# Regression discontinuity I

#### **Session 10**

PMAP 8521: Program evaluation Andrew Young School of Policy Studies

### **Plan for today**

### Arbitrary cutoffs and causal inference

### Drawing lines and measuring gaps

### Main RDD concerns

# Arbitrary cutoffs and causal inference

## Quasi-experiments again

Instead of using carefully adjusted DAGs, we can use *context* to isolate/identify the pathway between treatment and outcome in observational data

**Diff-in-diff was one kind of quasi-experiment** 

Treatment/control + before/after

**Regression discontinuity designs (RDD) are another** 

Arbitrary rules determine access to programs

### Rules to access programs

Lots of policies and programs are based on arbitrary rules and thresholds

If you're above the threshold, you're in the program; if you're below, you're not (or vice versa)

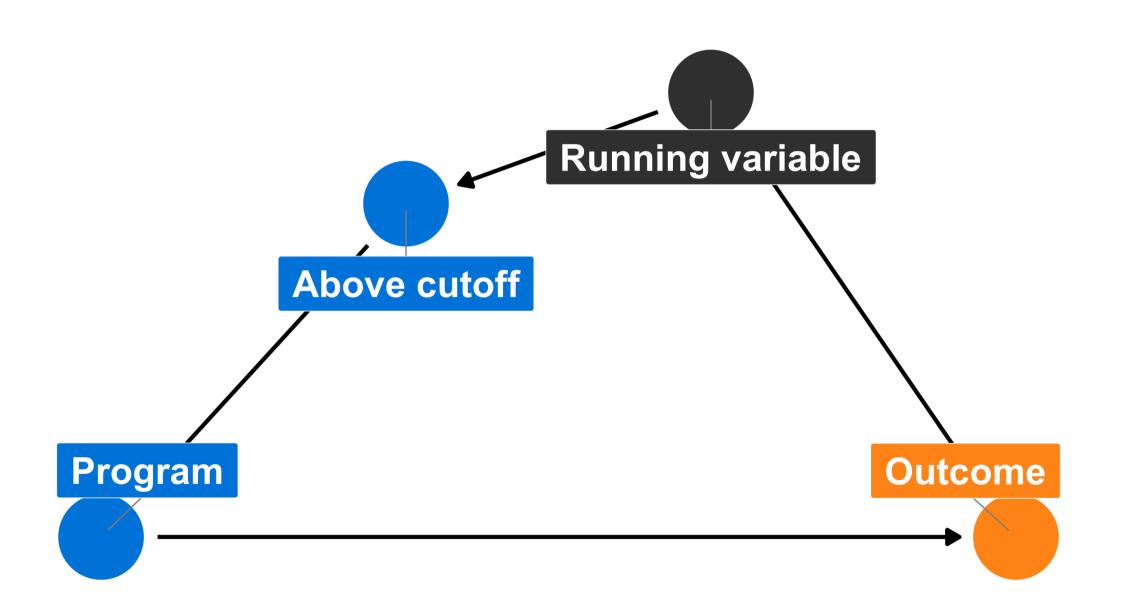


### **Running / forcing variable**

Index or measure that determines eligibility

### **Cutoff / cutpoint / threshold**

Number that formally assigns access to program



### **Discontinuities everywhere!**

Size	Annual	Monthly	138%	150%	200%
1	\$12,760	\$1,063	\$17,609	\$19,140	\$25,520
2	\$17,240	\$1,437	\$23,791	\$25,860	\$34,480
3	\$21,720	\$1,810	\$29,974	\$32,580	\$43,440
4	\$26,200	\$2,183	\$36,156	\$39,300	\$52,400
5	\$30,680	\$2,557	\$42,338	\$46,020	\$61,360
6	\$35,160	\$2,930	\$48,521	\$52,740	\$70,320
7	\$39,640	\$3,303	\$54,703	\$59,460	\$79,280
8	\$44,120	\$3,677	\$60,886	\$66,180	\$88,240



130%

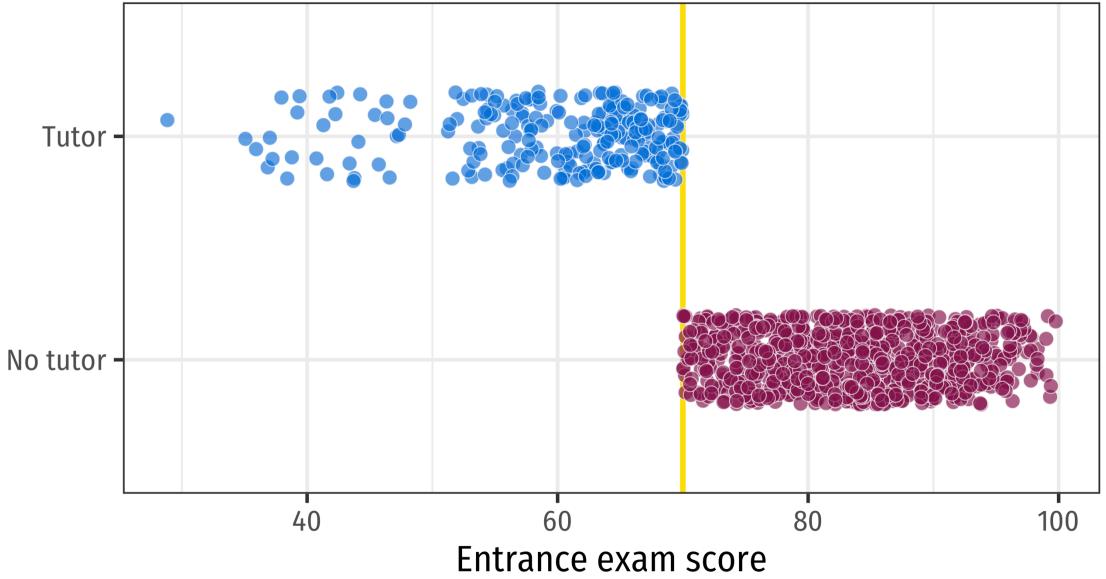
**Reduced lunch** 130–185%

## Hypothetical tutoring program

**Students take an entrance exam** 

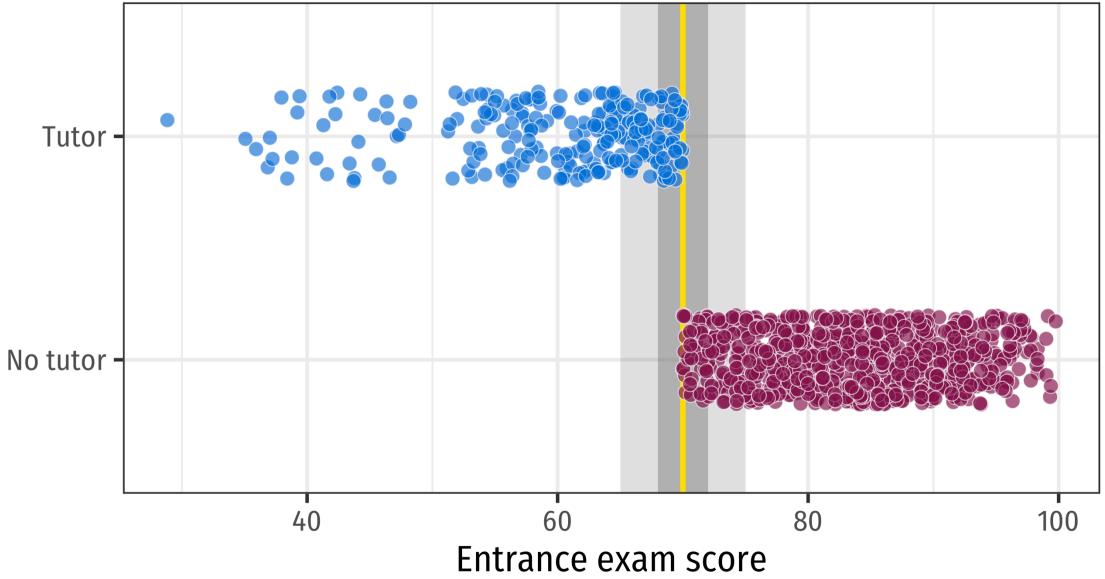
Those who score 70 or lower get a free tutor for the year

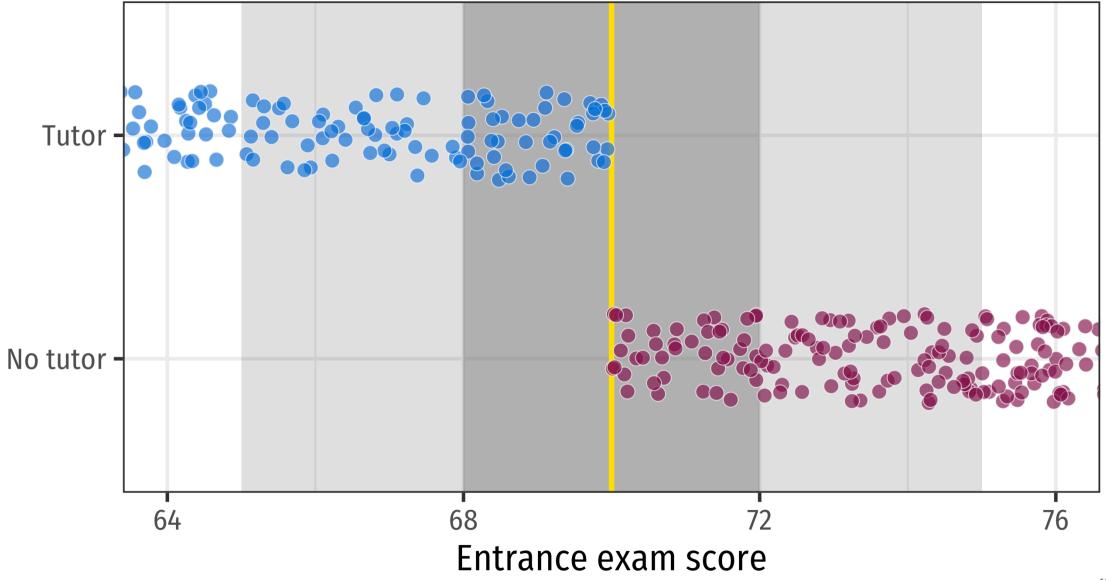
Students then take an exit exam at the end of the year



