

Technical Trading Rules

The Econometrics of Predictability

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- Technical trading is one form or predictive modeling
- It is mostly a graphical, rather than statistical tool
- Constructs rules based on price movements
- Rules, while often used graphically, can usually be written down in mathematical expressions
- This can be used to formally allow for testing for technical trading rules
 - Testing the rules is going to be the basis of the assignments this term
 - Using appropriate methodology for evaluation will be important

- Daily DJIA for 12 months
- Use high, low and close
- Compute the rules, but focus on the visualization of the rule
- Rule implementation
 - Red dot is sell
 - Green dot is buy

Definition ($x\%$ Buy Filter Rule)

A $x\%$ filter rule buys when price has increased by $x\%$ from the previous low, and liquidates when the price has declined $x\%$ from the high measured since the position was opened.

Definition ($x\%$ Sell Filter Rule)

A $x\%$ filter rule sells when price has declined by $x\%$ from the previous high, and liquidates when the price has increased $x\%$ from the low measured since the position was opened.

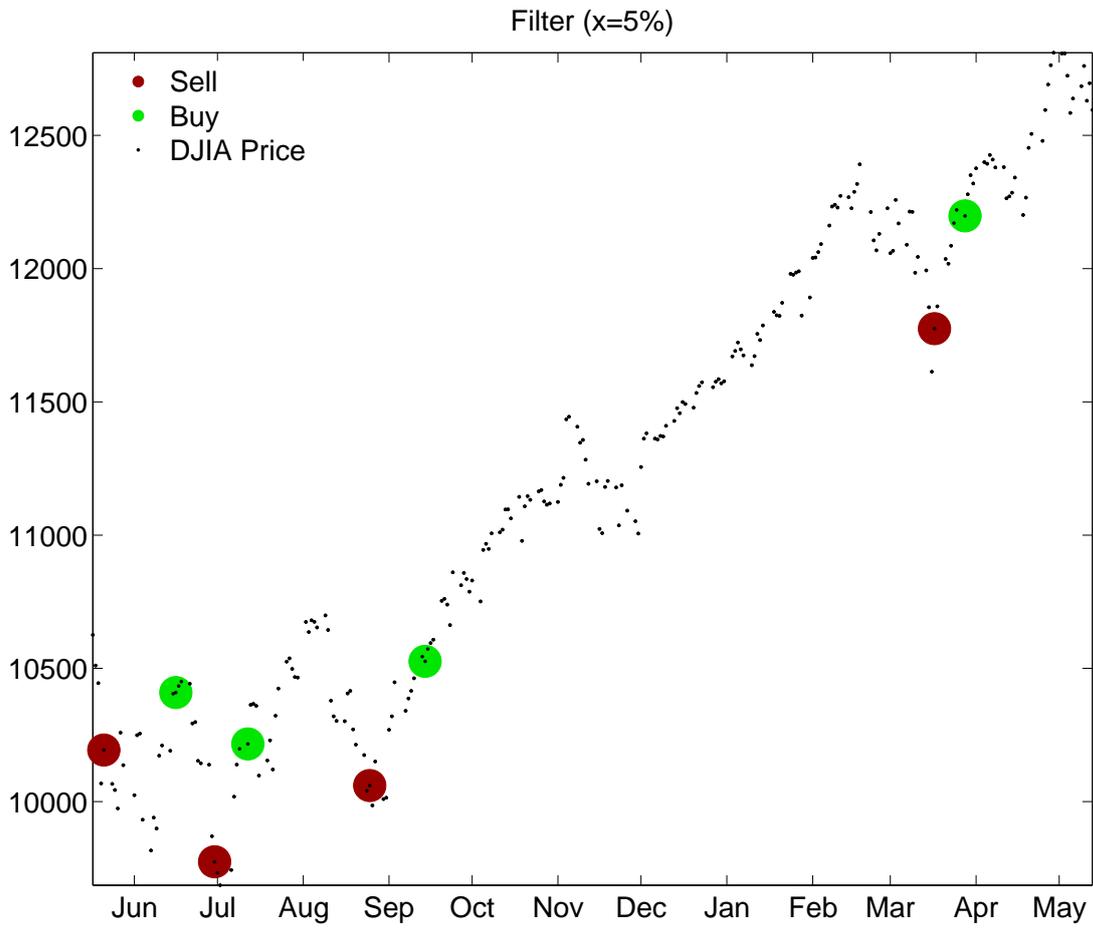
- These are a momentum rule
- If using both rules with the same percentage, will always have an long or short position, since after a decline of $x\%$, a short is opened, and after a rise of $x\%$ a long is opened

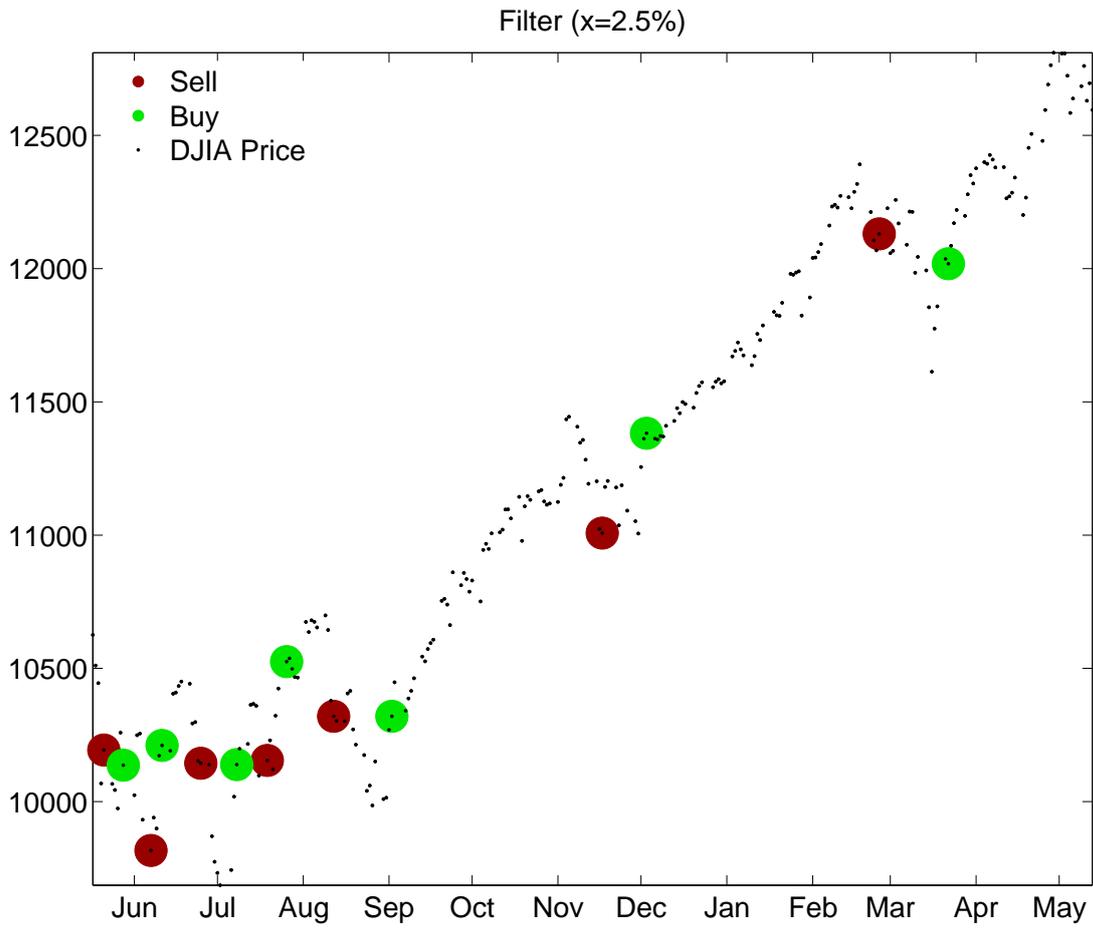
- A modified rule allows for periods where there is no long or short

Definition ($x\%/y\%$ Buy Filter Rule)

A $x\%$ filter rule buys when price has moved up by $x\%$ from the previous low, and liquidates when the price has declined $y\%$ from the high measured since the position was opened.

