

# Causal inference weeks 2 & 3: Selection on observables

Regression, matching, and sub-classification

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DIGM is also known as the **naive estimator**. Let's not be so naive!

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  - ▶ matching
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- ▶ With running example of “MPs for Sale?” (2009), illustration using three methods of **covariate adjustment**:
  - ▶ sub-classification
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  - ▶ regression

Ultimately use regression, but understand others.

## Introduction to covariate adjustment

Covariate adjustment based on categorical variables

Covariate adjustment using the propensity score

Covariate adjustment in sparse data without the propensity score

Two important facts about regression

## Setup

You are given a very large (population-level) dataset with three columns, labeled  $Y_i$ ,  $D_i$ , and  $X_i$ , and asked to assess the effect of  $D_i$  on  $Y_i$ .

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### Joint distribution of $X_i$ and $D_i$ in the dataset

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**To discuss:** Think of an example where  $D_i$  and  $X_i$  might be related in this way. What does  $Y$  represent in your example?

## Outcomes by $X$ and $D$

You calculate the mean outcomes by  $X_i$  and  $D_i$ :

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So, what is the effect of  $D_i$  on  $Y_i$ ?



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If CIA holds, DIGM gives us ATE *within levels of*  $X_i$ .

## CATE, ATE, ATT, ATC

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# CATE, ATE, ATT, ATC in this example

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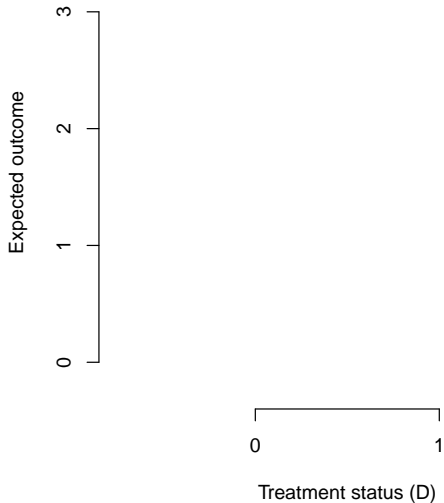
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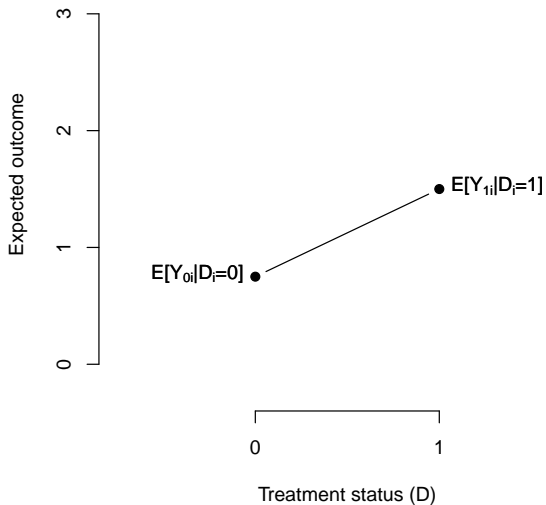
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So what is ATE, ATT, ATC in this example (given CIA)?

# Illustration for this example

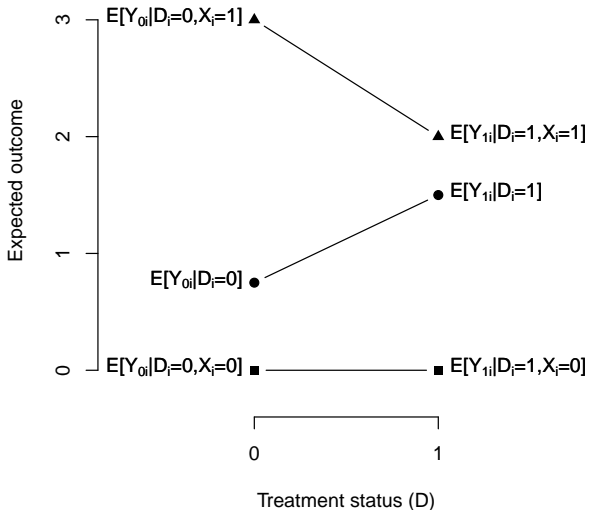


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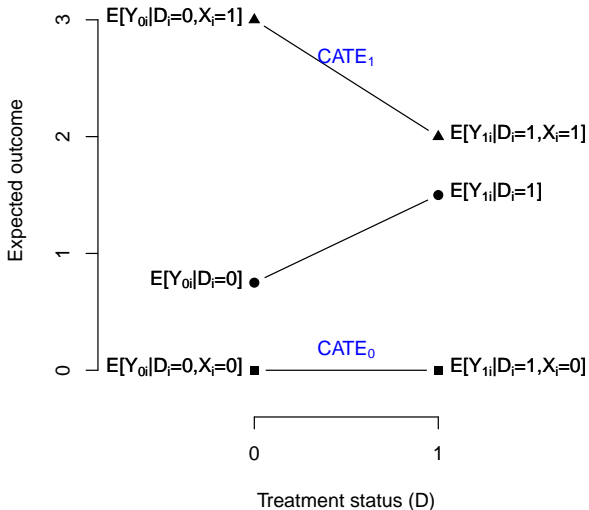




