

# Evidence-based Decision Making

## Alternatives to Experiments

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Rui Mata, FS 2023

# Goals

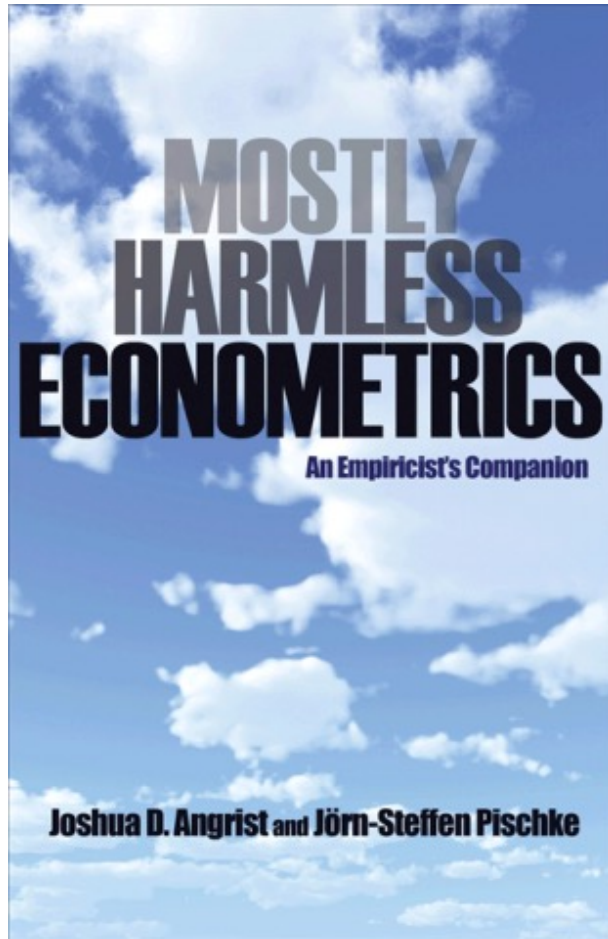
- Understand the nature of causal inference as the comparison of treatment to some counterfactual
- List different methods of causal inference (e.g., randomization/experiments, regression, regression discontinuity) and associated limitations



Varian, H. R. (2016). Causal inference in economics and marketing. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 113(27), 7310–7315. <http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1510479113>

“The critical step in any causal analysis is estimating the counterfactual—a prediction of what would have happened in the absence of the treatment”

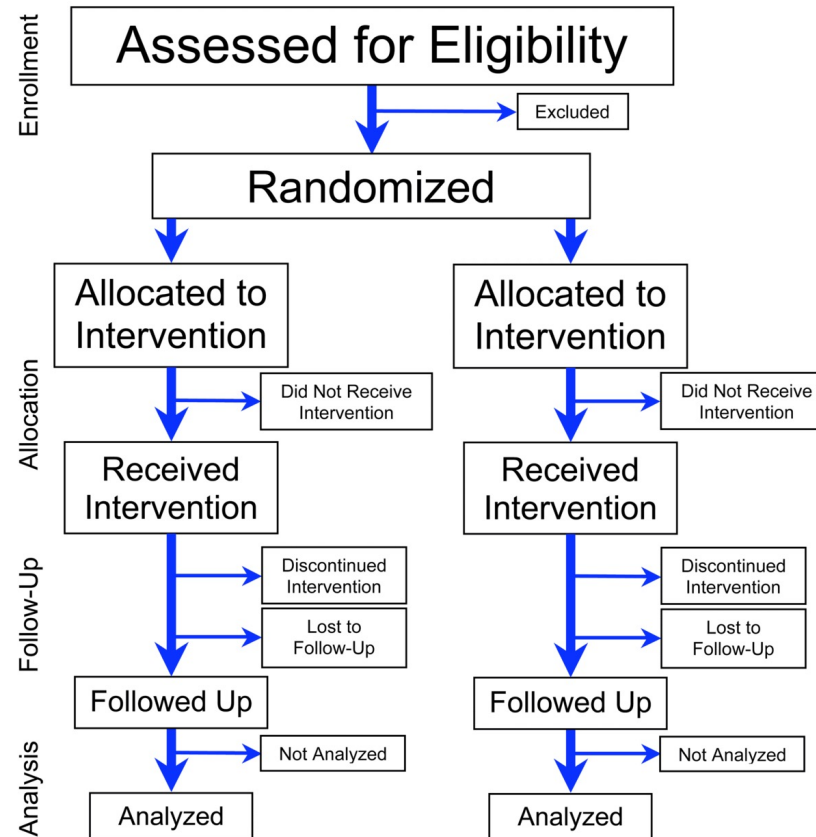
# “Furious Five” statistical methods for causal inference



