#### ECON 4115/5115 Exam - Professor Aadland

#### **Fall 2020**

- 1. Which of the following is an example of a time series?
  - a) Populations of each country in 2010
  - b) U.S. debt-to-GDP ratios for each year since 1950
  - c) List of the 50 U.S. state capitals
  - d) Percentage of Republican votes for each congressional contest in 2020
- 2. The command to calculate descriptive statistics of a time series in R is:
  - a) descriptive().
  - b) statistics().
  - c) summary().
  - d) average().
- 3. The *tsibble()* function in R is used to
  - a) import data from the internet.
  - b) decompose a time series into trend, seasonal and irregular components.
  - c) transform the data into logarithms.
  - d) create a time series object.
- 4. Which of the following types of data are the least likely to exhibit seasonality?
  - a) annual data
  - b) quarterly data
  - c) monthly data
  - d) daily data
- 5. What is the best way to visually see whether a time series exhibits seasonality?
  - a) regular time series graph
  - b) seasonal subseries plot
  - c) scatter plot
  - d) lag plot

- 6. A time series with no discernable patterns or trends is called
  - a) an ARMA process.
  - b) an integrated time series.
  - c) white noise.
  - d) a correlogram.
- 7. The three components of a time series decomposition are:
  - a) trend, seasonality and irregular components.
  - b) lag, lead and contemporaneous components.
  - c) AR, integrated, and MA components.
  - d) log, level, and exponential components.
- 8. When making an inflation adjustment before forecasting, you should divide by
  - a) nominal GDP.
  - b) inflation.
  - c) a measure of the price level such as the CPI.
  - d) deflation.
- 9. Which forecasting transformation is best for an exponentially growing time series?
  - a) Natural logarithm transformation
  - b) Quadratic transformation
  - c) Sinusoidal transformation
  - d) Multiplicative transformation
- 10. Our notation for additively decomposing a time series is:
  - a)  $y_t = \varepsilon_t + T_t + x_t$ .
  - b)  $y_t = S_t + T_t + R_t$ .
  - c)  $y_t = x_t + D_t + z_t$ .
  - d)  $y_t = AR_t + I_t + MA_t$ .

11. A 3-period MA estimate of the trend for the time series $y_t = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ is:
a) {2,3,4,5}.
b) {1.5,2.5,3.5,4.5}.
c) {1,3.5,6}.

12. The remainder  $(\hat{R})$  component from a Classical decomposition is given by

a) 
$$\hat{R} = y_t - \hat{S}_t - \hat{T}_t$$
.  
b)  $\hat{R} = y_t - \hat{x}_t - \hat{z}_t$ .  
c)  $\hat{R} = y_t + \hat{S}_t + \hat{T}_t$ .  
d)  $\hat{R} = y_t \times \hat{S}_t \times \hat{T}_t$ .

d) {3,4}.

13. The ACF of a time series is a function of the

- a) covariances with all the explanatory variables.
- b) correlations with all the explanatory variables.
- c) covariances with the lagged values of the same time series.
- d) correlations with the lagged values of the same time series.

14. The Box-Pierce and Ljung-Box tests are designed to test whether a time series is

- a) white noise.
- b) integrated.
- c) exponential.
- d) stationary.

15. The graphical representation of the ACF is also called the

- a) scatterplot.
- b) seasonal subseries plot.
- c) spatial lag plot.
- d) correlogram.

## 16. The average method generates future forecasts based on

- a) the average of all the historical data.
- b) an average of the last few observations.
- c) only the last observation.
- d) a moving average of recent observations.

### 17. The naïve method generates future forecasts based on

- a) the average of all the historical data.
- b) an average of the last few observations.
- c) only the last observation.
- d) a moving average of recent observations.

# 18. The seasonal naïve method generates future forecasts based on

- a) the average of all the historical data.
- b) the last observation from the same season of the year.
- c) only the last observation.
- d) a moving average of recent observations.

# 19. The residuals in a time series model are the difference between

- a) the actual observations and the average of the time series.
- b) the actual observations and the fitted values.
- c) the fitted values and the out-of-sample forecasts.
- d) the in-sample and out-of-sample forecasts.

#### 20. The two main diagnostics to check residuals for are:

- a) zero mean and unit standard deviation.
- b) positive mean and standard deviation.
- c) zero mean and white noise residuals.
- d) white noise residuals and biased coefficient estimates.

