Tests for Heterogeneous Treatment Effect

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Abstract

We develop two hypothesis tests of heterogeneous treatment effects. We focus on the null hypothesis that the conditional treatment effects are zero for all covariate values, and the null hypothesis that the conditional treatment effects are constant for all covariate values. These tests are based on the best linear projection of the treatment effects on the covariates and are applicable to effects identified under unconfoundedness or by a binary instrumental variable. We first derive parametric tests and then extend to semiparametric tests incorporating Double/Debiased Machine Learning. We illustrate the use of the tests in two applications.

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1 Introduction

In the literature of empirical treatment effect analysis, most of the papers focus on the estimation and inference of the average treatment effect (ATE) identified under the unconfoundnedness assumption or the local average treatment effect (LATE) identified by a binary instrumental variables (Angrist and Imbens 1995). These practices evaluate the treatment effect by its average over the population but overlook the heterogeneity in the treatment effect. The importance of understanding treatment effect heterogeneity has been recognized in various research topics. For example, personalized medicine provides tailored medical decisions to individual patients based on their heterogeneous responses. In the context of political economics, a policy assigned to the subpopulation with positive treatment effect could maximize total welfare improvement.

In this paper, we study the inference for the conditional average treatment effect (CATE) identified by the unconfoundedness assumption and the conditional local average treatment effect (CLATE) identified by a binary instrumental variable. We develop two hypothesis tests for the conditional treatment effects that are straightforward to implement. The null hypothesis for the first test is that the treatment effect is zero for all covariate values and the null hypothesis for the second test is that the treatment effect is constant for all covariate values.

The idea of our proposed hypothesis tests is to perform inference on the best linear projection (BLP) of the CATE/CLATE functions. For The CATE, nonparametric identification is achieved based on augmented inverse probability weighting (AIPW) method introduced by Robins, Rotnitzky, and Zhao (1994) and we propose a two-step semiparametric estimator of the BLP coefficients of the CATE on a set of covariates, where in the first we construct AIPW transformed outcome and estimate the BLP coefficients in the second step. We provide asymptotic variance-covariance matrices of the second step estimators of BLP coefficients, which are then used to construct Wald test statistic for the joint statistical significance of the

BLP coefficients. Rejection of the null hypothesis of zero treatment effect for all covariate values is implied by the joint statistical significance of the BLP coefficients, and similarly, rejection of the null hypothesis of constant treatment effect for all covariate values is implied by the joint statistical significance of the BLP coefficients except the intercept. CLATE is identified by a Wald ratio-type parameter where the numerator and denominator are the CATEs of the instrument on the outcome and the treatment respectively. We employ a stacking technique to estimate the BLP coefficients on the numerator and denominator in one regression and perform tests for the two null hypotheses by comparing the BLP coefficients on the numerator and denominator.

The two null hypotheses for the CATE we study were considered in the literature and various testing methods have been proposed. A classic approach is to iteratively divide the population by the covariates and then compare the ATEs within each strata. This method can be inefficient as the number of covariates increases and may report "overfitted" ATEs for strata when the effects are homogeneous. Recently, Dai, Shen, and Stern (2021) introduced nonparametric tests for across-strata comparison of ATEs based on multi-sample U-statistics. Another approach is to the compare how close are the regression functions of the outcome in the treated and control groups. Using a linear regression with a full set of interactions of treatment and covariates (Imbens and Wooldridge 2009, chap. 5.3), the two null hypotheses can be tested parametrically by the joint statistical significance of the interaction terms. By the same idea, Crump et al. (2008) developed nonparametric tests based on the difference between the series estimators of the regression functions in the treated and control groups. Both methods are related to the Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition as the coefficients of the interaction terms are equal to the difference between the regression coefficients in the treated and control groups under parametric setting. However, extending these approaches to CLATE with endogenous treatment remains a complex issue.

Our proposed tests build on the emerging literature on estimation and inference of the average or distributional treatment effects based on inverse propensity weighting (IPW), see e.g.

Abrevaya, Hsu, and Lieli ([2015](#)), Chang, Lee, and Whang ([2015](#)), Hsu ([2017](#)), Sant'Anna ([2021](#)). Under different assumptions and definitions of heterogeneity, nonparametric tests for heterogeneous treatment effect are developed. Instead of imposing assumptions on the regression functions of the outcome like the full interaction regression and Crump et al. ([2008](#)), this class of methods requires specification on the propensity score, and uses series logit estimator of the propensity score following Hirano, Imbens, and Ridder ([2003](#)) to construct test statistics. As shown in Hsu ([2017](#)) and Sant'Anna ([2021](#)), these IPW-based nonparametric tests are applicable to perform tests on the CLATE and assess (local) treatment effect heterogeneity with respect to a subset of the covariates required to ensure unconfoundedness of the treatment. In this paper, we unify the tests for CATE and CLATE in th same framework, and consider CATE/CLATE conditional on a subset of the covariates as a special case. Among this class of methods, the closest paper to ours is Sant'Anna ([2021](#)), who proposed a family of tests for heterogeneous average and distributional treatment effects based on Kaplan-Meier integrals in a context of duration outcome, which may be right censored. Sacrificing some generality by focusing on heterogeneous average effects, we largely reduce the complexity of the testing procedure in existing methods and propose tests that can be implemented using the standard regression outputs in statistical softwares. In addition, by employing the Double/Debiased Machine Learning (DML) framework (Chernozhukov et al. [2018](#)), we allow for unconfoundedness given high-dimensional covariates and flexible specifications of the propensity score and outcome regression.

In summary, there are two main differences between our method and these papers. First, we choose to use AIPW transformation instead of IPW, offering both theoretical and practical advantages. Theoretically, We show in Appendix [A](#) that the estimator of BLP coefficients with AIPW achieves semiparametric efficiency, which guarantees the statistical power of our proposed tests[1]. Practically, it simplifies the testing procedure by negating the need

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[1]The semiparametric efficiency of AIPW estimator of the BLP coefficients of CATE/CLATE we derive is an extension to the efficiency theory of AIPW estimator of the ATE in Qin, Zhang, and Leung ([2017](#)). We also note in Appendix [A](#) that AIPW estimators are semiparametrically efficient regardless whether the

to adjust for the first step estimators when calculating the second step estimators of BLP coefficients and their asymptotic variance. Moreover, BLP estimators of the CATE inherits the well-known double robustness property of AIPW estimator of the ATE (e.g. Robins, Rotnitzky, and Zhao 1994; Scharfstein, Rotnitzky, and Robins 1999; Lunceford and Davidian 2004; Kang and Schafer 2007), ensuring consistent estimation of BLP coefficients if either the propensity score or outcome regression on the covariates is correctly specified. Second, we construct the tests based on the BLP coefficients of the CATE instead of nonparametric regressions in the literature to avoid the "curse of dimensionality". Given that the goal of our paper is to develop hypothesis tests for heterogeneous treatment effect across all covariate values, we argue the BLP of the CATE/CLATE is sufficient for detecting the existence of the heterogeneity while retains the ability to handle a moderate number of covariates in empirical analysis. On top of the heterogeneity tests, BLP coefficients could also serve as a guidance for researchers to further investigate the structure of heterogeneity, or for policy makers to find the optimal target subpopulation for treatment assignment.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives the identification of CATE and CLATE. In Section 3, we develop parametric tests under the assumption that the conditional expectations of the potential outcomes and the treatment are parametric functions of the covariates. Then we relax this assumption by allowing for highly nonlinear functions for the conditional expectations or high-dimensional covariates in Section 4. Section 5 gives Monte Carlo simulation results of finite-sample performance of our tests. In Section 6, we apply our proposed tests to the survey data from the Chinese Family Panel Studies (CFPS) regarding the effect of being the only child on the mental health of the only children, and the survey data of the 401(k) plan regarding the effect of 401(k) participation on net financial assets of the participants. Some concluding remarks are given in Section 7. All proofs are collected in Appendix A.

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propensity score is known or not, while IPW estimators are efficient only when the propensity score is unknown. This is also an extension of the discussion in Hirano, Imbens, and Ridder (2003).

2 Identification and Hypotheses

2.1 Identification and Hypotheses for CATE

Let W_i be a dummy variable indicating the status of treatment in a population of interest with $W_i = 1$ if individual i receives treatment and $W_i = 0$ otherwise. Following the potential outcome framework or Rubin causal model by Rubin (1974), we define $Y_i(1)$ as the potential outcome of individual i with treatment and $Y_i(0)$ as the corresponding potential outcome without treatment. Let Y_i denote the observed outcome:

$$Y_i = W_i Y_i(1) + (1 - W_i) Y_i(0).$$

In addition, we observe a vector of covariates X_i that includes a constant 1. We further define the conditional expectations of the potential outcomes for the treated and control group by $\mu_0(w, x) = \mathbb{E}[Y_i(w)|X_i = x]$ with $w = 0, 1$. Define the CATE

$$CATE(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)|X_i = x].$$

To achieve identification of the CATE, we maintain the following two assumptions.

Assumption 1 (Unconfoundedness):

$$W_i \perp (Y_i(1), Y_i(0))| \ X_i.$$

Assumption 2 (Overlap):

$$\exists \ \xi > 0, \ \text{s.t.} \ \xi \leqslant e_0(x) \leqslant 1 - \xi.$$

where $e_0(x) = P(W_i = 1|X_i = x)$ is the propensity score.

Using the technique of AIPW, we construct a transformed outcome variable

$$Y_i^* = W_i \frac{Y_i - \mu_0(1, X_i)}{e_0(X_i)} - (1 - W_i) \frac{Y_i - \mu_0(0, X_i)}{1 - e_0(X_i)} + \mu_0(1, X_i) - \mu_0(0, X_i). \qquad (2.1)$$

Under the assumptions of unconfoundedness and overlap, the CATE is identified

$$CATE(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y_i^* | X_i = x]. \qquad (2.2)$$

In this paper, we focus on the question whether the CATE is identical for all subpopulations defined by the covariates. We study two pairs of hypotheses. The first pair of hypotheses is

$$H_0 : CATE(x) = 0 \text{ for all } x,$$
$$H_a : CATE(x) \neq 0 \text{ for some } x. \qquad (2.3)$$

Under the null hypothesis, the CATE is 0 for all subpopulations. Accepting the null hypothesis implies that the ATE is zero and that there is no heterogeneity in the treatment effect. This pair of hypotheses is particularly useful as a start of a treatment evaluation project, because if the test suggests that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, the treatment is unlikely to have an effect on the units. In another situation noted by Crump et al. (2008), researchers may directly estimate ATEs in multiple subpopulations. This test can serve as an alternative to testing zero ATEs in each subpopulation but without the problem of size control in multiple hypothesis tests.

The second pair of hypotheses is

$$H_0 : CATE(x) \text{ is constant for all } x,$$
$$H_a : CATE(x) \text{ is not constant for some } x. \qquad (2.4)$$

Under the null hypothesis, the average treatment effect is constant for all values of covariates. Hypotheses (2.4) is more general than (2.3) in the sense that it does not restrict the value

of ATE to be 0 under the null hypothesis. This test can be used to find statistical evidence against the null hypothesis of constant treatment effect whether or not the ATE is zero.

2.2 Identification and Hypotheses for CLATE

When the unconfoundedness assumption does not hold, an alternative identification strategy is to use a binary instrument Z_i for the treatment W_i. Let $Y_i(w, z)$ denote the potential outcome when $W_i = w$ and $Z_i = z$, $W_i(z)$ denote the potential treatment status when $Z_i = z$.

Assumption 3 (Binary IV): (i) (Conditional Independence)
$Z_i \perp (Y_i(0, 0), Y_i(1, 0), Y_i(0, 1), Y_i(1, 1), W_i(0), W_i(1)) | X_i$. (ii) (Exclusion Restriction) $Y_i(w, 1) = Y_i(w, 0)$ conditional on X_i. (iii) (Relevance) $0 < P(Z_i = 1 | X_i) < 1$ and $P(W_i(1) | X_i) \neq P(W_i(0) | X_i)$. (iv) (Monotonicity) $W_i(1) \geqslant W_i(0)$ conditional on X_i.

