# How to obtain valid tests and confidence intervals for treatment effects after confounder selection? 

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## (2) A dissection of the problem

(3) Proposal
(4) Numerical results
(5) Discussion

- I will consider the problem of estimating the effect of some exposure $A$ on an outcome $Y$ based on data from an observational study.
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- Exposed and unexposed subjects in such studies usually differ in many observed (pre-exposure) characteristics $L$.
- This can make it difficult to make contrasts of the mean outcome between exposed and unexposed subjects with the same characteristics.
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- Exposed and unexposed subjects in such studies usually differ in many observed (pre-exposure) characteristics $L$.
- This can make it difficult to make contrasts of the mean outcome between exposed and unexposed subjects with the same characteristics.
- The curse of dimensionality thus forces us to adopt some form of modelling.
- E.g. a linear model

$$
E(Y \mid A, L)=\psi A+\beta^{\prime} L
$$

- Adjusting for all available characteristics $L$ can be detrimental, or even impossible.
- It can inflate bias and variance.

Covariates $L_{1}$


Exposure $A \longrightarrow$ Outcome $Y$

- Adjusting for all available characteristics $L$ can be detrimental, or even impossible.
- It can inflate bias and variance.

- There may be more covariates than observations.
- This is not uncommon, considering the possible need for interactions or other higher-order terms...
- Stepwise variable selection strategies and penalisation methods (e.g. the lasso) are therefore routinely employed.
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- One common strategy is to adjust for $L$ iff it is significantly associated with outcome, conditional on exposure, at e.g. the $5 \%$ level.
- A related common strategy is the lasso, without penalisation of the exposure effect.
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- One common strategy is to adjust for $L$ iff it is significantly associated with outcome, conditional on exposure, at e.g. the $5 \%$ level.
- A related common strategy is the lasso, without penalisation of the exposure effect.
- How well does this work?


## Outcome-based selection

- Suppose that the exposure has no effect.
- Suppose that $L$ has a moderate effect on outcome, but a strong effect on exposure.
- Then when fitting model

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- Upon removing $L$ from the model, one is likely to find 'strong evidence' of an exposure effect.
- This can result in highly inflated Type I error rates
$R 2 y: R^{2}$ of $Y-L$ association; $R 2 a: R^{2}$ of $A-L$ association



## Convergence with increasing sample size

- This problem persists at all sample sizes.
- No matter how large the sample size, one can always choose correlations between $Y-L$ and $A-L$, at which outcome-based selection inflates Type I error rates.


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- No matter how large the sample size, one can always choose correlations between $Y-L$ and $A-L$, at which outcome-based selection inflates Type I error rates.
- We therefore say that convergence of the test statistic to a normal limit (centered around the truth) is non-uniform.
- Lack of uniform convergence is a concern.
- It implies that we can never guarantee that the procedure will do well in finite samples.


## Outcome-based selection ( $n=1000$ )

$R 2 y: R^{2}$ of $Y-L$ association; $R 2 a: R^{2}$ of $A-L$ association


- One key reason why this procedure is problematic, is that it prioritises the exposure:
it prioritises the elimination of covariates over the elimination of the exposure.
(Robins and Greenland, 1986)
- This problem can be overcome using propensity scores.
- Consider stepwise selection in a propensity score model, then regressing outcome on exposure and propensity score.
- By always adjusting for the propensity score, this strategy does not prioritise the exposure.
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- By always adjusting for the propensity score, this strategy does not prioritise the exposure.
- With linear models for $Y$ and $A$, and a single covariate $L$, this strategy is tantamount to adjusting for $L$ iff it is significantly associated with exposure, at e.g. the $5 \%$ level.
$R 2 y: R^{2}$ of $Y-L$ association; $R 2 a: R^{2}$ of $A-L$ association

- By not prioritising the exposure, the problem of Type I error inflation is much less severe.
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- In fact, ignoring the variable selection process often results in conservative inferences.
- This is line with the property that ignoring estimation of the propensity score typically results in conservative inferences.
- Also this persists at all sample sizes.
$R 2 y: R^{2}$ of $Y-L$ association; $R 2 a$ : $R^{2}$ of $A-L$ association

