Dynamic regression models: Estimation & forecasting

EC 361-001

Prof. Santetti Spring 2024

Materials

Required readings:

- Hyndman & Athanasopoulos, ch. 10
 - sections 10.1—10.3.

Motivation

Motivation

Last time, the **intuition** behind the use of ARIMA errors in time-series regression was introduced.

Now, our task is to employ the **estimation** and **forecasting** steps using this methodology.

we will do this through an **example**.

In Macroeconomic theory, inflationary pressures can arise due to and lower unemployment.

• This association is summarized by the *Phillips curve*.

One of its many variations is the so-called *accelerationist* Phillips curve, especially for *unstable* scenarios.

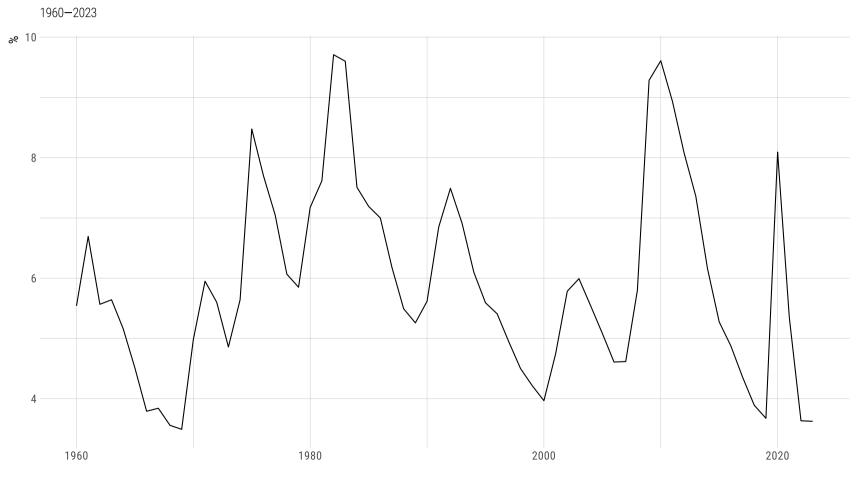
For statistical **modeling** purposes, the usual way to represent this relationship is the following:

$$\Delta\pi_t = eta_0 + eta_1 u_t + arepsilon_t$$

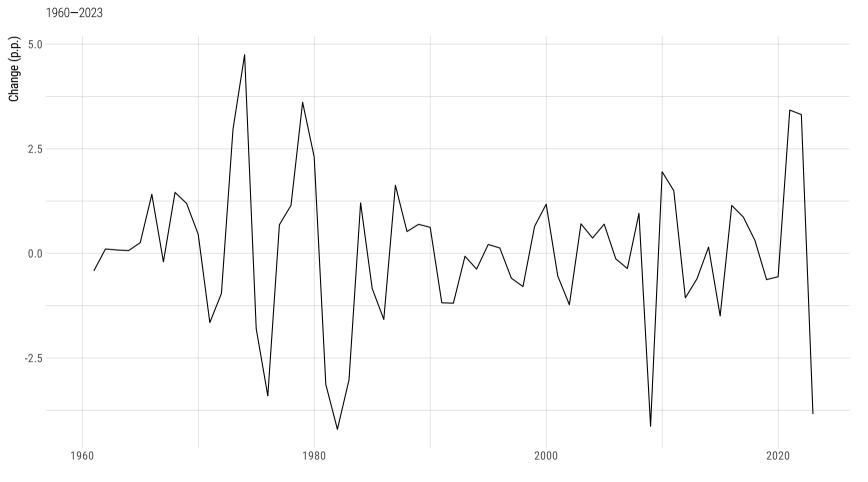
where $\Delta \pi_t$ is the change in the inflation rate, and u_t is the unemployment rate.

It is expected that the **slope**, here represented by β_1 , is **negative**, as higher employment is expected to generate *inflationary pressures*.

