

---

# Conditional differential measurement error: partial identifiability and estimation

---

**Pengrun Huang**

Mathematics Department  
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor  
hpengrun@umich.edu

**Maggie Makar**

Division of Computer Science and Engineering  
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor  
mmakar@umich.edu

## Abstract

Differential measurement error, which occurs when the error in the measured outcome is correlated with the treatment renders the causal effect unidentifiable from observational data. In this work, we study conditional differential measurement error, where a subgroup of the population is known to be prone to differential measurement error. Under an assumption about the direction (but not magnitude) of the measurement error, we derive sharp bounds on the conditional average treatment effect, and present an approach to estimate them. We empirically validate our approach on semi-synthetic data, showing that it gives more credible and informative bounds than other approaches. In addition, we implement our approach on real data, showing its utility in guiding decisions about dietary modification intervals to improve nutritional intake.

## 1 Introduction

One of the promises of estimating individual level causal effects of an intervention is that it can be used to guide decision making in the real world. However, complexities in real world data pose a challenge to the validity of causal analysis. Much of the recent work in causality has focused on addressing these challenges including hidden confounding, limited overlap, inefficiency due to small samples, among others [4, 15, 13, 18, 26, 12].

Differential measurement error, which occurs when the level of error in the measured outcome is correlated with the treatment assignment, is one challenge that has not received much attention. In the presence of differential measurement error, the causal effect is not identifiable from observational data [5, 24]. In this paper, we study causal estimation methods in the presence of conditional differential measurement error, where one subgroup’s outcomes are measured with differential error. One example that we use throughout the paper, is estimating the causal effect of lifestyle interventions that aim to change the participants’ dietary intake or physical exercise. These studies are prone to differential measurement error due to the nature of the intervention itself: participants assigned to the intervention arm might under/over-report dietary intake in order to appear compliant [16]. In particular, older participants are prone to misreporting their dietary intake post intervention [19]. For this group, and without additional assumptions, it is impossible to disentangle the true causal effect of dietary modification on nutritional intake from the differential error in measuring the outcome.

Instead of attempting to fully identify the causal effect for the mismeasured subgroup, we study a partial identification approach. We show that it is possible to estimate sharp, informative bounds on the causal effect when the direction of the measurement error matches the direction of causal effect modification due to membership in the mismeasured group. Here, our assumption of ‘matched directions’ represents the case where the dietary intervention is more effective among older participants, and the measurement error leads to an inflated estimate of the causal effect among older participants. We present a novel approach for estimating bounds on the conditional average treatment effects

(CATE) and show that our bounds are sharp, meaning they cannot be improved without additional assumptions. Our contributions are summarized as follows: (1) We characterize the identification region of the CATE for the mismeasured subgroup. (2) We develop an efficient approach for estimating bounds on CATE. (3) We empirically test our approach on simulated data and real data from the Women’s Health Initiative (WHI) [11], and show that our approach gives more reliable and informative estimates than other approaches.

## 2 Related work

The majority of work on causality in the machine learning community studies the estimation of causal effects when the common assumptions are satisfied, meaning when the CATE is identifiable [1, 8, 14, 3, 18]. Work studying settings where the CATE is not identifiable focuses on lack of identifiability due to violations of the common assumptions like conditional ignorability and overlap [25, 27, 7, 28].

Relative to work on violation of the common assumptions, work on estimating the CATE in the presence of differential measurement error in the outcome is limited. Existing work commonly makes assumptions about the noise model, which are likely to be violated in practice. For example, Díaz and van der Laan [5] give a sensitivity analysis for differential measurement error of either the exposure or outcome. Their approach requires knowledge of a plausible range of the magnitude of differential measurement error, which might be unrealistic in many cases. By contrast, we assume knowledge about the direction rather than the magnitude of differential measurement error is known.

In different work, VanderWeele and Li [24] outlines a strategy to estimate bounds on the causal effect by relying on the boundedness of the observed outcomes. As our empirical analysis shows, this type of approach can give uninformative bound. Shu and Yi [23] study the impact of measurement error for continuous variable outcome. They assume that a small proportion of the population might have measurement error in the outcome. By contrast, our approach allows for an arbitrarily large population to be measured with error, at the cost of requiring knowledge about which subpopulation is mismeasured. We stress however, that this knowledge is not required at training time. In addition, in contrast to Shu and Yi [23], our approach can accommodate arbitrary types of outcomes (e.g., binary, categorical, etc.)

## 3 Preliminaries

We follow the convention of using capital letters to denote variables and small letters to denote their values. We assume access to an observational dataset that consists of tuples of random variables  $\mathcal{D}\{(x_i, z_i, t_i, y_i) : i = 1, \dots, n\}$ .  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is a  $d$ -dimensional feature vector,  $t_i \in \{0, 1\}$  is the treatment assignment indicator, and  $z_i$  reflects membership in the subpopulation that is suspected to have mismeasurement error. For simplicity, we will assume that the mismeasured group is defined by  $Z = z'$ , whereas the non-mismeasured group is defined by  $Z \neq z'$ . We assume that  $Z$  is binary, although extensions of our approach to non-binary  $Z$  are possible. We use  $Y(1), Y(0)$  to denote the potential outcome under treatment  $t = 0, 1$ , respectively. We define the conditional average treatment effect (CATE) defined as:  $\tau(X, Z) = \mathbb{E}[Y(1) - Y(0) \mid X, Z]$ , where the expectation is taken with respect to the full unobserved distribution.

