**The Effects of Privacy Protection on Forecast Accuracy**

**Introduction**

1. Relevance of Forecasting Using Protected Data:
   1. Forecasting is popular in a variety of fields, such as consumer analytics, renewable energy and power industries, and census tracking. All of these fields utilize privacy sensitive data.
      1. Examples:
         1. Forecasting consumer behavior can help improve demand forecasts and supply chain efficiency (Boone et al., 2019).
         2. User generated content can be used to forecast individual health outcomes (Reece et al., 2017), and has been shown to help reduce forecast errors when models are supplemented with UGC data (Boone et al., 2019).
         3. Renewable energy forecasting accuracy can improve when data owners collaborate and share their measurement data (Gonçalves et al., 2021).
         4. Smart meter data enables utility companies to bill customers more accurately and gives customers better insight into their energy usage (Véliz & Grunewald, 2018).
         5. Census quarterly workforce indicators data gives aggregate information on important economic indicators such as wages, job creation rates, and hiring levels, and can be used in applications such as forecasting productivity growth in the U.S. economy (Ozimek et al., 2018).
   2. While highly useful for forecasting, researchers have demonstrated many risks associated with privacy sensitive data.
      1. Examples:
         1. Consumer credit card reports can be used to easily identify individuals even after direct identifiers such as names and account numbers have been removed (de Montjoye et al., 2015).
         2. Anonymously posted UGC can still be used to re-identify the original author (Schneider & Mankad, 2021)
         3. Renewable energy companies are reluctant to share their data over concerns over competition (Gonçalves et al., 2021).
         4. Smart meter data can reveal occupancy and activity patterns or enable discriminative business practices (Véliz & Grunewald, 2018).
   3. Increasing awareness of data privacy issues has spurred a wide array of privacy legislation – examples include the GDPR, California Consumer Privacy Act, California Privacy Rights Act, Colorado Privacy Act, Virginia Consumer Data Protection Act, and the Utah Consumer Privacy Act (IAPP, 2020).
2. A popular approach to protecting privacy sensitive data is throughdata transformation methods such as differential privacy, which have an inherent trade-off between privacy and utility.
3. (GAP) However, few studies apply these methods to time series that are useful for forecasting, and the ones that do lack a thorough comparison of forecasting models applied to protected data (Abowd et al., 2012; Gonçalves et al., 2021; Nin & Torra, 2009). Therefore, it is unknown how forecasts for many popular and cutting-edge forecasting models change when applied to protected data.
4. We address this gap by analyzing the forecast accuracies of both popular and cutting-edge forecasting models under various transformation methods applied to a well-known dataset: the M3 monthly micro data. In addition, we use time series characteristics, such as spectral entropy, to explain the changes in model performance post-data protection.
5. Our contributions:
   1. An extensive comparison of forecasting models’ accuracies on protected data.
   2. Explanation of how data protection alters time series characteristics *and* forecasts, and how these changes translate into changes in forecast accuracy.
   3. Discussion of how our results inform managerial decisions for forecasting using protected data.
6. Because of what we do in this paper:
   1. Researchers and practitioners will be able to properly choose a forecasting model for protected time series data.

