AVERAGE TREATMENT EFFECT ESTIMATION: REGRESSION DISCONTINUITY DESIGNS

Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data, 2e MIT Press Jeffrey M. Wooldridge

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1. Introduction

- Long history dating back to 1960s in Psychology (Thistlewait and Cook, 1960). Key work in econometrics by Van der Klaauw (2001), Hahn, Todd, and Van der Klaauw (2001). Application by Lee (2007).
- Regression discontinuity (RD) designs exploit discontinuities in policy assignment. For example, there might be an age threshold at which one becomes eligible for a buyout plan, or an income threshold at which one becomes eligible for financial aid.

- General idea: Assume that units on different sides of the discontinuity are similar. Their treatment status differs because of the institutional setup, and differences in outcomes can be attributed to the different treatment status.
- We consider the sharp design where assignment follows a deterministic rule and the fuzzy design, where the probability of being treated is discontinuous at a known point.

2. The Sharp RD Design

• Usual setup, y_{i0} , y_{i1} as counterfactuals, treatment status w_i . For now, assume a single covariate, x_i , determining treatment (sometimes called the *forcing variable*). In the sharp regression discontinuity (SRD) design case, treatment is determined as

$$w_i = 1[x_i \ge c].$$

• Along with the forcing variable x_i , we observe w_i (of course) and the outcome $y_i = (1 - w_i)y_{i0} + w_iy_{i1}$.

- Define the counterfactual conditional means as $\mu_g(x) = E(y_g|x)$, g = 0, 1.
- Maintain the assumption that $\mu_g(\cdot)$, g = 0, 1, are both continuous at c. Because c is usually pretty arbitrary, practically assuming $\mu_g(\cdot)$ is continuous on its domain \mathcal{X} .

• Because *w* is a deterministic function of *x*, unconfoundedness of treated necessarily holds. Stated for the means,

$$E(y_g|x, w) = E(y_g|x), g = 0, 1.$$

- But the overlap assumption necessarily fails. By construction, p(x) = 0 for all x < c and p(x) = 1 for $x \ge c$. Clearly we cannot use propensity score weighting.
- Technically, we can use regression adjustment with parametric regression functions, but we would be relying on extreme forms of extrapolation.

- How can we use the SRD to identify and estimate average treatment effects?
- First suppose first that the treatment effect is constant, $y_{i1} y_{i0} = \tau$, so that

$$y_i = y_{i0} + (y_{i1} - y_{i0})w_i = y_{i0} + \tau w_i.$$

- It follows that $\mu_1(x) = \mu_0(x) + \tau$ for all x.
- Easy to see that τ is identified provided $\mu_0(x) = E(y_0|x)$ is continuous at c. Why?

$$E(y|x) = E(y_0 + \tau w|x) = E(y_0|x) + \tau E(w|x)$$

= $\mu_0(x) + \tau 1[x \ge c].$

• Write the mean function for the observed variable y as $m(x) \equiv E(y|x)$. Then, if $\mu_0(\cdot)$ is continuous at c

$$m^{-}(c) \equiv \lim_{x \uparrow c} m(x) = \lim_{x \uparrow c} \mu_{0}(x) + \tau \lim_{x \uparrow c} 1[x \ge c] = \mu_{0}(c)$$

$$m^{+}(c) \equiv \lim_{x \downarrow c} m(x) = \lim_{x \downarrow c} \mu_{0}(x) + \tau \lim_{x \downarrow c} 1[x \ge c] = \mu_{0}(c) + \tau$$

because $1[x \ge c] = 0$ for all x < c and $1[x \ge c] = 1$ for all x > c.

• It follows that

$$\tau = m^+(c) - m^-(c).$$

- We can estimate E(y|x) quite generally in a neighborhood of c, and so τ is identified.
- As an important technical matter, if we want to use nonparametric estimation (in order to avoid extrapolation of parametric functions), then we are estimating two regression functions at a boundary. That is, we estimate E(y|x) for x < c and E(y|x) for $x \ge c$ at the boundary value, c.

