# Causal inference in the context of an error prone exposure: air pollution and mortality

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#### Introduction

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- Obtaining personal exposure information is not feasible.
  - Need to rely on air pollution concentrations predicted by spatio-temporal models (error-prone!).
  - Most epi studies have ignored exposure measurement error.
- Some studies have developed methodology to quantify and correct for error
  - ► E.g. [Alexeeff et al., 2015]
  - ▶ They do not use methods robust to model misspecification.
  - They do not use Generalized Propensity Scores to adjust for confounding.
    - $\rightarrow$  focus of this work.

▶ **Goal:** To estimate the causal effect of long-term exposure to fine particles, PM<sub>2.5</sub> on health outcomes at the zip code level in the Medicare population in New England area.

### Data

- ► Exposure: Annual averaged PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations aggregated at zip code level as categorical variable.
  - While PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations are continuous, our interest is in comparing exposure categories based on pre-specified PM<sub>2.5</sub> cutoffs.
  - Can help inform future policy decisions (E.g. PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels of 8, 10, 12 μg/m³(NAAQS Table)).
- Outcome of Interest: Mortality, health outcome counts, at zip code level over a year.
- Study Population: Medicare participants in New England area (2000–2012).

## Challenges

#### 1. Confounding:

- Observational studies, such as this one, have limitations due to lack of randomization.
  - Factors that vary and are associated both with PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels and mortality (e.g. SES-related factors) may confound exposure comparisons.
- In causal inference, using propensity scores (the probability of a unit being assigned to a particular exposure given the pretreatment confounders) is a common practice.

## Challenges

#### 2. Measurement Error:

- ▶ It is not feasible to measure the exact PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure in every single zip code.
- However, PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations can be predicted using spatio-temporal models
   [Di et al., 2016a, Di et al., 2016b, Di et al., 2017].
- ► These predicted PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations are:
  - Error-prone.

### Challenges

#### 2. Measurement Error:

- Internal Validation data
  - ▶ Measured PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations (gold-standard).
  - Predicted PM<sub>2.5</sub> using the spatio-temporal model (error-prone).



Figure: Locations of monitor stations in New England (in red). Zip code areas are drawn in blue.

### Previous Studies: Measurement Error in Causal Inference

- ► Lots of literature on methods to adjust for measurement error in confounders/outcomes.
  - ► [Stürmer et al., 2005, McCandless et al., 2012, McCaffrey et al., 2013, Webb-Vargas et al., 2015, Shu and Yi, 2017, Shu and Grace, 2018]

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  - ▶ [Babanezhad et al., 2010, Braun et al., 2017]
  - Focus on binary exposure.

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- Some literature on methods to adjust for measurement error in exposure.
  - ▶ [Babanezhad et al., 2010, Braun et al., 2017]
  - Focus on binary exposure.
- No literature on methods to adjust for measurement error in a categorical exposure in causal settings.

## Proposed Approach; RC-GPS

- Regression calibration (RC)-based adjustment for an error-prone exposure combined with generalized propensity scores (GPS) to adjust for confounding (RC-GPS).
  - RC: RC model is fit using continuous PM<sub>2.5</sub> regressing true PM<sub>2.5</sub> on error-prone PM<sub>2.5</sub> and additional predictive covariates.
  - ▶ **GPS:** Outcome analysis adjusting for confounding using GPS is conducted by transforming the continuous exposure into a categorical exposure.

#### **Notations**

- ▶ Main study:  $(Y, \widehat{W}_c, \widehat{W}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D})$ .
- ▶ Internal validation study:  $(X, \widehat{W}, \mathbf{D})$ .
  - $\blacktriangleright$   $\widehat{W}$  denote error-prone exposures.
  - $ightharpoonup \widehat{W}_c$  is the category of  $\widehat{W}$  determined by policy.
  - X denote true exposures.
  - ▶ **C** denote potential confounders measured without error associated with the true exposure and outcome.
  - ▶ **D** denote covariates measured without error are predictive of the true exposure.

# RC: Assumptions

- 1. **Transportability:** need to assume that the relationship between *X* and *W* would be the same in locations where *X* is observed and in those that it is not.
- Non-differential measurement error: the conditional distribution of outcome Y given (W, X, D) depends only on (X, D).
- 3. Small measurement error:  $tr(\Sigma_{X|W,D})$  is small.

