Efficient estimation of modified treatment policy effects

based on the generalized propensity score

Nima Hejazi

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Department of Biostatistics, T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Harvard University

nshejazi
 nhejazi
 nimahejazi.org
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Consider an observed data unit is $O := (L, A, Y) \sim P_0 \in \mathcal{M}$:

- $L \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a vector of possible confounders;
- $A \in \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous (or ordinal) exposure; and
- $Y \in \mathbb{R}$ is an outcome of interest.

Let \mathcal{M} be a *nonparametric* or infinite-dimensional model. For any $P \in \mathcal{M}$, define the *population intervention effect* (PIE):

$$\Psi_{\delta}(P) := \mathbb{E}_{P}\{Y^{A_{\delta}} - Y\} ,$$

where A_{δ} is set by a modified treatment policy (MTP).

NPSEM-IE with static interventions

 Use a nonparametric structural equation model (NPSEM) for the generating process of O (Pearl 2009), that is,

$$L = f_L(U_L); A = f_A(L, U_A); Y = f_Y(A, L, U_Y)$$
,

where $U_L \perp U_A \perp U_A$, i.e., "independent errors" (IE).

- Counterfactual RVs arise from interventions on NPSEM.
- A *static* intervention replaces f_A with an *a* in support A.
 - What specific value $a \in A$ is of interest *a priori*?
 - Consider all a ∈ A for the causal dose-response curve, but challenging to identify, estimate (e.g., Kennedy et al. 2017).

Causal effects of stochastic interventions

- A stochastic intervention alters A to A_δ by drawing randomly from a modified exposure distribution G_δ(· | L).
 - Leads to counterfactual RV as $Y^{A_{\delta}} \leftarrow f_Y(A_{\delta}, L, U_Y)$, with $Y^{A_{\delta}} \sim P_{0,\delta}$.
 - Static interventions are only a special case of this, in which G_δ is a degenerate distribution that places all mass on a ∈ A.
- Goal: Estimate counterfactual mean under the modified exposure distribution G_δ, that is, ψ_{0,δ} := E<sub>P_{0,δ} {Y<sup>A_δ</sub>}.
 </sub></sup>
- Díaz and van der Laan (2012)'s *intervention distribution*: $G_{\delta} := P_{\delta}(g_{0,A})(A = a \mid L) \equiv g_{0,A}(d^{-1}(A, L; \delta) \mid L).$

Causal effects of modified treatment policies

 Haneuse and Rotnitzky (2013) introduced modified treatment policies (MTPs), which adopt the intervention scheme:

$$d(a, l; \delta) = \begin{cases} a + \delta, & a + \delta < u(l) \quad (\text{if plausible}) \\ a, & a + \delta \ge u(l) \quad (\text{otherwise}) \end{cases},$$

and were also studied and extended by Young et al. (2014), Díaz and van der Laan (2018), and Díaz et al. (2021).

• $\psi_{0,\delta}$ is identified by a functional of the distribution of O as

$$\psi_{0,\delta} = \int_{\mathcal{L}} \int_{\mathcal{A}} \mathbb{E}_{P_0} \{ Y \mid A = d(a, l; \delta), L = l \}$$
$$g_{0,A}(a \mid L = l) q_{0,L}(l) d\mu(a) d\nu(l) .$$

Towards a causal interpretation of the PIE $\psi_{\mathbf{0},\delta}$

Assumption 1: Stable Unit Treatment Value (SUTVA) • $\Upsilon_{i}^{d(a_{i},l_{i};\delta)}$ does not depend on $d(a_{i},l_{i};\delta)$ for i = 1, ..., n

and $j \neq i$, or lack of interference (Cox 1958).

•
$$Y_i^{d(a_i,l_i;\delta)} = Y_i$$
 in the event $A_i = d(a_i,l_i;\delta)$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

Assumption 2: No unmeasured confounding

$$Y_i^{d(a_i,l_i;\delta)} \perp A_i \mid L_i$$
, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

Assumption 3: Structural positivity

 $a_i \in \mathcal{A} \implies d(a_i, l_i; \delta) \in \mathcal{A}$ for all $l \in \mathcal{L}$, where \mathcal{A} denotes the support of A conditional on $L = l_i$ for all i = 1, ..., n.

A RAL estimator $\psi_{n,\delta}$ of $\psi_{0,\delta} \coloneqq \Psi_{\delta}(P_0)$ is efficient if and only if

$$\psi_{n,\delta} - \psi_{0,\delta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} D^{\star}(P_0)(O_i) + o_P(n^{-1/2}) ,$$

where $D^{\star}(P)$ is the efficient influence function (EIF) of $\Psi_{\delta}(\cdot)$ with respect to the nonparametric model \mathcal{M} at P.

