

#### Overcooked models

Mixing prediction, explanation, confounders, and mediators

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## Motivating example: prostate cancer

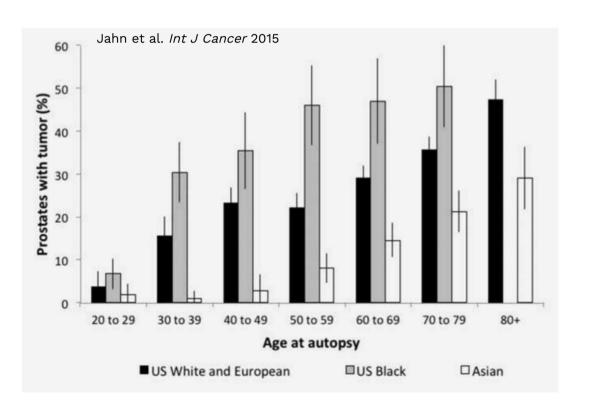
	Male			Female				
	Prostate	174,650	20%	Breast	268,600	30%		
ses	Lung & bronchus	116,440	13%	Lung & bronchus	111,710	13%		
	Colon & rectum	78,500	9%	Colon & rectum	67,100	7%		
g	Urinary bladder	61,700	7%	Uterine corpus	61,880	7%		
Estimated New Cases	Melanoma of the skin	57,220	7%	Melanoma of the skin	39,260	5%		
	Kidney & renal pelvis	44,120	5%	Thyroid	37,810	4%		
	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	41,090	5%	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	33,110	4%		
	Oral cavity & pharynx	38,140	4%	Kidney & renal pelvis	29,700	3%		
	Leukemia	35,920	4%	Pancreas	26,830	3%		
	Pancreas	29,940	3%	Leukemia	25,860	3%		
	All sites	870,970		All sites	891,480			
	Male			Female				
	Lung & bronchus	76,650	24%	Lung & bronchus	66,020	23%		
	Prostate	31,620	10%	Breast	41,760	15%		
Estimated Deaths	Colon & rectum	27,640	9%	Colon & rectum	23,380	8%		
	Pancreas	23,800	7%	Pancreas	21,950	8%		
	Liver & intrahepatic bile duct	21,600	7%	Ovary	13,980	5%		
	Leukemia	13,150	4%	Uterine corpus	12,160	4%		
	Esophagus	13,020	4%	Liver & intrahepatic bile duct	10,180	4%		
	Urinary bladder	12,870	4%	Leukemia	9,690	3%		
Est	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	11,510	4%	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	8,460	3%		
	Brain & other nervous system	9,910	3%	Brain & other nervous system	7,850	3%		
	All sites	321,670		All sites	285,210			

Estimates are rounded to the nearest 10, and cases exclude basal cell and squamous cell skin cancers and in situ carcinoma except urinary bladder. Estimates do not include Puerto Rico or other US territories. Ranking is based on modeled projections and may differ from the most recent observed data.

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#### More men die with prostate cancer than from it

- ullet 5-year survival pprox 98% and <10% of prostate cancer patients have fatal disease
- 2.9 million men living with a diagnosis in US
  - 42 million latent (undiagnosed) cases!



#### PSA screening trends determine cancer incidence

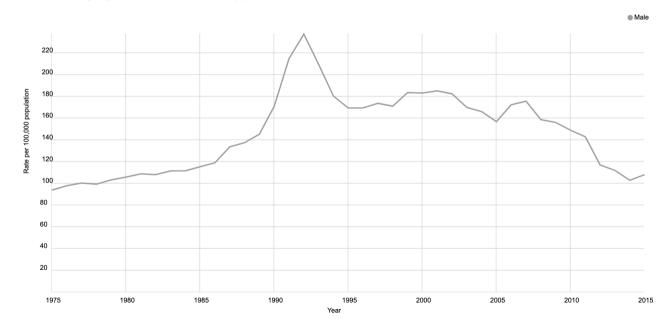
- PSA screening high rates of overdiagnosis and overtreatment
  - o Up to 2/3 of prostate cancers are overdiagnosed, most are treated