U.S. annual unemployment rate



U.S. annual change in inflation rate (CPI)

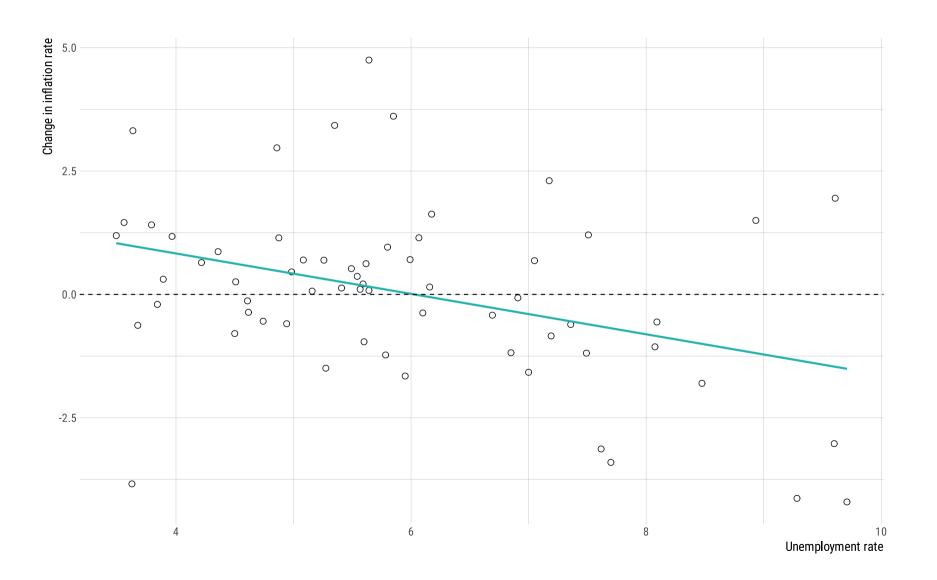


• Are the two variables **stationary**?

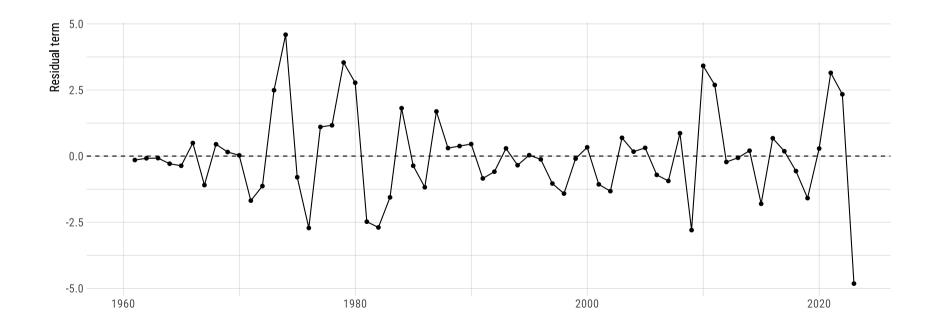
```
phillips ts ▷
  features(unrate, unitroot_kpss)
#> # A tibble: 1 × 2
    kpss_stat kpss_pvalue
   <dbl>
#>
#> 1 0.109 0.1
phillips_ts ▷
  features(delta_infrate, unitroot_kpss)
#> # A tibble: 1 × 2
    kpss_stat kpss_pvalue
     <dbl>
                 <dbl>
#>
#> 1 0.0763 0.1
```

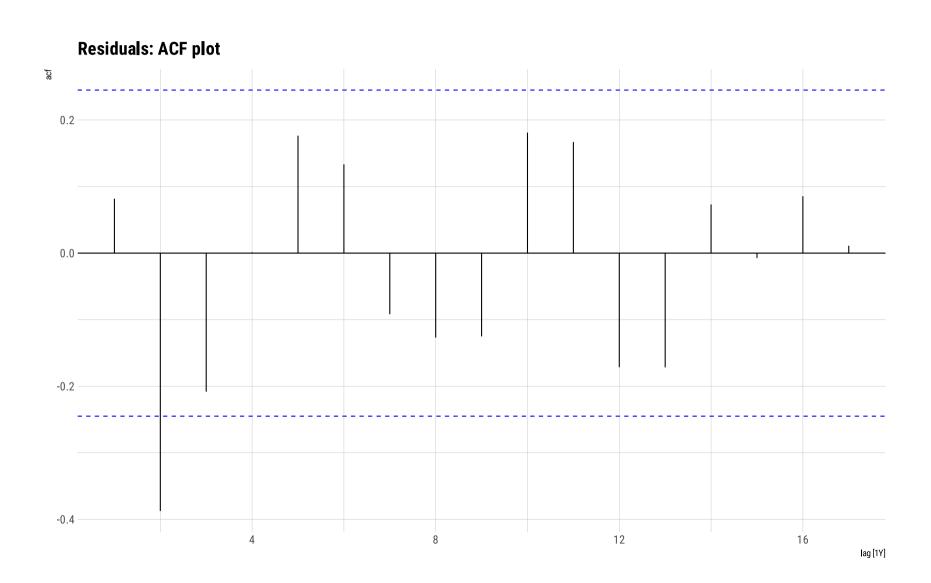
Let us first estimate a **standard** time-series regression model, using the TSLM() function.

