

Microeconometrics (Causal Inference)

Week 9 - Regression discontinuity

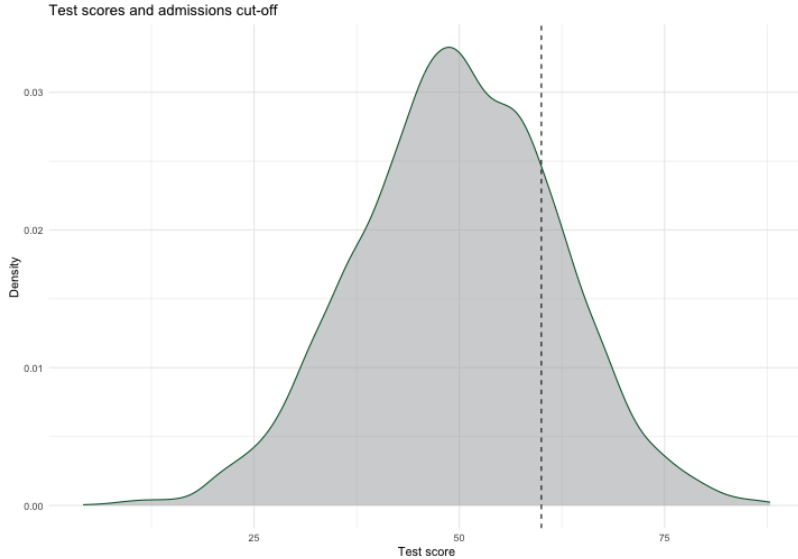
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What are we doing today?

- ▶ Regression discontinuity
 - ▶ Requirements/assumptions
- ▶ Sharp and fuzzy RD
 - ▶ IVs and RDs

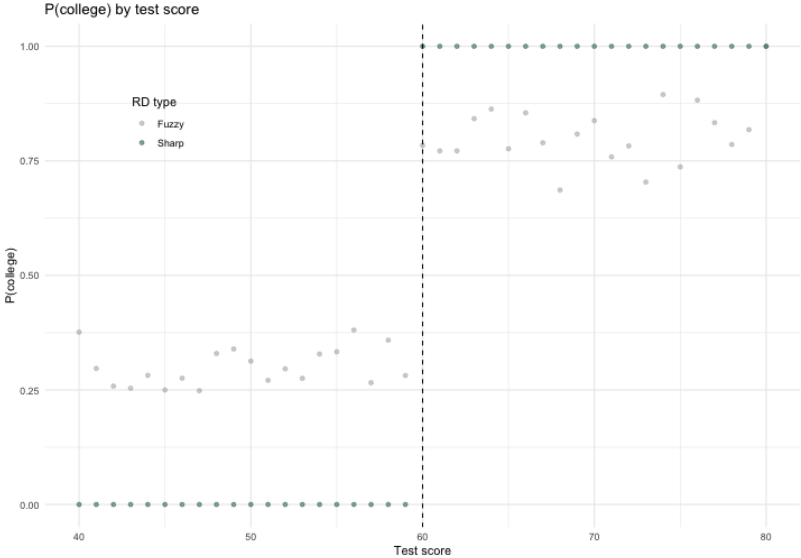
Motivation - standardized tests (fictitious data)



- ▶ In our example, you get into college if you score 60 or higher on a standardized test
- ▶ On average, “smarter” (in a broad sense) students will score higher on the test
- ▶ However, there is a lot of variation in scores among students with similar “smartness”
 - ▶ If one of us took the test multiple times, we’d probably get slightly different scores each time
 - ▶ We each have our own “distribution”
 - ▶ On a given day, how well (or not) we do is somewhat random

- ▶ Continuing with the example, imagine all of the students around the cut-off score of 60
- ▶ On average, students just below and just above the cut-off score are similar
 - ▶ They have similar “smartness”
 - ▶ They should also be similar on other variables!
- ▶ This is especially true if the test is a one-off test that you can't retake
 - ▶ Or if we don't know what the cut-off is
 - ▶ If we know the cut-off is 60 *and* we can take the test multiple times, what might we do?

