

Introduction to Causal Inference from an Observational Study for a Single Time Point Intervention

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February 28, 2017



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Outline

- 1 Definition of Causal Effects and 2 Examples
- 2 Assumptions Needed to Identify Causal Effects from Observed Data Distribution
- 3 Estimation Methods and Assumptions Needed for Consistency of Estimators
- 4 Computing Standard Errors (using bootstrap)
- 5 Potential Challenges You May Encounter



Definitions and Goal

- X =Baseline Variables, Z =Binary treatment or Exposure, Y =Outcome.
- Observed Data Structure: (X_i, Z_i, Y_i) for each study participant $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- Goal is to estimate the effect of the treatment/exposure on the outcome.
- We focus on **population average treatment effect (abbreviated ATE)**, a contrast between what the mean outcome would be **if everyone in population were assigned to treatment versus everyone assigned to control**.
- Main challenges we address: how to account for measured confounding
- We assume no unmeasured confounding (i.e., X contains all confounders)



Example 1

- Population: HIV infected individuals; Data from cohort study.
- X =age, sex, ART-naive; Z =Indicator of Adherence > 50% to Antiretroviral Therapy during month; Y =Indicator of Virologic Failure.
- Data structure: observe (X_i, Z_i, Y_i) for each study participant i



Example 2

- Population: individuals with intracerebral hemorrhage (ICH); data from randomized trial
- X =ICH volume, ICH location, age, NIH Stroke Scale;
 Z =Indicator of Received Surgical Intervention; Y =Modified Rankin Scale < 4 at 180 days.
- Data structure: observe (X_i, Z_i, Y_i) for each study participant i



Main Challenge

- X =Baseline Variables, Z =Binary treatment or Exposure, Y =Outcome.
- Observed Data Structure: (X_i, Z_i, Y_i) for each study participant $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- Problem in observational study: those with $Z=1$ may not be comparable to those with $Z=0$ in baseline characteristics related to Y .
- Difference in sample proportions with $Y = 1$ comparing $Z=1$ and $Z=0$ groups can have confounding/selection bias for estimating ATE.



Need to Introduce Potential Outcomes

- Potential outcomes Y_0, Y_1 , i.e., outcome **under assignment to** $Z = 0, 1$, respectively.
- Goal is to estimate causal effect, e.g., difference of proportions $P[Y_1 = 1] - P[Y_0 = 1]$
 $P[Y_0 = 1]$ is population proportion under hypothetical intervention where everyone **assigned** $Z = 0$.
 $P[Y_1 = 1]$ is population proportion under hypothetical intervention where everyone **assigned** $Z = 1$.
- The fundamental challenge of causal inference: only one of Y_0, Y_1 is observed for each person, i.e., the one corresponding to their Z value.
- Therefore, half the potential outcomes are missing. Goal is inferences about Y_0 and Y_1 in a hypothetical population where none of these missing.
- If there are confounders, then $P[Y = 1|Z = 1] \neq P[Y_1 = 1]$.



Defining Causal Effect using Potential Outcomes

- Potential outcomes Y_0, Y_1 , i.e., outcome **under assignment to $Z = 0, 1$** , respectively.
- Goal is to estimate causal effect, e.g.,
risk difference $P[Y_1 = 1] - P[Y_0 = 1]$,
risk ratio $P[Y_1 = 1]/P[Y_0 = 1]$,
log odds ratio $\text{logit}[P(Y_1 = 1)] - \text{logit}[P(Y_0 = 1)]$ where
 $\text{logit}(x) = \log[x/(1 - x)]$.
- Note: $\text{expit} = \text{logit}^{-1}$.



Note on Interpretation of Conditioning

- $P[Y = 1|Z = 1]$ is read as “Probability of $Y=1$ GIVEN (conditioned on) $Z=1$ ”.
- “GIVEN” can be interpreted as “among those in the population with” or “among strata with”
- $P[Y = 1|Z = 1]$ is read as “Probability of Y equals 1 among strata with $Z=1$ ”
- $P[Y = 1|Z = 1, X = x]$ is read as “Probability of $Y=1$ among strata with $Z=1, X=x$ ”
- The above are population quantities, which we could in principle learn by measuring (X, Z, Y) on everyone in the population; in practice we just get a sample from the population and try to infer from this about the population.



Assumptions

- X =Baseline Variables, Z =Binary treatment, Y =Outcome.
- Goal is to estimate causal effect, e.g., $P[Y_1 = 1] - P[Y_0 = 1]$.
- Key assumptions that allow identifiability of causal effect based on observed data distribution:
 - Consistency: $Y = Y_Z = (1 - Z)Y_0 + ZY_1$ (connects observed and potential outcomes)
 - Strong ignorability: Y_0, Y_1 independent of Z given X .
Also called: no unmeasured confounders assumption (i.e., X has all confounders). Roughly speaking, confounder of effect of Z on Y is a variable that impacts both.
 - Experimental Treatment Assignment (ETA): $P(Z|X) > 0$, i.e., no stratum of X where exposure/non-exposure impossible.
 - Assume each triple (X_i, Z_i, Y_i) is independent, identically distributed draw from unknown joint distribution $P_{X,Z,Y}$.
 - Let \mathcal{X} denote all possible values of X .
- For clarity of presentation we estimate one of $P[Y_1 = 1]$, $P[Y_0 = 1]$ at a time. Can then plug into the desired contrast.