- The sell rule is similarly defined, only using the relative low
- $y \leq x$, and $y = x$ then reduces to previous rules
- Do not have to use both long and short rules





Definition (Moving-Average Oscillator)

The moving average oscillator requires two parameters, m and n , $n > m$,

$$MA_t = m^{-1} \sum_{i=t-m+1}^t P_i - n^{-1} \sum_{i=t-n+1}^t P_i$$

- This is obviously the difference between an m period MA and a n period MA
- Momentum rule
- It is used as an indicator to buy when positive or sell when negative
 - Usually used to initiate a trade when it first crosses, not simply based on sign

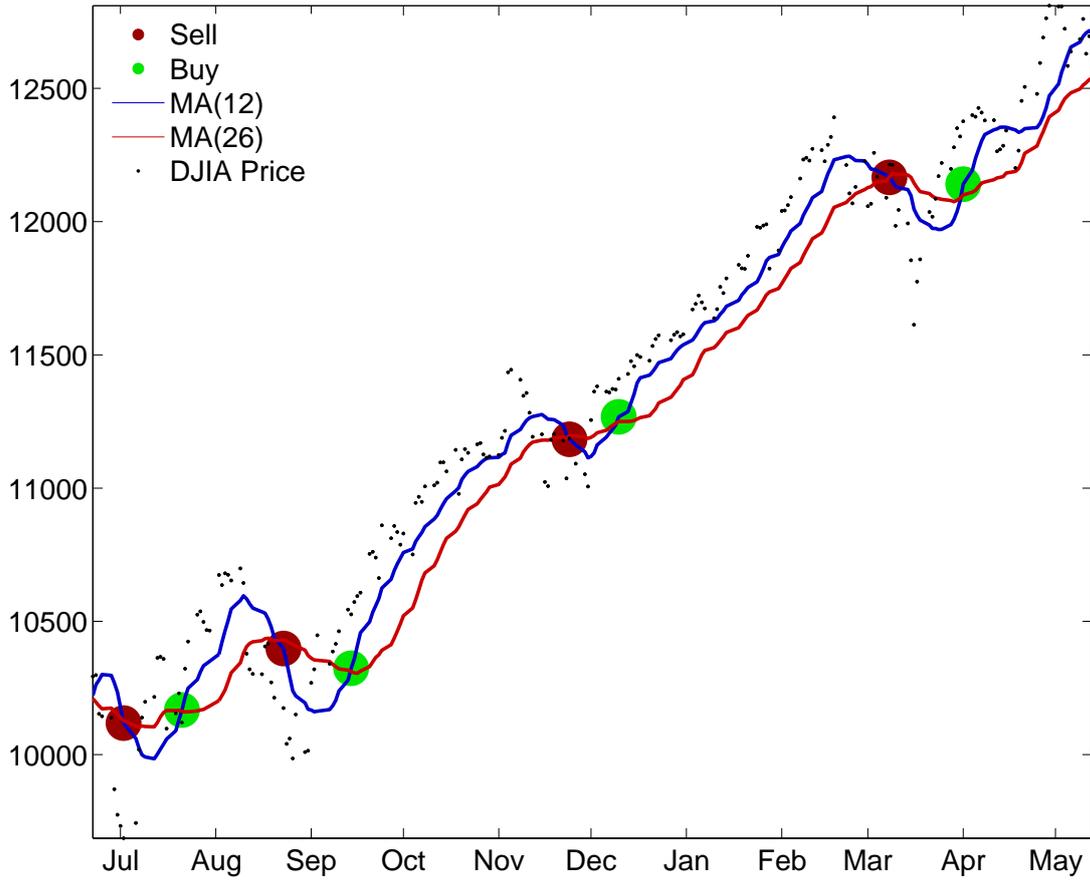
- MA_t is not enough to determine a buy rule, since the direction of the crossing matters
- Formally the buy and sell can be defined as the difference of MA_t

$$\text{Buy if } \text{sgn}(MA_t) - \text{sgn}(MA_{t-1}) = 2$$

$$\text{Sell if } \text{sgn}(MA_t) - \text{sgn}(MA_{t-1}) = -2$$

- sgn is the signum function which returns $x/|x|$ for $x \neq 0$ and 0 for $x = 0$

Moving Average Oscillator (m=12,n=26)





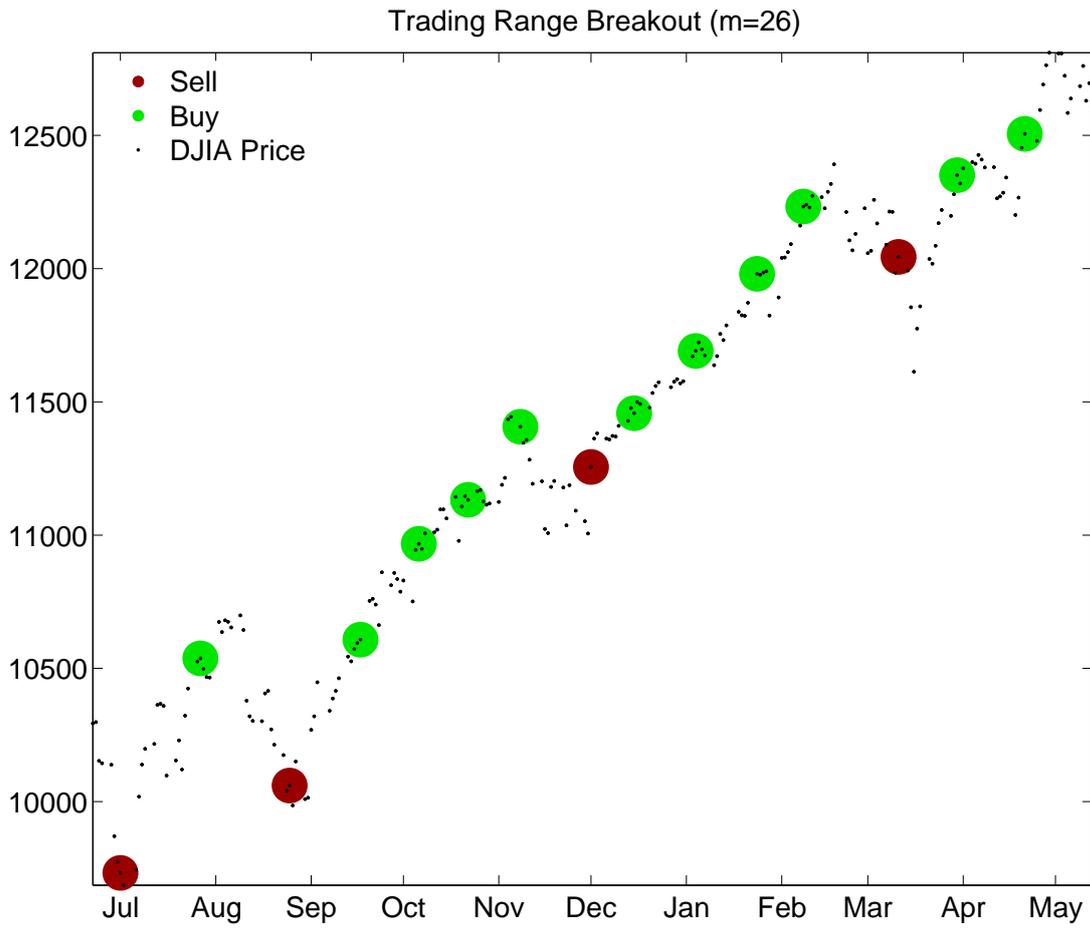
Definition (Trading Range Breakout)

The trading range break out is takes one parameter, m , and is defined

$$TRB_t = \left(P_t > \max \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right) \right) - \left(P_t < \min \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right) \right)$$

- Positive values (1) indicate that the price is above the m -period *moving maximum*, negative values -1 indicate that it is below the m -period *moving minimum*.
- Momentum rule
- Buy on positive signals, sell on negative signals
- If no signal, then takes the value 0

Trading Range Breakout



Definition ($x\%$ Channel Breakout)

