

# Causal Inference and Data-Fusion in Econometrics

“Beyond Curve Fitting: Causation, Counterfactuals, and Imagination-based AI”  
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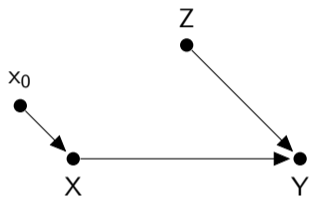
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# Causal Inference in Econometrics

- ▶ Despite a strong interest in causal inference in general, graphical models of causation have not yet caught on in economics
- ▶ A couple of (unrepresentative) opinions
  - ▶ DAGs have not much to offer to econometrics (Imbens, 2014)
  - ▶ We can do equally well with home-made methods (Heckman and Pinto, 2013)
  - ▶ DAGs are useful as a pedagogical tool, but nothing more
  - ▶ We haven't seen a killer application of DAGs yet
- ▶ Technology adoption is a coordination problem (because of network effects), usual obstacles are
  - ▶ Switching costs
  - ▶ Disciplinary silos
  - ▶ Resistance by incumbents
  - ▶ Gate-keeping
- ▶ To move from one equilibrium to the next you need a strong “value proposition”

# Structural Causal Models in Economics

- ▶ The notion of interventions in structural causal models goes back to Haavelmo (1943) and Strotz and Wold (1960)
  - ▶ Quasi-deterministic functions with stochastic background factors
  - ▶ Interventions = “wiping out” of equations in the system
- ▶ The concept of causality developed by Pearl (1995) is very natural to economists
  - ▶ In contrast to statisticians, for example
  - ▶ More natural than the potential outcomes framework



$$z = f_Z(u_Z)$$

$$x = x_0$$

$$y = f_Y(x, z, u_Y)$$

# Structural Econometrics vs. Potential Outcomes

- ▶ Econometrics is currently dominated by two competing streams
- ▶ Structural econometrics
  - ▶ Very much in the tradition of Haavelmo (1943) and Strotz and Wold (1960)
  - ▶ In practice, relies on distributional assumptions and (parametric) shape restrictions
  - ▶ Work by, e.g., Matzkin (2007) that aims to relax parametric assumptions, but
    - ▶ still relies on (weaker) shape restrictions, and is not widely adopted in applied work
- ▶ Potential outcomes framework (Rubin, 1974; Imbens and Rubin, 2015)
  - ▶ Does impose crucial identifying assumptions (e.g., ignorability) without reference to an underlying model (“black box character”)
    - ▶ A feature that has been frequently criticized by the structural camp (e.g., by Rosenzweig and Wolpin, 2000 and Heckman and Urzua, 2009)
  - ▶ In practice, causal inference in PO boils down to the four “tricks of the trade” (matching, IV, RDD, difference-in-differences)

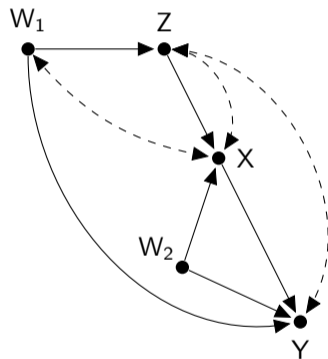
⇒ DAGs are a perfect “middle ground” between structural econometrics and PO

# Confounding Bias

- ▶ Backdoor adjustment in causal diagrams
  - ▶ Many econometricians have probably heard about backdoor adjustment by now
  - ▶ They agree that DAGs are useful for justifying ignorability assumptions and use it in teaching (Cunningham, 2018)
- ▶ Front-door adjustment
  - ▶ Much less known in econometrics
  - ▶ Recent application of the front-door criterion in a diff-in-diff setting by Glynn and Kashin (2017)
- ▶ Collider Bias
  - ▶ Economists talk about “bad controls” (Angrist and Pischke, 2009), but this concept usually raises more questions than it answers
  - ▶ Recent example: Google tried to defend itself against allegations of wage discrimination by presenting salary statistics conditional on occupation, which likely introduces collider bias

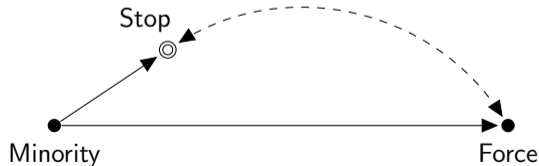
# Identification by Surrogate Experiments

- ▶ Surrogate experiments are ubiquitous in economics
  - ▶ E.g., “encouragement designs” in development economics (Duflo et al., 2008)
- ▶ However, applications remain almost exclusively within the IV / LATE framework (Imbens and Angrist, 1994)
  - ▶ Not nonparametrically identified (Balke and Pearl, 1995), requires shape restrictions for the first stage (Imbens and Angrist, 1994)
- ▶ Complete nonparametric solution for  $z$ -identification problem in causal diagrams (Bareinboim and Pearl, 2012a)
  - ▶  $\mathcal{Z}$ -identification = answer a causal query  $P(y|do(x))$  with the help of  $do(Z)$



