



# **MASTER OF COMPUTER APPLICATION**

## **SEMESTER 1**

### **DATA VISUALISATION**

# Unit 12

## Time Series and Trend Analysis in Python

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

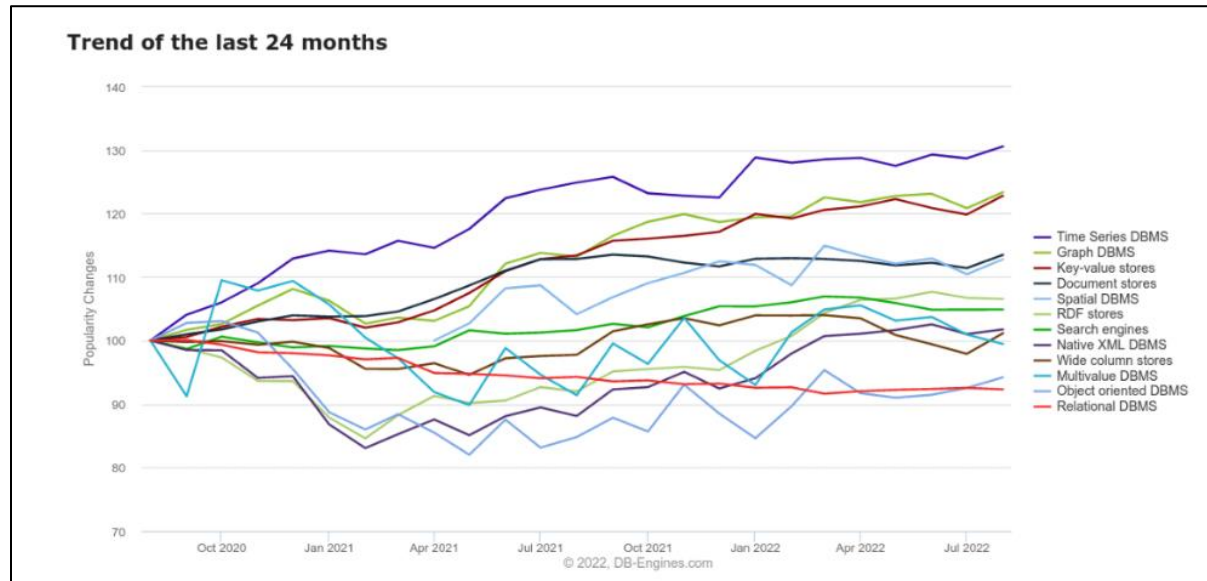
Time series analysis in Python is a systematic approach to data points collected over time intervals. This analytical process is pivotal in various domains, including finance, economics, and weather forecasting, enabling pattern identification, prediction, and insight generation about temporal data dynamics. The process encompasses data collection, preprocessing, visualisation, decomposition, modelling, evaluation, and forecasting, each step playing a crucial role in extracting meaningful information from timestamped data.

### 1.1 Learning Objectives

*After studying this unit, you will be able to:*

- ❖ *Comprehend the fundamentals of time series data.*
- ❖ *Recognise the differences between trend, seasonality, and noise within time series data.*
- ❖ *Acquire skills in data collection, preprocessing, and visualisation techniques.*
- ❖ *Demonstrate the implementation of basic forecasting models.*
- ❖ *Gain the ability to represent uncertainty through confidence intervals and prediction bands.*

## 2. TIME SERIES ANALYSIS



Time series analysis in Python refers to analysing and modelling data points collected or recorded at specific intervals. This data can be used to make predictions, identify patterns, and gain insights into how a particular phenomenon changes over time. Time series analysis is commonly used in various fields such as finance, economics, weather forecasting, etc.

To perform time series analysis in Python, you typically follow these steps:

- 1. Data Collection:** Gather your timestamped data. This could include historical stock prices, weather measurements, sales data, or other information collected over time.
- 2. Data Preprocessing:** Clean the data by handling missing values, outliers, and other data quality issues.
- 3. Visualisation:** Create visualisations to explore the data, such as line plots, scatter plots, and histograms, to understand patterns and trends.
- 4. Time Series Decomposition:** Decompose the time series into its components, which usually include the trend, seasonality, and noise. This helps in understanding the underlying patterns.
- 5. Modelling:** Build time series models to make predictions or gain insights. Standard models include ARIMA (AutoRegressive Integrated Moving Average), SARIMA (Seasonal ARIMA), and more advanced methods like Prophet and LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory) neural networks.

- 6. Model Evaluation:** Assess the accuracy and performance of your models using appropriate metrics. You may use techniques like cross-validation to ensure your models are robust.
- 7. Forecasting:** Use your models to make future predictions and visualise the results.

## 2.1. Exploring Time Series Data in Python

Exploring time series data in Python is crucial in understanding your data's underlying patterns, trends, and characteristics before you proceed with modelling or forecasting. This exploration involves data visualisation, statistical summaries, and gaining insights into the structure of your time series. Here's a detailed explanation of how to explore time series data in Python:

### 1. Load and Prepare Data:

Start by loading your time series data into a Python environment using a library like pandas. Ensure the data is in the appropriate format, with a timestamp index and values. Here's how to load and prepare the data:

```
import pandas as pd

# Load time series data
data = pd.read_csv('your_time_series_data.csv', parse_dates=['timestamp_column'])
data.set_index('timestamp_column', inplace=True)
```

### 2. Visualise the Time Series:

Visualisation is a powerful way to grasp the patterns and trends within your time series data. Common visualisations include line plots, scatter plots, and histograms. You can use libraries like Matplotlib or Seaborn to create these plots. For a basic line plot:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
plt.plot(data)
plt.title('Time Series Data')
plt.xlabel('Time')
plt.ylabel('Value')
plt.show()
```

### 3. Summary Statistics:

Calculate and examine summary statistics to understand your data's central tendency and variation. You can use pandas' `describe()` method to obtain statistics like mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum:

```
summary_stats = data.describe()

print(summary_stats)
```

### 4. Seasonal Decomposition:

Decompose the time series into its key components: trend, seasonality, and noise. This can be done using the `seasonal\_decompose` function from the statsmodels library. This step helps you identify long-term trends and seasonal patterns in the data:

```
from statsmodels.tsa.seasonal import seasonal_decompose

decomposition = seasonal_decompose(data, model='additive', period=1)

decomposition.plot()

plt.show()
```

The decomposed plot will help you clearly visualise the trend and seasonality in the data.

### 5. Autocorrelation Function (ACF) and Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF):

ACF and PACF plots reveal the correlation between a time series and its lagged values. These plots can provide insights into the order of autoregressive (AR) and moving average (MA) components when modeling time series data. You can use the `plot\_acf` and `plot\_pacf` functions from the statsmodels library:

```
from statsmodels.graphics.tsaplots import plot_acf, plot_pacf

fig, (ax1, ax2) = plt.subplots(2, 1, figsize=(12, 6))

plot_acf(data, lags=40, ax=ax1)

plot_pacf(data, lags=40, ax=ax2)

plt.show()
```

These plots can help identify your data's seasonality and potential lag values.



## 6. Data Stationarity:

Many time series models assume stationarity, meaning that statistical properties of the data (e.g., mean, variance) remain constant over time. You can test for stationarity using the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test from the statsmodels library:

```
from statsmodels.tsa.stattools import adfuller

result = adfuller(data['column_name'])

print('ADF Statistic:', result[0])

print('p-value:', result[1])
```

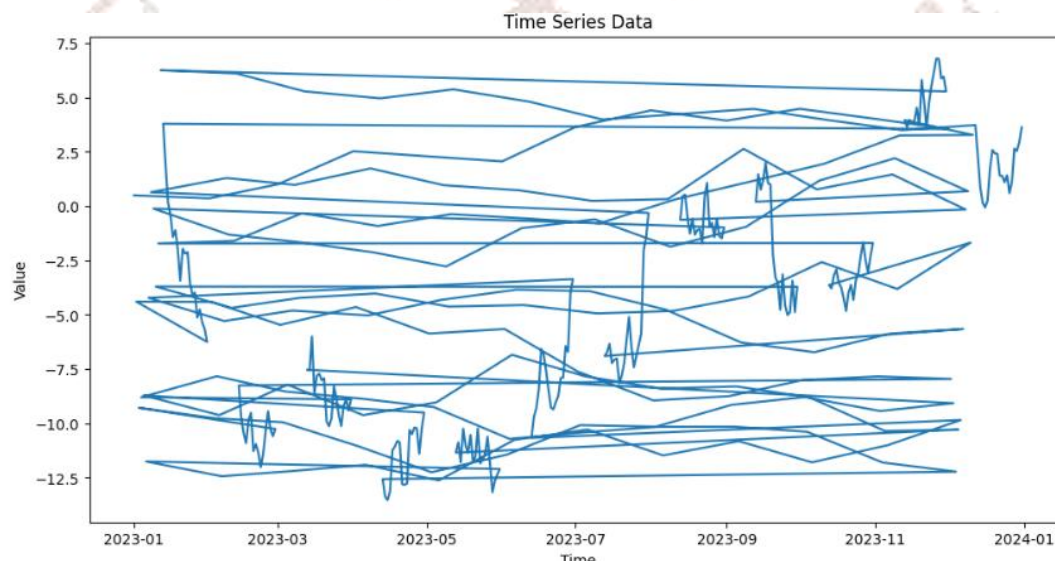
A p-value below a certain threshold (e.g., 0.05) indicates stationarity. If the data is non-stationary, you may need to difference it to make it stationary.

## 7. Additional Exploratory Analysis:

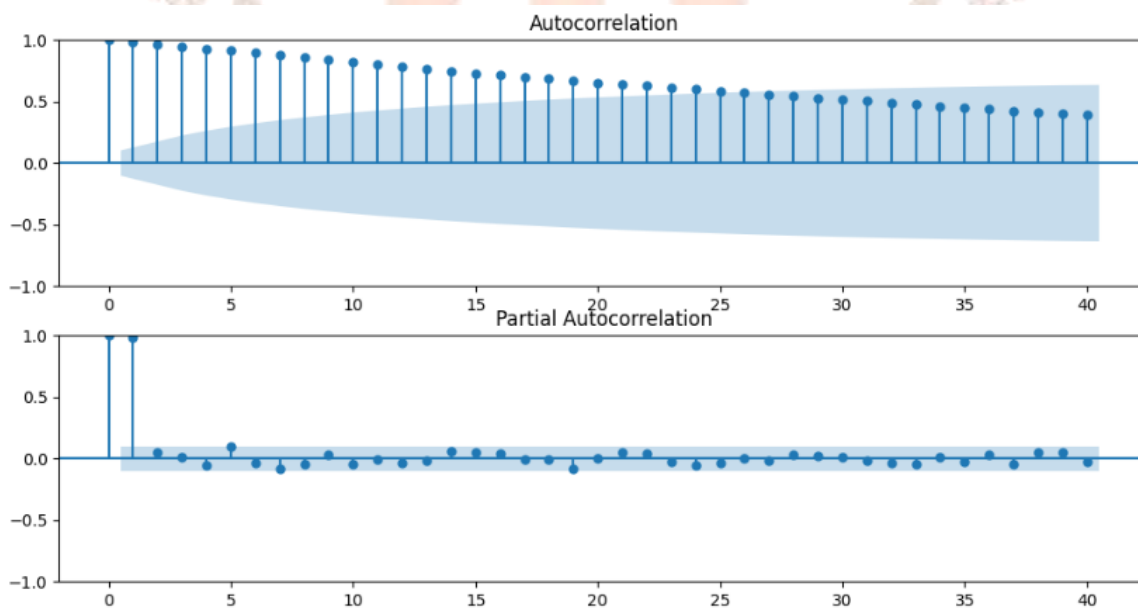
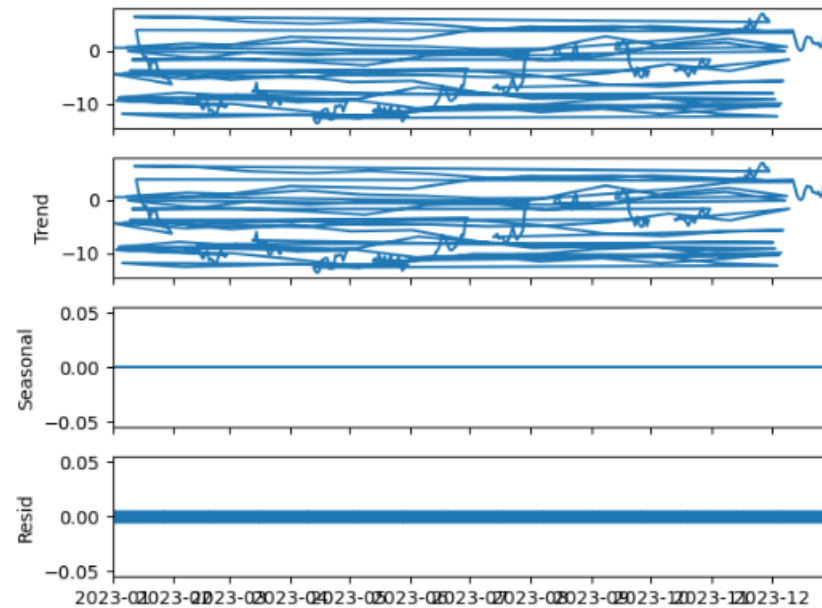
Depending on your specific data and goals, you may want to explore additional characteristics like seasonality patterns, outliers, or any known external factors that may influence the time series.

By following these steps, you'll understand your time series data comprehensively, which will inform your subsequent decisions regarding modeling, forecasting, and data transformations. Time series exploration is a critical foundation for successful analysis and modeling.

### Output:



```
count    365.000000  
mean     -4.441074  
std       5.375883  
min     -13.526945  
25%     -9.352506  
50%     -4.642499  
75%      0.157948  
max       6.791910
```



ADF Statistic: -1.4763584156080392  
p-value: 0.5451723992418255



### 3. WORKING WITH DATES

Working with dates in Python involves managing and manipulating date and time information, which is essential for many applications, from handling time series data to scheduling tasks and managing events. Here's a detailed explanation of how to work with dates in Python:

#### 3.1. Handling dates and time series in Python

##### 1. Import the Necessary Modules:

Start by importing the relevant date and time-related modules. The most commonly used modules are:

```
import datetime # For basic date and time operations
from dateutil import parser # For parsing date strings
from datetime import timedelta # For date arithmetic
import pytz # For working with time zones
```

You may need to install the `python-dateutil` and `pytz` modules using `pip` if you haven't already:

```
pip install python-dateutil pytz
```

##### 2. Creating Date and Time Objects:

You can create date and time objects using the `datetime` module. There are two primary classes:

- **`datetime.date`**: Represents a date (year, month, and day).
- **`datetime.datetime`**: Represents a date and a time (year, month, day, hour, minute, second, microsecond).

##### **import datetime**

```
# Create a date object for today
today = datetime.date.today()
print("Today's date:", today)

# Create a datetime object for the current date and time
now = datetime.datetime.now()
print("Current date and time:", now)
```

### 3. Formatting and Parsing Dates:

You can format dates and times as strings using the `strftime` method to specify the desired format. Conversely, you can parse date strings into `datetime` objects using the `strptime` method.

#### Formatting a date:

```
formatted_date = today.strftime("%Y-%m-%d")
print("Formatted date:", formatted_date)

Parsing a date string:
date_str = "2023-10-18"
parsed_date = datetime.datetime.strptime(date_str, "%Y-%m-%d")
print("Parsed date:", parsed_date)
```

### 4. Performing Date Arithmetic:

You can perform various arithmetic operations on dates using the `datetime` module. For instance, you can calculate a date in the future or the past by adding or subtracting a `timedelta`.

```
from datetime import datetime, timedelta

today = datetime.today()
one_week_later = today + timedelta(days=7)
one_year_ago = today - timedelta(weeks=52)
```

### 5. Working with Time Zones:

The `pytz` library allows you to handle time zones efficiently. You can create `datetime` objects that are aware of specific time zones and convert them between different time zones.

```
from datetime import datetime
import pytz

# Create a datetime object with a specific time zone
eastern = pytz.timezone('US/Eastern')
aware_time = datetime(2023, 10, 18, 12, 0, tzinfo=eastern)
```

```
# Convert the time to a different time zone  
pacific = pytz.timezone('US/Pacific')  
pacific_time = aware_time.astimezone(pacific)
```

## 6. Working with Dates and Times in Pandas:

If you're dealing with time series data, you can also work with dates and times in the Pandas library. Pandas provides powerful tools for handling time series data, such as date/time indexing, resampling, and rolling statistics.

```
import pandas as pd  
# Create a date range in Pandas  
date_range = pd.date_range(start='2023-01-01', periods=365, freq='D')  
# Create a Pandas DataFrame with dates as an index  
df = pd.DataFrame({'values': range(365)}, index=date_range)
```

By mastering these date and time handling techniques in Python, you can effectively work with dates, times, and time-related data in various applications, from basic date calculations to complex time series analysis and time zone management.

### Output:

```
Today's date: 2024-03-22  
Current date and time: 2024-03-22 16:25:28.679974  
Formatted date: 2024-03-22  
Parsed date: 2023-10-18 00:00:00
```

## 3.2. Resampling and Frequency Conversion

Resampling and frequency conversion in the context of time series data involves changing a dataset's frequency or time intervals. This is a standard operation when working with time series data, as data collected at high frequencies may need to be aggregated or downsampled to lower frequencies for analysis or visualisation. Similarly, data collected at lower frequencies may need to be upsampled to a higher frequency. Python provides powerful tools for resampling and frequency conversion through libraries like Pandas. Here's a detailed explanation, along with Python examples:

**Resampling:**

Resampling converts time series data from one frequency to another, such as downsampling (reducing the frequency) or upsampling (increasing the frequency). It's often used for summarising, aggregating, or interpolating data. Pandas provides a resample method for this purpose.

Let's dive into more detail about downsampling and upsampling in time series data using Pandas:

**Downsampling:**

Downsampling reduces the frequency of time series data, typically by aggregating values over larger time intervals. This is often done to simplify data for analysis or visualisation. Common aggregation methods include sum, mean, median, maximum, minimum, or custom functions.

Your example shows a sample time series DataFrame `df` with daily values. You want to downsample it to a weekly frequency, taking the mean of daily values.

**1. Create the Sample Time Series Data:**

First, you create a sample time series DataFrame with daily values:

```
import pandas as pd
date_rng = pd.date_range(start='2023-01-01', periods=10, freq='D')
df = pd.DataFrame({'values': range(10)}, index=date_rng)
```

**2. Downsample to Weekly Frequency:**

To downsample to weekly frequency, you use the `resample` method with the desired frequency string, which, in this case, is 'W' for weekly. You can then apply an aggregation function (in this case, `.mean()`) to calculate the mean values within each weekly interval.

