DATA605_Final

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Preparation:

Load Libraries and Data

```
# load libraries
library(tidyverse)
library(readr)
library(tidyr)
library(ggplot2)
library(scales)
library(MASS)
library(GGally)
library(mumDeriv)

# load data
df <- read_csv("https://raw.githubusercontent.com/AmandaSFox/DATA605_Math/refs/heads/main/Fix
# turn off scientific notation
options(scipen = 999)</pre>
```

EDA

The dataset contains 200 rows and six numeric columns. It appears clean with no NA values, duplicate product IDs, or unusual values.

glimpse(df)

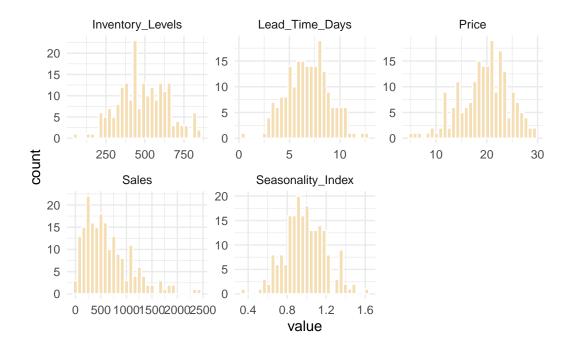
```
Rows: 200
Columns: 6
$ Product_ID
                    <dbl> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 1~
                    <dbl> 158.43952, 278.99020, 698.85868, 1832.39467, 459.703~
$ Sales
$ Inventory_Levels <dbl> 367.4421, 426.6512, 407.6394, 392.3912, 448.3120, 54~
                    <dbl> 6.314587, 5.800673, 3.071936, 3.534253, 10.802241, 1~
$ Lead_Time_Days
$ Price
                    <dbl> 18.795197, 26.089636, 22.399985, 27.092013, 18.30782~
$ Seasonality_Index <dbl> 1.1839497, 0.8573051, 0.6986774, 0.6975404, 0.840725~
# check NA (none)
df %>%
  summarise(across(everything(), ~sum(is.na(.))))
# A tibble: 1 x 6
  Product_ID Sales Inventory_Levels Lead_Time_Days Price Seasonality_Index
       <int> <int>
                                              <int> <int>
                              <int>
                                                                      <int>
           0
                                                  0
1
                                  0
                                                                          0
# check dup (none)
anyDuplicated(df$Product_ID)
```

[1] 0

```
# summary and distributions
summary(df)
```

```
Product_ID
                    Sales
                                  Inventory_Levels Lead_Time_Days
                Min. : 25.57
                                  Min. : 67.35 Min. : 0.491
Min. : 1.00
1st Qu.: 50.75
                1st Qu.: 284.42
                                  1st Qu.:376.51
                                                   1st Qu.: 5.291
Median :100.50
                Median: 533.54
                                  Median: 483.72
                                                   Median : 6.765
Mean
      :100.50
                Mean
                       : 636.92
                                  Mean
                                         :488.55
                                                   Mean
                                                         : 6.834
3rd Qu.:150.25
                3rd Qu.: 867.58
                                  3rd Qu.:600.42
                                                   3rd Qu.: 8.212
Max.
      :200.00
                Max.
                       :2447.49
                                  Max.
                                         :858.79
                                                   Max.
                                                        :12.722
   Price
                Seasonality_Index
      : 5.053
                       :0.3305
Min.
                Min.
1st Qu.:16.554
                1st Qu.:0.8475
```

Median :19.977 Median :0.9762 Mean :19.560 Mean :0.9829 3rd Qu.:22.924 3rd Qu.:1.1205 Max. :29.404 Max. :1.5958



Problem 1: Business Risk and Revenue Modeling

Context: You are a data scientist working for a retail chain that models sales, inventory levels, and the impact of pricing and seasonality on revenue. Your task is to analyze various distributions that can describe sales variability and forecast potential revenue.

Part 1: Empirical and Theoretical Analysis of Distributions (5 Points)

1. Generate and Analyze Distributions:

 $X \sim Sales$: Consider the Sales variable from the dataset. Assume it follows a Gamma distribution and estimate its shape and scale parameters using the fitdistr function from the MASS package.

