



INDR 450/550

Spring 2022

Lecture 11: Regression for
Time Series

March 21, 2022

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Announcements

- Class Exercise at the end of lecture today. If you are participating online, please upload your document under Course Contents/Class Exercises
- HW 2 available soon.
- The first four labs were uploaded. Please follow them.
 - Next HW based on lab2 and lab3

Q&A

- Consider the AR(1) model: $Y_t = c + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$
- And the linear regression model:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

- They look very similar but
 - Note that the AR(1) model is a stochastic process, we can compute the probability distribution of Y_t conditional on past observations.
 - The regression typically is not concerned with the evolution of the predictors. We don't have a complete model of how the system evolves and where it will evolve to in the future.

Q&A

- The AR(1) model: $Y_t = c + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$
- And the linear regression model:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

- However, in terms of fitting the parameters from data, they are similar:
 - AR model fits parameters using MLE.
 - OLS regression fits the parameters based on squared residual minimization.
 - The resulting fits should be similar.

Q&A

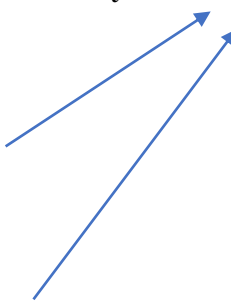
- But there is no such easy correspondence for MA terms. This is why the general estimation tool for ARIMA processes is MLE.
- ARIMA processes perform quite well despite the restrictive assumptions.
- Regression allows more flexibility in modeling.

Summary of ACF and PACF patterns for simple AR and MA models

| Process | ACF | PACF |
|-----------|---|---|
| AR(1) | Exponential decay: on positive side if $\phi_1 > 0$ and alternating in sign starting on negative side if $\phi_1 < 0$. | Spike at lag 1, then cuts off to zero: spike positive if $\phi_1 > 0$, negative if $\phi_1 < 0$. |
| AR(p) | Exponential decay or damped sine-wave. The exact pattern depends on the signs and sizes of ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_p . | Spikes at lags 1 to p , then cuts off to zero. |
| MA(1) | Spike at lag 1 then cuts off to zero: spike positive if $\theta_1 < 0$, negative if $\theta_1 > 0$. | Exponential decay: on negative side if $\theta_1 > 0$ and alternating in sign starting on positive side if $\theta_1 < 0$. |
| MA(q) | Spikes at lags 1 to q , then cuts off to zero. | Exponential decay or damped sine-wave. The exact pattern depends on the signs and sizes of $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_q$. |

Table 7-2: Expected patterns in the ACF and PACF for simple AR and MA models.

Please note that the MA-terms are defined with a negative sign in this Reference. This is why the signs are reversed in the examples in Lab 3.

$$Y_t = c - \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} - \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$$


Regression for Time Series

- Consider the following linear model:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_n x_{nt} + \epsilon_t$$

- y_t is the forecast and x_{kt} are the predictors.
- We are therefore looking for a linear relationship between the predictors and the response (the forecast).
- Note that in the setting of forecasting, this is somewhat different than designing a controlled experiment where we can control the levels of the predictors. The predictors that are available to us cannot be controlled in general.

Regression for Time Series: Basic Predictors: Categorical Variables

- We can use dummies to mark months of the year, quarters of the year, hours of the day etc.
- We can also use dummies to mark irregular (non-seasonal) exceptions (holidays, days of Ramadan, promotions, school holidays etc.)
- This is great but note that we may easily end up with a very large number of dummies!

Regression for Time Series: Basic Predictors: Australian Beer Production

- The Australian Beer Production Data is strongly seasonal. We can try to fit:

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 x_{1t} + \beta_3 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_{12} x_{11,t} + \epsilon_t$$

- where $x_{1t}, \dots, x_{11,t}$ are the monthly dummies.

```
In [16]: df = pd.read_csv('ausbeer_dummies.csv', index_col=0)
df.head()
```

```
Out[16]:
```

| | Production | t | M1 | M2 | M3 | M4 | M5 | M6 | M7 | M8 | M9 | M10 | M11 |
|-------|------------|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|
| Month | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | 164 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 148 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | 152 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 144 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 155 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Regression for Time Series: Basic Predictors: Australian Beer Production

