

Machine Learning

Chapter 4: Forecasting I

November 2022

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Introduction

Introduction Forecasting



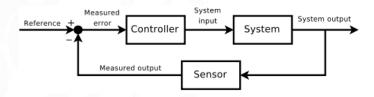
"Prediction is very difficult, especially if it's about the future."

- Nils Bohr, Nobel laureate in Physics

- Forecast: prediction of some future event
- Forecasting problems are classified as:
 - Short-term: a few time periods (days, weeks, months) into the future
 - Medium-term: from one to two years into the future
 - Long-term: many years
- Short and medium term forecasting are tipically based on identifying, modeling and extrapolating the patterns found in historical data.
- Long term forecasting is usually based on **expert knowledge** and fundamental models.

Introduction Objectives of Time Series Analysis

- 1. Describing the evolution of a time series.
- 2. Modelling the process that has generated the time series by means of a suitable statistical model.
- 3. Forecasting future values of the time series.
- 4. Control. Good forecasts enable the analyst to take actions so as to control a given process.



Introduction Electricity load forecasting (1)

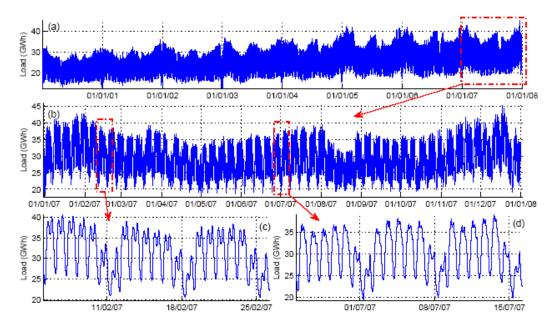


Fig. 1 Hourly electricity demand in Spain:(a)From January 1, 2000 to December 31, 2007; (b) From January 1, 2007 to December 31, 2007; (c) Three winter weeks (2007); (d) Three summer weeks (2007).

Source: Muñoz et al. (2010)

Introduction Electricity load forecasting (2)

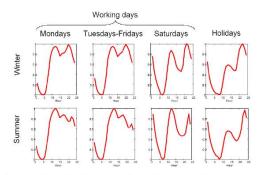


Fig. 2 Normalized intra-day load profiles for the Spanish electricity load.

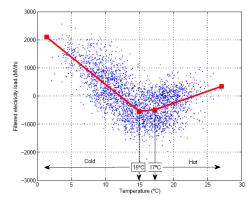


Fig. 3 Non-linear relationship between the (filtered) electricity load of a distribution area of the north of Spain and the average daily mean temperature of this region.

Source: Muñoz et al. (2010)

Introduction Forecasting methods

Forecasting techniques can be classified in two main groups:

- Quantitative methods:
 - Sufficient information about the past is available
 - This information can be set as numerical time series
 - We can assume that the future behavior of the process will be similar to the observed past behavior (continuity assumption).
- Qualitative methods:
 - Little or no quantitative information is available.
 - These methods are based on expert knowledge
 - Example: Delphi method

Introduction Quantitative methods

- 2 different types of models:
 - Explanatory models:

$$y = f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n, noise)$$

Time Series models:

$$y(t) = f(y(t-1), y(t-2),..., noise)$$

 $y(t) = f(y(t-1), y(t-2),..., x(t), x(t-1),..., noise)$

In both cases the observation is composed of two components:

$$y = pattern + noise$$
 (additive noise)
forecast uncertainty

• The objective of the modeling process is to separate both components, in order to use the pattern for forecasting and the observed noise for characterizing prediction errors.



Decomposition methods

Decomposition methods Introduction

Mathematical formulation:

$$y(t)=f(\tau(t), \sigma(t), \varepsilon(t))$$

where:

- y(t): time series value at time t
- $\tau(t)$: trend cycle component at time t
- $\sigma(t)$: seasonal component at time t
- $\varepsilon(t)$: irregular (or remainder) component at time t

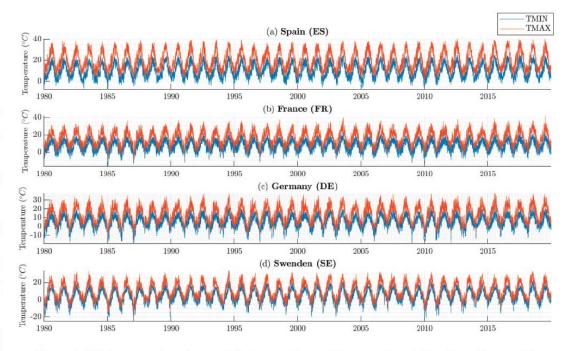


Figure 1. Minimum and maximum daily temperatures of four weather stations from Europe: (a) Madrid (Spain). (b) Paris (France). (c) Berlin (Germany). (d) Stockholm (Sweden).

Source: Moreno-Carbonell, Sánchez-Úbeda, Muñoz, 2020

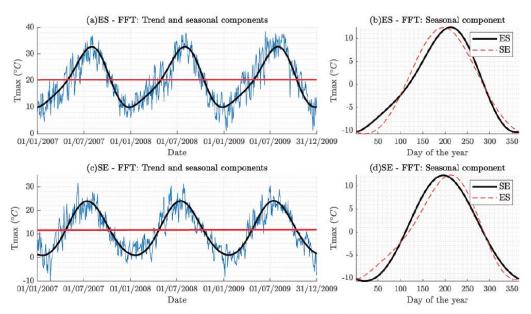


Figure 4. Trend and seasonal components estimated by the FFT model for (a) Spain, and (c) Sweden. (b) and (d) show the detail of the seasonal component estimated for each country.

Source: Moreno-Carbonell, Sánchez-Úbeda, Muñoz, 2020

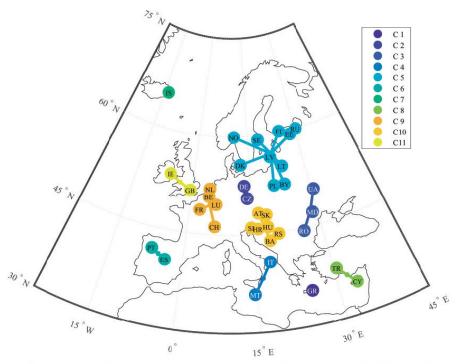


Figure 8. Location of the reference weather stations. The coloured clusters correspond to those formed using the dendrogram of Figure 7 (*Top*), based on the maximum temperature.

Source: Moreno-Carbonell, Sánchez-Úbeda, Muñoz, 2020

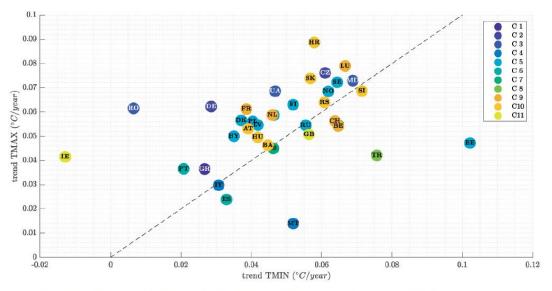


Figure 11. Scatterplot of the trends of the minimum and maximum temperatures. Each point represents a country, and colors indicate the cluster to which each point belongs according to Figure 7 (*bottom*). The black broken line represents the values of equal trend for minimum and maximum temperatures.

