HW 1

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Contents

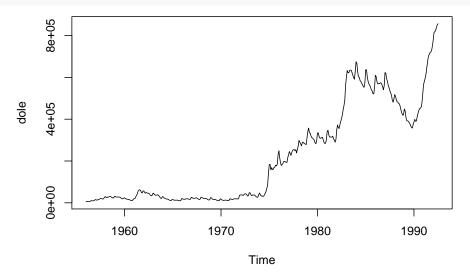
Secion 2.8	
Section 4.10	
Section 6.7	18

Secion 2.8

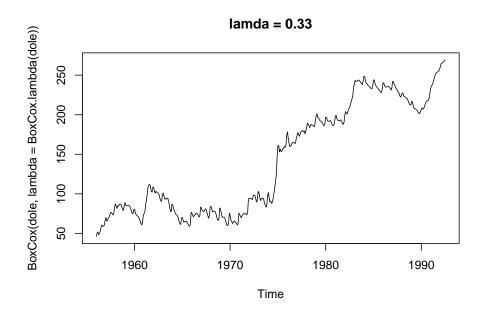
For each of the following series (from the fma package), make a graph of the data. If transforming seems appropriate, do so and describe the effect.

Monthly total of people on unemployed benefits in Australia (January 1956–July 1992).

plot(dole)

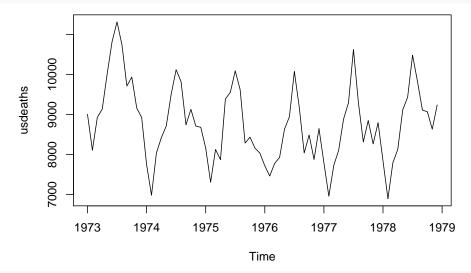


```
plot(BoxCox(dole,lambda = BoxCox.lambda(dole)),
    main=paste0('lamda = ',round(BoxCox.lambda(dole),2)))
```

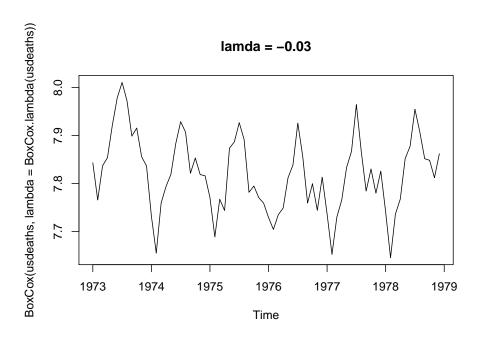


Monthly total of accidental deaths in the United States (January 1973–December 1978).

plot(usdeaths)



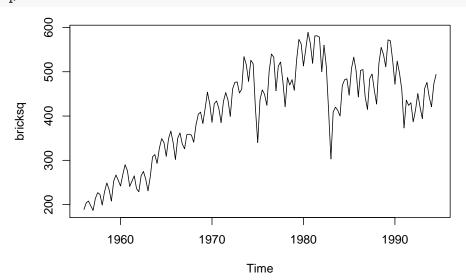
plot(BoxCox(usdeaths,lambda = BoxCox.lambda(usdeaths)),
 main=paste0('lamda = ',round(BoxCox.lambda(usdeaths),2)))



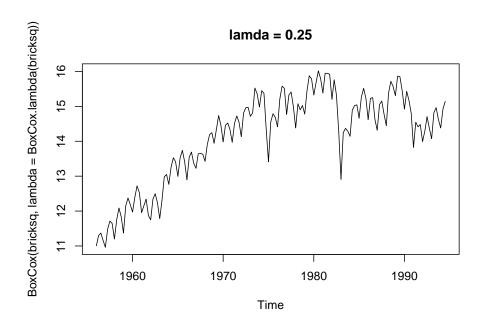
Quarterly production of bricks (in millions of units) at Portland,

Australia (March 1956-September 1994).

plot(bricksq)



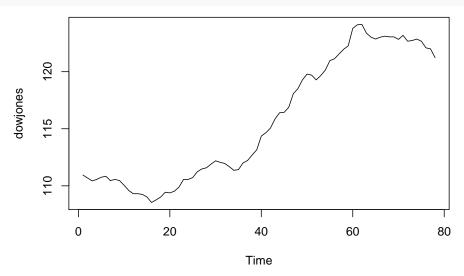
```
plot(BoxCox(bricksq,lambda = BoxCox.lambda(bricksq)),
    main=paste0('lamda = ',round(BoxCox.lambda(bricksq),2)))
```



Use the Dow Jones index (data set dowjones) to do the following:

Produce a time plot of the series.

