

# Class 6a: Time Series

Business Forecasting



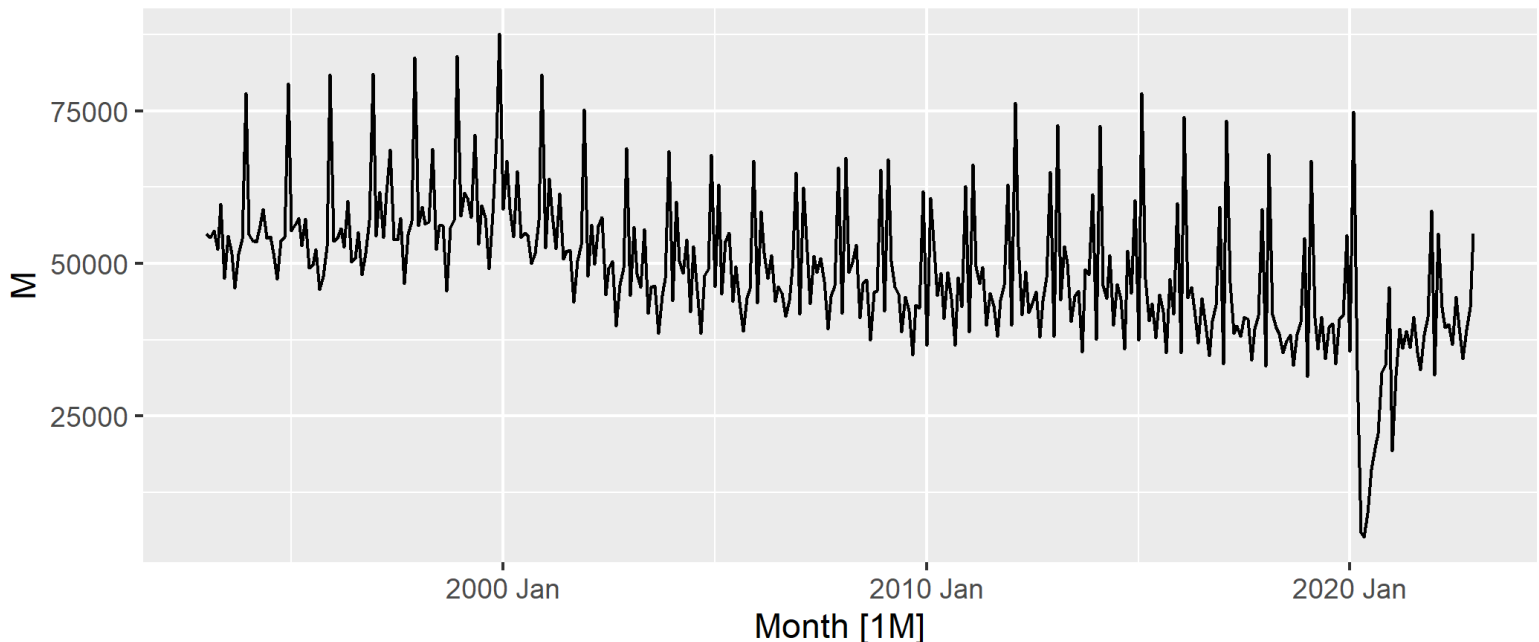
# Roadmap:

1. Components of time series
2. Patterns of correlation in time series
3. Simple forecasting methods
4. Evaluating forecasts
5. Time series decomposition
6. Forecasting with time series decomposition

# Example

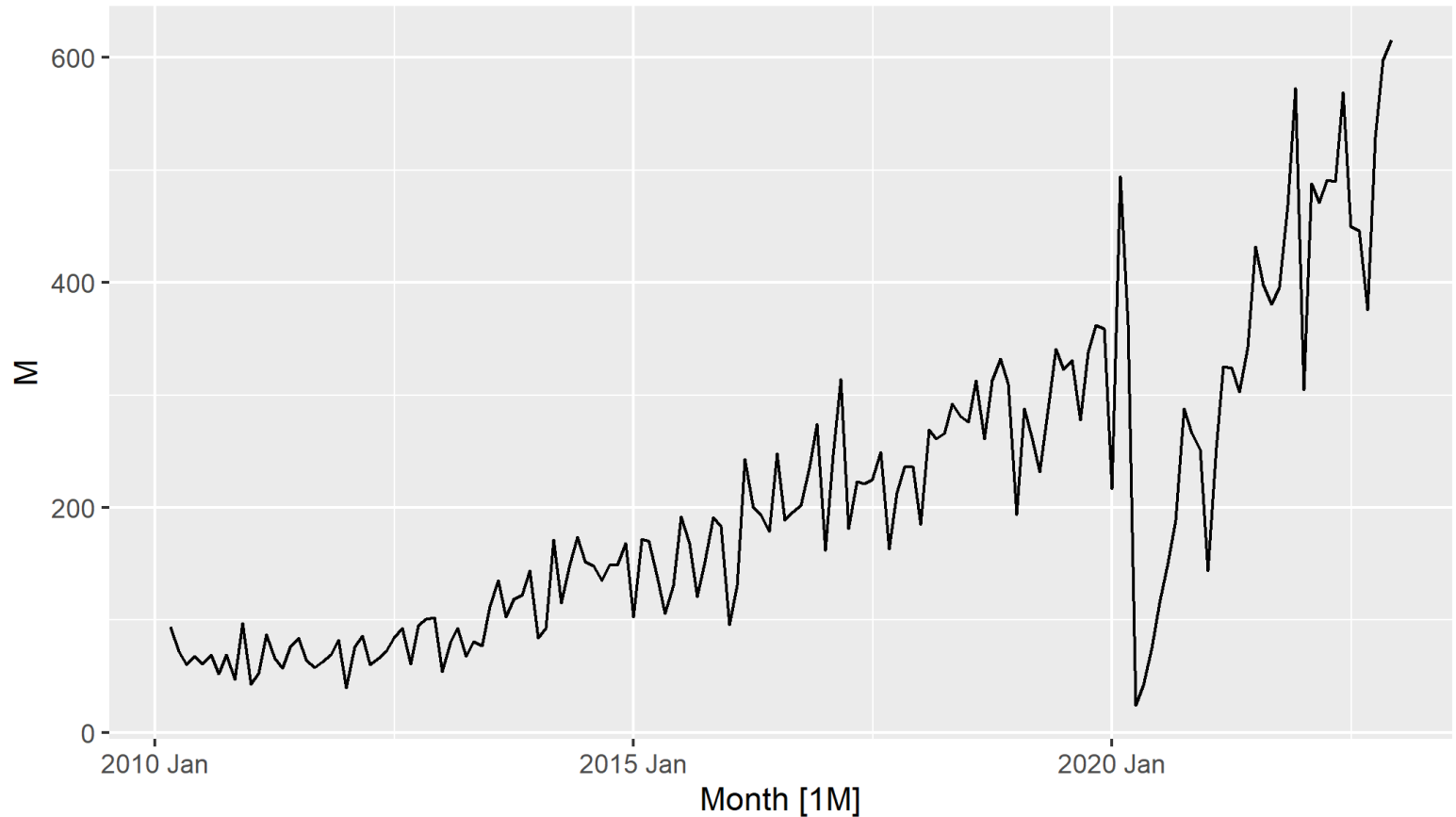
- Suppose you wonder if you should go into the wedding business.
- You need to predict whether there is potential for work
- So you look at evolution in the number of weddings across years

## Heterosexual Marriages in Mexico



What patterns can you identify in that time series?

# Same Sex Marriages in Mexico

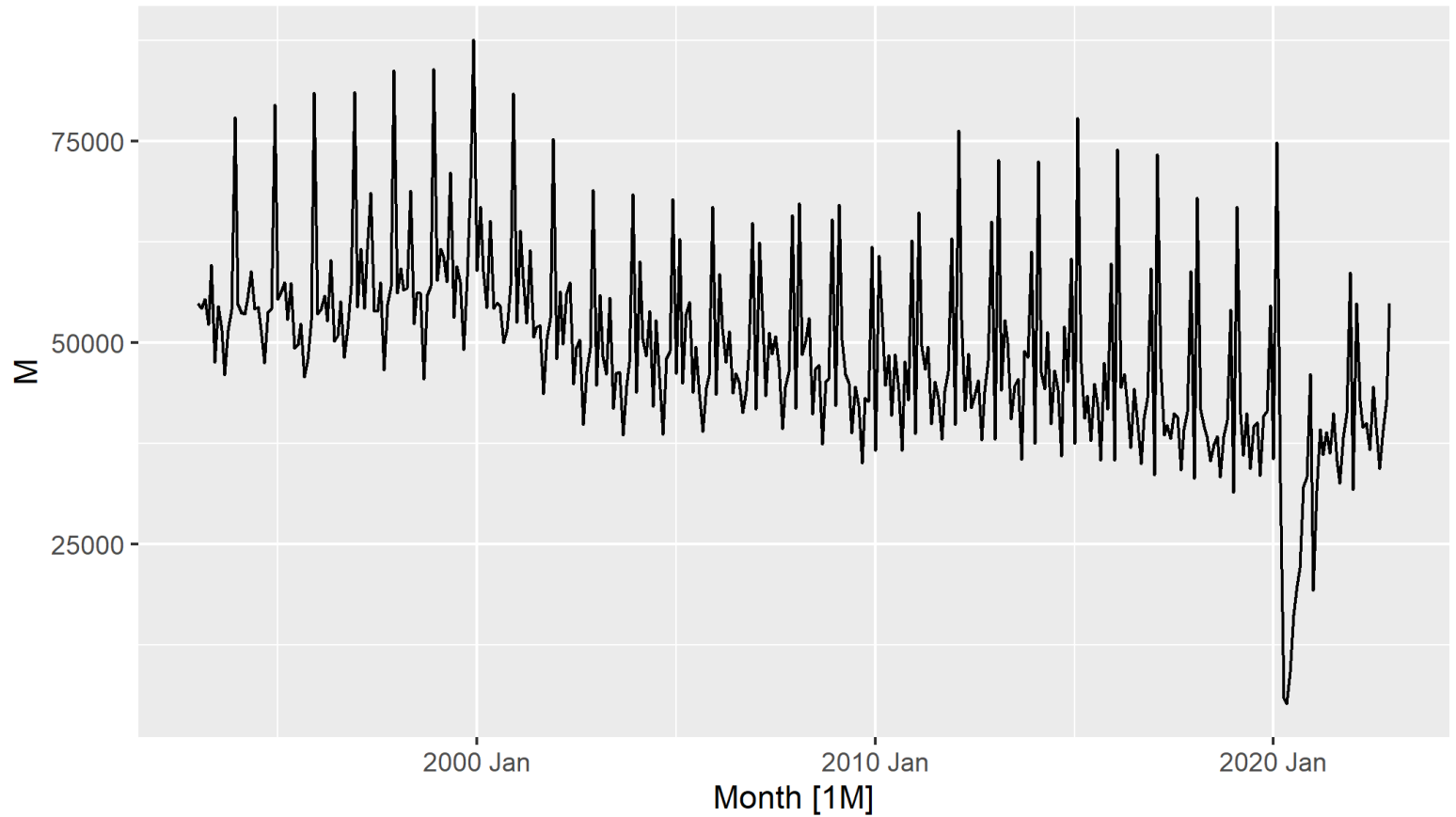


Going into gay marriage business is probably a better idea!

# Components

1. **Trend** - long term change in the level of data, positive or negative.
  - If flat, we call the data stationary
  - Formally, the mean, variance, and autocorrelation does not depend on time

# Heterosexual Marriages in Mexico

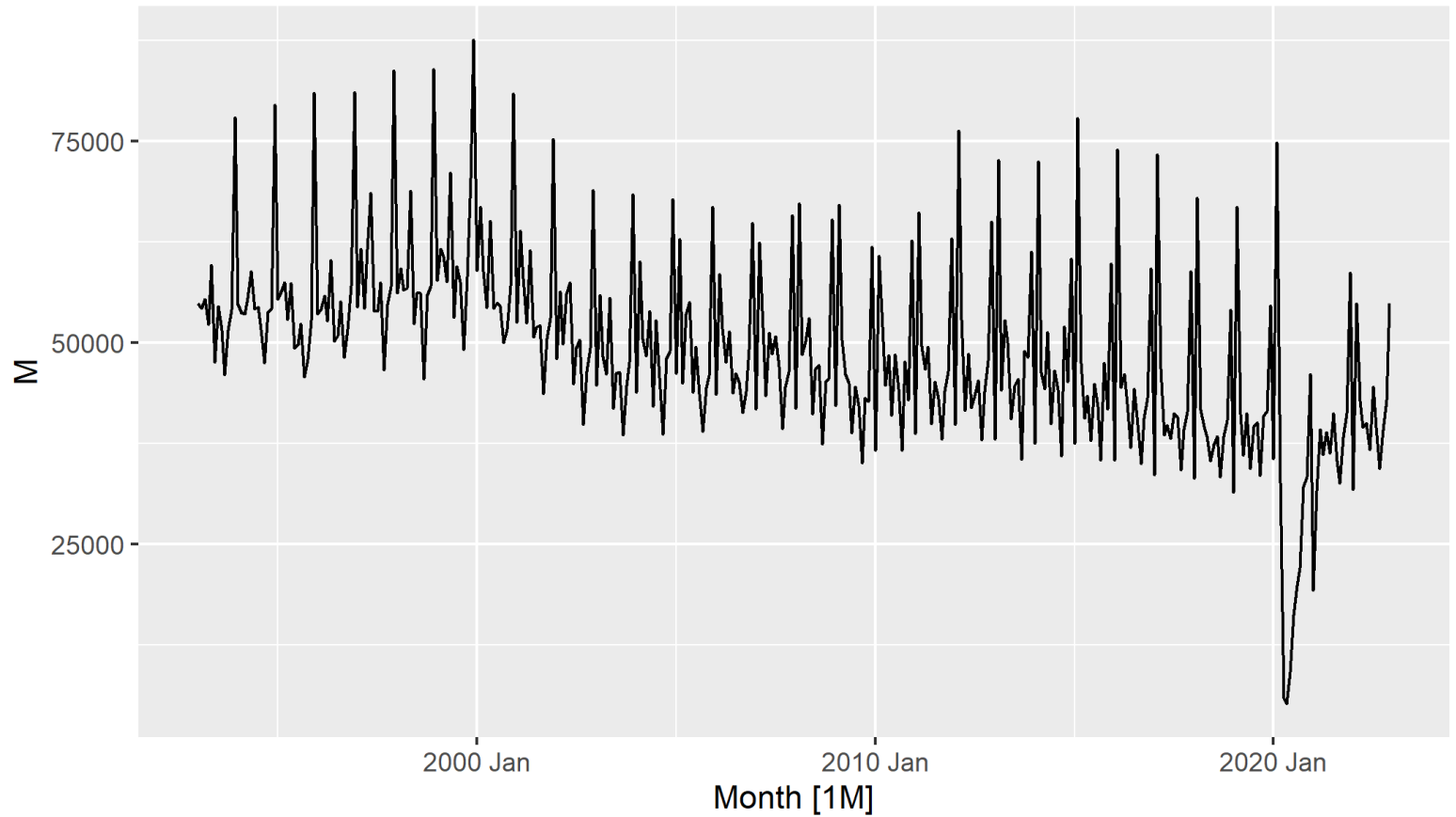


# Components

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  - If flat, we call the data stationary
  - Formally, the mean, variance, and autocorrelation does not depend on time
2. **Seasonal pattern**: Variation in level that repeats at the same time each period
  - If there is seasonality, data is not stationary



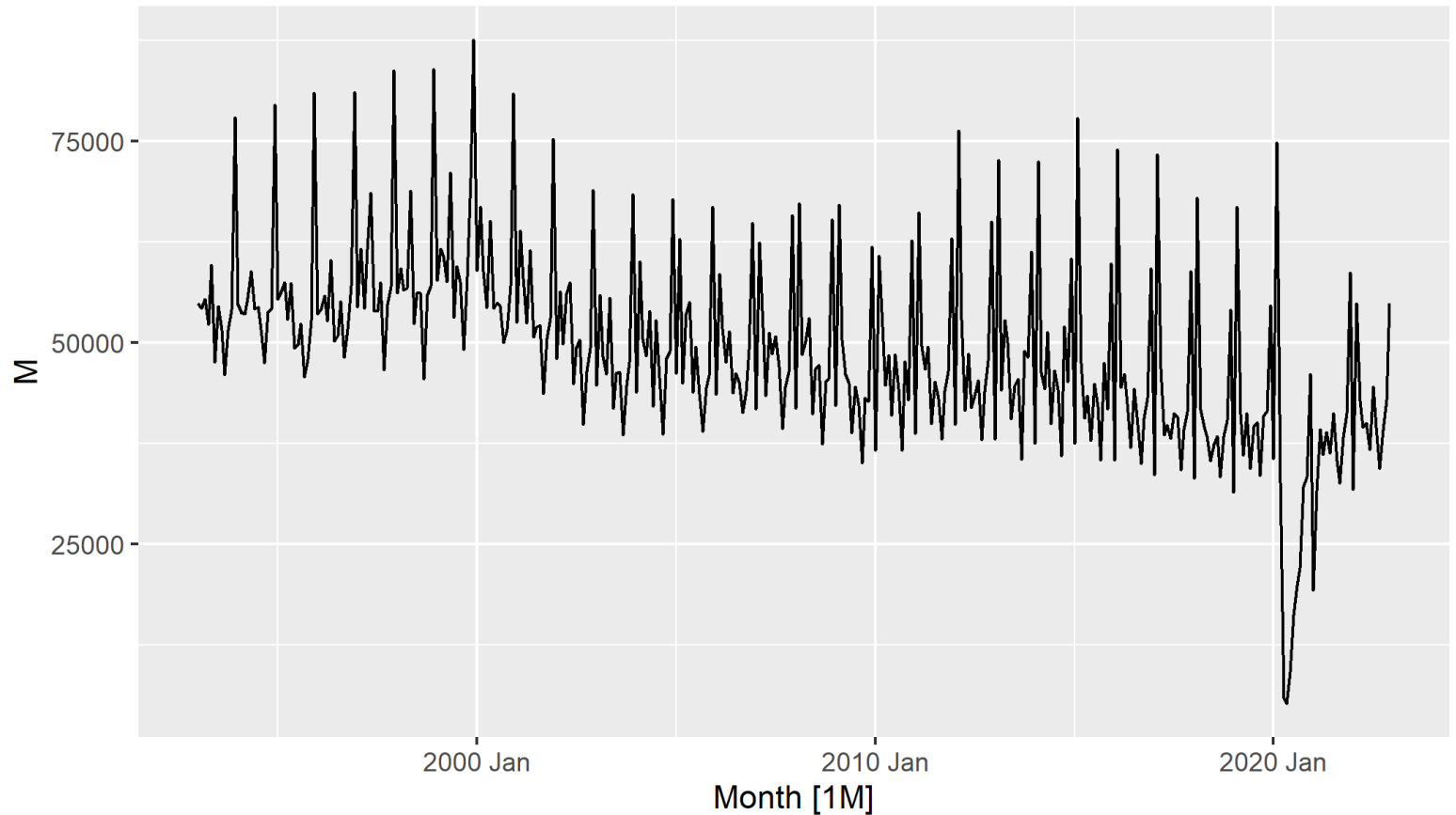
# Heterosexual Marriages in Mexico



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  - Different from seasonality which always happens at the same time and has same length
  - Often related to business cycles

