## Forecast evaluation II

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## Forecast and observation classes

(a) Forecast

(b) Observation



(c) Comparison


## What is a good probabilistic forecast?

There should be consistency between the forecaster's judgement and the forecast, there should be correspondence between the forecast and the observation, and the forecast should be informative for the user.

Murphy (WAF, 1993)

We propose a diagnostic approach to the evaluation of predictive performance that is based on the paradigm of maximizing the sharpness of the predictive distribution subject to calibration.

Gneiting, Balabdaoui and Raftery (JRSSB, 2007)

## Outline for this lecture

Assume we have a prediction $p \in \mathcal{P}$ and an observation $o \in \mathcal{O}$ where we wish to measure the skill of the prediction by applying a function

$$
s: \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{O} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}
$$

with a lower function value indicating a better skill.

What are good theoretical properties for $s$ ?

## General framework without any formulas...

- Assume $G$ is Nature's distribution of some event $y$ and denote our forecast for $y$ by $F$.
- For forecast evaluation, we should use performance metrics that follow the principle in the long run, we will obtain the optimal performance for $F=G$
where "in the long run" means "over very many pairs $\left(y_{i}, F\right)$ ".
- Note that this is an abstract quality which is checked theoretically for general classes of distributions $F$ and $G$.
- If we agree that this is a sensible framework, we can then, in many cases, just pick a (few) such metric(s) and perform our forecast evaluation using those.


## Deterministic vs. probabilistic forecasts

(a) Forecast


(b) Observation

(c) Comparison


## Which deterministic value to choose?

In the absence of explicit guideance, forecasters may report different distributional features as their point predictions.

Engelberg, Manski and Williams (JBES, 2009)

A decision-theoretic approach provides a unifying framework for the evaluation of both probabilistic and deterministic forecasts.

## Scoring functions apply to deterministic forecasts

The forecast $x$ is evaluated against the observation $y$ using scoring functions such as

| Squared Error (SE) | $\mathrm{S}(x, y)=(x-y)^{2}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Absolute Error (AE) | $\mathrm{S}(x, y)=\|x-y\|$ |

Generally, we assume that

$$
S: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow[0, \infty) \quad \text { or } \quad S:(0, \infty) \times(0, \infty) \rightarrow[0, \infty)
$$

with the regularity conditions
(S0) $\mathrm{S}(x, y) \geq 0$ with equality if $x=y$
(S1) $\mathrm{S}(x, y)$ is continuous in $x$
(S2) The partial derivative $\partial_{x} \mathrm{~S}(x, y)$ exists and is continuous if $y \neq x$

## Average scores facilitate comparison across methods

Assume various forecasting methods $m=1, \ldots, M$ compete
They issue point forecasts $x_{m n}$ with observed values $y_{n}$, at a finite set of times, locations or instances $n=1, \ldots, N$

The methods are assessed and ranked by the mean score

$$
\overline{\mathrm{S}}_{N}^{m}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathrm{~S}\left(x_{m n}, y_{n}\right) \quad \text { for } m=1, \ldots, M
$$

## Testing equal predictive performance: Diebold-Mariano test

If the forecast cases are indpendent, a test of equal predictive performance can be based on the statistic

$$
t_{N}=\sqrt{N} \frac{\overline{\mathrm{~S}}_{N}^{m_{1}}-\overline{\mathrm{S}}_{N}^{m_{2}}}{\hat{\sigma}_{N}},
$$

where

$$
\hat{\sigma}^{2}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N}\left(\mathrm{~S}\left(x_{m_{1} n}, y_{n}\right)-\mathrm{S}\left(x_{m_{2} n}, y_{n}\right)\right)^{2}
$$

For correlated forecast errors, the variance estimate needs to be adjusted (Diebold and Mariano, JBES, 1995).

## Testing equal predictive performance: Permutation test

Alternatively, $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ can be compared using the statistic

$$
s_{N}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N}\left(\mathrm{~S}\left(x_{m_{1} n}, y_{n}\right)-\mathrm{S}\left(x_{m_{2} n}, y_{n}\right)\right)
$$

The permuation test is based on resampling copies of $s_{N}$ with random number of labels swapped. Under the null hypothesis, $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ perform equally well and the permutations have the same limiting distributions as $s_{N}$ for $N \rightarrow \infty$. An asymptotic test is obtained by considering the rank of $s_{N}$ within the permutations (Good, 2013).

