

Web-Based Supporting Materials for “RNN-based counterfactual prediction” by Jason Poulos

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1 RNNs implementation details

The networks are implemented with the `Keras` neural network library (Chollet, 2015) in Python on top of a TensorFlow backend. When implementing encoder-decoder networks, the encoder takes the form of a two-layer Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) network (Schmidhuber and Hochreiter, 1997), each with 128 hidden units, and the decoder is a single-layer Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) (Chung et al., 2014) also with 128 hidden units. Each recurrent layer uses a linear activation function (f_1) with weights initialized using Xavier initialization (Glorot and Bengio, 2010). The loss function internally computes the predicted outputs as a linear function (f_2) of the log probabilities.

RNN weights are learned with mini-batch gradient descent on the WMSE using `Adam` stochastic optimization with the learning rate set to $5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ (Kingma and Ba, 2014). As a regularization strategy, I apply dropout to the inputs and L2 regularization losses to the network weights. The networks are trained for 1,000 epochs, which takes 10 minutes to run on a laptop CPU. The model is validated on the last 20% of the training set input-out pairs.

The RVAE is implemented similarly, but with the following differences: the encoder takes the form of a single-layer LSTM with 32 hidden units and the decoder is a two-layer LSTM with the number of hidden units equal to 32 and the number of predictors, respectively. The latent space \mathbf{z} is implemented as a densely-connected layer with a dimension of 200 units and $f_3(\cdot)$ takes the form of a log-normal distribution. The RVAE is trained with stochastic gradient descent for 5,000 epochs, which takes seven minutes to run on the same CPU.

2 Hypothesis testing

Abadie et al. (2010) propose a randomization inference approach for calculating the exact distribution of placebo effects under the sharp null hypothesis of no effect. Cavallo et al. (2013) extends the placebo-based testing approach to the case of multiple (placebo) treated units by constructing a distribution of *average* placebo effects under the null hypothesis. Firpo and Possebom (2018) derive the conditions under which the randomization inference approach is valid from a finite sample perspective and Hahn and Shi (2017) analyze the approach from a repeated sampling perspective.

Randomization p -values are obtained following these steps:

1. Estimate the observed test static $\hat{\phi}$ from (3). Averaging over the time dimension results in a T_* -length array of observed average treatment effects.
2. Calculate every possible average placebo treated effect μ by randomly sampling without replacement which $J - 1$ control units are assumed to be treated. There are $\mathcal{Q} = \sum_{g=1}^{J-1} \binom{J}{g}$ possible average placebo effects. Since calculating \mathcal{Q} can be computationally burdensome for relatively high values of J , I artificially set $\mathcal{Q} = 10,000$ in cases when $J > 16$. The result is a matrix of dimension $\mathcal{Q} \times T_*$.
3. Sum over the time dimension the number of μ that are greater than or equal to $\hat{\phi}$.

Each element of the vector obtained from Step 3 is divided by \mathcal{Q} to estimate a T_* -length vector of exact two-sided p values, \hat{p} .

2.1 Randomization confidence intervals

Under the assumption that treatment has a constant additive effect Δ , I construct an interval estimate for Δ by inverting the randomization test. Let δ_Δ be the test statistic calculated by subtracting all possible μ by Δ . I derive a two-sided randomization confidence interval by collecting all values of δ_Δ that yield \hat{p} values greater than or equal to significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. I find the endpoints of the confidence interval by randomly sampling 500 values of Δ .

