



# ENV797 - TIME SERIES ANALYSIS FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONEMNET APPLICATIONS

## M7 - Introduction to Forecasting

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# Learning Goals



- Intro to Forecasting
- Simple Averaging techniques
- Forecasting with ARIMA models
- Intro to Forecasting in R




# Intro to Forecasting

# Intro to Time Series Forecasting

- Assume that future values of the time-series can be estimated from past values of the time-series
- Simple Forecasting techniques
  - ▣ Naïve Forecast
  - ▣ Simple Average
  - ▣ Moving average
  - ▣ Weighted moving average
  - ▣ Exponential smoothing

# Introduction to Forecasting

- **Forecast**  **statement about the future value** of a **variable of interest**
  - Forecasts are often used for weather, demand, and resource availability
  - Important element in making informed decisions

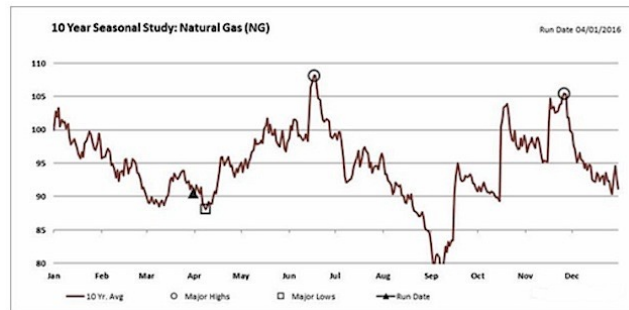


# Forecasts affect decisions

<b>Accounting</b>	<b>Cost/profit estimates</b>
<b>Finance</b>	<b>Cash flow and funding</b>
<b>Human Resources</b>	<b>Hiring/recruiting/training</b>
<b>Marketing</b>	<b>Pricing, promotion, strategy</b>
<b>Operations</b>	<b>Schedules, workloads</b>
<b>Product/service design</b>	<b>New products and services</b>

# Two Important Aspects of Forecasts

- Expected level of demand or any other variable of interest.
  - The level of demand may be a function of some structural variation such as trend or seasonal variation



- Accuracy
  - Related to the potential size of forecast error



Calculating Forecast Error



# Features Common to All Forecasts

1. Techniques **assume some underlying causal system that existed in the past will persist** into the future
2. **Forecasts are not perfect**
3. **Forecasts for groups of items are more accurate** than those for individual items
4. **Forecast accuracy decreases** as the forecasting **horizon increases**

How many times  
you want for forecast.





# Elements of a Good Forecast

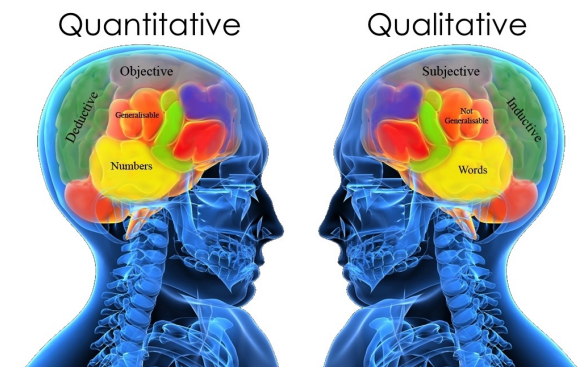
The forecast:

- Should be **timely**
- Should be **accurate**
- Should be **reliable**
- Should be **expressed in meaningful units**
- Technique should be *simple to understand and use*
- Should be **cost effective**

# Forecasting Process Steps



1. Determine the purpose of the forecast
2. Establish a time horizon
3. Obtain, clean, and analyze appropriate data
4. Select a forecasting technique
5. Make the forecast
6. Monitor the forecast



# Forecasting Approaches

## Qualitative

Delphi Method

Nominal Group  
Technique Method

Market Survey  
Method

Historical Analogy  
Method

## Qualitative Forecasting

- Qualitative techniques permit the inclusion of *soft* information such as:
  - Human factors
  - Personal opinions
  - Hunches
- These factors are difficult, or impossible, to quantify

## Quantitative Forecasting

- Involve either the projection of historical data or the development of associative methods that attempt to use *causal variables*
- These techniques rely on *hard* data

## Quantitative

Causal Method

### Time Series Method

Moving Average  
Method

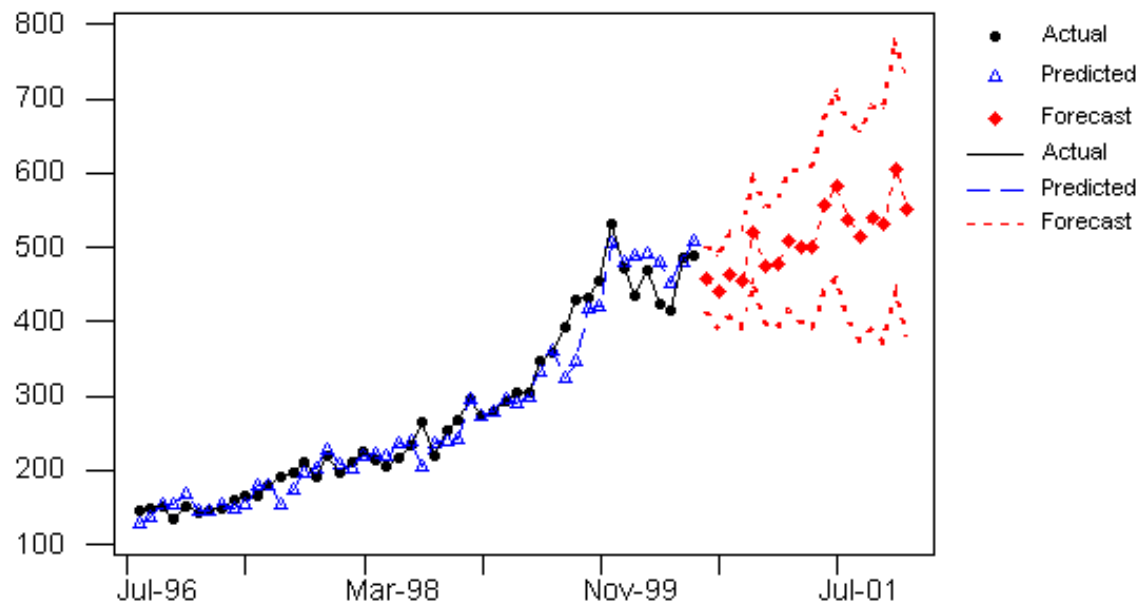
Simple Exponential  
Smoothing

Holt's Method

Winter's Method

# Quantitative Forecasting

- Forecasts that project patterns identified in recent time-series observations
- Assume that future values of the time-series can be estimated from past values of the time-series





