

Teaching time series and regression analysis using ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach data

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Abstract: The combined ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach (LA/LB) ports are among the world's top ten busiest container ports. Approximately 1/3 of US waterborne containers move through the LA/LB ports. The data on the volume of containerised activities in these ports provide an excellent dataset to teach time series and regression analysis. We use 26 years of data on these ports' activities to teach 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. This manuscript can be used as teaching material, or as a case study in a business analytics foundations or a supply chain management course. A set of useful Excel functions and formulas have been brought together and are fully embedded in the models.

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

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Biographical notes: Ardavan Asef-Vaziri is a Professor of Systems and Operations Management in the David Nazarian College of Business and Economics, California State University, Northridge. He completed his BSc, MSc and PhD.all in Industrial Engineering. His research revolves around applications of optimisation and simulation in facility logistics and process flow analysis. He was among the first wave professors adopting the flipped classroom course delivery format. His publications have appeared in *EJOR*, *IIE Transactions*, *Computers & Operations Research*, *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, *International Journal of Production Economics*, *Decision Science Journal of Innovative Education*, among others.

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 organisation towards achieving the plans of the enterprises. Marketing, finance, and operations are the three key building blocks of manufacturing, service, and distribution systems. Planning, organising, 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 the LA/LB ports provide an excellent data set to teach the basics of time series and regression analytics.

Teaching-focused business schools (TFBSs) make up 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 a nontraditional and low-income 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.

By fully implementing time series and regression analysis in Excel, we provide a platform where students can learn the basic, intermediate, and advanced Excel functions and formulas. Excel is among the three fundamental skills (communications and time management) employers seek in SFTFBS graduates. We have tried to bring well-known time series and regression techniques under one roof, link them with well-thought-of Excel functions, formulas, and vitalisation tools, 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 emphasis on globalisation in today's education and developing case studies in international trade provide suitable teaching material in this direction. Articles of this kind facilitate continuing education and lifelong 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. Historical LA/LB ports container handling data are presented in Section 3. In Section 4, we estimate yearly ports throughput levels using moving averages and exponential smoothing. Measures of forecast accuracy and variability are discussed in Section 5. The level and trend for yearly data are covered in Section 6 using linear regression and trend-adjusted exponential smoothing. Section 7 estimates monthly data's level, trend, and seasonality using seasonality-enhanced regression, multivariate regression using seasonal dummy variables, and trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing. Conclusions follow in Section 8. In Appendix A, we implement Excel's functional and visualisation capabilities by examining a general any-period moving average and its dynamic tables and graphs. In Appendix B, we review the basic mathematics behind exponential smoothing. Appendix C explains the foundations of the computation of regression metrics in Excel and provides insight for piecewise regression analysis. The Excel workbooks can be obtained by contacting the author.

2 Literature review

Forecasting methods are partitioned into qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitative techniques are based on expert opinions and intuitions, 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 Operations and Supply Chain Management and business analytics foundations books.

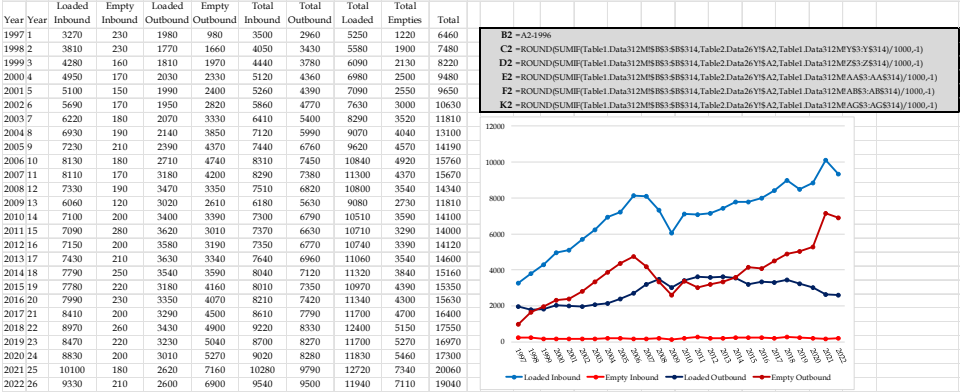
For Operations Management and Supply Chain Management books, the reader is referred to Cachon and Terwiesch (2020), Chase et al. (2000), Heizer et al. (2023), Stevenson (2014), Venkataraman and Pino (2018), and especially Chopra (2019) and Iravani (2021). For Business Analytics Foundations books, the reader is referred to Hillier and Hillier (2023), Albright and Winston (2015), Powel and Baker (2017), Ragsdale (2018), Camm et al. (2020), Jaggia et al. (2023), and Krajewski et al. (2016), and Winston (2022). For time series and forecasting specifics, the reader is referred to Holt (1957) and Vandeput (2023).

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 the moving average 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). This 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

[illegible]

Using the Excel SUMIF function, the monthly data are summarised and visualised in Figure 2. The data are in 1,000 TEUs; the last digits were rounded to zero.

Figure 2 26-year TEUs handling at LA/LB ports (see online version for colours)



3.2 Characteristics of forecasting techniques

All forecasting techniques have three key characteristics.

- 1 *Forecasts always deviate from actual observations.* Since the world is not deterministic – at least to us – all forecasts are almost always inaccurate. Forecasts provide the average value for a variable of interest such as sales or demand. Demand is a random variable usually following Poisson 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.
- 2 *Forecasts of aggregate items are more accurate than forecasts of individual items.* Aggregate forecasts reduce variability. The forecast for all container terminals in all ports in the world is more accurate than the forecast for US ports, the forecast for US 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 represented by σ , then the variance for the volume of activities in the combined port is $2\sigma^2$. Therefore, the following year's activities volume standard deviation for the combined LA/LB ports is not 2σ . It is $\text{SQRT}(2)\sigma \approx 1.41\sigma < 2\sigma$.

- 3 *Long-term forecasts are less accurate than short-term forecasts.* Forecast accuracy diminishes as we look further into the future. We benefit from more accurate information and make better predictions as we get closer to the demand time. Next year's LA/LB activities forecast is more accurate than the ten-year forecast.

3.3 *Impact of characteristics of forecasting techniques on LA/LB ports throughput*

Figure 3 shows the world's container port throughput in ten countries and ten ports. The combined LA/LB ports are ranked 10th in the world. They comprise the largest port complex in the Western Hemisphere.

