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Biography notes - Bernardo Almada-Lobo

Academic





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Research







Consultancy





Education

















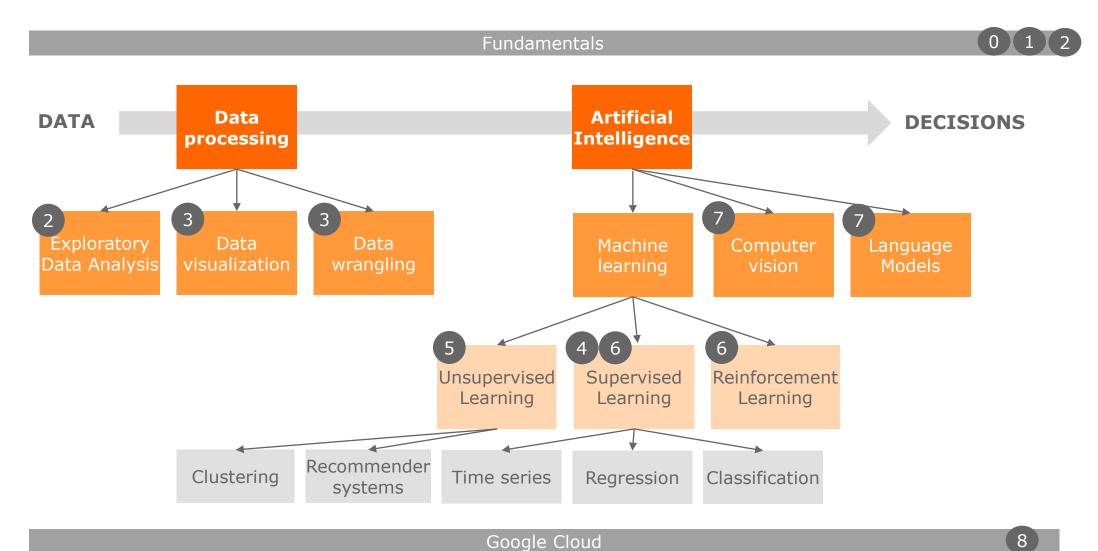


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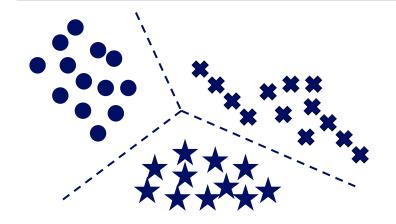
8

Algorithms can be classified based on the way they "learn" about data to make predictions

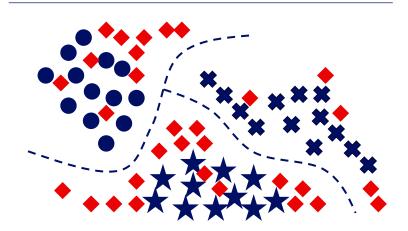




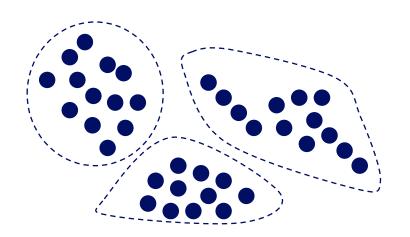
Supervised learning



Semi-supervised learning



Unsupervised learning



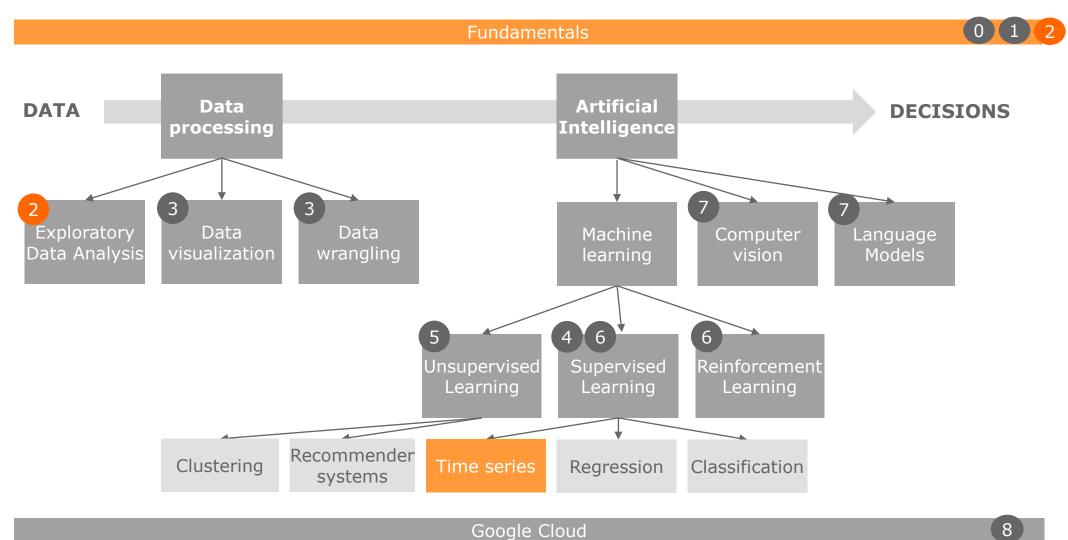


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Agenda





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The Role of Time Series

Time Series Methods: Exponential Smoothing

Accuracy, Outliers and Aggregation

Hybrid Methods

Box & Jenkins





Why is Forecasting Important?





- Defining more precisely how UNCONTROLLABLE VARIABLES (relevant for decision process at stake) will behave in the future
- Lags in Decision Making: If we could always adjust instantaneously and costlessly to new conditions there would be no need for forecasts

It is not an exact science; one must blend <u>experience</u>, <u>judgment</u>, <u>and</u> <u>technical expertise</u>



The six Steps in the Forecasting process





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DETERMINE what to forecast

- **Step 1** Identify the goal of the forecast
- Step 2 Establish a time horizon and the lag
- Step 3 Select a forecasting technique
- **Step 4** Conduct the forecast (analyze data)
- Step 5 Determine its accuracy
- Step 6 Monitor the forecast



Forecasting Framework

ANALYSE demand data and identify demand patterns

SELECT and adapt forecasting model



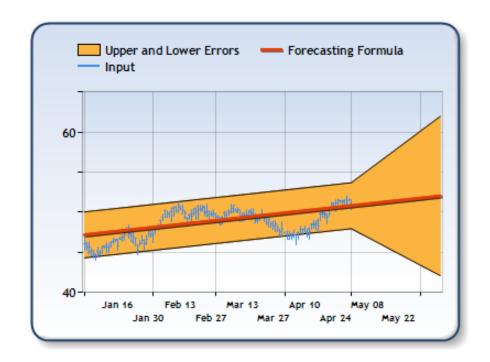
Forecasting Quantitative Methods



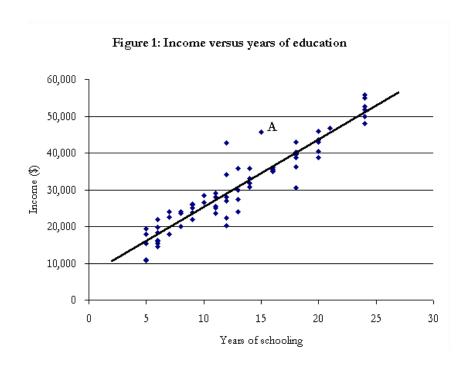


"It is far better to foresee even without certainty than not to foresee at all. "

Direct Extrapolation Methods



Casual Methods





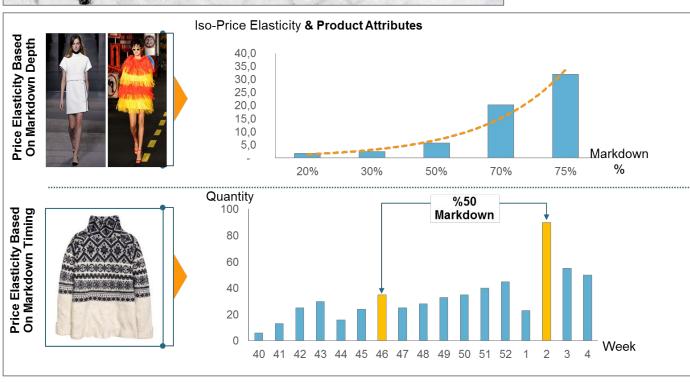
Forecasting Quantitative Methods





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Source: Invent Analytics

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Time Series Methods: Exponential Smoothing

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Exercise

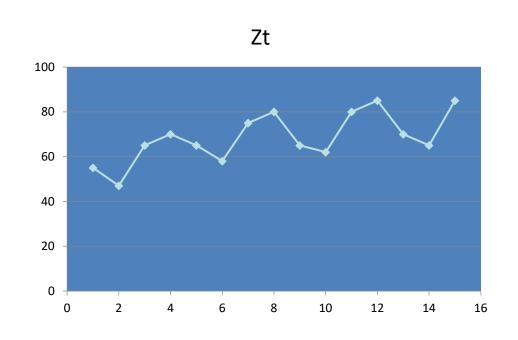




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Consider the following time series:

t	Zt
1	55
2	47
3	65
4	70
5	65
6	58
7	75
8	80
9	65
10	62
11	80
12	85
13	70
14	65
15	85
16	90



What is the forecast for t=17?

