# Causal Inference with Observational Data

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Dean and Friends Dropkick, Monica, Zhe, and Jackie

# **Topics**

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# General Motivation

- Interventions: policy / management / new product
- Behavior-centric data
	- many, many unobserved features
- Central to all causal statements: (a) identification/counterfactual strategy (b) assumptions defending identification
	- many, many subtleties



# Ideally: Counterfactuals

Counterfactuals: "we only observe what actually happens"

- Naive estimate of program effect: E[Program] - E[None]
- With observed data: E[  $Program|D = 1$  ] - E[  $None|D = 0$  ]
- $O$  "[D = 1], [D=0]"
	- random? Probably not; related to unobservables

# Simplest Approach



# Next Simplest: Assume No Unobservables

Regression with controls

● e.g. Effect of a job training program ○ Basic demographics, income, education

Machine Learning

- maximizes predictive fit
- estimate of effect the same: E[  $Program|D = 1$  ] - E[  $None|D = 0$  ]

# After That: Natural & Quasi-Experiments

Natural Separation of Groups

US Military Draft on Random Social Security Numbers odd/even?

 $\rightarrow$  estimate effect of military on career outcomes

### Fixed Effects & Differences-in-Differences



### Fixed Effects & Differences-in-Differences



# Fixed Effects & Differences-in-Differences

Not usually that simple.

Examples:

Effect of minimum-wage increase in NJ (uses eastern PA as counterfactual)

Effect of Uber/Lyft on drunk driving homicides (uses time-based diff-in-diff)

# Main Task: Defending Identification Strategy



# Discontinuity/Threshold Design

Scholarship Effect Vote Effect

Class Size Effect

Flaw: *local* estimate



# Instrumental Variables

- Want to look at the effect of treatment on outcome
	- Controlled experiments often not viable in social sciences
	- Usually working with observational data
- Potential issue with classical regression: endogeneity (explanatory variables correlated with error term)
- To try and avoid this, use an instrument for treatment explanatory variable of interest.
- An instrument must be:
	- Correlated with explanatory variable of interest
	- Uncorrelated with error term

# Instrumental Variables

 $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$ 

- Replace X with predicted values of X that are
	- Related to actual X
	- Uncorrelated with ε
- Estimation: most commonly 2SLS

 $X = ZV + u$  $\rightarrow$  y =  $X\beta$  +  $\varepsilon$ 

- Where to find instruments: policy reforms, geographic differences
- Problems with  $\overline{IV}$ : exclusion restriction untestable, weak instruments cause problems



# Survival Models

- What is it?
	- Analysis of waiting times until an event occurs
	- Usually used when event only occurs once
	- E.g. time until death, first marriage, first birth, first divorce…
	- (multiple occurrences: see event history analysis)
- Stuff we are interested in estimating
	- Survival function S(t)
		- Probability that time of event T is greater than t
		- $S(t) = P(T>=t) = 1 F(t)$
	- Hazard function h(t)
		- Instantaneous death/failure rate
		- $-$  (-) slope of the log of  $S(t)$

# Survival Models

General form:

 $\log(h(t)) = \log(h(0)) + X\beta$  $h(t) = h(0)exp(X\beta)$ 

How to estimate  $S(t) / h(t)$ :

- Non-parametric (Kaplein-Meier)
- Semi- parametric (Cox proportional hazards)
- Parametric (Poisson regression)

Censoring: often observations are censored i.e. T> t(observation)

- Can still use to get info about population exposure, but not occurences

## **Mothers returning to study**



#### Work patterns before and after birth Proportion not in labor force by study group

![](_page_17_Figure_4.jpeg)

### What if the treatment and control groups look very different?

![](_page_18_Picture_1.jpeg)

**Receives** training

![](_page_18_Picture_3.jpeg)

What we observe

- The average outcome of the treated individuals *conditional on them receiving* the treatment or intervention
- The average outcome of the untreated individuals conditional on them not receiving the treatment or intervention

These are not directly comparable!

#### What we want

The average difference in potential outcomes for each individual if they did versus did not receive treatment

Slide credit: Jennifer Hill

### If we think we know how these groups differ, we can match them

![](_page_19_Figure_1.jpeg)

- **•** This requires assuming *ignorability*: that we have measured all the covariates that we need to predict how likely an individual is to receive the treatment
- Build a classifier on the likelihood of receiving treatment
	- $\overline{\circ}$  Match individuals from the treatment to similar individuals in the control group
	- "One-number summary"
- We never really believe we have measured all the relevant covariates!

Slide credit: Jennifer Hill

### Better than doing nothing, worse than a field test

![](_page_20_Picture_62.jpeg)

- Makes fewer (parametric) assumptions than controlling for the covariates in a standard regression
- Needs at least some overlap between the treatment and control groups or matching will fail (But at least you will know that it failed!)
	- Can try many different model specifications to predict propensity of receiving treatment--use the one that gives you the most balance
- Great for inverse probability of treatment weighting!

Slide credit: Jennifer Hill

# Tobit Models (Corner solution models)

#### • When do you use them?

- When your response or 'y' variable is zero for a nontrivial fraction of the population but is roughly continuously distributed over positive values.
- An example is the amount an individual spends on alcohol in a given month
- Why does a linear regression not work?
	- Negative values
	- Bunching around zero conditional distribution not normal
	- The x's don't really have a constant marginal effect on y

# Tobit Models

$$
y^* = \beta_0 + \mathbf{x}\beta + u, \quad u|\mathbf{x} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)
$$

$$
y = \max(0, y^*).
$$

# Tobit Models - Interpretation

- **•** It's really hard!
- We care about two things in particular
	- $\circ$  E(y|y >0,x) for the subpopulation which is positive
	- $\circ$  E(y|x) for the entire population
- We then take the partial derivatives

 $E(y|y>0, x) = x\beta + E(u|u> -x\beta)$  $= x\beta + \sigma E[(u/\sigma|u/\sigma > -x\beta/\sigma)]$  $= \mathbf{x}\beta + \sigma\phi(\mathbf{x}\beta/\sigma)/\Phi(\mathbf{x}\beta/\sigma)$  $= x\beta + \sigma\lambda(x\beta/\sigma)$ 

 $E(y|x) = P(y > 0|x)E(y|y > 0, x)$  $= \Phi(x\beta/\sigma) E(y|y > 0, x).$ 

$$
E(y|y>0,\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\beta}+\sigma\lambda(\mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\beta}/\sigma),
$$

# Tobit Models - Examples

- 753 women in sample annual hours worked
	- 428 worked for a wage
	- 325 stayed at home and worked 0 hours
- Amount spent on healthcare annually
	- Some (very healthy) people do not visit hospitals or doctors in certain years
- Amount of alcohol consumed monthly

# Heckman Models

#### ● Deals with truncated data (incidental truncation)

- We restrict attention to a subset of the population before sampling
- The 'omitted variable' in this case is how people were selected into the sample
- Ie: It is NOT a random sample
- Assume that the underlying population satisfies some linear regression model
- Example: wage of married women

$$
y = \beta_0 + \mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\beta} + u, \quad u|\mathbf{x} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2).
$$

# The Two stages

- 1st Stage:
	- Estimate probability of being included in sample (logistic/probit)
	- For wages of working women…. Education?
	- Must include a variable that causes selection in sample but does not explain your 'y'
	- Compute what is called the 'inverse Mills ratio' for each observation
- 2nd Stage:
	- Estimate the regression you would have run but add the 'inverse Mills ratio' as a predictor in the model
	- If the coefficient on this 'inverse mills ratio' is 0 then you 'can' say that there is no sample selection bias and can use a standard linear regression.

# Questions?