Time Series Modeling

GA DAT3

Agenda

- Time Series Modeling
- What Are The Time Series Models?
- Conclusion

Time Series Modeling

TIME SERIES MODELING

- In the last class, we focused on exploring time series data and common statistics for time series analysis.
- In this class, we will advance those techniques to show how to predict or forecast forward from time series data.
- With a sequence of values (a time series), we will use the techniques in this class to predict a future value.

TIME SERIES MODELING

- There are many times when you may want to use a series of values to predict a future value.
- The number of sales in a future month
- Anticipated website traffic when buying a server
- •Financial forecasting
- The number of visitors to your store during the holidays

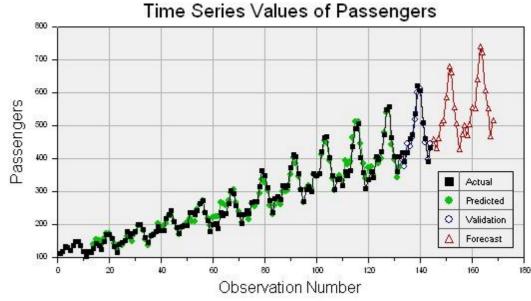
What Are The Time Series Models

• Time series models are models that will be used to predict a future value in the time series.

• Like other predictive models, we will use prior history to predict the

future.

• **Unlike** previous models, we will use the earlier in time *outcome* variables as *inputs* for predictions.

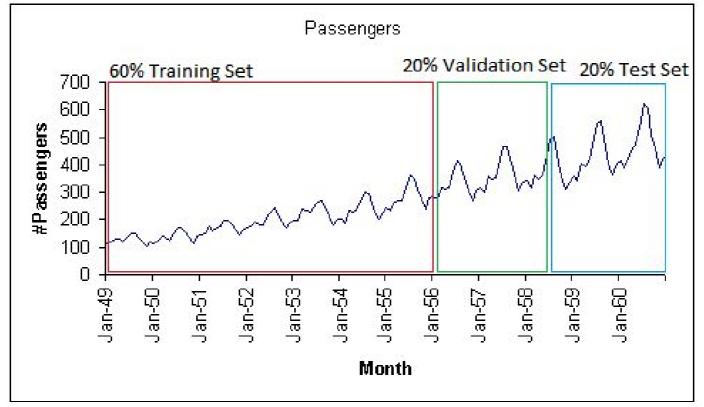


- Like previous modeling exercises, we will have to evaluate the different types of models to ensure we have chosen the best one.
- We will want to evaluate on a held-out set or test data to ensure our model performs well on unseen data.

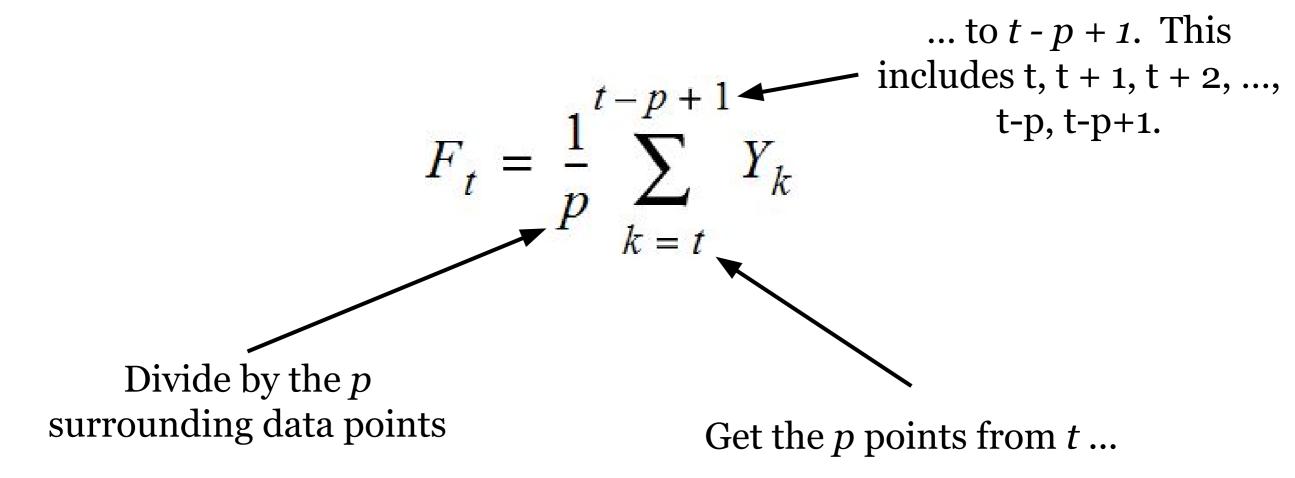
- **Unlike** previous modeling exercises, we won't be able to use standard cross-validation for evaluation.
- Since there is a time component to our data, we cannot choose training and test examples at random.
- Suppose we did select a random 80% sample of data points for training and a random 20% for testing. What could go wrong?

