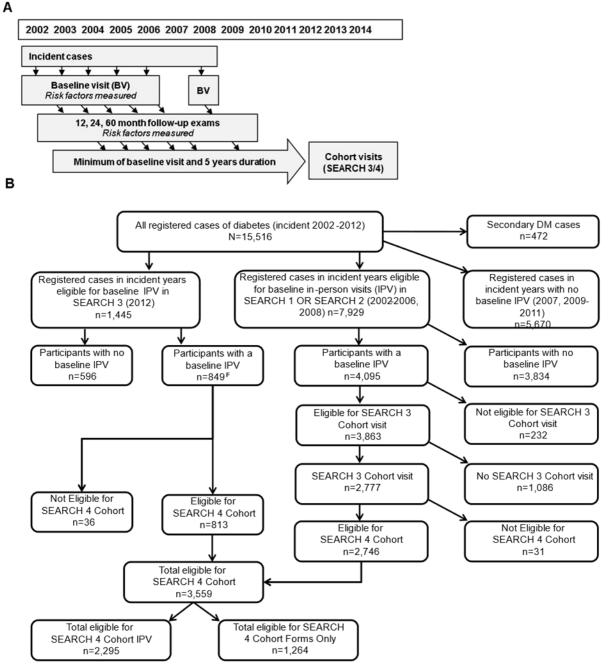
#### **Supplemental Appendix**

#### **Supplemental Figures**

Figure S1: A: SEARCH Study Design; B: Participants Eligible for SEARCH 3 and 4 'Cohort' visits.



#### **Supplemental Tables**

**Table S1: Number of Non-White SEARCH participants included in each modeling step.** Multiple outcome regressions are done based on data from two consecutive SEARCH study visits except the last visit; participants were excluded in each regression if they had missing data. Outcomes include hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c), measured at all six SEARCH visits, and four separate diabetes complications measured at the SEARCH cohort visits: Diabetic retinopathy (complication RET), Diabetic kidney disease (complication DKD), Cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy (complication CAN), and Peripheral neuropathy (complication PN).

	SEARCH Study Visits	Sample
		size
Hba1c Outcome Regression	Cohort 4 Visit	144
	Cohort 3 Visit, Cohort 4 Visit	129
	60-mo Follow-up Visit, Cohort	145
	3 Visit	
	24-mo Follow-up Visit, 60-mo	70
	Follow-up Visit	
	12-mo Follow-up Visit, 24-mo	85
	Follow-up Visit	
	Baseline Visit, 12-mo Follow-up	112
	Visit	
Baseline Hba1c Value Function Evaluation	Baseline Visit	220
Diabetic Retinopathy Outcome Regression	Cohort 4 Visit	144
	Cohort 3 Visit, Cohort 4 Visit	130
Diabetic Retinopathy Value Function	Cohort 3 Visit	259
Evaluation		
Diabetic Kidney Disease Outcome Regression	Cohort 4 Visit	135
	Cohort 3 Visit, Cohort 4 Visit	119
Diabetic Kidney Disease Value Function	Cohort 3 Visit	229
Evaluation		
Cardiovascular Autonomic Neuropathy	Cohort 4 Visit	139
Outcome Regression	Cohort 3 Visit, Cohort 4 Visit	119
Cardiovascular Autonomic Neuropathy Value	Cohort 3 Visit	244
Function Evaluation		
Peripheral Neuropathy Outcome Regression	Cohort 4 Visit	150
	Cohort 3 Visit, Cohort 4 Visit	128
Peripheral Neuropathy Value Function	Cohort 3 Visit	260
Evaluation		

## **Analysis Approach**

The aim of the analysis is to use historical data (throughout all SEARCH visits) to estimate the effect of two different estimated treatment policies:  $\pi^{\text{white}}$  and  $\pi^{\text{nonwhite}}$  on the outcome of patients over a period of time.

