Lecture 6: Bootstrap

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June 15, 2015

Introduction

Bootstrap, originated from Efron (1979), is an extremely powerful and influential idea for statistical estimation and inference.

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \sim F$ be an i.i.d. sample of n observations following a distribution F. The finite sample distribution of a statistic $T_n(\theta) \sim G_n(\cdot, F)$ usually depend on the sample size n, as well as the known true distribution F. Asymptotic theory approximate $G_n(\cdot, F)$ by its limit

$$G(\cdot, F) := \lim_{n \to \infty} G_n(\cdot, F);$$

if $T_n(\theta)$ if asymptotically pivotal then $G_n(\cdot, F)$ is independent of F.

Instead of referring to the limiting distribution, Bootstrap replaces the unknown distribution F in $G_n(\cdot, F)$ by a consistent estimator F_n of the true distribution, for example, the empirical distribution function. Bootstrap inference is drawn from the bootstrap distribution

$$G_n^*(\cdot) := G_n(\cdot, F_n)$$

Implementation of bootstrap is almost always a Monte Carlo simulation. In i.i.d. environment we sample over each observation with equal weight, while in dependent dataset such as time series, clustering data or networks, we must adjust the sampling schedule to keep the dependence structure.

In many regular cases, it is possible to show in theory the *consistency* of bootstrap: the statistic of interest and its bootstrap version converge to the same asymptotic distribution, or $G_n^*(a) \to G(a)$ for a such that G(a) is continuous. However, bootstrap consistency can fail when the distribution of the statistic is discontinuous in the limit. Bootstrap is invalid in such cases. For instance, bootstrap fails to replicate the asymptotic distribution of the two-stage least squares estimator under weak instruments.

Execution in R Bootstrap is simple enough to be done by a "ply"-family function for repeated simulations. Alternatively, R package boot provides a general function boot().

Bootstrap Estimation

Bootstrap is useful when the analytical formula of the variance of an econometric estimator is too complex to derive or code up.

Example: One of the most popular estimators for a sample selection model is Heckman(1979)'s two-step method. Let the outcome equation be

$$y_i = x_i \beta + u_i$$

and the selection equation be

$$D_i = z_i \gamma + v_i$$

To obtain a point estimator, we simply run a Probit in the selection model, predict the probability of participation, and then run an OLS of y_i on x_i and $\lambda(\hat{D}_i)$ in the outcome model, where $\lambda(\cdot)$ is the inverse Mill's ratio. However, as we can see from Heckman(1979)'s original paper, the asymptotic variance expression of the two-step estimator is very complicated. Instead of following the analytical formula, we bootstrap the variance.

```
library(plyr)
library(AER)
library(sampleSelection)
```

```
# the dataset comes from Greene( 2003 ): example 22.8, page 786
data(Mroz87)

# equations
selection_eq = lfp ~ age + faminc + exper + educ
outcome_eq = wage ~ exper + educ

# Heckman two-step estimation
heck = heckit(selection_eq, outcome_eq, data = Mroz87)
print(coeftest(heck))
```

```
##
## z test of coefficients:
##
##
                   Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept)
                -1.1385e-01 4.0442e-01 -0.2815 0.778319
## age
                -3.6696e-02 6.7110e-03 -5.4680 4.552e-08 ***
## faminc
                 1.0319e-05 4.3393e-06 2.3780 0.017409 *
## exper
                 7.4511e-02 7.2030e-03 10.3444 < 2.2e-16 ***
                 6.8872e-02 2.3978e-02 2.8723 0.004075 **
## educ
## (Intercept)
                -1.9500e+00 1.8023e+00 -1.0819 0.279277
## exper
                 1.6062e-02 3.3892e-02 0.4739
                                                0.635554
                 4.8147e-01 8.2271e-02 5.8523 4.848e-09 ***
## educ
## invMillsRatio -3.0324e-01 9.8862e-01 -0.3067
                                                0.759051
## sigma
                 3.1080e+00
                                     NA
                                             NA
                                                       NA
                -9.7565e-02
                                     NA
## rho
                                             NA
                                                       NA
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Below is the function for a single bootstrap. For convenience, I keep using heckit but only save the point estimates.

