

# 5. Observational Studies

ISS5096 || ECI

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# Where are we? Where are we going?

- So far: experiments where design makes things easier.
- Today: what happens when we have observational studies to work with?
  - Begin with **identification, selection on observables**, and **DAGs**.
  - Rest of the course will cover different designs for observational studies.
- Q: Why are observational studies in causal inference important? (What are the limitations of RCTs?)

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Source: Twitter @NobelPrize

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Scientific Background on the Sveriges Riksbank Prize in Economic Sciences in Memory of Alfred Nobel 2021

## ANSWERING CAUSAL QUESTIONS USING OBSERVATIONAL DATA

The Committee for the Prize in Economic Sciences in Memory of Alfred Nobel

*“Taken together, therefore, the Laureates’ contributions have played a central role in establishing the so-called design-based approach in economics. This approach – aimed at **emulating a randomized experiment to answer a causal question using observational data** – has transformed applied work and improved researchers’ ability to answer causal questions of great importance for economic and social policy using observational data.” (p.2)*

# 1/ Identification in Observational Studies

# Randomized Experiment Review

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- **Randomized experiment** is an experiment with two properties:
  1. **Positivity:** assignment is probabilistic (and not deterministic):  
 $0 < \mathbb{P}[D_i = 1] < 1$
  2. **Unconfoundedness:**  $\mathbb{P}[D_i = 1 | \mathbf{Y}(1), \mathbf{Y}(0)] = \mathbb{P}[D_i = 1]$ 
    - Treatment assignment does not depend on any potential outcomes.
    - Sometimes written as  $D_i \perp\!\!\!\perp (\mathbf{Y}(1), \mathbf{Y}(0))$ .



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- Without unconfoundedness: naive diff-in-means = PATT + selection bias
- **Selection bias:** how different the treated and control groups are in terms of their potential outcome under control.

# Selection Bias = Unidentified ATT

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- Example: effect of comment sections on support for online influencers.
  - Naive estimate: influencers do worse without comment sections than with them.
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- We say ATT (as well as ATE) are **unidentified** w/o further assumptions.

# What is identification?

- **Identification** connects the counterfactual to the observed.
  - **Counterfactual distribution**  $\mathbb{P}^*$  of  $\{Y_i(1), Y_i(0), D_i, \mathbf{X}_i\}$ .
  - **Observational distribution**  $\mathbb{P}$  of  $\{Y_i, D_i, \mathbf{X}_i\}$ .
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- Quantity  $\psi$  ( $/(\text{p})\text{sal}/$ ) is **identified** if we can write it as function of  $\mathbb{P}$ .
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- Connecting counterfactuals to the observational requires **assumptions**.
  - “**What is your identification strategy?**” = what are the assumptions that allow you to claim that you’ve estimated a causal effect?
  - Research design can help justify assumptions (experiments, RDD, etc).
  - Or you will need to justify them through argument.

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- **Identification** comes first, then comes **estimation**.
  - Without identification, properties of the estimator are unimportant.
  - keep them separate: estimator shouldn't drive identification.

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  - Effect of corporate giants on economic development (confounder: previous economic development)
- Confounding  $\rightsquigarrow$  incomplete identification of ATE  $\rightsquigarrow$  biased estimators.
- What to do?

## **2/** Selection on Observables

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    - Also called: conditional unconfoundedness, weak ignorability, selection on observables, no omitted variables, exogenous, conditional exchangeability, etc.
    - $\rightsquigarrow$  Conditional on some covariates,  $D_i$  is (effectively) randomly assigned.
  2. **Positivity or Overlap:**  $0 < P[D_i = 1 | \mathbf{X}_i] < 1$ 
    - Treatment and control are both possible at every value of  $\mathbf{X}_i$
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- We'll take  $\mathbf{X}_i$  as a ‘given’ for now and see later how we might choose it.
- These are assumptions that **can be wrong!**

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- Useful to write the treated and control CEFs:

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- How the mean of the potential outcomes vary with the covariates.
- Key part of the identification above:

$$\underbrace{\mu_1(\mathbf{x})}_{\text{counterfactual}} = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\textcolor{red}{Y}_i|D_i = 1, \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}]}_{\text{observational}}, \quad \mu_0(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[\textcolor{red}{Y}_i|D_i = 0, \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}]$$

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- Regression/imputation estimator of the ATE:

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- Procedure:
  1. Obtain predicted values for all units when  $D_i = 1$ .
  2. Obtain predicted values for all units when  $D_i = 0$ .
  3. Take the average difference between these predicted values.