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- What if there are many covariates?
- What if the models are non-linear?
- The conclusion so far is that propensity-score based selection is much less vulnerable to Type I error inflation than outcome-based selection.
- Problem solved?
- Its typical conservatism implies a lack of power.
- What if there are many covariates?
- What if the models are non-linear?
- In view of this, the aim of this talk will be to develop uniformly valid tests that incorporate selection.
- The propensity score will continue to play a crucial role...
- This problem of post-selection inference has been quite thoroughly studied for some selection strategies.
(e.g. Leeb and Pötscher, 2005; Berk et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2014; ...)
- Most proposed solutions infer the distribution of the estimator or test statistic after selection.
(e.g. Claeskens and Hjört, 2006)
- This has the disadvantage that the results
- are often complex,
- not immediately accessible for routine data analysis,
- and sometimes dependent on the choice of procedure.
- Inspired by others,
(Chernozhukov et al., 2017; Farrell, 2015)
I will instead propose specific tests for treatment effect in combination with a specific selection strategy.
- Their combination is such that the test statistic converges uniformly to a normal distribution centred at the truth.


## Outline

## (1) Introduction

(2) A dissection of the problem
(3) Proposal
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- Reconsider model $E(Y \mid A, L)=\psi A+\beta L$ (where $A$ and $L$ are mean centred).
- Perform a score test of $\psi=0$ based on the test statistic

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\left(Y_{i}-\hat{\beta} L_{i}\right)
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where $\hat{\beta}$ is the OLS estimator if we have selected $L$ and 0 otherwise.

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- What is the distribution of the test statistic?
- Consider outcome-based selection...

By a Taylor expansion,

$$
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& \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\left\{Y_{i}-\hat{\beta}^{\prime} L_{i}\right\} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\left\{Y_{i}-\beta^{\prime} L_{i}\right\}+\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}-\beta)\left\{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i} L_{i}\right\} \\
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- When $\beta$ is of the order $1 / \sqrt{n}$, we will often erroneously set $\hat{\beta}$ to zero.
- This results in bias, which affects the score test.
- $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}-\beta)$ then moreover has a complex distribution.

This may cause bias, excess variability, and may invalidate inference.


- Convergence of

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\left\{Y_{i}-\hat{\beta}^{\prime} L_{i}\right\}
$$

to a mean zero normal distribution is therefore non-uniform.

- We will remedy this using bias-reduced double-robust estimators.
(Vermeulen and Vansteelandt, 2015)


## 2 A dissection of the problem

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## Double-robust estimation

- Consider the test statistic

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\{A_{i}-\pi\left(L_{i} ; \gamma\right)\right\}\left\{Y_{i}-m\left(L_{i} ; \beta\right)\right\}
$$

where we use

- a parametric propensity score model $\mathcal{A}$ :

$$
E(A \mid L)=\pi(L ; \gamma)
$$

e.g. expit $\left(\gamma^{\prime} L\right)$ for binary $A$.

- a parametric outcome model $\mathcal{B}$ :

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E(Y \mid L)=m(L ; \beta)
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e.g. $\beta^{\prime} L$ for continuous $Y$.

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- This test statistic has mean zero under the null when either model $\mathcal{A}$ or model $\mathcal{B}$ is correct.
- We therefore call it double-robust.
(Robins and Rotnkitzky, 2001; see Rotnitzky and Vansteelandt, 2014, for a review),


## What is the distribution of the test statistic now?

- In practice, we need estimators of $\gamma$ and $\beta$.
- Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{\beta}) \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}(\gamma, \beta)+\sqrt{n}(\hat{\gamma}-\gamma)\left\{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} U_{i}(\gamma, \beta)\right\} \\
& \quad+\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}-\beta)\left\{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} U_{i}(\gamma, \beta)\right\}+\text { Remainder }
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$$

- If we could set those gradients to zero, then local changes in these estimators would not affect the double-robust test.


