Applied Statistics

Introduction

Data Sources and Types

Cross-Sectional Data

- Many observation (large N)
- single point in time (one t)
- · For ex: General Social Surveys, Population surveys
- Time Series Data
 - Many point in time (large t)
 - Few units (N)
- Panel Data
 - Multiple entities (N)
 - Observed at two or more time periods (t)

Probability

- Random sampling: Y1...Yn selected at random are i.i.d: identically and independently distributed
 - · identically means they belong to the same probability distribution
 - independently means Y1 has no information about Y2
- Correlation coefficient
 - · measures linear association, useless when functional form not linear
- T-test
 - · Purpose: Test the difference between two means
 - · Dependent variable has to be measured on a continuous scale
 - Null Hypothesis H0 generally mean_1 = mean_2, reject if t large enough
- p-value
 - Given a significance level a, reject H0 if p-value<=a
 - the smaller the p-value, higher the evidence against H0
- · Confidence Interval: Equivalent statements
 - · 95% confidence interval for Delta doesn't include zero
 - Hypothesis that Delta = 0 rejected at the 5% level

Linear Regression

Ordinary Least Squares with a single regressor

- With observations (Xi, Yi), i=1,...,n
- u_i is the regression error
 - consists of omitted factors, generally factors that influence Yi other than variable xi.
 - · also includes error in measurement of Y
- OLS estimator:
 - min_[b0,b1] u_i = min_[b0,b1] sum(Yi-(b0+b1Xi))^2
 - · minimizes average squared difference between actual values of Yi and linear prediction
 - The result of the OLS is the estimated b_0, b_1, u_i and Y_i, written with hats
 - $Yi = ^Yi + \hat{u}_i$
- Measures of Fit

Page 1 sur 12

 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i, i = 1, ..., n$

- · Regression R2, measures fraction of variance of Yi explained by the regressors
- SER, standard error of the regression, represents the average distance that the observed values fall from the regression line.
- RMSE, Root Mean Squared error: on average we make a mistake of RMSE

Assumptions

- Conditional distribution of u given X has mean zero, $E[u|X] = 0 \longrightarrow b1$ unbiased
 - corr(u,X) = 0 assumption. On average, the regression line is the mean of our data
- (Xi,Yi), i=1,...n are i.i.d
 - true if (X,Y) collected by random sampling, from the same population, independently
 - Non i.i.d arises for Panel Data and Time Series Data
- Large outliers in X and/or Y are rare
 - outliers can result in meaningless values of b1

Hypothesis Testing and confidence interval

- H_0 : b_1 = reference b_1 (generally 0) vs H1: b_1 != reference b_1
- t = (^b_1 ref. b_1)/SE(^b_1)
- t-statistic for b_1 is N(0,1) for large samples

Ordinary Least Squares when X is binary

- Same mechanism as OLS but different interpretation
- · Regression line makes no sense for dummy regressor
- · b_1 not a slope, b_1 is a population difference in group means
 - b_1 = E[Yi|Di=1] E[Yi|Di=0]

Heteroskedasticity and Homoskedasticity

- Homoskedasticity
 - var(u|X) is constant
 - E[u|X] = 0 (satisfies OLS Assumption 1)
 - If errors are homoskedastic, OLS estimators are BLUE, Best Linear Unbiased Estimators
 - Don't need robust standard errors



600 L

15

Heteroskedasticity

- var(u|X) not constant
- E[u|X] = 0 (satisfies OLS Assumption 1)
- If errors heteroskedastic, OLS estimators are not BLUE
- Need robust standard errors
- SE are going to be too small if don't include the robust standard errors



20

25

30

Omitted Variable Bias

- The error u here because factors that influence Y are not included in the regression
- Conditions for having a OVB Z
 - Z is a determinant of Y (Z is part of u)
 - Z is correlated with the regressor X
- · Include the omitted variable in the regression



$Yi = \beta 0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i, i = 1,...,n$

Multiple Linear Regression Model

Interpretation of Coefficients

- b_1 = effect on Yi of a unit change in X1, holding X2 fixed (partial effect)
- Assumptions:
 - E[u|X1,...Xn] = 0, conditional distribution of u given Regressors has mean zero
 - (X1i,...,Xni, Yi) are i.i.d
 - Large outliers are unlikely
 - There is no perfect multicollinearity
- Multicollinearity
 - · We cannot have more variable than data points
 - one regressor cannot be an exact linear regression of another (corr(X1,X2)=1 problem)

