

# Statistical Foundations I

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- 1 What is an experiment?
- 2 Treatment Effects
- 3 Statistical Inference

1 What is an experiment?

2 Treatment Effects

3 Statistical Inference

# Principles of causality

- 1 Correlation/Relationship
- 2 Nonconfounding
- 3 Direction (“temporal precedence”)
- 4 Mechanism
- 5 Appropriate level of analysis

# Principles of causality

- 1 **Correlation/Relationship**
- 2 **Nonconfounding**
- 3 **Direction (“temporal precedence”)**
- 4 **Mechanism**
- 5 **Appropriate level of analysis**

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- 1 Draw causal inferences through *design*
- 2 Randomization breaks selection bias and fixes temporal precedence
- 3 We don't need to "control" for anything
- 4 We see "causal effects" in the comparison of experimental groups

# Definitions I

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- If we manipulate the thing we want to know the effect of ( $X$ ), and control (i.e., hold constant) everything we do not want to know the effect of ( $Z$ ), the only thing that can affect the outcome ( $Y$ ) is  $X$ .

# Definitions II

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**Unit:** A physical object at a particular point in time

# Definitions II

**Treatment:** An intervention, whose effect(s) we wish to assess relative to some other (non-)intervention



# Definitions II

**Outcome:** The variable we are trying to explain

# Definitions II

**Potential outcomes:** The outcome value for each unit that we *would observe* if that unit received each treatment

Multiple potential outcomes for each unit, but we only observe one of them

# Definitions II

**Causal effect:** The comparisons between the unit-level potential outcomes under each intervention

*This is what we want to know!*

# Example

# Example

**Unit:** Schools in Kenya

# Example

**Outcome:** Student learning

# Example

**Treatment:** An additional teacher per class,  
reducing effective class size

# Example

## Potential outcomes:

- 1 Knowledge in a “large” class
- 2 Knowledge in a “small class”



# Example

**Causal effect:** Difference in knowledge between the two conditions

# Units

- Units can be almost anything
- Common units in experimental designs:
  - Individual people
  - Sites (schools, classes, surgeries)
  - Areas (districts, states)
- Units are period-specific
  - Randomization can occur over time

# Outcomes

- Experiments can have many outcome concepts/measures
- Quite common to think about just one at a time
- Outcomes can be anything that:
  - Is observable/measurable
  - Can be measured at the level of randomization or lower

# Treatments

- Synonyms: manipulation, intervention, factor, condition, cell
- Treatments are operationalizations of independent variables in a causal theory
- A set of treatments generates observable variation in  $X$

# Developing Treatments

- From theory, we derive testable hypotheses
  - Hypotheses are expectations about differences in outcomes across levels of a putatively causal variable
  - In an experiment, an hypothesis must be testable by an ATE
- The experimental manipulations induce variation in the causal variable that enable tests of the hypotheses

## Example: Framing and Attention<sup>1</sup>

- Theory: Presentation of information affects politicians' attention
- Hypothesis:
  - Information framed as a conflict draws more attention from political elites than information not framed as a conflict.
- Manipulation:
  - Control group: Presentation of headline information
  - Treatment group: Same information presented as conflict
- Outcome:
  - How likely are legislators to read full article

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<sup>1</sup>Walgrave, Sevenans, Van Camp, Loewen (2017) – “What Draws Politicians' Attention? An Experimental Study of Issue Framing and its Effect on Individual Political Elites”

## Ex.: Presence/Absence

- Theory: Legislators vote in line with constituents' preferences
- Hypothesis: Exposure to a poll of constituent views shifts legislative votes.
- Manipulation:
  - Control group receives no polling information.
  - Treatment group receives a letter containing polling information.
- Outcome:
  - How legislators vote on relevant piece of legislation

## Ex.: Levels/doses

- Theory: Legislators vote in line with constituents' preferences
- Hypothesis: Exposure to a poll of constituent views shifts legislative votes.
- Manipulation:
  - Control group receives no polling information.
  - Treatment group 1 receives a letter containing polling information.
  - Treatment group 2 receives two letters containing polling information.
  - etc.
- Outcome:
  - How legislators vote on relevant piece of legislation