### **1** Notation and Model Covariates

We use the following notation:

Let  $X_t$  denotes a set of covariates that affects treatment assignments at time t Let  $A_t$  denotes the treatment at time t

Let  $Z_t$  denotes a set of covariates that affects the outcome at time t

Let  $Y_t(z, a)$  denotes the outcome of treatment a and covariate z at time t

Given a discrete time point t = 1, ..., T (T = 6 in this dataset); we observed  $\{S_t = \{X_t, Z_t\}, A_t, Y_t(z_t, a_t)\}$  for each subject. For this analysis, the covirates set  $X_t$  includes age at diagnosis, sex, SEARCH study site, SEARCH visit, and T1D duration. The covariates set  $Z_t$  includes age at diagnosis, sex, SEARCH study site, SEARCH site, T1D duration, maximum parental education, health insurance type, smoking status, physical activity, screen time, and an indicator variable for non-Hispanic Black (versus other nonwhite). Note that although  $X_t$  and  $Z_t$  overlaps,  $X_t$  is used in the propensity score models in Section 2 and  $Z_t$  is used in the outcome regression models in Section 3.

Treatment options at each time point  $A_t$  include two aspects of diabetes management: insulin delivery modality and self-monitored glucose frequency. In the primary outcome analysis,  $Y_t$  is a measure of glycemic control HbA1c whereas in each of the secondary outcome analyses,  $Y_t$  is whether the subject has the following early diabetes complication: Diabetic Retinopathy, Diabetic Kidney Disease, Cardiovascular Autonomic Neuropathy, and Peripheral Neuropathy.

## 2 Multivariate propensity score modeling to estimate the diabetes treatment regimen distributions

The treatment regimen, or distribution of treatments, among the white subgroup was represented by  $\pi^{\text{white}}$ , while the treatment regimen observed among the nonwhite subgroup was represented by  $\pi^{\text{nonwhite}}$ . Data from the six possible SEARCH study visits were used to model a propensity score to estimate the treatment regimen distributions in both subgroups: white and nonwhite controlling for age, sex, SEARCH study site, SEARCH visit, and T1D duration. The models were fit separately for racial/ethnic subgroups, i.e. the  $\pi^{\text{nonwhite}}$  was fit on the nonwhite subpopulation and the  $\pi^{\text{white}}$  was fit on the white subpopulation. Multinomial logistic regression was used to fit the probability of treatment options given a linear combination of the aforementioned covariates. Three propensity score models were fit for insulin delivery modality, SMG (before cohort visits), and SMG with CGM use (cohort visits), respectively. Two separate models for frequency of glucose monitoring were fit for the visits (before the cohort visits versus cohort visits) to incorporate the availability of continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) that became available over the duration of the study.

Treatment regimen is a map  $\pi : X \to P^m$  from covariates X to a vector of probabilities of size m denoting m different treatment options.

The first step is to estimate a propensity score function  $\Psi(x)$  using a multinomial logistic regression fitted to  $\{X_i, A_i\}$ . Note that  $\Psi(x) = (\psi_1(x), ..., \psi_m(x))$  is a vector of probability for m different treatment options.

We fit the propensity score function on two subpopulations: white and nonwhite. This gives us  $\Psi^{\text{white}}(x)$  and  $\Psi^{\text{nonwhite}}(x)$  which are the estimate for two different treatment regimens  $\pi^{\text{white}}$  and  $\pi^{\text{nonwhite}}$ 

# **3** Estimation of the effect of the diabetes treatment regimens on clinical outcomes

The second step is estimating each policy's effect on the outcome of patients over time. This problem is often known as off-policy policy evaluation in the reinforcement learning literature (see [1] and [2] for review of methods) and is also in the tradition of estimating counterfactual quantities within the potential outcome framework in the statistical causal inference literature. In this analysis, we take the approach of approximating the action-value function (Q-function) in the context of finite horizon (i.e. the number of discrete time points T is finite). The approach is based on the Fitted Q Iteration (FQI) algorithm [3] which is a modelfree off-policy learning for batch mode reinforcement learning in the context of infinite horizon setting. A modification of FQI called Fitted Q Evaluation (FQE [4]) for off-policy policy evaluation has been shown to work well based on empirical study [1]. Details of our approach to estimate the Q function using regression in the finite horizon setting is given below.

