

# Omitted Variables<sup>1</sup>

STA431 Spring 2023

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# Overview

- 1 Omitted Variables
- 2 Instrumental Variables

# A Practical Data Analysis Problem

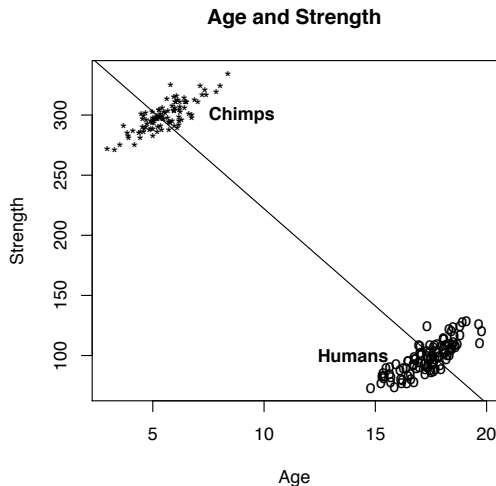
When more explanatory variables are added to a regression model and these additional explanatory variables are correlated with explanatory variables already in the model (as they usually are in an observational study),

- Statistical significance can appear when it was not present originally.
- Statistical significance that was originally present can disappear.
- Even the signs of the  $\hat{\beta}$ s can change, reversing the interpretation of how their variables are related to the response variable.

# An extreme, artificial example

To make a point

Suppose that in a certain population, the correlation between age and strength is  $r = -0.93$ .



# The fixed $x$ regression model

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i,1} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{i,p-1} + \epsilon_i \\ &= \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i, \end{aligned}$$

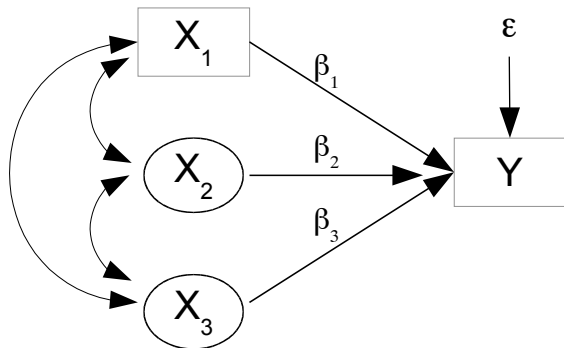
with  $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

- If viewed as conditional on  $\mathcal{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i$ , this model implies independence of  $\epsilon_i$  and  $\mathcal{X}_i$ , because the conditional distribution of  $\epsilon_i$  given  $\mathcal{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i$  does not depend on  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .
- What is  $\epsilon_i$ ? *Everything else* that affects  $Y_i$ .
- So the usual model says that if the explanatory variables are random, they have *zero covariance* with all other variables that are related to  $Y_i$ , but are not included in the model.
- For observational data (no random assignment), this assumption is almost always violated.
- Does it matter?

Example:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \beta_2 X_{i,2} + \beta_3 X_{i,3} + \epsilon_i$

As usual, the explanatory variables are random.

Suppose that the variables  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  affect  $Y$  and are correlated with  $X_1$ , but they are not part of the data set.



## Statement of the model

The explanatory variables  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  influence  $Y$  and are correlated with  $X_1$ , but they are not part of the data set.

The values of the response variable are generated as follows:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \beta_2 X_{i,2} + \beta_3 X_{i,3} + \epsilon_i,$$

independently for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , where  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ . The explanatory variables are random, with expected value and variance-covariance matrix

$$E \begin{pmatrix} X_{i,1} \\ X_{i,2} \\ X_{i,3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \mu_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{cov} \begin{pmatrix} X_{i,1} \\ X_{i,2} \\ X_{i,3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_{11} & \phi_{12} & \phi_{13} \\ & \phi_{22} & \phi_{23} \\ & & \phi_{33} \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $\epsilon_i$  is independent of  $X_{i,1}$ ,  $X_{i,2}$  and  $X_{i,3}$ . Values of the variables  $X_{i,2}$  and  $X_{i,3}$  are latent, and are not included in the data set.

Absorb  $X_2$  and  $X_3$ 

Since  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  are not observed, they are absorbed by the intercept and error term.

