

# Causal ~~Casual~~ mediation analysis

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# Stata's `mediate` command

- New in Stata 18: `mediate`
- Performs causal mediation analysis for linear and generalized linear models.

# Stata's mediate command

```
mediate (ovar [omvarlist, omodel noconstant])  
      (mvar [mmvarlist, mmodel noconstant])  
      (tvar [, continuous(numlist)] ) [if] [in] [weight] [, stat options]
```

*ovar* is a continuous, binary, or count outcome of interest.

*omvarlist* specifies the covariates in the outcome model.

*mvar* is the mediator variable and may be continuous, binary, or count.

*mmvarlist* specifies the covariates in the mediator model.

*tvar* is the treatment variable and may be binary, multivalued, or continuous.

# Stata's mediate command

<i>Mediator</i> <i>Outcome</i>	linear	logit	probit	Poisson	exp. mean
linear	X	X	X	X	X
logit		X	X	X	
probit	X	X	X	X	X
Poisson	X	X	X	X	X
exp. mean	X	X	X	X	X

Note: X indicates a supported model combination

# Stata's mediate command

```
. mediate (wellbeing) (bonotonin) (exercise)
```

```
Final EE criterion = 2.04e-28
```

```
Causal mediation analysis
```

```
Number of obs = 2,000
```

```
Outcome model: Linear
```

```
Mediator model: Linear
```

```
Mediator variable: bonotonin
```

```
Treatment type: Binary
```

wellbeing		Coefficient	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	9.799821	.3943251	24.85	0.000	9.026958	10.57268
NDE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	2.891453	.2304278	12.55	0.000	2.439823	3.343083
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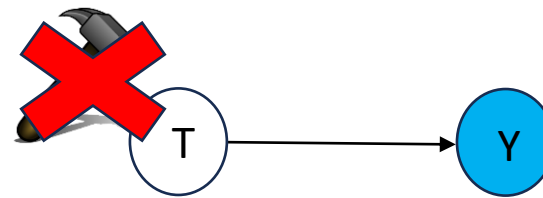
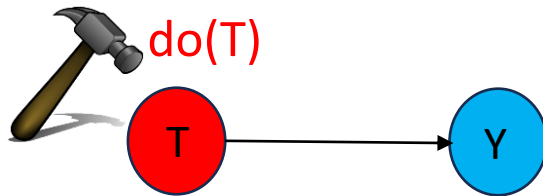
```
Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.
```

# Outline

- Basics of causal thinking and inference
  - Introduction and motivation
  - Potential-outcomes framework and DAGs
  - Fundamental steps of causal inference
- Causal mediation analysis
  - Direct and indirect effects
  - Identification
  - Demonstration

# Causal thinking and causal inference

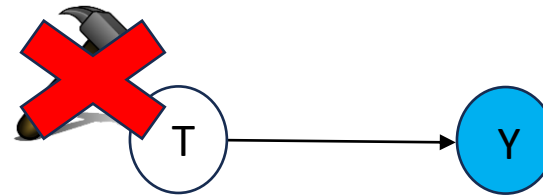
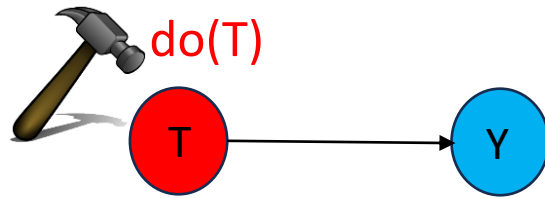
- Causal inference tackles the fundamental questions of cause and effect.
- The causal effect aims to compare the outcome when an action  $T$  is taken versus the outcome when the action  $T$  is withheld.





# Causal inference

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- The causal effect aims to compare the outcome when an action  $T$  is taken versus the outcome when the action  $T$  is withheld.



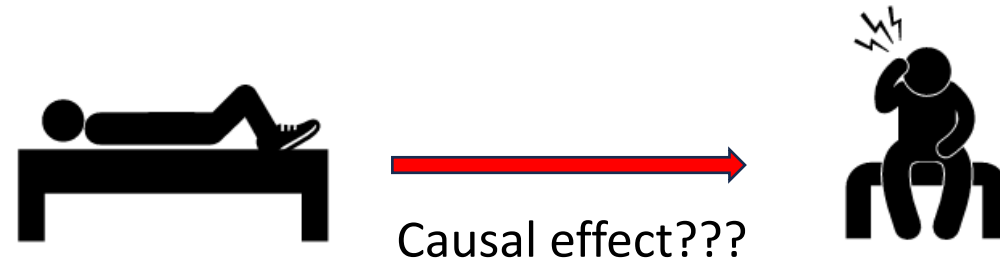
- We refer to action  $T$  as an intervention, an exposure, or a treatment.
  - Effect of a treatment/drug/vaccine on a disease;
  - Effect of social media on mental health;
  - Effect of genes on a disease, etc.



# Causal inference

- **Why do we need causality?**
- Why association or statistical dependence is not enough?
- Association does not imply causation!
- The amount of **association** and the amount of **causation** can be different

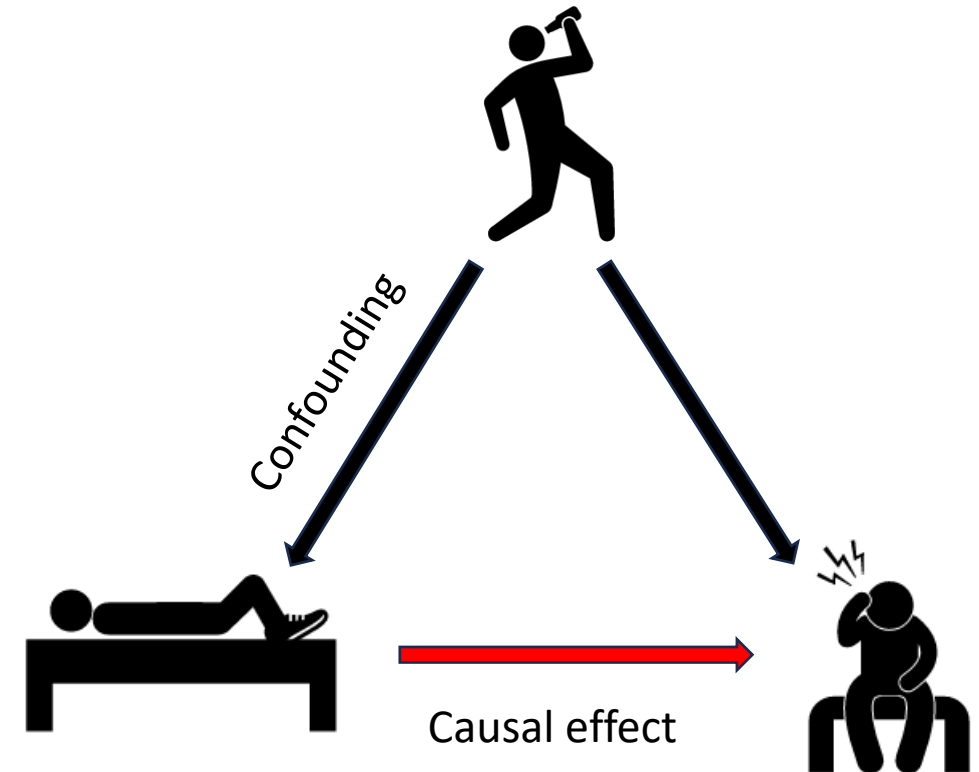
# Causal inference



- Suppose we analyze data where the "treatment" is sleeping with shoes on (or not), and the outcome is waking up with a headache (or not) the next day.
- We find that most times when someone wears shoes to bed, that person wakes up with a headache.
- **Question:** Can we interpret this relationship as causal?

# Causal inference

- One possible explanations for association
  - Both treatment and outcome are caused by a **common cause**: drinking the night before.
  - Such variables are known as **confounders** and the association as **confounding association**.
  - **Confounding** is the main source of differentiating association from causation.