### **GPS**

- Follow framework described in [Yang et al., 2016, Imbens, 2000].
- GPS: the conditional probability of receiving each level of exposure given the confounders.
- ▶ Define  $GPS(\mathbf{x}) = (GPS_{x_1}, GPS_{x_2}, ..., GPS_{x_n});$

$$GPS_{x_i} = Pr(X_i = x_i | \mathbf{C_i} = \mathbf{c})$$

for every possible exposures  $x_i$  (i=1, 2,..., n).

▶ Attention: GPS is a vector! The individual  $GPS_{x_i}$  are called GPS elements.

### **GPS**

- ► [Yang et al., 2016, Imbens, 2000] propose to estimate the average of the potential outcomes separately for each exposure group.
  - Different from the binary exposure case, in which we construct groups based on similar propensity scores and compare observations within these groups.
  - Doing so is more challenging with multiple exposures.
    - Would require comparisons in groups constructed based on similar values of a vector of propensity scores.

# GPS; Notations and Assumptions

- ▶ Let  $X_i$  denote the exposure for individual i,  $X_i \in \mathbb{X}$ .
- Let  $Y_i(x)$  denote the potential outcome for an exposure x.
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ Let } Y_i^{obs} = Y_i(X_i).$
- ▶ Let  $I_i(x) = 1$  if  $X_i = x$  and 0 otherwise.
- Assumptions;
  - 1. SUTVA: X = x implies Y = Y(x).
  - 2. Overlap;  $P(x|\mathbf{c}) > 0$  for all  $x, \mathbf{c}$ .
  - 3. Weak Unconfoundedness;  $I_i(x) \perp \!\!\! \perp Y_i(x) | P(x|\mathbf{C}_i)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{X}$ .

# GPS; Average Causal Effects

Under weak unconfoundedness;

$$E[Y_i(x') - Y_i(x)] = E[E[Y_i^{obs} | X_i = x', P(x' | \mathbf{C}_i)]] - E[E[Y_i^{obs} | X_i = x, P(x | \mathbf{C}_i)]]$$

► For example, the average exposure effects with respect to two exposures, e.g. 1 and 2, can be expressed as,

$$E[Y(1) - Y(2)]$$
=  $E[Y(1)] - E[Y(2)]$   
=  $E[E[Y^{obs}|X = 1, GPS_1]] - E[E[Y^{obs}|X = 2, GPS_2]]$ 

- ▶ This allows us to estimate  $E[E[Y^{obs}|X=1,GPS_1]]$  and  $E[E[Y^{obs}|X=2,GPS_2]]$  separately.
- Consider three different GPS implementations; 1) subclassification, 2) IPTW, 3) matching.

## RC-GPS: ME Adj

#### Stage 1: Measurement Error Correction

1. Fit a RC model in the validation study. More specifically, fit  $E(X|W,\mathbf{D}) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 W + \gamma_2^T \mathbf{D}$  to obtain estimated  $\gamma$ , i.e.  $\hat{\gamma}$  in the validation study.

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- 2. Under the transportability assumption, estimate  $\hat{X} = \hat{\gamma_0} + \hat{\gamma_1}W + \hat{\gamma_2}^T\mathbf{D}$  in the main study.

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- 2. Under the transportability assumption, estimate  $\hat{X} = \hat{\gamma_0} + \hat{\gamma_1}W + \hat{\gamma_2}^T\mathbf{D}$  in the main study.
- 3. Based on pre-defined categories, transform  $\hat{X}$  into  $\hat{X}_c \in \mathbb{X}_c = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , a categorical variable.

# RC-GPS: Confounding Adj

Stage 2A: Design Phase with GPS

4. After obtaining  $\hat{X}_c$  in the main study: Estimate GPS using a GLM relating  $\hat{X}_c$  to  $\mathbf{C}$ .

# RC-GPS: Confounding Adj

### Stage 2A: Design Phase with GPS

4. After obtaining  $\hat{X}_c$  in the main study: Estimate GPS using a GLM relating  $\hat{X}_c$  to  ${\bf C}$ .

### Stage 2B: Analysis Phase with GPS

- 5. Estimate  $\hat{E}[Y(x)]$  for each exposure category  $x \in \mathbb{X}_c = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  after adjusting for confounding using GPS subclassfication, IPTW or matching methods.
- 6. Estimate the ATE as the contrast of  $\hat{E}[Y(x)]$  and  $\hat{E}[Y(x')]$  between any two exposure categories x, x'.
- 7. Estimate the variance of the ATE using bootstrap to jointly account for the variability in the estimation of RC parameters  $\gamma$ , GPS parameters  $\eta$ , and outcome model parameters  $\beta$ .