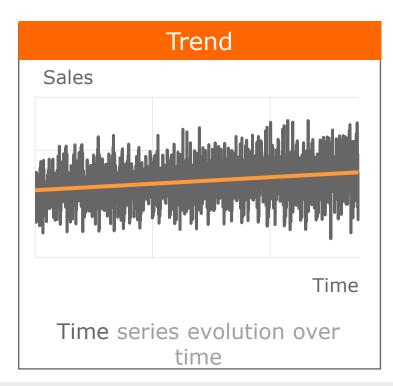
A time series is composed of 3 main components: level, trend and seasonality

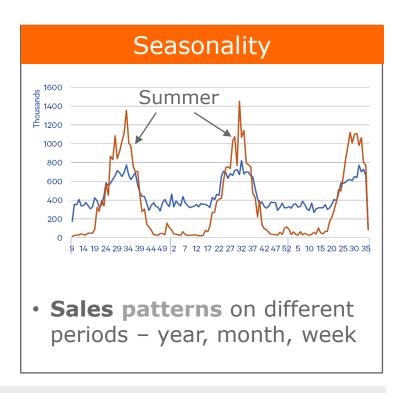




Decomposition models







A decomposition model projects the impact of past **trend** and **seasonality** (additive or multiplicative) on a current sales **level** in order to forecast future sales



Exponential Smoothing Methods

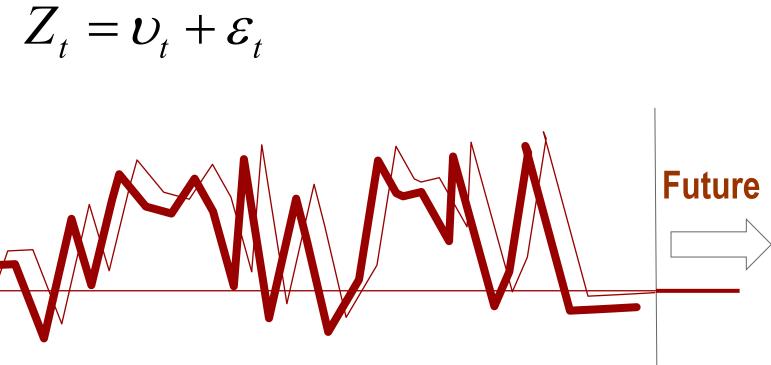


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Series Without Trend and Without Seasonality

Time Series (Z_t)





Exponential Smoothing Methods Local Stationary Time Series





Simple Moving Average Method

The level is estimated based on the last N obervations

$$n_t = (Z_t + Z_{t-1} + \cdots + Z_{t-N+1}) / N$$

The only parameter to fix is the number of terms of the moving average (N).

One could compute the value of N that minimizes the Mean Square Error of One Step Forecasts.

$$EQM = \frac{1}{T} \cdot \sum_{t=N+1}^{N+T} e_t^2 = \frac{1}{T} \cdot \sum_{t=N+1}^{N+T} \left[Z_t - \hat{Z}_{t-1}(1) \right]^2$$



Exponential smoothing shows valuable advantages when compared to moving average...



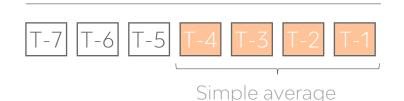
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Business School

Moving averaging models

Illustration

Moving average



Pros/Cons

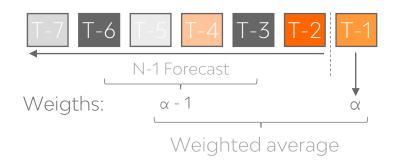
- Simple method with rolling horizon
- Does not differentiate last N observations.
- Ignores previous observations

Weighted moving average



- Most recent observations are "heavier" (weight)
- Differentiates last N observations randomly
- Ignores previous observations

Exponential Smoothing



- "Corrects", at each observation, the forecast value
- Most recent observations are exponentially "heavier"
- Uses all past observations
- Only requires the last observation and the last forecast to be kept
- \blacksquare Implies parametrizing α



Exponential Smoothing Methods



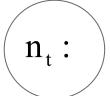


Series Without Trend and Without Seasonality

Forecasts

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(1) = \hat{Z}_{t}(2) = \dots = \hat{Z}_{t}(k) = \dots = n_{t} = \hat{v}_{t}$$

 $\hat{Z}_{t}(k)$: Forecast of Z_{t+k} made in instant t, after knowing the data Z_{t} .



Estimative of time series level in instant *t*.

Simple Exponential Smoothing

$$n_{t} = \alpha \cdot Z_{t} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot n_{t-1} \qquad (0 \le \alpha \le 1)$$

Since
$$\hat{Z}_t(1) = n_t$$

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(1) = \alpha \cdot Z_{t} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \hat{Z}_{t-1}(1)$$

$$= \hat{Z}_{t-1}(1) + \alpha \cdot \left[Z_{t} - \hat{Z}_{t-1}(1) \right]$$

$$= \hat{Z}_{t-1}(1) + \alpha \cdot e_{t} \qquad (0 \le \alpha \le 1)$$

 α : Smoothing rate

 e_t : Forecast error in instant t

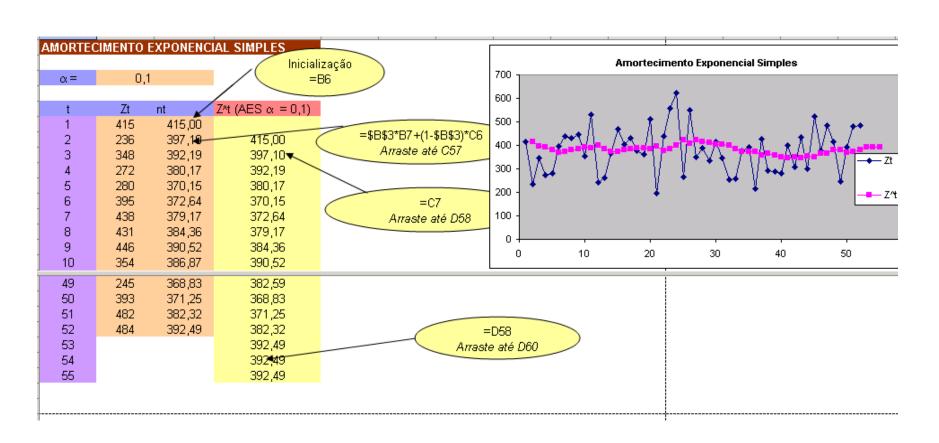
Exponential Smoothing Methods



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Simple Exponential Smoothing

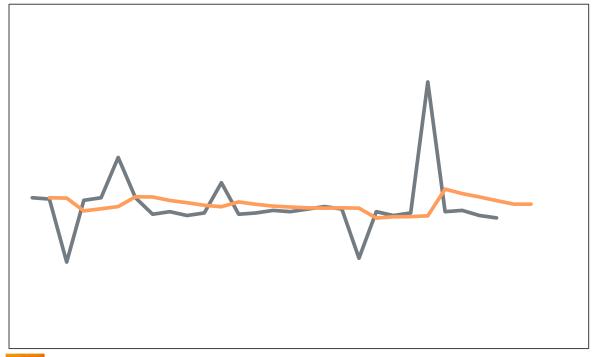


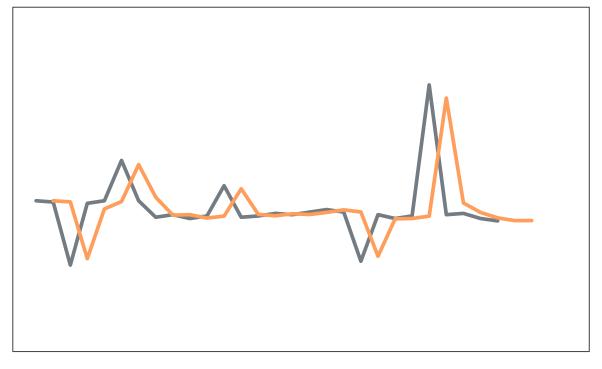


Smoothing factors determine how reactive usiness forecast model is towards demand variations.









Exponential Smoothing Methods Local stationary Time Series: Tracking Signal





Adaptive Exponential Smoothing de Trigg & Leach

$$TS_{t} = \frac{EA_{t}}{EAA_{t}}$$

$$EA_{t} = \beta \cdot e_{t} + (1 - \beta) \cdot EA_{t-1} \qquad \text{(Smoothed Error)}$$

$$EAA_t = \beta \cdot |e_t| + (1 - \beta) \cdot EAA_{t-1}$$
 (Absolute Smoothed Error)

$$e_{t} = Z_{t} - \hat{Z}_{t-1}(1)$$
 (Forecast Error)

 β : smoothing rate (constant) of forecast error and absolute forecast error

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\mathrm{t}} = \left| TS_{t} \right|$$



Naive Forecasts (equal to alfa=1)





- ✓ A naive forecast for any period equals the previous period's actual value
- ✓ Low cost, easy to prepare, easy to understand, but less accurate forecasts
- ✓ Can be applied to seasonal or trend data

Examples:

- If last week's demand was 50 units, the naive forecast for the coming week is 50 units.
- If seasonal pattern exists, the naive forecast for next January would equal the actual demand for January of this year.



Exponential Smoothing Methods

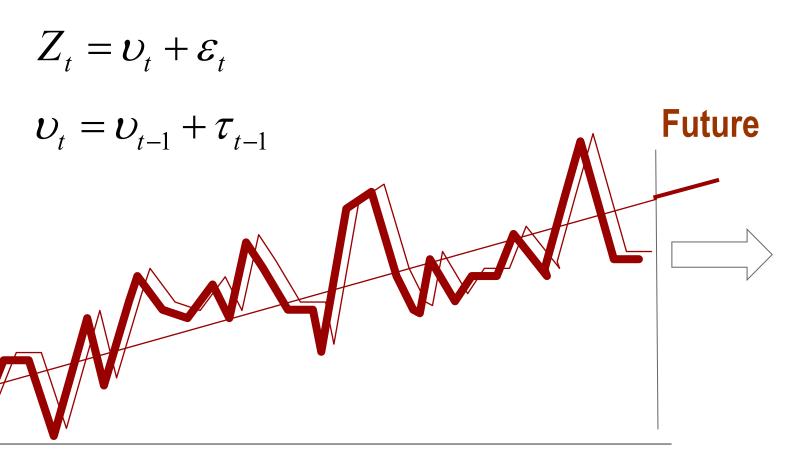




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Series With Trend and Without Seasonality

Time Series (Z_t)





Exponential Smoothing Methods Series With Trend and Without Seasonality





Forecasts

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(k) = n_{t} + b_{t} \cdot k$$

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(k)$$
: Forecast of Z_{t+k} made in instant t , after knowing the data Z_{t}

$$n_t = \hat{\mathcal{O}}_t$$
: Estimate of the level of the series in instant t .

$$b_t = \hat{\tau}_t$$
: Estimate of the trend of the series

Linear Holt Exponential Smoothing

$$n_{t} = \alpha \cdot Z_{t} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot (n_{t-1} + b_{t-1}) \qquad 0 \le \alpha \le 1$$

$$b_{t} = \beta \cdot (n_{t} - n_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta) \cdot b_{t-1} \qquad 0 \le \beta \le 1$$

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(k) = n_{t} + b_{t} \cdot k$$

