

# Binary Models with Endogenous Explanatory Variables

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## 1. Introduction

- So far we considered linear and non-linear models with additive errors and endogenous explanatory variables.
- A simple case was a linear relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$  and an error  $U$ , where  $U$  was potentially correlated with  $X$  but not with an instrument  $Z$ :

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + U, \quad E(U) = 0, E(ZU) = 0. \quad (1)$$

This setting was motivated in structural models.

- Now we wish to make similar considerations for binary index models of the form

$$Y = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta X + U \geq 0).$$

- There are two important differences that we need to examine:
  - ① In the new models effects are heterogeneous, so that there is a difference between effects at the individual level and aggregate or average effects.
  - ② Instrumental variable techniques are no longer directly applicable because the model is not invertible and we lack an expression for  $U$ . So we have to consider alternative ways of addressing endogeneity concerns.
- To discuss these issues it is useful first to go back to the linear setting and re-examine endogeneity using an explicit notation for potential outcomes.

## Potential outcomes notation

- When we are interested in (1) as a structural equation, we regard it as a conjectural relationship that produces potential outcomes for every possible value  $x \in \mathcal{S}$ :

$$Y(x) = \alpha + \beta x + U$$

- So we imagine that each unit has a value of  $U$  and hence a value of  $Y(x)$  for each  $x$ .
- This is the way we think about structural models in economics, for example about a demand schedule that gives the conjectural demand  $Y(x)$  for every possible price  $x$ .
- For each unit we only observe the actual value  $X$  that occurs in the distribution of the data, so that  $Y = Y(X)$ .
- If the assignment of values of  $X$  to units in the population is such that  $X$  and  $U$  are uncorrelated,  $\beta$  coincides with the regression coefficient of  $Y$  on  $X$ .
- If the assignment of values of  $Z$  to units in the population is such that  $Z$  and  $U$  are uncorrelated,  $\beta$  coincides with the IV coefficient of  $Y$  on  $X$  using  $Z$  as instrument.
- Consider two individuals with errors  $U$  and  $U^\dagger$ . Their potential outcomes differ:

$$Y(x) = \alpha + \beta x + U$$

$$Y(x)^\dagger = \alpha + \beta x + U^\dagger$$

but the effect of a change from  $x$  to  $x'$  will be the same for all individuals:

$$Y(x') - Y(x) = \beta(x' - x).$$

- In this sense we say that in models with additive errors the effects are homogeneous across units. We now turn to consider the situation in binary models.

## Heterogeneous individual effects and aggregate effects

- Potential outcomes in the binary model are given by

$$Y(x) = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta x + U \geq 0).$$

- The effect of a change from  $x$  to  $x'$  for an individual with error  $U$  is:

$$Y(x') - Y(x) = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta x' + U \geq 0) - \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta x + U \geq 0).$$

- Suppose for the sake of the argument that  $\beta > 0$  and  $x' > x$ . The possibilities are

value of $U$	$Y(x)$	$Y(x')$	$Y(x') - Y(x)$
$-U \leq \alpha + \beta x$	1	1	0
$-U > \alpha + \beta x'$	0	0	0
$\alpha + \beta x < -U \leq \alpha + \beta x'$	0	1	1

- Depending on the value of  $U$  the effects can be zero or unity, therefore they are heterogeneous across units.
- In these circumstances it is natural to consider an average effect:

$$\begin{aligned} E_U [Y(x') - Y(x)] &= E_U [\mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta x' + U \geq 0)] - E_U [\mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta x + U \geq 0)] \\ &= \Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta x') - \Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta x) \\ &= F(\alpha + \beta x') - F(\alpha + \beta x) \end{aligned}$$

where  $F$  is the *cdf* of  $U$ .

- The average effect is simply the fraction of units in the population whose outcomes are affected by the change from  $x$  to  $x'$  (those with  $\alpha + \beta x < -U \leq \alpha + \beta x'$ ).