```
weekly_resampled = df.resample('W').mean()
print(weekly_resampled)
```

The result will be a new DataFrame where the frequency is now weekly, and each value is the mean of the daily values within that week.

**Upsampling:**

Upsampling increases the frequency of time series data, typically by interpolating values for the new time points. This is often done when you have data at a lower frequency and want to examine it at a higher frequency, such as converting daily data to hourly data. Interpolation methods include forward fill (ffill), backward fill (bfill), linear interpolation, or cubic interpolation.

In your example, you upsample the daily data to hourly frequency using forward fill for interpolation.

**1. Upsample to Hourly Frequency:**

To upsample to hourly frequency, you use the `resample` method with the desired frequency string, which, in this case, is 'H' for hourly. You specify the interpolation method, forward fill (`ffill`) to propagate the last available value to fill in the gaps.

```
hourly_resampled = df.resample('H').ffill()
print(hourly_resampled)
```

The result will be a new DataFrame where the frequency is hourly, and new rows are created with interpolated values based on the last available daily value.

These downsampling and upsampling techniques allow you to adapt time series data to different time frequencies for various analytical and visualisation purposes, making it easier to work with data collected at different time intervals.

Frequency conversion in the context of time series data involves changing the frequency of the data to a new frequency without aggregation or interpolation. This means you transform the data by specifying the desired new frequency. Pandas automatically handle the conversion by adding or dropping rows in the time series to match the new frequency. This is particularly useful when you want to change the time granularity of your data without performing calculations on the data points themselves.

**Output:**

```

              values
2023-01-01      0.0
2023-01-08      4.0
2023-01-15      8.5

              values
2023-01-01 00:00:00      0
2023-01-01 01:00:00      0
2023-01-01 02:00:00      0
2023-01-01 03:00:00      0
2023-01-01 04:00:00      0
...
2023-01-09 20:00:00      8
2023-01-09 21:00:00      8
2023-01-09 22:00:00      8
2023-01-09 23:00:00      8
2023-01-10 00:00:00      9

```

```
[217 rows x 1 columns]
```

**2. Create the Sample Time Series Data:**

First, create a sample time series DataFrame `df` with a daily frequency:

```

import pandas as pd

date_rng = pd.date_range(start='2023-01-01', periods=10, freq='D')

df = pd.DataFrame({'values': range(10)}, index=date_rng)

```

The sample data has a daily frequency with ten data points.

**Frequency Conversion to Monthly:**

To convert the data to a monthly frequency, you use the `.asfreq()` method and specify the new frequency as 'M' for monthly:

```
monthly_data = df.asfreq('M')
```

Here, you're not aggregating or interpolating the data; you're simply changing the frequency to monthly. Pandas automatically handles the conversion by creating new rows representing monthly data points.



### 3. Result and Output:

When you print the `monthly\_data`, you will see a DataFrame where the frequency is now monthly, and the new rows correspond to the last day of each month:

```
Empty DataFrame
Columns: [values]
Index: []
```

The code above is to resample daily data into monthly frequency using `asfreq`. However, since `asfreq` simply changes the frequency of the data and doesn't perform any aggregation, it's only returning the rows where the date index matches the new frequency. In this case, it will only return the row corresponding to the end of the month within your range, which is likely to be empty as the range starts from the 1st of January 2023 and spans only 10 days. Frequency conversion is useful when you want to examine or present your time series data at a different time granularity, such as daily data converted to monthly or quarterly data. It is especially valuable when dealing with time series data in financial analysis, economic data, or other areas where different data frequencies are relevant for analysis and reporting.

## 4. TREND ANALYSIS

### 4.1. Identifying trends and Patterns

Finding trends and patterns in data visualisation using Python is fundamental to exploratory data analysis. Data visualisation allows you to uncover insights, discover relationships, and identify trends or patterns in your data more effectively than examining raw numbers alone. Here's how you can approach finding trends and patterns in data visualisation using Python:

#### 1. Choose the Right Visualisation Tools:

Select the appropriate visualisation type based on the nature of your data and the specific trends or patterns you want to explore. Common visualisation libraries in Python include Matplotlib, Seaborn, Plotly, and Pandas built-in functions for data visualisation.

#### 2. Explore Data Distribution:

Before diving into trends, it's important to understand the distribution of your data. Create histograms, box plots, or violin plots to visualise the distribution of your variables. This can help you identify skewness, outliers, and the central tendencies of your data.

#### 3. Line Plots for Temporal Trends:

Using line plots to visualise temporal trends when working with time series data. Matplotlib is a versatile library for creating line plots, and Seaborn can make it even more visually appealing.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
# Create a line plot for a time series
plt.plot(data['date'], data['value'])
plt.xlabel('Date')
plt.ylabel('Value')
plt.title('Temporal Trend')
plt.show()
```

#### 4. Scatter Plots for Relationships:

Scatter plots can be quite informative when exploring relationships between two variables. Seaborn, in particular, provides a wide range of scatter plot options, including regression, pair, and joint plots.

```
import seaborn as sns  
  
# Create a scatter plot to explore a relationship  
  
sns.scatterplot(x='variable1', y='variable2', data=data)
```

#### 5. Bar Charts and Pie Charts for Categorical Data:

If you want to visualise categorical data or compare the distribution of categories, bar charts and pie charts are useful. Matplotlib and Seaborn offer straightforward functions for creating these types of plots.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
  
# Create a bar chart to visualize categorical data  
  
plt.bar(data['category'], data['count'])  
plt.xlabel('Category')  
plt.ylabel('Count')  
plt.title('Categorical Data Distribution')  
plt.show()
```

#### 6. Heatmaps for Correlation and Patterns:

Heatmaps are excellent for displaying correlations between variables or identifying patterns in large datasets. Seaborn's `heatmap` function is popular for creating these visualisations.

```
import seaborn as sns  
  
# Create a heatmap to visualise correlations  
  
correlation_matrix = data.corr()  
  
sns.heatmap(correlation_matrix, annot=True)
```

## 7. Box Plots and Violin Plots for Distribution Comparison:

Box plots and violin plots are valuable for comparing the distributions of different groups or categories. They help identify medians, quartiles, and potential outliers.

