



# Forecasting: principles and practice

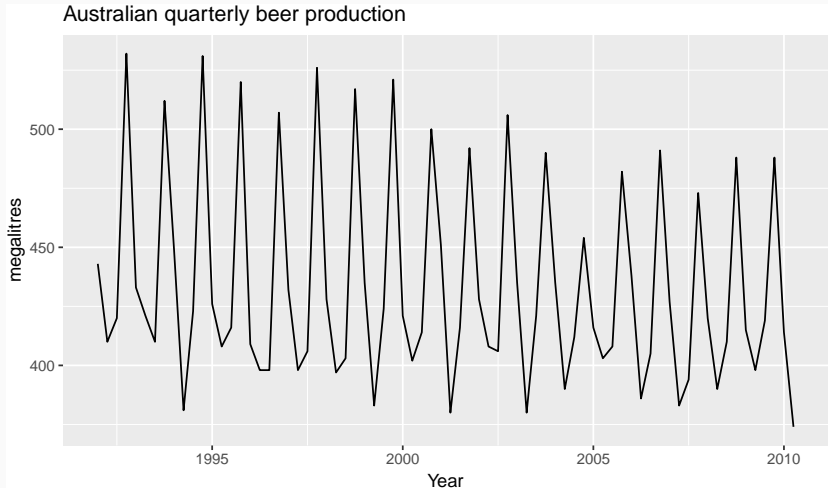
Rob J Hyndman

1.3 Forecast evaluation

# Outline

- 1** Benchmark methods
- 2 Forecasting residuals
- 3 Lab session 4
- 4 Evaluating forecast accuracy
- 5 Lab session 5
- 6 Time series cross-validation
- 7 Lab session 6
- 8 Prediction intervals

# Some simple forecasting methods



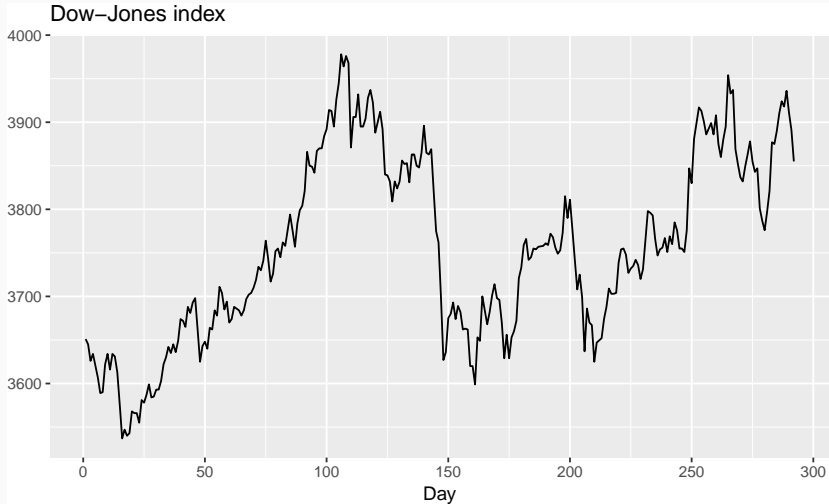
How would you forecast these data?

# Some simple forecasting methods



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## Average method

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

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## Naïve method

- Forecasts equal to last observed value.
- Forecasts:  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T$ .
- Consequence of efficient market hypothesis.

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- Forecasts:  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T$ .
- Consequence of efficient market hypothesis.

