## **MAS 420: Potential Outcomes Review**

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We'll review potential outcomes and how we can use them to study causal effects.

Useful resources

- 1. Causal Inference: What If Hernán and Robins (2020) [link]
- 2. Causal Inference: the Mixtape Cunningham (2021) [link]
- 3. Mostly Harmless Econometrics Angrist and Pischke (2009) [link]

What do we mean by the causal effect of treatment D on outcome Y for unit i? How would  $Y_i$  have looked if  $D_i$  had been 1, relative to how  $Y_i$  have looked if  $D_i$  had been 0.

We use potential outcomes to represent these possible versions of  $Y_i$ .

- $Y_i$  when  $D_i$  took the value 1 is written  $Y_{1i}$ .
- $Y_i$  when  $D_i$  took the value 0 is written  $Y_{0i}$ .
- $Y_i = Y_{0i} + (Y_{1i} Y_{0i})D_i$

# Individual treatment effects and fundamental problem of causal inference

For unit *i*, the treatment effect could be written as  $\tau_i = Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}$ .

This means we can write  $Y_i = Y_{0i} + (Y_{1i} - Y_{0i})D_i = Y_{0i} + \tau_i D_i$ .

For unit *i* we only get to observe either  $Y_{1i}$  or  $Y_{0i}$ , since we cannot observe unit *i* when they had been treated and when they were not treated at the same time. [And measuring at different times means we're really observing two separate outcomes  $(Y_{i,t} \text{ and } Y_{i,t'})$ .]

The goal of causal inference is to find ways to "fill in" the missing potential outcomes using what we observe.

**Consistency**: The statement that  $Y_i = Y_{0i} + (Y_{1i} - Y_{0i})D_i$  is really an assumption that  $Y_{di}$  is the  $Y_i$  that we would have seen if  $D_i$  was d.

**No-interference**: Do unit j's attributes (e.g., outcome or treatment) affect unit i's outcome? We could write  $Y_{D_i=d, Y_{j=y}, i}$  or  $Y_i(D_i = d, Y_{j=y})$  to represent a potential outcome for having COVID or not, where D is getting vaccinated. Whether or not unit i has COVID is affected by unit i's vaccination status as well as by whether or not unit j has COVID. We often assume that this sort of thing is not happening:  $Y_i(D_i = d, Y_{j=y}) = Y_i(D_i = d)$ .

**One version of treatment**: We also assume that what we mean by D = d is the same thing in practice for all units. If we are interested in the effect of aspirin on headaches, we don't want D = d to mean "take some aspirin". This could be 1 pill or 20 pills, which are substantively different. We want D = d meaning "take 500mg of aspirin".

#### Measures of causal effects

There are many different ways to measure a causal effect. Due to the fundamental problem of causal inference, we are often interested in some aggregation of individual causal effects.

- ATE =  $\mathbb{E}[\tau_i] = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} Y_{0i}] = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}] \mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}]$
- ATT =  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} Y_{0i}|D_i = 1]$ , ATC =  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} Y_{0i}|D_i = 0]$
- CATE =  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} Y_{0i}|X_i = x]$
- Causal mean ratio:  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}]/\mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}]$
- Binary outcomes:
  - Causal risk difference:  $p(Y_{1i} = 1) p(Y_{0i} = 1)$
  - Causal risk ratio:  $p(Y_{1i} = 1)/p(Y_{0i} = 1)$
  - Causal odds ratio:  $\frac{p(Y_{1i}=1)/p(Y_{1i}=0)}{p(Y_{0i}=1)/p(Y_{0i}=0)}$

Different goals might require different measures. If you want to understand the total number of cases of a disease under different treatments you might want a risk difference but if you want to understand how much treatment increases disease risk, then you might use the risk ratio. There are many other measures of causal effects.

### Identification and ignorability

How might we actually "fill in" the missing potential outcomes? We do this by "identifying" some causal effect measure (say  $ATE = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}] - \mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}]$ ) with an expression of quantities that can be estimated from data.

