



Institute for New Economic Thinking





Covid-19 forecasting and implications for macroeconomic forecasting

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Start-up Workshop: Model invariance and constancy in the face of large shocks to the Norwegian macroeconomic system March 22nd, 2022

Route map



Delighted to be joining team on Model invariance and constancy in the face of large shocks to the Norwegian macroeconomic system.



English version of website

(1) Introduction

- (2) Forecasting Covid-19 confirmed cases and deaths
- (3) Forecasting UK unemployment during the pandemic
- (4) Conclusions

Source: OWID







- Explosive roots then slowing, followed by further explosive roots: highly non-stationary
- Abrupt shifts due to measurement errors and policy responses: structural breaks and outliers
- Methodologies for reporting data are also non-stationary:
- ramping up of testing and now reduced testing: stochastic trends
- changing definitions and reporting errors (inclusion of care home cases, definition of covid-related deaths): distributional shifts

Changing seasonality also present.

Two sources of non-stationarity interact with underlying data, reporting process, and changing seasonality.

Challenging data to forecast — requires methods that are adaptable to breaks and measurement changes.



















Large shocks to macroeconomy from pandemic resulting in structural breaks.

Two-way interaction between pandemic and economy:

■ Confirmed cases & deaths grow exponentially ⇒ health policy imposes lockdown ⇒ fall in output ⇒ fall in cases and deaths with lag ⇒ relax lockdowns.

Endogenity between health and economic systems, linked by behavioural responses and economic/political policy responses as well as institutional design.

Creates challenges for forecasting both Covid-19 and macroeconomic outcomes, but also suggests similitude in forecasting approaches.

Given close links between health and economic response to pandemic, forecasting devices that are robust to structural breaks should perform well for both pandemic and economic outcomes.

Forecasting the health/economic system



Economic and health responses operate at different frequencies:

- 7 day ahead forecasts for Covid-19. Huge uncertainty in long horizon forecasts.
- 1-3 month ahead forecasts for unemployment. Data available with substantial lag.

Tying together health and economic systems is difficult, but commonalities in data and forecasting procedures to explore. E.g. combine these methods with Gunnar and Ragnar's work on smooth transition modelling and forecasting in next talk.

Climate Econometric



Two main approaches to forecasting

- Structural models
 - E.g. SIR models in epidemiology
 - E.g. DSGE models in economics
- Time series models

E.g. AR; Theta: Assimakopoulos and Nikolopoulos (2000); Cardt: Castle,

Doornik, and Hendry (2019); Growth curves: Harvey and Kattuman (2020)

Neither aims to model DGP which depends on host, social, environmental, policy variables, etc. Process too complex to model. **Theoretical models supported by available evidence are crucial to policy-making in economics, epidemiology,**

But: history of more simple data-based devices 'out-forecasting' 'structural' models.

Shifts in distributions from past lead to systematic mis-forecasting

Our approach is purely statistical: captures trends and breaks, but not causes.



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We forecast cumulative daily **confirmed cases** and **deaths** Data source: Johns Hopkins University/CSSE – thanks!

- Started mid-March 2020,
- cumulative daily confirmed cases and deaths,
- \approx 50 countries, \approx 50 US states, > 300 England local authorities, 4 models each: 3200 model estimates each time.
- about 4 times a week,
- Short-term forecasting of the Coronavirus Pandemic (*IJF*),
- Statistical (Journal of Clinical Immunology and Immunotherapy).

Forecasts are hosted at www.doornik.com/COVID-19

















A closer look at our forecasts: three days back









Recovery from a break





Recovery from a break







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Covid-19 & implications for macro forecasting



Local authority forecasts slideshow





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Monthly unemployment data





Unemployment data from labour force survey undertaken by International Labour Organisation. Three-monthly survey of 85,000 individuals. Monthly frequency reported as mid-month of three-month average time period. Last obervation in December 2021 is average of unemployment rates over November 2021 - January 2022. Generates monthly lead and lag persistence.

