Adaptive Experiments for Policy Choice

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Introduction

The goal of many experiments is to inform policy choices:

- 1. Job search assistance for refugees:
 - Treatments: Information, incentives, counseling, ...
 - Goal: Find a policy that helps as many refugees as possible to find a job.
- 2. Clinical trials:
 - Treatments: Alternative drugs, surgery, ...
 - Goal: Find the treatment that maximize the survival rate of patients.

3. Online **A/B testing**:

- Treatments: Website layout, design, search filtering, ...
- Goal: Find the design that maximizes purchases or clicks.
- 4. Testing product design:
 - Treatments: Various alternative designs of a product.
 - Goal: Find the best design in terms of user willingness to pay.

Example

- There are 3 treatments *d*.
- d = 1 is best, d = 2 is a close second, d = 3 is clearly worse. (But we don't know that beforehand.)
- You can potentially run the experiment in 2 waves.
- You have a fixed number of participants.
- After the experiment, you pick the best performing treatment for large scale implementation.

How should you design this experiment?

- 1. Conventional approach.
- 2. Bandit approach.
- 3. Our approach.

Conventional approach

Split the sample equally between the 3 treatments, to get precise estimates for each treatment.

- After the experiment, it might still be hard to distinguish whether treatment 1 is best, or treatment 2.
- You might wish you had not wasted a third of your observations on treatment 3, which is clearly worse.

The conventional approach is

- 1. good if your goal is to get a precise estimate for each treatment.
- 2. not optimal if your goal is to figure out the best treatment.

Bandit approach

Run the experiment in **2 waves** split the first wave equally between the 3 treatments. Assign **everyone** in the second (last) wave to the **best performing treatment** from the first wave.

- After the experiment, you have a lot of information on the d that performed best in wave 1, probably d = 1 or d = 2,
- but much less on the other one of these two.
- It would be better if you had split observations equally between 1 and 2.

The bandit approach is

- 1. good if your goal is to maximize the outcomes of participants.
- 2. not optimal if your goal is to pick the best policy.

Our approach

Run the experiment in **2 waves** split the first wave equally between the 3 treatments. **Split** the second wave between the **two best performing** treatments from the first wave.

• After the experiment you have the maximum amount of information to pick the best policy.

Our approach is

- 1. good if your goal is to pick the best policy,
- 2. not optimal if your goal is to estimate the effect of all treatments, or to maximize the outcomes of participants.

Let θ^d denote the average outcome that would prevail if everybody was assigned to treatment d.

What is the objective of your experiment?

1. Getting precise treatment effect estimators, powerful tests:

$$\text{minimize} \sum_{d} (\hat{\theta}^{d} - \theta^{d})^2$$

 \Rightarrow Standard experimental design recommendations.

2. Maximizing the outcomes of experimental participants:

maximize
$$\sum_{i} \theta^{D_i}$$

 \Rightarrow Multi-armed bandit problems.

3. Picking a welfare maximizing policy after the experiment:

maximize θ^{d^*} ,

where d^* is chosen after the experiment. \Rightarrow This talk

Preview of findings

- Optimal adaptive designs improve expected welfare.
- Features of optimal treatment assignment:
 - Shift toward better performing treatments over time.
 - But don't shift as much as for Bandit problems: We have no "exploitation" motive!
- Fully optimal assignment is computationally challenging in large samples.
- We propose a simple modified Thompson algorithm.
 - Show that it dominates alternatives in calibrated simulations.
 - Prove theoretically that it is rate-optimal for our problem.

Literature

- Adaptive designs in clinical trials:
 - Berry (2006).
- Bandit problems:
 - Gittins index (optimal solution to some bandit problems): Weber et al. (1992).
 - Regret bounds for bandit problems: Bubeck and Cesa-Bianchi (2012).
 - Thompson sampling: Russo et al. (2018).
- Reinforcement learning:
 - Ghavamzadeh et al. (2015),
 - Sutton and Barto (2018).
- Best arm identification:
 - Russo (2016). Key reference for our theory results.
- Empirical examples for our simulations:
 - Ashraf et al. (2010),
 - Bryan et al. (2014),
 - Cohen et al. (2015).

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Setup

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

$$\theta^d = E[Y_{it}^d].$$

- Key choice variable: Number of units n_t^d assigned to D = d in wave t.
- Outcomes:

Number of units s_t^d having a "success" (outcome Y = 1).

Treatment assignment, outcomes, state space

- Treatment assignment in wave t: $\boldsymbol{n}_t = (n_t^1, \dots, n_t^k)$.
- Outcomes of wave t: $\boldsymbol{s}_t = (s_t^1, \dots, s_t^k)$.
- Cumulative versions:

$$M_t = \sum_{t' \leq t} N_{t'}, \qquad m_t = \sum_{t' \leq t} n_t, \qquad r_t = \sum_{t' \leq t} s_t.$$

- Relevant information for the experimenter in period t + 1 is summarized by m_t and r_t.
- Total trials for each treatment, total successes.

