"Forecasting: Principles and Practice" Notes

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Chapter 1: Getting Started

Types of Quantitative Forecasts

- Cross-sectional Data
 - Given a set of parameters, try to *predict* an outcome based on data. For example, predict the house price based on number of bedrooms, bathrooms, etc.
- Time series Data
 - Forecast future outcome based on historical data

Basic Steps of Forecasting

- 1. Problem Definition
- 2. Gathering Information
- 3. Exploratory Analysis
- 4. Choosing and Fitting Models
- 5. Using and Evaluating Model

Chapter 2: Forecaster's Toolbox

Graphs

First thing to do for any forecasting exercise is to plot the data to look for patterns or any abnormalities.

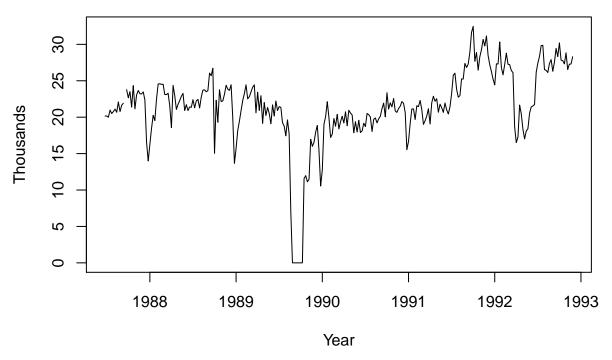
Time Plots

aka Line graphs.

Example 1

```
data(melsyd)
plot(melsyd[,"Economy.Class"],
   main="Economy class passengers: Melbourne-Sydney",
   xlab="Year",ylab="Thousands")
```

Economy class passengers: Melbourne-Sydney



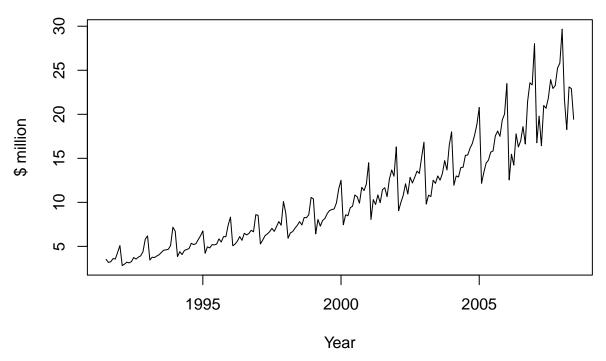
Notes:

- Missing data in 1989 industrial dispute
- Dip in 1992 trial which replaced some economy class seats with business class
- Large increase in 1991
- etc

Example 2

```
data(a10)
plot(a10, ylab="$ million", xlab="Year", main="Antidiabetic drug sales")
```

Antidiabetic drug sales



Notes:

- Seasonality
- Upward trend

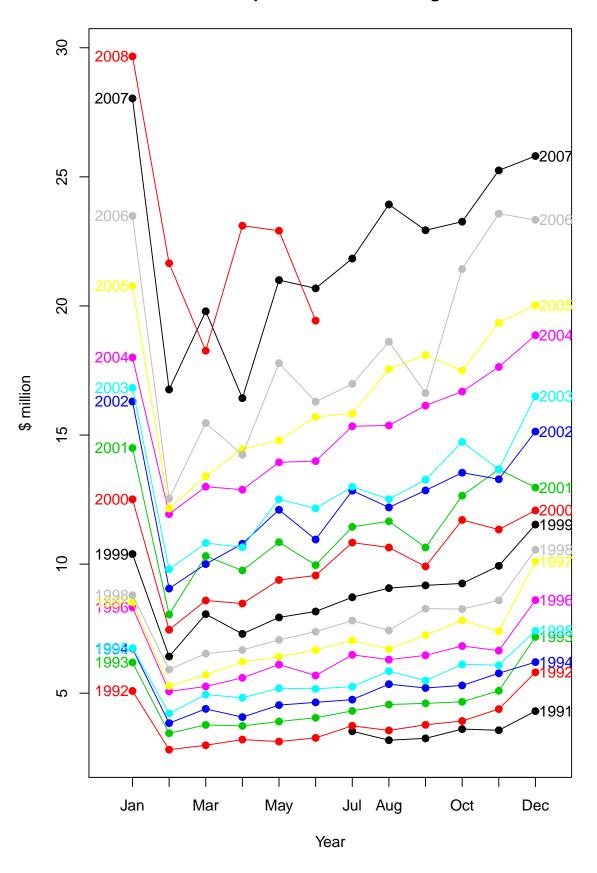
Common Time Series Patterns

- Trend
- Seasonality
- \bullet $\,$ Cycles rises and falls that are not of a fixed period

