Quant II

Lab 13: Multiple endpoints, missing data, power analysis

Giacomo Lemoli

May 4, 2023

Today's plan

• Multiple outcomes

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- Multiple outcomes
- Missing data

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- Missing data
- Power analysis

 Testing multiple hypotheses increases the probability of type I (false Positives) or type II error (false Negatives)

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- Popular strategies:
 - Summarize different measures in a single one
 - Adjust p-values for multiple comparisons

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- Stata: pca. R: prcomp, princomp

Example

The effect of military repression on support for democracy



The Geography of Repression and Opposition to Autocracy • • •

Maria Angélica Bautista University of Chicago

Felipe González Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile

Luis R. Martínez University of Chicago

Pablo Muñoz FGV EPGE Brazilian School of Economics and Finance

Mounu Prem Universidad del Rosario

Abstract: State repression is a prominent feature of nondemocracies, but its effectiveness in quieting dissent and fostering regime survival remains unclear. We exploit the location of military bases before the coup that brought Augusto Pinochet to power in Chile in 1973, which is uncorrelated to precoup electoral outcomes, and show that counties near these bases experienced more killings and forced disappearances at the hands of the government during the dictatorship. Our main result is that residents of counties close to military bases both registered to vote and voted "No" to pinochet's continuous in power at higher rates in the crucial 1988 plebiscite that bolstered the democratic transition. Potential mechanisms include informational frictions on the intensity of repression in counties far from bases and shifts in preferences caused by increased proximity to the events. Election outcomes after democratization show no lasting change in political preferences.

PC1

Share_reg70_w2 -0.5861655 -0.55108749 0.5938961

VoteShareNo_pop70 -0.6679261 -0.08620006 -0.7392187

PC2

-0.4585680 0.82998321 0.3175582

Rotation (n x k) = (3×3) :

##

VoteShareNo

```
vars <- c("Share_reg70_w2", "VoteShareNo", "VoteShareNo_pop70")
pca <- prcomp(d[,vars], center=T, scale=T)
pca

## Standard deviations (1, ..., p=3):
## [1] 1.4540286 0.8902977 0.3052389
##</pre>
```

PC3

```
data.frame(number=c(1:3), Eigenvalues = (pca$sdev)^2) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x=number, y=Eigenvalues)) + geom_point() + geom_line() + theme_bw()
   2.0
   1.5
 Eigenvalues
1.0
   0.5
   0.0
                                                               2.0
                                                                                          2.5
          1.0
                                     1.5
                                                                                                                    3.0
```

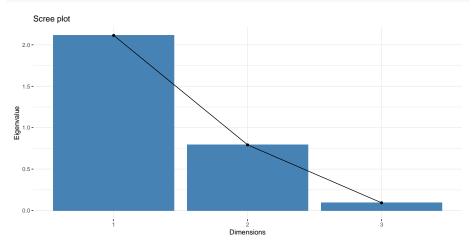
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number

• Can also pass the PCA output through the package factoextra

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```
library(factoextra)
fviz_eig(pca, choice = "eigenvalue")
```



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- Can bootstrap (sample code in this week's folder)

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Inverse Covariance Weighting

- Summarizes outcome variables along just one dimension
- Weighted by inverse covariance in order to downplay common information across variables
- Code by Cyrus: Stata and R code

p-value adjustment

 Most standard p-value adjustment methods implemented in R by p.adjust