Initialization:

$$b_1 = 0$$
$$n_1 = Z_1$$



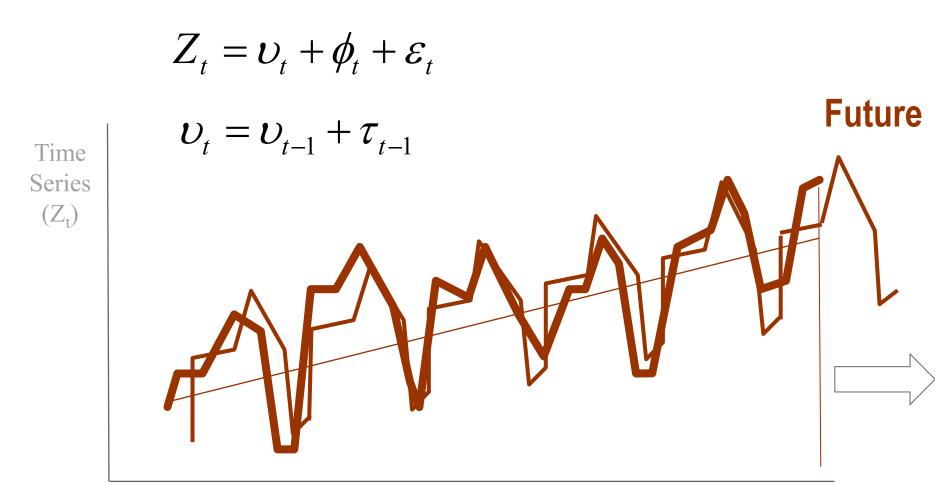
Exponential Smoothing Methods





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Series With Trend and Seasonality







Besides level, ES models may consider trend and seasonality as well



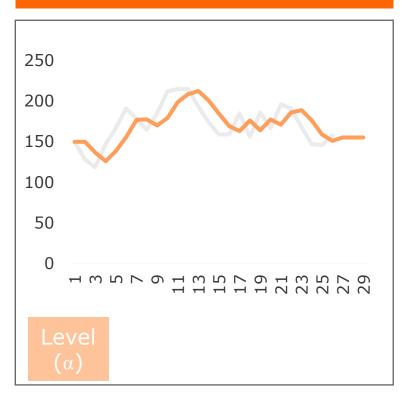


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Exponential smoothing models



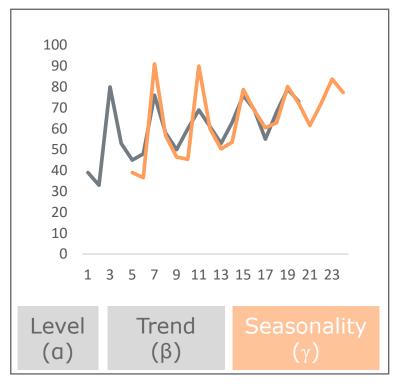
Simple Exponential Smoothing (Simple ES)



Holt's Method (Trend ES)



Holt Winters' Method (Seasonal ES)





Exponential Smoothing Methods HoltWinters: Series With Trend and Seasonality





Forecasts

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(k) = n_{t} + b_{t} \cdot k + f_{t+k-s}$$

 $Z_{t}(k)$

Forecast of Z_{t+k} made in instant t, after knowing the data Z_{+}

 $n_{t} = \hat{\mathcal{O}}_{t}$

Estimate level of series in instant *t*.

 $b_{t} = \hat{\tau}_{t}$

Estimate of the trend of the series.

$$f_{t+k-s} = \hat{\phi}_{t+k}$$

 $f_{t+k-s} = \hat{\phi}_{t+k}$ Estimate of the seasonal component for instant t+k.



Holt-Winters Method – Additive Model

$$n_{t} = \alpha \cdot (Z_{t} - f_{t-s}) + (1 - \alpha) \cdot (n_{t-1} + b_{t-1}) \qquad 0 \le \alpha \le 1$$

$$b_{t} = \beta \cdot (n_{t} - n_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta) \cdot b_{t-1} \qquad 0 \le \beta \le 1$$

$$f_{t} = \gamma \cdot (Z_{t} - n_{t}) + (1 - \gamma) \cdot f_{t-s} \qquad 0 \le \gamma \le 1$$

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(k) = n_{t} + b_{t} \cdot k + f_{t+k-s}$$
, for $k = 1, 2, ..., s$
 $\hat{Z}_{t}(k) = n_{t} + b_{t} \cdot k + f_{t+k-2s}$, for $k = s+1, s+2, ..., 2s$

Initialization:

$$i) n_s = Z^* = \frac{1}{S} \cdot \sum_{t=1}^{S} Z_t$$

$$ii)$$
 $b_s = 0$

iii)
$$f_j = Z_j - Z^*$$
 $(j = 1, ..., s)$

Croston Method for Intermittent Demand

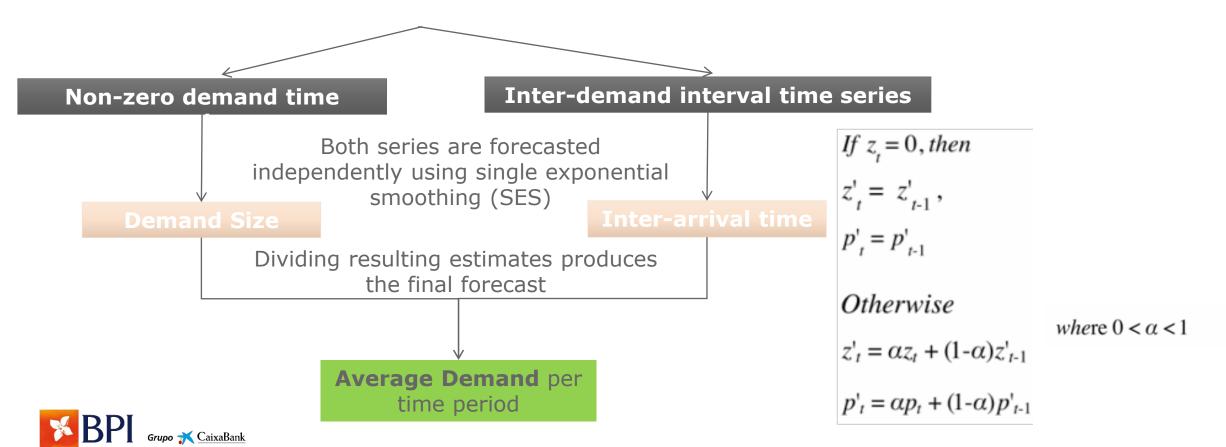




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When a product experiences several periods of zero demand. Often demand is small, and sometimes highly variable in size.

Separates intermittent data into two components

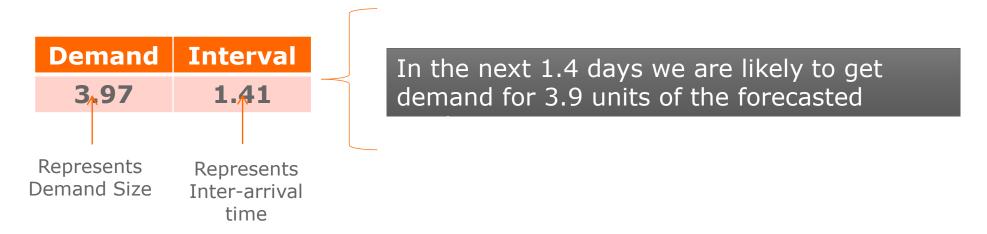


Interpreting Croston Results





Sample outputs from Croston



Assuming we are forecasting for next 5 days, below will be the output for average demand for these 5 days.







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Forecast's error impacts the entire planning Business activities and lead to future uncertainty / University of Porto



— Sales — Forecast

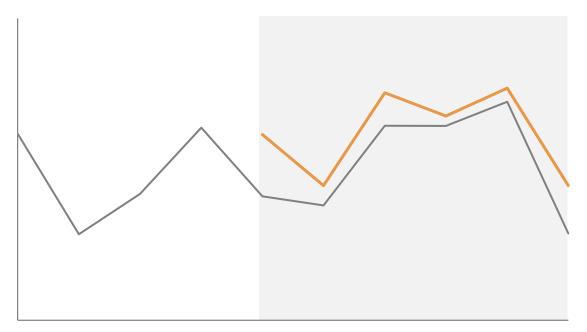
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Why does this topic matter?

Forecast with **positive** BIAS (overshooting)

What's the expected impact of such forecast's behavior?

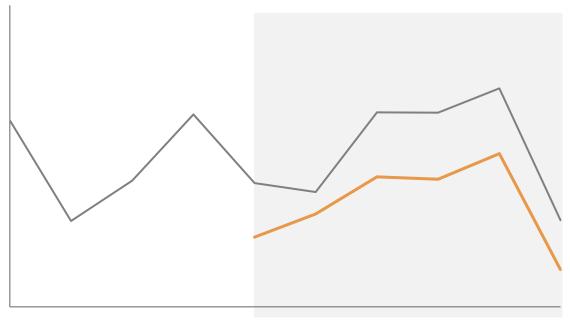
Sales



Forecast with **negative** BIAS (undershooting)

What's the expected impact of such forecast's behavior?

