

Soc504: Causal Inference Topics

Brandon Stewart¹

Princeton

April 10 - April 19, 2017

¹This lecture draws from slides by Matt Blackwell, Jens Hainmueller, Erin Hartman and Gary King

Readings

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- ▶ Optional: Acharya, Blackwell and Sen. “Explaining Causal Findings Without Bias: Detecting and Assessing Direct Effects.” *American Political Science Review*. (2016).

- 1 Assessing Counterfactuals
- 2 A (Brief) Review of Selection on Observables
- 3 Matching as Non-parametric Preprocessing
- 4 Fundamentals of Matching
- 5 Three Approaches to Matching
- 6 The Propensity Score
- 7 Mechanisms: Estimands and Identification
- 8 Mechanisms: Estimation
- 9 Controlled Direct Effects
- 10 Appendix: The Case Against Propensity Score Matching

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- Counterfactuals are some part of most research, absolutely essential in the context quantities of interest

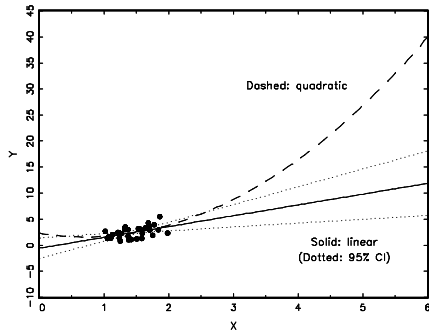
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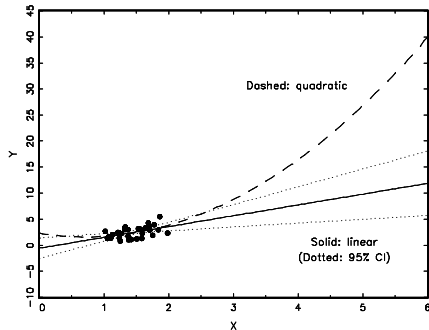
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- Counterfactuals are some part of most research, absolutely essential in the context quantities of interest
- The model will always give an answer- so how do identify **reasonable** counterfactuals?
- Summary of Today: don't ask your model unreasonable questions. (remember the Momentous Sprint?)

Which model would you choose? (Both fit the data well.)

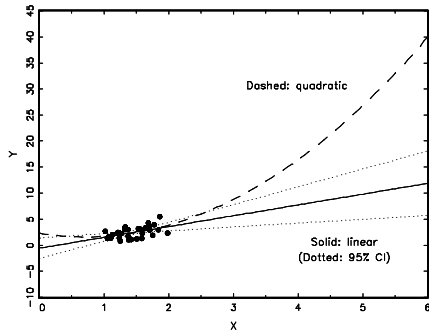


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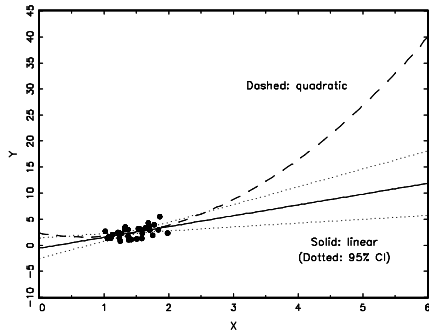
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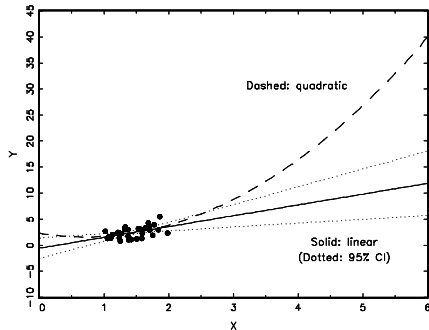
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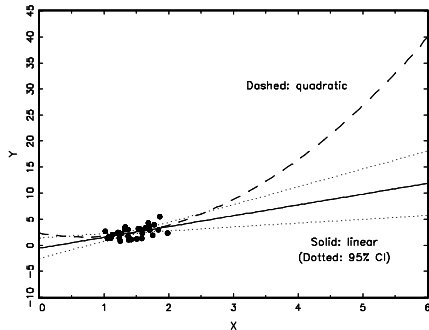
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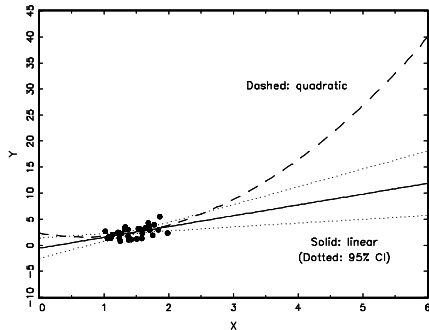
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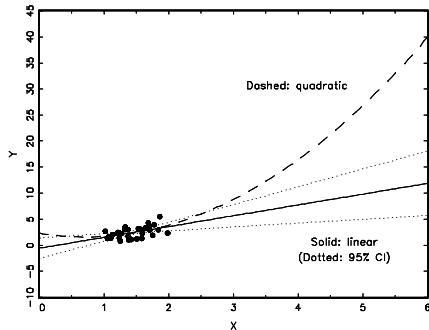
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- The bottom line: answers to some questions **don't exist in the data.**

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- How do you choose a model? R^2 ? Some “test”? “Theory”?
- The bottom line: answers to some questions **don't exist in the data**.
- Our estimate of certain quantities of interest is highly **model dependent**

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To estimate $E(Y|X = x)$ at x , average many observed Y with value x

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- 1 Definition: model dependence at x is the difference between predicted outcomes for any two models that fit about equally well.

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Result

The maximum degree of model dependence: solely a function of the **distance from the counterfactual to the data**

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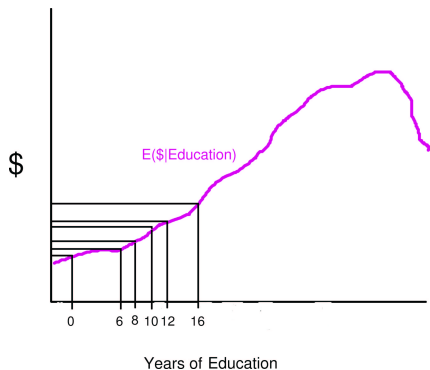
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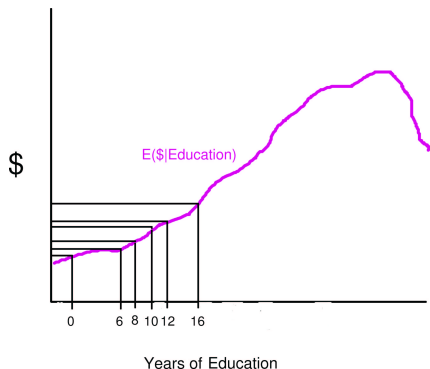
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- We find a coefficient of $\hat{\beta} = \$1,000$, big t-statistics, narrow confidence intervals, and pass every test for auto-correlation, fit, normality, linearity, homoskedasticity, etc.

What Inferences Would You Be Willing to Make?

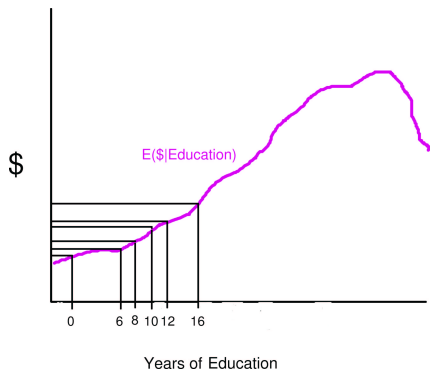


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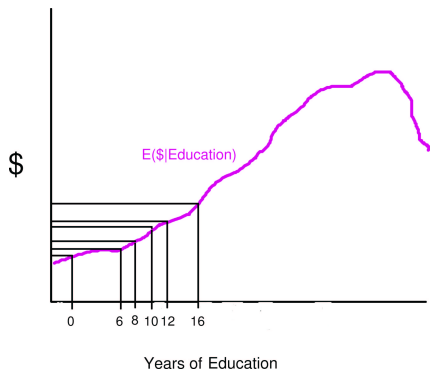
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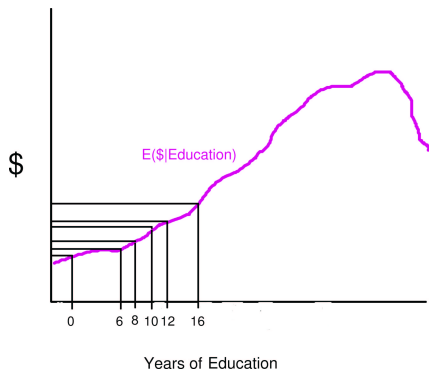
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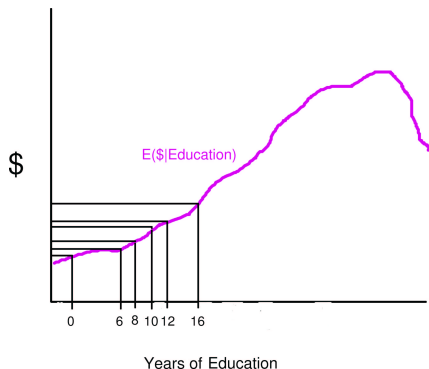


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- The **model-free estimate**: $\text{mean}(Y)$ among those with $X = 12$.
- The **model-based estimate**: $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta} = 12 \times \$1,000 = \$12,000$

Counterfactual Inferences with Interpolation

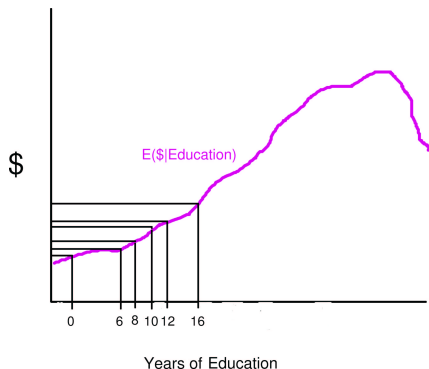


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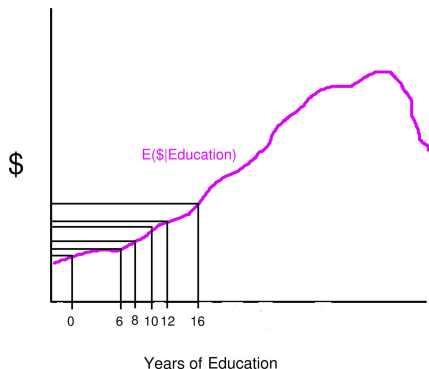
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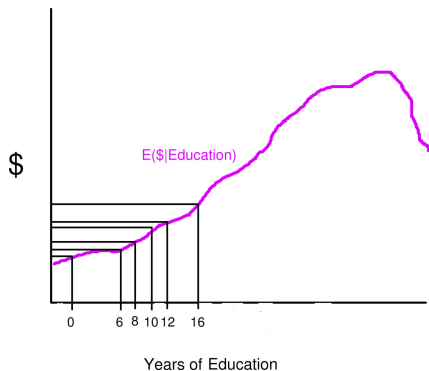
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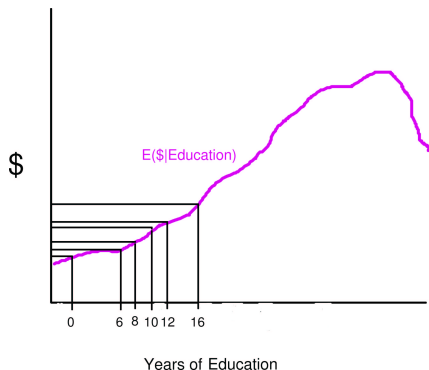


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- **Model-based estimate:** $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta} = 14 \times \$1,000 = \$14,000$

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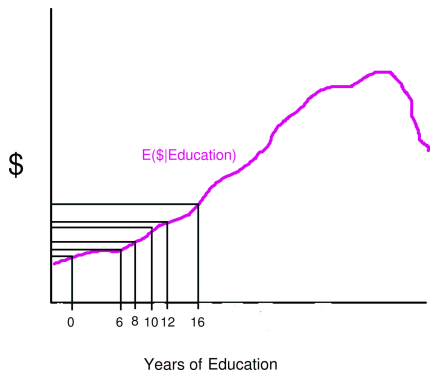


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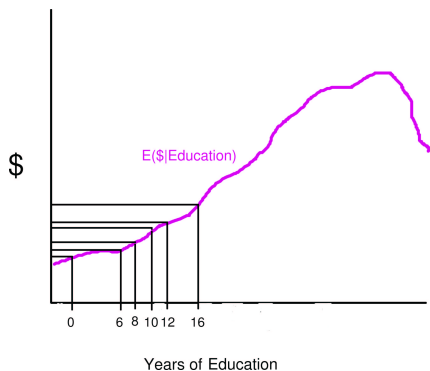
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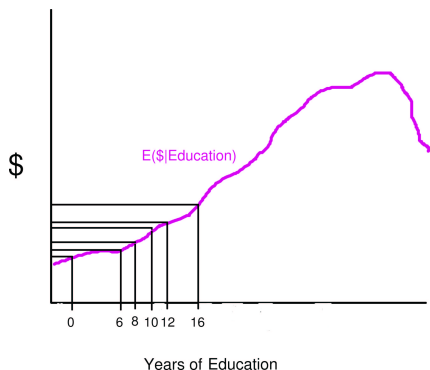


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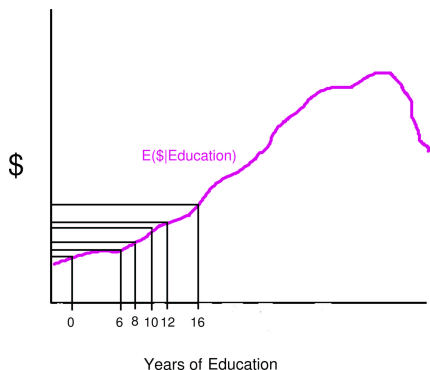


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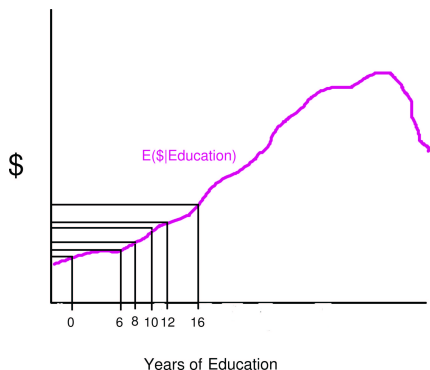
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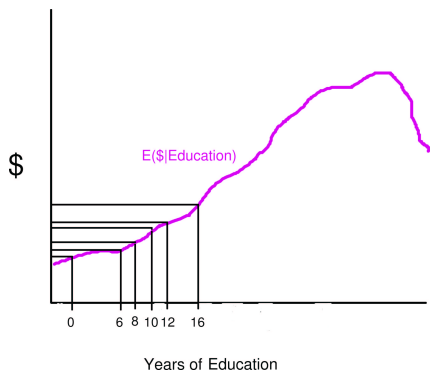
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- Recall: the regression passed every test and met every assumption; identical calculations worked for the other questions.

Another Counterfactual Inference with Extrapolation



- How much salary would someone receive with **53** years of education?
- $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta} = 53 \times \$1,000 = \$53,000$
- Recall: the regression passed every test and met every assumption; identical calculations worked for the other questions.
- What's changed? How would we recognize it when the example is less extreme or multidimensional?

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- The **difference** between the 10 we need and the 2 we estimate with regression is **pure assumption**.
- (If X were continuous, we would be reducing ∞ to 2, also by assumption)

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- But what about including an interaction? Right, so now we're summarizing 100 parameters with 4.

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- The difference: an enormous assumption based on convenience, not evidence or theory.

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- The curse of dimensionality introduces huge assumptions, often unrecognized.

