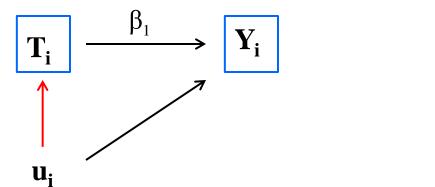
Lecture 9: Instrumental Variables Methods

- Outline:
- Introduction
- Identifying assumptions, potential outcomes
- Discussion on nature of treatment effect (constant or heterogenous)
- Various estimators and their interpretation
- Application: estimating the demand curve for fish at Fulton Fish Market
- Readings: A&P Chapter 4, I&W Lecture 5, Kendall (2015)
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Motivation: Omitted variables bias

□ The essence of OVB is a relationship between u_i and T_i

In a path diagram:

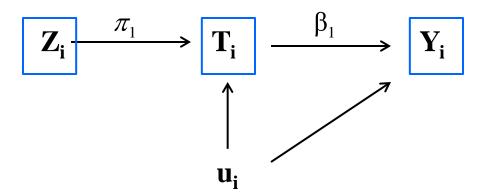


Red arrow is a violation of LSA#1

Since we don't observe data on u_i, we cannot control for it's effect on T_i, and that influence confounds the measured relationship between Y_i and T_i

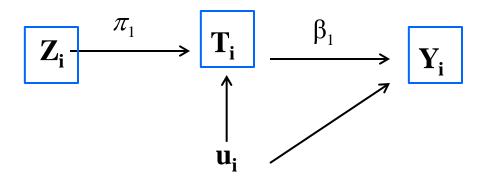
Instrumental variables in a path diagram

Denote an instrumental variable as Z_i:



- □ Note the key assumption: no link between u_i and Z_i .
 - That assumption is valid if the natural experiment that generates Z_i operates through <u>exogenous</u> forces
 - Not really testable...
- □ Also note the assumption that \underline{Z}_i is correlated with \underline{T}_i
 - Testable...

How to Proceed?



- □ 1. Regression of Z_i on T_i identifies π_1
- \square 2. Regression of Z_i on Y_i identifies $\pi_1 \times \beta_1$
- \square Ratio is β_1 (basis for an IV estimator)
- Two requirements: <u>i.</u> Instrument predicts T_i ($\pi_1 \neq 0$) and <u>ii.</u> Instrument exogenous (uncorrelated with u_i). Plausible if $Z_i \sim$ (quasi) randomly assigned

Key Assumptions:

- □ Suppose you can observe a variable Z_i such that:
- A1: Independence / exogeneity / exclusion
- \square $Z_i \perp (Y_i(0), Y_i(1)) \mid X_i$
 - " Z_i independent of potential outcomes $Y_i(0)$ and $Y_i(1)$ conditional on X_i ". [Remember u_i defined by $Y_i(0)$]
 - Typical interpretation as exclusion restriction "Z_i only affects Y_i through its effect on the endogenous regressor" is implied by A1
 - A1 not really testable
- A2: First-stage / relevance
- $\Box \pi_1 \neq 0$ in $T_i = \pi_0 + Z_i' \pi_1 + X_i' \pi_2 + V_i$
 - A2 testable
- □ ⇒ We can estimate ATE or LATE using IV methods

Constructing instruments with natural experiments

- Suppose you are interested in measuring the causal effect of military service on civilian earnings:
- □ Is there a correlation between u_i (unmeasured labor market skills) and T_i (military service indicator)? (i.e. LSA#1 valid?)
 - Depends on applications to military and screening process used by military administration
- <u>Vietnam draft lottery</u>: Between 1970-1972, the military drafted individuals according to "call numbers" (RSN) that were randomly assigned (each birth date was randomly assigned one)

