## Nonparametric empirical Bayes estimation and ranking A new method for evaluating teachers

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Preliminary and Incomplete

## Teacher Value Added (TVA)

- Leading research questions in education economics:
  - how to use student test results to evaluate teachers performance?
  - what is the short and long term impacts of teachers?
- Typical data environment:
  - Detailed administrative data with longitudinal structure
    - We have obtained data from North Carolina which covers all public school students from fourth and fifth grade from 1996 2010 with many detailed demographic data. ( $\approx 2.7$  million student-year observations and 35,000 teachers)
    - Data of similar quality from Los Angeles (11,000 teachers) is also available.
  - Focus on primary school where it is easy to match student with teacher.

- Current statistical approach of the TVA literature: James-Stein shrinkage estimator assuming Gaussian teacher effect (Kane and Staiger (2008), citation 804; Chetty et al. (2014), citation 729)
   Question on effect estimation: To what extent are parametric shrinkage methods different from Robbins' nonparametric shrinkage estimator for TVA in real data?
- TVA is used in high-stakes decision making:
  - As of 2017, thirty nine states require TVA to be incorporated into teacher evaluation scores and incentive pay schemes.
  - TVA is used to evaluate education policies (releasing teachers for test score gains).

Question on ranking: how do we implement such policy - select the best and worst.

• Index student by *i*, teacher by *j* and year by *t*:

$$A_{ijt}^* = X_{ijt}^\top \beta + \alpha_j + \epsilon_{ijt}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n_{jt}$$

- $A_{iit}^*$  are students' test scores centered and scaled for each grade-year.
- X includes polynomials of lagged test scores, students' demographic background, teacher's experience etc.
- Test score residuals  $A_{ijt} = A_{ijt}^* X_{ijt}^\top \hat{\beta} \approx \alpha_j + \epsilon_{ijt}$ .
- We work with  $y_{jt} = \frac{1}{n_{jt}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{jt}} A_{ijt} \approx \mathcal{N}(\alpha_j, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2/n_{jt})$  to estimate TVA  $\alpha_j$ .
- Classroom size n<sub>jt</sub> in the range of [8, 39] for both NC and LA data.

## Effect Estimation: The Compound Decision Problem

- Longitudinal Data:  $y_{jt} \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha_j, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2/n_{jt})$ ,  $t = 1, 2, \dots, T_j$ .
- MLE for  $\alpha_j$ :  $y_j := \sum_t n_{jt} y_{jt} / \sum_t n_{jt} \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha_j, \sigma_j^2), \quad \sigma_j^2 = \sigma_\epsilon^2 / \sum_t n_{jt}$
- For teachers with small total class size  $\sum_t n_{jt}$ , MLE is going to be a poor estimator for  $\alpha_j$ .
- If  $\alpha_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} G$ , then we can borrow strength from each other.
- Compound decision problem with heterogeneous variances (Jiang and Zhang (2010), Xie, Kou, Brown (2012, 2016), Weinstein, Ma, Brown, Zhang(2018)): a shrinkage estimator for  $\alpha_j$  performs better than MLE under  $\mathcal{L}_2$  loss  $N^{-1} \sum_j (\hat{\alpha}_j - \alpha_j)^2$ .
- The loss function considers all teachers and treats every teachers equally.

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#### Linear shrinkage estimator

• If  $\alpha_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{\alpha}^2)$ , then we get a linear shrinkage rule

$$\hat{\alpha}_j = y_j \frac{\sigma_\alpha^2}{\sigma_j^2 + \sigma_\alpha^2}$$

- Larger total class size  $\sum_{t} n_{jt}$ , less shrinkage towards the common mean (zero).
- Practical implementation in the TVA literature: plug-in estimator with MLE, MoM, SURE for  $(\sigma_{\alpha}^2, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2)$ .
- Deviation from Gaussian α<sub>j</sub>: Xie, Kou, Brown (2016) suggests a linear rule (1 − b<sub>j</sub>)y<sub>j</sub> with optimal b<sub>j</sub> minimizing L<sub>2</sub> loss subject to b<sub>j</sub> ≤ b<sub>k</sub> if σ<sub>j</sub><sup>2</sup> ≤ σ<sub>k</sub><sup>2</sup>.