Let $q_0(x) = P(Z_i = 1 | X_i = x)$ denote the propensity score of Z_i. Y_i^* and W_i^* is obtained by the AIPW transformation similar to (2.1) with Z_i as the treatment variable, namely,

$$T_i^* = Z_i \frac{T_i - \mu_0(1, X_i)}{q_0(X_i)} - (1 - Z_i) \frac{T_i - \mu_0(0, X_i)}{1 - q_0(X_i)} + \mu_0(1, X_i) - \mu_0(0, X_i)$$

where $T_i = Y_i, W_i$ and $\mu_0(z, x) = \mathbb{E}[T_i(z) | X_i = x]$ with $z = 0, 1$.

Then the CLATE is identified

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\begin{aligned}
CLATE(x) &= \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[Z_i \frac{Y_i - \mu_0^y(1, X_i)}{q_0(X_i)} - (1 - Z_i) \frac{Y_i - \mu_0^y(0, X_i)}{1 - q_0(X_i)} + \mu_0^y(1, X_i) - \mu_0^y(0, X_i) \Big| X_i = x\right]}{\mathbb{E}\left[Z_i \frac{W_i - \mu_0^w(1, X_i)}{q_0(X_i)} - (1 - Z_i) \frac{W_i - \mu_0^w(0, X_i)}{1 - q_0(X_i)} + \mu_0^w(1, X_i) - \mu_0^w(0, X_i) \Big| X_i = x\right]} \\
&= \frac{\mathbb{E}[Y_i^* | X_i = x]}{\mathbb{E}[W_i^* | X_i = x]}
\end{aligned}
$$

(2.5)

where $\mu_0^y(z, x)$ and $\mu_0^w(z, x)$ are the conditional expectations of the potential outcomes of Y_i and W_i with $z = 0, 1$ respectively. We focus on testing the null hypotheses of zero and constant CLATE analogous to (2.3) and (2.4). These two hypothesis tests perform the same

role as discussed in 2.1 when the treatment effect is identified by a binary instrument.

Equation (2.2) and (2.5) show that the CATE is the conditional expectation of the transformed variable Y^* and the CLATE is the ratio of Y^* and W^*. Our idea of testing the heterogeneity in CATE and CLATE is to calculate the BLP of CATE/CLATE on the covariates by the BLP of AIPW transformed outcomes and translate the hypothesis tests to some tests of the projection coefficients. In the following section, we introduce the Least Squares estimator for the projection coefficients that incorporates with both CATE and CLATE, then show how to perform the hypothesis tests.

3 Hypothesis Testing

3.1 The Best Linear Projection of the Transformed Variables

Let β_0 denote the BLP coefficients of CATE/CLATE on some function $b(\cdot)$ of the covariates so that

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i^*(\gamma_0)|X_i] = b(X_i)\beta_0 + \epsilon_i$$

where ϵ_i is the linear projection error. Then β_0 is the solution to the population moment condition $\mathbb{E}[g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0)]$ with

$$g(D_i, \beta, \gamma) = b(X_i)'(Y_i^*(\gamma) - b(X_i)\beta) \tag{3.1}$$

where $D = (Y, W, X)$, β is the BLP coefficients[2]. To obtain the baseline result, we assume that $\gamma = (\gamma_e', \gamma_\mu')'$ is the nuisance parameter in parametric models $e(x)$ and $\mu(w, x)$ for CATE tests and $\gamma = (\gamma_q', \gamma_\mu^{y'}, \gamma_\mu^{w'})$ in parametric models $q(x)$, $\mu^y(z, x)$ and $\mu^w(z, x)$ for CLATE tests. We will relax this parametric assumption in Section 4. $b(x)$ is some function of x that

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[2]In this paper X represents a $n \times p$ matrix where n is the number of observations and p is the number of covariates, while X_i represents the i-th row of X which is a p-dimensional row vector. The same layout applies to D and D_i.

is potentially generating the heterogeneity of CATE. For example, $b(x)$ can be a subset of x which are the variables of interest; $b(x)$ can be a finite-dimensional power series of x to capture nonlinear relationship between the CATE and the covariates. More importantly, the hypothesis tests for CLATE requires certain transformation of x and will be explained later.

If the true value of the nuisance parameters γ_0 were observed, $\hat{\beta}$ by solving $1/n \sum_i g(D_i, \beta, \gamma_0) = 0$ is the OLS estimator of $\beta_0 = \mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'b(X_i)]^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)Y_i^*(\gamma_0)]$. However, in empirical problems, γ_0 is usually not observed and needs to be estimated beforehand. Thus, the estimation of β_0 depends on the nuisance estimators $\hat{\gamma}$ by solving the sample mean of the moment function

$$g(d, \beta, \hat{\gamma}) = b(x)'(y^*(\hat{\gamma}) - b(x)\beta). \tag{3.2}$$

The moment function in (3.2) might be of interest to researchers who are estimating the ATE as well. If we demean $b(X_i)$ except for the constant column, then the intercept estimated by solving the sample mean of (3.2) is an estimator for the ATE allowing for heterogeneous treatment effect and is numerically equivalent to the AIPW estimator of the ATE. In the following, we investigate the asymptotic properties of $\hat{\beta}$ which solves

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(D_i, \beta, \hat{\gamma}) = 0$$

with plugged in $\hat{\gamma}$ which is assumed to be an asymptotically linear estimator that satisfy

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\gamma} - \gamma_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi(D_i) + o_{\mathrm{p}}(1) \tag{3.3}$$

where $\mathbb{E}[\psi(D_i)] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[\psi(D_i)'\psi(D_i)] < \infty$. Asymptotically linear estimator covers a large class estimators including M-estimators and Z-estimators (see, e.g. Ichimura and Newey (2022)). For example, if $\hat{\gamma}$ is obtained by solving equations

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m(D_i, \gamma) = 0$$

where $\mathbb{E}[m(D_i, \gamma_0)] = 0$, then $\widehat{\gamma}$ is asymptotically linear with $\psi(d) = -\mathbb{E}[\partial_\gamma m(D_i, \gamma_0)]^{-1} m(d, \gamma_0)$ and $\partial_\gamma m(d, \gamma_0)$ represents the partial derivative of $m(d, \gamma)$ with respect to γ evaluated at $\gamma = \gamma_0$. Let

$$\epsilon_i = Y_i^*(\gamma_0) - b(X_i)\beta_0,$$

$$G_\beta = -\mathbb{E}[\partial_\beta g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0)] = \mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'b(X_i)],$$

$$G_\gamma = \mathbb{E}[\partial_\gamma g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0)] = \mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'\partial_\gamma Y_i^*(\gamma_0)].$$

Proposition 3.1 (Consistency). *Assume (i) the variables $D_i = (Y_i, W_i, X_i)$, $i = 1, ..., n$ are i.i.d. (ii) G_β is positive definite. (iii) $\mathbb{E}[g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0)] = 0$. (iv) $\widehat{\gamma}$ is an asymptotically linear estimator of the form in* (3.3). *(v) $\mathbb{E}[Y^2] < \infty$ and $\mathbb{E}\|b(X)\|^2 < \infty$. Then $\widehat{\beta} \xrightarrow{p} \beta_0$.*

Proposition 3.2 (Asymptotic Normality). *Assume that assumptions (i)-(iv) are satisfied and $\mathbb{E}[Y^4] < \infty$, $\mathbb{E}\|b(X)\|^4 < \infty$. Then $\sqrt{n}(\widehat{\beta} - \beta_0) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, V)$ with*

$$V = G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[g(D_i)g(D_i)']G_\beta^{-1\prime} = G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'b(X_i)\epsilon_i^2]G_\beta^{-1\prime}. \tag{3.4}$$

Proposition 3.1 and 3.2 show that, if $\widehat{\gamma}$ is a root-n consistent estimator of the parameters γ_0 in the propensity score $e_0(x)$ and the conditional mean $\mu_0(w, x)$, then $\widehat{\gamma}$ has no effect on the consistency or the asymptotic variance of $\widehat{\beta}$. This result provides researchers with convenience when estimating β_0. Because $Y_i^*(\widehat{\gamma})$ can be treated as observed and the asymptotic variance of $\widehat{\beta}$ can be obtained by the standard output of regressing $Y_i^*(\widehat{\gamma})$ on $b(X_i)$ in statistical softwares. As an intermediate result in the proof of Proposition 3.2, formula (A.1) can be used to derive the asymptotic variance of $\widehat{\beta}$ when $Y_i^*(\gamma_e)$ is constructed using IPW transformation, by which the hypothesis tests discussed later can also be constructed. However, as mentioned previously, we choose AIPW over IPW to construct hypothesis tests due to its double robustness and semiparametric efficiency besides the convenience. Those properties are formally discussed and proved in Appendix A.

The asymptotic variance formula derived in Equation (3.4) assumes that both $e_0(x)$ and

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$\mu_0(w, x)$ are correctly specified. When either $e_0(x)$ or $\mu_0(w, x)$ is correctly specified, the point estimate of β_0 remains consistent due to double robustness but the asymptotic variance in Equation (3.4) is no longer valid. In this case, one can use bootstrap variance if either $e_0(x)$ or $\mu_0(w, x)$ is considered to be under the risk of misspecification. Another straightforward extension to Proposition 3.2 is that one can use robust standard errors to allow for heteroskedasticity.

3.2 Hypothesis Tests for CATE

To show the difference between the two pairs of hypotheses, we partition β_0 and V in (3.4) into

$$\beta_0 = (\beta_c, \beta_x')', \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} V_{cc} & V_{cx} \\ V_{xc} & V_{xx} \end{bmatrix}$$

where β_c is the intercept and β_x is the rest of projection coefficients, with covariance matrix V. The first pair of hypotheses for the CATE in (2.3) is translated to

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &: (\beta_c, \beta_x') = 0, \\ H_a &: (\beta_c, \beta_x') \neq 0 \end{aligned} \tag{3.5}$$

and the second pair of hypotheses for the CATE in (2.4) is translated to

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &: \beta_x = 0, \\ H_a &: \beta_x \neq 0. \end{aligned} \tag{3.6}$$

Theorem 3.1 (Hypothesis Tests for CATE). *If Assumption 1, Assumption 2 and the conditions in Proposition 3.2 are satisfied, under $H_0 : (\beta_c, \beta_x') = 0$, the Wald statistic*

$$W_1 = (\hat{\beta}_c, \hat{\beta}_x')(\hat{V}/n)^{-1}(\hat{\beta}_c, \hat{\beta}_x')' \xrightarrow{d} \chi^2(p+1) \tag{3.7}$$

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where $\hat{\beta}$ is the OLS estimator of β with AIPW transformed outcome, and p is the dimension of $\hat{\beta}_x$. Under $H_0 : \beta_x = 0$, the Wald statistic

$$W_2 = \hat{\beta}'_x (\hat{V}_{xx}/n)^{-1} \hat{\beta}_x \xrightarrow{d} \chi^2(p).$$ (3.8)

We note that $(\beta_c, \beta'_x) = 0$ is only a necessary condition for the null hypothesis in (2.3) but not sufficient, which means that rejecting $H_0 : (\beta_c, \beta'_x) = 0$ implies non-zero treatment effects, however, accepting H_0 does not imply there is no treatment effect. This is because we are testing the joint statistical significance of the linear projection of the CATE on the covariates, and there may exist cases when CATE is a nonlinear function of X_i while the projection coefficients of CATE is 0. In such cases, we recommend researchers to include polynomials or interaction terms of X_i in $b(X_i)$ to improve the power of the test. The relationship between $\beta_x = 0$ and the null hypothesis in (2.4) is similar.

3.3 Hypothesis Tests for CLATE

By the identification equation in (2.5), CLATE is the ratio of the conditional expectations of Y_i^* and W_i^* transformed by the propensity score of Z_i. Let $\beta_0 = (\beta_c, \beta'_x)'$ denote the projection coefficient of Y_i^* on $b(X_i)$ and $\alpha_0 = (\alpha_c, \alpha'_x)'$ denote the projection coefficient of W_i^* on $b(X_i)$. The null hypothesis of zero CLATE is equivalent to $(\beta_c, \beta'_x)' = 0$ which can be tested by a Wald test as in (3.7).

