



MONASH  
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2017 Beijing Workshop on  
Forecasting

# Forecast Accuracy and Evaluation

**Rob J Hyndman**

[robjhyndman.com/beijing2017](http://robjhyndman.com/beijing2017)

# Outline

## 1 The statistical forecasting perspective

## 2 Some simple forecasting methods

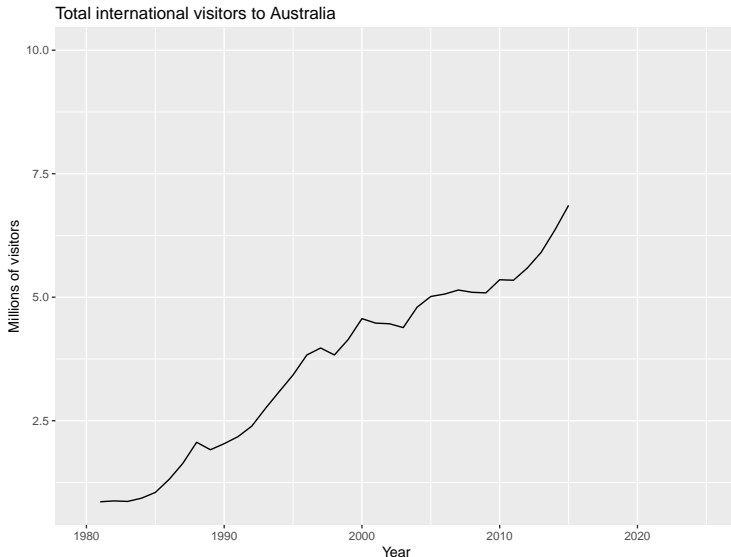
## 3 Forecasting residuals

## 4 Measuring forecast accuracy

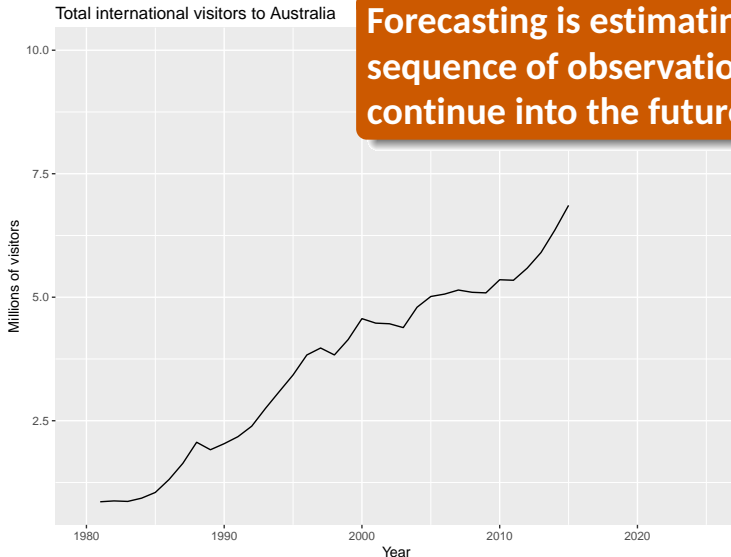
## 5 Time series cross-validation

## 6 Probability scoring

# The statistical forecasting perspective

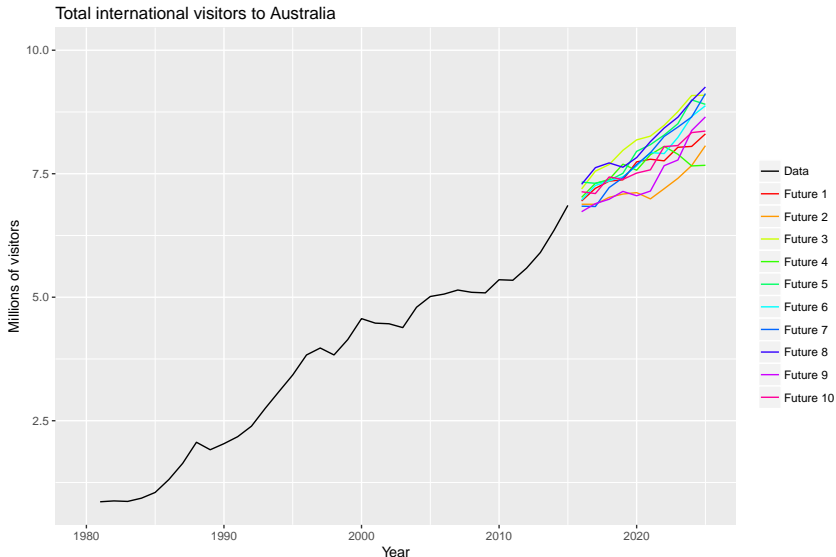


# The statistical forecasting perspective

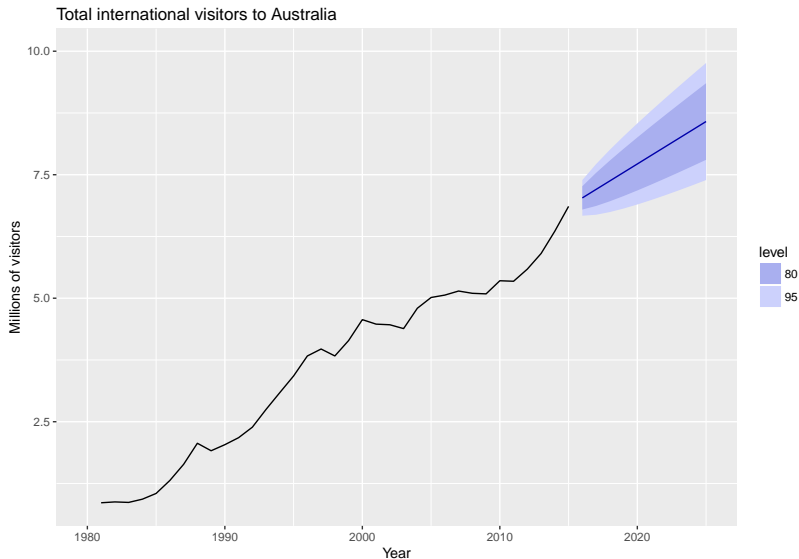


**Forecasting is estimating how the sequence of observations will continue into the future.**

# Sample futures



# Forecast intervals



# Statistical forecasting

- Thing to be forecast: a random variable,  $y_t$ .

