

# Resampling & the Bootstrap

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# The Real World Data-Generating Process

Suppose that at any particular moment in time  $t$ , we can describe the *state* of our world by a variable  $s_t \in S$ , and the history of previous states up to  $t$  by  $s^t \in S^t$ .

## Observed Data

Given a particular history  $s^t$ , different economic agents observe (possibly different) sets of reported measurements (which censor, select, and may add error):

$$d_t = \mathcal{R}(s^t)$$

# The Real World Data-Generating Process

## Decisions

Given a particular history  $s^t$ , economic agents take actions  $y_t = \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{R}(s^t))$ . The realization  $y_t$  becomes part of the next period's state.

## History's Evolution

The state of the world in the subsequent period depends on a law of motion:

$$s_{t+1} = \mathcal{F}(s^t, y_t)$$

# The RWDGP

The RWDGP can thus be described by a triple  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{F})$ . Initialize with the history to time zero,  $s^0$ , and it returns a corresponding dataset.

## Interpretation

- So far the RWDGP has produced all the data available to us. This dataset  $d^t$  is finite, but depends on the particular history  $s^t$  realized up to this point.
- A different history  $\tilde{s}^t$  would have produced a different finite dataset.

# Our Monte Carlo Data-Generating Process

So: we've discussed the creation of a DGP that can be described as a triple  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{F})$ . Feed in a initial state  $s^0$  (e.g., a seed to a pseudo-random number generator) and it returns a dataset  $d = (y, X, Z)$ .

## Interpretation

- We have the god-like power of resampling from our DGP; Each draw from our DGP produces a different finite dataset. Call these Monte Carlo draws.
- There's no limit on the number of draws we can make from the dataset. As our draws  $m \rightarrow \infty$  we may be able to draw increasingly accurate inferences about  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{F})$  (this is a question of identification).

# Our Monte Carlo Experiment

One particular experiment involved repeated draws to explore the finite sample properties of a linear IV estimator. We found circumstances under which the limiting distribution of  $b_N$  was very different from the estimated empirical distribution.

## Three different possible takeaways

- ① We need a different estimator with better finite sample properties. (Explore this in discussion question).
- ② We need more data. Or;
- ③ We **could** use the estimated empirical distribution for inference & hypothesis testing. Call this the *Empirical Monte Carlo* process.

# After you collect your data

Use the empirical MC distribution, and assume that the MC DGP is close enough to the actual real-world DGP that the empirical distribution of  $\beta$  can serve for testing & inference.

## Issue

May requires a lot of confidence in the MC DGP. And if you have this much confidence you may want to use the MC DGP to actually help *estimate* the parameters.

# Estimating parameters (Indirect Inference)

Idea: Choose “truth” parameters to make simulated data from the Monte Carlo DGP (in this setting called the ‘auxiliary model’) match moments or distributions observed in the real-world data. Often used when economic model involves parameters which are complicated functions of the data.

## Examples

- Method of Simulated Moments (MSM/SMM)
- Maximum Simulated Likelihood (MSL/SML)
- Monte Carlo Integration



# Before you collect data

Standard power calculations usually assume a normal model with very limited forms of dependence. But what if your estimated coefficients aren't normally distributed?

- Typically wind up collecting too little data and being under-powered.
- Use MC distribution instead, where the experiment is actually measuring the finite sample properties of the estimator you'll use when you write your dissertation.
- How big a sample do you really need to achieve a given level of power in your MC experiment?

Issue with Monte Carlo is that we have to construct a model to build estimates. This will often require us to assume more than we wish to about the Real World DGP.

## Alternative

Use the RWDGP! We begin by observing a sample of  $N$  observations  $X_j$  once; say  $D_N$ . If these are independent (they're identically distributed by construction) we just need to figure out how to repeat this draw.

# Sampling

Since  $D_N$  is comprised of  $N$  iid observations we can use this sample to construct an empirical distribution function of  $\mathbf{X}$ , say  $\hat{F}$ . Then think of simply drawing samples from this empirical distribution.

Non-parametric estimator of empirical distribution function

$$\hat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_j \mathbb{1}(X_j \leq x)$$

# Simplification

Since the probability of drawing a particular  $X$  from  $\hat{F}$  is proportional to the frequency with which  $X$  appears in  $D_N$ , there's an trivial simplification: instead of constructing  $\hat{F}$  just:

- 1 Draw  $X_j$  from  $D_N$ .
- 2 Repeat until you have the sample size you want; often (usually?) this will be  $N$ , the size of the original sample. Call the resulting “bootstrap” sample  $D_N^1$ .

