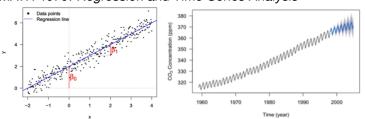




Lecture 16

Additional Topics in Regression and Time Series Analysis

MATH 4070: Regression and Time-Series Analysis



Whitney Huang Clemson University **Model:** $y = x\beta + \varepsilon$, $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Data: y (response vector); X (design matrix)

•
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y}; \ \hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = \boldsymbol{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \underbrace{\boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}}}_{\boldsymbol{H}: \text{"Hat" matrix}} \boldsymbol{y}$$

- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2(\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1})$
- Non-parametric regression modeling

Model:
$$y = f(x) + \varepsilon \Rightarrow E[y|x] = f(x)$$

- The (smooth) function f(x) must be represented somehow
- The degree of smoothness of f(x) must be made controllable
- Some means for estimating the most appropriate degree of smoothness from data is required

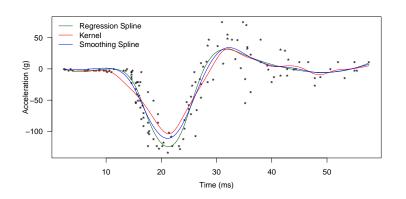




Regression Spline: 10 degrees of freedom quantile knot

Smoothing Spline: the amount of smoothness is estimated from the data by GCV

Kernel Regression: K: Epanechnikov kernel and h = 5

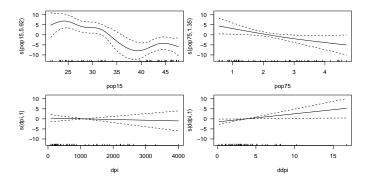


$$y = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p) + \varepsilon$$

suffer from the "curse of dimensionality"

Generalized Additive Models:

$$y = \beta_0 + f_1(x_1) + f_2(x_2) + \dots + f_p(x_p) + \varepsilon$$





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Shrinkage Methods



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 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1} + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathrm{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{p-1} are the predictors.

Question: What if we have too many predictors (i.e., *p* is "large")?

- Explanation can be difficult due to collinearity
- Can lead to overfitting by using too many predictors

Two methods, namely Ridge regression and LASSO, allow us to "shrink" the information contained in all the predictors into a more useful form

Ridge regression assumes that the regression coefficients (after normalization) should not be very large

• The ridge regression estimate chooses the β that minimizes:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_j x_{ij})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_j^2,$$

where $\lambda \ge 0$ is a **tuning parameter** to be determined via cross-validation

The ridge regression estimates:

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{ridge}} = \left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{y}$$

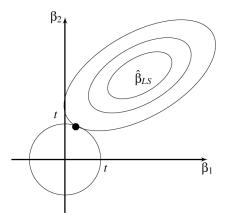
 Ridge regression is particularly effective when the model matrix is collinear

Graphical Illustration of Ridge Regression

Estimation of ridge regression can also be solved by choosing $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_j x_{ij})^2$$

subject to $\sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 \le t^2$



Additional Topics in Regression and Time Series Analysis



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LASSO assumes the effects are **sparse** in that the response can be explained by a small number of predictors with the rest having no effect

• LASSO choose $\hat{\beta}$ to minimize:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_j x_{ij})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} |\beta_j|$$

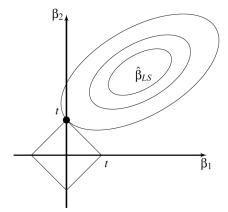
- No explicit solution to this minimization problem
- The penalty term has the effect of forcing some of the coefficient estimates to be zero when the tuning parameter λ is "large" ⇒ performs shrinkage and variable selection

Graphical Illustration of LASSO

Estimation of LASSO can also be solved by choosing $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_j x_{ij})^2$$

subject to $\sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \le t$



Additional Topics in Regression and Time Series Analysis



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Gaussian Linear Model:

$$y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2), \quad \mu = \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Bernoulli Linear Model:

$$y \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi), \quad \log(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}) = x^T \beta$$

