

Political Methodology II

RDD

Apoorva Lal

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Stanford University

Roadmap

Recap of the course

Sharp RDD Setup

Sharp RDD Identification

Sharp RDD Estimation

Linear Model

Fuzzy RDD

Replication Example: Larreguy, Marshall, Querubin 2016

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- This works because we know the assignment mechanism and we design it to enable causal inference.

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 - Then we can get unbiased estimates of $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i} \mid X_i]$, and then take a weighted average over the values of X_i to get an overall treatment effect.

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- Difference-in differences
 - We assume that the treatment assignment is independent of the trajectory of potential outcome under control that units are following over time ("parallel trends"): $\mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}(1) - Y_{0i}(0)] \perp\!\!\!\perp D_i$.
 - Then we can use untreated units in time $t = 1$ to impute what the potential outcomes for the treated units would have been at $t = 1$ if they hadn't been treated.

Causal inference techniques (cont'd)

- Panel methods
 - Assume that treatment is independent of particular kinds of unobserved determinants of the outcome.
 - Then use de-meaning procedures or fixed effects to estimate what would have happened to treated units if they hadn't been treated (i.e. estimate the ATT).

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- Instrumental variables
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All of these methods rely on some (generally untestable) assumptions about how the treatment is assigned to various units.

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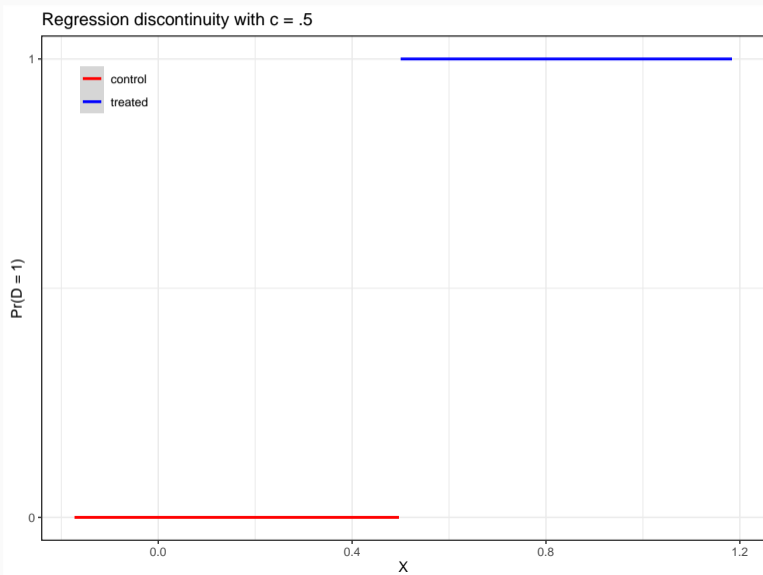
RDD Setup:

- X covariate, also called the forcing variable with a cutoff c that determines assignment to treatment
- Binary treatment variable:

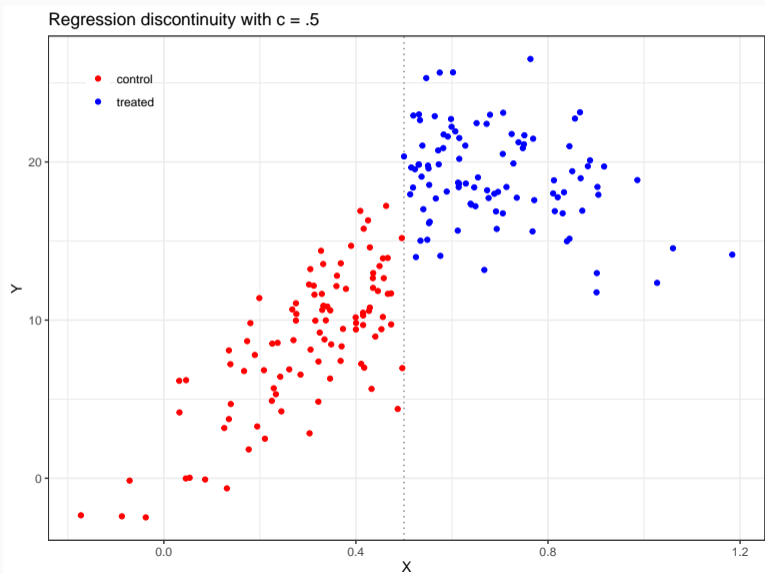
$$D_i = 1\{X_i > c\} \text{ so } D_i = \begin{cases} D_i = 1 & \text{if } X_i > c \\ D_i = 0 & \text{if } X_i < c \end{cases}$$