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- Men with RSN below a cutoff were <u>eligible to be drafted</u> while men with RSN above the cutoff could not
 - 1. RSN randomly assigned
 - 2. RSN imperfectly predicts military service: deferments (health, college), volunteering, draft-dodging
- □ ⇒ Cohorts randomly assigned "incentive" to join military
 - In other words, a randomly assigned variable changes the probability that an individual serves in military
- Can use this to form an instrumental variables for military service for cohorts at risk of being drafted in 1970-72.
 - Define $Z_i = \mathbf{1}(RSN_i < \text{cutoff})$. Then Z_i (~randomly determined) is plausibly independent of u_i (so A1 likely satisfied here)
 - If Z is correlated with T (A2) then can proceed with IV method Olivier Deschenes, UCSB, ESM 296, Winter 2018

Not As Good Example of Natural Experiment

- County of residence at age 14 predicts college attendance
 - Individuals living near a college more likely to attend college than those living further from one (A2 holds)
- Location decisions made by parents, so it is exogenous to the teenager's college enrollment decision – <u>but</u> parents who value education more, have higher SES, etc may decide to live closer to a college
 - Individuals assigned "incentive" to attend college based on parental decisions, so not randomly determined
- If ability/motivation is transmitted across generations, this 'natural experiment' will not deliver a 100% valid estimate of the causal effect of college attendance
 - In other words, Cov(Z_i,u_i) may not equal zero (A1 fails)

What can we learn from the IV method?

- Unlike the models that rely on the assumption of treatment ignorability, what we can learn from the IV estimator depends on whether the effects of the treatment are <u>constant</u> (same for all) or <u>heterogeneous</u>
- Constant treatment effect: $Y_i(1) Y_i(0) = \beta_1$ for all i.
 - In this case, a valid IV will identify ATE
 - We spend more time on this model
- □ Heterogenous treatment effect: $Y_i(1) Y_i(0) = \beta_{1i}$
 - In this case, a valid IV will identify a new causal parameter called "LATE" for local ATE
 - Requires some additional notation and assumptions
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Overview and Motivation:

- Several problems in applied econometrics are caused by a correlation between the regression error term and the regressors (violation of LSA#1):
 - Measurement error in T (see Kendall's paper)
 - Omitted variable bias
 - Simultaneous causality
- Instrumental variables regression provides a general approach to obtain a consistent estimator of regression coefficients in that case
 - But... you need to have a valid instrument in your data set to implement this approach
 - Often difficult to find a good one

Some terminology

- An endogenous variable is one that is correlated with u
- An exogenous variable is one that is uncorrelated with u
- Historical note: "Endogenous" literally means "determined within the system," that is, a variable that is jointly determined with Y, and so a variable subject to simultaneous causality problem
- We use the term endogenous more broadly since IV regression can be used to address omitted variables bias and errors-in-variable bias, not just to simultaneous causality bias

Basic Idea of IV Regression:

Consider the basic linear regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_i + u_i$$

- Suppose T_i is correlated with u_i (T is endogenous)
- Consider decomposing T_i into two variables, P_{1i} and P_{2i}:

$$T_i = P_{1i} + P_{2i}$$

- □ Where P_{1i} is <u>uncorrelated</u> with u_i and P_{2i} is <u>correlated</u> with u_i
- The method of instrumental variables uses the "extra" information we have (the instrument) to isolate/extract the variation in T_i that is uncorrelated with u_i (i.e., the variation in P_{1i}) to estimate β_1

IV Regression in One Regressor Model

Again, consider the basic linear regression model with constant treatment effect:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_i + U_i$$

□ If $E[u_i|T_i]\neq 0$, the OLS estimator of β_1 is not consistent

Two conditions for a valid instrument (Z_i) in this model:

IV1. "Instrument relevance": corr(Z_i,T_i)≠0

IV2. "Instrument exogeneity": $corr(Z_i,u_i)=0$

- Under IV1 and IV2 you can estimate β_1 consistently using IV regression
 - IV2 implied by the assumption $Z_i \perp (Y_i(0), Y_i(1))$

