

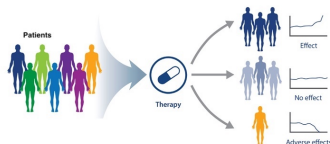
Heterogenous Benefit/Harm Effects from Treatment

Leo Guelman

Motivation for Personalized Decision-Making

- Personalization is founded on the premise that individuals have heterogeneous responses to actions.
- Personalization algorithms aim to improve decision-making by identifying and exploiting this heterogeneity.

Non-Personalized Paradigm



Personalized Paradigm



- Main ambition of personalized decision-making \Rightarrow Achieve **subject-level** causal effect estimation.
- Primary focus has been on methods that estimate the **Conditional Average Treatment Effects** (CATE).
- CATE estimation can be useful, but does not imply the effects hold at the individual-level.
- **Individual Treatment Effects** (ITEs) are generally non-identifiable, but informative bounds can be obtained on $P(\text{ITE})$.
- **Today's Goal:** Demonstrate how $P(\text{ITE})$ bounds can potentially help improve personalized intervention decisions, relative to using CATE.

Background

Causality has two faces: Necessary and Sufficient

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Probability of Necessity

$$\begin{aligned}PN &\triangleq P(Y_{t'} = \text{false} | T = \text{true}, Y = \text{true}) \\ &\triangleq P(y'_{t'} | t, y)\end{aligned}$$

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Example: A client got a rate discount and renewed her RBC Home Insurance policy. What is the probability she would not have renewed the policy in the absence of the discount?

Probability of Sufficiency

$$PS \triangleq P(y_t | t', y')$$

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Example: A client neither got a rate discount nor renewed the insurance policy. What is the probability he would have renewed the policy with the discount?

Probability of Necessity and Sufficiency

$$\begin{aligned} PNS &\triangleq P(y_t, y'_{t'}) \\ &\triangleq P(\text{benefit}). \end{aligned}$$

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- **Example:** What is the probability of a client renewing with rate discount and not renewing without it?
- PNS interventions are most relevant in business settings: outcome would not occur without the intervention, and are strong enough to bring the outcome.

PNS relation with CATE and ITE

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$$\text{ITE} = \begin{cases} 1, & P(y_t, y_{t'}) \\ 0, & P(y_{t'}, y_t) + P(y_{t'}, y'_t) \\ -1, & P(y_{t'}, y'_t). \end{cases}$$

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Hence, $\text{PNS} \triangleq P(\text{benefit}) = P(\text{ITE} > 0)$.

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Remarks

- $P(\text{harm}|x) = 0$ (Monotonicity) $\Rightarrow \text{CATE} = P(\text{benefit}|x)$.
- Decomposing CATE into $P(\text{benefit}|x)$ and $P(\text{harm}|x)$ provides additional information
 - ▶ E.g., An intervention may have the same CATE on different client groups, but different $P(\text{benefit}|x)$ and $P(\text{harm}|x)$ profiles.
- Unlike $P(\text{benefit}|x)$, CATE is estimable from experimental data without invoking counterfactual expressions.

Under non-monotonicity, identifying heterogenous benefit/harm effects can be more informative to conventional HTE (CATE) to inform personalized interventions.

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- The notification is expected to increase renewal rates through early awareness.
- They run an A/B Test to assess the validity of this claim:

	Renewed	\neg Renewed	Total	Renewal Rate
do(email)	4895	5105	10000	49%
do(\neg email)	2100	7900	10000	21%
				ATE = 28%

Table: Average Treatment Effect (ATE)

- ATE reflects the effect on the whole population, which might not hold for different client subgroups.

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- CATE estimation (conditioning on X) yields:

		Renewed	¬Renewed	Total	Renewal Rate
$X = 1$	do(email)	2445	2550	5000	49%
	do(¬email)	1050	3950	5000	21%
CATE($X = 1$) = 28%					
$X = 0$	do(email)	2450	2550	5000	49%
	do(¬email)	1050	3950	5000	21%
CATE($X = 0$) = 28%					

Table: Conditional Average Treatment Effect (CATE)

- Assume we get access to another sample dataset where clients could sign-up for email renewal notifications.