```
import seaborn as sns  
  
# Create a box plot or violin plot for distribution comparison  
sns.boxplot(x='category', y='value', data=data)  
sns.violinplot(x='category', y='value', data=data)
```

## 8. Interactive Visualisations with Plotly:

Plotly is a powerful library that can help you build interactive dashboards, maps, and other visualisations if you want to create interactive visualisations that allow for exploration and customisation.

## 9. Use Statistical Models and Regressions:

Visualising data trends and patterns may involve fitting statistical models or regression lines to your data. Libraries like Statsmodels can help, and Seaborn provides regression plot functions for quick visualisation.

```
import seaborn as sns  
  
# Create a regression plot to visualise a linear trend  
sns.regplot(x='variable1', y='variable2', data=data)
```

## 10. Iterate and Experiment:

Data visualisation is often an iterative process. Don't hesitate to experiment with various visualisation techniques to uncover trends and patterns that may not be immediately apparent. Adjusting plot parameters, colours, and styles can enhance the interpretability of your visuals.

## 4.2. Moving Averages

### A. Moving Averages (MA)

It is a straightforward and popular method for smoothing time series data. It calculates the average of a specific number of past data points, known as the "window" or "lag," and assigns this average to the present data point. This helps reduce noise and highlight underlying trends. There are different types of moving averages:

#### 1. Simple Moving Average (SMA):

- SMA calculates the mean of a fixed number of past data points within a window.
- It gives equal weight to each data point within the window.
- SMA is suitable for data with a constant level and no seasonality.

#### Python Example:

```
import pandas as pd
# Calculate a 3-period Simple Moving Average
df['SMA_3'] = df['value'].rolling(window=3).mean()
```

#### 2. Weighted Moving Average (WMA):

- WMA assigns different weights to past data points within the window.
- The most recent data points are often assigned higher weights.
- WMA is suitable for data with changing trends.

#### Python Example:

```
weights = [0.2, 0.3, 0.5] # Example weights
df['WMA_3'] = df['value'].rolling(window=3).apply(lambda x: (x * weights).sum())
```

#### 3. Exponential Moving Average (EMA):

- EMA gives more weight to recent data points and less to older ones.
- It is useful for capturing rapid changes in data.
- EMA can be calculated using the pandas `ewm` function.

**Python Example:**

```
df['EMA_3'] = df['value'].ewm(span=3, adjust=False).mean()
```

**B. Exponential Smoothing:**

Exponential Smoothing (ES) is a time series forecasting method that extends EMA to predict future data points. It considers the data's level, trend, and seasonality. There are three main types of exponential smoothing:

**1. Single Exponential Smoothing (SES):**

- SES is suitable for time series data with no apparent trend or seasonality.
- It includes the smoothing parameter, often denoted as alpha, which controls the weight given to the most recent observation.

**Python Example:**

```
from statsmodels.tsa.holtwinters import SimpleExpSmoothing
model = SimpleExpSmoothing(df['value'])
fitted_model = model.fit(smoothing_level=0.2)
forecast = fitted_model.forecast(steps=5)
```

**2. Double Exponential Smoothing (DES or Holt's Method):**

- DES is used when there is a trend in the data but no seasonality.
- It includes two smoothing parameters: alpha for the level and beta for the trend.

**Python Example:**

```
from statsmodels.tsa.holtwinters import ExponentialSmoothing
model = ExponentialSmoothing(df['value'], trend='add')
fitted_model = model.fit(smoothing_level=0.2, smoothing_slope=0.1)
forecast = fitted_model.forecast(steps=5)
```

**3. Triple Exponential Smoothing (TES or Holt-Winters Method):**

- TES is employed when data exhibits both trend and seasonality.



- It includes three smoothing parameters: alpha for the level, beta for the trend, and gamma for seasonality.

**Python Example:**

```
from statsmodels.tsa.holtwinters import ExponentialSmoothing

model = ExponentialSmoothing(df['value'], trend='add', seasonal='add',
seasonal_periods=12)

fitted_model = model.fit(smoothing_level=0.2, smoothing_slope=0.1,
smoothing_seasonal=0.3)

