# **ACC 424 Accounting Information System**

# Predictive analytics for financial forecasting and business intelligence Python notes for 7.3-7.5



Section 001 MW 9:30 AM – 10:45 AM at Rm. 257 over Jan 13 – May 07 Section 002 MW 11:00 AM – 12:15 AM at Rm. 127 over Jan 13 – May 07

#### 7.3. Time Series Forecasting with Synthetic Data

#### **Step 1: Simulating Financial Time Series**

We generate synthetic stock price data to model real-world financial behavior without relying on external datasets.

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# Generate synthetic stock prices
np.random.seed(42)
dates = pd.date_range(start="2023-01-01", periods=365)
trend = 0.001 * np.arange(len(dates))
noise = np.random.normal(0, 0.5, len(dates))
prices = 100 + trend + noise.cumsum()

df = pd.DataFrame({"Price": prices}, index=dates)
df.plot(title="Simulated Stock Prices")
plt.show()
```

First, we import numpy, pandas, and matplotlib for numerical operations, data handling, and visualization. By setting np.random.seed(42), we ensure reproducibility, meaning the same "random" data is generated every time the code runs. We then create a 365-day timeline starting from January 1, 2023, using pd.date\_range.

To simulate realistic <u>price</u> movements, we construct three components: a **linear trend** (0.001 \* np.arange(len(dates)) for a steady 0.1% daily increase), <u>random</u> noise (np.random.normal(0, 0.5) to mimic market volatility), and a <u>cumulative sum</u> of noise (noise.cumsum()) to replicate the non-stationary "<u>random walk</u>" behavior typical of financial markets.

Combining these with a base price of 100, we store the results in a pandas DataFrame with dates as the index, then plot the synthetic prices to visualize the simulated trend and volatility. This

approach provides a controlled, <u>self-contained</u> dataset for teaching core concepts like trends, noise, and <u>non-stationarity</u>—essential for understanding real-world financial time series.

#### **Step 2: Feature Engineering**

We compute the percentage change between each day's price and the previous day. Returns are fundamental in finance for analyzing performance and risk.

Formula: 
$$\operatorname{Return}_t = \frac{\operatorname{Price}_t - \operatorname{Price}_{t-1}}{\operatorname{Price}_{t-1}}$$

A new column Returns with values like 0.01 (1% gain) or -0.005 (0.5% loss). By calculating **daily returns**, we convert absolute prices into relative changes, which are more informative for analyzing performance and risk.

# df["MA\_10"] = df["Price"].rolling(10).mean()

We calculate the **10-day** <u>moving average</u> (MA) of prices. At each point, it takes the average of the last 10 days' prices. This calculation purpose is to <u>smooth out</u> short-term <u>noise</u> to reveal underlying trends. A new column MA\_10 where each value is the average of the prior 10 days.

Day	Price	MA_10
1	100	NaN
10	105	102.3

Note that the first 9 rows are NaN, i.e., missing (because not enough history to compute).

The **10-day moving average** (MA) smooths out short-term noise, creating a **trend-following** feature that helps distinguish <u>signal</u> from market <u>randomness</u>.

#### df["Volatility"] = df["Returns"].rolling(20).std() \* np.sqrt(252)

- rolling(20).std(): Computes the 20-day <u>rolling standard deviation</u> of returns (short-term volatility).
- \* np.sqrt(252): Annualizes the volatility (252 trading days/year).
- **Purpose:** Measures **risk**—higher volatility = riskier asset.

A new column Volatility showing annualized volatility (e.g., 0.25 = 25% annual volatility). The **20-day rolling volatility** (annualized) quantifies <u>risk</u> by measuring price <u>fluctuation</u> magnitude, a critical input for risk management and strategy optimization.

<u>Feature engineering</u> transforms raw price data into meaningful, structured inputs (<u>features</u>) that enhance a model's ability to detect financial patterns and relationships. The engineered features—returns, moving averages, and volatility—are <u>not present</u> in the raw data but are derived from it to expose <u>hidden</u> insights and improve <u>predictive</u> power. Essentially, feature engineering bridges raw data and actionable intelligence by creating variables that better represent the underlying economic realities models need to capture.

### **Step 3: ARIMA Forecasting**

from statsmodels.tsa.arima.model import ARIMA

We import the ARIMA class from the statsmodels library, a tool for time series forecasting.

#### model = ARIMA(df["Price"].dropna(), order=(2,1,1))

We initialize the ARIMA Model.

- **Input Data**: df["Price"].dropna()
  - Use the synthetic price data from 7.3.1.
  - o .dropna() ensures **no missing** values (critical for ARIMA).
- **Order Parameters**: order=(p, d, q)
  - o p=2 (<u>Autoregressive</u> term):
    - The model uses **2 prior time steps** (<u>lags</u>) to predict the next value.
    - Formula:  $Price_t = \alpha + \beta_1 Price_{t-1} + \beta_2 Price_{t-2} + \epsilon t$
  - $\circ$  d=1 (<u>Differencing</u> term):
    - Applies <u>first-order</u> differencing to make the data <u>stationary</u> (removes trends). ARIMA assumes the time series is <u>stationary</u>—meaning its statistical properties (mean, variance, autocorrelation) do not change over time.
    - Computes:  $\Delta Price_t = Price_t Price_{t-1}$
  - o q=1 (Moving Average term):
    - Accounts for 1 <u>lagged forecast error</u> (unexpected shocks).
    - Formula:  $\epsilon_t = \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \omega_t$

#### We then fit the model.

#### results = model.fit()

ο The model estimates optimal coefficients  $(β_1,β_2,θ_1)$  using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE).

#### o Internally, it:

- Differences the data. The model first transforms your original price series
  into a stationary version by computing differences between consecutive
  points. <u>Differencing</u> ensures these patterns are measured on stable,
  comparable data.
- Fits AR and MA components to the differenced series. The AR terms (β) capture momentum effects ("prices keep rising"); the MA term (θ) corrects for sudden shocks ("yesterday's unexpected drop").

## • Output:

 A <u>fitted</u> model object (results) containing coefficients, residuals, and statistical diagnostics.

# forecast = results.forecast(steps=5)

- steps=5: Predicts prices for the next 5 days beyond the training data.
- How It Works:
  - Uses the estimated AR and MA terms to project future values iteratively.
  - o For each step t+1to t+5:
    - 1. Predicts  $Price_{t+1}$  using lags and prior errors.
    - 2. Updates errors for the next prediction.

#### 7.4. Business Intelligence Application - Customer Segmentation

Customer segmentation demonstrates how banks and financial institutions <u>segment</u> customers into groups based on their consumer behavior (e.g., shared behaviors, needs, and financial patterns) using **K-Means** <u>Clustering</u>. By applying **K-Means** <u>Clustering</u>, banks can uncover <u>hidden</u> structures in their customer base and tailor services accordingly. Segmentation helps predict <u>loan defaults</u> (e.g., high spenders with low income = risky).

We begin by importing necessary libraries (KMeans for clustering, numpy for numerical operations, and matplotlib for visualization).

The data simulation creates two key customer attributes: <u>account balances</u> (simulated using a lognormal distribution with mean=3 and sigma=0.5 to reflect real-world skewness where most customers have modest balances, and a few have large ones) and <u>monthly transactions</u> (modeled using a Poisson distribution with lam = 10 to represent discrete, count-based events like transactions).

# Apply K-Means Clustering

kmeans = KMeans(n\_clusters=3)

kmeans.fit(data)

labels = kmeans.labels\_

K-Means clustering works by iteratively grouping similar data points together based on their

**features**. The algorithm starts by randomly placing **three** center points (called centroids) in the

data space representing our customer segments. Each customer's account balance and transaction

history is then compared to these **centroids** using straight-line distance calculations. Customers

get assigned to their nearest centroid, forming initial groups.

After this first grouping, the algorithm recalculates new centroid positions by finding the average

account balance and average transaction count of all customers in each group. These updated

centroids now better represent their clusters' true centers. The process repeats - customers get

reassigned to the nearest updated centroids, then centroids get recalculated again. This cycle

continues until the centroids stop moving significantly, meaning we've found stable, well-defined

customer segments.

For our banking data, this results in three distinct customer groups where members share similar

financial behaviors. The final centroids represent typical profiles for each segment, like a

"medium-value" customer with a \$5,000 average balance and 12 monthly transactions. The

algorithm automatically discovers these **natural groupings** by mathematically minimizing the

<u>variation</u> within each cluster while maximizing <u>differences</u> between clusters. This makes K-

Means particularly useful for financial applications where clear customer segmentation drives

targeted services and risk assessment.

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#### 7.5. Business Intelligence Application - Fraud Detection with Anomaly Simulation

