



On Which Variable(s) Should We Condition to Remove Confounding Bias?

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Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between the two authors, which included many discussions and the drawing of causal diagrams. Author ES wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Author DJS offered critical revisions. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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ABSTRACT

Using causal diagrams and an axiomatization of causality, we examined the well-known claim that conditioning on confounders ("adjustment" for confounders) is sufficient to remove confounding bias. We show that this advice is poorly stated and is incomplete. To remove confounding bias, it is necessary to condition on three types of variables, none of which is a confounder. Conditioning on one of them, however, leads to an interesting form of colliding bias, which in turn, can be removed by conditioning on two other types of variables.

Keywords: Causal diagrams; axioms of causality; confounding bias; colliding bias; conditioning.

1. INTRODUCTION

By definition, a confounder (C) is any shared cause of the exposure (E) and the disease (D),

which affects the disease not only through its effect on the exposure [1]. In the presence of a confounder (Fig. 1), the marginal association between E and D does not arise from the causal

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path $E \rightarrow D$ alone, but also from the confounding path $E \leftarrow C \rightarrow D$ – an open (associational) path between the exposure and the disease.

It is widely believed that conditioning on C (“adjustment” for C) is sufficient to remove confounding bias due to C . We examined the validity of this claim under axioms of causality.

2. RELEVANT AXIOMS

Scientific inference, like any kind of inference, must rely on axioms – a set of primary premises that cannot be derived from other premises. Surprisingly, the voluminous literature in philosophy of science does not contain an elaborated axiomatization of causality, except for the well-known clash between determinism and indeterminism [2].

We previously proposed a set of axioms about indeterministic causation [3], four of which are relevant here:

- All causation operates between time point variables: a variable at one time (e.g., A_0) affects a variable at a later time (e.g., Y_1).
- If $A \rightarrow Y$, then $A_i \rightarrow Y_j$ for any i and j where $j > i$
- A direct effect exists only on the dt scale of time, where dt is an infinitesimal time interval (as in Newton’s calculus): $A_0 \rightarrow Y_{0+dt}$; $A_0 \rightarrow A_{0+dt}$. Informally: there is no “time travel” of an effect.
- A variable at one time (e.g., A_0) affects that variable at any future time (e.g., A_1):
 $A_0 \rightarrow A_{0+dt} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow A_{1-dt} \rightarrow A_1$

Notice two important derivations: First, any arrow between two time point variables is just a convenient abbreviation for causal paths on the dt scale of time. Second, the effect of A on Y

should be estimated for a specified time interval between the two variables.

3. BLOCKING CONFOUNDING PATHS

In light of the axioms, the causal structure in Fig. 1 is an oversimplification. There are no generic variables such as C , E , and D – only time point variables, each taking the value of some property at a distinct time. Given the causal ordering of C , E , and D (C is a cause of E ; E is a cause of D), a sequential subscript may denote a time point for each variable: C_0 , E_1 , D_2 . Without losing generality, we assume throughout that the subscript “0” denotes a property at its inception.

To estimate the effect $E_1 \rightarrow D_2$ and remove confounding bias, we may block the path $E_1 \leftarrow C_0 \rightarrow D_2$ by conditioning on C_0 (Fig. 2).

Conditioning, denoted by a box, dissociates a variable from all other variables, as denoted by crossing lines over surrounding arrows. After conditioning on C_0 , the (conditional) association between E_1 and D_2 does not include the unwanted contribution of the confounding path.

C_0 , however, indicates the C -property at just one time point before E_1 . Between $t=0$ and $t=1$, there are an infinite number of interim C_t variables ($0 < t < 1$), as shown in Fig. 3. Two C -variables that are close to C_0 and C_1 are labeled, respectively, $C_{0+\Delta t}$ and $C_{1-\Delta t}$.

In accord with the axioms of causality, the set of interim C_t form a causal path between C_0 and C_1 ($C_0 \rightarrow C_{0+\Delta t} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow C_{1-\Delta t} \rightarrow C_1$), and each of these variables is also a cause of E_1 . Therefore, there is a continuum of C_t , each of which creates a unique confounding path: $E_1 \leftarrow C_t \rightarrow C_1 \rightarrow D_2$ (Fig. 3). The so-called confounder C is actually a set of an infinite number of confounders.

