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MIE: An approach to obtaining causal effect estimation in R

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Abstract

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1. Introduction

Researches regarding causal effect allure much attention of statisticians due to its various applications in scholarship as well as industry. In the field of biostatistics, one essential application is to determine the causal effect on outcomes a specific treatment may exert. However, the distinguishing charisteristic of ineluctable deaths among the examinees may possibly invalidate the identifiablity of the group we focus on, where patients will survive both with and without the treatment. A number of new methods have been proposed to eliminate the obstacle. One pertinent paper Wang, Zhou, and Richardson (2017) suggests the identifiablity can be vindicated by introducing a substitution variable, and both the estimated causal effect and its asymptic variance are provided. The R package (?) is designed in light of this method.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 retraces the model Wang *et al.* (2017) used to define SACE, and Section 3 demonstrates the theoretical deduction of how to estimate SACE. Section 4 introduces the elements in the package **mieSACE** in a detailed manner. In Section 5, a simulating dataset is generated and tested by the method, and an example on real data is presented in Section 6.

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2. The Causal Effect Model

2.1. Survivor Average Causal Effect(SACE)

Consider a trail for a treatment with a single follow-up visit. Let Z be the exposure indicator to the treatment, i.e., Z=1 means the patient receives the treatment and Z=0 means not. Each patient may have two potential survival statuses S(1) and S(0), defined as whether the patient would be alive at the time of follow-up visit had the subject been exposed or not respectively. Hernán (2004) has defined the causal effect to be $\mathbb{E}(S(1)) - \mathbb{E}(S(0))$, which indicates the difference in the probability of survival between subjects with and without treatment. Rubin (2006) represents with two letters L and D for 4 potential principle strata of the subjects, where L represents live and D stands for die. For example, if a person will live if treated but will die if not, he belongs to the stratum of LD. Rubin (2006) extends the causal effect from survival status to the outcomes observed. Similarly, we define Y(1) and Y(0) as the potential outcomes had the subject been exposed or not, respectively. However, these outcomes can only be observed if the subjects are still alive. Therefore, the causal effect of treatment on outcome is defined as

$$\Delta_{LL} = \mathbb{E}\{Y(1) - Y(0)|G = LL\}. \tag{1}$$

This is also known as the survivor average causal effect (SACE).

2.2. Assumptions of the Model

In real experiments, it is impossible to devide the subjects in the four strata *a priori*. Those alive and treated belong to strata LL or LD, while those alive but not treated belong to LL or DL. The specific stratum LL is unidentifiable.

Egleston, Scharfstein, Freeman, and West (2007) assumes that

$$S(1) \ge S(0)$$
 a.s. (2)

Let W be the covariates of subjects, and Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983) referred as "strong ignorability of treatment assignment" to the assumption

$$Z \perp \!\!\!\perp S(z)|W \text{ for } z = 0, 1. \tag{3}$$

In light of the "missing at random" assumption (Rubin (1976)), we have

$$Z \perp \!\!\!\perp Y(z)|W,G = \text{LL for } z = 0,1.$$
 (4)

Let baseline covariates W = (X, A) where X is similar to a confounder while A is a substitution variable, which satisfies the substitution and exclusion assumption (Stephen Burgess (2016))

$$\begin{array}{l}
A \perp \!\!\! \perp Y(1)|Z=1,G,X, \\
n \perp \!\!\! \perp G|Z=1,S=1,X,
\end{array} \tag{5}$$

and the SACE (Eqn.1) is identifiable with assumptions Eqn.2-5 on the variables (Wang $et\ al.$ (2017)).

2.3. Identification of SACE

We illustrate hereafter the main points in the proof by Wang et al. (2017).

$$\mathbb{E}(Y(z)|G = \mathrm{LL}) = \frac{\mathbb{E}_w(\mu_{z,\mathrm{LL},w} \cdot \pi_{\mathrm{LL}|w})}{\mathbb{E}_w(\pi_{\mathrm{LL}|w})},\tag{6}$$

where $\mu_{z,g,w} = \mathbb{E}(Y(z)|G=g,W=w)$ and $\pi_{g|w} = \mathbb{P}(G=g|W=w)$. Under Eqn.4,

$$\mu_{z,g,w} = \mathbb{E}(Y(z)|Z = z, G = g, W = w) = \mathbb{E}(Y|Z = z, G = g, W = w).$$
 (7)

