Recent advances in non-experimental comparison group designs

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Funding thanks to IES R305D150001

September 23, 2016

- When do comparison group designs "work" (i.e., give accurate effect estimates)?
- 3 Moving from "art" to "science"
- 4 Sensitivity analysis to unobserved confounding

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- Randomized experiments often seen as the gold standard for estimating causal effects (for good reason)
- But some important causal questions can only be answered using non-experimental studies
 - e.g., interventions or risk factors it would be unethical to randomize (child maltreatment, drug use)
 - e.g., not feasible to randomize because intervention widely available (books in the home, online reading program)
 - e.g., can't wait that long to collect outcome data (long term effects of Head Start)
 - e.g., worried that people who participate may not represent the target population (medical trials conducted only in academic medical centers, school-based studies conducted primarily in large districts)

- Individuals who select one treatment, or who are exposed to some risk factor of interest, likely different from those who don't
 - "Confounding"
 - Hard to separate out differences in outcomes due to these other confounders, vs. due to the treatment of interest

Instrumental variables

- Requires finding an "instrument" that affects the "treatment" received but does not directly affect the outcome
- Randomized encouragement designs are one (sometimes feasible) type
- Otherwise have to hope for some naturally occurring instrument (e.g., charter school lotteries)
- Regression discontinuity
 - Requires that treatment administered in a way that used a discontinuity; e.g., students with scores below a threshold got the intervention
- Interrupted time series
 - Useful for interventions implemented at a particular point in time for a particular group (e.g., policy changes), with longitudinal measures before and after
 - *Comparative* interrupted time series better than simple ITS, and then many of the same issues we will talk about here still come up

Comparison group designs as a feasible option

- Comparison groups often one of the most feasible designs
- Main idea: have data on people who got some treatment of interest, find a comparison group of individuals who are similar but did not receive the treatment
- Main strategy: try to ensure that the treatment and comparison groups are as similar as possible on a large set of baseline characteristics
 - Traditionally may have just used regression adjustment to "control for" any differences
 - However, this can lead to model dependence and concerns about model misspecification if the groups are quite different
 - So a large literature has built up that aims to use design to equate the groups before subsequent regression adjustment
 - Propensity scores are one key tool in this design as they help create groups that look similar on a potentially large set of baseline characteristics
 - Big picture common strategies: matching, weighting, subclassification

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• Will not provide a general history and introduction to these methods

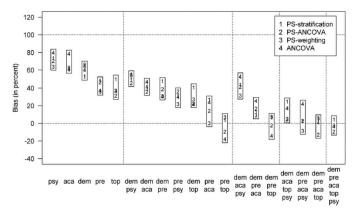
- Fundamentally, think about them as ways to make treatment and comparison groups "look like" they could have come from a randomized trial
- (Large literature on the benefits of "emulating" a randomized trial)
- Focus on 3 particular recent advances in this field:
 - Evidence on when comparison group designs "work"
 - 2 Moving these designs to more "science" than "art"
 - Importance of sensitivity analysis to unobserved confounders
- Will also focus on point in time treatments today; more complex settings (e.g., longitudinal treatments) require generalization of these ideas; fundamentals stay the same though

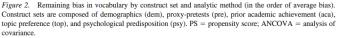
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- Key assumption: "unconfounded treatment assignment"
 - No unmeasured confounders: no unobserved differences between treatment and comparison groups, once we have balanced the groups on the observed characteristics
 - Also called "no hidden bias" or "ignorable treatment assignment"
- Also requires assumption that everyone in the study had a non-zero chance of getting treatment or control ("common support")
 - e.g., explicitly exclude people not eligible for the treatment
- So how do we make these assumptions more plausible?

- Increasing evidence that what matters is what covariates are included, not exactly how the matching/equating is done
- Including a large set of covariates, in particular those related to treatment assignment and outcomes, makes unconfoundedness more likely to be satisfied
- Careful design crucial: what are the important confounders, and do we (or can we) measure them?
- Steiner, Cook, Shadish, and Clark (2010; Psych Methods); Cook, Shadish, and Wong (2008; JPAM); Steiner, Cook, Li, and Clark (2015; JREE)

Figure 2 from Steiner et al. (2010)





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- Think carefully about comparison group selection ("clever design")
- Use a large set of variables (not just demographics; also include, e.g., pretest measures of the outcome)
- Select comparison group carefully (e.g., from same geographic area)
- Measure variables in same ways across treatment and comparison groups
- (Using large national datasets usually not as effective)
- Have good understanding of the treatment selection process (importance of the assignment mechanism!)
- Have large sample sizes in the comparison groups: easier to get good balance
- (Also should not adjust for/match on post-treatment variables)