## Seasonal naïve method

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



# Some simple forecasting methods

## Drift method

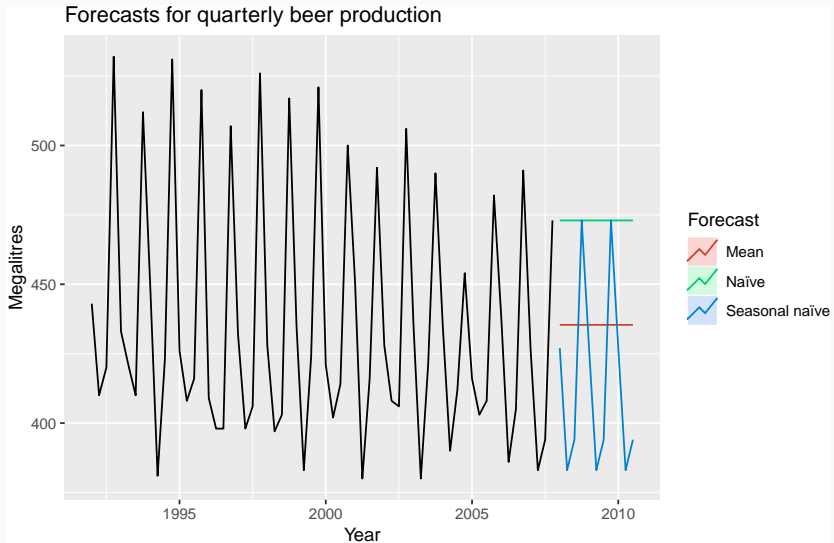
- Forecasts equal to last value plus average change.

- Forecasts:

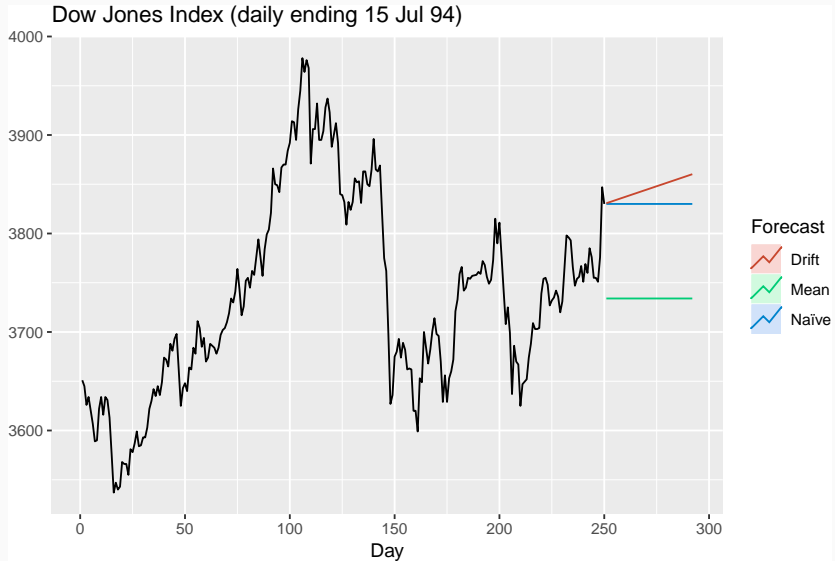
$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}_{T+h|T} &= y_T + \frac{h}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^T (y_t - y_{t-1}) \\ &= y_T + \frac{h}{T-1} (y_T - y_1).\end{aligned}$$

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

# Some simple forecasting methods



# Some simple forecasting methods



# Some simple forecasting methods

- Mean: `meanf(y, h=20)`
- Naïve: `naive(y, h=20)`
- Seasonal naïve: `snaive(y, h=20)`
- Drift: `rwf(y, drift=TRUE, h=20)`

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# Fitted values

- $\hat{y}_{t|t-1}$  is the forecast of  $y_t$  based on observations  $y_1, \dots, y_t$ .
- We call these “fitted values”.
- Sometimes drop the subscript:  $\hat{y}_t \equiv \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$ .
- Often not true forecasts since parameters are estimated on all data.

## For example:

- $\hat{y}_t = \bar{y}$  for average method.
- $\hat{y}_t = y_{t-1} + (y_T - y_1)/(T - 1)$  for drift method.

# Forecasting residuals

**Residuals in forecasting:** difference between observed value and its fitted value:  $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$ .

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## Assumptions

- 1  $\{e_t\}$  uncorrelated. If they aren't, then information left in residuals that should be used in computing forecasts.
- 2  $\{e_t\}$  have mean zero. If they don't, then forecasts are biased.