In addition, we define  $\theta_t(X, Z)$  to be the measurement error of the observed outcome for  $T = t$ , and  $f(X, Z)$  to be the magnitude of the differential measurement error, with  $f(X, Z) = \theta_1(X, Z) - \theta_0(X, Z)$ . We define  $g(X)$  to be the magnitude of the effect modification due to  $Z$ , with  $g(X) = \tau(X, Z = z) - \tau(X, Z = z')$ . Finally, we use  $h(X, Z) = g(X) + f(X, Z)$  to denote the *nominal* causal effect modification due to  $Z$ . We stress that  $h(X, Z) \neq g(X)$  due to the differential measurement error. The observed outcome is defined as:

$$y = t \cdot (Y(1) + \theta_1(X, Z)) + (1 - t) \cdot (Y(0) + \theta_0(X, Z)). \quad (1)$$

with  $\theta_0(X, Z = z) = \theta_1(X, Z = z) = 0$ . In this setting, CATE is identifiable for  $Z = z$  but not for  $Z = z'$  [5]. We define the nominal CATE for  $Z = z'$  as  $\tau' \neq \tau$ , with  $\tau'$  defined as:

$$\tau'(X, Z = z') = \mathbb{E}[Y(1) - Y(0) + f(X, Z = z') \mid X, Z = z']. \quad (2)$$

Our goal is to give a point estimate of the CATE for  $Z = z$ , that is  $\hat{\tau}(x, Z = z)$  because the estimand is identifiable among the subpopulation defined by  $Z = z$ . For the subpopulation defined by  $Z = z'$ , our goal is to give upper and lower bounds on the CATE, since their CATE is not

identifiable due to differential measurement error. Specifically, for the population defined by  $Z = z'$ , we aim to estimate a lower and upper bound defined as  $\hat{\tau}(x, z')$ ,  $\hat{\tau}(x, z')$ , respectively such that  $\tau(x, z) \in [\hat{\tau}(x, z'), \hat{\tau}(x, z')]$  with high probability.

### 3.1 Assumptions

Consistent with the majority of causal literature (e.g., [23, 12, 22]), we assume conditional ignorability and consistency. In addition, we assume a modified version of the typical overlap assumption, stated below.

**Assumption 3.1.** ( $(Z, T)$ -Overlap. We assume that:  $0 < Pr(T|X, Z) < 1$  for  $T \in [0, 1]$  and  $0 < Pr(Z|X, T) < 1$  for  $Z \in [z, z']$

$(Z, T)$ -Overlap is a modification of the typical overlap assumption in that it requires overlap with respect to the mismeasured group in addition to the treatment assignment. We make the following two assumptions:

**Assumption 3.2.** The mismeasured group (i.e., the value of  $z'$ ) is given.

We note that  $z'$  need not be known at estimation or training time, as long as assumption 3.1 is satisfied in the training data. Our proposed approach (which assumes that  $z'$  is known at estimation time) is extendable to the setting where  $z'$  is given after estimation. We discuss this in section 4.1.

We assume that the direction of effect modification by  $Z$  matches that of the measurement error:

**Assumption 3.3.** We assume that the direction of  $f(X, Z)$  and  $g(X)$  matches, i.e., that:  $g(X) \cdot f(X, Z) \geq 0$

We stress, however, that assumption 3.3 is an assumption on the direction but not the magnitude of the effect modification or the measurement error. This makes it a less stringent assumption compared to other work in differential measurement error (e.g., in [5]).

In our motivating example, this assumption would be satisfied if (1) the dietary modification intervention is more effective among older women (the group defined by  $Z = z'$ ) compared to younger women, and (2) older women under-report their dietary intake leading to an inflated estimate of the causal effect. Therefore, both measurement error and effect modification act in the positive direction of the causal effect.

## 4 Characterizing and estimating bounds on CATE

In this section, we characterize the identification region of CATE for the subpopulation with differential measurement error, and present an approach to estimate the upper and lower bounds that define the identification region. The identification region represents the range of all possible estimates of CATE that are consistent with the observed data and the assumptions outlined in section 3.1. We characterize that region in the following proposition.

**Proposition 4.1. (Sharp bounds on CATE)** Suppose that the assumptions in section 3.1 hold, and suppose without loss of generality that  $f(X, Z) \geq 0, \forall X$ , then

$$\tau(X, Z = z') \in [\tau(X, Z = z), \tau(X, Z = z) + h(X, Z)]$$

and this bound is sharp.

The proof is presented in the Appendix. Proposition 4.1 shows that the CATE for the mismeasured group can be bounded above and below by  $\tau(X, Z = z)$ , which is the CATE of the non-mismeasured group, and  $\tau'(X, z') = \tau(X, Z = z) + h(X, Z)$ , which is the nominal CATE of the mismeasured group. Such a finding is important since both bounds can be estimated from observed data. In addition, the proposition shows that these bounds are sharp, in that they cannot be improved without further assumptions.

### 4.1 Implementation

Following the theoretical results, we propose an approach to estimate CATE for  $Z = z$  and bounds on CATE for  $Z = z'$ . Our approach proceeds by estimating  $\tau(X, Z = z)$  as is done in typical settings

where there is no mismeasurement error (e.g., using G-estimation or doubly robust approaches). This estimate represents the final estimate for the group defined by  $Z = z$  and one of the two bounds for the mismeasured group defined by  $Z = z'$ . As proposition 4.1 shows, the other bound is the nominal causal effect for the mismeasured group, so it can be estimated from the data using the typical causal estimation methods. Below, we outline two possible approaches to obtain point estimates for the two groups defined by  $Z = z$  and  $Z = z'$ .

**G-estimation approach.** Using any nonparametric estimator, we estimate the expected potential,  $\mu(x, Z, t) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y|X = x, Z, T = t]$ ,  $Z \in \{z, z'\}$ , where the expectation is taken with respect to the observed data,  $\mathcal{D}$  [9]. For  $Z = z$ , the estimate of the CATE is computed as  $\hat{\tau}(X, Z = z) = \mu(x, Z = z, t = 1) - \mu(x, Z = z, t = 0)$ .