Using the fitdistr function from the MASS package:

- Shape = 1.834964
- Scale = 347.0997

```
# fit gamma distribution to Sales
fit_sales_gamma <- fitdistr(df$Sales, densfun = "gamma")
fit_sales_gamma</pre>
```

```
shape rate
1.8349640762 0.0028810166
(0.1511756159) (0.0002556985)
```

```
# extract shape rate and rate, calculate scale
sales_gamma_shape <- fit_sales_gamma$estimate["shape"]
sales_gamma_rate <- fit_sales_gamma$estimate["rate"]
sales_gamma_scale <- 1 / sales_gamma_rate

# display results
sales_gamma_shape</pre>
```

shape 1.834964

```
sales_gamma_scale
```

```
rate
347.0997
```

 $Y \sim Inventory\ Levels$: Assume that the sum of inventory levels across similar products follows a Lognormal distribution. Estimate the parameters for this distribution.

- Mean = 6.133037
- SD = 0.3633273

```
# fit log normal distribution to Inventory Levels
fit_inv_log <- fitdistr(df$Inventory_Levels, densfun = "lognormal")
fit_inv_log</pre>
```

```
meanlog sdlog
6.13303680 0.36332727
(0.02569112) (0.01816636)
```

```
# extract mean and sd
inv_log_mean <- fit_inv_log$estimate["meanlog"]
inv_log_sd <- fit_inv_log$estimate["sdlog"]

# display results
inv_log_mean</pre>
```

meanlog 6.133037

```
inv_log_sd
```

sdlog 0.3633273

 $Z \sim Lead\ Time:\ Assume\ that\ Lead_Time_Days\ follows\ a\ Normal\ distribution.$ Estimate the mean and standard deviation.

- Mean = 6.834298
- SD = 2.083214

```
# fit normal distribution to Lead Time
fit_lead_norm <- fitdistr(df$Lead_Time_Days,</pre>
                           densfun = "normal")
fit_lead_norm
     mean
                   sd
  6.8342981 2.0832137
 (0.1473055) (0.1041607)
# extract mean and sd
lead_norm_mean <- fit_lead_norm$estimate["mean"]</pre>
lead_norm_sd <- fit_lead_norm$estimate["sd"]</pre>
# display results
lead_norm_mean
    mean
6.834298
lead_norm_sd
      sd
2.083214
```

2. Calculate Empirical Expected Value and Variance:

Calculate the empirical mean and variance for all three variables.

```
df_stats_actual <- df %>%
    summarise(
        Sales_mean = mean(Sales),
        Sales_var = var(Sales),
        Inventory_mean = mean(Inventory_Levels),
        Inventory_var = var(Inventory_Levels),
        LeadTime_mean = mean(Lead_Time_Days),
        LeadTime_var = var(Lead_Time_Days)
) %>%
    pivot_longer(everything(), names_to = c("variable", ".value"), names_sep = "_")

df_stats_actual
```

Compare these empirical values with the theoretical values derived from the estimated distribution parameters.

```
bution parameters.
# calculate theoretrical means and variances
sales_gamma_shape

shape
1.834964

sales_gamma_scale

rate
347.0997

inv_log_mean

meanlog
6.133037

inv_log_sd
```

