

Machine Learning 520

Advanced Machine Learning

Lesson 9: Forecasting



Today's Agenda

- What is forecasting?
- Autocorrelation, seasonality and noise
- Auto regression
- Moving average
- Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average



Learning Objectives

- Decompose time series into autocorrelation, seasonality, trend, and noise.
- Explain the effects of exponential smoothing models and differentiate them from other models.
- Apply and evaluate the results of an autoregressive model.
- Apply and evaluate the results of a moving average model.
- Apply and evaluate the results of an autoregressive integrated moving average model.
- Apply and evaluate the results of ARIMA model for forecasting (time series prediction).



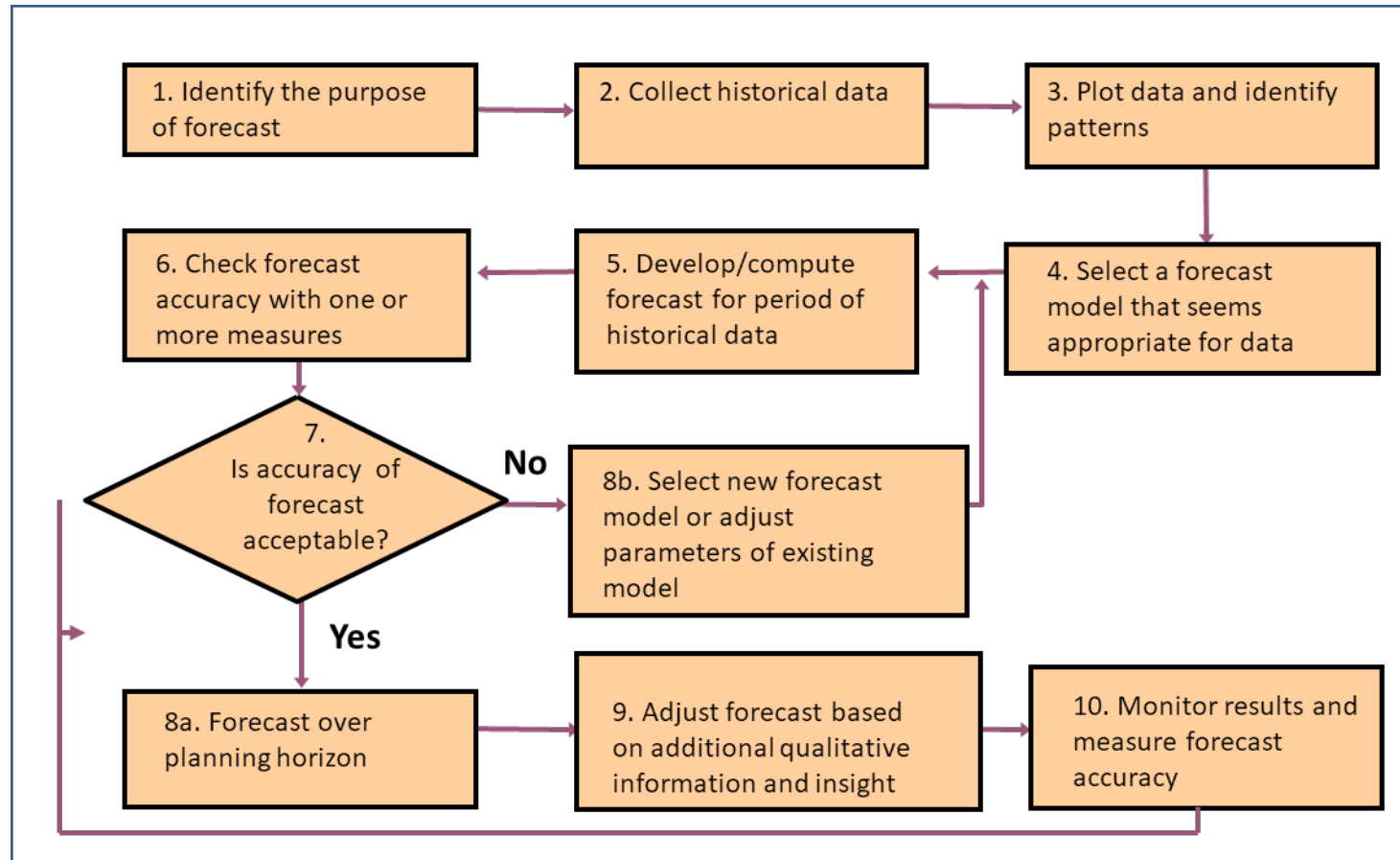
Prediction is very difficult, especially about the future.
- Niels Bohr

Types of Forecasting Methods

- Decide what needs to be forecast
 - Level of detail, units of analysis & time horizon required
- Evaluate and analyze appropriate data
 - Identify needed data & whether it's available
- Select and test the forecasting model
 - Cost, ease of use & accuracy
- Generate the forecast
- Monitor forecast accuracy over time

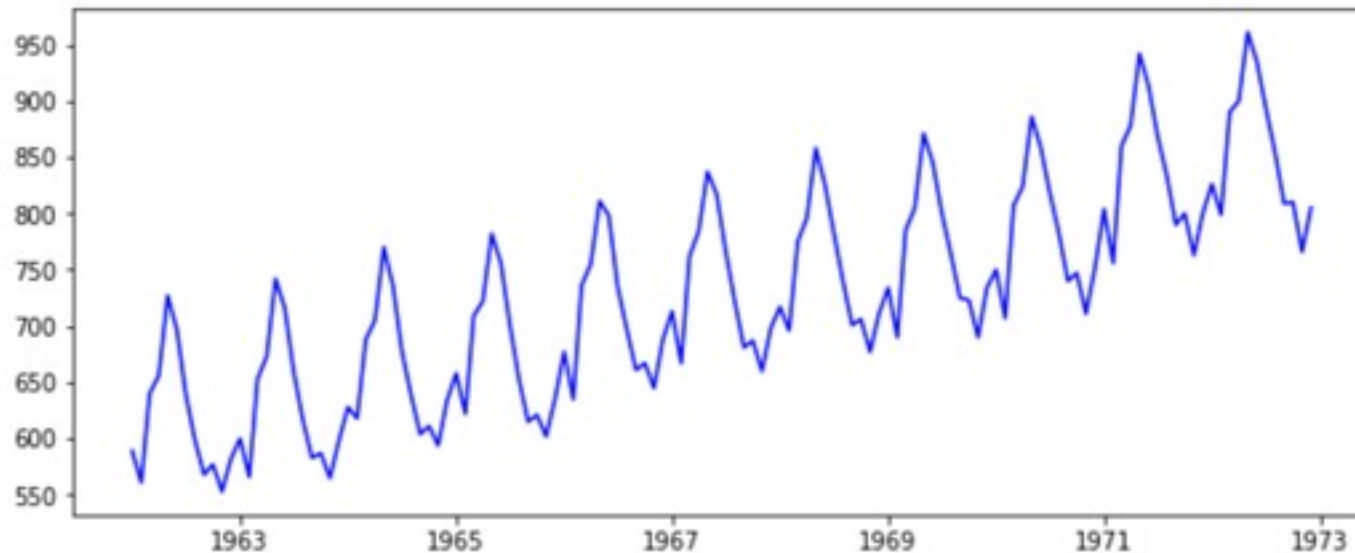


Forecasting In Practice



Time Series Data

- > Series of data observed over time
- > E.g.: Daily Amazon stock prices, Annual population data, Quarterly sales figures, ...



- > Forecasting is estimating how the sequence of observations will continue into the future.

Time Series Data



> **Order matters**

There is a dependency on time and changing the order could change the meaning of the data.

Quiz

- > A time series is a sequence of data points with the following characteristics (choose all that apply):
- 1- Random intervals of time between each data point
 - 2- Covers a continuous time interval
 - 3- Equal spacing between every two consecutive measurements
 - 4- Each time unit within the time interval has at most one data point.