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 x_{1t} + \beta_3 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_{12} x_{11,t} + \epsilon_t$$

| | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|---------------------|----------|
| Dep. Variable: | Production | R-squared: | 0.836 |
| Model: | OLS | Adj. R-squared: | 0.791 |
| Method: | Least Squares | F-statistic: | 18.30 |
| Date: | Tue, 08 Mar 2022 | Prob (F-statistic): | 3.97e-13 |
| Time: | 12:20:51 | Log-Likelihood: | -194.93 |
| No. Observations: | 56 | AIC: | 415.9 |
| Df Residuals: | 43 | BIC: | 442.2 |
| Df Model: | 12 | | |
| Covariance Type: | nonrobust | | |

| | coef | std err | t | P> t | [0.025 | 0.975] |
|-----------|----------|---------|--------|-------|---------|---------|
| Intercept | 192.9750 | 5.015 | 38.477 | 0.000 | 182.861 | 203.089 |
| t | -0.2158 | 0.075 | -2.887 | 0.006 | -0.367 | -0.065 |
| M1 | -39.7792 | 6.030 | -6.597 | 0.000 | -51.940 | -27.619 |
| M2 | -48.5633 | 6.026 | -8.059 | 0.000 | -60.715 | -36.411 |
| M3 | -30.9475 | 6.023 | -5.139 | 0.000 | -43.093 | -18.802 |
| M4 | -46.7317 | 6.020 | -7.762 | 0.000 | -58.873 | -34.591 |
| M5 | -46.1158 | 6.019 | -7.662 | 0.000 | -58.254 | -33.978 |
| M6 | -58.5000 | 6.018 | -9.720 | 0.000 | -70.637 | -46.363 |
| M7 | -51.8842 | 6.019 | -8.620 | 0.000 | -64.022 | -39.746 |
| M8 | -42.2683 | 6.020 | -7.021 | 0.000 | -54.409 | -30.127 |
| M9 | -46.6475 | 6.348 | -7.349 | 0.000 | -59.449 | -33.846 |
| M10 | -19.6817 | 6.346 | -3.102 | 0.003 | -32.479 | -6.884 |
| M11 | -2.9658 | 6.344 | -0.467 | 0.643 | -15.760 | 9.829 |

Regression for Time Series: Basic Predictors: Australian Beer

Production

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 x_{1t} + \beta_3 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_{12} x_{11,t} + \epsilon_t$$

| | coef | std err | t | P> t | [0.025 | 0.975] |
|------------------|----------|---------|--------|-------|---------|---------|
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Our prediction for month 4 is: 192.98 -0.2158 (4) -46.73

