

MONASH BUSINESS SCHOOL

ETC3550/ETC5550 Applied forecasting

Ch5. The forecasters' toolbox

OTexts.org/fpp3/



Outline

- 1 A tidy forecasting workflow
- 2 Some simple forecasting methods
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Distributional forecasts and prediction intervals
- 5 Forecasting with transformations
- 6 Forecasting and decomposition

Time series eross validation

7 Evaluating forecast accuracy

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Time series eress validation

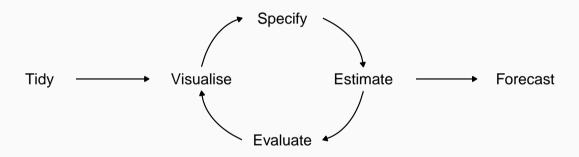
7 Evaluating forecast accuracy

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
- Accuracy & performance evaluation
- Producing forecasts

A tidy forecasting workflow

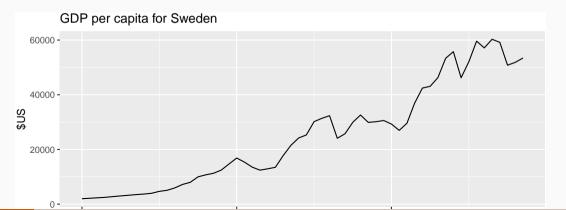


Data preparation (tidy)

```
gdppc <- global_economy %>%
 mutate(GDP_per_capita = GDP/Population) %>%
 select(Year, Country, GDP, Population, GDP per capita)
gdppc
## # A tsibble: 15,150 x 5 [1Y]
## # Kev: Country [263]
##
   Year Country
                              GDP Population GDP_per_capita
##
     <dbl> <fct>
                            <dbl>
                                       <dbl>
                                                     <dbl>
##
   1 1960 Afghanistan 537777811.
                                     8996351
                                                      59.8
##
   2 1961 Afghanistan
                       548888896.
                                    9166764
                                                      59.9
##
   3 1962 Afghanistan
                       546666678.
                                    9345868
                                                      58.5
##
   4 1963 Afghanistan 751111191.
                                    9533954
                                                      78.8
##
     1964 Afghanistan
                       800000044.
                                     9731361
                                                      82.2
  6 1965 Afghanistan 1006666638
                                     9938414
                                                     101
```

Data visualisation

```
gdppc %>%
  filter(Country=="Sweden") %>%
  autoplot(GDP_per_capita) +
   labs(title = "GDP per capita for Sweden", y = "$US")
```



Model estimation

The model() function trains models to data.

```
fit <- gdppc %>%
 model(trend_model = TSLM(GDP_per_capita ~ trend()))
fit
## # A mable: 263 x 2
  # Kev: Country [263]
##
##
     Country
                          trend_model
##
   <fct>
                              <model>
##
    1 Afghanistan
                               <TSLM>
##
   2 Albania
                               <TSLM>
##
   3 Algeria
                               <TSLM>
##
    4 American Samoa
                               <TSLM>
##
   5 Andorra
                               <TSLM>
```

Model estimation

The model() function trains models to data.

```
fit <- gdppc %>%
 model(trend_model = TSLM(GDP_per_capita ~ trend()))
fit
## # A mable: 263 x 2
  # Kev: Country [263]
##
##
     Country
                         trend_model
##
   <fct>
                              <model>
##
   1 Afghanistan
                               <TSLM>
##
   2 Albania
                               <TSLM>
##
   3 Algeria
                               <TSLM>
##
    4 American Samoa
                               <TSLM>
## 5 Andorra
                               <TSLM>
```

