Linear Regression III: Quantile Estimation

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A brief refresher on OLS (and GMM)

- Recall that OLS is the "least-squares" method it can be defined as the method that minimizes the sum of squared "errors"
 - These errors are the residuals from say, our linear model:

$$E(y_i|x_i) = x_i\beta, \qquad \hat{\beta}_{ls} = \arg\min_{\beta} \sum_i (y_i - x_i\beta)^2 = \arg\min_{\beta} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

- No surprise – the least squares method is finding the "least" of the squares. In particular, we can use calculus to get our analytic solution, since we're trying to minimize an objective function:

$$-\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta})=\mathbf{0} \qquad -\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}+\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}=\mathbf{0} \qquad \hat{\beta}=(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

- The least squares does a lot of work for us by creating a nice objective function
 - Beyond that, what does a quadratic obj. function do?

A brief refresher on OLS (and GMM)

- Key features of OLS:
 - Squared loss function leads to heavily penalization from big outliers
 - Local approximation to the conditional expectation function OLS finds the closest linear fit to the CEF
 - In context of treatment effects, gives us approximation to the ATE
- Most important feature of OLS for today: it characterizes features of the mean of our outcome variable, conditional on covariates (e.g. treatments)
 - What if we care about other things?
 - What are some properties of means that are problematic?
 - Very sensitive to outliers!

Quantiles - some definitions

- First, recall that for any r.v. *X* we can define its CDF and inverse CDF:

$$F(x) = Pr(X \le x), \qquad F^{-1}(\tau) = \inf\{x : F(x) \ge \tau\}$$

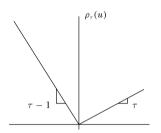
- The infimum deals with ties
- $\tau = 0.5$ is the median!
- Consider now the following loss function:

$$\rho_{\tau}(u) = u\tau \mathbf{1}(u > 0) + u(\tau - 1)\mathbf{1}(u < 0) = u(\tau - \mathbf{1}(u < 0))$$

-
$$\tau = 0.5 \longrightarrow
ho_{ au}(u) = 0.5 |u|$$

- We can talk about expected loss (a la OLS):

$$E(\rho_{\tau}(\boldsymbol{X}-\hat{\mu})) = \tau \int_{\hat{\mu}}^{\infty} (\boldsymbol{x}-\hat{\mu}) d\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1-\tau) \int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\mu}} (\boldsymbol{x}-\hat{\mu}) d\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{x})$$



Quantiles as solutions

$$\begin{split} E(\rho_{\tau}(X-\hat{\mu})) &= \tau \int_{\hat{\mu}}^{\infty} (x-\hat{\mu}) dF(x) + (1-\tau) \int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\mu}} (x-\hat{\mu}) dF(x) \\ &\to \hat{\mu} = F^{-1}(\tau) \end{split}$$

- This problem naturally lends itself to generalization. Let $Q_{\tau}(Y|X) \equiv \inf\{y : F_Y(y|X) \ge \tau\}$ be the conditional quantile function, analogous to the conditional expectation function
- This function minimizes the ρ_{τ} distance between some function of *X* and *Y*:

$$\mathcal{Q}_{\tau}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{X})} E(
ho_{\tau}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{q}(\mathbf{X})))$$

- Just as we denoted approximated the conditional expectation function with a linear model, we can approximate the $Q_{\tau}(Y|X)$ with a linear model!

Quantiles as solutions

- Consider now our linear model minimizer:

$$eta(au)\equivrg\min_eta m{ extsf{E}}(
ho_ au(m{ extsf{Y}}-m{ extsf{X}}'m{eta}))$$

- This is the best linear predictor under the ho loss function
 - But how does it map to the true $Q_{\tau}(Y|X)$?
- Key result from Angrist et al. (2006): this linear model is the weighted least squares approximation to the unknown CQF

$$\beta(\tau) = \arg\min_{\beta} E\left[w_{\tau}(X,\beta) \Delta_{\tau}^2(X,\beta) \right], \qquad \Delta_{\tau}(X,\beta) = X'\beta - Q_{\tau}(Y|X),$$

where the w_{τ} are *importance* weights, and average over the difference between the true CQF and the linear approximation.

