

Master Program in Biostatistics www.biostat.uzh.ch
Master Thesis: Final Presentation



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Background

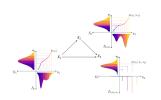
Supervisors:

- Beate Sick, UZH
- Oliver Dürr, HTWG Konstanz

Paper "Interpretable Neural Causal Models with TRAM-DAGs" (Sick and Dürr, 2025):

- Framework to model causal relationships
- Based on transformation models
- Rely on (deep) neural networks
- Compromise between interpretability and flexibility

They showed on synthetic data, that TRAM-DAGs can be fitted on observational data and tackle causal queries on all three levels of Pearl's causal hierarchy.



Research Questions

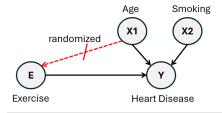
In this presentation:

- 1. TRAM-DAGs
 - How do they work?
- 2. Individualized Treatment Effect (ITE) estimation
 - Does it work on real data (International Stroke Trial)?
 - When and why does ITE estimation fail (simulation)?
 - How to estimate ITEs with TRAM-DAGs in a complicated graph (simulation)?

RCT vs. Observational Data

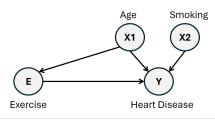
Randomized Controlled Trial:

- Gold standard for estimating causal effect
- Solves problem of confounding



Observational Data:

- Real world, potential confounding
- We assume no unobserved confounding



Pearl's Causality Ladder

Observational (seeing)

$$P(Y=1\mid E=1)$$

"Probability of heart disease given that the person exercises"

Interventional (doing)

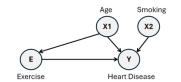
$$P(Y=1 \mid \mathsf{do}(E=1))$$

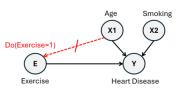
"Probability of heart disease if we made people start exercising"

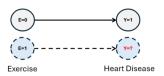
Counterfactual (imagining)

$$P(Y_{(E=1)} = 1 \mid E = 0, Y = 1)$$

"Would someone who does not exercise and has heart disease still have it if they had exercised?"



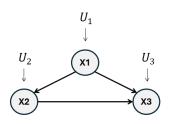




Structural Causal Model

SCM: Describes the causal mechanism and probabilistic uncertainty

- $-X_i$ = observed variable
- U_i = noise distribution

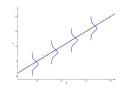


$$U_1 \sim F_{U_1}$$
, $U_2 \sim F_{U_2}$, $U_3 \sim F_{U_3}$
 $X_1 = f_1(U_1)$
 $X_2 = f_2(U_2, X_1)$
 $X_3 = f_3(U_3, X_1, X_2)$

Estimating Functional Form

Statistical methods:

- E.g. linear/logistic regression
- Predefined form, risk of bias if misspecified



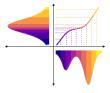
Neural networks:

- E.g. feed-forward NNs, normalizing flows, VACAs
- Flexible, but "black-box", data-type limitations



TRAM-DAGs:

- Compromise: flexibility + interpretability
- Mixed data types



Transformation Models

Flexible distributional regression method (Hothorn et al., 2014)

Continuous $Y \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$F_{Y|\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{x}}(y) = F_{Z}(h(y) + \mathbf{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

Discrete $Y \in \{y_1, y_2, ..., y_K\}$:

$$P(Y \le y_k \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = F_Z(\vartheta_k + \mathbf{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, K - 1$$

- $-F_Z$: CDF of the standard logistic distribution
- h: Transformation function, monotonically increasing
- x: Predictors

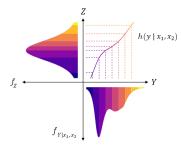
Transformation Models

Continuous *Y*:

Intercept: Bernstein polynomial

$$h_l(y) = \frac{1}{M+1} \sum_{k=0}^{M} \vartheta_k \, \mathsf{B}_{k,M}(y)$$

$$h(y \mid \mathbf{x}) = h_l(y) - \mathbf{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

