

APPLICATION OF CAUSAL FORECASTING METHOD TO FORECAST SHALLOT PRODUCTION IN NORTH SUMATRA PROVINCE

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ABSTRACT

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Shallot is one of the superior horticultural commodities that has a great influence on the economic value and daily needs of society. The province of North Sumatra is a strategic region for producing shallot, making it the eighth largest shallot producing province in Indonesia. The need and consumer demand for shallot along with the increasing population is a problem, as by 2021 the amount of shallot production in the household sector were only met by 11% in the North Sumatra province. The authors are therefore interested in studying the factors that influence shallot production and predicting the amount of shallot production in the future North Sumatra province. The source of data the research was carried out by the Agricultural Department of the Province of North Sumatra. The study was conducted using Causal Forecasting and ARIMA methods. The causal forecasting method used is the econometric method. The econometric method is a method for analyzing and predicting future conditions by finding and measuring several important independent variables and their influence on the variables. Dependents are observed. The ARIMA method is used to predict exogenous variables from the results of the analysis performed. Based on the analysis, it is obtained that the factors affecting the amount of shallot production are the quantity of productivity and the extent of the onion harvest. The greater the amount of productivity and the size of the harvest, the more shallot production will increase. The result of the production forecast obtained is that the lowest amount of shallot production occurs in April 2022 at 5212,763 tons and the highest amount produced on the onion occurs in March 2023 at 6502,112 tons and the average monthly amount of production is 5856,886 tons.



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1. INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is one of the few developing countries with the agricultural sector being the main source of income for most of its citizens who work as farmers. Therefore, the majority of the population relies on the agricultural sector to improve their quality of life. Most of the land optimally used in Indonesia is used as agricultural land [1]. According to the Agricultural Information Center 2016, for shallot commodities, Indonesia is not among the largest producers of shallot in the world. Even to meet domestic needs, we still import large quantities of shallots [2]. Forecasting shallot is important because it can help predict the future price of the commodity. This can be useful for farmers, traders, and consumers who want to plan their production, sales, and purchases accordingly. The increased need for shallot is a potential market opportunity and can be a motivation for farmers to increase shallot production [3]. There are factors that positively influence on the production of shallots, i.e. the area of land, the amount of fertilizer usage, and the number of labor [4]. Based on the results of testing simultaneously on capital variables, the area of land, fertilizer, seedlings and labor has a significant impact on the increase in shallot production [3].

One of the regions experiencing an increase in shallot demand is the Province of North Sumatra which from 2014 to 2018 amounted to 5.197 tons or 14.60% over five years. Based on data on the amount of shallot demand, shallot production in the province of North Sumatra in 2014 - 2018, is unable to meet the quantity of consumer demand so it can cause the increase in prices [5]. At the moment, the strategy for the business of shallot is quite profitable. This is the result of consumer demand growing more intensely while also increasing the number of consumers. The average amount of onions consumed per capita per year is about 2.56 kg. The population of North Sumatra Province is approximately 14.262.147 people. Therefore, the average annual demand for shallot exceeds 36.653,7 tons. That is, the province of North Sumatra, has a deficit of about 20.550,7 tons [6].

Then the amount of production obtained in the province of North Sumatra ahead needs to be predicted. the method used to predict the level of shallot production is causal prediction. Causal prediction assumes a relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable it affects. The Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) method is a method that uses time series data to produce accurate short-term predictions [7].

2. RESEARCH METHODS

The type of data used is secondary data. The data in this study is based on the hypothesis of a literary study that affects the production of shallot with data sources from the Agricultural Ministry of the Province of North Sumatra. The data used is shallot production data from January 2016 to December 2021. The causal model used this time is the econometric model. The econometric model according to [8] is a quantitative analysis of actual economic phenomena based on the joint development of theory and observations, associated with the correct inference methods, as its formula is [9]:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + u_i \quad (1)$$

Where:

Y_i = Dependent variable

β_0 = Constant

β_1 = Regression coefficient ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$)

X = Independent variable

u_i = Error

2.1 Correlation Analysis

Regression analysis determines the relationship between two pairing datasets, where one data group depends on the other. Correlation analysis measures how strong the relationship between variables is if the observation data consists of many variables [10]. The correlation coefficient formula is [11]:

$$r_{xy} = \frac{n(\sum XY) - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{\{n \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2\} \cdot \{n \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2\}}}, \text{ where } -1 \leq r_{xy} \leq 1 \quad (2)$$

Where:

r = correlation coefficient,

n = number of observations,

X = first variable in the context,

Y = second variable in the context

2.2 Coefficient of Determination

A determination coefficient is used to determine how far an independent variable determines a change in the value of a bound variable [12].