Sales



Time

Time



Forecast errors impacts companies in different ways





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Example of a "fresh" food retailer



Stockouts



Lack of Visibility



Depreciated sales



Shrinkage

Sales Underestimation

- Lost sales potential
- Reduced customer loyalty and satisfaction

Sales Overestimation

- Unnecessary stock level increase
- Increase in capital, transportation and warehousing costs regarding stock
- Higher risk of expiring validity (shrinkage)

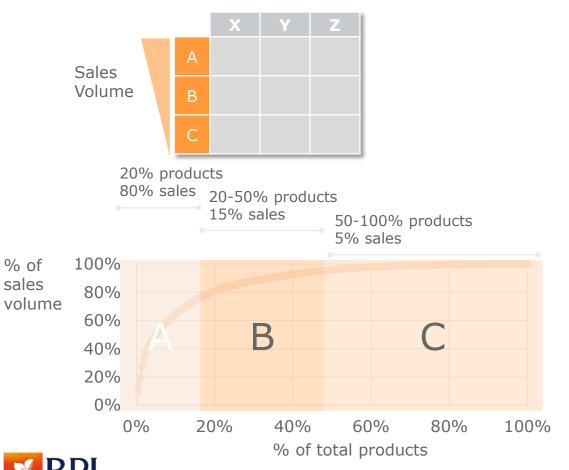


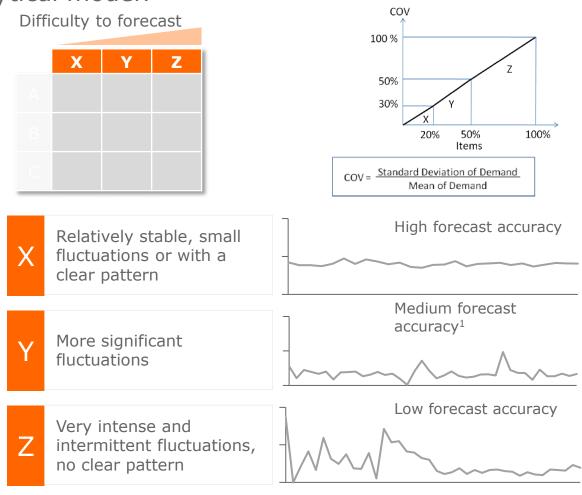
An ABC/XYZ analysis allows to differentiate Porto Business products based on their relevance in sales school and difficulty to forecast



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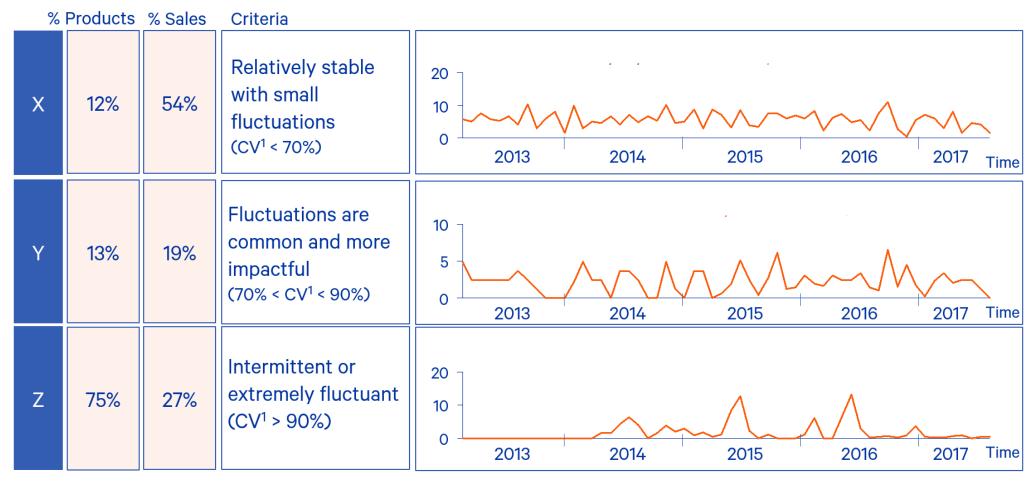
An XYZ analysis differentiates products over their variability and thus the difficulty of forecast generation





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Example#1



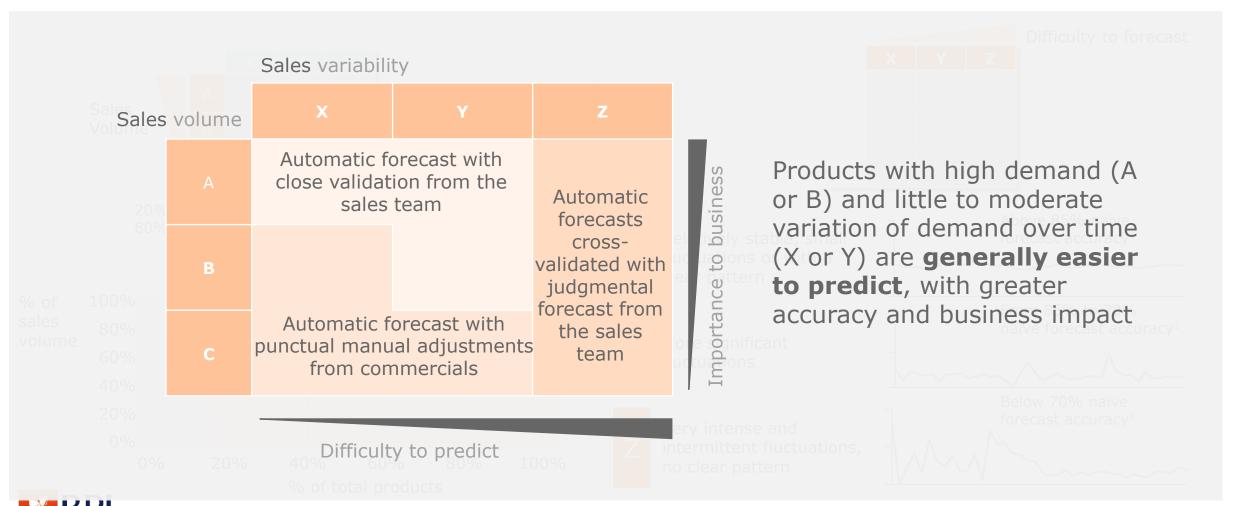


An ABC/XYZ analysis allows to differentiate products based on their relevance in sales and difficulty to forecast relevance





Forecast evaluation



Exercise ABC/XYZ: Italian Retailer





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Open Sales Data.xls





Commercial inputs are increasingly important for Y and Z products





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ABC/XYZ analysis

%analyzed SKUs | 60,3%

%in total sales

96,6%



Approved (system) forecast accuracy¹

		Х	Y	Z
Sales Volume	Α	13,0%	10,6%	4,1%
	В	6,8%	11,1%	7,9%
	С	13,6%	11,7%	21,2%
Difficulty to forecast				

	Y	Z
A 45,3%	26,7%	8,2%
B 4,3%	6,2%	4,3%
C 1,3%	1,1%	2,5%

	X	Y	Z
Α	89,2% (86,4%)	81,0% (69,7%)	66,2% (54,9%)
В	82,0% (82,1%)	76,5% (74,6%)	49,8% (45,0%)
С	85,7% (81,9%)	73,8% (77,9%)	52,5% (50,6%)
	+2,58pp	+9,09pp	+7,87pp

Commercial validation impact (weighted by sales)



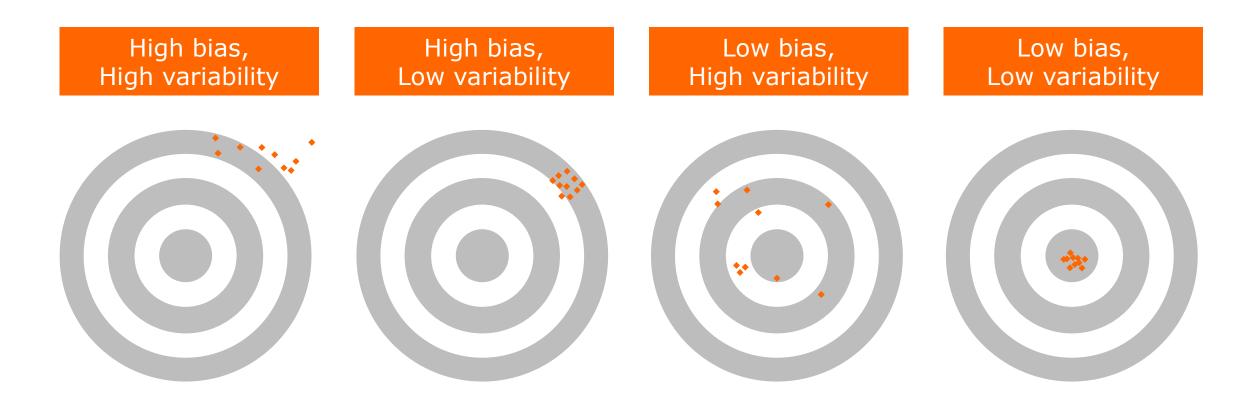
1 accuracy measured at SKU x month level, system accuracy in brackets



Evaluating forecast's performance is crucial siness in order to fine-tune the predictive models iversity of Porto



Forecast evaluation



Bias: systematic overestimation (or underestimation)

Variability: random error (unpredictable)





There is a variety of metrics that can be used to evaluate forecast's precision, both relative and absolute



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Absolute Measures

$$e_t = \hat{Z}_t - Z_t$$

$$ME = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t}{n}$$

Mean Error

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} |e_t|}{n}$$

Mean Absolute Error

$$MSE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} e_t^2}{n}$$

Mean Squared Error

Relative Measures

$$PE_t = \left(\frac{\hat{Z}_t - Z_t}{Z_t}\right) x \, 100$$
 Percentual Error

$$BIAS(MPE) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} PE_t}{n}$$
 Mean Percentual Error

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} |PE_t|}{n}$$

Mean Absolute Percentual Error

MAPE and BIAS are the most common metrics to evaluate forecast's precision. These metrics are weighted by the sales in order to guarantee that forecasting errors in high seller products contribute more significantly for the global error



Metrics may be weighted given the importance of each product





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Example

Simple Average

$$BIAS(EPM) = \frac{\sum_{i}^{N} BIAS_{i}}{N}$$

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum_{i}^{N} MAPE_{i}}{N}$$

MAPE=60%

Weighted Average

$$BIAS(EPM) = \frac{\sum_{i}^{N} (\hat{Z}_{i} - Z_{i})}{\sum_{i}^{N} Z_{i}}$$

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum_{i}^{N} \left| \hat{Z}_{i} - Z_{i} \right|}{\sum_{i}^{N} Z_{i}}$$

A B C
Vendas: 10 000 500 20
MAPE: 10% 70% 100%

MAPE=13%

Note: Z_t – Real sales at period t; \hat{Z}_t – Sales forecast, at t-1, for period t



MAPE and BIAS provide distinct, rich Busine information at different aggregation levels School Control of Ports of Ports





Forecast evaluation



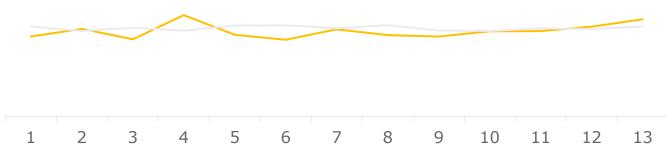


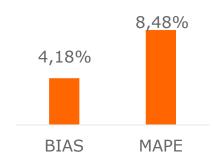
MAPE - Mean absolute percentual error evaluates the mean deviation at a detailed level



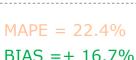
BIAS - Forecast bias identifies systematic deviations, either underestimation or overestimation

Aggregated level (e.g. group of products)





Detailed level (e.g. product)











