Lecture 7

What we know now...

T tests
$$\stackrel{\wedge}{t} = \frac{\stackrel{\wedge}{\beta_1 - \beta_1}}{\stackrel{\wedge}{s.e.(\beta_1)}}$$

and confidence intervals

$$\Pr\left[\hat{\beta}_{1} - t_{N-k}^{.05/2} * s.e.(\hat{\beta}_{1}) \le \beta_{1} \le \hat{\beta}_{1} + t_{N-k}^{.05/2} * s.e.(\hat{\beta}_{1})\right] = 0.95$$

are useful ways to check whether the OLS estimates are compatible with our (economic) priors about how the world works

But they are not the only tests that we can use to judge the performance of the model and our economic priors

In what follows look at a set if different tests (F tests) that can be used to test different sorts of hypotheses and apply them to the issues of forecasting and parameter stability

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We know that

 $\operatorname{Var}(Y) = \operatorname{Var}(\hat{Y}) + \operatorname{Var}(u)$

We know that the R² gives an idea of the strength of association between dependent and explanatory variable

Because of statistical variation unlikely that R^2 would ever fall to zero in absence of any (true) correlation between y and X variables

So how do we know that the value for the R² reflects a true relationship rather than the result of chance?

We know that

$$\operatorname{Var}(Y) = \operatorname{Var}(\hat{Y}) + \operatorname{Var}(u)$$

and that this can be also written as

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$$\sum (Y - \overline{Y})^2 = \sum (\hat{Y} - \overline{Y})^2 + \sum u^{\wedge 2}$$

TSS = ESS + RSS

$$F = \frac{ESS / k - 1}{RSS / N - k} \sim F[k-1, N-k]$$

to test whether the R² is statistically significantly different from zero – *allowing for the random variation that use of a sample entails*

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Just how high depends (like t values) on the sample size N and the number of right hand side coefficients k (hence the corrections above)

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The F statistic

(named after Ronald Fisher 1890-1962 – the same person who developed the t test and the same person who wrote a book attributing the decline of the British empire to the failure of its upper classes to breed)



is the ratio of 2 chi-squared distributions divided by their respective degrees of freedom

The F statistic

has its own set of degrees of freedom

F[k-1, N-k]

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F[k-1, N-k]

k-1 said to be the numerator N-k said to be the denominator (for obvious reasons)



(In stata rndf 1000 5 55 Now, unlike the t distribution, the F distribution because it is effectively the t distribution "squared") is bounded from below at zero.

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The basic rule is that

if
$$\hat{F} > F_{\alpha_critical}^{(k-1,N-k)}$$

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The basic rule is that

if $\hat{F} > F_{\alpha _ critical}^{(k-1,N-k)}$

then can be 1-a% confident that result is unlikely to have arisen by chance (the ESS is high wrt the RSS)

Since the F-statistic can also be manipulated to give

$$F = \frac{ESS/k - 1}{RSS/N - k} \qquad = \frac{(ESS/TSS)/k - 1}{(RSS/TSS)/N - k}$$

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which is an equivalent way of doing the test

and still the rule is reject the null hypothesis if $\hat{F} > F_{\alpha_critical}^{(k-1,N-k)}$

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The F test in this example is 51.48

The p value is less than 0.05 which is a quick way of realising that this F value is statistically significant from zero

Which means the chances of this R² arising by chance are small (<5%) Which means the model has some explanatory power

One of the many uses of regression analysis is that can use the coefficient estimates to make predictions about the behaviour of economic agents (individuals, time periods) that may not be included in the original data

Bank of England forecast of level of inflation (CPI) & GDP growth in November 2007

November 2007 CPI Fan Chart







Source Bank of England Inflation report

Actual Outturn

CPI inflation projection based on market interest rate expectations and £200 billion asset purchases



GDP projection based on market interest rate expectations and £200 billion asset purchases





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So it is good practice when estimating equations to leave out some observations (eg end few time periods or a random sub-sample of a cross-section) If the model is a good one it should predict well out-of-sample.

- use the idea of a forecast error

the closer is the estimate y to its actual value, the smaller will be the forecast error

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 $u_0 = y_o - y_o$ (o is "out of sample")
How do we know how good the prediction is ?