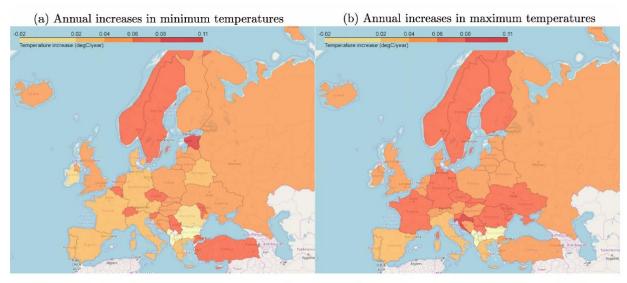
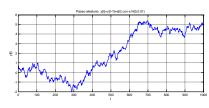


Figure 13. Annual increase of temperatures obtained from the trend component of the GAM for the (a) minimum and (b) maximum temperatures of the 37 countries.

Decomposition methods General formulation

• Additive Model:

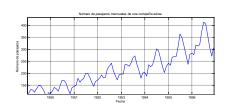
$$y(t) = \tau(t) + \sigma(t) + \varepsilon(t)$$



The additive model is appropiate if the magnitude of the seasonal fluctuations does nor vary with the level of the time series

Multiplicative Model:

$$y(t) = \tau(t) \times \sigma(t) \times \varepsilon(t)$$



Multiplicative decomposition is more prevalent with economic series because most seasonal economic series do have seasonal variation which increases with the level of the series.

$$\Rightarrow \log(y(t)) = \log(\tau(t)) + \log(\sigma(t)) + \log(\varepsilon(t))$$

Decomposition methods General formulation

• Pseudo-additive decomposition:

$$y(t) = \tau(t) \times (\sigma(t) + \varepsilon(t))$$

• Example: $D(t) = Pop(t) \times ConsPerCapita(t)$

with:
$$Pop(t) = \alpha t + \beta$$

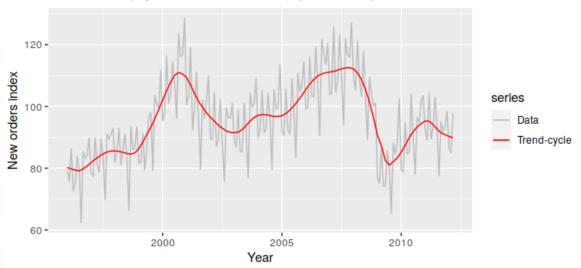
$$ConsPerCapita(t) = K + \Delta Ksen(wt) + \varepsilon'(t)$$

Then:
$$D(t) = K(\alpha t + \beta) \times (1 + \frac{\Delta K}{K} sen(wt)) + \frac{1}{K} \varepsilon'(t)$$

= $\tau(t) \times (\sigma(t)) + \varepsilon(t)$

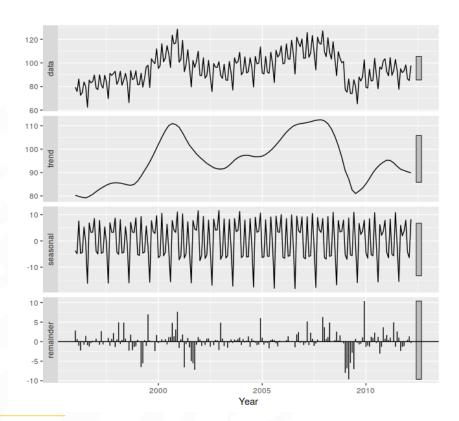
Decomposition methods Decomposition Chart

Electrical equipment manufacturing (Euro area)



Source: https://otexts.com/fpp2/

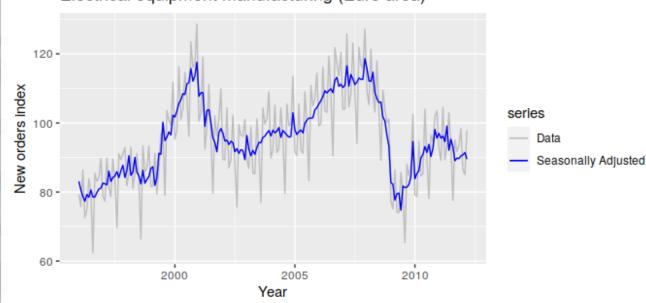
Decomposition methods Decomposition Chart



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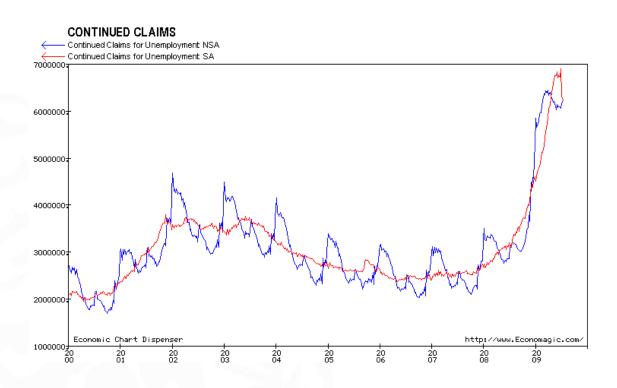
Decomposition methods Seasonal Adjustment

Electrical equipment manufacturing (Euro area)



Source: https://otexts.com/fpp2/

Decomposition methods Seasonal Adjustment



Decomposition methods Additive Classical Decomposition

• Additive decomposition:

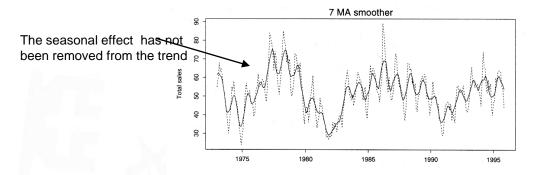
$$y(t) = \tau(t) + \sigma(t) + \varepsilon(t)$$

- 1) The trend-cycle is computed using a low-pass filter (centered MA)
- 2) The de-trended series is computed as:

$$y(t) - \tau(t) = \sigma(t) + \varepsilon(t)$$

- 3) The seasonal component, which is assumed to be constant from year to year, is estimated as the monthly average value of the de-trended series r(t).
- 4) The irregular component is given by: $\varepsilon(t) = y(t) \tau(t) \sigma(t)$

Decomposition methods Centered Moving Averages



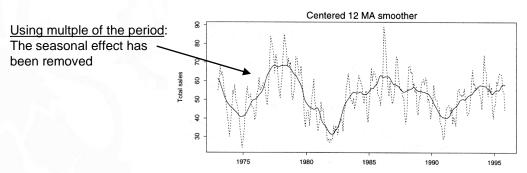


Figure 3-5: Moving averages applied to the housing sales data. The 7 MA tracks the seasonal variation whereas the 2×12 MA tracks the cycle without being contaminated by the seasonal variation.