For  $Z = z'$ , we estimate  $\hat{\tau}'(x, z') = \mu(x, Z = z', t = 1) - \mu(x, Z = z', t = 0)$ , and the final estimated bounds on the unidentifiable  $\tau(X, Z = z')$  are:

$$\hat{\tau}(x, z') = \min\{\hat{\tau}(x, z), \hat{\tau}'(x, z')\}, \text{ and } \hat{\tau}^{\wedge}(x, z') = \max\{\hat{\tau}(x, z), \hat{\tau}'(x, z')\}.$$

For a well specified function class,  $\hat{\tau}(x, z), \hat{\tau}'(x, z')$  are guaranteed to asymptotically converge to  $\tau(x, z), \tau'(x, z')$  respectively [21].

In our implementation, we estimate  $\mu(X, Z, T)$  using 4 different models, one for each combination of  $T, Z$ . This is similar in spirit to T-Learners [17]. In settings where the mismeasured group is not known at estimation or training time, or when  $Z$  is not a binary variable, training 4 different models is not possible. In that case, it is still possible to estimate bounds on  $\tau(X, Z = z')$  by estimating 2 models, one for each treatment group. As long as the function space is well specified and assumption 3.1 is satisfied, this estimation procedure should give asymptotically unbiased estimates.

**Doubly-robust approach.** We outline how a doubly-robust approach can be used to estimate the bounds. Estimation proceeds similar to G-estimation, but during estimation, we inverse weight each data point by its propensity to receive the treatment  $t$ , and its propensity to belong in the mismeasured group. The weighting scheme reweights the observed data using the Radon-Nikodym derivative of the distribution where treatment assignment and membership in the mismeasured group are uncorrelated with  $X$ , i.e.,  $w_i = \frac{p(x_i)p(z_i)p(t_i)}{p(x_i, z_i, t_i)}$ . We show in appendix A.2 that the expected outcome with the weighting scheme under the observed distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  is equal to the expected outcome under the new distribution  $\hat{\mathcal{D}}$ . We use permutation weighting to compute the weights [2]. Details of the implementation are included in the appendix.

## 5 Experiments

We evaluate our algorithm on a semi-synthetic and a real dataset. We use ACIC data [6] for the former, and data from the dietary modification arm of the WHI [11] for the latter<sup>1</sup>. Additional details about the implementation are included in the appendix.

**Baselines.** We compare the two variants of our approach, the G-Estimation approach — **GE (ours)**— and the Doubly Robust approach — **DR (ours)**, to the following baselines: (1) Quantile regression model — **GE (QR)**, which uses quantile estimates to construct the upper and lower bounds of the CATE for the subpopulation defined by  $Z = z'$ . Specifically, the QR proceeds by estimating the 0.1 and 0.9-quantile of  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X = x, T = t]$ , for  $t \in \{0, 1\}$ . The upper (lower) bound of  $\tau(x, z')$  is given by the difference between 0.9 (0.1)-quantile of  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X = x, T = 1]$  and 0.1 (0.9)-quantile of  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X = x, T = 0]$ . (2) Quantile regression model with doubly robust approach — **DR (QR)** — is similar to the QR model, but in addition, we utilize inverse propensity score weights to estimate  $\mu(x, z, t)$  as described in section 4.1. (3) Simple Sensitivity Analysis (**SSA**), which is inspired by previous work on differential measurement error [24]. The SSA model finds the maximum and minimum observed outcome for each treatment  $T$  among the mismeasured group. Then the upper (lower) bound is given by difference between maximum (minimum) value of  $y_{t=1}$  and minimum (maximum) value of  $y_{t=0}$  with  $Z = z'$ . (4) **Oracle** model, which is an unattainable version of our GE approach that has oracle estimates of  $\mu(x, z, t)$ . We only implement this model in semi-synthetic data, in which  $\mu(x, z, t)$  is available due to its simulated nature.

<sup>1</sup>WHI data is available for use, upon making a request for data access to the National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute at [biolincc.nhlbi.nih.gov](http://biolincc.nhlbi.nih.gov)

**Semi-synthetic data.** In this setting, we test the ability of our approach to correctly cover the true CATE under varying levels of differential measurement error. We use a semi-synthetic dataset, ACIC [6], which consists of 4802 observations and 58 covariates. We randomly select 70% of the data as the training sample and the remaining 30% as the testing sample. The original ACIC data did not include measurement error, so we created conditional differential errors as follows. We define the mismeasured group based on randomly selected variables that were not effect modifiers in the original dataset. We exclude variables that are effect modifiers because we want to control the effect of the variable on the final outcome. The simulated observed outcome is defined as  $y = \tilde{y} + \mathbb{1}\{Z = z'\} \cdot (t(\kappa_1(Z)) + (1-t)\kappa_0(Z))$  where  $\tilde{y}$  is the original simulation’s outcome,  $\kappa_t(Z)$  denotes the total nominal effect of  $Z$  on the treatment  $t$  groups. We use  $0 \leq \alpha < 1$  to denote the proportion of the nominal effect due to effect modification versus differential measurement error and update CATE as  $\tilde{\tau}(x, z') = \tau(x, z') + \alpha(\kappa_1(Z) - \kappa_0(Z))$