Design objective

- Policy objective SW(d): Average outcome Y, net of the cost of treatment.
- Choose treatment *d* after the experiment is completed.
- Posterior expected social welfare:

$$SW(d) = E[\theta^d | \boldsymbol{m}_T, \boldsymbol{r}_T] - c^d,$$

where c^d is the unit cost of implementing policy d.

Bayesian prior and posterior

• By definition, $Y^d | \theta \sim Ber(\theta^d)$.

- Prior: $\theta^d \sim Beta(\alpha_0^d, \beta_0^d)$, independent across d.
- Posterior after period *t*:

$$egin{aligned} & heta^d | oldsymbol{m}_t, oldsymbol{r}_t &\sim extsf{Beta}(lpha^d_t, eta^d_t) \ & lpha^d_t &= lpha^d_0 + r^d_t \ & eta^d_t &= eta^d_0 + m^d_t - r^d_t. \end{aligned}$$

• In particular,

$$SW(d) = rac{lpha_0^d + r_T^d}{lpha_0^d + eta_0^d + m_T^d} - c^d.$$

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Optimal assignment: Dynamic optimization problem

- Dynamic stochastic optimization problem:
 - States (**m**_t, **r**_t),
 - actions **n**_t.
- Solve for the optimal experimental design using backward induction.
- Denote by V_t the value function after completion of wave t.
- Starting at the end, we have

$$V_T(\boldsymbol{m}_T, \boldsymbol{r}_T) = \max_d \left(\frac{\alpha_0^d + r_T^d}{\alpha_0^d + \beta_0^d + m_T^d} - c^d \right).$$

• Finite state and action space.

 \Rightarrow Can, in principle, solve directly for optimal rule using dynamic programming: Complete enumeration of states and actions.

Simple examples

- Consider a small experiment with 2 waves, 3 treatment values (minimal interesting case).
- The following slides plot expected welfare as a function of:
 - 1. Division of sample size between waves, $N_1 + N_2 = 10$. $N_1 = 6$ is optimal.
 - 2. **Treatment assignment** in wave 2, given wave 1 outcomes. $N_1 = 6$ units in wave 1, $N_2 = 4$ units in wave 2.
- Keep in mind:

$$lpha_1 = (1, 1, 1) + s_1$$

 $eta_1 = (1, 1, 1) + n_1 - s_2$

Dividing sample size between waves

- $N_1 + N_2 = 10$.
- Expected welfare as a function of N_1 .
- Boundary points pprox 1-wave experiment.
- $N_1 = 6$ (or 5) is optimal.



Expected welfare, depending on 2nd wave assignment

After one success, one failure for each treatment.

 $\alpha = (2, 2, 2), \beta = (2, 2, 2)$



Light colors represent higher expected welfare.

Expected welfare, depending on 2nd wave assignment

After one success in treatment 1 and 2, two successes in 3

 $\alpha = (2, 2, 3), \beta = (2, 2, 1)$



Light colors represent higher expected welfare.

Expected welfare, depending on 2nd wave assignment

After one success in treatment 1 and 2, no successes in 3.

 $\alpha = (3, 3, 1), \beta = (1, 1, 3)$



Light colors represent higher expected welfare.

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Thompson sampling

• Fully optimal solution is computationally impractical. Per wave, $O(N_t^{2k})$ combinations of actions and states. \Rightarrow simpler alternatives?

• 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.

$$p_t^d = P\left(d = rgmax_{d'}(heta^{d'} - c^{d'}) | oldsymbol{m}_{t-1}, oldsymbol{r}_{t-1}
ight).$$

• Easily implemented: Sample draws $\widehat{ heta}_{it}$ from the posterior, assign

$$D_{it} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{d} \left(\hat{ heta}_{it}^d - c^d
ight).$$

Modified Thompson sampling

- Agrawal and Goyal (2012) proved that Thompson-sampling is rate-optimal for the multi-armed bandit problem.
- It is not for our policy choice problem!
- We propose two modifications:
 - 1. Expected Thompson sampling:

Assign non-random shares p_t^d of each wave to treatment d.

2. Modified Thompson sampling:

Assign shares q_t^d of each wave to treatment d, where

$$egin{aligned} q_t^d &= S_t \cdot p_t^d \cdot (1-p_t^d), \ S_t &= rac{1}{\sum_d p_t^d \cdot (1-p_t^d)}. \end{aligned}$$

- These modifications
 - 1. Improve performance in our simulations.
 - 2. Will be theoretically motivated later in this talk. In particular, we will show (constrained) rate-optimality.

