



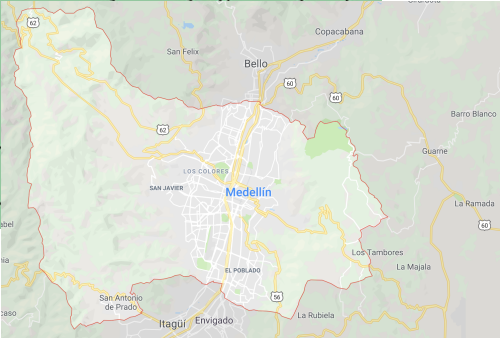
Randomization Tests of Causal Effects Under General Interference

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Medellín, Colombia

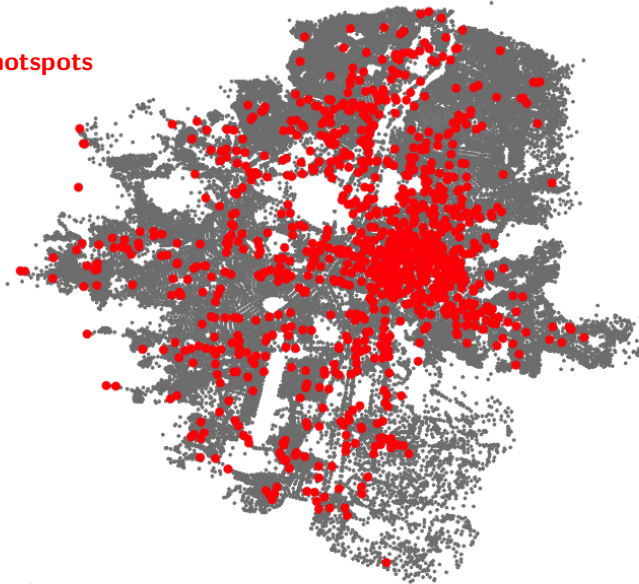


Medellín, Colombia





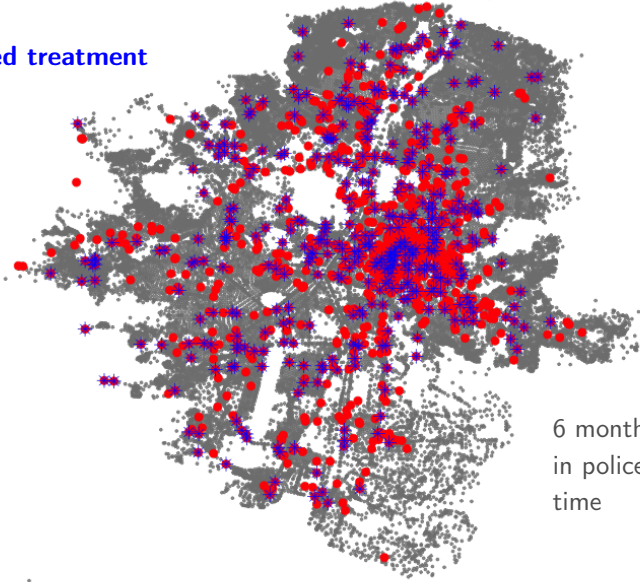
crime hotspots



Medellín, Colombia



observed treatment



6 month increase
in police patrolling
time



Units and treatment assignment

- 37,055 total streets (units)
- 967 streets are identified as crime “hotspots”
- 384 are treated with increased police presence

Access to randomizations based on the design, $\text{pr}(Z)$



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Outcomes and covariates

- Crime counts on all streets (murders, car and motorbike thefts, personal robberies, assaults, aggregate crime score)
- Survey data on hotspot streets
- Characteristics of hotspots (distance from school, bus stop, rec center, church, neighborhood, ...)



How does the intervention affect crime?

- * direct effect?
- * spillovers to adjacent streets?



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- * direct effect?
- * spillovers to adjacent streets?

We will answer these through hypothesis testing.

We use the randomization mode of inference. It is robust and model-free.

The classical randomization test



Define observed data:

$Z = (Z_1, \dots, Z_N)$ as binary treatment assignment;

$Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_N)$ as vector of observed outcomes.

