## A Biomed Data Analyst Training Program

Time series

**Professor Ron S. Kenett** 

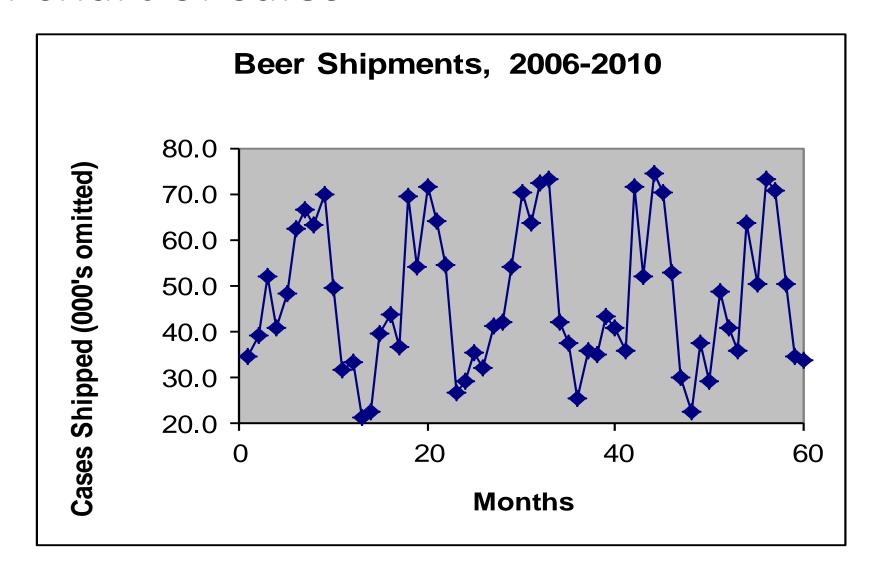
## The Beer Deliveries Example

Deliveries of beer by a beer distributor over five years, the sixty months from January 2006 to December 2010

The data is measured as the number of cases distributed (000's omitted)

	January	February	March	April	Мау	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
2006	34.6	39.3	52.4	40.7	48.5	62.7	66.8	63.5	70.3	49.9	31.8	33.3
2007	21.3	22.6	39.5	43.9	36.7	69.7	54.2	71.8	64.4	54.7	26.7	29.1
2008	35.6	32.2	41.4	42.2	54.3	70.5	63.9	72.6	73.6	42.3	37.5	25.3
2009	35.9	35.2	43.6	41.0	35.8	71.8	52.0	74.7	70.6	53.0	29.9	22.5
2010	37.4	29.1	48.9	40.9	36.1	64.0	50.4	73.4	71.1	50.4	34.8	33.8

## Run chart of sales



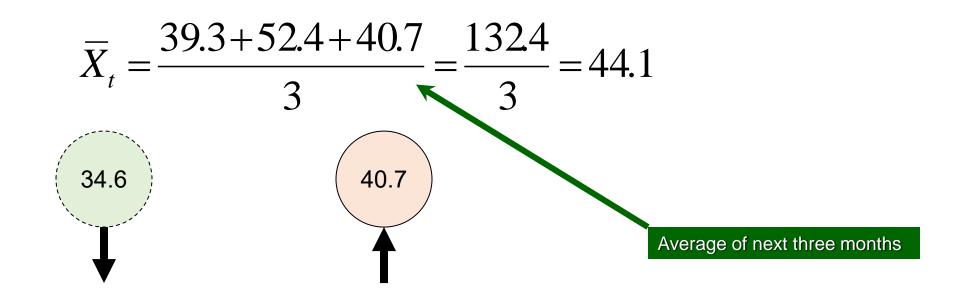
## Three months moving average

$$\overline{X}_{t} = \frac{X_{t-1} + X_{t-2} + X_{t-3}}{3}$$

$$= \frac{34.6 + 39.3 + 52.4}{3} = \frac{126.3}{3} = 42.1$$

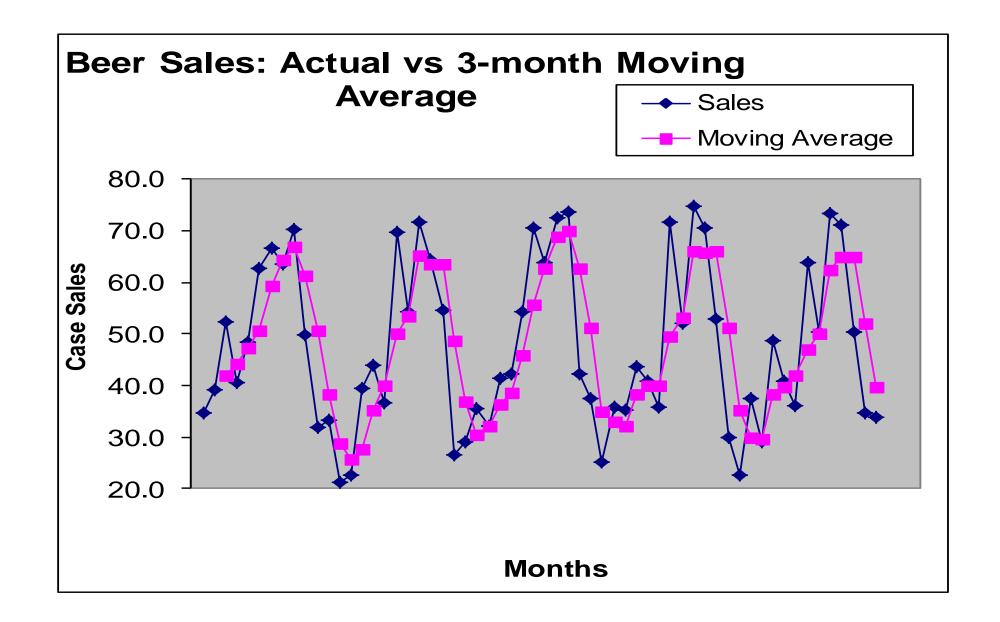
Three months average

## Three months moving average



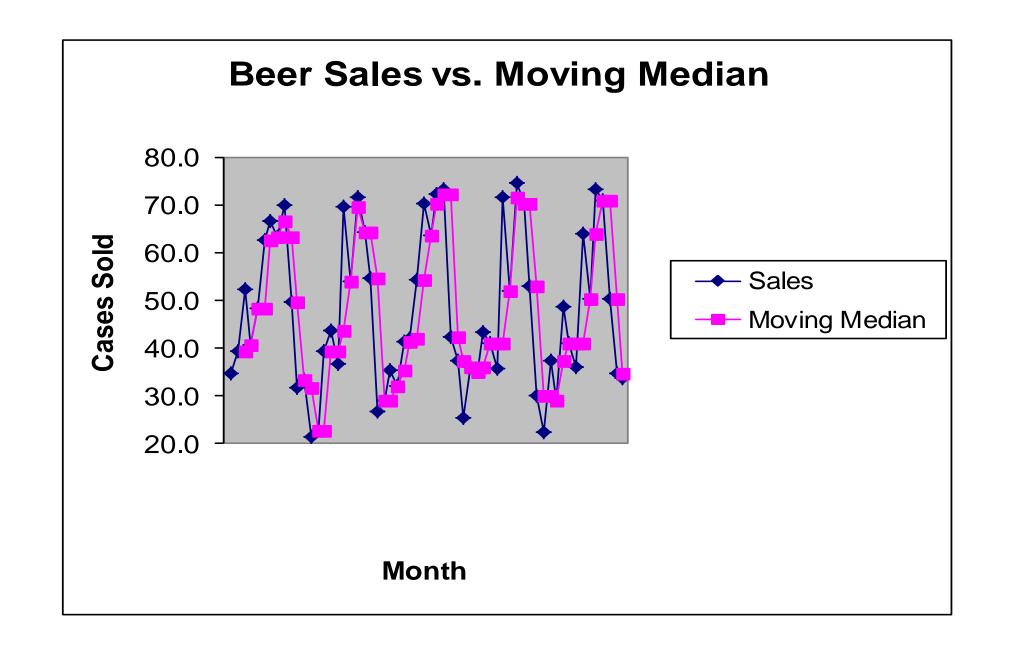
# Three months moving average

		Moving
Month	Sales	Average
January-06	34.6	
February-06	39.3	
March-06	52.4	42.1
April-06	40.7	44.1
May-06	48.5	47.2
June-06	62.7	50.7
July-06	66.8	59.3



## Three months moving median

		Moving
Month	Sales	Median
January-06	34.6	
February-06	39.3	
March-06	52.4	39.3
April-06	40.7	40.7
May-06	48.5	48.5
June-06	62.7	48.5
July-06	66.8	62.7
August-06	63.5	63.5

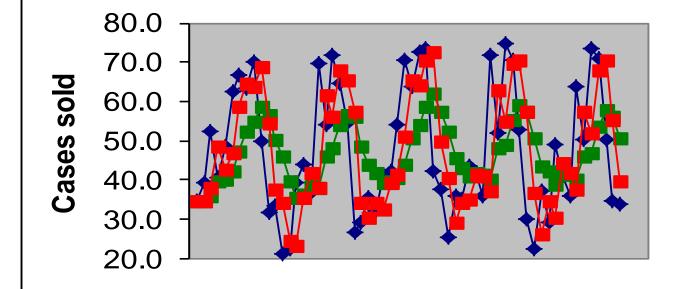


## Exponential smoothing

$$\hat{y}_{t+1} = ay_t + a(1-a)y_{t-1} + a(1-a)^2y_{t-2} + \dots$$

Generally, for data that is highly variable, a higher **a** is chosen In practice, however, **a** seldom exceeds 0.5 For data which has more stability, a lower value of **a** is chosen Typical **a** values range for 0.2 to 0.3

