

# Causal Data Science for Business Decision Making

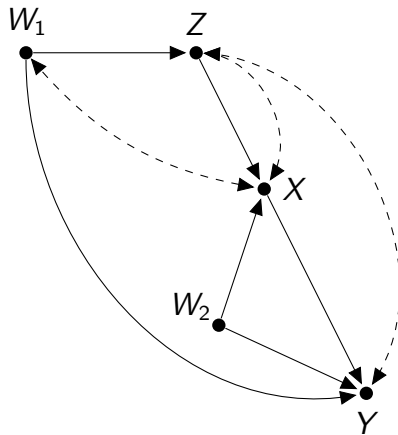
## Surrogate Experiments

**Paul Hünermund**



# Surrogate Experiments

- ▶ Let's have a look at a causal graph like the following



## Surrogate Experiments (II)

- ▶ There is no way to identify  $P(y|do(x))$  via backdoor adjustment
- ▶ The set  $\{W_1, W_2, Z\}$  is not backdoor-admissible because  $Z$  is a collider on the path  $X \leftarrow \text{-----} \rightarrow Z \leftarrow \text{-----} \rightarrow Y$
- ▶ If we could run an experiment in which we manipulated  $X$ , we could delete all the incoming arrows into  $X$  and immediately read off  $P(y|do(x))$  from the post-intervention distribution
- ▶ But what if that's not possible? Could we use experimental variation in another variable instead to get at the causal effect of interest?
- ▶ It turns out we can: In the above graph, if we are able to manipulate  $Z$ , we can transform  $P(y|do(x))$  into an expression that only contains  $do(z)$  (Bareinboim and Pearl, 2012)
  - ▶ Solution:  $P(y|do(x)) = \sum_{w_1, w_2} P(y|do(z), x, w_1, w_2)P(w_1)P(w_2)$

# Identification by Surrogate Experiment

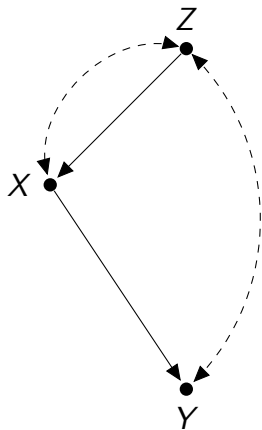
## $Z$ -identification (graphical criterion; Bareinboim and Pearl, 2012)

Let  $X$ ,  $Y$ ,  $Z$  be disjoint sets of variables and let  $G$  be the causal graph. The causal effect  $Q = P(y|do(x))$  is  $zID$  in  $G$  if one of the following conditions hold:

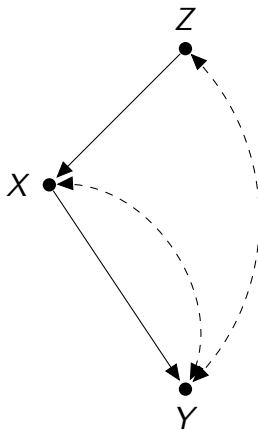
- (i)  $Q$  is identifiable in  $G$ ; or
- (ii) There exists  $Z' \subseteq Z$  such that the following conditions hold,
  - a.  $X$  intercepts all directed paths from  $Z'$  to  $Y$ , and
  - b.  $Q$  is identifiable in  $G_{\overline{Z'}}$ .

- ▶ Since the entire post-interventional distribution is identified, also other quantities such as the average causal effect are
- ▶ This graphical criterion is only a sufficient condition but not necessary for identification (i.e., there exist solutions that do not fulfill these criteria)

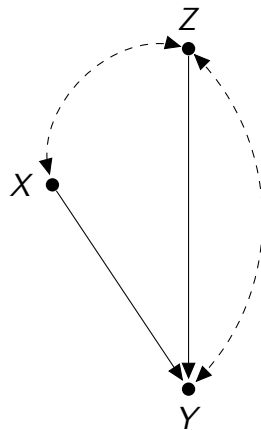
Test: In which causal graphs is  $P(y|do(x))$   $z$ -identifiable?



