Module 2: Demand for Cigarettes and Instrumental Variables

Part 2: Instrumental Variables

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What is instrumental variables

Instrumental Variables (IV) is a way to identify causal effects using variation in treatment participation that is due to an *exogenous* variable that is only related to the outcome through treatment.

Why bother with IV?

Two reasons to consider IV:

- 1. Selection on unobservables
- 2. Reverse causation

Either problem is sometimes loosely referred to as *endogeneity*

Simple example

- y = eta x + arepsilon(x), where arepsilon(x) reflects the dependence between our observed variable and the error term.
- Simple OLS will yield

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \beta + \frac{d\varepsilon}{dx} \neq \beta$$

What does IV do?

• The regression we want to do:

$$y_i = lpha + \delta D_i + \gamma A_i + \epsilon_i$$
 ,

where D_i is treatment (think of schooling for now) and A_i is something like ability.

- A_i is unobserved, so instead we run: $y_i = lpha + eta D_i + \epsilon_i$
- From this "short" regression, we don't actually estimate δ . Instead, we get an estimate of

$$eta=\delta+\lambda_{ds}\gamma
eq\delta$$
 ,

where λ_{ds} is the coefficient of a regression of A_i on D_i .

Intuition

IV will recover the "long" regression without observing underlying ability

IF our IV satisfies all of the necessary assumptions.

More formally

- We want to estimate $E[Y_i|D_i=1]-E[Y_i|D_i=0]$
- With instrument Z_i that satisfies relevant assumptions, we can estimate this as

$$E[Y_i|D_i=1] - E[Y_i|D_i=0] = rac{E[Y_i|Z_i=1] - E[Y_i|Z_i=0]}{E[D_i|Z_i=1] - E[D_i|Z_i=0]}$$

• In words, this is effect of the instrument on the outcome ("reduced form") divided by the effect of the instrument on treatment ("first stage")

Derivation

Recall "long" regression: $Y = lpha + \delta S + \gamma A + \epsilon$.

$$\begin{split} COV(Y,Z) &= E[YZ] - E[Y]E[Z] \\ &= E[(\alpha + \delta S + \gamma A + \epsilon) \times Z] - E[\alpha + \delta S + \gamma A + \epsilon)]E[Z] \\ &= \alpha E[Z] + \delta E[SZ] + \gamma E[AZ] + E[\epsilon Z] \\ &- \alpha E[Z] - \delta E[S]E[Z] - \gamma E[A]E[Z] - E[\epsilon]E[Z] \\ &= \delta(E[SZ] - E[S]E[Z]) + \gamma(E[AZ] - E[A]E[Z]) \\ &+ E[\epsilon Z] - E[\epsilon]E[Z] \\ &= \delta C(S,Z) + \gamma C(A,Z) + C(\epsilon,Z) \end{split}$$

Derivation

Working from $COV(Y,Z) = \delta COV(S,Z) + \gamma COV(A,Z) + COV(\epsilon,Z)$, we find

$$\delta = \frac{COV(Y, Z)}{COV(S, Z)}$$

if $COV(A,Z)=COV(\epsilon,Z)=0$

IVs in practice

Easy to think of in terms of randomized controlled trial...

Measure	Offered Seat	Not Offered Seat	Difference
Score	-0.003	-0.358	0.355
% Enrolled	0.787	0.046	0.741
Effect			0.48

Angrist et al., 2012. "Who Benefits from KIPP?" Journal of Policy Analysis and Management.

What is IV *really* doing

Think of IV as two-steps:

Isolate variation due to the instrument only (not due to endogenous stuff)
 Estimate effect on outcome using only this source of variation

In regression terms

Interested in estimating δ from $y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \delta D_i + \varepsilon_i$, but D_i is endogenous (no pure "selection on observables").

Step 1: With instrument Z_i , we can regress D_i on Z_i and x_i , $D_i = \lambda + \theta Z_i + \kappa x_i + \nu$, and form prediction \hat{D}_i .

Step 2: Regress y_i on x_i and \hat{D}_i , $y_i = lpha + eta x_i + \delta \hat{D}_i + \xi_i$

Derivation

Recall
$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{C(Z,S)}{V(Z)}$$
, or $\hat{\theta}V(Z) = C(Y,Z)$. Then:
 $\hat{\delta} = \frac{COV(Y,Z)}{COV(S,Z)}$
 $= \frac{\hat{\theta}C(Y,Z)}{\hat{\theta}C(S,Z)} = \frac{\hat{\theta}C(Y,Z)}{\hat{\theta}^2 V(Z)}$
 $= \frac{C(\hat{\theta}Z,Y)}{V(\hat{\theta}Z)} = \frac{C(\hat{S},Y)}{V(\hat{S})}$

In regression terms

But in practice, *DON'T* do this in two steps. Why?

Because standard errors are wrong...not accounting for noise in prediction, \hat{D}_i . The appropriate fix is built into most modern stats programs.