Our prediction for month 11 is: 192.98 -0.2158 (11) - 2.97

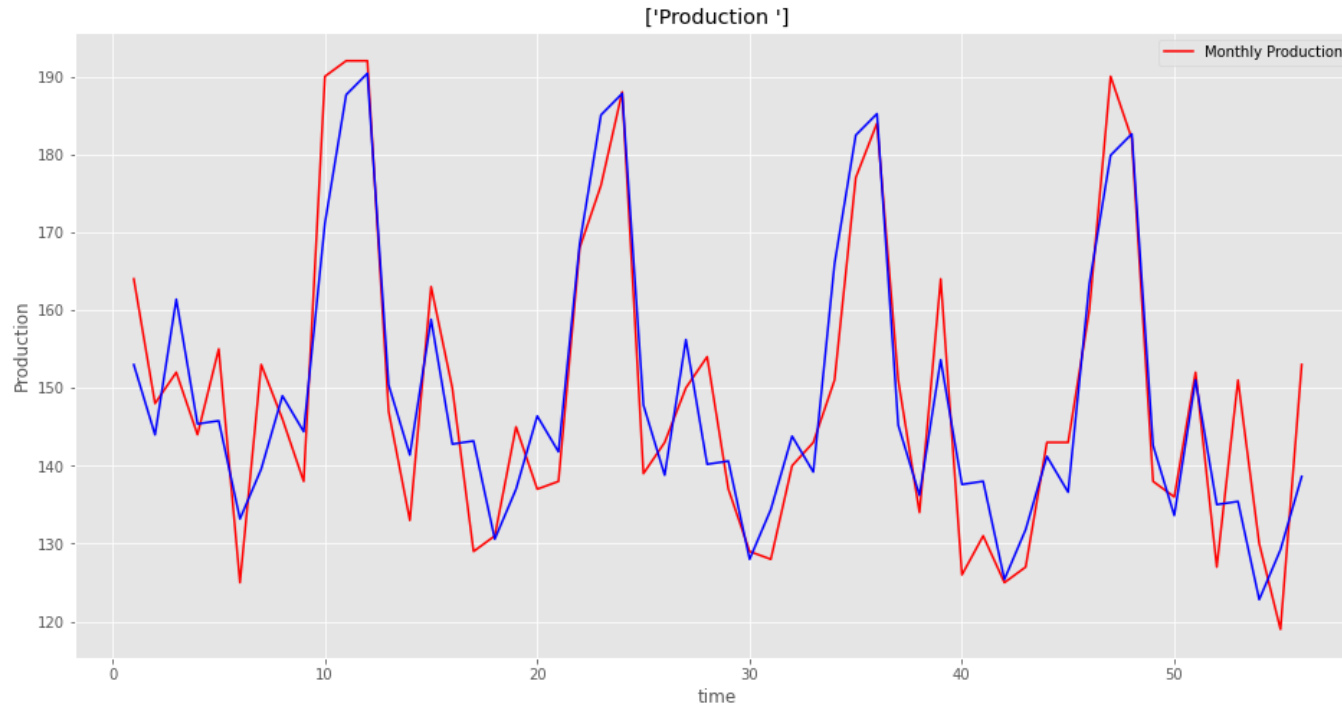
Our prediction for month 12 is: 192.98 -0.2158 (12)

Our prediction for month 26 is: 192.98 -0.2158 (26) -48.56

Month 12 is clearly the peak month for sales, all other months have negative seasonality factors wrt to month 12.

Regression for Time Series: Basic Predictors: Australian Beer

Production



In-sample predictions in blue, and the observed production in red.

```
In [9]: error_beer = prod - result_beer.fittedvalues
```

```
In [10]: mse_beer = np.mean(np.square(error_beer ))
rmse_beer = np.sqrt(mse_beer)
mae_beer = np.mean(np.abs(error_beer ))
mape_beer = np.mean(np.abs(error_beer )/prod)
print('MSE Beer = ', mse_beer)
print('RMSE Beer = ', rmse_beer)
print('MAE Beer = ', mae_beer)
print('MAPE Beer = ', mape_beer)
```

```
MSE Beer = 61.805178571428556
RMSE Beer = 7.861626967201417
MAE Beer = 6.441249999999998
MAPE Beer = 0.04378739163608506
```

Regression for Time Series: Some Issues

- **Some Issues**
- **1. Non-linearities**
- The relationship between the predictor x and the response y may not be linear.
- If we can figure out the relationship, we saw that we can transform the response as needed (i.e. take \sqrt{x} , x^3 or $\log x$ instead of x).
- There are other useful non-linear transformations (we'll see those later if time permits)

Regression for Time Series: Some Issues

- 2. Correlation of Error Terms
- We hope that ϵ_t does not provide any information on ϵ_{t+1} .
- It's a good idea to check the ACF and the PACF of the residuals.
- If auto-correlation shows, we should consider fitting an ARIMA model to the residuals.

Regression for Time Series: Some Issues

- 3. Non-constant Variance of Error Terms
- Non-constant variance is known as heteroscedasticity
- This would show as increasing fluctuations on the residual plot.
- We have seen that taking a log or square root transformation of the response y helps.

Regression for Time Series: Some Issues

● 4. Outliers

- These are points where the prediction \hat{y}_t is far from the observation y_t .
- There are many reasons: inaccurate recording of data, major exceptions (like the start of a pandemic or a war, rapid price changes).
- We can distinguish major outliers from the residual plot.
- We can remove those outliers that are due to recording errors or exceptional situations by removing them or averaging them by similar responses.
- However, we don't want to be removing outliers due to predictors that can be foreseen (i.e. start of ramadan).

Regression for Time Series: Some Issues

- 5. High Leverage Points
- These are points where the predictor \hat{x}_{it} takes an exceptional value with respect to its average.
- High leverage points have a big impact on the regression line.
- This is a tricky situation especially with multiple predictors.
- There is a leverage statistic (see Chapter 3 of James et al.)