- The training dataset would likely contain data from *before* AND *after* a test dataset.
- This would not be possible in real life (you can't use future, unseen data points when building your model). Therefore, it's not a valid test of how our model would perform in practice.

Instead, we will exclusively train on values earlier (in time) in our data and test our model on values at the end of the data period.



• A moving average is an average of p surrounding data points in time.



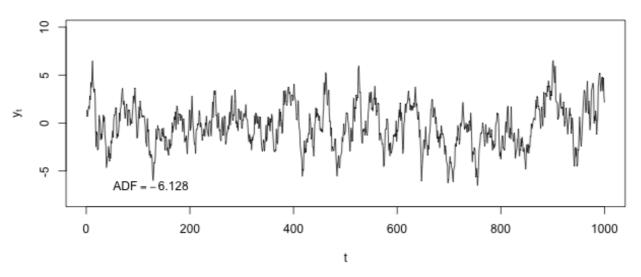
* Autocorrelation is how correlated a variable is with itself. Specifically, how related are variables earlier in time with variables later in time.

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

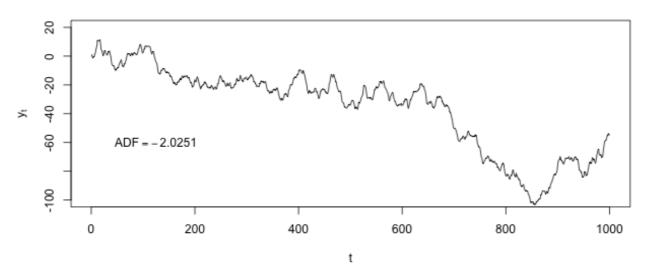
- We can use these values to assess how we plan to model our time series.
- Typically, for a high quality model, we require some autocorrelation in our data.
- We can compute autocorrelation at various lag values to determine how far back in time we need to go.

- Many models make an assumption of *stationarity*, assuming the mean and variance of our values is the *same* throughout.
- While the values (e.g. of sales) may shift up or down over time, the mean and variance of sales is constant (i.e. there aren't many dramatic swings up or down).
- These assumptions may not represent real world data; we must be aware of that when we are breaking the assumptions of our model.