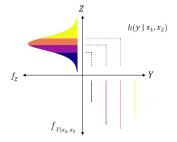


Discrete/Ordinal *Y*:

Intercept: Cut-off value

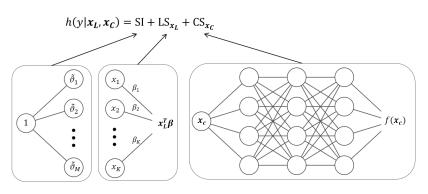
$$h_l(y_k)=\vartheta_k$$

$$h(y_k \mid \mathbf{x}) = h_l(y_k) - \mathbf{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

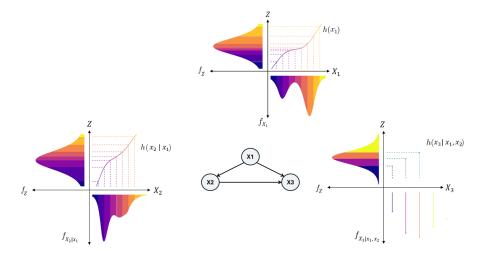


Deep TRAMs

- Extended to Deep TRAMs (Sick et al., 2021)
- Flexible components
- Minimize the NLL through NN optimization

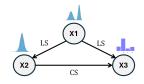


TRAM-DAGs



Simulation Example

- We have:
 - Observational data (simulated)
 - Predefined DAG
- We want:
 - Estimate conditional CDF of each variable
 - Sample from conditional distributions for causal queries with structural equations $x_i = h^{-1}(z_i \mid pa(x_i))$



$$X_1 \sim F_z(h(x_1))$$

 $X_2 \sim F_z(h(x_2) + LS_{x1})$
 $X_3 \sim F_z(h(x_3) + LS_{x1} + CS_{x2})$

Data Generating Process (DGP)

 X_1 : Continuous, bimodal. *Source node* (independent).



 X_2 : Continuous. Depends on X_1 (linear):

$$\frac{\beta_{12} = 2}{h(X_2 \mid X_1) = h_I(X_2) + \beta_{12}X_1}$$



 X_3 : Ordinal. Depends on X_1 (linear) and X_2 (complex):

$$\beta_{13} = 0.2, \quad f(X_2) = 0.5 \cdot \exp(X_2), \quad \vartheta_k \in \{-2, 0.42, 1.02\}$$
$$h(X_{3,k} \mid X_1, X_2) = \vartheta_k + \beta_{13}X_1 + f(X_2)$$



Probability

Construct Model: Modular Neural Network

Inputs:

Observations + assumed structure

Outputs:

- Simple Intercepts (SI): ϑ
- Linear Shifts (LS): $\beta_{12}X_1$, $\beta_{13}X_2$
- Complex Shift (CS): $f(X_2)$

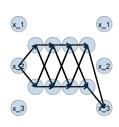
Transformation Functions:

$$h(X_{i} \mid pa(X_{i})) = SI + LS + CS$$

$$h(X_{1}) = h_{i}(X_{1})$$

$$h(X_{2} \mid X_{1}) = h_{i}(X_{2}) + \beta_{12}X_{1}$$

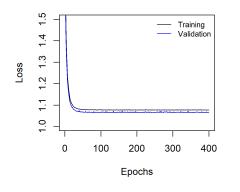
$$h(X_{3,k} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}) = \vartheta_{k} + \beta_{13}X_{1} + f(X_{2})$$

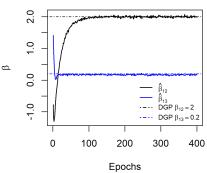


$$CS_{X_2}$$
 on X_3

Experiment 1: TRAM-DAGs (model learning)

20,000 training samples





Sampling from the Fitted TRAM-DAG (observational)

Nodes $X_i, i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$:

— Sample latent value:

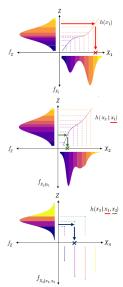
$$z_i \sim F_{Z_i}$$
 (e.g., rlogis() in R)