Illustration of the mapping from Thompson to modified Thompson



Calibrated simulations

- Simulate data calibrated to estimates of 3 published experiments.
- Set θ equal to observed average outcomes for each stratum and treatment.
- Total sample size same as original.

Ashraf, N., Berry, J., and Shapiro, J. M. (2010). Can higher prices stimulate product use? Evidence from a field experiment in Zambia. *American Economic Review*, 100(5):2383–2413

Bryan, G., Chowdhury, S., and Mobarak, A. M. (2014). Underinvestment in a profitable technology: The case of seasonal migration in Bangladesh. *Econometrica*, 82(5):1671–1748

Cohen, J., Dupas, P., and Schaner, S. (2015). Price subsidies, diagnostic tests, and targeting of malaria treatment: evidence from a randomized controlled trial. *American Economic Review*, 105(2):609–45

Calibrated parameter values



- Ashraf et al. (2010): 6 treatments, evenly spaced.
- Bryan et al. (2014): 2 close good treatments, 2 worse treatments (overlap in picture).
- Cohen et al. (2015): 7 treatments, closer than for first example.

Coming up

• Compare 4 assignment methods:

- 1. Non-adaptive (equal shares)
- 2. Thompson
- 3. Expected Thompson
- 4. Modified Thompson

• Report 2 statistics:

1. Average regret:

Average difference, across simulations, between $\max_d \theta^d$ and θ^d for the *d* chosen after the experiment.

2. Share optimal:

Share of simulations for which the optimal d is chosen after the experiment (and thus regret equals 0).

Visual representations

- Compare modified Thompson to non-adaptive assignment.
- Full distribution of regret.
- 2 representations:
 - 1. Histograms Share of simulations with any given value of regret.
 - 2. Quantile functions (Inverse of) integrated histogram.
- Histogram bar at 0 regret equals share optimal.
- Integrated difference between quantile functions is difference in average regret.
- Uniformly lower quantile function means 1st-order dominated distribution of regret.

Regret and Share Optimal

Statistic	2 waves	4 waves	10 waves
Regret			
modified Thompson	0.002	0.001	0.001
expected Thompson	0.002	0.001	0.001
Thompson	0.002	0.001	0.001
non-adaptive	0.005	0.005	0.005
Share optimal			
modified Thompson	0.977	0.990	0.988
expected Thompson	0.970	0.981	0.983
Thompson	0.971	0.981	0.983
non-adaptive	0.933	0.930	0.932
Units per wave	502	251	100

Table: Ashraf, Berry, and Shapiro (2010)

Policy Choice and Regret Distribution





Policy Choice and Regret Distribution



Regret and Share Optimal

Statistic	2 waves	4 waves	10 waves
Regret			
modified Thompson	0.005	0.004	0.004
expected Thompson	0.005	0.004	0.004
Thompson	0.005	0.004	0.004
non-adaptive	0.005	0.005	0.005
Share optimal			
modified Thompson	0.789	0.807	0.820
expected Thompson	0.784	0.800	0.804
Thompson	0.786	0.796	0.808
non-adaptive	0.750	0.747	0.750
Units per wave	935	467	187

Table: Bryan, Chowdhury, and Mobarak (2014)

Policy Choice and Regret Distribution

Bryan, Chowdhury, and Mobarak (2014)



Policy Choice and Regret Distribution



Regret and Share Optimal

Statistic	2 waves	4 waves	10 waves
Regret			
modified Thompson	0.007	0.006	0.006
expected Thompson	0.007	0.006	0.006
Thompson	0.007	0.007	0.006
non-adaptive	0.009	0.009	0.009
Share optimal			
modified Thompson	0.565	0.582	0.587
expected Thompson	0.564	0.582	0.575
Thompson	0.562	0.581	0.590
non-adaptive	0.526	0.521	0.527
Units per wave	1080	540	216

Table: Cohen, Dupas, and Schaner (2014)

Policy Choice and Regret Distribution





Policy Choice and Regret Distribution



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- Literature: In-sample regret for bandit algorithms.
 - Agrawal and Goyal (2012) (Theorem 2): For Thompson sampling,

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} E\left[\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \Delta^{d}}{\log T}\right] \leq \left(\sum_{d \neq d^{*}} \frac{1}{(\Delta^{d})^{2}}\right)^{2}.$$

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

• Lai and Robbins (1985):

No adaptive experimental design can do better than this log T rate.

- Thompson sampling only assigns a share of units of order log(M)/M to treatments other than the optimal treatment.
- This is good for in-sample welfare, bad for learning:
 - We stop learning about suboptimal treatments very quickly.
 - The posterior variance of θ^d for d ≠ d* goes to zero at a rate no faster than 1/log(M).

