

Targeted Learning for High-Dimensional Variable Importance

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"Statistical Causal Inference and its Applications to Genetics"

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Statistical Roadmap
- 3 Causal Inference
- 4 Statistical Model and SuperLearning
- 5 TMLE
- 6 LIMMA
- 7 Data Analysis

GLUE Study - Trauma Genomics



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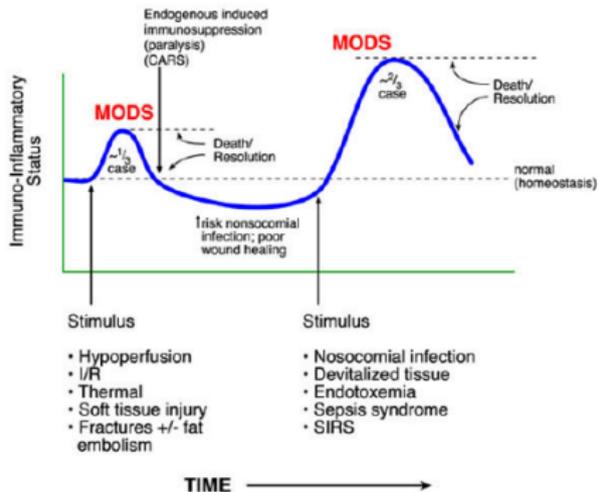
J Trauma Acute Care Surg. 2015 April ; 78(4): 671–686. doi:10.1097/TA.0000000000000568.

Genomics of Injury: The Glue Grant Experience

Ronald G. Tompkins, MD, ScD

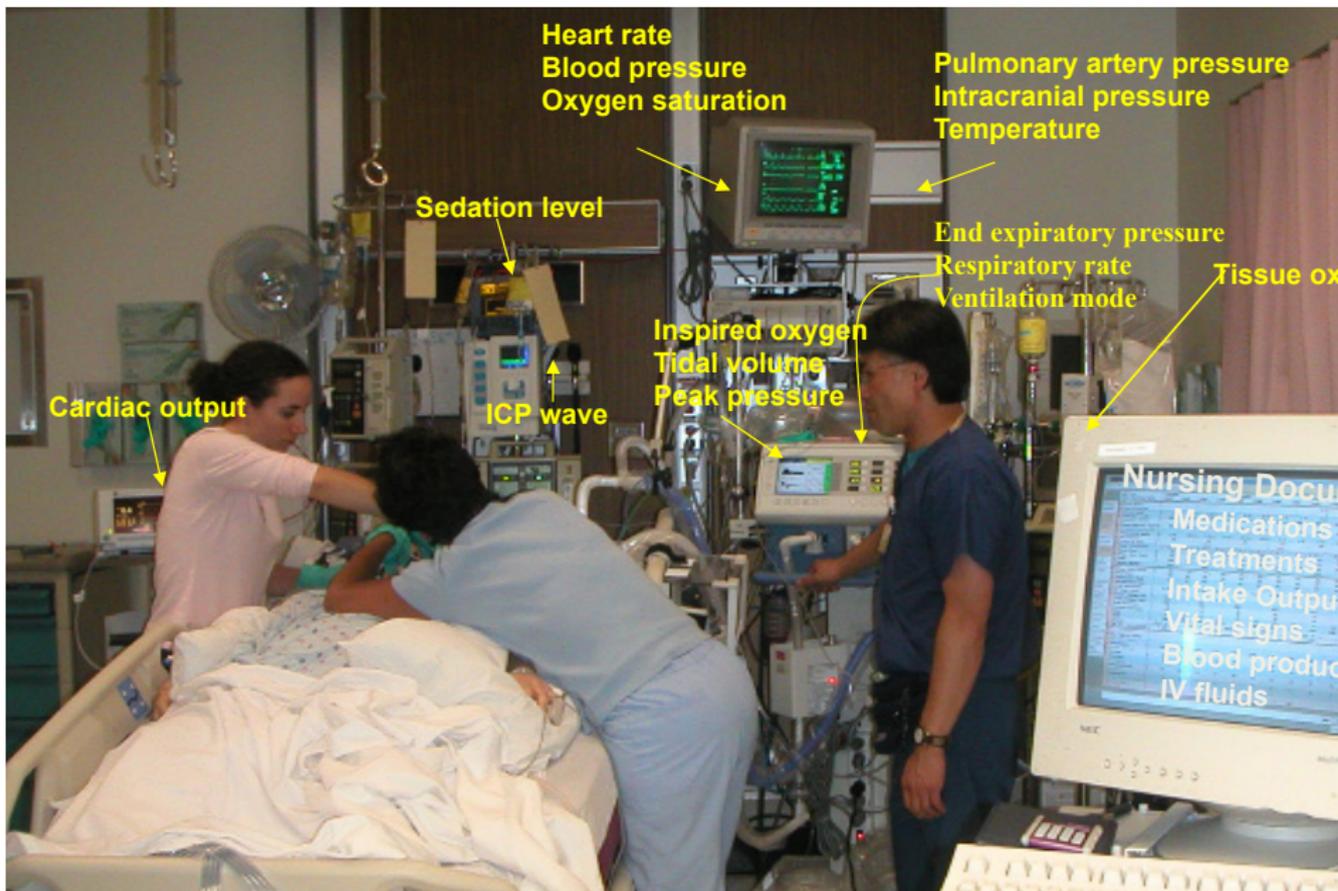
Department of Surgery, Harvard Medical School and Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA

- Study of the mechanisms underlying inflammation, coagulation, and host response to injury (Tompkins 2015).
- Data used were a subset of the GLUE cohort ($n = 167$), who had gene expression measured (Affy U133 plus 2) in WBC's measured (if possible) within 12 hours, and at 1,4,7 14 and 28 days.



- Interested in how expression at various times is related to outcomes (such multiple organ failure; MOF) afterwards.
- So, parameter like $\Psi(P)(t) = E(Y_{ahi}(t) - Y_{alow}(t))$

Both Expression and Clinical Measurements on Patients



Use a combination of causal inference to motivate estimand, and

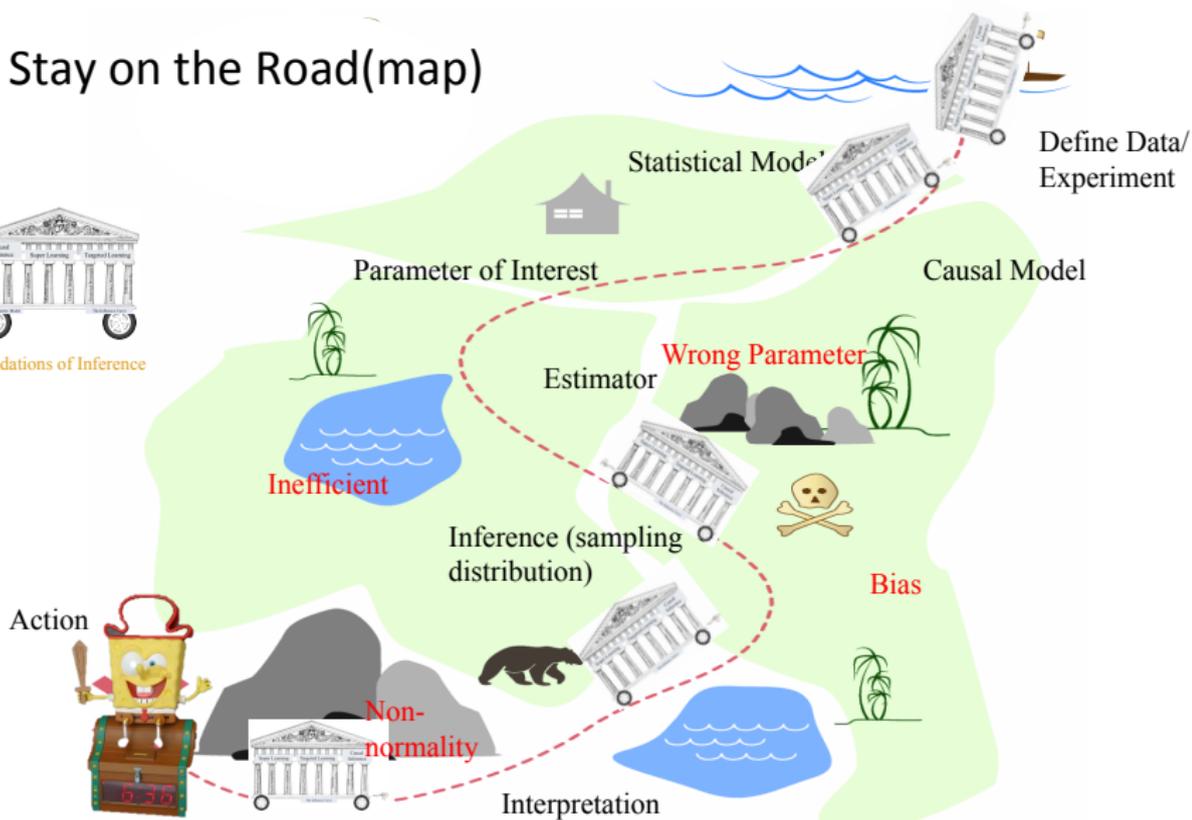
- SuperLearning (van der Laan et al. 2007),
- TMLE (van der Laan and Rose 2011),
- LIMMA (Smyth 2004),

to produce joint inference on variable importance adjusting for other covariates.

