

MONASH BUSINESS SCHOOL

Forecasting using R

Rob J Hyndman

3.2 Dynamic regression

Outline

- 1 Regression with ARIMA errors
- 2 Stochastic and deterministic trends
- 3 Periodic seasonality
- 4 Lab session 14
- 5 Dynamic regression models

Regression models

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + e_t,$$

- y_t modeled as function of k explanatory variables $x_{1,t}, \ldots, x_{k,t}$.
- In regression, we assume that e_t was WN.
- Now we want to allow e_t to be autocorrelated.

Example: ARIMA(1,1,1) errors

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + n_t,$$

 $(1 - \phi_1 B)(1 - B)n_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)e_t$

where e_t is white noise.

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Residuals and errors

Example: $N_t = ARIMA(1,1,1)$

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 $(1 - \phi_1 B)(1 - B)n_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)e_t,$

- Be careful in distinguishing n_t from e_t .
- \blacksquare Only the errors n_t are assumed to be white noise.
- In ordinary regression, n_t is assumed to be white noise and so $n_t = e_t$.

Residuals and errors

Example: $N_t = ARIMA(1,1,1)$

$$y_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{1,t} + \dots + \beta_{k}x_{k,t} + n_{t},$$

$$(1 - \phi_{1}B)(1 - B)n_{t} = (1 + \theta_{1}B)e_{t},$$

- Be careful in distinguishing n_t from e_t.
- Only the errors n_t are assumed to be white noise.
- In ordinary regression, n_t is assumed to be white noise and so $n_t = e_t$.

Estimation

If we minimize $\sum n_t^2$ (by using ordinary regression):

- Estimated coefficients $\hat{\beta}_0, \dots, \hat{\beta}_k$ are no longer optimal as some information ignored;
- 2 Statistical tests associated with the model (e.g., t-tests on the coefficients) are incorrect.
- p-values for coefficients usually too small ("spurious regression").
- 4 AIC of fitted models misleading.
 - Minimizing $\sum e_t^2$ avoids these problems.
 - Maximizing likelihood is similar to minimizing $\sum e_t^2$.

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Stationarity

Regression with ARMA errors

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + n_t,$$

where n_t is an ARMA process.

- All variables in the model must be stationary.
- If we estimate the model while any of these are non-stationary, the estimated coefficients can be incorrect.
- Difference variables until all stationary.
- If necessary, apply same differencing to all variables.

Stationarity

Model with ARIMA(1,1,1) errors

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + n_t,$$

 $(1 - \phi_1 B)(1 - B)n_t = (1 + \theta_1 B)e_t,$

Equivalent to model with ARIMA(1,0,1) errors

$$y'_t = \beta_1 x'_{1,t} + \dots + \beta_k x'_{k,t} + n'_t,$$

 $(1 - \phi_1 B) n'_t = (1 + \theta_1 B) e_t,$

where
$$y'_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$
, $x'_{t,i} = x_{t,i} - x_{t-1,i}$ and $n'_t = n_t - n_{t-1}$.

Stationarity

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$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + n_t,$$

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where $y'_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$, $x'_{t,i} = x_{t,i} - x_{t-1,i}$ and $n'_t = n_t - n_{t-1}$.

Any regression with an ARIMA error can be rewritten as a regression with an ARMA error by differencing all variables with the same differencing operator as in the ARIMA model.

Original data

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,t} + n_t$$
 where $\phi(B)(1-B)^d N_t = \theta(B)e_t$

After differencing all variables

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After differencing all variables

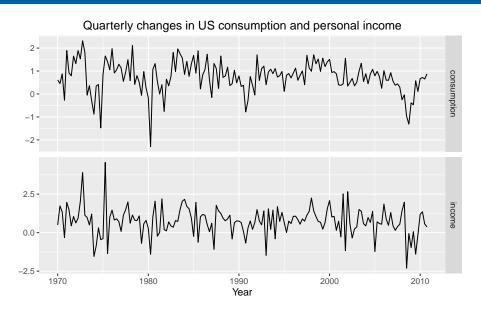
$$y_t' = \beta_1 x_{1,t}' + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,t}' + n_t'.$$
 where $\phi(B)N_t = \theta(B)e_t$ and $y_t' = (1 - B)^d y_t$

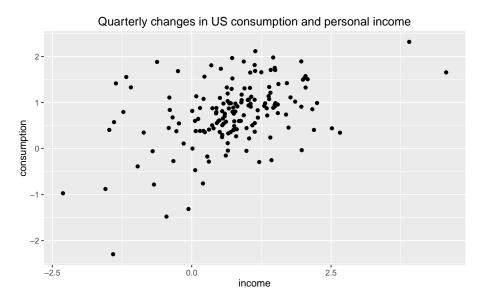
Model selection

- Check that all variables are stationary. If not, apply differencing. Where appropriate, use the same differencing for all variables to preserve interpretability.
- Fit regression model with automatically selected ARIMA errors.
- Check that e_t series looks like white noise.

