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FNCE 926

Empirical Methods in CF

**Lecture 10 – Matching**

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Professor Todd Gormley

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# Announcements -- *Research Proposal*

- ❑ You can find my detailed comments about your rough draft on Canvas
- ❑ Try to come see me before starting final draft if have questions about comments
- ❑ See six example proposals on Canvas
- ❑ Final proposal due on May 3

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# Announcements – *Exercise #4*

- Exercise #4 is due next week
  - Please upload to Canvas, Thanks!

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# Background readings for today

- Roberts-Whited, *Section 6*
- Angrist-Pischke, *Sections 3.3.1-3.3.3*
- Wooldridge, *Section 21.3.5*

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# Outline for Today

- Quick review of last lecture on “errors”
- Discuss matching
  - What it does...
  - And what it doesn't do
- Discuss Heckman selection model
- Student presentations of “Error” papers

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# Quick Review *[Part 1]*

- What are 3 data limitations to keep in mind?
  - **#1 – Measurement error;** some variables may be measured with error [*e.g. industry concentration using Compustat*] leading to incorrect inferences
  - **#2 – Survivorship bias;** entry and exit of obs. isn't random and this can affect inference
  - **#3 – External validity;** our data often only covers certain types of firms and need to keep this in mind when making inferences

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## Quick Review [Part 2]

- What is *AdjY* estimator, and why is it inconsistent with unobserved heterogeneity?
  - **Answer** = *AdjY* demeans  $y$  with respect to group; it is inconsistent because it fails to account for how group mean of  $X$ 's affect adjusted- $Y$ 
    - E.g. “industry-adjust”
    - Diversification discount lit. has similar problem
    - Asset pricing has examples of this [*What?*]

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## Quick Review *[Part 3]*

- Comparing characteristically-adjusted stock returns across portfolios sorted on some other  $X$  is example of  $AdjY$  in AP
  - What is proper way to control for unobserved characteristic-linked risk factors?
  - **Answer** = Add benchmark portfolio-period FE  
*[See Gormley & Matsa (2014)]*



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## Quick Review [*Part 4*]

- What is *AvgE* estimator; why is it biased?
  - **Answer** = Uses group mean of  $y$  as control for unobserved group-level heterogeneity; biased because of measurement error problem

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## Quick Review *[Part 5]*

- What are two ways to estimate model with two, high-dimensional FE [e.g. firm and industry-year FE]?
  - **Answer #1:** Create interacted FE and sweep it away with usual within transformation
  - **Answer #2:** Use iterations to solve FE estimates

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# Matching – *Outline*

- Introduction to matching
  - Comparison to OLS regression
  - Key limitations and uses
- How to do matching
- Practical considerations
- Testing the assumptions
- Key weaknesses and uses of matching

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# Matching Methods – *Basic Idea [Part 1]*

- Matching approach to estimate treatment effect is very intuitive and simple
  - For each treated observation, you find a “matching” untreated observation that serves as the de facto counterfactual
  - Then, compare outcome,  $y$ , of treated observations to outcome of matched obs.

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# Matching Methods – *Basic Idea [Part 2]*

- A bit more formally...
  - For each value of  $X$ , where there is both a treated and untreated observation...
    - Match treated observations with  $X=X'$  to untreated observations with same  $X=X'$
    - Take difference in their outcomes,  $y$
  - Then, use average difference across all the  $X$ 's as estimate of treatment effect

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# Matching Methods – *Intuition*

- What two things is matching approach basically assuming about the treatment?
  - **Answer #1** = Treatment isn't random; if it were, would not need to match on  $X$  before taking average difference in outcomes
  - **Answer #2** = Treatment is random *conditional* on  $X$ ; i.e. controlling for  $X$ , untreated outcome captures the unobserved treated counterfactual

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# Matching is a “Control Strategy”

- Can think of matching as just a way to control for necessary  $X$ 's to ensure CMI strategy necessary for causality holds

**What is another control strategy we could use to estimate treatment effect?**

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# Matching and OLS; not that different

- **Answer = Regression!**
  - I.e. could just regress  $y$  onto indicator for treatment with necessary controls for  $X$  to ensure CMI assumption holds
    - E.g. to mirror matching estimator, you could just put in indicators for each value of  $X$  as the set of controls in the regression

**So, how are matching & regression different?**



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# Matching *versus* Regression

- Basically, can think of OLS estimate as particular weighted matching estimator
  - Demonstrating this difference in weighting can be a bit technical...
    - See Angrist-Pischke Section 3.3.1 for more details on this issue, but following example will help illustrate this...