Seasonal Plots

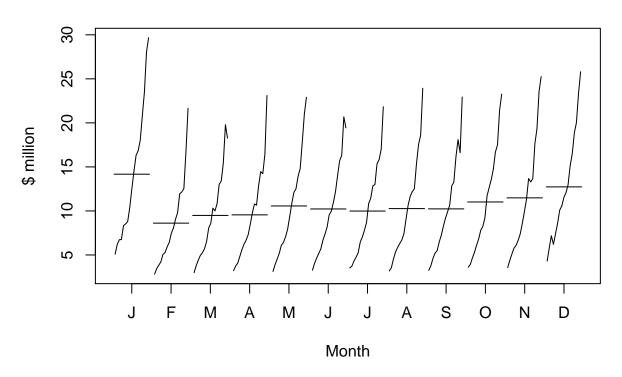
Line plots comparing each season.

Seasonal plot: antidiabetic drug sales



```
monthplot(a10,
   ylab='$ million',
   xlab='Month',
   main='Seasonal deviation plot: antidiabetic drug sales')
```

Seasonal deviation plot: antidiabetic drug sales



Scatterplots

Useful for analyzing cross-sectional data

Summary Statistics

Univariate statistics

Can simply use *summary* function on the data.

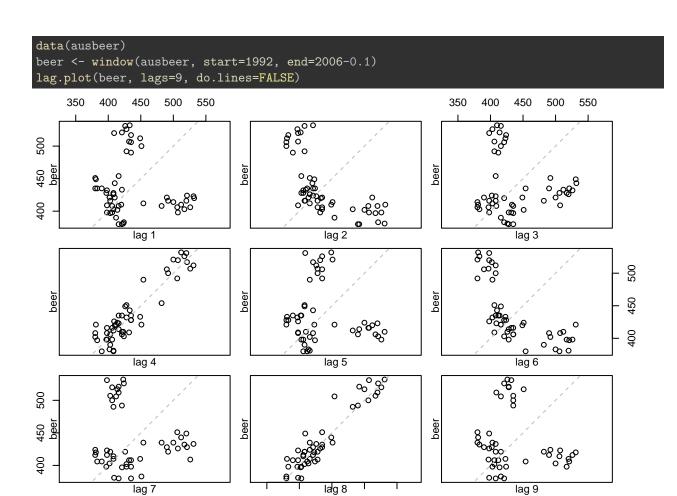
Bivariate statistics

Correlation coefficient: r

$$r = \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum (y_i - \overline{y})^2}}$$

Autocorrelation

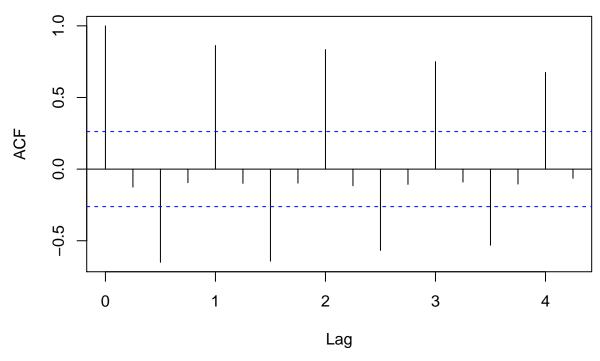
Used to test correlation on lag r_1 tests correlation on lag r_2 tests correlation on lag r_2 , etc.



Each lag has a corresponding correlation value r. These correlation values are plotted to form an *autocorrelation* function or ACF. The plot is known as a correlogram.

acf(beer)

Series beer



Notes:

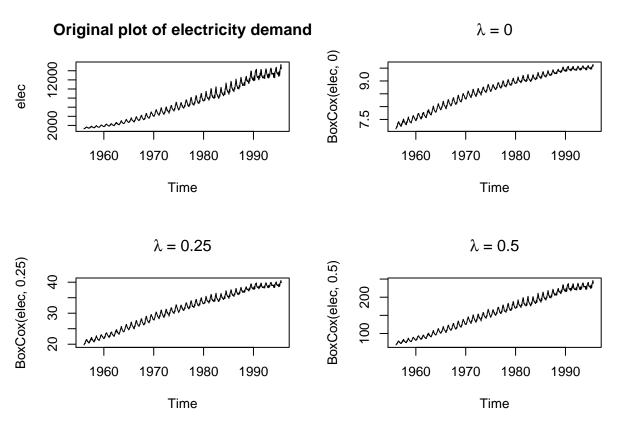
- r_4 at lag 4 has the highest correlation because seasonal patterns happen every four quarters
- Negative correlations happen two quarters after peaks

Time series that show no autocorrelation are called *white noise*. Acf plot will show no significant correlations for any lag periods.

