Measurement error effects on bias and variance in two-stage regression, with application to air pollution epidemiology

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• Consider a health analysis that focuses on the association of exposure, X, with a health outcome, Y:

$$Y = X\beta_x + Z\beta_z + \epsilon$$

- In environmental, occupational, and other contexts, X is not known with certainty and often not even measured directly.
- Some strategies for estimating exposure:
 - Central site measurements
 - Spatial prediction
 - Exposure regression based on various covariates
 - Deterministic modeling
 - Remote sensing proxies

Exposure data locations (left) and $PM_{2.5}$ predictions (northeast US (center) and greater Boston (right))



[Yanosky et al. (2009), Environmental Health Perspectives]

Traditional measurement error types for observed exposure:

- Berkson error: unmeasured variability in true exposure
- Classical error: noise in the observed exposure

Extension to correlated, heteroscedastic errors in the context of modeled exposure (Szpiro et al. 2011, Biostatistics):

- Berkson-like error: missing components of true exposure
- Classical-like error: noise in estimating exposure

Implications for $\hat{\beta}_x$:

- Berkson and Berkson-like error increase variance but do not induce bias (in a linear model).
 - Caveat: Berkson-like error can cause bias in some circumstances.
- Classical and classical-like error induce bias and affect variance.

What is random in this context (exposure data => exposure model => exposure predictions => health model)?

- Random instrument error?
- Q Random exposure surfaces in space-time (e.g., due to random weather)?
- Sandom societal structure (i.e., random sources of pollution)?
- Sandom exposure data locations (monitor placement)?
- Sandom health outcomes conditioning on individuals in study?
- Random sampling of individuals in a study?

- Treat exposure surfaces as fixed and monitor placement (exposure data locations) as random.
 - Exposure is in principle predictable, but not so in practice
 - Long-term average air pollution can be viewed as deterministic:
 - Frequentist interpretation: "how would the results have changed if I had measured the system differently?", not "how would they have changed if the spatial pattern of air pollution were different?".
- Statistical implications:
 - "Random X" regression/spatial modeling.
 - Nonparametric bootstrap (resample monitor locations and associated observations) follows naturally
 - Don't assume a true exposure model; this produces a new source of measurement error

White (1980; Econometrica, over 12,000 citations!) shows that "random X" regression gives consistent estimation and $\hat{\beta}$ is asymptotically normal.

- Random X regression is not unbiased in finite samples.
- $E(\hat{\beta})$ may not exist in finite samples.
- Sandwich estimation of $Var(\hat{\beta})$.

Note that we'll use this framework in our analysis of the exposure model, so the "Random X" is the exposure covariates, not the exposure in the health model.

A basic two-stage model

Basic health model:

$$Y = X\beta_x + Z\beta_z + \epsilon$$

Exposure decomposition (data generating model):

$$X(s) = \phi(s) + \eta; \quad \eta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\eta^2)$$

Let R(s) (our 'Random X') be a set of exposure covariates and spatial basis functions. We DEFINE γ as the projection of $\phi(s)$ onto R(s) with respect to the spatial distribution of health study participants, G(s):

$$\gamma = \operatorname{argmin}_{\xi} \int (\phi(s) - R(s)\xi)^2 dG(s)$$

This gives us the following exposure model:

$$X(s) = R(s)^{\top}\gamma + U_{\mathsf{BL}}(s) + \eta$$

Measurement error decomposition

- We estimate γ with γ̂ by OLS regression using the exposure data, assuming exposure locations come from the spatial distribution, G(s).
- Building on Szpiro et al. (2011), we have the following decomposition of exposure error:

$$U(s) = X(s) - R(s)\hat{\gamma}$$

= $\underbrace{X(s) - \phi(s)}_{\text{Berkson}} + \underbrace{\phi(s) - R(s)\gamma}_{\text{Berkson-like}} + \underbrace{R(s)\gamma - R(s)\hat{\gamma}}_{\text{Classical-like}}$

- U_{BL}(s) = φ(s) R(s)γ is the difference between the potentially predictable variation in exposure and the projection of that variation onto the chosen basis functions.
 - This difference is heteroscedastic.
- Does the Berkson-like error cause bias in estimating β_x ?
 - If we knew γ, we could use White (1980) to show that this error does not induce bias in β_x, because U_{BL} is orthogonal to our 'estimated' exposure, R(s)γ).
- However, there are some complications...

Compatibility conditions to avoid bias from Berkson-like error

- Design your study such that G(s) = H(s): locations/covariates of people and exposure data should 'match'.
 - γ is based on G(s), the distribution of study participants.
 - ^γ estimates γ^{*} = argmin_ξ ∫(φ(s) − R(s)ξ)²dH(s), which is based on H(s), the distribution of exposure data locations.
 - If $G(s) \neq H(s)$, then $\gamma^* \neq \gamma$, which induces bias.
- Include spatially-structured components of the health confounders, Z, in the exposure model.
 - Why? This ensures that the Berkson-like error term, $U_{\rm BL}(s)$, is orthogonal to all the terms in the health model.
 - This is similar to the need to include covariates in regression calibration.