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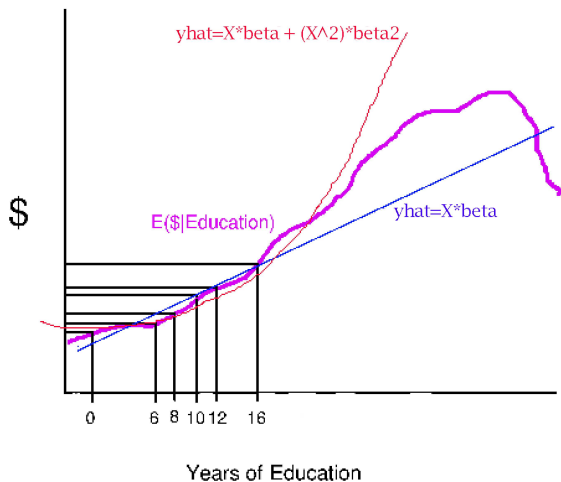
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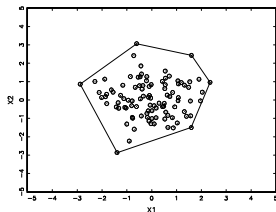
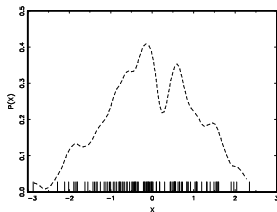
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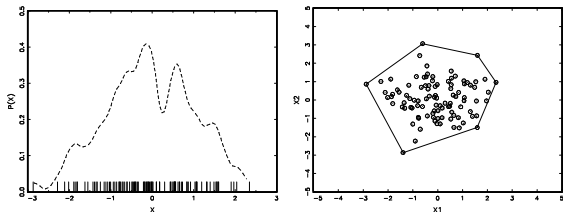
Interpolation vs Extrapolation in one Dimension



Interpolation or Extrapolation in One and Two Dimensions

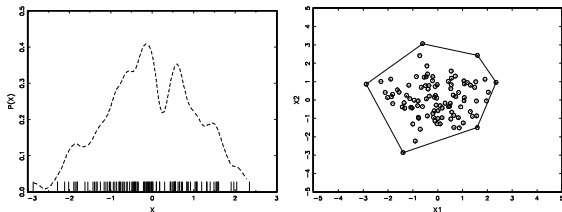


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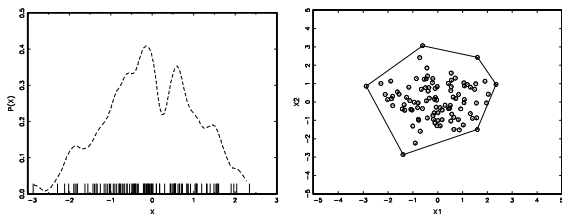
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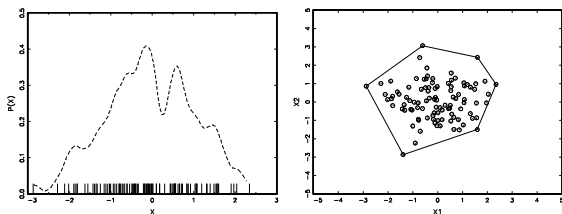
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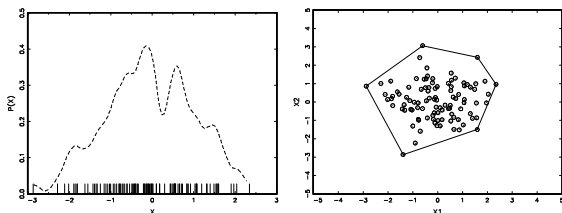
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- **Interpolation:** Inside the convex hull
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- Calculating the convex hull would take forever in high-dimensions
- WhatIf package uses linear programming to check if a candidate point is inside the hull
- The key idea is making sure your counterfactual is near the data!

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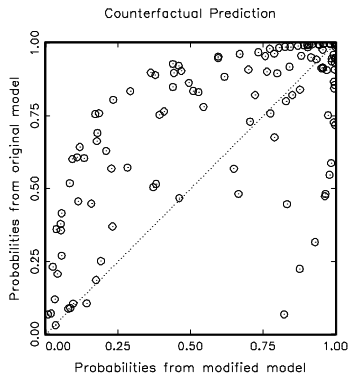
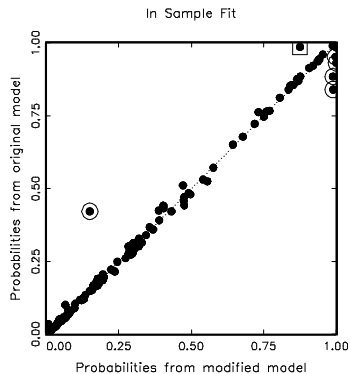
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- Counterfactuals: UN intervention switched (0/1 to 1/0) for each observation
- Percent of counterfactuals in the convex hull: 0%
- Thus, without estimating any models, we know inferences will be model dependent; for illustration, here is an example. . . .

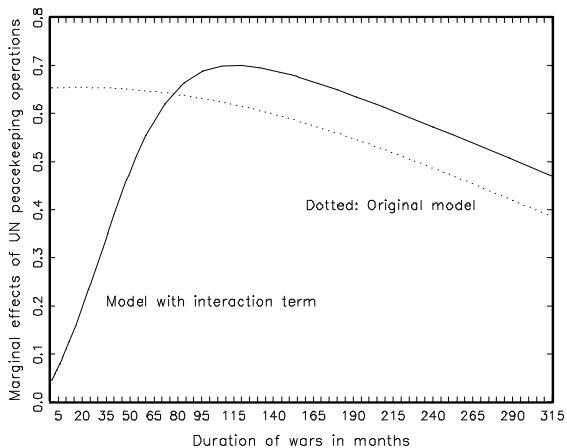
Doyle and Sambanis, Logit Model

Variables	Original Model			Modified Model		
	Coeff	SE	P-val	Coeff	SE	P-val
Wartype	-1.742	.609	.004	-1.666	.606	.006
Logdead	-.445	.126	.000	-.437	.125	.000
Wardur	.006	.006	.258	.006	.006	.342
Factnum	-1.259	.703	.073	-1.045	.899	.245
Factnum2	.062	.065	.346	.032	.104	.756
Trnsfcap	.004	.002	.010	.004	.002	.017
Develop	.001	.000	.065	.001	.000	.068
Exp	-6.016	3.071	.050	-6.215	3.065	.043
Decade	-.299	.169	.077	-0.284	.169	.093
Treaty	2.124	.821	.010	2.126	.802	.008
UNOP4	3.135	1.091	.004	.262	1.392	.851
Wardur*UNOP4	—	—	—	.037	.011	.001
Constant	8.609	2.157	0.000	7.978	2.350	.000
N		122			122	
Log-likelihood		-45.649			-44.902	
Pseudo R^2		.423			.433	

Doyle and Sambanis: Model Dependence



UN Peacekeeping Operations



Another Example

Remember our negative binomial model?

```
mod <- zelig(repdeaths ~ cathunemp + protunemp,  
             data = troubles, model = "negbin")  
summary(mod)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	0.5943	0.1718	3.459	0.000541	***
cathunemp	7.9323	0.9150	8.669	< 2e-16	***
protunemp	-19.1683	2.3713	-8.084	6.29e-16	***

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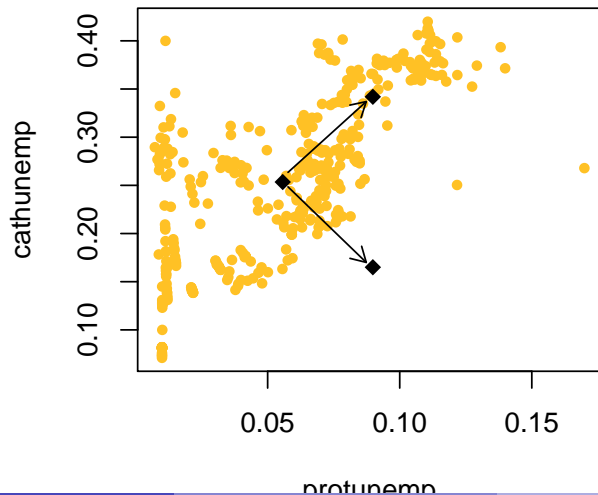
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1. Counterfactual 1: Catholic unemployment increases by one standard deviation and Protestant unemployment increases by one standard deviation.
2. Counterfactual 2: Catholic unemployment decreases by one standard deviation and Protestant unemployment increases by one standard deviation.

Proposed Counterfactuals Plotted



Checking the Convex Hull

```
library(WhatIf)
cf1 <- cbind(mean(cathunemp) + sd(cathunemp),
             mean(protunemp) + sd(protunemp))
cf2 <- cbind(mean(cathunemp) - sd(cathunemp),
             mean(protunemp) + sd(protunemp))

cf.res1 <- whatif(data = mod, cfact = cf1)
> cf.res1$in.hull
[1] TRUE

cf.res2 <- whatif(data = mod, cfact = cf2)
cf.res2$in.hull
[1] FALSE
```

A Measure of Distance

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The `whatif` function also tells us the percentage of data points within 1 geometric variance of the counterfactual.

