

Regression and Time Series Analysis of Diesel Product Sales in Masters Energy oil and Gas

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Abstract

This research work makes use of the regression analysis and time series analysis for the Diesel Product Sales in Masters Energy oil and Gas. The application of multiple regression model were made to show the effect of environmental factors in the petroleum product sales. In the regression analysis, the p-value shows how the environmental factors (that is the independent variables) affect the model and how important is any of the environmental factors. The probability value shows and measures the accuracy errors in the data. The time series analysis were also used to show the trend influence in the data, detrend influence in the data, seasonal variation in the data and deseasoning of the data. Furthermore, trend estimation model was also used to forecast the product sales of the data. In conclusion, it was observed that the environmental factors have little effect on the petroleum product sales.

Key words: Regression, Time Series, Trend, Seasonal index, Forecasting, Deseason, Detrend and Diesel

1. Introduction to Time Series Analysis

Time series methods are statistical techniques that use historical demand data to predict future demand (Stevenson, 2005). Time series methods take into account possible internal structure in the data Time series data often arise when monitoring

industrial processes or tracking corporate business metrics. The essential difference between modeling data via time series methods and using the process monitoring methods discussed earlier in this chapter is the following: Time series analysis accounts for the fact that data points taken over time may have an internal structure (such as autocorrelation, trend or seasonal variation) that should be accounted for. This section will give a brief overview of some of the more widely used techniques in the rich and rapidly growing field of time series modeling and analysis (Stevenson, 2005).

2. Two Main Goals of Time Series Analysis

There are two main goals of time series analysis: (a) identifying the nature of the phenomenon represented by the sequence of observations, and (b) forecasting (predicting future values of the time series variable). Both of these goals require that the pattern of observed time series data is identified and more or less formally described. Once the pattern is established, we can interpret and integrate it with other data (i.e., use it in our theory of the investigated phenomenon, e.g., seasonal commodity prices). Regardless of the depth of our understanding and the validity of our interpretation (theory) of the phenomenon, we can extrapolate the identified pattern to predict future events.

3. Time -Series Analysis and Forecasting

A time series is a sequence of observations obtained through measurements often recorded at equally spaced intervals. Often, time series data have characteristics that facilitate forecasting. These include seasonality, underlying trends, and relationships with past observations or other causal variables. Analysts can improve time series forecasts if they understand the nature of these components and identify the model that will best exploit the data's characteristics.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a synopsis of time series analysis and forecasting. The first section discusses the characteristics of time series data. It reviews the common components useful in creating effective forecasts such as trend, seasonality, cyclical behavior, and irregular fluctuations. The chapter concludes with an introduction to time series forecasting and an overview of the forecasting model development process (Douglas, 1990).

Characteristics of Time-Series Data: time series is a “collection of observations made sequentially in time” (Chatfield, 1996). Examples are records of local daily rainfall levels, the quarterly U.S. Gross Domestic Product, and the monthly Marine Corps personnel strength for a particular rank and MOS. Time series analysis provides tools for choosing a representative model and producing forecasts.

There are two kinds of time series data:

- Continuous, where the data contain an observation at every instant of time, e.g., seismic activity recorded on a seismogram.

- Discrete, where the data contain observations taken at intervals, e.g. monthly crime figures.

Unless the data are purely random, observations in a time series are normally correlated and successive observations may be partly determined by past values (Chatfield, 1996). For example, the meteorological factors that affect the temperature on any given day are likely to exert some influence on the following day's weather. Thus, historical temperature observations are beneficial in forecasting future temperatures.

A time series is deterministic if it contains no random or probabilistic characteristics but proceeds in a fixed, predictable fashion (Chatfield, 1996). An example of a deterministic time series would be the data collected while conducting a classical physics experiment such as one demonstrating Newton's law of motion (Gujarati, 2003). More applicable to econometric applications are stochastic time series. Stochastic variables have indeterminate or random aspects. Although the values of individual observations cannot be predicted exactly, measuring the distribution of the observations may follow a predictable pattern. Statistical models can describe these patterns. These models assume that observations vary randomly about an underlying mean value that is a function of time. Time series data can also be characterized by one or more behavioral Components: trend, seasonality, cyclical behavior, and random noise.

Trend Component: Trend is the general drift or tendency observed in a set of data over time. It is the underlying direction (an upward or downward tendency) and the degree of change in an observation set when consideration has been made for other components. Graphing a time series can be a useful and simple method of identifying the trend of a particular data set. This indicates an upward trend of the U.S. Gross Domestic Product over a ten year span. Analysts can also discern trends by dividing the data set into a number of ranges, and calculating the mean for each span. A consistent increase or decrease in the mean for the successive ranges indicates trend.

Trends in business or economic series may be due to a growth or contraction process. Trends in service manpower levels may be attributed to external economic factors or shifts in policy due to technical innovation, downsizing, or an increased or decreased operational requirement for certain occupational specialties.