# Matching *vs* Regression – Example [P1]

- Example of difference in weighting...
  - First, do simple matching estimate
  - Then, do OLS where regress  $y$  on treatment indicator and you control for  $X$ 's by adding indicators for each value of  $X$ 
    - This is very nonparametric and general way to control for covariates  $X$
    - If think about it, this is very similar to matching; OLS will be comparing outcomes for treated and untreated with same  $X$ 's

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## Matching *vs* Regression – Example [P2]

- But, *even in this example*, you'll get different estimates from OLS and matching
  - Matching gives more weight to obs. with  $X=X'$  when there are more treated with that  $X'$
  - OLS gives more weight to obs. with  $X=X'$  when there is more variation in treatment [*i.e. we observe a more equal ratio of treated & untreated*]

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# Matching *vs* Regression – **Bottom Line**

- Angrist-Pischke argue that, in general, differences between matching and OLS are not of much empirical importance
- **Moreover, similar to OLS, matching has a serious limitation...**

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## Matching – *Key Limitation [Part 1]*

- What sets matching estimator apart from other estimators like IV, natural experiments, and regression discontinuity?
  - **Answer** = It does not rely on any clear source of exogenous variation!
    - I.e. If OLS estimate of treatment effect is biased, so is a matching estimator of treatment effect!

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## Matching – *Key Limitation [Part 2]*

- And, we abandoned OLS for a reason...
  - If original treatment isn't random (i.e. exogenous), it is often difficult to believe that controlling for some  $X$ 's will somehow restore randomness
    - E.g. there could be problematic, *unobserved* heterogeneity
    - **Note:** regression discontinuity design is exception
  - Matching estimator suffers same problem!

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## Matching – *Key Limitation [Part 3]*

- Please remember this!
- Matching does **NOT** and **cannot** be used...
  - To fix simultaneity bias problem
  - To eliminate measurement error bias...
  - To fix omitted variable bias from unobservable variables [*can't match on what you can't observe!*]

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## Matching – *So, what good is it? [Part 1]*

- Prior slides would seem to suggest matching isn't that useful...
  - Basically just another control strategy that is less dependent on functional form of  $X$
  - Doesn't resolve identification concerns
- But, there are some uses...



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## Matching – *So, what good is it? [Part 2]*

- Can be used...
  - To do robustness check on OLS estimate
  - To better screen the data used in OLS
- Can sometimes have better finite-sample properties than OLS

**More about these later...**

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# Matching – *Outline*

- Introduction to matching
- How to do matching
  - Notation & assumptions
  - Matching on covariates
  - Matching on propensity score
- Practical considerations
- Testing the assumptions
- Key weaknesses and uses of matching

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## First some notation...

- Suppose want to know effect of treatment,  $d$ , where  $d = 1$  if treated,  $d = 0$  if not treated
- Outcome  $y$  is given by...
  - $y(1)$  = outcome if  $d = 1$
  - $y(0)$  = outcome if  $d = 0$
- Observable covariates are  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$

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# Identification Assumptions

- Matching requires two assumptions in order to estimate treatment effect
  - “Unconfoundedness”
  - “Overlap”

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## *Assumption #1 – Unconfoundedness*

- Outcomes  $y(0)$  and  $y(1)$  are statistically independent of treatment,  $d$ , conditional on the observable covariates,  $X$ 
  - I.e. you can think of assignment to treatment as random once you control for  $X$

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# “Unconfoundedness” explained...

- This assumption is stronger version of typical CMI assumption that we make
  - It is equivalent to saying treatment,  $d$ , is independent of error  $u$ , in following regression

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \gamma d + u$$

- **Note:** This stronger assumption needed in certain matching estimators, like propensity score

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## *Assumption #2 – Overlap*

- For each value of covariates, there is a positive probability of being in the treatment group *and* in the control group
  - I.e. There will be both treatment and control observations available when match on  $X$
  - **Why do we need this assumption?**
    - **Answer =** It would be problematic to do a matching estimator if we didn't have both treated and untreated observations with the same  $X$ !

