

# Matching and synthetic controls

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2021 ClimBEco course



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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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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



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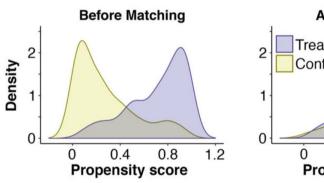
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# STORY TO STO

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



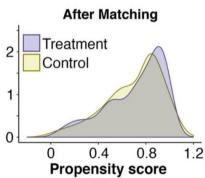


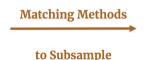
Image source: Schleicher et al. 2020

# 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



Average Treatment Effect on the Treated + Selection Bias

Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019



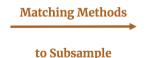
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Consider a situation where the untreated are very different from the treated:

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Non-Random Treatment Assignment



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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# Procedure

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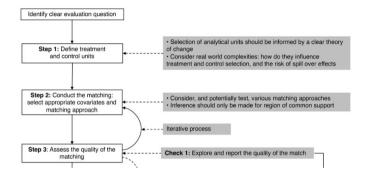
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# **Procedure**

Causal Inference

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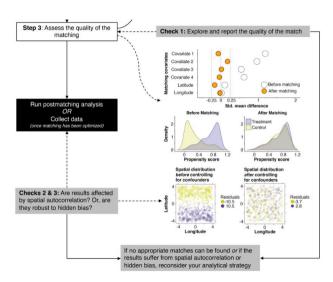


Image source: Schleicher et al. 2020

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- 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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- stable unit treatment value assumption (SUTVA)
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- unconfoundedness (strong ignorability)
  - $\blacksquare$   $(Y(1), Y(0)) \perp T$ : treatment assignment is independent of the outcomes
  - i.e. no omitted variable bias (recall the storch example)
  - $\blacksquare$  or, at least, conditional unconfoundedness  $(Y(1), Y(0)) \perp T | X$



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



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- $\rightarrow \pi(X_i) = Pr(D_i = 1|X_i)$  or propensity score can be used for matching
- → but should maybe not (King and R. Nielsen 2019), we will see alternatives



# Overview

# Here is a general overview of possible matching methods

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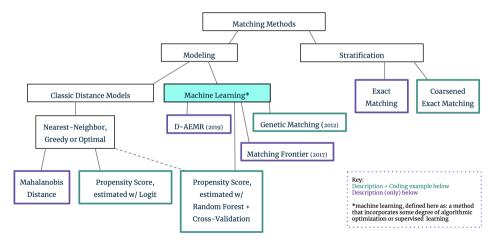


Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019

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

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



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

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

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)

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

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

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

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



# Matching

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ightarrow 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

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

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



# Coarsened Exact Matching (CEM)

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For coarsened exact matching we approximate

$$X_{CEM} = M(X|C_{\delta}(X_i) = C_{\delta}(X_i))$$
 (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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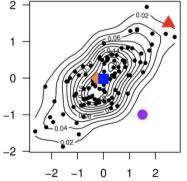
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$$md(X_i, X_j) = \{(X_i - X_j)^{\top} S^{-1} (X_i - X_j)\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

(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/





# Propensity score matching (PSM)

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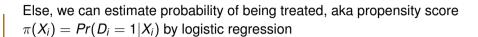
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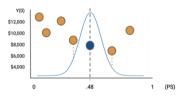
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### Poforoncos







<u>Advantages</u>	<u>Disadvantages</u>
solves matching problem for high dimensions	misspecification of PS model = bad matches
many available R packages for easy implementation	matched pairs may be dissimilar across X

Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019



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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



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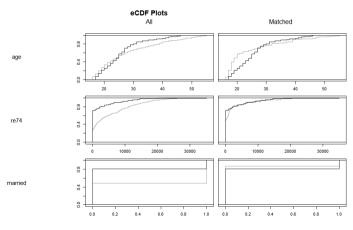
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# plot(m.out, type = "ecdf", which.xs = c("age", "re74", "married")



Code source: Greifer 2020

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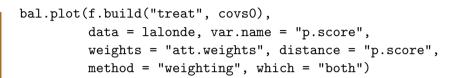
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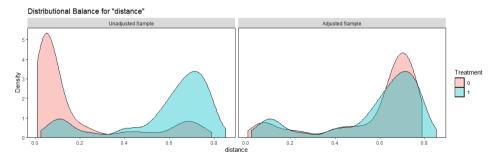
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### References







Code source: Greifer 2020

# Intermediate discussion

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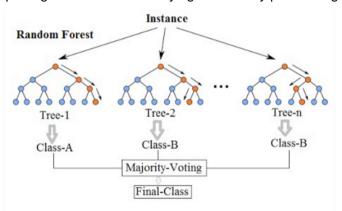
# There is a bit of critique on PSM

- 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 > random forest PSM > 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)

