

# Teaching Time Series and Regression Using Ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach Data

Ardavan Asef-Vaziri

David Nazarian College of Business and Economics

California State University, Northridge. 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge, CA 91330-824

Email: [aa2035@csun.edu](mailto:aa2035@csun.edu)

## ABSTRACT

The combined ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach (LA/LB ports) in California are among the world's top ten busiest container ports. Approximately 1/3 of US waterborne containers move through the LA/LB ports. The value of two-way trade in these ports exceeds 7% of total US trade in goods. The data on the volume of containerized activities in these ports provide an excellent dataset to teach time series and regression analysis. We use 26 years of data on the activities of these ports to teach forecasting models, including moving averages, exponential smoothing, trend-adjusted exponential smoothing, and regression analysis. We also use 312 monthly data for teaching seasonality-enhanced regression, multivariate seasonality regression using dummy variables, and trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing. We have learned that when theoretical concepts are taught through real-life applications, they positively impact students' mental presence and intellectual engagement inside the classroom. This manuscript can be used as teaching material or a case study in a business analytics foundation or a supply chain analytics course. A set of useful Excel functions and formulas have been brought together and are fully embedded in the models we develop. Our spreadsheet models can serve as templates for other real-life applications the students may encounter in their early employment years.

**Keywords:** freight transportation; ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach; predictive analytics; time series analysis; moving average; trend and seasonality adjusted exponential smoothing; seasonality enhanced regression.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Competitive firms need forecasting to develop integrated resources and processes, nourish multi-dimensional and structurally integrated capabilities, understand the revolving business eco-system, create value, and reshape the business organization towards achieving the plans of the enterprises. Marketing, finance, and operations are the three key building blocks of manufacturing, service, and distribution systems. Planning, organizing, budgeting, executing, and controlling are the primary responsibilities of the three key managers. Operations Managers need forecasting for capacity planning, inventory management, and scheduling. Financial Managers need forecasting for investment analysis, revenue and cost analysis, and cash flow planning. Marketing Managers need forecasting for pricing, sales force planning, and promotions. Good forecasting facilitates matching customer value propositions with product attributes, and product attributes with process

competencies in the four-dimensional space of cost, quality, time, and variety. While marketing, finance, and operation managers may be interested in forecasting different variables, they have a common interest in the volume of activities, investment plans, operating costs, and revenues. They are all interested in long-term and short-term forecasts for strategic, tactical, and operational decisions.

Approximately 1/3 of US seaborne containers move through the LA/LB ports. The value of two-way trade in Southern California customs exceeds 10% of total US international trade in goods. Around 75% of this value passes through to LA/LB ports. Around 125,000 firms consider the LA/LB ports their export hub, and 175,000 firms consider these ports their import hubs. One out of 10 jobs in Southern California is associated with LA/LB ports.

The inbound and outbound volumes of the loaded and empty containers in LA/LB ports provide an attractive data set to teach the basics of time series and regression analytics. This manuscript is a complete teaching material for time series and regression analysis.

Teaching-focused business schools (TFBSs) form close to 50% of all AACSB (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business) accredited institutions. State-funded teaching-focused business schools (SFTFBSs) are a large subset of (TFBSs). Many of these lower-funded SFTFBSs educate nontraditional, low-income, a mixture of first-generation high school or community college graduates. SFTFBS students are often self-supporting and work 20-60 hours per week. With less time dedicated to education, these students require more educational resources and streamlined learning processes than traditional university students. This manuscript provides a streamlined approach to learning time series and regression methods.

By fully implementing time series and regression analysis in Excel, we provide a platform where students can learn the basic, intermediate, and some advanced Excel functions and formulas. Excel is among the three fundamental skills (communication skills and time management) employers seek in SFTFBS graduates. We have tried to bring well-known forecasting techniques under one roof, link them with well-thought-of Excel functions and formulas, and combine them in well-integrated and easy-to-follow Excel sheets. Our spreadsheet models can also serve as templates for other real-life applications students may encounter in their early employment years.

Competitive the emphasis on globalization in today's education, developing case studies in international trade provides suitable teaching material in this direction. Articles of this kind facilitate continuing education and lifetime learning on information and operations management subjects. Manuscripts of this type may also constitute a bridge between port administrations looking for employees with good analytical skills and academic institutions training workforces to apply their skills in modern ports.

This manuscript can be used as teaching material or as a case study to enhance teaching materials. We have used it as teaching material in an undergraduate course in business analytics foundations and as a case study in a supply chain analytics graduate course.

We will have a short literature review in Section 2. In Section 3, we estimate yearly port throughput levels using moving averages and exponential smoothing. Measures of forecast accuracy and variability are discussed in Section 4. The level and trend for yearly data are discussed in Section 5 using linear Regression and trend-adjusted exponential smoothing. Section 6 estimates monthly data's level, trend, and seasonality using seasonality-enhanced regression analysis, multivariate seasonality regression using seasonal dummy variables, and trend and exponential seasonality smoothing. Conclusions follow in Section 7. In Appendix A, we implement Excel's functional and

visualization capabilities by examining a general any-period moving average and its dynamic tables and graphs. In Appendix B, we review the basic mathematics of Exponential Smoothing. Appendix C explains the foundations of the computation of Regression metrics in Excel and provides insight for piecewise regression analysis. All our Excel worksheets are in Appendix D.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

Forecasting methods are partitioned into qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitative techniques are based on expert opinions and intuition, such as subjective judgment, surveys, salesforce polling, historical analogies, and the Delphi method.

Time series and regression analysis are among the quantitative forecasting tools. They form one or more chapters in (i) Operations and Supply Chain Management and (ii) Business Analytics Foundations books. For Operations Management and Supply Chain Management books, the reader is referred to Cachon and Terwiesch (2020), Chase, Aquilano, and Jacobs (2000), Heizer, Render, and Munson (2023), Stevenson (2014), Venkataraman and Pino (2018), and especially Chopra (2019) and Iravani (2021). For Business Analytics Foundations books, the reader is referred to Albright and Winston (2015), Camm, Cochran, Fry, and Ohlmann (2020), Jaggia, Kelly, Lertwachara, and Chen (2023), and Krajewski, Malhotra, and Ritzman (2016), and Winston (2022).

To limit the length of this manuscript, we do not cover autoregressive models. An autoregressive model is a regression model where the forecasts are based on previous periods. The reader is referred to Chapter 3, Iravani (2021), for a simple introduction to an autoregressive model. The moving average in the autoregressive moving average model (ARMA) differs from what we discuss in this manuscript. In ARMA's moving average model, the forecasts are based on deviations from past forecasts (a taste of Exponential Smoothing). That means a part of the forecast is based on the past observations (AR part), and another part is based on the deviations from the past observations (MA part). The AR part can be obtained using Regression, while the MA part follows a stationary distribution. The integration part is the difference between ARMA and ARIMA (autoregressive integrated moving average). It identifies the number of time differences to make the time series stationary. For an in-depth review of ARMA and ARIMA and more advanced techniques, the reader is referred to Box, Jenkins, Reinsel, and Ljung (2015), Brockwell, Davis, and Calder (2002), and Keating and Wilson (2019).

## **3. HISTORICAL DATA IN LA/LB PORTS AND FORECASTING CHARACTERISTICS**

Time series analyzes past data to identify and separate systematic and random components, extend systematic components into the future, and provide measures of variability. We use 26 years of data on the total inbound and outbound volume of loaded and empty containers in LA/LB ports to experience moving averages, simple exponential smoothing, trend-adjusted exponential smoothing (Holt's method), and regression analysis. We also use 312 monthly data for seasonality-enhanced Regression, multivariate seasonality regression using dummy variables, and trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing (Winters' method). Excel functions and formulas are fully embedded in these computations.

### **3.1 Historical Data at LA/LB Ports**

Table 1 presents parts of 26 years of monthly data for LA and LB, including loaded inbound, loaded outbound, empty inbound, and empty outbound - 312 records with 2496 fields.

**Table 1. 26-Years Monthly TEUs Handling in LA/LB Ports.**

Port of Los Angeles													Port of Long Beach														
Y	M	Loaded	Empty	Loaded	Empty	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Loaded	Empty	Loaded	Empty	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	
Y	M	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Total Tels	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	Inbound	Outbound	
1	1997	1	Jan	115,599	11,776	72,537	36,438	107,065	108,975	177,886	48,154	236,040	15	129,456	8,349	9,865	33,135	131,805	112,100	102,421	41,484	245,905	238,805	20,065	151,502	69,573	224,870
2	1997	2	Feb	100,597	11,776	71,376	33,185	112,732	104,561	177,332	44,961	227,293	16	126,804	8,452	9,586	27,452	135,256	115,018	114,390	35,884	250,174	227,761	20,228	158,962	60,147	249,889
3	1997	3	Mar	102,389	10,673	83,446	33,604	112,062	117,100	183,835	44,327	230,362	17	125,040	11,619	106,536	30,499	136,839	127,049	131,396	42,312	273,908	227,429	22,492	150,002	60,147	249,889
4	1997	4	Apr	117,009	12,781	72,111	34,513	129,796	111,724	194,246	47,274	241,520	18	146,110	9,216	8,899	28,613	155,308	123,508	139,003	37,831	276,834	263,145	21,877	170,104	61,128	265,122
5	1997	5	May	123,100	13,611	76,327	38,165	138,711	114,492	199,428	51,778	251,203	19	143,330	8,927	91,794	30,425	152,327	125,760	135,064	42,943	278,017	266,430	22,588	168,061	72,191	268,968
6	1997	6	Jun	127,638	12,526	72,999	32,659	140,219	106,058	200,265	45,189	245,453	20	155,763	8,534	100,262	31,080	174,387	135,942	166,025	43,054	289,629	270,458	21,050	176,661	67,739	274,556
7	1997	7	Jul	130,481	13,774	71,623	37,187	143,715	108,800	202,103	50,461	252,564	21	169,964	8,866	96,344	42,926	176,830	139,170	166,208	48,792	315,000	300,445	19,140	167,867	80,113	310,585
8	1997	8	Aug	132,619	10,770	70,892	45,512	143,389	116,404	203,511	56,282	259,792	22	165,519	5,919	97,518	43,970	175,168	131,488	147,733	49,889	297,622	292,834	16,689	158,410	89,462	308,523
9	1997	9	Sep	132,919	10,780	65,623	47,253	143,699	112,867	198,534	54,033	252,567	23	169,514	5,454	102,563	59,168	145,130	174,475	157,807	51,482	316,833	306,176	19,606	153,067	105,982	312,309
10	1997	10	Oct	132,919	10,780	65,623	47,253	143,699	112,867	198,534	54,033	252,567	24	169,514	5,454	102,563	59,168	145,130	174,475	157,807	51,482	316,833	306,176	19,606	153,067	105,982	312,309
11	1997	11	Nov	132,919	10,780	65,623	47,253	143,699	112,867	198,534	54,033	252,567	25	169,514	5,454	102,563	59,168	145,130	174,475	157,807	51,482	316,833	306,176	19,606	153,067	105,982	312,309
12	1997	12	Dec	132,919	10,780	65,623	47,253	143,699	112,867	198,534	54,033	252,567	26	169,514	5,454	102,563	59,168	145,130	174,475	157,807	51,482	316,833	306,176	19,606	153,067	105,982	312,309
13	1998	1	Jan	143,132	12,776	72,537	36,438	107,065	108,975	177,886	48,154	236,040	27	181,910	9,638	145,902	48,990	194,992	153,536	177,416	54,28	348,408	340,577	16,375	171,928	136,499	317,752
14	1998	2	Feb	140,625	6,431	89,720	17,515	134,765	265,025	435,335	18,744	612,080	28	180,732	9,944	82,218	141,101	170,696	223,402	142,970	151,128	494,098	401,377	16,375	171,928	136,499	317,752
15	1998	3	Mar	141,284	4,316	95,941	214,538	369,500	310,499	437,523	228,874	676,399	29	181,817	11,395	82,441	134,011	193,212	236,432	164,238	155,408	528,664	443,401	15,711	178,382	168,569	439,112
16	1998	4	Apr	139,428	4,681	85,693	196,587	344,129	283,280	426,121	201,287	627,408	30	174,614	9,410	79,339	137,241	184,324	238,580	154,253	166,651	529,954	434,342	14,093	166,032	153,628	428,433
17	1998	5	May	138,722	5,624	76,129	192,306	324,346	268,435	394,851	197,930	592,780	31	176,190	9,136	76,190	133,438	184,728	229,648	131,782	162,594	494,378	434,342	14,093	166,032	153,628	428,433
18	1998	6	Jun	147,553	5,383	91,495	198,724	352,718	418,849	204,087	642,935	32	188,590	10,959	85,824	176,292	259,249	258,116	174,414	183,251	537,665	439,945	18,322	177,319	171,016	452,267	
19	1998	7	Jul	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	33	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
20	1998	8	Aug	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	34	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
21	1998	9	Sep	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	35	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
22	1998	10	Oct	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	36	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
23	1998	11	Nov	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	37	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
24	1998	12	Dec	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	38	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
25	1999	1	Jan	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	39	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
26	1999	2	Feb	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	40	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
27	1999	3	Mar	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	41	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
28	1999	4	Apr	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	42	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
29	1999	5	May	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	43	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
30	1999	6	Jun	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	44	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
31	1999	7	Jul	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	45	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
32	1999	8	Aug	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	46	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
33	1999	9	Sep	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	47	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
34	1999	10	Oct	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	48	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
35	1999	11	Nov	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	49	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
36	1999	12	Dec	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	50	195,717	10,692	94,946	176,789	268,409	276,205	195,153	187,461	582,614	431,577	14,887	189,719	176,828	464,459
37	2000	1	Jan	155,855	4,195	90,281	200,059	340,000	290,242	426,139	204,354	630,493	51	19													

distribution estimated by Normal distribution. Thus, besides the average demand, we need a measure of variability- standard deviation, variance, or coefficient of variation. If the average forecast for the next period is  $F$ , and the standard deviation of  $F$  is  $S$ , the coefficient of variation  $CV = S/F$  provides a measure of variability; the lower the coefficient of variation, the more confident we are with the forecast.