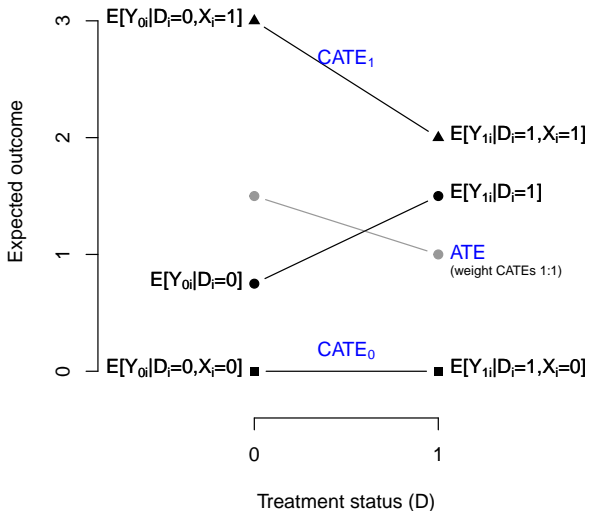
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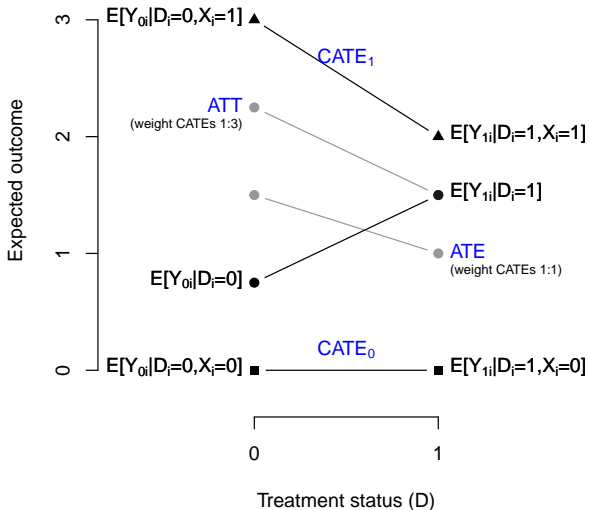
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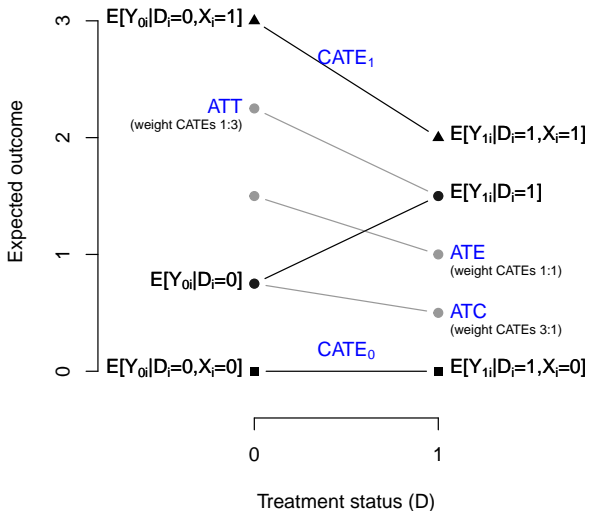
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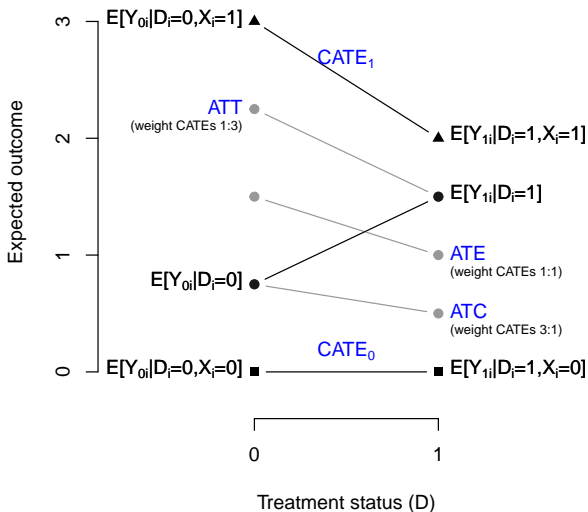
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## Illustration for this example (2)



### Check understanding:

- ▶ Why are ATE, ATT, ATC all the same in a randomized experiment?
- ▶ How can the DIGM be positive when neither CATE is positive?

## Mathier explanation

The ATT is the weighted average of the CATEs, where the weights reflect the distribution of  $X_i$  in the treatment group.

$$\text{ATT} = \sum_{x=0,1} E[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)|X_i = x] \Pr(X_i = x|D_i = 1) \quad (1)$$

$$= \sum_{x=0,1} \text{CATE}_x \Pr(X_i = x|D_i = 1) \quad (2)$$

In this case, this is

$$\text{ATT} = 0 \times 1/4 + -1 \times 3/4 = -3/4.$$

The weights of  $1/4$  and  $3/4$  come from the joint distribution: the probability of  $X_i = 1$  given that  $D_i = 1$  can be calculated as the ratio  $\frac{3/8}{3/8+1/8}$ , which is a simple application of Bayes' Theorem.

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- ▶  $X_i$  might be an outcome, so controlling for it introduces **post-treatment bias**. e.g. suppose  $D_i$  had been randomly assigned – how would we interpret this data?

## What do we condition on/control for?

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**To discuss:** In regressions, generally only one coefficient (at most) can be interpreted as a (causal) effect. Why is that?

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Link to CIA more obvious for sub-classification and matching, but regression more flexible and common.

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What about the DIGM as an estimator for ATE?



# Covariates

For each candidate, we have

- ▶ party
- ▶ electoral results
- ▶ year of birth
- ▶ secondary education
- ▶ university education
- ▶ profession


How can we use these to make better comparisons?