1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10111213

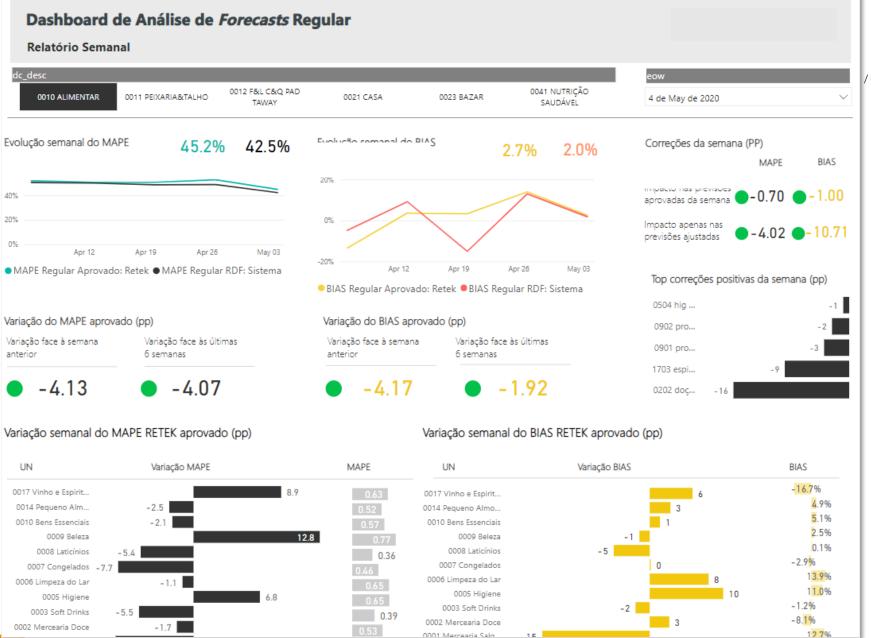




1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10111213







Grupo KaixaBank





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Gorgeous Ice Cream Case Study





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Outliers: atypical values caused by "rare" events Business School or data entry errors



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Analyze demand data and identify demand patterns

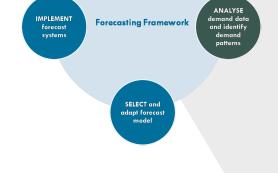
Outliers https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UIAuPDpnwfY



Additive outliers



Transitory changes



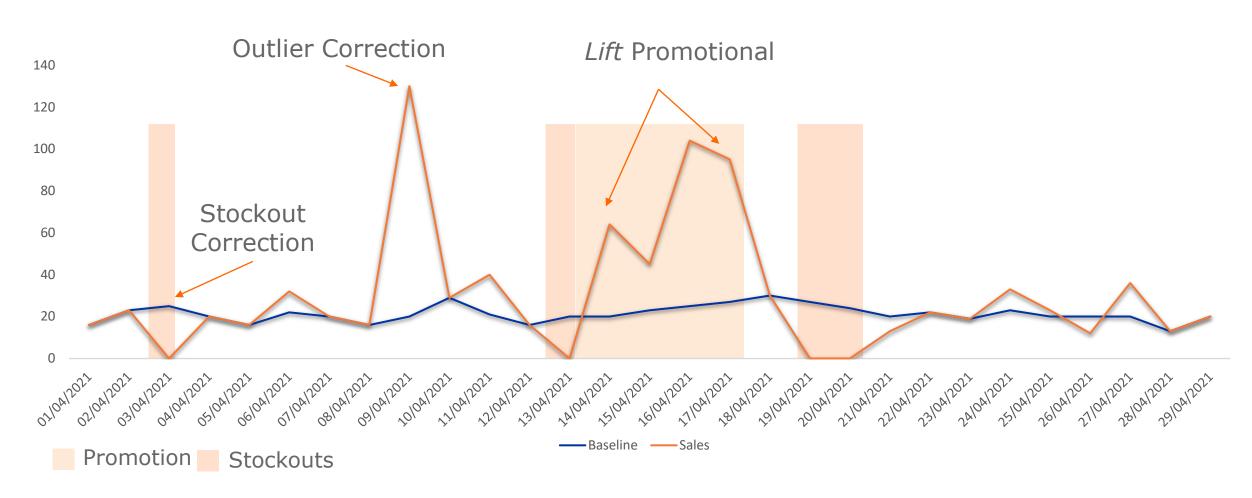


Before generating forecast, the historical baseline should be created





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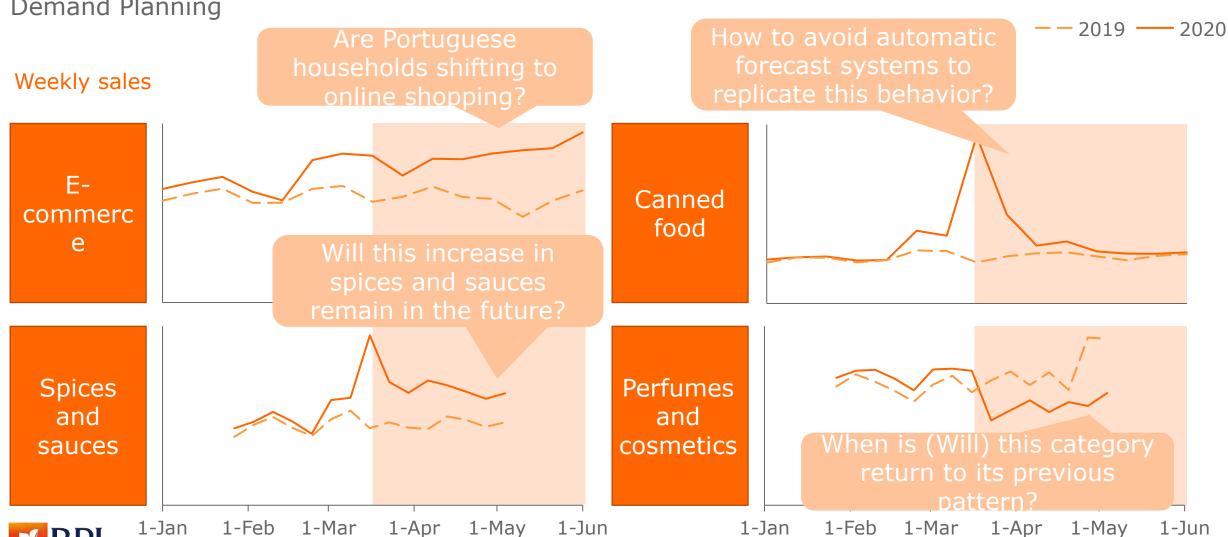


Many sectors have recently experienced dramatic Port Changes on demand - relying solely on history is School



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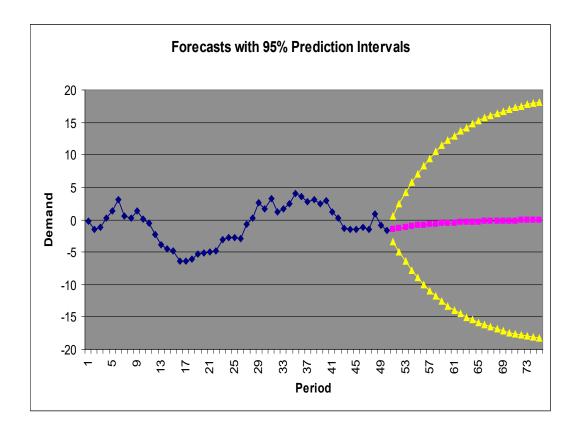
Prediction Intervals





We can create prediction intervals of the basic form:

"There is a xx% probability that the actual future value will fall in the range Forecast \pm K (example: K=1.96* σ (forecast error), for 95% of confidence)





Carlson Department Store Case Study





- (1) the amount of sales Carlson would have made if the hurricane had not struck;
- (2) whether Carlson is entitled to any compensation for excess sales from increased business activity after the storm



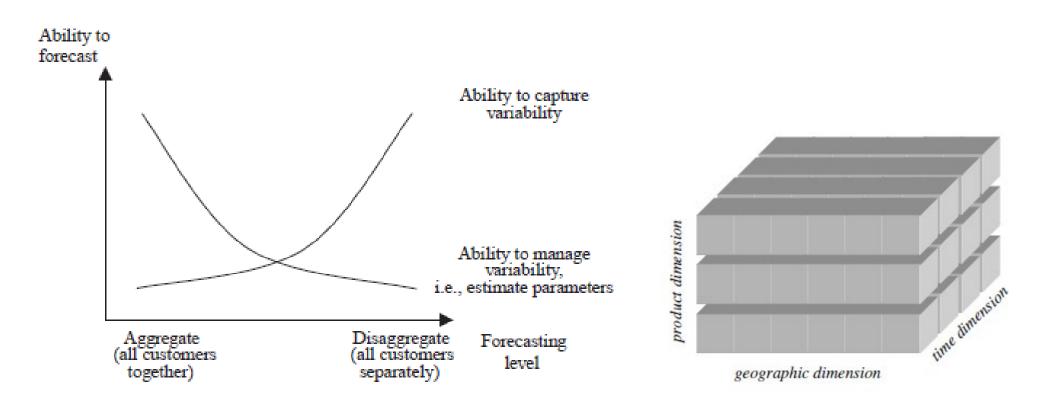


Impact of aggregation level on forecasting performance



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When comparing top-down with bottom-up forecasting processes it is often appropriate to measure forecasting accuracy both at aggregate and disaggregate level

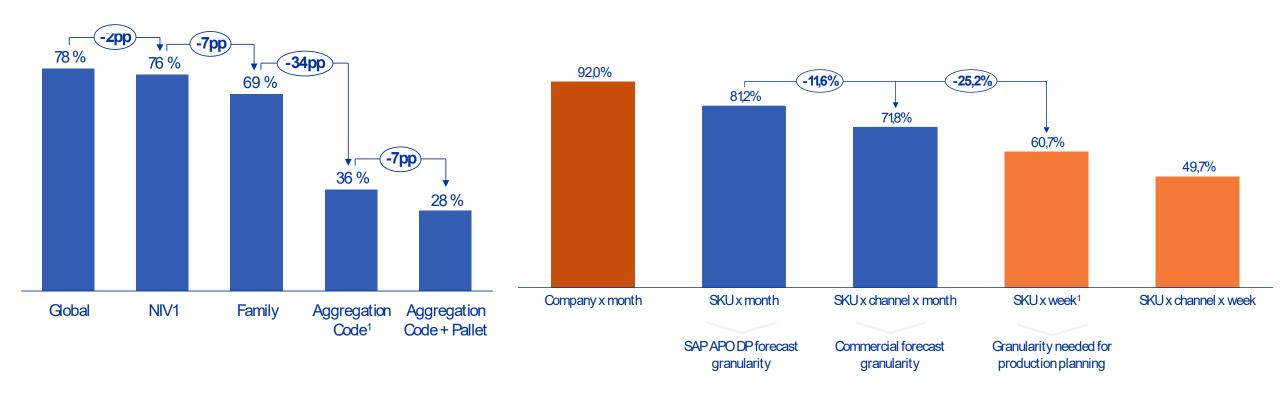


Forecast Accuracy at different aggregation levels School





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Impact of aggregation level on forecasting performance