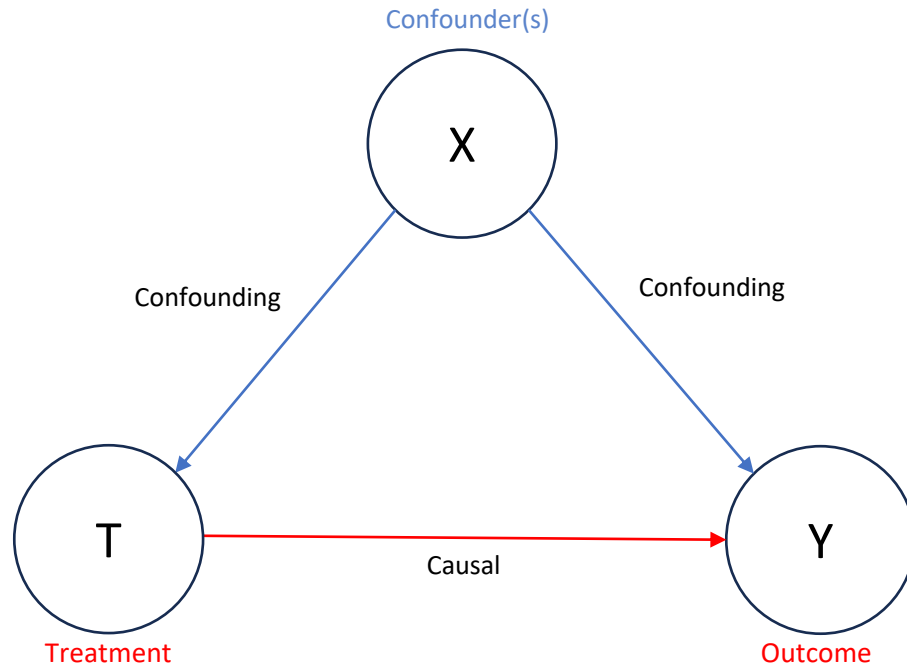


\*Borrowed from Neal (2020)

# Causal inference

- **Our goal:** Learn about causal effects
  - Represent the causal structure
  - Characterize the causal effect
- Notation:
  - $T \in \{0,1\}$  denotes **treatment assignment**: Wearing shoes vs not wearing shoes to bed
  - $Y$  denotes **the outcome**: Headache vs no headache
  - $X$  denotes **potential confounders** that affect both  $T$  and  $Y$ : Drinking the previous day

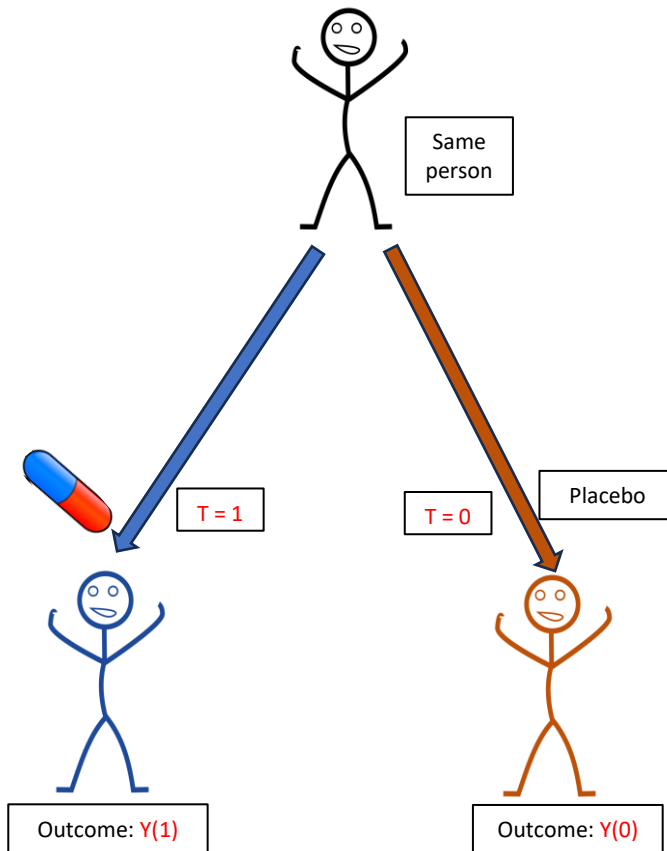
# Directed acyclic graphs (DAGs)



- We use DAGs to represent causal relationships and structure.
- Arrows indicate a direct causal effect (**not mediated**) for at least one subject.
- Informally, **the goal of causal inference** is to estimate the **causal part** of the graph while controlling for the **confounding part**.

# Potential-outcomes framework

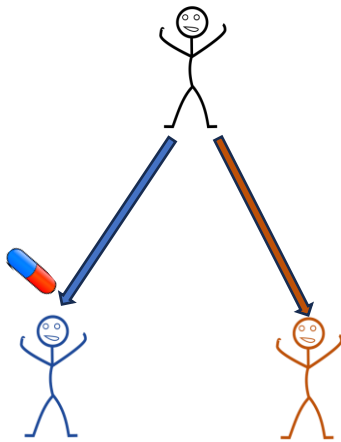
- To **characterize the causal effect** we use the **potential outcomes framework**.



- The **potential outcome**  $Y(T = t) = Y(t)$  is the outcome we would have observed had  $T = t$  been assigned.
- The causal effect can be measured as  $Y(1) - Y(0)$ , which is the change due to the treatment **keeping everything else the same**.

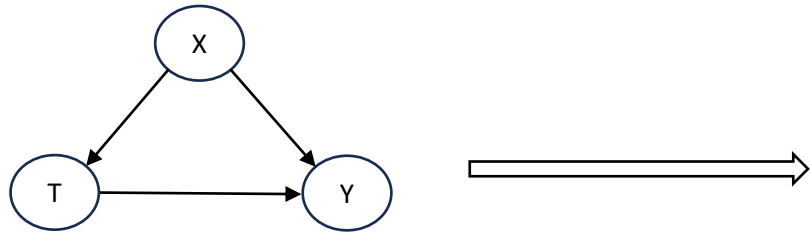
# Potential-outcomes framework

- **Fundamental Problem of Causal Inference:** Only one of  $\{Y(1), Y(0)\}$  is observed.
- The *observed* potential outcome is called **factual**.
- The *unobserved* potential outcome is called **counterfactual**.
- The causal effect is a **contrast between two parallel worlds**, which we imagine for the same subject.

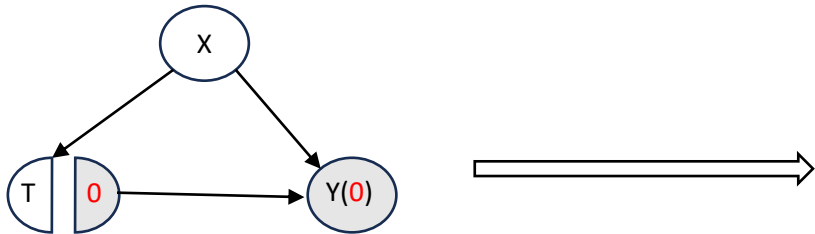




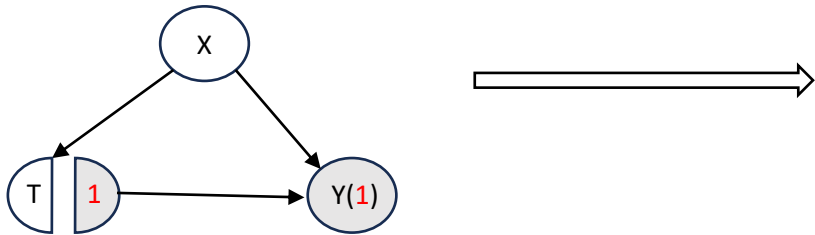
# Potential-outcomes framework



- Actual, observed world.



- In this world everything is the same but **T is set to 0**.



- In this world everything is the same but **T is set to 1**.

- **Note** that compared to the observed world, in imaginary worlds the **causal link** between **X** and treatment **T** is broken.

# Potential-outcomes framework

Subject	T	Y	Y(1)	Y(0)	Y(1) – Y(0)
1	0	2.1	?	2.1	?
2	1	3.7	3.7	?	?
3	1	4.2	4.2	?	?
4	0	6.2	?	6.2	?
...	...	...	...	...	...

- The observed outcome:  
$$Y = T*Y(1) + (1 - T)*Y(0)$$
- For the subject with treatment  $T = 1$   
$$Y = 1*Y(1) + 0*Y(0)$$
- Similarly, for  $T = 0$   
$$Y = 0*Y(1) + (1 - 0)*Y(0)$$
- Thus,  $Y(1) - Y(0)$  is never observed for subject  $i$ .

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- Thus,  $Y(1) - Y(0)$  is never observed for subject  $i$ .

- Natural measure of causal effect is the **average treatment effect (ATE)**

$$\mu = E[Y(1) - Y(0)]$$

# Potential-outcomes framework

- **Important question:** Is it possible to estimate the ATE if  $Y(1) - Y(0)$  is never observed?
  - Yes, but under certain causal assumptions.
- Causal inference helps in moving observables  $(Y, T, X)$  to the distribution  $\{Y(0), Y(1), T, X\}$ .
- Causal Inference is much more than familiar statistical inference
  - Statistical inference: from sample to population
  - Causal Inference: from sample to counterfactual populations

# Causal identification

- **Causal identification**: the process of learning a causal estimand (ATE)  $\mu = \mu_1 - \mu_0$  with  $\mu = E[Y(t)]$ ,  $t = 0, 1$  from observed data  $(Y_i, T_i, X_i)$ .