Figure 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%			

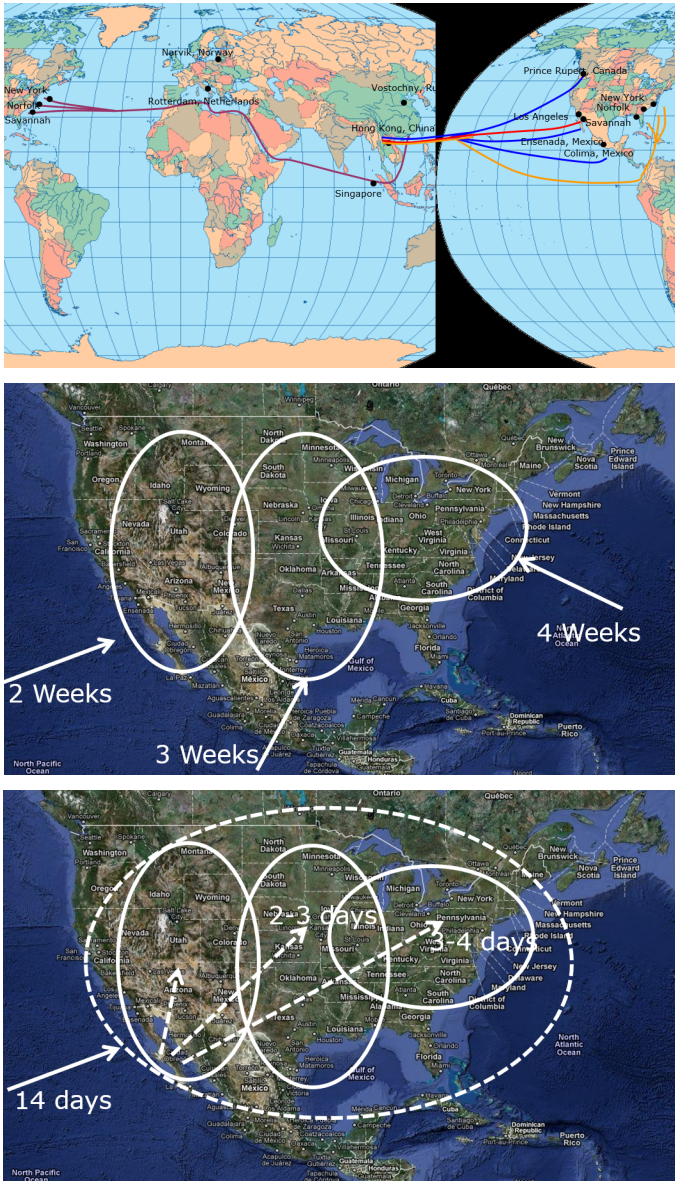
Container Throughput (Country Ranking)			
(Million TEU)			
Rank	Country	MTEUs	% to World
1	China	245.1	31.2%
2	United States	55.0	7.0%
3	Singapore	36.9	4.7%
4	Korea	28.4	3.6%
5	Malaysia	26.7	3.4%
6	Japan	21.4	2.7%
7	United Arab Emirates	19.3	2.5%
8	Germany	18.0	2.3%
9	Hong Kong SAR, China	18.0	2.3%
10	Spain	17.4	2.2%
(b) Top 10 countries: 62%			

Source: American Association of Port Authorities, 2020.

What are the competing edges of the LA/LB ports? Deepwater facilities with a depth of 60 feet for Post-Panama ships with 18,000 TEUs? Seventy miles of waterfront and about 16,000 acres, about half water, half land area? Fourteen container terminals with 150 ship-to-shore container cranes? State-of-the-art on-dock facilities to transfer containers between ships and trains? 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 the key reason behind the attractiveness of the LA/LB ports.

As pictorially shown in Figure 4, shipping containers from the Far East to the East Coast may take four weeks. This shipment takes two weeks to the west coast. 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 Coast. According to forecasting characteristics (III), the forecast for two weeks in the future is more accurate than the forecast for four weeks in the future. In addition, forecasting the east-cost demand when the commodity is in west-cost will be more accurate than in East Asia.

Figure 4 Forecasting-based competing edges of LA/LB ports (see online version for colours)



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 when the product is in the LA/LB ports. 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 is assumed to be 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.

Details of all Excel formulas in all tables and all sections are summarised in a set of cells with grey 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 analyst may consider the average of all years as the demand forecast for next year; $F_{27} = \text{AVERAGE}(A_{26} + A_{25} + \dots + A_2 + A_1)$.

A more rational analyst, however, may stay between these two extremes and estimate the demand for the next period based on the observations in the past n -periods. An n -period moving average in period 26 is defined as $MA_{26} = \text{AVERAGE}(A_{26}, A_{25}, \dots, A_{26-n+1})$. The forecast for period 27 is then defined as the n -period moving average in year 26. The four-period moving average forecast in year 27 equals the four-period moving average in year 26; $F_{27} = MA_{26}^4 = (A_{26} + A_{25} + A_{24} + A_{23})/4$. Generally, $F_{t+1} = MA_t^n = (A_t + A_{t-1} + \dots + A_{t-n+1})/n$. Note that the n -period moving averages do not exist until period n , and n -period moving average forecasts do not exist until period $n + 1$.

Moving average formulas for one-period, all-period, and four-period moving averages are shown in Figure 16 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 the formula 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: $F_1 = A_1$; F_1 = average of all existing actual values; F_1 = intercept of the linear regression line (discussed later).

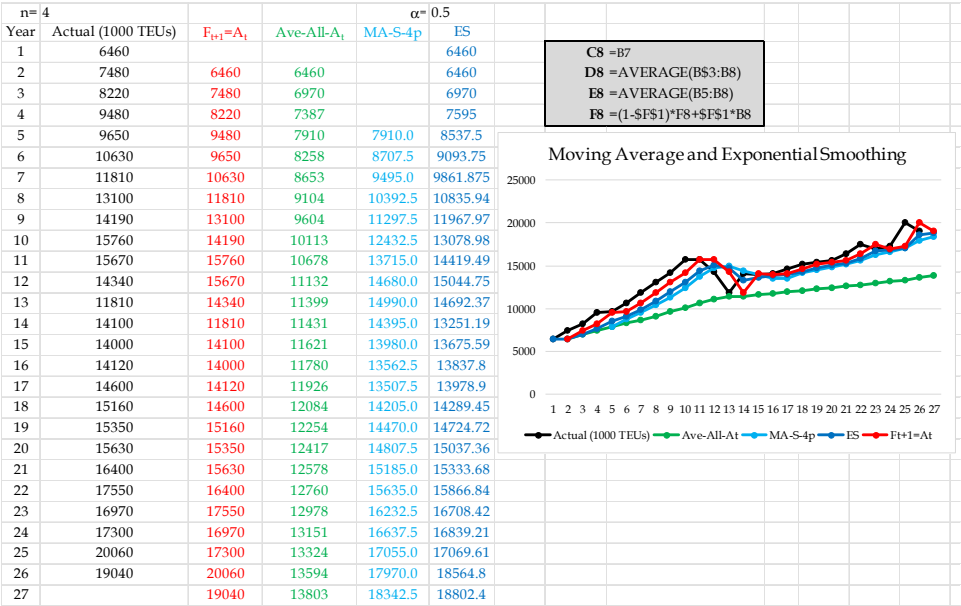
We follow the first approach and set $F_1 = A_1$.

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 and remains the same in all the coming periods.

We usually start with $\alpha = 0.5$ and use an optimisation tool, such as Excel's standard SOLVER add-ins or DataTable, to find the optimal α minimising one of the forecast accuracies measured, 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 Figure 5. This figure also shows the graph for alternative forecasting techniques discussed up to this point that can be made using Excel's scatter graph or line chart.

Figure 5 Alternative moving average and exponential smoothing forecasts (see online version for colours)



4.3 Age of data in moving average and exponential smoothing

A four-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 four-period moving average, the average 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 four-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 $\alpha = 0.6667$ has an age equivalent to a two-period moving average forecast. An exponential smoothing forecast with $\alpha = 0.1$ has an age equivalent to a 19-period moving average forecast.

A smaller α in exponential smoothing plays the same role as a larger number of periods in moving averages in smoothing out the recent fluctuations. Larger values for α 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 one-period moving average where the forecast for the next period is equal to the actual in this period.

