

# Identification-Robust Nonparametric Inference in a Linear IV Model\*

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## Abstract

For a linear IV regression, we propose two new inference procedures on parameters of endogenous variables that are robust to any identification pattern, do not rely on a linear first-stage equation, and account for heteroskedasticity of unknown form. Building on Bierens (1982), we first propose an Integrated Conditional Moment (ICM) type statistic constructed by setting the parameters to the value under the null hypothesis. The ICM procedure tests at the same time the value of the coefficient and the specification of the model. We then adopt the conditionality principle used by Moreira (2003) to condition on a set of ICM statistics that informs on identification strength. Our two procedures uniformly control size irrespective of identification strength. They are powerful irrespective of the nonlinear form of the link between instruments and endogenous variables and are competitive with existing procedures in simulations and applications.

Keywords: Weak Instruments, Hypothesis Testing, Semiparametric Model.

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# 1 Introduction

We consider cross-sectional data observations and the standard linear model popular in microeconometrics

$$y_i = Y_{2i}'\beta + X_{1i}'\gamma + u_i \quad \mathbb{E}(u_i|X_{1i}, X_{2i}) = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (1.1)$$

where  $Y_2$  are endogenous variables,  $X_1$  are exogenous control variables, and  $X_2$  are exogenous instrumental variables. We focus on inference on the parameter  $\beta$  of the endogenous variables. Over the last 30 years, it has become clear that standard asymptotic approximations may reflect poorly what is observed even for large samples when there is weak correlation between instrumental variables and endogenous explanatory variables. Alternative asymptotic frameworks have then been developed to account for potentially weak identification and tests have been proposed that deliver reliable inference about parameters of interest, see e.g. Staiger and Stock (1997), Stock and Wright (2000), Moreira (2003), Kleibergen (2002, 2005), Andrews and Cheng (2012), Andrews and Guggenberger (2015), Andrews (2016), and Andrews and Mikusheva (2016a,b). Surveys on weak identification issues include Stock, Wright, and Yogo (2002), Dufour (2003), Hahn and Hausman (2003), and Andrews and Stock (2007). Existing inference procedures are robust to identification strength and uniformly control size, but rely on linear projection of endogenous variables on instruments. We argue that this feature can artificially create a weak identification (or no identification) issue. If linear projection does not capture enough of the variation of the endogenous variable, tests have little power and sometimes no more than trivial one. It is unfortunately not possible to use nonparametrically estimated optimal instruments under weak identification, see Jun and Pinkse (2012). Indeed, if identification is not strong enough, the statistical variability of a nonparametric estimator will dominate the signal we aim to estimate. As practitioners typically have little prior information on the form of the relation between endogenous variables and instruments, an inference procedure that leaves the functional form of the first stage equation unspecified, while being robust to identification strength should be extremely valuable for empirical analysis.

We propose two new inference procedures that are easy to implement, robust to any identification pattern, and do not rely on a linear or parametric projection in the first-stage equation. Hence, by design, their size and power will not be sensitive to omitted nonlinear transformations of the instruments. Our methods are based on the Integrated Conditional Moment (ICM) principle originally proposed by Bierens (1982).

We first combine this principle with the Anderson and Rubin (1949) idea of setting the parameter value to the one under the null hypothesis. This yields a statistic that tests at the same time for the value of the parameter and the specification of the model. Second, we consider a quasi-likelihood ratio statistic and we adopt the conditionality principle used by Moreira (2003) to condition upon another ICM statistic (when  $Y_2$  is univariate, or a set of ICM statistics when  $Y_2$  is multivariate) that informs on the strength of (nonparametric) identification in the first-stage equation. The *Conditional* ICM (CICM) test does not test the whole specification of the model, but only whether  $\beta$  is compatible with the data assuming the model is adequate. This is valuable in practice if the linear IV model, while misspecified, can provide relevant empirical information on the average effects of endogenous variables. For both the ICM and CICM tests, asymptotic critical values can be simulated under heteroskedasticity of unknown form. We show that our tests control size uniformly and are thus robust to identification strength. Our tests are consistent in case of semi-strong identification, following the terminology of Andrews and Cheng (2012), and can have non-trivial power in the case of weak identification. Since we remain agnostic on the functional relation between endogenous and instrumental variables in the first-stage equation, these properties are independent of its potentially nonlinear form.

Our conditional ICM test is related to Andrews and Mikusheva (2016a) since it is conditional upon a functional nuisance parameter; our method of proof is also similar. A key difference is that we consider conditional moment restrictions while they focus on unconditional ones; our orthogonalization procedure differs as well. Unlike Andrews and Mikusheva (2016a), we cannot claim that our procedure is optimal when identification is strong. This is because, as explained below, optimality under strong identification relies on nonparametric optimal instruments, while using nonparametric estimation under weak identification cannot result in a powerful test. Consequently, we do not address the admissibility of our procedure nor its optimality in terms of weighted average power, see Chernozhukov, Hansen, and Jansson (2009) and Olea (2018). Our test statistics are chosen for practical convenience and their resemblance with standard statistics used in the presence of weak instruments. Finally, we do not directly address subvector inference - though it is always possible to adopt a projection approach, see Dufour (1997) and Dufour and Taamouti (2005).

In a series of simulations, we found that the level of our tests is well controlled using simulated critical values. Our tests have significant power advantage compared to

existing tests when the reduced form equation is nonlinear. They also have good power for a linear reduced form, though they cannot be more powerful than the conditional likelihood ratio test, which is nearly optimal, see Andrews, Moreira, and Stock (2006) and Andrews, Marmer, and Yu (2019). We consider two empirical applications. First, we revisit the empirical study of Yogo (2004) on the elasticity of intertemporal substitution. Second, we investigate the effects of population decline in Mexico on land concentration in the sixteenth century using the data and framework of Sellars and Alix-Garcia (2018). We found that our two procedures easily account for nonlinearities while providing tight confidence intervals and empirically valuable inference.

Our paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce our framework, we recall the main existing procedures for inference under possibly weak identification, and we motivate our new tests from a power perspective. In Section 3, we recall the ICM principle and we describe our two procedures, namely the ICM test and the conditional ICM test. In Section 4, we discuss critical values and the properties of our test in a Gaussian setup. In Section 5, we show that our procedures extend to more general setups including heteroskedasticity of unknown form. We then prove uniform asymptotic validity and study uniform power under semi-strong and weak identification. In Section 6, we study the small sample performance of our tests through Monte-Carlo simulations and compare it to previous proposals. In Section 7, we present the results of our two empirical applications. Proofs are gathered in Section 8.

## 2 Framework and Motivation

We are interested in inference on the parameter  $\beta$  of the  $l$  endogenous variables  $Y_2$  in (1.1) and thus in testing null hypotheses of the form  $H_0 : \beta = \beta_0$ . The influence of exogenous control variables  $X_1$  can be projected out through orthogonal projection in (1.1), which does not influence our reasoning, but simplifies exposition. Hence, in what follows, we consider a structural equation of the form

$$y_i = Y_{2i}'\beta + u_i \quad \mathbb{E}(u_i|Z_i) = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (2.2)$$

This is augmented by a first-stage reduced form equation for  $Y_2$

$$Y_{2i} = \Pi(Z_i) + V_{2i} \quad \mathbb{E}(V_{2i}|Z_i) = 0. \quad (2.3)$$

The exogenous variables  $Z$ , of dimension  $k$ , include the instrumental variables  $X_2$  but also the exogenous  $X_1$ .

Most work considers a linear projection of the form  $Z\Pi$ . The concentration parameter

$$\frac{\Pi'Z'Z\Pi}{\sigma_{V_2}^2}$$

is a unitless measure of the strength of the instruments which can be interpreted in terms of the first-stage  $F$  statistic, the Fisher statistic for testing the hypothesis  $\Pi = \mathbf{0}$ : in large samples,  $(\mathbb{E} F - 1)$  is approximately proportional to the concentration parameter. If one models weak identification as  $\Pi = n^{-1/2}C$ , the mean of such first-stage  $F$  statistic stays small or moderate for  $n$  large.

To test the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \beta = \beta_0$ , the statistic of Anderson and Rubin (1949) evaluates the orthogonality of  $(y - Y_2'\beta_0)$  and  $Z$  and writes

$$\text{AR} = \frac{b_0'Y'P_ZYb_0}{b_0'\widehat{\Omega}b_0}.$$

Here  $b_0 = (1, -\beta_0)'$ ,

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & Y'_{21} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ y_n & Y'_{2n} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2.4)$$

so that  $Yb_0$  is the vector of generic components  $y_i - Y'_{2i}\beta_0 = u_i$  under  $H_0$ ,  $P_Z$  is the orthogonal projection on the space spanned by the columns of  $Z$ , and  $\widehat{\Omega} = (n - k)^{-1}Y'(\mathbf{I} - P_Z)Y$  is an estimator of the errors' variance  $\Omega$  under the assumptions of homoskedasticity. Under linearity, one can rewrite the structural equation as

$$y_i - Y'_{2i}\beta_0 = X'_{2i}\Delta + \varepsilon_i, \quad \text{where } \Delta = \Pi(\beta - \beta_0) \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon_i = u_i + V_{2i}(\beta - \beta_0).$$

Hence the AR statistic is (up to a scale) the  $F$  statistic for the null hypothesis  $\Delta = 0$ . It tests at the same time  $H_0$  and the correct specification of the model. The  $K$  test of Kleibergen (2005) is derived as a score test of  $H_0$  under the assumptions of joint normality of  $u$  and  $V_2$ . The Conditional Likelihood Ratio (CLR) test is based on

$$\text{CLR} = \frac{b_0'Y'P_ZYb_0}{b_0'\widehat{\Omega}b_0} - \min_b \frac{b'Y'P_ZYb}{b'\widehat{\Omega}b},$$

and is derived as an approximate likelihood ratio test statistic for  $H_0$  in the normal case by Moreira (2003). Unlike AR, it tests only whether  $\beta = \beta_0$  irrespective of the linear IV model validity.

Under weak identification, the above test statistics can be used to obtain valid inference, and the tests have been shown to control size uniformly, see our references in the Introduction. Dufour and Taamouti (2007) further study the size robustness of such procedures to omitted relevant instruments and show that the AR procedure is particularly well behaved in this respect. Here we focus instead on the power of inference procedures with omitted nonlinear transformations of the instruments. Assuming a linear reduced-form for  $Y_2$  is not restrictive as a linear approximation of the regression of  $Y_2$  on the instruments. However, a linear approximation can yield little power for the tests. As an example, assume  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$  and

$$\Pi(Z) = \frac{1}{r_n}(3Z - Z^3) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(Z^2 - 1), \quad r_n \geq 1.$$

If one approximates the unknown function  $\Pi(\cdot)$  by a linear form, then

$$\min_{\pi_1} \mathbb{E} (\pi_1 Z - \Pi(Z))^2$$

yields the first-order condition

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ Z \left( \pi_1 Z - \frac{1}{r_n}(3Z - Z^3) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(Z^2 - 1) \right) \right] = 0,$$

and the solution  $\pi_1 = 0$ .<sup>1</sup> Hence relying on a linear approximation may yield no more than trivial power for the above standard tests.

We may want to allow for a nonlinear form of the first-stage equation. The power of the tests, and then inference on parameters, will be affected by the accuracy of the chosen functional form. If in our example one approximates the unknown function  $\Pi(\cdot)$  by a quadratic form, then

$$\min_{\pi_1, \pi_2} \mathbb{E} (\pi_1 Z + \pi_2(Z^2 - 1) - \Pi(Z))^2$$

yields

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[ Z \left( \pi_1 Z + \pi_2(Z^2 - 1) - \frac{1}{r_n}(3Z - Z^3) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(Z^2 - 1) \right) \right] &= 0 \\ \mathbb{E} \left[ (Z^2 - 1) \left( \pi_1 Z + \pi_2(Z^2 - 1) - \frac{1}{r_n}(3Z - Z^3) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(Z^2 - 1) \right) \right] &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

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<sup>1</sup>If an intercept was included, it would be zero, so we dispense with it.

The solutions are  $\pi_1 = 0$  and  $\pi_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ . Thus, even if the relation between  $Y_2$  and the instrument  $Z$  is not weak, in the sense that  $r_n \ll \sqrt{n}$ , or even strong, i.e.  $r_n = 1$ , the quadratic approximation will only pick up the weakest quadratic relation. Hence an inadequate functional form may artificially create a weak identification issue.<sup>2</sup>

One may be tempted to estimate the reduced form nonparametrically, for instance by increasing the number of approximating polynomials with the sample size. But the local nature of nonparametric estimation yields a slower than  $\sqrt{n}$  rate of convergence, so that statistical variability of the nonparametric estimator will exceed the signal to estimate if identification is not strong enough. As shown by Jun and Pinkse (2012), this issue can appear even with semi-strong identification and yields inflated variance or inconsistency for estimators based on a first-step nonparametric estimation. Similarly, weak (or not strong enough) identification prevents inference on  $\beta$  using nonparametrically generated instruments. Consider for instance the AR statistic based on nonparametric instruments  $\hat{\Pi}$ . If  $\Pi = C/r_n$ , then

$$\hat{\Pi} = \frac{C}{r_n} + \frac{\nu}{a_n},$$

where  $a_n$  is the rate of convergence of the estimator and  $\nu$  is estimation noise, which may also include a bias term as usual in nonparametric estimation. Whenever  $a_n = o(r_n)$ , the denominator of AR becomes random and unrelated to  $\Pi$  since

$$b_0' Y' \hat{\Pi} \left( \hat{\Pi}' \hat{\Pi} \right)^{-1} \hat{\Pi} Y b_0 = b_0' Y' \nu (\nu' \nu)^{-1} \nu Y b_0 (1 + o_p(1)).$$

As a result, the AR test has a nonstandard distribution, and even if critical values could be obtained, such test would have no more than trivial power. So, while nonparametric optimal instruments should be used for efficiency under strong identification, they cannot be relied upon under weak or even semi-strong identification. It thus does not appear possible to build a procedure that would be nonparametric with respect to the reduced form and would be at the same time robust to weak identification and optimal under strong identification. A solution might be to conduct a specification search for the best functional form of the reduced equation. However, specification tests may suffer from low power in case of weak identification, and in addition one would need to account for pre-testing in inference on parameters. Since typically little prior information is available on the link between the endogenous variable and the instruments, finding a

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<sup>2</sup>One can construct more involved examples where the same phenomenon shows up. For instance, if  $\Pi(Z) = \frac{1}{r_n}(Z^5 - 10Z^3 + 15Z) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(Z^4 - 6Z^2 + 3)$ , then the best cubic approximation is identically zero and the best quartic approximation only picks up the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$  component.

testing method that leaves the first-stage equation unspecified while being robust to weak identification seems extremely valuable from a practitioner's viewpoint.

