Causality

David Puelz

Outline

Cause-and-effect

Potential outcomes and Counterfactuals

RCTs and Obs Studies

Causality?

This seems like a theoretical construct that can't be scientifically probed!

However, it shows up **EVERYWHERE!**

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How Often Should You Shower? Celebrities Ignite a Ferocious Debate

Hollywood types including Jake Gyllenhaal, Mila Kunis, Ashton Kutcher and Dax Shepard take a lax approach to hygiene, stoking a contentious uproar on how often one should bathe. It mirrors a similar discord in the medical community, and among everyday people.

Cause-and-effect \iff observed variation throughout our world

Cause is a statement of something being manipulated or changed Effect is a measure of the change in an outcome of interest

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Cause is a statement of something being manipulated or changed Effect is a measure of the change in an outcome of interest

- "Cause" is the same as an intervention, policy introduction, law change, etc ...
- "Effect" is the unique, independent measurement of how the cause modulated some other part of our system

We see causes all of the time

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- ightarrow States implement stay-at-home orders during the pandemic

Causes might also just be variation in a population

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- → Are dog-lovers nicer people?
- → Does race affect hiring decisions?
- \rightarrow Does age affect COVID-19 mortality?
- \rightarrow Is there a "gender-gap" in salary?

Cause-and-effect \iff policy impacts

Cause-and-effect ←⇒ policy impacts

- What outcomes do we look at?
- How do we measure them?
- Are there other variables that might affect the outcomes and the causes?

Increasing the minimum wage

- What outcomes do we look at? (lower class unemployment rate, income, ...)
- How do we measure them? (government data, surveys, ...)
- Are there other variables that might affect the outcomes and the causes? (current economic conditions, differences among states, ...)

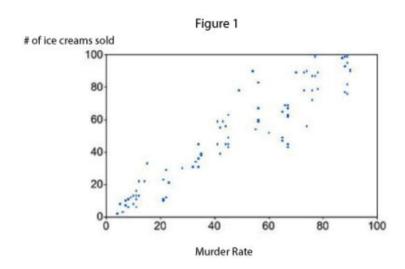
Sweetgreen salad price increase

- What outcomes do we look at? (revenue, count of kale caesars sold, number of daily lunch visitors, ...)
- How do we measure them? (financial data, ...)
- Are there other variables that might affect the outcomes and the causes? (time of year (seasonality), temperature, weather, length of daily wait time, ...)

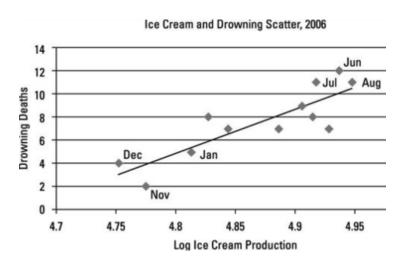
Racial discrimination in hiring?

- What outcomes do we look at? (whether or not a job applicant receives a callback)
- How do we measure them? (follows directly from above ...)
- Are there other variables that might affect the outcomes and the causes? (other resume characteristics, average GPA, brand of university,...)

Ice cream and NYC murder rate



Ice cream and drownings



To sum up cause-and-effect

- Challenges are related to both the system of study and ability to gather the right data.
- With data in hand, you can start to formulate hypotheses and test them.
- There might be lurking variables driving an underlying relationship (ice cream). Only an expert (you!) can identify those and take them into account.

Let's formalize these ideas with some basic notation

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 with this notation, we have the building blocks to talk about policy effects! Example: COVID-19 lockdowns

How did state lockdowns at the beginning of 2020 affect the spread of the virus?

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What are the potential outcomes?

Let's set up the structure of this problem.

Let i denote a state, so

 $i \in \{\text{New York, California, Florida, Texas, South Dakota, ...} \}$

First, we define what z_i is:

$$z_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{no lockdown} \\ 1 & \text{lockdown} \end{cases}$$

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First, we define what z_i is:

$$z_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{no lockdown} \\ 1 & \text{lockdown} \end{cases}$$

Second, we define our outcome: Y_i : let's choose the cases per capita (in state i) after lockdown or no lockdown.

