Economic Forecasting and Analysis

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- Forecasting vs. Economic forecasting
 - Forecasting is the process of making predictions based on past and present data.
 - Economic forecasting is the process of making predictions about the economy based on economic theory.





The theory of Inflation Prediction

• Monetary model (Hallman, Poter and Small, 1991)

$$\pi_t = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \pi_{t-j} + \theta M gap_{t-i}$$

• Phillips curve (Phillips, 1958)

$$\pi_t = \pi_t^e + \alpha (u_t^n - u_t)$$

• Markup model (Brouwer and Erisson, 1998)

 $lnP_t = ln\mu_0 + \gamma lnUCL_t + \delta LnIP_t + \kappa lnPET_t$

where *UCL*: nominal cost of labor per unit of output, *IP*: import price, and *PET*: petrol price

Introduction to Forecasting (cont.)

- How to produce a high-quality economic forecasts?
 - Understand the ins and outs of the data
 - Have some economic knowledge



- Be familiar with econometric methods
- To widely read financial newspapers and magazines (e.g., Business Week, Economist, Financial Times, Bloomberg, CNBC... etc.)
 - \Rightarrow A good forecasting always needs timeliness and effectiveness.

Note:

- Forecasting is very time-consuming and costly.
- To make a forecast would be worthwhile only for significant effect on the policy making process of the authority.
 - ⇒ Government officials use economic forecasts to determine fiscal and monetary policies.
- Textbook:
- Diebold, F. X. (2007), *Elements of Forecasting*, 4th ed., Cincinnati: South-Western College Publishing. [free download]
- Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani, (2017), *An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R*, Springer, New York. [free download]

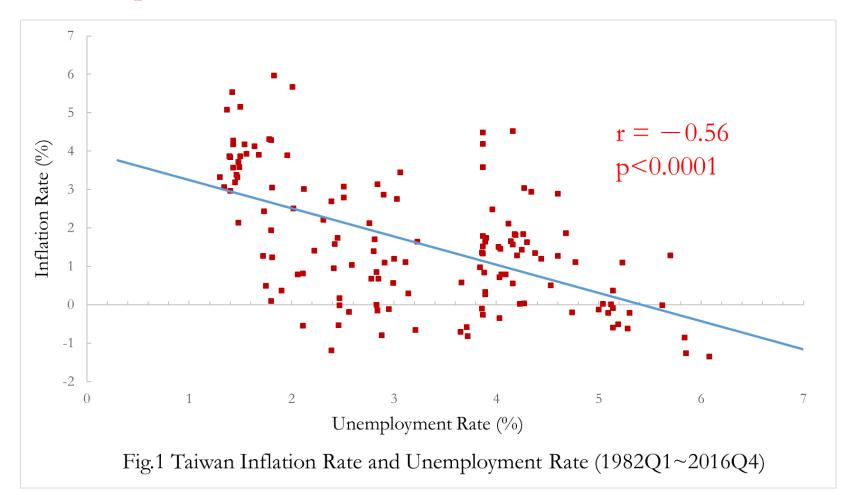
Road Map

Today

- 1st period: Construct a linear regression model
- 2nd period: Estimating the coefficients
- 3rd period: Model Selection
- 4th period: Example for Taiwan Inflation Forecast

Phillips Curve

The **Phillips curve** is an economic concept developed by A. W. Phillips stating that inflation and unemployment have an inverse relationship.



Linear Regression Model

- What is it?
- When to use it?
- How to use it?
- How to explain the results?
- Why? (suitability and assumptions)

Linear Regression Model

• Input vector:
$$X^T = (X_1, X_2, \dots X_P)$$

• A real-valued output: *Y*

$$Y = f(\mathbf{X}) + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j X_j + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$
$$E(Y|\mathbf{X}) = f(\mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j X_j$$

Note: "linear" means?

Model is linear in the parameters β

Model 1:
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1^2 + \beta_2 \frac{1}{X_1} + \varepsilon$$
 Linear

Model 2: $Y = \beta_0^2 + \sqrt{\beta_1}X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 X_3 + \varepsilon$ Non Linear

Model 3: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 \beta_3 X_2 + \varepsilon$ Non Linear

Variables X_j

- Quantitative inputs (continuous or discrete)
- Transformations of quantitative inputs, such as log, square-root or square
- Basis expansions, such as $X_2 = X_1^2$, $X_3 = X_1^3$ leading to a polynomial representation
- Numeric or "dummy" coding of the levels of qualitative inputs
- Interactions between variables, for example $X_4 = X_1 X_2$