### 3 ICM and Conditional ICM Tests Statistics

Without assuming linearity of  $\Pi(\cdot)$  in (2.3), we can write

$$y - Y_2\beta_0 = \Pi(Z)(\beta - \beta_0) + \varepsilon, \quad \text{where } \varepsilon = u + V_2(\beta - \beta_0) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon|Z) = 0.$$

The variables  $Z$  include the instruments  $X_2$  but also the exogenous  $X_1$ . This way, we account for potential nonlinearities in all exogenous variables in the reduced form equation. We consider testing

$$\tilde{H}_0 : \mathbb{E}(y - Y_2'\beta_0|Z) = 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

which is implied by the model when  $\beta = \beta_0$ . That is, we consider at the same time  $H_0$  and the correct specification of the model, in the same way the AR test does. We then apply a result of Bierens (1982) which states that  $\tilde{H}_0$  holds if and only if

$$\mathbb{E}[(y - Y_2'\beta_0) \exp(is'Z_i)] = 0 \quad \forall s \in \mathbb{R}^k. \quad (3.5)$$

To test this hypothesis, Bierens' Integrated Conditional Moment (ICM) statistic is

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^q} |n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - Y_{2i}'\beta_0) \exp(is'Z_i)|^2 d\mu(s), \quad (3.6)$$

where  $\mu$  is some symmetric probability measure with support  $\mathbb{R}^q$  (except maybe a set of isolated points). The statistic (3.6) can be rewritten in matrix form as

$$b_0' Y' W Y b_0,$$

where  $b_0 = (1, -\beta_0)'$ ,  $Y$  is defined in (2.4),  $W$  is a matrix with generic element  $n^{-1}w(Z_i - Z_j)$ , and

$$w(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^q} \cos(s'z) d\mu(s).$$

The condition for  $\mu$  to have support  $\mathbb{R}^q$  translates into the restriction that  $w(\cdot)$  should have a strictly positive Fourier transform almost everywhere. Examples include products of triangular, normal, logistic, see Johnson, Kotz, and Balakrishnan (1995, Section 23.3),



Student, including Cauchy, see Dreier and Kotz (2002), or Laplace densities. To achieve scale invariance, we recommend, as in Bierens (1982) and Antoine and Lavergne (2014), to scale the exogenous instruments by a measure of dispersion, such as their empirical standard deviation. The role of the function  $w(\cdot)$  resembles the one of the kernel in nonparametric estimation, but in contrast it is a fixed function that does not vary with the sample size. To make this explicit, we will impose that the squared integral of  $w(\cdot)$  equals one.<sup>3</sup>

If  $Z$  has bounded support, then results from Bierens (1982) yield that  $\tilde{H}_0$  holds if and only if

$$\mathbb{E} [(y - Y_2'\beta_0) \exp(s'Z_i)] = 0$$

for all  $s$  in a (arbitrary) neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathbb{R}^q$ . Hence  $\mu$  in (3.6) can be taken as any symmetric probability measure that contains 0 in the interior of its support. For instance, we can consider the product of uniform distributions on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ , so that  $w(\cdot)$  is the product of sinc functions. As noted by Bierens (1982), there is no loss of generality to assume a bounded support, as his equivalence result equally applies to a one-to-one transformation of  $Z$ , which can be chosen with bounded image.

The ICM principle replaces conditional moment restrictions by a continuum of unconditional moments such as (3.5). Other functions have been used beyond the complex exponential, see Bierens (1990) and Bierens and Ploberger (1997). Stinchcombe and White (1998) characterize a large class of functions that could generate an equivalent set of unconditional moments. As detailed by Lavergne and Patilea (2013), this yields a full collection of potential estimators under strong (or semi-strong) identification. This would also yield a collection of test statistics that could be used under weak identification. We here focus on a particular application of the ICM suitable for theoretical investigation and practical implementation, and we leave for future work the investigation of the relative merits of these different ICM-type tests.

Let  $\hat{\Omega}$  be a (semiparametric) estimator of  $\Omega = \mathbb{E}(\text{Var}(Y|Z))$ . Our first test statistic is

$$\text{ICM}(\beta_0) = \frac{b_0' Y' W Y b_0}{b_0' \hat{\Omega} b_0}. \quad (3.7)$$

It is the ICM statistic that sets the value of the parameter at  $\beta_0$  and normalizes by an estimator of variance of  $Y_i' b_0$ . It resembles the AR statistic, with  $W$  replacing  $P_Z$ , the orthogonal projection on  $Z$ . The statistic is also related to Antoine and Lavergne

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<sup>3</sup>A more involved restriction would be to impose a similar condition on the Frobenius norm of  $W$ .

(2014) Weighted Minimum Distance objective function, though they chose a different normalization. Our normalization does not affect the main properties of the ICM test, but is convenient when computing critical values and studying theoretical properties. As apparent from its construction, ICM is designed to test the correct specification of the model together with the parameter value, as does the AR test under a linear reduced form. Since ICM equals (3.6) (up to the positive term  $b'_0 \widehat{\Omega} b_0$ ), it is non-negative, and the test rejects the null hypothesis for large positive values of the statistic.

Our conditional ICM (CICM) test is based on the statistic

$$\text{CICM}(\beta_0) = \frac{b'_0 Y' W Y b_0}{b'_0 \widehat{\Omega} b_0} - \min_b \frac{b' Y' W Y b}{b' \widehat{\Omega} b}. \quad (3.8)$$

The statistic has the form of a quasi likelihood-ratio statistic and is always non-negative. The test thus rejects the null hypothesis for large positive values of the statistic. It does not test the whole specification of the model, but only whether  $\beta_0$  is compatible with the data assuming the model is adequate. This is valuable in practice if the linear IV model is misspecified but provides relevant information of average effects of endogenous variables.

The CICM statistic resembles the CLR one of Moreira (2003), with  $W$  replacing  $P_Z$ , the orthogonal projection on  $Z$ . We now follow his discussion and define

$$\widehat{S} \equiv \widehat{S}(\beta_0) = Y b_0 \left( b'_0 \widehat{\Omega} b_0 \right)^{-1/2}, \quad \widehat{T} \equiv \widehat{T}(\beta_0) = Y \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} A_0 \left( A'_0 \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} A_0 \right)^{-1/2}, \quad A_0 = [\beta_0 \mathbf{I}'].$$

Then  $\text{ICM}(\beta_0) = \widehat{S}' W \widehat{S}$  and

$$\text{CICM}(\beta_0) = \widehat{S}' W \widehat{S} - \lambda_{\min} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{S}' \\ \widehat{T}' \end{bmatrix} W \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{S} \\ \widehat{T} \end{bmatrix} \right), \quad (3.9)$$

where  $\lambda_{\min}(A)$  is the smallest eigenvalue of the matrix  $A$ . When  $\beta_0$  is scalar,

$$\text{CICM}(\beta_0) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \widehat{S}' W \widehat{S} - \widehat{T}' W \widehat{T} + \sqrt{\left( \widehat{S}' W \widehat{S} - \widehat{T}' W \widehat{T} \right)^2 + 4 \left( \widehat{S}' W \widehat{T} \right)^2} \right]. \quad (3.10)$$

To establish (3.9), note that

$$\min_b \frac{b' Y' W Y b}{b' \widehat{\Omega} b} = \lambda_{\min} \left( \widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2} Y' W Y \widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2} \right).$$

where  $\lambda_{\min}(M)$  is the minimum eigenvalue of  $M$ . Consider the orthogonal matrix

$$J = \left[ \widehat{\Omega}^{1/2} b_0 \left( b'_0 \widehat{\Omega} b_0 \right)^{-1/2}, \widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2} A_0 \left( A'_0 \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} A_0 \right)^{-1/2} \right],$$

where  $J'J = \mathbf{I}$  since  $A_0'b_0 = \mathbf{0}$ . The minimum eigenvalue of  $\widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2}Y'WY\widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2}$  is thus the one of  $J'\widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2}Y'WY\widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2}J$ , and  $Y\widehat{\Omega}^{-1/2}J = [\widehat{S}, \widehat{T}]$ . We label our test as conditional because we will use conditional critical values. With homoskedastic errors, we will condition on  $Z$  and  $\widehat{T}$ . This allows to condition on the set of statistics  $\widehat{T}'W\widehat{T}$  that convey information on identification strength. Consider for simplicity the scalar case. Then  $\widehat{T}'W\widehat{T}$  is the ICM statistic for testing  $\Pi(\cdot) = \mathbf{0}$  a.s. It can then be seen as the nonparametric ICM equivalent of the first-stage  $F$  statistic. In particular, its large sample mean can be viewed as some measure of identification strength similar to the concentration parameter.

## 4 Tests with Normal Errors and Known Covariance Structure

We now explain how to obtain critical values and P-values. We assume normal errors with a known covariance structure. We will relax both assumptions in the next section, where we show that estimation of the covariance structure has no first-order asymptotic effect on the validity of our tests. Since  $\Omega$  is considered known here, we replace  $\widehat{S}$  and  $\widehat{T}$  by  $S = Yb_0(b_0'\Omega b_0)^{-1/2}$  and  $T = Y\Omega^{-1}A_0(A_0'\Omega^{-1}A_0)^{-1/2}$ .

### 4.1 Homoskedastic Case

Under  $H_0$ ,  $S \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$  conditionally on  $Z$ . Then  $\text{ICM} = S'WS$  follows a weighted sum of independent chi-squares, specifically  $\text{ICM} \sim \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k G_k^2$  conditionally on  $Z$ , where  $G_1, \dots, G_n$  are standard independent normal random variables and  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$  are the positive eigenvalues of  $W$ , see e.g. de Wet and Venter (1973). The distribution of ICM under  $H_0$  can thus easily be simulated by drawing many times  $G \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ , and computing the associated quadratic form  $G'WG$ . Critical values are then obtained as the quantiles of the empirical distribution of the simulated statistic. Equivalently, one can compute the P-value of the test as the empirical probability that the original test statistic is lower than the simulated statistic.

Consider now the joint behavior of  $S = Yb_0(b_0'\Omega b_0)^{-1/2}$  and the columns of  $T = Y\Omega^{-1}A_0(A_0'\Omega^{-1}A_0)^{-1/2}$ . Under  $H_0$ , they are jointly normally distributed. Each column of  $T$  is uncorrelated with  $S$ , and thus independent of  $S$ , conditionally on  $Z$ . This entails that the distribution of  $\text{CICM}(\beta_0)$  under  $H_0$  can be simulated *keeping  $Z$  and  $T$  fixed* by

replacing  $S$  by  $G \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$  in the formula of the statistic. The resulting quantiles now depend on  $\beta_0$  via  $T = T(\beta_0)$ . This conditional method of obtaining critical values allows in particular to condition on the matrix  $T'WT$  that contains the set of ICM statistics that evaluates the strength of the link of endogenous regressors to instruments.

## 4.2 Heteroskedastic Case

Heteroskedasticity is often encountered in microeconomic applications. The usual way to account for potential unknown heteroskedasticity is to modify the test statistic at the outset. For instance, Chernozhukov and Hansen (2008) adapt the Anderson-Rubin statistic using an heteroskedasticity-robust estimator of the covariance matrix. We instead consider the same statistic ICM, but we allow for unknown heteroskedasticity when simulating critical values. We assume that we know the conditional variance function

$$\Omega_i \equiv \Omega(Z_i) = \text{Var}(Y_i|Z_i) = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Var}(y_i|Z_i) & \text{Cov}(y_i, Y_{2i}|Z_i) \\ \text{Cov}'(Y_{2i}, y_i|Z_i) & \text{Var}(Y_{2i}|Z_i) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.11)$$

where  $Y_i = (y_i, Y_{2i}')'$ , so that we can compute  $\Sigma = \text{Var}(Yb_0|Z) = \text{diag}(b_0'\Omega_1b_0, \dots, b_0'\Omega_nb_0)$ . Then

$$\text{ICM} = \frac{b_0'Y'\Sigma^{-1/2}\Sigma^{1/2}W\Sigma^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1/2}Yb_0}{b_0'\Omega b_0},$$

and ICM follows under  $H_0$  the same distribution as  $G'\Sigma^{1/2}W\Sigma^{1/2}G$ , where  $G \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ . We can then again simulate the distribution of ICM under  $H_0$  and recover critical values.

Heteroskedasticity-robust versions of the CLR have been proposed by Andrews et al. (2006) (in the working paper version of their article), Kleibergen (2007), Moreira and Moreira (2015), Moreira and Ridder (2017), and Andrews (2016). We chose to work with the QLR-type statistic CICM, and to adapt critical values to heteroskedasticity. There may well be modified versions of the statistic that could account for heteroskedasticity, but they would not be of the form (3.8), and thus would not have the same intuitive interpretation. Andrews and Mikusheva (2016a) note that CLR could be used in heteroskedastic contexts by conditioning on the statistic of Kleibergen (2005), and more generally that a wide class of QLR tests are valid when conditioning on a nuisance process.