**BETHNAL GREEN**

Electorate : 42,172

*Holman, P. (Co-op. & Lab.)	20,519
Harris, Sir P. (L.)	9,715
Welfare, Mrs. D. (C.)	1,582
Mildwater, G. (Comm.)	610
Co-op. & Lab. majority	10,804

Mr. P. HOLMAN was elected for S.W. Bethnal Green in 1945. Born in 1891 and educated at Mill Hill and the London School of Economics, he has been a member of Middlesex County Council and Teddington U.D.C. He was sometime lecturer for the Workers' Educational Association. He was a member of the Parliamentary Labour Party groups on finance and industry.



SIR PERCY HARRIS, who is 73, first elected to Parliament for Harborough in 1916-18, represented S.W. Bethnal Green from 1922 to 1945. For 35 years he has served on the L.C.C. and after the 1949 elections was the only Liberal on the council. Educated at Harrow and at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, he was called to the Bar in 1899. He was Chief Whip of the Parliamentary Liberal Party from 1935 to 1945, and deputy-leader in the war-time Parliament, and also chairman of the House of Commons All-Party Panel, and treasurer of the Inter-Parliamentary Union.

Introduction to covariate adjustment

**Covariate adjustment based on categorical variables**

Covariate adjustment using the propensity score

Covariate adjustment in sparse data without the propensity score

Two important facts about regression

## CIA based on categorical variables

Suppose we believe that CIA holds given candidate's

- ▶ party (Labour, Conservative)
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Plausible?

## Number of candidates by party & education

<b>University:</b>	<b>Party: Con.</b>			<b>Party: Lab.</b>		
	Oxbridge	Other	None	Oxbridge	Other	None
<b>School: Eton</b>	16	4	5	2	0	0
Other public	40	25	31	21	10	3
Other	10	25	31	19	49	31
Not mentioned	7	12	17	5	27	37

## Number of MPs and unsuccessful candidates by cell

**Note:** (2,1) indicates 2 elected candidates and 1 unelected candidate

<b>University:</b>	<b>Party: Con.</b>			<b>Party: Lab.</b>		
	Oxbridge	Other	None	Oxbridge	Other	None
<b>School: Eton</b>	(14, 2)	(3, 1)	(4, 1)	(0, 2)	(0, 0)	(0, 0)
Other public	(18, 22)	(11, 14)	(11, 20)	(6, 15)	(4, 6)	(1, 2)
Other	(2, 8)	(8, 17)	(10, 21)	(2, 17)	(15, 34)	(13, 18)
Not mentioned	(4, 3)	(7, 5)	(12, 5)	(1, 4)	(8, 19)	(11, 26)

## Difference in group means (of log wealth at death) by cell

<b>University:</b>	<b>Party: Con.</b>			<b>Party: Lab.</b>		
	Oxbridge	Other	None	Oxbridge	Other	None
<b>School: Eton</b>	2.61	2.66	-0.67	-	-	-
Other public	0.35	0.15	0.48	0.65	-0.27	0.58
Other	1.05	0.33	0.51	-0.02	-0.01	0.45
Not mentioned	0.06	1.48	0.25	-0.6	0.27	0.06



## Sub-classification

**Sub-classification:** calculate DIGMs in each cell; average them.

<b>University:</b>	<b>Party: Con.</b>			<b>Party: Lab.</b>		
	Oxbridge	Other	None	Oxbridge	Other	None
<b>School: Eton</b>	2.61	2.66	-0.67	-	-	-
Other public	0.35	0.15	0.48	0.65	-0.27	0.58
Other	1.05	0.33	0.51	-0.02	-0.01	0.45
Not mentioned	0.06	1.48	0.25	-0.6	0.27	0.06

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**Sub-classification:** calculate DIGMs in each cell; average them.

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weighting by <b>#non-MPs</b> in each cell:	.31	(ATC)

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For example:

Party	School	University	Treated	ln(Wealth)	$Y_{0i}$	$Y_{1i}$
Labour	Other Public	Not Mentioned	1	12.7	?	12.7
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To get ATE: take difference in mean of  $Y_{1i}$  and  $Y_{0i}$  (with imputations).

To get ATT: same, but only using treated rows.

To get ATC: same, but only using control rows.

## Exact matching: implementation

Using Matching library:

```
> match.ate = Match(Y = d$lnrealgross, Tr = d$treated, X = d[,c("tory"  
, "uni.cat", "sch.cat")], exact = T, estimand = "ATE")  
> round(match.ate$est, 2)  
      [,1]  
[1,] 0.4
```



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```
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```

```
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```

```
> round(Match(Y = d$lnrealgross, Tr = d$treated, X = d[,c("tory", "uni
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```

```
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```

```
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## Regression

Given CIA, **regression** implies regressing  $Y_i$  on an indicator for treatment and a dummy for every cell.

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```
> summary(lm(lnrealgross ~ treated + cell.cat, data = d))
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Call:

```
lm(formula = lnrealgross ~ treated + cell.cat, data = d)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-4.8977	-0.4868	-0.0022	0.4877	3.7358

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	13.0120	0.7079	18.382	< 2e-16	***
treated	0.3710	0.1057	3.510	0.000499	***
cell.cat2	-0.7396	0.7274	-1.017	0.309864	
cell.cat3	-0.9216	0.7343	-1.255	0.210151	
cell.cat4	-0.1767	0.8378	-0.211	0.833110	
cell.cat5	-0.8024	0.9145	-0.877	0.380777	
cell.cat6	-0.5110	0.7766	-0.658	0.510917	

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      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-4.8977 -0.4868 -0.0022  0.4877  3.7358
```

Coefficients: (2 not defined because of singularities)

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	13.04495	0.99091	13.165	< 2e-16	***
treated	0.37101	0.10570	3.510	0.000499	***
partytory	0.66122	0.88687	0.746	0.456362	
scatnotMentioned	-0.77257	1.00459	-0.769	0.442319	
scatotherPublic	-0.83536	1.14731	-0.728	0.466969	
scatsecondary	-1.10119	0.97491	-1.130	0.259342	
ucatotherDegree	-0.53300	0.75924	-0.702	0.483069	
ucatoxbridge	-0.03294	0.69342	-0.047	0.962139	
partytory:scatnotMentioned	-0.24588	0.93177	-0.264	0.791999	
partytory:scatotherPublic	-0.40490	1.07359	-0.377	0.706263	
partytory:scatsecondary	-0.15465	0.85057	-0.182	0.855815	

## Saturated regression models

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Given categorical variables, a saturated model is the most flexible possible functional form.