Producing forecasts

```
fit %>% forecast(h = "3 years")
  # A fable: 789 x 5 [1Y]
##
  # Kev:
              Country, .model [263]
                      .model
##
      Country
                                   Year
                                           GDP_per_capita
                                                            .mean
      <fct>
                      <chr>
                                  <dbl>
                                                   <dist>
                                                            <dbl>
##
                      trend_model
    1 Afghanistan
                                             N(526, 9653)
                                                             526.
##
                                   2018
    2 Afghanistan
                      trend model
##
                                   2019
                                             N(534, 9689)
                                                             534.
##
    3 Afghanistan
                      trend model
                                   2020
                                             N(542, 9727)
                                                             542.
    4 Albania
                      trend model
                                   2018
                                          N(4716, 476419)
                                                            4716.
##
##
    5 Albania
                      trend model
                                   2019
                                          N(4867, 481086)
                                                            4867.
##
    6 Albania
                      trend_model
                                   2020
                                          N(5018, 486012)
                                                            5018.
    7 Algeria
##
                      trend_model
                                   2018
                                          N(4410, 643094)
                                                            4410.
##
    8 Algeria
                      trend model
                                   2019
                                          N(4489, 645311)
                                                            4489.
```

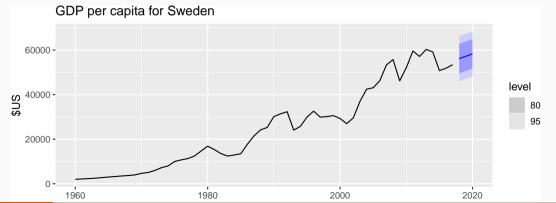
Producing forecasts

fit %>% forecast(h = "3 years")

```
# A fable: 789 x 5 [1Y]
##
  # Kev:
              Country, .model [263]
                      .model
##
      Country
                                   Year
                                          GDP_per_capita
                                                           .mean
      <fct>
                     <chr>
                                  <dbl>
                                                   <dist>
                                                           <dbl>
##
    1 Afghanistan
                     trend model
                                            N(526, 9653)
                                                            526.
##
                                   2018
    2 Afghanistan
                     trend model
##
                                   2019
                                            N(534, 9689)
                                                            534.
##
    3 Afghanistan
                     trend model
                                   2020
                                            N(542, 9727)
                                                            542.
    4 Albania
                     trend model
                                   2018
                                         N(4716, 476419)
                                                           4716.
##
##
    5 Albania
                     trend_model
                                   2019
                                         N(4867, 481086)
                                                           4867.
##
    6 Albania
                     trend_model
                                   2020
                                         N(5018, 486012)
                                                           5018.
    7 Algeria
##
                     trend model
                                   2018
                                         N(4410, 643094)
                                                           4410.
   8 Algeria
##
                     trend model 2019
                                         N(4489, 645311)
                                                           4489.
```

Visualising forecasts

```
fit %>% forecast(h = "3 years") %>%
  filter(Country=="Sweden") %>%
  autoplot(gdppc) +
   labs(title = "GDP per capita for Sweden", y = "$US")
```



Outline

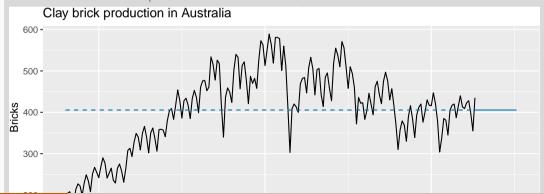
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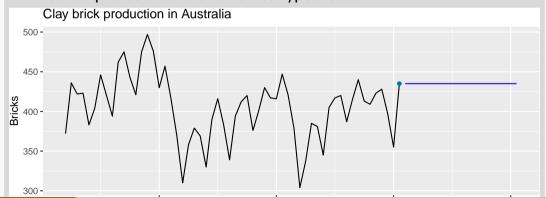
MEAN(y): Average method

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



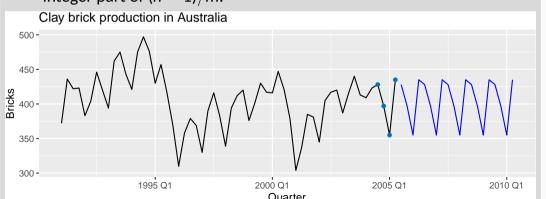
NAIVE(y): Naïve method

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



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.

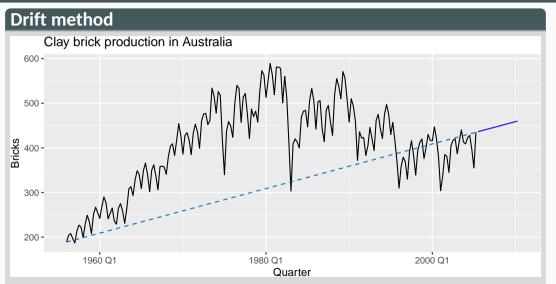


RW(y ~ drift()): Drift method

- 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.