- Randomisation
- Regression
- Instrumental variables
- Difference in differences
- Regression discontinuity

Angrist, J. D., & Pischke, J.-S. (2010). The Credibility Revolution in Empirical Economics: How Better Research Design is Taking the Con out of Econometrics. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 24(2), 3–30.  
<http://doi.org/10.1257/jep.24.2.3>

# Randomisation



# Full randomisation is seldom available in practice...

The “ideal” data, from the viewpoint of the analyst, would be data from an incompetent advertiser who allocated expenditures randomly across cities. If ad expenditure is truly random, then we do not have to worry about confounding variables because the predictors will automatically be orthogonal to the error term. However, statisticians are seldom lucky enough to have a totally incompetent client.

# Regression

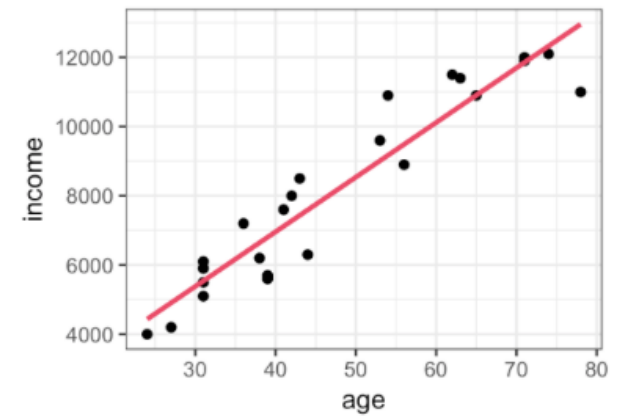
Regression analysis is a set of statistical processes for estimating the relationships among variables. It includes many techniques for modeling and analyzing several variables, when the focus is on the relationship between a dependent variable (criterion) and one or more independent variables (predictors). More specifically, regression analysis helps one understand how the typical value of the dependent variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other independent variables are fixed.

# Regression

## Simple Linear Regression

**Definition:** Simple linear regression is a linear model with one predictor  $x$ , and where the error term  $\epsilon$  is Normally distributed.

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$$



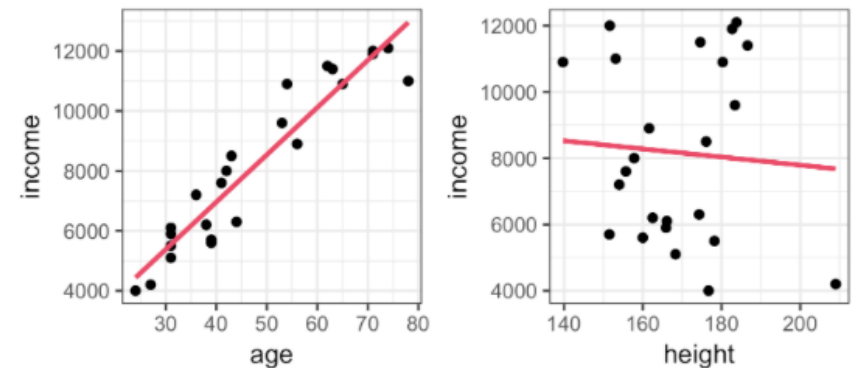


# Regression

## Multiple Linear Regression

**Definition:** Multiple linear regression is a linear model with many predictors  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , and where the error term  $\epsilon$  is Normally distributed.

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n + \epsilon$$



Parameter	Description	In words
$\beta_0$	Intercept	When all x values are 0, what is the predicted value for y?
$\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots$	Coefficient for $x_1, x_2, \dots$	For every increase of 1 in coefficient for $x_1, x_2, \dots$ how does y change?