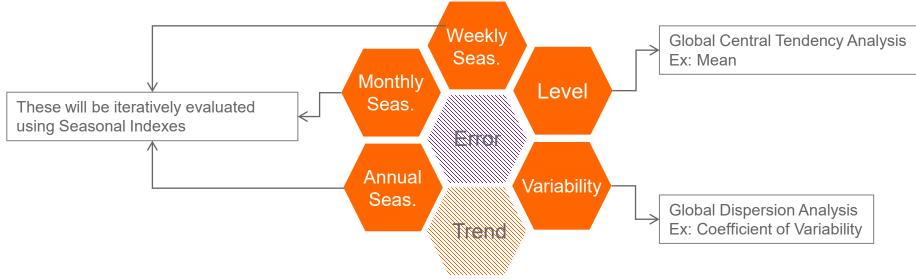




Aggregation Policies

Clustering Process

- Select & Calculate Explanatory Variables Item Clustering
 - The set of explanatory variables are the inputs for the clustering process to determine which observations are alike and which aren't;
 - Therefore, these inputs should be based on the time series components:





Impact of aggregation level on forecasting performance

cluster_2 □ cluster_0 ■ cluster_4 □ cluster_1 ■ cluster_3



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Aggregation Policies

Clustering according to several likelihood variables.

1.00 0.95



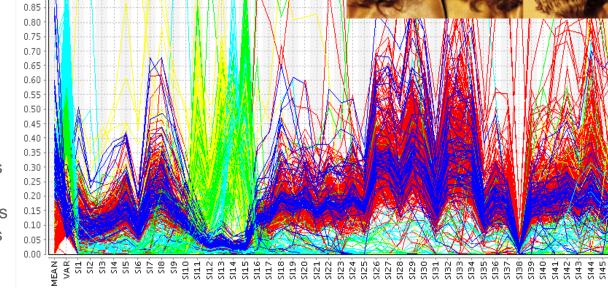
- Honey & Sweets
- Deserts



✓ Cl.0 – 63 SKU's ✓ Cl.1 – 133 SKU's ✓ Cl.2 – 55 SKU's

 \checkmark Cl. 3 – 463 SKU's

✓ CI.4 – 150 SKU's







Impact of aggregation level on forecasting performance





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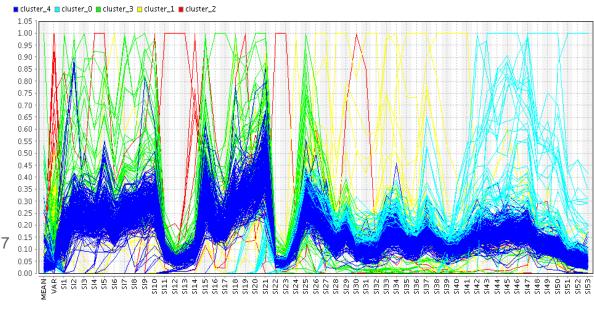
Aggregation Policies

Clustering according to several likelihood variables.

- Water
- Beverages
- Soda

K-Means

- ➤ K=5
- ightharpoonup Avg. Dist = -0.572
- Daves Bouldin = -1.277
- Example Dist. = 0.534



429 SKU's

- ✓ CI.0 49 SKU's
- ✓ Cl.1 31 SKU's
- ✓ Cl.2 7 SKU's
- ✓ Cl. 3 36 SKU's
- ✓ CI.4 306 SKU's

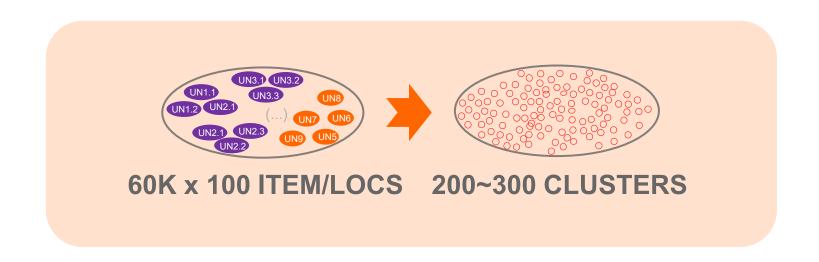


Impact of aggregation level on forecasting performance





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The Role of Time Series

Time Series Methods: Exponential Smoothing

Accuracy, Outliers and Aggregation

Hybrid Methods

Box & Jenkins





Using advanced analytic models with many sources of sinsights to understand how demand evolve



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Dados transacionais

- Vendas históricas
- Atributos hierárquicos de material, cliente, centro, etc.

Modelos temporais Previsão Base (artigo sem.)

Modelos causais (ML¹) Previsão a validar

Métodos de validação

Dados exógenos

Informação meteorológica, comercial, de cliente, socioeconómica, etc.

Metodologia de forecast



Using advanced analytic models with many sources of insights to understand how demand evolve





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Time-series

Holt-Winters + ensemble

- Capturam os efeitos temporais de uma série de vendas - nível, sazonalidade e tendência
- Maior explicabilidade

Machine learning (ML)

GLM

(Generalized linear model)

GBM

(Gradient boosting machine)

RF¹ Pandom Fores



- Permitem a incorporação de variáveis exógenas para além da série de vendas, estimando a importância de cada uma para a previsão final
 - Self-learning dos parâmetros dos modelos com a alteração do histórico

Maior **explicabilidade**

Capturam **efeitos não-lineares e interação entre variáveis**



- Não permitem a incorporação de variáveis exógenas
- Necessária atualização manual de parâmetros

Assumem a linearidade de efeitos

Podem levar a uma maior **complexidade de interpretação**





Leading organizations are using advanced analytic models with many sources of insights to understand how demand evolve

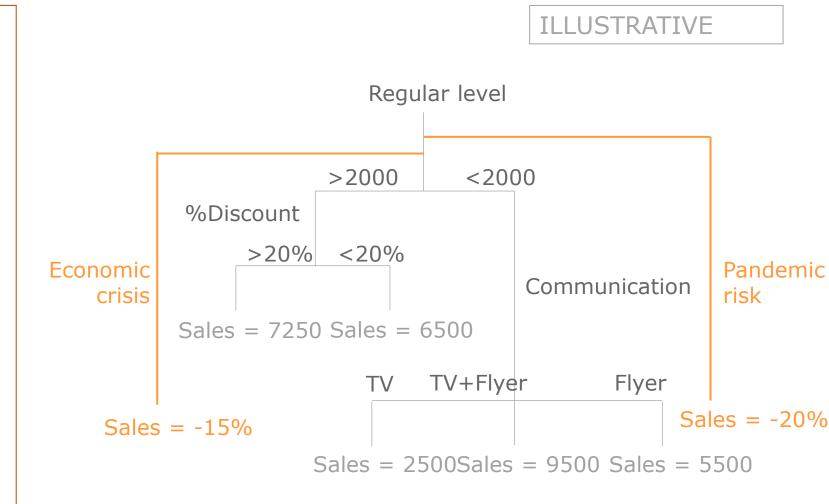




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Use advanced analytic models (e.g. Machine Learning) and leverage internal and external sources of information to extract patterns and insights out of the past sales



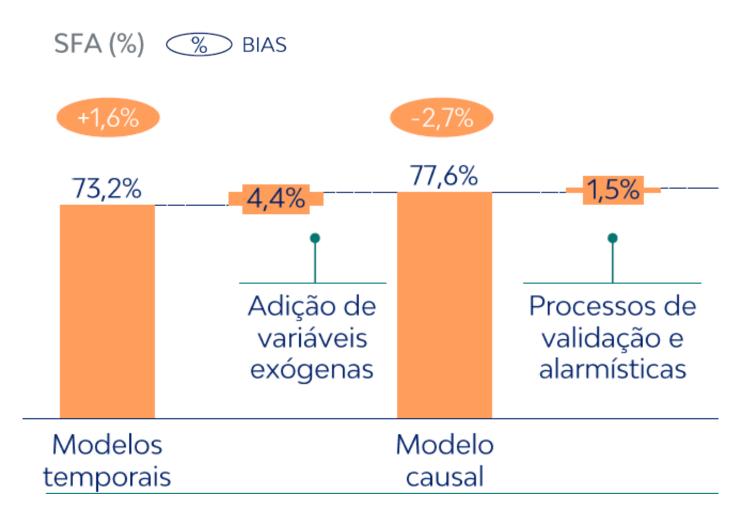


Using advanced analytic models with many sources iness School of insights to understand how demand evolve





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The Role of Time Series

Time Series Methods: Exponential Smoothing

Accuracy, Outliers and Aggregation

Hybrid Methods

Box & Jenkins





B&J: Base Idea of the method





WHATEVER THE FORECASTING MODELS, THE FORECASTS ARE OBTAINED FROM THE AVAILABLE OBSERVATIONS, ACCORDING TO A FUNCTION OF TYPE

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(k) = f(Z_{t}, Z_{t-1}, Z_{t-2}, ...)$$

IN THE PREVIOUS METHODS, EACH OF THEM BASED ON ITS OWN, THE ADOPTION OF A METHOD INVOLVED THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE BASIC STRUCTURE OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FORECASTS AND AVAILABLE DATA

$$\hat{\mathbf{Z}}_{t}(1) = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{Z}_{t} + \alpha \cdot (1 - \alpha) \cdot \mathbf{Z}_{t-1} + \cdots$$

FOR EXAMPLE, IN THE SIMPLE EXPONENTIAL SMOOTHING METHOD ONLY ONE DEGREE OF FREEDOM WAS AVAILABLE TO ADAPT THE MODEL TO REALITY: THE CHOICE OF α

B&J: Base Idea of the method





IN THE APPROACH PROPOSED BY BOX AND JENKINS

- A WIDE RANGE OF ALTERNATIVE MODELS IS CONSIDERED
- ON THE BASIS OF HISTORICAL OBSERVATIONS, IT IS CALCULATED THAT DIFFERENT STATISTICS ARE CARRIED OUT ON THE BASIS OF THESE DIFFERENT TESTS THAT ALLOW YOU TO CHECK WHICH OF THE MODELS IT IS THE ONE THAT BEST ADAPTS TO THE AVAILABLE DATA







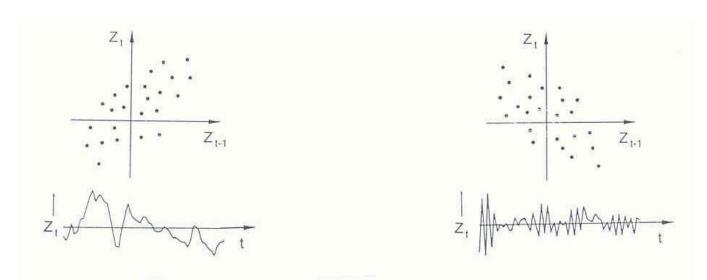
<u>Autoregressive Models</u>

• THE SIMPLEST MODEL THAT TRANSLATES THE EXISTENCE OF CORRELATION BETWEEN THE SUCCESSIVE TERMS OF A SERIES IS

$$Z_t = \phi_1 \cdot Z_{t-1} + E_t$$
 COM $E_t \sim IN(0, \sigma_E^2)$

 $\phi_1 > 0$

$$\phi_1 < 0$$









<u>Autoregressive Models</u>

/...