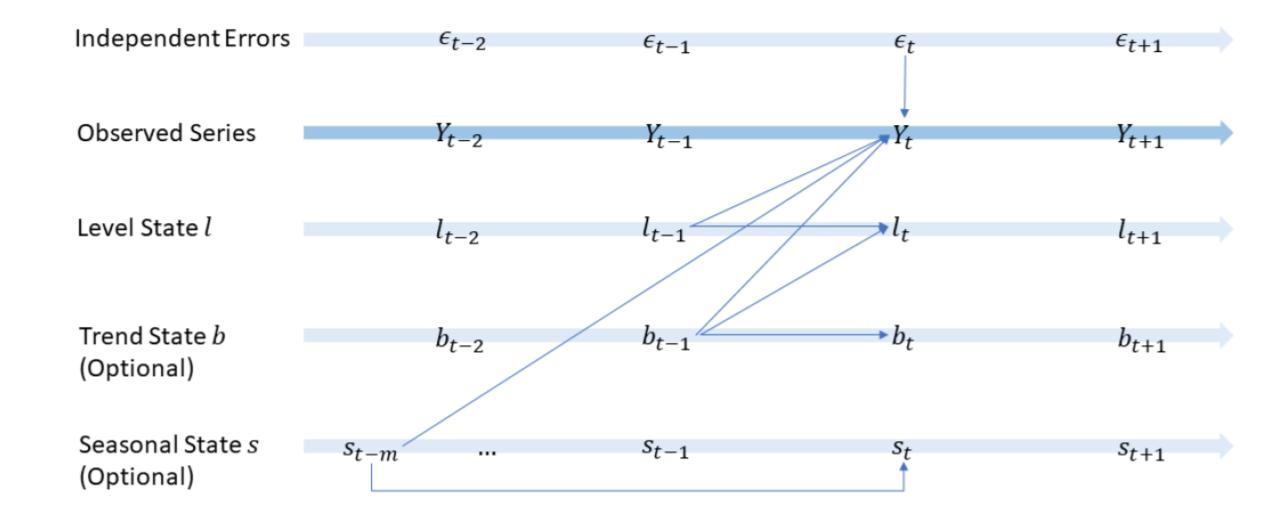




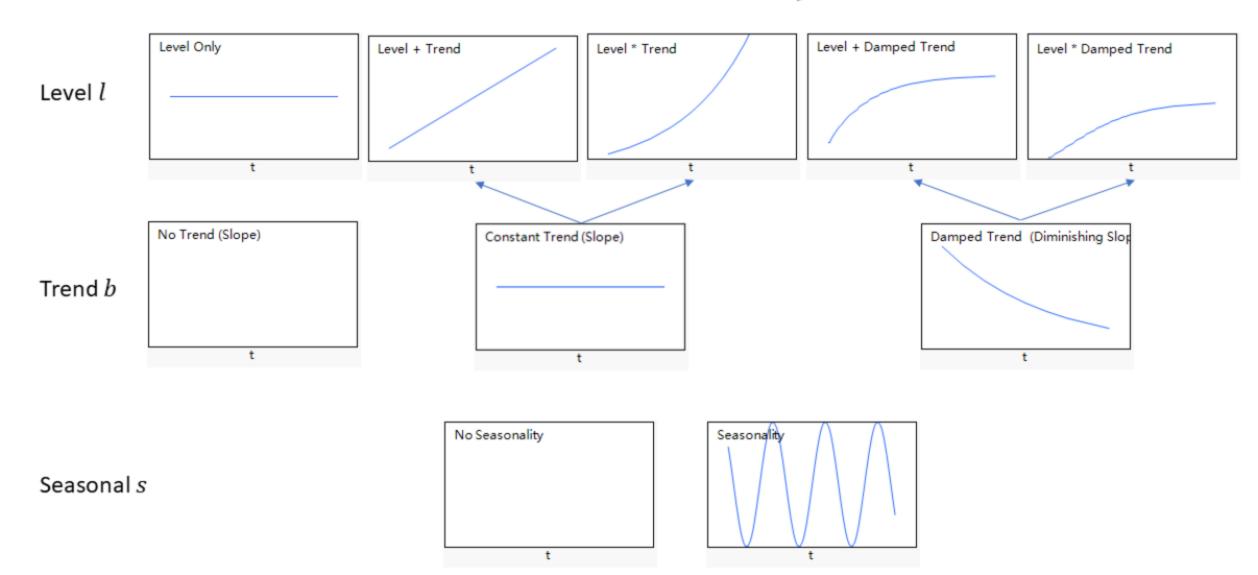


**Month** 

$$Y_t = \left( \begin{array}{cccc} \begin{pmatrix} & l_{t-1} & + & b_{t-1} \\ & \times & \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} + & s_{t-m} \\ & \times & \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} + \epsilon_t \\ & \times & (1 + \epsilon_t) \end{pmatrix} \right)$$



$$Y_t = \left( \begin{array}{cccc} \left( & l_{t-1} & + & b_{t-1} \\ & \times & \end{array} \right) \begin{array}{c} + & s_{t-m} \\ & \times & \end{array} \right) \begin{array}{c} + \epsilon_t \\ & \times (1 + \epsilon_t) \end{array}$$



$$y_t = T_t C_t S_t I_t$$

 $T_t$  = trend factor

 $C_t$  = cyclic factor

 $S_t$  = seasonal factor

 $I_t$  = random factor

## Example:

- 1. The long-term trend for a specific product is +1.02
- 2. The cyclic factor at time *t* is 1.03
- 3. The seasonal factor at time *t* is 0.96
- 4. We cannot state the random factor

$$\hat{y}_t = T_t C_t S_t = 1.02 \cdot 1.03 \cdot 0.96$$
$$= 1.0086$$

- This predicts a slight increase (~ 1%) for period t
- If the actual increase was 1.0125, then  $I_t = 1.0125 / 1.0086$ = 1.0039

We can also take away the effect of the long-term data

This is termed a *detrended series* 

Recall that  $y_t = 1.0125$  and that the trend factor was  $T_t = 1.02$ 

$$\frac{y_t}{T_t} = \frac{T_t C_t S_t I_t}{T_t} = \frac{1.0125}{1.02} = 0.9927$$

 Thus, without the long-term trend, we would have shipped less units this period

#### The Additive Model

$$y_t = T_t + C_t + S_t + I_t$$

 $T_t$  = trend factor

 $C_t$  = cyclic factor

 $S_t$  = seasonal factor

 $I_t$  = random factor

#### The Additive Model

Say, we know that overtime, we ship 50 additional units per period, and in this business cycle we are shipping an additional 200 units

However, during this period, we typically ship 175 fewer units:

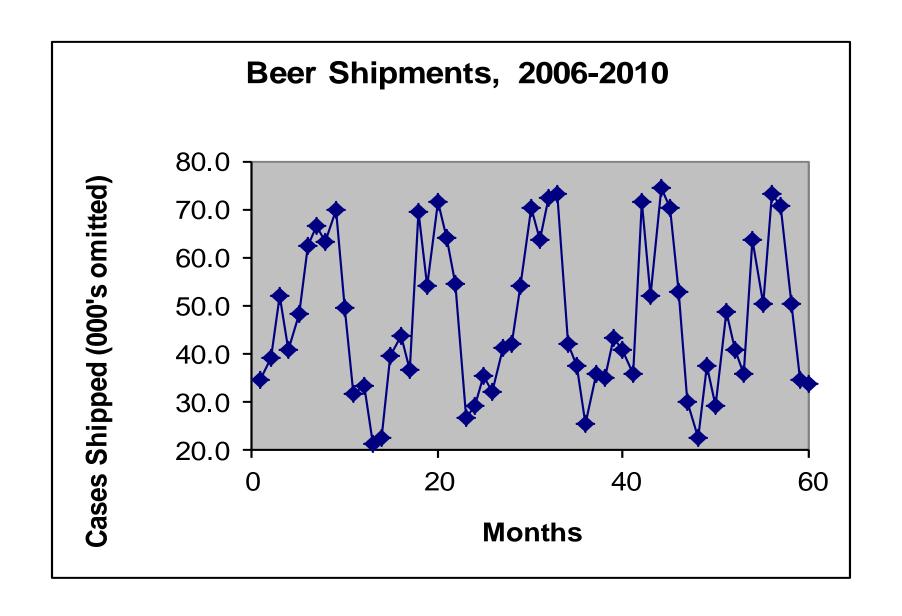
$$\hat{y}_t = T_t + C_t + S_t$$

$$= 50 + 200 - 175 = 75$$

#### The Additive Model

Thus, we could forecast shipping an additional 75 units this period If we actually shipped 91 additional units

Then, 
$$I_t = (91 - 75) = 16$$



	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
2006	34.6	39.3	52.4	40.7	48.5	62.7	66.8	63.5	70.3	49.9	31.8	33.3
2007	21.3	22.6	39.5	43.9	36.7	69.7	54.2	71.8	64.4	54.7	26.7	29.1
2008	35.6	32.2	41.4	42.2	54.3	70.5	63.9	72.6	73.6	42.3	37.5	25.3
2009	35.9	35.2	43.6	41.0	35.8	71.8	52.0	74.7	70.6	53.0	29.9	22.5
2010	37.4	29.1	48.9	40.9	36.1	64.0	50.4	73.4	71.1	50.4	34.8	33.8
Mean:	33.0	31.7	45.1	41.8	42.3	67.7	57.5	71.2	70.0	50.1	32.1	28.8
									C	Overall Mean:		

For January, the average is 33.0 versus an overall mean of 47.6. The seasonal adjustment is thus:

$$S_{Jan} = \frac{\overline{X}}{\overline{X}_{Jan}} = \frac{47.6}{33.0} = 1.442$$

 As a result, we will multiple actual January sales by 1.442 to adjust for the fact that January is a low sales month

July, however, is a usually high sales month
As a result, its seasonal adjustment will bring its value down:

$$S_{Jul} = \frac{\overline{X}}{\overline{X}_{Jul}} = \frac{47.6}{57.5} = 0.828$$

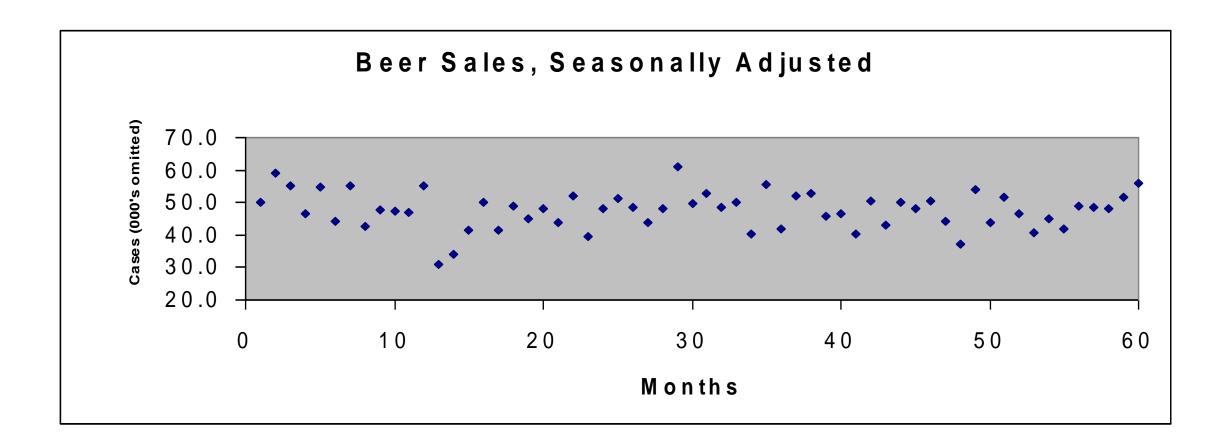
 As a result, to "seasonally adjust", we multiple each July value by 0.828

In the table below, the seasonal adjustment factors are applied to all the original values

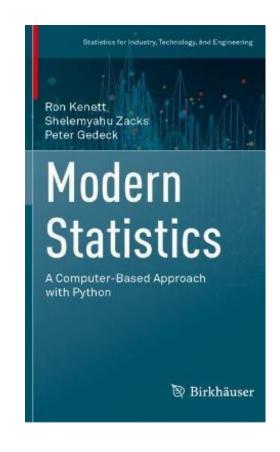
They are "deseasonalized":

	January	February	March	April	Мау	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
2006	50.0	59.0	55.2	46.4	54.6	44.1	55.3	42.5	47.8	47.4	47.1	55.1
2007	30.8	34.0	41.6	50.0	41.4	49.0	44.9	48.0	43.8	52.0	39.5	48.1
2008	51.3	48.4	43.7	48.1	61.1	49.5	52.9	48.5	50.0	40.2	55.5	41.8
2009	51.9	52.9	45.9	46.7	40.3	50.4	43.1	49.9	48.0	50.4	44.3	37.2
2010	54.0	43.7	51.5	46.7	40.6	45.0	41.8	49.1	48.4	47.9	51.5	55.8

## Seasonality Adjusted Series



# Chapter 6 Time Series Analysis and Prediction



Preview In this chapter, we present essential parts of time series analysis, with the objective of predicting or forecasting its future development. Predicting future behavior is generally more successful for stationary series, which do not change their stochastic characteristics as time proceeds. We develop and illustrate time series which are of both types, namely, covariance stationary and non-stationary.

#### Chapter 6

Modern Statistics: A Computer Based Approach with Python by Ron Kenett, Shelemyahu Zacks, Peter Gedeck

Publisher: Springer International Publishing; 1st edition (September 15, 2022) ISBN-13: 978-3031075650

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The code needs to be executed in sequence.