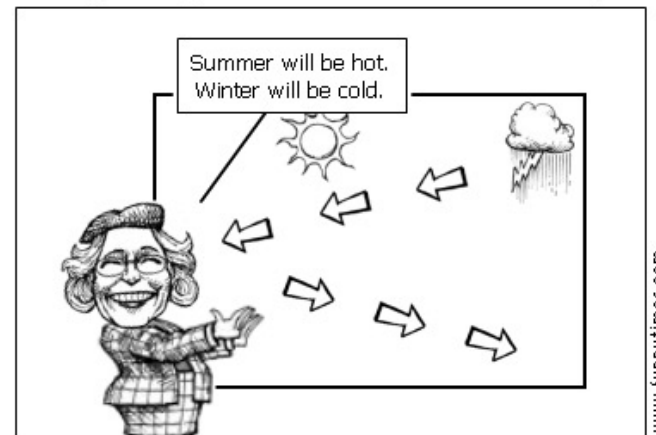
# Simple Averaging Forecasting Methods

# Time Series Forecasting - Naïve Forecast

## □ Naïve Forecast

- ▣ Uses a **single previous value** of a time series as the basis for a forecast
- ▣ The forecast for a time period is equal to the previous time period value
- ▣ Can be used with
  - a stable time series
  - seasonal variations
  - trend

**Long Range Weather Forecast** by Eric Perlin



# Naïve Forecasts

- Forecast for any period = previous period's actual value

$$F_t = A_{t-1}$$

Can say  $Y_t = Y_{t-1}$  meaning tomorrow depends on yesterday.

F: forecast    A: Actual    t: time period

Type text here

# Naïve Forecast Example

Week	Sales (actual)	Sales (forecast)	Error
<b>t</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>A - F</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>-</b>	
<b>2</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>-10</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>-3</b>

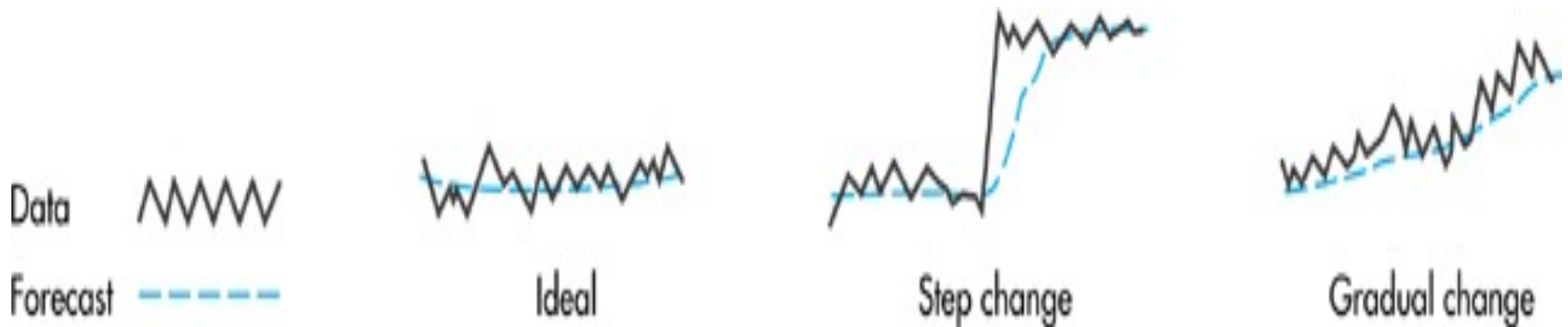


# Naïve Forecasts



- ❑ Simple to use
- ❑ Virtually no cost
- ❑ Quick and easy to prepare
- ❑ Data analysis is nonexistent
- ❑ Easily understandable
- ❑ Cannot provide high accuracy

# Uses for Naïve Forecasts



Seasonal naïve forecasting : repeating the values from the seasonal lag.

# Time Series Forecasting - Averaging

- These techniques work best when a series tends to vary about an average
- Averaging techniques **smooth variations** in the data
- They can handle **step changes or gradual changes** in the level of a series
- Techniques
  1. Moving average
  2. Weighted moving average
  3. Exponential smoothing



# Moving Average

- Technique that averages a number of the most recent actual values in generating a forecast

$$F_t = \text{MA}_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n A_{t-i}}{n}$$

where

$F_t$  = Forecast for time period  $t$

$\text{MA}_n$  =  $n$  period moving average

$A_{t-1}$  = Actual value in period  $t - 1$

$n$  = Number of periods in the moving average

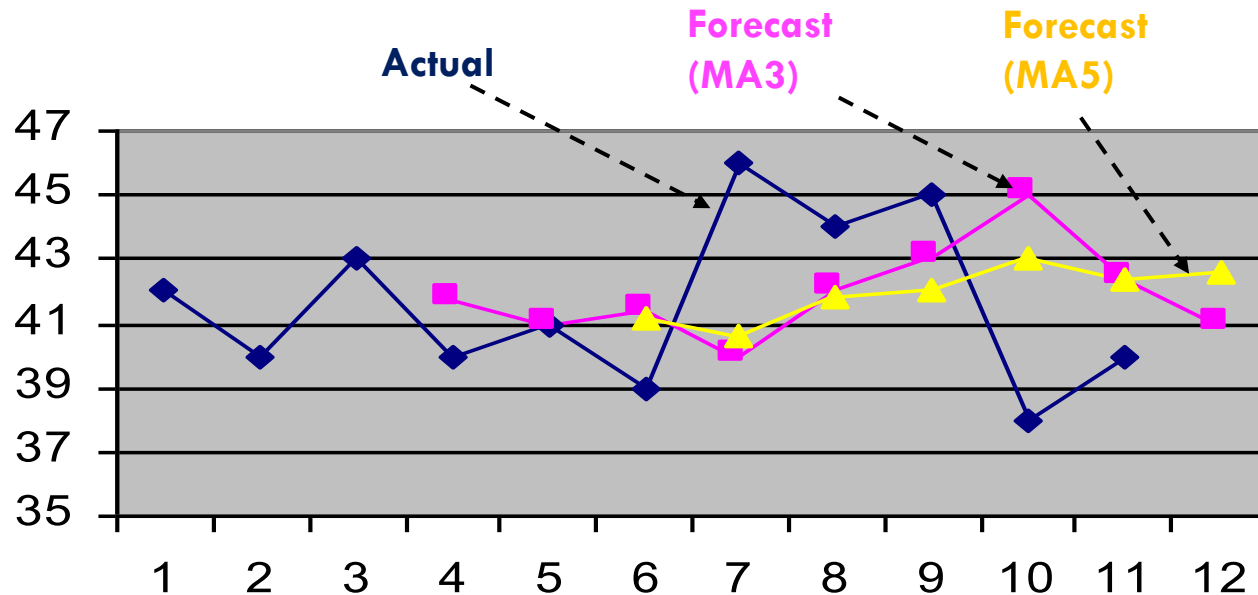
# Moving Average

- As **new data become available**, the **forecast is updated** by adding the newest value and dropping the oldest and then re-computing the average
- The number of data points included in the average determines the model's sensitivity
  - **Fewer data points used-- more responsive**
  - **More data points used-- less responsive**

# Moving Average Example

Week	Sales (actual)	Sales (forecast)	Error
t	A	F = MA3	A - F
1	20	-	
2	25	-	
3	15	-	
4	30	20	10
5	27	23.3333	3.66667
6		24	