### Simulations

#### Simulation design:

- 1. Sample sizes; main study  $n_m = 2000$ , internal validation study  $n_v = 500$ . Conducted 1000 iterations.
- 2. Simulation strategy:

 $[W|C, \tau]$ ,  $[X|W, D, \gamma]$ ,  $[Y|X, C, \beta]$ , follow linear models.  $C = (C_1, C_2, ..., C_6)$ , which include a combination of continuous and categorical covariates.

 $\mathbf{D} = (D_1, D_2, D_3)$ , which are three continuous covariates.

- 3. Correlation between X and W: 0.82 (close to reality).
- 4. Correlations between X and  $\boldsymbol{C}$ :  $\approx 0.20$ .
- 5. Assume three exposure levels for X, W.
  - Choose cut-off points such that equal proportion of observations in each exposure level.
  - Cut-off points should be pre-specified.

### Simulation Results: Subclassification

Results based on GPS with subclassification, in which we classify subjects into ten subclasses by deciles based on each GPS element.

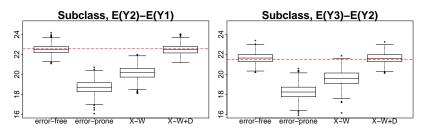
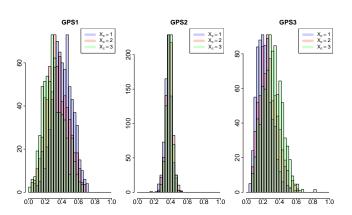


Figure: Subclassification: The red dashed line represents the true ATE.

Results based on GPS with IPTW and matching are similar.

# Simulation Results: Overlap

When correlation between X and C is not too high (<= 0.40 in absolute), there is good overlap. Otherwise, we use a technique called trimming to improve overlap [Crump et al., 2009].</p>



### Simulation Results: Covariate Balance

Covariate balance is evaluated via the absolute standardized bias (ASB) [Harder et al., 2010] across all confounders between subpopulations with  $X_c = x$  and subpopulations with  $X_c \neq x$ .

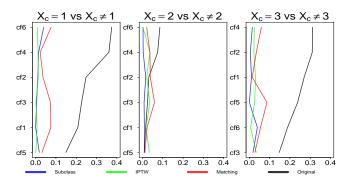


Figure: Absolute Standardized Bias (ASB). All three GPS implementations perform similarly and all improve confounder balance substantially.

# Data Application: Background



Figure: Locations of monitor stations in New England (in red). Zip code areas are drawn in blue.

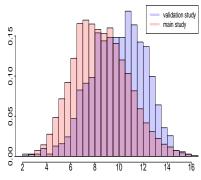


Figure: The distribution of annual mean predicted  $PM_{2.5}$  exposures in the main and the validation study across 13 years (2000-2012).

## Data Application: Main Results

Table: ATE of long-term  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure on mortality measured by incidence rate ratios (IRRs). Error-prone implements GPS approaches to adjust confounding based on error-prone exposures. RC-GPS is based on the proposed approach adjusting for measurement error by RC model and adjusting confounding using GPS approaches based on corrected exposures. All 95% confidence intervals were obtained by bootstrap.