Seasonal Component: In time series data, the seasonal component is the element of variation in a data set that is dependent on the time of year. Seasonality is quite common in econometric time series. It is less common in engineering and scientific data. This component recurs annually, with possible variations in amplitude. Seasonality is attributable to the change of seasons and/or the timing of such events as holidays or the start or completion of the school term. For example, the cost of

fresh produce, retail sales levels, average daily rainfall amounts, and unemployment figures all demonstrate seasonal variation.

Incorporating seasonality in a forecast is useful when the time series has a discernible seasonal component. When the data contain a seasonal effect, it is useful to separate the seasonality from the other components in the time series. This enables the analyst to estimate and account for seasonal patterns.

Cyclical Component: Cyclical behavior describes any non-seasonal component that oscillates in a recognizable pattern. The 11-year sunspot cycle has been long recognized as naturally occurring cyclical activity. More ambiguous is the 5 to 7 year business cycle that a number of economists hypothesize influence global economic activity. If the data include a discernible cyclical component, the time series should span enough cycles to accurately model and forecast its effects (Yaffee, 2000). Cyclical behavior in which the oscillations extend over a very long period (such as 20 years) can often be accurately modeled as a trend for short-term forecasts (Chatfield, 1996).

General linear model: The general linear model (GLM) is a statistical linear model. It may be written as (Christensen, 2002).

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{XB} + \mathbf{U},$$

where \mathbf{Y} is a matrix with series of multivariate measurements, \mathbf{X} is a matrix that might be a design matrix, \mathbf{B} is a matrix containing parameters that are usually to be estimated and \mathbf{U} is a matrix containing errors or noise. The errors are usually assumed to follow a multivariate normal distribution. If the errors do not follow a

multivariate normal distribution, generalized linear models may be used to relax assumptions about \mathbf{Y} and \mathbf{U} .

The general linear model incorporates a number of different statistical models: ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, MANCOVA, ordinary linear regression, t-test and F-test. The general linear model is a generalization of multiple linear regression model to the case of more than one dependent variable. If \mathbf{Y} , \mathbf{B} , and \mathbf{U} were column vectors, the matrix equation above would represent multiple linear regression.

Hypothesis tests with the general linear model can be made in two ways: multivariate or as several independent univariate tests. In multivariate tests the columns of \mathbf{Y} are tested together, whereas in univariate tests the columns of \mathbf{Y} are tested independently, i.e., as multiple univariate tests with the same design matrix (Wichura, 2006).

4. Linear Regression Models

In statistics, linear regression models often take the form of something like this:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_1 x_2 + \beta_4 x_1^2 + \beta_5 x_2^2 + \varepsilon$$

Here a response variable y is modeled as a combination of constant, linear, interaction, and quadratic terms formed from two predictor variables x_1 and x_2 . Uncontrolled factors and experimental errors are modeled by ε . Given data on x_1 , x_2 , and y , regression estimates the model parameters β_j ($j = 1 \dots 5$).

More general linear regression models represent the relationship between a continuous response y and a continuous or categorical predictor \mathbf{x} in the form:

$$y = \beta_1 f_1(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + \beta_p f_p(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon$$

The response is modeled as a linear combination of (not necessarily linear) functions of the predictor, plus a random error ε . The expressions $f_j(\mathbf{x})$ ($j = 1, \dots, p$) are the terms of the model. The β_j ($j = 1 \dots p$) are the coefficients. Errors ε are assumed to be uncorrelated and distributed with mean 0 and constant (but unknown) variance.

Whether or not the predictor \mathbf{x} is a vector of predictor variables, multivariate regression refers to the case where the response $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_M)$ is a vector of M response variables. See Multivariate Regression for more on multivariate regression models (Rawlings, 1998).

5. Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regression, is a generalization of linear regression (Mardia, 1979), by considering more than one independent variable, and a specific case of general linear models formed by restricting the number of dependent variables to one. The basic model for linear regression is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p X_{ip} + \epsilon_i.$$

In the formula above we consider n observations of one dependent variable and p independent variables. Thus, Y_i is the i^{th} observation of the dependent variable, X_{ij} is i^{th} observation of the j^{th} independent variable, $j = 1, 2, \dots, p$. The values β_j represent parameters to be estimated, and ϵ_i is the i^{th} independent identically distributed normal error (Friston, 1995).

6. Research Method Used

The data were collected for a period of three years product sales. The data were modeled and analyzed using regression and time series analysis. The regression model shows the effect of the environmental factors in its model and in the forecasting results. However, time series analyses were also used to show the seasonal and deseasonal influence and also trend and detrend influence.