Formal IV Assumptions

Key IV assumptions

1. *Exclusion:* Instrument is uncorrelated with the error term

- 2. *Validity:* Instrument is correlated with the endogenous variable
- 3. *Monotonicity*: Treatment more (less) likely for those with higher (lower) values of the instrument

Assumptions 1 and 2 sometimes grouped into an *only through* condition.

Exclusion

Conley et al (2010) and "plausible exogeneity", union of confidence intervals approach

- Suppose extent of violation is known in $y_i=eta x_i+\gamma z_i+arepsilon_i$, so that $\gamma=\gamma_0$
- IV/TSLS applied to $y_i \gamma_0 z_i = eta x_i + arepsilon_i$ works
- With γ_0 unknown...do this a bunch of times!

$$\circ~$$
 Pick $\gamma=\gamma^b$ for $b=1,\ldots,B$

- $_\circ\,$ Obtain (1-lpha) % confidence interval for eta, denoted $CI^b(1-lpha)$
- $\circ\,$ Compute final CI as the union of all CI^{b}

Exclusion

Kippersluis and Rietveld (2018), "Beyond Plausibly Exogenous"

- "zero-first-stage" test
- Focus on subsample for which your instrument is not correlated with the endogenous variable of interest
 - 1. Regress the outcome on all covariates and the instruments among this subsample
 - 2. Coefficient on the instruments captures any potential direct effect of the instruments on the outcome (since the correlation with the endogenous variable is 0 by assumption).

Validity

Just says that your instrument is correlated with the endogenous variable, but what about the **strength** of the correlation?



Why we care about instrument strength

Recall our schooling and wages equation,

$$y = \beta S + \epsilon.$$

Bias in IV can be represented as:

$$Bias_{IV} pprox rac{Cov(S,\epsilon)}{V(S)} rac{1}{F+1} = Bias_{OLS} rac{1}{F+1}$$

- Bias in IV may be close to OLS, depending on instrument strength
- **Bigger problem:** Bias could be bigger than OLS if exclusion restriction not *fully* satisfied

Testing strength of instruments

Single endogenous variable

- Stock & Yogo (2005) test based on first-stage F-stat (homoskedasticity only)
 Critical values in tables, based on number of instruments
 - Rule-of-thumb of 10 with single instrument (higher with more instruments)
 - Lee et al (2022): With first-stage F-stat of 10, standard "95% confidence interval" for second stage is really an 85% confidence interval
 - Over-reliance on "rules of thumb", as seen in Anders and Kasy (2019)

Testing strength of instruments

Single endogenous variable

- Stock & Yogo (2005) test based on first-stage F-stat (homoskedasticity only)
- Kleibergen & Paap (2007) Wald statistic
- Effective F-statistic from Olea & Pflueger (2013)

Testing strength of instruments: First-stage

Single endogenous variable

- 1. Homoskedasticity
 - Stock & Yogo, effective F-stat
- 2. Heteroskedasticity
 - Effective F-stat

Many endogenous variables

1. Homoskedasticity

 Stock & Yogo with Cragg & Donald statistic, Sanderson & Windmeijer (2016), effective Fstat

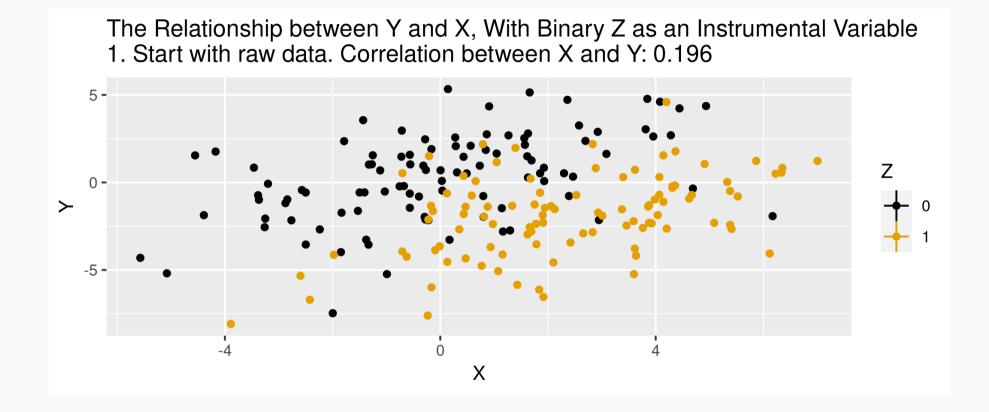
- 2. Heteroskedasticity
 - Kleibergen & Papp Wald is robust analog of Cragg & Donald statistic, effective F-stat

Making sense of all of this...

