10 Algeria ANN   1968    23.1    23.2   -0.630   23.8
```

Example: Algerian Exports

```
fit %>%
  forecast(h = 5) %>%
  autoplot(algeria_economy) +
  labs(y = "% of GDP", title = "Exports: Algeria")
```



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Holt's linear trend

Component form

Forecast $\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = \ell_t + hb_t$

Level $\ell_t = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha)(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})$

Trend $b_t = \beta^*(\ell_t - \ell_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta^*)b_{t-1},$

- Two smoothing parameters α and β^* ($0 \leq \alpha, \beta^* \leq 1$).
- ℓ_t level: weighted average between y_t and one-step ahead forecast for time t , $(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} = \hat{y}_{t|t-1})$
- b_t slope: weighted average of $(\ell_t - \ell_{t-1})$ and b_{t-1} , current and previous estimate of slope.
- Choose $\alpha, \beta^*, \ell_0, b_0$ to minimise SSE.

ETS(A,A,N)

Holt's linear method with additive errors.

- Assume $\varepsilon_t = y_t - \ell_{t-1} - b_{t-1} \sim \text{NID}(0, \sigma^2)$.
- Substituting into the error correction equations for Holt's linear method

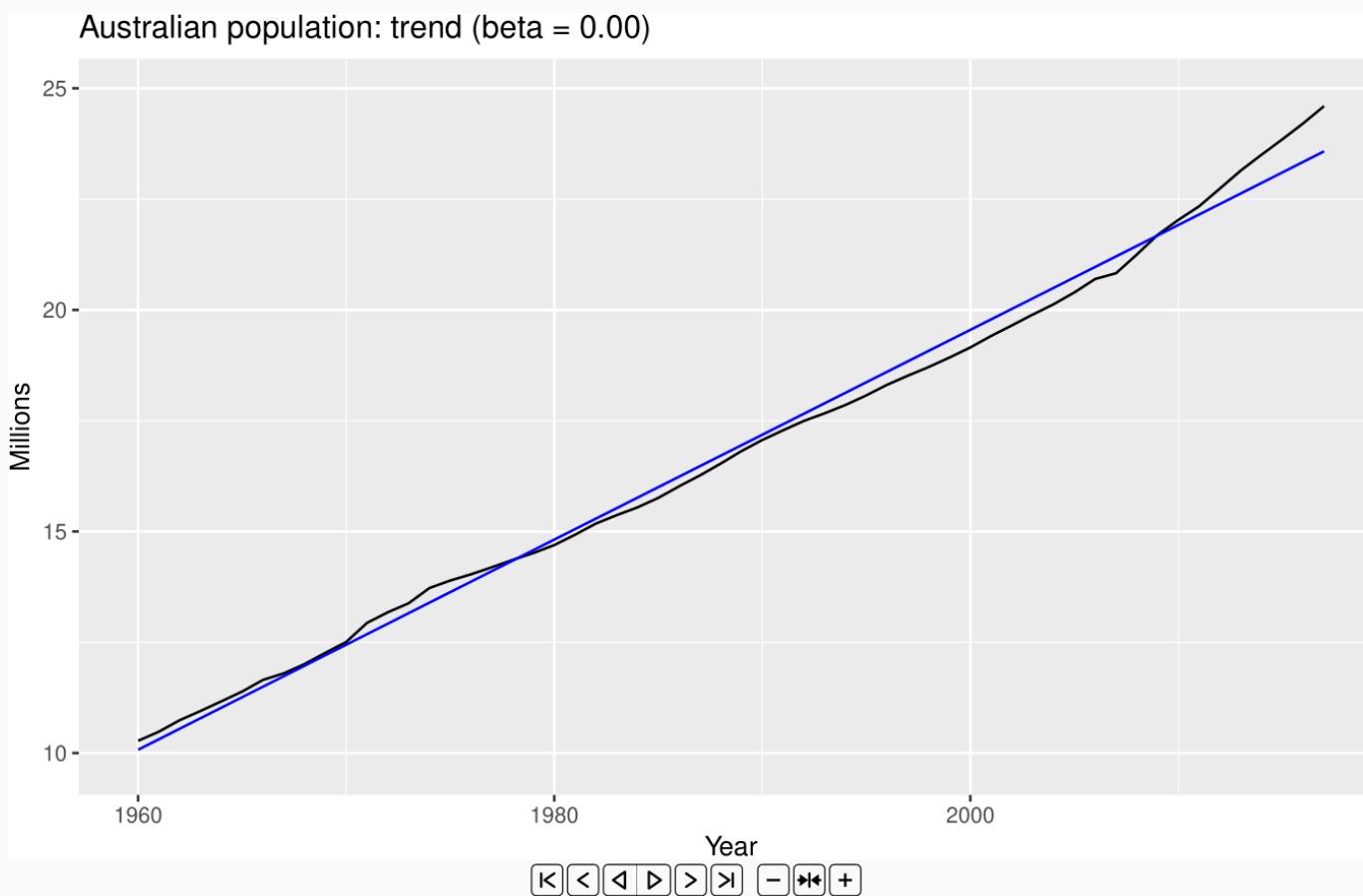
$$y_t = \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\ell_t = \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t$$

$$b_t = b_{t-1} + \alpha \beta^* \varepsilon_t$$

- For simplicity, set $\beta = \alpha \beta^*$.

Exponential smoothing: trend/slope



ETS(M,A,N)

Holt's linear method with multiplicative errors.

- Assume $\varepsilon_t = \frac{y_t - (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})}{(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})}$
- Following a similar approach as above, the innovations state space model underlying Holt's linear method with multiplicative errors is specified as

$$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})(1 + \varepsilon_t)$$

$$\ell_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$$

$$b_t = b_{t-1} + \beta(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})\varepsilon_t$$

where again $\beta = \alpha\beta^*$ and $\varepsilon_t \sim \text{NID}(0, \sigma^2)$.

ETS(A,A,N): Specifying the model

```
ETS(y ~ error("A") + trend("A") + season("N"))
```

By default, optimal values for β and b_0 are used.

β can be chosen manually in `trend()`.

```
trend("A", beta = 0.004)
trend("A", beta_range = c(0, 0.1))
```

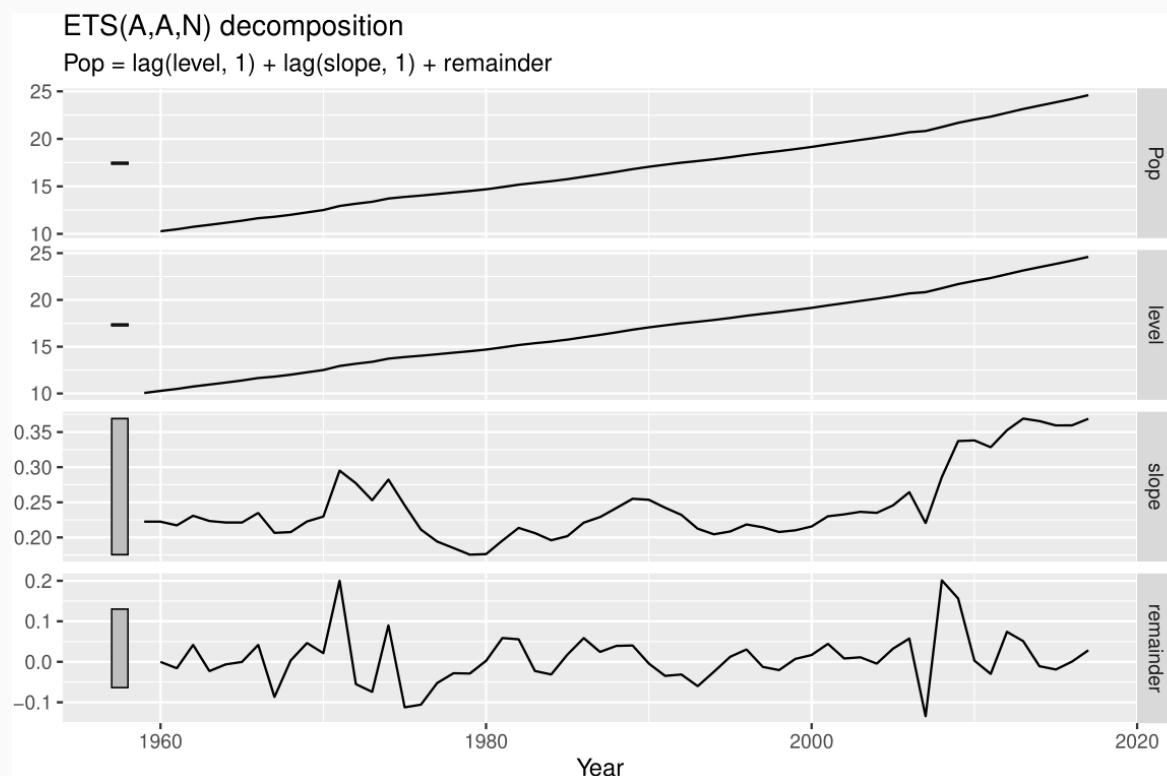
Example: Australian population

```
aus_economy <- global_economy %>% filter(Code == "AUS") %>%
  mutate(Pop = Population / 1e6)
fit <- aus_economy %>%
  model(AAN = ETS(Pop ~ error("A") + trend("A") + season("N")))
report(fit)
```

```
## Series: Pop
## Model: ETS(A,A,N)
##   Smoothing parameters:
##     alpha = 1
##     beta  = 0.327
##
##   Initial states:
##     l[0]  b[0]
##     10.1 0.222
##
##     sigma^2:  0.0041
##
```

Example: Australian population