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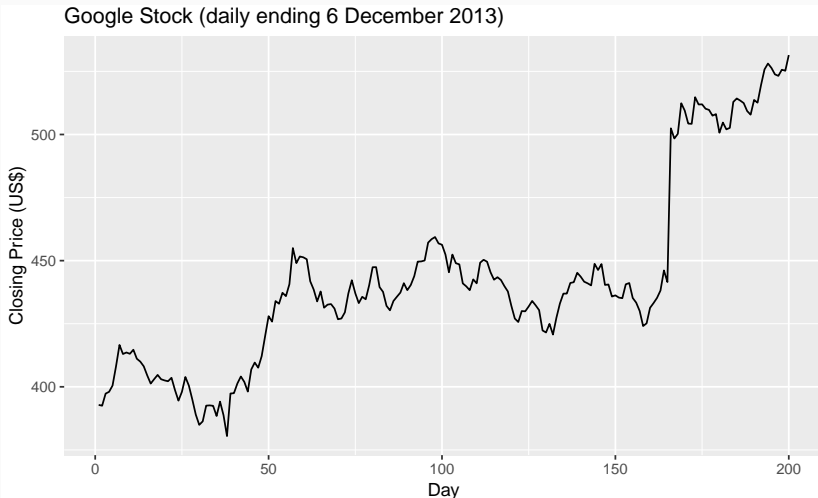
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## Useful properties (for prediction intervals)

- 3  $\{e_t\}$  have constant variance.
- 4  $\{e_t\}$  are normally distributed.

# Example: Google stock price

```
autoplot(goog200) +  
  xlab("Day") + ylab("Closing Price (US$)") +  
  ggtitle("Google Stock (daily ending 6 December 2013)")
```



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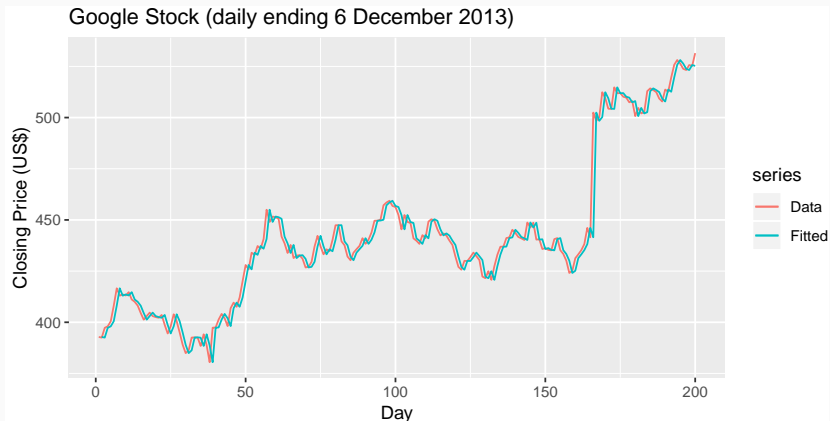
$$\hat{y}_{t|t-1} = y_{t-1}$$

$$e_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$

Note:  $e_t$  are one-step-forecast residuals

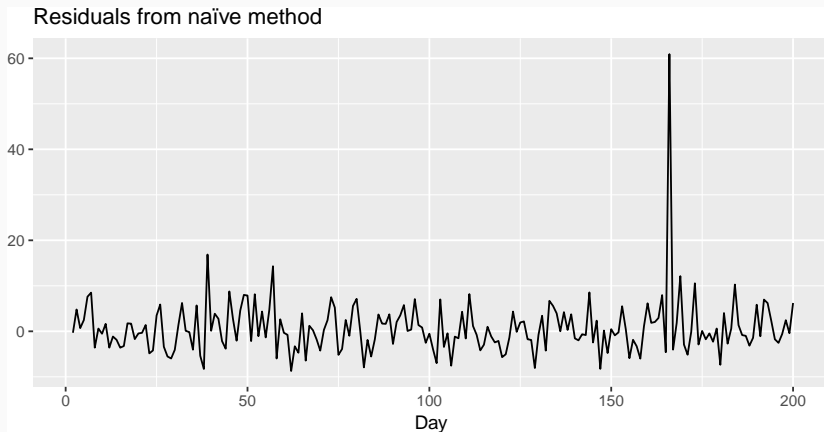
# Example: Google stock price

```
fits <- fitted(naive(goog200))  
autoplot(goog200, series="Data") +  
  autolayer(fits, series="Fitted") +  
  xlab("Day") + ylab("Closing Price (US$)") +  
  ggtitle("Google Stock (daily ending 6 December 2013)")
```