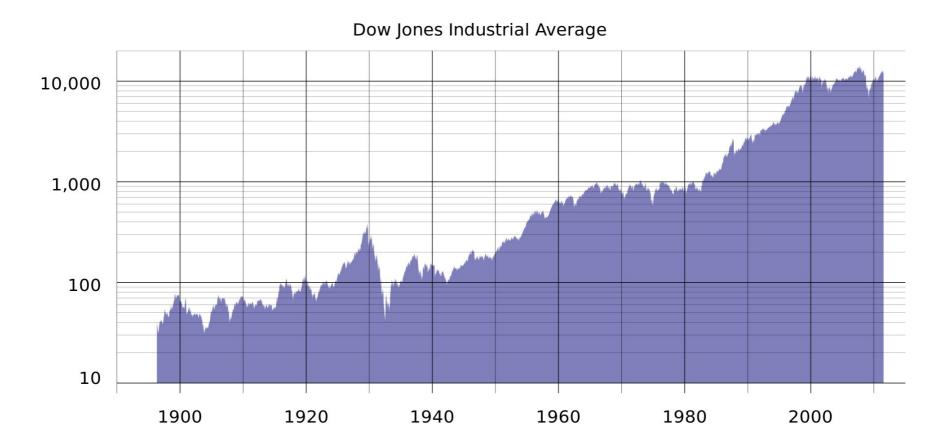
Stationary Time Series



Non-stationary Time Series

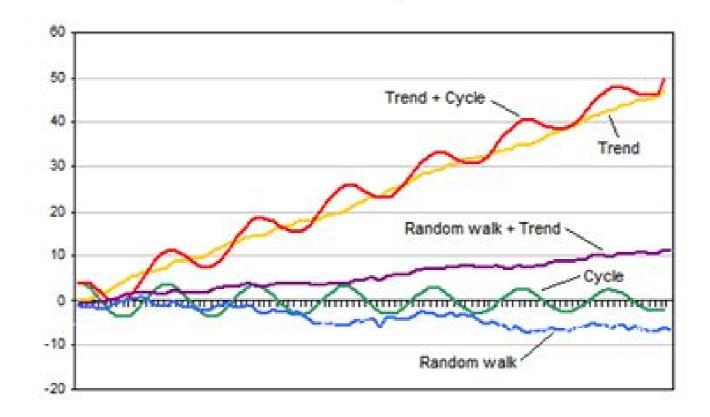


• For example, typical stock or market performance is not stationary. In this plot of Dow Jones performance since 1986, the mean is clearly increasing over time.



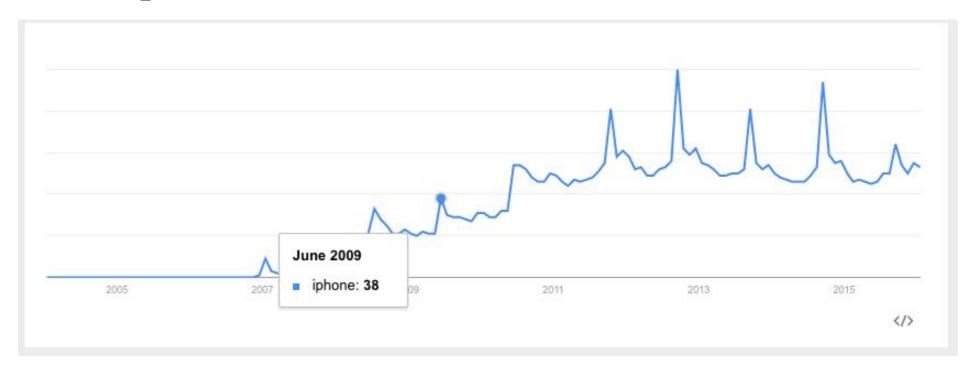
Below are simulated examples of non-stationary time series and why they might occur.

Table 1 Non-stationary behavior

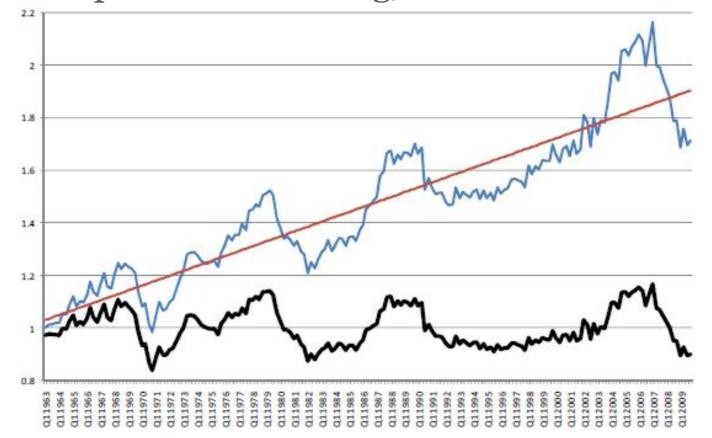


- Often, if these assumptions don't hold, we can alter our data to make them true. Two common methods are *detrending* and *differencing*.
- Detrending would mean to remove any major trends in our data.
- We could do this is many ways, but the simplest is to fit a line to the trend and make a new series that is the difference between the line and the true series.

• For example, there is a clear upward (non-stationary) trend in google searches for "iphone".