Under Eqn.2 and Eqn.3,

$$\pi_{\mathrm{LL}|w} = \mathbb{P}(S(0) = 1, S(1) = 1|W = w) = \mathbb{P}(S(0) = 1|W = w) = \mathbb{P}(S = 1|Z = 0, W = w). \tag{8}$$

$$\pi_{\mathrm{LD}|w} = \mathbb{P}(S(0) = 0, S(1) = 1|W = w) = \mathbb{P}(S = 1|Z = 1, W = w) - \mathbb{P}(S = 1|Z = 0, W = w). \tag{9}$$

From Eqn.6,

$$\mu_{0,LL,w} = \mathbb{E}(Y|Z=0, S=1, W=w).$$
 (10)

Since Y, Z, S and W are all observable from the data, $\pi_{\mathrm{LL}|w}$, $\pi_{\mathrm{LD}|w}$ and $\mu_{0,\mathrm{LL},w}$ are identifiable. Denote W in the form of (X, A), and define

$$p_{g|z,x,a,s} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(G = g|X = x, A = a)}{\mathbb{P}(S = s|Z = z, X = x, A = a)}.$$
(11)

It can be proven that under Eqn.5,

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|Z=1, S=1, X=x, A=a) = p_{\text{LL}|1,x,a,1}\mu_{1,\text{LL},x} + (1-p_{\text{LL},1,x,a,1})\mu_{1,\text{LD},x}. \tag{12}$$

For $\forall x$, there exist different a_1 and a_2 satisfying Eqn.12 (under Eqn.5), and thus $\mu_{1,\text{LL},x}$ can be identified.

2.4. Model Parameterization

For simplicity, we use (generalized) linear model as our assumption.

$$\mu_{0,LL,W} = \mathbb{E}(Y|Z=0, S=1, X, A) = \alpha_{10} + X\alpha_{11} + A\alpha_{12}. \tag{13}$$

$$\mu_{1,L,W} = \mathbb{E}(Y|Z=1, S(0)=L, S(1)=1, X, A) = \alpha_{20} + X\alpha_{21} + L\alpha_{22}.$$
 (14)

In Eqn.14, A is dropped because under Eqn.5, $A \perp \!\!\!\perp Y(1)|Z=1, S(0)=L, S(1)=1, X$. L is not observable when S(1)=1, so we need to figure out later how to estimate L.

$$\mathbb{P}(S = 1 | Z = 1, W) = \exp(\beta_0 + X\beta_1 + A\beta_2). \tag{15}$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=0,W)}{\mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=1,W)} = \exp(\gamma_0 + X\gamma_1 + A\gamma_2).$$
 (16)

One can verify that these assumptions on the parameterization satisfy the requirements of the model.

3. SACE Estimation

3.1. Data

The data input should include multiple observations on random variables Z, S, Y, X and A. Suppose the *i*-th observation can be denoted by $(Z^i, S^i, Y^i, X^i, A^i)$, and they denote respectively:

- Z^i : an integer valued 0 or 1, exposure indicator of the *i*-th subject;
- S^{i} : an integer valued 0 or 1, survival indicator of the *i*-th subject;
- Y^{i} : a numeric vector, indicating the survival outcome of the i-th subject;
 - Y^i is discarded where $S^i = 0$.
 - A warning will be raised if Y^i is NA where $S^i = 1$.
- X^{i} : a numeric row vector, the confounder of covariate W of the i-th subject.
- A^{i} : a numeric row vector, the substitution variable of covariate W of the i-th subject.

Accordingly, the data type of observed data matrix $\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X}$ and \mathbf{A} are defined as Table 3.2.

Variable	Data Type	Size
${f Z}$	Logical Column Vector	n
${f S}$	Logical Column Vector	n
${f Y}$	Numeric Matrix	$n \times k$
\mathbf{X}	Numeric Matrix	$n \times p$
A	Numeric Matrix	$n \times q$

Table 1: Data Types of Observed Variables

3.2. Parameters

In Sec. 2.4, we put forward four models with parameters α_0 , α_1 , β and γ . Here we put it in the matrix form.

