

Time Series Analysis & Forecasting Using R

12. Accuracy evaluation







Outline

- 1 Forecasting recap
- 2 Residual diagnostics
- 3 Lab Session 10
- 4 Forecast accuracy measures
- 5 Lab Session 11

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Tidy time series data

Use as_tsibble() to convert a dataset into a tsibble.

Identify which column(s) are:

- The index variable
- Identifying key variable(s)
- Measured variable(s)

Visualising time series

- Time plot: data |> autoplot(y)
- Season plot: data |> gg_season(y)
- Seasonal subseries plot: data |> gg_subseries(y)
- Lag plot: data |> gg_lag(y)
- ACF plot: data |> ACF(y) |> autoplot()

Transformations and decompositions

Simplify patterns with transformations:

- Population and inflation adjustments
- Mathematical transformations (log(), sqrt(), box_cox())

Separate trend and seasonal patterns with decomposition:

- STL() decomposition (additive, choose windows)
- Extract decomposition with components()
- Produce seasonally adjusted data for decision making

Forecasting basics

Estimate a model on data with model()

Benchmark forecasting methods:

- Simple average: MEAN(y)
- Naive method: NAIVE(y)
- Seasonal naive method: SNAIVE(y)
- RW w/ drift: RW(y ~ drift())

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Fitted values

- $\hat{y}_{t|t-1}$ is the forecast of y_t based on observations y_1, \ldots, y_t .
- We call these "fitted values".
- Sometimes drop the subscript: $\hat{y}_t \equiv \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$.
- Often not true forecasts since parameters are estimated on all data.

For example:

- $\hat{y}_t = \bar{y}$ for average method.
- $\hat{y}_t = y_{t-1} + (y_T y_1)/(T 1)$ for drift method.

Forecasting residuals

Residuals in forecasting: difference between observed value and its fitted value: $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}$.

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Assumptions

- $\{e_t\}$ uncorrelated. If they aren't, then information left in residuals that should be used in computing forecasts.
- $\{e_t\}$ have mean zero. If they don't, then forecasts are biased.

Forecasting residuals

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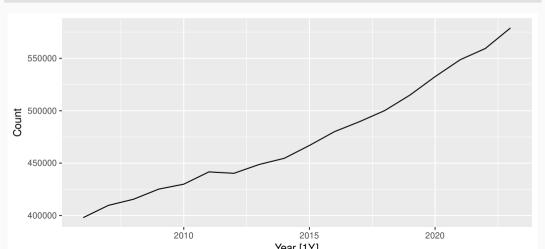
Assumptions

- $\{e_t\}$ uncorrelated. If they aren't, then information left in residuals that should be used in computing forecasts.
- $\{e_t\}$ have mean zero. If they don't, then forecasts are biased.

Useful properties (for prediction intervals)

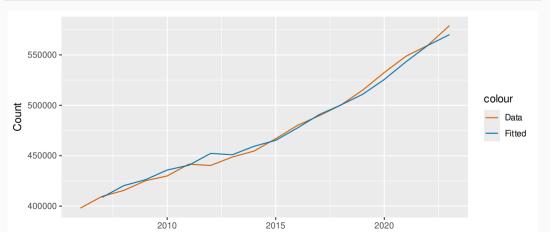
- $\{e_t\}$ have constant variance.
- $\{e_t\}$ are normally distributed.

```
total_staff <- staff |>
   summarise(Count = sum(`In-School Staff Count`))
total_staff |> autoplot(Count)
```

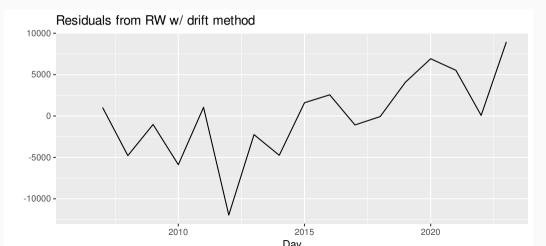


```
fit <- total staff |> model(RW(Count ~ drift()))
augment(fit)
# A tsibble: 18 x 6 [1Y]
# Key:
            .model [1]
   .model
                            Count .fitted
                                            .resid
                                                     .innov
                       Year
  <chr>
                      <dbl>
                            <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
                                                   <dbl>
 1 RW(Count ~ drift())
                                              NA
                       2006 398003
                                      NA
                                                      NA
 2 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2007 409678 408652. 1026.
                                                     1026.
 3 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2008 415541 420327.
                                           -4786.
                                                    -4786.
 4 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2009 425166 426190.
                                          -1024.
                                                    -1024.
 5 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2010 429933 435815.
                                           -5882.
                                                    -5882.
 6 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2011 441631 440582.
                                            1049.
                                                     1049.
 7 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2012 440313 452280. -11967.
                                                   -11967.
 8 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2013 448711 450962.
                                           -2251.
                                                    -2251.
 9 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2014 454615 459360.
                                           -4745.
                                                    -4745.
10 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2015 466867 465264.
                                          1603.
                                                     1603.
11 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2016 480077 477516. 2561.
                                                     2561.
12 RW(Count ~ drift())
                       2017 489645 490726.
                                          -1081.
                                                    -1081.
```