- Under parametric assumptions, estimation is easy and we can use all of the data.
- For example, if

$$E(y_0|x) = \alpha_0 + \beta_0 x$$

then

$$E(y|x) = E(y_0|x) + \tau w = \alpha_0 + \beta_0 x + \tau w$$

So, the OLS regression

$$y_i$$
 on 1, x_i , w_i , $i = 1, 2, ..., N$

consistently estimates τ as the coefficient on w_i .

- Even if we use polynomials, or other smooth functions of x, the discontinuity of $w = 1[x \ge c]$ in x identifies τ .
- If we maintain parametric models over the entire range of x, allowing a nonconstant treatment effect is also easy.
- Let $\mu_0(x) = m_0(x, \delta_0)$ and $\mu_1(x) = m_1(x, \delta_1)$ be the counterfactual, correctly specified mean functions.

• Because $E(y|x, w = 0) = m_0(x, \delta_0)$ we can consistently estimate δ_0 using nonlinear least squares, or a QMLE for the control sample, $w_i = 0$. For NLS, $\hat{\delta}_0$ is from

$$\min_{\mathbf{d}_0} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (1 - w_i) [y_i - m_0(x_i, \mathbf{d}_0)]^2$$

• Similarly, we estimate δ_1 using the treated subsample.

• Because we have a random sample on x, τ_{ate} is estimated as before:

$$\hat{\tau}_{ate,reg} = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} [m_1(x_i, \hat{\delta}_1) - m_0(x_i, \hat{\delta}_0)].$$

But the extrapolation here is extreme: we obtain $\hat{\delta}_0$ using only data with $x_i < c$ and $\hat{\delta}_1$ using only data with $x_i \ge c$. To obtain, say, $m_1(x_i, \hat{\delta}_1)$ when $w_i = 0$, we are plugging in a value for x that was excluded when obtaining $\hat{\delta}_1$.

• In the linear case with two different mean functions we can write

$$E(y|x,w) = \alpha_0 + \tau w + \beta_0 x + \delta w \cdot (x - \mu_x)$$

 \bullet Again, if we believe the linear conditional means hold over all x, the regression

$$y_{i}$$
 on 1, w_{i} , x_{i} , $w_{i} \cdot (x_{i} - \bar{x})$, $i = 1, ..., N$

consistently estimates $\tau = \tau_{ate}$. (Naturally, we replace μ_x with the sample average, \bar{x} .)

• This is exactly what we do in the case of unconfounded treatment, but here we have a severe extrapolation problem.

- Without parametric assumptions we cannot estimate $\mu_0(x)$ for $x \ge c$ and cannot estimate $\mu_1(x)$ for x < c. Therefore, in general, τ_{ate} is nonparametrically unidentified (unless we assume a constant treatment effect or parametric functional forms over the range of x.)
- Consequently, the focus in the SRD setting us usually on a very specific parameter, the ATE at x = c:

$$\tau_c \equiv E(y_1 - y_0|x = c) = \mu_1(c) - \mu_0(c).$$

- For the constant treatment effect case, of course $\tau_c = \tau$. Generally, we can only estimate the ATE for those at the margin of receiving the treatment.
- Thus, even in the SRD case there are issues of external validity. We cannot generally claim to identify the ATE for other subgroups or the population overall.

• It turns out that τ_c is nonparametrically identified by the SRD design.

How? Write
$$y = (1 - w)y_0 + wy_1 = 1[x < c]y_0 + 1[x \ge c]y_1$$
, and so

$$E(y|x) = 1[x < c]\mu_0(x) + 1[x \ge c]\mu_1(x)$$

• Then, using continuity of $\mu_0(\cdot)$ and $\mu_1(\cdot)$ at c,

$$m^-(c) \equiv \lim_{x \uparrow c} m(x) = \mu_0(c)$$

$$m^+(c) \equiv \lim_{x \downarrow c} m(x) = \mu_1(c)$$

and so

$$\tau_c = m^+(c) - m^-(c)$$

- Several approaches have been proposed for estimating $m^-(c)$ and $m^+(c)$. A simple approach is **local linear regression**.
- Define $\mu_{0c} = \mu_0(c)$ and $\mu_{1c} = \mu_1(c)$, so that $\tau_c = \mu_{1c} \mu_{0c}$. Write

$$y_0 = \mu_{0c} + \beta_0(x - c) + u_0$$

$$y_1 = \mu_{1c} + \beta_1(x - c) + u_1$$

Plugging in and rearranging gives

$$y = \mu_{0c} + \tau_c w + \beta_0(x - c) + \delta w \cdot (x - c) + r,$$

where $r = u_0 + w(u_1 - u_0)$.

