Machine Learning for Healthcare 6.871, HST.956

Lecture 15: Causal Inference Part 2

David Sontag





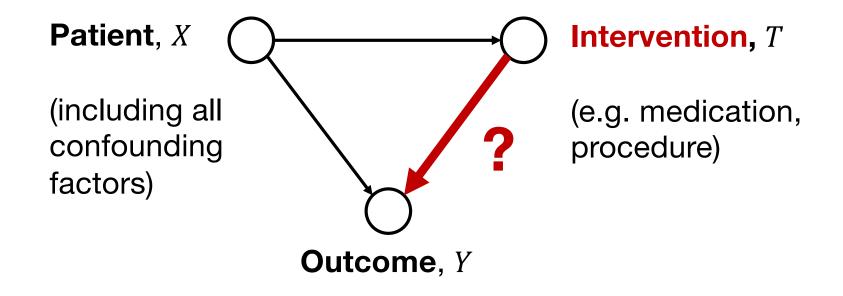
Acknowledgement: some slides adapted from Uri Shalit (Technion)

Course announcements

- PS3 due Fri 4/3
- Project proposals due Fri 4/10
- Office hours this Monday 4/6 will be 12-1pm
- PS4 released Fri 4/3 and due Tue 4/14
 - Causal inference; no coding. ~5 hrs
- Quiz moved to Thu 4/16
 - Administered asynchronously through Gradescope
 - You can take it in any 80 minute block from 12-11:59pm EDT
 - Please let course staff know if you require extra time or have a conflict

After quiz, our major focus will be on projects! Course staff will be in frequent contact

Reminder: Causal inference



High dimensional

Observational data

Reminder: Potential Outcomes

- Each unit (individual) x_i has two potential outcomes:
 - $Y_0(x_i)$ is the potential outcome had the unit not been treated: "control outcome"
 - $Y_1(x_i)$ is the potential outcome had the unit been treated: "treated outcome"
- Conditional average treatment effect for unit *i*: $CATE(x_i) = \mathbb{E}_{Y_1 \sim p(Y_1|x_i)} [Y_1|x_i] - \mathbb{E}_{Y_0 \sim p(Y_0|x_i)} [Y_0|x_i]$
- Average Treatment Effect:

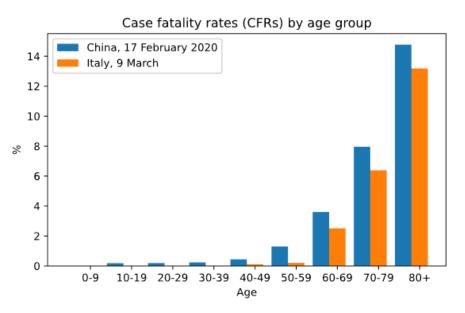
$$ATE = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[CATE(x)]$$

Causal inference for COVID19

 What are some causal questions we urgently need to answer about the COVID19 pandemic?

Causal inference for COVID19

- Example (simplified; for educational purposes only)
 - Understanding case fatality rates (CFR)
 - Paradox: CFR in Italy reported at 4.3% and CFR in China reported at 2.3%. Yet:

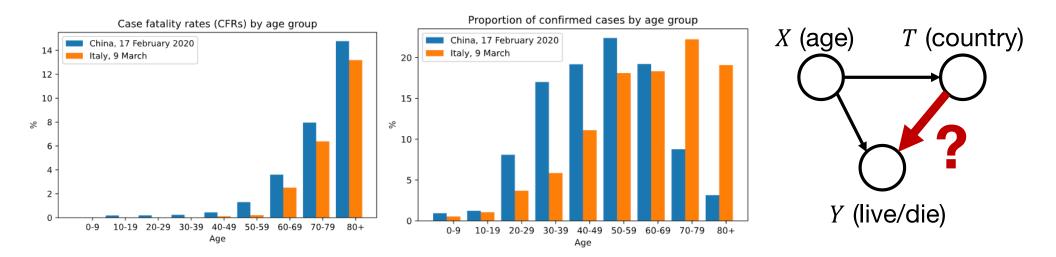


Courtesy of Julius von Kuegelgen & Luigi Gresele

(<u>https://colab.research.google.com/drive/1XPQ7byUDdPbGO5J1c2IFcwKlHuDGfMI-</u> <u>#scrollTo=HGWwmo-xKn2S</u>)