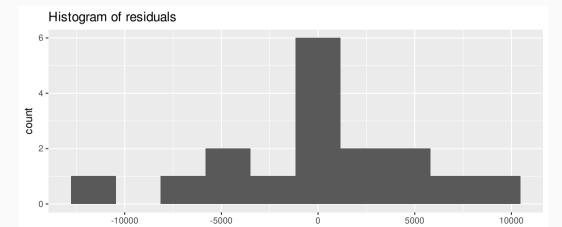
```
augment(fit) |>
  ggplot(aes(x = Year)) +
  geom_line(aes(y = Count, colour = "Data")) +
  geom_line(aes(y = .fitted, colour = "Fitted"))
```



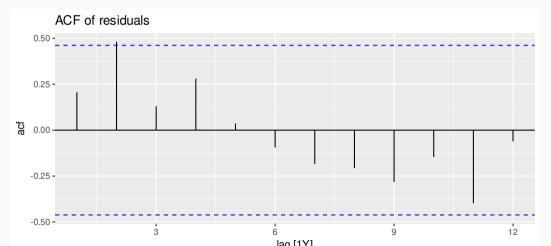
```
augment(fit) |>
  autoplot(.resid) +
  labs(x = "Day", y = "", title = "Residuals from RW w/ drift method")
```



```
augment(fit) |>
  ggplot(aes(x = .resid)) +
  geom_histogram(bins = 10) +
  labs(title = "Histogram of residuals")
```



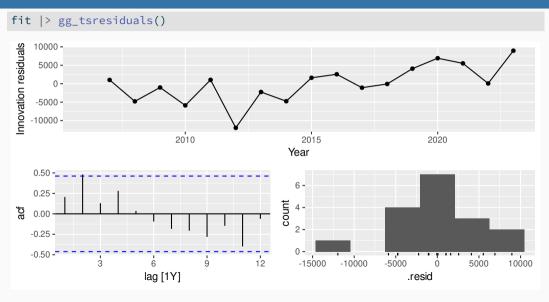
```
augment(fit) |>
  ACF(.resid) |>
  autoplot() + labs(title = "ACF of residuals")
```



ACF of residuals

- We assume that the residuals are white noise (uncorrelated, mean zero, constant variance). If they aren't, then there is information left in the residuals that should be used in computing forecasts.
- So a standard residual diagnostic is to check the ACF of the residuals of a forecasting method.
- We *expect* these to look like white noise.

Combined diagnostic graph



Ljung-Box test

Test whether whole set of r_k values is significantly different from zero set.

$$Q = T(T+2)\sum_{k=1}^{\ell} (T-k)^{-1} r_k^2 \quad \text{where } \ell = \max \text{ lag and } T = \# \text{ observations}$$

- If each r_k close to zero, Q will be **small**.
- If some r_k values large (+ or -), Q will be **large**.
- My preferences: h = 10 for non-seasonal data, h = 2m for seasonal data.
- If data are WN and T large, $Q \sim \chi^2$ with ℓ degrees of freedom.

Ljung-Box test

$$Q = T(T+2)\sum_{k=1}^{\ell} (T-k)^{-1}r_k^2 \quad \text{where } \ell = \max \log \text{ and } T = \# \text{ observations.}$$

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Lab Session 10

- Compute RW w/ drift forecasts for total student enrolments in Australia (students).
- Test if the residuals are white noise. What do you conclude?

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Training and test sets



- A model which fits the training data well will not necessarily forecast well.
- Forecast accuracy is based only on the test set.