#### Time Series Analysis and Prediction

Ron Kenett, Shelemyahu Zacks, Peter Gedeck Pages 329-360

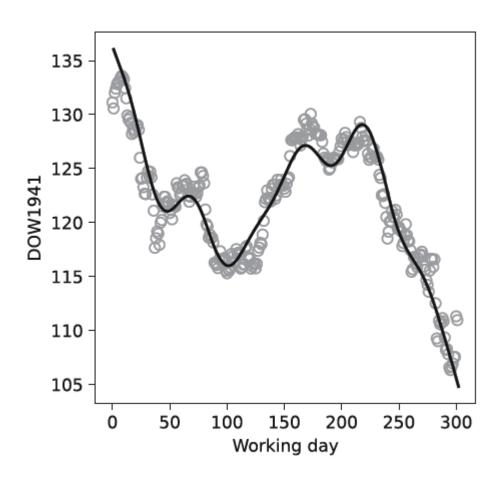
```
In [1]: import os
    os.environ['OUTDATED_IGNORE'] = '1'
    import warnings
    from outdated import OutdatedPackageWarning
    warnings.filterwarnings('ignore', category=FutureWarning)
    warnings.filterwarnings('ignore', category=OutdatedPackageWarning)
```

#### **Time Series Analysis and Prediction**

```
In [2]: import datetime
   import statsmodels.formula.api as smf
   from statsmodels.tools.sm_exceptions import ValueWarning
   import pandas as pd

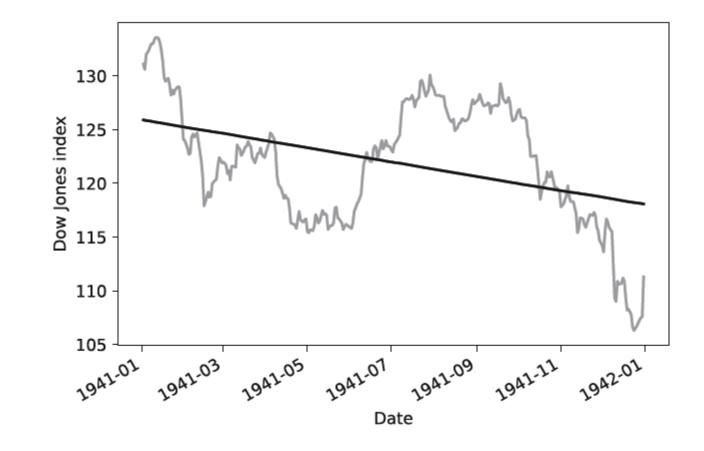
import random
   import numpy as np
   import pingouin as pg
   from scipy import stats
   import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
   import mistat
```

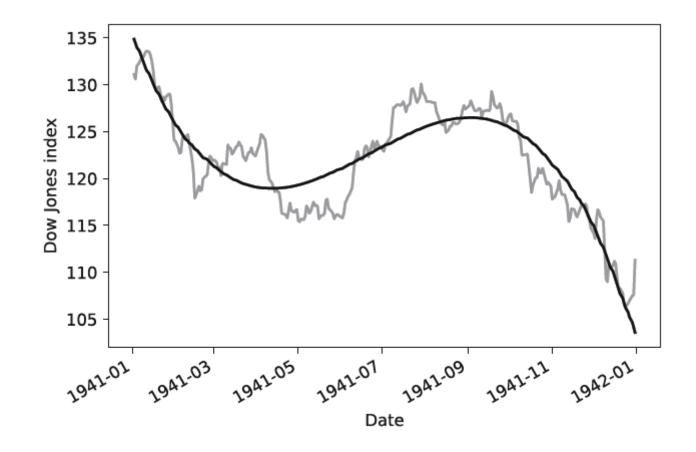
## The Components of a Time Series

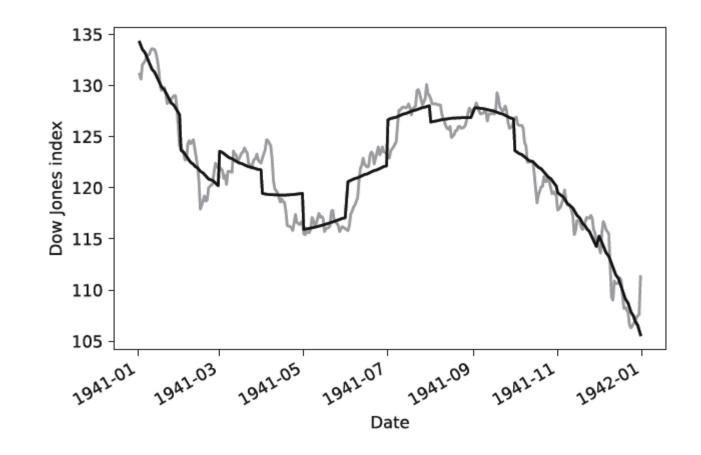


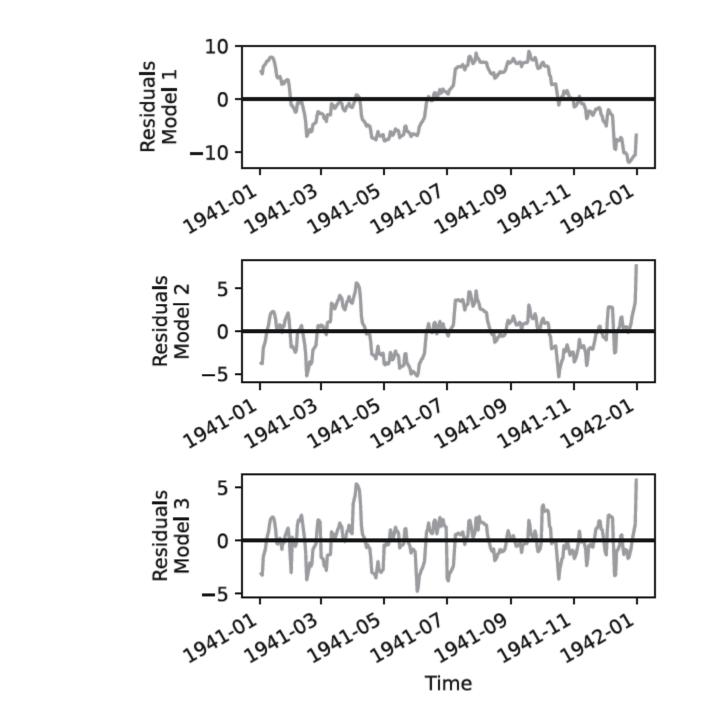
$$\begin{aligned} (t) = &123.34 + 27.73 \frac{t - 151}{302} - 15.83 \left(\frac{t - 151}{302}\right)^2 - 237.00 \left(\frac{t - 151}{302}\right)^3 \\ &+ 0.1512 \cos \frac{4\pi t}{302} + 1.738 \sin \frac{4\pi t}{302} + 1.770 \cos \frac{8\pi t}{302} - 0.208 \sin \frac{8\pi t}{302} \\ &- 0.729 \cos \frac{12\pi t}{302} + 0.748 \sin \frac{12\pi t}{302}. \end{aligned}$$

```
dow1941 = mistat.load data('DOW1941')
t = np.arange(1, len(dow1941) + 1)
x = (t - 151) / 302
omega = 4 * np.pi * t / 302
ft = (123.34 + 27.73 * x - 15.83 * x ** 2 - 237.00 * x ** 3
    + 0.1512 * np.cos(omega) + 1.738 * np.sin(omega)
    + 1.770 * np.cos(2 * omega) - 0.208 * np.sin(2 * omega)
    - 0.729 * np.cos(3 * omega) + 0.748 * np.sin(3 * omega))
fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=[4, 4])
ax.scatter(dow1941.index, dow1941, facecolors='none', edgecolors='grey')
ax.plot(t, ft, color='black')
ax.set xlabel('Working day')
                                              f(t) = 123.34 + 27.73 \frac{t - 151}{302} - 15.83 \left(\frac{t - 151}{302}\right)^2 - 237.00 \left(\frac{t - 151}{302}\right)^3
ax.set ylabel('DOW1941')
plt.show()
                                                       +0.1512\cos\frac{4\pi t}{302}+1.738\sin\frac{4\pi t}{302}+1.770\cos\frac{8\pi t}{302}-0.208\sin\frac{8\pi t}{302}
                                                       -0.729\cos\frac{12\pi t}{302} + 0.748\sin\frac{12\pi t}{302}.
```