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$$\mu_{naive} = E[Y|T = 1] - E[Y|T = 0]$$

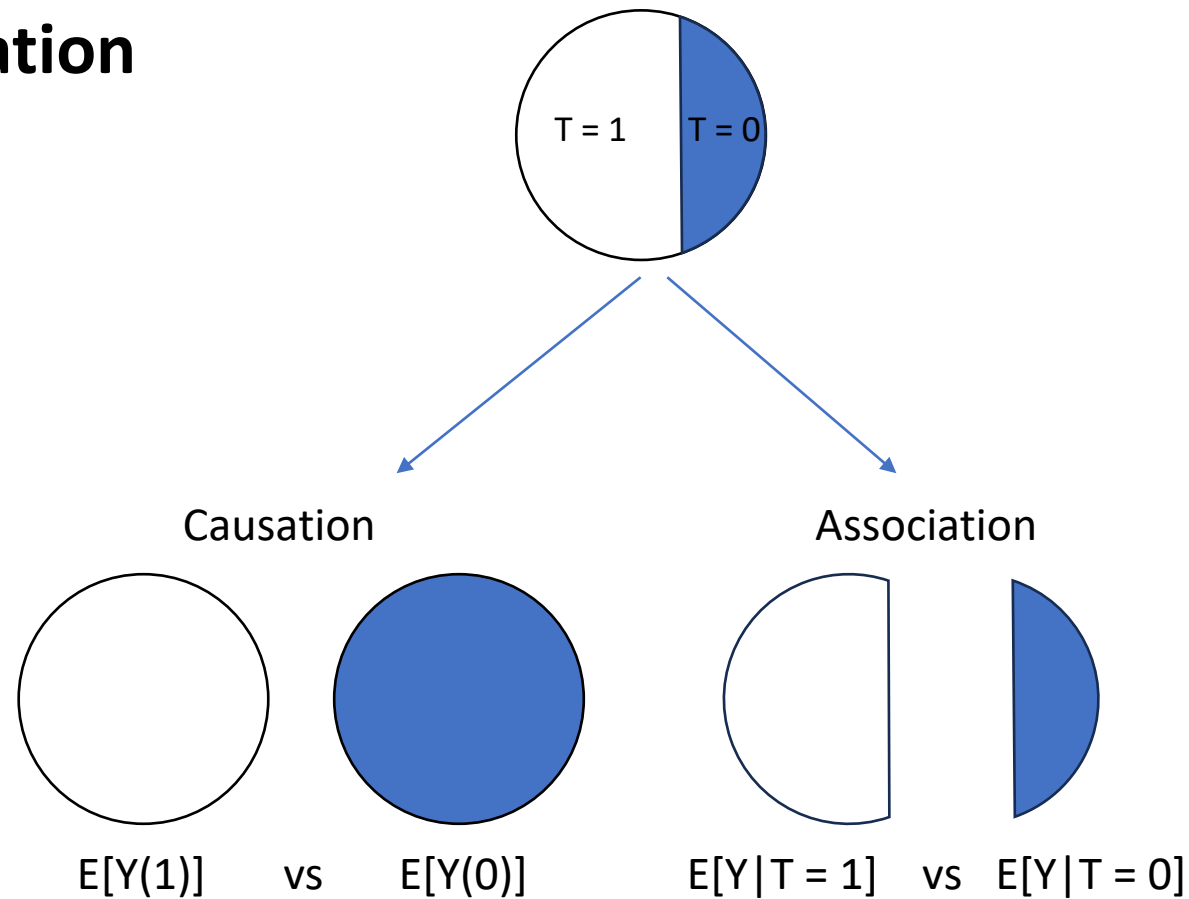
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- **Answer**: In general **NO**. Recall the shoe example.

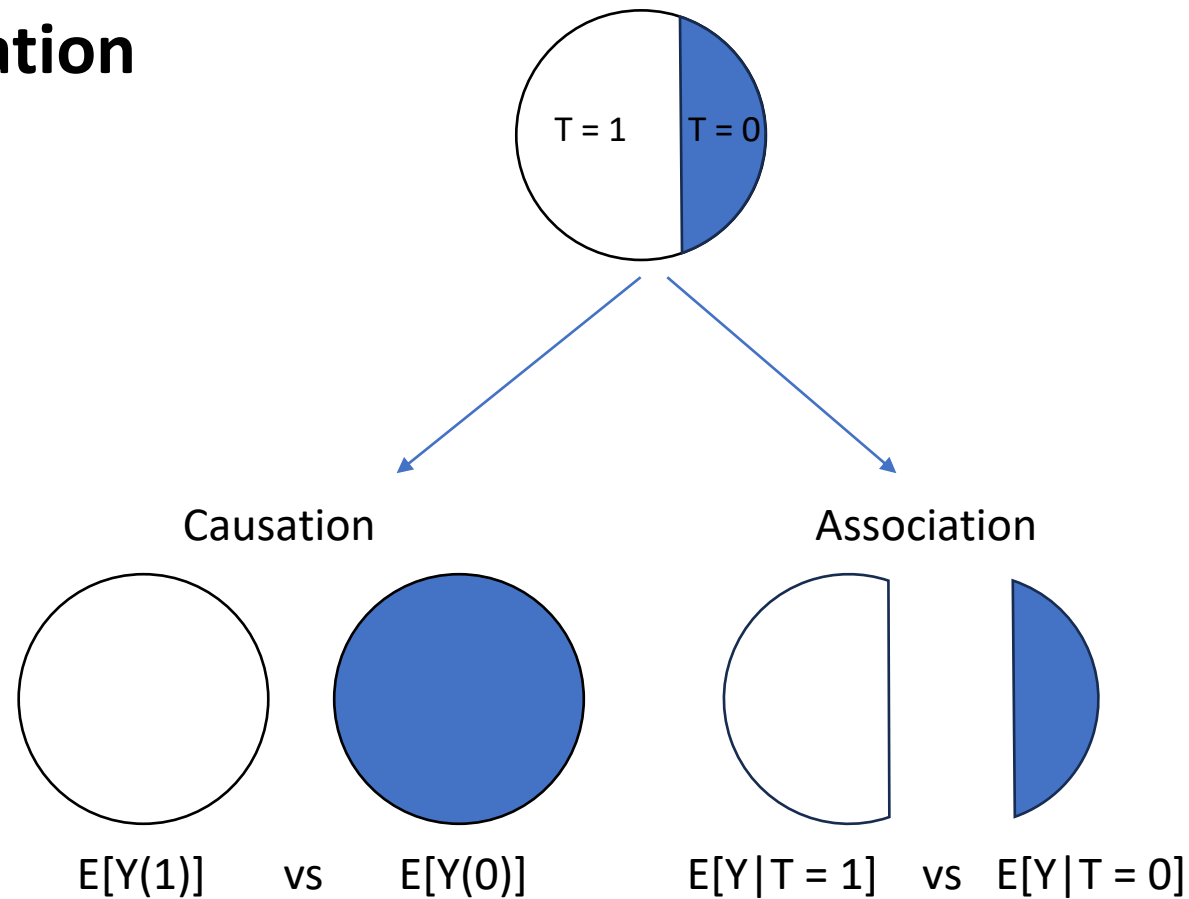


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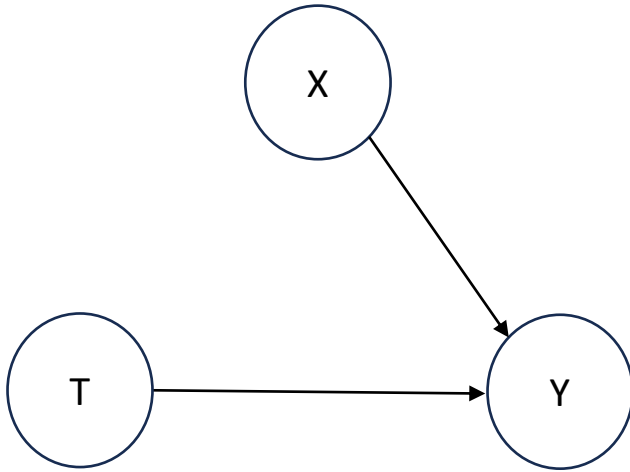
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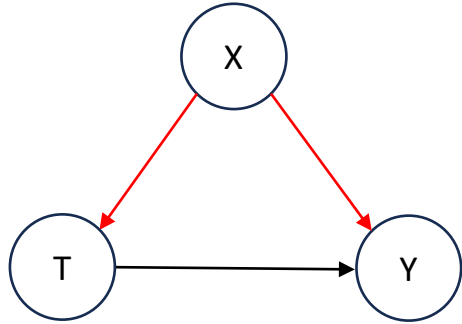
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$$E[Y(1)] - E[Y(0)] \neq E[Y|T = 1] - E[Y|T = 0]$$
- **Question:** When are they equal?

# Randomized control trials (RCTs)



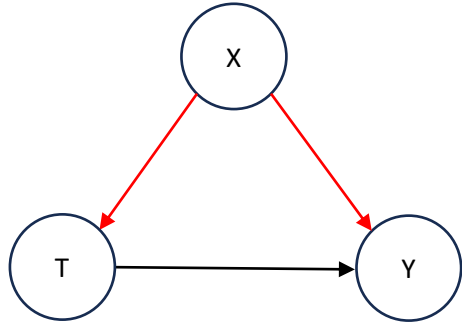
- RCTs randomize **T**, i.e., **T** is independent of  $\{Y(0), Y(1), X\}$ .
- Consequently, it **removes any confounding** effect.  
$$E[Y | T = t] = E[Y(t) | T = t] = E[Y(t)]$$
- In other words, in RCTs an observed association between **T** and **Y** is a causal association

# Observational data

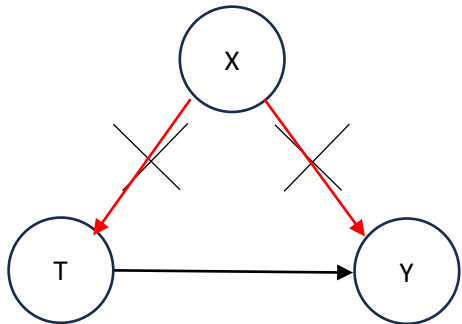


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- Hence, the association between T and Y includes **confounding/selection bias**.

