



**LUND**  
UNIVERSITY

# Matching and synthetic controls

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**2023 ClimBEco course**



# Causal Inference from observational data

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- distance match
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**Synopsis:** Today, we will be looking into methods that help us find (aka *match*) or simulate (aka *synthesize*) a control group for inferring causal effects from observational data, and its recent developments

In particular, we will develop an understanding of



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- matching approaches



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In particular, we will develop an understanding of

- matching approaches
  - classical
  - machine-based learning



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In particular, we will develop an understanding of

- matching approaches
  - classical
  - machine-based learning
- synthetic controls



# Intuition

Consider a situation where the untreated are very different from the treated:

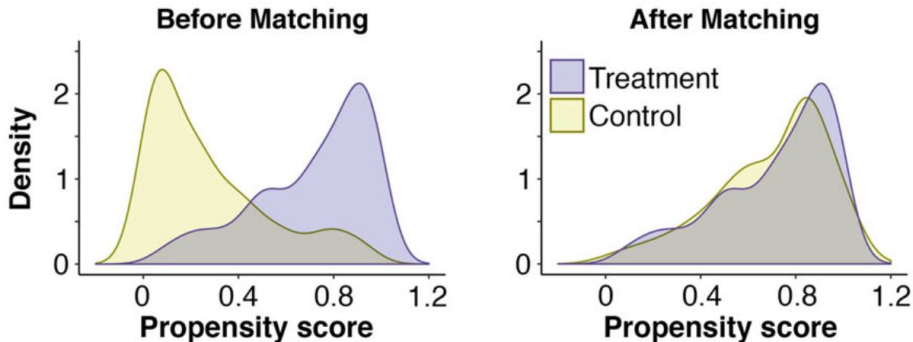


Image source: Schleicher et al. 2020



# Intuition

Consider a situation where the untreated are very different from the treated:

***Matching, def: any method that strategically subsamples dataset to balance covariate distribution in treated and control groups such that after matching both groups share an equal probability of treatment.***

**Non-Random  
Treatment  
Assignment**

**Matching Methods**  
→  
**to Subsample**

**Average Treatment Effect on  
the Treated + ~~Selection Bias~~**

Image source: [Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019](#)

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Consider a situation where the untreated are very different from the treated:

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**Matching Methods**  
→  
**to Subsample**

**Average Treatment Effect on  
the Treated + ~~Selection Bias~~**

Image source: [Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019](#)

→ matching is a ***pre-analytical procedure***, allowing unbiased inference.

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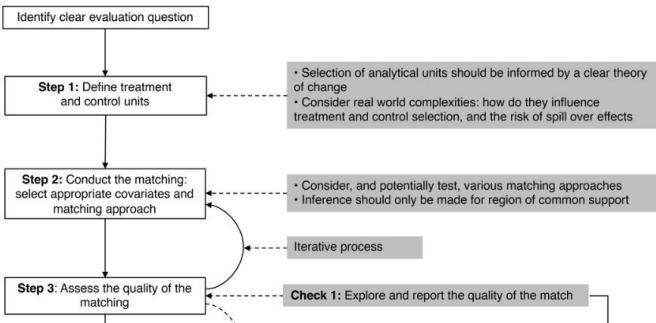
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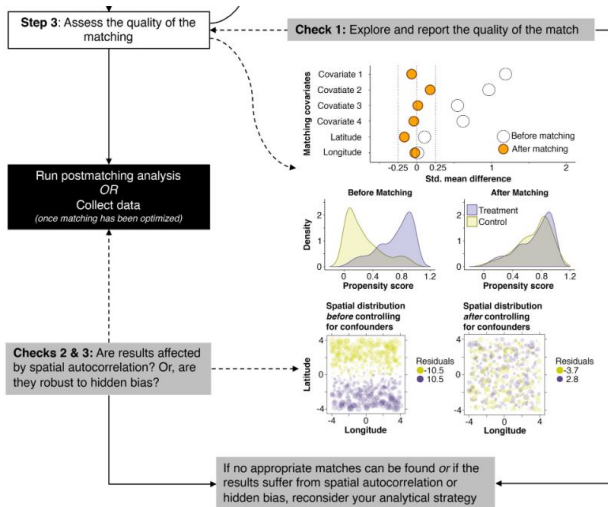