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Sensitivity analysis to unobserved confounding

- Traditionally the use of methods such as propensity scores has involved a fair amount of "art"
- Goal: create groups that look similar on the observed covariates (covariate "balance")
- To get there, try different estimation techniques, equating methods, interaction terms, etc., and pick the one that gives the best covariate balance
- New methods aim to remove some of this iteration, in two ways:
 - Get balance on the covariates themselves directly (not necessarily using the propensity score)
 - Estimate and use the propensity score in an automated way to get good balance

- Some methods aim to directly balance the covariates, not "through" the propensity score
- Coarsened exact matching (CEM; King et al.; cem R package): http://gking.harvard.edu/cem
 - Essentially, exact matching on coarsened (categorized) covariates
 - Trade off between number of matches and closeness of matching
 - Works well for easily categorized variables (like high school degree or not); less clear for truly continuous ones (like age)
- Mixed integer programming and "fine balance" (Zubizarreta, 2012; mismatch R package)
 - Sort of like exact matching on a few variables
 - But instead of getting individual-level exact matches, matches the distributions exactly across the matched samples

After matching	
No. exposed (n = 2,520)	No. controls (n = 2,520)
831	831
1,689	1,689
195	195
412	412
561	561
474	474
406	406
472	472
210	210
2,310	2,310
	No. exposed (n = 2,520) 831 1,689 195 412 561 474 406 472 210

 TABLE 2.
 Distributions of Sex, Age, Self-Rated Health, and

 Housing Quality Before the Earthquake

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Image: A matrix of the second seco

More automated propensity score methods

- Other methods aim to automate the propensity score estimation itself, to estimate the propensity score in a way that optimizes balance
- Most popular: Covariate Balancing Propensity Score (CBPS; Imai and Ratkovic): http://imai.princeton.edu/research/CBPS.html
 - Doesn't simply maximize the likelihood; also has a balance constraint that it jointly maximizes
 - Benefit of this is that it maintains the nice theoretical properties of the propensity score, but also more directly targets balance
- Genetic matching (Sekhon et al.) another version of this
- One drawback: many of these optimize a particular balance measure and may not optimize others
 - Need more work to determine the best balance measures to optimize

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- Sensitivity analyses can be done to assess how sensitive results are to an unobserved confounder
- Ask the question: How strongly related to treatment assignment and outcome would such a factor have to be in order to change study conclusions?
- Based originally on analysis by Cornfield showing that association between smoking and lung cancer most likely actually causal
- Methods now extended by Rosenbaum, VanderWeele, others

Example: Effects of psychosocial therapy on repeat suicide attempts

- Erlangsen et al. (2014) used Danish registry data to estimate effect of suicide prevention centers on
- Concern that there may be an unobserved variable related to participation and outcomes
- Sensitivity analysis can assess how strong such an unobserved variable would have to be to change study conclusions
 - Used approach by VanderWeele and Arah (see Liu et al., 2013)
- For one of the weaker effects (repeated self-harm after 20 years) a binary unobserved confounder with prevalence 0.5 would have to have a 1.8-fold association with participation in the program and a two-fold association with the outcome in order to explain the results

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- 5 Conclusions

Strengths and limitations of non-experimental comparison group designs

Strengths

- Often feasible
- Relatively easy to describe and understand
- Idea of replicating a randomized trial: no use of outcome data in setting up the design
- Limitations
 - Relies on having high-quality data
 - Common measures across treatment and control groups, and important confounders measured
 - Helps to have a good understanding of the treatment selection process, which is rare (opportunity for combining qualitative and quantitative work??)

- Many research questions require non-experimental designs
- When using non-experimental comparison group designs clever design helps
- General lessons:
 - Measure as many confounders as possible; try to have an understanding of the treatment selection process
 - Try to get as good covariate balance on the observed covariates as possible
 - Assess sensitivity to key assumption of no unmeasured confounders
- Also lots of complications and extensions: multiple treatment levels, time-varying treatments, missing outcomes, ...



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"With better data, fewer assumptions are needed."

- Rubin (2005, p. 324)

"You can't fix by analysis what you bungled by design." - Light, Singer and Willett (1990, p. v)

- Online class at JHSPH: 140.664 ("Causal inference in medicine and public health")
- One-day short course on propensity scores in JHSPH summer institute (in-person and online!): http://www.jhsph.edu/departments/mental-health/summer-institute/courses.html
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