Forecasting with transformations and decompositions

EC 361-001

Prof. Santetti Spring 2024

Materials

Required readings:

- Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, ch. 6
 - sections 6.6—6.7.

Motivation

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Before we move on into further exploring benchmark forecasting models, let us incorporate our lectures on **data transformation** and **decomposition methods** into forecasting exercises.

Regarding **transformations**, we use them whenever some adjustment is necessary to either stabilize the **variance** of our variable (e.g., *log-transforming*) or make it **better suited** for our practices (e.g., adjusting for inflation).

Second, learning time series **decomposition** methods allowed us to *break down* our variables into its *trend-cycle*, *seasonal*, and *remainder* components.

One of the main advantages of decompositions is obtaining seasonally adjusted data.

But how to forecast with transformations and decompositions?

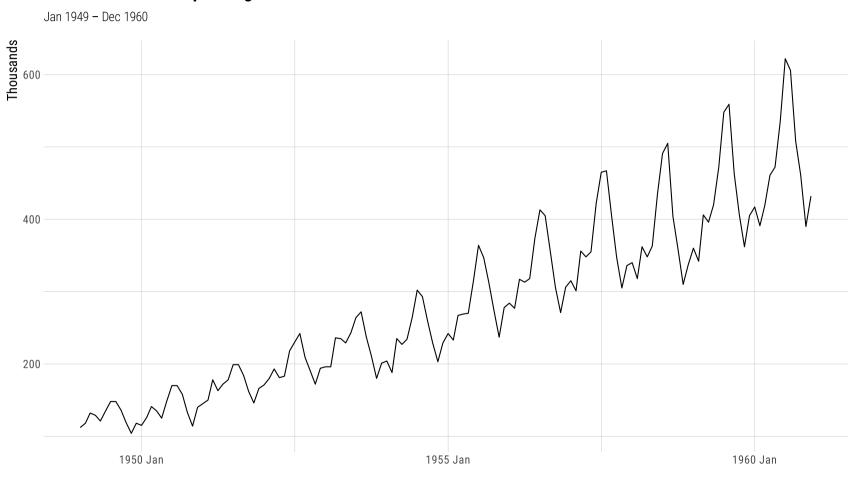
When using transformations, our forecasts will be produced on the transformed variable(s).

But for better communication, we should **back-transform** the data to bring the forecasts to the **original** scale.

For our purposes, the <code>{fable}</code> package handles this back-transformation automatically, as long as we **explicitly** inform the transformation we have used in the model specification.

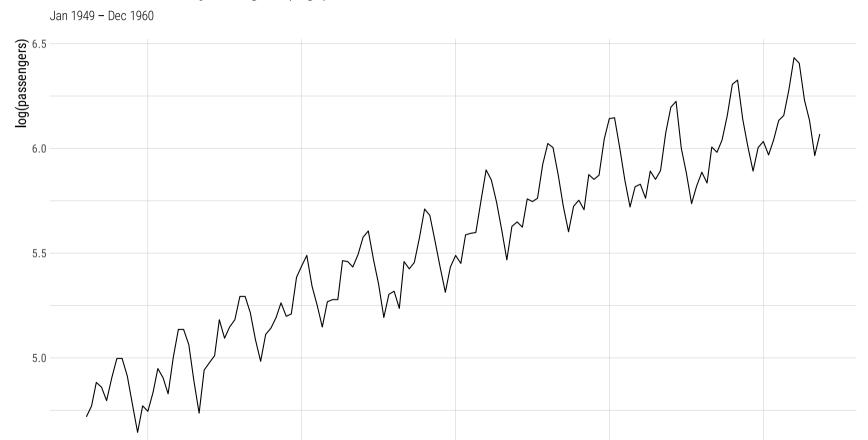
Let us better grasp this idea through an example.

