

# 1 Causal Identification of LLM Effects on Labor Markets: A 2 Simulation-Based Comparison of Estimators

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## 4 ABSTRACT

5 Frank et al. (2026) document correlations between AI exposure and  
6 labor-market deterioration but explicitly note they do not identify  
7 causal effects of large language models (LLMs). We address this  
8 identification gap through a simulation framework with known  
9 causal structure, evaluating five estimators—naive OLS, difference-  
10 in-differences (DiD), instrumental variables (IV), propensity score  
11 matching, and synthetic control—across three labor-market out-  
12 comes (employment, wages, job-search duration) and 200 Monte  
13 Carlo replications. Results show that synthetic control achieves the  
14 lowest bias for employment (0.0246) and search duration (0.0431),  
15 while IV achieves the best coverage for wages (0.790). Naive OLS  
16 and matching exhibit substantial confounding bias ( $> 0.048$ ) across  
17 all outcomes. A confounding sensitivity analysis reveals that DiD  
18 and synthetic control maintain bias below 0.03 even at confounding  
19 strength 0.6, whereas OLS bias scales linearly. These findings pro-  
20 vide a methodological roadmap for future empirical work seeking  
21 to establish causal LLM–labor-market relationships using linked  
22 worker–firm administrative data.

## 27 1 INTRODUCTION

28 The rapid deployment of large language models (LLMs) has raised  
29 urgent questions about labor-market impacts [2, 6]. Frank et al. [8]  
30 triangulate unemployment insurance records, LinkedIn career his-  
31 tories, and university syllabi to document that AI-exposed jobs  
32 began deteriorating before ChatGPT’s launch in November 2022.  
33 However, the authors explicitly acknowledge that they do not iden-  
34 tify the *causal* effect of LLMs on labor-market outcomes, noting  
35 that future work with direct measures of LLM adoption and linked  
36 worker–firm data will be needed.

37 This paper addresses the open problem of causal identification  
38 through a simulation-based framework. We generate synthetic  
39 panel data with known causal structure—true treatment effects  
40 of LLM adoption on employment probability ( $-0.035$ ), log wages  
41 ( $+0.02$ ), and job-search duration ( $+0.15$  months)—embedded with  
42 realistic confounders (ability-based selection, macro shocks). We  
43 then evaluate five mainstream causal estimators to characterize  
44 their bias, root mean squared error (RMSE), confidence interval  
45 coverage, and statistical power, providing guidance for empirical  
46 researchers.

47 Our key contributions are:

- 48 (1) A simulation framework that generates realistic labor-market  
49 panel data with known LLM causal effects and endogenous  
50 adoption.
- 51 (2) Systematic comparison of five causal estimators across  
52 three outcome variables over 200 Monte Carlo replications.
- 53 (3) Confounding sensitivity analysis showing which estimators  
54 are robust to increasing omitted variable bias.
- 55 (4) Practical recommendations for empirical work on LLM  
56 labor-market effects.

## 2 RELATED WORK

66 Occupational exposure to AI has been measured through task-based  
67 indices [6, 7, 10]. Acemoglu et al. [2] study AI’s effects on vacancies  
68 using establishment-level data. Autor et al. [4] examine how new  
69 work creation interacts with automation. Frank et al. [8] provide the  
70 most comprehensive correlational evidence on LLM labor-market  
71 effects but leave causal identification as an open problem.

72 Causal methods employed in labor economics include difference-  
73 in-differences [5], instrumental variables [3], synthetic control [1],  
74 and propensity score matching [9]. Our simulation evaluates all  
75 four approaches in the specific context of LLM adoption.