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- The observational data shows the following results:

		Renewed	\neg Renewed	Total	Renewal Rate
X= 1	email	2000	5000	7000	29%
	\neg email	2100	900	3000	70%
X= 0	email	4700	2300	7000	67%
	\neg email	2100	900	3000	70%

Table: Renewal Rates by Group

- Combining the experimental and observational data we can conclude:
 - ▶ $0.28 \leq P(\text{benefit}|X = 1) \leq 0.29$; $P(\text{harm}|X = 1) \leq 0.01$.
 - ▶ $0.47 \leq P(\text{benefit}|X = 0) \leq 0.49$; $0.19 \leq P(\text{harm}|X = 0) \leq 0.21$.
- Intuition for non-monotonicity: The renewal notifications triggers an incentive on some $X = 0$ clients to shop for better market rates.
- Observational data has value when combined with experimental data. Why?

Derivation of PNS bounds

- In principle, computing counterfactuals such as $PNS = P(y_t, y'_{t'} | x)$, **require** a probabilistic causal model (**PCM**).
- A **PCM** involves:
 - ▶ The causal graph (involving endogenous and exogenous variables, V and U , respectively).
 - ▶ A parametric specification for the set of functions $F = \{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$, representing $V_i = f_i(\text{pa}_i, U_i)$.
 - ▶ A probability distribution defined over $P(U)$.
- “**Require**” \Rightarrow Needed for **identification**.
 - ▶ Causal quantity uniquely determined from available data given assumptions.

Factors hindering identification

- **Unobserved Confounding:** Causes and effects influenced by unobserved factors.
- **Sensitivity to F:** The same causal graph can yield different values of counterfactuals depending on F (even for the same $P(U)$).^a

^aFor instance, see Example 6.19 in [Elements of Causal Inference \[2017\]](#).

PNS in the absence of identification

- We can still obtain bounds on PNS under mild assumptions.
- We will just assume **consistency**:

$$T = t \Rightarrow y = y_t.$$

- A special case of **composition axiom** of counterfactuals:

The actual world should be closer to itself relative to any world that differs from the actual world.^b

Remark: We will not be assuming *monotonicity* and/or *unconfoundedness*.

^bSee Galles and Pearl [1998].

PNS bounds

Given *consistency*, our goal is to derive PNS bounds that are:

- **Sharp**: narrowest possible bounds, give this assumption.
- **Symbolic**: closed-form analytic expressions.^c

^cNumeric bounds in a general setting are given in [Duarte et al. \[2021\]](#).

PNS bounds: Linear Programming (LP) formulation

- Recall $Y, T \in \{0, 1\}$.
- PCM is not specified, but every PCM induces a distribution on four binary variables: $P(Y, T, Y_t, Y_{t'})$.

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$$\text{PCM}^1 \Rightarrow P^1(Y, T, Y_t, Y_{t'})$$

$$\text{PCM}^2 \Rightarrow P^2(Y, T, Y_t, Y_{t'})$$

$$\text{PCM}^3 \Rightarrow P^3(Y, T, Y_t, Y_{t'})$$

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$$\text{PCM}^2 \Rightarrow P^2(Y, T, Y_t, Y_{t'})$$

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...

- Due to *consistency*, Y is deterministic on the other three variables – e.g., $P(y, t, y_t, y_{t'}) = P(t, y_t, y_{t'}) = P(t, y, y_{t'})$.
- Hence, each distribution is fully specified by $2^3 = 8$ parameters.

Parameters

$$P_{111} = P(y_t, y_{t'}, t)$$

$$P_{110} = P(y_t, y_{t'}, t')$$

$$P_{101} = P(y_t, y'_{t'}, t)$$

$$P_{100} = P(y_t, y'_{t'}, t')$$

$$P_{011} = P(y'_t, y_{t'}, t)$$

$$P_{001} = P(y'_t, y'_{t'}, t)$$

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Constraints

$$\sum_{i,j,k} P_{ijk} = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$P_{ijk} \geq 0$$

$$P_{111} + P_{101} = P(y, t) \quad (2)$$

$$P_{011} + P_{001} = P(y', t)$$

$$P_{110} + P_{010} = P(y, t')$$

$$p(y_t) = P_{111} + P_{110} + P_{101} + P_{100} \quad (3)$$

$$p(y'_t) = P_{011} + P_{010} + P_{001} + P_{000}$$

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- Lower/Upper PNS bounds are obtained by

$$\text{Min/Max } PNS = P_{101} + P_{100}$$

$$\text{s.t. } (1) - (3)$$

- Solution obtained by applying a vertex enumeration algorithm to the dual LP.