### **Causal inference intuition**

# The people right before and right after the threshold are essentially the same



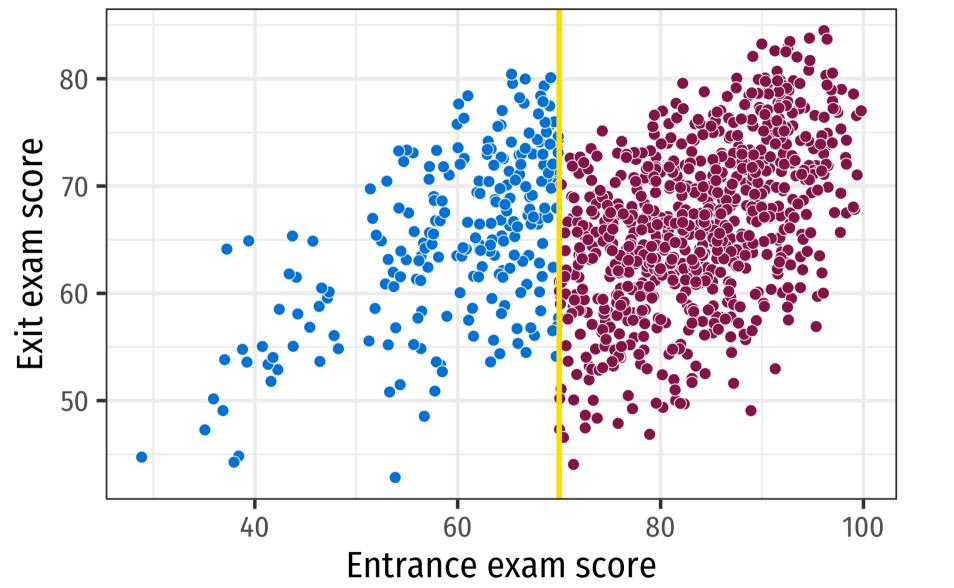


### **Causal inference intuition**

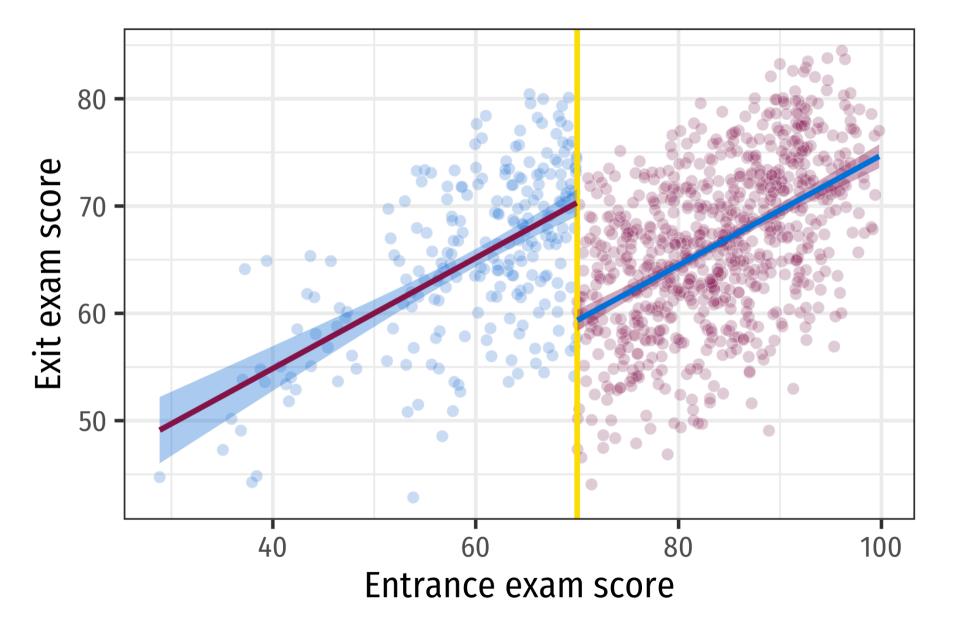
# The people right before and right after the threshold are essentially the same

### Pseudo treatment and control groups!

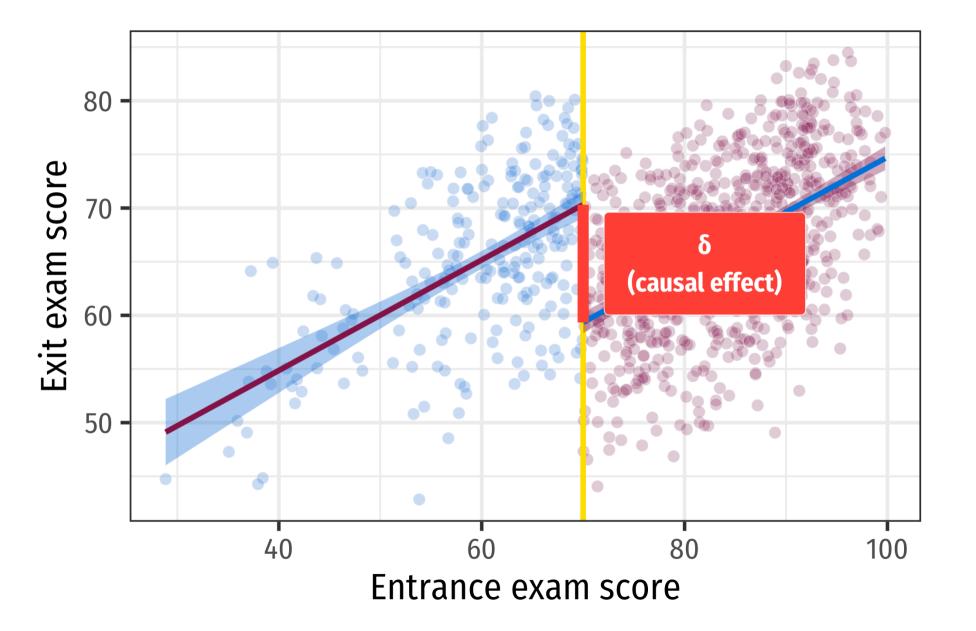
Compare outcomes for those right before/after, calculate difference



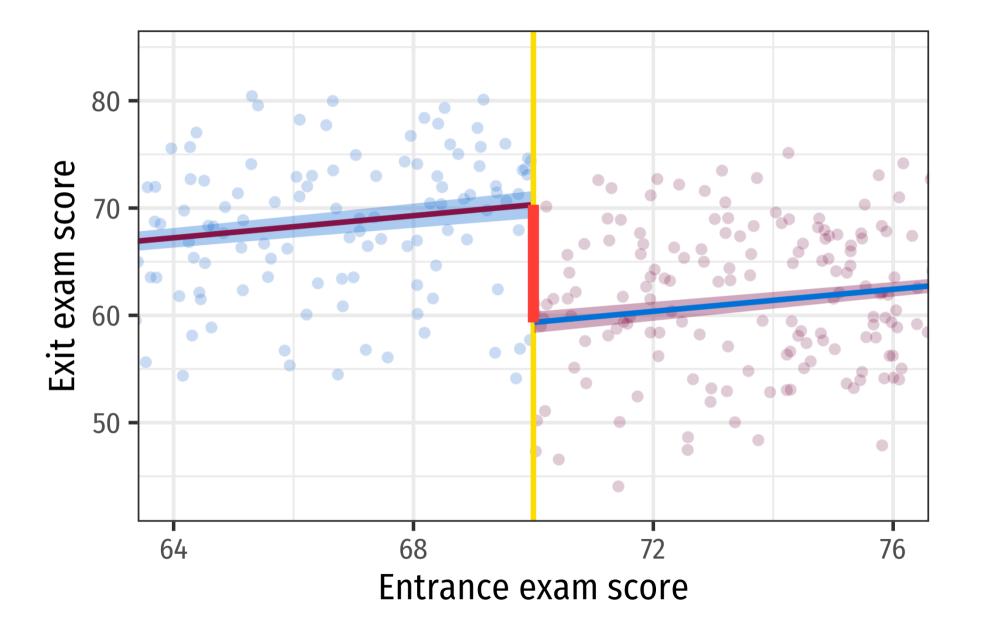














### **Geographic discontinuities**

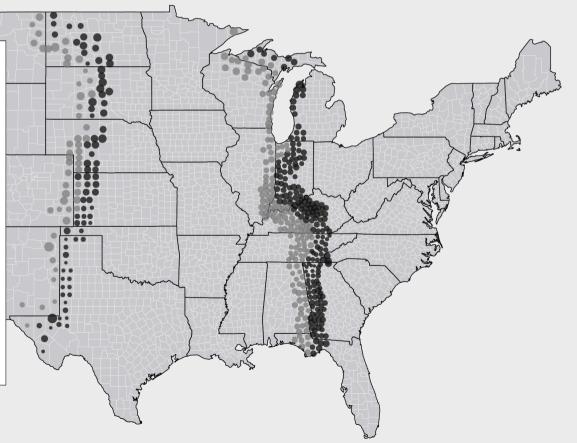
Turnout ● 0.2 ● 0.4 ● 0.6 Treatment Status (Eastern Side of Time Zone Border) · No · Yes

#### When Time Is of the Essence: A Natural Experiment on How Time Constraints Influence Elections

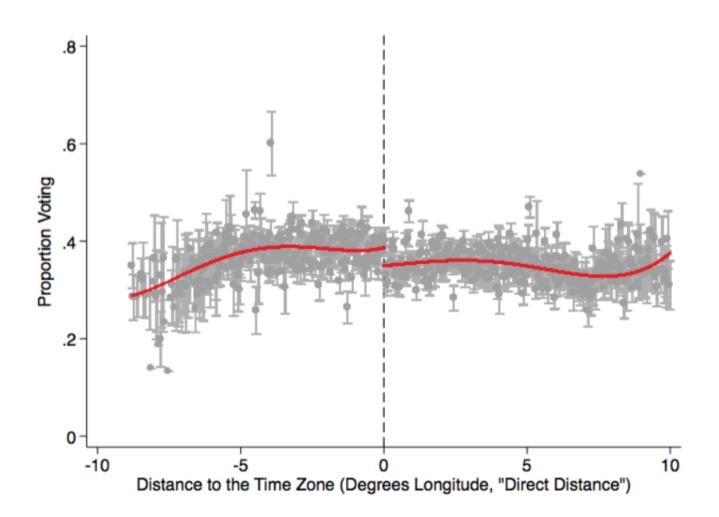
Jerome Schafer, Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich John B. Holbein, University of Virginia

Foundational theories of voter turnout suggest that time is a key input in the voting decision, but we possess little causal evidence about how this resource affects electoral behavior. In this article, we use over two decades of elections data and a novel geographic regression discontinuity design that leverages US time zone boundaries. Our results show that exogenous shifts in time allocations have significant political consequences. Namely, we find that citizens are less likely to vote if they live on the eastern side of a time zone border. Time zones also exacerbate participatory inequality and push election results toward Republicans. Exploring potential mechanisms, we find suggestive evidence that these effects are the consequence of insufficient sleep and moderated by the convenience of voting. Regardless of the exact mechanism, our results indicate that local differences in daily schedules affect how difficult it is to vote and shape the composition of the electorate.

