#### Quant II

Lab 4: Conditioning: Matching, Weighing, and Sensitivity Analysis

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#### Outline

- Blocking and rerandomization
- Matching
  - Why matching?
  - Various algorithms
  - Asymptotics of matching
- IPW
  - Why do we love/hate it?
  - Covariate balancing
- What if confounders are unobservable?
  - Placebo
  - Sensitivity

# Blocking

- Blocking: covariates adjustment before assignment
- Usually results in more efficient estimates
- Easier to get balance in covariates
- What is the optimal blocking algorithm?

#### Rerandomization

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- What if your first draw leads to imbalance in covariates?
- Rubin: draw the assignment again and do not tell anybody!
- But what is the distribution of the ATE estimates?
- Ding, Li and Rubin (2017): A truncated Gaussian distribution
- Rerandomization can be combined with regression adjustment

- To approximiate a blocking experiment
- To get rid of model dependence Matching is completely nonparametric:  $\hat{\tau}_i = Y_i - \sum_{\mathcal{M}_i} Y_{i \in \mathcal{M}_i}$ .

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- To guarantee common support (positivity) Suppose we estimate  $\tau$  using Lin's approach, then,

$$\hat{\tau} = \bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0 - (\frac{N_0}{N_0 + N_1} * \hat{\beta}_1 + \frac{N_1}{N_0 + N_1} * \hat{\beta}_0)'(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_0)$$

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• Matching cannnot help you get unconfoundedness.

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- Repeat these steps until your set exhibits acceptable balance
- Calulate the ATT/ATE on your matched dataset

## An example

- Boyd et al. (2010)
- The effect of gender on decision making
- Unit of analysis: the appellate court case
- Treatment: whether there is at least one female in the three judge panel
- Covariates: median ideology, median age, one racial minority, indicator for ideological direction of lower court's decision, indicator for whether a majority of the judges were nominated by Republicans, indicator for whether a majority of the judges on the panel had judicial experience prior to their nomination

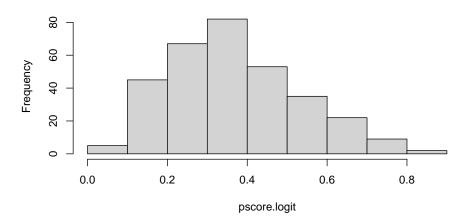
#### View Initial Balance

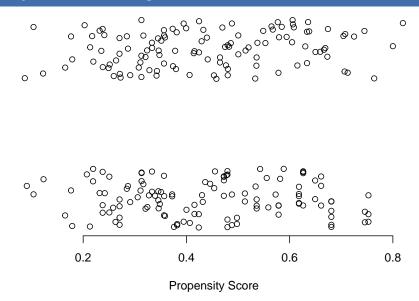
```
initial.balance <- round(t(rbind(means,t.p,ks.p)),digits=3)[c(2:8),]
initial.balance</pre>
```

##		Treated	${\tt Control}$	t.p	ks.p
##	median.ideo	0.900	0.802	0.008	0.006
##	repub.majority	0.752	0.585	0.002	0.030
##	has.minority	0.233	0.212	0.666	1.000
##	maj.experienced	0.446	0.373	0.202	0.826
##	median.age	63.416	60.483	0.000	0.001
##	liberal.lower.direction	0.208	0.161	0.292	0.997
##	liberalOutcome	0.366	0.424	0.314	0.967

## Propensity score matching

- Pros: reduce the number of dimensions
- Cons: may not use information in the most efficient way
   Histogram of pscore.logit





## Nearest Neighbor Matching

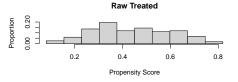
- Approximate a blocking experiment
- You can also use MatchIt