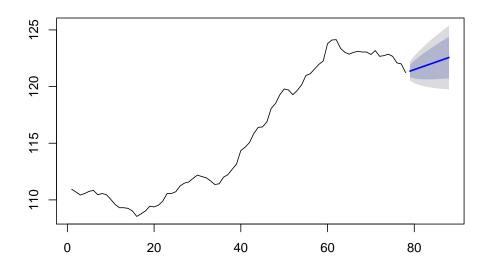
plot(dowjones)



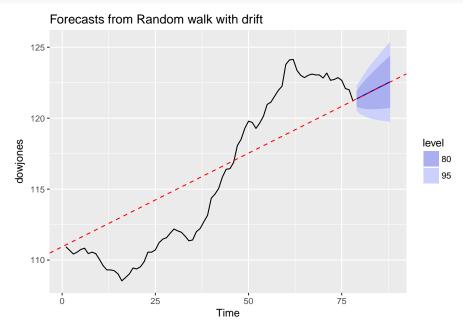
Produce forecasts using the drift method and plot them.

plot(rwf(dowjones,h=10, drift = T))

Forecasts from Random walk with drift



Show that the graphed forecasts are identical to extending the line drawn between the first and last observations.

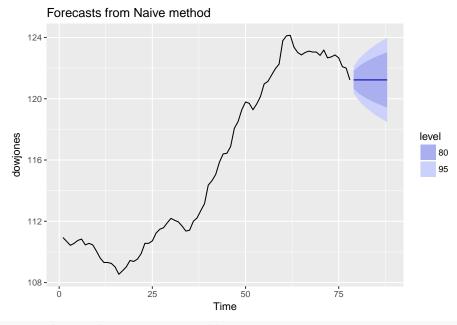


Try some of the other benchmark functions to forecast the same data set. Which do you think is best? Why?

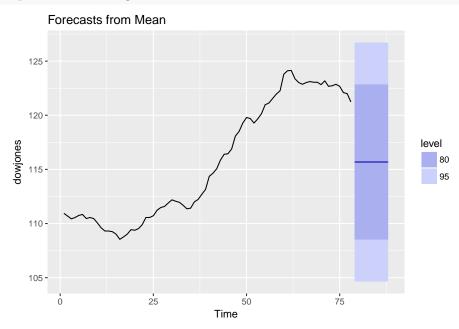
Perhaps the naive is a bit better than the drift model since at least it doesn't predict the signal is

going to increase! But, all of these are quite bad.

ggplot2::autoplot(naive(dowjones, h=10))



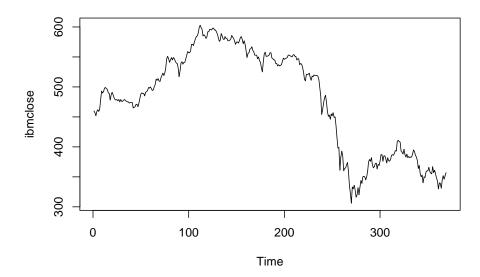
ggplot2::autoplot(meanf(dowjones, h=10))



Consider the daily closing IBM stock prices (data set ibmclose).

Produce some plots of the data in order to become familiar with it.

plot(ibmclose)



Split the data into a training set of 300 observations and a test set of 69 observations.

```
train <- window(ibmclose, end = 300)
test <- window(ibmclose, start = 301)</pre>
```

Try various benchmark methods to forecast the training set and compare the results on the test set. Which method did best?

```
nv <- naive(train)</pre>
snv <- snaive(train)</pre>
mf <- meanf(train)</pre>
drft <- rwf(train,drift = T)</pre>
forecast(nv, test) %>% accuracy
##
                         ME
                                 RMSE
                                           MAE
                                                        MPE
                                                                MAPE MASE
## Training set -0.2809365 7.302815 5.09699 -0.08262872 1.115844
## Training set 0.1351052
forecast(snv, test) %>% accuracy
##
                         ME
                                 RMSE
                                           MAE
                                                        MPE
                                                                MAPE MASE
## Training set -0.2809365 7.302815 5.09699 -0.08262872 1.115844
## Training set 0.1351052
forecast(mf, test) %>% accuracy
                                   RMSE
##
                            ME
                                              MAE
                                                         MPE
                                                                 MAPE
                                                                           MASE
## Training set 1.660438e-14 73.61532 58.72231 -2.642058 13.03019 11.52098
## Training set 0.9895779
```