The null distribution of CICM depends only of the asymptotic covariance structure of  $S$  and  $T$  conditional on  $Z$  under Lindeberg-type conditions, see Rotar' (1979). Under

homoskedasticity, we have used the uncorrelation of  $S$  and  $T$  to simulate critical values. Under heteroskedasticity,  $S$  and  $T$  are not conditionally independent anymore. We can however condition on the part of  $T$  that is uncorrelated with  $S$ . Specifically, let

$$R = [R_1 \dots R_n] \quad R_i = T_i - \frac{\text{Cov}(T_i, S_i | Z_i)}{\text{Var}(S_i | Z_i)} S_i.$$

Then with normal errors  $S_i$  and  $R_i$  are conditionally jointly Gaussian and independent under  $H_0$ . Moreover  $R$  contains only information about  $\Pi(\cdot)$ , and none about  $\beta$ . We can simulate the distribution of CICM keeping  $R$  and  $Z$  fixed. We generate  $G_i$ ,  $i = \dots, n$ , as independent normal with mean 0 and variance  $\text{Var}(S_i | Z_i)$  for each  $i$ , and we compute CICM with drawings of  $G_i$  in place of  $S_i$  and

$$R_i + \frac{\text{Cov}(T_i, S_i | Z_i)}{\text{Var}(S_i | Z_i)} G_i$$

in place of  $T_i$ .

The above orthogonalization method is related to the one proposed by Andrews and Mikusheva (2016a). In a linear IV model, they consider testing

$$\mathbb{E} [Z(y - Y_2' \beta_0)] = 0.$$

They suggest to view the mean function  $\mathbb{E} [Z(y - Y_2' \beta)]$  for all other values of  $\beta$  as a nuisance parameter. They thus propose to condition a test of the null hypothesis on the process of sample moments evaluated at any other value  $\beta$ . To do so, the sample process  $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i (y_i - Y_{2i}' \beta)$  needs to be orthogonalized with respect to the sample mean  $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i (y_i - Y_{2i}' \beta_0)$  through their estimated covariance function. The issue with CICM is similar but more intricate, as we are interested in the mean function  $\mathbb{E} [(y - Y_2' \beta_0) \exp(is' Z)]$  for all  $s$ , and we consider as a nuisance parameter  $\mathbb{E} [(y - Y_2' \beta) \exp(it' Z)]$  for all other values of  $\beta$  and all  $t$ . To orthogonalize the process  $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - Y_{2i}' \beta) \exp(it' Z_i)$  with respect to  $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - Y_{2i}' \beta_0) \exp(is' Z_i)$ , we use a transformation that removes correlation at the level of individual observations.

### 4.3 Similarity of the Tests

Similar tests have been shown to perform well in weakly identified linear IV models, see Andrews et al. (2006). The ideal normal setup may seem unrealistic, but retains however the main ingredients of the problem. Indeed, the test statistics ultimately depend on

empirical processes that are jointly asymptotically Gaussian whatever the particular error distribution, see Section 8. Hence the ideal setup allows to study the properties of our test abstracting from finite-sample considerations.

Define the conditional critical values as

$$\begin{aligned} c_{1-\alpha}(Z) &= \inf \{c : \Pr [\text{ICM}(\beta_0) \leq c|Z] \geq 1 - \alpha\} \\ c_{1-\alpha}(Z, R(\beta_0)) &= \inf \{c : \Pr [\text{CICM}(\beta_0) \leq c|Z, R(\beta_0)] \geq 1 - \alpha\} . \end{aligned}$$

Hence, in the normal case with known  $\Omega(\cdot)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr [\text{ICM}(\beta_0) > c_{1-\alpha}(Z)|Z] &= \Pr [\text{ICM}(\beta_0) > c_{1-\alpha}(Z)] = \alpha . \\ \Pr [\text{CICM}(\beta_0) > c_{1-\alpha}(Z, R(\beta_0))|Z, R(\beta_0)] &= \Pr [\text{CICM}(\beta_0) > c_{1-\alpha}(Z, R(\beta_0))] = \alpha . \end{aligned}$$

The ICM test is similar because  $\Sigma^{-1/2}S \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$  conditionally on  $Z$ . The result for CICM follows because in addition (i) the components of  $[\Sigma^{-1/2}S, R]$  are jointly conditionally normal, and (ii)  $\Sigma^{-1/2}S$  is conditionally uncorrelated with, thus conditionally independent of, the components of  $R$ .

## 5 Asymptotic Tests

The setup of normal errors with known conditional covariance structure is ideal but not realistic. However our method for simulating critical values remains asymptotically valid when errors are not Gaussian, and conditional variances are estimated instead of known.

### 5.1 Homoskedastic Case

If we first drop the normality assumption, ICM asymptotically follows the conditional distribution described in the last section. This is mainly based on the invariance principle developed by Rotar' (1979). Specifically,  $\text{ICM} = S'WS$  is a quadratic form in  $S$ , and its asymptotic distribution depends only on the first two (conditional) moments of  $S$ . Under homoskedasticity,  $S \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$  conditionally on  $Z$ , so replacing  $S$  by a standard Gaussian vector  $G$  results in the same asymptotic distribution. The procedure explained in the last section thus provides asymptotically valid critical value  $c_{1-\alpha}(Z, \hat{\Omega})$ , depending upon a consistent estimator  $\hat{\Omega}$ , as the  $1 - \alpha$  quantile of the statistic obtained by simulations.

Under homoskedasticity, this critical value is independent of the particular value of  $\beta_0$ . The confidence set obtained by inverting the ICM test is

$$\left\{ \beta_0 : ICM(\beta_0) < c_{1-\alpha}(Z, \widehat{\Omega}) \right\} .$$

When  $\beta_0$  is scalar,  $ICM(\beta_0)$  is a ratio of two quadratic forms in  $\beta_0$ , and the confidence set is obtained by solving a quadratic inequality, as is the AR confidence interval. We thus obtain as in Dufour and Taamouti (2005) and Mikusheva (2010) that it can be of four possible forms.

**Lemma 5.1** *For homoskedastic errors, and when  $\beta$  is scalar, the asymptotic ICM confidence interval can have one of four possible forms:*

1. a finite interval  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$ ;
2. a union of two infinite intervals  $(-\infty, \beta_2) \cup (\beta_1, +\infty)$ ;
3. the whole real line  $(-\infty, +\infty)$ ;
4. an empty set  $\emptyset$ .

The last possibility arises as our null hypothesis  $\widetilde{H}_0$  states the validity of the model given  $\beta_0$ . Indeed ICM is designed to test the correct specification of the model together with the parameter value.

The conditional ICM statistic depends on  $S'WS$ ,  $S'WT$ , and  $T'WT$  as seen from (3.9), which are linear and quadratic forms in  $S$ . Under homoskedasticity,  $S$  is uncorrelated with the columns of  $T$  (conditional on  $Z$ ), and the method exposed previously in the Gaussian case provides asymptotically correct critical values. As any quasi-likelihood ratio test, the CICM test is one-sided and rejects the null hypothesis when the statistic is large. A confidence set for  $\beta$  is defined as

$$\left\{ \beta_0 : ICM(\beta_0) < c_{1-\alpha}(Z, \widehat{\Omega}, \widehat{R}(\beta_0)) \right\} ,$$

where  $c_{1-\alpha}(Z, \widehat{\Omega}, \widehat{R}(\beta_0))$  is the  $1 - \alpha$  quantile of the statistic obtained by simulations. However, it does not seem possible to obtain a simple characterization of CICM-based confidence intervals as done by Mikusheva (2010) for CLR.

## 5.2 Heteroskedastic Case

Accounting for unknown heteroskedasticity requires to estimate conditional variances of  $Y$ . One of our main tasks in the next section will be to establish asymptotic results accounting for estimation of  $\Omega = \mathbb{E} \text{Var}(Y|Z)$  and  $\Omega(\cdot) = \text{Var}(Y|Z = \cdot)$ . One should note that weak identification does not preclude consistent estimation of these objects. If  $\Omega$  is unknown, there are many existing estimators in the literature, for instance the difference-based estimator of Rice (1984) and generalizations by Seifert, Gasser, and Wolf (1993) among others. The conditional variance can be estimated parametrically if one is ready to make an assumption on its functional form. Otherwise, we can resort to nonparametric conditional variance estimation. Several consistent ones have been developed for a univariate  $Y$ , and generalize easily. To make things concrete, we focus on kernel smoothing, which is used in our simulations and applications. Let

$$\bar{Y}(z) = (nb_n)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i K((Z_i - z)/b_n)$$

based on the  $n$  iid observations of  $Y_i = (y_i, Y'_{2i})'$  and  $Z_i$ , a kernel  $K(\cdot)$ , and a bandwidth  $b_n$ . With  $e = (1, \dots, 1)'$ , let  $\hat{f}(z) = \bar{e}(z)$ , and  $\hat{Y}(z) = \bar{Y}(z)/\hat{f}(z)$ , the conditional variance estimator of  $Y$  is defined as

$$\hat{\Omega}(z) = (nb_n)^{-1} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left( Y_i - \hat{Y}(Z_i) \right) \left( Y_i - \hat{Y}(Z_i) \right)' K((Z_i - z)/b_n)}{\hat{f}(z)}.$$

This estimator, studied by Yin, Geng, Li, and Wang (2010), is a generalization of the kernel conditional variance, and is positive definite whenever  $K(\cdot)$  is positive. It provides a consistent estimator of the variance matrix function  $\Omega(\cdot)$ , and a consistent estimator of  $\Omega$  using  $\hat{\Omega} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\Omega}(Z_i)$ . Note that we could equivalently consider an estimator of the uncentered moment  $\mathbb{E}(Y'Y)$  and then avoid preliminary estimation of  $\mathbb{E}(Y|Z)$ . Indeed  $\mathbb{E}(S|Z) = 0$  a.s. under  $H_0$  so that  $\text{Var}(S|Z) = \mathbb{E}(S^2|Z)$  and  $\text{Cov}(T, S|Z) = \mathbb{E}(T'S|Z)$ .

With at hand a parametric or nonparametric estimator of  $\Omega(\cdot)$ , one can estimate the conditional variance of  $S_i$  by  $\widehat{\text{Var}}(S_i|Z_i) = b'_0 \hat{\Omega}_i b_0 \left( b_0 \hat{\Omega} b_0 \right)^{-1}$ , where  $\hat{\Omega}_i \equiv \hat{\Omega}(Z_i)$ . To approximate the asymptotic distribution of  $\text{ICM} = S'WS$ , we generate independent Gaussian  $\hat{G}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , with mean 0 and variance  $\widehat{\text{Var}}(S_i|Z_i)$  for each  $i$ , and proceeds similarly as above. The intuition carries over for CICM, provided we condition on the



part of  $\widehat{T}$  which is asymptotically uncorrelated with  $\widehat{S}$  conditional on  $Z$ . The conditional covariance of  $\widehat{T}_i$  and  $\widehat{S}_i$  can be estimated as

$$\left(A_0' \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} A_0\right)^{-1/2} A_0' \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0 \left(b_0' \widehat{\Omega} b_0\right)^{-1/2}.$$

Then the asymptotic distribution of CICM will be approximated by first computing  $\widehat{R} = [\widehat{R}_1 \dots \widehat{R}_n]$ , with

$$\widehat{R}_i = \widehat{T}_i - \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(T_i, S_i | Z_i)}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(S_i | Z_i)} \widehat{S}_i = \left(A_0' \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} A_0\right)^{-1/2} \left[ Y_i' \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} A_0 - \frac{A_0' \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0}{b_0' \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0} Y_i' b_0 \right],$$

then recomputing CICM with drawings of  $G_i$  in place of  $\widehat{S}_i$  and

$$\widehat{R}_i + \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(T_i, S_i | Z_i)}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(S_i | Z_i)} G_i$$

in place of  $\widehat{T}_i$ .

### 5.3 Uniform Asymptotic Validity

We consider the following assumptions.

**Assumption A** (i) *The observations  $Y_i = (y_i, Y_{2i}')$  and  $Z_i$  form a rowwise independent triangular array that follows (2.2) and (2.3), where the marginal distribution of  $Z$  remains unchanged.*

(ii) *For some  $\delta > 0$  and  $M < \infty$ ,  $\sup_z \mathbb{E} (\|Y_1\|^{2+\delta} | Z = z) \leq M$  uniformly in  $n$ .*

The assumption of a constant distribution for  $Z$  could be weakened, but is made to formalize that semi-strong identification comes from the conditional distribution of  $Y$  given  $Z$  only. For the sake of simplicity, we will not use a double index for observations and will denote by  $\{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$  the independent copies from  $Y$  for a sample size  $n$ .

**Assumption B**  $\Pi(Z) = D_n^{-1} C(Z)$ , where  $D_n$  is a  $l \times l$  matrix

$$D_n = \begin{bmatrix} r_{1,n} \mathbf{I}_{p_1} & \mathbf{0} & \dots & \dots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & r_{2,n} \mathbf{I}_{p_2} & \mathbf{0} & \dots & \mathbf{0} \\ \dots & & & & \dots \\ \dots & & \mathbf{0} & r_{s,n} \mathbf{I}_{p_s} & \dots \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sum_{j=1}^s p_j = l,$$

where  $1 \leq r_{j,n}$  for all  $j$  and  $C(\cdot)$  is a fixed matrix such that  $\mathbb{E}[C(Z)C'(Z)]$  is bounded and positive definite.

Our condition on  $C(\cdot)$  is an identifiability assumption. When it fails, the model only provides set identification, and we may only identify some linear combinations of the coefficients, even under strong identification. We allow for different identification strengths across the different components of  $\beta$  ranging from strong, i.e.  $r_n = 1$ , to weak, i.e.  $r_n = n^{1/2}$ , and beyond. In practice, we do not need to know or estimate the matrix  $D_n$ .