# Nearest Neighbor Matching

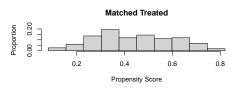
##		${\tt Means.Treated}$	Means.Control	t.NN
##	median.ideo	0.8024492	0.8995520	0.2161134
##	median.age	60.4830508	63.4158416	0.4253905
##	repub.majority	0.5847458	0.7524752	1.0000000
##	has.minority	0.2118644	0.2326733	0.5952787
##	maj.experienced	0.3728814	0.4455446	0.2003073
##	liberal.lower.direction	0.1610169	0.2079208	0.8586550

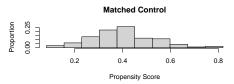
# Nearest Neighbor Matching

#### plot(matched.NN, type="histogram")









## Genetic Matching

Set an objective function and update the distance metric iteratively

$$\sqrt{(X_i - X_j)'(S^{-1/2})'WS^{-1/2}(X_i - X_j)}$$

- Based upon evolutionary algorithm
- It is very slow (especially if you choose a reasonable pop.size)
- Can also do it with Matching or GenMatch

## Genetic Matching

• And then you can calculate the effect of interest

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#### **CEM**

- CEM creates bins along each covariate dimension (either pre-specified or automatic)
- Units lying in the same strata are then matched together
- Curse of dimensionality means that with lots of covariates, we'll only rarely have units in the same strata.

## Unmatched 187 100

```
library(cem)
cem.match <- cem(treatment = "has.woman",</pre>
             data = d.new,
             drop = "liberalOutcome")
##
## Using 'has.woman'='1' as baseline group
cem.match
##
          GO G1
## All 202 118
## Matched 15 18
```

- Hopefully you are lucky and you have more units
- If not, just tweak CEM

```
cutpoints \leftarrow list(median.ideo=c(0.3,0.5,0.7),
              median.age= c(60,65))
cem.tweak.match <- cem(treatment = "has.woman",
                     data = d.new.
                     drop = "liberalOutcome", cutpoints = cutp
##
## Using 'has.woman'='1' as baseline group
cem.tweak.match
##
              GO G1
## All 202 118
## Matched 83 74
```

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## Unmatched 119 44

- Matching creates extra uncertainty (why?)
- What is the real standard error of  $\hat{\tau}$ ?

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- What is the real standard error of  $\hat{\tau}$ ?
- Roadmap:
  - Abadie and Imbens (2006): asymptotic distribution for NN matching (with replacement)
  - Abadie and Imbens (2011): debiased matching estimator
  - Abadie and Imbens (2008): boostrap doesn't work for matching
  - Abadie and Imbens (2012): matching as a martingale (NN without replacement)
  - Abadie and Imbens (2016): asymptotic distribution for PS matching
  - Otsu and Rai (2017): wild bootstrap for NN matching
  - Bodory et al. (2018): wild bootstrap for PS matching

- Denote  $E[Y_i(D_i)|X_i]$  as  $\mu_{D_i}(X_i)$ , then  $Y_i = \mu_{D_i}(X_i) + \epsilon_i$
- Match with K nearest neighbors; replacement is allowed; covariates can be continuous

$$\hat{\tau}_{M} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\widehat{Y}_{i}(1) - \widehat{Y}_{i}(0))$$

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$$\widehat{\tau}_{M} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\widehat{Y}_{i}(1) - \widehat{Y}_{i}(0))$$

• The bias from NN matching can be decomposed into three parts:

$$\hat{\tau}_{M} - \tau = \overline{\tau(X)} - \tau + E_{M} + B_{M}$$

where

$$\overline{\tau(X)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mu_1(X_i) - \mu_0(X_i))$$

and

$$E_{M} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (2D_{i} - 1)(1 + \frac{K_{M}(i)}{M})\epsilon_{i}$$

- Abadie and Imbens (2006) show that both  $\tau(X)$  (difference in conditional expectations) and  $E_M$  (sum of residuals) are asymptotically unbiased.
- However, the conditional bias relative to  $\overline{\tau(X)}$ ,

$$B_{M} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (2D_{i} - 1) \left[ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} (\mu_{1-D_{i}}(X_{i}) - \mu_{1-D_{i}}(X_{j_{m}(i)})) \right]$$

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is not.