$$R^2 = r^2 \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

To reduce the weaknesses that occur, we use Adjusted R Square (R_{adj}^2) with the formula [13]:

$$R_{adj}^2 = R^2 - \frac{p(1-R^2)}{n-p-1} \quad (4)$$

2.3 Multicollinearity Test

The multicollinearity test is to find out if there is a lack of high correlation between independent variables in a double linear regression model. If the VIF value is not more than 10 and has a tolerance number not less than 0.10, then it pass the multicollinearity test [14]. Statistics of Testing:

$$VIF = \frac{1}{1-R_i^2} \quad (5)$$

Where:

R_i^2 = Unadjusted coefficient of determination for regressing the i -th independent variable on the remaining ones

2.4 Significance of parameters

Parameter significance testing is used to find out if there is no relationship between parameters in a regression model by calculating F (count) and t . The formula used is:

$$F = \frac{R^2/(k-1)}{1-R^2/(n-k)} \quad (6)$$

with:

F (count) value > F_table value, then H_0 is accepted.

F (count) value \leq F_table value, then H_1 is accepted.

Calculate the thinking value to find out whether the partial coefficient obtained is influential or not, the formula for calculating t is [15]:

$$t(\beta_i) = \frac{b_i - \beta_i}{SE(b_i)} \quad (7)$$

2.5 Assumption of Residual

a. Testing of normality

The normality test used is the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to determine whether any particular free variable in a linear regression model is distributed normally. Normally distributed error values indicate the results of this normality test. By criteria, if the probability is greater than 0.05, the regression model distribution is normal, and if the probability is less than 0.05, the distribution of regression models is non-normal distribution [16].

b. Heteroskedasticity Test

The heteroskedasticity test uses the Glejser test to see residual variants for all homogeneous or non-homogenous observations. With a significance level of 0.05.

H_0 : data is homocedastic

H_1 : data is heteroscedastic

Where:

if the value $\hat{a} < a$ then accept H_0 , and

if value $\hat{a} > a$ then accept H_1 [17].

c. Autocorrelation Test

The autocorrelation test aims to find out whether there is a correlation in a model between the data in the period t and the data of the period $t - 1$. [18].

$$d = \frac{\sum_{i=2}^N (e_i - e_{i-1})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N e_i^2} \quad (8)$$

The criteria, If $d < dL$ or $4 - dL$, then there is an autocorrelation. If $dU < d < 4dU$, then there is no autocorrelation. If $dL < d < dU$ or $4 - dU < d < 4 - dL$, then no conclusion can be drawn [17].

2.6 Forecasting Error Analysis

a. Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)

MAPE is a measurement error measure that calculates the percentage of deviation between actual data (X_t) and forecast data (F_t). The value of the MAPE can be calculated with the following formula [19]:

$$\text{MAPE} = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{|X_t - F_t|}{X_t} \times 100 \quad (9)$$

Where:

X_t = actual period data t

F_t = forecasting value in period t

b. Mean Absolute Square Error (MASE)

According to Hyndman in [20], MASE is a measure of the accuracy of a prediction method that is generally applicable without having to rely on other precision measurement parameters. In research The MASE is proposed based on the MAE (Mean Absolute Error) parameter value to test the value accuracy of the naive method, where in this research the naive method produces predictions one period ahead of each data point and the error scale. The main advantage of MASE compared to MAD parameters is that MASE is more capable widely applied, because the MAD assumption is only limited to that the average is stable over time even though for fluctuating data where the data pattern goes up and down, the MAD value cannot be relied on. Otherwise MASE is suitable used for fluctuating, seasonal or trending data patterns. MASE can be used for comparing forecast methods on single time series data. The equation is:

$$\text{MASE} = \text{mean}(q_t) \quad (10)$$

$$q_t = \frac{e_t}{\frac{1}{n-t} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - y_{i-1}|} \quad (11)$$

where the numerator e_t is the forecast error for a given period, defined as the actual value (y_i) minus the forecast value (F_j) for that period: $e_t = y_i - F_i$, and the denominator is the mean absolute error of the one-step "naive forecast method" on the training set (here defined as $i = 1..t$)

2.7 Exogenous Variable Prediction

Exogenous variables act as support in performing endogenic variables and need to be predicted using the ARIMA method.

a. Autoregressive (AR)

If the initial model is:

$$(Y_t - \delta) = a_1(Y_{t-1} - \delta) + a_2(Y_{t-2} - \delta) + \dots + a_p(Y_{t-p} - \delta) + \varepsilon_t \quad (12)$$

b. Moving Average (MA)

The model of the Moving Average is:

$$\hat{Y}_t = \beta_0\varepsilon_t + \beta_1\varepsilon_{t-1} + \beta_2\varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_q\varepsilon_{t-q} \quad (13)$$

c. Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA)