Potential outcome of unit i under assignment z : $Y_i(z)$.

i.e., total crime score

Assume no interference: $Y_i(z)$ depends only on z_i .

\Rightarrow Only two potential outcomes, $Y_i(0)$, $Y_i(1)$, for every i .

Does treatment have an effect?

$$\mathbf{H}_0 : Y_i(0) = Y_i(1), \text{ for every } i.$$

Fisher randomization test (1935)



H_0 : $Y_i(0) = Y_i(1)$, for every i .

The procedure:

Choose test statistic $T = T(y, z)$ (e.g., difference in means).

1. $T^{\text{obs}} = T(Y, Z)$.
2. Sample $Z' \sim \text{pr}(Z')$, store $T_r = T(Y', Z') \stackrel{H_0}{=} T(Y, Z')$.
3. p-value = $\mathbb{E} [\mathbb{1}\{T_r \geq T_{\text{obs}}\}]$.

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Proof of validity:

$$T(Y', Z') \stackrel{H_0}{=} T(Y, Z') \stackrel{d}{=} T(Y, Z) = T^{\text{obs}}$$

“ $T^{\text{obs}} \stackrel{d}{=} T^{\text{rand}}$ (under null)”

Advantages of Fisherian randomization



- **Exact.** The test is valid in finite samples.
- **Minimal assumptions.** No model for Y . Regression analysis of peer effects can be tricky (Angrist, 2014).
- **Robust.** Test gives the same answer with different Y -scales (the same cannot be said for regression).

Possible limitation:

The test requires imputation from Y to any Y' ; i.e., H_0 has to be a sharp null.

No interference assumption is too strong...



No **interference** is not realistic in our application.

We expect $Y_i(z)$ to depend on multiple components of z_j .

We cannot write " $Y_i(0) = Y_i(1)$ ". There are more potential outcomes.

One way to express more potential outcomes is through the concept of **treatment exposure**.

Treatment exposures



For any given Z , unit i is **exposed** to "something more" than Z_i .
We assume the exposure is defined by a function:

$$f_i : \{0, 1\}^N \rightarrow \mathcal{E}.$$

\mathcal{E} is the set of possible exposures (one neighboring street treated, no neighboring streets treated, etc.)

Both \mathcal{E} and f_i need to be defined by the analyst. Any choice will likely be contentious.

We can now ask questions in terms of exposures:

*Is there a difference in outcome between **short-range** and **pure control** streets?*

Question: Is there a short-range spillover effect?



H₀ : $Y_i(Z) = Y_i(Z')$ for every i, Z, Z' ,

such that $f_i(Z), f_i(Z') \in \{\text{short}, \text{control}\}$.

$$f_i(Z) := \begin{cases} \text{short-range} & Z_i = 0, \text{dist}_i < 125\text{m} \\ \text{control} & Z_i = 0, \text{dist}_i > 500\text{m} \\ \text{neither} & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$\text{dist}_i :=$ distance to closest treated street.

We cannot use the classical Fisher test



Recall: we need $T^{\text{obs}} \stackrel{d}{=} T^{\text{rand}}$ for things to work.

$$T^{\text{rand}} = T(Y', Z') \stackrel{H_0}{=} T(Y, Z') \stackrel{d}{=} T(Y, Z) = T^{\text{obs}}.$$

The null only assumes 2 of the 3 exposures have equal outcomes

$$H_0: Y_i(\text{short}) = Y_i(\text{control}) \stackrel{?}{=} Y_i(\text{neither}), \text{ for every } i.$$

Here, the null is **not sharp**. We cannot impute potential outcomes Y' freely under any Z' .

Fisherian randomization works only with **sharp/global nulls**.

