

# Causal and Marginal Models

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# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 The  $g$ -null Paradox
- 3 Odds Ratios
- 4 Main Results
- 5 Examples

# Marginal Models

There are many situations in which we need to model marginal structure as part of a larger multivariate model:

- to account for dependence between individuals in panel studies;
- to enforce stationarity in longitudinal models;
- to model a marginal or conditional independence in a Bayesian network;
- in causal models;
- to transfer information across studies;
- etc...

# Political Orientation

This is data from a panel study which rated political orientation from 1 (extremely liberal) to 7 (extremely conservative) in 1992 and 1994. (Bergsma, Croon and Hageaars, 2013)

		Political Orientation 1994							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<b>Total</b>
1992	1	3	4	1	2	0	1	0	11
	2	2	23	15	6	0	2	0	48
	3	1	8	23	9	9	1	0	51
	4	0	6	17	56	19	13	2	113
	5	0	1	1	18	40	29	3	92
	6	0	1	1	4	13	51	7	77
	7	0	0	0	0	2	11	3	16
<b>Total</b>		6	43	58	95	83	107	16	408

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Naïve modelling gives no evidence to reject null hypothesis of no change; full modelling gives strong evidence of a shift.

# Parameterisations

A simple parameterisation just uses the cell probabilities  $p_{11}, p_{21}, \dots$

		$Y$			
		1	2	3	<b>Total</b>
$X$	1	$p_{11}$	$p_{12}$	$p_{13}$	$p_{1+}$
	2	$p_{21}$	$p_{22}$	$p_{23}$	$p_{2+}$
	3	$p_{31}$	$p_{32}$	$p_{33}$	$p_{3+}$
	<b>Total</b>	$p_{+1}$	$p_{+2}$	$p_{+3}$	$p_{++}$

To model the marginals, we instead want to start with the row and column totals:  $p_{1+}, p_{2+}, \dots, p_{+1}, p_{+2}, \dots$

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On top of this, we need... the **odds ratios!**

e.g. 
$$\frac{p_{11}p_{22}}{p_{12}p_{21}}.$$

# Smooth, Variation Independent Parameters

		Y			Total
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- 

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Using marginal probabilities and odds ratios is a

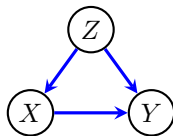
- **smooth** and
- **variation independent**

parameterisation.

# Margins

Causal modelling typically involves marginal parameters with some more complicated global structure.

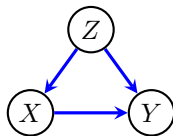
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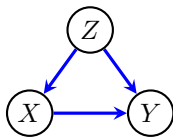


$$P(y \mid do(x)) = \sum_z P(z)P(y \mid x, z).$$

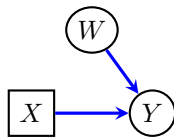
This quantity tells us *what would* happen if  $X$  were chosen independently of  $Z$ . How do we use it to generate observations from the real distribution with this marginal piece?

# Multiple Experiments and Transportability

Suppose we have two experiments on some of the same variables:



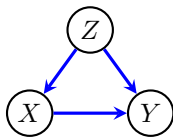
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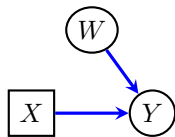
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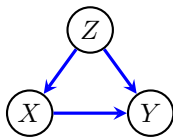
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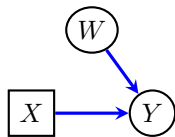
$$P(Y \mid do(X)) = Q(Y \mid do(X)).$$

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Suppose we have two experiments on some of the same variables:



observational study,  $P$



randomised trial,  $Q$

Suppose want to assert / test that

$$P(Y \mid do(X)) = Q(Y \mid do(X)).$$

These are marginal parameters:

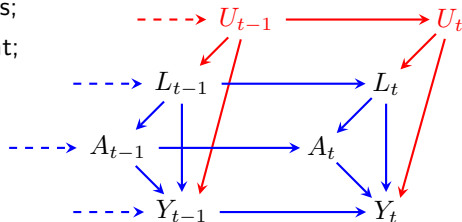
$$P(Y \mid do(X)) = \sum_Z P(Y \mid X, Z) \cdot P(Z)$$

$$Q(Y \mid do(X)) = Q(Y \mid X).$$

# Survival Models

At each time  $t$  we have:

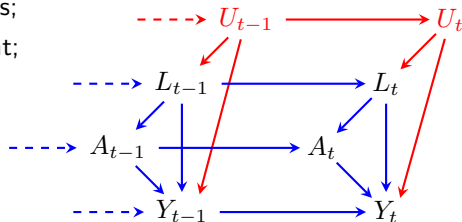
- $U_t$  unobserved variables;
- $L_t$  covariates;
- $A_t$  treatment;
- $Y_t$  survival.



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What is probability of survival ( $Y = 1$ ) to next time point, given treatment?

$$P(Y_t = 1 \mid Y_{t-1} = 1, do(A_1, \dots, A_t)).$$

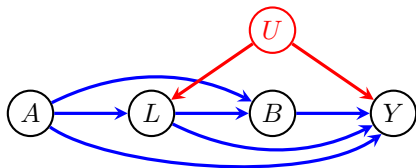


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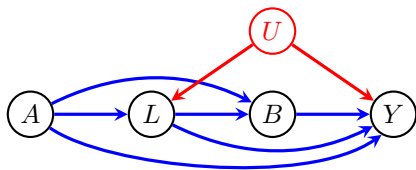
# Causal Models

Take a simple two-step dynamic treatment model.



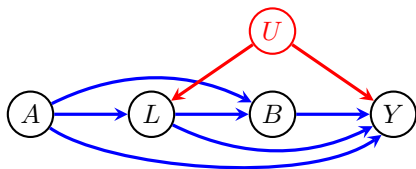
- $A, B$  treatments (randomised);
- $L$  intermediate outcome;
- $Y$  final outcome;
- $U$  unobserved confounders.

# Identification



**Question:** how do the treatments causally affect the final outcome?  
Or, if we treated everyone with  $(a, b)$ , what would happen?

# Identification

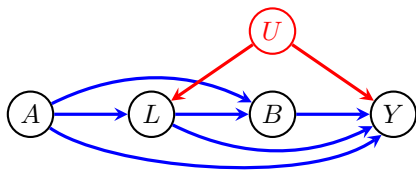


**Question:** how do the treatments causally affect the final outcome?  
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How do we identify this?

- $P(Y | A = a, B = b)$ : ignoring/marginalising  $L$ ;
- $P(Y | A = a, B = b, L = l)$ : conditioning on  $L$ .

# Identification



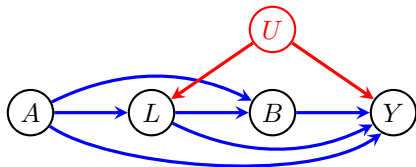
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- $P(Y \mid A = a, B = b)$ : ignoring/marginalising  $L$ ;
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**Neither** has the desired causal interpretation!

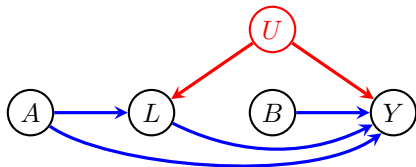
# Identification



Can 'reweight' a sample/distribution to pretend that  $B$  was assigned independently of  $A$  and  $L$ :

$$P^*(A, L, B, Y) = P(A, L, B, Y) \frac{P(B)}{P(B | A, L)}.$$

# Identification

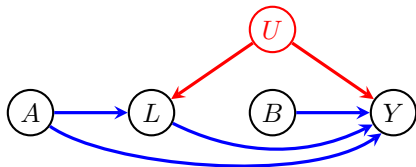


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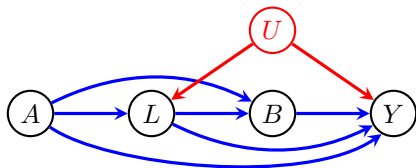
Then  $P^*(Y | A, B)$  **does** have the desired causal interpretation!