Quiz

> We would use time series forecasting to predict values for which following business situations (select all that apply):

- 1- Monthly Seattle bike rentals
- 2- A stock's daily closing value
- 3- Amount of time to close a sales cycle
- 4- Retail trade area analysis and demographic profiling
- 5- Annual Orca population

Time Series Pattern

> Trend:

- Long-term movement in data

> Seasonality:

- Short-term regular variations in data

> Cycles:

- Wavelike variations of long-term

> Irregular variations:

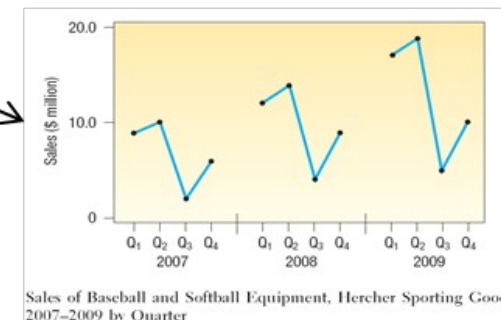
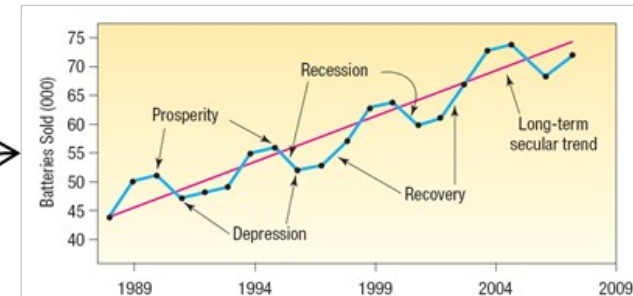
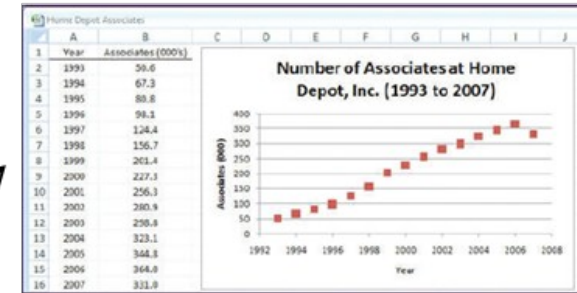
- Caused by unusual circumstances

> Random variations

- Caused by chance

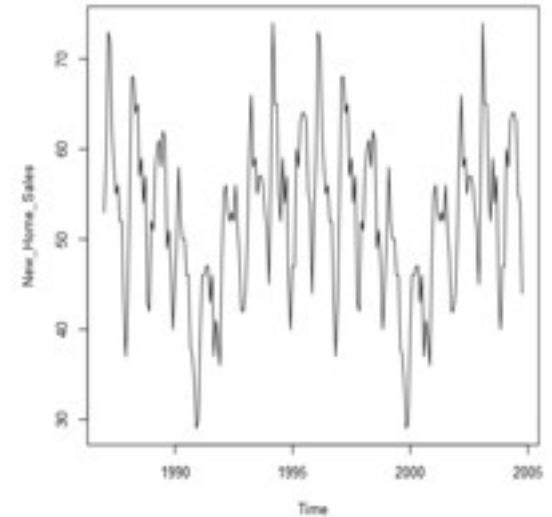
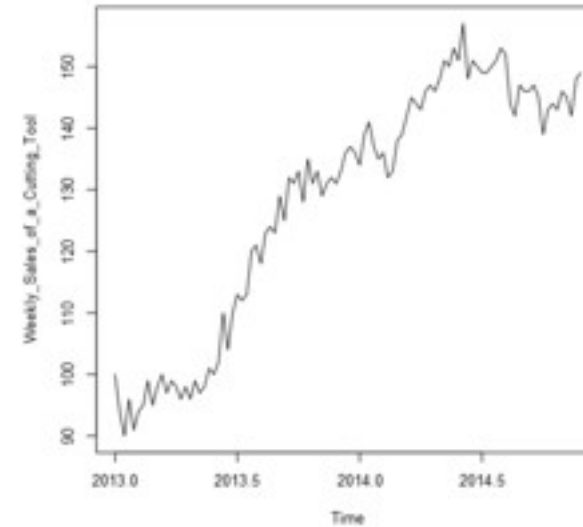
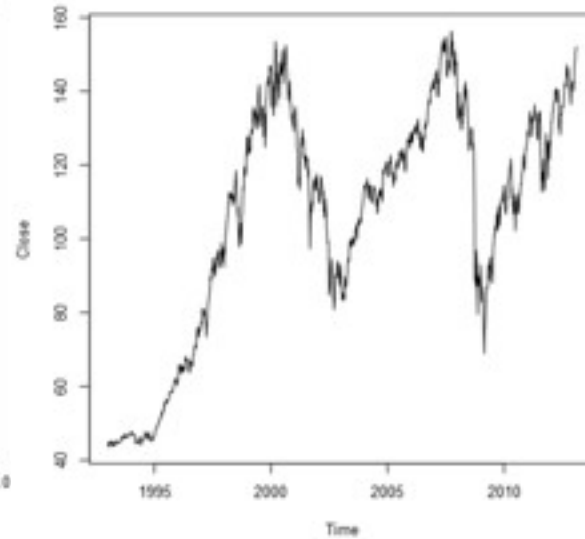
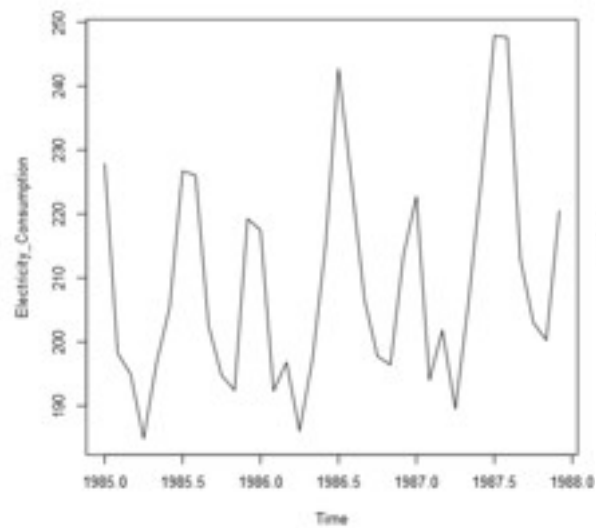
Time Series Components

1. Secular Trend – the smooth long term direction of a time series
2. Cyclical Variation – the rise and fall of a time series over periods longer than one year
3. Seasonal Variation – Patterns of change in a time series within a year which tends to repeat each year
4. Irregular Variation – classified into:
 - Episodic – unpredictable but identifiable
 - Residual – also called chance fluctuation and unidentifiable