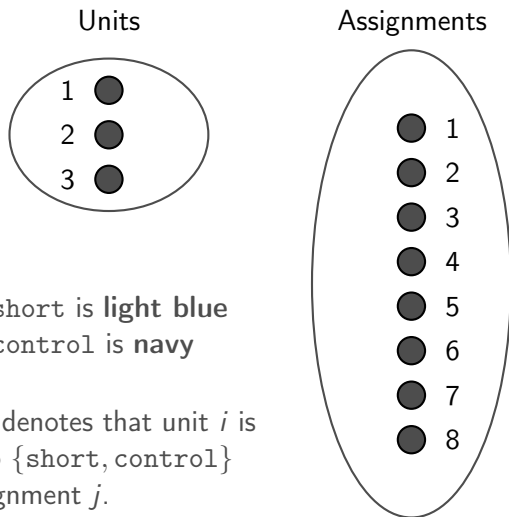
Testing $Y_i(\text{short}) = Y_i(\text{control}), \forall i$



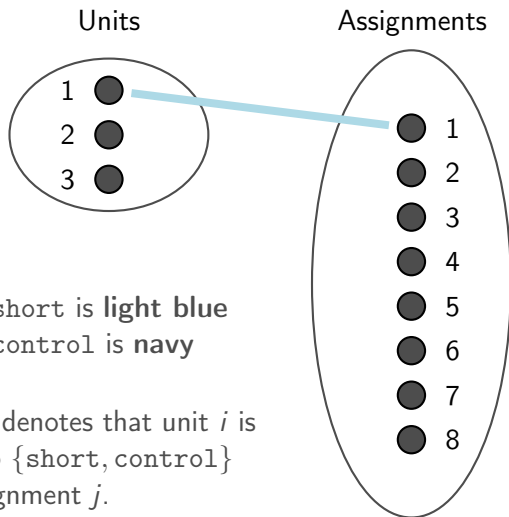
Given a null hypothesis and assignment from $\text{pr}(Z)$, we know which units are exposed to short or control using $f_i(\cdot)$.

This is a binary relationship!
How can we visualize?

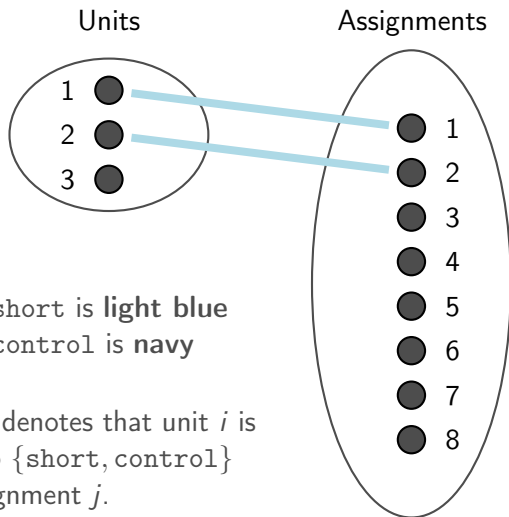
Our main contribution: The null exposure graph



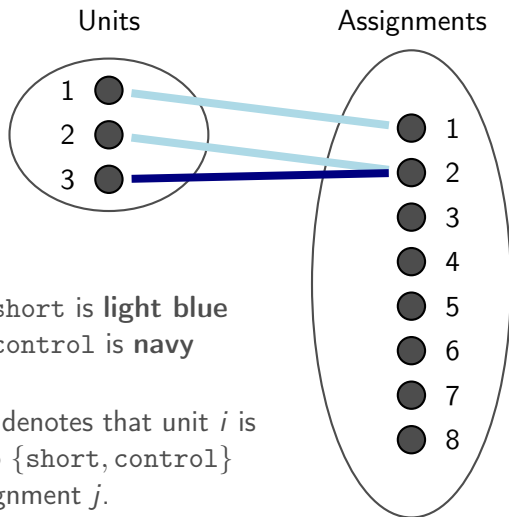
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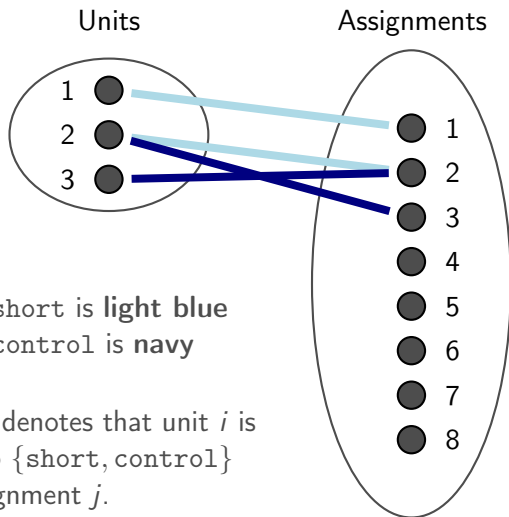