A



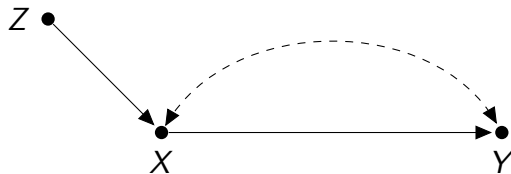
B



C

# Instrumental Variables

- ▶  $Z$ -identification does not allow for unobserved confounders that directly affect treatment and outcome
- ▶ With such a direct unobserved confounder, there is no way to identify  $P(y|do(x))$  nor the average causal effect (Manski, 1990; Balke and Pearl, 1995)
- ▶ There is, however, a way to obtain some causal insights if we are willing to introduce an additional *monotonicity* assumption (Imbens and Angrist, 1994)
  - ▶ Monotonicity  $\hat{=}$  every individual's treatment status  $X$  is affected by the instrument  $Z$  in the same direction

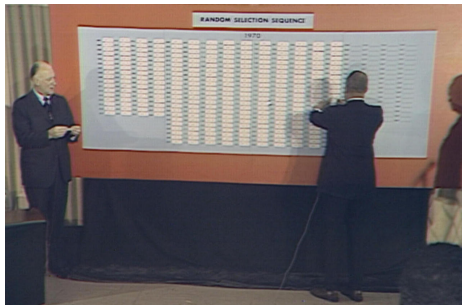


## Example: Vietnam Draft



# Vietnam Draft Lottery

- ▶ Conscription for serving in the Vietnam war was organized as a (somewhat macabre) lottery of birthdates for men born between 1944 and 1950
- ▶ From an urn with all dates of the year September 14 was drawn first and got assigned the number 1, the second date drawn got assigned the number 2 and so on. The first 195 birthdates drawn were eventually drafted.
- ▶ The lottery creates exogenous variation in military service, which can be used to estimate the labor market effects of veteran status (Angrist, 1990)





# Local Average Treatment Effect

- ▶ For a binary instrument and binary treatment, we can divide the population in four subgroups depending on how their treatment status reacts to the instrument

Compliers:  $X^{Z=0} = 0$  and  $X^{Z=1} = 1$

Defiers:  $X^{Z=0} = 1$  and  $X^{Z=1} = 0$

Always takers:  $X^{Z=0} = 1$  and  $X^{Z=1} = 1$

Never-takers:  $X^{Z=0} = 0$  and  $X^{Z=1} = 0$

- ▶ Compliers only serve in the military ( $X = 1$ ) if they get drafted ( $Z = 1$ )
- ▶ Always-takers do military service ( $X = 1$ ) irrespective of whether they get drafted or not ( $Z$ ), and so forth
- ▶ Monotonicity assumption rules out the existence of defiers

## Local Average Treatment Effect (II)

- ▶ If there are no defiers we can identify the causal effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  for the subgroup of compliers (Imbens and Angrist, 1994)
  - ▶ But only for this subgroup! The literature therefore calls this estimand a **“local average treatment effect”**
  - ▶ We can't say anything about the always- and never-takers, unless everyone has the same (homogenous) treatment effect, then  $LATE = ATE$  (special case)
- ▶ Problem: It's often hard to tell who the compliers are
  - ▶ Are compliers representative for the entire population?
  - ▶ The estimated LATE might thus not tell us much about the likely effect for non-compliers
- ▶ Problem 2: If the instrument doesn't effect treatment status  $X$  by much, the subgroup of compliers will be small
  - ▶ A small complier group can render effect estimates very unstable (small effective sample size), which is the so-called “weak instrument problem” stated in causal terms

## DOES A LONG-TERM ORIENTATION CREATE VALUE? EVIDENCE FROM A REGRESSION DISCONTINUITY

CAROLINE FLAMMER<sup>1\*</sup> and PRATIMA BANSAL<sup>2</sup>

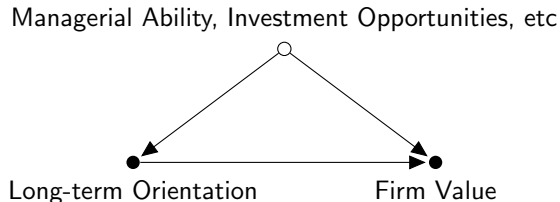
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**Research summary:** In this paper, we theorize and empirically investigate how a long-term orientation impacts firm value. To study this relationship, we exploit exogenous changes in executives' long-term incentives. Specifically, we examine shareholder proposals on long-term executive compensation that pass or fail by a small margin of votes. The passage of such "close call" proposals is akin to a random assignment of long-term incentives and hence provides a clean causal estimate. We find that the adoption of such proposals leads to (1) an increase in firm value and operating performance—suggesting that a long-term orientation is beneficial to companies—and (2) an increase in firms' investments in long-term strategies such as innovation and stakeholder relationships. Overall, our results are consistent with a "time-based" agency conflict between shareholders and managers.