Returns to college - RD example, two possibilities



Returns to college - RD example



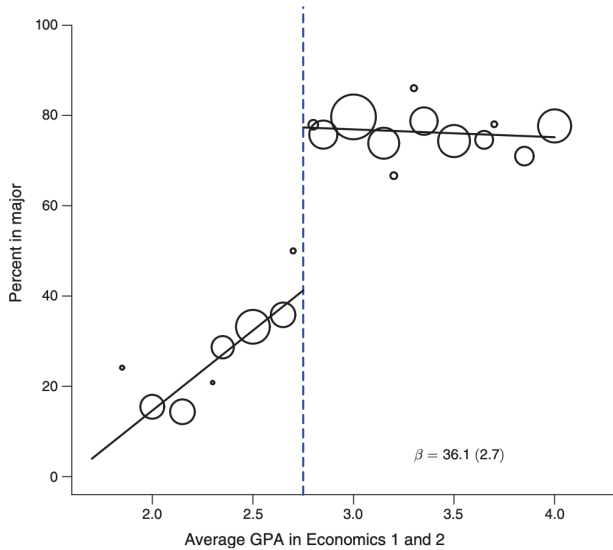
- ▶ RD only works in a very specific context: when there is a clear cut-off in some variable (called the running or forcing variable) that determines treatment
- ▶ The best-case scenario is something we already discussed:
 - ▶ People don't know the cut-off at the time
 - ▶ The cut-off is not something you can manipulate (for example if you can only take a test once)
- ▶ In these cases, we can assume that people just above and just below the cut-off are similar
 - ▶ Implication: they should be similar on variables unaffected by treatment
 - ▶ We can check this!
 - ▶ Implication: density on either side of the cut-off should be similar
 - ▶ We can check this!

- ▶ Bleemer and Mehta (2022): Will studying economics make you rich? A regression discontinuity analysis of the returns to college major
 - ▶ *AEJ: Applied*
- ▶ Note: The data is confidential, so we can't replicate the results
 - ▶ We'll just go through the paper and discuss
- ▶ We'll replicate a common RD design later

- ▶ Data from UC Santa Cruz
 - ▶ Public university
- ▶ Starting in 2003, the econ department instituted a GPA restriction
 - ▶ Common for majors that are oversubscribed
 - ▶ Students with a GPA below 2.8 were not allowed to declare an econ major
 - ▶ (It's a little more complicated than that, but we'll just go with this for)
- ▶ Originally, grades in Economics 1 and 2 were counted
 - ▶ Added calculus in 2013

- ▶ They have information on individual students from their time in school
 - ▶ Information on econ GPA (EGPA) as well as other grades
 - ▶ Gender, ethnicity, cohort year, home address, residency status, high school, and SAT score
- ▶ They link the data to employment records from the California Employment Development Department
 - ▶ Annual wages and six-digit industry (NAICS) code
- ▶ You can probably tell by now why the data is confidential

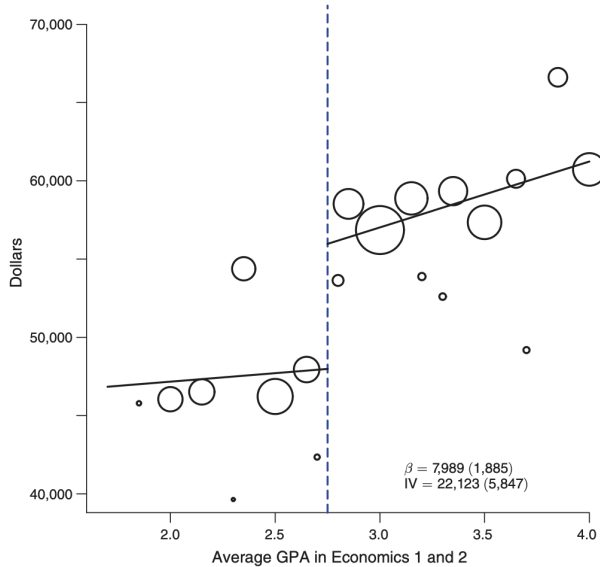
Looking at the data



This is a fuzzy regression discontinuity

- ▶ There appears to be a clear jump at the cut-off
- ▶ However, The jump is not from 0 to 1
 - ▶ The department actually had some discretion in who they let in below 2.8

Earnings and EGPA



- ▶ Graphs are nice, but we want to estimate the effect of majoring in economics on earnings
- ▶ Simplest specification:

$$y_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 EGPA + \alpha_2 \mathbb{I}(EGPA \geq 2.8) + \alpha_3 \mathbb{I}(EGPA \geq 2.8) \times EGPA + \epsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