forecast(drft, test) %>% accuracy

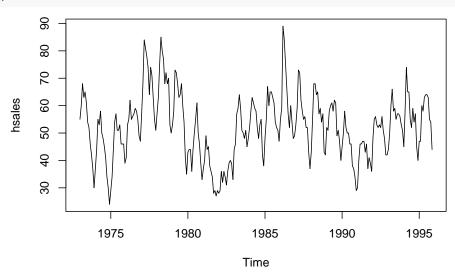
```
## ME RMSE MAE MPE MAPE MASE
## Training set -3.916293e-14 7.297409 5.127996 -0.02530123 1.12165 1.006083
## ACF1
## Training set 0.1351052
```

Looks like (using RMSE, MPE) the drift method seems (marginally) the better one.

Consider the sales of new one-family houses in the USA, Jan 1973 – Nov 1995 (data set hsales).

Produce some plots of the data in order to become familiar with it.

plot(hsales)



Split the hsales data set into a training set and a test set, where the test set is the last two years of data.

```
train <- window(hsales, end = 1992)
test <- window(hsales, start = 1993)</pre>
```

Try various benchmark methods to forecast the training set and compare the results on the test set. Which method did best?

```
nv <- naive(train)
snv <- snaive(train)
mf <- meanf(train)
drft <- rwf(train, drift = T)
forecast(nv, test) %>% accuracy
```

```
## ME RMSE MAE MPE MAPE MASE ## Training set -0.03070175 6.45735 5.153509 -0.8533137 10.2482 0.5983475
```

```
##
                     ACF1
## Training set 0.1730619
forecast(snv, test) %>% accuracy
##
                        ME
                                RMSE
                                          MAE
                                                    MPE
                                                             MAPE MASE
                                                                          ACF1
## Training set -0.5391705 10.80387 8.612903 -3.596793 18.05441
                                                                     1 0.83344
forecast(mf, test) %>% accuracy
                                                       MPE
##
                           ME
                                  RMSE
                                            MAE
                                                               MAPE
                                                                        MASE
## Training set 9.901644e-16 12.60327 10.00847 -6.596578 21.44585 1.162032
## Training set 0.8689799
forecast(drft, test) %>% accuracy
##
                            ME
                                   RMSE
                                             MAE
                                                         MPE
                                                                MAPE
                                                                          MASE
## Training set -3.812934e-13 6.457277 5.152701 -0.7901168 10.2439 0.5982537
## Training set 0.1730619
```

Using MASE, we can see that the naive or drift forecasts do fairly better than the others in this case.

Section 4.10

1. Electricity consumption was recorded for a small town on 12 randomly chosen days.

Here's what the electricity consumption data looks like:

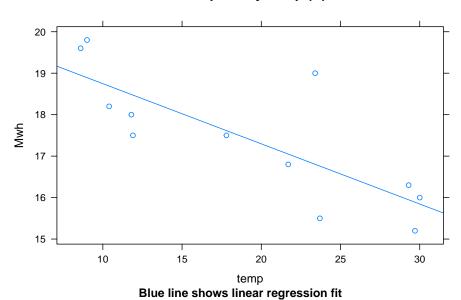
head(econsumption)

Mwh	temp
16.3	29.3
16.8	21.7
15.5	23.7
18.2	10.4
15.2	29.7
17.5	11.9

a. Plot the data and find the regression model for Mwh with temperature as an explanatory variable. Why is there a negative relationship?

Here's a plot of consumption by temperature.

Consumption by Temp (C)



Building a linear model:

```
fit <- lm(Mwh~temp, econsumption)
summary(fit)</pre>
```

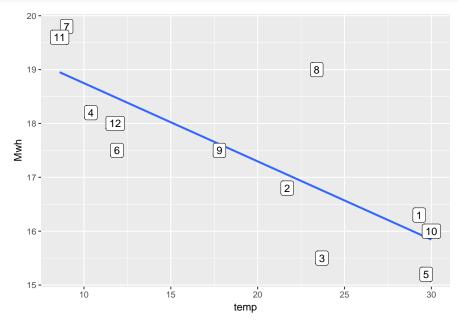
```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Mwh ~ temp, data = econsumption)
##
## Residuals:
##
       Min
                1Q
                   Median
                                 3Q
                                        Max
  -1.2593 -0.5395 -0.1827
                            0.4274
                                     2.1972
##
##
## Coefficients:
##
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
   (Intercept) 20.19952
                            0.73040
                                      27.66 8.86e-11 ***
## temp
               -0.14516
                            0.03549
                                      -4.09 0.00218 **
##
                   0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## Signif. codes:
##
## Residual standard error: 0.9888 on 10 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.6258, Adjusted R-squared:
## F-statistic: 16.73 on 1 and 10 DF, p-value: 0.00218
```

