# Randomization Inference with Natural Experiments: An Analysis of Ballot Effects in the 2003 California Recall Election 

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3. Candidate names are systematically rotated for the rest of assembly districts.

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^ Many candidate names start with the same letter of the alphabet.

California Assembly Districts by Percentage of Registered Democrats


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$\star T_{i}=1$ if the candidate is listed on the first page, and $T_{i}=0$ otherwise.
$\star Y_{i}=Y_{i}(1) T_{i}+\left(1-T_{i}\right) Y_{i}(0)$
$Y_{i}(1)$ : potential vote share when the candidate is placed on the first page.
$Y_{i}(0)$ : potential vote share when the candidate is not placed on the first page.
$\star t_{i}$ and $y_{i}$ : observed values of $T_{i}$ and $Y_{i}$.
$\star$ Unit ballot page effect: $\tau_{i} \equiv Y_{i}(1)-Y_{i}(0)$.
- Hypothesis Testing Procedure:

1. Formulate a (sharp) null hypothesis:
$\star \mathrm{H}_{0}: \tau_{i}=0$ for all $i=1, \ldots, 121$
$\star$ Unit ballot effect is zero for all districts; i.e., $Y_{i}(1)=Y_{i}(0)=y_{i} \forall i$.
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2. Choose a test statistic:
^ Sample average ballot effect:

$$
W^{D}(T)=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{121} T_{i} y_{i}}{N_{1}}-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{121}\left(1-T_{i}\right) y_{i}}{N_{0}}
$$

corresponding to the difference-in-means estimator.
^ Covariance-adjusted statistic:

$$
W^{L}(T)=\left(T^{\top} M T\right)^{-1} T^{\top} M y
$$

corresponding to the linear least squares estimator, where $y=$ $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{121}\right), M=I-X\left(X^{\top} X\right)^{-1} X^{\top}$, and $X$ is the matrix of the observed pretreatment covariates.
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- Since the number of permutations is large, we use Monte Carlo approximation,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(W^{D}(T) \geq W^{D}(t)\right) \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} I\left(W^{D}\left(T^{(j)}\right) \geq W^{D}(t)\right)
$$

with $\mathrm{m}=10,000$.


- No significant effect on major candidates.
- Positive ballot effect on $40 \%$ of minor candidates.

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W_{\tau_{0}}^{D}(T)=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{121} T_{i}\left\{y_{i}+\left(1-t_{i}\right) \tau_{0}\right\}}{\sum_{i=1}^{121} T_{i}}-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{121}\left(1-T_{i}\right)\left(y_{i}-t_{i} \tau_{0}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{121}\left(1-T_{i}\right)},
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or its covariance-adjusted analogue

$$
W_{\tau_{0}}^{L}(T)=\left(T^{\top} M T\right)^{-1} T^{\top} M y^{*}
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where each element of $y^{*}$ is $y_{i}^{*}=T_{i}\left\{y_{i}+\left(1-t_{i}\right) \tau_{0}\right\}+\left(1-T_{i}\right)\left(y_{i}-t_{i} \tau_{0}\right)$.

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W_{\tau_{0}}^{\mathrm{L}}(\mathrm{~T})=\left(\mathrm{T}^{\top} M T\right)^{-1} \mathrm{~T}^{\top} M y^{*},
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3. Two-tailed level $\alpha$ test; accept $\mathrm{H}_{0}$ if

$$
t \in A_{\alpha}\left(\tau_{0}\right)=\left\{u: \frac{\alpha}{2} \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left(W_{\tau_{0}}^{D}(T) \geq W^{D}(u)\right) \leq 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}\right\}
$$

and reject $\mathrm{H}_{0}$ otherwise.

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Inverting the test:

- The $(1-\alpha)$ confidence set; $C_{\alpha}(t)=\left\{\tau: t \in A_{\alpha}(\tau)\right\}$.
- Confidence interval defined as the shortest closed interval in the confidence set.
- Identify the upper and lower bounds, $\tau_{\mathrm{L}}=\sup _{\tau} A_{\alpha}(\tau)$ and $\tau_{u}=\inf _{\tau} A_{\alpha}(\tau)$, via a (Monte Carlo) bisection algorithm.
- Nonparametric estimates of CDF (for the sampling distributions of causal effect estimators) can also be obtained by estimating $\tau_{\mathrm{U}}$ and $\tau_{\mathrm{L}}$ for different values of $\alpha \in[0,0.5]$.



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|  | Without Covariates |  |  | With Covariates |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | OLS | GLM logit | RI Fisher | OLS | GLM logit | RI Fisher |
| Major Candidates |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Schwarzenegger | $1.09 \quad 9.63$ | -1.23 7.53 | -23.72 19.90 | $\begin{array}{ll}-2.97 & 0.21\end{array}$ | -4.98-2.05 | $\begin{array}{ll}-6.44 & 6.87\end{array}$ |
| Bustamante | $-8.460 .54$ | -5.37 4.04 | $-20.0720 .31$ | $\begin{array}{ll}-1.12 & 1.78\end{array}$ | $0.96 \quad 3.01$ | $\begin{array}{lll}-5.86 & 5.64\end{array}$ |
| McClintock | $0.50 \quad 3.09$ | $\begin{array}{ll}-1.10 & 1.24\end{array}$ | -3.47 6.36 | $1.56 \quad 3.25$ | $0.29 \quad 2.05$ | $0.36 \quad 3.57$ |
| All Candidates |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Positive effects | 56(41\%) | 63(47\%) | 55(41\%) | $50(37 \%)$ | 59(44\%) | 47(35\%) |
| Negative effects | 11 (8\%) | 8 (6\%) | 4 (3\%) | 8 (6\%) | 17 (13\%) | 2 (1\%) |
| Null effects | 68(50\%) | 64(47\%) | 59(44\%) | $77(57 \%)$ | 59(44\%) | 64(47\%) |
| Unidentified | 0 (0\%) | 0 (0\%) | 17(13\%) | 0 (0\%) | 0 (0\%) | 22(16\%) |
| Comparison with Randomization Inference |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Agreement | 89 (66\%) | 87(64\%) | 108(80\%) | 88(65\%) | 74(55\%) | 108(80\%) |

Comparisons of Confidence Intervals and CDF

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Schwarzenegger (No Covariates)


Schwarzenegger (Covariates)


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- Randomized natural experiments provide social scientists with rare opportunities to draw valid causal inferences.
- The randomization inference framework can directly incorporate complex randomization schemes in natural experiments.