Let  $\mathcal{O}$  be a class of matrix-valued functions and let  $N(\varepsilon, \mathcal{O}, L_2(Q))$  be the covering number of  $\mathcal{O}$ , that is the minimum number of  $L_2(Q)$   $\varepsilon$ -balls needed to cover  $\mathcal{O}$ , where an  $L_2(Q)$   $\varepsilon$ -ball around  $\Omega$  is the set of matrix functions  $\{h \in L_2(Q) : \int \|h - \Omega\|^2 dQ < \varepsilon\}$ . We denote by  $\mathcal{P}$  the class of distributions that fulfills Assumption A as well as the following.

**Assumption C** (i)  $\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \Pr \left[ \|\widehat{\Omega} - \Omega\| > \varepsilon \right] \rightarrow 0 \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0.$

(ii)  $\Omega(\cdot)$  belongs to a class of matrix functions  $\mathcal{O}$  such that

$$0 < \underline{\lambda} \leq \inf_z \lambda_{\min} \Omega(z) \leq \sup_z \lambda_{\max} \Omega(z) \leq \bar{\lambda} < \infty \text{ for all } \Omega(\cdot) \in \mathcal{O} \text{ and}$$

$$\log N(\varepsilon, \mathcal{O}, L^2(P)) \leq K\varepsilon^{-V} \quad \text{for some } V < 2,$$

for all  $P \in \mathcal{P}$  and some  $K, V$  independent of  $P$ .

(iii)  $\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \Pr \left( \widehat{\Omega}(\cdot) \in \mathcal{O} \right) \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

(iv)  $\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \int \|\widehat{\Omega}(Z) - \Omega(Z)\|^2 dP(Z) \xrightarrow{p} 0.$

This assumption entails in particular that conditional variance estimation does not affect the asymptotic behavior of our statistics. There is a tension between the generality of the class of functions  $\mathcal{O}$  and the class of possible distributions  $\mathcal{P}$ . When  $\Omega(\cdot)$  is of a parametric form, Assumption C will be satisfied for a large class of distributions. When  $\Omega(\cdot)$  is considered nonparametric and estimated accordingly, one typically assumes that its components are smooth functions, and to prove (iii) one has to show that  $\widehat{\Omega}(\cdot)$  also satisfies the same smoothness conditions with probability converging to 1. Such results have been derived, see e.g. Andrews (1995) for kernel estimators or Cattaneo and Farrell (2013) for partitioning estimators. Uniform convergence of nonparametric regression estimators (and their derivatives) generally requires the domain of the functions to be bounded and the absolutely continuous components of the distributions of the conditioning variables to have densities bounded away from zero on their support. When they are not, Andrews (1995) discusses the use of a vanishing trimming that is compatible

with the stochastic equicontinuity results of Andrews (1994). Condition (iv) is dealt with in the literature on honest confidence intervals using  $L^2$  norm, see e.g. Robins and van der Vaart (2006) and the references therein.

**Assumption D**  $w(\cdot)$  is a symmetric, bounded density with  $\int w^2(x) dx = 1$ . Its Fourier transform is a density, which is positive almost everywhere, or whose support contains a neighborhood of the origin if  $Z$  is bounded.

We respectively denote by  $c_{1-\alpha}(\beta_0, Z, \widehat{\Omega}(\cdot))$  and  $c_{1-\alpha}(\beta_0, Z, \widehat{\Omega}(\cdot), \widehat{R}(\beta_0))$  the conditional critical values of ICM and CICM obtained by the simulation-based method detailed above (we neglect the approximation error due to a finite number of simulations by assuming the number of simulations is infinite so that the critical values are accurate).

Let  $\mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}$  be the subset of distributions in  $\mathcal{P}$  such that  $\beta = \beta_0$ . The following result establishes that our tests control size uniformly over a large class of probability distributions under the null hypothesis.

**Theorem 5.2** *Under Assumptions A, B, C and D,*

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{\beta_0} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \Pr \left[ \text{ICM}(\beta_0) > c_{1-\alpha}(\beta_0, Z, \widehat{\Omega}(\cdot)) \right] \leq \alpha$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{\beta_0} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \Pr \left[ \text{CICM}(\beta_0) > c_{1-\alpha}(\beta_0, Z, \widehat{\Omega}(\cdot), \widehat{R}(\beta_0)) \right] \leq \alpha.$$

More general setups where  $\Pi(\cdot)$  belongs to a set of smooth functions for the continuous components of  $Z$  would allow in particular for “localized” functions, which are identically zero but in the neighborhood of some separated points of the support of the continuous  $Z$ . In such a case, identification would come only from the behavior of  $\Pi(\cdot)$  around these points. In essence, this would be very similar to the case where the marginal distribution of  $Z$  becomes concentrated on a few points.<sup>4</sup> While it is debatable whether this could be relevant from an empirical viewpoint, such a setup would also raise technical issues. In particular, it would be unclear how to measure identification strength, because different function norms, such as  $L^1$  and  $L^2$  norms, could behave differently.

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<sup>4</sup>In most of the literature, with the exception of some examples discussed in Han and Phillips (2006), this possibility is implicitly ruled out by regularity assumptions.

## 5.4 Asymptotic Power

We adopt here a large local alternatives setup similar to Bierens and Ploberger (1997).

**Assumption E**  $\Pi(Z) = \tilde{c}_n \frac{C(Z_i)}{\sqrt{n}}$  and  $C(\cdot)$  is a fixed matrix such that  $\mathbb{E}[C(Z)C'(Z)]$  is bounded and positive definite.

With  $\beta_0$  the true value of  $\beta$ , we consider a test of  $H_0 : \beta = \beta_1$  versus  $H_1 : \beta \neq \beta_1$ , where  $\beta_1 \neq \beta_0$  is fixed. The object of interest is the asymptotic power of our two tests when  $\tilde{c} \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Theorem 5.3** *Under Assumptions A, E, C and D, for any  $\beta_0$  and any  $\beta_1 \neq \beta_0$ ,*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\tilde{c}_n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \Pr \left[ \text{ICM}(\beta_1) > c_{1-\alpha}(\beta_1, Z, \hat{\Omega}(\cdot)) \right] &= 1 \\ \lim_{\tilde{c}_n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \Pr \left[ \text{CICM}(\beta_1) > c_{1-\alpha}(\beta_1, Z, \hat{\Omega}(\cdot), \hat{R}(\beta_1)) \right] &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

The above result shows that under weak identification power is non trivial for a large enough  $\tilde{c}_n$ . For ICM, one can understand the result from the following arguments due to Bierens and Ploberger (1997). The asymptotic distribution of  $\text{ICM}(\beta_1)$  is given by  $\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i (G_i + c_i)^2$ , where  $\lambda_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ , are strictly positive real numbers,  $G_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ , are independent standard normals, and  $c_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ , are non-zero real numbers. This distribution stochastically dominates at first order the asymptotic distribution of  $\text{ICM}(\beta_0)$ , which is similar but with  $c_i = 0$  for all  $i$ . Our proof's strategy is different so as to encompass the study of our two tests. The behavior of CICM is indeed more involved because it depends on the behavior of the whole process  $\text{ICM}(\beta)$  for any  $\beta$ .

## 6 Small Sample Behavior

We investigate the small sample properties of our tests in the structural model

$$\begin{aligned} y_i &= \alpha_0 + Y_{2i}\beta_0 + \sigma(Z_i)u_i, \\ Y_{2i} &= \gamma_0 + \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}f(Z_i) + \sigma(Z_i)v_{2i}. \end{aligned} \tag{6.12}$$

where  $c$  is a constant that controls the strength of the identification and  $Y_{2i}$  is univariate. The joint distribution of  $(u_{1i}, v_{2i})$  is a bivariate normal with mean  $\mathbf{0}$ , unit unconditional

variances, and unconditional correlation  $\rho$ . In all our simulations,  $\alpha_0 = \beta_0 = \gamma_0 = 0$  and  $\rho = 0.8$ . We consider three different specifications for the function  $f(\cdot)$ : (i) a polynomial function of degree 3, (ii) a linear function, and (iii) a function compatible with first-stage group heterogeneity, see Abadie, Gu, and Shen (2016). More specifically, the function  $f(\cdot)$  is chosen as one of the following

(i)  $f(z) \propto z - 2z^3/5$

(ii)  $f(z) \propto z$

(iii)  $f(z_1, z_2) \propto (2z_2 - 1)(z_1 - 2z_1^3/5)$  .

Here  $Z$  (or  $Z_1$ ) is deterministic with values evenly spread between -2 and 2, and  $Z_2$  follows a Bernoulli with probability 1/2. Also  $f(Z)$  is centered and scaled to have variance one to make the different cases comparable. We consider heteroskedasticity depending on the first component of  $Z$  of the form

$$\sigma(x) = \sqrt{\frac{3(1+x^2)}{7}}.$$

We focus on the 10% asymptotic level tests for the slope parameter  $\beta_0$ . In all our experiments,  $w(\cdot)$  is a triangle density, and conditional covariances are estimated through kernel smoothing with Gaussian kernel and rule-of-thumb bandwidth. We compare the performance of our two tests, ICM and the conditional ICM (CICM), to five inference procedures: the similar tests based on AR, K, and CLR, the heteroskedasticity-robust version of AR (CH) proposed by Chernozhukov and Hansen (2008), and the heteroskedasticity-robust conditional LR (RCLR) proposed by Andrews et al. (2006). We consider 5000 replications for each value under test, and 299 simulations to compute our tests' P-values.

**Polynomial Model (i).** Our benchmark is the heteroskedastic version of the polynomial model, a degree of weakness  $c = 3$ , and a sample size  $n = 101$ , where the competitors of our tests use a linear form of the reduced form. We consider in turn the following variations of our benchmark model: an homoskedastic version with  $\sigma(x) = 1$ ; a sample size of 401; increasing the number of instruments to 3 and 7; finally, 3 IV with a sample size of 401. This represents a total of 6 versions of Model (i). In Table 1, we report the empirical sizes associated with the 7 inference procedures for these 6

versions of the model. In Figure 1, we display the power curves for different values of the parameter  $\beta$  in the null hypothesis.

Starting with the benchmark model, AR, K, and CLR are oversized without much surprise, as these tests are not robust to heteroskedasticity. On the other hand, CH and RCLR are oversized, while ICM is undersized. In terms of power, only ICM and CICM have excellent power properties; all the other methods have trivial power. For the homoskedastic case, AR, K, and CLR exhibit better size control as expected, they are oversized as CH and RCLR are, while ICM is still undersized. The power curves are very similar to the benchmark case.

When increasing the sample size, the over-rejection of CH and RCLR disappears, but ICM and CICM are undersized. There is little improvement for AR, K, and CLR. Doubling the sample size does not improve the power properties of our competitors.

When increasing the number of instruments to 3 and 7, by fitting piecewise linear functions, size control deteriorates for RCLR and CH. All methods now have good power. The most powerful ones are CICM and RCLR, but RCLR does not control the size well: its size is 0.144 and 0.266 with 3 and 7 IV, respectively, instead of 0.107 for CICM. Increasing the sample size with 3 IV, we observe that CH and RCLR do control size well, and that the best power is obtained with RCLR and CICM.

**Linear Model (ii).** For a linear reduced form, the standard tests are known to possess good properties, so it is of interest to know how our tests comparatively behave in this context. Our benchmark version of this model is heteroskedastic, a degree of weakness  $c = 3$ , and a sample size  $n = 101$ , where the competitors of our test use the correct linear reduced form. We then consider the following variations of our benchmark model: the homoskedastic model; increasing the number of instruments to 3 and 7; increasing the value of  $c$  to get stronger identification; setting  $c$  to 0 to get no identification at all. This represents a total of 6 versions of Model (iii). Empirical sizes are reported in Table 1, and power curves are gathered in Figure 2.

Starting with the benchmark model, AR, K, and CLR are severely oversized, CH, RCLR, and CICM are somewhat oversized, while ICM is undersized. In terms of power, all methods have good power properties: the most powerful ones are AR and CLR, while CICM, RCLR, and CH are not far behind. In the homoskedastic model, the standard procedures have the highest power, but CICM is close by. When increasing the number of instruments to 3 and 7, fitting piecewise linear functions, size control deteriorates for

RCLR and CH. When increasing identification, all the methods display similar power curves, while noticeable differences only relate to size control. In the case of no identification, the percentage rejection is constant whatever the value under test for all procedures. Classical tests are oversized, and ICM is undersized, while CICM maintains a 10% level across the board.

**Group Heterogeneity Model (iii).** This model is considered to investigate the behavior of the tests when we increase the number of instrumental variables. It also shows how the tests behave when one of the instrumental variables is discrete, which is quite common in applications. Abadie et al. (2016) consider this setup as empirical applications of instrumental variable estimators often involve settings where the reduced form varies depending on subpopulations. Our benchmark is the heteroskedastic version, a degree of weakness  $c = 3$ , and a sample size  $n = 201$ , where the competitors of our test use a reduced form with 3 instruments, namely the continuous  $Z_1$ , the discrete  $Z_2$ , and an interaction term. We then consider increasing the number of instruments to 7 and 15. Empirical sizes are reported in Table 1, and power curves are gathered in Figure 3. Starting with the benchmark model, the most powerful inference procedures are ICM and CICM, while the other methods have trivial power. In addition, both control size very well, while all others tests are oversized. When we increase the number of instruments to 7 and to 15, the size distortions mentioned for the competitors worsen, while CICM controls size well and is powerful.

Our results show that our tests are more powerful than competitors when the functional form of the link between instrumental variables and endogenous regressors is nonlinear. When trying to account for nonlinearities, the standard procedures do not control size for small sample sizes. Our tests also perform well with heteroskedasticity of unknown form. Overall, our two inference procedures have good power together with correct size control.