- Potential outcomes: Y_{1i}, Y_{0i}
- Y is the observed outcome: $Y_i = D_i \cdot Y_1 + (1 - D_i) \cdot Y_0$
- We allow the potential outcomes to be correlated with X
- We do require that potential outcomes be smooth around the threshold, c to identify the effect of treatment at the threshold

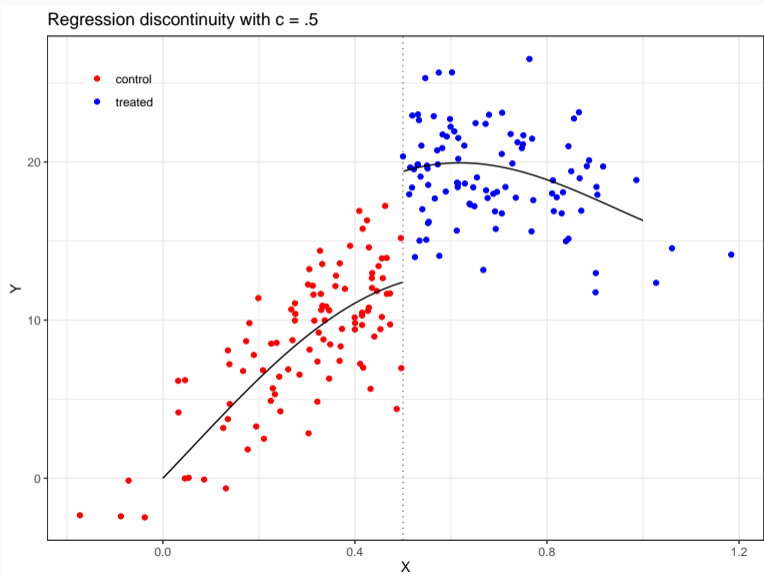
Example



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Identification Assumption

$\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}|X, D]$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}|X, D]$ are continuous around the threshold, “imprecise control over assignment”

We have a new estimand: average treatment effect **at the threshold**:

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_{RDD} &= \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}|X = c] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}|X = c] - \mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}|X = c] \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}|X = x] - \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} \mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}|X = x]\end{aligned}$$

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Why is identification challenging in this case? **Lack of overlap**: There is no value of X at which we get to observe both treatment and control observations. The effect is identified at the limit. This is why functional form is going to matter.