The null hypothesis of constant CLATE can be stated as $CLATE(x) = l$ for some constant l and all covariate values. This means that, if we replace the conditional expectations in the numerator and denominator in Equation (2.5) by the projection of Y_i^* and W_i^* on $b(X_i)$, we require the projection functions to maintain the same ratio l for any value of X_i. When $x = 0$, we have $\frac{\beta_c}{\alpha_c} = l$, and thus, the null hypothesis can be translated to $\beta_x = \frac{\beta_c}{\alpha_c} \cdot \alpha_x$. This null hypothesis can also be tested using the moment function in (3.2) by the following

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regression. Write the BLP of Y^* and W^* jointly as

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y^* \\ W^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} & \dot{b}(X) & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} & \dot{b}(X) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_c \\ \alpha_c \\ \beta_x \\ \alpha_x \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \end{bmatrix} = b(X)\xi + \epsilon.$$

Note that the moment function of this joint regression is in the same form as (3.2) with AIPW transformed variable (Y^*, W^*) as the outcome and Z as the treatment variable, so Proposition 3.2 directly applies.

Theorem 3.2 (Hypothesis Tests for CLATE). *If Assumption 3 and the conditions in Proposition 3.2 are satisfied, under $H_0 : \alpha_x = \beta_x$, the Wald statistic*

$$W_3 = r(\widehat{\xi})'(\nabla r(\widehat{\xi})' \cdot (\widehat{V}/n) \cdot \nabla r(\widehat{\xi}))^{-1} r(\widehat{\xi}) \xrightarrow{d} \chi^2(p) \tag{3.9}$$

where $\widehat{\xi}$ is the OLS estimator of ξ with AIPW transformed outcome and treatment, $r(\widehat{\xi}) = \widehat{\beta}_x - \frac{\widehat{\beta}_c}{\widehat{\alpha}_c} \cdot \widehat{\alpha}_x$, $\nabla r(\widehat{\xi})$ is the gradient of $r(\widehat{\xi})$ and $\widehat{V}$ is a clustered consistent estimator of the covariance matrix of $\widehat{\xi}$ with clusters defined by and indicator of whether the dependent variable is Y^* or W^*, and p is the dimension of $r(\widehat{\xi})$.

4 Relaxing Parametric Assumption on the Nuisance Parameters

In the derivation of the baseline result in Section 3, we assume that $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ have a linear parametric form with finite-dimensional parameter γ_0 which can be estimated by GMM. A common practical problem in empirical research is that $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ are

unknown to the researcher and potentially nonlinear or high-dimensional. In such cases, imposing parametric assumption on $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ raises the risk of misspecification which will result in biased estimators of the BLP coefficients of CATE/CLATE. Another major problem is that, in a high-dimensional setting with the dimension of covariates exceeding the number of observations, it is well-known that parametric estimators such as OLS and MLE are not well-defined. Because the parameter γ_0 in $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ are not clear and may be infinite-dimensional when these functions are highly complex, we target on estimating $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ directly and modify $\gamma_0 = (e_0(x), \mu_0(w, x))$ to represent the nuisance parameter used in AIPW transformation. To obtain reliable estimators of γ_0 when these functions are highly complex, machine learning methods such as lasso, tree-based regression, neural nets and their ensembles are usually considered by researchers, which do not rely on the parametric assumption and provide natural estimators of γ_0. However, these machine learning methods are subject to regularization and overfitting bias and therefore, invalidate Theorem 3.1 and 3.2. In this section, we develop valid inference on the projection coefficients of the CATE/CLATE with machine learning estimators of γ_0 by employing the method of Double/Debiased Machine Learning (DML) (Chernozhukov et al. 2018).

DML is a framework for obtaining root-n consistent and asymptotically normal semi-parametric estimators of a structural parameter in the presence of highly complex nuisance parameter, which requires a Neyman-orthogonal moment function that identifies the parameter of interest and a sample splitting algorithm to reduce the impact of the bias in machine learning estimator of nuisance parameter on the estimation of the parameter of interest. We follow the sample splitting algorithm provided in Chernozhukov et al. (2018) and describe the procedure as follows.

1. Randomly partition the n observations into K equal folds indexed by $(I_k)_{k=1}^K$. Each fold has observations $n_K = n/K$. Let I_k^c denote the observations without fold I_k. For each k, we estimate the first step nuisance parameter γ_0 by some machine learning

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method $\hat{\gamma}_k = \hat{\gamma}((D_i)_{i \in I_k^c})$.

2. The DML estimator $\hat{\beta}$ of β_0 is the solution to the aggregated moment equation

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in I_k} g(D_i, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\gamma}_k) = 0 \tag{4.1}$$

where $g(d, \beta, \gamma)$ is the moment function in (3.1).

3. The DML estimator of the covariance matrix of $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta} - \beta_0)$ is The DML estimator of the covariance matrix of $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta} - \beta)$ is

$$\hat{V} = \hat{G}_\beta^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in I_k} g(D_i, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\gamma}_k)(D_i, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\gamma}_k)' \right) \hat{G}_\beta^{-1\prime} \tag{4.2}$$

where

$$\hat{G}_\beta = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in I_k} \partial_\beta g(D_i, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\gamma}_k).$$

The remaining task is to construct a Neyman-orthogonal moment function. A moment function $g(d, \beta_0, \gamma_0)$ with parameter of interest β_0 and nuisance parameter γ_0 is Neyman-orthogonal if its Gateaux derivative in the direction of $\gamma - \gamma_0$ evaluated at the true parameter value equals zero, namely

$$\partial_r \mathbb{E}[g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0 + r(\gamma - \gamma_0))]|_{r=0} = 0$$

for all γ in a realization set $\mathcal{T}_n$ and all $r \in [0, 1)$. Note that this condition slightly differs from the definition of Neyman-orthogonality given in Chernozhukov et al. (2018) because we replace the Gateaux derivative by its equivalent partial derivative. In fact, as a generalization of the AIPW estimator of ATE discussed in Section 5.1 in Chernozhukov et al. (2018), we show in Appendix A that our moment function in (3.1) inherits Neyman-orthogonality.

Let $(\delta_n)_{t=1}^{\infty}$ and $(\Delta_n)_{t=1}^{\infty}$ be sequences of positive constants approaching 0 and c, ξ, C and q be fixed strictly positive constants such that $q > 2$. Let $K \geqslant 2$ be a fixed integer representing

the number of sample splits and assume that n/K is an integer. Let $\|\cdot\|_q$ denote the L_p norm of a vector. For a matrix M, let $\|M\|$ be the maximal eigenvalue of $\|M\|$. For any $\gamma = (\ell_1, ... \ell_l)$, denote $\|\gamma\|_{F,q} = \max_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant l} \|\ell_j\|_{F,q}$ where F is a probability measure of the data D and $\|\ell\|_{F,q}$ denotes $(\int |\ell(d)|^q dF(d))^{1/q}$. Also, let

$$U_i = Y_i - \mu_0(D_i, X_i), \quad V_i = D_i - e_0(X_i).$$

Assumption 4 (Regularity Conditions for DML). Suppose Assumption 1, Assumption 2 are satisfied and (i) $\|Y\|_{F,q} \leqslant C$, $\|b(X)\| \leqslant C$ for all X. (ii) There exists c_0 and c_1 such that $0 < c_0 < c_1 < \infty$ and all singular values of $\mathbb{E}[b(X)'b(X)]$ are between c_0 and c_1. (iii) $\mathbb{E}[b(X)'b(X)(Y^*(\gamma_0) - b(X)\beta)^2]$ is positive definite. (iv) $\mathbb{E}[|U|^q|X] \leqslant C$ and $\|Y^*(\gamma_0) - b(x)\beta_0\|_{F,q} \leqslant C$. And given a random subset I of $[n]$ of size $n_K = n/K$, the nuisance parameter estimator $\hat{\gamma} = \hat{\gamma}((D_i)_{i \in I^c})$ obeys the following conditions. (v) With probability no less than $1 - \Delta_n$, $\|\hat{\gamma} - \gamma_0\|_{F,q} \leqslant C$, $\|\hat{\gamma} - \gamma_0\|_{F,2} \leqslant \delta_n$, $\|\hat{e} - 1/2\|_{F,\infty} \leqslant 1/2 - \xi$ and $\|\hat{e} - e_0\|_{F,2} \times \|\hat{\mu} - \mu_0\|_{F,2} \leqslant \delta_n \cdot n^{-1/2}$.

In Assumption 4, (i)-(iii) are regularity conditions for the linear projection step. Condition (iv) bounds the sampling error of the outcome variable. Conditions (v) and (vi) are assumptions on the convergence rate of the estimators of the nuisance parameters. The conditions needed to reach these rates for different machine learning methods are case-specific, but these rate are attainable for a wide range of machine learning methods, which allows us to choose different methods to work with different assumptions on γ_0. For example, the lasso or ℓ_2-boosting can be used for high-dimensional X and sparse γ_0; tree-based methods or neural nets can be used for highly nonlinear γ_0.

Note that when X is high-dimensional, we also face a high-dimensional problem in the BLP of the CATE/CLATE. In this case, Conditions (i) and (ii) are binding as they require $b(X)$ to be a low-dimensional subset (or a low-dimensional transformation of the subset) of X. If a researcher is interested in hypotheses on a particular small subset of the covariates or

on some groups in the population defined by the covariates, then $b(X)$ can be designed to incorporate these cases. However, a researcher might also be interested in whether the treatment effect is heterogeneous with respect to all of the covariates. A natural approach would be to conduct constant CATE test with respect to each covariate, one by one. This approach raises the issue of multiple testing, and p-values should be corrected to account for this. List, Shaikh, and Xu (2016) propose a bootstrap-based approach to the multiple testing problem allowing for dependence among test statistics in the context of treatment effect evaluation. By using their approach, the high dimensionality issue in the BLP of conditional effects is transformed to a simultaneous testing problem.

Proposition 4.1 (DML Asymptotic Properties). *Suppose Assumption 4 is satisfied. Then $\hat{\beta}$ by solving* (4.1) *obeys*

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta} - \beta_0) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, V)$$

where $V = \mathbb{E}[g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0) g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0)']$. Moreover, $\hat{V}$ in (4.2) *is a consistent estimator of V.*

The proof of 4.1 is shown in Appendix A. Under Assumption 4, Proposition 4.1 follows as a corollary to Theorems 3.1 and 3.2 in Chernozhukov et al. (2018). The asymptotic normality of the DML estimator of β_0 allows us to perform the same hypothesis tests for CATE in Theorem 3.1. Here we provide assumptions for the CATE tests with DML estimators, and a set of similar regularity conditions can be provided to perform the CLATE tests by considering (Y, D) as the stacked outcome and Z as the binary treatment with proof similar to that we provided in Appendix.

5 Simulations

We explore the finite sample performance including the size and power of the tests of constant CATE and CLATE in (3.8) and (3.9) using simulated data from various data generating process. For $d = 0, 1$, the potential outcomes are

$$Y_i(w) = \mu_0(0, X_i) + \tau_0(X_i) \cdot w + \epsilon_i, \quad Pr(D_i = 1|X_i) = e_0(X_i)$$

where $\epsilon \sim N(0, 1)$, and the covariates $X_i \sim N(0, 1)$ and are independent of ϵ_i. The designs are:

1. $\mu_0(0, x) = 1 + \sum_{p=1}^{2} x_p$; $\tau_0(x) = \alpha \sum_{p=1}^{2} x_p$; $e_0(x) = 0.5$,

2. $\mu_0(0, x) = 1 + \sum_{p=1}^{2} x_p$; $\tau_0(x) = \alpha \sum_{p=1}^{2} x_p$; $e_0(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(1 + 0.4x_1 - 0.2x_2))$,

3. $\mu_0(0, x) = 1 + \sum_{p=1}^{2} x_p$; $\tau_0(x) = \alpha(x_1 + x_2 + x_1 \cdot x_2)$; $e_0(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(1 + 0.4x_1 - 0.2x_2))$,

4. $\mu_0(0, x) = 1 + \sum_{p=1}^{2} x_p$; $\tau_0(x) = \alpha(1\{x_1 > 0\} - 1\{x_1 \leqslant 0\})$; $e_0(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(1 + 0.4x_1 - 0.2x_2))$.