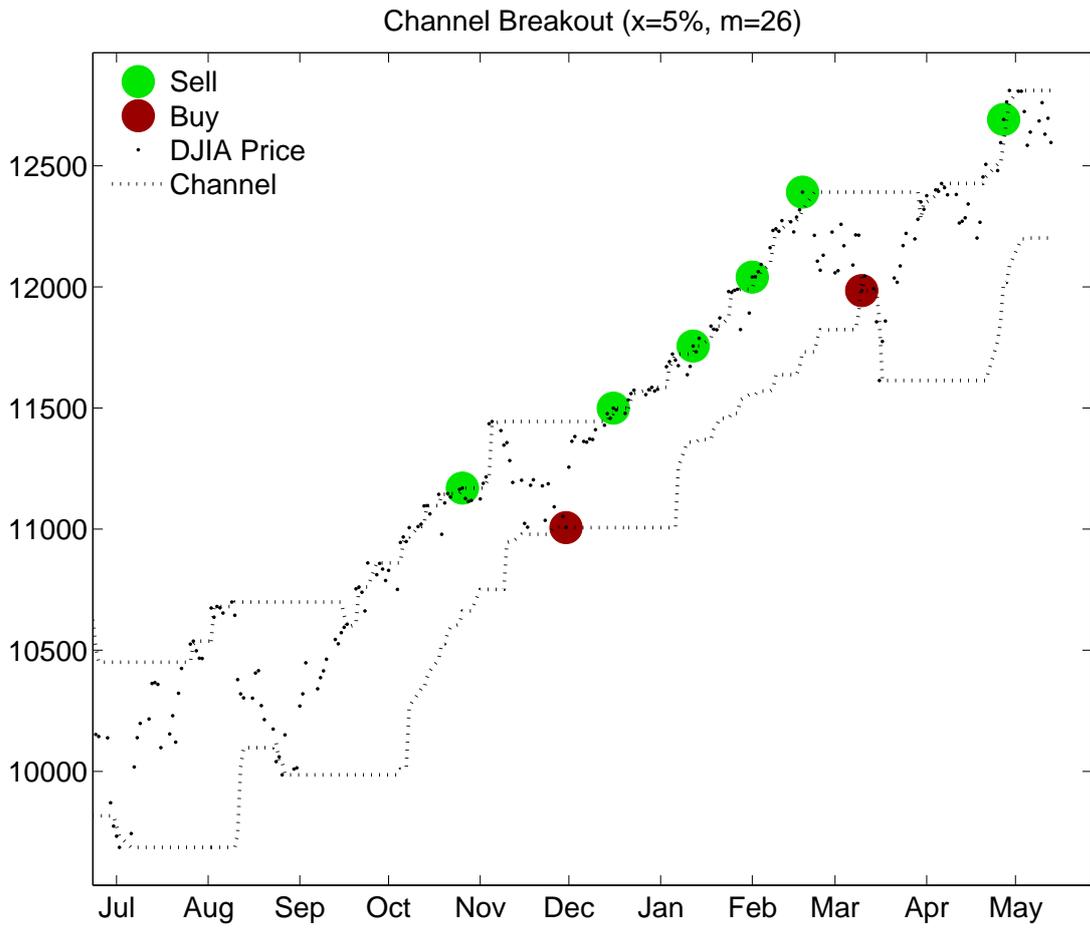
The $x\%$ channel breakout rule, using a m -day channel, is defined

$$\text{Buy if } P_t > \max \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right) \cap \frac{\max \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right)}{\min \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right)} < (1 + x)$$

$$\text{Buy if } P_t < \min \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right) \cap \frac{\max \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right)}{\min \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right)} < (1 + x)$$

- Momentum rule
- $x\%$ denotes the channel
- Modification of trading range breakout with second condition which may reduce sensitivity to volatility

Channel Range Breakout



Definition (Moving Average Convergence/Divergence (MACD))

The moving-average convergence/divergence indicator takes three parameters, m , n and d , and is defined

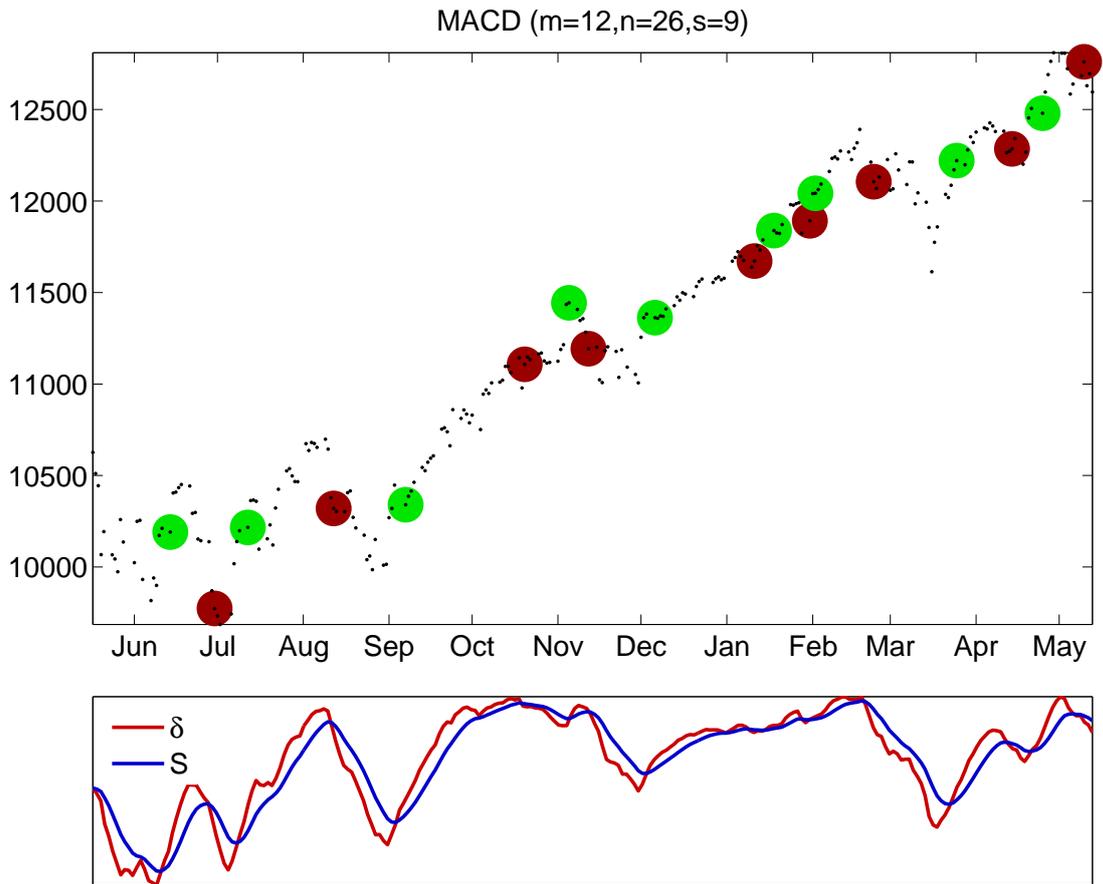
$$\delta_t = (1 - \lambda_m) \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \lambda_m^i P_{t-i} - (1 - \lambda_n) \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n^i P_{t-i}$$

$$S_t = (1 - \lambda_d) \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \lambda_d^i \delta_t$$

- Pronounced MAK-D
- $\lambda_m = 1 - \frac{2}{m+1}$, $\lambda_n = 1 - \frac{2}{n+1}$, $\lambda_d = 1 - \frac{2}{d+1}$
- S_t is the signal line
- Plot often has δ and S , and a histogram to indicate the difference $\delta_t - S_t$
- Difference is used to predict trends

$$\text{Buy if } \text{sgn}(\delta_t - S_t) - \text{sgn}(\delta_{t-1} - S_{t-1}) = 2$$

$$\text{Sell if } \text{sgn}(\delta_t - S_t) - \text{sgn}(\delta_{t-1} - S_{t-1}) = -2$$