Image source: Schleicher et al. 2020

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The classical overarching conditions for robust causal inference:

- stable unit treatment value assumption (SUTVA)
  - treating one individual unit does not affect another's (potential) outcome
  - treatment is comparable [no (strong) variation in treatment]



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The classical overarching conditions for robust causal inference:

- stable unit treatment value assumption (SUTVA)
  - treating one individual unit does not affect another's (potential) outcome
  - treatment is comparable [no (strong) variation in treatment]
- unconfoundedness (strong ignorability)
  - $(Y(1), Y(0)) \perp D$ : treatment assignment is independent of the outcomes
  - i.e. no omitted variable bias (recall the storch example)
  - or, at least, conditional unconfoundedness  $(Y(1), Y(0)) \perp D|X$

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→  $\pi(X_i) = Pr(D_i = 1|X_i)$  or *propensity score* can be used for matching

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→  $\pi(X_i) = Pr(D_i = 1|X_i)$  or *propensity score* can be used for matching

→ but should maybe not (King and Nielsen 2019), we will see alternatives

# Overview

Here is a general overview of possible matching methods

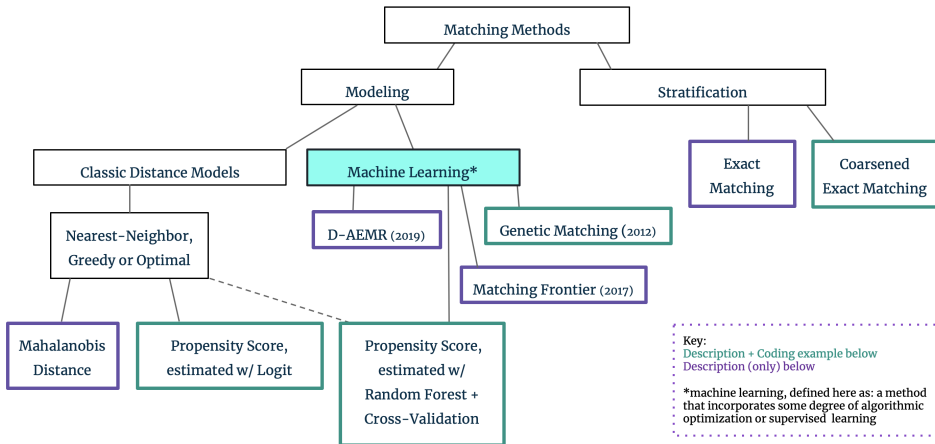


Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019

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Consider that we aim to estimate *conditional average treatment effect* (CATE) (cf. Abrevaya, Hsu and Lieli 2015)

$$CATE = E(Y(1) - Y(0)|X = x) \quad (1)$$





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Consider that we aim to estimate *conditional average treatment effect* (CATE) (cf. Abrevaya, Hsu and Lieli 2015)

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How to find the sufficiently similar subsamples?



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Consider that we aim to estimate *conditional average treatment effect* (CATE) (cf. Abrevaya, Hsu and Lieli 2015)

$$CATE = E(Y(1) - Y(0)|X = x) \quad (1)$$

King and Nielsen (2019) formulate a general pruning (*matching*) function  $M$ :

$$X_\ell = M(X|A_\ell, T_i = 1, T_j = 0, \delta) \equiv M(X|A_\ell) \subseteq X \quad (2)$$

providing  $X_\ell$ , subset of matched observation based on condition  $A_\ell$ .