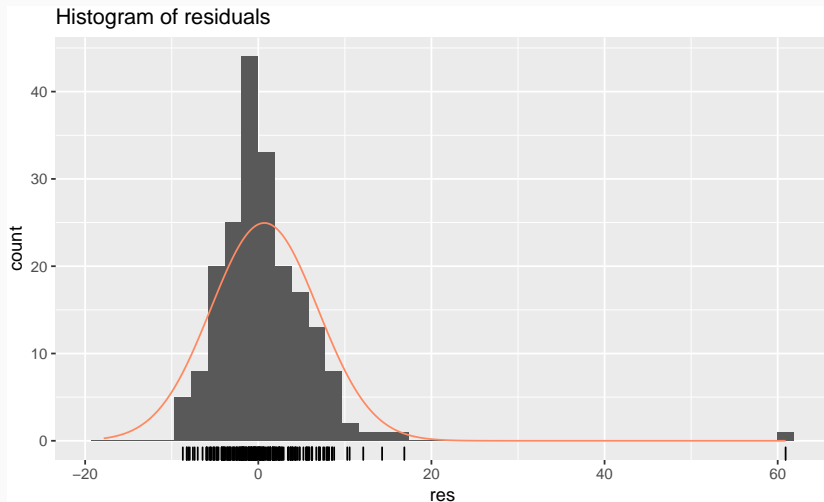
# Example: Google stock price

```
res <- residuals(naive(goog200))  
autoplot(res) + xlab("Day") + ylab("") +  
  ggtitle("Residuals from naïve method")
```



# Example: Google stock price

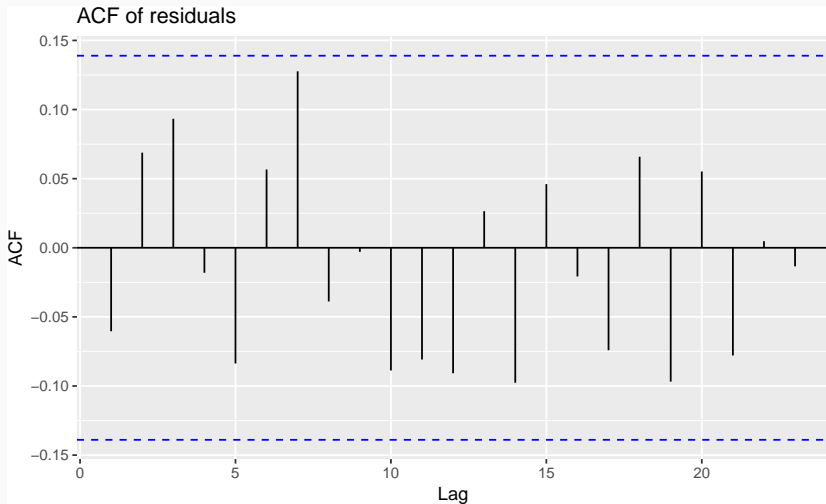
```
gghistogram(res, add.normal=TRUE) +  
  ggtitle("Histogram of residuals")
```