```
components(fit) %>% autoplot()
```



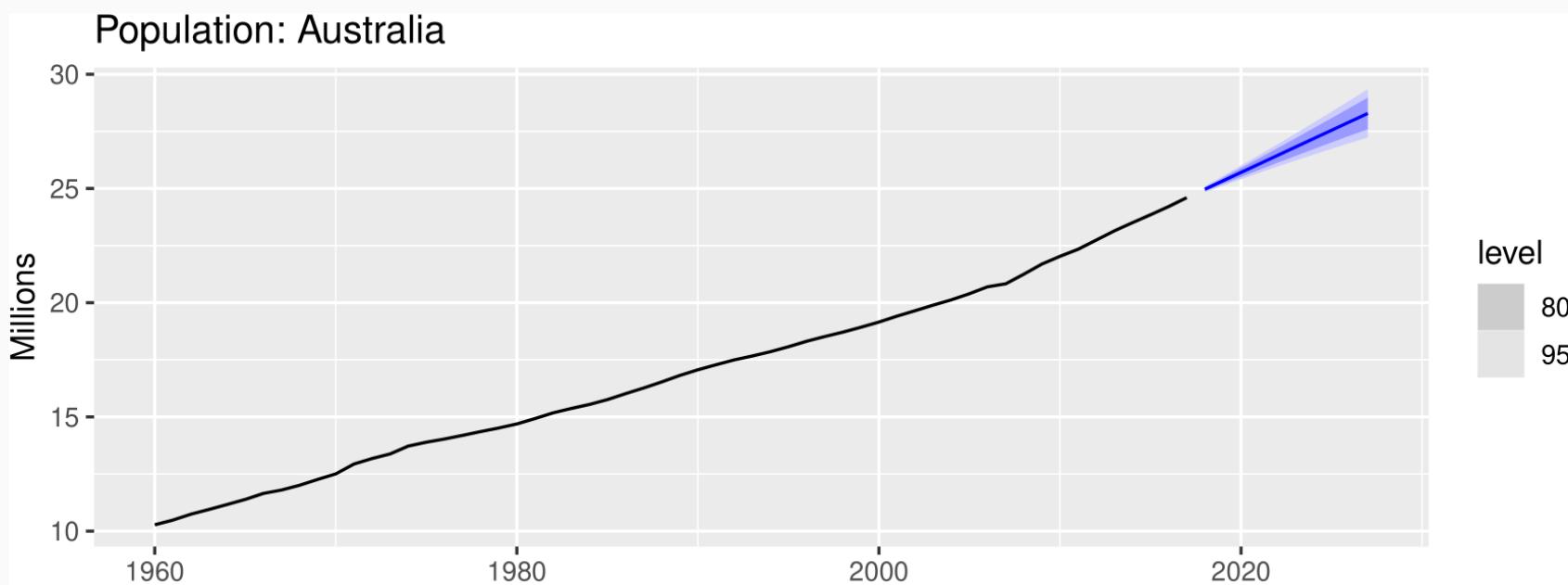
Example: Australian population

```
components(fit) %>%
  left_join(fitted(fit), by = c("Country", ".model", "Year"))

## # A dable: 59 x 8 [1Y]
## # Key:      Country, .model [1]
## # :          Pop = lag(level, 1) + lag(slope, 1) + remainder
##   Country   .model   Year   Pop level slope remainder .fitted
##   <fct>     <chr>    <dbl>  <dbl> <dbl>  <dbl>    <dbl>
## 1 Australia AAN     1959    NA    10.1  0.222    NA        NA
## 2 Australia AAN     1960    10.3   10.3  0.222 -0.000145  10.3
## 3 Australia AAN     1961    10.5   10.5  0.217 -0.0159   10.5
## 4 Australia AAN     1962    10.7   10.7  0.231  0.0418   10.7
## 5 Australia AAN     1963    11.0   11.0  0.223 -0.0229   11.0
## 6 Australia AAN     1964    11.2   11.2  0.221 -0.00641  11.2
## 7 Australia AAN     1965    11.4   11.4  0.221 -0.000314  11.4
## 8 Australia AAN     1966    11.7   11.7  0.235  0.0418   11.6
## 9 Australia AAN     1967    11.8   11.8  0.206 -0.0869   11.9
## 10 Australia AAN    1968    12.0   12.0  0.208  0.00350  12.0
```

Example: Australian population

```
fit %>%
  forecast(h = 10) %>%
  autoplot(aus_economy) +
  labs(y = "Millions", title = "Population: Australia")
```



Damped trend method

Component form

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = \ell_t + (\phi + \phi^2 + \dots + \phi^h)b_t$$

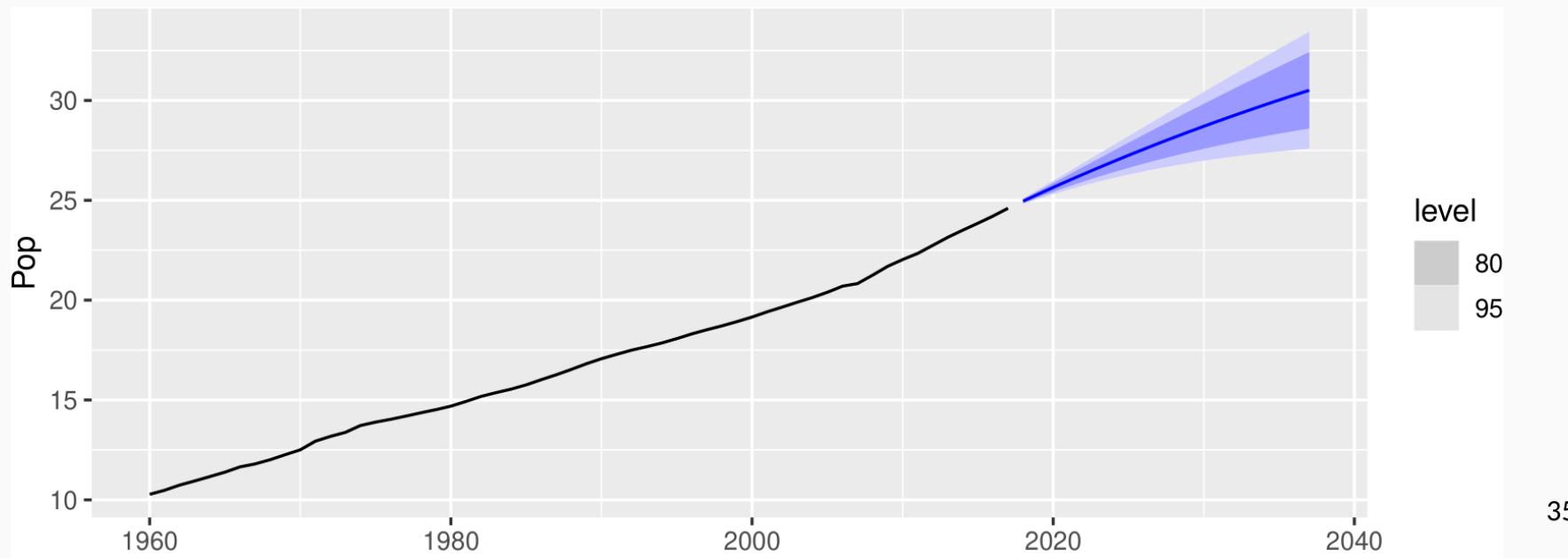
$$\ell_t = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha)(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})$$

$$b_t = \beta^*(\ell_t - \ell_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta^*)\phi b_{t-1}.$$

- Damping parameter $0 < \phi < 1$.
- If $\phi = 1$, identical to Holt's linear trend.
- As $h \rightarrow \infty$, $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \rightarrow \ell_T + \phi b_T / (1 - \phi)$.
- Short-run forecasts trended, long-run forecasts constant.

Example: Australian population

```
aus_economy %>%
  model(holt = ETS(Pop ~ error("A") + trend("Ad") + season("N")))
  forecast(h = 20) %>%
  autoplot(aus_economy)
```



Example: Australian population

```
fit <- aus_economy %>%
  filter(Year <= 2010) %>%
  model(
    ses = ETS(Pop ~ error("A") + trend("N") + season("N")),
    holt = ETS(Pop ~ error("A") + trend("A") + season("N")),
    damped = ETS(Pop ~ error("A") + trend("Ad") + season("N"))
  )
```