**Evaluation** We evaluate algorithms with three different measures. We evaluate credibility with correct coverage rate (**CCR**) and **deviation**. CCR is defined as the proportion of the test sample for whom the true CATE  $\tau$  falls within the estimated lower and upper bound  $\hat{\tau}_L, \hat{\tau}_U$  respectively, i.e.  $CCR = n^{-1} \sum_i \tau \in [\hat{\tau}_L, \hat{\tau}_U]$ . Deviation is defined as the average absolute difference between the closest estimated bound and the true CATE, for data points that are not correctly covered, i.e.  $deviation = m^{-1} \sum_{i|\tau \notin [\hat{\tau}_L, \hat{\tau}_U]} \min\{|\tau - \hat{\tau}_L|, |\tau - \hat{\tau}_U|\}$ ,  $m = |\{i|\tau \notin [\hat{\tau}_L, \hat{\tau}_U]\}|$ . Unlike the CCR, deviation takes into account how far the bound estimate is from the true CATE. We evaluate informativeness of the estimated bounds by **tightness**, which is defined as the average absolute difference between the upper and lower bound, i.e.,  $tightness = n^{-1} \sum_i |\hat{\tau}_L - \hat{\tau}_U|$ .

We evaluate all models’ performance at varying levels of differential measurement error by varying  $\alpha$ , going from high measurement error ( $\alpha = 0$ ), to low ( $\alpha = 1$ ). We train our approach and the QR approach using a random forest model. Details are included in the appendix.

Figure 1 and table 1 show the results of this simulation setting. The  $x$ -axis of the two plots in figure 1 shows the proportion of the nominal CATE attributable to measurement error. In figure 1(left), the  $y$ -axis shows the CCR while in figure 1(right), the  $y$ -axis shows the deviation. Figure 1(left) demonstrates that our method has a higher coverage rate than QR when the level of differential measurement error is high. At low levels of differential measurement error, our approach maintains a low deviation than QR despite having a lower CCR. This happens due to estimation error, as instances that are incorrectly covered by our approach are “barely missed”, which is not true for QR. The oracle model, which achieves perfect CCR, deviation and tightness, demonstrates the unattainable performance of our approach if it did not incur any estimation error. This implies that with a larger dataset and assuming a well-specified function class, our approach could have achieved near perfect performance. The doubly robust approach has a slightly lower CCR than the G-estimation approach since in some experiments, it provides a bound that is even tighter than the oracle method. Finally, SSA achieves perfect CCR but as table 1 reveals, this comes at the cost of tightness: SSA gives credible yet uninformative bounds.

Algorithm	Tightness (STD)
GE (ours)	8.93 (0.42)
DR (ours)	9.18 (1.03)
GE (QR)	14.31 (1.23)
DR (QR)	17.01 (4.98)
Oracle	9.0 (0)
SSA	66.03 (1.09)

Table 1: Results on the ACIC data, showing the absolute width and standard deviation of the estimated bounds for the mismeasured group. SSA gives uninformative bounds, while our approach gives estimates that are close to the oracle.

**Real data.** Due to the fundamental problem of causal inference [20, 10], it is impossible to adequately evaluate our approach in a real data set. Still, we conduct the following analysis on the WHI data to demonstrate the utility of our approach. Here, we study the causal effect of the dietary modification intervention on the daily intake of sodium and fiber as well as the BMI of participants in the WHI study [11]. In this study, 15,664 women were randomly assigned to the intervention arm, where they attended sessions to promote a better diet. An additional 22,815 women were assigned to the non-intervention arm. We randomly select 70% of the population for training and the rest is kept as a held-out sample. By design, the intervention was assigned at random. However, to test our approach in a more realistic setting, we create confounding in the training data by removing a randomly chosen 70% of the women in the intervention who have a BMI below the median. This

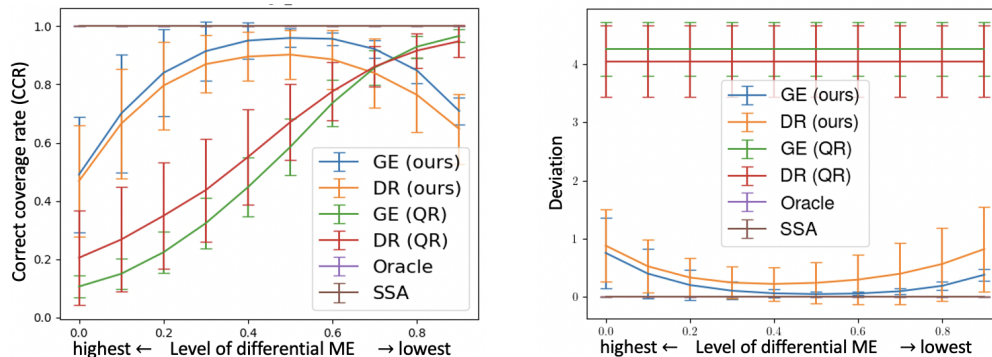


Figure 1:  $x$ -axis shows the level of the nominal CATE attributable to measurement error. (Left) Plot shows that correct coverage rate ( $y$ -axis) is higher (i.e., better) for our approach compared to QR algorithm when the level of measurement error is high. The unattainable oracle has a perfect correct coverage rate, revealing that our approach can achieve near perfect coverage if not for estimation error. (Right) Plot shows that deviation for our approach is small compared to others.

mimics a setting where women with a lower BMI are less likely to obtain guidance on dietary modification. We evaluate the performance of our approach and baselines on the unconfounded held out set. We take the mismeasured group to be women in the highest quantile age. This is consistent with existing literature suggesting that older age is correlated with a higher tendency to misreport outcomes [19]. We compare our approach to the same baselines outlined in the ACIC experiment. We use a random forest for both QR and our approach. Additional details are included in the appendix.