Measures of fit

- R2: fraction of variance of Y explained by the X
- adjusted R2: R2 adjusted to degrees-of-freedom. Penalizes R2 as new variables are added. Adjusted R2 shows you when you overfit your data.
- What R2 and adjusted R2 tell you:
 - Are you regressors a good explanation of your Y
- What they don't tell you
 - · Significance of the result
 - Causality between X and Y
 - If you are suffering from OVB
 - Wether you have the best set of regressors

Hypothesis Testing and Confidence Intervals

- For single coefficient
 - same recipe as for slope coefficient in a single-regressor model
 - Use t-statistic and confidence intervals (^b_1 +- 1.96* SE(^b_1))
- Joint hypothesis testing (q regressors)
 - Need homoskedasticity
 - H0: b1 = 0 and b2 = 0 vs. H1: either b1 != 0 or b2 != 0 or both (for q=2)
 - F-test on b1 and b2 -> give F_2, infinity distribution, read in table
 - Interpretation: If value of F test above value corresponding to significance level given in the table of F_2, inf we can reject H0 that neither X1 nor X2 have an effect on Y (q=2 here)

Non-linear Regression Functions

- Case where $Yi = f(X1i,... Xni) + u_i, i = 1,...,n$
- Polynomials and logarithmic transformation

Polynomials in X

- Simple multiple regression model
- Regressors are powers of X
- Interpreting the Coefficients:
 - Don't say unit change in X leads to blablabla
 - Give table Delta Y for Delta X

Logarithmic functions of Y and/or X

- Transforms relations into percentage changes
- Linear-log, (Y = b0 + b1ln(X) + u)
 - A 1% increase in X (multiply by 1.01) is associated with a 0.01*b1 unit change in Y

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{X}_i + \beta_2 X_i^2 + \dots + \beta_r X_i^r + u_i$$

• Log-Linear, (ln(Y) = b0 + b1X + u)

A unit increase in X is associated with a 100*b1 % change in Y

• Log-Log, (ln(Y) = b0 + b1ln(X) + u)

- A 1% increase in X (multiply by 1.01) is associated with a b_1% change in Y
- b1 is interpreted as an elasticity
- b1 = %change in Y/%change in X

Interaction between Independent Variables

Interactions between two binary variables

- Interaction term D1*D2 as regressor
- · Allow effect of changing D1 to depend on D2. Different intercept and « slopes » for each case

Interaction between continuous and binary variable

- Creates two regression lines, one D=0 and one D=1
- · Regression lines have different slopes and intercept
- Effectively creating one regression line per group (D)
- Two regression lines have same slope if b3=0, do hypothesis test (H0 b3 = 0)
- Two regression lines have same intercept if b1=0, do hypothesis test (H0, b1=0)
- Two regression lines are the same if b1 and b3 = 0, do joint hypothesis test (Ftest b1, b3 = 0)

Interaction between two continuous variables

- Interaction X1*X2
- Same analysis as above

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{1i} + \beta_{2}X_{2i} + \beta_{3}(X_{1i}^{*}X_{2i}) + u_{i}$$
$$\frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X_{1}} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{3}X_{2}$$

 $\Pr(Y=1|X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$

 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i + \beta_2 X_i + \beta_3 (D_i^* X_i) + u_i$

 $Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}D_{1i} + \beta_{2}D_{2i} + \beta_{3}(D_{1i} * D_{2i}) + u_{i}$

Regression with a binary dependent variable

Linear Probability Model (LPM)

- Dependent variable is binary
- Simple linear regression model is called linear probability model
 when dealing with binary dependent variables
- Interpretation of coefficients:
 - b1 is the change in probability that Y=1 for a unit change in X
- · Advantages:
 - · simple to estimate and interpret, same interpretation as for multiple regressors OLS
- · Disadvantages:
 - predicted probabilities can be >1 or <0
 - Assumption that increase in probability linked with increase in X is the same for all X. (b1 != b1(X))
 - Use non-linear probability model

Probit Regression

- Is a non-linear probability model
- Advantage:

 $\Pr(\mathsf{Y}=1|\mathsf{X})=\Phi(\beta_0+\beta_1\mathsf{X})$

Page 4 sur 12

- 0<=P(Y=1|X)<=1
- P(Y=1|X) increases for X for b1>0
- Use cumulative standard normal distribution function evaluated at z=b0+b1X
- $P(Y=1|X=x) = Phi(b0+b1^*x)$, it is the area under the standard normal density to the left of z

Interpretation of coefficients:

- b1 is the change in the z-value for a unit change in X
- b1 >0 means positive association between raising X and having a higher prob of Y=1
- b0+b1X = z-value
- evaluate z-value in the cumulative standard normal distribution function to have probability
- Evaluating the effect of a change in a regressor:
 - evaluate difference in Phi(z2) Phi(z1) for zi = b0 + b1Xi
- Straightforward generalization to multiple regressors. z = b0 + b1X1 + b2X2, gives the dependent variable P(Y=1|X1=x1,X2=x2)
- Measure of Fit:
 - pseudo-R2: measures the improvement in the value of log likelihood relative to having no X

Logit (Logistic) Regression

- is a non-linear probability model
- evaluate the z-value under the cumulative logistic distribution function F
- Interpretation of coefficients:
 - · mainly like for Probit.
 - · The coefficients are odd ratios

Internal Validity

- OVB
- Wrong functional form?
- Errors in variable bias?
- · Sample selection bias?

External Validity

- Data from the past apply to now?
- Data from other city apply to here?
- · Data from urban area, comparable to rural areas? to other countries?

Panel Regression

A panel dataset contains observation on multiple entities. Each entity is observed at two or more points in time.

$$(X_{1it}, X_{2it}, ..., X_{kit}, Y_{it}), i = 1, ..., n, t = 1, ..., T$$

Advantages:

- · we can control for factors that vary across entities but not over time
- · we can control for unobserved and unmeasured variables
- if an omitted variable does not change over time, any change in Y over time cannot be caused by the omitted variable
- More observations five you more information

 $\Pr(Y=1|X) = F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)$

• Balanced panel, have data for each entity for each year. Unbalanced, some data missing for some entities for some years.

Panel Data with Two time Periods, Fixed Differences

- $Y_{t2} = b0 + b1X_{t2} + b2Z + u_{t2}$
- $Y_t1 = b0 + b1X_t1 + b2Z + u_t1$
- (Y_t2-Y_t1) = b1 (X_t2 X_t1) + (u_t2 u_t1)
- The new error term is uncorrelated with X_t2 or X_t1
- This difference can be observed even though Z is not observed. The omitted variable Z doesn't change, so it cannot be a determinant of the change in Y

Fixed Effects Regression

- t = time, i = entity (n of them)
- · There are two ways to do this, n-1 binary regressors and fixed effects
- If you think that differences across time or entities has an effect on your regressors.
- n-1 binary regressor
 - integrate dummies D_i for each entity (i)
 - strictly equivalent to having a aplha_i. Changes the intercept of the regression line for each entity.

Fixed effects form

- integrate an entity effect as a constant for entity i
- Note, b1 doesn't depend on the entity. We develop only one model which we want to apply to all entities. One model, one slope.
- Assumption: cov(X_it, alpha_i) != 0
- Time Fixed effects
 - An omitted variable which varies over time but not across states (S_t) can be controlled for with time fixe effects.
 - Am omitted variable which varies across states but not across time (Z_i) can be controlled for with entity fixed effects

Both Time and Entity fixed effects

- Different intercept for each entity and years.
- Check if the time effects are jointly statistically significant with an F test on the years dummies.
- We are immune to OV which change over time but not over entities and which change over entities but not over time.
 - Still facing problem if variable varies over entities and over time.
 - Problem if OV is random.