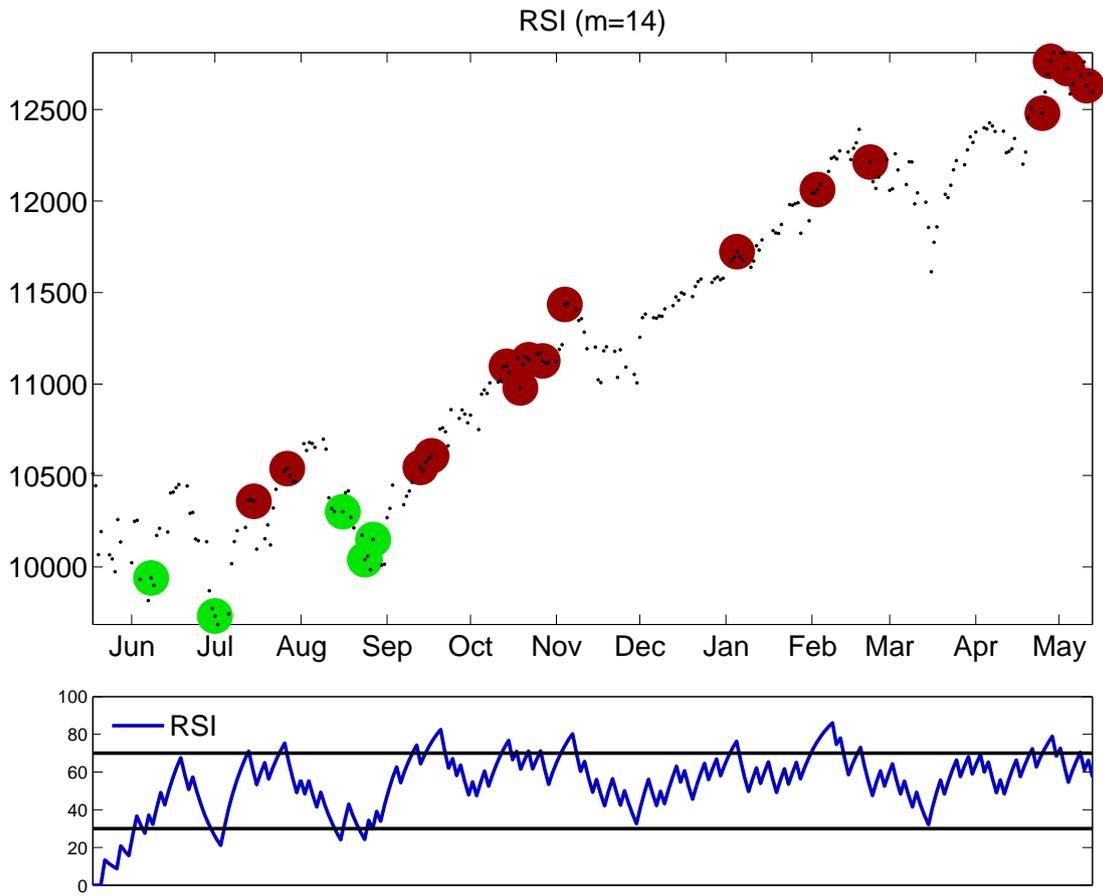
Definition (Relative Strength Indicator)

The relative strength indicator takes one parameter m and is defined as

$$RSI = 100 - \frac{100}{1 + \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \lambda^i I[(p_{t-i} - p_{t-i-1}) > 0]}{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \lambda^i I[(p_{t-i} - p_{t-i-1}) < 0]}}, \quad \lambda = 1 - \frac{2}{m + 1}$$

- The core of the indicator are two EWMA's
- Each EWMA is based on indicator variables or positive (top) or negative (bottom) returns
- If all positive, then indicator will equal 100, if all negative, indicator will equal 0
- EWMA can be replaced with MA
- Buy signals are indicated if RSI is *below* some threshold (e.g. 30), sell if *above* a different threshold (e.g. 70)
- RSI is a reversal rule

Relative Strength Indicator (Reversal)

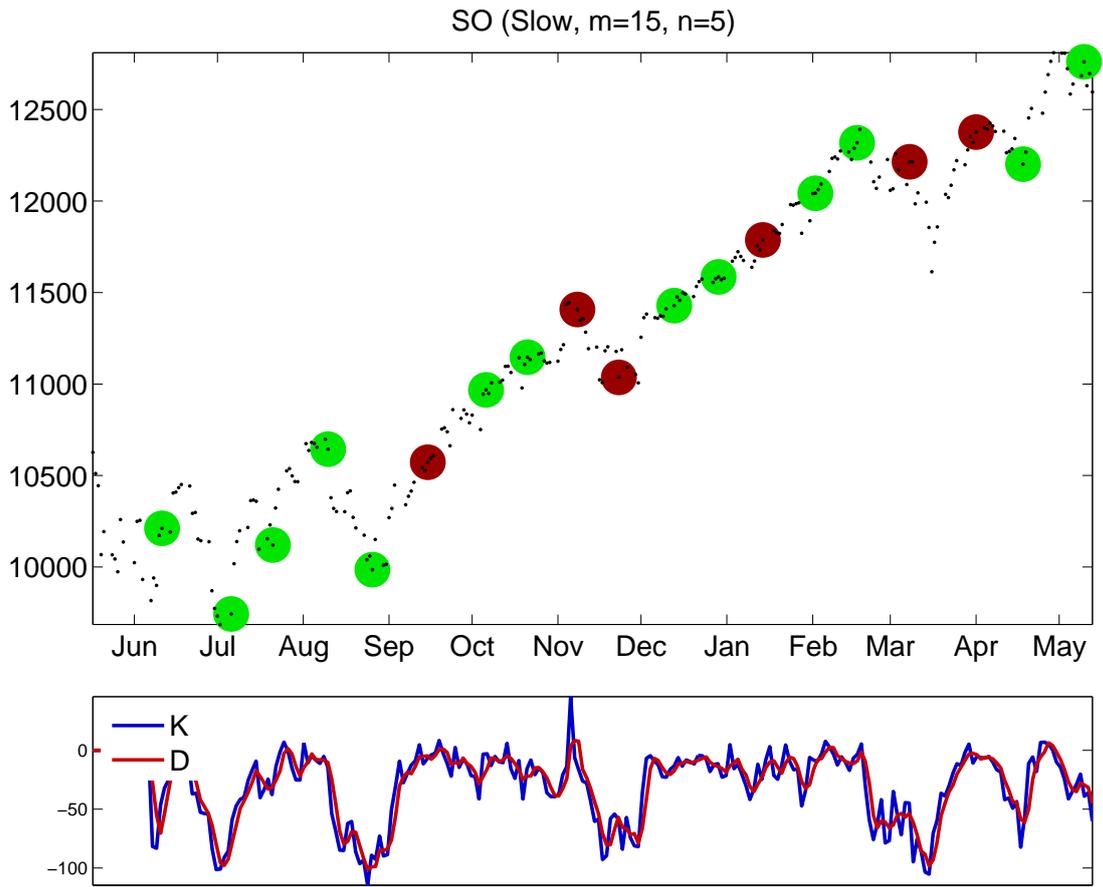


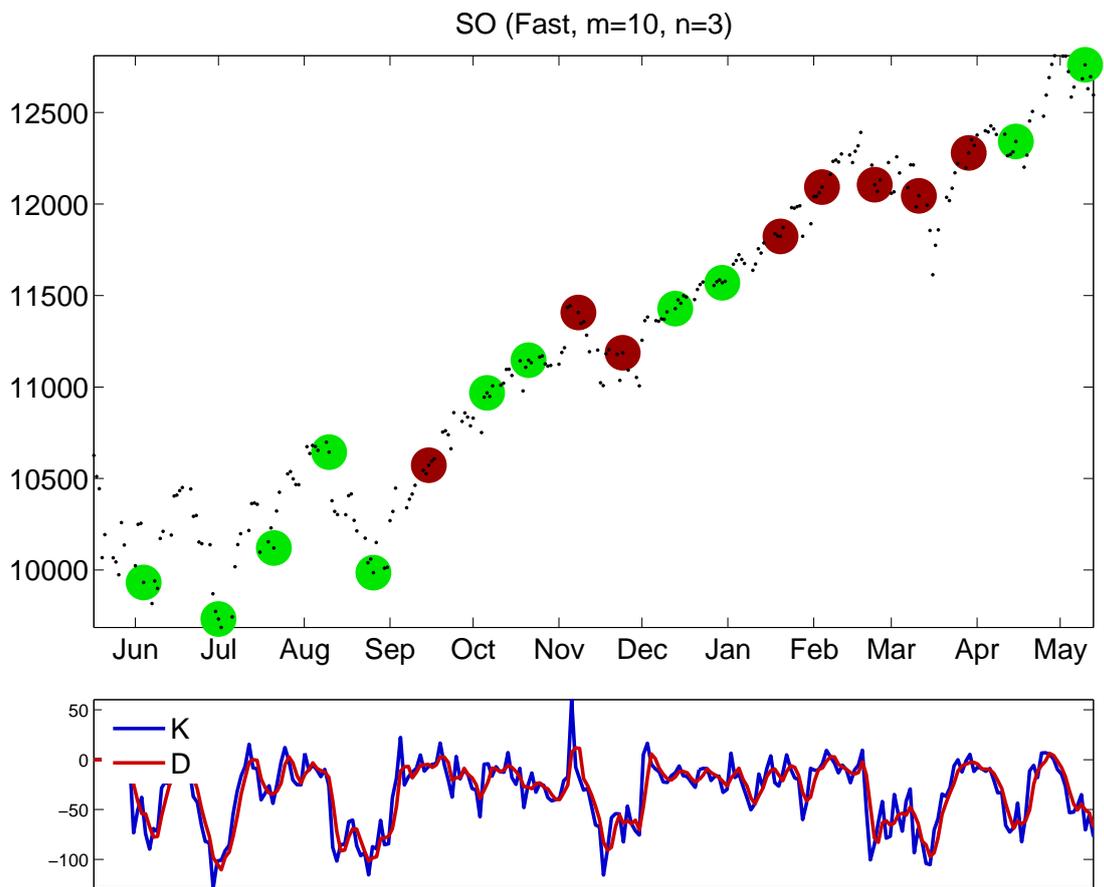
Definition (Stochastic Oscillator)