## Forecast distributions:

$$y_{t|t-1} = y_t | \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{t-1}\}$$

$$y_{T+h|T} = y_{T+h} | \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T\}$$

- The “point forecast” is the mean (or median) of  $y_{T+h|T} = y_{T+h} | \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T\}$
- The “forecast variance” is  $\text{Var}[y_{T+h} | y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T]$
- A prediction interval or “interval forecast” is a range of values of  $y_t$  with high probability.

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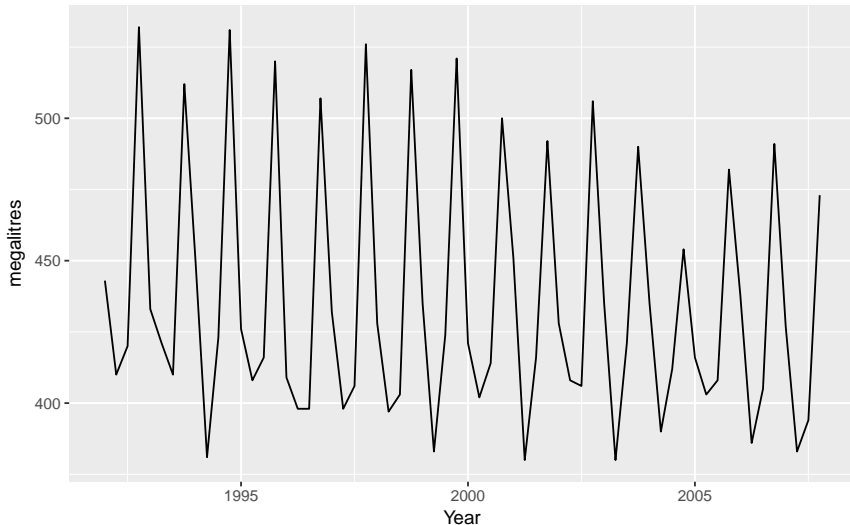
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# Some simple forecasting methods

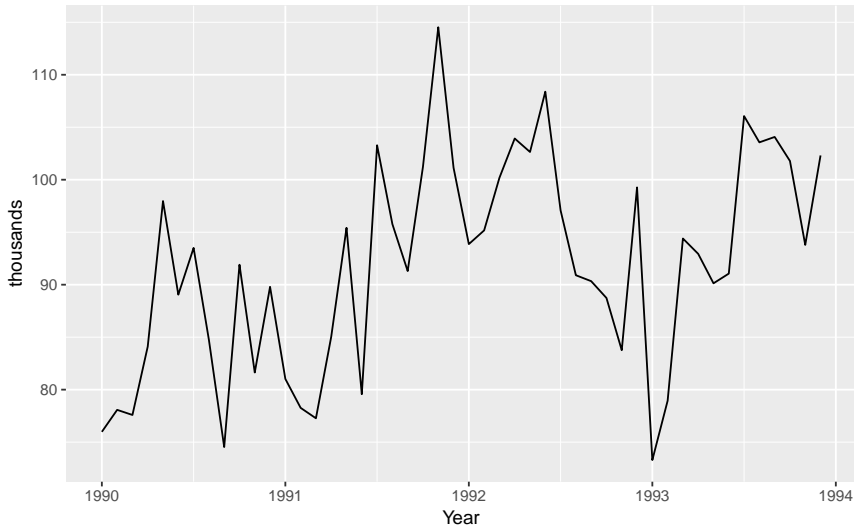
Australian quarterly beer production



How would you forecast these data?

# Some simple forecasting methods

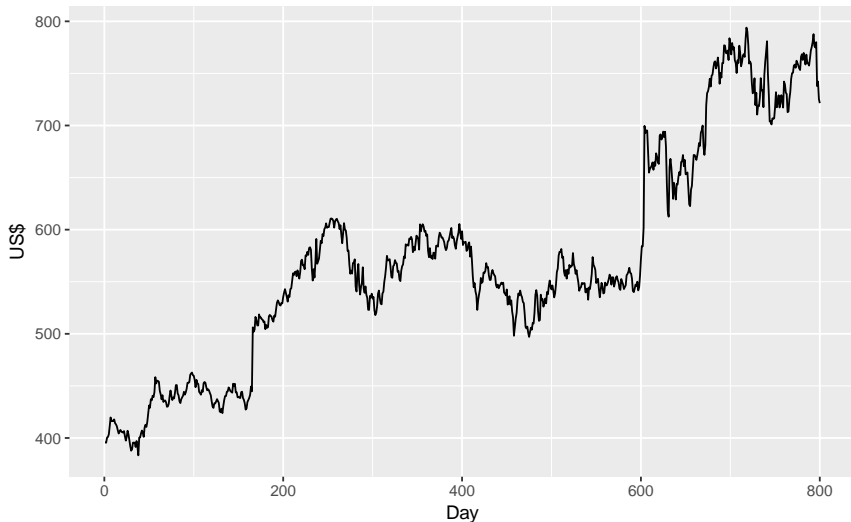
Number of pigs slaughtered in Victoria



How would you forecast these data?

# Some simple forecasting methods

Google Stock Price (800 trading days from 25 February 2013)



How would you forecast these data?

# Some simple forecasting methods

## Average method

- Forecast of all future values is equal to mean of historical data  $\{y_1, \dots, y_T\}$ .
- Forecasts:  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = \bar{y} = (y_1 + \dots + y_T)/T$

## Naïve method

- Forecasts equal to last observed value.
- Forecasts:  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_T$ .
- Consequence of efficient market hypothesis.

## Seasonal naïve method

- Forecasts equal to last value from same season.
- Forecasts:  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} = y_{T+h-km}$  where  $m$  = seasonal period and  $k = \lfloor (h-1)/m \rfloor + 1$ .