Both the coefficients are statistically significant at the 0.01 level, with a negative slope for temperature. The temperature range in question is between 10C and 30C, which would indicate that the increase in electric consumption as temperature reduces is due to usage of electric heaters in households. Thus the slope is negative.

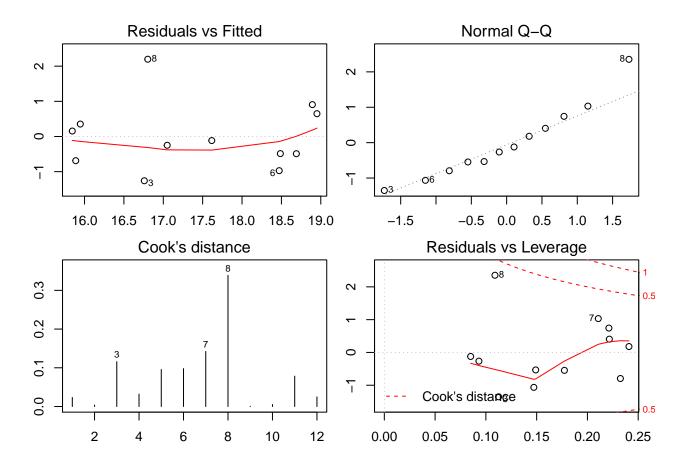
b. Produce a residual plot. Is the model adequate? Are there any outliers or influential observations?

The model seems OK. There are two main outliers - 3 and 8, which show up with higher residuals, high Cook's distance. Pt 7 also has high Cook's distance. Though, if we look at the leverage statistics, we see that neither 3 nor 8 have high leverage, i.e. they don't really pull the regression line one way or the other. Pt 7, on the other hand, is at the left end of the regression line and has a higher leverage.

```
econsumption$id <- 1:12
ggplot(econsumption, aes(x=temp,y=Mwh))+geom_smooth(se = F,method = 'lm') +
    geom_label(aes(label=id))</pre>
```



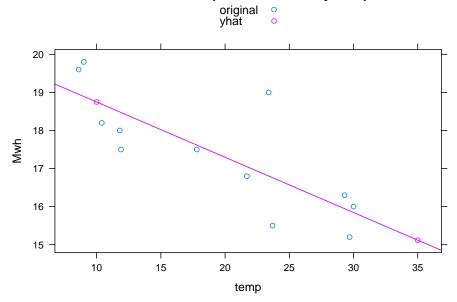
```
old.par <- par(); par(mfrow=c(2,2), mar=c(2,2,2,1))
plot(fit, which = c(1,2,4,5)) ;par(old.par)
```



c. Use the model to predict the electricity consumption that you would expect for a day with maximum temperature 10C and a day with maximum temperature 35C. Do you believe these predictions?

- The prediction at 10C does make sense. It falls within the cluster of points in that region and seems like a useful estimate.
- The prediction at 35C extrapolates the data and is more suspect. It's possible that as it get's warmer, the air conditioning load would increase and this power consumption too.

Electric consumption vs Max daily Temp



d. Give prediction intervals for your forecasts.

These are the prediction intervals for a 95% CI.

```
predict(fit,newdata = preds, interval = 'predict', level = 0.95)

## fit lwr upr
## 1 18.74795 16.34824 21.14766
## 2 15.11902 12.49768 17.74035
```

- 2. The following table gives the winning times (in seconds) for the men's 400 meters final in each Olympic Games from 1896 to 2012...
- a. Update the data set olympic to include the winning times from the last few Olympics.

