

# How to run an adaptive field experiment

Maximilian Kasy

December 2021

# Is experimentation on humans ethical?

Deaton (2020):

*Some of the RCTs done by western economists on extremely poor people [...] could not have been done on American subjects.*

*It is particularly worrying if the research addresses questions in economics that appear to have no potential benefit for the subjects.*

## Do our experiments have enough power?

Ioannidis et al. (2017):

*We survey 159 empirical economics literatures that draw upon 64,076 estimates of economic parameters reported in more than 6,700 empirical studies. Half of the research areas have nearly 90% of their results under-powered. The median statistical power is 18%, or less.*

## Are experimental sites systematically selected?

Andrews and Oster (2017):

*[...] the selection of locations is often non-random in ways that may influence the results. [...] this concern is particularly acute when we think researchers select units based in part on their predictions for the treatment effect.*

## Claim: Adaptive experimental designs can partially address these concerns

### 1. Ethics and **participant welfare**:

Bandit algorithms are designed to maximize participant outcomes, by shifting to the best performing options at the right speed.

### 2. **Statistical power** and publication bias:

Exploration Sampling (Kasy and Sautmann, 2021), is designed to maximize power for distinguishing the best policy, by focusing attention on competitors for the best option.

### 3. **Political economy**, site selection, and external validity:

Related to the ethical concerns: Design experiments that maximize the stakeholders' goals (where appropriate). This might allow us to reduce site selectivity, by making experiments more widely acceptable.

# What is adaptivity?

- Suppose your experiment takes place over time.
- Not all units are assigned to treatments at the same time.
- You can observe outcomes for some units before deciding on the treatment for later units.
- Then treatment assignment can depend on earlier outcomes, and thus be *adaptive*.

# Why adaptivity?

- Using more information is always better than using less information, when making (treatment assignment) decisions.
- Suppose you want to
  1. **Help participants**  
⇒ Shift toward the best performing option.
  2. **Learn the best treatment**  
⇒ Shift toward best candidate options, to maximize power.
  3. **Estimate treatment effects**  
⇒ Shift toward treatment arms with higher variance.
- Adaptivity allows us to achieve better performance with smaller sample sizes.

# When is adaptivity useful?

## 1. **Time till outcomes are realized:**

- Seconds? (Clicks on a website.)  
Decades? (Alzheimer prevention.)  
Intermediate? (Many settings in economics.)
- Even when outcomes take months, adaptivity can be quite feasible. Splitting the sample into a small number of waves already helps a lot. Surrogate outcomes (discussed later) can shorten the wait time.

## 2. **Sample size and effect sizes:**

- Algorithms can adapt, if they can already learn something before the end of the experiment.
- In very underpowered settings, the benefits of adaptivity are smaller.

## 3. **Technical feasibility:**

- Need to create a pipeline:  
Outcome measurement - belief updating - treatment assignment.
- With apps and mobile devices for fieldworkers, that is quite feasible, but requires some engineering.



## Papers this talk is based on

- Kasy, M. and Sautmann, A. (2021).  
**Adaptive treatment assignment in experiments for policy choice.**  
*Econometrica*
- Caria, S., Gordon, G., Kasy, M., Osman, S., Quinn, S., and Teytelboym, A. (2021).  
**An Adaptive Targeted Field Experiment:  
Job Search Assistance for Refugees in Jordan.**  
*Working paper.*
- Kasy, M. and Teytelboym, A. (2021).  
**Learning by matching.**  
*Revise and resubmit, Econometrics Journal.*
- Kasy, M. and Teytelboym, A. (2020).  
**Adaptive targeted disease testing.**  
*Oxford Review of Economic Policy.*

# Literature

- Statistical decision theory:  
Berger (1985),  
Robert (2007).
- Non-parametric Bayesian methods:  
Ghosh and Ramamoorthi (2003),  
Williams and Rasmussen (2006),  
Ghosal and Van der Vaart (2017).
- Stratification and re-randomization:  
Morgan and Rubin (2012),  
Athey and Imbens (2017).
- Adaptive designs in clinical trials:  
Berry (2006),  
FDA et al. (2018).
- Bandit problems:  
Weber et al. (1992),  
Bubeck and Cesa-Bianchi (2012),  
Russo et al. (2018).
- Regret bounds:  
Agrawal and Goyal (2012),  
Russo and Van Roy (2016).
- Best arm identification:  
Glynn and Juneja (2004),  
Bubeck et al. (2011),  
Russo (2016).
- Bayesian optimization:  
Powell and Ryzhov (2012),  
Frazier (2018).
- Reinforcement learning:  
Ghavamzadeh et al. (2015),  
Sutton and Barto (2018).
- Optimal taxation:  
Mirrlees (1971),  
Saez (2001),  
Chetty (2009),  
Saez and Stantcheva (2016).