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## Drift method

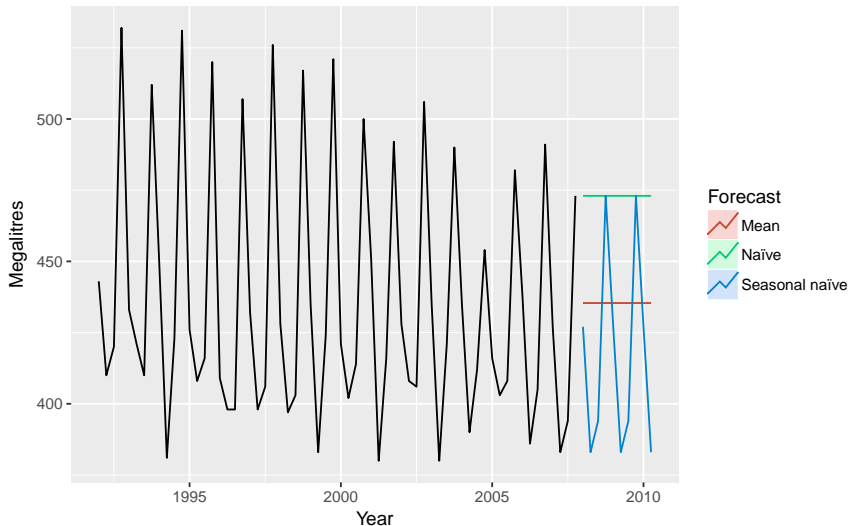
- Forecasts equal to last value plus average change.
- Forecasts:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}_{T+h|T} &= y_T + \frac{h}{T-1} \sum_{t=2}^T (y_t - y_{t-1}) \\ &= y_T + \frac{h}{T-1} (y_T - y_1).\end{aligned}$$

- Equivalent to extrapolating a line drawn between first and last observations.

# Some simple forecasting methods

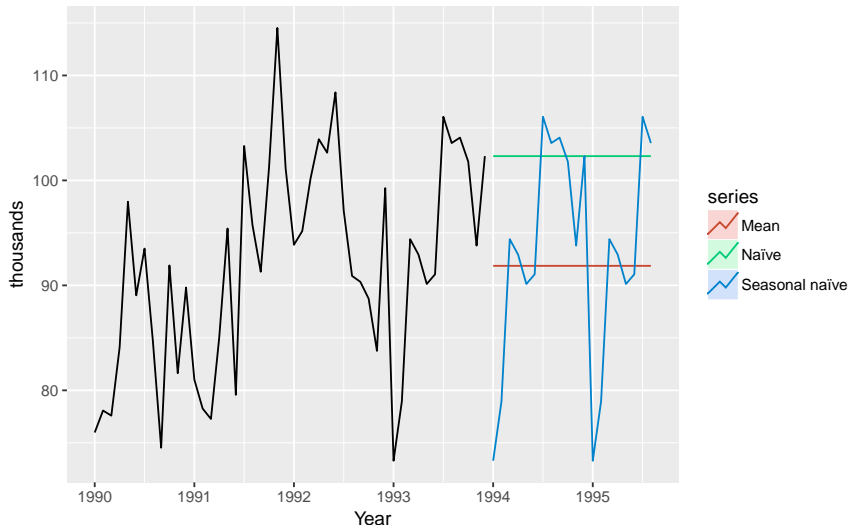
Forecasts for quarterly beer production



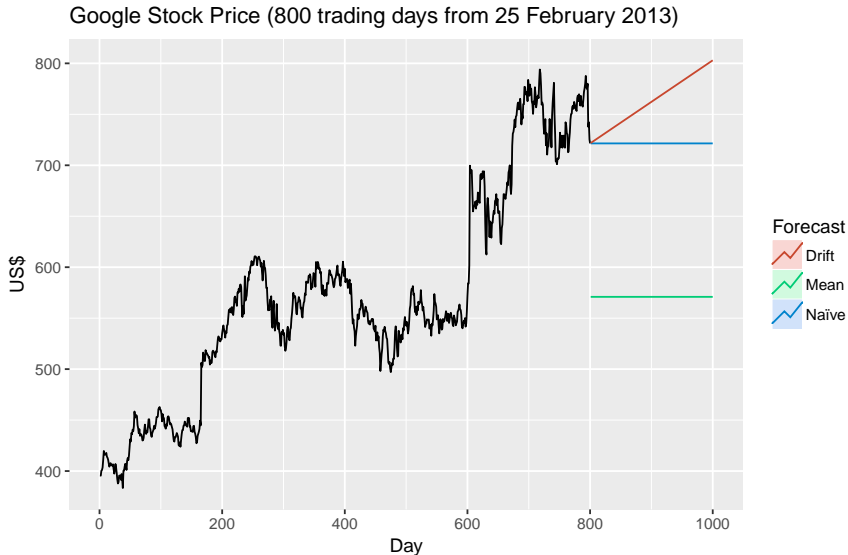


# Some simple forecasting methods

Number of pigs slaughtered in Victoria



# Some simple forecasting methods



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# Fitted values

- $\hat{y}_{t|t-1}$  is the forecast of  $y_t$  based on observations  $y_1, \dots, y_{t-1}$ .
- 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.

## Examples:

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

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

## Assumptions

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

## Useful properties (for prediction intervals)

- 3  $\{e_t\}$  have constant variance.
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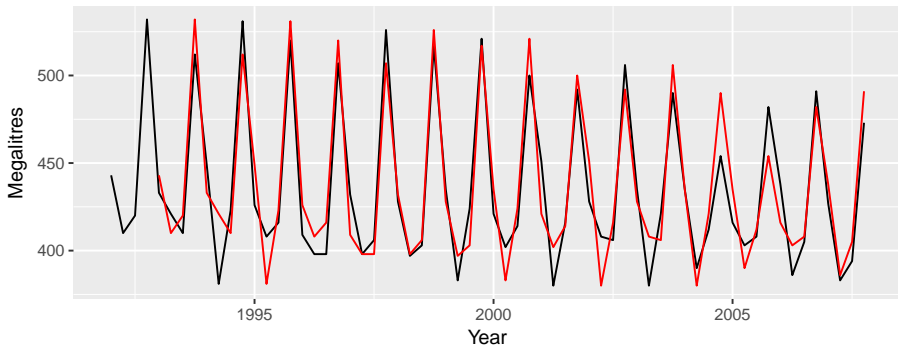
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## Seasonal naïve forecast:

$$\hat{y}_{t|t-1} = y_{t-4}$$

$$e_t = y_t - y_{t-4}$$

Australian quarterly beer production



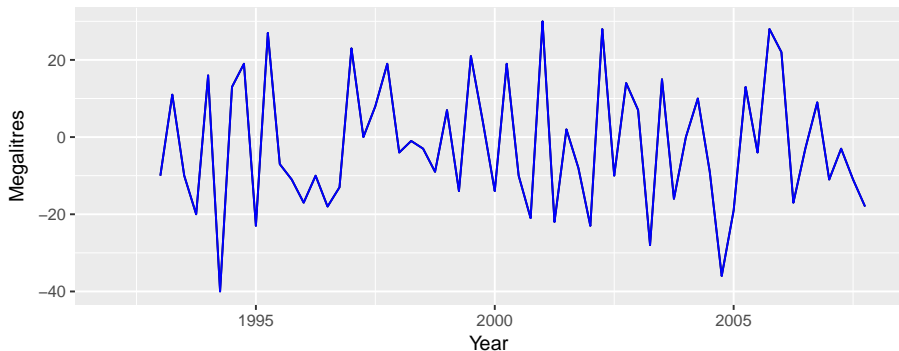
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Residuals from seasonal naïve method



