

Propensity scores and causal inference using machine learning methods Austin Nichols (Abt) & Linden McBride (Cornell) July 27, 2017 Stata Conference Baltimore, MD



Overview



- Machine learning methods dominant for classification/prediction problems.
- Prediction is useful for causal inference if one is trying to predict propensity scores (probability of treatment conditional on observables);
- But sometimes better predictions lead to worse causal inference: greater bias or mean squared error (MSE).
- Simulation shows some machine learning methods are more robust to specification error when not all confounders are observed (the real world case).

Why propensity scores?



- With nonrandom selection of treatment status A, can estimate average treatment effect β by conditioning on all possible confounders W (if we observe all of them).
- Even if we observe all W, do we know the right functional form?
- Propensity score matching or weighting solves the functional form problem (not the incomplete observation problem).



Why propensity score weights?



- Where potential outcomes are conditionally independent of A given W, they are also conditionally independent given the conditional probability of A, E(A|W), a.k.a. the propensity score.
- We can condition on the propensity score to eliminate bias due to confounders (Rosenbaum and Rubin, 1983);
- We can improve efficiency by using estimated E(A|W) to reweight the data (Hirano, Imbens, & Ridder 2003), even if we know the true propensity score (i.e. we throw away that information).

How should we estimate E(A|W)?



- This is a prediction problem, and one at which machine learning algorithms have been shown to excel
- A few papers explore the use of machine learning approaches, but with full set of confounders
 - Zador, Judkins, and Das (2001): MART for survey nonresponse adjustment
 - McCaffrey, Ridgeway & Morral (2004): Generalized boosted model for PSW
 - Setoguchi et al. (2008): Neural networks, CART for PSM
 - Lee, Lessler & Stuart (2009): CART, Pruned CART, Bagged CART, Random Forest, Boosted CART for PSW
 - Diamond & Sekhon (2013): Genetic Matching, Random Forest, Boosting for PSM

Simulations



- To ascertain finite-sample performance, we run a large set of simulations (each one 10,000 iterations)
- Each simulation imposes a causal diagram with binary treatment A and 10 potential confounders W, of which only 4 are actually confounders
- Vary the functional form for E(A|W): base case is logit with no interactions, but allow nonlinearity/interactions
- Estimation default as in teffects ipwra (outcome model is linear, treatment model is logit)

Simulation causal diagram



 Simulation structure follows Setoguchi et al. (2008) and Lee, Lessler, and Stuart (2009). Shaded boxes binary, orange excluded instruments (Z), blue controls (X).



Variation across 7 scenarios



 x x (base case) means no interactions in true model: nonadditivity means e.g. coef on W₂W₄ is zero; nonlinearity means e.g. coef on W₂W₂ is zero.

Scenario Non-additivity Non-linearity



Simulations



- Can assume we know the true functional forms (unrealistic), or there is some specification error (i.e. unmodeled interactions in a logit).
- Can assume we observe all confounders W₁, W₂, W₃, W₄ (unrealistic) or some subset.
- Conditioning on a proper subset of confounders can decrease bias or amplify bias: useful figures in Steiner and Kim (2016).
- We compare mean-squared error (MSE) and bias reduction.

Not every confounder can be observed



- This means we should not assume we can see W1, W2, W3, W4.
- Where there are omitted variables (i.e., absent full ignorability), including an excluded instrument in propensity score estimation increases the inconsistency (Heckman and Navarro-Lozano 2004, Battacharya and Vogt 2007) and bias (Pearl 2011, Wooldridge 2009) of the estimator.
- We report results for simulations with and without conditioning on the excluded instruments W5, W6, W7.

Methods to estimate E(A|W)



- Logit: Generalized linear model with log odds linear in parameters
- Regression tree (RT): Algorithm recursively partitions a feature space to minimize distance between mean and predicted outcomes within each partition; implemented with rpart in R
- Pruned regression tree (PRT): Prunes back RTs to prevent overfitting; rpart
- Regression forest (RF): Produces many low bias RTs from random subsets of the data and then averages across those trees to reduce variance of predictor; randomForest
- Boosted regression tree (BRT): Builds out trees on residuals of prior bifurcations in the feature space; gbm
- Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO): Penalized regression; glmnet

Scenario a



 Logit is the "right" model but underperforms RF when we improperly condition on excluded instruments:



RF more robust to spec. error





RF best in class on bias, MSE





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Conclusions



- We offer guidance on selection of variables and methods for the estimation of propensity scores when measuring average treatment effects (ATE) or ATE on the treated (ATT) under different scenarios.
- Machine learning estimators, especially regression forest (RF), perform well where the treatment assignment mechanism is unknown and can offer better protection against improper conditioning on excluded instruments when not all confounders are included (the realistic case).

Conclusions



- No statistical test can distinguish confounders and excluded instruments.
- Theory and assumptions (i.e. a good causal diagram) play an outsized role in which variables to include and which estimation approaches to use in which settings;
- However, propensity score reweighting using regression forest dominates several alternatives in a realistic class of settings.
- MSE for IV is largest in all simulations.

Next steps



- Still more variations on this theme to be explored.
- But.
- Current generation of machine learning algorithms targets quality of predictions, not quality of causal inference using those predictions.
- In process: improved stochastic ensemble methods (along the lines of regression forests) as a Stata package.

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