Modified Thompson sampling

Proposition

Assume fixed wave size $N_t = N$.

As $T \to \infty$, modified Thompson satisfies:

- 1. The share of observations assigned to the best treatment converges to 1/2.
- 2. All the other treatments d are assigned to a share of the sample which converges to a non-random share \bar{q}^d . \bar{q}^d is such that the posterior probability of d being optimal goes to 0 at the same exponential rate for all sub-optimal treatments.
- 3. No other assignment algorithm for which statement 1 holds has average regret going to 0 at a faster rate than modified Thompson sampling.

Sketch of proof

Our proof draws heavily on Russo (2016). Proof steps:

 $1. \ \mbox{Each treatment}$ is assigned infinitely often.

 $\Rightarrow p_T^d$ goes to 1 for the optimal treatment and to 0 for all other treatments.

- 2. Claim 1 then follows from the definition of modified Thompson.
- Claim 2: Suppose p^d_t goes to 0 at a faster rate for some d. Then modified Thompson sampling stops assigning this d. This allows the other treatments to "catch up."
- 4. Claim 3: Balancing the rate of convergence implies efficiency. This follows from an efficiency bound for best-arm-selection in Russo (2016)

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Extension: Covariates and treatment targeting

- Suppose now that
 - 1. We additionally observe a (discrete) covariate X.
 - 2. The policy to be chosen can **target treatment** by X.
- How to adapt modified Thompson sampling to this setting?
- Solution: Hierarchical Bayes model, to optimally combine information across strata.
- Example of a hierarchical Bayes model:

$$egin{aligned} &Y^d|X=x, heta^{dx},(lpha^d_0,eta^d_0)\sim \textit{Ber}(heta^{dx})\ & heta^{dx}|(lpha^d_0,eta^d_0)\sim\textit{Beta}(lpha^d_0,eta^d_0)\ &(lpha^d_0,eta^d_0)\sim\pi, \end{aligned}$$

• No closed form posterior, but can use Markov Chain Monte Carlo to sample from posterior.

MCMC sampling from the posterior

Combining Gibbs sampling & Metropolis-Hasting

- Iterate across replication draws ρ:
 - 1. Gibbs step: Given $lpha_{
 ho-1}$ and $eta_{
 ho-1}$,
 - draw $\theta^{d_{x}} \sim Beta(\alpha^{d}_{\rho-1} + s^{d_{x}}, \beta^{d}_{\rho-1} + m^{d_{x}} s^{d_{x}}).$
 - 2. Metropolis step: Given $\beta_{\rho-1}$ and θ_{ρ} ,
 - draw $\alpha_{\rho}^{d} \sim$ (symmetric proposal distribution).
 - Accept if an independent uniform is less than the ratio of the posterior for the new draw, relative to the posterior for α^d_{a-1}.
 - Otherwise set $\alpha_{\rho}^{d} = \alpha_{\rho-1}^{d}$.
 - 3. Metropolis step: Given θ_{ρ} and α_{ρ} ,
 - proceed as in 2, for β_{ρ}^d .
- This converges to a stationary distribution such that

$$P\left(d = \underset{d'}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ \theta^{d'x} | \boldsymbol{m}_t, \boldsymbol{r}_t\right) = \underset{R \to \infty}{\operatorname{plim}} \ \frac{1}{R} \sum_{\rho=1}^R \mathbf{1}\left(d = \underset{d'}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ \theta_{\rho}^{d'x}\right)$$

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- For inference, we have to be careful with adaptive designs.
 - 1. Standard inference won't work:
 - Sample means are biased, t-tests don't control size.
 - 2. But: Bayesian inference can ignore adaptiveness!
 - 3. Randomization tests can be modified to work.
- Example to get intuition for bias:
 - Flip a fair coin.
 - If head, flip again, else stop.
 - Probability dist: 50% tail-stop, 25% head-tail, 25% head-head.
 - Expected share of heads?

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

- Randomization inference:
 - Strong null hypothesis: $Y_i^1 = \ldots = Y_i^k$.
 - Under null, easy to re-simulate treatment assignment.
 - Re-calculate test statistic each time.
 - Take 1α quantile across simulations as critical value.

Conclusion

- Different objectives lead to different optimal designs:
 - 1. Treatment effect estimation / testing: Conventional designs.
 - 2. In-sample regret: Bandit algorithms.
 - 3. Post-experimental policy choice: This talk.
- If the experiment can be implemented in multiple waves, adaptive designs for policy choice
 - 1. significantly increase welfare,
 - 2. by focusing attention in later waves on the best performing policy options,
 - 3. but not as much as bandit algorithms.
- Implementation of our proposed procedure is easy and fast, and easily adapted to new settings:
 - Hierarchical priors,
 - non-binary outcomes...

Thank you!