5 Measuring forecast accuracy and variability

In this section, we 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 estimated average demand in the next period. In addition, 1.25 times the most recent MAD is the standard deviation of the next period forecast. In other words, $A_{t+1} \sim N(F_{t+1}, 1.25MAD_t)$. The 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 unbiased forecasting method, it should remain close to zero. We 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 ± 4 are inaccurate.

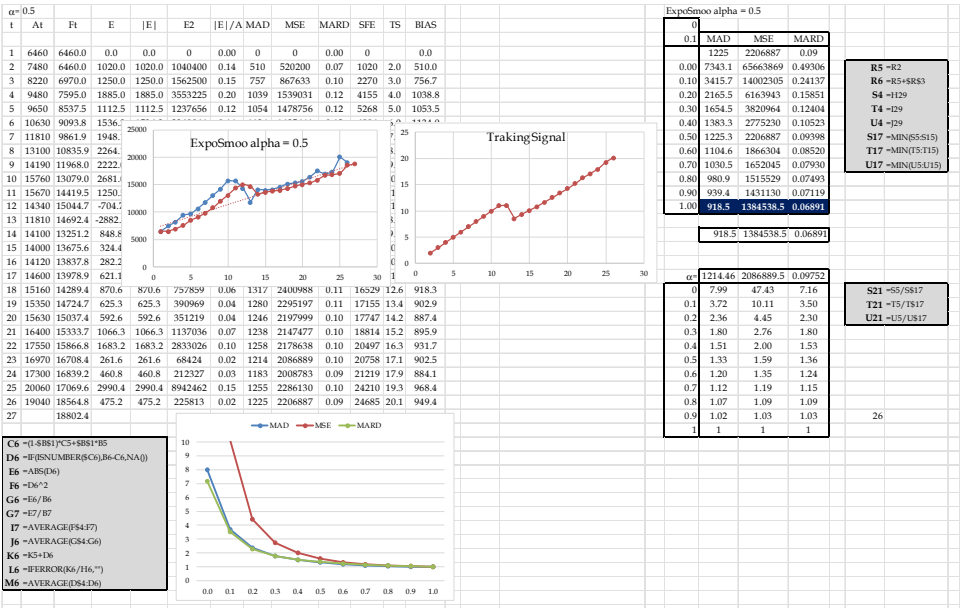
TS serves two essential purposes. First, we expect it to stay within UCL and LCL. Second, we do not expect to see a pattern over time. For example, we do not expect to see an always positive or consistently negative TS. Since we have the summation of $E_t = A_t - F_t$ in the numerator, in the first case, the forecasting technique underestimates the demand. 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 actual data not incorporated into our forecasting.

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. We may assign a coefficient greater than 1 to positive E_t values. We may also benefit from the newsvendor problem (Arrow et al., 1951; Schweitzer and Cachon, 2000; Iravani, 2021) to find a good tradeoff coefficient of underestimating and overestimating demand.

5.2 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) = 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 $A_{t+1} \sim N(F_{t+1}, \text{SQRT}(\text{MSE}_t))$.

Figure 6 All metrics for forecast accuracy and reliability (see online version for colours)



There is a third method that we refer to as mean absolute relative deviation (MARD). It is also called mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) when multiplied by 100. Instead of averaging $|E_t|$ values, we average $|E_t| / A_t$ values. For example, $|E_t| = 10$ states that there were 10 units of deviations between A_t and F_t . If $A_t = 200$, then 10 relative to 200 is a 0.05 (or 5%) gap. In MARD, the relative absolute gaps (relative to the demand) are computed instead of the absolute gaps. There are still other methods. For example, we may minimise the maximum absolute deviation between actual and forecast.

Figure 6 shows the computations of error (E), the sum of forecast error (SFE), average error (BIAS), absolute error, MAD, TS, MSE, and MARD for exponential smoothing with $\alpha = 0.5$. Besides the actual vs. forecast and the tracking signal curves, the third curve shows the MAD, MSE, and MARD ratio to their minimum value as α changes from 0 to 1.

5.3 Optimal α value

The optimal α value can be computed in at least two ways; SOLVER and 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 minimised, and α , cell B1, is the changing cell to minimise the objective function value. For the Data Table, we set cells P4, Q4, and R4 equal to cells H29, I29, and J29, respectively. The α values start from a cell one column to the left and one row below MAD. Using a formula, we can find the value of α in the Data Table with as many decimal points as the value obtained by SOLVER. This is done by typing the starting α value of 0 and the increment in two arbitrary cells (such as cells R2 and R3 in this example). We then set R5 = R2 and R6 = R2 + \$R\$3 and copy down from 0 to 1. We will then mark R4 to U15, select Data tab, What-if Analysis, and Data Table. Since alternative α values are typed in a column (not in a row), inside the column input cell, point to B1, where the α value is placed (this should be the same cell used as α in the exponential smoothing formula). We then find the α value corresponding to the minimal MAD (or MSE or MARD) value. Suppose the α value for the minimal MAD is 0.7. To estimate α with more decimal points, we can set cell R2 to 0.65 and R3 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 α computations using both SOLVER and Data Table for all three metrics and their normalisation (divide each by the minimal value in that column) are shown in Figure 6. The reader is encouraged to look into all the formulas in grey 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 Figure 7, 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 minimise MAD. The computations for exponential smoothing and the essential formulas are shown in Figure 7.

5.4 Stationary vs. non-stationary data

In our dataset, the optimal α 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 $\text{Cumt} = \text{SUM}(A_t)$ function to check if a data set is stationary. The data is stationary if Cumt is close to a straight line. Figure 8 shows Cumt for our data is distant

from a line. We will later discuss trend-adjusted exponential smoothing and regression for data with a trend.

Figure 7 Forecasting measures under optimal α and a constant for exponential smoothing (see online version for colours)