• The estimate of τ_c is just the jump in the linear function at x = c. We could use the entire data set to run the regression

$$y_i$$
 on 1, w_i , $(x_i - c)$, $w_i \cdot (x_i - c)$

and obtain $\hat{\tau}_c$ as the coefficient on w_i . But then it would be global estimation.

• This differs from the earlier regression in that x_i is centered about c rather than \bar{x} .

- Instead, choose a "small" value h > 0 and only use the data satisfying $c h < x_i < c + h$. This gives us a "local" method: it ignores data where x_i is sufficiently far from c.
- Equivalently, estimate two separate regressions, y_i on 1, $(x_i c)$ for $c h < x_i < c$ and then y_i on 1, $(x_i c)$ for $c \le x_i < c + h$, and then $\hat{\tau}_c = \hat{\mu}_{1c} \hat{\mu}_{0c}$, the difference in the two intercepts.

- Can see how sensitive estimates are to h. Tradeoff between bias and variance: as h decreases (we use less data), the bias shrinks but the variance increases.
- Can use quadratic or cubic in $(x_i c)$, too, also interacted with w_i .
- Inference is standard when *h* is viewed as fixed: use a heteroskedasticity-robust *t* statistic.

- Imbens and Lemieux (2008, *Journal of Econometrics*) show that if *h* shrinks to zero quickly enough, the usual inference is still valid.
- Adding regressors is no problem: if the regressors are \mathbf{r}_i , just run

$$y_i$$
 on 1, w_i , $(x_i - c)$, $w_i \cdot (x_i - c)$, \mathbf{r}_i

again only using data $c - h < x_i < c + h$.

- Using extra regressors is likely to have more of an impact when h is large; it might help reduce the bias from arising from the deteoration of the linear approximation.
- If \mathbf{r}_i helps explain a lot of the variation in y_i , adding \mathbf{r}_i can shrink the error variance and improve the precision of $\hat{\tau}_c$.

- For response variables with special characteristics, can use local versions of other estimation methods.
- For example, suppose y_g are count variables. Then use the observations with $c h < x_i < c$ to estimate a Poisson regression $E(y|x, w = 0) = \exp(\alpha_0 + \beta_0 x)$ and use $c \le x_i < c + h$ to estimate a Poisson regression $E(y|x, w = 1) = \exp(\alpha_1 + \beta_1 x)$.
- If these regression functions are correctly specified for x near c, $\tau_c = \exp(\alpha_1 + \beta_1 c) \exp(\alpha_0 + \beta_0 c) \text{ and so}$

$$\hat{\tau}_c = \exp(\hat{\alpha}_1 + \hat{\beta}_1 c) - \exp(\hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\beta}_0 c).$$

- In the linear regression case, Imbens and Lemieux summarize cross-validation methods for choosing the bandwidth, h. (In principle, one could allow two bandwidths, h_L and h_U and then the data used in local estimation satisfies $c h_L < x_i < c + h_U$, but of course this complicates the problem.)
- The key is that typical methods of cross validation focus on estimating E(y|x) over the entire range of x, whereas here one is interested in E(y|x, x < c) and $E(y|x, x \ge c)$ for x = c.
- Of course, can try different rules to check sensitivity of results for τ_c .