LP solution^d

$$\max \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ P(y_t) - P(y_{t'}) \\ P(y) - P(y_{t'}) \\ P(y_t) - P(y) \end{array} \right\} \leq PNS \leq \min \left\{ \begin{array}{c} P(y_t) \\ P(y_{t'}) \\ P(y, t) - P(y', t') \\ P(y_t) - P(y_{t'}) + P(y, t') - P(y, t') \end{array} \right\}$$

Remarks

- Bounds are sharp since optimization is global.
- The same bounds hold for any subpopulation, by conditioning every term above by covariates X .

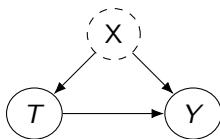
^dJin Tian and Judea Pearl [2000].

Finite-Sample PNS bounds^e

^eFollows Ang Li, Ruirui Mao, Judea Pearl [2022] with some variants. For details, see <https://github.com/leoguelman/pns>.

Finite-Sample PNS bounds^e

Causal Model



$$U_{x_i} \sim \text{Bern}(P_{x_i}), \quad i = \{1, \dots, 20\}.$$

$$X_i := U_{x_i}$$

$$T^o := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X\beta + U_T > 0.5 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$T_e \sim \text{Bern}(0.5)$$

$$Y := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 < \alpha T + X\gamma + U_Y < 2 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

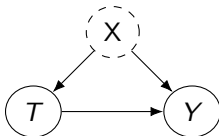
$$P_{x_i}, U_T, U_Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$$

$$\beta_i, \gamma_i, \alpha \sim \text{Unif}(-1, 1)$$

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Simulation

Samples: $N = \{100, 300, 500, 1000, \dots, 6000\}$

Repetitions: $B = 500$

for all $n \in N$ **do**

for all $b \in B$ **do**

 Draw $(Y_{jb}, X_{jb}, T_{jb}^e), j = \{1, \dots, n\}, b = \{1, \dots, B\}$

 Draw $(Y_{jb}, X_{jb}, T_{jb}^o)$

 Compute $\hat{PNS}_{nb}^L, \hat{PNS}_{nb}^U, PNS_{nb}^L, PNS_{nb}^U$

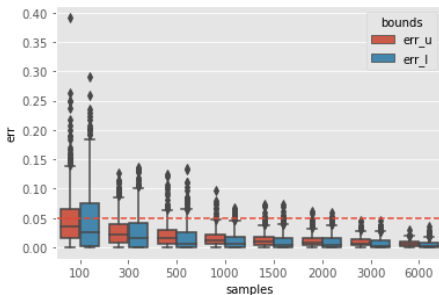
end for

 Compute $\text{err}_n^L = \sum_b |\hat{PNS}_{nb}^L - PNS_{nb}^L|/B,$

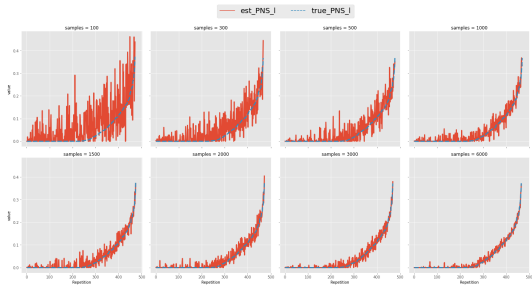
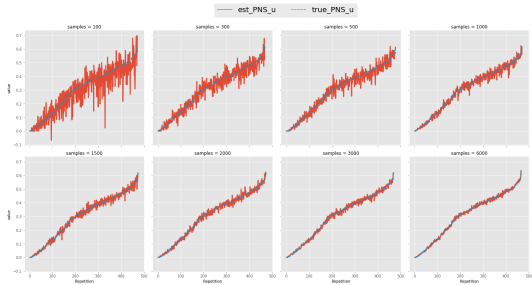
$\text{err}_n^U = \sum_b |\hat{PNS}_{nb}^U - PNS_{nb}^U|/B$

end for

^eFollows Ang Li, Ruirui Mao, Judea Pearl [2022] with some variants. For details, see <https://github.com/leoguelman/pns>.