Regression for Time Series: Some Issues

- 6. Collinearity

- Two or more predictors being strongly related.
- This is a big issue because we would not be able to completely distinguish the individual effects of such predictors in a linear regression.
- Checking for pairwise collinearity (i.e. between two predictors) is easy by computing the correlation matrix of the responses. We can then remove the variables that are strongly correlated.
- Multi-collinearity is trickier
- Collinearity reduces the accuracy of the estimates and causes the standard error to grow. This reduces the power of the standard hypothesis test:
 $H_0 = \beta_k = 0.$

Regression for Time Series: K – Nearest Neighbours

- Comparison to a non-parametric method: k -nearest neighbours (KNN) regression
- Let's say we would like to make a prediction for the point x_{1t} using the data available up to time $t - 1$.
- We identify the K -nearest points to x_{1t} among $\{x_{11}, x_{12}, \dots, x_{1,t-1}\}$. Let us say that the nearest points are those in the set \mathcal{N}_t . Then our prediction is simply:

$$\hat{y}_t = \frac{\sum_{x_{i\tau} \in \mathcal{N}_t} y_{\tau+1}}{K}$$

- If we take $K = 1$, our prediction is given by the response to the nearest predictor in the training set.
- If we take $K = 10$ we are smoothing the prediction over the 10 nearest predictors.

Regression for Time Series: K – Nearest Neighbours

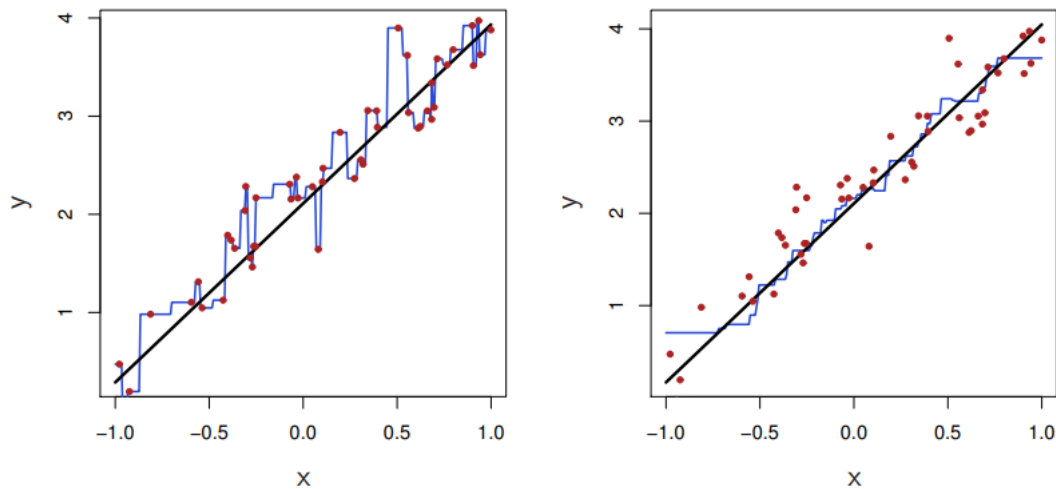


FIGURE 3.17. Plots of $\hat{f}(X)$ using KNN regression on a one-dimensional data set with 50 observations. The true relationship is given by the black solid line. Left: The blue curve corresponds to $K = 1$ and interpolates (i.e. passes directly through) the training data. Right: The blue curve corresponds to $K = 9$, and represents a smoother fit.