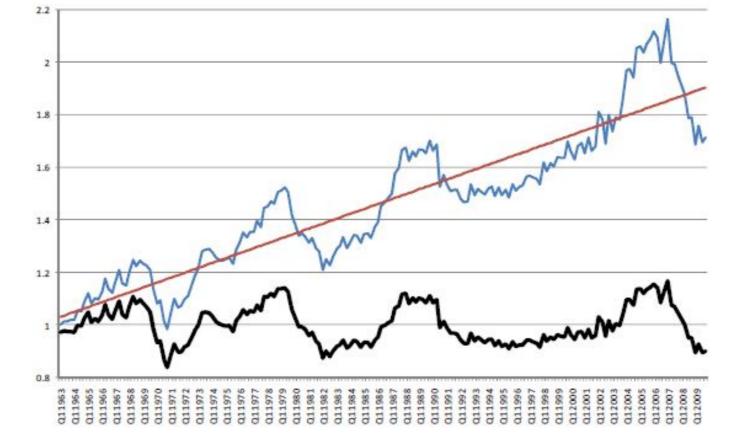


• Below is an example where we look at US housing prices over time. Clearly, there is an upward trend, making the time series non-stationary (ie: the mean house price is increasing).

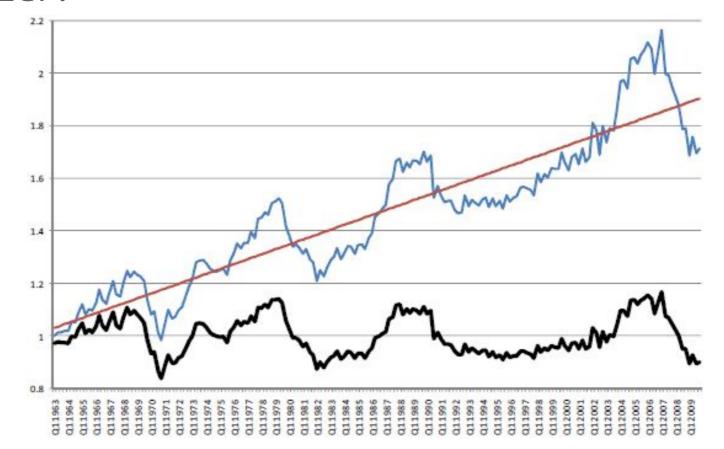


We can fit a line that represents the trend. With our trend line, we can subtract the trend line value from the original value to get the bottom

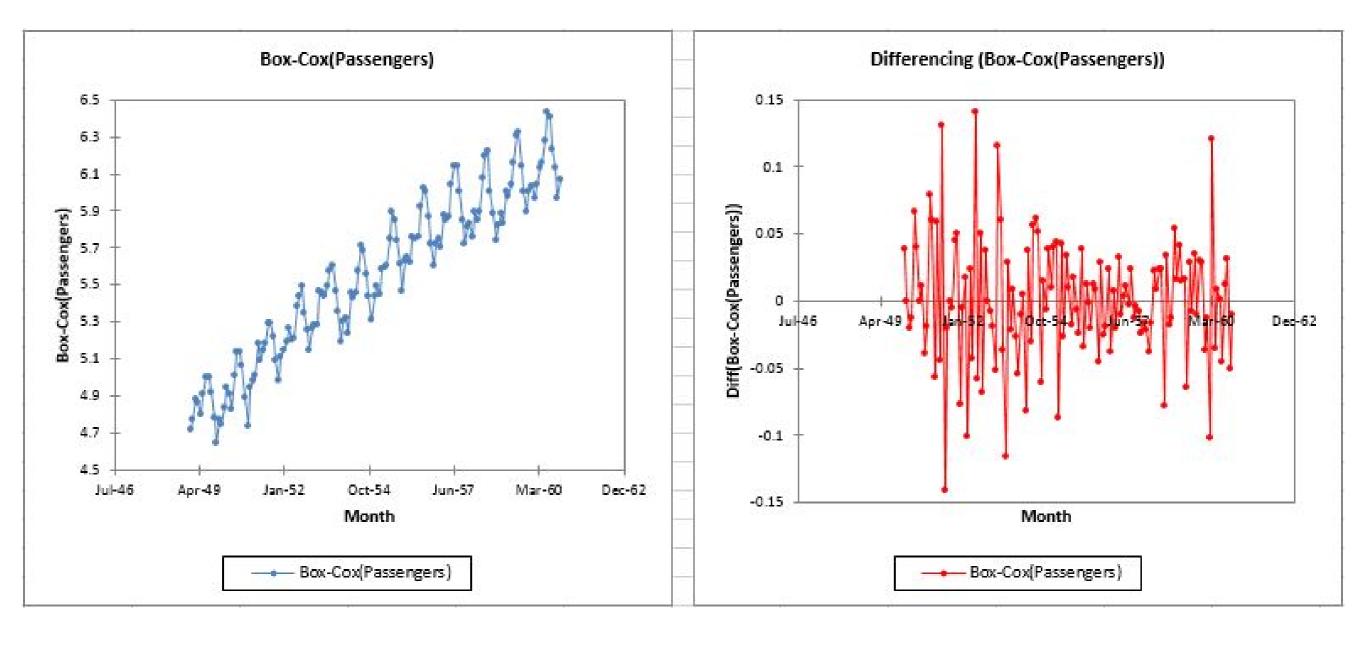
figure.