Least squares estimate (OLS)

$$\min_{\beta} \text{RSS}(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(y_i - \left(\beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j X_{ij} \right) \right)^2$$

Estimating the Coefficients

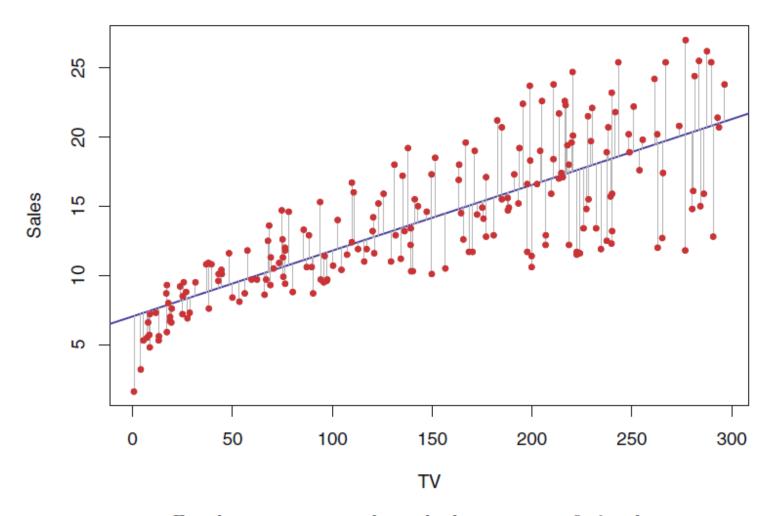


FIGURE 3.1. For the Advertising data, the least squares fit for the regression of sales onto TV is shown. The fit is found by minimizing the sum of squared errors. Each grey line segment represents an error, and the fit makes a compromise by averaging their squares. In this case a linear fit captures the essence of the relationship, although it is somewhat deficient in the left of the plot.

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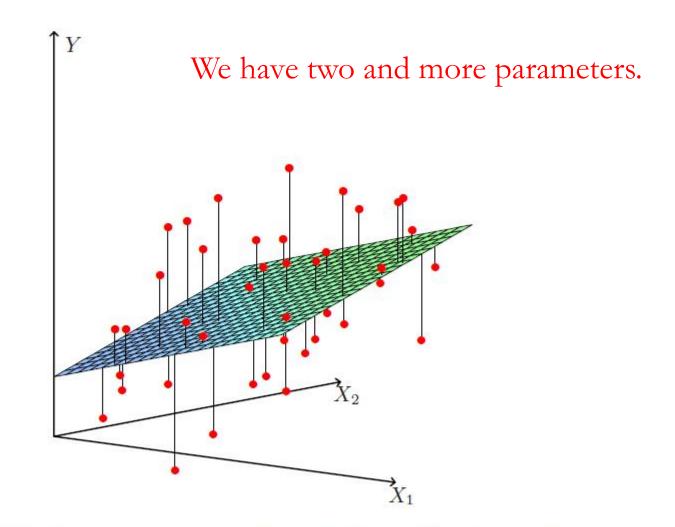


FIGURE 3.1. Linear least squares fitting with $X \in \mathbb{R}^2$. We seek the linear function of X that minimizes the sum of squared residuals from Y.

Estimating the Coefficients (cont.)

The red dot represents the pair of least squares estimates $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$. These values clearly minimize the RSS.

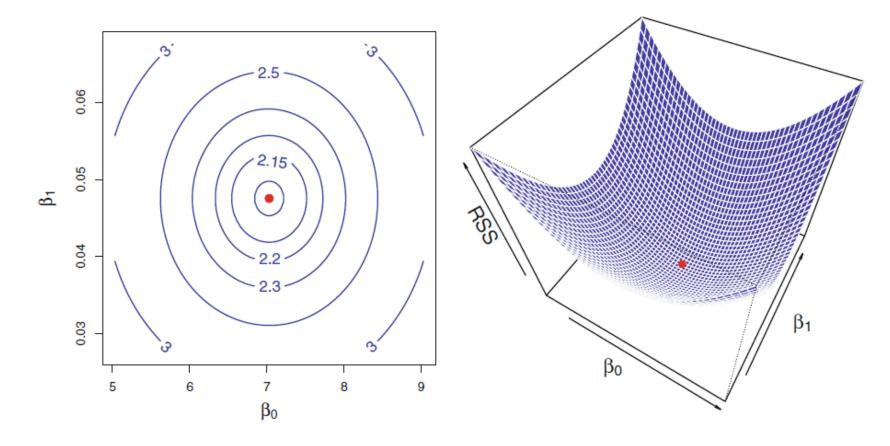


FIGURE 3.2. Contour and three-dimensional plots of the RSS on the Advertising data, using sales as the response and TV as the predictor. The red dots correspond to the least squares estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$, given by (3.4).