forecast = fitted_model.forecast(steps=5)
```

Moving Averages and Exponential Smoothing are valuable techniques for understanding, smoothing, and forecasting time series data. The choice of method depends on the characteristics of the data, including the presence of trends, seasonality, and the desired level of smoothing. Experimenting with different methods is essential to see which one best captures the underlying patterns in your specific time series data.

## 5. SEASONALITY AND DECOMPOSITION

Seasonality refers to periodic fluctuations in time series data that occur regularly due to seasonal factors. These intervals could be hourly, daily, weekly, monthly, quarterly, annually, or any other regular interval. Seasonality can be caused by various factors such as weather, holidays, and school vacations, and it's crucial to identify and understand these patterns for accurate forecasting.

Seasonal patterns are predictable and repeatable. For example, ice cream sales may increase in summer, while heating fuel sales may increase in winter.

The decomposition of time series data is a statistical method that deconstructs a time series into several components, each representing an underlying pattern category. The primary components include:

- **Trend:** The long-term progression of the series. It represents the increase or decrease in the data over time.
- **Seasonal:** The repeating short-term cycle in the series.
- **Cyclical:** The fluctuations occurring irregularly, typically influenced by economic or business cycles.
- **Irregular (or Random):** The random variation in the series.

Decomposition can be additive or multiplicative. The components are added in an additive time series to make the time series. In a multiplicative time series, the components multiply together.

### Understanding Cyclical Patterns

Cyclical patterns are similar to seasonal patterns, resulting in rises and falls in a time series. However, cyclical patterns occur at less regular intervals and are often influenced by business or economic factors such as the business cycle, which may last several years. Unlike seasonality, which is predictable and fixed, cyclical patterns can vary in duration and intensity.

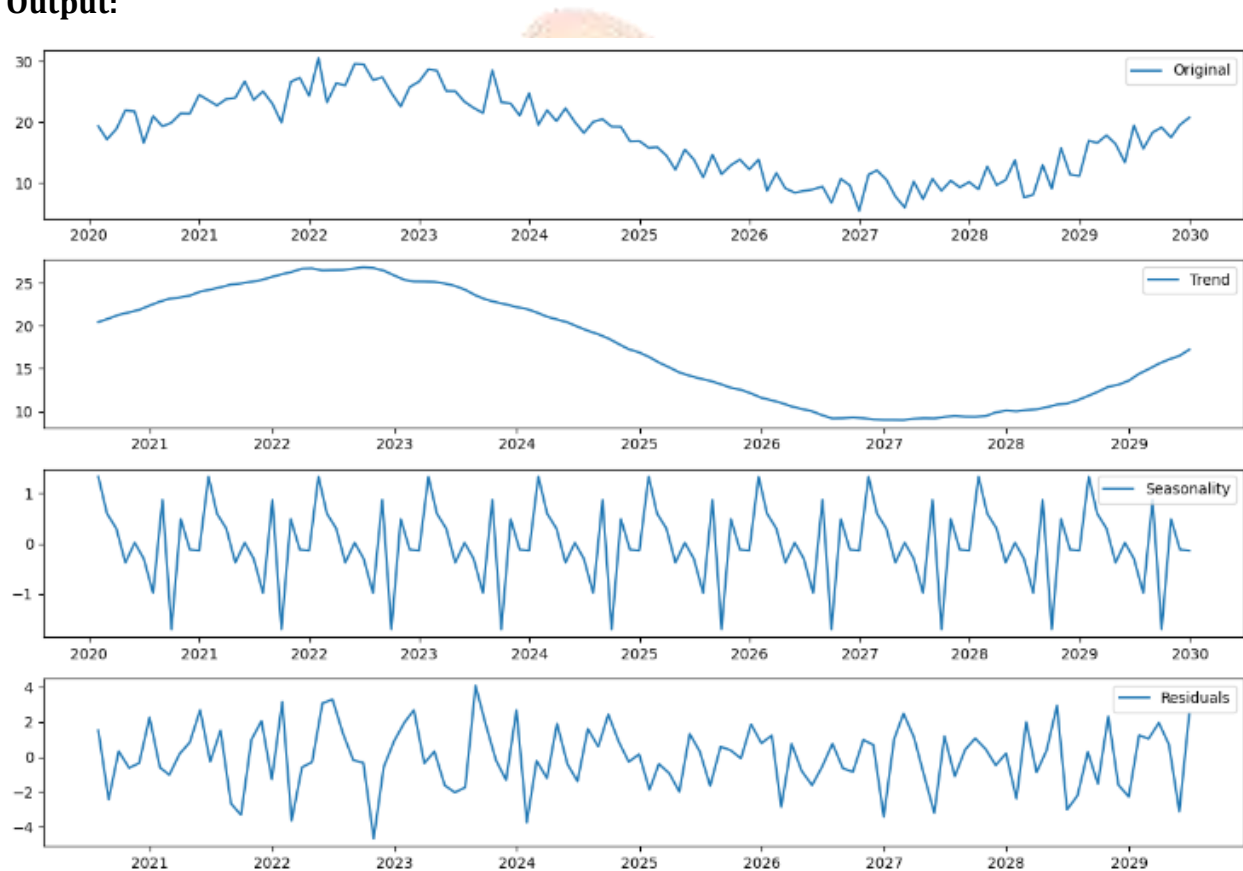
Identifying cyclical patterns is more challenging because they are affected by unpredictable events and may not occur at fixed periods. For instance, an economic recession may affect a

company's sales, leading to a downturn in its time series data. The duration of the recession and the recovery period may not be predictable, thus contributing to a cyclical pattern.

**Example:**

```
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from statsmodels.tsa.seasonal import seasonal_decompose
# Create a synthetic time series data with a trend, seasonality, and noise
np.random.seed(0)
time = pd.date_range('2020-01-01', periods=120, freq='M')
trend = time.astype(int) / 1e+18 * 10 # Linear trend
seasonal = 10 * np.sin(np.linspace(0, 3.14 * 2, 120)) # Yearly seasonality
noise = np.random.normal(loc=0, scale=2, size=120) # Random noise
data = trend + seasonal + noise
ts_data = pd.Series(data, index=time)
# Decompose the time series data
result = seasonal_decompose(ts_data, model='additive')
# Plot the original data and its components
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 8))
plt.subplot(411)
plt.plot(ts_data, label='Original')
plt.legend(loc='best')
plt.subplot(412)
plt.plot(result.trend, label='Trend')
plt.legend(loc='best')
plt.subplot(413)
plt.plot(result.seasonal, label='Seasonality')
plt.legend(loc='best')
plt.subplot(414)
plt.plot(result.resid, label='Residuals')
```

```
plt.legend(loc='best')  
plt.tight_layout()  
plt.show()
```

**Output:**

## 6. FORECASTING WITH PYTHON

Forecasting refers to making predictions based on past and present data. It is widely used in various fields like finance, supply chain, weather prediction, etc. Python, with its rich ecosystem of libraries, provides a powerful suite of tools for time series forecasting.

Introduction to Simple Forecasting Models:

When we talk about simple forecasting models in time series analysis, we usually refer to the following:

**Naïve Forecast:** This method assumes that the most recent observation is the only important one and that all future forecasts will equal the most recent actual observation. This can be suitable for stable time series without trend or seasonality.

**Simple Average:** This model takes the average of all past observations and uses that value as the forecast. It can work as a starting point but doesn't account for trends or seasonality.

**Moving Average:** The forecast is produced by taking the average of a fixed number of the most recent observations. This helps to smooth out short-term fluctuations and highlight longer-term trends or cycles.

**Simple Exponential Smoothing (SES):** This method weights the past observations using exponentially decreasing weights. It is suitable for time series without trends and seasonality.

**Holt's Linear Trend Method:** Extends SES to include the trend in the time series, which is suitable for a time series with a trend but without seasonality.

**Holt-Winters Seasonal Method:** Accounts for both trend and seasonality in the time series data.

These models become more complex and include more parameters as we move from naïve and average methods to Holt-Winters method.

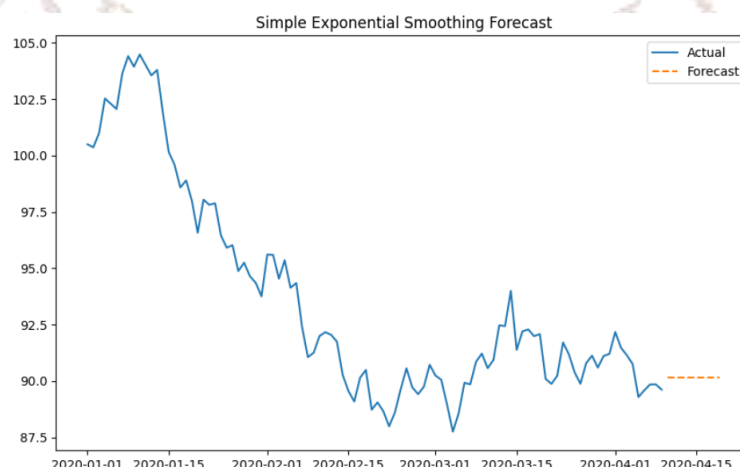
**Example:**

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