**(II) Forecasts of aggregate values are more accurate than individual item forecasts.** Aggregate forecasts reduce variability. The forecast for all container ports in the world is more accurate than the forecast for US container ports, the forecast for US container ports is more accurate than the forecast for California's ports, and the forecast for California's ports is more accurate than the forecast for the port of Hueneme in Channel Island, North-East of Los Angeles. Aggregate forecasts reduce the relative variability with respect to the average forecast. One can intuitively understand that the forecast for the summation of two products is more accurate than the forecast for each product because the high demand for one product may compensate for the low demand for the other. From a mathematical point of view, the variance of the sum of two variables is equal to the sum of the variances of the two variables. Therefore, the standard deviation of the summation of the two variables (the numerator of CV) is less than the sum of the two standard deviations. If the standard deviations of the following year's volume of activities in each of the LA and LB ports are equal and are shown by  $\sigma$ , then the variance for the volume of activities in the combined port is  $2\sigma^2$ . Therefore, the next year's activities volume standard deviation for the combined LA/LB ports is less than  $2\sigma$ ;  $\text{SQRT}(2)\sigma$ .

**(III) Long-term forecasts are less accurate than short-term forecasts.** Forecast accuracy diminishes as we look further into the future. As we get closer to the demand time, we get better information and make better predictions. The forecast for next year's LA/LB activities is more accurate than the forecast for ten years in the future.

### 3.3. Impact of Characteristics of Forecasting Techniques on LA/LB Ports Throughput.

Table 3 shows the world's container port throughput (in twenty-foot equivalent units- or TEUs) in ten countries and ten ports. The combined ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach (LA/LB) are ranked 10th in the world. They comprise the largest port complex in the Western Hemisphere.

**Table 3. Container port and country rankings.**

Container Throughput (Port Ranking)			
(Million TEU)			
Rank	Port	Country	MTEUs
1	Shanghai	China	43.5
2	Singapore	Singapore	36.6
3	Ningbo-Zhoushan	China	28.7
4	Shenzhen	China	26.6
5	Guangzhou Harbor	China	23.2
6	Busan	South Korea	21.6
7	Qingdao	China	22.0
8	Hong Kong, S.A.R	China	18.0
9	Tianjin	China	18.4
10	SPB (LA/LB)	USA	17.3

(a) Top 10 ports: 33%

Container Throughput (Country Ranking)			
(Million TEU)			
Rank	Country	MTEUs	% to World
1	China	245.1	31.2%
2	United States	55.0	7.0%
3	Singapore	36.9	4.7%
4	Korea	28.4	3.6%
5	Malaysia	26.7	3.4%
6	Japan	21.4	2.7%
7	United Arab Emirates	19.3	2.5%
8	Germany	18.0	2.3%
9	Hong Kong SAR, China	18.0	2.3%
10	Spain	17.4	2.2%

(b) Top 10 countries: 62%

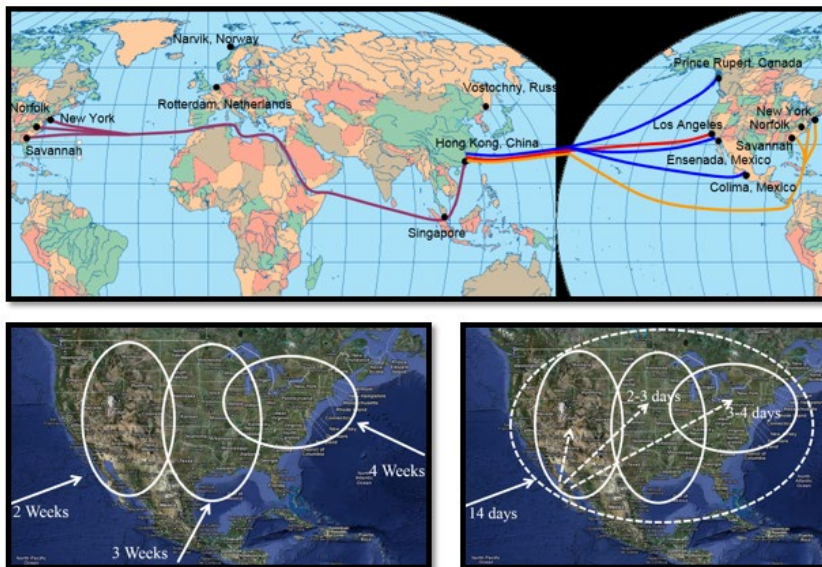
Source: American Association of Port Authorities, 2020.



What are the competing edges of LA/LB ports? Deepwater facilities for post-Panama ships containing close to 20,000 containers? State-of-the-art on-dock facilities to transfer containers between ship and train? Intermodal transfer between sea, rail, and road? Consolidation and distribution facilities for trans-loading from 20- and 40-foot containers to 56-foot containers allowed on California roads? According to Leachman (2010), the characteristics of forecasting techniques are one of the key reasons behind the attractiveness of LA/LB ports.

As pictorially shown in Figure 1, shipping containers from the far-east to the east coast may take four weeks. This shipment takes two weeks to the west coast and 2-4 weeks from the far-east to the mid-US. For shipments from the Far East to the east-coast, one needs to forecast the demand for the east-coast four weeks in advance. However, the demand forecast two weeks in advance is enough for shipping to the west-cost. According to forecasting characteristics (III), forecasting the east-cost demand when the commodity is in west-cost will be more accurate than in East Asia.

**Figure 1. Forecasting-Based Competing Edges of LA/LB Ports.**



Furthermore, according to forecasting characteristic (II), forecasting the US aggregate demand is more accurate than forecasting demand for any smaller region in the US. Therefore, instead of forecasting for the three regions 14, 21, and 28 days ahead, one may forecast the total US aggregate demand 14 days ahead. It will take 1-3 days to drayage the containers to the final regions. Instead of estimating the demand of the east-coast alone, which is less accurate than the demand for the whole US, and instead of forecasting it four weeks ahead, one can forecast for 14+3 days ahead with more accuracy.

#### 4. CURRENT LEVEL AND FORECAST FOR THE NEXT PERIOD

In this section, we estimate the level of demand using moving averages and exponential smoothing. Using these two techniques, we can forecast the average and standard deviation of the next period's activities. The forecast for all future periods remains the same as the next period as a straight line. The forecasts are updated when the actual data for the next period becomes available. In Section 5, we include trends, and in Section 6, we include seasonality in the levels estimated in this section. All the formulas in all tables are summarized in a set of cells with a gray or white background.

Details of all Excel formulas in all tables are summarized in a set of cells with gray backgrounds or in red fonts.

#### 4.1. Moving Average Forecasts

Given the annual volume of container handling at the LA/LB ports, a progressive (or naïve) analyst may assume last year's demand as the demand forecast for this year;  $F_{27} = A_{26}$ . A conservative and perhaps irrational analyst may consider the average of all years as the demand forecast for next year;  $F_{27} = \text{AVERAGE}(A_{26}+A_{25}+\dots+A_2+A_1)$ .

Ordinary people, however, may stay between these two extremes and estimate the demand for the next year based on the observations in the past n-periods. An n-period moving average forecast for year 26 is defined as  $MA_{26} = \text{AVERAGE}(A_{26}, A_{25}, \dots, A_{26-n})$ . The forecast for year 27 is then defined as the n-period moving average in year 26;  $F_{27} = MA_{26}$ . The 4-period moving average forecast in year 27 equals the 4-period moving average in year 26;  $F_{27} MA_{26} = (A_{26}+A_{25}+A_{24}+A_{23})/4$ . Generally,  $F_{t+1} = MA_n^t (A_t+A_{t-1}+\dots+A_{t-n})/n$ . Note that the n-period moving averages do not exist until period n and n-period moving average forecasts do not exist until period n+1. Basic moving average formulas for 1-period, all-period, and 4-period moving averages are shown in Figure 4 columns C to E. In Appendix A, we develop a general dynamic formula adaptable to every n-period moving average, along with its dynamic tables and graphs. It provides a playground to practice advanced Excel functions and formulas.

#### 4.2. Exponential Smoothing

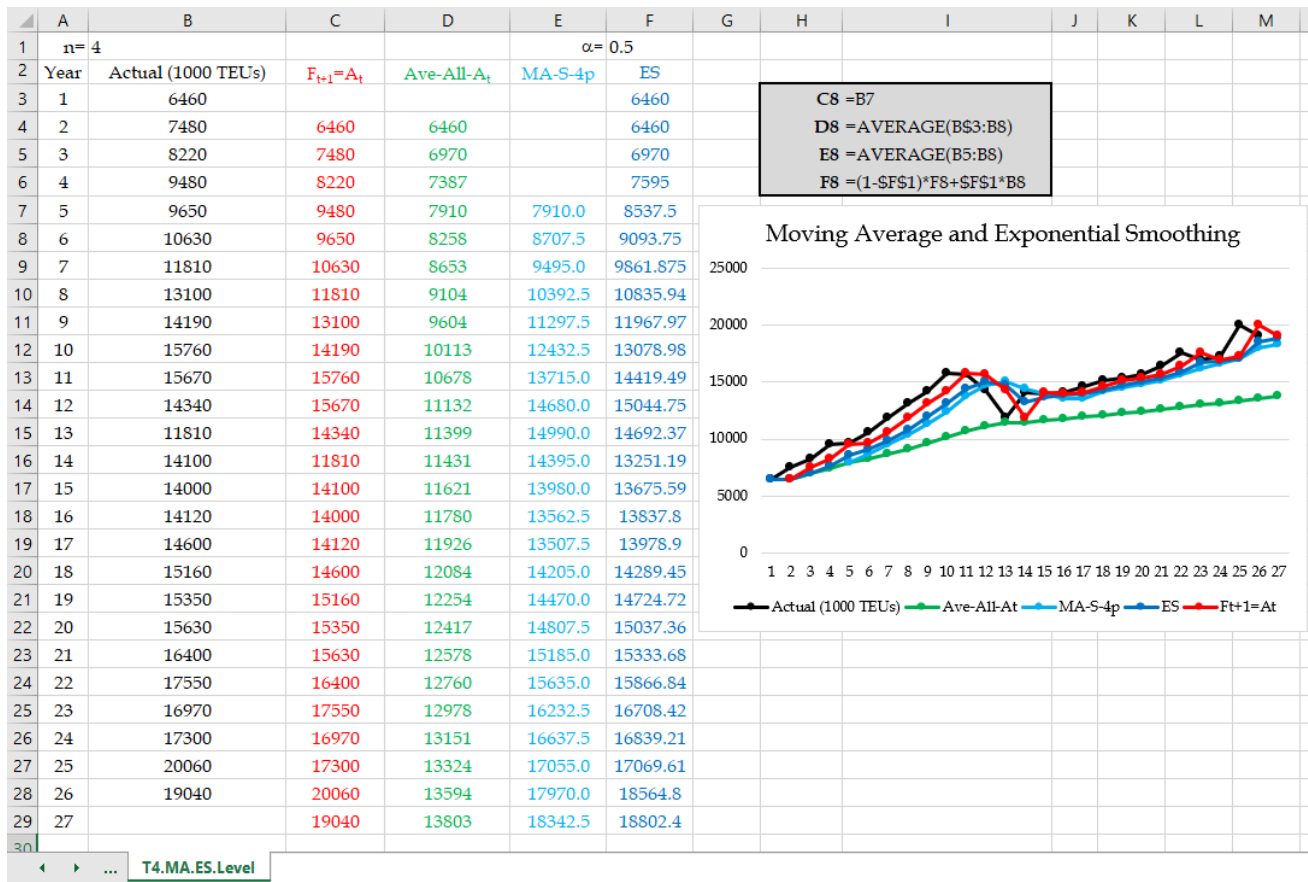
In exponential smoothing, the forecast for the next period equals the forecast for this period plus a fraction of the gap between the actual and forecast values in this period.  $F_{t+1} = F_t + \alpha(A_t - F_t)$ , where  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ . It has an autoregressive taste. A minor manipulation can restate it as  $F_{t+1} = (1-\alpha)F_t + \alpha A_t$ . That is, the forecast for the next period is the weighted average of the forecast and actual for this period. It smooths the gap between the actual demand and its forecast.

To start, we need to have a forecast for period 1. There are at least three ways to compute the forecast for the first period. (i)  $F_1=A_1$ , (ii)  $F_1$ =average of all existing actual values, (iii)  $F_1$ =interpret of the linear regression line (discussed later) applied to the existing actual values. We follow the first approach and set  $F_1=A_1$ .

For  $\alpha=0.5$ , the formula is transformed into  $F_{t+1} = 0.5F_t + 0.5A_t = (F_t + A_t)/2$ . The forecast for the next period is equal to the average of the actual and the forecast for this period. For  $\alpha=1$ , the formula is transformed into  $F_{t+1} = A_t$ ; the forecast for the next period is equal to the actual for this period. For  $\alpha=0$ , the formula is transformed into  $F_{t+1} = F_t$ ; the forecast for the next period is equal to the forecast for this period.