Selecting predictors

- AICc can be calculated for final model.
- Repeat procedure for all subsets of predictors to be considered, and select model with lowest AIC value.





US Personal Consumption and income

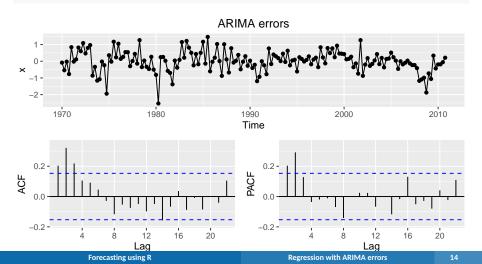
- No need for transformations or further differencing.
- Increase in income does not necessarily translate into instant increase in consumption (e.g., after the loss of a job, it may take a few months for expenses to be reduced to allow for the new circumstances). We will ignore this for now.

ATC=300.54 ATCc=301.08 BTC=319.14

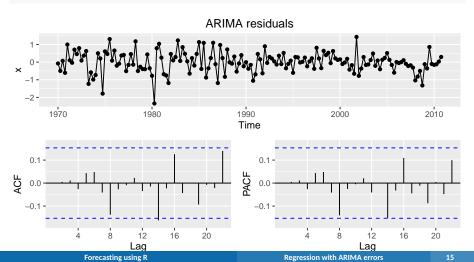
```
(fit <- auto.arima(usconsumption[,1],</pre>
   xreg=usconsumption[,2]))
## Series: usconsumption[, 1]
## ARIMA(1,0,2) with non-zero mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
           ar1
                    ma1 ma2
                                 intercept usconsumption[, 2]
        0.6516 -0.5440 0.2187
                                    0.5750
                                                       0.2420
##
## s.e. 0.1468 0.1576 0.0790 0.0951
                                                       0.0513
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.3502: log likelihood=-144.27
```

Forecasting using R Regression with ARIMA errors

```
ggtsdisplay(arima.errors(fit),
  main="ARIMA errors")
```



```
ggtsdisplay(residuals(fit),
  main="ARIMA residuals")
```



US Personal Consumption and Income

A Ljung-Box test shows the residuals are uncorrelated.

```
Box.test(residuals(fit),
  fitdf=5, lag=10, type="Ljung")

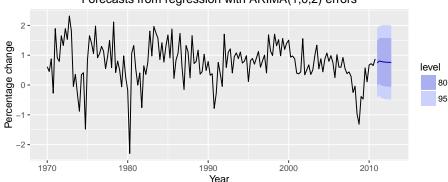
##
## Box-Ljung test
```

```
##
## data: residuals(fit)
## X-squared = 4.5948, df = 5, p-value = 0.4673
```

US Personal Consumption and Income

```
fcast <- forecast(fit,
    xreg=rep(mean(usconsumption[,2]),8), h=8)
autoplot(fcast) + xlab("Year") +
    ylab("Percentage change") +
    ggtitle("Forecasts from regression with ARIMA(1,0,2) errors")</pre>
```

Forecasts from regression with ARIMA(1,0,2) errors



Forecasting using R Regression with ARIMA errors

Forecasting

- To forecast a regression model with ARIMA errors, we need to forecast the regression part of the model and the ARIMA part of the model and combine the results.
 - Some explanatory variable are known into the future (e.g., time, dummies).
 - Separate forecasting models may be needed for other explanatory variables.

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Stochastic & deterministic trends

Deterministic trend

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + n_t$$

where n_t is ARMA process.

Stochastic trend

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + n_t$$

where n_t is ARIMA process with $d \ge 1$.