# Simple Moving Average



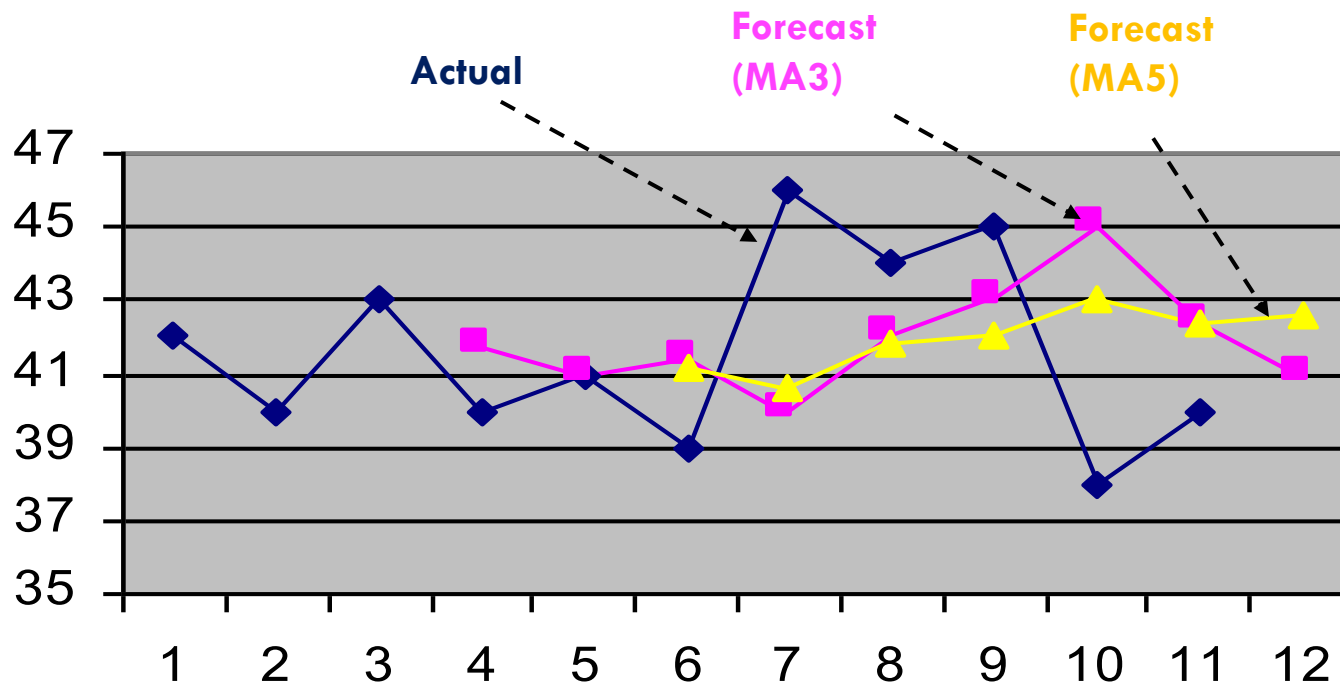
Questions:

- Why is MA3 longer than MA5?
- Which curve fluctuate the most?
- Which curve is the smoothest?

# Simple Moving Average

## Responsiveness vs. Stability

- Smaller  $m$ , responsiveness  $\uparrow$ , stability  $\downarrow$
- Larger  $m$ , responsiveness  $\downarrow$ , stability  $\uparrow$
- Must maintain stability when fluctuations are high





# Weighted Moving Average

- The most recent values in a time series are given more weight in computing a forecast
  - ▣ The choice of weights,  $w$ , is somewhat arbitrary and involves some trial and error

$$F_{t+1} = w_t A_t + w_{t-1} A_{t-1} + w_{t-2} A_{t-2} + \cdots + w_{t-n} A_{t-n}$$

where

$w_t$  = weight for period  $t$ ,  $w_{t-1}$  = weight for period  $t-1$ , etc.

$A_t$  = the actual value for period  $t$ ,  $A_{t-1}$  = the actual value for period  $t-1$ , etc.

# Weighted Moving Average Example

Week	Sales (actual)	Sales (forecast)	Error
t	A	F = MA3	A - F
1	20	-	
2	25	-	
3	15	-	
4	30	19	11
5	27	24.5	2.5
6		25.5	

$$w_{t-1} = 0.5, \quad w_{t-2} = 0.3, \quad w_{t-3} = 0.2,$$

# Exponential Smoothing

- A weighted averaging method that is based on the previous forecast plus a percentage of the forecast error