Let

$$\alpha_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{10} \\ \alpha_{11} \\ \alpha_{12} \end{pmatrix}, \alpha_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{20} \\ \alpha_{21} \\ \alpha_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0} \\ \beta_{1} \\ \beta_{2} \end{pmatrix}, \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_{0} \\ \gamma_{1} \\ \gamma_{2} \end{pmatrix}, \tag{17}$$

be the parameters, and let

$$\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{X} \ \mathbf{A}),$$

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{W}} = (\mathbf{1}_n \ \mathbf{W}),$$

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{X}} = (\mathbf{1}_n \ \mathbf{X}).$$
(18)

be the observed data matrix of random variables $W,\,\widetilde{W}$ and \widetilde{X} respectively, then our parametric model can be rewritten as

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|Z=0,S=1,X,A) = \widetilde{W}\alpha_{1},$$

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|Z=1,S(0)=L,S(1)=1,X,A) = (\widetilde{X} \ L)\alpha_{2},$$

$$\mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=1,W) = \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{W}\beta),$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=0,W)}{\mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=1,W)} = \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{W}\gamma).$$
(19)

Parameter	Data Type	Size
α_1	Numeric Matrix	$(p+q+1) \times k$
$lpha_2$	Numeric Matrix	$(p+2) \times k$
eta	Numeric Vector	p+q+1
γ	Numeric Vector	p+q+1

Table 2: Data Types of Parameters

3.3. Estimating the Parameters

Estimating α_1

Since

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|Z=0, S=1, X, A) = \widetilde{W}\alpha_1,$$

we apply the ordinary least square method (OLS) to estimate α_1 . Let \mathbf{Y}_{01} and $\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{01}$ be the observed data of Y and \widetilde{W} in the subset where Z=0 and S=1, and the estimator of α_1 can be

$$\widehat{\alpha}_1 = (\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{01}^{\mathrm{T}} \widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{01})^{-1} \widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{01}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{Y}_{01}. \tag{20}$$

Estimating α_2

It may be natural to apply here the same method how we estimate α_1 , but it can be rather tricky because L is not observable. By doing simple algebra, one can avoid the problem by

taking expectation over L.

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|Z=1,S(1)=1,X,A) = \mathbb{E}(Y|Z=1,S(0)=0,S(1)=1,X,A)\mathbb{P}(S(0)=0|Z=1,S(1)=1,W) + \mathbb{E}(Y|Z=1,S(0)=1,S(1)=1,X,A)\mathbb{P}(S(0)=1|Z=1,S(1)=1,W) = (\widetilde{X} \ 0)\alpha_{2}\mathbb{P}(S(0)=0|Z=1,S(1)=1,W) + (\widetilde{X} \ 1)\alpha_{2}\mathbb{P}(S(0)=1|Z=1,S(1)=1,W) = (\widetilde{X} \ \mathbb{P}(S(0)=1|Z=1,S(1)=1,W)) = (\widetilde{X} \ \mathbb{P}(S(0)=1|Z=1,S(1)=1,W)) = (\widetilde{X} \ \mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=0,W) + (\widetilde{X} \ \mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=1,W)) = (\widetilde{X} \ \mathbb{P}(S=1|Z=1,W))$$

Let \mathbf{Y}_{11} , $\widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_{11}$ and $\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{11}$ be the observed data of Y, \widetilde{X} and \widetilde{W} in the subset where Z=1 and S=1, $\widehat{\gamma}$ be the estimator of γ . Denote $\widetilde{\mathbf{XL}}_{11}=\left(\widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_{11}\ \exp\mathrm{it}(\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{11}\widehat{\gamma})\right)$, and the estimator of α_2 can be

$$\widehat{\alpha}_2 = (\widetilde{\mathbf{X}} \widetilde{\mathbf{L}}_{11}^{\mathrm{T}} \widetilde{\mathbf{X}} \widetilde{\mathbf{L}}_{11})^{-1} \widetilde{\mathbf{X}} \widetilde{\mathbf{L}}_{11}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{Y}_{11}. \tag{22}$$

