

The average treatment effect is a common summary of the effect of a treatment on a continuously varying outcome. The ATE is the difference in the outcome between the subpopulation receiving the treatment and a control subpopulation, [1]

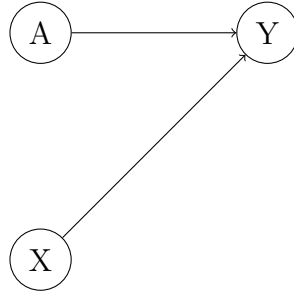
If the data consists only of the responses and the treatment indicators, the empirical ATE is efficient, in the sense that it achieves the lowest asymptotic variance among [2]. When covariates are available, further efficiency gains are attainable [3]. Efficient estimators taking into account of covariates are described in [4].

1. METHOD

1.1. Assume for the data the following model:

$$(1) \quad \begin{aligned} (Y_1, X_1, A_1), \dots, (Y_n, X_n, A_n) &\stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{P} \\ A &\perp X \\ P(A = 1 | X) &= P(A = 1) = 1 - P(A = 0) = p \end{aligned}$$

for some law \mathcal{P} . In the context of a randomized trial with two arms, Y_i



is interpreted as the outcome of interest, X_i as a vector of covariates, and A_i as a binary indicator of treatment. The independence of A_i and X_i reflects an assumption of a random assignment mechanism. Beyond these restrictions on \mathcal{P} , certain regularity assumptions are also made on the [...].

The target of estimation is the average treatment effect,

$$\psi_0 = E(Y | A = 1) - E(Y | A = 0).$$

An estimator is obtained as the solution in ψ of

$$\sum_{i=1}^n U(Y_i, A_i; \psi) = 0,$$

where

$$U(Y, A; \psi) = (A - p)(Y - \psi A).$$

By a Taylor expansion, the influence function for $\hat{\psi}$ is

That is,

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) = [...]$$

A short calculation shows that the mean of the criterion function $U(Y_i, A_i; \psi)$ is 0 when $\psi = \psi_0$. The consistency and asymptotic normality of $\hat{\psi}$ then follow from the central limit theorem and [ref].

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$$\begin{aligned} E(U(Y, A; \psi_0)) &= E[(A - p)(Y - \psi_0 A)] \\ &= E[(A - p)(E(Y | A) - \psi_0 A)] \\ &= (E(Y | A = 1) - \psi_0 A)(1 - p)p + E(Y | A = 0)(-p)(1 - p) \\ &= p(1 - p)[E(Y | A = 1) - E(Y | A = 0) - \psi_0] = 0. \end{aligned}$$

If the data consisted only of the outcomes Y_i and treatment indicators A_i , estimator $\hat{\psi}$ is semiparametric efficient, that is, its asymptotic variance $\text{Var } U(Y_i, A_i; \psi_0)$ is not greater than the asymptotic variance of any other regular asymptotically linear estimator. [cite]

The availability of covariates provides an opportunity for further efficiency gains. [cite]. The semiparametric efficient influence function may be obtained by minimizing the variance of

over arbitrary measurable h , and is found to be [cite] [should we re-derive this result here?],

$$W(X, Y, A; \psi) = (A - p)[Y - (1 - p)E(Y | A = 1, X) - pE(Y | A = 0, X)] - p(1 - p)\psi$$

A drawback of estimators taking account of covariates is that the relationship of the covariates to the outcome must usually be modeled consistently. For example, $E(Y | A = 0, X)$ and $E(Y | A = 1, X)$ in [ref] must be modeled in order to obtain the semiparametric estimator. This modeling process introduces the possibility of bias by an analyst [cite]. One solution is to specify in advance of seeing the data the model to be used. A disadvantage of this solution is [what disadvantage? should any modeling decisions be made based on the data?] [Tsiatis 2008] presents a solution that allows an analyst to exercise fuller range of modeling expertise. Briefly, each regression $E(Y | A = 0, X)$ and $E(Y | A = 1, X)$ is modeled by separate teams

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$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \sum_i U(X_i, Y_i, A_i; \hat{\psi}) = \sum_i U(X_i, Y_i, A_i; \psi_0) + (\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) \sum_i U'(X_i, Y_i, A_i; \psi_*) \\ n^{1/2}(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) &= -(n^{-1} \sum_i U'(X_i, Y_i, A_i; \psi_*))^{-1} \times n^{-1/2} \sum_i U(X_i, Y_i, A_i; \psi_0) \\ &\rightsquigarrow -E(U'(X, Y, A; \psi_*))^{-1} \times \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \end{aligned}$$

where use the lemma in concluding that the normal distribution in the last line has mean zero. Implying root-n consistency.

or individuals, each with access only to data corresponding to their arm. The resulting regression estimates may then be combined in [11] to obtain $\hat{\psi}$.