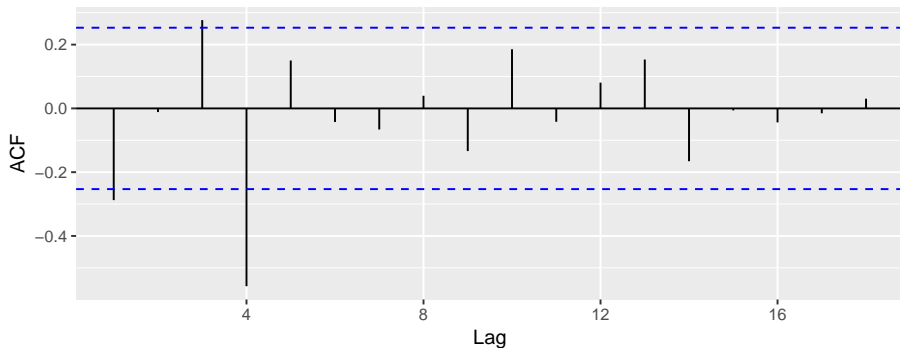
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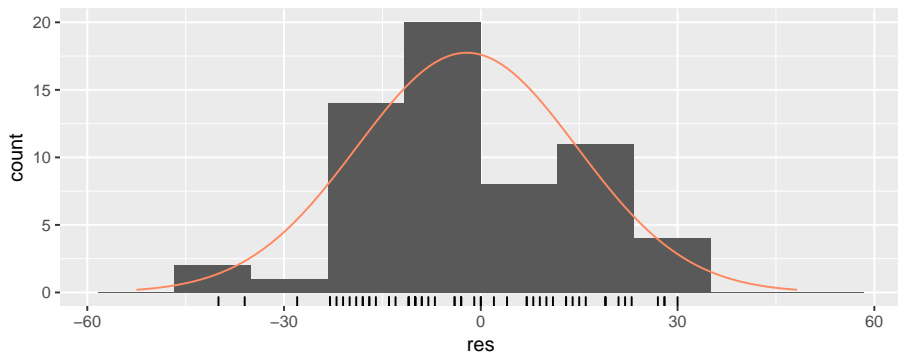
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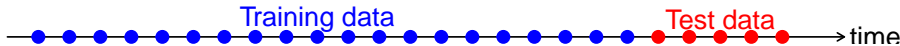
# Forecasting residuals

- Minimizing the size of forecasting residuals is used for estimating model parameters (e.g., minimizing MSE or maximizing likelihood).
- In general, forecasting residuals cannot be used (directly) for estimating forecast accuracy.
- Forecast accuracy can only be measured using *genuine* forecasts; i.e., on different data.
- Forecasting residuals can help suggest model improvements.

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# Training and test sets



- The test set must not be used for *any* aspect of model development or calculation of forecasts.
- Forecast accuracy is based only on the test set.
- A model which fits the data well does not necessarily forecast well.
- A perfect fit can always be obtained by using a model with enough parameters. (Compare  $R^2$ )
- Problems can be overcome by measuring true *out-of-sample* forecast accuracy. Training set used to estimate parameters. Forecasts are made for test set.

# Measures of forecast accuracy

Training set:  $T$  observations

Test set:  $H$  observations

$$\text{MAE} = \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H |y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}|$$

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H (y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T})^2 \quad \text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H (y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T})^2}$$

$$\text{MAPE} = \frac{100}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H |y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}| / |y_{T+h}|$$

- MAE, MSE, RMSE are all scale dependent.
- MAPE is scale independent but is only sensible if  $y_{T+h} \gg 0$  for all  $h$ , and  $y$  has a natural zero.



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# Measures of forecast accuracy

## Mean Absolute Scaled Error

$$\text{MASE} = \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H |y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T}| / Q$$

where  $Q$  is a stable measure of the scale of the time series  $\{y_t\}$ .

Proposed by Hyndman and Koehler (IJF, 2006).

For non-seasonal time series,

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

works well. Then MASE is equivalent to MAE relative to a naïve method.

# Measures of forecast accuracy

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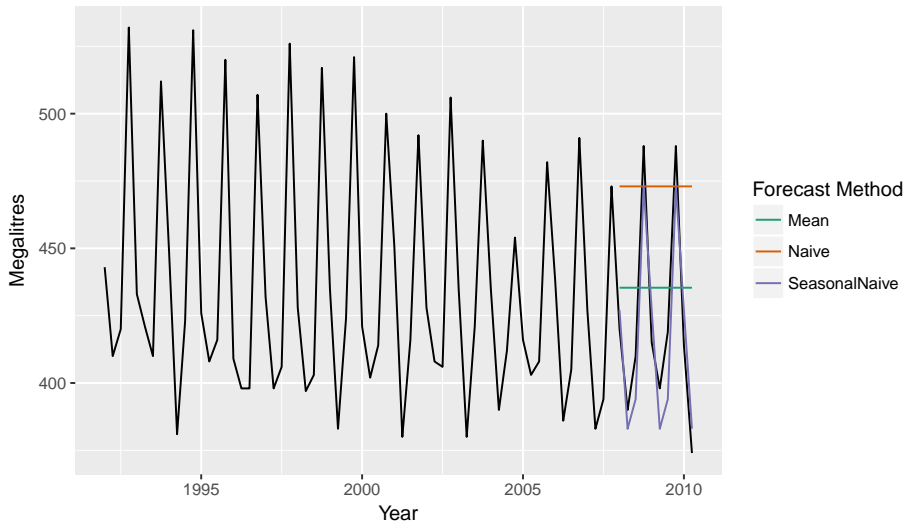
For seasonal time series,

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

works well. Then MASE is equivalent to MAE relative to a seasonal naïve method.

# Measures of forecast accuracy

Forecasts for quarterly beer production



# Measures of forecast accuracy

	RMSE	MAE	MAPE	MASE
Mean method	38.5	34.8	8.28	2.44
Naïve method	62.7	57.4	14.18	4.01
Seasonal naïve method	14.3	13.4	3.17	0.94

# Measures of forecast accuracy

Scaling can be used with any measure, and with different scaling statistics.