3 Supporting Figures

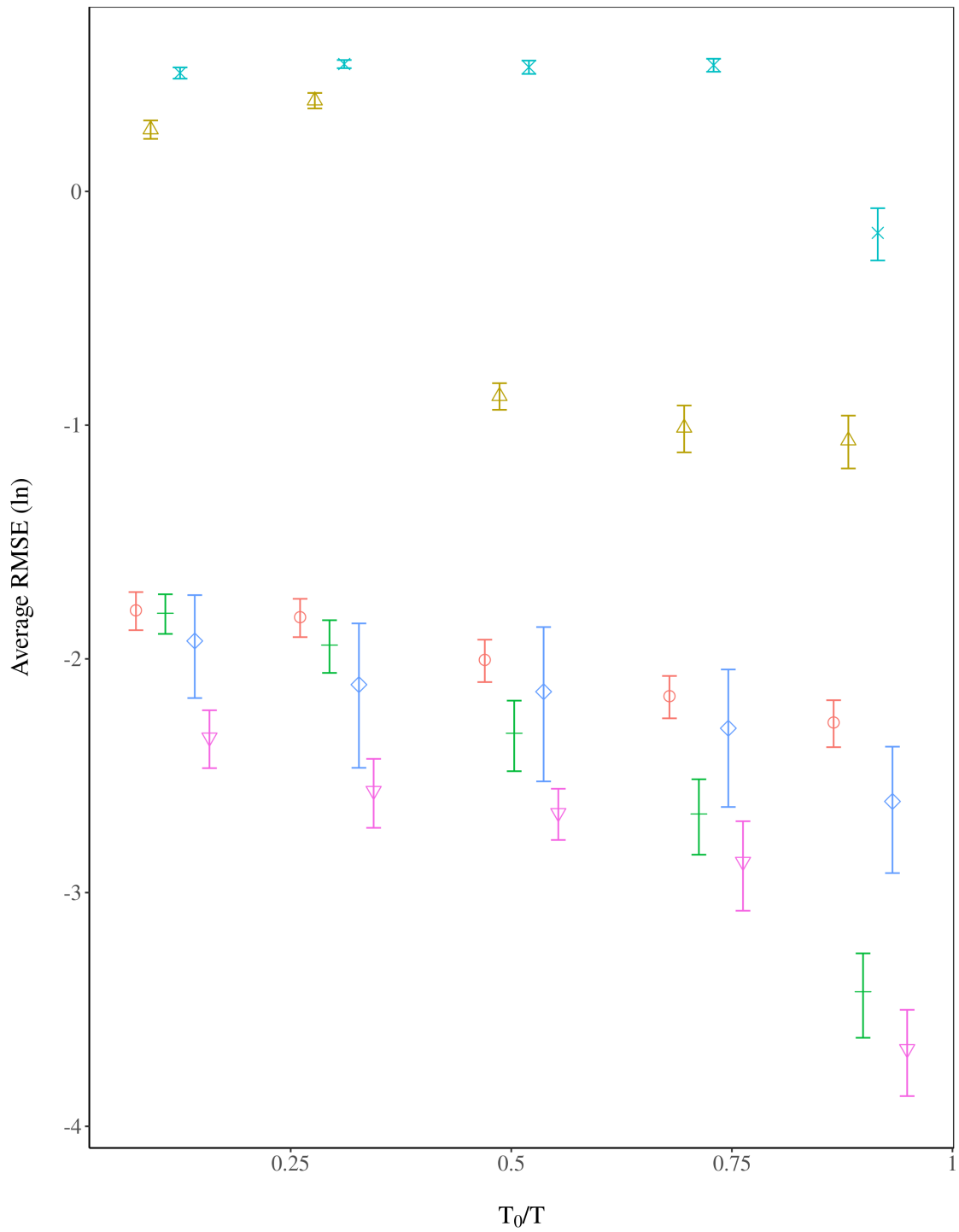


Figure 1: Placebo tests on Basque Country terrorism data: \ominus , DID; \triangle , ED; $+$, MC-NNM; \times , RVAE; \diamond , SCM; ∇ , VT-EN.