```
> cf.res1$sum.stat
      1
0.2608696
```

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The geometric variance is a generalization of the usual variance which is more suitable to discrete and continuous variables- essentially it is the average pairwise Gower distance in the data. The number of GV's away can be altered with the `nearby` argument.

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- The **convex hull** provides a way to check for **extrapolation**
- This is a great way of assessing the reasonableness of our simulated **quantities of interest**

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- 3 Matching as Non-parametric Preprocessing
- 4 Fundamentals of Matching
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- When we have the right set of observed confounders, matching is a strategy that helps reduce **model dependence** in this conditioning
- Matching itself is not an **identification** strategy, nor is it fundamentally different than alternatives like **weighting** or **regression adjustment**

Repeat After Me

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So what is?

Identification Under Selection on Observables

Identification Assumption

- 1 $(Y_1, Y_0) \perp\!\!\!\perp D|X$ (*selection on observables*)
- 2 $0 < \Pr(D = 1|X) < 1$ with probability one (*common support*)

Identification Result

Given selection on observables we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}[Y_1 - Y_0|X] &= \mathbf{E}[Y_1 - Y_0|X, D = 1] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[Y|X, D = 1] - \mathbf{E}[Y|X, D = 0]\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, under the common support condition:

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_{ATE} &= \mathbf{E}[Y_1 - Y_0] = \int \mathbf{E}[Y_1 - Y_0|X] dP(X) \\ &= \int (\mathbf{E}[Y|X, D = 1] - \mathbf{E}[Y|X, D = 0]) dP(X)\end{aligned}$$

Identification Under Selection on Observables

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- 1 $(Y_1, Y_0) \perp\!\!\!\perp D|X$ (*selection on observables*)
- 2 $0 < \Pr(D = 1|X) < 1$ with *probability one* (*common support*)

Identification Result

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_{ATT} &= \mathbf{E}[Y_1 - Y_0|D = 1] \\ &= \int (\mathbf{E}[Y|X, D = 1] - \mathbf{E}[Y|X, D = 0]) dP(X|D = 1)\end{aligned}$$

To identify τ_{ATT} the selection on observables and common support conditions can be relaxed to:

- $Y_0 \perp\!\!\!\perp D|X$ (*SOO for Controls*)
- $\Pr(D = 1|X) < 1$ (*Weak Overlap*)

Identification Under Selection on Observables

unit	Potential Outcome under Treatment	Potential Outcome under Control		
i	Y_{1i}	Y_{0i}	D_i	X_i
1	$\mathbf{E}[Y_1 X = 0, D = 1]$	$\mathbf{E}[Y_0 X = 0, D = 1]$	1	0
2			1	0
3	$\mathbf{E}[Y_1 X = 0, D = 0]$	$\mathbf{E}[Y_0 X = 0, D = 0]$	0	0
4			0	0
5	$\mathbf{E}[Y_1 X = 1, D = 1]$	$\mathbf{E}[Y_0 X = 1, D = 1]$	1	1
6			1	1
7	$\mathbf{E}[Y_1 X = 1, D = 0]$	$\mathbf{E}[Y_0 X = 1, D = 0]$	0	1
8			0	1

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8			0	1

$(Y_1, Y_0) \perp\!\!\!\perp D | X$ implies that we conditioned on all confounders. The treatment is randomly assigned within each stratum of X :

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[Y_0|X = 0, D = 1] &= E[Y_0|X = 0, D = 0] \text{ and} \\
 E[Y_0|X = 1, D = 1] &= E[Y_0|X = 1, D = 0]
 \end{aligned}$$

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8	$\mathbf{E}[Y_1 X = 1, D = 1]$		0	1

$(Y_1, Y_0) \perp\!\!\!\perp D | X$ also implies

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[Y_1|X = 0, D = 1] &= \mathbf{E}[Y_1|X = 0, D = 0] \text{ and} \\ \mathbf{E}[Y_1|X = 1, D = 1] &= \mathbf{E}[Y_1|X = 1, D = 0] \end{aligned}$$

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- When selection on observables holds, we still need to **adjust for X_i**

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- Common solution: write a parametric model for $\mathbb{E}[Y_i(d)|X_i]$

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 - ▶ If treated and control groups are **better balanced** than when you started, due to pruning, model dependence is reduced

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Warning: Pruning nonmatches can change your estimand.

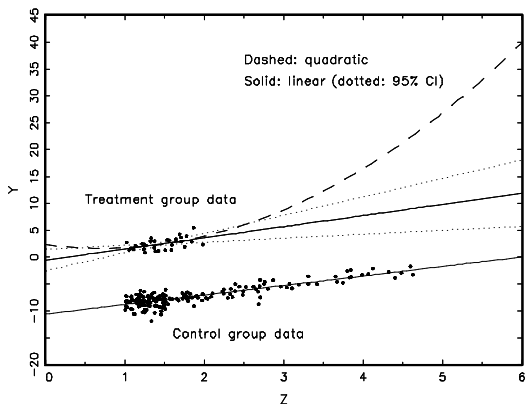
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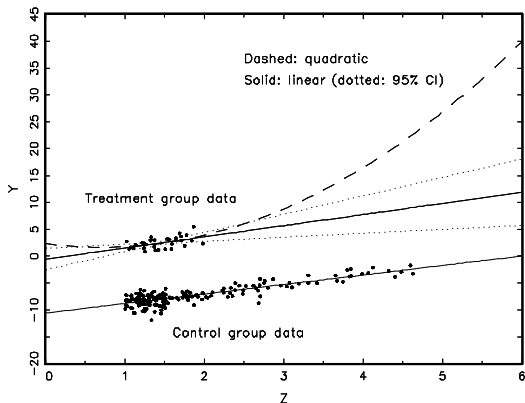
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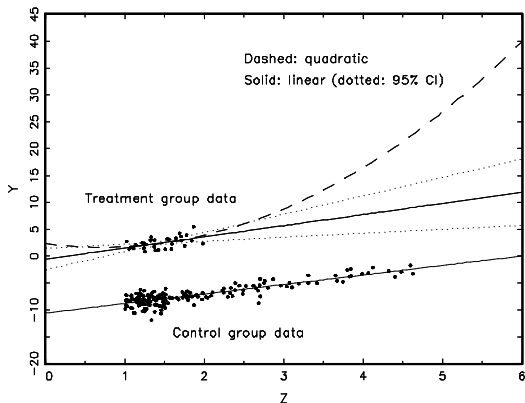
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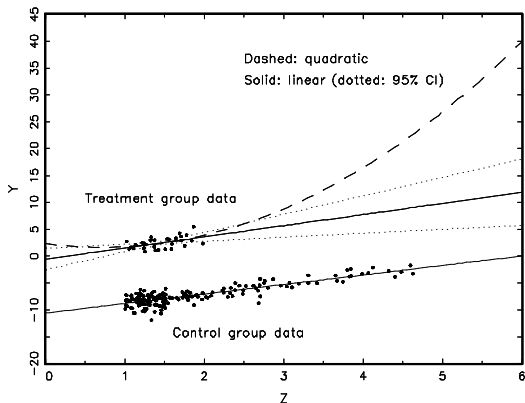


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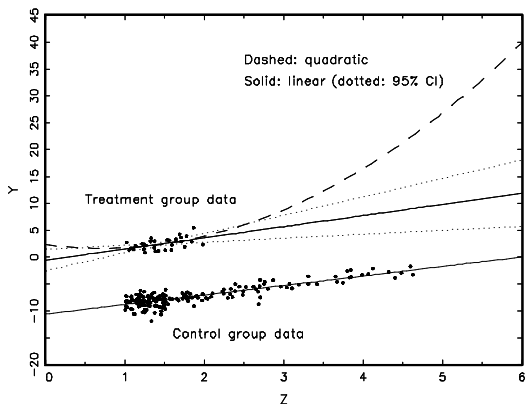


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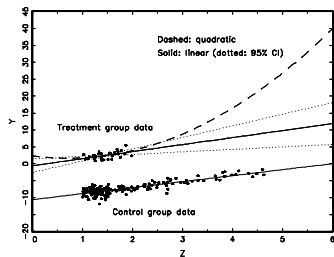


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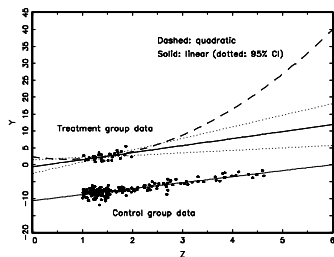
- **Preprocess I:** Eliminate extrapolation region
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- **Model** remaining imbalance (as you would w/o matching)

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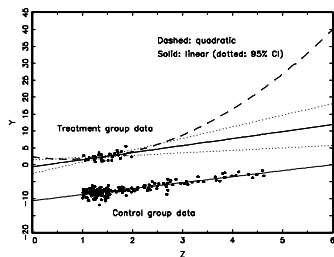


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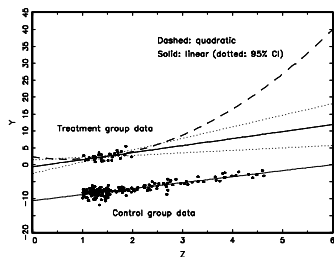
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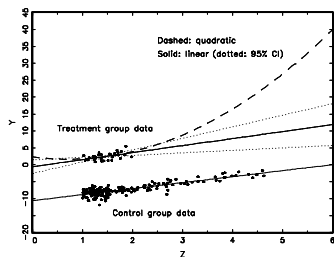
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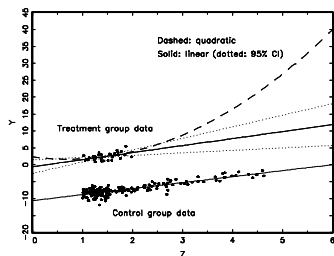