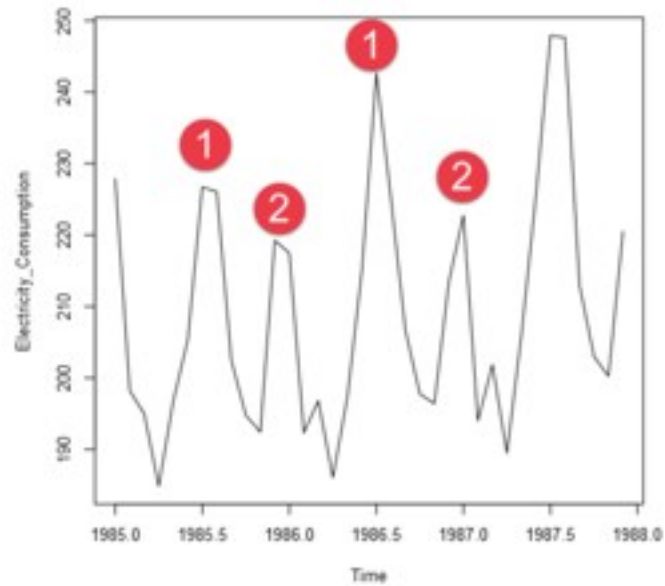


Quiz

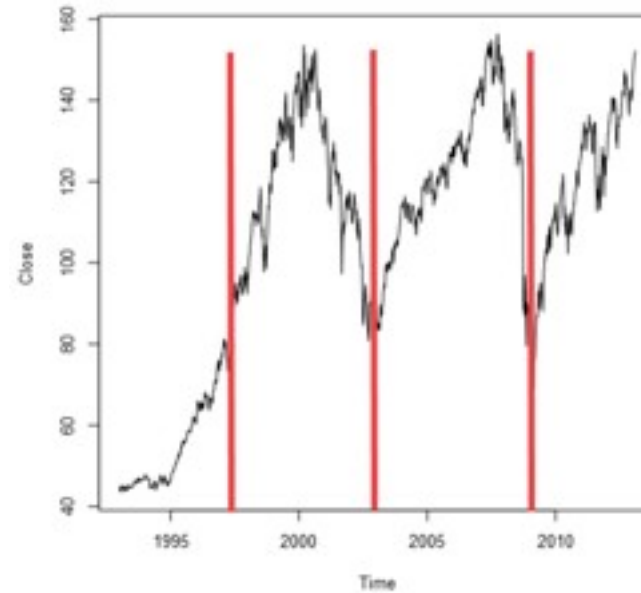
➤ Mark each time series plots as seasonal, cyclical, both or neither.



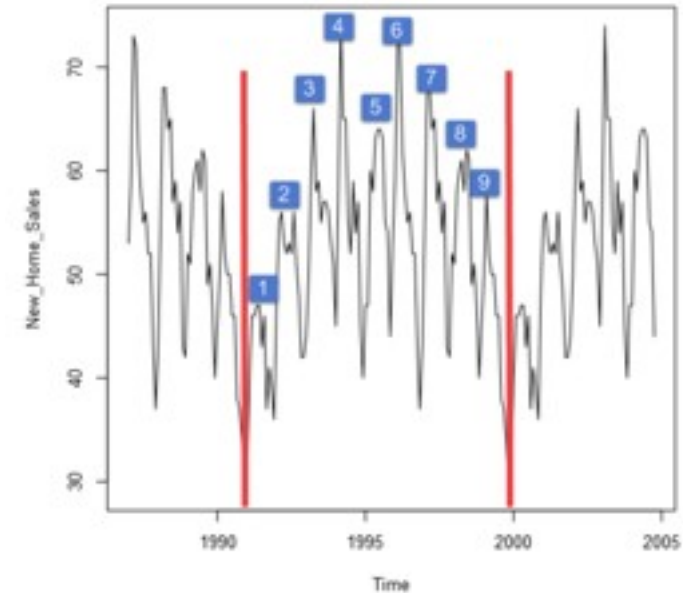
Quiz



Seasonal - Peak electricity in summer and winter months repeats every year

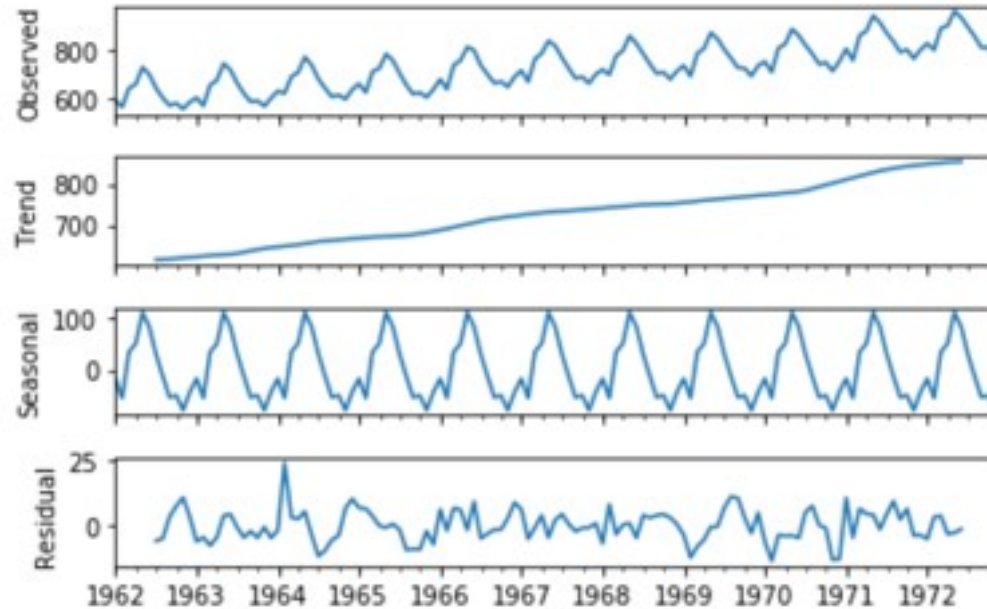


Cyclical - shows pattern of downtrend every few years. The years are not fixed though.



Both - Seasonal patterns each year with cyclical pattern showing about every 9 years

Time Series Decomposition Plot



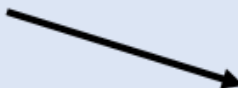
- > The first plot shows the actual time series.
- > The trend line indicates the general tendency of the time series
- > The seasonal portion shows that there's a seasonal pattern
- > The residual is the error in the model that calculates the difference between the observed value and the trendline estimate

Simple Forecasting Methods

- > **Average method:** Forecast of all future values is equal to the mean of historical data
- > **Naïve method:** Forecasts equal to last observed value
- > **Seasonal naïve method:** Forecasts equal to last value from same season
- > **Drift method:** Forecasts equal to last value plus average change

Moving Average: Naïve Approach

MONTH	ORDERS	
	PER MONTH	FORECAST
Jan	120	-
Feb	90	120
Mar	100	90
Apr	75	100
May	110	75
June	50	110
July	75	50
Aug	130	75
Sept	110	130
Oct	90	110
Nov	-	90



Moving Average

- Simple moving average
 - uses average demand for a fixed sequence of periods
 - stable demand with no pronounced behavioral patterns
- Weighted moving average
 - weights are assigned to most recent data



Simple Moving Average

$$MA_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n D_i}{n}$$

where

n = number of periods in the
moving average

D_i = demand in period i



3-month Simple Moving Average

MONTH	ORDERS PER MONTH	MOVING AVERAGE
Jan	120	—
Feb	90	—
Mar	100	—
Apr	75	103.3
May	110	88.3
June	50	95.0
July	75	78.3
Aug	130	78.3
Sept	110	85.0
Oct	90	105.0
Nov	—	110.0

$$MA_3 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 D_i}{3}$$
$$= \frac{90 + 110 + 130}{3}$$

