IDS 702: MODULE 7.1

NTRODUCTION TO TIME SERIES ANALYSIS

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INTRODUCTION

- When data are ordered in time, responses and errors from one period may influence responses and errors from another period.
- For example, it is reasonable to expect unemployment rate in a month to be correlated with unemployment rate in previous month(s).
- Another example: weather events in current time period may depend on weather events in previous time period.
- These are called time series data.
- Correlation due to time is called serial correlation or autocorrelation.
- We will only scratch the surface in this course.



$G \mbox{obs}$ of time series analysis

Forecasting outcomes

- Given a series of outcomes ordered in time, predict the values of the outcomes in the future.
- Examples:
 - forecasting future price of oil given historical oil prices.
 - predicting future price of a particular stock price given past prices of the same stock.
- When forecasting, it is important to also report an interval estimate to incorporate uncertainty about future values.

$G \mbox{obs}$ of time series analysis

Forecasting outcomes

- Forecasting outcomes using predictors may involve building a model for the predictors as well, since we can't observe them in the future.
- For example, predicting inflation rate given employment rate requires estimating future values for the employment rate as well.
- Learning relationships with data ordered in time.
 - How are outcomes correlated over time? Are there periodic relationships in outcomes?
 - Regressions of outcomes on predictors, accounting for correlated errors due to time series.



MOTIVATING EXAMPLE: FTSE 100

- The FTSE (Financial Times Stock Exchange) 100 Index is a share index of the 100 companies listed on the London Stock Exchange with the highest market capitalization.
- A share index is essentially a form of weighted average of prices of selected stocks.
- To motivate our discussions on time series, let's look at data for FTSE 100 returns in 2018.

```
ftse100 <- read.csv("data/ftse2018.csv", header = T)
head(ftse100)</pre>
```

##DateOpenHighLowClose##111/7/20187040.687136.757040.687117.28##211/6/20187103.847117.507027.457040.68##311/5/20187094.127140.377077.407103.84##411/2/20187114.667196.397094.127094.12##511/1/20187128.107165.617085.747114.66##610/31/20187035.857161.547035.857128.10

Can we forecast closing prices for the next five days from 11/7/2018?



MOTIVATING EXAMPLE: FTSE 100

Notice that the data go from latest to earliest date, so let's invert the order of the rows to make the time series increasing in date.

ftse100 <- ftse100[nrow(ftse100):1,]
dim(ftse100)</pre>

[1] 211 5

head(ftse100)

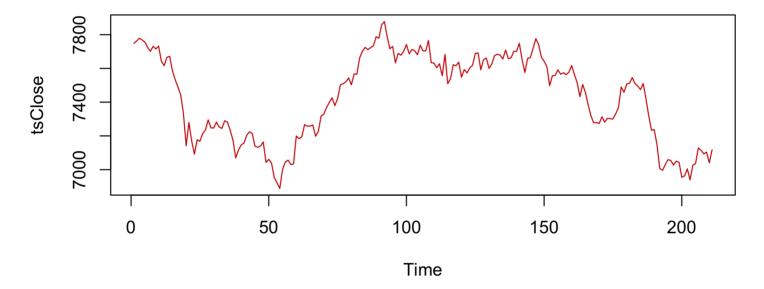
##DateOpenHighLowClose##2111/10/20187731.027756.117716.217748.51##2101/11/20187748.517768.967734.647762.94##2091/12/20187762.947792.567752.637778.64##2081/15/20187778.647783.617763.437769.14##2071/16/20187769.147791.837740.557755.93##2061/17/20187755.937755.937711.117725.43



MOTIVATING EXAMPLE: FTSE 100

Plot the closing prices to see what a simple time series data looks like.

tsClose <- ts(ftse100\$Close); ts.plot(tsClose,col="red3")</pre>



- It is reasonable to expect closing prices for a particular day to be correlated with closing prices for previous days.
- How many of the previous days? We will have to investigate!



- We will revisit that data but let's look at different example, where we also have a predictor.
- Incidence of melanoma (skin cancer) may be related to solar radiation.
- Annual data from Connecticut tumor registry on age adjusted melanoma incidence rates (per 100000 people).
- Treat these rates as without error.
- We also have annual data on relative sunspot (dark spots on the sun caused by intense magnetic activity) activity.
- Data go from 1936 to 1972.



```
cancersun <- read.csv("data/melanoma.csv", header = T)
names(cancersun) = c("year", "melanoma", "sunspot")
str(cancersun)</pre>
```

