Lecture 19: Multiple Endpoints

POL-GA 1251 Quantitative Political Analysis II Prof. Cyrus Samii NYU Politics

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Motivating Example

ESTIMATING THE IMPACT OF THE HAJJ: RELIGION AND TOLERANCE IN ISLAM'S GLOBAL GATHERING*

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(Clingingsmith et al. 2009)

Motivating Example

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TABLE IX SELECTED SURVEY QUESTIONS										
	Question		Coding	Coef.	p-value	Comp. mean	Obs.	R		
1)	Do you believe others regard you as religious?		1 - Religious, 0 - Not religious	0.100	.000	0.772	1,541	.03		
2)	Do you pray "Tahajjud Namax"?		1 = Yes (regularly, occasionally),	0.184	.000	0.281	1,606	.04		
			0 = No (rarely, never)							
	How often did you fast outside of Ramadan during the past year?		1 = Several times per month or more, 0 = Once per month or less	0.041	.006	0.049	1,605	.00		
	Is your general view of Indonesian people:		2 = Very positive, -2 = Very	0.217	.000	0.362	1,583	.08		
	to your general view or muonestan people.		negative	0.611	3000	0.302	1,000	.01		
5)	Is your general view of Saudi people:		2 = Very positive, -2 = Very negative	0.110	.026	1.034	1,593	.03		
6)	In your opinion, overall how are people of a differ-	ent		0.084	.004	0.389	1,604	.0:		
	religion compared to your people?									
	Do you believe that people of different religions can l in unity & agreement (harmony) in a given society making agreements over their differences?	1 = Yes, 0 = No	0.063	.074	0.589	1,270	.03			
8)	Do you ever pray in the mosque of a different mas	lak		0.034	.021	0.049	1,463	.03		
	than your own? Do you believe the goals for which Osama is fight	ina	often/never 1 = Not correct at all/alightly	0.063	014	0.068	761	01		
	ne correct?	ig	incorrect, 0 = Correct/absolutely	0.000		4.005	101	.0		
			correct							
10) Do you believe the methods Osama uses in fighting are correct?		1 = Absolutely never/almost never correct, 0 = To small extent/some extent/strongly correct	0.051	.112	0.159	761	.0			
ar) How important do you believe peace with India	,	= Important, 0 = Not important	0.044	.016	0.913	1.155	.00		
	is for Pakistan's future?									
(12) Please tell me what you think about the correctness of the following: family members physically punishing someone who has dishonored the family	0	= Carrect, 1 = Never correct	0.044	.112	0.261	1,459	.00		
(13) In your opinion, how do men and women compare to each other with respect to the following traits:		= Men are better/equal, = Women are better	0.057	.006	0.111	1,497	.03		
	spiritually) What is your opinion about the quality of women's		= Greater than in Pakistan,	0.094	.088	0.262	551	.03		
	lives in each of the following countries/regions?		- Lower than or equal that in	0,000	100	01000	001	100		
	Indonesia/ Malaysia	P	skistan; Base variables 5 = Very							
		h	igh, 1 = Very low							
(15)			= Greater than in Pakistan,	0.051	.145	0.322	1,180	.04		
	lives in each of the following countries/regions? Saudi Arabia		= Lower than or equal that in akistan: Base variables 5 = Very							
	CARAMI PERMINE		igh, 1 = Very low							
(16)) What is your opinion about the quality of women's		= Greater than in Pakistan.	0.087	.051	0.186	646	.00		
	lives in each of the following countries/regions?	0	= Lower than or equal that in							
	West		akistan; Base variables 5 = Very							
(17) Do you think there are too many crimes against		igh, 1 = Very low inary: 0 = No. 1 = Yes	0.052	.075	0.597	1.606	.04		
	women in Pakistan? Overall	В	mary. 0 = 100, 1 = 168	0.002	~10	0.007	*,000	.04		
(18) Do you think there are too many crimes again	st	1 = Against women score < against	0.053	.052	0.171	1,135	.02		
	women in Pakistan? Relative to men		men score, 0 = Against women scor ≥ against men score; Base scores	e						
			1 = Yes, a lot; $4 = No$, not at all							
) In your opinion, girls should attend school		Binary: 0 = Disagree, 1 = Agree	0.028		0.933	1,604			
20	 Until what level would you prefer allow/permit gir in your family to attend coeducational schools (bo) 		0 = Never, 1 = Primary, secondary, all levels	or 0.058	.036	0.722	1,550	.08		
21	and girls in the same school? Until what level would you prefer allow/permit boy			or 0.055	.024	0.729	1,550	.03		
	in your family to attend coeducational schools (boys and girls in the same school)?		all levels							
(22) Would you like for your daughters or female gran- children to have a career other than caring for th		0 = No, 1 = Yes	0.048	.156	0.540	1,605	.02		
199	household?) How important are the following characteristics:		0 - Not important 1 - Important	0.054	.073	0.457	1,562	05		
	your son's, grandson's wife?: Good employment		o - 1100 mapor mant, I = impercent	3,004	010	0.907	1,7796	.02		

How to interpret without being statistically reckless?

