Using Hierarchical Models to Estimate Heterogeneous Effects

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Abstract

This note describes a Bayesian hierarchical approach to estimating heterogeneous effects. To start, researchers specify groups based on quantities of interest such as heterogeneous treatments, treatment heterogeneity, and policy relevance. Then, researchers fit a hierarchical model where treatment slopes and intercepts vary by groups and group level factors modify the slopes. This captures systematic and random variation in heterogeneous effects, estimates effects within each group, and measures effect variance. Hierarchical modeling provides an intermediate tool between interactions or subgroup analyses and machine-learning approaches to discovering complex heterogeneity. It is more flexible than interactions and reduces the risk of underpowered subgroup comparisons. At the same time, it is more theoretically informed and interpretable than some machine-learning approaches, as well as easier to implement in small datasets. Researchers should use hierarchical models alongside other approaches to understand heterogeneous effects for scholarship and policy.

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1 Introduction

Whether in observational or experimental studies, every independent variable social scientists examine impacts some units differently than others. Common estimands aggregate heterogeneous effects, sometimes in misleading ways.[1] Average effects can be useful, but they often obscure interesting and important variation.

As a result, understanding heterogeneous effects is essential for policy and scholarship. Estimating heterogeneity allows scholars to clarify the connection between their independent variable and outcome. Policymakers can maximize the impact of finite resources with targeted interventions.

This note describes a hierarchical Bayesian approach to estimating heterogeneous effects. There are two steps in this process. First, researchers should define groups based on the potential sources of heterogeneity such as other treatments, context, demographics, or policy concerns. Second, they should estimates heterogeneous effects across those groups using a hierarchical model with varying slopes and intercepts, along with covariates that predict slopes.[2] Modeling heterogeneous effects in this way produces interpretable results, which facilitates argument testing. It also allows researchers to examine effects within groups, compare different sources of heterogeneous effects and describe how much an effect varies.

Such hierarchical models are easy to fit using the brms package for R. I provide example code in this note and the appendix. After fitting a model, researchers can calculate substantive effects with the marginaleffects package (Arel-Bundock, N.d.).

Hierarchical modeling of heterogeneous effects fills a niche between existing tools. Parametric interactions and subgroup analyses are ubiquitous because they are easy to implement

[1] Abramson, Koçak and Magazinnik (2022) note that the average marginal component effect (AMCE) of conjoint experiments gives more weight to intense preferences.

[2] Using hierarchical models is an established idea in statistics (Feller and Gelman, 2015), but political science researchers rarely use them. Feller and Gelman (2015) have three applied political science citations, and of these only Marquardt (2022) models treatment effects.

and interpret. These approaches lose interpretability with more than three dimensions and are often underpowered (Simmons, Nelson and Simonsohn, 2011).[3] More recent work employs random forests (Green and Kern, 2012; Wager and Athey, 2018), support vector machines (Imai and Ratkovic, 2013), and ensemble methods (Grimmer, Messing and Westwood, 2017; Künzel et al., 2019; Dorie et al., 2022). These machine learning algorithms capture complex patterns, but can be difficult to interpret and implement, especially in smaller datasets that are common in social science.

Using a hierarchical model is more flexible than parametric interactions but more straightforward than machine learning approaches. It preserves a simple and interpretable structure, while accommodating more factors and ameliorating the downsides of subgroup analysis via partial pooling. This facilitates argument testing. Unlike machine learning techniques, the hierarchical approach lacks the flexibility to discover high-dimensional heterogeneity, however. As a result, hierarchical modeling complements other heterogeneous effects techniques.

In the remainder of this note, I describe the approach and demonstrate how it works by analyzing a study of how military alliances shape public support for war by Tomz and Weeks (2021). The reanalysis also reveals that alliances increase support for intervention most among men who support international engagement but are otherwise skeptical of using force. Alliances increase mass support for war by impacting individuals who otherwise prefer peaceful collaboration.

2 A Hierarchical Model of Heterogeneous Effects

There are two steps in this approach to heterogeneous effects estimation. First, researchers must define the groups over which an independent variables' impact varies. Groups are based on unique combinations of characteristics such as other treatments, context and demographics.