Table 1: Presentation of Diesel product Sales Data in Masters Energy Oil and Gas

Year	Month	Time	Humidity (%)	Rainfall (mm)	Temp (C)	Diesel
2010	Jan	1	28.4	76	11.2	45000
	Feb	2	30.0	80	0.7	36000
	Mar	3	30.7	76	50.6	72000
	April	4	29.2	81	121.1	40000
	May	5	28.3	81	233.1	33000
	June	6	27.6	85	248.3	33000
	July	7	26.7	89	386.6	35000
	Aug	8	26.7	87	283.3	66000
	Sept	9	26.9	86	249.4	60000
	Oct	10	26.9	85	376.0	54000
	Nov	11	27.8	73	96.3	72000
	Dec	12	28.8	76	Nil	60000
2011	Jan	13	29.0	72	0.2	41000
	Feb	14	30.4	72	66.8	32000
	Mar	15	30.8	73	13.6	33000
	April	16	29.7	79	203.5	28000
	May	17	28.7	81	161.3	32000
	June	18	27.7	84	191.9	37000
	July	19	27.0	84	13.2	31000
	Aug	20	27.2	86	299.9	42000
	Sept	21	27.0	87	306.4	55000
	Oct	22	27.3	85	166.9	60000
	Nov	23	28.6	82	412.0	48000
	Dec	24	28.3	71	Nil	32000
2012	Jan	25	28.4	76	11.2	21000
	Feb	26	30.0	80	0.7	27000
	Mar	27	30.7	76	50.6	24000
	April	28	29.2	81	121.1	18000
	May	29	28.3	81	233.1	22000
	June	30	27.6	85	248.3	27000

July	31	26.7	89	386.6	26000
Aug	32	26.7	87	283.3	35000
Sept	33	26.9	86	249.4	32000
Oct	34	26.9	85	376.0	29700
Nov	35	27.8	73	96.3	28900
Dec	36	28.8	76	Nil	21600