Motivating Example

TABLE V TOLERANCE

	A		
	Base	Controls	Restricted subsample
(1) Views of other countries	0.150***	0.147***	0.151***
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)
(2) Views of other groups	0.131***	0.108**	0.122**
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)
(3) Harmony	0.128***	0.117***	0.126***
The second second	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)
(4) Peaceful inclination	0.111***	0.121***	0.128***
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)
(5) Political Islam index	-0.050	-0.044	-0.043
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)
(6) Views of West	0.029	0.039	0.011
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)

Notes, See notes to Table IV. Index component questions with number of components indicated in parenteess: Index 1 (6) Centeral view of people from other countries, positive to negative. Suadia, Indonesians, Turka, African, Europeans, Chinese. Index 2 (5). How do member of the following groups compared by the composition of the following interest control of the countries of the following groups of the countries of different relative information of the countries of the following relative groups of the countries of the particular of the countries of the countries of the countries of the particular of the countries of the countrie

- ▶ We've focused on *estimation* of coefficients and standard errors.
- Methods we have learned are valid no matter how many outcomes you have, even when you have a lot of related outcomes:
 - A consistent estimate remains consistent even when you add other outcomes to the analysis.
 - A consistent standard error estimate remains consistent even when you add other outcomes to the analysis.
 - ▶ Possible to "borrow strength" across outcomes although put that aside for the moment (we will get back to this later today).
- ▶ New issues arise when it comes to testing statistical significance.

- ▶ In testing, we fix a hypothesis and alternative.
- ▶ We determine what is the probability of obtaining our estimate under the null, given the alternative. This is the *p*-value.
- Typically, we then establish a rejection criterion based on a confidence level (1α) : if $p < \alpha$, we reject the null.

- Suppose $D_i = 0, 1$ and potential outcomes Y_{1i} and Y_{0i} , we have random assignment, and we wish to estimate $\rho = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} Y_{0i}]$.
- There are two types of null hypotheses and (two-sided) alternatives about the causal effect of D_i :
- ► Sharp null:

$$H_{SN}: Y_{1i} = Y_{0i}$$
 for all i vs. $H_{SN}^A: Y_{1i} \neq Y_{0i}$ for some i .

► Average null:

$$H_{AN}: \rho = 0 \text{ vs. } H_{AN}^A: \rho \neq 0.$$

- $ightharpoonup H_S \Rightarrow H_A \text{ but } H_A \Rightarrow H_S.$
- \triangleright Standard regression *t*-test output provides *p*-value for H_{AN} .

- \triangleright Consider two-sided *t*-test for H_{AN} .
- ▶ Suppose simple random sampling of N units from large population, OLS with K regressors (including constant), and normal population residuals. Under H_{AN} ,

$$\frac{\hat{eta}}{s.e.(\hat{eta})} \stackrel{H_{AN}}{\sim} t_{N-K}.$$

(For non-normal residuals, this is a finite-sample-adjusted approx. based on asymp. normal distribution of $\hat{\beta}$.)

b By this fact, it is apparent that for any α

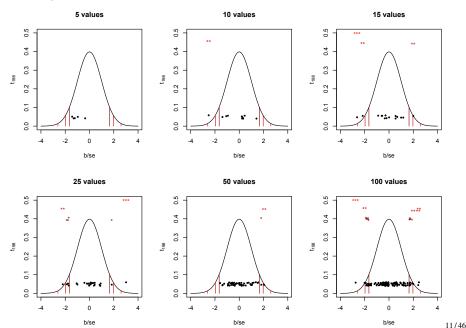
$$\Pr\left[\left|\frac{\hat{\beta}}{s.e.(\hat{\beta})}\right| > t_{\alpha/2}\right| H_{AN}\right] = \alpha > 0.$$

- ▶ There is always *some* chance of rejecting *even if null is true*.
- ► More tests means higher chance this occurs at least once.

► A simulation demonstrates:

```
N < -200
i < -1:N
draw.vec <-c(5,10,15,25,50,100)
for(j in 1:length(draw.vec)){
  b.se <- rep(NA, draw.vec[j])</pre>
  for(s in 1:draw.vec[j]){
    YO <- rnorm(N)
    Y1 <- rnorm(N)
    D \leftarrow rep(0,N)
    D[sample(i, floor(N/2))] <- 1
    Y \leftarrow D*Y1 + (1-D)*Y0
    fit \leftarrow lm(Y^D)
    b.se[s] <- summary(fit)[[4]][2,3]
```

draw.vec is number of outcomes analyzed.



