Text Selection

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Abstract

Text data is inherently ultra-high dimensional, which makes machine learning techniques indispensable for textual analysis. Text also tends to be a highly selected outcome—journalists, speechwriters, and others carefully craft messages to target the limited attention of their audiences. We develop an economically motivated high dimensional selection model that improves machine learning from text (and from sparse counts data more generally). Our model is especially useful in cases where the cover/no-cover choice is separate or more interesting than the coverage quantity choice. Our design allows for parallel estimation, making the model highly computationally scalable. We apply our framework to backcast financial variables to historical periods using newspaper text, and find that it substantially improves out-of-sample fit relative to alternative state-of-the-art approaches.

Keywords: Text analysis, machine learning, selection model, high dimension forecast, intermediary capital, multinomial regression, hurdle, zero inflation

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1 Introduction

Digital text is increasingly available to social scientists in the form of newspapers, blogs, tweets, regulatory filings, congressional records and more. Two attributes of text differentiate it from other types of data typically used by economists. First, text data are inherently ultra-high dimensional—unique phrases in a corpus (roughly equivalent to the set of variables) often number in the millions. Second, phrase counts are sparse—most phrases have a count of zero in most documents. Due to these attributes, statistical learning from text requires techniques commonly used in machine learning (Gentzkow, Kelly, and Taddy, 2017).

A standard econometric approach for describing counts data is multinomial logistic regression. Unfortunately, this model is computationally intractable in most text-related applications because the number of categories is extremely large. Taddy (2015) shows that one can overcome this dimensionality problem by approximating the multinomial with cleverly shifted independent Poisson regressions, one for each word. This distributed multinomial regression (DMR) has the great advantage that the Poisson regression can be distributed across parallel computing units.

The Poisson model has the disadvantage that it provides a poor description of word counts. In particular, there tends to be a much higher proportion of phrases having zero counts than the Poisson distribution allows. If one restricts attention to positive counts, however, a (truncated) Poisson is a good approximation for the data. This sparsity—the additional probability mass on zero counts—is a feature of many text samples (and is why most text analysis software packages use sparse matrices to store word counts efficiently).

We propose a new regression methodology for text-based regression. Our hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) model consists of two components that are tailored to the twin challenges of high dimensionality and sparsity of text data. To accommodate the dimensionality of text, we build on Taddy’s DMR insight of independent phrase-level models. However, we replace each phrase-level Poisson regression with a hurdle model that has two components. The first component is a selection equation. This models the text producer’s choice of whether or not to use a particular phrase. The second component is a positive counts model, which describes the choice of how many times a word is used (conditional on being used at all).1

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1We use lasso penalization to further manage model dimensionality.
Our two-part HDMR model thus generalizes DMR by decomposing language usage decisions into an extensive margin (the selection equation) and intensive margin (the positive counts model). Explicitly modeling the extensive margin of phrase choice has dual advantages. The statistical advantage is that it introduces a modeling component dedicated to capturing the excess probability mass on zero counts. We use the hurdle approach of Mullahy (1986) to model selection because its allows the extensive and intensive components to be estimated independently, and these can also be distributed at essentially no additional computation cost relative to DMR.

The economic advantage of our model is that it adapts the selection methodology of Heckman (1979) to a high dimensional setting. Like the wide ranging applications of Heckman (1979), HDMR provides a means for estimating and testing any model in which sparsity is of first-order economic importance. In text data, HDMR is particularly useful when an author’s choice to cover or not cover a topic is more economically interesting than the choice of coverage intensity. For example, newspaper publishers’ extensive margin of coverage is informative about their news production technology and the constrained attention of its audience. The selection decision is a key lever that writers use to signal their ideological type to readers (e.g. Mullainathan and Shleifer, 2005; Gentzkow and Shapiro, 2006). Politicians carefully select phrases that resonate with voters in congressional speech (Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy, 2017), and fixed costs of using censored or socially taboo words may generate further sparsity (Michel, Shen, Aiden, Veres, Gray, Pickett, Hoiberg, Clancy, Norvig, Orwant, et al., 2011). Sparsity reflects the suboptimality of writing about a particular topic just a little bit: In order for the signal to be comprehensible there must be a minimum amount of exposition, yet the total amount of text cannot exceed the audience’s attention span. Gabaix (2014) shows that, when agents are boundedly rational, sparsity emerges in equilibrium for a wide variety of economic settings under otherwise general conditions.

Our model also serves as a basis for exploring the relationships between phrases and numerical covariates such as macroeconomic state variables or financial markets prices, which enter as conditioning variables for the distribution of phrase counts. First, the model doubles as a dimension reduction method for text. Like DMR, HDMR generates sufficient reductions of text by projecting phrase counts onto covariates. Sufficient reductions serve as indices that best summarize the text.

\[2\text{ Academic researchers know this well, and therefore tend to use consistent wording to clarify their argument, rather than alternate between synonyms to expound the same contention.}\]
as it relates to each covariate. HDMR produces two such sufficient reductions per covariate: one for word inclusion (the extensive margin) and the other for repetition (the intensive margin). Second, the model can be flipped in order to predict covariates based on text via an inverse regression. This is useful, for example, to backcast key macro variables that have limited histories or missing data, or for “nowcasting” when text is available in a more timely manner than the forecast target.

To illustrate our methodology, we use HDMR to backcast a measure of equity capitalization in the financial sector using the text of The Wall Street Journal. The intermediary capital ratio (ICR) is the central state variable in the growing literature on intermediary-based asset pricing, and helps explain the behavior of risk premia in a wide array of asset classes (He, Kelly, and Manela, 2017). However, it is only available beginning in 1970. From our long sample of The Wall Street Journal text, we estimate an ICR series back to 1945 to investigate the interaction between ICR and asset prices in the historical period.

We find that HDMR gives substantially improved out-of-sample predictions of ICR compared to DMR, which indicates that modeling the selection decision helps with forecasting in this context. HDMR also outperforms support vector regression (Vapnik, 2000), which Manela and Moreira (2017) use for text-based backcasting of the VIX stock market volatility index. Unlike support vector regression, both DMR and HDMR can concentrate on individual variables that behave differently from word counts (i.e. non-text control variables), but are useful for prediction. We find that the out-of-sample advantage of HDMR over DMR increases with the sparsity of the text. As we omit more infrequent words from the dictionary—a common approach to ad hoc pre-filtering of phrases—the document term matrix becomes denser and the text becomes better described by a selection-free DMR model. At the same time, however, more stringent phrase filters lead to a large deterioration in prediction accuracy from either method. Evidently, less filtering (allowing for more phrases) makes for a better prediction model, and also magnifies the benefits of accounting for text selection via the hurdle model.

The backfilled news-implied intermediary capital ratio series provides for more powerful tests that support central predictions of intermediary asset pricing theory. The results show that times when intermediaries are highly capitalized are “good times” when these marginal investors demand a relatively low premium to hold risky assets. Our findings imply that news text of The Wall Street Journal provides a strong signal about stock market risk premia, over and above common financial
market covariates such as the price-dividend ratio and stock volatility.