Results for Exposure Levels PM $_{2.5} \leq$ 8 $\mu \mathrm{g/m^3}$ vs. 8 $<$ PM $_{2.5} \leq$ 10 $\mu \mathrm{g/m^3}$			
	ATE [95% CI]		
	Subclassification	IPTW	Matching
GPS, Error-prone	1.013 [0.999, 1.029]	1.031 [1.021, 1.042]	1.020 [1.004, 1.036]
RC-GPS	1.025 [1.006, 1.045]	1.022 [1.007, 1.038]	1.028 [1.012, 1.045]
Results for Exposure Levels PM $_{2.5} \leq$ 8 $\mu \mathrm{g/m^3}$ vs. PM $_{2.5} >$ 10 $\mu \mathrm{g/m^3}$			
	ATE [95% CI]		
	Subclassification	IPTW	Matching
GPS, Error-prone	1.015 [0.993, 1.037]	1.050 [1.032, 1.068]	1.018 [0.996, 1.040]
RC-GPS	1.035 [0.999, 1.072]	1.030 [1.005, 1.056]	1.035 [1.015, 1.055]

## Data Application: Covariate Balance

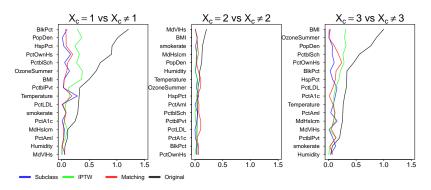


Figure: Absolute Standardized Bias (ASB). Each panel represents the absolute standardized differences for each confounders, between subpopulation with  $X_c = x$  and subpopulation with  $X_c \neq x$  in original data (black) and after GPS implementations (colored). All three GPS implementations improve the covariates balances for most of confounders.

#### Conclusions

- We develop an innovative approach to adjust for measurement error in causal inference setting.
  - Account for confounding using GPS.
- In simulations, we are able to fully adjust for the measurement error.
- ▶ In data application, we can detect causal effects of long-term exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub> on all-cause mortality.
- Working on extending method to outcome analysis with continuous exposure.
  - Use continuous version of GPS.
  - Answer different policy question.
- ▶ Plan to control covariate balance using optimization methods.

### Code

- Code to create the data set and implement the analysis described in the paper is available at: https://github.com/wxwx1993/RC-GPS
- ▶ Data files used to conduct the analysis are available on RCE: /shared\_space/ci3\_nsaph/XiaoWu/RC\_GPS

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### **GPS** Subclassification

- Consider classifying individuals into k groups based on each GPS element.
- ▶ To estimate  $E[Y_j(x)]$ :
  - 1. Estimate the average value of  $Y_i(x)$  in subclass k.

$$\hat{\mu}_{k,x} = \frac{1}{N_{k,x}} \sum_{j: q_{x,k-1}^{p(x|c)} \le p(x|\mathbf{C}_j) < q_{x,k}^{p(x|c)}, X_j = x} Y_j^{obs}$$

where  $q_{x,k}^{p(x|c)}$  is the value of  $GPS_x$  in k-th quantile.

2. Estimate overall average:

$$\hat{E}[Y_j(x)] = \hat{E}\left[E[Y_j^{obs}|X_{c,j} = x, p(x|\mathbf{C}_j)]\right]$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{N_k}{N} \hat{\mu}_{k,x}$$

where  $N_k$  is the number of individuals with the x-th GPS element falling into the interval  $[q_{x,k-1}^{p(x|c)}, q_{x,k}^{p(x|c)})$ .

### **GPS IPTW**

- Similar to IPTW on PS, use inverse of GPS to weigh observations [Imbens, 2000].
- ► The average exposure effects with respect to the different level of exposures, can be expressed as,

$$\hat{E}[Y_j(x)] = \hat{E}\left[\frac{Y_j^{obs}I_j(x)}{p(x|\mathbf{C}_j)}\right].$$

# **GPS Matching**

Define a matching function [Yang et al., 2016];

$$m_{gps}(x, p) = argmin_{j:X_j=x}||p(x|\mathbf{C}_j) - p||.$$

- ▶ Match individuals with  $X_j = x$  based on  $p(x|\mathbf{C}_j)$ .
- ▶ That is, for an exposure x and for each element  $p \in GPS_x$ , we find the jth observation which minimizes the matching function.
- ▶ This *j*th observation has  $X_j = x$  and is matched based on  $p(x|C_j)$ .
- ▶ Impute  $Y_i(x)$  as:  $\hat{Y}_i(x) = Y_{m_{gps}(x,p(x|\mathbf{C}_i))}^{obs}$ .
- ▶ The overall average of  $Y_j(x)$  can be expressed as;

$$\hat{E}[Y_j(x)] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} Y_{m_{gps(x,p(x|C_i))}}^{obs}.$$