But why linear?

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#### Nonlinear shrinkage estimator I

• For  $\alpha_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} G$ , the Bayes rule is (Tweedie formula)

$$\delta_j = \mathbb{E}(\alpha|y_j, \sigma_j) = y_j + \sigma_j^2 f_j'(y_j) / f_j(y_j) \quad \text{with } f_j(y_j) = \int \frac{1}{\sigma_j} \phi((y_j - \alpha_j) / \sigma_j) dG(\alpha_j)$$

- Marginal density  $f_j(y)$  is difficult to estimate due to heterogeneous variances.
- Nonparametric empirical Bayes estimator through NPMLE of G: Robbins (1956), Jiang and Zhang (2010), Gu and Koenker (2017a)

$$\hat{\delta}_j = rac{\int lpha \phi((y_j - lpha)/\sigma_j) d\hat{G}(lpha)}{\int \phi((y_j - lpha)/\sigma_j) d\hat{G}(lpha)}$$

• Convex optimization for  $\hat{G}$  (Koenker and Mizera (2014))

$$\hat{G} = \underset{G \in \mathcal{G}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \Big\{ \sum_{j=1}^{N} \log f_j(y_j) \mid f_j(y) = \int \phi((y-\alpha)/\sigma_j)/\sigma_j dG(\alpha) \Big\}$$

• Restriction: iidness of  $\alpha_j$  imposes independence between  $\alpha_j$  and  $\sigma_j$ .

### Nonlinear shrinkage estimator II

• Exploit the longitudinal structure:

$$y_{jt} = \alpha_j + u_{jt}, \quad u_{jt} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{\theta_j}{n_{jt}})$$

• Sufficient statistics for  $(\alpha_j, \theta_j)$ 

$$y_j = \sum_t n_{jt} y_{jt} / \sum_t n_{jt} \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha_j, \theta_j / \sum_t n_{jt})$$
  

$$S_j = \frac{1}{T_j} \sum_t (y_{jt} - y_j)^2 n_{jt} \sim \gamma(r_j, \theta_j / r_j) \text{ with } r_j = (T_j - 1)/2$$

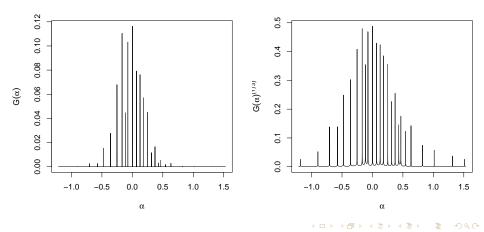
- We can identify and nonparametrically estimate the joint distribution of (α<sub>j</sub>, θ<sub>j</sub>) <sup>iid</sup> G where arbitrary dependence is allowed. (Gu and Koenker (2017a, b))
- Bayes rule is a nonlinear function of  $(y_j, S_j)$ :  $\delta_j = \mathbb{E}(\alpha | y_j, S_j)$ .

# **Unbalanced Panel**

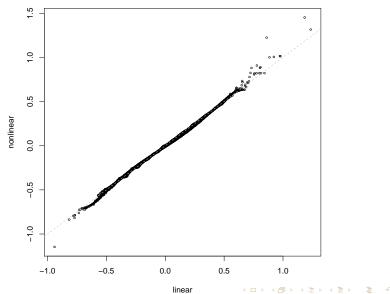
# of occurrence	Absolute	%	% cumulative
1	10180	29.00	29.00
2	6486	18.50	47.50
3	4706	13.40	61.00
4	3217	9.20	70.10
5	2446	7.00	77.10
6	1910	5.40	82.60
7	1281	3.70	86.20
8	1120	3.20	89.40
9	975	2.80	92.20
10	735	2.10	94.30
11	676	1.90	96.20
12	588	1.70	97.90
13	302	0.90	98.80
14	249	0.70	99.50
15	182	0.50	100.00
Total	35053		100%