• Imbens and Kalraynaram (2008) explicitly look at minimizing

$$E\{[\hat{\mu}_0(c) - \mu_0(c)]^2 + [\hat{\mu}_1(c) - \mu_1(c)]^2\}$$

a mean squared error for the two regression functions at the jump point. Not the same as the MSE for the actual estimand, which would be

$$E[(\hat{\tau}_c - \tau_c)^2] = E\{([\hat{\mu}_1(c) - \hat{\mu}_0(c)] - [\mu_1(c) - \mu_0(c)])^2\}.$$

• Optimal bandwidth choice depends on second derivatives of the regression functions at x = c, the density of x_i at x = c, the conditional variances, and the kernel used in local linear regression. But IK have shown how to make the choice of h data-dependent.

3. The Fuzzy RD Design

- In the FRD case, the *probability* of treatment changes discontinuously at x = c. It need not change from zero to one.
- Define the propensity score as

$$P(w=1|x)\equiv F(x).$$

• In addition to assuming $\mu_0(\cdot)$ and $\mu_1(\cdot)$ are continuous at c, the key assumption for the FRD design is that $F(\cdot)$ is *discontinuous* at c, so that there is a discrete jump in the probability of treatment at the cutoff.

- To identify τ_c , we assume that $(y_1 y_0)$ is independent of w, conditional on x. This allows treatment, w, to be correlated with y_0 (after conditioning on x) but not with the unobserved gain from treatment. (Note: The unconfoundedness assumption for estimating ATT is that w is unconfounded with respect to y_0 .)
- It is possible to relax $(y_1 y_0) \perp w \mid x$ and estimate a different parameter, but here consider τ_c , as before.

• Again write $y = y_0 + w(y_1 - y_0)$ and use conditional independence – which implies $E[w(y_1 - y_0)|x] = E(w|x)E(y_1 - y_0|x)$:

$$E(y|x) = E(y_0|x) + E(w|x)E(y_1 - y_0|x)$$

= $\mu_0(x) + E(w|x) \cdot \tau(x)$.

• As before, take limits from the right and left and use continuity of $\mu_0(\cdot)$ and $\tau(\cdot)$ at c:

$$m^+(c) = \mu_0(c) + F^+(c)\tau_c$$

$$m^{-}(c) = \mu_0(c) + F^{-}(c)\tau_c$$

• It follows that, if $F^+(c) \neq F^-(c)$, then

$$\tau_c = \frac{[m^+(c) - m^-(c)]}{[F^+(c) - F^-(c)]}.$$

• So, to identify τ_c in the FRD case, continuity of $\mu_0(\cdot)$ and $\mu_1(\cdot)$ are needed, and conditional independence between $(y_1 - y_0)$ and w are used.

• We can estimate $m^-(c)$ and $m^+(c)$ by, say, local linear regression. Imbens and Lemieux suggest estimating $F^-(c)$ and $F^+(c)$ in the same way. In other words, use

$$\hat{\tau}_c = \frac{[\hat{m}^+(c) - \hat{m}^-(c)]}{[\hat{F}^+(c) - \hat{F}^-(c)]},$$

where $\hat{m}^+(c) = \hat{\alpha}_{1c}$, $\hat{m}^-(c) = \hat{\alpha}_{0c}$, $\hat{F}^+(c) = \hat{\theta}_{1c}$, and $\hat{F}^-(c) = \hat{\theta}_{0c}$ are the intercepts from four local linear regressions. For example, $\hat{\alpha}_{1c}$ is from y_i on 1, $(x_i - c)$, $c \le x_i < c + h$ and $\hat{\theta}_{1c}$ is from w_i on 1, $(x_i - c)$, $c \le x_i < c + h$.

• Conveniently, Hahn, Todd, and Van der Klaauw (2001) show that the IV estimator of

$$y = \alpha_{0c} + \tau_c w + \beta_0(x - c) + \delta 1[x \ge c] \cdot (x - c) + e$$

using $z \equiv 1[x \geq c]$ as the IV for w produces $\hat{\tau}_c$ as the coefficient on w. (In other words, this is an algebraic equivalence.) One uses the data such that $h - c < x_i < c + h$.

• Obtaining $\hat{\tau}_c$ as a standard IV estimator is helpful in performing inference: if h is fixed or is decreasing "fast enough," can use the usual heteroskedasticity-robust IV standard error.