- ▶ $EGPA$ is the student's econ GPA
- ▶ $\mathbb{I}(EGPA \geq 2.8)$ is an indicator for whether the student had a GPA high enough to declare an econ major
- ▶ We are allowing the effect of $EGPA$ to be different for students above and below the cut-off
- ▶ Usually first check the intermediate outcome (econ major) and then final outcome (wages)
- ▶ NOTE: Common to recenter the running variable to zero at the cut-off

With our fictitious data - test score and wages

```
df <- as_tibble(cbind(scores = scores, wages = wages))
# Recenter running
df$scores <- df$scores - 60
df$abovecut <- ifelse(df$scores >= 0, 1, 0)
(reg1 <- feols(log(wages) ~ scores + abovecut*scores,
               data = df,
               vcov = "HC1"))

## OLS estimation, Dep. Var.: log(wages)
## Observations: 5,000
## Standard-errors: Heteroskedasticity-robust
##
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
## (Intercept)	2.779060	0.002114	1314.53641	< 2.2e-16 ***
## scores	0.007271	0.000128	56.85130	< 2.2e-16 ***
## abovecut	0.107807	0.004295	25.10096	< 2.2e-16 ***
## scores:abovecut	-0.002090	0.000434	-4.81940	1.4826e-06 ***

```
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## RMSE: 0.072836  Adj. R2: 0.718956
```


With our fictitious data - test score (recentered) and wages



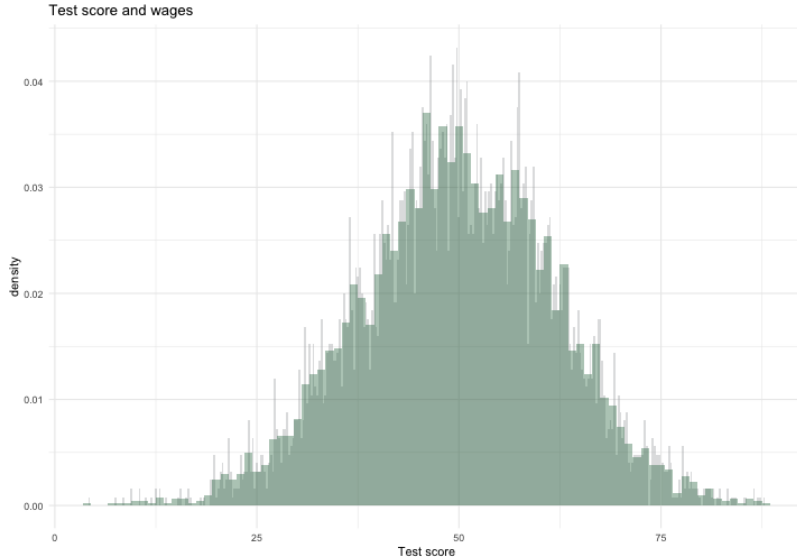
But there's a problem

- ▶ There's an issue with fitting a regression like this
- ▶ RD is really only valid *around the cut-off*
 - ▶ But when we fit a regression like this, we're using all of the data
 - ▶ This includes points far from the cut-off
- ▶ So in practice nowadays, it's more common to use a local linear regression

- ▶ This is an example of *non-parametric estimation*
- ▶ You're actually all familiar with this, even if you didn't realize it
 - ▶ Density estimates as commonly implemented are a non-parametric estimator
- ▶ Consider a histogram:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{\sum_i \mathbb{I}(x_i \in \text{interval } k)}{n} \quad (2)$$

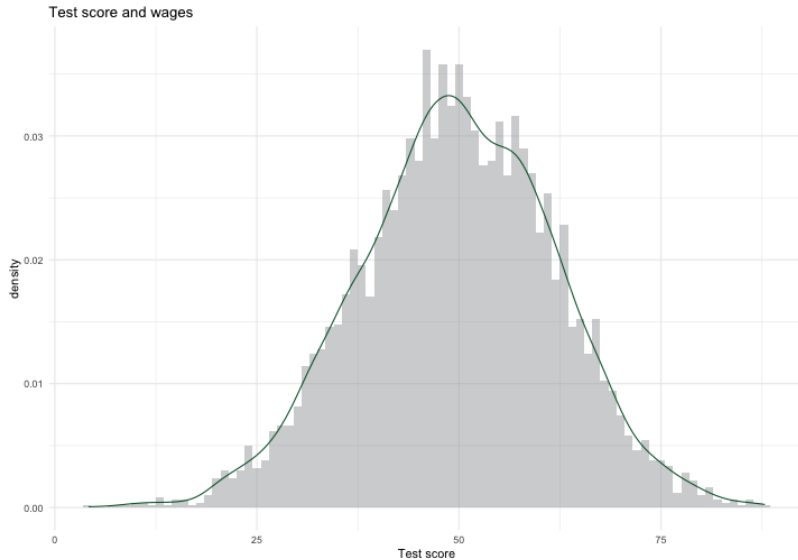
Histograms with different bin widths (0.25 and 1)



Bin width clearly matters for how the density looks

- ▶ The size of each bin affects how the density looks
- ▶ We can manually choose the bin width
 - ▶ It's really somewhat arbitrary
- ▶ There's a trade-off between bias and variance
 - ▶ The larger the width, the more the bias but the less the variance
