

ETC3550 Applied forecasting for business and economics

Ch3. The forecasters' toolbox OTexts.org/fpp3/

Outline

- 1 A tidy forecasting workflow
- 2 Some simple forecasting methods
- 3 The workflow in action
- 4 Transformations
- 5 Distributional forecasts

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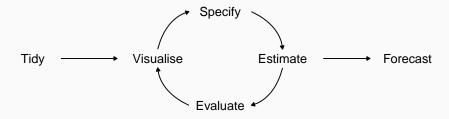
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A tidy forecasting workflow

The process of producing forecasts can be split up into a few fundamental steps.

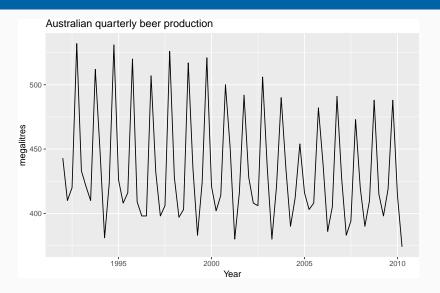
- Preparing data
- Data visualisation
- Specifying a model
- Model estimation
- 5 Accuracy & performance evaluation
- Producing forecasts

A tidy forecasting workflow

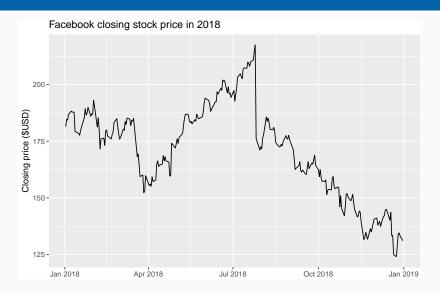


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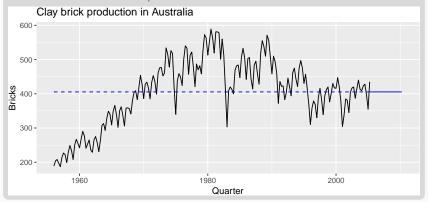






MEAN(y): Average method

- Forecast of all future values is equal to mean of historical data $\{y_1, \dots, y_T\}$.
- Forecasts: $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = \bar{y} = (y_1 + \cdots + y_T)/T$

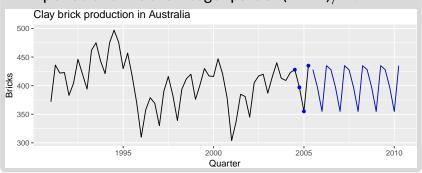


NAIVE(y): Naïve method Forecasts equal to last observed value. Forecasts: $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T$. Consequence of efficient market hypothesis. Clay brick production in Australia 500 -450 -350 -300 -2000 2005 1995 2010

Quarter

SNAIVE(y ~ lag(m)): Seasonal naïve method

- Forecasts equal to last value from same season.
- Forecasts: $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_{T+h-m(k+1)}$, where m = seasonal period and k is the integer part of (h-1)/m.

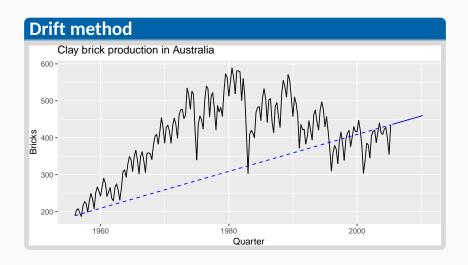


RW(y ~ drift()): Drift method

- Forecasts equal to last value plus average change.
- **■** Forecasts:

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T + \frac{h}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^{T} (y_t - y_{t-1})$$
$$= y_T + \frac{h}{T-1} (y_T - y_1).$$

Equivalent to extrapolating a line drawn between first and last observations.

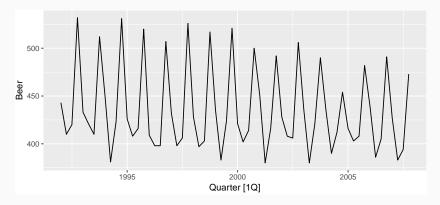


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Data preparation and visualisation

```
# Set training data from 1992 to 2007
train <- aus_production %>%
    filter(between(year(Quarter), 1992, 2007))
train %>% autoplot(Beer)
```



Model estimation

The model() function trains models to data.

```
# Fit the models
beer_fit <- train %>%
  model(
    Mean = MEAN(Beer),
    Naïve = NAIVE(Beer),
    Seasonal naïve = SNAIVE(Beer),
    Drift = RW(Beer ~ drift())
)
```

Model estimation

```
## # A mable: 1 x 4
## Mean Naïve Seasonal naïve Drift
## <model> <model> <model>
```

1 <MEAN, μ =435.375> <NAIVE> <SNAIVE> <RW w/ drift>

A mable is a model table, each cell corresponds to a fitted model.