sdlog 0.3633273

lead_norm_mean

mean 6.834298

lead_norm_sd

2.083214

```
# Gamma mean = shape * scale
\# Lognormal mean = mean + 05 * sd<sup>2</sup>
# normal mean = mean
# Gamma variance = shape * scale^2
# Lognormal variance = exp(sd^2)-1 * exp(2 * mean + sd^2)
# normal var = sd^2
tb_stats_theoretical <- tibble(</pre>
  variable = c("Sales", "Inventory_Levels", "Lead_Time_Days"),
  mean = c(
    sales_gamma_shape * sales_gamma_scale,
    exp(inv_log_mean + 0.5 * inv_log_sd^2),
    lead_norm_mean
  ),
  variance = c(
    sales_gamma_shape * sales_gamma_scale^2,
    (\exp(inv_log_sd^2) - 1) * \exp(2 * inv_log_mean + inv_log_sd^2),
    lead_norm_sd^2
)
tb_stats_theoretical
# A tibble: 3 x 3
  variable
                    mean variance
  <chr>
                   <dbl>
                              <dbl>
1 Sales
                   637. 221073.
2 Inventory_Levels 492.
                          34197.
3 Lead_Time_Days
                     6.83
                               4.34
# rename some values in theoretical df variable column to join
df_stats_theoretical <- tb_stats_theoretical %>%
  mutate(variable = case_when(
          variable == "Inventory_Levels" ~ "Inventory",
          variable == "Lead_Time_Days" ~ "LeadTime",
```

```
TRUE ~ variable))
df_stats_theoretical
# A tibble: 3 x 3
  variable
           mean variance
  <chr>
             <dbl>
                       <dbl>
            637.
1 Sales
                   221073.
2 Inventory 492.
                    34197.
                        4.34
3 LeadTime
              6.83
# join and compare
df_compare <- df_stats_actual %>%
  left_join(df_stats_theoretical, by = "variable") %>%
  rename(empirical_mean = mean.x,
         empirical_var = var,
         theoretical_mean = mean.y,
         theoretical_var = variance) %>%
  mutate(variance_mean = theoretical_mean - empirical_mean,
         variance_var = theoretical_var - empirical_var) %>%
  dplyr::select(variable,
         theoretical_mean,
         empirical_mean,
         variance_mean,
         theoretical_var,
         empirical_var,
         variance_var)
df_compare
# A tibble: 3 x 7
  variable theoretical_mean empirical_mean variance_mean theoretical_var
                       <dbl>
                                      <dbl>
                                                    <dbl>
  <chr>
                                                                     <dbl>
1 Sales
                      637.
                                     637.
                                                -0.000719
                                                                 221073.
                      492.
2 Inventory
                                     489.
                                                 3.73
                                                                  34197.
3 LeadTime
                        6.83
                                       6.83
                                                                      4.34
# i 2 more variables: empirical_var <dbl>, variance_var <dbl>
```

Part 2: Probability Analysis and Independence Testing (5 Points)

2. Empirical Probabilities: For the Lead_Time_Days variable (assumed to be normally distributed), calculate the following empirical probabilities:

$$P(Z>\mu\mid Z>\mu-\sigma)$$

Given that lead time is greater than one standard deviation below the mean, the probability that lead time is greater than the mean is **0.593**

$$P(Z > \mu + \sigma \mid Z > \mu)$$

Given that lead time is greater than the mean, the probability that lead time is greater than one standard deviation above the mean is **0.313**

$$P(Z > \mu + 2\sigma \mid Z > \mu)$$

Given that lead time is greater than the mean, the probability that lead time is greater than two standard deviations above the mean is **0.030**

```
# define mu and sigma
lead_mu <- mean(df$Lead_Time_Days)
lead_sigma <- sd(df$Lead_Time_Days)

#P(Z > \mu | Z > \mu - \sigma)

lead_prob1 <- df %>%
   filter(Lead_Time_Days > lead_mu - lead_sigma) %>%
   summarise(mean(Lead_Time_Days > lead_mu))

lead_prob1
```

```
\#P(Z > \mu + \sigma \mid Z > \mu)
lead_prob2 <- df %>%
  filter(Lead Time Days > lead mu) %>%
  summarise(mean(Lead_Time_Days > lead_mu+ lead_sigma))
lead_prob2
# A tibble: 1 x 1
  `mean(Lead_Time_Days > lead_mu + lead_sigma)`
                                           <dbl>
1
                                           0.313
\#P(Z > \mu + 2 ) Z > \mu)
lead_prob3 <- df %>%
  filter(Lead Time Days > lead mu) %>%
  summarise(mean(Lead_Time_Days > lead_mu+ 2 * lead_sigma))
lead_prob3
# A tibble: 1 x 1
  `mean(Lead_Time_Days > lead_mu + 2 * lead_sigma)`
                                               <dbl>
                                              0.0303
1
```