We usually start with  $\alpha=0.5$  and use an optimization tool, such as Excel's standard SOLVER add-ins or Data Table, to find the optimal  $\alpha$  minimizing one of the metrics discussed in the next section. In Appendix B, we show that exponential smoothing is the weighted average of all pieces of data where the weights continually get smaller on the older data. Exponential smoothing forecasts using  $\alpha=0.5$  are in column F of Table 4. This table also shows the graph for alternative forecasting techniques that can be prepared using Excel's scatter graph or line chart. Key formulas are shown in the gray box.

**Table 4. Alternative Moving Average and Exponential Smoothing Forecasts.**



#### 4.4. Age of data in Moving Average and Exponential Smoothing

A 4-period moving average forecast can be computed only after period 4, and then it is set as the forecast for period 5;  $F_5=MA_4$ . The newest piece of data in  $F_5$  belongs to period 4 and is 1 period old. The oldest data belongs to period 1 and is 4 periods old. Therefore, in a 4-period moving average, the age of data is  $(1+4)/2 = 2.5$  periods. In an  $n$ -period moving average, the age of data is  $(n+1)/2$  periods. It is proved in Appendix B that the age of data in Exponential Smoothing is  $1/\alpha$ . Given 2.5 as the age of data in a 4-period moving average, the data in an exponential smoothing with  $1/\alpha = 2.5$ , i.e.,  $\alpha = 0.4$ , has the same age. An exponential smoothing forecast with  $\alpha = 0.6667$  is equivalent to a 2-period moving average forecast, and an exponential smoothing forecast with  $\alpha = 0.1$  is equivalent to a moving average forecast with about 19 periods.

The smaller the  $\alpha$  in Exponential smoothing has the same effect as the larger the number of periods in the moving average. They smooth out the recent fluctuations. Larger values for  $\alpha$  in Exponential Smoothing similar to the smaller number of periods in the moving average result in higher responsiveness to recent fluctuations. An  $\alpha = 1$  has the same role as a 1-period moving average; the forecast for the next period is equal to the actual in this period.

#### 5. Measuring Forecast Accuracy and Variability

In this section, we provide foundations to answer two questions. How do we measure the suitability of a forecasting technique for a specific dataset? How can one compare the quality of several forecasting techniques for a specific dataset?



### 5.1. A Basic Forecast Accuracy and Variability Measure

Given the actual data and forecast ( $A_t$  and  $F_t$ ) and error ( $E_t = A_t - F_t$ ), we define the sum of forecast error  $SFE = \text{SUM}(E_t)$  and average error  $BIAS = \text{AVERAGE}(E_t)$ . Since the error values are positive or negative, they cross each other out if they are added or averaged. SFE and BIAS are expected to be small and close to zero. A forecasting approach may be considered of high quality on the foundations of SFE and BIAS. Still, there may be significant gaps between actual and forecast values in both positive and negative directions. This problem can be resolved by considering the absolute value of the gaps. Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD) is defined as  $MAD = \text{AVERAGE}(\text{ABS}(E_t))$ .

MAD serves two essential purposes. First, it compares two or more forecasting techniques and identifies the best based on the lowest MAD value. Second,  $1.25MAD$  provides an estimate of the standard deviation of the demand forecast. A forecasting method provides  $F_{t+1}$  as the estimate for the average demand in the next period. 1.25 times the most recent MAD is the standard deviation of the forecast for the next period. In other words,  $A_{t+1} \sim N(F_{t+1}, 1.25MAD_t)$ ; demand for the next period follows a normal distribution with an average of  $F_{t+1}$  and a standard deviation of  $1.25MAD_t$ .

The tracking signal is defined as  $TS = SFE/MAD$ . It is a positive or negative number divided by a positive number. In an accurate forecasting method, the summation of all errors is expected to be zero. TS can jump up and down on the positive and negative sides due to randomness in the actual data, but in an accurate forecasting method, it should remain close to zero. We can also define the upper control limit (UCL) and lower control limit (LCL). In some textbooks, it is stated that TS moves between  $LCL = -4$  and  $UCL = +4$ . In Appendix B, we will mathematically prove that the limits of  $\pm 4$  are incorrect.

TS serves two essential purposes. First, we expect it to stay within UCL and LCL. Second, we do not expect to see a pattern over time. For example, we do not expect to see an always positive or consistently negative TS. In the first case, our forecasting technique underestimates the demand since we have the summation of  $A_t - F_t$  in the numerator. In the second case, it overestimates the demand. We also do not expect to see a cyclic pattern since, in that case, there may be seasonality in the data that is not incorporated into our forecasting.

In a general demand forecast, we may assign a higher weight to positive gaps than to a negative gap. In the second case, we have overstock; in the first case, we lost sales. Usually, the cost of overstock is less than the cost of lost sales. In these cases, we may assign a coefficient greater than 1 to positive  $E_t = A_t - F_t$  values. We may also benefit from the newsvendor problem (Arrow, Harris, and Marshak, 1951; Schweitzer and Cachon, 2000; Iravani, 2021) to find a good tradeoff coefficient of underestimating and overestimating demand.

### 4.2. Alternative Forecast Accuracy and Variability Measures

An alternative approach to removing negative signs is to square the errors and replace MAD with Mean Squared Error ( $MSE = \text{AVERAGE}(E_t^2)$ ). MSE prevents large gaps between forecast and actual values since the errors are squared. MAD computation was more straightforward when implemented long before calculators and sliding rulers. However, working with an absolute value in mathematical expressions, for example, computing the derivative of an expression containing an absolute value, is difficult. It becomes easy if the squared values replace absolute values. In addition to  $1.25MAD$ , the square root of MSE provides another estimate for the standard deviation of the forecast. That is  $A_{t+1} \sim N(F_{t+1}, \text{SQRT}(MSE_t))$ .

**Table 5. All Metrics for Forecast Accuracy and Reliability.**

[illegible]

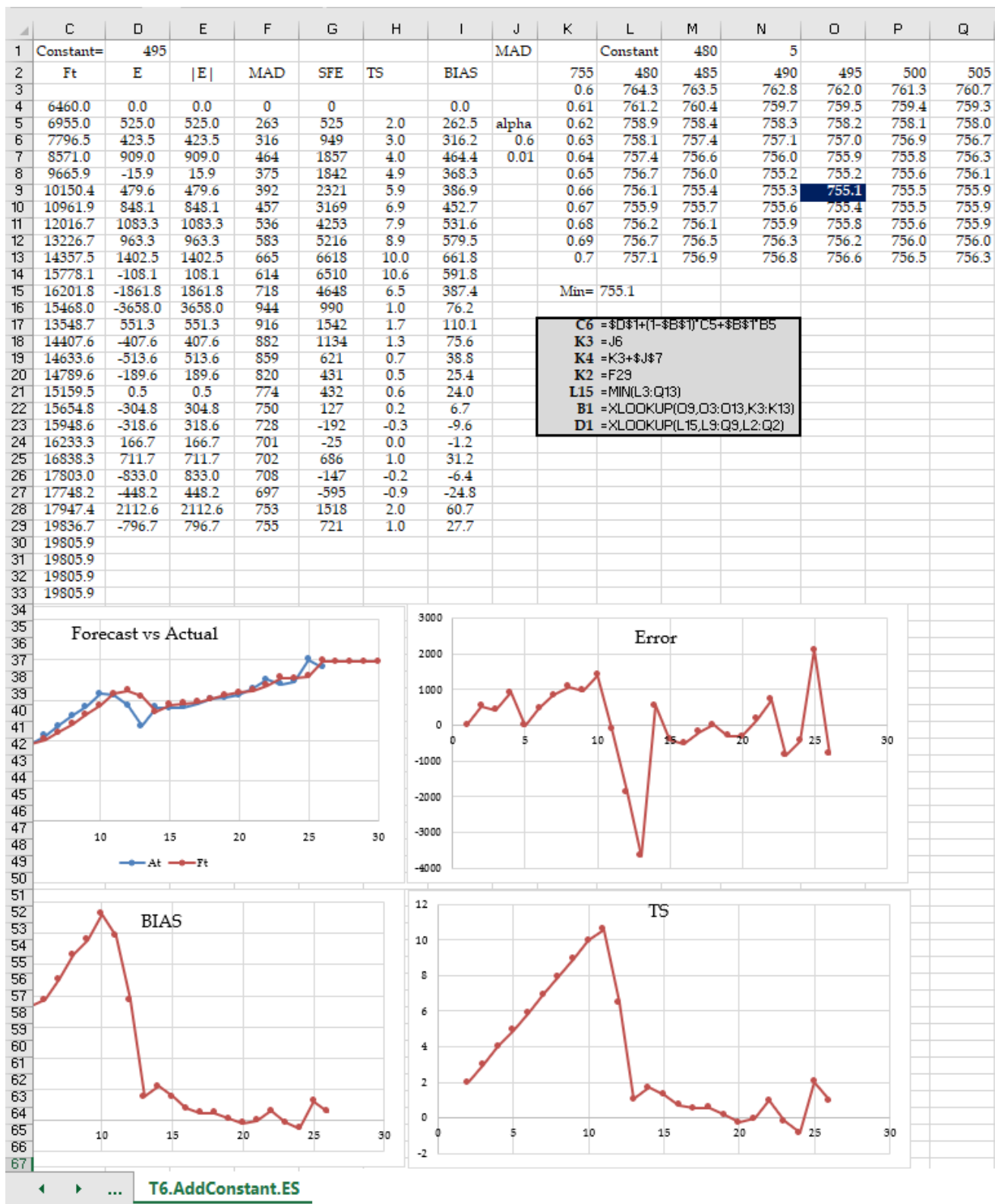
The optimal  $\alpha$  value can be computed in at least two ways. (i) SOLVER and (ii) Data Table. For SOLVER, the objective function is to set one of the three measures of MAD, MSE, or MARD (in cells H29, I29, and J29) to be minimized, and  $\alpha$  cell B1 is the changing cell to minimize the objective function value. For the Data Table, we set cells P4, Q4, and R4 equal to cells H29, I29, and J29, respectively. The  $\alpha$  values start from a cell one column to the left and one row below MAD. Using a formula, we can find the value of  $\alpha$  in the Data Table with as many decimal points as the value obtained by SOLVER. This is done by typing the starting  $\alpha$  value of 0 and the increment in two arbitrary cells (such as cells O2 and O3 in this example). We then set O5=O2 and O6=O2+\$O\$3 and copy down from 0 to 1. After setting O4 to R15,  $\rightarrow$  Data  $\rightarrow$  What-if Analysis  $\rightarrow$  Data Table. Since alternative  $\alpha$  values are typed in a column (not in a row), inside the column input cell, we point to

B1, where the  $\alpha$  value is placed. We then find the  $\alpha$  value corresponding to the minimal MAD (or MSE or MARD) value. Suppose the  $\alpha$  value for the minimal MAD is 0.7. To estimate  $\alpha$  with more decimal points), we can set cell O2 to 0.65 and O3 to 0.001 and find the minimum ( in the range of 0.65 to 0.74). We can continue this procedure to as many decimal points as we wish to find answers as precisely as SOLVER with the Data Table.

Optimal  $\alpha$  computations using both solver and Data Table for all three metrics and their normalization (divide each by the minimal value in that column) are shown in Table 5. The reader is encouraged to look into all the formulas in gray cells. We have also used conditional formatting to highlight the minimal values.

The reason for an upward tracking signal is the positive overall trend of actual data. That is why the moving average recommends  $n=1$  and exponential smoothing recommends  $\alpha=1$ . When the tracking signal shows a continual or increasing positive trend, we may add a constant to the forecast value. In Table 6, we implemented a two-dimensional Data Table to find the optimal value for  $\alpha = 0.66$  plus a constant of 495 to be added to the forecast to minimize MAD. The computations for exponential smoothing and the essential formulas are shown in Table 6.

**Table 6. Forecasting Measures under Optimal  $\alpha$  and a Constant for Exponential Smoothing.**

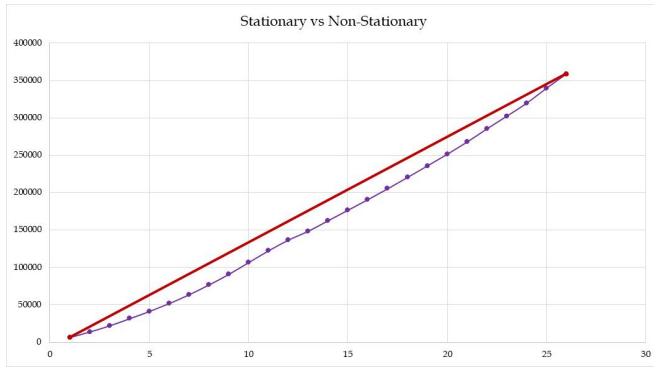


#### 4.5. Stationary vs. Non-Stationary Data.

In our dataset, the optimal  $\alpha$  for all three metrics is equal (this is not the case most of the time) and is equal to 1 (this is also not the case most of the time). Since we have an upward trend almost in all

years, an  $\alpha=1$ , and therefore  $F_{t+1}=A_t$  is the best solution. Moving average and Exponential Smoothing are appropriate for stationary data. We can draw the  $Cum_t = \text{SUM}(A_t)$  function to check if a data set is stationary. The data is stationary if  $Cum_t$  is close to a straight line. Figure 2 shows  $Cum_t$  for our data is distant from a line. We will later discuss trend-adjusted exponential smoothing and Regression for data with a trend.