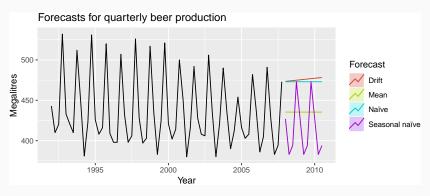
Producing forecasts

```
beer_fc <- beer_fit %>%
forecast(h = 11)
```

A fable is a forecast table with point forecasts and distributions.

Visualising forecasts

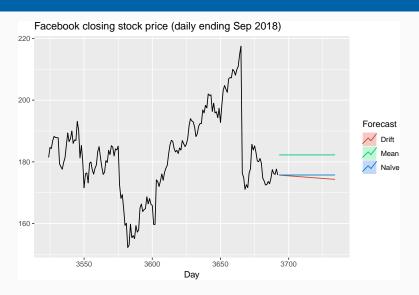
```
beer_fc %>%
  autoplot(train, level = NULL) +
  ggtitle("Forecasts for quarterly beer production") +
  xlab("Year") + ylab("Megalitres") +
  guides(colour=guide_legend(title="Forecast"))
```



Facebook closing stock price

```
# Extract training data
fb_stock <- gafa_stock %>%
  mutate(trading_day = row_number()) %>%
  update_tsibble(index=trading_day, regular=TRUE) %>%
  filter(Symbol == "FB",
         between(Date, ymd("2018-01-01"), ymd("2018-09-01")))
# Specify, estimate and forecast
fb_stock %>%
  model(
    Mean = MEAN(Close),
   Naïve = NAIVE(Close),
   Drift = RW(Close ~ drift())
  ) %>%
  forecast(h=42) %>%
  autoplot(fb_stock, level = NULL) +
  ggtitle("Facebook closing stock price (daily ending Sep 2018)") +
  xlab("Day") + ylab("") +
  guides(colour=guide_legend(title="Forecast"))
```

Facebook closing stock price



Your turn

- Produce forecasts from the appropriate method for Amazon closing price (gafa_stock) and Australian takeaway food turnover (aus_retail).
- Plot the results using autoplot().

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If the data show different variation at different levels of the series, then a transformation can be useful.

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Denote original observations as y_1, \ldots, y_n and transformed observations as w_1, \ldots, w_n .

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Mathematical transformations for stabilizing variation

Square root
$$w_t = \sqrt{y_t}$$

Cube root
$$w_t = \sqrt[3]{y_t}$$
 Increasing

Logarithm
$$w_t = \log(y_t)$$
 strength

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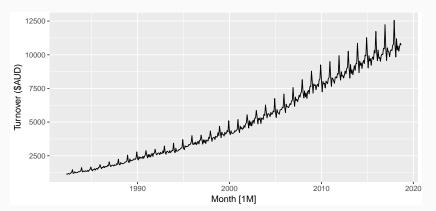
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Mathematical transformations for stabilizing variation

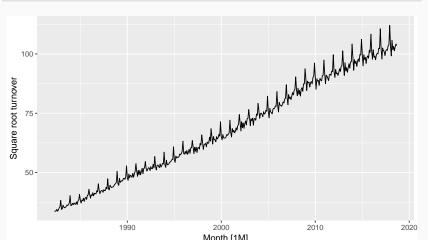
Square root
$$w_t = \sqrt{y_t}$$
 \downarrow
Cube root $w_t = \sqrt[3]{y_t}$ Increasing
Logarithm $w_t = \log(y_t)$ strength

Logarithms, in particular, are useful because they are more interpretable: changes in a log value are **relative (percent) changes on the original scale**.

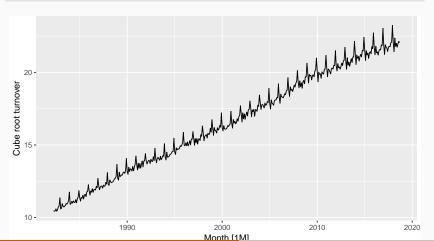
```
food <- aus_retail %>%
  filter(Industry == "Food retailing") %>%
  summarise(Turnover = sum(Turnover))
```



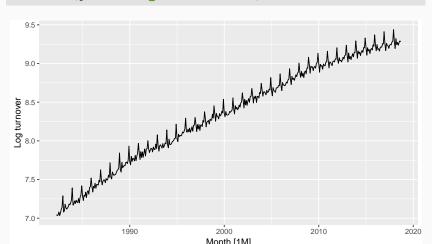
```
food %>% autoplot(sqrt(Turnover)) +
  labs(y = "Square root turnover")
```