# Selection Bias

- ▶ Non-random, selection-biased data is a frequent problem in economics
- ▶ Knox et al. (2019), for example, criticize papers that try to measure the degree of racial-bias in policing with the help of administrative records
  - ▶ Problem: An individual only appears in the data, if it was stopped by the police
  - ▶ If there is a racial bias in policing, stopping can be the result of minority status
  - ▶ There are unobserved confounders, such as officers' suspicion, between the selection variable and outcome



# Selection Bias

- ▶ Econometrics has developed several methods for dealing with selection bias
  - ▶ They usually involve functional-form assumptions about the selection propensity score  $P(S|PA)$  (Heckman, 1979), assume ignorability of selection (Angrist, 1997), or employ partial identification methods (Manski, 2003; Knox et al., 2019)
- ▶ There is a principled solution for dealing with selection bias based on do-calculus, which refrains from any distributional or functional-form assumptions (Bareinboim and Pearl, 2012b; Bareinboim et al., 2014; Bareinboim and Tian, 2015)
- ▶ These methods also allow to freely combine biased and unbiased data in order to increase identifying power (Bareinboim et al., 2014; Correa et al., 2017)

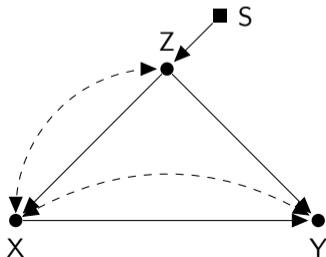


# Transportability

- ▶ Causal knowledge is usually acquired in different contexts than it is supposed to be used (e.g., in a laboratory experiment)
- ▶ If domains differ structurally in important ways, how can we be sure that causal knowledge remains valid across contexts?
- ▶ This problem is known under the rubric of “transportability” in the causal AI field
- ▶ Social scientists more often use the term “external validity”
- ▶ Example: Banerjee et al. (2007) study the effect of a randomized remedial education program for third and fourth graders in two Indian cities: Mumbai and Vadodara
  - ▶ They find similar effects on math skills, but effect positive impact on language proficiency is much smaller in Mumbai compared to Vadodara

# Transportability

- ▶ Banerjee et al. (2007) explain this result by baseline reading skills that were higher in Mumbai, because families are wealthier there and schools are better equipped
- ▶ What do we do if we do not have a second experiment to validate our results?
- ▶ We can incorporate knowledge about structural differences across domains by a selection node (■) in a causal diagram
  - ▶ Captures the notion that domains differ either in the distribution of background factors  $P(U_i)$  or causal mechanisms  $f_i$  in the underlying structural causal model



# Transportability

- ▶ Transportability task = express causal query  $P^*(y|do(x))$  in target domain with the help of causal knowledge in a source domain (Pearl and Bareinboim, 2011)
- ▶ Bareinboim and Pearl (2013a) develop a complete nonparametric solution for this task based on the selection diagram (DAG augmented with selection node)
- ▶ Moreover, there is the possibility to combine causal knowledge from several different source domains (Bareinboim and Pearl, 2013b)
  - ▶ Meta-analyses are becoming increasingly popular in economics (Card et al., 2010; Dehejia et al., 2015)
  - ▶ However, by simply averaging out results, they completely disregard potential domain heterogeneity
- ▶ Possibility to combine transportability with idea  $z$ -identification to what is called “mz-transportability” (Bareinboim and Pearl, 2014)

# Algorithmatization of Causal Inference

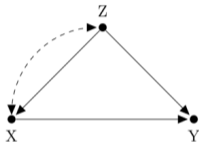
- ▶ There exist algorithmic solutions for all the inference tasks just discussed
  - ▶ Dealing with confounding bias (Tian and Pearl, 2002; Shpitser and Pearl, 2006)
  - ▶  $\mathcal{Z}$ -Identification (Bareinboim and Pearl, 2012a)
  - ▶ Selection bias (Bareinboim and Tian, 2015)
  - ▶ Transportability (Bareinboim and Pearl, 2013a, 2014)
- ▶ Input:
  1. A causal query  $Q$
  2. The model in form of a diagram
  3. The type of data available
- ▶ Output: an estimable expression of  $Q$ 
  - ▶ Most algorithms possess *completeness* property (i.e., they return a solution whenever one exists)
- ▶ Analyst can fully concentrate on the modeling and the scientific content, the identification is done automatically

# The Data Fusion Process

(1) Query:

Q = Causal effect at target population

(2) Model:



(3) Available Data:

Observational:	$P(v)$
Experimental:	$P(v \mid \text{do}(z))$
Selection-biased:	$P(v \mid S = 1) +$ $P(v \mid \text{do}(x), S = 1)$
From different populations:	$P^{(\text{source})}(v \mid \text{do}(x)) +$ observational studies

Causal Inference Engine:  
Three inference rules of  
*do-calculus*

Solution exists?