## Marginal effects

- If  $X$  is binary there is only one effect to consider. If  $X$  is continuous we can consider average marginal effects:

$$\frac{\partial E_U [Y(x)]}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial F(\alpha + \beta x)}{\partial x} = \beta f(\alpha + \beta x).$$

- Marginal effects can be regarded as a random variable associated with  $X$ .
- In this sense it may be of interest to obtain summary measures of its distribution, like the mean or the median. For example,

$$E_X [\beta f(\alpha + \beta X)].$$

## Identification and estimation

- In models with additive errors, moment conditions of the form  $E(ZU) = 0$  are often sufficient for identification, and GMM estimates can be easily constructed from their sample counterparts.
- In non-invertible models, GMM estimators are not directly available. In fact, the availability of instruments (a variable  $Z$  that is independent of  $U$ ) by itself does not guarantee point identification in general.
- Next, we consider two specific models that fully specify the joint distribution of  $Y$  and  $X$  given  $Z$ .
- One is for a normally distributed  $X$ . It would have application to situations where  $X$  is a continuous variable.
- The other is for a binary  $X$  and leads to a multivariate probit model.

## 2. Binary outcome and continuous treatment

### The normal endogenous explanatory variable probit model

- The model is

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta X + U \geq 0) \\ X &= \pi'Z + \sigma_v V \\ \left( \begin{array}{c} U \\ V \end{array} \right) | Z &\sim \mathcal{N} \left[ 0, \left( \begin{array}{cc} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{array} \right) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

- In this model  $X$  is an endogenous explanatory variable as long as  $\rho \neq 0$ .
- $X$  is exogenous if  $\rho = 0$ .
- Joint normality of  $U$  and  $V$  implies that the conditional distribution of  $U$  given  $V$  is also normal as follows:

$$U | V, Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\rho V, 1 - \rho^2)$$

or

$$\Pr(U \leq r | V, Z) = \Phi \left( \frac{r - \rho V}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right).$$

Therefore,

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | X, Z) = \Pr(\alpha + \beta X + U \geq 0 | V, Z) = \Phi \left( \frac{\alpha + \beta X + \rho V}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right).$$

- Moreover, the density of  $X | Z$  is just the normal linear regression density.

## The normal endogenous explanatory variable probit model (continued)

- The joint probability distribution of  $Y$  and  $X$  given  $Z = z$  is

$$f(y, x | z) = f(y | x, z) f(x | z)$$

or

$$\ln f(y, x | z) \propto y \ln \Phi \left( \frac{\alpha + \beta x + \rho v}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right) + (1 - y) \ln \left[ 1 - \Phi \left( \frac{\alpha + \beta x + \rho v}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right) \right] \\ - \frac{1}{2} \ln \sigma_v^2 - \frac{1}{2} v^2$$

where  $v = (x - \pi'z) / \sigma_v$ .

- Therefore, the log likelihood of a random sample of  $N$  observations conditioned on the  $z$  variables is  $L(\alpha, \beta, \rho, \pi, \sigma_v^2) = L$ :

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ y_i \ln \Phi \left( \frac{\alpha + \beta x_i + \rho v_i}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right) + (1 - y_i) \ln \left[ 1 - \Phi \left( \frac{\alpha + \beta x_i + \rho v_i}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right) \right] \right\} \\ + \sum_{i=1}^N \left( -\frac{1}{2} \ln \sigma_v^2 - \frac{1}{2} v_i^2 \right).$$

- Note that under exogeneity ( $\rho = 0$ ) this log likelihood function boils down to the sum of the ordinary probit and normal OLS log-likelihood functions:

$$L(\alpha, \beta, 0, \pi, \sigma_v^2) = L_{probit}(\alpha, \beta) + L_{OLS}(\pi, \sigma_v^2).$$

## The control function approach

### Two-step estimation of the normal model

- We can consider a two-step method:
- Step 1: Obtain OLS estimates  $(\hat{\pi}, \hat{\sigma}_v)$  of the first stage equation and form the standardized residuals  $\hat{v}_i = (x_i - \hat{\pi}'z_i) / \hat{\sigma}_v$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$ .
- Step 2: Do an ordinary probit of  $y$  on constant,  $x$ , and  $\hat{v}$  to obtain consistent estimates of  $(\alpha^\dagger, \beta^\dagger, \rho^\dagger)$  where

$$(\alpha^\dagger, \beta^\dagger, \rho^\dagger) = (1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} (\alpha, \beta, \rho).$$