**Figure 2. Stationary vs. Non-Stationary Data.**



## 5. LEVEL AND TREND

This section reviews (i) Bi-variate linear Regression and (ii) Trend-adjusted exponential smoothing.

### 5.1. Bi-variable Linear Regression.

The bi-variable linear Regression is generally stated as  $y=b_0+b_1x$ . Our time series case can be stated as  $F_t = b_0 + b_1t$ . While we could have continued with the actual years, we set  $t$  equal to the current year minus 1996 for simplicity. No matter how we enumerate the years, while we will have different values for  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ , all the analyses and the shape of the regression line remain the same. Alternative linear regression tools are explained below and are summarized in Table 7. Unlike moving average and exponential smoothing, where the forecast for all future periods is equal to the forecast for the next period, Regression's forecast for any period  $t$  can be computed as  $F_t = b_0 + b_1t$ .

**Procedure-1. Add Trend Line.** After presenting the data in a scatter graph, we can right-click on the graph and choose to add a trendline. Options of exponential, linear, logarithmic, polynomial, power, and moving average will appear. We chose linear. We also check the display equation and display the R-squared value boxes. The scatter graph shows the regression equation  $y = 419.22x + 8143.6$  and  $R^2 = 0.8418$ . The larger the R-square ( $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$ ), the more reliable the regression line.

**Procedure-2. Data Analysis Add-Ins.** Choose Data Tab → Data Analysis → Regression. In the next table, enter the Y variable ( $A_t$ ), then X variables ( $t$ ), and select the cell that will be in the east-north of the table (we select cell E1). If the distance between the two blue numbers in the bottom part of Table 7 (confidence interval for  $b_1$ ) does not cover zero, there is a relationship between Y and X ( $b_1 \neq 0$ ). If the blue number in the top part of the table (significance F) is less than 0.05, with more than 95% confidence, not both  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  are zero.

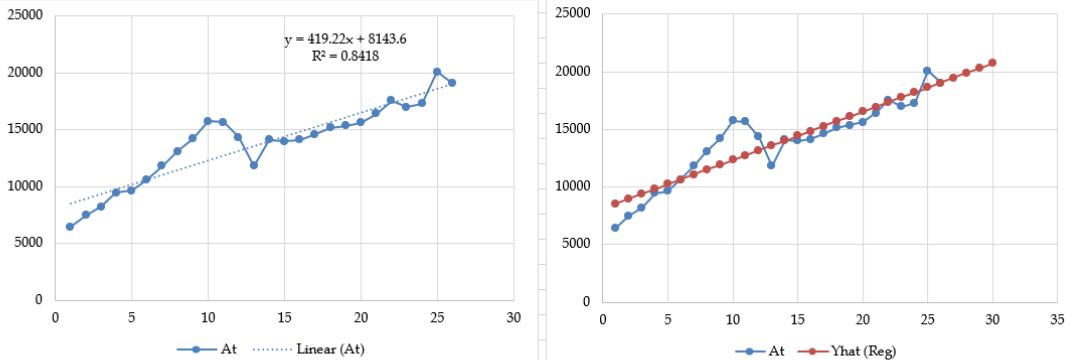
This approach is not recommended for bi-variable linear Regression if we do not need all the information this Add-Ins provides. That is because we must reproduce the table if a value changes, and it also occupies a portion of the worksheet. As shown in the seasonality-enhanced multi-

variable Regression, Data Analysis Add-Ins is a good choice for bi-variable non-linear and multi-variable linear and non-linear cases.

**Procedure 3. Excel Functions.** As shown in Table 7, we can compute most of the Data Analysis Add-Ins output using Excel functions such as INTERCEPT, SLOPE, RSQ, STEYX, CORREL, CONFIDENCE.NORM, CONFIDENCE.T, and additional formulas.

**Procedure 4. Using More Fundamental Computations in Excel.** In Appendix C, we will provide the basic knowledge of the computation of regression metrics through computing SST, SSE, and SSR, as well as a piecewise regression.

**Table 7. Alternative Linear Regression Computations**

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1	t	At	Yhat (Reg)		SUMMARY OUTPUT							
2	1	6460	8562.8		Regression Statistics							
3	2	7480	8982.0		Multiple R	0.9175 =CORREL(\$B\$2:\$B\$27,\$A\$2:\$A\$27)		0.9175 =SQRT(F4)	Correlation Coefficient			
4	3	8220	9401.3		R Square	0.8418 =RSQ(\$B\$2:\$B\$27,\$A\$2:\$A\$27)		0.8418 =F3^2	Coefficient of Determination			
5	4	9480	9820.5		Adjusted R Square	0.8352		b0	8143.60 =INTERCEPT(\$B\$2:\$B\$27,\$A\$2:\$A\$27)			
6	5	9650	10239.7		Standard Error	1418.51 =STEYX(B2:B27,A2:A27)		b1	419.22 =SLOPE(\$B\$2:\$B\$27,\$A\$2:\$A\$27)			
7	6	10630	10658.9		Observations	26 =COUNT(B2:B27)		R-Square	0.8418 =RSQ(\$B\$2:\$B\$27,\$A\$2:\$A\$27)			
8	7	11810	11078.1		ANOVA			StdError	1418.51 =STEYX(B2:B27,A2:A27)			
9	8	13100	11497.4			df	SS	MS	F	Significance F		
10	9	14190	11916.6		Regression	1	257028288.6	257028289	127.7369	4.2761E-11		
11	10	15760	12335.8		Residual	24	48292065.23	2012169				
12	11	15670	12755.0		Total	25	305320353.8					
13	12	14340	13174.2			Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	
14	13	11810	13593.5		Intercept (b0)	8143.60	572.83	14.22	3.47169E-13	6961.33	9325.87	
15	14	14100	14012.7		X Variable 1 (b1)	419.22	37.09	11.30	4.27614E-11	342.67	495.78	
16	15	14000	14431.9		F16 =INTERCEPT(\$B\$2:\$B\$27,\$A\$2:\$A\$27)					Zero is NOT Covered		
17	16	14120	14851.1		F17 =SLOPE(\$B\$2:\$B\$27,\$A\$2:\$A\$27)							
18	17	14600	15270.3		C19 =F514+\$F515*A19							
19	18	15160	15689.6									
20	19	15350	16108.8									
21	20	15630	16528.0									
22	21	16400	16947.2									
23	22	17550	17366.5									
24	23	16970	17785.7									
25	24	17300	18204.9									
26	25	20060	18624.1									
27	26	19040	19043.3									
28	27		19462.6									
29	28		19881.8									
30	29		20301.0									
31	30		20720.2									
32												
33												
34												

## 5.2. Trend Adjusted Exponential Smoothing.

Trend-adjusted exponential smoothing is defined as  $F_{t+1} = L_t + T_t$  where  $L_t$  and  $T_t$  are the level and trend in period  $t$  as defined in Chopra (2019) based on Holt (1957).

$$L_{t+1} = (1-\alpha)(L_t + T_t) + \alpha A_t$$

$$T_{t+1} = (1-\beta)T_t + \beta(L_{t+1} - L_t)$$

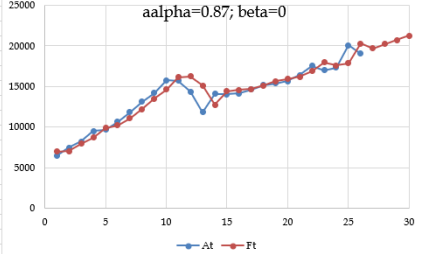


Trend-adjusted exponential smoothing, or double exponential smoothing, smooths out the level and trend of this period based on the level and trend of the previous period and the actual observation in this period.

Starting  $L_0$  and  $T_0$  can be computed in two ways. We may set  $L_0$  as the demand in the first period and  $T_0$  as the demand of the last period minus the demand of the first period divided by  $(N-1)$ . In our case,  $L_0 = A_1 = 6460$ , and  $T_0 = (A_{26} - A_1) / (26 - 1) = 503.2$  (Iravani, 2021). Alternatively, we may set  $L_0$  as the intercept of the regression line and  $T_0$  as its slope.  $L_0 = b_0 = 8143.6$ , and  $T_0 = b_1 = 419.2$  (Chopra 2019). We follow the first approach. We start from  $\alpha = 0.5$  and  $\beta = 0.5$  and then use SOLVER or a two-dimensional Data Table to find the optimal values of  $\alpha = 0.87$  and  $\beta = 0$ , as shown in Table 8. Compared to simple exponential smoothing, the MSE and other metrics are lower, and the extension to future periods carries a trend and is not a straight line. Compared to Regression, we have a smooth curve going up and down instead of a straight line.

We can also combine linear Regression and trend-adjusted exponential smoothing in the form of  $F_t = \gamma F_{\text{Trend-Adjusted-ES}} + (1-\gamma) F_{\text{Linear-Regression}}$ . The optimal  $\gamma$  value minimizing the MSE of the forecasts from the actual values can then be obtained using SOLVER or Data Table.

**Table 8. Trend Adjusted Exponential Smoothing Computations.**

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T											
1	t	At	Lt	Tt	Ft	MAD= 2695 MSE= 29537423				$\alpha = 0.867835$	0.800	0.010	aalpha=0.87; beta=0																		
2			6460	503.2					$\beta = 0$	0.000	0.100																				
3	1	6460	6526.5	503.2	6963.2	H1 =SUM(ABS(B3:B28-C3:C28))				29537423	0.00000	0.10000	0.20000	0.30000	0.40000	0.50000	0.60000	0.70000	0.80000	0.90000	1.00000										
4	2	7480	7420.5	503.2	7029.7	H2 =SUM((B3:B28-E3:E28)^2)				0.8000	29647247	32131980	33956412	35553849	37201228	38998973	40975023	43140173	45507397	48096556	50932241										
5	3	8220	8180.8	503.2	7923.7	C2 =B3				0.8100	29616827	32096745	33938971	35569738	37258137	39102127	41130049	43354090	45788692	48454528	51375645										
6	4	9480	9374.8	503.2	8684.0	D2 =(B28-B3)/(A28-A3)				0.8200	29591459	32068057	33929191	35594056	37324229	39215407	41296395	43580732	46084173	48827930	51835157										
7	5	9650	9680.1	503.2	9878.0	E3 =C2+D2				0.8300	29571056	32045790	33926925	35626659	37399380	39338704	41473953	43819961	46393633	49216447	52310370										
8	6	10630	10571.0	503.2	10183.3	C3 =(1-\$J\$1)*E3+\$J\$1*B3				0.8400	29555536	32029826	33932031	35667412	37483472	39471916	41662618	44071645	46716876	49619802	52800967										
9	7	11810	11712.7	503.2	11074.2	D3 =(1-\$J\$2)*D2+\$J\$2*(C3-C2)				0.8500	29544824	32020055	33944382	35716193	37576397	39614948	41862295	44335661	47053725	50037768	53306749										
10	8	13100	12983.2	503.2	12215.9	E4 =C3+D3				0.8600	29538845	32016372	33963855	35772885	37678056	39767712	42072895	44611896	47404032	50470181	53827654										
11	9	14190	14097.0	503.2	13486.4	H1 =SUM(ABS(B3:B28-C3:C28))				0.8700	29537532	32018679	33990338	35837382	37788359	39930131	42294339	44900257	47767685	50916959	54363782										
12	10	15760	15728.1	503.2	16109.9	H2 =SUM((B3:B28-E3:E28)^2)				0.8800	29540819	32026883	34023726	35909588	37907224	40102136	42526560	45200670	48144616	51378113	54915418										
13	11	15670	15728.1	503.2	16231.3	E29 =C28+D28				0.8900	29548647	32040900	34063923	35989415	38034578	40283667	42769507	45513090	48534816	51853769	55483059										
14	12	14340	14590.0	503.2	16231.3	E30 =E29+\$D\$28				0.9000	29560959	32060650	34110839	36076782	38170360	40474679	43023147	45837506	48938340	52344178	56067434										
15	13	14100	13921.2	503.2	12747.1	E32 =E31+\$D\$28				Min	29537532																				
16	14	14000	14056.1	503.2	14424.4	I4 =H2																									
17	15	14000	14056.1	503.2	14424.4	I5 =H2																									
18	16	14120	14178.1	503.2	14559.3	I6 =I5+\$L\$1																									
19	17	14600	14610.7	503.2	14681.3	J4 =K2																									
20	18	15160	15153.9	503.2	15113.9	K4 =J4+\$L\$2																									
21	19	15350	15390.6	503.2	15657.1	J16 =MIN(J5:T15)																									
22	20	15630	15664.9	503.2	15893.8																										
23	21	16400	16369.3	503.2	16168.1																										
24	22	17550	17460.5	503.2	16872.5																										
25	23	16970	17101.3	503.2	17963.7	G6 =PROPER(CHAR(%+COLUMN(C2)))&ROW(C2)																									
26	24	17300	17340.2	503.2	17604.5	H6 =FORMULATEXT(INDIRECT(G6))																									
27	25	20060	19767.0	503.2	17843.4																										
28	26	19040	19202.6	503.2	20270.2																										
29	27				19705.8																										
30	28				20209.0																										
31	29				20712.2																										
32	30				21215.4																										
33																															
34																															
35																															

## 6. LEVEL, TREND, AND SEASONALITY

In this section, we review (i) seasonality-enhanced bi-variable linear Regression, (ii) seasonality-enhanced multi-variable Regression using dummy variables, and (iii) trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing.

### 6.1. Seasonality Enhanced Bi-Variable Linear Regression.

The monthly data shown in Table 2 for 12(26) months (in 1000 TEUs) are copied into Table 9. Periodicity is 12 (seasonality repeats every 12 months). One may add three months of data and consider the periodicity of four seasons, provide daily data and seven days over a week, or provide hourly data with a periodicity of 24 hours.