## 7 Empirical Applications

### 7.1 Elasticity of Intertemporal Substitution (EIS)

We reproduce and extend some of the results presented by Yogo (2004), who studied instrumental variables estimation of the Elasticity of Intertemporal Substitution (EIS)

based on the linearized Euler equation

$$\Delta c_{t+1} = \nu + \psi r_{t+1} + u_{t+1},$$

where  $\psi$  is the EIS,  $\Delta c_{t+1}$  the consumption growth at time  $(t + 1)$ ,  $r_{t+1}$  a real asset return at time  $(t + 1)$ ,  $\nu$  a constant. The set of instrumental variables is composed of the nominal interest rate, inflation, consumption growth, and log dividend price-ratio, each of them lagged twice. We used the quarterly data for 11 countries used in Yogo (2004), whose study confirms the weakness of the instruments.

Results are gathered in Table 2, where we report the 95% confidence intervals for the EIS constructed from the following 7 inference procedures: the 2 tests proposed in this paper, ICM and CICM, the 4 weak-identification robust inference procedures considered in our simulation study, AR, CLR, RCLR, and CH, as well as TSLS.<sup>5</sup> The weak-identification robust confidence intervals indicate that the EIS is well below 1 as expected, but small and not significantly different from 0 for most countries. Though CLR could be expected to deliver tighter bounds due to its good power properties, CICM always yields a narrower interval than CLR and RCLR, but for Sweden (SWD). CICM indicates that the EIS is positive and significantly different from zero for the USA using both the long and short samples. The ICM, AR, and CH tests consider a joint null hypothesis on the value of the parameter and the specification of the model. Hence an empty confidence interval can be interpreted as a rejection of the model. Most models are rejected by ICM, with the noticeable exceptions of Switzerland (SWT) and France (FR). ICM rejects much more often than AR and CH because it has power against many more nonlinear alternative specifications of the model.

We then focus on Switzerland (SWT), the only model that cannot be rejected by ICM and reveals an EIS that is significantly different from zero based on the ICM confidence interval, which is included in the CICM one. We re-estimate the model using an extended set of instruments that contains the first two powers of the 4 exogenous variables previously considered as well as their cross-products (for a total of 14 instruments). Estimation results are presented in Table 3. When the first-stage accounts for quadratic nonlinearities, a significant and negative EIS is obtained by RCLR, which is similar to ICM. This confirms the ability of our procedures to automatically account for nonlinearities in the reduced form.

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<sup>5</sup>The confidence intervals based on the TSLS are not robust to weak identification and are presented for comparison purposes only.



## 7.2 Mexico’s 16th-Century Demographic Collapse and The Hacienda

We extend some of the results presented in Sellars and Alix-Garcia (2018), who traced the impact of a large population collapse in 16th-century Mexico on land institutions through the present day. Such demographic collapse - which reduced the indigenous population by between 70 and 90 percent - is shown to have had a significant and persistent impact on Mexican land tenure and political economy by facilitating land concentration and the rise of a landowner class that dominated Mexican political economy for centuries. Because of measurement error and omitted variables concerns, the authors adopt an instrumental variables empirical strategy based on the characteristics of a massive epidemic in the mid-1570s, which is believed to have been caused by a rodent-transmitted pathogen that emerged after several years of drought were followed by a period of above-average rainfall. Accordingly, proxies for these climate conditions are used as instrumental variables. Sellars and Alix-Garcia (2018) rely on the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI), a normalized measure of soil moisture that captures deviations from typical conditions at a given location: their excluded instruments are (i) the sum of the 2 lowest consecutive PDSI values between 1570 and 1575 (more negative numbers indicate severe and prolonged drought), (ii) the maximum PDSI between 1576 and 1580 (as a measure of excess rainfall), and (iii) the difference between the former and the latter.<sup>6</sup>

We focus on the effect of the population collapse, which lowered the costs and increased the benefits of acquiring land from indigenous villages in many areas, on the relative size of the hacienda population. We consider the linear IV model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{2i} + \gamma' X_{1i} + u_i, \quad \mathbb{E}(u_i | X_{1i}, X_{2i}) = 0$$

where  $y_i$  is the inverse hyperbolic sine of the percent rural population living in hacienda communities in 1900,  $Y_{2i}$  is the population decline in municipality  $i$  measured as the ratio of 1650 and 1570 density,  $X_{2i}$  is the vector of the 3 climate instruments, and  $X_{1i}$  is a vector of 14 control variables of geographic features related to population and agriculture.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>We warmly thank the authors for providing us with their data. See their Sections 3 and 4 for a detailed description of the data and their identification strategy.

<sup>7</sup>These include the standard deviation of PDSI, a measure of maize productivity, various measures

We compute the 95% confidence intervals for the population decline parameter constructed from the 7 procedures considered earlier. Conformably to our model, the conditioning variables  $Z$  used for our procedures consist of all exogenous variables  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ . Our results presented in Panel A.1 of Table 4 correspond to the model estimated by Sellars and Alix-Garcia (2018, Table2, Column 6). The F-test statistic and adjusted  $R^2$  associated to the first-stage linear equation used by standard procedures are moderate, respectively 19.2 and 0.23. In terms of inference, results from CLR, RCLR, and CICM indicate a significant sizeable negative impact of the ratio of 1650 to 1570 density, that is a decrease in the ratio of 1650 to 1570 density increases the size of the hacienda population in 1900, in line with the results of Sellars and Alix-Garcia (2018). However the CICM confidence interval does not intersect with the CLR and RCLR intervals, and suggests a smaller but significant effect. Unfortunately, the model is rejected by ICM, AR, and CH, which suggests that the simplicity of such linear model may not be appropriate, that the instruments may not all be valid, or that the parameter values may be heterogenous over the population.

To mitigate concerns about the heterogeneity of the population, we first re-estimate the model over the subpopulation corresponding to the largest North-East region (NE), see Panel A.2 of Table 4. The first-stage F-statistic and  $R^2$  indicate much weaker identification on this subsample. The model is still rejected by ICM, AR, and CH. The CLR and RCLR inference procedures now yield confidence intervals that either contain zero or are substantially larger and do not overlap with the corresponding ones obtained over the whole population. It is also noteworthy to mention that the confidence regions of CLR and RCLR were almost identical over the whole population, but are very different over the NE subpopulation. This is in sharp contrast with CICM which still delivers a narrow confidence interval close to the one obtained over the whole population.

Second, we re-estimate the above model using only the most reliable of the three climate instruments, namely the drought-rainfall gap, as done in Table A11 of Sellars and Alix-Garcia (2018, Appendix A). Our results are reported in Panel B of Table 4, both on the whole population and the restricted population in region NE. The first-stage F-statistic and  $R^2$  indicate even weaker identification of the linear IV model. The model is still rejected by ICM, but not by AR or CH anymore, who both deliver confidence intervals of elevation and slope, as well as the log of tributary density in 1570 and governorship-level fixed effects. The inverse hyperbolic sine transformation can be interpreted similarly to a log transformation and is preferable for a variety of reasons, see Burbage, Magee, and Robb (1988).

regions that contain 0. For the whole population, CLR, RCLR, and CICM all indicate a significant and negative impact of population collapse on the size of the hacienda population, but the CICM confidence interval is much narrower and suggests a smaller but significant effect. All standard inference procedures, contrary to our ICM and CICM tests, yield very different inference when the model is estimated over the restricted subpopulation. In particular, AR, CLR, CH, and RCLR do not yield finite confidence intervals for the population decline parameter when applied over the restricted sample. The CICM confidence interval stays relatively stable and still allows to conclude to a significant negative effect.

Our last result exemplifies that tests that use linear projection may have little or no more than trivial power, which was our main motivation in looking for nonparametric inference methods. Overall, our empirical studies reveal two key features of the proposed procedures. The ICM test is powerful against a potentially nonlinear relationship between endogenous variable and instruments, and thus either allows to reject model specifications that are too simple, or to pin down a small confidence region, as is the case for Switzerland in our first empirical application. The CICM test often obtains narrow confidence intervals that can be much more informative than the ones available from procedures that assume a linear reduced form. These empirical findings, related to the theoretical features of our tests, illustrate the advantage of using inference procedures that rely on the instruments' exogeneity without specifying the form of the relationship between endogenous variable and instruments.

## 8 Proofs

### 8.1 Proof of Lemma 5.1

Let  $\Gamma = W - c_{1-\alpha}\widehat{\Omega}$  with elements  $\gamma_{i,j}$ ,  $i, j = 1, 2$ . The value of  $\beta_0$  belongs to the confidence set if and only if  $b'_0\Gamma b_0 = \gamma_{1,1} + 2\gamma_{1,2}\beta_0 + \gamma_{2,2}\beta_0^2 < 0$ . Let  $\Delta = \gamma_{1,2}^2 - \gamma_{1,1}\gamma_{2,2} = -\det \Gamma$ . There are 4 cases:

1. If  $\Delta > 0$  and  $\gamma_{2,2} > 0$ , the confidence set is  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$ , where

$$\beta_1 = \frac{-\gamma_{1,2} - \sqrt{\Delta}}{\gamma_{2,2}} \quad \beta_2 = \frac{-\gamma_{1,2} + \sqrt{\Delta}}{\gamma_{2,2}}.$$

2. If  $\Delta > 0$  and  $\gamma_{2,2} < 0$ , the confidence set is  $(-\infty, \beta_2) \cup (\beta_1, +\infty)$ .

3. If  $\Delta < 0$  and  $\gamma_{2,2} < 0$ , the confidence set is the whole real line.
4. If  $\Delta < 0$  and  $\gamma_{2,2} > 0$ , the confidence set is empty.

## 8.2 Proof of Theorem 5.2

To simplify exposition, we consider the case where  $\Omega$  is known and the statistics are based on  $S = Yb_0(b_0'\Omega b_0)^{-1/2}$  and  $T = Y\Omega^{-1}A_0(A_0'\Omega^{-1}A_0)^{-1/2}$ . It is easy to adapt our reasoning to account for a consistent estimator of  $\Omega$  using Assumption C-(iv). However, we do not assume that the conditional variance  $\Omega(\cdot)$  is known.

### 8.2.1 Uniform Convergence of Processes

The class of functions  $\{s'Z, s \in \mathbb{R}^k\}$  has Vapnik-Červonenkis dimension at most  $k+2$  and thus has bounded uniform entropy integral (BUEI), see van der Vaart and Wellner (2000). Since the functions  $t \rightarrow \cos(t)$  and  $t \rightarrow \sin(t)$  are bounded Lipschitz with derivatives bounded by 1, the class  $\{\cos(s'Z), \sin(s'Z), s \in \mathbb{R}^k\}$  is BUEI, see Kosorok (2008, Lemma 9.13). Hence

$$\sup_P \sup_s \left\| n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n C(Z_i) \exp(is'Z_i) - \mathbb{E} C(Z) \exp(is'Z) \right\| \xrightarrow{P} 0, \quad (8.13)$$

because  $\|\mathbb{E} C(Z)C'(Z)\|^2 < \infty$ . Since  $\mathbb{E} \|Y\|^{2+\delta} < \infty$ , we have by van der Vaart and Wellner (2000, Lemma 2.8.3) that

$$\begin{pmatrix} n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbb{E}(Y_i|Z_i)) \cos(s'Z_i) \\ n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbb{E}(Y_i|Z_i)) \sin(s'Z_i) \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{G}_1(s) \\ \mathbb{G}_2(s) \end{pmatrix},$$

uniformly in  $P \in \mathcal{P}$  where  $(\mathbb{G}'_1(\cdot), \mathbb{G}'_2(\cdot))$  is a vector Gaussian process with mean  $\mathbf{0}$ . Formally weak convergence uniform in  $P$  means that

$$\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} d_{BL}(\mathbb{G}_n, \mathbb{G}) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{where} \quad d_{BL}(\mathbb{G}_n, \mathbb{G}) = \sup_{f \in BL_1} |\mathbb{E} f(\mathbb{G}_n) - \mathbb{E} f(\mathbb{G})|$$

is the bounded Lipschitz metric, that is  $BL_1$  is the set of real functions bounded by 1 and whose Lipschitz constant is bounded by 1. This implies that

$$n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbb{E}(Y_i|Z_i)) \exp(is'Z_i) \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{G}(s) = \mathbb{G}_1(s) + i\mathbb{G}_2(s) \quad (8.14)$$

Since  $\Omega(\cdot)$  is a variance matrix with uniformly bounded elements, the functions  $a'\Omega(\cdot)b$  for  $\|a\|, \|b\| \leq M$ , and  $\Omega \in \mathcal{O}$  satisfies

$$|a'\Omega_1(\cdot)b - a'\Omega_2(\cdot)b| \leq \|a\|\|b\|\|\Omega_1 - \Omega_2\| \leq M^2\|\Omega_1 - \Omega_2\|.$$

From Assumption C and Kosorok (2008, Lemma 9.13), these functions forms a BUEI class. Consider now the class of functions  $\mathcal{B} = \{a'\Omega(\cdot)b/b'\Omega(\cdot)b, \|a\|, \|b\| \leq M, \Omega \in \mathcal{O}\}$ . Since the function  $\phi(f, g) = f/g$  is Lipschitz for  $f, g$  uniformly bounded and  $g$  uniformly bounded away from zero,  $\mathcal{B}$  is a BUEI class. Gathering results, for  $B \in \mathcal{B}$

$$\mathbb{G}_n(B, s) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n B(Z_i) (Y_i - \mathbb{E}(Y_i|Z_i)) \exp(is'Z_i) \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{G}(B, s), \quad (8.15)$$

converges uniformly in  $P \in \mathcal{P}$  to a centered Gaussian vector process. The joint uniform convergence of the processes in (8.14) and (8.15) follows.