ANOTHER, MORE COMPLICATED MODEL FOR TRANSLATING THE EXISTENCE OF CORRELATION BETWEEN THE SUCCESSIVE TERMS OF A SERIES WOULD BE

$$Z_{t} = \phi_{1} \cdot Z_{t-1} + \phi_{2} \cdot Z_{t-2} + E_{t} \qquad COM E_{t} \sim IN(0, \sigma_{E}^{2})$$

IN GENERAL, AN AUTOREGRESSIVE MODEL OF ORDER p CAN BE DEFINED AS FOLLOWS:

AR (p):
$$Z_t = \phi_1 \cdot Z_{t-1} + \phi_2 \cdot Z_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p \cdot Z_{t-p} + E_t$$
 COM $E_t \sim IN(0, \sigma_E^2)$

THE DESIGNATION OF THE MODEL - AUTOREGRESSIVE - HAS ITS ORIGIN IN THE FACT THAT IT IS A REGRESSION OF THE VARIABLE Z_t IN FUNCTION OF ITSELF, BUT WITH A LAG 1, 2, ..., p .../







<u>Autoregressive Models</u>

A MORE SUCCINCT... WAY OF REPRESENTING AN AR(p) MODEL IS ACHIEVED BY USING THE 'BACK SHIFT OPERATOR'

IT IS AN OPERATOR THAT, WHEN APPLIED TO THE REALIZATION OF AMY VARIABLE AT THE TIME t A TRANSFORMS IT INTO THE REALIZATION OF THAT VARIABLE IN t-1

$$BZ_{t} = Z_{t-1}$$
 $B^{2}Z_{t} = B(BZ_{t}) = BZ_{t-1} = Z_{t-2}$
 (\cdots)

$$B^j Z_t = Z_{t-j}$$







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<u>Autoregressive Models</u>

USING OPERATOR B, THE AR(p) TURNS INTO

$$\begin{split} & Z_{t} = \phi_{1} Z_{t-1} + \phi_{2} Z_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_{p} Z_{t-p} + E_{t} \\ & Z_{t} - \phi_{1} Z_{t-1} - \phi_{2} Z_{t-2} - \dots - \phi_{p} Z_{t-p} = E_{t} \\ & \Big(1 - \phi_{1} B - \phi_{2} B^{2} - \dots - \phi_{p} B^{p} \Big) Z_{t} = E_{t} \end{split}$$

$$\mathsf{AR}\,(\mathsf{p})\colon\quad \varphi(\mathsf{B})\mathsf{Z}_\mathsf{t}=\mathsf{E}_\mathsf{t}$$

WHERE Φ(B) REPRESENTS A POLYNOMIAL OF DEGREE p IN B







Moving Average Models

AUTOREGRESSIVE MODELS CAN BE MANIPULATED AND EXPRESSED THE VARIABLE \mathcal{Z}_t AS A FUNCTION OF ERRORS RECORDED AT TIME t OR AT EARLIER INSTANTS

EXAMPLE

AR(1):
$$Z_{t} = \phi_{1}Z_{t-1} + E_{t}$$

$$= \phi_{1} \cdot (\phi_{1}Z_{t-2} + E_{t-1}) + E_{t}$$

$$= \phi_{1}^{2}Z_{t-2} + \phi_{1}E_{t-1} + E_{t}$$

$$= \phi_{1}^{2} \cdot (\phi_{1}Z_{t-3} + E_{t-2}) + \phi_{1}E_{t-1} + E_{t}$$

$$= E_{t} + \phi_{1}E_{t-1} + \phi_{1}^{2}E_{t-2} + \phi_{1}^{3}E_{t-3} + \cdots$$







Moving Average Models

• .../

IN A MOVING AVERAGE MODEL OF ORDER q, THE VARIABLE Z_t IS EXPRESSED AS A FUNCTION OF THE ERRORS RECORDED AT THE TIME t AND IN THE PREVIOUS MOMENTS

A MODEL OF THE MOVING AVERAGE TYPE OF ORDER q IS THEN GIVEN BY

MA(q):
$$Z_t = E_t + \theta_1 \cdot E_{t-1} + \theta_2 \cdot E_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \cdot E_{t-q}$$

$$= (1 + \theta_1 \cdot B + \theta_2 \cdot B^2 + \dots + \theta_q \cdot B^q) \cdot E_t$$

$$= \theta(B) \cdot E_t$$

WHERE q(B) REPRESENTS A POLYNOMIAL OF DEGREE q IN B

AN AR MODEL WITH A FINITE NUMBER OF TERMS (AND THEREFORE WITH A FINITE NUMBER OF PARAMETERS) IS EQUIVALENT TO AN MA MODEL WITH AN INFINITE NUMBER OF PARAMETERS







Mixed Models

MIXED MODELS ARE MODELS THAT SIMULTANEOUSLY HAVE AN AR(P) COMPONENT AND AN MA(q) COMPONENT, BEING DENOTED MODELS(p,q)

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{ARMA}\,(\mathsf{p},\mathsf{q})\colon & \varphi(\mathsf{B})\cdot\mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t}} = \theta(\mathsf{B})\cdot\mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{t}} \\ & \left(1-\varphi_{\mathsf{1}}\cdot\mathsf{B}-\varphi_{\mathsf{2}}\cdot\mathsf{B}^{\mathsf{2}}-\cdots-\varphi_{\mathsf{p}}\cdot\mathsf{B}^{\mathsf{p}}\right)\cdot\mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t}} = \left(1+\theta_{\mathsf{1}}\cdot\mathsf{B}+\theta_{\mathsf{2}}\cdot\mathsf{B}^{\mathsf{2}}+\cdots+\theta_{\mathsf{q}}\cdot\mathsf{B}^{\mathsf{q}}\right)\cdot\mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{t}} \end{split}$$

ARMA(p,q) MODELS (WITH A FINITE NUMBER OF PARAMETERS) ARE ALSO CONVERTIBLE INTO AR OR MA MODELS WITH INFINITE NUMBER OF PARAMETERS







Model Selection

THE AIM OF THIS PHASE IS, ON THE ONE HAND, TO IDENTIFY, AMONG THE BJ MODELS, WHICH ONE(S) BEST SUITS EACH SERIES AND, ON THE OTHER HAND, TO PRELIMINARILY ESTIMATE THE PARAMETERS OF THE IDENTIFIED MODEL(S)

THE IDENTIFICATION OF THE MODEL(S) IS CARRIED OUT ON THE BASIS OF THE BEHAVIOR OF THE AUTOCORRELATION AND PARTIAL AUTOCORRELATION

$$\hat{\phi}_{kk} \sim N\left(\mu = 0, \ \sigma^2 \approx \frac{1}{N}\right)$$
, PARA k > p \Rightarrow MODELO AR(p)

$$r_k \sim N \left[\mu = 0, \ \sigma^2 \approx \frac{1}{N} \cdot \left(1 + 2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{q} r_i^2 \right) \right], \text{ PARA } k > q \implies \text{MODELO MA}(q)$$

 $\mathsf{NEM} \; \hat{\varphi}_{\mathsf{kk}} \; \mathsf{NEM} \; \; \mathsf{r}_{\mathsf{k}} \; \mathsf{SOFREM} \; \; \mathsf{UM} \, \text{``CUT OFF''} \qquad \qquad \Rightarrow \quad \mathsf{MODELO} \; \mathsf{ARMA}$





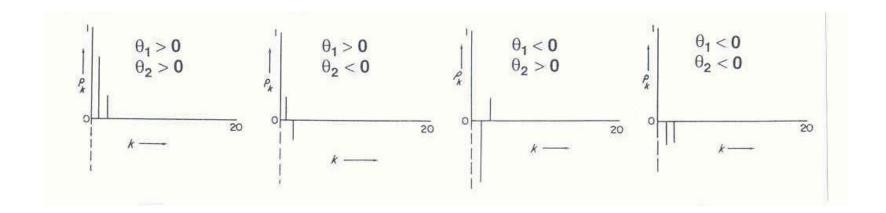


q .../

<u>Autocorrelation Function (f.a.c.)</u>

IN GENERAL, FOR A MA(q) MODEL, THE AUTOCORRELATIONS CANCEL EACH OTHER OUT FOR k>q; KNOWN AS 'CUT OFF', INSTEAD OF EXPONENTIAL DECAY

AS AN EXAMPLE, FOR A MODEL MA(2), THE PATTERNS THAT THE AUTOCORRELATION FUNCTION CAN DISPLAY ARE PRESENTED







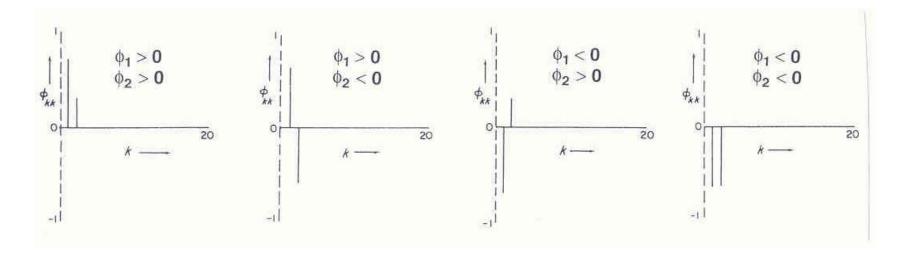


• q .../

Partial Autocorrelation Function (f.a.c.p.)

