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Estimating the dose-response function through the GLM approach

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Abstract. This paper revises the estimation of the dose-response function as in Hirano and Imbens (2004) by proposing a flexible way to estimate the generalized propensity score when the treatment variable is not necessarily normally distributed. We also provide a set of programs that accomplish this task by using the GLM in the first step of the computation.

Keywords: generalized propensity score, GLM, dose-response, continuous treatment, bias removal

1 Introduction

How effective are policy programs with continuous treatment exposure? Answering this question essentially amounts to estimate a dose-response function as proposed in Hirano and Imbens (2004). Whenever doses are not randomly assigned, but are given under experimental conditions, estimation of a dose-response function is possible using the Generalized Propensity Score (GPS). The GPS for continuous treatment is an extension of the popular propensity score methodology for binary treatments (Rosenbaum and Rubin, 1983, 1984) and multi-valued treatments (Imbens, 2000; Lechner, 2001). Indeed, Hirano and Imbens show that the GPS has a balancing property similar to the binary propensity score. Conditional on observable characteristics, the level of the treatment can be considered as random for units belonging to the same GPS strata. It means that adjusting for the GPS removes all biases associated with differences in the covariates. Since its formulation, the GPS has been repeatedly used in observational studies and *ad hoc* programs have been provided for STATA users `doseresponse.ado` and `gpscore.ado` by Bia and Mattei (2008), henceforth BM. However, many applied works (Fryges and Wagner, 2008; Fryges, 2009) remark that the treatment variable may be not normally distributed. In this case the BM programs are not usable as they do not allow for different distribution assumptions other than the normal density.

In this paper we overcome this problem. Building on BM programs we provide a new set of STATA programs, `doseresponse2.ado` and `gpscore2.ado`, which allows to accommodate different distribution functions of the treatment variable. This task is accomplished through by the application of the Generalized Lineal

Models estimator, GLM, in the first step instead of the Maximum Likelihood, ML, for normal distribution.

In order to easily compare our programs with the BM ones, we use the same dataset used by BM and originally collected by Imbens et al (2001). The sample is made up of individuals winning the Megabucks lottery in Massachusetts in the mid-1980's. The main source of potential bias is the unit and item nonresponse. Hirano and Imbens (2004) claim that it is possible to prove that the nonresponse was non-random. The missing data imply that the amount of the prize is potentially correlated with background characteristics and potential outcomes. It may be useful to remind that using these bias reducing techniques, it is possible to reduce, not to eliminate the bias generated by unobservable heterogeneity. The extent to which unconfoundedness holds, namely the extent to which the bias is reduced, depends on the quality of the database used to compute the GPS. This caveat is independent of the particular distribution function one is willing to assume for the treatment variable.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 briefly reviews the estimation of the dose-response function. Section 3 introduces the GLM and explains how to use it to fit the GPS. Section 3.1. analyzes flogit, a special case of particular interest in economics. Section 4 describes how the programs work step by step. Section 5 and 6 list the syntax and the options, respectively. Section 7 presents an application of the programs using some non-normal distribution of the treatment variable. Section 8 concludes.

2 A brief review of the econometrics of the dose-response function

Let us define a set of potential outcomes $\{Y_i(t)\}$ for $t \in \mathcal{T}$, where \mathcal{T} represents the continuous set of potential treatments defined over the interval $[t_0, t_1]$, and $Y_i(t)$ is referred to as the unit-level dose-response function.

Let us suppose to have a random sample of N units. For each unit i we observe a $k \times 1$ vector of pre-treatment covariates, X_i , the level of the treatment delivered, T_i , and the outcome corresponding to the level of the treatment received, $Y_i = Y_i(T_i)$. We are interested in the average dose-response function $\psi(t) = E[Y_i(t)]$.

Under some regularity conditions¹ of $\{Y_i(t)\}$, X_i , and T_i Hirano and Imbens define the propensity function as the conditional density of the actual treatment given the covariates. More in detail, if we define as $r(t, x) = f_{T|X}(t|x)$ the conditional density function of the treatment given the covariates, then the GPS is

$$R = r(T|X)$$

The balancing property can be defined similarly to the binary case. That is, within strata with the same value of $r(t, x)$, the probability that $T = t$ does

¹For each i , $\{Y_i(t)\}$, X_i and T_i are supposed to be defined on a common probability space, T_i is continuously distributed with respect to Lebsgue measure on \mathcal{T} , and $Y_i = Y_i(T_i)$ is a well defined random variable.

not depend on the value of X :

$$X \perp 1\{T = t\} | r(t, x)$$

This balancing property, along with unconfoundedness implies that assignment to treatment is unconfounded given the GPS. If weak unconfoundedness assumption holds, given the pre-treatment variables X , we have:

$$Y(t) \perp T | X \quad \forall t \in \mathcal{T}$$

then, for every t

$$f_T(t | r(t, X), Y(t)) = f_T(t | r(t, X))$$

this means that the GPS can be used to eliminate any bias associated with differences in the covariates (for a formal proof see Theorem 2.1 and 3.1 of Hirano and Imbens, 2004). Therefore, the dose-response function can be obtained as

$$\gamma(t, r) = E[Y(t) | r(t, X) = r] = E[Y | T = t, R = r] \quad (1)$$

$$\psi(t) = E[\gamma(t, r(t, X))] \quad (2)$$

Practical implementation of the GPS is accomplished in three steps².

In the first step the score $r(t, x)$ is estimated. In the second step the conditional expectation of the outcome as a function of two scalar variables, the treatment level T and the GPS R , is estimated, $E[Y | T = t, R = r]$. In the third step the dose-response function, $\psi(t) = E[\gamma(t, r(t, X))]$, $t \in \mathcal{T}$, is estimated by averaging the estimated conditional expectation, $\hat{\gamma}(t, r(t, X))$, over the GPS at each level of the treatment one is interested in.

As the second and the third step in our programs replicate BM's program, we refer to it for more details about these steps. While, we will devote more attention in explaining how our programs implement the first step to compute the score $r(t, x)$.

3 Estimation of the score through the GLM

In many economic applications T cannot be supposed to be normally distributed and assuming a normal distribution of the treatment given the covariates, $T_i | X_i \sim N(\beta' X_i, \sigma^2)$ where β is $k \times 1$ vector of parameters, has several drawbacks. The problem is not new in the econometric literature, think about count, binomial, fractional and survival data, just to cite a few (see Wooldridge 2002 for a comprehensive review of this topic). Taking into account what before, we aim to go beyond these problems presenting a possible solution to the estimation of the GPS in these cases. Our idea consists in replacing the linear regression³ by the GLM developed by McCullagh and Nelder (1989) in the first step to estimate the dose-response, and to retrieve the GPS from the exponential

²Hirano and Imbens and BM use the notation μ instead of ψ and β instead of γ . We have slightly changed notation in order to avoid confusion in the following Sections.

³Precisely, the programs by BM estimate the GPS assuming $T | X$ or some transformations of T , $g(T) | X$, normally distributed. The estimation of β is performed through the ML.

family distribution. By using the GLM the modelling differs from the ordinary regression in two important respects. First, the distribution of T is chosen from the exponential family. Thus, the distribution may not be normal or close to the normal and may be explicitly non-normal. Second, a transformation of the mean of the treatment is linearly related to the explanatory variables. These two basic ingredients of the GLM can be formalized as follows:

$$f(T) = c(T, \phi) \exp \left\{ \frac{T\theta - a(\theta)}{\phi} \right\} \quad (3)$$

$$g\{E(T)\} = \beta' X \quad (4)$$

Equation (3) specifies that the distribution of the treatment variable belongs to the exponential family. Equation (4) states that a transformation of the mean $g(\cdot)$ is linearly related to explanatory variables contained in X .