- Since there is a one-to-one mapping between the two, the original parameters can be recovered undoing the reparameterization.
- However, the fitted probabilities  $\Phi(\hat{\alpha}^\dagger + \hat{\beta}^\dagger x_i + \hat{\rho}^\dagger \hat{v}_i)$  are in fact directly useful to get average derivative effects (more below).
- In general, two-step estimators are asymptotically inefficient relative to maximum likelihood estimation, but they may be computationally convenient.
- Ordinary probit standard errors calculated from the second step are inconsistent because estimated residuals are treated as if they were observations of the true first-stage errors.
- To get consistent standard errors, we need to take into account the additional uncertainty that results from using  $(\hat{\pi}, \hat{\sigma}_v)$  as opposed to the truth.



## Comparison with probit using fitted values

- Note that

$$Y = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta X + U \geq 0) = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta(\pi'Z) + \varepsilon \geq 0)$$

where  $\varepsilon = U + \beta\sigma_v V$  is  $\varepsilon | Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$  with  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2 = 1 + \beta^2\sigma_v^2 + 2\beta\sigma_v\rho$ .

- If we run a probit of  $y$  on constant and  $\hat{x} = \hat{\pi}'z$  we get consistent estimates of  $\bar{\alpha} = \alpha/\sigma_\varepsilon$  and  $\bar{\beta} = \beta/\sigma_\varepsilon$ .
- Note that from estimates of  $\bar{\alpha}$ ,  $\bar{\beta}$ , and  $\sigma_v$  we cannot back up estimates of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  due to not knowing  $\rho$ .
- We cannot get average derivative effects either. So estimation of parameters of interest from this method (other than relative effects) is problematic.

## The linear case: 2SLS as a control function estimator

- The 2SLS estimator for the linear IV model is  $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{X}'\hat{X})^{-1} \hat{X}'y$  where  $\hat{X} = Z\hat{\Pi}'$  and  $\hat{\Pi} = X'Z(Z'Z)^{-1}$ .
- The matrix of first-stage residuals is  $\hat{V} = X - Z\hat{\Pi}'$ . Typically,  $X$  and  $Z$  will have some columns in common. For those variables, the columns of  $\hat{V}$  will be identically zero. Let us call  $\hat{V}_1$  the subset of non-zero columns of  $\hat{V}$  (those corresponding to endogenous explanatory variables).
- It can be shown that 2SLS coincides with the estimated  $\theta$  in the OLS regression

$$y = X\theta + \hat{V}_1\gamma + \xi.$$

- Therefore, linear 2SLS can be regarded as a control function method.
- In the binary situation we obtained a similar estimator from a probit regression of  $y$  on  $X$  and first-stage residuals.
- An important difference between the two settings is that 2SLS is robust to misspecification of the first stage model whereas two-step probit is not.
- Examples of misspecifications occur if  $E(X | Z)$  is nonlinear, if  $\text{Var}(X | Z)$  is non-constant (heteroskedastic), or if  $X | Z$  is non-normal.
- Another difference is that in the linear case the control-function approach and the fitted-value approach lead to the same estimator (2SLS) whereas this is not true for probit.

## A semiparametric generalization

- Consider the model

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta X + U \geq 0) \\ X &= \pi'Z + \sigma_v V \end{aligned}$$

and assume that

$$U | X, V \sim U | V.$$

- In the previous parametric model we additionally assumed that  $U | V$  was  $\mathcal{N}(\rho V, 1 - \rho^2)$  and  $V$  was  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .
- The semiparametric generalization consists in leaving the distributions of  $U | V$  and  $V$  unspecified.
- In this way

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | X, V) = \Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta X | X, V) = \Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta X | V)$$

Thus

$$E(Y | X, V) = F(\alpha + \beta X, V)$$

where  $F(\cdot, V)$  is the conditional *cdf* of  $-U$  given  $V$ .

- The function  $F(\cdot, V)$  can be estimated nonparametrically using estimated first-stage residuals.
- This is a bivariate-index generalization of the semiparametric approaches to estimating single-index models with exogenous variables.