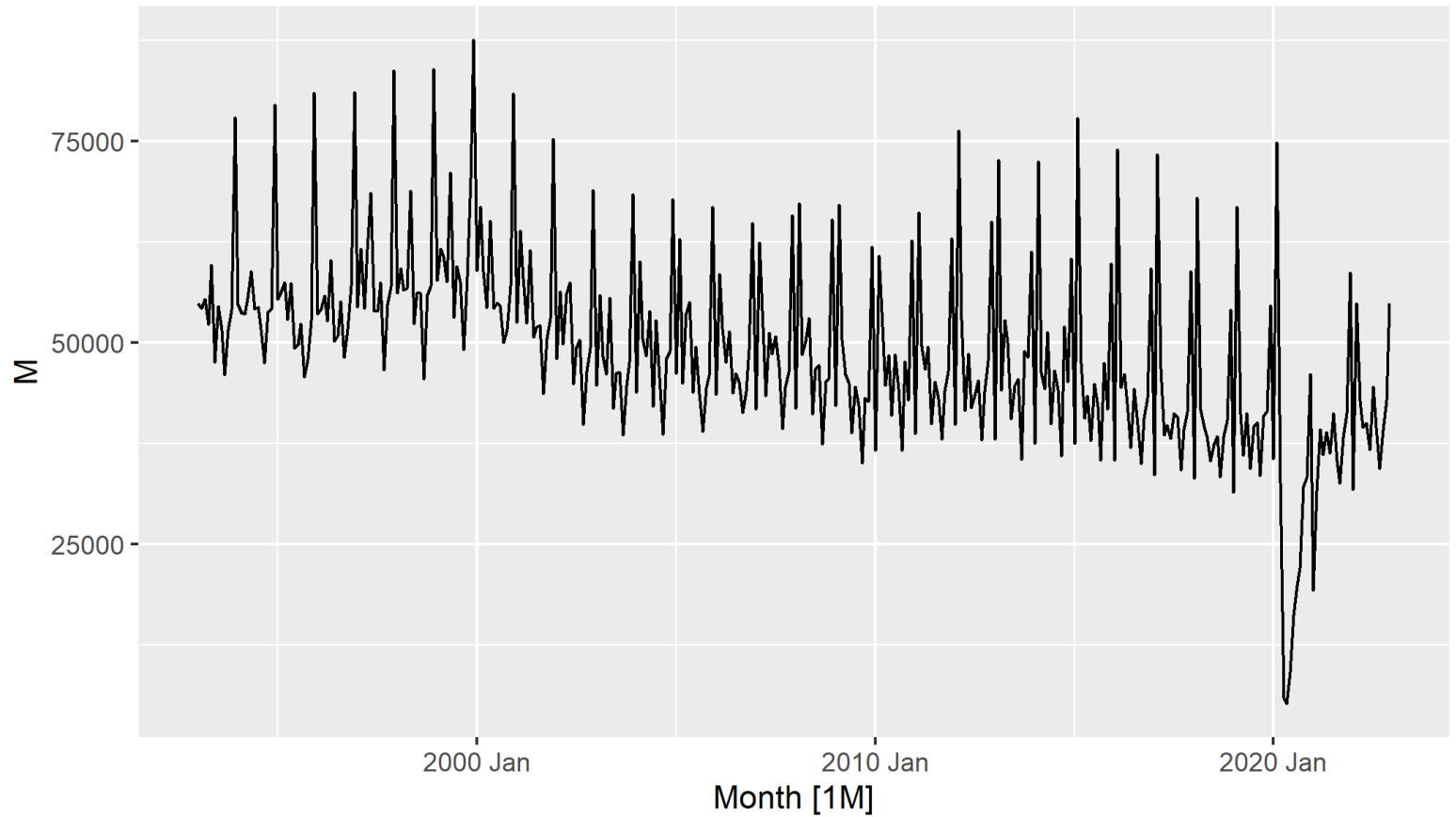
# Heterosexual Marriages in Mexico



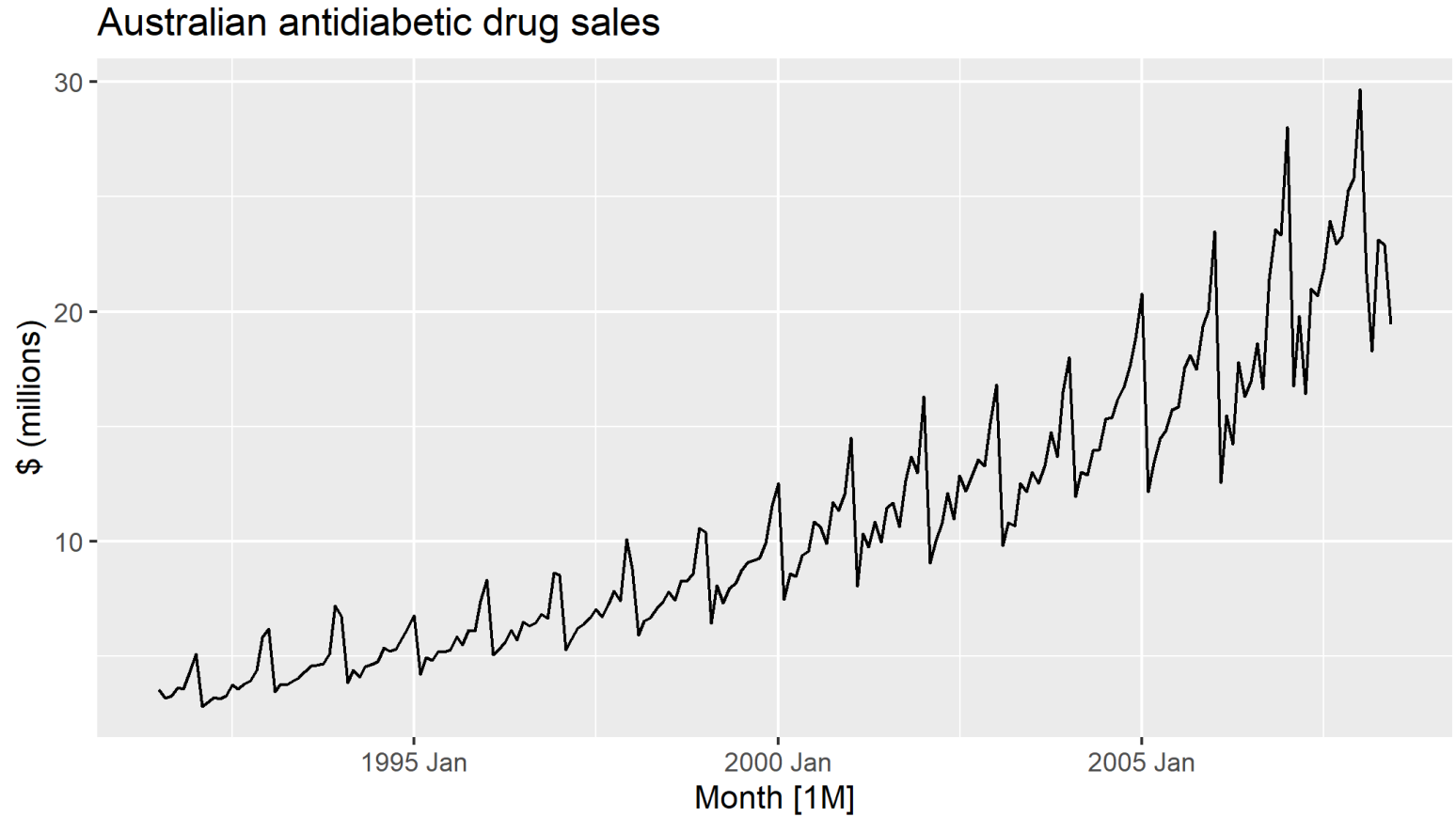
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  - Often related to business cycles
4. **Random components**: Can't be attributed to other parts of the model. The most difficult to predict

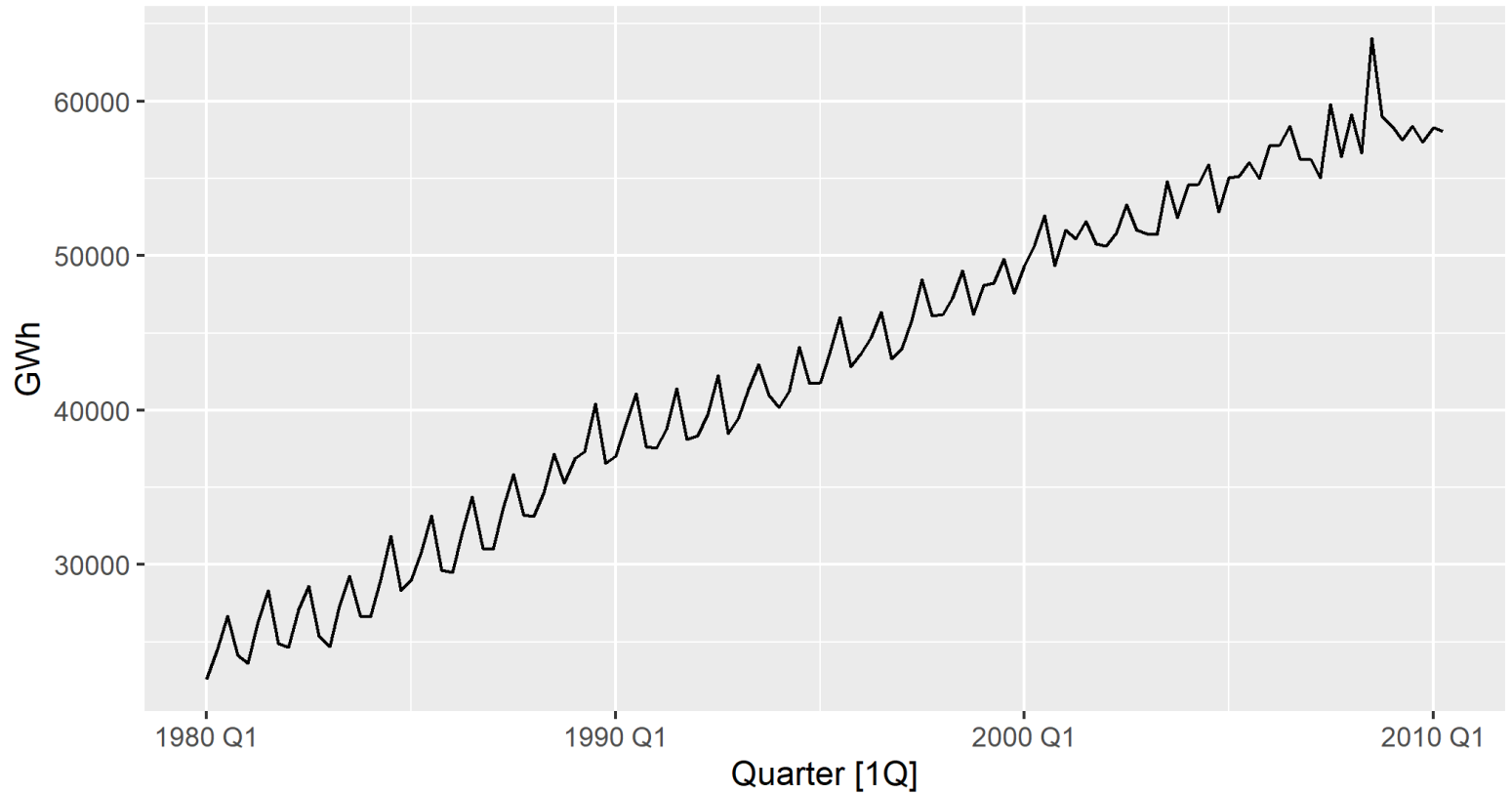
# Heterosexual Marriages in Mexico



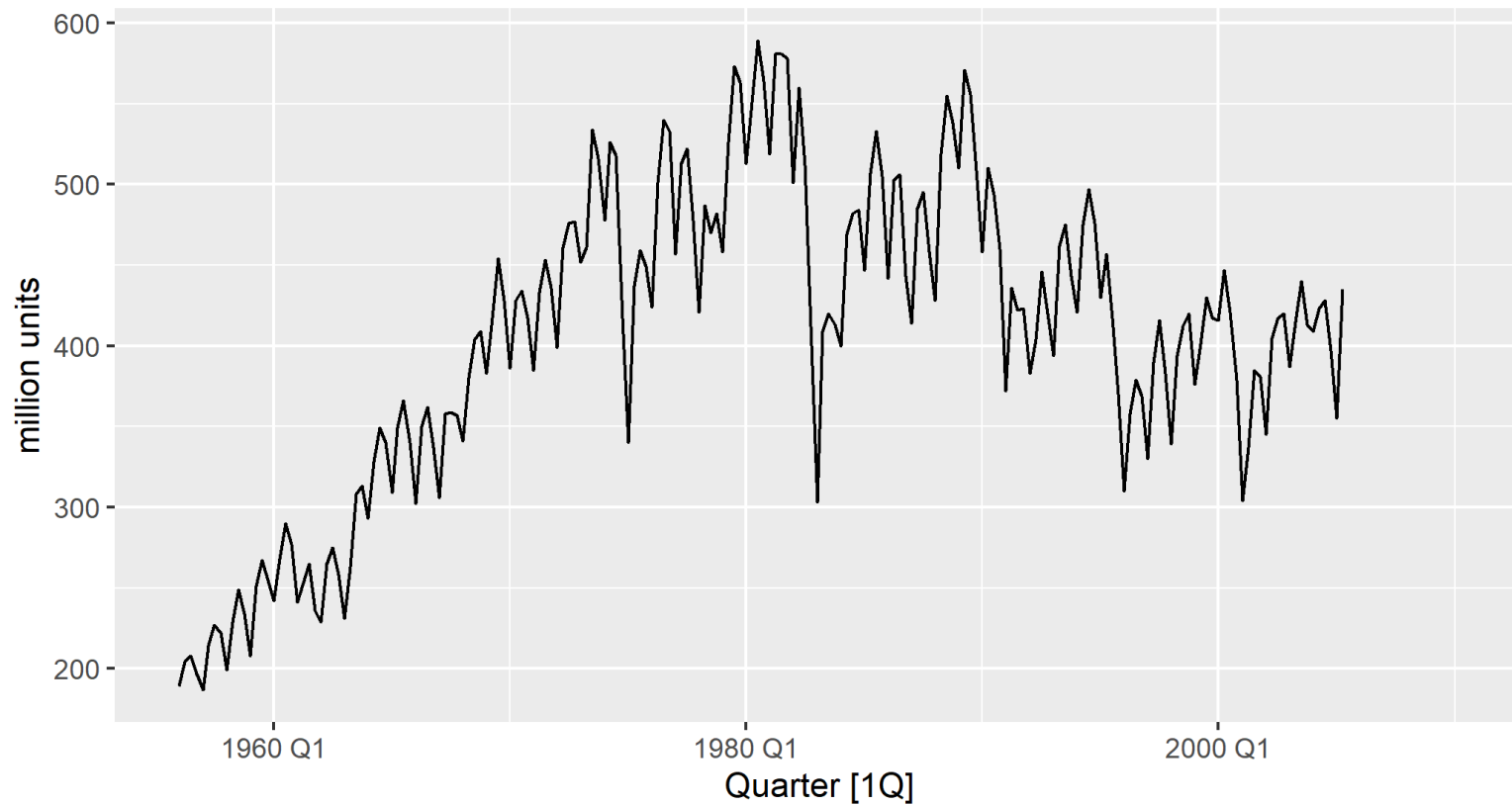
# Some other examples



## Australian electricity production

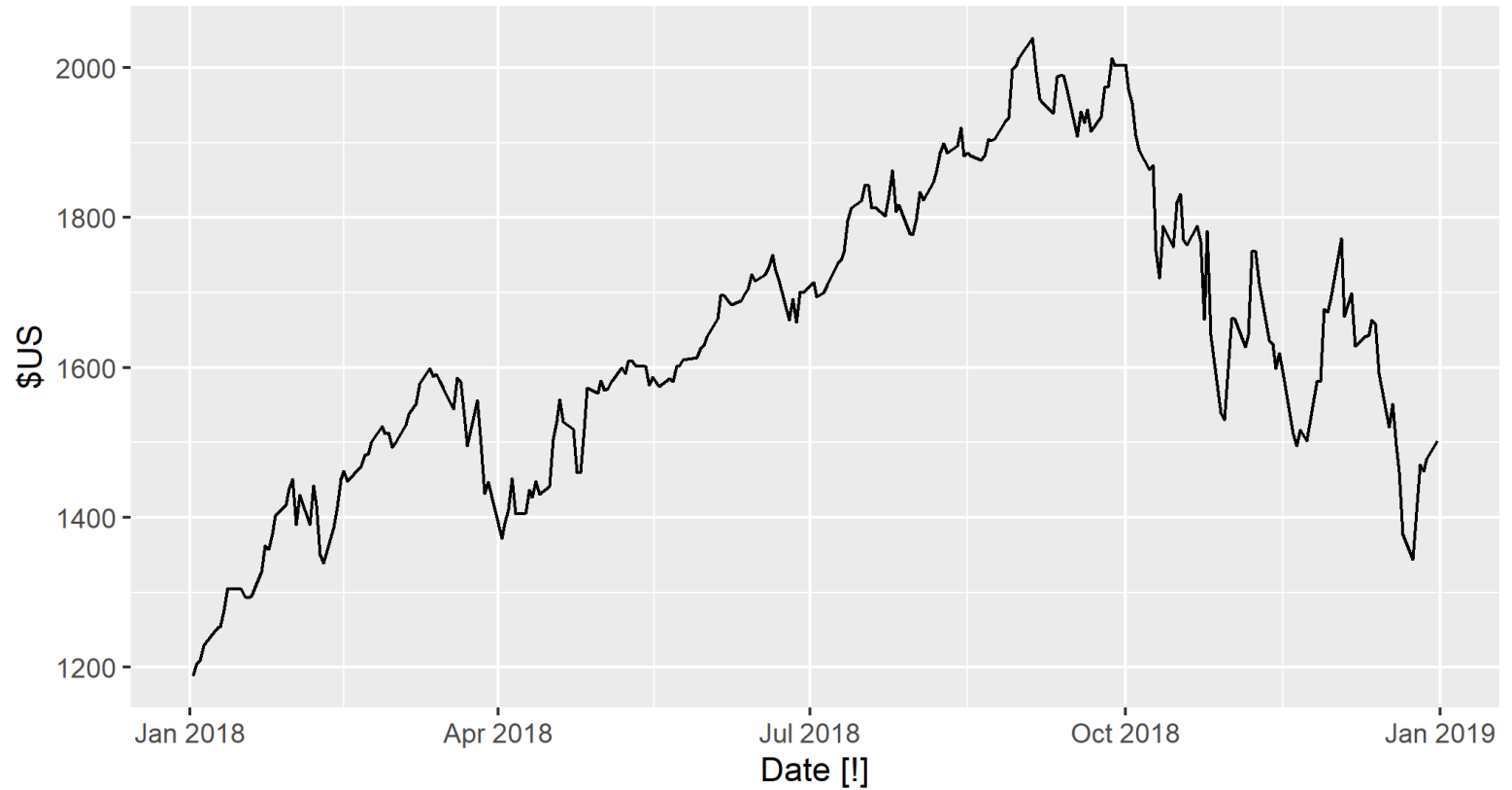


Australian clay brick production





Amazon closing stock price



# Autocorrelation

- Can past values predict future values?
- Yes, if they are correlated
- We will measure **Autocorrelation**:
  - Are values in previous period correlated with values in the next period?
  - So between  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-1}$ , or  $y_t$  and  $y_{t-2}$  etc

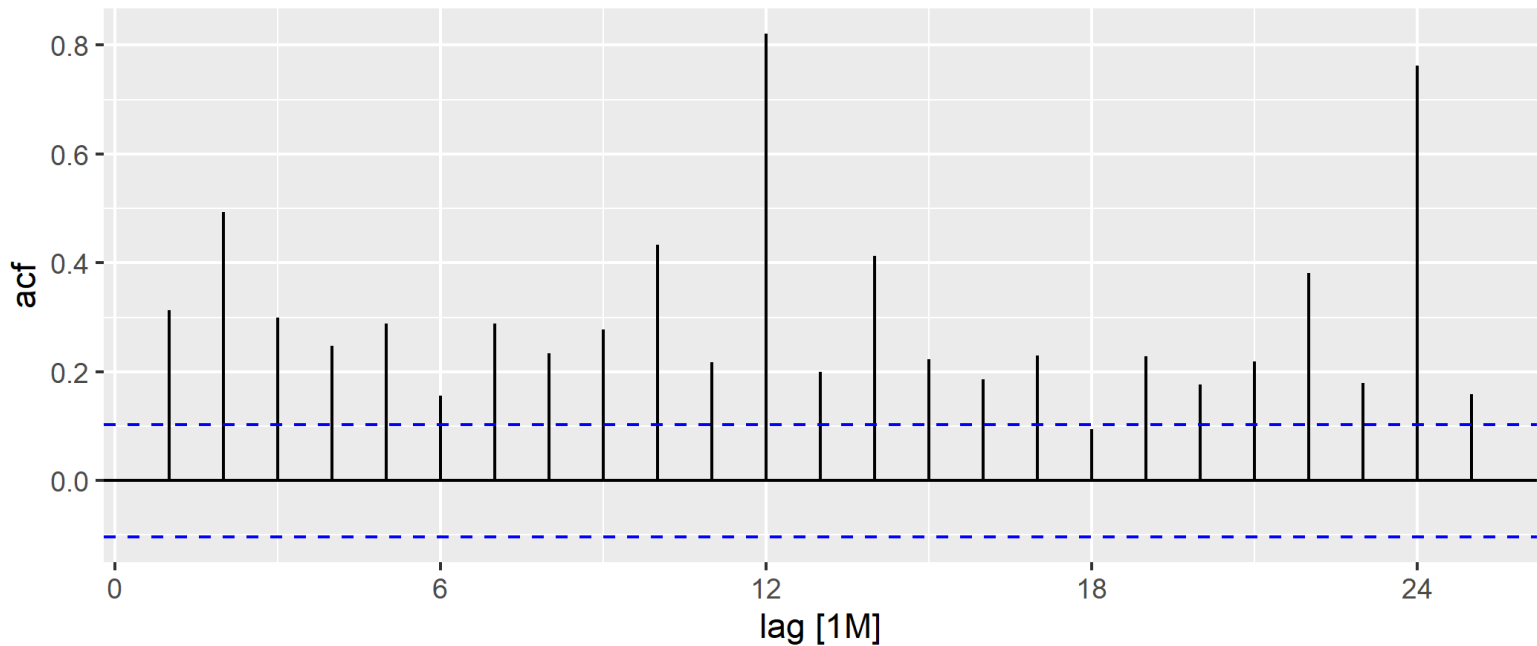
$$\hat{\rho}_k = \frac{\sum_{t=k+1}^n (y_t - \bar{y})(y_{t-k} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{t=1}^n (y_t - \bar{y})^2}$$

```
## # A tibble: 360 x 5 [1M]
##       Month      M Lag1_M Lag2_M Lag3_M
##       <mth> <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl>
##  1 1993 Jan  54850      NA      NA      NA
##  2 1993 Feb  54271  54850      NA      NA
##  3 1993 Mar  55350  54271  54850      NA
##  4 1993 Apr  52268  55350  54271  54850
##  5 1993 May  59671  52268  55350  54271
##  6 1993 Jun  47557  59671  52268  55350
##  7 1993 Jul  54503  47557  59671  52268
##  8 1993 Aug  51534  54503  47557  59671
##  9 1993 Sep  46000  51534  54503  47557
## 10 1993 Oct  51590  46000  51534  54503
```