A stochastic oscillator takes two parameters m and n and is defined as

$$\%K_t = 100 \times \frac{P_t - \min \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right)}{\max \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right) - \min \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right)}$$
$$\%D_t = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \%K_{t-i+1}$$

- Trading rules are based on intersections of the lines *and* the direction of of the intersection
- If $\%K_{t-1} < \%D_{t-1}$ and $\%K_t > \%D_t$, then a buy signal is indicated
- If $\%K_{t-1} > \%D_{t-1}$ and $\%K_t < \%D_t$, then a sell signal is indicated
- Often implemented using *fast* and *slow* periods, with feedback between the two



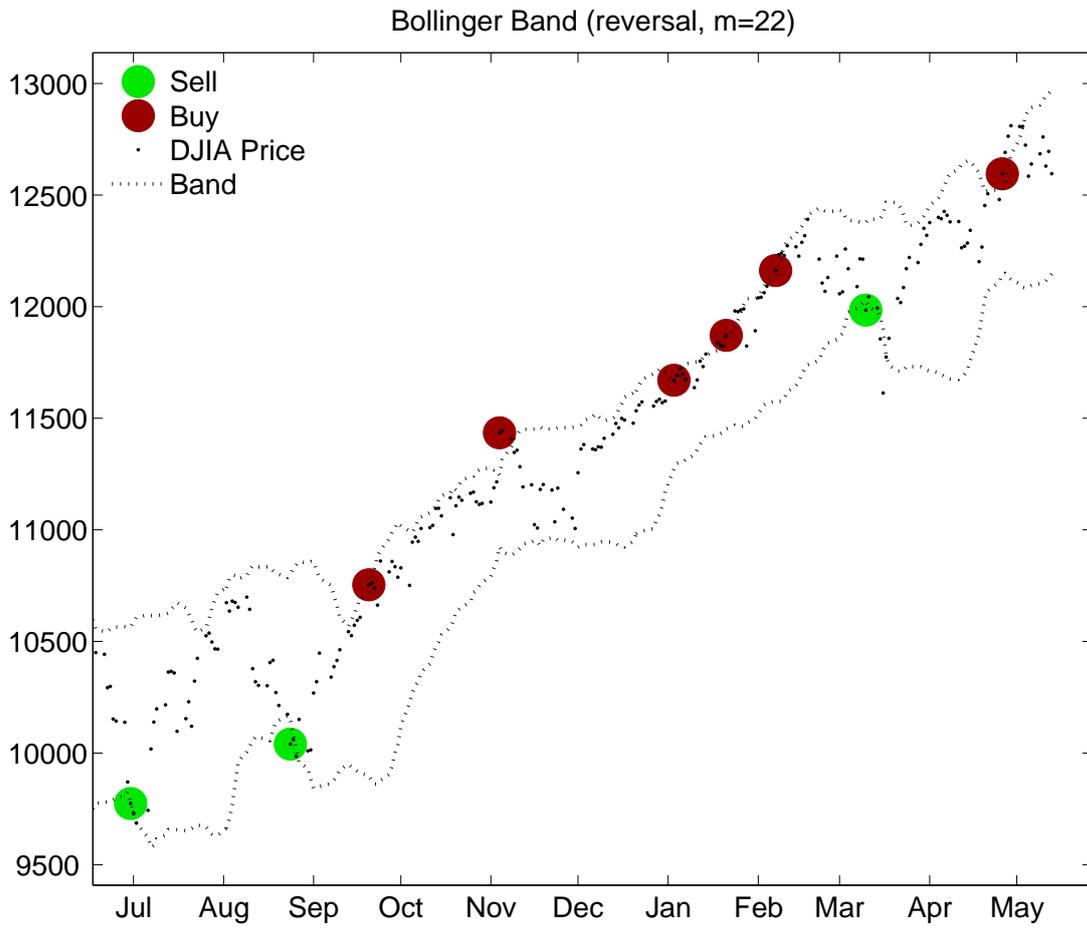


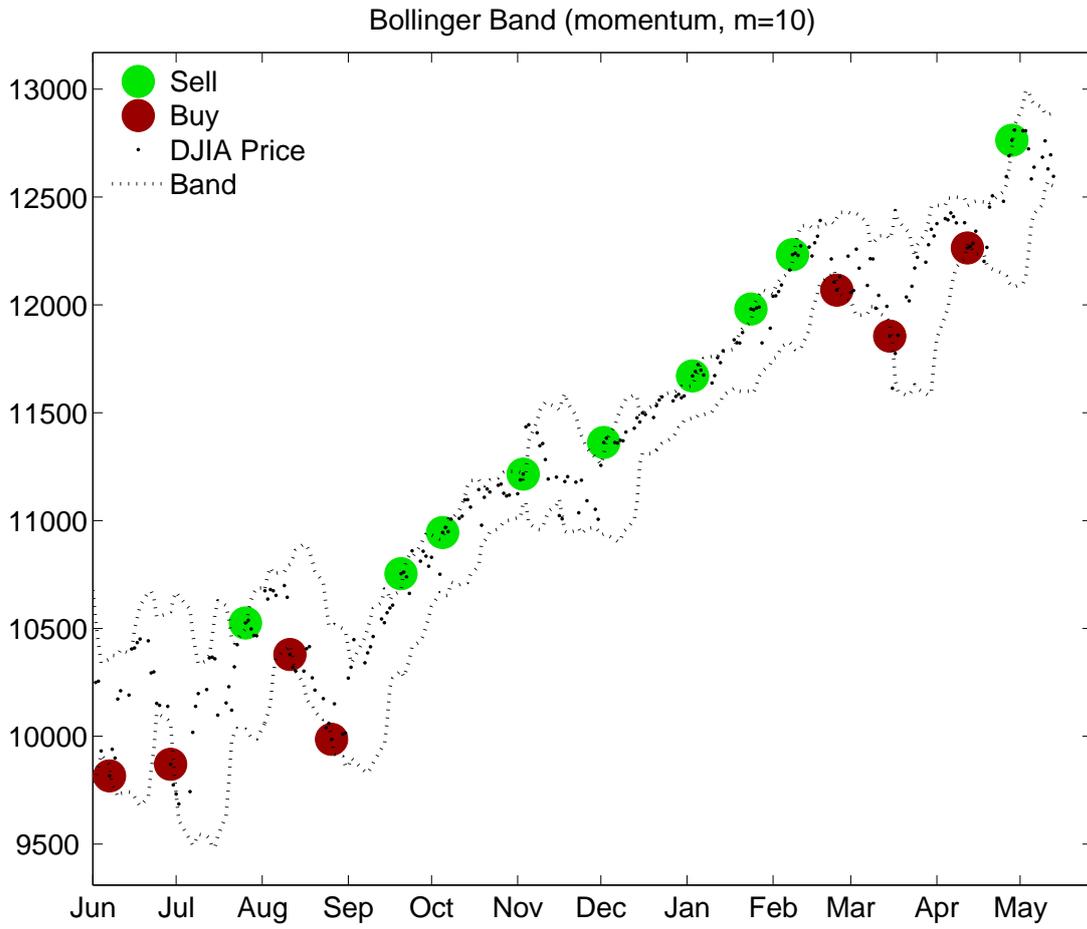
Definition (Bollinger Bands)

Bollinger bands plot the m -day moving average and the MA plus/minus 2 times the m -day moving standard deviation, where the moving averages are defined

$$MA_t = m^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m P_{t-i+1}, \sigma_t = \sqrt{m^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{(P_{t-i+1} - P_{t-i})}{P_{t-i}} \right)^2}$$

- Rules can be based on prices leaving the bands, and possibly then crossing of the moving average
- For example, buy when price hit bottom (reversal) and then sell when it hits the MA
- Alternatively buy when it hits the top (strong upward trend)