- 21. Prediction intervals are typically written as:
  - a)  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm c\hat{\sigma}_h^2$ .
  - b)  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} + c\hat{\sigma}_h$ .
  - c)  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} c\hat{\sigma}_h$ .
  - d)  $\hat{y}_{T+h|T} \pm c\hat{\sigma}_h$ .
- 22. If you want to ensure a forecast satisfies  $a < \hat{y}_{T+h|T} < b$ , the recommended procedure is:
  - a) use the scaled logit transformation and then back-transform to the original series.
  - b) transform the time series to logarithms.
  - c) transform the time series using the quadratic function.
  - d) transform the time series using moving averages.
- 23. The R function to evaluate forecasting accuracy is:
  - a) prediction().
  - b) forecast().
  - c) accuracy().
  - d) train().
- 24. The best way to assess the genuine forecasting accuracy of a model is to
  - a) divide your sample into training (in-sample) and test (out-of-sample) data.
  - b) maximize the  $R^2$  for the in-sample fit.
  - c) minimize the AIC in-sample.
  - d) minimize the prediction interval around the point forecasts.
- 25. To divide the data into training (in-sample) and test (out-of-sample) subsamples in R, we use the
  - a) filter() command.
  - b) forecast() command.
  - c) tsibble() command.
  - d) read() command.

26. Which of the following is an example of judgmental forecasting?
<ul> <li>a) exponential smoothing</li> <li>b) ARIMA forecasts</li> <li>c) regression analysis</li> <li>d) scenario forecasting</li> </ul>
27. Multiple linear regression models are defined by
<ul> <li>a) multiple lags of the dependent variable.</li> <li>b) multiple explanatory variables.</li> <li>c) moving averages with higher weights attached to more recent observations.</li> <li>d) one dependent variable and one predictor variable.</li> </ul>
28. Spurious regressions are most often caused by
<ul><li>a) predictors with too much variation.</li><li>b) two trending variables with no causal relationship.</li><li>c) cyclical time series.</li><li>d) highly correlated predictor variables.</li></ul>
29. Which of the following is not a common use of dummy variables in regression models?
<ul> <li>a) capture seasonality</li> <li>b) account for outlier observations</li> <li>c) control for the impact of public holidays</li> <li>d) calculate the ACF of the residuals</li> </ul>
30. Which of the following is not a good measure to select the forecasting model?
<ul> <li>a) AIC</li> <li>b) BIC</li> <li>c) Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></li> <li>d) R<sup>2</sup></li> </ul>

31. One of the biggest difficulties of using regression models for forecasting is
<ul> <li>a) calculating confidence intervals.</li> <li>b) estimating the coefficients.</li> <li>c) interpreting the R<sup>2</sup>.</li> <li>d) forecasting the predictor variables.</li> </ul>
32. Which of the following is NOT a method for estimating a nonlinear trend?
<ul><li>a) Spline regression</li><li>b) Exponential smoothing</li><li>c) Moving average</li><li>d) Delphi method</li></ul>
33. Multicollinearity (i.e., correlated predictors)
<ul><li>a) makes it easy to estimate the individual coefficients on the predictor variables.</li><li>b) is not a serious problem for the purpose of forecasting.</li><li>c) makes it impossible to assess the goodness of fit.</li><li>d) will never occur in a linear regression model.</li></ul>
34. When using dummy variables to capture seasonality, you need to drop one category. This is also known as avoiding the
<ul><li>a) correlation vs. causation trap.</li><li>b) dummy-variable trap.</li><li>c) forecasting trap.</li><li>d) regression trap.</li></ul>
35. The R command to execute exponential smoothing is
<ul><li>a) ETS().</li><li>b) EXPS().</li><li>c) SMOOTH().</li><li>d) EXP_SMOOTH().</li></ul>

36. The weighted-average form of simple exponential smoothing (SES) is
a) $\hat{y}_{T+1 T} = y_T + \hat{y}_{T T-1}$ . b) $\hat{y}_{T+1 T} = \alpha y_1 + (1-\alpha)\hat{y}_{1 0}$ . c) $\hat{y}_{T+1 T} = \alpha y_T + (1-\alpha)\hat{y}_{T T-1}$ . d) $\hat{y}_{T+1 T} = \alpha (y_T + \hat{y}_{T T-1})$ .
37. An exponential smoothing parameter of $\alpha = 0.01$ will place relatively more weight
<ul><li>a) on distant observations.</li><li>b) on recent observations.</li><li>c) on future observations.</li><li>d) on the last observation.</li></ul>
38. An exponential smoothing parameter of $\alpha = 1.0$ will place a weight of on the last observed data point.
<ul><li>a) 0.0.</li><li>b) 1.0.</li><li>c) 2.0.</li><li>d) 0.5.</li></ul>
39. State-space models for exponential smoothing are made up of
<ul><li>a) an observation (measurement) and state (transition) equation.</li><li>b) a trend and state (transition) equation.</li><li>c) an observation (measurement) and seasonality equation.</li><li>d) a trend and seasonality equation.</li></ul>
40. An exponential model ETS(ETS) with dampened trend, multiplicative seasonality, and

40. An exponential model ETS(E,T,S) with dampened trend, multiplicative seasonality, and additive errors is given by the following R notation:

- a) ETS("A","A","N").
- b) ETS("M","Ad","A").
- c) ETS("N","A","M").
- d) ETS("A","Ad","M").