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \beta_2 X_{i,2} + \beta_3 X_{i,3} + \epsilon_i \\ &= (\beta_0 + \beta_2 \mu_2 + \beta_3 \mu_3) + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + (\beta_2 X_{i,2} + \beta_3 X_{i,3} - \beta_2 \mu_2 - \beta_3 \mu_3 + \epsilon_i) \\ &= \beta'_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \epsilon'_i. \end{aligned}$$

And,

$$\begin{aligned} Cov(X_{i,1}, \epsilon'_i) &= Cov(X_{i,1}, \beta_2 X_{i,2} + \beta_3 X_{i,3} - \beta_2 \mu_2 - \beta_3 \mu_3 + \epsilon_i) \\ &= \beta_2 Cov(X_{i,1}, X_{i,2}) + \beta_3 Cov(X_{i,1}, X_{i,3}) + Cov(X_{i,1}, \epsilon_i) \\ &= \beta_2 \phi_{12} + \beta_3 \phi_{13} \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$



# The “True” Regression Model

Almost always closer to the truth than the usual model, for observational data

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $E(X_i) = \mu_x$ ,  $Var(X_i) = \sigma_x^2$ ,  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ , and  $Cov(X_i, \epsilon_i) = c$ .

Under this model,

$$\sigma_{xy} = Cov(X_i, Y_i) = Cov(X_i, \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i) = \beta_1 \sigma_x^2 + c$$

Estimate  $\beta_1$  as usual with least squares

Recall  $Cov(X_i, Y_i) = \sigma_{xy} = \beta_1\sigma_x^2 + c$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\
 &= \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\
 &= \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{xy}}{\hat{\sigma}_x^2} \xrightarrow{p} \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x^2} \\
 &= \frac{\beta_1\sigma_x^2 + c}{\sigma_x^2} \\
 &= \beta_1 + \frac{c}{\sigma_x^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_1 \xrightarrow{p} \beta_1 + \frac{c}{\sigma_x^2}$$

It converges to the wrong thing.

- $\widehat{\beta}_1$  is inconsistent.
- For large samples it could be almost anything, depending on the value of  $c$ , the covariance between  $X_i$  and  $\epsilon_i$ .
- Small sample estimates could be accurate, but only by chance.
- The only time  $\widehat{\beta}_1$  behaves properly is when  $c = 0$ .
- Test  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$ : Probability of making a Type I error goes to one as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

# All this applies to multiple regression

Of course

*When a regression model fails to include all the explanatory variables that contribute to the response variable, and those omitted explanatory variables have non-zero covariance with variables that are in the model, the regression coefficients are inconsistent.*

*Estimation and inference are almost guaranteed to be misleading, especially for large samples.*

# Correlation-Causation

- The problem of omitted variables is a technical aspect of the correlation-causation issue.
- The omitted variables are “confounding” variables.
- With random assignment and good procedure,  $x$  and  $\epsilon$  have zero covariance.
- But random assignment is not always possible.
- Most applications of regression to observational data provide very poor information about the regression coefficients.
- Is bad information better than no information at all?

# How about another estimation method?

Other than ordinary least squares

- Can *any* other method be successful?
- This is a very practical question, because almost all regressions with observational data have the disease.

For simplicity, assume normality

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$$

- Assume  $(X_i, \epsilon_i)$  are bivariate normal.
- This makes  $(X_i, Y_i)$  bivariate normal.
- $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N_2(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ , where

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mu_x \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \beta_1 \sigma_x^2 + c \\ & \beta_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + 2\beta_1 c + \sigma_\epsilon^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- All you can ever learn from the data are the approximate values of  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ .
- Even if you knew  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  exactly, could you know  $\beta_1$ ?

## Five equations in six unknowns

The parameter is  $\theta = (\mu_x, \sigma_x^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2, c, \beta_0, \beta_1)$ . The distribution of the data is determined by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mu_x \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \beta_1 \sigma_x^2 + c \\ & \beta_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + 2\beta_1 c + \sigma_\epsilon^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $\mu_x = \mu_1$  and  $\sigma_x^2 = \sigma_{11}$ .
- The remaining 3 equations in 4 unknowns have infinitely many solutions.
- So infinitely many sets of parameter values yield the *same distribution of the sample data*.
- This is serious trouble – lack of parameter identifiability.
- *Definition:* If a parameter is a function of the distribution of the observable data, it is said to be *identifiable*.