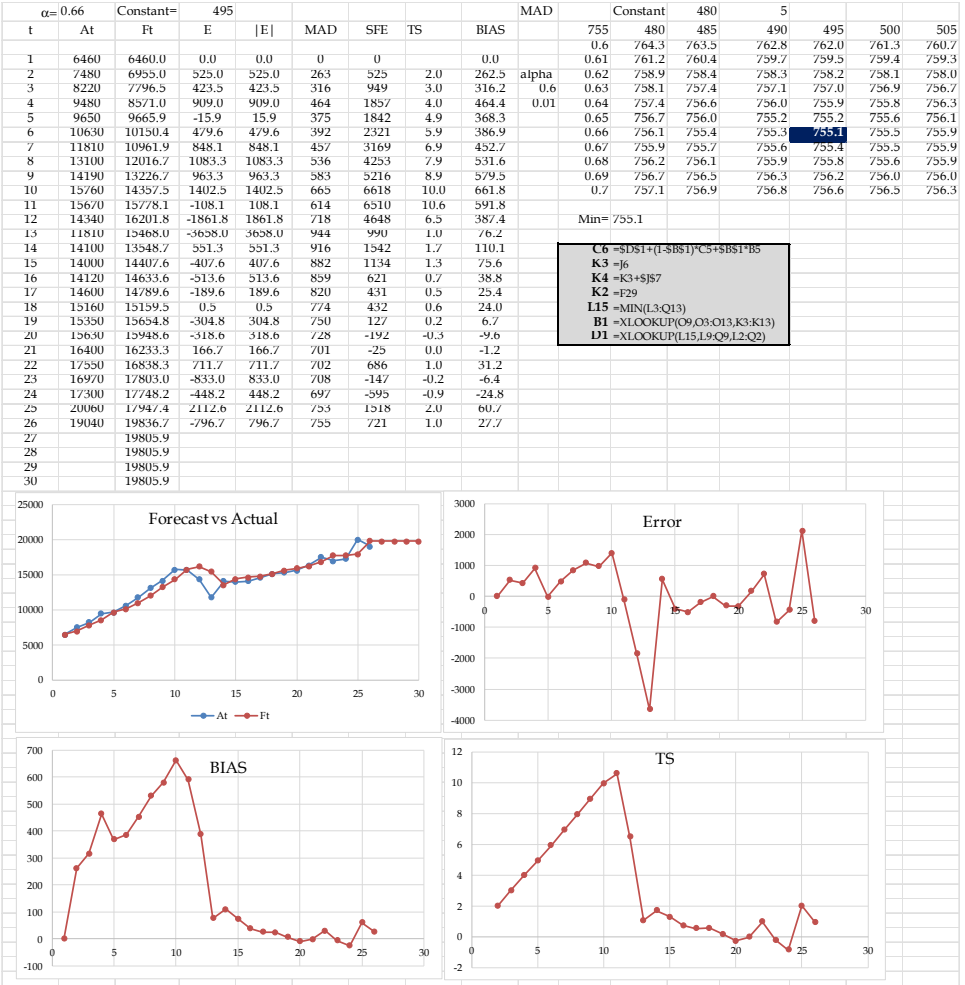
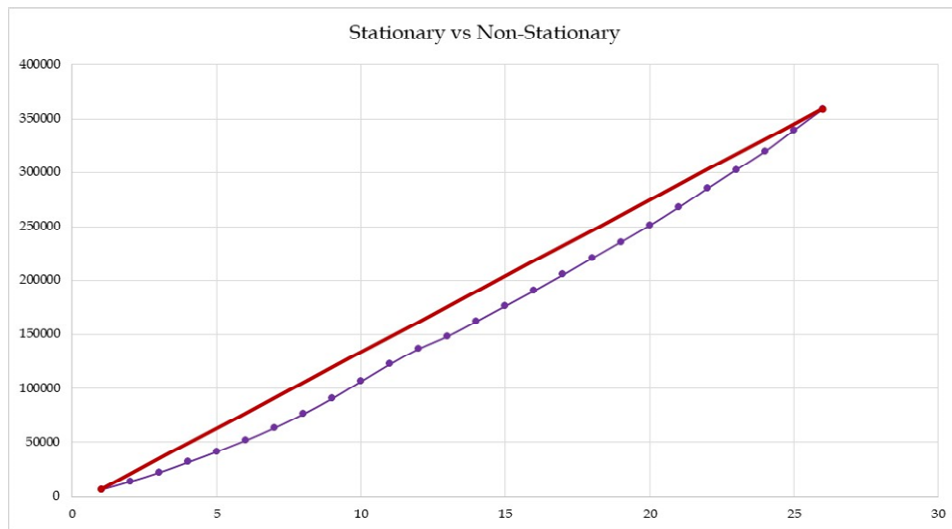


Figure 8 Stationary vs. non-stationary data (see online version for colours)

6 Level and trend

This section reviews:

- 1 bivariate linear regression
- 2 trend-adjusted exponential smoothing.

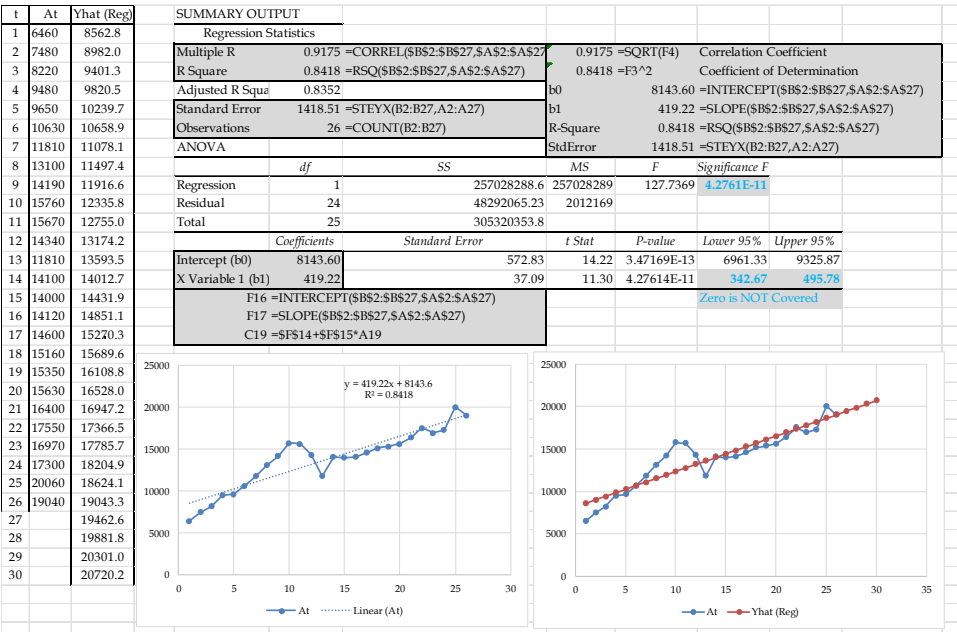
6.1 Bivariable linear regression

The bivariable 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 summarised in Figure 9. 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 value ($0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$), the more reliable the regression line.

- *Procedure-2. Data analysis add-ins:* choose data tab, data analysis, then regression. In the next table, enter the Y variable (A_t), then X variables (t), check the output range, and select a cell to be the east-north of the table (we select cell E1). You may also choose new worksheet to have a table in a new worksheet.

Figure 9 Alternative linear regression computations (see online version for colours)



If the range between the two blue numbers in the bottom part of Figure 9 (confidence interval under Lower 95% and Upper 95% for b_1) does not cover zero, there is a relationship between Y and X ($b_1 \neq 0$). Otherwise, we cannot claim a relationship. If the blue number in the top part of the table (under significance F) is less than 0.05, with more than 95% confidence, b_0 and b_1 are not both zero.

This approach is not recommended for bivariable linear regression if we do not need all the information this add-ins provides. That is because:

- 1 we must reproduce the table if a Y or X value changes
- 2 it also occupies a portion of the worksheet.

As shown in the seasonality-enhanced multivariate regression, using regression in data analysis add-ins is a good choice for bivariable nonlinear and multivariate linear and nonlinear cases.

- *Procedure-3. Excel functions:* as shown in Figure 9, 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. It is the preferred method since all the metrics are already in the Excel cells (do not need to be read from a graph as in Procedure-1) and are updated continually (as is not the case in Procedure-2).

- *Procedure 4. Using more fundamental computations in Excel:* in Appendix C, we will provide fundamental insight into the computation of regression metrics from computing SST, SSE, and SSR, as well as a piecewise regression.

6.2 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 defined in Chopra (2019) based on Holt (1957).