Our technology is publicly available via the HurdleDMR package for Julia, which can be called from many other programming languages like Python and R. The package allows for computationally efficient distributed estimation of the multiple hurdles over parallel processes, generating sufficient reduction projections, and inverse regressions with selected text. It allows for elastic net type convex combinations of L1 (Lasso) and L2 (Ridge) regularization as in glmnet (Friedman, Hastie, and Tibshirani, 2010), and for concave regularization paths as in gamlr (Taddy, 2017).

We start Section 2 by presenting the intensive margin of our text selection model. Here we follow the distributed multinomial regression (DMR) model of Taddy (2015). Section 2.1 introduces our main contribution, a model for the extensive margin, which we refer to as Hurdle DMR. Section 2.2 shows how regularization allows our methodology to handle a feature space many times larger the number of observations. Section 2.3 describes how to recover low dimension text indices that track variables of interest. Section 2.4 shows how to use these indices for prediction, and establishes that they are sufficient statistics for the information content of non-text covariates. We end the paper in Section 3 with an application of our methodology to backcast the intermediary capital ratio and analyze its historical asset pricing properties.

2 A model for text selection

Let $c_i$ be a vector of counts in $d$ categories, summing to $m_i = \sum_j c_{ij}$, and let $v_i$ be a $p_v$-vector of covariates on observation $i = 1 \ldots n$. In a text application, $c_{ij}$ are counts of word or phrase (n-gram) $j$ in document $i$ with attributes $v_i$ (author, date, etc.). An econometrician confronted with modeling counts data may first consider using a multinomial logistic regression:

$$p(c_i|v_i, m_i) = MN(c_i; q_i, m_i)$$ for $i = 1 \ldots n$,  \hspace{1cm} (1)

$$q_{ij} = \frac{e^{\eta_{ij}}}{\sum_{k=1}^d e^{\eta_{ik}}}$$ for $j = 1 \ldots d$,  \hspace{1cm} (2)

$$\eta_{ij} = \alpha_j + v'_i \varphi_j.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

When the number of categories $d$ is very large, as is the case in many natural language processing applications, estimating the parameters of the multinomial, $\alpha = [\alpha_j]$ and $\varphi = [\varphi_{ij}]$, is computation-
ally costly.\textsuperscript{3} Equation (2), which makes sure that word probabilities \( q_{ij} \) add up to one, is the main barrier to parallelization across categories because every parameter change must be communicated to all other category estimators.

It is well known that the multinomial can be decomposed into independent Poissons conditional on the intensities \( e^{\eta_{ij}} \), scaled by a Poisson for total word counts \( m_i \),

\[
MN(c_i; q_i, m_i) = \frac{\prod_j Po(c_{ij}; e^{\eta_{ij}})}{Po(m_i; \sum_{j=1}^{d} e^{\eta_{ij}})}. \tag{4}
\]

Motivated by this decomposition, Taddy (2015) develops the distributed multinomial regression (DMR), a parallel (independent) Poisson plug-in approximation to the multinomial,

\[
p(c_i|v_i, m_i) = MN(c_i; q_i, m_i) \approx \prod_j Po(c_{ij}; m_i e^{\eta_{ij}}). \tag{5}
\]

The parameters for each category \( j \) can then be estimated independently with negative log likelihood

\[
l(\alpha_j, \varphi_j|c_j, v) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ m_i e^{\alpha_j + v_i e^{\varphi_j}} - c_{ij} (\alpha_j + v_i e^{\varphi_j}) \right]. \tag{6}
\]

Intuitively, each independent Poisson intensity \( \lambda_{ij} = m_i e^{\eta_{ij}} \) is shifted to account for the fact that all words are more likely to appear in longer (high \( m_i \)) documents. Approximation (5) removes the communication bottleneck of recomputing \( \sum_{j=1}^{d} e^{\eta_{ij}} \) and allows for fast and scalable distributed estimation.

Taddy (2013, 2015) uses the DMR to estimate a low dimensional sufficient reduction projection

\[
z_i = \hat{\varphi}'c_i
\]

and shows that \( v_i \) is independent of \( c_i \) conditional on \( z_i \). Put differently, within this model \( z_i \) is a sufficient statistic that summarizes all of the content that the text has for predicting \( v_i \) (or its individual elements). For example, suppose \( v_{iy} \) is the first element of \( v_i \), which is available in a subsample, but needs to be predicted for other subsamples. The first step would be to run a

\textsuperscript{3}For example, our application in Section A.2 has a vocabulary of more than five hundred thousand phrases, i.e. \( d > 500,000 \).
multinomial inverse regression of word counts on the covariates $v$ in the training sample to estimate $\hat{\varphi}$. Second, estimate a forward regression (linear or higher order)

$$
\mathbb{E}[v_{iy}] = \beta_0 + [z_{iy}, v_{i,-y}, m_i]' \beta
$$

where $z_{iy} = \sum_j \hat{\varphi}_j v_{ij}$ is the projection of phrase counts in the direction of $v_{iy}$. Finally, the forward regression can be used to predict $v_{iy}$ using text and the remaining covariates $v_{i,-y}$.

### 2.1 Hurdle distributed multiple regression

In many cases, the Poisson is a poor description of word counts $c_{ij}$. For example, Figure 1 shows the mean histogram (across documents) for the corpus we use below, which consists of 10,000 two-word phrases (bigrams) appearing in the title and lead paragraph of front page Wall Street Journal articles. The left panel shows a substantial mass point at zero that is hard to reconcile with a Poisson. The panel on the right shows that if we restrict attention to positive counts, a (truncated) Poisson is a reasonable approximation for the data. In our experience, this sparsity is a feature of many text samples, which is why most text analysis software packages use sparse matrices to store word counts efficiently. As alluded to above, the economics of natural language selection provides many reasons for this sparsity.

To model text selection, we replace the independent Poissons with a two part hurdle model for counts $c_{ij}$, which we label the hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR):

$$
h_{ij}^* = \kappa_j + w_i' \delta_j + v_{ij},
$$

$$
h_{ij} = 1 \left( h_{ij}^* > 0 \right),
$$

$$
c_{ij}^* = \lambda \left( \alpha_j + v_i' \varphi_j \right) + \varepsilon_{ij} > 0,
$$

$$
c_{ij} = h_{ij} c_{ij}^*.
$$

The first two equations describe the choice to include ($h_{ij} = 1$) or exclude ($h_{ij} = 0$) word $j$ in document $i$, often referred to as the model for zeros or participation. This choice depends on observable covariates $w_i \in \mathbb{R}^{p_w}$ and an unobservable $v_{ij}$. Equation (10) is the model for repetition of positive counts given inclusion in the document, which can depend on the same or other covariates.
$v_i \in \mathbb{R}^{p_i}$ and an unobservable $\varepsilon_{ij}$. The last equation says that we only observe positive counts for included words.