We can calculate the values for marriage data:

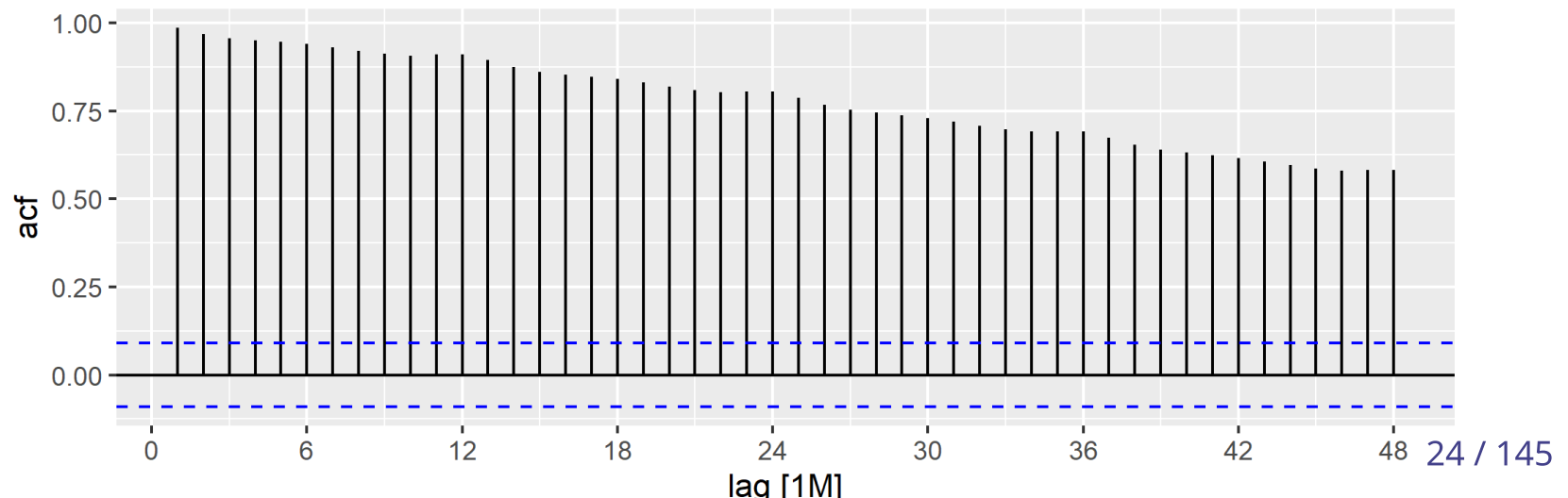
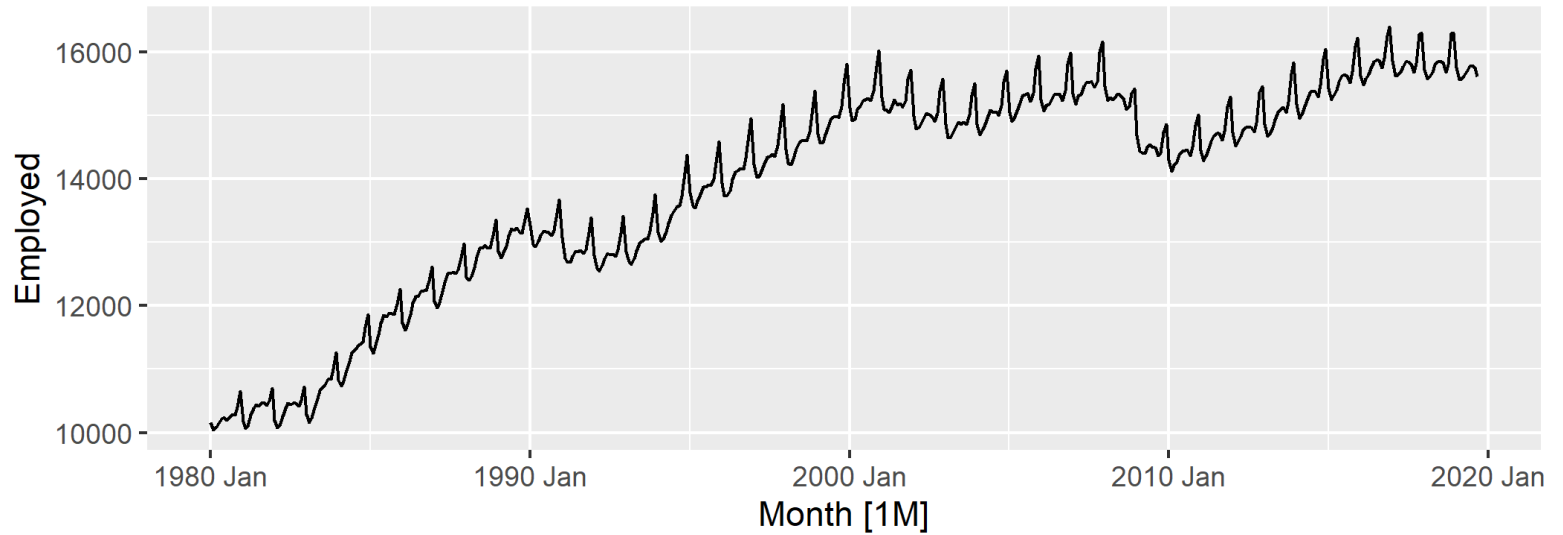
|     |           |           |           |           |           |           |
|-----|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| lag | 1.0000000 | 2.0000000 | 3.0000000 | 4.0000000 | 5.0000000 | 6.0000000 |
| acf | 0.3126539 | 0.4934558 | 0.2992763 | 0.2474031 | 0.2879573 | 0.1557756 |

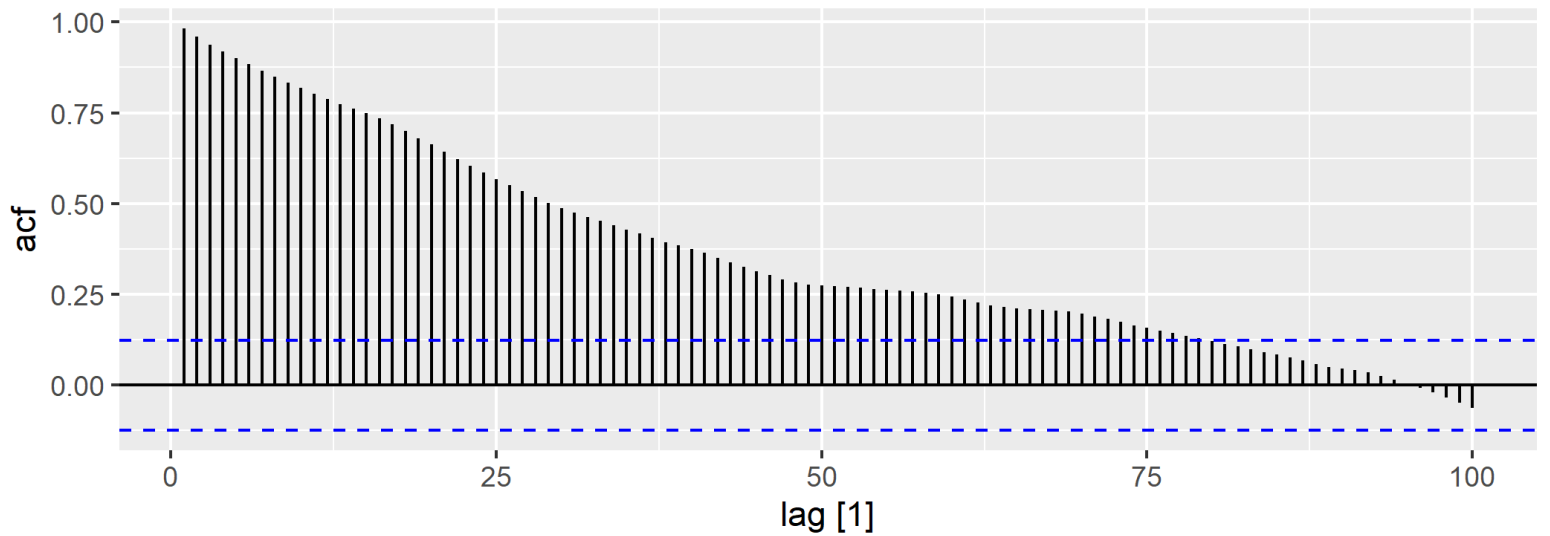
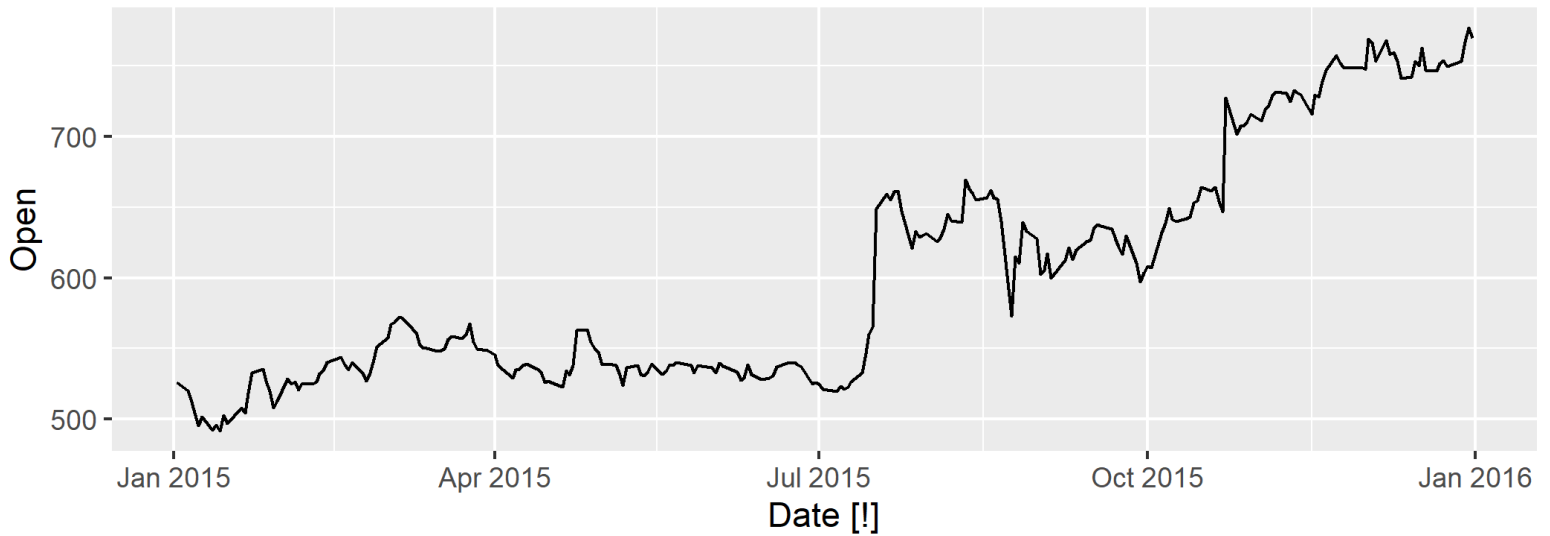
And plot the Autocorrelation Function (ACF) on a correlogram:



- Why high values at 12 and 24 lag?

## Some other examples:





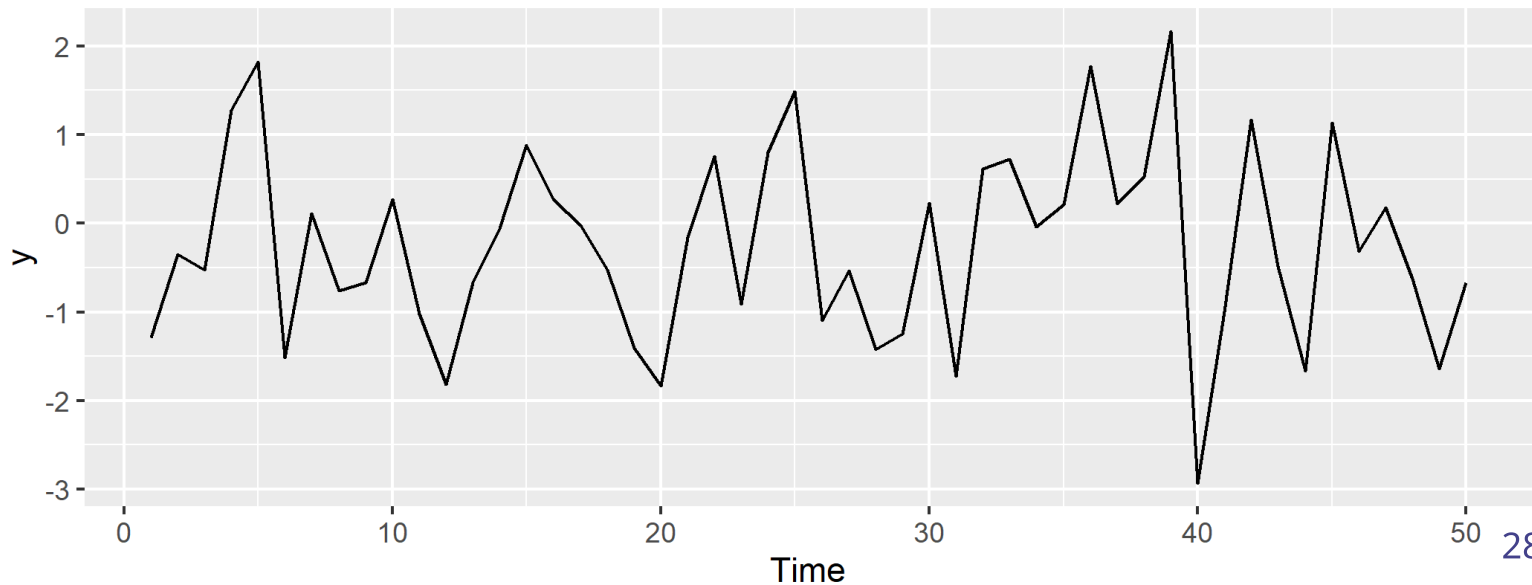
- Shock persists for a long time
- If stationary, shocks should not persist, autocorrelation should decay quickly



# Autocorrelation

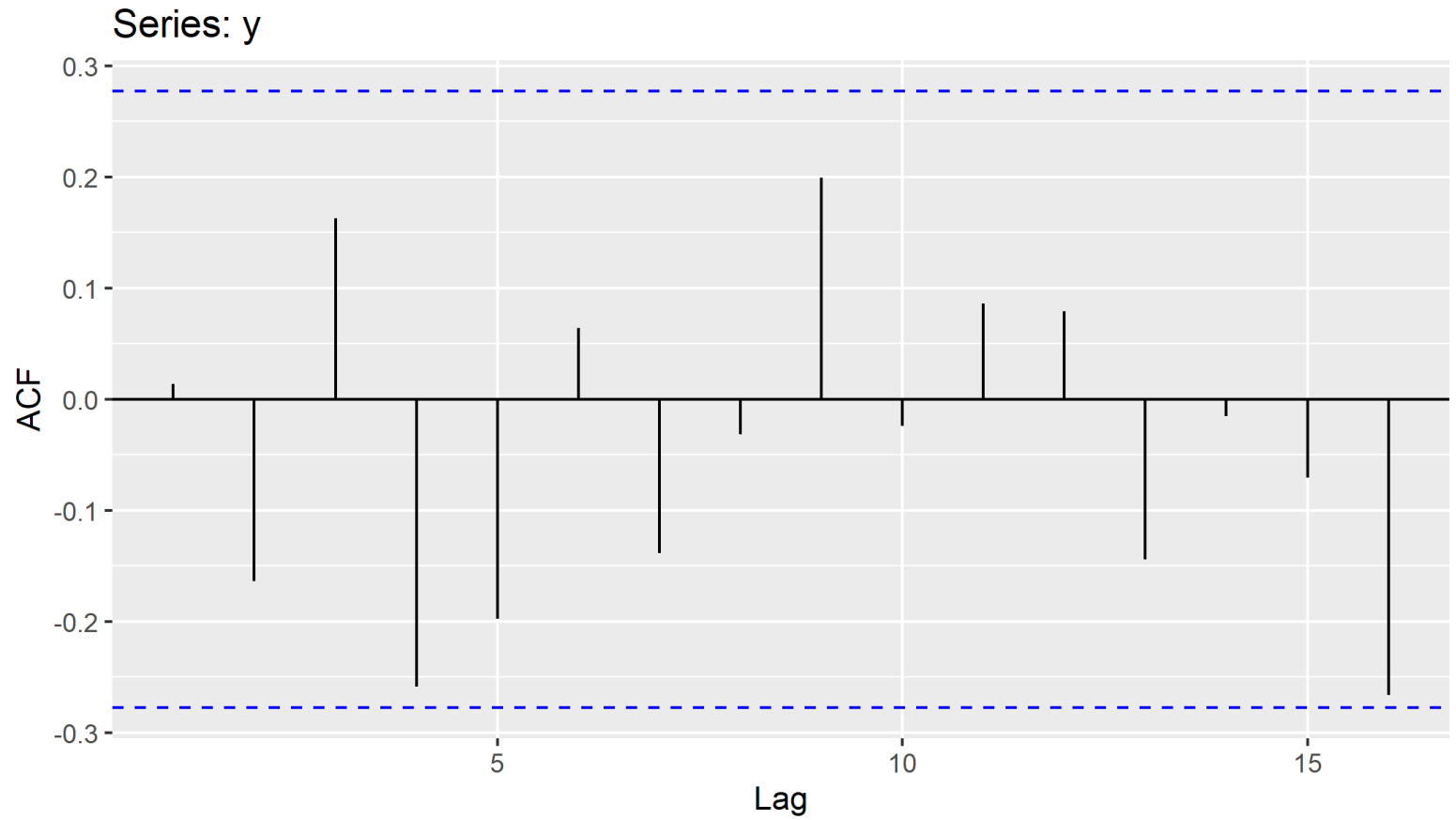
- How do we know that the correlation is significant and not just sampling randomness?
- Test:
  - $H_0 : \rho_k = 0$  or data is white noise
  - $H_A : \rho_k \neq 0$
- What is **White Noise**?