# Example: Google stock price

```
ggAcf(res) + ggtitle("ACF of residuals")
```

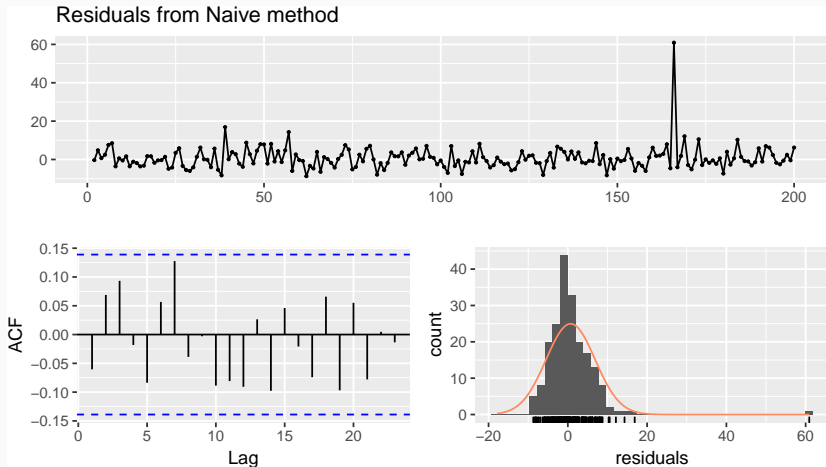


# ACF of residuals

- We assume that the residuals are white noise (uncorrelated, mean zero, constant variance). If they aren't, then there is information left in the residuals that should be used in computing forecasts.
- So a standard residual diagnostic is to check the ACF of the residuals of a forecasting method.
- We *expect* these to look like white noise.

# checkresiduals function

```
checkresiduals(naive(goog200))
```



# Portmanteau tests

Test whether set of  $r_k$  values are significantly different from a zero set.

## Ljung-Box test

$$Q^* = T(T+2) \sum_{k=1}^h (T-k)^{-1} r_k^2$$

where  $h$  is max lag being considered and  $T$  is number of observations.

- My preferences:  $h = 10$  for non-seasonal data,  $h = 2m$  for seasonal data.
- If each  $r_k$  close to zero,  $Q$  will be **small**.
- p-value measures probability of results if residuals are WN.

# checkresiduals function

```
checkresiduals(naive(goog200))
```

```
##
```

```
## Ljung-Box test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: Residuals from Naive method
```

```
## Q* = 11, df = 10, p-value = 0.4
```

```
## Model df: 0. Total lags used: 10
```

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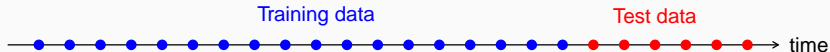
# Lab Session 4

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# Training and test sets



- A model which fits the training data well will not necessarily forecast well.
- A perfect fit can always be obtained by using a model with enough parameters.
- Over-fitting a model to data is just as bad as failing to identify a systematic pattern in the data.
- The test set must not be used for *any* aspect of model development or calculation of forecasts.
- Forecast accuracy is based only on the test set.

# Forecast errors

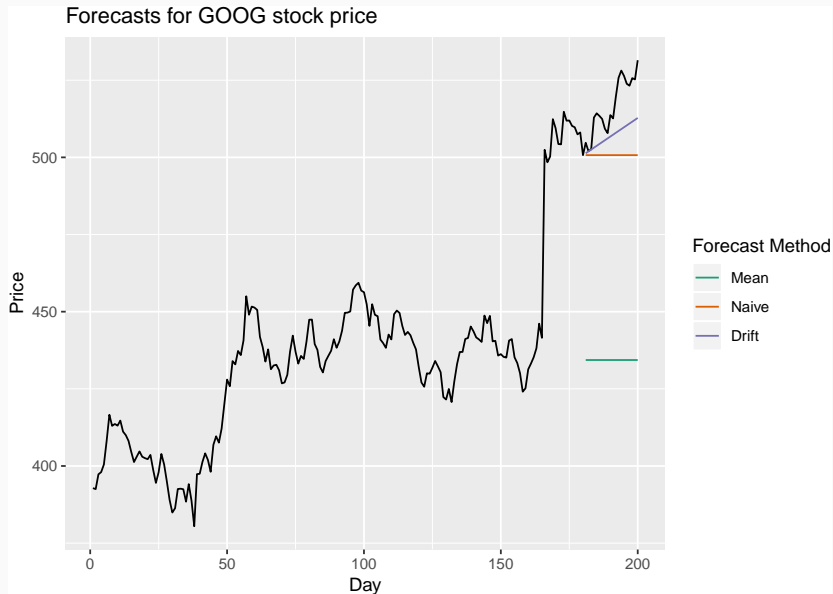
Forecast “error”: the difference between an observed value and its forecast.

$$e_{T+h} = y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T},$$

where the training data is given by  $\{y_1, \dots, y_T\}$

- Unlike residuals, forecast errors on the test set involve multi-step forecasts.
- These are *true* forecast errors as the test data is not used in computing  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T}$ .

# Measures of forecast accuracy



# Measures of forecast accuracy

$y_{T+h}$  =  $(T + h)$ th observation,  $h = 1, \dots, H$

$\hat{y}_{T+h|T}$  = its forecast based on data up to time  $T$ .