**To discuss:** Why would you prefer a saturated model to a model with only main effects, no interactions?

## Comparison of techniques

<b>Comparison of estimates</b>			
	ATE	ATT	ATC
Sub-classification	.40	.54	.31
Matching (exact)	.40	.54	.31
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- ▶ ATE from sub-classification is average of cell DIGMs weighted by  $\{\text{\#units in cell}\}$  (definition).
- ▶ ATE from (exact) matching is exactly the same thing.
- ▶ ATE from saturated regression is the average of cell DIGMs weighted by  $\{\text{\#units in cell} \times \text{variance of treatment in cell}\}$  (Angrist and Pischke MHE p. 75).

Introduction to covariate adjustment

Covariate adjustment based on categorical variables

**Covariate adjustment using the propensity score**

Covariate adjustment in sparse data without the propensity score

Two important facts about regression

## CIA based on further categorical variables

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- ▶ Sub-classification: many empty cells
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- ▶ (Saturated) regression: many empty groups, NA coefficients

You may get an estimate, but it will be based on an unrepresentative subset (far from true ATE).

## How to proceed when many cells are empty

What can we do?

- ▶ Sub-classification: propensity score methods
- ▶ Matching: propensity score methods, nearest neighbor, coarsened exact matching
- ▶ Regression: propensity score methods, stronger CIA (i.e. less flexible functional form, e.g. drop interactions)

## Propensity score methods

The propensity score is the probability of treatment, given covariates:

$$p(X_i) \equiv \Pr(D_i = 1|X_i) = E[D_i|X_i]$$

This can be estimated with OLS (linear probability model) or logistic regression (logit).

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The CIA becomes:  $Y_{0i}, Y_{1i} \perp\!\!\!\perp D_i | p(X_i)$

Having estimated the propensity score, we can

- ▶ Sub-classification: calculate DIGM within bands of the propensity score
- ▶ Matching: match units based on nearby propensity scores
- ▶ Regression: regress outcome on treatment controlling flexibly for the propensity score

## Propensity score example

I regress the treatment indicator on party, secondary school category, university category, year of birth ( $yob$ ),  $yob^2$ ,  $yob^3$ , gender, 11 profession indicators.



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ps.model = lm(treated ~ labour + scat + ucat + xxyob + I(xxyob^2) + I(xxyob^3) + xfemale + xxoc_teacherall + xxoc_barrister + xxoc_solicitor + xxoc_dr + xxoc_civil_serv + xxoc_local_politics + xxoc_business + xxoc_white_collar + xxoc_union_org + xxoc_journalist + xxoc_miner, data = d, na.action = na.exclude) # na.exclude so that an NA is included in predictions for units with missing values
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xxoc_white_collar + xxoc_union_org + xxoc_journalist + xxoc_miner, data = d, na.action = na.exclude) # na
.exclude so that an NA is included in predictions for units with missing values
```

Take a look at the results:

```
> summary(ps.model)$coefficients
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	2.640142e+04	9.015006e+04	0.2928608	0.7697793131
labour	-1.535037e-01	5.526546e-02	-2.7775703	0.0057325165
scatnotMentioned	-3.021275e-01	1.132277e-01	-2.6683185	0.0079308561
scatotherPublic	-3.154628e-01	1.036949e-01	-3.0422208	0.0025020298
scatsecondary	-3.864579e-01	1.072719e-01	-3.6026008	0.0003544281
ucatotherDegree	3.350661e-02	5.849440e-02	0.5728174	0.5670878012
ucatoxbridge	-4.119867e-02	6.544398e-02	-0.6295257	0.5293616454
xxyob	-4.187426e+01	1.410154e+02	-0.2969482	0.7666590682
I(xxyob^2)	2.213470e-02	7.352562e-02	0.3010475	0.7635335588
I(xxyob^3)	-3.899376e-06	1.277858e-05	-0.3051494	0.7604098834
xxfemale	-9.486131e-02	1.173128e-01	-0.8086184	0.4192117588
xxoc_teacherall	-6.575377e-02	8.060895e-02	-0.8157131	0.4151461145
xxoc_barrister	-7.703770e-02	8.274819e-02	-0.9309896	0.3524163260
xxoc_solicitor	-6.257366e-02	9.595262e-02	-0.6521308	0.5146885466
xxoc_dr	-3.314176e-02	1.551896e-01	-0.2135566	0.8310008086

## Propensity score example (2)

The propensity score is the prediction from this model:

```
pX = predict(ps.model)
```

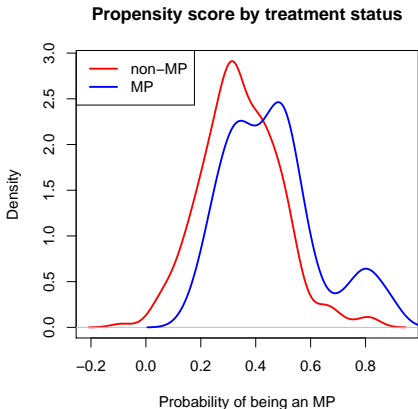
## Propensity score example (2)