The EIF of $\Psi_{\delta}(\cdot)$ is indexed by two common nuisance parameters

$$\overline{Q}_{P,Y}(A,L) := \mathbb{E}_{P}(Y \mid A,L)$$
 outcome regression

$$g_{P,A}(A,L) := f_{P}(A \mid L)$$
 generalized propensity score

IPW Estimation of the PIE $\psi_{\mathbf{0},\delta}$

We can estimate the *counterfactual mean* $\psi_{0,\delta}$, using the inverse probability weighted (IPW) estimator,

$$\psi_{n,\delta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{g_{n,A}(d^{-1}(A_i, L_i; \delta) \mid L_i)}{g_{n,A}(A_i \mid L_i)} Y_i ,$$

or could use stabilized IPW instead...

Why bother? Isn't simplicity dead? (Ahem, double robustness...)

- IPW estimators are the oldest class of causal effect estimators and are still very commonly used in practice today.
- Easy to implement and appropriate in many settings, but...
 - 1. require a correctly specified estimate of the propensity score;
 - 2. can be inefficient, never attaining the efficiency bound; and
 - 3. suffer from an (asymptotic) curse of dimensionality.

IPW estimators

The IPW estimator $\psi_{n,\delta} \equiv \Psi_{\delta}(P, g_{n,A})$ is a Z-estimator solving the score equation $\mathbb{E}_P D_{\text{IPW}}(\cdot) = 0$, where D_{IPW} is defined as

$$D_{\mathsf{IPW}}(O;\psi_{\delta}) := \left[\frac{g_{n,A}(d^{-1}(A_i, L_i; \delta) \mid L_i)}{g_{n,A}(A_i \mid L_i)}\right] Y - \Psi(P) \ .$$

Hiccups along the way:

- Consistency and convergence rate of IPW relies on those same properties of the generalized propensity score estimator g_{n,A}.
- Generally, finite-dimensional (i.e., parametric) models are not flexible enough to consistently estimate g_{0,A}.
- Our IPW estimator requires the generalized propensity score (GPS), so we need to estimate a conditional density.

The GPS and conditional density estimation

- There is a rich literature on density estimation. We follow an approach outlined by Díaz and van der Laan (2011).
- To build a conditional density estimator, note that

$$g_{n,A,\alpha}(A \mid L) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \in [\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_t) \mid L)}{|\alpha_t - \alpha_{t-1}|} ,$$

for $[\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_t)$, $t = 0, \ldots, k$ a discrete partitioning of A.

- Classification problem: probability of A falling in a given bin $[\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_t)$ is estimated, then re-scaled.
- Classification approach as a series of hazard regressions:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \in [\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_t) \mid L) = \mathbb{P}(A \in [\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_t) \mid A \ge \alpha_{t-1}, L) \times \prod_{j=1}^{t-1} \{1 - \mathbb{P}(A \in [\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j) \mid A \ge \alpha_{j-1}, L)\}$$

• Other: Poisson intensity (Rytgaard et al. 2022), Cox PH.

Broadly, two approaches for handling the curse of dimensionality.

- 1. Enlist smoothness or sparsity assumptions on the nuisance parameter space (i.e., for the GPS $g_{0,A}(A \mid L)$ in our case).
 - No general guarantee of achieving consistency.
 - Rates tied to specific learning algorithms and function classes (e.g., functions being Hölder-smooth, *s*-sparse, etc.).
 - Hirano et al. (2003) took a series regression approach but required 7-times differentiability of g_{0,A}(A | L) wrt d.
- 2. Cross-validation with machine learning or ensemble machine learning (e.g., van der Laan et al. (2007)'s Super Learner), but no general guarantee of $n^{-1/4}$ convergence rates.

Consider space of *cadlag* functions with *finite variation norm*.

Def. cadlag = *left-hand continuous* with *right-hand limits*

Variation norm Let $\theta_s(u) = \theta(u_s, 0_{s^c})$ be the section of θ that sets the coordinates in *s* equal to zero.

The variation norm of θ can be written:

$$|\theta|_{v} = \sum_{s \subset \{1,...,d\}} \int | d\theta_{s}(u_{s}) |,$$

where $x_s = (x(j) : j \in s)$ and the sum is over all subsets.