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# eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost)

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

# Matabina

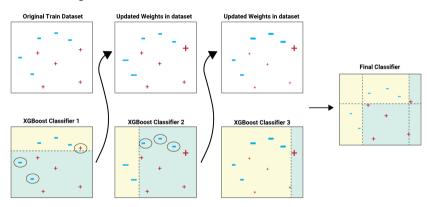
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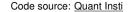
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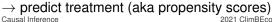
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# Genetic matching

# Genetic Matching combines PSM and MDM

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

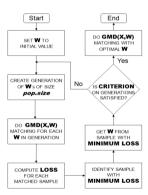


Image source: Sizemore and Alkurdi 2019

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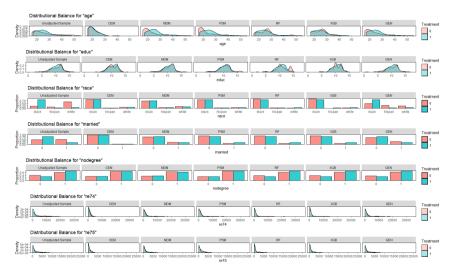
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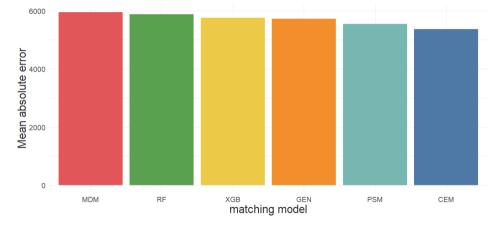
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for the comparison above I used nearest neighbour matching, reducing sample size



# comparison - summary

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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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- possibly both sample size and balance need to be taken into account (King, Lucas and R. A. Nielsen 2017)



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- R packages include MatchIt, Matching, and PanelMatch



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- R packages include MatchIt, Matching, and PanelMatch
- for the debate around propensity score matching (King and R. Nielsen 2019), see also Hünermund, (2019)



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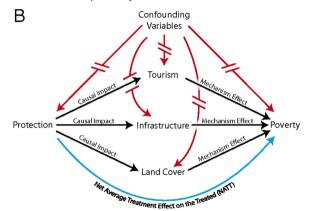
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# The state of the s

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

### Synthetic Controls

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

### 140 — California rest of the U.S. 120 per-capita cigarette sales (in packs) 80 9 . Passage of Proposition 99 -> 20 1970 1975 1980 1990 1995 2000

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

1985 year

### Matching

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### a case and an idea

### How about we compare to a weighted average of untreated?

### .. . . .

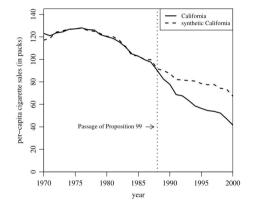
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California introduces tobacco control in 1988, cf. Abadie et al. 2010



### and a notation

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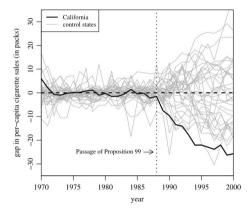


Figure 5. Per-capita cigarette sales gaps in California and placebo gaps in 34 control states (discards states with pre-Proposition 99 MSPE twenty times higher than California's).

### the process

### and compute the difference to a counterfactual weighted set of untreated

### .....

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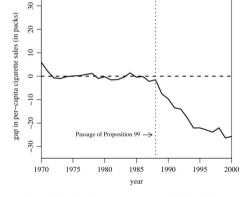
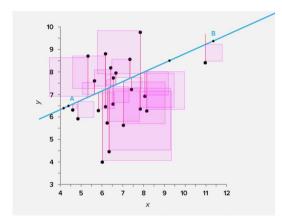


Figure 3. Per-capita cigarette sales gap between California and synthetic California.



### 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)

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



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

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(7)

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



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### For covariate vector x

 $\mu$  and  $w_i$  we would also want to minimize (cf. Doudchenko and Imbens 2020)

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

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



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# NAME OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY

### For covariate vector x

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(8)

This mathing 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 (á 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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Arkhangelsky et al. 2019 suggest a synthetic diff-in-diff approach, where SynthControl:

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

DiD:

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

SynthDiD:

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



### intermediate summary

current development

A synthetic control approach allows us to

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



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**Synthetic Controls** 

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### available packages

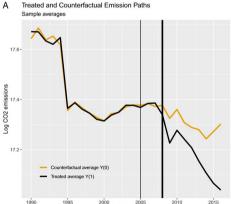
- Synth
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- scul
- gsynth



### 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



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

example



### an example

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### Synthetic Contro

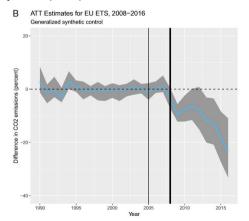
estimation current developm

example

References

# Total Control Control

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



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

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