Impact Evaluation Methods

Topic 6: Instrumental Variables

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Previously on Impact Evaluation Methods...

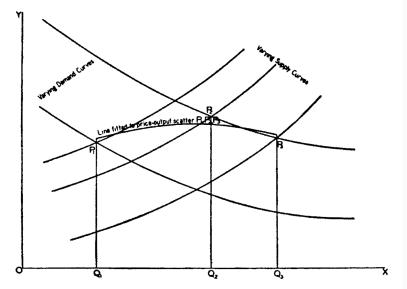
- Matching practice
- Regression

Background

History of IV

- First developed in the 1920s by father and son Phillip and Sewall
 Wright who were studying agricultural markets
- A 1928 book about animal and vegetable oils and tariffs
- The challenge: how to estimate the supply and demand curves
- The equilibrium prices and quantities are determined simultaneously
- When we see a scatterplot of prices and quantities, how can we use it to infer the supply and demand curves?
- Without further assumptions, we cannot say much

FIGURE 4. PRICE-OUTPUT DATA FAIL TO REVEAL EITHER SUPPLY OR DEMAND CURVE.



Instrumental Variables

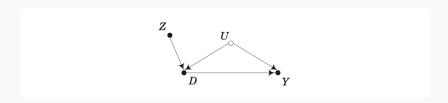
- The method proposed by Phillip Wright (and inspired by his son's work on path analysis) solves the simultaneity problem
- It uses the variables that appear in one equation to "shift" this equation and trace out the other
- These variables are now called the instrumental variables
- Stock and Trebbi (2003) provide a historical perspective on the development of IV by Phillip and Sewall Wright
- The modern use of IV still uses the language developed for the simultaneous equations models application
- However, the actual use is different

Measurement Error

- IV methods were used to solve the problem of bias from measurement error in regression models (Wald, 1940)
- In linear models, a regression coefficient is biased towards zero when the regressor of interest is measured with random errors
- IV methods can eliminate this bias

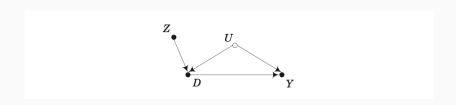
Homogeneous Treatment Effects

IV DAG



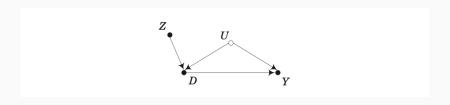
- We are interested in the causal effect of D on Y
- There is a backdoor path $D \leftarrow U \rightarrow Y$
- *U* is unobserved so we cannot close this backdoor path
- This is a situation of selection on unobservables
- There is no conditioning strategy that will satisfy the backdoor criterion.

Isolating Variation



- D varies because of Z and U
- Under TE homogeneity, it is not necessary to relate all of the variation in D to all of the variation in Y
- The covariation in *D* and *Y* that is generated by *U* can be ignored...
- ...if we can find a way of isolating the variation in D and Y that is causal

Using IV



- There is a mediated path from Z to Y via D
- When Z varies, D varies, which causes Y to vary
- Importantly, Y is only varying because D has varied
- There is another path from Z to Y via U
- But D is a collider along that path
- For this to work, Z has to cause Y only through D

Closing Back-Door Paths for IV

- In general, any paths between the instrument Z and the outcome Y
 must either pass through the treatment D or be closed
- There might be some common causes of Z and Y or mediated paths between Z and Y that do not go through D...
- ...but they must be closed
- IV moves that responsibility of closing the back doors from the treatment to the instrument

Binary Treatment

- Consider now a simple regression model with homogeneous treatment effects, in which both D and Z are binary
- Z causes D but is independent of ϵ

$$Y = \alpha + \delta D + \epsilon.$$

- We assume that D is correlated with ϵ and that we cannot fix this issue by any conditioning strategy
- Let's compute the expected value of *Y* conditional on *Z*:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 1] = \alpha + \delta \mathbb{E}[D \mid Z = 1] + \mathbb{E}[\epsilon \mid Z = 1]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 0] = \alpha + \delta \mathbb{E}[D \mid Z = 0] + \mathbb{E}[\epsilon \mid Z = 0].$$

