| Some methodological issues on programme evaluation/Impact assessment <br> Linxiu Zhang <br> Center for Chinese Agricultural Policy <br> Chinese Academy of Sciences CAU, Sept.24, 2007 | Content of presentation <br> - Introduction <br> - Evaluation methods <br> - Analytical methods <br> - PScore, DID <br> - Data collection <br> - Sampling <br> - Survey <br> - Example of method application |
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| Objective <br> - Measure the impact of a policy reform or intervention on well-defined outcome variables <br> - Examples: <br> - Childcare subsidy _ child exam results <br> - Targeted training program - employment duration, earnings <br> - HPAI Outbreaks - impact on rural household livestock income or animal vaccination behaviour | example <br> - Impact assessment of parents' migration on child school performance in rural China <br> Objective: <br> Measure parents' migration decision on child's exam results |
| Problems in programme evaluation <br> - Missing data problem: <br> - Each person is either in the program or not (not BOTH): a child is either in a parent migrating family or non-migrating family <br> - There would be no evaluation problem if we can observe the outcome for those in the program had they NOT: if we have one child's exam results in both cases- during parents migrating period and not migrating period <br> - Central issue: how to construct counterfactual. | Selection Bias <br> - $E\left(Y_{1} \mid P=1\right)-E\left(Y_{0} \mid P=0\right)$ <br> $-P$ : whether parents migrated or not, $1=y e s, 0=$ no <br> - $\mathrm{Y}_{1}$ : treated outcome <br> - $\mathrm{Y}_{0}$ : untreated outcome <br> - Add and subtract $E(Y 0 \mid P=1)$, we have $\left\{E\left(Y_{1} \mid P=1\right)-E(Y 0 \mid P=1)\right\}+\{E(Y 0 \mid P=1)-E(Y \mid P=0)\}$ <br> - Average treatment effect on the treated Selecton bias <br> If $E(Y o \mid P=1) \neq E(Y 0 \mid P=0)$ : <br> Selection bias: $E(Y o \mid P=1)-E(Y 0 \mid P=0)$ |

## Evaluation Methods

- Randomized experiments
- Quasi-experiments: natural experiments


## Identification with a randomized experiment

- Provides the correct counterfactual
- eliminates self--selection as a source of bias
- With randomized experiments:
- Programme impacts: $\hat{d}=E(Y \mid$ Treated $)-E(Y \mid$ Control $)$
- In regression:

$$
Y_{i}=\alpha+d * P_{i}+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

- Drawbacks of randomized experiments


## Randomized experiments

- Most convincing: there's a control group that is a random subset of the eligible population
- Randomized experiment in development Progresa (Mexico) Vouchers for private schooling in Columbia ( (Angrist et al. AER 2003)
Merit scholarship program for girls in Kenya (Kremer, Miguel, and Thornton 2003)
Audit program of municipal expenditures in Brazil (Finan and Feraz 2006)


## 2. Quasi-experiment/Natural Experiment

- Considers policy/program itself as an experiment and try to find a comparable experiment control group
- Identification problem: selection bias
- Programme participation not random
- Earlier example:
- Whether a child coming from a migrating family is not random
- intuition: There is something systematically different about a child who is from a migration family (treated) compared to a child who is from a non-migration family (control), which is correlated with counterfactual outcome
- implicaflon: biased impact measure


## Identification strategy

- Depends on what type of data you have:
- Singer cross-section (after programme implementation)
- IV
- Two-step Heckman selection estimator
- Matching (Propensity-Score Matching )
- Panel data (before-after programme)/multiple crosssection
- difference-in-differences
- difference-in-difference matching
- Fixed effects (> two periods)


## Identification strategy(2)

- if two groups are systematically different in characteristics, let's control for them as much as possible.
- Propensity score matching

Controls for observable characteristics
Only use outcome data for after program

- Difference-in-differences
differences out some unobservable characteristics Utilize outcome data before-after program
- Difference-in-differences matching method

Combines the two approaches
Controls for observable and unobservable characteristics

| Brief introduction on method <br> - Propensity Score Matching Method <br> - Difference in differences | Propensity Score Matching Method <br> - Idea of matching <br> - Directly compares individuals with similar values of observable characteristics ( X i <br> - PSM compares individuals with similar probability of participation <br> - P-score $S\left(X_{i}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(P=1 \mid X_{i}\right)$ <br> - Conditional Independence Assumption (CIA): <br> - Matching in general: $\quad\left(Y_{0} \perp P\right) \mid X$ <br> - PSM: $\quad\left(Y_{0} \perp P\right) \mid S(X)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| More Words on PSM <br> - Inexact Matching <br> - It maps X into some lower dimension measure (index) that captures all important information in X , aka P-score <br> - P -score: the probability of receiving treatment conditional on entire space spanned by observables <br> - The P-Score Theorem: If $P$ is randomly assigned conditional on $X$, then $P$ also is randomly assigned condition on $\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{X})$. $\left(Y_{0 i}, Y_{1 i}\right) \perp P_{i}\left\|X_{i} \Rightarrow\left(Y_{0 i}, Y_{1 i}\right) \perp P_{i}\right\| S\left(X_{i}\right)$ | How PSM works <br> Propensity scoring: <br> Step 1: Estimate binary choice model that explains participation <br> Step 2: Obtain the predicted probability of participation "propensity score" <br> Step 3: Match participant and non-participant with similar propensity score <br> Step 4: Compare the weighted averages |
| Balancing property check of P-Score: stop adjusting the logit/probit model when the X's are similar for i with similar P-score <br> - Stratify sample into quintile blocks based on predicted p -score <br> - Within each quintile, compare $\bar{X}_{P=0}, \bar{X}_{P=1}$, test the difference using t-test <br> - If all tests (>95\% of tests) are insignificant, then conclude that the Logit/Probit function is "balancing" the observables ( X ), that is, statistically indistinguishable <br> - If covariate k in particular is not balanced for small blocks, divide them into smaller blocks and reevaluate <br> - If covariate k is not balanced for all blocks, modify the functional form by adding interactions or higher order polynomials in covariate k <br> - Stop change function form when you fail to reject more than $95 \%$ of the time | Matching method <br> - One-to-one matching <br> - Nearest neighbour matching <br> - With/without replacement <br> - Caliper matching: avoids "bad" matching by setting maximum distance allowed (2-5\%) <br> - One-to-multiple matching <br> - Kernel and local linear matching (non-parametric parametric methods) <br> - weights depend on the distance between each comparison group observation and the participant observation for which the counterfactual is being constructed |