**Table 9. Computations for Static Seasonality Enhanced Bi-Variate Linear Regression.**

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
1	Per.	Monthly Data	Centered.MA	Deseas.Reg	Seas.Index	Seas	SeasInd	SeasIndAdj	Ft (Stat.Reg)		b0=	702.82
2	0						0.992	1.000			b1=	2.90
3	1	480		705.71	0.680	1	0.942	0.95	670.74		R2=	0.83
4	2	468		708.61	0.660	2	0.865	0.87	618.11		Periodicity=	12
5	3	504		711.50	0.708	3	0.909	0.92	652.43			
6	4	518		714.40	0.726	4	0.964	0.97	694.16			
7	5	529		717.30	0.738	5	1.024	1.03	740.59			
8	6	556		720.19	0.772	6	1.006	1.01	730.67			
9	7	568	541	723.09	0.785	7	1.045	1.05	762.28			
10	8	557	544	725.98	0.768	8	1.078	1.09	789.49			
11	9	589	551	728.88	0.808	9	1.037	1.05	762.59			
12	10	583	559	731.78	0.797	10	1.054	1.06	777.90			
13	11	556	567	734.67	0.757	11	1.005	1.01	744.93			
14	12	556	575	737.57	0.753	12	0.968	0.98	720.36			
15	13	527	582	740.46	0.711	1		0.95	703.77			
16	14	512	591	743.36	0.689	2		0.87	648.42			
17	15	608	600	746.26	0.815	3		0.92	684.29			
18	16	611	606	749.15	0.815	4		0.97	727.93			
19	17	632	614	752.05	0.841	5		1.03	776.47			
298	296	1,762	1681	1560.02	1.130	8		1.09	1696.49			
299	297	1,652	1685	1562.91	1.057	9		1.05	1635.21			
300	298	1,692	1687	1565.81	1.081	10		1.06	1664.51			
301	299	1,557	1685	1568.71	0.993	11		1.01	1590.62			
302	300	1,541	1687	1571.60	0.980	12		0.98	1534.93			
303	301	1,667	1694	1574.50	1.058	1		0.95	1496.47			
304	302	1,654	1689	1577.39	1.049	2		0.87	1375.93			
305	303	1,822	1675	1580.29	1.153	3		0.92	1449.08			
306	304	1,708	1652	1583.19	1.079	4		0.97	1538.33			
307	305	1,859	1623	1586.08	1.172	5		1.03	1637.59			
308	306	1,712	1598	1588.98	1.077	6		1.01	1612.10			
309	307	1,721		1591.87	1.081	7		1.05	1678.17			
310	308	1,612		1594.77	1.011	8		1.09	1734.28			
311	309	1,452		1597.67	0.909	9		1.05	1671.56			
312	310	1,337		1600.56	0.835	10		1.06	1701.45			
313	311	1,228		1603.46	0.766	11		1.01	1625.86			
314	312	1,273		1606.35	0.792	12		0.98	1568.88			
315	313					1		0.95	1529.50			
316	314					2		0.87	1406.24			
317	315					3		0.92	1480.95			
318	316					4		0.97	1572.10			
319	317					5		1.03	1673.47			
320	318					6		1.01	1647.35			
321	319					7		1.05	1714.80			
322	320					8		1.09	1772.07			
323	321					9		1.05	1707.92			
324	322					10		1.06	1738.39			
325	323					11		1.01	1661.09			
326	324					12		0.98	1602.82			
327												

C9 =(AVERAGE(B3:B14)+AVERAGE(B4:B15))/2  
L1 =INTERCEPT(\$C\$9:\$C\$308,\$A\$9:\$A\$308)  
L2 =SLOPE(\$C\$9:\$C\$308,\$A\$9:\$A\$308)  
L3 =RSQ(\$C\$9:\$C\$308,\$A\$9:\$A\$308)  
D3 =(\$L\$1+\$L\$2\*A3  
E3 =B3/D3  
F3 =IF(MOD(A3,\$L\$4)>0,MOD(A3,\$L\$4),\$L\$4)  
G3 =AVERAGEIF(\$F\$3:\$F\$314,F3,\$E\$3:\$E\$314)  
G2 =AVERAGE(G3:G14)  
H3 =G3/\$G\$2  
I317 =(\$L\$1+\$L\$2\*A317)\*VLOOKUP(F317,\$F\$3:\$H\$14,3,0)

**Step 1. Removing Seasonality.** When we compute the average of 12 months, it is pure of seasonality since high and low seasons cross each other out. This is true for any other periodicity; the average of all seasons does not contain seasonality. Unlike the moving average, where we placed the average of n periods in front of the last period, here we implement the centered moving average and place the average of the n periods at the center of the n periods.

If we were considering seasonality over 7 days of weeks since 7 is odd, we could have placed the average in front of period 4, compared the actual period 4 with the centered moving average, and estimated the seasonality of period 4. But there is no middle period for even periodicity. Therefore (and for all other even periodicities), we first compute the average of the 12 periods and assume it is placed at the boundary of periods 6 and 7. In general, for even periodicity of n, we compute the average of periods 1 to n and place it on the boundary of periods n/2 and n/2+1. We then compute the period 2 to period 13 average and assume it is at the boundary of months 7 and 8 (or periods

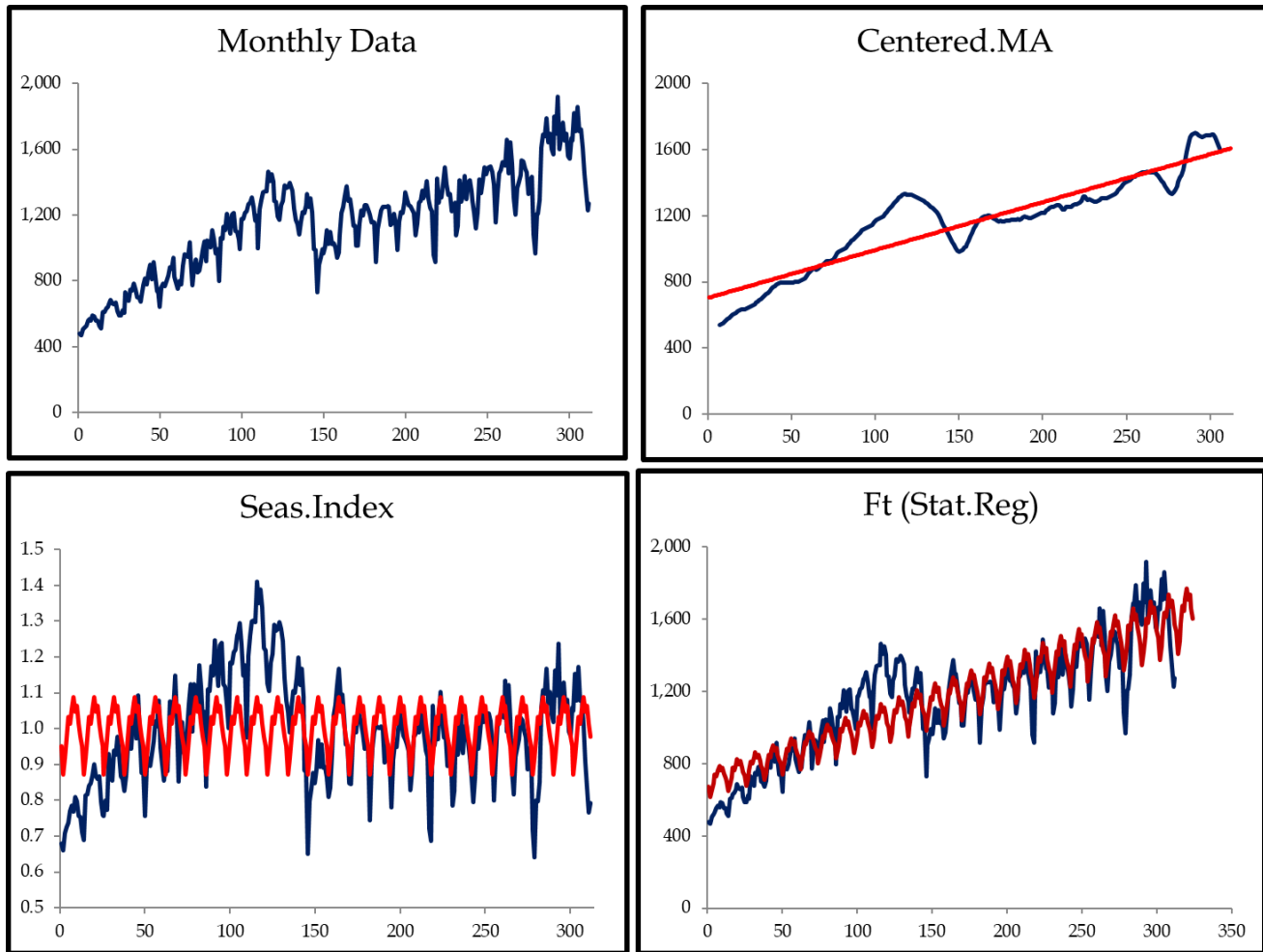
$n/2+1$  and  $n/2+2$  in general). Next, we compute the average of these two centered moving averages and place it in front of period 7, representing the unseasonal activity volume at period 7. We then copy this formula down to 6 months to the last months (month  $N-n/2$ ). We will generally have the centered moving average for all periods minus periodicity.

**Step 2. Trend in the Deseasonalized Data.** We apply linear Regression on months 7 to 306 to find the level and trend of the data pure of seasonality. It leads to  $b_0$ ,  $b_1$ , and  $R^2$ , as shown in columns K of Table 9. The Excel worksheet also shows the formulas for all other computations (as they follow).

**Step 3. Seasonality Indices.** We divide the actual data of each month by the value obtained from the regression line applied to the deseasonalized data ( $A_t/\underline{Y}_t$ ). The ratios are estimates of the seasonality index in all 12(26) months. By averaging all seasonality indices of each month, the average seasonality index of January ( $S_1$ ) to December ( $S_{12}$ ) is computed. The average of the average seasonality indices for all 12 months must equal 1; therefore, to normalize, we divide the average seasonality index of each month by the average of the averages. These computations are in columns G and H. These seasonality indices remain fixed for all the past and future months. That is why Chopra 2019 refers to it as a static method compared to the trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing, discussed later- as an adaptive method.

**Step 4. Seasonality Enhanced Regression.** Finally, we put seasonality back on the deseasonalized regression line and forecast the future.  $F_t = (b_0 + b_1 t) * S_t$ , where  $S_t$  has the same monthly value over all years. All formulas are clearly explained in Table 9. The results of the four steps of this process are schematically represented in Figure 3. The above analysis shows that the monthly seasonality is from a minimum of 0.87 to a maximum of 1.09. In a similar analysis, one may study daily seasonality (periodicity of 30) or hourly seasonality (periodicity of 24) if the data is available.

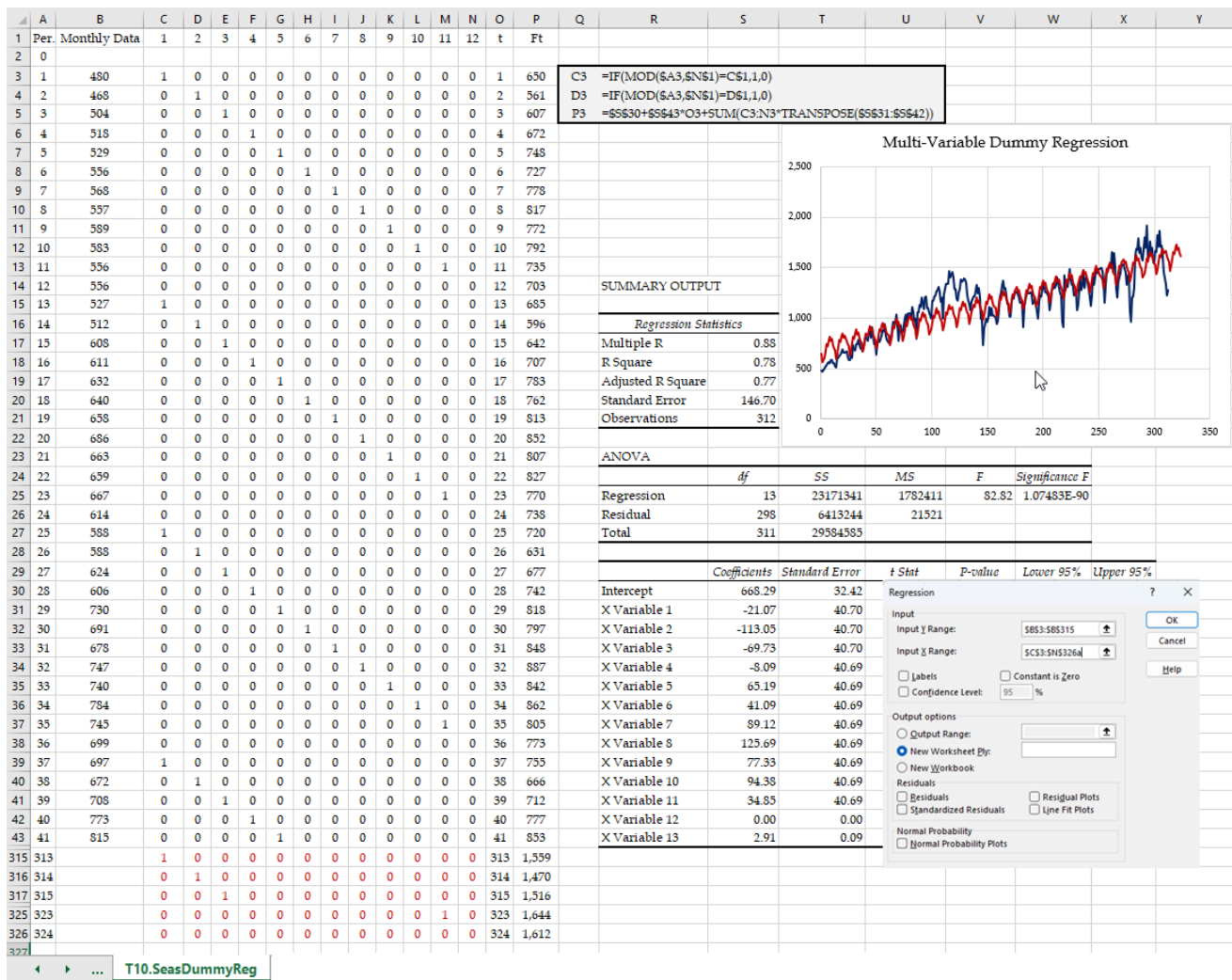
**Figure 3. Four Key Steps in Static Seasonality Enhanced Bi-Variable Linear Regression.**



