## **Recitation 11**

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# Big data

## What is Big data?

- It can simply mean data with large observations or large number of control variables.
- In general instances, atypical data such as text data, and satellite imagery are referred to as big data.
- In this class, we focus on the instance where there are many control variables, specifically on what to do if there are many control variables relative to the number of observations.
- Additionally, we focus on trying to get the best way to predict a result that is currently not in the dataset.

Seung-hun Lee Recitation 11 2/18

# **Characterizing MSPE**

## Mean squared prediction error

Regression format is

$$Y_i^* = \beta_1 X_{1i}^* + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki}^* + u_i^*$$

- $X_{1i}^*$  is the "standardized" version of  $X_{1i}$ 's,  $Y_i^*$  the "demeaned" version.
- Note that we CANNOT have a constant term  $\beta_0$  here because if we demean  $\beta_0$ , which is the same for all i's, they vanish.
- MSPE: the expected value of the squared error made by predicting Y for an observation not in the dataset.

$$MSPE = E[Y^{OS} - \hat{Y}^{OS}]^2$$

- $\hat{Y}^{OS}$ : obtained from the coefficients of  $\beta$ 's made from the in-sample
- Y<sup>OS</sup>: realized value of Y outside of the sample

Seung-hun Lee Recitation 11 3 / 18

# **Characterizing MSPE**

## Mean squared prediction error

• With these notations, we can define the prediction error as

$$Y_i^{OS} - \hat{Y}_i^{OS} = (\beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1)X_{1i}^{OS} + ... + (\beta_k - \hat{\beta}_k)X_{ki}^{OS} + u_i^{OS}$$

• Define  $\sigma_u^2 = E[u_i^{OS}]^2$ , then we can write MSPE as

$$MSPE = \sigma_u^2 + E[(\beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1)X_{1i}^{OS} + ... + (\beta_k - \hat{\beta}_k)X_{ki}^{OS}]$$

- Oracle prediction: the smallest possible MSPE,  $\sigma_u^2$
- However, we cannot predict  $\beta$ 's perfectly.
- The more predictors we have, we generally end up having larger MSPE

   → need to reduce X's.
- Need Ridge, LASSO, and Principal Component method comes in

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## Methods

### In principle

- Goal: Find other estimators that does not increase the MSPE compared to the rate in which the same rises in OLS estimators.
- Idea: Reduce the  $\sigma_u^2$ , the variance from the residual sums of squares, at the expense of introducing a small bit of bias.
- How: Providing a penalty for having a model with large number of regressors (what we formally call 'shrinkage').

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# Ridge

#### Estimation

Minimize a 'penalized' sum squared of residuals

$$\hat{\beta}_{\textit{Ridge}} = \arg\min_{\beta_1,...,\beta_k} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_1 X_{1i} - .... - \beta_k X_{ki})^2 + \lambda_{\textit{Ridge}} \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j^2 \right]$$

- $\lambda_{Ridge} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \beta_{j}^{2}$ : penalty for complexity.
- Introduce bias so that the variance term  $\sigma_u^2$  will be reduced.
- Variance and the bias in MSPE moves in a trade-off relation
- Ridge estimator minimizes MSPE by reducing the variance term to the extent that the bias term does not rise too drastically.

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### Estimation

• Penalty term takes a different form:

$$\hat{\beta}_{LASSO} = \arg\min_{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_1 X_{1i} - \dots - \beta_k X_{ki})^2 + \lambda_{LASSO} \sum_{j=1}^k |\beta_j| \right]$$

- The difference between the two lies in the degree of shrinkage.
  - When the OLS estimates are small, the LASSO shrinks those estimates all the way to 0.
  - Ridge also shrinks those coefficients close to 0, they do not exactly set them to 0.

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# Principal component

### Estimation

- You are using a linear combination of some subset of k variables so that you end up with p < k number of regressors ('collapsing' the model)
- Solve the following problem to get the j'th principal component PC<sub>j</sub>

$$\max var\left(\sum_{i=1}^K a_{ji}X_i\right) \text{ s.t. } \sum_{i=1}^k a_{ji}^2 = 1$$

with another condition being that  $corr(PC_i, PC_{i-1}) = 0$ 

- Solve the maximization: We want the X's to explain more of the variation
- $\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ii}^2 = 1$ : Regularization method
- $corr(PC_j, PC_{j-1}) = 0$ : We want to minimize the overlapping amount of information across different principal components.

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## *m*-fold cross validation

#### Idea

- Goal: Select the optimal  $\lambda$  penalty parameters for Ridge/LASSO and find right amount of principal components
- Split the sample into *m* subsets of equal size.
- Then, one of them becomes your 'test' sample and the rest becomes an out-sample.
- You will derive a first estimate of MSPE.
- Repeat this until you get m estimates of MSPE.
- The right parameter values minimizes the averages of these MSPEs.

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## Time series

## Setup

- Collect data on same observational unit *i* for multiple time periods.
- Primary uses: Forecasting, modeling risks, and analyzing dynamic causal effects
- Time series differs in that errors are likely to be autocorrelated and thus require different ways to calculate the standard error.
- Let  $Y_t$  be the time series data captured at certain period t GDP
- Lags are characterized as  $Y_{t-1}$  and leads are defined as  $Y_{t+1}$ .
- $\Delta Y_t \equiv Y_t Y_{t-1}$ : The **first difference** at time *t*.