The form of the ARIMA model equation (p, d, q) is:

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + \delta + u_t + \varepsilon_t + \beta\varepsilon_{t-1} \quad (14)$$

2.7.1 Differentiating Process

According to Shumway in [21], the data in the ARIMA model should be stationary, mean, and variance so that the non-stationary data is carried out an Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test.

$$Y_t = \rho Y_{t-1} + \mu_t \quad (15)$$

The variable Y_t has a unit root if ρ is 1 with the following hypothesis:

$H_0 : \rho = 1$ containing a unit of roots

$H_1 : \rho < 1$ does not contain root units

Testing is carried out by determining the statistical t -value of ADF using the formula:

$$\tau = \frac{\delta}{se(\delta)} \quad (16)$$

where $se(\delta)$ is the standard error of the coefficient Y_{t-1} , if the statistical t -value ADF > the critical value ADF then H_0 is rejected which means stationary [22].

2.7.2 ARIMA Model Parameter Estimation

The measurement of the parameters can be done using the Least Square method with the equation [9]:

$$\beta = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^n (Z_t - \mu)(Z_{t-1} - \mu)}{\sum_{t=2}^n (Z_{t-1} - \mu)^2} \quad (17)$$

To perform a significant test of the ARIMA model parameters, to test the significant parameters of the ARIMA model, the t -count test is used:

$$t_{count} = \frac{\beta}{se(\hat{\beta})}, \text{ for } se(\hat{\beta}) \neq 0 \quad (18)$$

If $t_{count} | t_{count} | > t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, (n-p-1)}$ with the value $\alpha = 0.05$, then H_0 is rejected which means the model parameter is significant [23].

2.7.3 ARIMA Model Residual Assumption Test

a. White Noise Test

Residual is white noise meaning there is no correlation between residual with mean equal to zero and constant variants performed using Ljung-Box test statistics. The hypothesis is:

$H_0: \rho_1 = \rho_2 = \dots = \rho_k$ (residual white noise)

$H_1: There is a minimum of one value $\rho_k \neq 0; k = 1, 2, \dots, k$ (remaining there is no white noise)$

Statistics of testing:

$$Q = (n + 2) \sum_{i=1}^k (n - k)^{-1} \hat{\rho}_k^2 \quad (19)$$

b. Normality Test

The normality test is used to test whether the interfering or residual variable is distributed normally or not in the ARIMA model. Here is the normality test statistics:

$$JB = \frac{n}{6} (S^2 + \frac{(K-3)^2}{4}) \quad (20)$$

By using a significance of 0.05, if $JB < \chi^2_{(\alpha;2)}$ or $p\text{-value} > \alpha$ then H_0 is accepted which means the residual is distributed normally [24].

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Statistical Analysis describes the characteristics of the data that has been obtained. What is collected is data on production quantities, planting area, number of seeds, quantity Fertilizer use, labor, price and capital of shallots. amount of shallot production in the Province North Sumatra over a period of 6 years had an average of 2042,58 ton. The highest production amount occurred in March 2021 amounting to 5.874 tons with percentage increase of 44.53% compared to the previous year. The lowest production amount occurred in April 2016 amounting to 570 tons with the percentage decrease was 15.17%. So, we get a range of amounts shallot production was 5.304 tons. The standard deviation value is 1306,250 and the variance value is 1.706.288,866. This shows data on production quantities Shallots have a large data distribution and are far from the average value.

3.1 Multicollinearity Test

Table 1 shows that the variables productivity, fertilizer, price and growing distance all have VIF values greater than 10, This means that H_1 is accepted so it can be concluded that the independent variables are not experiencing multicollinearity. There are several other variables that are removed from the analysis, according to [25], variables excluded mean there is a strong correlation so that the variables are not used.

Table 1. Multicollinearity Test Results

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		
Productivity	0.318	3.148
Price	0.965	1.036
Labor	0.356	2.808
Harvest Area	0.325	3.076
Fertilizer use	0.000	-
Seeds	0.000	-
Capital	0.000	-
Planting area	0.000	-

3.2 Pearson Correlation Analysis

Based on the results of the normality test, the production variables (Y) and productivity variable (X_1) are not normally distributed sig (2 equals) is greater than the significant limit value of 0.05, while the price variable (X_4), labor force (X_6) and harvest area (X_8) are distributed normally. According to [26], normal undistributed data can be overcome by removing outliers and transforming data. The results of the normality test can be seen in **Table 2**.