Least squares estimate (OLS) $\min_{\beta} \operatorname{RSS}(\beta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^{T}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$ $\frac{\partial \operatorname{RSS}(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = -2\mathbf{X}^{T}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$ $\frac{\partial^{2} \operatorname{RSS}(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{T}} = 2\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X} \text{ positive definite}$

Assuming (for the moment) that X has full column rank, and hence $X^T X$ is positive definite, we set the first derivative to zero

$$\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0$$
$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{T}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{T}\boldsymbol{y}$$

Notes:

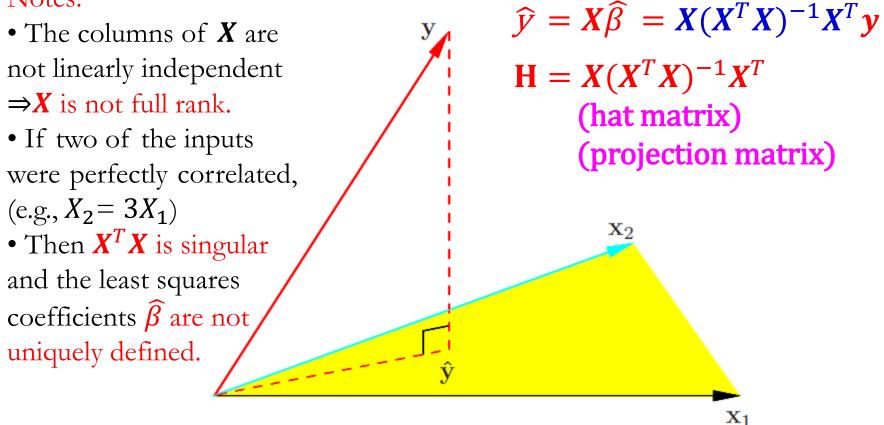


FIGURE 3.2. The N-dimensional geometry of least squares regression with two predictors. The outcome vector \mathbf{y} is orthogonally projected onto the hyperplane spanned by the input vectors \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 . The projection $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ represents the vector of the least squares predictions

Criteria for Model Selection

- With a large number of predictors (*X*), we often would like to determine a smaller subset that exhibit the strongest effects. In order to get the "big picture," we are willing to sacrifice some of the small details.
- From any set of *p* predictors: 2^{*p*} alternative models can be constructed
- All (Possible) Subsets
 - Coefficient of Determination (R^2)
 - Adjusted Coefficient of Determination (R_a^2)
 - Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)
 - Schwarz Bayesian Criterion (SBC)
 - Mallows' Cp

Formulas for Different Criteria

Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_{i} - f(x_{i}))^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}$$

• the proportion of variability in Y that can be explained using X

Adjusted Coefficient of Determination (R_a^2)

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\frac{RSS}{N - p - 1}}{\frac{TSS}{N - 1}} = 1 - \frac{N - 1}{N - p - 1}(1 - R^{2})$$

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

- $AIC = 2(p+1) + N \times \ln(RSS/N)$
- AIC = 2(p+1) 2lnL

Schwarz Bayesian Criterion (SBC) or Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)

• BIC = (p + 1)lnN + N × ln(RSS/N)

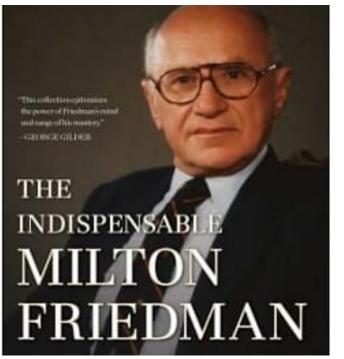
•
$$BIC = (p+1)lnN - 2lnL$$

Mallows' Cp

•
$$C_P = \frac{1}{N} [RSS + 2(p+1)\hat{\sigma}^2]$$

•
$$C_P = \frac{RSS}{\hat{\sigma}^2} + 2(p+1) - N$$

- Y_t : Inflation rate
- X_t :
 - X_{1t} : unemployment rate
 - X_{2t} : M2 growth rate
 - X_{3t} : nonminal interest rate
- Sample period: 1982 Q1~2016 Q4
- Frequency: Quarterly
- Databank: AREMOS