1.2. We propose another approach, eliminating the regressions on treatment in [1]. Specifically, by weighting the response

$$Y = \tilde{Y} \frac{p^A(1-p)^{1-A}}{(1-p)^A p^{1-A}} = \tilde{Y} \left(\frac{p}{1-p} \right)^{2A-1}.$$

the terms may be combined as

The criterion function [ref] may be rewritten as

In case $p = P(A = 1) = P(A = 0) = 1/2$,

$$(2) \quad W(X, Y, A; \psi) = (A - 1/2)(Y - E(Y | X)) - \psi/4.$$

An analyst given the weighted data may then model the regression on covariates. The estimate may then be substituting in [1] to obtain the semi-parametric estimate of the ATE.

This approach avoids the need for a separate analyst for each arm. Additionally, a single regression estimate will often be more precise than two combined regression estimates. [toy example?]

1.3. In some fields it is common to regress out a variable of interest Y on covariates, studying instead the residuals $Y' = Y - E(Y | X)$. The average treatment effect of Y' is obtained as the slope in the model $E(Y') = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A$. [Example from epi literature] This estimator is typically inefficient.

Define

$$\tilde{Y} = Y - E(Y | X)$$

and consider the regression

$$E(\tilde{Y} | A) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A.$$

Then $\beta_0 + \beta_1 = E(\tilde{Y} | A = 1) = E(Y | A = 1) - E(Y)$ and $\beta_0 = E(\tilde{Y} | A = 0) = E(Y | A = 0) - E(Y) = E(Y | A = 0, X) - pE(Y | A = 1, X) - (1 - p)E(Y | A = 0, X) = p(E(Y | A = 0, X) - E(Y | A = 1, X))$, so

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_0 &= -p\psi_0 \\ \beta_1 &= \psi_0. \end{aligned}$$

The influence function of (β_0, β_1) is obtained as:

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ A_i \end{pmatrix} (\tilde{Y}_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - A_i \hat{\beta}_1) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ A_i \end{pmatrix} (\tilde{Y}_i - \beta_0 - A_i \beta_1) + \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -A_i \\ -A_i & -A_i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \\
n^{1/2} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} &= \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_i \begin{pmatrix} 1 & A_i \\ A_i & A_i \end{pmatrix} \right)^{-1} n^{-1/2} \sum_i \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ A_i \end{pmatrix} (\tilde{Y}_i - \beta_0 - A_i \beta_1) \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & p \\ p & p \end{pmatrix}^{-1} n^{-1/2} \sum_i \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ A_i \end{pmatrix} (\tilde{Y}_i - \beta_0 - A_i \beta_1) + o_P(1) \\
n^{1/2}(\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) &= n^{-1/2} \sum_i \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1-p & p(1-p) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ A_i \end{pmatrix} (\tilde{Y}_i - \beta_0 - A_i \beta_1) + o_P(1) \\
&= \frac{n^{-1/2}}{p(1-p)} \sum_i (A_i - p)(\tilde{Y}_i - \beta_0 - A_i \beta_1) + o_P(1) \\
&= \frac{n^{-1/2}}{p(1-p)} \sum_i (A_i - p)(\tilde{Y}_i - (A_i - p)\psi_0) + o_P(1) \\
&= \frac{n^{-1/2}}{p(1-p)} \sum_i \left\{ (A_i - p)(Y_i - E(Y | X_i)) - p^2 \left(\frac{1-p}{p} \right)^{2A_i} \psi_0 \right\} + o_P(1).
\end{aligned}$$

In case $p = 1/2$,

$$n^{1/2}(\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1) = 4n^{-1/2} \sum_i \{(A_i - 1/2)(Y_i - E(Y | X_i)) - \psi_0/4\} + o_P(1).$$

By comparison with (2), we find that when $p = 1/2$, the augmented estimator $\hat{\psi}$ is asymptotically equivalent to $\hat{\beta}_1$.

Since the estimator $[\hat{\beta}_1]$ is efficient, the estimator $[\hat{\psi}]$ is inefficient when $p \neq 1/2$, i.e., its asymptotic variance is larger. Specifically, the asymptotic variance of $[\hat{\psi}]$ is

and the asymptotic variance of $[\hat{\beta}_1]$ is

$$(1 - 2p)^2 \text{Var}(E(Y | A = 1, X) - E(Y | A = 0, X)),$$

which is 0 if and only $p = 1/2$ or the stratified ATEs $E(Y | A = 1, X) - E(Y | A = 0, X)$ are constant.