Exposure short is **light blue**

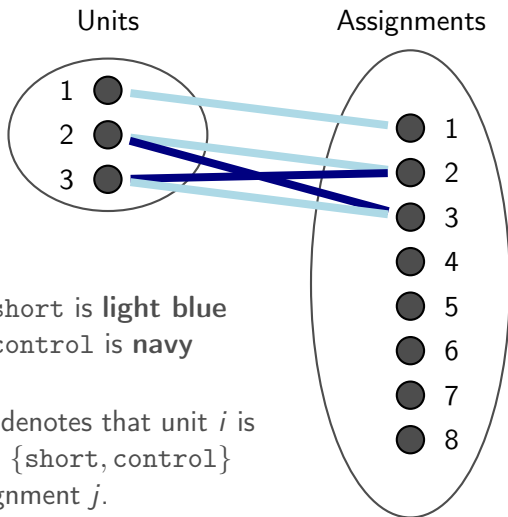
Exposure control is **navy**

edge (i, j) denotes that unit i is exposed to $\{\text{short, control}\}$ under assignment j .

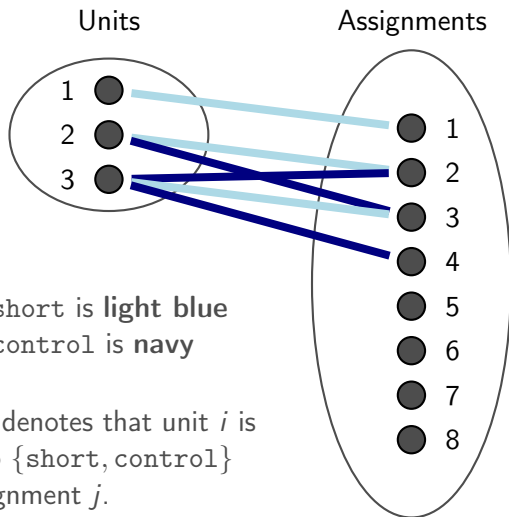
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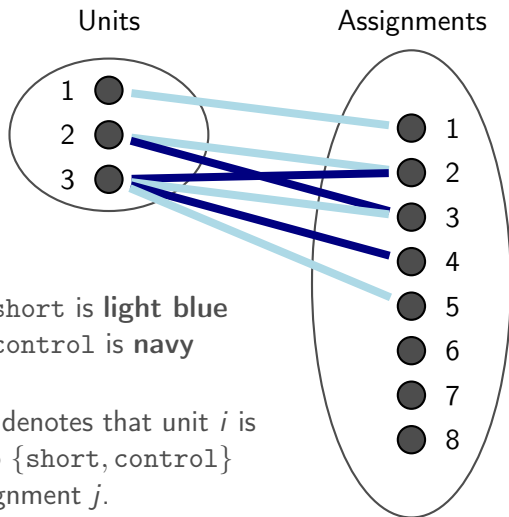
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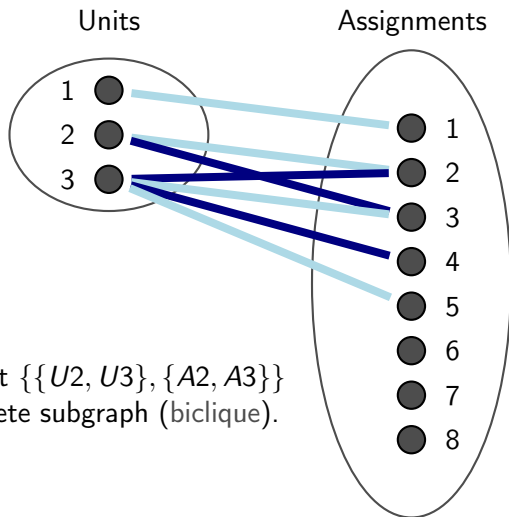
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Introducing the null exposure graph



Notice that $\{\{U2, U3\}, \{A2, A3\}\}$ is a complete subgraph (biclique).