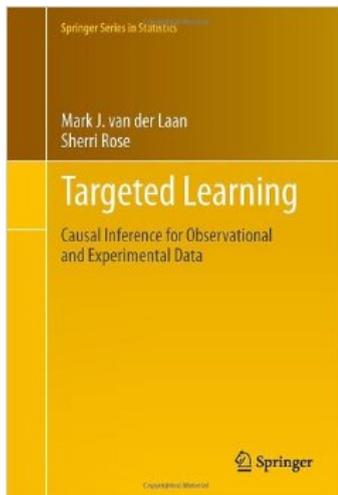
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Stay on the Road(map)

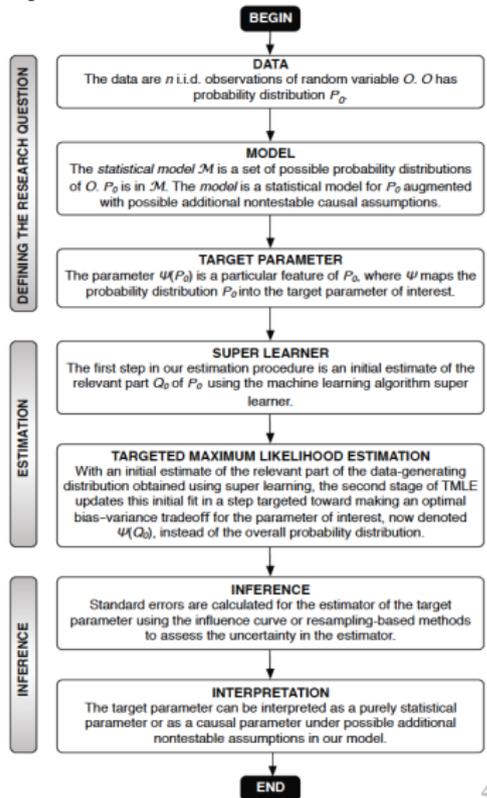


Roadmap



- Design
- Science
- Causal Model
- Identifiability
- Cross-validation
- Oracle Inequality
- Efficiency Theory
- Pathwise Differentiability
- Empirical Processes

The Influence Curve



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SCM for Point Treatment

- $X = \{W, A, Y\}$
- Errors: $U = (U_W, U_A, U_Y)$
- Structural Equations (nature):
 - $W = f_W(U_W)$
 - $A = f_A(W, U_A)$
 - $Y = f_Y(W, A, U_Y)$

Distribution of (U, X) generated by:

- 1 Draw U from P_U
- 2 Generate W via f_W with input U_W .
- 3 Generate A via f_A with inputs (W, U_A)
- 4 Generate Y via f_Y with inputs (W, A, U_Y)

Estimand as variable importance measure

- Let's say, keeping the above tentative causal model, we have the equality (skipping identifiability steps):

$$\Psi(P_X) = E(Y_{a_1} - Y_{a_0}) \stackrel{\text{assumptions}}{=}$$

$$E_{0,W}\{E_0(Y | A = a_1, W) - E_0(Y | A = a_0, W)\} = \Psi(P_0)$$

for discrete A with chosen comparison levels (a_0, a_1) .

- Now, generalize the data above to situation with $O = (W, A, Y)$, where A is vector of biomarkers: $A = (A_1, \dots, A_g, \dots, A_G)$.
- Assume estimating $\Psi_g(P_0)$ corresponding to each of the $A_g, g = 1, \dots, G$.
- Estimator based on original work by Robins and Rotnitzky (1992).
- Like Chambaz et al. (2012), Ritter et al. (2014), van der Laan (2006), etc., we propose using estimands motivated by causal inference for variable importance measures in high-dimensional contexts.

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Loss-Based Estimation

- In our example, we wish to estimate: $Q_0 = E_0(Y | A, W)$.
- Before we can choose a “best” algorithm to estimate this regression function, we must have a way to define what “best” means, made explicit by **loss function**.
- Data structure: $O = (W, A, Y) \sim P_0$
 - distribution P_n which places probability $1/n$ on each observed O_i , $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- “Best” algorithm defined in terms of a loss function (for candidate function Q when applied to an observation O).

$$L : (O, Q) \rightarrow L(O, Q) \in \mathbb{R}.$$

- It is a function of the random variable O and parameter value Q .
- Example: L_2 squared error (or quadratic) loss function:

$$L(O, Q) = (Y - Q(A, W))^2.$$

Loss Defines Parameter of Interest

- We define our parameter of interest, $\bar{Q}_0 = E_0(Y | A, W)$, as the minimizer of the expected squared error loss:

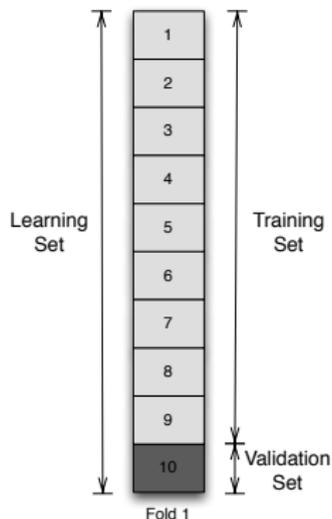
$$\bar{Q}_0 = \arg \min_{\bar{Q}} E_0 L(O, \bar{Q}),$$

where $L(O, \bar{Q}) = (Y - \bar{Q}(A, W))^2$.