= 110 orders for Nov



5-month Simple Moving Average

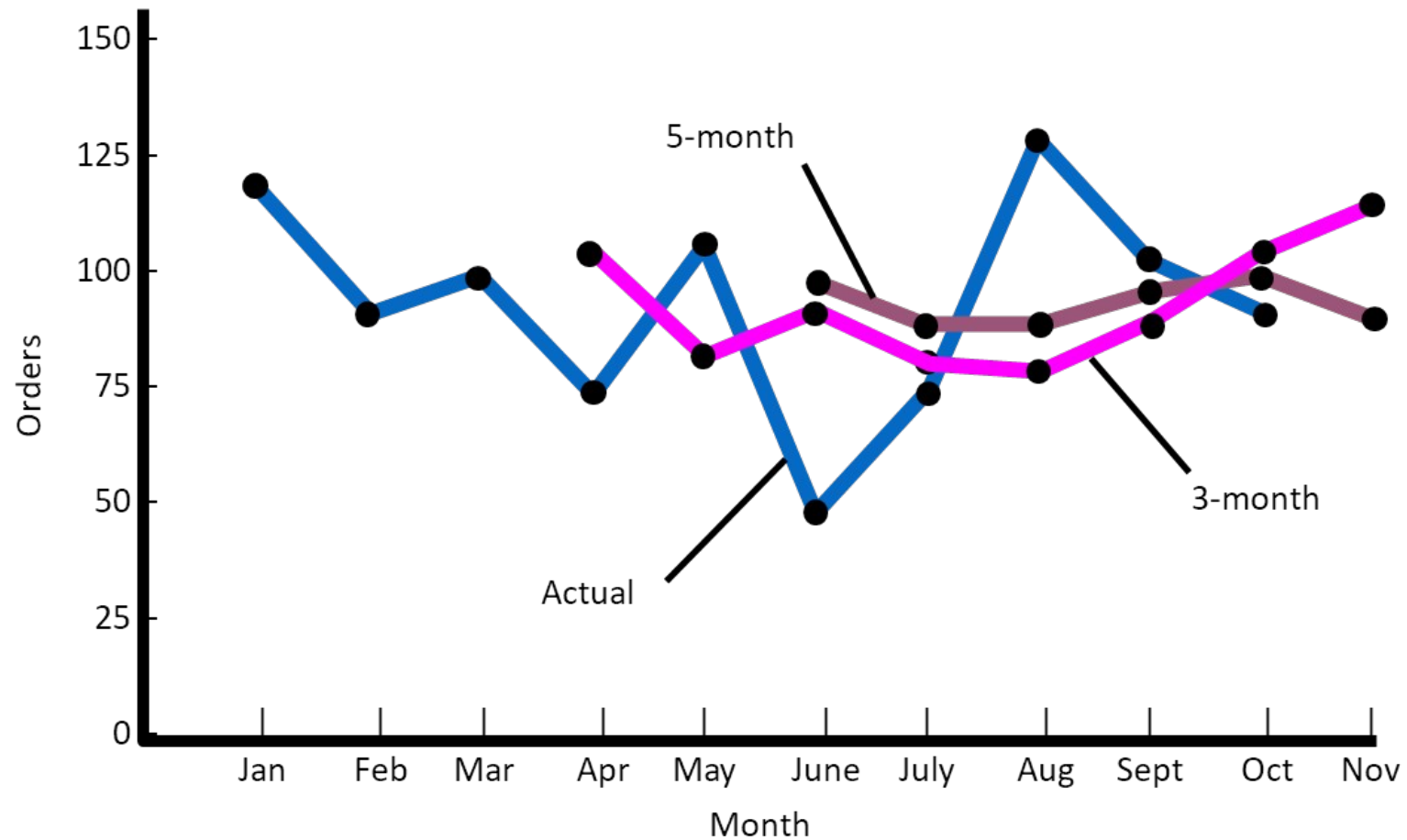
MONTH	ORDERS PER MONTH	MOVING AVERAGE
Jan	120	—
Feb	90	—
Mar	100	—
Apr	75	—
May	110	—
June	50	99.0
July	75	85.0
Aug	130	82.0
Sept	110	88.0
Oct	90	95.0
Nov	—	91.0

$$MA_5 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^5 D_i}{5}$$
$$= \frac{90 + 110 + 130 + 75 + 50}{5}$$

= 91 orders for Nov



Smoothing Effects



Weighted Moving Average

- Adjusts moving average method to more closely reflect data fluctuations

$$WMA_n = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i D_i$$

where

W_i = the weight for period i ,
between 0 and 100 percent

$$\sum W_i = 1.00$$



Weighted Moving Average Example

<i>MONTH</i>	<i>WEIGHT</i>	<i>DATA</i>
<i>August</i>	17%	130
<i>September</i>	33%	110
<i>October</i>	50%	90
3		
November Forecast	$WMA_3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 W_i D_i$	
$= (0.50)(90) + (0.33)(110) + (0.17)(130)$		
$= 103.4 \text{ orders}$		



Exponential Smoothing

- Averaging method
- Weights most recent data more strongly
- Reacts more to recent changes
- Widely used, accurate method



Exponential Smoothing

$$F_{t+1} = \alpha D_t + (1 - \alpha)F_t$$

where:

F_{t+1} = forecast for next period

D_t = actual demand for present period

F_t = previously determined forecast for present period

α = weighting factor, smoothing constant



Effect of Smoothing Constant

$$0.0 \leq \alpha \leq 1.0$$

$$\text{If } \alpha = 0.20, \text{ then } F_{t+1} = 0.20 D_t + 0.80 F_t$$

$$\text{If } \alpha = 0, \text{ then } F_{t+1} = 0 D_t + 1 F_t = F_t$$

Forecast does not reflect recent data

$$\text{If } \alpha = 1, \text{ then } F_{t+1} = 1 D_t + 0 F_t = D_t$$

Forecast based only on most recent data



Exponential Smoothing ($\alpha=0.30$)

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND	
1	Jan	37	$F_2 = \alpha D_1 + (1 - \alpha)F_1$
2	Feb	40	$= (0.30)(37) + (0.70)(37)$
3	Mar	41	$= 37$
4	Apr	37	$F_3 = \alpha D_2 + (1 - \alpha)F_2$
5	May	45	$= (0.30)(40) + (0.70)(37)$
6	Jun	50	$= 37.9$
7	Jul	43	
8	Aug	47	$F_{13} = \alpha D_{12} + (1 - \alpha)F_{12}$
9	Sep	56	$= (0.30)(54) + (0.70)(50.84)$
10	Oct	52	$= 51.79$
11	Nov	55	
12	Dec	54	



Exponential Smoothing ($\alpha=0.30$)

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND	
1	Jan	37	$F_2 = \alpha D_1 + (1 - \alpha)F_1$
2	Feb	40	$= (0.30)(37) + (0.70)(37)$
3	Mar	41	$= 37$
4	Apr	37	$F_3 = \alpha D_2 + (1 - \alpha)F_2$
5	May	45	$= (0.30)(40) + (0.70)(37)$
6	Jun	50	$= 37.9$
7	Jul	43	
8	Aug	47	$F_{13} = \alpha D_{12} + (1 - \alpha)F_{12}$
9	Sep	56	$= (0.30)(54) + (0.70)(50.84)$
10	Oct	52	$= 51.79$
11	Nov	55	
12	Dec	54	



Exponential Smoothing

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND	FORECAST, F_{t+1}	
			($\alpha = 0.3$)	($\alpha = 0.5$)
1	Jan	37	—	—
2	Feb	40	37.00	37.00
3	Mar	41	37.90	38.50
4	Apr	37	38.83	39.75
5	May	45	38.28	38.37
6	Jun	50	40.29	41.68
7	Jul	43	43.20	45.84
8	Aug	47	43.14	44.42
9	Sep	56	44.30	45.71
10	Oct	52	47.81	50.85
11	Nov	55	49.06	51.42
12	Dec	54	50.84	53.21
13	Jan	—	51.79	53.61



Adjusted Exponential Smoothing

$$AF_{t+1} = F_{t+1} + T_{t+1}$$

where

T = an exponentially smoothed trend factor

$$T_{t+1} = \beta(F_{t+1} - F_t) + (1 - \beta) T_t$$

where

T_t = the last period trend factor

β = a smoothing constant for trend

$$0 \leq \beta \leq 1$$



Adjusted Exponential Smoothing ($\beta=0.30$)