Causal inference for COVID19

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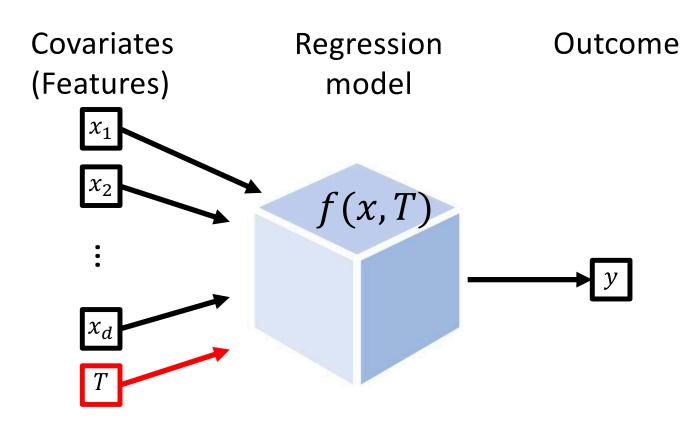
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Two common approaches for counterfactual inference

Covariate adjustment Propensity scores

Covariate adjustment (reminder)

Explicitly model the relationship between treatment, confounders, and outcome:



Covariate adjustment (reminder)

- Under ignorability, CATE(x) = $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)} \left[\mathbb{E}[Y_1 | T = 1, x] - \mathbb{E}[Y_0 | T = 0, x] \right]$
- Fit a model $f(x,t) \approx \mathbb{E}[Y_t|T = t, x]$, then: $\widehat{CATE}(x_i) = f(x_i, 1) - f(x_i, 0).$

Covariate adjustment with linear models

• Assume that:

Blood pressure age medication $Y_t(x) = \beta x + \gamma \cdot t + \epsilon_t$ $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_t] = 0$

• Then:

$$CATE(x) := \mathbb{E}[Y_1(x) - Y_0(x)] =$$

Covariate adjustment with linear models

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Blood pressure age medication $Y_t(x) = \beta x + \gamma \cdot t + \epsilon_t$ $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_t] = 0$

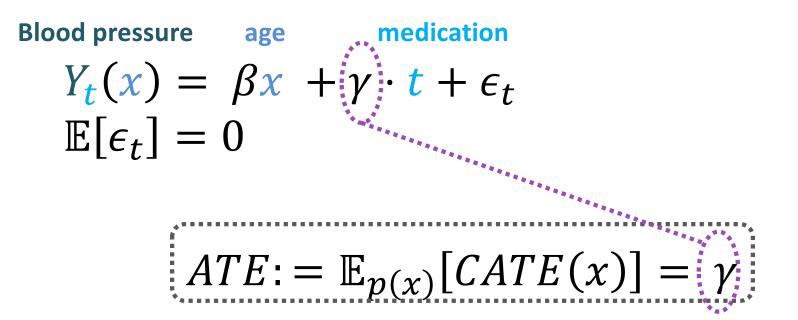
• Then:

 $CATE(x) := \mathbb{E}[Y_1(x) - Y_0(x)] =$ $\mathbb{E}[(\beta x + \gamma + \epsilon_1) - (\beta x + \epsilon_0)] = \gamma$

$$ATE := \mathbb{E}_{p(x)}[CATE(x)] = \gamma$$

Covariate adjustment with linear models

• Assume that:



- For causal inference, need to estimate γ well, not $Y_t(x)$ Identification, not prediction
- Major difference between ML and statistics

What happens if true model is not linear?