Design 1 mimics experimental data in which each unit is assigned to treatment randomly with probability 0.5, while 2, 3 and 4 mimic survey data with two covariates and propensity score as a logit function of the covariates. We assume the CATE to be a linear function of the covariates in design 2 and with an additional interaction term in design 3. In design 4, the CATE is a step function of X_1 which equals 1 when $X_1 > 0$ and equals -1 when $X_1 \leqslant 0$. We also design a data generating process with an instrument Z as follows

$$Y_i(w) = \mu_0(0, X_i) + \tau_0(X_i) \cdot w + \epsilon_i, \ D_i = \mathbb{1}[\nu_i \leqslant T(Z_i)], \ Pr(Z_i = 1|X_i) = q_0(X_i)$$

where

$$\mu_0(0, x) = 1 + x; \ \tau_0(x) = \alpha \cdot x; \ q_0(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-1 + 0.3x))$$

and (ϵ_i, ν_i) follows standard multivariate normal distribution with correlation 0.5, $T(0) = -0.5$ and $T(1) = 0.5$.

We first set $\alpha = 0$ and simulate the rejection rate of the tests in 10000 simulations with 3 different nominal significance levels, 0.1, 0.5 and 0.01. Table 1 shows the results with different sample sizes[3]. For the tests of constant CATE/CLATE, the size distortions decrease and the empirical rejection rates get closer to the nominal levels with larger samples. Compared to the CATE tests by Crump et al. (2008), our proposed test has better size control. We also show the simulated power of our proposed test for the designs in Figure 2 and compare it with the Crump et al. (2008) in Figure 3. Overall, our proposed test has similar power to Crump et al. (2008) and smaller size distortion.

Table 1: Simulated Size of Test for Constant Treatment Effect

Design	N	Nominal Probability			Crump et al.(2008) test
		0.1	0.05	0.01	0.05
	100	0.127	0.072	0.017	0.102
1	300	0.108	0.053	0.012	0.091
	1000	0.106	0.050	0.011	0.073
	100	0.165	0.105	0.037	0.179
2	300	0.127	0.074	0.018	0.156
	1000	0.118	0.064	0.014	0.110
	100	0.170	0.108	0.034	0.181
3	300	0.129	0.073	0.020	0.157
	1000	0.120	0.060	0.013	0.113
	100	0.174	0.104	0.037	0.182
4	300	0.131	0.075	0.018	0.159
	1000	0.120	0.061	0.017	0.112
	250	0.117	0.064	0.017	
IV	750	0.112	0.054	0.015	
	2500	0.092	0.053	0.011	

For the tests with DML, we consider two designs. In the first design, we simulate a scenario

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[3]The simulated sample for the tests of constant CLATE are 2.5 times the size of the sample for the tests of constant CATE. We use larger sample sizes for the CLATE tests because only the effect in the complier group is identified and the compliers make up around 40% of the simulated sample.

of high-dimensional control variables with $\mu_0(0, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ assumed to be high-dimensional sparse models. Specifically, 100 covariates are generated from normal distribution with 0 expectation and unit variance. The first 10 covariates have non-zero coefficients in $\mu_0(0, x)$, $e_0(x)$ and $\tau_0(x)$. The rest 90 covariates have coefficients of 0. The models are

$$\mu_0(0, x) = 1 + \sum_{p=1}^{10} x_p + 0 \cdot \sum_{p=11}^{100} x_p;$$

$$\tau_0(x) = \alpha \sum_{p=1}^{10} x_p + 0 \cdot \sum_{p=11}^{100} x_p;$$

$$e_0(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-1 - 0.1 \cdot \sum_{p=1}^{10} x_p + 0 \cdot \sum_{p=11}^{100} x_p)).$$

We use lasso with penalty level chosen according to Belloni, Chernozhukov, and Hansen (2014) to estimate the nuisance functions $\mu_0(0, x)$ and $e_0(x)$, and then project $\hat{Y}^*$ on the first 10 covariates to test the null hypothesis of constant CATE. In the second design, we change $\mu_0(0, x)$ to a highly nonlinear function that takes the form $\sin(1 + \sum_{p=1}^{10} x_p)$ and assume that the models are known to the functions of the first 10 covariates.

$$\mu_0(0, x) = \sin(1 + \sum_{p=1}^{10} x_p);$$

$$\tau_0(x) = \alpha \sum_{p=1}^{10} x_p;$$

$$e_0(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-1 - 0.1 \cdot \sum_{p=1}^{10} x_p)).$$

In this simulation, we use extreme gradient boosting to estimate both nuisance functions[4]. Both simulations uses 5-fold DML test described in Section 4. The simulated sizes are shown in Table 2.

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[4]We use `xgboost` package from R. To reduce the computation time, the maximum depth of the trees is set to be 2 and the learning rate is set to be 0.5.

Table 2: Simulated Size of Test for Constant Treatment Effect with DML

Design	N	Nominal Probability		
		0.1	0.05	0.01
DML Design 1	500	0.110	0.058	0.025
	1000	0.103	0.053	0.013
	5000	0.099	0.050	0.010
DML Design 2	500	0.045	0.019	0.002
	1000	0.077	0.030	0.006
	5000	0.086	0.042	0.007

6   Applications

6.1   Testing the Effect of One-Child Policy on Mental Health

From 1979 to 2015, the One-Child Policy (OCP) was enforced by the Chinese government to slow down the rapid growth of the nation's population. The policy was effective in controlling the population growth and has led to benefits in the economy. However, it was criticized for introducing a series of social problems such as aging population, forced abortion and pension issues. The negative impact of OCP on the mental health of the only children has also been recognized in literature (e.g. Cameron et al. 2013; Wu 2014; Zeng, Li, and Ding 2020).

In this section, we apply the proposed test to data from the Chinese Family Panel Studies (CFPS) (Xie and Hu 2014) to assess the effect of OCP on the mental health of the only children in China. The dataset consists of participants born during OCP policy with ages from 20 to 34. The mental health is measured by three categorical variables, confidence, anxiety and desperation. All three measures take variables from 1 to 5 with 1 indicating the worst mental health. The treatment is a dummy variable indicating whether a subject is the only child in the family. The set of the covariates are age, living in urban or rural area, gender, majority or not, marriage status, personal income and parents characteristics including age, education years and marriage status. The propensity of having only one child is specified as a logit model of the whole set of the covariates. Figure 1 shows that the overlap of propensity is limited. To ensure the overlap assumption and a reasonable

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sample size, we trim the observations with estimated propensity score less than 0.05. We also remove 3 observations with family income greater than two million CNY because they are dramatically larger than the remainder. The final dataset has 4073 observations and the descriptive statistics of the variables are presented in Table 5.
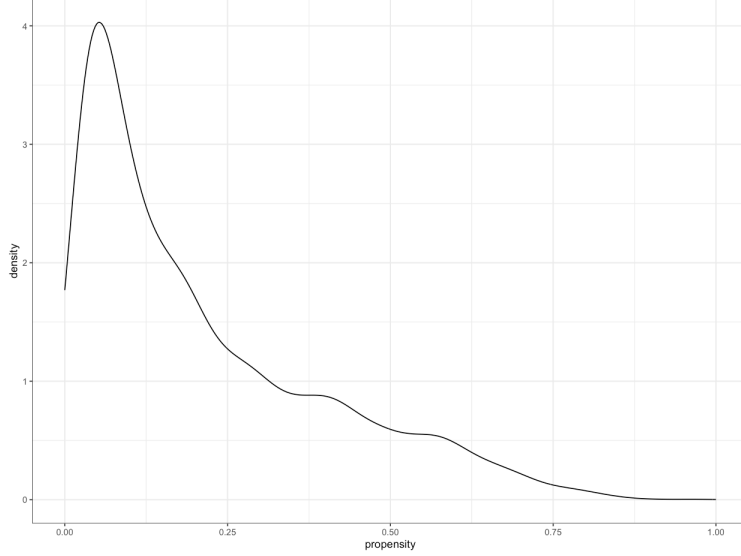

Figure 1: Denstiy of Estimated Propensity Score of One Child

We assume unconfoundedness, that the mental health of the only children is independent of being the only child conditioning on the whole set of the covariates. We start by comparing the hypothesis test of zero ATE by OLS estimation of the effect of being the only child with the hypothesis test of zero CATE for all covariate values. Under the unconfoundedness assumption, the ATEs on confidence, anxiety and desperation can be estimated by regressing the mental health measures on the treatment and covariates. The OLS estimates of the ATEs are -0.088, 0.005 and -0.067 respectively, with the ATE on confidence and desperation statistically significant at 5% level. The ATE estimates are similar to those in the basic specification of Wu (2014) with a different set of covariates. Our proposed test statistics for the zero CATE test are 30.18, 34.02, 61.18 with 14 degrees of freedom for confidence, anxiety and desperation respectively and the p-values are all smaller than 0.01. We conclude that for all three mental health measures, at least for some covariate values, the CATE is

different from zero. The test results for anxiety give us an example of the difference between the zero ATE test and zero CATE test. If a researcher focused on the zero ATE test only, he/she would probably be misled by the insignificance of the ATE on anxiety and ignore the heterogeneity in the treatment effects.

We then test the null hypothesis of constant CATE. The test statistics for the three measures are 29.54, 33.83, 60.97 respectively with 13 degrees of freedom and the null hypotheses of constant treatment effect for all three measures are rejected at 1% level. This suggests heterogeneous treatment effect of OCP on all three mental health measures. We also compare our test with parametric test in Crump et al. (2008), which yields p-values 0.03, 0.10, < 0.01 for the three mental health measures in the test of zero CATE and p-values 0.29, 0.10 and < 0.01 in the test of constant CATE.

Table 3: Test Results for the CATE on Mental Health of the Only Children

Method		Zero CATE Tests			Constant CATE Tests		
		Confidence	Anxiety	Desperation	Confidence	Anxiety	Desperation
	Chi-square	30.18	34.02	61.18	29.54	33.83	60.97
Projection	df	14	14	14	13	13	13
	p-value	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
	Chi-square	25.37	21.09	41.04	16.47	20.99	32.17
Crump et al.	df	14	14	14	13	13	13
	p-value	0.03	0.10	<0.01	0.29	0.10	<0.01

We now show how to explore the source of treatment effect heterogeneity using the CATE projection coefficients. Given that the ATE on anxiety is not significant but heterogeneity is suggested by the hypothesis test, we are interested in the subpopulations with positive or negative treatment effects on the anxiety levels. Using the CATE projection results in Table 4, we find that the only children with older mother, lower maternal education, higher paternal education and lower personal income are more anxious in general. Similar heterogeneity analysis can be applied to the confidence and desperation of the children using Table 6 and 7. We note that it should not be concluded that a covariate is uncorrelated with the CATEs of OCP if it is statistically insignificant in the second step regression. The regression results show the partial effect of the covariates on the CATE. When some of the

covariates are mutually correlated, it is possible to find a different subset of the covariates such that it is almost equally predictive in the CATE.

Table 4: CATE Regression Results for Anxiety

	Estimate	SE	t test p-value
Intercept	0.1892	0.3111	0.5433
Age	0.0024	0.0129	0.8506
Urban	0.1178	0.0677	0.0820.
Gender	-0.0538	0.0640	0.4003
Family Income	-0.1193	0.0692	0.0849.
Father Age	0.0183	0.0101	0.0713.
Mother Age	-0.0226	0.0119	0.0565.
Father Edu Year	-0.0203	0.0085	0.0173*
Mother Edu Year	0.0171	0.0081	0.0337*
Parents Divorce	0.1019	0.2627	0.6980
Parents Remarriage	-0.0765	0.5401	0.8874
Han	-0.0514	0.1301	0.6929
Marriage	0.0490	0.0699	0.4838
Personal Income	0.5844	0.1416	0.0000***

p-value 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1
Family Income and Personal Income are scaled in 10^5 CNY.

6.2 Testing the Effect of 401(k) Plans on Net Financial Assets

The tax-deferred 401(k) plans[5] were introduced by the United States in the early 1980s which aim to encourage employees to increase savings for retirement through deducting contributions from taxable income and tax-free accrual of interest. Employees' contributions may be matched by the employers up to a certain percentage. 401(k) plans are provided by employers, therefore, only the employees in the firms that offer 401(k) plans are eligible. 401(k) plans are used for increasing retirement savings, however, the effect of 401(k) plans on net financial assets is less clear and this question has been studied by several papers in the savings literature (e.g Poterba, Venti, and Wise 1995, 1995; Abadie 2003; Chernozhukov and Hansen 2004).