Ithough in recent years the administrative barriers to voting have declined in many democracies (Blais 2010), many eligible citizens still fail to vote. In the United States, about 40% of registered voters do not participate in presidential elections, with abstention rates soaring as high as 60% in midterms and 70% in local elections (Hajnal and Trounstine 2016). Moreover, rates of political participation have remained stubbornly low among vulnerable groupsvote, many nonvoters report "not having enough time"—or a close derivative (e.g., "I'm too busy" or "[Voting] takes too long"; Pew Research Center 2006). Moreover, recent studies suggest that levels of turnout may be shaped by time costs such as how long it takes to register to vote (Leighley and Nagler 2013), to find and travel to a polling location (Brady and McNulty 2011; Dyck and Gimpel 2005), and to wait in line to vote (Pettigrew 2016).



### **Geographic discontinuities**



Lower turnout in counties on the eastern side of the boundary

Election schedules cause fluctuations in turnout

### **Time discontinuities**

#### After Midnight: A Regression Discontinuity Design in Length of Postpartum Hospital Stays<sup>†</sup>

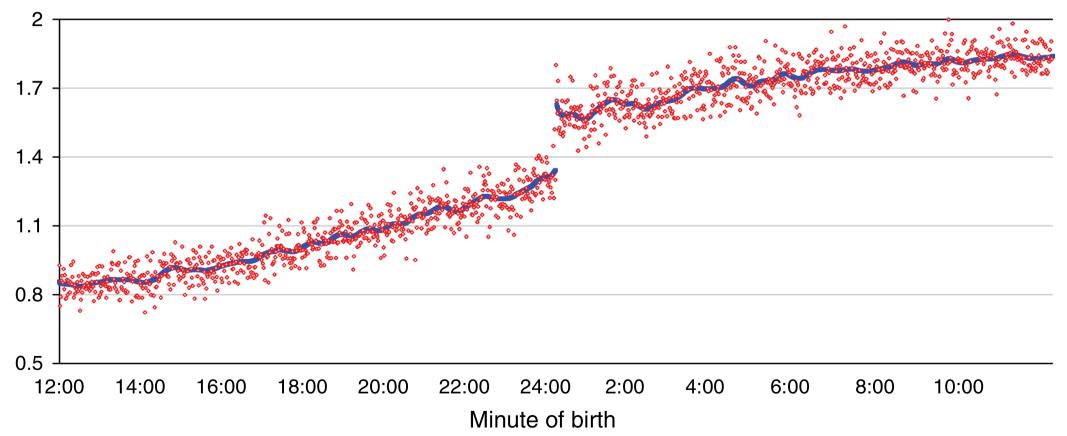
By Douglas Almond and Joseph J. Doyle Jr.\*

Estimates of moral hazard in health insurance markets can be confounded by adverse selection. This paper considers a plausibly exogenous source of variation in insurance coverage for childbirth in California. We find that additional health insurance coverage induces substantial extensions in length of hospital stay for mother and newborn. However, remaining in the hospital longer has no effect on readmissions or mortality, and the estimates are precise. Our results suggest that for uncomplicated births, minimum insurance mandates incur substantial costs without detectable health benefits. (JEL D82, G22, I12, I18, J13) California requires that insurance cover two days of post-partum hospitalization

Does extra time in the hospital improve health outcomes?

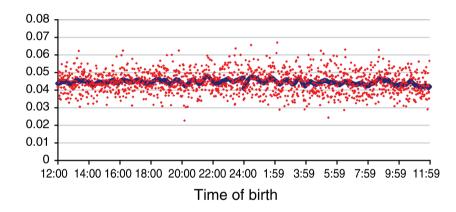
### **Time discontinuities**

Panel B. Additional midnights: after law change

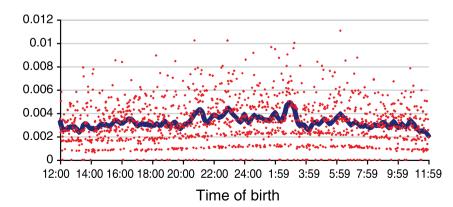


### **Time discontinuities**

Panel B. Twenty-eight day readmission rate: after law change



Panel D. Twenty-eight day mortality rate: after law change



...but delivering at 12:01 AM has no effect on readmission rates or mortality rates

### **Test score discontinuities**

#### THE EFFECT OF ATTENDING THE FLAGSHIP STATE UNIVERSITY ON EARNINGS: A DISCONTINUITY-BASED APPROACH

#### Mark Hoekstra\*

*Abstract*—This paper examines the effect of attending the flagship state university on the earnings of 28 to 33 year olds by combining confidential admissions records from a large state university with earnings data collected through the state's unemployment insurance program. To distinguish the effect of attending the flagship state university from the effects of confounding factors correlated with the university's admission decision or the applicant's enrollment decision, I exploit a large discontinuity in the probability of enrollment at the admission cutoff. The results indicate that attending the most selective state university causes earnings to be approximately 20% higher for white men.

#### I. Introduction

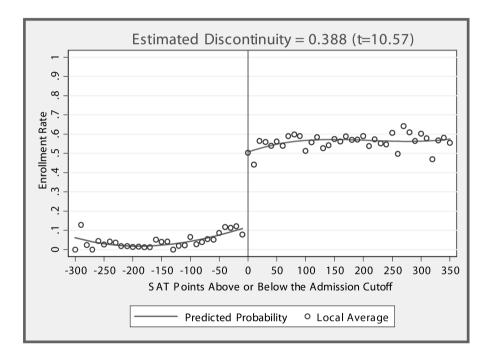
W HILE there has been considerable study of the effect of educational attainment on earnings, less is known regarding the economic returns to college quality. This paper examines the economic returns to college quality in the context of attending the most selective public state university. It does so using an intuitive regression discontinuity design that compares the earnings of 28 to 33 year olds who were barely admitted to the flagship to those of individuals who were barely rejected.

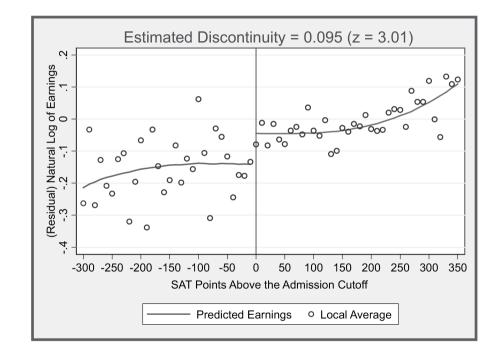
Convincingly estimating the economic returns to college quality requires overcoming the selection bias arising from the fact that attendance at more selective universities is likely correlated with unobserved characteristics that themleges but chose to attend less selective institutions. They find that attending more selective colleges has a positive effect on earnings only for students from low-income families. Brewer, Eide, and Ehrenberg (1999) estimate the payoff by explicitly modeling high school students' choice of college type and find significant returns to attending an elite private institution for all students. Behrman, Rozenzweig, and Taubman (1996) identify the effect by comparing female twin pairs and find evidence of a positive payoff from attending Ph.D.-granting private universities with wellpaid senior faculty. Using a similar approach, Lindahl and Regner (2005) use Swedish sibling data and show that cross-sectional estimates of the selective college wage premium are twice the within-family estimates.

This paper uses a different strategy in that it identifies the effect of school selectivity on earnings by comparing the earnings of those just below the cutoff for admission to the flagship state university to those of applicants who were barely above the cutoff for admission. To do so, I combined confidential administrative records from a large flagship state university with earnings records collected by the state through the unemployment insurance program. To put the selectivity of the flagship in context, the average SAT scores Does going to the main state university (e.g. UGA) make you earn more money?

SAT scores are an arbitrary cutoff for accessing the university

### **Test score discontinuities**





### Earnings are slightly higher

### **Cutoff seems rule-based**

### RDDs are all the rage

### **People love these things!**

### They're intuitive, compelling, and highly graphical

#### ABSTRACT

### Methods Matter: P-Hacking and Causal Inference in Economics<sup>\*</sup>

The economics 'credibility revolution' has promoted the identification of causal relationships using difference-in-differences (DID), instrumental variables (IV), randomized control trials (RCT) and regression discontinuity design (RDD) methods. The extent to which a reader should trust claims about the statistical significance of results proves very sensitive to method. Applying multiple methods to 13,440 hypothesis tests reported in 25 top economics journals in 2015, we show that selective publication and p-hacking is a substantial problem in research employing DID and (in particular) IV. RCT and RDD are much less problematic. Almost 25% of claims of marginally significant results in IV papers are misleading.

 JEL Classification:
 A11, B41, C13, C44

 Keywords:
 research methods, causal inference, p-curves, p-hacking, publication bias

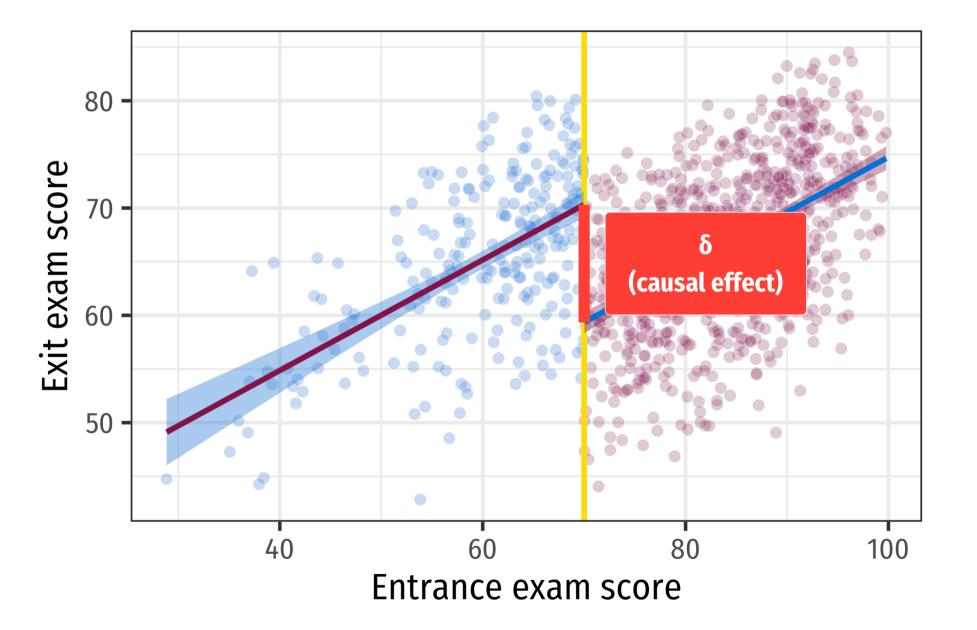
RDD less susceptible to phacking and selective publication than DID or IV

# Drawing lines and measuring gaps

## Main goal of RD

Measure the gap in outcome for people on both sides of the cutpoint

### Gap = δ = local average treatment effect (LATE)





## Drawing lines

The size of the gap depends on how you draw the lines on each side of the cutoff

The type of lines you choose can change the estimate of  $\delta$ —sometimes by a lot!