The Wald Estimator

Taking the difference between the two, we get

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 1] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 0] =$$

$$\delta\left(\mathbb{E}[D \mid Z = 1] - \mathbb{E}[D \mid Z = 0]\right) + \mathbb{E}[\epsilon \mid Z = 1] - \mathbb{E}[\epsilon \mid Z = 0].$$

- Notice that the difference $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon \mid Z=1] \mathbb{E}[\epsilon \mid Z=0] = 0$ since Z and ϵ are independent
- Hence, we have

$$\delta = \frac{\mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z=0]}{\mathbb{E}[D \mid Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[D \mid Z=0]}.$$

The sample analogue of this quantity is called the Wald estimator

Reduced Form and First Stage

$$\delta = \frac{\mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z=0]}{\mathbb{E}[D \mid Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[D \mid Z=0]}.$$

- We can estimate the causal effect δ by simply dividing the NTE of Z on Y by the NTE of Z on D
- The NTE of Z on Y is called the reduced form
- The NTE of Z on D is called the first stage
- This is due to the language of a two-stage least squares (2SLS) estimator we will introduce later

- Causal effect of attending a private school (D) on academic achievement (Y)
- A simple regression of Y on D biased estimate unobserved confounders, like family background, that affect both going to a private school and achievement
- A voucher program that randomly assigns vouchers for attending a private school
- We can use vouchers as an IV (Z)

• Assume the following joint distribution of Z and D, $\mathbb{P}(D,Z)$

	D = 0	D = 1	$\mathbb{P}(Z)$
Z = 0	0.8	0.1	0.9
Z = 1	0.08	0.02	0.1
$\mathbb{P}(D)$	0.88	0.12	

- Overall, only 12% of the students attend a private school and vouchers are assigned to 10% of the students
- Notice that not everyone who receives a voucher goes to a private school

	D = 0	D = 1	$\mathbb{P}(Z)$
Z = 0	8.0	0.1	0.9
Z = 1	0.08	0.02	0.1
$\mathbb{P}(D)$	0.88	0.12	

• It will be helpful to compute the conditional distribution of $\mathbb{P}(D \mid Z)$ using the Bayes rule:

$$\mathbb{P}(D \mid Z) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(D, Z)}{\mathbb{P}(Z)}$$

$$Z = 0$$
 $Z = 1$
 $\mathbb{P}(D = 0 \mid Z)$ 8/9 4/5
 $\mathbb{P}(D = 1 \mid Z)$ 1/9 1/5

	Z = 0	Z = 1
$\mathbb{P}(D=0\mid Z)$	8/9	4/5
$\mathbb{P}(D=1\mid Z)$	1/9	1/5

	D = 0	D = 1
Z=0	50	60
Z = 1	50	58

	Z = 0	Z = 1
$\mathbb{P}(D=0\mid Z)$	8/9	4/5
$\mathbb{P}(D=1\mid Z)$	1/9	1/5

	D = 0	D = 1
Z=0	50	60
Z = 1	50	58

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 1] = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 1, D = 0] \mathbb{P}(D = 0 \mid Z = 1)$$
$$+ \mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 1, D = 1] \mathbb{P}(D = 1 \mid Z = 1)$$
$$= 50 \times 4/5 + 58 \times 1/5 = 51.6$$

	Z = 0	Z = 1
$\mathbb{P}(D=0\mid Z)$	8/9	4/5
$\mathbb{P}(D=1\mid Z)$	1/9	1/5

	D = 0	D = 1
Z=0	50	60
Z = 1	50	58

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 0] = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 0, D = 0] \mathbb{P}(D = 0 \mid Z = 0)$$
$$+ \mathbb{E}[Y \mid Z = 0, D = 1] \mathbb{P}(D = 1 \mid Z = 0)$$
$$= 50 \times 8/9 + 60 \times 1/9 \approx 51.11$$

	Z = 0	Z = 1
$\mathbb{P}(D=0\mid Z)$	8/9	4/5
$\mathbb{P}(D=1\mid Z)$	1/9	1/5

	D = 0	D=1
Z = 0	50	60
Z = 1	50	58

$$\mathbb{E}[D \mid Z = 1] = \mathbb{P}(D = 1 \mid Z = 1) = 1/5$$

 $\mathbb{E}[D \mid Z = 0] = \mathbb{P}(D = 1 \mid Z = 0) = 1/9$

	Z = 0	Z = 1
$\mathbb{P}(D=0\mid Z)$	8/9	4/5
$\mathbb{P}(D=1\mid Z)$	1/9	1/5

• Now assume the following expected outcomes, $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid D, Z]$