## Mean Squared Scaled Error

$$\text{MASE} = \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H (y_{T+h} - \hat{y}_{T+h|T})^2 / Q$$

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

- Assumes  $\{y_t\}$  is difference stationary.
- Minimizing MSSE leads to conditional mean forecasts.
- $\text{MSSE} < 1$  : out-of-sample multi-step forecasts are more accurate than in-sample one-step forecasts.

# Measures of forecast accuracy

- Many suggested scale-free measures of forecast accuracy are degenerate due to infinite variance.
- The denominator must be positive with probability one.
- Distribution of most measures are highly skewed when applied to real data.

# Poll: true or false?

- 1 Good forecast methods should have normally distributed residuals.
- 2 A model with small residuals will give good forecasts.
- 3 The best measure of forecast accuracy is MAPE.
- 4 If your model doesn't forecast well, you should make it more complicated.
- 5 Always choose the model with the best forecast accuracy as measured on the test set.



# Outline

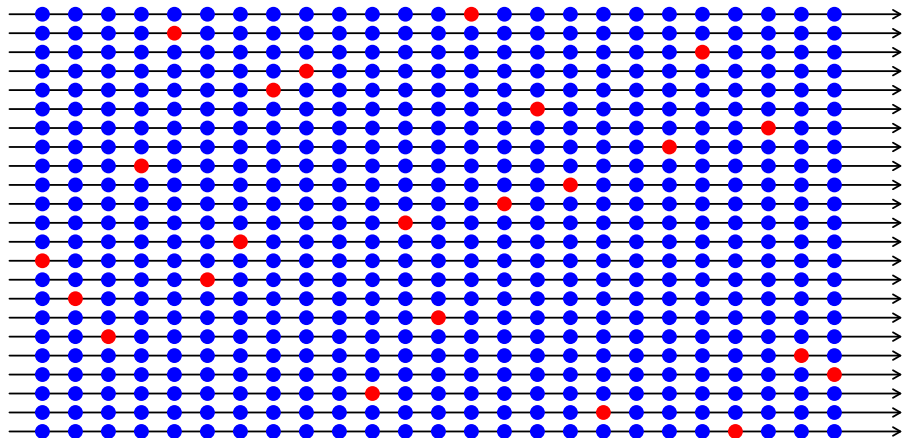
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# Cross-validation

## Traditional evaluation

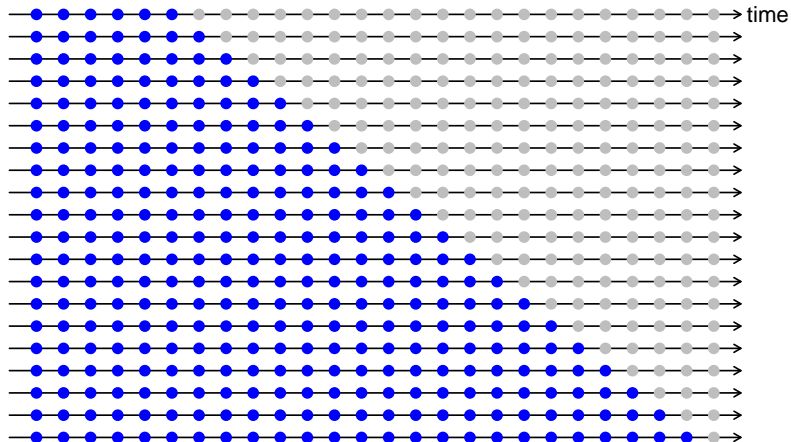


## Leave-one-out cross-validation



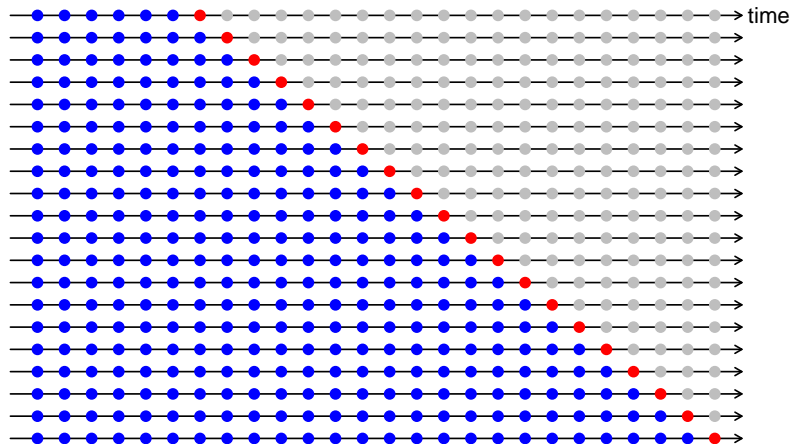
# Cross-validation

## Time series cross-validation



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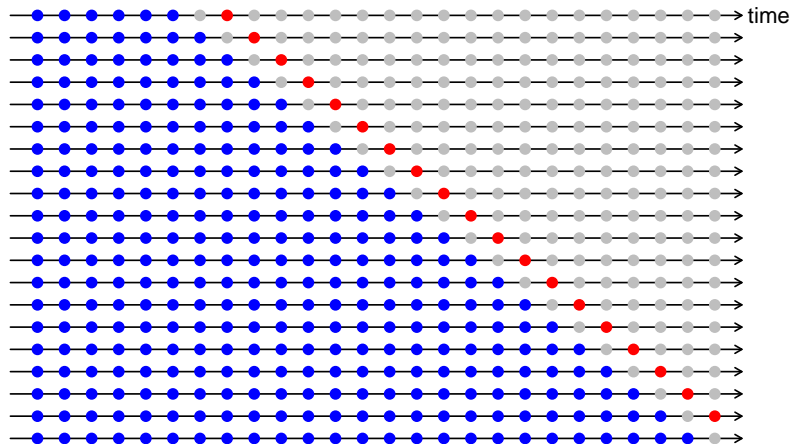
## Time series cross-validation