Castle. Doornik and Hendry Covid-19 & implications for macro forecasting Norway: 22 March 2022

Monthly unemployment data





Given 20% fall in GDP in one month (April 2020) from pandemic the effect on unemployment rates very modest, reaching a peak of 5.3% in September 2020.

Structural break in relationship between output & unemployment.

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U is outcome of supply and demand for labour, aggregated across all prospective workers, with labour demand derived from demand for goods and services. **Implies highly complex DGP**.

Instead use a profits proxy, **R**; assumes unemployment falls when hiring labour is profitable, and increases if not profitable.

 $R_t = R_{l,t} - \Delta_{12} y_t - \Delta_{12} p_t$

 $\begin{array}{l} R_{l,t}: \mbox{ long-term interest rate;} \\ \Delta_{12}y_t: \mbox{ annual change in log Gross Value Added;} \\ \Delta_{12}p_t: \mbox{ annual Consumer Price Index inflation rate.} \end{array}$



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Autoregressive distributed lag general model includes:

- Profits proxy; nominal wage inflation; output gap; wage share
- Sufficient dynamics (13 lags on monthly data)
- Saturation estimators for outliers and breaks; Seasonals
- Non-linear transformations



Methodology:

- Set regressors, constant and seasonals as retained and select saturation estimators and non-linearities at $\alpha = 0.0001$.
- **621** (81 fixed) regressors with 215 observations [2002(2)-2019(12)].
- Then select over regressors at $\alpha = 0.001$.
- Transform to stationary representation with ecm.
- Re-select at $\alpha = 0.001$ from equilibrium correction representation including lagged ecm and 12 lags of differenced regressors.



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Congruent, well-specified model passing all diagnostic tests. No indicators or non-linearities retained. Similar impact of R to annual model of excess demand for unemployment reported in Hendry (2001) over 1865–1991. Long-run equilibrium unemployment rate of $\approx 5\%$, matching mean over last 150 years, yet here on non-overlapping monthly data.













23/32



















Failure of superexogeneity



Forecasts are *ex post*, they include contemporaneous data (ΔR_t). Would usually give an information advantage over *ex ante* forecasts.



Test by including step dummies interacting with **R** over pandemic period and select. One significant interaction term retained (March 2020), full sample **R** coefficient close to 2019(12).

Changing relationship between profits proxy and unemployment rate due to policy intervention.

A form of Multiplicative Indicator Saturation (MIS) – successfully detect induced shifts in estimated models following policy intervention.















If structural break from pandemic caused equilibrium mean to shift, robust version of economic model can improve forecast performance.

The model of unemployment is:

$$\widehat{Ur}_{t} = \widehat{\beta}_{0} + \widehat{\beta}_{1}Ur_{t-1} + \widehat{\Gamma}' \mathbf{X}_{t}$$
(1)

where \mathbf{X}_{t} includes the profits proxy and lags of the wage share and nominal wage inflation.

Robust forecasts are obtained by differencing the model after the parameters are estimated:

$$\widehat{Ur}_{\mathsf{T}+1|\mathsf{T}} = \mathsf{Ur}_{\mathsf{T}} + \widehat{\beta}_1 \Delta \mathsf{Ur}_{\mathsf{T}} + \widehat{\Gamma}' \Delta \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{T}}$$
(2)

thereby removing the intercept and embedded means in the exogenous regressors.

In practice a local average could replace Ur_T for a smoother forecast device, see Martinez, Castle, and Hendry (2021).





	Мо	del	Rot	oust	Cardt		
Н	RMSE	MAPE	RMSE	MAPE	RMSE	MAPE	
1	0.19	3.41	0.17	3.14	0.16	2.84	
2	0.40	6.98	0.38	6.78	0.30	5.26	
3	0.60	10.87	0.63	11.66	0.43	7.67	

Table: Forecast evaluation: bold indicates smallest root mean square forecast error (RMSE) and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), and italics denote second smallest. H is forecast horizon. Evaluated over 2020(1)-2021(12), giving 24 1-step ahead forecasts.



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- Cardt dominates forecast performance at all horizons.
- Robust is preferred to model based forecasts for shorter horizons, where the robust device is designed for 1-step ahead forecasts.
- Model based forecasts poorest despite conditioning on contemporaneous information.





