

Causal Inference under Interference

Ye Wang
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

at University of Wisconsin-Madison

Why do we care about causality?

- ▶ Most social science theories take the form of causal relationships.

Why do we care about causality?

- ▶ Most social science theories take the form of causal relationships.
- ▶ What would happen to Y if Z changes?

Why do we care about causality?

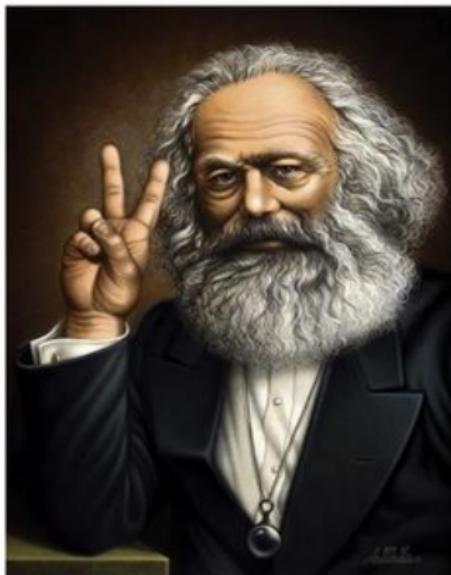
- ▶ Most social science theories take the form of causal relationships.
- ▶ What would happen to Y if Z changes?
- ▶ We call Y the outcome and Z the treatment.

Why do we care about causality?

- ▶ Most social science theories take the form of causal relationships.
- ▶ What would happen to Y if Z changes?
- ▶ We call Y the outcome and Z the treatment.
- ▶ The better we understand causal relationships, the better we can design policy interventions.

Why do we care about causality?

- ▶ “The philosophers have only interpreted the world, in various ways; the point is to change it.”



Why experiments?

- ▶ Experiments ensure that the identified causal relationship is not confounded by other variables.

Why experiments?

- ▶ Experiments ensure that the identified causal relationship is not confounded by other variables.
- ▶ The validity of the results does not hinge on the chosen model.

Why experiments?

- ▶ Experiments ensure that the identified causal relationship is not confounded by other variables.
- ▶ The validity of the results does not hinge on the chosen model.
- ▶ It is widely treated as the “golden rule” for causal inference.

Why experiments?

- ▶ Experiments ensure that the identified causal relationship is not confounded by other variables.
- ▶ The validity of the results does not hinge on the chosen model.
- ▶ It is widely treated as the “golden rule” for causal inference.
- ▶ But there are limitations.

Why experiments?

- ▶ Experiments ensure that the identified causal relationship is not confounded by other variables.
- ▶ The validity of the results does not hinge on the chosen model.
- ▶ It is widely treated as the “golden rule” for causal inference.
- ▶ But there are limitations.
- ▶ Feasibility, cost, external validity, etc.

How do we define causality?

- ▶ There has been a long history of defining causality.

How do we define causality?

- ▶ There has been a long history of defining causality.
- ▶ We follow the current practice and define causality using counterfactuals.

How do we define causality?

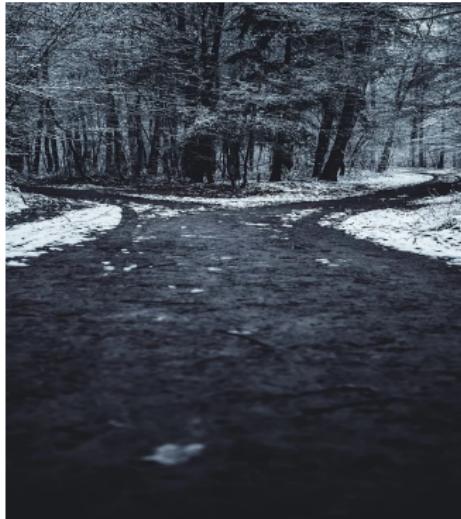
- ▶ There has been a long history of defining causality.
- ▶ We follow the current practice and define causality using counterfactuals.
- ▶ Ideally, we travel back to the past with a time machine and alter the value of Z .

How do we define causality?

- ▶ There has been a long history of defining causality.
- ▶ We follow the current practice and define causality using counterfactuals.
- ▶ Ideally, we travel back to the past with a time machine and alter the value of Z .
- ▶ We then observe what would happen to Y .

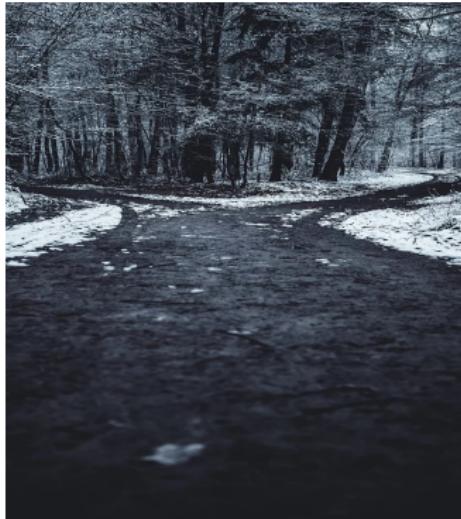
How do we define causality?