## Showing identifiability

*Definition:* If a parameter is a function of the distribution of the observable data, it is said to be identifiable.

- How could a parameter be a function of a distribution?
- $d \sim F_\theta$  and  $\theta = g(F_\theta)$
- Usually  $g$  is defined in terms of moments.
- Example:  $F_\theta(x) = 1 - e^{-\theta x}$  and  $f_\theta(x) = \theta e^{-\theta x}$  for  $x > 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned}f_\theta(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} F_\theta(x) \\E(X) &= \int_0^\infty x f_\theta(x) dx = \frac{1}{\theta} \\ \theta &= \frac{1}{E(X)}\end{aligned}$$

Sometimes people use moment-generating functions or characteristic functions instead of just moments.

# Showing identifiability is like Method of Moments Estimation

- The distribution of the data is always a function of the parameters.
- The moments are always a function of the distribution of the data.
- If the parameters can be expressed as a function of the moments,
  - Put hats on to obtain MOM estimates,
  - Or observe that the parameter is a function of the distribution, and so is identifiable.

## Back to the five equations in six unknowns

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$$

$$\mathbf{d}_i = \begin{pmatrix} X_i \\ Y_i \end{pmatrix} \sim N_2(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}), \text{ where}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mu_x \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \cdot & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \beta_1 \sigma_x^2 + c \\ \cdot & \beta_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + 2\beta_1 c + \sigma_\epsilon^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

We have expressed the moments in terms of the parameters, but we can't solve for  $\theta = (\mu_x, \sigma_x^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2, c, \beta_0, \beta_1)$ .

## Skipping the High School algebra

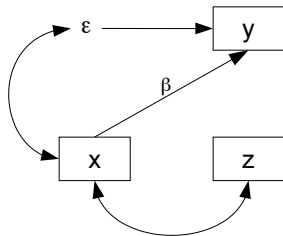
$$\theta = (\mu_x, \sigma_x^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2, c, \beta_0, \beta_1)$$

- For *any* given  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ , all the points in a one-dimensional subset of the 6-dimensional parameter space yield  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ , and hence the same distribution of the sample data.
- In that subset, values of  $\beta_1$  range from  $-\infty$  to  $-\infty$ , so  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$  could have been produced by *any* value of  $\beta_1$ .
- There is no way to distinguish between the possible values of  $\beta_1$  based on sample data.
- The problem is fatal, if all you can observe is  $X$  and  $Y$ .

# Instrumental Variables (Wright, 1928)

## A partial solution

- An instrumental variable is a variable that is correlated with an explanatory variable, but is not correlated with any error terms and has no direct connection to the response variable.



- An instrumental variable is often not the main focus of attention; it's just a tool.
- The usual definition is that conditionally on the  $x$  variables, the instrumental variables are independent of all the other variables in the model.
- In Econometrics, the instrumental variable usually *influences* the explanatory variable.

# Model One: A Simple Example

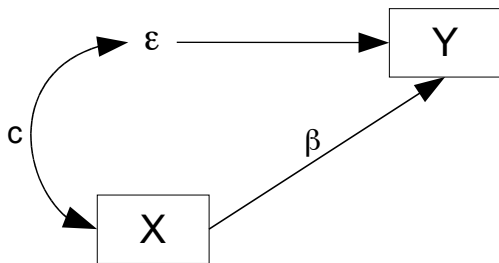
What is the contribution of income to credit card debt?

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $E(X_i) = \mu_x$ ,  $Var(X_i) = \sigma_x^2$ ,  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ , and  $Cov(X_i, \epsilon_i) = c$ .

# A path diagram of Model One

$Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + \epsilon_i$ , where  $E(X_i) = \mu$ ,  $Var(X_i) = \sigma_x^2$ ,  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ , and  $Cov(X_i, \epsilon_i) = c$ .