2. SIMULATION

As an illustration, suppose the response follows a linear model,

$$Y = \alpha A + \beta^T X + \gamma^T A X + \epsilon.$$

The fixed parameters γ represent interaction between A and X . The errors ϵ are assumed to have mean zero and the variables A, X, ϵ are assumed mutually independent. In this case, after a short calculation, the difference $[\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\psi}]$ evaluates to

$$(1 - 2p)^2 \gamma^T \text{Var}(X) \gamma.$$

When there are no interactions, $\gamma = 0$, the difference vanishes, since in this case the stratified ATEs $E(Y | A = 1, X) - E(Y | A = 0, X)$ are constant. By another short calculation, the asymptotic relative efficiency of $\hat{\beta}_1$ to $\hat{\psi}$ is

$$1 + \frac{(1 - 2p)^2 \gamma^T \text{Var}(X) \gamma}{\frac{\text{Var}(\epsilon)}{p(1-p)} + \gamma^T \text{Var}(X) \gamma}.$$

See Fig. [\[1\]](#).

3. OTHER ESTIMANDS

As above, the full data is $Y_i^* = (Y_i^*(0), Y_i^*(1)), i = 1, \dots, n$, the observed data is $(Y_i, A_i, X_i), i = 1, \dots, n$, and we assume

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= AY^*(1) + (1 - A)Y^*(0), \\ P(A = 1) &= p \in (0, 1) \\ A &\perp X, A \perp Y^*. \end{aligned}$$

Besides the mean treatment difference $E(Y | A = 1) - E(Y | A = 0)$ discussed above, we consider other estimands:

- (1) $\psi_0 = \log \frac{E(Y^*(1))}{E(Y^*(0))} = \log \frac{E(Y|A=1)}{E(Y|A=0)}$
- (2) the slope in the model

$$\text{logit}(AE(Y^*(1)) + (1 - A)E(Y^*(0))) = \text{logit}(P(Y = 1 | A)) = \psi_0 + \psi_1 A,$$

for a binary-valued response Y

In each case, we obtain the efficient augmented influence function following the approach of [\[Tsiatis ch. 13\]](#):

- (1) obtain a full-data influence function $\phi^F(Y^*)$
- (2) obtain an observed data influence function $\phi(Y, A, X)$ corresponding to ϕ^F under the mapping $\phi \mapsto E(\phi | Y^*)$
- (3) compute the efficient augmentation term

$$\begin{aligned} h^*(Y, A, X) &= (A - p)(E(\phi | A = 1, X) - E(\phi | A = 0, X)) \\ &= E(\phi | A, X) - E(\phi | X) \end{aligned}$$

We then eliminate regressions on treatment level, i.e., the terms $E(Y | A = 1, X)$ and $E(Y | A = 0, X)$.

3.1. $\log \frac{E(Y|A=1)}{E(Y|A=0)}$. The problem is to estimate

$$\psi_0 = \log \frac{E(Y^*(1))}{E(Y^*(0))} = \log \frac{E(Y | A = 1)}{E(Y | A = 0)}.$$

A full-data estimator is given by the solution to

$$\sum_i (Y_i^*(1) - e^{\psi_0} Y_i^*(0)) = 0,$$

with influence function

$$\begin{aligned} \phi^F(Y, A, X; \psi) &= (e^\psi E(Y^*(0)))^{-1} (Y^*(1) - e^\psi Y^*(0)) \\ &= (E(Y^*(1)))^{-1} (Y^*(1) - e^\psi Y^*(0)). \end{aligned}$$

An influence functions ϕ of the observed data satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y_i^*(1))\phi(Y, A, X) &= \left(\frac{A}{p} - e^{\psi_0} \frac{1-A}{1-p} \right) Y + h(Y, A, X) \\ &= (A-p) \left(\frac{A}{(A-p)p} - e^{\psi_0} \frac{1-A}{(A-p)(1-p)} \right) Y + h(Y, A, X) \\ &= \frac{A-p}{p(1-p)} (A + e^{\psi_0}(1-A)) Y + h(Y, A, X) \\ &= \frac{A-p}{p(1-p)} e^{(1-A)\psi_0} Y + h(Y, A, X), \end{aligned}$$

where h satisfies $E(h(Y, A, X) | Y^*) = 0$. The minimizing h is given by subtracting out

$$\begin{aligned} h^*(Y, A, X) &= (A-p) \left[E\left(\frac{A-p}{p(1-p)} e^{(1-A)\psi_0} Y \mid A=1, X \right) - E\left(\frac{A-p}{p(1-p)} e^{(1-A)\psi_0} Y \mid A=0, X \right) \right] \\ &= (A-p) \left[\frac{1}{p} E(Y \mid A=1, X) + \frac{e^{\psi_0}}{1-p} E(Y \mid A=0, X) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