Table 2. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Production	Productivity	Price	Labor	Harvest Area
	N	72	72	72	72	72
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2042.58	89.475	30900.56	58994.72	213.75
	Std. Deviation	1306.250	18.512	5149.692	24213.787	91.013
	Absolute	0.210	0.185	0.147	0.144	0.129
Most Extreme Differences	Positive	0.210	0.185	0.147	0.144	0.129
	Negative	-0.140	-0.090	-0.101	-0.063	-0.090
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	1.783	1.572	1.245	1.220	1.099
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	0.014	0.090	0.102	0.179

Based on the results of the Kolmogorov Smirnov test, the Asymp. value was obtained sig (2-tailed) independent variables and dependent variables are normally distributed larger than a significant value of 0.05. The Pearson correlation test continues. The results of the normal distribution test after data transformation can be seen in **Table 3**.

Table 3. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		T_Y	T_X ₁	T_X ₄	T_X ₆	T_X ₈
	N	72	72	72	72	72
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	7.451	4.474	10.336	10.904	5.279
	Std. Deviation	0.570	0.198	0.164	0.406	0.414
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	0.126	0.149	0.069	0.065	0.076
	Positive	0.126	0.149	0.069	0.065	0.076
	Negative	-0.077	-0.085	-0.061	-0.053	-0.058
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	1.067	1.264	0.582	0.554	0.644
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.205	0.082	0.887	0.919	0.801

It appears that the variable correlation coefficient depends on each independent variable with a positive value which means the oriented variable relationship direction and a very strong relationship shift rate. The correlation coefficient of a dependent variable with a negative value means that the direction of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables is non-directed and the level of relationship is very weak.

Table 4. Pearson Correlation Test Results

Correlation Probability	Y*	X ₁ *	X ₄ *	X ₆ *	X ₈ *
Y*	1	0.852461	-0.075470	0.794296	0.968396
X ₁ *	0.852461	1	-0.006454	-0.037219	0.695302
X ₄ *	-0.075470	-0.006454	1	0.006858	-0.103444
X ₆ *	0.725641	0.689595	0.014109	1	0.668060
X ₈ *	0.968396	0.695302	-0.103444	0.668060	1

3.3 Regression Analysis and Selection of the Best Causal Model

The next model will be determined based on the variable that has the largest p-value and the smallest beta coefficient. The results of the regression analysis of the selected model can be seen in **Table 5**.

Table 5. The Results of The Selected Model Regression Analysis

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	F-statistic	Prob.
C	-2.302259	0.014844	-155.1014	390961.7	0.000
X ₁ *	0.999671	0.004536	220.4038		0.000
X ₈ *	1.000286	0.002164	462.2305		0.000

Parameter estimates are then performed simultaneously (*t* test) and partially (*F* test) to test the accuracy of the model. Based on **Table 5**, the known value of *F* (count) as 390961.7 and on the distribution table *F* obtained *F* table as 3.12. then it can be concluded that the value of *f* counts > table *F* meaning simultaneously independent variables have a significant influence on dependent variables. Further on the *t* test, the *t* value counted on the variable X₁* can be determined using the **Equation (5)** which is:

$$t \text{ (count)} = \frac{0.999671}{0.004536} = 220.4038$$

Then the *t* test for the variable X₈* is:

$$t \text{ (count)} = \frac{1.000286}{0.002164} = 462.2305$$

Based on the result of the calculated *t* value, it is obtained that the *t* count > *t* table and *p*-value > 0.05 which means variables X₁* and X₈* have a significant influence on the variable *Y*.

Based on the regression analysis, the following models are obtained:

$$Y * = -2.302259 + 0.999671 X_1 * + 1.000286 X_8 * + u_i$$

3.4 Residual Assumption Test

3.4.1 Normality Test

Based on the **Table 6** obtained results of the Kolmogorov Smirnov test selected models have asymp. values sig (2-tailed) by 0.174 is larger than a significant 0.05, which means the model has been distributed normally.

Table 6. Results of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Unstandardized Residual
N		71
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	0.0000451
	Std. Deviation	0.00066239
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	0.131
	Positive	0.129
	Negative	-0.131
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.104
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		0.174

3.4.2 Heteroscedasticity Test

The probability value of the heteroscedasticity outcome is obtained on the variable X₁* of 0.3085 and the X₈* variable of 0.9217, which is greater than $\alpha = 0.05$. The results of the test can be seen in **Table 7**.

Table 7. Heteroscedasticity Test Results

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.016803	0.008537	1.968179	0.0531
X ₁ *	-0.002673	0.002605	-1.026024	0.3085
X ₈ *	-0.000123	0.001242	-0.098699	0.9217

3.4.3 Autocorrelation Test

Durbin Watson's value is 1.706735. If $n = 71$ and $k = 2$, then the value of *dU* is 1.6733 and *dL* is 1.5577. Using the criterion $dU < d < 4 - dU$ is $1.6733 < 2.005285 < 2.3267$ which means H_1 rebound. It can then be concluded that the selected model does not occur autocorrelation.