## Bayes predictors should be used for probilistic forecasts

For a probabilistic forecast $F$, decision theory tells us that if the scoring function S is given, we should issue the Bayes predictor,

$$
\hat{x}=\arg \min _{x} \mathbb{E}_{F}[S(x, Y)]
$$

as the point forecast, where the expectation is with respect to $F$.

| Squared Error (SE) | $\mathrm{S}(x, y)=(x-y)^{2}$ | $\hat{x}=\operatorname{mean}(F)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Absolute Error (AE) | $\mathrm{S}(x, y)=\|x-y\|$ | $\hat{x}=\operatorname{median}(F)$ |

## Consistency and elicitability

Conversly, assume we only have one functional T of $F$ which we know to be, say, the mean value.

Here, we may apply any scoring function that is consistent for the functional $T$, in the sense that

$$
\mathbb{E}_{F}[\mathrm{~S}(\mathrm{~T}(F), Y)] \leq \mathbb{E}_{F}[\mathrm{~S}(x, Y)]
$$

for all $x$.
A functional is elicitable if there exists a scoring function that is strictly consistent for it, in the sense that equality holds if, and only if, $x=\mathrm{T}(F)$.

The variance and the mode are not elicitable (Gneiting, JASA, 2011; Heinrich, B, 2014).

## Probabilistic forecasts should generally be evaluated using proper scoring rules

A consistent scoring function is a special case of a proper scoring rule for probabilistic forecasts

## Definition

If $\mathcal{F}$ denotes a class of probabilistic forecasts on $\mathbb{R}$, a proper scoring rule is any function

$$
\mathrm{R}: \mathcal{F} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}
$$

such that

$$
\mathrm{R}(G, G):=\mathbb{E}_{G} \mathrm{R}(G, Y) \leq \mathbb{E}_{G} \mathrm{R}(F, Y)=: \mathrm{R}(F, G)
$$

for all $F, G \in \mathcal{F}$.

## Proper scoring rules prevent hedging

Is it possible to hedge the following scoring rule?

$$
R^{*}(F, y)=\frac{(\operatorname{mean}(F)-y)^{2}}{\operatorname{var}(F)}
$$

## Proper scoring rules prevent hedging

The proper Dawid-Sebastiani score is given by

$$
R(F, y)=\log (\operatorname{var}(F))+\frac{(\operatorname{mean}(F)-y)^{2}}{\operatorname{var}(F)}
$$

## Consistent scoring functions are proper scoring rules

Any consistent scoring function induces a proper scoring rule: if the scoring function

$$
S: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow[0, \infty)
$$

is consistent for the functional T , the relationship

$$
\mathrm{R}: \mathcal{F} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow[0, \infty), \quad(F, y) \longmapsto \mathrm{R}(F, y)=\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{~T}(F), y)
$$

defines a proper scoring rule.

Squared Error (SE)

$$
\mathrm{R}(F, y)=(\text { mean }(F)-y)^{2}
$$

Absolute Error (AE)

$$
\mathrm{R}(F, y)=|\operatorname{median}(F)-y|
$$

## The class of proper scoring rules is large

A commonly used score is the logarithmic or ignorance score,

$$
\mathrm{R}(F, y)=-\log (f(y))
$$

The continuous ranked probability score (CRPS) is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{R}(F, y) & =\mathbb{E}_{F}|X-y|-\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{F} \mathbb{E}_{F}\left|X-X^{\prime}\right| \\
& =\int[F(x)-\mathbb{1}\{x \geq y\}]^{2} d x \\
& =\int_{0}^{1}\left(F^{-1}(\tau)-y\right)\left(\mathbb{1}\left\{y \leq F^{-1}(\tau)\right\}-\tau\right) \mathrm{d} \tau
\end{aligned}
$$

where the integrands are the Brier score and the quantile score, respectively (Gneiting and Raftery, JASA, 2007).

