## <span id="page-0-0"></span>Understanding "how" in a study of cause and effect: An introduction to mediation analysis in epidemiology

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## <span id="page-2-0"></span>What is causal inference?

- Causal inference formalizes the assumptions needed to conclude that treatment A causes outcome Y and not just that A and Y are associated
- Methods in causal inference are often used to draw causal conclusions from observational datasets
- Examples of observational data:
	- Electronic health records
	- Insurance claims database
	- Customer purchasing database
	- Data from prospective studies where a treatment/exposure is not randomized
- The quantity of interest in many causal studies is called the treatment effect or causal effect

## Randomized controlled trials

- Randomized controlled trials (RCT's) are experiments in which a treatment is randomized to patients
- Large and well-designed RCT's are often considered the "gold" standard" for establishing causation between a treatment and outcome
- A key goal of randomization is to achieve covariate balance between groups
	- Covariate balance occurs when the distributions of other patient characteristics (sex, age, race, comorbidities, etc.) are similar between groups
	- An average treatment effect can be isolated if important covariates are balanced between groups
- However, RCT's are not always feasible

## Observational studies

- In observational studies, we often do not have covariate balance
- For example, say we are trying to use Electronic Health Records to provide preliminary evidence on whether an experimental therapy might be effective in treating patients with cancer
- The experimental therapy has not yet received FDA approval and is being used on a compassionate use basis

#### • Discussion questions:

- What factors might influence who receives the experimental therapy?
- Does every patient who is hospitalized with the condition have a positive probability of receiving this therapy?
- A series of causal assumptions (discussed in Hernán and Robins) can be used to conceptualize an observational study in an RCT framework

## Confounding variables

- Causal diagrams are used to visualize causal relationships between variables in an analysis
- In the causal diagram below,  $C$  is a **confounding variable**, since it is a common cause of both the treatment,  $A$ , and the outcome,  $Y$
- Not accounting for  $C$  would allow us to draw the conclusion that  $A$ and Y are associated but not that A causes  $Y$
- By accounting for C in our analysis, we can estimate the effect of  $A$ on  $Y$  (if there is one) that is not due to common cause  $C$



### <span id="page-6-0"></span>Potential outcomes framework

- Let Y denote a subject's observed outcome. We will assume that Y is continuous
- The subject either received treatment level  $A = 1$  or  $A = 0$ , but we only observed one of these situations and the corresponding outcome
- In order to estimate a treatment effect, we need to know what the subject's outcome would have been under each level of treatment



•  $Y = ZY_1 + (1 - Z)Y_0$  where  $Z = 1$  if the subject received treatment 1 and  $Z = 0$  if the subject received treatment 0

## Treatment Effects

- Using the counterfactual framework, a subject's treatment effect is defined as  $Y_1 - Y_0$
- Often, we cannot determine an individual treatment effect
- Much of causal inference is focused on estimating the **average** treatment effect or average causal effect in a population:

 $E(Y_1 - Y_0)$ 

- Stable unit treatment value assumption (SUTVA):
	- Part 1: There cannot be multiple versions of the treatment
	- Part 2: There cannot be treatment interference (i.e. the treatment of one subject cannot affect the potential outcome of another subject)

## <span id="page-8-0"></span>Mediation analysis: understanding "how"

- Mediation analysis aims to address an underlying causal mechanism
- It is likely already established that A causes Y, but we would like to know how and why that is
- Does A cause a change in intermediate outcome M (mediator), which in turn causes Y?
- How much of the total effect of A on Y occurs through M?



## Motivating example

- In a study of persons with a substance-use disorder, we would like to determine whether a rehabilitation program with methadone treatment (A) results in increased work activity (Y)
- It is of interest to determine whether some of this effect is mediated through level of illicit drug use (M)
- This example is described in Chapter 2 of VanderWeele's mediation textbook

## Potential outcomes framework in mediation analysis

- $Y_1$  and  $Y_0$  denote the counterfactual outcomes for a subject when taking treatment 1 and treatment 0, respectively
- In a mediation analysis, we also define counterfactual outcomes for the mediator variable



- $Y_{a,M_a}$  denotes the counterfactual outcome when the subject's treatment is fixed at level  $A = a$  and the subject's mediator value is the value that would have occurred if they had taken treatment  $A = a$
- We will assume that  $M$  is a continuous mediator

#### Causation vs. association in mediation

- Let  $C$  represent a collection of confounding variables
- In our motivating example,  $A =$  rehab  $+$  methadone,  $M =$  level of illicit drug use,  $Y =$  amount of work activity
- What variables might confound the relationship between A and M, M and Y, or A and Y?



## Causal quantities of interest

• Average total effect (TE): The average difference in outcome (treatment effect) when the treatment is set to 1 vs. 0

$$
E(Y_1 - Y_0 \mid c) = E(Y_{1,M_1} - Y_{0,M_0} \mid c)
$$

• Average natural direct effect (NDE): The average difference in outcome when the treatment is set to 1 vs. 0 and the mediator value is set to what it would have been under treatment 0

$$
E(Y_{1,M_0}-Y_{0,M_0}\mid c)
$$

Average natural indirect effect (NIE): The average difference in outcome when the treatment is set to 1 and the mediator value changes from what it would have been under treatment 0 to what it would have been under treatment 1

$$
E(Y_{1,M_1}-Y_{1,M_0}\mid c)
$$

[Mediation analysis](#page-8-0)

### <span id="page-13-0"></span>Causal assumptions in mediation analysis



• Assumption 1: Conditional on C, there is no unmeasured confounding between the outcome and the treatment

$$
Y_{a,m} \perp A \mid C
$$

• Assumption 2: Conditional on A and C, there is no unmeasured confounding between the outcome and the mediator

$$
Y_{a,m} \perp M \mid \{A,C\}
$$

[Mediation analysis](#page-8-0)