• True data generating process, $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$Y_t(x) = \beta x + \gamma \cdot t + \delta \cdot x^2$$

$$ATE = \mathbb{E}[Y_1 - Y_0] = \gamma$$

• Hypothesized model: $\widehat{Y}_t(x) = \widehat{\beta}x + \widehat{\gamma} \cdot t$

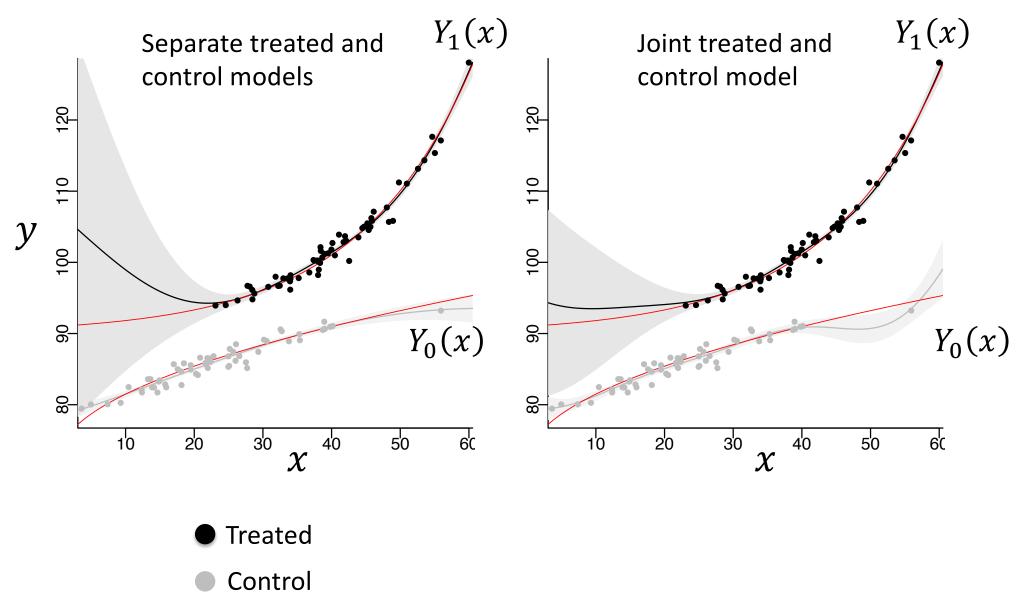
$$\hat{\gamma} = \gamma + \underbrace{\delta} \frac{\mathbb{E}[xt]\mathbb{E}[x^2] - \mathbb{E}[t^2]\mathbb{E}[x^2t]}{\mathbb{E}[xt]^2 - \mathbb{E}[x^2]\mathbb{E}[t^2]}$$

Depending on δ , can be made to be arbitrarily large or small!

Covariate adjustment with non-linear models

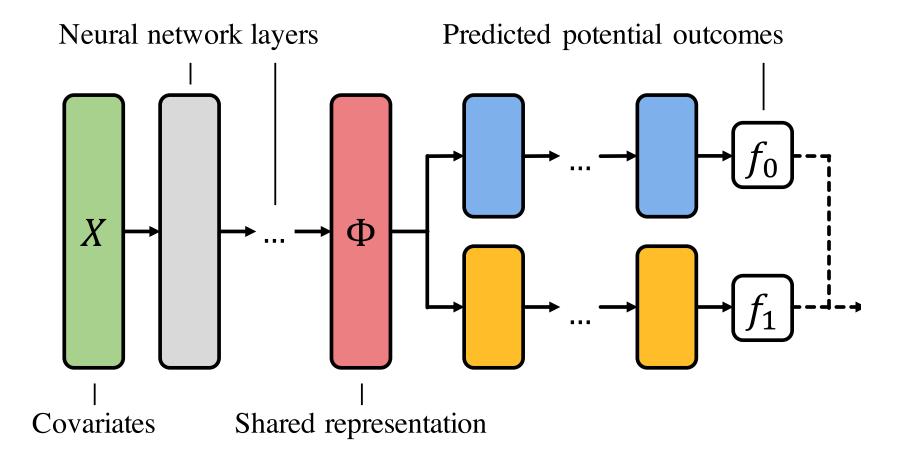
- Random forests and Bayesian trees Hill (2011), Athey & Imbens (2015), Wager & Athey (2015)
- Gaussian processes Hoyer et al. (2009), Zigler et al. (2012)
- Neural networks
 Beck et al. (2000), Johansson et al. (2016), Shalit et al. (2016), Lopez-Paz et al. (2016)