OXE



-	Model		Robust		Cardt		Switching		Average	
Н	RMSE	MAPE	RMSE	MAPE	RMSE	MAPE	RMSE	MAPE	RMSE	MAPE
1	0.19	3.41	0.17	3.14	0.16	2.84	0.16	2.80	0.15	2.56
2	0.40	6.98	0.38	6.78	0.30	5.26	0.29	5.11	0.30	5.17
3	0.60	10.87	0.63	11.66	0.43	7.67	0.47	8.58	0.46	8.25

Table: Switching denotes 0/1 weights on Model and Cardt with weight 1 on Cardt for 2020(3)(4)(5)(9)(10)(11)(12),2021(1)(2)(12). Average has equal weights on Model, Robust and Cardt.

Cardt, switching and average all have similar forecast performance.

All substantially improve on model forecasts.



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Forecasting under spotlight during pandemic. **But data is messy:** need methods that can handle non-stationary data subject to breaks and revisions.

Cannot avoid forecast errors, but want to recover quickly afterwards

Extrapolative statistical forecasts:

- can supplement explanatory models often perform better as soon as breaks occur.
- but cannot be used to assess policy interventions or undertake scenario analysis.

Need both types of forecasting model.

Large forecast errors for econometric model relative to those of Cardt show success of furlough scheme in maintaining employment during lockdown.

Little evidence that using Covid-19 forecasts to signal structural breaks in macroeconomy and switch to more adaptive forecasts helps.



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Clements, M. P. and D. F. Hendry (1998). Forecasting Economic Time Series. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Harvey, A. C. and P. Kattuman (2020). Time series models based on growth curves with applications to forecasting coronavirus. *Harvard Data Science Review Special issue 1*.

Hendry, D. F. (2001). Modelling UK inflation, 1875-1991. Journal of Applied Econometrics 16, 255–275.

Martinez, A. B. and Castle, J. L. and Hendry, D. F. (2021). Smooth Robust Multi-Step Forecasting Methods. *Advances in Econometrics* Forthcoming.



$$\begin{split} \widehat{\boldsymbol{U}}_t &= & 0.0018 + 0.976 \boldsymbol{U}_{t-1} + 0.025 R_t - 0.030 R_{t-2} - 0.021 \Delta_{12} \boldsymbol{w}_{t-2} \\ &+ 0.024 \left(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{p} - \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{l} \right)_{t-2} + \text{seasonals} \\ &\widehat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} = 0.09\%; \; \boldsymbol{F}_{ar}(7,191) = 1.26; \; \boldsymbol{F}_{arch}(7,201) = 0.43; \; \boldsymbol{\chi}^2(2) = 0.44; \\ & \boldsymbol{F}_{hetero}(21,193) = 1.04; \; \boldsymbol{F}_{reset}(2,196) = 1.73; \; \boldsymbol{T} = 2002(2) - 2019(12) \end{split}$$

Solved long-run solution:

$\widehat{d} = U - $	0.049	+ 0.46 R +	$1.32 \Delta_{12} w -$	1.49	(w - p - y + l)
	(0.016)	(0.268)	(0.364)	(0.468)	



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Long-run equilibrium unemployment rate of $\approx 5\%$, matching mean over last 150 years, yet here on non-overlapping monthly data.

No indicators or non-linearities retained.

Model fit





Return



$$\begin{split} \widehat{\Delta U}_t &= + \underbrace{0.0003}_{(0.002)} + \underbrace{0.20}_{(0.067)} \Delta U_{t-1} + \underbrace{0.024 \Delta R_t}_{(0.009)} - \underbrace{0.013 \widehat{d}_{t-1}}_{(0.002)} + \text{seasonals} \\ &\widehat{\sigma} = 0.09\%; \ R^2 = 0.65; \ F_{ar}(7,193) = 1.54; \ F_{arch}(7,201) = 1.06; \\ &\chi^2(2) = 0.85; \ F_{hetero}(17,197) = 0.94; \ F_{reset}(2,198) = 1.93; \end{split}$$



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