The different scores behave somewhat differently


SE AE CRPS IGN

## Back to our example from yesterday

| Distribution $F(Y)$ | $\mathbb{E}(Y)$ | $\operatorname{Var}(Y)$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Normal | $\mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$ | $\mu \sim \mathcal{N}(25,1)$ | $\sigma^{2}=9$ |
| Gumbel | $\mathrm{G}(\mu, \sigma)$ | $\mu+\sigma \cdot \gamma \sim \mathcal{N}(25,1)$ | $\frac{\pi^{2}}{6} \sigma^{2}=\frac{3 \pi^{2}}{2}$ |

- Competing forecasts: Normal, non-central $t$, log-normal, Gumbel
- Each forecast is estimated based on 300 i.i.d. observations using methods of moments
- Case 1: 1000 forecast-observation pairs
- Case 2: 1000000 forecast-observation pairs
(Thorarinsdottir and Schuhen, 2018)


## Score behavior for normal truth



## Scores for normal truth







Ignorance score


Ignorance score

Forecast distribution (from left to right)
—— Normal

-     - t
-- Log-normal
-     - Gumbel
$\ldots$ True


## Uncertainty in scores vs. distribution of scores


pred. model

| $\left.\begin{array}{rl} \mathrm{N} \end{array} \mathrm{O}, 1\right), \mathrm{N}=100$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  | $\sigma=0.9$ |
|  | $\sigma=1.1$ |
| 自 | $\rho=0.1$ |
| 白 | $\mathrm{N}=10$ |

## Uncertainty in scores vs. distribution of scores



## The CRPS is appealing but not convenient to calculate: scoringRules to the rescue!

| Dist. on | Dist. on $>0$ | Dist. on intervals | Discrete dist. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gaussian | Exponential | Generalized extreme value | Poisson |
| t | Gamma | Generalized Pareto | Neg. binomial |
| Logistic | Log-Gaussian | Trunc. Gaussian |  |
| Laplace | Log-logistic | Trunc. t |  |
| Two-piece Gaussian | Log-Laplace | Trunc. logistic |  |
| Two-piece exponential |  | Trunc. exponential |  |
| Mixture of Gaussians |  | Uniform |  |
|  |  | Beta |  |

Truncated families can be defined with or without a point mass at the support boundaries.

## What to do if the predictive distribution is not available in closed form?

Assume our predictive distribution is the posterior predictive distribution of a Bayesian forecasting model,

$$
F(y)=\int F_{c}(y \mid \theta) \mathrm{d} P_{\text {post }}(\theta)
$$

We then have various options to estimate $F$ :

- Mixture-of-parameters: $\hat{F}(y)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} F_{c}\left(y \mid \theta_{i}\right)$ for posterior sample $\left\{\theta_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$
- Empirical CDF: $\hat{F}(y)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}\left\{y \geq Y_{i}\right\}$ for $Y_{i} \sim F_{c}\left(\cdot \mid \theta_{i}\right)$
- Kernel density estimator: $\hat{F}(y)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Phi\left(\frac{y-Y_{i}}{h_{n}}\right)$ with bandwidth $h_{n}$
- Gaussian approximation: $\hat{F}(y)=\Phi\left(\frac{y-\hat{\mu}}{\hat{\sigma}}\right)$ for posterior mean $\hat{\mu}$ and sd $\hat{\sigma}$ (Krüger et al., ISR, 2020)


## How do these approximations compare?

Simulation study with

$$
F_{c}(y \mid \theta)=\Phi\left(\frac{y}{\theta}\right)
$$

and

$$
F(y)=\mathrm{T}\left(y \mid 0, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right) .
$$

That is, $F$ is the CDF of a variable $Z$ where $Z / \sqrt{\alpha_{1}}$ follows a $t$ distribution with $\alpha_{2}$ degrees of freedom.

Logarithmic score


Number of MCMC iterates

CRPS


- Mixture of parameters

Gaussian approximation

- Kernel density estimation - Empirical CDF


## Conclusions

- The performance measure used in forecast evaluation may influence the results of a comparative study and should be selected with care.
- Different verification measures focus on different aspects of the model output; it is thus useful to apply multiple complementary measures.


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