

Module 2: Randomization Inference

Fall 2021

Matthew Blackwell

Gov 2003 (Harvard)

1/ Randomized experiments

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 - Treatment assignment does not depend on any potential outcomes.
 - Sometimes written as $D_i \perp\!\!\!\perp (\mathbf{Y}(1), \mathbf{Y}(0))$

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- If information \rightsquigarrow accountability, we should see a difference between the treatment and control groups.

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 - Important to admit limitations: external validity, sample selection, Hawthorne effect

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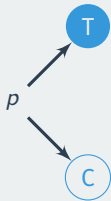
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- For any given i , implies $\mathbb{P}(D_i = 1 \mid \mathbf{Y}(1), \mathbf{Y}(0)) = \frac{n_1}{n}$.

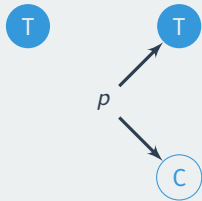
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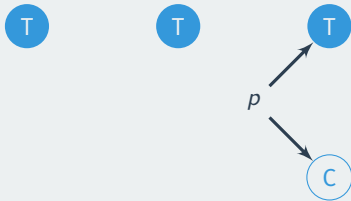
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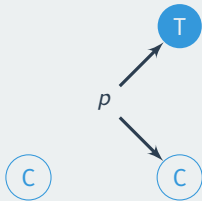
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 - When blocks are of size 2, this is a **pair-matched design**.

Example data from information RCT

Village	Information	Incumbent Won?	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
	D_i	Y_i		
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- Very small sample size \rightsquigarrow can we learn anything from this data?

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 - No reliance on normality, etc.
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 - \rightsquigarrow truly nonparametric, but less flexible.

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- What is this called? **p-value**

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- Implies no **average** treatment effect, but no ATE \nRightarrow sharp null.

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$$H_0 : \tau_i = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0) = 0 \quad \forall i$$

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 - Here, $\tau = 0$ but the sharp null is violated.
- If the sharp null is true, we know all the potential outcomes:

$$Y_i(1) = Y_i(0) = Y_i$$

Life under the sharp null

We can use the sharp null ($Y_i(1) - Y_i(0) = 0$) to fill in the missing potential outcomes:

Village	Information	Incumbent Won?	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
	D_i	Y_i		
1	1	0	?	0
2	1	0	?	0
3	0	1	1	?
4	1	0	?	0
5	1	1	?	1
6	0	1	1	?
7	0	0	0	?
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- Many possible tests to choose from!

Null/randomization distribution

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- p-values will be below α exactly $100\alpha\%$ of the time

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5. Repeat steps 3-4 for all Ω_0 to get $\tilde{T} = \{\tilde{T}_1, \dots, \tilde{T}_K\}$.
6. Calculate the p-value: $p = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \mathbb{I}(\tilde{T}_k \geq T)$

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- Larger values of T_{diff} are evidence against the sharp null.
- Good estimator for constant, additive treatment effects and relatively few outliers in the the potential outcomes.

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- Afterwards, we observe them giving between \$0 and \$5.
- Simple example to show the steps of RI in a concrete case.

Randomization distribution

Unit	Mailer D_i	Contr. Y_i	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
Jon	1	3	(3)	3
Sansa	1	5	(5)	5
Arya	1	0	(0)	0
Robb	0	4	4	(4)
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$$T_{\text{diff}} = |8/3 - 5/3| = 1$$

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$$\tilde{T}_{\text{diff}} = |12/3 - 1/3| = 3.67$$

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$$\tilde{T}_{\text{diff}} = |9/3 - 4/3| = 1.67$$

Randomization distribution

D_1 D_2 D_3 D_4 D_5 D_6 | |Diff in means|

Randomization distribution

D_1	D_2	D_3	D_4	D_5	D_6	Diff in means
1	1	1	0	0	0	1.00

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1	0	1	1	0	0	0.33
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```
library(ri)
y <- c(3, 5, 0, 4, 0, 1)
D <- c(1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0)
T_obs <- abs(mean(y[D == 1]) - mean(y[D == 0]))
D_bold <- ri::genperms(D)
D_bold[, 1:7]
```

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```