### There's no one right way to draw lines!

## Line-drawing considerations

### Parametric vs. non-parametric lines

### Measuring the gap

Bandwidths

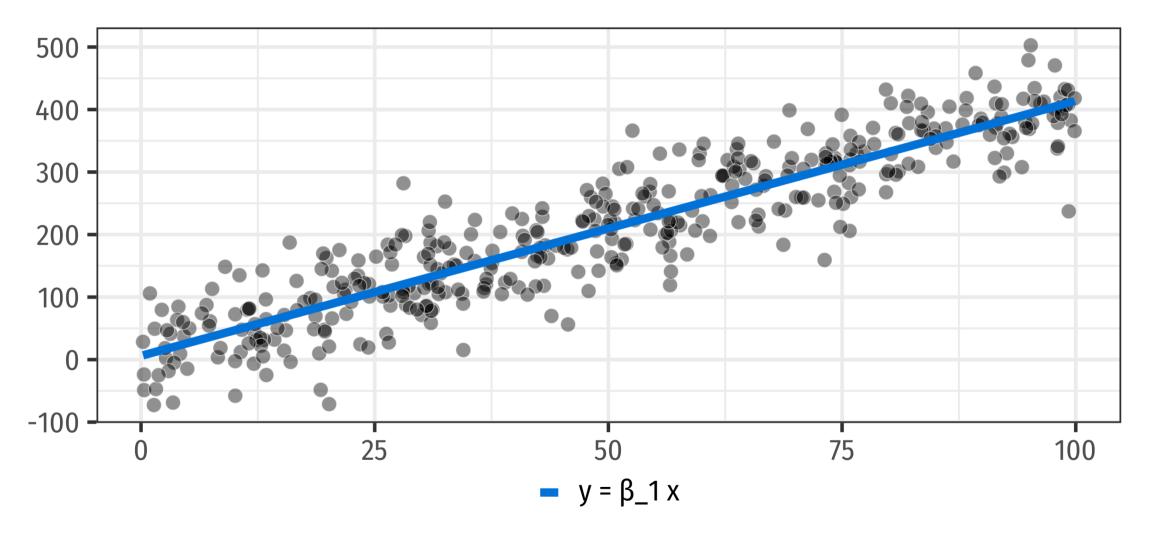
Kernels

### **Parametric lines**

### **Formulas with** *parameters*

y = mx + b

$$y=eta_0+eta_1x_1+eta_2x_2$$



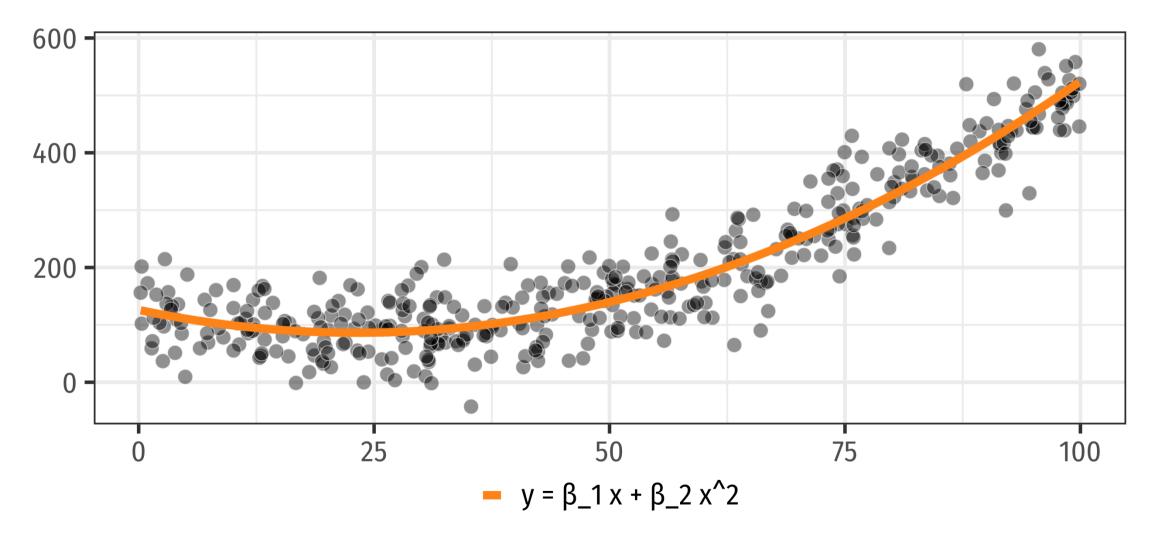
### **Parametric lines**

### Not just for straight lines! Make curvy with exponents or trigonometry

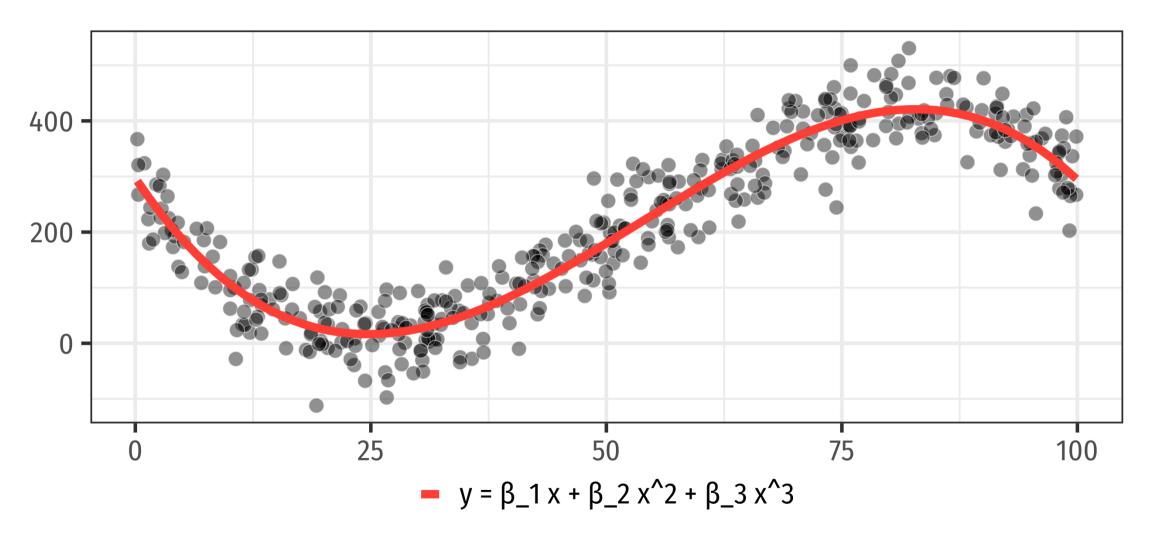
$$y=eta_0+eta_1x+eta_2x^2+eta_3x^7$$

$$y=eta_0+eta_1x+eta_2\sin(x)$$

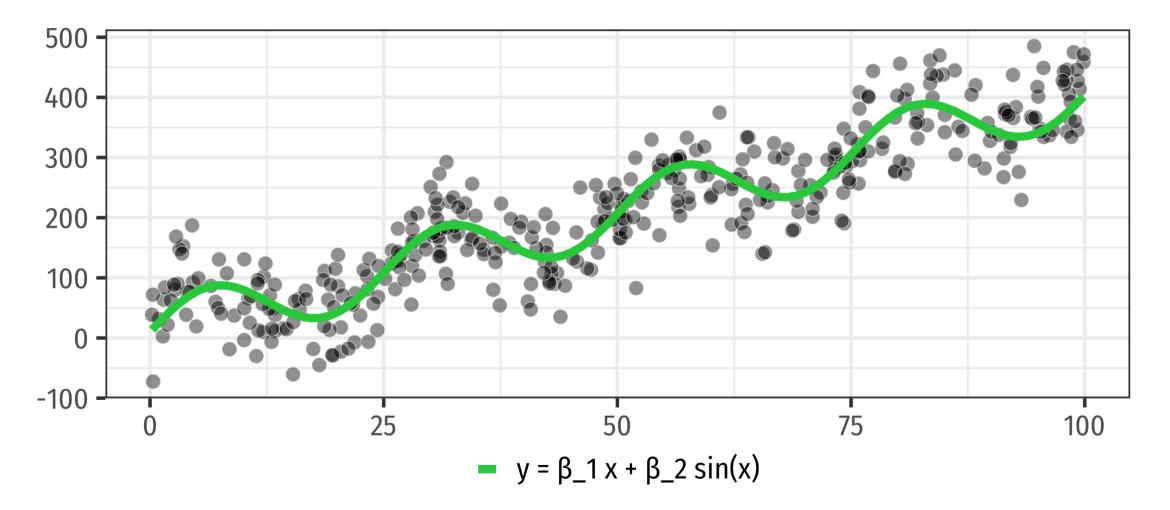
$$y = 120 - 3x + 0.07x^2$$



 $y = 300 - 25x + 0.65x^2 - 0.004x^3$ 



