



# balance

## Balancing biased data samples with the '*balance*' Python package

ISA conference 2023-06-01

**Presentors:** Tal Galili & Tal Sarig

With: Roe Eilat, Daniel Haimovich, Steve Mandala



# Outline of the talk

1. Market ecosystem
2. Survey Methodology context
  - a. Total survey error
  - b. Assumptions
  - c. Estimation: Post-stratification
  - d. Propensity Score and Estimation
3. Diagnostics tools
4. balance End-to-End workflow
5. Hands-on example

## Acknowledgements / People

The *balance* package is actively maintained by people from the [Central Applied Science](#) team (in Tel Aviv and Boston), by [Tal Sarig](#), [Tal Galili](#) and [Steve Mandala](#).


The *balance* package was (and is) developed by many people, including: [Roe Eilat](#), [Tal Galili](#), [Daniel Haimovich](#), [Kevin Liou](#), [Steve Mandala](#), [Adam Obeng](#) (author of the initial internal Meta version), [Tal Sarig](#), [Luke Sonnet](#), [Sean Taylor](#), [Barak Yair Reif](#), and others. If you worked on balance in the past, please email us to be added to this list.

The *balance* package was open-sourced by [Tal Sarig](#), [Tal Galili](#) and [Steve Mandala](#) in late 2022.


Branding created by [Dana Beaty](#), from the Meta AI Design and Marketing Team. For logo files, see [here](#).

# Released to github on Nov 2022 (>600 stars)

<https://import-balance.org>


 balance

Blog Docs Tutorials API Reference GitHub


  
balance

A python package for balancing biased data samples


Get Started

  
Easy to Use

Provides a simple workflow, aiming to empower researcher with minimal background in Python or programming.

  
End-to-End Workflow

Provides a full workflow: from understanding the biases in the data, producing weights to balance the data, evaluating the quality of the weights, and producing weighted estimations.

  
Open Source Python Software

The balance package is (one of a handful of) open-source survey statistics software written in Python. It leverages Python's advantages of being open sourced, well-supported, easy to learn and flexible environment, which is used for production systems in the industry and academic research.


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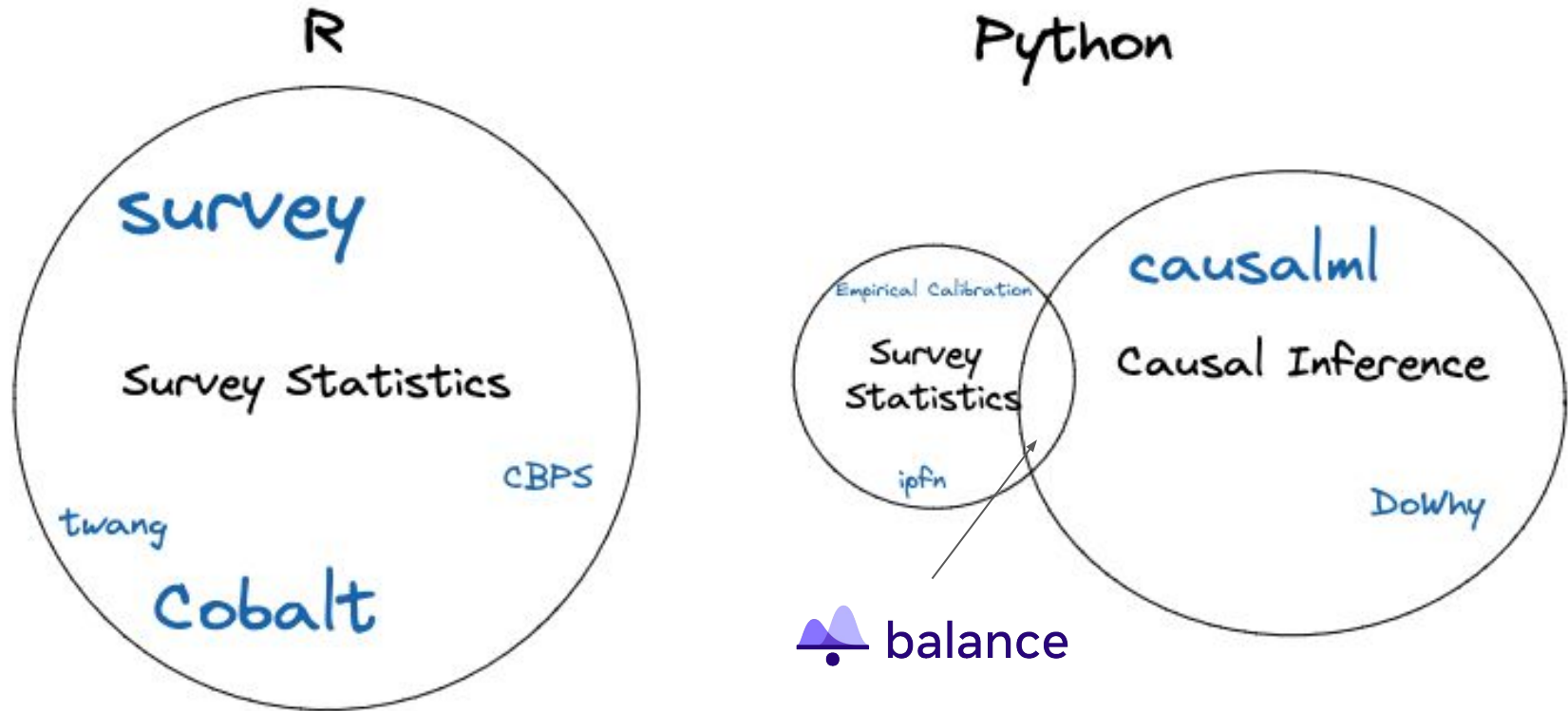
 Meta Open Source

Copyright © 2023 Meta Platforms, Inc. Built with Docusaurus.  
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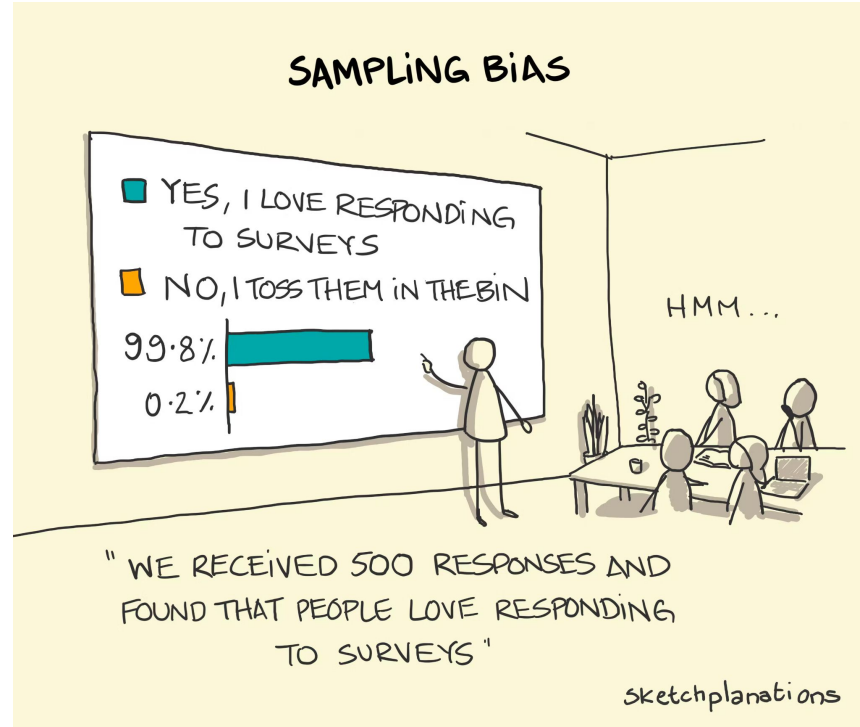
[balance](#) offers a simple workflow and methods for dealing with biased data samples when looking to infer from them to some population of interest.

Biased samples often occur in [survey statistics](#) when respondents present [non-response bias](#) or survey suffers from [sampling bias](#) (that are not [missing completely at random](#)).