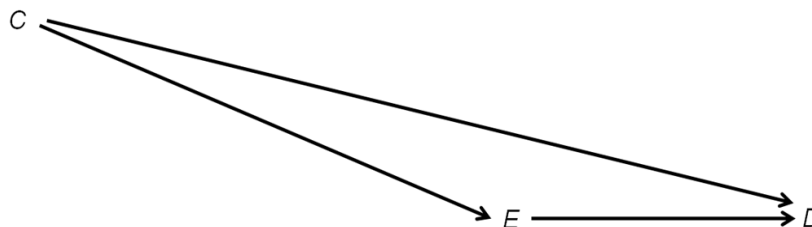


Fig. 1. A confounding path due to C

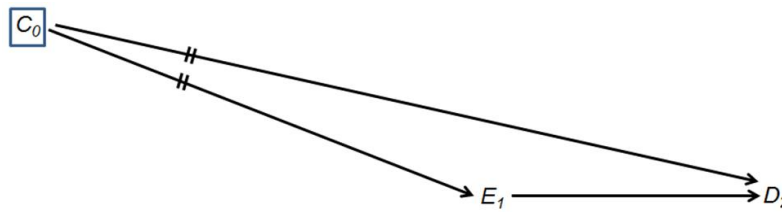


Fig. 2. Blocking the confounding path

Fig. 4 shows what happens after conditioning on C_0 . One confounding path is indeed blocked, as we already saw in Fig. 2, but an infinite number of paths, $E_1 \leftarrow C_t \rightarrow C_1 \rightarrow D_2$, remain open.

Fig. 4 leads to another conclusion: let C_j be a member of $\{C_t: 0 < t < 1\}$. Then, the shorter the time interval between C_j and C_1 , the smaller the set of confounding paths that remain open after conditioning on C_j . Therefore, if we have to choose between conditioning on C_i and C_j ($i < j < 1$), it is better to condition on C_j (less bias will remain).

Most important, however, is the following conclusion:

Rather than conditioning on C_0 or any other confounder, C_j ($j < 1$), we should condition on C_1 – the variable that coincides with the exposure variable E_1 (Fig. 5). Since C_1 is located on all preceding confounding paths, conditioning on this variable will block them all. But C_1 is not a confounder! It is not a cause of E_1 .

Conditioning on C_1 will not suffice, however, if C_0 affects D_2 not only through subsequent C -variables, but also through other variables, such as V (Fig. 6). In that case, an infinite number of confounding paths, $E_1 \leftarrow C_{t1} \rightarrow V_{t2} \rightarrow V_1 \rightarrow D_2$, where $0 < t1 < t2 < 1$, still remain open. To remove all confounding due to C -variables, we have to condition on V_1 as well (Fig. 7). Notice that V_1 is not a confounder, either. It is a cause of D_2 , but not a cause of E_1 .