2. Correlation and Independence:

Investigate the correlation between Sales and Price. Create a contingency table using quartiles of Sales and Price, and then evaluate the marginal and joint probabilities.

```
# A tibble: 16 x 4
   Sales_Q Price_Q
                       n joint_prob
             <int> <int>
     <int>
                               <dbl>
1
         1
                 1
                      11
                               0.055
2
                 2
         1
                       16
                               0.08
3
         1
                 3
                       12
                               0.06
4
         1
                 4
                       11
                               0.055
5
         2
                 1
                       13
                               0.065
6
         2
                 2
                      10
                               0.05
7
         2
                 3
                       15
                               0.075
8
         2
                 4
                      12
                               0.06
9
         3
                 1
                      15
                               0.075
         3
10
                 2
                       10
                               0.05
         3
11
                 3
                      13
                               0.065
12
         3
                      12
                               0.06
                 4
         4
13
                 1
                      11
                               0.055
14
         4
                 2
                       14
                               0.07
15
         4
                 3
                      10
                               0.05
16
         4
                 4
                       15
                               0.075
# calculate sum of joint prob for each sales quartile
df_marginal_sales <- df_sales_binned_counts %>%
  group_by(Sales_Q) %>%
  summarise(marginal_sales = sum(joint_prob))
df_marginal_sales
# A tibble: 4 x 2
  Sales_Q marginal_sales
    <int>
                   <dbl>
                     0.25
1
        1
2
        2
                     0.25
3
        3
                     0.25
4
        4
                     0.25
# calculate sum of joint prob for each price quartile
df_marginal_price <- df_sales_binned_counts %>%
  group_by(Price_Q) %>%
  summarise(marginal_price = sum(joint_prob))
```

A tibble: 4 x 2

df_marginal_sales

	$Sales_Q$	marginal_sales
	<int></int>	<dbl></dbl>
1	1	0.25
2	2	0.25
3	3	0.25
4	4	0.25

Use Fisher's Exact Test and the Chi-Square Test to check for independence between Sales and Price. Discuss which test is most appropriate and why.

There is no dependence between these variables binned into quartiles. P = 1 in both tests. A continuous method would probably show some relationship between the variables as information is lost in binning.

Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data

data: .
p-value = 1
alternative hypothesis: two.sided

chisq_result

Pearson's Chi-squared test

```
data: .
X-squared = 0, df = 9, p-value = 1
```

Problem 2: Advanced Forecasting and Optimization (Calculus) in Retail

Context: You are working for a large retail chain that wants to optimize pricing, inventory management, and sales forecasting using data-driven strategies. Your task is to use regression, statistical modeling, and calculus-based methods to make informed decisions.

Part 1: Descriptive and Inferential Statistics for Inventory Data (5 Points)

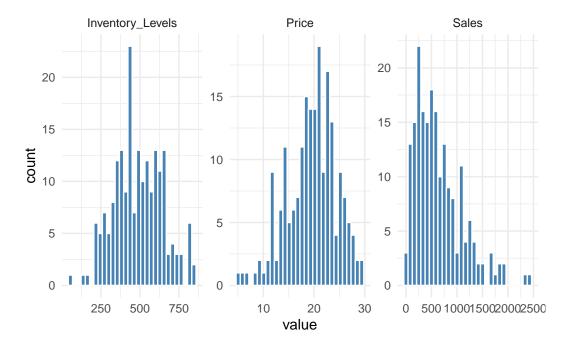
1. Inventory Data Analysis:

 $Generate\ univariate\ descriptive\ statistics\ for\ the\ Inventory_Levels\ and\ Sales\ variables.$

```
# Min Max Mean and quartiles
df %>%
  dplyr::select(Inventory_Levels, Sales) %>%
  summary()
```

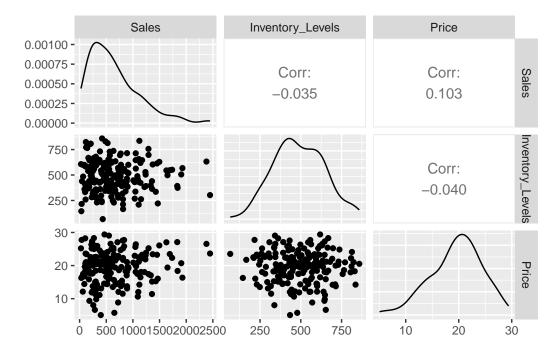
```
Inventory_Levels Sales
Min. : 67.35 Min. : 25.57
1st Qu.:376.51 1st Qu.: 284.42
Median :483.72 Median : 533.54
Mean :488.55 Mean : 636.92
3rd Qu.:600.42 3rd Qu.: 867.58
Max. :858.79 Max. :2447.49
```