1. Loeb et al. Eur Urol 2014

#### Trends in incidence rates, 1975-2015

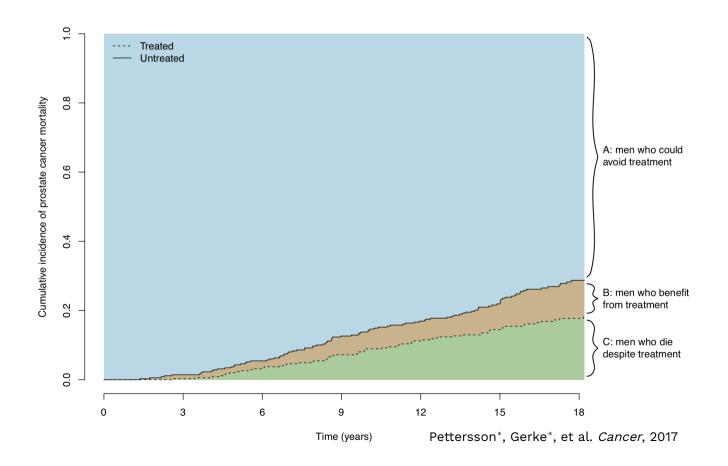
by sex, for prostate

Per 100,000, age adjusted to the 2000 US standard population.



#### An urgent clinical challenge

- How can we distinguish indolent from lethal disease?
  - Patients with indolent tumors could avoid overtreatment
  - Patients with potentially lethal tumors could receive timely treatment



#### A different(???) clinical challenge

- What are the causes of lethal disease?
  - If we know these, won't we also know the answer to the previous question, "How can we distinguish indolent from lethal disease?"



### It's complicated.



#### Good prediction models $\neq$ good causal models

Statistical Science 2010, Vol. 25, No. 3, 289–310 DOI: 10.1214/10-STS330

© Institute of Mathematical Statistics, 2010

# To Explain or to Predict?

#### **Galit Shmueli**

Abstract. Statistical modeling is a powerful tool for developing and testing theories by way of causal explanation, prediction, and description. In many disciplines there is near-exclusive use of statistical modeling for causal explanation and the assumption that models with high explanatory power are inherently of high predictive power. Conflation between explanation and prediction is common, yet the distinction must be understood for progressing scientific knowledge. While this distinction has been recognized in the philosophy of science, the statistical literature lacks a thorough discussion of the

#### Explanatory modeling = causal inference

- Test causal hypotheses for mechanistic understanding
  - Randomized experiments/trials are a gold standard
  - Increasingly, causal inference is conducted by evaluating association patterns within observational data according to specific rules
  - Success: an understandable statistical model (e.g. regression) that fits data well according to an expert-guided mechanistic theory

#### Predictive modeling = predicting future events

- Models that use input values to accurately predict future outputs
  - Study design includes training and validation data sets
  - Success: a model built in the training data which need not be easily interpretable (e.g. neural net) works well in the validation data

#### Proof that good prediction $\neq$ good explanation

• TL;DR version: prediction error is a tradeoff between bias and variance. You can use a biased model (in a causal sense) that has low variance to reduce error

#### APPENDIX: IS THE "TRUE" MODEL THE BEST PREDICTIVE MODEL? A LINEAR REGRESSION EXAMPLE

Consider  $\mathcal{F}$  to be the true function relating constructs  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  and let us assume that f is a valid operationalization of  $\mathcal{F}$ . Choosing an intentionally biased function  $f^*$  in place of f is clearly undesirable from a theoretical—explanatory point of view. However, we will show that  $f^*$  can be preferable to f from a predictive standpoint.

To illustrate this, consider the statistical model  $f(x) = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \varepsilon$  which is assumed to be correctly specified with respect to  $\mathcal{F}$ . Using data, we obtain the estimated model  $\hat{f}$ , which has the properties

$$(2) Bias = 0,$$

(3) 
$$Var(\hat{f}(x)) = Var(x_1\hat{\beta}_1 + x_2\hat{\beta}_2)$$

$$= \sigma^2 x'(X'X)^{-1} x,$$

where x is the vector  $x = [x_1, x_2]'$ , and X is the de-

ned model that leaves out q predictors has a lower EPE when the following inequality holds:

(6) 
$$q\sigma^2 > \beta_2' X_2' (I - H_1) X_2 \beta_2.$$

This means that the underspecified model produces more accurate predictions, in terms of lower EPE, in the following situations:

- when the data are very noisy (large  $\sigma$ );
- when the true absolute values of the left-out parameters (in our example  $\beta_2$ ) are small;
- when the predictors are highly correlated; and
- when the sample size is small or the range of left-out variables is small.