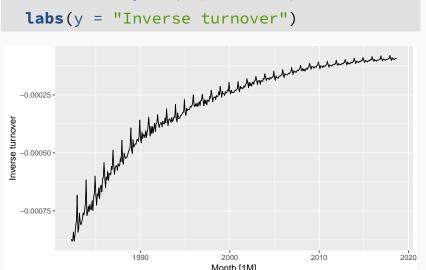
```
food %>% autoplot(Turnover^(1/3)) +
  labs(y = "Cube root turnover")
```



```
food %>% autoplot(log(Turnover)) +
  labs(y = "Log turnover")
```



```
food %>% autoplot(-1/Turnover) +
 labs(y = "Inverse turnover")
```



Box-Cox transformations

Each of these transformations is close to a member of the family of **Box-Cox transformations**:

$$w_t = \begin{cases} \log(y_t), & \lambda = 0; \\ (y_t^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Box-Cox transformations

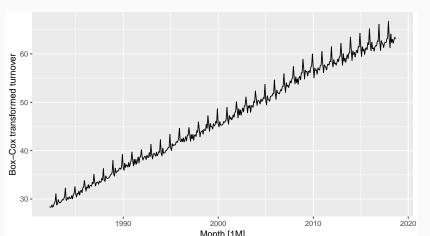
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- λ = 1: (No substantive transformation)
- $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$: (Square root plus linear transformation)
- λ = 0: (Natural logarithm)
- $\lambda = -1$: (Inverse plus 1)

Box-Cox transformations

```
food %>% autoplot(box_cox(Turnover, 1/3)) +
labs(y = "Box-Cox transformed turnover")
```



- y_t^{λ} for λ close to zero behaves like logs.
- If some $y_t = 0$, then must have $\lambda > 0$
- if some $y_t < 0$, no power transformation is possible unless all y_t adjusted by adding a constant to all values.
- Simple values of λ are easier to explain.
- Results are relatively insensitive to λ .
- Often no transformation (λ = 1) needed.
- Transformation can have very large effect on PI.
- Choosing λ = 0 is a simple way to force forecasts to be positive

```
food %>%
features(Turnover, features = guerrero)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## lambda_guerrero
## <dbl>
## 1 0.00762
```

```
food %>%
features(Turnover, features = guerrero)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## lambda_guerrero
## <dbl>
## 1 0.00762
```

- This attempts to balance the seasonal fluctuations and random variation across the series.
- Always check the results.
- lacksquare A low value of λ can give extremely large prediction intervals.

Back-transformation

We must reverse the transformation (or back-transform) to obtain forecasts on the original scale. The reverse Box-Cox transformations are given by

$$y_t = \begin{cases} \exp(w_t), & \lambda = 0; \\ (\lambda W_t + 1)^{1/\lambda}, & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Modelling with transformations

Transformations used in the left of the formula will be automatically back-transformed. To model log-transformed food retailing turnover, you could use:

```
fit <- food %>%
  model(SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~ lag("year")))

## # A mable: 1 x 1

## SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~ lag("year"))

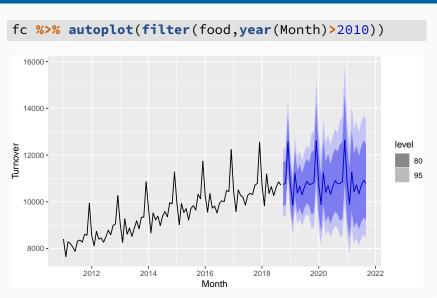
## <model>
## 1 <SNAIVE>
```

Forecasting with transformations

```
fc <- fit %>%
forecast(h = "3 years")
```

```
## # A fable: 36 x 4 [1M]
## # Key: .model [1]
    .model
                                Month Turnover .distribution
##
## <chr>
                                <mth>
                                       <dbl> <dist>
## 1 "SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~
                            2018 Oct
                                        10736. t(N(9.3, 0.004~
## 2 "SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~
                            2018 Nov
                                        10806. t(N(9.3, 0.004~
## 3 "SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~ 2018 Dec
                                        12581. t(N(9.4, 0.004~
## 4 "SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~ 2019 Jan
                                        10738. t(N(9.3, 0.004~
## 5 "SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~ 2019 Feb
                                         9856. t(N(9.2, 0.004~
## 6 "SNAIVE(log(Turnover) ~ 2019 Mar
                                        11215. t(N(9.3, 0.004~
                                                              38
## # ... with 30 more rows
```

Forecasting with transformations



Your turn

Find a transformation that works for the Australian gas production (aus_production).

- Back-transformed point forecasts are medians.
- Back-transformed PI have the correct coverage.

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- Back-transformed PI have the correct coverage.

Back-transformed means

Let X be have mean μ and variance σ^2 .

Let f(x) be back-transformation function, and Y = f(X).