Why are these bicliques useful?



Within a biclique, every unit is exposed to either short or control under any assignment.

i.e.: If obs Z is in a biclique, we can impute potential outcomes, H_0 is sharp within the biclique.

Let's outline the method ...



Input:

*A null exposure graph uniquely defined given H_0 .

* A test statistic $T = T(y, z)$.

1. **Decompose:** Compute biclique decomposition of null exposure graph. Pick out biclique with obs Z , say C .
2. **Condition:** Compute test statistic values with units and assignments only in C .
3. **Summarize:** $p\text{-value} = \mathbb{E}_{Z_C} [\mathbb{1}\{T_C \geq T_{\text{obs}}\}]$.

Here, $P(Z_C) \propto pr(Z_C)\mathbb{1}\{Z_C \in C\}$

Why is this a valid method?



Clique test statistics: $T_C = T(Y_C, Z_C)$

* T is defined only in C by step 2.

For every Z, Z' , we need to show $T(Y', Z') \stackrel{d}{=} T(Y, Z) \mid C$

Proof:

$$T(Y', Z') \stackrel{*}{=} T(Y'_C, Z'_C) \stackrel{H_0}{=} T(Y_C, Z'_C) \stackrel{d}{=} T(Y_C, Z_C) \stackrel{*}{=} T(Y, Z).$$



- Finding bicliques is **NP-hard**¹
- Our method could be optimized;
i.e., different biclique decompositions will have different power properties, but all are **valid!**
- Other conditional testing methods:
Aronow 2012, Athey et al. 2018. (Roughly) equivalent to randomly sampling units one one side, then computing the clique that contains those units and obs Z .
⇒ **loses power.**
Basse et al. 2019. Biclique sampling can depend on obs Z .
⇒ **easier when interference has structure.**

¹We use Binary Inclusion-Maximal Biclustering Algorithm, which uses a divide and conquer method to find bicliques.