Let $\Pi_0$ denote the discrete density for zeros

$$p(h_{ij} = 0|w_i) = \Pi_0(\kappa_j + w_i\delta_j).$$

Natural choices for $\Pi_0$ are the probit and logit binary choice models. Let $P^+$ denote the model for positive counts, so that conditional on inclusion,

$$p(c_{ij}|v, h_{ij} = 1) = P^+(c_{ij}; \lambda\left(\alpha_j + v_i\varphi_j\right)).$$

Natural choices for $P^+$ are the Poisson and the negative binomial, truncated at zero. Combining terms, noting that $h_{ij} = 1 (c_{ij} > 0)$, the joint density is

$$p(c_{ij}|v_i, w_i) = \left[\Pi_0(\kappa_j + w_i\delta_j)\right]^{1-h_{ij}} \left\{\left[1 - \Pi_0(\kappa_j + w_i\delta_j)\right] P^+(c_{ij}; \lambda\left(\alpha_j + v_i\varphi_j\right))\right\}^{h_{ij}}.$$

The negative log likelihood takes a convenient form

$$l(\alpha, \varphi, \kappa, \delta|c, v, w) = \sum_{j=1}^d l(\alpha_j, \varphi_j, \kappa_j, \delta_j|c_j, v, w),$$

$$l(\alpha_j, \varphi_j, \kappa_j, \delta_j|c_j, v, w) = l^0(\kappa_j, \delta_j|h_j, w) + l^+(\alpha_j, \varphi_j|c_j, v),$$

$$l^0(\kappa_j, \delta_j|h_j, w) = -\sum_{i|h_{ij}=0} \log \Pi_0(\kappa_j + w_i\delta_j) - \sum_{i|h_{ij}=1} \log \left[1 - \Pi_0(\kappa_j + w_i\delta_j)\right],$$

$$l^+(\alpha_j, \varphi_j|c_j, v) = -\sum_{i|h_{ij}=1} \log P^+(c_{ij}; \lambda\left(\alpha_j + v_i\varphi_j\right)).$$

A useful feature of the hurdle is that exclusion ($h_{ij} = 0$) is the only source of zero counts. As a result, it decomposes as in (13) into two parts that can be estimated independently, which facilitates further parallelization.\footnote{Zero inflation models are alternative approaches that allow for latent $c_{ij}^* = 0$, in which case zero count observations could result either from exclusion or from inclusion of zero counts. While this distinction is philosophically interesting, the hurdle is more tractable and faster to estimate.} Specifically, the parameters that govern inclusion, $\kappa_j$ and $\delta_j$, only depend on word $j$ indicators $h_j$ and on the covariates $w$, whereas the parameters that govern repetition,
$\alpha_j$ and $\varphi_j$, only depend on positive word counts $e_j > 0$ and the covariates $v$ and can be estimated separately in the subsample of positive $j$ counts.

HDMR therefore allows one to estimate text selection in Big Data applications of previously impossible scale, by distributing computation across categories and across the two parts of the selection model.

### 2.2 Regularization

In many machine learning applications, the feature space (words) is much larger than the number of observations. In such cases, regularization by penalizing nonzero or large $\varphi$ and $\delta$ coefficients is key to avoid overfit. Our results use $L_1$ regularization separately for each category $j$ and for each of the two parts of the hurdle

$$\hat{\kappa}_j, \hat{\delta}_j = \arg \min_{\kappa_j, \delta_j} l^0(\kappa_j, \delta_j | h_j, w) + n\lambda^0 \sum_{k=1}^{p_w} |\delta_{jk}| \quad \text{where } \lambda^0 \geq 0,$$

$$\hat{\alpha}_j, \hat{\varphi}_j = \arg \min_{\alpha_j, \varphi_j} l^+ \left(\alpha_j, \varphi_j | e_j, v\right) + n^+\lambda^+ \sum_{k=1}^{p_v} |\varphi_{jk}| \quad \text{where } \lambda^+ \geq 0.$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

The penalties $\lambda^0$ and $\lambda^+$ shrink the loadings toward zero, and because of the Lasso-type $L_1$ penalties, result in many zero loadings (Tibshirani, 1996). Because the model for positive counts only depends on documents $i$ that include word $j$, the penalty is normalized by the number of such documents $n^+ \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_{ij}$. Fast coordinate descent algorithms for these minimization problems have been proposed by Friedman, Hastie, and Tibshirani (2010), which trace out regularization paths of solutions, one for each of a grid of $\lambda$’s, for the class of generalized linear models (GLM, McCullagh and Nelder, 1989). We follow Taddy (2017) in selecting the model that minimizes a corrected AIC, though in relatively modest applications one could use cross validation to select the optimal penalty. In Appendix B we show how to specify the two parts of the hurdle as GLMs.

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5We focus on Lasso penalties here to simplify the exposition. Our HurdleDMR package allows for more general elastic net-type regularization as in glmnet (Friedman, Hastie, and Tibshirani, 2010), and for concave regularization paths as in gamlr (Taddy, 2017).
2.3 Sufficient reduction projections

For simplicity, in what follows we focus on the case where \( h_{ij} \) is Binomial (Bernoulli) distributed

\[
p(h_{ij}|w_i) = \left[ \Pi_0 (\kappa_j + w'_i \delta_j) \right]^{1-h_{ij}} \left[ 1 - \Pi_0 (\kappa_j + w'_i \delta_j) \right]^{h_{ij}}
\]

with a logit link,

\[
\log \left( \frac{(1 - \Pi_0)}{\Pi_0} \right) = \kappa_j + w'_i \delta_j + \log m_i.
\]

The distribution of the latent positive counts \( c^*_ij \) is assumed to be Positive Poisson,

\[
p(c_{ij}|v_i, h_{ij} = 1) = Po^+ (c_{ij}; \lambda_{ij}(v_i, m_i)) = \frac{P_0(c_{ij}; \lambda_{ij}(v_i, m_i))}{1 - P_0(0; \lambda_{ij}(v_i, m_i))} = \frac{\lambda_{ij}^{c_{ij}} e^{-\lambda_{ij}}}{c_{ij}! (1 - e^{-\lambda_{ij}})},
\]

with log intensity

\[
\log \lambda_{ij} = \alpha_j + v'_i \varphi_j + \log m_i.
\]

We shift both (19) and (21) by the log of the total number of words in the document \( m_i \) to account for the fact that both probability of both inclusion and repetition increase in a larger document. In the Appendix, we show how to estimate both parts of the hurdle as a GLM, which allows us to use fast coordinate descent algorithms for regularized estimation as in \texttt{glmnet}.

We next show that under these functional forms, the entire empirical content of the text that is useful for predicting a variable in \( w \) or \( v \), is summarized by two low dimension sufficient statistics.

**Result 1.** Assuming a Binomial-logit model for inclusion and a positive Poisson-log model for positive counts, the projection \( \delta h_i \) is a sufficient statistic for \( w_i \) and the projection \( \varphi c_i \) is a sufficient statistic for \( v_i \), conditional on total counts \( m_i \). Specifically,

\[
v_i, w_i \perp h_i, c_i | \delta h_i, \varphi c_i, m_i.
\]