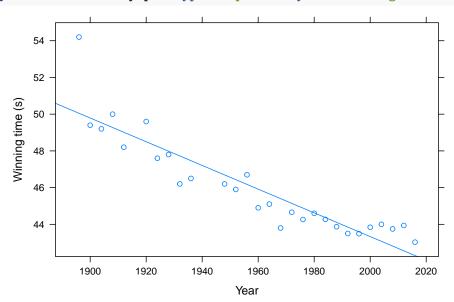
	Year	time
21	1988	43.87
22	1992	43.50
23	1996	43.49
24	2000	43.84
25	2004	44.00
26	2008	43.75
27	2012	43.94

	Year	time
28	2016	43.03

b. Plot the winning time against the year. Describe the main features of the scatterplot.

- The winning time is consistantly decreasing
- The plot seems to be getting asymptotic in nature
- The variation across time seems to be continuously reducing





c. Fit a regression line to the data. Obviously the winning times have been decreasing, but at what *average* rate per year?

The winning times reduce by 0.064 seconds on average year over year.

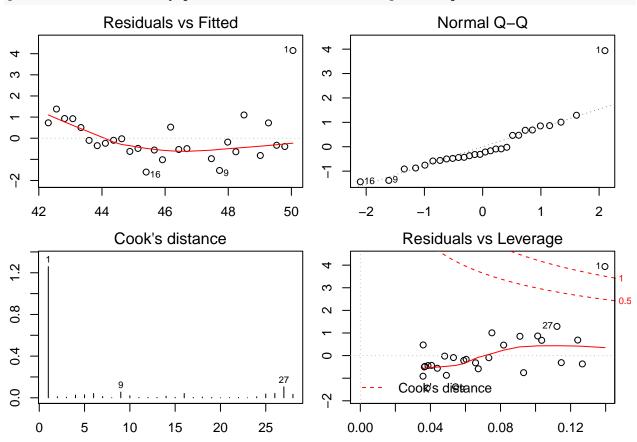
```
summary(lm(time~Year, olympic))
```

```
##
## Call:
  lm(formula = time ~ Year, data = olympic)
##
## Residuals:
##
                                        Max
       Min
                1Q
                    Median
                                 3Q
  -1.6002 -0.5747 -0.2858
                             0.5751
                                    4.1505
##
## Coefficients:
##
                 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 172.481477
                            11.487522
                                         15.02 2.52e-14 ***
## Year
                -0.064574
                             0.005865
                                       -11.01 2.75e-11 ***
```

```
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 1.136 on 26 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.8234, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8166
## F-statistic: 121.2 on 1 and 26 DF, p-value: 2.752e-11
```

d. Plot the residuals against the year. What does this indicate about the suitability of the fitted line?

```
old.par <- par(); par(mfrow=c(2,2), mar=c(2,2,2,1))
plot(lm(time~Year, olympic), which = c(1,2,4,5)); par(old.par)</pre>
```



A linear fit isn't the right one for this data, as we can already see from the scatter plots. The residuals confirm this:

• There is a pattern in the residuals yhat plot - Higher residuals at the beginning, then lower, then higher again. We can also confirm this from the Durbin-Watson statistic, which is ~1.2 with a p-val of 0.008 indicating we must reject the null hypothesis Ho: There is no autocorrelation in the residuals.

```
lmtest::dwtest(lm(time~Year, olympic))
##
```

Durbin-Watson test

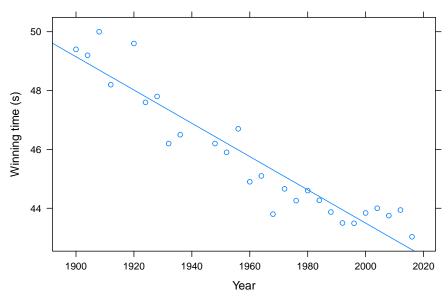
```
##
## data: lm(time ~ Year, olympic)
## DW = 1.2244, p-value = 0.008555
## alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0
```

- QQplot and Cook's distance plots show pt-1 as a massive outlier
- The leverage plot also confirms pt-1 to show high leverage

Predict the winning time for the men's 400 meters final in the 2000, 2004, 2008 and 2012 Olympics. Give a prediction interval for each of your forecasts. What assumptions have you made in these calculations?