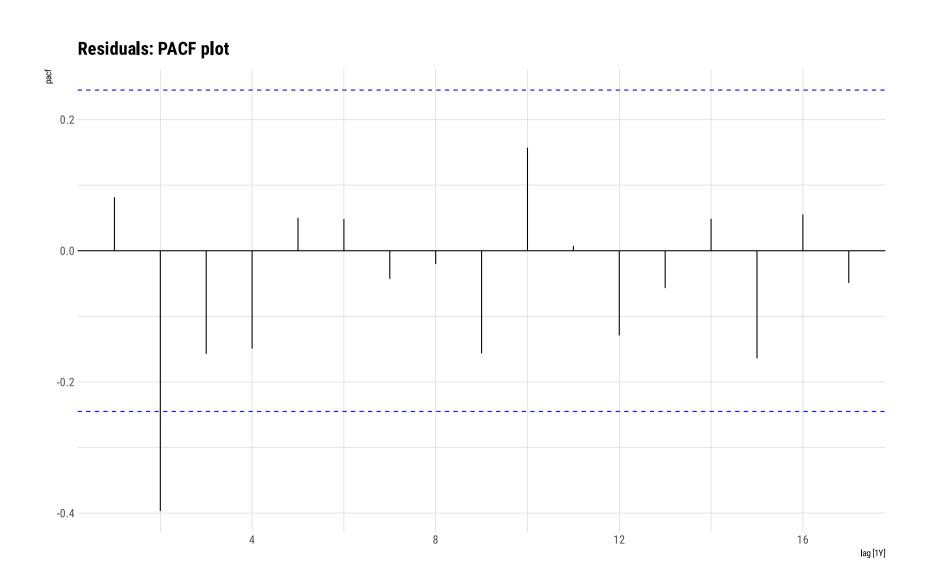
```
phillips reg \leftarrow phillips ts \triangleright
  model(reg = TSLM(delta infrate ~ unrate))
phillips reg ▷
  report()
#> Series: delta infrate
#> Model: TSLM
#>
#> Residuals:
       Min
                1Q Median 3Q
                                          Max
#> -4.82262 -0.98911 -0.07695 0.47488 4.59029
#>
#> Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#>
#> (Intercept) 2.4664 0.7992 3.086 0.00305 **
#> unrate -0.4093 0.1302 -3.144 0.00257 **
#> Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#>
#> Residual standard error: 1.671 on 61 degrees of freedom
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.1395, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1254
#> F-statistic: 9.887 on 1 and 61 DF, p-value: 0.0025712
```



• And now we check the regression's residual term, $\hat{\varepsilon}_t$:







• Testing for **residual autocorrelation**:

```
phillips_reg >
  augment() >
  features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 10)

#> # A tibble: 1 × 3

#> .model lb_stat lb_pvalue

#> <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
#> 1 reg 22.5 0.0128
```

What do we conclude?

When the residual term of a regression shows evidence of **serial correlation (autocorrelation)**, inference is **unreliable**.

For **forecasting** purposes, *prediction intervals* will be incorrect.

Therefore, we must **incorporate** the autocorrelation in the residuals into our regression model.

• This is done through an **ARIMA modeling** of this term.