Two Approaches to Estimate β_1 by IV Regression

- □ 1. Two Stage Least Squares (TSLS) Estimator
- <u>2.</u> Instrumental Variables (IV) Estimator
- Under Assumptions IV1 and IV2 (plus a few technical ones):
 - Both estimators consistent and numerically equivalent in the 1 variable model
 - Both consistent (although not numerically equivalent) in the multivariate model (next lecture)

Two Stage Least Squares:

<u>First-stage:</u> decompose T_i into the "good" and "bad" variation (i.e. isolate variation in T uncorrelated with u)

$$T_i = \pi_0 + \pi_1 Z_i + V_i$$

- □ Two components of T_i:
- Exogenous component: $\pi_0 + \pi_1 Z_i$. This is uncorrelated with u_i by assumption IV2 (the "good", i.e. P_{1i} in previous slide)
- Endogenous component: v_i. This is correlated with u_i (the "bad", i.e., P_{2i} in previous slide)
- The TSLS estimator only use $\pi_0 + \pi_1 Z_i$ (instead of the full $T_i = \pi_0 + \pi_1 Z_i + v_i$) to estimate β_1

□ ... The TSLS estimator use $\pi_0 + \pi_1 Z_i$ to estimate β_1

- But we do not know the regression coefficients π_0 and π_1 , so we need to consistently estimate them
- □ **First-stage regression**: Estimate π_0 and π_1 by and OLS regression of T_i on Z_i , and construct the predicted value of T_i :

$$\hat{T}_i = \hat{\pi}_0 + \hat{\pi}_1 Z_i$$

 ${f Second-stage\ regression}$: Estimate ${f eta}_1$ by regressing ${f Y}_i$ on \hat{T}_i by OLS:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \hat{T}_i + u_i$$

- Because $\hat{T_i}$ is uncorrelated with $\mathbf{u_i}$ (if n is large if IV1 and IV2 hold), then the first least squares assumption (LSA#1) holds
- Thus β_1 can be consistently estimated by OLS in the second-stage regression
- This argument relies on "n" being large (so π_0 and π_1 are well estimated in first stage regression)
- The resulting estimator is called the Two Stage Least Squares (TSLS) estimator ($\hat{\beta}_1^{TSLS}$)

"Instrumental Variable Estimator"

Consider the 1 variable regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_i + U_i$$

Suppose you have a valid IV, that satisfies the instrument relevance and instrument exogeneity assumptions

Implications:

since $Cov(u_i, Z_i) = 0$ (by instrument exogeneity)

<u>Therefore:</u>

$$\square \quad Cov(Y_i, Z_i) = \beta_1 Cov(T_i, Z_i)$$

- Note that instrument relevance assumption (IV1) is key
- The IV estimator replaces the population covariances with sample covariances:

$$\hat{\beta}_1^{IV} = \frac{S_{YZ}}{S_{TZ}}$$

In the 1 variable regression model, TSLS and IV estimators are numerically the same

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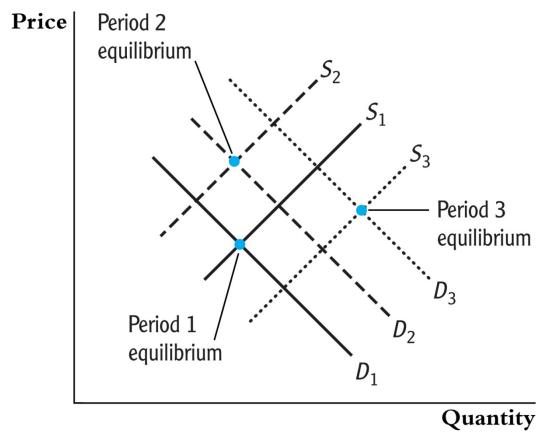
Classic Application of IV Regression:

IV regression was originally developed to estimate demand elasticities for agricultural goods, for example coffee:

$$\log(Q_i^{coffee}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(P_i^{coffee}) + u_i$$