The least squares estimate of  $\beta$  is inconsistent, and so is every other possible estimate. (This is strictly true if the data are normal.)

## Model Two: Add an instrumental variable

An instrumental variable for an explanatory variable is another random variable that has non-zero covariance with the explanatory variable, and *no direct connection with any other variable in the model*.

Focus the study on real estate agents in many cities. Include median price of resale home.

- $X$  is income.
- $Y$  is credit card debt.
- $Z$  is median price of resale home.

$$X_i = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 Z_i + \epsilon_{i1}$$

$$Y_i = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_{i2}$$

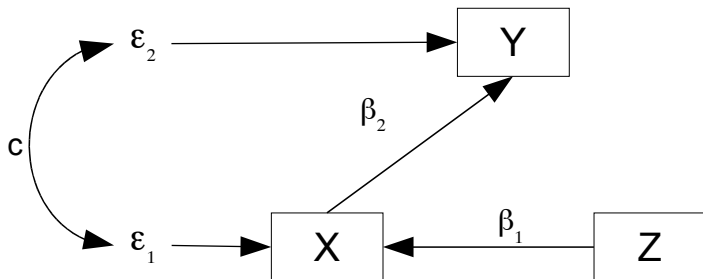


# Picture of Model Two

$Z_i$  is median price of resale home,  $X_i$  is income,  $Y_i$  is credit card debt.

$$X_i = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 Z_i + \epsilon_{i1}$$

$$Y_i = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_{i2}$$



Main interest is in  $\beta_2$ .

## Statement of Model Two

$Z_i$  is median price of resale home,  $X_i$  is income,  $Y_i$  is credit card debt.

$$\begin{aligned}X_i &= \alpha_1 + \beta_1 Z_i + \epsilon_{i1} \\Y_i &= \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_{i2},\end{aligned}$$

where

- $E(Z_i) = \mu_z$ ,  $Var(Z_i) = \sigma_z^2$ .
- $E(\epsilon_{i1}) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_{i1}) = \sigma_1^2$ .
- $E(\epsilon_{i2}) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_{i2}) = \sigma_2^2$ .
- $Cov(\epsilon_{i1}, \epsilon_{i2}) = c$ .
- $Z_i$  is independent of  $\epsilon_{i1}$  and  $\epsilon_{i2}$ .

Calculate the covariance matrix of the observable data for Model Two. Call it  $\Sigma = [\sigma_{ij}]$

From  $X_i = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 Z_i + \epsilon_{i1}$  and  $Y_i = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_{i2}$ , get the symmetric matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{array}{c|ccc} & X & Y & Z \\ \hline X & \beta_1^2 \sigma_z^2 + \sigma_1^2 & \beta_2(\beta_1^2 \sigma_z^2 + \sigma_1^2) + c & \beta_1 \sigma_z^2 \\ Y & \cdot & \beta_1^2 \beta_2^2 \sigma_z^2 + \beta_2^2 \sigma_1^2 + 2\beta_2 c + \sigma_2^2 & \beta_1 \beta_2 \sigma_z^2 \\ Z & \cdot & \cdot & \sigma_z^2 \end{array}$$

$$\beta_2 = \frac{\sigma_{23}}{\sigma_{13}}$$

## Parameter Estimation for Model Two

$$X_i = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 Z_i + \epsilon_{i1} \text{ and } Y_i = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_{i2}$$