Decomposition methods Multiplicative Classical Decomposition

• Multiplicative decomposition:

$$y(t) = \tau(t) \times \sigma(t) \times \varepsilon(t)$$

- 1) The trend-cycle is computed using a low-pass filter (centered MA)
- 2) The de-trended series is computed as the ratio:

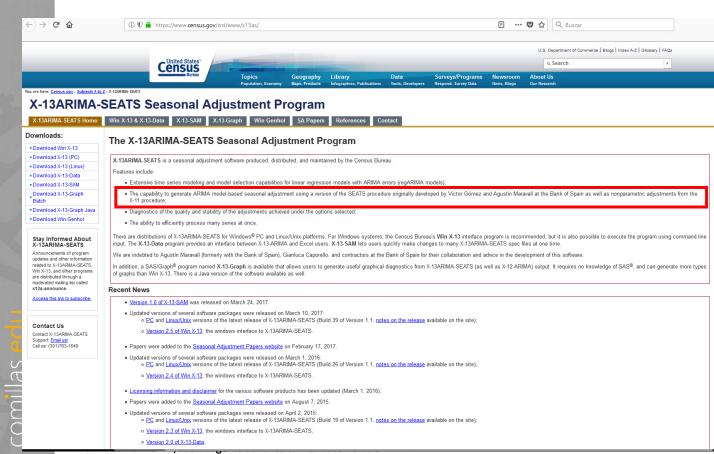
$$r(t) = y(t)/\tau(t) = \sigma(t) \times \varepsilon(t)$$

- 3) The seasonal component, which is assumed to be constant from year to year, is estimated as the monthly average value of the de-trended series r(t).
- 4) The irregular component is given by: $\varepsilon(t) = y(t)/(\tau(t) x \sigma(t))$

Decomposition methods X11/12/13-ARIMA

- X11, X12 and X13 ARIMA (Findley et al, 1997) are the most widely used variants of the Census II method developed by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. https://www.census.gov/srd/www/x13as/
- Census II decomposition is usually multiplicative, since most economic time series have seasonal variation which increases with the level of the series.
- It is an iterative procedure in which the decomposition is refined. The algorithm also minimizes the effect of outliers.

Decomposition methods X11/12/13-ARIMA



Decomposition methods Forecasting and Decomposition

- Forecasts based directly on a decomposition are performed by extending each of the components of the series.
- In practice it rarely works well:
 - The trend-cycle is the most difficult component to forecast. It is sometimes proposed to be modeled by a simple function as a straight line, but such models are rarely adequate.
 - The seasonal component for future years can be based on the seasonal component from the last full period of data. But if the seasonal component is changing over time, this will be unlikely to be adequate.
 - The irregular component may be forecast as zero (for additive decomposition) or one (for multiplicative decomposition). This assumes that the irregular component is serially uncorrelated, which is not often the case.

⇒Decomposition methods≡ Exploratory methods

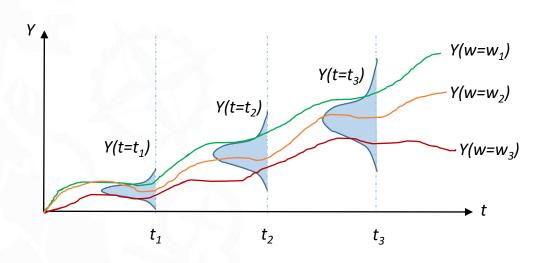


Stochastic processes

• A **stochastic process** *Y(w,t)* is a family of time indexed random variables.

belongs to a sample space

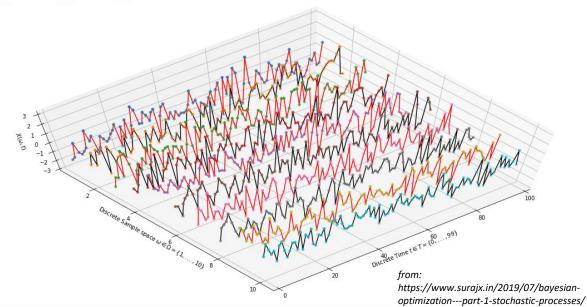
belongs to an index set



• A **stochastic process** *Y(w,t)* is a family of time indexed random variables.

belongs to a sample space

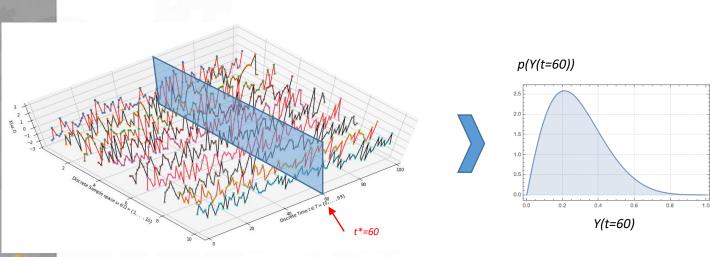
belongs to an index set



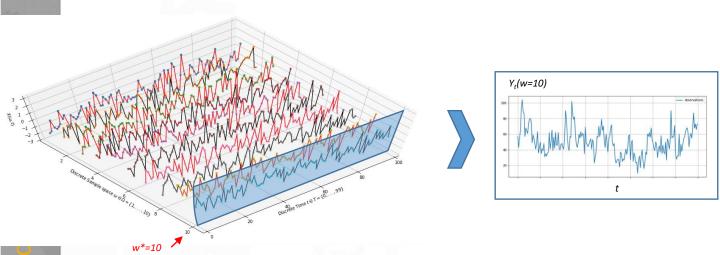
Machine Learning
Prof. Antonio Muñoz, Prof. Eugenio Sánchez & Prof. José Portela

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• For a fixed t^* , $Y(w,t^*)$ is a random variable.



• For a given w^* , $Y(w^*,t)$ is called a sample function or realization of the stochastic process.

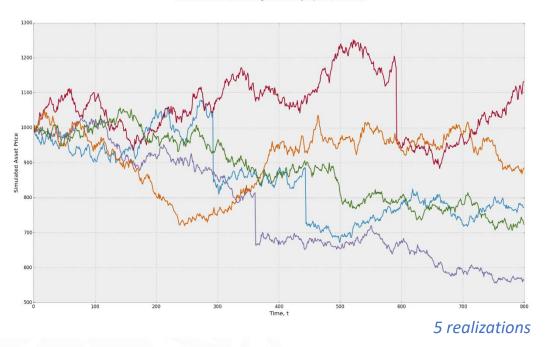


• The population of all possible realizations is called the ensemble.