3.5 Exogenous Variable Prediction with ARIMA

Before using the chosen model to predict the amount of shallot production, the exogenous variable prediction is first made, namely, the prediction of the productivity variable (X_1) and harvest area variable.

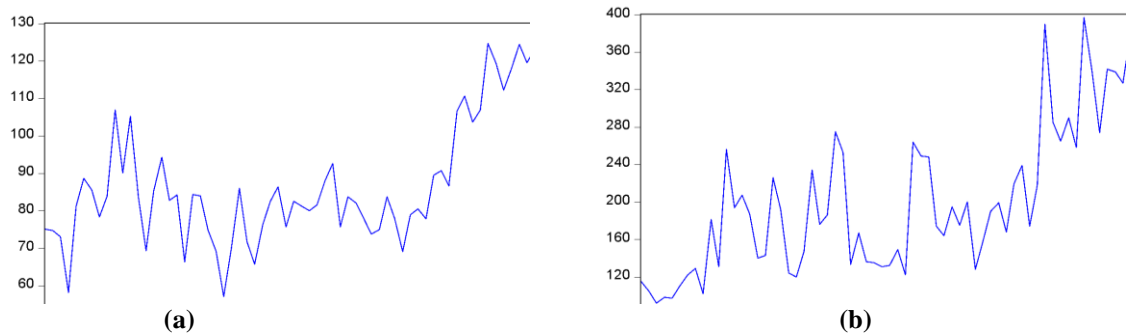


Figure 1. Exogenous Variable Data Plots
(a) Number of Productivity, (b) Harvest Area

Figure 1 (a) dan **Figure** (b) shows that the amount of productivity and size of onion harvest in North Sumatera Province increased from January 2016 to December 2021. This shows a fluctuating trend where there are indications of non-stable data.

3.5.1 Stationary Testing and Identification of ARIMA Models

In **Table 8**, we obtain data on the quantity of productivity and the extent of non-stationary harvest at the level that has a t -statistical value of ADF greater than the critical value and a p -value > 0.05 , so that a root unit test is carried out on the 1st difference.

Table 8. Results Of Stationary Test Quantity

Variable	Test	t -Statistic	Probability
shallot productivity (X_1)	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	0.401573	0.9816
	Test critical values: 1% level	-3.533204	
	5% level	-2.906210	
	10% level	-2.590628	
large amount of shallot (X_8)	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-1.487578	0.5340
	Test critical values: 1% level	3.528515	
	5% level	-2.904198	
	10% level	-2.589562	

In **Table 9**, we obtain data of the quantity of productivity and the area of non-stationary harvest at the level that has a statistical t -value of ADF smaller than the critical value and p -values < 0.05 . This means that the amount of productivity and the size of the harvest has been stationary.

Table 9. Total Productivity (X_1) at 1st Difference

Variable	Test	t -Statistic	Probability
shallot productivity (X_1)	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-8.641156	0.000
	Test critical values: 1% level	-3.530030	
	5% level	-2.904848	
	10% level	-2.589907	
large amount of shallot (X_8)	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-12.45900	0.0001
	Test critical values: 1% level	-3.528515	
	5% level	-2.904198	
	10% level	-2.589562	

Next, determine p and q for ARIMA model assumptions based on the plot ACF and PACF on 1st Difference.