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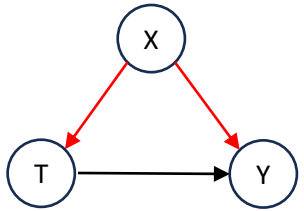


- We need additional **causal assumptions** that will **block/eliminate** the bias.

# Causal assumptions

- **Conditional ignorability or unconfoundedness** assumption:
  - $\mathbf{T}$  is independent of  $\mathbf{Y(1), Y(0) | X}$
  - Informally, it says given confounders  $\mathbf{X}$ , the treatment  $\mathbf{T}$  is as good as random.
  - This assumption cannot be tested from the data.
- Other assumptions: **Positivity, consistency and SUTVA**
- Under the above assumptions, the **causal effect is identified**:
$$E[Y(1)] - E[Y(0)] = E_X\{E[Y | T = 1, X] - E[Y | T = 0, X]\}$$

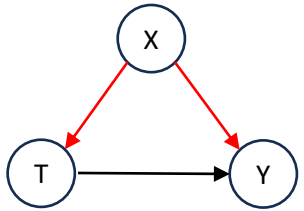
# Summary: Fundamental Steps of Causal Inference



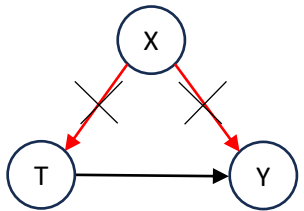
- **Hypothetical modeling:** Researchers make causal assumptions about relationships among variables based on their understanding and expertise.



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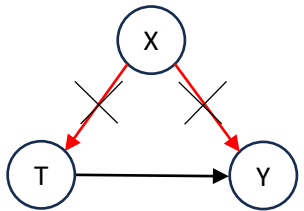
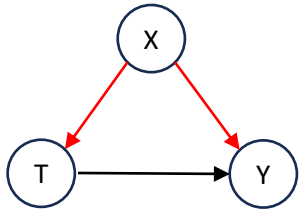


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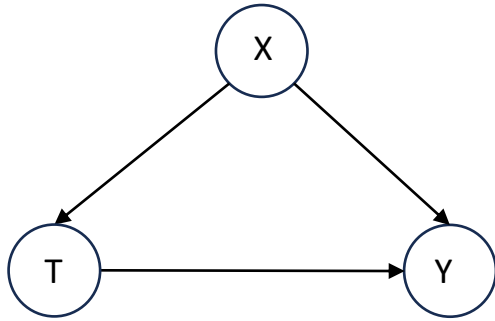
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**STATA**

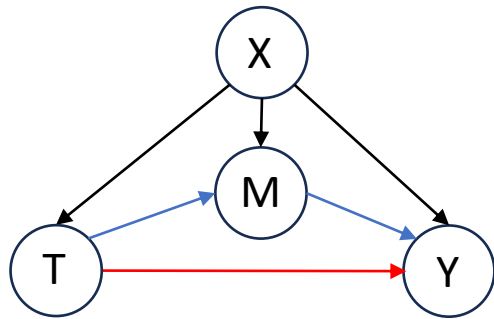
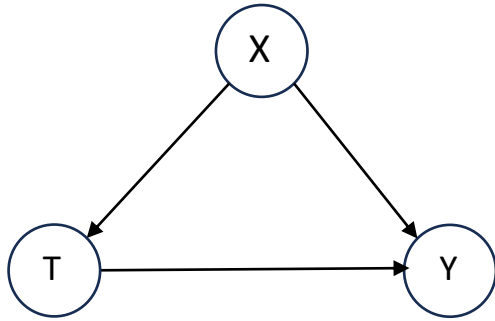
- **Hypothetical modeling:** Researchers make causal assumptions about relationships among variables based on their understanding and expertise.
- **Causal identification:** Based on the previous assumptions, researchers try to determine whether the causal effect is identified, i.e., bias elimination.
- **Parameter estimation:** If the answer to the second phase is positive, the researcher can then use various estimation techniques, such as **teffects** or **mediate** to estimate the causal effect.

# Causal mediation



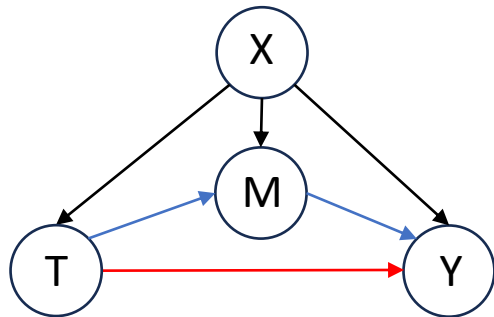
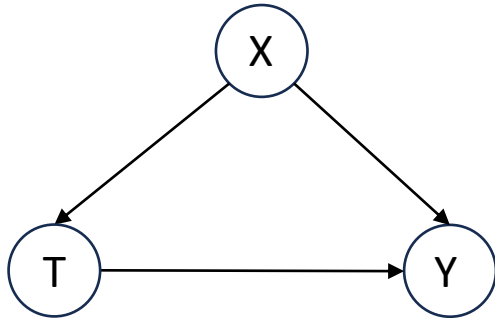
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- Now, the researcher wonders whether the benefit is a consequence of the effect of **T** on increasing the level of the **hormone bonotonin, M**, which in turn has a positive effect on subjective well-being, **Y**.

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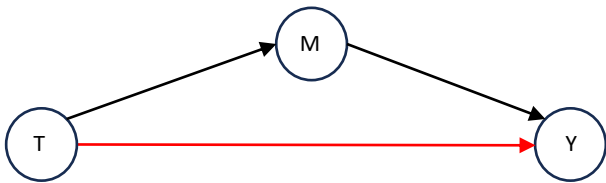
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- Now, the researcher wonders whether the benefit is a consequence of the effect of **T** on increasing the level of the **hormone bonotonin, M**, which in turn has a positive effect on subjective well-being, **Y**.
- That is, the researcher is interested in decomposing the **total effect of T on Y** into the **indirect causal pathway mediated by M** and the **direct pathway not mediated by M**.

# Causal mediation: The fundamental steps of causal analysis

- Suppose we want to estimate the mediation effect of **hormone bonotonin, M**, between the effect of **exercise, T**, on subjective **wellbeing, Y**.

# Causal mediation: The fundamental steps of causal analysis

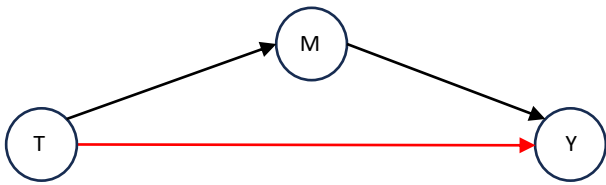
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- Step 1: Hypothetical modeling



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- **M** – bonotonin
- **Y** – well-being

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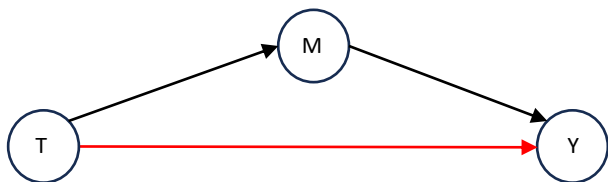
- Step 2: Causal identification – more on this later



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- Step 1: Hypothetical modeling



- **T** – exercise
- **M** – bonotonin
- **Y** – well-being

- Step 2: Causal identification – more on this later
- Step 3: Estimation in Stata

# Demonstration: The data

```
. webuse wellbeing  
(Fictional well-being data)  
  
. list wellbeing bonotonin exercise in 1/5, abbreviate(12) clean
```

	wellbeing	bonotonin	exercise
1.	71.73816	196.5467	Control
2.	68.66573	195.8572	Exercise
3.	71.05155	228.6035	Exercise
4.	69.44469	206.6651	Exercise
5.	75.62035	261.6855	Exercise

## Demonstration: Stata's mediate command

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        (tvar [, continuous(numlist)] ) [if] [in] [weight] [, stat options]
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# Demonstration: Estimation

```
. mediate (wellbeing) (bonotonin) (exercise)
```

```
Final EE criterion = 2.04e-28
```

```
Causal mediation analysis
```

```
Number of obs = 2,000
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```
Outcome model: Linear
```

```
Mediator model: Linear
```

```
Mediator variable: bonotonin
```

```
Treatment type: Binary
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wellbeing		Robust		z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
		Coefficient	std. err.				
NIE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	9.799821	.3943251	24.85	0.000	9.026958	10.57268
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```
Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.
```