# Estimated Distribution using North Carolina Data

- Linear shrinkage under Gaussian assumptions
  - $\alpha_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.047).$
  - $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}^2 = 0.249.$
- NPMLE Ĝ



## Effect estimation: linear vs nonlinear

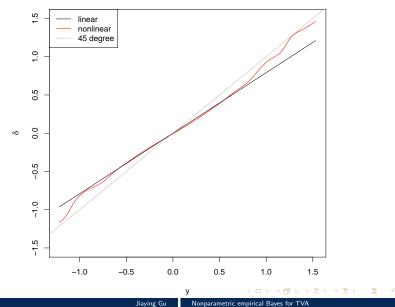


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Nonparametric empirical Bayes for TVA

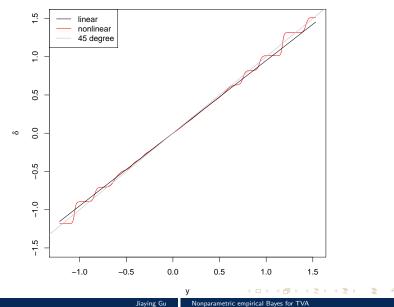
## Bayes Rule: linear vs nonlinear

Bayes rule (total class size = 20)



## Bayes Rule: linear vs nonlinear

#### Bayes rule (total class size = 100)



Nonparametric empirical Bayes for TVA

- All the action seems to be in the tail. But this is exactly what is relevant for educational policy (Chetty et al. 2014).
- Left tail policy: evaluate the magnitude of test score gains by replacing bottom q% of the teachers by a mean quality teacher (zero effect).

$$\mathbb{E}[\alpha 1\{\alpha > G^{-1}(q)\}] = \int_{G^{-1}(q)}^{+\infty} \alpha dG(\alpha)$$

• Depending on the thickness of the true distribution tail, this gain can be over/under estimated if the Gaussian effect assumption is misplaced.

How do we pick these teachers?

- One approach is to rank the teachers by posterior mean. But although  $\mathcal{L}_2$  loss is natural for effect estimation, it may not be natural for selecting good/bad teachers.
- There are some available alternatives in the literature, notably posterior expected rank: Laird and Louis (1989), Xie, Singh, Zhang (2009)
- We've come up with two types of loss function that leads to
  - ranking criteria based on posterior tail probability  $\mathbb{P}(\alpha \leq G^{-1}(q)|y,\sigma)$  (see also Henderson and Newton (2016))
  - ranking criteria based on posterior expected shortfall  $\mathbb{E}[\alpha 1\{\alpha \leq G^{-1}(q)\}|y,\sigma]$ .
- How to choose loss function? Economists/education policy maker may be able to link loss function specification to welfare consideration.

#### Tail probability rule

• Let  $\alpha_q := G^{-1}(q)$ , consider loss function for a binary action  $\delta_j : (y_j, \sigma_j^2) \mapsto \{0, 1\}$ 

$$L(\delta_j, \alpha_j) = (1 - \delta_j) \mathbf{1} \{ \alpha_j \leq \alpha_q \}$$

- Loss function only considers the tail population instead of the whole.
- Minimizing the Bayes risk subject to a size constraint  $\mathbb{P}(\delta_j = 1) = q$  leads to the Bayes rule  $\delta_j = 1\{v_q(y_j, \sigma_j) \ge \lambda_q\}$  with

$$\mathsf{v}_q(y_j,\sigma_j) = \mathbb{P}(\alpha \le \alpha_q | y_j,\sigma_j) = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\alpha_q} \phi((y_j - \alpha)/\sigma_j) d\mathcal{G}(\alpha)}{\int \phi((y_j - \alpha)/\sigma_j) d\mathcal{G}(\alpha)}$$