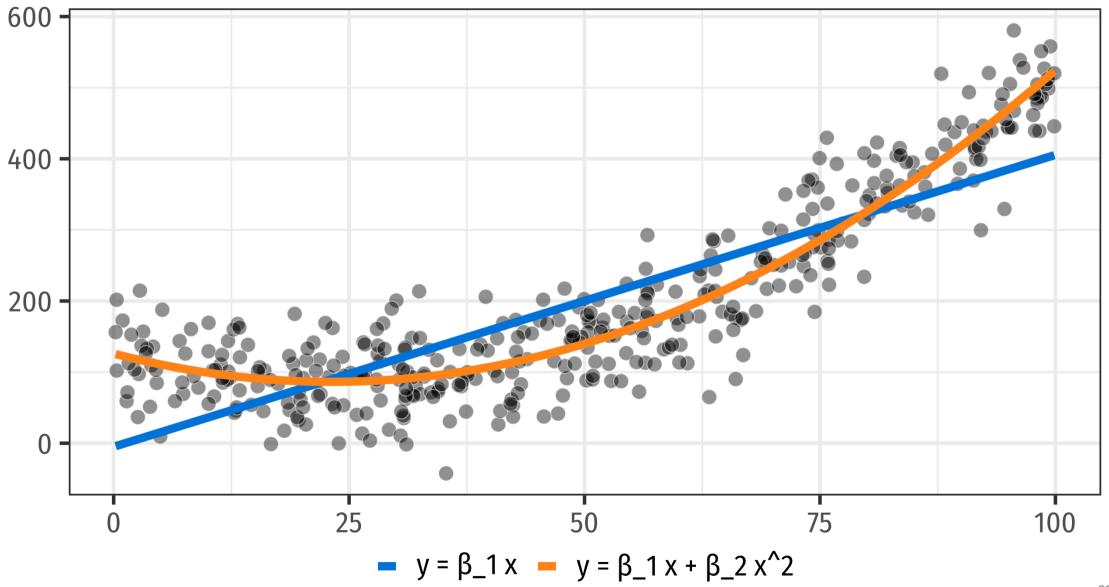
$$y=10+4x+50 imes \sin(rac{x}{4})$$

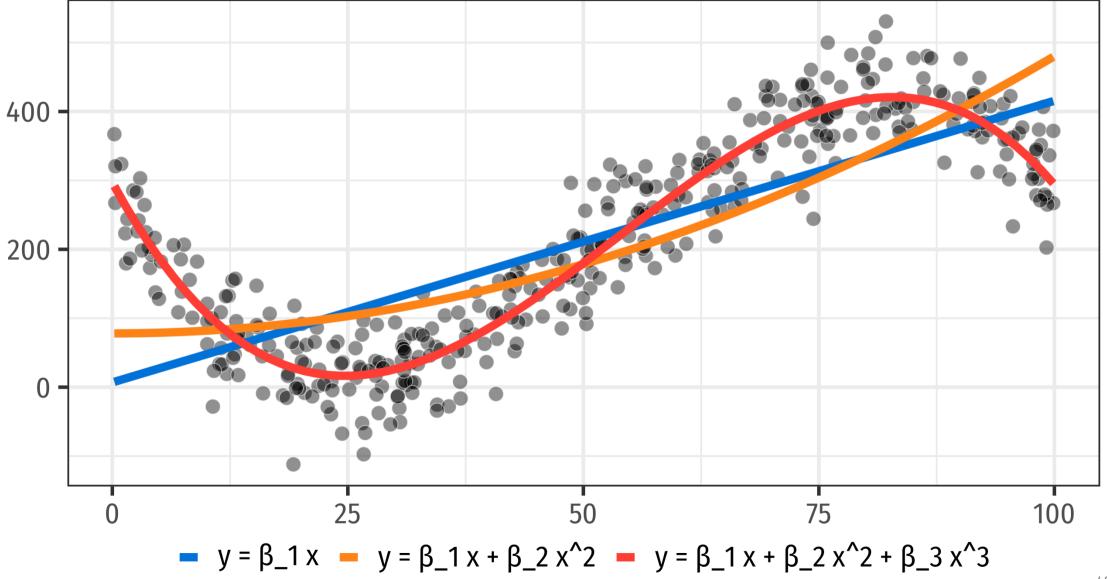


### **Parametric lines**

### It's important to get the parameters right!

### Line should fit the data pretty well





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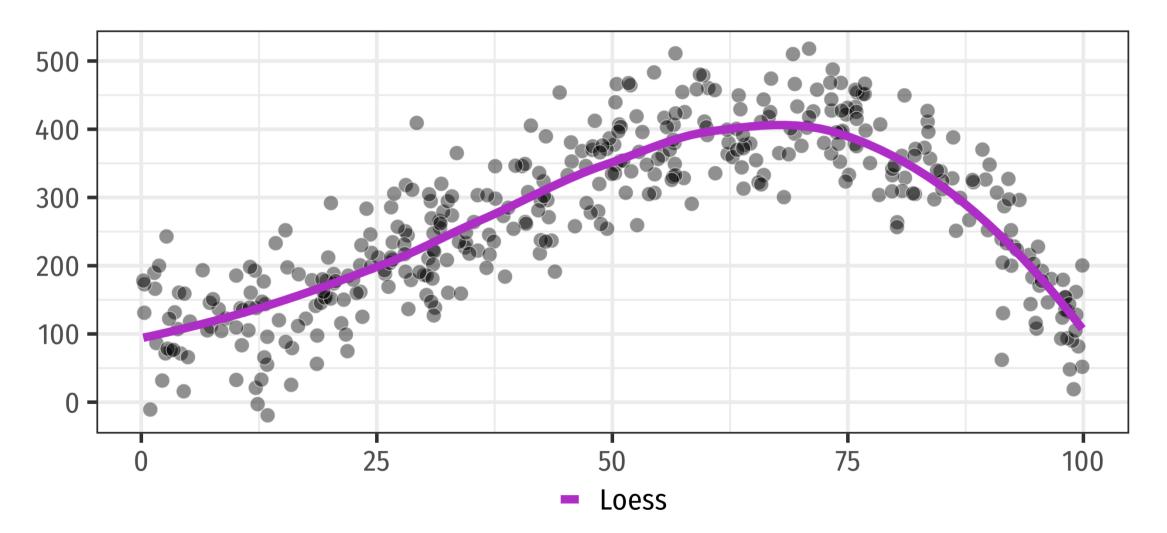
### Nonparametric lines

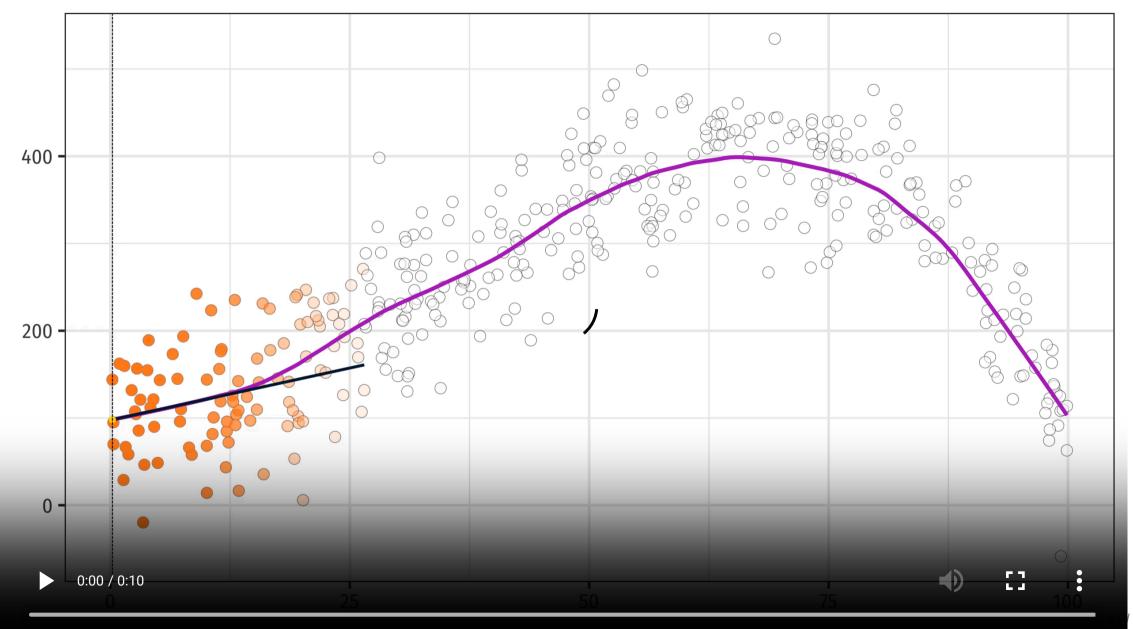
**Lines without parameters** 

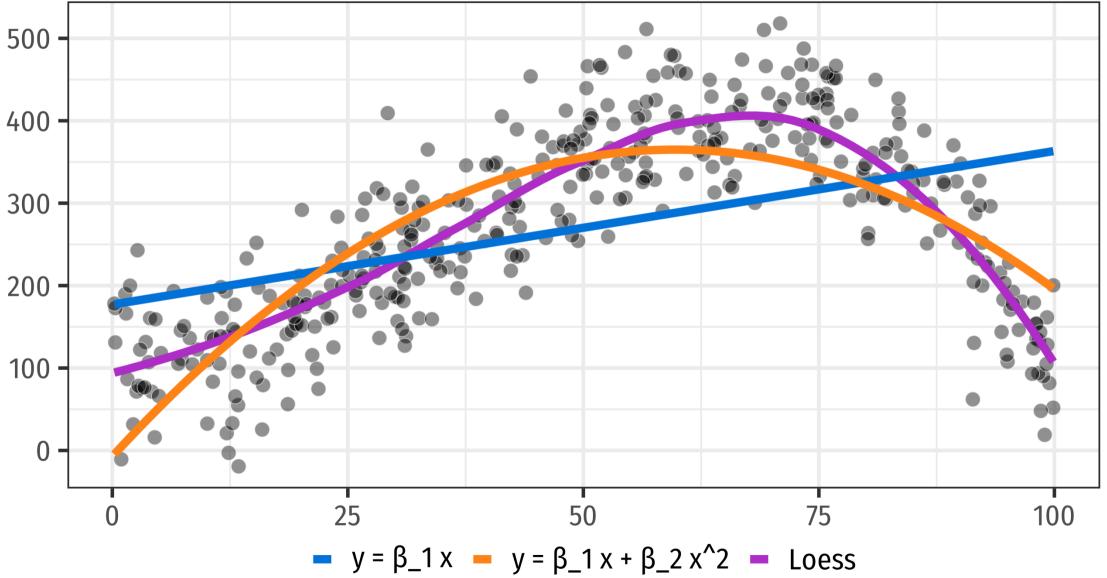
Use the data to find the best line, often with windows and moving averages

Locally estimated/weighted scatterplot smoothing (LOESS/LOWESS) is a common method (but not the only one!)

y =who knows?