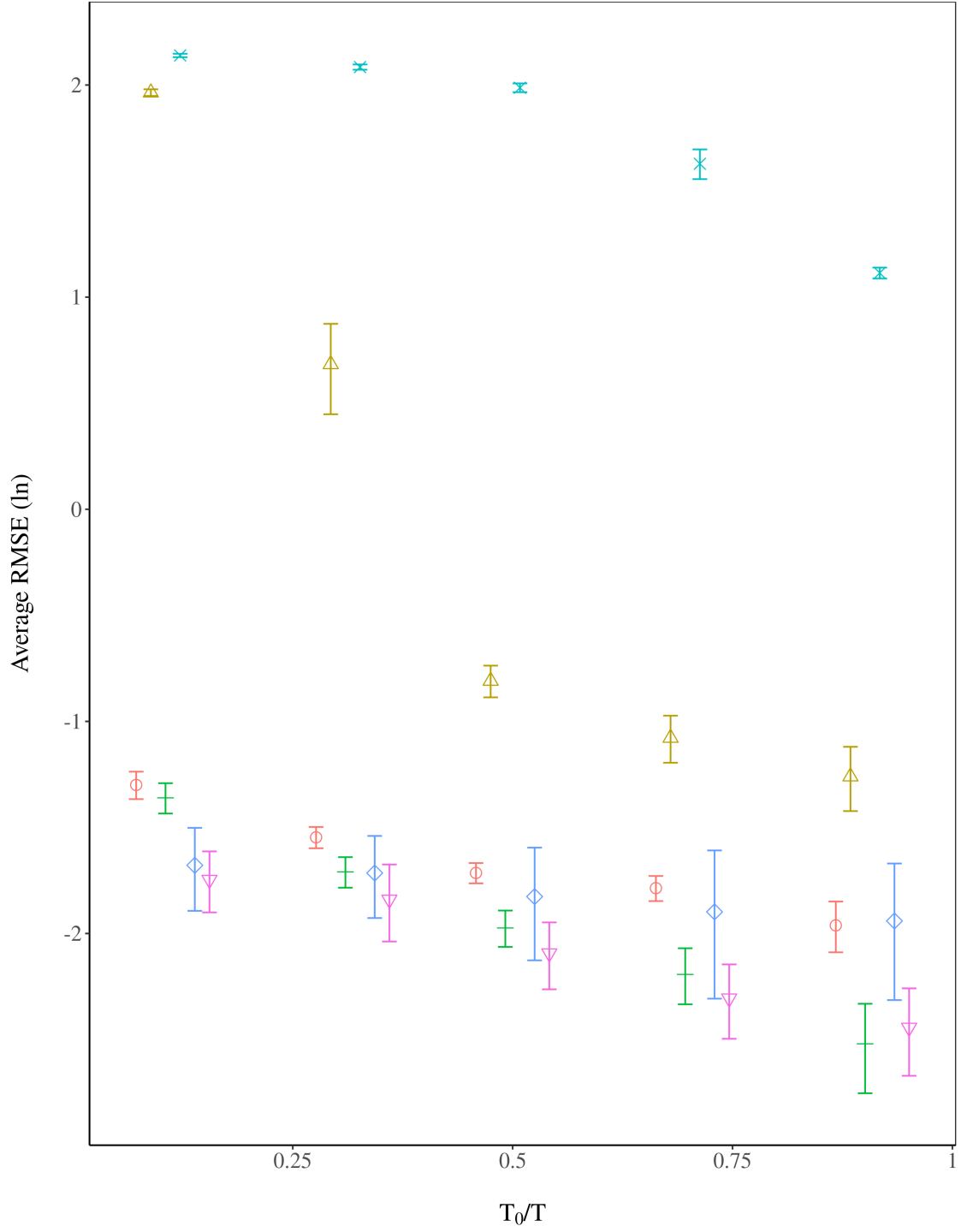


Figure 2: Placebo tests on West German reunification data: \ominus , DID; \triangle , ED; $+$, MC-NNM; \times , RVAE; \diamond , SCM; ∇ , VT-EN.