```
##      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7]
## 1      1      1      1      1      1      1      1
## 2      1      1      1      1      0      0      0
## 3      1      0      0      0      1      1      1
## 4      0      1      0      0      1      0      0
## 5      0      0      1      0      0      1      0
## 6      0      0      0      1      0      0      1
```

Calculate means

```
rdist <- rep(NA, times = ncol(D_bold))
for (i in seq_len(ncol(D_bold))) {
  D_tilde <- D_bold[, i]
  rdist[i] <- abs(mean(y[D_tilde == 1]) - mean(y[D_tilde == 0]))
}
rdist
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```
## [1] 1.000 3.667 1.000 1.667 0.333 2.333 1.667 0.333
## [9] 1.000 1.667 1.667 1.000 0.333 1.667 2.333 0.333
## [17] 1.667 1.000 3.667 1.000
```





```
# p-value  
mean(rdist >= T_obs)
```

```
## [1] 0.8
```


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- $n = 6$ and $n_1 = 3 \rightsquigarrow 20$ assignment vectors.

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 - take K samples from the treatment assignment space, Ω_0 .
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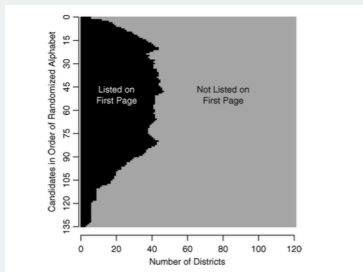
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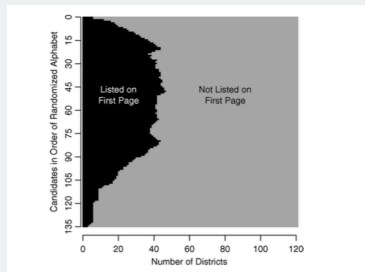
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CA recall election



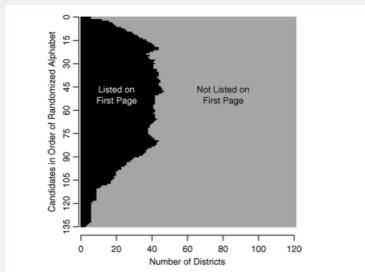
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CA recall election



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CA recall election



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- Effect of being on the first page on the vote share for a candidate?

CA recall election

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4. Continue rotating for each district.

CA recall election with RI

1. Pick another possible letter ordering.

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4. Lather, rinse, repeat.

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- Outliers \rightsquigarrow more variation in the randomization distribution

Other test statistics

- The difference in means is great for when effects are:
 - constant and additive
 - few outliers in the data
- Outliers \rightsquigarrow more variation in the randomization distribution
- What about alternative test statistics?

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- Useful for skewed distributions of outcomes.