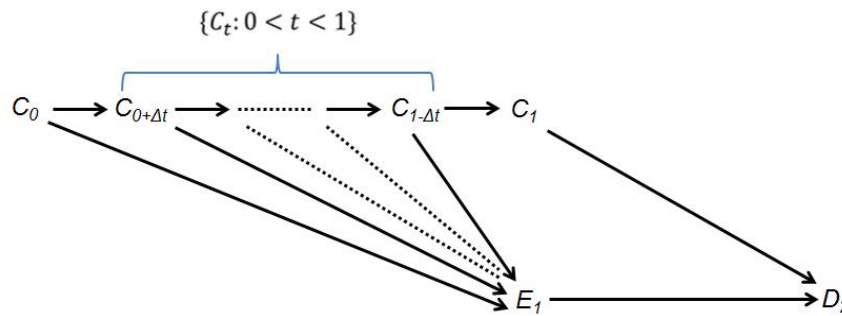


Fig. 3. An infinite number of confounding paths due to C-variables

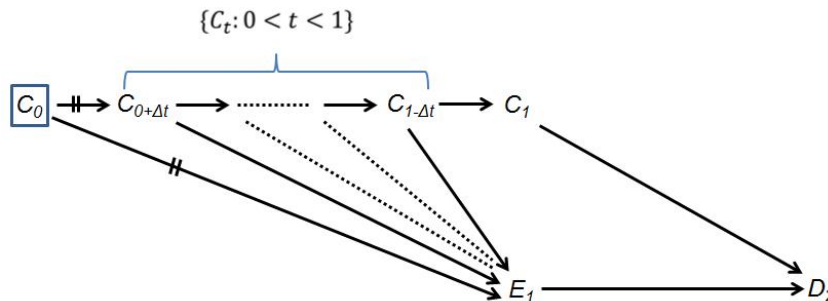


Fig. 4. Conditioning on C_0

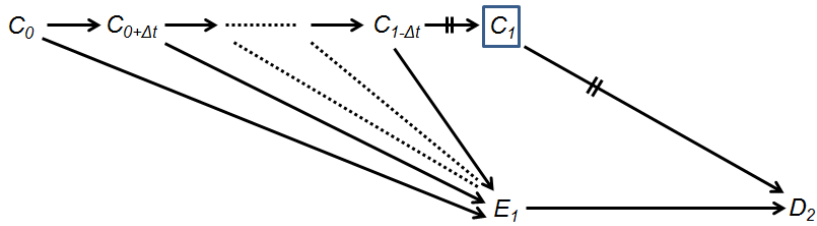


Fig. 5. Blocking the confounding paths by conditioning on C_1

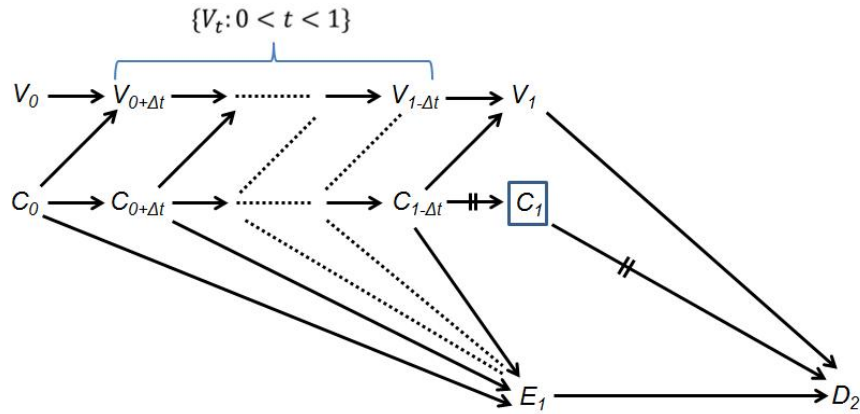


Fig. 6. C affects D through some variable V

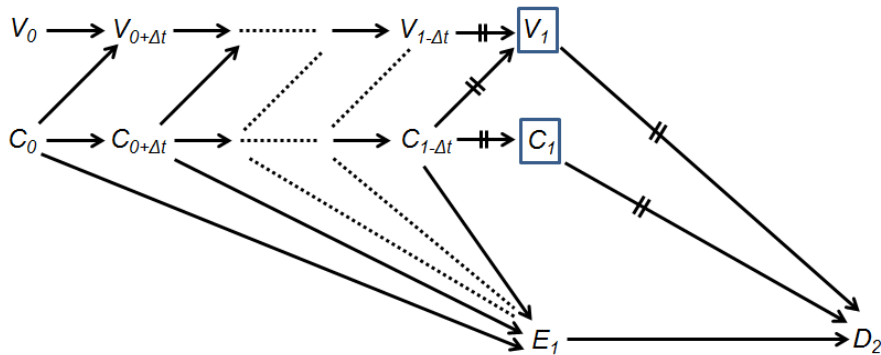


Fig. 7. Blocking the confounding paths by conditioning on both C_1 and V_1

4. CONFOUNDING BY PREVIOUS EXPOSURE VARIABLES

Although not widely recognized, E -variables before E_1 are confounders too. Unless the effect of E on D is precisely null, each of them is not only a cause of E_1 , but also a cause of D_2 through D_1 (Fig. 8). Just like C_t and V_t , the E_t variables collectively create an infinite number of confounding paths ($E_1 \leftarrow E_t \rightarrow D_1 \rightarrow D_2$), which make an unwanted contribution to the association between E_1 and D_2 .