[3] Blackwell and Olson (2022) describe a lasso approach to interactions that falls between machine-learning and linear regressions.

Researchers should create groups based on what variation is most important and interesting. Theory, policy concerns, or normative factors are all possible motivations.

Setting groups is the most important task, because it determines what heterogeneous effects a model estimates. Defining groups before model fitting helps researchers define what variation is most important, link heterogeneous effects to theory, and structure their analyses.[4] Poorly defined groups will obfuscate the results and can hinder model fitting.

There are three general approaches to defining groups. First, researchers can set groups using combinations of other treatments, especially when an intervention has several dimensions but theory emphasizes one of them. The experimental design determines groups, and the results estimate heterogeneous treatment effects. For instance, if researchers want to know how different issues shape the impact of elite foreign policy cues (Guisinger and Saunders, 2017), they could define groups by issues.

A second approach uses unit and contextual factors to create groups and estimate effect heterogeneity. In this instance, researchers examine what factors within or around units shape their response to an independent variable. For example, Alley (2021) uses alliance characteristics to examine when alliance membership increases or decreases military spending.

Third, researchers might emphasize policy concerns. Understanding how an intervention impacts a specific population is a common problem. Researchers might want to know if a job-training program improves employment prospects for black women in the South, for instance.

Whether researchers use other treatments, context, or policy to determine groups, the number of grouping factors depends first on theory. There are some practical constraints, however. Dividing groups based on many factors will create many small groups and increase the risk of model fitting problems. Using only one factor will create an unidentified model, and researchers should use interactions instead.

[4] It also facilitates pre-registration when applicable.

After defining groups, researchers fit a hierarchical model of effects within groups.[5] The first equation links the independent variable and outcome. The second equation estimates heterogeneous effects as a function of the group characteristics.[6]

This model can apply to many problems, but for ease of exposition consider making between-unit comparisons based on an experimental treatment. Start with N units indexed by i, some of which receive a binary treatment T. For simplicity, assume that the outcome variable y is normally distributed with mean μ_i and standard deviation σ.[7] g indexes the researcher-defined groups.

The outcome for each unit is then a function of varying intercepts α_g, an optional matrix of control variables $\mathbf{X}$,[8] and a set of group treatment effects θ_g, which are normally distributed with mean η_g and standard deviation σ_θ. The researcher divides all units into g groups based on unique combinations predictors of heterogeneous effects $\mathbf{Z}$. Each θ parameter estimates the treatment effect in group g, and is often referred to as a varying slope.

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_i &\sim N(\mu_i, \sigma) && \text{(Likelihood)} \\
\mu_i &= \alpha + \alpha_g + \theta_g T + \mathbf{X}\beta && \text{(Outcome Equation)} \\
\theta_g &\sim N(\eta_g, \sigma_\theta) \\
\eta_g &= \lambda_0 + \mathbf{Z}\lambda && \text{(Heterogeneous Effects)}
\end{aligned}
\tag{1}
$$

The second equation then predicts the treatment effects with the matrix $\mathbf{Z}$, which contains unique combinations of whatever variables define the groups. As a result, each θ reflects a unique mix of factors that modify the treatment. The second equation also includes an intercept λ_0 that estimates the impact of treatment when all sources of heterogeneity are zero.[9]

[5] Bayesian estimation is easiest. Priors depend on the problem and researcher knowledge.

[6] Researchers can adjust for autocorrelation and clustering as needed.

[7] Researchers should use binary, categorical and other outcome likelihoods as needed.

[8] Adding additional grouping structures for more complex data is also straightforward.

[9] In brms for a model with no controls and two variables modifying the impact of a treatment, the model formula is simply y $\sim$ 1 + treat*(var1 + var2) + (1 + treat | var1:var2). treat*(var1 + var2) expresses part of the second equation, while (1 + treat | var1:var2) lets slopes vary by group.

Modeling heterogeneous effects across groups facilitates detailed inferences about how much and why an effect varies. First, the θ parameters estimate the impact of a variable within each group.[10] All θs reflect a systematic component from the predictors in $\mathbf{Z}\ \lambda$ and a random component of varying slopes from σ_θ. The systematic component will usually dominate.