```
normal_tx = np.random.normal(loc=50, scale=10, size=90)
fraud_tx = np.random.uniform(low=500, high=5000, size=10)
transactions = np.concatenate([normal_tx, fraud_tx]).reshape(-1, 1)
```

We implement anomaly detection using **Isolation Forest**, an algorithm for identifying fraudulent transactions. We begin by simulating transaction data - creating 90 normal transactions averaging 50 with typical variation, plus 10 abnormally high transactions *between* 500-\$5000 to represent potential fraud cases. These are combined into a single dataset that the Isolation Forest model will process later.

This creates a realistic transaction dataset where:

- Normal transactions follow a Gaussian distribution centered at  $50(\pm 10 \text{ variation})$
- Fraudulent transactions are uniformly distributed between 500–5000
- The combined dataset contains 100 total transactions (90 normal + 10 fraud)
- The reshape (-1, 1) converts the data into a 2D array format required by scikit-learn

#### Model Configuration:

```
clf = IsolationForest(contamination=0.1)
```

This initializes the Isolation Forest with:

- contamination=0.1 indicating we expect ~10% of transactions to be **fraudulent**
- **Default** parameters for number of trees (100) and samples per tree (256)
- Automatic anomaly threshold determination based on the **contamination parameter**

#### Training and Detection:

# fraud\_pred = clf.fit\_predict(transactions)

The fit\_predict() method performs two operations:

- 1. Learns the normal transaction patterns by building isolation trees
- 2. Scores each transaction, returning:
  - 1 for normal transactions
  - -1 for detected anomalies

The algorithm works by:

- 1. Randomly selecting a transaction amount feature
- 2. Randomly selecting a **split value** between min/max observed values
- 3. Building isolation trees where anomalies require **fewer** splits to isolate
- 4. Aggregating results across all trees to compute **anomaly** scores

The algorithm works by isolating observations through <u>random feature selection</u> and <u>splitting</u>.

<u>Normal</u> transactions cluster together and require more partitions to isolate, while <u>anomalous</u> transactions stand out and can be separated with fewer splits. We configure the model expecting about 10% of transactions to be <u>fraudulent</u> (contamination=0.1). When applied to our simulated data, it successfully flags most of the high-value transactions as <u>suspicious</u>, demonstrating its effectiveness at spotting unusual patterns that could indicate <u>fraud</u>.