Asymptotics and consistency

EC 421, Set 6

Edward Rubin Winter 2021

Prologue

Schedule

Last Time

Living with heteroskedasticity

Today

Asymptotics and consistency

This week

Our second assignment

Near-ish future

Midterm in two weeks (Feb. 11th)

R showcase

Need speed? R allows essentially infinite parallelization.

Three popular packages:

- future and furrr
- parallel
- foreach

And here's a nice tutorial.

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This approach misses something.

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How does our estimator behave as our sample gets larger (as $n \to \infty$)?

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This *new question* forms a new way to think about the properties of estimators: **asymptotic properties** (or large-sample properties).

A "good" estimator will become indistinguishable from the parameter it estimates when n is very large (close to ∞).

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the *probability limit* helps us analyze **the asymptotic distribution of an estimator** (the distribution of the estimator as n gets "big"[†]).

[†] Here, "big" n means $n \to \infty$. That's really big data.

Probability limits

Let B_n be our estimator with sample size n.

Then the **probability limit** of B is α if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P(|B_n - \alpha| > \epsilon) = 0 \tag{1}$$

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Practically: B's distribution collapses to a spike at α as n approaches ∞ .

Probability limits

Equivalent statements:

- The probability limit of B_n is α .
- plim $B = \alpha$
- B converges in probability to α .

Probability limits

Probability limits have some nice/important properties:

- $\operatorname{plim}(X \times Y) = \operatorname{plim}(X) \times \operatorname{plim}(Y)$
- $\operatorname{plim}(X + Y) = \operatorname{plim}(X) + \operatorname{plim}(Y)$
- $\operatorname{plim}(c) = c$, where c is a constant
- $\operatorname{plim}\left(\frac{X}{Y}\right) = \frac{\operatorname{plim}(X)}{\operatorname{plim}(Y)}$
- $\operatorname{plim}(f(X)) = f(\operatorname{plim}(X))$

Consistent estimators

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The estimator is inconsistent if $\operatorname{plim} B \neq \alpha$.

Consistent estimators

Example: We want to estimate the population mean μ_x (where $X\sim$ Normal).

Let's compare the asymptotic distributions of two competing estimators:

- 1. The first observation: X_1
- 2. The sample mean: $\overline{X}=\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ 3. Some other estimator: $\widetilde{X}=\frac{1}{n+1}\sum_{i=1}^n x_i$

Note that (1) and (2) are unbiased, but (3) is biased.

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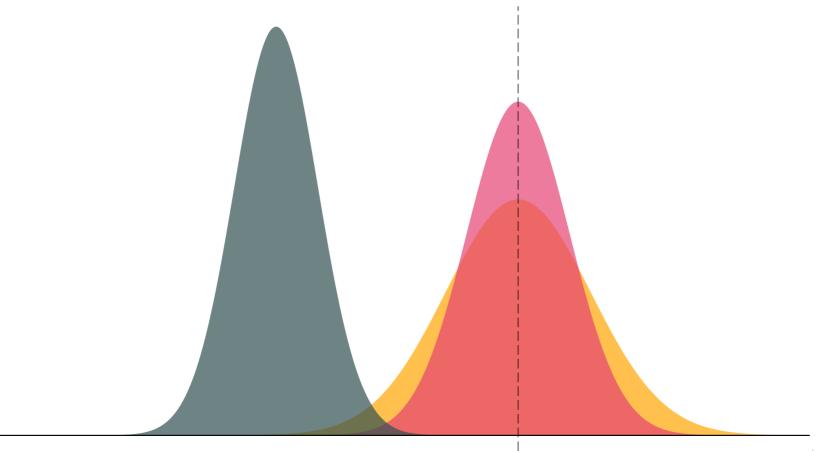
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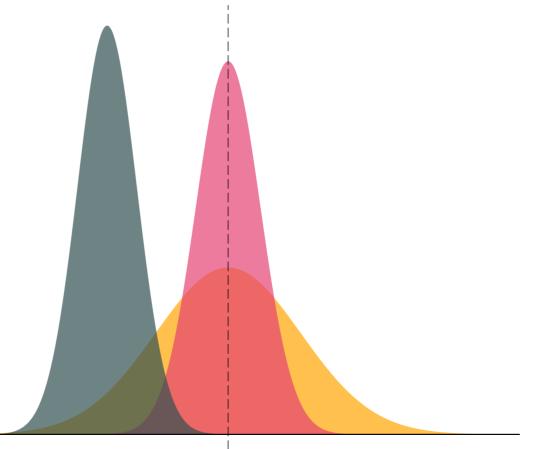
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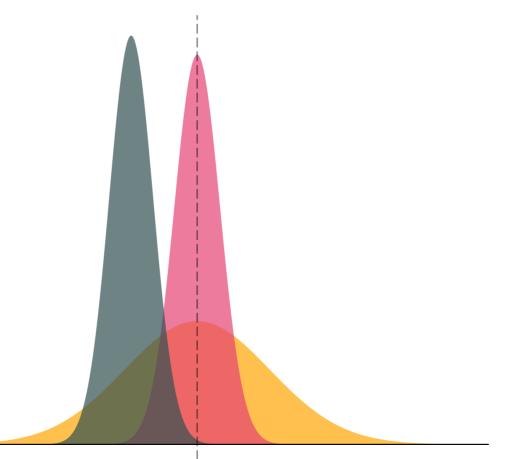
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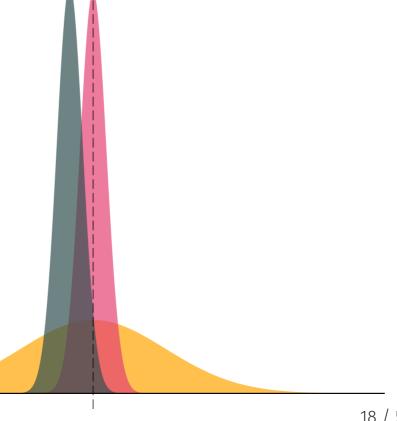
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Distributions of X_1 , \overline{X} , and \widetilde{X} n=1000