## Advantages and limitations

- Advantages of matching (vs. linear regressions)
- Clarifies whether or not comparable untreated observations are available for each treated observation
- avoids identifying effects solely by projections into regions where there are bad or no matches
- Larger weights on untreated observations similar to each treated units when calculating the expected counterfactual for each treated observation (OLS uses all untreated units)
- Limitation
- CIA: Assumes that participation and outcome are based on observable characteristics (XI)
- Might not be able to find the right counterfactual for all participants - Requires lots of variables


## Difference In Differences

- Compares before--after changes of participants vs. before--after change of non--participants
- Any common trends get differenced out.
- limitation:
- only common trends between two groups get differenced out
- We control for base value of Yi, observables, and village fixed effects

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta Y_{i}=\alpha+d P_{i}+\beta_{Y_{i 0}} Y_{i 0}+\beta_{X_{i 0}} X_{i 0}+\gamma_{\text {town }}+\varepsilon_{i} \\
& \text { where } \\
& \Delta Y_{i}=Y_{i 1}-\Delta Y_{i 0}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Two basic assumptions of DID

- unobserved differences does not change over time, in other words, treatment group and control group have the same trend
- Before treatment, the basic characteristics of the two groups are similar in terms of the mean。
$-X$ is a vector of covariates
- $P_{i 1}=1$ if $t=1$ (post-program) and the pupil is a "treated"
- $\mathrm{T}=1$ if $\mathrm{t}=1$ (post-program)
- Pit=1 if the pupil is a "treated"


## Problems with DID

- You can still have selection on observables.

Potentially, you could have

- Omitted variable bias
- Incorrect functional form (matching methods might be able t deal with this type of problem)
- You can still have selection on unobservables
- Correlation in unobservables that determine program participation
- Policy endogeneity: policy adoption is correlated with province-level trends in outcome or expectations about outcome. (need IV)
- Inference problem: DID model uses panel data, we know panel data's OLS standard error is likely to be too low, i.e., $\mathrm{t}=2.00$ might be too loose, you mistakenl reject Ho .

Difference in differences

|  | After | before | after-before |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| participation | A | B | A-B |
| control | C | D | C-D |
|  |  |  | d=(A-B)-(C-D) |



| Data collection <br> - Sampling <br> - Survey instruments | Sampling <br> - To select samples with representativeness <br> - To include different population groups <br> - Participating groups <br> - Control groups |
| :---: | :---: |
| Survey <br> - Information for different periods - Before - after <br> - Information for different groups - Participating - non-participating | Example of impact assessment <br> - Impact of parents migration on child grades |
| Migration, Mentoring and Mothers: The Effect of Migration on Children' Educational Performance in Rural China | Introduction <br> Migration is one of the main ways of alleviating poverty in developing countries <br> Migration itself, however, is not costless. <br> - For example: There may be an adverse effect of migration on the educational achievement of the children of migrants (McKenzie et al. on Mexico) |


| Overall Increase in Off-farm Work | Migration-fastest growing segment |
| :---: | :---: |
| Summary: Migration in China <br> - Migration is rising fast, surpassing 100 million individuals (deBrauw et al., 2002) <br> - Migrants also are moving further away from home and leaving for a longer period of time (Rozelle et al., 1999). <br> - Most of China's migration is by individuals instead of entire households, in most cases the school-aged children of the migrant parents are being left. | Results from current literature <br> - School performance of the migrant children is being adversely affected by migration since parental care falls with migration (Wang and Wu, 2003; Tan and Wang, 2004; Li, 2004; Zhou and Wu, 2004). <br> - These results are all based on casual observation <br> - Are they true? <br> - Is there anything about migration that can offset this effects? |
| Objectives <br> Examine the effect of migration activities of men and women on the educational performance of their children. <br> - Compare the distribution of children's scores for different types of rural households and describe how the grades vary over time. <br> - Examine whether migration negatively affects the school grades of rural children. <br> - Explore how migration will affect children's educational performance in different types of households in terms of wealth or demographic composition. | Data <br> - A data set collected in 2006, with information of changes in school performance of children before and after their parents outmigrated. <br> - 1649 fifth grade students in 36 primary schools in 6 counties in Shaanxi province <br> - Random sample of counties and schools within the counties and classes within the schools ... but surveyed ALL students within each class ... |