## Ex.: Qualitative variation

- Theory: Legislators vote in line with constituents' preferences
- Hypothesis: Exposure to a poll of constituent views shifts legislative votes.
- Manipulation:
  - Control group receives no polling information.
  - Treatment group 1 receives a letter containing polling information suggesting public support.
  - Treatment group 2 receives a letter containing polling information suggesting public opposition.
- Outcome:
  - How legislators vote on relevant piece of legislation

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- Derive experimental design from hypotheses
- Experimental “factors” are expressions of hypotheses as randomized groups
- What intervention each group receives depends on hypotheses
  - presence/absence
  - levels/doses
  - qualitative variations

# Questions?

# Complexities

- Experiments can have additional “moving parts”
  - Control groups and placebo groups
  - Pre-treatment outcome measurement
  - Within-subjects design features
  - Repeated measures of outcomes
  - Cluster randomization
  - Sampling from a population
  - ...
  
- None of these are *necessary* for causal inference

1 What is an experiment?

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3 Statistical Inference



# The Fundamental Problem of Causal Inference!

- Units have multiple potential outcomes
- We can only observe one of them!
- Thus we never know the individual-level causal effect of a treatment for a given unit

# Two Solutions!

- 1 Assume units are all “homogeneous” (i.e., identical)
- 2 Randomly assign units to treatments and compare *average* outcomes

# “The Perfect Doctor”

| Unit        | $Y_0$    | $Y_1$    |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 1           | ?        | ?        |
| 2           | ?        | ?        |
| 3           | ?        | ?        |
| 4           | ?        | ?        |
| 5           | ?        | ?        |
| 6           | ?        | ?        |
| 7           | ?        | ?        |
| 8           | ?        | ?        |
| <b>Mean</b> | <b>?</b> | <b>?</b> |

# “The Perfect Doctor”

| Unit        | $Y_0$      | $Y_1$     |
|-------------|------------|-----------|
| 1           | ?          | 14        |
| 2           | 6          | ?         |
| 3           | 4          | ?         |
| 4           | 5          | ?         |
| 5           | 6          | ?         |
| 6           | 6          | ?         |
| 7           | ?          | 10        |
| 8           | ?          | 9         |
| <b>Mean</b> | <b>5.4</b> | <b>11</b> |

# “The Perfect Doctor”

| Unit        | $Y_0$    | $Y_1$    |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 1           | 13       | 14       |
| 2           | 6        | 0        |
| 3           | 4        | 1        |
| 4           | 5        | 2        |
| 5           | 6        | 3        |
| 6           | 6        | 1        |
| 7           | 8        | 10       |
| 8           | 8        | 9        |
| <b>Mean</b> | <b>7</b> | <b>5</b> |

# Experimental Inference I

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$$ATE = E[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}] = E[Y_{1i}] - E[Y_{0i}]$$

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- We can average:  
 $ATE = E[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}] = E[Y_{1i}] - E[Y_{0i}]$
- But we still only see one potential outcome for each unit:

$$ATE_{naive} = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1] - E[Y_{0i}|X = 0]$$

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$$ATE_{naive} = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1] - E[Y_{0i}|X = 0]$$

- Is this what we want to know?

# Experimental Inference III

- What we want and what we have:

$$ATE = E[Y_{1i}] - E[Y_{0i}] \quad (1)$$

$$ATE_{naive} = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1] - E[Y_{0i}|X = 0] \quad (2)$$

# Experimental Inference III

- What we want and what we have:

$$ATE = E[Y_{1i}] - E[Y_{0i}] \quad (1)$$

$$ATE_{naive} = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1] - E[Y_{0i}|X = 0] \quad (2)$$

- Are the following statements true?
  - $E[Y_{1i}] = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1]$
  - $E[Y_{0i}] = E[Y_{0i}|X = 0]$

# Experimental Inference III

- What we want and what we have:

$$ATE = E[Y_{1i}] - E[Y_{0i}] \quad (1)$$

$$ATE_{naive} = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1] - E[Y_{0i}|X = 0] \quad (2)$$

- Are the following statements true?
  - $E[Y_{1i}] = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1]$
  - $E[Y_{0i}] = E[Y_{0i}|X = 0]$
- Not in general!