# Demonstration: Estimation

- **mediate** uses a [method of moments estimator](#), also known as an estimating equations estimator, to estimate all auxiliary and effect parameters as well as their variance–covariance matrix.
- To report the auxiliary parameters:

```
. mediate, aequations  
  < output omitted >
```

wellbeing							
	exercise						
	Exercise	2.065871	.8723559	2.37	0.018	.3560846	3.775657
	bonotonin	.2130222	.0034547	61.66	0.000	.2062512	.2197932
exercise#c.bonotonin							
	Exercise	.0051424	.0046954	1.10	0.273	-.0040604	.0143452
	_cons	22.91374	.5633648	40.67	0.000	21.80956	24.01791
bonotonin							
	exercise						
	Exercise	44.91939	1.641668	27.36	0.000	41.70178	48.137
	_cons	160.544	1.142508	140.52	0.000	158.3047	162.7832

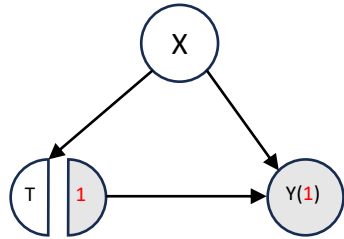
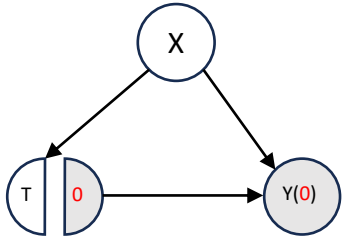
# Demonstration: Estimation without interaction

```
. mediate (wellbeing) (bonotonin) (exercise), aequations nointeract  
< output omitted >
```

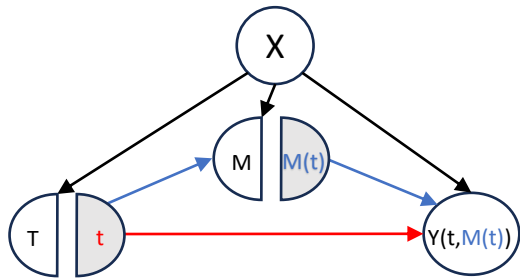
wellbeing							
	exercise						
	Exercise	2.996658	.2109357	14.21	0.000	2.583231	3.410084
	bonotonin	.2158225	.0023412	92.18	0.000	.2112338	.2204113
	_cons	22.46416	.3929094	57.17	0.000	21.69407	23.23425
bonotonin							
	exercise						
	Exercise	44.91939	1.641668	27.36	0.000	41.70178	48.137
	_cons	160.544	1.142508	140.52	0.000	158.3047	162.7832

Note: Outcome equation does not include treatment-mediator interaction.

# Taking a step back: Preparing for causal identification

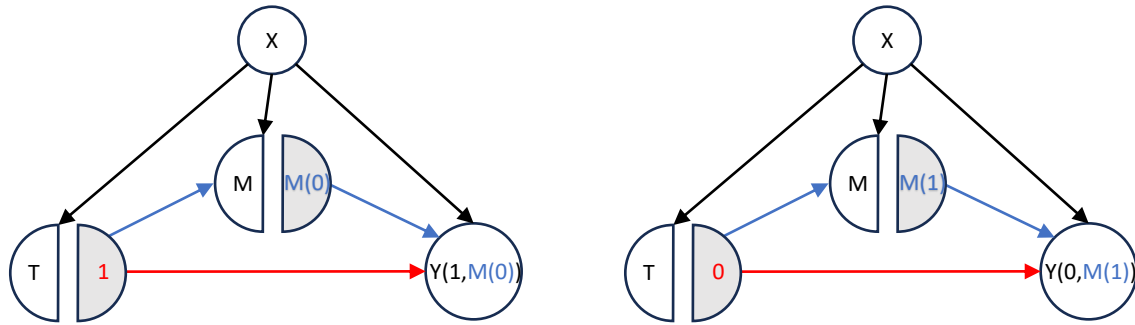


- Recall that our interest is in the contrast  $Y(1) - Y(0)$
- For mediation, the idea is to split the contrast  $Y(1) - Y(0)$  into two other contrasts using a third potential outcome  $M(t)$ .



- We introduce a new type of outcome  $Y(t, m)$ , which corresponds to the potential outcome when we set  $T = t$  and  $M = m$ .
- Note the familiar  $Y(1) = Y[1, M(1)]$  and  $Y(0) = Y[0, M(0)]$ .

# Four potential outcomes



- Now, we have two new **cross-world** potential outcomes  $Y[t, M(t')]$ .
- $Y[1, M(0)]$  and  $Y[0, M(1)]$  are never observed (**Fundamental problem of causal inference**).
- These correspond to the **unobserved worlds** where treatment is set to  $t$  and the mediator is set to the value it would have taken under exposure  $t'$ .
- We use these **four potential outcomes** to define total effects, **direct effects**, and **indirect effects**



# Potential-outcome means with mediate

```
. mediate (wellbeing) (bonotonin) (exercise), pomeans
```

Final EE criterion = 1.71e-28

Causal mediation analysis

Number of obs = 2,000

Outcome model: Linear  
Mediator model: Linear  
Mediator variable: bonotonin  
Treatment type: Binary

wellbeing		Coefficient	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
POmeans	Y0M0	57.11317	.2753201	207.44	0.000	56.57355	57.65278
	Y1M0	60.00462	.3157888	190.02	0.000	59.38569	60.62356
	Y0M1	66.68199	.3258477	204.64	0.000	66.04334	67.32064
	Y1M1	69.80444	.2898927	240.79	0.000	69.23626	70.37262

Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.

# Different treatment effects

- The average total effect:

$$\tau = E[Y_i(1)] - E[Y_i(0)] = E[Y_i(1, M_i(1))] - E[Y_i(0, M_i(0))]$$

# Effect decomposition

- The average total effect:

$$\tau = E[Y_i(1)] - E[Y_i(0)] = E[Y_i(1, M_i(1))] - E[Y_i(0, M_i(0))]$$

- The effect of the treatment on the outcome through the mediator is the **indirect effect**:

$$\delta(t) = E[Y_i(t, M_i(1))] - E[Y_i(t, M_i(0))], \quad t \in \{0, 1\}$$

# Effect decomposition

- The average total effect:

$$\tau = E[Y_i(1)] - E[Y_i(0)] = E[Y_i(1, M_i(1))] - E[Y_i(0, M_i(0))]$$

- The effect of the treatment on the outcome through the mediator is the **indirect effect**:

$$\delta(t) = E[Y_i(t, M_i(1))] - E[Y_i(t, M_i(0))], \quad t \in \{0, 1\}$$

- The **direct effect** of the treatment on the outcome

$$\zeta(t) = E[Y_i(1, M_i(t))] - E[Y_i(0, M_i(t))], \quad t \in \{0, 1\}$$

# Effect decomposition

- The average total effect:

$$\tau = E[Y_i(1)] - E[Y_i(0)] = E[Y_i(1, M_i(1))] - E[Y_i(0, M_i(0))]$$

- The effect of the treatment on the outcome through the mediator is the **indirect effect**:

$$\delta(t) = E[Y_i(t, M_i(1))] - E[Y_i(t, M_i(0))], \quad t \in \{0, 1\}$$

- The **direct effect** of the treatment on the outcome

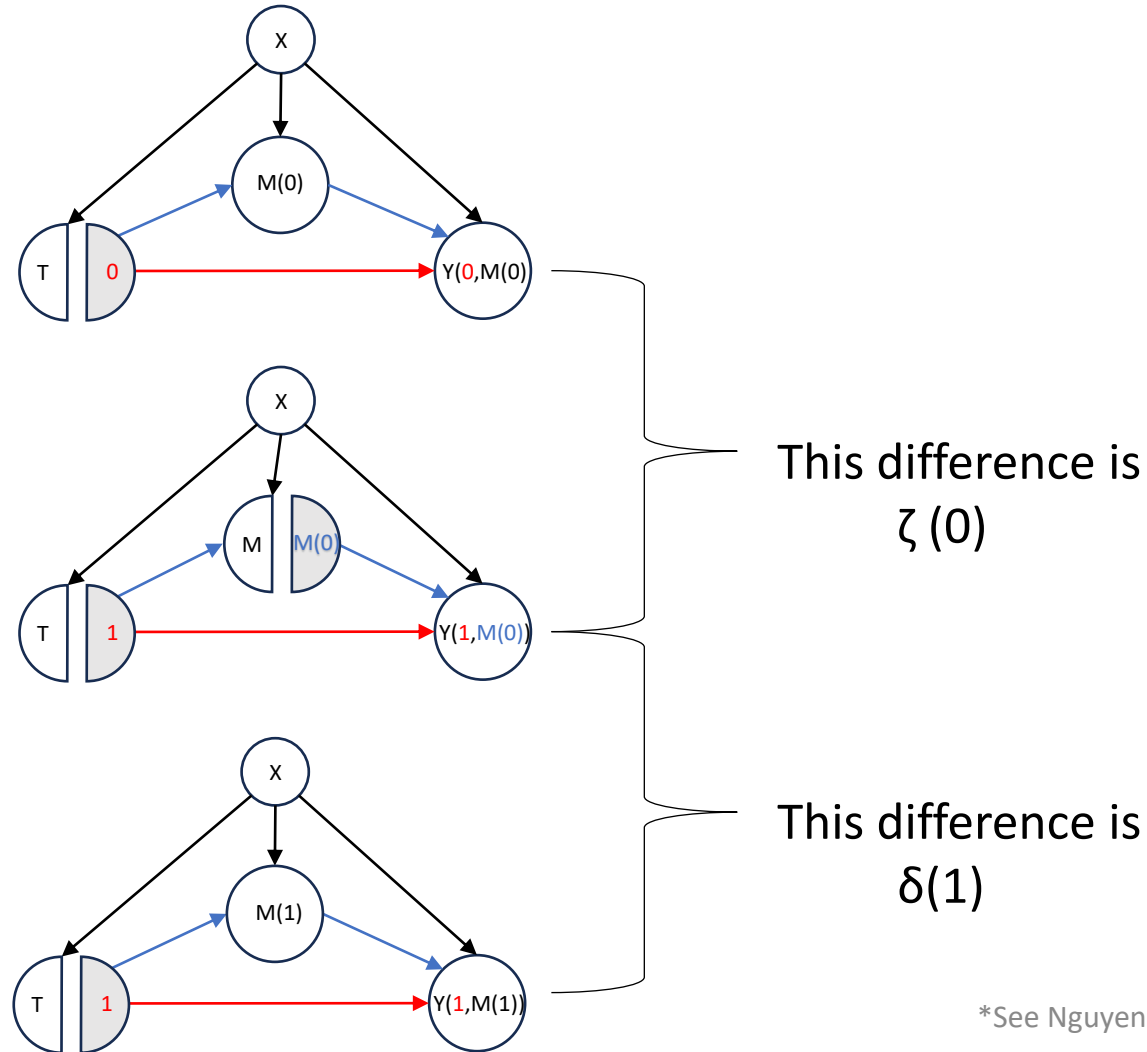
$$\zeta(t) = E[Y_i(1, M_i(t))] - E[Y_i(0, M_i(t))], \quad t \in \{0, 1\}$$

- The average total effect can be written as **two decomposition** of the sum of direct and indirect effect

$$\tau = \delta(1) + \zeta(0) = \delta(0) + \zeta(1)$$

# Three different worlds

- The decomposition  $\tau = \delta(1) + \zeta(0)$  contains 3 different worlds:



\*See Nguyen et al. (2020) for details on which decomposition should be used for specific analysis.

## Different treatment effects

- Denoting  $E[Y(t, M(t'))]$  as  $Y_{tM_{t'}}$ , we define the following treatment effects of interest:

(Total) natural indirect effect ( <b>NIE</b> )	$Y_{1M_1} - Y_{1M_0}$	$\delta(1)$
(Pure) natural direct effect ( <b>NDE</b> )	$Y_{1M_0} - Y_{0M_0}$	$\zeta(0)$
(Pure) natural indirect effect ( <b>PNIE</b> )	$Y_{0M_1} - Y_{0M_0}$	$\delta(0)$
(Total) natural direct effect ( <b>TNDE</b> )	$Y_{1M_1} - Y_{0M_1}$	$\zeta(1)$
Total effect ( <b>TE</b> )	$Y_{1M_1} - Y_{0M_0}$	$\tau$

# Alternative decompositions with mediate

```
. mediate (wellbeing) (bonotonin) (exercise), all
```

wellbeing		Coefficient	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
POmeans	Y0M0	57.11317	.2753201	207.44	0.000	56.57355	57.65278
	Y1M0	60.00462	.3157888	190.02	0.000	59.38569	60.62356
	Y0M1	66.68199	.3258477	204.64	0.000	66.04334	67.32064
	Y1M1	69.80444	.2898927	240.79	0.000	69.23626	70.37262
NIE							
	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	9.799821	.3943251	24.85	0.000	9.026958	10.57268
NDE							
	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	2.891453	.2304278	12.55	0.000	2.439823	3.343083
PNIE							
	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	9.568827	.3884522	24.63	0.000	8.807475	10.33018
TNDE							
	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	3.122447	.2418591	12.91	0.000	2.648412	3.596482
TE							
	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	12.69127	.4005941	31.68	0.000	11.90612	13.47642

Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.



# Which decomposition?

- Practical question remains: For a specific analysis, which decomposition should be used?  
 $\tau = \delta(1) + \zeta(0)$  or  $\tau = \delta(0) + \zeta(1)$
- Or should both be used?
- We follow Nguyen et al. (2020) and propose three answers for three cases.

**Case 1: Is there a mediated effect? Or, is the causal effect partly mediated by this mediator?**

## Case 1: Is there a mediated effect? Or, is the causal effect partly mediated by this mediator?

- We propose using  $\tau = \delta(1) + \zeta(0)$  decomposition (NIE and NDE)
- **Rational:** Here, we are not questioning the existence of a direct effect.
- We are researching the possibility of a mediated effect to the direct effect.
- If there is no mediated effect, then the total effect  $\tau = \zeta(0)$  is the direct effect.

**Case 2: In addition to the mediated effect, is there a direct effect?**

## Case 2: In addition to the mediated effect, is there a direct effect?

- We propose using  $\tau = \delta(0) + \zeta(1)$  decomposition (PNIE and TNDE).
- This is a mirror image of the Case 1.
- **Rational:** Here, we are not questioning the existence of a mediator effect.
- We are researching the possibility of treatment affecting the outcome through other mechanisms.
- If there is no direct effect, then the total effect  $\tau = \delta(0)$  is the indirect effect.

## **Case 3: No prior assumption or preferred question about either direct or indirect effect**

### Case 3: No prior assumption or preferred question about either direct or indirect effect

- We propose reporting both  $\tau = \delta(1) + \zeta(0)$  and  $\tau = \delta(0) + \zeta(1)$  decompositions.
- **Rational:** If the purpose is to describe all we can learn, there is no reason to prefer either decomposition over the other.

# Causal identification

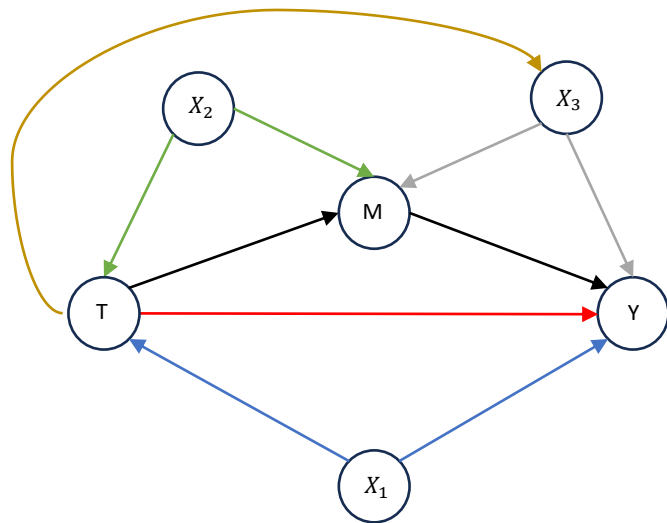
- After defining different treatment effects, we are interested in causal assumptions that **identify** those effects
- That is, we are interested in assumptions such that

$$E_M[Y_i(t, M_i(t'))|X_i = x] = \int E[Y_i|M_i = m, T_i = t, X_i = x]df[m|T_i = t', X_i = x]$$

- **LHS** is the causal estimand and cannot be estimated from the data
- **RHS** is a conditional distribution that can be learned from the data
- This formula is often referred to as the “**mediation formula**” and is **nonparametric**.



# Causal identification: Assumptions



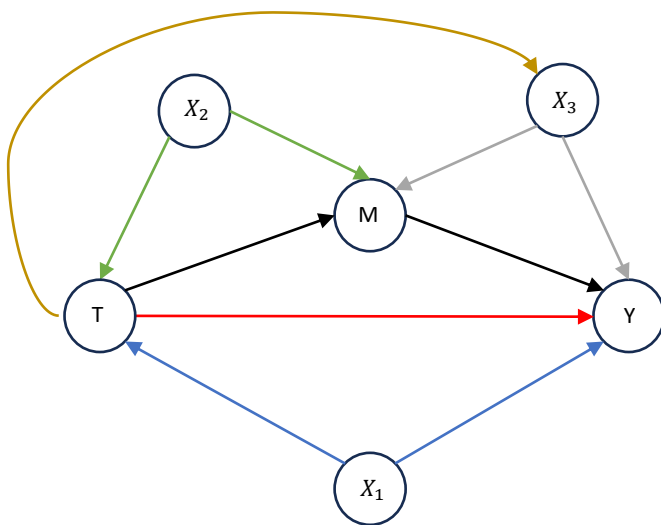
## Sequential ignorability

1. No unobserved confounding in the treatment-outcome relationship.
2. No unobserved confounding in the mediator-outcome relationship.
3. No unmeasured confounding in the treatment-mediator relationship
4. No (observed) confounders in the mediator-outcome relationship that are caused by the treatment.