The next step is to show that replacing  $\Omega$  by its estimator, or replacing  $B = a'\Omega b/b'\Omega b$  by  $\widehat{B} = a'\widehat{\Omega}b/b'\widehat{\Omega}b$ , does not change the uniform weak limit of the process. From Assumption C-(iii) and (iv), it is sufficient to show that

$$\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \Pr \left[ \sup_{m \geq n} \sup_s \|\mathbb{G}_m(\widehat{B}_m, s) - \mathbb{G}_m(B, s)\|_{\mathcal{B}} > \varepsilon \right] \rightarrow 0 \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0.$$

This follows as  $\mathbb{G}_n(B, s)$  is asymptotically equicontinuous uniformly in  $P$ , see van der Vaart and Wellner (2000, Theorem 2.8.2).

## 8.2.2 Notations and Preliminary Results

For vector complex-valued functions  $h_1(s)$  and  $h_2(s)$ , define the scalar product

$$\langle h_1, h_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \left( \int \left( \bar{h}_1'(s) h_2(s) + h_1'(s) \bar{h}_2(s) \right) d\mu(s) \right)$$

and the norm  $\|h_1\| = \langle h_1, h_1 \rangle^{1/2}$ . Denote

$$h_{\beta_0, S}(s) \equiv n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n S_i \exp(is'Z_i),$$

and note that  $\|h_{\beta_0, S}\|^2 = S'WS$ , so that we can write  $\text{ICM}(\beta_0) = \text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0, S}) = \|h_{\beta_0, S}\|^2$ . Let

$$h_{\beta_0, T}(s) \equiv n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n T_i \exp(is'Z_i).$$

From (3.9), write  $\text{CICM}(\beta_0)$  as of a function of  $h_{\beta_0, S}$  and  $h_{\beta_0, T}$

$$\text{CICM}(h_{\beta_0, S}, h_{\beta_0, T}) = \|h_{\beta_0, S}\|^2 - \min_{\|a\|=1} \|a_S h_{\beta_0, S} + a'_T h_{\beta_0, T}\|^2, \quad (8.16)$$

where  $a = (a_S, a'_T)'$ .

**Lemma 8.1** *Over the set  $\{h : \|h\| \leq C\}$ , (a)  $\text{ICM}(h)$  is bounded and Lipschitz continuous in  $h$ . (b)  $\text{CICM}(h, g)$  is bounded and Lipschitz continuous in  $(h, g)$ .*

**Proof.** (a) Boundedness is trivial. For Lipschitz continuity,

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{ICM}(h_1) - \text{ICM}(h_2)| &= \left| \|h_1\|^2 - \|h_2\|^2 \right| = |\langle h_1 - h_2, h_1 + h_2 \rangle| \\ &\leq \|h_1 - h_2\| \|h_1 + h_2\| \leq \|h_1 - h_2\| (\|h_1\| + \|h_2\|) \leq 2C \|h_1 - h_2\|. \end{aligned}$$

(b) Since  $0 \leq \text{CICM}(h, g) \leq \text{ICM}(h)$ , boundedness follows. Let  $a^* = (a_S^*, a_T^*)'$  be the value of  $a$  that optimizes (8.16). Let  $a_i^*, i = 1, 2$  be the value that optimizes  $\text{CICM}(h, g_i)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{CICM}(h, g_1) - \text{CICM}(h, g_2)| &= \left| \min_{\|a\|=1} \|a_S h + a_T' g_1\|^2 - \min_{\|a\|=1} \|a_S h + a_T' g_2\|^2 \right| \\ &\leq \max_{a \in \{a_1^*, a_2^*\}} \left| \|a_S h + a_T' g_1\|^2 - \|a_S h + a_T' g_2\|^2 \right| \\ &= \max_{a \in \{a_1^*, a_2^*\}} \left| \langle a_T' (g_1 - g_2), (g_1 + g_2)' a_T + 2h a_S \rangle \right| \\ &\leq \max_{a \in \{a_1^*, a_2^*\}} \|a_T' (g_1 - g_2)\| \| (g_1 + g_2)' a_T + 2h a_S \| \\ &\leq \|g_1 - g_2\| \max_{a \in \{a_1^*, a_2^*\}} \| (g_1 + g_2)' a_T + 2h a_S \|. \end{aligned}$$

By definition,  $\|h a_{1,S}^* + g_1' a_{1,T}^*\|^2 \leq \|h\|^2 \leq C^2$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} \| (g_1 + g_2)' a_{1,T}^* + 2h a_{1,S}^* \| &\leq 2 \|g_1 a_{1,T}^* + h a_{1,S}^*\| + \| (g_1 - g_2)' a_{1,T}^* \| \\ &\leq 2C + \|g_1 - g_2\|, \end{aligned}$$

A similar inequality holds true for  $a = a_2^*$ . Hence

$$|\text{CICM}(h, g_1) - \text{CICM}(h, g_2)| \leq \|g_1 - g_2\| (2C + \|g_1 - g_2\|).$$

If  $\|g_1 - g_2\| \leq 2C$ , this yields the upper bound  $4C\|g_1 - g_2\|$ , while if  $\|g_1 - g_2\| \geq 2C$ ,

$$|\text{CICM}(h, g_1) - \text{CICM}(h, g_2)| \leq 2C \leq \|g_1 - g_2\|.$$

These results show that  $\text{CICM}(h, g)$  is Lipschitz in  $g$  when  $\{h : \|h\| \leq C\}$ . Similarly, define now  $a_i^*, i = 1, 2$  as the value that optimizes  $\text{CICM}(h_i, g)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}
& |\text{CICM}(h_1, g) - \text{CICM}(h_2, g)| \\
&= \left| \|h_1\|^2 - \min_{\|a\|=1} \|a_S h + a'_T g_1\|^2 - \|h_2\|^2 + \min_{\|a\|=1} \|a_S h + a'_T g_2\|^2 \right| \\
&\leq \left| \|h_1\|^2 - \|h_2\|^2 \right| + \max_{a \in \{a_1^*, a_2^*\}} |\langle a_S (h_1 - h_2), a_S (h_1 + h_2) + 2g' a_T \rangle| \\
&\leq \langle h_1 - h_2, h_1 + h_2 \rangle + 2 \max_{a \in \{a_1^*, a_2^*\}} \|a_S (h_1 - h_2)\| \|a_S (h_1 + h_2) + 2g' a_T\| \\
&\leq 2\|h_1 - h_2\| \left( C + \max_{a \in \{a_1^*, a_2^*\}} \|a_S (h_1 + h_2) + 2g' a_T\| \right).
\end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned}
\|a_{1,S}^* (h_1 + h_2) + 2g' a_{1,T}^*\| &\leq 2\|a_{1,S}^* h_1 + g' a_{1,T}^*\| + \|a_{1,S}^* (h_1 - h_2)\| \\
&\leq 2C + \|h_1 - h_2\|,
\end{aligned}$$

and a similar inequality obtains for  $a = a_2^*$ ,

$$|\text{CICM}(h_1, g) - \text{CICM}(h_2, g)| \leq 2\|h_1 - h_2\| (3C + \|h_1 - h_2\|).$$

Reason as above to conclude that  $\text{CICM}(h, g)$  is Lipschitz in  $h$  when  $\{h : \|h\| \leq C\}$ . ■

**Lemma 8.2** *Under Assumption A, C-(ii), and D,*

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{\beta_0} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \Pr [\text{ICM}(\beta_0) > M] \rightarrow 0.$$

**Proof.** By definition

$$\text{ICM}(\beta_0) = S' W S = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n S_i^2 w(0) + n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j \neq i} S_i S_j w(Z_i - Z_j).$$

Hence, for some constants  $C, C', C'' > 0$  independent of  $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}$  and of  $\beta_0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr \left[ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n S_i^2 w(0) > M/2 \right] &\leq 2w(0) \frac{\mathbb{E} S_1^2}{M} \leq \frac{C}{M} \\
\Pr \left[ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j \neq i} S_i S_j w(Z_i - Z_j) > M/2 \right] &\leq 4C' \frac{\mathbb{E}^2(S_1^2)}{M^2} \leq \frac{C''}{M},
\end{aligned}$$

using the boundedness of  $w(\cdot)$  and Markov's inequality. ■

### 8.2.3 ICM

Let  $\mathcal{P}_{\beta_0} = \{P \in \mathcal{P} : \beta = \beta_0\}$ . From (8.14),

$$h_{\beta_0, S}(s) \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{G}_S(s), \quad (8.17)$$

uniformly in  $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}$  and in  $\beta_0$ , where  $\mathbb{G}_S(s)$  is a centered Gaussian process. Let  $\widehat{\Omega}_i = \widehat{\Omega}(Z_i)$  and  $\widehat{G}_i = (b'_0 \Omega b_0)^{-1/2} \left( b'_0 \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0 \right)^{1/2} \varepsilon_i$ , where the  $\varepsilon_i$  are independent standard Gaussian. From (8.15),

$$h_{\widehat{G}}(s) = n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{G}_i \exp(is'Z_i) \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{G}_S(s),$$

uniformly in  $P \in \mathcal{P}$ . We now follow the terminology of Kasy (2018) and say that  $h_{\beta_0, S}$  converges in distribution to  $h_{\widehat{G}}$  as

$$\sup_{\beta_0} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} d_{BL}(h_{\beta_0, S}, h_{\widehat{G}}) \rightarrow 0.$$

Let  $F(x) = \mathbb{I}[x < C_1] + \frac{C_2 - x}{C_2 - C_1} \mathbb{I}[C_1 \leq x \leq C_2]$  for some  $0 < C_1 < C_2$  and consider the continuous truncation of ICM( $h_S$ ) defined by  $\text{ICM}_F(h_S) = \text{ICM}(h_S)F(\|h_S\|)$ . Consider the conditional quantile of  $\text{ICM}_F$

$$c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h) = \inf \{c : \Pr[\text{ICM}_F(h) \leq c] \geq 1 - \alpha\}.$$

Lemma 8.1 ensures that  $\text{ICM}_F(h)$  is Lipschitz, and it follows that  $c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h)$  is also Lipschitz. Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \alpha &\leq \Pr[\text{ICM}_F(h_1) \leq c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h_1)] \\ &\leq \Pr[\text{ICM}_F(h_2) \leq c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h_1) + K\|h_1 - h_2\|], \end{aligned}$$

so that  $c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h_2) \leq c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h_1) + K\|h_1 - h_2\|$  for some constant  $K > 0$ . Inverting the role of  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  we get  $c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h_1) \leq c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h_2) + K\|h_1 - h_2\|$ , so  $c_{F, 1-\alpha}(h)$  is Lipschitz in  $h$ .

Assume now that the conclusion of Theorem 5.2 does not hold. Then there exists some  $\delta > 0$ , an infinitely increasing subsequence of sample sizes  $n_j$ , a sequence of probability measures  $P_{n_j} \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0, n_j}$  with corresponding sequence of  $\beta_{0, n_j}$  such that

$$\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0, n_j, S}) > c_{1-\alpha}(h_{\widehat{G}}) \right] > \alpha + 3\delta \quad \forall n_j.$$

Choose  $C_1$  such that

$$\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0, n_j, S}) \geq C_1 \right] < \delta,$$



which is possible from Lemma 8.2. Since for any  $\beta_0$

$$\Pr [\text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0,S}) > x] \leq \Pr [\text{ICM}_F(h_{\beta_0,S}) > x] + \Pr [\text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0,S}) \geq C_1]$$

and  $c_{F,1-\alpha}(h) \leq c_{1-\alpha}(h)$ ,

$$\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{ICM}_F(h_{\beta_0,n_j,S}) > c_{F,1-\alpha}(h_{\widehat{G}}) \right] > \alpha + 2\delta \quad \forall n_j.$$

But since  $\text{ICM}_F(h)$  is bounded and Lipschitz in  $h$ , by the uniform convergence of  $h_{\beta_0,S}$  to  $h_{\widehat{G}}$ ,

$$\sup_{\beta_0} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \sup_x \left| \Pr [\text{ICM}_F(h_{\beta_0,S}) > x] - \Pr [\text{ICM}_F(h_{\widehat{G}}) > x] \right| \rightarrow 0.$$

Therefore for  $n_j$  large enough

$$\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{ICM}_F(h_{\widehat{G}}) > c_{F,1-\alpha}(h_{\widehat{G}}) \right] \geq \alpha + \delta,$$

which contradicts the definition of  $c_{F,1-\alpha}(h_{\widehat{G}})$ .

## 8.2.4 CICM

Write now  $h_{\beta_0,T} = h_{\beta_0,\tilde{S}} + h_{\beta_0,R} = h_{\beta_0,\tilde{S}} + h_{\beta_0,U} + h_{\beta_0,E}$ , where

$$\tilde{S}_i = (A'_0 \Omega^{-1} A_0)^{-1/2} \frac{A'_0 \Omega^{-1} \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0}{b'_0 \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0} Y'_i b_0, \quad R_i = T_i - \tilde{S}_i, \quad E_i = \mathbb{E}(T_i | Z_i), \quad U_i = R_i - E_i.$$

From our previous results, we have joint uniform weak convergence of  $(h_{\beta_0,S}, h_{\beta_0,\tilde{S}}, h_{\beta_0,U})$  to a Gaussian complex process, with zero asymptotic covariance between  $(h_{\beta_0,S}, h_{\beta_0,\tilde{S}})$  and  $h_{\beta_0,U}$ . Moreover

$$n^{-1/2} D_n h_{\beta_0,E}(s) = (A'_0 \Omega^{-1} A_0)^{-1/2} \left[ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n A'_0 \Omega^{-1} C(Z_i) \exp(is' Z_i) \right]$$

$$\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \|n^{-1/2} D_n h_{\beta_0,E}(s) - L(\beta_0, s)\|_{\infty} \xrightarrow{as} 0$$

$$\text{with } L(\beta_0, s) = (A'_0 \Omega^{-1} A_0)^{-1/2} \mathbb{E} (A_0 \Omega^{-1} C(Z) \exp(is' Z)) ,$$

by (8.14). Let

$$\tilde{G}_i = \left( A'_0 \widehat{\Omega}^{-1} A_0 \right)^{-1/2} \frac{A'_0 \Omega^{-1} \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0}{b'_0 \widehat{\Omega}_i b_0} \varepsilon_j,$$

where the  $\varepsilon_j$  are independent standard normal. Then  $(h_{\widehat{G}}, h_{\tilde{G}}, h_{\beta_0,U}, n^{-1/2} D_n h_{\beta_0,E})$  has the same joint uniform weak limit as  $(h_{\beta_0,S}, h_{\beta_0,\tilde{S}}, h_{\beta_0,U}, n^{-1/2} D_n h_{\beta_0,E})$ . Moreover the components of  $n^{-1/2} D_n$  have their limits in  $\mathbb{R}_+^l \cup +\infty$ .

