EC 361-001

Prof. Santetti Spring 2024

Materials

Required readings:

- Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, ch. 2, section 2.7
- Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, ch. 6
 - sections 6.2—6.3.

Motivation

Motivation

Now that we have been introduced to the most important **visualization** and **decomposition** techniques, it is time to (*finally*) start doing some forecasting exercises.

The best place to start is to **keep it simple**.

Thus, we begin with so-called **benchmark** forecasting methods.

Since any forecasting exercise involves estimating something we **do not know**, we may consider this (these) future observation(s) as **random variable(s)**.

Recall what a random variable is:

A **random variable** is a variable whose possible values are numerical outcomes of a *random* phenomenon.

As one tries to forecast *further* in the future, the more **uncertain** the results are.

Given that, the usual procedure is to present the **average** value within the range of possible values the random variable we are trying to forecast could take.

In addition, a forecast is often accompanied by a **prediction interval** giving a range of values the random variable could take with relatively *high probability*.

If we want to forecast the future values of a variable y_t , we will usually do so based on some set of **information**.

This set of information may include *personal beliefs*, past observations of this variable, and/or values of other variables we assume may influence y_t .

Let us call this information the **information set**, \mathcal{I} .

Thus writing $y_t|\mathcal{I}$ means "the random variable y_t given our information set \mathcal{I} ."

Finally, the set of values that this random variable could take, along with their relative probabilities, is known as the probability distribution of $y_t|\mathcal{I}$.

In forecasting, the above is called the **forecast distribution**.

And we will establish our notation for forecasting by using a "hat" symbol (^) denoting a **fitted/estimated point forecast** value (usually the average).

So \hat{y}_t is the (average) point forecast value of the forecast distribution of $y_t | \mathcal{I}$, meaning the average of the possible values that y_t could take given everything we know.

In case we want to be more **explicit** about our information set \mathcal{I} , we may write, for example,

$$\hat{y}_{t|t-1}$$

to denote that we are forecasting variable y using information from its past observations $(y_{t-j,...,t-1})$.

In a similar way,

$${\hat y}_{T+h|T}$$

means that we are forecasting variable *y h* steps (periods) ahead, based on its observations up to time

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When producing forecasts, we may test several different models and approaches.

However, one way to test the **efficiency** of these models is to *compare* them to very simple methods.

We will explore four of these "**benchmark**" forecasting models, which will provide a basic reference upon which we should improve our more sophisticated models.

These are:

- 1. The **mean** method;
- 2. The **naïve** method;
- 3. The **seasonal naïve** method;
- 4. The **drift** method.

• The mean method:

The **mean** method, as the name suggests, will produce forecasts which are equal to the **average** value of the historical data.

Let the historical data (i.e., the information set \mathcal{I}) be denoted by $(y_1,...,y_T)$.

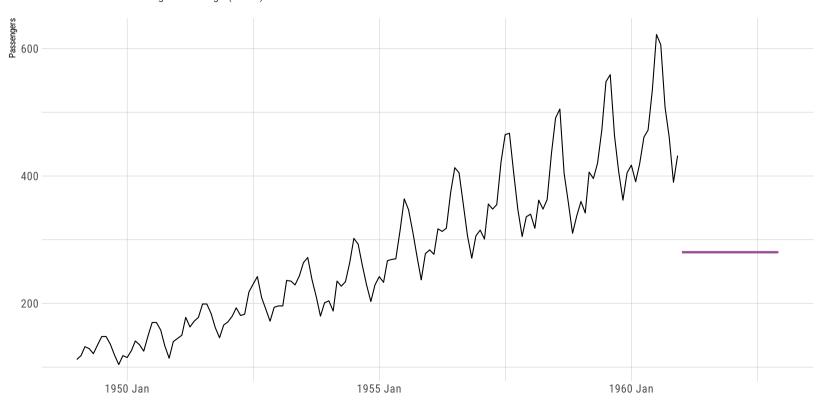
Then, the forecasts may be written as

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = ar{y} = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{j=1}^T y_j}{T}$$

• The mean method:

Monthly air passsengers, Jan 1949 - Dec 1960

24-month forecast using the average (mean) method



• The naïve method:

The **naïve** method is based on producing forecasts whose values are simply equal to the **last** observation:

$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T$$

Despite its simplicity, it may be well-suited for when the data follows a random walk process.