$$P^*(Y | A, B) = \sum_L P^*(L, Y | A, B) = \sum_L P(Y | A, L, B) \cdot P(L | A).$$



# Parameterising Causal Models

Identification due to Robins (1986); more general results available (Shpitser and Pearl, 2006).



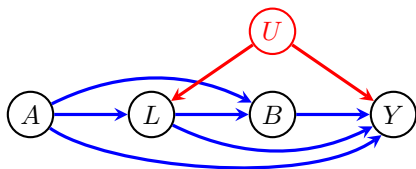
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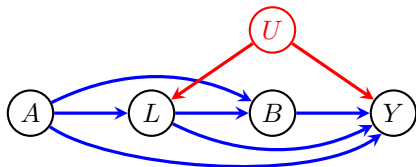
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Causal question of interest might be:

“does  $P(Y \mid do(A = a, B = b))$  depend upon  $a$ ?”

# Parameterising Causal Models

For likelihood-based inference and simulation, need a parametrisation.



Standard parameterisations lead to the **g-null paradox**.

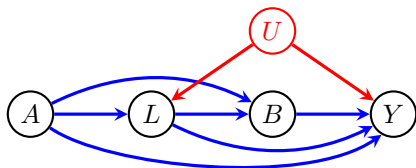
For example, if:

- logistic regression model for  $Y$  given  $A, B, L$ ;
- linear Gaussian model for  $L$  given  $A$ ;

then with faithfulness it is **impossible** for  $P(Y \mid do(A, B))$  not to depend upon  $A$ . (Robins and Wasserman, 1997)

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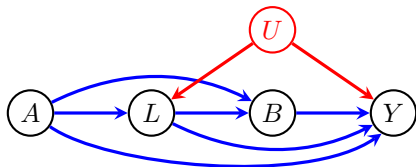
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Naturally, this is disastrous for hypothesis testing.

# Simulation

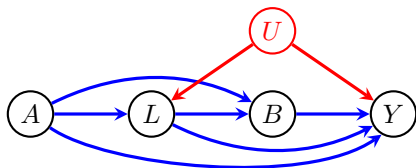
Havercroft and Didelez (2012) note that simulating data from this model such that  $P(Y | do(A, B))$  independent of  $A$  is difficult in some cases.



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Why?

Simulation requires  $P(A, L, B, Y)$ ;  
relationship to  $P(Y \mid do(A, B))$  seems complicated.

g-null paradox shows we can't just specify a nice parametric model for  $P$   
and then fix parameters until independence holds.

# Recast the Problem

Define

$$\begin{aligned}P^*(Y, L \mid A, B) &\equiv P(Y, L \mid do(A, B)) \\ &= P(Y \mid A, L, B) \cdot P(L \mid A).\end{aligned}$$

**Message:**  $P^*$  is *just* a (conditional) probability distribution.

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## Desired Properties of $P^*$

- nice model for  $P^*(Y | A, L, B) = P(Y | A, L, B)$  for simulation.
- nice model for  $P^*(Y | A, B)$  for statistical inference;
- nice model for  $P^*(L | A, B) = P(L | A)$  to ensure  $L \perp\!\!\!\perp B | A [P^*]$ ;

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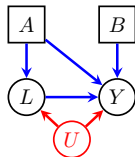
Short answer: **we can't!** It doesn't make sense to try to specify  $P^*(Y | A, L, B)$  and  $P^*(Y | A, B)$  separately.