**Literature Review**

1. Existing studies on data privacy and forecasting.
   1. (Goncalves, Pinson, et al., 2021) explore a data market where data owners are compensated for sharing their data, and purchase forecasts based on the data from other parties. Data owners have a monetary incentive to share their data, but may be discouraged from doing so due to privacy concerns over sharing data with a central party. Our work would help answer how forecast accuracy would be affected if the data owners applied data protection methods prior to sharing their data.
   2. Transfer learning (Wellens et al., 2021) is designed to reduce the computational burden of training complicated machine learning models from scratch. These models can be trained on sensitive data and transferred themselves, which can overcome privacy barriers or regulations. Forecasting using a single protected dataset, not shared models, is the focus of our paper. We care about how multiple forecasting models, from simple to complex, perform when trained on protected data.
   3. (Gonçalves et al., 2021) explore methods for preserving data privacy in the context of collaborative forecasting. The methods they explore are broken into three categories: data transformation, secure multi-party computation, and decomposition-based methods.
   4. Secure multi-party computation was found to be computationally expensive without fully preserving privacy when forecasting using a VAR model. Our goal is to understand forecasting under less computationally demanding protection methods which are more common. Moreover, we consider a single protected dataset, rather than a collection of smaller datasets across multiple parties.
   5. Decomposition based methods are based on an iterative process that can reveal sensitive data to the participating parties and the central processing node after multiple iterations. (Sommer et al., 2021) added an encryption matrix to their protocol which would prevent the competing parties, but not the central node, from recovering sensitive data. A remedy to this was proposed by (Goncalves, Bessa, et al., 2021), who added a data transformation step to their distributed learning algorithm, enabling privacy-preserving collaborative forecasting without reductions in forecast accuracy. Our interest is in forecasting using a single protected dataset, and the proposed decomposition methods are not easily extendable to complicated non-linear models, such as recurrent neural networks.
   6. The final area explored by (Gonçalves et al., 2021) is data transformation techniques, where they implement differential privacy. Even very high values of the privacy parameter (low privacy) result in reductions in forecast accuracy for VAR models. In the literature, differential privacy is the most popular data protection method applied to time series, see (Imtiaz et al., 2020; Liyue Fan & Li Xiong, 2014) for examples. An interesting result from (Imtiaz et al., 2020) is that differentially privacy data did not always produce worse forecast accuracy when forecasting individuals’ health data using a recurrent neural network. Since adding random Gaussian noise to time series is a technique to prevent overfitting when forecasting with neural networks (Hewamalage et al., 2021), we will explore whether data protection can achieve this same effect and improve forecast accuracy for neural networks.
   7. Other data transformation methods:
      1. Additive/Multiplicative noise is similar to differential privacy in that random noise is infused into the data, but there are no theoretical privacy guarantees. Examples include (Abowd et al., 2012), who discuss the Census’ use of multiplicative random noise to perturb the individual or business level data that goes into calculating Quarterly Workforce Indicator data – but they do not assess the accuracy of forecasting with the perturbed data. More recently, (Luo et al., 2018) use multiplicative random noise to simulate a data integrity attack in the context of load forecasting. They measure the accuracies of multiple linear regression, artificial neural network, support vector regression, and fuzzy interaction regression models on the original and attacked data. The authors found the while multiple linear regression performed the best on the original data, the support vector regression was most robust and performed the best under the data integrity attacks – we expect similar findings in our work, where the best models on the original data will not necessarily be those that perform the best on protected data. An important note is that the integrity attacks did not affect every data point in the series – significant reductions in accuracy occurred when just 40% of the points in a series were altered by a large magnitude. If differential privacy or additive/multiplicative random noise are used to add significant amounts of random noise, we expect massive reductions in accuracy since every point in the time series will be altered.
      2. *K*-anonymity is a principle describing when every record (or time series) in a dataset is identical to at least *k*-1 other records. It was originally proposed by (Sweeney, 2002). Similar to our work, (Nin & Torra, 2009) evaluate the change in forecast accuracies of simple exponential smoothing, double exponential smoothing, linear regression, multiple linear regression, and polynomial regression applied to *k*-anonymized data. While they find significant reductions in forecast accuracy across all five models even for *k*=2, they do not provide a comparison between models or additional data protection methods.
      3. The final protection method we review is top and bottom coding. An example use case for bottom coding would be to prevent inferring when homes are empty from smart meter data by setting all measurements below the th quantile equal to the th quantile. (Crimi & Eddy, 2014) study the effect of top coding the Census’ Public Use Microdata Samples on analyses of interest. They find that the sample correlation between two variables is shrunk towards zero when one or both of the variables are top coded. This finding may be relevant to multivariate forecasting model performance, which relies heavily on the correlations between time series, and may be negatively affected when all series are top or bottom coded.
   8. Gaps in Existing Work on Data Privacy and Forecasting
      1. While recent attention has been paid to privacy-preserving collaborative forecasting, there has been no work which directly compares multiple forecasting models’ accuracies when forecasting for a single protected dataset, or a comparison of models’ accuracies under different forms of data protection. There are unanswered questions that result, such as, does every combination of data protection method and forecasting model result in a reduction in forecast accuracy? Given that my data has been protected, which forecasting model should I choose?
      2. Moreover, the works which show reductions in forecast accuracy using differentially private data (Gonçalves et al., 2021) or data integrity attacks (Luo et al., 2018) offer no exploration of the underlying reasons *why* the forecast accuracy changed – this leaves open questions such as, how are time series characteristics like seasonality or trend affected by data protection? How do these effects translate into variation in the performance of forecasting models meant to model these characteristics?
2. The judgmental forecasting literature examines how model based forecasts are adjusted by practitioners to increase (or sometimes damage) forecast accuracy – see (Petropoulos et al., 2022) for a summary. The adjustments to forecasts that result from data protection are similar in concept to judgmental adjustments. We highlight the findings from the judgmental forecasting literature which motivate our own exploration of how data protection affects forecasting accuracy through two lenses: (1) how changes to time series characteristics translate to changes in forecast accuracy; and (2) how changes to the forecasts themselves are related to forecast accuracy.
   1. How changes to time series translate to changes in forecast accuracy.
      * 1. Judgmental adjustments can increase accuracy when based on reliable information, but information with low diagnosticity can damage forecast accuracy (Fildes et al., 2009, 2019). When accuracy did improve, increases in accuracy from adjustments to forecasts were greater for low volatility series which are easier to forecast (Fildes et al., 2009). It was also discovered that forecasters tended to make unnecessary adjustments to model-based forecasts which damaged accuracy.
        2. We will examine the changes in forecastability and volatility that occur when “information” with low diagnosticity (random noise) is added to the data.
        3. Adjusting for outliers, mainly those close to the forecast origin, can increase forecast accuracy (Chen & Liu, 1993). Since top and bottom coding will reduce the effect of outliers on forecasts, we will examine how forecast accuracy changes for series with outliers.
      1. How changes to forecasts are related to changes in forecast accuracy.
         1. Direction of adjustment.
            1. Both negative and positive adjustments increase accuracy (positive gives only marginal increase), overall accuracy increased by 10% (Davydenko & Fildes, 2013). Negative adjustments tended to reduce bias, while positive adjustments maintained bias magnitude or exacerbated it (Fildes et al., 2009).
            2. For judgmental forecasts, the direction of adjustment is chosen with the intent of improving the forecast – under data protection, direction is a result of the protection method, without regard to the effect on forecasts. We will measure the proportions of forecasts that are adjusted positively and negatively, the accuracy of the forecasts for each adjustment direction, and the resulting changes in forecast bias.
         2. Size of adjustment.
            1. (Fildes et al., 2009) found that the size of adjustments was positively associated with the size of accuracy improvements. One explanation given is that an adjuster who is more confident will make a larger adjustment, which improves accuracy when based on reliable information.
            2. Under data protection, the adjustment size will be determined by the forecasting models’ responses to changes in the data, which are likely related to the strength of protection. We will measure the strength of protection by the magnitude of noise (random noise protection) or the percentage of top/bottom coded observations, how this relates to the size of adjustments in the forecasts based on protected data, and whether adjustment size is related to the change in forecast accuracy from data protection.

