## Statistical Inference in Experiments II

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Linear Methods in Causal Inference POL1784

### Review

- There are two consistent estimators for experimental analysis, the Horvitz-Thompson estimator and the Hajek estimator.
- ► The former is unbiased but the second is more efficient.
- We can conduct statistical inference in experiments with the analytic approach.
- First, we use the Neyman variance estimator to estimate the asymptotic variance.
- The variance captures the design-based uncertainty.
- The variance estimate is conservative unless the treatment effect is constant or the estimand is the PATE.
- Next, we construct confidence intervals using critical values from the normal distribution.

## Resampling techniques

- The analytic approach is hard to work with.
- Deriving the variance is challenging, and proving asymptotic normality requires more technicalities.
- The CI may still perform poorly after all the labor.
- An alternative is to rely on resampling techniques.
- ► They approximate F<sub>N</sub>(<sup>ˆ</sup>) with a direct estimate <sup>ˆ</sup>F<sub>N</sub>(<sup>ˆ</sup>) rather than N(0, N \* Var(<sup>ˆ</sup>)).
- They can be more efficient, and we don't even have to calculate the variance!
- But they do not work everywhere.
- We consider three methods: Fisher's randomization test, boostrap, and jackknife.

- We usually want to test the weak null hypothesis:  $\tau_{SATE} = 0$ .
- Fisher suggests that we may also test the sharp null hypothesis:  $\tau_i = 0$  for any unit in the sample.
- What is the relationship between the weak null and the sharp null?
- Suppose the sharp null is true, then we actually know the counterfactual of each unit.
- Since the individualistic effect is zero,  $Y_i(1) = Y_i(0)$  for any *i*.
- Now, we know the distribution of the potential outcomes in the sample!

- Remember that the potential outcomes are fixed quantities.
- Therefore, we can literally run the experiment repeatedly and obtain one ATE estimate from each experiment.
- ► This will be the true distribution of the estimates, F̂<sub>N</sub>(<sup>+</sup>), under the sharp null.
- We reject the sharp null if the original estimate is an outlier in the distribution.
- This is called Fisher's randomization test (FRT).

The true distribution of the potential outcomes is

Unit	$Y_i(1)$	$Y_i(0)$	Di
1	3	2	
2	5	3	
3	4	5	

• The ATE equals to (1+2-1)/3 = 2/3.

Our data is

Unit	Y <sub>i</sub>	Di
1	3	1
2	3	0
3	4	1

• And the ATE estimate is (3+4)/2 - 3 = 0.5.

Under the sharp null

$Y_i(1)$	$Y_i(0)$
3	3
3	3
4	4
	3 3

Under the sharp null

Unit	$Y_i(1)$	$Y_i(0)$	Di	Yi
1	3	3	1	3
2	3	3	1	3
3	4	4	0	4

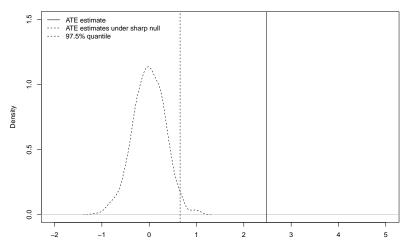
• The ATE estimate is (3+3)/2 - 4 = -1.

Under the sharp null

Unit	$Y_i(1)$	$Y_i(0)$	Di	Yi
1	3	3	0	3
2	3	3	0	3
3	4	4	1	4

• The ATE estimate is 4 - (3 + 3)/2 = 1.

### Fisher's randomization test: simulation



Distribution of the ATE Estimates under the Sharp Null

## The 95% confidence interval is 1.847 3.113

- Remember that the sharp null is weaker than the weak null on the ATE.
- Even if we reject the sharp null, we do not necessarily reject the weak null.
- Even if the treatment is effective on certain units, its average impact is insignificant.
- In practice though, we may reject the weak null without rejecting the sharp null.
- This is caused by the convergence rate of the two tests (Ding et al. 2017).