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}] &= \sum_{y} y \times p(Y_{1i} = y) \\ &= \sum_{y} y \times p(Y_{1i} = y | D_i = 1) \quad \text{if } Y_{di} \perp D_i, \text{ which we call "ignorability"} \\ &= \sum_{y} y \times p(Y_i = y | D_i = 1) \quad \text{ by consistency: } Y_i = Y_{0i} + (Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}) D_i \\ &= \mathbb{E}[Y_i | D = 1] \end{split}$$

So we "filled in" the average treated potential outcomes by using the units that we observed to have been treated **and an assumption**  $(Y_{di} \perp D_i)$ . We can also do something similar for  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}]$ . But where did the  $Y_{di} \perp D_i$  come from? Perhaps which units treated or not is random. That is, maybe we ran a randomized experiment or are studying a natural experiment.

How does random assignment of D give us  $Y_{di} \perp D_i$ ? If a unit's D value is assigned at random, then no other features of that unit or its environment will be systematically associated with  $D_i$ . (Though, in a small sample, chance associations between D and other variables are possible.)

Since *D* in a randomized experiment is no longer systematically associated with any other features of the units or environment, we say that it is "ignorable," and we can write things like  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}] = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}|D_i = 1] = \mathbb{E}[Y_i|D = 1]$ .

#### Ignorability and experiments

#### Example (Test Prep and SAT Scores)

Suppose we have a set of linear relationships that govern SAT score  $(Y_i)$ , whether or not someone went to a test prep course  $(D_i)$ , and parental education  $(Z_i)$ ; say that parental education increases prob. that you do test prep and your score). Say  $Z_i$  is unobserved.

$$Z_{i} = \eta_{i} \qquad \text{where } \eta_{i}, \xi_{i}, \epsilon_{i} \text{ are independent noise,} \\ D_{i} = \Phi(\gamma_{0} + \gamma_{1}Z_{i} + \xi_{i}) \qquad \text{and } \Phi() \text{ is the CDF of the normal dist.,} \\ Y_{i} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1}Z_{i} + \alpha_{2}D_{i} + \epsilon_{i} \qquad \text{and } \gamma_{0}, \gamma_{1}, \alpha_{0}, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2} \in \mathbb{R}. \\ \Rightarrow Y_{di} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1}Z_{i} + \alpha_{2}d + \epsilon_{i}$$

We want to understand the effect that test prep  $(D_i)$  has on SAT score  $(Y_i)$ ,  $\alpha_2$ .  $D_i$  is not independent of  $Y_{di}$  because  $Z_i$  appears in both the equation for  $D_i$  and for  $Y_{di}$ . If we were to randomize the assignment of D, this would mean that  $D_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ and so  $Z_i$  would no longer be a cause of  $D_i$ ;  $D_i$  and  $Y_{di}$  would be independent.

#### **Difference in means**

From a couple slide ago, we saw that, when we have ignorability  $(Y_{di} \perp D_i)$ , we could identify the ATE as  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}] = \mathbb{E}[Y_i | D = 1] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i | D = 0]$ . We can estimate this with  $\frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i=1:D_i=1}^{N_1} Y_i - \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{i=1:D_i=0}^{N_0} Y_i$ .

When we don't have ignorability, we can write (see Cunningham (2021))

Difference in Means  

$$\begin{split}
\widetilde{\mathbb{E}[Y_i|D=1]} - \widetilde{\mathbb{E}[Y_i|D=0]} \\
= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}]}_{\text{ATE}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}|D=1] - \mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}|D=0]}_{\text{"Selection" Bias}} + \underbrace{(1 - p(D=1))(\text{ATT} - \text{ATC})}_{\text{Heterogeneous Treatment Effect Bias}}
\end{split}$$
  
e
$$= \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}|D_i = 1] \text{ and} \\
= \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i}|D_i = 0]$$

where

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{ATT} = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i} | D_i = 1] \text{ and} \\ \mathsf{ATC} = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1i} - Y_{0i} | D_i = 0]. \\ \textbf{Do you see why ignorability makes DIM = ATE?} \end{array}$$

## **Conditional ignorability**

What might we do when randomization is not possible? We might consider a "no **unobserved** confounders" argument. That is, we might assume conditional ignorability holds:  $Y_{di} \perp D_i | Z_i$  which means that, within strata of Z, it is like treatment is randomly assigned.