A brief aside:

Defining exactly what the treatment z_i is very hard! It could be a combination of many available data.

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Q: How would you define z_i ?

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Q: How would you define z_i ?

- masking
- bar and restaurant closures
- school closures
- curfews
- limits to exercise
- retail store closures

Organizing our data: The Science Table

i (state)	z_i (lockdown)	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
New York			
Florida			
California			
Texas			
South Dakota			
Illinois			
<u> </u>	:	:	

Organizing our data: The Science Table

i (state)	z_i (lockdown)	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
New York	1		
Florida	0		
California	1		
Texas	0		
South Dakota	0		
Illinois	1		
<u>:</u>	:	•	:

Organizing our data: The Science Table (CDC, cases/100k)

i (state)	z_i (lockdown)	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
New York	1		.0034
Florida	0	.007	
California	1		.0014
Texas	0	.004	
South Dakota	0	.0028	
Illinois	1		.002
:		:	:

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What is the ideal scenario?

We are able to know both of the potential outcomes for each state!



and $Y_{\rm NY}$



Defining a causal effect for NY

We can define the causal effect of the "lockdown treatment" as the difference between the two potential outcomes.

$$au_{\mathsf{NY}} = Y_{\mathsf{NY}} \left(\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \end{array} \right) - Y_{\mathsf{NY}} \left(\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \end{array} \right)$$

or written more generally:

$$\tau_i = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)$$

The fundamental problem of causal inference

We only observe one of the two potential outcomes for New York and all other states. In general, we always only observe one of two potential outcomes for our units of study.

- economics of COVID policy: a state either locks down or doesn't
- drug trials: an individual either receives the medicine or the placebo
- gender wage gap: a person is either male or female

The unknown outcomes are called the missing potential outcomes or counterfactuals. This is what makes causality a nontrivial task ... it is a missing data problem.

Is all hope lost?

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Definitely not! The potential outcomes will **always** be used as a starting point. Depending on the data and question to be answered, there are several approaches:

- Randomization and the sample average treatment effect
- Observational data before-and-after and DiD approaches
- Fancier (probabilistic) models to address confounding.
 Regression, etc. (the "Prediction" part of class).

The average causal effect across the sample

This is called the sample average treatment effect. In stats language, it is called an estimand. Let's suppose we have *N* units in our data.

SATE =
$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \tau_i$$

= $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)\}$

We still don't know how to calculate this because of the fundamental problem of causal inference.

However, here's an idea ...

Estimator of the SATE

We have the **observed** outcome and treatment. Let's call them:

$$Y_{obs} = (Y_1, ..., Y_N)$$

 $Z_{obs} = (Z_1, ..., Z_N)$

Let's define our estimator of the **SATE** as the simple difference-in-means (DiM) between the treated and control units.

$$\widehat{\mathsf{SATE}} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i} \mathbb{1}(Z_{i} = 1)} \sum_{i} \mathbb{1}(Z_{i} = 1) Y_{i} - \frac{1}{\sum_{i} \mathbb{1}(Z_{i} = 0)} \sum_{i} \mathbb{1}(Z_{i} = 0) Y_{i}$$

Q: When can this be reasonably interpreted as the average causal effect, when can it not?

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- The treatment and control groups that you're computing the "means" over are otherwise equal in all other attributes!

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- The treatment and control groups that you're computing the "means" over are otherwise equal in all other attributes!
- This eliminates the confounding issue!
- In short, randomizing the treatment (cause) is the gold standard for understanding causality.

So we have a point estimate of the causal effect ...

But, what about uncertainty?

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But, what about uncertainty?

- Let's use the known process of randomization to our advantage
- It is common to characterize uncertainty under a particular null hypothesis.
- Think of the null as the not interesting or exciting causal conclusion. "There is no causal effect".

$$H_0: Y_i(0) = Y_i(1)$$
 for all *i*

(Then, we use our actual data to probe this statement.)

We now know all potential outcomes!

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unit 2	0	.007	??
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unit 4	0	.004	??
unit 5	0	.0028	??
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:	÷.	:	:

But where does uncertainty come in?