- ▶ “Two roads diverged in a wood, and I—
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.”
— Robert Frost, *The Road Not Taken*



How do we define causality?

- ▶ “Two roads diverged in a wood, and I—
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.”
— Robert Frost, *The Road Not Taken*



- ▶ This simple idea is captured by the Neyman-Rubin model.

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We possess a sample of N units.

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We possess a sample of N units.
- ▶ Denote the outcome of interest for unit i as Y_i and the treatment as Z_i .

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We possess a sample of N units.
- ▶ Denote the outcome of interest for unit i as Y_i and the treatment as Z_i .
- ▶ Then, we have

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} Y_i(0), & Z_i = 0 \\ Y_i(1), & Z_i = 1. \end{cases}$$

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We possess a sample of N units.
- ▶ Denote the outcome of interest for unit i as Y_i and the treatment as Z_i .
- ▶ Then, we have

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} Y_i(0), & Z_i = 0 \\ Y_i(1), & Z_i = 1. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ $Y_i(d)$ is called the “potential outcome.”

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We possess a sample of N units.
- ▶ Denote the outcome of interest for unit i as Y_i and the treatment as Z_i .
- ▶ Then, we have

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} Y_i(0), & Z_i = 0 \\ Y_i(1), & Z_i = 1. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ $Y_i(d)$ is called the “potential outcome.”
- ▶ $\tau_i = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)$ is the individualistic treatment effect.

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We call the average of τ_i , $\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i$, the average treatment effect (ATE).

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We call the average of τ_i , $\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i$, the average treatment effect (ATE).
- ▶ This is our estimand.

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We call the average of τ_i , $\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i$, the average treatment effect (ATE).
- ▶ This is our estimand.
- ▶ When the treatment is randomly assigned, we can estimate the ATE with the group-mean-difference estimator.

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We call the average of τ_i , $\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i$, the average treatment effect (ATE).
- ▶ This is our estimand.
- ▶ When the treatment is randomly assigned, we can estimate the ATE with the group-mean-difference estimator.
- ▶ Yet the framework is built upon the Stable Unit Treatment Value Assumption (SUTVA).

The Neyman-Rubin model

- ▶ We call the average of τ_i , $\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i$, the average treatment effect (ATE).
- ▶ This is our estimand.
- ▶ When the treatment is randomly assigned, we can estimate the ATE with the group-mean-difference estimator.
- ▶ Yet the framework is built upon the Stable Unit Treatment Value Assumption (SUTVA).
- ▶ When SUTVA is violated, we have interference.

Interference

- ▶ Interference refers to the phenomenon that the outcome of one observation is affected by the treatment of other observations.

Interference

- ▶ Interference refers to the phenomenon that the outcome of one observation is affected by the treatment of other observations.
- ▶ It is also known as “spillover effect,” “diffusion effect,” or “peer effect” in the literature.

Interference

- ▶ Interference refers to the phenomenon that the outcome of one observation is affected by the treatment of other observations.
- ▶ It is also known as “spillover effect,” “diffusion effect,” or “peer effect” in the literature.
- ▶ But interference differs from contagion.

Interference

- ▶ Interference refers to the phenomenon that the outcome of one observation is affected by the treatment of other observations.
- ▶ It is also known as “spillover effect,” “diffusion effect,” or “peer effect” in the literature.
- ▶ But interference differs from contagion.
- ▶ The phenomenon is prevalent in the real world.

Interference

- ▶ Interference refers to the phenomenon that the outcome of one observation is affected by the treatment of other observations.
- ▶ It is also known as “spillover effect,” “diffusion effect,” or “peer effect” in the literature.
- ▶ But interference differs from contagion.
- ▶ The phenomenon is prevalent in the real world.
- ▶ Two questions: Does interference affect the estimation of the ATE? How do we estimate the spillover effects?

Interference

- ▶ What does interference change in the Neyman-Rubin framework?

Interference

- ▶ What does interference change in the Neyman-Rubin framework?



Interference

- ▶ What does interference change in the Neyman-Rubin framework?



Estimate the direct effect

- ▶ Sävje, Aronow, and Hudgens (2021): we can still estimate the expected average treatment effect (EATE)

Estimate the direct effect

- ▶ Sävje, Aronow, and Hudgens (2021): we can still estimate the expected average treatment effect (EATE)
- ▶ The group-mean-difference estimator will still be unbiased and consistent under most experimental designs.

Estimate the direct effect

- ▶ Sävje, Aronow, and Hudgens (2021): we can still estimate the expected average treatment effect (EATE)
- ▶ The group-mean-difference estimator will still be unbiased and consistent under most experimental designs.
- ▶ In other words, nothing but the interpretation changes.

Estimate the direct effect

- ▶ Sävje, Aronow, and Hudgens (2021): we can still estimate the expected average treatment effect (EATE)
- ▶ The group-mean-difference estimator will still be unbiased and consistent under most experimental designs.
- ▶ In other words, nothing but the interpretation changes.
- ▶ The magical power of randomization!