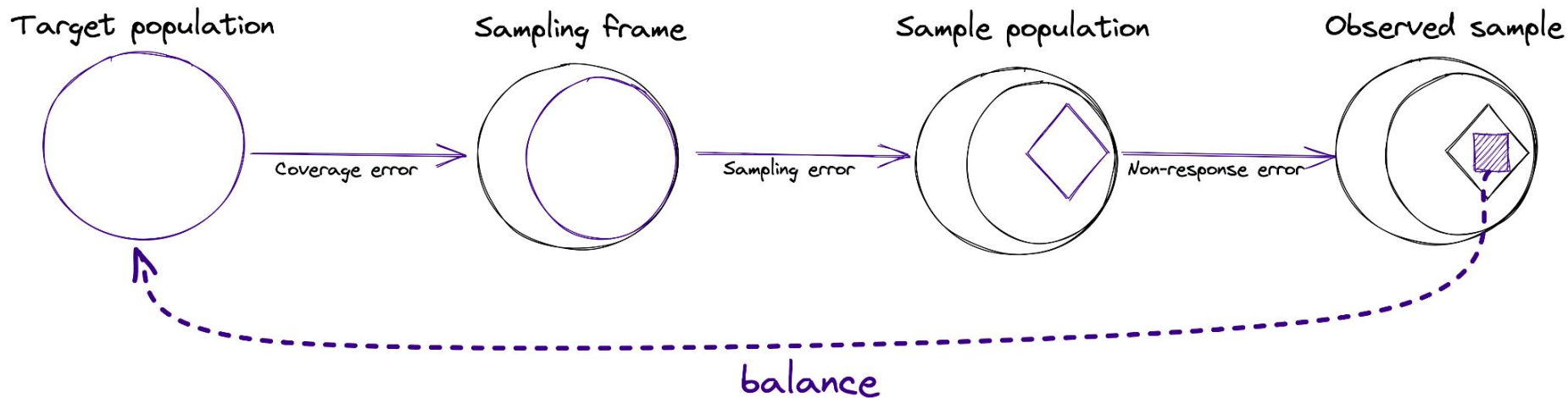
# Survey weighting alternatives - market ecosystem



# Survey Bias



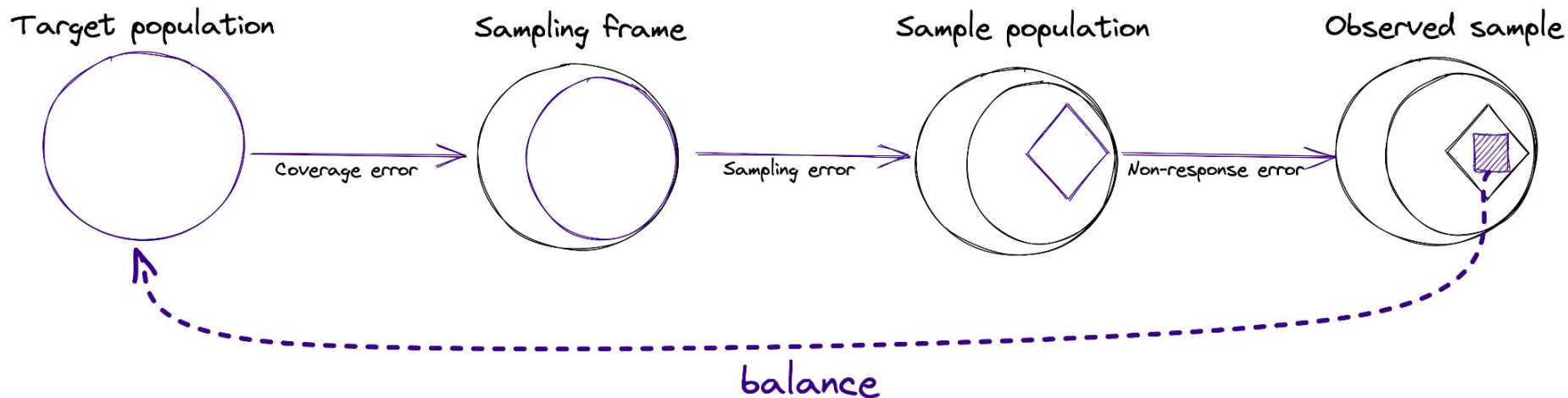
## Total survey error framework - representation error: [Groves et al. 2010]



**Research goal:** Estimate descriptive statistics of interest for a population.



## Notations

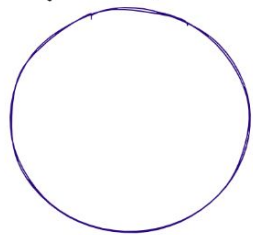


- Let  $\mathbf{Y}$  be the survey response (observed only for the sample of respondents).
- Let  $\mathbf{R}$  be an indicator of whether unit  $i$  responded to the survey (inclusion in sample).
- Let  $\mathbf{X}$  be an auxiliary data (observed for sample and target!)

# How can we mitigate survey bias? **weights**

Target population

Observed sample



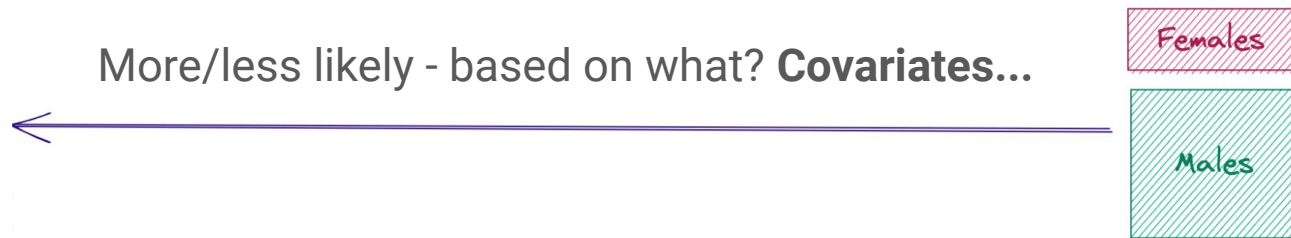
**Weights**



- If a person is “more likely” to respond -> give a small weight.
- If a person is “less likely” to respond -> give a **large** weight.

$$\bar{y}_w = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

# How do we estimate weights? Assumptions



- (1) **MAR (Missing At Random) assumption** [Rubin, 1976]: The response mechanism is independent of the survey responses conditional on the auxiliary data:

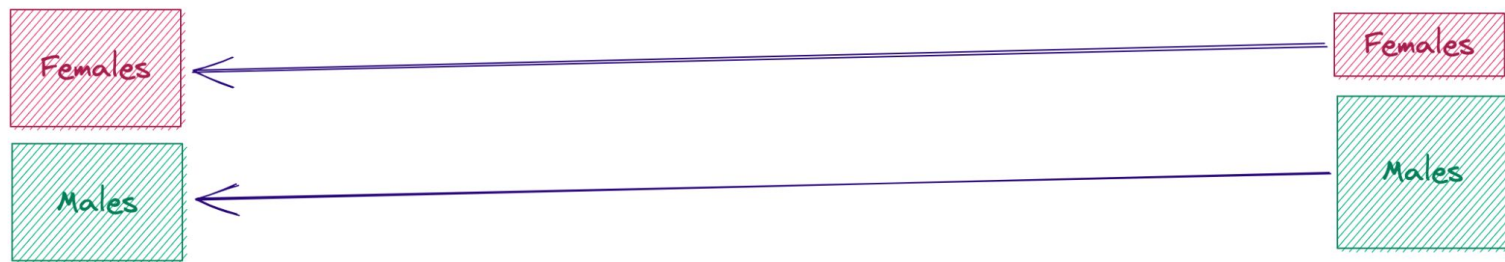
$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp R \mid X$$

- (2) **Positivity:**

$$0 < Pr(R = 1|X) < 1$$

(Also known as **strong ignorability** (or unconfoundedness in causal inference))

# Estimation: Post-Stratification [Little, 1993]



- Can be used with several covariates given the joint distribution (E.g.: Age, Gender, State)

## Limitation:

- We must have “enough” respondents in each bucket.
- Must know the joint distribution → raking  
(iterative process based on marginal distributions)

# Propensity Score [Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983]

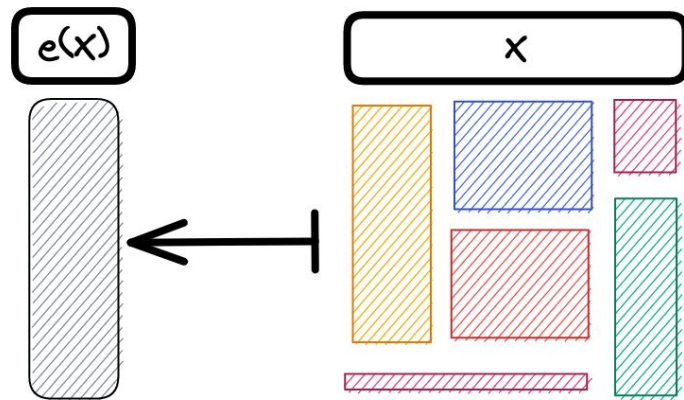
$$e(x) = \Pr(R = 1|x)$$

The assumptions:

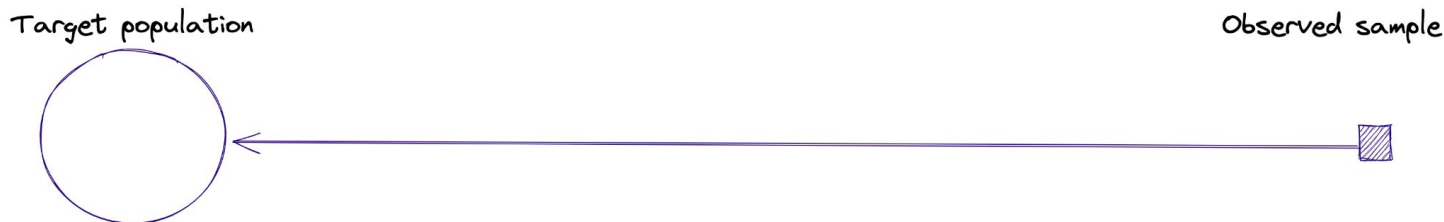
- (1) Strong ignorability:  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp R \mid X$
- (2) Positivity:  $0 < \Pr(R = 1|x) < 1$

Implies:

- (1) Strong ignorability given the propensity score:  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp R \mid e(X)$
- (2) The propensity score is the “coarsest” balancing score (e.g. the lowest dimension score  $B(X)$  such that  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp R \mid B(X)$  )



# Estimation: Inverse Propensity Score Weighting (IPW or IPSW)



- Estimate the propensity score using logistic regression:

$$\ln\left(\frac{p_i}{1 - p_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \vec{\beta_1} X_i$$

- **balance** uses **regularized logistic regression (LASSO)** (to remove covariates that are not predictive for non-response).
- Alternative model is **Covariate Balancing Propensity Score** [Imai & Ratkovic, 2014], optimizing both the propensity score and the balance of the covariates.
- Estimate the weights:

$$w_i = \frac{1 - \hat{p}_i}{\hat{p}_i}$$

# When do survey weights help?

When:

- (a) the non-response pattern is strongly related to the measurable covariates,
- (b) the covariates are accurately represented in (and fixed by using) the fitted propensity score model, and
- (c) the survey weights correlate (strongly “enough”) with the outcome of interest

Diagnostics measure are available to (at least partially) measure the above assumptions.

# When do survey weights help?

When:

(a) the non-response pattern is strongly related to the measurable covariates,

ASMD values, and distribution plots

(b) the covariates are accurately represented in (and fixed by using) the fitted propensity score model, and

ASMD values, and distribution plots (before/after fitting the weights)

(c) the survey weights correlate (strongly “enough”) with the outcome of interest

Kish’s design effect (other quantiles of the weights), and the weighted mean (and their CI)

Diagnostics measure are available to (at least partially) measure the above assumptions.



# Workflow in practice

The main workflow of *balance* includes three steps:

- (1) **Understanding** the initial bias in the data  
relative to a target we would like to infer about
- (2) **Adjusting** the data to correct for the bias by producing  
weights for each unit in the sample based on  
propensity scores
- (3) **Evaluating** the final bias and the variance inflation  
after applying the fitted weights

# Workflow in practice

The main workflow of *balance* includes three steps:

- (1) **Understanding** the initial bias in the data  
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Checking the covariates of sample vs target (plots, ASMD)

- (2) **Adjusting** the data to correct for the bias by producing  
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Fitting a weighting model (IPW, CBPS, post-stratification, raking)

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Checking the covariates of sample (with/without weights) vs target (plots, ASMD) + weights diagnostics  
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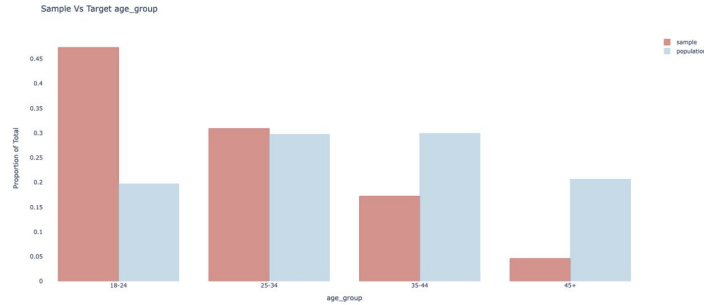
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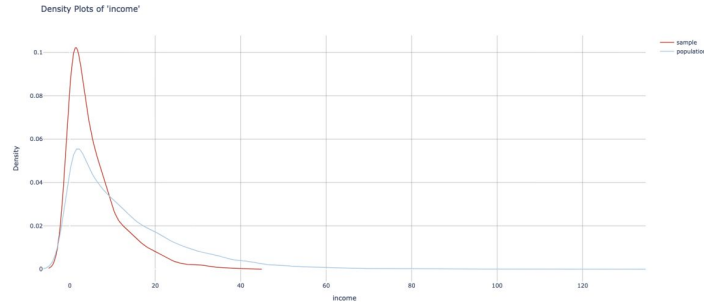
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# Visualizing Distributions with Distribution Plots



(b) Bar plot for age group



(c) KDE for income

■ Un-weighted sample    ■ Weighted sample

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# Adjustment

Researcher may choose between 4 adjustment models (IPW, CBPS, raking and post-stratification) - also - *balance* utilizes a few best practices when modeling:

1. **Feature engineering** - *balance* will automatically apply transformations to the covariates to better adjust their distribution.
2. **“Model selection”** - *balance* applies regularized logistic regression in IPW in order to reduce the “non-significant” inflation of the variance created by the weights.
3. **Weights trimming** - *balance* applies trimming of the weights to reduce the influence of extreme observations.

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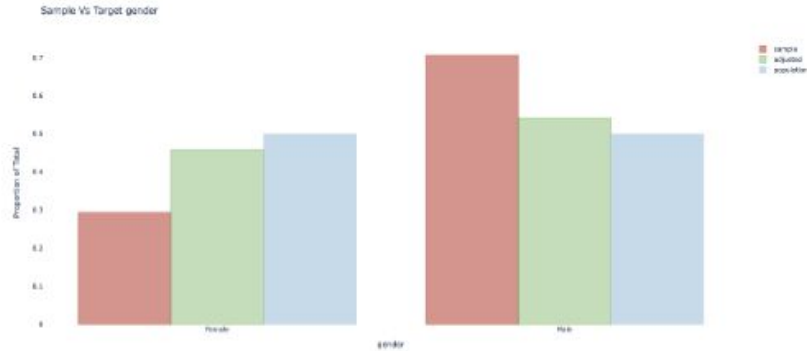
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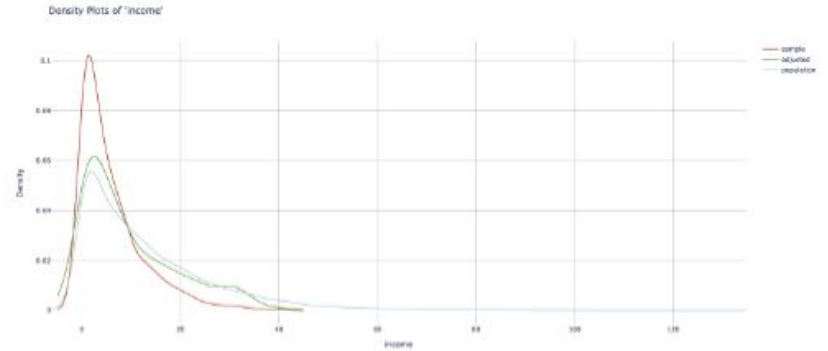
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# Visualizing Distributions with Distribution Plots



(a) Bar plot for gender



(b) KDE for income

 Un-weighted sample     Weighted sample     True value

Examples (from simulated data) of diagnostic plots for covariates



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# Absolute Standardized Mean Deviation (ASMD)

It is computed as follows:

$$ASMD = \frac{|\bar{X}_{Sample} - \bar{X}_{Target}|}{SD_{Target}}$$

where  $\bar{X}_{Sample}$  and  $\bar{X}_{Target}$  are the means of the sample and target, and  $SD_{Target}$  is the standard deviation of the target population.