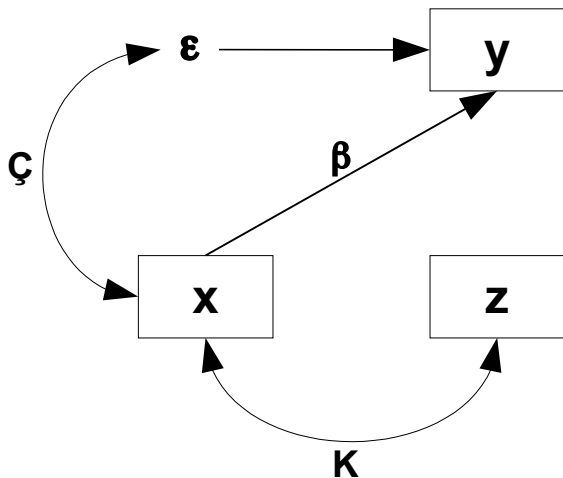
$$\Sigma =$$

	Z	X	Y
Z	$\sigma_w^2$	$\beta_1 \sigma_w^2$	$\beta_1 \beta_2 \sigma_w^2$
X	$\cdot$	$\beta_1^2 \sigma_w^2 + \sigma_1^2$	$\beta_2 (\beta_1^2 \sigma_w^2 + \sigma_1^2) + c$
Y	$\cdot$	$\cdot$	$\beta_1^2 \beta_2^2 \sigma_w^2 + \beta_2^2 \sigma_1^2 + 2\beta_2 c + \sigma_2^2$

- $\hat{\beta}_2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{23}}{\hat{\sigma}_{13}}$
- All the other parameters are identifiable too.
- The instrumental variable saved us.
- There are 9 model parameters, and 9 moments in  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ .
- The invariance principle yields explicit formulas for the MLEs.
- If the data are normal, MLEs equal the Method of Moments estimates because they are both 1-1 with the moments.

# Model Three: Matrix Version of Instrumental Variables

The usual rule is at least one instrumental variable for each explanatory variable.

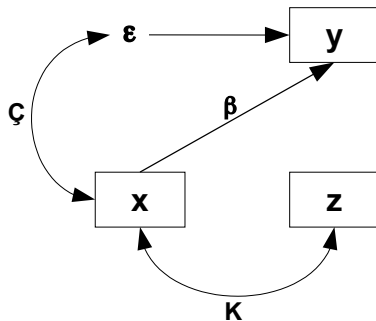


# Model Three is a Multivariate Regression Model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

With these additional stipulations

- $cov(\mathbf{x}_i, \epsilon_i) = \mathbf{C}$ , a  $p \times q$  matrix of covariances.
- There are at least  $p$  instrumental variables. Put the best  $p$  in the random vector  $\mathbf{z}_i$ .
- $cov(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_i) = \mathbf{K}$ ,  $p \times p$  matrix of covariances. Assume  $\mathbf{K}$  has an inverse.
- $cov(\mathbf{z}_i) = \mathbf{\Phi}_z$ .



## Moments for Model Three

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i, \quad \text{cov}(x_i, \epsilon_i) = \mathbf{C}, \quad \text{cov}(x_i, z_i) = \mathbf{\kappa}, \quad \text{cov}(z_i) = \Phi_z$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = E \begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ y_i \\ z_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mu_x \\ \mu_z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \text{cov} \begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ y_i \\ z_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_x & \Phi_x \beta_1^\top + \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{\kappa} \\ \beta_1 \Phi_x + \mathbf{C}^\top & \beta_1 \Phi_x \beta_1^\top + \beta_1 \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{C}^\top \beta_1^\top + \Psi & \beta_1 \mathbf{\kappa} \\ \mathbf{\kappa}^\top & \mathbf{\kappa}^\top \beta_1^\top & \Phi_z \end{pmatrix}$$

# Solve for the parameters from the moments

For Model Three

- Proving identifiability, so consistent estimation is possible.
- Obtain method of moments estimators.



Start with the covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ Parameters in the covariance matrix are  $\Phi_x, \beta_1, \kappa, \zeta, \Psi, \Phi_z$ 

$$\left( \begin{array}{c|c|c} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} & \Sigma_{13} \\ \hline \cdot & \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \\ \hline \cdot & \cdot & \Sigma_{33} \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{c|c|c} \Phi_x & \Phi_x \beta_1^\top + \zeta & \kappa \\ \hline \cdot & \beta_1 \Phi_x \beta_1^\top + \beta_1 \zeta + \zeta^\top \beta_1^\top + \Psi & \beta_1 \kappa \\ \hline \cdot & \cdot & \Phi_z \end{array} \right)$$

Six matrix equations in six unknowns.

