Introduction to Econometrics 2: Recitation 8

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Refresher on the properties of estimators

- Assume that we have data $(y_1, ..., y_n)$ distributed according to some probability measure P.
- Normally, we do not have an exact knowledge of what P did the data $(y_1,...,y_n)$ came from.
- We may know that the data is generated by a distribution F_{θ} for some $\theta \in \Theta$. However, there is a clear virtue in pinpointing a particular θ (denoted as θ_0).
 - Knowing this allows us to discover the population from which our data is from.
 - For instance, if $F_{\theta} = N(\theta, 1)$ and if we can pinpoint a particular θ_0 , we know the mean and the variance of our data.
- \bullet Therefore, if we do not know the exact θ_0 yet, we estimate what this might be.

Refresher on the properties of estimators

- An **estimator** is a function of the observations $(y_1, ..., y_n)$, often denoted as $\hat{\theta}_n$
- Ideally, we would like the estimators to satisfy these properties
 - **Unbiased**: $E(\hat{\theta}_n) = \theta_0$, where $E(\cdot)$ is the expectation under F_{θ_0}
 - Consistent: $\hat{\theta}_n \xrightarrow{p} \theta_0$ as $n \to \infty$
 - Asymptotically Normal: $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n \theta_0) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Sigma_0)$ as $n \to \infty$. (Σ_0 is PD matrix)
 - CAN: Consistent+Asymptotically Normal
- In addition, we would like to carry out inference on our estimators reliably. To do this, we need to find a good way to approximate the finite-sample distribution of $\hat{\theta}_n$.

Case of classical linear models

• Classical linear models is specified as

$$y = Xb_0 + u$$
 where $u \sim N(0, \sigma_0^2)$

- Assuming that the observations are IID conditional on X=x, the model has distribution $y \sim N(xb_0, \sigma_0^2)$
- The OLS estimator has a finite-sample distribution that is characterized as follows

$$\hat{b}_n = b_0 + (X'X)^{-1}X'u$$

$$\implies \sqrt{n}(\hat{b}_n - b_0) = \left(\frac{X'X}{n}\right)^{-1}\frac{X'u}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\sim N(0, \sigma_0^2(X'X)^{-1})$$

ullet If we are unsure of what σ_0^2 exactly is, we need to estimate for it using

$$\hat{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-p} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$$
 where $p = \dim(X)$ and $\hat{u}_i = y_i - x_i \hat{b}_n$

If you are interested in the variance estimator...

$$\hat{u} = y - X \hat{b}_n$$

= $y - X(X'X)^{-1}X'y$
= $Xb_0 + u - Xb_0 - X(X'X)^{-1}X'u = Mu$

where $M = I - X(X'X)^{-1}X$ and is idempotent and symmetric. Then,

$$\begin{split} E[\hat{u}'\hat{u}] &= E[u'Mu] \\ &= E[tr(u'Mu)] \; (\because u'Mu \; \text{is scalar.}) \\ &= E[tr(Muu')] \; (tr(AB) = tr(BA)) \\ &= tr[E(Muu')] \; (E(tr(A)) = tr(E(A))) \\ &= tr[ME(uu')] \; (\text{If we condition } X = x, \; M \; \text{is not stochastic}) \\ &= tr[M\sigma_0^2 I_n] = \sigma_0^2 tr(M) \\ &= \sigma_0^2 tr(I - X(X'X)^{-1}X') = \sigma_0^2 [tr(I) - tr(X(X'X)^{-1}X')] \\ &= \sigma_0^2 (n - tr((X'X)^{-1}X'X)) = \sigma_0^2 (n - p) \end{split}$$

Confidence Intervals

- A more honest way of inference
- ullet We can estimate the coverage probability for b_0 of a region $B\in\mathbb{R}^p$ by

$$\Pr(N(\hat{b}_n, \hat{\sigma}_n^2(X'X)^{-1}) \in B)$$

In words, it estimates the proportion of times that the region B contains the distribution of b_0 .

- Suppose we are finding the 95% confidence interval for \hat{b}_{kn}
 - Applying above setup, the relevant standard error is $\hat{\sigma}_{kn} = \hat{\sigma}_n \sqrt{(X'X)_k^{-1}} \text{ and the interval would have upper and lower bounds of } \hat{b}_{kn} \pm 1.96 \hat{\sigma}_{kn}$
 - We can test the null hypothesis that $b_{k0} = c$ with

$$\frac{|\hat{b}_{kn}-c|}{\hat{\sigma}_{kn}}>1.96$$

which gives a test with size (reject true null hypothesis wrongly by) 5% and power (correctly reject wrong hypothesis) that converges to 1.