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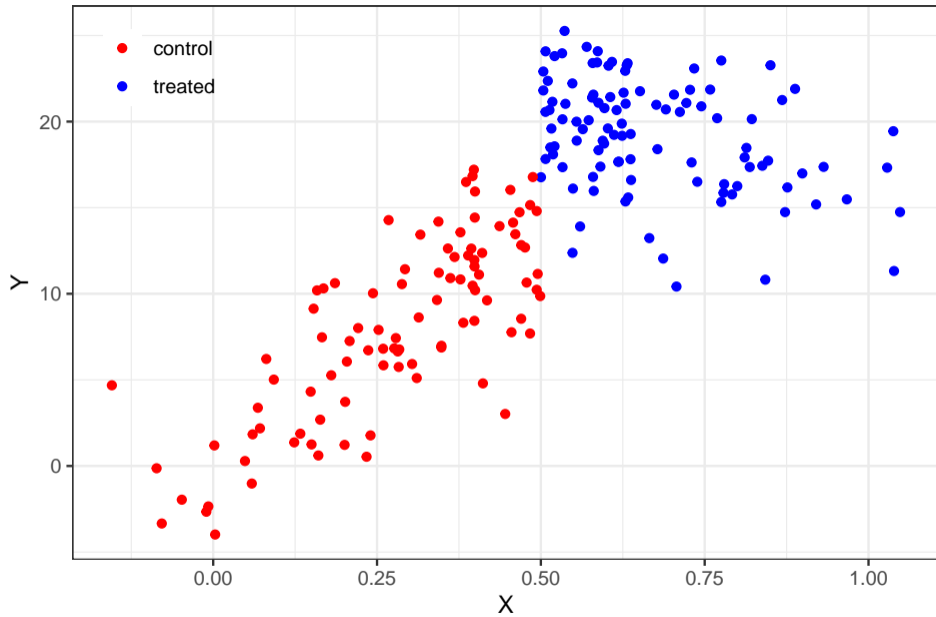
- When $X_i > c$, we know that $D_i = 1$, and when $X_i < c$, we know that $D_i = 0$.
- This means that we can use the data points above and below the cutoff to model $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} | X_i]$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y_{0i} | X_i]$, respectively.

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- This is a curve fitting problem. Out of habit, we start with linear functions, then use more flexible methods
- Intuition is to estimate a regression function on either side of the cutoff, then to find the gap between the predicted values at the cutoff c from the right side regression and the left side regression.



Estimation: Linear model

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$$\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[Y_i \mid X_i, D_i = 1]}{\partial X_i} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 \cdot 1$$

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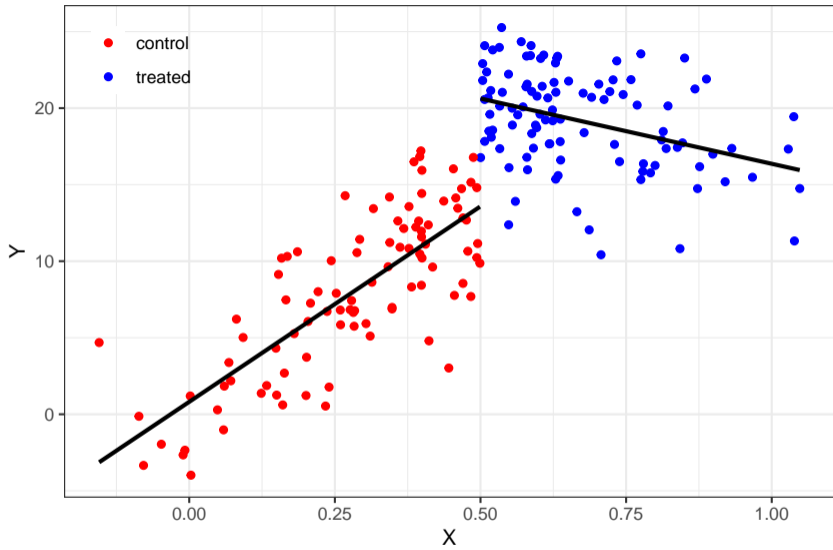
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What's the partial effect of D at the threshold?

$$\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[Y_i \mid D_i, X_i = c]}{\partial D_i} = \beta_2 + \beta_3 \cdot c$$



Estimation: Linear model

It's common practice to subtract c from X , so the cutoff is redefined as $\tilde{c} = 0$. Then we can run the regression

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 \tilde{X}_i + \beta_2 D_i + \beta_3 \tilde{X}_i \cdot D_i + u_i,$$