I would first eliminate the first point because it's a clear outlier.

```
olympic <- tail(olympic,-1)
lattice::xyplot(time~Year,olympic,type=c('p','r'),ylab='Winning time (s)')</pre>
```



Fitting a new regrssion line, and predicting the last 4 years now. The printout shows the prediction interval at a 95% confidence.

```
fit <- lm(time~Year, olympic)
olympic <- olympic %>% bind_cols(tbl_df(predict(fit, interval = 'predict', level = 0.95)))
```

Warning in predict.lm(fit, interval = "predict", level = 0.95): predictions on current data
tail(olympic)

upr	lwr	fit	time	Year	
45.29147	42.15134	43.72141	43.49	1996	22
45.07178	41.91866	43.49522	43.84	2000	23
44.85275	41.68532	43.26904	44.00	2004	24
44.63438	41.45132	43.04285	43.75	2008	25
44.41666	41.21667	42.81667	43.94	2012	26

	Year	time	fit	lwr	upr
27	2016	43.03	42.59048	40.98138	44.19958

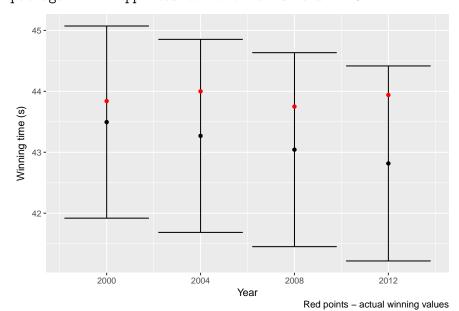
These calculations assume:

- Each observation is IID
- There is no effect of seasonality or external factors considered (location, temperature, humidity etc)

e. Find out the actual winning times for these Olympics (see www.databaseolympics.com). How good were your forecasts and prediction intervals?

The linear trend cannot account for the uptick in winning times between 2000 and 2012. So the actuals do lie between the 95% PI yet we can see that the actuals start approaching the ends of the error bars at 2012.

Warning: package 'bindrcpp' was built under R version 3.4.4



3. An elasticity coefficient is the ratio of the percentage change in the forecast variable (y) to the percentage change in the predictor variable (x)... Express y as a function of x and show that the coefficient beta1 is the elasticity coefficient.

Section 6.7

- 1. Show that a 3x5MA is equivalent to a 7-term weighted moving average with weights of 0.067, 0.133, 0.200, 0.200, 0.200, 0.133, and 0.067.
 - See next page *
- 2. plastics dataset question

The dataset:

```
plastics
```

```
##
      Jan
          Feb
                Mar
                     Apr
                        May
                               Jun Jul Aug Sep
                                                   Oct
                                                             Dec
     742
           697
                     898 1030 1107 1165 1216 1208 1131
## 1
                776
                                                             783
## 2
     741
           700
                774
                     932 1099 1223 1290 1349 1341 1296 1066
                                                             901
           793
                885 1055 1204 1326 1303 1436 1473 1453 1170 1023
     896
                938 1109 1274 1422 1486 1555 1604 1600 1403 1209
     951
           861
## 5 1030 1032 1126 1285 1468 1637 1611 1608 1528 1420 1119 1013
```

a. Plot the time series of sales of product A. Can you identify seasonal fluctuations and/or a trend?

```
ggplot2::autoplot(plastics, main ='Monthly sale (in thou) of Product A')+
    ggplot2::geom_smooth(se = F)
```

Datum/Date:

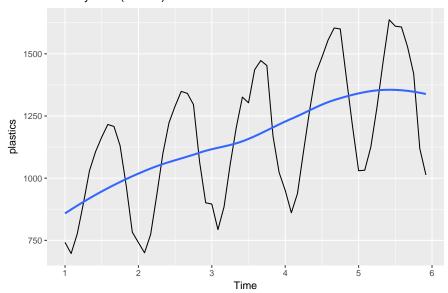
$$\frac{HW \# (}{} < 2.8) \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4$$
 $\langle 4 \cdot 1_0 \rangle \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3$
 $3 \times 5 \text{ MA}$:

 $\frac{1}{5} \sum_{k=2}^{k:2} y_{t-k} = (\frac{9_{t-2} + \frac{9_{t-1}}{5} + \frac{9_{t}}{5} + \frac{9_{t+1}}{5}}{5} + \frac{9_{t+1}}{5})$
 $\frac{1}{5} \sum_{k=2}^{k:2} x_{t-1} + \frac{1}{3} y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{3} y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+1}$
 $\frac{1}{3} \left[\frac{1}{5} y_{t-3} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t-2} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t-1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+1} \right]$
 $\frac{1}{3} \left[\frac{1}{5} y_{t-2} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t-1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+2} \right]$
 $\frac{1}{3} \left[\frac{1}{5} y_{t-1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+2} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+2} \right]$
 $\frac{1}{3} \left[\frac{1}{5} y_{t-1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+1} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+2} + \frac{1}{5} y_{t+3} \right]$
 $\frac{1}{3} \left[\frac{1}{5} y_{t-3} + \frac{2 \cdot 1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \cdot y_{t-2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \cdot (y_{t-1} + y_{t} + y_{t+1}) + \frac{2 \cdot 1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \cdot y_{t-2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \cdot y_{t+3} \right]$
 $\Rightarrow \text{Wts} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.067, 0.133, 0.2, 0.2, 0.2, 0.2, 0.133, 0.067 \end{bmatrix}$