The choice of $a(\theta)$, commonly referred to as the *family*, is guided by the nature of the treatment variable. It determines the actual probability function, such as the Binomial, Poisson, Normal, Gamma, Inverse Gaussian and Negative Binomial. Moreover, irrespectively of the distribution chosen the following relationships hold for the first and the second moment:

$$E(T) = \dot{a}(\theta), \quad Var(T) = \phi \ddot{a}(\theta)$$

where the dots represent the first and the second derivative with respect to θ .

The choice of $g(\cdot)$, a monotonic, differentiable function called *link* function, is suggested by the functional form of the relationship between the treatment and the explanatory variables. It determines how the mean is related to the covariates X . While θ and ϕ represent the canonical parameter and the dispersion parameter, respectively. In this context, given X , μ is determined through $g(\mu)$. Given μ , θ is determined through $\dot{a}(\theta) = \mu$. Finally given θ , T_i is determined as a draw from the exponential density specified in $a(\theta)$.

The following Table 1 lists the distributions attainable from the exponential family⁴ according to the canonical link and the functional form of $a(\theta)$.

It appears clearly that the extra steps compared to ordinary regression modelling are related to the choice of the *family* and *link* options: $a(\theta)$ and $g(\mu)$. Indeed, by substituting various definitions of $g(\cdot)$ and $f(\cdot)$ it is possible to obtain a surprising array of models. Some combinations of distribution and link functions are worth mentioning. If T is distributed normally and $g(\cdot)$ is the identity function

$$E(T) = \beta' X, \quad T \sim Normal$$

we have the linear regression.

If $g(\cdot)$ is the logit (probit) function and T is distributed as a Bernoulli

$$\log \left\{ \frac{E(T)}{1 - E(T)} \right\} = \beta' X, \quad T \sim Bernoulli \quad (5)$$

⁴The form of $c(T, \phi)$ is not shown in the table because in most situations it is not of interest. For a formal proof see De Jong and Heller (2008, ch. 3) or Rabe-Hesketh and Everitt (2000, ch. 7).

Table 1: Exponential family distributions and their parameters

Distribution	link function: $\theta = g(\cdot)$	$a(\theta)$	ϕ	$E(T)$	$Var(T)/\phi$
$B(n, \pi)$	$\log \frac{\pi}{1-\pi}$	$n \log(1 + e^\theta)$	1	$n\pi$	$n\pi(1 - \pi)$
$P(\mu)$	$\log(\mu)$	e^θ	1	μ	μ
$N(\mu, \sigma^2)$	μ	$\frac{\theta^2}{2}$	σ^2	μ	1
$G(\mu, \nu)$	$-\frac{1}{\mu}$	$-\log(-\theta)$	$\frac{1}{\nu}$	μ	μ^2
$IG(\mu, \sigma^2)$	$-\frac{1}{2\mu^2}$	$-\sqrt{-2\theta}$	σ^2	μ	μ^3
$NB(\mu, k)$	$\log \frac{k\mu}{1+k\mu}$	$-\frac{1}{k}(1 - k e^\theta)$	1	μ	$\mu(1 + k\mu)$

Where π is the probability of a positive occurrence, n the number of Bernoulli trials, k is the negative binomial dispersion parameter and ν is the gamma scale parameter.

we have a logistic (probit) regression.

If $g(\cdot)$ is the natural log and T is distributed as a Poisson

$$\log \{E(T)\} = \beta' X, \quad T \sim Poisson$$

we have the Poisson regression.

If $g(\cdot)$ is the natural log and T is distributed as a Negative Binomial

$$\log \{E(T)\} = \beta' X, \quad T \sim Negative Binomial$$

we have the Negative Binomial regression, which, with respect to the Poisson regression can account for overdispersion.

Other links, different from the canonical ones, are possible. However, not all combinations of family and link make sense. Table 2 reports the feasible combinations.

Table 2: Feasible family-link combinations

Link / Distr	Normal	Inv. Normal	Binomial	Poisson	Neg. Binomial	Gamma
id	X	X	X	X	X	X
log	X	X	X	X	X	X
logit			X			
probit			X			
cloglog			X			
power	X	X	X	X	X	X
opower			X			
nbin					X	
loglog			X			
logc			X			

We highlight that using the GLM it is possible to accommodate for a very broad spectrum of distributions of T , by simply changing *family* and *link*. Moreover, Hirano and Imbens state that ... *in the first stage we use a normal distribution of the treatment given the covariates [...] we may consider more general models such as mixtures of normals, or heteroskedastic*. The GLM fully captures this point as allowing T to be a member of the exponential family the

treatment can be heteroskedastic. Thus, the variance will vary with the mean which, in turn, varies with explanatory variables.

The GLM is a quasi-maximum likelihood, QML, estimator and β is obtained by maximizing the following log-likelihood,

$$l(\beta) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^N l_i(\beta) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^N \log f(T_i; \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ \log c(T_i, \phi) + \frac{T_i \theta_i - a(\theta_i)}{\phi} \right\} \quad (6)$$

for T_i independently distributed.

Being the GPS the conditional density of the treatment received given the covariates, we can compute the GPS by using the exponential density function evaluated at $\hat{\beta}$, given the covariates

$$R = r(T, X) = f(\hat{\beta})$$

where f is according to (3). Put another way, the GPS coincides with the vector of the likelihood evaluated at $\hat{\beta}$, $L(\hat{\beta})$, where $L(\hat{\beta}) = \exp(l(\hat{\beta}))$.

However, whenever T is discrete or fractional a clarification is in order. In these cases the ML in (6) is replaced by the Bernoulli-QML, as in (7)

$$l^B(\beta) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^N l_i^B(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^N T_i \log[F(T_i; \beta)] + (1 - T_i) \log[1 - F(T_i; \beta)] \quad (7)$$

If T is binary and (7) is estimated by setting Binomial as family and logit (or probit) as link, equation (7) reproduces exactly the case of binary treatment. In this case the probability of being assigned to treatment, i.e. the *pscore*, is $F(T = 1)$ which is the cumulated logit (or probit) evaluated at $\hat{\beta}'X$ for $T = 1$. By definition, this is not the cumulated logit (or probit) evaluated at the actual level of the treatment received, which can be either 0 or 1. Starting from this consideration we extend this argument from the binary to the fractional case. Since a great part of the empirical literature has come across the necessity to estimate a dose-response function with fractional treatment data (Fryges and Wagner, 2008; Fryges, 2009) we reckon this case to deserve special attention. For this reason we will treat it in more details in the following subsection.

3.1 Flogit or fractional treatment data, a case of particular interest

In economics it is quite common to come across a fractional depended variable, in our set up $T \in [0, 1]$. Some examples include fraction of income contributed to charity, fraction of weekly hours spent working, proportion of a total firm capitalization accounted for by debt capital, high school graduates rates and export sales ratio. (see Hausman and Leonard, 1997; Liu et al, 1999, Wagner, 2001; Fryges and Wagner, 2008; Fryges, 2009). Papke and Wooldridge (1996) show that the problems of linear models for fractional data are analogous to that of the linear probability model for binary data. It means that if T is bounded

the effect of any particular covariate in X_i cannot be constant over its range. Augmenting the model with non-linear functions of X_i does not overcome the problem as the values from an OLS regression can never be guaranteed to lie in the unit interval.