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Beyond Classical Setup

- In most cases, we only know the asymptotics.
- Suppose that $\hat{\theta}_n$ is a CAN estimator s.t.

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta_0) \sim N(0, \Sigma_0)$$

• Finite sample context: We need to rely on approximation. Let $\widehat{\Sigma}_n$ be a consistent estimator for Σ_0 . Then we can write the above equation as

$$\hat{\theta}_n = \theta_0 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \widehat{\Sigma}_n^{-1/2} N(0, I_n)$$

 There are cases where above approximation can be very misleading. (e.g. White Misspecification test)

Bootstrap

- In doing the bootstrap, we are looking for alternative ways to assign standard errors (and ultimately the test statistics and confidence intervals) that are at least as good as and ideally better than the typical asymptotic approximation that we normally do.
 - Bootstrap estimators are usually as good as asymptotic approximations in the sense that bootstrap estimators are also consistent
 - It is better in the sense that it has *smaller approximation error*.

Bootstrap Procedure

- The procedure works as follows for the t-statistic :
 - Start with an IID sample $(X_1, ..., X_n)$. Estimate the model and compute the *t*-statistic
 - 2 Make *n* draws *with replacement*. Re-estimate the model and compute the new *t*-statistic.
 - 3 Repeat step 2 many times
 - Since there are different t-statistics for each sample, there will be a distribution of t-statistics. Use this t-distribution to get a reliable critical value

General Discussion

- We have a model and a data $(X_1, ..., X_n)$ generated from an unknown distribution F_0 .
- We can characterize the test statistic as $T_n(X_1,...,X_n)$.
- ullet Define the finite sample distribution of the test statistic under F_0 as

$$G_n(t, F_0) = \Pr(T_n \leq t)$$

- Two properties below are nice properties for T_n to have:
 - **Pivotal**: We say T_n is pivotal if G_n itself does not depend on the unknown parameters of F_0 .
 - **Asymptotically Pivotal**: We say T_n is asymptotically pivotal if

$$G_{\infty}(t,F_0)=\lim_{n\to\infty}G_n(t,F_0)$$

does not depend on F_0 . (so that F_0 can be omitted in the arguments.)

General Discussion

- Problem: We do not know F_0 , so we need an estimator for it
 - The empirical distribution function (or EDF) for the data X₁,.., X_n is defined as

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1(X_i \le x)$$

- Using the EDF, we can estimate $G_n(t, F_n)$ in this way
 - Select a large B, say 10,000.
 - **2** For each $b \in \{1, ..., B\}$ we do as follows
 - For each i = 1, ..., n pick j = 1, ..., n randomly with replacement and let $X_i^b = X_j$. In other words, draw n times with replacement from $(X_1, ..., X_n)$ and redefine the 'shuffled' sample as $(X_1^b, ..., X_n^b)$.
 - Then, compute the new test statistic $T_n^b = T_n(X_1^b, ..., X_n^b)$.
 - **3** Then, we will end up with B numbers of T_n^b . Then $G_n(t, F_n)$ can be written as

$$G_n(t, F_n) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} 1(T_n^b \le t)$$

General Discussion

- Once we are done with this, we find the bootstrapped critical values.
- \bullet Suppose that our test is of size 5% and we are doing a two-sided test.
- We find lower(upper) bounds for our critical value c^- (c^+) s.t. 0.025B values of T_n^b are smaller(larger) than that critical value.
- We then reject the null hypothesis if the T_n from the original $(X_1,..,X_n)$ does not belong within the bounds set by this procedure.
 - Alternatively, we can check whether the observed estimator belongs in the confidence interval using the critical value from this procedure and the bootstrapped standard errors.
- Bootstrapped confidence intervals are obtained by inverting the test we take all values not rejected by the above procedure and construct an interval.

