

Making Causal Critiques

Day 3 - Assessing Causal Evidence

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Solving the Problem of Causal Inference

- ▶ We cannot!
- ▶ But we can try and minimize the risks
- ▶ Selecting units that provide appropriate counterfactuals, avoiding:
 - ▶ Omitted variable bias
 - ▶ Selection Bias
 - ▶ Reverse Causation

Field Experiments

- ▶ Field experiments provide confidence because treatment assignment is **controlled by the researcher**
- ▶ But still take place in real-world environments, so they identify (hopefully) meaningful treatment effects

Field Experiments

- ▶ Why does randomization help us achieve causal inference?

Field Experiments

- ▶ Why does randomization help us achieve causal inference?
 - ▶ A treatment assignment mechanism that balances potential outcomes
 - ▶ Every unit has **exactly the same** probability of treatment
 - ▶ No omitted variable bias
 - ▶ No self-selection
 - ▶ No reverse causation

Field Experiments

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 - ▶ We want to estimate:

$$E(Y_1 - Y_0) \quad (1)$$

- ▶ Our data provides:

$$E(Y_1|D = 1) , E(Y_0|D = 0) \quad (2)$$

- ▶ With randomization, $Y_1, Y_0 \perp D$:

$$E(Y_1|D = 1) = E(Y_1) \quad (3)$$

$$E(Y_0|D = 0) = E(Y_0) \quad (4)$$

$$E(Y_1|D = 1) - E(Y_0|D = 0) = E(Y_1) - E(Y_0) \quad (5)$$

$$= E(Y_1 - Y_0) \quad (6)$$

Field Experiments

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Field Experiments

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 - ▶ On average, potential outcomes will be balanced
 - ▶ More likely in larger samples
 - ▶ We cannot verify potential outcomes
 - ▶ But we can assess balance in *observable* covariates
 - ▶ What if some covariates are imbalanced?

Field Experiments

- ▶ Analysing field experiments
 - ▶ Comparison of means: t-test to test significance
 - ▶ Regression achieves the same thing
 - ▶ $Y_i \sim \alpha + \beta D_i + \epsilon_i$
 - ▶ $Y_i = Y_{0i} + (Y_{1i} - Y_{0i})D_i + \epsilon_i$
 - ▶ Just the conditional expectation function: $E(Y|D = d)$
 - ▶ Include covariates if:
 - ▶ There is residual imbalance
 - ▶ To increase precision of standard errors

Field Experiments

- ▶ Assumptions
 - ▶ **Compliance with randomization** - Treatment was truly random and accepted
 - ▶ **SUTVA** - Treatment of one unit doesn't affect potential outcomes of other units
 - ▶ **Excludability** - Effects of treatment assignment operate **only** through treatment
 - ▶ Depends if these effects are part of the causal chain

Field Experiments

- ▶ Limitations of Field Experiments: **Answerable Questions**

Field Experiments

- ▶ Limitations of Field Experiments: **Answerable Questions**
 - ▶ Small sample sizes still prevent inference
 - ▶ Ethics
 - ▶ Logistics/Finance
 - ▶ Some treatments can't be manipulated (history)
 - ▶ Lack of control over treatment content and context - is it informative?
 - ▶ Long-term effects/adaptation?

Field Experiments

- ▶ Limitations of Field Experiments: **Internal Validity**

Field Experiments

- ▶ Limitations of Field Experiments: **Internal Validity**
 - ▶ No guarantee of actual balance (and Inefficient if we already know confounders)
 - ▶ Hawthorne effect: participants adapt behaviour in experiments
 - ▶ Biased measurement if not double-blind (non-excludability)
 - ▶ Average Treatment Effect can be skewed by Outliers
 - ▶ Always complications of non-compliance, SUTVA, attrition
 - ▶ Publication/Selection bias
 - ▶ Unbiased but imprecise; variation still high if lots of other variables also affect Y
 - ▶ Treatment assignment mechanism itself affects outcomes

Field Experiments

- ▶ All these complications mean we need lots of assumptions and background knowledge
- ▶ Just as with other methodologies

Lab Experiments

- ▶ Causal Inference

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- ▶ Why lab experiments?

Lab Experiments

- ▶ Causal Inference
- ▶ Why lab experiments?
 - ▶ Treatments we cannot administer in reality
 - ▶ Outcome measurements that are hard to take in reality
 - ▶ Random treatment assignment not permitted in reality

Lab Experiments

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- ▶ **Treatment Assignment:** Same as a Field Experiment
- ▶ **Treatment:** Not a manipulation of real world political or economic processes, but establishing controlled 'lab' conditions
 - ▶ The advantage: Control over context helps isolate mechanisms
 - ▶ The disadvantage: Can we generalize to the real world from this artificial context?