EATE

- ▶ Consider a simple experiment with two subjects and Bernoulli assignment

Treatment status	Prob	Ye	Ran
(1, 1)	0.25	8	6
(1, 0)	0.25	7	5
(0, 1)	0.25	4	5
(0, 0)	0.25	2	3

EATE

- ▶ Consider a simple experiment with two subjects and Bernoulli assignment

Treatment status	Prob	Ye	Ran
(1, 1)	0.25	8	6
(1, 0)	0.25	7	5
(0, 1)	0.25	4	5
(0, 0)	0.25	2	3

$$\tau_{Ye} = 0.5 * 4 + 0.5 * 5 = 4.5$$

$$\tau_{Ran} = 0.5 * 1 + 0.5 * 2 = 1.5$$

EATE

- ▶ Consider a simple experiment with two subjects and Bernoulli assignment

Treatment status	Prob	Ye	Ran
(1, 1)	0.25	8	6
(1, 0)	0.25	7	5
(0, 1)	0.25	4	5
(0, 0)	0.25	2	3

$$\tau_{Ye} = 0.5 * 4 + 0.5 * 5 = 4.5$$

$$\tau_{Ran} = 0.5 * 1 + 0.5 * 2 = 1.5$$

- ▶ Then,

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2}(4.5 + 1.5) = 3.$$

Application I

- ▶ Duflo and Saez (2003) try to promote a retirement plan among the staff members in a university.

Application I

- ▶ Duflo and Saez (2003) try to promote a retirement plan among the staff members in a university.
- ▶ 220 out of 330 departments were assigned into the treatment group.

Application I

- ▶ Duflo and Saez (2003) try to promote a retirement plan among the staff members in a university.
- ▶ 220 out of 330 departments were assigned into the treatment group.
- ▶ In each treated department, 50% of staff members who did not enroll in the plan were treated.

Application I

- ▶ Duflo and Saez (2003) try to promote a retirement plan among the staff members in a university.
- ▶ 220 out of 330 departments were assigned into the treatment group.
- ▶ In each treated department, 50% of staff members who did not enroll in the plan were treated.
- ▶ Treated staff members received an invite to an information fair on the plan.

Application I

- ▶ This two-stage randomization is called a “split-plot” design.

Application I

- ▶ This two-stage randomization is called a “split-plot” design.
- ▶ There were 2,039 treated staff members and 2,129 untreated ones from departments in the treatment group.

Application I

- ▶ This two-stage randomization is called a “split-plot” design.
- ▶ There were 2,039 treated staff members and 2,129 untreated ones from departments in the treatment group.
- ▶ There were 2,043 staff members from departments in the control group.

Application I

- ▶ This two-stage randomization is called a “split-plot” design.
- ▶ There were 2,039 treated staff members and 2,129 untreated ones from departments in the treatment group.
- ▶ There were 2,043 staff members from departments in the control group.
- ▶ The outcome is whether staff member attended the fair and whether they enrolled in the plan.

Application I

- ▶ This two-stage randomization is called a “split-plot” design.
- ▶ There were 2,039 treated staff members and 2,129 untreated ones from departments in the treatment group.
- ▶ There were 2,043 staff members from departments in the control group.
- ▶ The outcome is whether staff member attended the fair and whether they enrolled in the plan.
- ▶ Staff members may share the information with each other.

Application I

- ▶ This two-stage randomization is called a “split-plot” design.
- ▶ There were 2,039 treated staff members and 2,129 untreated ones from departments in the treatment group.
- ▶ There were 2,043 staff members from departments in the control group.
- ▶ The outcome is whether staff member attended the fair and whether they enrolled in the plan.
- ▶ Staff members may share the information with each other.
- ▶ But we can still estimate the direct effect or the EATE.

Application I

- ▶ This two-stage randomization is called a “split-plot” design.
- ▶ There were 2,039 treated staff members and 2,129 untreated ones from departments in the treatment group.
- ▶ There were 2,043 staff members from departments in the control group.
- ▶ The outcome is whether staff member attended the fair and whether they enrolled in the plan.
- ▶ Staff members may share the information with each other.
- ▶ But we can still estimate the direct effect or the EATE.
- ▶ How do we estimate the indirect or spillover effects?

Partial interference

- ▶ The authors assume that there exists no interference across departments.

Partial interference

- ▶ The authors assume that there exists no interference across departments.
- ▶ A staff member's outcome may only be affected by the treatment status of those from her department.

Partial interference

- ▶ The authors assume that there exists no interference across departments.
- ▶ A staff member's outcome may only be affected by the treatment status of those from her department.
- ▶ This assumption is called “partial interference” by Hudgens and Halloran (2008).

Partial interference

- ▶ The authors assume that there exists no interference across departments.
- ▶ A staff member's outcome may only be affected by the treatment status of those from her department.
- ▶ This assumption is called “partial interference” by Hudgens and Halloran (2008).
- ▶ We can summarize the effect generated by the other people's treatment status with the department level probability of being treated.