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providing  $X_\ell$ , subset of matched observation based on condition  $A_\ell$ .

→ in what follows we will look at different pruning method  $\ell$   
to produce the best matched subset  $\delta$ .

# Exact matching

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For exact matching we find exactly equal pairs

$$X_{EM} = M(X|X_i = X_j) \quad (3)$$

*Note:*  $X$  can be a vector of covariates.



# Coarsened Exact Matching (CEM)

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For coarsened exact matching we approximate

$$X_{CEM} = M(X | C_{\delta}(X_i) = C_{\delta}(X_i)) \quad (4)$$

where  $C_{\delta}$  is a vector of same dimensions as  $X$ , but coarsened values, e.g. at "*natural breakpoints*" such as years in one school type, levels of income, etc.

# Mahalanobis Distance Method (MDM)

For multidimensional data, we can identify nearest neighbours in an n-dimensional space.

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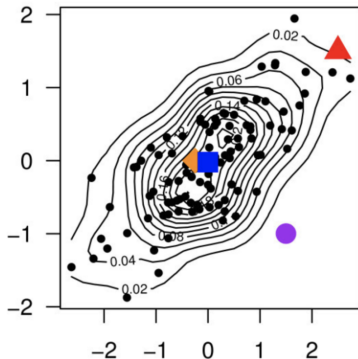
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$$md(X_i, X_j) = \{(X_i - X_j)^\top S^{-1}(X_i - X_j)\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

(Above) Mahalanobis distance measure, where  $S$  denotes the covariance matrix of  $X$ . [24]

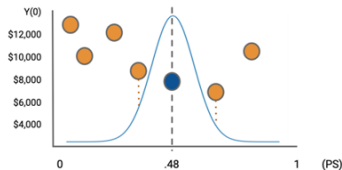
(Left) A contour plot is overlaid on a Mahalanobis distance scatter plot of 100 observations randomly drawn from a bivariate normal distribution. The centroid, in blue, is the reference point for distance between two points.

Image credit and description: Statistics How To: Mahalanobis Distance, Simple Definitions, Examples. Retrieved 10-08-2019 from: <https://www.statisticshowto.datasciencecentral.com/mahalanobis-distance/>

Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019

# Propensity score matching (PSM)

Else, we can estimate probability of being treated, aka propensity score  $\pi(X_i) = Pr(D_i = 1 | X_i)$  by logistic regression



## Advantages

solves matching problem for high dimensions

many available R packages for easy implementation

## Disadvantages

misspecification of PS model = bad matches

matched pairs may be dissimilar across X

Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019



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```
library(tidyverse)
library(MatchIt)
```

```
data("lalonde")
lalonde <- lalonde %>% as_tibble()
```

```
m.out <- matchit(treat ~ age + educ + race + married +
                 nodegree + re74 + re75, data = lalonde,
                 method = "full")
```





# example

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```
> m.out
```

A matchit object

- method: Optimal full matching
- distance: Propensity score
  - estimated with logistic regression
- number of obs.: 614 (original), 614 (matched)
- target estimand: ATT
- covariates: age, educ, race, married, nodegree, re74, re75

# example

```
plot(m.out, type = "ecdf", which.xs = c("age", "re74", "married"))
```

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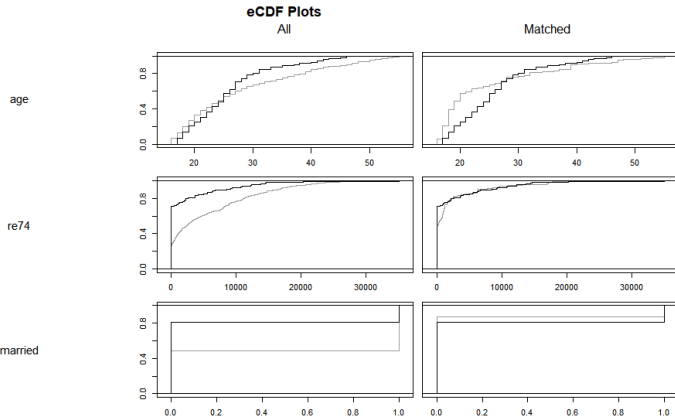
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Code source: [Greifer 2020](#)