The common practice of regressing the log-odds ratio, i.e. $\log[T/(1-T)]$ in the linear regression instead of T , generates problems whenever any observation T_i takes on the values 0 or 1 with positive probability. As a practice, in this situation when T_i are proportions from fixed number of groups with known group size, the extreme values are adjusted before taking the transformation. However, not always the fraction T_i is a proportion from a discrete group size. In addition, if a large percentage is at the extremes the adjustment mechanism is at least debatable. Papke and Wooldridge sidestep these problems specifying a class of functional forms for $E(T|X)$ and show how to estimate the parameters using Bernoulli-QML, estimator of β , namely the GLM. In particular, they assume that, for all i

$$E(T_i|X_i) = F(\beta'X_i) \quad (8)$$

where $F(\cdot)$ is typically a logit or probit function, from here the name of logit estimator.⁵

Analogously to the binary case, the estimation procedure defines the Bernoulli log-likelihood function as:

$$l_i(\beta) \equiv T_i \log[F(\beta'X_i)] + (1 - T_i) \log[1 - F(\beta'X_i)]$$

and maximizes the sum of $l_i(\beta)$ over all N using the GLM. Being the GPS the probability of the actual, i.e. the observed, treatment received, $L_i^B(\beta)$ does not coincide with the GPS⁶. $[1 - F(\beta'X_i)]$ attains the probability of receiving $T = 1 - t$, which is not the actual treatment, i.e. the observed one, but its complement. Hence, it must not enter the gpscore. The estimated GPS based on the Bernoulli log-likelihood function in (5) is:

$$R_i = F(\hat{\beta}'X_i) \quad \forall i$$

In this respect, the GPS and the pscore are computable exactly in the same way, whenever the likelihood is Bernoulli.

Therefore, as a general rule we can state that using the GLM in the first step of the dose-response function, to retrieve the GPS one must:

- take $L(\hat{\beta})$ whenever the QML is not Bernoulli;
- take $F(\hat{\beta}'X_i)$ whenever the QML is a Bernoulli-QML, where $F(\cdot)$ is the probability of succeeding, i.e. of being assigned to treatment t . That is exactly what our programs implement automatically⁷.

⁵Notice that in the notation of (4) $F = g^{-1}$ for instance, if $g(\cdot)$ is the log-odds or logit transformation, $g(\mu) = \log[\mu/(1-\mu)]$, $F = \exp(\mu)/[1 + \exp(\mu)]$ that is $F = \Lambda$, the logit distribution.

⁶See Wooldridge (2002) pp. 659- 664.

⁷The authors wish to thank K. Hirano for having helped them on this point in a private conversation. Differently from our approach in a Bernoulli-QML Fryges and Wagner (2008) and Fryges (2009) take $L_i^B(\hat{\beta})$.

4 The Estimation Algorithm

The implementation method can be broken down into three steps. In the first step the program `gpscore2.ado` estimates the GPS and tests the balancing properties, for any family and link set. In the second step, the conditional expectation of the outcome is estimated as a function of the treatment level T and the GPS R , $\gamma(t, r) = E[Y|T = t, R = r]$. Finally, in the third step the dose-response functions, $\psi(t) = E[\gamma(t, r(t, X))]$, is estimated by averaging the estimated conditional expectation, $\hat{\gamma}(t, r(t, X))$, over the GPS at each level of the treatment the user is interested in.

In detail, the first step is implemented as follows:

1. Estimate the parameters θ and ϕ of the selected conditional distribution of the treatment given the covariates. Indeed, the distribution of T is chosen from the exponential family through the family and link option.
2. If the family selected is Normal assess the validity of the assumed Normal distribution model by one of the following, user-specified goodness-of-fit tests: the Kolmogorov-Sminorv, the Shapiro-Francia, the Shapiro-Wilk, or the STATA Skewness and kurtosis test for normality. The user can skip the test through the `flag.b(2)` option. If the Normal distribution model is statistically disapproved, inform the user that the assumption of Normality is not satisfied. The user is invited to use a different family and link option or a different transformation of the treatment variable.
3. Estimate the GPS as

$$\hat{R}_i = r(T, X) = c(T, \hat{\phi}) \exp \left\{ \frac{T\hat{\theta} - a(\hat{\theta})}{\hat{\phi}} \right\}$$

where $\hat{\theta}$ and $\hat{\phi}$ are the estimated parameters in step 1.

4. Test the balancing property and inform the user whether and to what extent the balancing property is supported by the data. Following Hirano and Imbens (2004), the program `gpscore2.ado` tests for balancing of covariates according to the following scheme:
 - a. Divide the sample in k groups according to an user-specified rule, which should be defined on the basis of the sample distribution of the treatment variable;
 - b. In the first group, $k = 1$, compute the GPS at the user-specified representative point. For instance, compute the median of the group and evaluate the GPS for each individual in the sample by setting $t = \text{median of the group}$;⁸
 - c. Take the GPS obtained in the previous point and divide it into nq sub-intervals defined by its quantiles of order j/nq , $j = 1, \dots, nq - 1$. Let us call these sub-intervals as blocks;

⁸Notice that this will generate a distribution of the GPS with N elements for each group.

- d. Within each block, compare individuals who are *treated*, i.e. belonging to group k (according to step a), with individuals who are in the same block but belong to another group. Specifically, within each block calculate the mean difference of each covariate between units belonging to group k and units not belonging to group k ;
- e. Combine the nq mean differences, calculated in step $[d]$ by using a weighted average, with weights given by the number of observations in each GPS block;
- f. Go to step $[b]$, set $k = 2$ and go through $[b - e]$;

For each group tests statistics (the t-student statistics or the Bayesian-factor) are calculated and shown in the results window. Finally, the most extreme value of the test statistics (the highest absolute value of the t-student statistics, or the lowest value of the Bayes-factors) is compared with reference values, and the user is informed on to what extent the balancing property is supported by the data. If adjustment for the GPS properly balances the covariates, we would expect all differences to be statistically not significant.

Notice that for binary treatments, although the GPS is correctly calculated, the dose-response function boils down to a point rather than a curve. For this standard case we refer the user to `pscore.ado` by Becker and Ichino (2002) and to `psmatch2.ado` by Leuven and Sianesi (2003).⁹

In the second stage, the conditional expectation for the outcome Y_i , given T_i and R_i , is modelled as a flexible function of its two arguments. We use polynomial approximations of order not higher than three. Specifically, the most complex model we consider is:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(E[Y_i|T_i, R_i]) &= \lambda(T_i, R_i; \alpha) \\ &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 T_i + \alpha_2 T_i^2 + \alpha_3 T_i^3 + \alpha_4 R_i + \alpha_5 R_i^2 + \alpha_6 R_i^3 + \alpha_7 T_i R_i\end{aligned}$$

where $\varphi(\cdot)$ is a function that relates the predictor, $\lambda(T_i, R_i; \alpha)$, to the conditional expectation $E[Y_i|T_i, R_i]$.

The last step consists of averaging the estimated regression function over the score function evaluated at the desired level of the treatment. Specifically, in order to obtain an estimate of the entire dose-response function the program estimates the average potential outcome for each level of the treatment one is interested in, by applying the empirical counterpart of equations (1) and (2), that is:

$$E[\widehat{Y}(t)] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \widehat{\gamma}(t, \widehat{r}(t, X_i)) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi^{-1}(\widehat{\lambda}(t, \widehat{r}(t, X_i); \widehat{\alpha}))$$

Briefly, the program `doseresponse2.ado` estimates the dose-response function according to the following algorithm:

⁹When the family is binomial the balancing mechanism is slightly different. Indeed, in this case the GPS is independent of t , being $r(t, x) = F(\beta'x)$. Therefore, going through step $[b]$, the algorithm will generate k times the same GPS vector. It means that step $[f]$ becomes ineffective because the GPS does not change by changing the representative point of t .

1. Estimate the GPS (according to the family and link specified by the user) through the GLM approach, check the normality, if required, and test the balancing property by using the routine `gpscore2.ado`.
2. Estimate the conditional expectation of the outcome, given the treatment and the GPS, by calling the routine `doseresponse_model.ado`.
3. Estimate the average potential outcome for each level of the treatment the user is interested in.
4. Estimate the standard errors of the dose-response function via bootstrapping¹⁰.
5. Plot of the estimated dose-response function and, if requested, its confidence intervals.