- Momentum is a common strategy
- Can construct a momentum rule as

$$S_t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } P_t > P_{t-d} \\ 0 & \text{if } P_t \leq P_{t-d} \end{cases}$$

- Technically (trivial) moving average rule with d -day delay filter

Definition (On-Balance Volume)

On-Balance Volume (OBV) plots the difference between moving averages of signed daily volume, defined

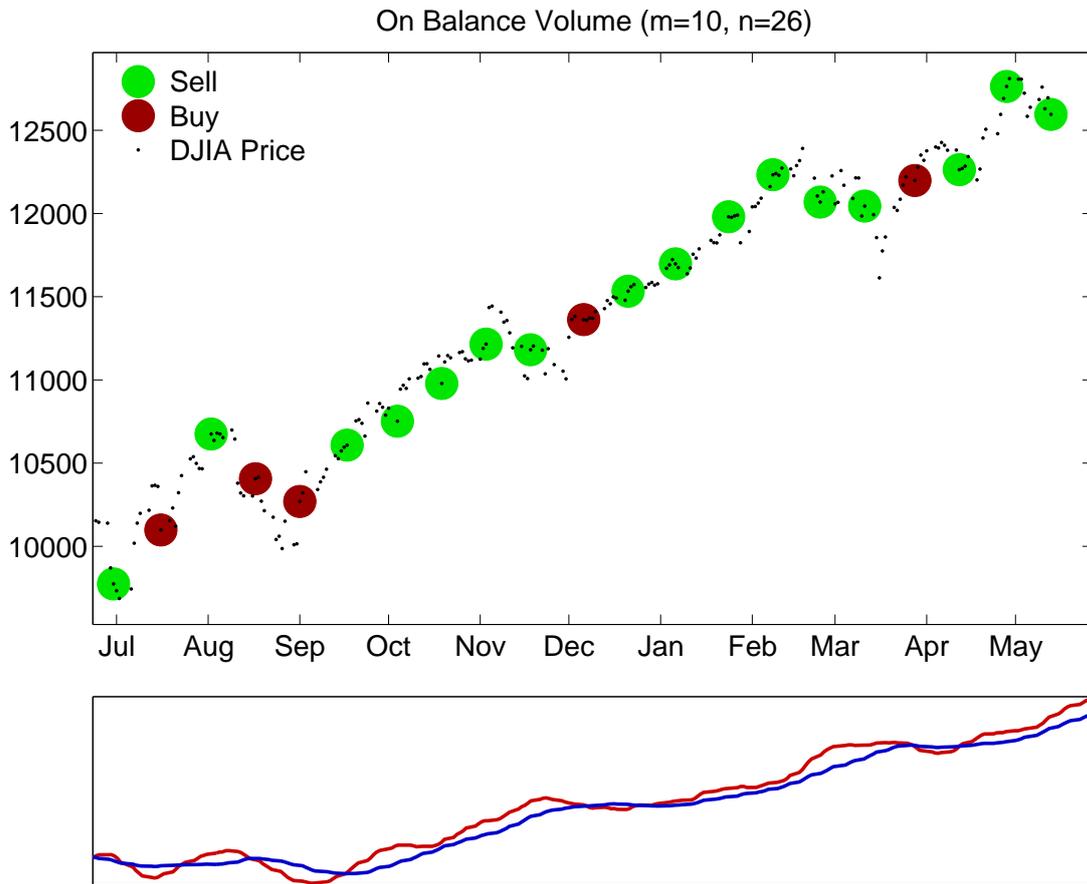
$$OBV_t = \sum_{s=1}^t VOL_s D_s$$

where VOL_s is the volume in period s , D_s is a dummy which is 1 if $P_t > P_{t-1}$ and -1 otherwise, and the trading signal is

$$S_t = \begin{cases} 1 & MA_{m,t}^{OBV} > MA_{n,t}^{OBV} \\ 0 & MA_{m,t}^{OBV} \leq MA_{n,t}^{OBV} \end{cases}$$

where $MA_{q,t}^{OBV} = q^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^q OBV_{t-i-1}$, $q = m, n$, $m < n$.

- Most rules make use of price signals
- OBV mixes volume information with indicator variable



- Many ways rules can be modified
- MAs and EWMA's can be swapped
- Can use a d -day delay filter to stagger execution of trade from signal
- Can use $b\%$ -band with some filters to reduce frequency of execution
 - Requires the price price (or fast signal) to be $b\%$ above the band (or slow signal)
 - Relevant for most rules
 - Examples
 - Moving-Average Oscillator: Requires fast MA to be larger than $1 + b$ times slow for a buy signal, and smaller than $1 - b$ for a sell signal
 - Trading Range Breakout/Channel Breakout: Use $1 + b$ times max and $1 - b$ times min
- Can use k -day holding period, so that positions are held for k -days and other signal are ignored



- Most technical rules are interpreted as buy, neutral or sell – 1, 0 or -1
- Essentially applies a step function to the trading signal
- Can use a other continuous, monotonic increasing functions, although not clear which ones
- One options is to run a regression

$$r_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 S_t + \epsilon_t$$

- S_t is a signal is computed using information up-to and including t
 - Can be discrete or continuous
- Maps to an expected return, which can then be used in Sharpe-optimization

- Technical trading rules can be combined
- Not obvious how to combine when discrete
- Method 1: Majority vote
 - Count number of rules with signs 1, 0 or -1
- Method 2: Aggregation
 - Compute sum of indicators divided by number of indicators

$$\tilde{S}_t = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k S_{k,t}}{k}$$

and go long/short \tilde{S}_t

- Bound by 100% long and 100% short

- Obvious strategy is to look at returns, conditional on signal
- Important to have a benchmark model
 - Often buy and hold, or some other much less dynamic strategy
- Obvious test is t -statistic of difference in mean return between the active strategy and the benchmark
- Can also examine predictability for other aspects of distribution
 - Volatility
 - Large declines



- One of the first systematically test trading rules
- Focused on two rules:
 - Moving Average Oscillator
 - Trading Range Breakout
- (Controversially) documented evidence of excess returns to technical trading rules
- Returns were large enough to cover transaction costs

- Moving Average Oscillators implemented for
 - $m = 1, n = 50$
 - $m = 1, n = 150$
 - $m = 5, n = 150$
 - $m = 1, n = 200$
 - $m = 2, n = 200$
- Use both the standard rule and one with a 1%-band filter
- Standard is implemented by taking the position and holding for 10 days, ignoring all other signals
- $b\%$ -band version:
 - Requires an exceedence by 1% of the slow MA, but no crossing

$$\text{Buy if } \left(\frac{MA_t}{n^{-1} \sum_{i=t-n+1}^t P_i} \right) > \frac{b}{100}, \text{ Sell if } \left(\frac{MA_t}{n^{-1} \sum_{i=t-n+1}^t P_i} \right) < -\frac{b}{100}$$

- If $b > 0$ then some days may have no signal
- If $b = 0$ then all days are buys or sells

- Trading range breakout is implemented for
 - $m = 50$
 - $m = 100$
 - $m = 150$
- Implemented using the standard and with a 1% band
- $b\%$ band version is

$$TRB_t = \left(P_t > \left(1 + \frac{b}{100} \right) \max \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right) \right) \\ - \left(P_t < \left(1 - \frac{b}{100} \right) \min \left(\{P_i\}_{i=t-m}^{t-1} \right) \right)$$

- A total of 26 rules are created
 - MAO: $5 (m, n) \times 2$ (Fixed or Variable Window) $\times 2$ ($b = 0, .01$)
 - TRB: $3 (m) \times 2$ ($b = 0, .01$)
- DJIA from 1897 until 1986
- Main result is that there appears to be predictability using these rules
- Strongest results were for the fixed windows MAO with $m = 1$, $n = 200$ and $b = .01$
- TRB with $m = 150$ and $b = .01$ also had a strong result
- Report
 - Number of buy and sell signals
 - Mean return during buy and sell signals
 - Probability of positive return for buy and sell signals
 - Mean return of a portfolio which both buys and sells