The sequential data that we observed  $\{S_t = \{X_t, Z_t\}, A_t, Y_t(z_t, a_t)\}$  for each subject can be modeled with a Markov Decision Process (MDP). In our case, the MDP is defined by  $\langle S, A, P_1, P, \mu_y \rangle$ 

- *S* is the state space which consist of both *X*(covariates that affects treatment assignments) and *Z* (covariates that affects the outcome)
- A is the set of treatment options
- $P_1$  is the initial state distribution and P is the transition function representing the transition probability P(s'|s, a)
- $\mu_{y}$  is the mean outcome model which specifies the mean of  $Y_t(s_t, a_t)$

Given a MDP defined by  $\langle S, A, P, \mu_y \rangle$ , a trajectory  $\tau$  is a sequence of states  $S_t$ , actions  $A_t$ , and  $Y_t$  from t = 1, ..., T. Our observational data are i.i.d n trajectetories  $\{\tau_1, ..., \tau_n\}$ . The data generating mechanism is defined by the intial state distribution  $P_1$ , transition probability P, a density with the mean outcome  $\mu_y$ , as well as a treatment regimen  $\pi^D$  that spicifies the conditional probability of the treatment options in the data.

In the context of this problem, we are interested in estimating the counterfactual quantity

$$V^{\pi^{T}}(s) = E_{P,\pi^{T}}[\sum_{t=1}^{T} \gamma^{t-1} Y_{t} | S_{1} = s]$$
(1)

where  $\gamma$  is the discounting factor and  $\pi^T$  is the target treatment policy (not the treatment policy generating the data  $\pi^D$ )

In our analysis, we need to estimate the following two functions

$$V^{\pi^{\text{white}}}(s)$$
 and  $V^{\pi^{\text{non-white}}}(s)$ 

Estimating the above functions can be done recursively by the definitons below

$$V^{\pi}(s) := E_{a \sim \pi(s)}[Q_0^{\pi}(s, a)]$$
$$Q_t^{\pi}(s, a) := E_{s'}[Y_t(s, a) + \gamma E_{a' \sim \pi(s')}[Q_{t+1}^{\pi}(s', a')]]$$

Given  $V^{\pi^{\text{white}}}(s)$  and  $V^{\pi^{\text{non-white}}}(s)$ , we can then estimate the following quantity  $v(\pi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} V^{\pi}(s_i)$  for any population of size n with the initial states  $s_i$ . The quantities  $v(\pi^{\text{white}})$  and  $v(\pi^{\text{non-white}})$  represent the effect of two policies on the outcome in a population of interest.

To estimate the value function  $V^{\pi}(s)$  and subsequently  $v(\pi)$ , we take a regressionbased procedure to estimate the Q function above. Based on the observational data of trajectories  $\{\tau_1, ..., \tau_n\}$  which in our scenario has missing data at some timepoints, we approximate a sequence of  $Q_t^{\pi}$  function starting at t = T and iterate backward from t = T - 1 to t = 1 based on data from two consecutive timepoints.

At t = T (last time point), we use regression to approximate the function

$$Q_T(s,a) = E[Y_T(s,a)]$$

Then, at each time-point t = T - 1, ..., 1, we first construct the following pseudo-value  $\tilde{y}_t$ 

$$\tilde{y_t} = y_t + \gamma \sum_{a_{t+1}} \psi_{a_{t+1}}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}) \hat{Q}^{t+1}(z_{t+1}, a_{t+1})$$
(2)

We then use regression to approximate the function  $Q_t$  based on  $\{((x_t, z_t, a_t), \tilde{y_t})_i; i = 1, ..., n_t\}$  where  $n_t$  is the number of subjects with data available for timepoint t and t + 1 and in this case  $\gamma = 1$  (no discounting; discounting is not necessary since T is finite).