```
n = nrow(Mroz87)
boot_heck = function() {
   indices = sample(1:n, n, replace = T)
   Mroz87_b = Mroz87[indices, ]
   heck_b = heckit(selection_eq, outcome_eq, data = Mroz87_b)
   return(coef(heck_b))
}
```

Implementation is just a repeated evaluation.

```
# repeat the bootstrap
boot_Rep = 199
Heck_B = ldply(.data = 1:boot_Rep, .fun = function(i) boot_heck())

# collect the bootstrap outcomes
Heck_b_sd = apply(Heck_B, 2, sd)
print(Heck_b_sd)
```

```
##
     (Intercept)
                           age
                                      faminc
                                                      exper
                                                                     educ
    4.202982e-01
##
                  6.530613e-03 5.053249e-06 8.173464e-03
                                                             2.724791e-02
##
     (Intercept)
                                         educ invMillsRatio
                         exper
                                                                    sigma
    2.373536e+00
                  4.360964e-02 9.353386e-02 1.482285e+00 3.865490e-01
##
##
             rho
   4.253179e-01
##
```

Bootstrap Test

Bootstrap is particularly helpful in statistical inference. Indeed, it is possible to show in theory the higher-order improvement of bootstrap. Loosely speaking, if the test statistic is asymptotically pivotal, a bootstrap hypothesis testing can be more accurate than its analytical asymptotic counterpart.

Example: a bootstrap test for the population mean. The true test is carried out via a t-statistic. The distribution of the sample is either *normal* or *zero-centered chi-square*. It shows that the bootstrap test size is more precise than that of the asymptotic approximation.

We first prepare the workhorse functions.

```
library(plyr)
```

```
# the t-statistic for a null hypothesis mu
T stat = function(Y, mu) (mean(Y) - mu)/sqrt(var(Y)/n)
# the bootstrap function
boot_test = function(Y, boot_Rep) {
    # INPUT Y: the sample boot_Rep: number of bootstrap replications
    n = length(Y)
    boot_T = rep(0, boot_Rep)
    # bootstrap in action
    for (r in 1:boot Rep) {
        indices = sample.int(n, n, replace = T) # resampling the index
       resampled Y = Y[indices] # construct a bootstrap artificial sample
       boot T[r] = abs(T_stat(resampled Y, mean(Y)))
        # the bootstrapped t-statistic mu is replaced by 'mean(Y)' to mimic the
        # situation under the null
    }
    # bootstrap critical value
    boot_critical_value = quantile(boot_T, 1 - alpha)
    # bootstrap test decision
    return(abs(T_stat(Y, mu)) > boot critical value)
}
```

A key point for bootstrap test is that the null hypothesis must be imposed no matter the hypothesized parameter is true value or not. Therefore the bootstrap t-statistic is

$$T_n^* = \frac{\bar{X}^* - \bar{X}}{\sqrt{s^{*2}/n}}$$

. That is, the bootstrap t-statistic is centered at \bar{X} , the sample mean of F_n , rather than θ , the population mean of F. This is because in the bootstrap world the "true" distribution is F_n . If we wrongly center the bootstrap t-statistic at θ , then the test will have no power when the null hypothesis is false.

The following chuck of code report the rejection probability from three decision rules.

```
compare = function() {
    # this function generates a sample of n observations and it returns the
    # testing results from three decision rules

if (distribution == "normal") {
    X = rnorm(n)
} else if (distribution == "chisq") {
```

```
X = rchisq(n, df = 3) - 3
    }
    t_value_X = T_stat(X, mu) # T-statistic
    # compare it to the 9.75% of t-distribution
    exact = abs(t_value_X) > qt(0.975, df = n - 1)
    # compare it to the 9.75% of normal distribution
    asym = abs(t value X) > 1.96
    # decision from bootstrap
    boot_decision = boot_test(X, boot_Rep)
    return(c(exact, asym, boot decision))
}
# set the parameters
n = 20
distribution = "normal"
boot_Rep = 199
MC rep = 500
alpha = 0.05
mu = 0
# Monte Carlo simulation and report the rejection probability
res = ldply(.data = 1:MC rep, .fun = function(i) compare())
colnames(res) = c("exact", "asym", "bootstrap")
print(colMeans(res))
```

```
## exact asym bootstrap
## 0.040 0.060 0.046
```

Extended Readings

- Hansen (2015): Econometrics. Chapter 10.
- Politis, Romano and Wolf (1999): Subsampling