- The bias caused by "mismatch"; it declines very slowly.
- The speed depends on the number of continuous covariates.
- $\bullet$   $B_M$  actually converges to an exponential distribution.
- We may estimate  $B_M$  directly using the serial estimator proposed by Newey (1995).
- Take-away: do not use bootstrap for NN matching!

#### **About IPW**

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- It is actually the Horvitz-Thompson estimator.
- The duality of IPW and propensity score matching suggests two basic ways of conducting causal inference:
  - Adjust the response surface (matching, regression)
  - Adjust the assignment probability (weighting)
  - Either approach returns unbiased estimate
  - We can combine them to obtain doubly robustness

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- The duality of IPW and propensity score matching suggests two basic ways of conducting causal inference:
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  - We can combine them to obtain doubly robustness
- IPW can be extended to panel data (dynamic treatment regime).

#### The benefits of IPW

- Hirano et al. (2003): the variance of IPW estimators can reach the Cramer-Rao lower bound
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- Hirano et al. (2003): the variance of IPW estimators can reach the Cramer-Rao lower bound
- What if we use the real propensity score?
- The variance will be larger! (Hahn, 1998)
- Empirical propensity scores take into account all the actual imbalances in the sample

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- Changes the quantity of interest
- Ma and Wang (2019): asymptotic distribution for both trimed/untrimed IPW
- They also provide a bias correction method based on resampling

```
##
  median ideo
                            0.8995520
                                      0.8024492
## repub.majority
                            0.7524752 0.5847458
                            0.2326733 0.2118644
  has.minority
## maj.experienced
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                            0.0000000
                                      1.0000000
  has.woman
## liberalOut.come
                            0.3663366
                                      0.4237288
```

- IPW balances the covariates, then why don't we direct seek for balance?
- What can you do when the treatment is continuous?

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- What can you do when the treatment is continuous?
- Imai and Ratkovic (2013); Fong, Hazlett and Imai (2018): Covariate Balancing Propensity Score
- Idea: find weights that are orthogonal to X, D, and their interaction

$$\sum_{i}^{N} w_{i}(X_{i}^{*}, D_{i}^{*}, X_{i}^{*} * D_{i}^{*}) = 0, \sum_{i}^{N} w_{i} = N$$

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$$\sum_{i}^{N} w_{i}(X_{i}^{*}, D_{i}^{*}, X_{i}^{*} * D_{i}^{*}) = 0, \ \sum_{i}^{N} w_{i} = N$$