Create appropriate visualizations such as histograms and scatterplots for Inventory_Levels, Sales, and Price.



```
# Pairwise scatterplots for selected metrics
plt_scatter <- df %>%
  dplyr::select(Sales, Inventory_Levels, Price) %>%
  ggpairs()
```

plt_scatter



Compute a correlation matrix for Sales, Price, and Inventory_Levels.

```
df %>%
  dplyr::select(Sales, Price, Inventory_Levels) %>%
  cor(method = "pearson")
```

	Sales	Price	Inventory_Levels
Sales	1.00000000	0.10272730	-0.03529619
Price	0.10272730	1.00000000	-0.04025941
Inventory_Levels	-0.03529619	-0.04025941	1.00000000

Test the hypotheses that the correlations between the variables are zero and provide a 95% confidence interval.

The null hypothesis is that the correlation is zero between each of these variables and we fail to reject that hypothesis for all of the pairs below based on p-values. In additiona, the correlation coefficients are very small and the 95% confidence interval for all pairs includes zero.

Sales/Price:

Correlation coefficient 0.103 p value 0.1478 95% confidence interval -0.037 to 0.238

Sales/Inventory Level: Correlation coefficient -0.035 p value 0.6198 95% confidence interval -0.173 to 0.104

Price/Inventory Level: Correlation coefficient -0.040 p value 0.5714 95% confidence interval -0.178 to 0.099

```
cor_test_results <- list(</pre>
  Sales vs Price = cor.test(df$Sales, df$Price),
  Sales_vs_Inventory = cor.test(df$Sales, df$Inventory_Levels),
  Price_vs_Inventory = cor.test(df$Price, df$Inventory_Levels))
cor_test_results
$Sales_vs_Price
    Pearson's product-moment correlation
data: df$Sales and df$Price
t = 1.4532, df = 198, p-value = 0.1478
alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
-0.03653442 0.23807516
sample estimates:
      cor
0.1027273
$Sales_vs_Inventory
    Pearson's product-moment correlation
data: df$Sales and df$Inventory_Levels
t = -0.49697, df = 198, p-value = 0.6198
alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
-0.1731891 0.1039539
sample estimates:
        cor
-0.03529619
$Price_vs_Inventory
```

Pearson's product-moment correlation

Discussion:

Explain the meaning of your findings and discuss the implications of the correlations for inventory management. Would you be concerned about multicollinearity in a potential regression model? Why or why not?

The correlations between Sales, Price, and Inventory Levels are all very weak and not statistically significant, so multicollinearity is not a concern in a regression model.

2: Linear Algebra and Pricing Strategy (5 Points)

1. Price Elasticity of Demand:

Use linear regression to model the relationship between Sales and Price (assuming Sales as the dependent variable).

```
Sales = 9.916 * Price + 442.951
```

This model has a very low R-squared of only 0.0155 so price explains only 1.6% of Sales. The relationship is not statistically significant with a p value of 0.1478.

```
mod_pricing <- df %>%
  lm(Sales ~ Price, .)
summary(mod_pricing)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = Sales ~ Price, data = .)
Residuals:
   Min   1Q Median   3Q Max
```

```
-679.54 -347.85 -98.63 241.12 1770.08
```

Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 442.951 137.419 3.223 0.00148 **
Price 9.916 6.824 1.453 0.14775
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Residual standard error: 462.2 on 198 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.01055, Adjusted R-squared: 0.005556

F-statistic: 2.112 on 1 and 198 DF, p-value: 0.1478

Invert the correlation matrix from your model, and calculate the precision matrix.

```
# correlation matrix
sales_cor_matrix <- df %>%
  dplyr::select(Sales, Price) %>%
  cor(method = "pearson")
sales_cor_matrix
```

```
Sales Price Sales 1.0000000 0.1027273 Price 0.1027273 1.0000000
```

```
# invert
sales_precision_matrix <- solve(sales_cor_matrix)
sales_precision_matrix</pre>
```

```
Sales Price Sales 1.0106655 -0.1038229 Price -0.1038229 1.0106655
```

Discuss the implications of the diagonal elements of the precision matrix (which are variance inflation factors).

The diagonal elements are VIFs and as they are very close to 1, there is low variance inflation and no multicollinearity.

Perform LU decomposition on the correlation matrix and interpret the results in the context of price elasticity.