# Margins

A better way to think about this: given intervention distribution  $P^*$  suppose we have:

- a model for  $P^*(Y | A, B)$ ;
- a model for  $P^*(L | A, B) = P(L | A)$ ;

These do not fully specify  $P^*(Y, L | A, B)$   
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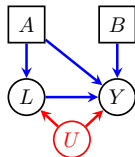


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## Answer

The  $Y$ - $L$  odds ratio, conditional on  $A = a, B = b$ :

$$\phi_{YL}(Y, L | A, B).$$

The additional information given by  $P(Y | A, L, B)$  is then **redundant**.

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# Generalising Odds Ratios

Familiar definition of an odds ratio:

$$OR(X, Y) = \frac{P(X = 1, Y = 1) \cdot P(X = 0, Y = 0)}{P(X = 1, Y = 0) \cdot P(X = 0, Y = 1)}.$$

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Information contained is the same as:

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for unknown functions  $u, v > 0$ .

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Can obtain the familiar odds ratio by taking the cross-ratio:

$$\frac{\phi_{XY}(1, 1) \cdot \phi_{XY}(0, 0)}{\phi_{XY}(1, 0) \cdot \phi_{XY}(0, 1)} = \frac{P(X = 1, Y = 1) \cdot P(X = 0, Y = 0)}{P(X = 1, Y = 0) \cdot P(X = 0, Y = 1)}.$$

# Generalising Odds Ratios

Let  $p$  be a density for  $X, Y$ .

The **odds ratio** for  $X, Y$  is the equivalence class of functions  $\phi_{XY}$  such that

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Some points:

- defined for any distribution with a density;
- $p$  is a member of the equivalence class;
- there's no requirement for  $p$  to be positive;
- iterative proportional fitting recovers the joint distribution.

# Specifying Margins

Let  $r_{XY}(x, y)$  be a joint distribution with odds ratio  $\phi_{XY}$ .

## Theorem

Let  $p_X$  and  $p_Y$  be densities such that  $p_X \ll r_X$  and  $p_Y \ll r_Y$ . Then there exists a unique joint distribution with margins  $p_X$ ,  $p_Y$  and odds ratio  $\phi_{XY}$ .

This follows from Csiszár (1975).

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This is a form of **variation independence**: we can paste together essentially any dependence structure with any margins and get a distribution.

# Examples

- For discrete variables this reduces to the 'usual' odds ratio;
- for Gaussian variables:

$$\phi_{XY} \sim \exp\left(\frac{\rho xy}{\sigma_x \sigma_y (1 - \rho^2)}\right)$$

- multivariate  $t$ -distribution ( $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)^T$ ):

$$\phi_{XY} \sim (1 + \nu^{-1} \mathbf{x}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x})^{-\nu/2-1}$$

# Copulae

A popular way of modelling dependence between variables without specifying margins is to use a **copula** model.

$$P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = C(F_X(x), F_Y(y))$$

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Note we can't obtain the copula from the odds ratio (or vice versa) without knowing the margins.

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Features:

- Well established methods for fitting, simulation, inference.
- Non-continuous variables lead to unidentifiability.
- Not clear which is easier to interpret, copula or odds ratio.

# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 The  $g$ -null Paradox
- 3 Odds Ratios
- 4 Main Results**
- 5 Examples

# Cognate Probabilities

We say a quantity  $f(x_C | x_A)$  is a **cognate distribution** to the conditional probability density  $p(x_C | x_A)$  if is of the form

$$f(x_C | x_A) \equiv \int_{x_B} p(x_C | x_A, x_B) \cdot w(x_B | x_A) dx_B,$$

where  $w(x_B | x_A) > 0$  is a function of  $p(x_A, x_B)$  such that  $\int w(x_B | x_A) dx_B = 1$  for each  $x_A$ .