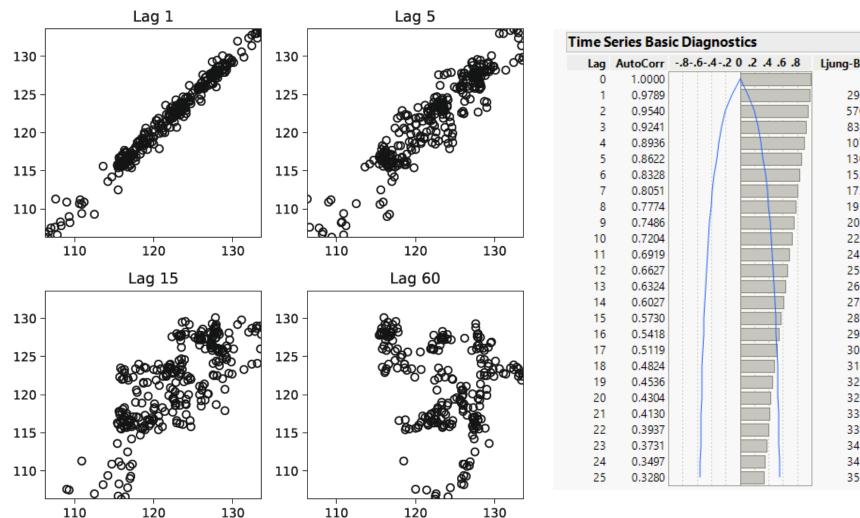


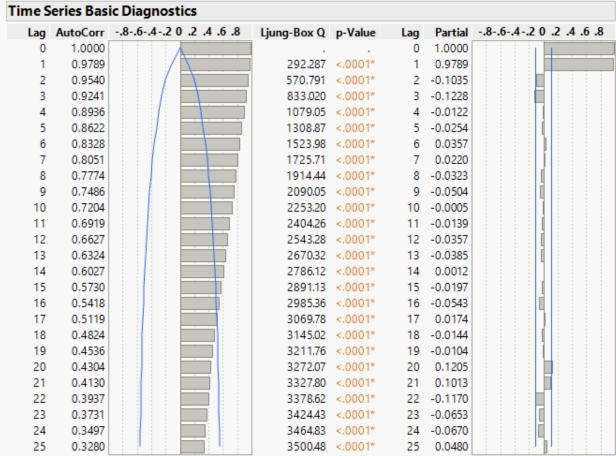




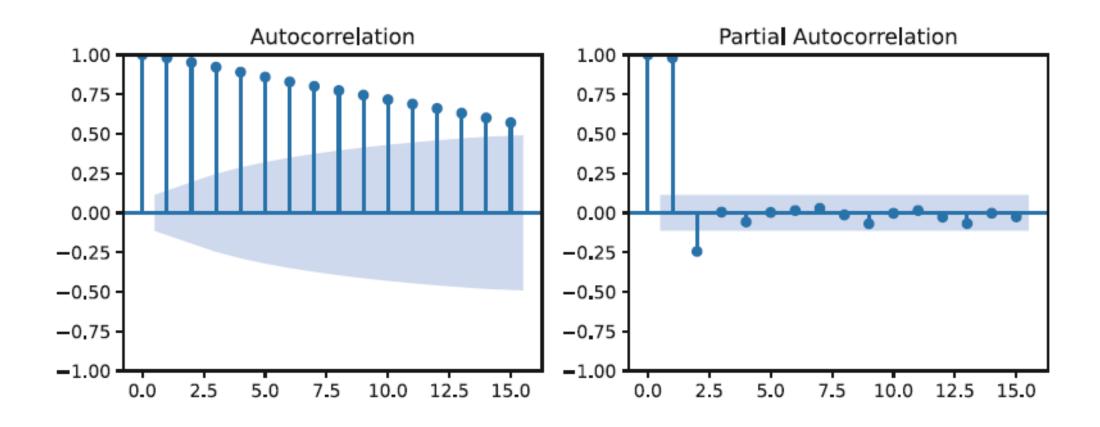


#### Autocorrelations

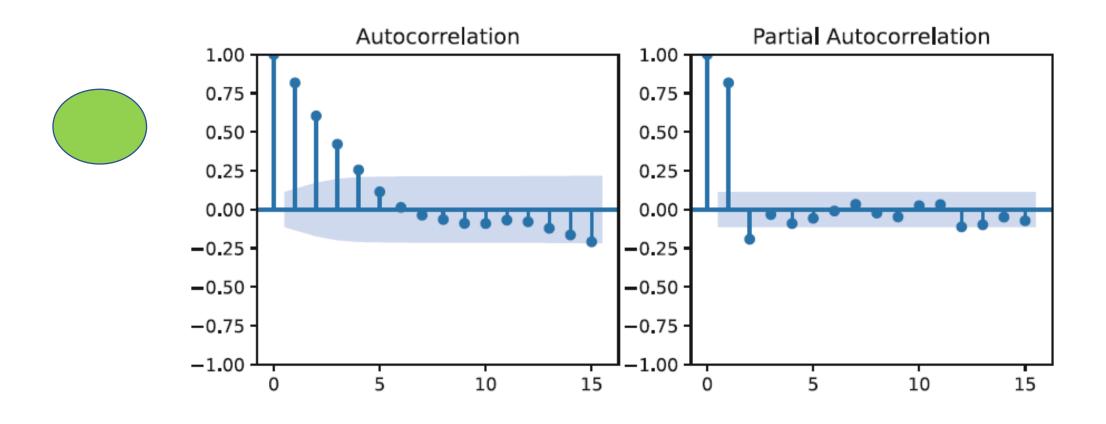




#### Autocorrelations and Partial Autocorrelations



#### Autocorrelations and Partial Autocorrelations



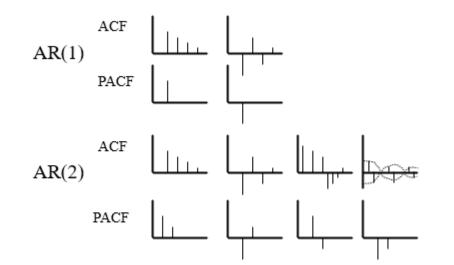
#### ARIMA Models

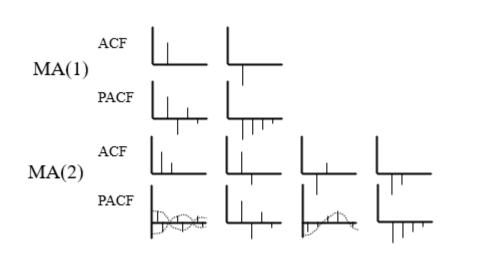
1. Auto Regressive (AR)



2. Moving Average (MA)

#### 3. Auto Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA)





# First-Order Autoregressive Processes, AR(1):

$$y_t = \delta + \theta_1 y_{t-1} + e_t$$
,  $t = 1, 2, ..., T$ .

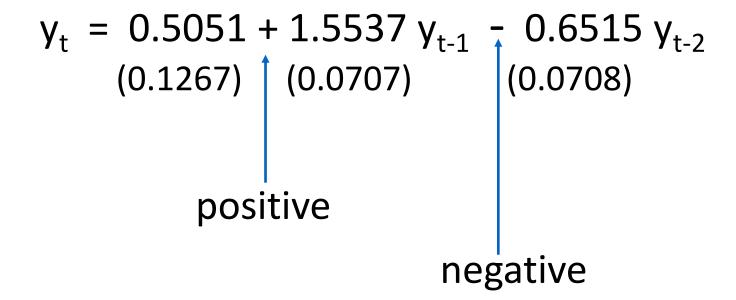
- $\delta$  is the intercept.
- $\theta_1$  is parameter generally between -1 and +1.
- $e_t$  is an uncorrelated random error with mean zero and variance  $\sigma_e^2$ .

# Autoregressive Process of order p, AR(p):

$$y_t = \delta + \theta_1 y_{t-1} + \theta_2 y_{t-2} + ... + \theta_p y_{t-p} + e_t$$

- $\delta$  is the intercept.
- $\theta_i$ 's are parameters generally between -1 and +1.
- $e_t$  is an uncorrelated random error with mean zero and variance  $\sigma_e^2$ .

# AR(2) model of U.S. unemployment rates



# Using AR Model for Forecasting:

unemployment rate:  $y_{T-1} = 6.63$  and  $y_T = 6.20$ 

$$y_{T+1} = \delta + \theta_1 y_T + \theta_2 y_{T-1} = 0.5051 + (1.5537)(6.2) - (0.6515)(6.63)$$

$$= 5.8186$$

$$y_{T+2} = \delta + \theta_1 y_{T+1} + \theta_2 y_T = 0.5051 + (1.5537)(5.8186) - (0.6515)(6.2)$$
  
= 5.5062

$$y_{T+1} = \delta + \theta_1 y_T + \theta_2 y_{T-1} = 0.5051 + (1.5537)(5.5062) - (0.6515)(5.8186)$$
  
= 5.2693

# Choosing the lag length, p, for AR(p):

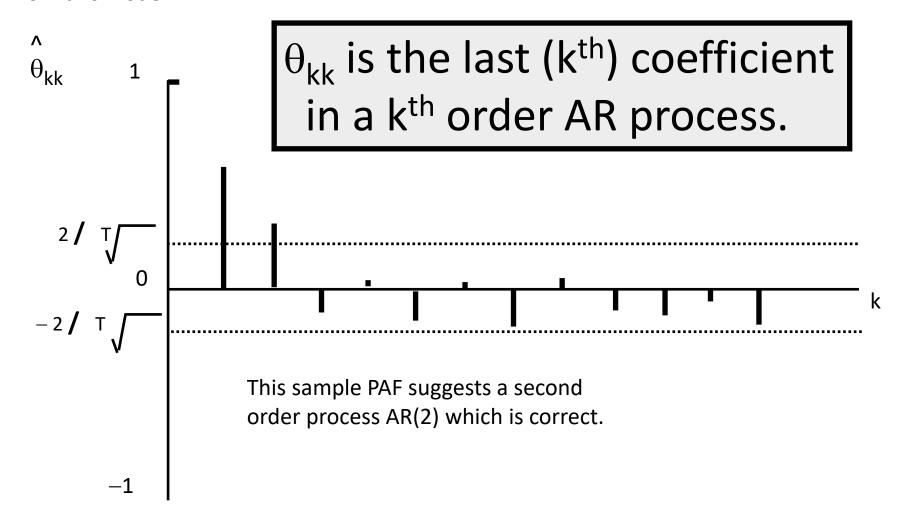
The Partial Autocorrelation Function (PAF)

The PAF is the sequence of correlations between  $(y_t \text{ and } y_{t-1})$ ,  $(y_t \text{ and } y_{t-2})$ ,  $(y_t \text{ and } y_{t-3})$ , and so on, given that the effects of earlier lags on  $y_t$  are held constant.

#### Partial Autocorrelation Function

Data simulated from this model:

$$y_t = 0.5 y_{t-1} + 0.3 y_{t-2} + e_t$$



# Moving Average Process of order q, MA(q):

$$y_t = \mu + e_t + \alpha_1 e_{t-1} + \alpha_2 e_{t-2} + ... + \alpha_q e_{t-q}$$

 $\mu$  is the intercept.

 $\alpha_{i}$ 's are unknown parameters.

 $e_t$  is an uncorrelated random error with mean zero and variance  $\sigma_e^2$ .

# An MA(1) process:

$$y_t = \mu + e_t + \alpha_1 e_{t-1}$$

Minimize sum of least squares deviations:

$$S(\mu,\alpha_1) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} e_t^2 = \sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_t - \mu - \alpha_1 e_{t-1})^2$$

# Choosing the lag length, q, for MA(q):

The Autocorrelation Function (AF)

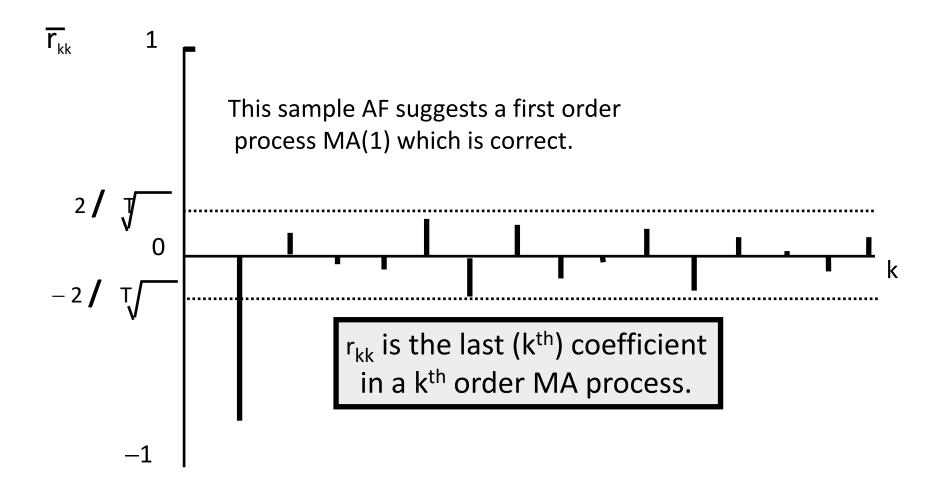
The AF is the sequence of correlations between  $(y_t \text{ and } y_{t-1})$ ,  $(y_t \text{ and } y_{t-2})$ ,  $(y_t \text{ and } y_{t-3})$ , and so on, without holding the effects of earlier lags on  $y_t$  constant.

The PAF controlled for the effects of previous lags but the AF does not control for such effects.

### **Autocorrelation Function**

Data simulated from this model:

$$y_{t} = e_{t} - 0.9 e_{t-1}$$



# Autoregressive Moving Average ARMA(p,q)

An ARMA(1,2) has one autoregressive lag and two moving average lags:

$$y_t = \delta + \theta_1 y_{t-1} + e_t + \alpha_1 e_{t-1} + \alpha_2 e_{t-2}$$

#### Goodness of fit criteria

- Akaike's Information Criterion [AIC]
- Schwartz's Bayesian Criterion [BIC]
- -2LogLikelihood

The smaller the better....

### Stationary vs. Nonstationary

### **Stationary**:

A stationary time series is one whose mean, variance, and autocorrelation function do not change over time.

### Nonstationary:

A nonstationary time series is one whose mean, variance or autocorrelation function change over time.

First Differencing is often used to transform a nonstationary series into a stationary series:

$$y_t = z_t - z_{t-1}$$

where  $\mathbf{Z}_t$  is the original nonstationary series and  $\mathbf{y}_t$  is the new stationary series.

Auto Regressive Integrated Moving Average, ARIMA(p,d,q)

An ARIMA(p,d,q) model represents an AR(p) - MA(q) process that has been differenced (integrated, I(d)) d times

$$y_t = \delta + \theta_1 y_{t-1} + ... + \theta_p y_{t-p} + e_t + \alpha_1 e_{t-1} + ... + \alpha_q e_{t-q}$$

### The Box-Jenkins approach:

- Identification determining the values of p, d, and q
- 2. Estimation linear or nonlinear least squares
- 3. Diagnostic Checking model fits well with no autocorrelation?
- 4. Forecasting short-term forecasts of future y, values

A Case Study: Series F

The series consists of 70 observations on the yield of a batch chemical process.



# A Case Study: Series F

First we plot the series to check for trend, periodicity, etc. which will need the application of differencing.

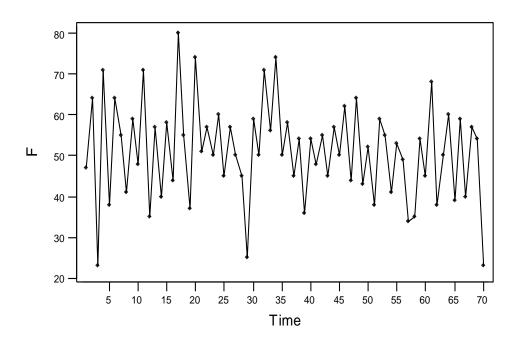
We inspect the correlogram and partial correlogram to help in identifying an ARMA model for the stationary series we obtain.

The Autocorrelation Function (AF)

The Partial Autocorrelation Function (PAF)

#### Time Plot of Series F

Time Series Plot for F



No obvious non-stationarity in the form of trend or periodic effects.

No apparent need to difference the series.

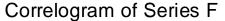
#### Model Identification.

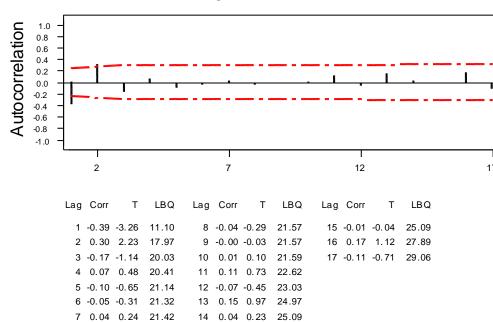
- The theoretical acf of a MA(q) series shows a cutoff after lag q.
- The acf of an AR(p) series theoretically shows a geometric decline after lag p.
- The pacf of an AR(p) series theoretically shows a cutoff at lag p.