- Determine x_i such that:
 - If X_i is continuous: Solve for x_i using numerical root-finding:

$$h(x_i \mid pa(x_i)) - z_i = 0$$

If X_i is ordinal: find the smallest category
 x_i such that

$$x_i = \max(\{0\} \cup \{x : z_i > h(x \mid pa(x_i))\}) + 1$$

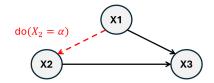


Sampling from the Fitted TRAM-DAG (interventional)

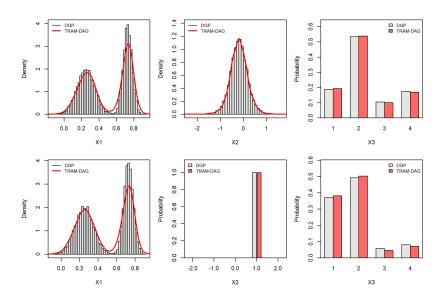
Interventional sampling:

- Do-intervention: $do(x_2 = \alpha)$
- Sample from the interventional-distribution:

$$x_3 = \min \{ x : z_3 \le h(x \mid x_1, x_2 = \alpha) \}$$

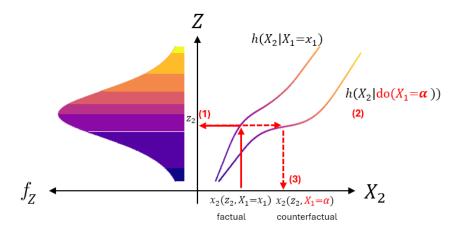


Experiment 1: TRAM-DAGs (sampling distributions)



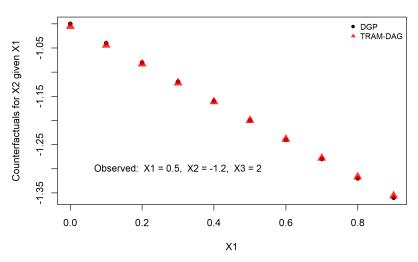
Experiment 1: TRAM-DAGs (counterfactuals)

How to determine a counterfactual value for X_2 , given some observation?



Experiment 1: TRAM-DAGs (counterfactuals)

Counterfactuals: Counterfactual value of X_2 under varying X_1



Experiment 1: TRAM-DAGs (Discussion)

With TRAM-DAGs we can:

- Estimate the functional form of the edges in the DAG
- Customize flexibility (SI/CI, LS, CS)
- Sample from the fitted model
- Estimate counterfactuals

Individualized Treatment Effect (ITE): Motivation

Motivation:

- RCT typically estimates Average Treatment Effect (ATE)
- Individuals may respond differently depending on characteristics
- Crucial for decision-making in personalized medicine or targeted marketing
- Heterogeneous treatent effect mainly due to treatment-covariate-interactions

Individual treatment effect: Difference in potential outcomes

$$Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)$$

, where $Y_i(1)$ is the potential outcome if treated and $Y_i(0)$ if not treated.

Fundamental problem of causal inference \rightarrow We cannot observe both potential outcomes for the same individual.

Individualized Treatment Effect (ITE): Assumptions

Assumptions for identifiability of causal effects from observed data:

- 1. **Consistency:** Observed outcome equals the potential outcome under the treatment actually received: Y = Y(1) if T = 1, and Y = Y(0) if T = 0
- 2. **Ignorability/Unconfoundedness:** Treatment assignment is independent of potential outcomes given observed covariates: $(Y(1), Y(0)) \perp T \mid X$
- 3. **Overlap/Positivity:** Every individual has a positive probability of receiving each treatment level: $0 < P(T = 1 \mid X = x) < 1$ for all x.
- 4. **No interference:** The treatment of one individual does not affect the potential outcomes of another individual.