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- Could use other quantiles (the 0.25 quantile or the 0.75 quantile).

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Rank statistics formally

- Calculate ranks of the outcomes:

$$\tilde{R}_i = \tilde{R}_i(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{I}(Y_j \leq Y_i)$$

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Randomization distribution

Unit	Mailer D_i	Contr. Y_i	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$	Rank	R_i
Jon	1	3	(3)	3		
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$$T_{\text{rank}} = |1/3 - -1/3| = 0.67$$

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- Proportion of observed outcomes below a chosen value for treated and control separately.
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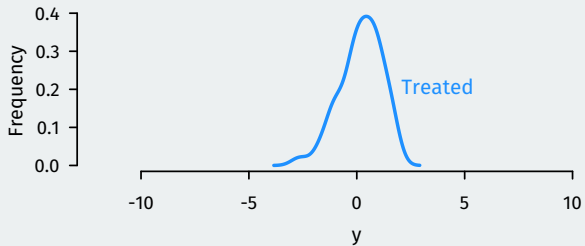
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- Summary of how different the two distributions are.
- Useful in many contexts!

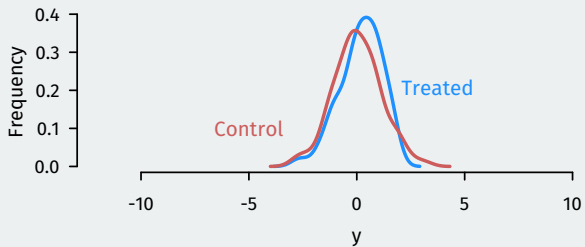
KS statistic, similar



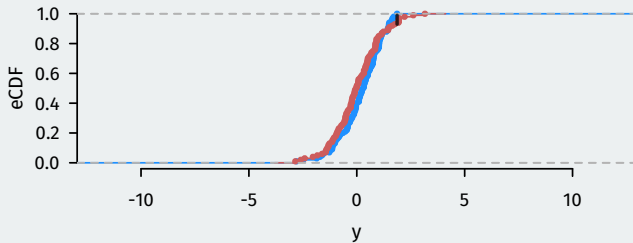
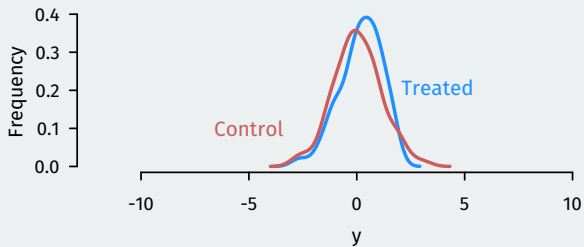
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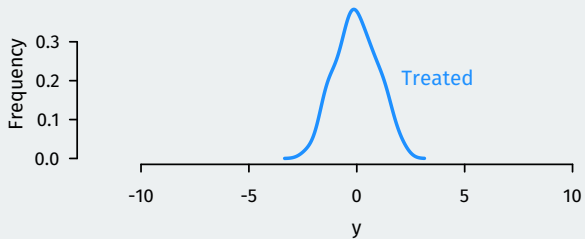
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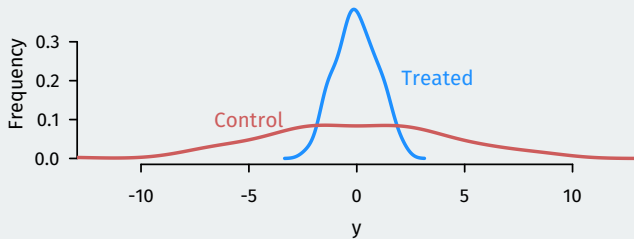
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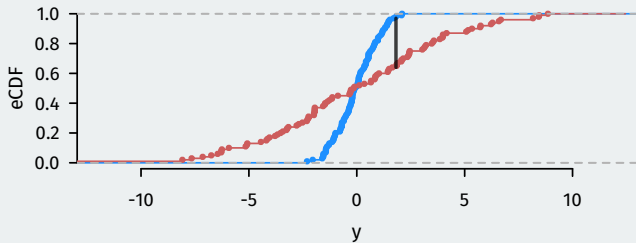
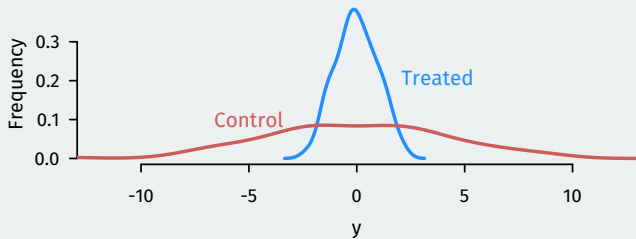
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- For these, use a test statistic that is bigger under the alternative:

$$T_{\text{diff}}^* = \bar{Y}_t - \bar{Y}_c$$

3/ Confidence intervals in randomization inference

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- Complications: why constant and additive?

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 - Collect all values that you cannot reject as the 95% CI.

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- If the p-value of 0.05 falls “between” two of these discrete points, a 95% CI will cover the true value more than 95% of the time.

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- Usually this means selecting the value with the highest p-value.

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 - If the model is “right” (read: predictive of $Y_i(0)$), then T_{ols} will have higher power.