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## AR and ADL

### Model

• AR(p):  $Y_t$  is regressed against its own lagged values by p times:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + ... + \beta_p Y_{t-p} + u_t$$

- Each coefficient  $\beta_k$  indicates how past values are useful in forecasting
- ADL(p,q): p lags of dependent variable and q lags for X variable

$$Y_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} Y_{t-1} + ... + \beta_{p} Y_{t-p} + \delta_{1} X_{t-1} + ... + \delta_{q} X_{t-q} + u_{t}$$

Recitation 11 11 / 18

## AR and ADL

### Model

Right amount of p and q minimizes the following information criteria

$$\textit{AIC}: \ln \left( \frac{\textit{SSR}(p,q)}{\textit{T}} \right) + (\textit{K}) \frac{2}{\textit{T}} \quad \textit{BIC}: \ln \left( \frac{\textit{SSR}(p,q)}{\textit{T}} \right) + (\textit{K}) \frac{\ln \textit{T}}{\textit{T}}$$

where K = 1 + p + q

 Granger causality: Test that helps us see whether X is useful in predicting Y

$$H_0: \delta_1 = ... = \delta_q = 0, \ H_1: \neg H_0$$

If the null hypothesis is rejected, we say that X Granger-causes Y

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# Stationarity

#### Idea

- Stationary: Distribution of  $(Y_{t+1},...,Y_{t+s})$  does not depend on t.
- In other words, the distribution of Y does not change over time
- Nonstationary: When there is a trend or a break in the movement of the data (or any change in underlying parameters),
- Trends
  - **Deterministic trend** is a nonrandom function of time,  $(Y_t = \alpha t^2)$
  - Stochastic trend is random, and time-variant distribution, such as the random walk  $Y_t = Y_{t-1} + u_t$  (You can check that  $var(Y_t) = t\sigma_u^2$ )
  - Any other case where  $\beta_1 > 1$  is also nonstationary

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# Stationarity

## Testing for this in AR(1)

- Eyeball test: Check graphically
- Dickey-Fuller test: Check for the existence of a 'unit root' by testing

$$H_0: \beta_1 \ge 1, \ H_1: \beta_1 < 1$$

• See notes to have an idea of what to do in an AR(p) case

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# Stationarity

### Testing structural breaks

- Assume a ADL(1,1) structure, but that we know when the structural break occurs at year  $\tau$
- Let  $D_t(\tau) = 1$  if year  $t \ge \tau$  and 0 otherwise.
- Then we write the equation as

$$Y_{t} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} Y_{t-1} + \delta_{1} X_{t-1} + \gamma_{1} D_{t}(\tau) + \gamma_{2} D_{t}(\tau) Y_{t-1} + \gamma_{3} D_{t}(\tau) X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

To check for structural break, test joint hypothesis of the following form:

$$H_0: \gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = \gamma_3 = 0, \ H_1: \neg H_0$$

This is the idea behind the Chow test.

 If structural break is unknown, we can do a Quandt Likelihood Ratio test that implements multiple Chow tests and finds the point where structural break most likely happened, if it occurred.

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# Dynamic Causal analysis

### Causal analysis

- **Dynamic causal effect** captures the effect of *X* on *Y* over time.
- Write the distributed lag model as

$$Y_t = \alpha + \beta_0 X_t + \beta_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_p X_{t-p} + u_t$$

- $\beta_0$  captures the contemporaneous impact of X on Y, holding past values of X constant.
- $\beta_j, j \in [1, p]$  captures the impact of X from j period(s) ago on Y, holding X from other periods constant

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# Dynamic Causal analysis

## Causal analysis

- Cumulative effect: Cumulative effect can be captured by summing over multiple  $\beta$ 's
- Specifically, we can write

$$Y_{t} = \alpha + \beta_{0}X_{t} + \beta_{1}X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

$$= \alpha + \beta_{0}X_{t} - \beta_{0}X_{t-1} + \beta_{0}X_{t-1} + \beta_{1}X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

$$= \alpha + \beta_{0}\Delta X_{t} + (\beta_{0} + \beta_{1})X_{t-1} + u_{t}$$

- Assumptions
  - (Sequential) Exogeneity:  $E[u_t|X_t, X_{t-1}, ..., X_1] = 0$ . Or that error terms should not be correlated with current and past values of X
  - Stationarity: Y and X should have stationary distributions and  $(Y_t, X_t)$  and  $(Y_{t-j}, X_{t-j})$  becomes independent as j gets large.
  - Y and X has nonzero finite moments
  - There is no perfect multicollinearity

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# Dynamic Causal analysis

### Standard errors

- Given that there is a possibility that autocorrelation can exist, we need a standard error that takes into account autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity.
- This is known as heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent errors (HAC errors).
- The takeaway is that standard errors in the typical STATA output can be wrong and we need to take a slightly different approach.
- Use newey in STATA