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$$ASMD_{diff} = ASMD_{unadjusted} - ASMD_{weighted}$$

# Absolute Standardized Mean Deviation (ASMD)

| Source             | Weighted | Unadjusted | Unadjusted - Adjusted |
|--------------------|----------|------------|-----------------------|
| age_group[T.25-34] | 0.001085 | 0.005688   | 0.004602              |
| age_group[T.35-44] | 0.037455 | 0.312711   | 0.275256              |
| age_group[T.45+]   | 0.129304 | 0.378828   | 0.249525              |
| gender[Female]     | 0.133970 | 0.375699   | 0.241730              |
| gender[Male]       | 0.109697 | 0.379314   | 0.269617              |
| gender[_NA]        | 0.042278 | 0.006296   | -0.035983             |
| income             | 0.243762 | 0.494217   | 0.250455              |
| mean(asmd)         | 0.131675 | 0.326799   | 0.195124              |

Examples (from simulated data) of an ASMD table for covariates of a sample. Columns are for cases the data is weighted, unadjusted, and their difference ( $ASMD_{diff}$ )

# Absolute Standardized Mean Deviation (ASMD)

- Pros
  - Standardized measure (comparable across features)
  - Easy comparison over many features and alternative weighting options
- Cons
  - Hard to interpret in absolute terms (how much ASMD is “good”?)
  - Sensitive to outliers while being indifferent to distributional differences
  - Less applicable to categorical variables  
(we currently use dummy variables,  
but aggregation leads to an even less obvious interpretation)

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## Weights diagnostics: Kish's design effect

A design effect measures the increase in variance of an estimate due to the use of survey weights compared to an equal probability sample of the same size. Theoretically, it is calculated as follows:

$$Deff = \frac{Var_{weighted}}{Var_{unweighted}}$$

(e.g.: Deff=2 means the variance  
is double when using weights  
As compared to NOT using weights)

## Weights diagnostics: Kish's design effect

A design effect measures the increase in variance of an estimate due to the use of survey weights compared to an equal probability sample of the same size. Theoretically, it is calculated as follows:

$$D_{eff} = \frac{Var_{weighted}}{Var_{unweighted}}$$

(e.g.: Deff=2 means the variance  
is double when using weights  
As compared to NOT using weights)

The effective sample size is:

$$n_{eff} = \frac{n}{D_{eff}}$$



# Weights diagnostics: Kish's design effect

## *Kish's design effect*

assumes no correlation between the weights and the outcome variable, also known as "haphazard weights." The formula

$$D_{eff} = \frac{n \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i)^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2}{\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i\right)^2} = \frac{\overline{w^2}}{\overline{w}^2}$$

# Weights diagnostics: quantiles of weights

For weights diagnostics, it's helpful to look at weights that are normalized to sum to the sample size, i.e.:

$$w_i^* = w_i / \bar{w}$$

This allows us to check:

1. Quantiles
2. Proportion of weights above/below some values  
(this helps identify extreme values, or odd behaviors)

# Weights diagnostics

| Var                             | Val      |
|---------------------------------|----------|
| design_effect                   | 1.90     |
| effective_sample_proportion     | 0.53     |
| effective_sample_size           | 527.04   |
| sum                             | 10000.00 |
| describe_count                  | 1000.00  |
| describe_mean                   | 1.00     |
| describe_std                    | 0.95     |
| describe_min                    | 0.31     |
| describe_25%                    | 0.38     |
| describe_50%                    | 0.64     |
| describe_75%                    | 1.20     |
| describe_max                    | 11.65    |
| prop(w < 0.1)                   | 0.00     |
| prop(w < 0.2)                   | 0.00     |
| prop(w < 0.333)                 | 0.11     |
| prop(w < 0.5)                   | 0.20     |
| prop(w < 1)                     | 0.65     |
| prop(w >= 1)                    | 0.35     |
| prop(w >= 2)                    | 0.12     |
| prop(w >= 3)                    | 0.03     |
| prop(w >= 5)                    | 0.01     |
| prop(w >= 10)                   | 0.00     |
| nonparametric_skew              | 0.38     |
| weighted_median_breakdown_point | 0.21     |

Examples (from simulated data) of diagnostics statistics for weights

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# Outcome diagnostics

**Weighted mean:**

$$\bar{y}_w = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

**Variance** of the weighted mean:

$$\widehat{V(\bar{y}_w)} = \frac{1}{(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i)^2} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2 (y_i - \bar{y}_w)^2$$

**Confidence intervals** for the weighted mean:

$$CI(\mu) : \bar{y}_w \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\widehat{V(\bar{y}_w)}}$$

# Outcome diagnostics

| Metric            | Happiness        |
|-------------------|------------------|
| Weighted (mean)   | 53.389           |
| Target (mean)     | 56.278           |
| Unadjusted (mean) | 48.559           |
| Weighted CI       | (52.183, 54.595) |
| Target CI         | (55.961, 56.595) |
| Unadjusted CI     | (47.669, 49.449) |

Examples (from simulated data) of weighted means and their confidence intervals (CI)

# Outcome diagnostics

The **variance** of the weighted mean  
(required for the CI)

Assumes:

1.  $y$  is fixed and known.
2.  $w$  is fixed and known.

The randomness comes from the selection indicator.

$$V(\widehat{\bar{y}_w}) = \frac{1}{(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i)^2} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2 (y_i - \bar{y}_w)^2$$

# Outcome diagnostics

The **variance** of the weighted mean  
(required for the CI)

Assumes:

1.  $y$  is fixed and known.
2.  $w$  is fixed and known.

The **randomness** comes from the  
**selection indicator**.

$$\bar{y}_w = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

$$V(\widehat{\bar{y}_w}) = \frac{1}{(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i)^2} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2 (y_i - \bar{y}_w)^2$$

$$\hat{Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N I_i \frac{y_i}{\pi_i}}{\sum_{i=1}^N I_i \frac{1}{\pi_i}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \check{y}'_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N \check{1}'_i} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i y'_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i 1'_i} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i y'_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i 1'_i} = \bar{y}_w$$



# Outcome diagnostics

The variance of the weighted mean formula assumes that the weights are known and fixed quantities.

It does not account for the uncertainty that is introduced from the estimation of the weights.

An end-to-end bootstrap simulation can be performed to account for this variance.

Example: simulated data

**Source**

<https://import-balance.org/docs/tutorials/quickstart/>

# Example: simulated data

## Getting simulated data (stored in *balance*)

```
from balance import load_data
```

```
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:15,410) [__init__/<module> (line 52)]: Using balance version 0.9.0
```

```
In [2]: target_df, sample_df = load_data()
```

```
print("target_df: \n", target_df.head())  
print("sample_df: \n", sample_df.head())
```

target\_df:

|   | id     | gender | age_group | income    | happiness |
|---|--------|--------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 0 | 100000 | Male   | 45+       | 10.183951 | 61.706333 |
| 1 | 100001 | Male   | 45+       | 6.036858  | 79.123670 |
| 2 | 100002 | Male   | 35-44     | 5.226629  | 44.206949 |
| 3 | 100003 | NaN    | 45+       | 5.752147  | 83.985716 |
| 4 | 100004 | NaN    | 25-34     | 4.837484  | 49.339713 |

sample\_df:

|   | id | gender | age_group | income    | happiness |
|---|----|--------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 0 | 0  | Male   | 25-34     | 6.428659  | 26.043029 |
| 1 | 1  | Female | 18-24     | 9.940280  | 66.885485 |
| 2 | 2  | Male   | 18-24     | 2.673623  | 37.091922 |
| 3 | 3  | NaN    | 18-24     | 10.550308 | 49.394050 |
| 4 | 4  | NaN    | 18-24     | 2.689994  | 72.304208 |

# Example: simulated data

Loading the simulated data into an instance of 'Sample' class (from *balance* )

```
from balance import Sample
```

```
sample = Sample.from_frame(sample_df, outcome_columns=["happiness"])
```

```
# Often times we don't have the outcome for the target. In this case we've added it just to validate later
```

```
target = Sample.from_frame(target_df, outcome_columns=["happiness"])
```

# Example: simulated data

The 'sample' object has

Many methods, attributes and  
Properties.

