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## **Energy Prices Forecasting Using GLM**

M. Filomena Teodoro, Marina A. P. Andrade, Eliana Costa e Silva, Ana Borges and Ricardo Covas

**Abstract** The work described in this article results from a problem proposed by the company EDP - Energy Solutions Operator, in the framework of ESGI 119th, European Study Group with Industry, during July 2016. Markets for electricity have two characteristics: the energy is mainly no-storable and volatile prices at exchanges are issues to take into consideration. These two features, between others, contribute significantly to the risk of a planning process. The aim of the problem is the short term forecast of hourly energy prices. In present work, GLM is considered a useful technique to obtain a predictive model where its predictive power is discussed. The results show that in the GLM framework the season of the year, month or winter/summer period revealed significant explanatory variables in the different estimated models. The in-sample forecast is promising, conducting to adequate measures of performance.

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#### **1** Introduction

The objective of the present work is the short term forecast of hourly energy prices. Electricity Price Forecasting (EPF) its a difficult purpose. A wide number of methods have been proposed to EFP. In [14] is described an almost complete review about the enormous quantity of available methods, analyzing their strengths and weaknesses. The author proposes the classification of such methods in four categories: multi-agent models, fundamental models, reduced-form models, statistical models and computational intelligence models.

Most of the statistical approaches consists in methods that forecast the current electricity price by using a mathematical combination of the previous prices and/or previous or current values of exogenous factors, such as, consumption and production figures, or weather variables (see [14] for further detail).

Statistical EPF models are mainly inspired from economics literature such as game theory models and time-series econometric models, as explained also by [10], where they present an extremely relevant summary of selected finance and econometrics inspired literature on spot electricity price forecasting (see Table 3 in [10]).

Considering the short term forecasting in a EPF context, the more frequent techniques are the ones which take into account the autoregression and moving average models ARMA, that can be combined with the stationary form of time series, the ARIMA models. When seasonality is an important issue, the extended form of such models results in the SARIMA approach. The forecasting of ARMA-type models can be conducted via the Durbin-Levinson algorithm or the innovations algorithm, or by the Kalman filter for models in space state form. ARX, ARMAX, ARIMAX and SARIMAX are the extension of these models when some exogenous factores [14] are considered (e.g. generation capacity, load profiles and meteorological conditions).

Multivariate time series analysis is used when one wants to model and explain the interactions and co-movements among a group of time series variables. In this scope [2], [12], [3] have proposed some techniques: VAR, MAR, VARMA, GARCH, ARFNN (fusion of VAR and fuzzy neural networks), Extended Kalman Filter, Polynomial fitting. A vector autoregressive structure (VAR) approach has been recently proposed [14]. Temporal Distribution Extrapolation is another possible approach. It considers the kernel density estimation taking into account, for example, pseudopoints. It is a nonparametric technique which estimates the distribution of a random (univariate ou multivariate) variable minimizing some measure. Quite interesting work is presented in [4], [6].

Another method that can be found in literature is the GLM approach. For example, a semi-parametric model for electricity spot prices [7] is built applying GLM where an unknown link function is estimated together with the linear part of the model, followed by a Principal Components Analysis and cross validation to reduce the dimensionality of the problem, avoiding the over-fitting. Also in a GLM setting [11], a Gausss-Laplacian mixture model was used as a basis for stochastic optimization of electricity market.

