

Module 5 : Neymanian inference

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STAT 140

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Neyman's definition of confidence interval (CI) (1934, page 590)

Suppose we are taking samples, Σ , from some population π . We are interested in a certain collective character of this population, say θ . Denote by x a collective character of the sample Σ and suppose that we have been able to deduce its frequency distribution, say $p(x|\theta)$, in repeated samples and that this is dependent on the unknown collective character, θ , of the population π ...

Denote now by $\varphi(\theta)$ the unknown probability distribution *a priori* of θ ...

...[T]he probability of our being wrong is less than or at most equal to $1 - \varepsilon$, and this whatever the probability law *a priori*, $\varphi(\theta)$.

The value of ε , chosen in a quite arbitrary manner, I propose to call the “confidence coefficient.” If we choose, for instance, $\varepsilon = .99$ and find for every possible x the intervals $[\theta_1(x), \theta_2(x)]$ having the properties defined, we could roughly describe the position by saying that we have 99 per cent. confidence in the fact that θ is contained between $\theta_1(x)$ and $\theta_2(x)$

... [I] call the intervals $[\theta_1(x), \theta_2(x)]$ the confidence intervals, corresponding to the confidence coefficient ε .



Jerzy Neyman

- Founding father of the potential outcomes in randomized experiments.
- Focused on methods for the estimation of, and inference for, **average causal effects** (ACE) :

$$\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N (Y_i(W_i = 1) - Y_i(W_i = 0)) = \overline{Y(1)} - \overline{Y(0)}$$

- Used randomization distribution possibly in combination with random sampling of the units in the experiment from a larger population of units.
- Interested in the long-run operating characteristics of statistical procedures.
- Estimation and inference : **point estimator** and **interval estimator** with good properties in large samples and in the long run.

Confidence Intervals

- $(100-\alpha)\%$ Confidence Intervals (CI) for τ :

$$CI_{(100-\alpha)\%} = \left[\hat{\tau} - t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, df} \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\tau})} ; \hat{\tau} + t_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}, df} \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\tau})} \right]$$

Data from the Perfect Doctor (Rubin's example)

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Data from the Perfect Doctor (Rubin's example)

- Let us look at this example to get the intuition of what Neyman was after.
- W_i : surgery ($W_i = 0$ if unit i receives standard surgery, $W_i = 1$ if unit i receives new surgery)
- Y_i : years that unit i lived after receiving surgery W_i

Science Table

Assume we know the Science table (i.e., the "Truth") :

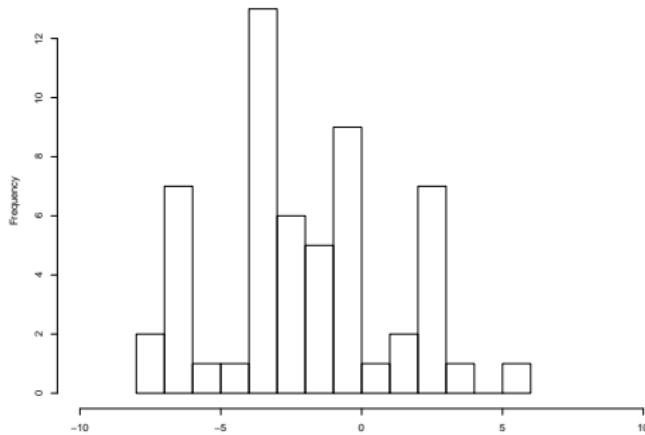
unit i	$Y_i(W_i=0)$	$Y_i(W_i=1)$
1	13	14
2	6	0
3	4	1
4	5	2
5	6	3
6	6	1
7	8	10
8	8	9

The **true** average causal effect (τ) := $\overline{Y(1)} - \overline{Y(0)} = -2$.

All possible allocations

W	$\hat{\tau}(W)$	w	$\overline{y}_1 - \overline{y}_0$
(1,1,1,0,0,0,0,0)	-1.6	11100000	-1.6
...	...	11010000	-1.1
...	...	11001000	-0.5
...	...	11000100	-1.2
...	...	11000010	2.2
...	...	11000001	1.9
...	...	10110000	-1.1
...	...	10101000	-0.6
...	...	10100100	-1.3
...	...	10100010	2.1
...	...	10100001	1.8
...	...	10011000	-0.1
...	...	10010100	-0.7
...	...	10010010	2.7
...	...	10010001	2.3
...	...	10001100	-0.2
...	...	10001010	3.2
...	...	10001001	2.9
...	...	10000110	2.5
...	...	10000101	2.2
...	...	10000011	5.6
...	...	01110000	-7.2
...	...	01101000	-6.7
...	...	01100100	-7.3
...	...	01100010	-3.9
...	...	01100001	-4.3
...	...	01011000	-6.1
...	...	01010100	-6.8
...	...	01010010	-3.4
...	...	01010001	-3.7
...	...	01001100	-6.3
...	...	01001010	-2.9
...	...	01001001	-3.2
...	...	01000110	-3.5
...	...	01000101	-3.9
...	...	01000011	-0.5
...	...	00111000	-6.2
...	...	00110100	-6.9
...	...	00110010	-3.5
...	...	00110001	-3.8
...	...	00101100	-6.3
...	...	00101010	-2.9
...	...	00101001	-3.3
...	...	00100110	-3.6
...	...	00100101	-3.9
...	...	00100011	-0.5
...	...	00011100	-5.8
...	...	00011010	-2.4
...	...	00011001	-2.7
...	...	00010110	-3.1
...	...	00010101	-3.4
...	...	00010011	0.0
...	...	00001110	-2.5
...	...	00001101	-2.9
...	...	00001011	0.5
...	...	000010111	-0.1