The bottom line is nicely summarized by Hagerty and Srinivasan (1991): "We note that the practice in applied research of concluding that a model with a higher predictive validity is "truer," is not a valid inference. This paper shows that a parsimonious but less true model can have a higher predictive validity than a truer but less parsimonious model."

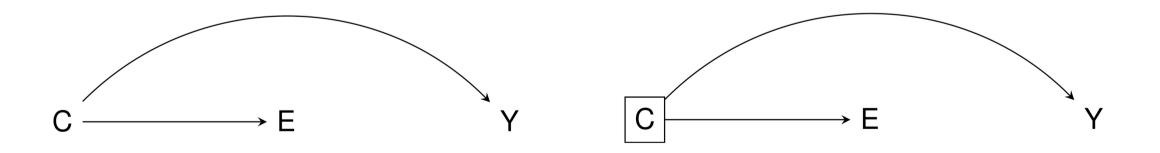
## Simpler for good prediction $\neq$ good explanation

 You can build good prediction models with variables that have nothing to do with mechanism



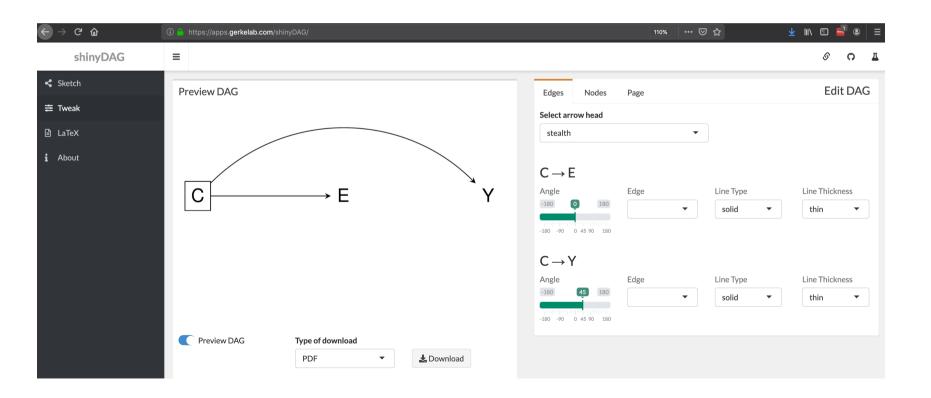
#### Correlation is not causation, except when it is

- The previous slide gave a good example of non-causative correlation
  - But I also just said we can use associational patterns to infer causation
  - o So, which is it?
- Directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) help understand when correlation == causation
  - The most basic rule is that association flows through edges
  - When two nodes are connected, we observe a statistical association
  - When association persists when all spurious edges between two variables are blocked, the observed association is causal



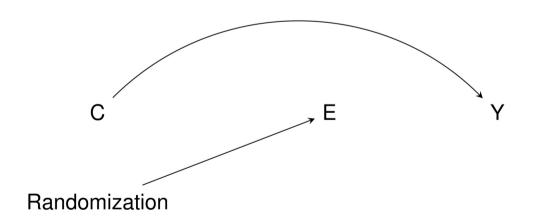
#### DAGs: there's an app for that

- There are rules governing how association flows beyond the scope of this talk
  - https://apps.gerkelab.com/shinyDAG/



#### Example: Randomized trials as a gold stardard

- Randomized experiments provide causal effect estimates
  - Here's a DAG for an RCT under the null
  - Boilerplate explanation: "Because randomization adjusts for all confounders"
- Very important definition: A confounder is a common cause of exposure and outcome



#### Confounding

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

"Confounding factor" redirects here. For the defunct British video games company, see Confounding Factor (games company).

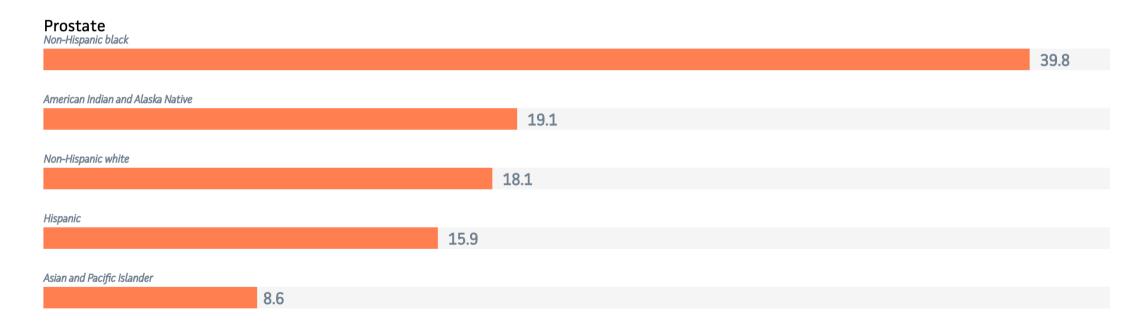
In statistics, a confounding variable (also confounding factor, a confound, a lurking variable or a confounder) is a variable in a statistical model that correlates (directly or inversely) with both the dependent variable and an independent variable, in a way that "explains away" some or all of the correlation between these two variables.