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```
pX = predict(ps.model)
```

Compare the distribution by treatment status:

```
plot(density(pX[d$treated == 0], na.rm = T), lwd = 2, col = "red", main = "Propensity score by treatment
status", xlab = "Probability of being an MP")
lines(density(pX[d$treated == 1], na.rm = T), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
legend("topleft", lwd = c(2,2), col = c("red", "blue"), legend = c("non-MP", "MP"))
```



## Sub-classification on the propensity score

Let's start with 10 sub-classes of the propensity score:

```
library(dplyr)
d$pX.tile = ntile(pX, 10)
```

Counts and DIGMs in each sub-class:

Subclass	#units	#MPs	#non-MPs	DIGM
1	43	4	39	-0.24
2	43	13	30	0.01
3	43	13	30	0.9
4	42	12	30	0.33
5	43	18	25	0.24
6	43	15	28	-0.13
7	42	15	27	0.35
8	43	20	23	0.5
9	43	26	17	0.47
10	40	29	11	1.69

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9	43	26	17	0.47
10	40	29	11	1.69

ATE: 0.40

ATT: 0.57

ATC: 0.30

How many sub-classes? **Bias-variance tradeoff.**

## Nearest-neighbor matching on the propensity score

Using defaults in Matching:

```
use = !is.na(pX) # Match requires no missing data.  
match.ate = Match(Y = d$lnrealgross[use], Tr = d$treated[use],  
  X = pX[use], estimand = "ATE")  
match.att = Match(Y = d$lnrealgross[use], Tr = d$treated[use],  
  X = pX[use], estimand = "ATT")  
match.atc = Match(Y = d$lnrealgross[use], Tr = d$treated[use],  
  X = pX[use], estimand = "ATC")
```



## Nearest-neighbor matching on the propensity score

Using defaults in Matching:

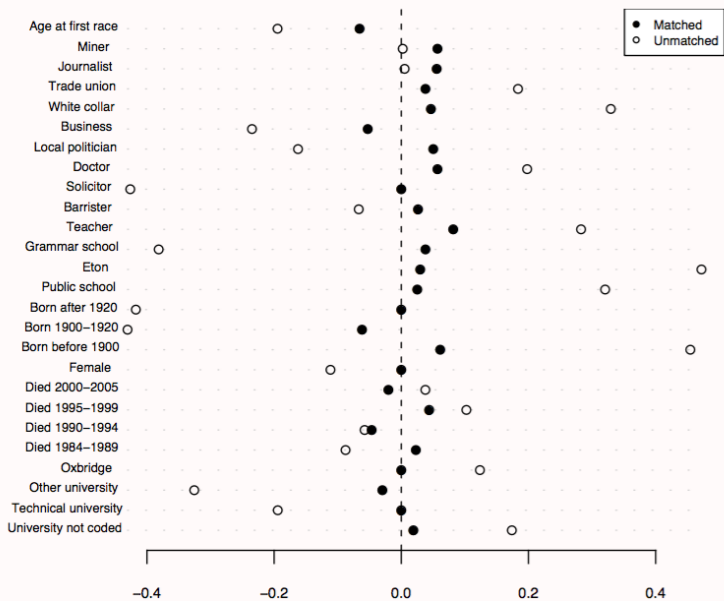
```
use = !is.na(pX) # Match requires no missing data.  
match.ate = Match(Y = d$lnrealgross[use], Tr = d$treated[use],  
  X = pX[use], estimand = "ATE")  
match.att = Match(Y = d$lnrealgross[use], Tr = d$treated[use],  
  X = pX[use], estimand = "ATT")  
match.atc = Match(Y = d$lnrealgross[use], Tr = d$treated[use],  
  X = pX[use], estimand = "ATC")
```

ATE: 0.42

ATT: 0.50

ATC: 0.38

## Balance statistics for matching



## Regression controlling for the propensity score

Controlling via dummies for 10 sub-classes:

```
d$pX.tile = ntile(pX, 10)
summary(lm(lnrealgross ~ treated + as.factor(pX.tile), data = d))$coefficients
```

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```
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summary(lm(lnrealgross ~ treated + as.factor(pX.tile), data = d))$coefficients
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	12.310737706	0.1591787	77.33909546	3.258338e-248
treated	0.430298252	0.1103101	3.90080605	1.118504e-04
as.factor(pX.tile)2	0.138439205	0.2258278	0.61302995	5.401932e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)3	0.111779595	0.2258278	0.49497712	6.208789e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)4	0.065073825	0.2269751	0.28670023	7.744853e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)5	0.127734431	0.2274973	0.56147673	5.747764e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)6	0.158400433	0.2264099	0.69961800	4.845588e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)7	0.020971809	0.2278481	0.09204294	9.267084e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)8	-0.003937183	0.2283635	-0.01724086	9.862528e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)9	0.227911766	0.2316254	0.98396686	3.257065e-01
as.factor(pX.tile)10	0.597870989	0.2392019	2.49944111	1.282519e-02

## Regression controlling for the propensity score (2)

Controlling via polynomials of propensity score:

```
> summary(lm(lnrealgross ~ treated + pX + I(pX^2) + I(pX^3) + I(pX^4), data = d))$coefficients
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	12.3800460	0.3572190	34.6567382	4.079552e-125
treated	0.4051929	0.1075289	3.7682222	1.879786e-04
pX	-0.7290546	4.0672344	-0.1792507	8.578275e-01
I(pX^2)	7.7034958	17.7541367	0.4338986	6.645854e-01
I(pX^3)	-21.8374543	31.1168400	-0.7017889	4.832004e-01
I(pX^4)	18.8390905	18.2084632	1.0346337	3.014368e-01

# Comparison of techniques (propensity score version)

<b>Comparison of estimates</b>			
	ATE	ATT	ATC
Sub-classification	.40	.57	.30
Matching	.42	.50	.38
Regression: bins	.41	-	-
Regression: polynomials	.43	-	-

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### To note:

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### To note:

- ▶ Propensity score is estimated, which should be considered in variance
- ▶ Our model for the propensity score has no interactions – stronger assumptions than previous exercise



Covariate adjustment in sparse data without the propensity score

Introduction to covariate adjustment

Covariate adjustment based on categorical variables

Covariate adjustment using the propensity score

**Covariate adjustment in sparse data without the propensity score**

Two important facts about regression

## Sub-classification without the propensity score

To avoid empty cells, you might try playing around with how cells are defined.