The distributions of \widetilde{X} For n in $\{2, 5, 10, 50, 100, 500, 1000\}$

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- An estimator can be biased and inconsistent (e.g., $\overline{X} 50$).

Best-case scenario: The estimator is unbiased and consistent.

Why consistency (asymptotics)?

- 1. We cannot always find an unbiased estimator. In these situations, we generally (at least) want consistency.
- 2. Expected values can be hard/undefined. Probability limits are less constrained, e.g.,

$$E[g(X)h(Y)]$$
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Caution: As we saw, consistent estimators can be biased in small samples.

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- 2. Asymptotic Normality

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- 2. Asymptotic Normality

Let's prove #1 for OLS with simple, linear regression, i.e.,

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i$$

Proof of consistency

First, recall our previous derivation of of $\hat{\beta}_1$,

$$\hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 + rac{\sum_i \left(x_i - \overline{x}
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so long as $Var(x) \neq 0$ (which we've assumed).

Asymptotic normality

Up to this point, we made a very specific assumption about the distribution of u_i —the u_i came from a normal distribution.

We can relax this assumption—allowing the u_i to come from any distribution (still assume exogeneity, independence, and homoskedasticity).

We will focus on the **asymptotic distribution** of our estimators (how they are distributed as n gets large), rather than their finite-sample distribution.

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As n approaches ∞ , the distribution of the OLS estimator converges to a normal distribution.

Recap

With a more limited set of assumptions, OLS is **consistent** and is **asymptotically normally distributed**.

Current assumptions

- 1. Our data were **randomly sampled** from the population.
- 2. y_i is a **linear function** of its parameters and disturbance.
- 3. There is **no perfect collinearity** in our data.
- 4. The u_i have conditional mean of zero (**exogeneity**), $m{E}[u_i|X_i]=0$.
- 5. The u_i are homoskedastic with zero correlation between u_i and u_j .

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- 2. Correlates with an included explanatory variable, i.e., $\mathrm{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2)
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$$\operatorname{Bias}_{ heta}(W) = oldsymbol{E}[W] - heta$$

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Question: Do omitted variables also cause inconsistent estimates?

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Answer: Find $\operatorname{plim} \hat{\beta}_1$ in a regression that omits x_2 .

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but we instead specify the model as

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$$\operatorname{plim}\!\left(\hat{\beta}_{1}\right)\stackrel{?}{=}\beta_{1}$$

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Truth:
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 Specified: $y_i=eta_0+eta_1x_{1i}+w_i$

We already showed
$$\operatorname{plim} \hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 + \dfrac{\operatorname{Cov}(x_1,\,w)}{\operatorname{Var}(x_1)}$$

where w is the disturbance.

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where w is the disturbance. Here, we know $w=\beta_2 x_2 + u$. Thus,

Inconsistency?

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Inconsistency?

Thus, we find that

$$ext{plim}\,\hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 + eta_2 rac{ ext{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2)}{ ext{Var}(x_1)}$$

In other words, an omitted variable will cause OLS to be inconsistent if **both** of the following statements are true:

- 1. The omitted variable **affects our outcome**, i.e., $\beta_2 \neq 0$.
- 2. The omitted variable correlates with included explanatory variables, *i.e.*, $\mathrm{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2) \neq 0$.

If both of these statements are true, then the OLS estimate $\hat{\beta}_1$ will not converge to β_1 , even as n approaches ∞ .

Signing the bias

Sometimes we're stuck with omitted variable bias.[†]

$$ext{plim}\,\hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 + eta_2 rac{ ext{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2)}{ ext{Var}(x_1)}$$

When this happens, we can often at least know the direction of the inconsistency.