In addition to group-specific effect estimates, a hierarchical model facilitates rich description of effects across groups. It estimates how specific factors drive differences between groups via the λ parameters. Researchers can also calculate variance in the θ parameters across groups. The σ_θ parameter summarizes the random variation. Other techniques such as OLS with robust standard errors provide far less information.

Estimating heterogeneous effects in this way has three advantages. First, researchers can make detailed inferences about heterogeneous effects in an easy to interpret framework. Researchers can thus examine theories of heterogeneous effects and compare sources of variation.[11] Partial pooling also facilitates reasonable estimates for small groups by sharing information across groups and leveraging predictors in the heterogeneous effects equation. Finally, this approach will be faster than machine learning approaches for many datasets, easier to use in small datasets, and may scale better than models that attempt to estimate individual treatment effects.

Like all methods, the hierarchical approach has downsides, some of which can be ameliorated by modifying the above framework. Because groups are based on unique combinations of heterogeneous effect variables, using multiple continuous variables in the heterogeneous effects equation creates many small groups or individual treatment effects, which increases the risk of sampling problems, especially in small datasets. If using several continuous variables hinders model convergence, researchers can bin continuous variables.

[10] The random intercepts α_g and varying slopes θ_g should usually have a common multivariate normal prior to capture correlations between group slopes and intercepts.

[11] Rescaling variables in the heterogeneous effects equation can aid model fitting and coefficient comparisons (Gelman, 2008).

Furthermore, unlike machine learning approaches, this model will not uncover high-dimensional interactions. Even so, researchers can add flexibility with additional interactions or non-linear specifications in either level of the model. Finally, this model can show general trends, but will not make powerful comparisons between every group. Researchers who want to compare specific groups may lack empirical leverage, especially if the groups are small.

3 Example Application

In the following, I demonstrate how the hierarchical approach works by reanalyzing a study by Tomz and Weeks (2021) (TW hereafter). TW examine how military alliances shape public support for war. In a factorial experiment with vignettes, they find that alliances increase support for war by 33% on average. This is a large and potentially important effect. I estimate how demographics drive treatment heterogeneity.[12]

I used race, gender, hawkishness and internationalism define the groups and predict the impact of alliances on support for using force. I selected these variables because foreign policy dispositions like militant assertiveness shape general willingness to use force (Kertzer et al., 2014) as do gender (Barnhart et al., 2020) and race. I also control for other experimental manipulations.

I describe the results in two steps. First, I summarize the correlates of the alliance effect in Figure 1. I then present the resulting heterogeneous effects for every group in Figure 2.

Figure 1 shows how internationalism, hawkishness, race and gender modify the impact of alliances.[13] When all other variables are 0, alliances increase support for intervention by 20%. That impact is 12% greater among white respondents. As internationalism increases, the impact of alliances rises by 4% in expectation. Greater hawkishness marginally attenuates the impact of an alliance. Furthermore, there is an additional 5% of variation in the alliance impact

[12] See the appendix for a heterogeneous treatments analysis that corroborates TW's results.
[13] These are the λ parameters above.