5 Syntax

```
gpscore varlist [weight] [if] [in] , t(varname) gpscore(newvarname)
      predict(newvarname) sigma(newvarname) cutpoints(varname)
      index(string) nq_gps(#) family(string) link(string)
      [t.transf(transformation) normal_test(test) norm_level(#)
      test_varlist(varlist) test(type) flag_b(#) opt_nb(string)
      opt_b(varname) detail]
```

```
doseresponse_model varlist (min=2 max=2) [weight] [if] [in] ,
      outcome(varname) [cmd(regression_cmd) reg_type_t(string)
      reg_type_gps(string) interaction(#) ]
```

```
doseresponse2 varlist [weight] [if] [in] , outcome(varname)
      t(varname) gpscore(newvarname) predict(newvarname)
      sigma(newvarname) cutpoints(varname) index(string) nq_gps(#)
      dose_response(newvarlist) family(string) link(string)
      [t.transf(transformation) normal_test(test) norm_level(#)
      test_varlist(varlist) test(type) flag(#) cmd(regression_cmd)
      reg_type_t(string) reg_type_gps(string) interaction(#)
      t_points(vector) npoints(#) delta(#) bootstrap(string)
      filename(filename) boot_reps(#) analysis(string)
```

¹⁰As in `dose-response.ado` when bootstrapped standard errors are required, the bootstrap encompasses both the estimation of the GPS based on the specification given by the user, as well as the estimation of the α parameter.

```
analysis_level(#) graph(filename) flag_b(#) opt_nb(string)
opt_b(varname) detail]
```

Note that in the commands `gpscore2` and `doseresponse2` the argument *varlist* represents the control variables, which are used to estimate the GPS. In the command `doseresponse_model`, *varlist* only consists of two variables: the treatment variable and the GPS.

6 Option

The `doseresponse2` options include all the `doseresponse` options plus some others strictly related to the GLM estimator. In what follows will be given only a description of the options related to `doseresponse2` command, because they include all the options for both `gpscore2` and the `doseresponse_model` command. However, for each option it is reported in brackets what command each option is referred to.

6.1 Compulsory Options

`outcome(varname)` specifies that *varname* is the outcome variable of the program. [`doseresponse2`]

`t(varname)` specifies that *varname* is the treatment variable [`gpscore2` and `doseresponse2`].

`gpscore(newvarname)` asks users to specify the variable name for the estimated GPS. [`gpscore2`]

`predict(newvarname)` creates a *newvar* to hold the maximum likelihood estimate of the conditional standard error for the treatment given the covariates. [`gpscore2`]

`sigma(newvarname)` creates a *newvar* containing the GLM estimate of the conditional standard error of the treatment given the covariates, obtained from Pearson residuals.¹¹ [`gpscore2`]

`cutpoints(varname)` divides the set of the potential treatment values, \mathcal{T} , according to the sample distribution of the treatment variable cutting at the *varname* quantiles. [`gpscore2`]

`index(string)` specifies the representative point of the treatment variable at which the GPS has to be evaluated within each treatment interval. The argument *string* identifies either the mean (*string* = `mean`) or a percentile (*string* =

¹¹The authors wish to thank J. Wooldridge for having helped them on this point in a private conversation. Recall that in the case on Normal distribution Pearson residuals coincide with usual residuals.

p_1, \dots, p_{100}) of the treatment. [gpscore2]

`nq_gps(#)` specifies that the values of the GPS evaluated at representative point `index(string)` of each treatment interval have to be divided into $\#$ ($\# \in \{1, \dots, 100\}$) intervals, defined by the quantiles of the GPS evaluated at representative point `index(string)`. [gpscore2]

`family(string)` specifies the distribution family name of the treated variable. [gpscore2 and doseresponse2]

`link(string)` specifies the link function for the treated variable. The default is the canonical link for the family() specified.¹² [gpscore2 and doseresponse2]

`dose_response(newvarlist)` asks users to specify the variable name(s) for the estimated dose-response function(s). [doseresponse2]

6.2 Uncompulsory Options

`t_transf(transformation)` allows users to specify the transformation of the treatment variable being to use in estimating the GPS. The default transformation is the identity function. While the supported transformations are: the logarithmic transformation, `t_transf(ln)`; the zero-skewness log transformation, `t_transf(lnskew0)`; the Box-Cox transformation, `t_transf(boxcox)` and the zero-skewness Box-Cox transformation, `t_transf(bcskew0)`. The Box-Cox transformation finds the maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters of the Box-Cox transform regressing the treatment variable `t(varname)` on the control variables listed in the input `varlist`.¹³ [gpscore2]

`normal_test(test)` allows users to specify the goodness-of-fit test that `gpscore` will perform to assess the validity of the assumed Normal distribution model for the treatment conditional on the covariates. By default, `gpscore` performs the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Possible alternatives are: the Shapiro-Francia test for normality, `normal_test(sfrancia)`; the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, `normal_test(swilk)`; and the STATA Skewness and kurtosis test for normality, `normal_test(sktest)`. [gpscore2]

¹²For the list of all the possible family-link combination see table (2).

¹³The problem is whether the treatment variable takes zero value. In such a case, the program continues, forcing a transformation of the treatment variable to take a suitable value. Specifically, we assume that $\ln(0) = 0$, and $t_transf(0) = -1/\lambda$ if $\lambda > 0$, and $t_transf(0) = \ln(0) = 0$ if $\lambda = 0$, for $t_transf = bcskew0, boxcox$. Allowing for zero values of the treatment implies that untreated units might be included in the study. It should be kept in mind that the GPS score methods are designed for analyzing the effect of a treatment intensity, therefore they specifically refer to the subpopulation of treated units. This implies that including untreated units might lead to misleading results.

`norm_level(#)` allows to set the significance level of the goodness-of-fit test for normality. The default is 0.05. [gpscore2]

`test_varlist(varlist)` specifies that the extent of covariate balancing has to be inspected for each variable in `varlist`. The default test `varlist` consists in the variables. The order of magnitude interpretations of the Bayes Factor we apply were proposed by Jeffreys (1961). Used to estimate the GPS. This option is useful when there are categorical variables among the covariates. The command `gpscore`, which is a regression-like command, requires that categorical variables are expanded into indicator (also called dummy) variable sets and that one dummy-variable set is dropped in estimating the GPS. However, the balancing test should be also performed on the omitted group. This can be done by using the option `test_varlist(varlist)` and by listing in `varlist` all the variables, included the complete set of indicator variables for each categorical covariate. [gpscore2]

`test(type)` allows users to specify whether the balancing property has to be tested using either a standard two-sides t -test (the default) or a Bayes-factor based method `test(Bayes_factor)`. The program informs the user if there is some evidence that the balancing property is satisfied. Recall that the test is performed for each single variable in `test_varlist(varlist)` and for each treatment interval. Specifically, let p be the number of control variables in `test_varlist(varlist)`, and let K be the number of the treatment intervals. We first calculate $p \times K$ values of the test statistic; then we select the worst value (the highest t -value in modulus, or the lowest Bayes factor) and compare it with standard values. [gpscore2]

`flag_b(#)` skips either balancing or normal test or both, takes as arguments 0; 1; 2. If not specified in the commands the program estimates the GPS performing both the balancing and the normal test. While if `flag_b(0)` it skips both the balancing and the normal test; if `flag_b(1)` it skips the balancing test; if `flag_b(2)` it skips the normal test. [gpscore2]

`cmd(regression_cmd)` defines the regression command to be used for estimating the conditional expectation of the outcome given the treatment and the GPS. The default `cmd` for the outcome variable is `logit` when there are two distinct values, `mlogit` when there are 3 – 5 values, and `regress` otherwise. The supported regression commands are: `logit`, `probit`, `mlogit`, `mprobit`, `ologit`, `oprobit`, and `regress`. [doseresponse_model]