Estimating β and γ

Note that the model involving β and γ is equivalent to

$$S|Z = 1, W \sim \mathcal{B}(1, \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{W}\beta)),$$

$$S|Z = 0, W \sim \mathcal{B}(1, \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{W}\beta)\operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{W}\gamma)).$$
(23)

Define

$$L(\beta, \gamma | z, s, w) = \mathbb{P}(S = s | \beta, \gamma, Z = z, W = w)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \exp \operatorname{it}(\widetilde{w}\beta), & z = 1, s = 1 \\ 1 - \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{w}\beta), & z = 1, s = 0 \\ \exp \operatorname{it}(\widetilde{w}\beta) \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{w}\gamma), & z = 0, s = 1 \\ 1 - \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{w}\beta) \operatorname{expit}(\widetilde{w}\gamma). & z = 0, s = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$(24)$$

and

$$D_{\beta}L(\beta,\gamma|z,s,w) = \frac{\partial}{\partial\beta} \ln L(\beta,\gamma|z,s,w)$$

$$= \begin{cases} (1 - \expit(\widetilde{w}\beta))\widetilde{w}, & z = 1, s = 1\\ - \expit(\widetilde{w}\beta)\widetilde{w}, & z = 1, s = 0\\ (1 - \expit(\widetilde{w}\beta))\widetilde{w}, & z = 0, s = 1\\ -\frac{(1 - \expit(\widetilde{w}\beta))}{\expit^{-1}(\widetilde{w}\beta)\expit^{-1}(\widetilde{w}\gamma) - 1}\widetilde{w}. & z = 0, s = 0 \end{cases}$$
(25)

$$D_{\gamma}L(\beta,\gamma|z,s,w) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} \ln L(\beta,\gamma|z,s,w)$$

$$= \begin{cases} 0, & z = 1\\ (1 - \expit(\widetilde{w}\gamma))\widetilde{w}, & z = 0, s = 1\\ -\frac{(1 - \expit(\widetilde{w}\gamma))}{\expit^{-1}(\widetilde{w}\beta)\expit^{-1}(\widetilde{w}\gamma) - 1} \widetilde{w}. & z = 0, s = 0 \end{cases}$$
(26)

Using maximum likelihood estimation,

$$(\widehat{\beta}, \widehat{\gamma}) = \arg\max \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln L(\beta, \gamma | z^{i}, s^{i}, w^{i}).$$
(27)

3.4. Estimating SACE

With regards to Eqn.6, SACE is defined as

$$\Delta_{\text{LL}} = \frac{\mathbb{E}_{w}(\mu_{1,\text{LL},w} \cdot \pi_{\text{LL}|w})}{\mathbb{E}(\pi_{\text{LL}|w})} - \frac{\mathbb{E}_{w}(\mu_{0,\text{LL},w} \cdot \pi_{\text{LL}|w})}{\mathbb{E}(\pi_{\text{LL}|w})}$$

$$\triangleq \mu_{1,\text{LL}} - \mu_{0,\text{LL}}.$$
(28)

To estimate Δ_{LL} , we use the empirical distribution of W, and

$$\widehat{\mu}_{\cdot,\text{LL}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\widehat{\mu}_{\cdot,\text{LL},w_i} \cdot \widehat{\pi}_{\text{LL}|w_i})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{\pi}_{\text{LL}|w_i}}.$$
(29)

For simplicity, we define $\operatorname{unit}(\alpha)$ to be the vector parallel to α which has all its elements summed up to 1, and the estimation of $\mu_{\cdot, \mathrm{LL}}$ has a rather simple expression

$$\widehat{\mu}_{\cdot,\text{LL}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{\mu}_{\cdot,\text{LL},w_i} \cdot \text{unit}\left(\widehat{\pi}_{\text{LL}|w_i}\right). \tag{30}$$

Let $\widehat{\mu}_{\cdot,\mathrm{LL},\mathbf{W}}$ be a matrix whose *i*-th row equals $\widehat{\mu}_{\cdot,\mathrm{LL},w_i}$, and $\widehat{\pi}_{\mathrm{LL}|\mathbf{W}}$ be a column vector composed of $\widehat{\pi}_{\mathrm{LL}|w_i}$.