## 6.2. Seasonality Enhanced Multiple Regression Using Dummy Variables.

We use multi-variable Regression as another static seasonality analysis approach by implementing a set of binary dummy variables. For each month, we define a binary variable, which is 1 if we are in that month and 0 otherwise. For periodicity of  $n$  periods, we need  $n-1$  dummy binary variables. Other periods are compared with the period of choice with no binary variable associated. The period of choice does not affect the outcomes of the analysis. For a periodicity of 12, we define 11 binary variables for January to November. The dependent variable  $Y$  is the volume of activity in the corresponding month, and our  $X$  variables are the month counter (from 1 to 312) and 11 dummy binary variables. Excel's Data Analysis Add-ins require the independent variables to be in contiguous cells. Therefore, we copy the month variables adjacent to the dummy variables. They can be in the first column to the left or right of the dummy variables. Compared to bi-variable Regression, we select 12 adjacent columns associated with the month and 11 dummy variables instead of a single column for  $X$  variables. The output and all the essential formulas are shown in Table 10. The reader may pay attention to the formula to generate 0s and 1s for the dummy variables in each month and, more importantly, to multiply the row of the decision variables by the column of regression coefficients (by using dynamic arrays and transposing one of the two vectors).

**Table 10. Seasonality Enhanced Multi-Variable Regression Computations.**



### 6.3. Trend and Seasonality Adjusted Exponential Smoothing.

A crucial difference between Regression and trend-adjusted exponential smoothing is that Regression has a static trend, while the trend is adaptive in trend-adjusted exponential smoothing. Also, for the two previous seasonality-adjusted approaches discussed in this section, we used the term static seasonality since seasonality indexes and all other coefficients remain unchanged yearly. In this third approach, we update seasonality indices (level and trend) from one period to the next. It extends the trend-adjusted exponential smoothing (Winter, 1960, Chopra, 2021). The reader may look into the graphs of the output of the three approaches to visualize the dynamism of this third approach.

By applying linear Regression on the 12-month centered moving average implemented in seasonality-enhanced bi-variable linear Regression, we first estimate the level ( $L_0 = \text{INTERCEPT}$ ) and trend ( $T_0 = \text{SLOPE}$ ) in month zero. We also use static seasonality indexes computed in seasonality-enhanced bi-variable linear Regression (this approach is implemented in Chopra, 2019). Alternatively, we may set  $L_0$  equal to the average demand in the first 12 months. Given  $L_N$  as the average of the last 12 months, we set  $T_0 = (L_N - L_0) / (12(N-1))$ . For seasonality, we may divide the demand of each of the first 12 months by the average of these months and assume them as the seasonality indexes for the first 12 months (this approach is implemented in Iravani, 2021). While the

second approach is easier with fewer computations to estimate the starting parameters, since we already have the results for seasonality-enhanced bi-variable linear Regression, we follow the first approach and copy  $L_0, T_0, S_1, \dots, S_{12}$  from Table 9 into Table 11. We first set  $\alpha=0.5, \beta=0.5$ , and  $\gamma=0.5$ .

**Step 1. Compute  $L_t$ .** Given  $L_0 = 702.82, T_0 = 2.9$ , and  $S_1 = 0.95$ ;  $F_1 = (L_0 + T_0)S_1 = (702.82+2.9) \times 0.95 = 670.74$ . We now move forward to compute  $L_1, T_1, F_2$ , and  $S_{13}$ , then  $L_2, T_2, F_3$ , and  $S_{14}$ , and so on. In all exponential smoothing models, we always have one component multiplied by a parameter ( $\alpha, \beta$ , or  $\gamma$ ), added to another component multiplied by 1 minus  $\alpha, \beta$ , or  $\gamma$ . The 1 minus part is always easier to compute. We have  $L_0 = 702.82, T_0 = 2.9$ . Our forecast for level in month 1 is  $L_1 = L_0 + T_0 = 705.72$ . This needs to be multiplied by  $(1-\alpha)$ . That is,  $L_1 = (1-0.5) \times 705.71$ . But what is the part that had to be multiplied by  $\alpha$ ? It is not 480. That is why the computation of the component multiplied by  $1-\alpha, 1-\beta$ , and  $1-\gamma$  is easier. The month 1 actual data of 480 contains seasonality. We need to remove seasonality. Since  $S_1 = 0.95$  (month 1 is a low season), we divide the actual data by  $S_1$  to remove seasonality;  $480/0.95 = 504.97$ . This is the unseasoned value of the actual data in month 1. Accordingly,  $L_1 = (1-\alpha)(L_0 + T_0) + \alpha(A_1/S_1) = (1-0.5) \times (702.82+2.9) + 0.5 \times (480/0.95) = 605.34$ .

**Step 2. Compute  $T_t$ .** Our forecast for  $T_1$  is  $T_0$ . It is multiplied by  $(1-\beta)$  to form the first component of  $T_1$ . What is the actual  $T_1$ ? It is the difference between  $L_0$  and  $L_1$  to be multiplied by  $\beta$ . Therefore  $T_1 = (1-\beta)T_0 + \beta(L_1 - L_0) = (1-0.5) \times 2.90 + 0.5(605.34 - 702.82) = -47.29$ .

**Step 3. Compute  $F_{t+1}$ .** The forecast for the next period is simply  $F_{t+1} = (L_t + T_t) \times S_{t+1}$ . For month 2, it is  $F_2 = (L_1 + T_1) \times S_2 = (605.34 - 47.29) \times 0.872 = 486.78$ .

**Step 4. Compute  $S_{t+p}$ .** Since periodicity is 12 ( $p=12$ ), we compute  $S_{1+12}$ . We first have  $(1-\gamma)$  times forecast forecast. Our forecast for period 13 is the same as period 1;  $S_1 = 0.96$ . What is the actual seasonality in period 1? The actual data is divided by  $L_1 = L_0 + T_0$ . That is  $A_1/L_1 = 480/705.71 = 0.68$ . Therefore,  $S_{13} = (1-\gamma) \times S_1 + \gamma(A_1/L_1) = (1-0.5) \times 0.96 + 0.5(0.68) = 0.82$ .

Table 11 shows all the key formulas and curves related to trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing components.

**Table 11. Seasonality Enhanced Multi-Variable Regression Computations.**



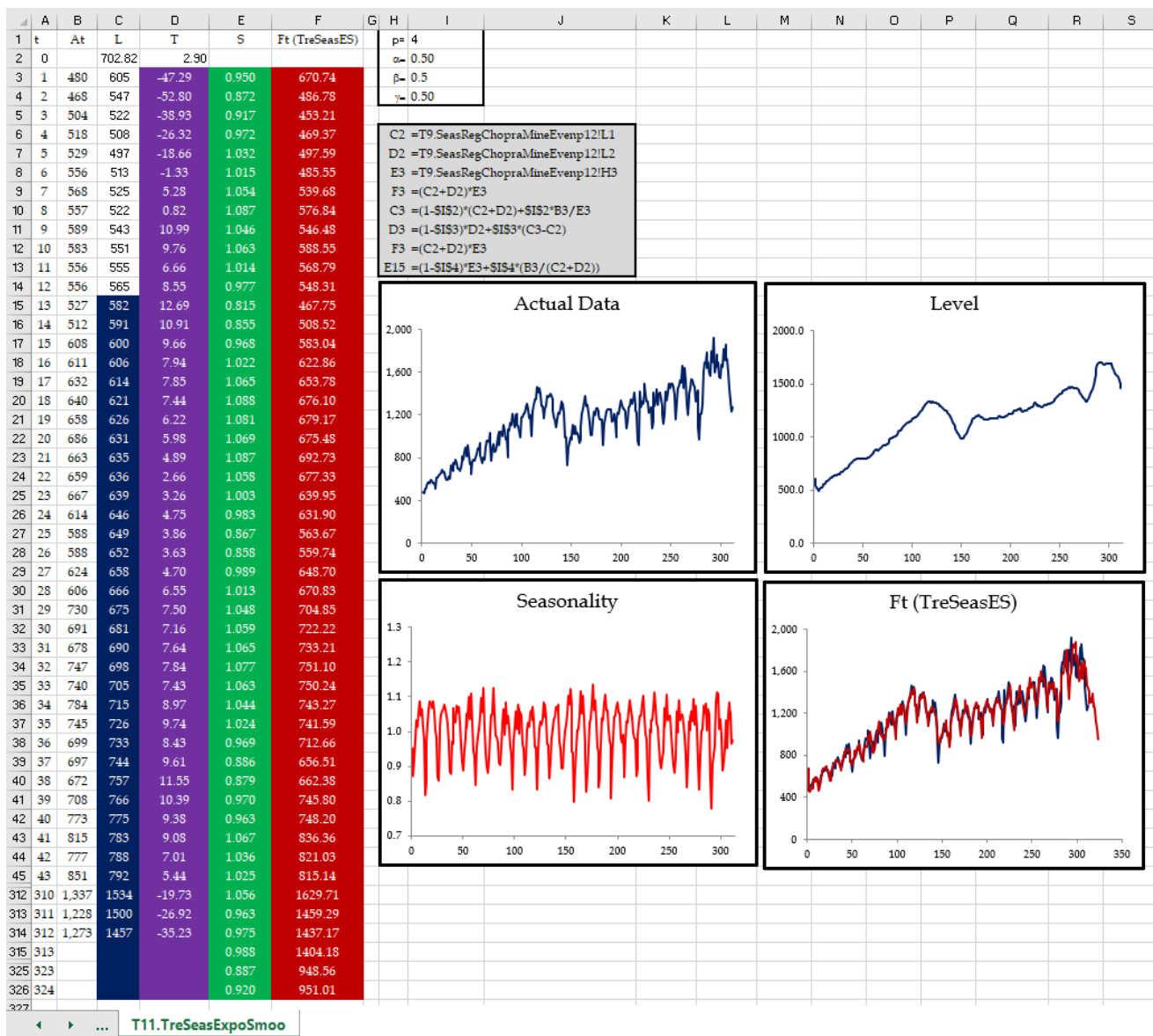
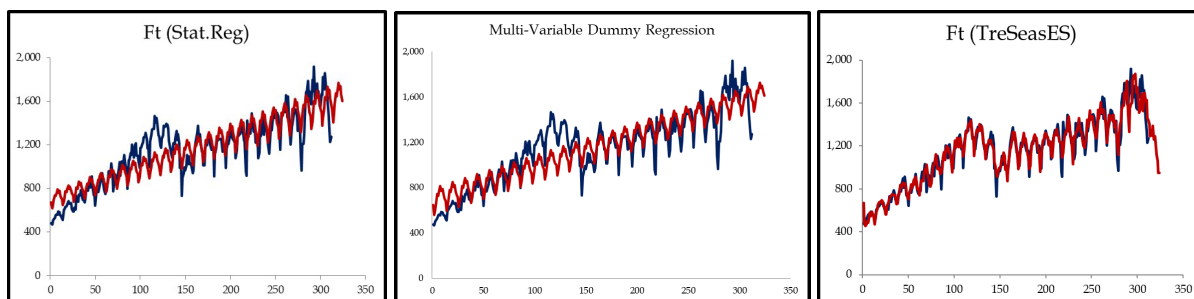


Figure 4. The Results of the Three Seasonality Enhanced/Adjusted Methods. Static Regression (left), Dummy- Multi-Variable Regression (center), Trend and Seasonality Adjusted Exponential Smoothing (right).



## 7. CONCLUSIONS.

We have learned that when theoretical concepts are taught through real-life applications, they positively impact students' mental presence and intellectual engagement inside the classroom. In this study, we tried to streamline the learning process by applying time series and regression analysis to a significant real-life application.

We reviewed and integrated several time series and regression analysis techniques. This manuscript can be used as teaching material or as a case study to enforce the teaching material. While we had our analysis on total loaded and empty for both inbound and outbound throughput, all the data are available to repeat the combination for four combinations of inbound, outbound, loaded, and empty volumes.

We handpicked a set of intermediate to advanced Excel functions and formulas for step-by-step improvement of Excel skills and side-by-side enrichment of time series and regression knowledge of undergraduate and graduate students at teaching-focused business schools. The approach is tailored to the student population's knowledge, skills, and abilities in teaching-focused business schools. The Excel sheets designed in this manuscript could serve as templates for other real-life applications the students may encounter in their early employment years.

