The Experimental Ideal EC 607, Set 02

Edward Rubin Spring 2020

Prologue

Last time

Research basics, our class, and $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}$

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Future

Lab: Meet Colleen and start deepening R knowledge.Long run: Deepen understandings/intuitions for causality and inference.

Review *Research fundamentals*

Review

Research fundamentals

Angrist and Pischke provide four **fundamental questions for research**:

- 1. What is the **causal relationship of interest**?
- 2. How would an **ideal experiment** capture this causal effect of interest?
- 3. What is your **identification strategy**?
- 4. What is your **mode of inference**?

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Seemingly straightforward questions can be fundamentally unanswerable.

Review

General research recommendations

More unsolicited advice:

- Be curious.
- Ask questions.
- Attend seminars.
- Meet faculty (UO + visitors).
- Focus on learning—especially intuition.[†]
- Be kind and constructive.

† Learning is not always the same as getting good grades.

What's so great about experiments?

Science widely regards **experiments as the gold standard** for research.

But why? The costs can be substantial.

Costs

- slow and expensive
- heavily regulated by review boards
- can abstract away from the actual question/setting

Benefits

So the benefits need to be pretty large, right?

Example: Hospitals and health

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Empirical exercise

- 1. Collect data on *health status* and *hospital visits*.
- 2. Summarize health status by hospital-visit group.

Example: Hospitals and health

Our empirical exercise from the 2005 National Health Inteview Survey:

Group	Sample Size	Mean Health Status	Std. Error
Hospital	7,774	3.21	0.014
No hospital	90,049	3.93	0.003

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Potential outcomes framework

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- Binary treatment variable (e.g., hospitalized): $\mathrm{D}_i=0,1$
- Outcome for individual i (e.g., health): \mathbf{Y}_i

This framework has a few names...

- Neyman potential outcomes framework
- Rubin causal model
- Neyman-Rubin "potential outcome" | "causal" "framework" | "model"

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1. \mathbf{Y}_{1i} if $\mathbf{D}_i = 1$ *i*'s health outcome if she went to the hospital

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i's health outcome if she did not go to the hospital

The difference between these two outcomes gives us the **causal effect of hospital treatment**, *i.e.*,

$$\tau_i = \mathbf{Y}_{1i} - \mathbf{Y}_{0i}$$

#problems

This simple equation

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We can never simultaneously observe \mathbf{Y}_{1i} and \mathbf{Y}_{0i} .

Most of applied econometrics focuses on addressing this simple problem.

Accordingly, our methods try to address the related question

For each Y_{1i} , what is a (reasonably) good counterfactual?

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Problem We cannot directly calculate $\tau_i = Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}$.

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which gives us the observed difference in health outcomes.

Q This comparison will return *an* answer, but is it *the* answer we want?
Selection

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A First notice that we can write i's outcome Y_i as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{Y}_{0i} + \mathbf{D}_i \underbrace{(\mathbf{Y}_{1i} - \mathbf{Y}_{0i})}_{\tau_i}$$

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Now write out our expectation, apply this definition, do creative math.

 $E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{D}_i = 1] - E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{D}_i = 0]$

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The **first term** is *good variation*—essentially the answer that we want.

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The **average causal effect** of hospitalization for hospitalized individuals.

The **second term** is bad variation—preventing us from knowing the answer. $E[Y_{0i} | D_i = 1] - E[Y_{0i} | D_i = 0]$

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The difference in the average untreated outcome between the treatment and control groups.

Selection bias The extent to which the "control group" provides a bad counterfactual for the treated individuals.

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Angrist and Pischke (MHE, p. 15),

The goal of most empirical economic research is to overcome selection bias, and therefore to say something about the causal effect of a variable like D_i .

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The goal of most empirical economic research is to overcome selection bias, and therefore to say something about the causal effect of a variable like D_i .

Q So how do experiments—the gold standard of empirical economic (and scientific) research—accomplish this goal and overcome selection bias?

Back to experiments

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 $\mathbf{E} = E[\mathbf{Y}_{1i} - \mathbf{Y}_{0i} \mid \mathbf{D}_i = 1]$

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 Random assignment of \mathbf{D}_i breaks selection bias.

Randomly assigned treatment

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meaning the control group's mean now provides a good counterfactual for the treatment group's mean.

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In other words, there is no selection bias, *i.e.*,

Selection bias = $E[Y_{0i} | D_i = 1] - E[Y_{0i} | D_i = 0] = 0$

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$$E[\tau_i \mid \mathbf{D}_i = 1] = E[\tau_i \mid \mathbf{D}_i = 0] = E[\tau_i]$$

Example: Training programs

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Challenges Participants self select. + Programs target lower-wage workers.
Example: Training programs

How do we formalize these concerns in our framework?

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Observational program evaluations

 $E[\text{Wage}_i \mid \underline{\text{Program}}_i = 1] - E[\text{Wage}_i \mid \underline{\text{Program}}_i = 0] =$

 $E[\operatorname{Wage}_{1i} \mid \operatorname{Program}_i = 1] - E[\operatorname{Wage}_{0i} \mid \operatorname{Program}_i = 1] +$

Average causal effect of training program on wages for participants, *i.e.*, $\overline{\tau}_1$

$$E[\text{Wage}_{0i} \mid \text{Program}_i = 1] - E[\text{Wage}_{0i} \mid \text{Program}_i = 0]$$

Selection bias

Example: Training programs

How do we formalize these concerns in our framework?