$h = 1$

# Cross-validation

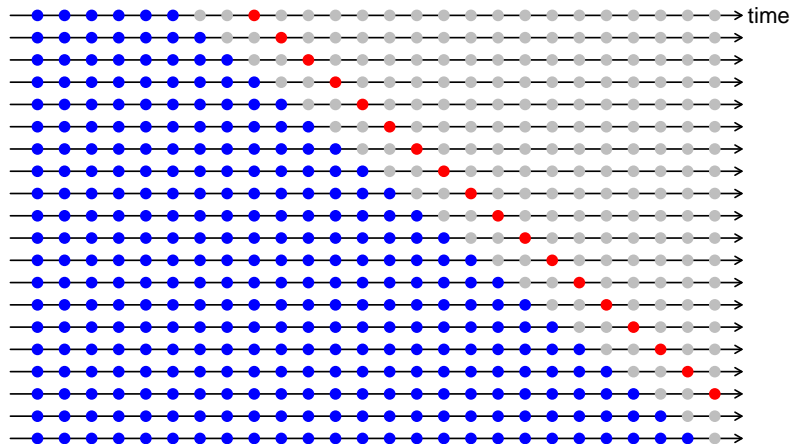
## Time series cross-validation



$h = 2$

# Cross-validation

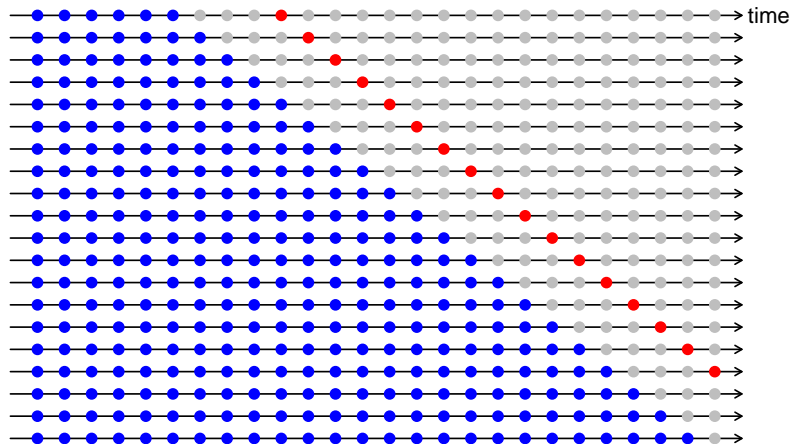
## Time series cross-validation



$h = 3$

# Cross-validation

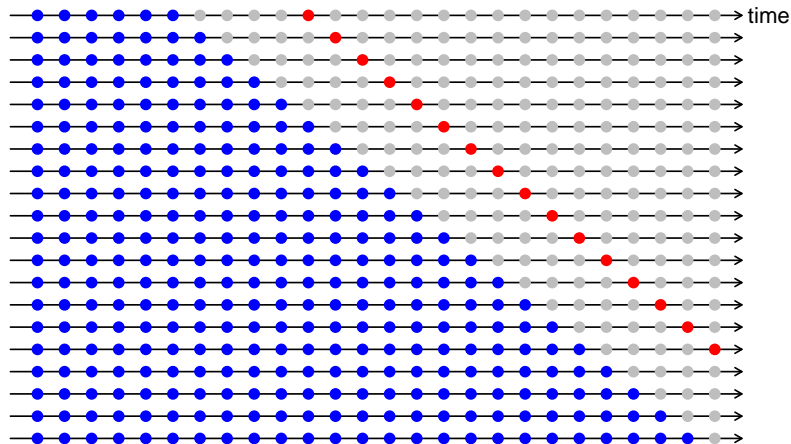
## Time series cross-validation



$h = 4$

# Cross-validation

## Time series cross-validation

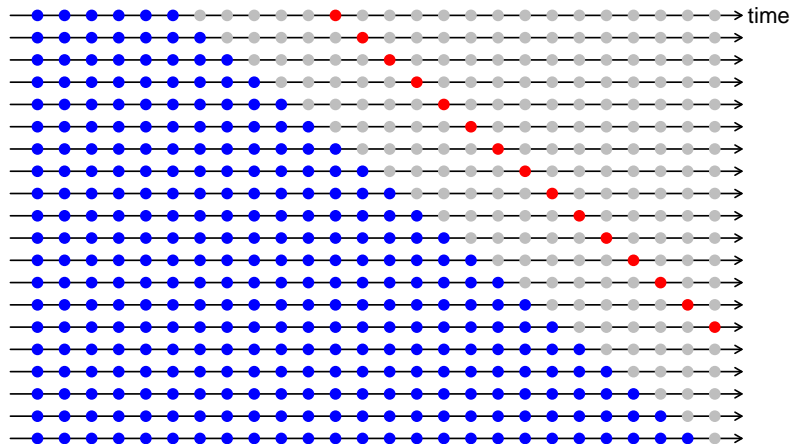


$h = 5$



# Cross-validation

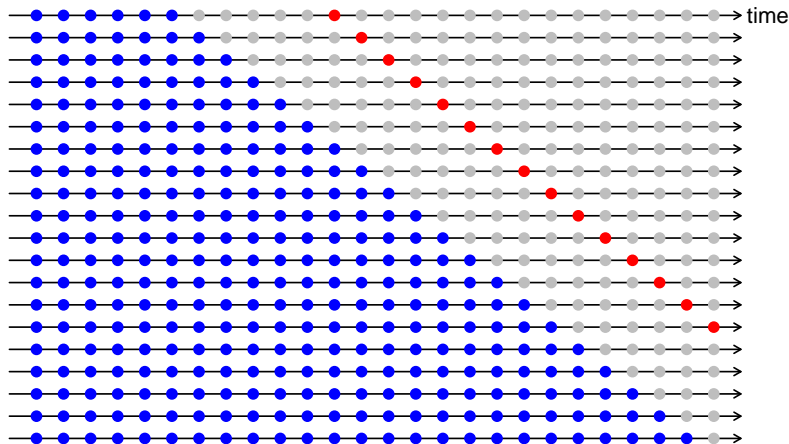
## Time series cross-validation



$h = 6$

# Cross-validation

## Time series cross-validation



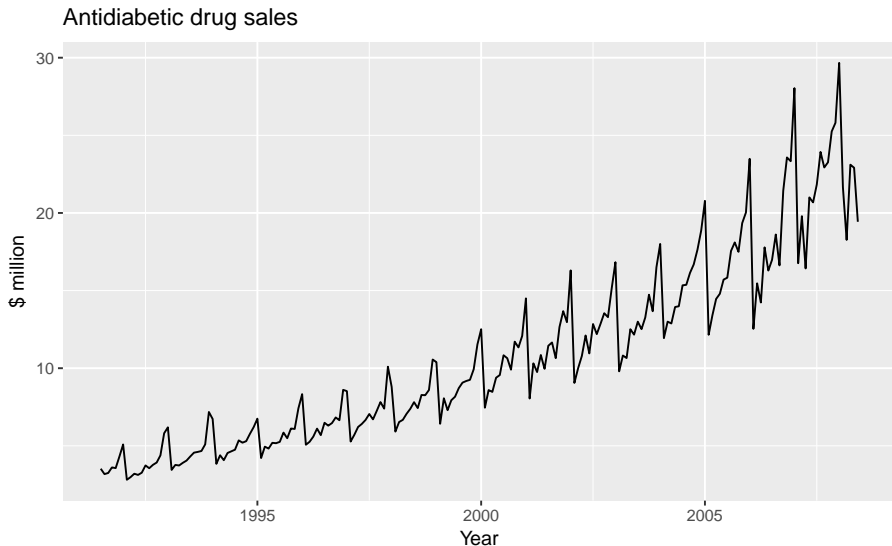
Also known as “Evaluation on a rolling forecast origin”

# Time series cross-validation

Assume  $k$  is the minimum number of observations for a training set.