E.g.: using ".df" will get us  
The DataFrame stored in  
the object.

```
: sample.df.info()
```

```
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>  
RangeIndex: 1000 entries, 0 to 999  
Data columns (total 6 columns):  
#   Column      Non-Null Count  Dtype  
---  -  
0   id          1000 non-null   object  
1   gender       912 non-null    object  
2   age_group    1000 non-null   object  
3   income       1000 non-null   float64  
4   happiness    1000 non-null   float64  
5   weight       1000 non-null   int64  
dtypes: float64(2), int64(1), object(3)  
memory usage: 47.0+ KB
```

# Example: simulated data

Each Sample object  
has a print-out  
with information  
about what's stored.

```
sample
```

```
(balance.sample_class.Sample)
```

```
balance Sample object  
1000 observations x 3 variables: gender,age_group,income  
id_column: id, weight_column: weight,  
outcome_columns: happiness
```

```
target
```

```
(balance.sample_class.Sample)
```

```
balance Sample object  
10000 observations x 3 variables: gender,age_group,income  
id_column: id, weight_column: weight,  
outcome_columns: happiness
```

# Example: simulated data

Using “.set\_target” we can connect the target Sample with the sample Sample

```
sample_with_target = sample.set_target(target)
```

Looking on `sample_with_target` now, it has the target attached:

```
sample_with_target
```

```
(balance.sample_class.Sample)
```

```
balance Sample object with target set  
1000 observations x 3 variables: gender,age_group,income  
id_column: id, weight_column: weight,  
outcome_columns: happiness
```

```
target:
```

```
balance Sample object  
10000 observations x 3 variables: gender,age_group,income  
id_column: id, weight_column: weight,  
outcome_columns: happiness
```

```
3 common variables: gender,age_group,income
```

# Example: simulated data

## Comparing means

```
: print(sample_with_target.covars().mean().T)
```

| source                | self     | target    |
|-----------------------|----------|-----------|
| _is_na_gender[T.True] | 0.088000 | 0.089800  |
| age_group[T.25-34]    | 0.300000 | 0.297400  |
| age_group[T.35-44]    | 0.156000 | 0.299200  |
| age_group[T.45+]      | 0.053000 | 0.206300  |
| gender[Female]        | 0.268000 | 0.455100  |
| gender[Male]          | 0.644000 | 0.455100  |
| gender[_NA]           | 0.088000 | 0.089800  |
| income                | 6.297302 | 12.737608 |



# Example: simulated data

## Looking at ASMD

```
: print(sample_with_target.covars().asmd().T)
```

| source             | self     |
|--------------------|----------|
| age_group[T.25-34] | 0.005688 |
| age_group[T.35-44] | 0.312711 |
| age_group[T.45+]   | 0.378828 |
| gender[Female]     | 0.375699 |
| gender[Male]       | 0.379314 |
| gender[_NA]        | 0.006296 |
| income             | 0.494217 |
| mean(asmd)         | 0.326799 |

```
: print(sample_with_target.covars().asmd(aggregate_by_main_covar = True).T)
```

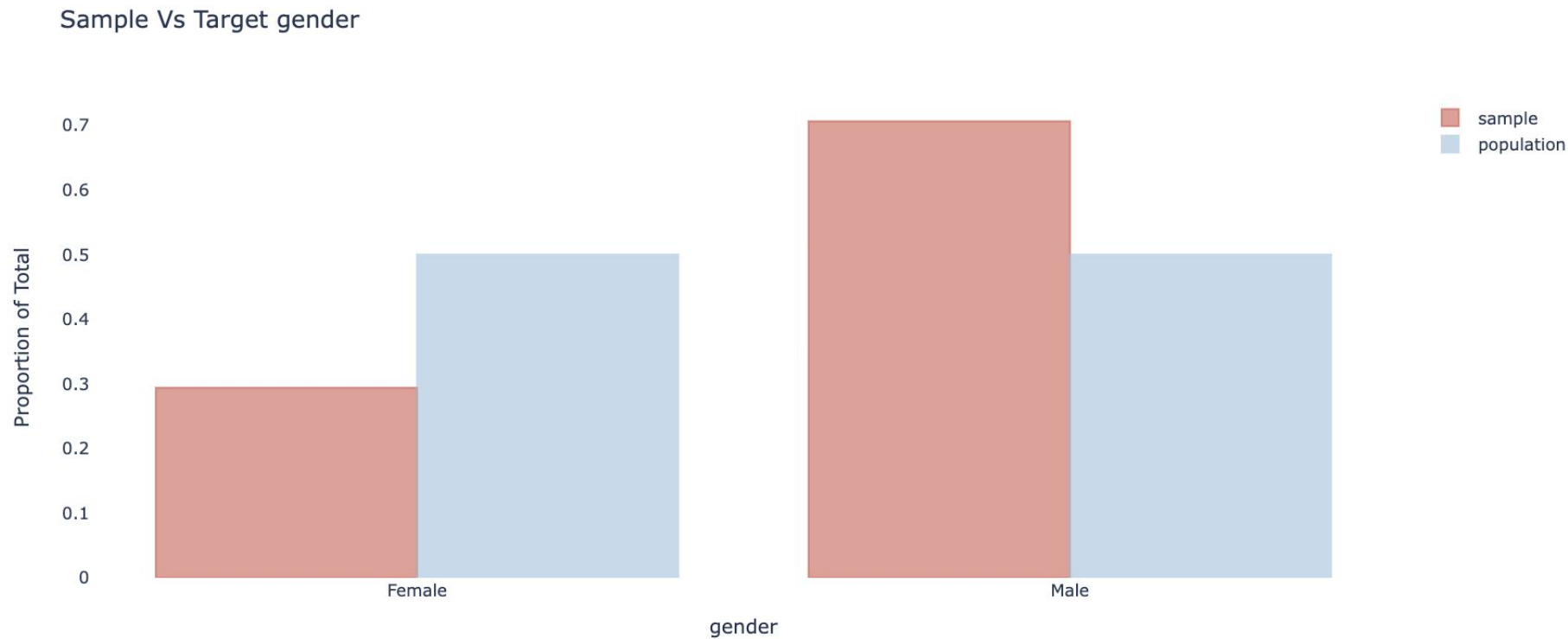
| source     | self     |
|------------|----------|
| age_group  | 0.232409 |
| gender     | 0.253769 |
| income     | 0.494217 |
| mean(asmd) | 0.326799 |

## Example: simulated data

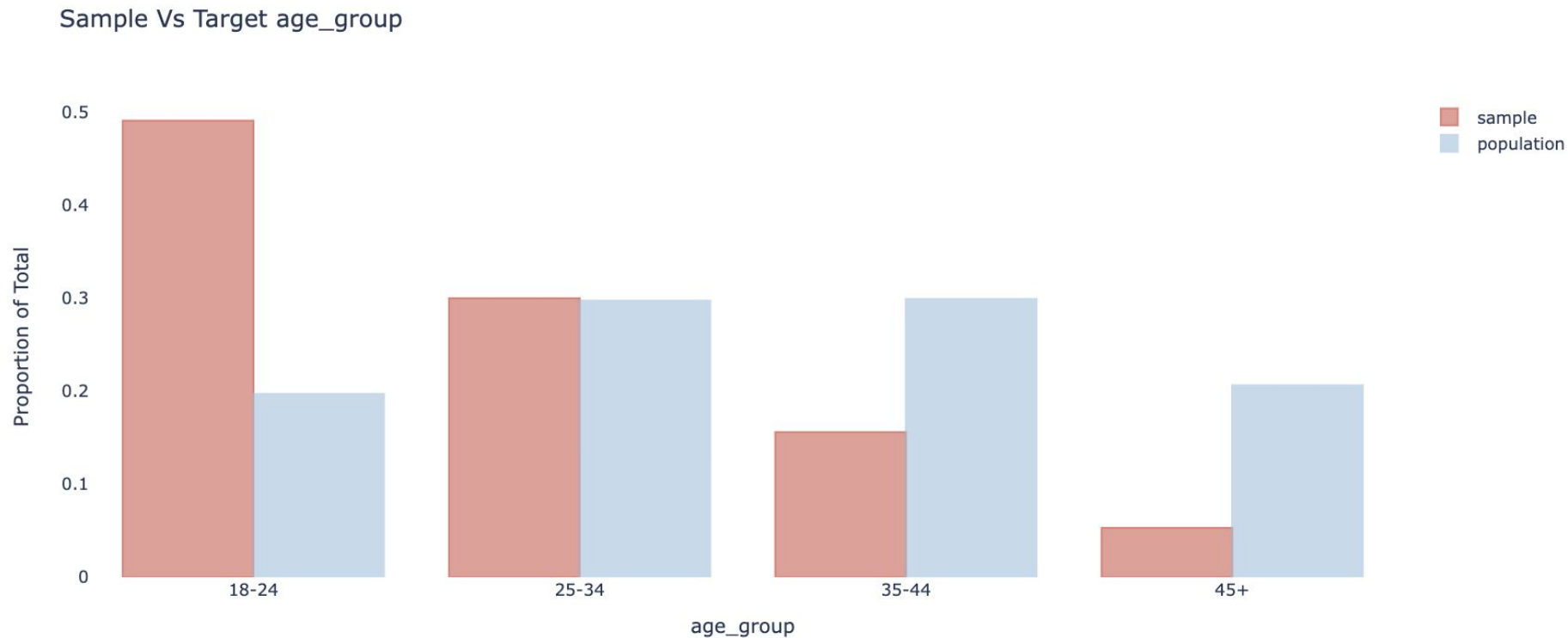
And we can get plots for all covariates

```
sample_with_target.covars().plot()
```