The data now has a fixed mean and will be easier to model. This pattern is similar to mean-scaling our features in earlier models with StandardScaler.



- A simpler method is *differencing*. This is very closely related to the diff function we saw in the last class.
- Instead of predicting the series (again our non-stationary series), we can predict the difference between two consecutive values.



ACTIVITY: KNOWLEDGE CHECK

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS



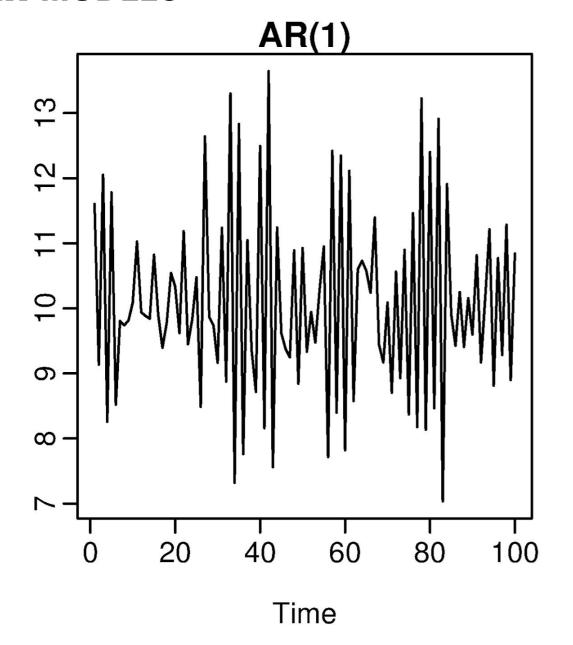
Non-stationary data is the most common; almost any interesting dataset is non-stationary.

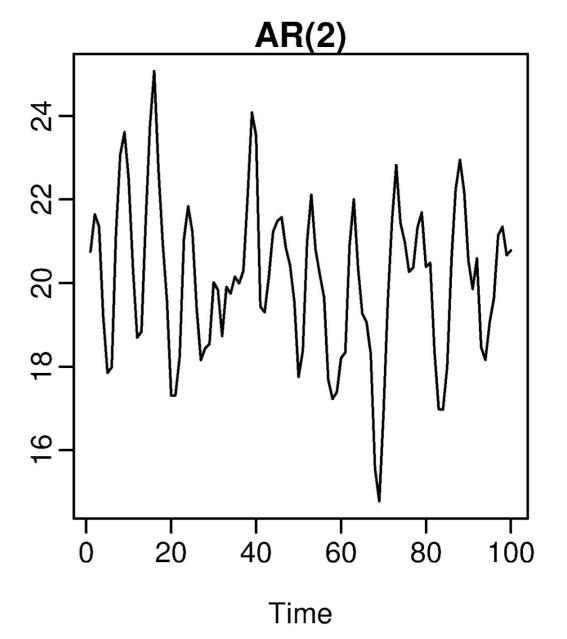
1. Can you think of some interesting datasets that might be stationary?

DELIVERABLE

Answers to the above questions

- Autoregressive (AR) models are those that use data from previous time points to predict the next.
- This is very similar to previous regression models, except as input, we take the previous outcome.
- If we are attempting to predict weekly sales, we use the sales from a previous week as input.
- Typically, AR models are notes AR(p) where *p* indicates the number of previous time points to incorporate, with AR(1) being the most common.