- Select observation  $t + h$  for test set, and use observations at times  $1, 2, \dots, t$  to estimate model.
- Compute error on forecast for time  $t + h$ .
- Repeat for  $t = k, k + 1, \dots, T - h$  where  $T$  is total number of observations.
- Compute accuracy measure over all errors.

# Example: Pharmaceutical sales



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## Which of these models is best?

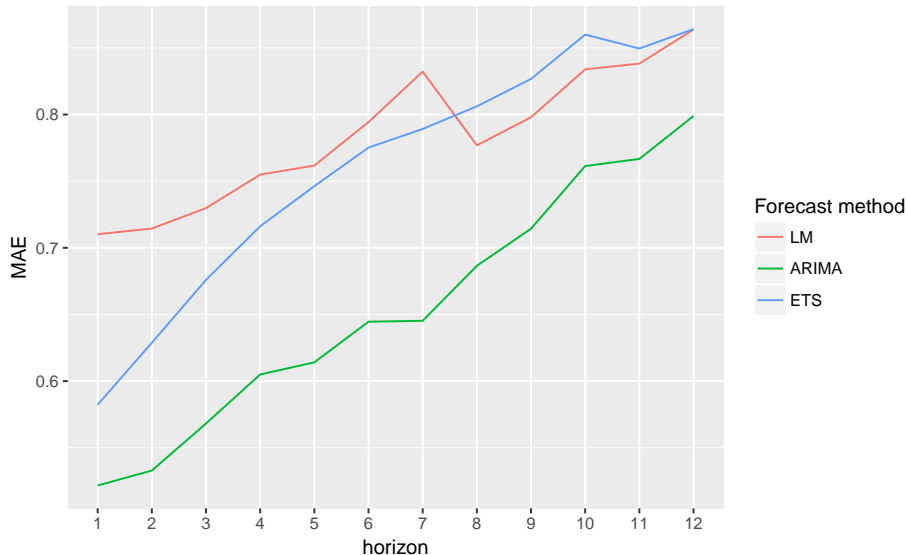
- Linear model with trend and seasonal dummies applied to log data.
  - ARIMA model applied to log data
  - ETS model applied to original data
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- Forecast  $h = 12$  steps ahead based on data to time  $t$  for  $t = 1, 2, \dots$
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  - Compare MAE values for each forecast horizon.

# Example: Pharmaceutical sales



# Example: R code

```
f1 <- function(y,h) {  
  forecast(tslm(y ~ trend + season, lambda=0), h=h)  
}  
f2 <- function(y,h) {  
  forecast(auto.arima(y, D=1, lambda=0), h=h)  
}  
f3 <- function(y,h) {  
  forecast(ets(y), h=h)  
}  
e1 <- tsCV(a10, f1, h=12)  
e2 <- tsCV(a10, f2, h=12)  
e3 <- tsCV(a10, f3, h=12)  
mae <- data.frame(  
  LM = colMeans(abs(e1), na.rm=TRUE),  
  ARIMA = colMeans(abs(e2), na.rm=TRUE),  
  ETS = colMeans(abs(e3), na.rm=TRUE))
```



# Hirotugu Akaike (1927–2009)



Akaike, H. (1974), “A new look at the statistical model identification”, *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, **19**(6): 716–723.

# Akaike's Information Criterion

$$\text{AIC} = -2 \log(L) + 2k$$

where  $L$  is the model likelihood and  $k$  is the number of estimated parameters in the model.

- If  $L$  is Gaussian, then  $\text{AIC} \approx c + T \log \text{MSE} + 2k$  where  $c$  is a constant, MSE is from one-step forecasts on **training set**, and  $T$  is the length of the series.

Minimizing the Gaussian AIC is asymptotically equivalent (as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ ) to minimizing MSE from one-step forecasts on **test set** via time series cross-validation.

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- AIC/AICc *much* faster than CV

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- If  $L$  is Gaussian, then  $\text{AIC} \approx c + T \log \text{MSE} + 2k$  where  $c$  is a constant, MSE is from one-step forecasts on **training set**, and  $T$  is the length of the series.

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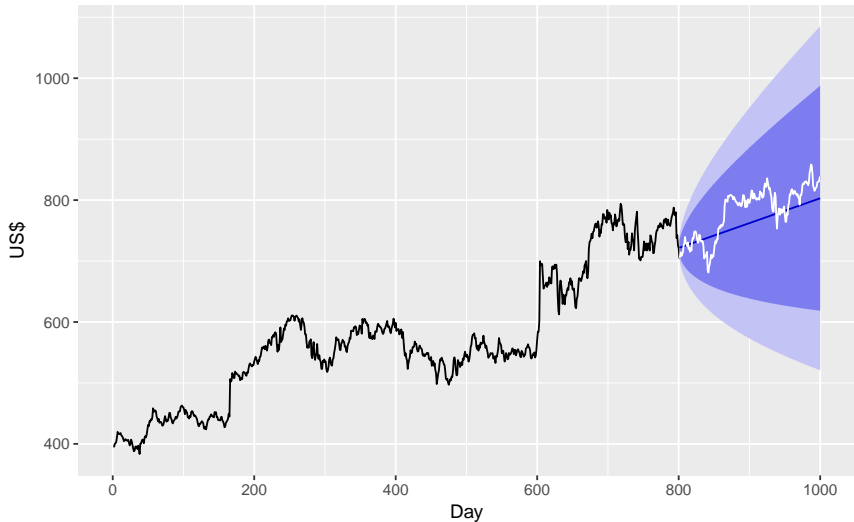
- AICc a bias-corrected small-sample version.
- AIC/AICc *much* faster than CV

# Outline

- 1 The statistical forecasting perspective
- 2 Some simple forecasting methods
- 3 Forecasting residuals
- 4 Measuring forecast accuracy
- 5 Time series cross-validation
- 6 Probability scoring**

# Probabilistic forecasting

Google Stock Price (800 trading days from 25 February 2013)



# Probabilistic forecasting

How to evaluate a forecast probability distribution?