IN GENERAL, FOR A AR(p) MODEL, THE PARTIAL AUTOCORRELATIONS CANCEL EACH OTHER OUT FOR k>p; KNOWN AS 'CUT OFF', INSTEAD OF EXPONENTIAL DECAY

AS AN EXAMPLE, FOR A MODEL AR(2), THE PATTERNS THAT THE PARTIAL AUTOCORRELATION FUNCTION CAN DISPLAY ARE PRESENTED









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Model Selection

HYPOTHESIS TESTING OF AUTOCORRELATIONS

SUCCESSIVELY FOR q = 0, 1, 2, ..., CHECK IF $\rho_k = 0$ PARA k > q

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{H}_0 \colon \rho_k = 0 \\ & \text{H}_1 \colon \rho_k \neq 0 \\ & \text{ET} = \frac{r_k}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \cdot \left(1 + 2 \cdot \sum\limits_{i=1}^q r_i^2\right)}} \\ & \text{H}_0 \; \text{VERDADEIRA} \; \Rightarrow \; \text{ET} \; \sim N \, (0,1) \end{aligned}$$

BASED ON THIS TEST, IDENTIFY WHICH AUTOCORRELATIONS ARE SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT FROM ZERO







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Model Selection

HYPOTHESIS TESTING OF PARTIAL AUTOCORRELATIONS

VERIFY IF
$$\phi_{kk} = 0$$
 PARA $k > p$

$$\begin{split} &H_0\colon \varphi_{kk}=0\\ &H_1\colon \varphi_{kk}\neq 0\\ &ET=\frac{\hat{\varphi}_{kk}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N}}}\\ &H_0 \text{ VERDADEIRA } \Rightarrow ET \text{ PM}(0,1) \end{split}$$

BASED ON THIS TEST, IDENTIFY WHICH PARTIAL AUTOCORRELATIONS ARE SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT FROM ZERO

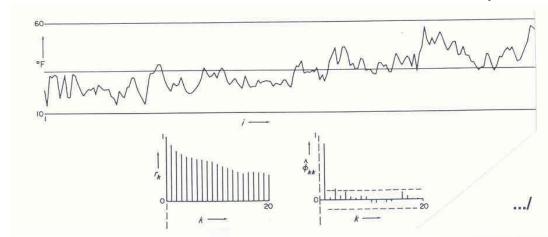


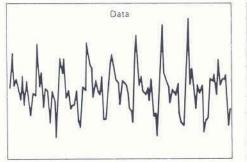


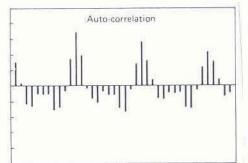
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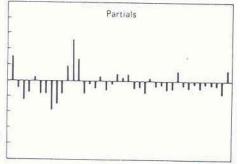
Non-stationary signals

In case the non-stationarity origins from level and trend variations or seasonalities, it is revealed from the f.a.c. as it does not present cut-offs for low lag values.







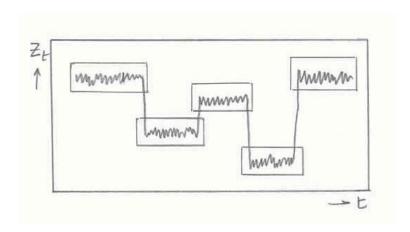






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Local stationary time series with "jumps"



Locally

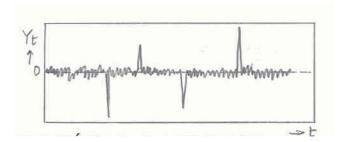
$$E(Z_t) \approx CONSTANTE$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad E\!\left(Z_t - Z_{t\text{-}1}\right) \approx 0$$

The differentiation of the original time series transforms it in a stationary time series

$$\mathbf{Y}_{t} = \mathbf{Z}_{t} - \mathbf{Z}_{t-1} = \nabla \mathbf{Z}_{t}$$

 $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{Y}_{t}) \approx \mathbf{0}$



$$Y_{t} = \phi_{1} \cdot Y_{t-1} + E_{t}$$

$$Z_{t} - Z_{t-1} = \phi_{1} \cdot (Z_{t-1} - Z_{t-2}) + E_{t}$$

$$AR(1) \qquad Z_{t} = (1 + \phi_{1}) \cdot Z_{t-1} - \phi_{1} \cdot Z_{t-2} + E_{t}$$

$$Z_{t+1} = (1 + \phi_{1}) \cdot Z_{t} - \phi_{1} \cdot Z_{t-1} + E_{t+1}$$

$$\hat{Z}_{t}(1) = (1 + \phi_{1}) \cdot Z_{t} - \phi_{1} \cdot Z_{t-1} + E_{t+1} = (1 + \phi_{1}) \cdot Z_{t} - \phi_{1} \cdot Z_{t-1}$$

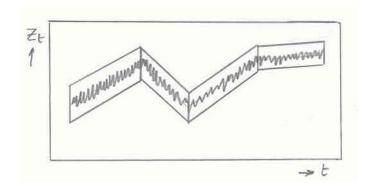




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Time series with local linear trends



Locally

$$E(Z_t) \approx \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \cdot t$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \textbf{E}\big(\textbf{Z}_{\textbf{t}}-\textbf{Z}_{\textbf{t-1}}\big) \approx \alpha_{\textbf{1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \textbf{E}\big[\!\big(\textbf{Z}_{t}-\textbf{Z}_{t\text{--}1}\big)\!-\!\big(\textbf{Z}_{t\text{--}1}-\textbf{Z}_{t\text{--}2}\big)\big]\!\approx \textbf{0}$$

Double differentiation

$$Y_t = \nabla^2 Z_t = \nabla (Z_t - Z_{t-1}) = (Z_t - Z_{t-1}) - (Z_{t-1} - Z_{t-2}) = Z_t - 2 \cdot Z_{t-1} + Z_{t-2}$$

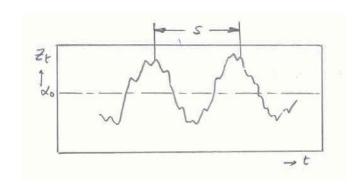
 $E(Y_t) \approx 0$







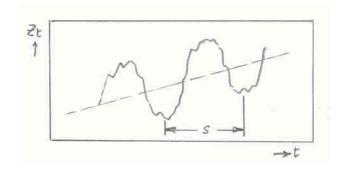
Seasonal time series: Seasonal Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average



$$E(Z_t) \approx \alpha_0 + f_t$$
 (f_t: COMP. SAZONAL ADITIVA, COM PERIODO s)

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $E(Z_t - Z_{t-s}) \approx 0$ $Y_t = \nabla_s Z_t = Z_t - Z_{t-s}$

$$Y_t = \nabla_s Z_t = Z_t - Z_{t-s}$$



$$\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{Z}_\mathsf{t}) \approx \alpha_\mathsf{0} + \alpha_\mathsf{1} \cdot \mathsf{t} + \mathsf{f}_\mathsf{t}$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{Z_t} - \mathbf{Z_{t-s}}) \approx \mathbf{s} \cdot \alpha_1$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $E[(Z_t - Z_{t-s}) - (Z_{t-1} - Z_{t-s-1})] \approx 0$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t}} - \mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t-s}}) \approx \mathsf{s} \cdot \alpha_{\mathsf{1}} \qquad \qquad \mathsf{Y}_{\mathsf{t}} = \nabla \nabla_{\mathsf{s}} \mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t}} = \left(\mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t}} - \mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t-s}}\right) - \left(\mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t-1}} - \mathsf{Z}_{\mathsf{t-s-1}}\right)$$

SARIMA (p, d, q) × (P, D, Q): $\Phi_{P}(B^{T}) \cdot \phi_{p}(B) \cdot \nabla^{d} \cdot \nabla^{D}_{s} Z_{t} = \Theta_{Q}(B^{T}) \cdot \theta_{q}(B) \cdot E_{t}$



(S)ARIMA for Python

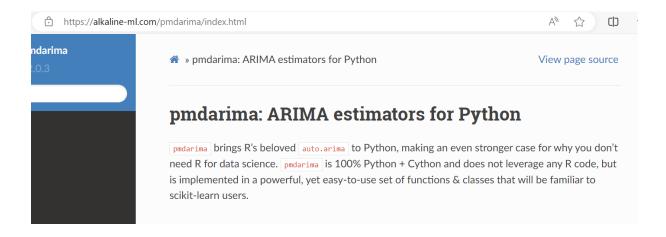




```
from pandas import read_csv
from pandas import datetime
from matplotlib import pyplot
from pandas.plotting import autocorrelation_plot

def parser(x):
    return datetime.strptime('190'+x, '%Y-%m')

series = read_csv('shampoo-sales.csv', header=0, parse_dates=[0], index_col=0, squeeze=True, date.
utocorrelation_plot(series)
pyplot.show()
```



statsmodels.tsa.arima.model.ARIMA

```
class statsmodels.tsa.arima.model.ARIMA(
    endog,
    exog=None,
    order=(0, 0, 0),
    seasonal_order=(0, 0, 0, 0),
    trend=None,
    enforce_stationarity=True,
    enforce_invertibility=True,
    concentrate_scale=False,
    trend_offset=1,
    dates=None,
    freq=None,
    missing='none',
    validate_specification=True
)
```



Prophet - procedure for forecasting time series data based on an additive model where non-linear trends are fit with yearly, weekly, and daily seasonality.







PROPHEI

Documentation

Installation

Using R

Using Python

Quick Start

Python API

RAPI

Saturating Forecasts

Forecasting Growth

Saturating Minimum

Trend Changepoints

Automatic changepoint detection in Prophet

Quick Start

Python API

Prophet follows the sklearn model API. We create an instance of the Prophet class and then call its fit and predict methods.

The input to Prophet is always a dataframe with two columns: ds and y. The ds (datestamp) column should be of a format expected by Pandas, ideally YYYY-MM-DD for a date or YYYY-MM-DD HH:MM:SS for a timestamp. The y column must be numeric, and represents the measurement we wish to forecast.