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# “Overlap” in practice

- In reality, we don't have “overlap”
  - E.g. think about continuous variables; observations won't have exact same  $X$
  - As we'll see shortly, we end instead use observations with “similar”  $X$  in matching
    - This actually causes matching estimator to be biased and inconsistent; but there are ways to correct for this [see Abadie and Imbens (2008)]



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# Average Treatment Effect (ATE)

- With both assumptions, easy to show that ATE for subsample with  $X = X'$  is equal to difference in outcome between treated and control observations with  $X = X'$ 
  - See Roberts and Whited page 68 for proof
  - To get ATE for population, just integrate over distribution  $X$  (i.e. take average ATE over all the  $X$ 's weighting based on probability of  $X$ )

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# Difficulty with exact matching

- In practice, difficult to use exact matches when matching on # of  $X$ 's (i.e.  $k$ ) is large
  - May not have both treated and control for each possible combination of  $X$ 's
  - This is surely true when any  $x$  is continuous (i.e. it doesn't just take on discrete values)

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# Matching – *Outline*

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# Matching on Covariates – *Step #1*

- Select a distance metric,  $\|X_i - X_j\|$ 
  - It tells us how far apart the vector of  $X$ 's for observation  $i$  are from  $X$ 's for observation  $j$
  - One example would be Euclidean distance

$$\|X_i - X_j\| = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)'(X_i - X_j)}$$

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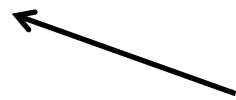
## Matching on Covariates – *Step #2*

- For each observation,  $i$ , find  $M$  closest matches (based on chosen distance metric) among observations where  $d \neq d_i$ 
  - I.e. for a treated observation (i.e.  $d = 1$ ) find the  $M$  closest matches among untreated observations
  - For an untreated observation (i.e.  $d = 0$ ), find the  $M$  closest matches among treated observations

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## Before Step #3... some notation

- Define  $l_m(i)$  as  $m^{\text{th}}$  closest match to observation  $i$  among obs. where  $d \neq d_i$ 
  - E.g. suppose obs.  $i=4$  is treated [*i.e.*  $d=1$ ]
    - $l_1(4)$  would represent the closest untreated observation to observation  $i=4$
    - $l_2(4)$  would be the second closest, and so on
- Define  $L_M(i) = \{l_m(i), \dots, l_M(i)\}$



**Just way of labeling  $M$   
closest obs. to obs.  $i$**

## Matching on Covariates – Step #3

- Create imputed untreated outcome,  $\hat{y}_i(0)$ , and treated outcome,  $\hat{y}_i(1)$ , for each obs.  $i$

$$\hat{y}_i(0) = \begin{cases} y_i & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j \in L_M(i)} y_j & \text{if } d_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{y}_i(1) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j \in L_M(i)} y_j & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\ y_i & \text{if } d_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

**In words, what is this doing?**

# Interpretation...

But, we don't observe the counterfactual,  $y(0)$ ; so, we estimate it using average outcome of  $M$  closest untreated observations!

$$\hat{y}_i(0) = \begin{cases} y_i & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j \in L_M(i)} y_j & \text{if } d_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{y}_i(1) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j \in L_M(i)} y_j & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\ y_i & \text{if } d_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

If obs.  $i$  was treated, we observe the actual outcome,  $y(1)$



# Interpretation...

$$\hat{y}_i(0) = \begin{cases} y_i & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j \in L_M(i)} y_j & \text{if } d_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{y}_i(1) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j \in L_M(i)} y_j & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\ y_i & \text{if } d_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

And vice versa, if obs.  $i$  had been untreated; we impute unobserved counterfactual using average outcome of  $M$  closest treated obs.

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## Matching on Covariates – *Step #4*

- With assumptions #1 and #2, average treatment effect (ATE) is given by:

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [\hat{y}_i(1) - \hat{y}_i(0)]$$

**In words, what is this doing?**

**Answer** = Taking simple average of difference between observed outcome and constructed counterfactual for each observation

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# Matching – *Outline*

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  - Matching on propensity score
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# Matching on propensity score

- Another way to do matching is to first estimate a propensity score using covariates,  $X$ , and then match on it...

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# Propensity Score, $ps(x)$ [Part 1]

- Propensity score,  $ps(x)$ , is probability of treatment given  $X$  [i.e.  $Pr(d = 1 | X)$ ], which is equal to CEF  $E[d | X]$
- Intuitive measure...
  - Basically collapses your  $k$ -dimensional vector  $X$  into a 1-dimensional measure of the probability of treatment i.e. given the  $X$ 's
  - Can estimate this in many ways including discrete choice models like Probit and Logit

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## Propensity Score, $ps(x)$ [Part 2]