- ► The "stars" are all false positives.
- ▶ We rejected the null when we should not have.
- ► These are "type I" errors.
- ► This is an instance of the "multiple comparisons" problem.
- ▶ When we look at lots of outcomes, the concern is that what we take be a "significant" effect is really just noise.

► Think about what this means for studies that look at lots of outcomes. How do you know what you've found is "real"?

- We could just as well have set up a simulation where H_{AN}^A was true in all cases and we still sought to test H_{AN} .
- Then, there is positive probability that we would *fail to reject the null* in some tests.
- ► These would be false negatives or "type II" errors.

- ► If we test *M* hypotheses in one analysis, the *M* hypotheses are called a family.
- Suppose that for $J \leq M$ of tests the null hypothesis is true.
- ► The "familywise error rate" (FWER) is the probability that at least one of the *J* null hypotheses is rejected.
- ► The "false discovery rate" (FDR) is the expected proportion of rejections that will be false rejections.
- Adjusting the testing procedure to reduce either FWER or FDR will reduce the number of false rejections.
- ▶ Reducing FWER is more stringent than FDR.

Two ways to reduce testing error:

- 1. *Reduce the number of tests* applied to a family by aggregating information and then applying multivariate "omnibus" test.
- 2. Adjust p-values or critical values in individual tests.

There are goals other than reducing testing error when doing inference with multiple outcomes:

- Making summary statements about "overall effectiveness" of a treatment by incorporating information from many outcomes.
- Examining what are the "key drivers" of overall effectiveness.

- Classical method for multivariate "omnibus" testing is Hotelling's T^2 .
- ► It generalizes the *t*-test to multiple outcomes.
- It amounts to testing whether the mean values of the different outcomes are the same under treatment and control.
- ▶ Problems:
 - ▶ No distinction between positive and negative mean deviations.
 - ▶ Does not allow us to test for "overall efficacy" of a treatment.
 - ▶ Just tests whether patterns of outcome means are different. (O'Brien, 1984).
- ► These are problems with many multivariate tests.

- Classical *p*-value adjustment uses Bonferroni union bound.
- ▶ Suppose 2 tests of H_{01} and H_{02} with confidence α for each.
- ▶ If H_{0m} true, probability of rejection is α , non-rejection 1α .
- ▶ Define A_m as event that H_{0m} not rejected. If both nulls are true, probability of at least one rejection is,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FWER} &= 1 - \Pr[A_1 \cap A_2] = 1 - (\Pr[A_1] + \Pr[A_2] - \Pr[A_i \cup A_2]) \\ &= 1 - \Pr[A_1] - \Pr[A_2] + \underbrace{\Pr[A_i \cup A_2]}_{\leq 1} \\ &\leq 2 - \Pr[A_1] - \Pr[A_2] = 2 - 2(1 - \alpha) = 2\alpha. \end{aligned}$$

▶ So, adjusting confidence for each test to use $\alpha_B = \alpha/2$ means:

$$FWER \le 2\frac{\alpha_B}{2} = \alpha.$$

We are at least " $1 - \alpha$ confident there are no false discoveries among the rejected hypotheses" (Romano et al. nd.)

- ► Generally, for *M* tests, we use α/M to ensure FWER $\leq \alpha$.
- Equivalently, you can multiply p-values by M and test against α .
- ▶ Problem: Bonferroni correction can be way over-conservative:
 - Does not account for outcome correlations and thus dependence between p values.
 - Consider the case were all M outcomes are perfectly correlated. Then, FWER equals α and no need for adjustment. Bonferroni ignores that.
 - ▶ This makes Bonferroni and other tests assuming independent *p* values "suboptimal in terms of power" (Romano et al.)
 - Mechanically rises in M, possibly yielding adjusted p > 1.

Multiple Inference and Gender Differences in the Effects of Early Intervention: A Reevaluation of the Abecedarian, Perry Preschool, and Early Training Projects

Michael L. ANDERSON

The view that the returns to educational investments are highest for early childhood interventions is widely held and stems primary from several influential randomized trials—Abscedarian, Perry, and the Early Training Project—that point to super-normal returns to early interventions. This article presents a de novo analysis of these experiments, focusing on two core issues that have received limited attention in previous analyses: treatment effect heterogeneity by gender and overrejection of the null hypothesis due to multiple inferior. To address the latter issue, a statistical framework that combines summary index tests with familywise error rate and false discovery rate corrections is implemented. The first technique reduces the number of tests conducted, the latter two techniques adjust the p values for multiple testing interence. The primary finding of the reanalysis is that girls gamered substantial short—and long-term benefits from the interventions, but there were no significant long-term benefits for boys. These conclusions, which have appeared ambiguous when using "naive" estimators that fail to adjust for multiple testing, contribute to a growing literature on the emerging fermale—male academic achievement, Par. They also demonstrate that in complex studies where multiple questions are asked of the same data set, it can be important to declare the family of tests under consideration and to either consolidate measures or report adjusted of values.