Poisson Linear Regression:

$$y \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda), \quad \log \lambda = \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

These models fall into the family of generalized linear models [Nelder and Wedderburn (1972); McCullagh and Nelder (1989)] with the **distributional assumptions** (normal, Bernoulli, Poisson) and the **link functions** (identity, logit, and log)

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- Time domain methods [Box and Jenkins, 1970]:
 - Regress present on past

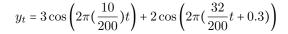
Example:
$$Y_t = \phi Y_{t-1} + Z_t$$
, $|\phi| < 1$, $\{Z_t\} \sim WN(0, \sigma^2)$

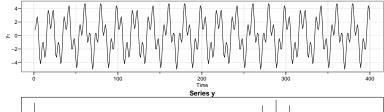
- Capture dynamics in terms of "velocity", "acceleration", etc
- Frequency domain methods [Priestley, 1981]:
 - Regress present on periodic sines and cosines

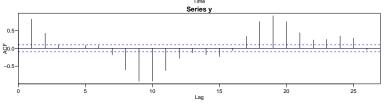
Example:
$$Y_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \left[\alpha_{1j} \cos(2\pi\omega_j t) + \alpha_{2j} \sin(2\pi\omega_j t) \right]$$

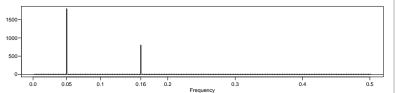
Capture dynamics in terms of resonant frequencies

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Spectral density ← Covariance function

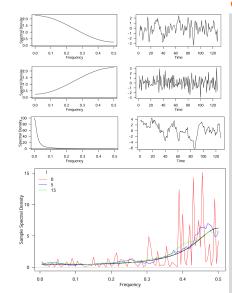
If $\{Y_t\}$ has $\sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(h)| < \infty$, then its spectral density is

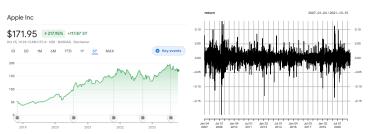
$$f(\omega) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(h)e^{-2\pi i\omega h}$$

for $-\infty < \omega < \infty$. We have

$$\gamma(h) = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{2\pi i \omega h} f(\omega) d\omega$$

Smoothing techniques, like those in nonparametric regression, are needed to estimate $f(\omega)$ well





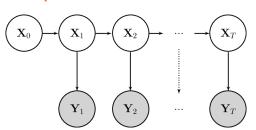
Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (GARCH) is commonly used to model the dynamics of fluctuations in log-returns to capture volatility clustering.

$$r_t = \mu_t + a_t, \quad a_t = \sigma_t \epsilon_t, \quad \sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i a_{t-i}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^s \beta_j \sigma_{t-j}^2$$



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State-Space Model



Additional Topics in Regression and Time Series Analysis



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State:
$$X_t = M_t X_{t-1} + V_t$$
, $V_t \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} WN(\mathbf{0}, Q_t)$, $t = 1, 2, \cdots$

Observation:
$$\boldsymbol{Y}_t = H_t \boldsymbol{X}_t + \boldsymbol{W}_t, \quad \boldsymbol{W}_t \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathrm{WN}(\boldsymbol{0}, R_t), \quad t = 1, 2, \cdots$$

- $X_t \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $Y_t \in \mathbb{R}^q$ are the state vector and the observation vector at time t
- M_t is the $p \times p$ transition matrix, and H_t is the $q \times p$ observation matrix
- ullet $oldsymbol{V}_t$ and $oldsymbol{W}_t$ are the state and observation noises

Goal: To estimate the underlying unobserved signal X_t , given the data $Y_{1:s} = y_{1:s} = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_s\}$:

- When s < t, the problem is called forecasting or prediction
- When s = t, the problem is called filtering
- When s > t, the problem is called smoothing