- Let's go back to our original DiM estimate
- This is given by a single number denoting the difference in average outcome of treated and control units

$$\begin{split} Z_{\text{obs}} &= (Z_1,...,Z_N) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{DiM} &= \frac{1}{\sum_i \mathbb{1}(Z_i = 1)} \sum_i \mathbb{1}(Z_i = 1) Y_i - \frac{1}{\sum_i \mathbb{1}(Z_i = 0)} \sum_i \mathbb{1}(Z_i = 0) Y_i \\ &= \text{``function of } Y \text{ and } Z\text{'''} \end{split}$$

 $Y_{obs} = (Y_1, ..., Y_N)$

So, let's write out the estimate explicitly as DiM(Y, Z).

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- For example, in the simplest case, the randomization could be done by flipping a fair coin for each unit i. If heads, unit i is in control, if tails, unit i is in treatment.

- If I have a randomized experiment, I know exactly how the analyst allocated units to treatment and control
- For example, in the simplest case, the randomization could be done by flipping a fair coin for each unit i. If heads, unit i is in control, if tails, unit i is in treatment.
- The point is that I have an experimental design, P(Z), from which I can generate many alternative treatments!
- We write an alternative treatment as $Z' \sim P(Z)$

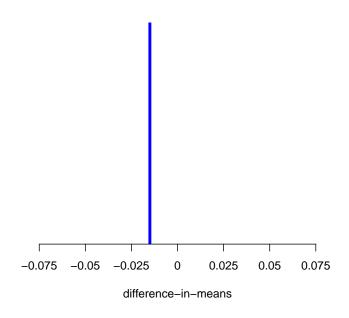
Importantly, under the H_0 , I can now generate a bunch of alternative values of the DiM statistic $\underline{\text{DiM}(Y,Z')}$

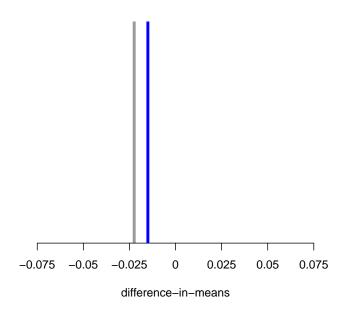
Q: Why do we obtain new values of the difference-in-means (DiM) for alternative draws of the treatment/control allocation, Z'?

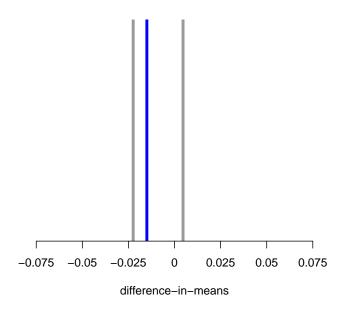
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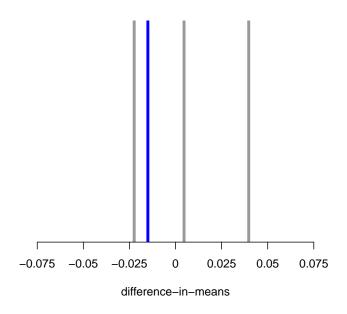
DiM(Y, Z) = average Y for treated - average Y for control

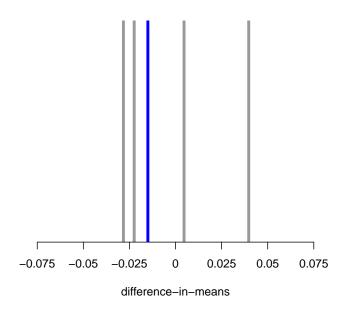
For a new Z', the groups of treated units and control units are different! So, the averages will be different and thus DiM(Y, Z') will be different.