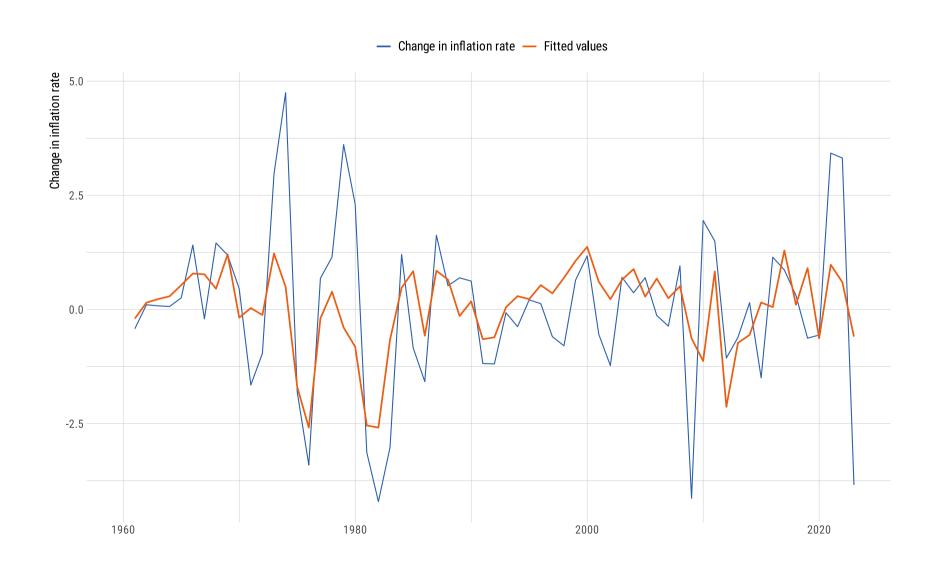
As the two model variables are **stationary**, no differencing is required.

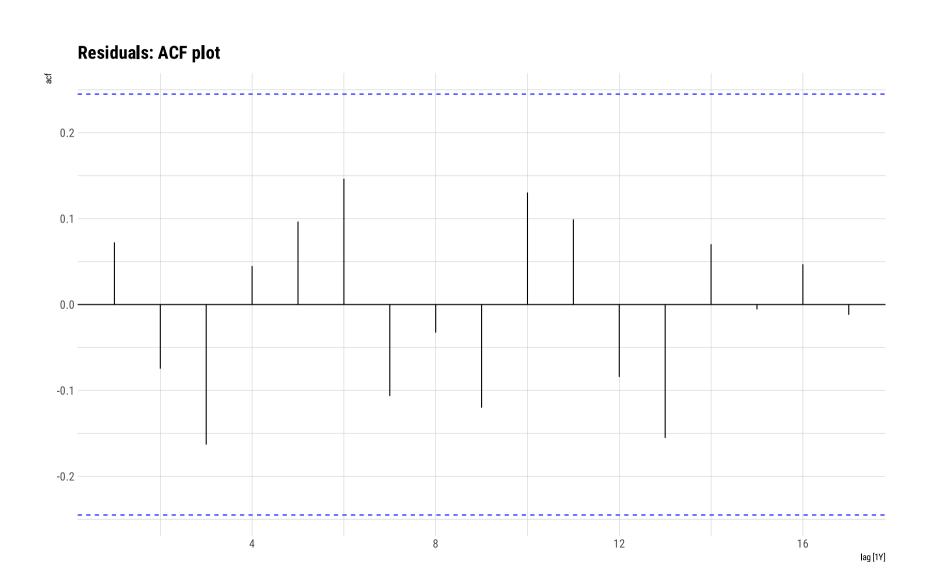
For ARIMA residuals, we can use the ARIMA() function in a regression context.