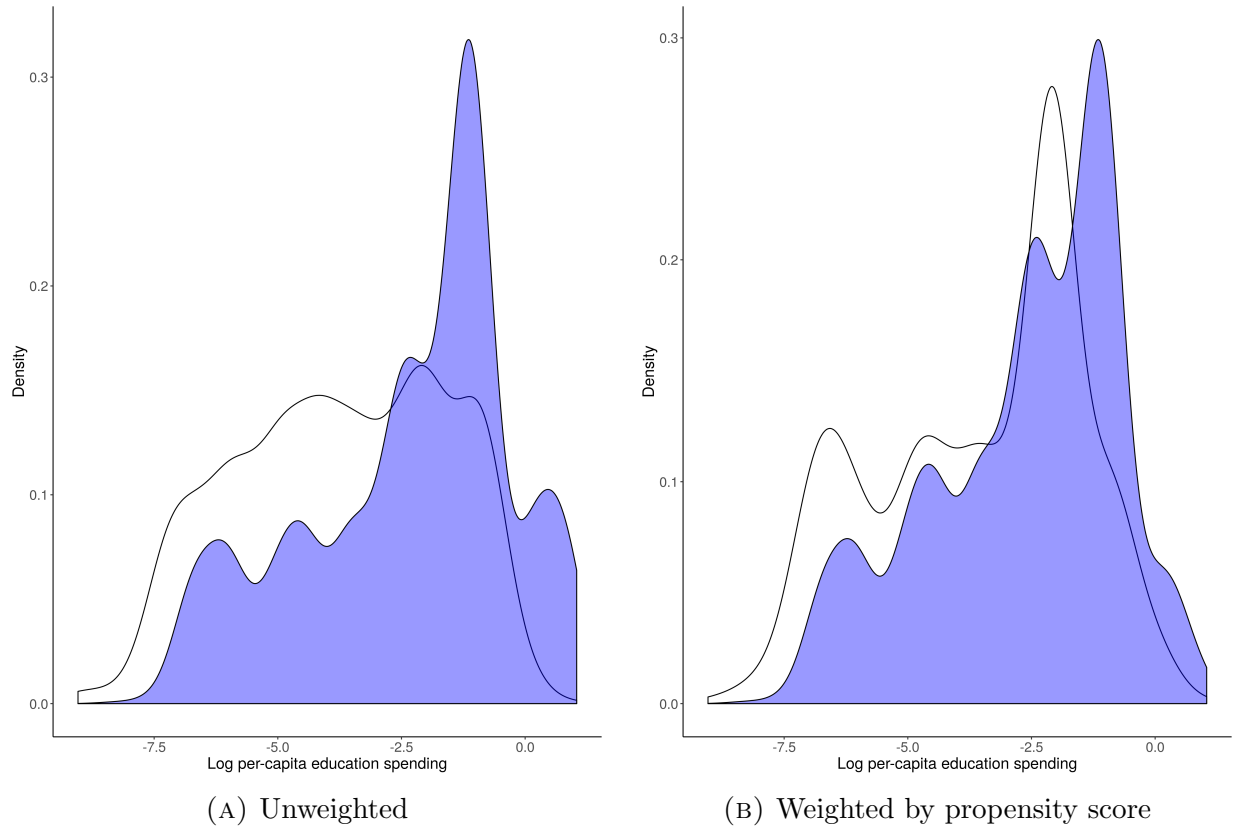


Figure 3: Pre-period densities of log per-capita state government education spending by treatment status: \square , Control; \blacksquare , Treated