- In an autoregressive model, similar to standard regression, we are learning regression coefficients for each of the p previous values. Therefore, we will learn p coefficients or β values.
- If we have a time series of sales per week, y_i , we can regress each yi from the last p values.

$$y_{i} = \beta_{o} + \beta_{1}y_{i-1} + \beta_{2}y_{i-2} + ... + \beta_{p}y_{i-p} + \varepsilon$$

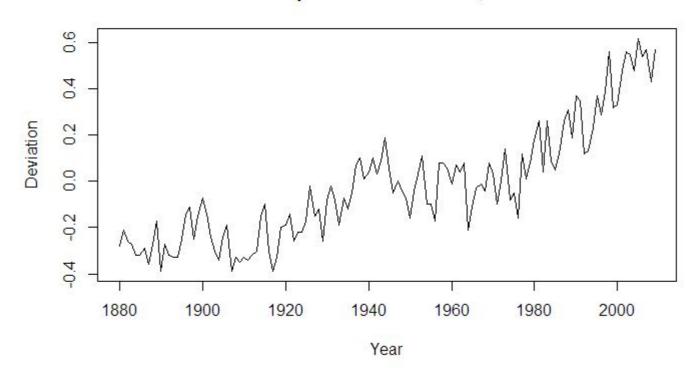
• As with standard regression, our model assumes that each outcome variable is a linear combination of the inputs and a random error term.

- For an AR(1) model, we will learn a single coefficient.
- This coefficient, β , will tell us the relationship between the previous value, Y_{t-1} , and the next value, Y_t .

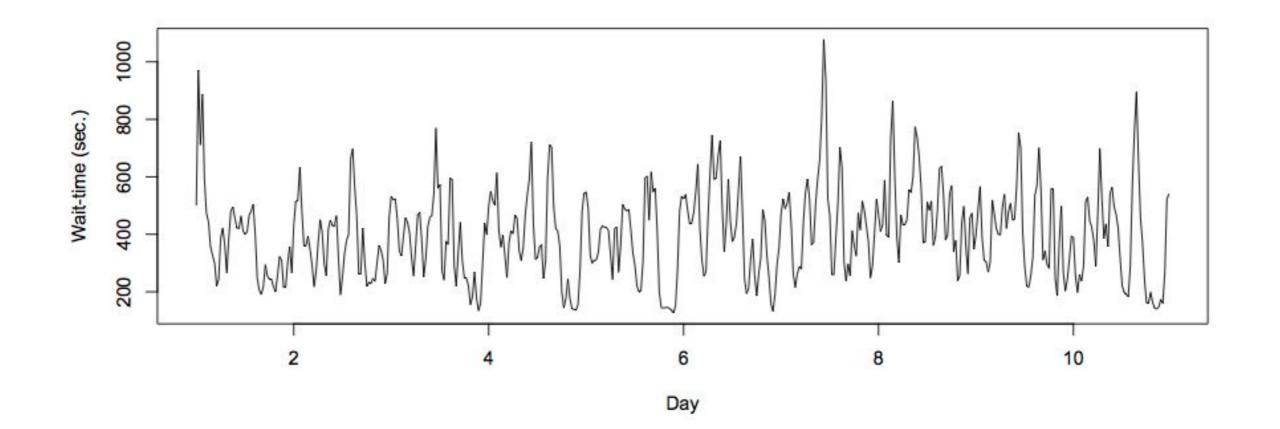
$$Y_{t} = \beta \cdot Y_{t-1}$$

A value > 1 would indicate a growth over previous values. This would typically represent non-stationary data, since if we compound the increases, the values are continually increasing.

Global Temperature Deviations, 1880-2009



Values between 1 and -1 represent increasing and decreasing patterns from previous patterns.



- As with other models, interpretation of the model becomes more complex as we add more factors.
- Going from AR(1) to AR(2) can add significant *multi-collinearity*.

- Recall that *autocorrelation* is the correlation of a value with its series *lagged* behind.
- A model with high correlation implies that the data is highly dependent on previous values and an autoregressive model would perform well.

- Autoregressive models are useful for learning falls or rises in our series.
- This will weight together the last few values to make a future prediction.
- Typically, this model type is useful for small-scale trends such as an increase in demand or change in tastes that will gradually increase or decrease the series.

MA MODELS

- Moving average (MA) models, as opposed to AR models, do not take the previous outputs (or values) as inputs. They take the previous error terms.
- We will attempt to predict the next value based on the overall average and how off our previous predictions were.

- This model is useful for handling specific or abrupt changes in a system.
- AR models slowly incorporate changes in the system by combining previous values; MA models use prior errors to quickly incorporate changes.
- This is useful for modeling a sudden occurrence something going out of stock or a sudden rise in popularity affecting sales.