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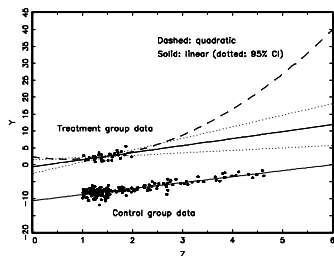
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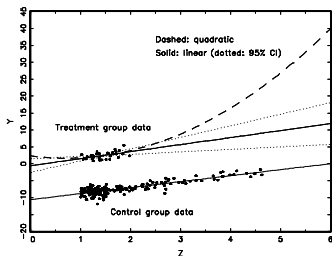
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Matching within the Interpolation Region

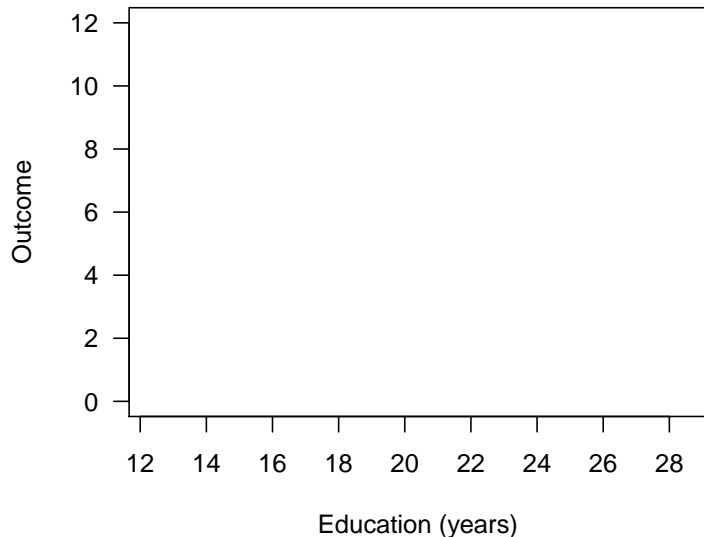
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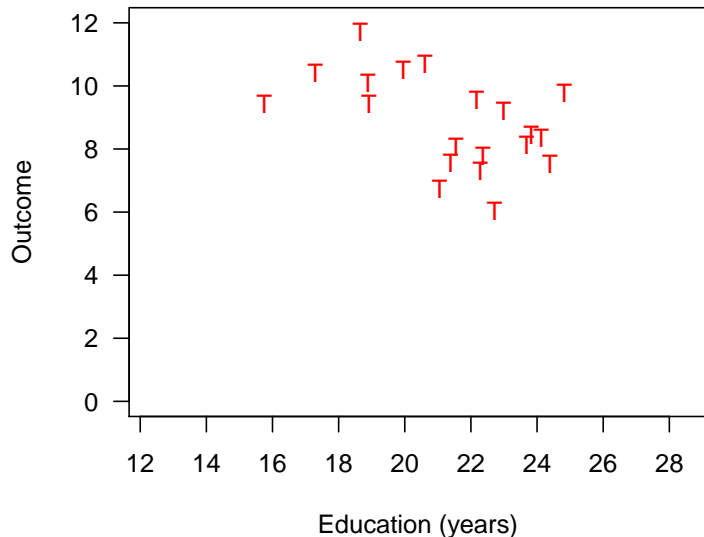
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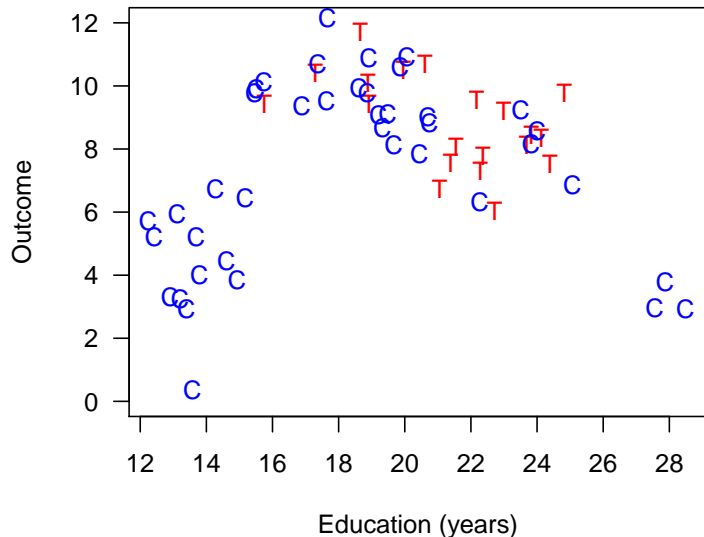
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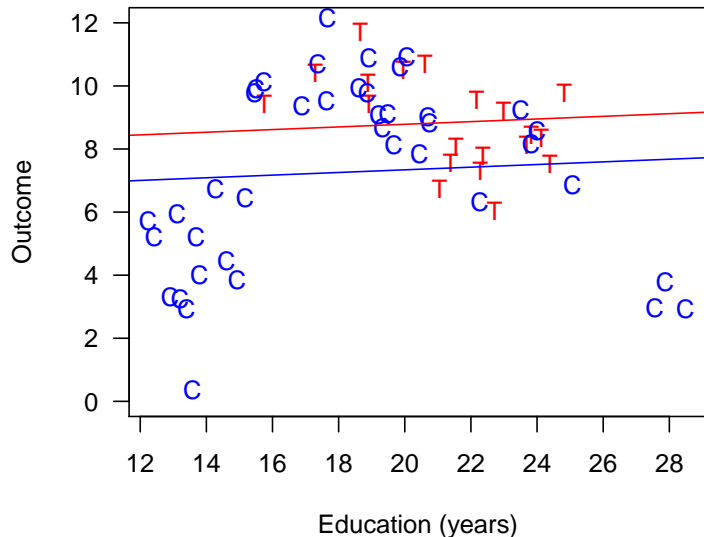
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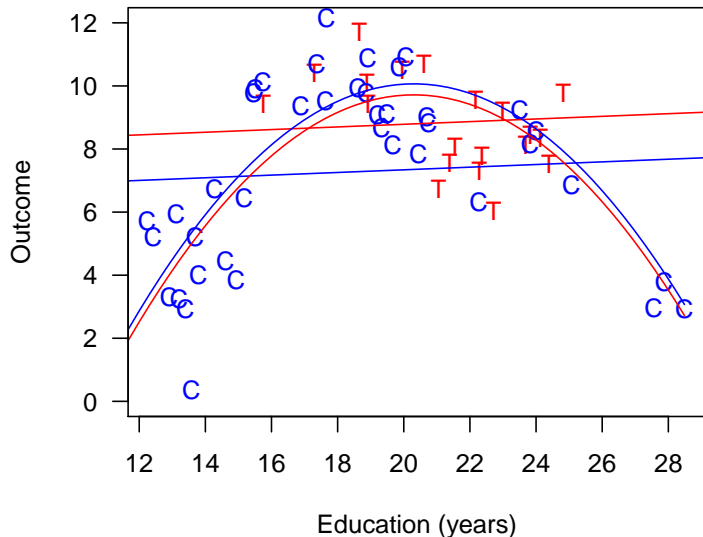
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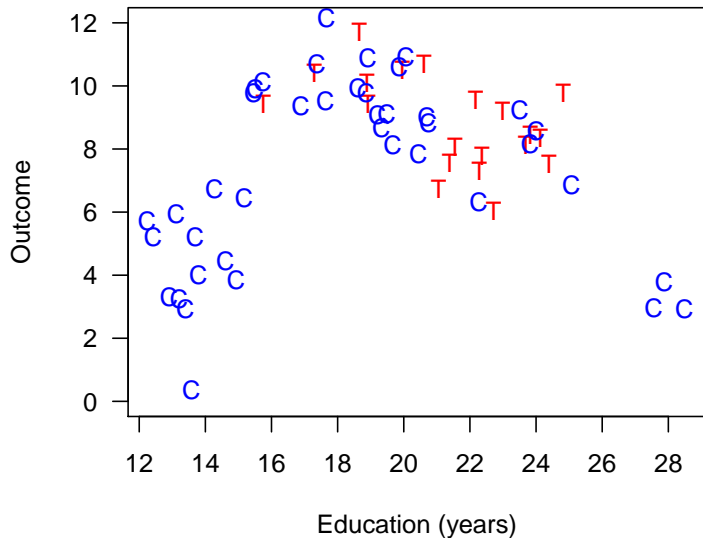
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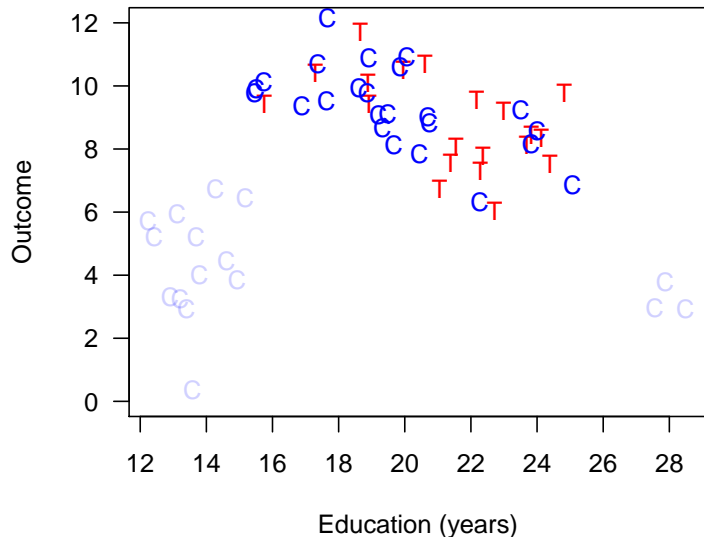
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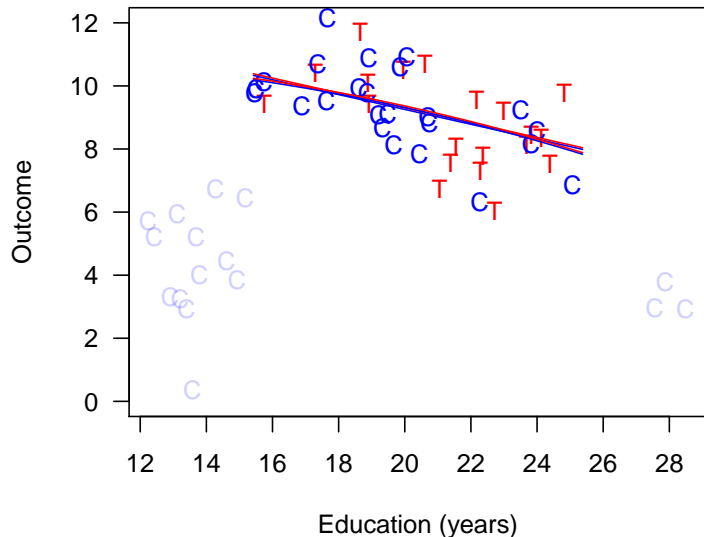
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Matching reduces model dependence, bias, and variance

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- (Normal applications would only use one or a few specifications.)

Reducing Model Dependence

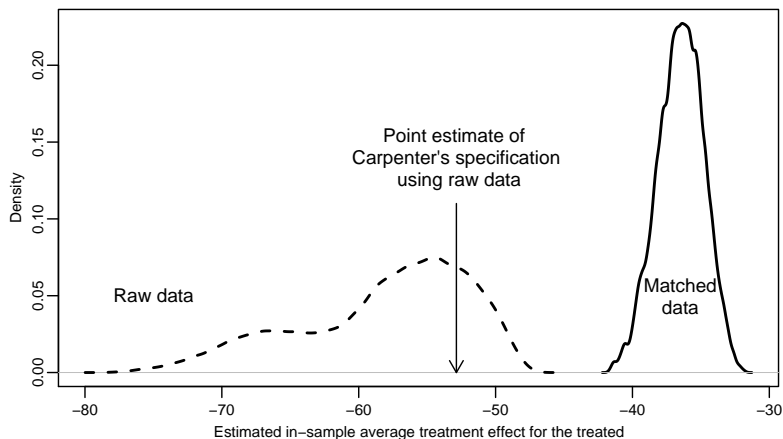


Figure: SATT Histogram: Effect of Democratic Senate majority on FDA drug approval time, across 262,143 specifications.

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- It **does not help you** if there are **unobservable** common causes of treatment and outcomes
- We can (and should!) verify that we have improved **balance** on the observed covariates, but this does not imply we have improved balanced on unobserved covariates.

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- The distribution of X_i will be **exactly** the same for treated and matched control:

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- Balance is checkable \rightsquigarrow are D_i and X_i related in the matched data?

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- Under no unmeasured confounding, $\hat{Y}_i(0)$ is a good predictor of the true potential outcome under control, Y_i .

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- If M varies by treated unit, need to weight observations to ensure balance.

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 - ▶ Choice of distance metric will lead to different matches.

Exact distance metric

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$$D_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } X_i = X_j \\ \infty & \text{if } X_i \neq X_j \end{cases}$$

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- Here, $\hat{\sigma}_k^2$ is the variance of the k th variable:

$$\hat{\sigma}_k^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_{ik} - \bar{X}_k)^2$$

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- $\hat{\Sigma}$ is the estimated variance-covariance matrix of the observations:

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- Implementation: a **caliper**, which is the maximum distance we would accept

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- Estimated:

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- Note: in nearest neighbor without replacement the **order matters!**

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- Which is the best method? The one that produces the best balance!

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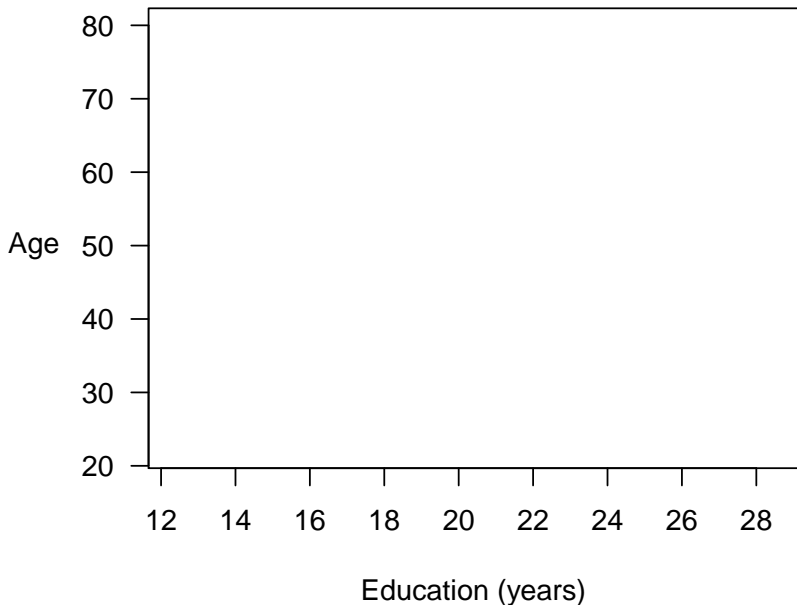
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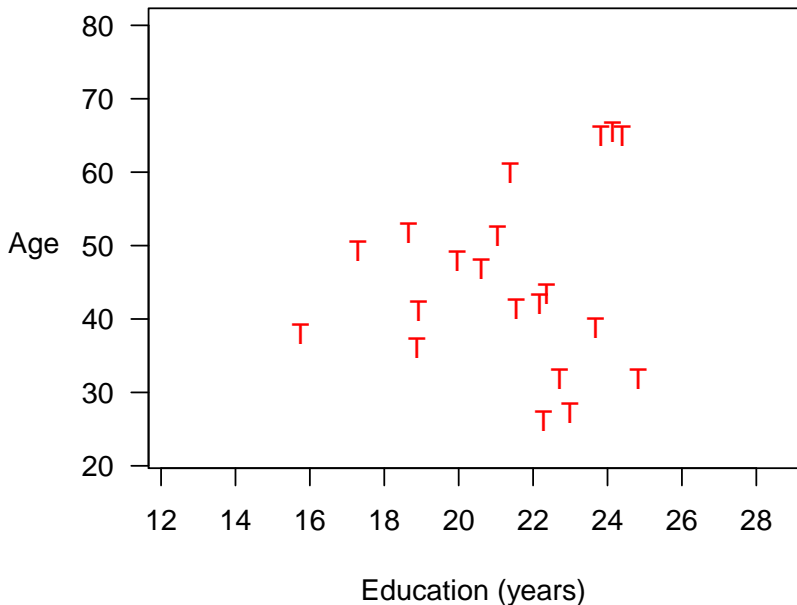
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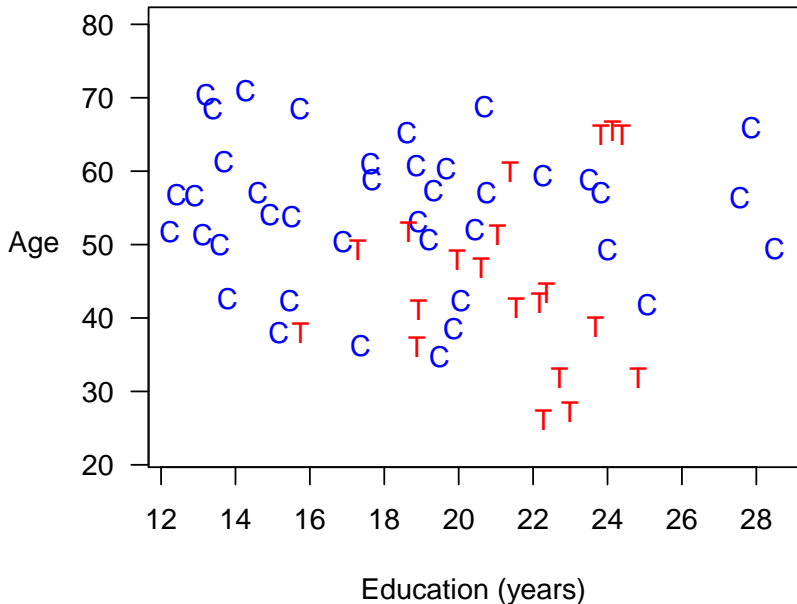
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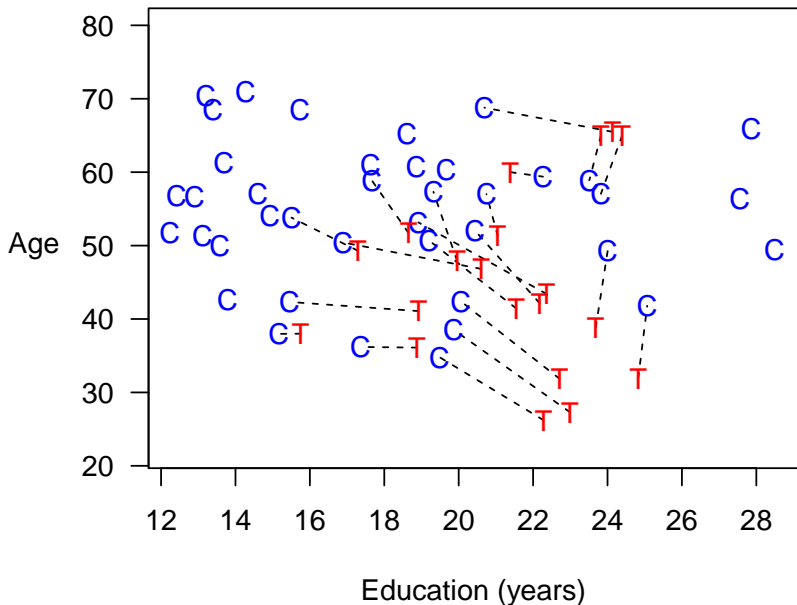
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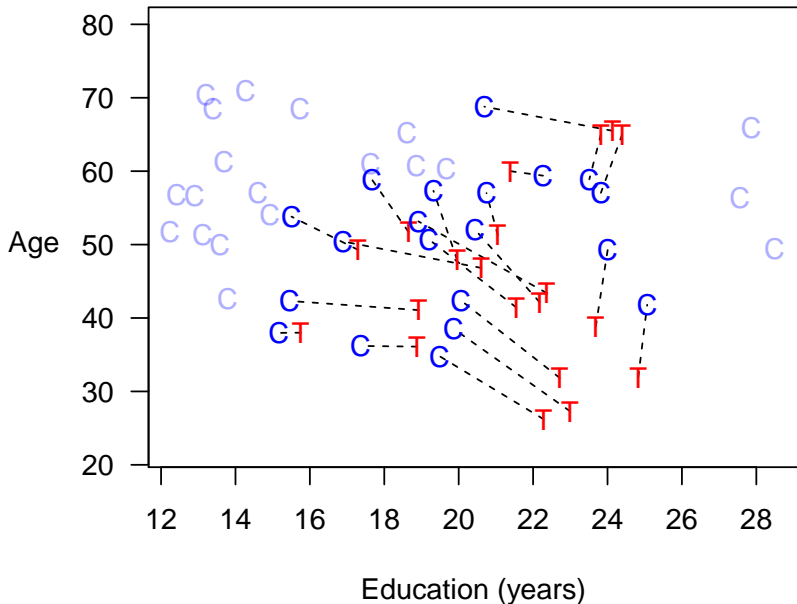
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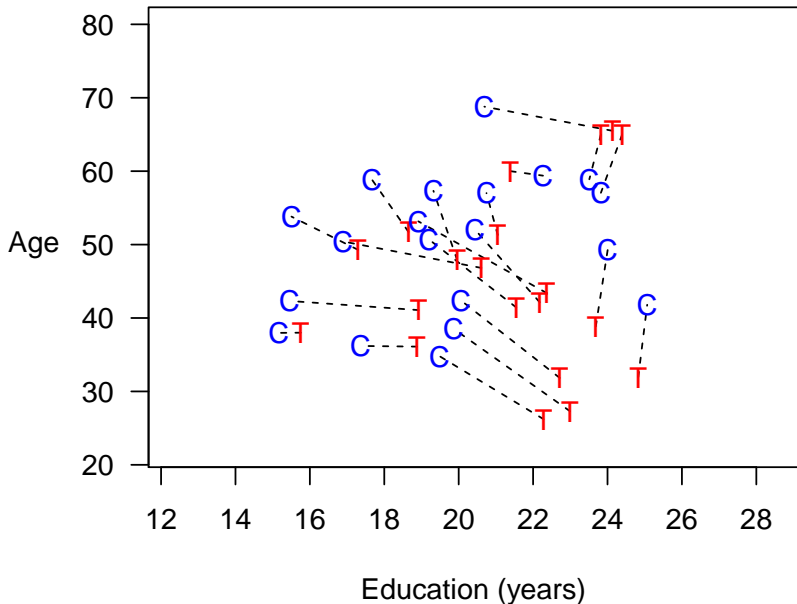
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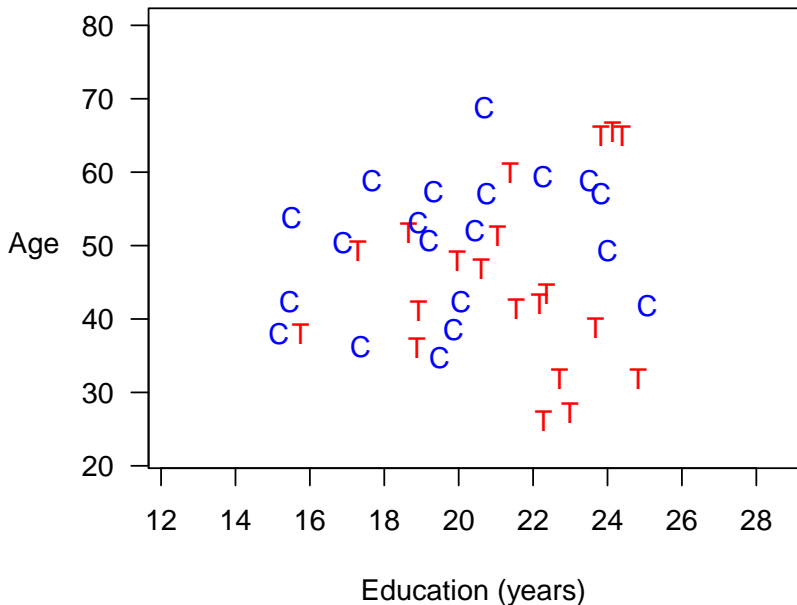
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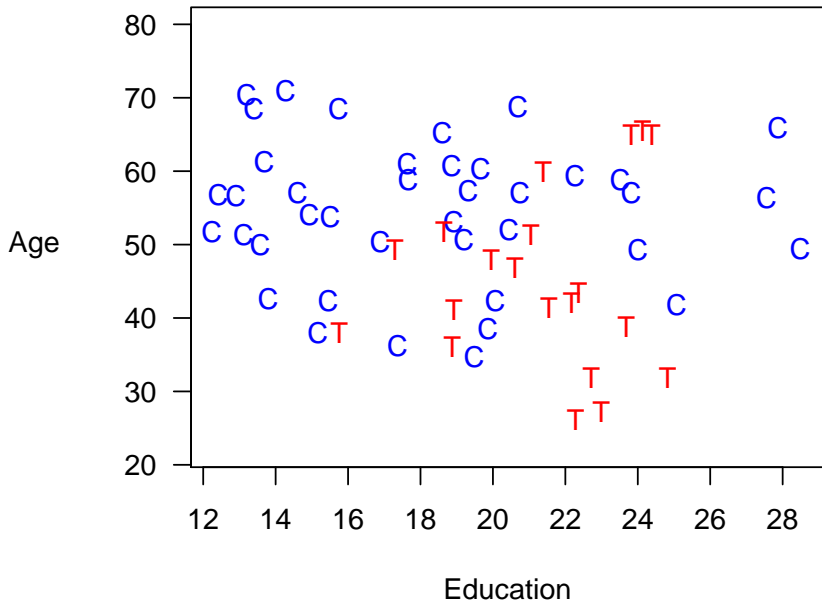
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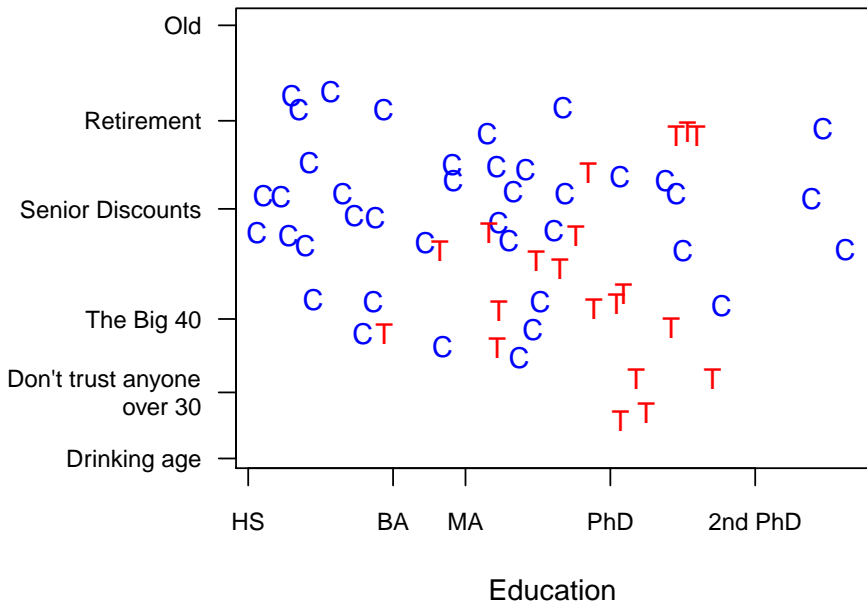
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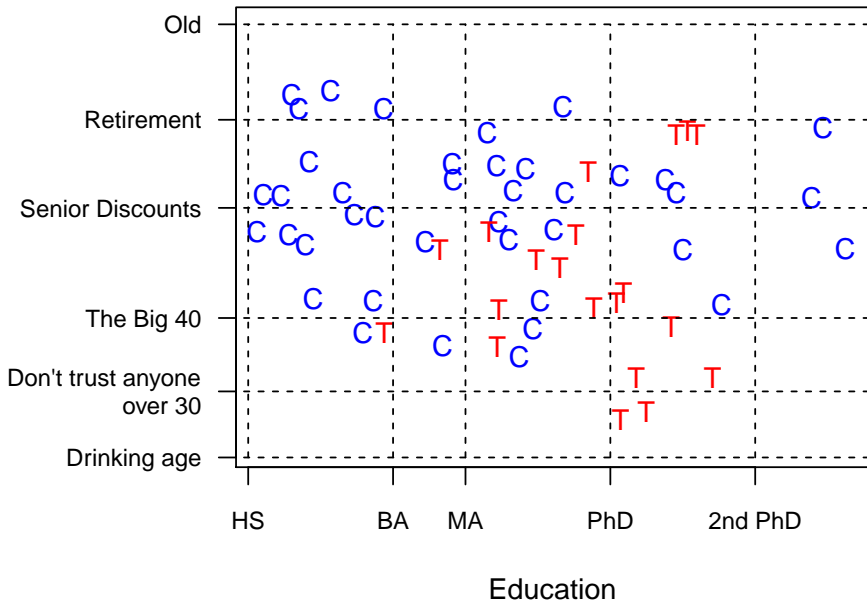
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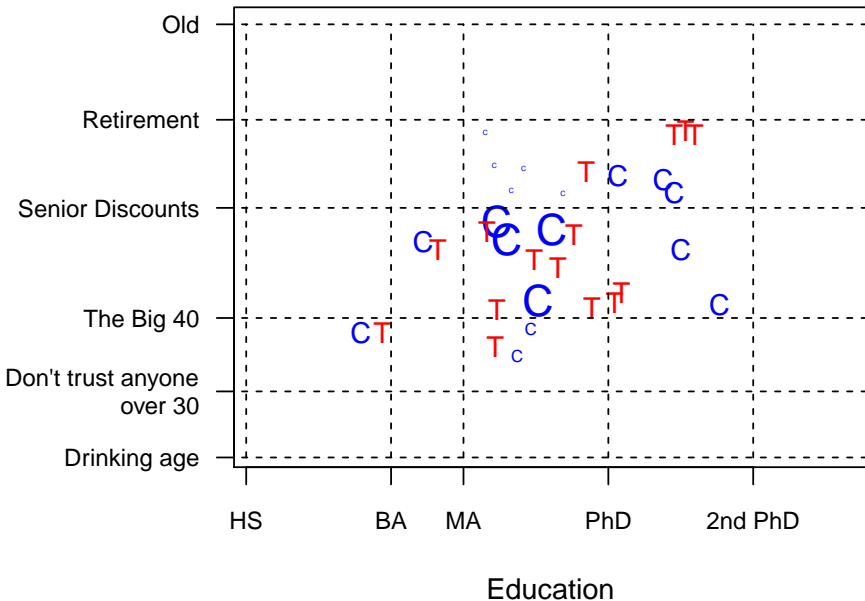
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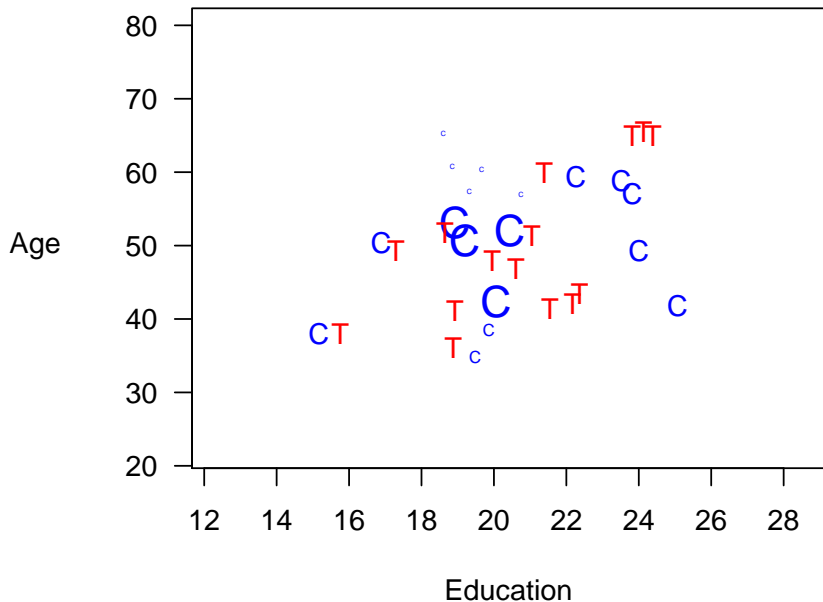
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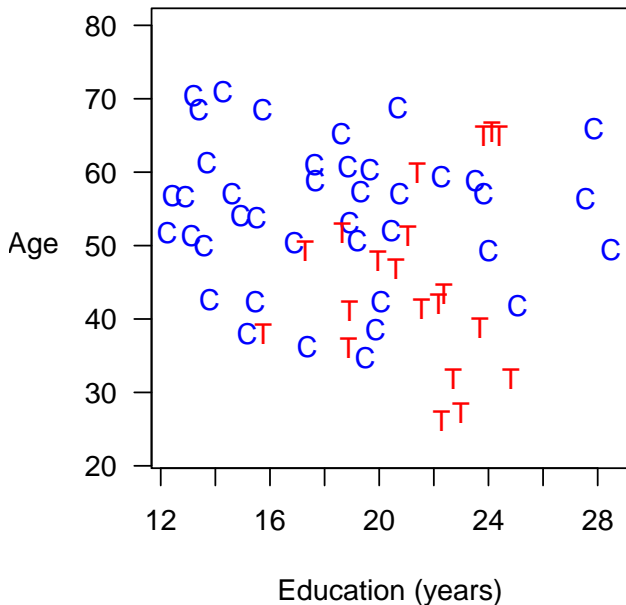
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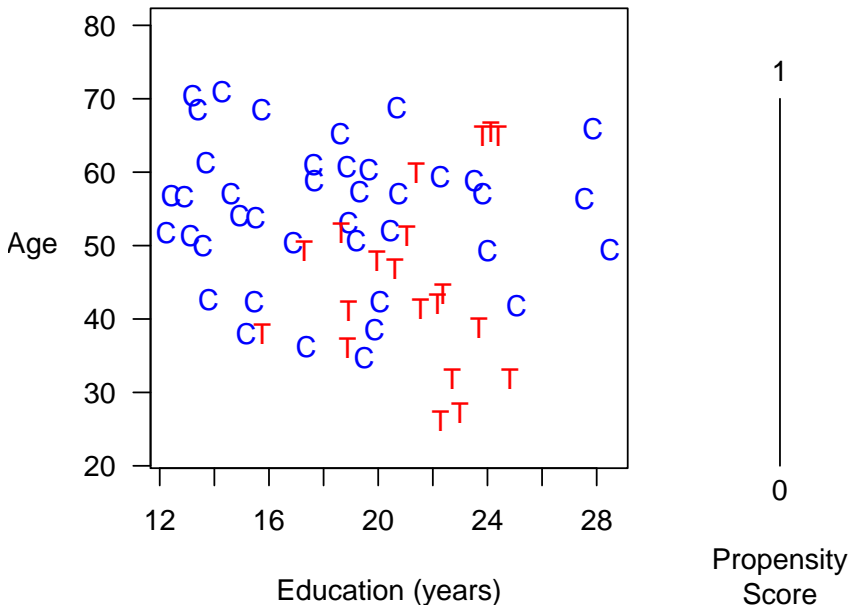
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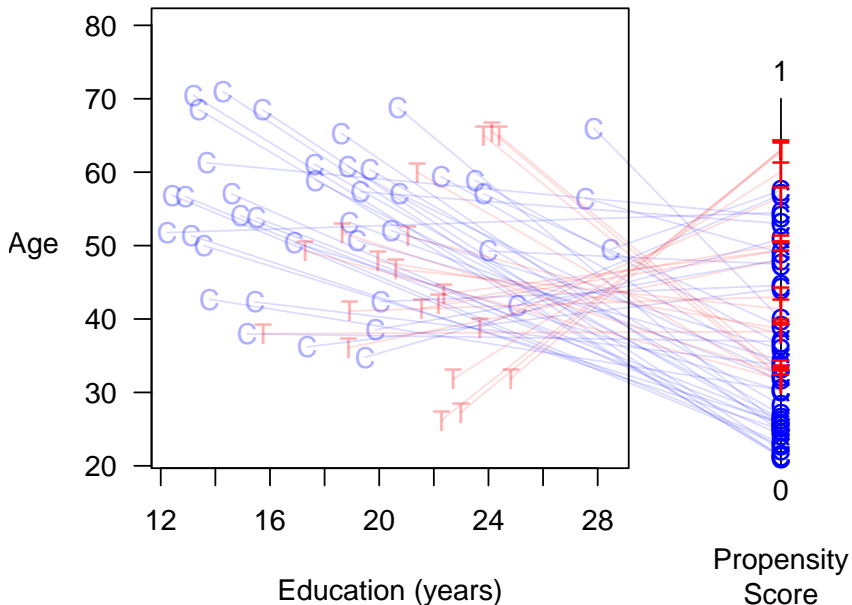
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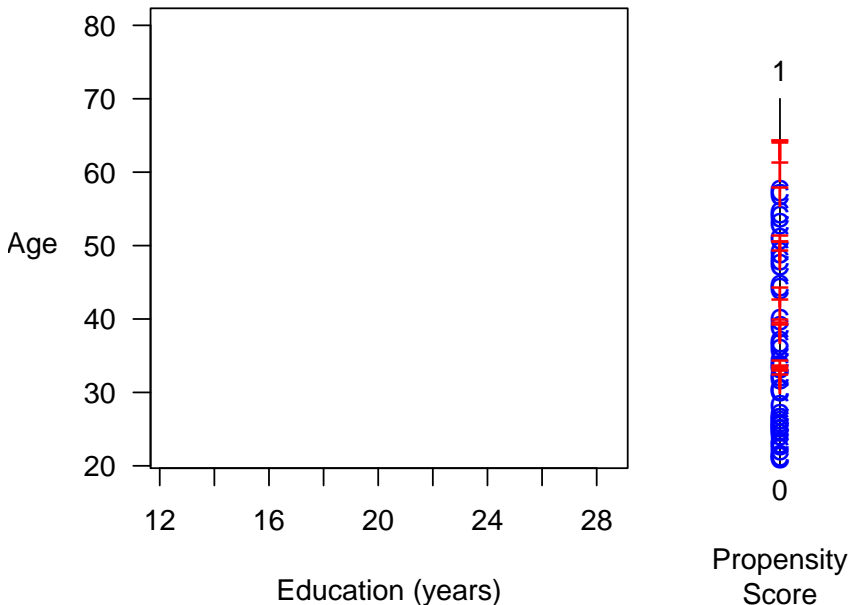
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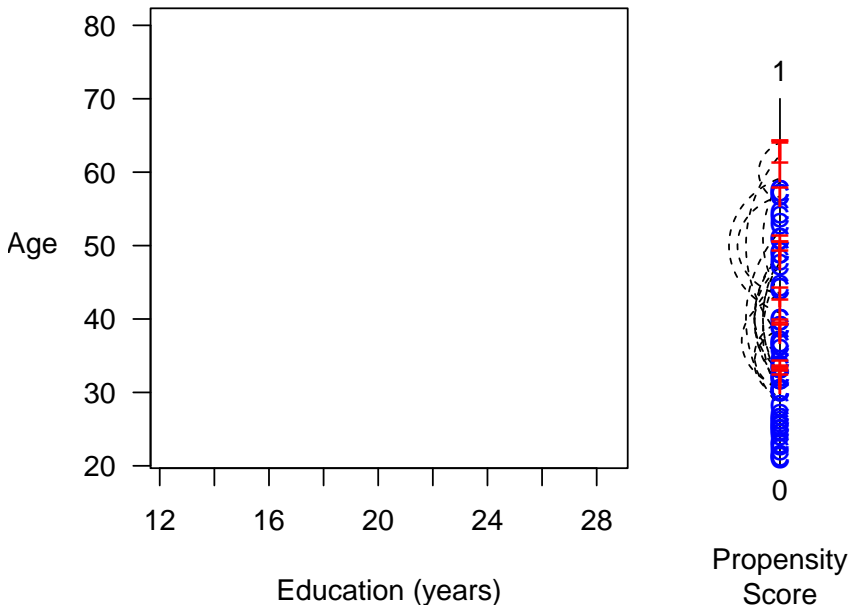
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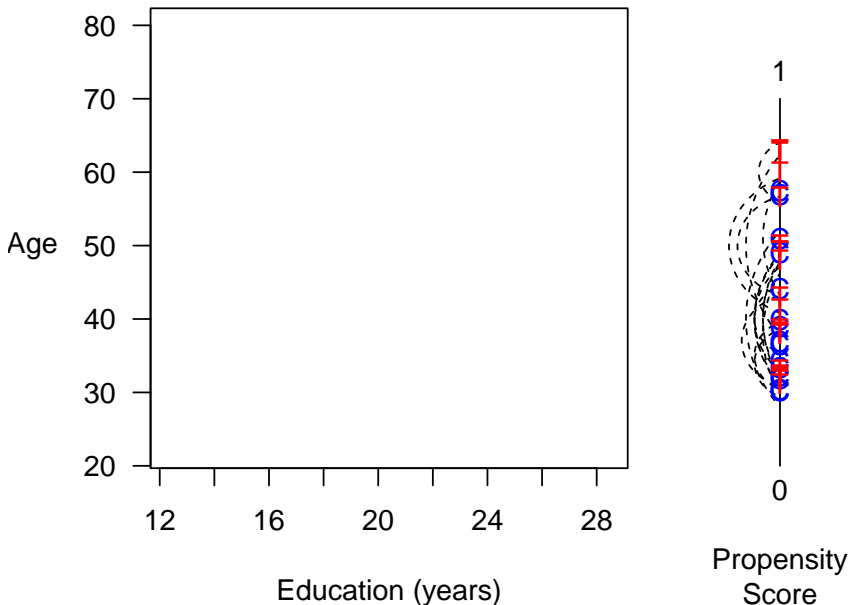
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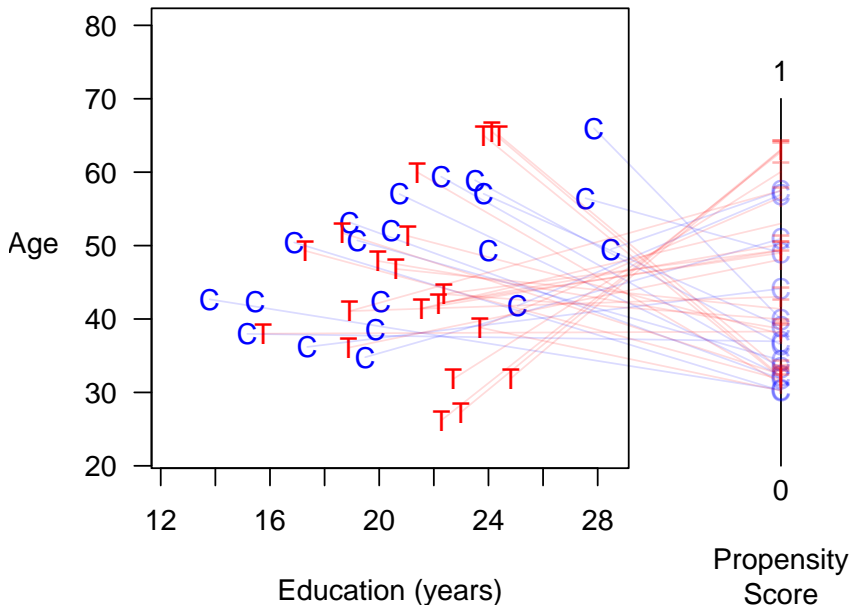
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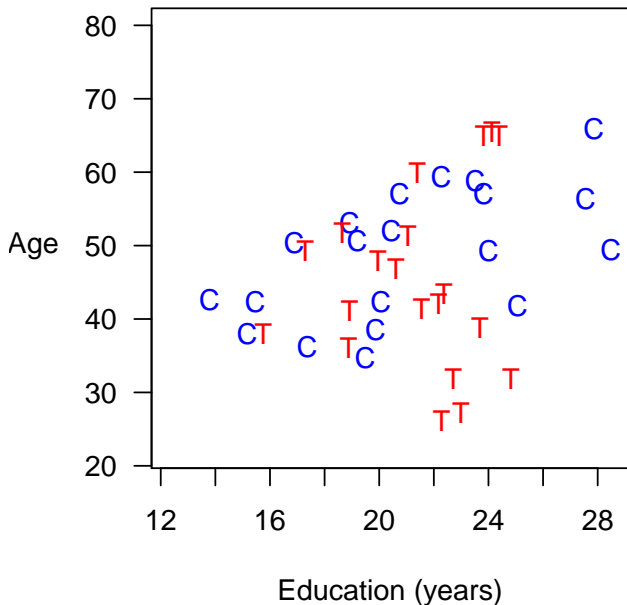
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- If X_i has a big effect on the mean of $Y_i(0)$ then this bias could be big!

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Bias-corrected inference