In addition to these estimates, we would also want to measure their precision. The solution to these problems is accomplished via the Kalman filter and Kalman smoother

$$\left[\boldsymbol{X}_{t-1}|\boldsymbol{Y}_{1:t-1}\right] \sim \mathrm{N}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{t-1}^{a}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{t-1}^{a}\right)$$



• Forecast Step: Gives the forecast distribution at time *t*:

$$\left[\boldsymbol{X}_{t}|\boldsymbol{Y}_{1:t-1}\right] \sim \mathrm{N}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{t}^{f}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{t}^{f}\right),$$

where
$$\mu_t^f$$
 = $M_t \mu_{t-1}^a$, and Σ_t^f = $M_t \Sigma_{t-1}^a M_t^T + Q_t$.

ullet **Update Step:** updates the forecast distribution using new data $oldsymbol{Y}_t$

$$[\boldsymbol{X}_t|\boldsymbol{Y}_{1:t}] \sim \mathrm{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_t^a, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_t^a),$$

where $\mu_t^a = \mu_t^f + K_t \left(Y_t - H_t \mu_t^f \right)$, and $\Sigma_t^a = \left(I - K_t H_t^T \right) \Sigma_t^f$, and

$$K_t = \Sigma_t^f H_t^T \left(H_t \Sigma_t^f H_t^T + R_t \right)^{-1}$$

is the Kalman gain matrix



$$\{\boldsymbol{Y}_t \in \mathbb{R}^p\}$$

 The theory becomes more involved as we generalize to the cross-covariance:

$$Cov(Y_s, Y_t) = C(s, t),$$

where $C(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the $p \times p$ matrix-valued cross-covariance function (CCVF)

 Similarly, in the frequency domain approach, the cross-spectrum is given by:

$$f_{XY}(\omega) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_{XY}(h)e^{-2\pi i\omega h}$$

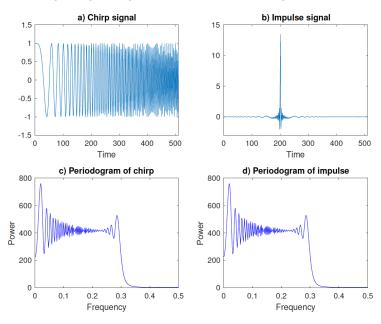
VAR(p) model:

$$Y_t = \mu + A_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + A_p Y_{t-p} + W_t, \quad t = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

where

- $Y_t = (Y_{1t}, \dots, Y_{pt})^T$ is a $(p \times 1)$ random vector
- A_i are $(p \times p)$ coefficient matrices
- $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_p)^T$ is the intercept vector
- $W_t = (W_{1t}, \dots, W_{pt})^T$ is a p-dimensional white noise, i.e., $\mathrm{E}[\boldsymbol{W}_t] = \boldsymbol{0}, \, \mathrm{E}[\boldsymbol{W}_t \boldsymbol{W}_t^T] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{W}}$ and $\mathrm{E}[\boldsymbol{W}_s \boldsymbol{W}_t^T] = \boldsymbol{0}$ for $s \neq t$.

Time-Frequency Analysis: A Motivation Example

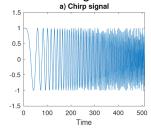


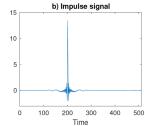
Additional Topics in Regression and Time Series Analysis

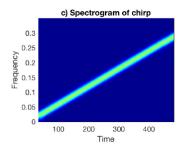


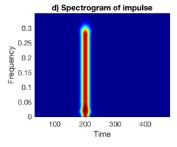
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A spectrogram is a visual representation of the spectrum of frequencies of a signal as it varies with time









Non-Gaussian Time Series Methods



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Some selected references:

- Regression models for time series analysis, Kedem and Fokianos, 2002
- Handbook of discrete-valued time series, edited by Davis, Holan, Lund, Ravishanker, 2016
- Bayesian Dynamic Generalized Linear Models, Gamerman et. al, 2016
- Count Time Series: A Methodological Review, Davis et. al., 2021