NO!

#### Back to the motivating example: PCa disparities

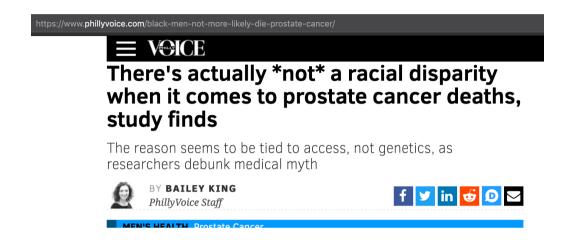
#### Death rates, 2012-2016

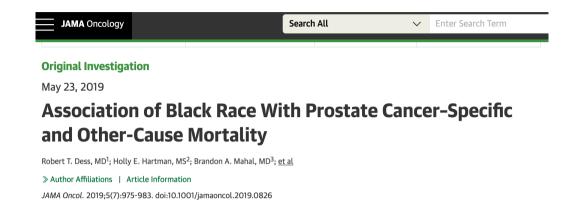
Average annual rate per 100,000, age adjusted to the 2000 US standard population. Rates for PR are for 2011-2015.

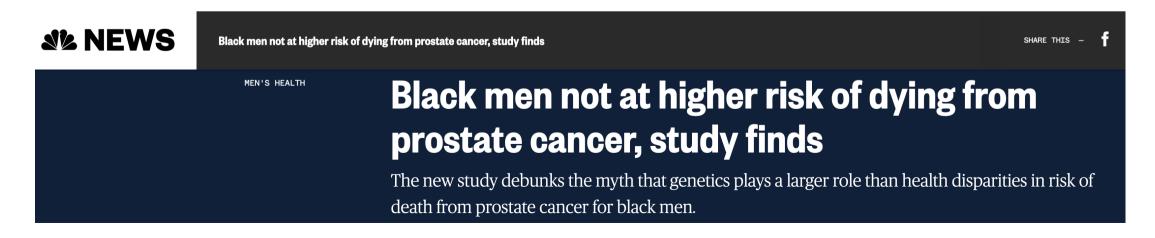


Data Source: National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2018 © 2019 American Cancer Society

#### An artifact? "Confounding"?

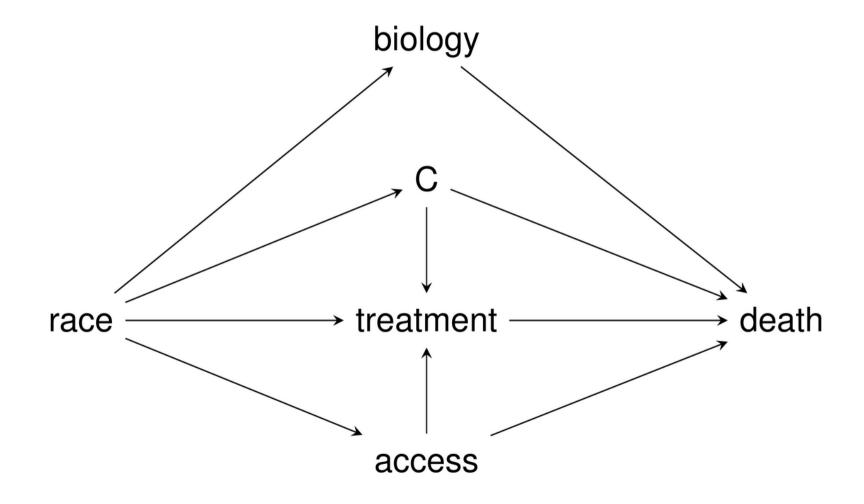






### Let the DAG help us know what to do!

• Are there confounders of race?