[†] You will often hear the term "omitted-variable bias" when we're actually talking about inconsistency (rather than bias).

Signing the bias

Begin with

$$ext{plim}\,\hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 + eta_2 rac{ ext{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2)}{ ext{Var}(x_1)}$$

We know $\mathrm{Var}(x_1)>0$. Suppose $\beta_2>0$ and $\mathrm{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2)>0$. Then

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We know $\operatorname{Var}(x_1) > 0$. Suppose $\beta_2 > 0$ and $\operatorname{Cov}(x_1, x_2) > 0$. Then

$$\operatorname{plim} \hat{\beta}_1 = \beta_1 + (+) \frac{(+)}{(+)} \implies \operatorname{plim} \hat{\beta}_1 > \beta_1$$

∴ In this case, OLS is **biased upward** (estimates are too large).

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Omitted-variable bias, redux

Signing the bias

Thus, in cases where we have a sense of

- 1. the sign of $\mathrm{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2)$
- 2. the sign of β_2

we know in which direction inconsistency pushes our estimates.

Direction of bias

$$egin{aligned} \operatorname{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2) &> 0 & \operatorname{Cov}(x_1,\,x_2) &< 0 \ eta_2 &> 0 & \operatorname{Upward} & \operatorname{Downward} \ eta_2 &< 0 & \operatorname{Downward} & \operatorname{Upward} \end{aligned}$$

Measurement error in our explanatory variables presents another case in which OLS is inconsistent.

Consider the population model: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + u_i$

- We want to observe z_i but cannot.
- Instead, we *measure* the variable x_i , which is z_i plus some error (noise):

$$x_i = z_i + \omega_i$$

• Assume $m{E}[\omega_i]=0$, $\mathrm{Var}(\omega_i)=\sigma_\omega^2$, and ω is independent of z and u.

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OLS regression of y and x will produce inconsistent estimates for β_1 .

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + u_i$$

$$egin{aligned} y_i &= eta_0 + eta_1 z_i + u_i \ &= eta_0 + eta_1 \left(x_i - \omega_i
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Proof

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where $arepsilon_i = u_i - eta_1 \omega_i$

What happens when we estimate $y_i = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_i + e_i$?

$$\operatorname{plim} \hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 + rac{\operatorname{Cov}(x,\,arepsilon)}{\operatorname{Var}(x)}$$

We will derive the numerator and denominator separately...

Proof

The covariance of our noisy variable x and the disturbance ε .

 $Cov(x, \varepsilon)$

Proof

$$\mathrm{Cov}(x,\,arepsilon)=\mathrm{Cov}([z+\omega]\,,\,[u-eta_1\omega])$$

Proof

$$egin{aligned} \operatorname{Cov}(x,\,arepsilon) &= \operatorname{Cov}([z+\omega]\,,\,[u-eta_1\omega]) \ &= \operatorname{Cov}(z,\,u) - eta_1\operatorname{Cov}(z,\,\omega) + \operatorname{Cov}(\omega,\,u) - eta_1\operatorname{Var}(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

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Proof

Now for the denominator, Var(x).

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Proof

Now for the denominator, Var(x).

$$egin{aligned} ext{Var}(x) &= ext{Var}(z+\omega) \ &= ext{Var}(z) + ext{Var}(\omega) + 2 \operatorname{Cov}(z,\,\omega) \ &= \sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2 \end{aligned}$$

Proof

Putting the numerator and denominator back together,

$$egin{aligned} ext{plim} \, \hat{eta}_1 &= eta_1 + rac{ ext{Cov}(x,\,arepsilon)}{ ext{Var}(x)} \ &= eta_1 + rac{-eta_1 \sigma_\omega^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2} \ &= eta_1 - eta_1 rac{\sigma_\omega^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2} \ &= eta_1 rac{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2} - eta_1 rac{\sigma_\omega^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2} \ &= eta_1 rac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2} \ &= eta_1 rac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2} \end{aligned}$$

Summary

$$\therefore ext{ plim } \hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 rac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2}.$$

What does this equation tell us?

Summary

$$\therefore ext{ plim } \hat{eta}_1 = eta_1 rac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\omega^2}.$$

What does this equation tell us?

Measurement error in our explanatory variables biases the coefficient estimates toward zero.

- This type of bias/inconsistency is often called attenuation bias.
- If the measurement error correlates with the explanatory variables, we have bigger problems with inconsistency/bias.

Summary

What about **measurement in the outcome variable**?

It doesn't really matter—it just increases our standard errors.

It's everywhere

General cases

- 1. We cannot perfectly observe a variable.
- 2. We use one variable as a *proxy* for another.

Specific examples

- GDP
- Population
- Crime/police statistics
- Air quality
- Health data
- Proxy ability with test scores