Potential Outcomes and Directed Acylic Graphs

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Causality and counterfactuals

- Every economics research paper is not estimating a causal quantity
 - But, the implication or takeaway of papers is (almost) always a causal one
- Causality lies at the heart of every exercise
- Goal for today's class:
 - 1. Enumerate tools used to discuss causal questions
 - 2. Emphasize a multimodal approach
 - 3. Set terminology/definitions for future discussions

"We do not have knowledge of a thing until we have grasped its why, that is to say, its cause." -Aristotle

Causality and counterfactuals - strong opinions

- The true underpinnings of causality are nearly philosphical in nature
 - If Aristotle didn't settle the question, neither will researchers in the 21t century
- I will avoid many of the discussions, but my biases will show up in one or two settings
- Key point: economics research is messy, and a careful discussion of causality entails two dimensions:
 - 1. A good framework to articulate your assumptions
 - 2. Readers that understand the framework

The problem of causal inference: a medical example

- Two variables:
 - $Y \in \{0, 1\}$: whether a person is immune to Covid-19
 - $D \in \{0, 1\}$: whether a person gets a vaccine
- Our question: does *D* cause *Y*?
- *Ignore the question of data for now* this is purely a question of what is knowable.
- "The fundamental problem of causal inference" (Holland 1986) is that for a given individual, we can only observe one world – either they get the vaccine, or they do not

The problem of causal inference: a medical example

- What is knowable?
 - We need notation begin with the Neyman-Rubin Causal model
- There is a population of *n* individuals, indexed by *i*.
- Let $Y_i(D_i)$ denote the outcome given a particular vaccine treatment
 - $Y_i(1)$: they receive the vaccine
 - $Y_i(0)$: they do not receive the vaccine
- Key Assumption?

The problem of causal inference: a medical example

- What is knowable?
 - We need notation begin with the Neyman-Rubin Causal model

$$Y_i = D_i Y_i(1) + (1 - D_i) Y_i(0)$$

- There is a population of n individuals, indexed by i.
- Let Y_i(D_i) denote the outcome given a particular vaccine treatment
 - $Y_i(1)$: they receive the vaccine
 - $Y_i(0)$: they do not receive the vaccine
- Key Assumption? person i's outcome is only affected by their own treatment. We will discuss relaxing this assumption later.
 - SUTVA Stable Unit Treatment Variable Assignment

i	$Y_i(1)$	$Y_i(0)$	D_i	Y_i
1	1	0	1	1
2	0	0	1	0
3	1	0	0	0
		÷		
n	0	1	0	1

Causal inference is a missing data problem

- In the potential outcomes framework, causal inference and missing data are tightly linked.
- Any causal answer uses assumptions to infer the "missing" counterfactual
- Goal of this course will be to discuss many ways to solve these types of problems
- Before diving into the many potential estimands, consider what the goal is.
 - A structural parameter? E.g. dlnvestment/dTax Rate
 - Existence of an treatment effect?
 - A policy evaluation?

A brief aside: estimands, estimators and estimates

- Estimand: the quantity to be estimated
- <u>Estimate</u>: the approximation of the estimand using a finite data sample
- <u>Estimator</u>: the method or formula for arriving at the estimate for an estimand
- My way of remembering: https://twitter.com/ paulgp/status/1275135175966494721?s=20

Causal estimands

- We will start with the Average Treatment Effect:
 - $\tau_{ATE} = \mathbb{E}(\tau_i) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i(1) Y_i(0)) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i(1)) \mathbb{E}(Y_i(0))$
- This expression is defined over the full population, and includes individuals who may never recieve the treatment.
 - Average Treatment Effect on the Treated $\tau_{ATT} = \mathbb{E}(\tau_i | D_i = 1) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i(1) Y_i(0) | D_i = 1) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i(1) | D_i = 1) \mathbb{E}(Y_i(0) | D_i = 1)$
 - Estimated effect for individuals who *received* the treatment.
 - Note that one piece of this measure is purely observed data: $\mathbb{E}(Y_i(1)|D_i=1)$
- Conditional Average Treatment Effect: $\overline{\tau_{CATE}(x)} = \mathbb{E}(\tau_i|X_i=x) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i(1)-Y_i(0)|X_i=x) \text{ where } X_i \text{ is some additional characteristic.}$

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- Intuitively, for an estimate of interest, τ_{ATE} , to be identified, it means that in a world with no uncertainty about data, can we always identify the value of τ from the data we observe?
 - In other words, it's an invertability condition

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- Why would something not be identified if we only observe (Y_i, D_i) ?
 - Consider τ_{ATT} . $\mathbb{E}(Y_i(1)|D_i=1)$ is identified, mechanically. What about $\mathbb{E}(Y_i(0)|D_i=1)$?
 - Need an assumption on the relationship between D_i and $(Y_i(1), Y_i(0))$.

Under what conditions is the ATE identified?

Strong Ignorability: D_i is strongly ignorable conditional on a vector \mathbf{X}_i if

- **1.** $(Y_i(0), Y_i(1)) \perp D_i | \mathbf{X}_i$
- 2. $\exists \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\epsilon < \Pr(D_i = 1 | X_i) < 1 \epsilon_i$
 - The first condition asserts independence of the treatment from the "potential" outcomes
 - The second condition asserts that there are both treated and untreated individuals
 - N.B. The term "strong ignorability" is much more precise than exogeneous
 - But less commonly used in economics.
 - You might instead say " D_i is conditionally randomly assigned."
 - If you might even say D_i is exogeneous.

When could we not identify the ATE?