How can we block these paths?

Obviously, we cannot follow the method for C and V ; we cannot condition on E_1 , the exposure variable itself. At most, we may condition on some prior E , say $E_j (j < 1)$.

To minimize confounding bias, E_j should be as close as possible to E_1 : the shorter the interval $[j, 1]$, the fewer the confounding paths that remain open and the smaller the residual bias. But as E_j approaches E_1 , it becomes similar to E_1 , so the variance of the conditional association

between E_1 and D_2 will gradually increase: We have to pay in increased variance for reduced bias – another example of the bias-variance tradeoff. And if prior, measured, E -variables happen to be identical to measured E_1 as of some time point k , we cannot condition on any E -variable in the interval $[k,1]$.

Another solution, however, is available. Instead of conditioning on E_j , we may condition on D_1 (Fig. 9), an intermediary on all confounding paths due to previous E -variables. Again, the variable on which we condition to remove confounding bias is not a confounder.

5. HOW TO CONDITION ON D_1

Conditioning on D_1 is routinely performed in cohort studies, albeit for poorly stated reasons. Prevailing dogma calls for excluding prevalent disease (D_1 =“diseased”) by design or analysis and estimating the effect of baseline exposure on incident disease.

Fig. 9 sheds new light on this practice. First, the diagram does not show any variable that is called incident disease – and rightly so. Neither incident disease status nor recurrent disease status are time point properties of any person; they are *derived* from the person’s disease status at different time points. Second, we do not estimate

the exposure effect on incident (or recurrent) disease at $t=2$, but rather the exposure effect on D_2 . That effect is estimated by the association between E_1 and D_2 conditional on D_1 . It is not just a matter of wording, because derived variables, such as “incident disease status”, have neither causes nor effects [4]. They are mathematical entities, not natural properties of objects.

When D is binary, the conditional association between E_1 and D_2 may take two forms: conditional on D_1 =“diseased” and conditional on D_1 =“disease-free”. If D_1 is a significant modifier of the effect $E_1 \rightarrow D_2$, two stratum-specific estimates should be reported. Otherwise, we may compute a weighted average of two estimates of the effect $E_1 \rightarrow D_2$ (for example, by a “main effects” regression model). In either case, there is no reason to ignore the stratum D_1 =“diseased”, other than sparse, or poor quality, data.

6. COLLIDING BIAS: THE CONSEQUENCE OF CONDITIONING ON D_1

Unfortunately, conditioning on D_1 does not settle the matter either [5]. Another kind of bias might be created: colliding bias [6]. The bias arises when two causes modify each other’s effect on some variable and we condition on that variable (a shared effect).

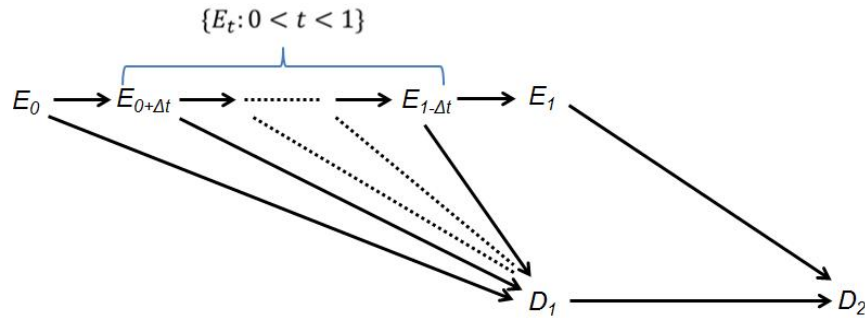


Fig. 8. An infinite number of confounding paths due to previous E -variables

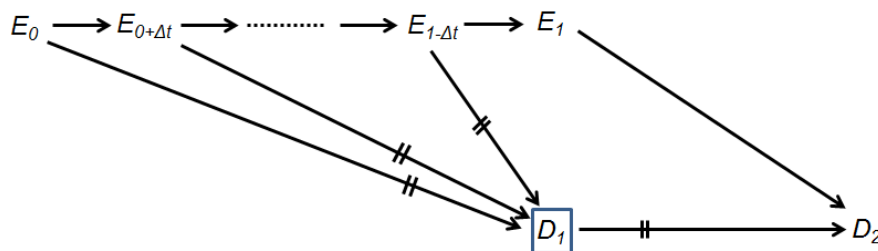


Fig. 9. Blocking the confounding paths by conditioning on D_1

In certain circumstances conditioning on a shared effect (a collider) will create, or alter, an association between its causes (colliding variables).