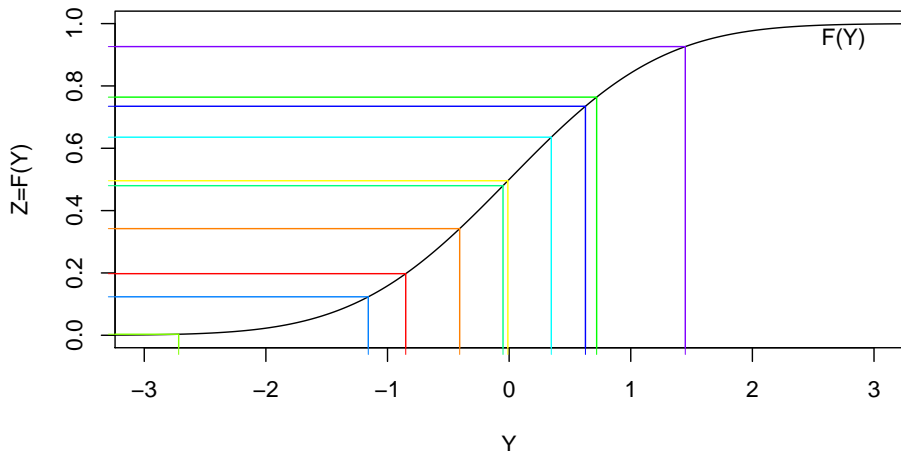
- Forecast intervals: percentage of observations covered compared to nominal percentage.
- Density forecasting
- Quantile forecasting
- Distribution forecasting



# Probability Integral Transform

Let  $F$  = cdf of  $Y$  and  $Z = F(Y)$ . If  $F$  is continuous, then  $Z$  is standard uniform.

## Probability Integral Transform



# Calibration

$Y_{T+h|T}$  has cdf  $F_{T+h|T}$ .  $\hat{F}_{T+h|T}$  is our forecast cdf.

## Calibration

- (a)  $\hat{F}$  is marginally calibrated if  $E[\hat{F}(y)] = P(Y \leq y) \forall y \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (b)  $\hat{F}$  is probabilistically calibrated if  $Z = \hat{F}(Y)$  has a standard uniform distribution.
  - ➡ We could plot a histogram of  $Z = \hat{F}(Y)$  and check that it looks uniform.
  - ➡ This is a more sophisticated version of testing if prediction intervals have the correct coverage.

# Sharpness

$Y_{T+h|T}$  has cdf  $F_{T+h|T}$ .  $\hat{F}_{T+h|T}$  is our forecast cdf.

## Sharpness

- ➡ A “sharp” forecast distribution has narrow prediction intervals.
- A good probabilistic forecast is both calibrated and sharp.
- Scoring rules combine calibration and sharpness in a single measure.

# Scoring rules

$Y_{T+h|T}$  has cdf  $F_{T+h|T}$ .  $\hat{F}_{T+h|T}$  is our forecast cdf. A scoring rule assigns numerical score  $S(\hat{F}_{T+h|T}, y_{T+h})$ .

Dawid-Sebastiani score:

$$\text{DSS}(\hat{F}, y) = \frac{(y - \mu_{\hat{F}})^2}{\sigma_{\hat{F}}^2} + 2 \log \sigma_{\hat{F}}$$

*Generalization of MSE assuming normality.*

A “proper” scoring rule has the property:

$$E_F[S(F, Y)] < E_F[S(\hat{F}, Y)]$$

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## Continuous Ranked Probability Score:

$$\text{CRPS}(\hat{F}, y) = \int [\hat{F}(x) - 1_{\{y \leq x\}}]^2 dx = E_{\hat{F}}|Y - y| - \frac{1}{2}E_{\hat{F}}|Y - Y'|$$
where  $Y$  and  $Y'$  have cdf  $\hat{F}$ . *Generalization of MAE.*

## Continuous Ranked Probability Score:

Let  $\hat{Q}_{T+h|T} = \hat{F}_{T+h|T}^{-1}$  be the forecast quantile function

$$\text{CRPS}(\hat{Q}, y) = 2 \int_0^1 [\hat{Q}(p) - y] [1_{\{y < \hat{Q}(p)\}} - p] dp$$

# Scoring rules

$Y_{T+h|T}$  has cdf  $F_{T+h|T}$ .  $\hat{F}_{T+h|T}$  is our forecast cdf. A scoring rule assigns numerical score  $S(\hat{F}_{T+h|T}, y_{T+h})$ .

## Energy Score

$$ES(\hat{F}, y) = E_{\hat{F}}|Y - y|^{\alpha} - \frac{1}{2}E_{\hat{F}}|Y - Y'|^{\alpha}$$

where  $Y$  and  $Y'$  have cdf  $\hat{F}$  and  $\alpha \in (0, 2]$ .

## Log Score

$$\log S(\hat{F}, y) = -\log \hat{f}(y)$$

where  $\hat{f} = d\hat{F}/dy$  is density corresponding to  $\hat{F}$ .



# R packages



<https://github.com/earowang/tsibble>



<http://pkg.earo.me/sugrrants>



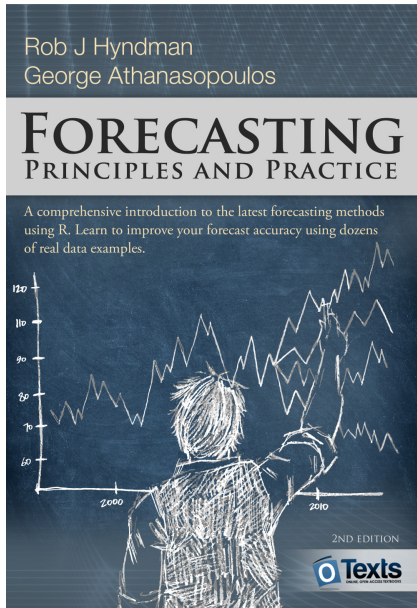
<https://github.com/mitchelloharawild/faster>



<http://pkg.robjhyndman.com/forecast>



<http://pkg.earo.me/hts>



[OTexts.org/fpp2](https://OTexts.org/fpp2)