Difference both sides until n_t is stationary:

$$y_t' = \beta_1 + n_t'$$

where n'_t is ARMA process

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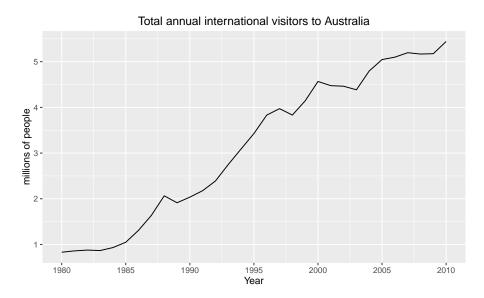
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where n_t is ARIMA process with $d \ge 1$.

Difference both sides until n_t is stationary:

$$\mathbf{y}_t' = \beta_1 + \mathbf{n}_t'$$

where n'_t is ARMA process.



Deterministic trend

```
(fit1 <- auto.arima(austa, d=0, xreg=1:length(austa)))
## Series: austa
## ARIMA(2,0,0) with non-zero mean
##
## Coefficients:
                       intercept 1:length(austa)
##
          ar1
                  ar2
## 1.0371 -0.3379 0.4173
                                         0.1715
## s.e. 0.1675 0.1797 0.1866
                                          0.0102
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.02854: log likelihood=12.7
## ATC=-15.4 ATCc=-13 BTC=-8.23
```

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## ATC=-15.4 ATCc=-13 BTC=-8.23
               y_t = 0.4173 + 0.1715t + n_t
               n_t = 1.0371n_{t-1} - 0.3379n_{t-2} + e_t
```

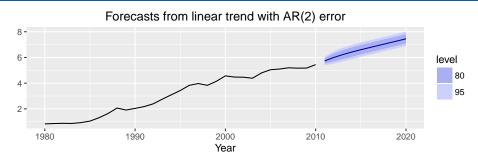
 $e_t \sim \text{NID}(0, 0.02854).$

Stochastic trend

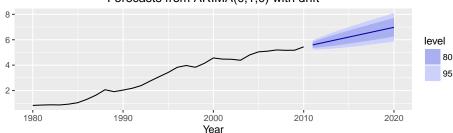
```
(fit2 <- auto.arima(austa,d=1))
## Series: austa
## ARIMA(0,1,0) with drift
##
## Coefficients:
##
       drift
## 0.1537
## s.e. 0.0323
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.03241: log likelihood=9.38
## ATC=-14.76 ATCc=-14.32 BTC=-11.96
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Stochastic trend

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## ATC=-14.76 ATCc=-14.32 BTC=-11.96
                   y_t - y_{t-1} = 0.1538 + e_t
                         v_t = v_0 + 0.1538t + n_t
                         n_t = n_{t-1} + e_t
```







Forecasting with trend

- Point forecasts are almost identical, but prediction intervals differ.
- Stochastic trends have much wider prediction intervals because the errors are non-stationary.
- Be careful of forecasting with deterministic trends too far ahead.

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Forecasting using R Periodic seasonality

Fourier terms for seasonality

Periodic seasonality can be handled using pairs of Fourier terms:

$$s_k(t) = \sin\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{m}\right) \qquad c_k(t) = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi kt}{m}\right)$$
$$y_t = \sum_{k=1}^K \left[\alpha_k s_k(t) + \beta_k c_k(t)\right] + n_t$$

- \blacksquare n_t is non-seasonal ARIMA process.
- Every periodic function can be approximated by sums of sin and cos terms for large enough *K*.
- Choose *K* by minimizing AICc.

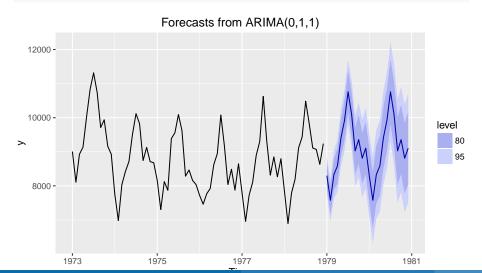
Forecasting using R Periodic seasonality

US Accidental Deaths

Forecasting using R Periodic seasonality

US Accidental Deaths

autoplot(fc)



Forecasting using R Periodic seasonality

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Forecasting using R Lab session 14

Lab Session 14

Forecasting using R Lab session 14 3

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Sometimes a change in x_t does not affect y_t instantaneously

- y_t = sales, x_t = advertising.
- $y_t = \text{stream flow}, x_t = \text{rainfall}.$
- y_t = size of herd, x_t = breeding stock.
- These are dynamic systems with input (x_t) and output (y_t) .
- \blacksquare x_t is often a leading indicator.
- There can be multiple predictors.

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- There can be multiple predictors.

Lagged explanatory variables

The model include present and past values of predictor:

$$x_t, x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, \dots. \\$$

$$y_t = a + \nu_0 x_t + \nu_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + \nu_k x_{t-k} + n_t$$

where n_t is an ARIMA process.

Rewrite model as

$$y_t = a + (\nu_0 + \nu_1 B + \nu_2 B^2 + \dots + \nu_k B^k) x_t + n_t$$

= $a + \nu(B) x_t + n_t$.

- ν (B) is called a *transfer function* since it describes how change in x_t is transferred to y_t .
- x can influence y, but y is not allowed to influence x.

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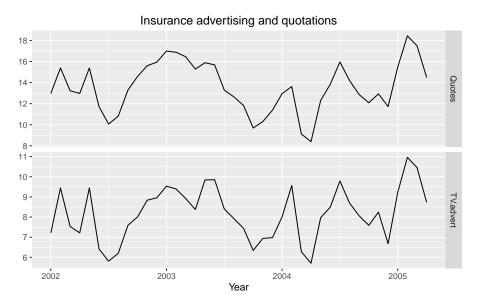
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```
Advert <- cbind(insurance[,2], c(NA,insurance[1:39,2]))
colnames(Advert) <- paste("AdLag",0:1,sep="")
(fit <- auto.arima(insurance[,1], xreg=Advert, d=0))
```

```
## Series: insurance[. 1]
## ARIMA(3,0,0) with non-zero mean
##
## Coefficients:
##
          ar1 ar2 ar3
                              intercept AdLag0
                                               AdLag1
                                 2.0393 1.2564
## 1.4117 -0.9317 0.3591
                                               0.1625
                                               0.0591
## s.e. 0.1698 0.2545 0.1592 0.9931 0.0667
##
## sigma^2 estimated as 0.2165: log likelihood=-23.89
## ATC=61.78 ATCc=65.28 BTC=73.6
```