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[5]We use the `pension` dataset in R package `hdm`. More detailed description of this dataset can be found in Chernozhukov and Hansen (2004) and Belloni et al. (2017).

The key problem in determining the the effect of 401(k) plans on assets is selection into participation. In order to deal with the selection problem, we consider two identification strategies. First, we use 401(k) eligibility as an instrument for 401(k) participating and assume exogenous instrument conditioning on the basic covariates, which are age, gender, income, family size, education years, marriage indicator, two-earner indicator, defined benefit pension status indicator, IRA plan participation indicator and home owner indicator. Second, we assume unconfoundedness by including all basic covariates in the dataset, as well as quadratic terms of age, income, family size, discretized income category and full interactions. This leads to a total of 211 covariates. With all basic and created covariates, we assume that $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ are approximately sparse models where $\mu_0(w, x)$ is the potential outcomes of net financial assets and $e_0(x)$ is the propensity of 410(k) participation. For the first strategy, we test the null hypothesis of constant CLATE using the method in Section 3.3 and for the second strategy, we test the null hypothesis of constant CATE in a high-dimensional setting using the method in Section 4.

Table 8 presents descriptive statistics of the outcome, treatment and basic covariates for the entire sample as well as subgroups by participation status. The dataset contains 9915 units with 382 eligible for 401(k) plan and 2594 participated. The propensity of eligibility $q(x)$ is specified as a logit model with basic covariates and the outcome regression models $\mu_0^y(z, x)$ and $\mu_0^w(z, x)$ are estimated by OLS with $z = 1, 0$ denoting the eligibility status. Because non-eligible units are not allowed to participate 401(k), so we let $\hat{\mu}^w(0, x) = 0$ for all x. We also replace $\hat{\mu}^w(1, x)$ greater than 1 with 1 to restrict the probability of participation within $[0, 1]$. The test statistic W_3 in Equation (3.9) is calculated to be 51.57 with 10 degrees of freedom[6]. For the constant CLATE test, we get a clear rejection at 1% level.

We then test the null hypothesis of constant CATE with high-dimensional covariates under unconfoundedness assumption. We randomly split the sample into $K = 5$ subsets. The nuisance parameters $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ are estimated by linear and logistic regressions with

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[6]Four observations are removed due to $\hat{q}(x)$ close to 1.

the lasso respectively, with penalty level chosen according to Belloni, Chernozhukov, and Hansen (2014). In the second step projection, $b(X_i)$ is chosen to be the baseline covariates. Using DML estimates of β_0 and the corresponding covariance matrix, the Wald statistic is calculated to be 83.35 with 10 degrees of freedom, so the null hypothesis of constant CATE is rejected at 1% level. Both our statistical evidence of heterogeneous CLATE and CATE supports the findings by Chernozhukov and Hansen (2004), who investigated the heterogeneous treatment effect of 401(k) participation on net financial assets using an instrumental quantile regression.

7   Conclusion

In this paper, we develop hypothesis tests for the existence of non-zero and heterogeneous CATE/CLATE under the unconfoundedness and IV identification by translating the hypotheses into the joint significance of the BLP coefficients of the CATE/CLATE on the covariates. We propose estimators of the BLP coefficients and derive the corresponding asymptotic variance-covariance matrix. In contrast to existing methods, our proposed parametric tests are straightforward to implement as the test statistic can be constructed by the standard regression output in statistical softwares. Semiparametric tests are developed to allow for highly nonlinear models or high-dimensional covariates using Double/Debiased Machine Learning estimators. Our proposed tests are flexible as the CATE/CLATE can be tested on a function of covariates such as a subset, polynomials or interactions without the need to change the specifications of the outcome or propensity score. The finite sample performance of the tests in terms of statistical power and size is studied using Monte Carlo simulations. Finally, by applying the tests to the survey data regarding One-child Policy and 401(k) retirement savings plan, we find evidence of the presence of heterogeneous treatment effects and illustrate the use of the estimated BLP coefficients for subpopulation analysis.

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A   Extra Results and Proofs

Proof of Proposition 3.1. Note that $\hat{\gamma} \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_0$. We have

$$\hat{\beta} = (\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(b(X_i)'b(X_i)))^{-1}(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(b(X_i)'Y_i^*(\hat{\gamma}))) \xrightarrow{p} G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'Y_i^*(\gamma_0)] = \beta_0$$

as $Y_i^*(\gamma)$ is continuous at γ_0. $\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad \square$

Proof of Proposition 3.2. The proof consists of two parts. First, we derive the asymptotic variance of OLS estimator $\hat{\beta}$ with plugged in nuisance estimators $\hat{\gamma}$. Second, we show how AIPW transformation eliminates the influence of $\hat{\gamma}$ on the asymptotic variance of $\hat{\beta}$. Note that $\hat{\gamma}$ is an asymptotically linear estimator with influence function $\psi(d) = -M^{-1}m(d, \gamma_0)$ where $M = \mathbb{E}[\partial_\gamma m(D_i, \gamma_0)]$ and $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\gamma} - \gamma_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\psi(D_i)/\sqrt{n} + o_p(1)$. Expanding $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}g(D_i, \beta, \hat{\gamma}) = 0$ and solving with mean value theorem, we have

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta} - \beta_0)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}b(X_i)'b(X_i)\right)^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(b(X_i)'\epsilon_i + b(X_i)'\partial_\gamma Y_i^*(\bar{\gamma})(\hat{\gamma} - \gamma_0))\right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}b(X_i)'b(X_i)\right)^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}b(X_i)'\epsilon_i + \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}b(X_j)'\partial_\gamma Y_j^*(\bar{\gamma})\right)\sqrt{n}(\hat{\gamma} - \gamma_0)\right]$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}b(X_i)'b(X_i)\right)^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}b(X_i)'\epsilon_i + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}b(X_j)'\partial_\gamma Y_j^*(\bar{\gamma})\right)\psi(D_i)\right] + o_p(1)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}b(X_i)'b(X_i)\right)^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(b(X_i)'\epsilon_i + \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}b(X_j)'\partial_\gamma Y_j^*(\bar{\gamma})\right)\psi(D_i)\right)\right] + o_p(1)$$

$$\text{(A.1)}$$

where $\bar{\gamma}$ is the mean value. So $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta} - \beta_0) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, V)$ where $V = G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[(b(X_i)'\epsilon_i + G_\gamma\psi(D_i))(b(X_i)'\epsilon_i + G_\gamma\psi(D_i))']G_\beta^{-1'}$.

For $g(d, \beta, \hat{\gamma}) = b(x)'(y^*(\hat{\gamma}) - b(x)\beta)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
G_\gamma &= \mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'(\partial_\gamma Y_i^*(\gamma_0))] \\
&= \mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{W_i(\mu_0(1, X_i) - Y_i)}{e_0(X_i)^2} - \frac{(1 - W_i)(Y_i - \mu_0(0, X_i))}{(1 - e_0(X_i))^2}, \frac{e_0(X_i) - W_i}{1 - e_0(X_i)}, \frac{e_0(X_i) - W_i}{e_0(X_i)}\right)\bigg| X_i\right]\right] \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}
$$

The last line holds by the definition of $e_0(x)$, $\mu_0(w, x)$ and that $\mathbb{E}[W_i(Y_i - \mu_0(1, X_i))|X_i] = \mathbb{E}[(1 - W_i)(Y_i - \mu_0(0, X_i))|X_i] = 0$. $\qquad\square$

Proof of Theorem 3.1 and 3.2. Let p-dimensional vector κ represent BLP coefficients β in the CATE tests/zero CLATE test, or $r(\xi)$ in the constant CLATE test. Proposition 3.2 shows that $\sqrt{n}(\kappa - \kappa_0) \xrightarrow{d} Z \sim N(0, V_\kappa)$ for some normal random vector Z. Let $\hat{V}_\kappa \xrightarrow{p} V_\kappa$. Then it follows that

$$
W = \sqrt{n}(\hat{\kappa} - \kappa_0)'\hat{V}_\kappa^{-1}\sqrt{n}(\hat{\kappa} - \kappa_0) \xrightarrow{d} Z'V_\kappa^{-1}Z \sim \chi_p^2.
$$

Under the null hypothesis, $\kappa_0 = 0$, therefore,

$$
W = n\hat{\kappa}'\hat{V}_\kappa^{-1}\hat{\kappa} = \hat{\kappa}'(\hat{V}_\kappa/n)^{-1}\hat{\kappa} \xrightarrow{d} \chi_p^2.
$$

$\qquad\square$

Double Robustness and Semiparametric Efficiency of the Estimator of Projection Coefficients

In the literature of causal inference, AIPW is largely known and used for estimating the ATE using $1/n \sum_i Y_i^*(\gamma)$. The AIPW estimator of the ATE has attractive properties over the the OLS estimator and the original IPW estimator (e.g. Scharfstein, Rotnitzky, and Robins 1999; Lunceford and Davidian 2004). Firstly, it is a doubly robust estimator which is consistent when either $e_0(X)$ or $\mu_0(W, X)$ is correctly specified. Secondly, the theory in Robins,

Rotnitzky, and Zhao (1994) guarantees that the AIPW estimator of the ATE achieves the semiparametric efficiency. This result is also shown in Lunceford and Davidian (2004) via simulations. In this section, we show that our proposed $\hat{\beta}$ with AIPW transformation, which is an estimator of the projection coefficients of $Y_i^*(\gamma)$ on the covariates, inherits these properties. To formally define double robustness, we introduce additional notations as follows. By the parametric setting of $e(X)$ and $\mu(W,X)$, let $e(X, \gamma_{e_0}) = e_0(X)$, $\mu(X, \gamma_{\mu_0}^1) = \mu_0(1, X)$ and $\mu(X, \gamma_{\mu_0}^0) = \mu_0(0, X)$. If $\mu(W, X)$ is correctly specified, we have $\hat{\gamma}_\mu^w \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_{\mu_0}^w$ and

$$\mu(X, \hat{\gamma}_\mu^w) \xrightarrow{p} \mu_0(w, X) = \mathbb{E}[Y(w)|X]$$

for $w = 0, 1$, whereas if $\mu(W, X)$ is misspecified, then $\hat{\gamma}_\mu^w \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_{\tilde{\mu}}^w$ and

$$\mu(X, \hat{\gamma}_\mu^w) \xrightarrow{p} \tilde{\mu}(w, X) \neq \mathbb{E}[Y(w)|X].$$

Similarly, if $e(X)$ is correctly specified, we have $\hat{\gamma}_e \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_{e_0}$ and

$$e(X, \hat{\gamma}_e) \xrightarrow{p} e_0(X) = P(W = 1|X)$$

whereas if misspecified, $\hat{\gamma}_e \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_{\tilde{e}}$ and

$$e(X, \hat{\gamma}_e) \xrightarrow{p} \tilde{e}(X) \neq P(W = 1|X).$$

Proposition A.1 (Double Robustness). *Suppose the assumptions stated in 3.2 is satisfied.* $\hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{p} \beta_0$ *when* $\hat{\gamma}_\mu^w \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_{\mu_0}^w$ *or* $\hat{\gamma}_e \xrightarrow{p} \gamma_{e_0}$.