### Formula

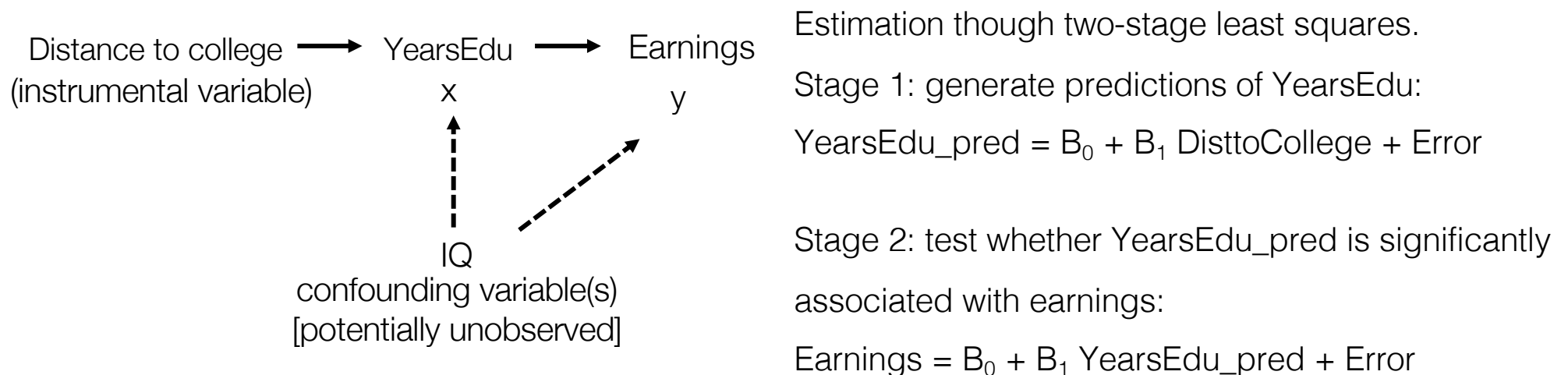
$$income = 1628 + 147 \times age - 4.1 \times height + \epsilon$$

### Coefficients

$$\beta_0 = 1628, \beta_{age} = 147, \beta_{weight} = -4.1$$

# Instrumental variables

The method of instrumental variables (IV) is used to estimate causal relationships when controlled experiments are not feasible or when a treatment is not successfully delivered to every unit in a randomized experiment. Intuitively, the method is used when an explanatory variable of interest is correlated with the error term, in which case ordinary least squares gives biased results. A valid instrument (instrumental variable) induces changes in the explanatory variable (x) but has no independent effect on the dependent variable (y), allowing a researcher to uncover the causal effect of the explanatory variable on the dependent variable.



**Problem:** Good instrumental variables (i.e., that are correlated with x but not any confounding variables) are hard to find...

Angrist, J. D., & Krueger, A. B. (2001). Instrumental Variables and the Search for Identification: From Supply and Demand to Natural Experiments. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 15(4), 69–85.

# Instrumental variables

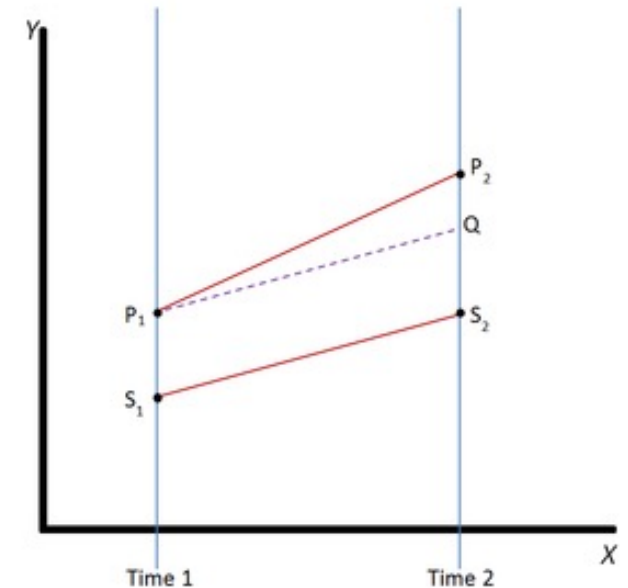
*Table 1*  
**Examples of Studies That Use Instrumental Variables to Analyze Data From Natural and Randomized Experiments**