7. Analysis of the Data

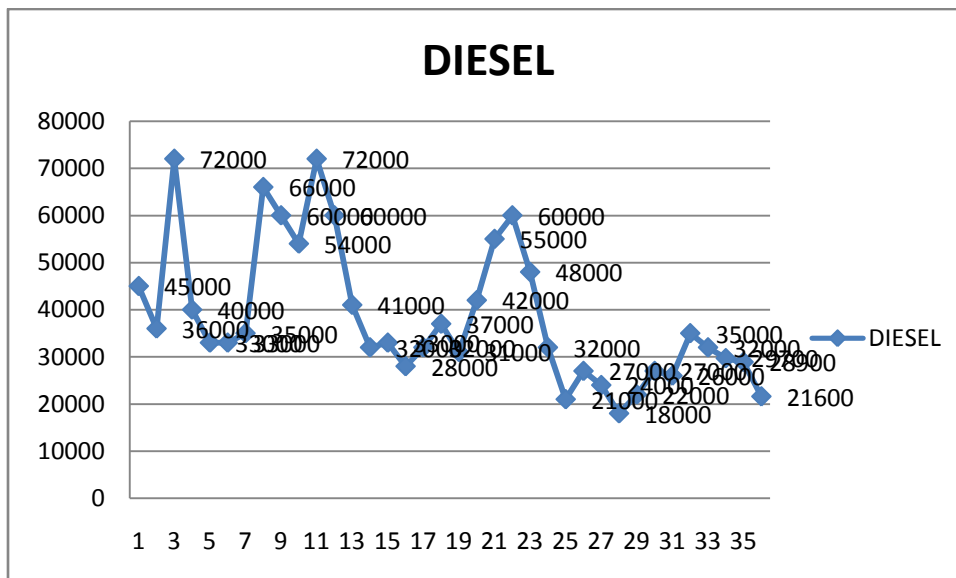


Figure 1: Time Series Analysis of Diesel

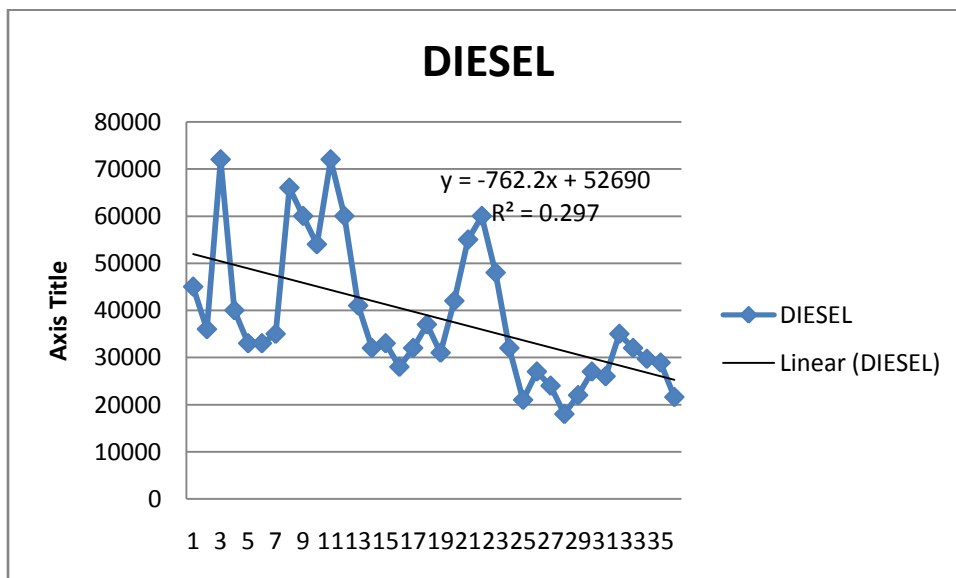


Figure 2: Forecasting Trend Model

Trend Equation: A trend equation has the form

$$F_t = a + bt \quad (1)$$

Where t = Specified number of time periods from t=0

F_t = Forecast for period t

a = Value of F_t at t = 0

b = Slope of the line

$$b = \frac{n \sum ty - \sum t \sum y}{n \sum t^2 - (\sum t)^2} \quad (2)$$

$$a = \frac{\sum y - b \sum t}{n} \text{ or } \bar{y} - b\bar{t} \quad (3)$$

Where, n = Number of periods

y = Value of the time series

Table 2: Forecasting Results of Diesel Product Sales using Trend estimation method

year	month	time	Diesel
2013	Jan	37	24488.6
	Feb	38	23726.4
	Mar	39	22964.2
	April	40	22202
	May	41	21439.8
	June	42	20677.6
	July	43	19915.4
	Aug	44	19153.2
	Sept	45	18391
	Oct	46	17628.8
	Nov	47	16866.6
	Dec	48	16104.4
2014	Jan	49	15342.2
	Feb	50	14580
	Mar	51	13817.8
	April	52	13055.6
	May	53	12293.4
	June	54	11531.2
	July	55	10769
	Aug	56	10006.8
	Sept	57	9244.6
	Oct	58	8482.4
	Nov	59	7720.2
	Dec	60	6958
2015	Jan	61	6195.8
	Feb	62	5433.6

	Mar	63	4671.4
	April	64	3909.2
	May	65	3147
	June	66	2384.8
	July	67	1622.6
	Aug	68	860.4
	Sept	69	98.2
	Oct	70	-664
	Nov	71	-1426.2
	Dec	72	-2188.4

8. General Regression Analysis: DIESEL versus Temp (C), Humidity (%), ...

Regression Equation

$$\text{DIESEL} = 247235 - 4571.15 \text{ Temp (C)} - 819.789 \text{ Humidity (\%)} + 16.8096 \text{ Rainfall (mm)} - 866.187 \text{ MONTH/TIME}$$

Coefficients

Term	Coef	SE Coef	T	P	95% CI	VIF
Constant	247235	101875	2.42683	0.021	(39458.4, 455011)	
Temp (C)	-4571	2333	-1.95935	0.059	(-9329.3, 187)	2.17436
Humidity (%)	-820	681	-1.20438	0.238	(-2208.0, 568)	3.23077
Rainfall (mm)	17	25	0.67225	0.506	(-34.2, 68)	2.82573
MONTH/TIME	-866	199	-4.35938	0.000	(-1271.4, -461)	1.05142

Summary of Model

S = 12078.0 R-Sq = 40.48% R-Sq(adj) = 32.79%

Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Regression	4	3074978918	3074978918	768744729	5.2698	0.002342
Temp (C)	1	220985119	560030153	560030153	3.8390	0.059118
Humidity (%)	1	59049661	211599286	211599286	1.4505	0.237558
Rainfall (mm)	1	22667677	65924980	65924980	0.4519	0.506404
MONTH/TIME	1	2772276461	2772276461	2772276461	19.0042	0.000133
Error	31	4522196638	4522196638	145877311		
Total	35	7597175556				

Fits and Diagnostics for All Observations

Obs	DIESEL	Fit	SE Fit	Residual	St Resid
1	45000	54432.1	5016.74	-9432.1	-0.85850
2	36000	42796.4	5567.40	-6796.4	-0.63410
3	72000	42848.4	5062.27	29151.6	2.65839
4	40000	45925.1	3891.01	-5925.1	-0.51820
5	33000	51055.6	3773.65	-18055.6	-1.57370
6	33000	50365.6	3658.37	-17365.6	-1.50866
7	35000	52659.0	4787.41	-17659.0	-1.59253
8	66000	51696.0	4165.40	14304.0	1.26171
9	60000	50165.5	3836.56	9834.5	0.85872
10	54000	52247.2	4657.92	1752.8	0.15729
11	72000	52402.8	5868.78	19597.2	1.85645
12	60000	42887.3	3535.45	17112.7	1.48175
13	41000	44389.4	4368.17	-3389.4	-0.30101
14	32000	38243.2	4740.80	-6243.2	-0.56201
15	33000	33834.5	4543.01	-834.5	-0.07457
16	28000	36269.9	4097.68	-8269.9	-0.72788
17	32000	37626.0	2282.81	-5626.0	-0.47435