KEY WORDS: False discovery rate; Familywise error rate; Multiple comparisons; Preschool; Program evaluation.

- ► Anderson (2008) presents a modern approach to handling multiple inference.
- ▶ His methods overcome problems of the classical approaches.

The substantive problem that he analyzes:

- ▶ Debate over early intervention (pre-school) programs on long-term developmental outcomes.
- ► Three major randomized field experiments: ABC, PPP, and ETP in North Carolina, Michigan, and Tennessee.
- ► These studies each assess short-, medium-, and long-term outcomes on a number of dimensions.
- ► Looking at outcomes one-by-one, you get a mixed bag of positive, negative, and null effects.
- ► This has led to conflicting interpretations.

Anderson proposes a unified analysis to make *summary judgments* about effectiveness while also *exploring drivers* of any positive effects:

- ▶ Define groups of outcomes that should be assessed jointly and perform inference with summary indices of these outcomes.
- ➤ To make summary judgments, correct FWER in testing a collection of indices, but in a manner that does not go overboard like Bonferroni.
- ► To explore drivers, use a more permissible *p*-value correction based on FDR minimization to explore effects on raw outcomes.
- Combination of confirmatory and exploratory analysis.

- ► Anderson examines 47 outcome variables ranging from IQ test scores at different ages, to grades at different ages, college attendance, employment, and criminal record.
- ► These are aggregated and analyzed in a set of thematic indices.
- ► The summary index method:
 - ► Automatically reduces error rate,
 - ▶ Provides measure of "overall effect" of program, and
 - Potentially increases power: marginally significant, noisy results have the potential to aggregate into a cleaner statement of actual significance.

- Summary index constructed using inverse covariance weighting (ICW).
- ► ICW provides optimal linear aggregation of information for a set of noisy measures of a common latent factor (O'Brien, 1984).
- Distinct from factor scoring via factor analysis or principal component analysis.
- ► Factor scoring methods hunt out different dimensions of variability. ICW optimally collapses into *one* dimension.
- ▶ ICW ensures "outcomes that are highly correlated with each other receive less weight when added into the index [given their redundancy], while outcomes that are uncorrelated and thus represent new information receive more weight" (Anderson 2008, 1485).

Inverse covariance weighting optimizes information content for index constructed from items determined to be related a priori. Equiv. to a single factor latent variable model:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} Y_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ Y_{Ki} \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} z_i + \varepsilon_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ z_i + \varepsilon_{Ki} \end{array}\right)$$

► ICW is then equivalent to fitting this as a varying intercept regression using FGLS.

➤ Contrast with factors scores or principal component scores isolate and extract shared variation in different latent dimensions. Equivalent to a multifactor linear latent variable model with orthogonal factors:

$$\begin{pmatrix} Y_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ Y_{Ki} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 z_{1i} + \ldots + \beta_K z_{Ki} + v_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ \beta_1 z_{1i} + \ldots + \beta_K z_{Ki} + v_{Ki} \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\mathbf{z}_{k}'\mathbf{z}_{l} = 0$ for all $k \neq l$.

► (IRT models are analogous approaches that use GLMs for binary, categorical, etc. variables.)

- Choice of ICW vs factor scores/principal component scores depends on the ways that the indicators correlate with each other.
- Anderson uses ICW but this may not always be the best choice...

ICW summary index method steps:

- ► Scale all outcomes so that larger values always mean "better."
- Standardize outcomes (e.g., subtract pooled mean and divide by control group standard deviation). Label the standardized outcome vector ỹ.
- Assign each outcome to one of J thematic groupings. Label outcome vectors as \tilde{y}_{jk} , giving K_j outcome vectors in grouping j indexed by k.

Outcome data are thus,

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \cdots & \tilde{y}_{ijk} & \tilde{y}_{ij,k+1} & \tilde{y}_{ij,k+2} & \cdots & \tilde{y}_{ij,K_j} & \tilde{y}_{i,j+1,1} & \cdots \\ \cdots & \tilde{y}_{i+1,jk} & \tilde{y}_{i+1,j,k+1} & \tilde{y}_{i+1,j,k+2} & \cdots & \tilde{y}_{i+1,j,K_j} & \tilde{y}_{i+1,j+1,1} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

► Create the index, \bar{s}_{ij} , by taking ICW weighted average of the K_j standardized outcomes for individual i in grouping j:

$$\bar{s}_{ij} = (\iota'_{K_j} \hat{\Sigma}_j^{-1} \iota_{K_j})^{-1} (\iota'_{K_j} \hat{\Sigma}_j^{-1} \tilde{y}_{ij}),$$

where $\hat{\Sigma}_j$ for the K_j outcomes in grouping j.