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND	$T_3 = \beta(F_3 - F_2) + (1 - \beta) T_2$ $= (0.30)(38.5 - 37.0) + (0.70)(0)$ $= 0.45$
1	Jan	37	
2	Feb	40	
3	Mar	41	
4	Apr	37	$AF_3 = F_3 + T_3 = 38.5 + 0.45$ $= 38.95$
5	May	45	
6	Jun	50	
7	Jul	43	$T_{13} = \beta(F_{13} - F_{12}) + (1 - \beta) T_{12}$ $= (0.30)(53.61 - 53.21) + (0.70)(1.77)$ $= 1.36$
8	Aug	47	
9	Sep	56	
10	Oct	52	
11	Nov	55	
12	Dec	54	$AF_{13} = F_{13} + T_{13} = 53.61 + 1.36 = 54.97$

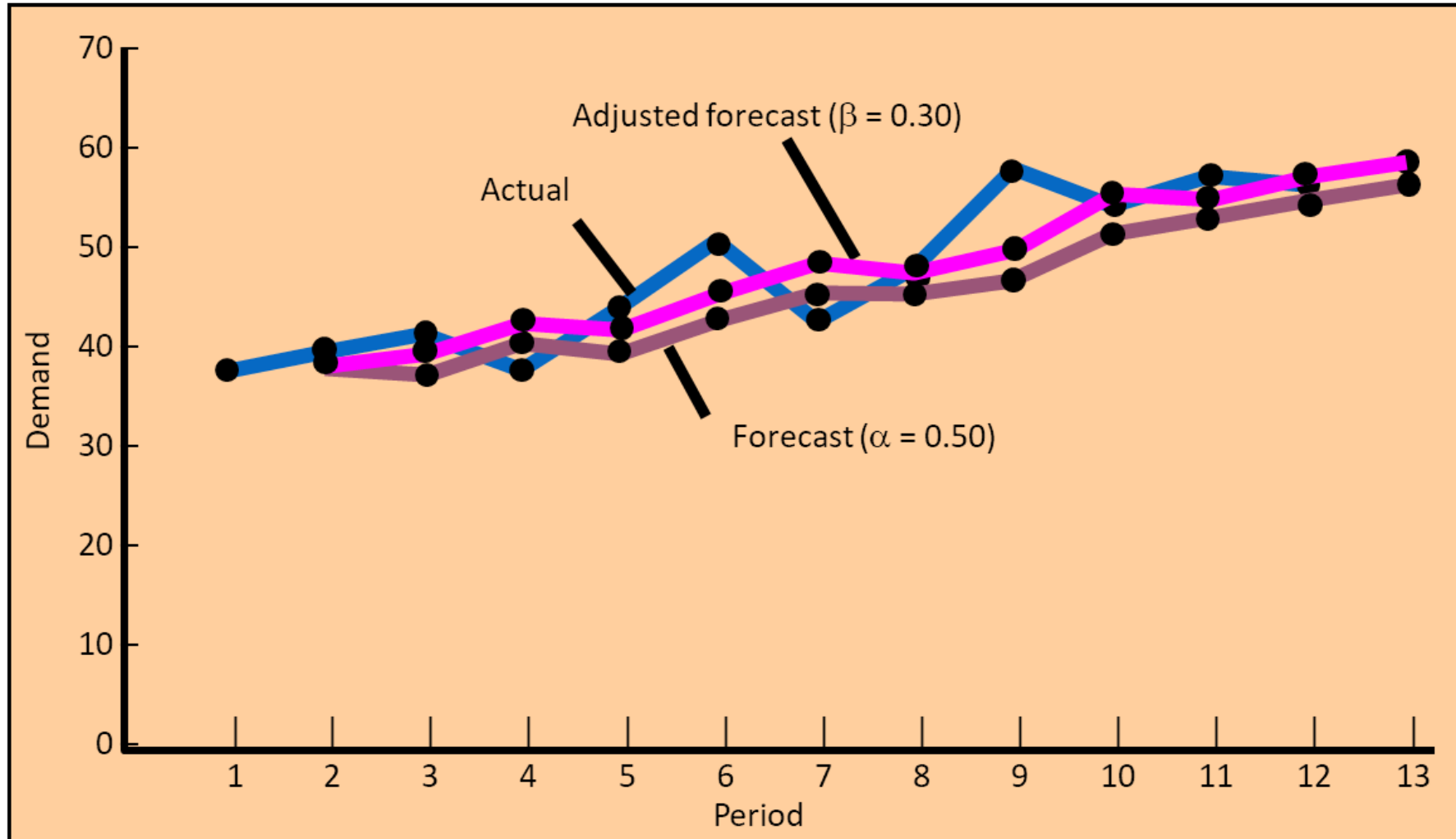


Adjusted Exponential Smoothing

PERIOD	MONTH	DEMAND	FORECAST F_{t+1}	TREND T_{t+1}	ADJUSTED FORECAST AF_{t+1}
1	Jan	37	37.00	—	—
2	Feb	40	37.00	0.00	37.00
3	Mar	41	38.50	0.45	38.95
4	Apr	37	39.75	0.69	40.44
5	May	45	38.37	0.07	38.44
6	Jun	50	38.37	0.07	38.44
7	Jul	43	45.84	1.97	47.82
8	Aug	47	44.42	0.95	45.37
9	Sep	56	45.71	1.05	46.76
10	Oct	52	50.85	2.28	58.13
11	Nov	55	51.42	1.76	53.19
12	Dec	54	53.21	1.77	54.98
13	Jan	—	53.61	1.36	54.96



Adjusted Exponential Smoothing Forecasts



Linear Trend Line

$$y = a + bx$$

where

a = intercept

b = slope of the line

x = time period

y = forecast for demand for period :

$$b = \frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2}$$

$$a = \bar{y} - b\bar{x}$$

where

n = number of periods

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{n} = \text{mean of the } x \text{ values}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y}{n} = \text{mean of the } y \text{ values}$$



Least Squares Example

$x(\text{PERIOD})$	$y(\text{DEMAND})$	xy	x^2
1	73	37	1
2	40	80	4
3	41	123	9
4	37	148	16
5	45	225	25
6	50	300	36
7	43	301	49
8	47	376	64
9	56	504	81
10	52	520	100
11	55	605	121
12	54	648	144
78	557	3867	650



Least Squares Example

$$\bar{x} = \frac{78}{12} = 6.5$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{557}{12} = 46.42$$

$$b = \frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2} = \frac{3867 - (12)(6.5)(46.42)}{650 - 12(6.5)^2} = 1.72$$