- With unconfoundedness assumption, conditioning on  $ps(X)$  is sufficient to identify average treatment effect; i.e.
  - I.e. controlling for probability of treatment (as predicted by  $X$ ) is sufficient
    - Can do matching using just  $ps(X)$
    - Or, can regress  $y$  on treatment indicator,  $d$ , and add propensity score as control

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## Matching on $ps(X)$ – Step #1

- Estimate propensity score,  $ps(X)$ , for each observation  $i$ 
  - For example, estimate  $d = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + u_i$  using OLS, Probit, or Logit
    - Common practice is to use Logit with few polynomial terms for any continuous covariates
  - Predicted value for observation  $i$  is its propensity score,  $ps(X_i)$

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## *Tangent about Step #1*

- **Note:** You only need to include  $X$ 's that predict treatment,  $d$ 
  - This may be less than full set of  $X$ 's
  - In fact, being able to exclude some  $X$ 's (because economic logic suggests they shouldn't predict  $d$ ) can improve finite sample properties of the matching estimate



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## Matching on $ps(X)$ – *Remaining Steps...*

- Now, use same steps as before, but choose  $M$  closest matches using observations with closest propensity score
  - E.g. if obs.  $i$  is untreated, choose  $M$  treated observations with closest propensity scores

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## Propensity score – *Advantage # 1*

- Propensity score helps avoid concerns about subjective choices we make with matching
  - As we'll see next, there are a lot of subjective choices you need to make [*e.g. distance metric, matching method, etc.*] when matching on covariates

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## Propensity score – *Advantage # 2*

- Can skip matching entirely, and estimate ATE using sample analog of

$$E \left[ \frac{(d_i - ps(X_i)) y_i}{ps(X_i)(1 - ps(X_i))} \right]$$

- See Angrist-Pischke, Section 3.3.2 for more details about why this works

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## But, there is a disadvantage (sort of)

A red circular icon containing a black question mark, positioned to the right of the main title.

- Can get lower standard errors by instead matching on covariates if add more variables that explain  $y$ , but don't necessarily explain  $d$ 
  - Same as with OLS; more covariates can increase precision even if not needed for identification
  - **But**, Angrist and Hahn (2004) show that using  $p_s(X)$  and ignoring these covariates can actually result in better finite sample properties

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# Matching – *Outline*

- Introduction to matching
- How to do matching
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# Practical Considerations

- There are a lot of practical considerations and choices to make with matching; e.g.,
  - Which distance metric to use?
  - How many matches for each observation?
  - Match with or without replacement?
  - Which covariates  $X$  should be used?
  - Use propensity score, and if so, how measure it?

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# Choice of distance metric [Part 1]

- What is downside to simple Euclidean distance metric from earlier?

$$\|X_i - X_j\| = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)'(X_i - X_j)}$$

- **Answer =** It ignores the potentially different scales of each variable [*which is why it typically isn't used in practice*]
  - Which variables will have more effect in determining best matches with this metric?

# Choice of distance metric [Part 2]

- Two other possible distance metrics standardize distances using inverse of covariates' variances and covariances
  - Abadie and Imbens (2006)

$$\|X_i - X_j\| = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)' \text{diag}(\Sigma_X^{-1})(X_i - X_j)}$$

- Mahalanobis [*probably most popular*]

$$\|X_i - X_j\| = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)' (\Sigma_X^{-1})(X_i - X_j)}$$

Inverse of variance-covariance matrix for covariates



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# Choice of matching approach

- Should you match based on covariates, or instead match using a propensity score?
  - And, if use propensity score, should you use Probit, Logit, OLS, or nonparametric approach?
- **Unfortunately, no clear answer**
  - Want whichever is going to be most accurate...
  - But, probably should show robustness to several different approaches

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## And, how many matches? *[Part 1]*

- Again, no clear answer...
- Tradeoff is between bias and precision
  - Using single best match will be least biased estimate of counterfactual, **but** *least precise*
  - Using more matches increases precision, **but** worsens quality of match and potential bias

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# And, how many matches? *[Part 2]*

- Two ways used to choose matches
  - “Nearest neighbor matching”
    - This is what we saw earlier; you choose the  $m$  matches that are closest using your distance metric
  - “Caliper matching”
    - Choose all matches that fall within some radius
    - E.g. if using propensity score, could choose all matches within 1% of observation’s propensity score

**Question:** What is intuitive advantage of caliper approach?

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# And, how many matches? *[Part 3]*

- **Bottom line advice**

- Best to try multiple approaches to ensure robustness of the findings
  - If adding more matches (or expanding radius in caliper approach) changes estimates, then bias is potential issue and should probably stick to smaller number of potential matches
  - If not, and only precision increases, then okay to use a larger set of matches

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# With or without replacement? *[Part 1]*

- Matching with replacement
  - Each observation can serve as a match for multiple observations
  - Produces better matches, reducing potential bias, but at loss of precision
- Matching without replacement

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# With or without replacement? *[Part 2]*

- **Bottom line advice...**
  - Roberts-Whited recommend to do matching with replacement...
    - Our goal should be to reduce bias
    - In matching *without* replacement, the order in which you match can affect estimates

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# Which covariates?

