The Statistics of Causal Inference in the Social Sciences

Political Science 236A Statistics 239A

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Robustness of Randomization Inference

- Randomization inference is often more robust than alternatives
- An example of this is when method of moment estimators become close to unidentified in finite samples
- An illustration is provide by the Wald (1940) estimator, which is often used to estimate treatment effects with instruments

What is IV Used For?

- IV used for causal inference
- The most compelling common example: estimate the average treatment effect when there is one-way non-compliance in an experiment.
- Assumptions are weak in this case. In most other examples, the behavioral assumptions are strong.

Experimental Data

- If assignment to treatment is randomized, the inference problem is straightforward because the two groups are from the same population: { Y_{i1}, Y_{i0} ⊥⊥ T_i}.
- The Average Treatment Effect (ATE) can be estimated:

$$\bar{\tau} \equiv \bar{Y}_{i1} - \bar{Y}_{i0}
\bar{\tau} = E(Y_{i1}|T_i = 1) - E(Y_{i0}|T_i = 0)
= E(Y_i|T_i = 1) - E(Y_i|T_i = 0)$$

Observational Data: Selection on Observables

- With observational data, the treatment and control groups are not drawn from the same population.
- Progress can be made if we assume that the two groups are comparable once we condition on observable covariates denoted by X_i.
- This is the conditional independence assumption:

$$\{Y_{i1}, Y_{i0} \perp \!\!\!\perp T_i | X_i\},$$

the reasonableness of this assumption depends on the design.

Instrumental Variables (IV) as an Alternative

- IV methods solve the problem of missing or unknown control IF the instruments are valid
- Simple example under the unnecessary assumption of constant effects. This assumption is only used to simply the presentation here:

$$egin{array}{ll} lpha &= Y_{1i} - Y_{0i} \ Y_{0i} &= eta + \epsilon_i, \end{array}$$
 where $eta \equiv \mathbb{E}\left[Y_{0i}
ight]$

 When we do permutation inference, we will assume under the null, unlike the Wald estimator, that the potential outcomes are fixed.



Towards the Wald Estimator I

The potential outcomes model can now be written:

$$Y_i = \beta + \alpha T_i + \epsilon_i, \tag{1}$$

But T_i is likely correlated with ϵ_i .

- Suppose: a third variable Z_i which is correlated with T_i , but is unrelated to Y for any other reason—i.e., $Y_{0i} \perp \!\!\! \perp Z_i$ and $\mathbb{E}\left[\epsilon_i \mid Z_i\right] = 0$.
- Z_i is said to be an IV or "an instrument" for the causal effect of T on Y

Towards the Wald Estimator II

• Suppose that Z_i is dichotomous (0,1). Then

$$\alpha = \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[Y_i \mid Z=1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[Y_i \mid Z=0\right]}{\mathbb{E}\left[T_i \mid Z=1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[T_i \mid Z=0\right]}$$
(2)

- The sample analog of this equation is called the Wald estimator, since it first appear in Wald (1940) on errors-in-variables problems.
- More general versions for continuous, multi-valued, or multiple instruments.
- Problem: what if in finite samples the denominator in Eq 2 is close to zero?



Conditions for a Valid Instrument

Instrument Relevance:

$$cov(Z, T) \neq 0$$

Instrument Exogeneity:

$$cov(Z, \epsilon) = 0$$

- These conditions ensure that the part of X that is correlated with Z only contains exogenous variation
- Instrument relevance is testable
- Instrument exogeneity is NOT testable. It must be true by design



Weak Instruments

- A weak instrument is one where the denominator in Eq 2 is close to zero.
- This poses two distinct problems:
 - if the instrument is extremely weak, it may provide little or no useful information
 - commonly used statistical methods for IV do not accurately report this lack of information

Two Stage Least Squares Estimator (TSLS)

$$Y = \beta T + \epsilon \tag{3}$$

$$T = Z\gamma + v, (4)$$

where Y, ϵ , υ are $N \times 1$, and Z is $N \times K$, where K is the number of instruments

- Note we do not assume that $\mathbb{E}(T, \epsilon) = 0$, which is the central problem
- We assume instead $\mathbb{E}(v\mid Z)=0$, $\mathbb{E}(v,\epsilon)=0$, $\mathbb{E}(Z,\epsilon)=0$, $\mathbb{E}(Z,T)\neq 0$

TSLS Estimator

$$\hat{\beta}_{iv} = (T'P_zT)^{-1}T'P_zY, \tag{5}$$

where $P_z = Z(Z'Z)^{-1}Z'$, the projection matrix for Z. It can be shown that:

- plim $\hat{\beta}_{ols} = \beta + \frac{\sigma_{T,\epsilon}}{\sigma_T^2}$
- plim $\hat{\beta}_{iv} = \beta + \frac{\sigma_{\hat{T},\epsilon}}{\sigma_T^2}$

Quarter of Birth and Returns to Schooling

- Angrist and Krueger (1991) want to estimate the causal effect of education
- This is difficult, so they propose a way to estimate the causal effect of compulsory school attendance on earnings
- Every state has a minimum number δ of years of schooling that all students must have
- But, the laws are written in terms of the age at which a student can leave school
- Because birth dates vary, individual students are required to attend between δ and $\delta + 1$ years of schooling

Quarter of Birth

- The treatment T is years of education
- The instrument Z is quarter of birth (exact birth date to be precise)
- The outcome Y are earnings

The Data

- Census data is used
- 329,509 men born between 1930 and 1939
- Observe: years of schooling, birth date, earnings in 1980
- mean number of years of education is 12.75
- Example instrument: being born in the fourth quarter of the year, which is 1 for 24.5% of sample

How Much Information Is There?