18	37000	39385.9	2567.81	-2385.9	-0.20217	
19	31000	38715.7	6476.17	-7715.7	-0.75682	
20	42000	40115.0	2929.80	1885.0	0.16087	
21	55000	39452.5	3166.32	15547.5	1.33391	
22	60000	36509.6	3512.12	23490.4	2.03273	R
23	48000	36280.3	6320.60	11719.7	1.13871	
24	32000	38877.6	5573.53	-6877.6	-0.64186	
25	21000	33643.6	3788.34	-12643.6	-1.10247	
26	27000	22008.0	5602.27	4992.0	0.46654	
27	24000	22059.9	5213.25	1940.1	0.17807	
28	18000	25136.6	3870.59	-7136.6	-0.62377	
29	22000	30267.1	3267.53	-8267.1	-0.71099	
30	27000	29577.1	3384.51	-2577.1	-0.22228	
31	26000	31870.5	4466.47	-5870.5	-0.52314	
32	35000	30907.5	4058.19	4092.5	0.35976	
33	32000	29377.0	4044.33	2623.0	0.23048	
34	29700	31458.7	4754.58	-1758.7	-0.15840	
35	28900	31614.3	6067.14	-2714.3	-0.25990	
36	21600	22098.9	4929.07	-498.9	-0.04524	

R denotes an observation with a large standardized residual.

Table 3: Forecasting results for Diesel product Sales using Regression model

Year	Month	Temp (C)	Humidity (%)	Rainfall (mm)	Time	Diesel
2013	Jan	28.8	76	0	37	21233
	Feb	28.8	76	0	38	20366.81
	Mar	28.8	76	0	39	19500.62
	April	28.8	76	0	40	18634.44
	May	28.8	76	0	41	17768.25
	June	28.8	76	0	42	16902.06
	July	28.8	76	0	43	16035.88
	Aug	28.8	76	0	44	15169.69
	Sept	28.8	76	0	45	14303.5
	Oct	28.8	76	0	46	13437.31
	Nov	28.8	76	0	47	12571.13
	Dec	28.8	76	0	48	11704.94
2014	Jan	28.8	76	0	49	10838.75
	Feb	28.8	76	0	50	9972.566
	Mar	28.8	76	0	51	9106.379
	April	28.8	76	0	52	8240.192
	May	28.8	76	0	53	7374.005
	June	28.8	76	0	54	6507.818
	July	28.8	76	0	55	5641.631
	Aug	28.8	76	0	56	4775.444
	Sept	28.8	76	0	57	3909.257
	Oct	28.8	76	0	58	3043.07
	Nov	28.8	76	0	59	2176.883
	Dec	28.8	76	0	60	1310.696
2015	Jan	28.8	76	0	61	444.509
	Feb	28.8	76	0	62	-421.678
	Mar	28.8	76	0	63	-1287.87
	April	28.8	76	0	64	-2154.05

	May	28.8	76	0	65	-3020.24
	June	28.8	76	0	66	-3886.43
	July	28.8	76	0	67	-4752.61
	Aug	28.8	76	0	68	-5618.8
	Sept	28.8	76	0	69	-6484.99
	Oct	28.8	76	0	70	-7351.17
	Nov	28.8	76	0	71	-8217.36
	Dec	28.8	76	0	72	-9083.55

Table 4: Forecasting Results of Diesel Product Sales

year	month	time	Trend estimation	Regression
2013	Jan	37	24488.6	21233
	Feb	38	23726.4	20366.81
	Mar	39	22964.2	19500.62
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	May	41	21439.8	17768.25
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	Sept	45	18391	14303.5
	Oct	46	17628.8	13437.31
	Nov	47	16866.6	12571.13
	Dec	48	16104.4	11704.94
2014	Jan	49	15342.2	10838.75
	Feb	50	14580	9972.566
	Mar	51	13817.8	9106.379
	April	52	13055.6	8240.192
	May	53	12293.4	7374.005
	June	54	11531.2	6507.818
	July	55	10769	5641.631
	Aug	56	10006.8	4775.444
	Sept	57	9244.6	3909.257
	Oct	58	8482.4	3043.07
	Nov	59	7720.2	2176.883
	Dec	60	6958	1310.696
2015	Jan	61	6195.8	444.509
	Feb	62	5433.6	-421.678
	Mar	63	4671.4	-1287.87
	April	64	3909.2	-2154.05
	May	65	3147	-3020.24
	June	66	2384.8	-3886.43
	July	67	1622.6	-4752.61
	Aug	68	860.4	-5618.8
	Sept	69	98.2	-6484.99

	Oct	70	-664	-7351.17
	Nov	71	-1426.2	-8217.36
	Dec	72	-2188.4	-9083.55

The little difference between the two results was due to external or environmental influence on the data. This shows that the independent variable (that is the environmental factors that influence the data) has little effect on the product sales.