`reg_type.t(type)` defines the maximum power of the treatment variable in the polynomial function used to approximate the predictor for the conditional expectation of the outcome given the treatment and the GPS. The default `type` is `linear`, meaning that the predictor $\lambda(T, \hat{R}; \alpha)$ is a linear function of the treatment. Alternatively, `type` may be `quadratic`, or `cubic`. [doseresponse_model]

`reg_type_gps(type)` defines the maximum power of the estimated GPS in the polynomial function used to approximate the predictor for the conditional expectation of the outcome given the treatment and the GPS. The default *type* is *linear*, meaning that the predictor $\lambda(T, \hat{R}; \alpha)$ is a linear function of the estimated GPS. Alternatively, *type* may be *quadratic*, or *cubic*. [doseresponse_model]

`interaction(#)` specifies whether the model for the conditional expectation of the outcome given the treatment and the GPS has the interaction between treatment and GPS. The default (*#*) is 1, meaning that the interaction is included. [doseresponse_model]

`tpoints(vector)` specifies that `doseresponse2` estimates the average potential outcome for each level of the treatment in *vector*. By default, the `doseresponse2` creates a vector with *i*th element equals to the *i*th observed treatment value. This option can not be used along with the option `npoints(#)` (see below). [doseresponse2]

`npoints(#)` specifies that `doseresponse2` estimates the average potential outcome for each level of the treatment belonging to a set of evenly spaced values $t_0, t_1, \dots, t_{\#}$, that cover the range of the observed treatment. This option can not be used along with the option `tpoints(#)` (see above). [doseresponse2]

`delta(#)` specifies that `doseresponse` also estimates the treatment effect function considering a *#*-treatment gap, which is defined as $\psi(t + \#) - \psi(t)$. The default *#* is 0, meaning that [doseresponse2] only estimates the dose-response function, $\psi(t)$.

`filename(filename)` specifies that the treatment levels specified through either the option `tpoints(vector)` or the option `npoints(#)`, the estimated dose-response function and, eventually, the estimated treatment effect function along with their standard errors (if calculated) are stored to a new file called *filename*. [doseresponse2]

`bootstrap(string)` specifies to use bootstrap methods to derive standard errors and confidence intervals. By default, `doseresponse` does not apply bootstrap techniques. In such a case, no standard error is calculated. In order to activate this option, *string* should be set to *yes*. [doseresponse2]

`boot_reps(#)` specifies the number of bootstrap replications to be performed. The default is `boot_reps(50)`. This option produces any effect only if the bootstrap option is switched on. [doseresponse2]

`analysis(string)` specifies that `doseresponse2` plots the estimated dose-response function(s), and, eventually, the estimated treatment effect function(s) along with the corresponding confidence intervals if they are calculated using bootstrapping. By default, `doseresponse2` only plots the estimated dose-

response function(s). In order to plot confidence intervals, *string* has to be set to *yes*. If the user types **analysis(no)**, no plot is shown. [**doseresponse2**]

analysis_level(#) allows the user to set the confidence level *#* of the confidence intervals. The default confidence level is 0.95.

graph(filename) allows users to store the plots of the estimated dose-response function and the estimated treatment effects to a new file called *filename*. When the outcome variable is categorical, **doseresponse** creates a new file for each category *i* of the outcome variable, and names it *filename_i*.

opt_nb(string) negative binomial dispersion parameter. In the GLM approach you specify **fam(nb #k)** where *#k* is specified through the option *opt_nb*. The GLM then searches for *#k* that results in the deviance-based dispersion being 1. Instead, *nbreg* finds the ML estimate of *#k*. [**gpscore** and **doseresponse**]

opt_b(varname) name of the variable which contains the number of binomial trials. [**gpscore** and **doseresponse**]

detail displays more detailed output. Specifically, this option allows the user to specify that **gpscore2** shows the results of the goodness-of-fit test for normality, and some summary statistics of the distribution of the GPS evaluated at the representative point of each treatment interval, and the results of the balancing test within each treatment interval. When this option is specified for **doseresponse2**, the results of the regression of the outcome on the treatment and the GPS are also shown. [**gpscore** and **doseresponse**]

7 Stata output

We illustrate the details of our programs using the dataset collected by Imbens et al (2001). In particular, the choice of the dataset has been motivated by the need of comparison with others authors. The aim of the original exercise was to estimate the effect of the prize amount on subsequent labour earnings, “year6”. Being our econometric exercise simply motivated by the need of showing the functioning of the programs we have considered different treatment variables, different from “prize”, that allow us to use different family functions. In particular, the flogit case has been implemented by using the treatment variable “fraction” which is obtained by normalizing the variable “prize” with respect to its highest value in the sample. Accordingly, the results of the **gpscore2.ado** and of the **doseresponse2.ado** are shown hereafter. To show the estimation with poisson count data we have used as a treatment variable “edu”, given by the sum of “ownhs” and “owncoll”, namely the years of high school plus the years of college, which, to a certain extent, can be regarded as a count variable. This exercise approximates a return to schooling estimation.

Finally, the gamma distribution is used when the treatment is “age”.

7.1 Flogit gpscore output

In this case, the treatment variable is “fraction”, which by construction takes on values in the unit interval. The code is implemented by setting the cut points as to divide the sample into three groups contained in the variable cut. The link function is the canonical one, logit. However, other links are admissible according to table 2. The output looks like as follows:

```
-----
use "LotteryDataSet", clear

egen max_p=max(prize)

. gen fraction= prize/max_p
. qui gen      cut1 = 23/max_p if fraction<=23/max_p
. qui replace cut1 = 80/max_p if fraction>23/max_p & fraction<=80/max_p
. qui replace cut1 = 485/max_p if fraction >80/max_p

. gpscore2 male ownhs owncoll tixbot workthen yearw yearm1 yearm2, ///
> t(fraction) gpscore(gpscore) ///
> predict(y_hat_ns) sigma(sd_ns) cutpoints(cut1) index(mean) ///
> nq_gps(5) family(binomial) link(logit) det

Generalized Propensity Score

*****
Algorithm to estimate the generalized propensity score
*****

Estimation of the propensity score

The treatment is fraction

-----
T
-----

```

Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	.0103137	.0023495	
5%	.0202446	.0023495	
10%	.0231977	.0103137	Obs 237
25%	.0351369	.0110477	Sum of Wgt. 237
50%	.0654881		Mean .1138546
		Largest	Std. Dev. .127485
75%	.1299367	.5571485	
90%	.270282	.629324	Variance .0162524
95%	.3482539	.6669279	Skewness 2.888956
99%	.629324	1	Kurtosis 15.08626

```
note: T has non-integer values

Generalized linear models
Optimization      : ML
Deviance          = 25.91237504
Pearson           = 29.27315861

No. of obs      = 237
Residual df     = 228
Scale parameter = 1
(1/df) Deviance = .1136508
(1/df) Pearson  = .128391

Variance function: V(u) = u*(1-u/1)
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u/(1-u))

[Binomial]
[Logit]

AIC = .6036733
```

 Test that the conditional mean of the pre-treatment variables given the generalized propensity score is not different between units who belong to a particular treatment interval and units who belong to all other treatment intervals

Treatment Interval No 1 - [.0023494709748775, .0474060922861099]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	.07032	.03214	2.1881
ownhs	.27061	.13368	2.0244
owncoll	.14939	.21863	.6833
tixbot	.09136	.43645	.20931
workthen	-.01029	.05015	-.20523
yearw	.15477	.18022	.85879
yearm1	1.4991	1.7217	.8707
yearm2	1.823	1.5597	1.1688

Treatment Interval No 2 - [.0476247407495975, .1631902456283569]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	-.06435	.02183	-2.9477
ownhs	-.13305	.13008	-1.0228
owncoll	-.18433	.19743	-.93368
tixbot	-.48247	.38721	-1.246
workthen	-.00199	.04998	-.0398
yearw	-.33553	.1666	-2.014
yearm1	.07426	1.6071	.04621
yearm2	-.09833	1.4601	-.06734