- ▶ We can call the width of the bin the *bandwidth*
 - ▶ Now let's see how this works with non-parametric estimators

Histograms with different bin widths, adding non-parametric



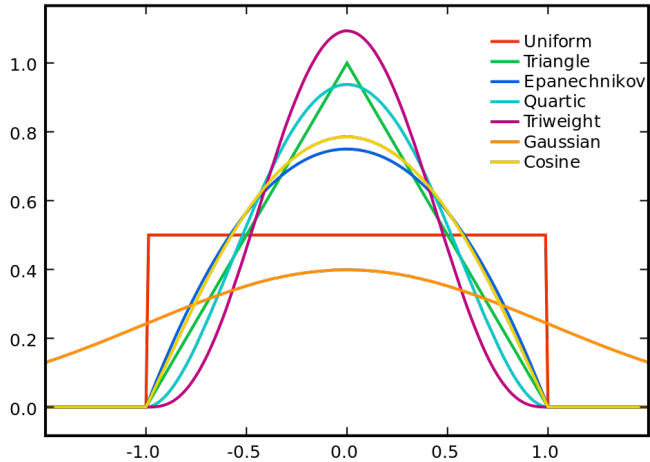
- Define the density estimator as:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_i K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right), \quad (3)$$

where K is a kernel function and h is the bandwidth.

- The kernel function decides how to weight observations within the bandwidth
- Kernels often weight observations closer to x more heavily
 - Uniform, triangular, and Epanechnikov are most common
- The intuition: take different values of x and calculate the (weighted) average of the observations within the bandwidth using a given kernel

Kernel examples (Wikipedia)

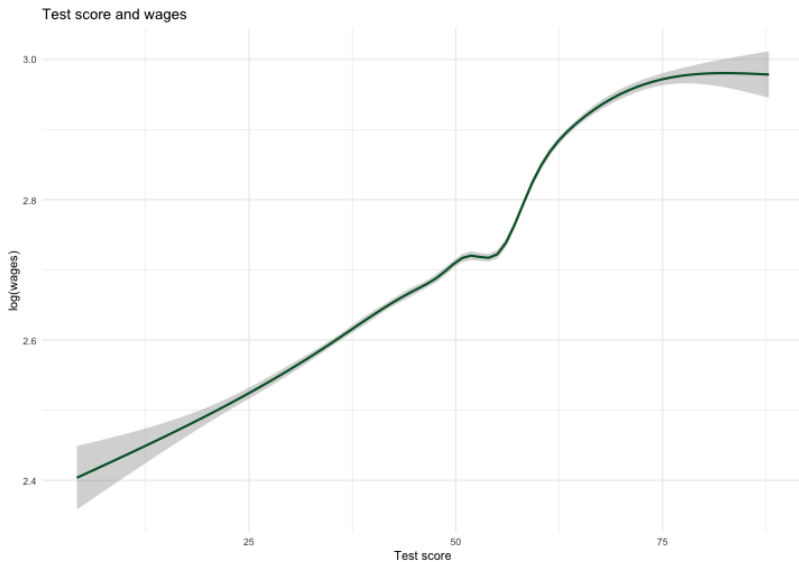


- ▶ The specific kernel *usually* doesn't make a big difference
- ▶ If it does, you probably have a bigger problem
 - ▶ You're probably not in a good situation for RD
 - ▶ Your results are too sensitive

- ▶ Let's stick to the simple example of estimating the effect of EGPA on wages
 - ▶ Just the two variables, nothing more
- ▶ Consider a general non-parametric estimator, where $K_h()$ is a kernel weight and h is the bandwidth:

$$\min_{\alpha, \beta} \sum_{i|x_i \in [x-h, x+h]} (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - x))^2 K_h(x - x_i) \quad (4)$$

Non-parametric regression in R using `geom_smooth`



- ▶ What we are essentially going to do with RD is estimate the previous equation separately for $x < x_0$ and $x \geq x_0$, where x_0 is the cut-off
 - ▶ We are going to only look right around the cut-off!
- ▶ In other words, we are going to estimate:

$$\min_{\alpha_l, \beta_l} \sum_{i|c-h < x_i < c} (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - c))^2 K_h(c - x_i) \quad (5)$$

$$\min_{\alpha_r, \beta_r} \sum_{i|c < x_i < c+h} (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - c))^2 K_h(c - x_i) \quad (6)$$

- ▶ The RD estimate will be $\hat{\alpha}_r - \hat{\alpha}_l$

Example with data from Cunningham

- ▶ Cunningham has provided data from Lee, Moretti, and Butler (2004)
 - ▶ Do voters affect or elect policies? Evidence from the US House
 - ▶ *Quarterly Journal of Economics*
- ▶ On github: `lmb-data.dta`

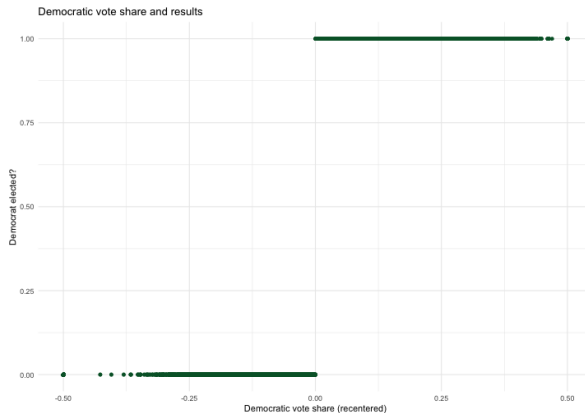
Example with data from Cunningham