We can represent the function θ as

$$heta(x) = heta(0) + \sum_{s \subset \{1,...,d\}} \int \mathbb{I}(x_s \ge u_s) d\theta_s(u_s),$$

For discrete measures $d\theta_s$ with support points $\{u_{s,j} : j\}$ we get a *linear combination* of indicator *basis functions*:

$$\theta(x) = \theta(0) + \sum_{s \subset \{1, \dots, d\}} \sum_{j} \beta_{s,j} \theta_{u_{s,j}}(x),$$

where $\beta_{s,j} = d\theta_s(u_{s,j})$, $\theta_{u_{s,j}}(x) = \mathbb{I}(x_s \ge u_{s,j})$, and

$$|\theta|_{v} = \theta(0) + \sum_{s \subset \{1,...,d\}} \sum_{j} |\beta_{s,j}|.$$

If the nuisance functional $g_{0,A}$ is cadlag with a finite sectional variation norm, logit g can be expressed (van der Laan 2015):

$$\operatorname{logit} g_{\beta} = \beta_0 + \sum_{s \subset \{1, \dots, d\}} \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{s,i} \phi_{s,i},$$

where $\phi_{\textit{s}}$ are indicator basis functions.

The loss-based HAL estimator β_n may then be defined as

$$\beta_{n,\lambda} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\beta:|\beta_0|+\sum_{s \in \{1,\ldots,d\}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\beta_{s,i}| < \lambda} \mathbb{E}_{P_n} \mathcal{L}(\operatorname{logit} g_{\beta}),$$

where $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$ is an appropriately selected loss function.

Denote by $g_{n,\lambda} \equiv g_{\beta_{n,\lambda}}$ the HAL estimator of the GPS $g_{0,A}$.

1. CV: select λ_n as cross-validated empirical risk minimizer of negative log-density loss (Dudoit and van der Laan 2005):

$$\mathcal{L}(\cdot) = -\log(g_{n,A,\lambda}(A \mid L)).$$

n.b., incorrect tradeoff optimizing $g_{n,A,\lambda}$ instead of $\psi_{n,\delta}$.

2. EIF¹: select λ_n to minimize mean of EIF estimating equation:

$$\lambda_n = \arg\min_{\lambda} |\mathbb{E}_{P_n} D_{\mathsf{CAR}}(g_{n,A,\lambda}, \overline{Q}_{n,Y})|,$$

where $\overline{Q}_{n,Y}$ is an estimate of $\overline{Q}_{0,Y}$ and $D^* = D_{IPW} - D_{CAR}$ by AIPW representation (Robins and Rotnitzky 1992; 1995).

¹Used for nonparametric IPW (when $A \in \{0,1\}$) by Ertefaie et al. (2022).

What if we dispensed with criteria based on the EIF altogether?

1. Plateau-based²: Choose λ_n as the first in $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_K$ s.t.

$$|\psi_{n,\delta,\lambda_{j+1}} - \psi_{n,\delta,\lambda_j}| \le \frac{Z_{(1-\alpha/2)}}{\log n} |\sigma_{n,\lambda_{j+1}} - \sigma_{n,\lambda_j}| \quad \text{for } j = \{1,\dots,K-1\}$$

where σ_{n,λ_i} is a standard error estimate for $\psi_{n,\delta,\lambda_i}$ at λ_i .

Smoothing-based: Choose λ_n by trimming λ₁,..., λ_K to run from λ_{CV} to a multiple Cλ_{CV}, and then finding an inflection point in the estimator's trajectory {ψ_{n,λCV},..., ψ_{n,CλCV}}.

²Inspired by ideas proposed by Lepskii (1993), Lepskii and Spokoiny (1997).

Proof by picture: Smoothing-based selection



Some other efficient estimators

The one-step bias-corrected estimator:

$$\psi_n^+ = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \overline{Q}_{n,Y}(d(A_i, L_i), L_i) + D_n^{\star}(O_i) .$$

• A TML estimator updates initial estimates of $\overline{Q}_{n,Y}$ by tilting:

$$\psi_n^{\star} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \overline{Q}_{n,Y}^{\star}(d(A_i, L_i), L_i) ,$$

where $\overline{Q}_{n,Y}^{\star}$ is arrived at by updating its initial counterpart: $\operatorname{logit}(\overline{Q}_{n,Y}^{\star}(A_i, L_i)) = \operatorname{logit}(\overline{Q}_{n,Y}(A_i, L_i)) + e \frac{g_{n,A}(d^{-1}(A_i, L_i; \delta)|L_i)}{g_{n,A}(A_i|L_i)}.$

 Both are doubly robust (DR), allowing flexible methods to estimate the nuisance parameters g_{n,A} and Q_{n,Y}.