• An alternative IV estimator is the one we discussed under control function estimation. Under linearity of the conditional means (which we eventually only need to hold locally), we can write

$$y = \mu_{0c} + \tau_c w + \beta_0 (x - c) + \delta w \cdot (x - c) + u_0 + w(u_1 - u_0).$$

- As in the previous equation, and unlike in the SRD design, w can be "endogenous" in this equation because it can be correlated with u_0 or $w(u_1 u_0)$.
- This means w and w (x c) are generally endogenous in the equation.

• Nevertheless, if the treatment is unconfounded with respect to the gain $u_1 - u_0$, that is,

$$E(u_1 - u_0|x, w) = E(u_1 - u_0|x) = 0,$$

then $w(u_1 - u_0)$ is uncorrelated with any function of x.

 \bullet That means any function of x is exogenous in this equation.

Therefore, we can use $z = 1[x \ge c]$ as an IV for w and

 $1[x \ge c] \cdot (x - c) = z \cdot (x - c)$ as an IV for $w \cdot (x - c)$. The entire IV list is

$$\{1, z, (x-c), z \cdot (x-c)\}$$

or, equivalently, $\{1, z, x, z \cdot x\}$.

• Using either approach, could estimate $F^+(c)$ and $F^-(c)$ by local logit or probit rather than local linear regression. For example,

$$P(w = 1|x) = \Lambda(\eta_{c0} + \psi_0(x - c)), x < c$$

$$P(w = 1|x) = \Lambda(\eta_{c1} + \psi_1(x - c)), x \ge c$$

and then use

$$\hat{F}^+(c) - \hat{F}^-(c) = \Lambda(\hat{\eta}_{c1}) - \Lambda(\hat{\eta}_{c0})$$

where $(\hat{\eta}_{c0}, \hat{\psi}_0)$ are from a logit of w_i on 1, $(x_i - c)$ using $h - c < x_i < c$, and similarly for $(\hat{\eta}_{c1}, \hat{\psi}_1)$.

 \bullet Estimation of F would necessarily recognize the jump at c. For logit,

$$F(x) = \Lambda(\pi_1 + \pi_2 1[x \ge c] + \pi_3(x - c) + \pi_4 1[x \ge c](x - c))$$

= $\Lambda(\pi_1 + \pi_2 z + \pi_3(x - c) + \pi_4 z \cdot (x - c))$

Then,

$$F^{+}(c) = \Lambda(\pi_1 + \pi_2), F^{-}(c) = \Lambda(\pi_1),$$

so can test H_0 : $\pi_2 = 0$ to see if the jump in treatment probability is really there.

• Now have two choices of bandwidths because need to estimate E(w|x) for x < c and $x \ge c$ (and assume this results in a single bandwidth choice) in addition to E(y|x) for x < c and $x \ge c$. Could just, say, choose one based on E(y|x) and use it for both, or choose them separately using, say, Imbens and Kalraynaram (2008)

4. Unconfoundedness versus FRD

- In the FRD case, overlap can hold (although it might be weak in practice). We can compare regression adjustment to the methods of the previous section.
- Useful to return to the linear formulation:

$$y = \eta_c + \tau_c w + \beta_0 (x - c) + \delta w \cdot (x - c) + u_0 + w(u_1 - u_0).$$

• Under unconfoundedness, composite error $u_0 + w(u_1 - u_0)$ has zero mean conditional on (w, x), and so OLS (or local regression) would consistently estimate τ_c . In fact, if we believe unconfoundedness and the linear functional form, we can use all of the data and average across x_i to estimate τ_{ate} .

• Using regression adjustment, the estimator of τ_c using $E(y_g|x,w) = E(y_g|x), g = 0, 1$, can be written as

$$\tilde{\tau}_c = \tilde{m}_1(c) - \tilde{m}_0(c),$$

where $\tilde{m}_1(x)$ is estimated using the $w_i = 1$ observations and $\tilde{m}_0(x)$ is estimated using the $w_i = 0$ observations. In other words, the discontinuity in the treatment probability at P(w = 1|x) at x = c is essentially ignored.