$$\widehat{\mu}_{\cdot, \text{LL}} = \text{unit}(\widehat{\pi}_{\text{LL}|\mathbf{W}}^{\text{T}}) \cdot \widehat{\mu}_{\cdot, \text{LL}, \mathbf{W}}. \tag{31}$$

Using the notations forementioned,

$$\widehat{\pi}_{\mathrm{LL}|\mathbf{W}} = \mathrm{expit}(\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}\widehat{\beta})\mathrm{expit}(\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}\widehat{\gamma}),\tag{32}$$

where the multiplication should be operated element-wise.

$$\widehat{\mu}_{0, \text{LL}|\mathbf{W}} = \widetilde{\mathbf{W}} \widehat{\alpha}_1. \tag{33}$$

$$\widehat{\mu}_{1,\text{LL}|\mathbf{W}} = (\widetilde{\mathbf{X}} \ \mathbf{1}_n)\widehat{\alpha}_2. \tag{34}$$

Thus we are able to estimate the SACE

$$\widehat{\Delta}_{LL} = \widehat{\mu}_{1,LL} - \widehat{\mu}_{0,LL}. \tag{35}$$

4. SACE Analysis

The R package of **mieSACE** is written in an pseudo-object-oriented form in order that it should be easy to use and at the same time, efficient. This is realized by the function **SACE** which returns a list of public functions.

To establish a SACE object, one need to provide some or all of the 6 parameters shown in Table 4.

Parameter	Data Type	Nullable	Description
Z	Logical Vector	No	Was the subject exposed to treatment?
S	Logical Vector	No	Did the subject survive to observation?
Y	Numeric Matrix	No	The outcomes on observation
X	Numeric Matrix	Yes	The confounders of the subject at baseline
Α	Numeric Matrix	Yes	The substitution variable satisfying Eqn.5
subset	Logical Vector	Yes	Indicating the subjects to be included

Table 3: Parameters of SACE

The function SACE returns a list of 20 functions for users to manicipate the data and obtain results in a simple and safe way (Table 4).

Type	Function Name	Description
Get	Get* ¹ GetSubset Get*Subset	Return private.* as read-only Return private.subset as read-only Return a subset of private.* as read-only
-Set ²	Set* SetSubset UnsetSubset	Set private.* Set private.subset Set private.subset to NULL
	MIE ConfInt	Return a list indicating the result of SACE estimation Return the confident interval of estimated SACE

 $^{^{1}}$ * can be Z, S, Y, X or A.

Table 4: Returned functions of SACE

It is simple to establish a SACE object using SACE. To illustrate it, we first generate random data as our input parameters, namely Z, S, Y, X, A, subset.

```
R> NUM_SUBJECTS <- 60
R> Z <- rbinom(NUM_SUBJECTS, 1, 0.7)
R> S <- rbinom(NUM_SUBJECTS, 1, 0.6)
R> Y <- matrix(rnorm(NUM_SUBJECTS * 3, 0, 1), nrow = NUM_SUBJECTS)
R> X <- matrix(rnorm(NUM_SUBJECTS * 5, 0, 1), nrow = NUM_SUBJECTS)
R> A <- rnorm(NUM_SUBJECTS, 0, 1)
```

And we stablish a corresponding SACE object by

² All the Set functions are implemented with certain data type checks.

 $R > sace.obj \leftarrow SACE(Z, S, Y, X, A)$

4.1. How is the data stored?

In the function SACE, some variables are defined with names like private. Z, and we actually store the parameter Z there on call of SACE. In order to be support read and write operations, these variables are indeed defined in the outer environment of the function (which may be directly manicipate upon outside the function). The modifying word *private* should always recommend the users visit these variables through provided functions.

Assume that we have to increase Y by 1 due to some scaling concerns, we can update sace.obj instead of creating a new object.

```
R> sace.obj$SetY(Y + 1)
```

To limit the calculation on only the first 5 subjects, we can set the subset by

```
R> sace.obj$SetSubset(1:NUM_SUBJECTS <= 5)</pre>
```

and view their outcomes.