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Fundamental concepts Example

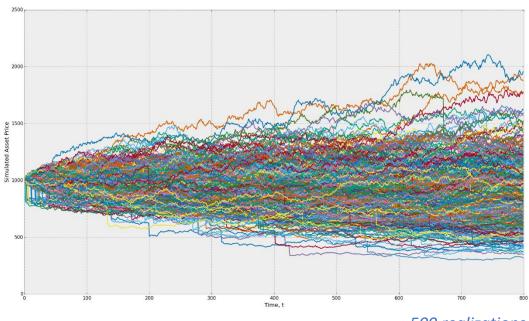
Asset Prices Simulated using the Merton Jump Diffusion Model



 $from\ http://www.turing finance.com/random-walks-down-wall-street-stochastic-processes-in-python/$

Fundamental concepts Example

Asset Prices Simulated using the Merton Jump Diffusion Model

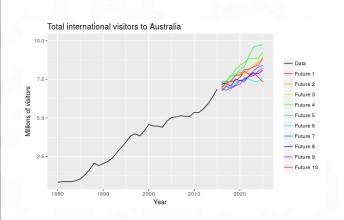


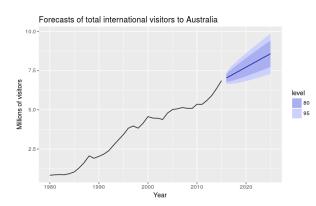
500 realizations

 $from\ http://www.turing finance.com/random-walks-down-wall-street-stochastic-processes-in-python/$

Fundamental concepts Time Series

- A time series is a collection of observations made sequentially through time.
- Formal definition: a time series is the realization of a discrete stochastic process





Source Hyndman et al. (2017)

Fundamental concepts Means, Variances and Covariances

• For a stochastic process $\{y[t], t=0, \pm 1, \pm 2...\}$, the mean function is defined by:

$$\mu_t = E(y[t])$$

• The autocovariance function $\gamma_{t,s}$ is defined as:

$$\gamma_{t,s} = Cov(y[t], y[s]) = E((y[t] - \mu_t)(y[s] - \mu_s))$$

• The autocorrelation function $\rho_{t,s}$ is defined as:

$$\rho_{t,s} = Corr(y[t], y[s]) = \frac{Cov(y[t], y[s])}{\sqrt{Var(y[t])Var(y[s])}} = \frac{\gamma_{t,s}}{\sqrt{\gamma_{t,t}\gamma_{s,s}}}$$

Fundamental concepts Means, Variances and Covariances

• Properties:

$$\gamma_{t,t} = Var(y[t])$$
 $\rho_{t,t} = 1$

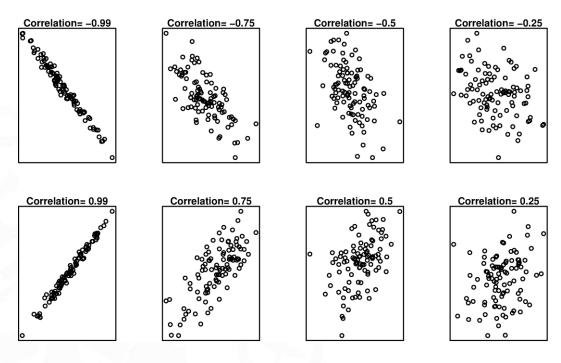
$$\gamma_{t,s} = \gamma_{s,t}$$
 $\rho_{t,s} = \rho_{s,t}$

$$|\gamma_{t,s}| \le \sqrt{\gamma_{t,t} \gamma_{s,s}}$$

$$|\rho_{t,s}| \le 1$$

• If $\rho_{t,s}=0$ we say that y[t] and y[s] are uncorrelated

Fundamental concepts Correlation

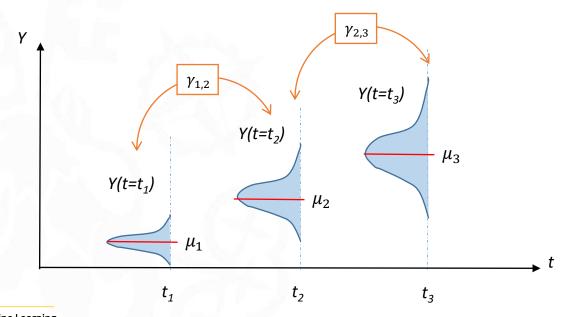


From [Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, 2013]

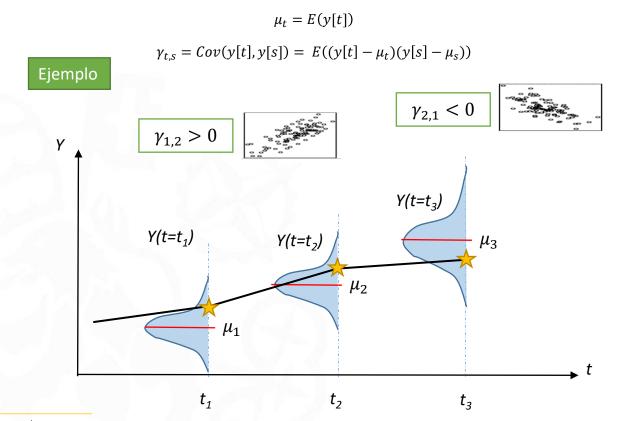
Fundamental concepts Means, Variances and Covariances

$$\mu_t = E(y[t])$$

$$\gamma_{t,s} = Cov(y[t],y[s]) = E((y[t]-\mu_t)(y[s]-\mu_s))$$



Fundamental concepts Means, Variances and Covariances



- A process is said to be **stationary** when the properties of the underlying process do not vary with time
- We say that a process is stationary in the strict sense, when to make the same shift in the timing of all the variables of any finite joint distribution, the distribution does not vary:

$$p(y[t_1], ..., y[t_N]) = p(y[t_1 + k], ..., y[t_N + k]) \ \forall k$$

for all finite set $\{y[t_1],...,y[t_N]\}$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} p(y[t]) = p(y[t+k]) & \forall t, k \\ p(y[t], y[s]) = p(y[t+k], y[s+k]) & \forall t, s, k \\ \dots \end{cases}$$

• A process is said to be **first order stationary** in distribution if:

$$p(y[t]) = p(y[t+k]) \quad \forall k$$
$$\Rightarrow E(y[t]) = \mu \quad \forall t$$

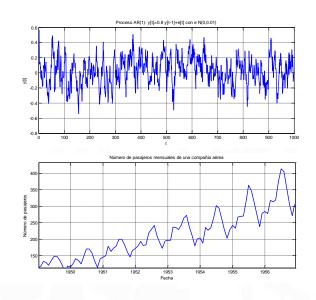
 A process is said to be second order or wide sense stationary if it satisfies:

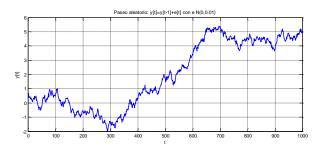
$$E(y[t]) = \mu \quad \forall t$$

$$E((y[t] - \mu)^2) = \sigma^2 < \infty \quad \forall t$$

$$E((y[t + k] - \mu)(y[t] - \mu)) = \gamma_k \quad \forall t$$

• Examples:





- When the process is stationary, its first and second order moments can be estimated from only one realization of the process:
 - Mean:

$$\mu = E[y[t]] \rightarrow \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} y[t]$$

Autocovariance:

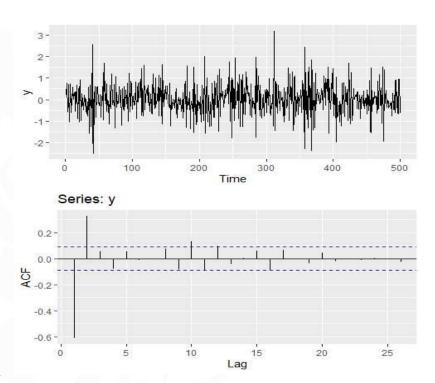
$$\gamma_k = E[(y[t+k] - \mu)(y[t] - \mu)]$$

$$\hat{\gamma}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N-k} (y[t+k] - \hat{\mu})(y[t] - \hat{\mu})$$

Autocorrelation:

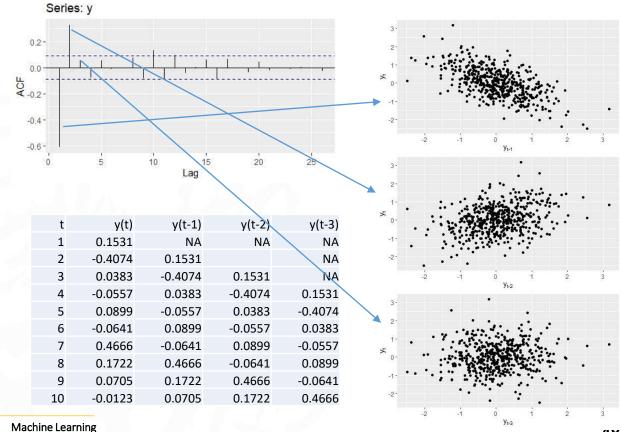
$$\rho_{k} = \frac{\gamma_{k}}{\gamma_{0}} \rightarrow \hat{\rho}_{k} = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_{k}}{\hat{\gamma}_{0}} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N-k} (y[t+k] - \overline{y})(y[t] - \overline{y})}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} (y[t] - \overline{y})^{2}}$$

• Correlogram = $\{\hat{\rho}_{k}\}$ for k=1,... (not recommended for k>N/4)



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Fundamental concepts Stationary Processes



Fundamental concepts Measures of forecast accuracy

• R-squared statistic:

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N} (y[t] - \hat{y}[t])^{2}}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} (y[t] - \bar{y})^{2}}$$

• Adjusted R-squared statistic:
$$R_{Adj}^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N} (y[t] - \hat{y}[t])^2 / (N-M)}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} (y[t] - \bar{y})^2 / (N-1)}$$

• Akaike Information Criterion:
$$AIC = N \ln(\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2) + 2M$$

• Schwarz Bayesian Criterion: $SBC = N \ln(\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2) + M \ln(N)$

where \boldsymbol{M} is the number of parameters

Fundamental concepts Measures of forecast accuracy

Forecast error obtained om a benchmark (random walk -> last observation)

 $r_t = e_t / e_t * /$

Scale-dependent measures

Mean Square Error (MSE) = mean (e_t^2)

Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) = \sqrt{MSE}

Mean Absolute Error (MAE) = $mean(|e_t|)$

Median Absolute Error $(MdAE) = median(|e_t|)$.

Measures based on percentage errors

 $p_t = 100e_t/Y_t$.

Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)

 $= mean(|p_t|)$

Median Absolute Percentage Error (MdAPE)

 $= median(|p_t|)$

Root Mean Square Percentage Error (RMSPE)

$$=\sqrt{\operatorname{mean}(p_t^2)}$$

Root Median Square Percentage Error (RMdSPE)

$$=\sqrt{\mathrm{median}(p_t^2)}$$

Symmetric Mean Absolute Percentage Error (sMAPE)

$$= \text{mean}(200|Y_t - F_t|/(Y_t + F_t))$$

Symmetric Median Absolute Percentage Error (sMdAPE)

 $= \text{median}(200|Y_t - F_t|/(Y_t + F_t))$

Measures based on relative errors

Mean Relative Absolute Error (MRAE) = $mean(|r_t|)$

Median Relative Absolute Error (MdRAE)

 $= median(|r_t|)$

Geometric Mean Relative Absoluate Error (GMRAE)

 $= gmean(|r_t|)$

Relative measures

 $RelMAE = MAE/MAE_b$

MAE from the benchmark

Scaled errors

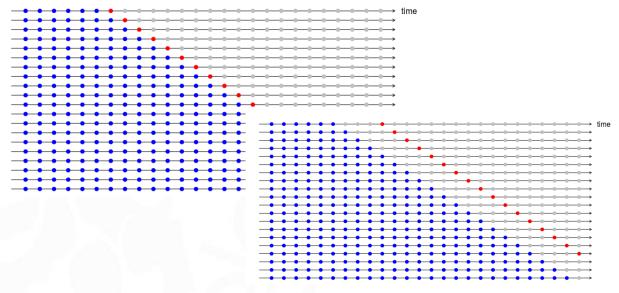
$$q_t = \frac{e_t}{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=2}^{n} |Y_i - Y_{i-1}|}$$

 $MASE = mean(|q_t|).$

"Another look at measures of forecast accuracy" Rob J. Hyndman and Anne B. Koehler International Journal of Forecasting Volume 22, Issue 4, October-December 2006, Pages 679-688

Fundamental concepts Measures of forecast accuracy

- Cross-validation methods:
 - Training set ("in-sample") → parameter optimization
 - Validation set ("out-of-sample") → measuring the generalization capabilities of the model



- It will often be necessary to transform and/or adjust the series under study to fulfill the model assumptions (constant level, constant variance, normally distributed, ...)
- Let's analyze the following transformations:
 - Mathematical transformations
 - Calendar Adjustments
 - Adjustments for inflation and population growth

• Mathematical transformations:

$$w(t) = \sqrt{y(t)}$$

$$w(t) = \sqrt[3]{y(t)}$$

$$w(t) = log(y(t))$$

$$W(t) = -\frac{1}{y(t)}$$

*A constant is added to y(t) to ensure it is greater than 1

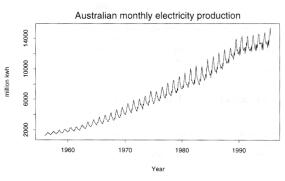


Figure 2-10: Monthly Australian electricity production from January 1956 to August 1995. Note the increasing variation as the level of the series increases.

See Makridakis et al. (1998)

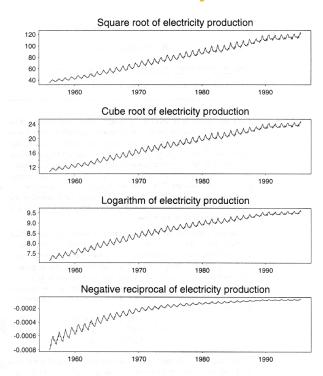


Figure 2-11: Transformations of the electricity production data. Of these, either a square root, cube root, or a log transformation could be used to stabilize the variation to form a series which has variation approximately constant over the series.