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  - $\widehat{\tau}_{\text{reg}} \equiv$  estimated coefficient on  $D_i$ .
- These make two very different assumptions about the CEFs!

# Variance Estimation

- How do we get estimates of the variance of  $\widehat{\tau}_{\text{reg}}$ ?

# Variance Estimation

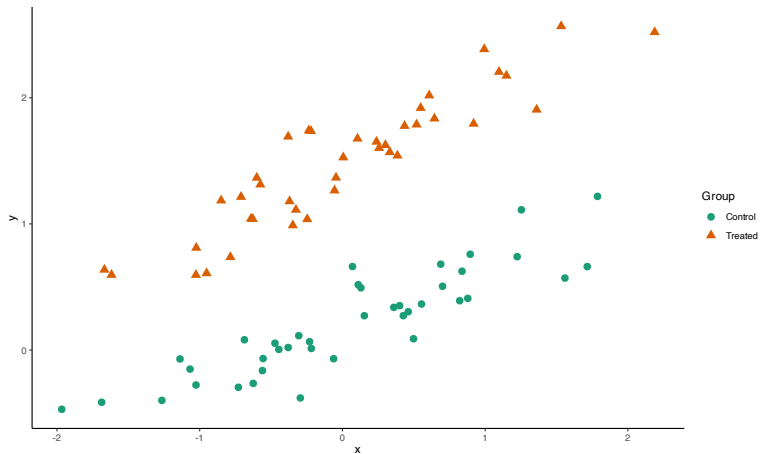
- How do we get estimates of the variance of  $\widehat{\tau}_{\text{reg}}$ ?
- If an OLS coefficient  $\rightsquigarrow$  use EHW variance estimator.
- Analytic expressions can be derived, but complicated!

# Variance Estimation

- How do we get estimates of the variance of  $\widehat{\tau}_{\text{reg}}$ ?
- If an OLS coefficient  $\rightsquigarrow$  use EHW variance estimator.
- Analytic expressions can be derived, but complicated!
- Computational alternative: **(nonparametric) bootstrap**
  - Randomly resample  $n$  rows of the data with replacement.
  - Refit the regressions on the bootstrapped data.
  - Calculate  $\widehat{\tau}_{\text{reg}}$  in each bootstrap.
  - Repeat several times and use empirical variance of the bootstraps.

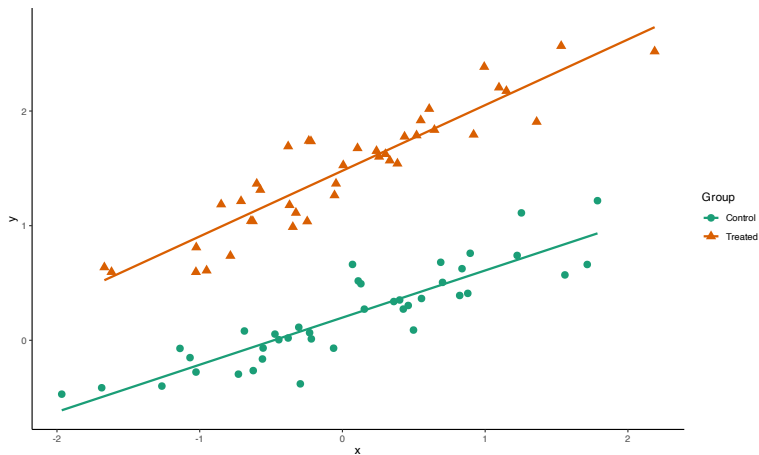
# Imputation Estimator Visualization

```
1 > toy_data <- read_csv("https://bit.ly/3v0y2Ao")
```