Period	Test	$N(\text{Buy})$	$N(\text{Sell})$	Buy	Sell	Buy > 0	Sell > 0	Buy-Sell
1897–1986	(1, 50, 0)	14240	10531	0.00047 (2.68473)	-0.00027 (-3.54645)	0.5387	0.4972	0.00075 (5.39746)
	(1, 50, 0.01)	11671	8114	0.00062 (3.73161)	-0.00032 (-3.56230)	0.5428	0.4942	0.00094 (6.04189)
	(1, 150, 0)	14866	9806	0.00040 (2.04927)	-0.00022 (-3.01836)	0.5373	0.4962	0.00062 (4.39500)
	(1, 150, 0.01)	13556	8534	0.00042 (2.20929)	-0.00027 (-3.28154)	0.5402	0.4943	0.00070 (4.68162)
	(5, 150, 0)	14858	9814	0.00037 (1.74706)	-0.00017 (-2.61793)	0.5368	0.4970	0.00053 (3.78784)
	(5, 150, 0.01)	13491	8523	0.00040 (1.97876)	-0.00021 (-2.78835)	0.5382	0.4942	0.00061 (4.05457)
	(1, 200, 0)	15182	9440	0.00039 (1.93865)	-0.00024 (-3.12526)	0.5358	0.4962	0.00062 (4.40125)
	(1, 200, 0.01)	14105	8450	0.00040 (2.01907)	-0.00030 (-3.48278)	0.5384	0.4924	0.00070 (4.73045)
	(2, 200, 0)	15194	9428	0.00038 (1.87057)	-0.00023 (-3.03587)	0.5351	0.4971	0.00060 (4.26535)
	(2, 200, 0.01)	14090	8442	0.00038 (1.81771)	-0.00024 (-3.03843)	0.5368	0.4949	0.00062 (4.16935)

Test	$N(\text{Buy})$	$N(\text{Sell})$	Buy	Sell	Buy > 0	Sell > 0	Buy-Sell
(1, 50, 0)	340	344	0.0029 (0.5796)	-0.0044 (-3.0021)	0.5882	0.4622	0.0072 (2.6955)
(1, 50, 0.01)	313	316	0.0052 (1.6809)	-0.0046 (-3.0096)	0.6230	0.4589	0.0098 (3.5168)
(1, 150, 0)	157	188	0.0066 (1.7090)	-0.0013 (-1.1127)	0.5987	0.5691	0.0079 (2.0789)
(1, 150, 0.01)	170	161	0.0071 (1.9321)	-0.0039 (-1.9759)	0.6529	0.5528	0.0110 (2.8534)
(5, 150, 0)	133	140	0.0074 (1.8397)	-0.0006 (-0.7466)	0.6241	0.5786	0.0080 (1.8875)
(5, 150, 0.01)	127	125	0.0062 (1.4151)	-0.0033 (-1.5536)	0.6614	0.5520	0.0095 (2.1518)
(1, 200, 0)	114	156	0.0050 (0.9862)	-0.0019 (-1.2316)	0.6228	0.5513	0.0069 (1.5913)
(1, 200, 0.01)	130	127	0.0058 (1.2855)	-0.0077 (-2.9452)	0.6385	0.4724	0.0135 (3.0740)
(2, 200, 0)	109	140	0.0050 (0.9690)	-0.0035 (-1.7164)	0.6330	0.5500	0.0086 (1.9092)
(2, 200, 0.01)	117	116	0.0018 (0.0377)	-0.0088 (-3.1449)	0.5556	0.4397	0.0106 (2.3069)

Test	$N(\text{Buy})$	$N(\text{Sell})$	Buy	Sell	Buy > 0	Sell > 0	Buy-Sell
(1, 50, 0)	722	415	0.0050 (2.1931)	0.0000 (-0.9020)	0.5803	0.5422	0.0049 (2.2801)
(1, 50, 0.01)	248	252	0.0082 (2.7853)	-0.0008 (-1.0937)	0.6290	0.5397	0.0090 (2.8812)
(1, 150, 0)	512	214	0.0046 (1.7221)	-0.0030 (-1.8814)	0.5762	0.4953	0.0076 (2.6723)
(1, 150, 0.01)	159	142	0.0086 (2.4023)	-0.0035 (-1.7015)	0.6478	0.4789	0.0120 (2.9728)
(1, 200, 0)	466	182	0.0043 (1.4959)	-0.0023 (-1.4912)	0.5794	0.5000	0.0067 (2.1732)
(1, 200, 0.01)	146	124	0.0072 (1.8551)	-0.0047 (-1.9795)	0.6164	0.4677	0.0119 (2.7846)
Average			0.0063	-0.0024			0.0087

- Standard forecasts are also popular for predicting economic variables
- Generically expressed

$$y_{t+1} = \beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_{t+1}$$

- \mathbf{x}_t is a 1 by k vector of predictors ($k = 1$ is common)
- Includes both exogenous regressors such as the term or default premium and also autoregressive models
- Forecasts are $\hat{y}_{t+1|t}$



- Two level of aggregation in the combination problem
1. Summarize individual forecasters' private information in point forecasts $\hat{y}_{t+h,i|t}$
 - Highlights that “inputs” are not the usual explanatory variables, but forecasts
 2. Aggregate individual forecasts into consensus measure $C(\mathbf{y}_{t+h|t}, \mathbf{w}_{t+h|t})$
 - Obvious competitor is the “super-model” or “kitchen-sink” – a model built using all information in each forecasters information set
 - Aggregation should increase the bias in the forecast relative to SM but may reduce the variance
 - Similar to other model selection procedures in this regard

- Could consider pooling information sets

$$\mathcal{F}_t^c = \cup_{i=1}^n \mathcal{F}_{t,i}$$

- Would contain all information available to all forecasters
- Could construct consensus directly $C(\mathcal{F}_t^c; \theta_{t+h|t})$
- Some reasons why this may not work
 - Some information in individuals information sets may be qualitative, and so expensive to quantitatively share
 - Combined information sets may have a very high dimension, so that finding the best super model may be hard
 - Potential for lots of estimation error
- Classic bias-variance trade-off is main reason to consider forecasts combinations over a super model
 - Higher bias, lower variance

- Models can be combined in many ways for virtually any loss function
- Most standard problem is for MSE loss using only linear combinations
- I will suppress time subscripts when it is clear that it is $t + h|t$
- Linear combination problem is

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathbb{E} [e^2] = \mathbb{E} \left[(y_{t+h} - \mathbf{w}'\hat{\mathbf{y}})^2 \right]$$

- Requires information about first 2 moments of the joint distribution of the realization y_{t+h} and the time- t forecasts $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{t+h|t} \\ \hat{\mathbf{y}} \end{bmatrix} \sim F \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_y \\ \mu_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{yy} & \Sigma'_{y\hat{\mathbf{y}}} \\ \Sigma_{y\hat{\mathbf{y}}} & \Sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

- The first order condition for this problem is

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{E} [e^2]}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = -\mu_y \mu_{\hat{y}} + \mu_{\hat{y}} \mu'_{\hat{y}} \mathbf{w} + \Sigma_{\hat{y}\hat{y}} \mathbf{w} - \Sigma_{y\hat{y}} = \mathbf{0}$$

- The solution to this problem is

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \left(\mu_{\hat{y}} \mu'_{\hat{y}} + \Sigma_{\hat{y}\hat{y}} \right)^{-1} \left(\Sigma_{y\hat{y}} + \mu_y \mu_{\hat{y}} \right)$$

- Similar to the solution to the OLS problem, only with extra terms since the forecasts may not have the same conditional mean

- Can remove the conditional mean if the combination is allowed to include a constant, w_c

$$w_c = \mu_y - \mathbf{w}^* \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\hat{y}}$$

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\hat{y}\hat{y}}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{y\hat{y}}$$

- These are identical to the OLS where w_c is the intercept and \mathbf{w}^* are the slope coefficients
- The role of w_c is to correct for any biases so that the squared bias term in the MSE is 0

$$\text{MSE}[e] = B[e]^2 + V[e]$$

- Simple setup

$$e_1 \sim F_1(0, \sigma_1^2), e_2 \sim F_2(0, \sigma_2^2), \text{Corr}[e_1, e_2] = \rho, \text{Cov}[e_1 e_2] = \sigma_{12}$$

- Assume $\sigma_2^2 \leq \sigma_1^2$
- Assume weights sum to 1 so that $w_1 = 1 - w_2$ (Will suppress the subscript and simply write w)
- Forecast error is then

$$y - w\hat{y}_1 - (1 - w)\hat{y}_2$$

- Error is given by

$$e^c = we_1 + (1 - w)e_2$$

- Forecast has mean 0 and variance

$$w^2\sigma_1^2 + (1 - w)^2\sigma_2^2 + 2w(1 - w)\sigma_{12}$$

- The optimal w can be solved by minimizing this expression, and is

$$w^* = \frac{\sigma_2^2 - \sigma_{12}}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2\sigma_{12}}, \quad 1 - w^* = \frac{\sigma_1^2 - \sigma_{12}}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2\sigma_{12}}$$