► Matrix implementation to create vector of indices for all *N* units:

$$\bar{s}'_j = (\iota'_{K_j} \hat{\Sigma}_j^{-1} \iota_{K_j})^{-1} (\iota'_{K_j} \hat{\Sigma}_j^{-1} \tilde{Y}'_j),$$

- ▶ NB: cannot have any missing data.
- For interpretability, scale \bar{s}_{ij} again, centering on the control group mean and standard deviation of the new index.
- Yields a standardized index on the scale of control group standard deviations.

Approaches to analysis:

- Anderson uses \bar{s}_{ij} as the outcome in regressions to estimate an "overall effect" for grouping j, measured in terms of control group standard deviations.
 - For inference, just treats the index as a regular outcome to obtain a *p*-value, although this may overstate precision since it does not account for estimating $\hat{\Sigma}_{j}$.
 - ► Improvement might come from bootstrapping the whole process.

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 - ► Improvement might come from bootstrapping the whole process.
- ► Clingingsmith et al. (2009) do this slightly differently:
 - ► Index is a simple average of standardized effects.
 - ➤ Standard error estimate and associated *p*-value account for correlation between effect estimates by using the covariance matrix from a "seemingly unrelated regression" model (cf. Davidson and MacKinnon, 2004, Ch. 12).
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 - Could also use bootstrap.
- ▶ If you use a PCA factor score, also just estimate effects on the score, but again would want to account for estimation of factor loadings (e.g., with bootstrap).

Table 2. Summary index components

Project	Stage	Summary index components
ABC	Preteen	IQ (5, 6.5, 12), Retained in Grade (12), Special Education (12)
Perry	Preteen	IQ (5, 6, 10), Repeat Grade (17), Special Education (17)
ETP	Preteen	IQ (5, 7, 10), Retained in Grade (17), Special Help (17)
ABC	Teen	IQ (15), HS Grad (18), Teen Parent (19)
Perry	Teen	IQ (14), HS Grad (18), Unemployed (19), Transfers (19), Teen Parent (19), Arrested (19)
ETP	Teen	IQ (17), HS Dropout (18), Worked (18)
ABC	Adult	College (21), Employed (21), Convicted (21), Felon (21), Jailed (21), Marijuana (21)
Perry	Adult	College (27), Employed (27, 40), Income (27, 40), Criminal Record (27), Arrests (27), Drugs (27), Married (27)
ETP	Adult	(27), Married (27) College (21), Receive Income (21), On Welfare (21)

NOTE: Age of measurement in parentheses. For Perry and Early Training grade repetition and special education variables, it was not possible to isolate pre-9th grade outcomes in the data

18 groupings defined by program location, timing, and gender.

Table 3. Summary index effects

		Female					Male			
Project	Age	Effect	Naive p value	FWER p value	n	Effect	Naive p value	FWER p value	n	Gender difference t statistic
ABC	Preteen	.445 (.194)	.026	.125	54	.417 (.181)	.026	.184	51	.11
Perry	Preteen	.537	.004	.028	51	.150 (.172)	.387	.943	72	1.53
ETP	Preteen	.362 (.251)	.160	.349	30	.148 (.245)	.552	.958	34	.61
ABC	Teen	.422 (.202)	.042	.156	53	.162 (.194)	.407	.943	51	.93
Perry	Teen	.613 (.156)	0	.003	51	.035 (.096)	.716	.977	72	3.32
ETP	Teen	.456 (.299)	.138	.349	29	.123 (.377)	.747	.977	32	.68
ABC	Adult	.452 (.144)	.003	.024	53	.312 (.166)	.066	.372	51	.64
Perry	Adult	.353	.022	.125	51	012 (.130)	.927	.977	72	1.83
ETP	Adult	069 (.186)	.714	.701	29	710 (.260)	.011	.090	31	1.98

NOTE: Parentheses contain OLS standard errors. Naive p values are unadjusted p values based on the t distribution. FWER p values adjust for multiple testing at the summary index level and are computed as described in Section 3.2.2. The t statistics test the difference between female and male treatment effects. See Table 2 for the components of each summary index.

- For Anderson, summary indices allowed for separate inference on 18 groupings.
- ► A general statement of effectiveness required aggregation over the indices.
- ▶ We could create a meta-summary index that combined all the groupings, but then the assumption of a common underlying latent factor becomes tenuous.
- So, Anderson turns to FWER control *p*-value adjustments to ascertain whether the program exhibited effects beyond what we would expect by pure chance.

