# MQE: Economic Inference from Data: Module 1: Omitted Variable Bias

Claire Duquennois

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# Module 1: Regressions, causality and bias

- Regression and causality
- No Causation Without Manipulation
- The Rubin Causal Model
- ► The Conditional independence assumption
- Omitted variable bias
- The kitchen sink approach
- ► How far does this get us? AGG(2006)

### Regression and Causality

As long as certain trivial conditions are satisfied, you can always run a linear regression. This is fine as long as you interpret the results appropriately. We may be interested in the relationship between  $\boldsymbol{x}$  and  $\boldsymbol{y}$  for the purposes of:

- Description-What is the relationship between x and y?
- Prediction-Can we use x to create a good forecast of y?
- Causation-What happens to y if we manipulate x?

Causation... this is where things get tricky...

# But First: What Regressions can do!

In the social sciences, we tend to focus on relationships that hold "on average," or "in expectation."

The Conditional Expectation Function: Given a particular value of x, where is the distribution of y centered?

$$E[y_i|x_i]=h(x_i)$$

with the CEF residual defied as

$$\epsilon_i = y_i - h(x_i)$$
 where  $E[\epsilon_i | x_i] = 0$ 

which holds by definition.

### Linear Regression

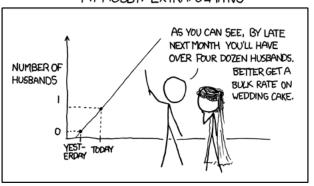
If the CEF is linear, regressing  $y_i$  on  $x_i$  estimates the CEF.

If the CEF is not linear, we still often use linear regression because:

- Computationally tractable
- Well understood and desirable properties
- Provide the best linear approximation of the CEF even when it is non-linear (just don't try to extrapolate far beyond the support of  $x_i$ ).

### Linear Regression

#### MY HOBBY: EXTRAPOLATING



# Estimating the CEF

Let

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon$$

- $\triangleright$  Run a linear regression of  $y_i$  on  $x_i$
- ▶ Get estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  of the true population  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$
- ► Calculate  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$ , the predicted value for  $y_i$  given  $x_i$ , such that

$$\hat{y}_i = E[y_i|x_i]$$
, the CEF.

If you are interested in description or prediction, this is fine and we can end the class here!

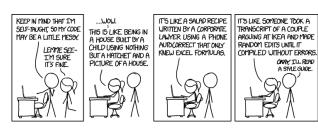
Who might be interested in using regressions for prediction?

Suppose you are a bank interested in predicting customer's ability to repay student loans. You have a subset of CPS data on earnings and the number of years spent in education. You have a subset of CPS data that includes earnings and years in education.

You estimate the following on working age adults (22+):

$$Income_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Schooling_i + \epsilon_i$$

# Application: Lets do some coding!

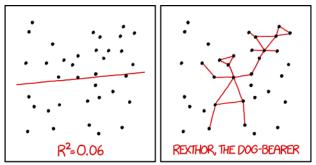


OKAY, I'LL READ

A STYLE GUIDE.

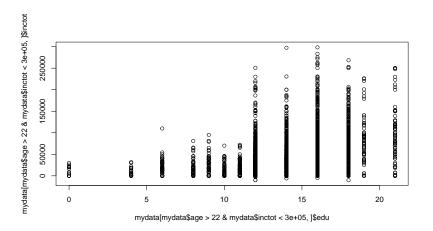
```
mvdata<-read.csv("data/data M1 OVB/cps clean.csv")
reg1<-lm(inctot~edu,mydata[mydata$age>22,])
summary(reg1)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = inctot ~ edu, data = mydata[mydata$age > 22, ])
##
## Residuals:
      Min
              10 Median
                                     Max
## -107200 -31055 -11015 13207 1069070
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -61933.9 5339.0 -11.60 <2e-16 ***
              8054.0 375.3 21.46 <2e-16 ***
## ed11
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 72970 on 4644 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.09022, Adjusted R-squared: 0.09003
## F-statistic: 460.6 on 1 and 4644 DF. p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

So an extra year of education **predicts** earnings that are 8,054 USD higher (since  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 8054$ ).



I DON'T TRUST LINEAR REGRESSIONS WHEN IT'S HARDER TO GUESS THE DIRECTION OF THE CORRELATION FROM THE SCATTER PLOT THAN TO FIND NEW CONSTELLATIONS ON IT.