- β_1 = price elasticity of coffee demand = percent change in quantity for a 1% change in price (recall log-log specification in lecture 5)
- Data: observations on price and quantity of coffee for different years
- □ ⇒ This regression will suffer from simultaneous causality bias (LSA#1 does not hold)

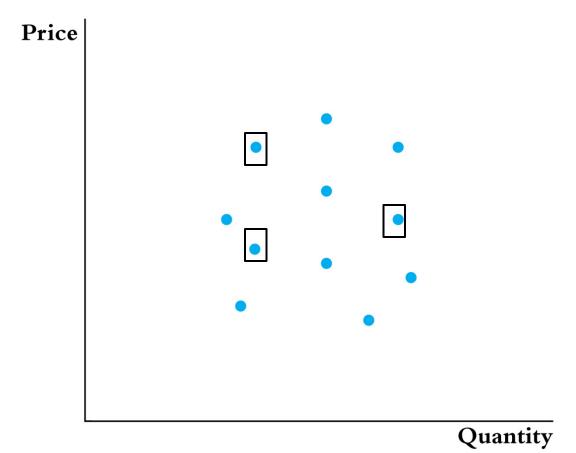
Simultaneous causality bias in the OLS regression of $log(Q_i)$ on $log(P_i)$ arises because price and quantity are determined by the interaction of demand *and* supply



(a) Demand and supply in three time periods

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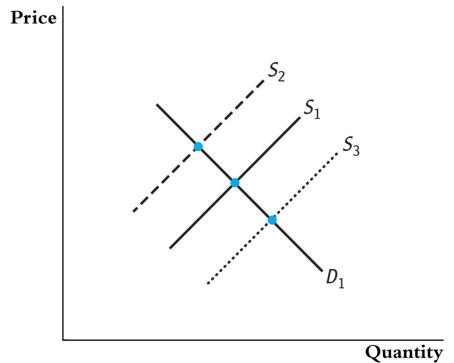
Can we identify demand elasticity from these data points?



(b) Equilibrium price and quantity for 11 time periods

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What if only supply curve shifted?



- **(c)** Equilibrium price and quantity when only the supply curve shifts
- TSLS estimates the demand curve by isolating shifts in price and quantity that only arise from shifts in the supply curve
- □ ⇒ here: Z is a variable that shifts supply but not demand

TSLS Approach:

$$\log(Q_i^{coffee}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(P_i^{coffee}) + u_i$$

- Let Z = measures of extreme weather (drought, flood, heat wave, frost, etc) in coffee-producing regions
- Is Z a valid instrument?
- \square (1) Exogenous? $corr(Z_i, u_i) = 0$?
 - Plausible?: whether there is a drought in coffee-producing regions should not affect residual demand <u>here</u>
- □ (2) Relevant? $\operatorname{corr}(Z_i, \log(P_i)) \neq 0$?
 - Plausible?: Drought means less coffee produced by coffee plants, and less available here, so expect positive correlation

TSLS in this context:

- oxdot Stage 1: regress $\log(P_i^{coffee})$ on Z, get $|\hat{\log}(P_i^{coffee})|$
- $log(P_i^{coffee})$ isolates changes in log price that arise from supply shifts due to weather shocks (Z)
- oxdot Stage 2: regress $\log(Q_i^{coffee})$ on $\hat{\log}(P_i^{coffee})$
- The TSLS estimator in this context traces out the demand curve by exploiting shifts in supply curve caused by exogenous weather shocks

Application: Fulton Fish Market Data

Review of Economic Studies (2000) 67, 499–527 © 2000 The Review of Economic Studies Limited 0034-6527/00/0000000\$02.00

The Interpretation of Instrumental Variables Estimators in Simultaneous Equations Models with an Application to the Demand for Fish

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and

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Fulton Fish Market Data

- Daily data on whiting fish traded at the Fulton fish market in New York City
- Fish sold at the Fulton fish market by a small number of dealers to a large number of buyers
- Sample period:

111 days between December &1991 and May 1992

Examine daily quantity
 sold (Q_t) and price (P_t)