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Fully pooled model

- What if we simply run our original analysis model on the pooled, matching data:

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- SEs from these models might make additional assumptions (homoskedasticity, etc).

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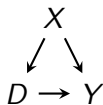
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- and remember: **Matching is not an identification strategy**

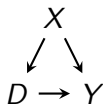
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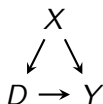


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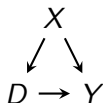
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- A useful way to think about this problem is what causes **selection** into treatment.
- Propensity score methods emphasize this interpretation by focusing on estimating the **probability that a unit will take the treatment**.

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- ▶ \rightsquigarrow stratifying on e_i is the same in expectation as stratifying on the full X_i .

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- However, we have to know the true PS to have all these results work!

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 - ▶ Covariate Balancing Propensity Scores (Imai and Ratkovic)

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- We will focus on settings where the propensity score is a tool to achieve **balance**.
- However, note that the propensity score only achieves balance **in expectation**

Identification with Propensity Scores

Definition

Propensity score is defined as the selection probability conditional on the confounding variables: $\pi(X) = \Pr(D = 1|X)$

Identification Assumption

- 1 $(Y_1, Y_0) \perp\!\!\!\perp D | X$ (*selection on observables*)
- 2 $0 < \Pr(D = 1|X) < 1$ with probability one (*common support*)

Identification Result

Under selection on observables we have $(Y_1, Y_0) \perp\!\!\!\perp D | \pi(X)$, ie. conditioning on the propensity score is enough to have independence between the treatment indicator and potential outcomes. Implies substantial dimension reduction.

Identification with Propensity Scores

Proof.

Show that $\Pr(D = 1 | Y_0, Y_1, \pi(X)) = \Pr(D = 1 | \pi(X)) = \pi(X)$, implying independence of (Y_0, Y_1) and D conditional on $\pi(X)$.

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therefore $\Pr(D = 1|Y_1, Y_0, \pi(X)) = \Pr(D = 1|\pi(X))$ □

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- Reweights the sample to be representative of the population.

Back to causal effects

- With a completely randomized experiment, we can just use the simple differences in means:

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- With subclassification, we binned X_i , calculated within-bin differences and then averaged across the bins, just like this.

Searching for the weights

$$\mathbf{E}[Y_i(d)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbf{E}[Y_i | D_i = d, X_i = x] \mathbb{P}(X_i = x)$$

- Compare this to the the within treatment group average:

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- How should we reweight the data from an observational study?
- If we were to reweight the data by $W_i = 1/\mathbb{P}(D_i = d | X_i)$, then we would break the relationship between D_i and X_i .

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- Single binary covariate. Define the weight function:

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- If $(D_i, X_i) = (0, 0)$:

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Example

	$X_i = 0$	$X_i = 1$
$D_i = 0$	4	3
$D_i = 1$	4	9

- $\mathbb{P}(D_i = 1|X_i = 0) = 0.5$

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- $\rightsquigarrow D_i$ independent of X_i in the reweighted data.

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- We want to see what the conditional weighted mean identifies:

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- The above two results give us that this estimator is unbiased.
- This is sometimes called the **Horvitz-Thompson** estimator due to the close connection to the survey sampling estimator.

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- The distribution of the estimates, $\hat{\tau}_b$, will give us the bootstrapped standard errors and confidence intervals.

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- ▶ We call these stabilized weights:

$$sw(d, x) = \frac{\mathbb{P}[D_i = 1]^d (1 - \mathbb{P}[D_i = 1])^{1-d}}{e(x)^d (1 - e(x))^{1-d}}$$

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- These are the means that the `weighted.mean()` function in R calculates. It normalizes the weights before calculating the mean.

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- Propensity scores have also been used to think about treatment effect heterogeneity (see work by Jennie Brand and Yu Xie).

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 - ▶ How do we get from cause to effect?

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 - ① Mediation (effect decomposition, indirect effects)
 - ② Moderation (effect modification, subgroup effects)
- We are going to focus on mediation today.

Notation

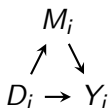
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- Outcome variable Y_i