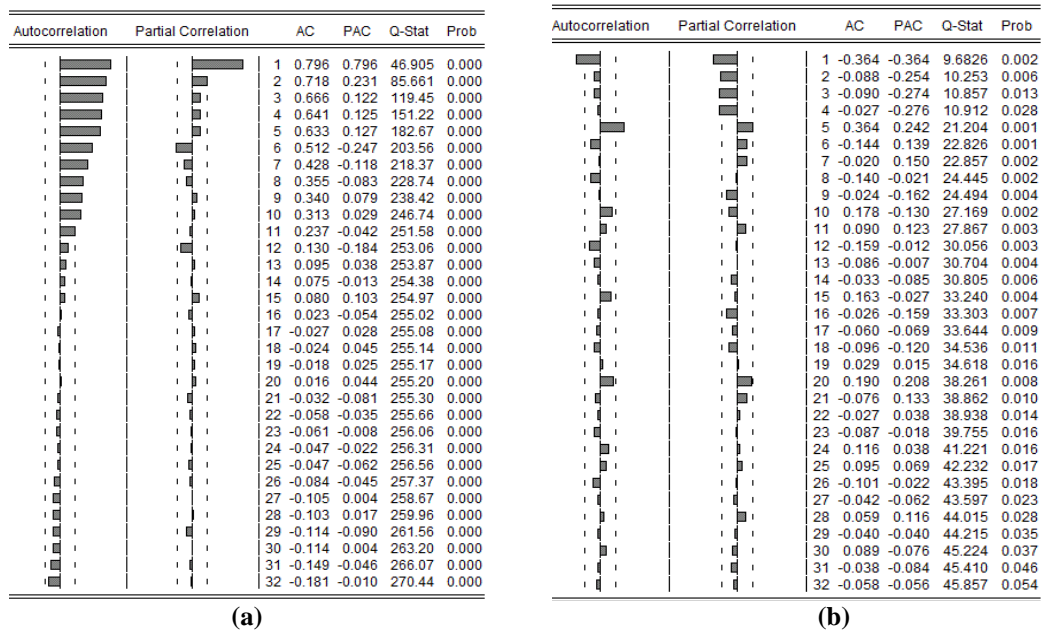


Figure 2. Correlogram Of Productivity Variables (X_1)
 (a) Lot ACF And PACF Before the First Difference, (b) Plot ACF And PACF After the First Difference

In **Figure 2** (a) the ACF plot decreases exponentially, meaning X_1 is not stationary against the average so it is necessary to make 1st Difference. **Figure 2** (b) shows lag 1 on the ACF plot interrupted, then the temporary model estimate for the MA order is (1). On the plot PACF there is a lag 1 until lag 4 is interrupted, then the estimate of the temporary model for the AR order is (4). So obtained the initial model the amount of shallot productivity while ARIMA (4,1,1).

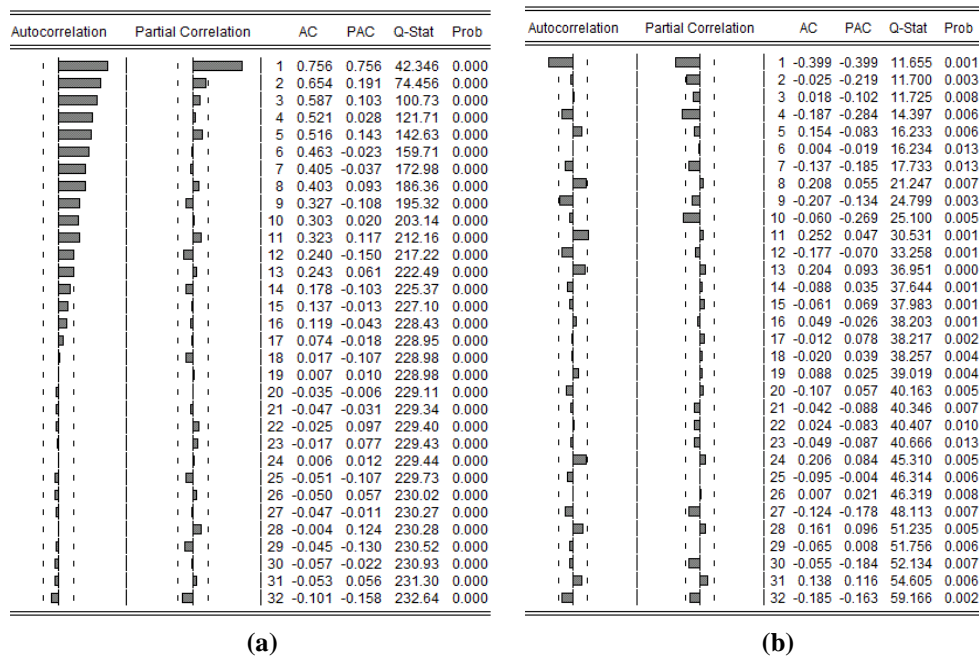


Figure 3. Correlogram Of Harvest Area Variables (X_8)
 (a) Lot ACF And PACF Before the First Difference, (b) Plot ACF And PACF After the First Difference

In **Figure 3** the ACF plot shows a lag 1 that comes out of a significant line (cuts off), then the estimated temporary model for the MA order is (1). On the PACF plot there are lag 1 and lag 2 that are out of a significant line (cuts off), then the estimated temporary model for the AR order is (2). So based on the plot ACF and PACF obtained a model of the large amount of shallot harvest while ARIMA (2,1,1).

Subsequently, estimate and test the significance of the ARIMA assumption model. **Table 13** shows the significant and non-significant model parameters on the ARIMA model. for the insignificant mode

parameters can be removed from the model to obtain a significant model, so that the model is continued on the test of residual diagnostic assumptions.