Assumptions:

- E[u_it|X_i1,...X_iT,alpha_i] = 0
- (X_i1,..., X_iT, u_i1,..., u_iT) are i.i.d
- (X_it, u_it) have no outlier
- · There is no perfect multicollinearity

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + \beta_2 Z_i + \beta_3 S_t + u_{it}$$

$$f_{it} = p_0 \cdot p_1 \cdot i_t \cdot p_2 - i \cdot p_3 \cdot q_{it}$$

$$Y_{it} = \beta_1 X_{it} + \alpha_i + \lambda_t + u_{it}$$

Same as OLS assumptions

Not same as OLS assumptions

 $Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + \beta_2 Z_i + u_{it}, i = 1,...,n, T = 1,...,T$

 $Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + \gamma_2 D 2_i + \dots + \gamma_n D n_i + u_{it}$

 $\mathbf{Y}_{it} = \beta_1 \mathbf{X}_{it} + \alpha_i + \mathbf{u}_{it}$

Autocorrelation

- Across clusters, the data is i.i.d but within clusters not.
- A variable observed for the same entity across time is autocorrelated or serially correlated, if corr(Z_t, Z_t+j) != 0 for j != 0. Which is usually the case with panel data as you pick people randomly from regions but then follow them across time.
- OLS errors assume that u_it is serially uncorrelated. For panel data, the u_it will be underestimated. We have to use **clustered standard errors**.
- Example: gender is autocorrelated over time.

Clustered standard errors:

- estimate the variance when variable i.i.d across entities but possibly autocorrelated within.
- we assume there is less variation in our data as in the real world, we assume the variables within entities are autocorrelated. Or conversely —> Assume variables are not i.i.d within entities.

Limitations and Challenges:

- Time lag effects can be important
- need to use clustered standard errors (to insure against autocorrelation)
- Data collection issues
- Non-response in case of micro panels
- We still have a problem if an unobserved variable is a determinant of Y but is not correlated with our regressors.

Random Effect Regression

- If the Omitted Variable is random and uncorrelated with the regressors.
- If the Omitted Variable is time invariant and random.
- Assumption:
 - covariance(X_it, alpha_i) = 0
- · How to chose to use fixed effects or random effects? Hausman test

Instrumental Variable Regression

Threats to Internal Validity

- · OVB from a variable correlated with X but unobserved
- Simultaneous causality bias (X causes Y, Y causes X)
- Errors-in-variables bias (X measured with an error)
- Result in E[u|X] != 0

What is IV

- break X into two parts, one possibly correlated with u, one not. First stage isolates part of the variation in X that is uncorrelated with u.
- Done by using an instrumental variable Z_i, which is correlated with X_i but not with u_i

An endogenous variable is correlated with u. An exogenous variable is not correlated with u.

Usefulness of IV Regression

- When you have an endogenous variable, you look for an exogenous instrument.
- can eliminate bias when E[u|X] != 0

Page 7 sur 12

$$Y_{it} = \beta_1 X_{it} + \alpha_i + u_{it}$$

Conditions for valid Instruments

Instrument relevance

- corr(Zi,Xi) != 0.
- At least one instrument must enter the population counterpart of the first stage regression

Instrument exogeneity

- corr(Zi,ui) = 0
- All the instrument must be exogenous
- (often called exclusion restriction)

Two Stage Least Squares

- **First Stage**: Isolate the part of X that is uncorrelated with u by regressing X on Z with OLS.
- Second Stage: Replace Xi by ^Xi and regress Y on ^Xi with OLS.
- ^Xi is uncorrelated with u_i

The general IV regression model

- Also happens in two phases. The W are the control variables. The X (of which there are k) are the (possibly) endogenous variables.
- There are m instrumental variables Z.
- You have to include the control variables in all the steps if the 2SLS.
- The endogenous coefficient is
 - overidentified if m>k
 - exactly identified if m=o
 - underifentified if m<k
- Assumptions:
 - E[u|W1i,...Wri] = 0 -> The exogenous regressors are exogenous
 - (Yi, X1i,..., Xki, W1i,..., Wri, Z1i,..., Zmi) are i.i.d
 - There are no outliers for X, W Z and Y (nonzero, finite 4th moments)
 - The instruments (Z1i,..., Zmi) are valid -> Specific to IV

Checking Instrument Validity

- Checking Relevance:
 - · Instruments are relevant if at least one of the pi are nonzero
- Weak Instruments:
 - · Instruments are weak if all the pi are either zero or close to zero.
 - Weak instruments explain little of the variation in X beyond that explained by the Ws.
 - If weak instruments, 2SLS can be biased in the direction of OLS estimator
 - Checking by computing F statistic (>10). Drop the weakest instruments
- Checking Exogeneity:
 - Not possible if m=k
 - Possible if overidentified instrument, do a J-test of Overidentifying Restrictions.