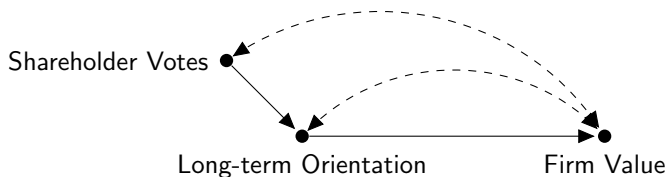
# Introduction

- ▶ Research question:
  - ▶ Do companies face time-based agency problems?
  - ▶ Does the provision of long-term incentives to managers increase firm value and stimulate innovation activities?
- ▶ Confounding problem:
  - ▶ Managerial ability, investment opportunities, etc. drive both the long-term orientation and firm value
  - ▶ These confounding influences are unobserved at the firm-level



# Regression Discontinuity Design (II)

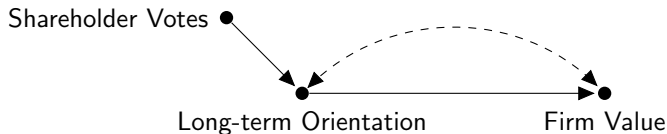
- ▶ Research design:
  - ▶ Long-term executive compensation affects long-term orientation of a firm by incentivizing managers to create long-term value
  - ▶ By itself, shareholder votes on executive compensation plans are likely driven by the same unobservables though



# Regression Discontinuity Design (III)

## ► Discontinuity:

- Shareholders in public firms vote on executive compensation plans that incentivize long-term orientation
- If we look at very “close call” votes, let’s say between 49% and 51% for the proposal, we can reasonably assume that the respective firms do not differ systematically below and above the cutoff of 50%
- At the same time, making the cut leads to a large impact on long-term orientation
- I.e., in a close area around the cutoff, shareholder votes are a good instrument for long-term orientation



# Sharp vs. Fuzzy RDD

- ▶ There are two types of RDDs

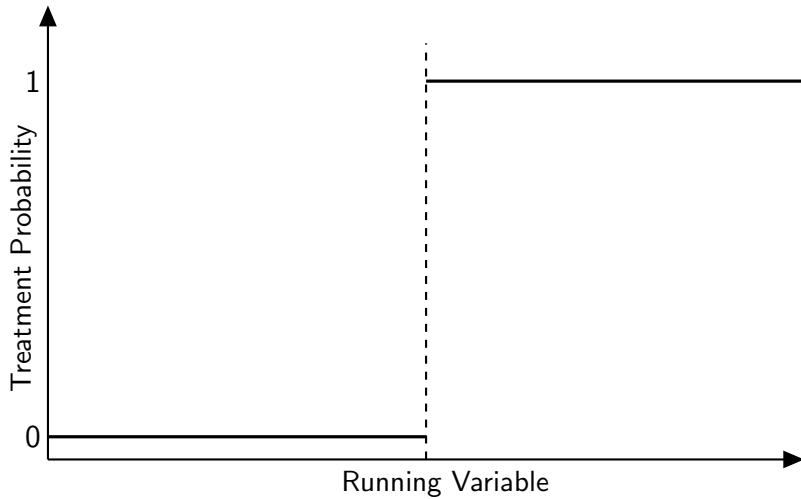
## 1. Sharp

- ▶ Probability to receive treatment jumps from zero to one at the discontinuity
- ▶ Everyone above the threshold is treated and no-one below