```
## p bonferroni
## 1 0.03247145 0.3247145
## 2 0.03806728 0.3806728
```

Implementing p-value adjustments

• Summary of Stata packages for adjustment options by David McKenzie

Implementing p-value adjustments

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- Sample code from McKenzie in this week's folder

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Missing data

• Random missingness

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- Non-parametric methods: bounds

Missing data

- Random missingness
- Non-parametric methods: bounds
- Parametric methods: imputation

Example

The effects of censorship in authoritarian regimes



Sometimes Less Is More: Censorship, News Falsification, and Disapproval in 1989 East Germany Germany

Germany 😈 😇

Christian Gläßel University of Mannheim **Katrin Paula** University of Mannheim

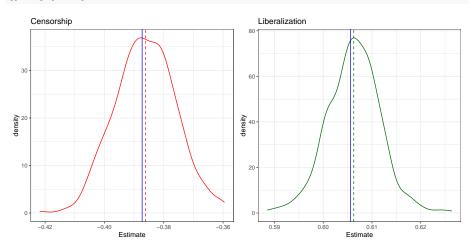
Abstract: Does more media censorship imply more regime stability? We argue that censorship may cause mass disapproval for censoring regimes. In particular, we expect that censorship backfires when citizens can falsify media content through alternative sources of information. We empirically test our theoretical argument in an autocratic regime—the German Democratic Republic (GDR), Results demonstrate how exposed state censorship on the country's emigration crisis fueled outrage in the weeks before the 1989 revolution. Combining original weekly approval surveys on GDR state television and daily content date of West German news programs with a quasi-experimental research design, we show that recipients disapproved of censorship if they were able to detect misinformation through conflicting reports on Western television. Our findings have important implications for the study of censorship journalism.

Baseline results (full data)

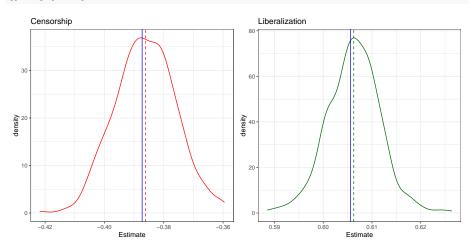
	Model 1
censorship	-0.387
	(0.036)
liberalization	0.606
	(0.021)
Num.Obs.	17551
R2	0.235
R2 Adj.	0.235
se_type	stata

```
set.seed(123)
nboot <- 500
cens <- lib <- rep(NA.nboot)
# 20% of outcome values are missing in the data
for (i in 1:nboot) {
 d <- d %>% mutate(newout = ifelse(runif(nrow(d),0,1)<0.2, NA, ak_rating))</pre>
 fit <- update(mod, newout ~ .)
 cens[i] <- coef(fit)["censorship"]</pre>
 lib[i] <- coef(fit)["liberalization"]
plot1 <- ggplot(as.data.frame(cens)) + geom density(aes(x=cens), col="red") +
 labs(x="Estimate", title = "Censorship") +
 geom_vline(xintercept = mean(cens), col="red", linetype = "dashed") +
 geom_vline(xintercept = coef(mod)["censorship"], col="blue") + theme_bw()
plot2 <- ggplot(as.data.frame(lib)) + geom density(aes(x=lib), col="dark green") +
 labs(x="Estimate", title = "Liberalization") +
 geom_vline(xintercept = mean(lib), col="dark green", linetype = "dashed") +
 geom vline(xintercept = coef(mod)["liberalization"], col="blue") + theme bw()
```

ggarrange(plot1, plot2)

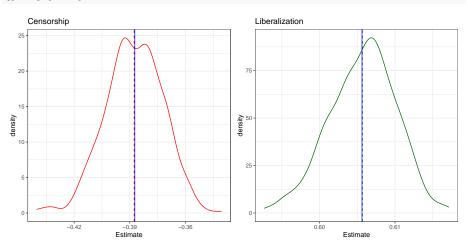


ggarrange(plot1, plot2)



```
# Suppose during censorship people express negative attitudes by non-responding
set.seed(123)
nboot <- 500
cens <- lib <- rep(NA.nboot)
for (i in 1:nboot){
 d <- d %>% mutate(newout = ifelse(rnorm(nrow(d), mean = d$censorship)>1.15,
                                    NA. ak rating))
 fit <- update(mod, newout ~ .)
 cens[i] <- coef(fit)["censorship"]
 lib[i] <- coef(fit)["liberalization"]
plot1 <- ggplot(as.data.frame(cens)) + geom density(aes(x=cens), col="red") +
 labs(x="Estimate", title = "Censorship") +
 geom_vline(xintercept = mean(cens), col="red", linetype = "dashed") +
 geom_vline(xintercept = coef(mod)["censorship"], col="blue") + theme_bw()
plot2 <- ggplot(as.data.frame(lib)) + geom_density(aes(x=lib), col="dark green") +
 labs(x="Estimate", title = "Liberalization") +
 geom_vline(xintercept = mean(lib), col="dark green", linetype = "dashed") +
 geom vline(xintercept = coef(mod)["liberalization"], col="blue") + theme_bw()
```





Point identification with missingness

• MCAR: in expectation the estimates are unbiased

Point identification with missingness

- MCAR: in expectation the estimates are unbiased
- MAR: can use covariates that determine missingness to impute the missing values of the outcome

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```
# Predicted values from the regression
d <- d %>% mutate(predicted = predict(fit, newdata = d))
# Replace missing outcomes with imputed values
d <- d %>% mutate(impy = ifelse(is.na(newout), predicted, newout))
```