Treatment Interval No 3 - [.1711813360452652, 1]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	-.01669	.03175	-.52566
ownhs	.19524	.17768	1.0988
owncoll	.18711	.27456	.68148

```

tixbot   .47912      .50744      .94421
workthen -.05865      .07293     -.80421
yearw    .23415      .22407      1.045
yearm1   -.70637      1.966      -.35929
yearm2   -1.1814     1.7682     -.66816

```

According to a standard two-sided t test:

Decisive evidence against the balancing property

The balancing property is satisfied at a level lower than 0.01

7.2 Flogit doseresponse output

The `gpscore2` command is replaced by the `doseresponse2` and additional options are added. Specifically, the matrix `tp1` contains the value of the treatment we are interested in.

```

-----
use "LotteryDataSet", clear
. egen max_p=max(prize)
. gen fraction= prize/max_p

. qui gen    cut1 = 23/max_p if fraction<=23/max_p
. qui replace cut1 = 80/max_p if fraction>23/max_p & fraction<=80/max_p
. qui replace cut1 = 485/max_p if fraction >80/max_p
. mat def tp1 = (0.10\0.20\0.30\0.40\0.50\0.60\0.70\0.80)

. doseresponse2 male ownhs owncoll tixbot workthen yearw yearm1 yearm2, ///
> t(fraction) gpscore(gpscore) > predict(y_hat_ns) sigma(sd_ns) cutpoints(cut1)///
> index(mean) nq_gps(5) family(binomial) link(logit) outcome(year6)///
> dose_response(dose_response) tpoints(tp1) delta(0.1) reg_type_t(quadratic)///
> reg_type_gps(quadratic) interaction(1) filename("output_bin") graph("graphoutputbin")///
> bootstrap(yes) boot_reps(10) analysis(yes) det///

```

```

*****
ESTIMATE OF THE GENERALIZED PROPENSITY SCORE
*****

```

(output omitted)

The outcome variable `year6` is a continuous variable

The regression model is: $Y = T + T^2 + GPS + GPS^2 + T*GPS$

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	202
Model	4.2029e+09	5	840589784	F(5, 196) =	4.44
Residual	3.7122e+10	196	189397662	Prob > F =	0.0007
Total	4.1325e+10	201	205596471	R-squared =	0.1017
				Adj R-squared =	0.0788
				Root MSE =	13762

year6	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
fraction	-63135.37	30152.68	-2.09	0.038	-122600.7	-3670.024
fraction_sq	9555.672	40829.3	0.23	0.815	-70965.47	90076.82
gpscore	297627.5	137193.5	2.17	0.031	27062.67	568192.4
gpscore_sq	-931930.1	571320.7	-1.63	0.104	-2058655	194795
fraction_g^e	201989.2	290293.7	0.70	0.487	-370510.9	774489.3
_cons	-4979.084	7733.942	-0.64	0.520	-20231.51	10273.34

Bootstrapping of the standard errors

.....

The program is drawing graphs of the output
This operation may take a while

(file graphoutputbin.gph saved)

End of the Algorithm

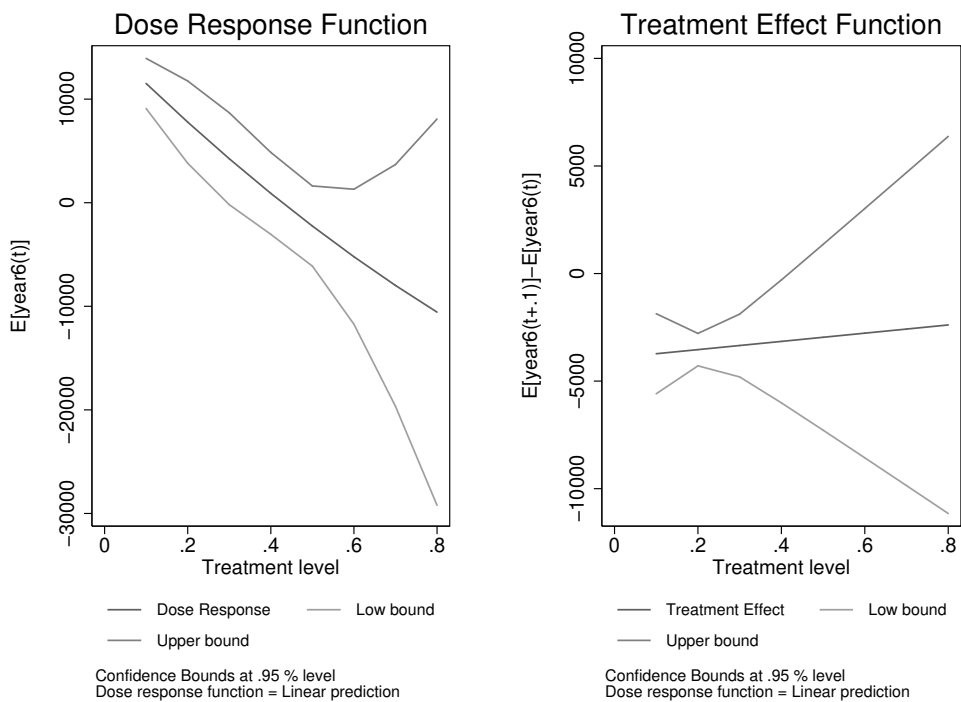


Figure 1: Estimated Dose Response Function, Estimated Derivative, and 95% Confidence Bands for Binomial Distributed Data

7.3 Gpscore2 and Doseresponse2 for other family functions

In this subsection we report the results for the poisson and gamma distribution with the *log* as canonical link function.

```

-----
use "LotteryDataSet", clear

. gen edu=owncoll+ownhs
. qui gen cut3 = 3 if edu<=3
. qui replace cut3 = 6 if edu>3 & edu<=6
. qui replace cut3 = 9 if edu >6

. mat def tp3 = (0\1\2\3\4\5\6\7\8\9)

. doseresponse2 male workthen yearw yearm1 yearm2, ///
> t(edu) gpscore(nostro) ///
> predict(y_hat_ns) sigma(sd_ns) cutpoints(cut3) index(p50) ///
> nq_gps(5) family(poisson) link(log) outcome(year6) dose_response(dose_response) ///
> tpoints(tp3) delta(1) reg_type_t(quadratic) reg_type_gps(quadratic) interaction(1) ///
> filename("output_poi") graph("graph_output_poi.eps") bootstrap(yes) boot_reps(10) analysis(yes) det

*****
ESTIMATE OF THE GENERALIZED PROPENSITY SCORE
*****

Generalized Propensity Score

*****
Algorithm to estimate the generalized propensity score
*****

Estimation of the propensity score

The treatment is edu

-----
Percentiles      Smallest
1%                0                0
5%                0                0
10%               2                0      Obs                237
25%               4                0      Sum of Wgt.         237

50%               5
                    Largest
75%               6                8
90%               8                8      Variance            4.799971
95%               8                8      Std. Dev.           2.190884
99%               8                9      Skewness             -.3475038
                    Kurtosis             2.762504

Generalized linear models          No. of obs          =          237
Optimization      : ML              Residual df         =          231
Deviance          = 276.8620777      Scale parameter     =           1
Pearson           = 219.9190964      (1/df) Deviance    =  1.198537
                                      (1/df) Pearson     =  .9520307

Variance function: V(u) = u          [Poisson]
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u)     [Log]

AIC = 4.484432