**Evaluation** Because we do not have access to the counterfactual outcomes, we cannot evaluate our approach using the CCR and deviation. Instead, we evaluate how informative the estimated bounds are for guiding intervention decisions among older women. Letting  $k = |i : Z_i = z'|$ , we consider intervention on sodium intake and BMI (fiber intake) as effective if both predicted upper and lower bounds are less (greater) than 0:  $\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i: Z_i = z'} \mathbb{1}_{\hat{\tau} \leq 0, \hat{\tau} \leq 0}$ ,  $(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i: Z_i = z'} \mathbb{1}_{\hat{\tau} \geq 0, \hat{\tau} \geq 0})$  obscure if predicted upper and lower bounds have different signs:  $\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i: Z_i = z'} \mathbb{1}_{\hat{\tau} < 0}$ , and ineffective otherwise. Models that lead to the lowest uncertainty are more desirable. However, inaccurate models can appear certain. So, as a proxy for model accuracy, we measure the average treatment effect (ATE) among each group. Define  $\Omega$  to be the subset of individuals for whom the model predicts that the treatment is effective. Let  $\Omega_0, \Omega_1$  denote the subsets of  $\Omega$  with treatment  $T = 0$  and 1 respectively, then the estimated ATE for this group is  $ATE = \frac{1}{|\Omega_1|} \sum_{i \in \Omega_1} y_i - \frac{1}{|\Omega_0|} \sum_{i \in \Omega_0} y_i$ . We run 100 experiments by sampling with replacement and report the mean and standard deviation of the ATE. The ATE is similarly defined for the two other groups (uncertain and ineffective). For reliable models, we expect that the ATE will be high for effective groups, and low for ineffective groups.

Results for sodium intake are shown in table 2 and table 3. Results for fiber intake and BMI are largely consistent with sodium intake, and are included in appendix A.3. In both tables, we present results from the mismeasured population only (left panels) and the full population (right panels). Table 2 shows that the SSA and QR approach predict almost every intervention in the mismeasured group as uncertain, while our approach predicts the intervention as effective for roughly 30% of the mismeasured group and ineffective for roughly 50% of the mismeasured group. Table 3 shows the ATE for the different groups. Note that since reductions in sodium are desirable, negative ATEs signify that the intervention is effective. The table shows that the ATE is favorable for the group that our approach predicts will benefit from the intervention, which shows that our approach gives reliable estimates of treatment efficacy. By contrast, the ATE of the group that GE (QR) predicts will benefit from the intervention shows an undesirable increase in sodium intake for the “effective” group. In addition, the group for whom QR deemed the treatment ineffective actually experience a decrease in sodium intake due to the intervention.

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper, we provide a credible and informative bound for CATE in the presence of differential measurement error of the outcome. Guided by our theoretical analysis, we presented an approach to

Algorithm	Mismeasured group		Full population	
	Effective	Uncertain	Effective	Uncertain
GE (ours)	18.57 (0.93)	28.38 (1.29)	27.40 (1.15)	9.87 (0.37)
DR (ours)	29.06 (0.01)	37.49 (1.39)	26.89 (1.18)	9.91 (0.51)
GE (QR)	0	100	29.80 (0.63)	25.64 (0.52)
DR (QR)	0	100	29.80 (0.63)	25.64 (0.52)
SSA	0	100	0	100

Table 2: Percent and standard deviation of each predicted group. SSA and QR give a higher level of uncertainty compared to our approach.

Algorithm	Effective	Mismeasured group		Effective	Full population	
		Uncertain & Ineffective	Ineffective		Uncertain & Ineff	Ineffective
GE (ours)	-249 (189.23)	72.98 (32.51)	138.36 (14.56)	-34.56 (22.24)	61.73 (26.79)	72.75 (21.94)
DR (ours)	-138 (131.89)	45.66 (24.63)	104.54 (32.08)	-57.45 (21.04)	80.36 (13.01)	91.84 (15.54)
GE (QR)	-	150.02 (53.31)	-	97.99 (19.64)	-23.88 (20.18)	-55.92 (45.06)
DR (QR)	-	150.02 (53.31)	-	-51.44 (28.87)	89.61 (20.40)	117.02 (15.90)

Table 3: ATE and standard deviation of each predicted group within the mismeasured group and the population. Our approach is better at identifying the population for whom the intervention is effective.

estimate sharp bounds on the causal effects, and showed settings where it outperforms alternative approaches. On a real dataset, we showed that our approach leads to less uncertainty about intervention decisions when compared to other approaches.

Empirical results show that one limitation of our approach is that estimation error might lead to lower coverage rates when the measurement error is high. Future work can focus on more efficient estimation methods to address this issue. In addition, similar to all other estimation approaches, our approach might give unreliable estimates when the assumptions outlined in section3 are violated. Such unreliable estimates could lead to incorrect treatment decisions with negative societal impact. Future work can focus on developing methods to quantify the sensitivity of our approach to different assumptions made in section3.

## Acknowledgements

We are thankful for the thoughtful feedback from the anonymous reviewers, Dr. Daniel Clauw and Dr. Michael Burns. This work was supported by The e-HAIL Summer Student Support Program and the National Science Foundation under Grant No. 2153083.