## Constructing policy parameters

- To construct a policy parameter we need  $p(x) = \Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta x)$ . Note that

$$\Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta x) = \int \Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta x \mid v) dF_v \equiv E_V [F(\alpha + \beta x, V)].$$

- In the normal model

$$\Pr(-U \leq \alpha + \beta x) = \Phi(\alpha + \beta x)$$

- But this means that

$$\Phi(\alpha + \beta x) = E_V \left[ \Phi \left( \frac{\alpha + \beta x + \rho V}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right) \right] \equiv E_V \left[ \Phi \left( \alpha^\dagger + \beta^\dagger x + \rho^\dagger V \right) \right]. \quad (2)$$

- A simple consistent estimate of  $\Phi(\alpha + \beta x)$  is  $\Phi(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x)$ , where  $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  are consistent estimates. For example, using that  $1 - \rho^2 = 1 / (1 + \rho^{\dagger 2})$ , we may use

$$(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) = (1 + \hat{\rho}^{\dagger 2})^{-1/2} (\hat{\alpha}^\dagger, \hat{\beta}^\dagger)$$

where  $(\hat{\alpha}^\dagger, \hat{\beta}^\dagger, \hat{\rho}^\dagger)$  are two-step control function estimates.

## Constructing policy parameters (continued)

- Alternatively, using expression (2) a consistent estimate of  $\Phi(\alpha + \beta x)$  in the normal model can be obtained as

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \Phi(\hat{\alpha}^\dagger + \hat{\beta}^\dagger x + \hat{\rho}^\dagger \hat{v}_i).$$

- In the semiparametric model this result generalizes to

$$\tilde{p}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{F}(\tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\beta}x, \hat{v}_i)$$

where  $(\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta})$  are semiparametric control function estimates and  $\hat{F}(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a non-parametric estimate of the conditional *cdf* of  $-U$  given  $V$ .

### 3. Binary outcome and binary treatment

#### The endogenous dummy explanatory variable probit model

- The model is

$$Y = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta X + U \geq 0)$$

$$X = \mathbf{1}(\pi'Z + V \geq 0)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \end{pmatrix} | Z \sim \mathcal{N}\left[0, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right].$$

- In this model  $X$  is an endogenous explanatory variable as long as  $\rho \neq 0$ .  $X$  is exogenous if  $\rho = 0$ .

## The likelihood

- Let us introduce a notation for standard normal bivariate probabilities:

$$\Phi_2(r, s; \rho) = \Pr(U \leq r, V \leq s).$$

- The joint probability distribution of  $Y$  and  $X$  given  $Z$  consists of four terms:

$$\begin{aligned} p_{00} &= \Pr(Y = 0, X = 0) = \Pr(\alpha + \beta X + U < 0, X = 0) \\ &= \Pr(\alpha + U < 0, \pi'Z + V < 0) = \Phi_2(-\alpha, -\pi'Z; \rho) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_{01} &= \Pr(Y = 0, X = 1) = \Pr(\alpha + \beta + U < 0, X = 1) \\ &= \Pr(X = 1 \mid \alpha + \beta + U < 0) \Pr(\alpha + \beta + U < 0) \\ &= [1 - \Pr(X = 0 \mid \alpha + \beta + U < 0)] \Pr(\alpha + \beta + U < 0) \\ &= \Phi(-\alpha - \beta) - \Phi_2(-\alpha - \beta, -\pi'Z; \rho) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_{10} &= \Pr(Y = 1, X = 0) = \Pr(Y = 1 \mid X = 0) \Pr(X = 0) \\ &= [1 - \Pr(Y = 0 \mid X = 0)] \Pr(X = 0) = \Phi(-\pi'Z) - p_{00} \end{aligned}$$

$$p_{11} = 1 - p_{00} - p_{01} - p_{10}.$$

Therefore, the log-likelihood is given by

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^N \{(1 - y_i)(1 - x_i) \ln p_{00i} + (1 - y_i)x_i \ln p_{01i} + y_i(1 - x_i) \ln p_{10i} + y_i x_i \ln p_{11i}\}.$$

## Average treatment effect

- In this model there are only two potential outcomes:

$$Y(1) = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta + U \geq 0)$$

$$Y(0) = \mathbf{1}(\alpha + U \geq 0)$$

- The average causal effect is given by

$$\theta = E[Y(1) - Y(0)] = \Phi(\alpha + \beta) - \Phi(\alpha).$$

- In less parametric specifications  $\theta$  may not be point identified, but we may still be able to estimate average effects for certain sub-populations (more to follow).