#### More Identification.

- Often several models look plausible .
- We can try to identify the order of an AR process by fitting several models of orders in the region of p which we think is plausible. Plotting the residual sum of squares against p may show a "flattening" for values beyond the "true" order.

# Sample ACF of Series F



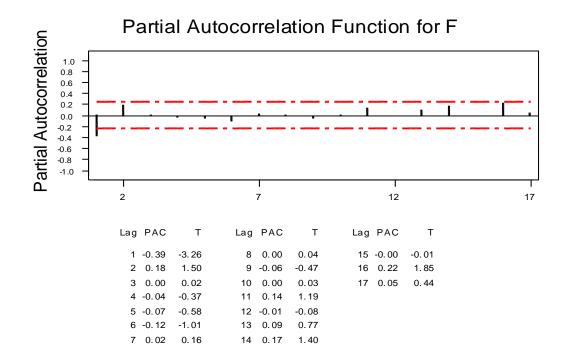


Let's look at a correlogram of the series.

The only large values are at lags 1 and 2.

Maybe AR(2) or AR(1)?

# Partial Correlogram



The partial correlogram also only has appreciable values at lags 1 and 2.

Try an AR(2) model.

i.e. 
$$p=2$$
,  $d=0$ ,  $q=0$ 

# Fitting an AR(2) model

#### Final Estimates of Parameters

Type	Coef	StDev	Т
AR 1	-0.3461	0.1259	-2.75
AR 2	0.1934	0.1259	1.54
Constant	59.047	1.298	45.50
Mean	51.227	1.126	

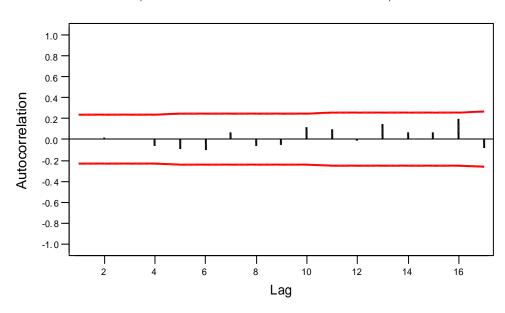
# Model Checking

- Examine various aspects of the residuals to evaluate the adequacy of our chosen model.
- Use the acf and pacf to look for any remaining times series structure in the residuals which we have not removed.
- Check for normality and constant variance.

## Correlogram of Residuals

#### ACF of Residuals for F

(with 95% confidence limits for the autocorrelations)

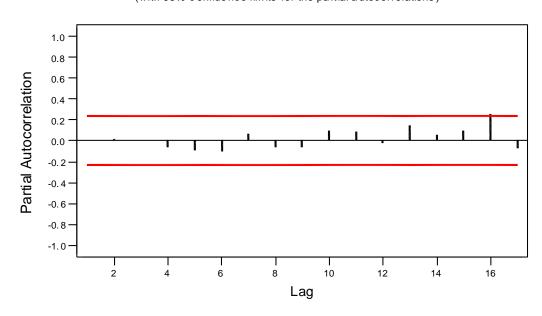


No obvious autocorrelation left after we have fitted our AR(2) model to the original series.

# Partial Correlogram of Residuals

PACF of Residuals for F

(with 95% confidence limits for the partial autocorrelations)

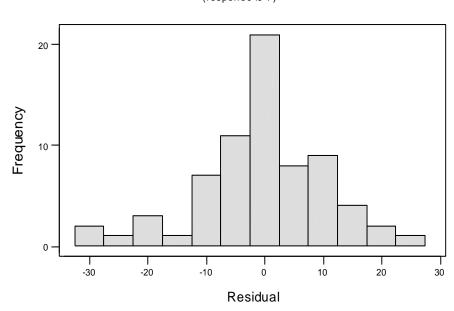


As we expect from the **correlogram**, there is no indication of residual partial autocorrelation.

### Histogram of Residuals

#### Histogram of the Residuals

(response is F)

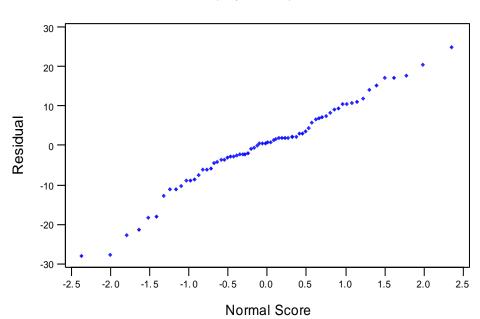


The residuals are symmetric about zero and die away fairly rapidly. A normal distribution with mean zero looks plausible.

# Normal Probability Plot



(response is F)



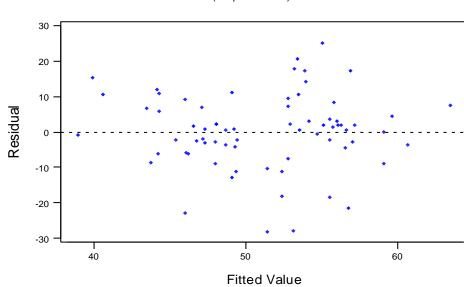
The graph should approximate a straight line if the residuals are normally distributed.

A normal distribution looks OK.

#### Residuals v. Fitted Values

#### Residuals Versus the Fitted Values

(response is F)

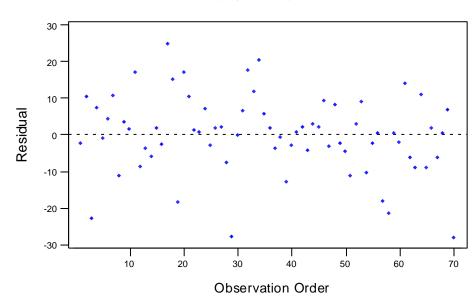


No obvious problems such as the variance depending on the size of the observation.

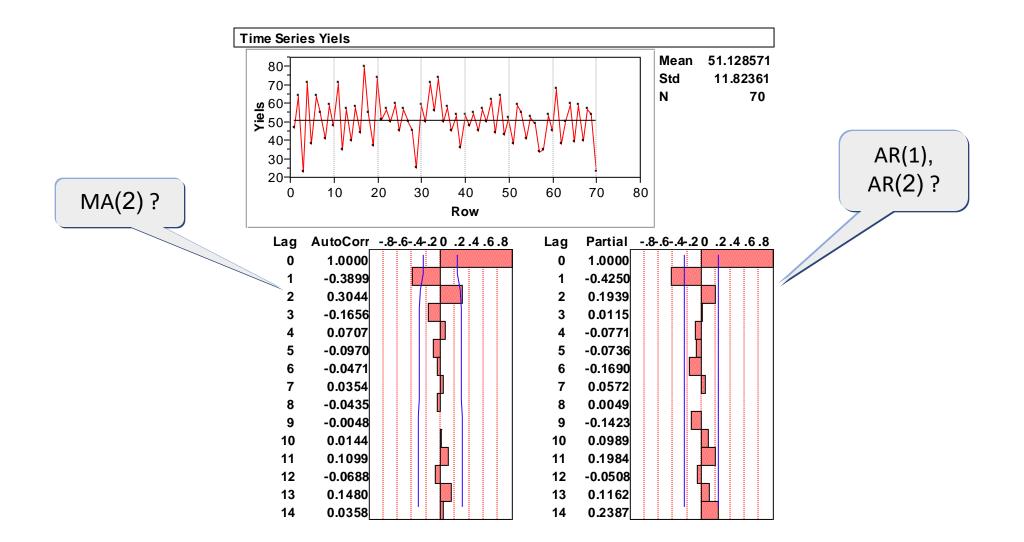
### Residuals in Time Order

#### Residuals Versus the Order of the Data

(response is F)



No obvious failures to model dependence of residuals over time.



#### **Time Series Yield**

Mean 51.128571 Std 11.82361 N 70

#### Model: AR(2) No Constrain

#### Model Summary

DF 67 Stable Yes Sum of Squared Errors 7890.13866 Invertible Yes

 Variance Estimate
 117.763264

 Standard Deviation
 10.8518783

 Akaike's 'A' Information Criterion
 339.807346

 Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion
 346.552832

 RSquare
 0.19331113

 RSquare Adj
 0.16886601

 -2LogLikelihood
 331.005918

#### **Parameter Estimates**

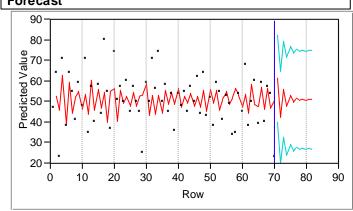
 Term
 Lag
 Estimate
 Std Error
 t Ratio
 Prob>|\$\text{Constant Estimate}\$
 59.0828904

 AR1
 1
 -0.3407072
 0.1217622
 -2.80
 0.0067

 AR2
 2
 0.1873369
 0.1223016
 1.53
 0.1303

 Intercept
 0
 51.2262958
 1.100755
 46.54
 <.0001</td>

#### **Forecast**



# **AR (2)**

#### **Time Series Yield**

Mean 51.128571 Std 11.82361 70

#### Model: AR(1) No Constrain

#### Model Summary

DF 68 Stable Yes Sum of Squared Errors 8162.10344 Invertible Yes

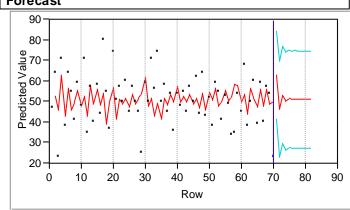
Variance Estimate 120.030933 10.9558629 Standard Deviation Akaike's 'A' Information Criterion 339.142464 Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion 343.639454 RSquare 0.1659866 RSquare Adj 0.15353864 -2LogLikelihood 333.306469

#### **Parameter Estimates**

Std Error t Ratio Prob>|t|Constant Estimate 72.7502314 Lag Estimate Term AR1 1 -0.4190788 0.1128024 -3.72 0.0004

0 51.2658165 0.9137256 56.11 <.0001 Intercept

#### **Forecast**



### **AR (1)**

### **Time Series Yield**

Mean 51.128571 Std 11.82361 70

DF

### Model: MA(2) No Constrain

### Model Summary

Sum of Squared Errors 730.00111 Invertible No Variance Estimate 10.895539 3.30083913 Standard Deviation Akaike's 'A' Information Criterion 173.184741 Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion 179.930226 RSquare 0.1794338 RSquare Adj 0.15456816

### **Parameter Estimates**

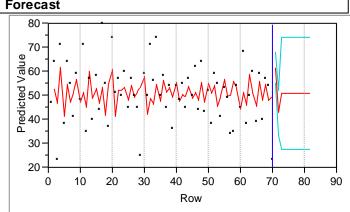
-2LogLikelihood

Std Error t Ratio Prob>|t|Constant Estimate 51.1694704 Term Lag Estimate MA1 1.0581298 0.553345 1.91 0.0601 MA2 2 -3.3125935 1.3512071 -2.45 0.0168 40.88 <.0001 Intercept 0 51.1694704 1.2515956

332.054151

67 Stable Yes

### **Forecast**



# **MA (2)**

### **Time Series Yield**

Mean 51.128571 Std 11.82361 N 70

### Model: ARMA(1, 1) No Constrain

### Model Summary

DF 67 Stable Yes Sum of Squared Errors 7946.82957 Invertible Yes

 Variance Estimate
 118.609397

 Standard Deviation
 10.8907941

 Akaike's 'A' Information Criterion
 340.3085

 Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion
 347.053986

 RSquare
 0.18760671

 RSquare Adj
 0.16298873

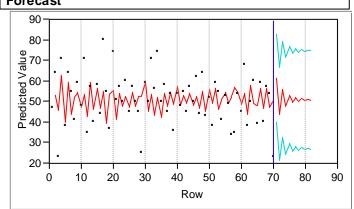
 -2LogLikelihood
 331.486205

### **Parameter Estimates**

Term Lag Estimate Std Error t Ratio Prob>|\$\daggerightarrow{\text{Constant Estimate}}\$ 86.3925517