In 1972, was born the idea of GLM as a powerful method in Statistics, standardizing the different theoretical and applied points of view about all the structure of linear regression developed until then. Due to the large number of models, and simplicity of development associated with rapid computational analysis, the GLM have been playing an important role in statistical analysis. The idea is the establishment of a functional relation between the variable to predict (dependent variable) and a set of other exogenous variables (explanatory variables or covariates). This relation allows to predict the dependent variable. The dependent variables and the explanatory variables can be of any type: continuous, discrete, dichotomous, quantitative, qualitative, stochastic, non-stochastic. The response variable can also be a proportion, be positive, have a non-normal random component. At 1935, Bliss proposed the probit model to proportions; in 1944 Berkson developed the logistic regression, log-linear models for contingency tables were introduced by Birch at 1963. In 1972, Nelder and Wedderbrun proved that all these models are particular cases of a general family: the generalized linear models. In GLM, the random component belongs to exponential family and a transformation of expected value of response variable is related with explanatory variables. The simplest models, where the explanatory variables are nonrandom and the disturbances are Gaussian white noise, which are estimated by ordinary least squares, can be extended for more general models in which the disturbances are auto-correlated, heteroskedastic, not Gaussian, etc, or when some of the explanatory variables are stochastic. Recently, data mining methodology has increasing is influence mostly by its fast computational performance. It does not mean that data mining shall replace the proven effective techniques such as GLM. The advantages of both techniques can be combined (see e. g. [8]).

In present work, GLM is considered a useful technique to obtain a predictive model where its predictive power is discussed.

The outline of this article is developed in four sections. In Sect. 2 are given more details on the challenge proposed by EDP and on the data provided. Will be presented a summary about exploratory analysis of the data sets provided by EDP and continues with the study on the co-variables that may predict the hourly prices pattern. In Sect. 3 is presented a GLM approach. Finally in Sect. 4 conclusions are drawn and suggestions for future work are pointed.

#### 2 Exploratory Analysis

Taking into consideration the challenge proposed by EDP, the available data consists in the daily market electricity prices as a strip of prices (one for each hour of the day), all simultaneously observed once at a given time of each day:

$$Y_t = [y_{1t}, y_{2t}, \dots, y_{nt}], \quad n = 1, \dots, 24 \text{ (or } 23 \text{ or } 25), \quad t = 1, 2, \dots$$

In the present work we consider the disaggregated data, i.e., hourly prices and average day price, from January 2008 to June 2016, in a total 3102 observations of the 24 (23 or 25) hours of the day.

In a preliminary exploratory analysis, the data originally provided consisted in a transformed ratio (in what follows named rescaled data) and revealed serious problems which can be visualized in the boxplot diagrams (Fig. 1). The rescaled data has different distributions and a great number of anomalies per hour. These details are also confirmed in Table 1 where some descriptive statistics and tests are summarized.

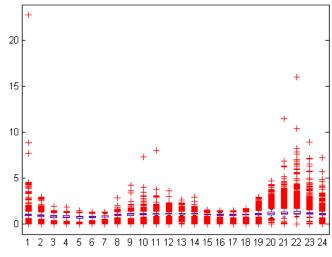


Fig. 1 Boxplot diagrams (rescaled data 01.01.2008-31.12.2016).

From Table 1, we can see the different patterns of dispersion (observe the standard deviation and inter-quartile range columns respectively). Also we confirm that the data does not have normal distribution when we check the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Jarcke and Bera normality tests.

Consequently, we consider a new data set with the real data. In a preliminary analysis, we have taken the period from 1<sup>st</sup> January 2008 to 31<sup>st</sup> December 2010, to exemplify some details and issues and to estimate the initial models considering several covariates of interest.

Since we have a huge dimensional data set, to compare graphically the rescaled data set and the real data set we restrict to the year 2010 the graphics in Fig. 2. We can conclude that rescaled data present a huge quantity of "uncommon" observations each hour of the day with exception of hours 4, 5 and 6. The rescaled data also presents different patterns of dispersion. By other hand, the real data displays unusual observations but in a fewer quantity than in rescaled data. The dispersion of real data presents more homogeneous patterns each hour.