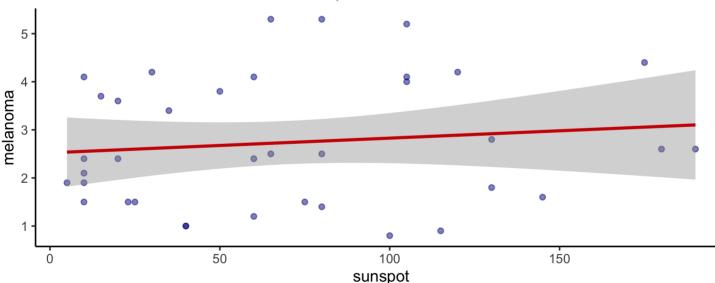
```
## 'data.frame': 37 obs. of 3 variables:
## $ year : int 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945 ...
## $ melanoma: num 1 0.9 0.8 1.4 1.2 1 1.5 1.9 1.5 1.5 ...
## $ sunspot : num 40 115 100 80 60 40 23 10 10 25 ...
```

head(cancersun)

##		year	melanoma	sunspot
##	1	1936	1.0	40
##	2	1937	0.9	115
##	3	1938	0.8	100
##	4	1939	1.4	80
##	5	1940	1.2	60
##	6	1941	1.0	40



```
ggplot(cancersun, aes(x=sunspot, y=melanoma)) +
  geom_point(alpha = .5,colour="blue4") +
  geom_smooth(method="lm",col="red3") +
  labs(title="Melanoma Incidence Rate vs Sunspots") +
  theme_classic()
```



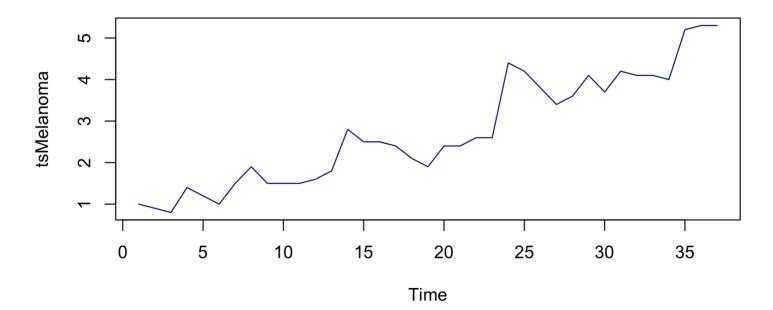
Melanoma Incidence Rate vs Sunspots

Weak positive (maybe!) relationship between them.

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Let's look at melanoma incidence rate in time

tsMelanoma <- ts(cancersun\$melanoma); ts.plot(tsMelanoma,col="blue4")</pre>

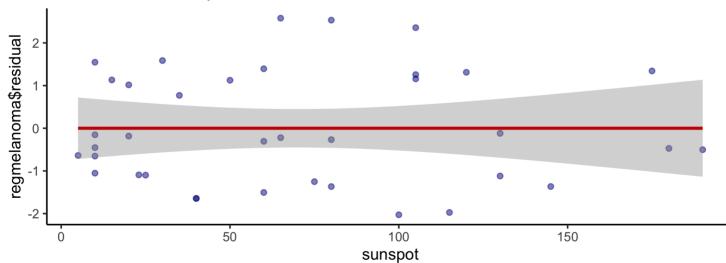


Trend in time, some of which we might be able to explain using sunspots.

Let's fit a linear model to the relationship between the two variables.

```
regmelanoma = lm(melanoma ~ sunspot, data = cancersun)
ggplot(cancersun, aes(x=sunspot, y=regmelanoma$residual)) +
   geom_point(alpha = .5,colour="blue4") +
   geom_smooth(method="lm",col="red3") + labs(title="Residuals vs Sunspots") +
   theme_classic()
```

Residuals vs Sunspots

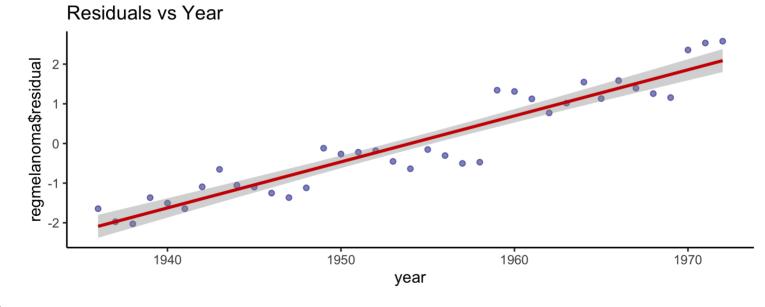


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Residuals look fine here.

Let's plot the residuals versus year.

```
ggplot(cancersun, aes(x=year, y=regmelanoma$residual)) +
  geom_point(alpha = .5,colour="blue4") +
  geom_smooth(method="lm",col="red3") + labs(title="Residuals vs Year") +
  theme_classic()
```



WHAT'S NEXT?

Move on to the readings for the next module!