#### **Appendix A. Computation of Metrics and Drawing the Graphs for an Any-Period Moving Average.**

Consider a 4-period moving average forecast in periods 25 and 26 and examine the differences.

$$F_{26} = MA_{25} = (A_{25} + A_{24} + A_{23} + A_{22})/4 = (A_{25} + A_{24} + A_{23})/4 + A_{22}/4$$

$$F_{27} = MA_{26} = (A_{26} + A_{25} + A_{24} + A_{23})/4 = A_{26}/4 + (A_{25} + A_{24} + A_{23})/4.$$

$$\text{Therefore, } F_{27} = F_{26} + A_{26}/4 - A_{22}/4.$$

Given this fundamental insight, we develop a general formula applicable to any number of periods in a moving average computation as  $F_{(t+1)} = F_t + (A_t - A_{t-n})/n$ . Our forecast for the next period is equal to the forecast for this period (the moving average of the previous period) plus this period's actual data minus the oldest piece of data used on the forecast for the previous period divided by n.

Suppose we enter the number of periods in the moving average in cell A1 as RANDBETWEEN(2,12); suppose it comes out equal to 4. We now look into the formula in period 6 in row 9 in Table AA1. We have the previous forecast and previous actual in row 8, but what is the oldest data in the previous forecast? It is in the row  $t-n$  of the actual data. In our example is the data in row  $8-4=4$  of the Excel sheet. We can use the Excel INDEX function to find the element in a specific row of a vector.  $IF(A8 < \$A\$1, "", IF(A8 = \$A\$1, AVERAGE(B\$4:B8), C8 + B8 / (\$A\$1 - INDEX(B\$4:B8, A8 - \$A\$1) / \$A\$1)))$  is the forecast formula in cell C9. If the previous year is before year 4, a " " is entered to leave the Excel cell blank. If the previous year is year 4, the average of the actual data for the first four years (from rows 4 to 8) is computed and set to the forecast for year 5 (in row 8 of the Excel sheet). For cell C9 which corresponds to year  $6 > 4$ , we have  $C8 + B8 / (\$A\$1 - INDEX(B\$4:B8, A8 - \$A\$1) / \$A\$1)$ . Where  $INDEX(B\$4:B8, A8 - \$A\$1)$  will find the oldest piece of data used in the forecast;  $INDEX(B\$4:B8, 5-4) = INDEX(B\$4:B8, 1) = B4 = 6460$ . The actual for the previous period is  $B8 = 9650$ , and the forecast for the previous period is  $C8 = 7910$ . Therefore, the forecast for this period  $C9 = 7910 + (9650 - 6460) / 4 = 8707.5$ . The table is adjusted for any number less than 26 that may appear in cell A1.

Since we draw the curves related to some of the columns in Table AA1, a " " for the starting years that are less than or equal to the random year that appears in cell A1 will show a Y-value of zero while it is empty and not zero. To resolve this, we replace " " with NA(). To avoid #NA appearing in the table, we use formula-based conditional formatting and switch the font color to white using the IFERROR function for #NA cells. Accordingly, Table AA1 and Figure AA1 are adjusted automatically no matter what random numbers between 2 and 25 appear in cell A1. Alternatively, we could have the fonts of these columns colored white and switch the font color to black using the ISNUMBER function in conditional formatting.

**Table AA1. Computation and Evaluation of an Any-Period Moving Average.**

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S
1	4															4-Period MA Forecast			
2	t	At	Ft	Ft	E	E	E2	E /A	MAD	MSE	MARD	SFE	TS	BIAS			MAD	MSE	MARD
3																			
4	1	6460															1527.6	3325370	0.108
5	2	7480														1	955.2	1439920	0.072
6	3	8220														2	1146.3	1987246	0.086
7	4	9480														3	1367.2	2651752	0.100
8	5	9650	7910	7910	1740	1740	3027600	0.18031	1740	3027600	0.1803	1740	1	1740		4	1527.6	3325370	0.108
9	6	10630	8707.5	8707.5	1922.5	1922.5	3696006	0.18086	1831.3	3361803.13	0.1806	3662.5	2	1831.3		5	1719.0	4243650	0.118
10	7	11810	9495	9495	2315	2315	5359225	0.19602	1992.5	4027610.42	0.1857	5977.5	3	1992.5		6	1869.5	5105986	0.124
11	8	13100	10392.5	10392.5	2707.5	2707.5	7330556	0.20668	2171.3	4853346.88	0.191	8685	4	2171.3		7	1955.3	5783801	0.126
12	9	14190	11297.5	11297.5	2892.5	2892.5	8366556	0.20384	2315.5	5555988.75	0.1935	11577.5	5	2315.5		8	1981.0	6167272	0.124
13	10	15760	12432.5	12432.5	3327.5	3327.5	11072256	0.21114	2484.2	6475366.67	0.1965	14905	6	2484.2		9	2002.2	6251843	0.123
14	11	15670	13715	13715	1955	1955	3822025	0.12476	2408.6	6096317.86	0.1862	16860	7	2408.6		10	1935.1	5422733	0.118
15	12	14340	14680	14680	-340	340	115600	0.02371	2150	5348728.13	0.1659	16520	7.68372	2065		11	1883.4	4750157	0.114
16	13	11810	14990	14990	-3180	3180	10112400	0.26926	2264.4	5878025	0.1774	13340	5.89107	1482.2		12	1988.2	5019616	0.120
17	14	14100	14395	14395	-295	295	87025	0.02092	2067.5	5298925	0.1617	13045	6.30955	1304.5		13	2312.2	6199787	0.140
18	15	14000	13980	13980	20	20	400	0.00143	1881.4	4817240.91	0.1472	13065	6.94443	1187.7		14	2473.0	6860163	0.149
19	16	14120	13562.5	13562.5	557.5	557.5	310856.2	0.03948	1771	4441704.60	0.1382	13622.5	7.6918	1135.2		15	2678.1	7812002	0.160
20	17	14600	13507	13507												16	2925.4	9136685	0.172
21	18	15160	1420	1420												17	3187.8	10720558	0.186
22	19	15350	1447	1447												18	3450.7	12474581	0.198
23	20	15630	14807	14807												19	3762.4	14754591	0.213
24	21	16400	1518	1518												20	4123.0	17631550	0.229
25	22	17550	1563	1563												21	4456.7	20576203	0.244
26	23	16970	16232	16232												22	4648.8	22450494	0.252
27	24	17300	16637	16637												23	5152.2	27457606	0.272
28	25	20060	1705	1705												24	5942.5	35942684	0.303
29	26	19040	1797	1797												25	5446.4	29663273	0.286
30	27															Min	955.2	1439920	0.07167
31	28																		
32	29																		
33	30																		
34																			
35	<div> <div> A1 =RANDBETWEEN(2,12)  C9 =IF(A8&lt;\$A\$1,NA(),IF(A8=\$A\$1,AVERAGE(B\$4:B8),C8+B8/\$A\$1-INDEX(B\$4:B8,A8-\$A\$1)/\$A\$1))  D9 =IF(A8&lt;\$A\$1,NA(),AVERAGE(B8:INDEX(B\$4:B8,A8-\$A\$1+1))) Alternative formula for Ft  E9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$C9),B9-C9,NA())  F9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),ABS(\$E9),NA())  G9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),SE9^2,NA())  H9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),F9/B9,NA())  I9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),AVERAGE(F9:INDEX(F\$4:F9,\$A\$1+1)),NA())  J9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),AVERAGE(G9:INDEX(G\$4:G9,\$A\$1+1)),NA())  K9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),AVERAGE(H9:INDEX(H\$4:H9,\$A\$1+1)),NA())  L9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),SUM(E9:INDEX(E\$4:E9,\$A\$1+1)),NA())  M9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),L9/I9,NA())  N9 =IF(ISNUMBER(\$E9),AVERAGE(E9:INDEX(E\$4:E9,\$A\$1+1)),NA()) </div> <div> Q4 =I29  R4 =J29  S4 =K29  Q5 {=TABLE(A1)}  Q30 =MIN(Q5:Q29)  R30 =MIN(R5:R29)  S30 =MIN(S5:S29) </div> </div>																		
36																			
37																			
38																			
39																			
40																			
41																			
42																			
43																			
44																			
45																			
46																			
47																			
48																			

Column D provides an alternative formula for an any-period moving average as follows  
D9=IF(A6>=\$A\$1, AVERAGE(B6:INDEX(\$B\$4:\$B\$30,A6-\$A\$1+1)),NA()). That is due to the magic inside the AVERAGE(B6:INDEX(\$B\$4:\$B\$30,A6-\$A\$1+1)) formula. We benefit from this formula in columns E to M to compute the metrics only when the data exist and do not show anything for other

years in the graphs. All the key formulas of Table AA1 are re-emphasized by the green and red cells with white backgrounds.

## Appendix B. Exponential Smoothing Basic Mathematics.

In this Appendix, we show that (i) exponential smoothing is a weighted moving average and (ii) the age of data is  $1/\alpha$ .

### B.1. Exponential Smoothing a Weighted Moving Average.

The following analytical manipulations show that Exponential Smoothing is a Weighted Moving Average.

$$F_1 = A_1$$

$$F_2 = (1-\alpha)F_1 + \alpha A_1 \rightarrow F_2 = (1-\alpha)A_1 + \alpha A_1 \rightarrow F_2 = A_1$$

$$F_3 = (1-\alpha)F_2 + \alpha A_2 \rightarrow F_3 = (1-\alpha)A_1 + \alpha A_2$$

$$F_4 = (1-\alpha)F_3 + \alpha A_3 \rightarrow F_4 = (1-\alpha)((1-\alpha)A_1 + \alpha A_2) + \alpha A_3 \rightarrow F_4 = (1-\alpha)^2 A_1 + \alpha(1-\alpha)A_2 + \alpha A_3$$

$$F_5 = (1-\alpha)F_4 + \alpha A_4 \rightarrow F_5 = (1-\alpha)^3 A_1 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^2 A_2 + \alpha(1-\alpha)A_3 + \alpha A_4$$

$$F_{t+1} = \alpha A_t + \alpha(1-\alpha)A_{t-1} + \alpha(1-\alpha)^2 A_{t-2} + \alpha(1-\alpha)^3 A_{t-3} + \alpha(1-\alpha)^4 A_{t-4} \dots + \alpha(1-\alpha)^{t-1} A_1$$

The sum of the weights are

$$S = \alpha + \alpha(1-\alpha) + \alpha(1-\alpha)^2 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^3 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^4 \dots + \alpha(1-\alpha)^{t-1}$$

$$= \alpha(1-\alpha) + \alpha(1-\alpha)^2 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^3 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^4 \dots + \alpha(1-\alpha)^t$$

$$S - (1-\alpha)S = \alpha - \alpha(1-\alpha)^t \rightarrow \alpha S = \alpha(1 - (1-\alpha)^t) \rightarrow S = 1 - (1-\alpha)^t$$

When  $t$  increases,  $(1-\alpha)^t$  goes to 0, and the sum of the weights  $S=1$ .

### B.2. Age of Data in Exponential Smoothing.

Through the following analytical manipulations, we show that the age of Data in Exponential Smoothing is  $1/\alpha$ .

$$\text{Weights} = \alpha, \alpha(1-\alpha), \alpha(1-\alpha)^2, \alpha(1-\alpha)^3, \alpha(1-\alpha)^4, \dots, \alpha(1-\alpha)^{t-1}$$

$$\text{Ages} = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, t$$

$$\text{Weights} \times \text{Ages} = 1\alpha + 2\alpha(1-\alpha) + 3\alpha(1-\alpha)^2 + 4\alpha(1-\alpha)^3 + 5\alpha(1-\alpha)^4 + \dots + t\alpha(1-\alpha)^{t-1}$$

$$\text{Weights} \times \text{Ages} = \alpha(1 + 2(1-\alpha) + 3(1-\alpha)^2 + 4(1-\alpha)^3 + 5(1-\alpha)^4 + \dots + t(1-\alpha)^{t-1})$$

$$\text{We have shown } S = \alpha(1 + (1-\alpha) + (1-\alpha)^2 + (1-\alpha)^3 + (1-\alpha)^4 + \dots + (1-\alpha)^{t-1}) = 1$$

$$1 + (1-\alpha) + (1-\alpha)^2 + (1-\alpha)^3 + (1-\alpha)^4 + \dots + (1-\alpha)^{t-1} = 1/\alpha$$

Derivation with respect to  $\alpha$

$$0 - 1 - 2(1-\alpha)^1 - 3(1-\alpha)^2 - 4(1-\alpha)^3 - \dots - (t-1)(1-\alpha)^{t-2} = -1/\alpha^2$$

$$\alpha(1 + 2(1-\alpha) + 3(1-\alpha)^2 + 4(1-\alpha)^3 + \dots + (t-1)(1-\alpha)^{t-2}) = 1/\alpha$$

### B.3. UCL and LCL in Tracking Signal are larger than $\pm 4$

Forecast error  $E_t = A_t - F_t$  is a random variable with a mean of 0. MAD estimates the error forecast's standard deviation.  $\text{StdDev}(E_t) = 1.25\text{MAD}$  (for example, Duncan, 2007).