International airline passengers



International airline passengers (logs)

1950 Jan



1955 Jan

1960 Jan

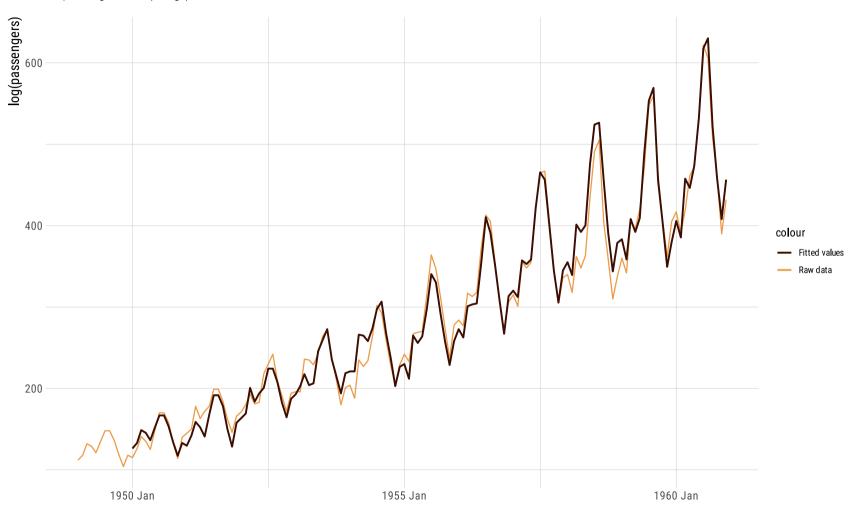
Recalling:

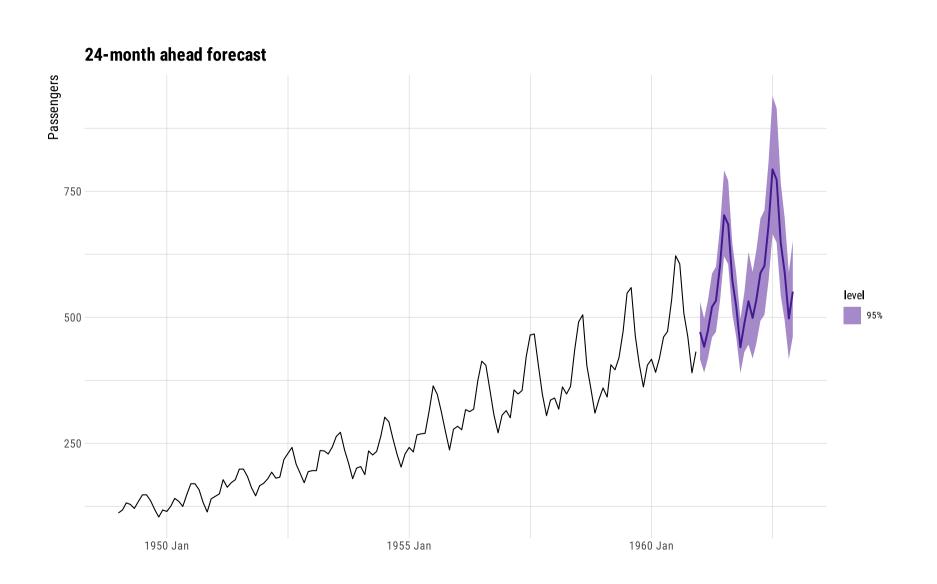
• For our purposes, the {fable} package handles this back-transformation automatically, as long as we **explicitly** inform the transformation we have used in the model specification.

```
air_snaive ← air_ts ▷
model(snaive_model = RW(log(passengers) ~ drift() + lag(12))) ## Fitting a seasonal naive model with drift.
```

Fitting a seasonal naive model with drift

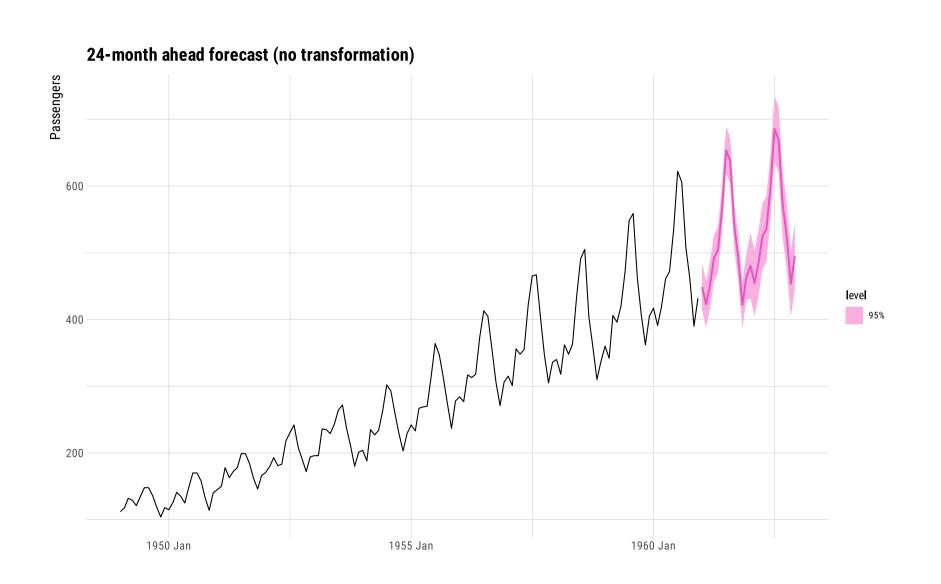
Air passengers data (in logs)