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Hora	mean	trimmean	median	std	iqr	Hora	skewness	kurtosis	P-value (KS)	P-value (JB)
1.0000	1.0212	0.9908	0.9900	0.5327	0.1800	1.0000	24.5154	927.2962	0	0.0010
2,0000	0.8695	0.8872	0.8900	0.2487	0.2000	2.0000	-0.0747	12.7788	0	0.0010
3,0000	0.7531	0,7943	0.8100	0.2483	0.2100	3.0000	-1.4003	5.3185	0	0.0010
4,0000	0.7114	0.7541	0.7800	0.2523	0.2300	4.0000	-1.2967	4.6556	0	0.0010
5.0000	0.6802	0.7230	0.7500	0.2504	0.2400	5.0000	-1.2724	4.2777	0	0.0010
6.0000	0.7107	0.7573	0.7800	0.2369	0.1900	6.0000	-1.6251	5.3662	0	0.0010
7.0000	0.8111	0.8594	0.8700	0.2211	0.1600	7.0000	-2.2851	8.3236	0	0.0010
8.0000	0.9488	0.9773	0.9900	0.2067	0.1600	8.0000	-1.8786	12.7847	0	0.0010
9.0000	0.9911	1.0163	1.0300	0.2457	0.1900	9.0000	0.0254	24.4068	0	0.0010
10.0000	1.0582	1.0666	1.0700	0.2596	0.1500	10.0000	4.8500	122.5760	0	0.0010
11.0000	1.0975	1.0988	1.1000	0.2322	0.1200	11.0000	8.7122	269.0530	0	0.0010
12.0000	1.0823	1.0896	1.0900	0.1724	0.1100	12.0000	-0.2557	39.8107	0	0.0010
13.0000	1.0955	1.0998	1.1000	0.1633	0.1200	13.0000	-1.5259	24.3516	0	0.0010
14.0000	1.0709	1.0807	1.0800	0.1597	0.1100	14.0000	-1.8895	28.5563	0	0.0010
15.0000	1.0096	1.0282	1.0300	0.1575	0.1000	15.0000	-3.4210	21.3683	0	0.0010
16.0000	0.9690	0.9973	1.0000	0.1774	0.1300	16.0000	-2.9380	15.0985	0	0.0010
17.0000	0.9547	0.9872	1.0000	0.1913	0.1500	17.0000	-2.6087	12.1901	0	0.0010
18.0000	0.9987	1.0209	1.0300	0.1843	0.1400	18.0000	-2.4575	13.7446	0	0.0010
19.0000	1.0861	1.0715	1.0600	0.2388	0.1700	19.0000	0.8480	13.3137	0	0.0010
20.0000	1.1944	1.1275	1.1000	0.3818	0.2500	20.0000	3.1875	20.0743	0	0.0010
21.0000	1.2651	1.1717	1.1500	0.4885	0.2575	21.0000	6.6494	88.1468	0	0.0010
22.0000	1.3302	1.2027	1.1700	0.6446	0.2400	22.0000	8.4558	126.6330	0	0.0010
23.0000	1.2139	1.1298	1.1100	0.4657	0.2000	23.0000	7.0455	75.4992	0	0.0010
24.0000	1.0760	1.0336	1.0200	0.3265	0.1700	24.0000	6.5014	82.1613	0	0.0010

 Table 1
 Descriptive summary (rescaled data 01.01.2008-31.12.2016).
 Left: Mean, trimmean, media, standard deviation, inter-quartile range.
 Right: Skewness, kurtosis, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, and Jarcke and Bera normality tests.

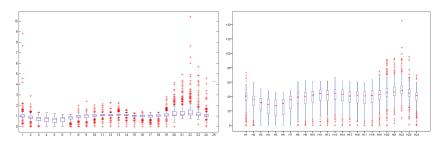


Fig. 2 Boxplot diagrams of rescaled (*left*) and real data (*right*). Time interval: 01.01.2010-31.01.2010.

Considering the real data, for example from January 2008, we found different patterns per day and per hour (see Fig. 3, left).

The same behavior was found in Fig. 3 (right), where, for example, we can see that 22 groups (hours) have mean ranks significantly different from group 1 (hour 1).