```
library(haven)
df <- read_dta("lmb-data.dta")

# recenter vote (straightforward in US context)
df$demvoteshare <- df$demvoteshare - 0.5
```

Example with data from Cunningham

```
ggplot(data = df) +  
  geom_point(aes(x = demvoteshare, y = democrat), color = kdisgreen) +  
  theme_minimal() +  
  labs(x = "Democratic vote share (recentered)", y = "Democrat elected?", title = "Democratic vote share and results")
```



- ▶ Let's look at the ADA score, which measures how “liberal” a representative is

Example with data from Cunningham



Estimating the simple linear RD

```
df$abovecutoff <- ifelse(df$demvoteshare>=0, 1, 0)

(reg1 <- feols(realada ~ demvoteshare + abovecutoff + abovecutoff*demvoteshare,
  data = df,
  cluster = "state"))

## OLS estimation, Dep. Var.: realada
## Observations: 13,577
## Standard-errors: Clustered (state)
##
##              Estimate Std. Error   t value   Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)    16.81598    1.59483 10.544034 3.3679e-14 ***
## demvoteshare    -5.68279    7.32303 -0.776016 4.4147e-01
## abovecutoff     55.43136    3.29304 16.832906 < 2.2e-16 ***
## demvoteshare:abovecutoff -55.15188   15.55239 -3.546201 8.7155e-04 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## RMSE: 24.5   Adj. R2: 0.434324
```

Improving RD estimates using rdrobust in R

```
library(rdrobust)
rd1 <- rdrobust(df$realada, df$demvoteshare, c = 0, cluster = df$state)
summary(rd1)
```