```

Log pseudolikelihood = -525.4051853 BIC = -986.2598

```
-----+-----
```

	T	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
male		.0128937	.0639625	0.20	0.840	-.1124705	.1382579
workthen		.1864274	.0984205	1.89	0.058	-.0064732	.379328
yearw		-.0370928	.0204226	-1.82	0.069	-.0771203	.0029348
yearm1		.0044303	.0041431	1.07	0.285	-.00369	.0125505
yearm2		-.0005517	.0041851	-0.13	0.895	-.0087544	.007651
_cons		1.607233	.1635337	9.83	0.000	1.286713	1.927753

```
-----+-----
```

robust standard errors reported

Estimated generalized propensity score

```
-----+-----
```

Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	.0060528	.0051862	
5%	.0158642	.0057593	
10%	.0435343	.0060528	Obs 237
25%	.089226	.0080229	Sum of Wgt. 237
50%	.1532509		Mean .1307103
		Largest	Std. Dev. .0552935
75%	.1748367	.1949859	
90%	.1892501	.1951088	Variance .0030574
95%	.1947896	.1953658	Skewness -.8060932
99%	.1951088	.2002115	Kurtosis 2.403019

End of the algorithm to estimate the gpscore

The set of the potential treatment values is divided into 3 intervals

The values of the gpscore evaluated at the representative point of each treatment interval are divided into 5 intervals

Summary statistics of the distribution of the GPS evaluated at the representative point of each treatment interval

```
-----+-----
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
gps_1	237	.0383705	.0194071	.0125517	.0917175
gps_2	237	.1722413	.0175832	.1248186	.1953658
gps_3	237	.0648067	.0218575	.021448	.1099905

```
-----+-----
```

Test that the conditional mean of the pre-treatment variables given the generalized propensity score is not different between units who belong to a particular treatment

interval and units who belong to all other treatment intervals

Treatment Interval No 1 - [0, 3]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	-.06215	.09852	-.63091
workthen	-.01101	.01395	-.78881
yearw	-.32768	.2437	-1.3446
yearm1	3.4755	2.53	1.3737
yearm2	3.0207	2.5869	1.1677

Treatment Interval No 2 - [4, 6]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	.00742	.06118	.12127
workthen	.00218	.02025	.10753
yearw	-.22962	.138	-1.6639
yearm1	-1.5632	1.2437	-1.2569
yearm2	-1.221	1.3341	-.91525

Treatment Interval No 3 - [7, 9]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	.02225	.07089	.31384
workthen	-.01708	.04406	-.38773
yearw	.12469	.16353	.76246
yearm1	1.7796	1.3134	1.3549
yearm2	1.3032	1.439	.90563

According to a standard two-sided t test:
 Moderate evidence against the balancing property
 The balancing property is satisfied at level 0.05
 The outcome variable ``year6`` is a continuous variable
 The regression model is: $Y = T + T^2 + GPS + GPS^2 + T*GPS$

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	202
Model	4.8257e+09	5	965137608	F(5, 196) =	5.18
Residual	3.6499e+10	196	186220422	Prob > F =	0.0002
				R-squared =	0.1168
				Adj R-squared =	0.0942
Total	4.1325e+10	201	205596471	Root MSE =	13646

year6	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
edu	3963.455	4551.025	0.87	0.385	-5011.81	12938.72
edu_sq	-461.5679	505.4394	-0.91	0.362	-1458.366	535.23
nostro	49917.09	145632.7	0.34	0.732	-237291.2	337125.3
nostro_sq	-791663.6	470744.9	-1.68	0.094	-1720039	136711.8
edu_nostro	21221.92	10443.63	2.03	0.043	625.6009	41818.23
_cons	1236.979	4370.446	0.28	0.777	-7382.157	9856.116

Bootstrapping of the standard errors

.....

The program is drawing graphs of the output
This operation may take a while

(file graphoutputpoi.eps saved)

End of the Algorithm

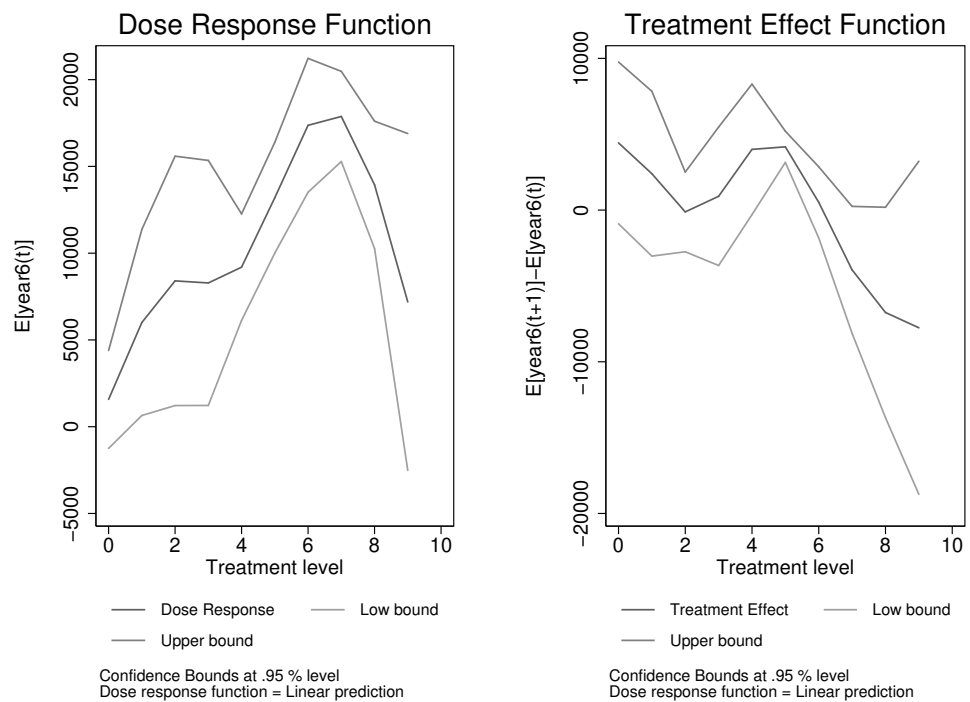


Figure 2: Estimated Dose Response Function, Estimated Derivative, and 95% Confidence Bands for Poisson Distributed Data

```

-----
use "LotteryDataSet", clear

. qui gen      cut2 = 35 if agew<=35
. qui replace cut2 = 47 if agew>35 & agew<=59
. qui replace cut2 = 59 if agew >59

. mat def tp2 = (10\20\30\40\50\60\70\80)

. doseresponse2 male ownhs owncoll tixbot workthen yearw yearm1 yearm2, ///
> t(agew) gpscore(gpscore) ///
> predict(y_hat) sigma(sd_ns) cutpoints(cut2) index(p50) ///
> nq_gps(5) family(gamma) link(log) outcome(year6) dose_response(dose_response) ///
> tpoints(tp2) delta(1) reg_type_t(quadratic) reg_type_gps(quadratic) interaction(1) ///
> filename("output_gam") graph("graph_output_gam.eps") ///
> bootstrap(yes) boot_reps(10) analysis(yes) det

```

```

*****
ESTIMATE OF THE GENERALIZED PROPENSITY SCORE
*****

```

Generalized Propensity Score

```

*****
Algorithm to estimate the generalized propensity score
*****

```

Estimation of the propensity score

The treatment is agew

			T	

	Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	24	23		
5%	27	24		
10%	29	24	Obs	237
25%	36	25	Sum of Wgt.	237
50%	47		Mean	46.94515
		Largest	Std. Dev.	13.797
75%	56	79		
90%	66	80	Variance	190.3571
95%	69	83	Skewness	.3402325
99%	80	85	Kurtosis	2.360072

```

Generalized linear models          No. of obs      =      237
Optimization      : ML              Residual df    =      228
                                   Scale parameter = .0715905
Deviance          = 17.25022412      (1/df) Deviance = .0756589
Pearson           = 16.32263484      (1/df) Pearson  = .0715905

```

```

Variance function: V(u) = u^2      [Gamma]
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u)    [Log]

```