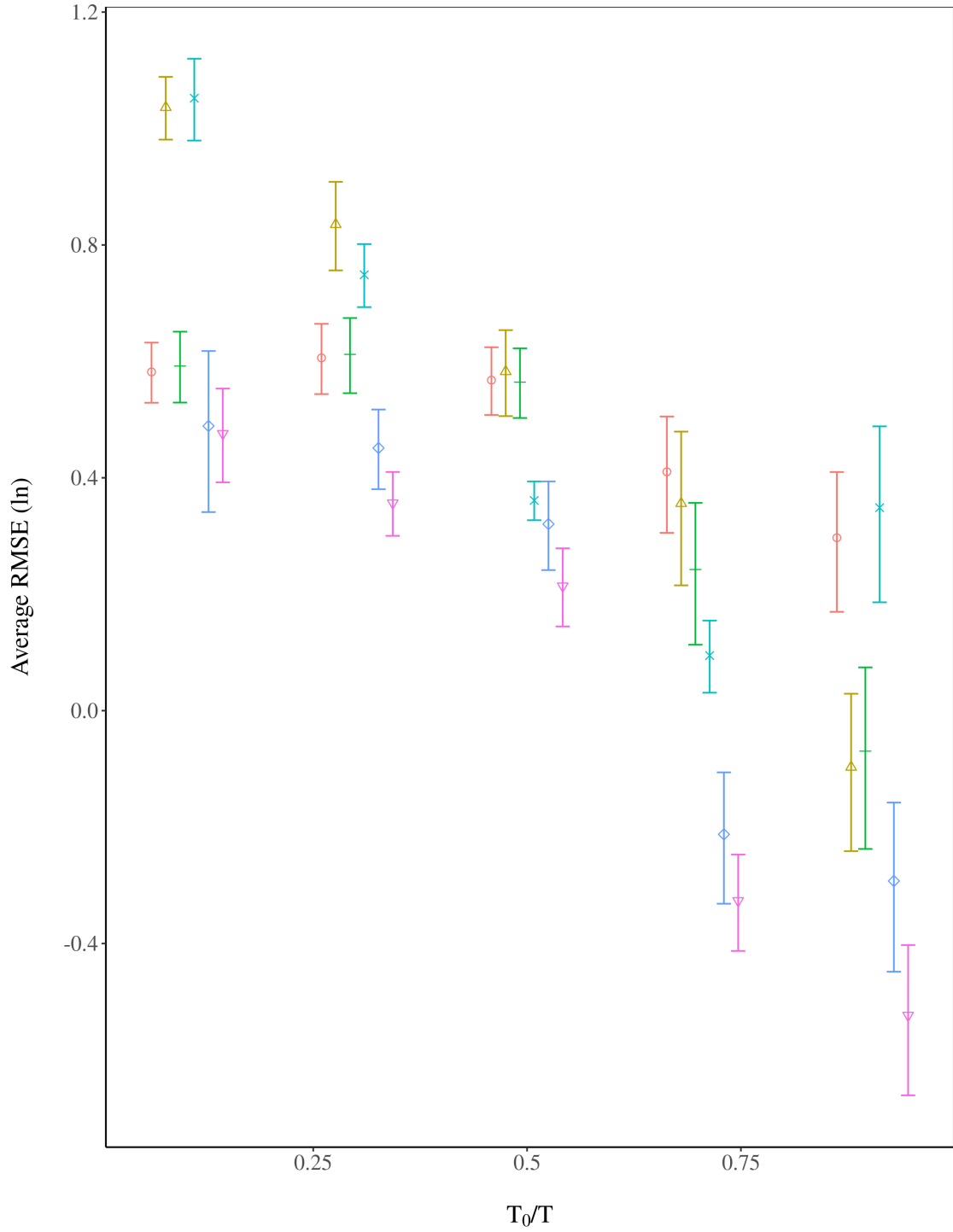
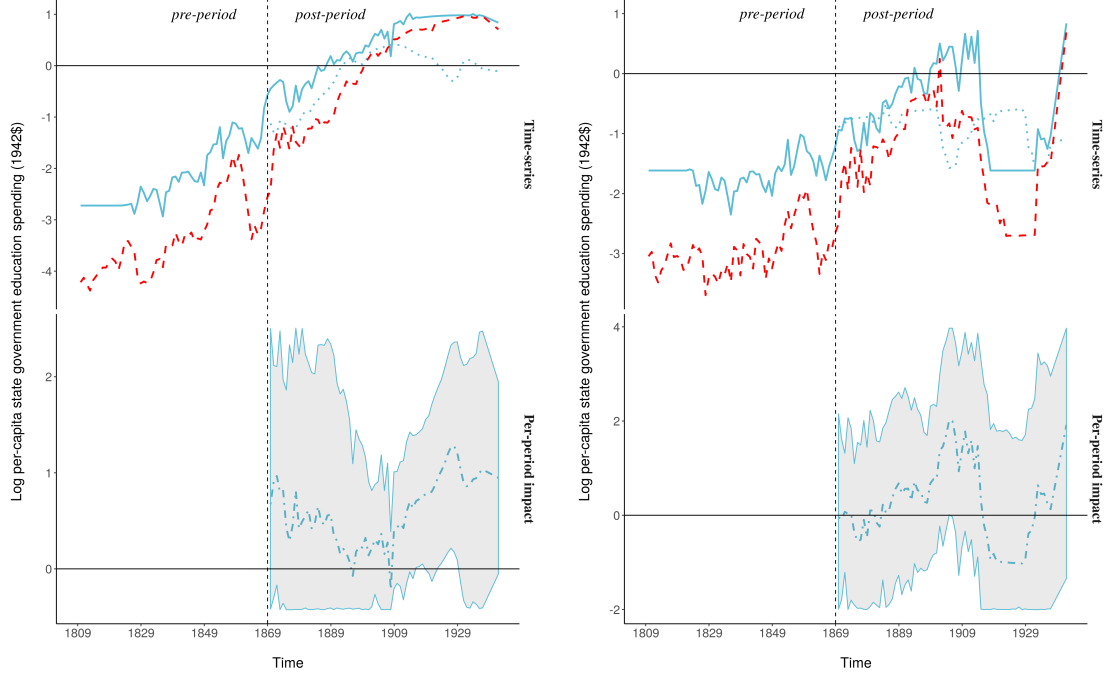
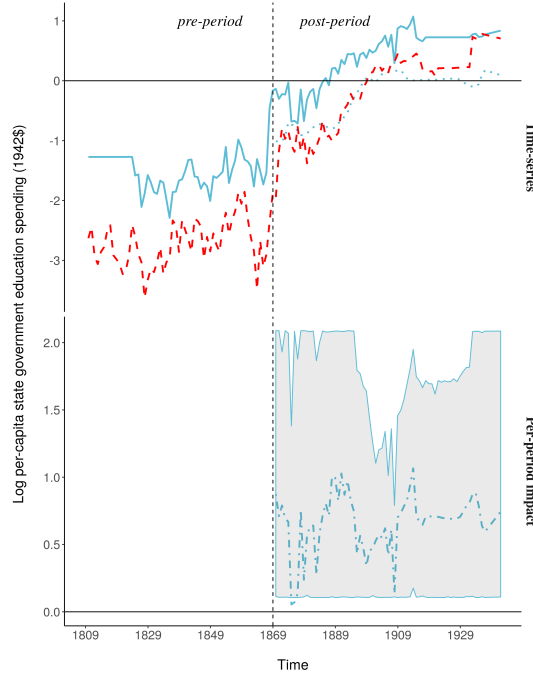