Fig. 10 depicts the situation. Q is a cause of D , though not a confounder, and E and Q modify each other's effects on D (denoted by a lower case letter above the modified arrow to indicate dependency on the modifier's value).

Following conditioning on D_1 , a new association is created between E and Q at each time point (denoted by a dash line). As a result, we observe an infinite number of open induced paths that contribute to the conditional association between E_1 and D_2 – for example, $E_1 \leftarrow E_0 - Q_0 \rightarrow Q_1 \rightarrow D_2$.

That unwanted contribution is called colliding bias.

Fig. 11 shows the obvious solution. Conditioning on Q_1 will block the induced paths and remove colliding bias. Again, the variable on which we condition is not a confounder.

One last problem still remains: there may be open induced paths through intermediaries between Q and D , such as R (Fig. 12). We have to condition on intermediary variables between the modifier and the disease (Fig. 13), just as we had to condition on intermediary variables between the confounder and the disease (Fig. 7). Again, the variable on which we condition, R_1 , coincides with the exposure, E_1 , and is not a confounder (Fig. 13).

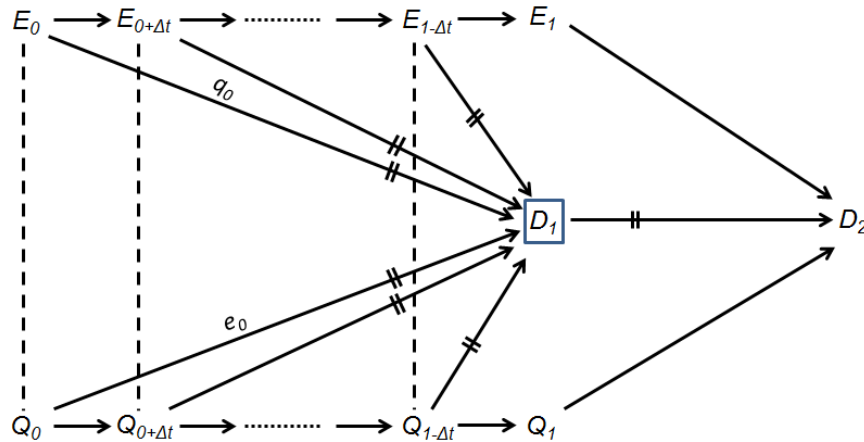


Fig. 10. An infinite number of open induced paths following conditioning on D_1

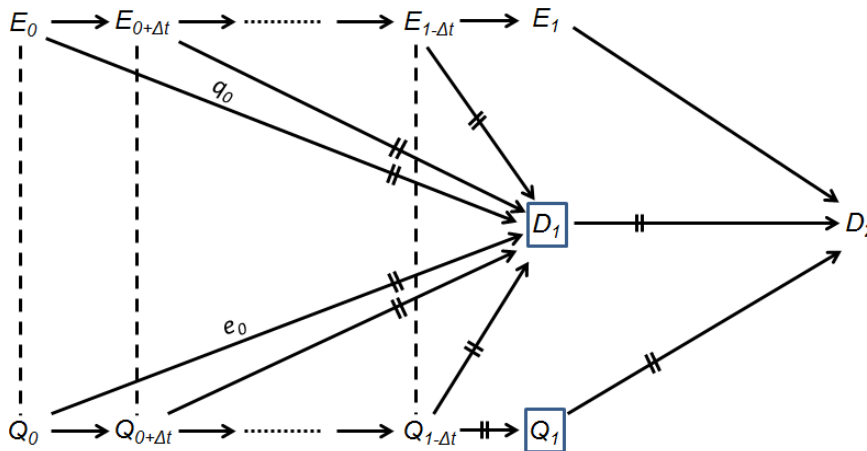


Fig. 11. Blocking the induced paths by conditioning on Q_1

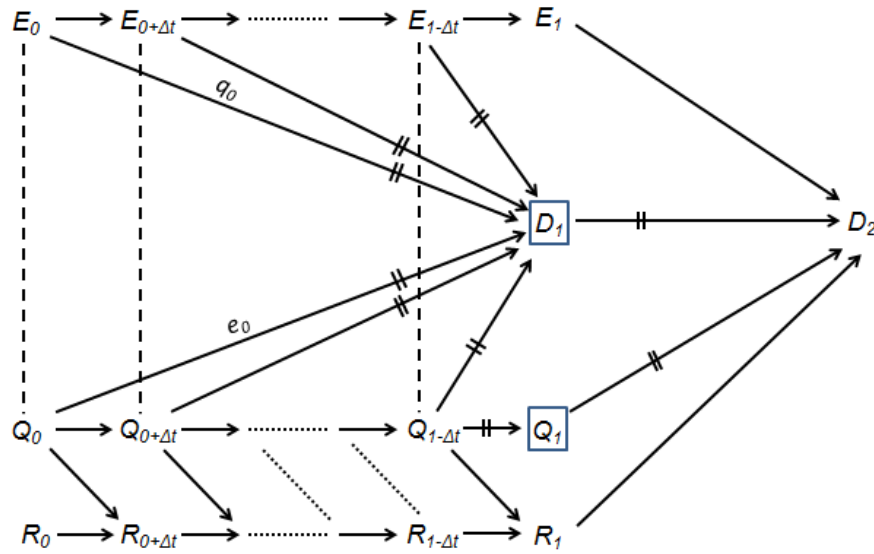


Fig. 12. An infinite number of open induced paths due to R -variables

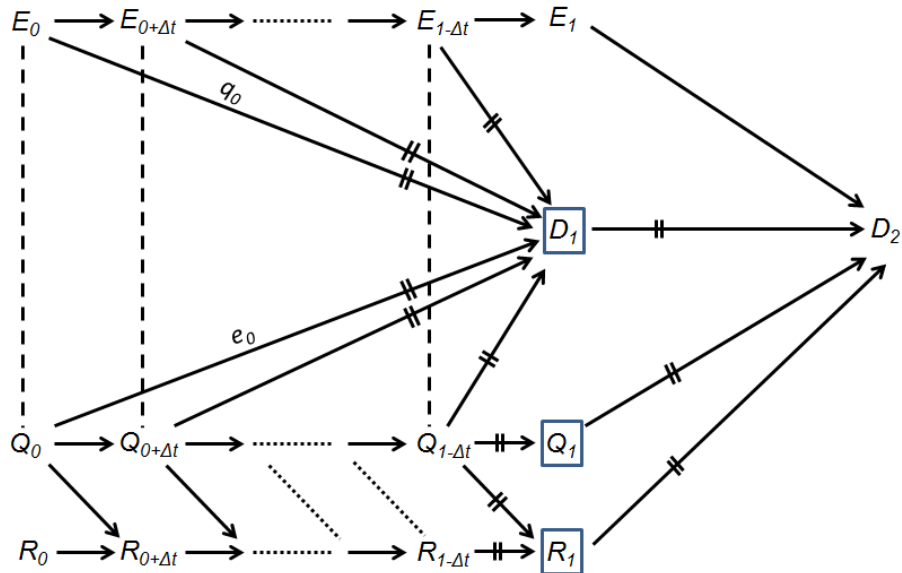


Fig. 13. Blocking the induced paths by conditioning on R_1

7. SUMMARY

Fig. 14 summarizes the five types of variables on which we should condition to remove confounding bias, and some consequential colliding bias. To remove confounding bias, we should condition on three types of variables: two kinds of intermediaries on causal paths from the confounder to D_2 (C_1, V_1); and disease status (D_1). Since conditioning on D_1 may result in colliding bias, we should also condition on two

kinds of intermediaries on causal paths from a modifier to D_2 (Q_1, R_1).

8. DISCUSSION

Using a set of axioms of causality, we identified five types of variables on which we should condition to remove confounding bias. All variables coincide with the exposure. None is a confounder.