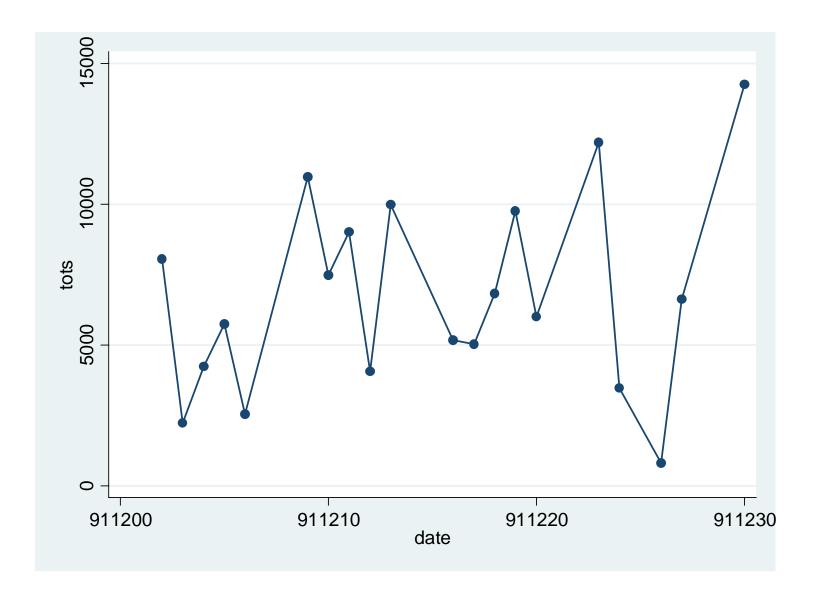


Fulton Fish Market Data: Summary Statistics

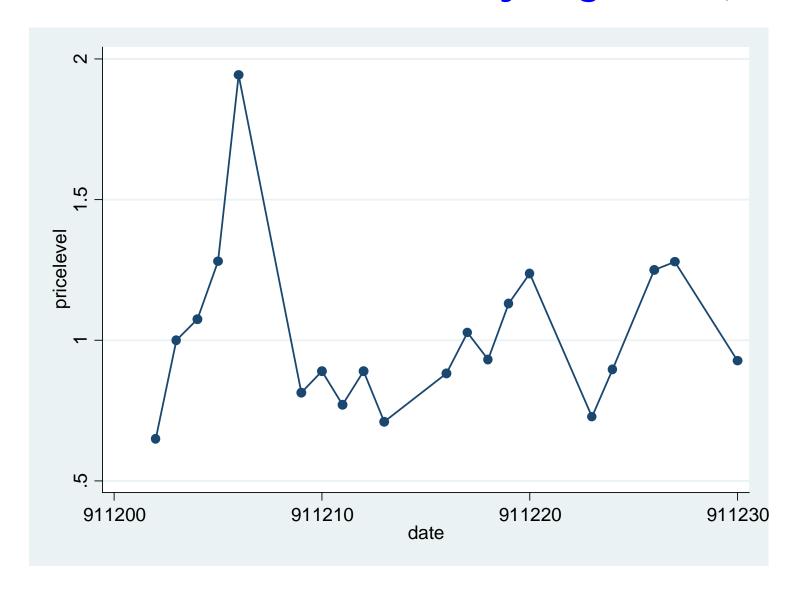
. summ tots pricelevel;

Variable	•	Mean	Std. Dev.		Max
tots			4050.279	490	21620
pricelevel	111	.8845243	.3351128	.330303	1.943182

Fulton Fish Market Data: Daily Quantity Sold (lbs)



Fulton Fish Market Data: Daily Avg Price (\$/lbs)



OLS regression of log(Q) on log(P)

```
. gen logQ=log(tots);
. gen logP=log(pricelevel);
. regress logQ logP, robust;
                                             Number of obs = 111
Linear regression
                                             F(1, 109) = 11.86
                                             Prob > F = 0.0008
                                             R-squared = 0.0859
                                             Root MSE = .71019
              Robust
      logQ | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval]
      logP | -.5675713 .164801 -3.44 0.001 -.8942015 -.2409411
     _cons | 8.412259 .0752359 111.81 0.000 8.263144 8.561374
```