$$F_t = F_{t-1} + \alpha(A_{t-1} - F_{t-1})$$

$F_t$ : forecast for period  $t$

$F_{t-1}$ : forecast for previous period  $t-1$

$\alpha$ : smoothing constant

$A_{t-1}$ : actual value from previous period

$A_{t-1} - F_{t-1}$  is the error term

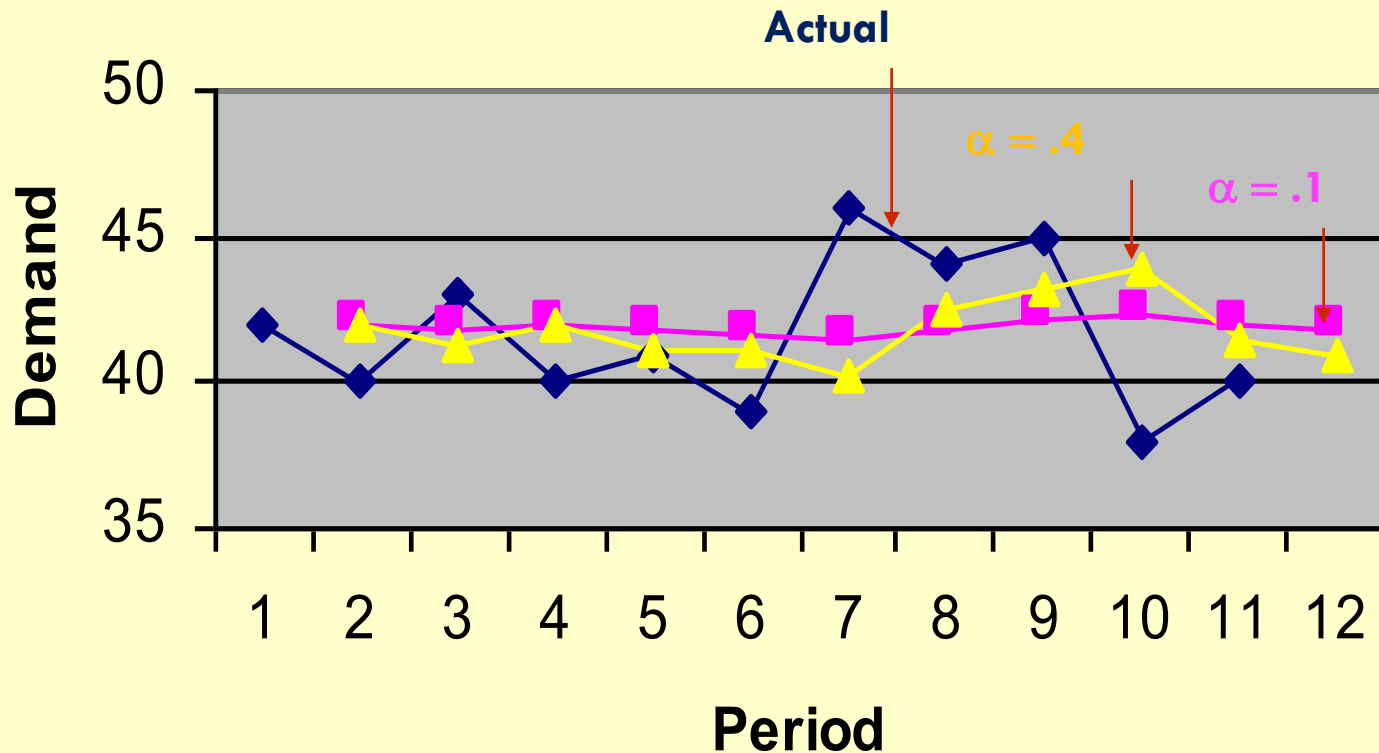
# Example 3 - Exponential Smoothing

$$F_t = F_{t-1} + \alpha(A_{t-1} - F_{t-1})$$

Period	Actual	Alpha = 0.1	Error	Alpha = 0.4	Error
1	42				
2	40	42	-2.00	42	-2
3	43	41.8	1.20	41.2	1.8
4	40	41.92	-1.92	41.92	-1.92
5	41	41.73	-0.73	41.15	-0.15
6	39	41.66	-2.66	41.09	-2.09
7	46	41.39	4.61	40.25	5.75
8	44	41.85	2.15	42.55	1.45
9	45	42.07	2.93	43.13	1.87
10	38	42.36	-4.36	43.88	-5.88
11	40	41.92	-1.92	41.53	-1.53
12		41.73		40.92	

$$F_3 = 42 + 0.1(40 - 42) = 41.8$$

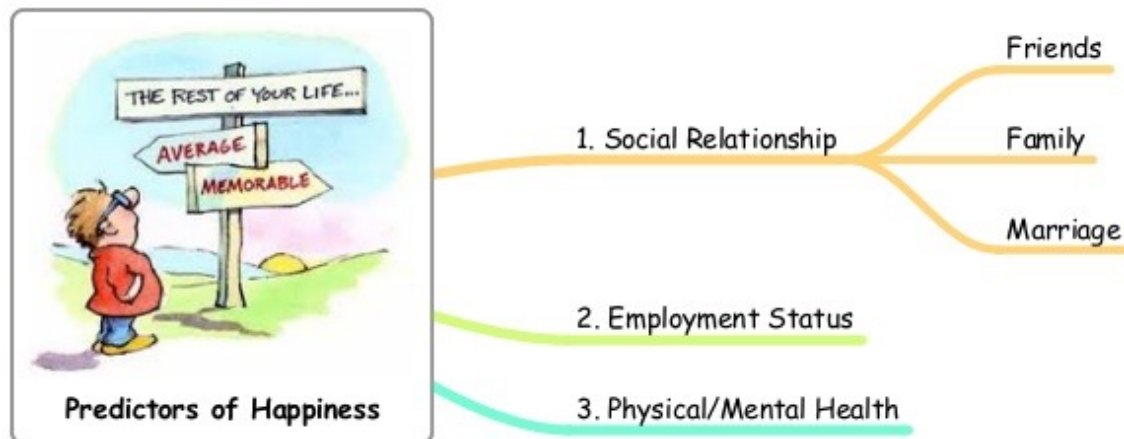
# Picking a Smoothing Constant



The smaller alpha represents the smoother series.

# Associative Forecasting Techniques

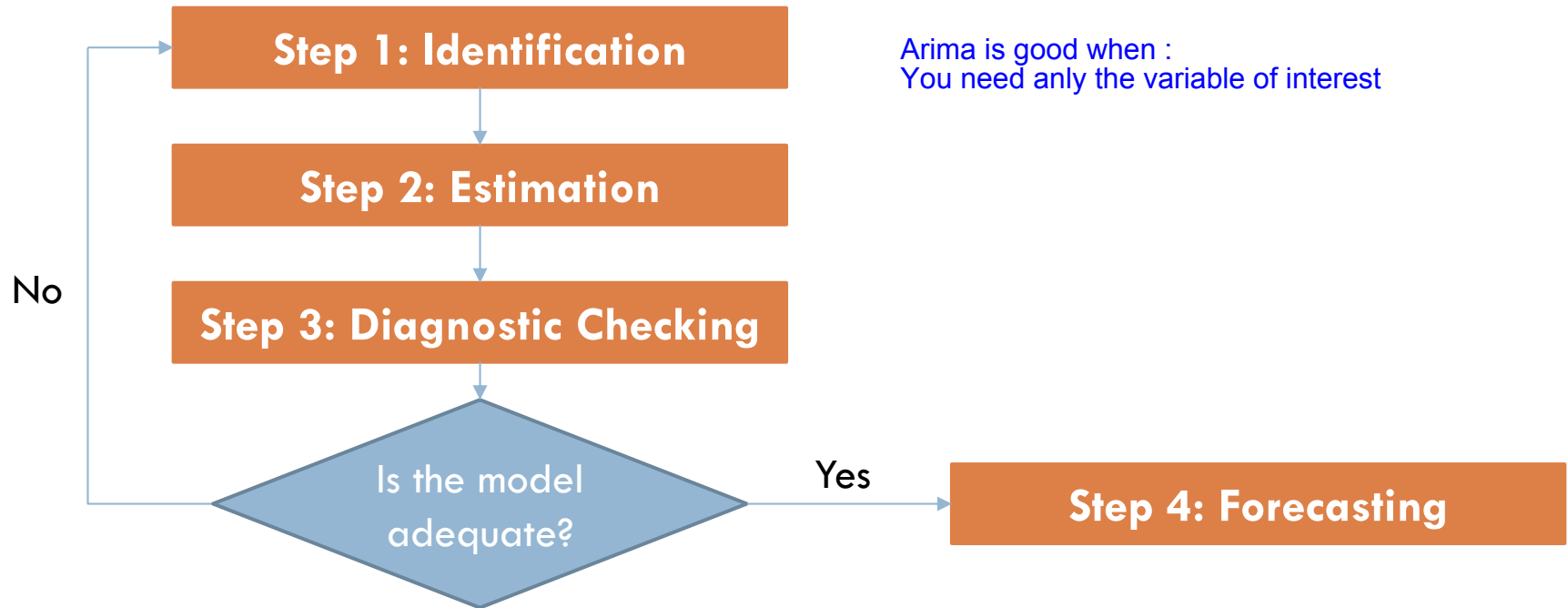
- Associative techniques are **based on the development of an equation that summarizes the effects of predictor variables** A linear regression is also a forecasting technique
- **Predictor variables** - variables that can be used to predict values of the variable of interest
- **Home values may be related** to: home and **property size, location, number of bedrooms**, and number of bathrooms





# Forecasting with ARIMA Models

# ARIMA Modeling Process



- The use of ARIMA is appropriate when
  - ▣ little or nothing is known about the dependent variable being forecasted,
  - ▣ the independent variables known to be important cannot be forecasted effectively
  - ▣ all that is needed is a one or two-period forecast

ARIMA is good for shorter period forecasting.