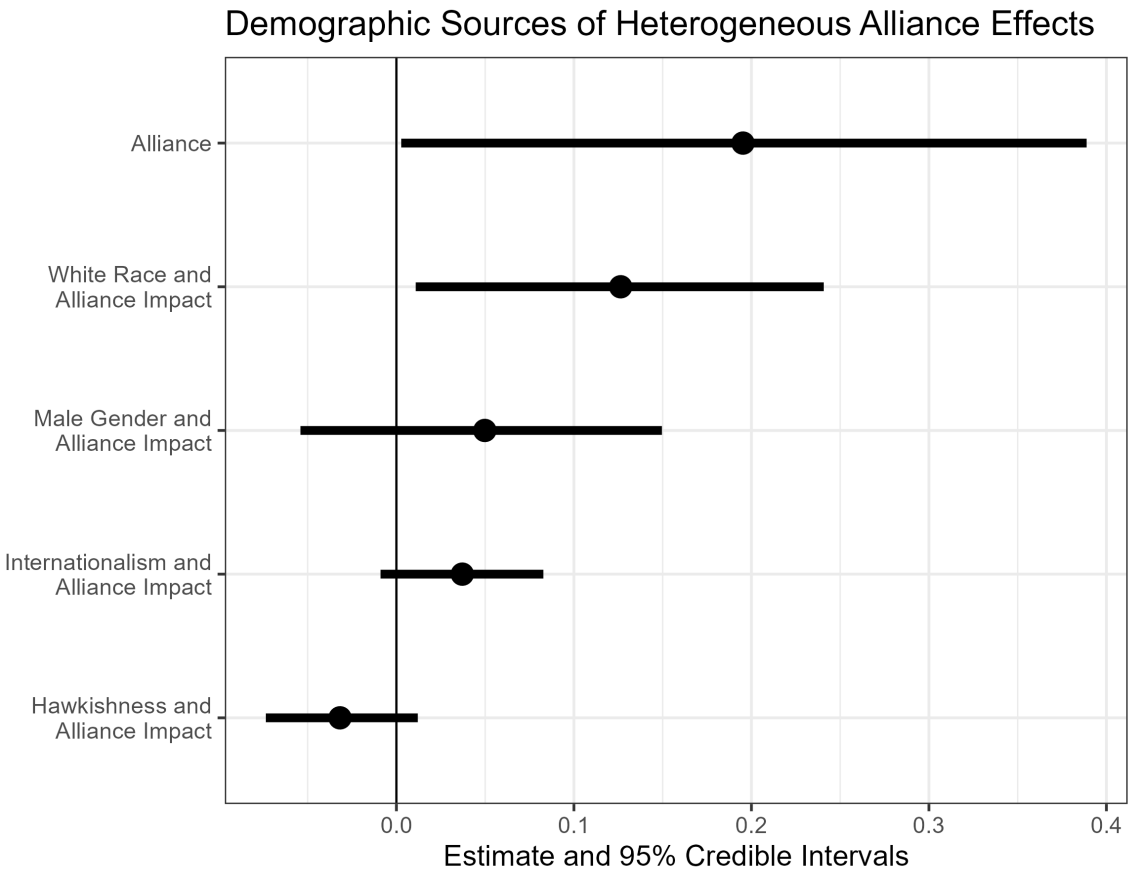

Figure 1. *Heterogeneous effects equation coefficients from a hierarchical model of how military alliances impact public support for war. Hawkishness, internationalism, white race and male gender predict the impact of alliances.*

that these systematic components do not explain.[14]