## Solutions

Equations

$$\left( \begin{array}{c|c|c} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} & \Sigma_{13} \\ \hline \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} & \Sigma_{23} \\ \hline \Sigma_{31} & \Sigma_{32} & \Sigma_{33} \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{c|c|c} \Phi_x & \Phi_x \beta_1^\top + \zeta & \kappa \\ \hline \beta_1 \Phi_x + \zeta^\top & \beta_1 \Phi_x \beta_1^\top + \beta_1 \zeta + \zeta^\top \beta_1^\top + \Psi & \beta_1 \kappa \\ \hline \kappa^\top & \kappa^\top \beta_1^\top & \Phi_z \end{array} \right)$$

Solutions

$$\Phi_x = \Sigma_{11}$$

$$\kappa = \Sigma_{13}$$

$$\Phi_z = \Sigma_{33}$$

$$\beta_1 = \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1}$$

$$\zeta = \Sigma_{12} - \Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{31}^{-1} \Sigma_{32}$$

$$\Psi = \Sigma_{22} - \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1} \Sigma_{12} - \Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{31}^{-1} \Sigma_{32} + \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1} \Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{31}^{-1} \Sigma_{32}$$

## Solve for intercepts and expected values

Using

$$E \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\mathbf{x}_i}{\mathbf{y}_i} \\ \mathbf{z}_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \mu_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mu_x \\ \mu_z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mu_x = \mu_1$$

$$\mu_z = \mu_3$$

$$\beta_0 = \mu_2 - \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1} \mu_1$$

## Full Solution for Model Three

For the record

$$\Phi_x = \Sigma_{11}$$

$$\kappa = \Sigma_{13}$$

$$\Phi_z = \Sigma_{33}$$

$$\beta_1 = \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1}$$

$$\zeta = \Sigma_{12} - \Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{31}^{-1} \Sigma_{32}$$

$$\Psi = \Sigma_{22} - \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1} \Sigma_{12} - \Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{31}^{-1} \Sigma_{32} + \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1} \Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{31}^{-1} \Sigma_{32}$$

$$\mu_x = \mu_1$$

$$\mu_z = \mu_3$$

$$\beta_0 = \mu_2 - \Sigma_{23} \Sigma_{13}^{-1} \mu_1$$

## Method of Moments Estimators for Model Three

Just put hats on, and estimate population means with sample means

$$\widehat{\Phi}_x = \widehat{\Sigma}_{11}$$

$$\widehat{\kappa} = \widehat{\Sigma}_{13}$$

$$\widehat{\Phi}_z = \widehat{\Sigma}_{33}$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_1 = \widehat{\Sigma}_{23} \widehat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1}$$

$$\widehat{C} = \widehat{\Sigma}_{12} - \widehat{\Sigma}_{11} \widehat{\Sigma}_{31}^{-1} \widehat{\Sigma}_{32}$$

$$\widehat{\Psi} = \widehat{\Sigma}_{22} - \widehat{\Sigma}_{23} \widehat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1} \widehat{\Sigma}_{12} - \widehat{\Sigma}_{21} \widehat{\Sigma}_{31}^{-1} \widehat{\Sigma}_{32} + \widehat{\Sigma}_{23} \widehat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1} \widehat{\Sigma}_{11} \widehat{\Sigma}_{31}^{-1} \widehat{\Sigma}_{32}$$

$$\widehat{\mu}_x = \bar{x}$$

$$\widehat{\mu}_z = \bar{z}$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \widehat{\Sigma}_{23} \widehat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1} \bar{x}$$

## Count the Parameters in Model Three

$$\theta = (\boldsymbol{\mu}_x, \boldsymbol{\mu}_z, \boldsymbol{\beta}_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}_1, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_x, \boldsymbol{\Psi}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_z, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{C}}, \boldsymbol{\kappa})$$