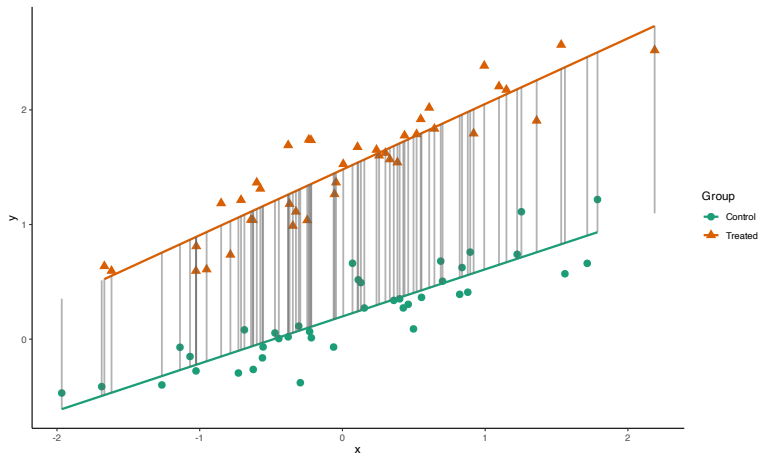
# Imputation Estimator Visualization

```
1 > lm0 <- lm(y~x, data = toy_data, subset = d==0); lm1 <- lm(y~x, data = toy_data, subset = d==1)
```



# Imputation Estimator Visualization

```
1 > mu0.imps = predict(lm0, toy_data); mu1.imps = predict(lm1, toy_data)
2 > cat("Estimate of ATE:", mean(mu1.imps - mu0.imps))
3 Estimate of ATE: 1.285176
```



# Fully Interacted OLS & Imputation Estimator

- What if  $\hat{\mu}_1(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\hat{\mu}_0(\mathbf{x})$  are from fully interacted OLS with centered covariates?
  - Equivalent to running separate models for  $\hat{\mu}_1(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\hat{\mu}_0(\mathbf{x})$  (i.e., imputation estimator)

```
1 > toy_data$x_tilde <- toy_data$x - mean(toy_data$x)
2 > mod_full <- lm(y ~ d + x_tilde + d * x_tilde, data = toy_data)
3
4 > cat("\nEstimate of ATE (Imputation):", mean(mu1.ims - mu0.ims),
5       "\nEstimated coefficient on Di from full int.", mod_full$coefficients["d"])
6
7 Estimate of ATE (Imputation): 1.285176
8 Estimated coefficient on Di from full int. 1.285176
```

- $\rightsquigarrow$  Recall: Under linear models,  $\hat{\tau}_{\text{reg}}$  is sometimes equivalent to a coefficient.
  - $\hat{\tau}_{\text{reg}} \equiv$  estimated coefficient on  $D_i$ .
  - Would be the same for uninteracted model, except the variance will be larger (less precision).



# Variance Estimation w/ Bootstrap

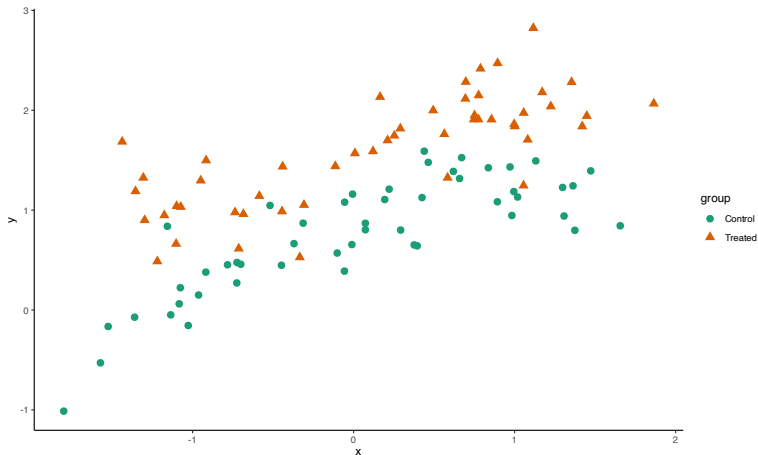
- Again, how do we get estimates of the variance of  $\hat{\tau}_{\text{reg}}$ ?
  - (Nonparametric) bootstrap: recall source of variance is due to **sampling**
  - Idea: view sample (data) as “population”  $\rightsquigarrow$  in-sample “sampling”

```
1 > set.seed(02138); sims<-500; tau_hat_draws<-rep(NA, sims)
2 > for (i in 1:sims) { # Repeat the following several times
3   # 1. Randomly resample n rows of the data with replacement
4   sample_boot <- dplyr::slice_sample(toy_data, n = nrow(toy_data), replace = TRUE)
5
6   # 2. Refit the regressions on the bootstrapped data
7   model <- lm(y ~ d + x_tilde + d*x_tilde, data = toy_data)
8   dat1 <- sample_boot; dat1$d <- 1
9   dat0 <- sample_boot; dat0$d <- 0
10  mu1_hat <- predict(model, newdata = dat1)
11  mu0_hat <- predict(model, newdata = dat0)
12
13  # 3. Calculate tau_hat in each bootstrap
14  tau_hat_draws[i] <- mean(mu1_hat - mu0_hat)
15 }
16
17 > # 4. Use empirical variance of the bootstraps
18 > var(tau_hat_draws)
19 [1] 0.000254049
```