Natural Experiments

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Natural Experiments

- ▶ What is a natural experiment?
 - ▶ Treatment assignment is independent of potential outcomes
 - ▶ So randomized or 'as-if' random ('exogenous')
 - ▶ BUT The researcher doesn't control the treatment assignment process or treatment itself
 - ▶ So not a field experiment
 - ▶ Can make possible analysis of questions that researchers might find unethical or impractical

Natural Experiments

Analysis Types and Assumptions

Week	Assumption:	Researcher Controls Treatment Assignment?	Treatment Assignment Independent of Potential Outcomes	SUTVA	Additional Assumptions
	Controlled Experiments				
1	Field Experiments	✓	✓	✓	
2	Survey and Lab Experiments	✓	✓	✓	Controlled Environment for treatment exposure
	Natural Experiments				
3	Randomized Natural Experiments	X	✓	✓	
4	Instrumental Variables	X	✓	✓	First stage and Exclusion Restriction (Instrument explains treatment but not outcome)
5	Regression Discontinuity	X	✓	✓	Continuity of covariates; No manipulation; No compounding discontinuities
	Observational Studies				
6	Difference-in-Differences	X	X	✓	No Time-varying confounders; Parallel Trends
7	Controlling for Confounding	X	X	✓	Blocking all Back-door paths
8	Matching	X	X	✓	Overlap in sample characteristics

Natural Experiments

- ▶ Three types of natural experiments
 - ▶ 'Pure' natural experiments, where policy is as-if random
 - ▶ Instrumental Variables
 - ▶ Regression Discontinuities

Natural Experiments

- ▶ Because we don't control assignment, we need to verify the assumptions behind natural experiments
 - ▶ How do we know assignment was truly random?
 - ▶ How was the treatment applied? Consistently?
- ▶ We need 'Causal-process observations'

Natural Experiments

- ▶ Challenges due to lack of control over treatment:

Natural Experiments

- ▶ Challenges due to lack of control over treatment:
 - ▶ We must be lucky to 'find' natural experiments; what if the treatments/experiments that exist don't answer useful political economy questions?
 - ▶ The treatment and control groups produced by 'nature' may not produce treatment and control groups which differ in ways that represent a causal effect of interest (Sekhon and Titiunik 2012)
 - ▶ We also must be lucky to find a sample that is relevant and interesting - unlike a controlled trial we don't control the recipients either (eg. if we care about states, not municipalities, the audits are no use)

Natural Experiments

- ▶ Challenges due to lack of control over treatment:
 - ▶ Spillovers can be an issue - treatment units affect control units' potential outcomes (eg. women's quotas discourage women in non-reserved seats)
 - ▶ Generalizability a very open question; what causal process does the experiment really capture?
 - ▶ The treatment assignment of a natural experiment might have unique effects (excludability)

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Instrumental Variables

- ▶ What can we do when the treatment assignment mechanism is not 'as-if' random?
- ▶ Natural experiments focus on a specific **part** of treatment assignment that is 'as-if' random
- ▶ An 'instrument' is a variable which assigns treatment in an 'as-if' random way
 - ▶ Or at least in a way which is 'exogenous' - not related to confounders
 - ▶ Even if other confounding variables **also** affect treatment

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- ▶ We can use the instrument to isolate 'as-if' random variation in treatment, and use that to estimate the effect of treatment on the outcome
- ▶ NOT the effect of the instrument on the outcome

Instrumental Variables

- ▶ Example Instruments:
 - ▶ Rainfall for conflict
 - ▶ Sex-composition for effect of third child
 - ▶ Distance from the coast for exposure to slave trade

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 - ▶ **Strong First Stage:** The Instrument must **affect** the treatment
 - ▶ We can test this with a simple regression:
 $Treatment \sim Instrument$
 - ▶ The instrument should be a significant predictor of treatment
 - ▶ Rule-of-thumb: $F - statistic > 10$

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 - ▶ **We cannot test or prove this assumption!**
 - ▶ Theory and qualitative evidence needed to argue that the instrument is not correlated with any other factors affecting the outcome
 - ▶ Sometimes, the exclusion restriction may be more credible if we include controls

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 - ▶ Interpret the coefficient on \hat{D}

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 - ▶ 'Local' to the units whose treatment status actually changed
- ▶ Remember, those 'Local' units are not representative so we can't generalize