$e_{T+h} = y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}$

MAE =  $\text{mean}(|e_{T+h}|)$

MSE =  $\text{mean}(e_{T+h}^2)$

RMSE =  $\sqrt{\text{mean}(e_{T+h}^2)}$

MAPE =  $100\text{mean}(|e_{T+h}|/|y_{T+h}|)$

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- MAE, MSE, RMSE are all scale dependent.
- MAPE is scale independent but is only sensible if  $y_t \gg 0$  for all  $t$ , and  $y$  has a natural zero.

# Measures of forecast accuracy

## Mean Absolute Scaled Error

$$\text{MASE} = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T |y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}| / Q$$

where  $Q$  is a stable measure of the scale of the time series  $\{y_t\}$ .

Proposed by Hyndman and Koehler (IJF, 2006).

For non-seasonal time series,

$$Q = (T - 1)^{-1} \sum_{t=2}^T |y_t - y_{t-1}|$$

works well. Then MASE is equivalent to MAE relative to a naïve method.

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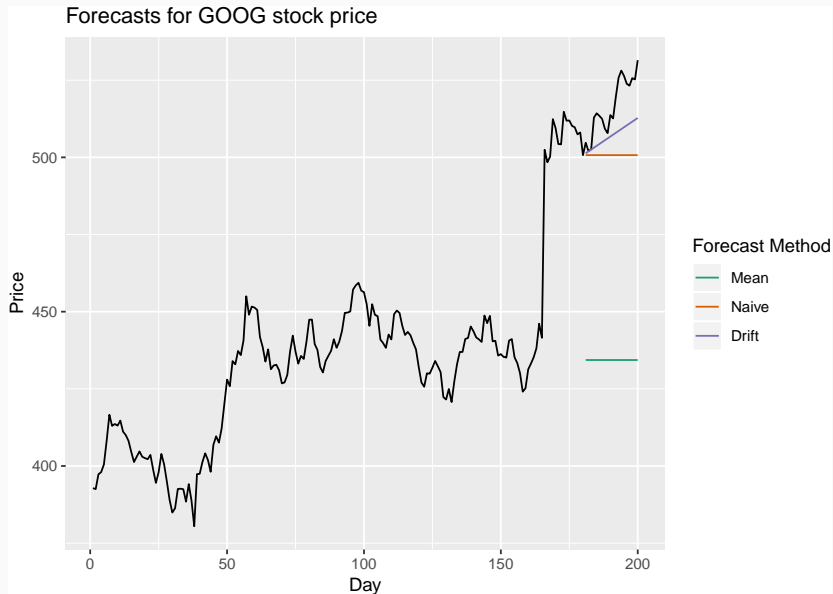
Proposed by Hyndman and Koehler (IJF, 2006).

For seasonal time series,

$$Q = (T - m)^{-1} \sum_{t=m+1}^T |y_t - y_{t-m}|$$

works well. Then MASE is equivalent to MAE relative to a seasonal naïve method.

# Measures of forecast accuracy





# Measures of forecast accuracy

```
googtrain <- window(goog200, start=1992, end=c(2007,4))  
googfc1 <- meanf(googtrain, h=10)  
googfc2 <- rwf(googtrain, h=10)  
googfc3 <- snaive(googtrain, h=10)  
accuracy(googfc1, goog200)  
accuracy(googfc2, goog200)  
accuracy(googfc3, goog200)
```

	RMSE	MAE	MAPE	MASE
Mean method	82.89	82.43	15.93	21.61
Naïve method	18.29	16.04	3.08	4.21
Drift method	11.34	9.71	1.86	2.55

## Poll: true or false?

- 1 Good forecast methods should have normally distributed residuals.
- 2 A model with small residuals will give good forecasts.
- 3 The best measure of forecast accuracy is MAPE.
- 4 If your model doesn't forecast well, you should make it more complicated.
- 5 Always choose the model with the best forecast accuracy as measured on the test set.