Nobel Prize in Economics, 1976

"Inflation is always and everywhere a monetary phenomenon."
通貨膨脹無論何時何地 皆是一種貨幣現象。

R Codes for Different Criteria

```
#### Using for loop
library(leaps)
ex=read.csv("inf.csv", header=TRUE)
colnames(ex)<-c("date","Y","X1","X2","X3")
attach(ex)
nn < -length(ex[,1])
vars <- c("Y", "X1", "X2", "X3")
N \le list(0,1,2,3)#
COMB <- sapply(N, function(m) combn(x=vars[2:4], m))
COMB2 \leq - list()
k=0
exlmf < -lm(Y \sim X1 + X2 + X3)
SSEF<-deviance(aov(exlmf))
MSEF < -deviance(aov(exlmf))/(nn-4)
res.table<-NULL
res.table0<-NULL
for(i in seq(COMB))
tmp \leq COMB[[i]]
for(j in seq(ncol(tmp)))
```

R Codes for Different Criteria (cont.)

```
\{k \le k + 1\}
if(length(tmp)==0) COMB2[[k]] <- formula(paste("Y~1"))
if(length(tmp)>0) COMB2[[k]] <- formula(paste("Y", "~",
paste(tmp[,j], collapse=" + ")))
exlm0<-lm(COMB2[[k]],data=ex)
exlm<-summary(exlm0)
np < -length(tmp[,1]) + 1
R2p<-exlm$r.squared
R2ap<-exlm$adj.r.squared
SSEp<-deviance(aov(exlm0))
Cp<-SSEp/MSEF-(nn-2*(np))
AICp<-nn*log(SSEp)-nn*log(nn)+2*np
SBCp<-nn*log(SSEp)-nn*log(nn)+log(nn)*np</pre>
#PRESSp<-sum((resid(exlm0)/(1 - lm.influence(exlm0)$hat))^2)</pre>
res.table<-rbind(res.table,c(noquote(paste(tmp[,j], collapse=" + ")),
format(round(c(np,R2p,R2ap,Cp,AICp,BICp),3), nsmall = 3)))
res.table0<-rbind(res.table0,c(np,R2p,R2ap,Cp,AICp,SBCp))}
}
library(xtable)
```

Output (X_{1t} : unemployment rate X_{2t} : M2 growth rate X_{3t} : interest rate)

	[,1]	[,2]	[,3]	[,4]	[,5]	[,6]	[,7]
[1,]		" 1.000"	" 0.000"	" 0.000"	" 89.597"	"146.111"	"149.052"
[2,]	"X1"	" 2.000"	" 0.313"	" 0.308"	" 20.314"	" 95.511"	"101.395"
[3,]	"X2"	" 2.000"	" 0.037"	" 0.030"	" 83.201"	"142.848"	"148.731"
[4,]	"X3"	" 2.000"	" 0.156"	" 0.150"	" 56.026"	"124.319"	"130.202"
[5,]	"X1 + X2"	" 3.000"	" 0.401"	" 0.393"	" 2.268"	"78.297"	"87.122"
[6,]	"X1 + X3"	" 3.000"	" 0.321"	" 0.311"	" 20.486"	" 95.865"	"104.690"
[7,]	"X2 + X3"	" 3.000"	" 0.179"	" 0.167"	" 52.762"	"122.427"	"131.252"
[8,]	"X1 + X2 + X3"	" 4.000"	" 0.402"	" 0.389"	" 4.000"	"80.022"	"91.788"

No.	Variables	Р	<i>R</i> ²	R_a^2	Ср	AIC	SBC
1	None	1	0	0	89.597	146.111	149.052
2	<i>X</i> 1	2	0.313	0.308	20.314	95.511	101.395
3	X2	2	0.037	0.030	83.201	142.848	148.731
4	<i>X</i> 3	2	0.156	0.150	56.026	124.319	130.202
5	X1+X2	3	0.401	0.393	2.268	78.297	87.122
6	X1+X3	3	0.321	0.311	20.486	95.865	104.690
7	X2+X3	3	0.179	0.167	52.762	122.427	131.252
8	X1+X2+X3	4	0.402	0.389	4.000	80.022	91.788

Example for Different Criteria (cont.)

Final regressions model

 $Inflation_{t} = 6.339 - 1.131 \times Unemployment_{t} - 0.095 \times M2 \text{ growth}_{t}$ (p=0.000) (p=0.000) (p=0.000) (p=0.000)

 $Inflation_{t} = 6.091 - 1.086 \times \text{Unemployment}_{t} - 0.100 \times \text{M2 growth}_{t}$ (p=0.000) (p=0.000) (p=0.000)

+0.041 × Nominal interest rate_t (p=0.606)

Thank You for Your Time and Attention!