 $X_i = \pi_0 + \pi_1 Z_i + v_i$ $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \hat{X}_i + u_i$

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{1i} + \beta_{2}W_{1i} + \dots + \beta_{1+r}W_{ri} + u_{i}$$

$$K_{i} = \pi_{0} + \pi_{1}Z_{1i} + \ldots + \pi_{m}Z_{mi} + \pi_{m+1}W_{1i} + \ldots + \pi_{m+k}W_{ki} + u_{ki}$$

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} \hat{x}_{1i} + \beta_{2} W_{1i} + \dots + \beta_{1+r} W_{ri} + u_{i}$$

Difference in Differences

Quasi Experiments

- · Find a "natural experiment" that allows to identify impact of a policy
- a quasi-experiment (or natural experiment) has source of randomization that is **as if** randomly assigned.
- The quality of the comparison group determines the quality of the policy evaluation
- Comparison Group:
 - Counterfactual: What would have happen to the same people if policy not implemented
 - a good comparison group constructs a good counterfactual that is as little biased as possible to be able to say something about causality

Difference in Differences

• the DID estimator:

- the difference between two before-after differences, one for treatment group, one for control group
- Unobserved factors that affect outcomes and changed with the treatment can be controlled for by double differencing. We can isolate the treatment effect.

Simple DD

- Two groups (one treatment, one control)
- Two time Periods
- $DD = [(mean(Y_t1) | T=1) (mean(Y_t0) | T=1)] [(mean(Y_t1) | T=0) (mean(Y_t0) | T=0)]$
- Written as a regression:
 - Dpost = time dummy

 $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_{post} + \beta_2 D_{treat} + \frac{\beta_3}{\beta_3} (D_{treat} \times D_{post}) + \beta_4 DX + u$

- b3 = DD estimate
- Requirements
 - · Need data on control and treatment group at two data points

Weakness

- Treatment is not random
- you can't control for all potential confounding factors
- Any change you observe with you DD estimator will be attributed as the policy effect, if there are other factors driving this difference, the estimation will be biased
- We can never really know the counterfactual.
- Strength
 - · Control for effects that are common to control and treatment group
 - · Effects that are common to all groups at one point in time (common trend)
- Assumption:
 - Common trend: The trend in control group approximates what would have happened int he treatment group in the absence of treatment
 - · Also called parallel trends

Sensitivity Checks to test validity of common trends

- Use a Placebo DD with fake treatment group which you know was not affected
 DD estimators should be zero
- Use a Placebo DD with a different outcome variable, not affected by policy
 - DD estimator should be zero
- Use different comparison group
 - DD estimator should reach similar results
- Standard Errors
 - DD is special case of estimation with panel data, need clustered SE because of autocorrelation

Randomized Controlled Trial

Precision and Accuracy:

- Measurement error: precision
 Increase sample size to get rid of it
- Systematic error: accuracy (bias)
 - Get a better comparison group, should be as close as possible to treatment group



Establishing Causality:

- Problem of Counterfactual, we will never be able to have a perfect counterfactual as the same person cannot at the same time be inside and outside the treatment group.
- Counterfactual: What would have been the condition of the population at the time of the policy evaluation if the policy had not been implemented

Threats to Internal Validity in observational studies: -> E[u|X] != 0

- · OVB from variable correlated with X but unobserved
- Sample selection bias (availability of the data related to Y)
- Simultaneous causality bias (X causes Y and Y causes X)
- Errors-in-variable bias (X measured with error)

Experiment:

· An experiment randomly assigns subjects to treatment and control groups

Randomized Controlled Trial

- · A treatment has a causal effect for a given individual
- The average treatment effect is the population mean value of the individual treatment effects
- A RCT randomly assigns individuals to treatment and control groups
 - X randomly assigned, then X independent of u, so b1 is unbiased in an OLS regression
 - The causal effect is the value of b1 in an ideal RCT
- Control variables
 - As X is randomly assigned, we are not facing OVB because X is independent of any control variable W. (No systematic error, we are accurate)
 - However adding control variables reduces the error variance (could have less measurement error, be more precise)
- Baseline:
 - · Do you need a baseline for RCTs? (set of variables measured before experiment)
 - By having a baseline you can improve the precision of your measurement.