At baseline visit, we can therefore estimate  $V^{\pi}(s)$  for each subject and evaluate the treatment regimen outcomes at the population-level by computing the average of the outcome across a population:

$$v(\pi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} V^{\pi}(s_i)$$

Note that in this manuscript, the primary outcome is glycemic control (Hba1c %). Because we set  $\gamma = 1$  (no discounting),  $V^{\pi^T}(s)$  is just the average Hba1c level across 6 visits under the target treatment policy  $\pi^T$  according to equation (1).

For the secondary outcomes (risk of developing diabetes complications at either cohort visits), we modify equation (1) to

$$V^{\pi^{T}}(s) = E_{P,\pi^{T}}[y_{1} + (1 - y_{1})y_{2}|S_{1} = s]$$

where  $y_1$  is probability of developing complication at cohort visit 1 and  $y_2$  is the probability of developing complication at cohort visit 2. Similarly, for these secondary outcomes, we need to modify equation (3) to

$$\tilde{y}_t = y_t + \gamma(1 - y_t) \sum_{a_{t+1}} \psi_{a_{t+1}}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}) \hat{Q}^{t+1}(z_{t+1}, a_{t+1})$$

#### **4** Weighted Bootstrap for Inference of $v(\pi)$

We now discuss the inference for the value function  $v(\pi)$  and the conference interval for the estimate of  $v(\pi)$ . In this work, we rely on the multiplier bootstrap or weighted bootstrap to perform inference on  $v(\pi)$ . Specifically, the weighted bootstrap has the following weights  $w_i = \xi_i/\xi$  where  $\xi_i$  has a standard exponential distribution and  $\xi = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$ .

We first define  $(d_{ij}, u_{ij})$  for j = 1, ..., K and i = 1, ..., n where K is the finite number of time steps and n is the total number of subjects. Let  $d_{ij}$  be the indicator of patient i having data at visit j and let  $u_{ij}$  be the data for patient i at visit j i.e.  $u_{ij} = (S_{ij}, A_{ij})$ , let  $h_i = (d_{ij}, u_{ij}, y_{ij}; 1 \le j \le k)$ . Also, denote the shorthand notation  $\tilde{u}_{ij}(a) = (S_{ij}, a)$ 

Let  $\pi(a|X, \theta)$  be the propensity score for treatment option *a* given covariates *X* and parameter  $\theta$ . Let  $\hat{\theta}_n$  be the estimate for  $\theta$  given a dataset, and note that it

can be written as a differentiable function of the empirical process  $\mathbb{P}_n$  of the data  $\{h_i, i = 1, ..., n\}$ 

Let  $\mathbb{P}_n^*$  be the weighted bootstrap process. Define the weighted bootstrap empirical measure as follow:  $\mathbb{P}_n^* f = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i / \bar{\xi}) f(X_i)$ 

At the K'th (last) time step, it can be shown that the parameter of the estimated Q function has the form

$$\hat{\Psi}_{n_k} = \left(rac{\mathbb{P}_n d_j u_j u_j^T}{\mathbb{P}_n d_j}
ight)^{-1} rac{\mathbb{P}_n d_j (u_j y_j)}{\mathbb{P}_n d_j}$$

And  $\hat{\Psi}_{n_k}$  is a differentiable function of  $\mathbb{P}_n h$  and  $\hat{\theta}_n$ 

For j = 1, ..., K - 1, the parameter of the estimated Q function has the form

$$\hat{\Psi}_{n_j} = \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}_n d_j u_j u_j^T}{\mathbb{P}_n d_j}\right)^{-1} \frac{\mathbb{P}_n d_j u_j (y_j + \sum_{\tilde{a} \in \mathscr{A}} \pi(\tilde{a}, \theta_n) (\tilde{u}_{j+1}(\tilde{a}))^T \hat{\Psi}_{n_{j+1}})}{\mathbb{P}_n d_j}$$

Hence,  $\hat{\Psi}_{n_j}$  is a differentiable function of  $\mathbb{P}_n h, \hat{\Psi}_{n_{j+1}}, ..., \hat{\Psi}_{n_k}$  and  $\hat{\theta}_n$ 