Identifiability of Causal Effects from Observational Data

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which under the assumptions of consistency and ignorability, equals

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X = x)P(X = x).$$

This follows from:

$$\begin{aligned} & P(Y_1 = 1) \\ = & \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y_1 = 1 \mid X = x)P(X = x) \\ = & \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y_1 = 1 \mid X = x, Z = 1)P(X = x) \text{ (by ignorability)} \\ = & \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid X = x, Z = 1)P(X = x) \text{ (by consistency)}. \end{aligned}$$

We expressed $P(Y_1 = 1)$ in terms of observed data distribution.



Identifiability of Causal Effects from Observational Data

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which under the assumptions of consistency and ignorability, equals

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X = x)P(X = x).$$

Can do similarly to estimate $P(Y_0 = 1)$ by changing to $Z = 0$ in above.

Note: in general

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X = x)P(X = x) \quad \neq \quad P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1).$$

This is because in general $P(X = x \mid Z = 1) \neq P(X = x)$ due to selection bias.



Estimation

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which was shown to equal

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X = x)P(X = x).$$

- 1 **Standardization (a.k.a. g-computation)** Fit outcome regression working model $m_1(X, \alpha)$ for $P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X)$. Estimator is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n m_1(X_i, \hat{\alpha})$.
- 2 **Inverse Probability Weighting (Horvitz-Thompson):** Fit working model $g_1(X, \gamma)$ for $P(Z = 1 \mid X)$. Estimator is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i Y_i / g_1(X_i, \hat{\gamma})$.
- 3 **Double Robust Estimator:** Involves fitting both models. Many options. E.g., if both models are logistic regression, first fit g_1 , then fit m_1 using weights $1/g_1(X_i, \hat{\gamma})$ and denote fitted coefficients by $\bar{\alpha}$. Estimator is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n m_1(X_i, \bar{\alpha})$. (Due to Marshall Joffe.)



Estimation

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which was shown to equal

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid X = x, Z = 1)P(X = x).$$

Requirements for consistency of estimators:

- 1 **Standardization (a.k.a. g-computation)** Outcome regression working model $m_1(X, \alpha)$ for $P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X)$ must be correctly specified.
- 2 **Inverse Probability Weighting:** Propensity score working model $g_1(X, \gamma)$ for $P(Z = 1 \mid X)$ must be correctly specified.
- 3 **Double Robust Estimator:** Involves fitting both models. At least one working model must be correctly specified.

Note: our ultimate goal is to estimate causal effect, not coefficient vectors α, γ . Causal effect is generally not equal to any of these coefficients.



Estimation

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which was shown to equal

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid X = x, Z = 1)P(X = x).$$

- 1 **Standardization:** Fit a logistic regression model $m_1(X, \alpha)$ for $P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X)$ (using only those with $Z = 1$). Estimator is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n m_1(X_i, \hat{\alpha})$.

That is, the empirical average, **over all subjects (even those with $Z = 0$) of their predicted outcomes if they'd gotten $Z = 1$, based only on their baseline variables X_i , using the outcome regression model fit.** For example, if you fit model

$$P(Y = 1 \mid Z = 1, X) = \text{expit}(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 X^2),$$

this estimator is: $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{expit}(\hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\alpha}_1 X_i + \hat{\alpha}_2 X_i^2)$.



Estimation

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which was shown to equal

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid X = x, Z = 1)P(X = x).$$

- ① **Inverse Weighted Estimator (also called IPW, IPTW):** Fit a logistic regression model $g_1(X, \gamma)$ for $P(Z = 1 \mid X)$ using all participants; this is called propensity score model. Estimator is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i Y_i / g_1(X_i, \hat{\gamma})$.
For example, if you fit model

$$P(Z = 1 \mid X) = \text{expit}(\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 X + \gamma_2 X^2),$$

this estimator is: $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i Y_i / \text{expit}(\hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\gamma}_1 X_i + \hat{\gamma}_2 X_i^2)$.



Estimation

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which was shown to equal

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid X = x, Z = 1)P(X = x).$$

- 1 **Double Robust Estimator of Joffe:** First fit propensity score logistic regression model $g_1(X, \gamma)$. Next, fit outcome regression logistic regression model $m_1(X, \alpha)$ using weights $1/g_1(X_i, \hat{\gamma})$ and denote fitted coefficients by $\bar{\alpha}$. Estimator is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n m_1(X_i, \bar{\alpha})$.



Estimation

Goal: Estimate $P(Y_1 = 1)$, which was shown to equal

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(Y = 1 \mid X = x, Z = 1)P(X = x).$$

Another Double Robust Estimator: Fit g_1 , then fit logistic regression model m_1 with additional term $Z/g_1(X, \hat{\gamma})$. Estimator is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n m_1(X_i, \hat{\alpha})$.



Computing Standard Errors for Various Estimators

Consider any of the above estimators we've discussed. In general, can use nonparametric bootstrap to estimate the standard error, when data has sample size n :

- Repeatedly (say, 10,000 times) resample n units with replacement from your data set to create a replicated data set of size n .
- Compute estimator on replicated data set.
- Compute the standard deviation of the 10,000 estimates—this is the estimate of the standard error.

Note: for each replicated data set, when computing the estimator, you should refit the models. This captures the variability due to the model parameters being estimated rather than known a priori. Recommendation: use BCa method for confidence interval.



Potential Challenges

- 1 Very small estimated values of $P(Z = z|X)$; called “practical Experimental Treatment Assignment violation”. Leads to very large weights. May need to truncate weights; or can modify the quantity being estimated.
- 2 Too many variables to adjust for and not enough participants n . Watch out for model overfit.
- 3 Assumption Violations (which can be hard or sometimes impossible to detect)



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Acknowledgments: Slides are from a course co-taught with Constantine Frangakis.
Thank you to Jacob Fiksel who provided this beamer template.