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```
psFormula <- formula(treat ~ age + educ + race  
                      + married + nodegree + re74 + re75)
```

```
lalonge$p.score <-  
  glm(psFormula, data = lalonge,  
       family = "binomial")$fitted.values
```

```
lalonge$att.weights <-  
  with(lalonge, treat + (1-treat)*p.score/(1-p.score))
```

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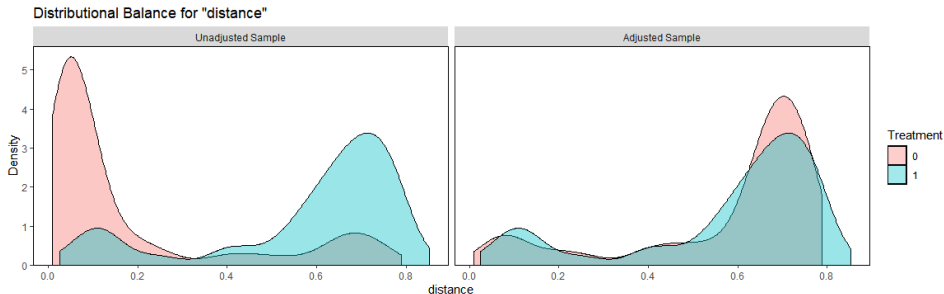
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```
bal.plot(f.build("treat", covs0),  
        data = lalonde, var.name = "p.score",  
        weights = "att.weights", distance = "p.score",  
        method = "weighting", which = "both")
```



Code source: [Greifer 2020](#)

# Intermediate discussion

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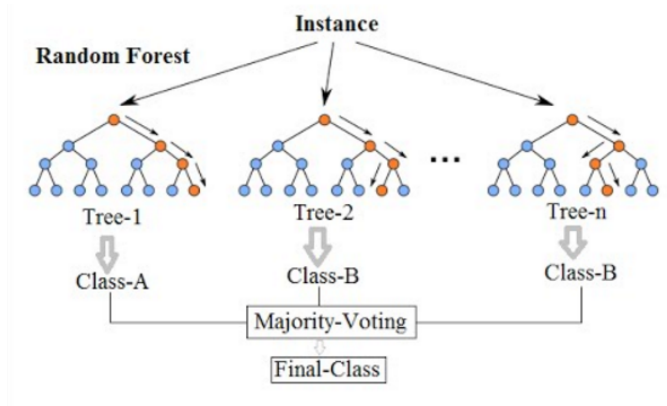
There is a bit of critique on PSM

- King and Nielsen (2019)
  - *"PSM is ... uniquely blind to the often large portion of imbalance"*
  - *"easy to avoid by switching to one of the other popular methods of matching"*
  - i.e.: CEM and MDM
- Sizemore and Alkurdi (2019)
  - test PSM against machine learning based methods
  - logistic PSM  $\succ$  random forest PSM  $\succ$  genetic matching
  - CEM ???



# Random forest (RF)

RF are multiple regression trees classifying the data by partitioning



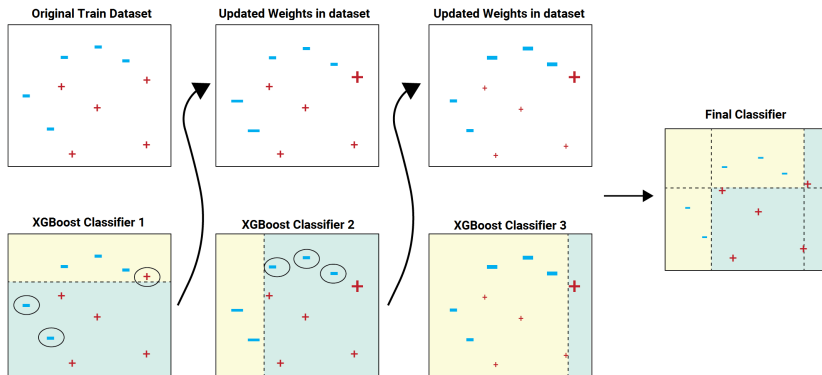
Code source: [Wikipedia](#)