<i>Outcome Variable</i>	<i>Endogenous Variable</i>	<i>Source of Instrumental Variable(s)</i>	<i>Reference</i>
<i>1. Natural Experiments</i>			
Labor supply	Disability insurance replacement rates	Region and time variation in benefit rules	Gruber (2000)
Labor supply	Fertility	Sibling-Sex composition	Angrist and Evans (1998)
Education, Labor supply	Out-of-wedlock fertility	Occurrence of twin births	Bronars and Grogger (1994)
Wages	Unemployment insurance tax rate	State laws	Anderson and Meyer (2000)
Earnings	Years of schooling	Region and time variation in school construction	Duflo (2001)
Earnings	Years of schooling	Proximity to college	Card (1995)
Earnings	Years of schooling	Quarter of birth	Angrist and Krueger (1991)
Earnings	Veteran status	Cohort dummies	Imbens and van der Klaauw (1995)
Earnings	Veteran status	Draft lottery number	Angrist (1990)
Achievement test scores	Class size	Discontinuities in class size due to maximum class-size rule	Angrist and Lavy (1999)
College enrollment	Financial aid	Discontinuities in financial aid formula	van der Klaauw (1996)
Health	Heart attack surgery	Proximity to cardiac care centers	McClellan, McNeil and Newhouse (1994)
Crime	Police	Electoral cycles	Levitt (1997)
Employment and Earnings	Length of prison sentence	Randomly assigned federal judges	Kling (1999)
Birth weight	Maternal smoking	State cigarette taxes	Evans and Ringel (1999)

Angrist, J. D., & Krueger, A. B. (2001). Instrumental Variables and the Search for Identification: From Supply and Demand to Natural Experiments. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 15(4), 69–85.

# Difference in differences

Difference in differences (DID or DD) is a statistical technique used in the social sciences that attempts to mimic an experimental research design using observational study data, by studying the differential effect of a treatment on a 'treatment group' versus a 'control group' in a natural experiment. It calculates the effect of a treatment on an outcome by comparing the average change over time in the outcome variable for the treatment group, compared to the average change over time for the control group. Although it is intended to mitigate the effects of extraneous factors and selection bias, depending on how the treatment group is chosen, this method may still be subject to certain biases (e.g., omitted variable bias).



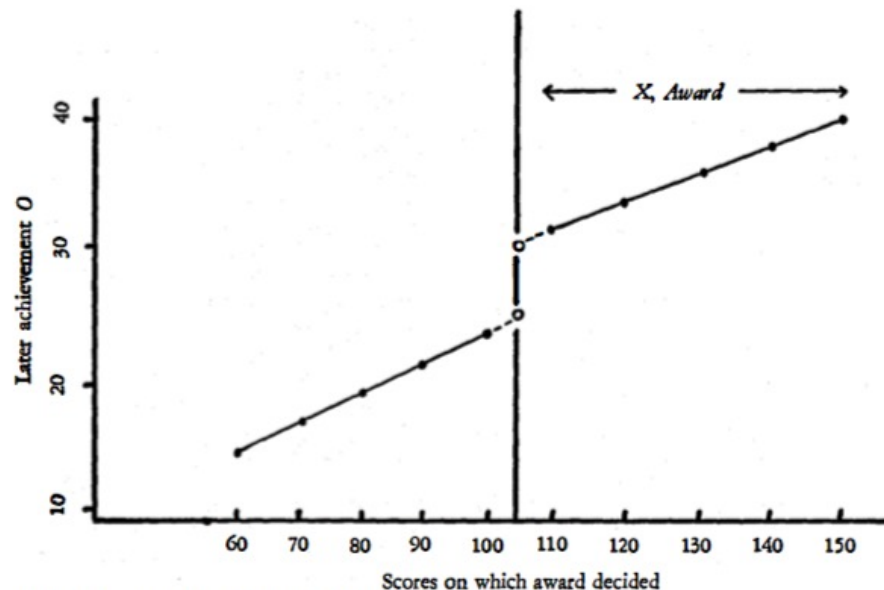
$$Y = B_0 + B_1 \text{Group} + B_2 \text{Time} + B_3 \text{Group} * \text{Time}$$

**Problem:** Assumption that the change in outcomes from pre- to post-intervention in the control group (S) is a good proxy for the (counterfactual) change in untreated potential outcomes in the treated group (P) may not be warranted; choice of treatment/control groups is crucial (an additional trick may be *matching* on observables)...

Bertrand, M., Duflo, E., & Mullainathan, S. (2004). How Much Should We Trust Differences-in-Differences Estimates? The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 119(1), 249–275.