Regression Discontinuities

- ▶ Natural Experiments
 - ▶ As always, we need some 'as-if' random variation in assignment to treatment to get plausible counterfactuals

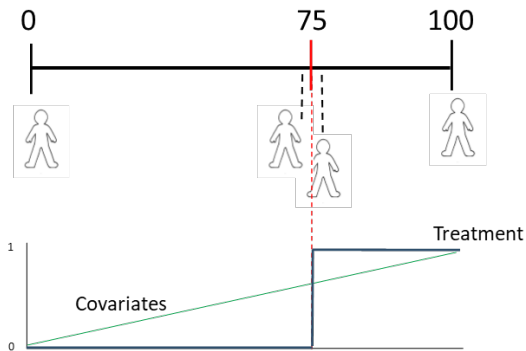
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 - ▶ Regression discontinuities take advantage of social rules that **treat similar people differently**
 - ▶ Specifically, similar people with slightly different 'scores' are assigned to treatment/control

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- For units just above and below the threshold:
 - Their covariates are almost the same
 - Their potential outcomes are (on average) almost the same
 - They are plausible counterfactuals for each other
- So we can compare them directly

- ▶ Example thresholds:
 - ▶ Exam cutoffs
 - ▶ Age cutoffs
 - ▶ Policy eligibility rules
 - ▶ Close elections
 - ▶ Administrative boundaries

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 - ▶ **Outcome, Y_i :** Any subsequent outcome you have measured

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 - ▶ No compound treatments

- ▶ Thresholds more likely to be exogenous if:

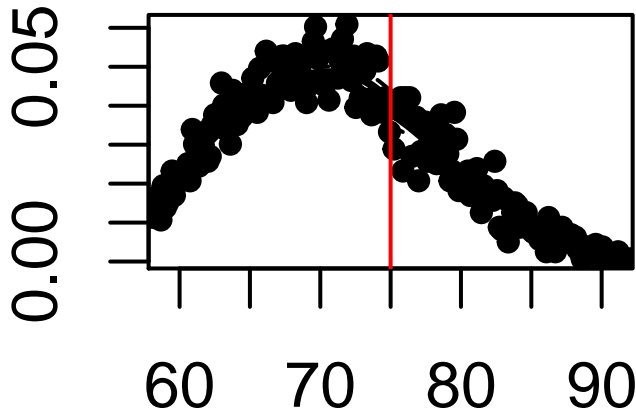
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 - ▶ Units are not aware of the threshold
 - ▶ The threshold is decided after units make choices
 - ▶ The running variable is hard to manipulate precisely
- ▶ We need qualitative evidence to support these assumptions

- ▶ We can check for sorting with a density test
- ▶ If units are bunched just above the threshold, this suggests manipulation



- ▶ Three Regression Discontinuity Methodologies:
 1. **Difference-in-means:** Define a small window either side of the threshold and compare average outcomes in this window
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$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{Running_Variable}_i + \beta_2 \text{Treatment}_i + \epsilon_i$$

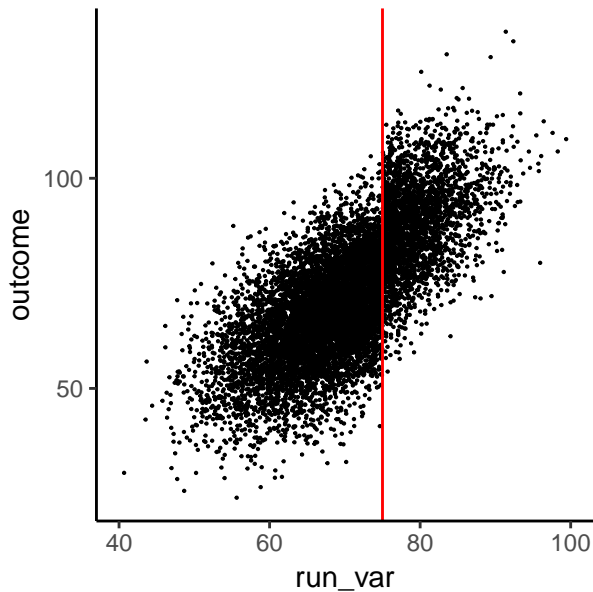
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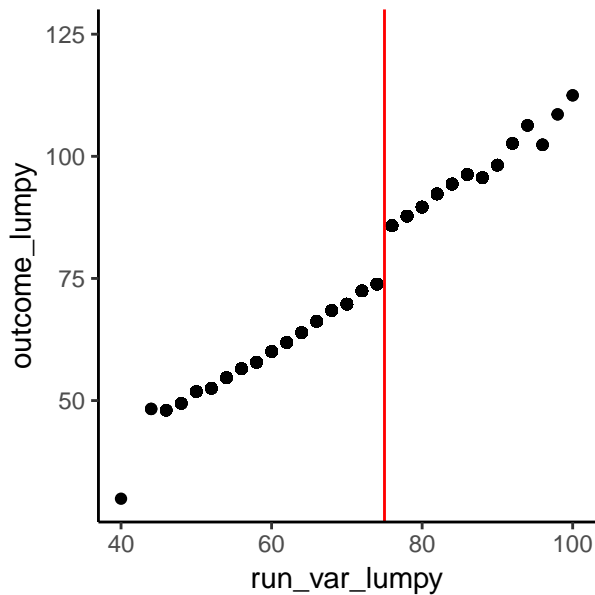
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 - ▶ We may need to make the running variable non-linear
 - 3. **Combined approach:** Focus on values close to the threshold, but use a (local) regression
 - ▶ What bandwidth around the threshold do we use?