- Test first-stage using effective F-stat (inference is harder and beyond this class)
- Many endogenous variables problematic because strength of instruments for one variable need not imply strength of instruments for others

IV with Simulated Data

Animation for IV



Simulated data

```
n ← 5000
b.true ← 5.25
iv.dat ← tibble(
  z = rnorm(n,0,2),
  eps = rnorm(n,0,1),
  d = (z + 1.5*eps + rnorm(n,0,1) >0.25),
  y = 2.5 + b.true*d + eps + rnorm(n,0,0.5)
)
```

- endogenous eps: affects treatment and outcome
- z is an instrument: affects treatment but no direct effect on outcome

Results with simulated data

Recall that the true treatment effect is 5.25

Call: ## Call: ## lm(formula = v ~ d, data = iv.dat)## ivreg(formula = $y \sim d \mid z$, data = iv.dat) ## ## ## Residuals: ## Residuals: Min 10 Median Median 30 Max Min 10 30 Max ## ### ## -3.8090 -0.6703 -0.0104 0.6898 3.7293 ## -4.182290 -0.736445 -0.009663 0.726962 4.167480 ### ## ## Coefficients: ## Coefficients: Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)### ## ## (Intercept) 2.08422 0.01977 ## (Intercept) 2.45751 0.02881 85.3 <2e-16 *** 105.4 <2e-16 *** 211.4 <2e-16 *** ## dTRUF 6.16211 0.02914 ## dTRUE 5.35060 0.05264 101.6 <2e-16 *** ## ----## ----## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' ## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' ## ## ## Residual standard error: 1.027 on 4998 degrees of freedom ## Residual standard error: 1.104 on 4998 degrees of freedom ## Multiple R-squared: 0.8994, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8994 ## Multiple R-Squared: 0.8838, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8838 ## F-statistic: 4.471e+04 on 1 and 4998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16 ## Wald test: 1.033e+04 on 1 and 4998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

Checking instrument

```
• Check the 'first stage'
```

Call: ## Call: ## lm(formula = d ~ z, data = iv.dat) ## ## ## Residuals: ## Residuals: Min 10 Median Min 10 Median 30 Max ## ## ## -1.11348 -0.32880 -0.01652 0.32969 1.12071 ## ## ## Coefficients: ## Coefficients: Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)### ## ## (Intercept) 0.463461 0.005666 81.79 <2e-16 ***</pre> ## 7 0.150129 0.002868 52.34 <2e-16 *** ## z 0.80328 ## ----## ----## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' ## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' ## ## ## Residual standard error: 0.4007 on 4998 degrees of freedom ## Multiple R-squared: 0.354, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3539 ## F-statistic: 2739 on 1 and 4998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

Check the 'reduced form'

lm(formula = y ~ z, data = iv.dat)30 Max ## -9.1588 -2.1484 -0.0716 2.1998 9.1674 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)## (Intercept) 4.93730 0.03993 123.64 <2e-16 *** 0.02021 39.74 <2e-16 *** ## Residual standard error: 2.823 on 4998 degrees of freedom ## Multiple R-squared: 0.2401, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2399 ## F-statistic: 1579 on 1 and 4998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

Two-stage equivalence

```
step1 ← lm(d ~ z, data=iv.dat)
d.hat ← predict(step1)
step2 ← lm(y ~ d.hat, data=iv.dat)
summary(step2)
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = y ~ d.hat, data = iv.dat)
##
## Residuals:
     Min 10 Median 30
##
                                    Max
## -9.1588 -2.1484 -0.0716 2.1998 9.1674
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 2.45751 0.07369 33.35 <2e-16 ***
## d.hat 5.35060 0.13465 39.74 <2e-16 ***
## ----
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
###
## Residual standard error: 2.823 on 4998 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.2401, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2399
## F-statistic: 1579 on 1 and 4998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Interpretation

Heterogenous TEs

- In constant treatment effects, $Y_i(1) Y_i(0) = \delta_i = \delta, \; orall i$
- Heterogeneous effects, $\delta_i
 eq \delta$
- With IV, what parameter did we just estimate? Need **monotonicity** assumption to answer this

Monotonicity

Assumption: Denote the effect of our instrument on treatment by π_{1i} . Monotonicity states that $\pi_{1i} \geq 0$ or $\pi_{1i} \leq 0, \ \forall i$.

- Allows for $\pi_{1i}=0$ (no effect on treatment for some people)
- All those affected by the instrument are affected in the same "direction"
- With heterogeneous ATE and monotonicity assumption, IV provides a "Local Average Treatment Effect" (LATE)

LATE and IV Interpretation

- LATE is the effect of treatment among those affected by the instrument (compliers only).
- Recall original Wald estimator:

$$\delta_{IV} = rac{E[Y_i|Z_i=1]-E[Y_i|Z_i=0]}{E[D_i|Z_i=1]-E[D_i|Z_i=0]} = E[Y_i(1)-Y_i(0)| ext{complier}]$$

• Practically, monotonicity assumes there are no defiers and restricts us to learning only about compliers

Is LATE meaningful?

- Learn about average treatment effect for compliers
- Different estimates for different compliers
 - IV based on merit scholarships
 - IV based on financial aid
 - Same compliers? Probably not

LATE with defiers

- In presence of defiers, IV estimates a weighted difference between effect on compliers and defiers (in general)
- LATE can be restored if subgroup of compliers accounts for the same percentage as defiers and has same LATE
- Offsetting behavior of compliers and defiers, so that remaining compliers dictate LATE