	D = 0	D=1
Z = 0	50	60
Z = 1	50	58

 $\delta = \frac{51.6 - 51.11}{1/5 - 1/9} \approx 5.51.$

Homework

1. Show that the naive treatment effect is 9.67.

Non-Binary Treatment

- When the treatment variable is non-binary, we can derive a similar result
- Assume that the treatment variable is generated according to

$$D = \gamma + \beta Z + \eta.$$

Recall that

$$\beta = \frac{Cov(D, Z)}{V(Z)}.$$

- Let $\hat{D} = \mathbb{E}[D \mid Z] = \gamma + \beta Z$ be the conditional expectation function (or predicted/fitted values) of D
- Notice that $V(\hat{D}) = V(\beta Z)$ and $Cov(\hat{D}, X) = Cov(\beta Z, X)$ (for any random variable X).

IV Formula in Non-Binary Case

Now consider the covariance between Y and Z:

$$Cov(Y, Z) = Cov(\alpha + \delta D + \epsilon, Z) = \delta Cov(D, Z) + Cov(\epsilon, Z).$$

• Since ϵ and Z are independent by assumption, we get

$$\delta = \frac{Cov(Y,Z)}{Cov(D,Z)}.$$

- This is a generalization of the Wald estimator to the case when D is non-binary
- Interestingly, this formula also generalizes a regular OLS estimator
- If you substitute D for Z, we are back to the usual expression for the regression coefficient
- In other words, OLS treats D as its own IV

2SLS

• If we divide both part by V(Z), we get

$$\delta = \frac{Cov(Y,Z)/V(Z)}{Cov(D,Z)/V(Z)}.$$

The numerator is then the coefficient on Z in the simple regression
of Y on Z (reduced form) and the denominator is the coefficient on
Z in the simple regression of D on Z (first stage)

• We can rewrite the expression for δ one more time.

$$\delta = \frac{Cov(Y,Z)/V(Z)}{\beta} = \frac{\beta Cov(Y,Z)}{\beta^2 V(Z)} = \frac{Cov(Y,\beta Z)}{V(\beta Z)} = \frac{Cov(Y,\hat{D})}{V(\hat{D})}.$$

- This means that, effectively, we can estimate δ as a coefficient from a simple regression of Y on the **predicted** values of D
- This is how the 2SLS estimator works
- First, you get the predicted values of D by regressing it on the instrument Z
- Second, you regress Y on the predicted values of D
- So in estimating the effect of D on Y using IV, we are only using the exogenous variation in D caused by Z.

Assumptions and Weaknesses

Relevance and Validity

- We need two assumptions for IV to identify a homogenous TE: relevance and validity
- Relevance means that our IV should have a causal effect on the treatment variable
- Technically, if relevance is not satisfied, then the denominators in the IV formulas are zero and the estimators are undefined
- Validity means that the instrument should affect the outcome only through the treatment variable
- Technically, this assumption is what leads to the correlation between ϵ and Z to be zero
- The validity assumption is also called the exclusion restriction

Weak Instruments

- A bigger issue is that the covariance between the instrument and treatment is small
- This is know as a weak instrument problem (Bound, Jaeger, and Baker, 1995)
- In general, weak instruments tend to produce biased estimates
- The argument is the following
 - In finite samples, IV point estimates can always be computed because sample covariances are never exactly equal to zero
 - An IV point estimate can be computed even for an instrument that is not relevant
 - The formulas for calculating the standard errors of IV estimates fail in such situations, giving artificially small standard errors
 - The bias due to small violations of the validity assumption can explode

Bias Due to Weak Instruments

• For example, for a non-binary treatment variable, the bias is equal to

$$\frac{Cov(\epsilon,Z)}{Cov(D,Z)}$$

- A weak instrument will blow up the bias
- The expected bias of the 2SLS estimator is inversely related to the F statistic about the joint significance from the first stage
- If F is large, the bias of the 2SLS goes to zero, as F gets smaller, the bias increases
- The F statistics decreases if the instrument becomes weaker or if you increase the number of weak instruments
- A common rule of thumb is that it should be greater than 10, but Stock and Yogo (2005) provide more specific guidance.