How is it solved?

- Unlike OLS, there is no direct analytic solution for $\beta(\tau)$
 - This implies that the problem needs to be solved numerically
- Key insight: you can redefine the minimization problem of

$$\hat{eta}(au) = rgmin_{eta}\sum_{i=1}^n
ho_{ au}(Y_i - Xeta)$$

as a linear programming problem.

- We're not going to get into the details of this others have suffered for us
 - See Chapter 6 of Koenker (2005) or appendix of Koenker and Bassett (1978)

Variance properties

- Let's walk through thinking about the variance of a quantile. Let $\xi_{\tau} = F^{-1}(\tau)$, with density $f(\xi)$
 - E.g. this is a quantile estimate
 - How can we talk about its limiting properties?
- Key trick: as we move around our estimate of ξ_{τ} , we can think about the contribution that this has to our objective function (e.g. the gradient):

$$g_n(\xi) = n^{-1} \sum_i 1(Y_i < \xi) - \tau)$$

- As a result, you can think about the variability in our estimate coming from a series of coinflips on whether the data point is above or below the quantile estimate
 - Convergence of the estimate is implied by the convergence of the empirical CDF to the true CDF
 - Normality is a side benefit, and under iid data:

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\xi}_{\tau} - \xi_{\tau}) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \tau(\mathbf{1} - \tau)f^{-2}(\xi_{\tau}))$$

Variance properties

- The non-i.i.d. error form of the limiting distribution for $\hat{\beta}(\tau)$ is familiar:

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}(\tau) - \beta(\tau)) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, \tau(1-\tau)H_n^{-1}J_nH_n^{-1})$$
$$J_n(\tau) = n^{-1}\sum_i x'_i x_i$$
$$H_n(\tau) = n^{-1}\sum_i x'_i x_i f_i(\xi_i(\tau))$$

- The asymptotic variance of the estimator relies on knowledge of the density function
- That makes it harder (and slower!) to compute
- $\tau(1 \tau)$ is smaller in the tails, but f_i is poorly estimated there, which tends to dominate.

Properties of Quantile Regressions (and sometimes OLS)

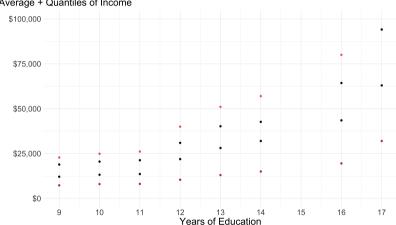
Equivariance (Koenker and Basset (1978) Consider a linear model $y = x\beta + epsilon$

- 1. Scale equivariance:
 - scaling y by some constant a implies that $\hat{eta} o a \hat{eta}$
- 2. Shift equivariance
 - adding to y some amount X γ implies that $\hat{eta}
 ightarrow \hat{eta} + X \gamma$
- 3. equivariance to reparametrization of design
 - Linear combinations of regressors leads to linear combinations of coefficients
- 4. equivariance to monotone transformations
 - Let $h(\cdot)$ be monotone function
 - $Q_{h(Y)}(\tau) = h(Q_Y(\tau))$
 - E.g. the median of log(Y) is the log of the median of Y!
 - Something OLS does not have
- 5. The influence function of quantile regression is *bounded* with respect to y
 - This is not the case for OLS (outliers can have unlimited influence)

Practically, why are these properties useful?

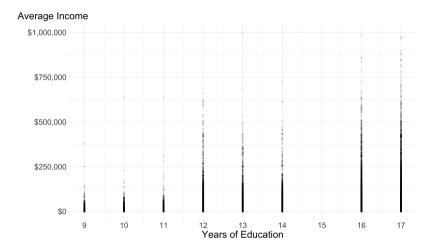
- Skewed variables- no more worrying about logs or outliers in the outcome variable
- Censoring in many datasets, our outcome variables are top-coded or bottom-coded
 - Note that given the influence function results, this is not a problem we can still identify (some) of the quantile functions
- Let's look at an example