$$E_t = \text{Normal}(0, 1.25\text{MAD})$$

$$\text{If } x = \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma) \rightarrow \text{Sum}(x) = \text{Normal}(\mu, \text{SQRT}(N)\sigma)$$

$$\text{StdDev}[\text{Sum}(E_t)] = \text{SQRT}(N)\text{StdDev}(E_t)$$

$$E_t = \text{Normal}(0, 1.25\text{MAD})$$

$$\text{Sum}(E_t) = N \sim (0, \text{SQRT}(N)1.25\text{MAD})$$

$$3 \geq (\sum E_t - 0) / (\text{SQRT}(N)1.25\text{MAD}) \geq -3.$$

$$+ 3\text{SQRT}(N)1.25 \geq (\sum E_t - 0) / \text{MAD} \geq - 3\text{SQRT}(N)1.25.$$

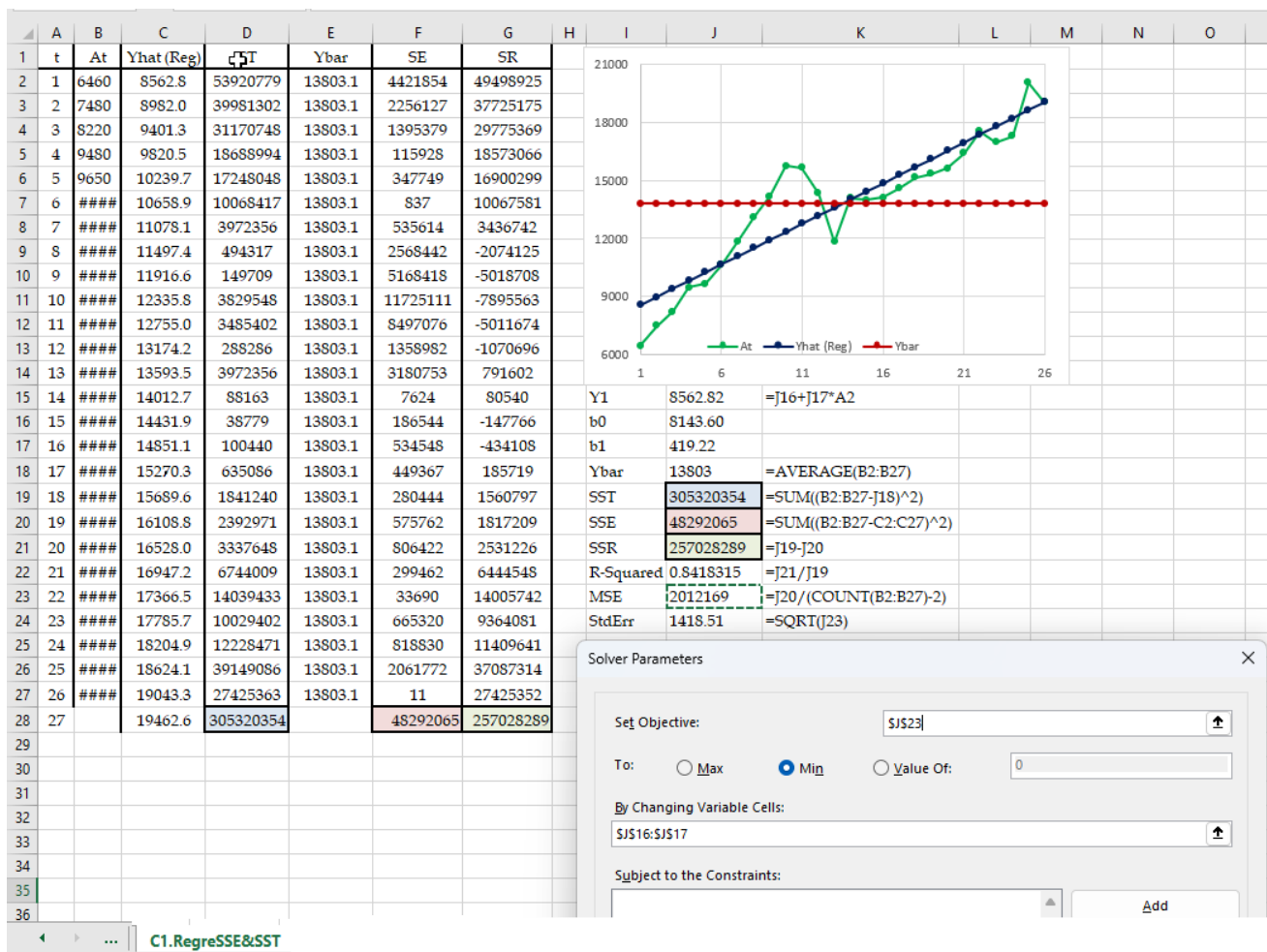
$$+ 3.75\text{SQRT}(N) \geq (\sum E_t - 0) / \text{MAD} \geq - 3.75 \text{SQRT}(N)$$

Therefore, Tracking Signal  $\text{TS} = \sum E_t / \text{MAD}$  with samples of size  $N$  is normally distributed around 0, and  $\text{UCL} = 3.75 \text{SQRT}(N)$  and  $\text{LCL} = -3.75 \text{SQRT}(N)$ .

### **Appendix C. Foundations of Computation of Regression Metrics in Excel ( $b_0$ , $b_1$ , SST, SSE, SSR).**

One may design a regression line by minimizing MAD, MSE,  $\text{MAX}(\text{ABS}(\text{Error}))$ , or any other measure. Conventionally, regression equations are designed based on MSE minimization (least-square method). We compute MSE or SSE (Sum of Squared Errors) and use SOLVER to find the optimal  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  (which are in cells J16 and J17 in Table AA1) to find the optimal values for the SSE (cell D28) objective function. After computing the forecasts in column C using arbitrary but reasonable  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  (in cells J16 and J17), we form column D (the square of the error in each row) and add them to form SSE in cell D26. We then use SOLVER (we can use DataTable too) to find optimal  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  to minimize SSE (or MSE). These optimal values (in cells J16 and J17) are the same as we found using the first three approaches in the regression section. It provides insight into least-squared computations and other regression metrics. Cell D26 can also be computed using dynamic arrays without referencing any values in column D (we can even delete column D). Look at the significant power of dynamic arrays in cell J19 for direct SSE computations.

### **Table AC1. Direct Computation of Regression Coefficients and Key Metrics.**



In Regression Analysis, we usually compute three SST, SSE, and SSR metrics. SST is the summation of the squares of the gap between each piece of data with the average. Table AC1 shows the gap between the green curve (actual data) and the red curve (average of all data). The total squared error measures how each data element differs from the average. We then have SSE, the squared gap between the green curve (actual data) and the blue curve (regression data). The total squared error measures how each data element differs from the value obtained on the regression line. The difference between these two (SSR) represents how well the regression line could replace the average line representing the data. The reader may compare the computations in cells D28, F28, and G28 with those of J19, J20, and J21 to better understand dynamic arrays (and may delete columns D, E, F, and G).

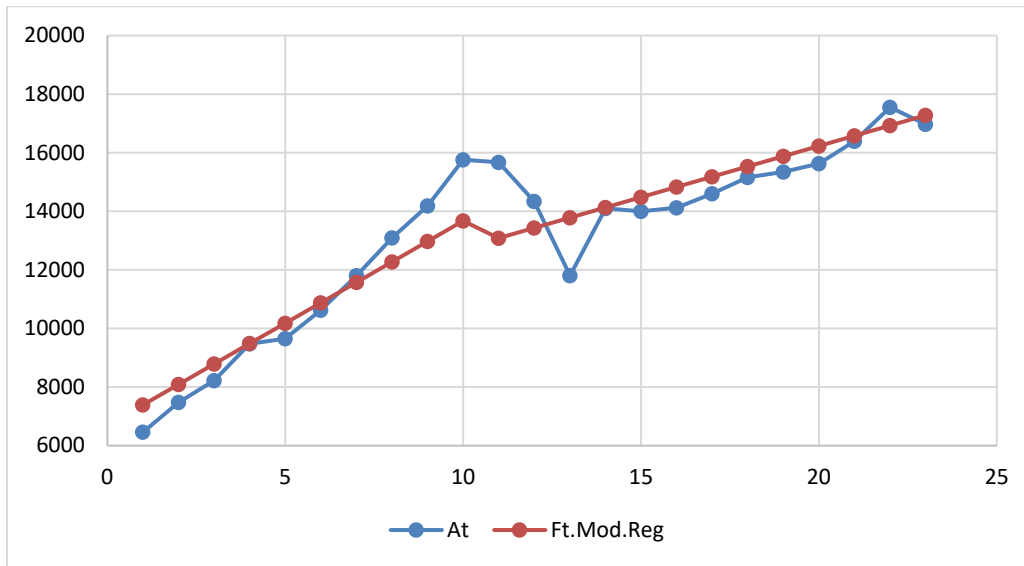
R-squared is computed as  $SSR/SST$ , reaching the same value as computed directly using the RSQ function. The MSE (and Standard Error) computations in Regression slightly differ from what we discussed earlier. When you benefit from other statistics extracted from the same data set in the computation of an average, you use degrees of freedom. In the computation of SSE, we have used two parameters  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ . Therefore, we lose two degrees of freedom when we average SSE over  $n$  years (26 in this example). Therefore, MSE is not  $SSE/26$  but  $SSE/(26-2)$ .

Given the background provided in this Appendix, we can apply a piecewise regression to find  $b_{01}$ ,  $b_{11}$ ,  $b_{02}$ , and  $b_{12}$  for the first and second piece of the regression line and  $T$  as the year to switch from



the first regression line to the second. The above five items form the changing cells, and MSE is the objective function to be minimized. The result is shown in Figure AC1.

**Figure AC1. Piecewise Regression on LA/LB ports Annual Data.**



**Appendix D. All Worksheets Used in This Study.** Since there are many computations in different worksheets of this workbook, recalculating all elements on all pages slows down the process. The user may prefer to put one or a subset of worksheets in separate files.

## References

Albright, C. and Winston, W., 2015. Business Analytics: Data Analysis & Decision Making, 7th Edition, Cengage.

Arrow, K. J. Harris, T. Marshak, J, 1951. Optimal Inventory Policy, *Econometrica*. 19(3), 250-272

Box, G.E.P., Jenkins, G.M., Reinsel, G.C., and Ljung, G. M., 2015. Time Series Analysis: Forecasting and Control, 5th ed., Wiley.

Cachon, G. and Terwiesch, C., 2020. Matching Supply and Demand: An Introduction to Operations Management. 4th Edition, McGraw-Hill.

Camm, J.D., Cochran, J. J., Fry, M. J., and Ohlmann, J. 2020. Business Analytics, Prescriptive, Predictive, Prescriptive, 5th ed., Cengage.

Chase, R. B., Aquilano, N. J., and Jacobs, R. F., 2000. Irwin/McGraw-Hill, ISBN 10: 0072395303 ISBN 13: 9780072395303.

Chopra, S., 2019. Supply Chain Management, Pearson.

Duncan, R. M., 2007. CFPIM, Training Manager, E/Step Software Inc.

<http://www.estepsoftware.com/papers/madrsquare.pdf>

Heizer, J., Render, B., and Munson, C., 2023. Operations Management: Sustainability and Supply Chain Management, 14th edition. Pearson Publishing.

- Hillier F. S. and Hillier M.S., 2023. Introduction to Management Science and Business Analytics. 7th Ed., McGraw Hill.
- Holt, C. C., 1957. *Forecasting seasonals and trends by exponentially weighted averages* (ONR Memorandum No. 52). Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh USA.  
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0169207003001134?via%3Dihub>  
 Retrieved 7/12/2023.
- Iravani, S.M.R., 2021. Operations Engineering and Management: Concepts, Analytics, and Principles for Improvement. McGraw-Hill.
- Jaggia, S. Kelly, A. Lertwachara, K., Chen, L., 2023. Business Analytics, Communicating With Numbers, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. McGraw Hill.
- Keating, B. and Wilson, H. J., 2019. Forecasting and Predictive Analytics. McGraw Hill
- Krajewski, L. J., Malhotra, M. K., and Ritzman, L. P., 2016. Operations Management, Processes and Supply Chains, 11th Ed. Pearson.
- Leachman, R.C., 2010. Port and Modal Elasticity Study, Final Report, Southern California Association of Governments.  
 Port of Los Angeles Statistics. <https://www.portoflosangeles.org/> Last Checked 7/12/2023.  
 Port of Long Beach Statistics. <https://polb.com/> Retrieved 7/12/2023.
- Powell, S. G. and Baker, K. R., 2017. Business Analytics. Wiley.
- Ragsdale, C. T., 2018. Spreadsheet Modeling and Decision Analysis, 9th Ed. Cengage.
- Stevenson, W. J., 2014. Operations Management. 12<sup>th</sup> Edition, McGraw-Hill. ISBN: 978-0078024108.
- Schweitzer, M.E., Cachon, G.P., 2000. Decision bias in the newsvendor problem with a known demand distribution: Experimental evidence. *Management Science*. 43(3): 404–420.
- The Institute for Advanced Analytics (North Carolina State University). Survey of Graduate Degree Programs in Analytics. [http://analytics.ncsu.edu/?page\\_id=4184](http://analytics.ncsu.edu/?page_id=4184). Retrieved 7/12/2023.
- Vandeput, N., 2023. Demand Forecasting Best Practices. Manning Publishing.
- Venkataraman, R.R., Pino, J.K., 2018. Operations Management, Managing Global Supply Chains. Sage Publishing.
- Winston, W. L., 2022, Microsoft Excel Data Analysis and Business Modeling. Microsoft.
- Winters, P. R., 1960. Forecasting sales by exponentially weighted moving averages. *Management Science*, 6(3), 324–342. <https://pubsonline.informs.org/doi/10.1287/mnsc.6.3.324> Retrieved 7/12/2023.