Price elasticity is low based on the small value in the off-diagonal in both the U and L matrices.

```
# correlation matrix from above
sales_cor_matrix
```

```
Sales Price Sales 1.0000000 0.1027273 Price 0.1027273 1.0000000
```

```
# LU decomposition
sales_lu_decomp <- lu(Matrix(sales_cor_matrix))

# Extract L and U matrices
L <- expand(sales_lu_decomp)$L
U <- expand(sales_lu_decomp)$U

L <- as.matrix(L)
U <- as.matrix(U)</pre>
```

```
[,1] [,2]
[1,] 1.0000000 0
[2,] 0.1027273 1
```

U

```
[,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 0.1027273
[2,] 0 0.9894471
```

3: Calculus-Based Probability & Statistics for Sales Forecasting (5 Points)

1. Sales Forecasting Using Exponential Distribution:

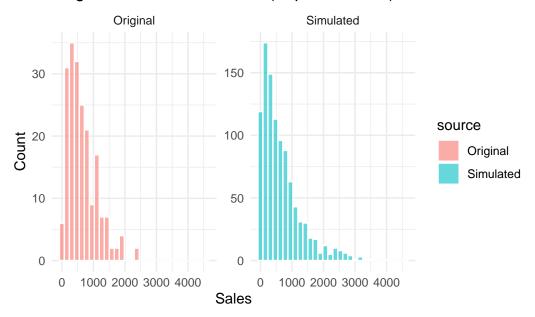
Identify a variable in the dataset that is skewed to the right (e.g., Sales or Price) and fit an exponential distribution to this data using the fitdistr function.

```
rate
0.0015700652
(0.0001110204)
```

Generate 1,000 samples from the fitted exponential distribution and compare a histogram of these samples with the original data's histogram.

```
#extract rate parameter
sales_lambda <- sales_fit_exp$estimate["rate"]</pre>
# simulate
set.seed(123)
sim_sales <- rexp(1000, rate = sales_lambda)</pre>
# compare
df_compare <- bind_rows(</pre>
  tibble(source = "Original", value = df$Sales),
  tibble(source = "Simulated", value = sim_sales))
plt_sim <- df_compare %>%
  ggplot(
    aes(x = value, fill = source)) +
    geom_histogram(bins = 30, color = "white", alpha = 0.6, position = "identity") +
    facet_wrap(~source, scales = "free_y") +
    theme_minimal() +
    labs(title = "Original vs Simulated Sales (Exponential Fit)",
         x = "Sales", y = "Count")
plt_sim
```

Original vs Simulated Sales (Exponential Fit)



Calculate the 5th and 95th percentiles using the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the exponential distribution.

5% of products have sales below 32.67 and 95% of products have sales below 1908.03 in the simulated model.

```
# expontial function rate from above: sales_lambda <- sales_fit_exp$estimate["rate"]
# quantile function
sales_q5 <- qexp(0.05, rate = sales_lambda)
sales_q95 <- qexp(0.95, rate = sales_lambda)
sales_q5</pre>
```

[1] 32.66953

```
sales_q95
```

[1] 1908.03

Compute a 95% confidence interval for the original data assuming normality and compare it with the empirical percentiles.

The confidence interval under the normality assumption includes negative sales numbers which is not possible; this data is not normally distributed but right-skewed.

```
# A tibble: 2 x 3

Method Lower Upper
<chr> <chr> < dbl> <dbl> 1 Normal CI -272. 1545.
2 Empirical Percentiles 105. 1502.
```

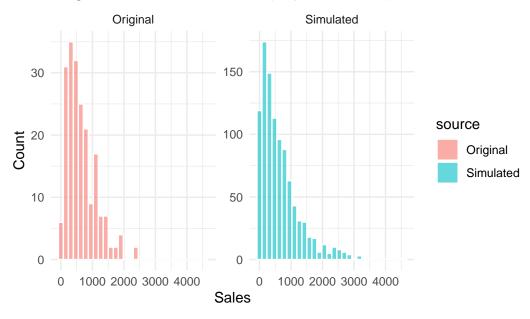
2. Discussion:

Discuss how well the exponential distribution models the data and what this implies for forecasting future sales or pricing. Consider whether a different distribution might be more appropriate.