We can use this to predict treatment (aka propensity scores)



# eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost)

Machine learning such as XGBoost or even ensembles can also be used to



Code source: [Quant Insti](#)

→ predict treatment (aka propensity scores)

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# Genetic matching

Genetic Matching combines PSM and MDM

$$GMD(X_i, X_j, W) = \sqrt{(X_i)^T (S^{-\frac{1}{2}})^T W S^{-\frac{1}{2}} (X_i - X_j)} \quad (5)$$

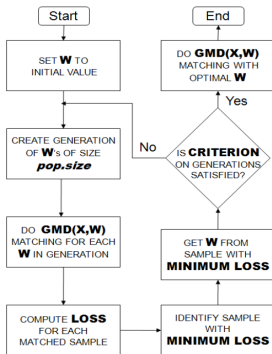


Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019

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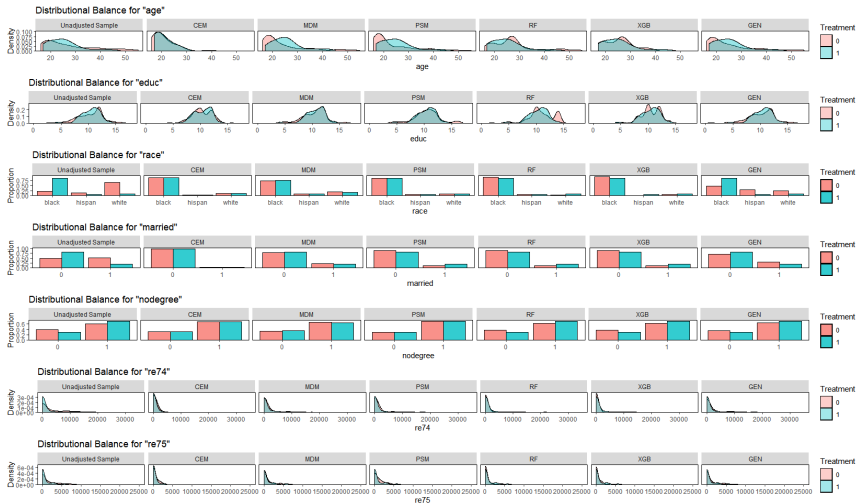
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plotting model comparisons for covariates of the lalonde data set

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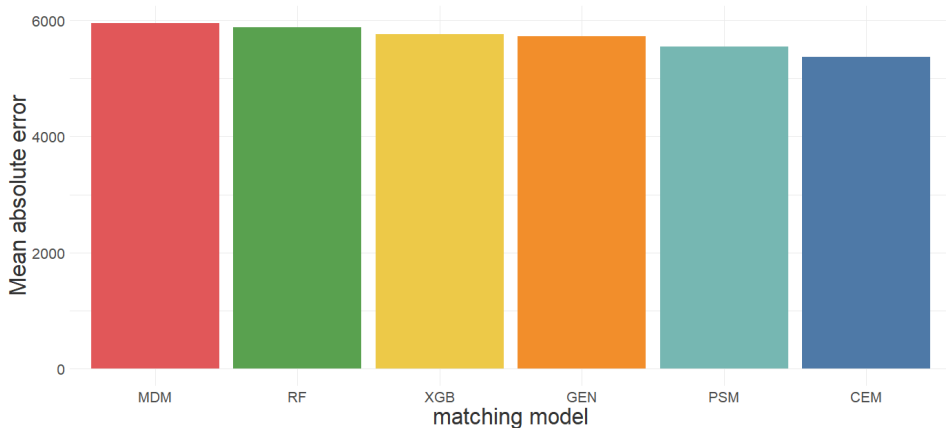
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plotting model comparisons for the lalonde data set, cf. Colson et al. 2016