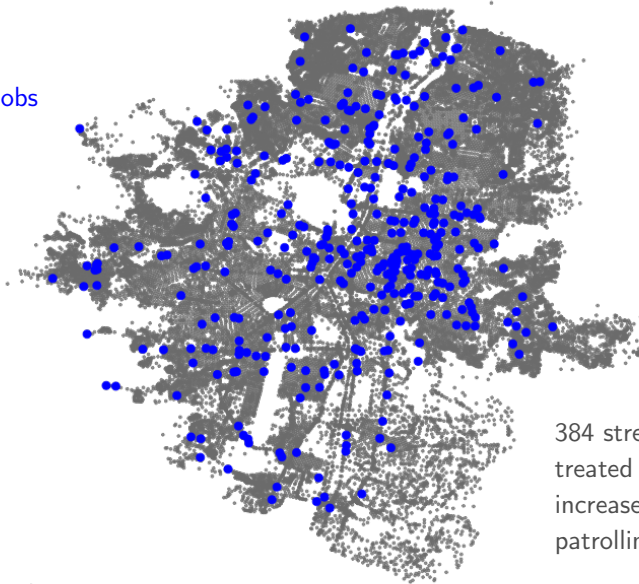
Returning to the map



The observed assignment



Z_{obs}

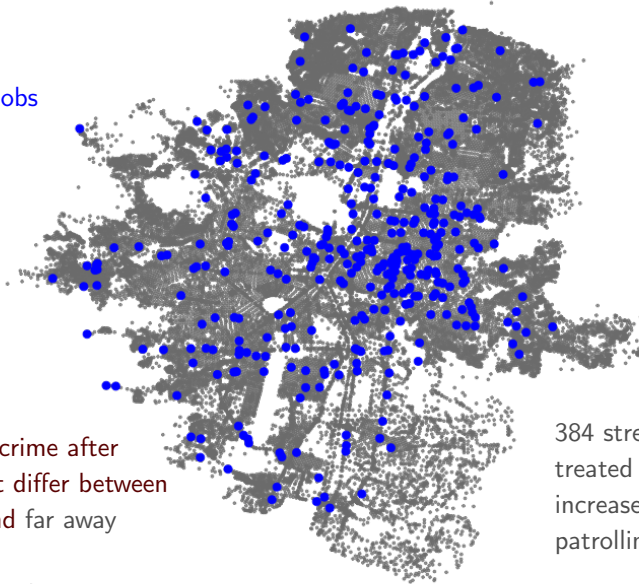


384 streets are treated with increased police patrolling

The observed assignment



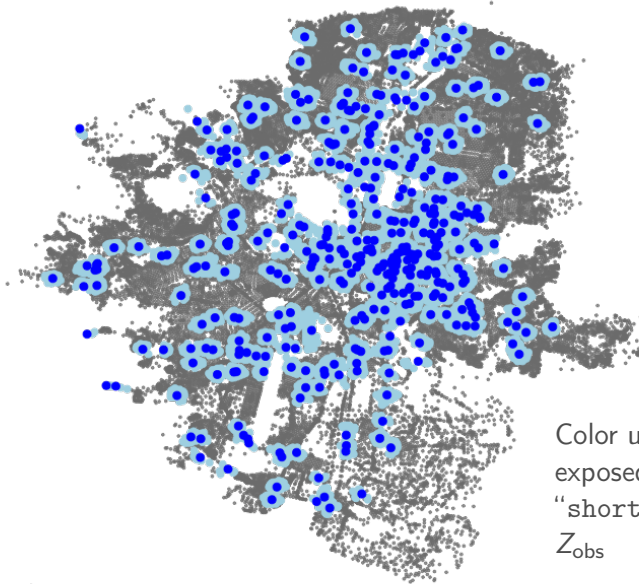
Z_{obs}



Q: Does crime after treatment differ between nearby and far away streets?

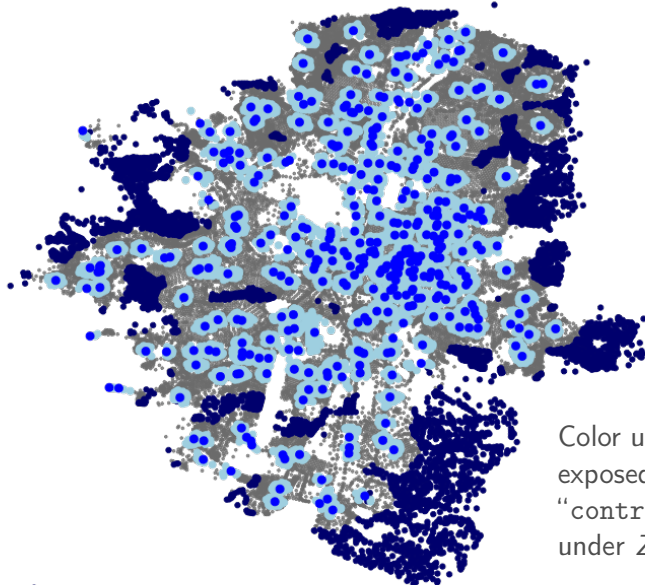
384 streets are treated with increased police patrolling

Short-range spillover units (exposure “short”)



Color units
exposed to
“short” under
 Z_{obs}

Pure control units (exposure “control”)



Color units
exposed to
“control”
under Z_{obs}



We can remake these pictures for every assignment Z drawn from $\text{pr}(Z)$...