- $U_{CL}(s) = R(s)\gamma R(s)\hat{\gamma}$ is the contribution of exposure model estimation error to measurement error in the health model.
 - This difference is heteroscedastic and correlated.
- This error could induce severe bias if our exposure predictions, $R(s)\hat{\gamma}$, are very noisy.
- We assess the impacts of classical-like error based on a Taylor series approximation for $\hat{\beta}_x$ as a function of $\hat{\gamma} \gamma$.

Approximate bias and variance

- Define w(s) = R(s)γ and ŵ(s) = R(s)γ̂ as the predictable exposure and its estimator.
- Focus on asymptotics w.r.t. the number of exposure observations.
- Consistency based on first-order Taylor expansion:

$$\hat{\beta}_x \stackrel{\mathsf{d}}{\to} \mathcal{N}\left(\beta_x, \beta_x^2 \frac{\int w(s_1)w(s_2) \mathsf{Cov}(\hat{w}(s_1), \hat{w}(s_2)) dG(s_1) dG(s_2)}{(\int (w(s)^\top w(s))^2 dG(s))^2}\right).$$

• Relative bias based on second-order Taylor expansion:

$$-\frac{\int w(s)E(\hat{w}(s) - w(s))dG(s)}{\int (w(s)^{\top}w(s))^{2}dG(s)} - \frac{\int \operatorname{Var}(\hat{w}(s))dG(s)}{\int (w(s)^{\top}w(s))^{2}dG(s)} + .$$

$$2\frac{\int w(s_{1})w(s_{2})\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{w}(s_{1}), \hat{w}(s_{2}))dG(s_{1})dG(s_{2})}{(\int (w(s)^{\top}w(s))^{2}dG(s))^{2}}$$

where the first term involves the bias of $\hat{\gamma}$ (which occurs because we are in the 'random X' setting).

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Towards a practical strategy

To minimize bias and account for uncertainty in $\hat{\beta}_x$ induced by exposure error, we suggest:

- Try to have the distribution of exposure observations (in geographic space and covariate space) roughly match the distribution of health participants.
 - This will minimize bias from the Berkson-like error.
- Try to avoid overly-parameterized exposure models to minimize bias from classical-like error from the exposure estimation (see Szpiro talk tomorrow)
 - (Optionally) Correct for the bias using our asymptotically-derived bias estimator.
- Solution Use the nonparametric bootstrap (resampling exposure observations and health observations) to estimate $Var(\hat{\beta}_x)$.
 - Note that the nonparametric bootstrap is fully consistent with our probabilistic framework.

Simulation Results

- Data: 50000 health observations, 250 exposure observations, exposure variation based on fitted models from previous NHS work
- Exposure model: land-use covariates plus 25 spatial basis functions
- Health model: logistic regression

	Relative bias % (sim. s.e.)		
	oracle (B-L error only)	no bias corr'n	with bias corr'n
Full exposure model	2.6% (1.0)	-0.8 % (1.0)	2.1% (1.0)
Small-scale spatial var'n $+$ covariates	2.8% (1.7)	-4.1% (1.6)	1.9% (1.7)
Small-scale spatial variation only	11.8% (3.0)	-10.0% (2.8)	13.0% (3.7)
		Coverage %	
	oracle (B-L error only)	no bias corr'n (boot)	with bias corr'n (boot)
Full exposure model	95.7%	94.8%	95.2%
Small-scale spatial var'n $+$ covariates	95.5%	95.7%	96.1%
Small-scale spatial variation only	95.2%	96.9%	96.9%

Conclusions/Implications

- More work remains to wrestle with impact of nonlinear health models.
- Given our results for classical-like error, we hypothesize that health studies based on limited exposure data may be seriously biased: bias can be quantified as the ratio of uncertainty in exposure predictions to true variation in exposure.
- Exposure and health stages should be considered jointly to better understand and minimize the measurement error impact.
- If one uses a deterministic model to predict exposure, we are in trouble in terms of quantifying the measurement error implications.

Conclusions/Implications (f

- In pollution studies that examine multiple exposures (e.g., pollutants), these issues will be particularly important, as the amount of measurement error for the different pollutants is likely to differ.
 - This framework can help to understand the effects of measurement error in that context: missing components of variability in one exposure can play the role of unmeasured confounders!
 - See talk by Adam Szpiro in Session 230, tomorrow at 2 pm (which includes other interesting and related measurement error talks).