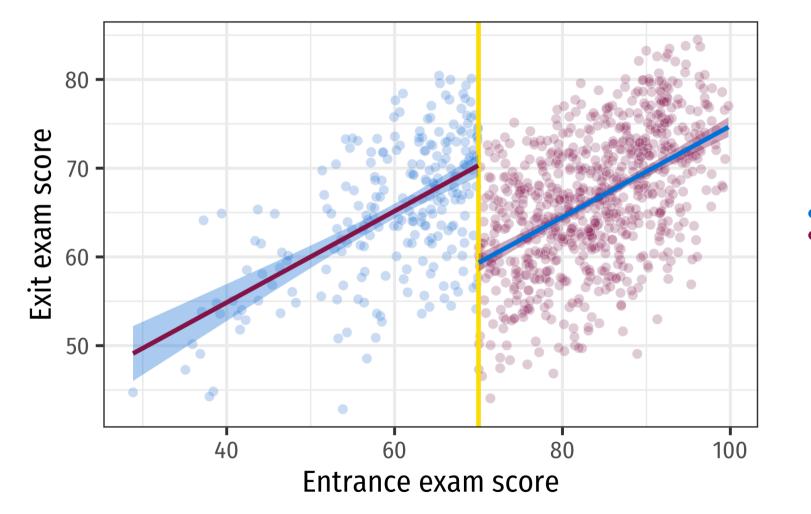


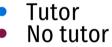




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# Measuring gap with parametric lines





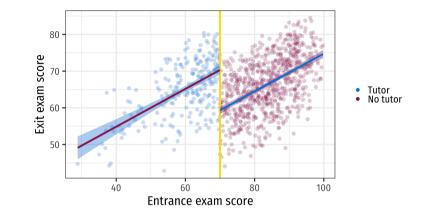
# Measuring gap with parametric lines

### Easiest way: center the running variable around the threshold

id	exit_exam	entrance_exam	entrance_centered	tutoring
1	78	92	22	FALSE
2	58	73	3	FALSE
3	62	54	-16	TRUE
4	67	98	28	FALSE
5	54	70	0	TRUE

 $y = eta_0 + eta_1 ext{Running variable} ext{ (centered)} + eta_2 ext{Indicator for treatment}$ 

# Measuring gap with parametric lines

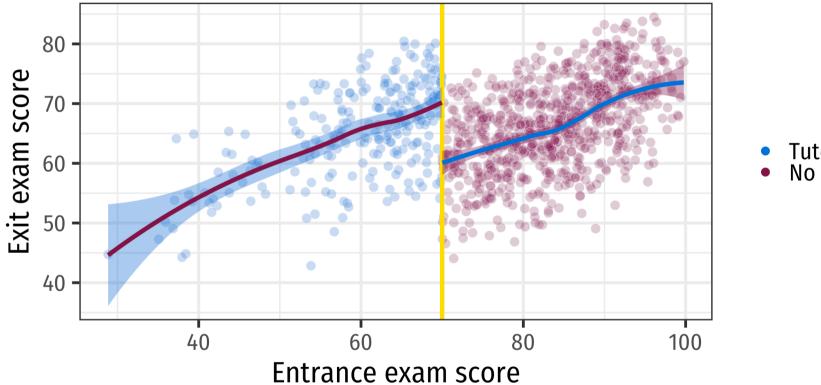


```
program_data <- tutoring |>
  mutate(entrance_centered =
        entrance_exam - 70)
model1 <- lm(exit_exam ~
        entrance_centered + tutoring,
        data = program_data)</pre>
```

#### tidy(model1)

##	#	A tibble: 3 × 3		
##		term	estimate	std.error
##		<chr></chr>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>
##	1	(Intercept)	59.3	0.440
##	2	entrance_centered	0.514	0.0268
##	3	tutoringTRUE	11.0	0.802

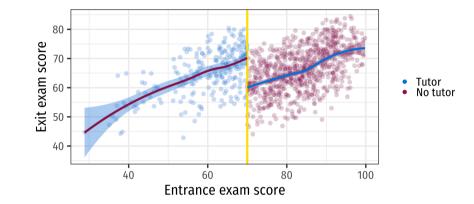
# Measuring gap with nonparametric lines



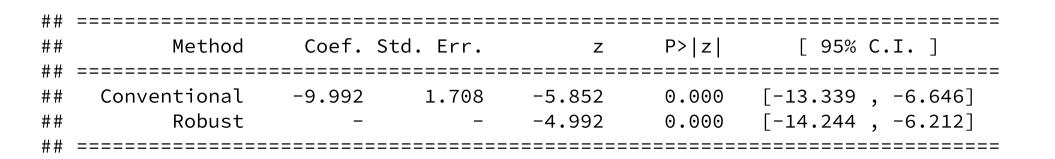
Tutor No tutor

Can't use regression; use rdrobust R package

# Measuring gap with nonparametric lines



rdrobust(y = tutoring\$exit\_exam, x = tutoring\$entrance\_exam, c = 70)



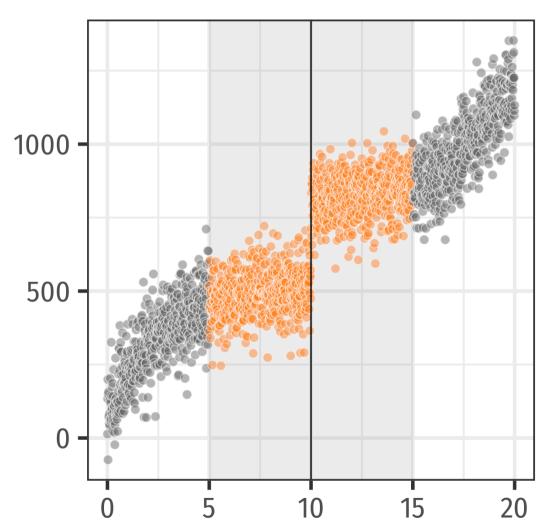
### Bandwidths

All you really care about is the area right around the cutoff

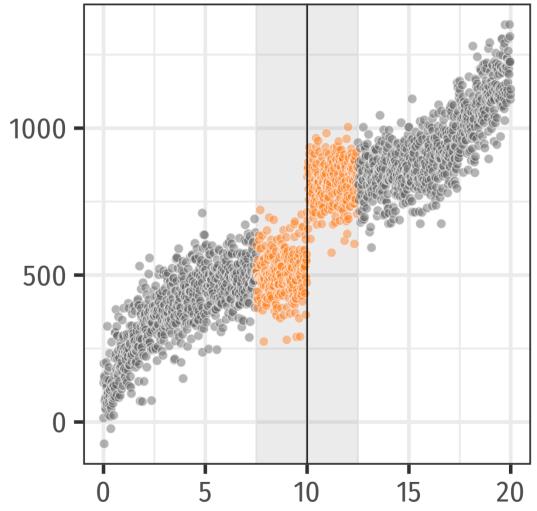
Observations far away don't matter because they're not comparable

**Bandwidth = window around cutoff** 

### Bandwidth = 5



### **Bandwidth = 2.5**



### Bandwidths

### Algorithms exist to choose optimal width

### Also use common sense

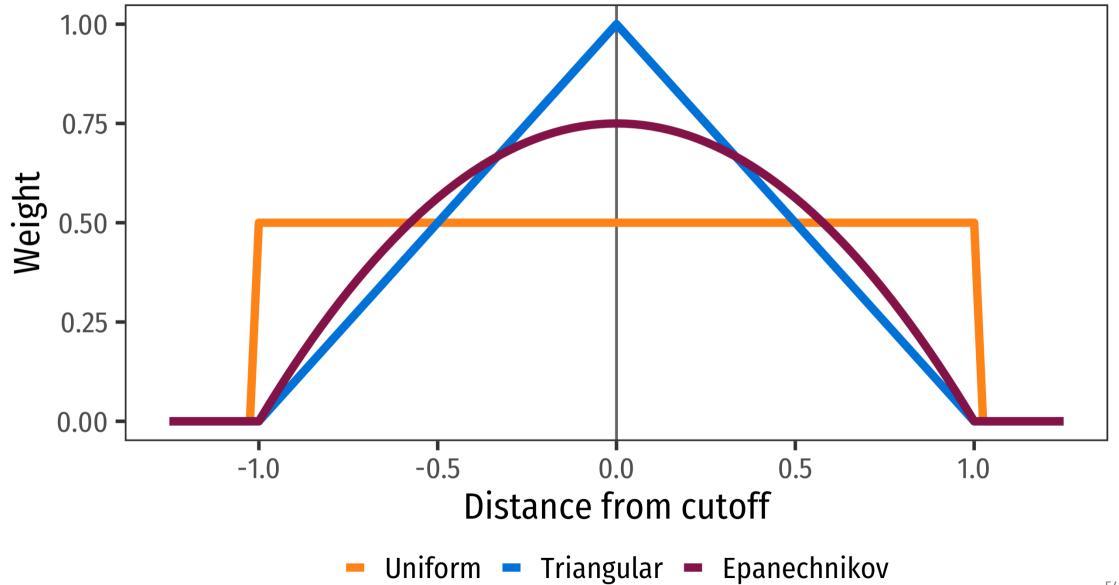
Maybe ±5 for the entrance exam?

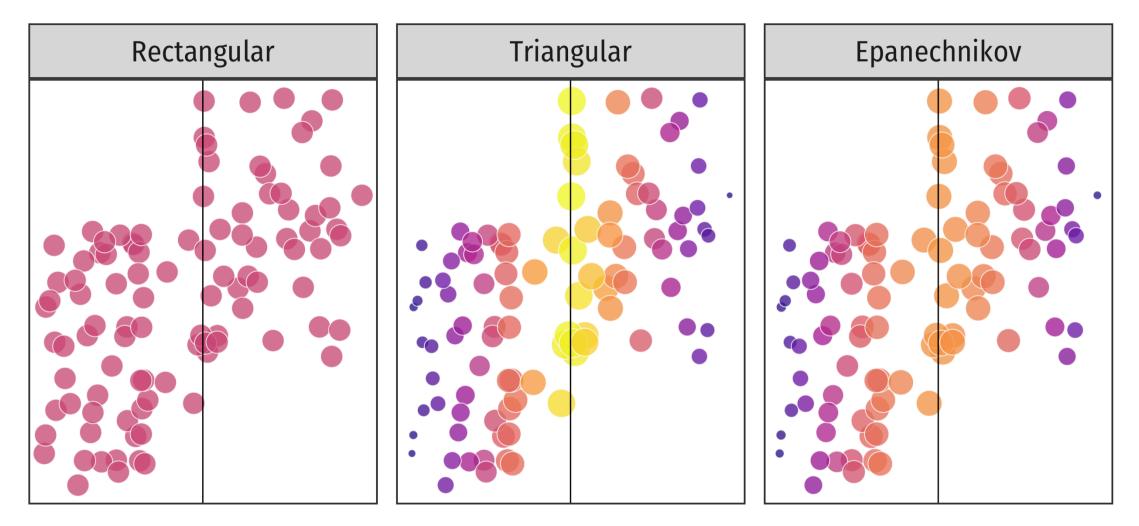
For robustness, check what happens if you double and halve the bandwidth

### Kernels

Because we care the most about observations right by the cutoff, give more distant ones less weight

Kernel = method for assigning importance to observations based on distance to the cutoff







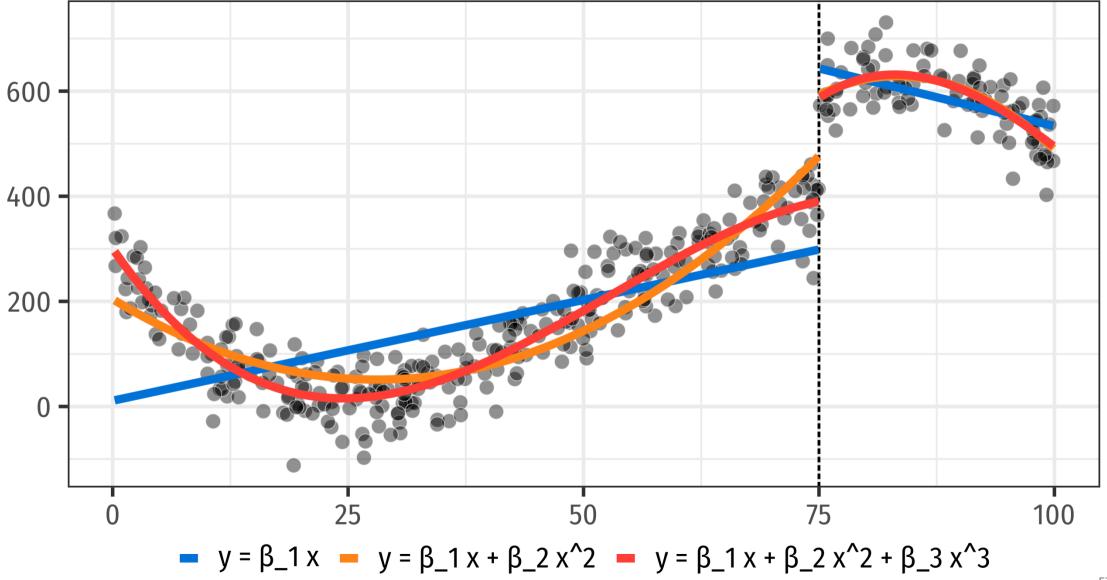
# Try everything!