- If the number of years of education is regressed on this quarter-of-birth indicator, the least squares regression coefficient is 0.092 with standard error 0.013
- if log-earnings are regressed on the quarter-of-birth indicator, the coefficient is 0.0068 with standard error 0.0027, so being born in the fourth quarter is associated with about $\frac{2}{3}$ % higher earnings.
- Wald estimator: $\frac{0.0068}{0.092} \approx 0.074$

Estimates Using the Wald Estimator

 Estimate
 95% lower
 95% upper

 Simple Wald Estimator

 0.074
 0.019
 0.129

 Multivariate TSLS Estimator

 0.074
 0.058
 0.090

Problem

- replace the actual quarter-of-birth variable by a randomly generated instrument that carries no information because it is unrelated to years of education.
- As first reported by Bound, Jaeger, and Baker (1995), the TSLS estimate incorrectly suggests that the data are informative, indeed, very informative when there are many instruments.
- The 95% confidence interval: 0.042, 0.078
- But the true estimate is 0!

Method

- There are S strata with n_s units in stratum s and N subjects in total
- Y_{Csi} is the control (T = 0) potential outcome for unit i in strata s
- Y_{tsi} is the potential outcome for unit i in strata s if the unit received treatment $t \neq 0$
- Simplifying assumption (not necessary), effect is proportional:

$$Y_{tsi} - Y_{Csi} = \beta t$$
.

 t is years of education beyond the minimum that are required by law



Instruments

- In stratum s there is a preset, sorted, fixed list of n_s instrument settings h_{sj} , $j=1,\cdots,n_s$, where $h_{sj}\leq h_{s,j+1}$ \forall s,j
- $\mathbf{h} = (h_{11}, h_{12}, \cdots, h_{1,n_1}, h_{2,1}, \cdots, h_{S,n_s})^T$
- Instrument settings in h are randomly permuted within strata
- Assignment of instrument settings, z, is z=ph where p is a stratified permutation matrix—i.e., an N × N block diagonal matrix with S blocks, p₁, · · · , p_S.
- Block $\mathbf{p_s}$ is an $n_s \times n_s$ permutation matrix—i.e., $\mathbf{p_s}$ is a matrix of 0s and 1s s.t. each row and column sum to 1

Permutations

- Let Ω be the set of all stratified permutation matrices \mathbf{p} , so Ω is a set containing $|\Omega| = \prod_{s=1}^{S} n_s!$ matrices, where $|\Omega|$ denotes the number of elements of the set Ω
- Pick a random **P** from Ω where $Pr(P=p)=\frac{1}{|\Omega|}$ for each $\mathbf{p}\in\Omega$
- Then **Z** = **Ph** is a random permutation of **h** within strata, so the *i*th unit in stratum *s* receives instrument setting Z_{si}

Outcomes

- For each **z** there is a t_{siz} for each unit who then has an outcome $Y_{Csi} + \beta t_{siz}$
- T_{si} is the dose, treatment value, for unit i in stratum s so $T_{si} = t_{si\mathbf{z}}$
- Let Y_{si} be the response for this unit, so $Y_{si} = Y_{Csi} + \beta T_{si}$
- Write $\mathbf{T}=(T_{11},\cdots,T_{S,n_s}^T)$ and $\mathbf{Y}=(Y_{11},\cdots,Y_{S,n_s}^T)$

Hypothesis Testing I

- We wish to test H_0 : $\beta = \beta_0$
- Let q(·) be a method of scoring response such as their ranks within strata
- Let $\rho(\mathbf{Z})$ be some way of scoring the instrument settings such that $\rho(\mathbf{ph}) = \mathbf{p}\rho(\mathbf{h})$ for each $\mathbf{p} \in \Omega$
- The test statistic is $U = q(Y \beta_0(T))^T \rho(Z)$
- For appropriate scores, U can be Wilcoxon's stratified rank sum statistic, the Hodges-Lehmann aligned rank statistic, the stratified Spearman rank correlation, etc

Hypothesis Testing II

- If H₀ were true, Y β₀T = Y_C would be fixed, not varying with Z: q(Y β₀T) = q(Y_C) = q would also be fixed
- If the null is false, $\mathbf{Y} \beta_0 \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{Y}_C + (\beta \beta_0) \mathbf{T}$ will be related to the dose **T** and related to **Z**
- Our test amounts to looking for an absence of a relationship between Y – β₀T and Z.

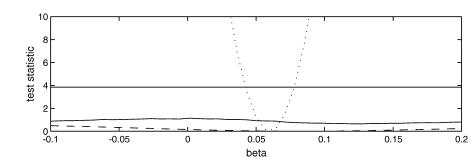
Exact Test

- An exact test computes $\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{Y} \beta_0 \mathbf{T})$, which is the fixed value $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q}(\mathbf{Y}_C)$, in which case $U = \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{P} \rho(\mathbf{H})$
- The chance that $U \le u$ under H_0 is the proportion of $\mathbf{p} \in \Omega$ that $\mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{P} \rho(\mathbf{H}) \le u$

Comparison of instrumental variable estimates with uninformative data

Procedure	95% lower	95% upper
- 0.0		
TSLS	0.042	0.078
Permute ranks	-1	1
Permute log-earnings	-1	1

Results with Uninformative Instrument



Dotted line is TSLS; solid line is randomization test using ranks; and dashed line is randomization test using the full observed data

References

This treatment is based on:

- Imbens and Rosenbaum (2005): "Robust, Accurate Confidence Intervals with a Weak Instrument: Quarter of Birth and Education," *Journal of the Royal Statistical* Society, Series A, vol 168(1), 109–126.
- Angrist and Krueger (1991): "Does compulsory school attendance affect earnings?" QJE 1991; 106: 979–1019.
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