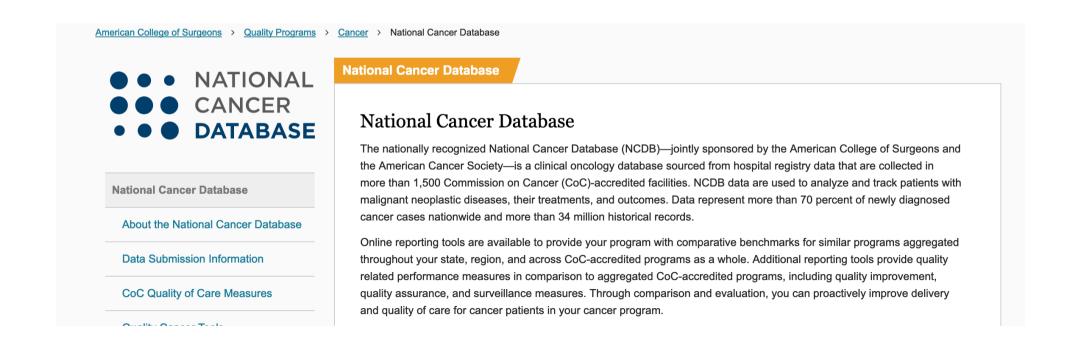
#### Oops.

# ■ JAMA Oncology Search All Enter Search Term

Second, our approach highlights the challenges of interpreting population-based data.<sup>24</sup> We adjusted for age, insurance, and a newly released validated socioeconomic status variable. Moreover, we adjusted for cancerand treatment-related confounders, including the newly released quality-assured PSA values, which were a significant limitation in prior SEER analyses.<sup>25</sup> Inclusion of these crucial prognostic factors substantially decreased the estimated age-only PCSM hazard for black men, but we still came to a slightly different conclusion with respect to the unexplained significant association of black race when using SEER population data compared with the VA and RCT cohorts. Residual group imbalances, <sup>26</sup> unmeasured confounders, <sup>5</sup> cause of death attribution bias,<sup>27</sup> and issues with coding treatment-related variables<sup>28</sup> may all contribute to the difficulty in interpreting outcomes from population registries. 6 We included several cohorts for comparison with explicit stepwise adjustment, and the overall findings provide evidence against an increased biological risk

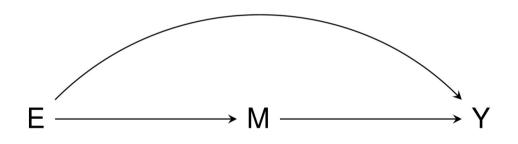
#### Let's try again

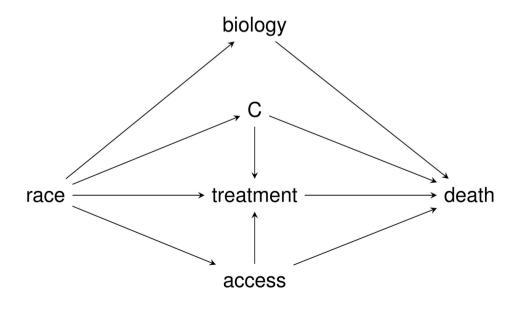
- 1,380,357 prostate cancer patients in NCDB
  - After subsetting to those with complete follow-up, created a density-matched
     1:1 case-control sample of 12,256 patients
  - Crude analysis by race: HR for death of 1.30 (95% CI: 1.18-1.44) comparing black to white patients



#### How to properly think about the role of access

- Another *very important definition*: A mediator is a variable caused by exposure, which in turn, causes the outcome
  - Effects can then be separated into *direct* and *indirect* components
  - Methods for mediation analyses are a distinct branch of statistics
  - Recommended resource: VanderWeele 2015 Explanation in Causal Inference
  - For implementation in R, https://github.com/GerkeLab/mediator





### Effect of race is minimally mediated by access

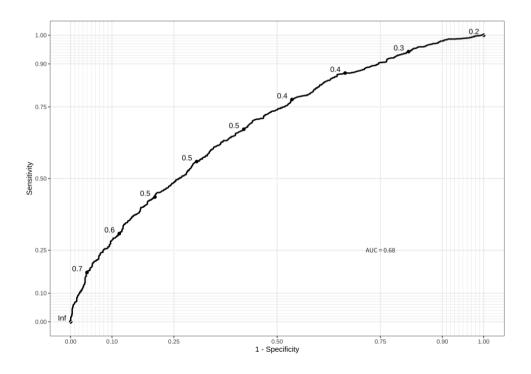
- One way to measure this is through insurance status
  - $\circ$  The proportion of race effect mediated through insurance status pprox 1%
  - We needed to adjust for many mediator-outcome confounders
  - [Hand-wave over other nuances \*\*]
  - [Can discuss these at conclusion]