## Bias-reduced double-robust estimation

- Bias-reduced double-robust estimators achieve this by estimating $\gamma$ by solving

$$
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} U_{i}(\gamma, \beta)=0
$$

and $\beta$ by solving

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- Is this a valid proposal?
- Suppose model $\mathcal{A}$ is correct with true value $\gamma^{*}$.
- Then $U_{i}\left(\gamma^{*}, \beta\right)$ has mean zero for all $\beta$, so that

$$
E\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} U_{i}\left(\gamma^{*}, \beta\right)\right\}=0
$$

- So far, I have not considered variable selection.
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- We will incorporate it by penalising the estimating equations with a bridge penalty:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} U_{i}(\gamma, \beta)+\lambda_{\beta} \delta|\beta|^{\delta-1} \circ \operatorname{sign}(\beta) \\
& 0=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} U_{i}(\gamma, \beta)+\lambda_{\gamma} \delta|\gamma|^{\delta-1} \circ \operatorname{sign}(\gamma)
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where $\lambda_{\gamma}>0$ and $\lambda_{\beta}>0$ are penalty parameters, and $\delta \rightarrow 1+$.
(Avagyan and Vansteelandt, 2017; Dukes, Avagyan and Vansteelandt, 2018)

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- Standard choices of penalty (of the order $\sqrt{\log (p) / n}$ ) make these gradients sufficiently close to zero.


## Example - $Y$ continuous, $A$ binary

- Consider models $\pi(L ; \gamma)=\operatorname{expit}\left(\gamma^{\prime} L\right)$ and $m(L ; \beta)=\beta^{\prime} L$.
- Then we estimate $\gamma$ and $\beta$ as the solutions to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\{A_{i}-\operatorname{expit}\left(\gamma^{\prime} L_{i}\right)\right\} L_{i}+\lambda_{\gamma} \delta|\gamma|^{\delta-1} \circ \operatorname{sign}(\gamma) \\
& 0=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}(\gamma)\left\{Y_{i}-\beta^{\prime} L_{i}\right\} L_{i}+\lambda_{\beta} \delta|\beta|^{\delta-1} \circ \operatorname{sign}(\beta)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{w}_{i}(\gamma)=\operatorname{expit}\left(\gamma^{\prime} L_{i}\right)\left\{1-\operatorname{expit}\left(\gamma^{\prime} L_{i}\right)\right\}$.

- In practice, we let $\delta \rightarrow 1+$ and solve the following problems:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \min _{\gamma} \mathcal{F}(\gamma)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left\{1+\exp \left(\gamma^{\prime} L_{i}\right)\right\}-A_{i}\left(\gamma^{\prime} L_{i}\right)+\lambda_{\gamma}\|\gamma\|_{1} \\
& \min _{\beta} \mathcal{F}(\beta)=\frac{1}{2 n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left[\hat{w}_{i}\left\{Y_{i}-\beta^{\prime} L_{i}\right\}^{2}\right]+\lambda_{\beta}\|\beta\|_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Components of $\hat{\eta}$ may be shrunk to zero, in view of which we recommend refitting the selected model.
- The test statistic is then

$$
T_{n}=\frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\{A_{i}-\operatorname{expit}\left(\hat{\gamma}^{\prime} L_{i}\right)\right\}\left\{Y_{i}-\hat{\beta}^{\prime} L_{i}\right\}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\left\{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left[\left\{A_{i}-\operatorname{expit}\left(\hat{\gamma}^{\prime} L_{i}\right)\right\}\left\{Y_{i}-\hat{\beta}^{\prime} L_{i}\right\}\right]^{2}\right\}}}
$$

- Let $s_{\gamma}$ and $s_{\beta}$ be the sparsity indices of models $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$.
- Suppose that (in addition to mild regularity conditions), the following sparsity assumptions hold:
(i) $S_{\gamma} \log (p)=o(n)$
(ii) $s_{\beta} \log (p)=o(n)$
(iii) $s_{\gamma} s_{\beta} \log ^{2}(p)=o(n)$.

Theorem
When model $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ are correct, the test statistic $T_{n}$ converges uniformly to a standard normal distribution.

- Conditions
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determines the rate of convergence of the estimators.
- It suggests that if one model is sparse, the other can be more dense.
- When evaluating medical treatments, this is arguably satisfied as clinicians may use a limited number of variables to decide on treatment, whereas outcome may be affected by many more.