As shown below, the exponential distribution captures the right skew in the plot below but it has more extreme values at both ends. The simulated values extend well beyond the maximum actual value of 2447.49 at the high end, and the simulated values near zero are proportionately higher than actual sales as well. So this model will **overestimate sales at the extremes** and I would try a gamma or log-normal distribution to avoid this issue while still capturing the skew.

```
plt_sim
```

Original vs Simulated Sales (Exponential Fit)



4: Regression Modeling for Inventory Optimization (10 Points)

1. Multiple Regression Model:

Build a multiple regression model to predict Inventory_Levels based on Sales, Lead_Time_Days, and Price. Provide a full summary of your model, including coefficients, R-squared value, and residual analysis.

Coefficients Inventory = -0.007809 * Sales + 7.316793 * Lead Time - 1.087778 * Price + 464.792662

None of the coefficients is statistically significant, and the overall model is not statistically significant (p-value 0.4902).

R-squared R-squared is 0.01223. The model explains only 1.2% of changes in Inventory Levels.

Residuals

Overall the data appears to meet the assumptions of no multicollinearity (see earlier analysis) as well as linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality of residuals.

1. Residuals vs Fitted: There is no fan shape or curve so the data appears to meet the assumptions of homoscedasticity and linearity. There does appear to be a lot of variation.

- 2. Histogram of Residuals: Appears nearly normally distributed so the data meets the assumption of normality.
- 3. Q-Q: Follows the line generally with deviation at both ends, suggests some mild skew/outliers.

```
# model
mod inv <- df %>%
  lm(Inventory_Levels ~ Sales + Lead_Time_Days + Price, .)
# summary
summary(mod_inv)
Call:
lm(formula = Inventory_Levels ~ Sales + Lead_Time_Days + Price,
    data = .)
Residuals:
    Min
            1Q Median
                            3Q
                                   Max
-395.54 -118.07 -7.68 111.81 372.56
Coefficients:
                Estimate Std. Error t value
                                                    Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
              464.792662 61.321852 7.580 0.0000000000135 ***
               -0.007809 0.023955 -0.326
Sales
                                                       0.745
Lead_Time_Days 7.316793
                           5.293049 1.382
                                                       0.168
               -1.087778
Price
                           2.305846 - 0.472
                                                       0.638
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 155.3 on 196 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.01223,
                               Adjusted R-squared: -0.002887
F-statistic: 0.8091 on 3 and 196 DF, p-value: 0.4902
# df with actuals, fitted, and residuals
df_inv_model <- df %>%
  dplyr::select(Inventory_Levels) %>%
 mutate(
    .fitted = fitted(mod_inv),
    .resid = resid(mod_inv),
    .std_resid = rstandard(mod_inv)
```

```
glimpse(df_inv_model)
Rows: 200
Columns: 4
$ Inventory_Levels <dbl> 367.4421, 426.6512, 407.6394, 392.3912, 448.3120, 547~
                   <dbl> 489.3130, 476.6767, 457.4460, 446.8733, 520.3259, 500~
$ .fitted
$ .resid
                   <dbl> -121.870856, -50.025552, -49.806610, -54.482154, -72.~
                   <dbl> -0.78922979, -0.32542964, -0.32447302, -0.36110725, -~
$ .std_resid
# Residuals vs Fitted
plot_resid <- df_inv_model %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = .fitted, y = .resid)) +
  geom_point(alpha = 0.6, color = "gray40") +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 0, linetype = "dashed", color = "darkred") +
   title = "Residuals vs Fitted",
   x = "Fitted Values",
   y = "Residuals"
  ) +
  theme_minimal()
plot_resid
```

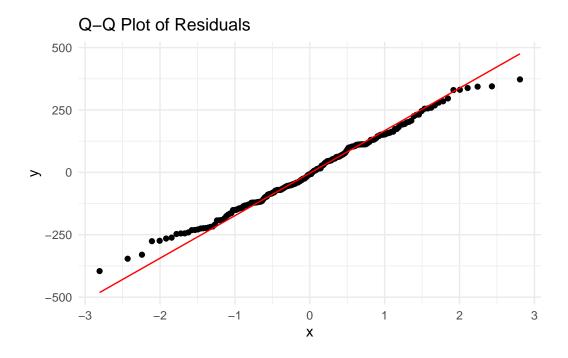
Residuals vs Fitted 200 -200 -400 440 460 480 500 520 540 Fitted Values

```
# Histogram of Residuals
plot_resid_hist <- df_inv_model %>%
    ggplot(aes(x = .resid)) +
    geom_histogram(bins = 15, fill = "gray", color = "white") +
    labs(title = "Histogram of Residuals", x = "Residuals") +
    theme_minimal()

plot_resid_hist
```