# ARIMA Forecasting

- Recall the ARMA(1,1) model equation

$$Y_t = \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + a_t - \theta_1 a_{t-1} \quad \text{for } t = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$a_t \sim i.i.d. N(0, \sigma^2)$$

- What would be the value of the next Y, say  $Y_{t+1} = ?$
- From the estimation step you have  $\phi = (\phi_1 \ \phi_2 \ \dots \ \phi_p)'$  and  $\sigma^2$
- All you need to do is plug in the parameters and past Y values
- Same principle is extended for the more general class of ARIMA Models

# Forecasting with MA(2)

## MA(2) model

$$Y_t = \mu + a_t - \theta_1 a_{t-1} - \theta_2 a_{t-2}$$

## Forecasting

### 1-step

$$Y_{n+1} = \mu + a_{n+1} - \theta_1 a_n - \theta_2 a_{n-1}$$

$$\hat{Y}_{n+1} = \mu - \theta_1 a_n - \theta_2 a_{n-1}$$

$$E[a_{n+1}] = 0$$

$$Y_{n+1} - \hat{Y}_{n+1} = a_{n+1} \longrightarrow \text{Var}(Y_{n+1} - \hat{Y}_{n+1}) = \text{Var}(a_{n+1}) = \sigma^2$$

### 2-step

$$Y_{n+2} = \mu + a_{n+2} - \theta_1 a_{n+1} - \theta_2 a_n$$

$$\hat{Y}_{n+2} = \mu - \theta_2 a_n$$

$$E[a_{n+1}] = 0$$

$$E[a_{n+2}] = 0$$

$$Y_{n+2} - \hat{Y}_{n+2} = a_{n+2} - \theta_1 a_{n+1} \longrightarrow \text{Var}(Y_{n+2} - \hat{Y}_{n+2}) = \sigma^2(1 + \theta_1^2)$$

### 3-step

$$Y_{n+3} = \mu + a_{n+3} - \theta_1 a_{n+2} - \theta_2 a_{n+1}$$

$$\hat{Y}_{n+3} = \mu$$

$$E[a_{n+1}] = 0$$

$$E[a_{n+2}] = 0$$

$$E[a_{n+3}] = 0$$

$$Y_{n+3} - \hat{Y}_{n+3} = a_{n+3} - \theta_1 a_{n+2} - \theta_2 a_{n+1} \longrightarrow \text{Var}(Y_{n+3} - \hat{Y}_{n+3}) = \sigma^2(1 + \theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2)$$

# Forecasting with AR(2)

## □ AR(2) model

$$Y_t = \delta + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \phi_2 Y_{t-2} + a_t$$

## □ Forecasting

### ▣ 1-step

$$Y_{n+1} = \delta + \phi_1 Y_n + \phi_2 Y_{n-1} + a_{n+1}$$

$$\hat{Y}_{n+1} = \delta + \phi_1 Y_n + \phi_2 Y_{n-1}$$

$$E[a_{n+1}] = 0$$

$$Y_{n+1} - \hat{Y}_{n+1} = a_{n+1} \longrightarrow \text{Var}(Y_{n+1} - \hat{Y}_{n+1}) = \text{Var}(a_{n+1}) = \sigma^2$$

### ▣ 2-step

$$Y_{n+2} = \delta + \phi_1 Y_{n+1} + \phi_2 Y_n + a_{n+2}$$

$$\hat{Y}_{n+2} = \delta + \phi_1 \hat{Y}_{n+1} + \phi_2 Y_n$$

$$E[a_{n+2}] = 0$$

$$Y_{n+2} - \hat{Y}_{n+2} = a_{n+2} + \phi_1 a_{n+1} \longrightarrow \text{Var}(Y_{n+2} - \hat{Y}_{n+2}) = \sigma^2(1 + \phi_1^2)$$

### ▣ 3-step

$$Y_{n+3} = \delta + \phi_1 Y_{n+2} + \phi_2 Y_{n+1} + a_{n+3}$$

$$\hat{Y}_{n+3} = \delta + \phi_1 \hat{Y}_{n+2} + \phi_2 \hat{Y}_{n+1}$$

$$E[a_{n+3}] = 0$$

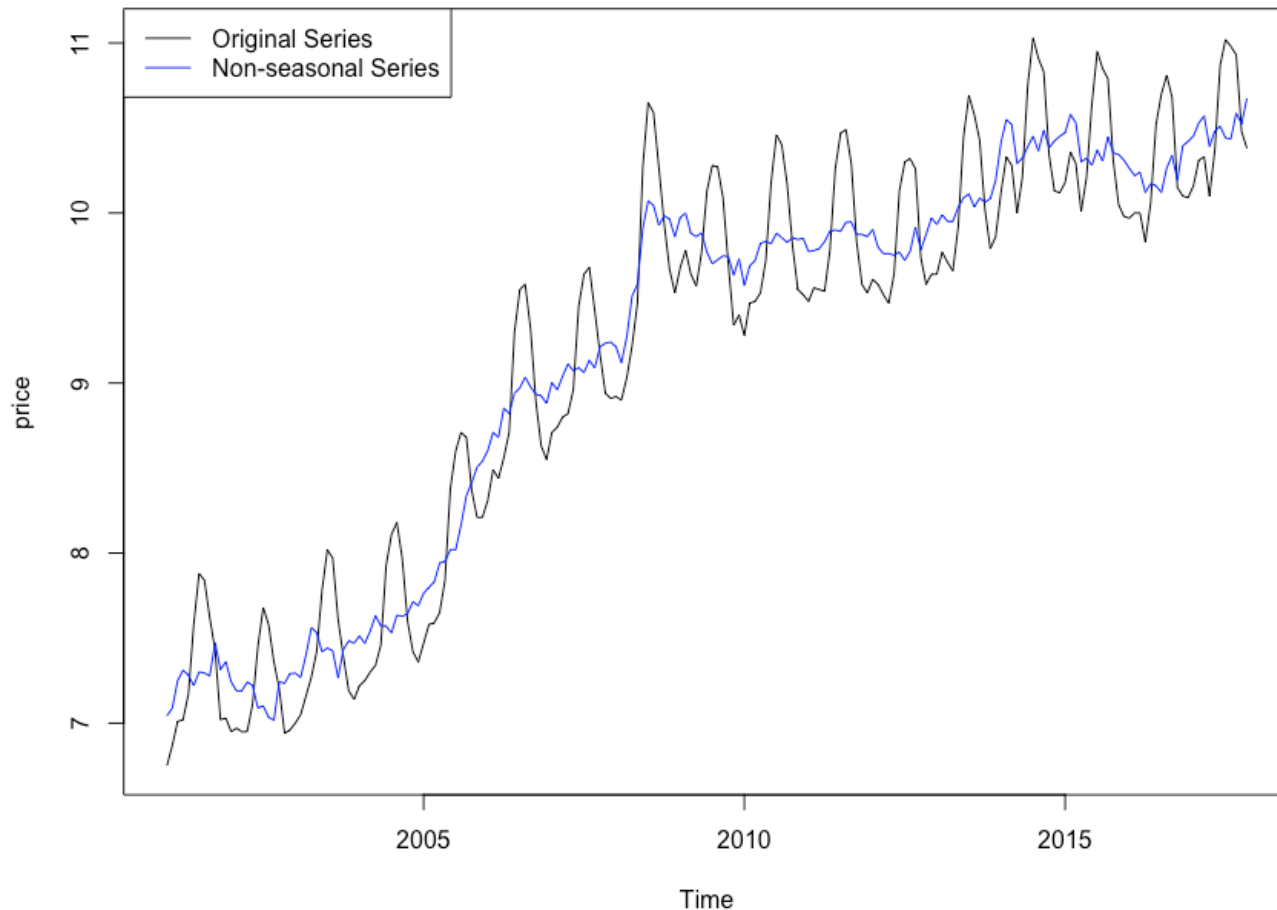
$$Y_{n+3} - \hat{Y}_{n+3} = a_{n+3} + \phi_1 a_{n+2} + (\phi_1^2 + \phi_2) a_{n+1} \longrightarrow \text{Var}(Y_{n+3} - \hat{Y}_{n+3}) = \sigma^2(1 + \phi_1^2 + (\phi_1^2 + \phi_2)^2)$$