• The above transformations can be generalized in the form proposed by Box & Cox:

$$w(t) = \begin{cases} \log(y(t)), & \lambda = 0 \\ \frac{(y(t)^{\lambda} - 1)}{\lambda}, & \lambda \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

```
lambda <- BoxCox.lambda(y)
y transf <-BoxCox(y,lambda)</pre>
```

see https://otexts.org/fpp2/transformations.html

• In practice, the square root and the logarithm are the transformations most frequently used.

- Calendar adjustments:
 - Month duration: the differences from month to month can reach

$$\frac{31-28}{31} \approx 10\%$$

• This effect can be corrected for monthly forecasts by using:

$$w(t) = y(t) \frac{\text{mean number of days per month}}{\text{number of days in month } t}$$
$$= y(t) \frac{365.25/12}{\text{number of days in month } t}$$

Function monthdays(ts) can be used in R to obtain the number of days for each month in the time series.

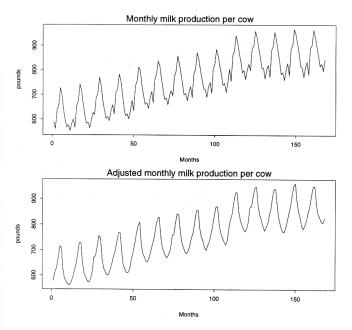


Figure 2-12: Monthly milk production per cow over 14 years (Source: Cryer, 1986). The second graph shows the data adjusted for the length of month. This yields a simpler pattern enabling better forecasts and easier identification of unusual observations.

See Makridakis et al. (1998)

- Calendar adjustments:
 - Holidays: the number of holidays per month is very different from month to month.

If it is possible to classify the working days and holidays, and all holidays have the same effect, the following adjustment simplifies the problem of forecasting monthly time series:

$$w(t) = y(t) \frac{\text{mean number of holidays per month}}{\text{number of holidays in month } t}$$

- Adjustments for inflation and population growth:
 - Inflation: it is necessary to take it into account when predicting prices. For that purpose prices are referred to the same date.
 - Population growth: it is necessary to take it into account when predicting series as the number of users of public transport. If demographic studies are available, it is preferable to normalize the series and predict the proportion of users.



Exponential Smoothing methods

Exponential smoothing mehtods Simple Exponential Smoothing

• Formulation: $\hat{y}(t+1) = \hat{y}(t) + \alpha(y(t) - \hat{y}(t))$ where α is a constant between 0 and 1.

- Comments:
 - Not suitable for time series with trend
 - Analogy with proportional control
 - Requires very low storage space ⇒ suitable when the number of series is very high
- The above expression can be put in the weighted average form: $\hat{y}(t+1) = \alpha y(t) + (1-\alpha)\hat{y}(t)$

Exponential smoothing mehtods Simple Exponential Smoothing

• Developing the previous expression:

$$\hat{y}(t+1) = \alpha y(t) + \alpha (1-\alpha)y(t-1) + \alpha (1-\alpha)^2 y(t-2) + \alpha (1-\alpha)^3 y(t-3) + \alpha (1-\alpha)^3 y($$

$$\hat{y}(t+1) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \alpha (1-\alpha)^j y(t-j) + (1-\alpha)^t L(0)$$

⇒Geometric progression

Decomposition methods Simple Exponential Smoothing

• Component form:

• Smoothing equation:
$$L(t) = \alpha y(t) + (1 - \alpha)L(t - 1)$$

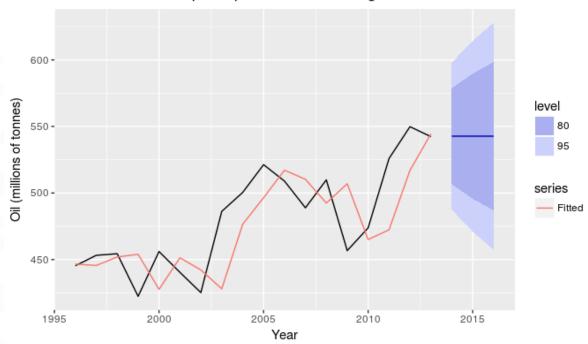
• Forecast equation:
$$\hat{y}(t+1) = L(t)$$

- Multi-horizon forecast: $\hat{y}(t+h|t) = L(t)$
- Optimization: we need to select L(0) and α

→ "Flat forecast"

Exponential smoothing mehtods Simple Exponential Smoothing

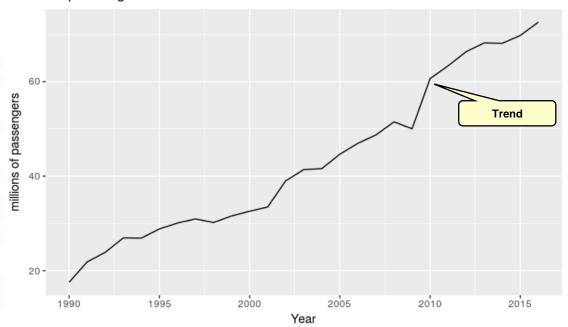
Forecasts from Simple exponential smoothing



Source Hyndman et al. (2017)

Exponential smoothing methods Holt's Linear Trend method

Air passengers in Australia



Source Hyndman et al. (2017)

Exponential smoothing methods Holt's Linear Trend method

• Given the constants α and β between 0 y 1, the Holt's linear trend model is given by:

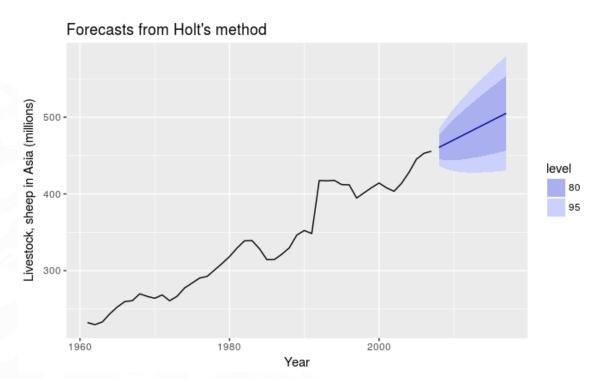
• Level:
$$L(t) = \alpha y(t) + (1-\alpha)(L(t-1) + T(t-1))$$

• Trend:
$$T(t) = \beta(L(t) - L(t-1)) + (1-\beta)T(t-1)$$

• Forecast:
$$\hat{y}(t+m) = L(t) + T(t) m$$

- L(t) is a weighted average of observation y(t) and the one-step-ahead training forecast for time t, given by (L(t-1)+T(t-1)).
- T(t) is a weighted average of the estimated trend at time t based on (L(t)-L(t-1)) and T(t-1), the previous estimate of the trend.