- An intermediate, post-treatment variable, M_i , which we call a mediator.



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- **Mediator:** a posttreatment variable that changes the effect of treatment.

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- Potential outcomes $Y_i(d, m)$: the value that the outcome takes when the treatment has value d and the mediator takes the value m .
- Consistency assumption to connect the potential outcomes to the observed outcomes:

$$M_i = M_i(D_i)$$

$$Y_i = Y_i(D_i, M_i(D_i))$$

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- $Y_i(d, m)$ is the weight you would have if we forced you to run 10 km/day and eat 1500 kcals a day.

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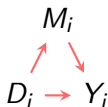
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- The total causal effect allows the effect of the treatment “propagate” through all causal pathways.



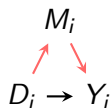
Direct and indirect effects

- The **indirect effect** is the part of the effect of treatment that “flows through” the mediator

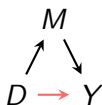


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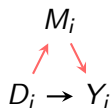


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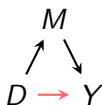


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- These are loose definitions, let's be precise.

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- If D_i doesn't affect M_i , so that $M_i(1) = M_i(0)$, then $\delta_i = 0$.
- Fundamental Problem of Causal Inference \leadsto focus on the **average** natural indirect effect (ANIE):

$$\bar{\delta}(d) = \mathbf{E}[\delta_i(d)] = \mathbf{E}[Y_i(d, M_i(1)) - Y_i(d, M_i(0))]$$

How Natural?: Impossible counterfactuals

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- Leads some to dismiss mediation altogether.
- However still an important topic for policy makers, theory-driven scholars etc.

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- Thus, the natural direct effect is the effect of moving from control to treatment while holding the mediator fixed at the value it would have under treatment status d .

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- NDE answers this question.

Effect decomposition

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- The fact that we can decompose the total effect of treatment into the sum of a direct and indirect effect is very important to social science researchers.

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- In general, this effect will be different than the NDE.
 - ▶ ACDE: set M_i to m for all units
 - ▶ ANDE: set M_i to $M_i(0)$ for all units
- ACDE is identified under weaker conditions than the ANDE but it does not create a nice decomposition of effects.

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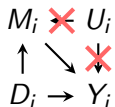
- Could be satisfied by randomizing M_i , but then the effect of D_i is not “natural.” Also can hold if X includes all confounders

SI and posttreatment bias

- SI assumes that posttreatment bias is not a problem.

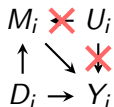
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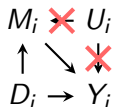
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- Is this plausible? It depends on the application.

Limitations of sequential ignorability

$$\{Y_i(d', m), M_i(d)\} \perp\!\!\!\perp D_i \mid X_i = x$$

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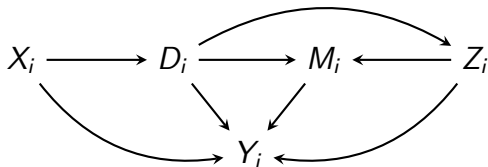
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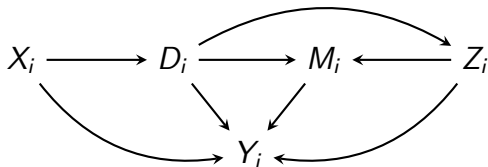


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- More on this in a bit.

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- Intuitive given the DAG:



(In)direct effects with non-binary mediators

- Let's say that the mediator has J categories:

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- The ANDE is the effect of D_i for a fixed m , averaged over the distribution of M_i when $D_i = 0$.

Alternative identification

- Robins proposed a different identification strategy, based on a **no-interactions assumption**:

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- \leadsto ACDE = ANDE.
- Strong assumption because it has to hold at the individual level (like monotonicity for IV).

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- In general though: if someone says this is easy- they are fooling themselves.

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- Same for M_i :

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What about more complicated scenarios?

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- To get the standard errors, we can use bootstrapping.
- Need to be careful with the curse of dimensionality in X_i . Use good nonparametric strategies (cross-validation, etc)

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- Modeling M_i probably appropriate here.

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- 3 Predict outcome for ($D_i = 1, M_i = M_i(0)$) and ($D_i = 1, M_i = M_i(1)$)
- 4 Compute the average difference between two outcomes to obtain a consistent estimator of the average natural indirect effect.
- 5 Bootstrap for the uncertainty
- 6 Evaluate sensitivity to assumptions

See `mediation` package in R.