Proof. Decompose $\hat{\beta}$ by (2.1) and consider the component

$$(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n (b(X_i)'b(X_i)))^{-1} \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \left(b(X_i)' \left(D_i \frac{Y_i - \mu(X_i, \hat{\gamma}_\mu^1)}{e(X_i, \hat{\gamma}_e)} + \mu(X_i, \hat{\gamma}_\mu^1) \right) \right).$$

Suppose only $\mu(W, X)$ is correctly specified and by $W_i Y_i = W_i Y_i(1)$, then this component can be written as

$$(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(b(X_i)'b(X_i)))^{-1}\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(b(X_i)'\left(Y_i(1) + \frac{W_i - \tilde{e}(X_i)}{\tilde{e}(X_i)}(Y_i(1) - \mathbb{E}[Y_i(1)|X_i])\right)\right) + o_p(1) \tag{A.2}$$

which converges to

$$G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'Y_i(1)] + G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\frac{W_i - \tilde{e}(X_i)}{\tilde{e}(X_i)}(Y_i(1) - \mathbb{E}[Y_i(1)|X_i])\right]$$

$$= G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'Y_i(1)] + G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\frac{W_i - \tilde{e}(X_i)}{\tilde{e}(X_i)}\mathbb{E}[Y_i(1) - \mathbb{E}[Y_i(1)|X_i]|W_i, X_i]\right]$$

$$= G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'Y_i(1)]$$

where the second equation follows by the law of iterated expectations conditioning on W_i and X_i. Similarly, the other component in $\hat{\beta}$ converges to $-G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)Y_i(0)]$. Thus, $\hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{p} \beta_0 = G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'(Y_i(1) - Y_i(0))]$.

Suppose only $e(X)$ is correctly specified, then (A.2) converges to

$$G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'Y_i(1)] + G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\frac{W_i - p(W_i = 1|X_i)}{p(W_i = 1|X_i)}(Y_i - \tilde{\mu}(1, X_i))\right]$$

$$= G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'Y_i(1)] + G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'\frac{\mathbb{E}[W_i|Y_i(1), X_i] - P(W_i = 1|X_i)}{P(W_I = 1|X_i)}(Y_i(1) - \tilde{\mu}(1, X_i))]$$

$$= G_\beta^{-1}\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'Y_i(1)]$$

where the second equation follows by the law of iterated expectations conditioning on $Y_i(1)$ and X_i. Similarly, we can derive the probability limit of the other component in $\hat{\beta}$ and then $\hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{p} \beta_0$. $\square$

Next we employ the theory of semiparametric efficient influence function to show that $\hat{\beta}$ is a locally efficient semiparametric estimator. This property of $\hat{\beta}$ guarantees that our proposed hypothesis tests for the CATE/CLATE have more statistical power than other semiparametric estimators of β_0.

Proposition A.2 (Semiparametric Efficiency). $\hat{\beta}$ *is locally efficient in the class of regular and asymptotically linear estimators of* β_0.

Proof. We refer to $D_i^F = (Y_i(1), Y_i(0), X_i)$ as the full data. Let Φ denote the space of observed data influence functions of regular and asymptotically linear estimators of β_0, and Φ^F denote the space of full data influence functions. By the theory of missing data influence function, there is a many-to-one linear function $\mathcal{K} : \Phi \to \Phi^F$, where for any $\varphi \in \Phi$, $\mathcal{K}(\varphi(D_i)) = \mathbb{E}[\varphi(D_i)|D_i^F]$. Therefore $\mathcal{K}^{-1}(\varphi^F(D_i^F))$ denotes all the functions $\varphi(D_i)$ such that

$$\mathbb{E}[\varphi(D_i)|D_i^F] = \varphi^F(D_i^F)$$

Thus, for any function $\varphi(D_i)$ that satisfies this condition, the class of observed data influence function $\mathcal{K}^{-1}[\varphi^F(D_i^F)]$ is equal to $\varphi(D_i) + L(D_i)$ where $L \in \mathcal{L}$ is a linear subspace in Φ such that $\mathbb{E}[L(D_i)|D_i^F] = 0$.

For β_0, $\varphi^F(D_i^F) = G_\beta^{-1} b(X_i)'(Y_i(1) - Y_i(0) - b(X_i)\beta_0)$. By our previous discussion, one of such functions $\varphi(D_i)$, motivated by IPW, is

$$\varphi(D_i) = G_\beta^{-1} b(X_i)' \left(\frac{W_i Y_i}{e_0(X_i)} - \frac{(1 - W_i)Y_i}{1 - e_0(X_i)} - b(X_i)\beta_0 \right). \tag{A.3}$$

Because W_i is a dummy variable, then we have

$$L(D_i) = L(Y_i, W_i, X_i) = W_i L_1(Y_i, X_i) + (1 - W_i)L_0(Y_i, X_i) \tag{A.4}$$

for some functions $L_1(\cdot)$ and $L_0(\cdot)$ and thus,

$$\mathbb{E}[L(D_i)|D_i^F] = e_0(X)L_1(Y_i(1), X_i) + (1 - e_0(X_i))L_0(Y_i(0), X_i) = 0.$$

The second equation suggests

$$L_0(Y_i(0), X_i) = -\frac{e_0(X_i)}{1 - e_0(X_i)} L_1(Y_i(0), X_i).$$

For this equation to hold, $L_1(\cdot)$ and $L_0(\cdot)$ must be functions of X_i only. Combining this equation with (A.4), $\mathcal{L}$ consists of functions

$$\left(\frac{W - e_0(X_i)}{1 - e_0(X_i)} \right) L_1(X_i) \text{ for some function } L_1(X_i)$$

or equivalently, $\mathcal{L}$ consists of functions

$$(W - e_0(X_i)) L_2(X_i) \text{ for some function } L_2(X_i).$$

Therefore, The efficient influence function can be obtained by

$$\varphi(D_i) - (W_i - e_0(X_i)) L_2^p(X_i)$$

where $L_2^p(X_i)$ satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[(\varphi(D_i) - (W_i - e_0(X_i)) L_2^p(X_i)))(W_i - e_0(X_i)) L_2(X_i)] = 0$$

for all $L_2(X_i) \in \mathcal{L}$.

Let $\Pi[\varphi(D_i) | \mathcal{L}] = (W_i - e_0(X_i)) L_2^p(X_i)$ denote the projection of $\varphi(D_i)$ on $\mathcal{L}$. We have

$$\Pi[\varphi(D_i) | \mathcal{L}] = \Pi[W_i \varphi_1(Y_i, X_i) | \mathcal{L}] + \Pi[(1 - W_i) \varphi_0(Y_i, X_i) | \mathcal{L}]. \tag{A.5}$$

Consider the first term on the RHS, we have the condition

$$\mathbb{E}[(W_i \varphi_1(Y_i, X_i) - (W_i - e_0(X_i)) L_{21}^p(X_i)))(W_i - e_0(X_i)) L_2(X_i)] = 0$$

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or equivalently

$$\mathbb{E}[W_i(W_i - e_0(X_i))L_2(X_i)\varphi_1(Y_i, X_i)] - \mathbb{E}[(W_i - e_0(X_i))^2 L_{21}^p(X_i)L_2(X_i)] = 0.$$

By the law of iterated expectations twice, the first term on the LHS is equal to

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[W_i(W_i - e_0(X_i))L_2(X_i)\varphi_1(Y_i, X_i)|W_i, X_i]]$$

$$=\mathbb{E}[W_i(W_i - e_0(X_i))L_2(X_i)\mathbb{E}[\varphi_1(Y_i, X_i)|W_i = 1, X_i]]$$

$$=\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[W_i(W_i - e_0(X_i))L_2(X_i)\mathbb{E}[\varphi_1(Y_i, X_i)|W_i = 1, X_i]|X_i]]$$

$$=\mathbb{E}[e_0(X_i)(1 - e_0(X_i))L_2(X_i)\mathbb{E}[\varphi(Y_i, X_i)|W_i = 1, X_i]]$$

and the second term on the RHS is equal to

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[(W_i - e_0(X_i))^2|X_i]L_{21}^p(X_i)L_2(X_i)]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[Var(W_i|X_i)L_{21}^p(X_i)L_2(X_i)]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[e_0(X_i)(1 - e_0(X_i))L_{21}^p(X_i)L_2(X_i)].$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}[e_0(X_i)(1 - e_0(X_i))(\mathbb{E}[\varphi_1(Y_i, X_i)|W_i = 1, X_i] - L_{21}^p(X_i))L_2(X_i)] = 0$$

for all $L_2(X_i) \in \mathcal{L}$. So this equation holds if and only if

$$L_{21}^p(X_i) = \mathbb{E}[\varphi_1(X_i)|W_i = 1, X_i].$$

Similarly, we can prove that $L_{20}^p(X_i) = -\mathbb{E}[\varphi_0(X_i)|W_i = 0, X_i]$ for the second term in (A.5).

By the arguments above, the efficient influence function is

$$\varphi(D_i) - \Pi(\varphi(D_i)|\mathcal{L}) = G_\beta^{-1}b(X_i)' \left(Y_i^*(\gamma_0) - b(X_i)\beta_0\right).$$

As $\mu_0(w, x)$ and $e_0(x)$ are usually unknown in practice, substituting in consistent estimators of $\hat{\mu}_0(w, x)$ and $\hat{e}_0(x)$, we have the corresponding locally efficient estimator $\hat{\beta}$ described in 3.1 $\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad$ □

It is worth noting that the estimated projection coefficient with IPW transformation has the same asymptotic variance as the AIPW transformation when the propensity score is unknown. However, AIPW transformation is asymptotically more efficient when the propensity score is known, for example, in a randomized experiment where propensity score is a known constant by design. It is not difficult to prove this claim using the proof for Proposition A.2. If $e_0(X_i)$ is known, the influence function for $\hat{\beta}$ with IPW transformation is given by (A.3), which is not efficient. If $e_0(X_i)$ is unknown, $(W_i - e_0(X_i))L_2^p(X_i)$ serves as a correction term capturing the effect of estimating $e_0(X_i)$ on the influence function of IPW. This is an extension of the discussion in Hirano, Imbens, and Ridder (2003) to the projection coefficients of conditional treatment effects. Moreover, AIPW transformation provides smaller variance than IPW in finite samples. Hence, AIPW transformation is preferable to IPW.

Proof of Proposition 4.1. Observe that the moment function in (3.1) is a linear in β, where

$$g(d, \beta, \gamma) = g^b(d, \gamma) + g^a(d, \gamma)\beta = b(x)'y^*(\gamma) - b(x)'b(x)\beta$$

and Proposition 4.1 follows from Theorems 3.1 and 3.2 and Corollary 3.1 in Chernozhukov et al. (2018) as long as we can verify Assumptions 3.1 and 3.2 in Chernozhukov et al. (2018). We proceed in 3 steps as follows. Step 1 verifies Neyman-orthogonality of the moment function. Step 2 verifies the regularity conditions of the moment function in required in Assumption 3.1. Step 3 shows the construction of the realization set $\mathcal{T}_n$ and verifies Assumption 3.2.

Step 1.

$$\partial_r \mathbb{E}[g(D_i, \beta_0, \gamma_0 + r(\gamma - \gamma_0))]|_{r=0}$$

$$=\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'(\mu(1, X_i) - \mu_0(1, X_i) - \mu(0, X_i) + \mu_0(0, X_i))]$$

$$-\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\left(\frac{W_i(\mu(1, X_i) - \mu_0(1, X_i))}{e_0(X_i)} - \frac{(1 - W_i)(\mu(0, X_i) - \mu_0(0, X_i))}{1 - e_0(X_i)}\right)\right]$$

$$-\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\left(\frac{W_i(Y - \mu_0(1, X_i))(e(X_i) - e_0(X_i))}{e^2(X_i)} - \frac{(1 - W_i)(Y_i - \mu_0(0, X_i))(e(X_i) - e_0(X_i))}{(1 - e_0(X_i))^2}\right)\right]$$

$$=\mathbb{E}[b(X_i)'(\mu(1, X_i) - \mu_0(1, X_i) - \mu(0, X_i) + \mu_0(0, X_i))]$$

$$-\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\left(\frac{\mathbb{E}[W_i|X_i](\mu(1, X_i) - \mu_0(1, X_i))}{e_0(X_i)} - \frac{\mathbb{E}[(1 - W_i)|X_i](\mu(0, X_i) - \mu_0(0, X_i))}{1 - e_0(X_i)}\right)\right]$$

$$-\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\left(\frac{\mathbb{E}[W_i(Y - \mu_0(1, X_i))|X_i](e(X_i) - e_0(X_i))}{e^2(X_i)}\right)\right]$$

$$-\mathbb{E}\left[b(X_i)'\left(\frac{\mathbb{E}[(1 - W_i)(Y_i - \mu_0(0, X_i))|X_i](e(X_i) - e_0(X_i))}{(1 - e_0(X_i))^2}\right)\right]$$

$$=0.$$

The second equation holds by the law of iterated expectation, and the third equation holds by that $\mathbb{E}[W_i(Y_i - \mu_0(1, X_i))|X_i] = \mathbb{E}[(1 - W_i)(Y_i - \mu_0(0, X_i))|X_i] = 0$. This gives Assumption 3.1(d) with exact Neyman-orthogonality ($\lambda_n = 0$)

Step 2.