- Need all  $X$ 's that affect outcome,  $y$ , and are correlated with treatment,  $d$  [*Why?*]
  - Otherwise, you'll have omitted variables!
- But, do not include any covariates that might be affected by treatment
  - Again, same “bad control” problem

**Question:** What might be way to control for  $X$  that could be a “bad control”?

**Answer:**  
Use lagged  $X$

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# Matches for whom?

- If use matches for all observations (as done earlier), you estimate ATE
  - But, if only use and find matches for treated observations, you estimate average treatment effect on treated (ATT)
  - If only use and find matches for untreated, you estimate average treatment effect on untreated (ATU)



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# Testing “Overlap” Assumption

- If only one  $X$  or using  $ps(X)$ , can just plot distribution for treated & untreated
- If using multiple  $X$ , identify and inspect worst matches for each  $x$  in  $X$ 
  - If difference between match and observation is large relative to standard deviation of  $x$ , might have problem

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## If there is lack of “Overlap”

- Approach is very subjective...
  - Could try discarding observations with bad matches to ensure robustness
  - Could try switching to caliper matching with propensity score

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# Testing “Unconfoundedness”

- **How might you try to test unconfoundedness assumption?**
  - **Answer** = Trick question; you can't! We do not observe error,  $u$ , and therefore can't know if treatment,  $d$ , is independent of it!
  - *Again*, we cannot test whether the equations we estimate are causal!

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## But, there are other things to try...

- Similar to natural experiment, can do various robustness checks; e.g.
  - Test to make sure timing of observed treatment effect is correct
  - Test to make sure treatment doesn't affect other outcomes that should, theoretically, be unaffected
    - Or, look at subsamples where treatment effect should either be larger or smaller

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# Matching – *Outline*

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# Weaknesses Reiterated [*Part 1*]

- As we've just seen, there isn't clear guidance on how to do matching
  - Choices on distance metric, matching approach, # of matches, etc. are subjective
  - Or, what is best way to estimate propensity score? Logit, probit, nonparametric?
- Different researchers, using different methods might get different answers!

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## Weaknesses Reiterated [Part 2]

- And, as noted earlier, matching is not a way to deal with identification problem
  - Does **NOT** help with simultaneity, unobserved omitted variables, or measurement error
  - Original OLS estimate of regressing  $y$  on treatment,  $d$ , and  $X$ 's is similar but weighting observations in particular way



# *Tangent* – Related Problem

What is wrong  
with this claim?

- Often see a researcher estimate:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d + ps(X) + u$$

- $d$  = indicator for some non-random event
  - $ps(X)$  = prop. score for likelihood of treatment estimated using some fancy, complicated Logit
- Then, researcher will claim:  
“Because  $ps(X)$  controls for any selection bias,  
I estimate causal effect of treatment”

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## *Tangent – Related Problem [Part 2]*

- Researcher assumes that observable  $X$  captures **ALL** relevant omitted variables
  - I.e. there aren't any unobserved variables that affect  $y$  and are correlated with  $d$
  - This is often not true... Remember long list of unobserved omitted factors discussed in lecture on panel data
- **Just because it seems fancy or complicated doesn't mean it's identified!**

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## Another Weakness – *Inference*

- There isn't always consensus or formal method for calculating SE and doing inference based on estimates
- **So, what good is it, and when should we bother using it?**

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# Use as a robustness check

- Can use as robustness check to OLS estimation of treatment effect
  - It avoids functional form assumptions imposed by the regression; so, provides a nice sanity check on OLS estimates
    - Angrist-Pischke argue, however, that it won't find much difference in practice if have right covariates, particularly if researcher uses regression with flexible controls for  $X$

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# Use as precursor to regression *[Part 1]*

- Can use matching to screen sample used in later regression
  - **Ex. #1** – Could estimate propensity score; then do estimation using only sample where the score lies between 10% and 90%
    - Helps ensure estimation is done only using obs. with sufficient # of controls and treated
    - Think of it as ensuring sufficient overlap

