Data 102 Lecture 15:

Causal inference III

Lecture 15 overview

- Why observational studies?
- What goes wrong when we don't have randomized treatment?
- The unconfoundedness assumption offers a way back
- Three methods for estimating the ATE
 - Outcome regression
 - Inverse propensity score weighting
 - Matching

Drawbacks about randomized experiments

Experiments may have low power

Usually have small sample sizes because they are expensive to run

Some experiments are infeasible

- Too expensive
- Unethical

E.g. Cannot design an experiment to test whether smoking causes lung cancer, because it is unethical to randomize people into smoking vs non-smoking

A lot of observational (non-experimental) data...

Credit card transaction information

Website/app user logs

Electronic Health Records

Census, tax returns

Satellite images

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Can we do causal inference using observational data?

What goes wrong when we don't have

randomized treatment?

A superpopulation model...

 Z_i = Treatment indicator

 $Y_i(1), Y_i(0) = Potential outcomes$

 X_i = Covariate vector [age, gender, etc.]

We usually assume that we observe i.i.d. Samples $(X_i, Z_i, Y_i(1), Y_i(0))$ drawn from a superpopulation [i.e. a density over (x,z,y(1),y(0))]

The average treatment effect (ATE) is now an expectation:

$$\tau = \mathbb{E}[Y(1) - Y(0)]$$

A superpopulation model...

More details in whiteboard notes...

Simpson's paradox / kidney stones example revisited

Z = 1(Treatment B)

Y(1) = 1(Recovery under Treatment B)

Y(0) = 1(Recovery under Treatment A)

X = 1(small kidney stones)	X	= 1	(small	kidney	stones
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Then we get $E[Y(o) Z=o]$	= 0.83, E[Y(1) Z=1] = 0.78
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	Treatment A helps	Treatment B helps
Large kidney stones	69% (55 / 80)	73% (192 / 263)
Small kidney stones	87% (234 / 270)	93% (81 / 87)
All patients	83% (289 / 350)	78% (273 / 350)

From Charig et al. (1986)

Simpson's paradox / kidney stones example revisited

The prima facie causal effect is

$$\tau_{PF} = \mathbb{E}[Y(1)|Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[Y(0)|Z=0]$$
$$= 0.78 - 0.83 = -0.05$$

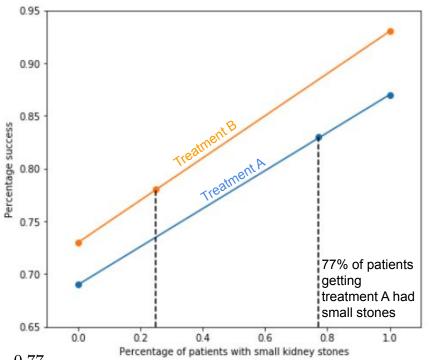
This is not equal to the ATE because of selection bias:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y(1)|Z=1] \neq \mathbb{E}[Y(1)]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y(0)|Z=0] \neq \mathbb{E}[Y(0)]$$

The treated and control groups are

different:
$$\mathbb{P}(X = 1|Z = 1) = 0.25$$
, $\mathbb{P}(X = 1|Z = 0) = 0.77$



Overcoming this with the unconfoundedness assumption

Unconfoundedness assumption

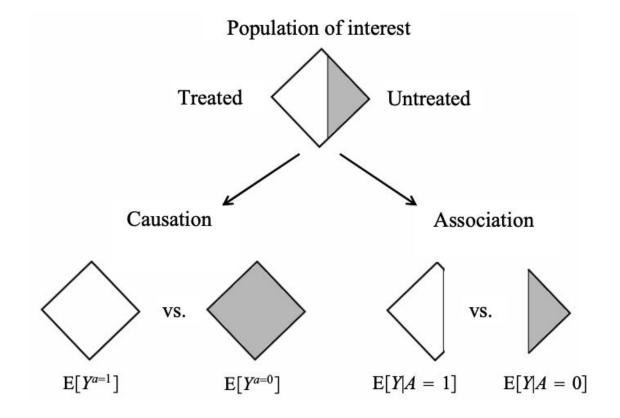
Methods for estimating ATE under confoundedness

- 1. Outcome regression
- 2. Inverse propensity score weighting
- 3. Matching

Method 1: Outcome regression

Method 2: Inverse propensity score weighting

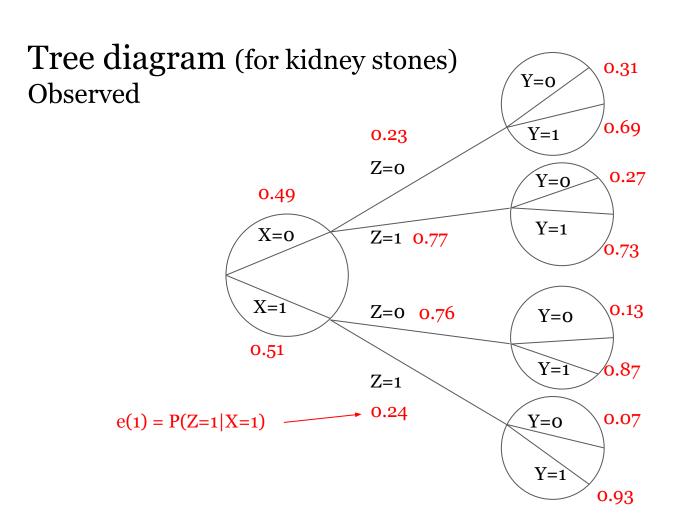
Another way to think about observational studies...