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This is basically how I think about **coarsened exact matching (CEM)** by King et al.

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- ▶ Tory born in 1942 who went to Oxford?

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- ▶ Tory born in 1942 who went to Oxford?

Some of the options:

- ▶ scale distance on each variable by inverse of the variable’s sample variance (default in *Matching* when not exact)
- ▶ scale distance by the inverse of the covariance matrix (Mahalanobis distance)
- ▶ genetic matching: search for a weight matrix that yields overall covariate balance (Diamond and Sekhon)

## Regression

Adding control variables to a regression model is very straightforward.



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1. Estimate propensity score  $p(X_i)$  based on model:

$$D_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_{i1} + \alpha_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \alpha_K X_{iK}$$

Regress  $Y_i$  on  $D_i$  and a flexible function of the propensity score.

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Regress  $Y_j$  on  $D_j$  and a flexible function of the propensity score.

2. Regress  $Y_j$  on  $D_j$  and covariates  $X_{j1}$  to  $X_{jK}$ .

## Regression: propensity score vs. covariates

In the “MPs for Sale” example:

<b>Approach</b>	<b>ATE</b>
Regress $Y_i$ on $D_i$ and 10 bins of propensity score	.43
Regress $Y_i$ on $D_i$ and 4 polynomials of propensity score	.41
Regress $Y_i$ on $D_i$ and covariates from propensity score model	.41

## Comparing methods of covariate adjustment: bottom line

My view:

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  - ▶ Statistical inference straightforward

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To make the “selection on observables” assumption credible, you need **good observables**, i.e. good measures of characteristics that affect the outcome and differ between treatment and control groups.

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Keep the statistics simple, focus on the data, and be opportunistic.

Introduction to covariate adjustment

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Covariate adjustment using the propensity score

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Two important facts about regression

## Omitted variable bias formula

Suppose two covariates,  $X_{1i}$  and  $X_{2i}$ .

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$$X_{2i} = \alpha^a + \pi_{21} X_{1i} + e_i^a.$$



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**Explain the last line in plain English.**

## OVB formula example: long regression

```
> long = lm(lnrealgross ~ treated + labour + scat + ucat, data = d)
> summary(long)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = lnrealgross ~ treated + labour + scat + ucat, data = d)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-4.9695	-0.4504	-0.0260	0.3951	3.7635

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	13.20278	0.23104	57.144	< 2e-16	***
treated	0.37094	0.10303	3.600	0.000356	***
labour	-0.32507	0.10680	-3.044	0.002484	**
scatnotMentioned	-0.63137	0.23696	-2.664	0.008009	**
scatotherPublic	-0.65379	0.21700	-3.013	0.002746	**
scatsecondary	-0.79735	0.22745	-3.506	0.000505	***
ucatotherDegree	0.04185	0.11526	0.363	0.716738	
ucatoxbridge	0.26938	0.13110	2.055	0.040516	*

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.9991 on 419 degrees of freedom  
 Multiple R-squared: 0.1409, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1265  
 F-statistic: 9.816 on 7 and 419 DF, p-value: 2.386e-11

## OVB formula example: short regression

```
> short = lm(lnrealgross ~ treated +          scat + ucat, data = d) # cut out labour
> summary(short)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = lnrealgross ~ treated + scat + ucat, data = d)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-4.9081	-0.4111	-0.0555	0.4335	3.6594

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	13.176890	0.233147	56.517	< 2e-16	***
treated	0.410704	0.103199	3.980	8.13e-05	***
scatnotMentioned	-0.817735	0.231155	-3.538	0.000449	***
scatotherPublic	-0.701988	0.218545	-3.212	0.001419	**
scatsecondary	-0.955895	0.223573	-4.276	2.36e-05	***
ucatotherDegree	0.005271	0.115758	0.046	0.963700	
ucatoxbridge	0.233832	0.131855	1.773	0.076886	.

---  
 Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.009 on 420 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.1219, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1093

F-statistic: 9.717 on 6 and 420 DF, p-value: 4.968e-10

## OVB formula example: auxiliary regression

```
> auxiliary = lm(labour ~ treated + scat + ucat, data = d)
> summary(auxiliary)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = labour ~ treated + scat + ucat, data = d)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.76547	-0.34044	-0.06668	0.34706	0.89441

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	0.07963	0.10549	0.755	0.45072
treated	-0.12232	0.04669	-2.620	0.00912 **
scatnotMentioned	0.57331	0.10459	5.482	7.28e-08 ***
scatothetPublic	0.14828	0.09888	1.500	0.13447
scatsecondary	0.48775	0.10116	4.822	1.99e-06 ***
ucatothetDegree	0.11252	0.05237	2.148	0.03225 *
ucatoxbridge	0.10936	0.05966	1.833	0.06749 .

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.4565 on 420 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.1786, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1669

F-statistic: 15.22 on 6 and 420 DF, p-value: 8.518e-16

## OVB formula example: confirming equality

So is it true that

$$\beta^s = \beta^l + \pi_{21}\gamma.$$

i.e. “short equals long plus the effect of omitted times the regression of omitted on included”?

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```
> all.equal(coef(short)["treated"],  
+          coef(long)["treated"] + coef(auxiliary)["treated"]*coef(long)["labour"])  
[1] TRUE
```

**Yes.**

## Lessons from the OVB formula

Omitting a variable causes bias in our estimate of ATE if and only if

- ▶ it is related to the treatment, conditional on other covariates, and
- ▶ it is related to the outcome, conditional on other covariates.