```
tidy(fit)
accuracy(fit)
```

Example: Australian population

term	SES	Linear trend	Damped trend
α	1.00	1.00	1.00
β^*		0.30	0.40
ϕ			0.98
NA		0.22	0.25
NA	10.28	10.05	10.04
Training RMSE	0.24	0.06	0.07
Test RMSE	1.63	0.15	0.21
Test MASE	6.18	0.55	0.75
Test MAPE	6.09	0.55	0.74
Test MAE	1.45	0.13	0.18

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Holt-Winters additive method

Holt and Winters extended Holt's method to capture seasonality.

Component form

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = \ell_t + hb_t + s_{t+h-m(k+1)}$$

$$\ell_t = \alpha(y_t - s_{t-m}) + (1 - \alpha)(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})$$

$$b_t = \beta^*(\ell_t - \ell_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta^*)b_{t-1}$$

$$s_t = \gamma(y_t - \ell_{t-1} - b_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)s_{t-m}$$

- $k = \text{integer part of } (h - 1)/m$. Ensures estimates from the final year are used for forecasting.
- Parameters: $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$, $0 \leq \beta^* \leq 1$, $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1 - \alpha$ and $m = \text{period of seasonality}$ (e.g. $m = 4$ for quarterly data).

Holt-Winters additive method

- Seasonal component is usually expressed as

$$s_t = \gamma^*(y_t - \ell_t) + (1 - \gamma^*)s_{t-m}.$$

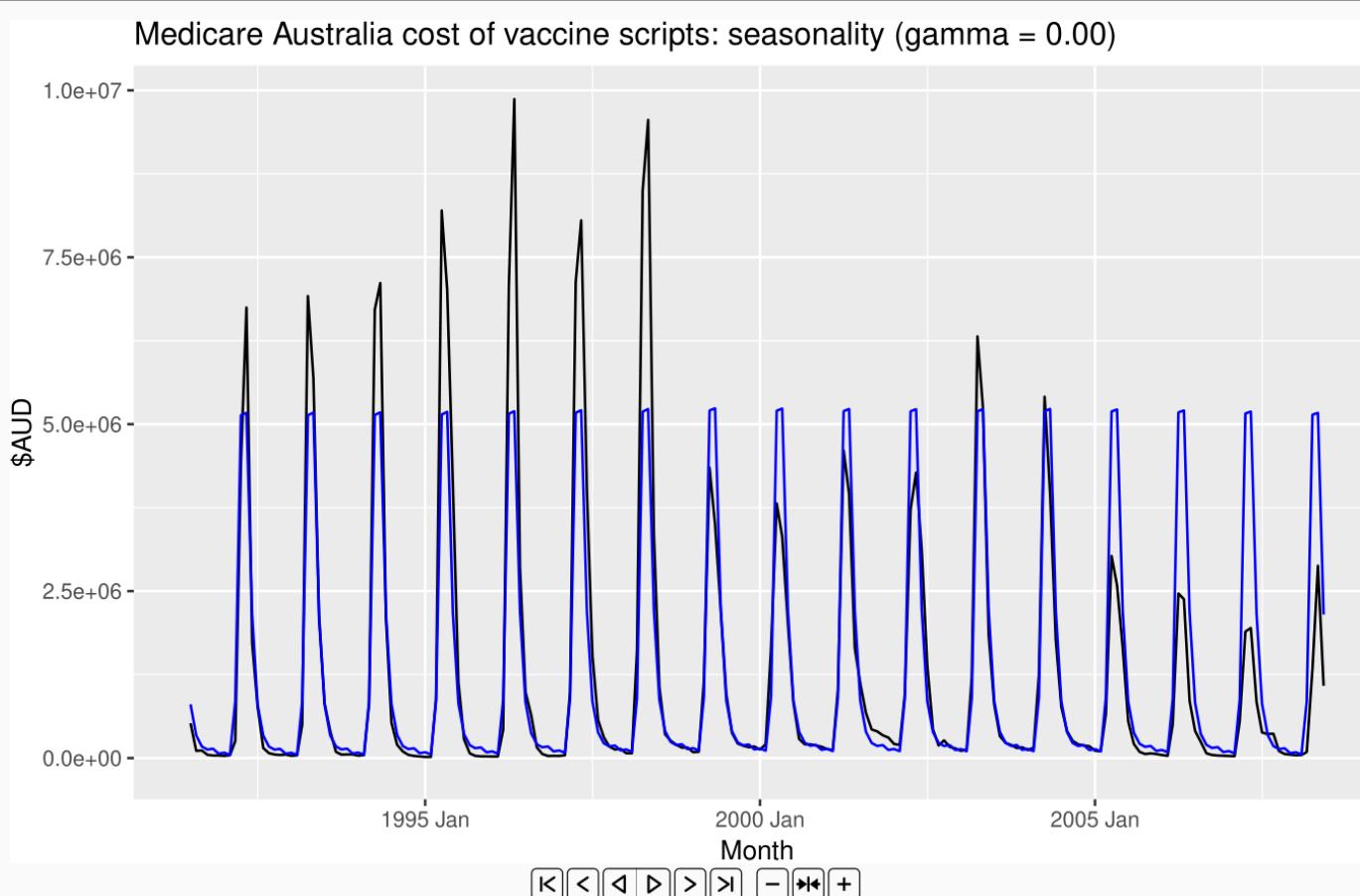
- Substitute in for ℓ_t :

$$s_t = \gamma^*(1 - \alpha)(y_t - \ell_{t-1} - b_{t-1}) + [1 - \gamma^*(1 - \alpha)]s_{t-m}$$

- We set $\gamma = \gamma^*(1 - \alpha)$.

- The usual parameter restriction is $0 \leq \gamma^* \leq 1$, which translates to $0 \leq \gamma \leq (1 - \alpha)$.

Exponential smoothing: seasonality



ETS(A,A,A)

Holt-Winters additive method with additive errors.

Forecast equation $\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = \ell_t + hb_t + s_{t+h-m(k+1)}$

Observation equation $y_t = \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t$

State equations $\ell_t = \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t$

$$b_t = b_{t-1} + \beta \varepsilon_t$$

$$s_t = s_{t-m} + \gamma \varepsilon_t$$

- Forecast errors: $\varepsilon_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$
- k is integer part of $(h - 1)/m$.

Holt-Winters multiplicative method

Seasonal variations change in proportion to the level of the series.

Component form

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = (\ell_t + hb_t)s_{t+h-m(k+1)}$$

$$\ell_t = \alpha \frac{y_t}{s_{t-m}} + (1 - \alpha)(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})$$

$$b_t = \beta^*(\ell_t - \ell_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta^*)b_{t-1}$$

$$s_t = \gamma \frac{y_t}{(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})} + (1 - \gamma)s_{t-m}$$

- k is integer part of $(h - 1)/m$.
- Additive method: s_t in absolute terms — within each year $\sum_i s_i \approx 0$.
- Multiplicative method: s_t in relative terms — within each year $\sum_i s_i \approx m$.

ETS(M,A,M)

Holt-Winters multiplicative method with multiplicative errors.

Forecast equation

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = (\ell_t + hb_t)s_{t+h-m(k+1)}$$

Observation equation

$$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})s_{t-m}(1 + \varepsilon_t)$$

State equations

$$\ell_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$$

$$b_t = b_{t-1} + \beta(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})\varepsilon_t$$

$$s_t = s_{t-m}(1 + \gamma\varepsilon_t)$$

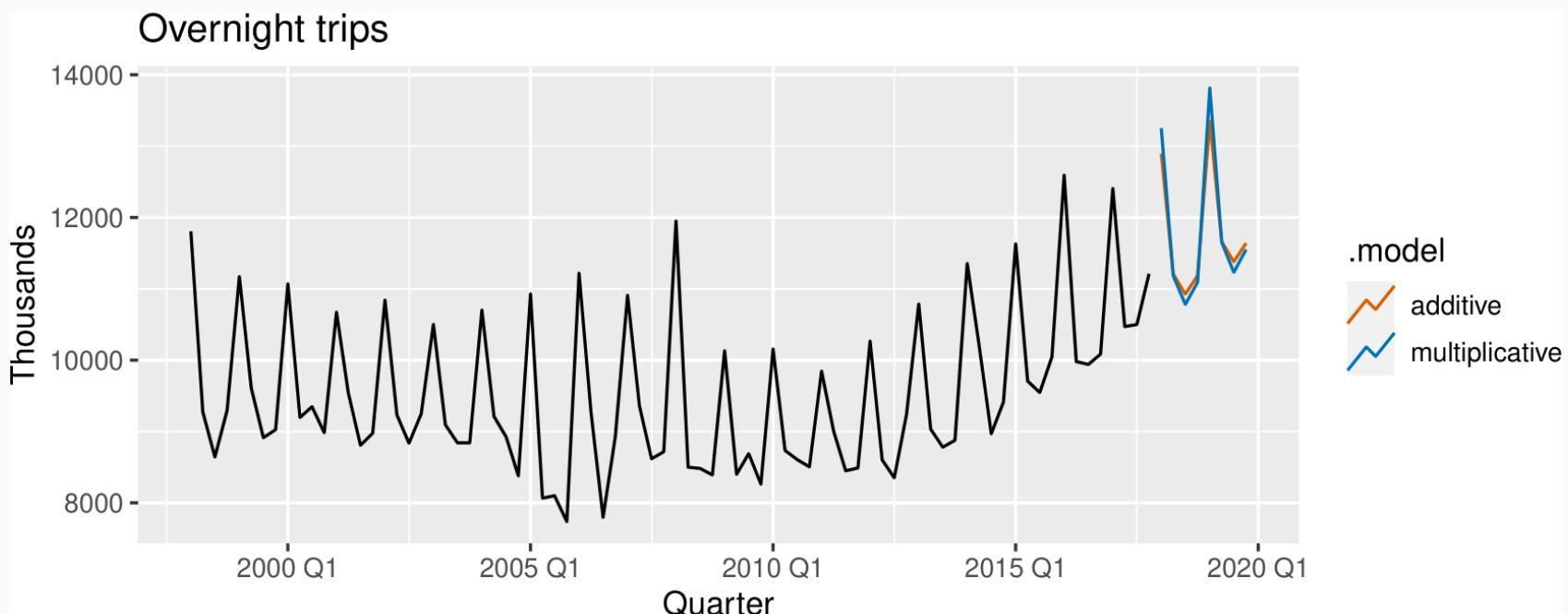
- Forecast errors: $\varepsilon_t = (y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1})/\hat{y}_{t|t-1}$
- k is integer part of $(h - 1)/m$.

Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
aus_holidays <- tourism %>%
  filter(Purpose == "Holiday") %>%
  summarise(Trips = sum(Trips))
fit <- aus_holidays %>%
  model(
    additive = ETS(Trips ~ error("A") + trend("A") + season("A")),
    multiplicative = ETS(Trips ~ error("M") + trend("A") + season("M")))
)
fc <- fit %>% forecast()
```

Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
fc %>%
  autoplot(aus_holidays, level = NULL) +
  labs(y = "Thousands", title = "Overnight trips")
```

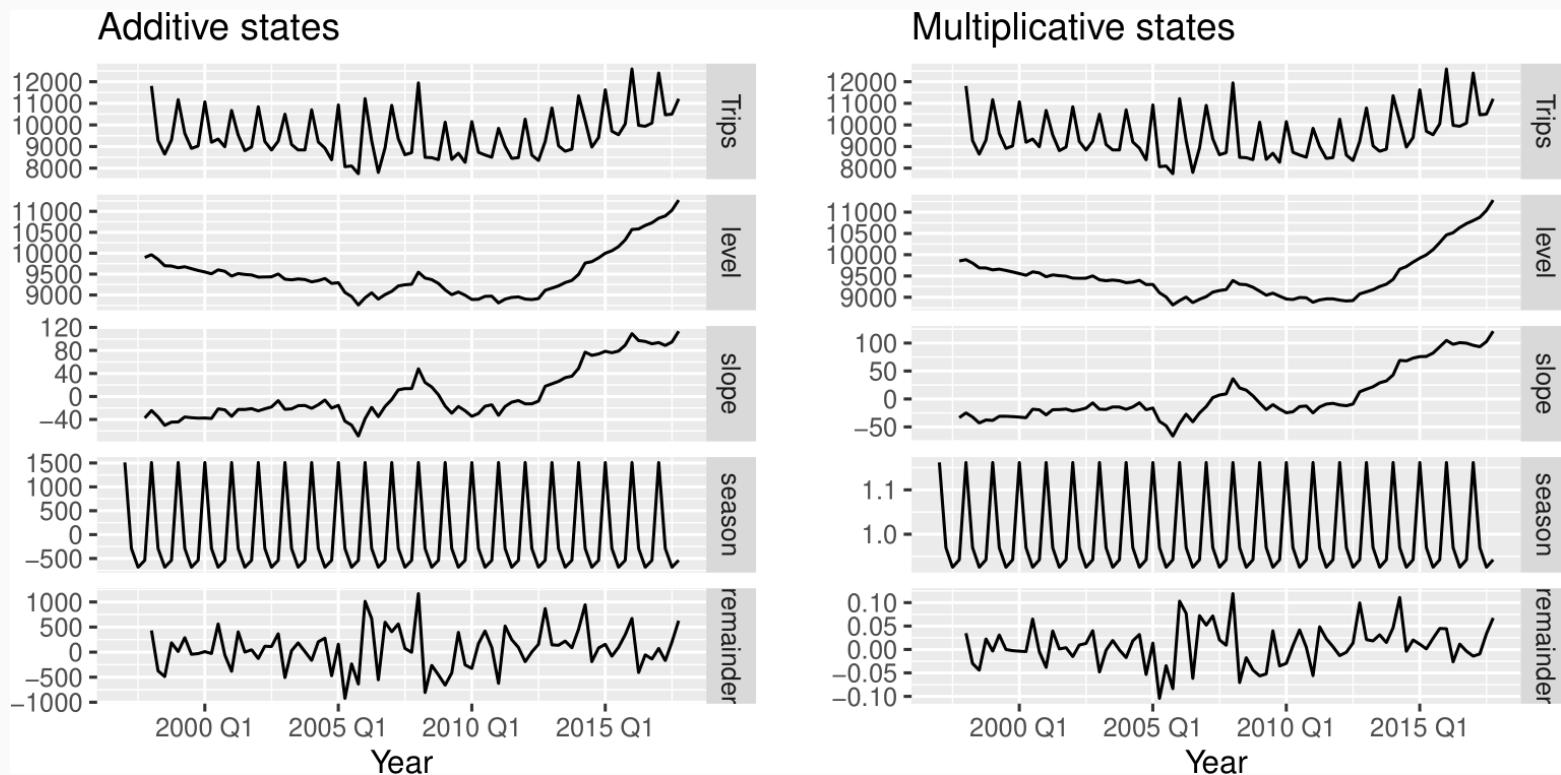


Estimated components

```
components(fit)
```

```
## # A dable: 168 x 7 [1Q]
## # Key:      .model [2]
## # :         Trips = lag(level, 1) + lag(slope, 1) + lag(season, 4) +
## #   remainder
## #   .model   Quarter   Trips level slope season remainder
## #   <chr>     <qtr>    <dbl>  <dbl>  <dbl>    <dbl>    <dbl>
## 1 additive 1997 Q1      NA      NA      NA    1512.      NA
## 2 additive 1997 Q2      NA      NA      NA   -290.      NA
## 3 additive 1997 Q3      NA      NA      NA   -684.      NA
## 4 additive 1997 Q4      NA  9899. -37.4   -538.      NA
## 5 additive 1998 Q1 11806. 9964. -24.5   1512.    433.
## 6 additive 1998 Q2  9276. 9851. -35.6   -290.   -374.
## 7 additive 1998 Q3  8642. 9700. -50.2   -684.   -489.
## 8 additive 1998 Q4  9300. 9694. -44.6   -538.    188.
```

Estimated components



Holt-Winters damped method

Often the single most accurate forecasting method for seasonal data:

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = [\ell_t + (\phi + \phi^2 + \dots + \phi^h)b_t]s_{t+h-m(k+1)}$$

$$\ell_t = \alpha(y_t/s_{t-m}) + (1 - \alpha)(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})$$

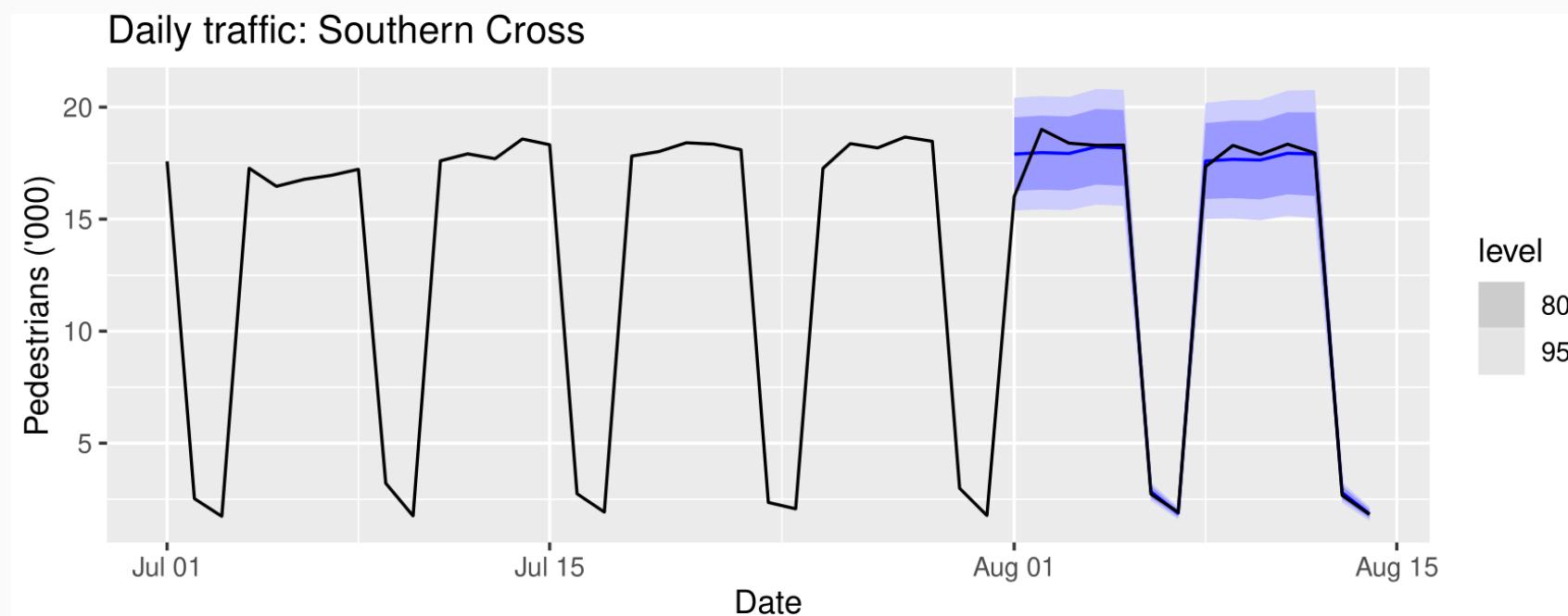
$$b_t = \beta^*(\ell_t - \ell_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta^*)\phi b_{t-1}$$

$$s_t = \gamma \frac{y_t}{(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})} + (1 - \gamma)s_{t-m}$$

Holt-Winters with daily data