Partial interference

- ▶ The authors assume that there exists no interference across departments.
- ▶ A staff member's outcome may only be affected by the treatment status of those from her department.
- ▶ This assumption is called “partial interference” by Hudgens and Halloran (2008).
- ▶ We can summarize the effect generated by the other people's treatment status with the department level probability of being treated.
- ▶ In this example, it equals to 50% or 0.

Partial interference

- ▶ Hudgens and Halloran (2008) show that we can estimate the indirect effect with the difference in the average outcome across untreated staff members from the treated and untreated departments.

Partial interference

- ▶ Hudgens and Halloran (2008) show that we can estimate the indirect effect with the difference in the average outcome across untreated staff members from the treated and untreated departments.
- ▶ In Duflo and Saez (2003), the average fair attendance rate is 0.280 among treated staff members from treated departments, 0.151 among untreated staff members from treated departments, and 0.049 among untreated staff members from untreated departments.

Partial interference

- ▶ Hudgens and Halloran (2008) show that we can estimate the indirect effect with the difference in the average outcome across untreated staff members from the treated and untreated departments.
- ▶ In Duflo and Saez (2003), the average fair attendance rate is 0.280 among treated staff members from treated departments, 0.151 among untreated staff members from treated departments, and 0.049 among untreated staff members from untreated departments.
- ▶ The direct effect estimate is $0.280 - 0.151 = 0.129$.

Partial interference

- ▶ Hudgens and Halloran (2008) show that we can estimate the indirect effect with the difference in the average outcome across untreated staff members from the treated and untreated departments.
- ▶ In Duflo and Saez (2003), the average fair attendance rate is 0.280 among treated staff members from treated departments, 0.151 among untreated staff members from treated departments, and 0.049 among untreated staff members from untreated departments.
- ▶ The direct effect estimate is $0.280 - 0.151 = 0.129$.
- ▶ The estimated indirect effect on untreated staff members is $0.151 - 0.049 = 0.102$.

Partial interference

- ▶ Hudgens and Halloran (2008) show that we can estimate the indirect effect with the difference in the average outcome across untreated staff members from the treated and untreated departments.
- ▶ In Duflo and Saez (2003), the average fair attendance rate is 0.280 among treated staff members from treated departments, 0.151 among untreated staff members from treated departments, and 0.049 among untreated staff members from untreated departments.
- ▶ The direct effect estimate is $0.280 - 0.151 = 0.129$.
- ▶ The estimated indirect effect on untreated staff members is $0.151 - 0.049 = 0.102$.
- ▶ We need a large number of departments to estimate the indirect effect precisely.

Application II

- ▶ Paluck, Shepherd, and Aronow (2016) examine the consequences of an anti-conflict campaign across 56 schools in New Jersey.

Application II

- ▶ Paluck, Shepherd, and Aronow (2016) examine the consequences of an anti-conflict campaign across 56 schools in New Jersey.
- ▶ 28 schools were assigned into the treatment group.

Application II

- ▶ Paluck, Shepherd, and Aronow (2016) examine the consequences of an anti-conflict campaign across 56 schools in New Jersey.
- ▶ 28 schools were assigned into the treatment group.
- ▶ In each treated school, treatment was then assigned at the individual level.

Application II

- ▶ Paluck, Shepherd, and Aronow (2016) examine the consequences of an anti-conflict campaign across 56 schools in New Jersey.
- ▶ 28 schools were assigned into the treatment group.
- ▶ In each treated school, treatment was then assigned at the individual level.
- ▶ Treated students were invited to participate in a bi-weekly meeting to discuss the consequences of conflicts and behavioral strategies.

Application II

- ▶ The intervention lasted for an academic year.

Application II

- ▶ The intervention lasted for an academic year.
- ▶ The authors measure the outcome in various ways (e.g., whether the student wears a wristband signaling commitment to anti-conflict norms.)

Application II

- ▶ The intervention lasted for an academic year.
- ▶ The authors measure the outcome in various ways (e.g., whether the student wears a wristband signaling commitment to anti-conflict norms.)
- ▶ Untreated students may learn about the content of the meetings from their friends.

Application II

- ▶ The intervention lasted for an academic year.
- ▶ The authors measure the outcome in various ways (e.g., whether the student wears a wristband signaling commitment to anti-conflict norms.)
- ▶ Untreated students may learn about the content of the meetings from their friends.
- ▶ Treated students may reinforce each other's commitment to anti-conflict norms.

Application II

- ▶ We may still assume partial interference and estimate the indirect effect as before.

Application II

- ▶ We may still assume partial interference and estimate the indirect effect as before.
- ▶ But a school can be big and the indirect effect estimate may not be meaningful.