Model fitting

The model() function trains models to data.

```
brick_fit <- aus_production %>%
  filter(!is.na(Bricks)) %>%
  model(
    Seasonal_naive = SNAIVE(Bricks),
    Naive = NAIVE(Bricks),
    Drift = RW(Bricks ~ drift()),
    Mean = MEAN(Bricks)
)
```

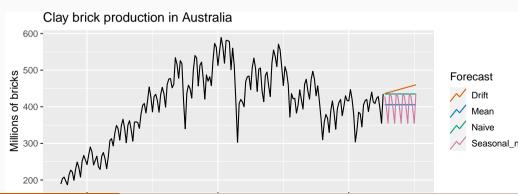
```
## # A mable: 1 x 4
## Seasonal_naive Naive Drift Mean
## <model> <model>
```

Producing forecasts

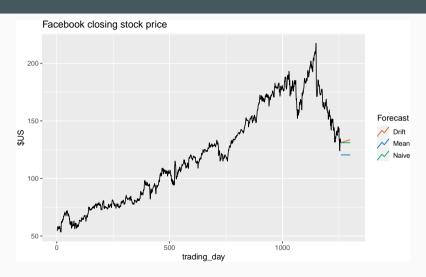
```
brick_fc <- brick_fit %>%
  forecast(h = "5 years")

## # A fable: 80 x 4 [10]
```

Visualising forecasts



```
# Extract training data
fb_stock <- gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "FB") %>%
 mutate(trading_day = row_number()) %>%
  update_tsibble(index=trading_day, regular=TRUE)
# Specify, estimate and forecast
fb stock %>%
 model(
    Mean = MEAN(Close).
    Naive = NAIVE(Close),
    Drift = RW(Close ~ drift())
  ) %>%
  forecast(h=42) %>%
  autoplot(fb_stock, level = NULL) +
  labs(title = "Facebook closing stock price", y="$US") +
  guides(colour=guide legend(title="Forecast"))
```



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Fitted values

- $\hat{y}_{t|t-1}$ is the forecast of y_t based on observations y_1, \ldots, y_{t-1} .
- 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: $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$.

Forecasting residuals

Residuals in forecasting: difference between observed value and its

fitted value: $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$.

Assumptions

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

Forecasting residuals

Residuals in forecasting: difference between observed value and its

fitted value: $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$.

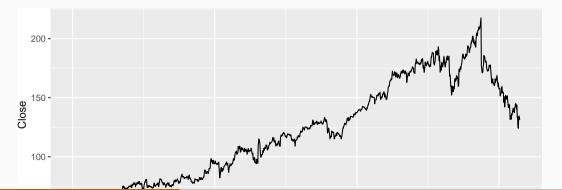
Assumptions

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

Useful properties (for distributions & prediction intervals)

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

```
fb_stock <- gafa_stock %>%
  filter(Symbol == "FB") %>%
  mutate(trading_day = row_number()) %>%
  update_tsibble(index = trading_day, regular = TRUE)
fb_stock %>% autoplot(Close)
```



```
fit <- fb_stock %>% model(NAIVE(Close))
augment(fit)
```

```
## # A tsibble: 1,258 x 7 [1]
## # Kev:
              Symbol, .model [1]
     Symbol .model trading_day Close .fitted .resid .innov
##
     <chr>
           <chr>
                            <int> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
##
   1 FB
           NAIVE(Close)
                                1 54.7
                                          NA
                                               NA
                                                     NA
##
   2 FB
           NAIVE(Close)
                                2 54.6
                                          54.7 -0.150 -0.150
##
           NAIVE(Close)
                                3 57.2
                                          54.6 2.64 2.64
##
   3 FB
           NAIVE(Close)
##
   4 FB
                                4 57.9
                                          57.2 0.720 0.720
##
   5 FB
           NAIVE(Close)
                                5 58.2
                                          57.9 0.310 0.310
           NAIVE(Close)
                                6 57.2
                                          58.2 -1.01 -1.01
##
   6 FB
           NAIVE(Close)
                                7 57.9
                                          57.2 0.720 0.720
##
   7 FB
##
   8 FB
           NAIVE(Close)
                                8 55.9
                                          57.9 -2.03 -2.03
           NAIVE(Close)
                                9 57.7
                                          55.9 1.83 1.83
##
   9 FB
           NAIVE(Close)
                               10 57.6
                                          57.7 -0.140 -0.140
## 10 FB
## #
     with 1 248 more rows
```