Distribution of $\hat{\tau}(W)$



- Mean := $\frac{1}{56} \sum \hat{\tau}(W) = -2$; Median = -2.63
- 2.5th quantile= -7.075 and 97.5th quantile= 3.075
- Variance=9.75 and standard deviation=3.12

Conduct a single randomized experiment

A completely randomized experiment is conducted for which this $W^{obs} = (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1)$ was observed :

W_i^{obs}	$Y_i(W_i=0)$	$Y_i(W_i=1)$
1	?	14
0	6	?
0	4	?
0	5	?
0	6	?
0	6	?
1	?	10
1	?	9

The estimated average causal effect (i.e., $\hat{\tau}(W^{obs})$) := $\bar{Y}_1^{obs} - \bar{Y}_0^{obs} = 5.6$.

95% Confidence Interval (CI) for τ : [-0.46; 11.66]

An estimator of τ

- Suppose that we observe data from a completely randomized experiment in which $N_1 = \sum_{i=1}^N W_i$ units are randomly selected to be assigned to treatment and the remaining $N_0 = \sum_{i=1}^N (1 - W_i)$ to control.

An estimator of τ

- A natural estimator for the ACE is :

$$\hat{\tau} = \overline{Y_1^{obs}} - \overline{Y_0^{obs}}$$

- $\overline{Y_1^{obs}} = \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i: W_i=1} Y_i^{obs}$
- $\overline{Y_0^{obs}} = \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{i: W_i=0} Y_i^{obs}$

Sampling variance of $\hat{\tau}$

- $\text{Var}(\hat{\tau}) = \dots = \frac{S_0^2}{N_0} + \frac{S_1^2}{N_1} - \frac{S_{0,1}^2}{N}$

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- $S_0^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i(W_i = 0) - \bar{Y}(0))^2$

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Sampling variance of $\hat{\tau}$

- $\text{Var}(\hat{\tau}) = \dots = \frac{S_0^2}{N_0} + \frac{S_1^2}{N_1} - \frac{S_{0,1}^2}{N}$
- $S_{0,1}^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(Y_i(W_i = 1) - Y_i(W_i = 0) - (\bar{Y}(1) - \bar{Y}(0)) \right)^2$
 $= \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(Y_i(W_i = 1) - Y_i(W_i = 0) - \tau \right)^2$

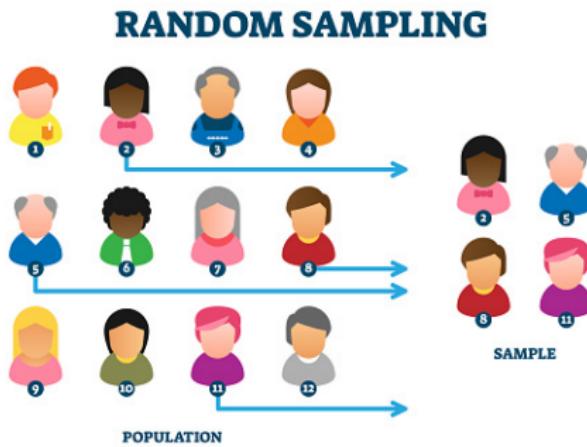
An estimator of the sampling variance of the ACE

- Assume that for each unit, $Y_i(W_i = 1) - Y_i(W_i = 0)$ is additive and constant :

$$\widehat{Var}(\hat{\tau}) = \frac{s_0^2}{N_0} + \frac{s_1^2}{N_1}$$

- Widely used, even when the assumption of an additive and constant effect may be known to be inaccurate.

Random sampling



Random sampling

- Suppose we have a population of size N from which we want to learn about the effect of a treatment W on an outcome Y .