```
sth_cross_ped <- pedestrian %>%
  filter(
    Date >= "2016-07-01",
    Sensor == "Southern Cross Station"
  ) %>%
  index_by(Date) %>%
  summarise(Count = sum(Count) / 1000)
sth_cross_ped %>%
  filter(Date <= "2016-07-31") %>%
  model(
    hw = ETS(Count ~ error("M") + trend("Ad") + season("M"))
  ) %>%
  forecast(h = "2 weeks") %>%
  autoplot(sth_cross_ped %>% filter(Date <= "2016-08-14")) +
  labs(
    title = "Daily traffic: Southern Cross",
    y = "Pedestrians ('000)"
  )
```

Holt-Winters with daily data



Outline

- 1 Exponential smoothing
- 2 Simple exponential smoothing
- 3 Models with trend
- 4 Models with seasonality
- 5 Innovations state space models
- 6 Forecasting with exponential smoothing

Exponential smoothing methods

		Seasonal Component		
		N	A	M
		(None)	(Additive)	(Multiplicative)
N	(None)	(N,N)	(N,A)	(N,M)
A	(Additive)	(A,N)	(A,A)	(A,M)
A_d	(Additive damped)	(A_d, N)	(A_d, A)	(A_d, M)

(N,N): Simple exponential smoothing

(A,N): Holt's linear method

(A_d ,N): Additive damped trend method

(A,A): Additive Holt-Winters' method

(A,M): Multiplicative Holt-Winters' method

(A_d ,M): Damped multiplicative Holt-Winters' method

There are also multiplicative trend methods (not recommended).

ETS models

Additive Error

		Seasonal Component		
		N	A	M
		(None)	(Additive)	(Multiplicative)
N	(None)	A,N,N	A,N,A	A,N,M
A	(Additive)	A,A,N	A,A,A	A,A,M
A_d	(Additive damped)	A, A_d ,N	A, A_d ,A	A, A_d ,M

Multiplicative Error

		Seasonal Component		
		N	A	M
		(None)	(Additive)	(Multiplicative)
N	(None)	M,N,N	M,N,A	M,N,M
A	(Additive)	M,A,N	M,A,A	M,A,M
A_d	(Additive damped)	M, A_d ,N	M, A_d ,A	M, A_d ,M

Additive error models

Trend

N

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

Seasonal

A

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \ell_{t-1} + s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t \\ s_t &= s_{t-m} + \gamma \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

M

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \ell_{t-1} s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t / s_{t-m} \\ s_t &= s_{t-m} + \gamma \varepsilon_t / \ell_{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t \\ b_t &= b_{t-1} + \beta \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t \\ b_t &= b_{t-1} + \beta \varepsilon_t \\ s_t &= s_{t-m} + \gamma \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1}) s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t / s_{t-m} \\ b_t &= b_{t-1} + \beta \varepsilon_t / s_{t-m} \\ s_t &= s_{t-m} + \gamma \varepsilon_t / (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t \\ b_t &= \phi b_{t-1} + \beta \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t \\ b_t &= \phi b_{t-1} + \beta \varepsilon_t \\ s_t &= s_{t-m} + \gamma \varepsilon_t\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= (\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1}) s_{t-m} + \varepsilon_t \\ \ell_t &= \ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + \alpha \varepsilon_t / s_{t-m} \\ b_t &= \phi b_{t-1} + \beta \varepsilon_t / s_{t-m} \\ s_t &= s_{t-m} + \gamma \varepsilon_t / (\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})\end{aligned}$$

Multiplicative error models

Trend		Seasonal		
	N	A		M
N	$y_t = \ell_{t-1}(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = \ell_{t-1}(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$	$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + s_{t-m})(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = \ell_{t-1} + \alpha(\ell_{t-1} + s_{t-m})\varepsilon_t$ $s_t = s_{t-m} + \gamma(\ell_{t-1} + s_{t-m})\varepsilon_t$		$y_t = \ell_{t-1}s_{t-m}(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = \ell_{t-1}(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$ $s_t = s_{t-m}(1 + \gamma\varepsilon_t)$
A	$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$ $b_t = b_{t-1} + \beta(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})\varepsilon_t$	$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + s_{t-m})(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = \ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + \alpha(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + s_{t-m})\varepsilon_t$ $s_t = s_{t-m} + \gamma(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1} + s_{t-m})\varepsilon_t$		$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})s_{t-m}(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = (\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$ $b_t = b_{t-1} + \beta(\ell_{t-1} + b_{t-1})\varepsilon_t$ $s_t = s_{t-m}(1 + \gamma\varepsilon_t)$
Ad	$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = (\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$ $b_t = \phi b_{t-1} + \beta(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})\varepsilon_t$	$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + s_{t-m})(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = \ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + \alpha(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + s_{t-m})\varepsilon_t$ $b_t = \phi b_{t-1} + \beta(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + s_{t-m})\varepsilon_t$ $s_t = s_{t-m} + \gamma(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1} + s_{t-m})\varepsilon_t$		$y_t = (\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})s_{t-m}(1 + \varepsilon_t)$ $\ell_t = (\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_t)$ $b_t = \phi b_{t-1} + \beta(\ell_{t-1} + \phi b_{t-1})\varepsilon_t$ $s_t = s_{t-m}(1 + \gamma\varepsilon_t)$

Estimating ETS models

- Smoothing parameters α, β, γ and ϕ , and the initial states $\ell_0, b_0, s_0, s_{-1}, \dots, s_{-m+1}$ are estimated by maximising the “likelihood” = the probability of the data arising from the specified model.
- For models with additive errors equivalent to minimising SSE.
- For models with multiplicative errors, **not** equivalent to minimising SSE.

Innovations state space models

Let $\mathbf{x}_t = (\ell_t, b_t, s_t, s_{t-1}, \dots, s_{t-m+1})$ and $\varepsilon_t \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$.

$$y_t = \underbrace{h(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})}_{\mu_t} + \underbrace{k(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})\varepsilon_t}_{e_t}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_t = f(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) + g(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})\varepsilon_t$$

Additive errors

$$k(x) = 1. \quad y_t = \mu_t + \varepsilon_t.$$

Multiplicative errors

$$k(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) = \mu_t. \quad y_t = \mu_t(1 + \varepsilon_t).$$

$\varepsilon_t = (y_t - \mu_t)/\mu_t$ is relative error.

Innovations state space models

Estimation

$$\begin{aligned} L^*(\theta, \mathbf{x}_0) &= T \log \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \varepsilon_t^2 \right) + 2 \sum_{t=1}^T \log |k(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})| \\ &= -2 \log(\text{Likelihood}) + \text{constant} \end{aligned}$$

- Estimate parameters $\theta = (\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \phi)$ and initial states $\mathbf{x}_0 = (\ell_0, b_0, s_0, s_{-1}, \dots, s_{-m+1})$ by minimizing L^* .

Parameter restrictions

Usual region

- Traditional restrictions in the methods $0 < \alpha, \beta^*, \gamma^*, \phi < 1$ (equations interpreted as weighted averages).
- In models we set $\beta = \alpha\beta^*$ and $\gamma = (1 - \alpha)\gamma^*$.
- Therefore $0 < \alpha < 1$, $0 < \beta < \alpha$ and $0 < \gamma < 1 - \alpha$.
- $0.8 < \phi < 0.98$ — to prevent numerical difficulties.

Admissible region

- To prevent observations in the distant past having a continuing effect on current forecasts.
- Usually (but not always) less restrictive than *traditional* region.
- For example for ETS(A,N,N):
traditional $0 < \alpha < 1$ while *admissible* $0 < \alpha < 2$.

Model selection

Akaike's Information Criterion

$$AIC = -2 \log(L) + 2k$$

where L is the likelihood and k is the number of parameters initial states estimated in the model.

Corrected AIC

$$AIC_c = AIC + \frac{2k(k + 1)}{T - k - 1}$$

which is the AIC corrected (for small sample bias).

Bayesian Information Criterion

$$BIC = AIC + k[\log(T) - 2].$$

AIC and cross-validation

Minimizing the AIC assuming Gaussian residuals is asymptotically equivalent to minimizing one-step time series cross validation MSE.

Automatic forecasting

From Hyndman et al. (IJF, 2002):

- Apply each model that is appropriate to the data. Optimize parameters and initial values using MLE (or some other criterion).
- Select best method using AICc:
- Produce forecasts using best method.
- Obtain forecast intervals using underlying state space model.

Method performed very well in M3 competition.

Example: National populations

```
fit <- global_economy %>%
  mutate(Pop = Population / 1e6) %>%
  model(ets = ETS(Pop))
fit

## # A mable: 263 x 2
## # Key:     Country [263]
##   Country                      ets
##   <fct>                     <model>
## 1 Afghanistan                <ETS(A,A,N)>
## 2 Albania                    <ETS(M,A,N)>
## 3 Algeria                    <ETS(M,A,N)>
## 4 American Samoa             <ETS(M,A,N)>
## 5 Andorra                     <ETS(M,A,N)>
## 6 Angola                      <ETS(M,A,N)>
## 7 Antigua and Barbuda        <ETS(M,A,N)>
## 8 Arab World                  <ETS(M,A,N)>
## 9 Argentina                  <ETS(A,A,N)>
```

Example: National populations

```
fit %>%
  forecast(h = 5)

## # A fable: 1,315 x 5 [1Y]
## # Key:      Country, .model [263]
##   Country     .model Year          Pop .mean
##   <fct>       <chr>  <dbl>        <dist> <dbl>
## 1 Afghanistan ets    2018 N(36, 0.012) 36.4
## 2 Afghanistan ets    2019 N(37, 0.059) 37.3
## 3 Afghanistan ets    2020 N(38, 0.16) 38.2
## 4 Afghanistan ets    2021 N(39, 0.35) 39.0
## 5 Afghanistan ets    2022 N(40, 0.64) 39.9
## 6 Albania      ets    2018 N(2.9, 0.00012) 2.87
## 7 Albania      ets    2019 N(2.9, 6e-04) 2.87
## 8 Albania      ets    2020 N(2.9, 0.0017) 2.87
## 9 Albania      ets    2021 N(2.9, 0.0036) 2.86
## 10 Albania     ets   2022 N(2.9, 0.0066) 2.86
## # ... with 1.305 more rows
```

Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
holidays <- tourism %>%
  filter(Purpose == "Holiday")
fit <- holidays %>% model(ets = ETS(Trips))
fit
```

```
## # A mable: 76 x 4
## # Key:      Region, State, Purpose [76]
##   Region                      State          Purpose        ets
##   <chr>                       <chr>         <chr>       <model>
## 1 Adelaide                    South Australia Holiday <ETS(A,N,A)>
## 2 Adelaide Hills              South Australia Holiday <ETS(A,A,N)>
## 3 Alice Springs               Northern Territory Holiday <ETS(M,N,A)>
## 4 Australia's Coral Coast    Western Australia Holiday <ETS(M,N,A)>
## 5 Australia's Golden Outback Western Australia Holiday <ETS(M,N,M)>
## 6 Australia's North West     Western Australia Holiday <ETS(A,N,A)>
## 7 Australia's South West     Western Australia Holiday <ETS(M,N,M)>
## 8 Ballarat                     Victoria        Holiday <ETS(M,N,A)>
## 9 Barkly                      Northern Territory Holiday <ETS(A,N,A)>
```

Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
fit %>%
  filter(Region == "Snowy Mountains") %>%
  report()

## Series: Trips
## Model: ETS(M,N,A)
##   Smoothing parameters:
##     alpha = 0.157
##     gamma = 1e-04
##
##   Initial states:
##   l[0] s[0] s[-1] s[-2] s[-3]
##   142 -61 131 -42.2 -27.7
##
##   sigma^2: 0.0388
##
##   AIC AICc BIC
##   852 854 869
```

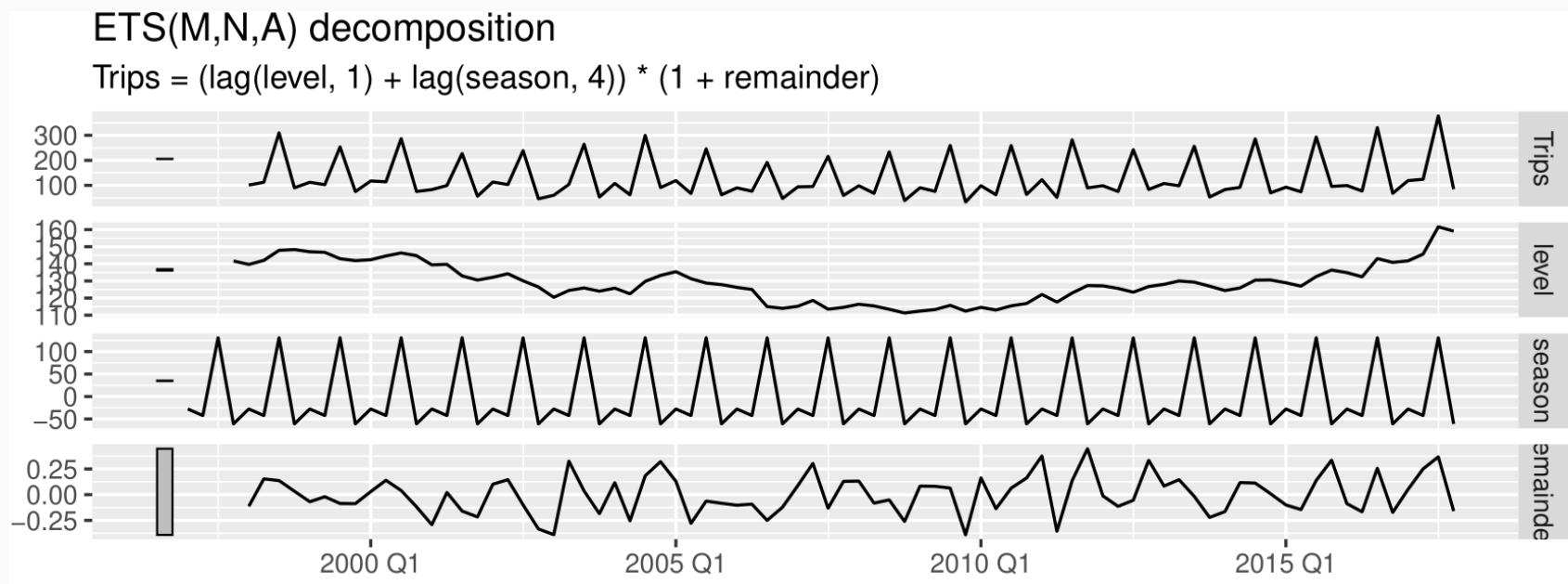
Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
fit %>%
  filter(Region == "Snowy Mountains") %>%
  components(fit)

## # A dable: 84 x 9 [1Q]
## # Key:      Region, State, Purpose, .model [1]
## # :         Trips = (lag(level, 1) + lag(season, 4)) * (1 + remainder)
##   Region           State Purpose .model Quarter Trips level season remainder
##   <chr>            <chr>  <chr>   <chr>    <qtr>  <dbl> <dbl>   <dbl>     <dbl>
## 1 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1997 Q1  NA    NA    -27.7    NA
## 2 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1997 Q2  NA    NA    -42.2    NA
## 3 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1997 Q3  NA    NA    131.     NA
## 4 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1997 Q4  NA    142.   -61.0    NA
## 5 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1998 Q1  101.  140.   -27.7   -0.113
## 6 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1998 Q2  112.  142.   -42.2    0.154
## 7 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1998 Q3  310.  148.   131.    0.137
## 8 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1998 Q4  89.8  148.   -61.0   0.0335  68
## 9 Snowy Mountai~ New ~ Holiday ets     1999 Q1  112.  147.   -27.7   -0.0687
```

Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
fit %>%
  filter(Region == "Snowy Mountains") %>%
  components(fit) %>%
  autoplot()
```



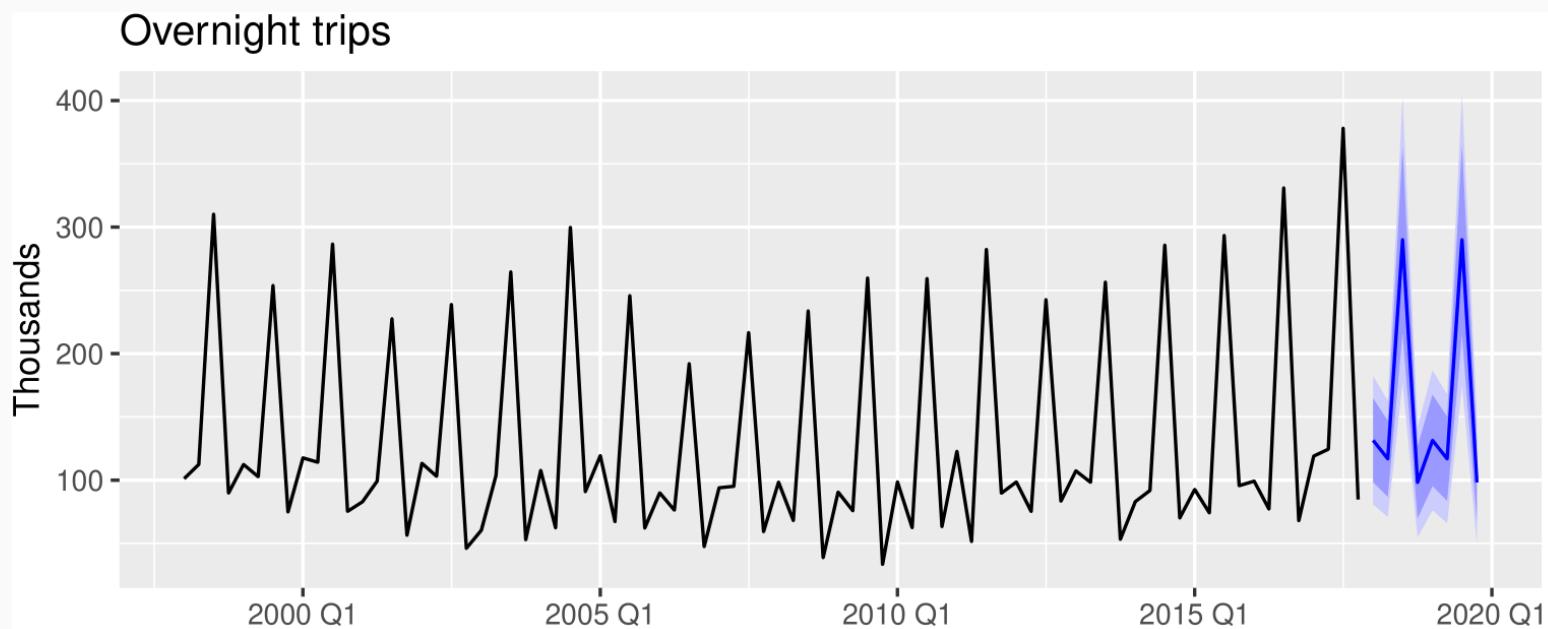
Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
fit %>% forecast()

## # A fable: 608 x 7 [1Q]
## # Key:      Region, State, Purpose, .model [76]
## # Region           State          Purpose .model Quarter     Trips .mean
## # <chr>            <chr>         <chr>   <chr>    <qtr>     <dist> <dbl>
## 1 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2018 Q1 N(210, 457) 210.
## 2 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2018 Q2 N(173, 473) 173.
## 3 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2018 Q3 N(169, 489) 169.
## 4 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2018 Q4 N(186, 505) 186.
## 5 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2019 Q1 N(210, 521) 210.
## 6 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2019 Q2 N(173, 537) 173.
## 7 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2019 Q3 N(169, 553) 169.
## 8 Adelaide        South Australia Holiday ets  2019 Q4 N(186, 569) 186.
## 9 Adelaide Hills  South Australia Holiday ets  2018 Q1  N(19, 36)  19.4
## 10 Adelaide Hills South Australia Holiday ets 2018 Q2  N(20, 36)  19.6
## # ... with 598 more rows
```

Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
fit %>% forecast() %>%
  filter(Region == "Snowy Mountains") %>%
  autoplot(holidays) +
  labs(y = "Thousands", title = "Overnight trips")
```



Residuals

Response residuals

$$\hat{e}_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$$

Innovation residuals

Additive error model:

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$$

Multiplicative error model:

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_t = \frac{y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}}{\hat{y}_{t|t-1}}$$

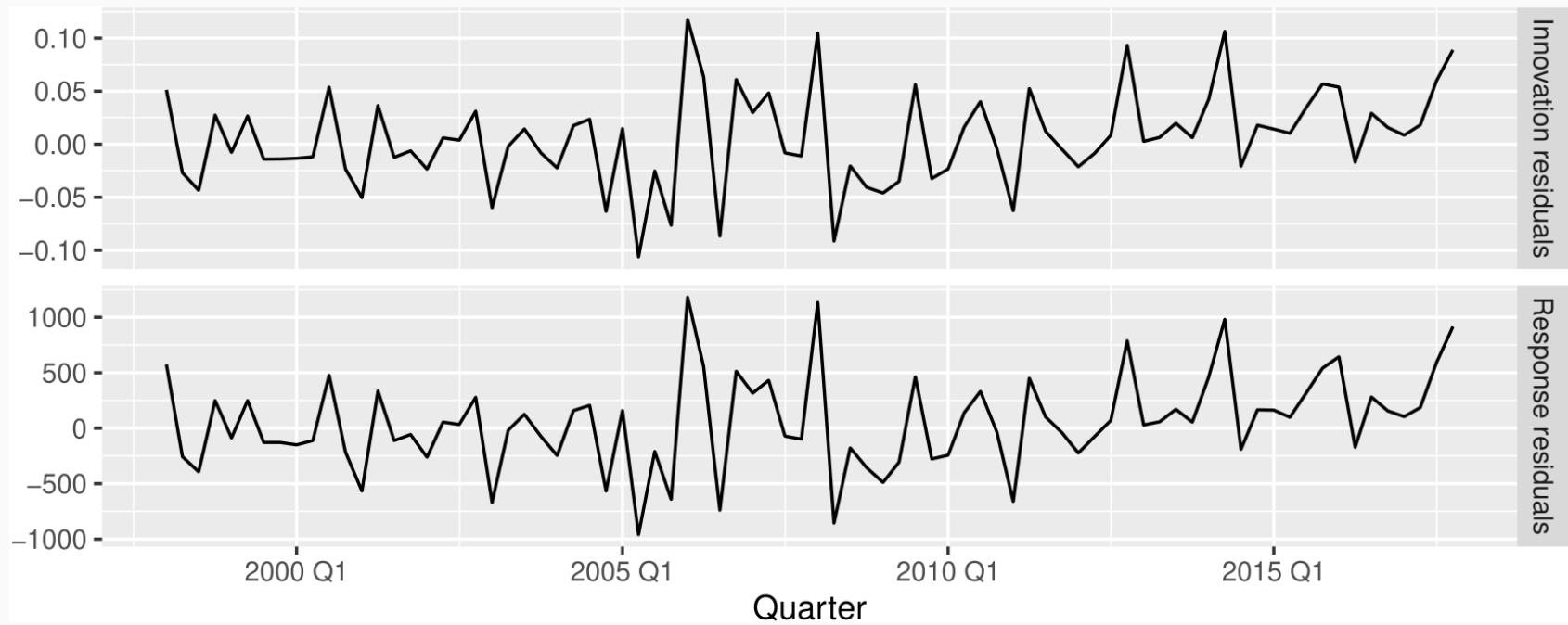
Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
aus_holidays <- tourism %>%
  filter(Purpose == "Holiday") %>%
  summarise(Trips = sum(Trips))
fit <- aus_holidays %>%
  model(ets = ETS(Trips)) %>%
  report()
```

```
## Series: Trips
## Model: ETS(M,N,M)
##   Smoothing parameters:
##     alpha = 0.358
##     gamma = 0.000969
##
##   Initial states:
##     l[0]  s[0]  s[-1]  s[-2]  s[-3]
##     9667  0.943  0.927  0.968  1.16
##
##     sigma^2:  0.0022
```

Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
residuals(fit)
residuals(fit, type = "response")
```



Example: Australian holiday tourism

```
fit %>%  
  augment()  
  
## # A tsibble: 80 x 6 [1Q]  
## # Key:   .model [1]  
##       .model Quarter Trips .fitted .resid   .innov  
##       <chr>    <qtr>  <dbl>   <dbl>  <dbl>    <dbl>  
## 1 ets     1998 Q1  11806.  11230.  576.    0.0513  
## 2 ets     1998 Q2   9276.  9532. -257.   -0.0269  
## 3 ets     1998 Q3   8642.  9036. -393.   -0.0435  
## 4 ets     1998 Q4   9300.  9050.  249.    0.0275  
## 5 ets     1999 Q1  11172.  11260. -88.0  -0.00781  
## 6 ets     1999 Q2   9608.  9358.  249.    0.0266  
## 7 ets     1999 Q3   8914.  9042. -129.   -0.0142  
## 8 ets     1999 Q4   9026.  9154. -129.   -0.0140  
## 9 ets     2000 Q1  11071.  11221. -150.   -0.0134  
## 10 ets    2000 Q2   9196.  9308. -111.   -0.0120  
## # ... with 70 more rows
```

Innovation residuals (`.innov`) are given by $\hat{\varepsilon}_t$ while regular residuals (`.resid`) are $y_t - \hat{y}_{t-1}$. They are different when the model has multiplicative errors.

Some unstable models

- Some of the combinations of (Error, Trend, Seasonal) can lead to numerical difficulties; see equations with division by a state.
- These are: ETS(A,N,M), ETS(A,A,M), ETS(A,A_d,M).
- Models with multiplicative errors are useful for strictly positive data, but are not numerically stable with data containing zeros or negative values. In that case only the six fully additive models will be applied.

Exponential smoothing models

Additive Error

		Seasonal Component		
		N	A	M
		(None)	(Additive)	(Multiplicative)
N	(None)	A,N,N	A,N,A	A,N,M
A	(Additive)	A,A,N	A,A,A	A,A,M
A_d	(Additive damped)	A, A_d ,N	A, A_d ,A	A,A_d,M

Multiplicative Error

		Seasonal Component		
		N	A	M
		(None)	(Additive)	(Multiplicative)
N	(None)	M,N,N	M,N,A	M,N,M
A	(Additive)	M,A,N	M,A,A	M,A,M
A_d	(Additive damped)	M, A_d ,N	M, A_d ,A	M, A_d ,M

Outline

- 1 Exponential smoothing
- 2 Simple exponential smoothing
- 3 Models with trend
- 4 Models with seasonality
- 5 Innovations state space models
- 6 Forecasting with exponential smoothing

Forecasting with ETS models

Traditional point forecasts: iterate the equations for $t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + h$ and set all $\varepsilon_t = 0$ for $t > T$.

- Not the same as $E(y_{t+h} | \mathbf{x}_t)$ unless seasonality is additive.
- fable uses $E(y_{t+h} | \mathbf{x}_t)$.
- Point forecasts for ETS(A, *, *) are identical to ETS(M, *, *) if the parameters are the same.

Example: ETS(A,A,N)

$$y_{T+1} = \ell_T + b_T + \varepsilon_{T+1}$$

$$\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = \ell_T + b_T$$

$$y_{T+2} = \ell_{T+1} + b_{T+1} + \varepsilon_{T+2}$$

$$= (\ell_T + b_T + \alpha \varepsilon_{T+1}) + (b_T + \beta \varepsilon_{T+1}) + \varepsilon_{T+2}$$

$$\hat{y}_{T+2|T} = \ell_T + 2b_T$$

etc.

Example: ETS(M,A,N)

$$y_{T+1} = (\ell_T + b_T)(1 + \varepsilon_{T+1})$$

$$\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = \ell_T + b_T.$$

$$y_{T+2} = (\ell_{T+1} + b_{T+1})(1 + \varepsilon_{T+2})$$

$$= \{(\ell_T + b_T)(1 + \alpha\varepsilon_{T+1}) + [b_T + \beta(\ell_T + b_T)\varepsilon_{T+1}]\} (1 + \varepsilon_{T+2})$$

$$\hat{y}_{T+2|T} = \ell_T + 2b_T$$

etc.

Forecasting with ETS models

Prediction intervals: can only be generated using the models.

- The prediction intervals will differ between models with additive and multiplicative errors.
- Exact formulae for some models.
- More general to simulate future sample paths, conditional on the last estimate of the states, and to obtain prediction intervals from the percentiles of these simulated future paths.

Prediction intervals

PI for most ETS models: $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm c\sigma_h$, where c depends on coverage probability and σ_h is forecast standard deviation.

$$(A,N,N) \quad \sigma_h = \sigma^2 \left[1 + \alpha^2(h - 1) \right]$$

$$(A,A,N) \quad \sigma_h = \sigma^2 \left[1 + (h - 1) \left\{ \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta h + \frac{1}{6}\beta^2 h(2h - 1) \right\} \right]$$

$$(A,A_d,N) \quad \sigma_h = \sigma^2 \left[1 + \alpha^2(h - 1) + \frac{\beta\phi h}{(1-\phi)^2} \left\{ 2\alpha(1 - \phi) + \beta\phi \right\} - \frac{\beta\phi(1-\phi^h)}{(1-\phi)^2(1-\phi^2)} \left\{ 2\alpha(1 - \phi^2) + \beta\phi(1 + 2\phi - \phi^h) \right\} \right]$$

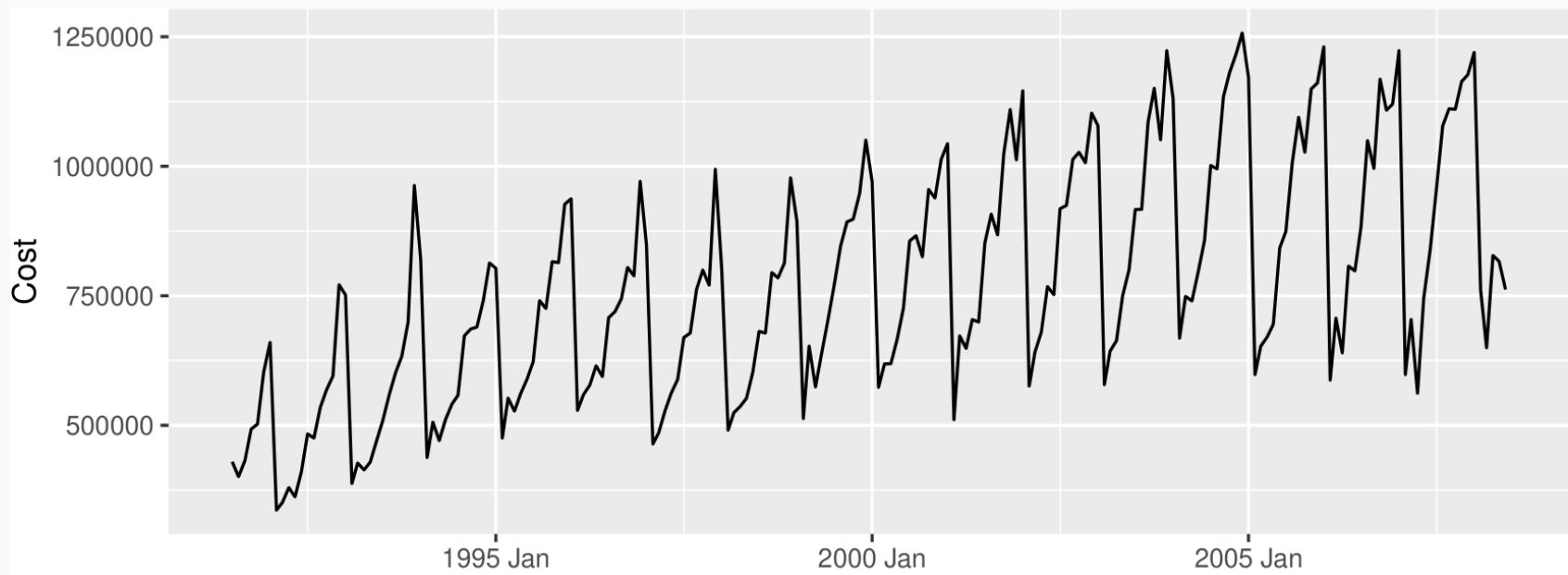
$$(A,N,A) \quad \sigma_h = \sigma^2 \left[1 + \alpha^2(h - 1) + \gamma k(2\alpha + \gamma) \right]$$

$$(A,A,A) \quad \sigma_h = \sigma^2 \left[1 + (h - 1) \left\{ \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta h + \frac{1}{6}\beta^2 h(2h - 1) \right\} + \gamma k \left\{ 2\alpha + \gamma + \beta m(k + 1) \right\} \right]$$

$$(A,A_d,A) \quad \sigma_h = \sigma^2 \left[1 + \alpha^2(h - 1) + \frac{\beta\phi h}{(1-\phi)^2} \left\{ 2\alpha(1 - \phi) + \beta\phi \right\} - \frac{\beta\phi(1-\phi^h)}{(1-\phi)^2(1-\phi^2)} \left\{ 2\alpha(1 - \phi^2) + \beta\phi(1 + 2\phi - \phi^h) \right\} + \gamma k(2\alpha + \gamma) + \frac{2\beta\gamma\phi}{(1-\phi)(1-\phi^m)} \left\{ k(1 - \phi^m) - \phi^m(1 - \phi^{mk}) \right\} \right]$$

Example: Corticosteroid drug sales