- Li, Mao and Pearl [2022] derived sample size requirements to achieve an error rate of at most ϵ , at $1 - \alpha$ confidence-level.
- In the example above, their estimates give $N = 6147$ for $\epsilon = 0.05$ and $\alpha = 0.05$.



Work in Progress

- **Goal:** Estimation of heterogeneous benefit/harm effects with sharp empirical bounds.
 - ▶ Estimation procedure that provides lower error rates on upper/lower bounds, relative to baseline (based on independent estimation of observational and experimental distributions).
 - ▶ Effectively deal with non-overlap issues between observational and experimental data.

Appendix

Monotonicity Violations

- A **necessary condition** for monotonicity can be derived by checking that all arguments to the max function in the lower bound of $P(\text{harm}|X)$ are non-positive^f:

$$\max \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ P(y_{t'}|x) - P(y_t|x) \\ P(y|x) - P(y_t|x) \\ P(y_{t'}|x) - P(y|x) \end{array} \right\} \leq P(\text{harm}|x) \leq \min \left\{ \begin{array}{c} P(y_{t'}|x) \\ P(y'_t|x) \\ P(y', t|x) + P(y, t'|x) \\ P(y_{t'}|x) - P(y_t|x) + P(y, t|x) - P(y', t'|x) \end{array} \right\}$$

- From the above, we get

$$\text{Monotonicity} \Rightarrow P(y_t|x) \geq P(y|x) \geq P(y_{t'}|x) \quad (4)$$

- By contrapositive, failure to satisfy the consequent of 4 implies monotonicity violations.
- Given $P(Y, T|X)$, what are the hypothetical values of $P(y_t|x)$ and $P(y_{t'}|x)$ that entail violations to the inequality in 4?

^f $P(\text{harm}|X)$ bounds can be obtained from PNS and CATE using the relation derived in Slide 9.

- Interventional distributions are compatible with observational distributions under the following conditions^g:

$$\begin{aligned}P(y, t|x) &\leq P(y_t|x) \leq 1 - P(y', t|x) \\ P(y, t'|x) &\leq P(y_{t'}|x) \leq 1 - P(y', t'|x).\end{aligned}\tag{5}$$

Define the **compatible set** as $\mathcal{C} = \{(P(y_t|x), P(y_{t'}|x)) : \text{Ineq.}(5)\}$.

- Example: Suppose we have the following observational and experimental data
 - ▶ $P(t|x) = 0.5, P(y|t, x) = 0.5, P(y|t', x) = 0.5.$
 - ▶ $P(y_t|x) = 0.5, P(y_{t'}|x) = 0.5.$

Then, compatibility implies:

$$\begin{aligned}0.25 &\leq P(y_t|x) \leq 0.75 \\ 0.25 &\leq P(y_{t'}|x) \leq 0.75.\end{aligned}$$

^gSee Eq. 22 in Jin Tian and Judea Pearl [2000].

- Hence, incorporating the necessary condition for monotonicity (Ineq. 4), we get that interventional distributions must satisfy:

$$0.50 \leq P(y_t|x) \leq 0.75$$

$$0.25 \leq P(y_{t'}|x) \leq 0.50.$$

- Define the **necessary set** as $\mathcal{N} = \{ (P(y_t|x), P(y_{t'}|x)) : \text{Ineq.}(4) \wedge \text{Ineq.}(5) \}$.
- Finally, define the **violation set** as $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{C} \setminus \mathcal{N}$ – i.e., \mathcal{V} is composed of feasible values of the interventional distributions that would entail violations to monotonicity.

