Machine Learning for Healthcare 6.871, HST.956

Lecture 11: Causal Inference Part 2

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Acknowledgement: some slides adapted from Uri Shalit (Technion)

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:

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

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, can use the adjustment formula:

$$ATE(x) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)} \left[\mathbb{E}[Y_1 | T = 1, x] - \mathbb{E}[Y_0 | T = 0, x] \right]$$

• Fit a model $f(x,t) \approx \mathbb{E}[Y_t|T = t, x]$, then: $\widehat{CATE}(x) = f(x,1) - f(x,0).$



 $(Y_0, Y_1) \perp T \mid x$



 $(Y_0, Y_1) \not\bowtie T \mid x$

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

• Assume that:

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

• Then:

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

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

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 when there is misspecification?

• 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), Alaa & van der Schaar (2017)
- Neural networks Beck et al. (2000), Johansson et al. (2016), Shalit et al. (2016), Lopez-Paz et al. (2016)

Called *nonparametric* estimators, since they do not make assumptions about form of $\mathbb{E}[Y|X,T]$ and, given enough data, could fit any function

Example: Gaussian processes



Figures: Vincent Dorie & Jennifer Hill

Example: Neural networks



Example: Neural networks



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

Necessary assumption for nonparametric estimation – common support

 Y_0, Y_1 : potential outcomes for control and treated

- x: unit covariates (features)
- T: treatment assignment

We assume:

$$p(T = t | X = x) > 0 \forall t, x$$

Example of how (nonparametric) covariate adjustment fails when there is no common support (overlap) A CONTRACTOR OF THE OWNER $\gamma =$ blood_pres. $- Y_1(x)$ - $Y_0(x)$ Treated x = ageControl

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

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



Obama, had he gone to law school



Obama, had he gone to business school

- Find each person'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

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- 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
- 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 pseudo-randomized trial by re-weighting samples





Propensity score

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

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

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$$A\hat{T}E = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t. } t_i=1} \frac{y_i}{0.5} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \text{ s.t. } t_i=0} \frac{y_i}{0.5} =$$

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

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>