Histogram of Residuals 20 10 -250 Residuals

```
# Q-Q
plot_qq <- df_inv_model %>%
    ggplot(aes(sample = .resid)) +
    stat_qq() +
    stat_qq_line(color = "red") +
    labs(title = "Q-Q Plot of Residuals") +
    theme_minimal()
```



Optimization:

Use your model to optimize inventory levels for a peak sales season, balancing minimizing stockouts with minimizing overstock

The model explains very little and is not statistically significant, so it cannot reliably optimize inventory levels. Additionally, because it is a linear model, calculus is not helpful: the gradient is constant (equal to the coefficients) and the model has no curvature or interior max/min to find. To optimize a linear model, we need defined constraints and in this case the necessary data is unavailable.

Optimizing inventory levels is a time-based problem: inventory moves in and out over time, and planning requires forecasting demand movements across a defined time period. This dataset does not have a time dimension, holding cost, or stockout cost, so we could simply set beginning inventory equal to sales and run it down to zero: **optimization isn't meaningful under these conditions**.

However, we can create a rule of thumb inventory target if we make some assumptions:

- Time period for this dataset = 30 days
- Sales = baseline demand
- Seasonality_Index = expected uplift during peak season (Note that the median and mean Seasonality Index values are < 1, so most of these must be off-season products)
- Peak season = 30 days

Note that this is **not an optimization model** but allows a company to define their own replenishment buffer based on their **tolerance for stockout risk vs. holding cost**.

In the below example, I set a very low buffer of just one day more than lead time to simulate a situation where holding costs were high and I was willing to risk stockouts, and not surprisingly, the results show that current inventory is significantly overstocked given those parameters. I could raise this buffer if I wanted to reduce stockout risk and increase holding cost.

```
# assume Sales is 30 days of baseline sales
# project "peak season" sales: multiply Sales by seasonality factor
# calculate avg daily projected sales
# calculate target inventory to minimize holding time: multiply by
    lead time + 1 day (as a buffer)
# NOT AN OPTIMIZATION: just a rule of thumb
# change buffer_days to match tolerance for risk of
    stockout vs. holding cost
buffer_days <- 1</pre>
df_rule <- df %>%
  dplyr::select(-Price) %>%
  dplyr::rename(baseline_demand_30 = Sales) %>%
  mutate(peak_demand_30 = baseline_demand_30 * Seasonality_Index,
         daily_demand = peak_demand_30/30,
         buffer_days = buffer_days,
         target_inventory = daily_demand * (Lead_Time_Days + buffer_days),
         inventory_gap = Inventory_Levels - target_inventory)
glimpse(df_rule)
```

```
Rows: 200
Columns: 10
$ Product ID
                   <dbl> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, ~
$ baseline demand 30 <dbl> 158.43952, 278.99020, 698.85868, 1832.39467, 459.70~
                   <dbl> 367.4421, 426.6512, 407.6394, 392.3912, 448.3120, 5~
$ Inventory_Levels
$ Lead Time Days
                   <dbl> 6.314587, 5.800673, 3.071936, 3.534253, 10.802241, ~
$ Seasonality_Index <dbl> 1.1839497, 0.8573051, 0.6986774, 0.6975404, 0.84072~
                   <dbl> 187.58442, 239.17973, 488.27679, 1278.16932, 386.48~
$ peak_demand_30
$ daily_demand
                   <dbl> 6.2528141, 7.9726578, 16.2758931, 42.6056439, 12.88~
$ buffer_days
                   $ target_inventory
                   <dbl> 45.736752, 54.219436, 66.274390, 193.184756, 152.04~
$ inventory_gap
                   <dbl> 321.70538, 372.43172, 341.36499, 199.20642, 296.265~
```

summary(df_rule\$inventory_gap)

Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. -271.8 209.4 336.0 330.9 471.9 790.1