- Intuitively, we understand why we typically can't estimate a treatment effect
- Consider an unobservable variable, $U_i \in \{0, 1\}$ where $(Y_i(0), Y_i(1), D_i) \not\perp U_i$
- Simple example: when $E(D_i|U_i=1) > E(D_i|U_i=0)$ and $E(\tau_i|U_i=1) > E(\tau_i|U_i=0)$.
- In other word, there is a variable that influences both the potential outcomes and the choice of treatment.
 - In this case, estimating the counterfactual is contaminated by the variable U_i
- Many of the goals in this class will be to address this

Theorem: Identification of the ATE

<u>Theorem:</u> If D_i is strongly ignorable conditional on \mathbf{X}_i , then

$$\mathbb{E}(\tau_i) = \sum_{x \in \mathsf{Supp}\,X_i} (\mathbb{E}(Y_i|D_i = 1, \mathbf{X}_i = x) - \mathbb{E}(Y_i|D_i = 0, \mathbf{X}_i = x)) Pr(\mathbf{X}_i = x)$$

<u>Proof:</u> Note that $\mathbb{E}(Y_i(0)|\mathbf{X}_i) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i(0)|D_i = 0, \mathbf{X}_i) = \mathbb{E}(Y_i|D_i = 0, \mathbf{X}_i)$ by strong ignorability. In essence, independence of D_i and $(Y_i(0), Y_i(1))$ lets us interchange counterfactuals and realized data in conditionals. The rest follows by the law of iterated expectations.

 Key implication – counterfactual can be generated by using the averages.

Identification of the ATE - Intuition

i	$Y_i(1)$	$Y_i(0)$	Di	Yi
1	1	-	1	1
2	0	-	1	0
3	1	-	1	1
4	1	-	1	1
5	-	0	0	0
6	-	0	0	0
7	-	0	0	0
8	-	1	0	1

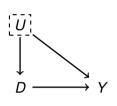
- We can estimate $\mathbb{E}(Y_i|D_i = 1) = 0.75$ and $\mathbb{E}(Y_i|D_i = 0) = 0.25$.
- We are defining our counterfactual in the missing data as 0.25, or 0.75, respectively.
- If we had covariates, we would condition within those groups.
- Note that this is all non-parametric identification – we have made no model restriction on the data-generating process

 Above, we encoded random variables' relationships functionally, using potential outcomes



- An alternative approach does this graphically (with similar modeling under the hood – to be continued...)
- We can encode the relationship between D and Y using an arrow in a graph. The direction emphasizes that D causes Y, and not vice versa.
- Substantially more intuitive

- We can also allow for the unobservable *U*, which drove identification concerns above
- In this case, U is termed a confounder.
 Why?
- Examine the paths by which D links to Y:
 - The standard direct effect $D \rightarrow Y$
 - The "Back-Door" path $D \leftarrow U \rightarrow Y$
- Note that the back-door is not causal
- Key point: effect of *D* on *Y* is not identified under this setup

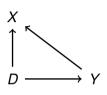


- We replace *U* with an observable *X* identification concerns above
- X is still a confounder, but we could condition on it and identify our effect. Why?

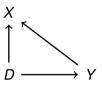
 $\downarrow \\
D \longrightarrow Y$

- Examine the paths by which D links to Y:
 - The standard direct effect $D \rightarrow Y$
 - The "Back-Door" path $D \leftarrow X \rightarrow Y$
- Now, conditioning on a variable along the path "blocks" the path
 - E.g. *D* is independent of *Y* conditional on *X* (strong ignorability)

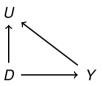
- One more example before formalizing the goal
 - X is now a "collider" (note direction of arrows
- Examine the paths by which D links to Y:
 - The standard direct effect $D \rightarrow Y$
 - The "Back-Door" path $D \rightarrow X \leftarrow Y$
- Key difference: a backdoor collider is automatically blocked (if it or upstream variables are not conditioned on)
 - If you condition on X, you open the path!
 - Example: conditioning on an outcome variable



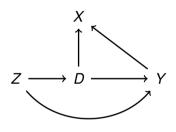
- The graphs looked similar, but the order of true causal path mattered



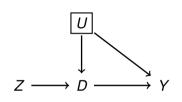
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- Identifying colliders is a crucial aspect of identifying whether an effect is identified



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- Key value in a DAG (to me) is laying out a model of causality, and clarifying what effects need to be restricted, even in a complicated setting
 - For example, how is the effect of D on Y identified here?



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- Key value in a DAG (to me) is laying out a model of causality, and clarifying what effects need to be restricted, even in a complicated setting
 - For example, how is the effect of D on Y identified here?
- What about now?



Key steps with a DAG

- Steps when using a DAG
 - 1. Write down the DAG, and identify what effect you want
 - 2. Write all paths between the two nodes
 - 3. What is the direct "causal" paths (e.g. the arrows all flow in the right direction)?
 - 4. How many backdoor paths are there? Are they blocked? Can they be?
- Crucial point: conditioning on colliders will cause more harm than good
- We will revisit this setup for some empirical settings
 - Let me know if you think there are good use cases!

Strutural equations and causal effects (Haile 2020)

- Important: do not lose sight of the fact that these should be estimates that inform our economic model
- (Haile 2020) The reduced form equation is one where the inputs are i) *exogeneous* (ed note: we have not defined this) and ii) unobservable ("structural errors") and the outputs are endogeneous variables. [E.g. $Y_i = f(D_i, X_i, \varepsilon_i)$]
- The PO framework's key insight was considering the sets of counterfactuals for each individual. However, it is not magic; insights can typically map across different notations (DAGs, PO, structural econometric equations). Note that these are effectively equivalent:

$$Y_i = D_i Y_i(1) + (1 - D_i) Y_i(0)$$

 $Y_i = \alpha + D_i(\tau + v_i) + u_i$