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# Setup

- Waves  $t = 1, \dots, T$ , sample sizes  $N_t$ .
- Treatment  $D \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ , outcomes  $Y \in [0, 1]$ , covariate  $X \in \{1, \dots, n_x\}$ .
- Potential outcomes  $Y^d$ .
- Repeated cross-sections:  
( $Y_{it}^1, \dots, Y_{it}^k, X_{it}$ ) are i.i.d. across both  $i$  and  $t$ .
- Average potential outcomes:

$$\theta^{dx} = E[Y_{it}^d | X_{it} = x].$$

# Adaptive targeted assignment

- The algorithms I will discuss are Bayesian.
- Given all the information available at the beginning of wave  $t$ , form posterior beliefs  $P_t$  over  $\theta$ .
- Based on these beliefs, decide what share  $p_t^{dx}$  of stratum  $x$  will be assigned to treatment  $d$  in wave  $t$ .
- How you should to pick these assignment shares depends on the objective you try to maximize.

## Bayesian updating

- In **simple** cases, posteriors are easy to calculate in closed form.
  - Example: Binary outcomes, no covariates.
  - Assume that  $Y \in \{0, 1\}$ ,  $Y_t^d \sim \text{Ber}(\theta^d)$ . Start with a uniform prior for  $\theta$  on  $[0, 1]^k$ .
  - Then the posterior for  $\theta^d$  at time  $t + 1$  is a **Beta** distribution with parameters

$$\alpha_t^d = 1 + T_t^d \cdot \bar{Y}_t^d, \quad \beta_t^d = 1 + T_t^d \cdot (1 - \bar{Y}_t^d).$$

- In more complicated cases, simulate from the posterior using MCMC (more later).
  - For well chosen **hierarchical** priors:
  - $\theta^{dx}$  is estimated as a **weighted average** of the observed success rate for  $d$  in  $x$  and the observed success rates for  $d$  across all other strata.
  - The **weights** are determined **optimally** by the observed amount of heterogeneity across all strata as well as the available sample size in a given stratum.

## Objective I: Participant welfare

- **Regret:** Difference in average outcomes from decision  $d$  versus the optimal decision,

$$\Delta^{dx} = \max_{d'} \theta^{d'x} - \theta^{dx}.$$

- Average **in-sample regret**:

$$\bar{R}_\theta(T) = \frac{1}{\sum_t N_t} \sum_{i,t} \Delta^{D_{it}X_{it}}.$$

- **Thompson sampling**

- Old proposal by Thompson (1933).
- Popular in online experimentation.
- **Assign** each treatment with **probability** equal to the posterior probability that it is optimal, given  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$  and given the information available at time  $t$ .

$$p_t^{dx} = P_t \left( d = \operatorname{argmax}_{d'} \theta^{d'x} \right).$$

# Thompson sampling is efficient for participant welfare

- **Lower bound** (Lai and Robbins, 1985):

Consider the Bandit problem with binary outcomes and any algorithm. Then

$$\liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T}{\log(T)} \bar{R}_\theta(T) \geq \sum_d \frac{\Delta^d}{kl(\theta^d, \theta^*)},$$

where  $kl(p, q) = p \cdot \log(p/q) + (1 - p) \cdot \log((1 - p)/(1 - q))$ .

- **Upper bound for Thompson sampling** (Agrawal and Goyal, 2012):

Thompson sampling achieves this bound, i.e.,

$$\liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T}{\log(T)} \bar{R}_\theta(T) = \sum_d \frac{\Delta^d}{kl(\theta^d, \theta^*)}.$$



## Mixed objective: Participant welfare and point estimates

- Suppose you care about both participant welfare, and precise point estimates / high power for all treatments.
- In Caria et al. (2020), we introduce **Tempered Thompson sampling**: Assign each treatment with probability equal to

$$\tilde{p}_t^{dx} = (1 - \gamma) \cdot p_t^{dx} + \gamma/k.$$

Compromise between full randomization and Thompson sampling.