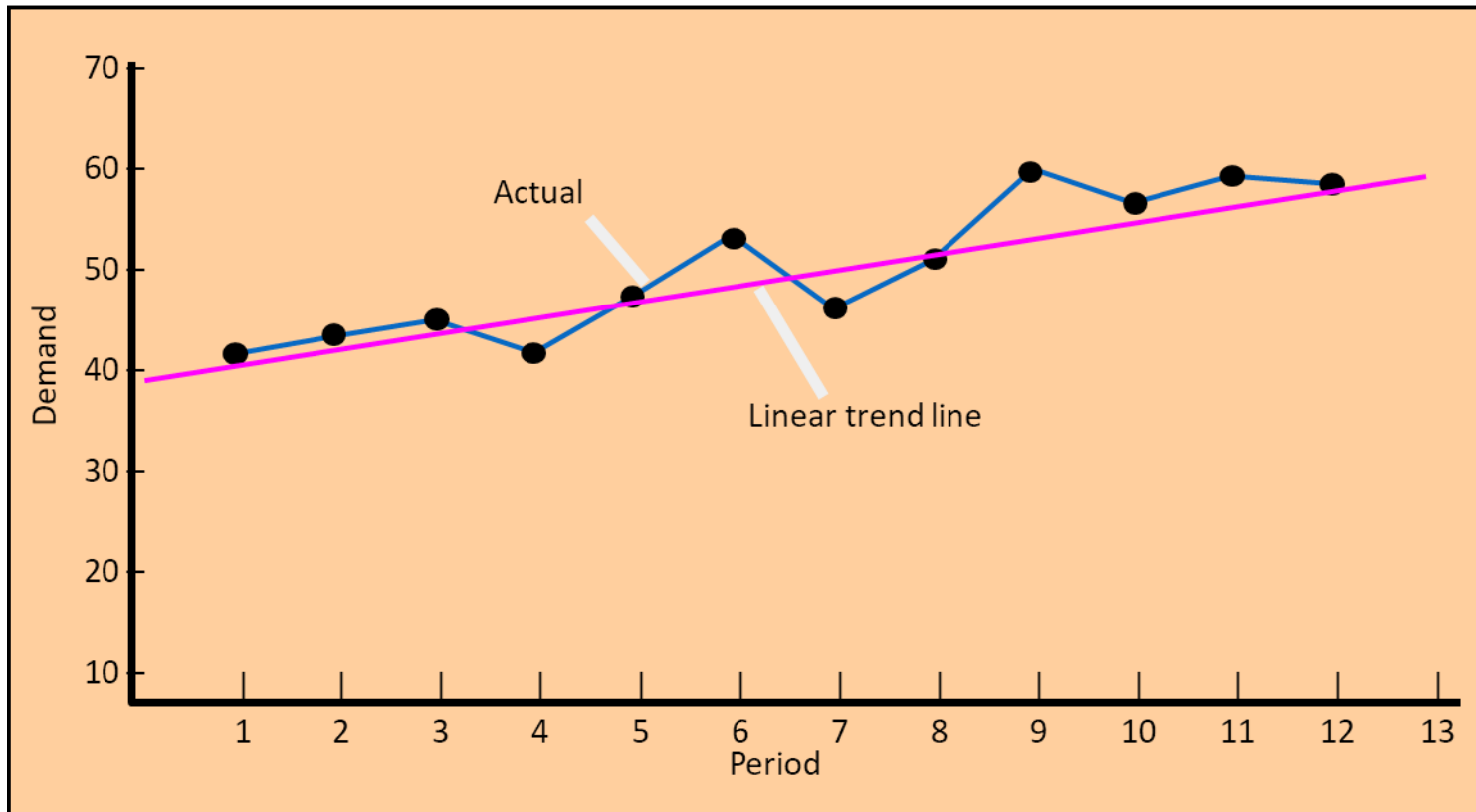
$$\begin{aligned} a &= \bar{y} - b\bar{x} \\ &= 46.42 - (1.72)(6.5) = 35.2 \end{aligned}$$



Adjusted Exponential Smoothing Forecasts

Linear trend line $y = 35.2 + 1.72x$

Forecast for period 13 $y = 35.2 + 1.72(13) = 57.56$ units



Seasonal Adjustments

- Repetitive increase/ decrease in demand
- Use seasonal factor to adjust forecast

$$\text{Seasonal factor} = S_i = \frac{D_i}{\sum D}$$



Seasonal Adjustment

YEAR	DEMAND (1000'S PER QUARTER)				Total
	1	2	3	4	
2002	12.68.6	6.3	17.5	45.0	
2003	14.110.3	7.5	18.2	50.1	
2004	15.310.6	8.1	19.6	53.6	
Total	42.029.5	21.9	55.3	148.7	

$$S_1 = \frac{D_1}{\sum D} = \frac{42.0}{148.7} = 0.28$$
$$S_2 = \frac{D_2}{\sum D} = \frac{29.5}{148.7} = 0.20$$
$$S_3 = \frac{D_3}{\sum D} = \frac{21.9}{148.7} = 0.15$$
$$S_4 = \frac{D_4}{\sum D} = \frac{55.3}{148.7} = 0.37$$


Seasonal Adjustment

For 2005

$$y = 40.97 + 4.30x = 40.97 + 4.30(4) = 58.17$$

$$SF_1 = (S_1) (F_5) = (0.28)(58.17) = 16.28$$

$$SF_2 = (S_2) (F_5) = (0.20)(58.17) = 11.63$$

$$SF_3 = (S_3) (F_5) = (0.15)(58.17) = 8.73$$

$$SF_4 = (S_4) (F_5) = (0.37)(58.17) = 21.53$$



Forecast Accuracy

- Forecast error
 - difference between forecast and actual demand
- MAD
 - mean absolute deviation
- MAPD
 - mean absolute percent deviation
- Cumulative error
- Average error or bias



Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD)

$$\text{MAD} = \frac{\sum |D_t - F_t|}{n}$$

where

t = period number

D_t = demand in period t

F_t = forecast for period t

n = total number of periods



MAD Example

PERIOD	DEMAND, D_t	$F_t (\alpha = 0.3)$	$(D_t - F_t)$	$ D_t - F_t $
1	37	37.00	—	—
2	40	37.00	3.00	3.00
3	41	37.90	3.10	3.10
4	37	38.83	-1.83	1.83
5	45	38.28	6.72	6.72
6	50	40.29	9.69	9.69
7	43	43.20	-0.20	0.20
8	47	43.14	3.86	3.86
9	56	44.30	11.70	11.70
10	52	47.81	4.19	4.19
11	55	49.06	5.94	5.94
12	54	50.84	3.15	3.15
	<u>557</u>		<u>49.31</u>	<u>53.39</u>



MAD Calculation

$$\begin{aligned}\text{MAD} &= \frac{\sum |D_t - F_t|}{n} \\ &= \frac{53.39}{11} \\ &= 4.85\end{aligned}$$



Comparison of Forecasts

FORECAST	MAD	MAPD	E	(E)
Exponential smoothing ($\alpha = 0.30$)	4.85	9.6%	49.31	4.48
Exponential smoothing ($\alpha = 0.50$)	4.04	8.5%	33.21	3.02
Adjusted exponential smoothing ($\alpha = 0.50, \beta = 0.30$)	3.81	7.5%	21.14	1.92
Linear trend line	2.29	4.9%	–	–



Regression Methods

- Linear regression
 - mathematical technique that relates a dependent variable to an independent variable in the form of a linear equation
- Correlation
 - a measure of the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables



Linear Regression

$$y = a + bx$$

$$a = \bar{y} - b \bar{x}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2}$$

where

a = intercept

b = slope of the line

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{n} = \text{mean of the } x \text{ data}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y}{n} = \text{mean of the } y \text{ data}$$



Linear Regression Example

x (WINS)	y (ATTENDANCE)	xy	x^2
4	36.3	145.2	16
6	40.1	240.6	36
6	41.2	247.2	36
8	53.0	424.0	64
6	44.0	264.0	36
7	45.6	319.2	49
5	39.0	195.0	25
7	47.5	332.5	49
<hr/> 49	<hr/> 346.7	<hr/> 2167.7	<hr/> 311