Compared with other recent proposals from high-dimensional inference in GLMs:
(van de Geer et al., 2014; Belloni et al., 2016)

- We have weakened the assumptions on sparsity by making use of double robustness.
(see also Farrell, 2015, for the ATE)
- Other approaches usually require ultra-sparsity, e.g. $s_{\gamma} \sqrt{\log (p)}=o(\sqrt{n})$ instead of $s_{\gamma} \log (p)=o(n)$.

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(see also Farrell, 2015, for the ATE)
- Other approaches usually require ultra-sparsity, e.g. $s_{\gamma} \sqrt{\log (p)}=O(\sqrt{n})$ instead of $s_{\gamma} \log (p)=o(n)$.
- Unlike others, we do not require sample-splitting to obtain weaker rates.
(Chernozhukov et al., 2017)

Suppose that (in addition to the previous conditions), the following sparsity assumptions hold:
(iv) Either (a) $\boldsymbol{s}_{\gamma} \sqrt{\log (p)}=o(\sqrt{n})$ (if model $\mathcal{A}$ is correct) or (b) $s_{\beta} \sqrt{\log (p)}=o(\sqrt{n})$ (if model $\mathcal{B}$ is correct).

Theorem
When model $\mathcal{A}$ or $\mathcal{B}$ is correct, the test statistic $T_{n}$ converges uniformly to a standard normal distribution.

Note the tradeoff between modelling and sparsity conditions.

- Other proposals from high-dimensional inference in GLMs assume $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ to be linear, and $\mathcal{B}$ to be correctly specified and ultra-sparse.
(van de Geer et al., 2014; Belloni et al., 2016; Shah and Bühlmann, 2017)
- By using specific bias-reduction strategies, our tests
- allow arbitrary conditional mean models for $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$,
- remain valid when $\mathcal{A}$ or $\mathcal{B}$ is misspecified,
- use weaker sparsity assumptions.
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- Weaker sparsity assumptions do not suffice for Wald tests.
(1) Introduction


## (2) A dissection of the problem

(3) Proposal

## (4) Numerical results

## (5) Discussion

- $n=200$
- linear models with $Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{p}$ for $p=140$ mutually independent, standard normal variates.
- 19 confounders, generally strongly associated with exposure, and more weakly with outcome.
- No pure exposure predictors.
- 40 pure outcome predictors.
- Covariates explain $80 \%$ of the variability in exposure and outcome.
- 1000 simulation experiments.
- Penalty parameters chosen via cross-validation (1 SE).


## Correct outcome model

| Method | Type I error |
| :--- | :--- |
| Standard naïve | 0.212 |
| hdm DS | 0.470 |
| hdm OI | 0.451 |
| Proposal | 0.063 |
| Proposal (Unweighted) | 0.063 |

Correct outcome model

| Method | Type I error |
| :--- | :--- |
| Standard naïve | 0.399 |
| hdm DS | 0.454 |
| hdm OI | 0.435 |
| Proposal | 0.074 |
| Proposal (Unweighted) | 0.087 |

Misspecified outcome model

| Method | Type I error |
| :--- | :--- |
| Standard naïve | 0.156 |
| hdm DS | 0.194 |
| hdm OI | 0.191 |
| Proposal | 0.072 |
| Proposal (Unweighted) | 0.059 |

Misspecified outcome model

| Method | Type I error |
| :--- | :--- |
| Standard naïve | 0.266 |
| hdm DS | 0.233 |
| hdm OI | 0.233 |
| Proposal | 0.060 |
| Proposal (Unweighted) | 0.067 |

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- Double-robust tests enable uniformly valid inference in high-dimensional settings with correct model specification.
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(Chernozhukov et al., 2017; Farrell, 2015)
- For testing the null, we have shown that weaker conditions are attainable without the need for sample-splitting.
- We have extended this to allow for model misspecification.
- This required the use of special 'bias-reduced' fitting strategies.
(Vermeulen and Vansteelandt, 2015)

Avagyan, V. and Vansteelandt, S. (2017). Honest data-adaptive inference for the average treat- ment effect under model misspecification using penalised bias-reduced double-robust estimation. arXiv:1708.03787

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