$$y_t = 2.05 + 1.26x_t + 0.16x_{t-1} + n_t$$

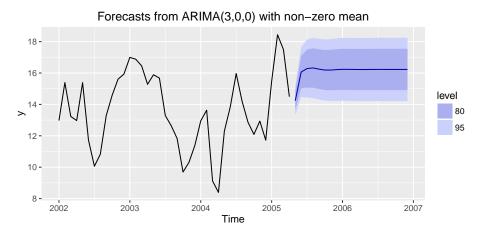
 $n_t = 1.41n_{t-1} - 093n_{t-2} + 0.36n_{t-3}$

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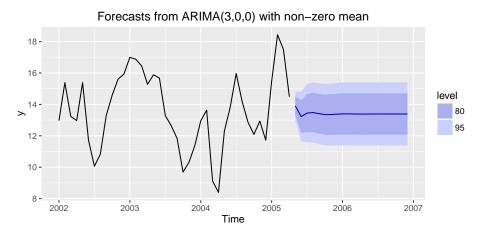
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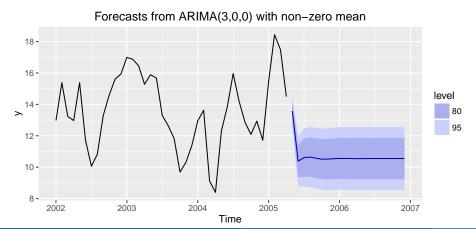
```
fc <- forecast(fit, h=20,
    xreg=cbind(c(Advert[40,1],rep(10,19)), rep(10,20)))
autoplot(fc)</pre>
```



```
fc <- forecast(fit, h=20,
    xreg=cbind(c(Advert[40,1],rep(8,19)), rep(8,20)))
autoplot(fc)</pre>
```



```
fc <- forecast(fit, h=20,
    xreg=cbind(c(Advert[40,1],rep(6,19)), rep(6,20)))
autoplot(fc)</pre>
```



$$y_t = a + \nu(B)x_t + n_t$$

where n_t is an ARMA process. So

$$\phi(B)n_t = \theta(B)e_t$$
 or $n_t = \frac{\theta(B)}{\phi(B)}e_t = \psi(B)e_t$.

$$y_t = a + \nu(B)x_t + \psi(B)e_t$$

- ARMA models are rational approximations to general transfer functions of e_t .
- We can also replace $\nu(B)$ by a rational approximation.
- There is no R package for forecasting using a general transfer function approach.

Forecasting using R Dynamic regression models

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