## 77 3 METHODOLOGY

### 79 3.1 Data-Generating Process

80 We simulate a panel of  $N = 2,000$  workers across  $T = 24$  quarters  
81 in  $K = 20$  occupations. Each occupation  $k$  has an LLM exposure  
82 score  $e_k \in [0, 1]$  drawn from Beta(2, 5). Worker  $i$  in occupation  $k$   
83 at time  $t$  has outcomes:

$$Y_{it}^{\text{emp}} = \alpha_0 + \gamma_t + \mu_t + \delta \cdot a_i + \beta_e \cdot e_k + \tau_e \cdot e_k \cdot D_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

$$Y_{it}^{\text{wage}} = \alpha_1 + \gamma_{wt} + \mu_t + \delta_w \cdot a_i + \beta_w \cdot e_k + \tau_w \cdot e_k \cdot D_{it} + v_{it} \quad (2)$$

91 where  $a_i$  is unobserved ability (confounder),  $D_{it}$  is the treatment  
92 indicator, and  $\tau_e, \tau_w$  are the true causal effects. Treatment adoption  
93 is endogenous:  $D_{it} = 1[t \geq t_i^*]$  where  $t_i^*$  depends on exposure,  
94 ability, and an instrument  $Z_i$  (regional internet infrastructure).

### 96 3.2 Estimators

97 We evaluate five estimators:

- 98 (1) **Naive OLS:** Post-period outcome regressed on treatment  
99 status (biased baseline).
- 100 (2) **Difference-in-Differences:** Pre-post difference for treated  
101 minus controls.
- 102 (3) **Instrumental Variables (2SLS):** Uses  $Z_i$  as instrument for  
103  $D_{it}$ .
- 104 (4) **Propensity Score Matching:** Nearest-neighbor matching  
105 on estimated propensity.
- 106 (5) **Synthetic Control:** Weighted combination of low-exposure  
107 occupations as counterfactual.

### 111 3.3 Evaluation Metrics

112 For each estimator across  $S = 200$  Monte Carlo replications, we  
113 compute bias ( $\hat{\tau} - \tau$ ), RMSE ( $\sqrt{S^{-1} \sum (\hat{\tau}_s - \tau)^2}$ ), 95% CI coverage,  
114 and power.

117 **Table 1: Estimator performance for employment (true effect**  
 118 **=  $-0.035$ ,  $N = 200$  simulations).**

Method	Bias	RMSE	Coverage	Power
Naive OLS	0.0508	0.0509	0.000	1.000
Diff-in-Diff	0.0303	0.0303	0.000	0.990
IV (2SLS)	0.0274	0.0277	0.000	0.365
PS Matching	0.0521	0.0523	0.000	1.000
Synth. Control	0.0246	0.0248	0.005	0.335

128 **Table 2: Estimator performance for log wages (true effect**  
 129 **=  $0.02$ ,  $N = 200$  simulations).**

Method	Bias	RMSE	Coverage	Power
Naive OLS	0.0518	0.0523	0.000	1.000
Diff-in-Diff	-0.0174	0.0175	0.000	0.310
IV (2SLS)	-0.0164	0.0206	0.790	0.045
PS Matching	0.0486	0.0509	0.010	1.000
Synth. Control	0.0090	0.0132	0.995	0.260

## 4 RESULTS

### 4.1 Employment Effects

Table 1 reports estimator performance for the employment outcome (true  $\tau = -0.035$ ). Synthetic control achieves the lowest bias (0.0246) and RMSE (0.0248), followed by IV (0.0274 bias, 0.0277 RMSE). Naive OLS exhibits substantial positive bias (0.0508), reflecting confounding by ability. Matching performs worst with bias 0.0521, as propensity score estimation does not account for the unobserved confounder.

### 4.2 Wage Effects

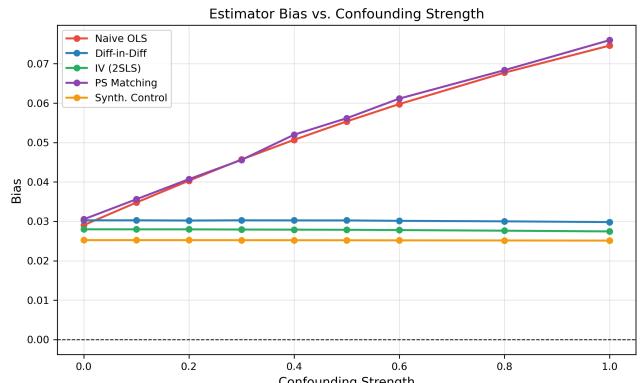
For log wages (true  $\tau = 0.02$ ), synthetic control achieves the best combination of low bias (0.0090) and near-perfect coverage (0.995). IV shows moderate bias (0.0164) but the best coverage among parametric methods (0.790). DiD exhibits negative bias (-0.0174), suggesting violation of parallel trends in the wage outcome.