*Let's revisit the electricity price data example...*

# From previous analysis

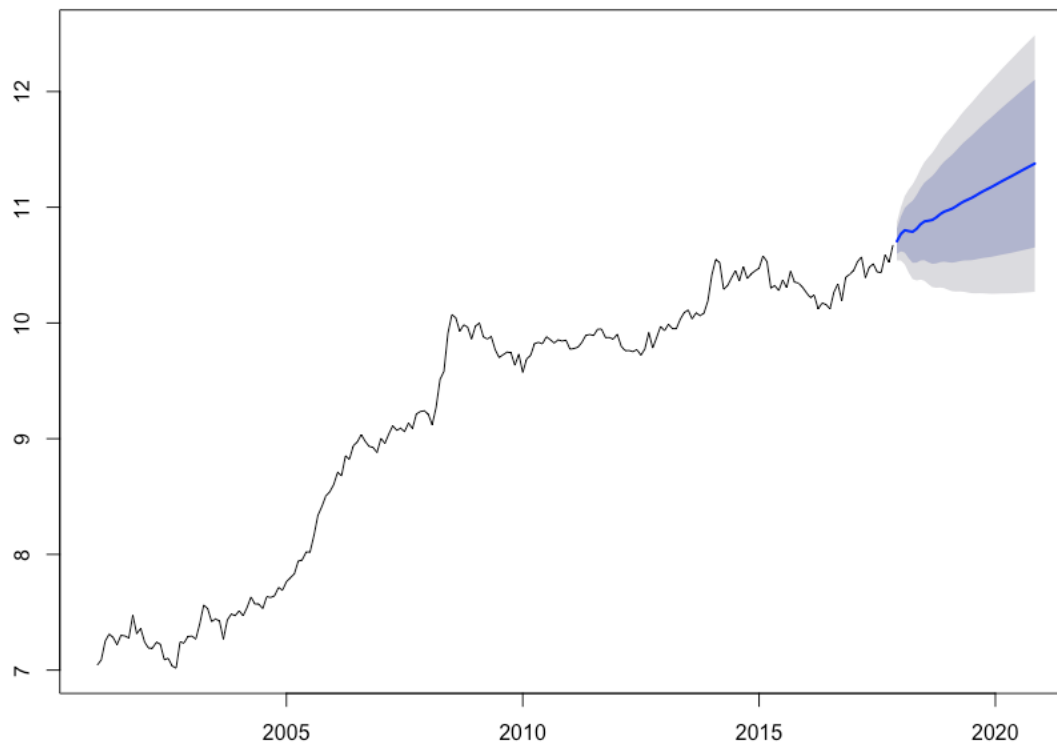
- ❑ Data exhibits trend and seasonality



# Example for Energy Price Data

## □ Taking seasonality out before fitting the ARIMA model

Forecasts from ARIMA(2,1,2) with drift



Forecast estimates are provided with confidence bounds

80% in darker blue, and 95% in lighter blue

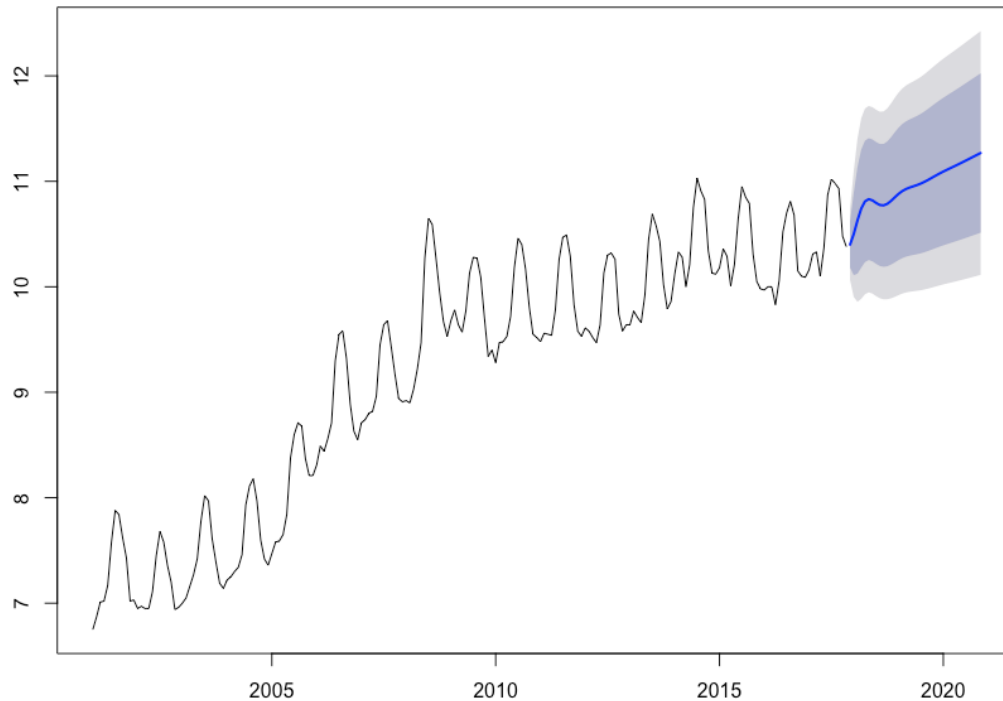
Longer term forecasts will have more uncertainty, as the model will regress future Y on previously predicted values

As a result the shape of the confidence bounds start to widen as we increase horizon