**Proof.** That \( \varphi c_i \) is a sufficient statistic for \( v_i \) as in the DMR case follows from the fact that a sufficient statistic for a distribution is also sufficient for its truncated version (Tukey, 1949). To establish sufficiency of \( \delta h_i \), note that the likelihood for counts \( c_i \) given observed covariates \( v_i \) and...
\( \bm{w}_i \) can be factored into

\[
p(\bm{c}_i|\bm{v}_i,\bm{w}_i) = p(\bm{h}_i \circ \bm{c}_i|\bm{v}_i,\bm{w}_i) = \phi(\bm{c}_i) \psi(\bm{h}_i) a(\bm{w}_i, m_i) b(\bm{v}_i, m_i) \exp \{ \bm{w}'_i \bm{\delta h}_i + \bm{v}'_i \bm{\varphi c}_i \}, \tag{22}
\]

where

\[
\psi(\bm{h}_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \exp \{ h_{ij} (\kappa_j + \log m_i) \},
\]

\[
\phi(\bm{c}_i) = \prod_{j|h_{ij}=1}^{d} \exp \{ c_{ij} (\alpha_j + \log m_i) - \log c_{ij}! \},
\]

\[
a(\bm{w}_i, m_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \frac{1}{1 + e^{\kappa_j + w_i' \delta_j + \log m_i}},
\]

\[
b(\bm{v}_i, m_i) = \prod_{j|h_{ij}=1}^{d} \exp \left\{ -\log \left( e^{m_i e^{\alpha_j + v_i' \varphi_j}} - 1 \right) \right\},
\]

and we use the fact that the Hadamard product \( \bm{h}_i \circ \bm{c}_i \) is equivalent to \( \bm{c}_i \) here. Hence, the usual sufficiency factorization (e.g., Schervish, 1995, Theorem 2.21) applies yielding the stated result.

Result 1 means that once we estimate the HDMR parameters, we can reduce the high-dimension \((d)\) text into low-dimension \((p_v + p_w)\) sentiment scores from the text in the direction of the covariates in \( \bm{v} \) or \( \bm{w} \). The projections provide useful summaries of the text, which can be plotted or used as a dimensionality reduction first-step into a more elaborate analysis pipeline. As in Taddy (2015), the sufficient statistics \( \bm{\delta h}_i \) and \( \bm{\varphi c}_i \) rely on population parameters, but in practice we use plug-in estimators \( \hat{\bm{\delta h}}_i \) and \( \hat{\bm{\varphi c}}_i \). Whether these provide useful approximations is a setting dependent empirical matter.

### 2.4 Inverse regression for prediction

The end goal of many machine learning or natural language processing applications is out-of-sample prediction. Result 1 provides a guide to supervised learning from text via an inverse regression of the text on the target variable and other covariates Taddy (2013). The parameters from the HDMR inverse regression in the training sample are used to form a bivariate sufficient reduction projection of the text. A forward regression (still in the training sample) of the target variable on these projections plus the other covariates is then used to construct the predictor.
More concretely, suppose the target variable \( v_{iy} = w_{iy} \) is an element of both \( v_i \) and \( w_i \). We first construct two univariate sufficient reduction projections \( z_{iy}^0 = \delta_y h_{iy} \) and \( z_{iy}^+ = \varphi_y c_{iy} \). Because the estimated loadings \( \delta_y \) and \( \varphi_y \) are partial effects, controlling for the other covariates, \( w_{i,-y} \) and \( v_{i,-y} \), the projections \( z_{iy}^0 \) and \( z_{iy}^+ \) correspond to partial associations as well. Conditional on the parameters, \( z_{iy}^0 \) contains all the information that is useful for predicting \( v_{iy} \) from the selection of words used in the text (the extensive margin). Similarly, \( z_{iy}^+ \) contains the incremental predictive information in repeating words within document \( i \) (the intensive margin). Intuitively, HDMR can learn separately from both the extensive and intensive margins, and use them for more efficient prediction. We would then estimate a forward regression (linear or higher order)

\[
\mathbb{E}[v_{iy}] = \beta_0 + \left[z_{iy}^0, z_{iy}^+, w_{i,-y}, v_{i,-y}, m_i\right]' \beta
\]

(23)

which can be used to predict \( v_{iy} \) using text and the remaining covariates \( w_{i,-y} \) and \( v_{i,-y} \). In the case that the target variable is only an element of \( w (v) \), one would only use \( z_{iy}^0 (z_{iy}^+) \) in the forward regression.

3 Application: Backfilling the intermediary capital ratio

Recent empirical work finds empirical support for intermediary asset pricing theories (He and Krishnamurthy, 2013; Brunnermeier and Sannikov, 2014). In particular He, Kelly, and Manela (2017) find that a simple two-factor model that includes the excess stock market return and the aggregate capital ratio of major financial intermediaries—primary dealers—can explain cross-sectional variation in expected returns across a wide array of asset classes. They also present preliminary results on return predictability (time-series regressions), but their conclusions are limited by a relatively short time-series that starts in 1970. Prior to 1970, most primary dealers were private, which preclude a calculation of their capital ratio.

We conjecture that as a publication catering to investors, text that appears on the front page of the Wall Street Journal would be informative about the aggregate state of the intermediary sector. Dire language on financial intermediaries’ failure is used to cover unfolding crises like the financial crisis of 2008, the LTCM liquidity crisis following Russia’s default in 1998, and the failure
of important dealers like Drexel Burnham Lambert in 1990.

3.1 Data

Our text data includes all titles and lead paragraphs that appear on the front page of the *Wall Street Journal* from July 1926 to February 2016. We include the 10,000 most frequent two-word phrases (bigrams) in separate sentences, after removing case, stopwords, nonletters and Porter stemming. We aggregate the data to the monthly frequency so that $c_t$ are phrase counts observed during month $t$.

Figure 1 shows the mean histogram for phrase counts in this sample. The left panel shows that the entire range is highly sparse (has many zeros). The right panel omits zero counts, and shows that a truncated (at zero) Poisson distribution is a reasonable approximation for the positive range of counts.

We match this data with the monthly intermediary capital ratio $icr_t$ of He, Kelly, and Manela (2017). This ratio is our prediction target and is therefore the first element of both covariates vectors $v_t$ and $w_t$. We additionally include in both, two natural covariates that are likely to be correlated with the $icr_t$: the log price over annualized dividend ratio $pd_t$ from CRSP, and log realized variance $rv_t$ which is the sum of squared daily market returns over month $t$. Table 1 reports summary statistics for all variables.

Our selection model is parametrically identified and therefore technically does not require that different variables be used in the inclusion and repetition equation. However, Heckman (1979) selection models are known to be nonparametrically identified if a continuous variable enters the selection equation but can be excluded from second equation (Gallant and Nychka, 1987; Heckman and MaCurdy, 1986). Proving such a result in our setting can be useful, but left for future work. Motivated by their insight, we seek an instrument for word inclusion.

Eisensee and Stromberg (2007) suggest news pressure as an instrument for the television coverage of natural disasters, which is available starting 1967. Because we wish to backfill the ICR as far back as possible, we use a variant of news pressure suggested in Manela (2014), which is the mean monthly number of pages in the first section (A) of the *Wall Street Journal*. The idea for

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6 The ICR is available on Asaf Manela’s website: http://apps.olin.wustl.edu/faculty/manela/data.html
this selection shifter is that on high news pressure days, such as election periods or major sporting events, the first section is larger to account for both more news and more ad space. On such days, we expect the average phrase to be crowded out of the front page, so that on the margin, the probability of inclusion is diminished. We therefore include the monthly average number of pages in section A, biznewspress, in the inclusion equation (in \( w_t \)). By excluding it from the repetition equation we assume that the editor mostly picks topics that are newsworthy given both news pressure and its budget constraint, but that conditional on topic inclusion, the number of words per article is relatively constant. This is obviously an approximation, and unlikely to be universally true. To the extent it is wrong, we would expect this exclusion restriction to hurt the out-of-sample performance of our model.