# Tempered Thompson trades off participant welfare and precision

We show in Caria et al. (2020):

- **In-sample regret** is (approximately) proportional to the share  $\gamma$  of observations fully randomized.
- The **variance** of average potential outcome estimators is proportional
  - to  $\frac{1}{\gamma/k}$  for sub-optimal  $d$ ,
  - to  $\frac{1}{(1-\gamma)+\gamma/k}$  for conditionally optimal  $d$ .
- The variance of **treatment effect** estimators, comparing the conditional optimum to alternatives, is therefore decreasing in  $\gamma$ .
- An **optimal** choice of  $\gamma$  **trades off** regret and estimator variance.

## Objective II: Policy choice

- Suppose you will **choose a policy** after the experiment, based on posterior beliefs,

$$d_T^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_d \hat{\theta}_T^d, \quad \hat{\theta}_T^d = E_T[\theta^d].$$

- Evaluate experimental designs based on expected welfare (ex ante, given  $\theta$ ).
- Equivalently, expected **policy regret**

$$\Delta^{d_T^*} = \sum_d \Delta^d \cdot \mathbf{1}(d_T^* = d), \quad \Delta^d = \max_{d'} \theta^{d'} - \theta^d.$$

- In Kasy and Sautmann (2021), we introduce **Exploration sampling**: Assign shares  $q_t^d$  of each wave to treatment  $d$ , where

$$q_t^d = S_t \cdot p_t^d \cdot (1 - p_t^d),$$
$$p_t^d = P_t \left( d = \operatorname{argmax}_{d'} \theta^{d'} \right), \quad S_t = \frac{1}{\sum_d p_t^d \cdot (1 - p_t^d)}.$$

# Exploration sampling is efficient for policy choice

- We show:
  - The posterior probability  $p_t^d$  that each treatment is optimal goes to  $\mathbf{0}$  at the same rate for all sub-optimal treatments.
  - Posterior expected **policy regret** also goes to  $\mathbf{0}$  at the same rate.
  - No other algorithm can achieve a faster rate.
- Key intuition of proof: Equalizing power.
  1. Suppose  $p_t^d$  goes to  $\mathbf{0}$  at a faster rate for some  $d$ .  
Then exploration sampling stops assigning this  $d$ .  
This allows the other treatments to “catch up.”
  2. Balancing the rate of convergence implies efficiency.

*Aside: There were some errors in our original proof, but the main result holds up.*

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# Inference

- Inference has to take into account adaptivity, in general.
- Example:
  - Flip a fair coin.
  - If head, flip again, else stop.
  - Probability distribution: 50% tail-stop, 25% head-tail, 25% head-head.
  - Expected share of heads?

$$.5 \cdot 0 + .25 \cdot .5 + .25 \cdot 1 = .375 \neq .5.$$

- But:
  1. **Bayesian** inference works without modification.
  2. **Randomization tests** can be modified to work in adaptive settings.
  3. **Standard inference** (e.g., t-tests) works under some conditions.

# Bayesian inference

- The likelihood, and thus the posterior, are **not affected by adaptive** treatment assignment.
- Claim: The likelihood of  $(D_1, \dots, D_M, Y_1, \dots, Y_M)$  equals  $\prod_i P(Y_i|D_i, \theta)$ , up to a constant that does not depend on  $\theta$ .
- Proof: Denote  $H_i = (D_1, \dots, D_{i-1}, Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(D_1, \dots, D_M, Y_1, \dots, Y_M | \theta) &= \prod_i P(D_i, Y_i | H_i, \theta) \\ &= \prod_i P(D_i | H_i, \theta) \cdot P(Y_i | D_i, H_i, \theta) \\ &= \prod_i P(D_i | H_i) \cdot P(Y_i | D_i, \theta). \end{aligned}$$

## Randomization inference

- Strong null hypothesis:  $Y_i^1 = \dots = Y_i^k$ .
- Under this null, it is easy to re-simulate the treatment assignment: Just let your assignment algorithm run with the data, switching out the treatments.
- Do this many times, re-calculate the test statistic each time.
- Take the  $1 - \alpha$  quantile across simulations as critical value.
- This delivers **finite-sample exact inference** for any adaptive assignment scheme.



## T-tests and F-tests

- As shown above, sample averages in treatment arms are, in general, biased, cf. Hadad et al. (2019).
- But: **Under some conditions**, the **bias is negligible** in large samples.
- In particular, suppose
  1.  $\left(\sum_{i,t} \mathbf{1}(D_{it} = d)\right) / \tilde{N}_T^d \rightarrow^p 1$
  2.  $\tilde{N}_T^d$  is non-random and goes to  $\infty$ .
- Then the standard law of large numbers and central limit theorem apply. T-tests can ignore adaptivity (Melfi and Page, 2000).
- This works for Exploration Sampling, Tempered Thompson sampling: Assignment shares are bounded away from  $\mathbf{0}$ .
- This does not work for typical Bandit algorithms (e.g. Thompson sampling): Assignment shares for sub-optimal treatments go to  $\mathbf{0}$  too fast.