```
plot(mydata[mydata$age>22 & mydata$inctot<300000,]$edu,
    mydata[mydata$age>22 & mydata$inctot<300000,]$inctot)</pre>
```



Using these estimate we can predict the difference in annual income between a high school and college grad as

$$\widehat{Income_{col}} - \widehat{Income_{hs}} = (\hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} * 16) - (\hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} * 12)$$

$$= \hat{\beta_1} * 4$$

$$= 8,054 * 4 = \$32,216.$$

So we would **predict** annual returns of \$32,216.

Alternatively, we could create an indicator variable set to 1 for individuals with college educations and estimate it on the subset of individuals who have at least 12 years of schooling:

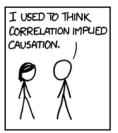
$$Income_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 CollGrad_i + \epsilon_i$$
 (1)

```
mydata$collgrad<-0
mvdata$collgrad[mvdata$edu>=16]<-1
reg2<-lm(inctot~collgrad,mydata[mydata$edu>=12 & mydata$age>22,])
summary(reg2)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = inctot ~ collgrad, data = mydata[mydata$edu >= 12 &
      mvdata$age > 22, 1)
##
##
## Residuals:
##
      Min
               10 Median
                                     Max
## -91324 -31425 -11433 13518 1054675
##
## Coefficients:
##
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                 36483
                           1478
                                   24.69 <2e-16 ***
## (Intercept)
## collgrad
                 44842
                            2409 18.61 <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 76010 on 4240 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.07554. Adjusted R-squared: 0.07532
## F-statistic: 346.4 on 1 and 4240 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

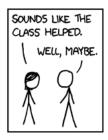
 $\hat{\beta}_1 = 44,842$ , so having a four year college degree **predicts** earnings that are \$44,842 higher.

The key point: we are not saying that the college degree **caused** higher earnings, but it does **predict** higher earnings. For many applications, prediction is enough.

To get causation, we need to do a lot more work.







### "No Causation Without Manipulation"

#### What if we are interested in causal effects?

It was easy to estimate the relationship between income and schooling. As illustrated in the application, I estimated

$$Income_i = \beta_0 + \beta_i Schooling_i + \epsilon$$

and was able to recover the conditional expectation function

$$E[Income_i|Schooling_i] = Income_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1Schooling_i$$

BUT this only tells us how income and schooling co-vary. This **DOES NOT** tell us what would happen to income if there was an "exogenous" change in schooling.

### What is the difference?

Here, schooling is "endogenously" determined. For example:

- those who expect to benefit the most select into schooling.
- those with the highest family incomes select into schooling.

A regression coefficient estimated using data on **endogenous** schooling choices will not correspond to the effects of an **exogenous** change in schooling.

To estimate the **causal** effect, we will need to identify some type of **manipulation** that created an **exogenous** change in schooling.

### A note on interpretation

It in NOT the case that the endogenous estimate is *wrong* and the exogenous estimate is *right*. They are simply measuring different things and should be interpreted accordingly.

Regarding our estimates using the endogenous CPS data:

#### **CORRECT:**

"We can expect the earnings of a person with one additional year of schooling to be  $\hat{\beta}_1$  higher."

#### INCORRECT:

"One additional year of schooling CAUSES earnings to increase by \$  $\hat{eta}_1$ ."

### The Rubin Causal Model

Two roads diverged in a yellow wood, And sorry I could not travel both -Robert Frost

To understand causal inference, it is helpful to think about how a unit has different potential outcomes depending on it's treatment status.

### The Rubin Causal Model

Let  $D_i$  be a binary treatment variable that could affect outcome  $Y_i$ . Each unit faces two potential outcomes:

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} Y_i(1) & \text{if } D_i = 1 \text{ (the treatment condition)} \\ Y_i(0) & \text{if } D_i = 0 \text{ (the control condition)} \end{cases}$$

The problem: Unobserved **counterfactuals**. We will never observe both  $Y_i(1)$  and  $Y_i(0)$ .