SAME AS $\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{1}$

Figure 1:

Monthly sale (in thou) of Product A



- Seasonal fluctuations exist, with peaks ~Aug-Sep and reduced sales at the year end
- A monotonic near-linear trend also exists year over year

b. Use a classical multiplicative decomposition to calculate the trend-cycle and seasonal indices.

```
multi_decomp <- decompose(plastics, type = 'multiplicative')</pre>
```

The trend and seasonal indices can be accessed via:

multi_decomp\$trend

##		Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul
##	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	976.9583
##	2	1000.4583	1011.2083	1022.2917	1034.7083	1045.5417	1054.4167	1065.7917
##	3	1117.3750	1121.5417	1130.6667	1142.7083	1153.5833	1163.0000	1170.3750
##	4	1208.7083	1221.2917	1231.7083	1243.2917	1259.1250	1276.5833	1287.6250
##	5	1374.7917	1382.2083	1381.2500	1370.5833	1351.2500	1331.2500	NA
##		Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec		
##	1	977.0417	977.0833	978.4167	982.7083	990.4167		
##	2	1076.1250	1084.6250	1094.3750	1103.8750	1112.5417		
##	3	1175.5000	1180.5417	1185.0000	1190.1667	1197.0833		
##	4	1298.0417	1313.0000	1328.1667	1343.5833	1360.6250		
##	5	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		

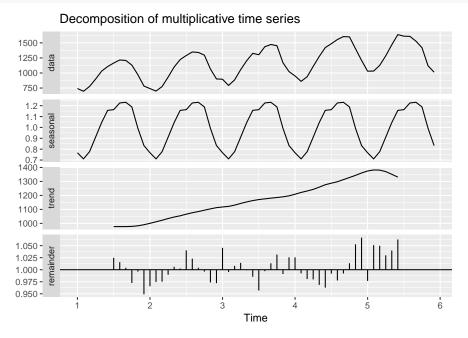
multi_decomp\$seasonal

```
## Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul
## 1 0.7670466 0.7103357 0.7765294 0.9103112 1.0447386 1.1570026 1.1636317
## 2 0.7670466 0.7103357 0.7765294 0.9103112 1.0447386 1.1570026 1.1636317
## 3 0.7670466 0.7103357 0.7765294 0.9103112 1.0447386 1.1570026 1.1636317
## 4 0.7670466 0.7103357 0.7765294 0.9103112 1.0447386 1.1570026 1.1636317
```

```
## 5 0.7670466 0.7103357 0.7765294 0.9103112 1.0447386 1.1570026 1.1636317
## Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec
## 1 1.2252952 1.2313635 1.1887444 0.9919176 0.8330834
## 2 1.2252952 1.2313635 1.1887444 0.9919176 0.8330834
## 3 1.2252952 1.2313635 1.1887444 0.9919176 0.8330834
## 4 1.2252952 1.2313635 1.1887444 0.9919176 0.8330834
## 5 1.2252952 1.2313635 1.1887444 0.9919176 0.8330834
```

c. Do the results support the graphical interpretation from part (a)?

ggplot2::autoplot(multi_decomp)

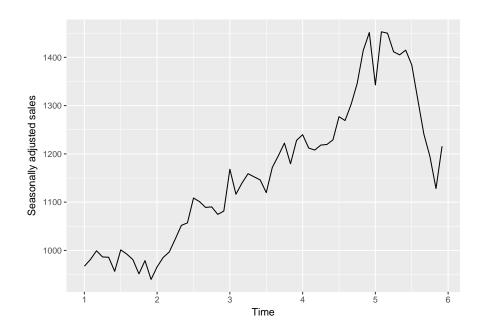


Yes

- We can see a clear increasing trend
- We can see that the seasonality has extracted a lot of the variation from the original series.
- Once the in a linear trend is removed, a majority of the variation is explained by the seasonal component most of the remainder is ~1. At places where it's not equal to one, the magnitudes are fairly small: [-0.025,0.05] about 1 compared to that of seasonal [-0.3, 0.2] about 1.