- $E_0 L(O, \bar{Q})$ (the risk), is minimized at the optimal choice of \bar{Q}_0 .

Unbiased Estimate of Risk: Cross-Validation

- V-fold cross-validation: partition the sample of n observations O_1, \dots, O_n in training and corresponding validation sets.
- Cross-validation is used to select our “best” algorithm among a library.
- In addition, we also use cross-validation to evaluate the overall performance of the super learner itself.



- In V -fold cross-validation, our observed data O_1, \dots, O_n is referred to as the learning set.

- Estimate our parameter of interest by partitioning into V sets of size $\approx \frac{n}{V}$.
- For any given fold, $V - 1$ sets will comprise the training set and the remaining 1 set is the validation set.
- The observations in the training set are used to construct (or train) the candidate estimators.
- The observations in the validation set are used to assess the performance (i.e., risk) of the candidate algorithms.

Cross-Validation

1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Fold 1	Fold 2	Fold 3	Fold 4	Fold 5	Fold 6	Fold 7	Fold 8	Fold 9	Fold 10

The validation set rotates V times such that each set is used as the validation set once.

Discrete Super Learner

Suppose a researcher is interested in using three different parametric statistical models to estimate $E_0(Y | A, W)$.

We can use these algorithms to build a library of algorithms and select the one with the smallest (honest) cross-validated risk.

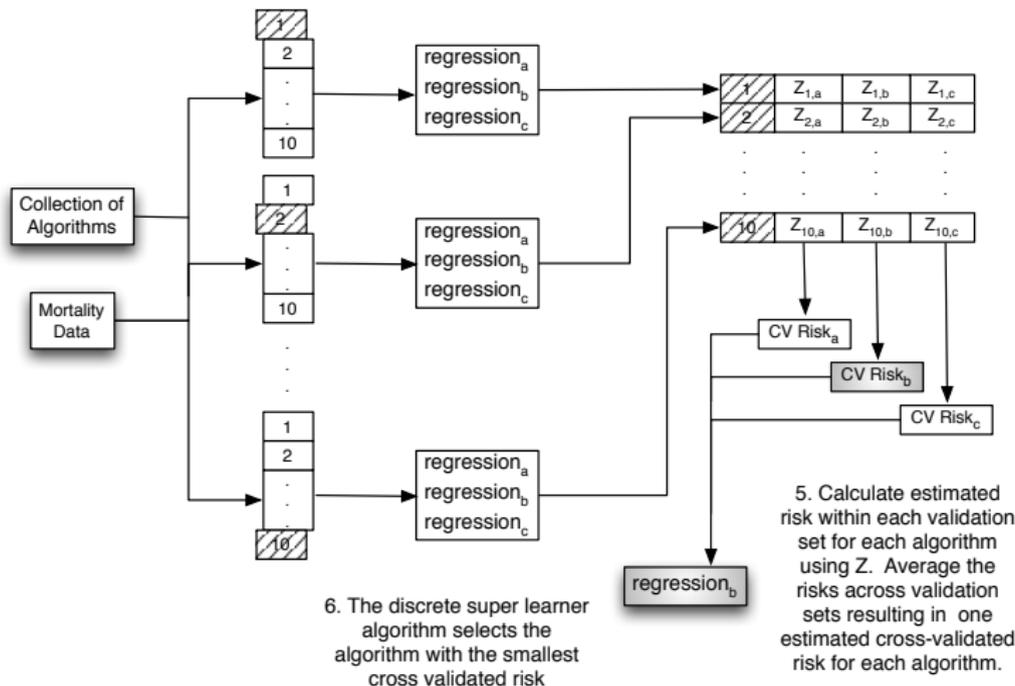
Discrete Super Learner

1. Input data and a collection of algorithms.

2. Split data into 10 blocks.

3. Fit each of the 3 algorithms on the training set (non-shaded blocks).

4. Predict the estimated probabilities of death (Z) using the validation set (shaded block) for each algorithm, based on the corresponding training set fit.