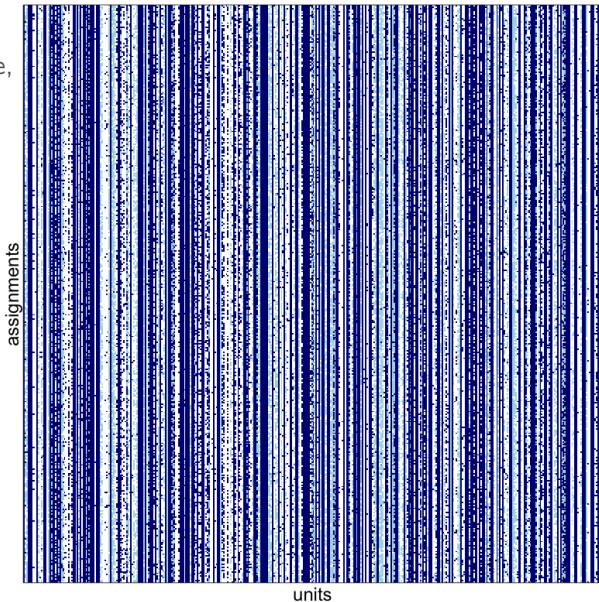
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→ The output is our null exposure graph!

Null exposure graph



navy, light blue,
and white



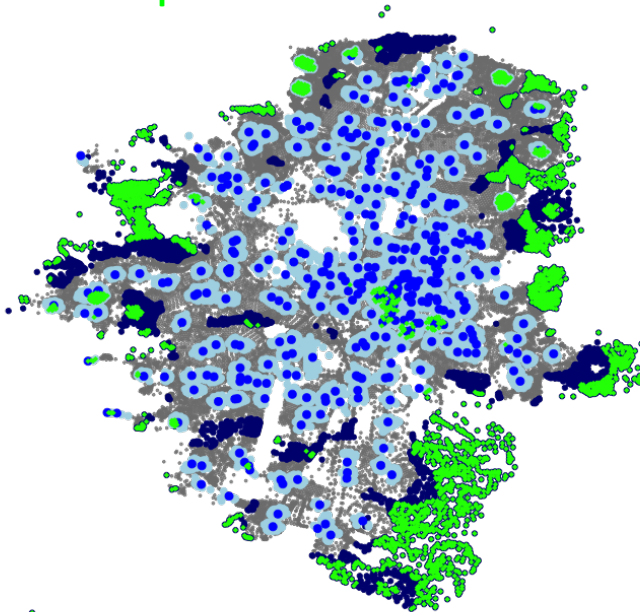
Biclique containing the observed assignment



only navy and
light blue!



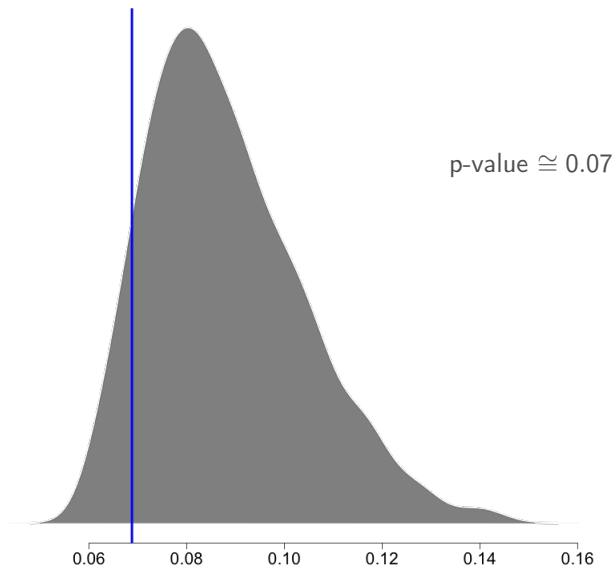
Where are the **clique units**?



A test of the null



Distribution of test statistic under null





- New method is presented for testing causal effects under general interference using null exposure graphs and bicliques.
- Structure is placed on null hypothesis through **exposure functions**.
- Future work: understand power properties; optimized biclique decomposition; more hypotheses.

Thank You!



Athey, Eckles, Imbens, "Exact p-Values for Network Interference" (JASA, 2018)

Basse, Feller, Toulis, "Randomization tests of causal effects under interference" (Biometrika, 2019)

Aronow, "A general method for detecting interference between units in randomized experiments." (Sociol. Methods Res., 2012)