Specifically, at baseline,

$$\hat{V}_{n_1}(x_{i0}) = \sum_{\tilde{a} \in \mathscr{A}} \pi(\tilde{a}, \theta_n) (\tilde{u}_{i,j+1}(\tilde{a}))^T \hat{\Psi}_{n_1}$$

And finally,

$$\hat{v}_{n_1}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_n) = \mathbb{P}_n \hat{V}_{n_1}(x_{i0})$$

Since *K* is finite, and by the chain rule, we obtain that  $\hat{v}_{n_1}(\pi_{\theta_n})$  is a Hadamand differentiable functional of an empirical process contained in a Donsker class and thus

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{v}_{n_1}(\theta_n) - v_0(\theta_n)) \rightsquigarrow_d \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$
(3)

 $v_0(\theta_n)$  is the expected value function at baseline of future patients from the same

population receiving the same propensity for treatment (reflected in  $\theta_n$ ). Since  $\hat{\theta}_n \rightarrow_p \theta_0$ , combined with the smoothness of  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{v}_{n_1}(\theta) - v_0(\theta))$  over  $\theta$  in a neighborhood of  $\theta_0$ , the covergence in (3) follows (See lemma 13.3 of [5]).

Also, suppose  $\hat{v}_{n_1}^*(\theta_n)$  is the weighted bootstrap version, we obtain

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{v}_{n_1}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}_n) - \hat{v}_{n_1}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_n)) \rightsquigarrow_d \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$$
(4)

conditioned on data, via similar arguments as above replacing  $\mathbb{P}_n$  with  $\mathbb{P}_n^*$  combined with theorem 2.6 and 2.9 of [5]

#### 5 Imputation of Missing Longitudinal Values of HbA1c

This section describes the multiple imputation method used to estimate the Non-White subgroup and White subgroup HbA1c outcome as well as their confidence intervals. Specifically, Table 2 reported that the population mean of the longitudinal average of HbA1c is 9.2 (95% confidence interval = (8.9, 9.4)) for the Non-White Subgroup and 8.2 (95% confidence interval = (8.1, 8.3)) for the White Subgroup. Note that no imputation was performed for the analysis described in previous sections where we estimate the outcomes under the two different treatment regimens.

Because some longitudinal HbA1c values for each subject are missing, to estimate longitudinal average we need to impute some values. Out of 978 subjects, 7.7% has HbA1c values for all 6 visits, 17.8% has values for 5 visits, 21.6% has values for 4 visits, 20.9% has values for 3 visits, 16.6% has values for 2 visits, and 15.5% has values for 1 visit. Multiple imputation allows us to account for the additional uncertainty of the unobserved (true) values of these longitudinal HbA1c values. We use the 21.pan method [6] from the mice R package [7] to perform the imputation (for review of various imputation methods for longitudinal data, see [8]). This method conducts imputation of missing values by sampling from a linear two-level hierachical model with homogeneous within-subject variance. Two-level hierachical model is appropriate in this case because the HbA1c values observed over time are nested within each subject. The following baseline covariates are included in the model for imputation: age at diagnosis, sex, SEARCH site, smoking status, maximum parental education, and health insurance type. Note also that imputation is conducted separately for Non-White and White subgroup.

The standard multiple imputation procedure is followed. The details of the 5 steps process is given below.

- Impute the missing longitudinal HbA1c values using 21.pan method separately for the two subgroups.
- For each imputed dataset, calculate the subgroup mean  $\hat{\mu}_j$  and variance  $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$  of the longitudinal average of the HbA1c values.
- Repeat the imputation 10 times to obtain  $\hat{\mu}_j$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2$  for j = 1, ..., 10
- Average the values of the mean estimate from the imputations to get a point estimate.  $\tilde{\mu} = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{j} \hat{\mu}_{j}$
- Calculate the total variance estimator (for constructing confidence interval) as follow

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{9} \sum_{j=1}^{10} (\hat{\mu}_j - \tilde{\mu})^2 + \frac{1}{10} \sum_{j=1}^{10} \hat{\sigma}_j^2$$

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