# Example for Energy Price Data

- Note what happens if you don't take seasonality and run the non-seasonal ARIMA

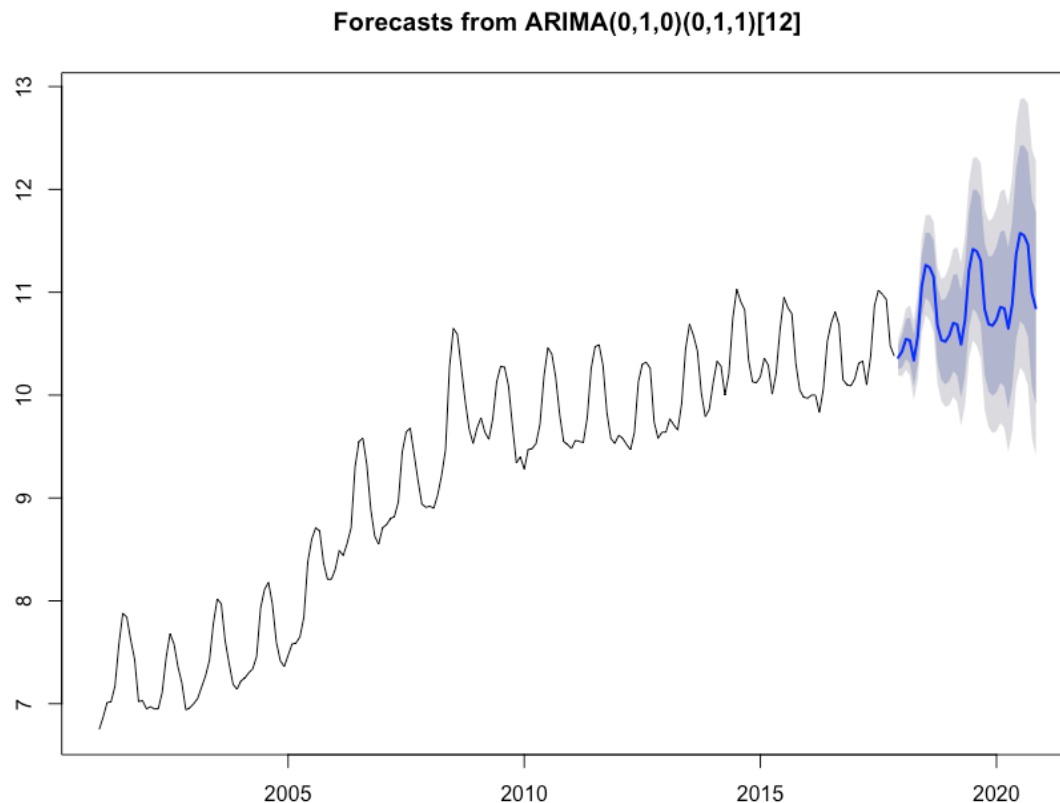
Forecasts from ARIMA(2,1,1) with drift



The results will be similar to the naïve forecasting, you are just modeling the trend, but there is no seasonal variation on the forecasts.

# Example for Energy Price Data

- Now consider the SARIMA on original data



Note that now the forecasts reproduce both trend and seasonal component

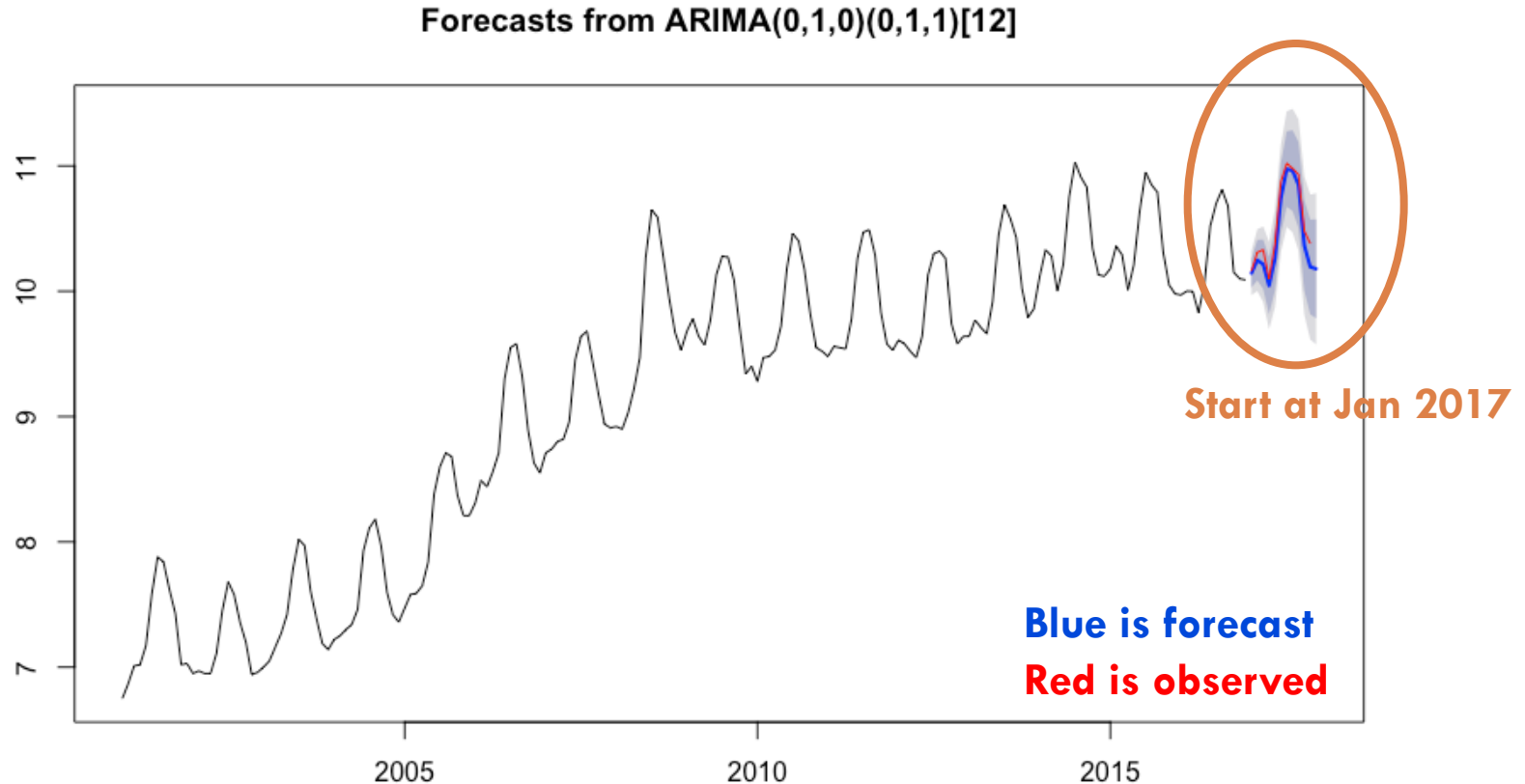


# How do you check model performance?

- Suppose you want to compute forecast error
- Forecasts can be either in-sample or out-of-sample
- In general the **out-of-sample forecasts** are a better test of how well the model works, as the forecast uses data not included in the estimation of the model
  - ▣ If you want to get a sense of how the model will perform in the future, reserve a portion of the data as a "**hold-out**" set, fit the model, and then compare the forecast to the actual observed values