• The naïve method:

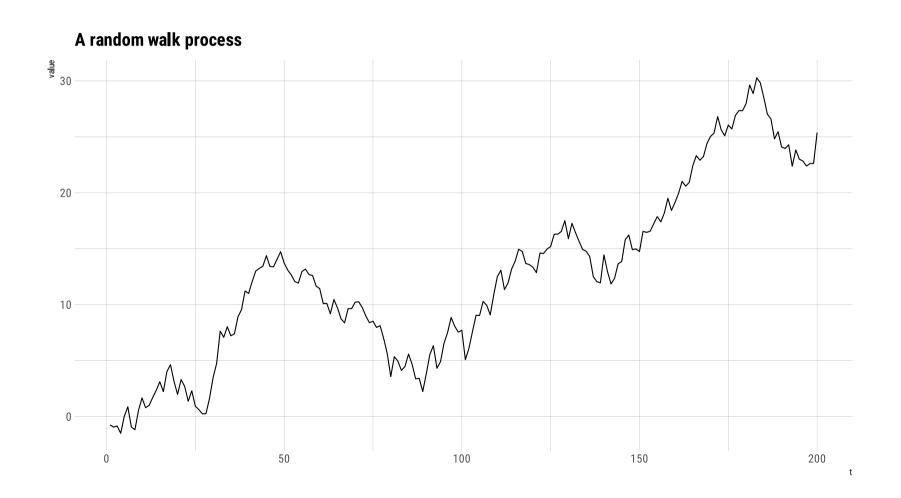
A **random walk** process can be defined as follows:

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + arepsilon_t$$

where ε_t is a **random** component following a white noise process (i.e., not **autocorrelated**).

The term **random walk** comes from the fact that the value of the time series at time t is the value of the series at time t-1 plus a completely **random movement** determined by ε_t .

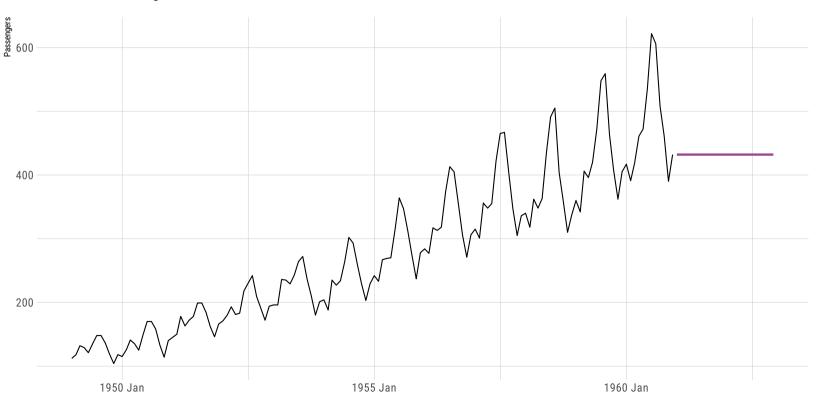
• The naïve method:



• The naïve method:

Monthly air passsengers, Jan 1949 - Dec 1960

24-month forecast using the naïve method



• The seasonal naïve method:

When the data are **highly seasonal**, the *naïve* method can be improved by including a **seasonal** component.

This way, each forecast will be equal to the last observed value from the same season.

• e.g., the same month of the previous year, the same quarter of the previous year, and so on.

More formally,

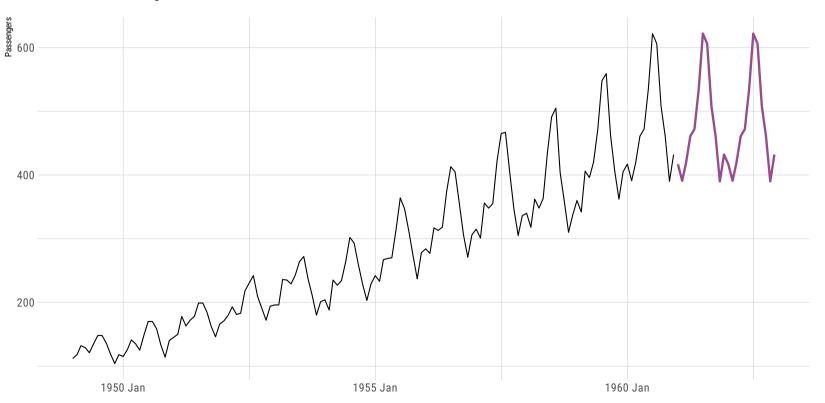
$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T}=y_{T+h-m(k+1)}$$

where m is the seasonal period, and k = (h-1)/m.