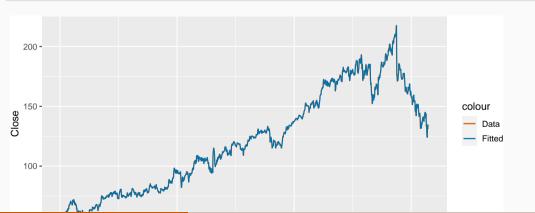
 $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1} = y_t - y_{t-1}$

```
fit <- fb_stock %>% model(NAIVE(Close))
augment(fit)
```

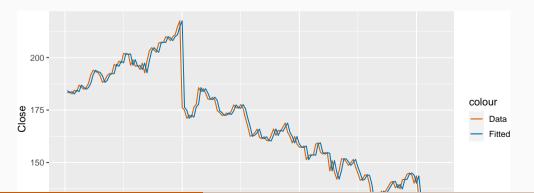
```
## # A tsibble: 1,258 x 7 [1]
                                          \hat{y}_{t|t-1}
  ## # Key: Symbol, .model [1]
       Symbol .model trading_day Close .fitted .resid .innov
  ##
      <chr>
              <chr>
                               <int> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
  ##
     1 FB
              NAIVE(Close)
                                  1 54.7 NA NA
                                                       NA
  ##
      2 FB
              NAIVE(Close)
                                  2 54.6
                                            54.7 -0.150 -0.150
  ##
              NAIVE(Close)
                                  3 57.2
                                            54.6 2.64 2.64
  ##
      3 FB
                                            57.2 0.720 0.720
  ##
      4 FB
              NAIVE(Close)
                                  4 57.9
              NAIVE(Close)
  ##
      5 FB
                                  5 58.2
                                            57.9 0.310 0.310
              NAIVE(Close)
                                  6 57.2
                                            58.2 -1.01 -1.01
  ##
      6 FB
                                     57.9
                                            57.2 0.720 0.720
Naïve forecasts:
                                  8 55.9
                                            57.9 -2.03 -2.03
                                    57.7
                                            55.9 1.83 1.83
                                 10
                                     57.6
                                            57.7 -0.140 -0.140
```

26

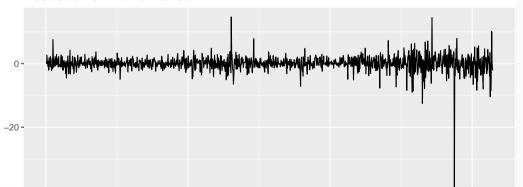
```
augment(fit) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = trading_day)) +
  geom_line(aes(y = Close, colour = "Data")) +
  geom_line(aes(y = .fitted, colour = "Fitted"))
```



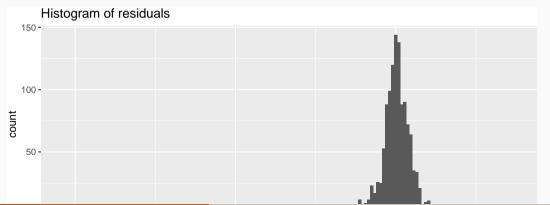
```
augment(fit) %>%
  filter(trading_day > 1100) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = trading_day)) +
  geom_line(aes(y = Close, colour = "Data")) +
  geom_line(aes(y = .fitted, colour = "Fitted"))
```



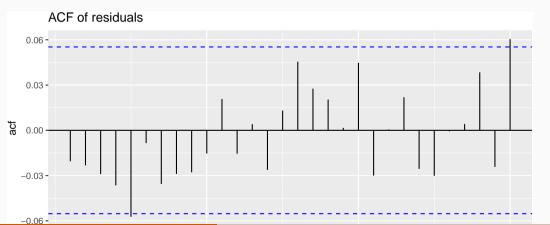
Residuals from naïve method



```
augment(fit) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = .resid)) +
  geom_histogram(bins = 150) +
  labs(title = "Histogram of residuals")
```