R> sace.obj\$GetYSubset()

```
[,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 0.7733092 2.2316216 0.8320438
[2,] 0.9861842 0.2492520 0.6805767
[3,] 0.8744999 1.2124410 1.0647277
[4,] 2.0399051 0.7039607 0.3285627
[5,] 1.5003603 1.0102448 2.8764985
```

4.2. Data Type and Restrictions Check

Our model includes numbers of derived variables from given input, such as $\tilde{W} = (\mathbf{1}_n \ X \ A)$ as mentioned before. If we design as a function of X and A the process of calculating \tilde{W} , we may have to do the computation again each time we need \tilde{W} , which could be rather time-consuming. If we otherwise, define \tilde{W} as variable, there may be problems when the value of \tilde{W} does not coincide with that of $(\mathbf{1}_n \ X \ A)$, which probably happens when X is changed without updating \tilde{W} .

We managed to solve the problem with inspiration from the concept of cache, a commonly used architecture in computer science. A boolean variable private.checked is designed to indicate whether some "caches" (all with "check" in their names) are still valid. Once the original data has changed, private.checked is set FALSE indicating the caches may be implausible. When a function requires the the value of a particular cached variable, it first checks private.checked, and will only redo the calculation when private.checked is FALSE. If the calculation succeeds, the caches should be updated, and private.checked should be reset TRUE.

The caches are updated in function private.check, with certain data type and restriction checks previously. These checks includes size checks (whether the matrices have proper size for addition or multiplication), NA checks (whether a matrix can have NA values inside) and some restriction checks.

4.3. Estimating SACE and its confident interval

One can obtain the estimated SACE through function MIE, which is quite simple to use.

```
R> mie <- sace.obj$MIE()</pre>
```

The return value is a list of 6 elements among which the most important two are sace and estimate.

R> mie\$sace

```
[1] 0.3774153 -0.4699400 0.0484997
```

R> mie\$estimate

```
$alpha1.estimate
```

```
[,1] [,2] [,3]
```

- [1,] 0.6859891 1.0895737 0.82491572
- [2,] 0.3610506 -0.2503188 0.18028269
- [3,] 0.1270728 -0.1378440 -0.41900916
- [4,] -0.3806892 0.2237894 0.36467945
- [5,] -0.1758697 0.5373655 -0.02100811
- [6,] -0.6007420 -0.1115998 0.34522913
- [7,] -0.5808966 0.3598921 0.27266321

\$alpha2.estimate

- [1,] -1.57489345 1.26644065 1.3354401
- [2,] 0.07001789 0.05115594 -0.2451194
- [3,] -0.01509677 0.12985987 -0.0248238
- [4,] -0.26250149 0.12282619 0.0194298
- [5,] 0.23341392 -0.14980854 -0.2675334
- [6,] 0.35501926 0.20347317 0.1334751
- [7,] 2.77466962 -0.54183713 -0.3390038

\$beta.estimate

```
[1] 0.9021380 0.2096719 -0.2572589 -0.1038979 0.2279089 -0.5438395 -0.5594817
```

\$gamma.estimate

```
[1] 181.30895 37.94398 -48.07846 125.71451 -54.83176 -44.57635 41.90218
```

\$beta_gamma.convergence

[1] 0

\$mu0.estimate

[1] 0.8081135 1.1201891 0.9097668

\$mu1.estimate

[1] 1.1855288 0.6502491 0.9582665

We added the return list class attribute "mie", and implemented a function print.mie.

R> print(mie)

Call:

sample size: 60

average potential outcomes among control group: 0.8081135 1.120189 0.9097668 average potential outcomes among treatment group: 1.185529 0.6502491 0.9582665 SACE (survivor average causal effect): 0.3774153 -0.46994 0.0484997

Currently, the bootstrap method is implemented to compute confident intervals of the estimators.