### 3.2 Sparsity and out-of-sample fit

A key choice in the data cleaning stage of many text analyses, is to omit words or phrases that rarely appear in the sample. For example, we may keep the \( X \) most frequent phrases. From the vantage point of our selection model, this choice is important. If the “cleansed” word counts matrix \( c \) is highly dense because phrases that often do not appear in the text are excluded from the analysis, then the benefit of modeling the extensive margin is likely to be low. Therefore, we assess the improvement in out-of-sample fit as a function of the number of most frequent phrases used kept in the sample.

Figure 2 compares the out-of-sample root mean squared error from a 10-fold cross validation exercise. It compares HDMR with DMR, which is provided with the same covariates and text, and with a linear regression of the target on the same covariates but without the text. Both DMR and HDMR improve considerably over the No Text benchmark and reduce the error by about 50 percent (from 1.4 to 0.7 percentage points). We can see that when only a few hundred words are included in the sample and the text, both DMR and HDMR generate a similar improvement, but as rarer phrases are included in the sample, and selection play a bigger role, the benefit from using HDMR increases. The advantage is hump-shaped, and eventually, as rarely used phrases enter the sample, the out-of-sample fit of both text models suffers.

Because our prediction exercise involves using data in one time period to predict out-of-sample in a different time, cross-validation with random fold selection may be misleading when both the
text and target variable are persistent. For example, if the model relies heavily on the fact that the phrase “subprime mortgage” appears often in the period around the 2008 financial crisis when intermediary capital was low, but not in earlier parts of the sample, then random cross-validation, which would likely include observations around the same period in the test subsamples, may give an overly optimistic measure of out-of-sample fit.

Figure 3, therefore, uses a serial variant of cross-validation, where instead of randomly splitting the sample into folds, we split it into 10 serial folds. The first fold is 1970-01 to 1974-07, then 1974-08 to 1979-02, and so on. Consistent with our concern, all models perform somewhat worse when evaluated based on serial cross-validation fit. Interestingly, we find that the advantage of HDMR over DMR is somewhat larger in this case.

3.3 News-implied intermediary capital ratio, 1945–2016

Having established that our model produces good out-of-sample fit, we use it to backfill the intermediary capital ratio back to the January 1946, the first month when biznewspres is available. Figure 4 shows that the intermediary capital ratio predicted by HDMR closely follows the actual one in the period when the actual one exists, 1970–2016. The realized variance and price-dividend ratio, which alone can explain much of the variation in the ICR, provide a back-bone for the predictor, as can be seen from the No Text benchmark. DMR, HDMR, and SVR, all use these covariates plus the text to improve prediction, but generate somewhat different time-series. For example, the HDMR predicted values appear lower than those of DMR and feature more negative spikes in the capital ratio. The SVR predictor makes clear that it does not find the variation in \( rv \) and \( pd \) important.

3.4 Explaining the text

To better understand what HDMR does, it is useful to examine phrase loadings on the covariates. Because these coefficient matrices are high-dimensional, we simply report in Table 3 the phrases with the top most positive and negative loadings on each variable. Because many rare phrases would hardly affect the predicted value, we multiply each phrase loading by the square-root of the mean count for the phrase \( \bar{c}_j \) before sorting to get terms that are both associated with the variable and relatively frequent (Airoldi and Bischof, 2016; Taddy, 2016).
Regularization results in over 57 percent of all coefficients being exactly zero and helps HDMR avoid overfit. Some phrases, such as the positively associated “nation recoveri” and the negatively associated “hedg fund,” capture fairly robust features of the data. Still, many phrases such as “barack obama,” a US president elected at the peak of the 2008 financial crisis, show up as negatively correlated with the ICR, even though they are unlikely to be useful for its prediction before 2008.

Realized variance ($rv$) is higher than average when the front page mentions the market prices of commodities (“bushel wheat”), fixed income securities (“yr trea”) and stocks (“stock nyse”). The price-dividend ratio ($pd$) is higher when technology is covered prominently (“technolog journal” “nasdaq”), but low when coverage focuses on employment (“labor letter”, “jobless marri”, “hour earn”).

Loadings on the inclusion instrument (biznewspres) suggest that the first section of the Journal is thicker when the federal government generates news (“washington wire”) as would be the case during election periods. During these periods, coverage of commodities is crowded out of the front page (“bushel wheat”, “futur barrel”, “commod oil”).

### 3.5 Focusing on a single phrase for intuition

For a better intuitive understanding of how these inverse regression loadings translate into forward regression prediction, we next focus on a single phrase, “financi crisi.” We expect front page reports of financial crises to be a negative signal about the capital ratio of the intermediary sector.

The backward hurdle regression estimates in the first two columns of Table 4a show that the ICR is indeed negatively correlated with repeated mentions of “financi crisi,” but also that the mere inclusion of this phrase on the front page is a strong negative signal, conditional on realized variance and the price-dividend. The negative coefficient on biznewspres means that above average business news pressure crowds out financial crisis coverage from the front page. The last column shows that a Poisson regression (DMR) treats inclusion and repetition as a single object, and does not assign any weight to news pressure, even though it is included in the (regularized) regression.

These coefficients, are used to construct the two sufficient reduction projections, $z_{ty}^0 = \delta_y h_{ty}$ and $z_{ty}^+ = \varphi_y c_{ty}$, and plugged into a forward regression of the ICR on the these and the remaining
covariates, as described in Section 2.4:

\[ y_t = b_0 + b_z z_{t,y}^+ + b_s z_{t,y}^0 + b_v v_{t,-y} + b_m m_t + \varepsilon_t. \]

The contribution of a single phrase \( j \) to the predicted value is therefore

\[ \hat{y}_{tj} = b_z \varphi_{jy} (c_{tj}/m_t) + b_s \delta_{jy} (h_{tj}/m_t). \]

Table 4b reports the forward regression coefficients’ products with those of the backward regression, \( b_z \varphi_{jy} \) and \( b_s \delta_{jy} \) for HDMR, and contrasts it with the corresponding single coefficient product of DMR. We can see that much of the contribution of “finançir crisi” to the predicted value in HDMR comes from the extensive margin. A different way to see this is by looking at the time series \( \hat{y}_{tj} \), which appears in Figure 5. A single mention of financial crises is all it takes for HDMR to predict a lower intermediary capital, whereas DMR does not separate inclusion from repetition.

### 3.6 Time-varying risk premia and the intermediary capital ratio

A central prediction of the intermediary asset pricing model (He and Krishnamurthy, 2012, 2013) is that times when intermediaries are highly capitalized are “good times,” when these marginal investors demand a relatively low risk premium to hold investment assets. Preliminary such time-series predictability regression reported in He, Kelly, and Manela (2017) support this prediction, but the short time-series used there limits the power of these tests.

The backfilled news-implied intermediary capital ratio allows us to test this prediction in a larger sample that spans the entire post-war period. To understand better whether the predictive ability comes from covariates that are known predictors like price-dividend ratio or from the text, we regress future stock market excess returns at various horizons on lagged sufficient reduction projections \( z_{t-1}^0, z_{t-1}^+, \) and covariates \( rv_{t-1}, pd_{t-1} \) and \( biznewspre_{s,t-1} \). Because such regressions use overlapping observations, we use the standard Hodrick (1992) correction to the standard errors. For comparison, we report similar regressions where the single DMR projection \( z_{t-1}^\text{dmr} \) is used instead. Results are reported in Table 5.