```
from statsmodels.tsa.api import SimpleExpSmoothing
# Generate some synthetic time series data
np.random.seed(42)
data = np.random.randn(100).cumsum() + 100 # Random walk series
index = pd.date_range(start='2020-01-01', periods=len(data), freq='D')
series = pd.Series(data, index=index)
# Fit Simple Exponential Smoothing model
model = SimpleExpSmoothing(series)
model_fit = model.fit(smoothing_level=0.2, optimized=False)
# Forecast the next 10 steps ahead
forecast = model_fit.forecast(10)
# Plot the series and the forecast
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 6))
plt.plot(series, label='Actual')
plt.plot(forecast, label='Forecast', linestyle='--')
plt.title('Simple Exponential Smoothing Forecast')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

In this code, we create a synthetic dataset representing a random walk, a common simplistic model for non-stationary time series. We then fit a Simple Exponential Smoothing model to the data and make a short-term forecast.

### Output:





## 7. VISUALISING UNCERTAINTY

Visualising uncertainty in forecasting and data analysis is crucial for understanding the range of possible outcomes and the reliability of predictions. It helps stakeholders make informed decisions by providing a visual context for the uncertainty or confidence in the data presented.

### Confidence Intervals

A confidence interval (CI) provides a range of values likely to contain an unknown parameter's true value. The interval has an associated confidence level that quantifies the level of confidence that the parameter lies within the interval. For instance, a 95% confidence interval suggests that if we were to take 100 different samples and compute a CI for each sample, approximately 95 of the 100 CIs would contain the true population parameter.

CIs are commonly used to indicate an estimate's uncertainty, such as a dataset's mean or median. They are crucial for understanding the precision of sample statistics as estimators of the population parameter.

### Prediction Bands

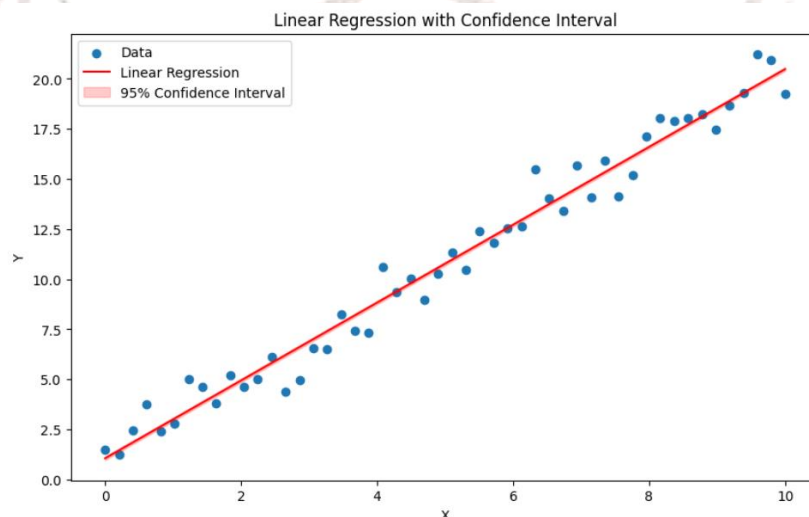
Prediction bands are similar to confidence intervals but are used in regression and time series forecasting. While a confidence interval gives a range for the mean of a response variable at certain values of predictor variables, a prediction band provides a range that is expected to contain the value of the response variable for an individual observation.

Prediction bands are wider than confidence intervals because they account for the error in estimating the true regression line (as confidence intervals do) and the variability (residual error) of individual data points around the regression line.