- If we assume the less restrictive version of unconfoundedness, that is, $D(y_1 y_0|w,x) = D(y_1 y_0|x)$ but allow u_0 to be correlated with w then the OLS estimator is inconsistent.
- But the IV method developed above is consistent:

$$\hat{\tau}_c = \frac{[\hat{m}^+(c) - \hat{m}^-(c)]}{[\hat{F}^+(c) - \hat{F}^-(c)]}.$$

The IV estimator exploits the jumps in the means and treatment probabilities at x = c. Namely, the "+" quantities use data only with $x_i \ge c$ and the "-" quantities use data only with $x_i < c$.

• Another benefit of the IV estimator is that it is consistent for the ATE for compliers at x = c without unconfoundedness, provided we add a monotonicity assumption. Let w(a) denote treatment status if the cutoff point were a, and think of this as a function of potential cutoff points at least over some interval that includes c. The monotonicity assumption is that $w(\cdot)$ is nonincreasing at a = c.

- Suppose that the cutoff is determined by age, so that, initially, those with $age = x \ge c$ are eligible. Now suppose the eligibility age is lowered to c 1. The monotonicity assumption is (a local version of) $w(c 1) \ge w(c)$, which rules out the possibility that a person would participate if eligible at age c, w(c) = 1, but would refuse to participate if the eligibility age were lowered, w(c 1) = 0.
- See Imbens and Lemieux (2008) for derivations and further discussion.

5. Graphical Analyses

- As a supplement to formal estimation and probably prior to estimation several graphs can be useful. First, put the forcing variable *x* into bins and compute the average outcome in each bin.
- The bin choices should not smooth across the threshold. So, if the threshold is c = 5, choose bins such as ... [4,4.5), [4.5,5), [5,5.6),
- Should be able to detect a shift in the mean y at the threshold.

- Can do the same for other covariates that should not be affected by the threshold as a falsification check.
- A histogram of the forcing variable to verify it is not being manipulated around the threshold.

EXAMPLE: Generated Data. The data in REGDISC.DTA were generated to follow an FRD design. The forcing variable is x (uniform on [0, 10]), the rule that predicts treatment is $z = 1[x \ge 5]$, and w is the actual treatment indicator. The outcome variable is y.

. des x z w y

variable name	_	display format	value label	variable label
x	float	%9.0q		forcing variable
Z		%9.0g		=1 if x >= 5
W	byte	%9.0g		=1 if treated
У	float	%9.0g		response variable

. tab w z

=1 if treated	=1 if 0	x >= 5	Total
0 1	+ 727 273	111 889	+ 838 1,162
Total	1,000	1,000	2,000

- . gen $x_5 = x 5$
- . gen $zx_5 = z*x_5$
- . gen $wx_5 = w*x_5$

. reg w z

Source	SS	df 	N	MS		Number of obs = 2000 F(1, 1998) = 1275.71
Model Residual	189.728 297.15	1 1998	189 .14872	9.728 23724		Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.3897 Adj R-squared = 0.3894
Total	486.878	1999	.2435	56078		Root MSE = .38565
w	Coef.	Std.	Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
z _cons	.616 .273	.0172 .0121		35.72 22.39	0.000	.5821767 .6498233 .2490833 .2969167

. reg w x if ~z

Source	SS	df		MS		Number of obs F(1, 998)		1000
Model Residual	17.5177744 180.953226	1 998		177744 315857		F(1, 998) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= = =	96.61 0.0000 0.0883 0.0874
Total	198.471	999	.198	366967		Root MSE	=	.42581
w	Coef.	Std.	Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	In	terval]
x _cons	.0916522 .043984	.0093		9.83 1.63	0.000	.0733545 0088237		1099499 0967917