# Example: Does going to college cause higher earnings?

Let the treatment,  $D_i$  be going to college. Each high school graduate faces two potential outcomes:

$$potential \ outcomes = \begin{cases} earn_{i,col} & \text{if } i \text{ goes to college } (treatment) \\ earn_{i,nocol} & \text{if } i \text{ no college } (control) \end{cases}$$

We can conceive of both  $earn_{i,col}$  and  $earn_{i,nocol}$  (but will only ever observe one or the other).

The treatment is potentially manipulable: we can imagine a policy or intervention that could make either of these values observable.

# "No Causation without Manipulation" (2)

Can you conceptualize both  $Y_i(1)$  and  $Y_i(0)$  for the same unit?

<u>If no:</u> D does not correspond to a potentially manipulable treatment.

▶ We need to further define the problem.

### Example: Does being a woman <u>cause</u> lower earnings?

It is not possible for me to imagine some intervention that would reveal what my earnings outcome would have been if I was a man.

We know that being a woman *predicts* lower earnings, but the causal question as posed is ill defined.

### Causal Effects

Define the causal effect of treatment D=1 on outcome Y for unit i as

$$Y_i(1) - Y_i(0) = \tau_i$$

Note: the treatment effect is relative and specific to observation i.

But how can we identify  $\tau_i$  if we never observe both  $Y_i(1)$  and  $Y_i(0)$  for a given unit?

### The Fundamental Problem of Causal Inference

It is impossible to observe the value of  $Y_i(1)$  and  $Y_i(0)$  in the same unit i and, therefore, it is impossible to observe  $\tau_i$ , the effect for unit i of the treatment on it's outcome,  $Y_i$ . (Holland 1986)

#### So, are we doomed?

No! Though we can't identify  $\tau_i$  at the unit level, we can identify the *Average Causal Treatment Effect* (ATE)

$$\bar{\tau} = E[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)] = E[Y_i(1)] - E[Y_i(0)]$$

with the right research design, we can recover  $\bar{\tau}$ .

Suppose a constant treatment effect such that  $\tau = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)$ . Since

$$Y_{i} = Y_{i}(0) + (Y_{i}(1) - Y_{i}(0))D_{i}$$

$$= Y_{i}(0) + \tau D_{i}$$

$$= E[Y_{i}(0)] + \tau D_{i} + Y_{i}(0) - E[Y_{i}(0)]$$

$$= \alpha + \tau D_{i} + \eta_{i}$$

where  $\alpha = E[Y_i(0)]$ ,  $\tau = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)$  and  $\eta_i$  is the random part of  $Y_i(0)$  since  $\eta_i = Y_i(0) - E[Y_i(0)]$ .

The expected outcomes of someone with and someone without treatment is then given by

$$E[Y_i(1)] = \alpha + \tau + E[\eta_i | D_i = 1]$$
  
$$E[Y_i(0)] = \alpha + E[\eta_i | D_i = 0]$$

so that the difference between these outcomes can be broken down into

$$E[Y_i(1)] - E[Y_i(0)] = \underbrace{\tau}_{\text{treatment effect}} + \underbrace{E[\eta_i|D_i = 1] - E[\eta_i|D_i = 0]}_{\text{selection bias}}$$

So if I run  $Y_i = \alpha + \tau D_i + \eta_i$ , the estimated  $\tilde{\tau} \neq \tau$  if there is selection bias such that  $E[\eta_i|D_i=1] \neq E[\eta_i|D_i=0]$ .

This will occur if absent treatment, those who would select into treatment have a different expected outcome compared to those who would not select into treatment

$$E[Y_i(0)|D_i=1] \neq E[Y_i(0)|D_i=0],$$

because treatment is not random. Formally,

$$\{Y_i(1), Y_i(0)\} \not\perp D_i.$$

### Example

I naively use my observational CPS data and estimate

$$earnings_i = \tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\tau}college_i + \epsilon_i$$
.

If I want to estimate  $\tau$ , the **causal** effect of a college degree on earnings, this estimate,  $\tilde{\tau}$  will be biased:  $E[\tilde{\tau}] \neq \tau$ .

Why?