- Hainmueller (2012); Hazlett (2015); Arbour and Dimmery (2019)
- Various forms of convex optimization

```
## [1] "Finding ATT with T=1 as the treatment. Set ATT=2 to :
##
## median ideo
                             0.8995520
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                             0.0000000 1.0000000
## has.woman
                             0.3663366
                                         0.4237288
## liberalOutcome
## Converged within tolerance
##
  median.ideo
                             0.8995520
                                         0.8024492
                             0.7524752
                                         0.5847458
## repub.majority
## had minority
                               2326733
                                         0 2118644
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#### Placebo test

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- Find some variable/observation that should not be affected by the treatment
- Will the weight of your friends affect yours? How about height?
- More common in panel data analysis

### Sensitivity analysis

• The basic idea: How influential unobservable confounders have to be to make the estimate insignificant/zero?

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- The basic idea: How influential unobservable confounders have to be to make the estimate insignificant/zero?
- Remember that confounders must be correlated with both D and Y
- Vary the two correlation coefficients and check how the estimate would change
- Compare the correlation coefficients against observable confounders
- Methods differ in their assumptions on the DGP

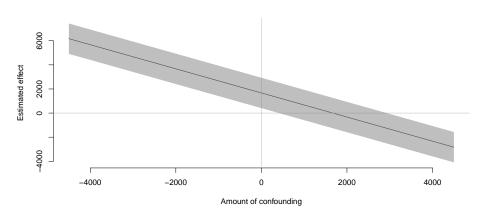
### Sensitivity analysis

- First proposed by Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983)
- Imbens (2003): Full parametric model
- Blackwell (2013): Measure selection bias
- Dorie et al. (2016): Semi-parametric test using BART
- Cinelli and Hazlett (2020): Sensitivity from the OVB perspective

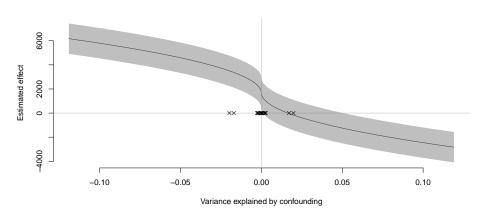
## Blackwell (2013)

- Instead of imagining specific uni or multivariate omitted variable, imagine a function which defines the confounding.
- $q(d,x) = E[Y_i(d)|D_i = d, X_i = x] E[Y_i(d)|D_i = 1 d, X_i = x]$
- If q is positive units in group d have a higher mean potential outcome under d that those in group 1-d.
- So q encodes the selection bias of treatment assignment: it models violations of ignorability.
- After all, confounding means that potential outcomes vary by treatment status.
- Now,  $Y_i^q = Y_i qPr(1 D_i|X_i)$  and we can redo the analysis.
- Package on CRAN: causalsens

# Blackwell (2013)



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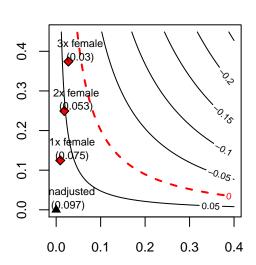
## Cinelli and Hazlett (2020)

- Sensitivity from the omitted variable bias perspective
- Suppose the correct model is  $Y = \hat{\tau}D + \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} + \hat{\gamma}Z + \hat{\epsilon}_{full}$
- But Z is unobservable
- So the real model is  $Y = \hat{\tau}_{res}D + \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}_{res} + \hat{\varepsilon}_{res}$
- It is easy to see:

$$\begin{split} \hat{\tau}_{res} &= \frac{\textit{Cov}(D^{\perp \mathbf{X}}, \, Y^{\perp \mathbf{X}})}{\textit{Var}(D^{\perp \mathbf{X}})} \\ &= \frac{\textit{Cov}(D^{\perp \mathbf{X}}, \, \hat{\tau}D^{\perp \mathbf{X}} + \hat{\gamma}Z^{\perp \mathbf{X}})}{\textit{Var}(D^{\perp \mathbf{X}})} \\ &= \hat{\tau} + \hat{\gamma} \frac{\textit{Cov}(D^{\perp \mathbf{X}}, \, Z^{\perp \mathbf{X}})}{\textit{Var}(D^{\perp \mathbf{X}})} \\ &= \hat{\tau} + \hat{\gamma} \hat{\delta} \end{split}$$

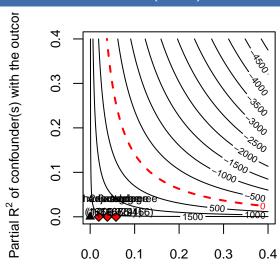
## Cinelli and Hazlett (2020)

- The difference between the correct estimate  $\hat{\tau}$  and the real estimate  $\hat{\tau}_{res}$  has two parts:
  - $\hat{\gamma}$ : the impact of the unobservable
  - $\hat{\delta}$ : the imbalance of the unobservable
- Essentially, the estimate is robust to model misspecification when both
   Y and D can be largely explained by the observable covariates
- The idea could be extended to the nonlinear case where we use R<sup>2</sup> to measure the explanatory power of observable covariates
- Model misspecification is not dependent on the sample size



Partial R<sup>2</sup> of confounder(s) with the treatment

## Cinelli and Hazlett (2020)



Partial R<sup>2</sup> of confounder(s) with the treatment