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- for the comparison above I used nearest neighbour matching, reducing sample size



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- for the comparison above I used nearest neighbour matching, reducing sample size
- maximizing post-match balance does not necessarily improve explanatory model power (Colson et al. 2016)



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- maximizing post-match balance does not necessarily improve explanatory model power (Colson et al. 2016)
- possibly both sample size and balance need to be taken into account (King, Lucas and Nielsen 2017)



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- possibly both sample size and balance need to be taken into account (King, Lucas and Nielsen 2017)
- latest approaches include almost exact matching (Dieng et al. 2018; Dieng et al. 2021), text matching (Roberts, Stewart and Nielsen 2020), generalized optimal matching (Kallus 2020)



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- R packages include MatchIt, Matching, and PanelMatch



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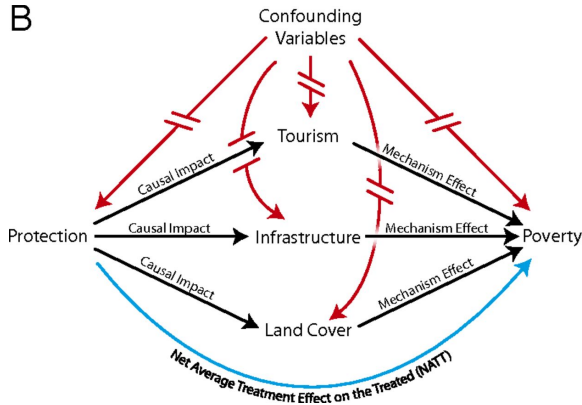


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- latest approaches include almost exact matching (Dieng et al. 2018; Dieng et al. 2021), text matching (Roberts, Stewart and Nielsen 2020), generalized optimal matching (Kallus 2020)
- R packages include MatchIt, Matching, and PanelMatch
- for the debate around propensity score matching (King and Nielsen 2019), see also Hünernmund, (2019)



## an example

Ferraro and Hanauer (2014) use matching approach (MDM) to assess the effect of protected areas on poverty reduction



Causal model of PA on poverty effects, source: Ferraro and Hanauer 2014

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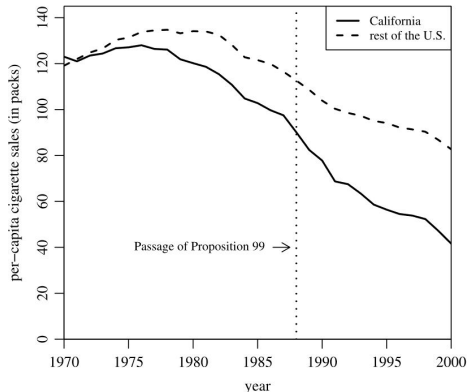
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# Synthetic Controls

What if we do only have *one* treated unit?



California introduces tobacco control in 1988, cf. Abadie et al. 2010

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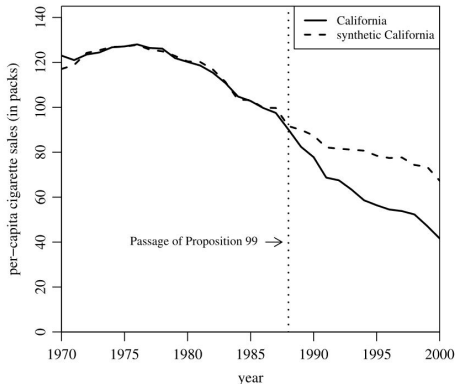
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# a case and an idea

How about we compare to a weighted average of untreated?