# Basic Bootstrap estimation

Suppose we want to estimate a vector of parameters  $\beta$ . We can construct an estimate of this using the original sample, say  $b_N$ . But we may not know much about the distribution of this estimator.

## Procedure

- 1 Choose some positive tolerance  $\epsilon$ .
- 2 Having drawn a bootstrap sample  $D_N^1$ , use it to estimate  $b_N^1$ .
- 3 Draw a new sample  $D_N^2$ , and compute  $b_N^2$
- 4 ... Repeat 30 times...
- 5 Calculate the sample covariance matrix of the estimates of  $\beta$ ,

$$\hat{V}_N^{30} = \frac{1}{30} \sum_m (b_N^m - \bar{b}_N)(b_N^m - \bar{b}_N)^\top$$

- 6 Repeat: compute additional bootstrap samples until

$$\|\hat{V}_N^M - \hat{V}_N^{M-1}\| < \epsilon$$

We've just described the construction of a covariance matrix for the estimator  $b_N$  via the bootstrap, so this can be used for testing and inference in the usual way. But note that the “usual way” assumes that the distribution of  $b_N$  is normal.

### Non-normal distributions

In finite samples our distributions may be decidedly *non*-normal. But we have an estimate of the distribution! Just construct the empirical distribution of the  $M$  bootstrapped estimates of  $\beta$ .

- Tests of normality available
- Simple construction of confidence intervals

# When Sample isn't Simple Random

Or, what's an observation? What *is* selected randomly?

## Panel data

We often work with longitudinal *panels* comprising, say,  $N$  households observed over  $T$  periods.

## Stratified samples

Suppose we're interested in the effects of an experimental intervention on both men & women. It may make sense to *stratify* the sample so that we're powered to detect effects for both sexes.

## Clustered samples

Surveys of households are often *clustered* geographically, with randomization conducted in two stages: (i) geographical locations (clusters) are randomly selected; then (ii) households who live within a cluster are randomly sampled.

# Bootstrapping when a sample isn't simple random

The basic idea is for your bootstrap samples to mimic the randomness used to construct the original sample. So:

## Panel data

Resample *households* and their entire histories, not household-periods.

## Stratified samples

Think of each strata as it's own random sample, and resample within each strata.

## Clustered samples

Resample in two stages: (i) clusters (with replacement); then (ii) households within clusters.



# Latent variables

Suppose there are some sets  $\{L_i\}$  that an randomly selected observation may belong to (e.g., male and female), and we think membership in these sets is important for determining some outcome.

Then we might have, e.g.,

$$y_j = \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbb{1}(j \in L_i) + \beta^\top X_j + u_j$$

Here  $\alpha_i$  is interpreted as something like the mean of  $y$  conditional on being in the set  $L_i$ .

Suppose the sample is simple random. How should you construct a bootstrap estimator?

# Residual Bootstrap

One solution is to hold fixed observables  $X$ . Then:

- 1 Use full dataset to estimate, e.g.,

$$y = X\beta + u,$$

obtaining some estimate  $b^{(1)}$  of  $\beta$ .

- 2 Construct residuals

$$e^{(1)} = y - Xb^{(1)}.$$

- 3 Now, instead of resampling  $(y, X)$  just resample the residuals  $e^{(1)}$  obtaining  $\tilde{e}^{(1)}$ , and construct

$$y^{(1)} = Xb^{(1)} + \tilde{e}^{(1)}$$

- 4 Re-estimate

$$y^{(1)} = X\beta + \tilde{u},$$

obtaining an estimate  $b^{(2)}$ .

- 5 Repeat until convergence.

# Wild Bootstrap

The residual bootstrap relies on the disturbances being homoskedastic. But what if  $\mathbb{E}(u^2|X)$  is a function of  $X$ ?

# Wild Bootstrap

One idea: generate an auxiliary random variable  $\pi_j$  which takes values  $\{-1, 1\}$  with equal probability. Then modify the residual bootstrap algorithm:

- 1 Use full dataset to estimate, e.g.,

$$y = X\beta + u,$$

obtaining some estimate  $b^{(1)}$  of  $\beta$ .

- 2 Construct residuals

$$e^{(1)} = y - Xb^{(1)}.$$

- 3 Now, instead of resampling  $(y, X)$  or  $e$ , hold  $(X, e)$  fixed and just draw realizations  $\pi_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, N$ , and construct

$$y_n = X\hat{\beta} + \pi_n e$$

- 4 Re-estimate

$$y_n = Xb_n + u_n$$

- 5 Repeat until convergence.