```
## Sharp RD estimates using local polynomial regression.
```

```
##
```

```
## Number of Obs.          13577
```

```
## BW type                mserd
```

```
## Kernel                  Triangular
```

```
## VCE method              NN
```

```
##
```

```
## Number of Obs.          5480      8097
```

```
## Eff. Number of Obs.     2690      2506
```

```
## Order est. (p)          1          1
```

```
## Order bias (q)          2          2
```

```
## BW est. (h)             0.113      0.113
```

```
## BW bias (b)             0.156      0.156
```

```
## rho (h/b)              0.726      0.726
```

```
## Unique Obs.            2770      3351
```

```
##
```

```
## =====
```

```
##      Method      Coef. Std. Err.      z    P>|z|      [ 95% C.I. ]
```

```
## =====
```

```
## Conventional    46.870      2.079    22.547    0.000    [42.796 , 50.945]
```

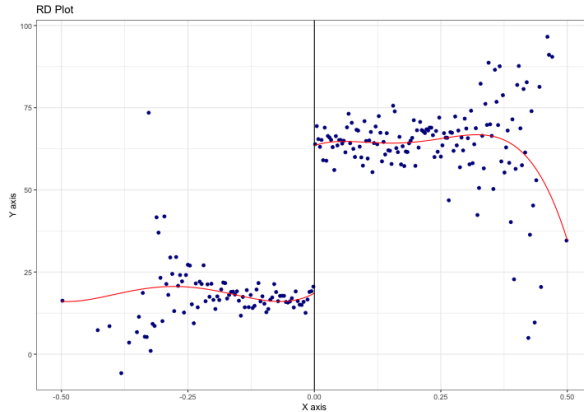
```
## Robust          -          -    20.604    0.000    [42.092 , 50.942]
```

```
## =====
```

Plotting the estimates

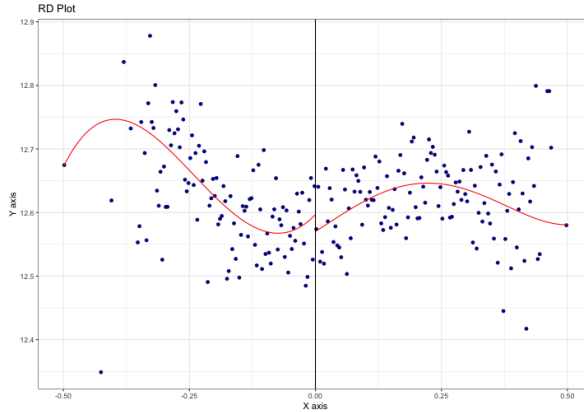
```
rdplot(df$realada, df$demvoteshare, c = 0)
```

```
## [1] "Mass points detected in the running variable."
```



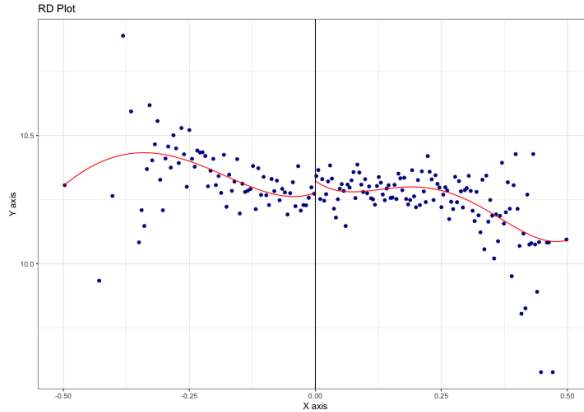
Checking variables unrelated to treatment - population

```
## [1] "Mass points detected in the running variable."
```



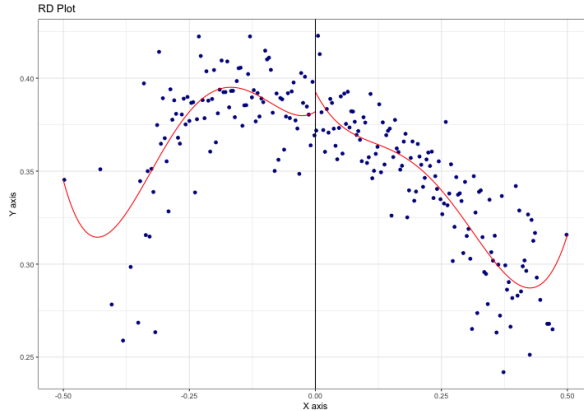
Checking variables unrelated to treatment - income

```
## [1] "Mass points detected in the running variable."
```



Checking variables unrelated to treatment - percent HS