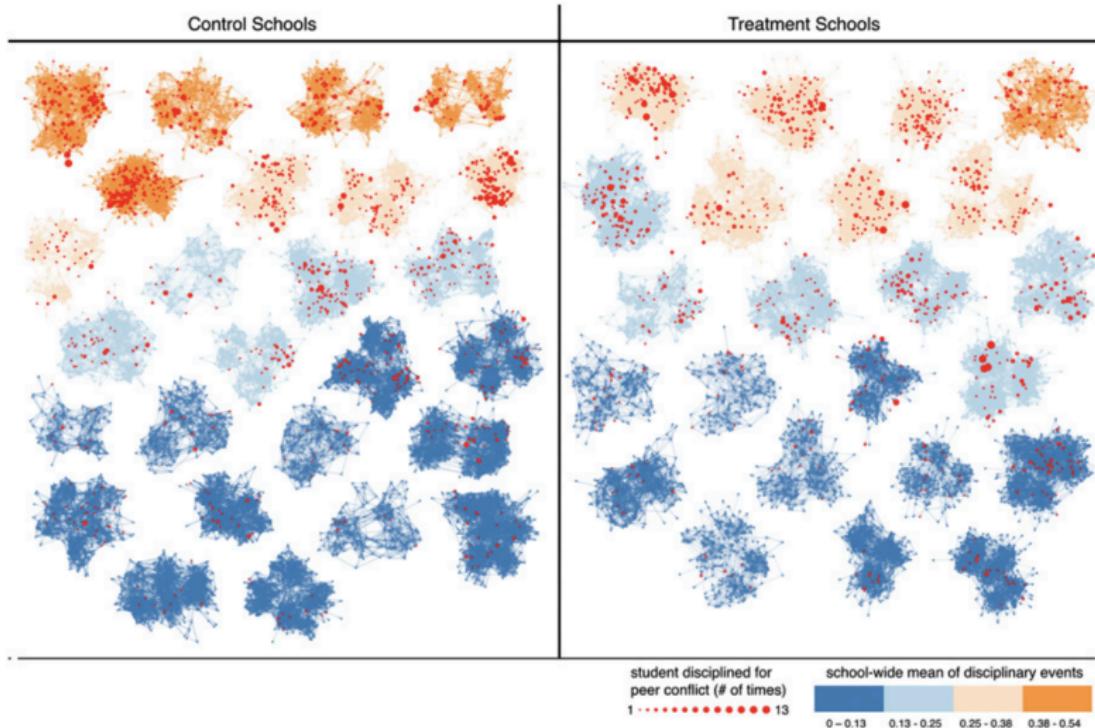
Application II

- ▶ We may still assume partial interference and estimate the indirect effect as before.
- ▶ But a school can be big and the indirect effect estimate may not be meaningful.
- ▶ Instead, the authors collect information on the social network among the students.

Application II

- ▶ We may still assume partial interference and estimate the indirect effect as before.
- ▶ But a school can be big and the indirect effect estimate may not be meaningful.
- ▶ Instead, the authors collect information on the social network among the students.
- ▶ They ask the students to list all their friends in the school before the treatment.

Application II



Exposure mapping

- ▶ This information allows the authors to adopt the approach of “exposure mapping” developed by Aronow and Samii (2017).

Exposure mapping

- ▶ This information allows the authors to adopt the approach of “exposure mapping” developed by Aronow and Samii (2017).
- ▶ We assume that there exists a mapping from treatment assignment to the actual treatment exposure.

Exposure mapping

- ▶ This information allows the authors to adopt the approach of “exposure mapping” developed by Aronow and Samii (2017).
- ▶ We assume that there exists a mapping from treatment assignment to the actual treatment exposure.
- ▶ If only one’s outcome is only affected by her direct friends in the social network, we can measure the level of exposure with the proportion of treated friends.

Exposure mapping

- ▶ We estimate the effect generated by exposure.

Exposure mapping

- ▶ We estimate the effect generated by exposure.
- ▶ It is a standard causal inference problem with a transformed treatment variable.

Exposure mapping

- ▶ We estimate the effect generated by exposure.
- ▶ It is a standard causal inference problem with a transformed treatment variable.
- ▶ This method requires the correct specification of the exposure mapping.

Exposure mapping

- ▶ Aronow and Samii (2017) consider a simpler transformation.

Exposure mapping

- ▶ Aronow and Samii (2017) consider a simpler transformation.
- ▶ There are five different levels of exposure: $(1, 1, 1)$ (direct + indirect exposure), $(1, 0, 1)$ (isolated indirect exposure), $(0, 1, 1)$ (indirect exposure), $(0, 0, 1)$ (school exposure), and $(0, 0, 0)$ (no exposure).

Exposure mapping

- ▶ Aronow and Samii (2017) consider a simpler transformation.
- ▶ There are five different levels of exposure: $(1, 1, 1)$ (direct + indirect exposure), $(1, 0, 1)$ (isolated indirect exposure), $(0, 1, 1)$ (indirect exposure), $(0, 0, 1)$ (school exposure), and $(0, 0, 0)$ (no exposure).
- ▶ We use no exposure as the benchmark.