Exponential smoothing methods Holt's Linear Trend method



Source Hyndman et al. (2017)

Exponential smoothing methods Damped Trend method

• Given the constants α , β and ϕ between 0 y 1, the damped linear trend model is given by:

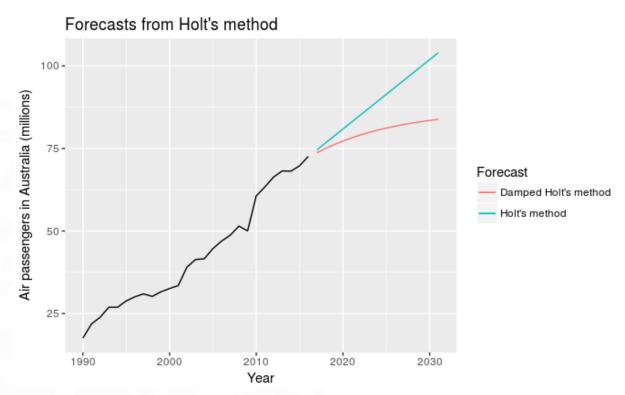
• Level:
$$L(t) = \alpha y(t) + (1 - \alpha)(L(t-1) + \phi T(t-1))$$

• Trend:
$$T(t) = \beta(L(t) - L(t-1)) + (1-\beta)\phi T(t-1)$$

• Forecast:
$$\hat{y}(t+m) = L(t) + (\phi + \phi^2 + ... + \phi^m)T(t)$$

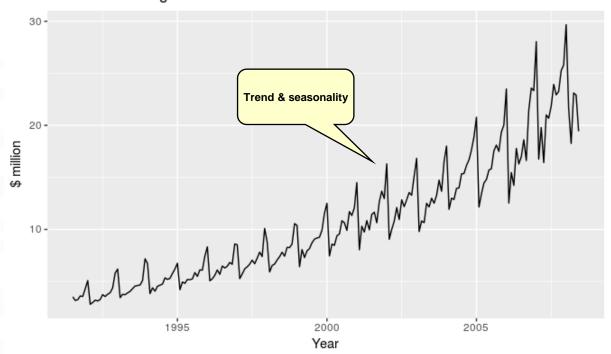
• In practice, ϕ is rarely less than 0.8

Exponential smoothing methods Damped Trend method



Source Hyndman et al. (2017)

Antidiabetic drug sales



Source Hyndman et al. (2017)

- Given the constants α , β , and γ between 0 y 1, the additive model is given by:
 - Level: $L(t) = \alpha(y(t)-S(t-s)) + (1-\alpha)(L(t-1)+T(T-1))$
 - Trend: $T(t) = \beta(L(t)-L(t-1)) + (1-\beta)T(t-1)$
 - Seasonality: $S(t) = \gamma(y(t)-L(t)) + (1-\gamma)S(t-s)$
 - Forecast: $\hat{y}(t+m) = L(t) + T(t) m + S(t-s+m)$
- The level equation shows a weighted average between the **seasonally adjusted observation** (y(t)-S(t-s)) and the non-seasonal forecast (L(t-1)+T(t-1)) for time t.
- The trend equation is identical to Holt's linear method.
- The seasonal equation shows a weighted average between the **current seasonal index**, (y(t)-L(t)), and the **seasonal index of the same season last year**.

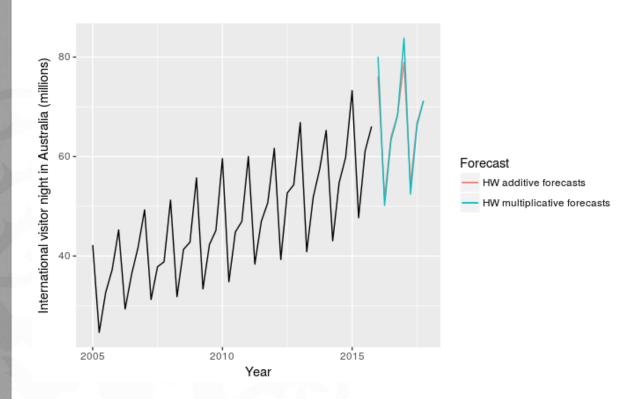
• Given the constants α , β , and γ between 0 y 1, the multiplicative seasonality model is given by:

• Level:
$$L(t) = \alpha \frac{y(t)}{S(t-s)} + (1-\alpha)(L(t-1) + T(t-1))$$

• Trend:
$$T(t) = \beta(L(t) - L(t-1)) + (1-\beta)T(t-1)$$

• Seasonality:
$$S(t) = \gamma \frac{y(t)}{L(t)} + (1 - \gamma)S(t - s)$$

• Forecast:
$$\hat{y}(t+m) = (L(t)+T(t)m)S(t-s+m)$$



Exponential smoothing methods Holt-Winters' damped method

• Given the constants α , β , γ and ϕ between 0 y 1, the Holt-Winters method with a damped trend and multiplicative seasonality is given by:

• Level:
$$L(t) = \alpha \frac{y(t)}{S(t-s)} + (1-\alpha)(L(t-1) + \phi T(t-1))$$

- Trend: $T(t) = \beta(L(t) L(t-1)) + (1-\beta)\phi T(t-1)$
- Seasonality: $S(t) = \gamma \frac{y(t)}{L(t)} + (1 \gamma)S(t s)$
- Forecast: $\hat{y}(t+m) = (L(t) + (\phi + \phi^2 + ... + \phi^m)T(t))S(t-s+m)$