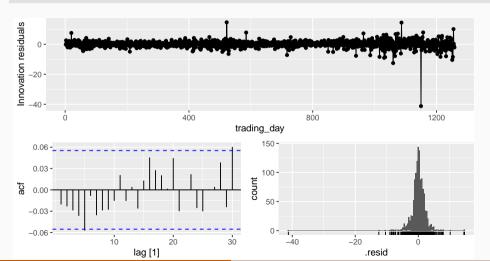


```
augment(fit) %>%
  ACF(.resid) %>%
  autoplot() + labs(title = "ACF of residuals")
```



gg_tsresiduals() function

gg_tsresiduals(fit)



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.

Consider a whole set of r_k values, and develop a test to see whether the set is significantly different from a zero set.

Consider a whole set of r_k values, and develop a test to see whether the set is significantly different from a zero set.

Box-Pierce test

$$Q = T \sum_{k=1}^{\ell} r_k^2$$

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

- If each r_k close to zero, Q will be **small**.
- If some r_k values large (positive or negative), Q will be large.

Consider a whole set of r_k values, and develop a test to see whether the set is significantly different from a zero set.

Ljung-Box test

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

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

- My preferences: ℓ = 10 for non-seasonal data, h = 2m for seasonal data.
- Better performance, especially in small samples.

- If data are WN, Q^* has χ^2 distribution with (ℓK) degrees of freedom where K = no. parameters in model.
- When applied to raw data, set K = 0.
- lag = ℓ , dof = K

```
augment(fit) %>%
features(.resid, ljung_box, lag=10, dof=0)
```

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

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: $\hat{\sigma}^2$.

Prediction intervals

- 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

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

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.

Prediction intervals

```
brick fc %>% hilo(level = 95)
## # A tsibble: 80 x 5 [10]
## # Key: .model [4]
      .model
                                  Bricks .mean
                                                      `95%`
##
                    Quarter
##
      <chr>
                      <atr>
                                  <dist> <dbl>
                                                     <hilo>
    1 Seasonal_naive 2005 Q3 N(428, 2336) 428 [333, 523]95
##
##
   2 Seasonal naive 2005 04 N(397, 2336) 397 [302, 492]95
    3 Seasonal_naive 2006 Q1 N(355, 2336)
                                           355 [260, 450]95
##
##
    4 Seasonal_naive 2006 Q2 N(435, 2336)
                                           435 [340, 530]95
##
    5 Seasonal_naive 2006 Q3 N(428, 4672)
                                           428 [294, 562]95
    6 Seasonal_naive 2006 Q4 N(397, 4672)
                                           397 [263, 531]95
##
##
    7 Seasonal_naive 2007 Q1 N(355, 4672)
                                           355 [221, 489]95
##
    8 Seasonal naive 2007 02 N(435, 4672)
                                           435 [301, 569]95
   9 Seasonal_naive 2007 Q3 N(428, 7008)
                                           428 [264, 592]95
##
```

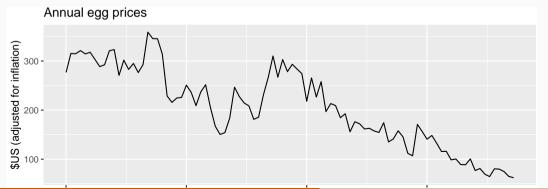
Prediction intervals

- Point forecasts often useless without a measure of uncertainty (such as prediction intervals).
- Prediction intervals require a stochastic model (with random errors, etc).
- For most models, prediction intervals get wider as the forecast horizon increases.
- Use level argument to control coverage.
- Check residual assumptions before believing them.
- Usually too narrow due to unaccounted uncertainty.