Exposure mapping

Estimator	Estimand	Estimate	S.E.	95% CI
HT	$\tau(d_{001}, d_{000})$	0.057	0.062	(-0.065, 0.179)
	$\tau(d_{011}, d_{000})$	0.154	0.029	(0.097, 0.211)
	$\tau(d_{101}, d_{000})$	0.305	0.141	(0.029, 0.581)
	$\tau(d_{111}, d_{000})$	0.299	0.020	(0.260, 0.338)
Hajek	$\tau(d_{001}, d_{000})$	0.058	0.064	(-0.067, 0.183)
	$\tau(d_{011}, d_{000})$	0.154	0.037	(0.081, 0.227)
	$\tau(d_{101}, d_{000})$	0.292	0.123	(0.051, 0.533)
	$\tau(d_{111}, d_{000})$	0.307	0.049	(0.211, 0.403)
WLS	$\tau(d_{001}, d_{000})$	0.056	0.066	(-0.072, 0.186)
	$\tau(d_{011}, d_{000})$	0.156	0.037	(0.083, 0.229)
	$\tau(d_{101}, d_{000})$	0.295	0.124	(0.050, 0.536)
	$\tau(d_{111}, d_{000})$	0.306	0.049	(0.212, 0.404)

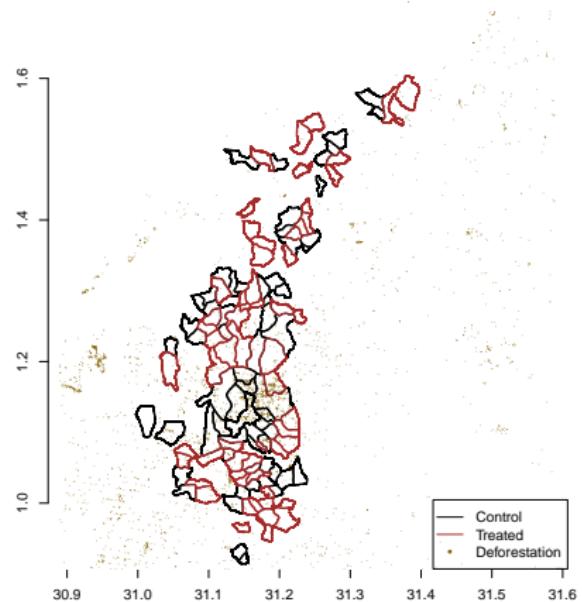
HT = Horvitz–Thompson estimator with conservative variance estimator.

Hajek = Hajek estimator with linearized variance estimator.

WLS = Least squares weighted by exposure probabilities with covariate adjustment for network degree and linearized variance estimator.

S.E. = Estimated standard error; CI = Normal approximation confidence interval.

Application III



Jayachandran et al., (2017): A payments for ecosystem services (PES) program, with effects dissipating in distance from treated villages.

Application III

- ▶ 60 out of 121 villages are treated.

Application III

- ▶ 60 out of 121 villages are treated.
- ▶ Private forest owners are paid to preserve their own forest.

Application III

- ▶ 60 out of 121 villages are treated.
- ▶ Private forest owners are paid to preserve their own forest.
- ▶ We measure the outcome with the change in forest coverage over a year.

Application III

- ▶ 60 out of 121 villages are treated.
- ▶ Private forest owners are paid to preserve their own forest.
- ▶ We measure the outcome with the change in forest coverage over a year.
- ▶ How to estimate the spillover effects on forest coverage?

Application III

- ▶ 60 out of 121 villages are treated.
- ▶ Private forest owners are paid to preserve their own forest.
- ▶ We measure the outcome with the change in forest coverage over a year.
- ▶ How to estimate the spillover effects on forest coverage?
- ▶ Can we assume partial interference?

Application III

- ▶ 60 out of 121 villages are treated.
- ▶ Private forest owners are paid to preserve their own forest.
- ▶ We measure the outcome with the change in forest coverage over a year.
- ▶ How to estimate the spillover effects on forest coverage?
- ▶ Can we assume partial interference?
- ▶ Does any exposure mapping exist?

Application III

- ▶ 60 out of 121 villages are treated.
- ▶ Private forest owners are paid to preserve their own forest.
- ▶ We measure the outcome with the change in forest coverage over a year.
- ▶ How to estimate the spillover effects on forest coverage?
- ▶ Can we assume partial interference?
- ▶ Does any exposure mapping exist?
- ▶ We need new methods for this scenario.

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

- ▶ Use the previous example

Treatment status	Prob	Ye	Ran
(1, 1)	0.25	8	6
(1, 0)	0.25	7	5
(0, 1)	0.25	4	5
(0, 0)	0.25	2	3

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

- ▶ Use the previous example

Treatment status	Prob	Ye	Ran
(1, 1)	0.25	8	6
(1, 0)	0.25	7	5
(0, 1)	0.25	4	5
(0, 0)	0.25	2	3

$$\tau_{Ye;Ran} = 0.5 * 1 + 0.5 * 2 = 1.5$$

$$\tau_{Ran;Ye} = 0.5 * 1 + 0.5 * 2 = 1.5$$

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

- ▶ We cannot simply take an average as before.