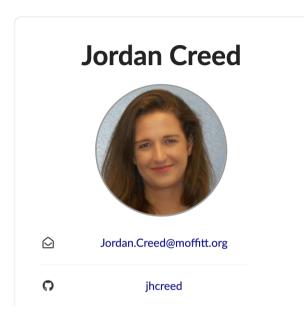
term	estimate	std.error	statistic	p.value	conf.low	conf.high
Race == "Black"TRUE	1.4768801	0.0571501	6.8229446	0.0000000	1.3205646	1.6522114
AgeCat(65,75]	1.7866940	0.0447925	12.9567952	0.0000000	1.6366709	1.9508316
AgeCat[34,55]	0.6888132	0.0570961	-6.5290844	0.0000000	0.6156888	0.7701460
AgeCat>75	3.2186762	0.1483401	7.8803391	0.0000000	2.4199028	4.3323936
Stage2	1.0501864	0.0948629	0.5161939	0.6057190	0.8717953	1.2646338
Stage2A	1.0080892	0.0550367	0.1463864	0.8836164	0.9049648	1.1228805
Stage2B	1.1705871	0.0669021	2.3542662	0.0185593	1.0266501	1.3345302
Stage3	1.2994194	0.1352738	1.9362036	0.0528428	0.9981476	1.6969694
Stage4	3.8001621	0.3032038	4.4031237	0.0000107	2.1619211	7.1581361
Stage99	1.3476367	0.0956530	3.1191111	0.0018140	1.1174639	1.6260412
Gleason2	1.2021596	0.0535434	3.4386990	0.0005845	1.0824086	1.3352124
Gleason3	1.3872915	0.0672614	4.8668840	0.0000011	1.2160003	1.5828958
Gleason4	1.5814921	0.0760083	6.0305127	0.0000000	1.3628966	1.8360285
Gleason5	3.1912406	0.0910467	12.7452147	0.0000000	2.6729352	3.8197414
PSA(6,10]	0.8167643	0.0677657	-2.9868319	0.0028188	0.7150437	0.9326330
PSA[0,6]	0.6670257	0.0632058	-6.4064832	0.0000000	0.5891813	0.7548597
PSA>20	0.8580002	0.0922104	-1.6608860	0.0967363	0.7161881	1.0280983
ш	0.9996285	0.0003610	-1.0293232	0.3033278	0.9989128	1.0003291
FacilityCommunity Cancer Program	1.5131036	0.0960230	4.3131638	0.0000161	1.2542179	1.8277359
FacilityComprehensive Community Cancer Program	1.2007048	0.0436496	4.1903905	0.0000278	1.1022706	1.3079789
FacilityIntegrated Network Cancer Program	1.1371362	0.0671733	1.9131569	0.0557280	0.9968091	1.2971361
InsuranceNot Insured	1.5692756	0.1505921	2.9922834	0.0027690	1.1695347	2.1121887
SurgeryOther/Unk	1.0759997	0.6024995	0.1215772	0.9032339	0.3425714	3.7883261
SurgeryProstatectomy	0.3938498	0.3444875	-2.7048463	0.0068336	0.1907853	0.7454435
RadiationRadiaiton	1.3407091	0.0800677	3.6618858	0.0002504	1.1465815	1.5694806
RadiationUnknown	1.1321455	0.2391102	0.5190684	0.6037130	0.7093763	1.8170487

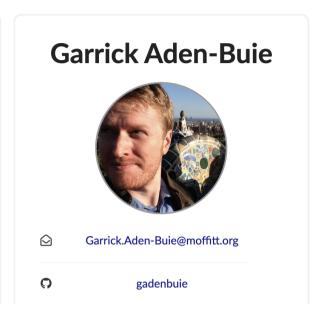
#### The published effort is still useful

- Turns out, it's a decent predictive model!
  - The below is AUC on a 20% hold-out validation data set from a simple logistic regression with all included factors
  - o And we be even better if we used more modern machine learning



#### The real heroes





#### Further details

- https://www.gerkelab.com/
- https://github.com/gerkelab