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Selection bias

If the program attracts/selects individuals who, on average, have lower wages without the program (sort of the point of the program), then we have negative selection bias.

Example: Training programs

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So even if the program, on average, has an positive wage effect (in the participant group), *i.e.*, $\overline{\tau}_1 > 0$, we will detect a lower effect due to the negative selection bias.

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Related While observational studies typically found negative program effects, several experiments found positive program effects.

Example: The STAR experiment

The Tennessee STAR experiment is a famous/popular example of an experiment that allows us to answer an important social/policy question.

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Treatments

- 1. *Small* classes (13–17 students)
- 2. *Regular* classes (22–35 students) plus part-time teacher's aide
- 3. *Regular* classes (22–35 students) plus full-time teacher's aide

Example: The STAR experiment

First question Did the randomization balance participants' characteristics across the treatment groups?

Example: The STAR experiment

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Ideally, we would have pre-experiment data on outcome variable.

Unfortunately, we only have a few demographic attributes.

Treatment: Class Size

Variable	Small	Regular	Regular + Aide	P-value
Free lunch	0.47	0.48	0.50	0.09
White/Asian	0.68	0.67	0.66	0.26
Age in 1985	5.44	5.43	5.42	0.32
Attrition rate	0.49	0.52	0.53	0.02
K. class size	15.10	22.40	22.80	0.00
K. test percentile	54.70	48.90	50.00	0.00

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Demographics appear balanced across the three treatment groups.

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The three groups differ significantly on attrition rate.

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The randomization generated variation in the treatment.

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The small-class treatment significantly increased test scores.

The STAR experiment

The previous table estimated/compared the treatment effects using simple differences in means.

We can make the same comparisons using regressions.

Specifically, we regress our outcome (test percentile) on dummy variables (binary indicator variables) for each treatment group.

Example of our three treatment dummies.

i	$oldsymbol{y}_i$	\mathbf{Trt}_{1i}	Trt_{2i}	Trt_{3i}
1	y_1	1	0	0
2	y_2	1	0	0
0 0 0	• •	• •	• •	• •
l	y_ℓ	1	0	0
$\ell+1$	$y_{\ell-1}$	0	1	0
0 0 0	• •	• •	• •	• •
p	y_p	0	1	0
p+1	y_{p+1}	0	0	1
0 0 0	• •	• •	• •	• •
N	y_N	0	0	1

Regression analysis

Assume for the moment that the treatment effect is constant[†], *i.e.*,

$$\mathbf{Y}_{1i} - \mathbf{Y}_{0i} = \boldsymbol{\rho} \quad \forall i$$

+You'll often hear econometricians say "homogeneous" (vs. "hetergeneous").

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Again, our estimate of the **treatment effect** (ρ) is only going to be as good as our ability to shut down the **selection bias**.

Selection bias in regression model: $E[\eta_i | D_i = 1] - E[\eta_i | D_i = 0]$

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There is something in our disturbance η_i that is affecting \mathbf{Y}_i and is also correlated with \mathbf{D}_i .

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In other metrics-y words: Our treatment D_i is endogenous.

Solutions and covariates

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Another potential route to identification is to condition on covariates in the hopes that they "take care of" the relationship between D_i and whatever is in our disturbance η_i .
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Solutions and covariates

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Another potential route to identification is to condition on covariates in the hopes that they "take care of" the relationship between D_i and whatever is in our disturbance η_i .

Without very clear reasons explaining how you know you've controlled for the "bad variation", clean and convincing identification on this path is going to be challenging.

The experimental ideal

Covariates

That said, covariates can help with two things:

- 1. Even experiments may need **conditioning/controls**: The STAR experiment was random *within school*—not across schools.
- 2. Covariates can soak up unexplained variation—**increasing precision.**

The experimental ideal

Covariates

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Now that we've seen regression can analyze experiments, let's estimate the STAR example...

Table 2.2.2, MHE					
Explanatory variable	1	2	3		
Small class	4.82	5.37	5.36		
	(2.19)	(1.26)	(1.21)		
Regular + aide	0.12	0.29	0.53		
	(2.23)	(1.13)	(1.09)		
White/Asian			8.35		
			(1.35)		
Female			4.48		
			(0.63)		
Free lunch			-13.15		
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School F.E.	F	Т	Т		

The omitted level is *Regular* (with part-time aide).

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Results without other controls are very similar to the difference in means.

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Table 2 2 2 MULT

School FEs enforce the experiment's design and increase precision.

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Additional controls slightly increase precision.

Table of contents

Admin

1. Schedule

2. Review

Experimental ideal

- 1. Neyman/Rubin framework
- 2. Selection
- 3. Experiments
- 4. Example: Training programs
- 5. Example: STAR experiment
 - Mean differences
 - Dummy variables
 - Regression analysis
 - Covariates