# Nonlinear Relationships

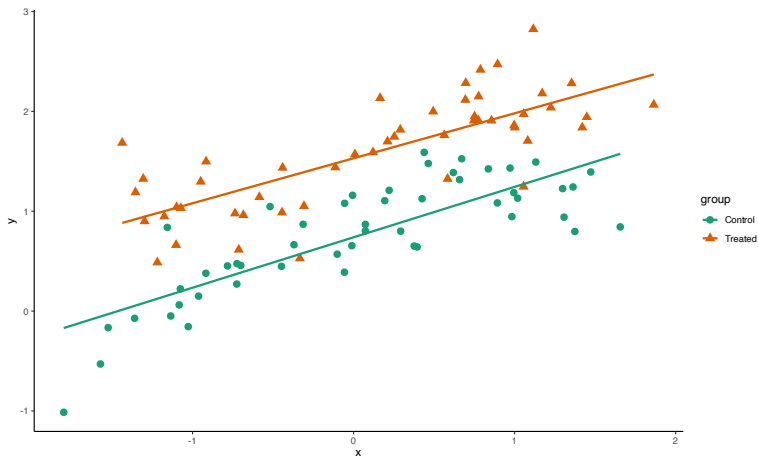
- Same idea but with nonlinear relationship between  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$ :

```
1 > toy_data_02 <- read_csv("https://bit.ly/4c0g0P1") # sim data with nonlinear relationship
```



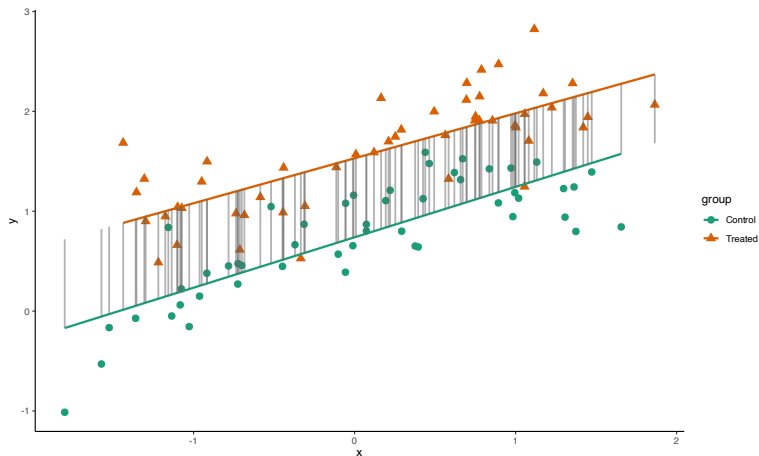
# Nonlinear Relationships

- Same idea but with nonlinear relationship between  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$ :



# Nonlinear Relationships

- Same idea but with nonlinear relationship between  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$ :