Taylor series expansion about μ :

$$f(X) = f(\mu) + (X - \mu)f'(\mu) + \frac{1}{2}(X - \mu)^2 f''(\mu).$$

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Taylor series expansion about μ :

$$f(X) = f(\mu) + (X - \mu)f'(\mu) + \frac{1}{2}(X - \mu)^2 f''(\mu).$$

$$E[Y] = E[f(X)] = f(\mu) + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 f''(\mu)$$

Box-Cox back-transformation:

$$y_t = \begin{cases} \exp(w_t) & \lambda = 0; \\ (\lambda W_t + 1)^{1/\lambda} & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^x & \lambda = 0; \\ (\lambda x + 1)^{1/\lambda} & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

$$f''(x) = \begin{cases} e^x & \lambda = 0; \\ (1 - \lambda)(\lambda x + 1)^{1/\lambda - 2} & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Box-Cox back-transformation:

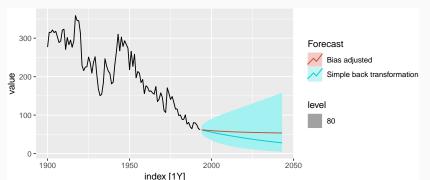
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$$f''(x) = \begin{cases} e^x & \lambda = 0; \\ (1 - \lambda)(\lambda x + 1)^{1/\lambda - 2} & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

$$\mathsf{E}[\mathsf{Y}] = \begin{cases} e^{\mu} \left[1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right] & \lambda = 0; \\ (\lambda \mu + 1)^{1/\lambda} \left[1 + \frac{\sigma^2 (1 - \lambda)}{2(\lambda \mu + 1)^2} \right] & \lambda \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

```
eggs <- as_tsibble(fma::eggs)
fit <- eggs %>% model(RW(log(value) ~ drift()))
fc <- fit %>% forecast(h=50)
fc_biased <- fit %>% forecast(h=50, bias_adjust = FALSE)
eggs %>% autoplot(value) +
   autolayer(fc_biased, series="Simple back transformation", level=80) +
   autolayer(fc, series="Bias adjusted", level=NULL) +
   guides(colour=guide_legend(title="Forecast"))
```



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Forecast distributions

- A forecast $\hat{y}_{T+h|T}$ is (usually) the mean of the conditional distribution $y_{T+h} \mid y_1, \dots, y_T$.
- Most time series models produce normally distributed forecasts.
- The forecast distribution describes the probability of observing any future value.

Forecast distributions

Assuming residuals are normal, uncorrelated, sd = $\hat{\sigma}$:

Mean:
$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \sim N(\bar{y}, (1+1/T)\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

Naïve:
$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \sim N(\bar{y}, h\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

Seasonal naïve:
$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \sim N(y_{T+h-m(k+1)}, (k+1)\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

Drift:
$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \sim N(y_T + \frac{h}{T-1}(y_T - y_1), h^{\frac{T+h}{T}}\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

where k is the integer part of (h-1)/m.

Note that when h = 1 and T is large, these all give the same approximate forecast variance: $\hat{\sigma}^2$.

- A prediction interval gives a region within which we expect y_{T+h} to lie with a specified probability.
- Assuming forecast errors are normally distributed, then a 95% PI is

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathsf{T+h}|\mathsf{T}} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_{\mathsf{h}}$$

where $\hat{\sigma}_h$ is the st dev of the *h*-step distribution.

■ When h = 1, $\hat{\sigma}_h$ can be estimated from the residuals.

```
fit <- fb_stock %>% model(NAIVE(Close))
forecast(fit)
## # A fable: 2 x 5 [1]
## # Key: Symbol, .model [1]
## Symbol .model trading_day Close .distribution
## <fct> <chr> <int> <dbl> <dist>
          NAIVE(Cl~
                          3693 176. N(176, 21)
## 1 FB
                          3694 176. N(176, 42)
## 2 FB
          NAIVE(Cl~
```

```
res_sd <- sqrt(mean(augment(fit)$.resid^2, na.rm = TRUE))</pre>
last(fb_stock\$Close) + 1.96 * res_sd * c(-1,1)
## [1] 166.7196 184.7404
forecast(fit, h = 1) %>%
 transmute(interval = hilo(.distribution, level = 95))
## # A tsibble: 1 x 4 [?]
## # Key: Symbol, .model [1]
## Symbol .model trading_day
                                               interval
## <fct> <chr> <int>
                                                 <hilo>
## 1 FB NAIVE(Close) 3693 [166.7198, 184.7402]95
```

- Point forecasts are often useless without a measure of uncertainty (such as prediction intervals).
- Prediction intervals require a stochastic model (with random errors, etc).
- Multi-step forecasts for time series require a more sophisticated approach (with PI getting wider as the forecast horizon increases).

- Computed automatically from the forecast distribution.
- Use level argument to control coverage.
- Check residual assumptions before believing them (we will see this next class).
- Usually too narrow due to unaccounted uncertainty.