#### Example (Test Prep and SAT Scores)

Recall our test prep example. We want to study the effect that test prep  $(D_i)$  has on SAT score  $(Y_i)$ ,  $\alpha_2$ .  $Z_i$  is parental education, which now say we observe.

$$D_i = \Phi(\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 Z_i + \xi_i)$$
$$Y_{di} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Z_i + \alpha_2 d + \epsilon_i$$

 $D_i$  is not independent of  $Y_{di}$  because  $Z_i$  appears in both the equation for  $D_i$  and for  $Y_{di}$ . But if we look within strata of  $Z_i$  (i.e., compare people whose parents have the same education), we see that  $D_i$  is independent of  $Y_{di}$ , since no other causes of Y are related to D. (Note the last statement is an assumption of no unobserved confounders) 11/16

## Identification and conditional ignorability

With conditional ignorability, we can also identify the distribution over the potential outcomes as

$$p(Y_{di}) = \sum_{z} p(Y_{di} = y, Z_{i} = z)$$
  
=  $\sum_{z} p(Y_{di} = y, Z_{i} = z) \frac{p(Z_{i} = z)}{p(Z_{i} = z)}$   
=  $\sum_{z} p(Y_{di} = y | Z_{i} = z) p(Z_{i} = z)$   
=  $\sum_{z} p(Y_{di} = y | D_{i} = d, Z_{i} = z) p(Z_{i} = z)$  by  $Y_{di} \perp D_{i} | Z_{i}$   
(\*) =  $\sum_{z} p(Y_{i} = y | D_{i} = d, Z_{i} = z) p(Z_{i} = z)$  by consistency

#### Identification and conditional ignorability

We can then identify causal effects, like the ATE.

 $\mathbb{E}$ 

$$\begin{aligned} [Y_{di}] &= \sum_{y} y \times p(Y_{di} = y) \\ &= \sum_{y} y \times \left[ \sum_{z} p(Y_i = y | D_i = d, Z_i = z) p(Z_i = z) \right] \text{ by } (*) \\ &= \sum_{z} \left[ \sum_{y} y \times p(Y_i = y | D_i = d, Z_i = z) \right] p(Z_i = z) \\ &= \sum_{z} \mathbb{E}[Y_i | D_i = d, Z_i = z] p(Z_i = z) \end{aligned}$$

So we saw that, with conditional ignorability, we could identify  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{1i}] = \sum_{z} \mathbb{E}[Y_i|D_i = 1, Z_i = z]p(Z_i = z).$ 

We can estimate this as

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y_i|D=1,Z_i]$$

where  $\hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y_i|D = 1, Z_i]$  is either the Z-strata-specific mean or a model we've fit for the outcome Y using Z as predictors, where both use our observed data for treated units.

We are predicting the value for Y for each observation under the assumption that D = 1 and using the observed value for Z. We could do something similar for  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{0i}]$ .

#### Inverse probability weighting (IPW)

We could also write  $\mathbb{E}[Y_{di}]$  as

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_{di}] = \sum_{y} y \times p(Y_d = y) = \sum_{y} \sum_{z} y \times p(Y = y | D = d, Z = z) p(Z = z) \text{ by } (*)$$
$$= \sum_{y} \sum_{z} y \times \frac{p(Y = y, D = d | Z = z)}{p(D = d | Z = z)} p(Z = z)$$
$$= \sum_{y} \sum_{z} y \times \frac{p(Y = y, D = d, Z = z)}{p(D = d | Z = z)}$$
$$= \sum_{y} \sum_{z} \sum_{d} y \times \mathbb{1}_{D=d} \times \frac{p(Y = y, D = d, Z = z)}{p(D = d | Z = z)} = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{Y \times \mathbb{1}_{D=d}}{p(D = d | Z = z)}\right]$$

We can then model the probability of treatment  $\hat{p}(D = d|Z = z)$ . This is often called a "propensity score." This can be estimated with  $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Y_i \times \mathbb{1}_{D_i=d}}{\hat{p}(D_i=d|Z_i=z)}$ . These are simple estimators; they have short comings.

## Any remaining time

questions / break