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

- ▶ We cannot simply take an average as before.
- ▶ Too many effects and the average cannot be identified.

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

- ▶ We cannot simply take an average as before.
- ▶ Too many effects and the average cannot be identified.
- ▶ Instead, we construct a “spillover mapping” μ to aggregate these individual level effects.

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

- ▶ We cannot simply take an average as before.
- ▶ Too many effects and the average cannot be identified.
- ▶ Instead, we construct a “spillover mapping” μ to aggregate these individual level effects.
- ▶ μ captures the influence of one unit on the others.

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

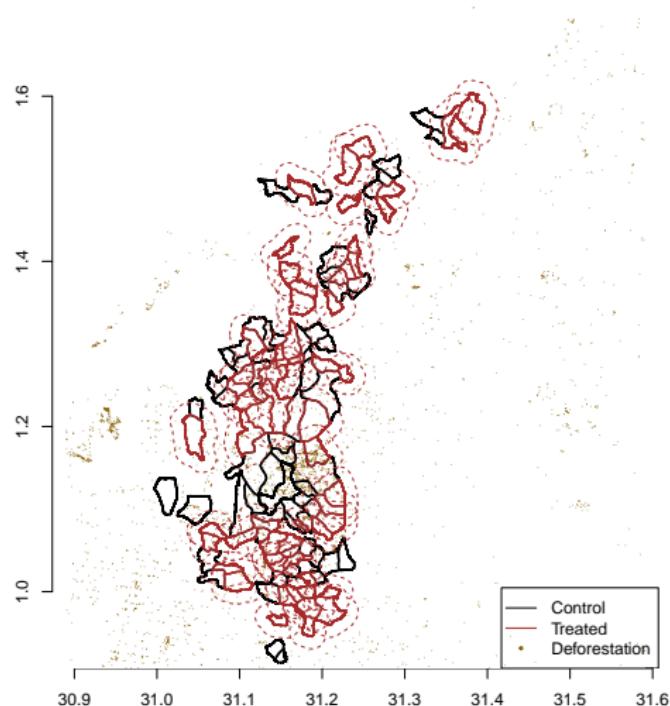
- ▶ We cannot simply take an average as before.
- ▶ Too many effects and the average cannot be identified.
- ▶ Instead, we construct a “spillover mapping” μ to aggregate these individual level effects.
- ▶ μ captures the influence of one unit on the others.
- ▶ The form of μ is decided by the purpose of the study.

Define the indirect effect in an agnostic way

- ▶ We cannot simply take an average as before.
- ▶ Too many effects and the average cannot be identified.
- ▶ Instead, we construct a “spillover mapping” μ to aggregate these individual level effects.
- ▶ μ captures the influence of one unit on the others.
- ▶ The form of μ is decided by the purpose of the study.
- ▶ In this example, we choose the “circle mean.”

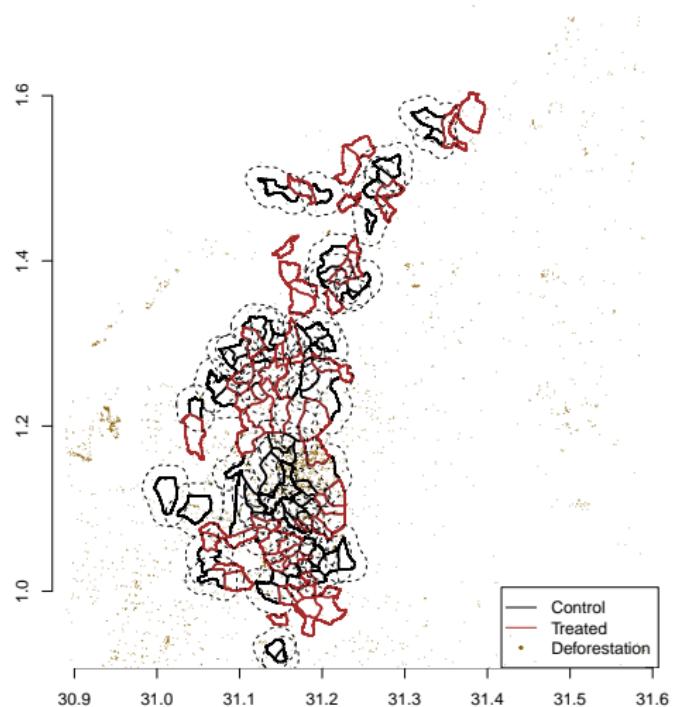
Application III: estimation

- ▶ To estimate the effect at distance d , we draw circles with radius d around each treated village.



Application III: estimation

- ▶ Then, we do the same for each village in the control group.



