

# Consistent treatment selection based on Manski midpoints



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## Abstract

The fundamental difficulty in comparing efficacies of two treatments based on observational data is that those who actually selected or received a particular treatment may give different responses to it than those who did not select or receive it. Thus, based on those who received one treatment, one cannot estimate the effect in case the treatment is applied to the entire population. Manski (1990) showed, that also in this situation, one may derive bounds for the effect size on the entire population. When only observational data are available, Rudas (2015a) suggested, in order to find the better effect, comparing the differences in the numbers the positive versus negative outcomes, in contrast to the usual method, when their ratios are used. He showed that this procedure is consistent in the sense that it never leads to Simpson's paradox. In this research, we develop Manski bounds for these differences, and show that the observed differences are the midpoints of the ranges obtained.

## Treatment selection and effect measures

The task of selecting the best treatment from set  $\mathcal{D}$  of available treatments consists of finding

$$d^* = \arg \max_{d \in \mathcal{D}} u(d),$$

where  $u(d)$  is the net benefit of treatment  $d$  when selected for the whole population. For two treatments ( $\mathcal{D} = \{0, 1\}$ ), this maps to decision function

$$\text{sgn}[\delta(T)] := \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } u(0) > u(1) \\ 0 & \text{if } u(0) = u(1) \\ +1 & \text{if } u(0) < u(1) \end{cases},$$

where  $\delta(\cdot)$  is an effect measure and  $T$  a table that holds the data.

Often,  $u(d)$  is specified as  $E[Y(d)]$ , where  $Y(d)$  is the population distribution of outcome  $Y$  under treatment  $d$ . For two treatments, this yields effect measure

$$ATE(1) = E[Y(1)] - E[Y(0)], \quad \text{which under binary } Y \text{ equals } P[Y(1) = 1] - P[Y(0) = 1].$$

In a setup with two treatments and two outcome values, the population is held by the  $2 \times 2$  table

	$Y_i = 0$	$Y_i = 1$
$D_i = 0$	$p_{10}$	$p_{11}$
$D_i = 1$	$p_{00}$	$p_{01}$

such that  $\forall p_{dY} \in [0, 1]$  and  $\sum_d \sum_Y p_{dY} = 1$ .

Keele and Quinn (2017) define four latent classes  $Z \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  in terms of their potential outcomes,

$Z_i = 0$ : Never $Y_i = 1$	$Z_i = 1$ : Helped	$Z_i = 2$ : Hurt	$Z_i = 3$ : Always $Y_i = 1$
$Y_i(0) = 0$	$Y_i(0) = 0$		$Y_i(0) = 1$
$Y_i(1) = 0$	$Y_i(1) = 1$	$Y_i(1) = 0$	$Y_i(1) = 1$

giving a decomposition of  $T$

Never + Helped $Z_i \in \{0, 1\}$	Hurt + Always $Z_i \in \{3, 4\}$
Never + Hurt $Z_i \in \{0, 3\}$	Helped + Always $Z_i \in \{2, 4\}$

and

$$ATE(1) = P[Y(1) = 1] - P[Y(0) = 1] = P[Z \in \{1, 3\}] - P[Z \in \{0, 2\}] = P[Z = 1] - P[Z = 2].$$

## Consistent treatment selection with observational data

For any unit  $i$ , at most one of  $\{Y_i(0), Y_i(1)\}$  is observable. Thus, only estimates  $\{\hat{Y}(0), \hat{Y}(1)\}$  are available. In experiments, randomized treatment assignment makes the assumption of  $(Y(1), Y(0)) \perp\!\!\!\perp D$  and thus also  $D \perp\!\!\!\perp Z$  viable, which yields the conventional estimator

$$\widehat{ATT}_r(1) = P[Y(1) = 1] - P[Y(0) = 1] = P[Y = 1, D = 1] - P[Y = 1, D = 0] = \frac{p_{11}}{p_{10} + p_{11}} - \frac{p_{01}}{p_{00} + p_{01}}.$$

In observational data, confounders  $X$  may affect both treatment assignment and outcomes. Thus, only conditional independence  $(Y(1), Y(0)) \perp\!\!\!\perp D|X$  holds, and if  $X$  is not observed, one cannot estimate  $\{Y(0), Y(1)\}$ .