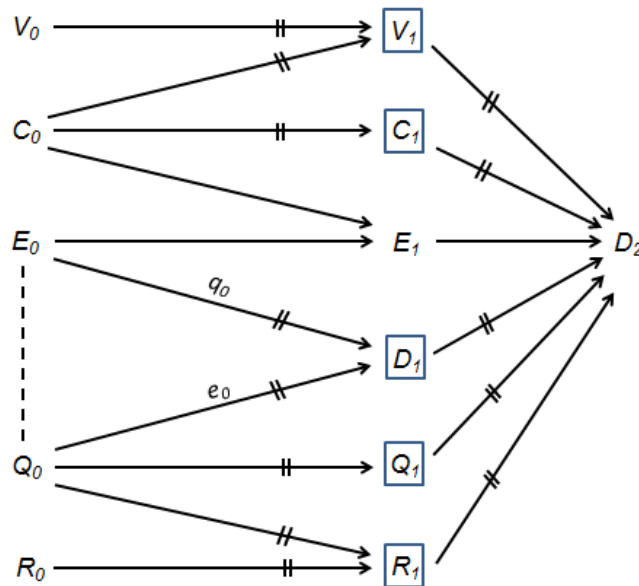


Fig. 14. Five types of variables for conditioning

An obvious counter-argument takes the following form: Even if the building blocks of causal reality are time point variables, many variables do not change over time. It makes no difference, for instance, whether we condition on C_1 or on C_0 , or on any C_t . They are essentially the same variable.

condition on an *imputed* version of the variable of interest (e.g., $C_{IMPUTED}$) – the variable that exists in our computer when we run the analysis software [4]. That variable might differ from the variable of interest and from any variable along the measurement process.

We offer the following answers:

First, in contemporary practice, many variables are clearly time dependent: smoking, drinking, weight, drug use, mental states, and so on. In those cases, conditioning on a variable at one time point is not always equivalent to conditioning on a variable at a different time point.

Second, in an indeterministic universe no variable is endowed with guaranteed stability over time. Those who think otherwise should recall our genes, time-stable variables a century ago, which turned into not-so-stable variables with contemporary gene therapy, and might become classic time-varying variables in another century. Sound methodology, on the other hand, provides for time-stable reasoning.

Third, methodological arguments prescribe a logical course of action and should not be mixed with practical considerations. In practice, we never condition on the variables that are shown in Figs. 1-14. We always

Furthermore, which variable is replaced by $C_{IMPUTED}$ is a matter of interpretation, because valid substitution requires only some form of association between the variable of interest and its substitute [4]. For instance, $C_{IMPUTED}$ may substitute for C_0 when the latter was measured, because the two are associated through a causal path ($C_0 \rightarrow C_{MEASURED} \rightarrow C_{IMPUTED}$). But it is equally valid to say that $C_{IMPUTED}$ substitutes for C_1 – even if C_0 was measured – because $C_{IMPUTED}$ and C_1 are associated through an open path ($C_1 \leftarrow C_0 \rightarrow C_{MEASURED} \rightarrow C_{IMPUTED}$). In both cases the imputed variable provides information on the values of a variable of interest. Information bias aside, it does not matter which causal structure accounts for the association between the variable of interest and its substitute. Moreover, if the effect of C_0 on C_1 is so strong that the two variables practically take the same value, then $C_{IMPUTED}$ would be a good imputation for C_1 when C_0 was measured. In this sense C is sometimes called a “time-stable” variable (even though its value is not inherently fixed over time).

In summary, causal diagrams, along with axioms of causality, reveal the types of variables that

should be considered when removing confounding bias. The conclusion that was reached here stands in sharp contrast to what is widely assumed. Of course, a different conclusion may be reached on the basis of a different axiomatization of causality, provided that coherent axioms are explicitly stated. It is crucial, however, to keep in mind the sharp distinction between an axiom of causality [3] and a definition of causality [7]: the former makes a bold claim about the way causality works; the latter trivially replaces some long phrase with a short phrase [8]. Axioms are essential for logical inference; definitions are not.

CONSENT

It is not applicable.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

It is not applicable.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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