- In addition to **sequential ignorability**, we need **SUTVA** and **overlap** assumptions.

# Returning to our example: Adding confounders

- Step 1: Hypothetical modeling



- **T** – exercise
- **M** – bonotonin
- **Y** – well-being
- $X_1 \cup X_3$  – {age, gender, hstatus, basewell}
- $X_3 \cup X_2$  – {age, gender, hstatus, basebono}

- Step 2: Causal identification
- Step 3: Estimation in Stata

# Estimation in Stata

```
. mediate (wellbeing basewell age gender hstatus)
>         (bonotonin basebono age gender hstatus)
>         (exercise)
```

Causal mediation analysis

Number of obs = 2,000

Outcome model:     Linear  
Mediator model:    Linear  
Mediator variable: bonotonin  
Treatment type:    Binary

wellbeing		Coefficient	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE	exercise						
	(Exercise vs Control)	10.02204	.2256812	44.41	0.000	9.579717	10.46437
NDE	exercise						
	(Exercise vs Control)	3.085412	.168631	18.30	0.000	2.754901	3.415922
TE	exercise						
	(Exercise vs Control)	13.10746	.2304752	56.87	0.000	12.65573	13.55918

Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.

# Postestimation in Stata

```
. estat proportion
```

Proportion mediated

Number of obs = 2,000

wellbeing	Proportion	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
exercise (Exercise vs Control)	.7646064	.0118613	64.46	0.000	.7413587	.787854

# Binary outcome and mediator

```
. mediate (bwellbeing basewell age gender hstatus, logit)
>         (bbonotonin basebono age gender hstatus, logit)
>         (exercise)
```

Causal mediation analysis

Number of obs = 2,000

Outcome model:     Logit  
Mediator model:    Logit  
Mediator variable: bbonotonin  
Treatment type:    Binary

bwellbeing		Coefficient	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	.1060631	.0171798	6.17	0.000	.0723914	.1397348
NDE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	.1521532	.0208609	7.29	0.000	.1112665	.1930399
TE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	.2582163	.0143273	18.02	0.000	.2301353	.2862973

Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.

# Risk ratios

- If the outcome is binary, and if the outcome model is either logit or probit, we can express the treatment effects as risk ratios or odds ratios.
- The treatment effects on risk-ratio are ratios of potential-outcome means:

$$NIE^{RR} = \frac{Y_{1M_1}}{Y_{1M_0}}$$

$$NDE^{RR} = \frac{Y_{1M_0}}{Y_{0M_0}}$$

$$PNIE^{RR} = \frac{Y_{0M_1}}{Y_{0M_0}}$$

$$TNDE^{RR} = \frac{Y_{1M_1}}{Y_{0M_1}}$$

$$TE^{RR} = \frac{Y_{1M_1}}{Y_{0M_0}}$$

# Risk ratios

```
. estat rr
```

```
estat rr requires potential-outcome means; refitting model ...
```

Transformed treatment effects

Number of obs = 2,000

bwellbeing		Risk ratio	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	1.231901	.0461649	5.57	0.000	1.144663	1.325789
NDE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	1.49852	.0768679	7.89	0.000	1.355188	1.657013
TE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	1.84603	.0707466	16.00	0.000	1.712449	1.990031

# Odds-ratio

- For logit and probit outcome models,  $Y_{tM_t}$  are probabilities, and so the treatment effects on the odds-ratio scale are

$$\begin{aligned}NIE^{OR} &= \frac{Y_{1M_1}/(1 - Y_{1M_1})}{Y_{1M_0}/(1 - Y_{1M_0})} \\NDE^{OR} &= \frac{Y_{1M_0}(1 - Y_{1M_0})}{Y_{0M_0}(1 - Y_{0M_0})} \\PNIE^{OR} &= \frac{Y_{0M_1}(1 - Y_{0M_1})}{Y_{0M_0}(1 - Y_{0M_0})} \\TNDE^{OR} &= \frac{Y_{1M_1}(1 - Y_{1M_1})}{Y_{0M_1}(1 - Y_{0M_1})} \\TE^{OR} &= \frac{Y_{1M_1}(1 - Y_{1M_1})}{Y_{0M_0}(1 - Y_{0M_0})}\end{aligned}$$

- Similar to risk-ratio, the total effect is the **product** of direct and indirect effect.



# Odds-ratio

. estat or

**estat or** requires potential-outcome means; refitting model ...

Transformed treatment effects

Number of obs = 2,000

bwellbeing		Odds ratio	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	1.531185	.1060583	6.15	0.000	1.336807	1.753826
NDE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	1.918699	.1669374	7.49	0.000	1.617885	2.275444
TE	exercise (Exercise vs Control)	2.937883	.1843901	17.17	0.000	2.597829	3.322449

# Multivalued treatment

```
. mediate (bwellbeing basewell age gender hstatus, logit)
>         (bbonotonin basebono age gender hstatus, logit)
>         (mexercise)
```

bwellbeing		Coefficient	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE	mexercise						
	(45 minutes vs Control)	.0917518	.0105476	8.70	0.000	.0710789	.1124248
	(90 minutes vs Control)	.1082241	.0209235	5.17	0.000	.0672149	.1492334
NDE	mexercise						
	(45 minutes vs Control)	.0245277	.0176917	1.39	0.166	-.0101473	.0592027
	(90 minutes vs Control)	.1411745	.0256778	5.50	0.000	.0908468	.1915021
TE	mexercise						
	(45 minutes vs Control)	.1162796	.0175356	6.63	0.000	.0819105	.1506487
	(90 minutes vs Control)	.2493986	.0173024	14.41	0.000	.2154864	.2833108

Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.

# Continuous treatment

```
. mediate (bwellbeing basewell age gender hstatus, logit)
>         (bbonotonin basebono age gender hstatus, logit)
>         (cexercise, continuous (30 60 90))
```

Continuous treatment levels:

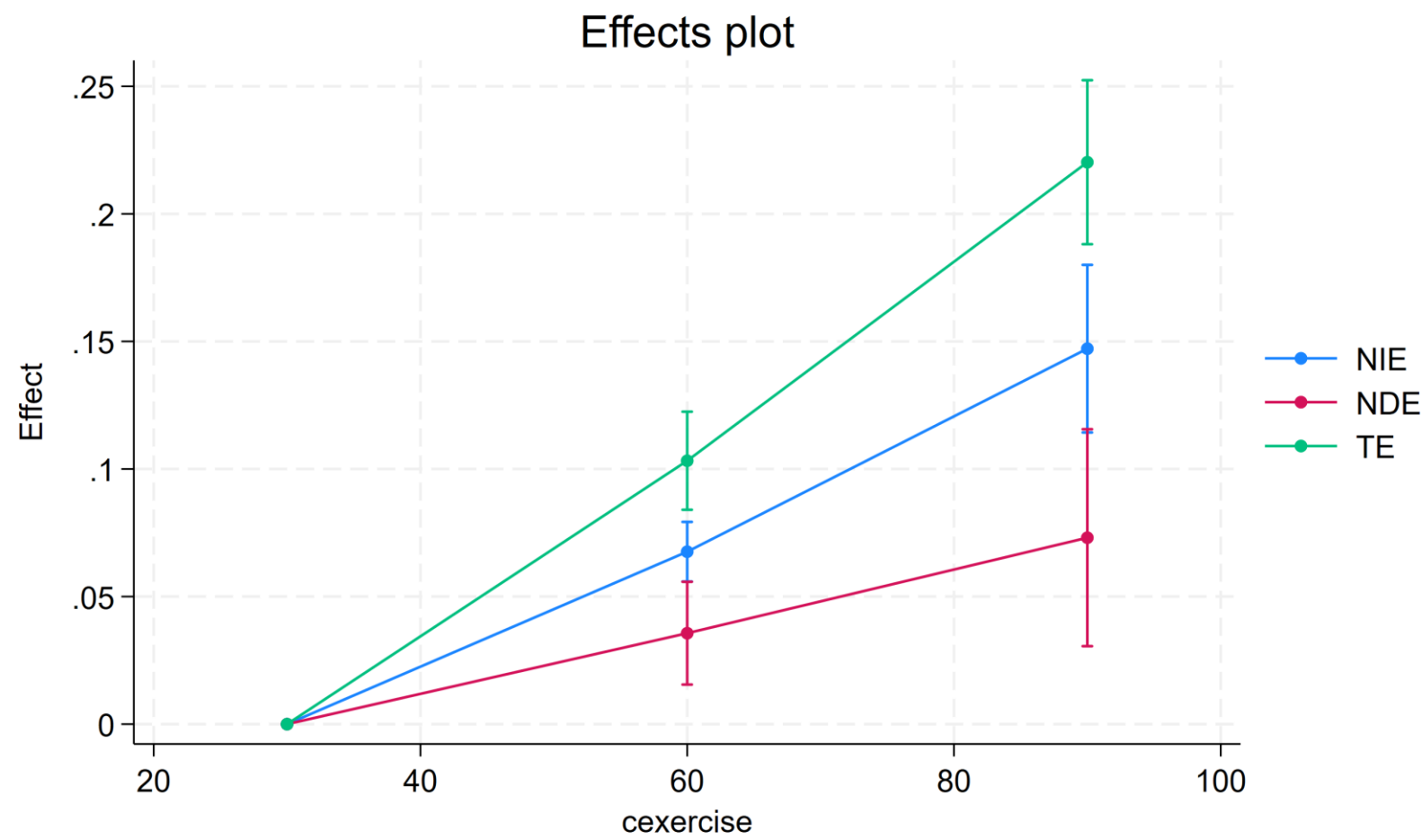
- 0: cexercise = 30 (control)
- 1: cexercise = 60
- 2: cexercise = 90

bwellbeing		Robust		z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
		Coefficient	std. err.				
NIE	cexercise						
	(1 vs 0)	.0675928	.0059601	11.34	0.000	.0559113	.0792743
	(2 vs 0)	.1471622	.0167598	8.78	0.000	.1143136	.1800108
NDE	cexercise						
	(1 vs 0)	.0356447	.0102753	3.47	0.001	.0155056	.0557839
	(2 vs 0)	.073076	.0216909	3.37	0.001	.0305626	.1155894
TE	cexercise						
	(1 vs 0)	.1032376	.0098062	10.53	0.000	.0840177	.1224574
	(2 vs 0)	.2202382	.0163999	13.43	0.000	.1880949	.2523815