Moving Average for DIESEL

Data DIESEL
Length 36
NMissing 0

Moving Average
Length 2

Accuracy Measures
MAPE 25
MAD 9866
MSD 175309779

Time	DIESEL	MA	Predict	Error
1	45000	*	*	*
2	36000	40500	*	*
3	72000	54000	40500	31500
4	40000	56000	54000	-14000
5	33000	36500	56000	-23000
6	33000	33000	36500	-3500
7	35000	34000	33000	2000
8	66000	50500	34000	32000
9	60000	63000	50500	9500
10	54000	57000	63000	-9000
11	72000	63000	57000	15000
12	60000	66000	63000	-3000
13	41000	50500	66000	-25000
14	32000	36500	50500	-18500
15	33000	32500	36500	-3500
16	28000	30500	32500	-4500
17	32000	30000	30500	1500
18	37000	34500	30000	7000
19	31000	34000	34500	-3500
20	42000	36500	34000	8000
21	55000	48500	36500	18500
22	60000	57500	48500	11500
23	48000	54000	57500	-9500
24	32000	40000	54000	-22000
25	21000	26500	40000	-19000
26	27000	24000	26500	500
27	24000	25500	24000	0
28	18000	21000	25500	-7500
29	22000	20000	21000	1000
30	27000	24500	20000	7000
31	26000	26500	24500	1500
32	35000	30500	26500	8500
33	32000	33500	30500	1500
34	29700	30850	33500	-3800