General Discussion

- Now we show why bootstrapped estimators are at least as good as and sometimes ideally better than normal asymptotic approximations.
- Using the technic of Edgeworth Expansion, we can write

$$G_n(t,F_0) = G_{\infty}(t,F_0) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}g_1(t,F_0) + \frac{1}{n}g_2(t,F_0) + \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n}}g_3(t,F_0) + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

$$G_n(t,F_n) = G_{\infty}(t,F_n) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}g_1(t,F_n) + \frac{1}{n}g_2(t,F_n) + \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n}}g_3(t,F_n) + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

uniformly over t almost surely. (From Horowitz, 2011)

• Suppose that $G_{\infty}(t,\cdot)$ is continuous at F_0 . Then

$$G_n(t,F_n) - G_n(t,F_0) = G_{\infty}(t,F_n) - G_{\infty}(t,F_0) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(g_1(t,F_0) - g_1(t,F_n)) + \frac{1}{n}(g_2(t,F_0) - g_2(t,F_n)) + \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n}}(g_3(t,F_0) - g_3(t,F_n)) + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

General Discussion

- Notice that $G_{\infty}(t,F_n)-G_{\infty}(t,F_0)$ is $O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ since $F_n-F_0=O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ (: Dvoretzky-Kleifer-Wolfowitz inequality).
- Therefore, the size of the bootstrap approximation error is $O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ and the bootstrap error is consistent.
- Note that normal asymptotic approximation also has the same size of approximation error.
- If T_n is asymptotically pivotal, $G_{\infty}(t,F_n)-G_{\infty}(t,F_0)$ term vanishes. The leading term is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(g_1(t,F_0)-g_1(t,F_n))$ and the size of the approximation error is $O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$ improvement.

Uses of Bootstraps

- Parametric: Assume that you have faith in the form of your model.
 - Then, either draw from estimated parametric distribution of u
 - Or you can hold x_i 's fixed and draw upon residuals
- Bootstrapped standard errors: The bootstrap variance of the estimator $\hat{\theta}_n$ is defined as

$$\tilde{V}_n = \frac{1}{B-1} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \left(\hat{\theta}_n^b - \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^{B} \hat{\theta}_n^i \right)^2$$

- Block Bootstrap: This is used when we suspect that the data is serially correlated.
 - What we do is to use *m*-size blocks of consecutive observations.
 - Then we can use B=n+1-m blocks in total. This works when $m/n \to 0, m \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$

Uses of Bootstraps

- Wild Bootstrap: This is useful with heteroskedastic error terms.
 - Suppose we have sample b, and there is i'th observation in that sample.
 - The trick is to use $u_i^* = \epsilon_i \hat{u}_i$ where $E[\epsilon_i] = 0, E[\epsilon_i^2] = 1$. As in class, you can use $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$
- Bias-Corrected Bootstrap: Typical estimation $\hat{\theta}_n$ could have some biases.
 - Instead, we define

$$\theta_n^* = 2\theta_n - E^*[\theta_n^*]$$

to minimize the bias, at least asymptotically

Uses of Bootstraps

- Subsampling: Instead of resampling with the size n, we resample with size m and do a bootstrap for B times. (without replacement)
 - ullet So there are a total of $N_{n,m}=inom{n}{m}$ total number of subsets
 - Compute $T_m(x_1^b,..,x_m^b)$
 - We are trying to estimate $G_n(t, F_n)$ with T_m , but on a rescaled version
 - Define

$$J_n(t,F_0)= \Pr(r_n(T_n-T_\infty) \leq t)$$
 (You can define $J_m(t,F_0)$ similarly)

where r_n is a scaling parameter

ullet Then, as $m/n o 0, r_m/r_n o 0$ and $m o \infty$ as $n o \infty$, we have

$$r_n(T_n-T_\infty)\simeq r_m(T_m-T_n)$$

which works better than bootstrap as long as $J_{\infty}(t, F_0)$ is continuous with respect to t

Motivation

- Suppose that we are testing S hypothesis where S is some large number and each hypothesis is mutually independent.
- Let S=1000. Then, the probability of rejecting any one of the 1000 hypothesis is calculated by $1-(0.95)^{1000}\simeq 1$
- In other words, you get something significant just out of pure luck.
- In doing so, the most dangerous consequence is running in to a false discovery - a rejection of a true null hypothesis
- The best approach that prevents this mistake is finding either an empirical or theoretical motivations for the hypothesis. In a context with larger datasets, we need to come up with a technical method for testing multiple hypothesis.

Setup

• We are running S simultaneous tests. For a particular test $s \leq S$, we are testing the null H_{0s} versus the alternative H_{1s} , we know that the p-value is

$$p_s = \Pr(\text{Reject } H_{0s}|H_{0s} \text{ is true})$$

This is also the mathematical definition of the false discovery. Some other key terms are

- False discovery proportion (FDP): It is the proportion of the false discoveries out of all discoveries, or
- False discovery rate (FDR): E[FDP]
- Familywise error rate (FWE): It is the probability of one or more false discoveries. A k-FWE calculates probability of k or more false discoveries.
- There are two strands of methods. One controls for the FWE. The other controls for the FDR.