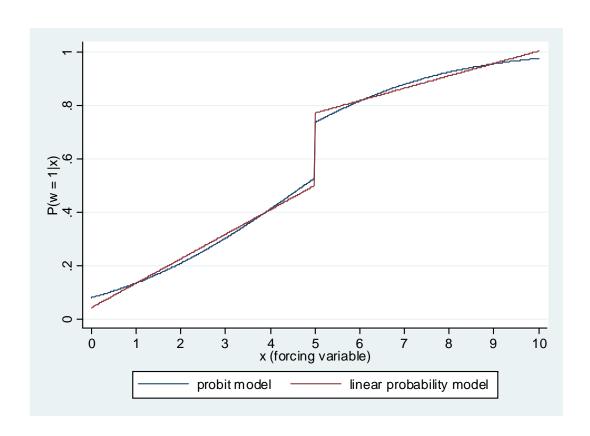
[.] predict what0
(option xb assumed; fitted values)

. reg w x if z

Source	SS	df		MS		Number of obs F(1, 998)		1000 47.59
Model Residual	4.4914493 94.1875507	1 998		914493 376303		Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	_ = =	0.0000 0.0455 0.0446
Total	98.679	999	.098	777778		Root MSE	=	.30721
w	Coef.	Std.	 Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Int	cerval]
x _cons	.0464084 .5408787	.0067		6.90 10.53	0.000	.0332073 .4400356		0596095 6417218

[.] predict what1
(option xb assumed; fitted values)

```
. gen what = what0 if ~z
(1000 missing values generated)
. replace what = what1 if z
(1000 real changes made)
. qui probit w x if ~z
. predict phat0
(option pr assumed; Pr(w))
. qui probit w x if z
. predict phat1
(option pr assumed; Pr(w))
. gen pshat = phat0 if ~z
(1000 missing values generated)
. replace pshat = phat1 if z
(1000 real changes made)
```



- . * Now estimate the ATE at x = 5:
- . ivreg y x zx_5 (w = z), robust

Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression

Number of obs = 2000 F(3, 1996) = 3588.42 Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.8722 Root MSE = .5959

У	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
W X	1.963177	.2046892	9.59 8.92	0.000	1.56175 .2054354	2.364604
zx_5 _cons	0217891 .9802505	.0214587 .0363406	-1.02 26.97	0.310	0638729 .908981	.0202947 1.05152

Instrumented: w

Instruments: x zx_5 z

^{. *} True value is 2, so 1.96 is very close.

^{. *} Verify this is the same as the ratio of difference

^{. *} in estimated means at the cutoff, 5:

. reg y x_5 if z

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs F(1, 998)	= 1000 $=$ 310.37
Model Residual	230.759468 742.020178		0.759468 43507193		Prob > F	= 0.0000 $= 0.2372$
Total	972.779646	999 .9	73753399			= .86227
У	Coef.	Std. Err	. t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x_5 _cons	.3326468 3.814271	.0188819		0.000	.295594 3.707255	.3696997

. reg y x_5 if $\sim z$

Source	ss 	df 	MS		Number of obs F(1, 998)	
Model Residual	409.736839 1109.52773		736839		Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 $= 0.2697$
Total	1519.26457	999 1.52	078535		Root MSE	= 1.0544
у	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x_5 _cons	.4432575 3.282887	.0230891 .0666859	19.20 49.23	0.000	.3979488 3.152026	.4885663

. reg w x_5 if z

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs F(1, 998)	= 1000 = 47.59
Model Residual	4.4914493 94.1875507	1 998	4.4914493		Prob > F	= 0.0000 $= 0.0455$
Total	98.679	999	.098777778			= .30721
w	Coef.	Std. E	 rr. t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x_5 _cons	.0464084 .7729209	.00672		0.000	.0332073 .7347935	.0596095

. reg w x_5 if $\sim z$

Source	ss	df		MS		Number of obs	
Model Residual	17.5177745 180.953226	1 998		177745 15857		1100 / 1	= 0.0000 $= 0.0883$
Total	198.471	999	.198	366967		-	= .42581
w	Coef.	Std. I	Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x_5 _cons	.0916522 .5022452	.00932		9.83 18.65	0.000	.0733545 .4493979	.1099499

[.] di (3.814271 - 3.282887)/(.7729209 - .5022452) 1.9631759

^{. *} Same as IV estimate, subject to rounding.