- Education + Income gradient
- Clear heteroskedasticity

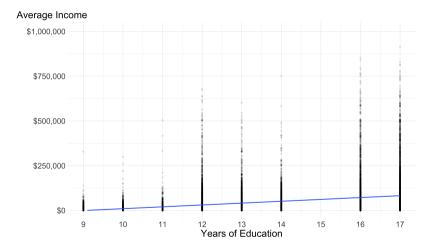


Average + Quantiles of Income

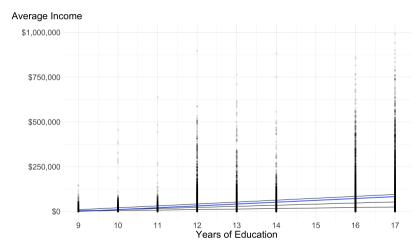
- Education + Income gradient
- Clear heteroskedasticity
- Very wide variance, especially at high education



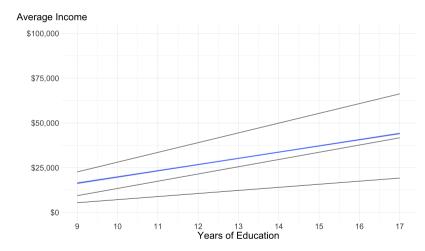
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Interpreting Quantile Coefficients

- There are some very nice features of this setup.
 - Very robust
- However, interpreting these coefficients from a structural model standpoint is challenging
 - Even Koenker's book punts on this issue instead pointing out that the OLS interpretions are probably wrong!
- Why is it so hard? Let's dig into this.

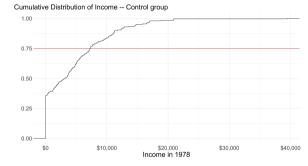
- Consider a binary treatment variable *D_i* in fact, let's use the NSW program from Lalonde
- Consider the very simple OLS verison testing this model using the experimental data:

 $y_i = \alpha + D_i\beta + \epsilon_i$

- Recall that this will estimate our ATE for the treatment
- What is the interpretation of this affect?
 - E(Y_i(1)) E(Y_i(0)) in other words, the expected change in the outcome for a person moving from untreated to treated
 - That's a useful metric!

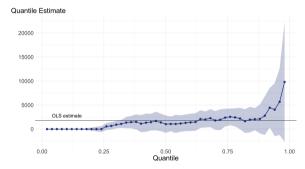
Estimate	Point Est.	SE
βols	1794.3	(632.9)

- Now consider if I did quantile regression instead? What is that doing?
- Previously, we were comparing means of the two distributions – e.g. Y(1) and Y(0). We did not need to specify anything about the joint distribution of Y(1), Y(0)
- Why does this matter?
 - Consider a person sitting in the control group at the 75 percentile e.g. *Y*_{0.75}(0)
 - What is their relevant treatment effect?



- Types of treatment effects can focus on verisons:
 - 1. Just comparing parts of the *distribution*: $q_{1,\tau} q_{0,\tau}$ (e.g. Firpo (2005))
 - 2. Assume rank invariance e.g. that individuals' rank in the distribution does not change in moving from control to treatment (e.g. Chernozhukov and Hansen (2005))
- The second approach is very strong, and gets you a lot of mileage (e.g. extremely useful for IVQR)
- The first approach requires weaker assumptions, but then we cannot say anything about what the effect of a policy is on a person in a given part of the distribution.
 - Instead, our policy takeaways are integrated over changes in the full shape

- Now we can look at the effect of NSW across the distributions
- Remarkably homogeneous
- 20% of distributions had zero income, so degenerate effects. However, can trace out distributional effects for large groups



- How does this compare efficiency-wise?
- Much noisier compare median, 75th percentile and 95th
- Important to be holistic about estimates in this setting; b/c of joint estimation problem of density and quantiles, different quantiles can be better estimated

Estimate	Point Est.	SE
βols	1794.3	(632.9)
$\beta_{0.5}$	1038.3	(872.3)
$\beta_{0.75}$	2342.5	(893.4)
$\beta_{0.95}$	2992.2	(2973.0)