## 2. Fuzzy

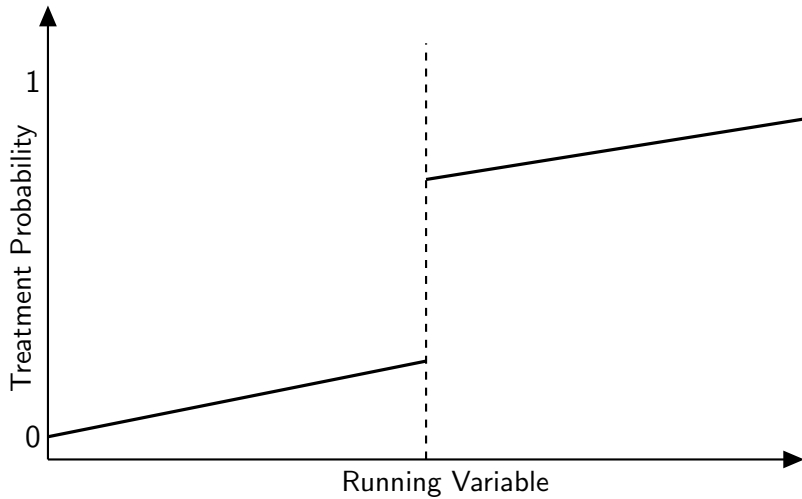
- ▶ Probability to receive treatment jumps discontinuously but from a value above zero to a value below one
- ▶ It's more likely to be treated if you're above the discontinuity, but this is not certain
- ▶ The specification in Flammer and Bansal (2017) corresponds to a sharp RDD design

# Sharp RDD





# Fuzzy RDD



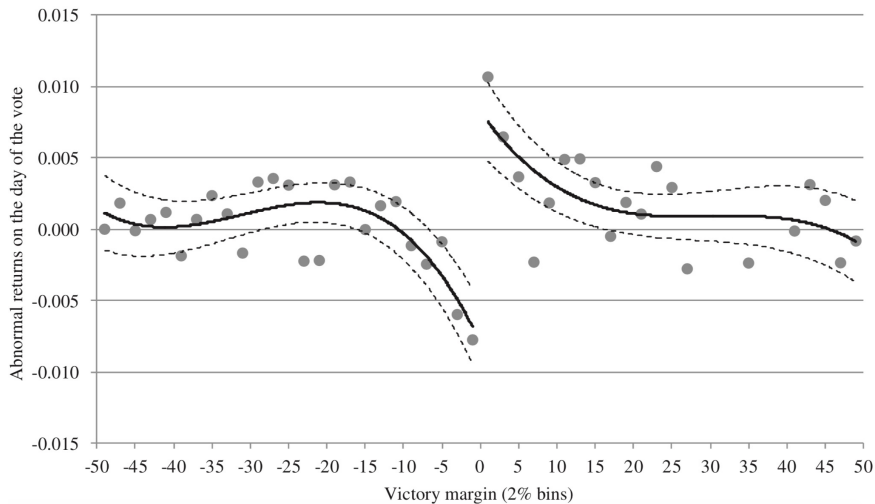
# Estimation

- ▶ The basic estimation idea of an RDD could not be easier
  - ▶ Go as close to the discontinuity  $z_0$  as possible and compare means below and above the threshold
- ▶ Problem with this approach:
  - ▶ The closer we make the window around  $z_0$ , the more data we lose, which makes our estimates unreliable
  - ▶ The wider we make the window, the more bias we possibly buy in
- ▶ Almost all practical issues with implementing RDDs revolve around this variance-bias trade-off
- ▶ Another drawback is external validity: an RDD only allows us to say something about a very specific population around the threshold
  - ▶ E.g., firms in which shareholder proposals on long-term compensation barely pass, might be very different from those where the proposal fails with zero votes in favor

## Estimation (II)

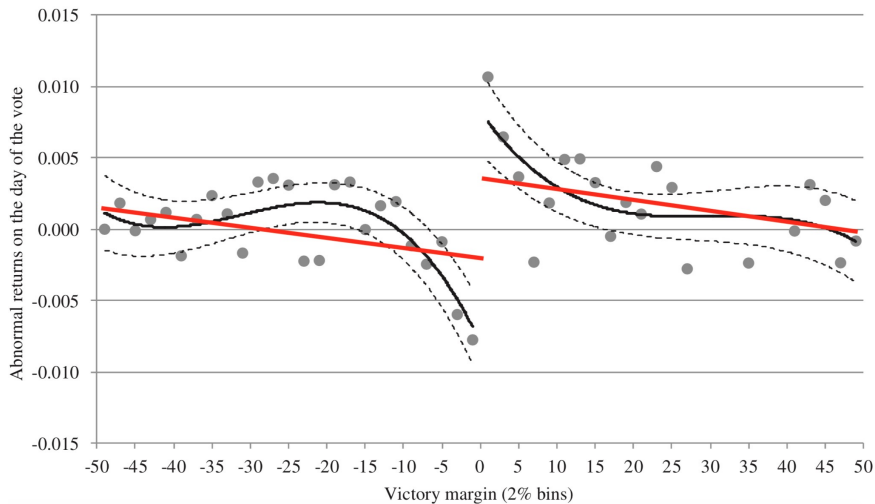
- ▶ First step in an RDD analysis is usually to plot the data to see what's going on
  - ▶ Is the jump at  $z_0$  visually detectable?
- ▶ Instead of comparing means in a close window around  $z_0$ , we can fit two straight regressions lines below and above
  - ▶ The causal effect estimate is then just the difference between the two lines at  $z_0$
- ▶ This functional form assumption is often too rigid though, because we can't be sure that everything is nicely linear
- ▶ Alternatively, we can fit more flexible polynomial regressions (including quadratic, cubic, etc, terms of the running variable) or use nonparametric regression techniques

