

# ETF3231/5231

## Business forecasting

Ch7. Regression models

<https://bf.numbat.space/>



# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Multiple regression and forecasting

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \beta_2 x_{2,t} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + \varepsilon_t.$$

- $y_t$  is the variable we want to predict: the “response” variable
- Each  $x_{j,t}$  is numerical and is called a “predictor”. They are usually assumed to be known for all past and future times.
- The coefficients  $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$  measure the effect of each predictor after taking account of the effect of all other predictors in the model.

That is, the coefficients measure the **marginal effects**.

- $\varepsilon_t$  is a white noise error term

# Example: US consumption expenditure

```
fit_cons <- us_change %>%  
  model(lm = TSLM(Consumption ~ Income))  
report(fit_cons)
```

```
## Series: Consumption  
## Model: TSLM  
##  
## Residuals:  
##      Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max  
## -2.582 -0.278   0.019   0.323   1.422  
##  
## Coefficients:  
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)  
## (Intercept)   0.5445     0.0540   10.08 < 2e-16 ***  
## Income        0.2718     0.0467    5.82 2.4e-08 ***  
## ---  
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
##  
## Residual standard error: 0.591 on 196 degrees of freedom  
## Multiple R-squared:  0.147,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.143  
## F-statistic: 33.8 on 1 and 196 DF, p-value: 2e-08
```

# Example: US consumption expenditure

```
fit_consMR <- us_change %>%  
  model(lm = TSLM(Consumption ~ Income + Production + Savings + Unemployment))  
report(fit_consMR)
```

```
## Series: Consumption  
## Model: TSLM  
##  
## Residuals:  
##      Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max  
## -0.906 -0.158 -0.036  0.136  1.155  
##  
## Coefficients:  
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)  
## (Intercept)   0.25311    0.03447   7.34 5.7e-12 ***  
## Income        0.74058    0.04012  18.46 < 2e-16 ***  
## Production    0.04717    0.02314   2.04  0.043 *  
## Savings      -0.05289    0.00292 -18.09 < 2e-16 ***  
## Unemployment -0.17469    0.09551  -1.83  0.069 .  
## ---  
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
##  
## Residual standard error: 0.31 on 193 degrees of freedom  
## Multiple R-squared:  0.768,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.763  
## F-statistic: 160 on 4 and 193 DF, p-value: <2e-16
```

# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Trend

## Linear trend

$$x_t = t$$

- $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$
- Strong assumption that trend will continue.



# Nonlinear trend

Piecewise linear trend with bend “knot” at  $\tau$

$$x_{1,t} = t$$

$$x_{2,t} = (t - \tau)_+ = \begin{cases} 0 & t < \tau \\ (t - \tau) & t \geq \tau \end{cases}$$

- $\beta_1$  trend slope before time  $\tau$
- $\beta_1 + \beta_2$  trend slope after time  $\tau$
- More knots can be added forming more  $(t - \tau)_+$

# Nonlinear trend

## Piecewise linear trend with bend “knot” at $\tau$

$$x_{1,t} = t$$

$$x_{2,t} = (t - \tau)_+ = \begin{cases} 0 & t < \tau \\ (t - \tau) & t \geq \tau \end{cases}$$

- $\beta_1$  trend slope before time  $\tau$
- $\beta_1 + \beta_2$  trend slope after time  $\tau$
- More knots can be added forming more  $(t - \tau)_+$

## Quadratic or higher order trend

$$x_{1,t} = t, \quad x_{2,t} = t^2, \quad \dots$$

**NOT RECOMMENDED!**

# Uses of dummy variables

## Seasonal dummies

- For quarterly data: use 3 dummies
- For monthly data: use 11 dummies
- For daily data: use 6 dummies
- What to do with weekly data?

## Outliers

- If there is an outlier, you can use a dummy variable to remove its effect.

# Holidays

## For monthly data

- Christmas: always in December so part of monthly seasonal effect
- Easter: use a dummy variable  $v_t = 1$  if any part of Easter is in that month,  $v_t = 0$  otherwise.
- Ramadan and Chinese new year similar.

## For daily data

- If it is a public holiday, dummy=1, otherwise dummy=0.

# Fourier series

Periodic seasonality can be handled using pairs of Fourier terms:

$$s_k(t) = \sin\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{m}\right) \quad c_k(t) = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{m}\right)$$

$$y_t = a + bt + \sum_{k=1}^K [\alpha_k s_k(t) + \beta_k c_k(t)] + \varepsilon_t$$

- Every periodic function can be approximated by sums of sin and cos terms for large enough  $K$ .
- Choose  $K$  by minimizing AICc.
- Called “harmonic regression”

```
TSLM(y ~ trend() + fourier(K))
```

# Distributed lags

Lagged values of a predictor.

Example:  $x$  is advertising which has a delayed effect

$x_1$  = advertising for previous month;

$x_2$  = advertising for two months previously;

$\vdots$

$x_m$  = advertising for  $m$  months previously.

# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics**
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Multiple regression and forecasting

For forecasting purposes, we require the following assumptions:

- $\varepsilon_t$  are uncorrelated and zero mean
- $\varepsilon_t$  are uncorrelated with each  $x_{j,t}$ .

It is **useful** to also have  $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  when producing prediction intervals or doing statistical tests.



# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation**
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Comparing regression models

- $R^2$  does not allow for “degrees of freedom”.
- Adding *any* variable tends to increase the value of  $R^2$ , even if that variable is irrelevant.

# Comparing regression models

- $R^2$  does not allow for “degrees of freedom”.
- Adding *any* variable tends to increase the value of  $R^2$ , even if that variable is irrelevant.

To overcome this problem, we can use *adjusted*  $R^2$ :

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{T - 1}{T - k - 1}$$

where  $k$  = no. predictors and  $T$  = no. observations.

# Comparing regression models

- $R^2$  does not allow for “degrees of freedom”.
- Adding *any* variable tends to increase the value of  $R^2$ , even if that variable is irrelevant.

To overcome this problem, we can use *adjusted*  $R^2$ :

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{T - 1}{T - k - 1}$$

where  $k$  = no. predictors and  $T$  = no. observations.

**Maximizing  $\bar{R}^2$  is equivalent to minimizing  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ .**

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{T - k - 1} \sum_{t=1}^T \varepsilon_t^2$$

# Akaike's Information Criterion

$$\text{AIC} = -2 \log(L) + 2(k + 2)$$

- $L$  = likelihood
- $k$  = # predictors in model.
- AIC penalizes terms more heavily than  $\bar{R}^2$ .

# Akaike's Information Criterion

$$\text{AIC} = -2 \log(L) + 2(k + 2)$$

- $L$  = likelihood
- $k$  = # predictors in model.
- AIC penalizes terms more heavily than  $\bar{R}^2$ .

$$\text{AIC}_C = \text{AIC} + \frac{2(k+2)(k+3)}{T-k-3}$$

- Minimizing the AIC or AICc is asymptotically equivalent to minimizing MSE via **leave-one-out cross-validation** (for any linear regression).

# Bayesian Information Criterion

$$\text{BIC} = -2 \log(L) + (k + 2) \log(T)$$

where  $L$  is the likelihood and  $k$  is the number of predictors in the model.

- BIC penalizes terms more heavily than AIC
- Also called SBIC and SC.
- Minimizing BIC is asymptotically equivalent to leave- $v$ -out cross-validation when  $v = T[1 - 1/(\log(T) - 1)]$ .

# Leave-one-out cross-validation

For regression, leave-one-out cross-validation is **faster** and **more efficient** than time-series cross-validation.

- Select one observation for test set, and use *remaining* observations in training set. Compute error on test observation.
- Repeat using each possible observation as the test set.
- Compute accuracy measure over all errors.



