Instrumental Variables: a Short Introduction

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Instrumental variable (IV) is used in presence of latent confounder U.

 $\square Z$ is called an instrumental variable if

- Exclusion restriction: Z has no effect on Y except through X.
 In terms of potential outcome notation, Y(x, z) ≡ Y(x).
- 2. **Exogeneity**: Z and U are independent.
 - ▶ Weak exogeneity: $Y(x) \perp Z$ for each level of treatment X.
- 3. **Relevance**: Z and X are not independent (faithfulness).

Validity



- 1. **Exclusion restriction**: Z has no effect on Y except through X.
- 2. **Exogeneity**: Z and U are independent.
- 3. **Relevance**: Z and X are not independent (faithfulness).

Solve only relevance is verifiable (by rejecting the null $Z \perp X$).

Falsification

- Requirements 1 and 2 may imply conditions that can be tested with data (falsification/specification tests).
- But passing these tests does **not** prove that Z is a valid instrument.
- One has to argue that Z satisfies these requirements.

Examples





• Encouragement design:

 \blacktriangleright X: vaccine, Y: risk of flu, Z: random encouragement from doctor to get vaccine

• Genetic variation (Mendelian randomization):

► X: alcohol consumption, Y: heart disease, Z: polymorphism related to alcoholic metabolism

• Environmental factor

► X: economic condition, Y: civil conflict, Z: rainfall (Miguel, Satyanath, and Sergenti, 2004)

That being said, without making further assumption, the

counterfactual distribution is not identified from the observed data.

ACE $\mathbb{E}[Y|do(X = 1)] - \mathbb{E}[Y|do(X = 0)]$ is unidentified.



To proceed, we have to make additional assumptions.

► To relate to problems in geometry, I will focus on the **linear structural** equation model (linear SEM).





Linear SEM is widely adopted in econometrics.



Let Z, X, U, Y be univariate random variables.

Suppose all variables have zero mean and finite variance.

$$Y = \beta X + \delta U + \eta^{Y}, \quad X = \pi Z + \alpha U + \eta^{X}.$$

▶ **Relevance**: $\pi \neq 0$

► Exogeneity: $Z \perp U, \eta^X, \eta^Y$.



$$Y = \beta X + \delta U + \eta^{Y}, \quad X = \pi Z + \alpha U + \eta^{X}.$$

▶ By substituting the equation on *X* into the equation on *Y*, we get the "reduced form"

$$Y = \beta \pi Z + \beta (\alpha U + \eta^{X}) + \eta^{Y},$$

$$X = \pi Z + \alpha U + \eta^{X}.$$

Now note $\beta(\alpha U + \eta^X) + \eta^Y \perp Z$ and $\alpha U + \eta^X \perp Z$ by exogeneity.

 ${}^{\scriptstyle \rm I\!S\!S}$ We can consistently estimate $\beta\pi$ and $\pi,$ and divide:

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\widehat{\beta\pi}}{\widehat{\pi}} = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(Y, Z) / \operatorname{var} Z}{\operatorname{cov}(X, Z) / \operatorname{var} Z} = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(Y, Z)}{\operatorname{cov}(X, Z)},$$

which can be restated as two-stage least squares (2SLS)

- 1st stage: $\hat{\pi}$ from $X \sim Z$
- 2nd stage: $\hat{\beta}$ from $Y \sim \hat{\pi}Z$, where $\hat{\pi}Z$ is the **fitted value** of X.

IV is a division



Inder $\pi \neq 0$ (relevance), it is easy to see that $\hat{\beta}$ is consistent and asymptotically normal.

When Z is binary, this is Wald's estimator

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(Y, Z)}{\operatorname{cov}(X, Z)} = \frac{\mathbb{E}[Y|Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[Y|Z=0]}{\mathbb{E}[X|Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[X|Z=0]},$$

which follows from

$$cov(Y,Z) = (\mathbb{E}[Y|Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[Y|Z=0])p(1-p)$$

for $p = \mathbb{E} Z$.

So far we have studied the simplest case dim $Z = \dim X = 1$.



To gain more insights, let us now assume dim $Z = \dim X = k$.