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Modelling with transformations



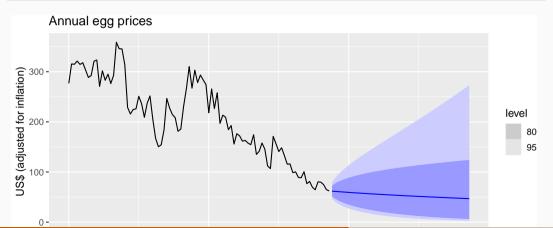
Modelling with transformations

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

Forecasting with transformations

```
fc <- fit %>%
  forecast(h = 50)
fc
## # A fable: 50 x 4 [1Y]
## # Key: .model [1]
      .model
##
                                 year
                                                 eggs .mean
##
    <chr>
                                <dbl>
                                              <dist> <dbl>
    1 RW(log(eggs) ~ drift()) 1994 t(N(4.1, 0.018))
##
                                                         61.8
##
    2 RW(log(eggs) ~ drift()) 1995 t(N(4.1, 0.036))
                                                         61.4
##
    3 \text{ RW}(\log(\text{eggs}) \sim \text{drift}()) \quad 1996 \text{ t}(N(4.1, 0.054))
                                                         61.0
    4 RW(log(eggs) ~ drift()) 1997 t(N(4.1, 0.073))
                                                         60.5
##
    5 RW(log(eggs) ~ drift()) 1998 t(N(4.1, 0.093))
##
                                                         60.1
    6 RW(log(eggs) ~ drift())
                                 1999 t(N(4, 0.11))
                                                         59.7
##
    7 RW(log(eggs) ~ drift())
##
                                 2000 t(N(4, 0.13)) 59.3
```

Forecasting with transformations



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

- Back-transformed point forecasts are medians.
- 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 :

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

- Back-transformed point forecasts are medians.
- 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 :

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

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

Box-Cox back-transformation:

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

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

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

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



Outline

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- 7 Evaluating forecast accuracy

Forecasting and decomposition

$$y_t = \hat{S}_t + \hat{A}_t$$

- $ilde{A}_t$ is seasonally adjusted component
- \hat{S}_t is seasonal component.
- Forecast \hat{S}_t using SNAIVE.
- Forecast \hat{A}_t using non-seasonal time series method.
- Combine forecasts of \hat{S}_t and \hat{A}_t to get forecasts of original data.

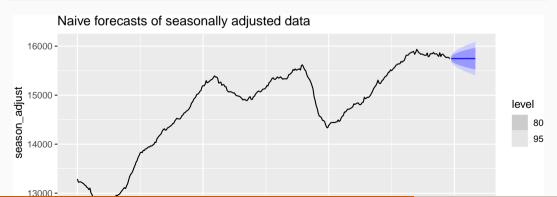
```
us_retail_employment <- us_employment %>%
  filter(year(Month) >= 1990, Title == "Retail Trade") %>%
  select(-Series_ID)
us_retail_employment
```

```
# A tsibble: 357 x 3 [1M]
        Month Title
                            Employed
##
        <mth> <chr>
                               <dbl>
##
    1 1990 Jan Retail Trade
                             13256.
##
##
    2 1990 Feb Retail Trade
                             12966.
   3 1990 Mar Retail Trade
                             12938.
##
##
    4 1990 Apr Retail Trade
                             13012.
##
   5 1990 May Retail Trade
                             13108.
   6 1990 Jun Retail Trade
##
                             13183.
   7 1990 Jul Retail Trade
                             13170.
##
   8 1990 Aug Retail Trade
                             13160.
##
"" O 1000 C-- D-+--1 T---1-
```