Yes

Estimable expression of Q

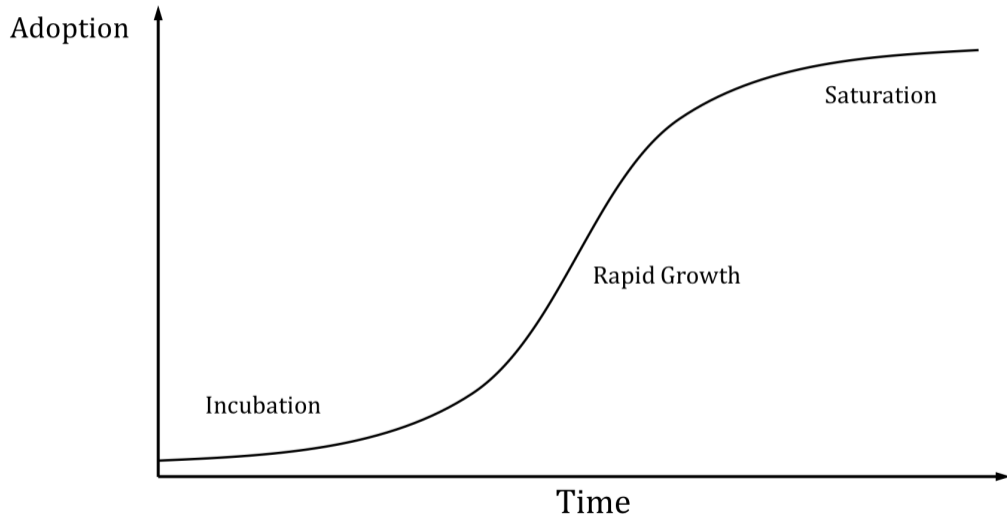
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Assumptions need to be strengthened  
(imposing shape restrictions, distributional assumptions, etc.)

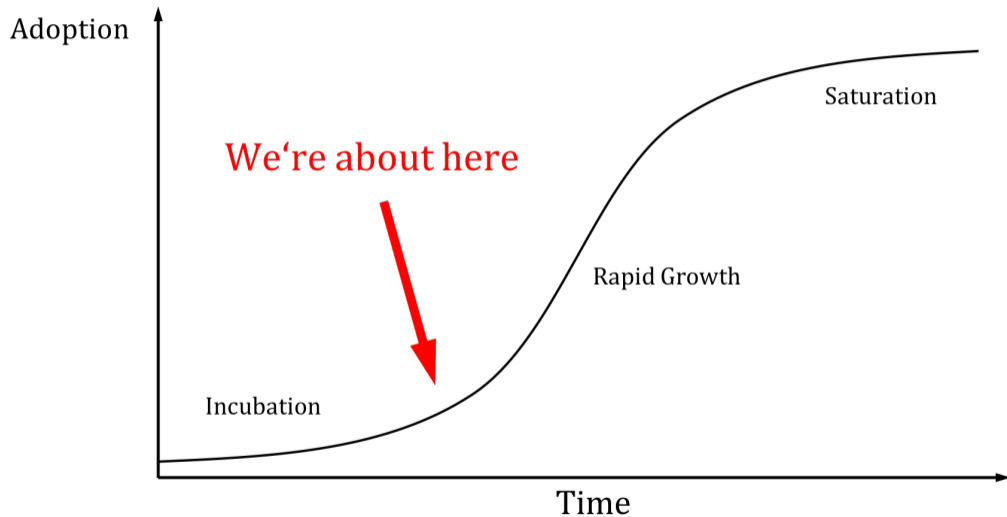
# Conclusion

- ▶ Graphical models of causation provide a unified framework for causal inference that allow to solve most of the recurrent problems econometricians face in applied work
- ▶ Structural causal models and DAGs are so natural to econometrics methodology, there is no need to reinvent the wheel just to replace do-calculus with something home-grown
- ▶ Possibilities to automatize the identification step are still – more or less – unknown in econometrics
- ▶ What can we do to facilitate knowledge exchange between economics and CS?
  - ▶ We need more practical applications in econometrics
    - ▶ Requires a detailed engagement with the relevant literature
    - ▶ Time-consuming and risky
  - ▶ Lowering switching costs by providing good educational resources and software packages

# The S-curve of Technology Adoption (Griliches, 1957)



# The S-curve of Technology Adoption (Griliches, 1957)





# Thank you.

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