## Nonparametric binary model with binary endogenous regressor and instrument

- Consider the following model for  $(0, 1)$  binary observables  $(Y, X, Z)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \mathbf{1}(U_X \leq p_X) \\ X &= \mathbf{1}(V \leq q_Z) \end{aligned}$$

where  $U_1$ ,  $U_0$  and  $V$  are uniformly distributed variates, independent of  $Z$ , such that  $(U_1, V)$  and  $(U_0, V)$  have copulas  $C_1(u, v)$  and  $C_0(u, v)$ , respectively.

- $Y$  is the dependent variable,  $X$  is the endogenous explanatory variable, and  $Z$  is the instrumental variable.
- Under exogeneity  $C_1(u, v) = C_0(u, v) = uv$ .
- A special case is the "switching" probit model

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \mathbf{1}(\alpha + \beta X - U_X^* \geq 0) \\ X &= \mathbf{1}(\pi_0 + \pi_1 Z - V^* \geq 0) \end{aligned}$$

where  $p_X = \Phi(\alpha + \beta X)$ ,  $U_X = \Phi(U_X^*)$ ,  $q_Z = \Phi(\pi_0 + \pi_1 Z)$ ,  $V = \Phi(V^*)$ , and  $C_1(u, v)$  and  $C_0(u, v)$  are Gaussian copulas.

- A further specialization is the standard bivariate probit with endogeneity subject to the "monotonicity" constraint  $U_1 \equiv U_0$ .

## Nonparametric binary model (continued)

- The data provides direct information about  $\Pr(Y = j, X = k \mid Z = \ell)$  for  $j, k, \ell = 0, 1$ . Thus, given adding up constraints, there are 6 reduced form parameters.
- The structural parameters are  $p_0, p_1, q_0, q_1, C_1(u, v)$  and  $C_0(u, v)$ .
- Because of the exogeneity of  $Z$  we have  $q_\ell = \Pr(X = 1 \mid Z = \ell)$ , so that  $q_0$  and  $q_1$  are reduced form quantities that are directly identified.
- The challenge is the identification of  $p_0$  and  $p_1$  or other probabilities associated with the potential outcomes.
- In the switching probit, the Gaussian copulas add just two extra structural parameters (the correlation parameters for the pairs  $(U_1, V)$  and  $(U_0, V)$ ), so that the order condition for identification is satisfied with equality.
- In this model there are two potential outcomes:

$$Y_1 = \mathbf{1}(U_1 \leq p_1)$$

$$Y_0 = \mathbf{1}(U_0 \leq p_0)$$

- The potential treatment indicators are:

$$X_1 = \mathbf{1}(V \leq q_1)$$

$$X_0 = \mathbf{1}(V \leq q_0).$$

## Identification

- The average treatment effect (ATE) is

$$\theta = E(Y_1 - Y_0) = p_1 - p_0.$$

- The mapping between reduced form and structural parameters is as follows. We observe  $q_0, q_1$  and:

$$E(YX | Z = 1) = C_1(p_1, q_1) \quad (3)$$

$$E(YX | Z = 0) = C_1(p_1, q_0) \quad (4)$$

$$E[Y(1 - X) | Z = 1] = p_0 - C_0(p_0, q_1) \quad (5)$$

$$E[Y(1 - X) | Z = 0] = p_0 - C_0(p_0, q_0) \quad (6)$$

- If  $C_1(u, v)$  and  $C_0(u, v)$  are Gaussian copulas with correlation coefficients  $r_1$  and  $r_0$ , it turns out that  $p_1$  and  $r_1$  are just identified from (3)-(4), whereas  $p_0$  and  $r_0$  are just identified from (5)-(6). Thus, the switching probit model is just identified.
- So normality is not testable in this model, it is just an identifying assumption. However, if  $U_1 \equiv U_0$  bivariate probit places one over-identifying restriction.
- Alternative parametric copulas will produce different values of  $p_0$  and  $p_1$ . So in general  $p_0$  and  $p_1$  are only set identified.