Oracle Properties

- Assume K algorithms in the library of algorithms.
- The oracle selector chooses the algorithm with the smallest risk under true data-generating distribution, P_0 .
- However, the oracle selector is unknown since it depends on both the observed data and P_0 .
- Oracle Inequality (van der Laan et al. (2004)) suggests discrete super learner performs as well as the oracle selector, up to a second order term.
- The loss function must be bounded, and then we will perform as well as the algorithm that is the risk minimizer of the expected loss function.
- The number of algorithms, K , in the library can grow with sample size.

Ensemble Super Learner - Wisdom of the Crowd (van der Laan, Polley, and Hubbard; 2007)

Stacking algorithm that takes multiple algorithms as inputs can outperform a single algorithm in realistic non-parametric and semi-parametric statistical models.

- Define parameter of interest, $\bar{Q}_0 = E_0(Y | A, W)$, as the minimizer of the expected squared error loss:

$$\bar{Q}_0 = \arg \min_{\bar{Q}} E_0 L(O, \bar{Q}),$$

where $L(O, \bar{Q}) = (Y - \bar{Q}(A, W))^2$.

- $E_0 L(O, \bar{Q})$ (risk), evaluates the candidate \bar{Q} , and it is minimized at the optimal choice of \bar{Q}_0 .

Super Learner: How it works

- Provides a family of weighted combinations of the algorithms in the library of learners, indexed by the weight vector α .
- The family of weighted combinations includes only those α -vectors that have a sum equal to one, and where each weight is positive or zero.
- Example for binary outcome:

$$P_n(Y = 1 | Z) = \text{expit}(\alpha_{a,n}Z_a + \alpha_{b,n}Z_b + \dots + \alpha_{p,n}Z_p)$$

where Z are the candidate learner predictions.

- The (cross-validated) probabilities of death (Z) for each algorithm are used as inputs in a working (statistical) model to predict the outcome Y .
- Deriving weights: formulated as a regression of the outcomes Y on the predicted values of the algorithms (Z).

Ensemble Super Learner: How well it works

The super learner improves asymptotically on the discrete super learner by **working with a larger library**.

- Asymptotic results: in realistic scenarios (where none of the algorithms are a correctly specified parametric model), the discrete super learner **performs asymptotically as well as the *oracle***.
- When collection of algorithms contains correctly specified parametric statistical model, the super learner will approximate the truth as fast as the parametric statistical model, although it will be more variable.

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- A maximum likelihood estimator for a parametric statistical model $\{p_\theta : \theta\}$ is defined as a maximizer over all densities in the parametric statistical model of the empirical mean of the log density:

$$\theta_n = \arg \max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p_\theta(O_i).$$

- This discussion can be equally applied to the case where $L(p)(O)$ is replaced by any other loss function $L(Q)$ for a relevant part Q_0 of p_0 , satisfying that $E_0 L(Q_0)(O) \leq E_0 L(Q)(O)$ for each possible Q .

MLE - Substitution Estimator

$\Psi(P_0)$ for the causal risk difference can be written as the g-formula:

$$\Psi(P_0) = \sum_w \left[\sum_y y P_0(Y = y \mid A = a_h, W = w) - \sum_y y P_0(Y = y \mid A = a_l, W = w) \right] P_0(W = w),$$

where

$$P_0(Y = y \mid A = a, W = w) = \frac{P_0(W = w, A = a, Y = y)}{\sum_y P_0(W = w, A = a, Y = y)}$$

is the conditional probability distribution of $Y = y$, given $A = a$, $W = w$, and

$$P_0(W = w) = \sum_{y,a} P_0(W = w, A = a, Y = y).$$

- Maximum-likelihood-based substitution estimators of the g-formula are obtained by substitution of a maximum-likelihood-based estimator of Q_0 into the parameter mapping $\Psi(Q_0)$.
- The marginal distribution of W can be estimated with the nonparametric maximum likelihood estimator, which happens to be the empirical distribution that puts mass $1/n$ on each W_i :
 $i = 1, \dots, n$.

$$\psi_n = \Psi(Q_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{ \bar{Q}_n(1, W_i) - \bar{Q}_n(0, W_i) \},$$

where this estimate is obtained by plugging in $Q_n = (\bar{Q}_n, Q_{W,n})$ into the mapping Ψ .

- **MLE using regression in a parametric working model.** $\bar{Q}_0(A, W)$ is estimated using regression in a parametric working (statistical) model and plugged into the formula given previously.
- **ML-based super learning.** Estimate \bar{Q}_0 with the super learner, in which the collection of estimators may include stratified maximum likelihood estimators, maximum likelihood estimators based on dimension reductions implied by the propensity score, and maximum likelihood estimators based on parametric working models, beyond many other machine learning algorithms for estimation of \bar{Q}_0 .