The efficient influence function is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \phi^*(Y, A, X) &= (E(Y^*(1)))^{-1} \phi(Y, A, X) - h^*(Y, A, X) \\ &= (E(Y^*(1)))^{-1} (A-p) \left(\frac{e^{(1-A)\psi_0}}{p(1-p)} Y - \frac{1}{p} E(Y \mid A=1, X) - \frac{e^{\psi_0}}{1-p} E(Y \mid A=0, X) \right) \end{aligned}$$

Let $\hat{\psi}_n$ be a consistent estimator of ψ_0 . Under the transformation

$$Y = \frac{p^{2A}(1-p)^{2(1-A)}}{e^{(1-A)\hat{\psi}_n}} \tilde{Y}$$

the efficient influence function may be rewritten

$$\phi^*(Y, A, X) = (E(Y^*(1)))^{-1} (A-p) \left(\frac{e^{(1-A)\psi}}{p(1-p)} Y - E(\tilde{Y} \mid X) \right) + o_P(1).$$

In case $p = 1/2$, $\tilde{Y} = 4e^{(1-A)\hat{\psi}_n}Y$, and

$$(3) \quad \phi^*(Y, A, X) = 2(E(Y^*(1)))^{-1}(2A - 1)[e^{(1-A)\psi}Y - E(e^{(1-A)\hat{\psi}_n}Y \mid X)] + o_P(1).$$

3.1.1. Two-step regression. Let

$$Z = Y - e^{(A-1)\psi_0}[E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0}Y \mid X) - E(Y \mid A = 1)]$$

and consider the log-linear regression model

$$(4) \quad \log(E(Z \mid A)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A.$$

Then

$$E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0}Y) = (1/2)[e^{\psi_0}E(Y \mid A = 0) + E(Y \mid A = 1)] = E(Y \mid A = 1)$$

implies

$$\begin{aligned} E(Z \mid A = 1) &= E(Y \mid A = 1) - E[E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0}Y \mid X) - E(Y \mid A = 1) \mid A = 1] \\ &= E(Y \mid A = 1) - E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0}Y) + E(Y \mid A = 1) \\ &= E(Y \mid A = 1), \end{aligned}$$

and similarly

$$\begin{aligned} E(Z \mid A = 0) &= E(Y \mid A = 0) - E[E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0}Y \mid X) - E(Y \mid A = 1) \mid A = 0] \\ &= E(Y \mid A = 0). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, under model (4),

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_0 &= \log(E(Z \mid A = 0)) = \log(E(Y \mid A = 0)), \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 &= \log(E(Z \mid A = 1)) = \log(E(Y \mid A = 1)), \\ \beta_1 &= \frac{\log(E(Y \mid A = 1))}{\log(E(Y \mid A = 0))} = \psi_0. \end{aligned}$$

An estimator $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$ under the log-linear regression model (4) is given by the estimating equations

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ A_i \end{pmatrix} (Z_i - e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 A_i}).$$

The influence function of $\beta_1 = \psi_0$ is computed to be

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi_{\beta_1}(Y, A, X; \beta) &= 2(2A - 1)(e^{-\beta_0 - \beta_1 A} Z - 1) \\
&= 2(2A - 1) \left(\frac{Z}{E(Z | A)} - 1 \right) \\
&= 2(2A - 1) \left(\frac{e^{(1-A)\beta_1} Z}{E(Z | A = 1)} - 1 \right) \\
&= 2(2A - 1) \frac{e^{(1-A)\beta_1} Y - E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0} Y | X) + E(Y | A = 1) - E(Z | A = 1)}{E(Z | A = 1)} \\
&= 2(2A - 1) \frac{e^{(1-A)\beta_1} Y - E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0} Y | X)}{E(Y | A = 1)} \\
&= 2(E(Y^*(1)))^{-1} (2A - 1) [e^{(1-A)\psi_0} Y - E(e^{(1-A)\psi_0} Y | X)].
\end{aligned}$$

This influence function is the same as the influence function (3), so the estimator $\hat{\beta}_1$ under the log-linear regression is asymptotically equivalent to the efficient estimator $\hat{\psi}$.