• The seasonal naïve method:

Monthly air passsengers, Jan 1949 - Dec 1960

24-month forecast using the seasonal naïve method



• The drift method:

The **drift** method expands on the naïve model by allowing the forecasts to **increase or decrease** over time.

This change over time is called the drift.

The drift term is set to be the average change seen in the historical data.

Formally,

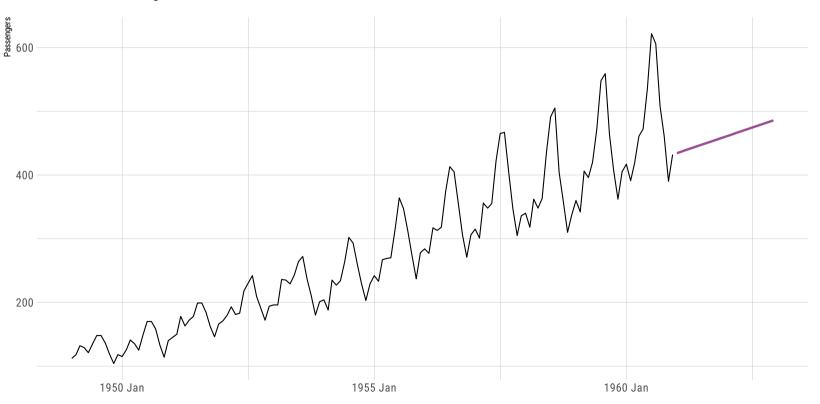
$$\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T + rac{h}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^T (y_t - y_{t-1}) = y_T + higg(rac{y_T - y_1}{T-1}igg)$$

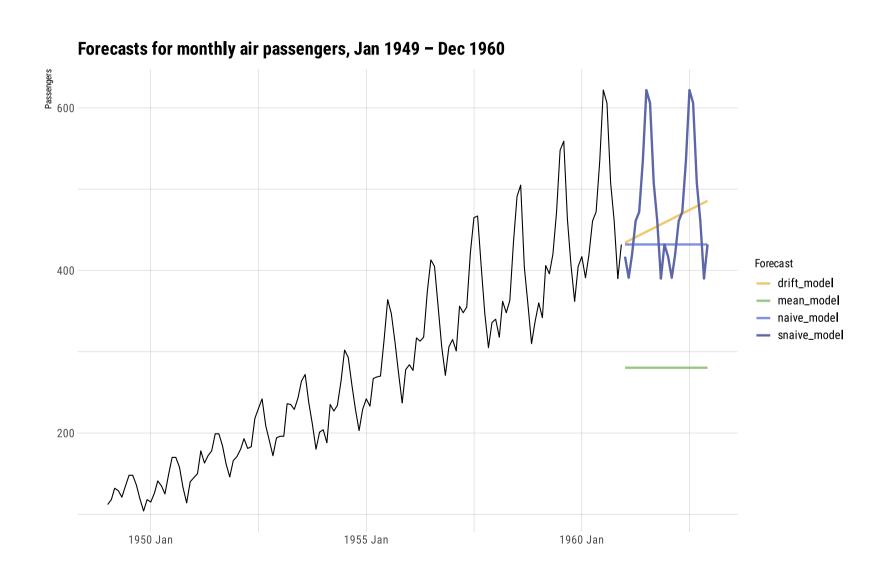
This formula is equivalent to drawing a **line** between the first and last observations, and *extrapolating* it into the future.

• The drift method:

Monthly air passsengers, Jan 1949 - Dec 1960

24-month forecast using the drift method





A second example

U.S. Dollars to Euro spot exchange rate

Feb 2019 - Feb 2024 (daily)



A second example

Forecasts for U.S. Dollars to Euro spot exchange rate





Next time: Residual analysis