Figure 4: Placebo tests on education spending data: \ominus , DID; \triangle , ED; $+$, MC-NNM; \times , RVAE; \diamond , SCM; ∇ , VT-EN.



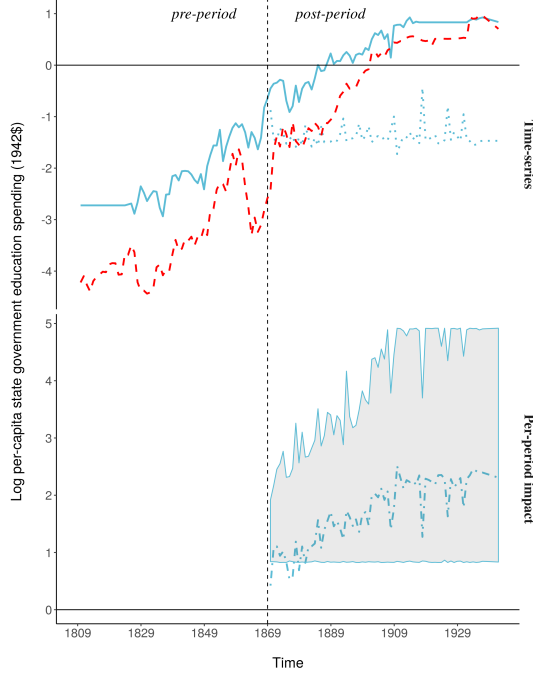
(A) Linear interpolation

(B) Median replacement

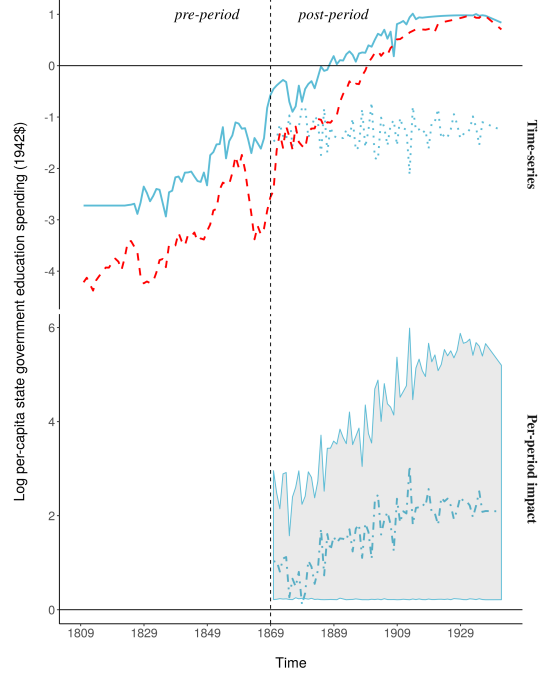


(C) Random replacement

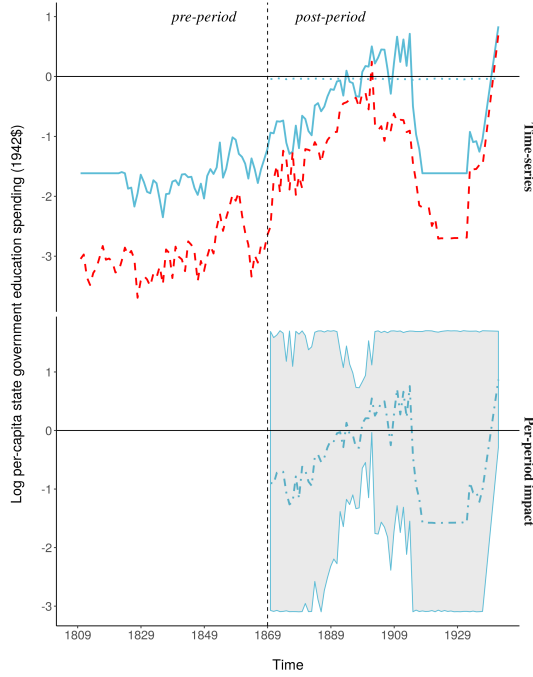
Figure 5: Encoder-decoder estimates of the impact of the HSA on state government education spending, using differently imputed data: —, observed treated; ---, observed control; ·····, counterfactual treated; —, $\bar{\Phi}^{(t)}$.



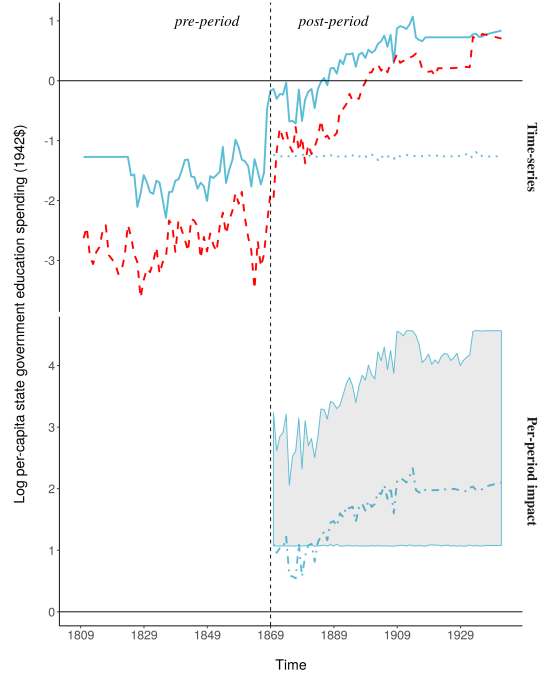
(A) LOCF interpolation



(B) Linear interpolation



(C) Median replacement



(D) Random replacement

Figure 6: RVAE estimates of the impact of the HSA on state government education spending, using differently imputed data: —, observed treated; ---, observed control; ·····, counterfactual treated; —·—, $\bar{\Phi}(t)$.

References

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