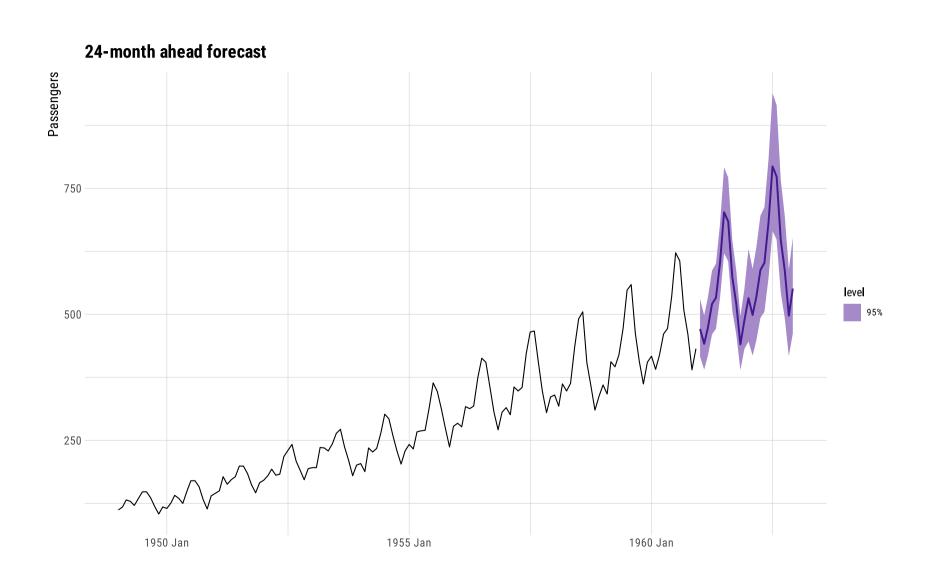




Now let us compare the **same model**, but **without** a transformation:

```
air_snaive_no ← air_ts ▷
model(snaive_model = RW(passengers ~ drift() + lag(12)))
```





If a transformation has been used, then the prediction interval is first computed on the *transformed* scale, and the end points are **back-transformed** to give a prediction interval on the original scale.

Thus, forecasts produced with transformations may generate prediction intervals that are **not symmetric**.

Transformations sometimes make little difference to the point forecasts, but have a large effect on **prediction intervals**.

Recalling a decomposed time series:

$$y_t = \hat{T}_t + \hat{S}_t + \hat{R}_t$$

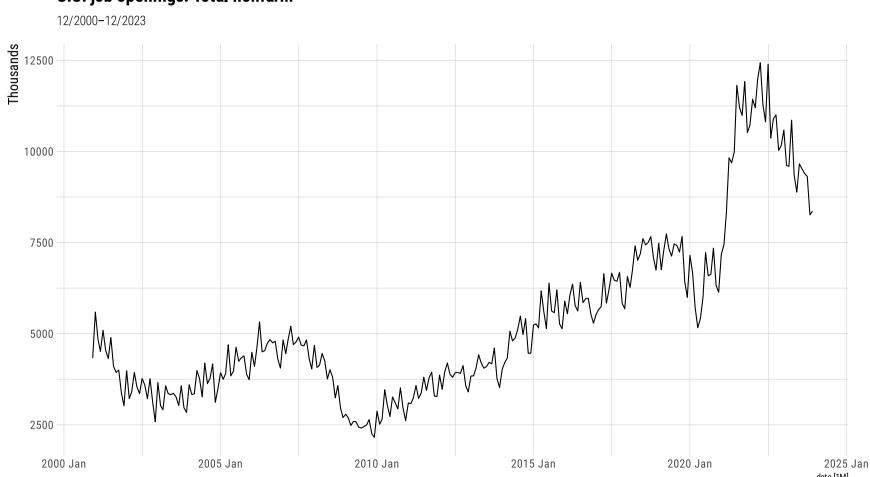
where $\hat{T}_t + \hat{R}_t$ make up the **seasonally adjusted** component, while \hat{S}_t alone is the **seasonal** piece.