Consider the continuous truncation of  $\text{CICM}(h_S, h_T)$  defined by

$$\text{CICM}_F(h_S, h_T) = \text{CICM}(h_S, h_T)F(\|h_S\|),$$

and the conditional quantile of  $\text{CICM}_F$

$$c_{F,1-\alpha}(h, g) = \inf \{c : \Pr[\text{ICM}_F(h, g) \leq c] \geq 1 - \alpha\}.$$

Lemma 8.1 ensures that  $\text{CICM}_F(h, g)$  is bounded and Lipschitz in  $h$  and  $g$ , and it follows that  $c_{F,1-\alpha}(h, g)$  is also Lipschitz.

Assume now that the conclusion of Theorem 5.2 does not hold. Then there exists some  $\delta > 0$ , an infinitely increasing subsequence of sample sizes  $n_j$ , and a sequence of probability measures  $P_{n_j} \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0, n_j}$  such that

$$\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{CICM}(h_{\beta_0, n_j, S}, h_{\beta_0, n_j, \tilde{S}} + h_{\beta_0, n_j, R}) > c_{1-\alpha}(h_{\tilde{G}}, h_{\tilde{G}} + h_{\beta_0, n_j, R}) \right] > \alpha + 3\delta \quad \forall n_j.$$

Choose  $C_1$  such that  $\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0, n_j, S}) \geq C_1 \right] < \delta$ . Since for any  $\beta_0$

$$\Pr[\text{CICM}(h_{\beta_0, S}, h_{\beta_0, T}) > x] \leq \Pr[\text{CICM}_F(h_{\beta_0, S}, h_{\beta_0, T}) > x] + \Pr[\text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0, S}) \geq C_1]$$

and  $c_{F,1-\alpha}(h_{\beta_0, S}, h_{\beta_0, T}) \leq c_{1-\alpha}(h_{\beta_0, S}, h_{\beta_0, T})$  for all  $h, g$  and  $\beta_0$ ,

$$\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{CICM}(h_{\beta_0, n_j, S}, h_{\beta_0, n_j, \tilde{S}} + h_{\beta_0, n_j, R}) > c_{F,1-\alpha}(h_{\tilde{G}}, h_{\tilde{G}} + h_{\beta_0, n_j, R}) \right] > \alpha + 2\delta \quad \forall n_j.$$

Because  $\text{CICM}_F(h, g + h_R)$  is bounded and Lipschitz in  $(h, g)$  from Lemma 8.1,

$$\sup_{\beta_0} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \sup_x \left| \Pr \left[ \text{CICM}(h_{\beta_0, S}, h_{\beta_0, \tilde{S}} + h_{\beta_0, R}) > x \right] - \Pr \left[ \text{CICM}(h_{\beta_0, \tilde{G}}, h_{\beta_0, \tilde{G}} + h_{\beta_0, R}) > x \right] \right| \rightarrow 0.$$

Therefore for  $n_j$  large enough

$$\Pr_{n_j} \left[ \text{CICM}(h_{\tilde{G}}, h_{\tilde{G}} + h_{\beta_0, n_j, R}) > c_{F,1-\alpha}(h_{\tilde{G}}, h_{\tilde{G}} + h_{\beta_0, n_j, R}) \right] \geq \alpha + \delta,$$

which contradicts the definition of the quantile.

### Proof of Theorem 5.3

Write

$$\text{ICM}(\beta_1) = a' \begin{bmatrix} S' \\ T' \end{bmatrix} W[S, T] a,$$

with  $a = (a_1 a_2)' = Q b_1 (b_1' \Omega b_1)^{-1/2}$  and

$$Q = \left[ (b_0' \Omega b_0)^{-1/2} b_0' \Omega \quad (A_0' \Omega^{-1} A_0)^{-1/2} A_0' \right].$$

Since  $\beta_1 \neq \beta_0$ ,  $a_2 \neq 0$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ICM}(\beta_1) - \text{ICM}(\beta_0) &= (a_1^2 - 1) S' W S + a_2' T' W T a_2 + 2 a_1 a_2' T' W S \\ &= (a_1^2 - 1) \|h_S\|^2 + 2 \langle a_1 h_{\beta_0, S}, a_2' h_{\beta_0, T} \rangle + \|a_2' h_{\beta_0, T}\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

From our previous results,  $\|h_{\beta_0, S}\|$  is uniformly bounded,  $\|\tilde{c}_n^{-1} h_{\beta_0, T}(s) - \tilde{c}_n^{-1} h_{\beta_0, E}(s)\|_\infty \xrightarrow{as} 0$  as  $\tilde{c}_n \rightarrow \infty$ , and

$$\|\tilde{c}_n^{-1} h_{\beta_0, E}(s) - (A_0' \Omega^{-1} A_0)^{-1/2} \mathbb{E} (A_0 \Omega^{-1} C(Z) \exp(is' Z))\|_\infty \xrightarrow{as} 0$$

uniformly in  $P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{c}_n^{-2} (\text{ICM}(\beta_1) - \text{ICM}(\beta_0)) &= \tilde{c}_n^{-2} \|a_2' h_{\beta_0, E}\|^2 + o_p(1) \\ &\xrightarrow{as} a_2' (A_0' \Omega^{-1} A_0)^{-1/2} A_0 \Omega^{-1} \mathbb{E} [C(Z_1) C(Z_2) w(Z_1 - Z_2)] \\ &\quad \Omega^{-1} A_0 (A_0' \Omega^{-1} A_0)^{-1/2} a_2. \end{aligned}$$

By the arguments of Bierens (1982, Theorem 1), this is a positive definite matrix since

$$a' \mathbb{E} (C(Z_1) C(Z_2) w(Z_1 - Z_2)) a \Rightarrow a = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{or} \quad C(Z) = \mathbf{0},$$

but the last conclusion would contradict Assumption E. Then

$$\lim_{\tilde{c}_n \rightarrow n} \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}} \Pr [\text{ICM}(\beta_1) - \text{ICM}(\beta_0) > M] \rightarrow 1 \quad \forall M > 0. \quad (8.18)$$

Assume now that the conclusion of Theorem 5.3 does not hold. Then there exists some  $\delta > 0$ , an infinitely increasing subsequence of sample sizes  $n_j$ , a sequence of probability measures  $P_{n_j} \in \mathcal{P}_{\beta_0}$  and a corresponding sequence  $\tilde{c}_{n_j}$  such that

$$\Pr_{n_j} [\text{ICM}(\beta_1) < c_{1-\alpha}(h_{\hat{G}})] > \delta \quad \forall n_j.$$

Then

$$\Pr_{n_j} [\text{ICM}(\beta_1) - \text{ICM}(\beta_0) < c_{1-\alpha}(h_{\hat{G}}) - \text{ICM}(\beta_0)] > \delta \quad \forall n_j.$$

But  $\text{ICM}(h_{\beta_0, S})$  is uniformly bounded in probability by Lemma 8.2 and so is the critical value  $c_{1-\alpha}(h_{\hat{G}})$ , and this contradicts (8.18).

For CICM, we can apply a similar reasoning because  $\text{ICM}(\beta_1) - \text{ICM}(\beta_0) = \text{CICM}(\beta_1) - \text{CICM}(\beta_0)$ ,  $0 \leq \text{CICM}(\beta_0) \leq \text{ICM}(\beta_0)$  is uniformly bounded, and thus its critical value is uniformly bounded as well.

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	AR	K	CLR	CH	RCLR	ICM	CICM
<b>Polynomial Model (i)</b>							
Benchmark	0.1874	0.1874	0.1850	0.1168	0.1148	0.0844	0.1068
Homoskedastic	0.1104	0.1104	0.1112	0.1180	0.1152	0.0644	0.1024
Sample size 401	0.1672	0.1672	0.1678	0.0998	0.0986	0.0624	0.0888
3 IV	0.1426	0.0646	0.0854	0.1484	0.1442	0.0844	0.1068
7 IV	0.1030	0.1116	0.1130	0.2966	0.2658	0.0844	0.1068
3 IV and sample size 401	0.1216	0.0550	0.0662	0.0982	0.1078	0.0624	0.0888
<b>Linear Model (ii)</b>							
Benchmark	0.1874	0.1874	0.1850	0.1168	0.1148	0.0844	0.1302
Homoskedastic	0.1104	0.1104	0.1112	0.1180	0.1152	0.0644	0.1120
3 IV	0.1426	0.1784	0.1766	0.1484	0.1522	0.0844	0.1302
7 IV	0.1030	0.1744	0.1668	0.2966	0.2370	0.0844	0.1302
Stronger identif.	0.1874	0.1874	0.1850	0.1168	0.1148	0.0844	0.1334
No identif.	0.1874	0.1874	0.1850	0.1168	0.1148	0.0844	0.1002
<b>Group Heterogeneity Model (iii)</b>							
Benchmark	0.1854	0.1504	0.1758	0.1188	0.2806	0.1004	0.1050
7 IV	0.1354	0.0728	0.0978	0.1606	0.1866	0.1004	0.1050
15 IV	0.1110	0.1208	0.1200	0.3684	0.3260	0.1004	0.1050

Table 1: Empirical sizes associated with the 7 inference procedures for the three models and their different variations considered in Section 6 for a theoretical 10% level.



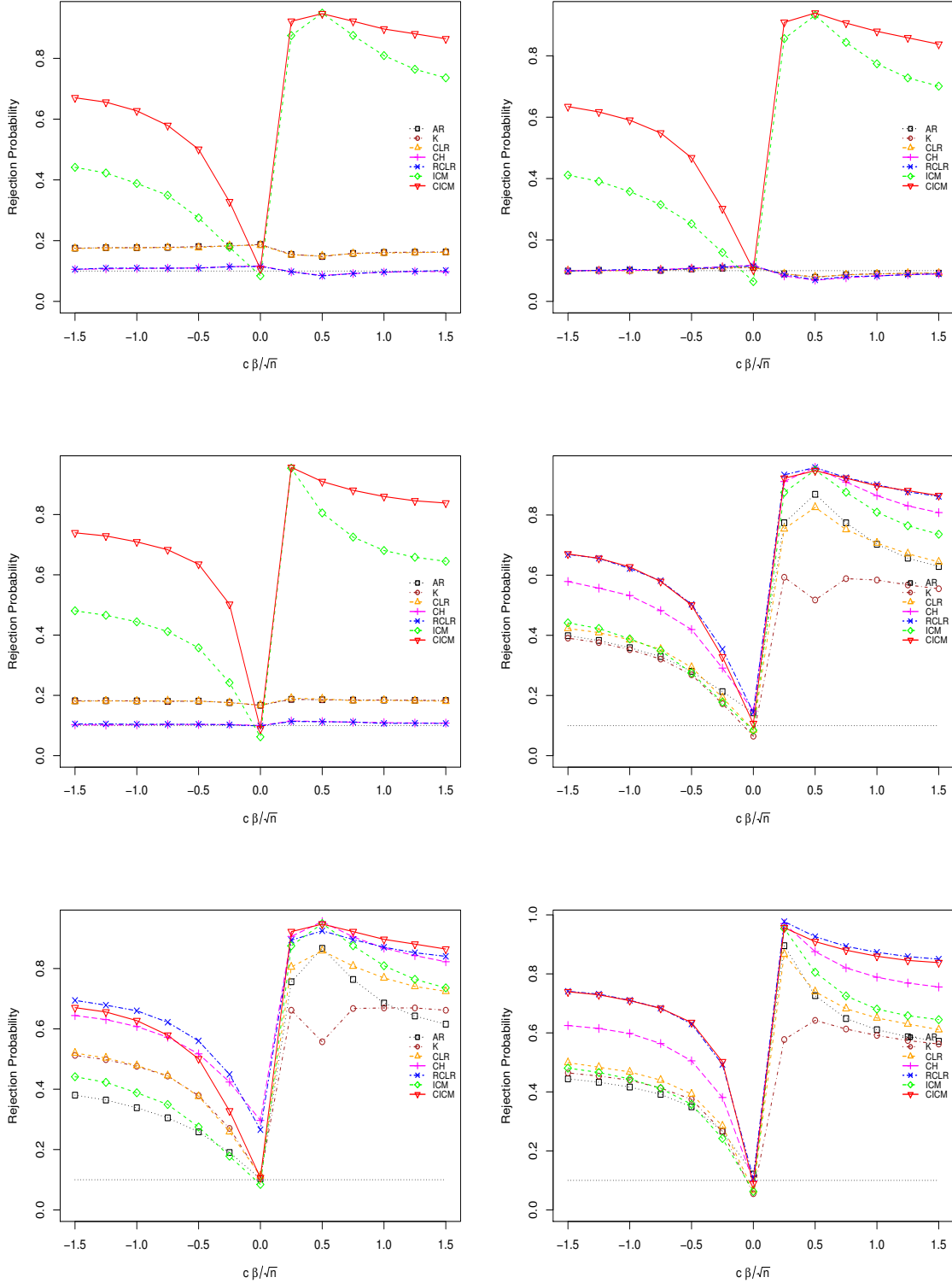


Figure 1: Power curves for Polynomial Model (i): benchmark (top left), homoskedastic case (top right), sample size 401 (middle left), 3 IV (middle right), 7 IV (bottom left) and 3 IV with sample size 401 (bottom right).