## <span id="page-14-0"></span>Causal assumptions in mediation analysis (continued)



• Assumption 3: Conditional of C, there is no unmeasured confounding between the mediator and the treatment

$$
M_a \perp A \mid C
$$

• Assumption 4: Conditional on C, A does not cause an effect L that in turn affects both  $M$  and  $Y$ 

$$
Y_{a,m} \perp M_{a^*} \mid C
$$

• SUTVA assumption mentioned earlier also [app](#page-13-0)[lie](#page-15-0)[s](#page-13-0)

## <span id="page-15-0"></span>Regression-based approach for mediation analysis

• We can use multiple linear regression models to model the relationships in the causal diagram



• Regress Y on  $a$ ,  $m$ , and  $c$  to obtain an estimate of

$$
E(Y \mid a,m,c) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 a + \theta_2 m + \theta_3 a m + \theta_4' c
$$

Regress  $M$  on  $a$  and  $c$  to obtain an estimate of

$$
E(M \mid a, c) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 a + \beta_2' c
$$

### <span id="page-16-0"></span>Estimating the average causal quantities

$$
NDE = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(Y | A = 1, M = m, C = c) f(m | A = 0, C = c) dm
$$

$$
- \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(Y | A = 0, M = m, C = c) f(m | A = 0, C = c) dm
$$

$$
= \theta_1 + \theta_3 \beta_0 + \theta_3 \beta_2' c
$$

$$
NIE = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(Y | A = 1, M = m, C = c) f(m | A = 1, C = c) dm
$$
  
- 
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(Y | A = 1, M = m, C = c) f(m | A = 0, C = c) dm
$$
  
= 
$$
\beta_1 (\theta_2 + \theta_3)
$$

$$
E(Y \mid a, m, c) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 a + \theta_2 m + \theta_3 a m + \theta'_4 c
$$

$$
E(M \mid a, c) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 a + \beta'_2 c
$$

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## Causal interpretation of effects

- Use of the regression models and the aforementioned causal assumptions collectively, allow for direct, indirect, and total effects to be estimated with a causal interpretation
- Interpret with caution as these assumptions will never be fully met in practice
- Several of these causal assumptions can be tested using sensitivity analysis methods

## How much of the total effect was mediated by M?

- Proportion mediated (PM) is one metric used to assess the amount of mediation
- Recall that the total effect is  $TE = NDE + NIE$

• 
$$
PM = \frac{NIE}{TE}
$$

- This metric has some limitations
	- It can have a wide confidence interval
	- If the direct and indirect effect have different signs, PM can exceed 100%

## Frequentist vs. Bayesian paradigm

#### • Frequentist approach:

- Estimates of the TE, NIE, NDE, and PM can be obtained by plugging in the estimated regression coefficients
- Bootstrapping is often the easiest way to obtain confidence intervals for these quantities in the frequentist setting

#### ● Bayesian approach:

- Run the Bayesian version of each linear regression model
	- Prior distributions must be specified on each parameter
- Obtain posterior samples of the TE, NIE, NDE, and PM
- Use the posterior mean as the estimate and obtain 95% credible intervals using the sample values corresponding to the 2.5th and 97.5th percentile of each quantity

### <span id="page-20-0"></span>Understanding cancer disparities with mediation analysis

- My dissertation research focuses on assessing patterns in cancer mortality rates at the county level using Bayesian hierarchical models
- $\bullet$  In the Midwest, there are rural/urban differences in age-adjusted cancer mortality rates



- We aim to understand which variables mediate the relationship between rural/urban status and age-adjusted cancer mortality rates using a Bayesian spatial modeling approach
- Working on this research with Dr. Jake Oleson and Dr. Mary Charlton

# Understanding cancer disparities with single mediator model



- A represents the rurality of a county  $(A = 1$  is rural,  $A = 0$  is urban)
- $M$  represents the miles to the nearest Commission-on-Cancer-accredited hospital
- $Y$  represents a county's age-adjusted cancer mortality rate
- We focus on further explaining the association between  $A$  and  $Y$ rather than obtaining a causal interpretation

## Bayesian hierarchical models

Model 1:

 $Y_{ik}$  ∼ Poisson $(\lambda_{ik})$ 

 $\log(\lambda_{ik}) = \log(n_{ik}) + \alpha_k + \theta_1 a_i + \theta_2 m_i + \theta_3 a_i m_i + \gamma_i + \epsilon_i$ 

- Let i denote the county and k denote the age group
- $Y_{ik}$  denotes the number of cancer deaths in the corresponding group
- $\bullet \ \gamma_i$  is a spatial random effect for county  $i$  (has a conditional autoregressive prior)
	- Accounts for correlated age-adjusted rates between a county and its neighboring counties
- $\epsilon_i$  accounts for overdispersion in the Poisson model
- Vague prior distributions are assigned to all other parameters

 $QQ$ 

Bayesian hierarchical models (continued)

Model 2:

$$
M_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma^2)
$$

$$
\mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 a_i
$$

● Vague prior distributions are assigned to all parameters

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## Some challenges

- Treatment interference in the spatial setting
	- SUTVA assumption is violated!
	- A neighboring county's rural or urban status likely influences the county's cancer mortality rate
		- We therefore have "treatment" interference
	- Recent literature suggests ways to redefine potential outcomes when treatment interference occurs due to spatial or social network interference (see Forastiere et al)
- Count outcome
	- We need to re-derive the direct and indirect effects, as the set of effects based on the linear model do not hold for count outcomes
- Multiple mediators
	- Including additional mediators, especially correlated mediators, requires new expressions for the direct and indirect effects

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