Linear Regression Example

$$\bar{x} = \frac{49}{8} = 6.125$$

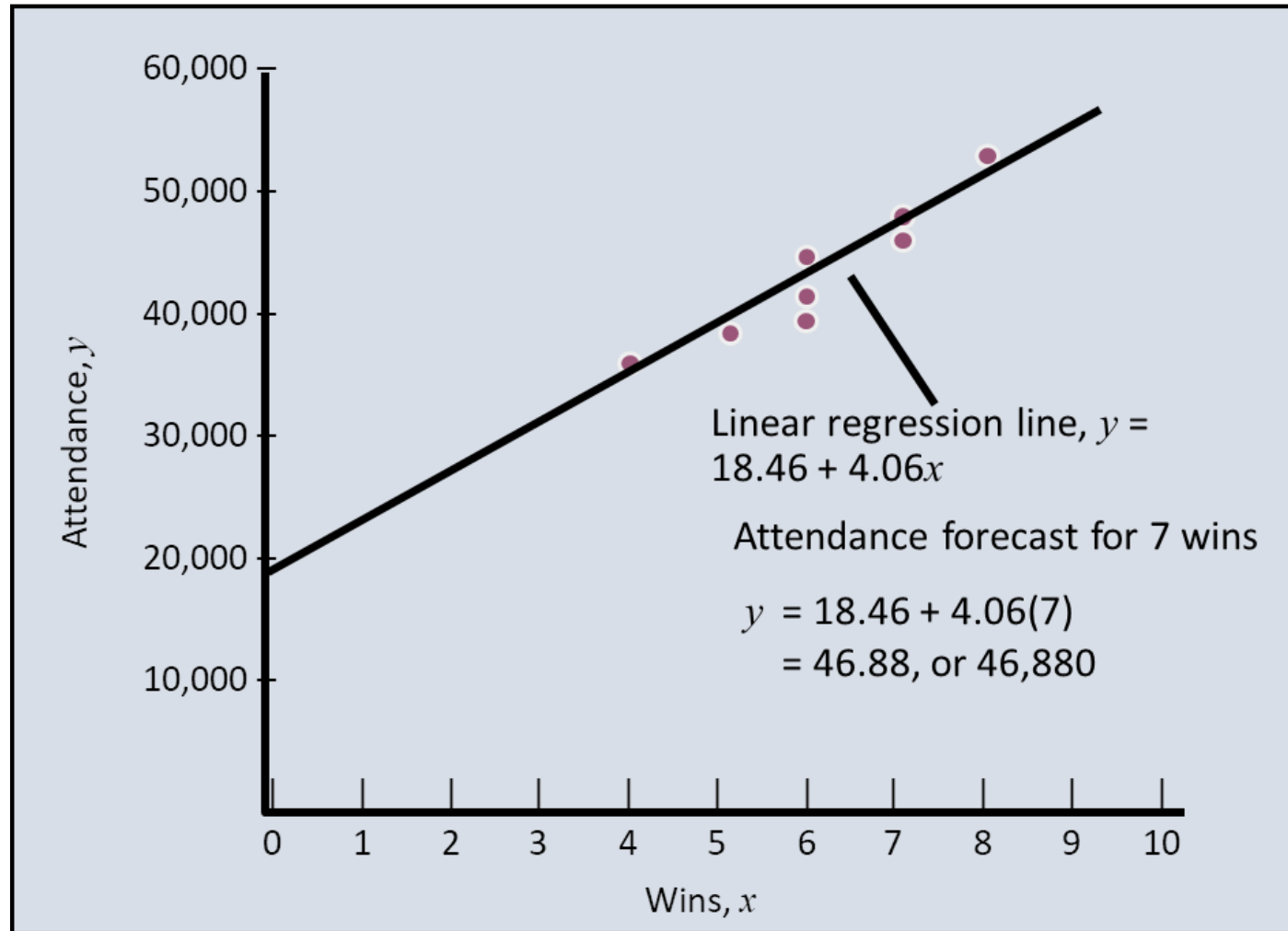
$$\bar{y} = \frac{346.9}{8} = 43.36$$

$$\begin{aligned} b &= \frac{\sum xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2} \\ &= \frac{(2,167.7) - (8)(6.125)(43.36)}{(311) - (8)(6.125)^2} \\ &= 4.06 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \bar{y} - b\bar{x} \\ &= 43.36 - (4.06)(6.125) \\ &= 18.46 \end{aligned}$$



Linear Regression Example



Correlation and Coefficient of Determination

- Correlation, r
 - Measure of strength of relationship
 - Varies between -1.00 and +1.00
- Coefficient of determination, r^2
 - Percentage of variation in dependent variable resulting from changes in the independent variable



ARIMA Models and Forecasting

- If we can describe the way the points in the series are related to each other (the autocorrelations), then we can describe the series using the relationships that we've found
- AutoRegressive Integrated Moving Average Models (ARIMA) are mathematical models of the autocorrelation in a time series
- One way to describe time series



ARIMA METHOD OF FORECASTING

➤ The Autoregressive (AR) Model

➤ The following is an **AR(p)** model:

$$Y_t = B_0 + B_1 Y_{t-1} + B_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots + B_p Y_{t-p} + u_t$$

- where u_t is a white noise error term.

➤ The Moving Average (MA) Model

➤ We can also model Y_t as an the **MA(q)** model, a weighted, or moving, average of the current and past white noise error terms:

- $$Y_t = C_0 + C_1 u_t + C_2 u_{t-1} + \dots + C_j u_{t-q}$$



ARIMA METHOD OF FORECASTING (CONT.)

- The Autoregressive Moving Average (ARMA) Model
 - The ARMA (p,q) model is a combination of AR (autoregressive) and MA (moving average) terms.
- The Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) Model
 - The BJ methodology is based on the assumption that the underlying time series is stationary or can be made stationary by differencing it one or more times.
 - This is known as the ARIMA (p, d, q) model, where d denotes the number of times a time series has to be differenced to make it stationary.



Autocorrelation

- The major statistical tool for ARIMA models is the sample autocorrelation coefficient

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{t=k+1}^n (Y_t - \bar{Y}) (Y_{t-k} - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{t=1}^n (Y_t - \bar{Y})^2}$$



Autocorrelations

- r_1 indicates how successive values of Y relate to each other,
- r_2 indicates how Y values two periods apart relate to each other, and so on.



ACF

- Together, the autocorrelations at lags 1, 2, 3, etc. make up the autocorrelation function or ACF and then we plot the autocorrelations by the lags
- The ACF values reflect how strongly the series is related to its past values over time.