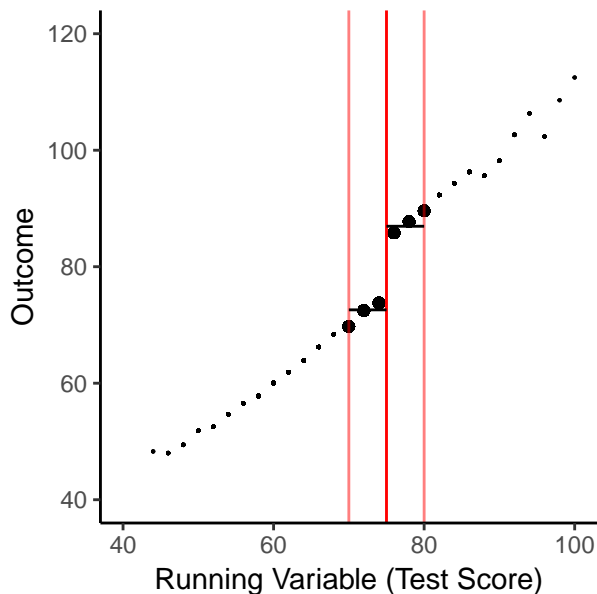
Raw Data



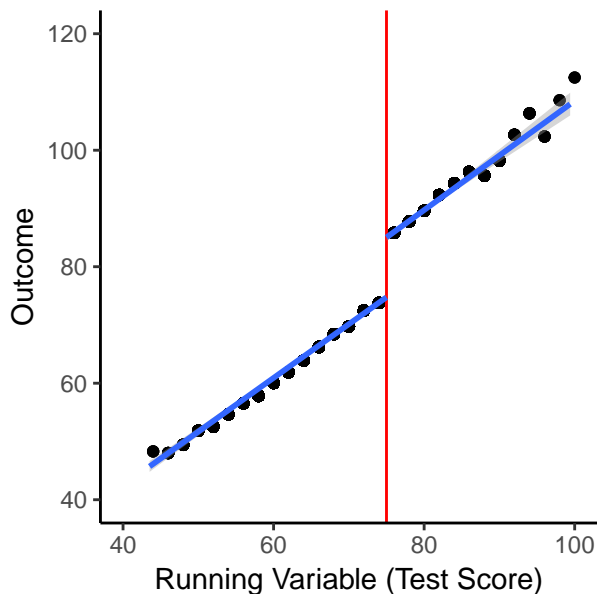
'Binned' Data



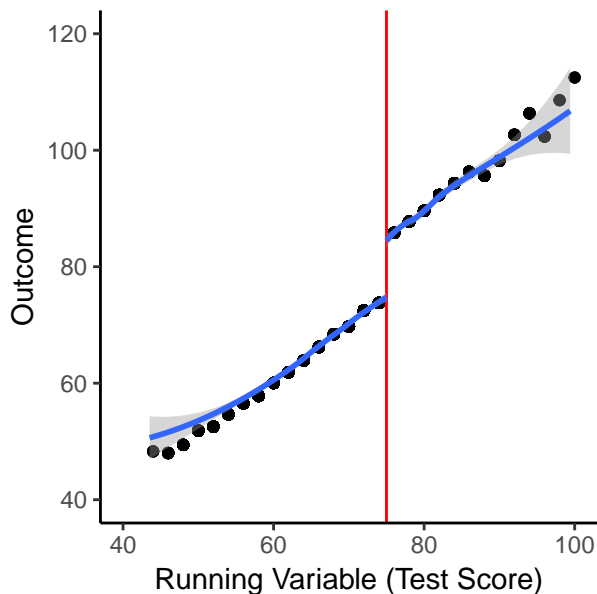
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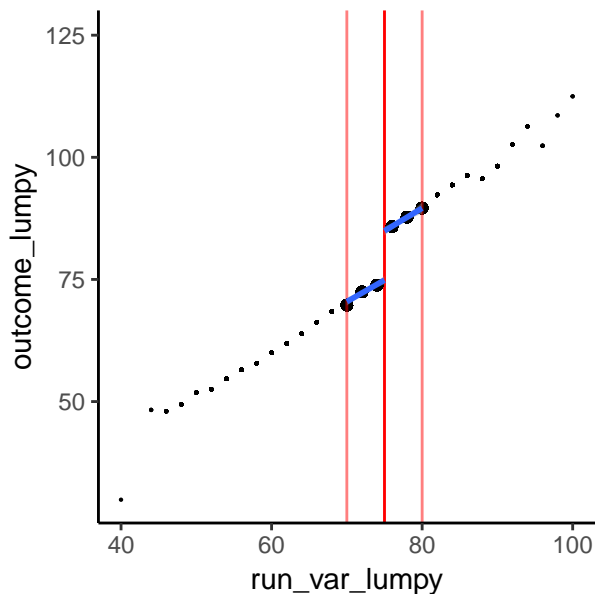
2a. Parametric Regression - Linear



2b. Parametric Regression - Non-linear



3. Combined Approach - Local Linear



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- ▶ In practice, apply all three as robustness checks

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 - ▶ Units far from the threshold are very different for a reason, and causal effects are likely to be different

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- Lots of alternative specifications so no single simple test
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- Risk of sorting/manipulation

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- ▶ Particularly useful for understanding the effects of political power
 - ▶ **Running Variable:** Margin of victory
 - ▶ **Treatment:** Winning a close election
 - ▶ **Control:** Losing a close election
 - ▶ **Outcome:** Anything that happens later...

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 - ▶ Politicians (incumbents, the wealthy) can control whether they win, even when it's a tight race
 - ▶ They have extremely detailed information to predict vote results
 - ▶ So potential outcomes are not balanced
 - ▶ But no other case (9 countries) has this problem

Difference-in-Differences

- ▶ Our basic causal inference problem is that confounding makes counterfactual cases implausible (biased)

Difference-in-Differences

- ▶ Our basic causal inference problem is that confounding makes counterfactual cases implausible (biased)
- ▶ If we compare separate treatment and control units when treatment assignment is not random:
 - ▶ The control units have different levels of the outcome for many reasons, not just treatment

Difference-in-Differences

- ▶ Our basic causal inference problem is that confounding makes counterfactual cases implausible (biased)
- ▶ If we compare separate treatment and control units when treatment assignment is not random:
 - ▶ The control units have different levels of the outcome for many reasons, not just treatment
- ▶ If we compare the same unit before and after treatment:
 - ▶ Other factors influencing the outcome might also have changed between our measurements (eg. any news event!)

Difference-in-Differences

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Difference-in-Differences

- ▶ We're now comparing *changes* (differences), not *levels* of the outcome
 - ▶ Most confounders affect levels, so this makes our counterfactuals more plausible
 - ▶ Eg. different laws affect growth rates, not the change in growth over time
 - ▶ And crucially, we can remove confounding even for *unobserved* confounders
 - ▶ So Diff-in-Diff is 'better' than controlling or matching, which only eliminate observed (measured) confounding