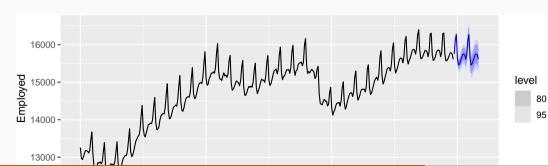
```
dcmp <- us_retail_employment %>%
  model(STL(Employed)) %>%
  components() %>% select(-.model)
dcmp
```

```
## # A tsibble: 357 x 6 [1M]
       Month Employed trend season_year remainder season_adjust
##
       <mth>
             <dbl> <dbl>
                          <dbl>
                                        <dbl>
                                                    <dbl>
##
   1 1990 Jan 13256. 13288. -33.0 0.836
                                                   13289.
##
##
   2 1990 Feb 12966. 13269. -258. -44.6
                                                   13224.
##
   3 1990 Mar 12938, 13250, -290,
                                      -22.1
                                                   13228.
                                      1.05
##
   4 1990 Apr
             13012. 13231. -220.
                                                   13232.
##
   5 1990 Mav
             13108. 13211. -114.
                                       11.3
                                                   13223.
   6 1990 Jun
             13183. 13192. -24.3
                                       15.5
                                                   13207.
##
##
   7 1990 Jul
             13170. 13172. -23.2
                                       21.6
                                                   13193.
##
   8 1990 Aug
             13160. 13151. -9.52
                                       17.8
                                                   13169.
                               20 5
## 0 1000 C---
                                                   12152
```

```
dcmp %>%
  model(NAIVE(season_adjust)) %>%
  forecast() %>%
  autoplot(dcmp) +
  labs(title = "Naive forecasts of seasonally adjusted data")
```



```
us_retail_employment %>%
model(stlf = decomposition_model(
    STL(Employed ~ trend(window = 7), robust = TRUE),
    NAIVE(season_adjust)
)) %>%
forecast() %>%
autoplot(us_retail_employment)
```



Decomposition models

decomposition_model() creates a decomposition model

- You must provide a method for forecasting the season_adjust series.
- A seasonal naive method is used by default for the seasonal components.
- The variances from both the seasonally adjusted and seasonal forecasts are combined.

Outline

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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

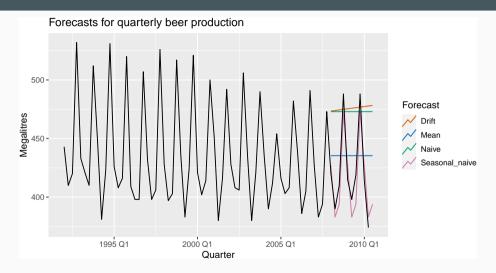
Forecast "error": the difference between an observed value and its forecast.

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

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

- 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, ..., H

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

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

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

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

MAPE = 100mean(|e_{T+h}|/|y_{T+h}|)
```

Measures of forecast accuracy

$$y_{T+h} = (T+h)$$
th observation, $h = 1, ..., H$
 $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = \text{its forecast based on data up to time } T.$
 $e_{T+h} = y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}$
MAE = mean($|e_{T+h}|$)
MSE = mean(e_{T+h}^2) RMSE = $\sqrt{\text{mean}(e_{T+h}^2)}$
MAPE = 100mean($|e_{T+h}|/|y_{T+h}|$)

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

Mean Absolute Scaled Error

MASE = mean(
$$|e_{T+h}|/Q$$
)

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.

Mean Absolute Scaled Error

MASE = mean(
$$|e_{T+h}|/Q$$
)

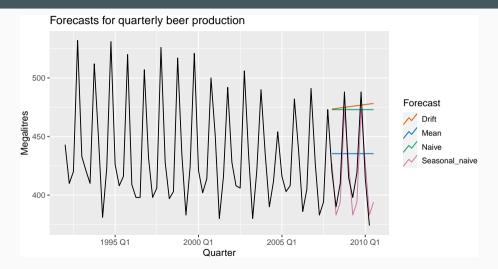
where Q is a stable measure of the scale of the time series $\{y_t\}$.

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.



```
recent_production <- aus_production %>%
  filter(year(Quarter) >= 1992)
train <- recent_production %>%
  filter(year(Quarter) <= 2007)</pre>
beer fit <- train %>%
  model(
    Mean = MEAN(Beer).
    Naive = NAIVE(Beer).
    Seasonal_naive = SNAIVE(Beer),
    Drift = RW(Beer ~ drift())
beer fc <- beer fit %>%
  forecast(h = 10)
```

accuracy(beer_fit)