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- use the idea of a forecast error
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the closer is the estimate y to its actual value, the smaller will be the forecast error which is just the difference between the prediction (the forecast) and the actual (out-of-sample) value $a = y_0 - y_0$ (o is "out of sample")

and if we use OLS to generate the estimates to make the forecasts then can show that the forecast error will on average be zero and have the smallest variance of any other (linear unbiased) technique.

sub. in for $y_0 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_o$ and $y_O = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_o + u_o$

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using what we know about the expected value of OLS estimates, $\hat{E}(\beta_0) = \beta_0$ and $E(\beta_1) = \beta_1$

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\end{array}$

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$$E(\beta_{0}) = \beta_{0} \text{ and } E(\beta_{1}) = \beta_{1}$$

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$$= 0 - E(u_{0})$$

and since Gauss-Markov assumption is that for any observation the expected value of the *true* residual is zero, $E(u_0)=0$

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 $\hat{E}(u_0) = 0$ the mean value of any OLS forecast error is zero

$$\operatorname{Var}(Y_{0} - Y_{o}) = \operatorname{Var}(u_{o}) = s^{2} \left[1 + \frac{1}{N} + \frac{(X_{o} - \bar{X})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2}} \right]$$

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where N is the number of in-sample observations,

 s^2 is the residual variance = RSS/N-k

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So precision of forecast is increased by

a) the closer is the out of sample observation X_o to mean value of in-sample X's

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a) the closer is the out of sample observation $X_{\rm o}$ to mean value of in-sample X's b) the larger the sample size

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(not expect a good forecast if only have little information)

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where N is the number of in-sample observations,

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So precision of forecast is increased by

a) the closer is the out of sample observation X_o to mean value of in-sample X's

b) Larger sample size

(not expect a good forecast if only have little information)

c) Larger variance of in-sample X's

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(not expect a good forecast if only have little information)

c) Larger variance of in-sample X's

(wider variance means more likely already encountered a big range of possible X values to make a forecast with)

$$Var(Y_0 - Y_0) = Var(u_0) = s^2 \left[1 + \frac{1}{N} + \frac{(X_0 - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right]$$

where N is the number of in-sample observations,

 s^2 is the residual variance = RSS/N-k

So precision of forecast is increased by

a) the closer is the out of sample observation X_o to mean value of in-sample X's
b) Larger sample size
(not expect a good forecast if only have little information)

c) Larger variance of in-sample X's

(wider variance means more likely already encountered a big range of possible X values to make a forecast with)

d) Better fitting model (implies smaller RSS and smaller s^2 . The better the model is at predicting in-sample, the more accurate will be the prediction out-of-sample)

Just as

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 $\frac{\beta_1 - \beta_1}{\wedge}$

follows a t distribution

s.e.(β_1)

Just as

 $\begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \hline & & \\ & & \\ s.e.(\beta_1) & & \\ & &$

Just as $\bigwedge^{\wedge} \qquad \beta_1 - \beta_1$ follows a t distribution *s.e.*(β_1) $\bigwedge^{\wedge} \qquad \land^{\wedge}$ using u_0 rather than β_1 then $\bigwedge^{\wedge} \qquad \frac{u_0 - u_0}{\bigwedge}$ also follows a t distribution *s.e.*(u_0)

Just as $\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_1$ follows a t distribution *s.e.*(β_1) $\hat{\beta}_1$ follows a t distribution using u_0 rather than $\hat{\beta}_1$ then $\hat{\beta}_1$ then $\hat{\beta}_1$ also follows a t distribution *s.e.*(u_0)

and since $u_0 = E(u_0) = 0$

Just as Λ $\frac{\beta_1 - \beta_1}{2}$ follows a t distribution s.e.(β_1) using u_0 rather than β_1 then Λ $\frac{u_0-u_0}{\wedge}$ also follows a t distribution *s.e.*(*u*₀) and since $u_0 = E(u_0) = 0$ Λ $\frac{u_0}{\wedge}$ also follows a t distribution $s.e.(u_0)$







Since this follows a t distribution we know that 95% of observations will lie in the region

$$\Pr\left[-t_{N-k}^{.05/2} \le \frac{y_o - y_o}{2} \le +t_{N-k}^{.05/2}\right] = 0.95$$

s.e.(u_0)



Since this follows a t distribution we know that 95% of observations will lie in the region

$$\Pr\left[-t_{N-k}^{.05/2} \le \frac{y_0 - y_0}{2} \le +t_{N-k}^{.05/2}\right] = 0.95$$

s.e.(u_0)

and rearranging terms gives

$$\Pr[Y_{o} - t_{N-k}^{\alpha/2} s.e.(u_{o}) \le Y_{o} \le Y_{o} + t_{N-k}^{\alpha/2} s.e.(u_{o})] = 0.95$$