# Experimental Inference IV

- Only true when both of the following hold:

$$E[Y_{1i}] = E[Y_{1i}|X = 1] = E[Y_{1i}|X = 0] \quad (3)$$

$$E[Y_{0i}] = E[Y_{0i}|X = 1] = E[Y_{0i}|X = 0] \quad (4)$$

- In that case, potential outcomes are *independent* of treatment assignment
- If true, then:

$$\begin{aligned}ATE_{naive} &= E[Y_{1i}|X = 1] - E[Y_{0i}|X = 0] \quad (5) \\ &= E[Y_{1i}] - E[Y_{0i}] \\ &= ATE\end{aligned}$$



# Experimental Inference V

- This holds in experiments because of randomization, which is a special, physical process of unpredictable sorting<sup>2</sup>
  - Units differ only in what side of coin was up
  - Experiments randomly reveal potential outcomes
  - Randomization balances  $Z$  *in expectation*

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<sup>2</sup>Not “random” in the casual, everyday sense of the word



# Experimental Analysis I

- The statistic of interest in an experiment is the (*sample*) *average treatment effect* (SATE)
- This boils down to being a mean-difference between two groups:

$$\widehat{SATE} = \left( \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} Y_{1i} \right) - \left( \frac{1}{n_0} \sum_{i=1}^{n_0} Y_{0i} \right) \quad (5)$$

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- Experiments do not require “controlling for” anything, if randomization occurred successfully

# Experimental Data Structures

An experimental data structure looks like:

| unit | treatment | outcome |
|------|-----------|---------|
| A    | 0         | 5       |
| B    | 0         | 7       |
| C    | 0         | 9       |
| D    | 0         | 4       |
| E    | 1         | 9       |
| F    | 1         | 4       |
| G    | 1         | 13      |
| H    | 1         | 12      |

# Questions?

- 1 What is an experiment?
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# Experimental Analysis I

- We don't just care about the size of the SATE. We also want to measure it precisely and know whether it is significantly different from zero (i.e., different from no effect/difference)
- To know that, we need to estimate the *variance* of the SATE
- The variance is influenced by:
  - Total sample size
  - Variance of the outcome,  $Y$
  - Relative size of each treatment group
  - "Advanced" design features



# Experimental Analysis II

- Formula for the variance of the SATE is:

$$\widehat{Var}(SATE) = \left( \frac{\widehat{Var}(Y_0)}{n_0} \right) + \left( \frac{\widehat{Var}(Y_1)}{n_1} \right)$$

- $\widehat{Var}(Y_0)$  is control group variance
  - $\widehat{Var}(Y_1)$  is treatment group variance
- We often express this as the *standard error* of the estimate:

$$\widehat{SE}_{SATE} = \sqrt{\frac{\widehat{Var}(Y_0)}{n_0} + \frac{\widehat{Var}(Y_1)}{n_1}}$$

# Intuition about Variance

- Bigger sample  $\rightarrow$  smaller SEs
- Smaller variance  $\rightarrow$  smaller SEs
- Efficient use of sample size:
  - When treatment group variances equal, equal sample sizes are most efficient
  - When variances differ, sample units are better allocated to the group with higher variance in  $Y$

# Statistical Inference

- To assess whether an effect differs from zero, we need to know the sampling distribution of the ATE
  
- Two major ways to do this:
  - 1 Assume a parametric distribution (e.g., t-test)
  - 2 Randomization inference
  