## References

- [1] J. Abrevaya, Y.-C. Hsu, and R. P. Lieli. Estimating conditional average treatment effects. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics*, 33(4):485–505, 2015.
- [2] D. Arbour, D. Dimmery, and A. Sondhi. Permutation weighting. In M. Meila and T. Zhang, editors, *Proceedings of the 38th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 139 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 331–341. PMLR, 18–24 Jul 2021. URL <https://proceedings.mlr.press/v139/arbour21a.html>.
- [3] A. Belloni, V. Chernozhukov, I. Fernández-Val, and C. Hansen. Program evaluation and causal inference with high-dimensional data. *Econometrica*, 85(1):233–298, 2017.
- [4] M. Bonvini and E. H. Kennedy. Sensitivity analysis via the proportion of unmeasured confounding. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, pages 1–11, 2021.
- [5] I. Díaz and M. J. van der Laan. Sensitivity analysis for causal inference under unmeasured confounding and measurement error problems. *The international journal of biostatistics*, 9(2): 149–160, 2013.
- [6] V. Dorie, J. Hill, U. Shalit, M. Scott, and D. Cervone. Automated versus do-it-yourself methods for causal inference: Lessons learned from a data analysis competition. *Statistical Science*, 34(1):43–68, 2019.
- [7] A. D’Amour, P. Ding, A. Feller, L. Lei, and J. Sekhon. Overlap in observational studies with high-dimensional covariates. *Journal of Econometrics*, 221(2):644–654, 2021.
- [8] D. P. Green and H. L. Kern. Modeling heterogeneous treatment effects in large-scale experiments using bayesian additive regression trees. In *The annual summer meeting of the society of political methodology*, pages 100–110, 2010.
- [9] M. A. Hernán and J. M. Robins. Causal inference, 2010.
- [10] P. W. Holland. Statistics and causal inference. *Journal of the American statistical Association*, 81(396):945–960, 1986.
- [11] B. V. Howard, J. E. Manson, M. L. Stefanick, S. A. Beresford, G. Frank, B. Jones, R. J. Rodabough, L. Snetselaar, C. Thomson, L. Tinker, et al. Low-fat dietary pattern and weight change over 7 years: the women’s health initiative dietary modification trial. *Jama*, 295(1): 39–49, 2006.
- [12] K. Imai and T. Yamamoto. Causal inference with differential measurement error: Nonparametric identification and sensitivity analysis. *American Journal of Political Science*, 54(2):543–560, 2010.
- [13] A. Jesson, S. Mindermann, Y. Gal, and U. Shalit. Quantifying ignorance in individual-level causal-effect estimates under hidden confounding. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 4829–4838. PMLR, 2021.
- [14] F. D. Johansson, N. Kallus, U. Shalit, and D. Sontag. Learning weighted representations for generalization across designs. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.08598*, 2018.
- [15] N. Kallus, X. Mao, and A. Zhou. Interval estimation of individual-level causal effects under unobserved confounding. In K. Chaudhuri and M. Sugiyama, editors, *Proceedings of the Twenty-Second International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 89 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 2281–2290. PMLR, 16–18 Apr 2019. URL <https://proceedings.mlr.press/v89/kallus19a.html>.
- [16] S. I. Kirkpatrick, C. E. Collins, R. H. Keogh, S. M. Krebs-Smith, M. L. Neuhouser, and A. Wallace. Assessing dietary outcomes in intervention studies: pitfalls, strategies, and research needs. *Nutrients*, 10(8):1001, 2018.
- [17] S. R. Künzel, J. S. Sekhon, P. J. Bickel, and B. Yu. Metalearners for estimating heterogeneous treatment effects using machine learning. *Proceedings of the national academy of sciences*, 116(10):4156–4165, 2019.
- [18] M. Makar, F. Johansson, J. Guttag, and D. Sontag. Estimation of bounds on potential outcomes for decision making. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 6661–6671. PMLR, 2020.



- [19] K. Pfrimer, M. Vilela, C. M. Resende, F. B. Scagliusi, J. S. Marchini, N. K. Lima, J. C. Moriguti, and E. Ferrioli. Under-reporting of food intake and body fatness in independent older people: a doubly labelled water study. *Age and ageing*, 44(1):103–108, 2014.
- [20] D. B. Rubin. Estimating causal effects of treatments in randomized and nonrandomized studies. *Journal of educational Psychology*, 66(5):688, 1974.
- [21] B. Schölkopf, A. J. Smola, F. Bach, et al. *Learning with kernels: support vector machines, regularization, optimization, and beyond*. MIT press, 2002.
- [22] U. Shalit, F. D. Johansson, and D. Sontag. Estimating individual treatment effect: generalization bounds and algorithms. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 3076–3085. PMLR, 2017.
- [23] D. Shu and G. Y. Yi. Causal inference with measurement error in outcomes: Bias analysis and estimation methods. *Statistical methods in medical research*, 28(7):2049–2068, 2019.
- [24] T. J. VanderWeele and Y. Li. Simple sensitivity analysis for differential measurement error. *American journal of epidemiology*, 188(10):1823–1829, 2019.
- [25] J. M. Wooldridge. Violating ignorability of treatment by controlling for too many factors. *Econometric Theory*, 21(5):1026–1028, 2005.
- [26] S. Yadlowsky, H. Namkoong, S. Basu, J. Duchi, and L. Tian. Bounds on the conditional and average treatment effect with unobserved confounding factors. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1808.09521*, 2018.
- [27] Y. Zhu, R. A. Hubbard, J. Chubak, J. Roy, and N. Mitra. Core concepts in pharmacoepidemiology: Violations of the positivity assumption in the causal analysis of observational data: Consequences and statistical approaches. *Pharmacoepidemiology and drug safety*, 30(11):1471–1485, 2021.
- [28] Y. Zhu, N. Mitra, and J. Roy. Addressing positivity violations in causal effect estimation using gaussian process priors. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.10266*, 2021.