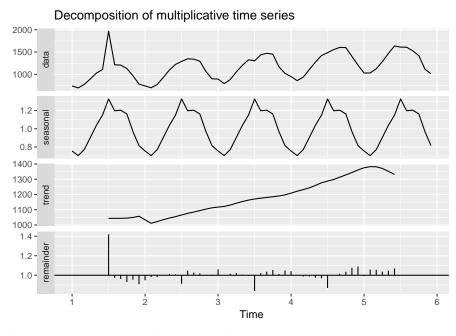
d. Compute and plot the seasonally adjusted data.

```
ggplot2::autoplot(seasadj(multi_decomp), ylab='Seasonally adjusted sales')
```



e. Change one observation to be an outlier (e.g., add 500 to one observation), and recompute the seasonally adjusted data. What is the effect of the outlier?

```
plastics.withoutlier <- plastics
plastics.withoutlier[7] <- plastics.withoutlier[7] + 800
ggplot2::autoplot(decompose(plastics.withoutlier, type = 'multiplicative'))</pre>
```



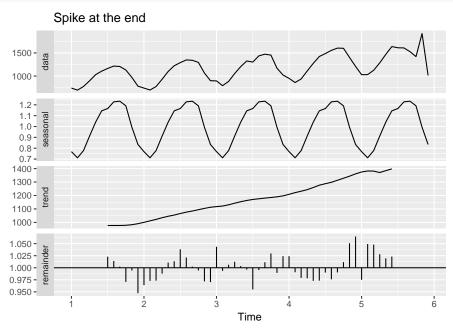
- Classic decomposition is not robust to outliers.
- It affects the seasonal contributions throughout the time series, since decompose() cannot adjust seasonal contributions over time.
- As a result, we can see high residuals at (T+7) throughout the time series.

f. Does it make any difference if the outlier is near the end rather than in the middle of the time series?

```
plastics.withoutlier1 <- plastics
plastics.withoutlier1[20] <- plastics.withoutlier[20] + 800
plastics.withoutlier2 <- plastics
plastics.withoutlier2[59] <- plastics.withoutlier[59] + 800
ggplot2::autoplot(decompose(plastics.withoutlier1, type = 'multiplicative'))+
    labs(title='Spike in the middle')</pre>
```

Spike in the middle 2200 -1800 -1400 -1000 1.4 1.2 -1.0 -0.8 -1400 -1300 -1200 -1100 -1000 -1.3 -1.3 - 1.1 - 1.1 - 1.0 - 0.9 -2 6

ggplot2::autoplot(decompose(plastics.withoutlier2, type = 'multiplicative'))+
 labs(title='Spike at the end')



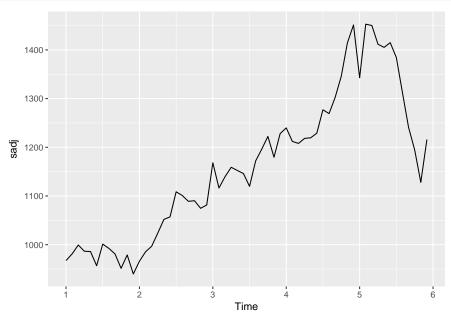
Yes.

The reason is that when the spike is at the end, if that portion of the signal is NA in the trend extraction using MA, it is not considered during calculation of the seasonal contributions.

g. Use a random walk with drift to produce forecasts of the seasonally adjusted data.

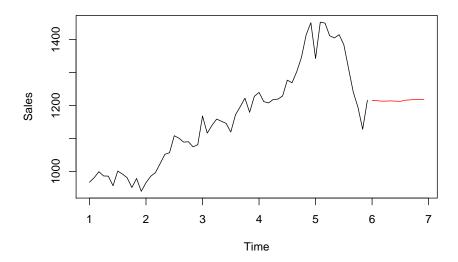
To extract the seasonally adjusted data:

```
sadj <- seasadj(multi_decomp)
ggplot2::autoplot(sadj)</pre>
```



Adding the random walk here, shown in red.

Seasonally adj timeseries & random walk forecast for 12 months



h. Reseasonalize the results to give forecasts on the original scale.

Multiplying the seasonal component to the multiplicative series, we get results back in the original scale.

Random walk forecast for 12 months