White noise



# White Noise

Autocorrelation of white noise





# Test

- Intuitively:
  1. We will calculate test statistic
  2. Figure out how likely to obtain such value if data was White Noise
    - If test statistic is big, it's unlikely to come from White Noise, so we reject null

$$t_{test} = \frac{\hat{\rho}_k - 0}{1/\sqrt{n-k}}$$

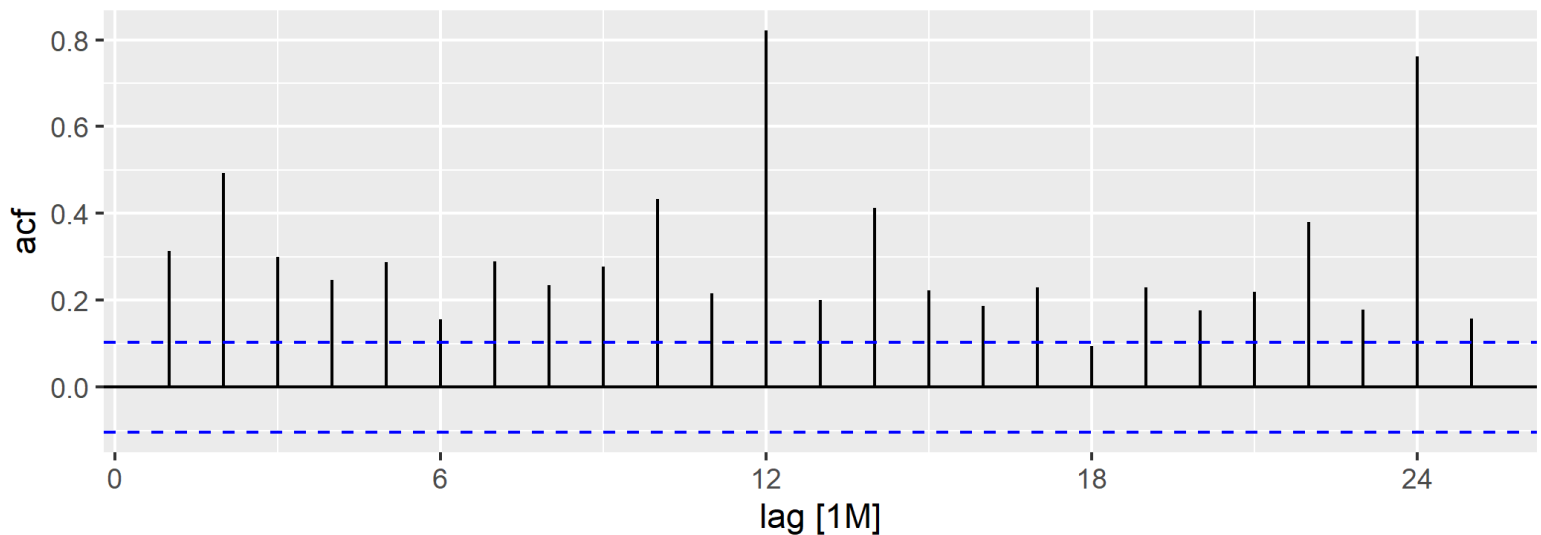
- Compare it to t distribution with  $t_{n-k}$  degrees of freedom
- Rule of thumb for larger datasets: reject at 95% if:

$$|\hat{\rho}_k| > \frac{2}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- Practice: final fall 2023, b

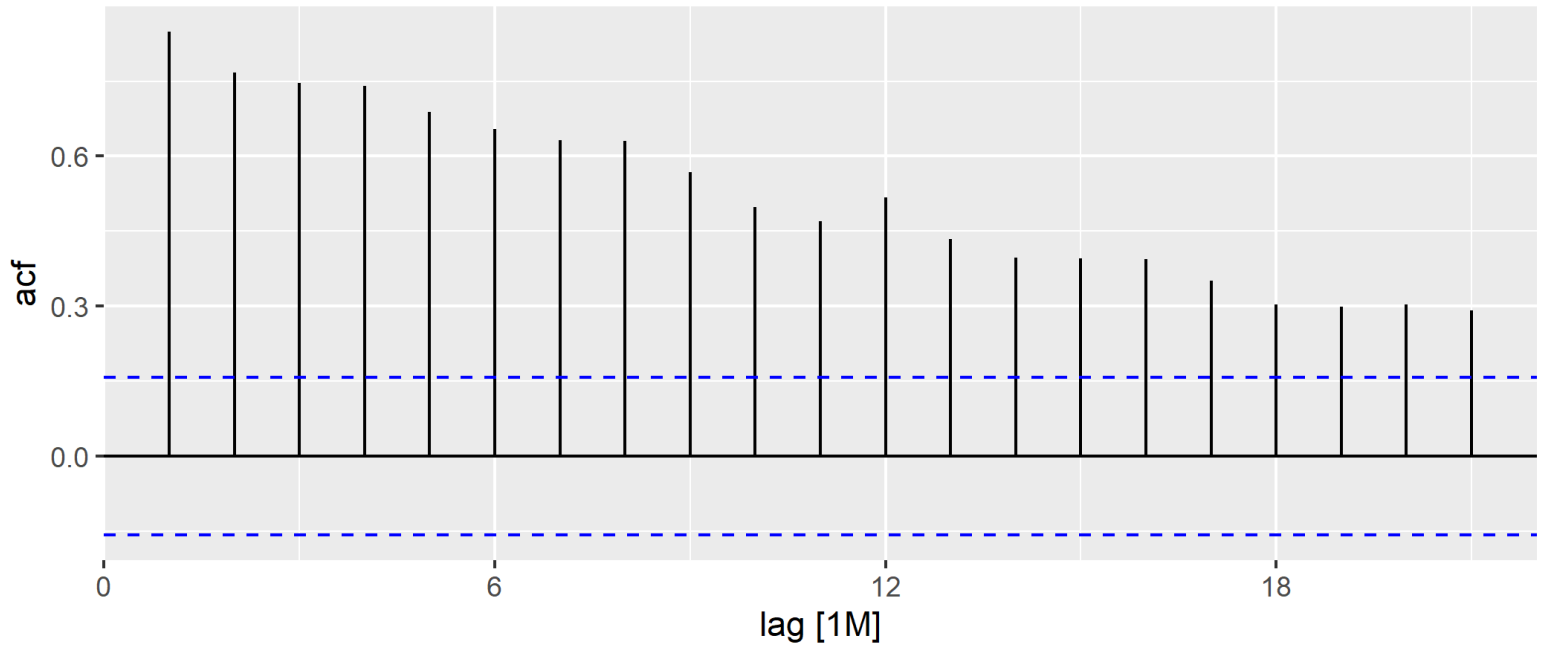
# Confidence bands

- We can compute confidence bands such that if  $\hat{\rho}_k$  is within these bands, it's not significant.
- In our data on straight marriage,  $n=360$
- If data is white noise, autocorrelations should not cross 0.1054



- The more observation you have, the better you are at detecting autocorrelation

# Gay marriages



- Is there a way to transform the data, so it's stationary?

# First differencing

- Take the first differences

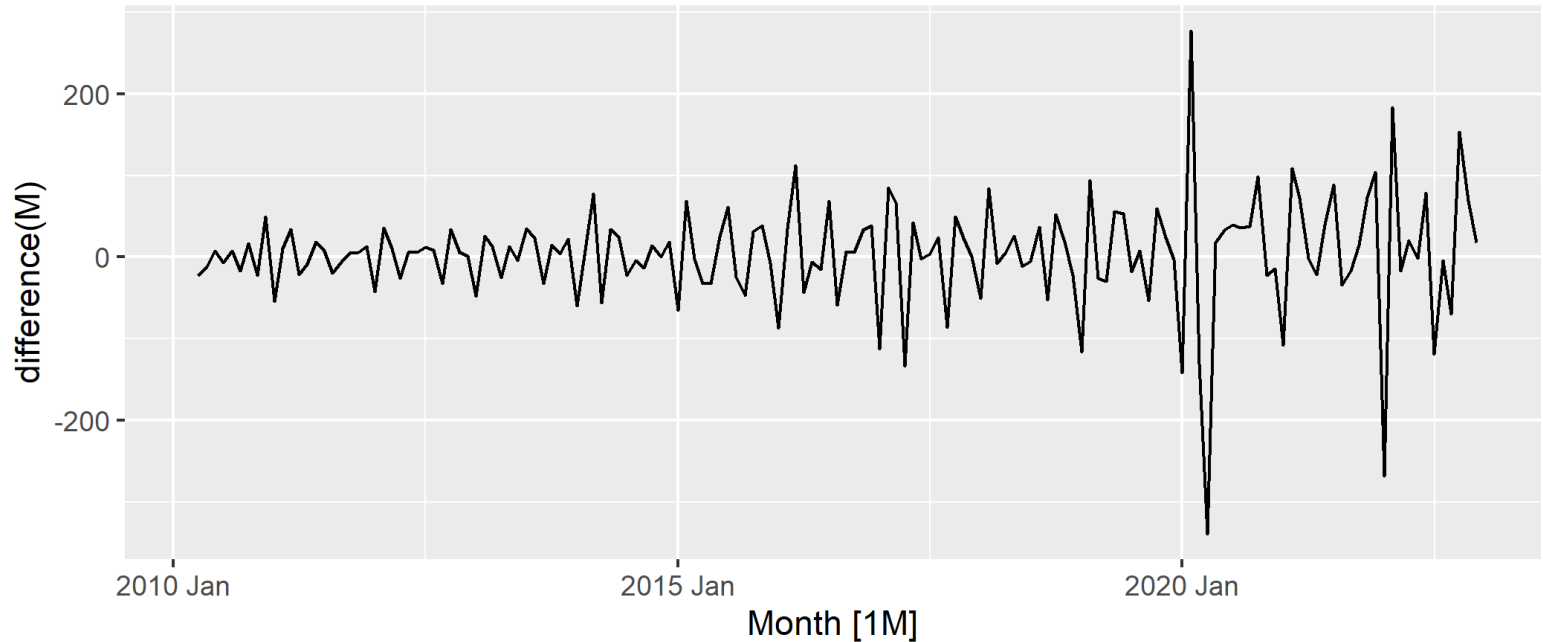
$$\Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$

- First differences approximate how much data growth in each period
- If trend is linear, this variable should have more or less constant mean

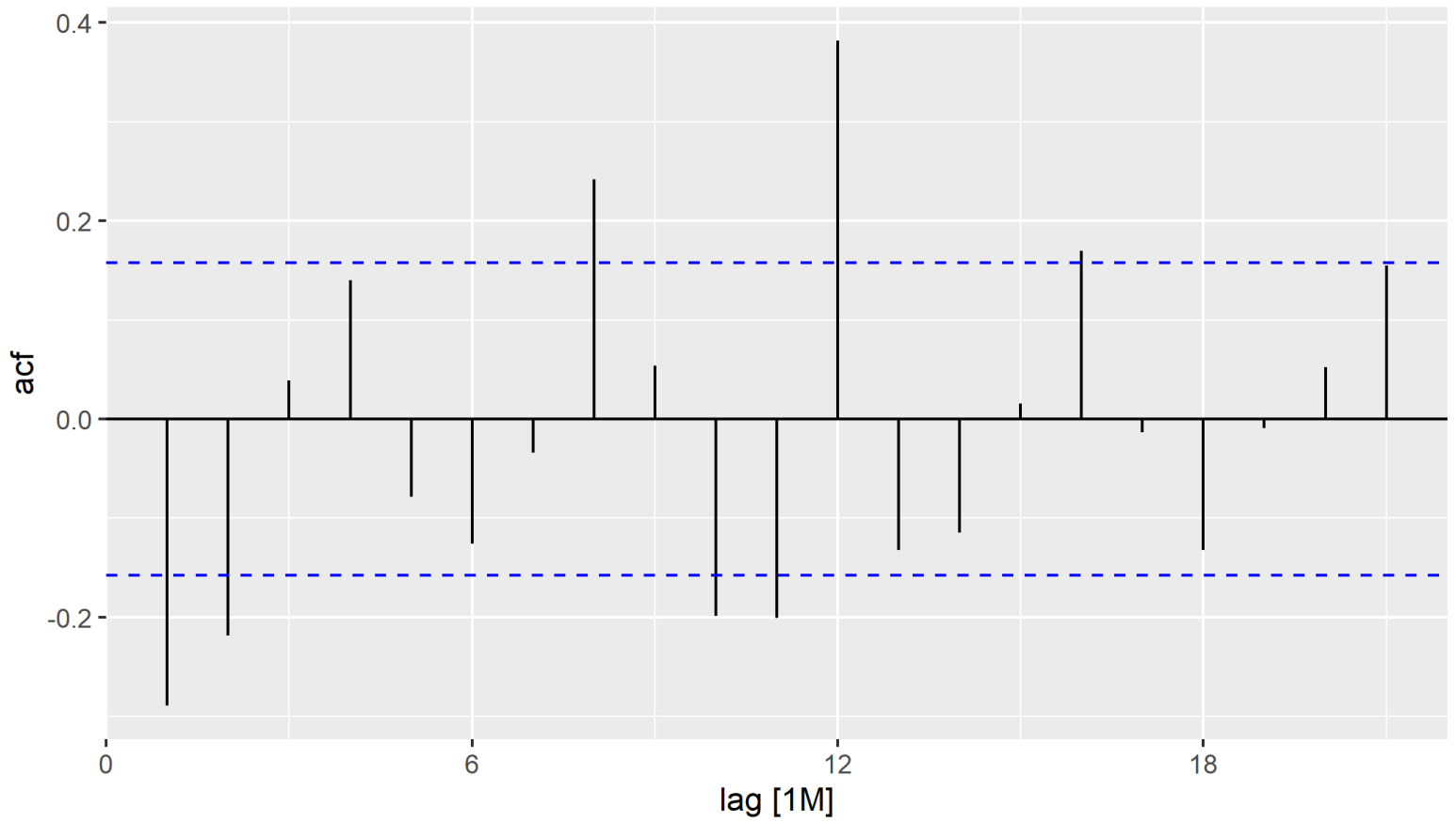
# First differencing

```
## # A tibble: 154 x 3 [1M]
##       Month      M Diff_M
##       <mth> <int>   <int>
## 1 2010 Mar      94      NA
## 2 2010 Apr      72     -22
## 3 2010 May      60     -12
## 4 2010 Jun      68       8
## 5 2010 Jul      61      -7
## 6 2010 Aug      69       8
## 7 2010 Sep      52     -17
## 8 2010 Oct      69      17
## 9 2010 Nov      47     -22
## 10 2010 Dec      97      50
## # i 144 more rows
```

Is transform data stationary?



- Does it have constant mean?
- What about constant variance?
- What about autocorrelation?

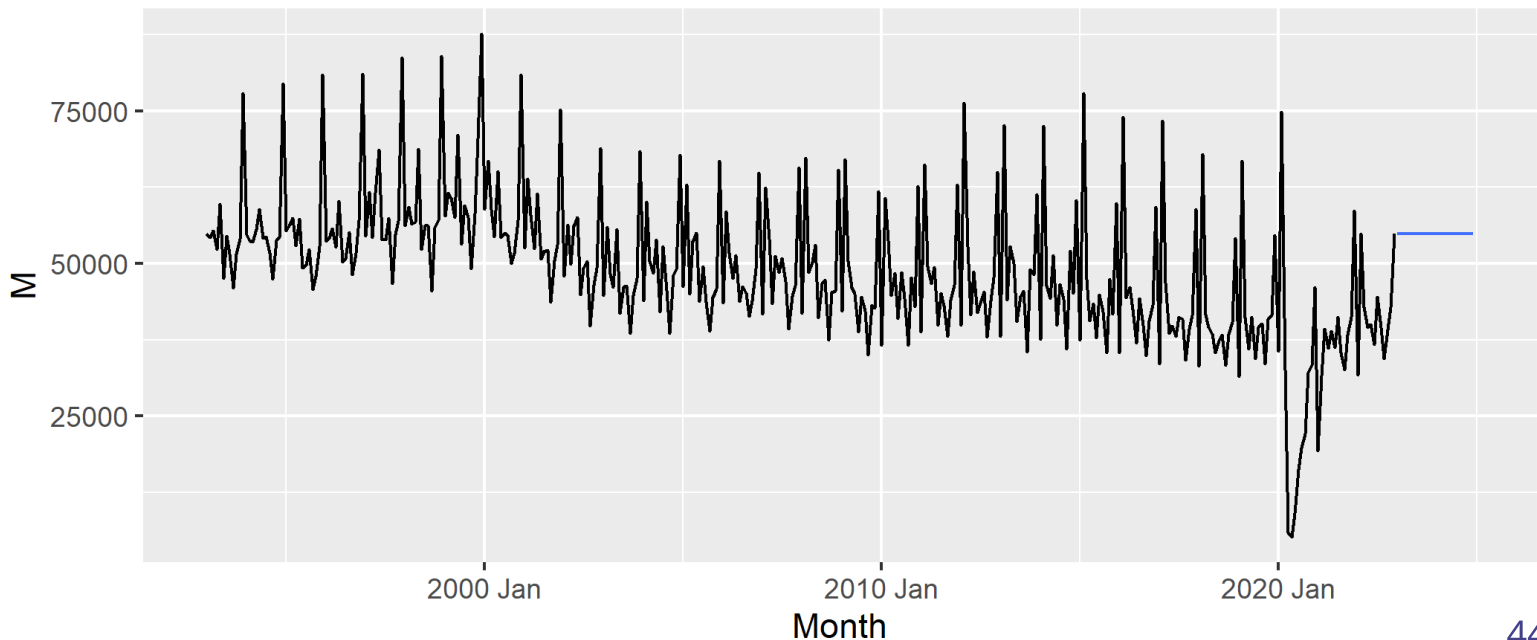


# Simple forecasting methods

## Naive Model

The simplest way to forecast is to assume that it will be the same as previous period

- One step forecast:  $\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = y_T$
- h-step forecast:  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T$





# Simple forecasting methods

What is the confidence interval for such prediction?

- We need to know the variance of the forecast error
- What is **Forecast Error**?

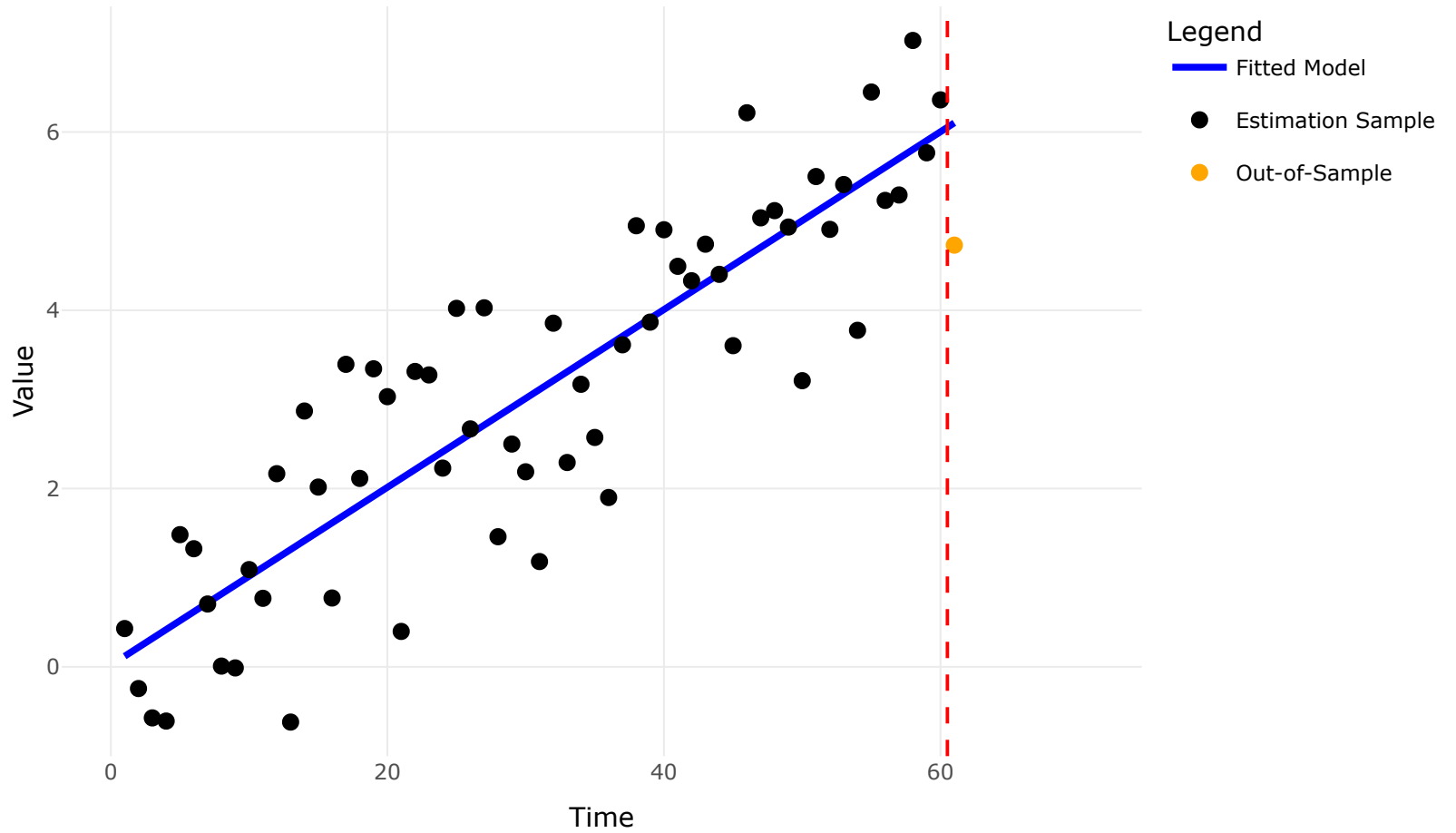
$$e_t = y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}$$

- It's the difference between what we forecasted based on our model and what actually happened once we observe this data point
- Also known as out-of-sample error, because the forecasted point was not in the estimation sample
- We only used observations up to point T when estimating this model!
- Different from **Fitted Residuals**!