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

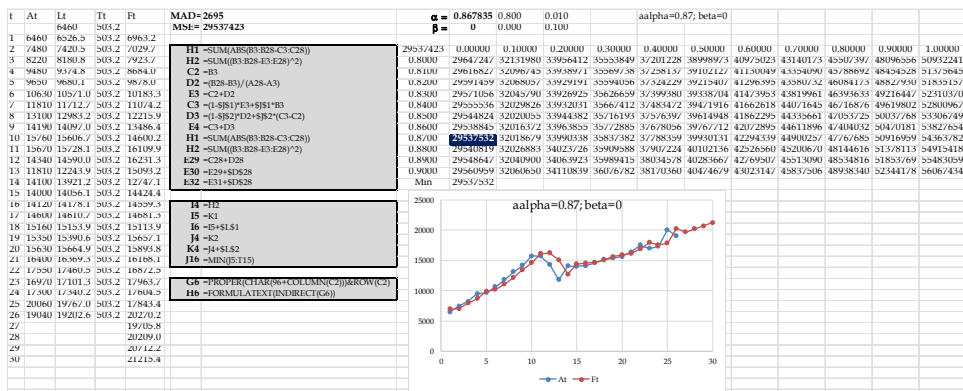
$$T_{t+1} = (1 - \beta)T_t + \beta(L_{t+1} - L_t)$$

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, $L_0 = A_1 = 6,460$, and $T_0 = (A_{26} - A_1)/(26-1) = 503.2$ [based on Iravani (2021)]. Alternatively, we may set L_0 as the intercept of the regression line and T_0 as its slope. $L_0 = b_0 = 8,143.6$, and $T_0 = b_1 = 419.2$ [based on 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 DataTable to find the optimal values of $\alpha = 0.87$ and $\beta = 0$, as shown in Figure 10. 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 γ value minimising the MSE of the forecasts from the actual values can then be obtained using SOLVER or DataTable.

Figure 10 Trend-adjusted exponential smoothing computations (see online version for colours)



7 Level, trend, and seasonality

In this section, we review:

- 1 seasonality-enhanced bivariable linear regression
- 2 seasonality-enhanced multivariate regression using dummy variables
- 3 trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing.

7.1 Seasonality enhanced bivariable linear regression

The monthly data shown in Figure 2 for 12(26) months (in 1,000 TEUs) are copied into Figure 11. 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 the periodicity of a week, or provide hourly data with a periodicity of 24 hours.

Figure 11 Computations for static seasonality enhanced bivariate linear regression (see online version for colours)

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

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/SG\$2

I317 =(\$L\$1+\$L\$2*A317)*VLOOKUP(F317,\$F\$3:\$H\$14,3,0)

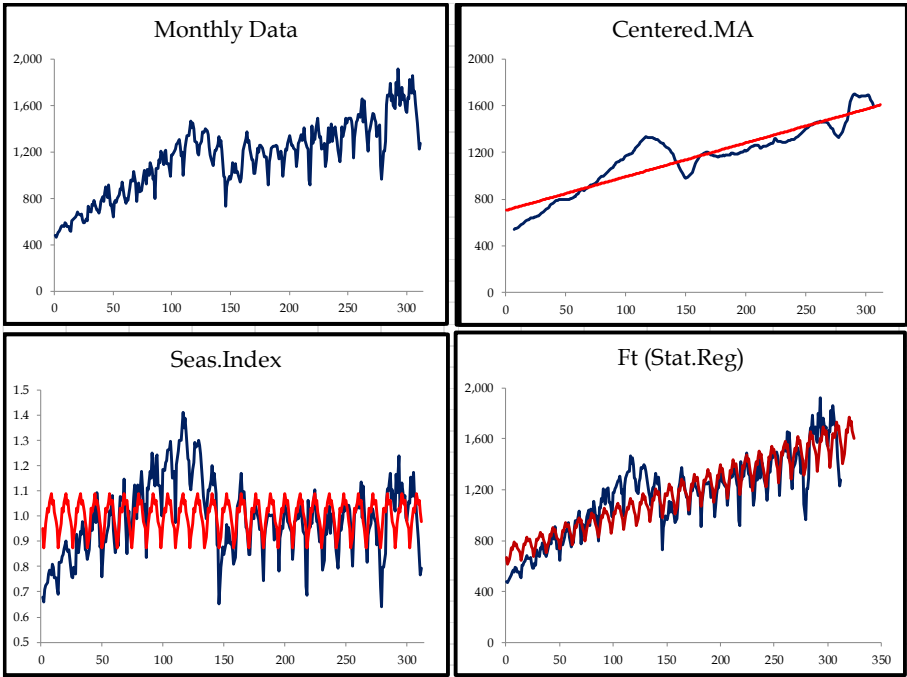
Step 1 Removing seasonality: when we compute the average of 12 months, it is pure of seasonality since high and low seasons cross each other out. This is true for any

other periodicity. The average of all seasons does not contain seasonality. Unlike with the moving average, where we placed the average of n periods in front of the last period, we implement the centred moving average and place the average of the n periods at the centre of the n periods.

If we were considering seasonality over 7 days of a week, since 7 is odd, we could have placed the average in front of period 4, compared the actual period 4 with the centred moving average, and estimated the seasonality of period 4. But there is no middle period for even periodicity. Therefore, for the 12-period centred moving average, we compute the average of the first 12 periods and assume it is on the boundary of periods 6 and 7. Then, compute the average of periods 2 to 13 and assume it is on the boundary of periods 7 and 8. (In general, for even periodicity of n , we compute the average of periods 1 to n and assume it's on the boundary of periods $n/2$ and $n/2 + 1$. Then, compute the average of periods 2 to $n + 1$ and assume it's on the boundary of periods $n/2 + 1$ and $n/2 + 2$.) Next, we compute the average of these two centred moving averages and place it in front of period 7, representing the unseasonal activity volume at period 7. We then copy this formula to 6 months before the last months (month $N - n/2$). We will generally have the centred moving average for all periods minus periodicity.

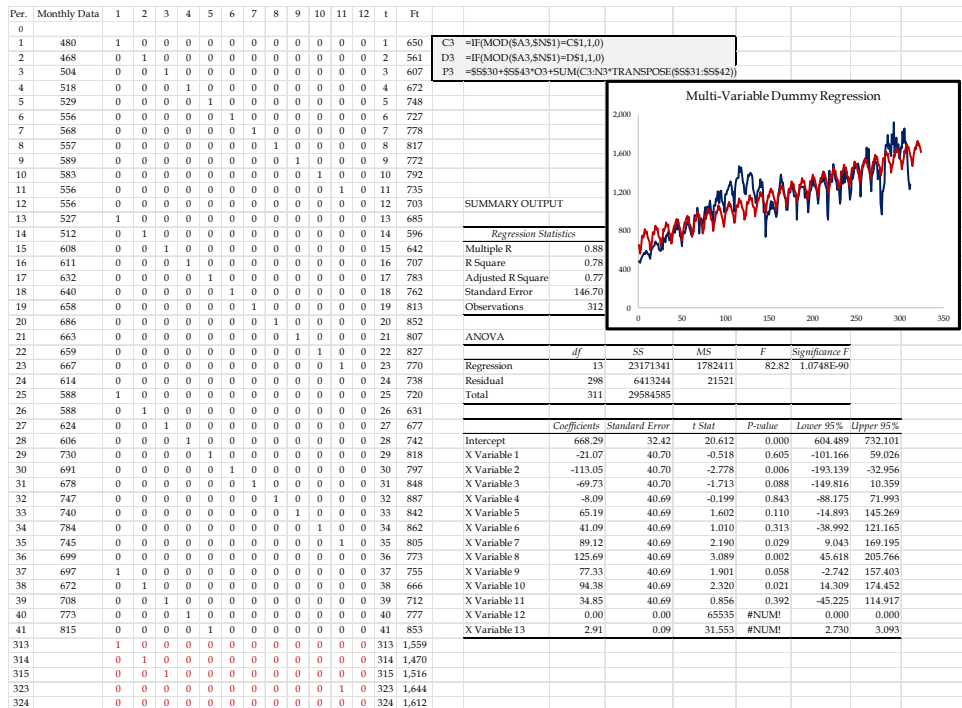
- Step 2 Trend in the deseasonalised data: we apply linear regression on months 7 (six months after 1) to 306 (six months before 312) to find the level and trend of the data pure of seasonality. It leads to b_0 , b_1 , and R^2 , as shown in columns K and L of Figure 11. The Excel worksheet also shows the formulas for all other computations, as discussed below.
- Step 3 Seasonality indices: we divide the actual data of each month by the value obtained from the regression line applied to the deseasonalised data (A_t / 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 normalise, we divide the average seasonality index of each month by the average of the averages. These computations are in columns E–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 deseasonalised 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 Figure 11. The results of the four steps of this process are schematically represented in Figure 12. 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 12 Four key steps in static seasonality enhanced bivariable linear regression (see online version for colours)