# ARIMA Model Performance – Short-term

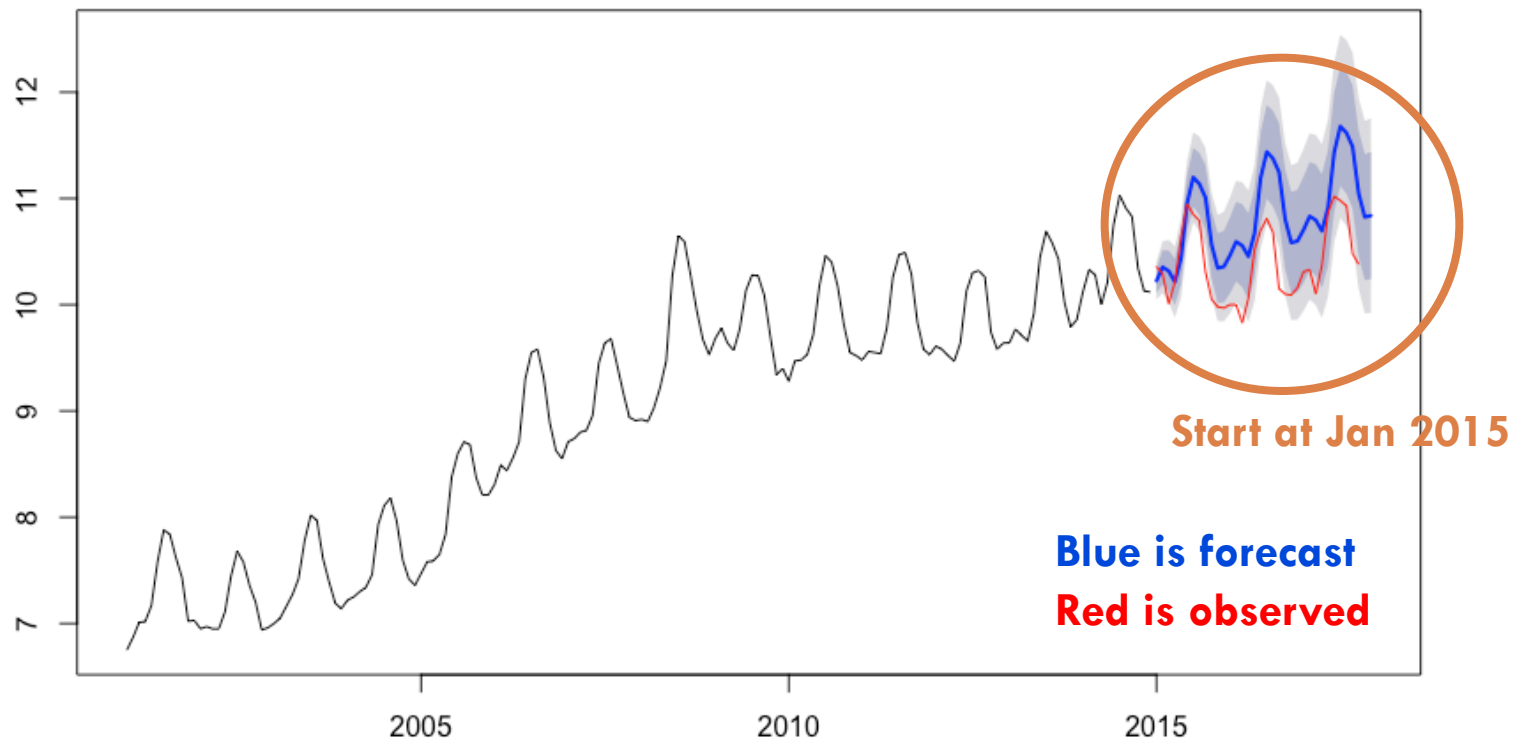
- To check your model performance over a year, leave one year of data out of the analysis



# ARIMA Model Performance – Long-term

- To check your model performance over three years, leave three years of data out of the analysis

Forecasts from ARIMA(1,0,0)(0,1,1)[12] with drift





Let's see this in R

# Forecasting in R

- Forecasting with ARIMA model
  1. *Fit ARIMA using `auto.arima()` or `Arima()`*
  2. *`forecast(object, ...)`*
- Forecasting with Moving Average Model

*`sma(y, order = NULL, h = 10, holdout = FALSE, level = 0.95, silent = c("all", "graph", "legend", "output", "none"), ...)`*
- Forecasting with Exponential Smoothing

*`ses(y, h = 10, level = c(80, 95), alpha = NULL, ...)`*

# More Simple Forecasting Methods in R

- Arithmetic Mean

package “forecast”

*meanf(y, h = 10, level = c(80, 95),...)*

- Naïve and Seasonal Naïve Method

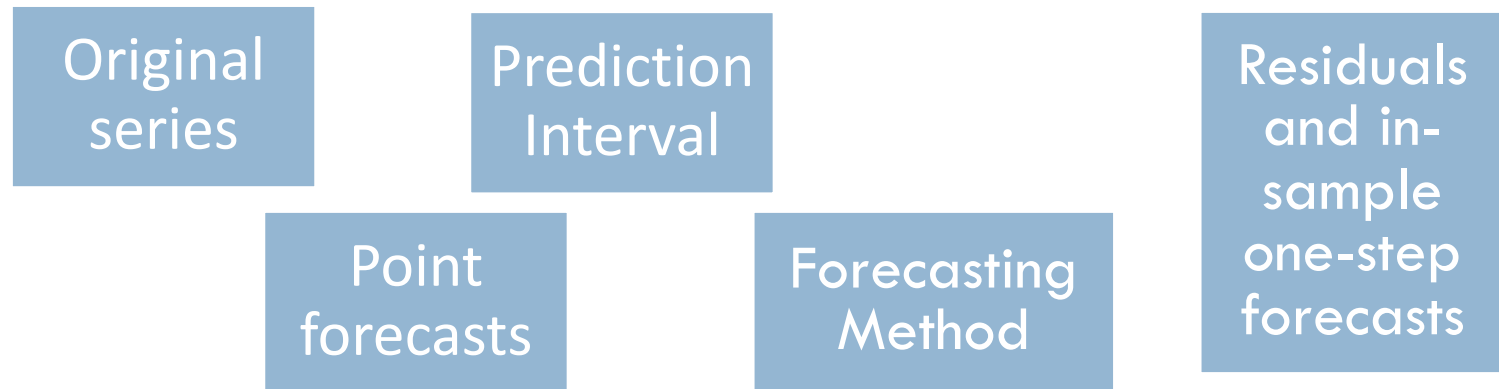
*naive(y, h = 10, level = c(80, 95), ...)*

*snaive(y, h = 10, level = c(80, 95), ...)\**

\*need to specify frequency when defining ts() object

# More Simple Forecasting Methods in R

- All these functions output a forecast object similar to the *forecast()* function
- The forecast object contains



# Measuring Forecast Accuracy in R

*accuracy(f, x, test = NULL, d = NULL, D = NULL, ...)*

package “forecast”

- *f* needs to be an object of class “forecast”
- *x* numerical vector containing actual values of the same length as object
- The measures calculated are:
  - ME: Mean Error
  - RMSE: Root Mean Squared Error → MSE
  - **MAE: Mean Absolute Error** → MAD
  - MPE: Mean Percentage Error
  - **MAPE: Mean Absolute Percentage Error**
  - MASE: Mean Absolute Scaled Error
  - ACF1: Autocorrelation of errors at lag 1.







# THANK YOU !

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