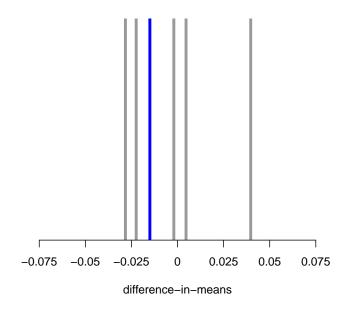


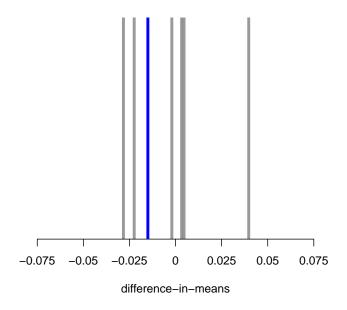


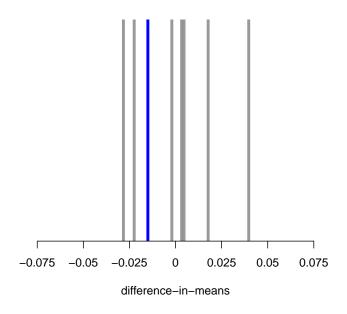


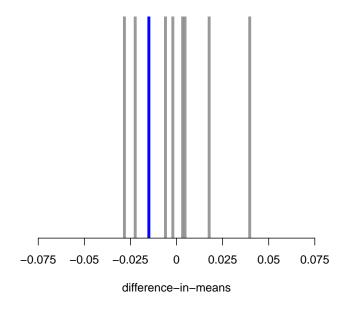


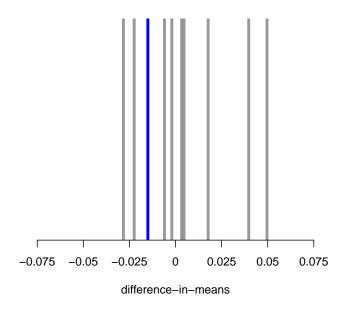


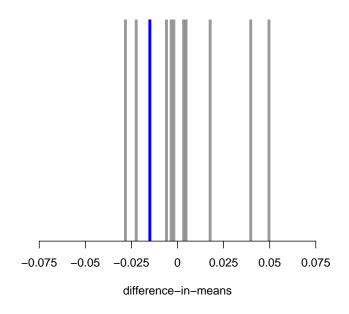


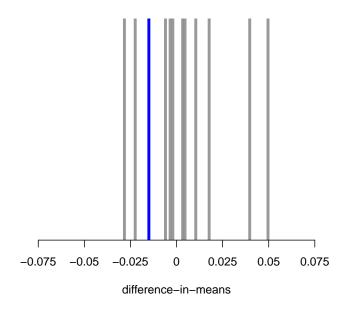


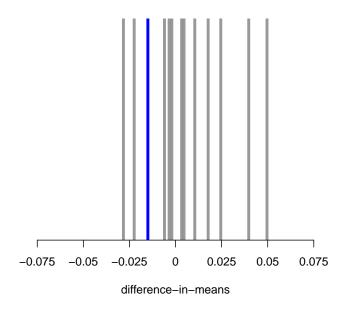


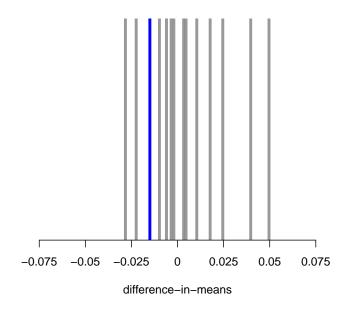


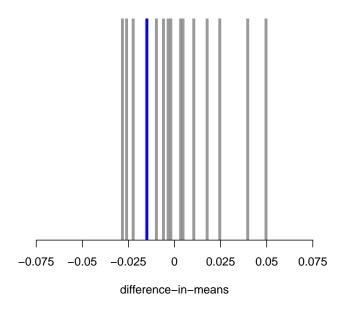


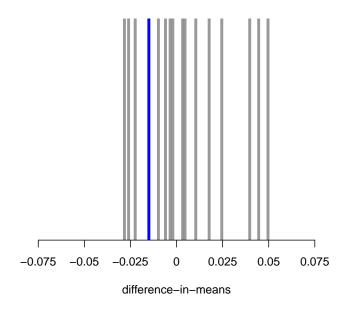


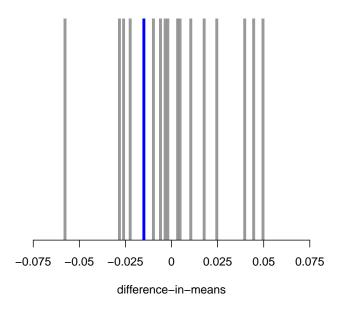


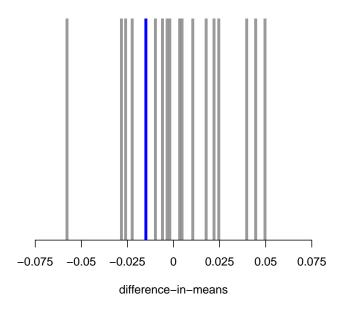


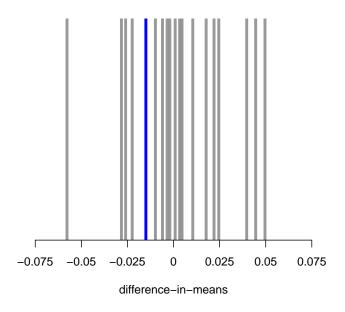


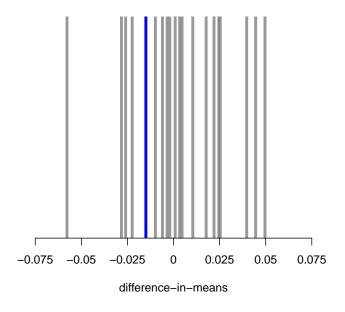


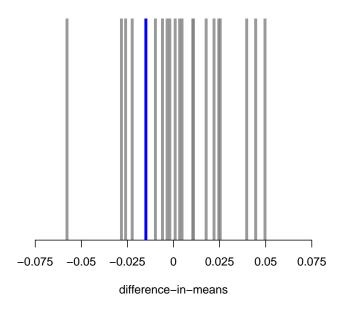


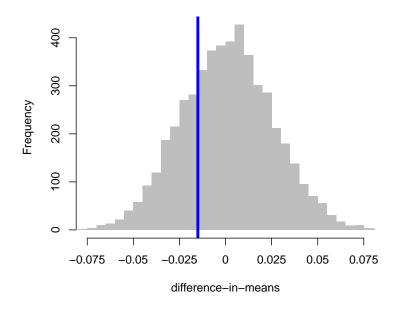












Fisher randomization test (1935)

$$H_0: Y_i(0) = Y_i(1)$$
 for all *i*

The procedure:

```
1. DiM_{obs} = DiM(Y_{obs}, Z_{obs}).
```

- 2. Draw $Z' \sim P(Z')$, store $DiM_r = DiM(Y', Z') \stackrel{H_0}{=} DiM(Y_{obs}, Z')$.
- 3. p-value = $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}\{\mathsf{DiM}_r \ge \mathsf{DiM}_{\mathsf{obs}}\}]$.

This beautifully simple procedure tells you whether or not your causal effect is "significant" (under the null hypothesis of no effect)!

Summary of DiM and FRT

- First, we defined potential outcomes, $Y_i(0)$ and $Y_i(1)$
- Second, we wrote down an estimand (SATE) and estimator (DiM) of the average causal effect
- Third, we decided that a point estimate isn't enough, we need uncertainty!
- Fourth, we discussed the Fisher randomization test (FRT) as a simple and powerful procedure for characterizing uncertainty using the experimental design, P(Z).

From randomized experiments to observational studies

The goal is always the same, estimate the causal effect of some cause/treatment/intervention.

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- → Randomized experimental data: The treatment allocation is randomized among study units. This makes treatment and control group comparable and estimating causal effects straightforward.
- → Observational study data: The treatment allocation is not randomized, but simply observed.
 - * "I observe states lockdown and not lockdown"
 - * "I observe minimum wage increases in some places and not others"

We can't control what we observe, but we can still try to use this variation to answer interesting causal questions!

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 - * Compare groups of restaurants in NJ to *similar* groups of restaurants in PA: subclassification / statistical control
 - * Compare the same group *before* and *after* the intervention: panel comparison / before-after design
 - * Compare before-after difference in NJ to before-after difference in PA: difference-in-differences

Cross-sectional comparison

This one is simple.