Assumption 3.1(e) in Chernozhukov et al. (2018) is given by Assumption 4(iii). And given that Assumption 3.1(a)-(c) holds trivially, all conditions in Assumption 3.1 are satisfied.

Step 3.

The variance of the moment function

$$\mathbb{E}[g(D, \beta_0, \gamma_0)g(D, \beta_0, \gamma_0)'] = \mathbb{E}[b(X)'b(X)(Y^*(\gamma_0) - b(X)\beta)^2]$$

is positive definite by Assumption 4(iv), so there exists a positive value $\underline{c}$ such that all eigenvalues of $\mathbb{E}[g(D, \beta_0, \gamma_0)g(D, \beta_0, \gamma_0)']$ are bounded from below by $\underline{c}$. This gives Assumption

3.2(d) as long as $c_0 \leqslant \underline{c}$.

Next, we verify the rest of Assumption 3.2 with $\gamma = (\mu, e)$ in the set $\mathcal{T}_n$ such that

$$\|\gamma - \gamma_0\|_{F,q} \leqslant C,$$

$$\|\gamma - \gamma_0\|_{F,2} \leqslant \delta_n,$$

$$\|m - 1/2\|_{F,\infty} \leqslant 1/2 - \xi,$$

$$\|\mu - \mu_0\|_{F,2} \times \|e - e_0\|_{F,2} \leqslant \delta_n n^{-1/2}.$$

And we replace the sequence $(\delta_n)_{n \geqslant 1}$ in Assumption 3.2 by $(\delta'_n)_{n \geqslant 1}$ with $\delta'_n = C_\xi(\delta_n \vee N^{(-(1-4/q)) \wedge (1/2)})$ where C_ξ is some constant that depends only on ξ and C. Note that $\delta'_n \geqslant N^{(-(1-4/q)) \wedge (1/2)}$, which is required in Theorems 3.1 and 3.2 in Chernozhukov et al. (2018).

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\mu_0(W, X)\|_{F,q} &= (\mathbb{E}[|\mu_0(W, X)|^q])^{1/q} \\
&\geqslant (\mathbb{E}[|\mu_0(1, X)|^q e_0(X) + |\mu_0(0, X)|^q (1 - e_0(X))])^{1/q} \\
&\geqslant \xi^{1/q} (\mathbb{E}[|\mu_0(1, X)|^q] + \mathbb{E}[|\mu_0(0, X)|^q])^{1/q} \\
&\geqslant \xi^{1/q} (\mathbb{E}[|\mu_0(1, X)|^q] \vee \mathbb{E}[|\mu_0(W, X)|^q])^{1/q} \\
&\geqslant \xi^{1/q} (\|\mu_0(1, X)\|_{F,q} \vee \|\mu_0(0, X)\|_{F,q})
\end{aligned}$$

where the third line holds by $\xi \leqslant e_0(X) \leqslant 1 - \xi$ in Assumption 2. Given that $\|\mu_0(W, X)\|_{F,q} \leqslant \|Y\|_{F,q} \leqslant C$ in Assumption 4(i), we have

$$\|\mu_0(1, X)\|_{F,q} \leqslant C/\xi^{1/q} \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mu_0(0, X)\|_{F,q} \leqslant C/\xi^{1/q}.$$

Following a similar procedure, it can be shown that for any $\gamma \in \mathcal{T}_n$

$$\|\mu(1, X) - \mu_0(1, X)\|_{F,q} \leqslant C/\xi^{1/q} \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mu(0, X) - \mu_0(0, X)\|_{F,q} \leqslant C/\xi^{1/q}$$

Then we have

$$\|Y^*(\gamma)\|_{F,q} = \left\| \frac{W(Y - \mu(1,X))}{e(X)} - \frac{(1-W)(Y - \mu(0,X))}{1 - e(X)} + \mu(1,X) - \mu(0,X) \right\|_{F,q}$$

$$\leqslant \xi^{-1}(\|Y\|_{F,q} + \|Y\|_{F,q} + \|\mu(1,X)\|_{F,q} + \|\mu(0,X)\|_{F,q}) + \|\mu(1,X)\|_{F,q} + \|\mu(0,X)\|_{F,q}$$

$$\leqslant (1 + \xi^{-1})(\|\mu(1,X) - \mu_0(1,X)\|_{F,q} + \|\mu(0,X) - \mu_0(0,X)\|_{F,q}$$

$$\quad + \|\mu_0(1,X)\|_{F,q} + \|\mu_0(0,X)\|_{F,q}) + 2\xi^{-1}\|Y\|_{F,q}$$

$$\leqslant 4C(1 + \xi^{-1})/\xi^{1/q} + 2C\xi^{-1}$$

where the second line and the third line hold by the triangular inequality. Moreover,

$$\|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0)\|_{F,q} \leqslant \mathcal{I}_1 + \mathcal{I}_2 + \mathcal{I}_3 \tag{A.6}$$

where

$$\mathcal{I}_1 = \|\mu(1,X) - \mu_0(1,X)\|_{F,q} + \|\mu(0,X) - \mu_0(0,X)\|_{F,q}$$

$$\mathcal{I}_2 = \left\| \frac{W(Y - \mu(1,X))}{e(X)} - \frac{W(Y - \mu_0(1,X))}{e_0(X)} \right\|_{F,q}$$

$$\mathcal{I}_3 = \left\| \frac{(1-W)(Y - \mu(0,X))}{1 - e(X)} - \frac{(1-W)(Y - \mu_0(0,X))}{1 - e_0(X)} \right\|_{F,q}.$$

We have $\mathcal{I}_1 \leqslant 2C/\xi^{1/q}$ and

$$\mathcal{I}_2 \leqslant \xi^{-2}\|We_0(X)(Y - \mu(1,X)) - We(X)(Y - \mu_0(1,X))\|_{F,q}$$

$$\leqslant \xi^{-2}\|e_0(X)(U + \mu_0(1,X) - \mu(1,X)) - e(X)U\|_{F,q}$$

$$\leqslant \xi^{-2}(\|e_0(X)(\mu(1,X) - \mu_0(1,X))\|_{F,q} + \|U(e(X) - e_0(X))\|_{F,q})$$

$$\leqslant \xi^{-2}(\|\mu(1,X) - \mu_0(1,X)\|_{F,q} + C^{1/q}\|e(X) - e_0(X)\|_{F,q})$$

$$\leqslant \xi^{-2}C(\xi^{-1/q} + C^{1/q})$$

where the second inequality follows from that $W \in \{0,1\}$ and $Y = \mu_0(1,X) + U$ when $W = 1$, the fourth line follows from the fact that $e_0(X) \leqslant 1$ and Assumption 4(iv). Similarly,

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$\mathcal{I}_3 \leqslant \xi^{-2}C(\xi^{-1/q} + C^{1/q})$ and thus, $\|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0)\|_{F,q} \leqslant 2C(\xi^{-1/q} + \xi^{-2-1/q} + \xi^{-2}C^{1/q})$.

Notice that

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\mathbb{E}[\|g(D, \beta_0, \gamma)\|^q])^{1/q} &= \mathbb{E}[\|b(X)'(Y^*(\gamma) - b(X)\beta_0)\|^q]^{1/q} \\
&\leqslant C\|Y^*(\gamma) - b(X)\beta_0\|_{F,q} \\
&= C(\|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0) + Y^*(\gamma_0) - b(X)\beta_0\|_{F,q}) \\
&\leqslant C(\|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0)\|_{F,q} + \|Y^*(\gamma_0) - b(X)\beta_0\|_{F,q}) \\
&\leqslant 2C^2(\xi^{-1/q} + \xi^{-2-1/q} + \xi^{-2}C^{1/q}) + C^2
\end{aligned}
$$

where the fourth line follows from Assumption 4(iv). This gives the bound on m_n in Assumption 3.2(b). The bound on m_n' is given by Assumption 4(i) because the maximal eigenvalue of $b(X)'b(X)$ equals $\|b(X)\|$.

At last, we verify Assumption 3.2(c) in Chernozhukov et al. (2018).

$$
\|\mathbb{E}[g^a(D, \gamma)] - \mathbb{E}[g^a(D, \gamma_0)]\| = \|b(X)'b(X) - b(X)'b(X)\| = 0 \leqslant \delta_n'
$$

which gives the bound on r_n.

Notice that

$$
(\mathbb{E}[\|g(D, \beta_0, \gamma) - g(D, \beta_0, \gamma_0)\|^2])^{1/2} = (\mathbb{E}[\|b(X)\|^2|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0)|^2])^{1/2} \leqslant C\|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0)\|_{F,2}.
$$

Thus, to show the bound on r_n', it suffices to show the bound on $\|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0)\|_{F,2}$. Similar to the steps used in deriving the bound on (A.6) and that

$$
\|\mu(1, X) - \mu_0(1, X)\|_{F,2} \leqslant \delta_n/\xi^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mu(0, X) - \mu_0(0, X)\|_{F,2} \leqslant \delta_n/\xi^{1/2},
$$

we have $\|Y^*(\gamma) - Y^*(\gamma_0)\|_{F,2} \leqslant 2(\xi^{-1/2} + \xi^{-5/2} + \sqrt{C}\xi^{-2})\delta_n$, which gives

$$r'_n \leqslant 2C(\xi^{-1/2} + \xi^{-5/2} + \sqrt{C}\xi^{-2})\delta_n \leqslant \delta'_n$$

as long as C_ξ in the definition of δ'_n satisfies $C_\xi \geqslant 2C(\xi^{-1/2} + \xi^{-5/2} + \sqrt{C}\xi^{-2})$.

Finally, let

$$f(r) = \mathbb{E}[g(D, \beta_0, \gamma_0 + r(\gamma - \gamma_0))], \quad r \in (0,1).$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial_r^2 f(r) &= \partial_r^2 \mathbb{E}[b(X)'(Y^*(\gamma_0 + r(\gamma - \gamma_0))) - b(X)\beta_0] \\
&= 2\mathbb{E}\left[b(X)'\frac{W(\mu(1,X) - \mu_0(1,X))(e(X) - e_0(X))}{(e_0(X) + r(e(X) - e_0(X)))^2}\right] \\
&\quad + 2\mathbb{E}\left[b(X)'\frac{W(e(X) - e_0(X))^2(Y - \mu_0(1,X) - r(\mu(1,X) - \mu_0(1,X)))}{(e_0(X) + r(e(X) - e_0(X)))^3}\right] \\
&\quad + 2\mathbb{E}\left[b(X)'\frac{(1-W)(\mu(0,X) - \mu_0(0,X))(e(X) - e_0(X))}{(1 - e_0(X) - r(e(X) - e_0(X)))^2}\right] \\
&\quad - 2\mathbb{E}\left[b(X)'\frac{(1-W)(e(X) - e_0(X))^2(Y - \mu_0(X) - r(\mu(X) - \mu_0(X)))}{(1 - e_0(X) - r(e(X) - e_0(X)))^3}\right].
\end{aligned}
$$

By similar arguments used in previous steps and given that

$$W(Y - \mu_0(1,X)) = WU, \quad (1-W)(Y - \mu_0(0,X)) = (1-W)U, \quad \mathbb{E}[U|W,X] = 0, \quad |e(X) - e_0(X)| \leqslant 2$$

for some constant C'_ξ that depends only on ξ and C,

$$|\partial_r^2 f(r)| \leqslant C'_\xi \|\mu - \mu_0\|_{F,4} \times \|e - e_0\|_{F,4} \leqslant \delta'_n n^{-1/2}$$

as long as $C_\xi \geqslant C'_\xi$. This gives bound on λ'_n.