Price elasticity = -0.57, so a 1% increase in the price of fish leads to a -0.57% decline in quantity of fish demanded. Likely biased due to simultaneous causality

First stage regression Instrument = Z = wind speed

T Z

. regress logP windspd, robust;

Linear regression

Number of obs = 111 F(1, 109) = 18.81 Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.1641 Root MSE = .35079

 logP 		t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
windspd	.7416438	4.34 -4.75			1.080541 -1.350193

Higher wind speeds lead to higher fish prices (sorry no units on data file)

X-hat

• predict logP_hat; Now we have the predicted values from the 1st stage Olivier Deschenes, UCSB, ESM 296, Winter 2018

^{⇒ &}quot;Instrument relevance" condition satisfied (t-ratio on windspd is 4.34). More on this next lecture

Second stage regression:

```
T-hat
. regress logQ logP hat, robust;
Linear regression
                                            Number of obs = 111
                                            F(1, 109) = 9.80
                                            Prob > F = 0.0022
                                            R-squared = 0.0668
                                            Root MSE = .71758
                     Robust
      logQ | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval]
   logP_hat | -1.2354 .394689 -3.13 0.002 -2.017661 -.4531391
     _cons | 8.282913 .112264 73.78 0.000 8.060409 8.505416
```

** The standard errors are wrong because they ignore the fact that the first stage coefficients are estimated (Stata has a way to adjust for this)

^{*} These coefficients are the TSLS estimates. Price elasticity is now -1.24 (1% increase in price of fish reduces demand by 1.24%)

Combined into a single command: "IVREG"

```
Y T Z
```

```
. ivreg logQ (logP=windspd), robust;
Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression
                                            Number of obs = 111
                                             F(1, 109) = 6.47
                                             Prob > F = 0.0124
                                             R-squared = .
                                             Root MSE = .755
               Robust
      logQ | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval]
      logP | -1.2354 .4856181 -2.54 0.012 -2.197879 -.2729206
     _cons | 8.282913 .1269709 65.23 0.000 8.031261 8.534565
Instrumented: logP
                                 This is the endogenous regressor
Instruments: windspd
                                 This is the instrumental varible
```

- ⇒ Price-elasticity -1.24 (unchanged)
- ⇒ Standard errors here are correct. Notice the previous ones were quite wrong
- ⇒ always use IVREG (or similar command) when implementing TSLS
- ⇒ "IVREGRESS" is currently most up-to-date command in Stata

Sampling distribution of TSLS/IV Estimator

- The IV estimator of β_1 is consistent and asymptotically normally distributed under "instrument relevance" and "instrument exogeneity" assumptions
 - Other technical assumptions needed as well to come
- In large samples, sample covariance converge in probability to population covariance (i.e. LLN), and so <u>IV estimator is</u> <u>consistent:</u>

$$\hat{\beta}_{1}^{IV} = \frac{S_{YZ}}{S_{TZ}} \xrightarrow{p} \frac{Cov(Y,Z)}{Cov(T,Z)} = \beta_{1}$$

The "instrument relevance" assumption Cov(T_i, Z_i)≠0 rules out division by zero – we return to this in discussion of weak IV

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TSLS/IV estimator is normally distributed in large samples

- The proof of this result is a bit more difficult
- What matters for us is the end result:

$$\hat{\beta}_1^{IV} \stackrel{A}{\cong} N(\beta_1, \sigma_{\hat{\beta}_1^{IV}}^2)$$

Where:
$$\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_{1}^{IV}}^{2} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{Var[(Z_{i} - \mu_{Z})u_{i}]}{Cov(T_{i}, Z_{i})^{2}}$$
Heteroskedasticity-robust...

Thus, we can conduct inference (hypothesis test, confidence intervals) in the same way as before