### Causal Inference Introduction

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#### Introduction

Causal Effect Counterfactual Substitutes Randomized Controlled Trials Statistical Adjustment

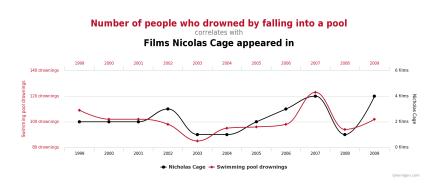
#### The Rubin Causal Model

#### Matching

Propensity Score Matching Distance Matching

#### Examples

## Correlation does not imply causation



http://www.tylervigen.com/spurious-correlations

## Causal Effect given access to a Time Machine

How we would measure causal effect if we had a time machine:

subject	Y(1)	Y(0)	Y(1) - Y(0)
Joe	-5	5	-10
Mary	-10	-5	-5
Sally	0	10	-10
Bob	-20	-5	-15
Mean			-10

### Causal Effect since we don't have a time machine

But we haven't found any time machines yet, so we're usually stuck with this:

subject	Y(1)	Y(0)	Y(1) - Y(0)
Joe	?	5	?
Mary	-10	?	?
Sally	?	10	?
Bob	-20	?	?
Mean			?

## Causal Effect since we don't have a time machine

What if we look at the average of each group?

subject	Y(1)	Y(0)	Y(1) - Y(0)
Joe	?	5	?
Mary	-10	?	?
Sally	?	10	?
Bob	-20	?	?
Mean	-15	7.5	?

Average treatment effect:  $\bar{Y}(1) - \bar{Y}(0) = -22.5$ 

### Causal Effect since we don't have a time machine

- ▶ In general we cannot observe the causal effect directly.
- Estimating causal effects requires:
  - substitutes for the potential outcome,
  - randomization.
  - or statistical adjustment.

#### Substitues to Potential Outcome

#### Examples:

- Maybe you can repeat treatment, e.g. drinking tea before bed.
- Dividing up a piece of plastic and exposing it to a corrosive chemical.
- ▶ The effect of a diet over time by measuring weight.

These tend to carry strong assumptions that may be implicit in the choice of substitution.

#### The Gold Standard: The Randomized Controlled Trial

- ► We cannot compare treatment and control on the same units, so we compare similar units.
- Selection bias is avoided through randomization.
- Well-proven methodology and typically one of the best ways to design a study.

### The Gold Standard: The Randomized Controlled Trial

#### Problems:

- It's not always possible to conduct an experiment.
- It could be cost prohibitive.
- Participants could self-select into the treatment group, e.g. company wellness programs.
- ➤ You may not be involved in the study design, and only receive data post-hoc.
- ▶ It might be unethical to control treatment.

## Statistical Adjustment

- Usually attempts to approximate what a random experiment can achieve.
- Attempts to create similar units.
- ▶ Regression estimate of the outcome.
- Matching to achieve balance.

For the moment let's assume randomization and revisit our example:

subject	Y(1)	Y(0)	Y(1) - Y(0)
Joe	?	5	?
Mary	-10	?	?
Sally	?	10	?
Bob	-20	?	?
Mean	?	?	?

What if we can estimate the unknown values which we can't observe in practice?

Building a linear model on treatment alone,

$$\hat{Y}_i = \alpha + \tau D_i + \epsilon_i$$

we have the least squares estimator of,

$$(\hat{\tau}, \hat{\alpha}) = \arg\min_{\tau, \alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (Y - \alpha - \tau D_i)^2$$

Solving for  $\hat{\tau}$  we end up with,

$$\hat{\tau} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (D_i - \bar{D})(\hat{Y} - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (D_i - \bar{D})^2}$$

This can be shown to be equal to,

$$\hat{\tau} = \bar{Y}(1) - \bar{Y}(0)$$

That is our estimator  $\tau$  is identical to the difference in average outcomes of treatment status.

In general we can estimate our treatment effect with regression

► Controlling for covariates:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \alpha + \tau D_i + \beta X_i + \epsilon_i$$

Interaction with the treatment:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \alpha + \tau D_i + \beta X_i + \gamma D_i (X_i - \bar{X}) + \epsilon_i$$

## Causal Inference Assumptions

What are we assuming here? Treatment is *Strongly Ignorable*:

- ▶ Unconfoundedness: D is independent of (Y(0), Y(1)) conditional on X = x, e.g. the treatment of one group does not affect the other group.
- Overlap:  $c < \mathbb{P}(D = 1 | X = x) < 1 c$ , for c > 0.

# Matching

- Matching tries to avoid and remove selection bias from datasets.
- The goal is to approximate a randomized or controlled trial.
- ► There are various ways to do this, the most commonly seen is propensity matching.
- ► Can also be good for unbalanced groups in any trial, where the size of one group is significantly smaller than another (Maybe an observational study).

# Propensity Score Matching

A propensity score is an approximate model of how likely a subject is to have been in the treatment group.

$$P(D_i = 1|X_i)$$

Solve this using a regression,

$$D_i = \text{logistic}(\alpha + \beta X_i + \epsilon_i)$$

We can then select the control group from the non-treatment population by matching members based on minimizing the difference in this score, e.g. pairing.

# Distance Matching

Additionally we could minimize the distance between covariates,

$$m(i) = \arg\min_{j:W_i \neq W_i} ||X_j - X_i||$$

Where we define  $||X_j - X_i||$  as a distance between the covariate vectors  $X_j$  and  $X_i$  as follows:

$$||X_j - X_i|| := (X_j - X_i)'W(X_j - X_i).$$

where W is defined as

$$W = \mathsf{diag}\{\hat{\sigma}_1^{-2}, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_K^{-2}\}\$$

also known as Mahalanobis distance.

# **Examples**

Let's try some of this out.