35	28900	29300	30850	-1950
36	21600	25250	29300	-7700

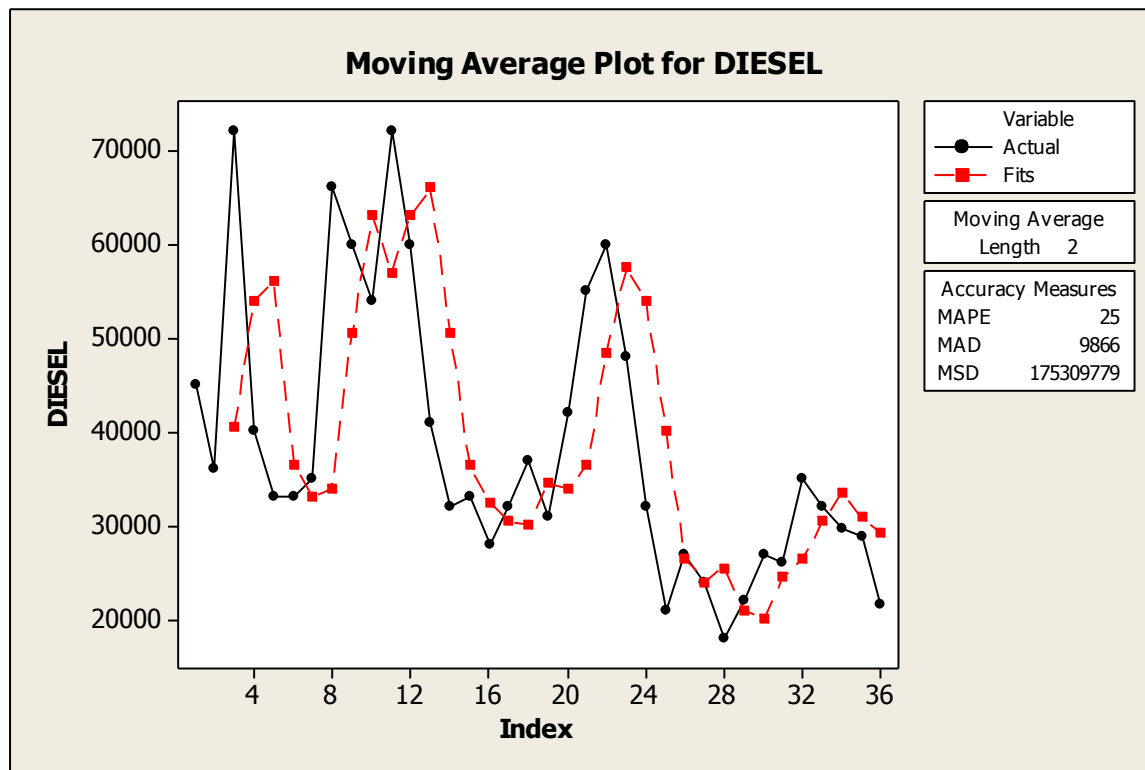


Figure 3: Moving Average Plot for DIESEL

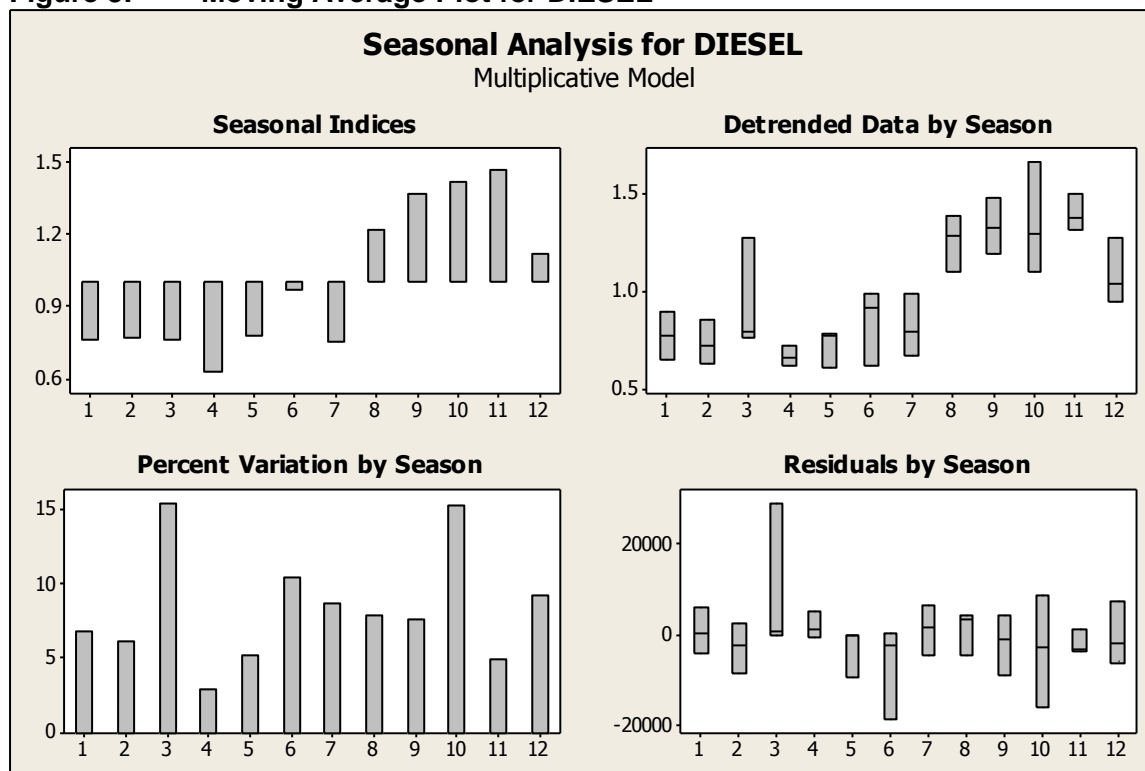


Figure 4: Decomposition - Seasonal Analysis for DIESEL

Figure 4 shows a seasonal analysis of the data for the diesel product sales. The chart also shows the movement of the data periodically. From the seasonal indices plot, it shows that the influence of the season was more within the months of November, this is due to high increase in product sales and also slightly influence within the month of April and February over the period of three years data. This is due to little or no product sales during those seasons. However, detrend data by season was the plot of the seasonal influence of the absolute changes in values and removal of the effects of accumulating data sets from a trend by season. It was also observed that the seasonal influence of detrend data were high in the month of October and low in the month of April. Furthermore, the percent variation of detrend data by season were also plotted to show the percent variation of the data seasonally and it was noted that it was high in the months of March and October with about 15% variation. The residual plot by season was the error plot by season and was also high in the month of March.