# Regression discontinuity

A regression discontinuity design (RDD) is a quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design that elicits the causal effects of interventions by assigning a cutoff or threshold above or below which an intervention is assigned. By comparing observations lying closely on either side of the threshold, it is possible to estimate the average treatment effect in environments in which randomization is unfeasible. RDD was first applied by Donald Thistlethwaite and Donald Campbell to the evaluation of scholarship programs.



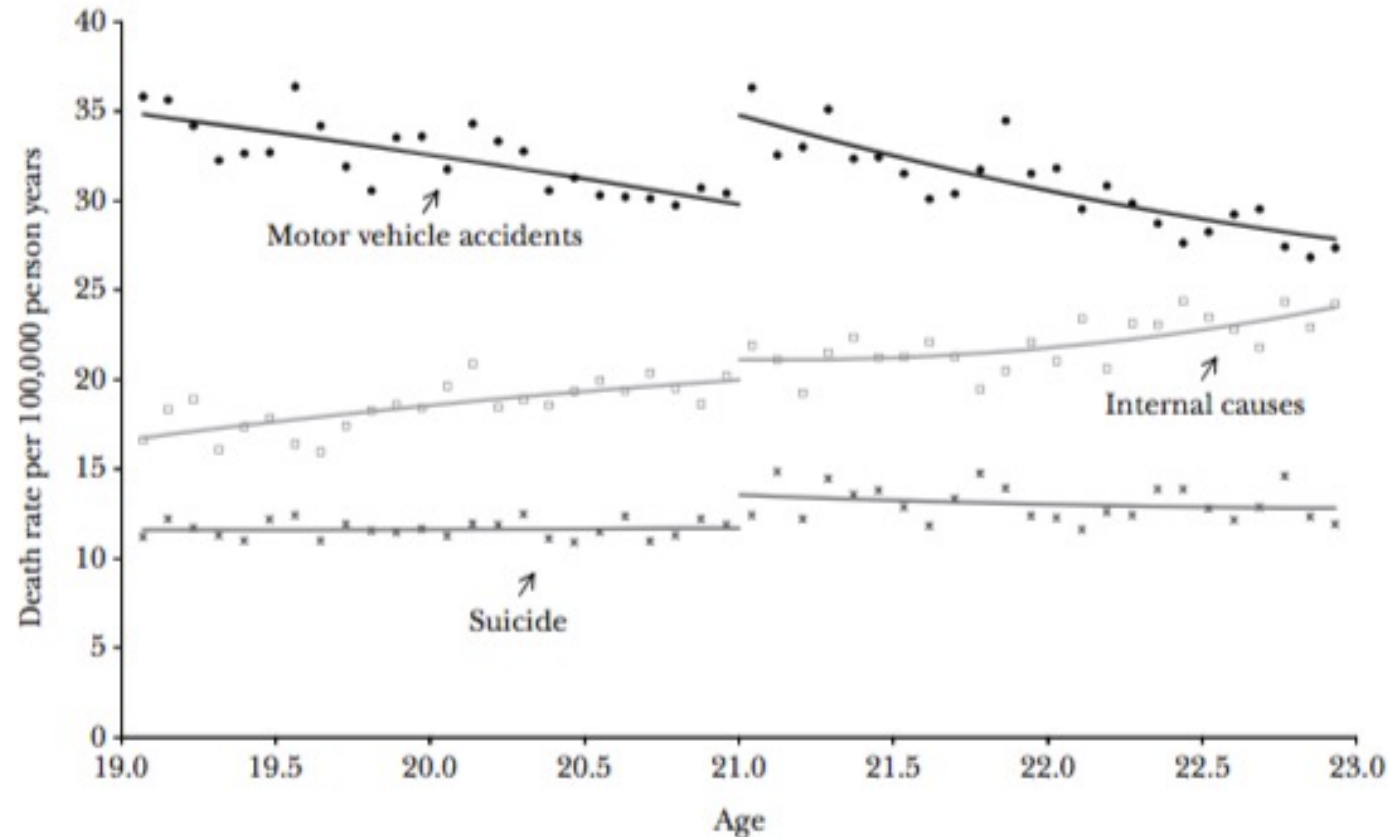
$$Y = B_0 + B_1 \text{Score} + B_2 \text{Award}$$

**Problem:** Assumption that the individuals just below the cutoff are not systematically different from those just above can be wrong (e.g., individuals just above the threshold could try harder); the estimation may not generalise to observations away from the cutoff (e.g., awards could have different results at different levels of ability).