7.2 Seasonality enhanced multivariate regression using dummy variables

We use multivariate 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 , we need $n - 1$ dummy binary variables. Other periods are compared with the period with no binary variable. The period of choice does not affect the outcomes of the analysis. For a periodicity of 12, we define 11 binary variables from 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 bivariable regression, when we select a single column as X or our month variable, we select 12 adjacent columns here. One column is associated with the month, and 11 are associated with 11 dummy variables. The output and all the essential formulas are shown in Figure 13. 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).

Figure 13 Seasonality enhanced multivariate regression computations (see online version for colours)

7.3 Trend and seasonality adjusted exponential smoothing

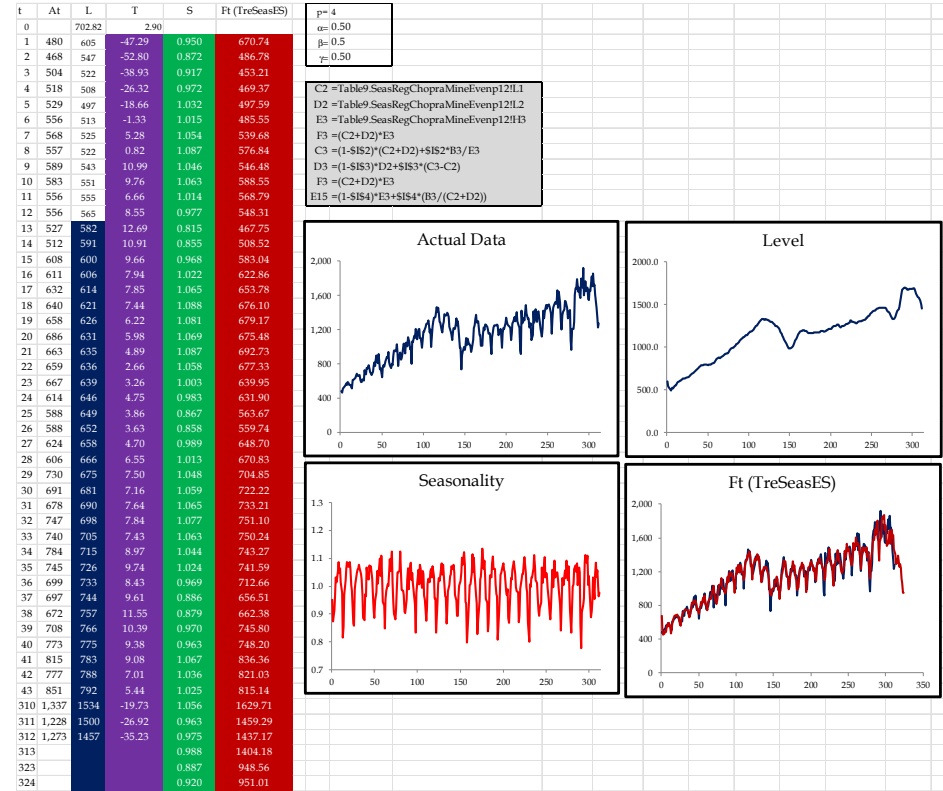
A crucial difference between regression and trend-adjusted exponential smoothing is that regression has a static trend, while the trend is adaptive in trend-adjusted exponential smoothing. Also, for the two previous seasonality-adjusted approaches discussed in this section, we used the term static seasonality since seasonality indexes and all other coefficients remain unchanged yearly. You can observe unchanged seasonality indices in the two charts at the bottom of Figure 12 and the chart in Figure 13.

In this third approach, we update seasonality indices – along with level and trend – from one period to the next. It extends the trend-adjusted exponential smoothing (Winters, 1960; Chopra, 2019). The reader may look into seasonality in Figure 12 and Figure 13 and compare them with the graphs in Figure 14 to visualise the dynamism of this third approach.

By applying linear regression on the 12-month centred moving average implemented in seasonality-enhanced bivariable linear regression, we first estimate the level ($L_0 = \text{INTERCEPT}$) and trend ($T_0 = \text{SLOPE}$) in month zero. We use static seasonality indexes computed in seasonality-enhanced bivariable linear regression [implemented in Chopra (2019)]. Alternatively, we may set L_0 equal to the average demand in the first 12 months. We also compute L_N as the average of the last 12 months, and 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 L_0 and set them as the seasonality indexes for the first 12 months [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 bivariable linear regression, we follow the first approach and copy $L_0, T_0, S_1, \dots, S_{12}$ from Figure 11 into Figure 14. We first set $\alpha = 0.5, \beta = 0.5$, and $\gamma = 0.5$.

Figure 14 Seasonality enhanced multivariate regression computations (see online version for colours)