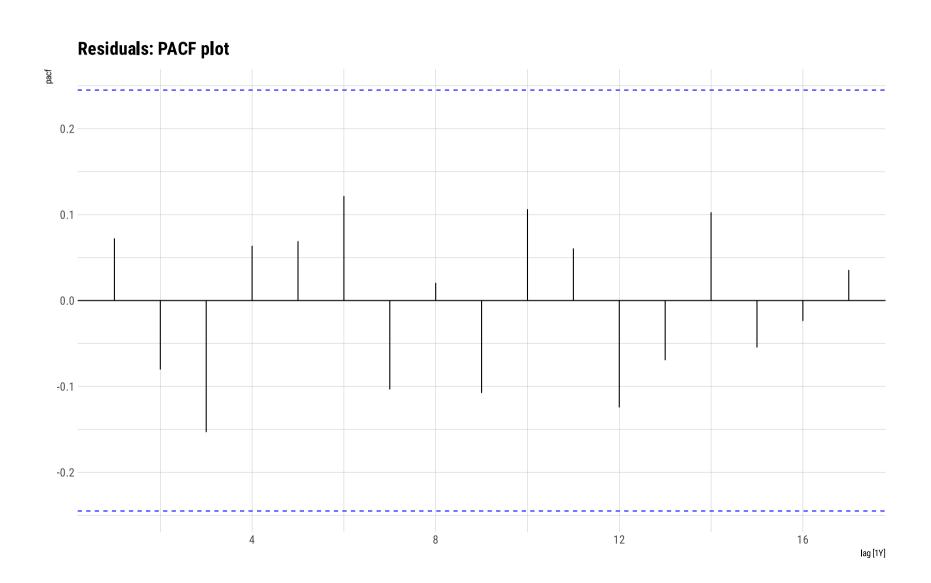
```
phillips_arima ← phillips_ts ▷
  model(arima_reg = ARIMA(delta_infrate ~ unrate))
```

```
phillips arima ← phillips ts ▷
  model(arima_reg = ARIMA(delta_infrate ~ unrate))
phillips arima ▷
  report()
#> Series: delta infrate
#> Model: LM w/ ARIMA(0,0,2) errors
#>
#> Coefficients:
#>
            ma1
                    ma2 unrate intercept
  -0.0317 -0.4999 -0.2891 1.7626
#>
#> s.e. 0.1068 0.1018 0.0822 0.4998
#>
#> sigma^2 estimated as 2.229: log likelihood=-113.39
#> AIC=236.78 AICc=237.81 BIC=247.57
```

Let us write out the estimated model.







• Testing for serial correlation:

```
phillips_arima > 
  augment() > 
  features(.innov, ljung_box, lag = 10)

#> # A tibble: 1 × 3

#> .model lb_stat lb_pvalue

#> <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
#> 1 arima_reg 8.19 0.610
```

What do we conclude?

Forecasting

Forecasting

When estimating dynamic regression models with **ARIMA errors**, we need to forecast the regression part of the model and the ARIMA part of the model, and **combine** the results.

When the independent variables are **known** into the future (e.g., seasonal dummy variables, trend component), their future values are *known*.

However, when this is **not** the case, the usual approach is to **assume future values** for each predictor variable.

In the case of our Phillips curve example, it is **impossible** to know the unemployment rate in the future.

• Thus, we need to make assumptions.

Forecasting

For our example, suppose our forecast horizon is h = 5 years.

We may assume that the unemployment rate for this future years will be equal to its **historical mean**.

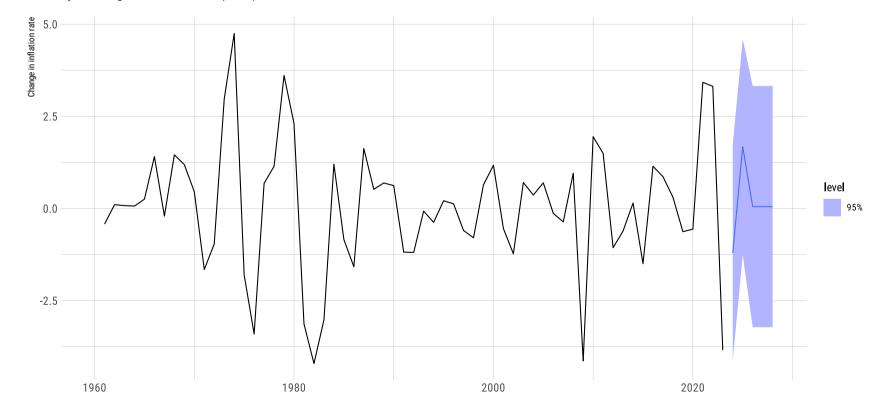
```
phillips_new_data ← new_data(phillips_ts, n = 5) ▷
mutate(unrate = mean(phillips_ts$unrate))
```

```
phillips_fc ← phillips_arima ▷
  forecast(h = 5, new_data = phillips_new_data)
```

```
phillips_fc D
  autoplot(phillips_ts, level = 95) +
  labs(title = "5-year ahead forecast",
      subtitle = "Dynamic regression with ARIMA(0, 0, 2) errors",
      y = "Change in inflation rate", x = "")
```

5-year ahead forecast

Dynamic regression with ARIMA(0, 0, 2) errors



Next time: Final thoughts on dynamic regression models