AR1 1 -0.6856451 0.1731017 -3.96 0.0002 MA1 1 -0.3236699 0.2175862 -1.49 0.1416 Intercept 0 51.2519228 1.002723 51.11 <.0001

#### **Forecast**



# **ARMA (1,1)**

# Which Model?

### **Time Series Yield**

Mean 51.128571

Std 11.82361

N 70

## **Model Comparison**

Model	DF	Variance	AIC	SBC	RSquare	-2LogLH
MA(2) No Constrain	67	10.895539	173.18474	179.93023	0.179	332.05415
AR(1) No Constrain	68	120.03093	339.14246	343.63945	0.166	333.30647
AR(2) No Constrain	67	117.76326	339.80735	346.55283	0.193	331.00592
ARMA(1,1) No Constrain	67	118.6094	340.3085	347.05399	0.188	331.48621

#### Time Series Yield

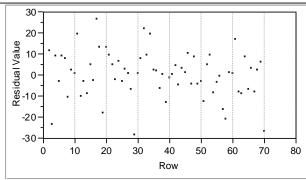
Mean 51.128571 11.82361 70

### Model: MA(2) No Constrain

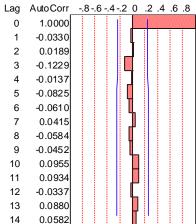
#### Parameter Estimates

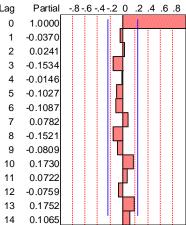
Estimate Std Error t Ratio Prob>|t|Constant Estimate 51.1694704 Term 0.553345 1.91 0.0601 MA1 1 1.0581298 2 -3.3125935 1.3512071 -2.45 0.0168 40.88 < .0001

### Intercept Residuals



0 51.1694704 1.2515956





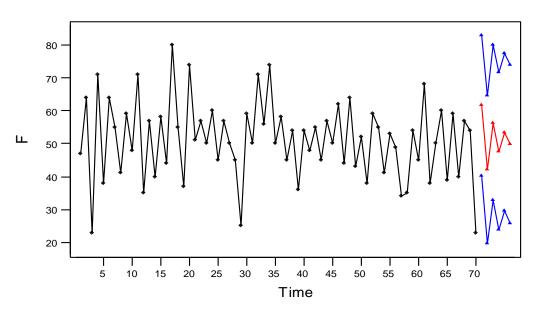
# MA(2)

$$y_t = 51.17 + 1.06e_{t-1} - 3.31e_{t-2}$$

# Forecasting 6 periods ahead

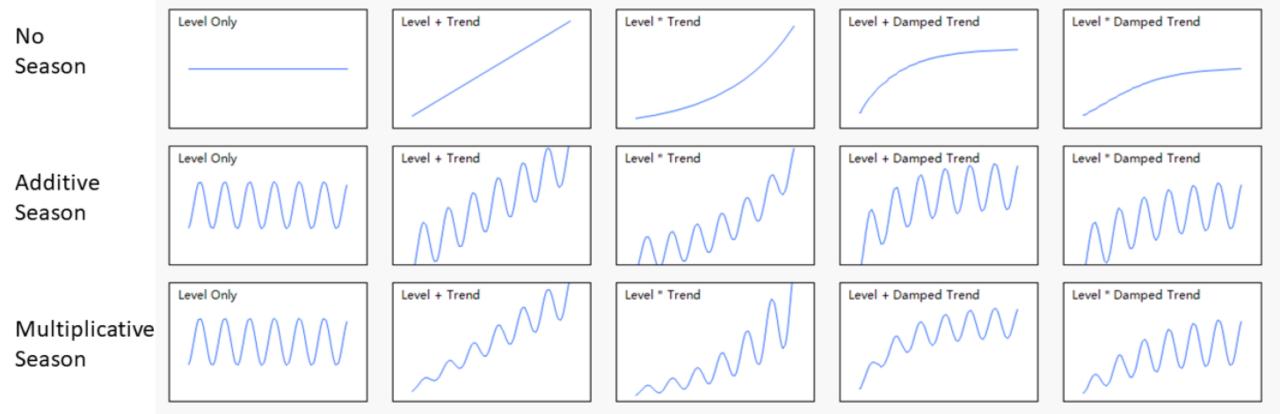
### Time Series Plot for F

(with forecasts and their 95% confidence limits)



Opposite is a time series plot with forecasts up to 6 periods ahead added.

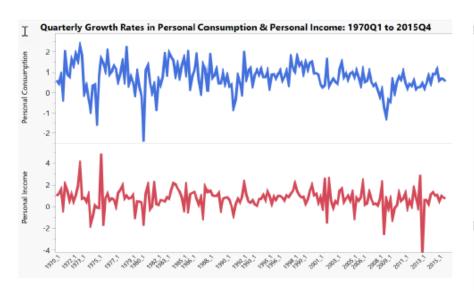
You can see that the interval estimates in blue are quite wide.

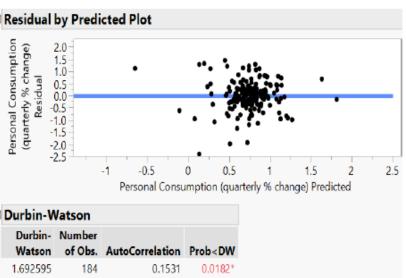


# Transfer Functions

 $y_t$ : Quarterly US Personal Consumption Growth Rate

 $x_t$ : Quarterly US Personal Income Growth Rate

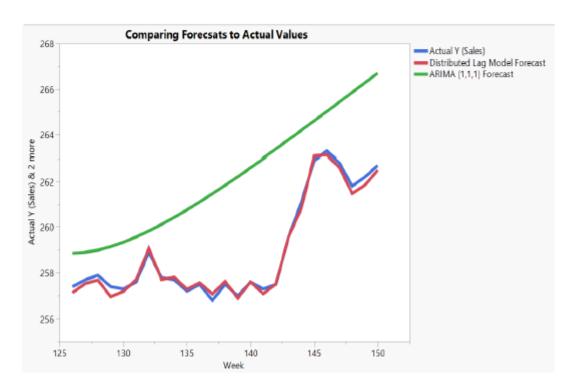




- "Can I just run a standard least squares regression model to predict y(t)?" ( $\widehat{y_t} = 0.55 + 0.28 * x_t$ )
  - --Key assumption that the regression errors are independent is likely violated => Misleading inferences.

# Transfer Functions

--A pure ARIMA model uses the past values of an variable to predict its future values. If there is a good predictor bring it in.



Blue line: Actual Sales

Green Line: Forecast from Pure

**ARIMA** 

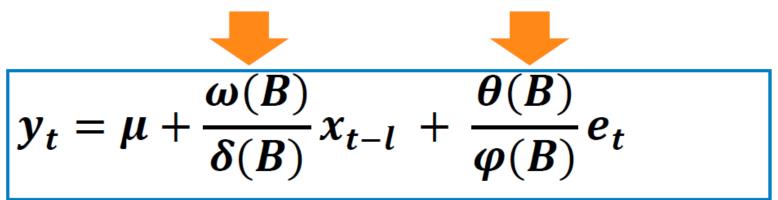
Red Line: Forecast from Transfer

**Function Model** 

# Transfer Functions

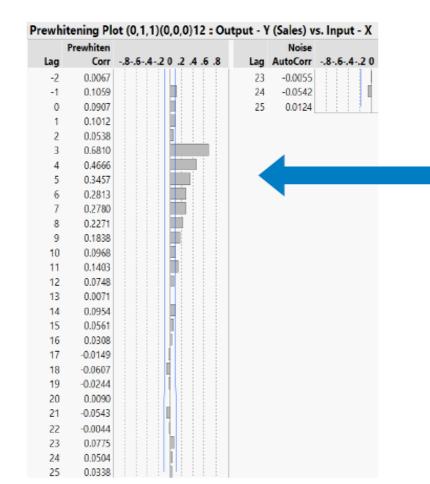
$$y_t = \mu + x_t oldsymbol{eta} + e_t$$
 (OLS) 
$$y_t = \mu + rac{ heta(B)}{ heta(B)} e_t$$
 (Pure ARIMA)

Transfer Function ARIMA Error Term



# Prewhitening

Identifying when the input effect takes place, how long it lasts and in what shape it decays.



# Ex2: Forecasting Sales using Lagged Predictors

Input series  $x_t$  is delayed by 3 lags and then exponentially decreasing:

$$\omega_0(x_{t-3} + \delta x_{t-4} + \delta^2 x_{t-5} + \delta^3 x_{t-6} + \delta^4 x_{t-7} + \cdots)$$

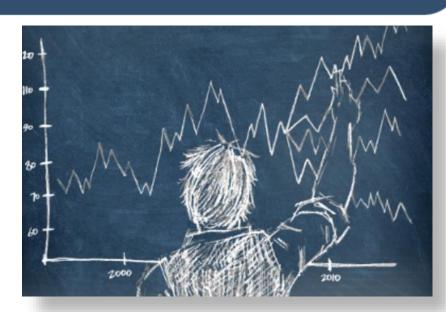
try the transfer function  $\frac{\omega_0}{1-\delta B}x_{t-3}$  to approximate the input-output relationships

# Forecasting: Principles and Practice (2nd ed)

Rob J Hyndman and George Athanasopoulos

Monash University, Australia

https://otexts.com/fpp2/







# Functional data analysis and nonlinear regression models: an information quality perspective

Ron S. Kenett<sup>a</sup> (D) and Chris Gotwalt<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>The KPA Group and the Samuel Neaman Institute, Technion, Israel; <sup>b</sup>JMP Statistical Discovery, LLC, Research Triangle, North Carolina, USA

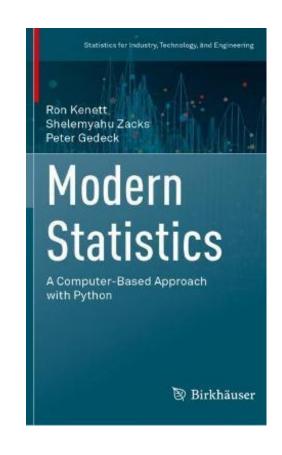
### **ABSTRACT**

Data from measurements over time can be analyzed in different ways. In this article, we compare functional data analysis and nonlinear regression models using, among others, eight information quality dimensions. We present two case studies. The first case study introduces functional data analysis and nonlinear regression models in analyzing dissolution profiles of drug tablets where profiles of tablets under test are compared to reference tablets. A second case study involves statistically designed mixture experiments used in optimization tablet formulation. Python and JMP features are used to demonstrate the methods used in the two case studies.

### **KEYWORDS**

dissolution curve; functional data analysis; information quality; mixture experiments; nonlinear regression

# Chapter 8 Modern Analytic Methods: Part II

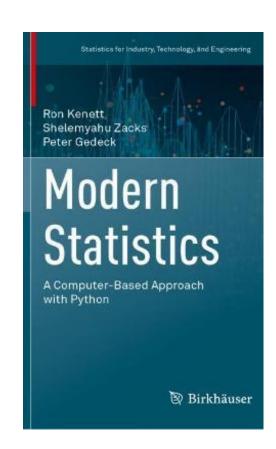


**Preview** Chapter 8 includes the tip of the iceberg examples with what we thought were interesting insights, not always available in standard texts. The chapter covers functional data analysis, text analytics, reinforcement learning, Bayesian networks, and causality models.

# Chapter 8 Modern Analytic Methods: Part II

### 8.1 Functional Data Analysis

When you collect data from tests or measurements over time or other dimensions, we might want to focus on the functional structure of the data. Examples can be chromatograms from high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) systems, dissolution profiles of drug tablets over time, distribution of particle sizes, or measurement of sensors. Functional data is different using individual measurements recorded at different sets of time points. It views functional observations as continuously defined so that an observation is the entire function. With functional data consisting of a set of curves representing repeated measurements, we characterize the main features of the data, for example, with a functional version of principal component analysis (FPCA). The regular version of principal component analysis (PCA) is presented in detail in Chap. 4 (Industrial Statistics book) on Multivariate Statistical Process Control. With this background, let us see an example of functional data analysis (FDA).