# Example: simulated data



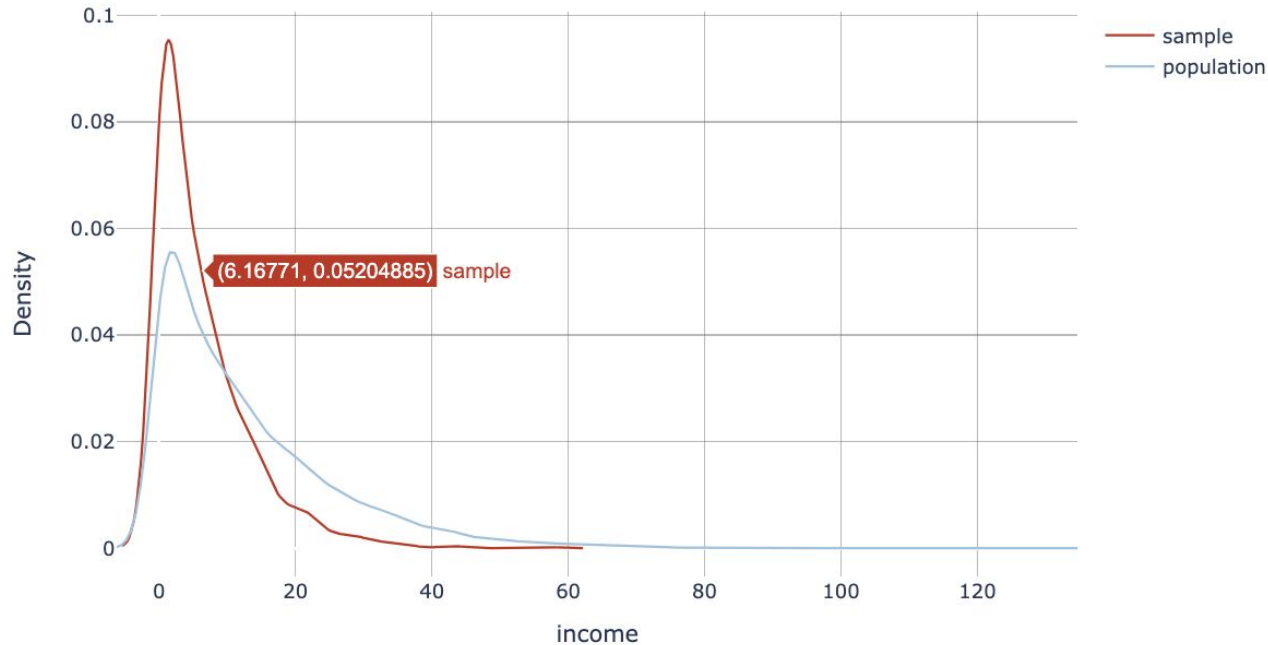
# Example: simulated data



# Example: simulated data



Density Plots of 'income'



# Example: simulated data

We use “.adjust()” to fit a model (e.g.: IPW, CBPS, raking, or post-stratification)

```
] # Using ipw to fit survey weights  
adjusted = sample_with_target.adjust()
```

```
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,643) [ipw/ipw (line 428)]: Starting ipw function  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,646) [adjustment/apply_transformations (line 257)]: Adding the variables: []  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,647) [adjustment/apply_transformations (line 258)]: Transforming the variables: ['gender', 'age_group', 'income']  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,658) [adjustment/apply_transformations (line 295)]: Final variables in output: ['gender', 'age_group', 'income']  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,667) [ipw/ipw (line 462)]: Building model matrix  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,761) [ipw/ipw (line 486)]: The formula used to build the model matrix: ['income + gender + age_group + _is_na_gender']  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,762) [ipw/ipw (line 489)]: The number of columns in the model matrix: 16  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,763) [ipw/ipw (line 490)]: The number of rows in the model matrix: 11000  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:16,771) [ipw/ipw (line 521)]: Fitting logistic model  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:18,481) [ipw/ipw (line 564)]: max_de: None  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:18,485) [ipw/ipw (line 594)]: Chosen lambda for cv: [0.0131066]  
INFO (2023-05-14 09:00:18,487) [ipw/ipw (line 602)]: Proportion null deviance explained [0.17168419]
```

# Example: simulated data

The print-out tells us what we got in the object

```
print(adjusted)
```

```
Adjusted balance Sample object with target set using ipw  
1000 observations x 3 variables: gender,age_group,income  
id_column: id, weight_column: weight,  
outcome_columns: happiness
```

```
target:
```

```
balance Sample object  
10000 observations x 3 variables: gender,age_group,income  
id_column: id, weight_column: weight,  
outcome_columns: happiness
```

```
3 common variables: gender,age_group,income
```

# Example: simulated data

We can evaluate the results

```
print(adjusted.summary())
```

Covar ASMD reduction: 59.7%, design effect: 1.897

Covar ASMD (7 variables): 0.327 → 0.132

Model performance: Model proportion deviance explained: 0.172

```
print(adjusted.covars().mean().T)
```

| source                | self     | target    | unadjusted |
|-----------------------|----------|-----------|------------|
| _is_na_gender[T.True] | 0.101888 | 0.089800  | 0.088000   |
| age_group[T.25-34]    | 0.297896 | 0.297400  | 0.300000   |
| age_group[T.35-44]    | 0.282048 | 0.299200  | 0.156000   |
| age_group[T.45+]      | 0.153975 | 0.206300  | 0.053000   |
| gender[Female]        | 0.388383 | 0.455100  | 0.268000   |
| gender[Male]          | 0.509730 | 0.455100  | 0.644000   |
| gender[_NA]           | 0.101888 | 0.089800  | 0.088000   |
| income                | 9.561063 | 12.737608 | 6.297302   |



# Example: simulated data

We can look at the effect of weighting on the ASMD:

```
: print(adjusted.covars().asmd().T)
```