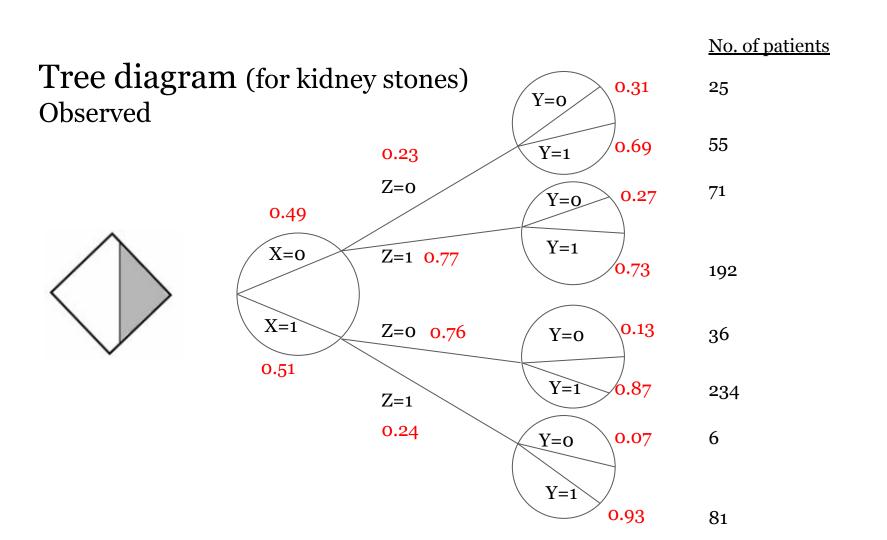


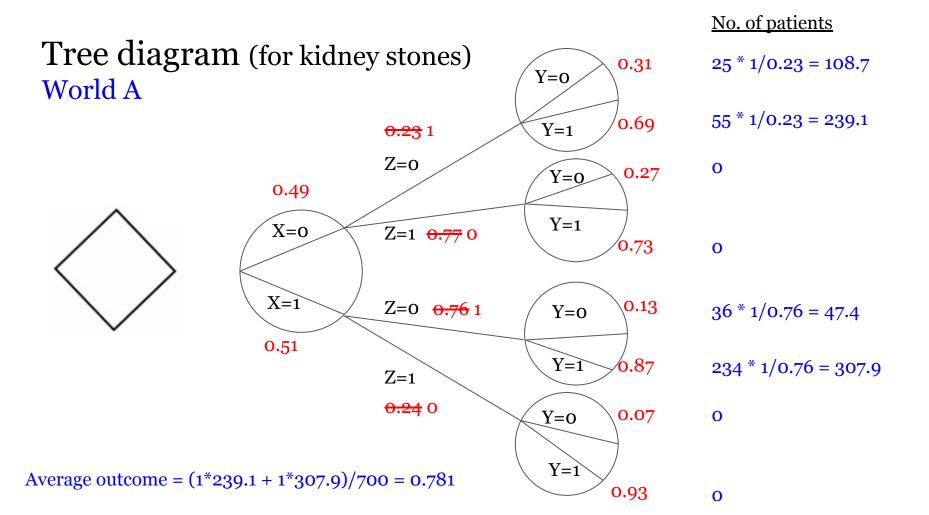
Propensity score is the probability of being treated

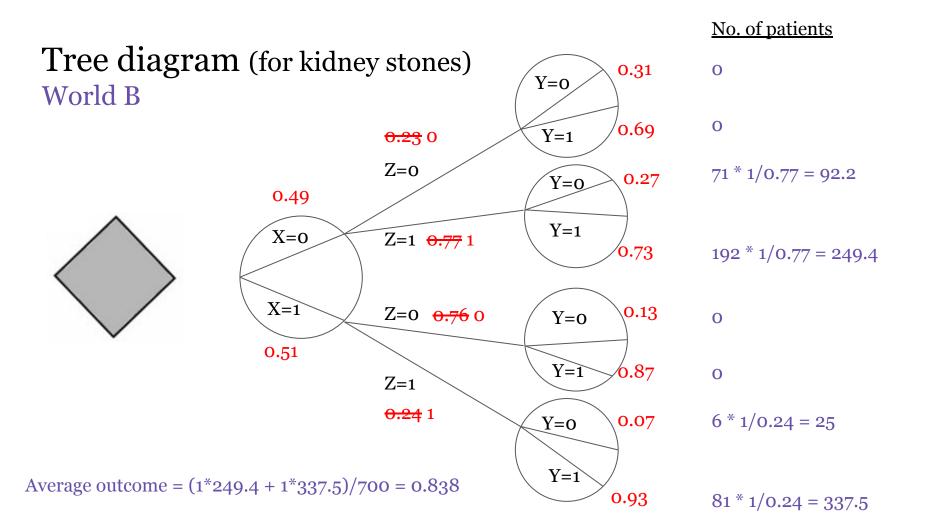
$$e(x) = \mathbb{P}(Z = 1|X = x)$$

Tree diagram Y=0Y=1Z=0Y=0_ Y=1X=o Z=1X=1 Z=o Y=o Y=1 Z=1Y=o Y=1









ATE calculation with IPW

ATE = Average outcome in World B - Average outcome in World A

= 0.838 - 0.781

= 0.057

Should be the same as the answer gotten from earlier in lecture, but different because of rounding...

Propensity score theorems