### Example:

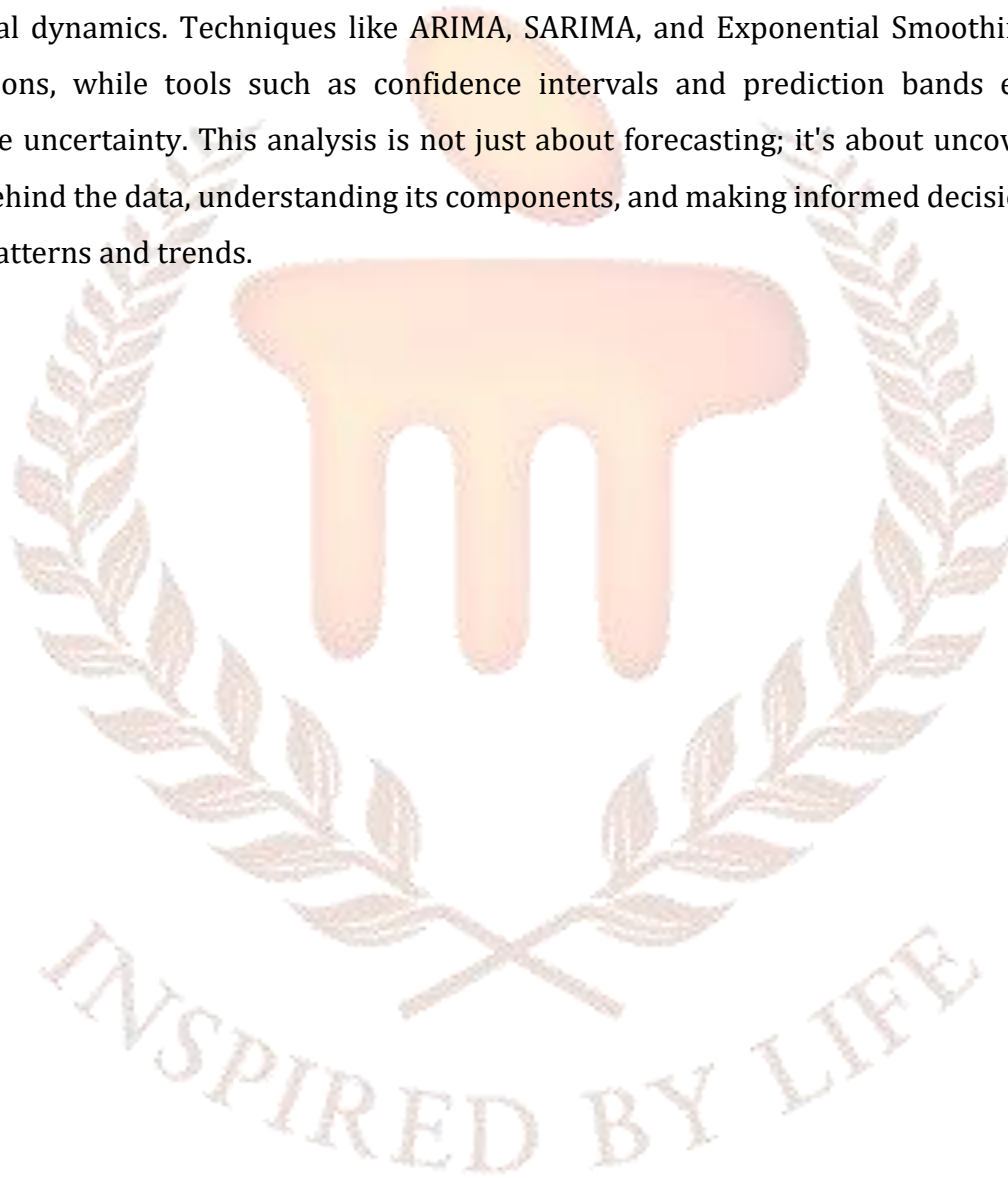
```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from scipy import stats
import seaborn as sns
# Generate synthetic data
np.random.seed(42)
```

```
x = np.linspace(0, 10, 50)
y = 2 * x + 1 + np.random.normal(size=x.size)
# Simple linear regression
slope, intercept, r_value, p_value, std_err = stats.linregress(x, y)
# Prediction and confidence interval
x_pred = np.linspace(0, 10, 100)
y_pred = slope * x_pred + intercept
y_pred_ci_lower, y_pred_ci_upper = stats.t.interval(0.95, len(x)-2, loc=y_pred,
scale=std_err)
# Plot
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 6))
plt.scatter(x, y, label='Data')
plt.plot(x_pred, y_pred, color='r', label='Linear Regression')
plt.fill_between(x_pred, y_pred_ci_lower, y_pred_ci_upper, color='r', alpha=0.2,
label='95% Confidence Interval')
plt.xlabel('X')
plt.ylabel('Y')
plt.title('Linear Regression with Confidence Interval')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

**Output:**

## 8. SUMMARY

The journey through time series analysis with Python offers a comprehensive framework for handling data across time. From the initial steps of gathering and cleaning data to the intricate modelling and forecasting processes, each stage is crucial for understanding temporal dynamics. Techniques like ARIMA, SARIMA, and Exponential Smoothing enable predictions, while tools such as confidence intervals and prediction bands effectively visualise uncertainty. This analysis is not just about forecasting; it's about uncovering the story behind the data, understanding its components, and making informed decisions based on its patterns and trends.



## 9. QUESTIONS

### Self-Assessment Questions

1. What is the significance of time series data in various domains?
2. How can you handle dates and times in Python for time series data analysis?
3. Explain the concept of resampling in time series analysis.
4. What is the difference between downsampling and upsampling in time series data?
5. Name a Python library often used for creating time series visualisations.
6. How do you identify trends and patterns in time series data using line plots?
7. In time series analysis, what does a scatter plot help you explore?
8. What type of time series data is Exponential Moving Average (EMA) most suitable for?
9. Explain the purpose of the Simple Exponential Smoothing (SES) method.
10. How many smoothing parameters are typically used in the Holt-Winters method for time series forecasting?

### Terminal questions

1. Explain the importance of time series data in data analysis. Provide examples of real-world applications where time series data analysis is crucial.
2. Describe the key challenges when working with dates and time series data. How does Python's datetime module help address these challenges? Provide code examples illustrating the manipulation of date and time data.
3. Explain the concept of resampling in time series data analysis.
4. Discuss the scenarios in which you might prefer downsampling over upsampling, and vice versa. Provide Python code examples for both cases.
5. Describe the various visualisation techniques used to identify trends and patterns in time series data. Provide detailed examples using Python, highlighting the types of insights that can be gained from these visualisations.
6. Compare and contrast the different types of moving averages, including Simple Moving Average (SMA), Weighted Moving Average (WMA), and Exponential Moving Average (EMA). When and why would you choose one over the other for smoothing time series data? Provide Python code examples to demonstrate their applications.
7. Explain the three main types of Exponential Smoothing (Single, Double, and Triple).

8. Describe the scenarios in which you would use each type of Exponential Smoothing technique.
9. What is the significance of seasonal decomposition in time series analysis?
10. What differentiates confidence intervals from prediction bands?



## 10. ANSWERS

### Self-Assessment Questions

1. The significance of time series data lies in its applicability to various domains, including finance, economics, climate science, healthcare, and many others. It allows the analysis of data collected over time to understand trends, patterns, and make predictions.
2. To handle dates and times in Python for time series data analysis, you can use the ``datetime`` module. It provides tools to create, manipulate, and format dates and times.
3. Resampling in time series analysis is the process of changing the frequency or time intervals of the data. It can involve downsampling (reducing frequency) or upsampling (increasing frequency), often used for aggregation or interpolation.
4. Downsampling involves reducing the frequency of data, while upsampling increases the frequency. Downsampling often includes aggregating data over larger time intervals, while upsampling may involve interpolation to fill in gaps.
5. Matplotlib, Seaborn, and Plotly are commonly used Python libraries for creating time series visualisations.
6. Line plots help in identifying trends in time series data by visualising the data's behavior over time, showing increases, decreases, or stability.
7. Scatter plots help explore relationships between two variables in time series data. They are useful for understanding how two variables are related or correlated.
8. Exponential Moving Average (EMA) is most suitable for time series data with rapidly changing trends and when you want to give more weight to recent observations.
9. The Simple Exponential Smoothing (SES) method is used for time series data with no apparent trend or seasonality. It applies a smoothing parameter, often denoted as  $\alpha$ , to control the weight given to the most recent observation.
10. The Holt-Winters method for time series forecasting typically uses three smoothing parameters:  $\alpha$  for level,  $\beta$  for trend, and  $\gamma$  for seasonality. These parameters help capture and forecast data with trends and seasonality.`interpolate()`



**Terminal Questions**

1. Refer section 3.1
2. Refer section 3.2
3. Refer section 4.1
4. Refer section 4.1
5. Refer section 4.2
6. Refer section 5.1
7. Refer section 5.2
8. Refer section 5.2
9. Refer section 3.1
10. Refer section 8