Thus all conditions of Assumption 3.1 and 3.2 in Chernozhukov et al. (2018) are verified and this completes the proof. $\qquad\square$
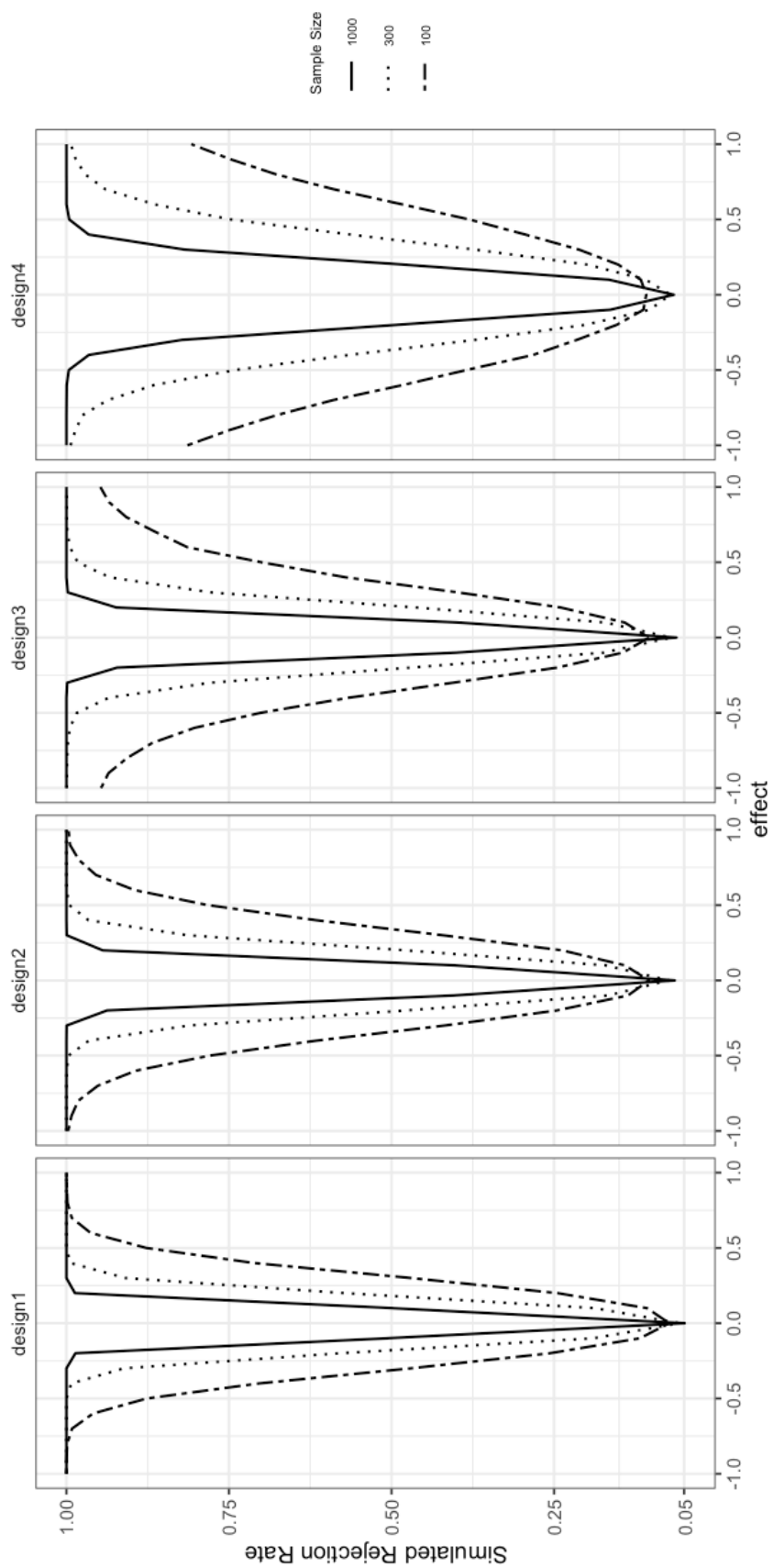
B   Tables and Figures

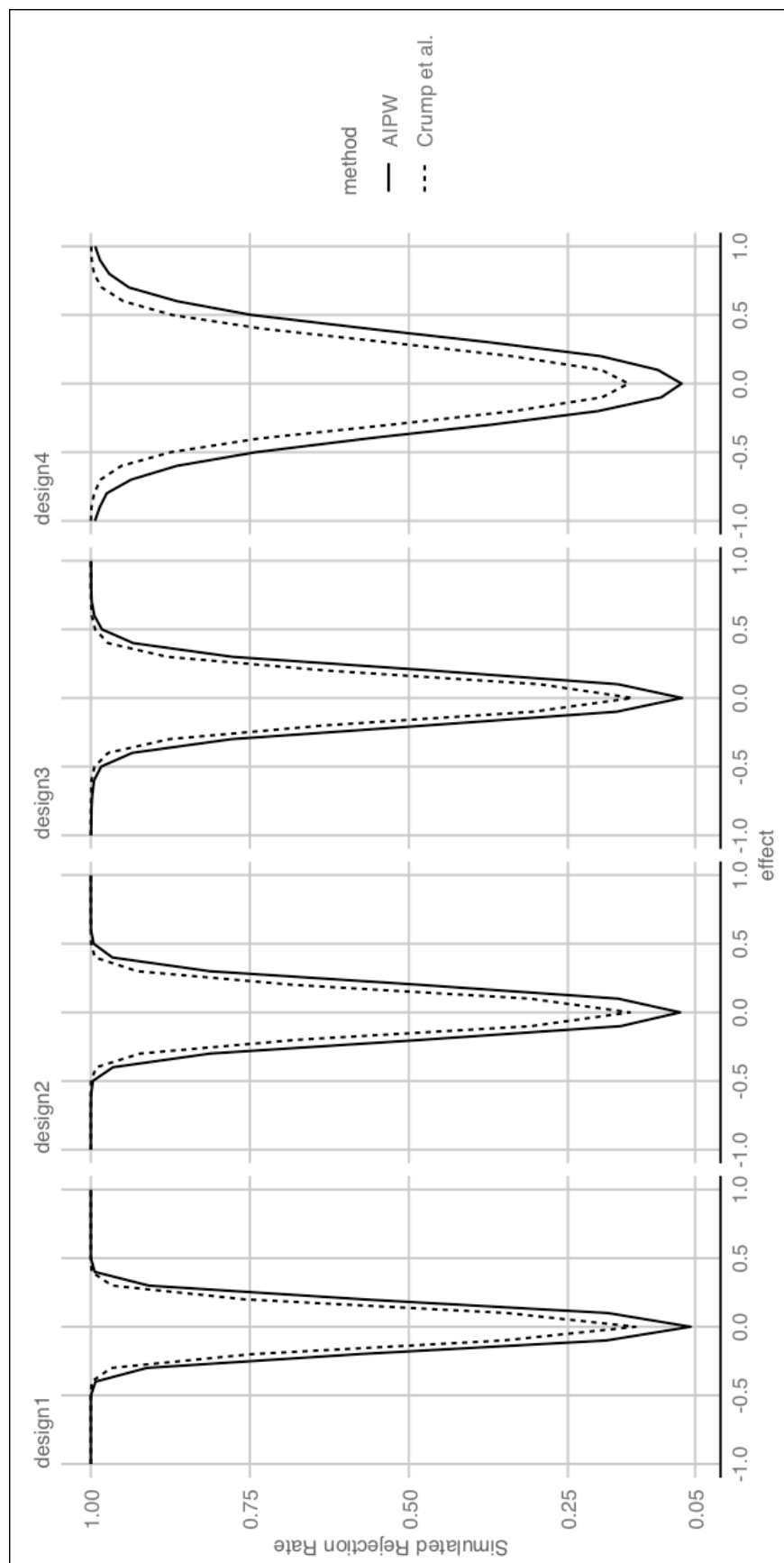Figure 2: Simulated Power of Test of Constant Treatment Effect

Figure 3: Comparison with Existing Parametric tests

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of CFPS Data

	Entire Sample	One-Child	Non-One-Child
Onechild	0.25		
	(0.44)		
Confidence	4.00	3.94	4.03
	(0.94)	(0.93)	(0.97)
Anxiety	4.62	4.62	4.62
	(0.68)	(0.68)	(0.68)
Desperation	4.71	4.66	4.73
	(0.62)	(0.68)	(0.60)
Age	26.15	25.71	26.31
	(4.33)	(3.95)	(4.44)
Urban	0.61	0.82	0.54
	(0.49)	(0.38)	(0.50)
Gender	0.55	0.61	0.53
	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.50)
Family Income	46182.69	59046.11	41806.08
	(50851.04)	(59205.72)	(46888.77)
Father Age	53.23	52.52	53.48
	(6.47)	(5.66)	(6.71)
Mother Age	51.34	50.75	51.54
	(6.01)	(5.38)	(6.21)
Father Edu Year	7.57	8.86	7.14
	(4.10)	(3.85)	(4.09)
Mother Edu Year	5.90	8.06	5.16
	(4.37)	(4.13)	(4.21)
Parents Divorced	0.02	0.03	0.01
	(0.13)	(0.17)	(0.12)
Parents Remarried	0.00	0.01	0.00
	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.06)
Han	0.94	0.96	0.94
	(0.24)	(0.20)	(0.25)
Marriage	1.59	1.46	1.63
	(0.54)	(0.56)	(0.52)
Personal Income	14188.20	18405.34	12753.38
	(25296.05)	(30051.27)	(23291.60)

The standard errors are in parentheses.

Table 6: CATE Regression Results for Confidence

	Estimate	SE	t test p-value
Intercept	0.69	0.43	0.1115
Age	0.00	0.02	0.9738
Urban	0.16	0.09	0.0965.
Gender	0.02	0.09	0.8582
Family Income	-0.06	0.10	0.5104
Father Age	0.01	0.01	0.5367
Mother Age	-0.03	0.02	0.1021
Father Edu Year	-0.02	0.01	0.0736.
Mother Edu Year	0.02	0.01	0.0862.
Parents Divorce	0.14	0.37	0.7102
Parents Remarriage	-0.44	0.75	0.5616
Han	-0.14	0.18	0.4412
Marriage	0.13	0.10	0.1757
Personal Income	0.75	0.20	0.0001***

p-value 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1
Family Income and Personal Income are scaled in 10^5 CNY.

Table 7: CATE Regression Results for Desperation

	Estimate	SE	t test p-value
Intercept	0.28	0.33	0.3891
Age	0.00	0.01	0.9437
Urban	0.08	0.07	0.2840
Gender	-0.10	0.07	0.1485
Family Income	-0.05	0.07	0.3919
Father Age	0.02	0.01	0.0817.
Mother Age	-0.03	0.01	0.0430*
Father Edu Year	-0.02	0.01	0.0164*
Mother Edu Year	0.02	0.01	0.0158*
Parents Divorce	0.10	0.28	0.7144
Parents Remarriage	-0.07	0.57	0.8959
Han	-0.03	0.14	0.8286
Marriage	0.00	0.07	0.9558
Personal Income	0.94	0.15	0.0000***

p-value 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1
Family Income and Personal Income are scaled in 10^5 CNY.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of 401(k) Data

	Entire Sample	Participants	Non-Participants
401(k) Participation	0.26		
	(0.44)		
401(k) Eligibility	0.37	1	0.15
	(0.48)	(0)	(0.36)
Net Financial Assets	18051	38262	10890
	(63523)	(79088)	(55257)
Income	36201	49367	32890
	(24774)	(27208)	(22316)
Age	41.06	41.51	40.90
	(10.34)	(9.55)	(10.57)
Male	0.21	0.19	0.21
	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.41)
Family Size	2.87	2.92	2.85
	(1.54)	(1.47)	(1.56)
Married	0.60	0.69	0.57
	(0.49)	(0.46)	(0.49)
Participation in IRA	0.24	0.36	0.20
	(0.43)	(0.48)	(0.40)
Defined Benefit Pension	0.27	0.39	0.23
	(0.44)	(0.49)	(0.42)
Home Owner	0.64	0.77	0.59
	(0.48)	(0.42)	(0.49)
Education Years	13.21	13.81	12.99
	(2.81)	(2.67)	(2.83)
Two Earners	0.38	0.50	0.34
	(0.49)	(0.50)	(0.47)

The Standard Deviations are in Parentheses. The outcome variable is the amount of net financial assets in US dollar. The treatment variable is a dummy variable for participating in 401(k) plans