. * Alternative IV estimate:

. ivreg y x (w wx_5 = z zx_5), robust

Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression

Number of obs = 2000F(3, 1996) = 3591.72Prob > F = 0.0000R-squared = 0.8723Root MSE = .59584

У	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
w	1.976194	.1989026	9.94	0.000	1.586116	2.366273
wx_5	022558	.0222246	-1.01	0.310	0661438	.0210279
x	.2635112	.0296645	8.88	0.000	.2053346	.3216877
_cons	.9651471	.0472286	20.44	0.000	.8725245	1.05777

Instrumented: w wx_5
Instruments: x z zx_5

^{. *} Very similar, slightly more efficient.

- . * Now do local versions:
- . ivreg y x zx_5 (w = z) if x > 4 & x < 6, robust

Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression

Number of obs = 400F(3, 396) = 62.45Prob > F = 0.0000R-squared = 0.6377Root MSE = .73069

У	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
w	1.241897	.5772794	2.15	0.032	.1069813	2.376812
x		.1930259	3.10	0.002	.2193356	.9783028
zx_5	2123672	.2431103	-0.87	0.383	6903155	.2655811
_cons	1820881	.7057876	-0.26	0.797	-1.569647	1.205471

Instrumented: w

Instruments: x zx_5 z

. ivreg y x (w wx_5 = $z zx_5$) if x > 4 & x < 6, robust

Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression Number of obs = 400

F(3, 396) = 61.13Prob > F = 0.0000

R-squared = 0.6217

Root MSE = .74663

У	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
w wx_5	1.181874 4146889	.5767097 .4858873	2.05	0.041	.0480781 -1.36993	2.315669
x _cons	.7815237 -1.071853	.34224 1.570893	2.28 -0.68	0.023 0.495	.1086892 -4.160185	1.454358 2.016479

Instrumented: w wx_5
Instruments: x z zx_5

^{. *} There are clear costs of dropping 1,600 observations.

. ivreg y x zx_5 (w = z) if x > 3 & x < 7, robust

Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression

Number of obs = 800 F(3, 796) = 351.50 Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.7662 Root MSE = .61919

У	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
w	1.775465	.3267695	5.43	0.000	1.134033	2.416897
x	.3471895	.0726118	4.78	0.000	.2046563	.4897226
zx_5	0991082	.0772654	-1.28	0.200	2507762	.0525599
_cons	.7060606	.1912344	3.69	0.000	.3306773	1.081444

Instrumented: w

Instruments: x zx_5 z

. ivreg y x (w wx_5 = z zx_5) if x > 3 & x < 7, robust

Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression

Number of obs = 800F(3, 796) = 338.13Prob > F = 0.0000R-squared = 0.7601Root MSE = .62716

У	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
w wx 5	1.805868 1972305	.3227892	5.59 -1.27	0.000	1.17225 5020255	2.439487 .1075645
x cons	.4119783	.1144717	3.60 0.79	0.204	.1872763	.6366803

Instrumented: w wx_5
Instruments: x z zx_5

^{. *} Not suprisingly, the estimates for a given data set can be sensitive

^{. *} to the bandwidth.

. ivreg y x (w wx_5 = z zx_5), robust

Instrumental variables (2SLS) regression

Number of obs = 2000 F(3, 1996) = 3591.72 Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.8723 Root MSE = .59584

у	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
w wx_5 x cons	1.976194 022558 .2635112 .9651471	.1989026 .0222246 .0296645	9.94 -1.01 8.88 20.44	0.000 0.310 0.000 0.000	1.586116 0661438 .2053346 .8725245	2.366273 .0210279 .3216877 1.05777

Instrumented: w wx_5
Instruments: x z zx_5

- . replace muhat = $_b[_cons] + _b[w]*z + _b[wx_5]*zx_5 + _b[x]*x$ (2000 real changes made)
- . twoway (scatter y x, sort) (line muhat x, sort), ytitle(y)
 xtitle(x (forcing variable)) xlabel(#10) legend(off)