Note: Outcome equation includes treatment-mediator interaction.

# Continuous treatment

```
. estat effectplot
```



# Count mediator

- We consider the sample that includes women who gave birth to a child.
- We wish to find out whether the socioeconomic status and education of the mother affect the child's health.
  - **Y** - the birthweight of the baby (**bweight**)
  - **T** - whether or not the mother has a college degree (**college**).
  - **M** -the number of cigarettes smoked per day during pregnancy (**ncigs**).
  - **X** – social economic status of parents (**sespar**)
- The **hypothesis** is that women with a higher educational degree are likely to smoke fewer cigarettes and that smoking during pregnancy has negative effects on birthweight.

# Count mediator

```
. webuse birthweight  
(Fictional birthweight data)
```

```
. list in 1/5, clean
```

	id	bweight	lbweight	ncigs	college	ses	sespar	age
1.	1	3621	No	1	No	5.3581	3.308523	29
2.	2	3278	No	0	Yes	9.556957	4.376035	38
3.	3	3073	No	1	No	3.980829	6.580275	39
4.	4	3306	No	0	Yes	11.17643	12.12075	30
5.	5	4517	No	0	Yes	9.026146	4.738766	28

# Count mediator

```
. mediate (bweight sespar c.age##c.age, expmean)
>         (ncigs sespar c.age##c.age, poisson)
>         (college), nointeract
```

Causal mediation analysis Number of obs = 2,000

Outcome model:      Exponential mean  
Mediator model:      Poisson  
Mediator variable: ncigs  
Treatment type:      Binary

bweight		Coefficient	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE	college (Yes vs No)	198.978	23.53279	8.46	0.000	152.8546	245.1014
NDE	college (Yes vs No)	320.3318	34.47792	9.29	0.000	252.7563	387.9072
TE	college (Yes vs No)	519.3098	28.70435	18.09	0.000	463.0503	575.5693

Note: Outcome equation does not include treatment-mediator interaction.

# Incidence-rate-ratio

- The same formula as risk-ratio.
- Allowed when the outcome model is Poisson/exponential mean.

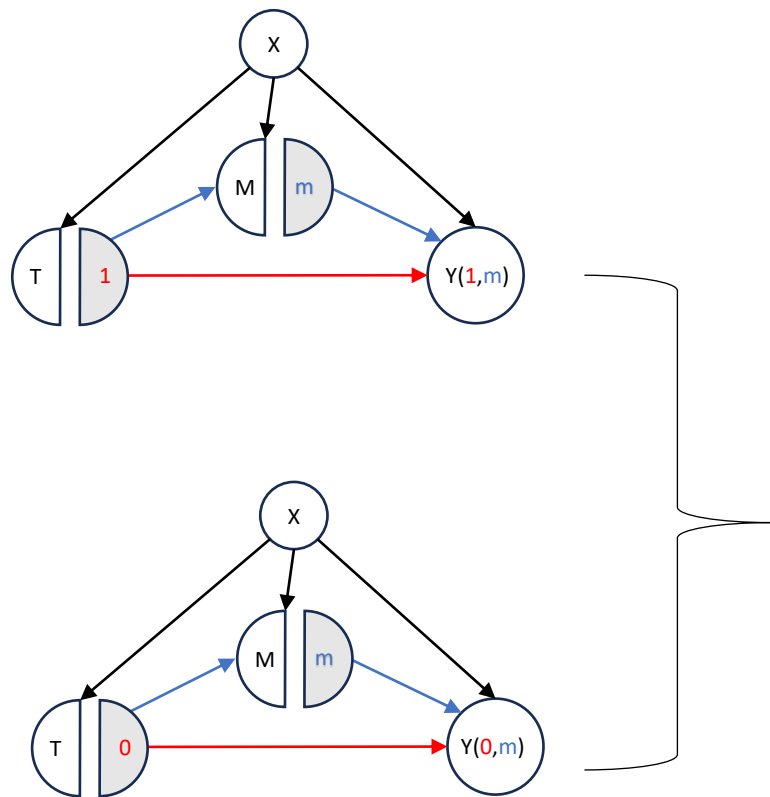
```
. estat irr
estat irr requires potential-outcome means; refitting model ...
```

Transformed treatment effects Number of obs = 2,000

bweight	IRR	Robust std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
NIE college (Yes vs No)	1.057819	.0072037	8.25	0.000	1.043794	1.072033
NDE college (Yes vs No)	1.102636	.0113921	9.46	0.000	1.080533	1.125192
TE college (Yes vs No)	1.16639	.009948	18.05	0.000	1.147055	1.186052



# Controlled direct effects (CDE)



- CDE is the effect of the treatment if the mediator were controlled, i.e., set to a **specific level ( $M = m$ )** for everyone.
- CDE may vary across individuals, and within an individual may vary depending on the mediator control value  $m$ .
- For binary treatment

$$CDE(m) = Y_{1m} - Y_{10}$$
$$CDE(m)^{RR} = \frac{Y_{1m}}{Y_{0m}}$$
$$CDE(m)^{IRR} = \frac{Y_{1m}}{Y_{0m}}$$
$$CDE(m)^{OR} = \frac{Y_{1m}/(1 - Y_{1m})}{Y_{0m}/(1 - Y_{0m})}$$

# Controlled direct effects (CDE)

```
. estat cde, mvalue(0 1)
```

Controlled direct effect

Number of obs = 2,000

Mediator variable: ncigs  
Mediator values:  
1.\_at: ncigs = 0  
2.\_at: ncigs = 1

	Delta-method		z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
	CDE	std. err.				
college@_at						
(Yes vs No) 1	341.955	35.26807	9.70	0.000	272.8308	411.0791
(Yes vs No) 2	332.6419	34.94916	9.52	0.000	264.1428	401.141

# Controlled direct effects (CDE)

```
. estat cde, mvalue(0 1) contrast
```

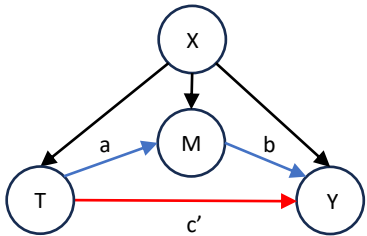
Controlled direct effect

Number of obs = 2,000

Mediator variable: ncigs  
Mediator values:  
1.\_at: ncigs = 0  
2.\_at: ncigs = 1

	Delta-method				[95% conf. interval]	
	CDE	std. err.	z	P> z		
_at#college (2 vs 1) (Yes vs No)	-9.313066	.9748033	-9.55	0.000	-11.22365	-7.402487

# Final remarks: Traditional vs Causal Mediation Analysis



- Traditional approach uses a **model-based** definition

$$Y_i = \alpha_1 + c'T_i + bM_i + \varepsilon_{Y_i}$$

$$M_i = \alpha_2 + aT_i + \varepsilon_{M_i}$$

- Here, the **indirect effect**  $:= ab$  and **direct effect**  $:= c'$
- Key differences** between **traditional** and **causal** mediation analysis:

Traditional	Causal
Indirect and direct effects are <b>mathematical objects</b> that do not exist without the model	Effects are defined in a <b>model-free manner</b> , based on reasoning about what fits the notion of causal effect
<b>No separation</b> of the definition of an effect and its estimation method	<b>Separates</b> the definition of an effect, and its identification from estimation

Learn more:

- <https://www.stata.com/manuals/causalmediate.pdf>

# References

1. Neal, B. (2020). Introduction to causal inference.
2. Nguyen, T., Schmid, I., and Stuart, E. (2020). Clarifying causal mediation analysis for the applied researcher: Defining effects based on what we want to learn. *Psychological Methods*, 26.
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4. VanderWeele, T. and Shpitser, I. (2013). On the definition of a confounder. *The Annals of Statistics*, 41.