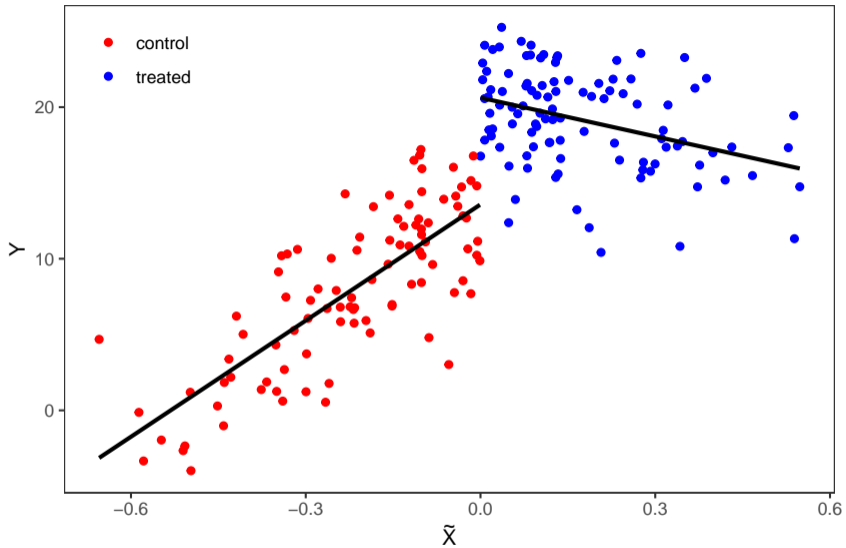
and now β_2 is directly interpretable as the differences in $\mathbb{E}[Y_1 | X]$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y_0 | X]$ at the cutoff.

```

dat$x.tilde = dat$X - .5
mod = lm(Y ~ D + x.tilde + D:x.tilde, dat)
coeftest(mod, vcov. = vcovHC(mod, "HC2"))

##
## t test of coefficients:
##
##           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 13.58153    0.61555  22.064 < 2.2e-16 ***
## D           7.04357    0.76171   9.247 < 2.2e-16 ***
## x.tilde     25.53883    2.39909  10.645 < 2.2e-16 ***
## D:x.tilde  -34.06120    3.15705 -10.789 < 2.2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

```

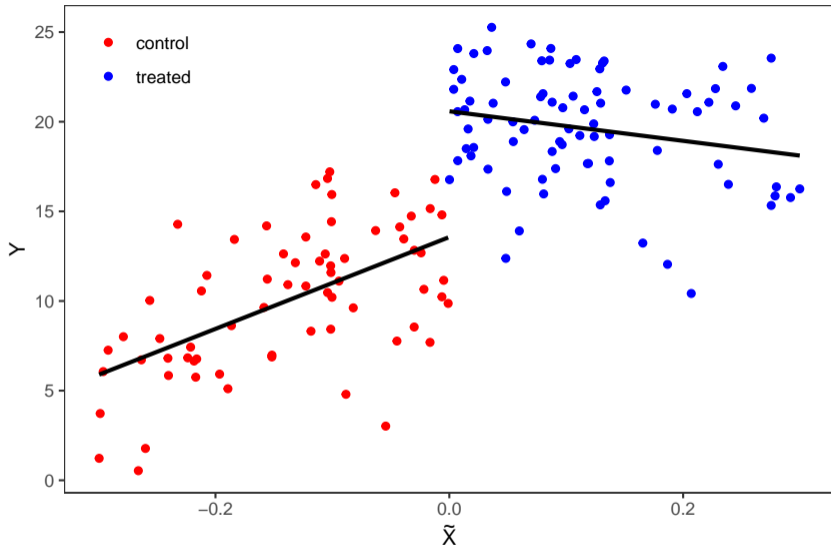


Estimation: Narrowing the bandwidth

We don't have global unconfoundedness, so using a bandwidth that is 'too wide' will bias the estimate. Common practice to use local methods to estimate the conditional expectation function.

```
# trim data to X within .3 of cutoff
trimdat = dat[abs(dat$x.tilde) < .3, ]
trimmod = lm(Y ~ D + x.tilde + D:x.tilde, trimdat)
coeftest(trimmod, vcov. = vcovHC(trimmod, "HC2"))

##
## t test of coefficients:
##
##           Estimate Std. Error t value  Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 13.56527   0.76122 17.8205 < 2.2e-16 ***
## D           7.01668   0.93197  7.5289 4.531e-12 ***
## x.tilde     25.59844   4.48616  5.7061 6.039e-08 ***
## D:x.tilde  -33.84314   6.04762 -5.5961 1.023e-07 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Adding flexibility

We can model the conditional expectation function more flexibly by specifying higher-order polynomials or using kernel methods:

```
quadmod = lm(Y ~ D * (x.tilde + I(x.tilde^2)), trimdat)
coeftest(quadmod, vcov. = vcovHC(quadmod, "HC2"))
```

```
##
## t test of coefficients:
##
##           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)   11.8269    0.9580 12.3454 < 2.2e-16 ***
## D              8.6089    1.2091  7.1201 4.436e-11 ***
## x.tilde       -11.9285   14.2598 -0.8365  0.404223
## I(x.tilde^2)  -128.6189   46.7517 -2.7511  0.006687 **
## D:x.tilde      7.0535    19.1304  0.3687  0.712876
## D:I(x.tilde^2) 116.5644   63.5090  1.8354  0.068467 .
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Why stop at quadratic?

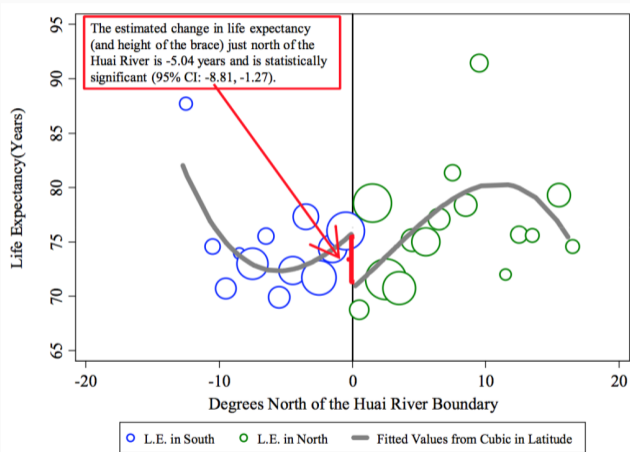


Fig. 3. The plotted line reports the fitted values from a regression of life expectancy on a cubic in latitude using the sample of DSP locations, weighted by the population at each location.

This introduces strong functional form dependence

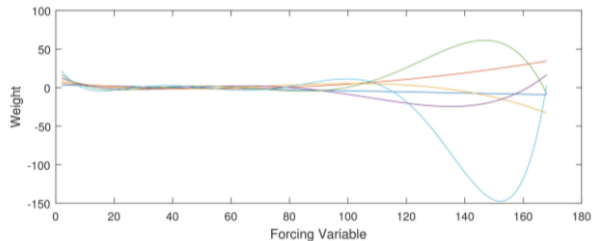
Why High-Order Polynomials Should Not Be Used in Regression Discontinuity Designs

Andrew GELMAN

Department of Statistics and Department of Political Science, Columbia University, New York, NY, 10027
(gelman@stat.columbia.edu)

Guido IMBENS

Graduate School of Business, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, and NBER, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305 (imbens@stanford.edu)



The 'right' way to add flexibility: Nonparametric CEF estimators

`rdrobust` from Calonico, Cattaneo, and Titiunik (2014)

Separate bandwidth selection and estimation steps.

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`rdrobust` from Calonico, Cattaneo, and Titiunik (2014)

Separate bandwidth selection and estimation steps. Antecedents:

Imbens-Kalyanaraman (IK) 2012

```
library(rdrobust)
nonparametic = rdrobust(dat$Y, dat$x.tilde)
cbind(nonparametic$coef, nonparametic$se, nonparametic$z)
```

```
##              Coeff Std. Err.      z
## Conventional  8.430291  1.173172  7.185892
## Bias-Corrected 8.788016  1.173172  7.490814
## Robust        8.788016  1.319503  6.660096
```

Subsequent work: **Imbens-Wager 2018**

Results can change based on the data you include, so it's common to re-estimate the model using different bandwidths.