 ${}^{\scriptstyle \hbox{\scriptsize ISS}}$ Absorbing endogenous errors, the equation on $\,Y\in\mathbb{R}$ can be written as

$$Y = \beta^{\mathsf{T}} X + \varepsilon^{\mathsf{Y}}, \quad \beta, X \in \mathbb{R}^k,$$

where $\sigma^2 := \mathbb{E}(\epsilon^Y)^2$.

▶ Given that $Z \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is exogenous, we have $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^Y | Z] = \mathbf{0}$, which yields the estimating equation

$$\boldsymbol{Z}^{T}(\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})=\boldsymbol{0},$$

where $\boldsymbol{Z}, \boldsymbol{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^{k}$.

This yields the estimator

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\boldsymbol{Z}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{Z}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{y},$$

which is consistent if (1) $\mathbb{E}[ZX^{\intercal}]$ is full-rank (2) $Z^{\intercal} \varepsilon^{y} / n \rightarrow_{\rho} \mathbf{0}$.



🖙 CLT

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \stackrel{d}{\Rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}),$$

with a sandwich asymptotic covariance

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sigma^2 \, \mathbb{E}[ZX^{\mathsf{T}}]^{-1} \operatorname{cov}(Z) \, \mathbb{E}[ZX^{\mathsf{T}}]^{-\mathsf{T}} = \sigma^2 \operatorname{plim}_n\left(n^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}} \boldsymbol{X}\right),$$

where $P_Z = Z(Z^T Z)^{-1} Z^T$ is the projection matrix into the column space of Z.

▶ But there could be other ways of forming the estimating equation, e.g., $f(Z)^{\mathsf{T}}(y - X\beta) = 0$ for some function f.

► The optimal choice should minimize Σ .

Take $f(Z) = \overline{X} := \mathbb{E}[X|Z]$ is the optimal choice. That is, the "instrumented" treatment X.

Instrumentation



To see that $\bar{X} = \mathbb{E}[X|Z]$ is the asymptotically optimal exogenous variable in estimating equation, consider the asymptotic precision

$$\begin{aligned} (\Sigma/\sigma^2)^{-1} &= \mathsf{plim}_n \, n^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{P}_Z \mathbf{X} \\ &= \mathbb{E}[XZ^\mathsf{T}] \operatorname{cov}(Z)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[XZ^\mathsf{T}]^{-1} \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}Z^\mathsf{T}] \operatorname{cov}(Z)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}Z^\mathsf{T}]^{-1} \quad \text{(tower)} \\ &= \mathsf{plim}_n \, n^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{X}}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{P}_Z \bar{\mathbf{X}}. \end{aligned}$$

► Specializing to $Z = \bar{X}$, the above becomes $\text{plim}_n n^{-1} \bar{X}^T \bar{X}$.

This is optimal because

$$n^{-1}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}} - n^{-1}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}} = n^{-1}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}}(\boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}})\bar{\boldsymbol{X}} \succeq \boldsymbol{0}.$$

To estimating k coefficients, one needs at least k estimating equations. But one could have $l \ge k$ instruments.

Over-identification



Now suppose dim $Z = l \ge k = \dim X$.

• Exactly-identified: l = k, Over-identified: l > k, Unidentified: l < k.

For $\boldsymbol{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n imes l}$, $\boldsymbol{J} \in \mathbb{R}^{l imes k}$, suppose we form estimating equation

$$(\boldsymbol{Z}\boldsymbol{J})^{\intercal}(\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})=\boldsymbol{0},$$

and look for the optimal J that minimizes the asymptotic covariance.

Similar to the previous, the asymptotic precision

$$(\Sigma/\sigma^2)^{-1} = \operatorname{plim}_n n^{-1} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z} \boldsymbol{J}} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}.$$

In general, however, we cannot find J such that $\mathbb{E}[X|Z] = ZJ$.

Nevertheless, the natural choice is

$$\boldsymbol{Z}\boldsymbol{J} = \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}\boldsymbol{\bar{X}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{J} = (\boldsymbol{Z}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{Z})^{-1}\boldsymbol{Z}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\bar{X}}.$$



With such choice,

$$\begin{split} (\Sigma/\sigma^2)^{-1} &= \operatorname{plim}_n n^{-1} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}}} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}} \\ &= \operatorname{plim}_n n^{-1} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}} \left(\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}} \right)^{-1} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}} \\ &= \operatorname{plim}_n n^{-1} \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}}, \end{split}$$

where we note P_Z is symmetric, idempotent.