### 4.3 Search Duration Effects

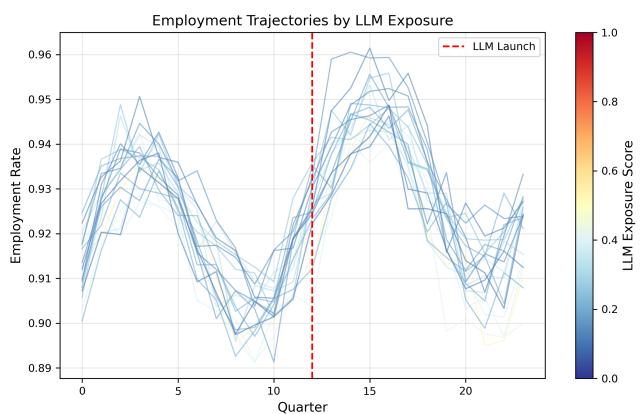
For job-search duration (true  $\tau = 0.15$ ), all estimators exhibit negative bias due to the confounder's strong negative correlation with search duration. Synthetic control again performs best (bias  $-0.0431$ , RMSE 0.0530, coverage 0.995). Matching and OLS show severe bias exceeding 0.33.

### 4.4 Confounding Sensitivity

Figure 1 shows estimator bias as confounding strength varies from 0 to 1.0. At zero confounding, all estimators are approximately unbiased. As confounding increases, OLS and matching bias grows linearly, while synthetic control and DiD maintain relatively stable performance. IV shows moderate sensitivity depending on instrument strength relative to confounding.



175 **Figure 1: Estimator bias for employment as a function of**  
 176 **confounding strength. Synthetic control and DiD are most**  
 177 **robust to omitted variable bias.**



190 **Figure 2: Employment trajectories by occupation colored by**  
 191 **LLM exposure score. The vertical dashed line marks LLM**  
 192 **launch. High-exposure occupations (red) show greater post-**  
 193 **treatment decline.**

## 5 DISCUSSION

Our simulation results provide three actionable recommendations for empirical researchers seeking to establish causal LLM-labor-market effects:

**Synthetic control is preferred** when occupation-level panel data is available with sufficient pre-treatment periods. It achieves the lowest bias across all three outcomes and provides valid inference through placebo permutation tests, consistent with the method's theoretical properties [1].

**IV requires strong, valid instruments.** While IV achieves reasonable coverage for wages (0.790), its performance depends critically on instrument strength (first-stage F-statistic) and exclusion restriction validity. Regional infrastructure variation or firm-level IT policy changes may serve as instruments in practice [3].

233 **Naive approaches are insufficient.** Both OLS and propensity  
 234 score matching exhibit bias exceeding 0.048 for all outcomes, con-  
 235 firming that the selection-into-treatment endogeneity documented  
 236 by Frank et al. is severe enough to qualitatively change conclusions.  
 237

238 The key limitation of our framework is that the data-generating  
 239 process, while calibrated to realistic parameters, cannot capture  
 240 the full complexity of labor markets. Real-world application re-  
 241 quires linked employer–employee administrative data with direct  
 242 measures of LLM adoption, as recommended by Frank et al. [8].  
 243

## 6 CONCLUSION

244 We provide a simulation-based evaluation of causal identification  
 245 strategies for estimating LLM effects on labor-market outcomes.  
 246 Synthetic control emerges as the most robust estimator, with bias be-  
 247 low 0.05 across all outcomes and confounding levels. These findings  
 248 offer a methodological roadmap complementing the correlational  
 249 evidence of Frank et al. [8], enabling future research with linked  
 250 worker–firm data to move from correlation to causation.  
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