```
## # A tibble: 4 x 6

## .model .type RMSE MAE MAPE MASE

## <chr> <chr> <chr> <chr> <br/>## 1 Drift Training 65.3 54.8 12.2 3.83

## 2 Mean Training 43.6 35.2 7.89 2.46

## 3 Naive Training 65.3 54.7 12.2 3.83

## 4 Seasonal_naive Training 16.8 14.3 3.31 1
```

accuracy(beer_fc, recent_production)

```
## # A tibble: 4 x 6

## .model .type RMSE MAE MAPE MASE

## <chr> <chr> <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> = 4 x 6

## 1 Drift Test 64.9 58.9 14.6 4.12

## 2 Mean Test 38.4 34.8 8.28 2.44

## 3 Naive Test 62.7 57.4 14.2 4.01

## 4 Seasonal naive Test 14.3 13.4 3.17.0 937
```

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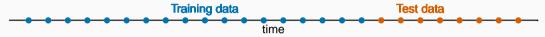
Time corios areas validation

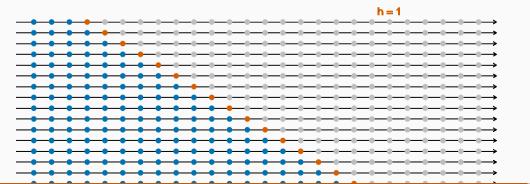
7 Evaluating forecast accuracy

Traditional evaluation Training data Test data

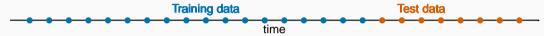
time

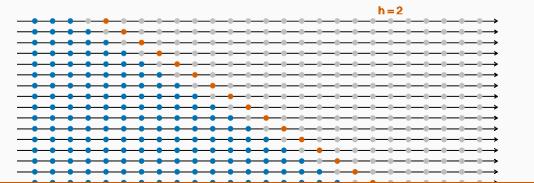
Traditional evaluation





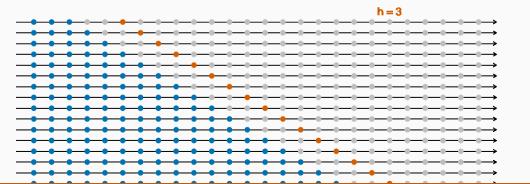
Traditional evaluation



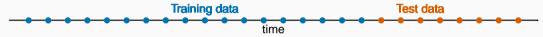


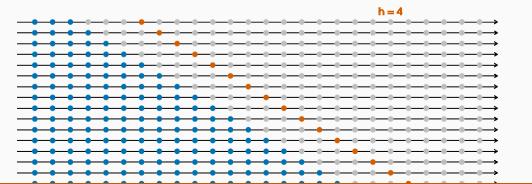
Traditional evaluation





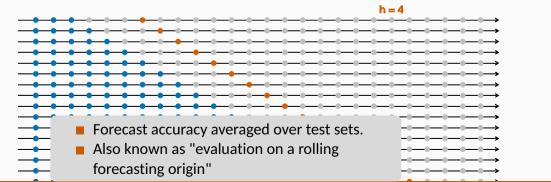
Traditional evaluation





Traditional evaluation





Stretch with a minimum length of 3, growing by 1 each step.

```
fb_stretch <- fb_stock %>%
  stretch_tsibble(.init = 3, .step = 1) %>%
  filter(.id != max(.id))
```

```
## # A tsibble: 790,650 x 4 [1]
## # Key: .id [1,255]
    Date Close trading_day .id
##
## <date> <dbl> <int> <int>
## 1 2014-01-02 54.7
  2 2014-01-03 54.6
  3 2014-01-06 57.2
## 4 2014-01-02 54.7
## 5 2014-01-03 54.6
  6 2014-01-06 57.2
## 7 2014-01-07 57.9
```

Estimate RW w/ drift models for each window.

```
fit_cv <- fb_stretch %>%
 model(RW(Close ~ drift()))
## # A mable: 1,255 x 3
## # Key: .id, Symbol [1,255]
## .id Symbol `RW(Close ~ drift())`
## <int> <chr>
                          <model>
## 1 1 FB <RW w/ drift>
## 2 2 FB
                     <RW w/ drift>
## 3 3 FB <RW w/ drift>
## 4 4 FB <RW w/ drift>
## # ... with 1,251 more rows
```

Produce one step ahead forecasts from all models.

```
fc_cv <- fit_cv %>%
  forecast(h=1)
```

```
# Cross-validated
fc_cv %>% accuracy(fb_stock)
# Training set
fb_stock %>% model(RW(Close ~ drift())) %>% accuracy()
```

	RMSE	MAE	MAPE
Cross-validation	2.418	1.469	1.266
Training	2.414	1.465	1.261

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