### Chapter 8

Modern Statistics: A Computer Based Approach with Python by Ron Kenett, Shelemyahu Zacks, Peter Gedeck

Publisher: Springer International Publishing; 1st edition (September 15, 2022)

ISBN-13: 978-3031075650

(c) 2022 Ron Kenett, Shelemyahu Zacks, Peter Gedeck

The code needs to be executed in sequence.

```
In [1]: import os
    os.environ['OUTDATED_IGNORE'] = '1'
    import warnings
    from outdated import OutdatedPackageWarning
    warnings.filterwarnings('ignore', category=FutureWarning)
    warnings.filterwarnings('ignore', category=OutdatedPackageWarning)
```

## Modern analytic methods: Part II

```
In [2]: import networkx as nx
import statsmodels.api as sm
from statsmodels.tsa.stattools import grangercausalitytests
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import seaborn as sns
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import mistat
```

## Modern Analytic Methods: Part II

Ron Kenett, Shelemyahu Zacks, Peter Gedeck Pages 395-419

# A Case Study



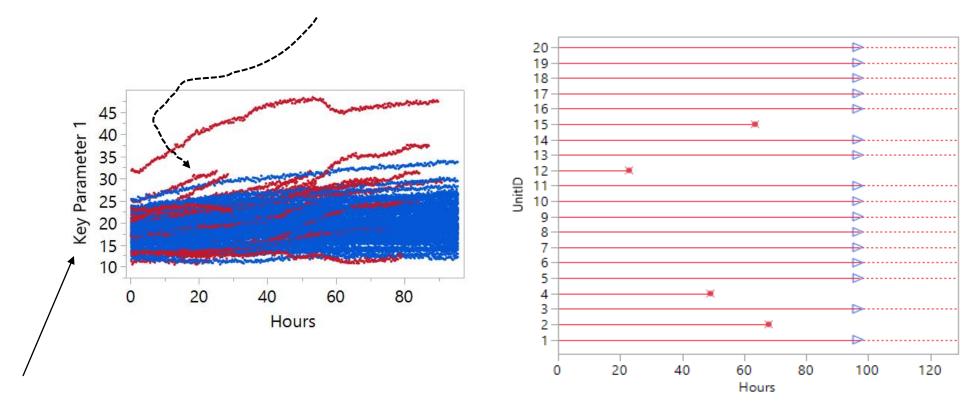
- A manufacturer of electro-mechanical devices
- 22% of units fail early

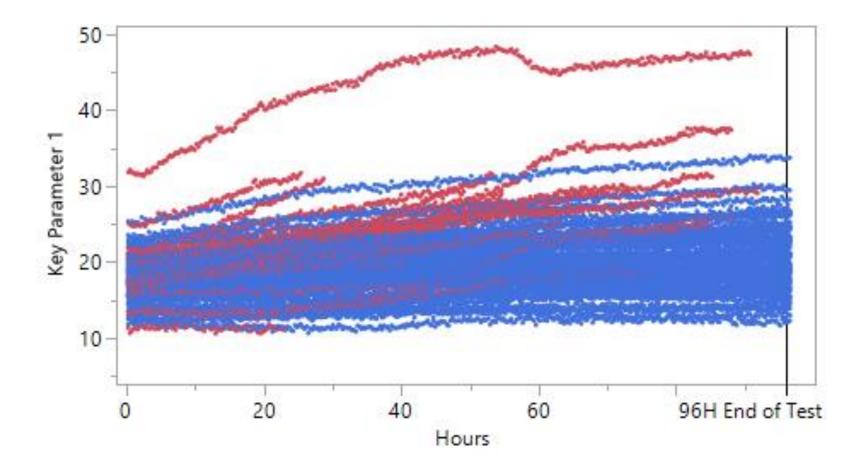


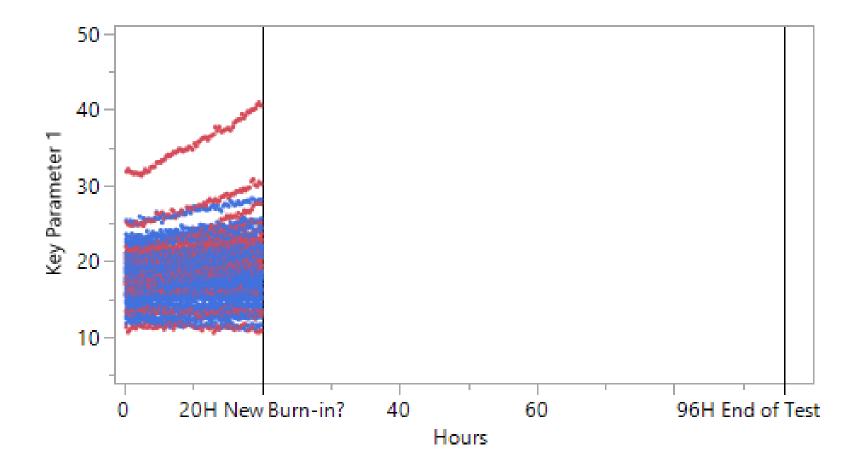
- The company screens units via burn-in under accelerated conditions
- 23 measurements are collected in real time (2 key parameters)
- Can we use these measurements to predict which units will fail in less time than the current protocol?

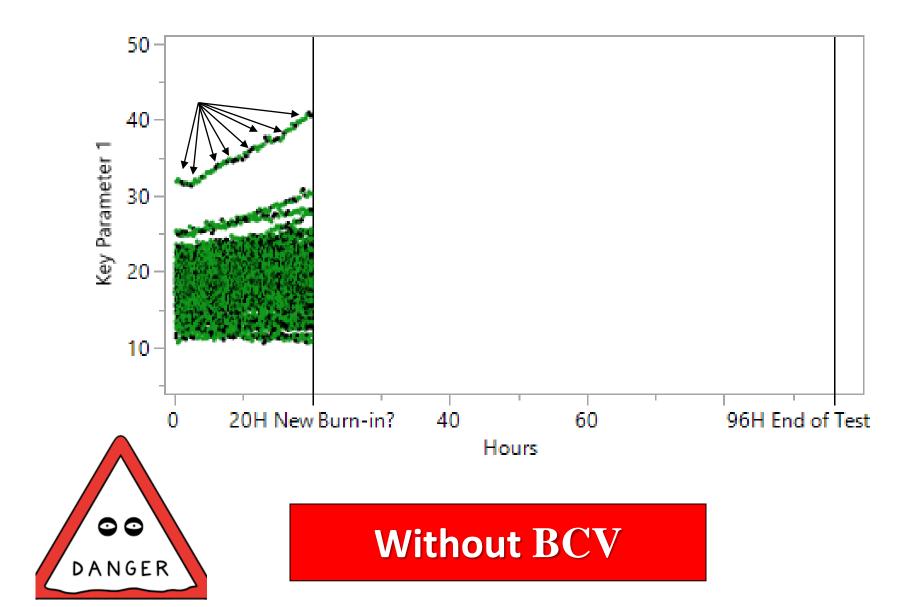
# Key parameter 1

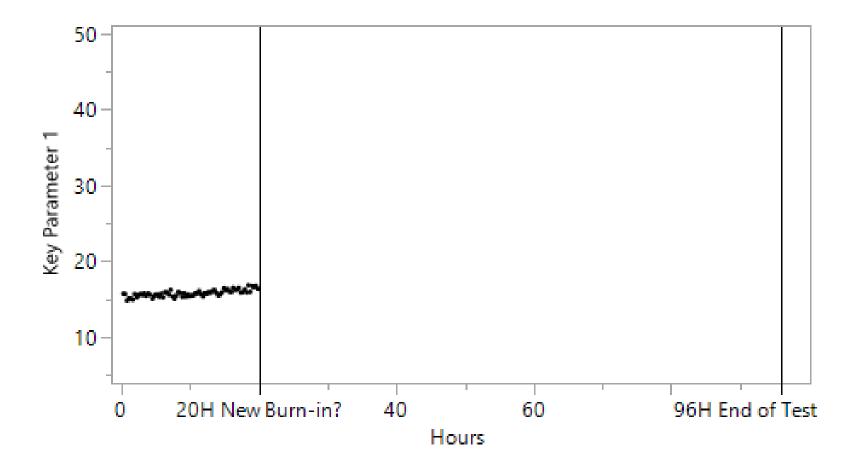
Data consists of 92 units. If a unit didn't fail, there would be around 25,000 measurements. Failed series can be much shorter