Define \overline{Y}^{NJ} and \overline{Y}^{PA} as the average percentage of full-time employees across fast-food restaurants in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, respectively.

$$\mathsf{causal}\ \mathsf{effect} = \overline{Y}^{\mathsf{NJ}} \big(\mathsf{treatment}\big)\ - \overline{Y}^{\mathsf{PA}} \big(\mathsf{control}\big)$$

Q: What are some issues with this?

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Q: What are some issues with this?

confounding! NJ and PA might be different in other ways, they have their own economies, political issues, populations, etc.

Statistical control (matching)

This one tries to address the confounding.

Pick covariates X in the data that might be confounding. Compute the causal effect only on treatment and control units with identical values of X.

$$\mathsf{causal} \; \mathsf{effect} = \overline{Y}_{X = \mathsf{Taco} \; \mathsf{Bell}}^{\mathsf{NJ}} - \overline{Y}_{X = \mathsf{Taco} \; \mathsf{Bell}}^{\mathsf{PA}}$$

It is called matching because you match on like values of covariates, i.e., compare apples-to-apples!

Q: What other X's could be used for matching?

Statistical control (matching)

This one tries to address the confounding.

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It is called matching because you match on like values of covariates, i.e., compare apples-to-apples!

Q: What other X's could be used for matching?
geographic location, closeness to NJ-PA border, urban or rural area

Panel comparison

What if we had our data measured *over time*. This is called panel or longitudinal data.

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$$Y_{i, ext{before}}^{ ext{NJ}} \longrightarrow \min ext{ wage hike} \longrightarrow Y_{i, ext{after}}^{ ext{NJ}}$$
 $Y_{i, ext{before}}^{ ext{PA}} \longrightarrow \min ext{ wage hike} \longrightarrow Y_{i, ext{after}}^{ ext{PA}}$

where i is a fast-food restaurant.

causal effect
$$= \overline{Y}_{after}^{NJ} - \overline{Y}_{before}^{NJ}$$

Q: What are some issues with this?

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where i is a fast-food restaurant.

causal effect
$$= \overline{Y}_{after}^{NJ} - \overline{Y}_{before}^{NJ}$$

Q: What are some issues with this?

actually, confounding again! time is potentially an issue (remember our ice cream example).

Difference-in-differences

This one tries to remove time-trend confounding by using panel data from both the treated state (NJ) and the control state (PA).

There are four outcomes of interest now (see previous slide): $\overline{Y}_{\text{before}}^{\text{NJ}}, \overline{Y}_{\text{after}}^{\text{PA}}, \overline{Y}_{\text{before}}^{\text{PA}}, \overline{Y}_{\text{after}}^{\text{PA}} \leftarrow \text{average full-time employment rates}$

$$\text{causal effect (DiD)} = (\overline{Y}_{\text{after}}^{\text{NJ}} - \overline{Y}_{\text{before}}^{\text{NJ}}) - (\overline{Y}_{\text{after}}^{\text{PA}} - \overline{Y}_{\text{before}}^{\text{PA}})$$

Why does this work?

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Why does this work?

- answer 1: picture
- answer 2: some math

4*N potential outcomes, 2 for each state.

$$\{Y_i^{\mathsf{NJ}}(0),Y_i^{\mathsf{NJ}}(1),Y_i^{\mathsf{PA}}(0),Y_i^{\mathsf{PA}}(1)\}\quad \text{for all } i=1,...,N$$

4*N potential outcomes, 2 for each state.

```
 \begin{aligned} \text{causal effect (DiD)} &= \left(\mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{NJ}}(1) \mid \text{after}] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{NJ}}(0) \mid \text{after}]\right) \\ &+ \left(\mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{NJ}}(0) \mid \text{after}] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{NJ}}(0) \mid \text{before}]\right) \\ &- \left(\mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{PA}}(0) \mid \text{after}] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{PA}}(0) \mid \text{before}]\right) \end{aligned}
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\begin{aligned} & \textbf{first part} &= \mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{NJ}}(1) \mid \text{after}] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i^{\text{NJ}}(0) \mid \text{after}] \\ &= \text{sample average treatment effect (of treated)} \end{aligned}
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parallel trend assumption: second part = 0