We find that the inclusion projection \( z_{t-1}^0 \) is a strong predictor of future market returns, over and
above the price-dividend ratio, but that the repetition projection $z_{t-1}^+$ is only marginally statistically significant, as is the case for $z_{t-1}^{d_{mr}}$.

The results imply that there is a set of phrases whose inclusion on the front page of the Journal provides a strong signal about stock market risk premia, over and above the valuation ratio ($pd$). HDMR provides an efficient way to identify these phrases and their relative weights in a data driven approach while avoiding overfit.

4 Conclusion

Text data is inherently high-dimensional, which makes machine learning regularization techniques natural tools for its analysis. Text is often selected by journalists, speechwriters, and others who cater to an audience with limited attention.

We develop an economically-motivated high dimensional selection model that can improve machine learning from text in particular and from sparse counts data more generally. Our highly scalable approach to modeling coverage selection is especially useful in cases where the cover/no-cover choice is separate or more interesting than the coverage quantity choice.

We apply this framework to backfill a central financial variable to historical periods using newspaper coverage, and find that it substantially improves out-of-sample fit relative to alternative state-of-the-art approaches. This advantage increases with the sparsity of the text.
A Robustness

A.1 Alternative text regressions

Table 2a focuses on the optimal model by cross-validation, the one that uses the 10,000 most frequent phrases and compares HDMR to several benchmarks. For each model we report the measure of fit with and without the text, and the percent change in the measure of fit (%Δ).

The first benchmark is DMR, which is provided with the same covariates and text. The improvement from modeling selection with HDMR is a 10 percent reduction in out-of-sample root mean squared error, from 83 to 75 basis points. This is a 45 percent improvement relative to the No Text benchmark that only uses the other covariates to predict.

The second benchmark model is a “fabricated” variant of HDMR (FHDMR) which adds \( h_{ij} \) indicators to the text counts matrix \( c \) and then runs DMR as usual with \( \tilde{c} = [c \ h] \). If all that HDMR was doing is allow for a nonlinearity of the counts matrix, we would expect FHDMR to do just as well. Instead we find that it generates an 83 basis point RMSE, which almost identical to the 82 bp of DMR.

The last benchmark we consider is support vector regression (SVR), which Manela and Moreira (2017) use for a similar backfilling purpose. We follow their approach to calibrating the SVR meta-parameters. Even though we standardize both text and covariates to unit variance, SVR still cannot concentrate on the covariates, which provide first order information on our prediction target. SVR with text improves considerably on an SVR without text, but its 99 basis points error rate is much larger than that of HDMR.

Table 2b reports serial cross-validation results, and finds an even larger improvement in out-of-sample fit from using HDMR.

A.2 Denser text

For a shorter time-series, 1990 to 2010, we can assess HDMR with much denser text—the full Wall Street Journal. Figure 6 shows that the mean distribution of phrase counts is now much less concentrated at zero, even when we include the top 500,000 most frequent phrases. Note that some individual phrases still exhibit many more zeros than implied by a Poisson.

Figure 7 shows that in this sample, the advantage from using the richer body of text is larger,
as it attains lower out-of-sample error rates. These results, however, could also be driven by the
different time period. What does seem like a robust conclusion from this comparison is that the
advantage of HDMR over DMR increases with the sparsity of the text, which is plotted in the
bottom panel. With \( d = 500,000 \) phrases, the counts matrix is just over 60 percent zeros, and
HDMR reduces out-of-sample root mean squared error by 56 percent (121 to 53 basis points)
relative to the No Text benchmark, and by 19 percent (65 to 53 bp) relative to DMR.

B Estimation Details

To apply the coordinate descent algorithms developed by Friedman, Hastie, and Tibshirani (2010)
to our selection model, we frame the hurdle model as a GLM. Its first part, the model for zeros,
is a simple Binomial-logit (McCullagh and Nelder, 1989). Its second part, however, is a Positive
Poisson (truncated at zero). We next show how to map the Positive Poisson to a GLM.

B.1 Positive Poisson as a GLM

The Positive (zero-truncated) Poisson density with intensity \( \lambda = e^\eta \) is

\[
p(y; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^y e^{-\lambda}}{y! (1 - e^{-\lambda})} = \exp(y\eta - b(\eta) - \log y!),
\]

with

\[
b(\eta) = \log\left(e^\lambda - 1\right) = \log\left(e^{e^\eta} - 1\right).
\]

The linear predictor \( \mu \) is

\[
\mu = E[y|\lambda] = b'(\eta) = \frac{\lambda}{1 - e^{-\lambda}} = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 - e^{-e^\eta}} = g^{-1}(\eta).
\]

For GLM we need \( \eta \) to be a one-to-one function \( g(\cdot) \) of the linear predictor \( \mu \)

\[
\eta = \alpha + v'\varphi = g(\mu)
\]

The following Lemma proves useful
Lemma 1. Suppose $\lambda$ such that $e^{\lambda} \neq 1$, $\mu \neq 0$, and

$$\mu = \frac{\lambda}{1 - e^{-\lambda}}$$

then $\lambda$ is a one-to-one function $f(\cdot)$ of $\mu$ given by

$$\lambda = f(\mu) = \mu + \mathcal{W}(-e^{-\mu})$$

where $\mathcal{W}$ is Lambert’s $W$ function (also known as the omega function or product log).

As a corollary,

$$\eta = g(\mu) = \log (\mu + \mathcal{W}(-e^{-\mu}))$$

Fast algorithms for calculating Lambert’s W are readily available.

The derivative of the linear predictor w.r.t $\eta$ is

$$\frac{d\mu}{d\eta} = \mu \left[1 - \mu e^{-\lambda}\right] = \mu \left[1 - \mu e^{-\eta}\right].$$

The log likelihood of each realized observation $y$ as a function of $\mu$ is

$$\ell(\mu, y) = \log p(y; f(\mu)) = \begin{cases} y \log f(\mu) - \log (e^{f(\mu)} - 1) - \log y! & y > 1, \mu > 1 \\ -\infty & y > 1, \mu \downarrow 1 \\ \log [-\mathcal{W}(-e^{-\mu})] - f(\mu) & y = 1, \mu > 1 \\ 0 & y = 1, \mu \downarrow 1 \end{cases}$$

and deviance is

$$2 [\ell(y, y) - \ell(\mu, y)] = 2 \times \begin{cases} y \log f(y) - \log (e^{f(y)} - 1) - y \log f(\mu) + \log (e^{f(\mu)} - 1) & y > 1, \mu > 1 \\ +\infty & y > 1, \mu \downarrow 1 \\ f(\mu) - \log \mu & y = 1, \mu > 1 \\ 0 & y = 1, \mu \downarrow 1 \end{cases}$$
Because for large $y$ or $\mu$, the exponents in (25) blow up, it is numerically better to evaluate the $\log(e^x - 1)$ terms as $x + \log(1 - e^{-x})$. 
References


Gentzkow, Matthew, Jesse M Shapiro, and Matt Taddy, 2017, Measuring polarization in high-dimensional data: Method and application to congressional speech, Discussion paper National Bureau of Economic Research.