- Anderson uses a *p*-value adjustment algorithm from the data-mining literature: "free step-down resampling method" (Westfall & Young, 1993) that controls FWER.
- ▶ Basic step-down (Holm):
 - ► Suppose our 2 tests example where 1 is a true null.
 - Rank the *p*-values from smaller to larger.
 - Apply sequential tests to these ranked *p*-values: reject $H_{(1)}$ if $p_{(1)} \le \alpha/2$ (Bonferroni); if rejected, go to next and reject if $p_{(2)} \le \alpha$.
 - ► The true null could rank either first or second.
 - So at worst, we would reject a true null at level α .
 - ▶ Thus, FWER $\leq \alpha$.

"Free step-down resampling" accounts for dependence, boosting power:

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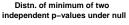
- ► Rank *M* outcomes wrt *p*-values (*M* is largest): $y_{p(1)},...,y_{p(M)}$.
- Permute treatment under sharp null and compute " p_m^* " values for each outcome: $p_{p(1)}^*, ..., p_{p(M)}^*$.
- Enforce monotonicity by constructing $p_{p(1)}^{**},...,p_{p(M)}^{**}$ such that $p_r^{**} = \min\{p_r^*,p_{r+1}^*,...,p_M^*\}.$
- ▶ Repeat 100,000 times, generating vectors of p_r^{**} values.
- Calculate $p_r^{fwer*} = |\{p_r^{**} : p_r^{**} < p_r\}|/100,000.$
- Enforce monotonicity: $p_r^{fwer**} = min\{p_r^{fwer*}, p_{r+1}^{fwer*}, ..., p_M^{fwer*}\}.$

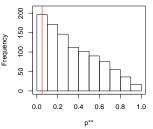
	p(1)		p(M)
Z	$\mathbf{Y}_{p(1)}$		$\mathbf{Y}_{p(M)}$
${\bf Z}^{*(1)}$	$p_{p(1)}^{*(1)}$		$p_{p(M)}^{*(1)}$
(=)	$p_{p(1)}^{**(1)}$		$p_{p(M)}^{**(1)}$
${f Z}^{*(2)}$	$p_{p(1)}^{*(2)} $ **(2)	• • •	$p_{p(M)}^{*(2)} {}_{**(2)}$
	$p_{p(1)}^{**(2)}$	• • •	$p_{p(M)}^{**(2)}$
÷	:	:	:
	$p_{p(1)}^{fwer*}$		$p_{p(M)}^{fwer*}$
	$p_{p(1)}^{fwer**}$		$p_{p(M)}^{fwer**}$

"Free step-down resampling" accounts for dependence, boosting power:

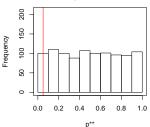
- ► Rank *M* outcomes wrt *p*-values (*M* is largest): $y_{p(1)},...,y_{p(M)}$.
- Permute treatment under sharp null and compute " p_m^* " values for each outcome: $p_{p(1)}^*, ..., p_{p(M)}^*$.
- Enforce monotonicity by constructing $p_{p(1)}^{**},...,p_{p(M)}^{**}$ such that $p_r^{**} = \min\{p_r^*,p_{r+1}^*,...,p_M^*\}.$
- Repeat 100,000 times, generating vectors of p_r^{**} values.
- Calculate $p_r^{\text{fwer*}} = |\{p_r^{**}: p_r^{**} < p_r\}|/100,000.$
- Enforce monotonicity: $p_r^{fwer**} = min\{p_r^{fwer*}, p_{r+1}^{fwer*}, ..., p_M^{fwer*}\}.$
 - ► Results are FWER adjusted *p*-values.
 - ▶ Stata .ado on Anderson's website; in R, the multtest and coin packages and p.adjust function have FWER methods.

	p(1)		p(M)
Z	$\mathbf{Y}_{p(1)}$		$\mathbf{Y}_{p(M)}$
${f Z}^{*(1)}$	$p_{p(1)}^{*(1)}$		$p_{p(M)}^{*(1)}$
	$p_{p(1)}^{**(1)}$	• • •	$p_{p(M)}^{**(1)}$
$\mathbf{Z}^{*(2)}$	$p_{p(1)}^{*(2)}$	• • •	$p_{p(M)}^{*(2)}$
	$p_{p(1)}^{**(2)}$		$p_{p(M)}^{**(2)}$
:	÷	÷	:
	$p_{p(1)}^{fwer*}$		$p_{p(M)}^{fwer*}$
	$p_{p(1)}^{fwer**}$		$p_{p(M)}^{fwer**}$

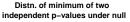


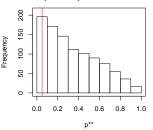


Distn. of minimum of two perfectly correlated p-values under null

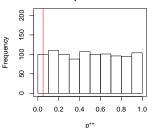


- Permutation preserves outcome dependence and thus p-value dependence.
- ▶ Distn of min. for independent p values is more skewed than distn for positively correlated p-values.