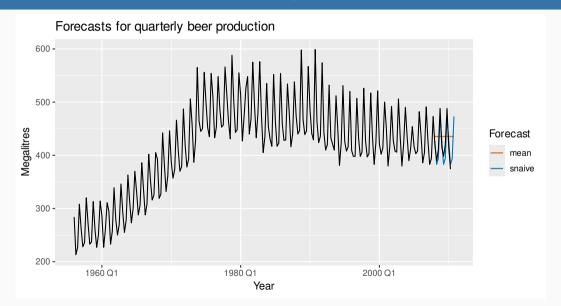
Forecast errors

Forecast "error": the difference between an observed value and its forecast.

$$e_{T+h} = y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T},$$



```
beer fit <- aus production |>
 filter(between(year(Quarter), 1992, 2007)) |>
 model(
    snaive = SNAIVE(Beer),
    mean = MEAN(Beer)
beer fit |>
 forecast(h = "3 years") |>
  autoplot(aus_production, level = NULL) +
  labs(title ="Forecasts for quarterly beer production",
       x ="Year", v ="Megalitres") +
 guides(colour = guide_legend(title = "Forecast"))
```



```
y_{T+h} = (T+h)th observation, h = 1, ..., H
\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = its forecast based on data up to time T.
 e_{T+h} = y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}
    MAE = mean(|e_{T+h}|)
                                            RMSE = \sqrt{\text{mean}(e_{T+h}^2)}
    MSE = mean(e_{T+h}^2)
  MAPE = 100mean(|e_{T+h}|/|y_{T+h}|)
```

$$y_{T+h} = (T+h)$$
th observation, $h = 1, ..., H$
 $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = \text{its forecast based on data up to time } T.$
 $e_{T+h} = y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}$

$$\mathsf{MAE} = \mathsf{mean}(|e_{T+h}|)$$

$$MSE = mean(e_{T+h}^2)$$

MAPE =
$$100 \text{mean}(|e_{T+h}|/|y_{T+h}|)$$

- MAE, MSE, RMSE are all scale dependent.
- MAPE is scale independent but is only sensible if $y_t \gg 0$ for all t, and y has a natural zero.

RMSE = $\sqrt{\text{mean}(e_{T+h}^2)}$

Mean Absolute Scaled Error

 $\mathsf{MASE} = \mathsf{mean}(|e_{T+h}|/Q)$

Mean Absolute Scaled Error

MASE = mean(
$$|e_{T+h}|/Q$$
)

For non-seasonal series, scale uses naïve forecasts:

$$Q = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^{T} |y_t - y_{t-1}|$$

■ For seasonal series, scale uses seasonal naïve forecasts:

$$Q = \frac{1}{T-m} \sum_{t=m+1}^{T} |y_t - y_{t-m}|$$

where m is the seasonal frequency

Mean Absolute Scaled Error

MASE = mean(
$$|e_{T+h}|/Q$$
)

For non-seasonal series, scale uses naïve forecasts:

$$Q = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^{T} |y_t - y_{t-1}|$$

■ For seasonal series, scale uses seasonal naïve forecasts:

$$Q = \frac{1}{T - m} \sum_{t = m+1}^{T} |y_t - y_{t-m}|$$

where *m* is the seasonal frequency

Proposed by Hyndman and Koehler (IJF, 2006).

Root Mean Squared Scaled Error

RMSSE =
$$\sqrt{\text{mean}(e_{T+h}^2/Q)}$$

For non-seasonal series, scale uses naïve forecasts:

$$Q = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^{T} (y_t - y_{t-1})^2$$

■ For seasonal series, scale uses seasonal naïve forecasts:

$$Q = \frac{1}{T-m} \sum_{t=m+1}^{I} (y_t - y_{t-m})^2$$

where m is the seasonal frequencyq

Proposed by Hyndman and Koehler (IJF, 2006).

```
beer_fc <- forecast(beer_fit, h = "3 years")
accuracy(beer_fc, aus_production)</pre>
```

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Lab Session 11

- Create a training set for employed Australian students (student_labour) by withholding the last four years as a test set.
- Fit all the appropriate benchmark methods to the training set and forecast the periods covered by the test set.
- Compute the accuracy of your forecasts. Which method does best?
- i Finished early?

Repeat the exercise using the Australian takeaway food turnover data (aus_retail) with a test set of four years.