In Stata you can use the post-estimation command predict

```
help predict
reg newout censorship liberalization, cluster(hh)
predict predicted, xb
replace newout = predicted if missing(newout) & !missing(predicted)
```

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Multiple imputation with MICE

[1] 0

Bounds

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- If MAR assumption seems unjustified, we can estimate bounds on causal effects
- Manski bounds: also called "worst case" bounds
- Fill missing outcomes using the bounds of potential outcomes

Manski bounds

Formally:

$$\beta^{L} \leq ATE \leq \beta^{H}$$

$$\beta^{L} = \{\mu_{1,obs}Pr[R_{1i} = 1] + y_{1}^{L}Pr[R_{1i=0}]\} - \{\mu_{0,obs}Pr[R_{0i} = 1] + y_{0}^{H}Pr[R_{0i} = 0]\}$$

$$\beta^{H} = \{\mu_{1,obs}Pr[R_{1i} = 1] + y_{1}^{H}Pr[R_{1i=0}]\} - \{\mu_{0,obs}Pr[R_{0i} = 1] + y_{0}^{L}Pr[R_{0i} = 0]\}$$

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$$\beta^{L} \leq ATE \leq \beta^{H}$$

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$$\beta^{H} = \{\mu_{1,obs}Pr[R_{1i} = 1] + y_{1}^{H}Pr[R_{1i=0}]\} - \{\mu_{0,obs}Pr[R_{0i} = 1] + y_{0}^{L}Pr[R_{0i} = 0]\}$$

- $\{y_t^L, y_t^H\}$ straightforward when the outcome is bounded, e.g. binary (just replace every missing y with 0 or 1)
- Otherwise, they are not
- If the bounds are very large, the set of possible effects can be too large

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Manski bounds

Implementation:

- Manually
- R: ATbounds (vignette), attrition by Alex Coppock (download from GitHub)

```
#install.packages("ATbounds")
#library(ATbounds)

#install.packages(devtools)
#library(devtools)
#install_github("acoppock/attrition")
```

 Motivation: provide bounds on the causal effect even with unbounded outcome

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- Trade-off: assume more structure on the data, but weaker than "exclusion restrictions" necessary for other strategies

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- Trade-off: assume more structure on the data, but weaker than "exclusion restrictions" necessary for other strategies
- Relies on monotonicity assumption similar to that used for LATE identification, but in this case it serves to solve sample selection

Assumptions:

$$(Y_{1i}^*, Y_{0i}^*, R_{1i}, R_{0i}) \perp D$$

 $R_{1i} \geq R_{0i}$

Under these assumptions, Lee (2009) proves that we can identify bounds for the ATE for the sub-population $\{R_{0i} = 1, R_{1i} = 1\}$.

$$\Delta_0^{LB} = E[Y|D=1, R=1, Y \le y_{1-p0}] - E[Y|D=0, R=1]$$

$$\Delta_0^{UB} = E[Y|D=1, R=1, Y \ge y_{p0}] - E[Y|D=0, R=1]$$

$$p_0 = \frac{Pr[R=1|D=1] - Pr[R=1|D=0]}{Pr[R=1|D=1]}$$

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Implementation:

R: leebounds (install_github("vsemenova/leebounds"))

• Stata: leebounds

trimmed mean lower 3.6781620

3.0997846

0.1690535

4.0000000

4.0000000

0.8769733

0.5488574

0.8553929

0.1446071

mean_no_trim

odds

y1p0

prop0

prop1

yp0

s0

s1