### Your estimate of $\delta$ depends on all these:

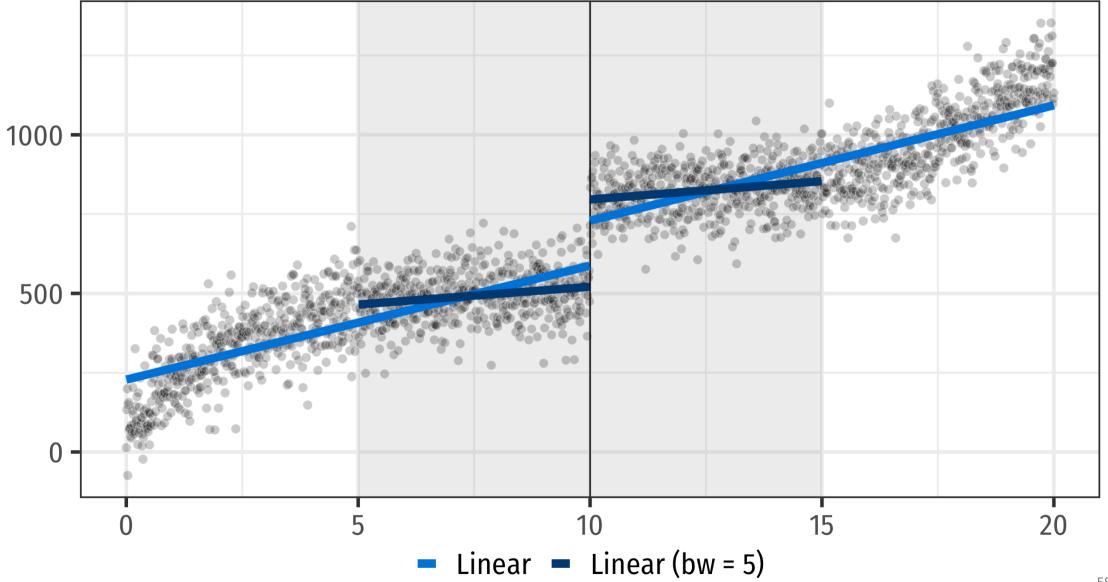
Line type (parametric vs. nonparametric)

Bandwidth (wide vs. narrow) Kernel weighting

### Try lots of different combinations!



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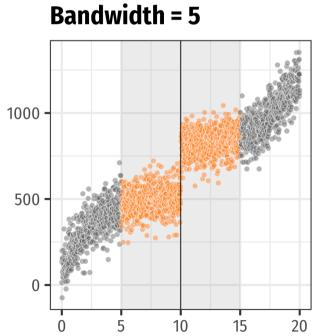


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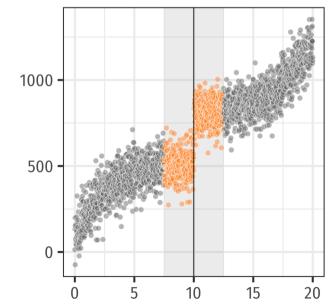
# Main RDD concerns

### It's greedy!

### You need *lots* of data, since you're throwing most of it away



#### Bandwidth = 2.5



# It's limited in scope!

You're only measuring the ATE for people in the bandwidth

Local Average Treatment Effect (LATE)

# It's limited in scope!

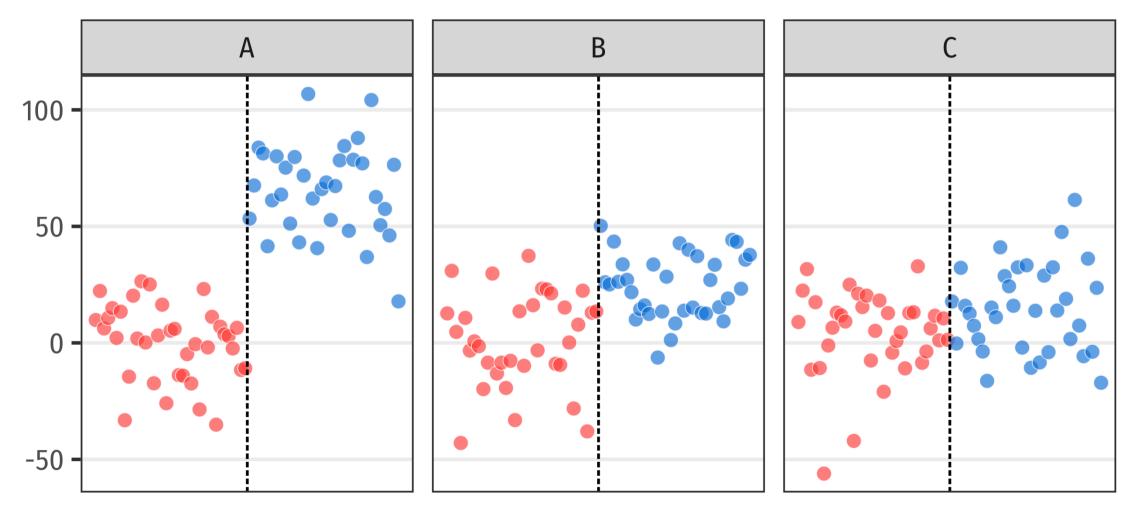
# You can't make population-level claims with a LATE

(But can you really do that with RCTs or diff-in-diff?)

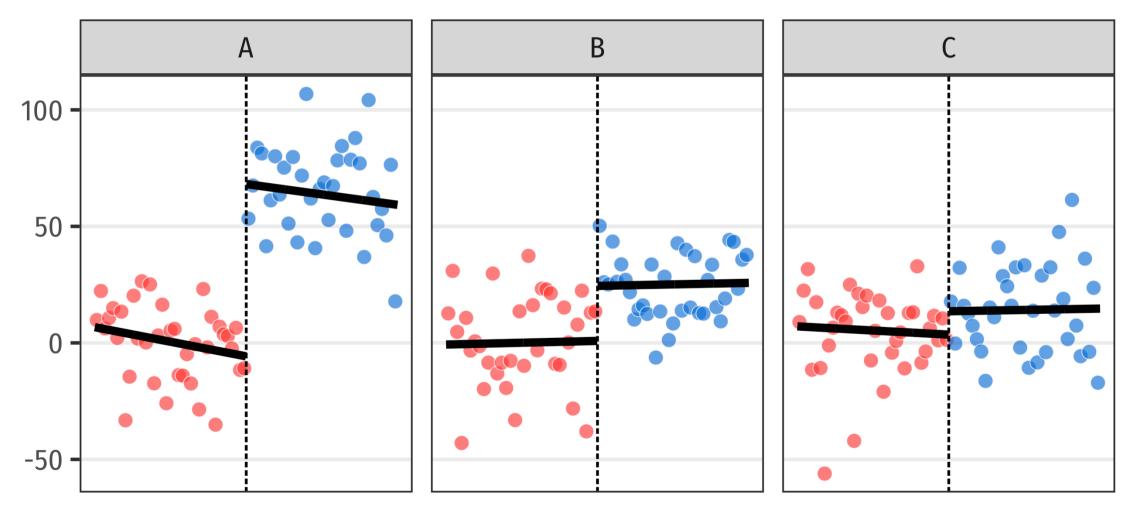
"The realistic conclusion to draw is that all quantitative empirical results that we encounter are 'local'"

Angrist and Pischke, *Mostly Harmless Econometrics*, pp. 23–24

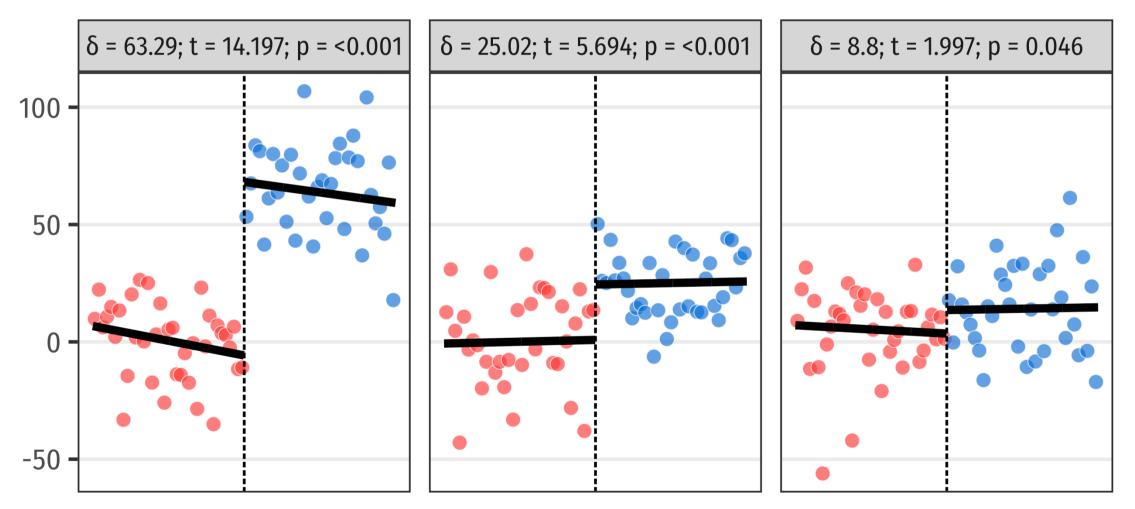
### **Graphics are neat!**



# Which gaps are significant?



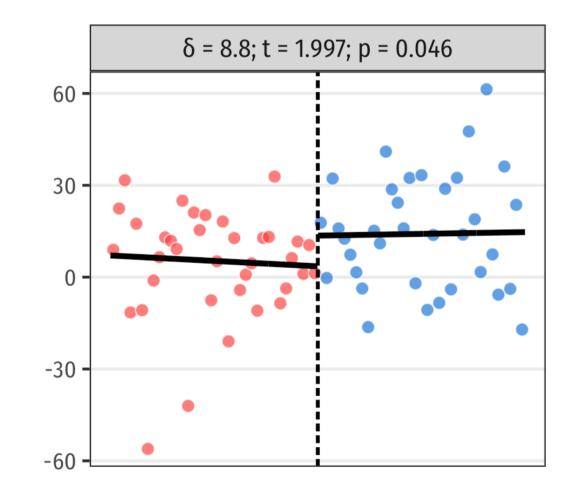
### All of them!