Example: Gaussian processes



Figures: Vincent Dorie & Jennifer Hill

Example: Neural networks



Shalit, Johansson, Sontag. *Estimating Individual Treatment Effect: Generalization Bounds and Algorithms*. ICML, 2017

• Find each unit's long-lost counterfactual identical twin, check up on his outcome

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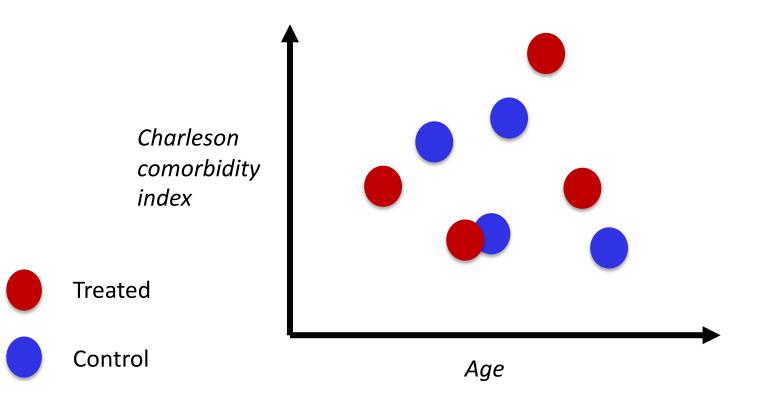
Obama, had he gone to law school



Obama, had he gone to business school

- Find each unit's long-lost counterfactual identical twin, check up on his outcome
- Used for estimating both ATE and CATE

Match to nearest neighbor from opposite group

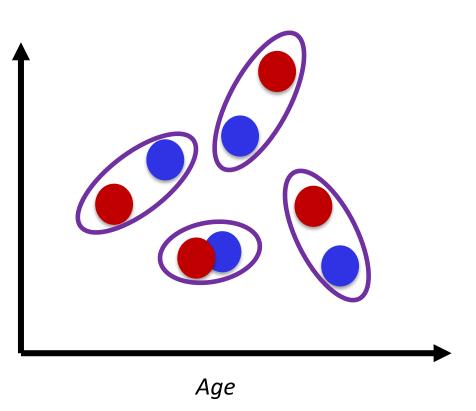


Match to nearest neighbor from opposite group

Charleson comorbidity index

Treated

Control



1-NN Matching

- Let $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ be a metric between x's
- For each *i*, define $j(i) = \underset{j \ s.t. \ t_j \neq t_i}{\operatorname{argmin}} d(x_j, x_i)$ j(i) is the nearest counterfactual neighbor of *i*
- $t_i = 1$, unit *i* is treated: $\widehat{CATE}(x_i) = y_i - y_{j(i)}$
- $t_i = 0$, unit *i* is control: $\widehat{CATE}(x_i) = y_{j(i)} - y_i$

1-NN Matching

- Let $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ be a metric between x's
- For each *i*, define $j(i) = \underset{j \ s.t. \ t_j \neq t_i}{\operatorname{argmin}} d(x_j, x_i)$ j(i) is the nearest counterfactual neighbor of *i*