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## Examples

$$p(x_C | x_A) = \int p(x_C | x_A, x_B) \cdot p(x_B | x_A) dx_B$$

$$p(x_C | do(x_A)) = \int p(x_C | x_A, x_B) \cdot p(x_B) dx_B$$

$$\mathbb{E}X_C(x_A, x'_A) = \int p(x_C | x_A, x_B) \cdot p(x_B | x'_A) dx_B.$$

# Cognate Probabilities

In the discrete case, we can substitute cognate quantities in parameterisations without any problem.

## Theorem

Suppose we have a multivariate discrete parameterisation which is hierarchical and consists of probabilities of the form  $P(X_{A_i} | X_{B_i})$ .

Then if we replace any of these  $P^*(X_{A_i} | X_{B_i})$  with cognate quantities, the parameterisation is still smooth.

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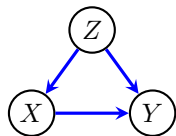
# Cognate Probabilities

**Example.**

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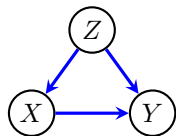
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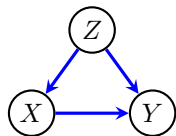
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# Cognate Probabilities



## Example.

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$P(Z)$	$P(X   Z)$	$P(Y   X)$	$\phi_{YZ X}$	is smooth...
$P(Z)$	$P(X   Z)$	$P(Y   do(X))$	$\phi_{YZ X}$	is also smooth!

## Example.

$$\theta_x = P(Y = 1 | do(X = x)) - P(Y = 1 | X = x)$$

cannot form part of a smooth parameterisation.

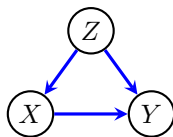
# Results

## Theorem

Consider (possibly vector valued)  $Y$  and  $X, Z$ . Then can parameterise joint distribution  $P(Z, X, Y)$  with:

$$P(Z, X) \quad \underbrace{P^*(Y | X)}_{\text{cognate to } P} \quad \underbrace{\phi_{ZY}(Z, Y | X)}_{P\text{-odds ratio}}$$

and these three pieces are variation independent of one another.



# Results

It follows that, given a temporal ordering, we can apply this result inductively, obtaining one 'piece of information of interest' for each variable.

Suppose we have an ordered set of variables:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$ .

For each  $X_i$  divide the predecessors into two sets:  $\mathbf{W}_i \cup \mathbf{V}_i$ .

## Theorem

We can obtain a variation independent parameterisation which includes

$$P^*(X_i \mid \mathbf{W}_i) \quad \forall i.$$

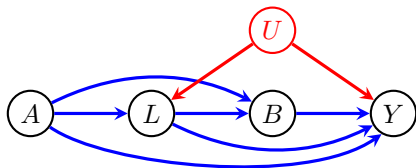
for any set of cognate quantities  $P^*(X_i \mid \mathbf{W}_i)$ .



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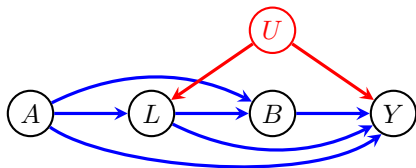
# A Recipe



For our problem, separately specify (nice, parametric) models for:

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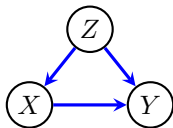
- $P(A)$ ;
- $P(L | A)$ ;
- $P(B | A, L)$ ;
- $P(Y | do(A, B))$  and  $\phi_{YL}(Y, L | A, B)$  (the conditional odds ratio).

This is a fully variation independent, with no redundancy.

# Example: Observed Confounding

Can parameterize this as:

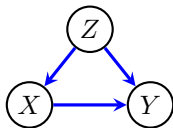
- $P(Z), P(X | Z)$ ;
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## Example: Observed Confounding

Can parameterize this as:

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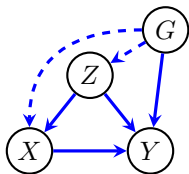
The variation independence is useful:

- easy to incorporate covariates in GLM form;
- no danger of choosing impossible higher order interactions (so no  $g$ -null paradox!);
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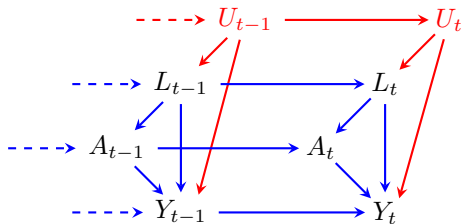
- easy to incorporate covariates in GLM form;
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- means independent priors are valid.