California introduces tobacco control in 1988, cf. Abadie et al. 2010

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$$\hat{Y}_{t,post}(0) = \mu + \sum_{i=1}^N w_i Y_{i,T}^{obs} \quad (6)$$

*"In other words, the imputed control outcome for the treated unit is a linear combination of the control units, with intercept  $\mu$  and weights  $w_i$  for control unit  $i$ ." (Doudchenko and Imbens 2020: 7)*

# the process

We compare the treated to the non-treated

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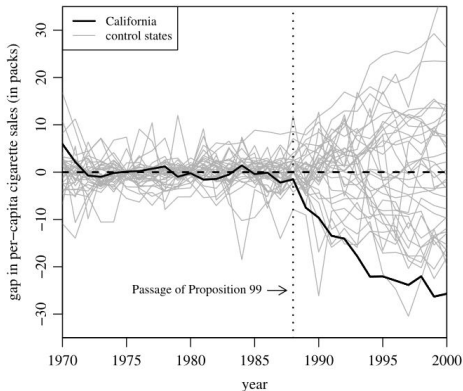


Figure 5. Per-capita cigarette sales gaps in California and placebo gaps in 34 control states (discards states with pre-Proposition 99 MSPE twenty times higher than California's).



# the process

and compute the difference to a counterfactual weighted set of untreated

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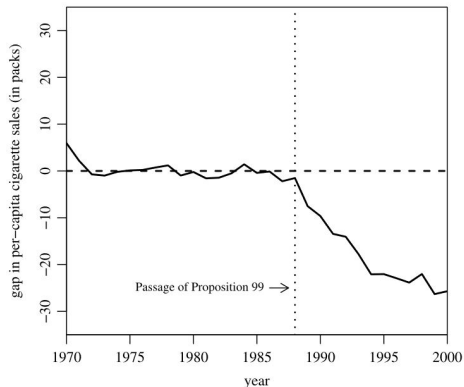
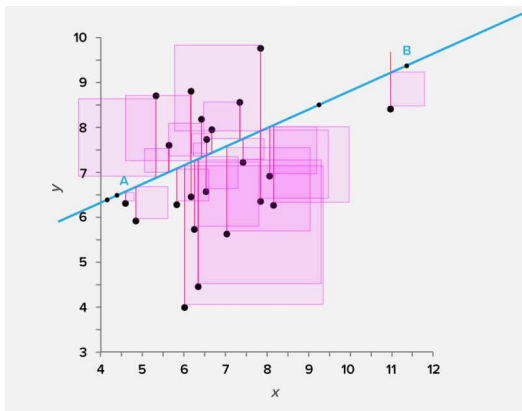


Figure 3. Per-capita cigarette sales gap between California and synthetic California.



# estimation

Recall the ordinary least square estimate (OLS)



OLS, img source: [Gavrilova, 2020](#)

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For  $\hat{Y}_{t,post}(0) = \mu + \sum_{i=1}^N w_i Y_{i,T}^{obs}$

$\mu$  and  $w_i$  can, in principle, be estimate with OLS (cf. Doudchenko and Imbens 2020)

$$(\hat{\mu}^{ols}, \hat{w}^{ols}) = \arg \min_{\mu, w} \sum_{s=1}^{T_0} \left( Y_{0, T_0-s+1}^{obs} - \mu - \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \cdot Y_{0, T_0-s+1}^{obs} \right)^2 \quad (7)$$



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Abadie et al. 2010 impose conditions,  $\mu = 0$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^N w_i = 1$ , and  $w_i \geq 0 \forall i$ .