- $\widehat{CATE}(x_i) = (2t_i 1)(y_i y_{j(i)})$
- $\widehat{ATE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{CATE}(x_i)$

- Interpretable, especially in small-sample regime
- Nonparametric
- Heavily reliant on the underlying metric
- Could be misled by features which don't affect the outcome

Covariate adjustment and matching

• Matching is equivalent to covariate adjustment with two 1-nearest neighbor classifiers: $\hat{Y}_1(x) = y_{NN_1(x)}$, $\hat{Y}_0(x) = y_{NN_0(x)}$ where $y_{NN_t(x)}$ is the nearest-neighbor of xamong units with treatment assignment t = 0,1

• 1-NN matching is in general inconsistent, though only with small bias (Imbens 2004)

Two common approaches for counterfactual inference

Covariate adjustment Propensity scores

Propensity scores

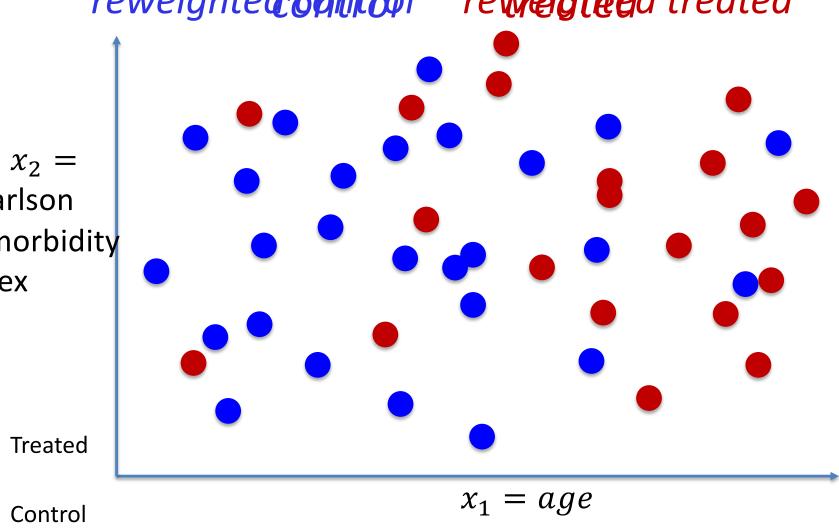
- Tool for estimating ATE
 - In PS4 you will see how you could also use these to improve estimation of CATE using regression (connection to dataset shift lecture)
- Imagine that we had data from a randomized control trial (RCT). Then we could simply estimate the ATE using:

$$\frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i \ s.t.T_i=1} Y_i - \frac{1}{n_0} \sum_{i \ s.t.T_i=0} Y_i$$

 Basic idea: turn observational study into a pseudorandomized trial by re-weighting samples Inverse propensity score re-weighting

 $p(x|t = p(x|t = 1) \cdot w_1(x) \neq p(x|t = 1) \cdot w_1(x)$ reweighted on tool reweighted treated

Charlson comorbidity index



Propensity score

- Propensity score: p(T = 1|x), using machine learning tools
- Samples re-weighted by the inverse propensity score of the treatment they received

 Sound familiar? Precisely the same as importance reweighting which you saw in Lecture 10 on dataset shift!

How to calculate ATE with propensity score for sample $(x_1, t_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, t_n, y_n)$

1. Use any ML method to estimate $\hat{p}(T = t | x)$

2.
$$A\hat{T}E = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t. } t_i=1} \frac{y_i}{\hat{p}(t_i=1|x_i)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t. } t_i=0} \frac{y_i}{\hat{p}(t_i=0|x_i)}$$

How to calculate ATE with propensity score for sample $(x_1, t_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, t_n, y_n)$