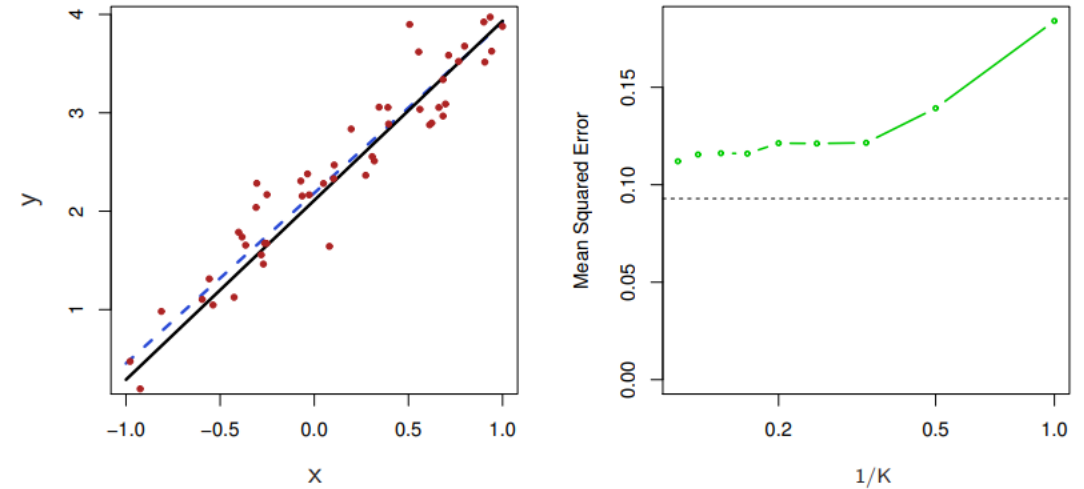


FIGURE 3.18. The same data set shown in Figure 3.17 is investigated further. Left: The blue dashed line is the least squares fit to the data. Since $f(X)$ is in fact linear (displayed as the black line), the least squares regression line provides a very good estimate of $f(X)$. Right: The dashed horizontal line represents the least squares test set MSE, while the green solid line corresponds to the MSE for KNN as a function of $1/K$ (on the log scale). Linear regression achieves a lower test MSE than does KNN regression, since $f(X)$ is in fact linear. For KNN regression, the best results occur with a very large value of K , corresponding to a small value of $1/K$.

Regression for Time Series: K – Nearest Neighbours: Example

- Here are some basic issues for time-series regression.
- If there is a strong trend in the data, the nearest neighbours are likely to be the most recent observations.
 - A KNN regression would then be very similar to a simple Moving Average forecast with K periods.
 - The forecasts will always lag behind. Clearly, data will have to be detrended before implementing a KNN- regression.
- Seasonality with trend may not be so bad.
- Simple auto-correlation structure can be captured.

Regression for Time Series: K – Nearest Neighbours: Example

- Here's a seasonal example. Consider the Australian Beer Production Data. Let us say that we would like to predict the demand in month 48 based the first 46 months.
- In month 47, the production was 190 units.
- To implement 1-NN, we search in months 1 to 46, the month where the production was nearest to 190
 - In month, the production was also 190 units (month 10 is the nearest neighbour). In the following month (month 11), production was 192 units.
 - Therefore, our 1-NN estimate for the demand in period 48 is 192.

| | |
|----|-----|
| 41 | 131 |
| 42 | 125 |
| 43 | 127 |
| 44 | 143 |
| 45 | 143 |
| 46 | 160 |
| 47 | 190 |
| 48 | 182 |
| 49 | 138 |
| 50 | 136 |
| 51 | 152 |
| 52 | 127 |
| 53 | 151 |
| 54 | 130 |
| 55 | 119 |
| 56 | 153 |

Regression for Time Series: K – Nearest Neighbours: Example

- To implement 5-nn we search in months 1 to 46, the 5 nearest neighbours of 190.

- Month 10: 190, Month 11: 192
- Month 11: 192, Month 12: 192
- Month 12: 192, Month 13: 147
- Month 24: 188, Month 25: 139
- Month 36: 184, Month 37: 151

- The 5-NN prediction is then $(192+192+147+139+151)/5 = 164.2$

| | | |
|----|-----|----|
| 10 | 190 | 0 |
| 11 | 192 | 2 |
| 12 | 192 | 2 |
| 13 | 147 | 43 |
| 14 | 133 | 57 |
| 15 | 163 | 27 |
| 16 | 150 | 40 |
| 17 | 129 | 61 |
| 18 | 131 | 59 |
| 19 | 145 | 45 |
| 20 | 137 | 53 |
| 21 | 138 | 52 |
| 22 | 168 | 22 |
| 23 | 176 | 14 |
| 24 | 188 | 2 |
| 25 | 139 | 51 |
| 26 | 143 | 47 |
| 27 | 150 | 40 |