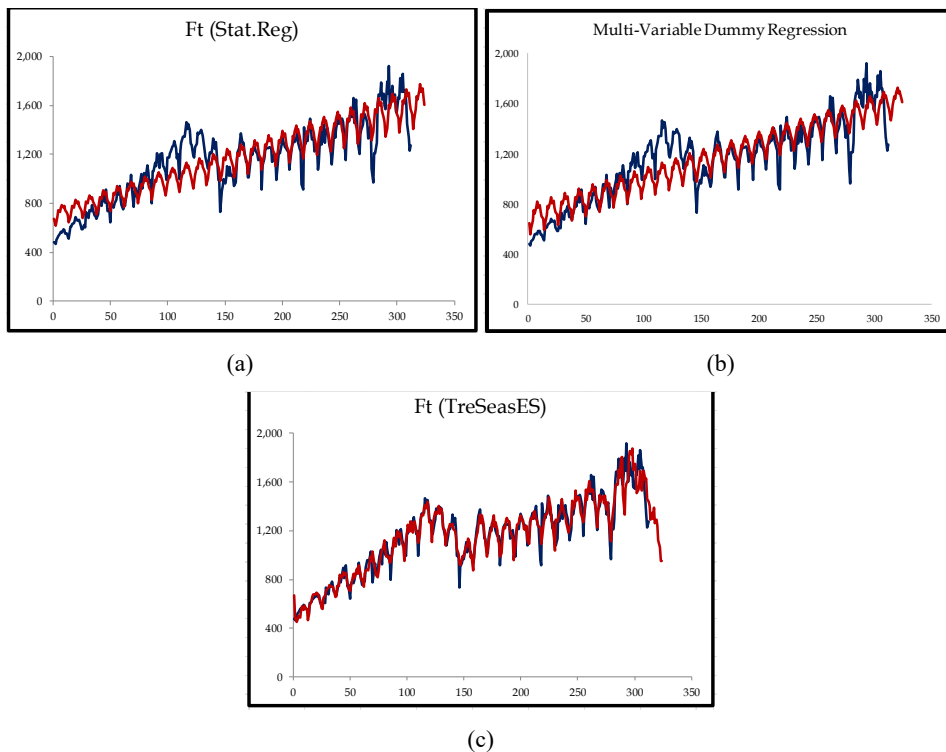


Step 1 Compute L_t . Given $L_0 = 702.82, T_0 = 2.9$, and $S_1 = 0.95; F_1 = (L_0 + T_0)$
 $S_1 = (702.82 + 2.9) \times 0.95 = 670.74$. We now move forward to compute L_1, T_1, F_2 , and S_{13} , then L_2, T_2, F_3 , and S_{14} , and so on. In all exponential smoothing models, we always have one component multiplied by a parameter (α, β , or γ), added to another component multiplied by 1 minus α, β , or γ . 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 α ? 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 β . 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 $F_{t+1} = (L_t + T_t) * S_{t+1}$. 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, $S_{13} = (1 - \gamma) \times S_1 + \gamma (A_1 / L_1) = (1 - 0.5) \times 0.96 + 0.5(0.68) = 0.82$.

Figure 14 shows all the key formulas and curves related to trend and seasonality-adjusted exponential smoothing components.

Figure 16 The results of the three seasonality enhanced/adjusted methods, (a) static regression (b) dummy-multivariate regression (c) trend and seasonality adjusted exponential smoothing (see online version for colours)



8 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 alternative time series and regression analysis techniques. This manuscript can be used as teaching material or as a case study to enhance 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.

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Appendix A

Computation of metrics and drawing the graphs for an any-period moving average

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

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

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

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

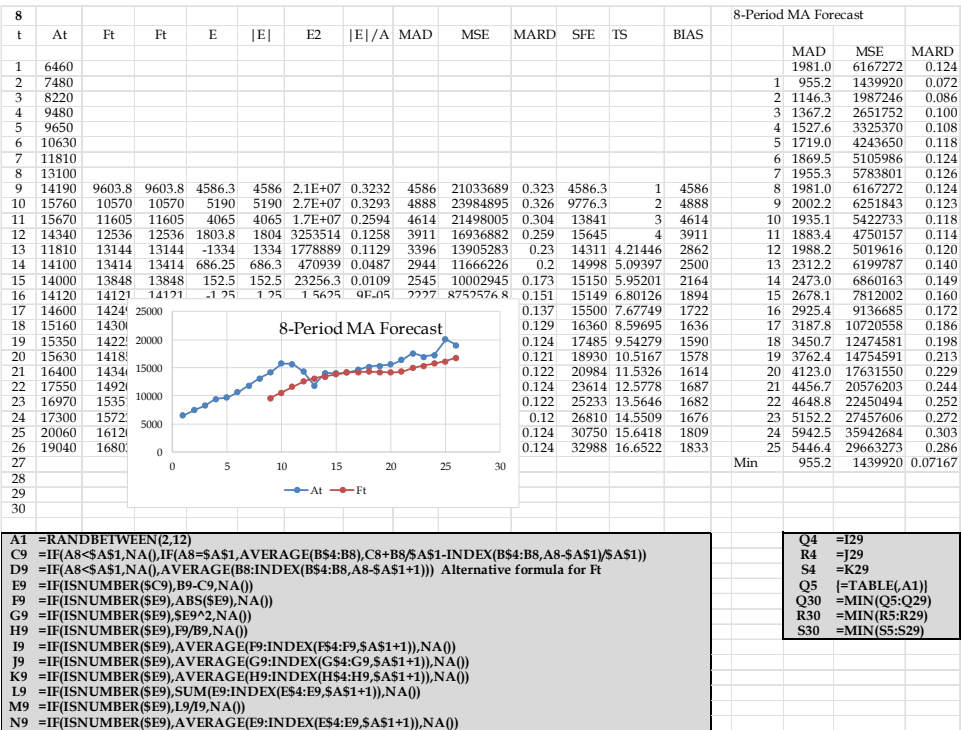
Given this fundamental insight, we develop a general formula applicable to any number of periods in a moving average computation as $F_{(t+1)} = F_t + (A_t - A_{t-n})/n$. This formula directly computes the next period's forecast to be equal to the forecast for this period (the moving average of the previous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

In Figure A1, we enter the number of periods in the moving average in cell A₁ using the RANDBETWEEN(2, 12) function. Let's say it generates 4. Now, consider the formula in row C9, which is the forecast for period 6. We have both the previous forecast and the actual in row 8. The newest piece of data is in A8, but how do we access the oldest piece of data used in the previous forecast? This data is in the row $t-n$ of the actual

data, which in our example is row 8–4 = 4 on 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 (referenced by A8) is less than 4 (the number of periods in the moving average), a blank space (“”) is entered in the corresponding forecast cell (C9) to leave it empty. 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). It will find the oldest piece of data used in the forecast: INDEX(B\$4:B8,5-4) = INDEX(B\$4:B8,1) = B4 = 6,460. The actual for the previous period is B8 = 9,650, and the forecast for the previous period is C8 = 7,910. Therefore, the forecast for this period C9 = 7,910 + (9,650–6,460)/4 = 8,707.5. The figure is adjusted for any number less than 26 that may appear in cell A1.

Figure A1 Computation and evaluation of an any-period moving average (see online version for colours)



- *Combined excel function considerations:* 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:B6,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 Figure A1 are re-emphasized in the cells with the grey background.

- *Visualization considerations:* since we draw curves for some of the columns in Figure A1, a blank space (“”) for starting years less than or equal to the random number that appears in cell A₁ will result in a Y-value equal to 0 even though it is empty (not zero). To resolve this, we replace the blank space (“”) with the NA() function. In that case, the curves will not draw anything when encountering a #NA. However, to avoid #NA appearing in the table, we use formula-based conditional formatting with the IFERROR function and switch the font colour of these cells to white. Accordingly, Figure A1 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 coloured white and switch the font colour to black using the ISNUMBER function in conditional formatting. This way, Figure A1 automatically adjust regardless of the random number between 2 and 25 in cell A₁. Alternatively, we could initially set the font colour of these columns to white and then use conditional formatting with the ISNUMBER function to switch the font colour back to black for valid numbers.