## Checklist

1. For all authors...
  - (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s contributions and scope? [\[Yes\]](#)
  - (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [\[Yes\]](#) See section 6
  - (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [\[Yes\]](#) See section 6
  - (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [\[Yes\]](#)
2. If you are including theoretical results...
  - (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [\[Yes\]](#) See section 3.1
  - (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [\[Yes\]](#) See the Appendix, section A.1
3. If you ran experiments...
  - (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [\[No\]](#) Our method is easily reproducible using existing packages. In addition, to facilitate reproducibility, we included psuedocode in the appendix, section A.3
  - (b) Did you specify all the training details method.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)? [\[Yes\]](#) See section 5 in the main text and section A.3 in the appendix.
  - (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times)? [\[Yes\]](#) For the simulated experiments only, see 1 and table 1
  - (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [\[Yes\]](#) See section A.3 in the appendix.

4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
  - (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes]
  - (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [Yes] Both datasets are publicly available. We included information about gaining access to the WHI data in section 5
  - (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [No]
  - (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're using/curating? [N/A]
  - (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable information or offensive content? [Yes] Both datasets are completely de-identified and available publicly.
5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
  - (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable? [N/A]
  - (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
  - (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]

## A Appendix

### A.1 Proof of proposition 4.1

**Proposition A.1.** (*Sharp bounds on CATE, restated proposition 4.1 from the main text*) Suppose that assumptions 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 and conditional ignorability hold, further suppose without loss of generality that  $f(X, Z) \geq 0, \forall X$ , then

$$\tau(X, Z = z') \in [\tau(X, Z = z), \tau(X, Z = z) + h(X, Z)]$$

and this bound is sharp.

*Proof.* Note that by definition:

$$g(X, Z) = h(X, Z) - f(X, Z). \quad (3)$$

By assumption 3.3, and that  $f(X, Z) \geq 0$ , we have that all three terms,  $g(X, Z), h(X, Z), f(X, Z) \geq 0$ , which in turn implies that  $h(X, Z) \geq f(X, Z)$ , with equality only holding in the case where there is no differential measurement error, i.e.,  $f(X, Z) = 0$ . This means that  $f(X, Z) \in [0, h(X, Z)]$ , and we can rewrite  $f(X, Z) := \beta h(X, Z)$ , where  $\beta$  is an unidentifiable parameter with taking values between 0, 1. Substituting in equation 3, we get that:

$$g(X, Z) = h(X, Z) - \beta h(X, Z) = (1 - \beta)h(X, Z) := \alpha h(X, Z),$$

where  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$  is unidentifiable from observational data.

We can now rewrite the unidentifiable CATE in terms of components that can be estimated from observational data, as well as this unidentifiable but bounded  $\alpha$ :

$$\tau(X, Z = z') = \tau(X, Z = z) + g(X, Z) = \tau(X, Z = z) + \alpha h(X, Z).$$

Recall that  $\tau(X, Z = z)$  is identifiable since it is simply the CATE for the group that is not mismeasured,  $h(X, Z)$  is the nominal CATE which is also identifiable from observational data, and  $\alpha$  is bounded between 0, and 1. This allows us to define the identification region as the region defined by extreme values of  $\alpha$ , as follows:

$$\min_{\alpha \in [0,1]} \tau(X, Z = z) + \alpha h(X, Z)$$

and

$$\max_{\alpha \in [0,1]} \tau(X, Z = z) + \alpha h(X, Z).$$

By assumption,  $h(X, Z) \geq 0$ , so it obtains its maximum when  $\alpha = 1$  and its minimum when  $\alpha = 0$ , which means that:

$$\tau(X, Z = z') \in [\tau(X, Z = z), \tau(X, Z = z) + h(X, Z)]$$

Note that these bounds are sharp in that the true  $\tau(X, Z = z')$  is equal to the upper bound if there is no differential measurement error (i.e.,  $f(X, Z) = 0$  making  $h(X, Z) = g(X, Z)$ ), and the true  $\tau(X, Z = z')$  is equal to the lower bound if there is no effect modification (i.e.,  $g(X, Z) = 0$ ). Hence, the bounds could not be made tighter without additional assumptions.  $\square$

## A.2 Doubly robust justification

We show that the expected outcome with the weighting scheme under the observed distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  is equal to the expected outcome under the distribution  $\hat{\mathcal{D}}$  where treatment assignment and membership in the mismeasured group is uncorrelated with  $X$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}(\hat{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}(y)$$

$$\text{with } \hat{y} = \frac{P(X=x)P(Z)P(T=t)}{P(X=x, Z, T=t)}y.$$

The proof is as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[\hat{y}] &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[\hat{y}|X = z, Z, T = t]] \\ &= \int P(X = x, Z, T = t) \int \frac{P(X = x)P(Z)P(T = t)}{P(X = x, Z, T = t)} y P(y|X = x, Z, T = t) dy d(X, Z, T) \end{aligned}$$

Note that if  $X, Z, T$  are fixed,  $\frac{P(X=x)P(Z)P(T=t)}{P(X=x, Z, T=t)}$  is a constant, so we can take it out of the second integral and the numerator cancel out with  $P(X = x, Z, T = t)$ , then it becomes

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int P(X = x)P(Z)P(T = t) \int y P(y|X = x, Z, T = t) dy d(X, Z, T) \\ &= \int P(X = x)P(Z)P(T = t) \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}[y|X = x, Z, T = t] d(X, Z, T) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}[y] \end{aligned}$$

## A.3 Implementation details

**Permutation weighting.** Permutation weighting proceeds by making a copy of the original data set, and permuting  $Z$  and  $T$  randomly in the copied data. Points in the original data are given a label  $C = 0$  while the permuted points are given a label  $C = 1$ . Denote  $\mathcal{P}$  as the probability function. We stack the two datasets together and estimate  $w_i = \frac{\mathcal{P}(C=1|X=x, Z=z, T=t)}{\mathcal{P}(C=0|X=x, Z=z, T=t)}$ .