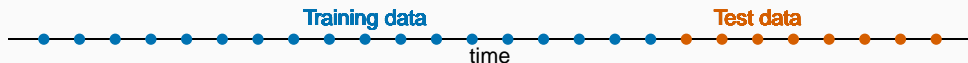
# Cross-validation

## Traditional evaluation

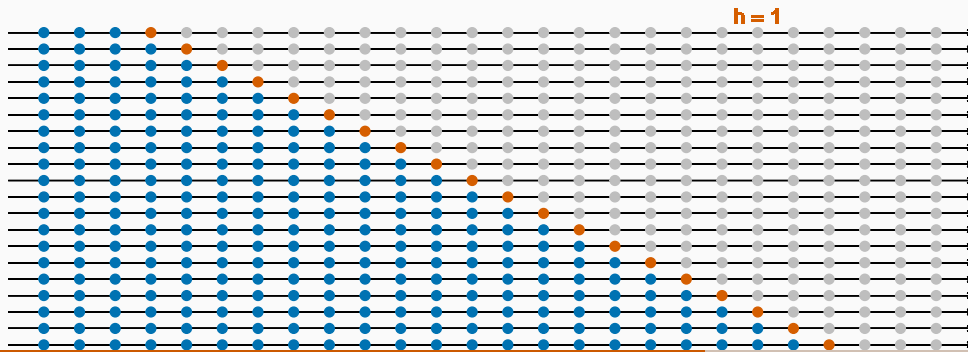


# Cross-validation

## Traditional evaluation

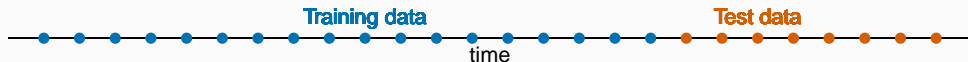


## Time series cross-validation

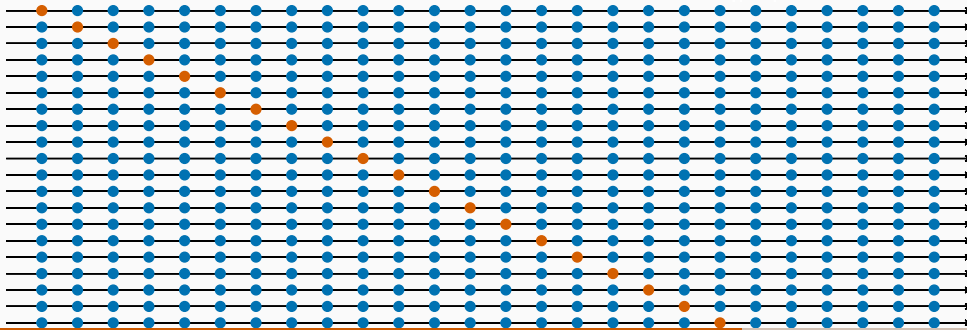


# Cross-validation

## Traditional evaluation

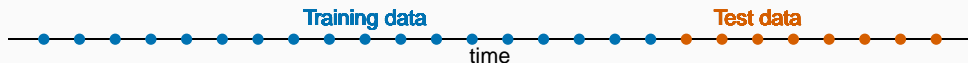


## Leave-one-out cross-validation

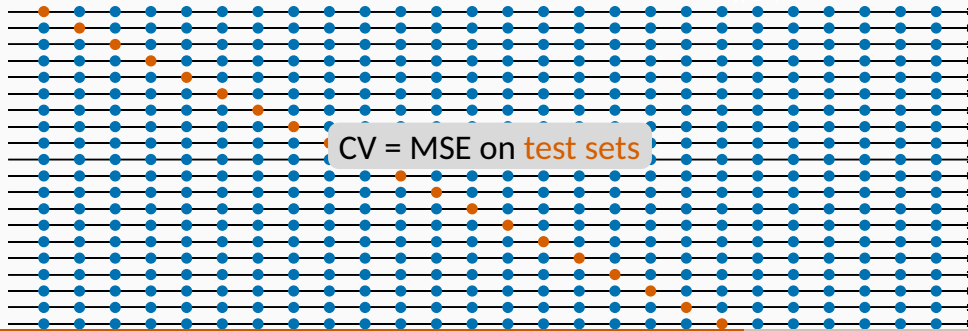


# Cross-validation

## Traditional evaluation



## Leave-one-out cross-validation



# Choosing regression variables

## Best subsets regression

- Fit all possible regression models using one or more of the predictors.
- Choose the best model based on one of the measures of predictive ability (CV, AIC, AICc).

# Choosing regression variables

## Best subsets regression

- Fit all possible regression models using one or more of the predictors.
- Choose the best model based on one of the measures of predictive ability (CV, AIC, AICc).

## Warning!

- If there are a large number of predictors, this is not possible.
- For example, 44 predictors leads to 18 trillion possible models!

# Choosing regression variables

## Backwards stepwise regression

- Start with a model containing all variables.
- Try subtracting one variable at a time. Keep the model if it has lower CV or AICc.
- Iterate until no further improvement.

## Forwards stepwise regression

- Start with a model containing only a constant.
- Add one variable at a time. Keep the model if it has lower CV or AICc.
- Iterate until no further improvement.

## Hybrid backwards and forwards also possible.

- Stepwise regression is not guaranteed to lead to the best possible model.

# What should you use?

## Notes

- Stepwise regression is not guaranteed to lead to the best possible model.
- Inference on coefficients of final model will be wrong.

## Choice: CV, AIC, AICc, BIC, $\bar{R}^2$

- BIC tends to choose models too small for prediction (however can be useful for large  $k$ ).
- $\bar{R}^2$  tends to select models too large.
- AIC also slightly biased towards larger models (especially when  $T$  is small).
- Empirical studies in forecasting show AIC is better than BIC for forecast accuracy.

Choice between AICc and CV (double check AIC and BIC where possible).



# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression**
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Ex-ante versus ex-post forecasts

- **Ex ante forecasts** are made using only information available in advance.
  - ▶ require forecasts of predictors
- **Ex post forecasts** are made using later information on the predictors.
  - ▶ useful for studying behaviour of forecasting models.
- trend, seasonal and calendar variables are all known in advance, so these don't need to be forecast.

# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation**
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Multiple regression forecasts

## Fitted values

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y}$$

where  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$  is the “hat matrix”.

## Leave-one-out residuals

Let  $h_1, \dots, h_T$  be the diagonal values of  $\mathbf{H}$ , then the cross-validation statistic is

$$\text{CV} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T [e_t / (1 - h_t)]^2,$$

where  $e_t$  is the residual obtained from fitting the model to all  $T$  observations.

# Outline

- 1 The linear model with time series
- 2 Some useful predictors for linear models
- 3 Residual diagnostics
- 4 Selecting predictors and forecast evaluation
- 5 Forecasting with regression
- 6 Matrix formulation
- 7 Correlation, causation and forecasting

# Correlation is not causation

- When  $x$  is useful for predicting  $y$ , it is not necessarily causing  $y$ .
- e.g., predict number of drownings  $y$  using number of ice-creams sold  $x$ .
- Correlations are useful for forecasting, even when there is no causality.
- Better models usually involve causal relationships (e.g., temperature  $x$  and people  $z$  to predict drownings  $y$ ).