```
## [1] "Mass points detected in the running variable."
```

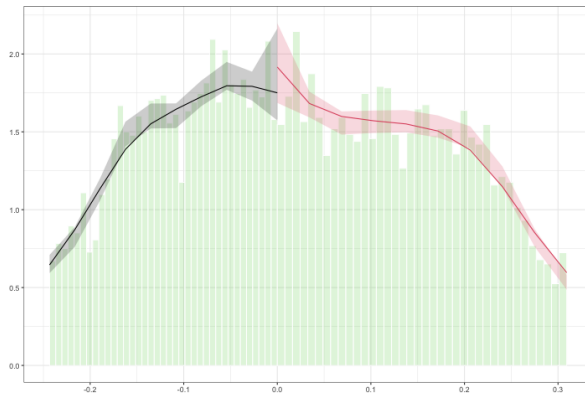


One more thing: checking the density around the cut-off

```
library(rddensity)
density <- rddensity(df$demvoteshare, c = 0)
summary(density)
```

```
##
## Manipulation testing using local polynomial density estimation.
##
## Number of obs =      13577
## Model =          unrestricted
## Kernel =         triangular
## BW method =      estimated
## VCE method =     jackknife
##
## c = 0            Left of c      Right of c
## Number of obs    5480          8097
## Eff. Number of obs 1994        2250
## Order est. (p)    2            2
## Order bias (q)    3            3
## BW est. (h)       0.081        0.103
##
## Method           T              P > |T|
## Robust           0.3628        0.7168
##
##
## P-values of binomial tests (H0: p=0.5).
##
## Window Length / 2    <c      >=c    P>|T|
## 0.001                20       23      0.7608
## 0.002                47       39      0.4505
## 0.003                65       58      0.5887
## 0.004                86       82      0.8170
## 0.005               101       87      0.8312
```


One more thing: checking the density around the cut-off



```
## $Est1
## Call: lpdensity
##
## Sample size                5480
## Polynomial order for point estimation (p=) 2
## Order of derivative estimated (v=) 1
## Polynomial order for confidence interval (q=) 3
## Kernel function            triangular
## Scaling factor              0.40357984678845
```

- ▶ This example is sharp; all Democrats who received the most votes were elected
- ▶ Let's go back to our studying economics example
 - ▶ Are we really interested in the effect of EGPA on wages?
 - ▶ No. We want to know the effect of majoring in economics on wages
- ▶ Well, if people just around the cut-off really are similar, then being just above the cut-off is a valid IV!

- ▶ Leaving out the forcing variable for simplicity:

$$econ = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \mathbb{I}(EGPA \geq 2.8) + \varepsilon \quad (7)$$

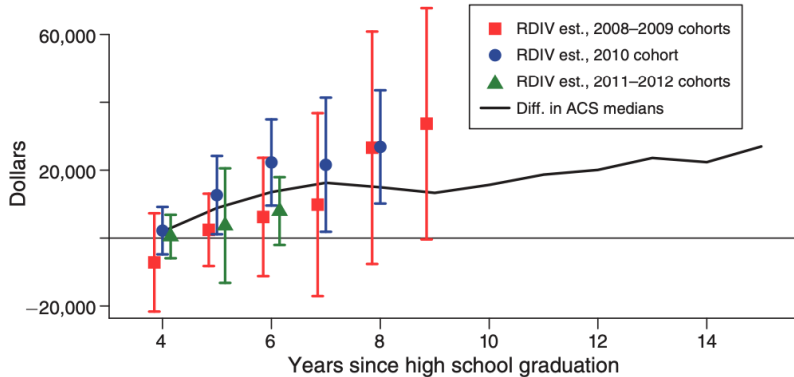
$$wages = \beta_0 + \beta_1 econ + v \quad (8)$$

- ▶ We're going to do this non-parametrically, though.
- ▶ Following Hansen and what we learned last week with IVs:

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{\hat{m}_{c+} - \hat{m}_{c-}}{\hat{p}_{c+} - \hat{p}_{c-}} \quad (9)$$

- ▶ We're going to scale the reduced form by the first stage!

Returns to majoring in economics



- ▶ This is a common problem with fuzzy RD using local polynomial regressions
- ▶ More generally, non-parametric estimators are *very* data hungry
 - ▶ The more controls you add, the worse it gets
 - ▶ “The curse of dimensionality”
 - ▶ With RD, we are also estimating at the boundary (edge) of the data, which involves similar issues
- ▶ By making parametric assumptions, we can get more precise estimates
 - ▶ But the estimates may be more biased
 - ▶ Trade off!

- ▶ We won't go into details here, but regression kink is another similar method
- ▶ This is about changes in *slopes*, not intercepts
- ▶ For more details, see Card et al. (2015 - *Econometrica*) and CI