### Fisher's randomization test: pros and cons

- ► The FRT works well under complex research designs.
- It ensures the correct coverage even in small samples.
- It circumvents regularity conditions in asymptotic analysis that are not satisfied in certain cases (Young 2019).
- If you know the assignment algorithm but not how to estimate the analytic variance, you can do FRT.
- Applying the FRT to test the weak null leads to anti-conservative results (Wu and Ding 2020).
- We can construct FRTs that have the correct coverage under the sharp null and remain asymptotically valid under the weak null (Cohen and Fogarty 2020).

### Bootstrap

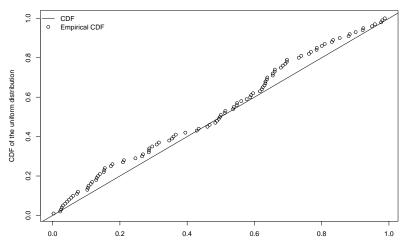
- Recall that an estimator maps the data to an number.
- If we know the distribution of the data, we can resample from it and construct the distribution of the estimate.
- That's what we did in our simulation for the sample average.
- ► We drew 1,000 samples from the uniform distribution, F(y), and approximate *τ*'s distribution with these 1,000 estimates.
- In practice, we do not know the distribution of the data.
- The bootstrap approach suggests that we estimate this distribution with the empirical distribution of our data:

$$\hat{F}(y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{1}\{Y_i \leq y\}.$$

▶ The law of large numbers tells us that  $\hat{F}(y) \rightarrow F(y)$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .

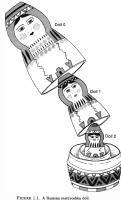
#### Bootstrap

average-1.pdf



### Bootstrap

- ► We sample from the empirical distribution as if we were sampling from the true distribution F(y).
- The key is to rely on the same sampling strategy.
- ► This will be accurate when *N* is large.



- Sampling from the empirical distribution is equivalent to redraw a subsample from the data with replacement.
- The redrawn sample can have an arbitrary size.
- But statistical theory indicates that drawing a subsample with *N* units is the most efficient approach.
- Statistical inference for  $\hat{\tau}$  proceeds by
  - 1. resampling N observations from the data with replacement,
  - 2. estimating  $\hat{\tau}^*$  using the resampled data, and
  - 3. constructing confidence intervals from the distribution of  $\hat{\tau}^*$ .
- We do the same in the setting of causal inference.
- ▶ We need redraw *Y<sub>i</sub>* and *D<sub>i</sub>* simultaneously and stick with one estimator.

- Suppose we resample *B* times and obtain  $\{\hat{\tau}_b^*\}_{b=1}^B$  and  $\{\hat{\sigma}_b^*\}_{b=1}^B$ .
- There are three variants to construct the 95% confidence intervals.
- ▶ The Efron method: we find the 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles of  $\{\hat{\tau}_b^*\}_{b=1}^B, \hat{\xi}_{2.5\%}$  and  $\hat{\xi}_{97.5\%}$ , and  $[\hat{\xi}_{2.5\%}, \hat{\xi}_{97.5\%}]$  will be the confidence interval.
- ► The percentile t-method: we find the 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles of  $\frac{\hat{\tau}_b^* \hat{\tau}}{\hat{\sigma}_b^* / \sqrt{N}}$  and construct the confidence interval using the original effect and variance estimates plus the bootstrapped quantiles.
- ▶ The percentile method: we find the 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles of  $\hat{\tau}_b^* \hat{\tau}$  and subtract them from  $\hat{\tau}$ .