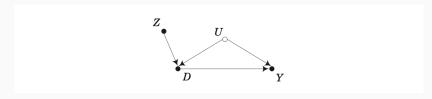
How to Deal with Weak Instruments

- One option is to use a single strongest IV instead of many weak IVs
- Another option is to use use alternative IV estimators, such as a limited-information maximum likelihood estimator (LIML)
- One can use Anderson-Rubin confidence intervals (Anderson and Rubin, 1949)
- They provide valid standard errors even if the instruments are weak
- But the ultimate solution would be to just get better instruments, if possible

Validity

- The validity assumption (or exclusion restriction) is untestable
- But suppose you run a regression of Y on Z and D
- If there is an association between Z and Y after conditioning on D, then the instrument must be invalid (right?)

Can We Test It?



- If the only association between Z and Y is through D, then there should be no association between Z and Y after conditioning on D
- However, this logic is false
- If the IV is invalid, then Z and Y will be associated after conditioning on D
- But the converse is not true
- Z and Y will always be associated after conditioning on D when validity holds, because D is a collider that is mutually caused by both Z and U

Good Instruments Should Feel Weird

- Tests for overidentification in case you have more than one instrument: Durbin-Wu-Hausman test and Sargan test
- These tests can tell you if some instruments are likely to be invalid.
- An informal test for the validity is that "good instruments should feel weird."
- Without knowledge of the treatment variable, the relationship between the instrument and the outcome should not make much sense
- Because a valid instrument should be irrelevant to the determinants of the outcome except for its effect on the treatment

Example

- Suppose you tell someone that mothers whose first two children were the same gender were employed outside the home less than those whose two children were a boy and a girl?
- What does the gender composition have to do with whether a woman works outside the home?

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- Suppose you tell someone that mothers whose first two children were the same gender were employed outside the home less than those whose two children were a boy and a girl?
- What does the gender composition have to do with whether a woman works outside the home?
- Empirically if the first two children are the same gender, families are more likely to have a third compared to those who had a boy and a girl first
- So you have an instrument (gender composition) that only changes the outcome (labor supply) through changing a treatment variable (family size)
- This allows us to identify the causal effect of family size on labor supply

IV is Noisy

- IV estimators are also noisy (have large standard errors)
- By using only a portion of the available covariation in the treatment and outcome, IV estimators use only a portion of the information in the data
- This represents a loss in statistical power
- IV estimators tend to exhibit substantially more sampling variance than other estimators

IV in action

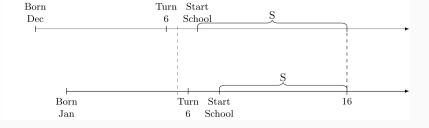
Education and Earnings

- IVs have been used to estimate the causal effect of education
- A variety of IVs: proximity to college, regional and temporal variation in school construction, tuition at local colleges, temporal variation in the minimum school-leaving age, and quarter of birth
- Each of these variables predicts educational attainment but has no direct effect on earnings

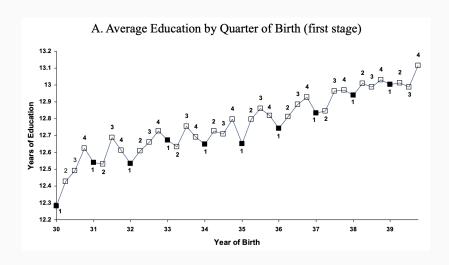
Quarter of Birth

- Angrist and Krueger (1991)
- In the US, a child enters a grade on the basis of his or her birthday
- For a long time, that cutoff was late December
- If children were born on or before December 31, then they were assigned to the first grade
- But if their birthday was on or after January 1, they were assigned to kindergarten
- Two people—one born on December 31 and one born on January
 1—were exogenously assigned different grades
- Compulsory schooling laws that forced a person to remain in high school until age 16

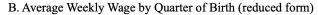
Illustration

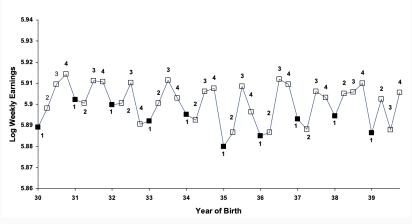


First Stage



Reduced Form





Next Time on *Impact Evaluation Methods*...

IV and LATE