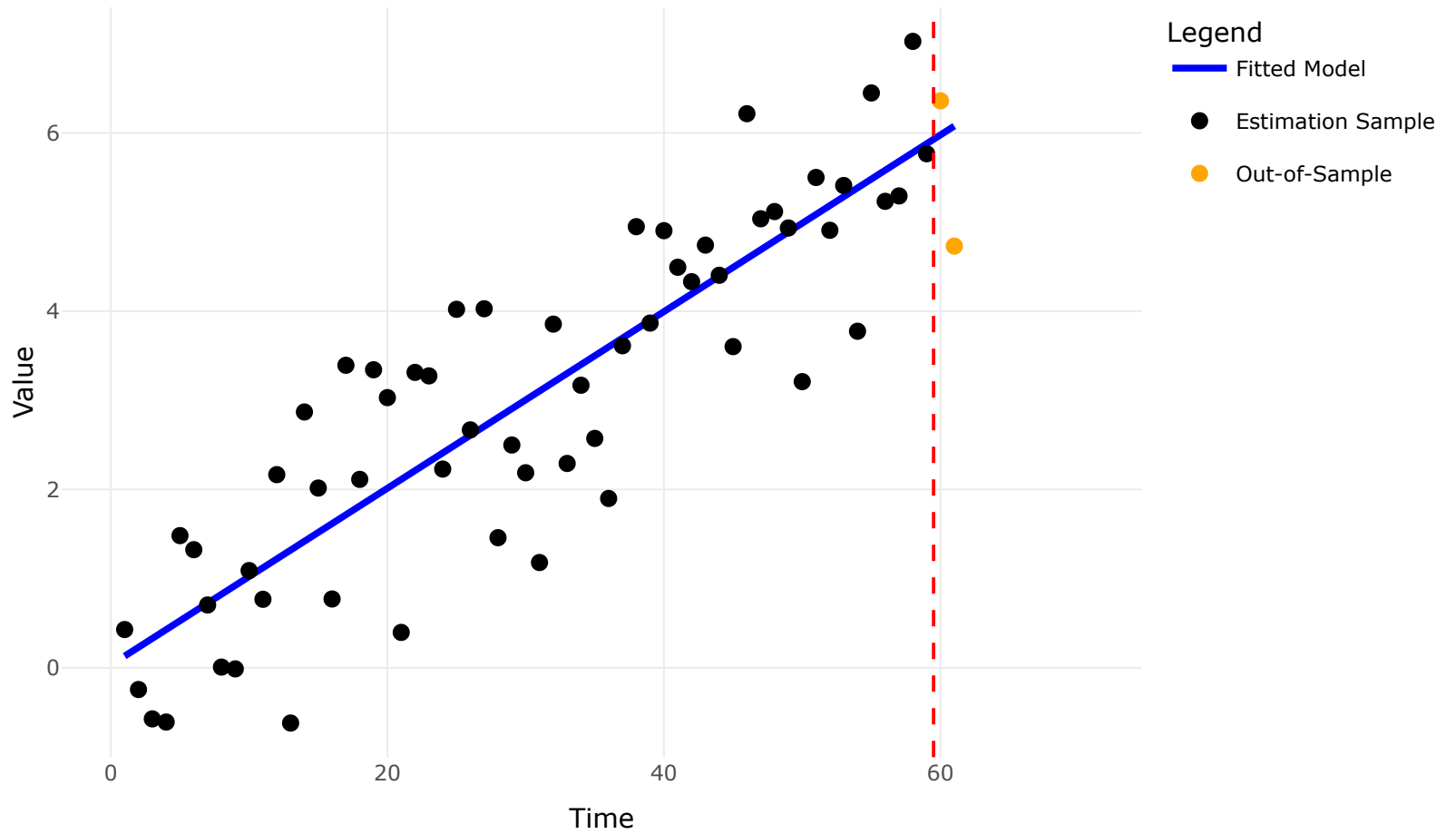
$$u_t = y_t - \hat{y}_t$$

These are fitted residuals for observations that we used in estimation.

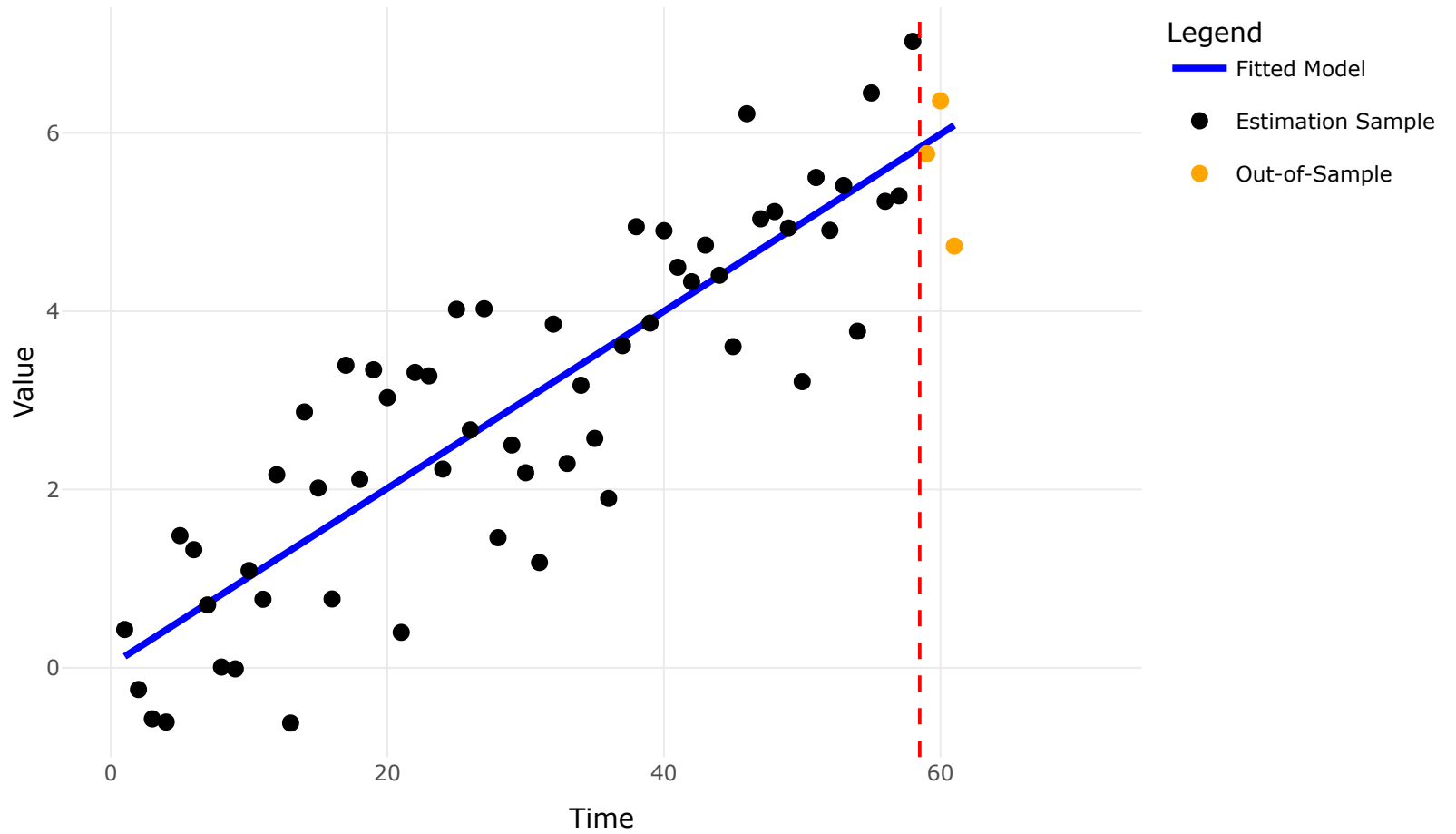
## Residuals vs Forecast Errors



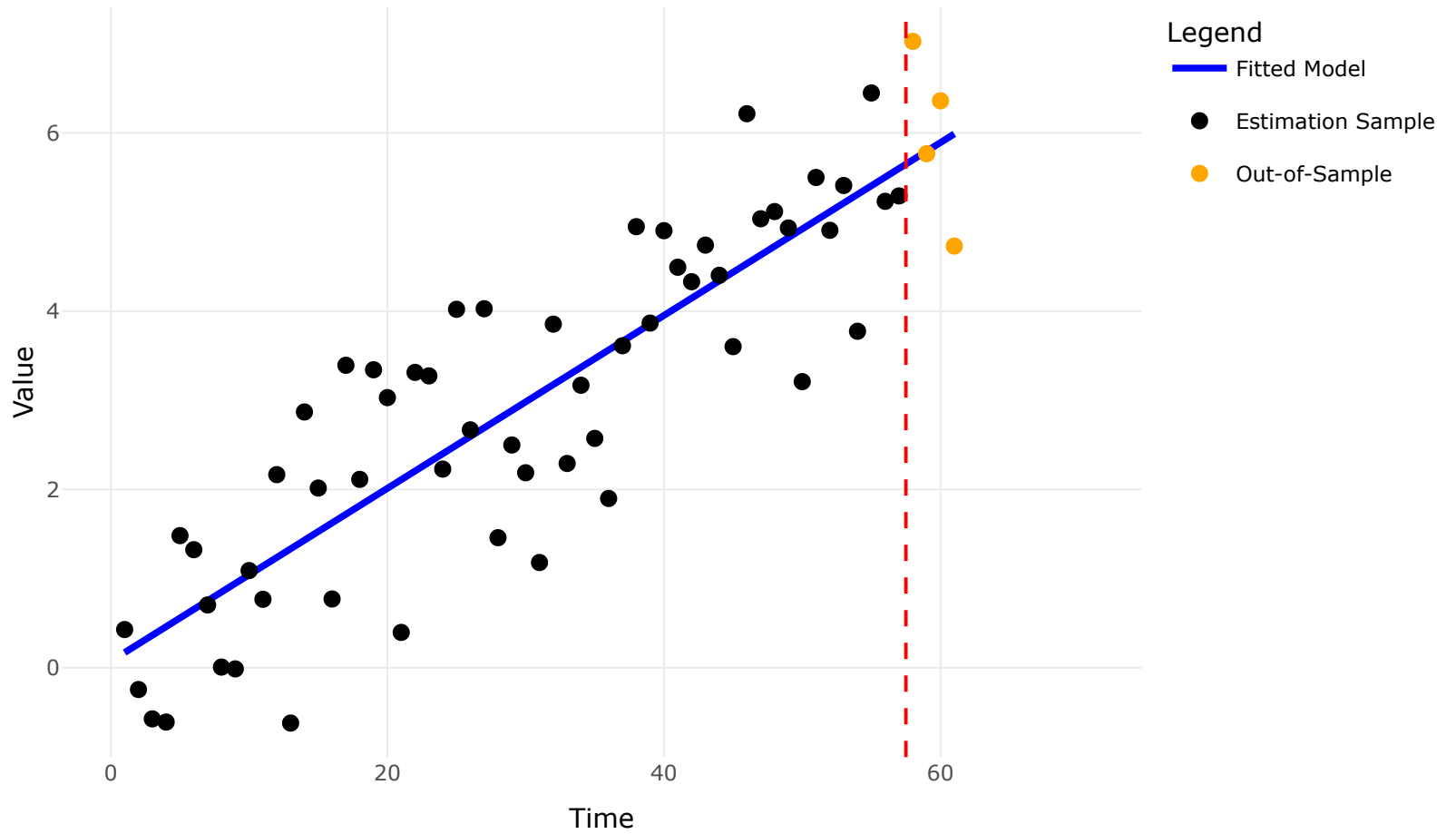
## Residuals vs Forecast Errors



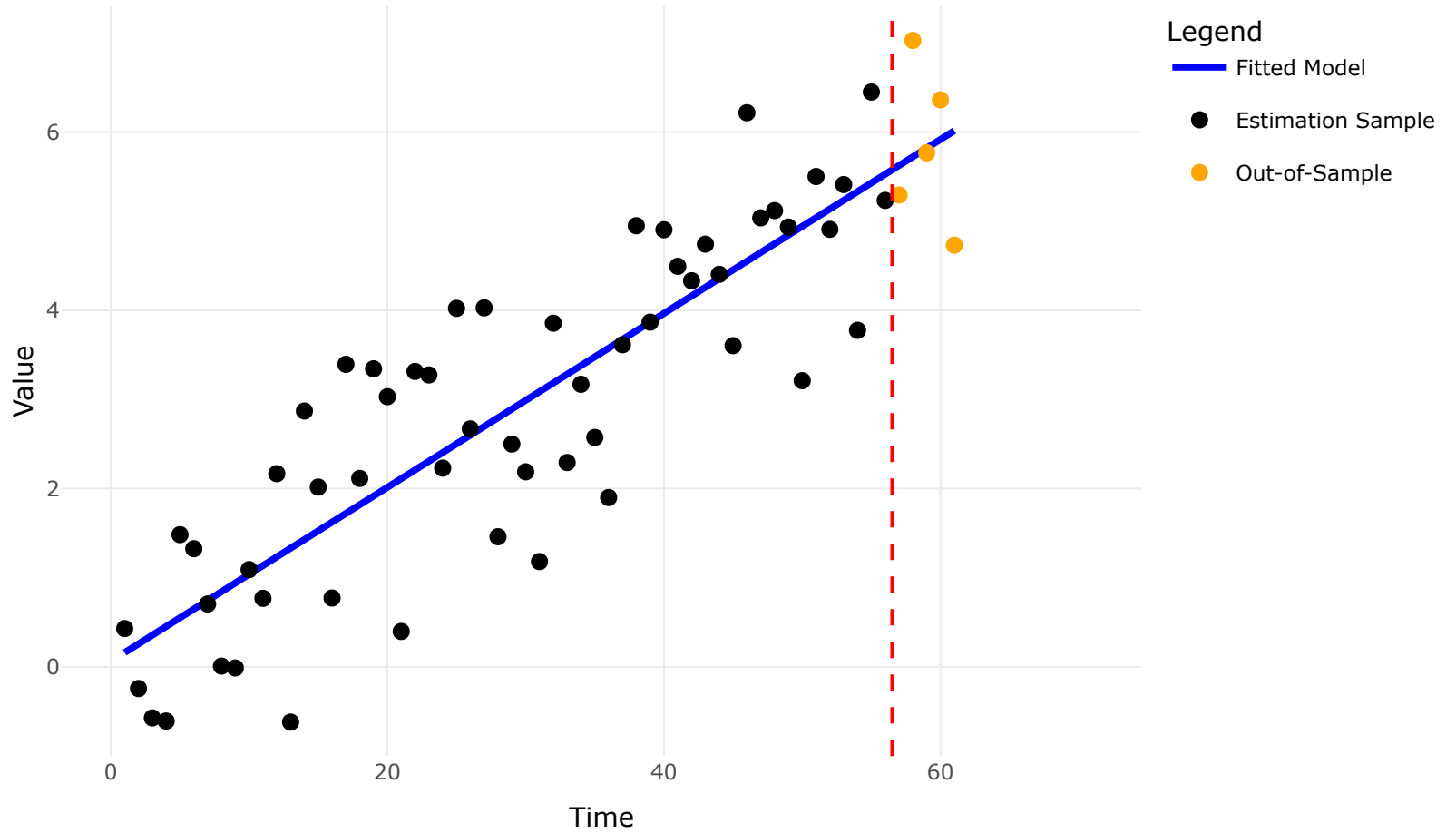
## Residuals vs Forecast Errors



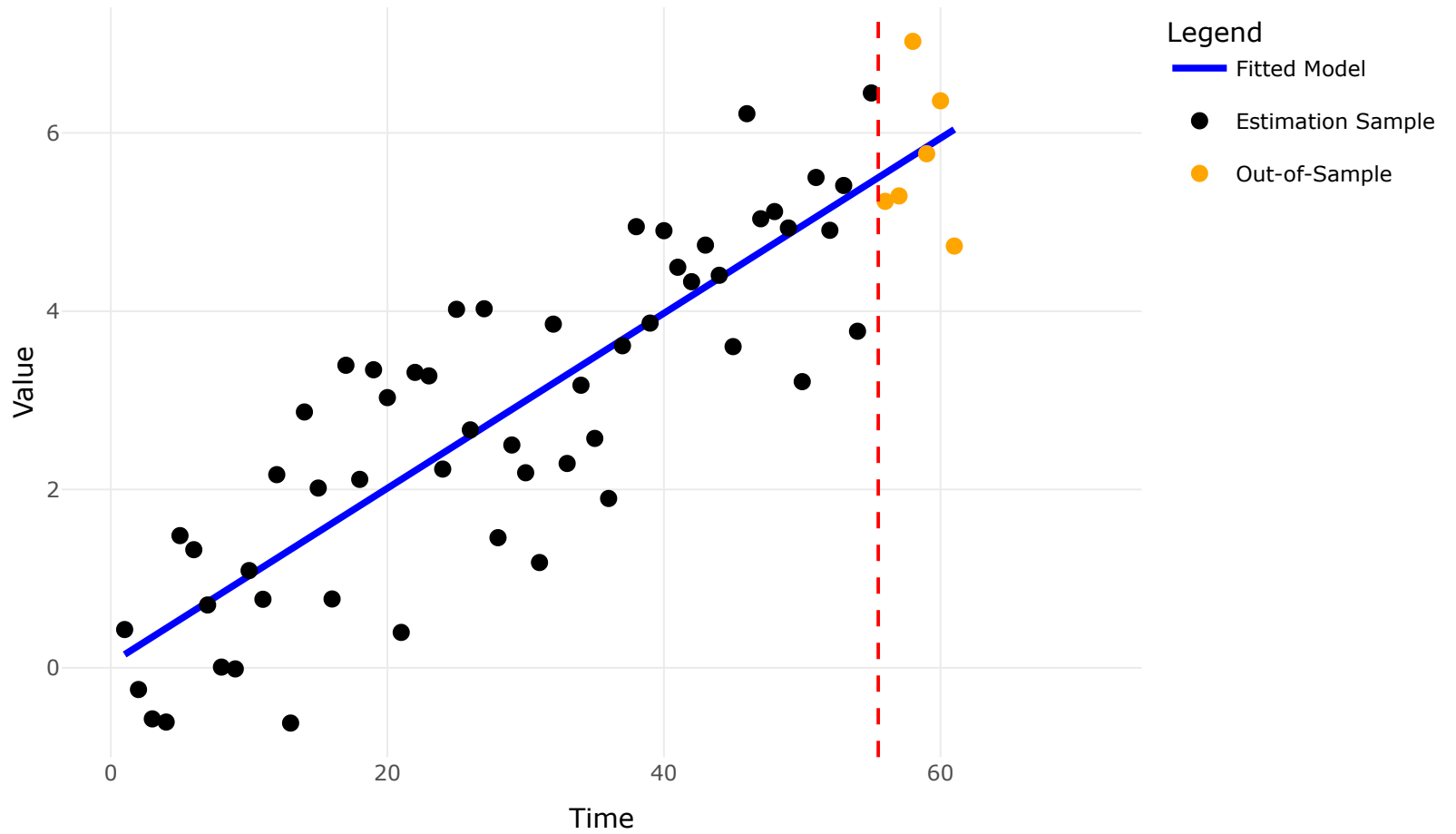
## Residuals vs Forecast Errors



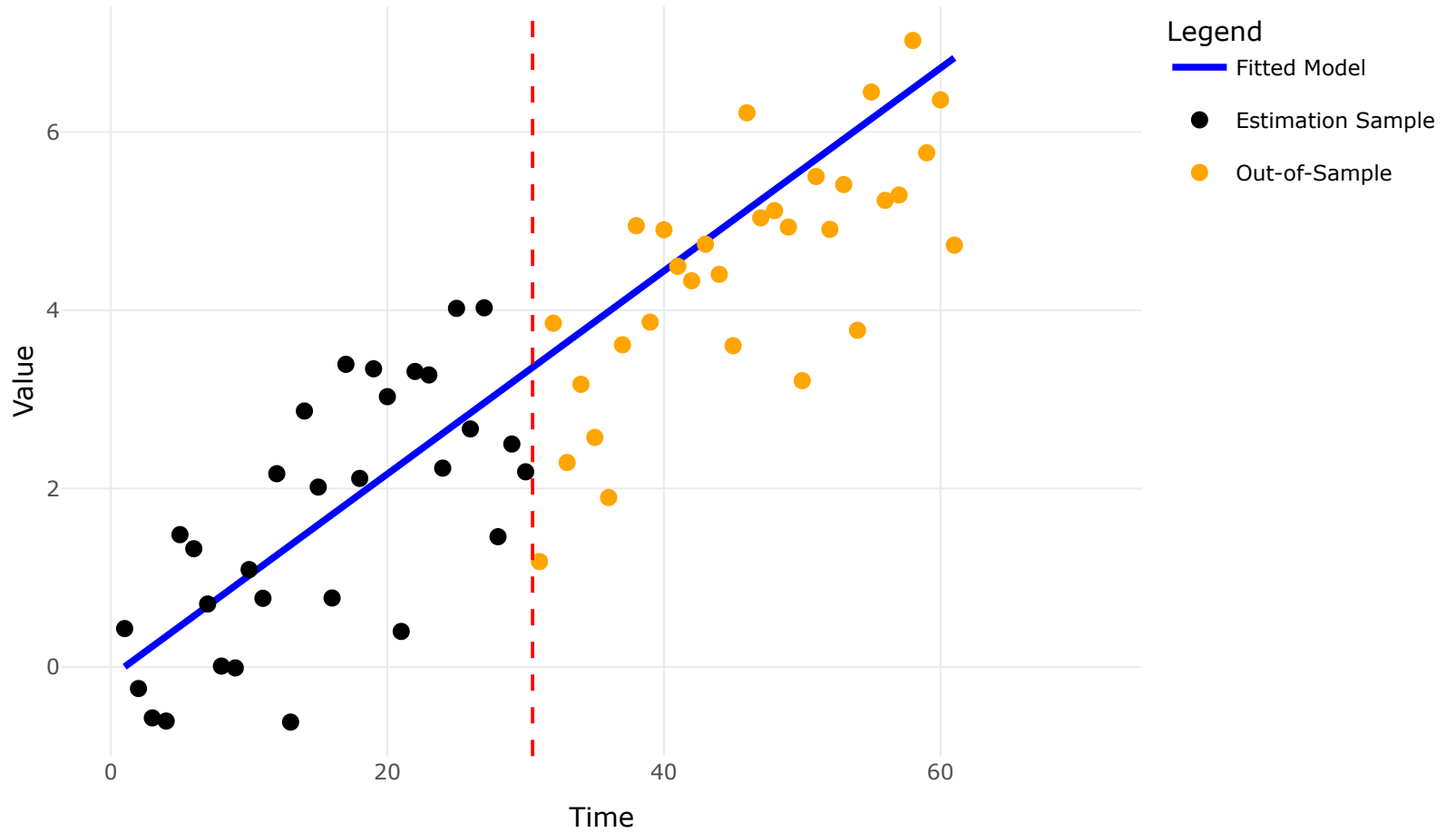
## Residuals vs Forecast Errors



## Residuals vs Forecast Errors



## Residuals vs Forecast Errors





# Simple forecasting methods

- In the simplest naive model, the one step ahead residuals and forecast errors are similar.
- So we can approximate the standard deviation of  $e_t$  with standard deviation of  $u_t$  in this naive model.
- Let  $\sigma_h$  be the h-step forecast error.
- We will assume:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_u$$

so the standard deviation of the one step ahead forecast is the same as the standard deviation of the residuals