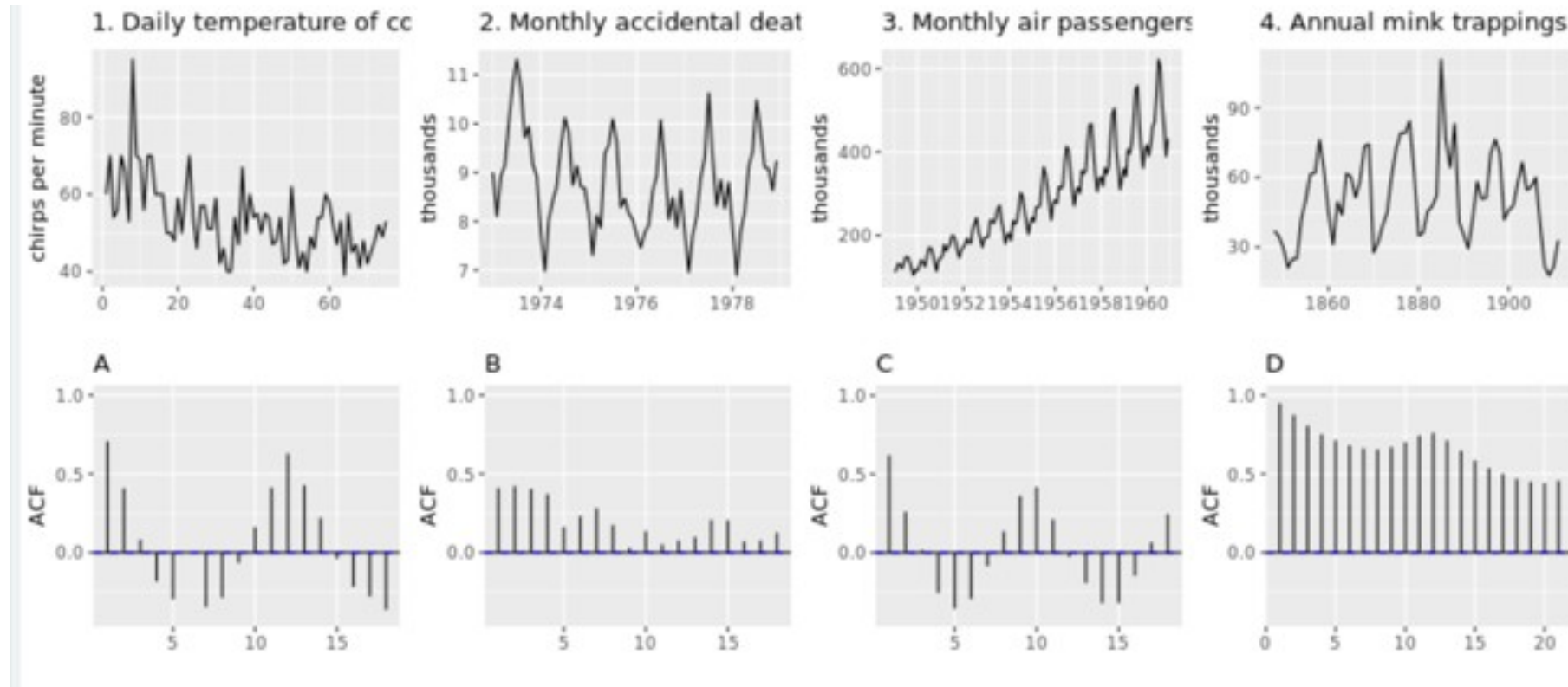


Autocorrelation Function Plot

- > Autocorrelation refers to how correlated a time series is with its past values.
- > When data have a trend, the autocorrelations for small lags tend to be large and positive.
- > When data are seasonal, the autocorrelations will be larger at the seasonal lags
- > When data are trended and seasonal, you see a combination of these effects

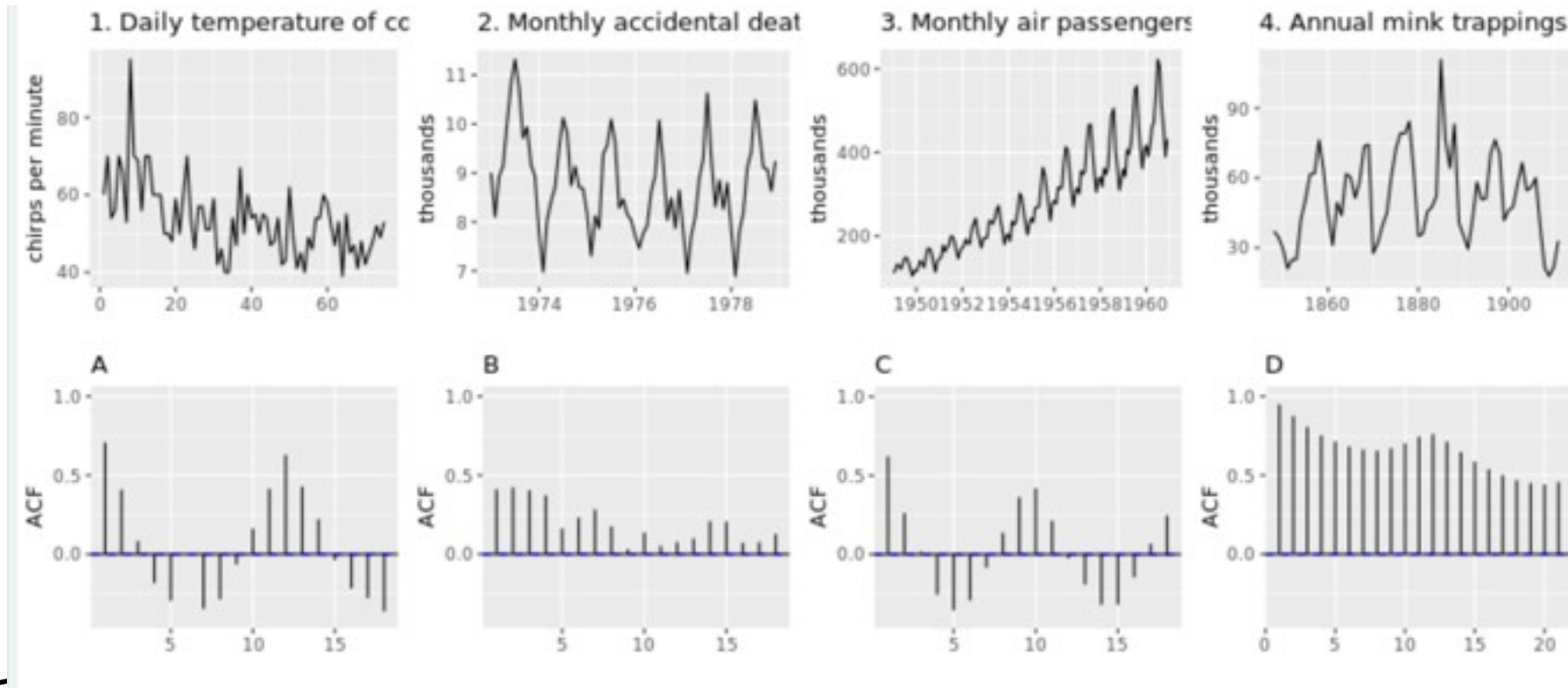
Quiz

> Match the ACF to the time series



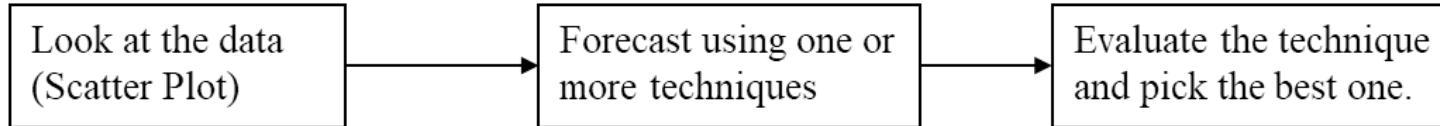
Quiz

> Match the ACF to the time series



> 1-B, 2-A, 3-D, 4-C

Time Series Forecasting Process



Observations from the scatter Plot	Techniques to try	Ways to evaluate
Data is reasonably stationary (no trend or seasonality)	Heuristics - Averaging methods <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Naive• Moving Averages• Simple Exponential Smoothing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• MAD• MAPE• Standard Error• BIAS
Data shows a consistent trend	Regression <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Linear• Non-linear Regressions (not covered in this course)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• MAD• MAPE• Standard Error• BIAS• R-Squared
Data shows both a trend and a seasonal pattern	Classical decomposition <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Find Seasonal Index• Use regression analyses to find the trend component	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• MAD• MAPE• Standard Error• BIAS• R-Squared



Evaluation of Forecasting Model

- **BIAS**

- The arithmetic mean of the errors

- n is the number of forecast errors

- **Mean Absolute Deviation - MAD**

- Average of the absolute errors



Evaluation of Forecasting Model

- **Mean Square Error - MSE**

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- **Standard error**

- Square Root of MSE

- **Mean Absolute Percentage Error - MAPE**

- Calculate the % error using the absolute error, then average the results



Controlling the quality of forecast

- Necessary to monitor forecast to ensure that the forecast is performing adequately
- This is accomplished by comparing forecast errors to predetermined values
- Errors that fall within the limits are considered acceptable
- Errors outside either limit indicates that corrective action is needed
- Tracking signal values are compared to predetermined limits (+4,-4) based on judgment and experience



Choosing a Forecasting Technique

- Moving Averages and Exponential Smoothing are short range techniques. They produce forecast for the next period
- Trend equations are used for much longer time horizons.
- More than one forecasting techniques might be used to increase confidence
- The forecast horizon
- Forecasting frequency
 - Forecasting is not free
 - Consider cost and accuracy
 - Weigh cost-accuracy trade-offs carefully