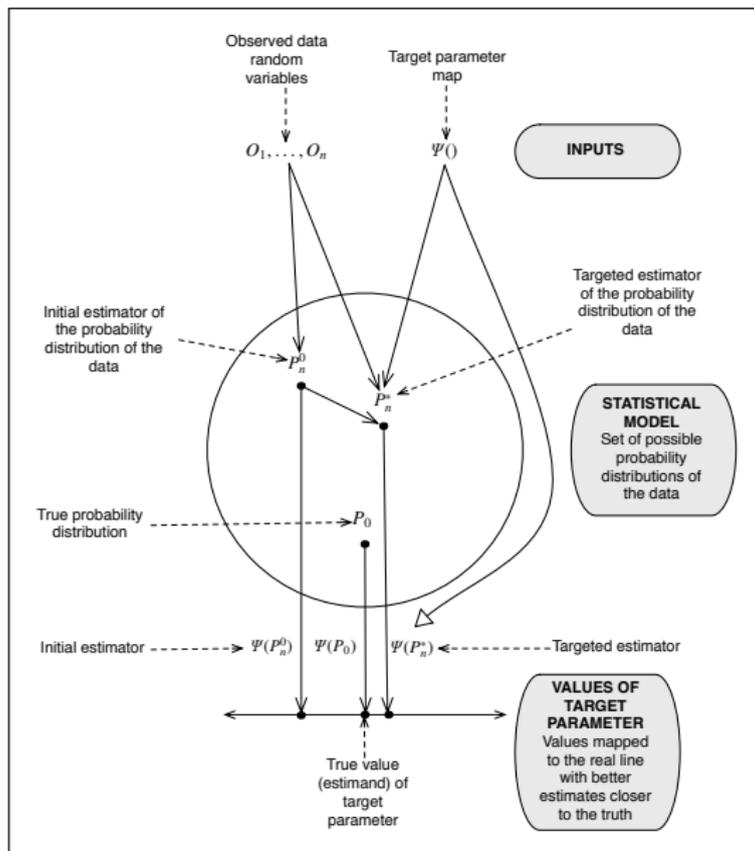
TMLE: Targeted Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- TMLE (van der Laan and Rubin 2006) Produces a well-defined, unbiased, efficient substitution estimator of target parameters of a data-generating distribution.
- It is generally an iterative procedure (though there is now a general one-step; van der Laan and Gruber (2016)) that updates an initial (super learner) estimate of the relevant part Q_0 of the data generating distribution P_0 , possibly using an estimate of a nuisance parameter g_0 .
- Like corresponding A-IPTW estimators (Robins and Rotnitzky 1992), removes asymptotic residual bias of initial estimator for the target parameter, if it uses a consistent estimator of g_0 , thus *Doubly Robust*.
- If initial estimator was consistent for the target parameter, the additional fitting of the data in the targeting step may remove finite sample bias, and preserves consistency property of the initial estimator.

TMLE and Machine Learning

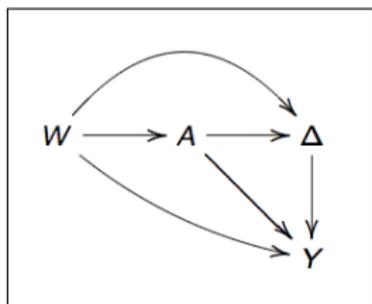
- Natural use of machine learning methods for the estimation of both Q_0 and g_0 .
- Focuses effort to achieve minimal bias and asymptotic semi-parametric efficiency bound for the variance, but still get inference (with some assumptions).

TMLE Algorithm



Example: TMLE for the Average Causal Effect

NPSEM/SCM for a point treatment data structure with missing outcome



$$\begin{aligned}W &= f_W(U_W), \\A &= f_A(W, U_A), \\ \Delta &= f_A(W, A, U_\Delta), \\Y &= f_Y(W, A, \Delta, U_Y).\end{aligned}$$

We can now define counterfactuals $Y_{1,1}$ and $Y_{0,1}$ corresponding with interventions setting A and Δ .

The additive causal effect $EY_1 - EY_0$ equals:

$$\Psi(P) = E[E(Y | A = 1, \Delta = 1, W) - E(Y | A = 0, \Delta = 1, W)]$$

Example: TMLE for "Causal" Risk Difference:

$$E_{0,W}\{E_0(Y | A = a_h, W) - E_0(Y | A = a_l, W)\}$$

- Generate an initial estimator of P_n^0 of P ; we estimate $E(Y | A, \Delta = 1, W)$.
- Fluctuate this initial estimator with a logistic regression:

$$\text{logit}P_n^0(\epsilon)(Y = 1 | A, \Delta = 1, W) = \text{logit}P_n^0(Y = 1 | A, \Delta = 1, W) + \epsilon h$$

where

$$h(A, W) = \frac{1}{\Pi(A, W)} \left(\frac{I(A = a_h)}{g(a_h | W)} - \frac{I(A = a_l)}{g(a_l | W)} \right)$$

and

$g(a | W) = P(A = a | W)$ Treatment Mechanism

$\Pi(A, W) = P(\Delta = 1 | A, W)$ Missingness Mechanism.