1. Randomized trial p(T = t | x) = 0.5

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Propensity scores – algorithm Inverse probability of treatment weighted estimator How to calculate ATE with propensity score for sample $(x_1, t_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, t_n, y_n)$ Sum over $\sim \frac{n}{2}$ terms 1. Randomized trial p = 0.5**2.** $A\hat{T}E = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t. } t_i = 1} \frac{y_i}{0.5}$ $i \text{ s.t. } t_i$ y_i y_i i s.t. s.t. *t_i*: $t_i =$

Propensity scores - derivation

• How do we derive this estimator?

$$A\hat{T}E = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t. } t_i = 1} \frac{y_i}{\hat{p}(t_i = 1|x_i)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t. } t_i = 0} \frac{y_i}{\hat{p}(t_i = 0|x_i)}$$

• Recall definition of average treatment effect:

$$ATE = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[Y_1(x)] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[Y_0(x)]$$

• Naively, using observed data we can estimate $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x|T=1)}[Y_1(x)] \quad \& \quad \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x|T=0)}[Y_0(x)]$

• We want: $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[Y_1(x)]$

Propensity scores derivation

We know that:

p(x|T = 1)
$$\cdot \frac{p(T = 1)}{p(T = 1|x)} = p(x)$$

Thus:

- $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x|T=1)} \left| \frac{p(T=1)}{p(T=1|x)} Y_1(x) \right| = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)} [Y_1(x)]$
- We can approximate this empirically as:

$$\frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i \text{ s.t.} t_i = 1} \left[\frac{n_1/n}{\hat{p}(t_i = 1 \mid x_i)} y_i \right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t.} t_i = 1} \frac{y_i}{\hat{p}(t_i = 1 \mid x_i)}$$

(similarly for $t_i=0$)

Problems with inverse propensity weighting (IPW)

- Need to estimate propensity score (problem in all propensity score methods)
- If there's not much overlap, propensity scores become non-informative and easily miscalibrated
- Weighting by inverse can create large variance and large errors for small propensity scores
 - Exacerbated when more than two treatments

Many more ideas and methods

- Natural experiments & regression discontinuity
- Instrumental variables

Many more ideas and methods – Natural experiments

- Does stress during pregnancy affect later child development?
- Confounding: genetic, mother personality, economic factors...
- Natural experiment: the Cuban missile crisis of October 1962. Many people were afraid a nuclear war is about to break out.
- Compare children who were in utero during the crisis with children from immediately before and after

Many more ideas and methods – Instrumental variables

- Informally: a variable which affects treatment assignment but not the outcome
- Example: are private schools better than public schools?
- Confounding: different student population, different teacher population
- Can't force people which school to go to

Many more ideas and methods – Instrumental variables

- Informally: a variable which affects treatment assignment but not the outcome
- Example: are private schools better than public schools?
- Can't force people which school to go to
- Can randomly give out vouchers to some children, giving them an opportunity to attend private schools
- The voucher assignment is the instrumental variable

Summary

- Two approaches to use machine learning for causal inference
 - Predict outcome given features and treatment, then use resulting model to impute counterfactuals (*covariate adjustment*)
 - Predict treatment using features (propensity score), then use to reweight outcome or stratify the data
- Consistency of estimates depend on:
 - Causal graph being correct (i.e., no unobserved confounding)
 - Identifiability of causal effect (i.e., overlap)
 - Nonparametric regression is used (or correctly specified model)

References

- Recent work from ML community: <u>https://sites.google.com/view/nips2018causallearning/</u> and <u>http://tripods.cis.cornell.edu/neurips19_causalml/</u>
- Recent book on causal inference by Miguel Hernan and Jamie Robins: <u>https://www.hsph.harvard.edu/miguel-hernan/causal-inference-book/</u> Recent book on causal inference by Jonas Peters, Dominik Janzing and Bernhard Schölkopf: <u>https://mitpress.mit.edu/books/elements-causal-inference</u> (download PDF for free on left: "Open Access Title")
- Examples of recent papers in this research field: <u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1906.02120</u> <u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1705.08821</u> <u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1510.04342</u> <u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1810.02894</u>