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## Data pipeline

Example pipeline for one wave (cf. Caria et al. 2020):

1. On a **central machine**, update the prior based on available data.
2. Calculate treatment assignment probabilities for each stratum.
3. Upload these to a **web-server**.
4. Field workers encounter participants, and enter participant covariates on a **mobile device**.
5. The mobile device assigns a treatment to participants, based on their covariates and the downloaded assignment probabilities.
6. A bit later, outcome data are collected, and transmitted to the central machine.

This is not too difficult, but it requires careful planning.

All steps should be **automated** for smooth implementation!

## Surrogate outcomes

- We don't always observe the desired outcomes / measures of welfare quickly enough – or at all.
- Potential solution: **Surrogate** outcomes (Athey et al., 2019):
  - Suppose we want to maximize  $Y$ , but only observe other outcomes  $W$ , which satisfy the **surrogacy condition**

$$D \perp (Y^1, \dots, Y^d) | W.$$

- This holds **if all causal pathways** from  $D$  to  $Y$  **go through**  $W$ .
- Let  $\hat{y}(W) = E[Y|W]$ , estimated from auxiliary data. Then

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y|D] &= E[E[Y|D, W]|D] \\ &= E[E[Y|W]|D] = E[\hat{y}(W)|D]. \end{aligned}$$

- Implication: We can design algorithms that target maximization of  $\hat{y}(W)$ , and they will achieve the same objective.

## Choice of prior

- One option: Informative prior, based on prior data or expert beliefs.
- I recommend instead: Default priors that are
  1. **Symmetric**: Start with exchangeable treatments, strata.
  2. **Hierarchical**: Model heterogeneity of effects across treatments, strata.  
Learn “hyper-parameters” (levels and degree of heterogeneity) from the data.  
⇒ Bayes estimates will be based on optimal partial pooling.
  3. **Diffuse**: Make your prior for the hyper-parameters uninformative.
- Example:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{it}^d | (X_{it} = x, \theta^{dx}, \alpha^d, \beta^d) &\sim \text{Ber}(\theta^{dx}), \\ \theta^{dx} | (\alpha^d, \beta^d) &\sim \text{Beta}(\alpha^d, \beta^d), \\ (\alpha^d, \beta^d) &\sim \pi. \end{aligned}$$

# MCMC sampling from the posterior

- For hierarchical models, posterior probabilities such as  $p_t^{dx}$  can be calculated by sampling from the posterior using **Markov Chain Monte Carlo**.
- General purpose Bayesian packages such as **Stan** make this easy:
  - Just specify your likelihood and prior.
  - The package takes care of the rest, using “Hamiltonian Monte Carlo.”
- Alternatively, do it **“by hand”** (e.g. using our code):
  - Combine Gibbs sampling & Metropolis-Hasting.
  - Given the hyper-parameters, sample from closed-form posteriors for  $\theta$ .
  - Given  $\theta$ , sample hyper-parameters using Metropolis (accept/reject) steps.

# The political economy of experimentation

- Experiments often involve some **conflict of interest**, that might prevent experimentation where it could be useful.
  - Academic experimenters:  
“We want to get estimates that we can publish.”
  - Implementation partners:  
“We know what’s best, so don’t prevent us from helping our clients.”
- Adaptive designs can **partially resolve** these conflicts
  1. Maintain controlled treatment assignment,
  2. but choose assignment probabilities to maximize stakeholder objectives.
- Conflicts can of course remain.  
e.g. Which outcomes to maximize? Choose carefully!

## Conclusion

- Using adaptive designs in field experiments can have great **benefits**:
  1. More ethical, by helping participants as much as possible.
  2. Better power for a given sample size, by targeting policy learning.
  3. More acceptable to stakeholders, by aligning design with their objectives.
- Adaptive designs are practically **feasible**:  
We have implemented them in the field.  
E.g., labor market interventions for Syrian refugees in Jordan,  
and agricultural outreach for subsistence farmers in India.
- Implementation requires learning some new **tools**.
  - I have developed some software to facilitate implementation.
  - Interactive apps for treatment assignment, and source code for various designs.

`https://maxkasy.github.io/home/code-and-apps/`



Thank you!