Table 10. Estimate and Test Results of Significance of Shallot Productivity Model

Model Assumptions	Parameters	Estimate	T-Value	P-Value	Test Results
ARIMA (1,1,1)	ϕ_1	0.073424	0.371205	0.7117	Not Significant
	θ_1	-0.615463	-4.052543	0.0001	Significant
ARIMA (2,1,1)	ϕ_1	-0.024141	-0.073772	0.9414	Not Significant
	ϕ_2	-0.143515	-0.756004	0.4524	Not Significant
	θ_1	-0.513234	-1.824184	0.0727	Not Significant
ARIMA (3,1,1)	ϕ_1	-0.285135	-0.840327	0.4039	Not Significant
	ϕ_2	-0.277835	-1.331423	0.1878	Not Significant
	ϕ_3	-0.240690	-1.446721	0.1529	Not Significant
	θ_1	-0.274258	-0.705814	0.4829	Not Significant
ARIMA (4,1,0)	ϕ_1	-0.601254	-4.311728	0.0001	Significant
	ϕ_2	-0.482113	-3.162075	0.0024	Significant
	ϕ_3	-0.418507	-3.097602	0.0029	Significant
	ϕ_4	-0.274041	-2.057845	0.0437	Significant
ARIMA (4,1,1)	ϕ_1	-1.020427	-3.948459	0.0002	Significant
	ϕ_2	-0.708352	-3.437513	0.0010	Significant
	ϕ_3	-0.587690	-3.382306	0.0012	Significant
	ϕ_4	-0.409083	-3.424056	0.0011	Significant
	θ_1	0.465279	1.669539	0.1000	Not Significant

Table 11 shows that there are non-significant model parameters. Non-significant model parameters can be removed from the model in order to be continued on the further analysis of the following test of residual diagnostic assumptions and model evaluation as one of the conditions to obtain the best model.

Table 11. Estimation and Test Results of Significance Model Volume of Shallot Harvest

Model Assumptions	Parameters	Estimates	T-Value	P-Value	Test Results
ARIMA (0,1,1)	θ_1	-0.688978	-7.417566	0.000	Significant
ARIMA (1,1,0)	ϕ_1	-0.406005	-3.242882	0.0014	Significant
ARIMA (1,1,1)	ϕ_1	0.217203	0.931977	0.3547	Not Significant
	θ_1	-0.809928	-7.237078	0.000	Significant
ARIMA (2,1,0)	ϕ_1	-0.488995	-2.902526	0.0050	Significant
	ϕ_1	-0.216001	-1.310113	0.1947	Not Significant
ARIMA (2,1,1)	ϕ_1	0.232647	0.947929	0.3467	Not Significant
	ϕ_1	0.062074	0.383506	0.7026	Not Significant
	θ_1	-0.835090	-5.994457	0.000	Significant

The first residual diagnostic assumption test is the white noise test. **Table 12** shows that the ARIMA models that meet the white noise assumption are ARIMA (4,1,0) and ARIMA (4,1,1). It can be seen on statistical values Ljung-Box based on p -value for lag 12 to 48, having p -value > 0.05 or $dvid$ based on $Q < X^2_{\alpha; k-p}$ which means H_0 is accepted (residual white Noise).

Table 12. Residual White Noise Assumption for Productivity

Model	Lag k	Df	Q	χ^2	P-Value	Conclusion
ARIMA (1,1,1)	12	9	23.983	16.918	0.008	No white noise
	24	21	39.002	32.670	0.014	No white noise
	36	33	49.190	47.399	0.044	No white noise
	48	45	70.227	61.656	0.012	No white noise
ARIMA (4,1,0)	12	7	11.668	14.067	0.167	White Noise
	24	19	23.849	30.143	0.249	White Noise
	36	31	36.184	44.985	0.279	White Noise
	48	43	51.911	59.303	0.193	White Noise

Model	Lag k	Df	Q	χ^2	P-Value	Conclusion
ARIMA (4,1,1)	12	6	9.280	12.591	0.233	White Noise
	24	18	19.337	28.869	0.435	White Noise
	36	30	29.738	43.772	0.531	White Noise
	48	42	44.119	58.124	0.424	White Noise

Further testing of the assumption of residual white noise for the amount of crop area can be seen in **Table 13**. **Table 13** shows Ljung-Box statistics for lag 12 to 48, having a p -value > 0.05 or a view based on $< X^2_{\alpha; k-p}$ where H_0 is accepted which means all ARIMA models until amount of shallot crop area meets the assumption of white noise.