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# Lab Session 5

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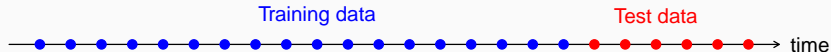
# Time series cross-validation

## Traditional evaluation

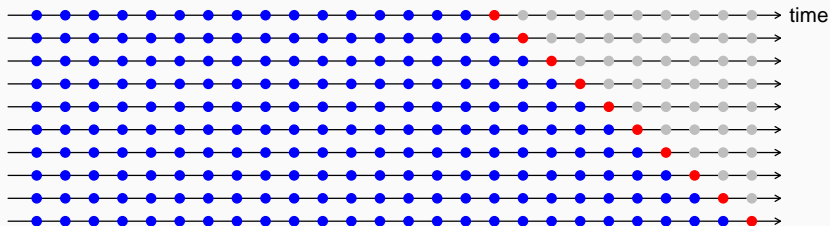


# Time series cross-validation

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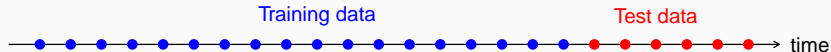


## Time series cross-validation

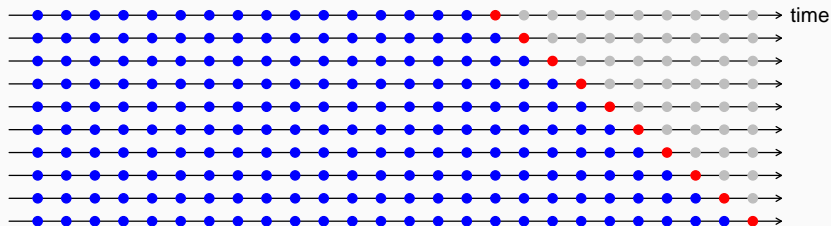


# Time series cross-validation

## Traditional evaluation



## Time series cross-validation



- Forecast accuracy averaged over test sets.
- Also known as “evaluation on a rolling forecasting origin”



## tsCV function:

```
e <- tsCV(goog200, rwf, drift=TRUE, h=1)
sqrt(mean(e^2, na.rm=TRUE))
```

```
## [1] 6.233
```

```
sqrt(mean(residuals(rwf(goog200, drift=TRUE))^2,
          na.rm=TRUE))
```

```
## [1] 6.169
```

A good way to choose the best forecasting model is to find the model with the smallest RMSE computed using time series cross-validation.

# Pipe function

Ugly code:

```
e <- tsCV(goog200, rwf, drift=TRUE, h=1)
sqrt(mean(e^2, na.rm=TRUE))
sqrt(mean(residuals(rwf(goog200, drift=TRUE))^2,
           na.rm=TRUE))
```

Better with a pipe:

```
goog200 %>%
  tsCV(forecastfunction=rwf, drift=TRUE, h=1) -> e
e^2 %>% mean(na.rm=TRUE) %>% sqrt
goog200 %>% rwf(drift=TRUE) %>% residuals -> res
res^2 %>% mean(na.rm=TRUE) %>% sqrt
```

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# Prediction intervals

- A forecast  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T}$  is (usually) the mean of the conditional distribution  $y_{T+h} \mid y_1, \dots, y_T$ .
- 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

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

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.

# Prediction intervals

## Drift forecasts with prediction interval:

```
rwf(goog200, level=95, drift=TRUE)
```

##	Point Forecast	Lo 95	Hi 95
## 201	532.2	520.0	544.3
## 202	532.9	515.6	550.1
## 203	533.6	512.4	554.7
## 204	534.3	509.8	558.7
## 205	535.0	507.5	562.4
## 206	535.7	505.5	565.8
## 207	536.4	503.7	569.0
## 208	537.1	502.1	572.0

# Prediction intervals

- Point forecasts are often useless without 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).
- Check residual assumptions before believing them.
- Usually too narrow due to unaccounted uncertainty.



# Prediction intervals

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

**Mean forecasts:**  $\hat{\sigma}_h = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + 1/T}$

**Naïve forecasts:**  $\hat{\sigma}_h = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{h}$

**Seasonal naïve forecasts**  $\hat{\sigma}_h = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{k + 1}$

**Drift forecasts:**  $\hat{\sigma}_h = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{h(1 + h/T)}$ .

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 value  $\hat{\sigma}$ .