# Sensitivity to Functional Form Assumptions



Source: Flammer and Bansal (2017)

# Sensitivity to Functional Form Assumptions

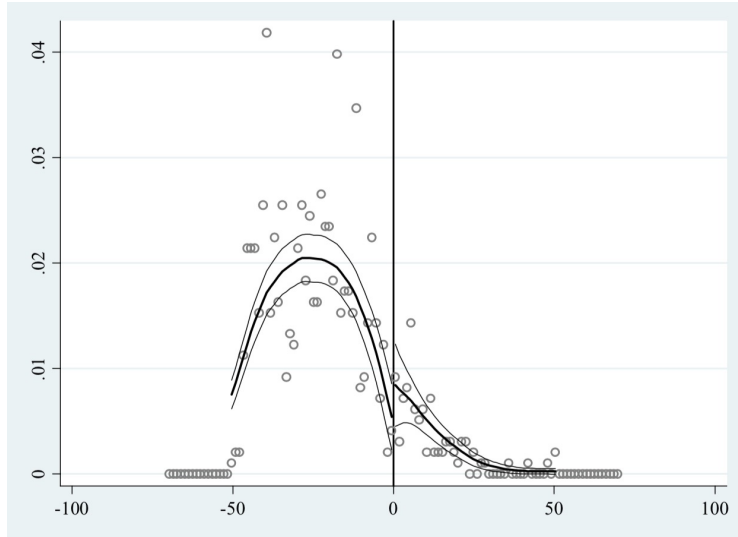


Source: Flammer and Bansal (2017)

# Diagnostics

- ▶ The entire identification strategy in an RDD depends on the notion that there are no systematic differences between treatment and control group above and below the threshold
- ▶ What can go wrong?
- ▶ We might see “bunching” below or above the threshold
  - ▶ This would be an indication that individuals are somehow able to manipulate their running variable
  - ▶ Example: persuade teachers to still give minimum passing grade to go to college
  - ▶ This raises concern about self-selection: are those individuals that manage to manipulate their running variable different from the others?
- ▶ Do other covariates change discontinuously too?

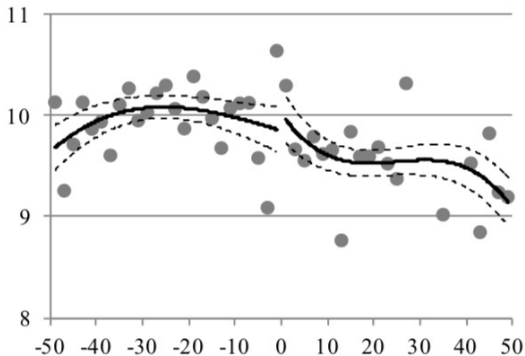
# McCrary Test



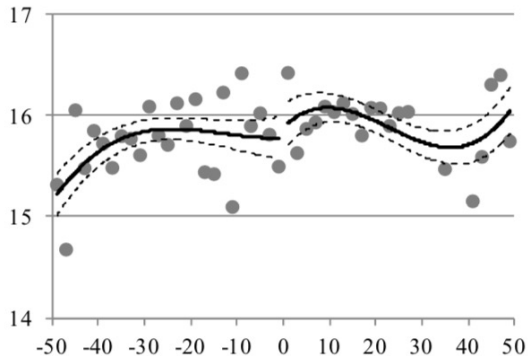
Source: Flammer and Bansal (2017), Online Appendix

# Smoothness of Covariate Distribution

Panel (C): Log(total assets) ( $t - 1$ )



Panel (D): Log(CEO compensation) ( $t - 1$ )



Source: Flammer and Bansal (2017), Online Appendix



# Thank you

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