Difference-in-Differences

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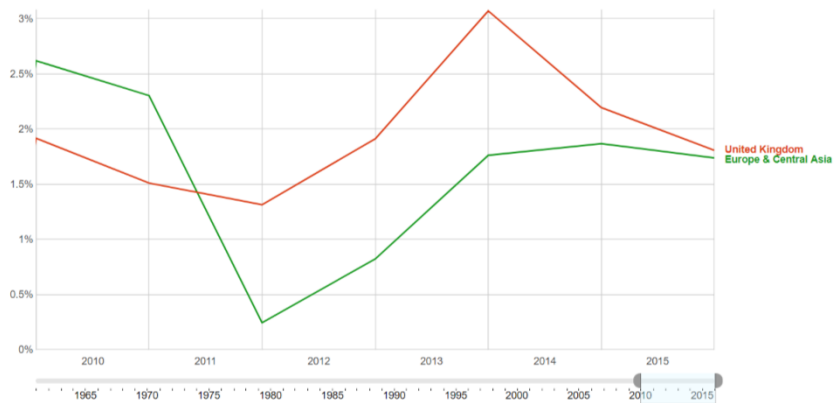
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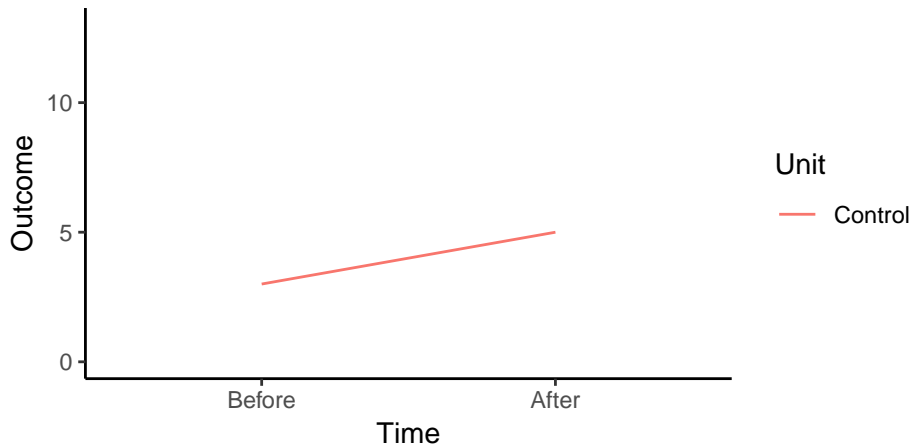
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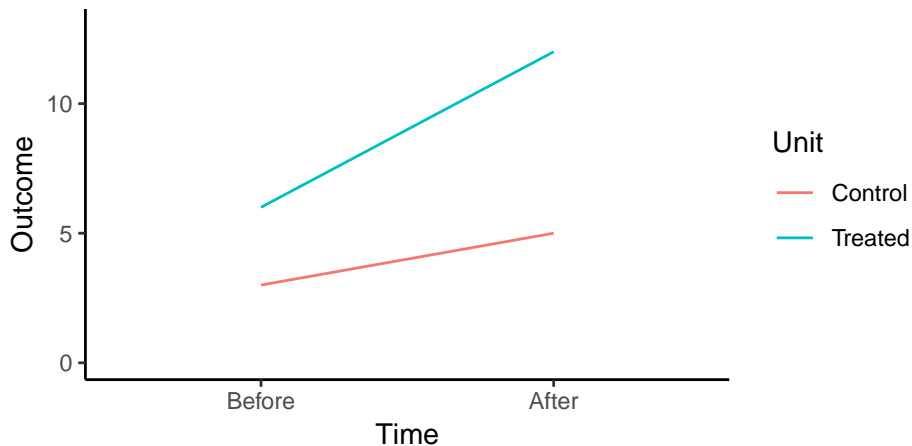
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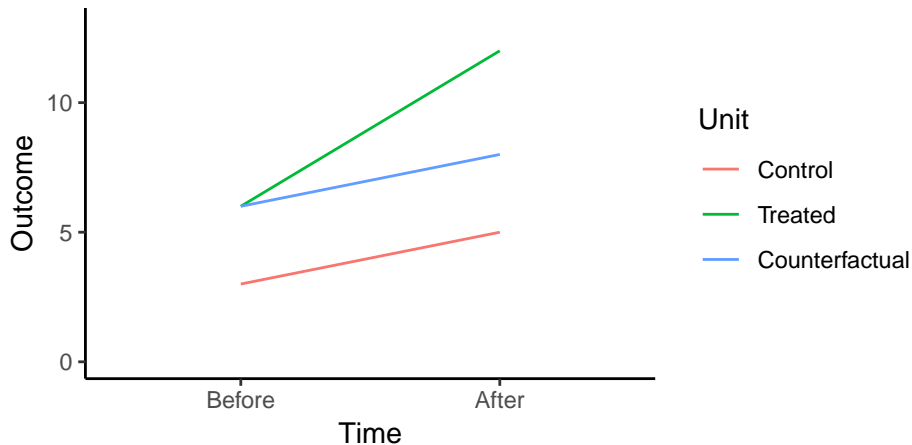
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- ▶ The difference-in-differences estimate is just the *interaction* of time and treatment status

$$Y_{it} = \alpha + \gamma D_i + \delta T_t + \beta D_i * T_t$$

- ▶ β is our causal effect estimate

Difference-in-Differences

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► Difference-in-Differences means:

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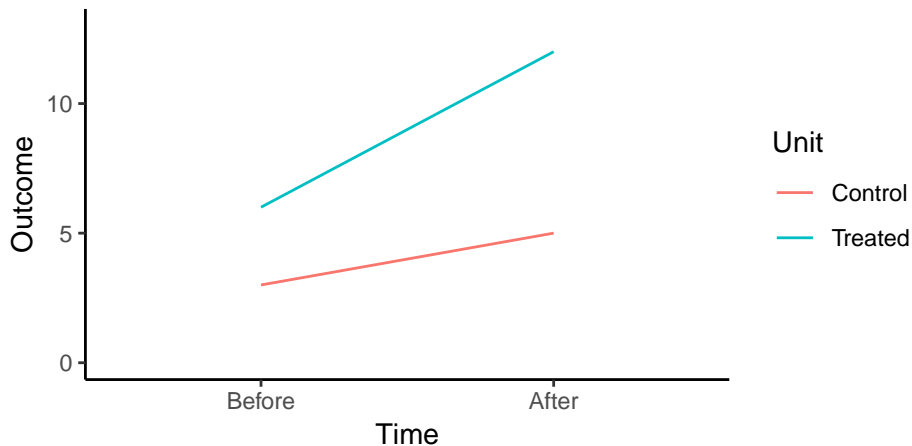
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- ▶ That's our causal effect

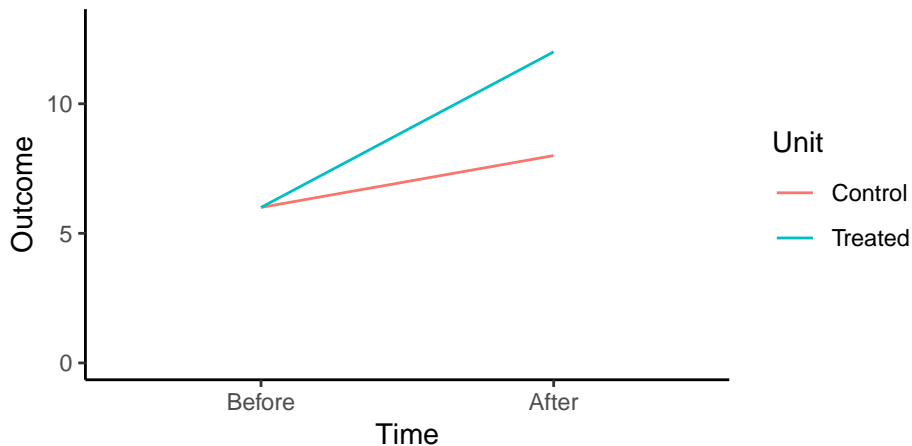
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Raw Data:



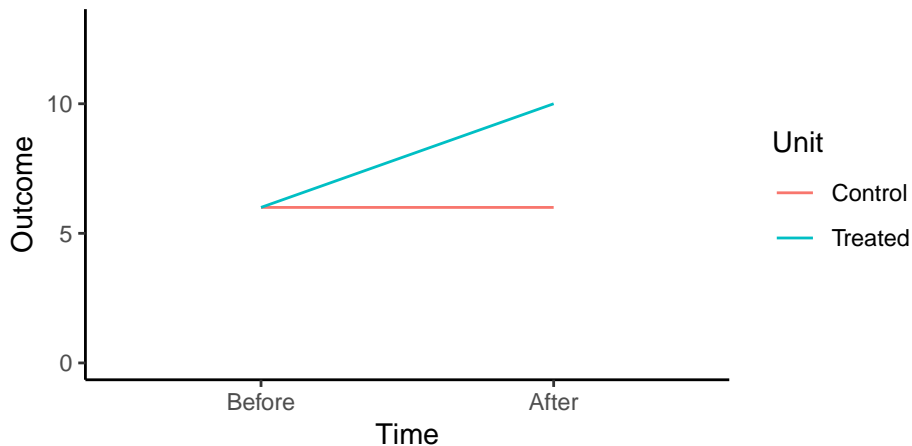
Difference-in-Differences

Add a variable (fixed effect) for treated/control:



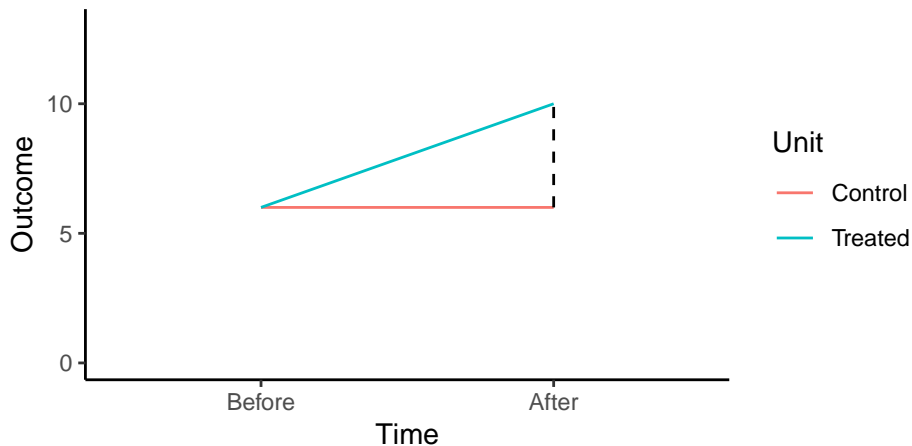
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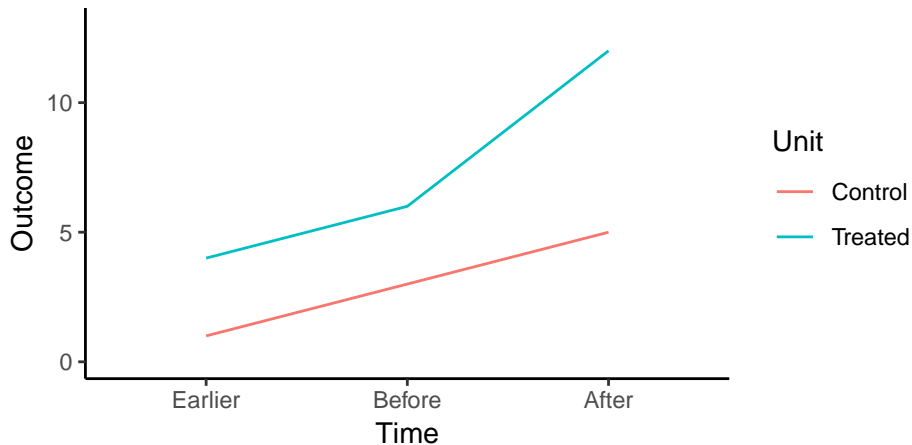
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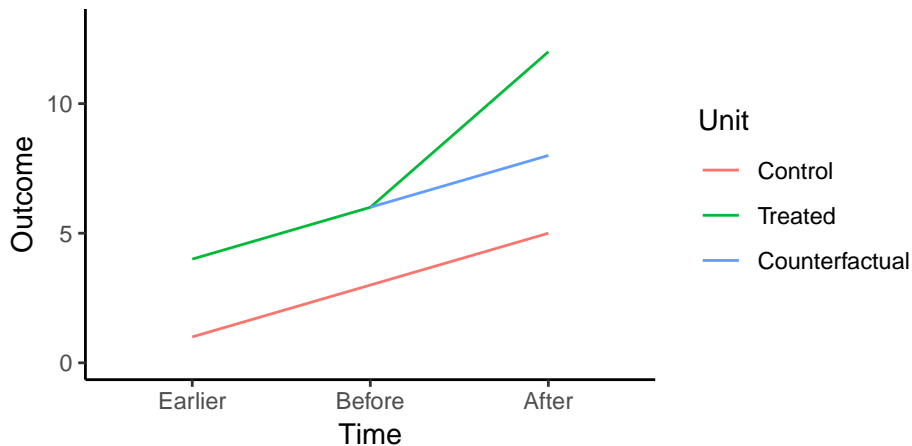
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- ▶ Then our counterfactual makes sense

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- ▶ Parallel trends (no time-varying confounders) is a difficult assumption
- ▶ Selection into treatment is usually not just due to mostly 'fixed' variables (eg. gender) but due to 'time-varying' variables (eg. income, employment etc.)
- ▶ Eg. training program participants' income has usually fallen a lot in the past few months

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- ▶ A good test is to see if there is an effect from 'placebos' - testing for treatment effects at times before treatment happened

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- ▶ Eg. The UK also announced new rules to regulate the banking sector on the same day as Brexit

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- ▶ Bertrand et al (2003):
 - ▶ Careful with standard errors
 - ▶ Especially if more than two time periods (auto-correlation)
 - ▶ So cluster standard errors by each cross-sectional unit (eg. each country)