Simulation evidence: A first look



Simulation evidence: A bit deeper



• Consider again the TML estimator (with a twist):

$$\psi_n^{\star} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \overline{Q}_{n,Y}^{\star,\lambda}(d(A_i, L_i), L_i) ,$$

but adjust the update of $\overline{Q}_{n,Y}^{\star}$ to now involve $g_{n,A,\lambda}$, that is, $\text{logit}(\overline{Q}_{n,Y}^{\star,\lambda}(A_i, L_i)) = \text{logit}(\overline{Q}_{n,Y}(A_i, L_i)) + \epsilon \frac{g_{n,A,\lambda}(d^{-1}(A_i, L_i;\delta)|L_i)}{g_{n,A,\lambda}(A_i|L_i)}.$

- Update to $\overline{Q}_{n,Y}^{\star,\lambda}$ involves ϵ_n and selection of λ_n via selectors.
- What might be gained from this augmentation?
 - If $\overline{Q}_{n,Y}$ consistent, asymptotic efficiency by bias correction.
 - If Q_{n,Y} and g_{n,A} both consistent, then influences higher-order behavior (e.g., second-order bias).

- 1. Unlike classical IPW estimators, ours avoid the asymptotic curse of dimensionality and are asymptotically efficient;
- 2. Our approach leverages flexible conditional density estimation for initial generalized propensity score estimates; and
- 3. In contrast with popular DR estimators, these IPW estimators can be formulated without the form of the EIF.
- 4. Analogous ideas (as for IPW) can improve DR estimators too.
- 5. Check out the R packages that make this possible
 - hal9001: https://github.com/tlverse/hal9001
 - haldensify: https://github.com/nhejazi/haldensify

https://nimahejazi.org

🎔 https://twitter.com/nshejazi

https://github.com/nhejazi

https://arxiv.org/abs/2205.05777

Appendix

Literature: Haneuse and Rotnitzky (2013)

- Proposal: Re-characterization of stochastic interventions as modified treatment policies (MTPs).
- Assumption of *piecewise smooth invertibility* allows for the intervention distribution of any MTP to be recovered:

$$g_{0,\delta}(a \mid l) = \sum_{j=1}^{J(s)} S_{\delta,j}\{h_j(a, l), s\}g_0\{h_j(a, l) \mid s\}h_j^{'}(a, l)$$

- Such intervention policies account for the natural value of the intervention A directly yet are interpretable as the imposition of an altered intervention mechanism.
- Only requires that the MTP d(A, L; δ) have an "amenable" form, by way of a *j*-sectional inverse h_j(a, l) existing.

Literature: Young et al. (2014)

- Establishes equivalence between G-formula when proposed intervention depends on natural value of A vs. when not.
- This equivalence leads to a sufficient positivity condition for estimating the counterfactual mean under MTPs via the same statistical functional studied in Díaz and van der Laan (2012).
- Extends earlier identification results, providing a way to use the same statistical functional to assess EY^{d(A,L;δ)} or EY^{d(L;δ)}.
- The authors also consider some limits on implementing MTPs d(A, L; δ), and address working in a longitudinal setting.

Literature: Díaz and van der Laan (2018)

- Builds on the proposal of Haneuse and Rotnitzky (2013) to accommodate MTPs d(A, L; δ), proposed after Díaz and van der Laan (2012)'s work with interventional distributions.
- To protect against *structural* positivity violations (Hernán and Robins 2024), considers an MTP mechanism that can avoid these via the guardrail encoded in u(1):

$$\mathit{d}(\mathit{a},\mathit{l};\delta) = egin{cases} \mathit{a}+\delta, & \mathit{a}+\delta < \mathit{u}(\mathit{l})\ \mathit{a}, & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 Proposes an improved TMLE algorithm, with a single auxiliary covariate for constructing the TML estimator.

Highly Adaptive Lasso (HAL) illustration















We have, for $\alpha(d) = 1/(d+1)$,

$$|\theta_{n,M} - \theta_{0,M}|_{P_0} = o_P(n^{-(1/4 + \alpha(d)/8)}).$$

Thus, if we select $M > |\theta_0|_{\nu}$, then

$$| heta_{n,M} - heta_0|_{P_0} = o_P(n^{-(1/4 + lpha(d)/8)})$$
 .

Due to oracle inequality for the cross-validation selector M_n ,

$$|\theta_{n,M_n} - \theta_0|_{P_0} = o_P(n^{-(1/4 + \alpha(d)/8)})$$

Improved convergence rate (Bibaut and van der Laan 2019):

$$|\theta_{n,M_n} - \theta_0|_{P_0} = o_P(n^{-1/3}\log(n)^{d/2})$$
.

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