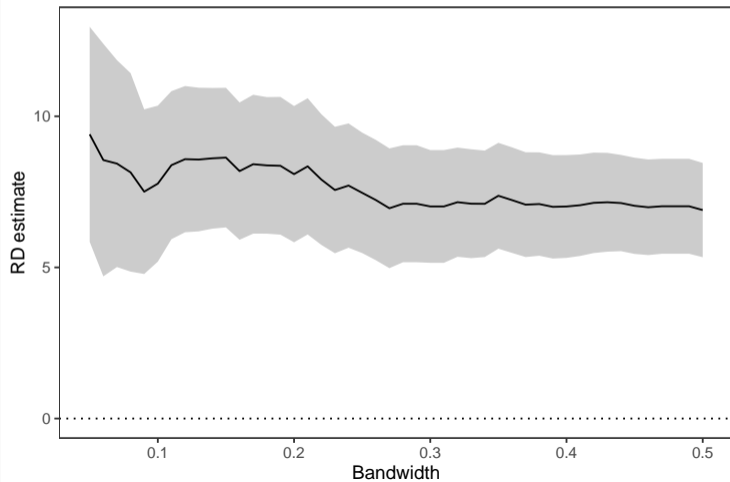
Assessing sensitivity

```
# create matrix w/ grid of bandwidths
sens = data.frame(bw = seq(.05, .5, .01), est = NaN, se=NaN)

# re-estimate linear RD model for each bandwidth
for (i in 1:nrow(sens)){
  mod = lm(Y~D*x.tilde, dat[abs(dat$x.tilde) < sens$bw[i], ])
  se = sqrt(vcovHC(mod, "HC2")[2,2])
  sens$est[i] = mod$coefficients["D"]
  sens$se[i] = se
}
```



```
ggplot(sens, aes(x = bw, y = est, ymin = est-2*se, ymax = est+2*se)) +  
  geom_hline(yintercept = 0, lty=3) +  
  geom_ribbon(fill = "grey80") +  
  geom_line() +  
  labs(x = "Bandwidth", y = "RD estimate")
```



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Fuzzy RDD Setup

- Fuzzy RDD is similar to instrumental variable encouragement treatments
- At the cutoff probability of getting treated jumps, but it is not 1.
- Z is the binary encouragement indicator that captures **only** whether units are above or below the threshold c : $Z = 1\{X > c\}$
- D_i remains the binary treatment indicator
- Observed treatment is:

$$D = Z \cdot D_1 + (1 - Z) \cdot D_0; \text{ so } D_i = \begin{cases} D_{1i} & \text{if } Z_i = 1 \\ D_{0i} & \text{if } Z_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

IV Assumptions

We keep the same terminology as in case of instrumental variables.
Who are compliers, always-takers, never-takers, defiers?

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_{FRDD} &= \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i} | X = c \text{ and } i \text{ is a complier}] \\ &= \frac{\text{outcome discontinuity}}{\text{treatment discontinuity}} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{E}[Y|Z = 1] - \mathbb{E}[Y|Z = 0]}{\mathbb{E}[D|Z = 1] - \mathbb{E}[D|Z = 0]}\end{aligned}$$

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You can use two-stage least squares regression to estimate the treatment effect:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \tilde{X} + \beta_2 (Z \cdot \tilde{X}) + \alpha D + \epsilon$$

where D is instrumented with Z .

Parties, Brokers, and Voter Mobilization: How Turnout Buying Depends Upon the Party's Capacity to Monitor Brokers

HORACIO LARREGUY *Harvard University*

JOHN MARSHALL *Harvard University*

PABLO QUERUBÍN *New York University*

▶ [Link](#)

Replication Example

- Main question: What is the effect of party monitoring on brokers effort on increasing turnout?
- Electoral rule in Mexico assigns an additional polling booth to every 750 voter.
- When there are more polling booths to an electoral precinct, parties have more precise information about how much effort brokers exert. Increased monitoring capacity should induce brokers to turn out additional voters.

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Let's work through the RDD setup:

- What are the outcomes?
- What is the treatment?
- What is the forcing variable? What is the cutoff?

Go to R code!