- Intuition is that the weight on a model is higher the
 - Larger the variance of the other model
 - Lower the correlation between the models
- 1 weight will be larger than 1 if $\rho \geq \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}$
- Weights will be equal if $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$ for any value of correlation
 - Intuitively this must be the case since model 1 and 2 are indistinguishable from a MSE point-of-view
 - When will “optimal” combinations out-perform equally weighted combinations?
Any time $\sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2$
- If $\rho = 1$ then only select model with lowest variance (mathematical formulation is not well posed in this case)

- The previous optimal weight derivation did not impose any restrictions on the weights
- In general some of the weights will be negative, and some will exceed 1
- Many combinations are implemented in a relative, constrained scheme

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} E [e^2] = E \left[(y_{t+h} - \mathbf{w}'\hat{\mathbf{y}})^2 \right] \text{ subject to } \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1} = 1$$

- The intercept is omitted (although this isn't strictly necessary)
- If the biases are all 0, then the solution is dual to the usual portfolio minimization problem, and is given by

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \frac{\Sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}}^{-1}\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{1}'\Sigma_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}}^{-1}\mathbf{1}}$$

- This solution is the same as the Global Minimum Variance Portfolio



- One often cited advantage of combinations is (partial) robustness to structural breaks
- Best case is if two positively correlated variables have shifts in opposite directions
- Combinations have been found to be more stable than individual forecasts
 - This is mostly true for static combinations
 - Dynamic combinations can be unstable since some models may produce large errors from time-to-time

- All discussion has focused on “optimal” weights, which requires information on the mean and covariance of both y_{t+h} and $\hat{y}_{t+h|t}$
 - This is clearly highly unrealistic
- In practice weights must be estimated, which introduces extra estimation error
- Theoretically, there should be no need to combine models when all forecasting models are generated by the econometrician (e.g. when using \mathcal{F}^c)
- In practice, this does not appear to be the case
 - High dimensional search space for “true” model
 - Structural instability
 - Parameter estimation error
 - Correlation among predictors

Clemen (1989): “Using a combination of forecasts amounts to an admission that the forecaster is unable to build a properly specified model”

- Whether a combination is needed is closely related to forecast encompassing tests
- Model averaging can be thought of a method to avoid the risk of model selection
 - Usually important to consider models with a wide range of features and many different model selection methods
- Has been consistently documented that *prescreening* models to remove the worst performing is important before combining
- One method is to use the SIC to remove the worst models
 - Rank models by SIC, and then keep the $x\%$ best
- Estimated weights are usually computed in a 3rd step in the usual procedure
 - R : Regression
 - P : Prediction
 - S : Combination estimation
 - $T = P + R + S$
- Many schemes have been examined



- Standard least squares with an intercept

$$y_{t+h} = w_0 + \mathbf{w}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+h|t} + \epsilon_{t+h}$$

- Least squares without an intercept

$$y_{t+h} = \mathbf{w}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+h|t} + \epsilon_{t+h}$$

- Linearly constrained least squares

$$y_{t+h} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+h,n|t} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} w_i (\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+h,i|t} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+h,n|t}) + \epsilon_{t+h}$$

- ▶ This is just a constrained regression where $\sum w_i = 1$ has been implemented where $w_n = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} w_i$
- ▶ Imposing this constraint is thought to help when the forecast is persistent

$$e_{t+h|t}^c = -w_0 + (1 - \mathbf{w}'\boldsymbol{\iota}) y_{t+h} + \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{e}_{t+h|t}$$

- ▶ $\mathbf{e}_{t+h|t}$ are the forecasting errors from the n models
- ▶ Only matters if the forecasts may be biased

- Constrained least squares

$$y_{t+h} = \mathbf{w}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+h|t} + \epsilon_{t+h} \text{ subject to } \mathbf{w}'\mathbf{1}=\mathbf{1}, w_i \geq 0$$

- This is not a standard regression, but can be easily solved using quadratic programming (MATLAB `quadprog`)
- Forecast combination where the covariance of the forecast errors is assumed to be diagonal
 - Produces weights which are all between 0 and 1
 - Weight on forecast i is

$$w_i = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}}{\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2}}$$

- May be far from optimal if ρ is large
- Protects against estimator error in the covariance



- Median
 - Can use the median rather than the mean to aggregate
 - Robust to outliers
 - Still suffers from not having any reduction in parameter variance in the actual forecast
- Rank based schemes
 - Weights are inversely proportional to model's rank

$$w_i = \frac{\mathcal{R}_{t+h,i|t}^{-1}}{\sum_{j=1}^n \mathcal{R}_{t+h,j|t}^{-1}}$$

- Highest weight to best model, ratio of weights depends only on relative ranks
 - Places relatively high weight on top model
- Probability of being the best model-based weights
 - Count the proportion that model i outperforms the other models

$$p_{t+h,i|t} = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \bigcap_{j=1, j \neq i}^n I [L(e_{t+h,i|t}) < L(e_{t+h,j|t})]$$

$$y_{t+h|t}^c = \sum_{i=1}^n p_{t+h,i|t} \hat{y}_{t+h,i|t}$$

- Time-varying weights
 - ▶ These are ultimately based off of multivariate ARCH-type models
 - ▶ Most common is EWMA of past forecast errors outer-products
 - ▶ Often enforced that covariances are 0 so that combinations have only non-negative weights
 - ▶ Can be implemented using rolling-window based schemes as well, both with and without a 0 correlation assumption
 - ▶ Time-varying weights are thought to perform poorly when the DGP is stable since they place higher weight on models than a non-time varying scheme and so lead to more parameter estimation error

- Simple combinations are difficult to beat
 - $1/n$ often outperforms estimated weights
 - Constant usually beat dynamic
 - Constrained outperform unconstrained (when using estimated weights)
- Not combining and using the best fitting performs worse than combinations – often substantially
- Trimming bad models prior to combining improves results
- Clustering similar models (those with the highest correlation of their errors) *prior* to combining leads to better performance, especially when estimating weights
 - Intuition: Equally weighted portfolio of models with high correlation, weight estimation using a much smaller set with lower correlations
- Shrinkage improves weights when estimated
- If using dynamic weights, shrink towards static weights

- Equal weighting is hard to beat when the variance of the forecast errors are similar
- If the variance are highly heterogeneous, varying the weights is important
 - If for nothing else than to down-weight the high variance forecasts
- Equally weighted combinations are thought to work well when models are unstable
 - Instability makes finding “optimal” weights very challenging
- Trimmed equally-weighted combinations appear to perform better than equally weighted, at least if there are some very poor models
 - May be important to trim both “good” and “bad” models (in-sample performance)
 - Good models are over-fit
 - Bad models are badly mis-specified

- Linear combination

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t}^c = \mathbf{w}' \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+h|t}$$

Standard least squares estimates of combination weights are very noisy

- Often found that “shrinking” the weights toward a *prior* improves performance
- Standard prior is that $w_i = \frac{1}{n}$
- However, do not want to be *dogmatic* and so use a distribution for the weights
- Generally for an arbitrary *prior weight* \mathbf{w}_0 ,

$$\mathbf{w} | \tau^2 \sim N(\mathbf{w}_0, \mathbf{\Omega})$$

- $\mathbf{\Omega}$ is a correlation matrix and τ^2 is a parameter which controls the amount of shrinkage

- Leads to a weighted average of the prior and data

$$\bar{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{\Omega} + \hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}})^{-1} (\mathbf{\Omega}\mathbf{w}_0 + \hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}\hat{\mathbf{w}})$$

- $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ is the usual least squares estimator of the optimal combination weight
- If $\mathbf{\Omega}$ is very large compared to $\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y} = \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{y}_{t+h|t}\mathbf{y}'_{t+h|t}$ then $\bar{\mathbf{w}} \approx \mathbf{w}_0$
- On the other hand, if $\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y}$ dominates, then $\bar{\mathbf{w}} \approx \hat{\mathbf{w}}$
- Other implementation use a g -prior, which is scalar

$$\bar{\mathbf{w}} = (g\hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}} + \hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}})^{-1} (g\hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{w}_0 + \hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}\hat{\mathbf{w}})$$

- Large values of $g \geq 0$ least to large amounts of shrinkage
- 0 corresponds to OLS

$$\bar{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{w}_0 + \frac{\hat{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{w}_0}{1 + g}$$