Suppose two strata  $S \in \{0, 1\}$  held by tables

$$T_{S=0} = \begin{bmatrix} p_{10}^{S=0} & p_{11}^{S=0} \\ p_{00}^{S=0} & p_{01}^{S=0} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad T_{S=1} = \begin{bmatrix} p_{10}^{S=1} & p_{11}^{S=1} \\ p_{00}^{S=1} & p_{01}^{S=1} \end{bmatrix}$$

where the frequencies sum up to 1 within each table. Under conventional effect measures such as  $\widehat{ATT}_r$ , the stratified tables may lead to one decision and the combined table to another,

$$\text{sgn}[\delta(T_{S=0})] = \text{sgn}[\delta(T_{S=1})] \neq \text{sgn}[\delta(T)],$$

a consequence of association reversal known as Simpson's paradox. This poses a problem for treatment selection if  $S$  is not observed or scientific information lacks whether to condition on it.

## Manski bounds and midpoints

Manski (1990) showed, that also in settings with observational data and unobserved confounding, one may derive bounds for the effect size on the entire population. For treatment  $d$ , the bounds on the response in the entire population are

$$mb(P[Y(d) = 1]) = [2p_{d1} - 1, 1 - 2p_{d0}], \quad \text{with midpoint } mm(P[Y(d) = 1]) = p_{d1} - p_{d0}.$$

where  $mb()$  and  $mm()$  are Manski bounds and midpoints, respectively. Under two treatments,

$$mb(ATE(1)) = [- (p_{01} + p_{10}), (p_{00} + p_{11})], \quad \text{and} \quad mm(ATE(1)) = \frac{1}{2}((p_{00} + p_{11}) - (p_{01} + p_{10})) = \frac{1}{2}DI,$$

where  $DI$  is a special case of  $DI_k$  (Rudas, 2015a). Decision function  $\text{sgn}[DI(T)]$  selects

$$d^* = \arg \max_{d \in \{0, 1\}} mm(ATE(d)), \quad \text{always yielding } \text{sgn}[DI(T_{S=0})] = \text{sgn}[DI(T_{S=1})] = \text{sgn}[DI(T)].$$

## Statistical properties

Rudas (2015a) shows that under multinomial sampling with  $p_{00} + p_{11} = r$ ,

$$P[DI > 0] = \sum_{k=[N/2]+1}^N \binom{N}{k} r^k (1-r)^{N-k}, \quad \text{approximated for large } N \text{ by } \phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{N}(r-0.5)}{\sqrt{r(1-r)}}\right).$$

where  $\phi$  is the standard normal CDF, and the probability of the correct decision depends only on  $N$  and the population value of  $DI$ .

## Relationship to sensitivity analysis

For  $T = \{n_{00}, n_{01}, n_{10}, n_{11}\}$ ,  $\sum_d \sum_Y n_{dY} = N$ , there are  $\prod_d \prod_Y (n_{dY} + 1)$  possible allocations of the  $N$  observations into the four  $Z$  classes. Inspecting all such possible allocations relates to conditional volume tests (Diaconis and Efron, 1985), as  $2 \times 2 \times 4$  tables  $(D, Y, Z)$  with the same  $2 \times 2$  marginals  $(D, Y)$  and 8 of the cells fixed to zero. Then,  $DI$  equals the expected effect if all allocations in  $Z$  are equally likely. Keele and Quinn (2017) propose a generalization that weights the allocations according to extra-data information, with simulated cell-splitting parameters  $\{\psi\}_{dY}$  on the  $(D, Z)$  margin

$$\begin{matrix} & Z_i = 0 & Z_i = 1 & Z_i = 2 & Z_i = 3 \\ \begin{matrix} D_i = 0 \\ D_i = 1 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} (1 - \psi_{00})\theta_{00} \\ (1 - \psi_{10})\theta_{10} \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} \psi_{00}\theta_{00} \\ (1 - \psi_{11})\theta_{11} \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} (1 - \psi_{01})\theta_{10} \\ \psi_{10}\theta_{10} \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} \psi_{01}\theta_{01} \\ \psi_{11}\theta_{11} \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix},$$

where  $\{\theta\}_{dY}$  are posterior cell probabilities.

## Discussion

• just a cites holder Rudas (2010) (Rudas, 2015b) Rudas, 2015a

## References

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## Acknowledgments

This research project was supported by European Research Council, Grant 724191, PI: Staffan I. Lindberg, V-Dem Institute, University of Gothenburg, Sweden.