# Don't rely only on graphics

### Super clear breaks are uncommon

Make graphs, but also find the actual δ value



### **Manipulation!**

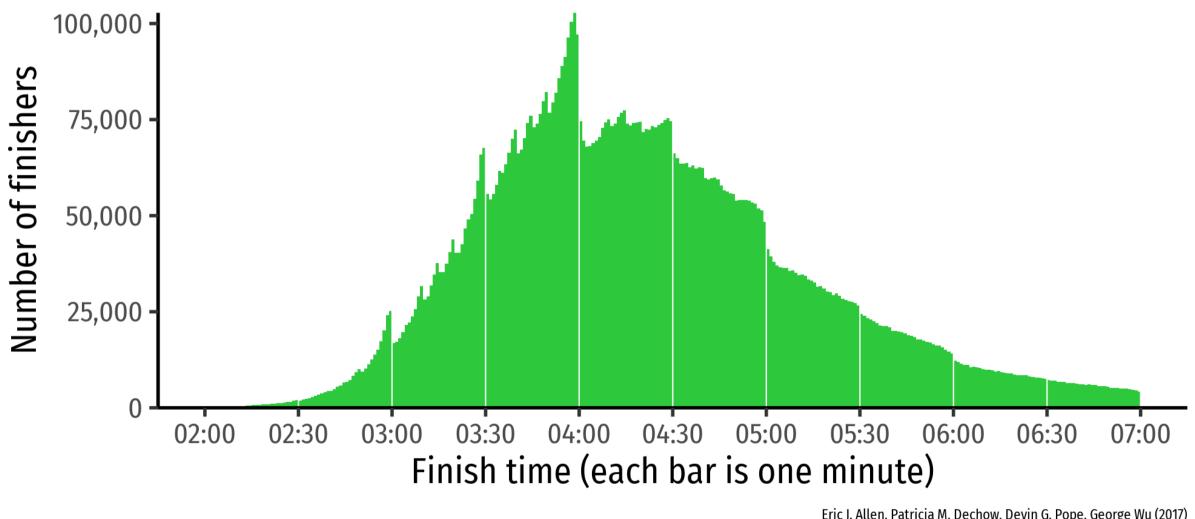
People might know about the cutoff and change their behavior

People might fudge numbers or work to cross the threshold to get in/out of program

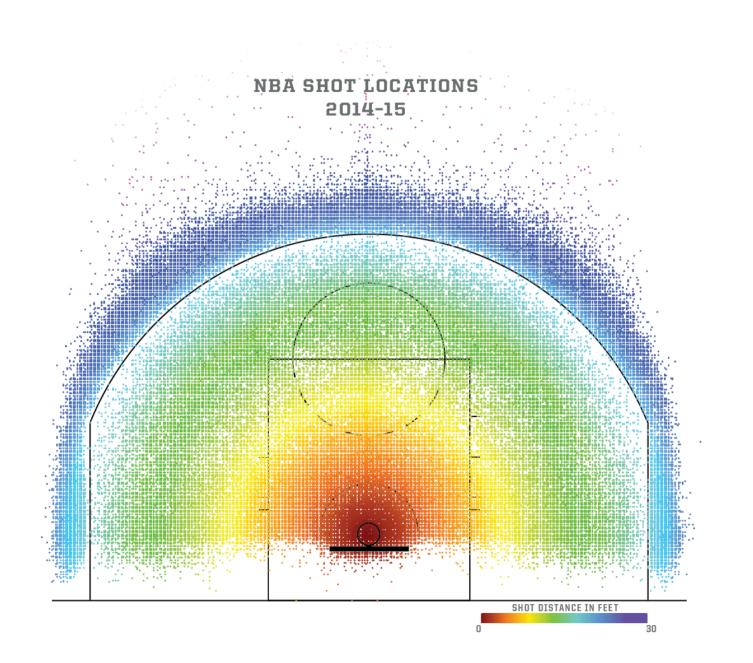
If so, those right next to the cutoff are no longer comparable treatment/control groups

### Distribution of marathon finishing times

N = 9,589,053



Eric J. Allen, Patricia M. Dechow, Devin G. Pope, George Wu (2017) Reference-Dependent Preferences: Evidence from Marathon Runners. Management Science 63(6):1657-1672. https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.2015.2417



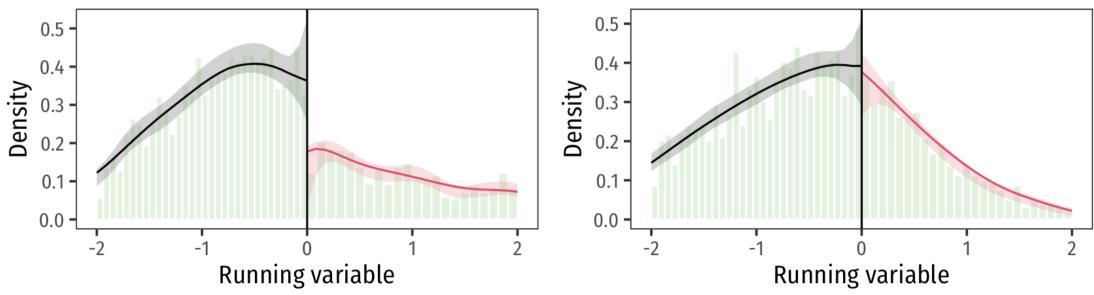
### **Manipulation!**

### **Check with a McCrary density test**

rddensity::rdplotdensity() in R

Manipulation

#### No manipulation



### **Noncompliance!**

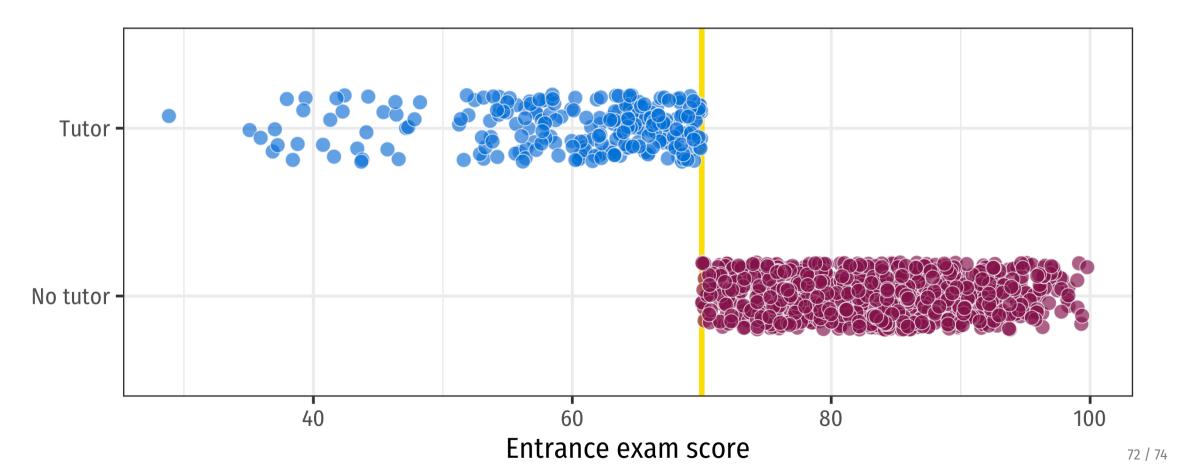
People on the margin of the cutoff might end up in/out of the program

The ACA, subsidies, Medicaid, and 138% of the poverty line

**Sharp vs. fuzzy discontinuities** 

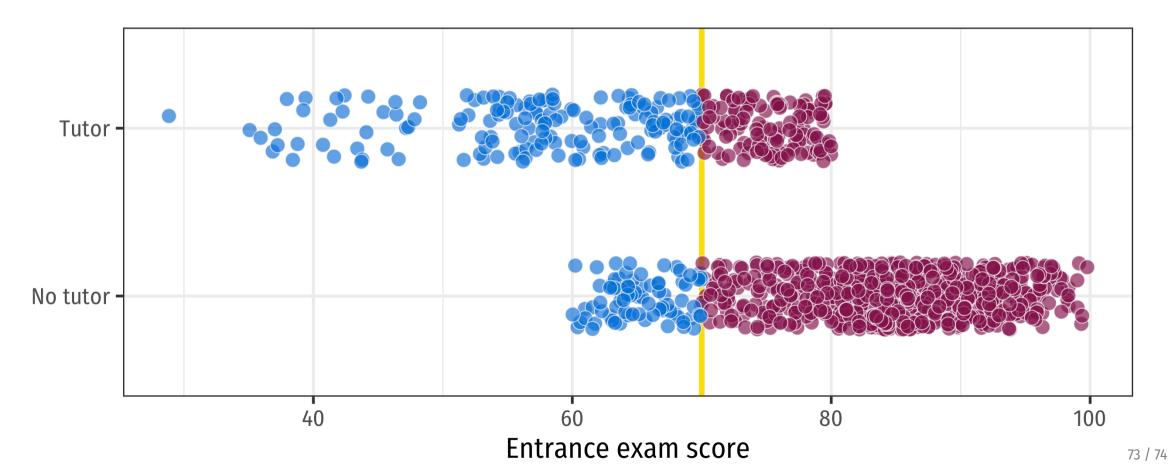
### **Sharp discontinuity**

### **Perfect compliance**



# **Fuzzy discontinuity**

### **Imperfect compliance**



### **Fuzzy discontinuities**

Address noncompliance with instrumental variables (more on this later!)

Use an instrument for which side of the cutoff people should be on

Effect is only for compliers near the cutoff (complier LATE; doubly local effect)