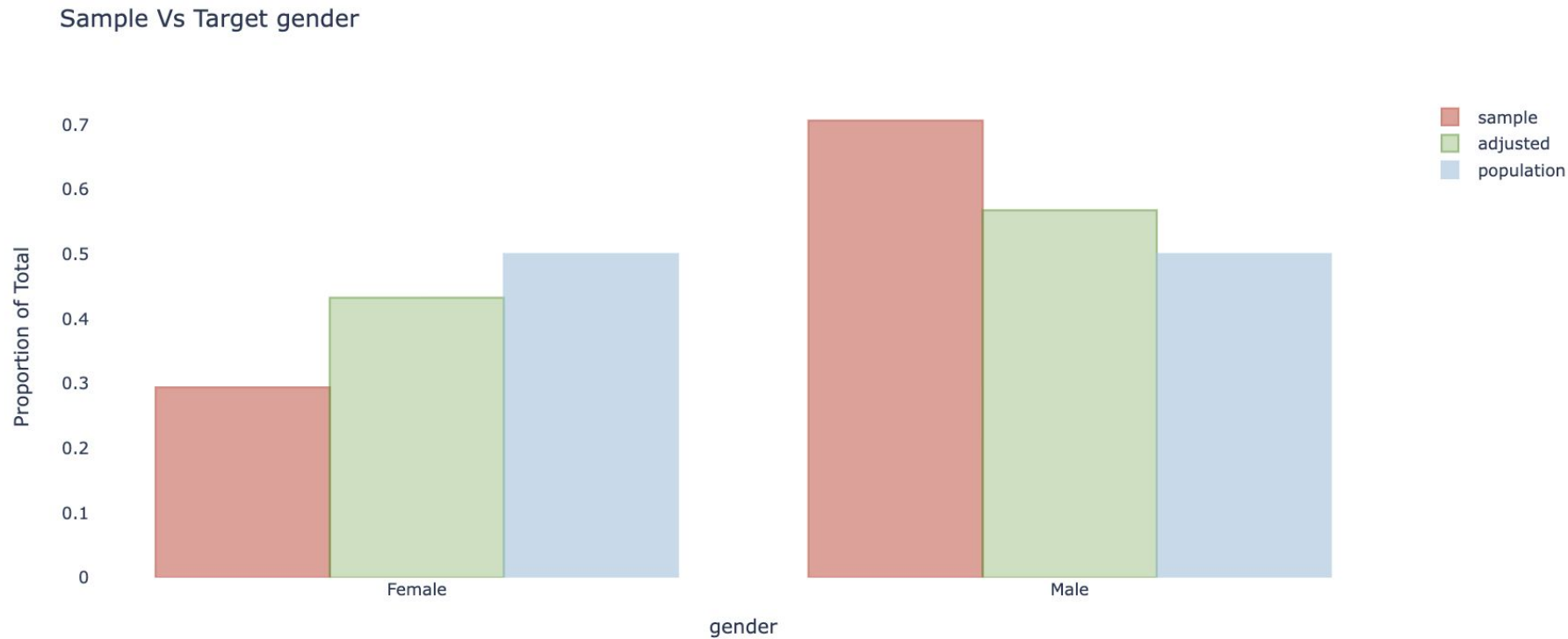
| source             | self     | unadjusted | unadjusted - self |
|--------------------|----------|------------|-------------------|
| age_group[T.25-34] | 0.001085 | 0.005688   | 0.004602          |
| age_group[T.35-44] | 0.037455 | 0.312711   | 0.275256          |
| age_group[T.45+]   | 0.129304 | 0.378828   | 0.249525          |
| gender[Female]     | 0.133970 | 0.375699   | 0.241730          |
| gender[Male]       | 0.109697 | 0.379314   | 0.269617          |
| gender[_NA]        | 0.042278 | 0.006296   | -0.035983         |
| income             | 0.243762 | 0.494217   | 0.250455          |
| mean(asmd)         | 0.131675 | 0.326799   | 0.195124          |

## Example: simulated data

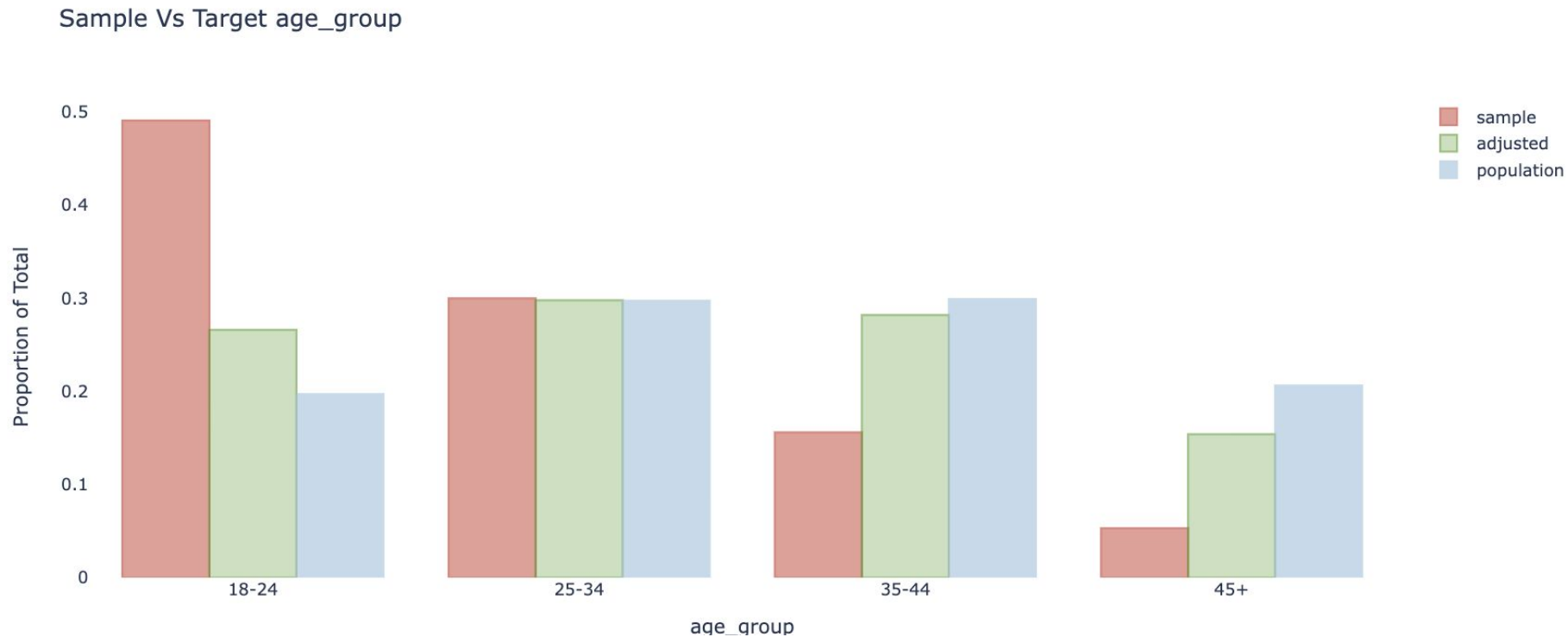
And we can plot our data again (seeing the effect of weighting on the covariates)

```
adjusted.covars().plot()
```