R> confint <- sace.obj\$ConfInt(alpha = 0.05, print.progress = F)
R> confint\$ci

5. Simulation

We use **mieSACE** to repeat the simulation Wang *et al.* (2017) did. Suppose $X = (X_1, X_2, X_3)$ where X_1 takes value 1 and -1 with equal possibility and (X_2, X_3) follows a multivariate normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ in which

$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

A follows a Bernoulli distribution with $\mathbb{P}(A=1|X)=\exp i t(uX)$, where u=(1,1,1)/2. Z is generated following a logistic model $\mathbb{P}(Z=1|X,A)=\exp i t(uX+A)$. The survival type G satisfies that $\mathbb{P}(G=LL|X,A)=\exp i t(2+\beta X+A)\exp i t(\gamma X+A)$, $\mathbb{P}(G=LD|X,A)=\exp i t(2+\beta X+A)(1-\exp i t(\gamma X+A))$, and $\mathbb{P}(G=DD|X,A)=1-\exp i t(2+\beta X+A)$, where $\beta=0$

(0.5, 0.5, 0.5) and $\gamma = (-1.5, 0.5, 0.5)$. The potential outcomes Y is generated with conditional distribution $Y(1)|G = LL, X, A \sim \mathcal{N}(uX, 0.5^2), Y(0)|G = LL, X, A \sim \mathcal{N}(-1 + uX, 0.5^2), Y(1)|G = LD, X, A \sim \mathcal{N}(1 + uX, 0.5^2)$. The true value for SACE is 1.

5.1. Generating Data

```
R> expit <- function(x) { exp(x) / (1 + exp(x)) }
R> size <- 5000
R > X1 < -sample(c(1,-1),size,prob=c(0.5,0.5),replace = T)
R > mu < -c(1,-1)
R > sigma <- matrix(c(1,0.5,0.5,1),2,2)
R> X23 <- mvrnorm(size, mu, sigma)
R > X \leftarrow cbind(X1, X23)
R > A <- rbinom(size, 1, expit(X %*% c(0.5,0.5,0.5)))
R > Z < - rbinom(size, 1, expit(X %*% c(0.5,0.5,0.5) + 1))
R > S1 < - rbinom(size, 1, expit(X %*% c(0.5,0.5,0.5) + A + 2))
R > S0 \leftarrow rbinom(size, 1, expit(X %*% c(-1.5,0.5,0.5) + A))
R > SO[S1 == 0] <- 0
R > S < -S1 * Z + S0 * (1 - Z)
R> Y1LL <- rnorm(size, X \% *\% c(0.5, 0.5, 0.5), 0.5^2)
R> YOLL <- rnorm(size, X %*% c(0.5,0.5,0.5) - 1, 0.5^2)
R> Y1LD <- rnorm(size, X %*% c(0.5,0.5,0.5) + 1, 0.5^2)
R> Y1 <- S0 * Y1LL + (1 - S0) * Y1LD
R> YO <- YOLL
R > Y < - Y1 * Z + Y0 * (1 - Z)
R > Y[S == O] <- NA
```

5.2. Calculating SACE and its 95% confident interval

6. Example: SACE of ISIS 396443 on SMA patients

We use **mieSACE** on data collected from a study of ISIS 396443 in patients with infantile-onset SMA. Spinal muscular atrophy (SMA) is a rare neuromuscular disorder characterised by loss of lower motor neurons and progressive muscle wasting, often leading to early death (Wikipedia contributors (2018)). The experiment involved 121 subjects with 80 treated with ISIS 396443, and the number of serious respiratory events were measured upon these subjects both at screening and 394 days afterward. The change of the number is the outcome we concern, which indicates in what extent the patients deteriorated during the period. We choose some other variables at screen time as confounders, including the age at screening, the age at first dose, sex, age at symptom onset, indicator that disease duration is longer than 12 weeks, symptoms and baseline hours of ventilator support. The number of serious respiratory events at screening is selected as the substituion variable, because it is believed to affect survival status directly but impact the outcome only indirectly. The estimated SACE is 7.406508 with a 95% confident interval of (-0.8260246, 16.8671560).

7. Summary and discussion

■ As usual ...

Computational details

If necessary or useful, information about certain computational details such as version numbers, operating systems, or compilers could be included in an unnumbered section. Also, auxiliary packages (say, for visualizations, maps, tables, ...) that are not cited in the main text can be credited here.

The results in this paper were obtained using R 3.4.1 with the MASS 7.3.47 package. R itself and all packages used are available from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) at https://CRAN.R-project.org/.

Acknowledgments

All acknowledgments (note the AE spelling) should be collected in this unnumbered section before the references. It may contain the usual information about funding and feedback from colleagues/reviewers/etc. Furthermore, information such as relative contributions of the authors may be added here (if any).

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