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# Use as precursor to regression [*Part 2*]

- **Ex. #2** – Could estimate effect of treatment using only control observations that match characteristics of treated obs.
  - E.g. If industry  $X$  is hit by shock, select control sample to firms matched to similar industry

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## Matching – *Practical Advice*

- User-written program, “**psmatch2**,” in Stata can be used to do matching and obtain estimates of standard errors
  - Program is flexible and can do variety of different matching techniques

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## Summary of Today *[Part 1]*

- “Matching” is another control method
  - Use to estimate treatment effect in cases where treatment is random after controlling for  $X$
  - Comparable to OLS estimation of treatment effect, just without functional form assumptions
- Besides controlling for  $X$ , matching does **NOT** resolve or fix identification problems



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## Summary of Today *[Part 2]*

- Many different ways to do matching; e.g.
  - Match on covariates or propensity scores
  - Nearest neighbor or caliper matching
- Primarily used as robustness test
  - If have right covariates,  $X$ , and relatively flexible OLS model, matching estimate of ATE will typically be quite similar to OLS

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# In First Half of Next Class

- Standard errors & clustering
  - Should you use “robust” or “classic” SE?
  - “Clustering” and when to use it
- Limited dependent variables...  
are Probit, Logit, or Tobit needed?
- Related readings... see syllabus

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# Assign papers for next week...

- Morse (JFE 2011)
  - Payday lenders
- Colak and Whited (RFS 2007)
  - Spin-offs, divestitures, and investment
- Almeida, et al (working paper, 2014)
  - Credit ratings & sovereign credit ceiling

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# Break Time

- Let's take our 10 minute break
- We'll quickly cover Heckman selection models and then do presentations when we get back

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# Heckman selection models

- Motivation
- How to implement
- Limitations [i.e., why I don't like them]

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# Motivation [Part 1]

- You want to estimate something like...

$$Y_i = \mathbf{b}X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

- $Y_i$  = post-IPO outcome for firm  $i$
- $X_i$  = vector of covariates that explain  $Y$
- $\varepsilon_{i,t}$  = error term
- **Sample** = all firms that did IPO in that year

- **What is a potential concern?**

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## Motivation *[Part 2]*

- **Answer** = certain firms ‘self-select’ to do an IPO, and the factors that drive that choice might cause **X** to be correlated with  $\epsilon_{i,t}$ 
  - It’s basically an omitted variable problem!
  - **If willing to make some assumptions, can use Heckman two-step selection model to control for this selection bias**

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## How to implement *[Part 1]*

- Assume to choice to ‘self-select’ [*in this case, do an IPO*] has following form...

$$IPO_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \gamma Z_i + \eta_i > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \gamma Z_i + \eta_i \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

- $Z_i$  = factors that drive choice [i.e., *IPO*]
- $\eta_{i,t}$  = error term for this choice



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## How to implement [Part 2]

- Regress choice variable (i.e., *IPO*) onto  $Z$  using a Probit model
- Then, use predicted values to calculate the Inverse Mills Ratio for each observation,  $\lambda_i = \phi(\gamma Z_i) / \Phi(\gamma Z_i)$
- Then, estimate original regression of  $Y_i$  onto  $X_i$ , but add  $\lambda_i$  as a control!



**Basically, controls directly for omitted variable; e.g. choice to do IPO**

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## Limitations *[Part 1]*

- Model for choice [*i.e., first step of the estimation*] must be correct; otherwise inconsistent!
- Requires assumption that the errors,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\eta$ , have a **bivariate normal distribution**
  - Can't test, and no reason to believe this is true [*i.e., what is the economic story behind this?*]
  - And, if wrong... estimates are inconsistent!

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## Limitations *[Part 2]*

- Can technically work if  $Z$  is just a subset of the  $X$  variables [*which is commonly what people seem to do*], but...
  - But, in this case, all identification relies on non-linearity of the inverse mills ratio [*otherwise, it would be collinear with the  $X$  in the second step*]
  - **But again, this is entirely dependent on the bivariate normality assumption and lacks any economic intuition!**

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## Limitations [Part 3]

- When  $Z$  has variables not in  $X$  [*i.e., excluded instruments*], then could just do IV instead!
  - I.e., estimate  $Y_i = \mathbf{b}\mathbf{X}_i + IPO_i + \varepsilon_i$  on full sample using excluded IVs as instruments for IPO
  - Avoids unintuitive, untestable assumption of bivariate normal error distribution!