<u>Selection bias:</u> If people who receive college degrees would have had higher earnings even without the degree,

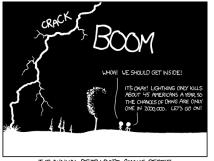
$$E[\eta_i|D_i=1] > E[\eta_i|D_i=0].$$

The Conditional Independence Assumption: conditional on observed characteristics,  $X_i$ , selection bias disappears and

$$\{Y_i(1), Y_i(0)\} \perp D_i | X_i.$$

If CIA holds, once I control for  $X_i$ , treatment is as good as randomly assigned. If this is the case, our comparisons have a causal interpretation and

$$E[Y_i(1)|X_i] - E[Y_i(0)|X_i] = E[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)|X_i].$$



THE ANNUAL DEATH RATE AMONG PEOPLE WHO KNOW THAT STATISTIC IS ONE IN SIX.

### CIA in Regressions

If I estimate  $Y_i = \alpha + \tau D_i + \eta_i$ ,  $E[\tilde{\tau}] \neq \tau$  due to selection bias. Now suppose CIA holds given a vector of observed covariates,  $X_i'$ .

- ▶ I can decompose  $\eta_i$ :  $\eta_i = X_i' \gamma + \nu_i$  with:  $E[\eta_i | X_i] = X_i' \gamma$
- ▶ If the CIA assumption holds, then

$$E[Y_i(D)|X_i] = \alpha + \tau D_i + X_i' \gamma$$

and

$$Y_i(D) = \alpha + \tau D_i + X_i' \gamma + \nu_i$$

where the  $\nu_i$  residuals are uncorrelated with  $D_i$  and  $X'_i$ .

► Thus

$$E[\hat{\tau}] = \tau$$

and we can interpret  $\hat{\tau}$  as the causal effect of interest.

### Example:

If I estimate  $Income_i = \tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\tau}college_i + \epsilon_i$  we saw that  $E[\tilde{\tau}] \neq \tau$  due to selection bias.

**Suppose CIA holds if I condition on a student's household income.** (ie. if I control for student household income, which students complete college is as good as randomly assigned).

Then

$$earnings_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\tau} + \hat{\gamma}hhinc_i + \epsilon_i$$

and  $E[\hat{\tau}] = \tau$ : a college degree causes earnings to increase by  $\hat{\tau}$  USD.

WARNING: This is a big assumption, that often does not hold.

### Omitted Variable Bias

Suppose the true model is given by

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \nu_i$$

but I failed to include  $x_{2i}$  and instead estimated

$$Y_i = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \epsilon_i.$$

If there is a relationship between  $x_{1i}$  and  $x_{2i}$  such that

$$x_{2i} = \rho_0 + \rho_1 x_{1i} + \varepsilon_i$$

we can substitute this into the first equation and by rearranging,

$$Y_{i} = \underbrace{(\beta_{0} + \beta_{2}\rho_{0})}_{\tilde{\beta}_{0}} + \underbrace{(\beta_{1} + \beta_{2}\rho_{2})}_{\tilde{\beta}_{1}} x_{1i} + \underbrace{(\beta_{2}\varepsilon_{i} + \nu_{i})}_{\epsilon_{i}},$$

show that

$$\tilde{eta}_1 = \underbrace{eta_1}_{ ext{treatment effect}} + \underbrace{eta_2 
ho_2}_{ ext{bias}}.$$

### Omitted variable bias

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 = \underbrace{\beta_2 \rho_2}_{\text{bias}}$$

We can thus sign the bias by signing  $\beta_2$ , the covariance between  $x_{2i}$  and  $Y_i$ , and signing  $\rho_2$ , the covariance between  $x_{2i}$  and  $x_{1i}$ .