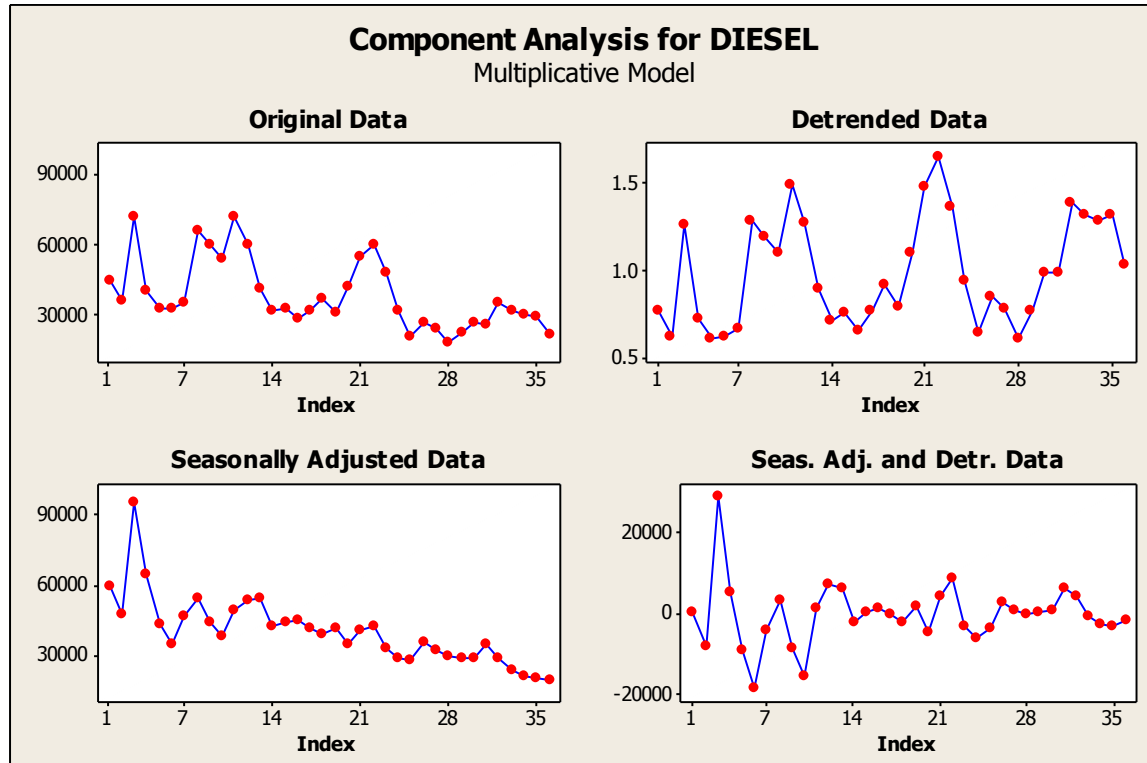


Figure 5: Decomposition - Component Analysis for DIESEL

The decomposition component analysis plot was used to show the time series data plot of the values for the 36 months period of time. The detrend data plot was the plot of the data after the removal of the effects of accumulating data sets from a trend and to show only the absolute changes in values to allow potential cyclical patterns to be identified. Seasonal adjusted data plot was the plot of the data after the removal of the seasonal effects on the data. Seasonal adjusted and detrend data plot were used to show the data plot when they have already removed the seasonal effects and also remove the effects of accumulating data sets from a trend, to show only the absolute changes in values.

Trend Analysis for DIESEL

Data DIESEL
Length 36
NMissing 0

Fitted Trend Equation
 $Y_t = 52690 - 762.239 * t$

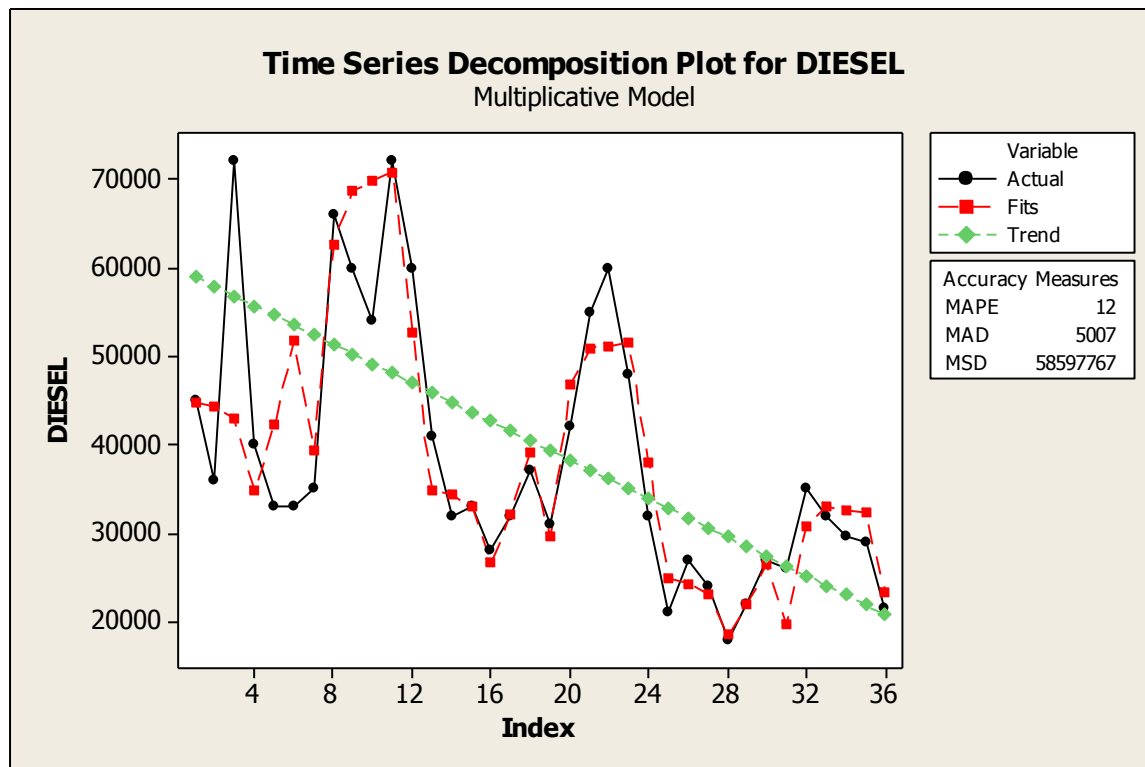


Figure 6: Time Series Decomposition Plot for DIESEL

Figure 6 shows a trend forecasting analysis of the data for the diesel product sales. The chart also shows the movement of the data periodically. The trend line shows that the

data contains seasonal influence and trend influence that is responsible for slightly reducing the yield by value at the trend component per month. The accuracy measures of the data were evaluated as shown. The mean absolute deviation is the measure of the average of the forecasting errors in the data and this was shown in the chart as 5007. It expresses accuracy in the same units as the data. However, the mean absolute percent error measures the percentage average of the sum of the forecasting errors divided by the sum of the values of the data and this is 12 percent in the chart. Furthermore, the mean squared deviation is the average squared deviation of the forecasting error in the data and is 58597767.

In conclusion, it shows that time series analysis explain the analysis of trend and seasonal influence on the data. It was also used to forecast the future product sales of the case study company. While the regression analysis was used to show the effect of the external (i.e. independent variables) factors in the forecast.

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