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Omitting a variable causes bias in our estimate of ATE if and only if

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- ▶ it is related to the outcome, conditional on other covariates.

This is why

- ▶ you don't have to control for anything in a randomized experiment
- ▶ you don't have to control for everything you can think of that affects  $Y_i$ 
  - only variables related to  $D_i$  (and  $Y_i$ ) conditional on other covariates
- ▶ you don't have to control for anything other than the running variable in an RDD

## “Regression anatomy”

The coefficient  $\beta^l$  in the **long** regression

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getting the residuals,

$$\tilde{X}_{1i} = X_{1i} - (\hat{\alpha}^a + \hat{\pi}_{12} X_{2i}),$$

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$$Y_i = \alpha^* + \beta^* \tilde{X}_{1i} + e_i^*.$$

i.e.,  $\beta^* = \beta^l$ .

## Regression anatomy: “reverse auxiliary” regression

```
> reverse.auxiliary = lm(treated ~ labour + scat + ucat, data = d)
> summary(reverse.auxiliary)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = treated ~ labour + scat + ucat, data = d)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.8272	-0.3891	-0.2577	0.5499	0.7952

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	0.827168	0.101705	8.133	4.77e-15	***
labour	-0.131437	0.050172	-2.620	0.009119	**
scatnotMentioned	-0.322600	0.111115	-2.903	0.003887	**
scatotherPublic	-0.371681	0.101160	-3.674	0.000269	***
scatsecondary	-0.432604	0.105632	-4.095	5.06e-05	***
ucatotherDegree	-0.005414	0.054588	-0.099	0.921037	
ucatotherbride	-0.058278	0.062022	-0.940	0.347949	

---

Signif. codes: 0 ‘\*\*\*’ 0.001 ‘\*\*’ 0.01 ‘\*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.4732 on 420 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.07118, Adjusted R-squared: 0.05791

F-statistic: 5.364 on 6 and 420 DF, p-value: 2.364e-05

```
> resids.from.ra = resid(reverse.auxiliary)
```

# Regression anatomy: “outcome-on-residuals” regression

```
> star.reg = lm(d$lnrealgross ~ resid.from.ra)
> summary(star.reg)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = d$lnrealgross ~ resid.from.ra)
```

```
Residuals:
```

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-4.0169	-0.4474	-0.0796	0.4241	3.6068

```
Coefficients:
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	12.6190	0.0511	246.939	< 2e-16 ***
resid.from.ra	0.3709	0.1089	3.406	0.000721 ***

```
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

```
Residual standard error: 1.056 on 425 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.02658,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.02429
F-statistic: 11.6 on 1 and 425 DF,  p-value: 0.0007208
```

```
> all.equal(coef(long)["treated"], coef(star.reg)["resid.from.ra"], check.attributes = F)
[1] TRUE
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```

**It works!**

## Lessons from regression anatomy

The OLS coefficient on  $D_i$  measures the relationship between  $Y_i$  and the part of  $D_i$  not “explained” by  $X_i$ .

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What is the CIA in any regression that claims to measure the effect of  $D_i$  on  $Y_i$ ?

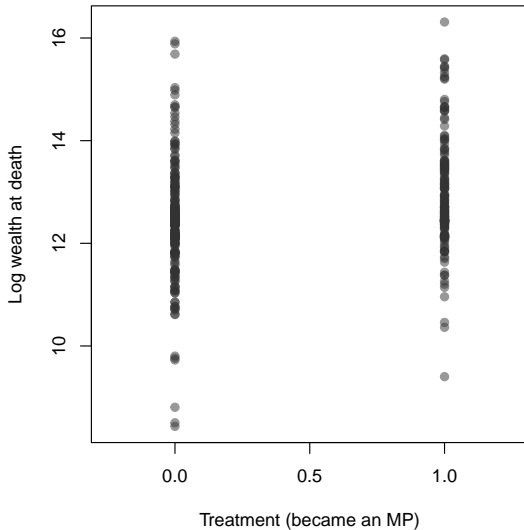
## Lessons from regression anatomy

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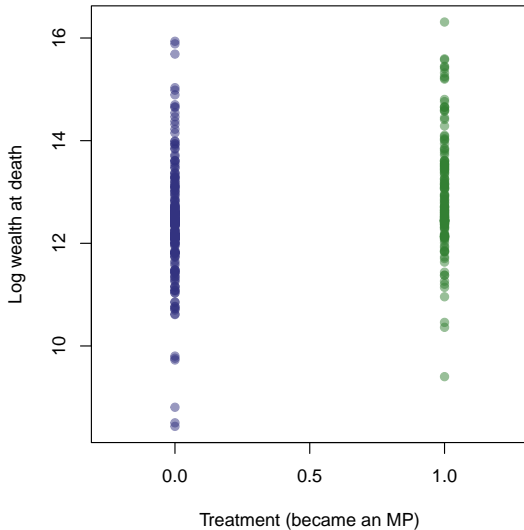
What is the CIA in any regression that claims to measure the effect of  $D_i$  on  $Y_i$ ?

The part of  $D_i$  not “explained” by  $X_i$  (the residual from the “reverse auxiliary regression”) is not related to the potential outcomes, i.e. as-if random.