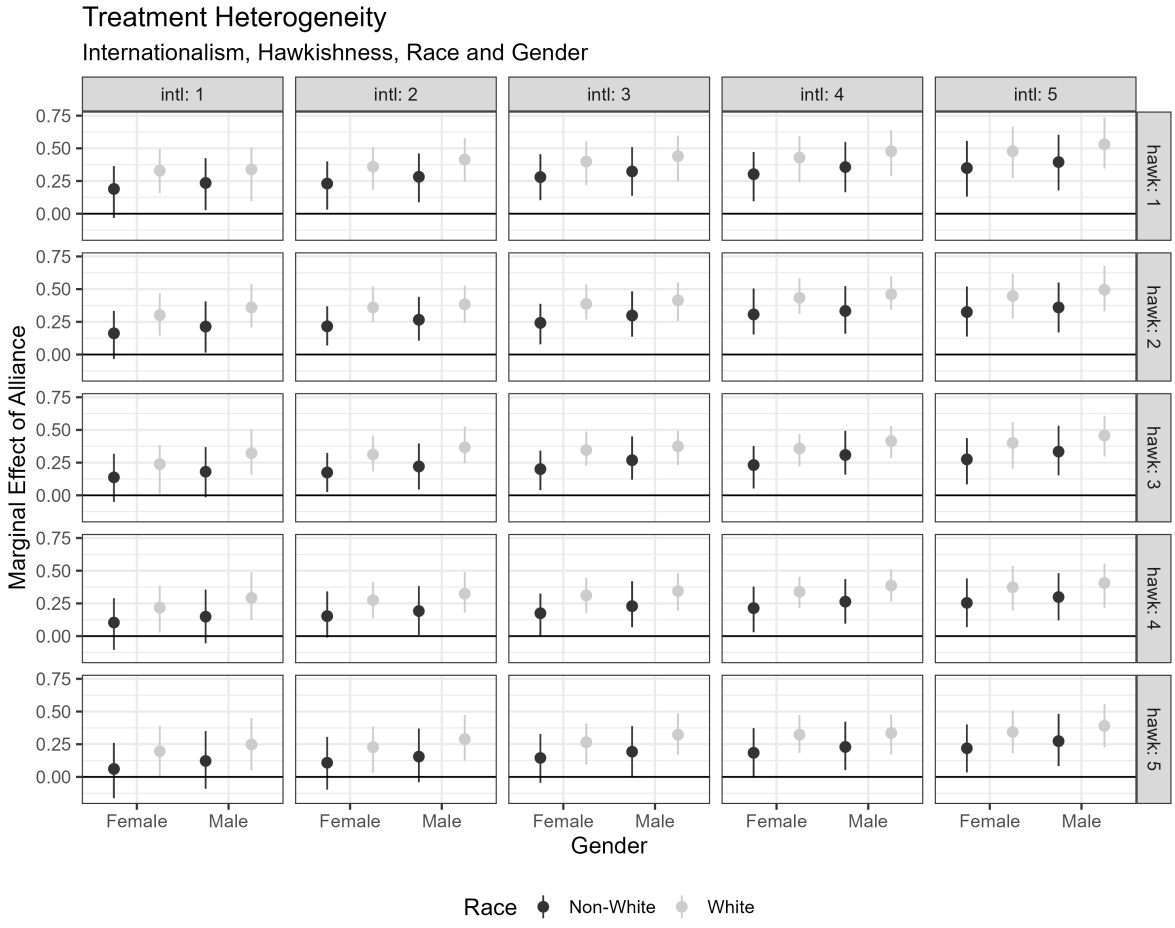

Figure 2. *Estimates of how the impact of military alliances on support for using force varies across different demographic groups. Points mark the posterior median and bars summarize the 95% credible interval.*

Figure 2 shows that alliances exert the most influence on support for foreign interventions among white men, especially those with low hawkishness and high internationalism, who can be labeled as "cooperative internationalists." Among white men with minimum hawkishness and maximum internationalism, alliances increase support for using force by 50%, which is roughly double the typical effect. By contrast, alliances have little impact on support for war among non-white females who are skeptical of international engagement. Militant assertive-

[14]This is σ_θ above.

ness reduces the impact of alliances, perhaps because these individuals support intervention regardless. This implies that alliances help convince individuals who back international engagement but are less inclined to use force. As a result, internationalism is more important than hawkishness for understanding who is willing to fight for U.S. allies.

How much does the impact of alliances vary? The minimum impact of alliances is .06, and the maximum is .53, and median is .3. The standard deviation of the impact of alliances is .09. Alliances never decrease support for intervention, but how much they increase support varies widely across demographic groups.

These results show some of the strengths and weaknesses of the hierarchical approach to heterogeneous effects.[15] A simple model based on demographic groups provides new insights about who responds to alliances. At the same time, because some demographic groups are small, the within-group effect estimates have substantial uncertainty, so comparing groups is challenging. Smaller groups would have less uncertainty but perhaps obscure variation in the impact of alliances.

4 Conclusion

This note introduced a simple and interpretable hierarchical technique for estimating heterogeneous effects. The approach above can apply to a wide range of outcomes, data structures, and theories. Explicitly modeling how different groups respond to an independent variable can help test arguments and inform policy.

Hierarchical modeling provides an intermediate approach between simple interactions or subgroup analyses and complex machine-learning algorithms. As a result, this technique complements existing tools and should not replace them. Researchers can use hierarchical models to check and inform other techniques, for instance by seeing if a key interaction holds when

[15] In the appendix, I analyze Bush and Prather (2020).

there are multiple modifiers. With this and other tools, scholars and policymakers can better understand heterogeneous effects.

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