- This gives us the following confidence interval for one step ahead error:

$$CI_{95} = \hat{y}_{T+1|T} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_u$$

# Simple forecasting methods

For longer horizon, forecast error in naive forecast is:

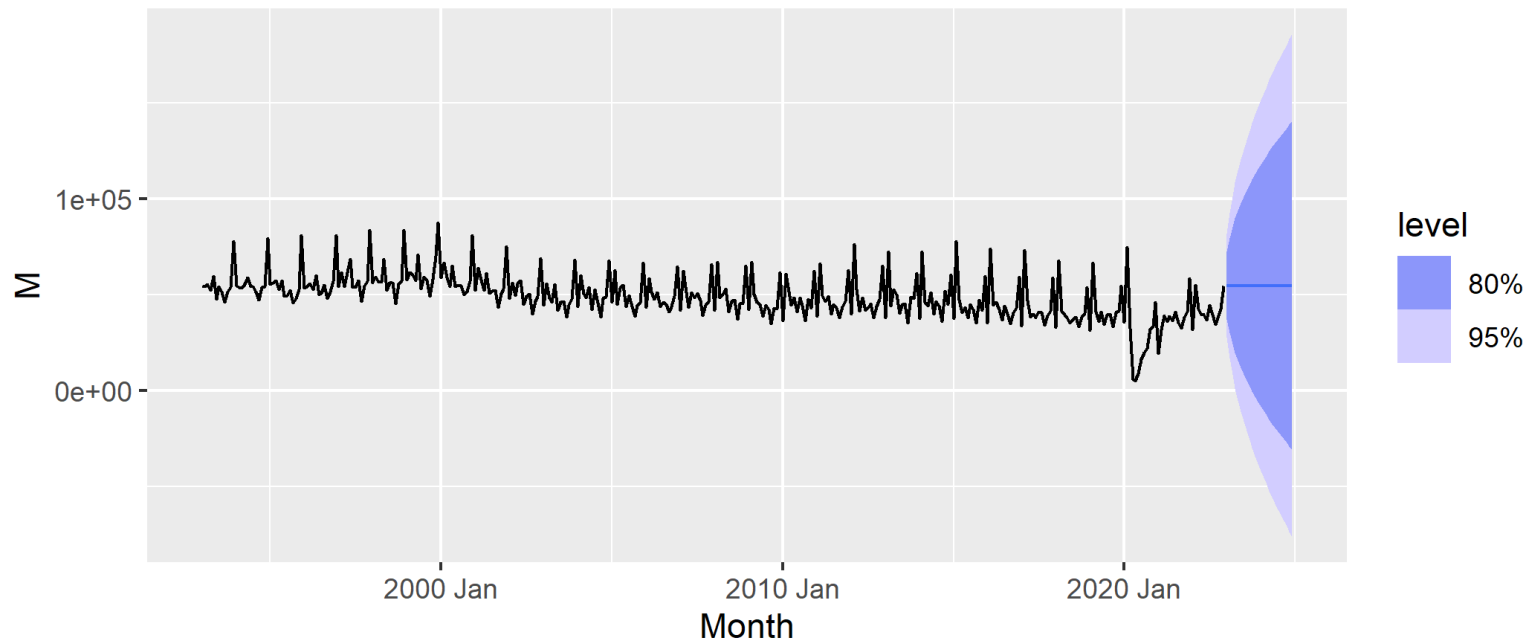
- Let  $\sigma_h = \sigma_u \sqrt{h}$  be the sd of h-step forecast error, and

$$CI_{95} = \hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{h}$$

# Simple forecasting methods

```
## [1] "error standard deviation: 13683.5602953058"
```

```
##      Point Forecast    Lo 80    Hi 80    Lo 95    Hi 95
## 361          54887 37375.25 72398.75 28105.09 81668.91
```



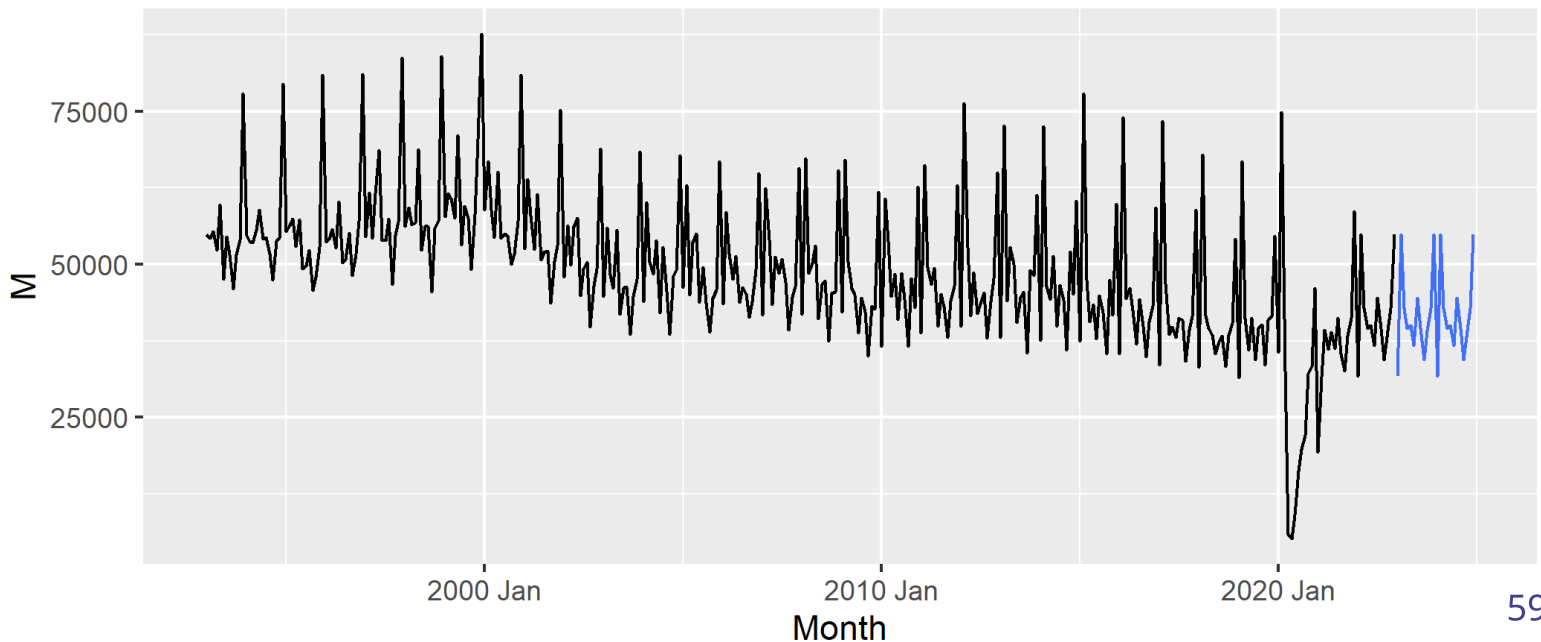
# Simple forecasting methods

## Seasonal naive

We can make it slightly more elaborate by assuming it's the same value as in the last same season:

$$\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = y_{m(T+1)}$$

- $m(T+1)$  is the last time period with the same season as  $T+1$



# Simple forecasting methods

- At one step ahead, the confidence interval is the same:

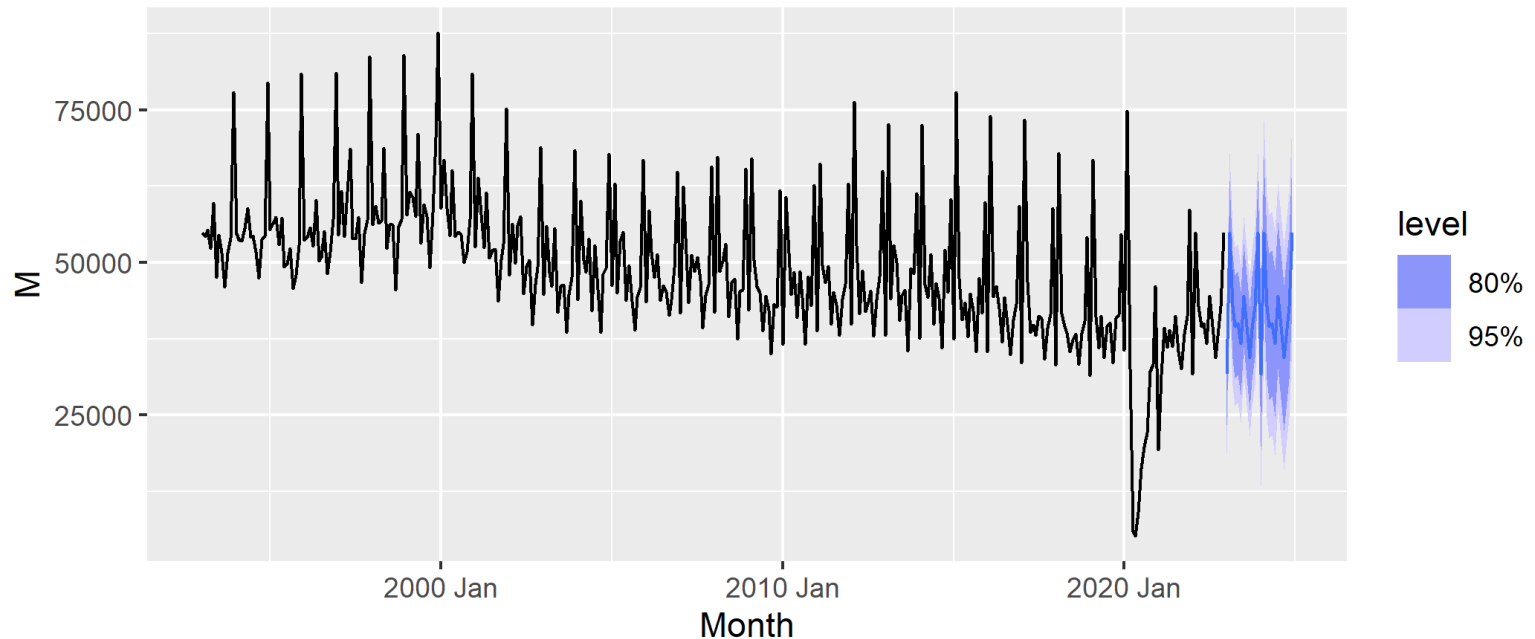
$$CI_{95} = \hat{y}_{T+1|T} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_u$$

- For longer horizon, forecast error is slightly different:
- Let  $\sigma_h = \sigma_u \sqrt{h}$  be the h-step forecast error sd
- Let  $k$  be the number of seasonal cycles in the forecast prior to forecast time
  - If it's the first January since time  $T$ ,  $k+1=1$
  - If it's the second January since time  $T$ ,  $k+1=2$

$$CI_{95} = \hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{k+1}$$

# Simple forecasting methods

```
## [1] "error standard deviation: 6594.43677811963"
```



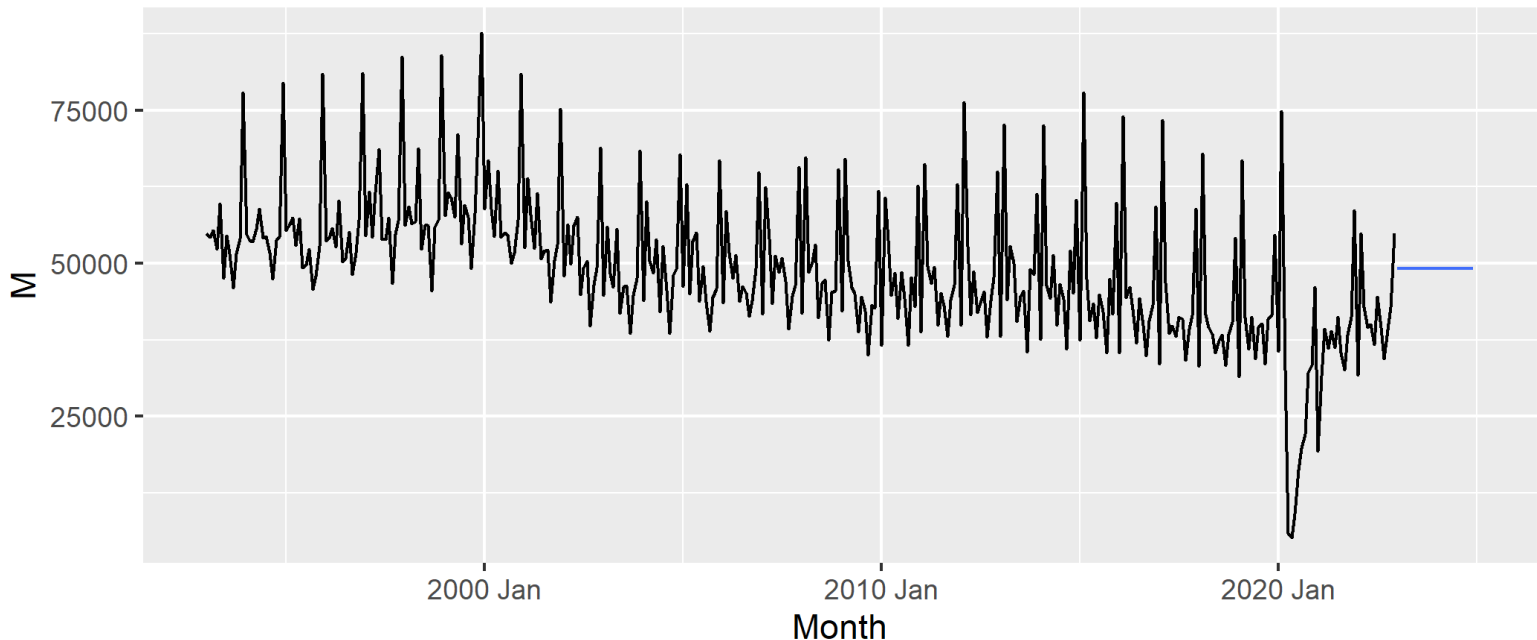
- Why the interval is smaller than in the previous case?
- The forecast errors are smaller
- So the standard deviation of errors is smaller!

# Simple forecasting methods

## Simple Average

We can also just take an average of the time series and make it our prediction:

$$\hat{y}_{T+1|T} = \bar{y}_T = \frac{\sum_{t \leq T} y_t}{T}$$



# Simple forecasting methods

- At one step ahead, the confidence interval is the same:

$$CI_{95} = \hat{y}_{T+1|T} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_u$$

- For longer horizon, forecast error is slightly different:
- Let  $\sigma_h = \sigma_u \sqrt{h + \frac{1}{T}}$  be the h-step forecast error sd

$$CI_{95} = \hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{h + \frac{1}{T}}$$

- Generally, average value across 20 years is not a good prediction



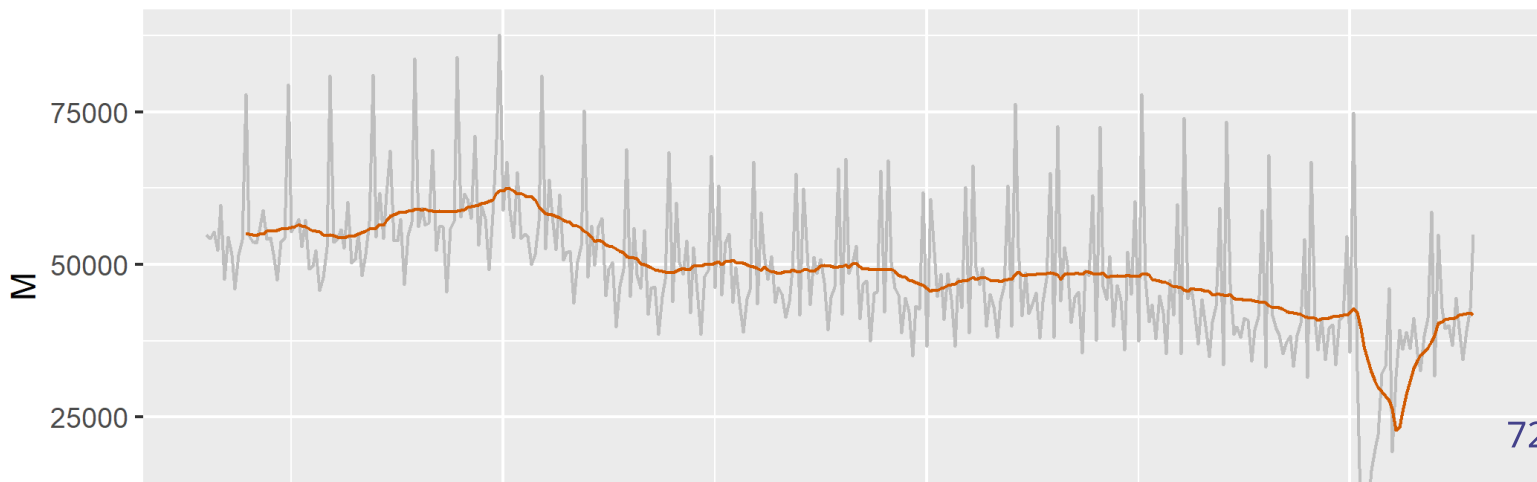
# Moving average

Consider an average of the last  $k$  observations:

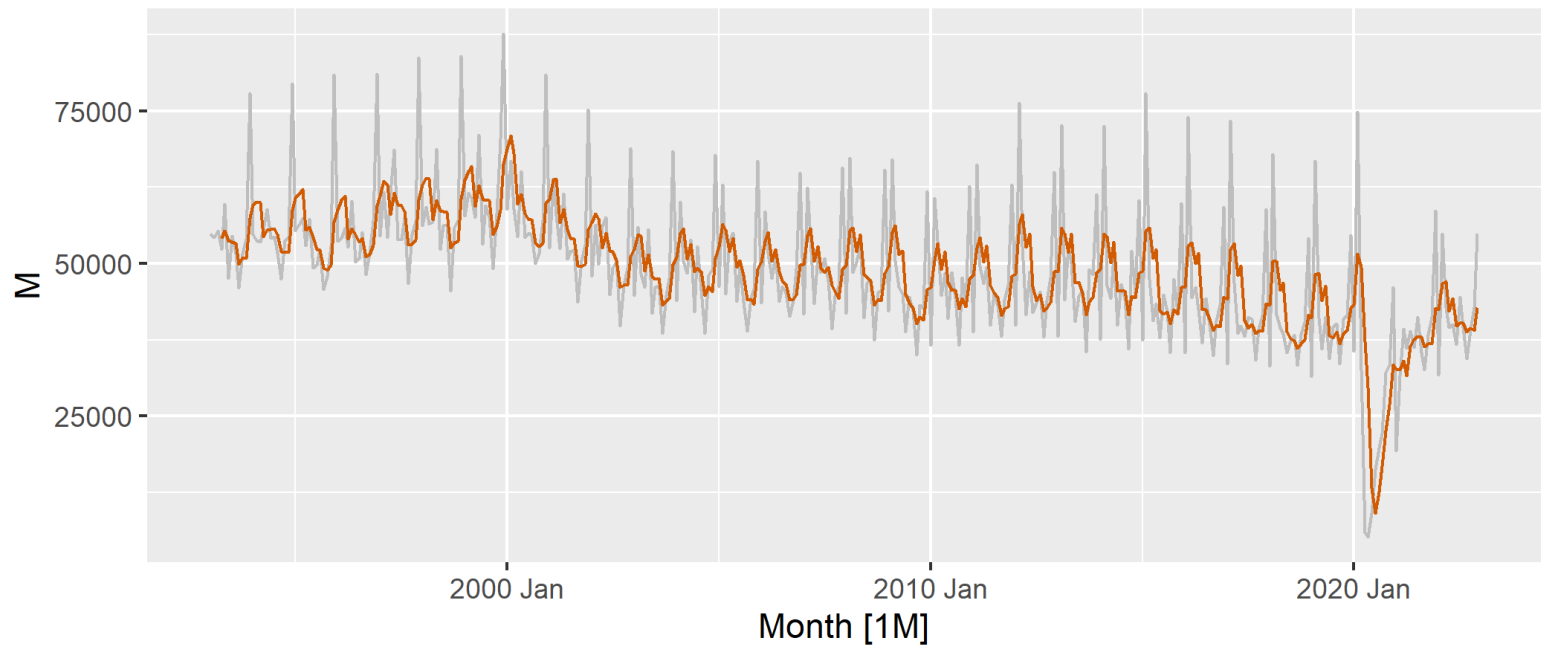
$$MA(k)_t : \frac{\sum_{j=1}^k y_{t+1-j}}{k} = \frac{y_t + y_{t-1} \dots + y_{t+1-k}}{k}$$

- How many? Usually equal to number of seasons, so the seasonal variation smoothed out
- As we will see later, this is more useful in identifying trend and cycle components

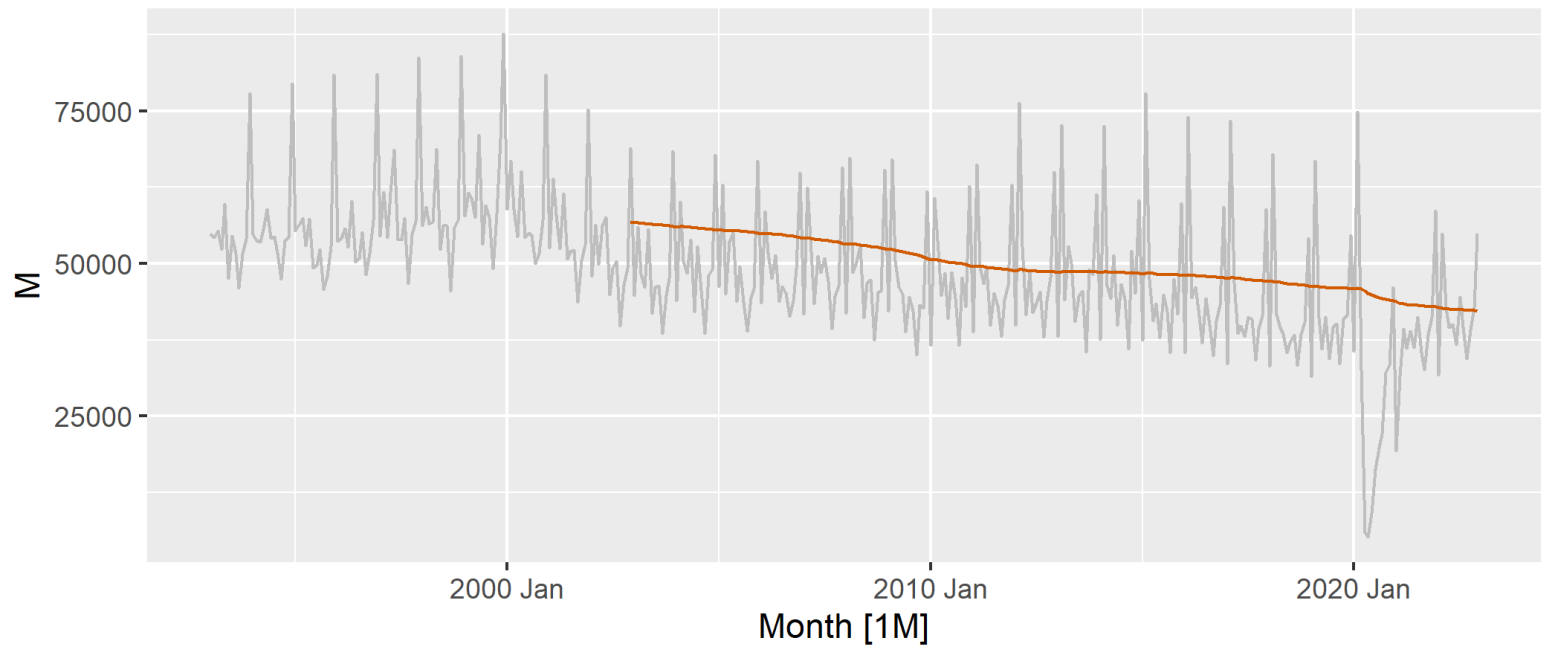
## 12 months



## 4 Months



3 years



# Evaluating forecasts

Which of the forecasts was the best?

- There is couple of ways to evaluate the forecast accuracy
- They all have advantages and disadvantages
- General idea: how close the forecast was to the observed value
- You always use OUT-OF-SAMPLE errors, not fitted residuals

# Mean Error

$$ME = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-h} (y_{t+h} - \hat{y}_{t+h|t})}{T - h}$$

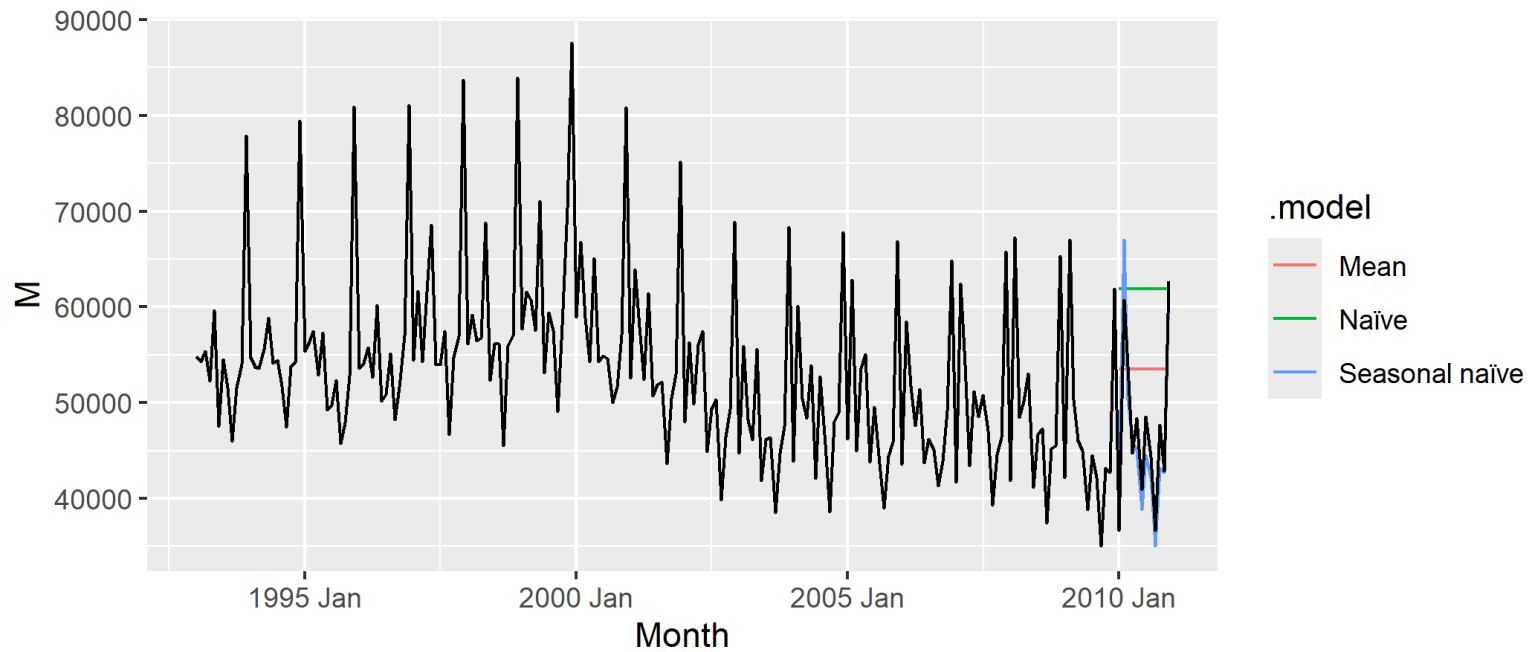
- This is the average of forecast error
- Can tell us which direction is the bias
- You can test for the existence of bias with a usual t test:
  - $H_0 : E(e_t) = 0$
  - $H_A : E(e_t) \neq 0$  (or inequality)
- Test statistic and the null distribution:

$$T_{test} = \frac{\bar{e} - 0}{\frac{\hat{\sigma}_e}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

- Positive and negative values can add up to 0
- So even if errors are large, but symmetric, this measure will be close to 0

# Mean Error

My estimation sample is up to December 2009. I am trying to predict values in 2010



# Mean Error:

To calculate the mean error at  $h=1$ , I would repeat this repetitively increasing my estimation sample.

- Ex: Estimate based on data up to January 2010, and predict February 2010, compute error
- Next: Estimate based on data up to February 2010, and predict March 2010, compute error
- And so on... until  $T-1$ .
- Then compute average of these errors

```
## # A tibble: 3 × 11
##   .model      SS   .type      ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE    RMSSE
##   <chr>      <lgl> <chr>    <dbl>  <dbl>   <dbl> <dbl>  <dbl>  <dbl>  <dbl>
## 1 Mean      FALSE Test   -4822. 12980. 12050. -17.1  29.0   4.19  3.51
## 2 Naïve     FALSE Test  -13170. 17851. 13170. -35.3  35.3   4.58  4.83
## 3 Seasonal naïve FALSE Test  -5940.  5951.  5940. -12.8  12.8   2.06  1.61
```

- If the error is negative, we overestimate!

# Mean Absolute Error

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-h} |y_{t+h} - \hat{y}_{t+h|t}|}{T - h}$$

- Similar, but we take absolute value of errors. So they don't cancel out!
- This measure is **always** positive
- But we can't say whether we underpredict or overpredict

```
## # A tibble: 3 × 11
##   .model      SS   .type      ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE    RMSSE
##   <chr>      <lgl> <chr>    <dbl>  <dbl>   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 Mean      FALSE Test   -4822. 12980. 12050. -17.1  29.0   4.19  3.51
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## 3 Seasonal naïve FALSE Test  -5940.  5951.  5940. -12.8  12.8   2.06  1.61
```

- Now clearly seasonal is the best



# Mean Percentage Error

$$MPE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-h} (y_{t+h} - \hat{y}_{t+h|t}) / y_{t+h}}{T - h}$$

- Answers the question:
  - on average, my forecast is x% wrong
  - It's unitless, so I can compare forecasts of different measures
  - EG: comparing forecast of inflation vs exports
- But again, negative and positive can cancel out...
- So average forecast is again performing well!

```
## # A tibble: 3 × 11
##   .model      SS   .type      ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE  RMSSE
##   <chr>      <lgl> <chr>    <dbl>  <dbl>   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>  <dbl>
## 1 Mean      FALSE Test   -4822. 12980. 12050. -17.1  29.0   4.19  3.51
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```

# Mean Absolute Percentage Error

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-h} |y_{t+h} - \hat{y}_{t+h|t}| / y_{t+h}}{T - h}$$

- Similar as before, but we take the absolute value

```
## # A tibble: 3 × 11
##   .model      SS   .type      ME    RMSE     MAE     MPE     MAPE     MASE    RMSSE
##   <chr>      <lgl> <chr>    <dbl>  <dbl>   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 Mean      FALSE Test   -4822. 12980. 12050.  -17.1  29.0   4.19  3.51
## 2 Naïve     FALSE Test  -13170. 17851. 13170.  -35.3  35.3   4.58  4.83
## 3 Seasonal naïve FALSE Test   -5940.  5951.  5940.  -12.8  12.8   2.06  1.61
```

# Squared Errors

- Mean Squared Errors

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

- Root Mean Squared Errors

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-h} (y_{t+h} - \hat{y}_{t+h|t})^2}{T-h}}$$

- If we take a square instead of absolute value, we penalize more big deviations
- Then we need to take square root to get the right units back