Application III: estimation

- ▶ At each distance d , we have

$$\hat{\tau}(d) = \frac{1}{60} \sum_{i=1}^{60} Z_i \mu_i(\mathbf{Y}; d) - \frac{1}{61} \sum_{i=1}^{61} (1 - Z_i) \mu_i(\mathbf{Y}; d)$$

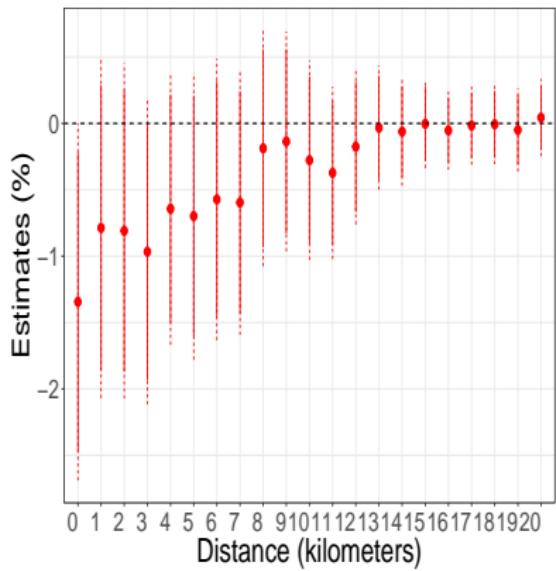
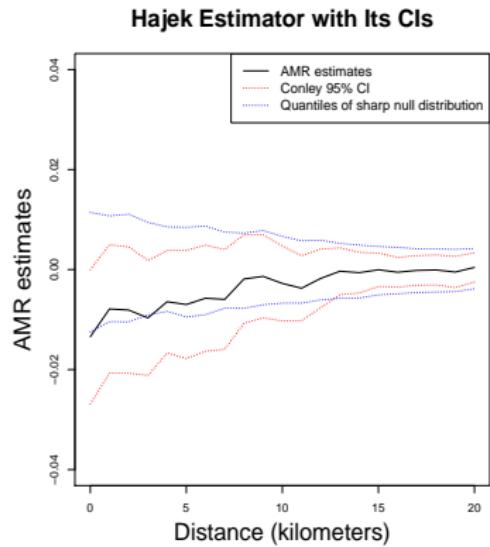
Application III: estimation

- ▶ At each distance d , we have

$$\hat{\tau}(d) = \frac{1}{60} \sum_{i=1}^{60} Z_i \mu_i(\mathbf{Y}; d) - \frac{1}{61} \sum_{i=1}^{61} (1 - Z_i) \mu_i(\mathbf{Y}; d)$$

- ▶ This is a valid estimate of the EATE at distance d .

Application III: result



Estimate spillover effects in spatial experiments

- ▶ To estimate the direct effect, just calculate the group-mean difference.

Estimate spillover effects in spatial experiments

- ▶ To estimate the direct effect, just calculate the group-mean difference.
- ▶ To estimate the indirect effect at d , construct the circle mean and calculate the group-mean difference.

Estimate spillover effects in spatial experiments

- ▶ To estimate the direct effect, just calculate the group-mean difference.
- ▶ To estimate the indirect effect at d , construct the circle mean and calculate the group-mean difference.
- ▶ The method does not require the knowledge of interference structure.

Estimate spillover effects in spatial experiments

- ▶ To estimate the direct effect, just calculate the group-mean difference.
- ▶ To estimate the indirect effect at d , construct the circle mean and calculate the group-mean difference.
- ▶ The method does not require the knowledge of interference structure.
- ▶ We focus on the effect generated by each observation, rather than what affects the outcome of each observation.

Estimate spillover effects in spatial experiments

- ▶ To estimate the direct effect, just calculate the group-mean difference.
- ▶ To estimate the indirect effect at d , construct the circle mean and calculate the group-mean difference.
- ▶ The method does not require the knowledge of interference structure.
- ▶ We focus on the effect generated by each observation, rather than what affects the outcome of each observation.
- ▶ This is the comparative advantage of the design-based perspective to the outcome-based perspective.

References I

- Aronow, Peter M., and Cyrus Samii. 2017. "Estimating Average Causal Effects Under General Interference, with Application to a Social Network Experiment." *The Annals of Applied Statistics* 11 (4): 1912–47.
- Duflo, Esther, and Emmanuel Saez. 2003. "The Role of Information and Social Interactions in Retirement Plan Decisions: Evidence from a Randomized Experiment." *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 118 (3): 815–42.
- Hudgens, Michael G., and M Elizabeth Halloran. 2008. "Toward Causal Inference with Interference." *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 103 (482): 832–42.
- Paluck, Elizabeth Levy, Hana Shepherd, and Peter M. Aronow. 2016. "Changing Climates of Conflict: A Social Network Experiment in 56 Schools." *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science* 113 (3): 566–71.

References II

Sävje, Fredrik, Peter Aronow, and Michael Hudgens. 2021.
“Average Treatment Effects in the Presence of Unknown
Interference.” *Annals of Statistics* 49 (2): 673.