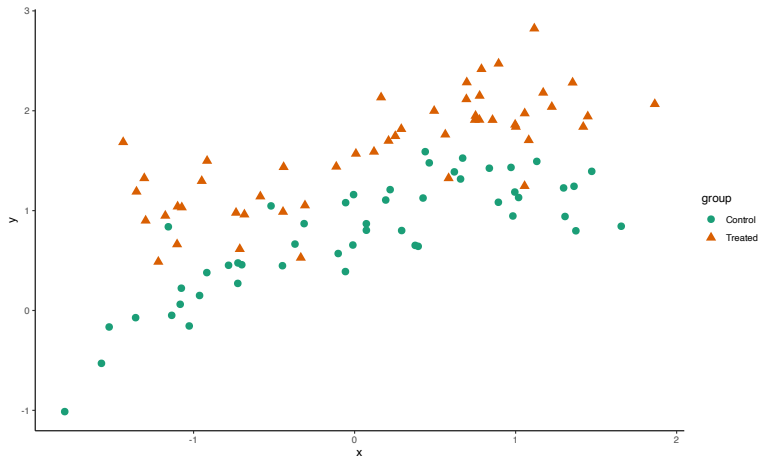


# Using Semiparametric Regression

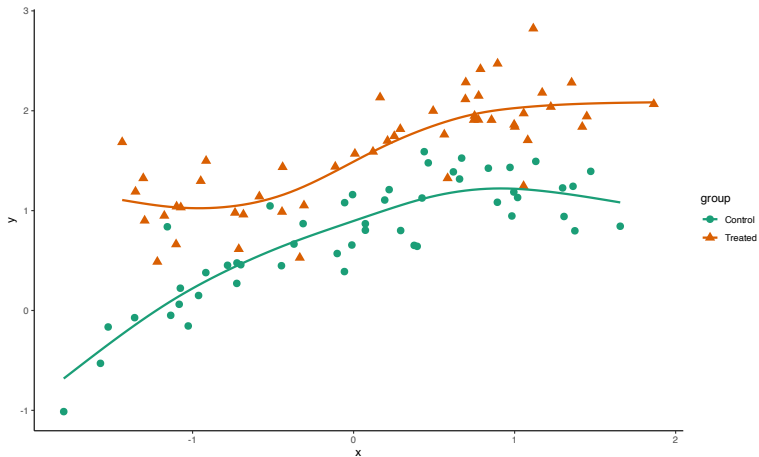
- Here, CEFs are nonlinear, but we don't know their form.
- We can use generalized additive models (GAMs) from the `mgcv` package for 'flexible' estimation:

```
1 > library(mgcv)
2 > gam1 <- gam(y~s(x), data = toy_data_02, subset = group=="Treated")
3 > gam0 <- gam(y~s(x), data = toy_data_02, subset = d==0); summary(gam0)
4
5 Family: gaussian
6 Link function: identity
7
8 Formula:
9 y ~ s(x)
10
11 Parametric coefficients:
12             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
13 (Intercept)   0.2167      0.0307   7.059 2.05e-08 ***
14 ---
15 Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
16
17 Approximate significance of smooth terms:
18             edf Ref.df      F p-value
19 s(x)         1      1 140.9 <2e-16 ***
20 ---
21 Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
22
23 R-sq.(adj) = 0.782   Deviance explained = 78.8%
24 GCV = 0.03969   Scale est. = 0.037705   n = 40
```

# Using GAMS



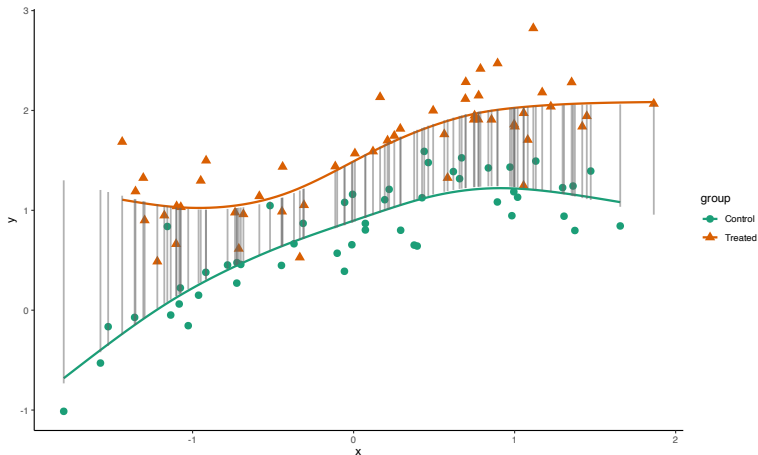
# Using GAMS



# Using GAMS

- We can estimate  $\widehat{\tau}_{\text{reg}}$  using the imputation estimator.

```
1 > cat("Estimate of ATE (GAM):", mean(predict(gam1) - predict(gam0)))  
2  
3 Estimate of ATE (GAM): 0.8379884
```





## Onto the presentations & discussions!

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