• Unit of Randomization:

- · Pay attention to the unit of randomization you choose (for for SW book)
- Do you randomize students within a class, different classes, different schools?
- Careful with clustered SE if randomize in classes/schools
- Checking for balance
 - After randomization check it has worked
 - run t-test for all control variables W. Should have E[W|X=1] = W[W|X=0]
 - Run regressions of X on all W and conduct F-tests

Challenges with RCTs

Page 10 sur 12

- · Focus on programs easier to measure?
- Ethical concerns
- · How many evaluations should be made across culture before having "common knowledge"

Mechanisms of Randomization

- Pure randomization -> Preferred solution if you have a list of participants
 - Problem: usually harder to get list for smaller entities.
- Systematic Randomization -> throw dice, lottery tickets
- Oversubscription Randomization -> Take the first who show up / sign up
- **Pipeline / Phase-In Randomization** —> Everybody gets the treatment but at different time, randomize when they get the treatment
- Encouragement Randomization -> Discount on something for certain persons
 - When you are facing ethically sensitive interventions, mechanisms which doesn't exclude anyone from getting the treatment (for ex. Vaccines)
 - · Need to run an IV regression with getting the incentive as IV for getting the treatment

Remaining Threats to Internal and External Validity

Internal Validity

- · Wether the study provides unbiased and general estimate of what it claims to estimate
- Partial Compliance
 - · failure to follow treatment protocol, some controls get treatment and inversely
- Attrition
 - · Some subjects drop out of the study
- Experimental effects
 - Experimenter bias
- Spillover effects
 - Negative or Positive Spillover from treatment to the control group
- Small samples
 - Not source of bias but of lower precision

External Validity

- Wether the results from the study can be generalized to other populations
- Non representative sample
 - · population studied and population of interest are different
- Non representative treatment
 - small-scale and tightly monitored program could be different to large scale one
- General equilibrium effects
 - turning small temporary experiment to large permanent could change economic environment.

Regression Discontinuity

Key Concept

- RD is an impact evaluation method
- Usable for programs that have continuous eligibility index (W) with clearly defined eligibility threshold (w0) (Like getting a scholarship based on test scores)

Conditions:

- Eligibility index (W) must rank people in a continuous way
- Index must have a clearly defined cutoff (w0)
- Cutoff must be unique to the program of interest and cannot be manipulated (not to any other program)

• Main Idea:

- Compare population just above (treated) and just under (untreated) the threshold w0.
- Treatment effect is the difference between individuals on both sides of the threshold.
- Effect of treatment (w0) should show up as a jump in the outcome Y
- Don't need control group -> Yaay.

Assumption:

- · Observation on both sides of the threshold are very similar
- The parameter value is the only driver of the assignment of a beneficiary to the treatment
- The treatment is the only source of discontinuity in outcomes

Regression Discontinuity Design

Sharp RD Design

- Everyone above the threshold w0 gets the treatment
- Treatment effect estimated by b1, X is treatment dummy
- W is called the running variable
- Allow for different slopes on left and right of the threshold. We have two curves, one with and one without Treatment.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 W_i + u_i$$

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{X}_i + \beta_2 \mathbf{W}_i + \beta_3 (\mathbf{X}_i^* \mathbf{W}_i) + u_i$$

• No OVB per definition because only variable which affects X is W and we control for it.

Fuzzy RD Design

- Crossing threshold only influences probability to get the treatment
- Use IV regression.

Challenges and Limitations of RD

Local Average Treatment Effect (LATE)

- we estimate the effect around the cut-off point, not always generalizable to other population groups (Not Externally valid
- Statistical Power
 - Effect is estimated at the discontinuity, we have fewer observations than in a randomized experiment with same sample size (Low precision)
- Estimated effect can be very sensitive to functional form
 - Include nonlinear relationships
 - · The effect might just be due to a nonlinear functional form

Robustness Checks

- Functional Form
 - Take into account nonlinearities, include polynomials
- Statistical Power
 - Move window around the threshold (narrower bandwidth)
 - Trade-off between bias and efficiency
- Placebo RD, with other threshold (w1). Should not see a jump.
- Placebo RD, with other outcome variable. Should not see a jump.
- Placebo RD, with a fake treatment group. Should not see a jump.
- Check for manipulation: plot.