Trend	Seasonality			
	N (None)	A (Additive)	M (Multiplicative)	
N (None)	$S_t = \alpha X_t + (1 - \alpha)S_{t-1}$ $\hat{X}_t(m) = S_t$	$S_{t} = \alpha(X_{t} - I_{t-p}) + (1 - \alpha)S_{t-1}$ $I_{t} = \delta(X_{t} - S_{t}) + (1 - \delta)I_{t-p}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} + I_{t-p+m}$	$S_{t} = \alpha(X_{t}/I_{t-p}) + (1-\alpha)S_{t-1}$ $I_{t} = \delta(X_{t}/S_{t}) + (1-\delta)I_{t-p}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t}I_{t-p+m}$	
	$S_t = S_{t-1} + \alpha e_t$ $\hat{X}_t(m) = S_t$	$S_t = S_{t-1} + \alpha e_t$ $I_t = I_{t-p} + \delta(1 - \alpha)e_t$ $\dot{X}_t(m) = S_t + I_{t-p+m}$	$S_{t} = S_{t-1} + \alpha e_{t} / I_{t-p}$ $I_{t} = I_{t-p} + \delta(1 - \alpha) e_{t} / S_{t}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} I_{t-p+m}$	
A (Additive)	$S_{t} = \alpha X_{t} + (1 - \alpha)(S_{t-1} + T_{t-1})$ $T_{t} = \gamma(S_{t} - S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)T_{t-1}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} + mT_{t}$	$\begin{split} S_t &= \alpha(X_t - I_{t-p}) + (1 - \alpha)(S_{t-1} + T_{t-1}) \\ T_t &= \gamma(S_t - S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)T_{t-1} \\ I_t &= \delta(X_t - S_t) + (1 - \delta)I_{t-p} \\ \hat{X}_t(m) &= S_t + mT_t + I_{t-p+m} \end{split}$	$\begin{split} S_t &= \alpha(X_t/I_{t-p}) + (1-\alpha)(S_{t-1} + T_{t-1}) \\ T_t &= \gamma(S_t - S_{t-1}) + (1-\gamma)T_{t-1} \\ I_t &= \delta(X_t/S_t) + (1-\delta)I_{t-p} \\ \hat{X}_t(m) &= (S_t + mT_t)I_{t-p+m} \end{split}$	
	$S_t = S_{t-1} + T_{t-1} + \alpha e_t$ $T_t = T_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_t$ $\hat{X}_t(m) = S_t + mT_t$	$S_{t} = S_{t-1} + T_{t-1} + \alpha e_{t}$ $T_{t} = T_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_{t}$ $I_{t} = I_{t-p} + \delta(1 - \alpha)e_{t}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} + mT_{t} + I_{t-p+m}$	$\begin{split} S_t &= S_{t-1} + T_{t-1} + \alpha e_t / I_{t-p} \\ T_t &= T_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_t / I_{t-p} \\ I_t &= I_{t-p} + \delta (1 - \alpha) e_t / S_t \\ \hat{X}_t(m) &= (S_t + mT_t) I_{t-p+m} \end{split}$	
DA (Damped additive)		$S_{t} = \alpha(X_{t} - I_{t-p}) + (1 - \alpha)(S_{t-1} + \phi T_{t-1})$ $T_{t} = \gamma(S_{t} - S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)\phi T_{t-1}$ $I_{t} = \delta(X_{t} - S_{t}) + (1 - \delta)I_{t-p}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i} T_{t} + I_{t-p+m}$	$S_{t} = \alpha(X_{t}/I_{t-p}) + (1 - \alpha)(S_{t-1} + \phi T_{t-1})$ $T_{t} = \gamma(S_{t} - S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)\phi T_{t-1}$ $I_{t} = \delta(X_{t}/S_{t}) + (1 - \delta)I_{t-p}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = \left(S_{t} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i} T_{t}\right) I_{t-p+m}$	
	$S_t = S_{t-1} + \phi T_{t-1} + \alpha e_t$ $T_t = \phi T_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_t$ $\hat{X}_t(m) = S_t + \sum_{i=1}^m \phi^i T_t$	$S_{t} = S_{t-1} + \phi T_{t-1} + \alpha e_{t}$ $T_{t} = \phi T_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_{t}$ $I_{t} = I_{t-p} + \delta (1 - \alpha) e_{t}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i} T_{t} + I_{t-p+m}$	$S_{t} = S_{t-1} + \phi T_{t-1} + \alpha e_{t} / I_{t-p}$ $T_{t} = \phi T_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_{t} / I_{t-p}$ $I_{t} = I_{t-p} + \delta (1 - \alpha) e_{t} / S_{t}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = \left(S_{t} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i} T_{t} \right) I_{t-p+m}$	

			,
M (Multiplicative)	$S_{t} = \alpha X_{t} + (1 - \alpha)(S_{t-1}R_{t-1})$ $R_{t} = \gamma(S_{t}/S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)R_{t-1}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} R_{t}^{m}$	$\begin{split} S_t &= \alpha (X_t - I_{t-p}) + (1 - \alpha) S_{t-1} R_{t-1} \\ R_t &= \gamma (S_t / S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma) R_{t-1} \\ I_t &= \delta (X_t - S_t) + (1 - \delta) I_{t-p} \\ \hat{X}_t (m) &= S_t R_t^m + I_{t-p+m} \end{split}$	$S_{t} = \alpha(X_{t}/I_{t-p}) + (1 - \alpha)S_{t-1}R_{t-1}$ $R_{t} = \gamma(S_{t}/S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)R_{t-1}$ $I_{t} = \delta(X_{t}/S_{t}) + (1 - \delta)I_{t-p}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = (S_{t}R_{t}^{m})I_{t-p+m}$
	$S_{t} = S_{t-1}R_{t-1} + \alpha e_{t}$ $R_{t} = R_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_{t} / S_{t-1}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t}R_{t}^{m}$	$S_{t} = S_{t-1}R_{t-1} + \alpha e_{t}$ $R_{t} = R_{t-1} + \alpha \gamma e_{t} / S_{t-1}$ $I_{t} = I_{t-p} + \delta (1 - \alpha) e_{t}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t}R_{t}^{m} + I_{t-p+m}$	$S_{t} = S_{t-1}R_{t-1} + \alpha e_{t}/I_{t-p}$ $R_{t} = R_{t-1} + (\alpha \gamma e_{t}/S_{t-1})/I_{t-p}$ $I_{t} = I_{t-p} + \delta(1 - \alpha)e_{t}/S_{t}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = (S_{t}R_{t}^{m})I_{t-p+m}$
DM (Damped multiplicative)	$S_{t} = \alpha X_{t} + (1 - \alpha)(S_{t-1}R_{t-1}^{\phi})$ $R_{t} = \gamma(S_{t}/S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)R_{t-1}^{\phi}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t}R_{t}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \dot{\phi}^{i}}$	$S_{t} = \alpha(X_{t} - I_{t-p}) + (1 - \alpha)S_{t-1}R_{t-1}^{\phi}$ $R_{t} = \gamma(S_{t}/S_{t-1}) + (1 - \gamma)R_{t-1}^{\phi}$ $I_{t} = \delta(X_{t} - S_{t}) + (1 - \delta)I_{t-p}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t}R_{t}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i}} + I_{t-p+m}$	$S_{t} = \alpha(X_{t}/I_{t-p}) + (1-\alpha)(S_{t-1}R_{t-1}^{\phi})$ $R_{t} = \gamma(S_{t}/S_{t-1}) + (1-\gamma)R_{t-1}^{\phi}$ $I_{t} = \delta(X_{t}/S_{t}) + (1-\delta)I_{t-1}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = \left(S_{t}R_{t}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i}}\right)I_{t-p+m}$
	$S_t = S_{t-1}R_{t-1}^{\phi} + \alpha e_t$ $R_t = R_{t-1}^{\phi} + \alpha \gamma e_t / S_{t-1}$ $\hat{X}_t(m) = S_t R_t^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^i}$	$S_{t} = S_{t-1} R_{t-1}^{\phi} + \alpha e_{t}$ $R_{t} = R_{t-1}^{f} + \alpha \gamma e_{t} / S_{t-1}$ $I_{t} = I_{t-p} + \delta (1 - \alpha) e_{t}$ $\hat{X}_{t}(m) = S_{t} R_{t}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i}} + I_{t-p+m}$	$\begin{split} S_{t} &= S_{t-1} R_{t-1}^{\phi} + \alpha e_{t} / I_{t-p} \\ R_{t} &= R_{t-1}^{\phi} + (\alpha \gamma e_{t} / S_{t-1}) / I_{t-p} \\ I_{t} &= I_{t-p} + \delta (1 - \alpha) e_{t} / S_{t} \\ \hat{X}_{t}(m) &= \left(S_{t} R_{t}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi^{i}} \right) I_{t-p+m} \end{split}$

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