• Clearly, if we can find numbers  $z_{2.5\%}$  and  $z_{97.5\%}$  such that

$$P\left(z_{2.5\%} \leq rac{\hat{ au} - au}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{N}} \leq z_{97.5\%}
ight) \geq 95\%,$$

then the 95% confidence interval will be  $[\hat{\tau} - z_{97.5\%} * \hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{N}, \hat{\tau} - z_{2.5\%} * \hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{N}].$ 

• The percentile t-method estimates the critical values by finding  $\hat{z}_{2.5\%}$  and  $\hat{z}_{97.5\%}$  such that

$$P\left(\hat{z}_{2.5\%}\leqrac{\hat{ au}^*-\hat{ au}}{\hat{\sigma}^*/\sqrt{N}}\leq\hat{z}_{97.5\%}
ight)\geq95\%,$$

► Therefore, the bootstrapped the 95% confidence interval is  $[\hat{\tau} - \hat{z}_{97.5\%} * \hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{N}, \hat{\tau} - \hat{z}_{2.5\%} * \hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{N}].$ 

- The percentile method resamples the centered estimate  $\hat{\tau} \tau$ .
- ► The logic is similar and the bootstrapped the 95% confidence interval is [<sup>ˆ</sup>τ − η̂<sub>97.5%</sub>, <sup>ˆ</sup>τ − η̂<sub>2.5%</sub>].
- Here  $\hat{\eta}_{97.5\%}$  is an estimate of  $z_{2.5\%} * \sigma / \sqrt{N}$ .
- ► For the Efron method, we can see that  $[\hat{\xi}_{2.5\%}, \hat{\xi}_{97.5\%}] = [\hat{\tau} + \hat{\eta}_{2.5\%}, \hat{\tau} + \hat{\eta}_{97.5\%}].$
- It works only when the true distribution is symmetric hence  $\hat{\eta}_{2.5\%} = -\hat{\eta}_{97.5\%}$ .
- In this case, the three variants have very similar performance.

### Bootstrap: some theory

- The percentile t-method should provide us with a more accurate approximation of the true confidence interval.
- It resamples the t-statistic rather than the estimate.
- We call the transformation from the estimate to the t-statistic "studentization:"

$$t = \frac{\hat{\tau} - \tau}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{N}}$$

- Note that the t-statistic converges to the standard normal distribution, which does not hinge on any parameter that has to be estimated.
- Such statistics are known as "pivotal" statistics.
- Bootstrap pivotal statistics gives us "asymptotic refinement," meaning the CI will be more accurately approximated.
- But of course it requires us to estimate the variance.

## Jackknife

- Jackknife was invented before bootstrap.
- But now it is seen as another variant of bootstrap.
- We occasionally use it for variance estimation.
- ► We leave each unit out and conduct estimation with the rest N - 1 units.
- We obtain N estimates:  $\{\hat{\tau}_i^*\}_{i=1}^N$ .
- Their variance is an approximation for the estimate's variance.
- We can also use bootstrap to approximate the estimate's variance.
- But critical values still need to be known.
- It got the name since "it is a rough-and-ready tool that can improvise a solution for a variety of problems."

# Jackknife



#### Bootstrap: simulation

## 95% CI from the asymptotic method: 2.295 3.573
## 95% CI from the percentile t-method: 2.311 3.535
## 95% CI from the percentile method: 2.33 3.564
## 95% CI from the Efron method: 2.303 3.537

#### Bootstrap: caveats

- Bootstrap is not always valid.
- It requires the estimtor to be smooth for the empirical distribution.
- It thus fails when the estimator involves truncation or fixed quantities.
- In causal inference, a well-known example is that bootstrap does not work for nearest-neighbor matching (Abadie and Imbens 2008).

### Bootstrap: caveats

- Applying bootstrap to causal inference creates extra complexities.
- ► Note that we are resampling  $\{Y_i, D_i\}_{i=1}^N$  not  $\{Y_i(0), Y_i(1), D_i\}_{i=1}^N$ .
- At most, we can approximate the marginal distribution of Y<sub>i</sub>(0) and Y<sub>i</sub>(1), but not their joint distribution.
- We thus ignore the variance caused by treatment effect heterogeneity by using bootstrap.
- The result will be similar to that from using the Neyman variance estimator.
- ► The problem is identified by Imbens and Menzel (2018).
- They provide a solution to increase the precision of estimation based on the idea in Aronow et al. (2014).

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