Figure 1: Mean distribution of WSJ front page articles monthly phrase counts

Notes: The figure shows the mean histogram for phrases that appear in the title or lead paragraph of front page *Wall Street Journal* articles, aggregated to form a monthly sample from July 1926 to February 2016. We construct the mean histogram by first calculating a histogram for each phrase across documents, and then averaging over phrases. The left panel shows that the entire range is highly sparse (has many zeros). The right panel omits zero counts, and shows that a truncated (at zero) Poisson distribution is a reasonable approximation for the positive range of counts. The corpus includes the 10,000 most frequent two-word phrases (bigrams) in separate sentences, after removing case, stopwords, nonletters and Porter stemming. Including less frequent phrases makes the corpus sparser and the pattern above more pronounced.
Figure 2: Predicting the intermediary capital ratio with text and covariates

Notes: The top panel reports out-of-sample root mean squared error from a 10-fold cross validation exercise that tries to predict the intermediary capital ratio ($icr_t$) using log realized variance ($rv_t$), the log price dividend ratio ($pd_t$), business news pressure ($biznewspres_t$), and monthly WSJ front page phrase counts, over the subsample when the capital ratio is available, January 1970 to February 2016. Our proposed model, the hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) is compared with two benchmarks: (a) The distributed multinomial regression (DMR), which is provided with the same covariates and text, is a state-of-the-art approach to prediction with high-dimensional text, and (b) a linear regression of the target on the same covariates without the text (No Text). The figure shows how the advantage of HDMR in terms of out-of-sample fit changes as a function of the number of most frequent phrases included in the corpus. The bottom panel shows how sparsity increases with this choice, where sparsity is the fraction of zero phrase counts in the corpus.
Figure 3: Predicting the intermediary capital ratio with text and covariates: Serial cross-validation

Notes: The top panel reports out-of-sample root mean squared error from a 10-fold cross validation exercise that tries to predict the intermediary capital ratio ($icr_t$) using log realized variance ($rv_t$), the log price dividend ratio ($pd_t$), business news pressure ($biznewspre$t), and monthly WSJ front page phrase counts, over the subsample when the capital ratio is available, January 1970 to February 2016. Unlike the random folds used before for validation, here we assess fit with serial folds, each constituting a distinct sub-period. Our proposed model, the hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) is compared with two benchmarks: (a) The distributed multinomial regression (DMR), which is provided with the same covariates and text, is a state-of-the-art approach to prediction with high-dimensional text, and (b) a linear regression of the target on the same covariates without the text (No Text). The figure shows how the advantage of HDMR in terms of out-of-sample fit changes as a function of the number of most frequent phrases included in the corpus. The bottom panel shows how sparsity increases with this choice, where sparsity is the fraction of zero phrase counts in the corpus.
Figure 4: Backfilling the intermediary capital ratio with text and covariates

Notes: The figure shows the predicted intermediary capital ratio ($\hat{icr}_t$) using log realized variance ($rv_t$), the log price dividend ratio ($pd_t$), and monthly WSJ front page phrase counts, over the extended sample, January 1946 to February 2016. The intermediary capital ratio is only available starting January 1970. Our proposed model, the hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) is compared with two benchmarks: (a) distributed multinomial regression (DMR, Taddy, 2015), which is provided with the same covariates and text, (b) support vector regression (SVR), and (c) linear regression of the target on the same covariates without the text (No Text).
Figure 5: Focusing on a single phrase for intuition

Notes: The figure shows the predicted intermediary capital ratio ($\hat{icr_t}$) due only to a single stemmed phrase, “financi crisi.” Our proposed model, the hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) gives more weight to the mere inclusion of this phrase on the front page of the Wall Street Journal, as opposed to its repeated use. Distributed multinomial regression (DMR) estimates, which does not break the variation into inclusion versus repetition, are shown for comparison.
Figure 6: Mean distribution of full WSJ monthly phrase counts

Notes: The figure shows the mean histogram for phrases that appear in the title or body of all Wall Street Journal articles, aggregated to form a monthly sample from January 1990 to December 2010. We construct the mean histogram by first calculating a histogram for each phrase across documents, and then averaging over phrases. The corpus includes the 500,000 most frequent two-word phrases (bigrams) in separate sentences, after removing case, stopwords, nonletters and Porter stemming. Including less frequent phrases makes the corpus sparser and the pattern above more pronounced.
Figure 7: Predicting the intermediary capital ratio with denser text and covariates

Notes: The top panel reports out-of-sample root mean squared error from a 10-fold cross validation exercise that tries to predict the intermediary capital ratio (icrt) using log realized variance (rvt), the log price dividend ratio (pdt), business news pressure (biznewspresit), and all monthly WSJ phrase counts, over the subsample when this text is available, January 1990 to December 2010. Our proposed model, the hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) is compared with two benchmarks: (a) The distributed multinomial regression (DMR), which is provided with the same covariates and text, is a state-of-the-art approach to prediction with high-dimensional text, and (b) a linear regression of the target on the same covariates without the text (No Text). The figure shows how the advantage of HDMR in terms of out-of-sample fit changes as a function of the number of most frequent phrases included in the corpus. The bottom panel shows how sparsity increases with this choice, where sparsity is the fraction of zero phrase counts in the corpus.
### Table 1: Summary Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>p10</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>p90</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Obs</th>
<th>Available</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$icr$</td>
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<td>0.02</td>
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<td>192607–201605</td>
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<td>4.02</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>1075</td>
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<td>839</td>
<td>194601–201605</td>
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</table>

Notes: Reported are summary statistics for variables in the monthly sample from July 1926 to May 2016. Intermediary capital ratio ($icr_t$) is the aggregate ratio of market equity to market equity plus book debt of New York Fed primary dealers. The log price over past year dividends ($pd_t$) is from CRSP. The log realized variance ($rv_t$) is the sum of squared daily market returns over month $t$. Business news pressure ($biznewspres_t$) is the mean monthly number of pages in the first section (A) of the *Wall Street Journal*. 


Table 2: Predicting the intermediary capital ratio with text and covariates

(a) Cross-validation with 10 random folds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Out-of-sample</th>
<th>In-sample</th>
<th>Out-of-sample</th>
<th>In-sample</th>
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</thead>
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<td>R-squared</td>
<td>RMSE</td>
<td>R-squared</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>No Text</td>
<td>%Δ</td>
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<td>HDMR</td>
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<td>0.014</td>
<td>-44.926</td>
<td>0.006</td>
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<tr>
<td>DMR</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.014</td>
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<tr>
<td>FHDMR</td>
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<td>0.014</td>
<td>-39.793</td>
<td>0.007</td>
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<tr>
<td>SVR</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>-51.760</td>
<td>0.006</td>
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</table>

(b) Cross-validation with 10 serial folds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
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<th>Out-of-sample</th>
<th>In-sample</th>
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</thead>
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<td>RMSE</td>
<td>R-squared</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>SVR</td>
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<td>0.592</td>
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</table>