Example, suppose want to model how is causal effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  modulated by  $G$ . Then we can do this with a logistic regression form:

$$\text{logit } P(Y = 1 | do(X), G) = f(X, G).$$

# Example: Survival Models

Young and Tchetgen Tchetgen (2014) consider survival models:



What is probability of survival ( $Y = 1$ ) to next time point, given treatment?

$$P(Y_t = 1 \mid Y_{t-1} = 1, do(A_1, \dots, A_t)).$$

No problem! What remains is the dependence structure between  $L$ 's and  $Y_t$  given  $A_1, \dots, A_t$

## Example: Survival Models

Hence simulation in some cases becomes relatively easy under a null; e.g.:

$$P(Y_t | Y_{t-1} = 1, do(A_1, \dots, A_t)) = P(Y_t | Y_{t-1} = 1).$$

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Can also easily incorporate, for e.g., a **stationarity assumption**.

$$P(Y_t | Y_{t-1} = 1, do(A_t = a)) = g(a)$$

# What Can't Be Done

With each parameter (either conditional distribution or odds ratio) we can associate a collection of subsets of variables:

$$\mathbb{D}(P(X_A | X_B)) = \{W \subseteq A \cup B : A \cap W \neq \emptyset\}$$

$$\mathbb{D}(\phi_{AB}(X_A, X_B | X_C)) = \{W \subseteq A \cup B \cup C : A \cap W \neq \emptyset, B \cap W \neq \emptyset\}.$$

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**Examples:**

$$\mathbb{D}(P(Y | X, Z)) = \{\{Y\}, \{X, Y\}, \{Y, Z\}, \{X, Y, Z\}\}$$

$$\mathbb{D}(\phi_{YZ}(Y, Z | X)) = \{\{Y, Z\}, \{X, Y, Z\}\}.$$

# What Can't Be Done

## Proposition

Let  $\psi, \psi'$  be two parameters (i.e. cognate conditional distributions or odds ratios).

If  $\mathbb{D}(\psi) \cap \mathbb{D}(\psi') \neq \emptyset$  then any parameterisation that includes  $\psi$  and  $\psi'$  is non-smooth.

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## Example

In our original example we tried to have:

$$P(Y | A, B, L) \quad P(Y | do(A, B)).$$

But these both include  $\{Y\}, \{Y, A\}, \{Y, B\}, \{Y, A, B\}$ .

# Example: History-Adjusted Marginal Structural Models

Denote  $\bar{A}_t = (A_1, \dots, A_t)$  and  $\underline{A}_t = (A_t, \dots, A_T)$ .

van der Laan et al (2005) introduce a **history-adjusted** model that models:

$$p(Y \mid \bar{L}_t, \bar{A}_{t-1}, do(\underline{A}_t)), \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

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By the previous result, we cannot expect to model e.g.

$$p(Y \mid L_1, do(A_1, A_2)) \quad p(Y \mid L_1, L_2, A_1, do(A_2)).$$

separately.

The incompatibility of the models used was pointed out by Robins, Hernán and Rotnitzky (2007).

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- the g-null paradox arises from trying to specify the same quantity twice;
- this can be avoided by understanding which parameters are 'free' to be specified;
- application to marginal structural models, survival models, stationarity, transportability...
- simulation becomes much easier in Gaussian, discrete cases, some copula models;
- there is a large literature on marginal models to look at for other cases.

**Thank you!**

# References

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