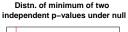


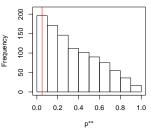


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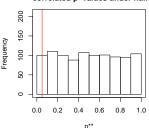


- Permutation preserves outcome dependence and thus p-value dependence.
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- ▶ Bonferroni assumes independent *p* values. Sets adjusted *p* as mass to left of cutpoint in top graph. "Over-corrects" if pos. correlation.





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- Bonferroni assumes independent p values. Sets adjusted p as mass to left of cutpoint in top graph.
 "Over-corrects" if pos. correlation.
- Permutation based methods find an adjusted p that has mass to the left of cutpoint on the distribution that accounts for correlation.
- ► This will be less stringent and thus yields more power.

Table 3. Summary index effects

			Fema	le			Gender			
Project	Age	Effect	Naive p value	FWER p value	n	Effect	Naive p value	FWER p value	n	difference t statistic
ABC	Preteen	.445 (.194)	.026	.125	54	.417 (.181)	.026	.184	51	.11
Perry	Preteen	.537	.004	.028	51	.150 (.172)	.387	.943	72	1.53
ETP	Preteen	.362 (.251)	.160	.349	30	.148 (.245)	.552	.958	34	.61
ABC	Teen	.422 (.202)	.042	.156	53	.162 (.194)	.407	.943	51	.93
Perry	Teen	.613 (.156)	0	.003	51	.035	.716	.977	72	3.32
ETP	Teen	.456 (.299)	.138	.349	29	.123 (.377)	.747	.977	32	.68
ABC	Adult	.452 (.144)	.003	.024	53	.312 (.166)	.066	.372	51	.64
Perry	Adult	.353	.022	.125	51	012 (.130)	.927	.977	72	1.83
ETP	Adult	069 (.186)	.714	.701	29	710 (.260)	.011	.090	31	1.98

NOTE: Parentheses contain OLS standard errors. Naive p values are unadjusted p values based on the t distribution. FWER p values adjust for multiple testing at the summary index level and are computed as described in Section 3.2.2. The t statistics test the difference between female and male treatment effects. See Table 2 for the components of each summary index.

- ▶ The summary index plus the FWER control *p*-value adjustment allows one to conclude that the programs tend to be effective in some domains for girls, though not for boys. What might be driving these results?
- ➤ To explore this question, Anderson proposes to allow some more leeway in testing, choosing to control FDR rather than FWER in order to "allow" possible effects to reveal themselves.
- ► This more exploratory analysis is done on the raw outcomes.

▶ Basic FDR control (Benjamini & Hochberg 1995):

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r	p_r	.05r/M	$p_r < .05r/M$?	$q^* = p_r M/r$
1	.01	.0125	yes	.04
2	.02	.025	yes	.04
3	.05	.0375	no	.07
4	.10	.05	no	.10

- Rank outcomes wrt *p*-values: $y_{p(1)},...,y_{p(M)}$.
- Choose a FDR level, q (analogous to α , e.g., .05).
- Reject null when $p_r < qr/M$.
- Ensures FDR is no greater than $q(m_0/M)$, where m_0 is number of true nulls. (Benjamini & Yekutieli, 2001, Thm. 1.2).

E.g., if
$$M = 2$$
, $m_0 = 1$, then
$$FDR = 1 \cdot \Pr[\text{all rejections false}] + \frac{1}{2} \Pr[\text{half rejections false}]$$

$$\leq 1 \cdot \frac{q}{2} \cdot \frac{2q}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{q}{2} \cdot \frac{2q}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{q}{2} \cdot \frac{2q}{2} \right] = q \cdot \frac{3q}{4}$$

- ▶ B & H 2001 Thm. 1.2 tightens this bound.
- ▶ Obtain "*q*-values": find min *q* resulting in rejection under above.

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- ▶ B & H 2001 Thm. 1.2 tightens this bound.
- ▶ Obtain "*q*-values": find min *q* resulting in rejection under above.
- ▶ Benjamini et al. (2006) brings FDR control closer to q.
- ► Anderson provides Stata .ado. In R, see p.adjust function.