Table 13. Residual White Noise Assumption for Large Harvest Volumes

Model	Lag k	Df	Q	χ^2	P-Value	Conclusion
ARIMA (0,1,1)	12	10	13.055	18.307	0.290	White Noise
	24	22	25.441	33.924	0.328	White Noise
	36	34	35.657	48.602	0.437	White Noise
	48	46	48.209	62.829	0.428	White Noise
ARIMA (1,1,0)	12	10	19.315	18.307	0.056	White Noise
	24	22	31.899	33.924	0.102	White Noise
	36	34	45.394	48.602	0.112	White Noise
	48	46	60.188	62.829	0.094	White Noise
ARIMA (1,1,1)	12	9	11.644	16.918	0.310	White Noise
	24	21	22.266	32.670	0.444	White Noise
	36	33	33.288	47.399	0.502	White Noise
	48	45	46.044	61.656	0.470	White Noise
ARIMA (2,1,0)	12	9	15.831	16.918	0.105	White Noise
	24	21	30.599	32.670	0.105	White Noise
	36	33	42.968	47.399	0.139	White Noise
	48	45	56.986	61.656	0.129	White Noise
ARIMA (2,1,1)	12	8	11.497	15.507	0.243	White Noise
	24	20	21.957	31.410	0.402	White Noise
	36	32	33.059	46.194	0.464	White Noise
	48	44	46.095	60.480	0.427	White Noise

In **Table 14**, the productivity variable p -value of 0.973518 is greater than the significance value of 0.05, meaning that the ARIMA (4,1,0) and ARIMA models (4,1,1) are normally distributed. For wider variables the harvest has a p -value value less than a significance value of 0.05, which means that all ARIMA models are not normally distributed. Based on the Central Limit Theorem, if the number of samples is greater than 30, then the distribution of the sample will be considered normal regardless of the probability value so that the analysis can continue [27].

Table 14. Results of the ARIMA Model Normality Test

Variable	Model	Jarque-Bera	Df	P-Value
Productivity	ARIMA (4,1,0)	0.053678	2	0.973518
	ARIMA (4,1,1)	0.258807	2	0.878619
Large Harvest Volumes	ARIMA (0,1,1)	11.16750	2	0.003
	ARIMA (1,1,0)	7.7909	2	0.020
	ARIMA (1,1,1)	10.95605	2	0.004
	ARIMA (2,1,0)	7.790335	2	0.020
	ARIMA (2,1,1)	11.44708	2	0.003

3.5.2 Model Evaluation for Choosing the Best Model

The ARIMA model (4,1,1) has a smaller error value of 8.210% and the MASE of 1.355, so the ARIMA (4,1,1) model is well suited to predict the amount of shallot productivity. On the crop width variable, the smallest MAPE and MASE values are held by the ARIMA model (1,1,0) which is 12.381% and MASE is 0.706. So the ARIMA model (1,1,0) is the model used to predict the size of the upcoming harvest, with the parameter $\delta = 0.791808, a_1 = -1.020427, a_2 = -0.708352, a_3 = -0.587690, a_4 = -0.409083, \theta_1 = 0.465279$ is:

$$Y_t = (1 - a_1 - a_2 - a_3 - a_4)\delta + (1 + a_1)Y_{t-1} + (a_2 - a_1)Y_{t-2} + (a_3 - a_2)Y_{t-3} + (a_4 - a_3)Y_{t-4} - a_4Y_{t-5} + \theta_1\varepsilon_{t-1}$$

Next for the model equation ARIMA (1,1,0), where the parameter $\delta = 4.210130$, $a_1 = -0.406005$ so that the model equation ARIMA (1,1,0) is as follows:

$$Y_t = (1-a_1) \delta + (1 + a_1)Y_{t-1} - a_1Y_{t-2}$$

Based on the process of the ARIMA method that has been carried out, the results of the forecast of the amount of production of shallot contained in the **Table 15**.

Table 15. Results of The Forecast of The Amount of Shallot Production in North Sumatra Province in January 2022 to March 2023

Year	Month	Results of Prediction (tons)
2022	January	5374.766
	February	5212.763
	March	5435.831
	April	5456.535
	May	5611.474
	June	5657.693
	July	5744.93
	August	5849.864
	September	5928.791
	October	6041.308
	November	6114.253
	December	6214.117
2023	January	6308.039
	February	6400.82
	March	6502.112

Table 15 shows that the production of shallot has an average production volume of 5856,886 tons. Where the lowest amount of shallot production occurred in February 2022 at 5212.763 tons and the highest production of shallot was in March 2023 at 6502.112 tons.

4. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the research, it can be concluded that:

1. The variables affecting the amount of shallot production in the province of North Sumatra are the variables X_1 (sum of productivity) and the variable X_8 (large amount of crop). If the quantity of productivity and the size of the harvest increases, then the output of the amount of shallot production will also increase.
2. The output forecast of shallot production in the province of North Sumatra has increased. Where the lowest amount of shallot production occurred in April 2022 was 5212.763 tons and the highest volume of shallot production occurs in March 2023 was 6502.112 tons.

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