PSY 503: Foundations of Psychological Methods Lecture 18: Regression and Causality in the Absence of Random Assignment

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Princeton

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- This week's questions: What happens exactly? What can we do about it?

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  - Treatment: Meditation (20 min on final exam day) vs. Placebo (e.g., taking a walk for 20 minute on final exam day)
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  - Treatment: Meditation (20 min on final exam day) vs. Placebo (e.g., taking a walk for 20 minute on final exam day)
  - DV: Students' blood pressure before a test
- Suppose that taken together these studies suggest that

$$ATE = -5mmHg$$

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- ④ Understand how regression "controls" / "adjustments" allow to correct for bias

Let's open R Studio!

### Adding covariates to a regression **non-experimental settings**

- Basic definition and goal of regression for the bivariate case:
  - Estimate the CEF  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X_1]$

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- When we add a third variable  $X_2$  to the regression:
  - $\, \bullet \,$  We estimate the relationship of two variables Y and X, conditional on a third variable Z

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

•  $\beta$ 's are the population parameters that we want to estimate

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  - Block potential **confounding**, which are variables that are correlated with both Y and X. Omtting these variables introduces bias in the estimates of the **causal** effect of X on Y and often leads to incorrect causal inferences

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- Descriptive
  - Get a sense for the relationships in the data
  - Describe more precisely our quantity of interest
- Predictive
  - We can usually make better predictions about the dependent variables with more information on independent variables

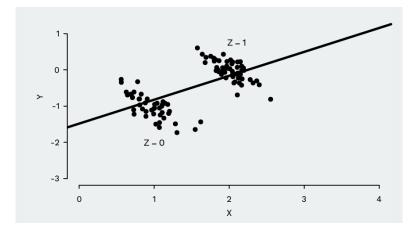
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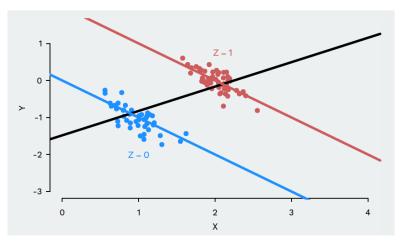
- To understand further the basics of multiple regression, let's forget about causality for now and exclusively focus on prediction (& description)
  - No random assignment and no causal inference in the following slides!
- To understand the relevance of controlling for variables for description / prediction, let's consider Simpson's paradox

### Illustration: Simpson's paradox



• Overall a positive relationship between Y and X

### Illustration: Simpson's paradox



- ${\ensuremath{\, \circ }}$  Overall a positive relationship between Y and X
- But within levels of  $Z_i$ , the opposite

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### Simpson's paradox: Example

 Cochran (1968) sought to compare cigarette to cigar smoking. He found that cigar smokers had higher mortality rates than cigarette smokers, but at any age level, cigarette smokers had higher mortality than cigar smokers.

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- Instance of a more general problem called the **ecological inference** fallacy

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- Let's explore what is meant by **controlling for another variable** with linear regression

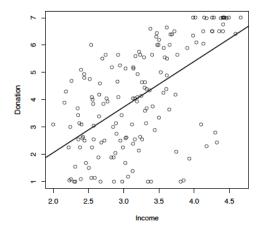
### Simple regression of Donation on Income

• Let's look at the bivariate regression of donation on income

$$\widehat{Y} = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_1$$

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• We observe:

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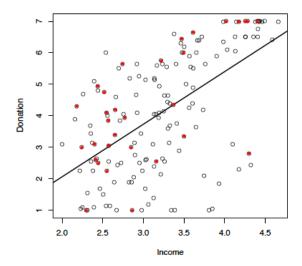
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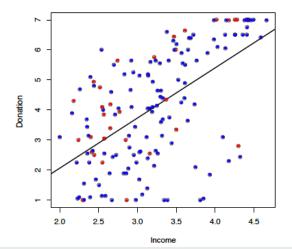
 $\widehat{Donation} = -1.26 + 1.6 \ income$ 

- Interpretation: A one point increase in income is associated with a 1.6 point increase in donation
- But we can use more information in our prediction equation
  - For example, some observations come from individuals who have children whereas others come from individuals who do not have children
  - And it may be the case that these individuals have different levels of donation

• Individuals with children (in red) tend donate more



- Individuals with children (in red) tend donate more
- Individuals without children (in blue) tend donate less



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### Adding a covariate

$$\widehat{Y} = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_1 + \widehat{\beta}_2 X_2$$

- $\bullet\,$  This implies that we want to predict Y using the information we have about  $X_1$  and  $X_2$
- In words:

$$\widehat{Donation} = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 income + \widehat{\beta}_2 children$$

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• When  $X_2 = 1$ , the model becomes:

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• What does this mean?

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• What does this mean? We are fitting two lines with the **same slope** but **different intercepts** 

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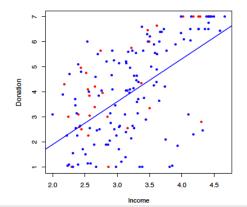
• Suppose multiple regression model provides estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , and  $\hat{\beta}_2$  such that:

• Individuals without children:

$$\widehat{Y} = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_1$$
$$\widehat{Y} = -1.5 + 1.7 X_1$$

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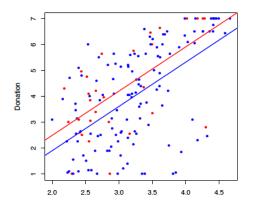
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• Individuals with children:

$$\widehat{Y} = (\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_2) + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_1$$
$$\widehat{Y} = -.92 + 1.7X_1$$

• Individuals with children:

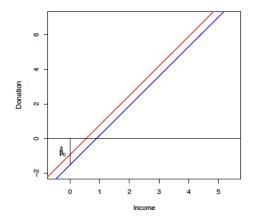
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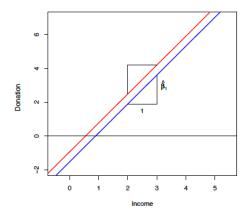
- Our prediction equation is:  $\hat{Y} = -1.5 + 1.7X_1 + .58X_2$ 
  - Where do these quantities appear on the graph?

- Our prediction equation is:  $\hat{Y} = -1.5 + 1.7X_1 + .58X_2$ 
  - $\widehat{\beta}_0 = -1.5$  is the intercept for the prediction line for individuals without children

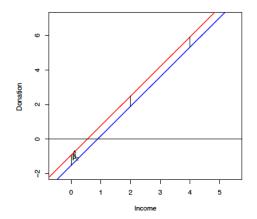


• Our prediction equation is:  $\hat{Y}=-1.5+1.7X_1+.58X_2$ 

•  $\widehat{\beta}_1=1.7$  is the slope for both lines



- Our prediction equation is:  $\hat{Y} = -1.5 + 1.7X_1 + .58X_2$ 
  - $\widehat{\beta}_2 = .58$  is the vertical distance between two lines for individuals with and without children



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  - Confounding variables are variables correlated with both Y and  $X_1$
- Not controlling for confounding variables introduces a specific type of bias in the coefficient of interest
- ... called omitted variable bias!

• For one confounder  $X_2$ :

	$\operatorname{cov}(X_1,X_2)>0$	$\operatorname{cov}(X_1,X_2) < 0$	$\operatorname{cov}(X_1,X_2)=0$
$\beta_2 > 0$	Positive bias	Negative Bias	No bias
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 In observational datasets, omitted variable bias is often generated by more than one variable. In this more general case, the direction of the bias is more difficult to discern. It depends on all the pairwise correlations.