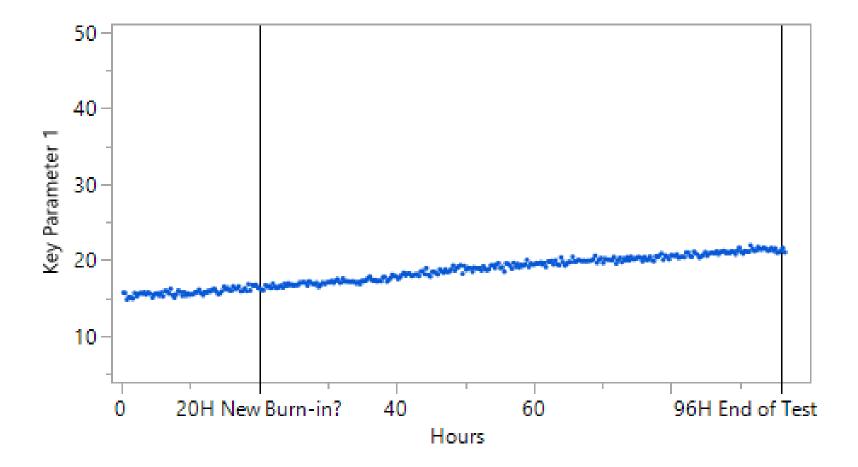


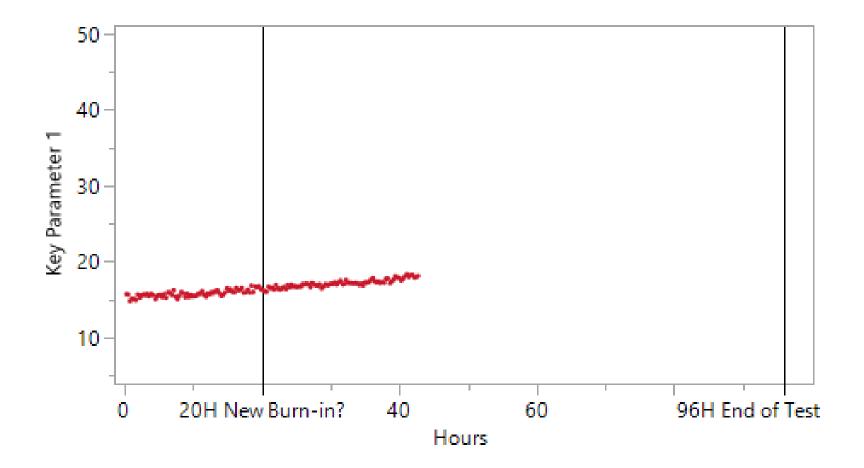




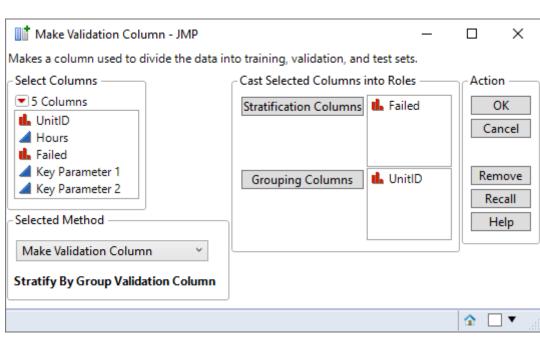




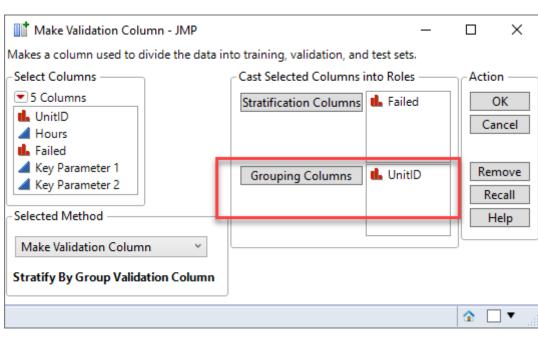


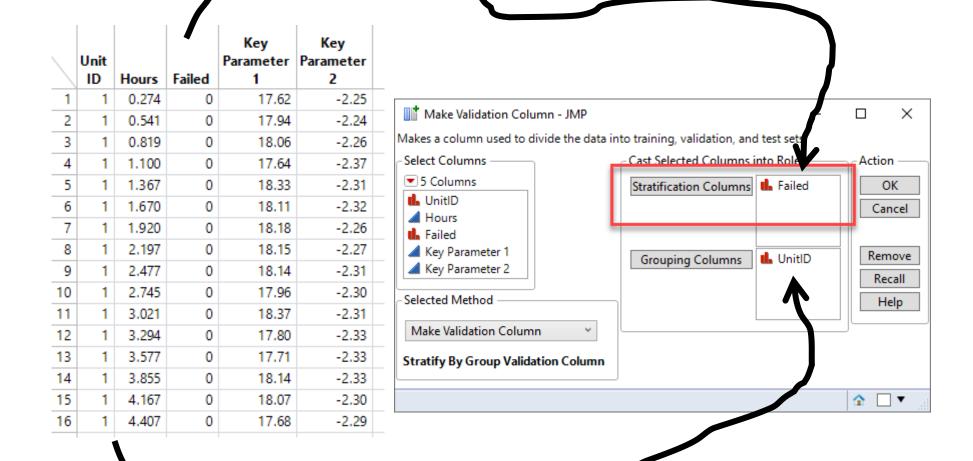


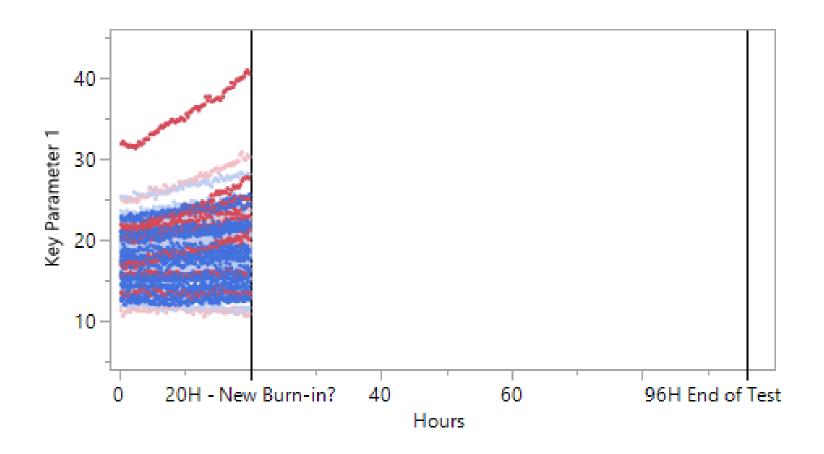
\	Unit ID	Hours	Failed	Key Parameter 1	Key Parameter 2
1	1	0.274	0	17.62	-2.25
2	1	0.541	0	17.94	-2.24
3	1	0.819	0	18.06	-2.26
4	1	1.100	0	17.64	-2.37
5	1	1.367	0	18.33	-2.31
6	1	1.670	0	18.11	-2.32
7	1	1.920	0	18.18	-2.26
8	1	2.197	0	18.15	-2.27
9	1	2.477	0	18.14	-2.31
10	1	2.745	0	17.96	-2.30
11	1	3.021	0	18.37	-2.31
12	1	3.294	0	17.80	-2.33
13	1	3.577	0	17.71	-2.33
14	1	3.855	0	18.14	-2.33
15	1	4.167	0	18.07	-2.30
16	1	4.407	0	17.68	-2.29



\	Unit ID	Hours	Failed	Key Parameter 1	Key Parameter 2
1	1	0.274	0	17.62	-2.25
2	1	0.541	0	17.94	-2.24
3	1	0.819	0	18.06	-2.26
4	1	1.100	0	17.64	-2.37
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7	1	1.920	0	18.18	-2.26
8	1	2.197	0	18.15	-2.27
9	1	2.477	0	18.14	-2.31
10	1	2.745	0	17.96	-2.30
11	1	3.021	0	18.37	-2.31
12	1	3.294	0	17.80	-2.33
13	1	3.577	0	17.71	-2.33
14	1	3.855	0	18.14	-2.33
15	1	4.167	0	18.07	-2.30
16	1	4.407	0	17.68	-2.29







# With BCV

# JMP FDE platform

### B-Splines

- Piecewise polynomials with an underlying mean model and variance components on the spline coefficients.
- These often work the best.
- Try these first and customize the #Knots as needed.

### • P-Splines

- P is for "Penalized". These tend to have lots of knots and are often slower to fit but similar in properties to B Splines.
- Worth trying if B Spline do not fit well.

### Fourier Basis

- Uses a sine/cosine expansion as the basis.
- Good for periodic data (like vibration/sound signals).
- Usually the spline models work better on other types of functional data.

# P-Spline Functional Model Fit

$$y_i(t_{i,j}) = \sum_{k} \beta_k b(t_{i,j}) + \sum_{k} \gamma_{i,k} b(t_{i,j}) + \varepsilon_{i,j,k}$$

- $b(t_{i,j})$ : basis functions, these form X, and Z.
- $\beta_k$ : mean function coefficients, fixed effects
- $\gamma_{i,k} \sim N(0, \sigma_k^2)$ : random effects
- $\varepsilon_{i,j,k} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$ : errors

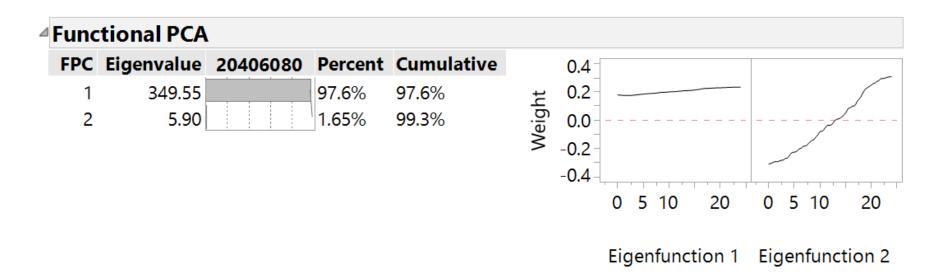
# Scoring New P-Spline Functions

$$\hat{\gamma}_{Val} = \left(Z_{Val}^T Z_{Val} + G(\hat{\sigma}_{Tr}^2)\right)^{-1} Z_{Val}^T (y_{Val} - X_{Val}\hat{\beta}_{Tr})$$

Training

- $\hat{\beta}_{Tr}$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_{Tr}^2$  estimated from training data
- Use BLUP formula to score  $\hat{\gamma}_{Val}$  or any new units

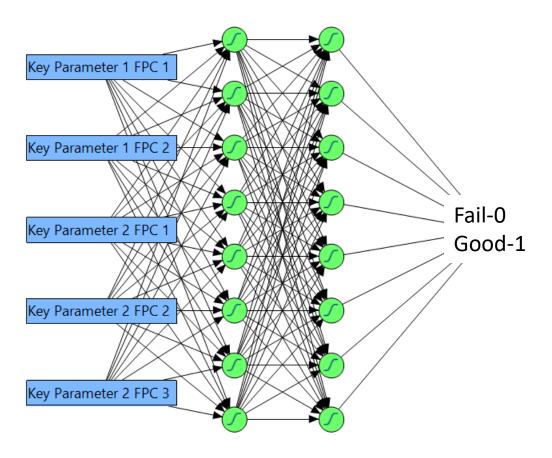
A best linear unbiased prediction (BLUP) estimate of realized values of a random variable are linear in the sense that they are linear functions of the data. They are unbiased in the sense that the average value of the estimate is equal to the average value of the quantity being estimated and best in the sense that they have minimum sum of squared error within the class of linear unbiased estimators. Estimators of random effects are called **predictors**, to distinguish them from **estimators** of fixed effects called estimators. BLUP estimates are solutions to mixed model equations and are usually different from generalized linear regression estimates used for fixed effects.



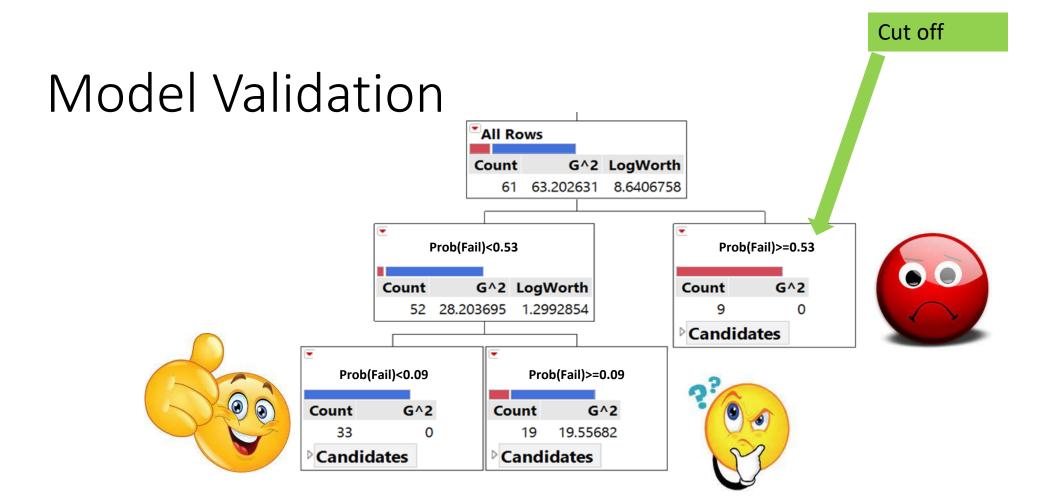
- Functional PCA amounts to rotating the P Spline basis functions
- FPC Scores are the induced rotation of the coefficients
- Operationally, FPC is derived from a weighted SVD of the training  $\hat{\gamma}_{Tr}$

	UnitID	Validation	Failed	Key Parameter 1 FPC 1	Key Parameter 1 FPC 2
1	1	Training	0	-0.137461119	0.1518411781
2	2	Training	1	1.2865813341	0.2245665174
3	3	Training	0	1.7696429741	-0.097194514
4	4	Validation	1	2.2470498512	0.3152274003
5	5	Training	0	1.0745237905	0.0063042898
6	6	Training	0	-2.743836032	-0.00195229
7	7	Training	0	0.4589908625	0.1970255259
8	8	Training	0	-0.81562604	0.0974489975
9	9	Training	0	-0.547114624	-0.129940706
10	10	Training	0	-0.633798753	0.0691610259
11	11	Validation	0	1.2816670105	0.059283723
12	12	Training	1	-3.588716661	0.0642051917

- Data summarized into one row per unit
- Model failure probability

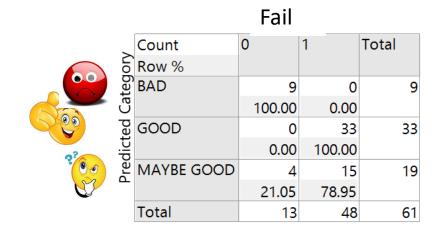


A two-layer Neural Network predicting failure probability



A Regression Tree was used to predict "Censor" at 20 hours using the Neural probability as input, *using only the Training subset of the data*.

# Model Validation



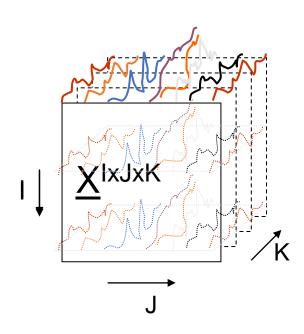
0 Total Count Row % BAD 100.00 0.00 GOOD 20 5.00 95.00 MAYBE GOOD 0.00 100.00 Total 31 24

Fail

Training Validation

Yes/No/Maybe decision rule was developed from the neural network prediction

# Multiple Time Series



More challenges