**Algorithm pseudocode** The pseudocode for our G-estimation approach is listed as follows:

---

### Algorithm 1

---

**Input:** Factual sample  $(x_1, t_1, z_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, t_n, z_n, y_n)$ , non-parametric estimator  $\mathcal{M}$

- 1:  $\mu_{t,z} = \mathcal{M}(Y_{t,z} \sim X_{t,z})$
- 2:  $\mu_{t,z'} = \mathcal{M}(Y_{t,z'} \sim X_{t,z'})$
- 3:  $\hat{\tau}_0(x) = \mu_{t=1,z}(x) - \mu_{t=0,z}(x)$
- 4:  $\hat{\tau}_1(x) = \mu_{t=1,z'}(x) - \mu_{t=0,z'}(x)$

**Output:**  $\hat{\pi}(x) = \min\{\hat{\tau}_0(x), \hat{\tau}_1(x)\}, \hat{\tau}(x) = \max\{\hat{\tau}_0(x), \hat{\tau}_1(x)\}$

---

**Training details** Both experiments were implemented on CPUs, with a total compute time of 50 hours. For both experiments, we use random forest classifiers to compute permutation weighting and grid-search cross-validation to select parameters. We set the number of estimators to be 500 and compare parameters with 'max-depth' over [1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 100] using negative mean square error as the regression score function. We use random forest regressors to train our models and grid-search cross-validation to select parameters. We set the number of estimators to be 500 and compare parameters with 'max-depth' over [5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 100] using negative mean square error

as the regression score function. We use random forest quantile regressor to train the QR method, and we use grid-search cross-validation to select parameters. We set the number of estimators to be 500 and compare parameters with 'max-depth' over [5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 100] using negative mean square error as the regression score function.

**Experiment results** The complement experiment results for sodium intake, fiber intake and BMI.

Algorithm	Sodium			Fiber			BMI		
	Effective	Uncertain	Tightness	Effective	Uncertain	Tightness	Effective	Uncertain	Tightness
GE (ours)	18.57 (0.93)	28.38 (1.29)	150.28 (1.64)	98.37 (0.61)	1.60 (0.58)	1.28 (0.04)	87.65 (0.59)	12.03 (0.58)	0.54 (0.01)
DR (ours)	29.06 (0.01)	37.49 (1.39)	189.61 (3.46)	97.64 (0.52)	2.35 (0.52)	1.54 (0.03)	84.75 (0.62)	14.18 (0.61)	0.68 (0.01)
GE (QR)	0	100	4273.16 (19.24)	0	98.11 (1.30)	26.95 (0.34)	0	100	9.72 (0.07)
DR (QR)	0	100	4152.96 (10.72)	0	100 (0)	26.56 (0.28)	0	100	9.72 (0.07)
SSA	0	100	30633.53 (0)	0	100	114.93 (0)	0	100	99.85 (0)

Table 4: Percentage of each predicted group and the absolute width and standard deviation of the estimated bounds for the mismeasured group in non-confounding setting.

Algorithm	Sodium			Fiber			BMI		
	Effective	Uncertain & Ineffective	Ineff	Effective	Uncertain & Ineff	Ineffective	Effective	Uncertain & Ineff	Ineffective
GE (ours)	-249 (189.23)	72.98 (32.51)	138.36 (14.56)	3.54 (0.44)	3.39 (0.49)	-	-0.95 (0.15)	0.05 (1.43)	-
DR (ours)	-138 (131.89)	45.66 (24.63)	104.54 (32.08)	3.54 (0.44)	3.39 (0.49)	-	-0.65 (0.13)	-1.81 (0.36)	-

Table 5: Average treatment effect of each predicted group within mismeasured group.

Algorithm	Sodium		Fiber		BMI	
	Effective	Uncertain	Effective	Uncertain	Effective	Uncertain
GE (ours)	27.40 (1.15)	9.87 (0.37)	97.38 (0.15)	2.39 (0.41)	91.34 (0.57)	5.22 (0.44)
DR (ours)	26.89 (1.18)	9.91 (0.51)	98.23 (0.18)	1.52 (0.23)	93.18 (0.46)	3.91 (0.37)
GE (QR)	29.80 (0.63)	25.64 (0.52)	71.74 (0.20)	25.64 (0.51)	68.60 (0.93)	25.63 (0.52)
DR (QR)	24.78 (1.02)	25.64 (0.52)	74.24 (0.12)	25.64 (0.51)	71.43 (0.69)	25.64 (0.52)
SSA	0	100	0	100	0	100

Table 6: Percentage of each predicted group within whole population. SSA and QR give a higher level of uncertainty compared to our approach.

Algorithm	Sodium			Fiber			BMI		
	Effective	Uncertain & Ineffective	Ineff	Effective	Uncertain & Ineff	Ineffective	Effective	Uncertain & Ineff	Ineffective
GE (ours)	-34.56 (22.24)	61.73 (26.79)	72.75 (21.94)	3.67 (0.33)	3.64 (0.32)	-	-0.68 (0.15)	0.61 (0.45)	0.42 (0.74)
DR (ours)	-57.45 (21.04)	80.36 (13.01)	91.84 (15.54)	3.70 (0.33)	3.64 (0.32)	-	-0.64 (0.06)	0.33 (0.92)	3.25 (1.16)
GE (QR)	97.99 (19.64)	-23.88 (20.18)	-55.92 (45.06)	3.74 (0.46)	3.41 (0.49)	-	1.58 (0.39)	-0.66 (0.05)	-0.59 (0.08)
DR (QR)	-51.44 (28.87)	89.61 (20.40)	117.02 (15.90)	3.66 (0.33)	3.75 (0.46)	-	-0.61 (0.07)	-0.51 (0.23)	1.58 (1.21)

Table 7: Average treatment effect of each predicted group within the whole population.