# estimation

For covariate vector  $X$  we would want to minimize (cf. Doudchenko and Imbens 2020)

$$\|Y_{t,pre}^{obs} - \mu - w^T Y_{c,pre}^{obs}\|_2^2 = (Y_{t,pre}^{obs} - \mu - w^T Y_{c,pre}^{obs})^T (Y_{t,pre}^{obs} - \mu - w^T Y_{c,pre}^{obs}) \quad (8)$$

This matching is often performed on lagged outcomes  $Y_{t-(1,...,T)}$  and other covariates.

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# estimation

For covariate vector  $X$  we would want to minimize (cf. Doudchenko and Imbens 2020)

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This matching is often performed on lagged outcomes  $Y_{t-(1,...,T)}$  and other covariates. So, in simpler terms,  $\|X_{treat} - X_{control} W\|$  which resembles a balancing approach (à la matching).

See Doudchenko and Imbens (2020) for a balanced, cross-validated, elastic net type penalty approach, combining Lasso and ridge regressions to regularize  $w$ .

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# current development

Arkhangelsky et al. 2021 suggest a synthetic diff-in-diff approach, where  $W$  denotes binary treatment, and

SynthControl:

$$(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\tau}^{sc}) = \arg \min_{\mu, \beta, \tau} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T (Y_{it} - \mu - \beta_t - W_{it}\tau)^2 \hat{w}_i^{sc} \quad (9)$$

DiD:

$$(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\tau}^{did}) = \arg \min_{\mu, \alpha, \beta, \tau} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T (Y_{it} - \mu - \alpha_i - \beta_t - W_{it}\tau)^2 \quad (10)$$

SynthDiD:

$$(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\tau}^{sdid}) = \arg \min_{\mu, \beta, \tau} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T (Y_{it} - \mu - \alpha_i - \beta_t - W_{it}\tau)^2 \hat{w}_i \hat{\lambda}_t \quad (11)$$

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A synthetic control approach allows us to

- compare a single treated unit group with an untreated quasi-counterfactual
- you can compute placebo tests for the effect on an untreated unit
- so far, has not been widely applied (for examples see Abadie et al. 2020)
- I think it is so far underestimated (i.e. by applied researchers)



# software

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## available packages

- Synth
- synthdid
- scul
- gsynth



# an example

Bayer and Aklin (2020) use synthetic controls to assess the effect of EU Emission Trading System (ETS) on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions

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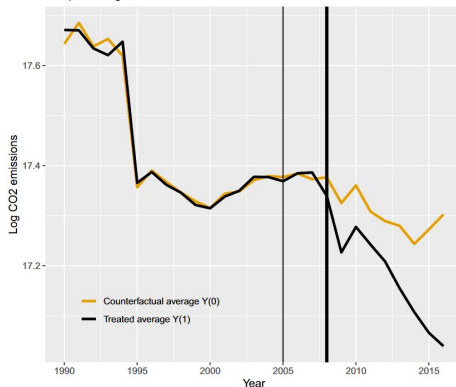
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A Treated and Counterfactual Emission Paths  
Sample averages



Effect of the EU ETS over time, source: Bayer and Aklin 2020

2023 ClimBEco course

# an example

Bayer and Aklin (2020) use synthetic controls to assess the effect of EU Emission Trading System (ETS) on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions

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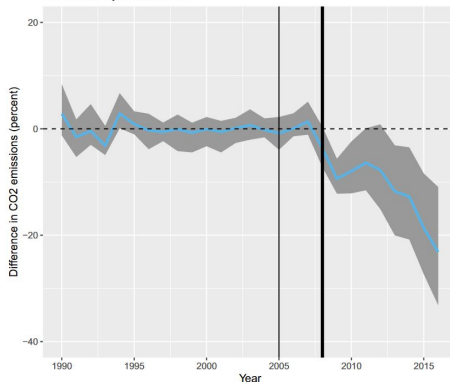
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B ATT Estimates for EU ETS, 2008–2016  
Generalized synthetic control



Effect of the EU ETS over time, source: Bayer and Aklin 2020



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