Given

$$\Pr[Y_{o} - t_{N-k}^{\alpha/2} s.e.(u_{o}) \le Y_{o} \le Y_{o} + t_{N-k}^{\alpha/2} s.e.(u_{o})] = 0.95$$

$$\stackrel{\wedge}{=} Y_{o} \pm t_{\alpha/2} SE(u_{o})$$

then we can be 95% confident that the true value will lie within this range

If it does not then the model does not forecast very well

November 2007 CPI Fan Chart

November 2007 GDP Fan Chart



Source Bank of England Inflation report



Example

reg cons income if year<90 /* use 1st 35 obs and save last 10 for forecasts*/

Source Model	SS 1.5750e+11	df 	1.575	MS 0e+11		Number of obs F(1, 33) Prob > F	s = = =	= 35 = 3190.74 = 0.0000
Residual	1.6289e+09	33	49361	749.6		R-squared Adi R-squared	=	0.9898
Total	1.5913e+11	34	4.680	3e+09		Root MSE	=	7025.8
cons	Coef.	Std.	Err.		P> t	[95% Conf.	Ir	iterval]
income _cons	.9467359 6366.214	.0167 4704	7604 .141	56.487 1.353	0.000 0.185	.9126367 -3204.433	1	9808351 5936.86
predict chat		<pre>/* gets fitted (predicted) values from regression */</pre>						
predict forcse, stdf /* gets standard error around forecast value */								
/* graph actual and fitted values, draw line through OLS predictions */								

two (scatter cons income) (line chat income if year<90, xline(426000))



twoway (scatter cons income) (line chat income, xline(426000))

Vertical line denotes boundary between in and out of sample observations

```
/* now calculate confidence intervals using cons = cons \pm t_{\partial/2}^{N-k} * SE(u)
g minconf= chat - (2.04*forcse)
g maxconf= chat + (2.04*forcse)
```

/* graph predicted consumption values and confidence intervals */

twoway (scatter cons income if year>89) (line chat income if year>89, lstyle(dot)) (line maxconf income if year>89)
> (line minconf income if year>89)



So for most of the out of sample observations the actual value lies *outside* the 95% confidence interval. Hence the predictions of this particular model are not that good.

Chow Test of Forecast Stability

If a model forecasts well out of sample then we would expect *all* the out-of-sample residuals to be close to zero.

Chow Test of Forecast Stability

If a model forecasts well out of sample then we would expect all the out-of-sample residuals to be close to zero.

It can be shown that the joint test of all the out-of-sample-residuals being close to zero is given by:

$$F = \frac{RSS_{in+out} - RSS_{in} / N_o}{RSS_{in} / N - k} \sim F[N_o, N - k]$$

where N_{\circ} is the number of out-of-sample observations N is the number of in-sample observations k is the number of RHS coefficients

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where N_o is the number of out-of-sample observations N is the number of in-sample observations k is the number of RHS coefficients

Intuitively if the model fits well the RSS from the combined regression should be close to that from the in-sample regression.

A "large" difference suggest the RSS are different and so model does not forecast well)

Given a null hypothesis that the model is stable out of sample (predicts well) then if

 $\stackrel{\wedge}{F} > F_{critical}^{\alpha}[N_o, N-k]$ reject null of model stability out-of-sample
Example: Estimate of consumption function model including out-of-sample observations is

reg cons income if year<90

Source	SS	df		MS		Number of obs	=	35
Model Residual	1.5750e+11 <mark>1.6289e+09</mark>	1 33	1.57 4936	'50e+11 51749.6		F(1, 33) Prob > F R-squared	=	0.0000
Total	1.5913e+11	34	4.68	03e+09		Root MSE	=	7025.8
cons	Coef.	Std.	Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Ir	terval]
income _cons	.9467359 6366.214	.0167 4704.	604 141	56.49 1.35	0.000 0.185	.9126367 -3204.433	1	9808351 5936.86

. reg cons income

Source	SS SS	df	MS		Number of obs	= 45
Model Residual	+ 4.7072e+11 <mark>3.3905e+09</mark>	1 4.7 43 788	 072e+11 49774.6		F(1, 43) Prob > F R-squared	= 5969.79 = 0.0000 = 0.9928
Total	4.7411e+11	44 1.0	775e+10		Root MSE	= 0.9927 = 8879.7
cons	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
income _cons	.9172948 13496.16	.0118722 4025.456	77.26 3.35	0.000 0.002	.8933523 5378.05	.9412372 21614.26

Comparing RSS from this with that above can calculate the F value $F = \frac{RSS_{in+out} - RSS_{in} / N_o}{RSS_{in} / N - k} \sim F[N_o, N - k]$

di ((3.3905-1.6289)/10)/(1.6289/(35-2))

$$\mathsf{F} = \frac{3.3905 - 1.6289/10}{1.6289/35 - 2} \sim F[10,35 - 2]$$

$$= 3.57 \sim F[10,33]$$

From tables $F_{critical}$.⁰⁵[10,33] = 2.10

So $\hat{F} > F_{critical}$ and therefore **reject** null that model predicts well out of sample.