	$Cov(x, x_{ov}) > 0$	$Cov(x, x_{ov}) < 0$
$\frac{Cov(y, x_{ov}) > 0}{Cov(y, x_{ov}) < 0}$	Upward Bias Downward Bias	Downward Bias Upward Bias

Example: Using CPS data

I am interested in how health related to income. Using my CPS sample of working age adults I estimate

$$Income_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Health_i + \epsilon,$$

where heath is an respondents subjective assessment of their health with 1 being very health and 5 being very unhealthy.

```
reghealth <-lm(inctot~health.mvdata)
summary(reghealth)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = inctot ~ health, data = mvdata)
##
## Residuals:
      Min
              10 Median
                             30
                                    Max
## -59413 -32893 -15716 11198 1103107
##
## Coefficients:
##
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 65599.6 2414.9 27.164 <2e-16 ***
              -8176.8 991.9 -8.243 <2e-16 ***
## health
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 73960 on 4998 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.01341, Adjusted R-squared: 0.01322
## F-statistic: 67.95 on 1 and 4998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

How might the omission of age be biasing these estimates?

- $ightharpoonup cov(health_i, age_i) > 0$
- $ightharpoonup cov(income_i, age_i) > 0$
- ightharpoonup  $\Rightarrow$  upward bias.

```
reghealth2<-lm(inctot-health+age ,mydata)
summary(reghealth2)
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = inctot ~ health + age, data = mydata)
##
## Residuals:
     Min 10 Median 30
                                  Max
## -84573 -31695 -12625 11680 1101885
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept)
               28903 3771 7.665 2.13e-14 ***
## health
           -11489 1012 -11.355 < 2e-16 ***
              1066 85 12.541 < 2e-16 ***
## age
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 72830 on 4997 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.04352, Adjusted R-squared: 0.04314
## F-statistic: 113.7 on 2 and 4997 DF. p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

How might the omission of schooling be biasing these estimates?

- $ightharpoonup cov(health_i, schooling_i) < 0$
- $ightharpoonup cov(income_i, schooling_i) > 0$
- ightharpoonup  $\Rightarrow$  downward bias.

```
reghealth3<-lm(inctot-health+age+edu ,mydata)
summary(reghealth3)</pre>
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = inctot ~ health + age + edu, data = mydata)
##
## Residuals:
      Min
               10 Median
                              30
                                     Max
## -117272 -28392 -9807 12671 1077286
##
## Coefficients:
##
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -82442.91 6501.39 -12.681 < 2e-16 ***
## health
              -6315.25 1003.36 -6.294 3.36e-10 ***
               953.42 81.79 11.657 < 2e-16 ***
## age
## edu
               7540.90 365.73 20.619 < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 69920 on 4996 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.1185, Adjusted R-squared: 0.118
## F-statistic: 223.9 on 3 and 4996 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

### Example: Presenting results

Table 2: Income and health

	Dependent variable: inctot		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
health	-8,176.764***	-11,489.250***	-6,315.248***
	(991.929)	(1,011.858)	(1,003.357)
age		1,066.011***	953.415***
0		(85.002)	(81.792)
edu			7,540.903***
			(365.735)
Constant	65,599.570***	28,903.240***	-82,442.910***
	(2,414.934)	(3,770.567)	(6,501.394)
Observations	5,000	5,000	5,000
$R^2$	0.013	0.044	0.119
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.013	0.043	0.118
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.0		

 $Check\ out\ jakeruss.com/cheatsheets/stargazer/$ 

So is our estimate of  $\beta_1$  in column 3 the causal effect of health on income?

Does the CIA hold?

Conditional on age and schooling, is subjective health as good as randomly assigned?

library(MASS)

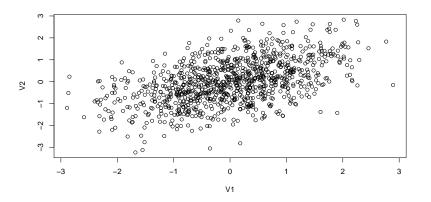
## V1 1.0 0.5

Suppose the data generating process (DGP) is as follows: my outcome variable, Y depends on two variables,  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  such that

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 V_{1i} + \beta_2 V_{2i} + \epsilon_i$$

where  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are correlated with  $Cor(V_1, V_2) = 0.5$ .

### plot(out)



I add an error term for each observation and then simulate the true DGP with  $\beta_1=5$  and  $\beta_2=7$ .