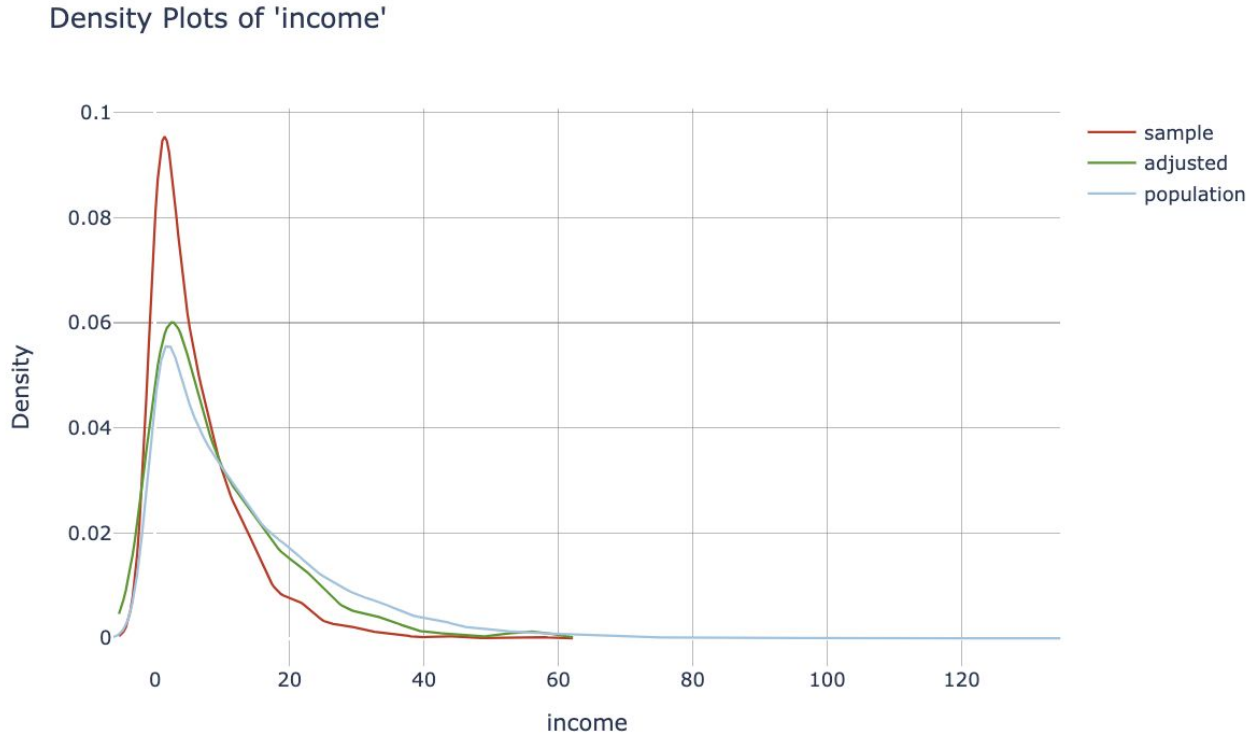
# Example: simulated data



# Example: simulated data



# Example: simulated data



# Example: simulated data

## Weight diagnostics

```
print(adjusted.weights().summary().round(2))
```

|    | var                         | val      |
|----|-----------------------------|----------|
| 0  | design_effect               | 1.90     |
| 1  | effective_sample_proportion | 0.53     |
| 2  | effective_sample_size       | 527.04   |
| 3  | sum                         | 10000.00 |
| 4  | describe_count              | 1000.00  |
| 5  | describe_mean               | 1.00     |
| 6  | describe_std                | 0.95     |
| 7  | describe_min                | 0.31     |
| 8  | describe_25%                | 0.38     |
| 9  | describe_50%                | 0.64     |
| 10 | describe_75%                | 1.20     |
| 11 | describe_max                | 11.65    |
| 12 | prop(w < 0.1)               | 0.00     |
| 13 | prop(w < 0.2)               | 0.00     |
| 14 | prop(w < 0.333)             | 0.11     |
| 15 | prop(w < 0.5)               | 0.29     |
| 16 | prop(w < 1)                 | 0.65     |
| 17 | prop(w >= 1)                | 0.35     |
| 18 | prop(w >= 2)                | 0.12     |
| 19 | prop(w >= 3)                | 0.03     |
| 20 | prop(w >= 5)                | 0.01     |
| 21 | prop(w >= 10)               | 0.00     |

# Example: simulated data

Outcome - weighted means

```
print(adjusted.outcomes().summary())
```

```
1 outcomes: ['happiness']
```

Mean outcomes (with 95% confidence intervals):

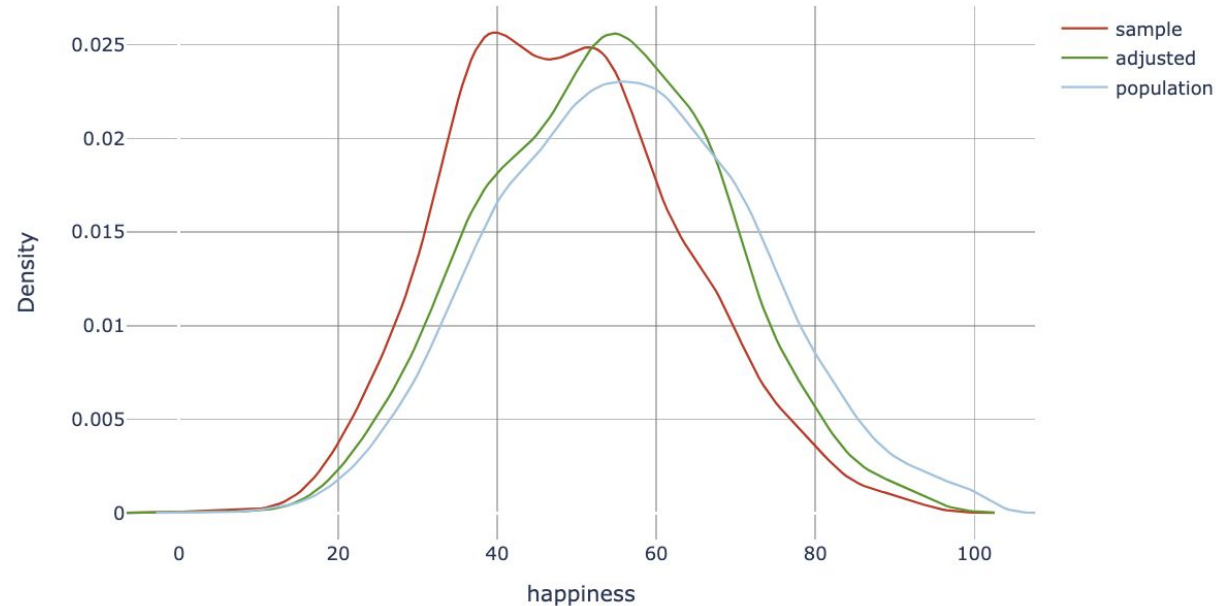
| source    | self   | target | unadjusted | self_ci          | target_ci        | unadjusted_ci    |
|-----------|--------|--------|------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| happiness | 53.389 | 56.278 | 48.559     | (52.183, 54.595) | (55.961, 56.595) | (47.669, 49.449) |

# Example: simulated data

## Outcome

```
adjusted.outcomes().plot()
```

Density Plots of 'happiness'





# Example: simulated data

## Downloading the results

```
adjusted.to_download()
```

Click here to download: [/tmp/tmp\\_balance\\_out\\_f686eeac-53e1-4664-a4d7-384ae031309a.csv](/tmp/tmp_balance_out_f686eeac-53e1-4664-a4d7-384ae031309a.csv)

```
# We can prepare the data to be exported as csv - showing the first 500 characters for simplicity:  
adjusted.to_csv()[0:500]
```

```
'id,gender,age_group,income,happiness,weight\n0,Male,25-34,6.428659499046228,26.043028759747298,6.37368  
66.88548460632677,7.348179942660277\n2,Male,18-24,2.6736231547518043,37.091921916683006,3.7166064778033  
71002,6.509195107938343\n4,,18-24,2.689993854299385,72.30420755038209,6.394774127610416\n5,,35-44,5.995  
1593\n6,,18-24,12.63469573898972,31.663293445944596,7.7552609990'
```

Thanks!

Questions?



**Tal Sarig**



**Tal Galili**

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# Proof for Kish's design effect

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{var}(\bar{y}_w) &\stackrel{1}{=} \text{var}\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}\right) \stackrel{2}{=} \text{var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n w'_i y_i\right) \stackrel{3}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var}(w'_i y_i) \\
 &\stackrel{4}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i'^2 \text{var}(y_i) \stackrel{5}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i'^2 \sigma^2 \stackrel{6}{=} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n w_i'^2 \stackrel{7}{=} \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i\right)^2} \\
 &\stackrel{8}{=} \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \frac{n}{n}\right)^2} \stackrel{9}{=} \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2}{\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}{n}\right)^2 n^2} \stackrel{10}{=} \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \frac{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2}{n}}{\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}{n}\right)^2} \\
 &\stackrel{11}{=} \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \frac{\overline{w^2}}{\bar{w}^2} \stackrel{12}{=} \text{var}(\bar{y}') D_{eff} \\
 &\implies D_{eff(kish)} = \frac{\text{var}(\bar{y}_w)}{\text{var}(\bar{y}')}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Why the relation between the response and the weighting variable is important?

Given a fixed amount of imbalance between the sample of respondents and the population in the weighting variables, the potential effect of correcting the bias depends on the correlation between the variable and the response. The higher the correlation is the larger the effect is.

This is demonstrated in a simple analytic case: Assume we have two groups A and B, where the probability for True in each group is  $p_A$  and  $p_B$ , respectively. In addition, assume that the two groups are balanced in the sample, but not in the population, where the percentage of group “A” in the population is  $p$  and for group “B”  $1-p$ .

The difference in the responses between the two groups can be measured with  $p_B - p_A$  and is plotted on the X-axis (assuming  $p_A = 0.1$ ). The imbalance between the groups is measured by ASMD, and can be written as  $(0.5 - p) / \sqrt{p(1-p)}$ . We consider the ratio of the perfect weighted average response  $p_A \cdot p + p_B(1-p)$  and the unweighted average response  $0.5p_A + 0.5p_B$ .

As expected, when the asmd is zero, i.e. when there is no imbalance between the groups, the weighted and unweighted responses are the same. Similarly, when  $p_A$  and  $p_B$  are the same and there is no difference in the response between the groups, the weighted and unweighted responses are also the same. When the asmd increases, or when the difference in response between the groups increases, the ratio becomes larger, meaning the importance of weighting increases.