 \square This choice of J is optimal because

$$ar{m{X}}^{ op} \left(m{P}_{m{Z}} - m{P}_{m{Z}J}
ight) ar{m{X}} \succeq m{0}.$$

But $\bar{X} = \mathbb{E}[X|Z]$ is unknown. Nevertheless, $P_Z X$ is asymptotically equivalent to $P_Z \bar{X}$.

Generalized 2SLS



Finally, under dim $Z = I \ge k = \dim X$, the optimal estimating equation is

$$(\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}\boldsymbol{X})^{\mathsf{T}}(\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})=\boldsymbol{0},$$

which yields the generalized 2SLS estimator

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{y}$$
$$= [(\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{X})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{X})]^{-1} (\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{X})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{Z}}$$

where $P_Z X$ is the fitted value of X from 1st-stage regression. $rac{1}{2}$ CLT

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}-\boldsymbol{\beta}) \stackrel{d}{\Rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}), \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sigma^2 \, \mathbb{E}[ZX^{\intercal}]^{-1} \operatorname{cov}(Z) \, \mathbb{E}[ZX^{\intercal}]^{-\intercal}.$$

This works because $\mathbb{E}[X|Z]$ is **asymptotically independent** of the endogenous error ε^{y} , although they are dependent in finite samples!

Because 2SLS is a generalized form of division, its finite sample behavior is rather erratic, especially when instrument is weak!

Consider again the case of dim $Z = \dim X = 1$

$$Y = \beta X + \sigma_1 \varepsilon_1, \quad X = \pi Z + \sigma_2 \varepsilon_2,$$

with $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ with correlation ρ .

We have

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}} = \frac{\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} (\beta \mathbf{x} + \sigma_1 \varepsilon_1)}{\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}} = \beta + \sigma_1 \frac{\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} \varepsilon_1}{\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}}.$$

It follows that

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta = \frac{\sigma_1 \boldsymbol{z}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1}{\boldsymbol{z}^{\mathsf{T}} (\pi \boldsymbol{z} + \sigma_2 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2)}.$$

Letting $\boldsymbol{z}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{z} = 1$ and writing $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_3 + \rho \varepsilon_2$ for $\varepsilon_3 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ independent of ε_2

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta = \frac{\sigma_1 \mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} (\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_3 + \rho \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2)}{\pi + \sigma_2 \mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2}$$



Now, taking conditional expectation with respect to ε_2 and noting $z^{\intercal}\varepsilon_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, we get

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta} - \beta | \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2] = \frac{\rho \sigma_1}{\sigma_2} \frac{W}{W + \pi/\sigma_2}, \quad W \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

- If $\rho=$ 0, unbiased and reduced to OLS.
- If $\rho \neq 0$,
 - $\pi = 0$: 2SLS has non-diminishing bias $\rho \sigma_1 / \sigma_2$.
 - $\pi \neq 0$: $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta} \beta]$ does not exist, even though it is asymptotically unbiased!
 - ► Generalized $\hat{\beta}$ only has (l k) moments in finite samples (Kinal, 1980) in the identified/over-identified case $(l \ge k)$.
 - \blacktriangleright Poor asymptotic behavior if $\pi\approx$ 0, i.e., weak instrument.



Weak instruments



The asymptotics on $\hat{\beta}$ may be far from reality if instrument is weak. One needs to be **cautious** of this fact when doing inference on IV.

- Testing weak instrument
 - 1. Stock and Yogo (2002) based on asymptotic embedding at local asymptotics $\pi = c/\sqrt{n}$.
 - 2. Inference on IV after testing for weak instruments (Bi, Kang, and Taylor, 2020).

Solution Weak-instrument robust test (Anderson and Rubin, 1949) for testing H_0 : $\beta = \beta_0$.



- 1. Homogeneity
- 2. Monotonicity and local average treatment effect (LATE).

IV also implies semi-algebraic constraints (e.g., instrument inequalities) that can be used for falsification and partial identification.

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