- As in AR models, we have an order term, q, and we refer to our model as MA(q). The moving average model is dependent on the last q errors.
- If we have a time series of sales per week, y_i , we can regress each y_i from the last q error terms.

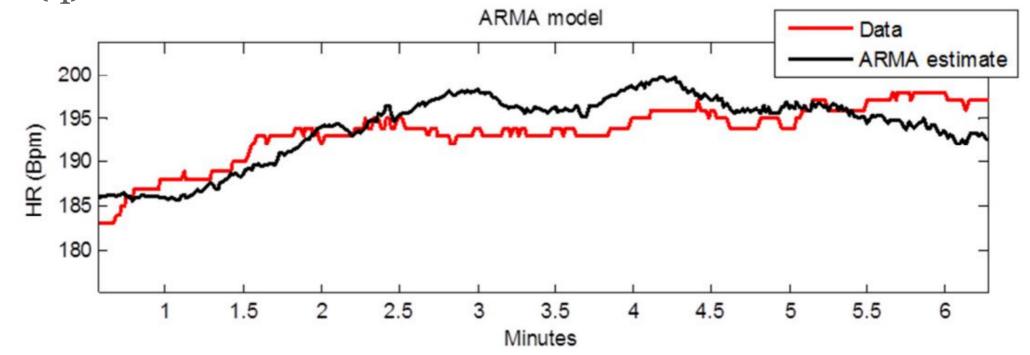
$$y_i = mean + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{i-1} + \beta_2 \varepsilon_{i-2} + ... + \beta_q \varepsilon_{i-q}$$

• We include the mean of the time series (that's why it's called a moving average) as we assume the model takes the mean value of the series and randomly jumps around it.

- Of course, we don't have error terms when we start where do they come from?
- This requires a more complex fitting procedure than we have seen previously.
- We need to iteratively fit a model (perhaps with random error terms), compute the errors and then refit, again and again.

- ightharpoonup In this model, we learn q coefficients.
- In an MA(1) model, we learn one coefficient.
- This value indicates the impact of how our previous error term on the next prediction.

- **ARMA** (pronounced 'R-mah') models combine the autoregressive and moving average models.
- An ARMA(p,q) model is simply a combination (sum) of an AR(p) model and MA(q) model.



- We specify two model settings, p and q, which correspond to combining an AR(p) model with an MA(q) model.
- Incorporating both models allows us to mix two types of effects.
- •AR models slowly incorporate changes in preferences, tastes, and patterns.
- Moving average models base their prediction on the prior error, allowing to correct sudden changes based on random events supply, popularity spikes, etc.

- ARIMA (pronounced 'uh-ri-mah') is an AutoRegressive Integrated Moving Average model.
- In this model, we learn an ARMA(p,q) model to predict *the difference* of the series (as opposed to the value of the series).

- Recall the pandas diff function. This computes the difference between two consecutive values.
- In an ARIMA model, we attempt to predict this difference instead of the actual values.

$$y_t - y_{t-1} = ARIMA(p,q)$$

This handles the stationarity assumption we wanted for our data. Instead of detrending or differencing manually, the model does this.

- An ARIMA model has three parameters and is specified ARIMA(p, d, q).
- •p is the order of the autoregressive component
- $\cdot q$ is the order of the moving average component
- $\rightarrow d$ is the degree of differencing.
- d was 1 in our prior example. For d=2, our model would be

$$diff(diff(y)) = (y_t - y_{t-1}) - (y_{t-1} - y_{t-2}) = ARIMA(p,q)$$

- Compared to an ARMA model, ARIMA models do **not** rely on the underlying series being stationary.
- The differencing operation can *convert* the series to one that is stationary.
- Instead of attempting to predict values over time, our new series is the difference in values over time.
- Since ARIMA models include differencing, they can be used on a broader set of data without the assumption of a constant mean.

Conclusion

CONCLUSION

- Time-series models use previous values to predict future values, also known as forecasting.
- AR and MA model are simple models on previous values or previous errors respectively.
- ARMA combines these two types of models to account for both gradual shifts (due to AR models) and abrupt changes (MA models).

CONCLUSION

- ARIMA models train ARMA models on differenced data to account for non-stationary data.
- Note that none of these models may perform well for data that has more random variation.
- For example, for something like iphone sales (or searches) which may be sporadic, with short periods of increases, these models may not work well.

Q??