TMLE for risk difference (cont.)

- Let ϵ_n be the maximum likelihood estimator and

$$P_n^* = P_n^0(\epsilon_n).$$

- The TMLE is given by $\Psi(P_n^*)$.
- Specifically in the case of the risk difference:

$$\text{logit } \bar{Q}_n^1(A, W) = \text{logit } \bar{Q}_n^0(A, W) + \epsilon_n H_n^*(A, W).$$

- This parametric working model incorporated information from g_n , through $H_n^*(A, W)$, into an updated regression.

Inference (Standard errors) via Influence Curve (IC)

- influence curve for estimator is:

$$IC_n(O_i) = \left(\frac{I(A_i = a_h)}{g_n(a_h | W_i)} - \frac{I(A_i = a_l)}{g_n(a_l | W_i)} \right) (Y - \bar{Q}_n^1(A_i, W_i)) \\ + \bar{Q}_n^1(a_h, W_i) - \bar{Q}_n^1(a_l, W_i) - \psi_{TMLE,n}$$

- Sample variance of the estimated influence curve:

$$S^2(IC_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (IC_n(o_i))^2.$$

- Use sample variance to estimate the standard error of our estimator:

$$SE_n = \sqrt{\frac{S^2(IC_n)}{n}}.$$

- Use this to derive uncertainty measures (p-values, confidence intervals, etc.).

Repeating Estimates of Variable Importance one biomarker at a time

- Consider this is repeated for $j = 1, \dots, J$ different biomarkers, so that one has, for each j :

$$\Psi_j(Q_{j,n}^*), S_j^2(IC_{j,n})$$

or estimate of variable importance and standard error for all J .

- Propose an existing joint-inferential procedure that can add some finite-sample robustness to an estimator that can be highly variable.

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- Thus, one can define a standard t-test statistic for a general (asymptotically linear) parameter estimate (over $j = 1, \dots, J$) as:

$$t_j = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\Psi_j(P_n) - \psi_0)}{S_j(IC_{j,n})}$$

- Consider the moderated t-statistic proposed by Smyth (2005):

$$\tilde{t}_j = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\Psi_j(P_n) - \psi_0)}{\tilde{S}_j^2}$$

where the posterior estimate of the variance of the influence curve is

$$\tilde{S}_j^2 = \frac{d_0 S_0^2 + d_j S_j^2(IC_{j,n})}{d_0 + d_j}$$

Implement for Any Asymptotically Linear Parameter

- Treat like one-sample problem estimate of parameter with associated SE from IC.
- Just need to get estimate for each j as well as the plug-in IC for every observation for that j and repeat for all j .
- Transform data original $J \times n$ matrix where new entries are:

$$Y_{j,i}^* = IC_{j,n}(O_i; P_n) + \Psi_j(P_n)$$

- Since the average of the $IC_{j,n}$ across the columns (units) for a single j will be 0, the average of this transform will be the original estimate $\Psi_j(P_n)$.
- For simplicity assume the null value is $\psi_0 = 0$ for all j . Then, running *limma* package on this transform, $Y_{j,i}^*$, will generate multiple testing corrections based on presented above for \tilde{t}_j .

Why LIMMA approach in this context?