Electricity prices can be influenced by the present and past values of various exogenous factors, such as generation capacity, load profiles and meteorological conditions [14], in a preliminary stage we have selected defined and code the following candidates to co-variables: Day of the week  $-C_1 = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$  (Mon, ..., Sunday); Weekday/Saturday/Sunday  $-C_2 = 0, 1, 2$ ; Weekday/Weekend  $-C_3 = 0, 1$ ; Regular day/ holiday  $-C_4 = 0, 1$ ; Season  $-C_5 = 0, 1, 2, 3$  (Winter, Spring, Summer, Autumn); Month  $-C_6 = 0, \ldots, 11$  (Jan, ..., Dec); Summer/Winter Hour  $-C_7 = 0, 1$ .

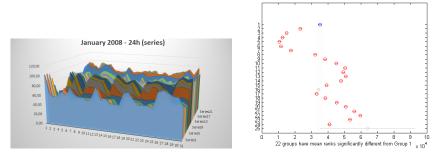


Fig. 3 Real data (01.01.2008-31.01.2008). Left: Different patterns per day. Right: Mean price per hour.

#### **3 GLM Approach**

In the classical linear model, a vector *X* with *p* explanatory variables  $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_p)$  can explain the variability of the variable of interest *Y* (response variable), where  $Y = Z\beta + \varepsilon$ . *Z* is a specification matrix with size  $n \times p$  (usually Z = X, considering an unitary vector in first column),  $\beta$  a parameter vector and  $\varepsilon$  a vector of random errors  $\varepsilon_i$ , independent and identical distributed to a reduced Gaussian.

The data are in the form  $(y_i, x_i)$ , i = 1, ..., n, as result of observation of (Y, X) *n* times. The response variable *Y* has expected value  $E[Y|Z] = \mu$ .

GLM is an extension of classical model where the response variable, following an exponential family distribution [13], do not need to be Gaussian. Another extension from the classical model is that the function which relates the expected value and the explanatory variables can be any differentiable function.  $Y_i$  has expected value  $E[Y_i|x_i] = \mu_i = b'(\theta_i), i = 1,...,n.$ 

It is also defined a differentiable and monotone link function g which relates the random component with the systematic component of response variable. The expected value  $\mu_i$  is related with the linear predictor  $\eta_i = z_i^T \beta_i$  using the relation

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_i = h(\boldsymbol{\eta}_i) = h(\boldsymbol{z}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_i), \qquad \boldsymbol{\eta}_i = g(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i) \tag{1}$$

where *h* is a differentiable function;  $g = h^{-1}$  is the link function;  $\beta$  is a vector of parameter with size *p* (the same size of the number of explanatory variables); *Z* is a specification vector with size *p*.

There are different link functions in GLM. When the random component of response variable has a Poisson distribution, the link function is logarithmic and the model is log-linear. In particular, when the linear predictor  $\eta_i = z_i^T \beta_i$  coincides withe the canonical parameter  $\theta_i$ ,  $\theta_i = \eta_i$ , which implies  $\theta_i = z_i^T \beta_i$ , the link function is denominated as canonical link function. Sometimes, the link function is unknown, for example, in [7] the link function is estimated simultaneously with the linear component of the semi-parametric model for electricity spot prices. A detailed description of GLM methodology can be found in several references such as [9], [13].

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Initially, to estimate the model as described before, we considered the time interval from 01/01/2008 to 31/12/2010. The first approach using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 22) was performed with difficulty due the high dimensionality of data. A question that arose was: "Can we reduce the number of components of  $Y_t$ ?", e.g., are there significant differences between  $Y_i$  and  $Y_j$ , for  $i \neq j$ ? To solve partially such issue, we try to reduce the 24 hours of a day to fewer reference hours. First of all, an analysis of data plot per hour was performed. The graphical representation of data (see Fig. 3) shows similar behavior in some distinct. Identified such similar hours we merge them into an unique interval of similarity. In this way the dimension of data can be reduced, by taking the mean or median or other measure of response variable.

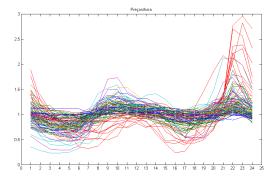


Fig. 4 Data representation (time interval from 01/01/2008 to 31/12/2010).