- Choose λ<sub>q</sub> to satisfy the size constraint.
- Under mild conditions, which are satisfied for the normal model, there is a nested structure of the set Ω<sub>q</sub> = {j : ν<sub>q</sub>(y<sub>j</sub>, σ<sub>j</sub>) ≥ λ<sub>q</sub>}: Ω<sub>q2</sub> ⊆ Ω<sub>q1</sub> for q1 > q2.
- A close connection to multiple testing problem:  $v_q(y_j, \sigma_j)$  is one minus the local FDR (Efron et al. 2001, Sun and McLain 2012))
  - Composite one-sided null  $H_{0j}: \alpha_j \geq \alpha_q$ .
  - FDR literature: thresholding value on  $v_q(y_j, \sigma_j)$  is chosen to satisfy FDR size restriction.

#### Expected shortfall rule

 $\bullet$  Introduce effect size weights into the previous loss function, focusing on lower tail  $\alpha_q < 0$ 

$$L(\delta_j, \alpha_j) = -\alpha_j (1 - \delta_j) \mathbb{1}\{\alpha_j \le \alpha_q\}$$

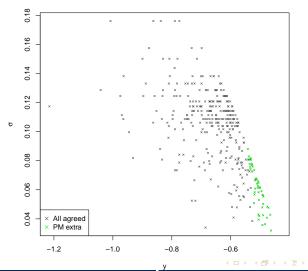
- Loss function has the interpretation as the lost gain of not replacing teacher *j* with a (better) mean teacher.
- Minimizing the Bayes risk subject to a size constraint  $\mathbb{P}(\delta_j = 1) = q$  leads to the Bayes rule  $\delta_j = 1\{s_q(y_j, \sigma_j) \ge \tau_q\}$  with

$$s_q(y_j,\sigma_j) = -\mathbb{E}(\alpha \mathbf{1}\{\alpha \le \alpha_q\} | y_j,\sigma_j) = -\frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\alpha_q} \alpha \phi((y_j - \alpha)/\sigma_j) dG(\alpha)}{\int \phi((y_j - \alpha)/\sigma_j) dG(\alpha)}$$

• Choose  $\tau_q$  to satisfy the size constraint.

# Comparison: q = 1% Posterior Mean

- grey points: agreed by both tailp, shortfall and posterior mean (201 teachers)
- green points: extra 49 teachers selected by posterior mean criteria.

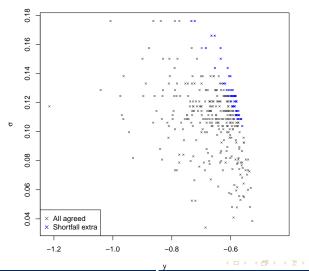


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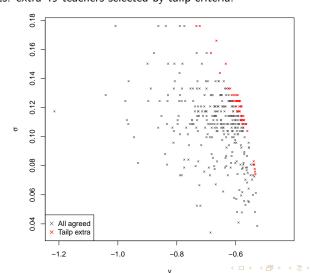
# Comparison: q = 1% Shortfall

- grey points: agreed by both tailp, shortfall and posterior mean (301 teachers)
- blue points: extra 49 teachers selected by shortfall criteria.



## Comparison: q = 1% Tailp

grey points: agreed by both tailp, shortfall and posterior mean (301 teachers).
red points: extra 49 teachers selected by tailp criteria.



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- Teacher evaluation is involved in high-stakes decision making.
- We show the possibility of deviating from the Gaussian assumption and linear shrinkage rules and that it is empirically relevant.
- Efron's G-modeling: We take a nonparametric approach for G, which seems to open doors to many different Bayes rules depending on the type of loss function under consideration.