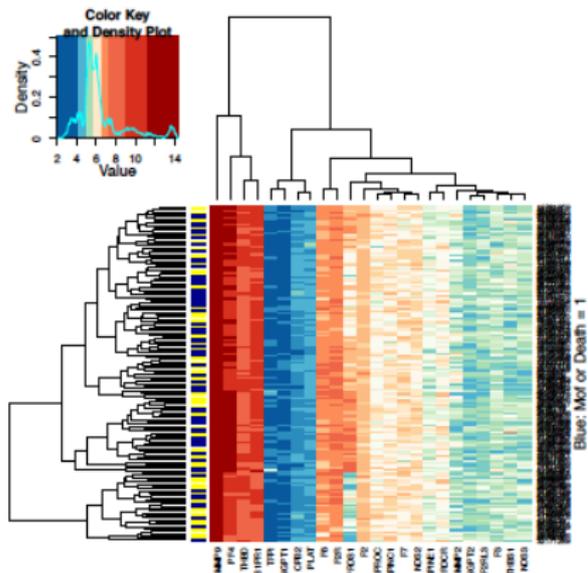
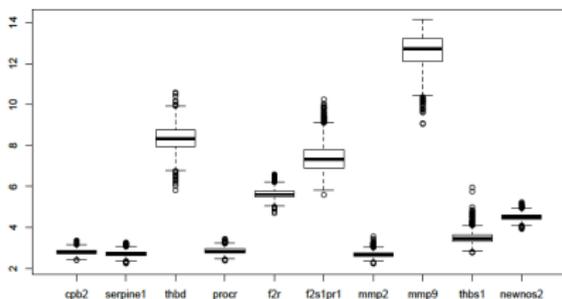
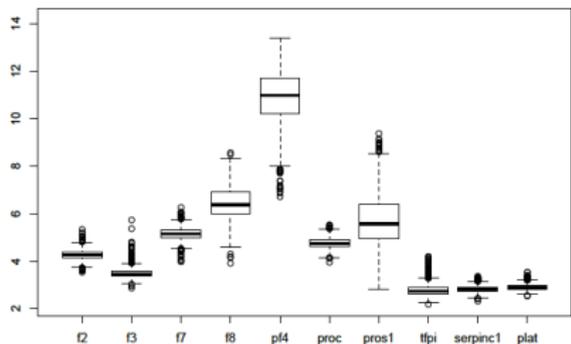
- Often times these analyses based on relatively small samples.
- want data-adaptive estimate but at least with standard implementation of these estimates (estimation equation, substitution,...), the SE's can be non-robust.
- practically, one can get "significant" estimates of variable importance measures that are driven by poorly and underestimated $S_j^2(IC_{j,n})$.
- LIMMA shrinks these $S_j^2(IC_{j,n})$ by making them bigger and thus takes biomarkers with small parameter estimates but very small $S_j^2(IC_{j,n})$ out of statistical significance.
- Also, just seems to work very well...

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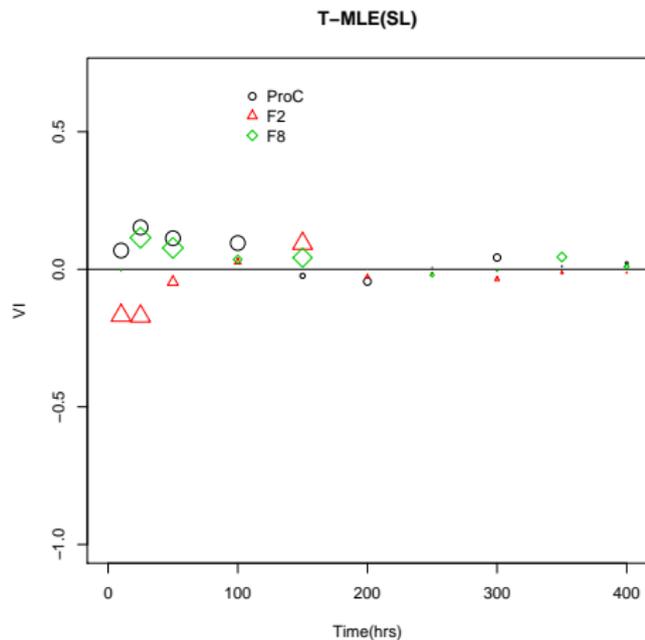
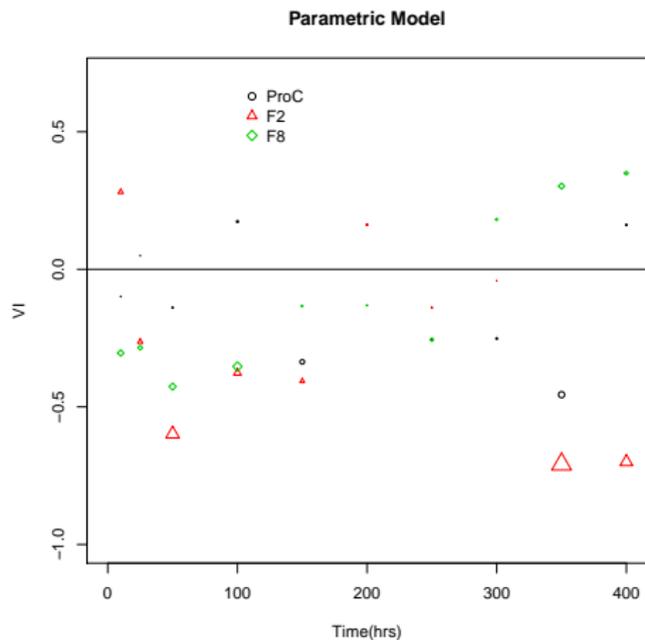
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- **Goal:** Ascertain relative variable importance based on estimand for adjusted risk difference discussed above.
- Because expression generally fairly low, and wanted to discretize expression, used a cut-off that separated (roughly) some expression from background.
- Though there are thousands of expression values, just focus on a few genes known to be involved in coagulation.

GLUE Study Expression Data - coagulation pathway genes



Substitution based on Simple Parametric Model vs. SL



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