- $\boldsymbol{\mu}_x$  is a  $p \times 1$  vector of expected values. That's  $p$  parameters.
- $\boldsymbol{\mu}_z$  is a  $p \times 1$  vector of expected values. That's  $p$  more parameters.
- $\boldsymbol{\beta}_0$  is a  $q \times 1$  vector of intercepts. That's  $q$  parameters.
- $\boldsymbol{\beta}_1$  is a  $p \times q$  matrix of regression coefficients. That's  $pq$  parameters.
- $cov(\mathbf{x}_i) = \boldsymbol{\Phi}_x$  is a  $p \times p$  covariance matrix, with  $p(p+1)/2$  unique elements.
- $cov(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i) = \boldsymbol{\Psi}$  is a  $q \times q$  covariance matrix, with  $q(q+1)/2$  unique elements.
- $cov(\mathbf{z}_i) = \boldsymbol{\Phi}_z$  is a  $p \times p$  covariance matrix, with  $p(p+1)/2$  unique elements.
- $cov(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i) = \boldsymbol{\mathcal{C}}$  is a  $p \times q$  matrix of covariances. That's  $pq$  more parameters.
- $cov(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_i) = \boldsymbol{\kappa}$  is  $p \times p$  matrix of covariances. That's  $p^2$  more parameters.

# Counting

- Parameters

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 2p + q + pq + \frac{p(p+1)}{2} + \frac{q(q+1)}{2} + \frac{p(p+1)}{2} + pq + p^2 \\
 = & \quad 3p + q + 2p^2 + 2pq + \frac{q^2}{2} + \frac{q}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Moments

- There are  $2p + q$  expected values in  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 | \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 | \boldsymbol{\mu}_3)^\top$ .
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  has  $2p + q$  rows and  $2p + q$  columns, for  $(2p + q)(2p + q + 1)/2$  unique elements.
- Total number of moments is  $3p + q + 2p^2 + 2pq + \frac{q^2}{2} + \frac{q}{2}$ .

# Invariance

The MLE of a 1-1 function is that function of the MLE

- Pretend the data  $\mathbf{d}_i$  are multivariate normal.
- Unrestricted multivariate normal MLE of  $(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  is  $(\bar{\mathbf{d}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}})$ .
- The moments  $(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  are a function of the model parameters in  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ .
- By solving equations, we have shown that the model parameters are also a function of the moments and there are the same number of moments and model parameters.
- The function is one-to-one (injective).
- By invariance,  $(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) \leftrightarrow \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ .
- And the MOM estimates are also the MLEs.



# Explicit formulas for the Maximum Likelihood Estimators: Model Three

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\Sigma}_{23} \hat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1} \bar{x}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \hat{\Sigma}_{23} \hat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1}$$

$$\hat{\Psi} = \hat{\Sigma}_{22} - \hat{\Sigma}_{23} \hat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1} \hat{\Sigma}_{12} - \hat{\Sigma}_{21} \hat{\Sigma}_{31}^{-1} \hat{\Sigma}_{32} + \hat{\Sigma}_{23} \hat{\Sigma}_{13}^{-1} \hat{\Sigma}_{11} \hat{\Sigma}_{31}^{-1} \hat{\Sigma}_{32}$$

$$\hat{C} = \hat{\Sigma}_{12} - \hat{\Sigma}_{11} \hat{\Sigma}_{31}^{-1} \hat{\Sigma}_{32}$$

$$\hat{\Phi}_x = \hat{\Sigma}_{11}$$

$$\hat{\kappa} = \hat{\Sigma}_{13}$$

$$\hat{\Phi}_z = \hat{\Sigma}_{33}$$

$$\hat{\mu}_x = \bar{x}$$

$$\hat{\mu}_z = \bar{z}$$

## Multivariate Normal Likelihood

$$\mathbf{d}_1, \dots, \mathbf{d}_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$\begin{aligned} L(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{\frac{1}{2}} (2\pi)^{\frac{p}{2}}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{d}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{d}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} \\ &= |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{n}{2}} (2\pi)^{-\frac{np}{2}} \times \\ &\quad \exp -\frac{n}{2} \left\{ \text{tr}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}) + (\bar{\mathbf{d}} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{d}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{d}_i - \bar{\mathbf{d}})(\mathbf{d}_i - \bar{\mathbf{d}})^\top$

# Comments

- Instrumental variables are a great technical solution to the problem of omitted variables
- But good instrumental variables are not easy to find.
- They will not just happen to be in the data set, except by a miracle.
- They really have to come from another universe, but still have a strong and clear connection to the explanatory variable.
- Data collection has to be *planned*.
- Wright's original example was tax policy for cooking oil.

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