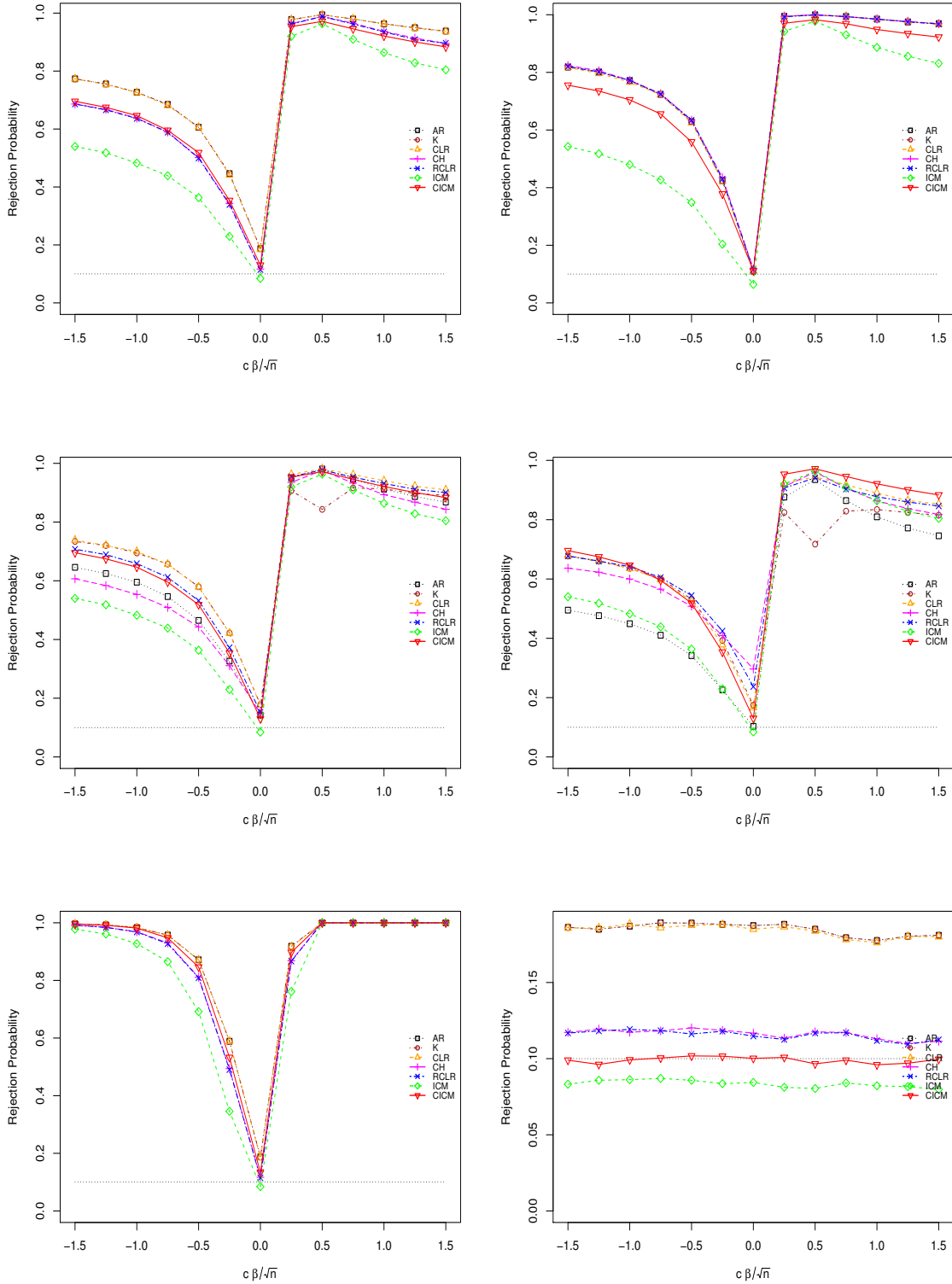


Figure 2: Power curves for Linear Model (i): benchmark (top left), homoskedastic case (top right), 3 IV (middle left), 7 IV (middle right), stronger identification (bottom left) and no identification (bottom right).

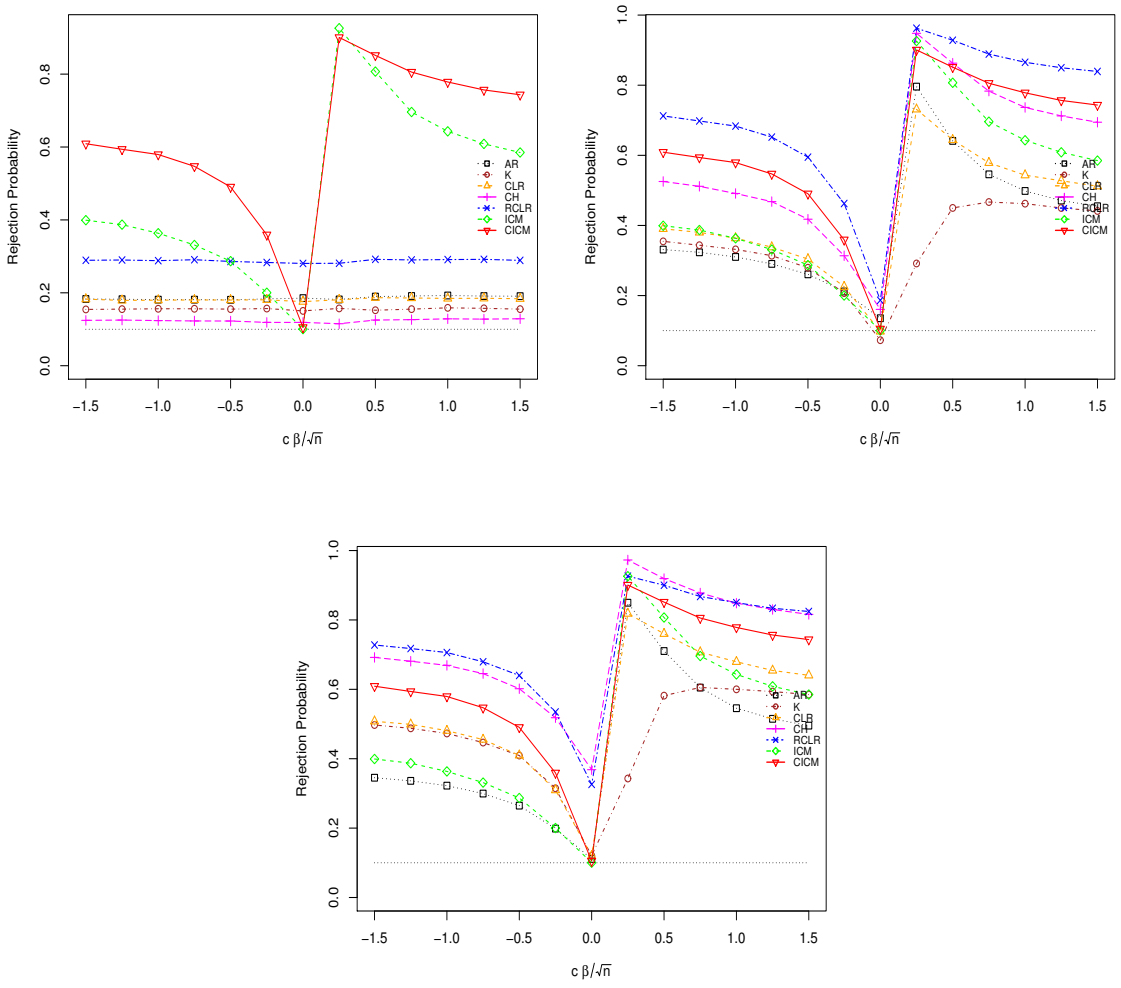


Figure 3: Power curves for Group Heterogeneity Model (ii): benchmark (top left), 7 IV (top right), and 15 IV (bottom).

Country	AR	CLR	CH	RCLR	ICM	CICM	TSLs
USA (long)	$\emptyset$	[-0.20, 0.21]	[-0.25, -0.01]	[-0.77, 0.16]	$\emptyset$	[0.10, 0.31]	[-0.12, 0.23]
AUL	[-0.16, 0.22]	[-0.21, 0.27]	[-0.11, 0.22]	[-0.17, 0.28]	$\emptyset$	[-0.21, 0.11]	[-0.18, 0.27]
CAN	[-0.57, -0.12]	[-0.71, -0.00]	[-0.56, -0.16]	[-0.83, 0.09]	$\emptyset$	[-0.50, 0.01]	[-0.62, 0.01]
FR	[-0.70, 0.53]	[-0.48, 0.30]	[-0.57, 0.31]	[-0.40, 0.16]	[-0.73, 0.60]	[-0.32, 0.26]	[-0.47, 0.28]
GER	[-1.80, 0.26]	[-1.49, 0.04]	[-1.73, 0.66]	[-1.40, 0.33]	$\emptyset$	[-1.01, 0.23]	[-1.34, 0.07]
ITA	[-0.30, 0.19]	[-0.24, 0.11]	[-0.30, 0.19]	[-0.24, 0.11]	$\emptyset$	[-0.25, -0.00]	[-0.23, 0.09]
JAP	[-0.64, 0.43]	[-0.60, 0.40]	[-0.88, 0.25]	[-0.77, 0.20]	$\emptyset$	[-0.42, 0.36]	[-0.48, 0.34]
NTH	[-0.96, 0.69]	[-0.78, 0.50]	$\emptyset$	[-0.55, 0.22]	$\emptyset$	[-0.57, 0.19]	[-0.71, 0.41]
SWD	[-0.30, 0.25]	[-0.22, 0.17]	[-0.27, 0.26]	[-0.21, 0.20]	$\emptyset$	[-0.35, 0.12]	[-0.20, 0.16]
SWT	[-1.77, 0.35]	[-1.26, 0.06]	[-1.34, 0.26]	[-1.04, 0.05]	[-0.84, -0.15]	[-1.21, 0.05]	[-1.03, 0.05]
UK	[0.02, 0.30]	[-0.11, 0.43]	[0.20, 0.27]	[-0.69, 0.45]	$\emptyset$	[-0.12, 0.23]	[-0.08, 0.41]
USA (short)	$\emptyset$	[-0.22, 0.23]	$\emptyset$	[-0.24, 0.12]	$\emptyset$	[0.02, 0.27]	[-0.12, 0.24]

Table 2: 95%- confidence interval for the EIS. The regions for TSLs, AR, and CLR are obtained using the R package `ivmodel`, see Jiang et al. (2017). Other regions are obtained with a grid of size 401 and 4,999 simulations.

ICM	[-0.838, -0.148]
CICM	[-1.205, 0.048]
<i>Inference procedures using the original set of 4 instruments, Z1</i>	
TSLS	[-1.030, 0.050]
AR	[-1.767, 0.348]
CLR	[-1.256, 0.057]
CH	[-1.333, 0.258]
RCLR	[-1.055, 0.048]
<i>Inference procedures using the extended set of 14 instruments, Z2</i>	
TSLS	[-0.81, 0.09]
AR	[-1.734, 0.596]
CLR	[-1.09, 0.17]
CH	[-0.942, 0.085]
RCLR	[-0.680, -0.148]

Table 3: 95%-confidence interval for the EIS for Switzerland (SWT) with 91 quarterly observations from 1976Q2 to 1998Q4. The regions for TSLS, AR, and CLR are obtained using the R package `ivmodel`, see Jiang et al. (2017). Other regions are obtained with a grid of size 401 and 4,999 simulations.  $Z1$  includes the nominal interest rate, inflation, consumption growth, and log dividend price-ratio, each lagged twice.  $Z2$  includes the first two powers of the previously listed instruments as well as cross-products.

<b>Panel A: 3 climate instruments</b>			
<i>A.1 Whole Population</i>			
ICM	$\emptyset$		
CICM	$[-0.49, -0.33]$		
TSLS	$[-1.21, -0.58]$		
AR	$\emptyset$	F-stat	19.22
CLR	$[-1.52, -0.78]$	Adj. $R^2$	0.23
CH	$\emptyset$		
RCLR	$[-1.48, -0.64]$		
<i>A.2 North-East Subsample</i>			
ICM	$\emptyset$		
CICM	$[-0.49, -0.23]$		
TSLS	$[-1.16, 0.18]$		
AR	$\emptyset$	F-stat	5.27
CLR	$[-38.26, -2.01]$	Adj. $R^2$	0.08
CH	$\emptyset$		
RCLR	$(-\infty, -7.30] \cup [42.86, \infty)$		
<b>Panel B: 1 climate instrument</b>			
<i>B.1 Whole Population</i>			
ICM	$\emptyset$		
CICM	$[-0.40, -0.15]$		
TSLS	$[-2.00, -0.55]$		
AR	$[-4.53, 0.34]$	F-stat	4.25
CLR	$[-2.25, -0.54]$	Adj. $R^2$	0.05
CH	$(-\infty, -0.005]$		
RCLR	$[-2.28, -0.65]$		
<i>B.2 North-East Subsample</i>			
ICM	$\emptyset$		
CICM	$[-0.56, -0.17]$		
TSLS	$[-2.02, 0.82]$		
AR	$\mathbb{R}$	F-stat	1.18
CLR	$\mathbb{R}$	Adj. $R^2$	0.02
CH	$\mathbb{R}$		
RCLR	$\mathbb{R}$		

Table 4: 95% Confidence Intervals for the population collapse, using either the 3 climate instruments (Panel A), or only 1 climate instrument (Panel B), over the full sample of size equal to 1030 (whole population) and the restricted sample of size 780 in the North-East region (North-East subsample). The regions for TSLS, AR, and CLR are obtained using the R package `ivmodel`, see Jiang et al. (2017). Other regions are obtained with a grid of increment 0.01 and 499 simulations.