- In large samples, the latter approaches the former

# Randomization Inference I

- The randomization (or permutation) distribution is an empirical sampling distribution
- It conveys the variation we would observe in  $\widehat{ATE}$  if a null hypothesis,  $H_0 : ATE = 0$  was true
- If this null hypothesis is true, then treatment had no effect; the variation in permuted ATEs therefore only reflects sampling variance

| unit | treatment | outcome |
|------|-----------|---------|
| A    | 0         | 5       |
| B    | 0         | 7       |
| C    | 0         | 9       |
| D    | 0         | 4       |
| E    | 1         | 9       |
| F    | 1         | 4       |
| G    | 1         | 13      |
| H    | 1         | 12      |

$$\widehat{ATE} = 3.25$$

| unit | treatment | outcome |
|------|-----------|---------|
| A    | 0         | 5       |
| B    | 1         | 7       |
| C    | 0         | 9       |
| D    | 1         | 4       |
| E    | 0         | 9       |
| F    | 1         | 4       |
| G    | 0         | 13      |
| H    | 1         | 12      |

$$\widehat{ATE} = -1.5$$

| unit | treatment | outcome |
|------|-----------|---------|
| A    | 1         | 5       |
| B    | 1         | 7       |
| C    | 0         | 9       |
| D    | 0         | 4       |
| E    | 1         | 9       |
| F    | 0         | 4       |
| G    | 0         | 13      |
| H    | 1         | 12      |

$$\widehat{ATE} = 0.75$$

# Randomization Distribution

| Randomization | ATE   |
|---------------|-------|
| 1             | 3.25  |
| 2             | -1.50 |
| 3             | 0.75  |
| 4             | ...   |
| ...           | ...   |

In a two-condition experiment, the number of possible permutations is given by  $\binom{n}{n_1}$

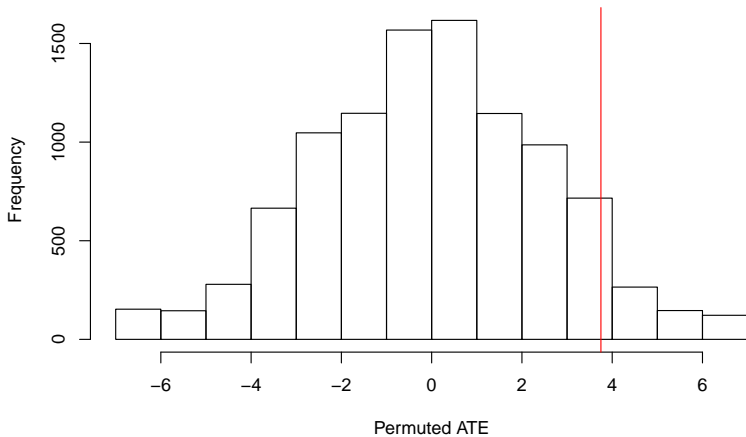


# Randomization Inference II

Randomization inference works as follows:

- 1 Generate every possible randomization scheme
  - Or sample from all possible randomizations
- 2 Calculate  $ATE$  under each randomization
- 3 The distribution of those estimates is the randomization distribution
- 4 Its variance is  $\widehat{Var}(ATE)$
- 5 Proportion of values further from 0 than the observed  $\widehat{ATE}$  is the p-value for a test of the null hypothesis ( $H_0 : ATE = 0$ )

## Randomization Distribution



# Randomization Inference in R

```
# construct data
d <- data.frame(x = c(0,0,0,0,1,1,1,1),
                y = c(5,7,9,4,11,4,13,12))

# calculate ATE from each randomization
set.seed(1)      # set random number seed
n <- 10000      # number of randomizations
rd <- replicate(n, coef(lm(d$y ~ sample(d$x, 8)))[2L])

# visualize the randomization distribution
hist(rd)
abline(v = coef(lm(y~x, data = d))[2L], col = "red")

# one-tailed significance test
sum(rd >= coef(lm(y ~ x, data = d))[2L])/n
# two-tailed significance test
sum(abs(rd) >= coef(lm(y ~ x, data = d))[2L])/n
```

# Parametric Analysis Stata/R

R:

```
t.test(outcome ~ treatment, data = data)
lm(outcome ~ factor(treatment), data = data)
```

Stata:

```
ttest outcome, by(treatment)
reg outcome i.treatment
```

# Questions?