Notes: Reported are in- and out-of-sample root mean squared error (RMSE) and R-squared from a 10-fold cross validation exercise that tries to predict the intermediary capital ratio ($icr_t$) using log realized variance ($rv_t$), the log price dividend ratio ($pd_t$), business news pressure ($biznewspres_t$), and monthly WSJ front page phrase counts, over the subsample when the capital ratio is available, January 1970 to February 2016. Panel (a) uses random folds for validation while Panel (b) uses serial folds, each constituting a distinct sub-period. Our proposed model, the hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) is compared with three benchmarks: (a) distributed multinomial regression (DMR, Taddy, 2015), which is provided with the same covariates and text, (b) a “fabricated” variant of HDMR which adds $h_{ij} = 1$ ($c_{ij} > 0$) indicators to the text counts matrix $c$ and then runs DMR (FHDMR), and (c) support vector regression (SVR). For each model we report the measure of fit with and without the text, and the percent change in the measure of fit ($%\Delta$).
Table 3: Explaining the text with intermediary capital ratio-related covariates

(a) Frequent phrases with the most positive loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Sparsity</th>
<th>Top positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>icr0</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>labor letter, busi bulletin, tax report, washington wire, gross net, nation recoveri, presid clinton, trend take, job trend, life job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rv0</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>barrel dow, bushel wheat, yr trea, trea yld, dow jone, aig spot, futur dj, outstand stock, aig futur, stock nyse</td>
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<tr>
<td>pd0</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td>barack obama, yr trea, trea yld, technolog journal, insid journal, journal insid, naesdaq amp, commod oil, aig futur, weekend journal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biznewspres0</td>
<td>0.637</td>
<td>washington wire, busi bulletin, tax report, labor letter, report steel, journal special, substanti gain, rubber tire, presid reagan, life job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>icr+</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td>confer washington, ounc dow, miami beach, presid clinton, survey found, bosnia muslim, clinton health, presid slobodan, serb croat, barrel dow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rv+</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>west africa, amp unfil, falun gong, stock market, republican guard, composi index, john mccain, dow jone, jone industri, abu dhabi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pd+</td>
<td>0.861</td>
<td>c c, avail headlin, yr treasuri, treasuri yld, bond yr, eastern ukrain, amp unfil, announc week, al qaeda, mosammar gadhafi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Frequent phrases with the most negative loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Sparsity</th>
<th>Top negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>icr0</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>barack obama, presid barack, obama adminstr, substanti gain, unit total, bodi stock, al qaeda, compar januari, regist co, hedg fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rv0</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>busi bulletin, tax report, washington wire, substanti gain, labor letter, chase nation, press build, bodi stock, chicago rock, amp unfil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pd0</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td>labor letter, busi bulletin, tax report, washington wire, jobless marri, steel product, factori shipment, hour earn, lead indic, busi failur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biznewspres0</td>
<td>0.637</td>
<td>bushel wheat, futur barrel, commod oil, jone aig, aig futur, barrel dow, barack obama, dj aig, al qaeda, chicago rock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>icr+</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td>yr treasuri, construct spend, wsj research, treasuri yld, euro zone, c c, bond yr, announc week, marshal field, avail headlin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rv+</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>intern aid, american cyanamid, construct spend, survey found, buyer market, vote presid, sharp contrast, harrisburg pa, talk aim, unit sale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pd+</td>
<td>0.861</td>
<td>presid clinton, barrel dow, fiscal cliff, hurrican katrina, confer washington, bosnia muslim, wire clinton, orang counti, survey found, serb croat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: The table reports the 20 phrases with the most positive or most negative loadings estimated in an HDMR of monthly WSJ front page phrase counts on the intermediary capital ratio (icrit), log realized variance (rvit), the log price dividend ratio (pdit), business news pressure (biznewspresit), over the subsample when the capital ratio is available, January 1970 to February 2016. We multiply each phrase loading by the square-root of the mean count for the phrase cij before sorting to get terms that are both associated with the variable and relatively frequent. Superscript 0 and + indicate, respectively, variable loadings in the inclusion and repetition equations. Sparsity is the fraction of phrase loadings that are exactly zero. The corpus includes the 10,000 most frequent two-word phrases (bigrams) in separate sentences, after removing case, stopwords, nonletters and Porter stemming.
Table 4: Focusing on a single phrase for intuition: “financial crisis”

(a) Backward regressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HDMR</th>
<th>DMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Inclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-8.06</td>
<td>-16.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>icr</td>
<td>-33.41</td>
<td>-60.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rv</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pd</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biznewspres</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Forward regressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HDMR</th>
<th>DMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Inclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biznewspres</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Panel (a) reports backward HDMR coefficient estimates for the (stemmed) phrase “financial crisis” on the covariates, which exclude biznewspres from the repetition equation (the model for positive counts). Panel (b) reports the forward regression coefficients’ products with those of the backward regression, \( b_z\phi_{\mathbf{jy}} \) and \( b_z\delta_{\mathbf{jy}} \) for HDMR, and contrasts it with the corresponding single coefficient product of DMR. The hurdle distributed multiple regression (HDMR) gives more weight to the mere inclusion of this phrase on the front page of the Wall Street Journal, as opposed to its repeated use. Distributed multinomial regression (DMR) estimates, which does not break the variation into inclusion versus repetition, are shown for comparison. The corpus includes the 10,000 most frequent two-word phrases (bigrams) in separate sentences, after removing case, stopwords, nonletters and Porter stemming.
Table 5: Time-varying risk premia and the news-implied intermediary capital ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dep. Var:</th>
<th>$r_{t\rightarrow t+1}^{em}$</th>
<th>$r_{t\rightarrow t+3}^{em}$</th>
<th>$r_{t\rightarrow t+6}^{em}$</th>
<th>$r_{t\rightarrow t+12}^{em}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$z_{t-1}$</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-2.49)</td>
<td>(-2.93)</td>
<td>(-2.49)</td>
<td>(-2.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$z_{t-1}^{+}$</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.28)</td>
<td>(2.13)</td>
<td>(1.38)</td>
<td>(0.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$z_{t-1}^{dmr}$</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.69)</td>
<td>(-1.48)</td>
<td>(-1.49)</td>
<td>(-1.77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{vt-1}$</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.22)</td>
<td>(0.10)</td>
<td>(1.37)</td>
<td>(1.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$pd_{t-1}$</td>
<td>-1.37</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
<td>-1.42</td>
<td>-1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-3.19)</td>
<td>(-2.74)</td>
<td>(-3.23)</td>
<td>(-2.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$biznewsprest_{t-1}$</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.02)</td>
<td>(0.43)</td>
<td>(0.57)</td>
<td>(-0.13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared, %</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obs</td>
<td>834</td>
<td>834</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>832</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Reported are time-series predictability regression estimates of future stock market excess returns at one to twelve months horizon on lagged sufficient reduction projections $z_{t-1}^{0}$, $z_{t-1}^{+}$ that summarize the text, the log realized variance ($r_{vt-1}$), log price-dividend ratio ($pd_{t-1}$) and business news pressure ($biznewsprest_{t-1}$). For comparison, we report similar regressions where the single DMR projection $z_{t-1}^{dmr}$ is used instead. The corpus includes the 10,000 most frequent two-word phrases (bigrams) in separate sentences, after removing case, stopwords, nonletters and Porter stemming. We report $t$-statistics based on Hodrick (1992) standard errors in parentheses.