We have selected and defined some time intervals which conduced to the best model performance. In this way, it was reduced the dimension defining the following time intervals: aurora, lunch time and dinner time. Aurora corresponds to the hours 3, 4 and 5 respectively. Lunch time merges the hours 11, 12, 13 and 14. Dinner time takes into account hours 17, 18 and 19. When the data is graphically overlapped for each hour in the defined time intervals (see Fig. 5) no significant differences were found.

We studied some possible explanatory variables which can contribute to the explication of energy price per hour. In a preliminary stage of the study, using the initial explanatory variables proposed in Sect. 2, an analysis of variance with second order interaction was performed. The best candidates to explanatory variables of a GLM model were chosen:  $C_1$ ,  $C_4$ ,  $C_5$ ,  $C_6$ ,  $C_7$ .

It was also considered the fare defined by EDP as possible explanatory variable but it was not significant.

The best models were obtained for log or square root link function. The diagnostic analysis and selection of the order of the models was done but we dont reproduce with detail such work. The significant explanatory variables were  $C_4$ ,  $C_6$ ,  $C_7$ ,  $H_2$ ,

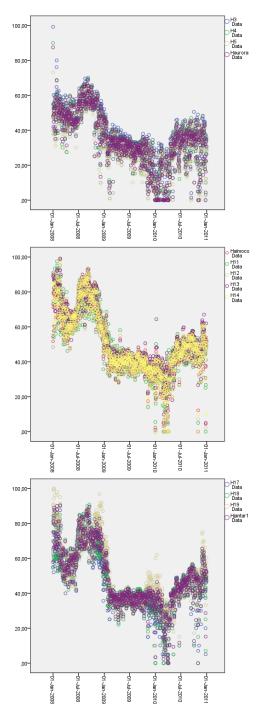


Fig. 5 Overlapped data: Aurora time (top), lunch time (center) and dinner time (bottom). Time interval from 01/01/2008 to 31/12/2010.

 $H_7$ ,  $H_8$ ,  $H_{16}$ ,  $H_{20}$ ,  $H_{22}$ ,  $H_{23}$ ,  $H_{24}$  and lunch time (link fuction: square root). When we consider the log as link function, the best explanatory variables were  $C_4$ ,  $C_6$ ,  $C_7$ ,  $H_2$ ,  $H_7$ ,  $H_8$ ,  $H_{16}$ ,  $H_{20}$ ,  $H_{22}$ ,  $H_{23}$ ,  $H_{24}$ . Notice that other transformations should be considered taking into account the time series nature of the data. Eventually, we could get models with better.

Considering the obtained results as indicators, we can conclude that some of the explanatory variables proposed initially were not relevant for dependent variable, such as, EDP fares, Portuguese holidays (maybe the Iberian holidays can have some relevance, and not just the Portuguese ones). Also, some periods of time can be drop off as relevant explanatory variables, such as dinner time or some others. The season, month or winter/summer time period revealed significant explanatory variables in the different estimated models.

Using this preliminary model estimation as starting point, we repeated all estimation process considering a more recent sample so we could compare with the results published in [1]. The GLM model was estimated using hourly prices from 10/03/2014 to 29/5/2016. The remaining sample, from 30/05/2014 to 28/06/2016, was used to evaluate the forecasting performance of the selected model. To asses the in-sample prediction quality of the model, we use the Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) and the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE).

Following the preliminary model estimation, in models formulation, we considered the response variable with a Gamma distribution and selected the link function with options: 1-log, 2- square root, 3- identity. We have selected as preliminaries explanatory variables the same used earlier also considered in [1], where its done a VAR approach. There were estimated of model parameters and analyzed the suitability measures of estimates. The selection and validation of models such as selection of variables, diagnostics, residual analysis and interpretation was concluded. All models obtained good significant results in Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square test, Pearson Chi-Square test, etc. The best models in the sense of performance (estimation and forecasting) are the models with the identity link function. The model A (with higher dimensionality), where each hour of the day is considered, has lower performance in sense of residual analysis and forecasting than model B, where we consider the aurora time, lunch time and dinner time and the remaining hours (lower dimensionality).