**Experimental Design**

1. Overall Forecasting Framework.
   1. Obtain original series
   2. Create protected series
   3. Extract time series characteristics from and
   4. Train each forecasting model on and
   5. Generate forecasts for and
   6. Compare forecasts and time series characteristics from and
      1. Accuracy measures.
      2. Examine changes in time series characteristics and adjustments to forecasts to explain model performance.
2. Data – M3 monthly Micro
   1. Machine learning models perform well.
   2. Models that explicitly model trend and seasonality performed the best (Kang et al., 2017), so we examine how changes in these features affect the accuracy of these models.
   3. Provides a reasonably high number of series (474).
   4. Relates to business (commercially sensitive?) data which may require protection.
3. Treatments
   1. Methods
      1. Differential privacy, top/bottom coding, additive/multiplicative noise
   2. Parameters to vary
      1. Level of protection (, % top/bottom coded, etc.)
4. Explaining forecasting model performance.
   1. Extract time series features and visualize using instance space (PCA applied to extracted features) (Hewamalage et al., 2022; Kang et al., 2017).
      1. Spectral entropy (forecastability/diagnosticity).
      2. Coefficient of variation (directly measure volatility) (Fildes et al., 2009).
      3. Strength of trend and seasonality.
      4. First order autocorrelation.
      5. Optimal box-cox transformation parameter.
5. Selection of Forecasting Models
   1. Popular models found in R, Python and/or serving as benchmarks in forecasting competitions. These models show how forecast accuracy would change for ‘non-expert’ users.
      1. SES, DES, TES, ARIMA, Prophet (Facebook), Greykite (LinkedIn), LGBM (univariate), VAR.
      2. Perform minimal data pre-processing
         1. Log transform – removes multiplicative effects and stabilizes variance – improves model convergence.
         2. Convert to stationary series (ARIMA)
         3. Allow the models to capture the important aspects of the time series.
   2. Cutting-edge multivariate models.
      1. LGBM (multivariate) (Hewamalage et al., 2022)
         1. Direct modeling (train one model for every horizon step).
         2. MAE as loss function.
         3. To avoid overfitting: early stopping mechanism when validation error does not improve over 5 consecutive epochs.
         4. Max epochs and learning rate set to 1200 and 0.075.
         5. Range blending (Lainder & Wolfinger, 2022).
         6. Clustering (Hewamalage et al., 2022).
      2. NeuralProphet
      3. RNN (LSTM cells)
      4. Perform pre-processing that is consistent with best practice – what “should” be done - (outline exact steps in appendix).
   3. Hyper-parameter tuning
      1. For ‘non-expert’ models
         1. Expanding window cross-validation – easily performed in Python library sktime, described in (Lainder & Wolfinger, 2022)
            1. Split data into train, test (where test is the length of the forecast horizon)
            2. Set initial window length to 70% of available training data.
            3. For each hyperparameter combination in grid:

While horizon does not equal last available training data:

Train model on current window of training data

Evaluate forecast accuracy (MAE) on the horizon following the current training data window.