```
out$error<-rnorm(1000, mean=0, sd=1)
B1<-5
B2<-7
out$Y<-out$V1*B1+out$V2*B2+out$error</pre>
```

I can now estimate the correct model and an under-specified model:

```
sim1<-lm(Y-V1+V2, data=out)
sim2<-lm(Y-V1, data=out)</pre>
```

Table 3: Omitted Variable Bias Simulation

	Depend	ent variable:
	Y	
	(1)	(2)
V1	5.007***	8.519***
	(0.036)	(0.195)
V2	7.023***	
	(0.036)	
Constant	-0.015	-0.015
	(0.031)	(0.195)
Observations	1,000	1,000
R <sup>2</sup>	0.991	0.657
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.991	0.656
Note:	*p<0.1; ***p<0.05; ****p<0.01	

 $ilde{eta}_1$  is upward biased since  $extit{Cor}(V_1,V_2)>0$  and  $extit{Cor}(Y,V_2)>0$ .

What is adding the  $V_2$  control doing? How does it change the  $V_1$  coefficient?

- Adding  $V_2$  in the regression removes the variation in the outcome variable that is explained by that control variable.
- ► The estimates can now be based on the variation due to the explanatory variable you are actually interested in.

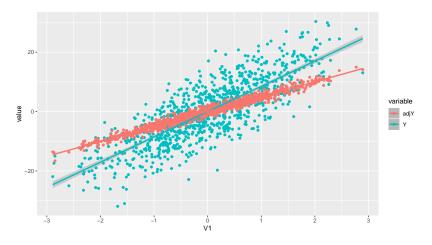
To see this, I generate adjY that "corrects" Y by removing the variation in Y that is explained by  $V_2$ . (I can do this since I know the true  $\beta_2$ .)

out\$adjY<-out\$Y-B2\*out\$V2

Table 4: Omitted Variable Bias Simulation 2

	Dependent variable:		
	Υ Υ		adjY
	(1)	(2)	(3)
V1	5.007*** (0.036)	8.519*** (0.195)	5.019*** (0.031)
V2	7.023*** (0.036)		
Constant	-0.015 (0.031)	-0.015 (0.195)	-0.015 (0.031)
Observations R <sup>2</sup> Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	1,000 0.991 0.991	1,000 0.657 0.656	1,000 0.963 0.963
Note:	*p<	<0.1; **p<0.05	: ***p<0.01

```
plotted<-ggplot(out, aes(V1, y = value, color = variable)) +
    geom_point(aes(y = Y, col = "Y")) +
    geom_point(aes(y = adjY, col = "adjY"))+
    geom_smooth(method='lm', aes(y = Y, col = "Y"))+
    geom_smooth(method='lm', aes(y = adjY, col = "adjY"))
plotted</pre>
```



#### The kitchen sink

Adding more controls is not always better.

- Irrelevant variables
- Bad controls

Moreover, without a carefully thought out research design, omitted variable bias will still be a problem.

# Caveat: Including irrelevant variables

Suppose I estimate

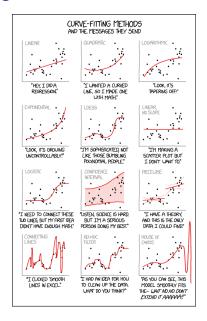
$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1 + \tilde{\beta}_2 x_2$$

even though the true model is actually

$$E[y|x_1] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1$$

- ▶ Including  $x_2$  will not bias our estimation:  $E[\tilde{\beta}_1] = \beta_1$ .
- The variance of our estimator will be less precise:  $Var(\tilde{\beta}_1) \geq Var(\hat{\beta}_1)$ .

### Caveat: Including irrelevant variables



Caveat: Bad Controls

Some control variables could themselves be outcomes of the treatment you are evaluating.

Good controls are variables that were fixed at the time treatment was determined.

### Bad Controls: Example

You are interested in smoking's effect on birth-weight. You estimate

$$Brthwgt_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 cigday_i + \epsilon$$

but are concerned there may be important omitted variables.

You data includes information on the following: the mother's age, the mother's education level, the number of previous pregnancies, the number of prenatal doctor visits, mother's weight gain during pregnancy, and alcohol use during pregnancy.

Which of these control variables should you consider adding to your specification?

## How far do controls get us?

The key (untestable) assumption is that you have controlled for everything that matters.

You are assuming that treatment assignment is "as good as randomly assigned"- after you have conditioned on the controls.

You are assuming that if there is any systematic selection into "treatment", it only depends on the observable variables you are controlling for.

These are VERY STRONG assumptions (that often do not hold).

There is no Santa Claus: Arseneaux, Gerber and Green (2006)

Evaluate a "Get out the Vote" mobilization:

- $\blacktriangleright$  Who gets called ( $Call_i$ ) is random
- ▶ Who answers the call (Contact<sub>i</sub>) is not

Will the following approach give us an unbiased estimate of the causal effect of being contacted on voting?

$$Vote_i = \alpha + \tau Contact_i + \epsilon_i$$