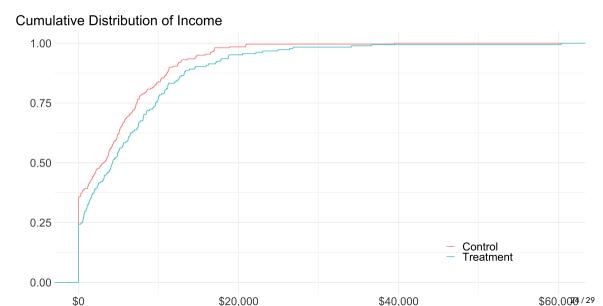
A result from Firpo (2005)

- An analagous IPW estimator which we used for efficient estimation of ATE can be used for estimating QTE: $\beta_{\tau} = \hat{q}_{1,\tau} - \hat{q}_{0,\tau}$

$$\hat{q}_{j,\tau} = \arg\min_{q} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\omega}_{j,i} \rho_{\tau}(Y_i - q), \qquad \hat{\omega}_{1,i} = \frac{T_i}{n \hat{p}(X_i)} \qquad \hat{\omega}_{0,i} = \frac{1 - T_i}{n(1 - \hat{p}(X_i))}$$

- Indeed, this estimator is the best semiparametric estimator (Firpo (2005))
- Note that this follows the same procedure as with the ATE using IPW to identify the quantiles of each underyling distribution

Comparing distributions



Last example

- Ok so what? While estimating the range of effects is interesting, it is
 - noisier
 - challenging to interpret in an intuitive way
- However, if you have underyling theory that has implications for distribution, quantile regression is the empirical approach for you
- A nice paper highlighting this point: Bitler, Gelbach and Hoynes (2006)

Bitler, Gelbach and Hoynes (2006)

- Comparing the "Jobs First" and AFDC programs in CT
- Key difference between programs was significantly more generous tax treatment in Jobs First (shifting budget line out)
- How does implementation of policy affect income?
- Implications:
 - 1. Very bottom earners will have no effect
 - 2. Very top is zero or negative
 - 3. In between, JF should have positive effect

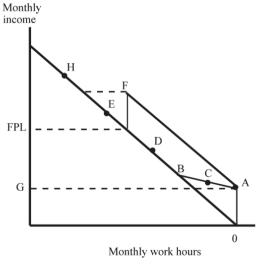
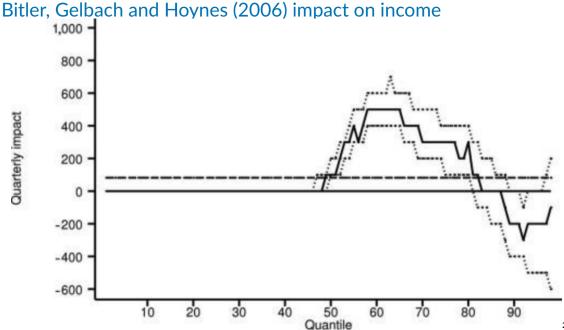


FIGURE 1. STYLIZED CONNECTICUT BUDGET CONSTRAINT UNDER AFDC AND JOBS FIRST



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The Upsides of Quantile Regression

- Allows you to characterize the distribution
 - When considering welfare, can be very useful
 - This can be important for more complicated models
 - We will revisit when considering hierarchical models
- Robust to:
 - issues of functional form (e.g. log)
 - censoring/truncation
 - outliers
- Worth using in your toolkit along with OLS in many applications
 - Easy to plug in
 - qreg in Stata and quantreg in R

Issues with Quantile Regression

- Not that fast- linear programming problem and standard errors
- Not additively combinable. E.g., if $Y = Y_1 + Y_2$, not possible to decompose and have the effects be comparable.
 - This can create issues with fixed effects
- Can be challenging to interpet as structural parameters
 - Shift focus from parameters to understading how the shape of the distribution changes with changes in covariates
 - Change your estimand!
- Standard errors can be wonky asymptotic theory is less developed, although clustering finally exists! (See Hagemann (2017), also Parente and Santos Silva (2016))