When one wants to forecast a decomposed time series, the seasonally adjusted and seasonal components are forecast **separately**, then *added together*.

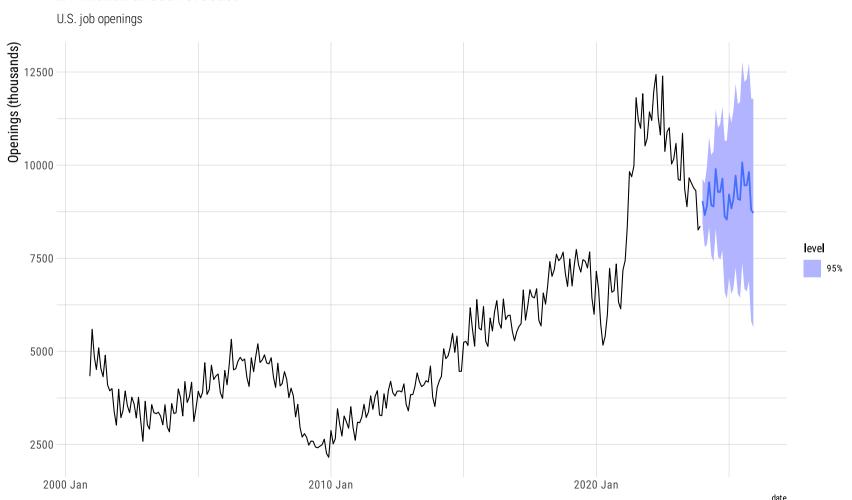
For the **seasonal** component, the standard assumption is to use a **seasonal naïve** method, whereas any other **non-seasonal model** can be applied to forecast the **seasonally adjusted** portion.

Let us see an example.

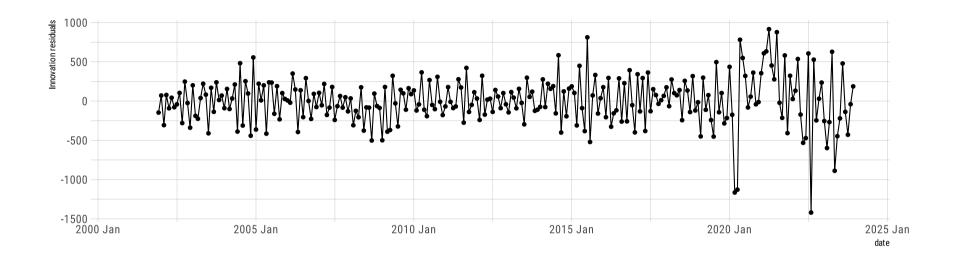
U.S. job openings: Total nonfarm

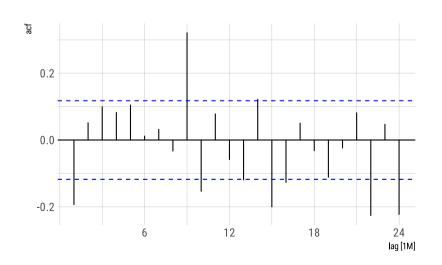


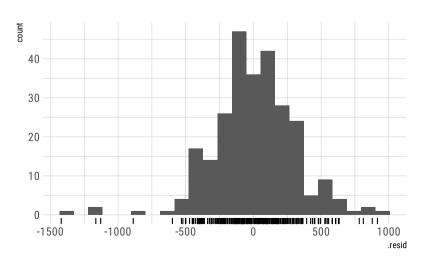
24-month ahead forecast



As in any other forecasting procedure, we should check our **residuals**:







```
job decomp ▷
  augment() ▷
  features(.innov, box_pierce, lags = 2 * 12)
#> # A tibble: 1 × 3
    .model bp_stat bp_pvalue
    <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
#> 1 stlf 10.0 0.00154
job decomp ▷
  augment() ▷
  features(.innov, ljung_box, lags = 2 * 12)
#> # A tibble: 1 × 3
    .model lb_stat lb_pvalue
    <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
#> 1 stlf 10.1 0.00145
```

Next time: Forecast accuracy measures