```

Log pseudolikelihood = -1147.351203  AIC              = 9.758238
                                   BIC              = -1229.467

```

	T	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
male		.0316579	.0393115	0.81	0.421	-.0453912	.1087071
ownhs		-.0462397	.0163188	-2.83	0.005	-.0782239	-.0142554
owncoll		-.0271999	.0119926	-2.27	0.023	-.050705	-.0036948
tixbot		.0034784	.0053921	0.65	0.519	-.0070898	.0140467
workthen		-.1520236	.0530833	-2.86	0.004	-.2560649	-.0479822
yearw		.0080099	.0132164	0.61	0.544	-.0178938	.0339135
yearm1		-.0081187	.0025995	-3.12	0.002	-.0132136	-.0030237
yearm2		.0094208	.0026396	3.57	0.000	.0042473	.0145943
_cons		4.074573	.1030365	39.54	0.000	3.872626	4.276521

robust standard errors reported

Estimated generalized propensity score

Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	.0042995	.0036313	
5%	.0049124	.0041178	
10%	.0052848	.0042995	Obs 237
25%	.0063171	.0043183	Sum of Wgt. 237
50%	.0078076		Mean .00823
		Largest	Std. Dev. .0023287
75%	.0100504	.0129511	
90%	.0114519	.013237	Variance 5.42e-06
95%	.0123639	.013259	Skewness .2668858
99%	.013237	.0137175	Kurtosis 2.092097

End of the algorithm to estimate the gpscore

The set of the potential treatment values is divided into 4 intervals

The values of the gpscore evaluated at the representative point of each treatment interval are divided into 5 intervals

Summary statistics of the distribution of the GPS evaluated at the representative point of each treatment interval

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
gps_1	237	.0109911	.0004864	.0091955	.0117465

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
gps_2	237	.0088463	.0001862	.0079666	.0089726

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
gps_3	237	.0068232	.0001106	.0063633	.0069411

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
----------	-----	------	-----------	-----	-----

gps_4 | 237 .0052678 .000232 .0045548 .0056592

 Test that the conditional mean of the pre-treatment variables given the generalized propensity score is not different between units who belong to a particular treatment interval and units who belong to all other treatment intervals

Treatment Interval No 1 - [23, 35]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	.01806	.08032	.22482
ownhs	-.15791	.17577	-.89841
owncoll	-.17567	.19743	-.88979
tixbot	.27769	.52651	.52742
workthen	.06134	.059	1.0396
yearw	-.17653	.20301	-.86957
yearm1	1.711	2.1394	.79977
yearm2	2.2832	2.0844	1.0954

Treatment Interval No 2 - [36, 47]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	-.01511	.0755	-.20008
ownhs	-.22576	.15781	-1.4306
owncoll	.00798	.19086	.0418
tixbot	-1.1222	.48388	-2.3191
workthen	-.11082	.04947	-2.24
yearw	.13282	.18882	.70345
yearm1	-3.326	1.9546	-1.7016
yearm2	-2.0772	1.9347	-1.0736

Treatment Interval No 3 - [48, 59]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	-.07167	.07255	-.98797
ownhs	-.10981	.14817	-.74111

owncoll	.10901	.20074	.54304
tixbot	.14738	.47526	.3101
workthen	-.09474	.04986	-1.9001
yearw	-.15467	.19021	-.81315
yearm1	-2.5801	2.0016	-1.289
yearm2	-3.2137	1.8802	-1.7092

Treatment Interval No 4 - [60, 85]

	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	t-value
male	.0267	.09171	.29113
ownhs	.05633	.11856	.47506
owncoll	.15669	.25743	.60867
tixbot	.26623	.59266	.4492
workthen	.05137	.04364	1.1772
yearw	.03154	.23951	.13167
yearm1	1.7659	2.4575	.71858
yearm2	.70419	2.3628	.29803

According to a standard two-sided t test:

Strong to very strong evidence against the balancing property

The balancing property is satisfied at level 0.01

The outcome variable ``year6`` is a continuous variable

The regression model is: $Y = T + T^2 + GPS + GPS^2 + T*GPS$

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	202
Model	7.3473e+09	5	1.4695e+09	F(5, 196) =	8.48
Residual	3.3978e+10	196	173355070	Prob > F =	0.0000
				R-squared =	0.1778
				Adj R-squared =	0.1568
Total	4.1325e+10	201	205596471	Root MSE =	13166

year6	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
agew	-19761.77	14929.62	-1.32	0.187	-49205.09	9681.546
agew_sq	97.1909	75.19075	1.29	0.198	-51.09588	245.4777
gpscore	-1.18e+08	9.22e+07	-1.28	0.201	-3.00e+08	6.35e+07
gpscore_sq	3.64e+09	2.87e+09	1.27	0.206	-2.02e+09	9.29e+09
agew_gpscore	1335614	938814.7	1.42	0.156	-515861	3187089

```

      _cons |      940098   738235.5    1.27   0.204   -515806.6   2396003
-----

```

Bootstrapping of the standard errors

The program is drawing graphs of the output
 This operation may take a while

(note: file graphoutputgam.eps not found)
 (file graphoutputgam.eps saved)

End of the Algorithm

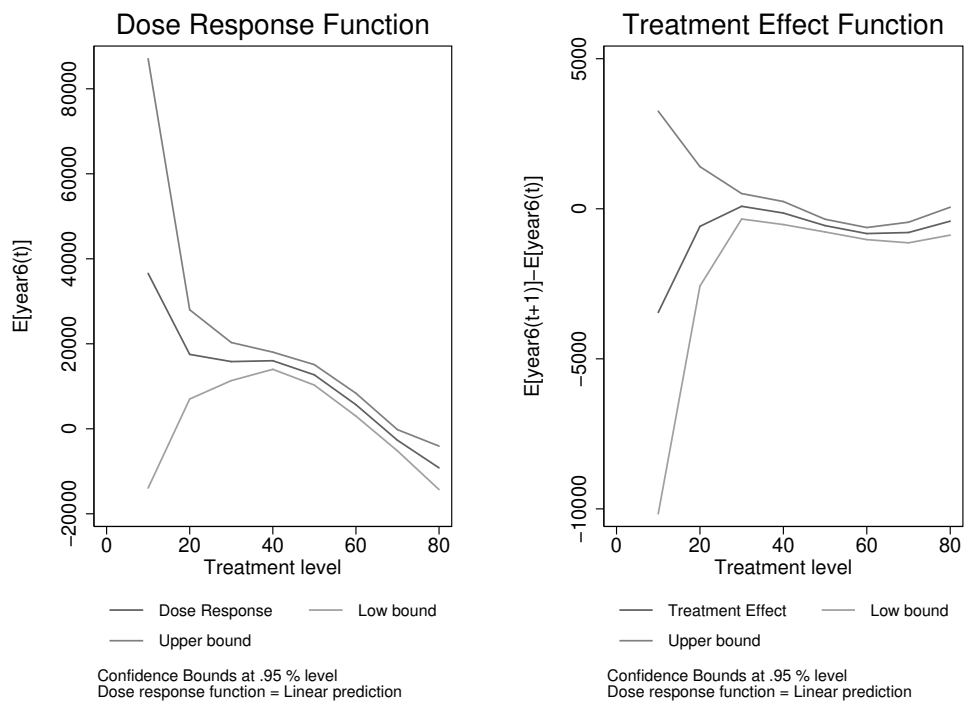


Figure 3: Estimated Dose Response Function, Estimated Derivative, and 95% Confidence Bands for Gamma Distributed Data

8 Conclusions

In recent years there is a growing interest towards the evaluation of policy interventions and more in general towards the estimation of causal effects. In order to accomplish this task *ad hoc* softwares and programs are needed. The present paper provides two STATA programs implementing the GPS in a very general set up. The programs are very versatile thanks to the introduction of the GLM estimator in the first step of the estimation of the GPS.

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