Bonferroni Method

- **Bonferroni method** is a classical method based on Bonferroni inequalities (Boole's inequality for k = 1)
- To see how this works, let A_s be the event that $p_s < w$ (and for which H_{0s} is rejected) for some value w associated with the significance level α , where s = 1, ..., S.
- Let I_0 be indices for the true hypothesis, with $n(I_s) = S_0 \le S$.
- The goal is to determine the value of w that makes the $FWE \leq \alpha$. Then the following logic works

$$FWE = \Pr(\bigcup_{s \in I_0} A_s) \le \sum_{s \in I_0} \Pr(A_s) = S_0 w \le Sw$$

So for the FWE, we can let $w = \alpha/S$.

Holm Method

- **Holm method** is a step-down method in the sense that ordering of the different *p*-values are involved.
- The procedure is as follows
 - ① Order the *p*-values s.t. $p_1 < ... < p_S$, and denote each null hypothesis as $H_{01}, ..., H_{0S}$.
 - **2** Reject H_{0j} if $p_j \leq \frac{\alpha}{S-j+1}$ for j=1,2,...,S

That is, we start with the hypothesis with lowest p-value and compare its p-value against α/S . If this is rejected, move on to the next hypothesis and compare its p-value against $\alpha/(S-1)$

Holm Method: How does this work?

- Let *k* be the index of the first true null hypothesis that is rejected.
- Since we ordered hypothesis according to the size of the p-value, the first k-1 rejected hypotheses are false null hypothesis.
- Since there are total of $S-S_0$ false hypotheses, we can claim $k-1 \leq S-S_0$. This equation implies $\frac{1}{S-k+1} \leq \frac{1}{S_0}$.
- Since kth hypothesis is still rejected, $p_k \leq \frac{\alpha}{S-k+1} \leq \frac{\alpha}{S_0}$.
- So, there exists a true hypothesis whose *p*-value is bounded above by α/S_0 . Then

$$FWE = \Pr(\text{Reject at least one true hypothesis})$$

$$\leq \Pr(p_s \leq \alpha/S_0 \text{ for some true hypothesis})$$

$$\leq \sum_{s \in I_0} \Pr(p_s \leq \alpha/S_0) = S_0 \times (\alpha/S_0) = \alpha$$

where I use the fact that if null hypothesis is true and the statistic is continuous, p-value has U[0,1] distribution

FWE controls

- For both methods, we did not need to make any assumptions on the dependence structure of the hypotheses
- Bonferroni method tends to be the more conservative out of the twolt rejects less in general.
- There are ways to control for k-FWE where k > 1. I have put this in the recitation notes. For more reference, look at Lehman, Romano (2005)

Benjamini-Hochberg Method

- The goal of this approach is to set the false discovery rate to be below some $\gamma \in [0,1]$.
- The procedure is as follows
 - **①** Order *p*-values from the lowest to the highest: $p_1 < ..., < p_S$
 - Make the following adjustment:

$$ilde{p}_s = \min\left\{rac{Sp_j}{j}|j\geq s
ight\}$$

- **3** We move from the *S*th hypothesis. If $\tilde{p}_S \leq \gamma$, then all *S* hypothesis are rejected and the process ends. Otherwise, move to S-1th hypothesis.
- **4** At some point, you will find i s.t. $\tilde{p}_i \leq \gamma$. Then reject the first i hypotheses.

Benjamini-Hochberg Method: How does it work?

- We do not reject H_{0s} iff for all $j \geq s, p_j \geq \frac{j\gamma}{S} \left(\geq \frac{s\gamma}{S} \right)$.
- So what we can do is to plot the ordered p-values and the threshold line $p(s) = \frac{s\gamma}{S}$.
- If a *p*-value of the *s*th hypothesis is larger than $\frac{s\gamma}{S}$, then that hypothesis can not be rejected.
- In this manner, we can find s^* , the largest index s.t. the p-value is below the p(s) plot. Then, we reject all H_{0s} s.t. $s \le s^*$.
- We can show that in suitable conditions, this method yields $FDR = \frac{S_0}{S} \gamma$. This is still conservative method in that $S_0 \leq S$. We can do better by estimating what S_0 would be and using $\frac{S}{S_0} \gamma$ as cutoff instead.