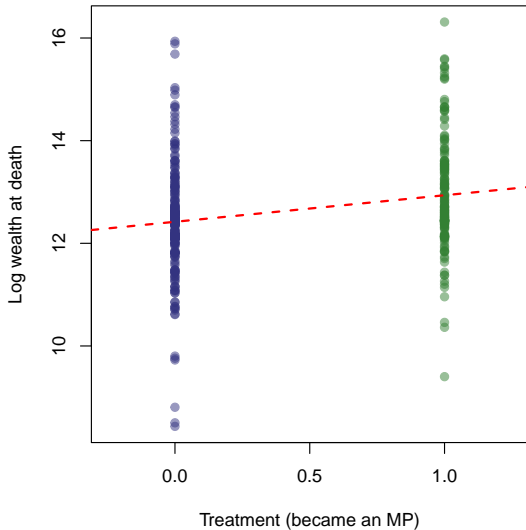
## Regression CIA: illustration



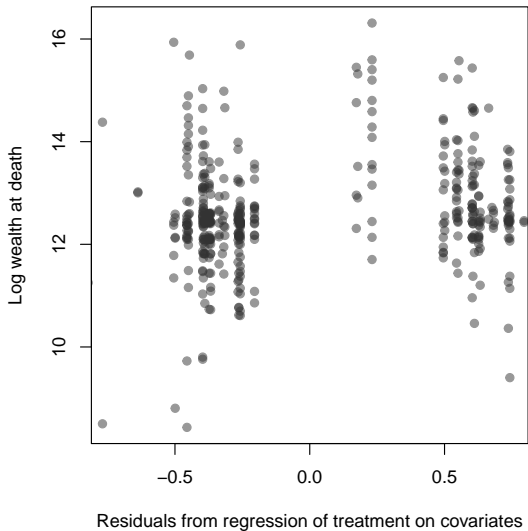
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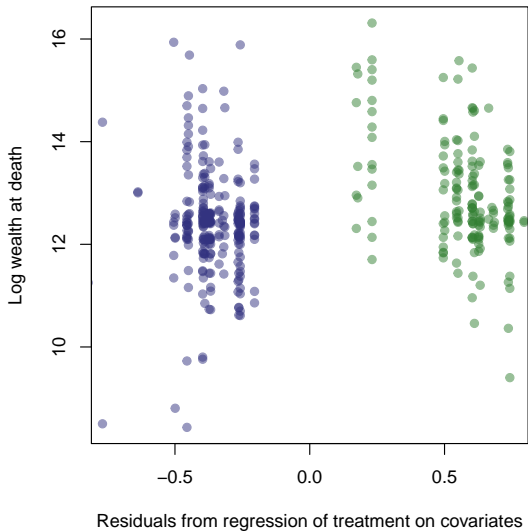


## Regression CIA: illustration

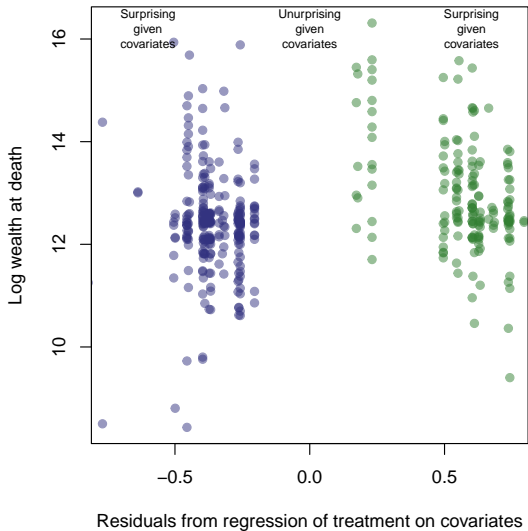




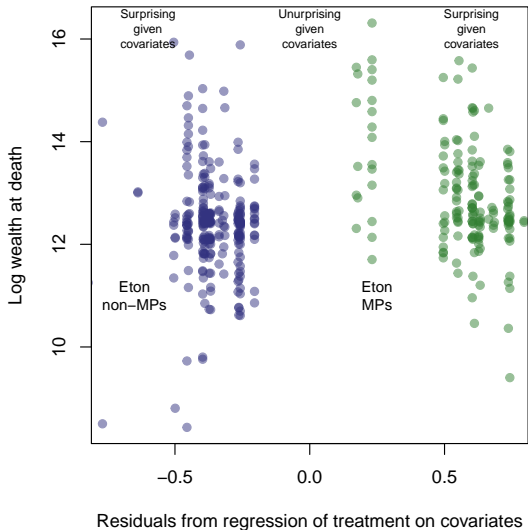
## Regression CIA: illustration



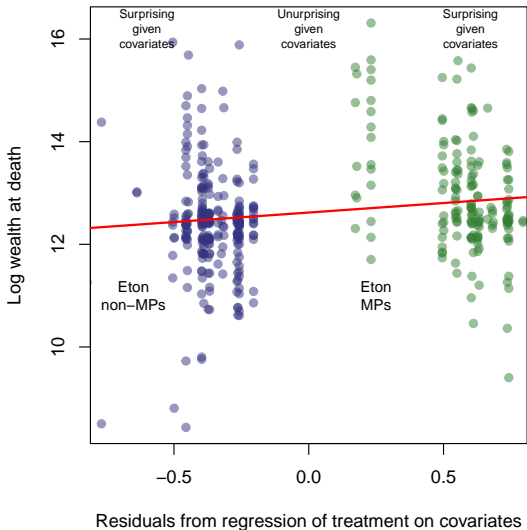
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# Regression CIA: illustration



Two important facts about regression