Appendix B

Exponential smoothing basic mathematics

In this appendix, we show that:

- 1 exponential smoothing is a weighted moving average
- 2 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.

$$F_1 = A_1$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} F_4 &= (1 - \alpha)F_3 + \alpha A_3 \rightarrow F_4 = (1 - \alpha)((1 - \alpha)A_1 + \alpha A_2) + \alpha A_3 \\ &\rightarrow F_4 = (1 - \alpha)^2 A_1 + \alpha(1 - \alpha)A_2 + \alpha A_3 \end{aligned}$$

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

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

The sum of the weights are

$$\begin{aligned}
S &= \alpha + \alpha(1-\alpha) + \alpha(1-\alpha)^2 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^3 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^4 \dots + \alpha(1-\alpha)^{t-1} \\
&= \alpha(1-\alpha) + \alpha(1-\alpha)^2 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^3 + \alpha(1-\alpha)^4 \dots + \alpha(1-\alpha)^t \\
S - (1-\alpha)S &= \alpha - \alpha(1-\alpha)^t \rightarrow \alpha S = \alpha(1 - (1-\alpha)^t) \rightarrow S = 1 - (1-\alpha)^t
\end{aligned}$$

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 $1/\alpha$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Derivation with respect to α

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

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

B.3 UCL and LCL in tracking signal are larger than + 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)].

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Therefore, tracking signal $TS = \sum E_t / MAD$ with samples of size N is normally distributed around 0, and $UCL = 3.75 \sqrt{N}$ and $LCL = -3.75 \sqrt{N}$.

Appendix C

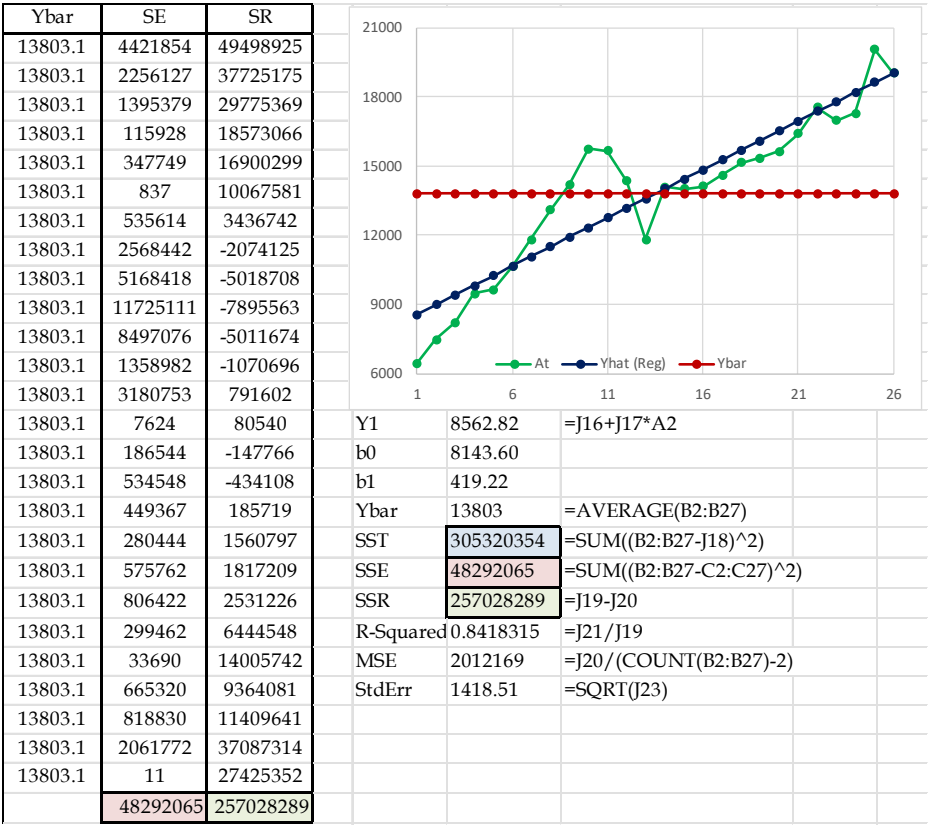
Foundations of computation of regression metrics in Excel (b_0 , b_1 , SST, SSE, SSR)

Regression lines can be designed by minimizing various error measures, including MAD, MSE, $MAX(|E_t|)$, or any other measure. Conventionally, regression equations are designed based on MSE minimization (least-square method). However, the conventional approach uses the least-squares method, which uses MSE or SSE (Sum of Squared Errors). We use SOLVER to find the optimal b_0 and b_1 (in cells J16 and J17 in Figure A1) for the minimal value for SSE (cell D28). 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 compute SSE in cell D26. SOLVER is then used (DataTable is another option) to find optimal b_0 and b_1 values minimizing SSE (or MSE). These optimal values in cells J16 and J17 are the same as those found using the three regression tools mentioned in this manuscript. It highlights the significant power of dynamic arrays, as shown by the formula in cell J19 for direct SSE calculations.

Quantitative foundations of regression metrics

We usually compute three SST, SSE, and SSR metrics in regression analysis. SST (total squared deviations from the mean) is the summation of the squares of the gaps between each pair of points on the green (actual data) and the red (average of all data) lines. SSE (total squared deviations from the regression line) represents the summation of the squares of the gaps between each pair of points on the green and the blue curve (regression) lines. $SSR = SST - SSE$ represents how well the regression line could replace the average data line. The reader may compare the computations in cells D28, F28, and G28 with those of J19, J20, and J21 to better understand the efficiency of dynamic arrays (and may delete columns D, E, F, and G).

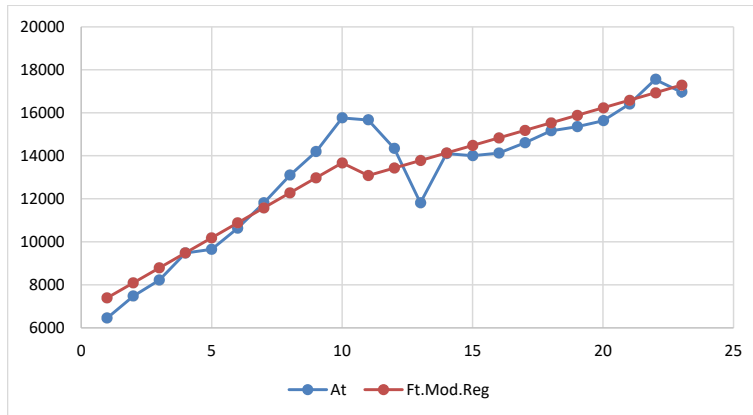
Figure C1 Direct computation of regression coefficients and key metrics (see online version for colours)



R-squared, calculated as SSR/SST , reflects the proportion of variance explained by the regression model. It provides the same value as the RSQ function. While MSE is traditionally viewed as SSE divided by the number of data points, we must include degrees of freedom in regression analysis. We lose degrees of freedom when we benefit from one statistic extracted from the same data set to compute another statistic. 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 $SSE/(26-2)$.

Piecewise regression

Leveraging the background provided in this Appendix, we can employ piecewise regression to estimate b_{01} , b_{11} , b_{02} , and b_{12} as the parameters for the first and second segments of the regression line and T as the year to switch from the first regression line to the second. These five changing cells, and MSE as the objective function to be minimized, lead to the piecewise regression line visualized in Figure C2.

Figure C2 Piecewise regression on la/lb ports annual data (see online version for colours)

Appendix D

All worksheets used in this study

Due to the extensive calculations across multiple worksheets, recalculating the entire workbook can slow down the computations of the metrics of interest. Splitting the worksheets you need into separate files can significantly improve performance. Please contact the author for the entire workbook used in preparing this manuscript.