## Identification (continued)

- To verify results (3)-(4) and (5)-(6) simply note that

$$E(YX | Z = 1) = \Pr(Y = 1, X = 1 | Z = 1) = \Pr(U_1 \leq p_1, V \leq q_1) = C_1(p_1, q_1)$$

$$E(YX | Z = 0) = \Pr(Y = 1, X = 1 | Z = 0) = \Pr(U_1 \leq p_1, V \leq q_0) = C_1(p_1, q_0)$$

$$E(1 - X | Z = 1) - E(1 - X | Z = 0) = q_0 - q_1,$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y(1 - X) | Z = 1] &= \Pr(Y = 1, X = 0 | Z = 1) \\ &= \Pr(U_0 \leq p_0) - \Pr(U_0 \leq p_0, V \leq q_1) = p_0 - C_0(p_0, q_1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y(1 - X) | Z = 0] &= \Pr(Y = 1, X = 0 | Z = 0) \\ &= \Pr(U_0 \leq p_0) - \Pr(U_0 \leq p_0, V \leq q_0) = p_0 - C_0(p_0, q_0) \end{aligned}$$

## LATE

- Suppose without lack of generality that  $q_0 \leq q_1$ . There are three subpopulations depending on an individual's value of  $V$ :
  - Always-takers: Units with  $V \leq q_0$ . They have  $X_1 = 1$  and  $X_0 = 1$ . Their mass is  $q_0$ .
  - Compliers: Units with  $q_0 < V \leq q_1$ . Have  $X_1 = 1$  and  $X_0 = 0$ . Their mass is  $q_1 - q_0$ .
  - Never-takers: Units with  $V > q_1$ . Have  $X_1 = 0$  and  $X_0 = 0$ . Their mass is  $1 - q_1$ .
- Membership of these subpopulations is unobservable, but we observe their mass.
- The local ATE (LATE) is the ATE for the compliers:

$$\theta_{LATE} = E(Y_1 - Y_0 \mid q_0 < V \leq q_1).$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y_1 \mid q_0 < V \leq q_1) &= \Pr(U_1 \leq p_1 \mid q_0 < V \leq q_1) \\ &= \frac{\Pr(U_1 \leq p_1, V \leq q_1) - \Pr(U_1 \leq p_1, V \leq q_0)}{q_1 - q_0} = \frac{C_1(p_1, q_1) - C_1(p_1, q_0)}{q_1 - q_0} \end{aligned}$$

and similarly

$$E(Y_0 \mid q_0 < V \leq q_1) = \Pr(U_0 \leq p_0 \mid q_0 < V \leq q_1) = \frac{C_0(p_0, q_1) - C_0(p_0, q_0)}{q_1 - q_0}.$$

- Thus, LATE satisfies the difference in differences expression

$$\theta_{LATE} = \frac{[C_1(p_1, q_1) - C_1(p_1, q_0)] - [C_0(p_0, q_1) - C_0(p_0, q_0)]}{q_1 - q_0}$$

## Link with instrumental variables

- Under monotonicity between  $X$  and  $Z$  (which the model assumes),  $\theta_{LATE}$  coincides with the IV parameter (Imbens and Angrist 1994):

$$\theta_{LATE} = \frac{E(Y | Z = 1) - E(Y | Z = 0)}{E(X | Z = 1) - E(X | Z = 0)}$$

- To see this, first note that using the previous results  $E(Y_1 | q_0 < V \leq q_1)$  and  $E(Y_0 | q_0 < V \leq q_1)$  are identified as:

$$E(Y_1 | q_0 < V \leq q_1) = \frac{E(YX | Z = 1) - E(YX | Z = 0)}{E(X | Z = 1) - E(X | Z = 0)}$$

$$E(Y_0 | q_0 < V \leq q_1) = \frac{E[Y(1-X) | Z = 1] - E[Y(1-X) | Z = 0]}{E(1-X | Z = 1) - E(1-X | Z = 0)}$$

- Next use the identities

$$E(Y | Z = 1) = E(YX | Z = 1) + E[Y(1-X) | Z = 1]$$

$$E(Y | Z = 0) = E(YX | Z = 0) + E[Y(1-X) | Z = 0]$$

$$E(X | Z = 1) = E(X_1) = q_1, \quad E(X | Z = 0) = E(X_0) = q_0$$