Table 8. Effects on adult academic outcomes

Outcome			Female				Male					Gender	
	Age	Project	Effect	СМ	Naive p value	FDR q value	n	Effect	CM	Naive p value	FDR q value	difference n t statistic	
In college	21	ABC	.293	.107	.016	.077	53	.148	.174	.267	1.000	51	.87
Any college	27	Perry	.160 (.137)	.280	.260	.336	50	005 (.110)	.308	.971	1.000	72	.94
In post-high school education	21	ETP	.121 (.191)	.300	.524	.453	29	486 (.171)	.636	.004	.082	31	2.37

NOTE: Parentheses contain robust standard errors. CM refers to control mean. Sample size varies within experiments due to attrition for some variables. The p and q values are computed as described in Section 3; t statistics test the difference between female and male treatment effects.

Table 9. Effects on adult economic outcomes

				1	Female					Gender			
Outcome	Age	Project	Effect	CM	Naive p value	FDR q value	n	Effect	СМ	Naive p value	FDR q value	n	difference t statistics
Employed	21	ABC	.104 (.137)	.536	.427	.405	53	.188 (.142)	.455	.199	1.000	50	43
Employed	27	Perry	.255 (.136)	.545	.078	.216	47	.036 (.121)	.564	.773	1.000	69	1.20
Annual income	27	Perry	2,567 (2,686)	8,986	.347	.390	47	2,363 (2,708)	12,495	.391	1.000	66	.05
Monthly income	27	Perry	396 (236)	651	.101	.245	47	537 (247)	830	.026	.388	68	41
Employed	40	Perry	.015 (.115)	.818	.931	.574	46	.200 (.120)	.500	.112	.741	66	-1.12
Annual income	40	Perry	3,492 (5,491)	17,374	.538	.453	46	6,228 (5,958)	21,119	.299	1.000	66	34
Monthly income	40	Perry	162 (431)	1,615	.704	.505	46	436 (562)	1,839	.459	1.000	66	39
Receive income	21	ETP	074 (.200)	.600	.697	.505	29	159 (.134)	.909	.304	1.000	31	.36
Receive welfare	21	ETP	042 (.157)	.200	.826	.537	30	NA					

NOTE: Parentheses contain robust standard errors. CM refers to control mean. Sample size varies within experiments due to attrition for some variables. The p and q values are computed as described in Section 3; t statistics test the difference between female and male treatment effects. Males are ineligible for welfare.

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- Suppose N random draws of Y_1 and Y_2 , each with variance σ^2 and correlation between them ρ .
- ▶ Variance of the sample mean for either one would be σ^2/N .
- Now consider their average: $\tilde{Y}_i = (Y_{i1} + Y_{i2})/2$.

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$$\tilde{\tilde{Y}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \tilde{Y}_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{Y_{1i} + Y_{2i}}{2} = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (Y_{1i} + Y_{2i}).$$

Sampling variance is

$$\operatorname{Var}[\bar{\tilde{Y}}] = \frac{1}{4N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (2\sigma^2 + 2\sigma^2 \rho) = \frac{\sigma^2}{N} \frac{1+\rho}{2}$$

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- Note that $1/2 < \frac{1+\rho}{2} < 1$, meaning a reduction in variance.
- ► Implies composite measures can yield more power *if* one uses an aggregation procedure that doesn't introduce too much noise.

Composite measures allow one to test richer theoretical implications, often with more power:

- Caughy et al. (2015) consider theories that give rise to a set of hypotheses and associated statistical tests.
- ► Cf. "pattern matching."
- ▶ Intuition: refine one's inference to account for when results are "generally consistent" with a large number of predictions, even if some are not statistically significant.
- Method: combine the various tests to get a "global p-value" for the set of propositions.
- ➤ See also Young (2015a) "Channeling Fisher" paper for "global tests" of experimental effects.

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- ➤ Sometimes we want to study a long term outcome—e.g., outbreak of war—but our period of analysis is limited, and so we have few cases (wars) to learn from.
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- ▶ What would be nice would be to find a "surrogate"— that is, something that is highly predictive of war, but for which we get more variation in the short term.
- ► Athey et al. propose the following strategy:
 - Find an auxiliary dataset that covers a longer period and has lots of wars and then also has tons of variables that might be predictive of wars.
 - ▶ Find variables that are indeed predictive and that also vary in the short term. Use them to construct a "surrogate index"—that is, the expected value of the long term outcome conditional on the short term measures. Machine learning would be useful here.
 - Use these short term measures in your shorter term study, combining them into the surrogate index.
- Validity depends on criteria similar to Pearl's "front door."

Remarks

- Deep consideration of multiple endpoints is pretty new for social scientists.
- ► Multiple endpoints and multiple comparisons is especially important for political science research: we have to work with complex or vague concepts that require multiple measures.
- ► The methods described here show you how to *be careful* with multiple measures.
- ► They also suggest how to *make good use* of multiple measures.