```
h02 <- PBS %>%
  filter(ATC2 == "H02") %>%
  summarise(Cost = sum(Cost))
h02 %>% autoplot(Cost)
```



Example: Corticosteroid drug sales

```
h02 %>%
  model(ETS(Cost)) %>%
  report()

## Series: Cost
## Model: ETS(M,Ad,M)
##   Smoothing parameters:
##     alpha = 0.307
##     beta  = 0.000101
##     gamma = 0.000101
##     phi   = 0.978
##
##   Initial states:
##     l[0] b[0]  s[0] s[-1] s[-2] s[-3] s[-4] s[-5] s[-6] s[-7] s[-8] s[-9]
##     417269 8206 0.872 0.826 0.756 0.773 0.687 1.28  1.32  1.18  1.16  1.1
##     s[-10] s[-11]
##     1.05  0.981
##
##   sigma^2:  0.0046
##
##   AIC AICc  BIC
## 5515 5519 5575
```

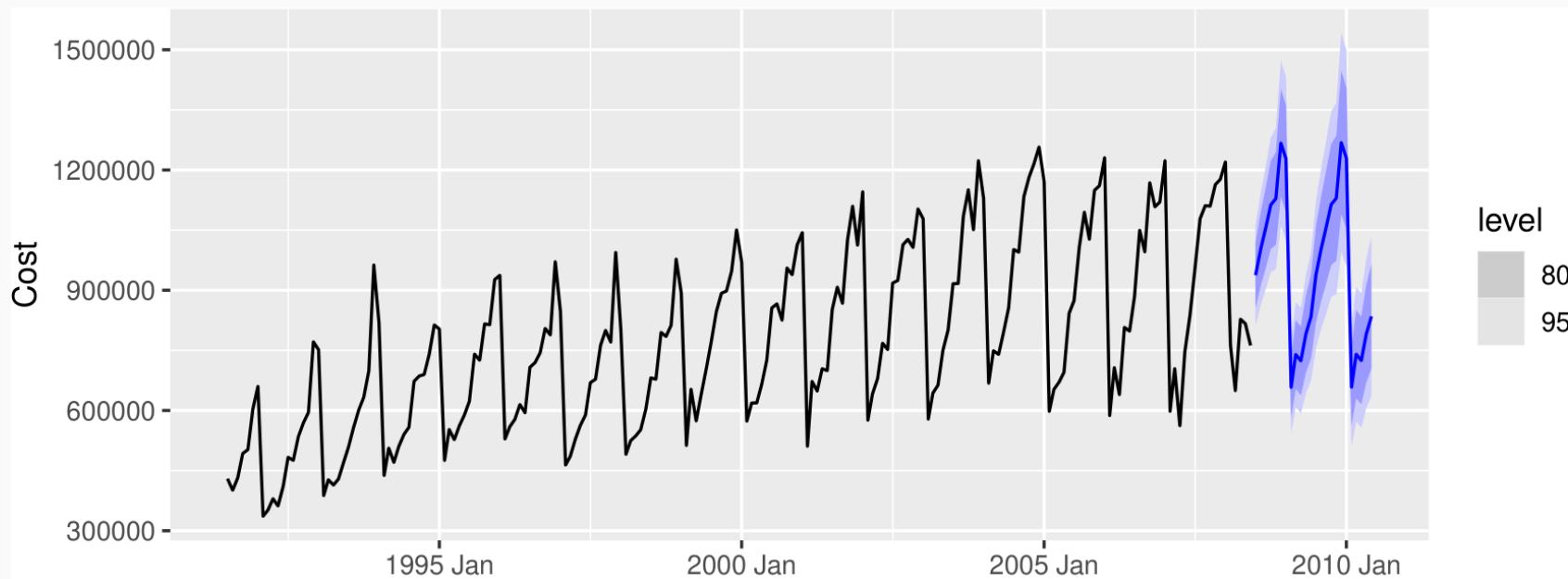
Example: Corticosteroid drug sales

```
h02 %>%
  model(ETS(Cost ~ error("A") + trend("A") + season("A"))) %>%
  report()

## Series: Cost
## Model: ETS(A,A,A)
##   Smoothing parameters:
##     alpha = 0.17
##     beta  = 0.00631
##     gamma = 0.455
##
##   Initial states:
##     l[0] b[0]    s[0]    s[-1]    s[-2]    s[-3]    s[-4]    s[-5]    s[-6]    s[-7]
## 409706 9097 -99075 -136602 -191496 -174531 -241437 210644 244644 145368
##     s[-8] s[-9] s[-10] s[-11]
## 130570 84458 39132 -11674
##
##   sigma^2:  3.5e+09
##
##   AIC AICc  BIC
## 5585 5589 5642
```

Example: Corticosteroid drug sales

```
h02 %>%
  model(ETS(Cost)) %>%
  forecast() %>%
  autoplot(h02)
```



Example: Corticosteroid drug sales

```
h02 %>%
  model(
    auto = ETS(Cost),
    AAA = ETS(Cost ~ error("A") + trend("A") + season("A")))
  ) %>%
  accuracy()
```

Model	MAE	RMSE	MAPE	MASE	RMSSE
auto	38649	51102	4.99	0.638	0.689
AAA	43378	56784	6.05	0.716	0.766