Expand window forward one step and repeat.

* + - 1. Train model on the full training data using the optimal hyper-parameters (determined by mean MAE across folds)
      2. Evaluate model on the test data (MAE).
    1. For cutting edge models
       1. LGBM
          1. While valid to use standard *k*-folds CV (Bergmeir et al., 2015; Hewamalage et al., 2022) LGBM benefits from using purged *k*-folds with nested cross-validation (Lainder & Wolfinger, 2022).
       2. Neural Prophet
       3. Recurrent Neural Network (LSTM cells)
  1. Forecast horizon
     1. Compare 1-step and 18-step horizons (18 step was used for monthly data in M3 (Makridakis & Hibon, 2000))

1. Accuracy Measures
   1. MAE for directly comparing model accuracy.
   2. AvgRelMAE (scale independent, robust to outliers, easily interpretable) for comparing accuracy change after data protection: , where , and where denotes protected, denotes original, is the number of adjusted forecasts for series and is the number of series. AvgRelMAE < 1 (> 1) indicates increased (damaged) accuracy on average. Average percentage improvement in MAE of forecasts is (1 – AvgRelMAE) 100. 5% trim on AvgRelMAE is recommended (Davydenko & Fildes, 2013).

**Results and Analysis**

1. Results based on changes to the data.
   1. Accuracy (MAE) for all models broken out by methods/horizons.
      1. Table for each protection method (example for differential privacy)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Model | Original | |  | |  | |  | |  | |  | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| SES |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| DES |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| TES |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ARIMA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Prophet |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Greykite |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LGBM (univariate) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| VAR |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LGBM (multivariate) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NeuralProphet |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| RNN (LSTM cells) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

* 1. Examine distributions of spectral entropy (forecastability) and coefficient of variation (variability) in instance space before and after each method of data protection.
  2. Calculate change in accuracy for all models/methods/horizons relative to the original data (AvgRelMAE).
  3. Discuss which models had the largest/smallest increases/damages in accuracy.
  4. Examine distributions of time series characteristics (e.g., seasonality, trend) before and after data protection to explain *why* models had increases/damages in accuracy.

1. Results based on adjustment direction.
   1. For each method/model/horizon combination calculate:
      1. Proportion of positive/negative adjusted forecasts.
      2. Change in accuracy (AvgRelMAE) for positive and negative adjusted forecasts.
      3. Bias (mean of forecast errors) for positive and negative adjusted forecasts.
   2. Adapt the following table for our purposes (Fildes et al., 2009).

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

* 1. Two-sided binomial test for the probability of an adjustment that increases accuracy – use similar table as below (Davydenko & Fildes, 2013).

A picture containing Word

Description automatically generated

1. Results based on size of adjustment.
   1. Compute size of adjustment: (Fildes et al., 2009).
   2. Regressions/ANOVAs
      1. For random noise protection.
         1. Accuracy ~ Size + Noise magnitude + Size Noise magnitude
      2. For top/bottom coding.
         1. Accuracy ~ Size + Degree + Size Degree
2. Model Complexity vs. Accuracy.
   1. Measure complexity using Kolmogorov complexity as described by (Hewamalage et al., 2022)
      1. Train Model 🡪 Save Model (coefficients, objective functions, etc.) 🡪 Gzip Compressed Model 🡪 Approximate Kolmogorov Complexity using size of the compressed model on disk.
   2. Regress Accuracy ~ Complexity.

**Conclusions**

1. General Discussion
   1. Which models performed best on original data.
      1. Why.
   2. Which models performed best on protected data.
      1. Why.
2. Managerial Implications
   1. Limit analysts to simple models when forecasting using protected data.
3. Future Work
   1. Ways to improve forecast accuracy under data protection.
      1. Make adjustments based on methods from judgmental forecasting literature (Fildes et al., 2009)

Like forecasting support systems that actively evaluate and filter information before presenting it (Fildes et al., 2019), design (or implement) methods to filter random noise from the series prior to forecasting.

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