Lee, D. S., & Lemieux, T. (2010). Regression Discontinuity Designs in Economics. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 48(2), 281–355. <http://doi.org/10.1257/jel.48.2.281>

# Regression discontinuity

Figure 2  
Age Profiles for Death Rates in the United States

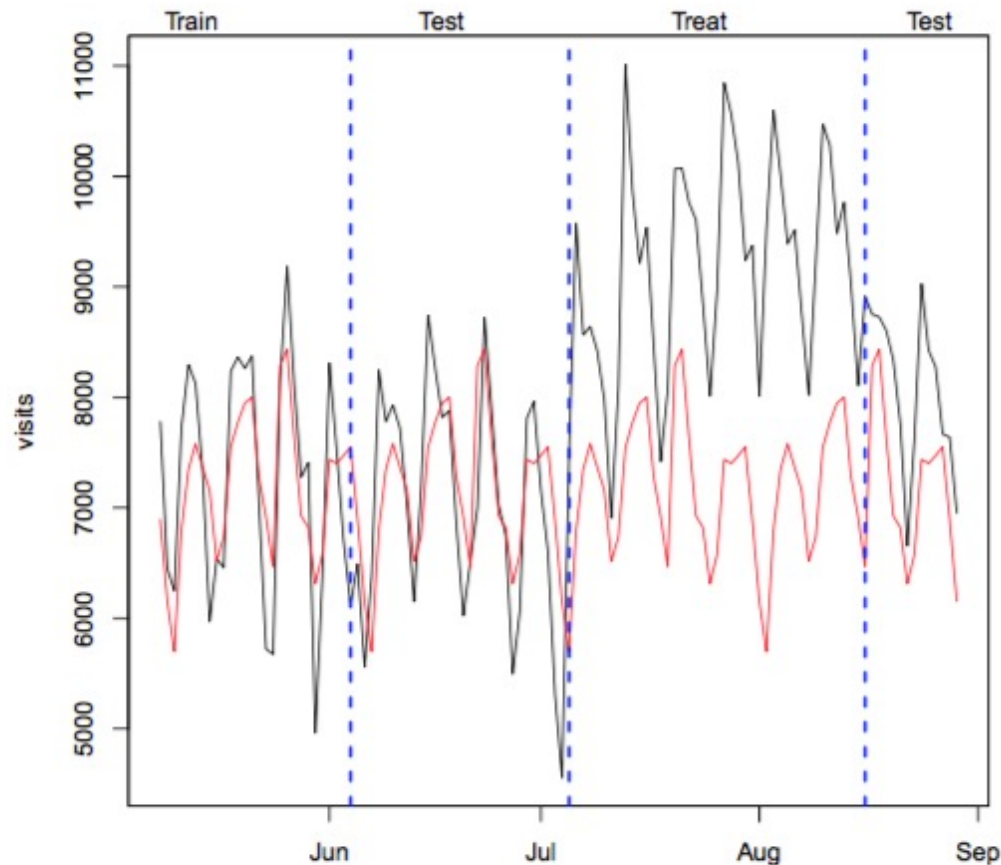


Notes: The death rates are estimated by combining the National Vital Statistics records with population estimates from the U.S. Census.

Carpenter, C., & Dobkin, C. (2011). The Minimum Legal Drinking Age and Public Health. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 25(2), 133–156.

# New developments...

## Using models as the control group (Train-test-treat-compare)



An online advertiser might ask “if I increase my ad expenditure by some amount, how many extra sales do I generate?”

A predictive statistical model (based on number of “searches” about topics related to the subject matter of the website) is estimated during the training period and its predictive performance is assessed during the test period. The extrapolation of the model during the treat period (red line) serves as a counterfactual. This counterfactual is compared with the actual outcome (black line), and the difference is the estimated treatment effect. When the treatment is ended, the outcome returns to something close to the original level.

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# Summary

“The critical step in any causal analysis is estimating the counterfactual—a prediction of what would have happened in the absence of the treatment”

There are many types of causal inference analyses that can be (and are) used in the behavioural sciences - in psychology, experiments and multiple regression from observational data are the most commonly used inference methods.

It is helpful to be aware of other methods (e.g., instrumental variables, regression discontinuity, difference in differences) and, more importantly, “the possibility of **creatively** utilizing the idiosyncratic features of any research situation in designing tests of causal hypotheses”.