Transformations

Log and power transformations are common. Box-Cox Transformations is a useful family of log and power transformations. If the coefficient λ is 0, it does a natural log, otherwise it does a power transformation. λ can be between 0 and 1. A good lambda will transform the data such that each seasonal swing is roughly equal. Running the function BoxCox.lambda(data) will choose a λ for you. In this case, it will choose 0.27.

```
data(elec)
par(mfrow=c(2, 2))
plot(elec, main='Original plot of electricity demand')
plot(BoxCox(elec, 0), main=expression(paste(lambda, ' = 0')))
plot(BoxCox(elec, 0.25), main=expression(paste(lambda, ' = 0.25')))
plot(BoxCox(elec, 0.5), main=expression(paste(lambda, ' = 0.5')))
```



After transforming, we need to make a forecast on the transformed data. Then we need to *back transform* to obtain the forecast in the original scale.

Evaluating forecast accuracy

Scale-dependent errors

Forecast error is simply $e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$ where y_i is actual and \hat{y}_i is forecast. Two common measures are:

Mean absolute error: MAE =
$$mean(|e_i|)$$

Root mean squared error: RMSE = $\sqrt{mean(e_i^2)}$

MAE is most common, however can only be compared to values on the same scale, or on the same data set.

Percentage errors

Scale independent so can compare errors from different data sets. This can be calculated as $p_i = 100e_i/y_i$. The most commonly used measure is:

Mean absolute percentage error: MAPE = $mean(|p_i|)$

This can present the problem is any value y_i is 0 or close to 0.

Scaled errors

Scaled errors are used as an alternative to percentage errors. The mean absolute scaled error or MASE is a commonly used one (alternatively mean squared scaled error or MSSE is used).

Example

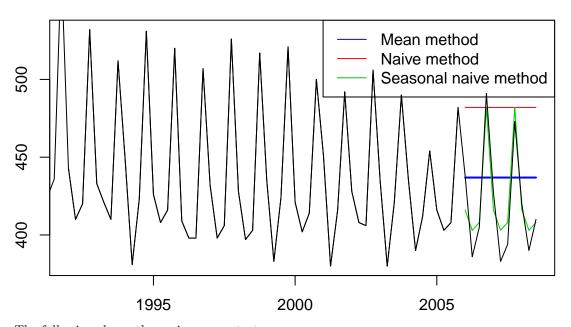
```
beer2 <- window(ausbeer,start=1992,end=2006-.1)

beerfit1 <- meanf(beer2,h=11)
beerfit2 <- rwf(beer2,h=11)

plot(beerfit3 <- snaive(beer2,h=11)

plot(beerfit1, plot.conf=FALSE,
    main="Forecasts for quarterly beer production")
lines(beerfit2$mean,col=2)
lines(beerfit3$mean,col=3)
lines(ausbeer)
legend("topright", lty=1, col=c(4,2,3),
    legend=c("Mean method","Naive method","Seasonal naive method"))</pre>
```

Forecasts for quarterly beer production



The following shows the various error tests:

```
beer3 <- window(ausbeer, start=2006)</pre>
accuracy(beerfit1, beer3)
                                                                 MAPE
                            ME
                                   RMSE
                                              MAE
                                                         MPE
                                                                           MASE
## Training set 8.121418e-15 44.17630 35.91135 -0.9510944 7.995509 2.444228
                 -1.718344e+01 38.01454 33.77760 -4.7345524 8.169955 2.298999
## Test set
##
                        ACF1 Theil's U
## Training set -0.12566970
                                    NA
## Test set
                -0.08286364 0.7901651
```

accuracy(beerfit2, beer3)

```
## Training set 0.7090909 66.60207 55.43636 -0.8987351 12.26632 3.773156
## Test set -62.2727273 70.90647 63.90909 -15.5431822 15.87645 4.349833
## Training set -0.25475212 NA
## Test set -0.08286364 1.428524
```

accuracy(beerfit3, beer3)