```
library(haven)
## Warning: package 'haven' was built under R version 3.6.3
library(here)
library(lfe)
library(dplyr)
## Warning: package 'dplyr' was built under R version 3.6.3
##
## Attaching package: 'dplyr'
## The following object is masked from 'package:MASS':
##
       select
##
## The following objects are masked from 'package:stats':
##
       filter, lag
##
## The following objects are masked from 'package:base':
##
       intersect, setdiff, setequal, union
##
```

## rank-deficient or indefinite

```
agg_data<-read_dta("data/data_Mi_OVB/IA_MI_merge040504.dta")
nrow(agg_data)

[1] 2474927

##scalling the vote02 variable to remove excess 0's from tables
agg_data$vote02<-100*as.numeric(agg_data$vote02)

#note: basic controls are included since the randomization happened at the state level
#and to distinguish between competitive and un-competitive races in each state.
regols1<-felm(vote02-contact+state+comp_mi+comp_ia,agg_data)

#Getting an unbiased estimate using insturumental variables approach
regexp1<-felm(vote02-state+comp_mi+comp_ia|0|(contact-treat_real+state+comp_mi+comp_ia),agg_data)
```

## Warning in chol.default(mat. pivot = TRUE, tol = tol): the matrix is either

Table 5: AGG replication 1

	Dependent variable: vote02	
	(1)	(2)
contact	6.207*** (0.306)	
state	6.671*** (0.347)	7.388*** (0.350)
comp_mi	4.836*** (0.098)	4.911*** (0.098)
comp_ia	6.353*** (0.177)	6.083*** (0.178)
'contact(fit)'		0.360 (0.498)
Constant	46.128*** (0.126)	46.081*** (0.126)
Observations	1,905,320	1,905,320
$R^2$	0.012	0.012
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.012	0.012
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01	

Our OLS estimator it not doing so good:  $\tilde{\tau} > \tau$ .

#### Why?

- the people that are contacted are the type of person who is more likely to vote already
- cor(Vote, Type) > 0 and cor(Contact, Type) > 0 biasing our estimates upward.

Can OLS do better? AGG have lots of controls in their data.

```
## Warning in chol.default(mat, pivot = TRUE, tol = tol): the matrix is either
## rank-deficient or indefinite
```

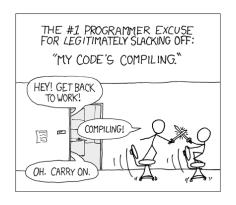


Table 6: AGG replication 2

	Dependent variable: vote02		
	(1)	(2)	
contact	2.688*** (0.260)		
state	2.364* (1.296)	2.632** (1.296)	
comp_mi	-1.793*** (0.305)	-1.769*** (0.305)	
comp_ia	-0.566 (0.685)	-0.667 (0.686)	
persons	7.001*** (0.064)	7.005*** (0.064)	
age	0.346*** (0.002)	0.346*** (0.002)	
female2	-1.174***`(0.062)	-1.173*** (0.062)	
newreg	5.456*** (0.111)	5.458*** (0.111)	
vote00	37.090*** (0.074)	37.092*** (0.074)	
vote98	21.657*** (0.082)	21.659*** (0.082)	
fem_miss	-32.082*** (0.241)	-32.113*** (0.241)	
'contact(fit)'		0.513 (0.420)	
Observations	1,905,320	1,905,320	
R <sup>2</sup>	0.288	0.288	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.288	0.288	
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01		

Our OLS estimates are still biased. Even with all these controls,  $\tilde{\tau} > \tau.$ 

Unless you had a variable that told you if the person is the type to answer and talk to an unknown caller about voting, the kitchen sink approach will not solve the OVB problem.