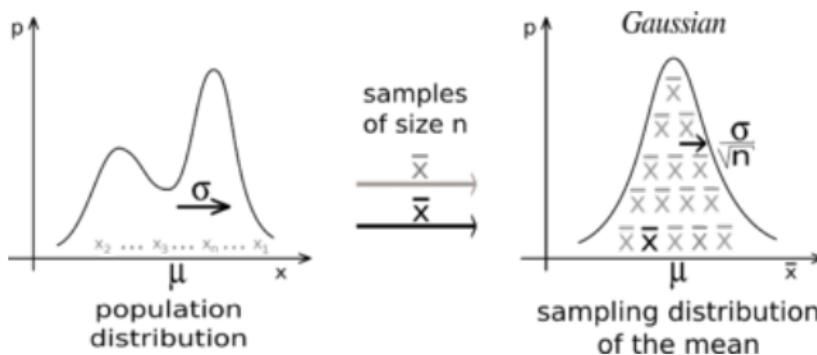
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1	$Y_1(W_1=0)$	$Y_1(W_1=1)$
...
...
...
...
...
...
...
N	$Y_N(W_N=0)$	$Y_N(W_N=1)$

Random sampling

- Suppose we conduct a study in a random sample of size n of the population (typically, $n \ll N$).

unit i	W_i^{obs}	$Y_i(W_i=0)$	$Y_i(W_i=1)$	Y_i^{obs}
1	W_1^{obs}	$Y_1(W_1=0)$	$Y_1(W_1=1)$	Y_1^{obs}
...	
n	W_n^{obs}	$Y_n(W_n=0)$	$Y_n(W_n=1)$	Y_n^{obs}
$n+1$		$Y_{n+1}(W_{n+1}=0)$	$Y_{n+1}(W_{n+1}=1)$	
...				
...				
...				
N		$Y_N(W_N=0)$	$Y_N(W_N=1)$	

Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

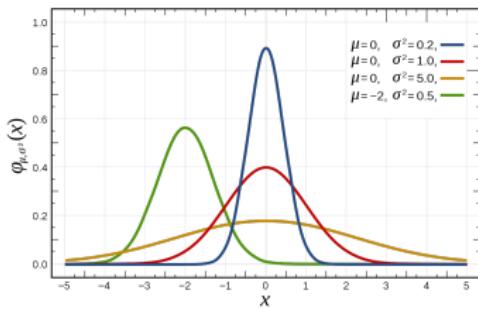


Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

- In large sample, $\frac{\hat{\tau} - \tau}{\sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\tau})}}$ can be approximated by known distributions.

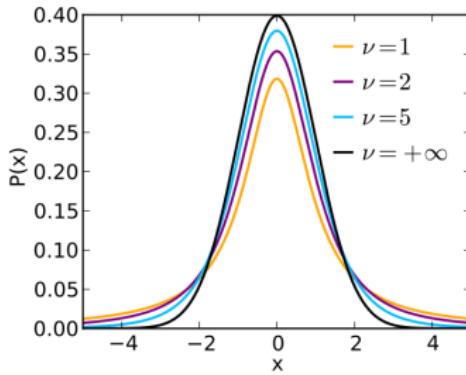
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- Normal distribution, which is specified with a mean (here, μ) and variance (here, σ^2) :



Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

- In large sample, $\frac{\hat{\tau} - \tau}{\sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\tau})}}$ can be approximated by known distributions.
- Student's t distribution, which is specified using degrees of freedom (here, ν) :



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- A confidence interval with confidence coefficient $1 - \alpha$ is a pair of function $C_L(Y^{obs}, W)$ and $C_U(Y^{obs}, W)$, defining an interval $[C_L(Y^{obs}, W); C_U(Y^{obs}, W)]$ such that :

$$P(C_L(Y^{obs}, W) \leq \tau \leq C_U(Y^{obs}, W)) \geq 1 - \alpha.$$

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$$df = \frac{\left(\frac{s_0^2}{N_0} + \frac{s_1^2}{N_1} \right)^2}{\frac{\left(\frac{s_0^2}{N_0} \right)^2}{N_0-1} + \frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{N_1} \right)^2}{N_1-1}}$$

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- 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) for τ (assuming a fairly large sample) :

$$CI_{95\%} = \left[\hat{\tau} - 1.96 \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\tau})} ; \hat{\tau} + 1.96 \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\tau})} \right]$$

Neyman's definition of CI (1934, page 590)

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Hypothesis testing

- Neyman used the sampling variance estimate to carry out test of hypotheses concerning the average treatment effect τ .
- Neyman's null hypothesis :

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [Y_i(W_i = 1) - Y_i(W_i = 0)] = 0$$

- One possible test statistic is : $\frac{\hat{\tau}}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\tau})}}$, whose distribution under the Neyman's null hypothesis in fairly large sample can be approximated by a Student's t distribution (with df described 3 slides ago).
- An approximating p-value can be calculated using the Student's t distribution (with df described 3 slides ago).