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- ▶ These things are hard and relatively new. Adding another variable massively increases the assumptions. Adding a separate analysis messes with the decomposition.

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- 3 Matching as Non-parametric Preprocessing
- 4 Fundamentals of Matching
- 5 Three Approaches to Matching
- 6 The Propensity Score
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- 10 Appendix: The Case Against Propensity Score Matching

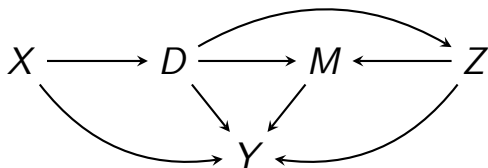
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Intermediate confounders

- **Intermediate confounders** are variables that confound the $M_i \rightarrow Y_i$ relationship, but are affected by D_i

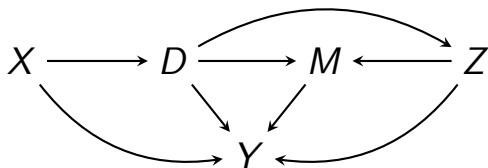
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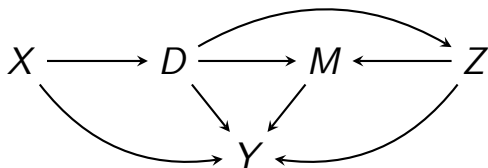
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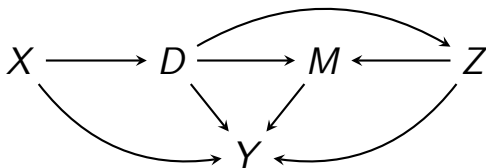
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- Avin, Shpitser and Pearl (2003) showed that ANDE/ANIE identification not possible when SI incorporates intermediate confounders.

Sequential ignorability, II

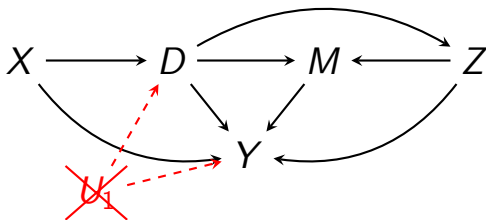


- New version of sequential ignorability with intermediate confounders:

$$Y_i(d, m) \perp\!\!\!\perp D_i | X_i$$

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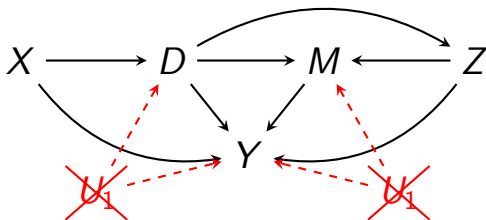
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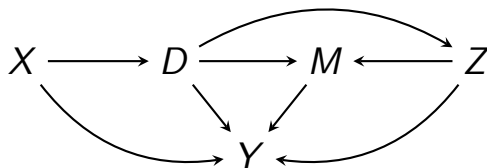
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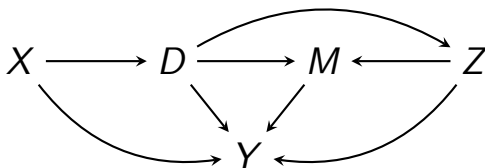
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- Relationship can be generalized to any number of treatments, and is called the **g-formula** by Robins.

Estimating direct effects



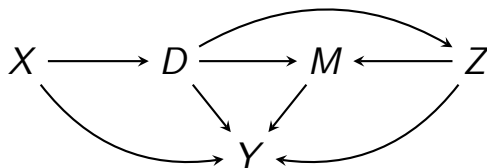
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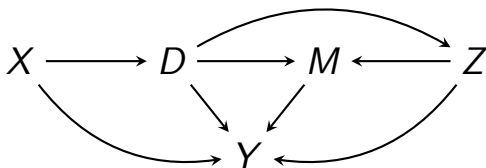
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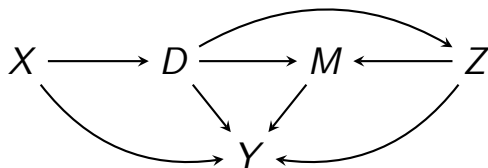
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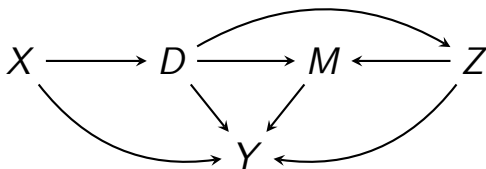
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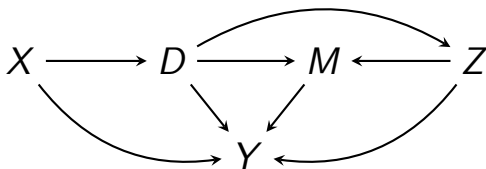
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Sequential g-estimation



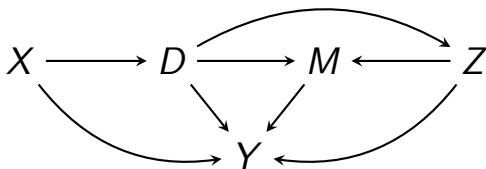
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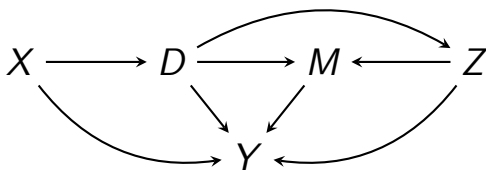
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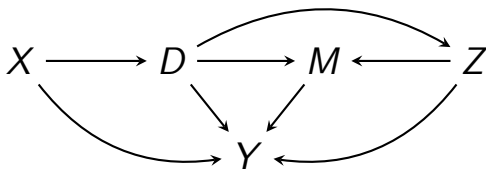


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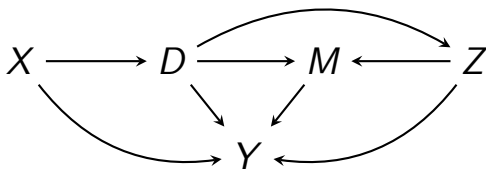


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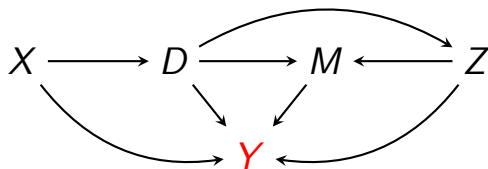
- γ_1 is not the CDE (posttreatment bias)
- γ_2 **is** the effect of M_i on Y_i

Blip down



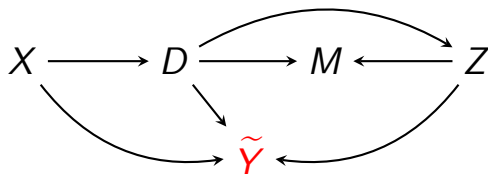
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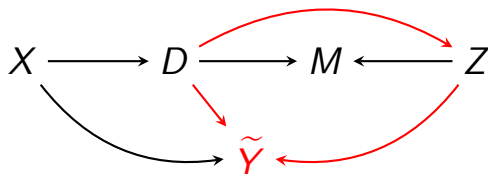
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$$\int_x \int_z \mathbf{E}[Y_i | x, d = 1, z, m] dF_{Z|D,X}(z | d = 1, x) dF_X(x) \\ - \int_x \int_z \mathbf{E}[Y_i | x, d = 0, z, m] dF_{Z|D,X}(z | d = 0, x) dF_X(x)$$

- Typical selection on observables: need correct model for covariates in both steps.
- ATE - ACDE \neq an indirect effect, but still can tell us something about mechanisms.
- Acharya, Blackwell and Sen (2016) is a great paper on this.

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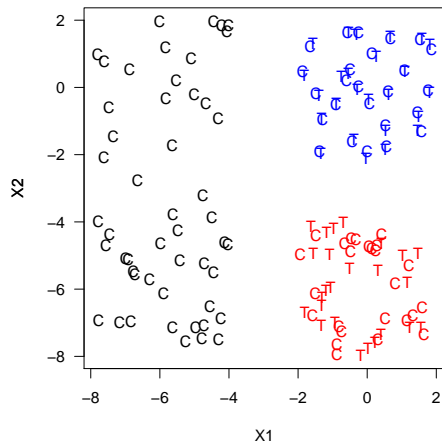
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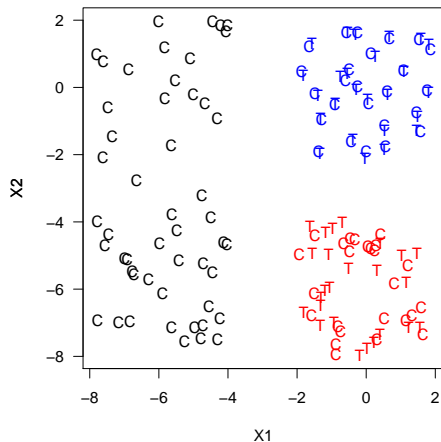
- ▶ The Promise: avoid it by balancing on π rather than X
- ▶ The Reality: The PSM Paradox is bigger with more covariates

PSM is Blind Where Other Methods Can See

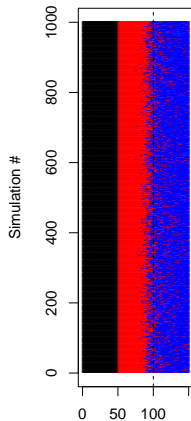
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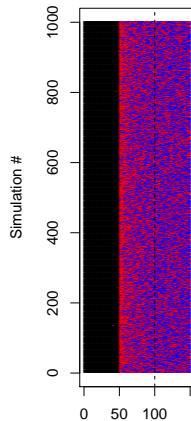


Mahalanobis



Number of Dropped Obs.

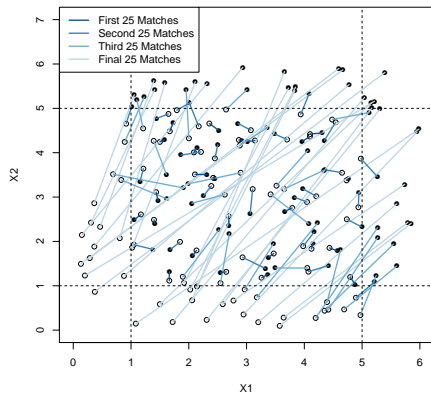
Propensity Score



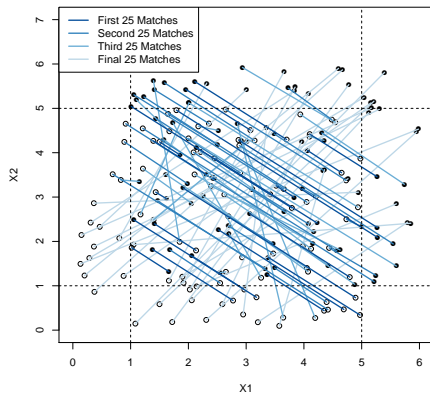
Number of Dropped Obs.

What Does PSM Match?

MDM Matches



PSM Matches

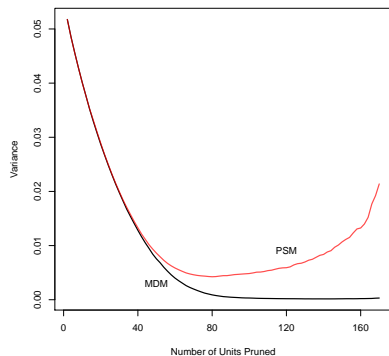


Controls: $X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Uniform}(0,5)$

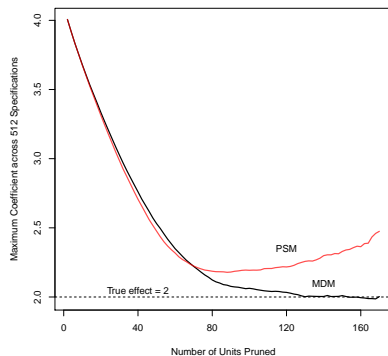
Treateds: $X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Uniform}(1,6)$

PSM Increases Model Dependence & Bias

Model Dependence



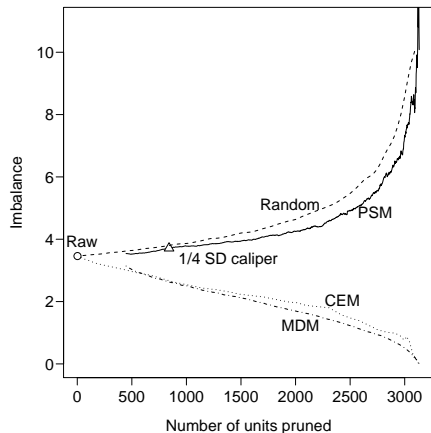
Bias



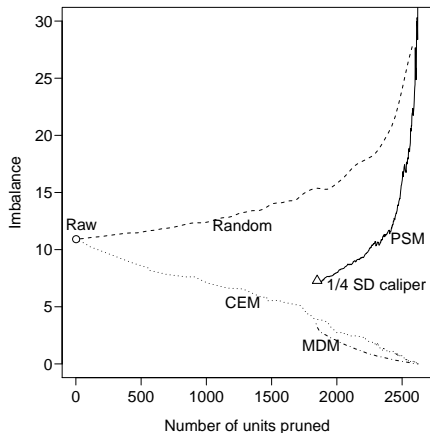
$$Y_i = 2T_i + X_{1i} + X_{2i} + \epsilon_i$$
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, 1)$$

The Propensity Score Paradox

Finkle et al. (2012)



Nielsen et al. (2011)



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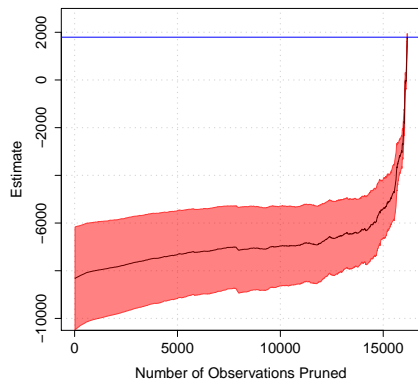
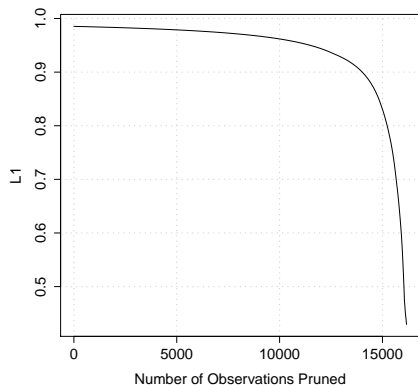
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 - ▶ work with very large data sets
 - ▶ is the exact frontier (no approximation or estimation)
 - ▶ \leadsto It's **easy** to calculate!

Job Training Data: Frontier and Causal Estimates

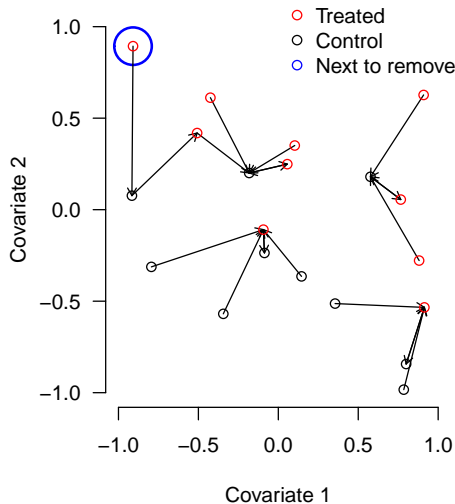


- 185 Ts; pruning most 16,252 Cs won't increase variance much
- Huge bias-variance trade-off after pruning most Cs
- Estimates converge to experiment after removing bias
- No mysteries: basis of inference clearly revealed

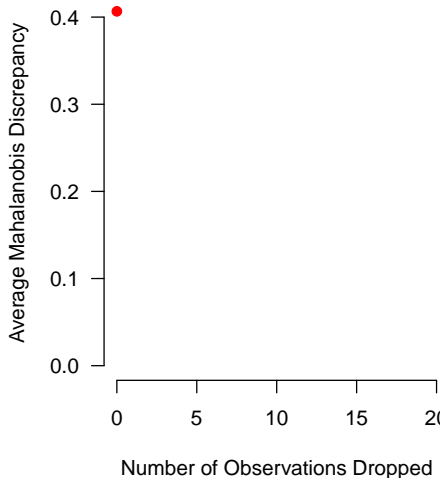
Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

Remaining Data

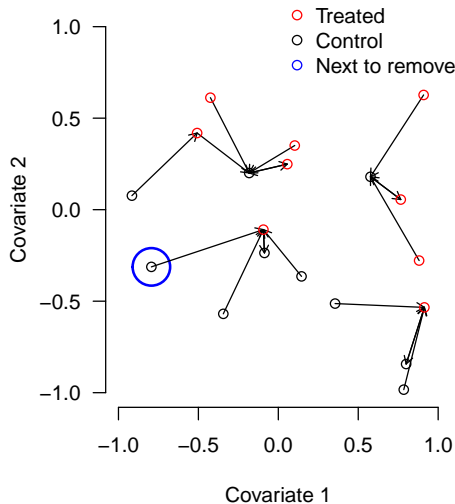


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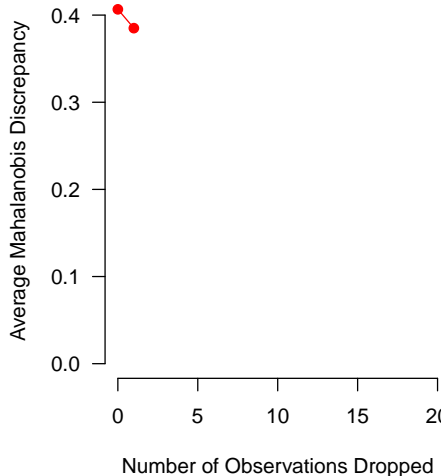


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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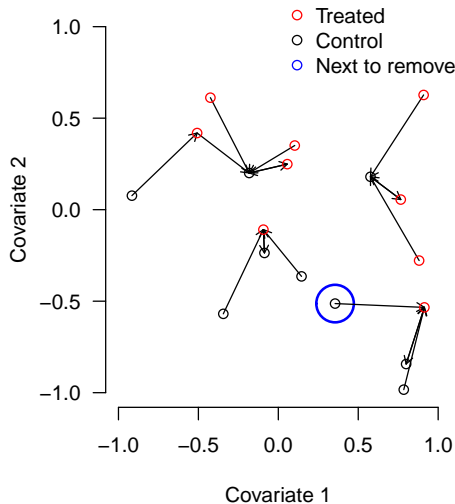


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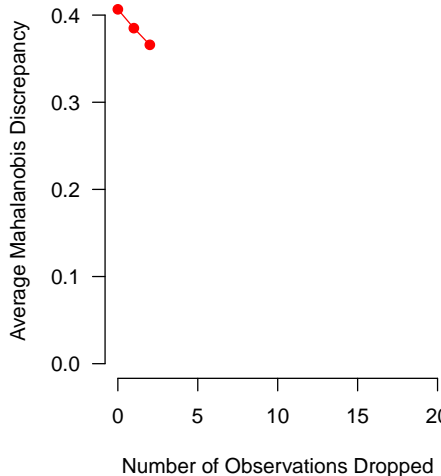


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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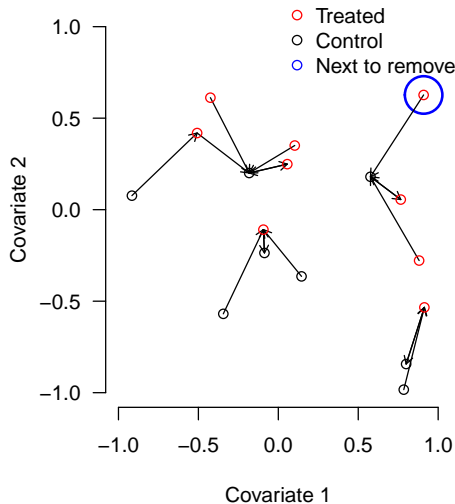


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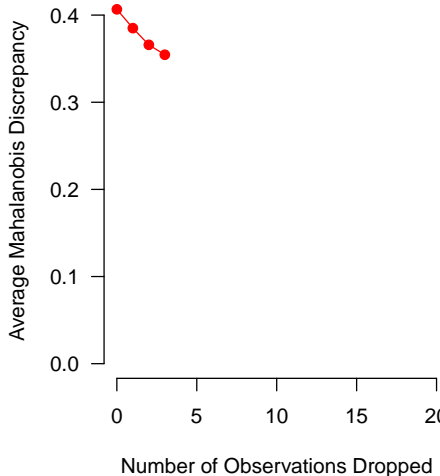


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

Remaining Data

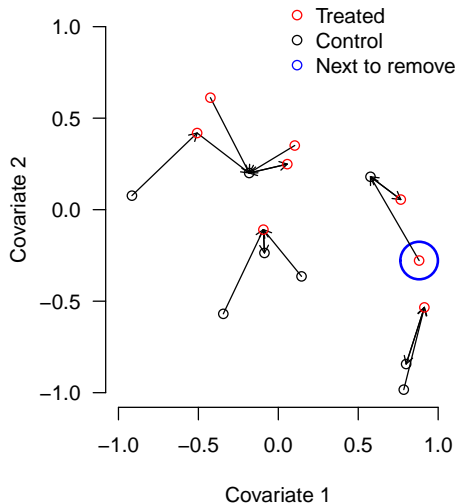


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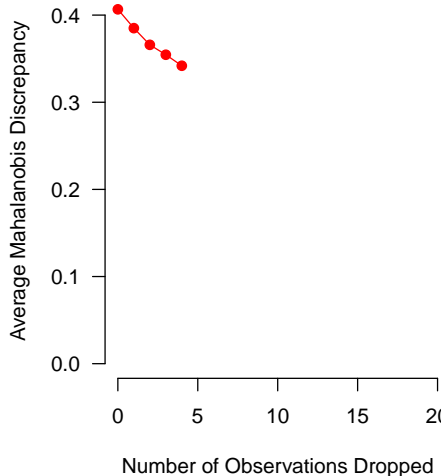


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

Remaining Data

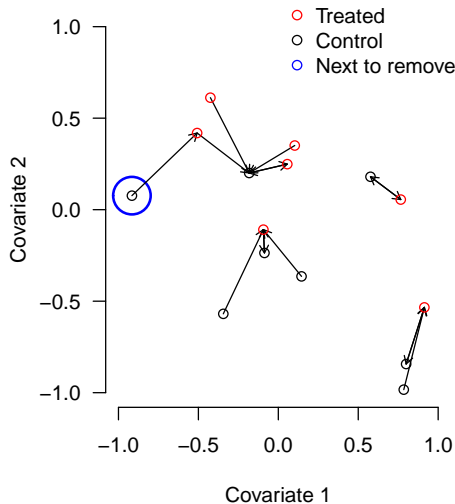


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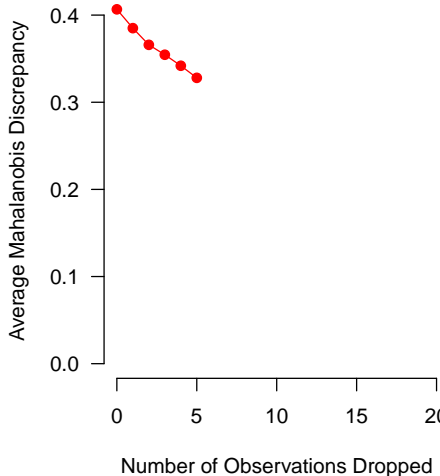


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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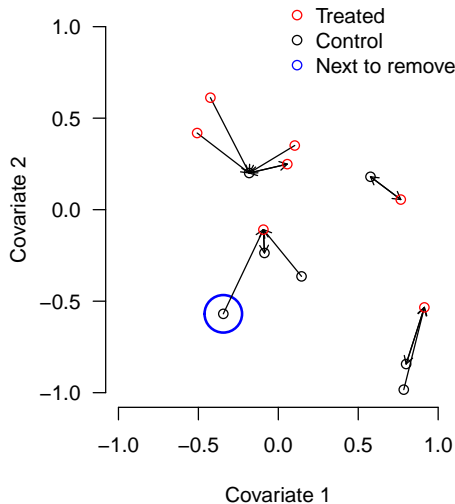


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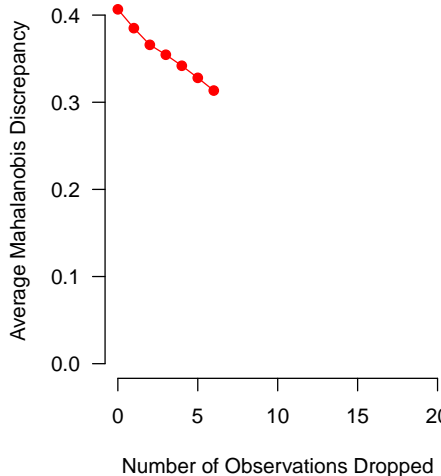


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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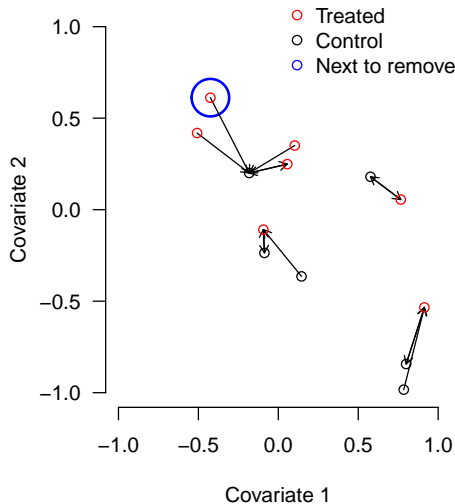


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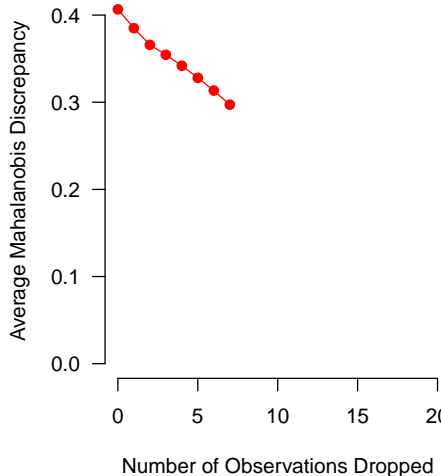


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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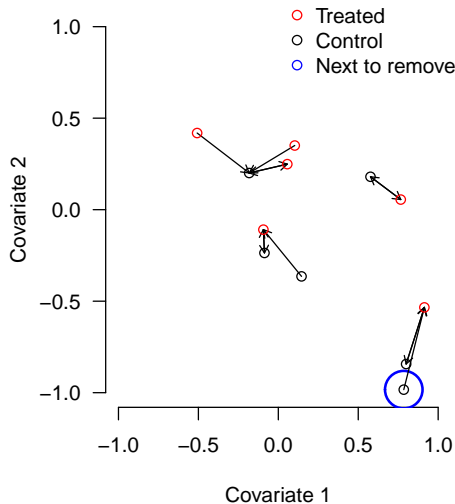


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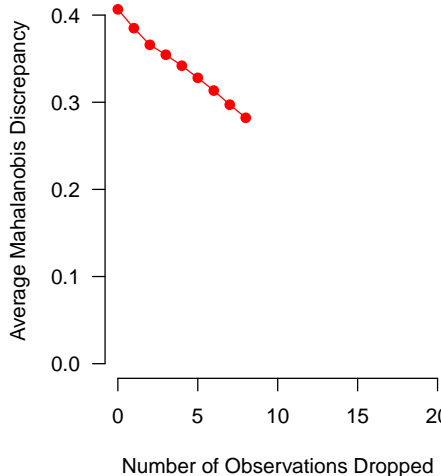


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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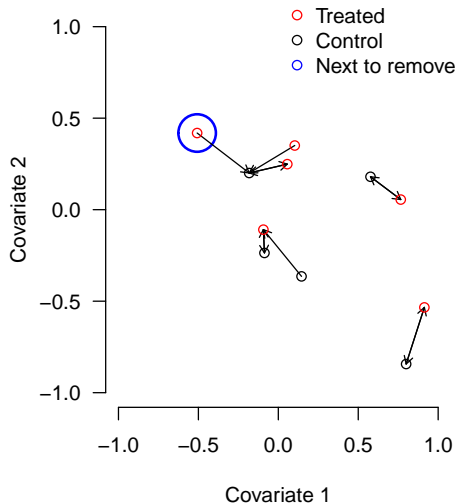


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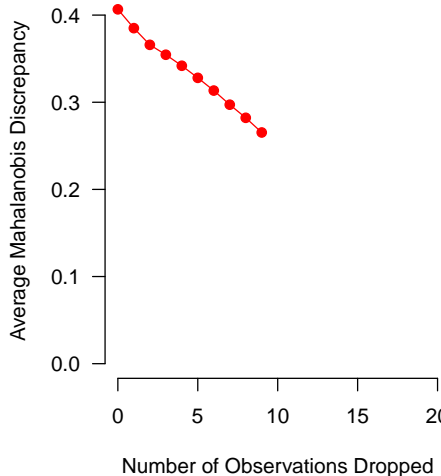


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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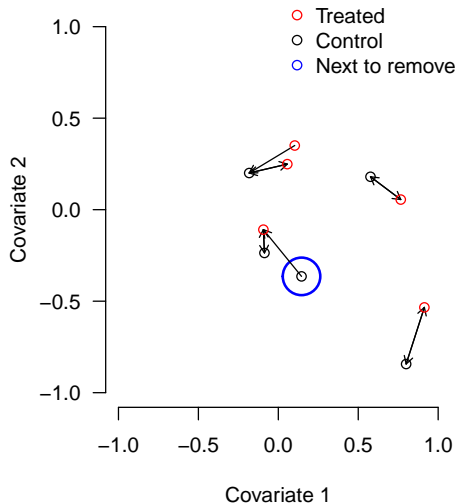


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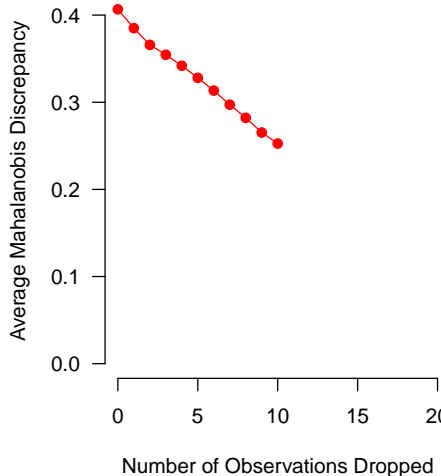


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

Remaining Data

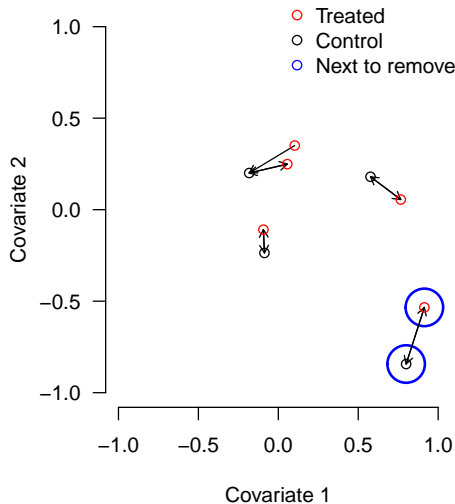


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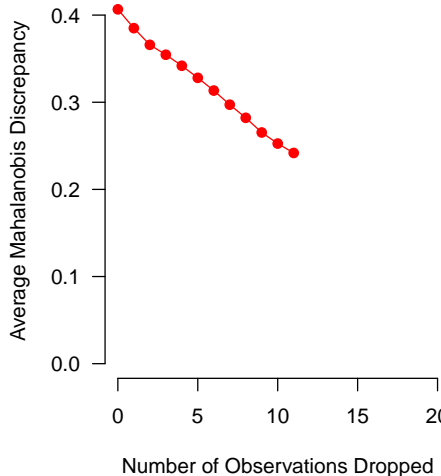


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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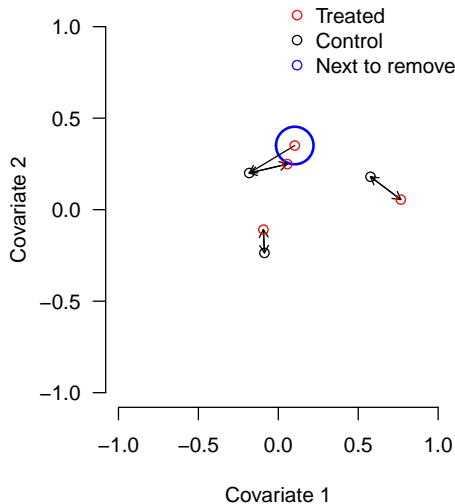


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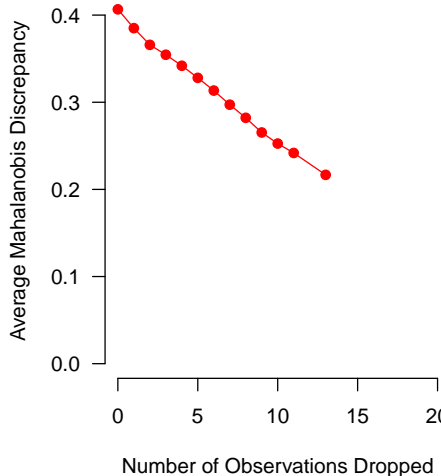


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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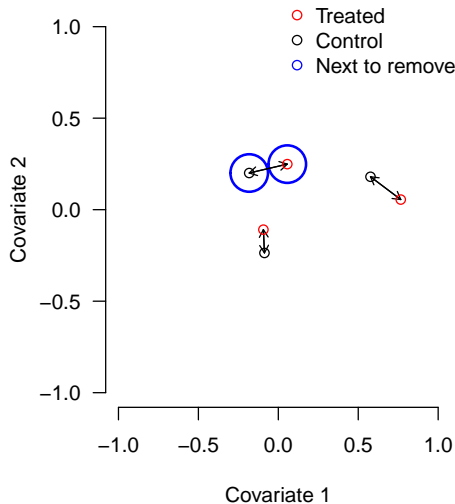


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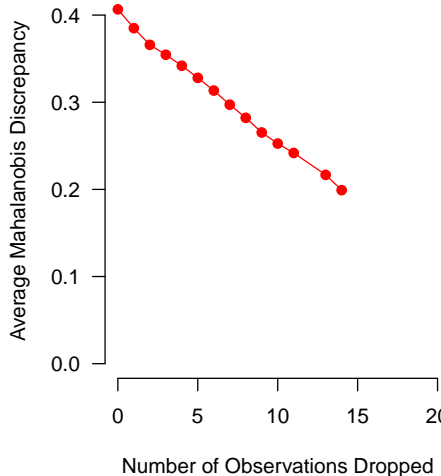


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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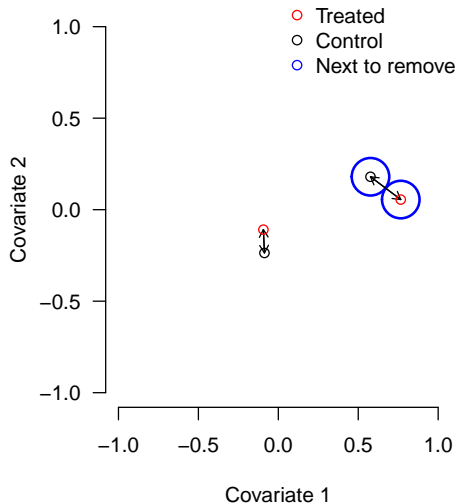


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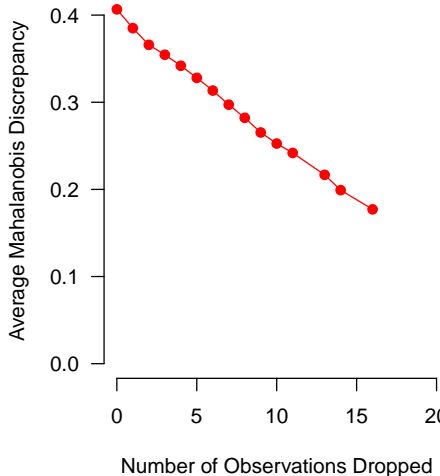


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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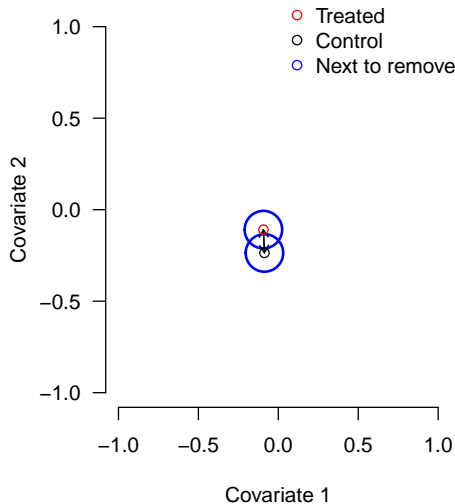


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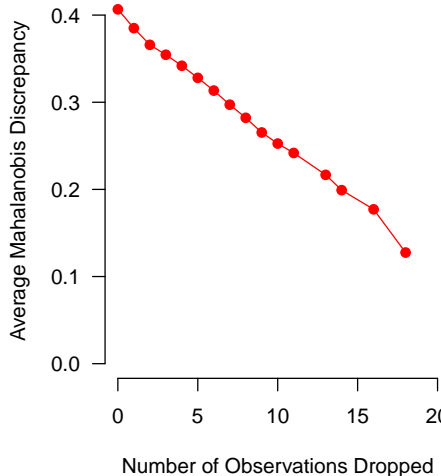


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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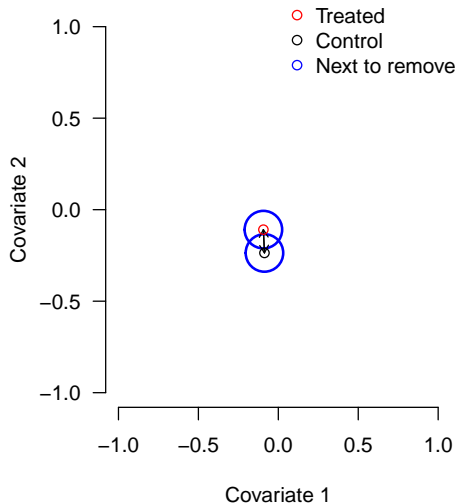


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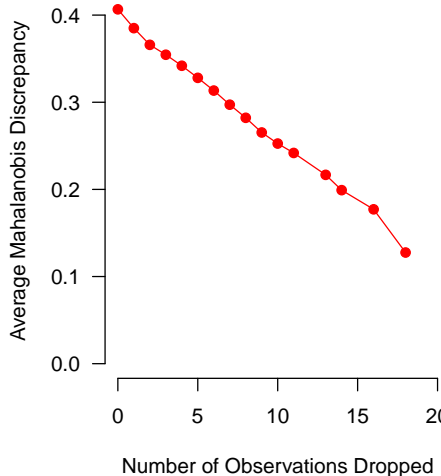


Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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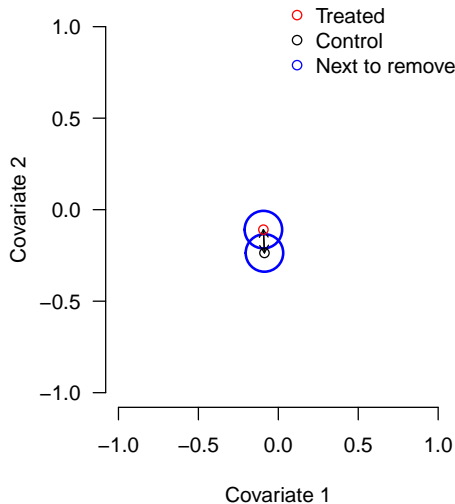
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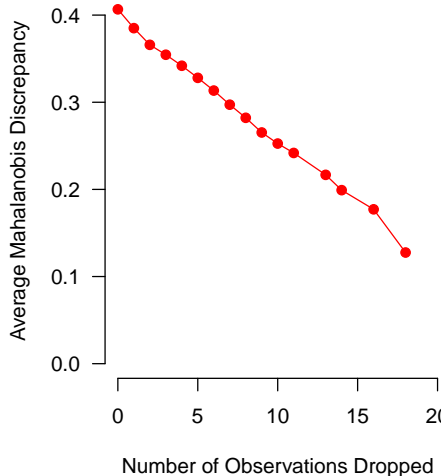
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Constructing the FSATT Mahalanobis Frontier

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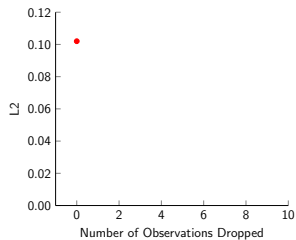
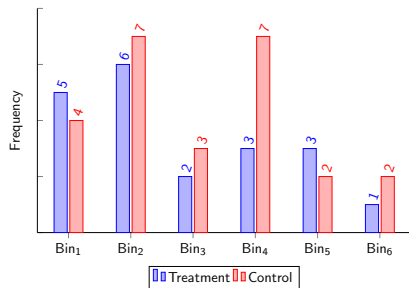


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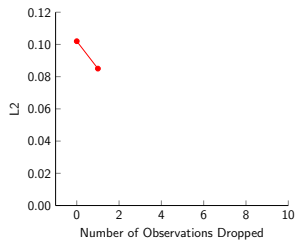
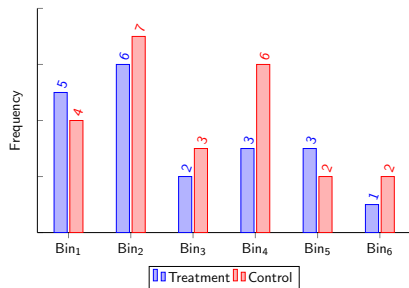


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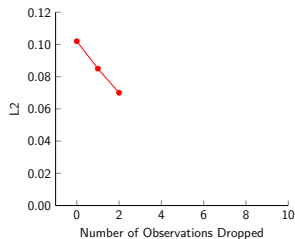
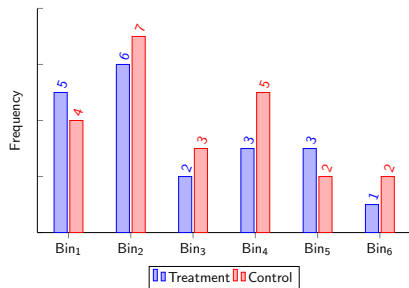
Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



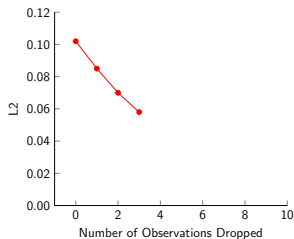
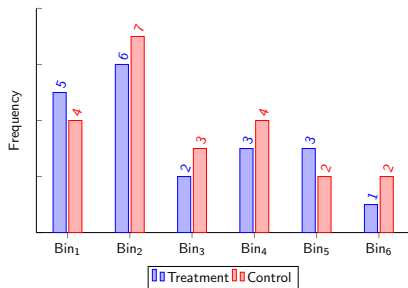
Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



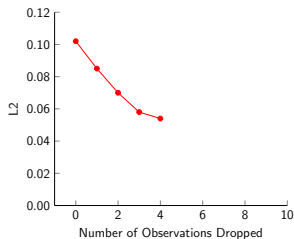
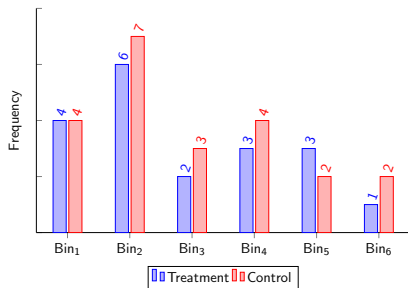
Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



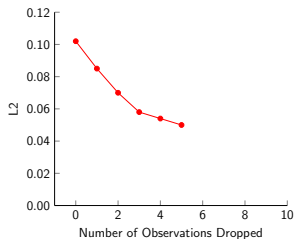
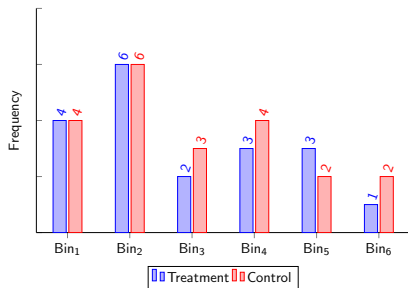
Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



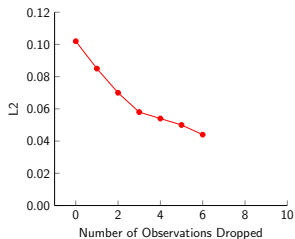
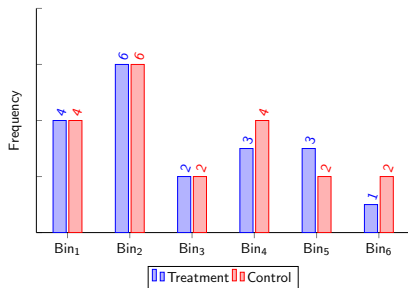
Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



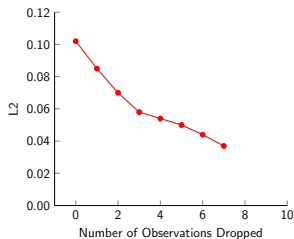
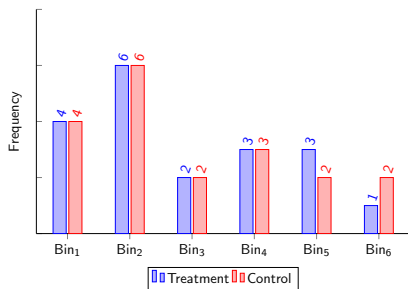
Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



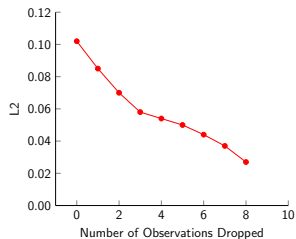
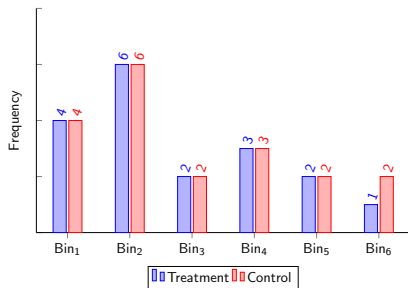
Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier



Constructing the L1/L2 SATT Frontier