When we analyze the graphics in Fig. 6, we can conclude that model B presents better performance estimation than model A.

From Table 2 we can analyze the quality of prediction in-sample using the MAPE and RMSE. We can conclude that the forecasting quality is promising. In both models (A and B) the prediction performance measures are close, but model B gets better results. Notice that the RMSE values are in accordance with the results obtained using the VAR approach [1].

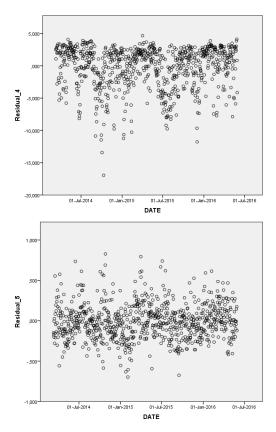


Fig. 6 Residuals representation ( $\times 0.01$ ). Left: Model A. Right: Model B. Estimation period: 10/03/2014 to 29/5/2016.

	MAPE (%)	RMSE		MAPE (%)	RMSE		MAPE (%)	RMSE
30/05/2016	7.86	3.45	09/06/2016	7.62	3.85	19/06/2016	39.91	12.44
31/05/2016	5.75	2.61	10/06/2016	9.52	4.94	20/06/2016	7.24	4.03
01/06/2016	8.41	3.58	11/06/2016	14.66	7.08	21/06/2016	8.41	4.24
02/06/2016	8.16	3.76	12/06/2016	14.20	6.94	22/06/2016	9.28	4.09
03/06/2016	4.70	2.52	13/06/2016	8.38	3.83	23/06/2016	11.21	4.88
04/06/2016	3.48	1.79	14/06/2016	15.14	6.43	24/06/2016	10.20	4.43
05/06/2016	11.79	5.08	15/06/2016	15.94	6.19	25/06/2016	29.36	11.58
06/06/2016	4.04	2.07	16/06/2016	26.21	9.55	26/06/2016	55.75	14.17
07/06/2016	8.44	4.73	17/06/2016	20.42	10.47	27/06/2016	16.55	6.44
08/06/2016	4.75	2.91	18/06/2016	15.69	7.12	28/06/2016	18.41	10.18

 Table 2
 MAPE and RMSE. Forecasting period: 30/05/2016 to 28/06/2016. Model B.

#### **4** Conclusions and recommendations

The challenge proposed by EDP consisted in simulating electricity prices not only for risk measures purposes but also for scenario analysis in terms of pricing and strategy. Data concerning hourly electricity prices from 2008 to 2016 were provided by EDP.

The data were explored using different statistical software, namely IBM SPSS Statistics, Matlab and R Statistical Software. In this work a GLM approach was considered. The different link functions and the identity case were performed. The season of the year, month or winter/summer period revealed significant explanatory variables in the different estimated models. We got better results when is considered the reduced form of day hours (aurora time, lunch time, dinner time). From Table 2 we can analyze the quality of prediction in-sample by MAPE and RMSE. We can conclude that the forecasting quality is promising. When compared with multivariate approach using the VAR approach [1] for the same period (from 30/05/2016 to 28/06/2016) the RMSE values are in accordance with the RMSE computed using the VAR method. Although the forecast do not exactly replicate the real price the results are quite promising. The introduction of other co-variables, such as oil price, gas price, wind energy production, other meteorological variables, would certainly improve the model and the forecast. The GLM approach still needs to be improved in the sense of trying other link functions or some differentiation of data. Others methods should be explored. Longitudinal modeling is an approach which have not yet been addressed in Electricity Price Forecasting and deserves our future attention. Univariate time series is other possible future work.

EPF literature has mainly concerned on models that use information at daily level, however this particularly problem proposed is interested in forecasting intraday prices using hourly data (disaggregated data), maybe it is necessary to consider models that explore the complex dependence structure of the multivariate price series. The problem of modeling distributional properties of energy prices can be classified in three main classes: reduced form models, forward price models and hybrid price models [5]. Temporal Distribution Extrapolation is another possible idea for our future work.

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