```
## # A tibble: 3 × 11
##   .model      SS   .type      ME    RMSE    MAE    MPE    MAPE    MASE    RMSSE
##   <chr>      <lgl> <chr>    <dbl>  <dbl>   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 Mean      FALSE Test   -4822. 12980. 12050. -17.1  29.0   4.19  3.51
## 2 Naïve     FALSE Test  -13170. 17851. 13170. -35.3  35.3   4.58  4.83
## 3 Seasonal naïve FALSE Test  -5940.  5951.  5940. -12.8  12.8   2.06  1.61
```

## Practice

- Lista 04.2
  - Ex 2,4
- Lista 04.3
  - Ex 1,3a (exponential smoothing is not part of the course anymore)
  - Ex 11a

# Time series decomposition

- Helps in analyzing the patterns in the time series data
- Sometimes used for forecasting

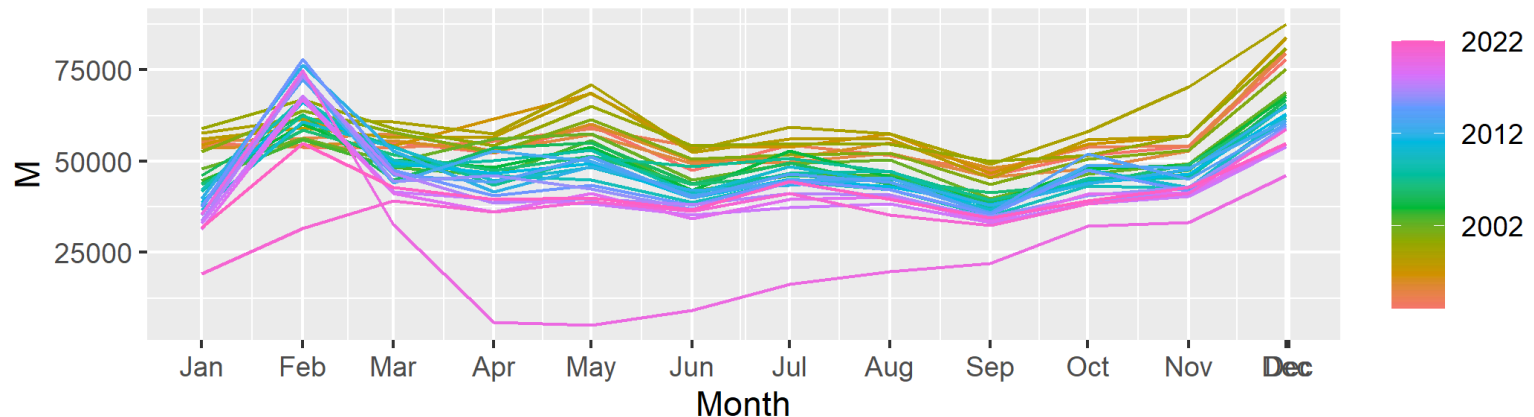
**Multiplicative Decomposition:** Assume time series is a product of 4 elements:

$$y_t = S_t T_t C_t R_t$$

**Goal:** Identify the elements of the time series:

1. Seasonality  $S_t$
  2. Trend  $T_t$
  3. Cycles  $C_t$
  4. Irregular/Reminder  $R_t$
- Two notes:
    - We will often ignore irregular components
    - Some methods don't distinguish between Trend and Cycles

# Seasonality



- How would you identify which variations in time series are due to seasonality?
- **Idea:**
  1. Eliminate seasonal variation - deseason
  2. Compare the actual series to the one without seasonal variation
  3. The difference is due to seasonality!
- How to eliminate seasonal variation?
- We will use (Centred) Moving Averages for smoothing.

# Seasonality

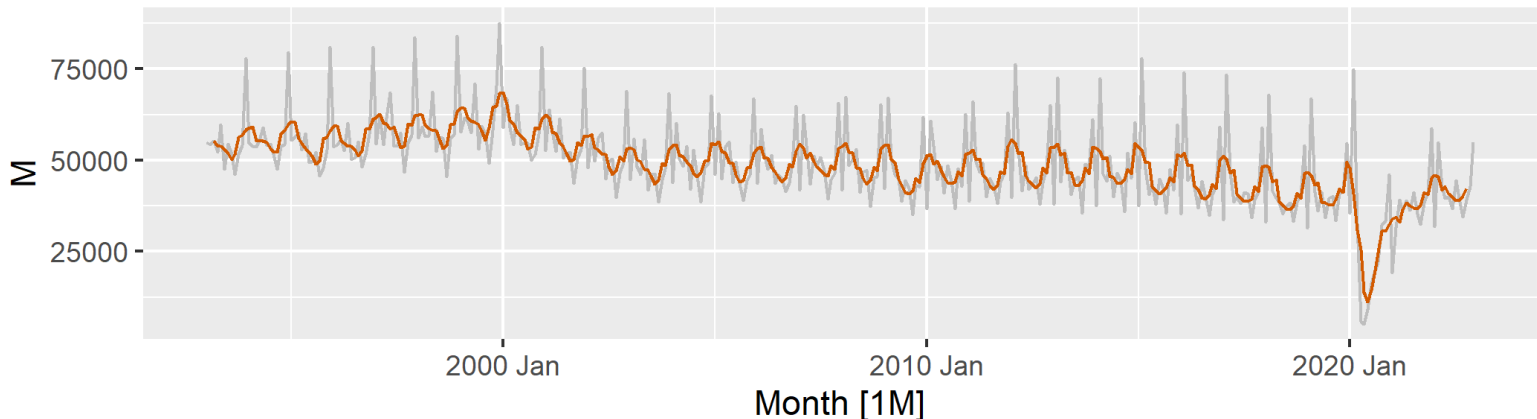
## Moving averages for smoothing

- Why moving average smoothes out seasonal variation?
- It averages out variation over some period of time
- In some seasons we have more weddings, in some seasons we have less wedding. On average these positive and negative seasonalities will average out.
- Over which period should we take average?

# Seasonality

- Suppose I take average over 5 months.
- Note that this time the period in focus is at the center
- I look at  $y_t$ , two observations before it and two observations after it!
- So the closest observations to  $y_t$

$$MA(5)_t : \frac{\sum_{j=-2}^2 y_{t+j}}{5} = \frac{y_{t+2} + y_{t+1} + y_t + y_{t-1} + y_{t-2}}{5}$$



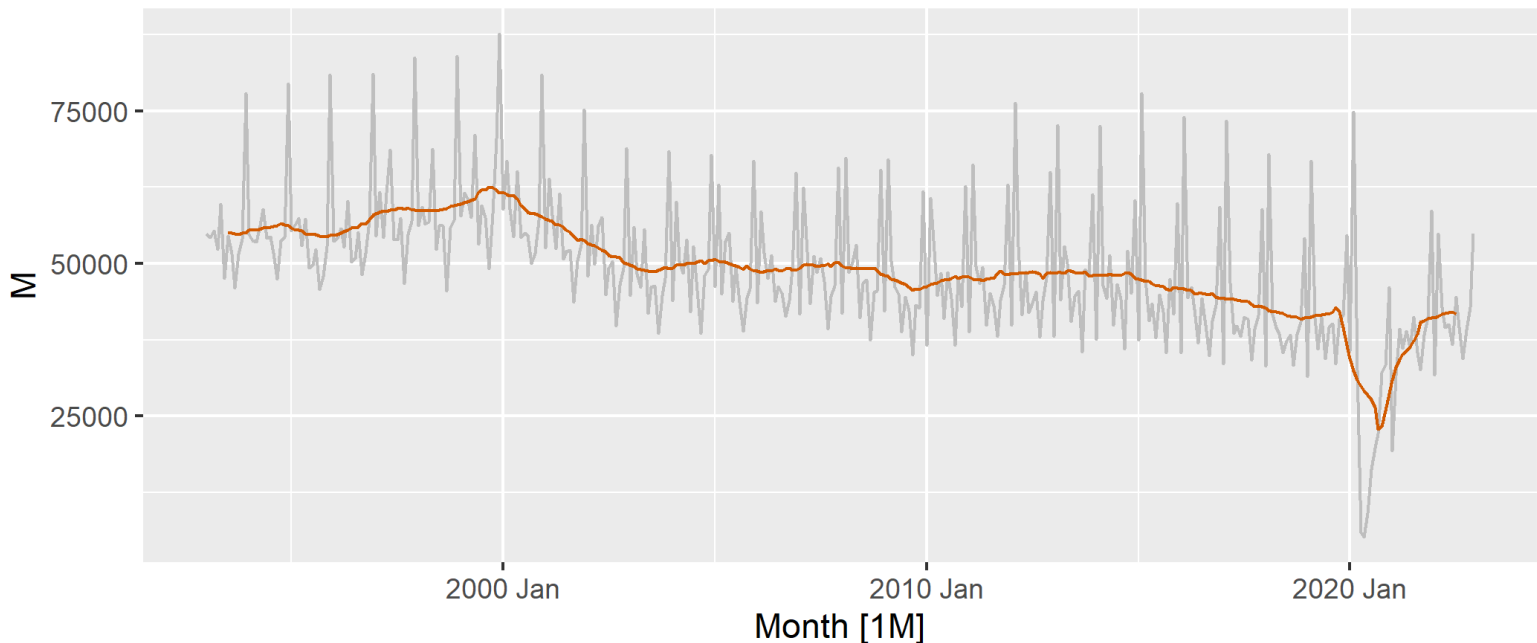
- If I take only 5, I don't average over all seasons!
- Sometimes I capture more high seasons but not low seasons, so seasonality persists



# Seasonality

- Suppose I take average over 12 seasons
- Now each average is over all months (seasons)
- We eliminated seasonal variation

$$MA(12)_t : \frac{\sum_{j=-6}^5 y_{t+j}}{12} = \frac{y_{t+5} + y_{t+4} + \dots + y_t + \dots + y_{t-5} + y_{t-6}}{12}$$



# Seasonality

- Mathematical caveat
  - Since the number of periods is even (12), our main observations is not really at the center
  - We can have 5 obs before and 6 after
  - Or 6 obs before and 5 after **Centered** Moving Average
- Or we can have both!
- Calculate moving average both ways and then take the average of the two.

$$CMA(12)_t = \left( \frac{\sum_{j=-6}^5 y_{t+j}}{12} + \frac{\sum_{j=-5}^6 y_{t+j}}{12} \right) / 2$$

- Note that we lose some data at the end and at the beginning.

- What was the "seasonality" in terms of Covid?

## Daily new coronavirus cases in the U.S.



SOURCE: Johns Hopkins University. Data through March 23, 2021.



- Less testing on weekends
- Seasonality was by the day of the week
- So we take 7 days average to smooth it out

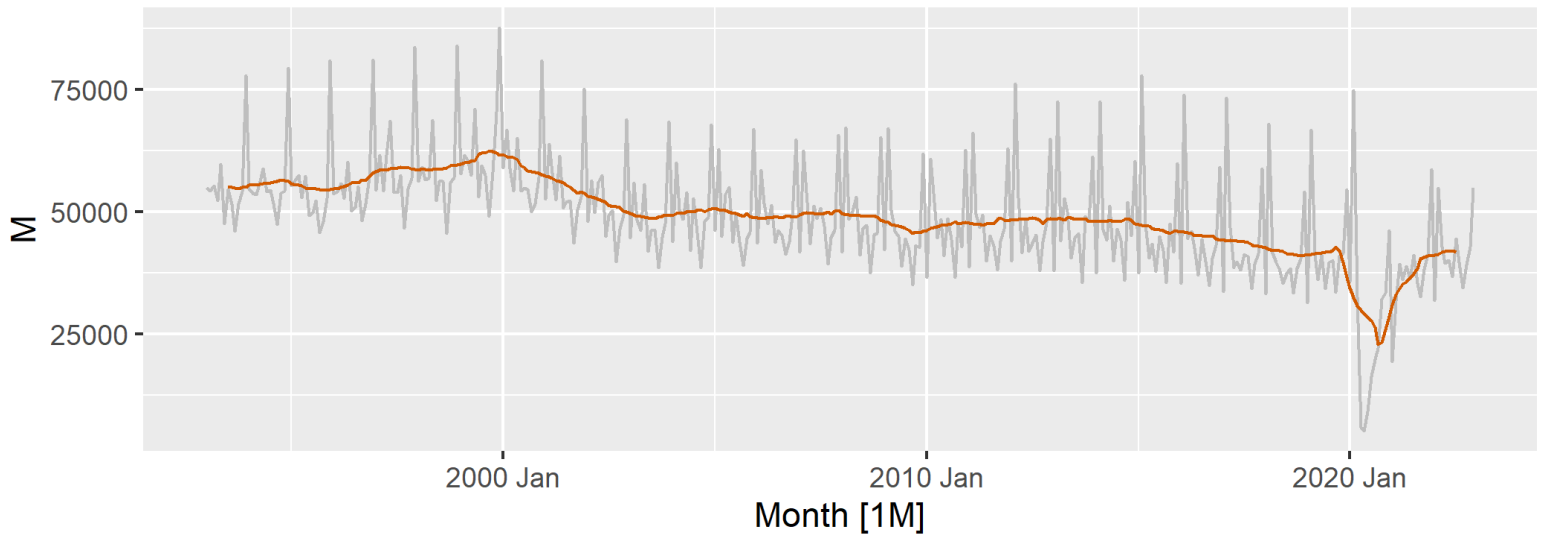
# Seasonality

- We achieved first step, we have a series without seasonal variation
- So how we identify which parts are due to seasonality?

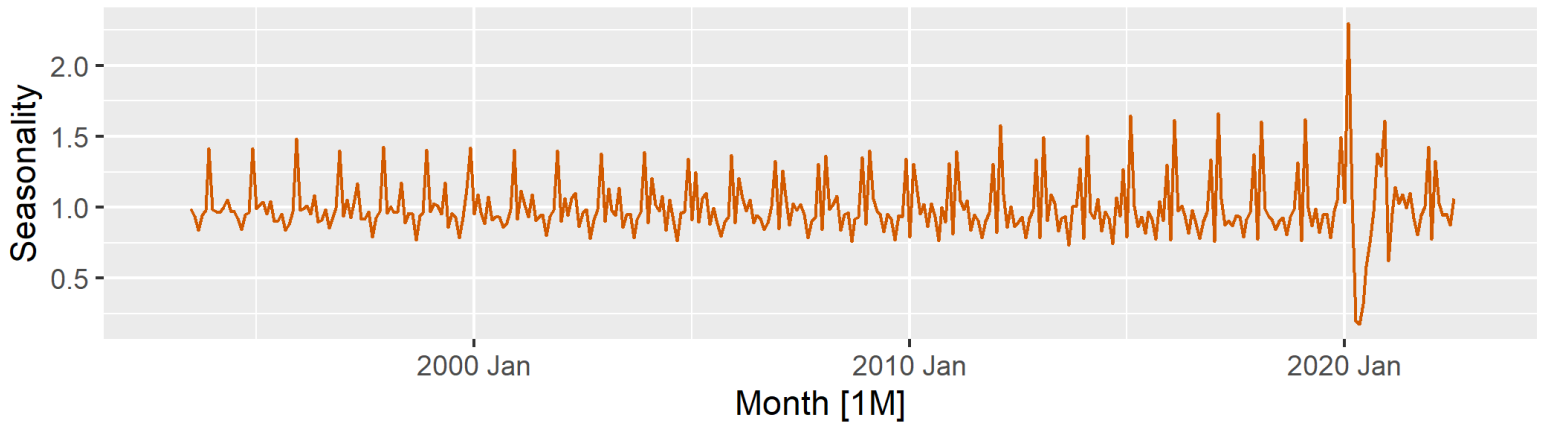
## Seasonal indices

- Compare actual data to data without seasons
- January 2010 seasonal factor would be

$$SF_{January,2010} = Y_{January,2010} / CMA_{January,2010}$$



$$SF_t = Y_t / CMA_t$$



# Seasonality

## Seasonal indices

- We assume seasonal indices are the same across the time, so we just take the average of all of them for each season:

$$SF_{January} = \sum_{year} Y_{January,year} / CMA_{January,year}$$

| ##    | Month | Seasonal_index |
|-------|-------|----------------|
| ## 1  | 1     | 0.8646459      |
| ## 2  | 2     | 1.3184852      |
| ## 3  | 3     | 1.0124035      |
| ## 4  | 4     | 0.9360894      |
| ## 5  | 5     | 1.0167274      |
| ## 6  | 6     | 0.8573390      |
| ## 7  | 7     | 0.9494380      |
| ## 8  | 8     | 0.9299655      |
| ## 9  | 9     | 0.8000362      |
| ## 10 | 10    | 0.9524714      |
| ## 11 | 11    | 0.9844850      |
| ## 12 | 12    | 1.3779134      |

- In January, we have 13.5% less weddings than yearly average
- In December, we have on average 38% more weddings than yearly average
- in June, we have 14.3% less weddings than yearly average

# Seasonality

- They should average to 1
  - Because they represent how much they deviate from average in a given season
- (or in other words) They should add up to the number of seasons!

$$\sum_{s=1}^S SF_s = S$$

- If you don't know one index, you can identify it from the sum

# Trend

- We isolated seasonality
- Now that our time series is not contaminated by seasonal variation, we can identify the trend

**Assumption:** Trend is linear

- We are trying to find a line that best approximate the *deseasoned data*
- That's what a linear regression do!
- My outcome is the deseasoned time series values
- My predictor is time

$$CMA_t = a + bt + e_t$$

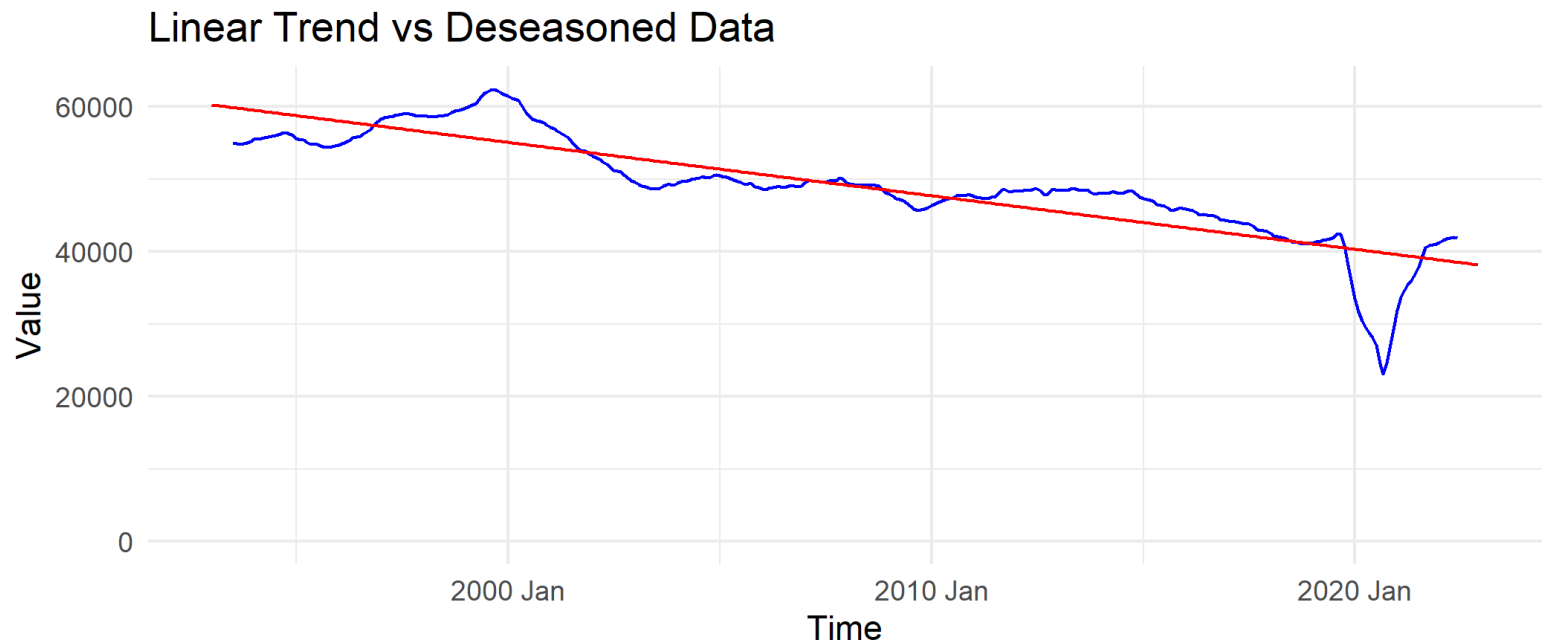
- We find  $a$  and  $b$  by OLS
- Our predicted trend at time  $t$  is:

$$T_t = \hat{a} + \hat{b}t$$



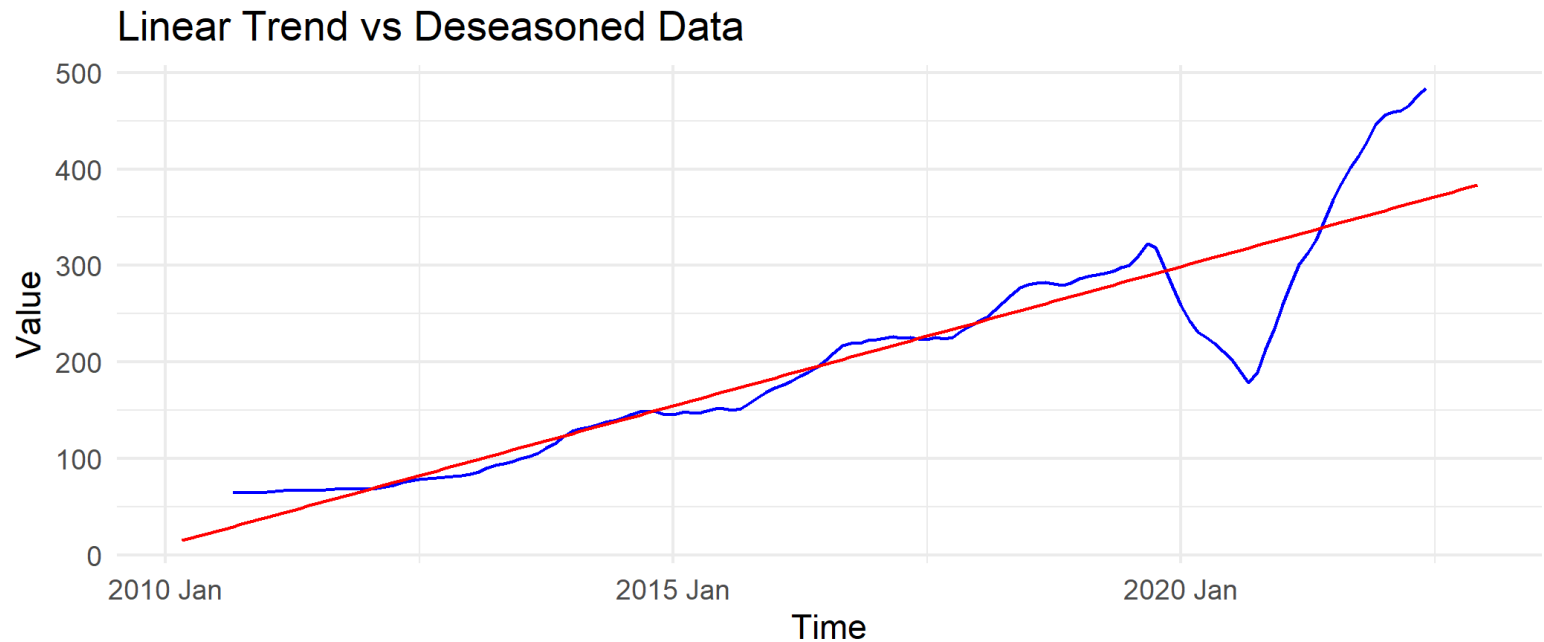
# Straight marriages

```
##  
## Call:  
## lm(formula = trend ~ Time, data = a)  
##  
## Coefficients:  
## (Intercept)      Time  
##    60304.43    -61.46
```



# Same-sex marriages

```
##  
## Call:  
## lm(formula = trend ~ Time, data = a)  
##  
## Coefficients:  
## (Intercept)      Time  
##      12.650      2.407
```

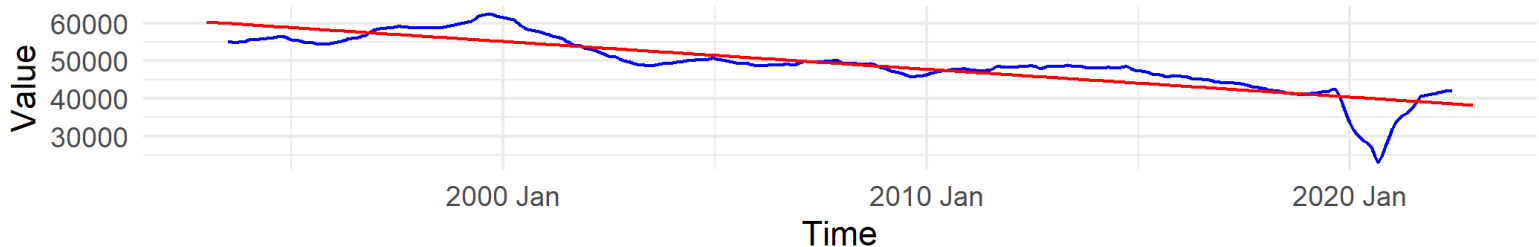


# Cyclical element

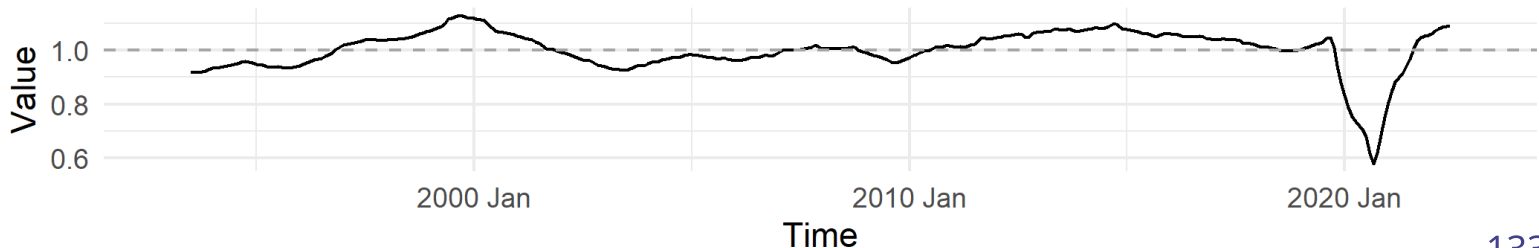
- Cyclical element is the upward and downward movements around the trend in the deseasoned data
- Divide the centered moving average (deseasoned time series) by the trend value

$$C_t = \frac{CMA_t}{T_t}$$

Linear Trend vs Deseasoned Data



Cyclical Component



# Multiplicative Decomposition

- What about the irregular component?
- We will assume it's one, unless someone tells us there will be some shock
- Once we identified all the elements, we can make predictions for the original variable using the model:

$$y_t = S_t T_t C_c R_t$$

# Prediction

What will be the marriage rate in January 2023 (T+1)?

- What is my  $S_{T+1}$ 
  - $S_{T+1}$  for January is: 0.865
- What is my  $T_{T+1}$ ?
  - Formula:  $60304.43 - 61.46 * 361 = 38117.37$
  - January 1993 is t=1, February 1993 is t=2 ... January 2023 is t=361
- What is my  $C_{T+1}$ ?
  - Hardest to predict
  - Assume it's the same as last available one:  $C_{T-6} = 1.0876$
- What is my  $R_{T+1}$ ?
  - We don't expect anything crazy to happen so  $R_{T+1} = 1$
  - Putting it all together:

$$\hat{y}_{T+1} = S_{T+1}T_{T+1}C_{T+1}R_{T+1} = 35859.83$$

# Prediction

## Confidence Interval

**Step 1** Find interval bands from trend regression

- Just use the standard formula

$$\hat{T}_{T+1} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_T^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{T} + \frac{(T+1 - \bar{t})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^T (t - \bar{t})^2} \right)}$$

- $T$  is the number of the last observation
- $T_{T+1}$  is the trend prediction
- $\hat{\sigma}_T = \frac{SSE}{T-2}$  is the st.dev of residuals from the linear regression.

```
##           fit      lwr      upr
## 1 38119.08 31187.72 45050.44
```

**Step 2** Multiply these bands by the seasonal and cyclical component

$$CI_{95} = (31187 * \underbrace{1.0876}_{C_{T+1}} * \underbrace{0.865}_{S_{T+1}}, 45050 * \underbrace{1.0876}_{C_{T+1}} * \underbrace{0.865}_{S_{T+1}}) = (29339.92, 42381.87)$$

# Practice

- last question final 2023 fall
- lista 04.4: ex 8, 10