Individualized Treatment Effect (ITE): Estimand

If assumptions for identifiability are satisfied:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{ITE}_i(\mathbf{x}_i) &= \mathbb{E}[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0) \mid \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[Y_i(1) \mid \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i(0) \mid \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[Y_i(1) \mid T_i = 1, \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i(0) \mid T_i = 0, \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] \quad \text{(by ignorability and } \\ &= \mathbb{E}[Y_i \mid T_i = 1, \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] - \mathbb{E}[Y_i \mid T_i = 0, \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] \quad \text{(by consistency)} \end{aligned}$$

For a binary outcome:

$$\mathsf{ITE}_i(\mathbf{x}_i) = P(Y_i = 1 \mid T_i = 1, \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i) - P(Y_i = 1 \mid T_i = 0, \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i).$$
 (2)

Individualized Treatment Effect (ITE): Models

How we estimated the potential outcomes?

- T-learners: Two separate models, estimated on treated and control groups (logistic regression, tuned random forest)
- S-learners: One model, with treatment as a feature (TRAM-DAGs)

Experiment 2: ITE on International Stroke Trial (IST)

Chen et al. (2025) showed that results of models used for ITE estimation did not generalize to the test set.

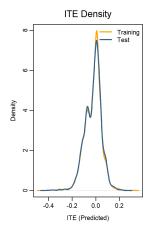
International Stroke Trial (IST):

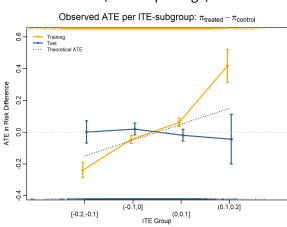
- Large RCT on stroke patients (19,435 patients, 21 baseline covariates)
- Evaluated the effects of aspirin on stroke patients
- Binary treatment and outcome

Goal: Estimate ITE with T-learners (logistic regression, tuned random forest) and S-learner (TRAM-DAGs) on IST data.

Experiment 2: ITE on International Stroke Trial (IST): Results

Results with T-learner tuned random forest (comets package):





Experiment 2: ITE on International Stroke Trial (IST): Discussion

Our interpretation:

- Similar results as Chen et al. (2025)
- Some models suggest a range of ITEs, but do not generalize to the test set (no effect)

Experiment 3: Simulation of ITE estimation robustness

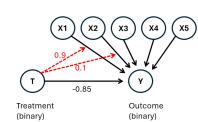
Goal:

- Simulate different RCT scenarios to understand when ITE estimation fails
- Apply simple model (logistic regression) and complex model(tuned random forest)

Simulation Case 1: Fully Observed

Setup:

- n = 20,000
- $T \sim Bernoulli(0.5)$
- $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_5)^{\top} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$
- $\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{TX}} = (X_1, X_2)^{\top}$ interaction

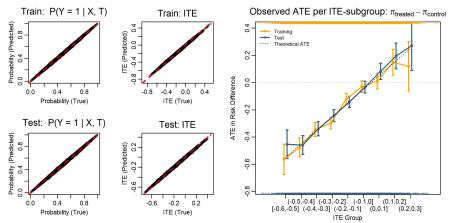


Outcome model:

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 1 \mid \mathbf{X}, T) = \mathsf{logit}^{-1} \left(\beta_0 + \beta_T T + \boldsymbol{\beta}_X^\top \mathbf{X} + \underline{T} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}_{TX}^\top \mathbf{X}_{\mathsf{TX}}\right)$$

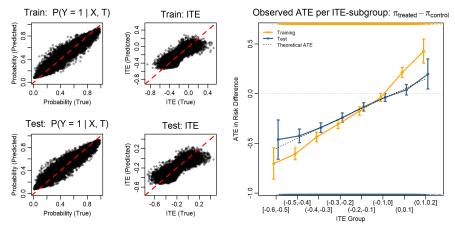
Simulation Case 1: Fully Observed

Results with T-learner logistic regression (glm):



Simulation Case 1: Fully Observed

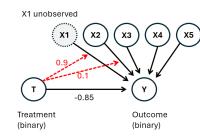
Results with T-learner Random Forest (comets package):



Simulation Case 2: Unobserved Interaction

Setup:

- n = 20,000
- $T \sim Bernoulli(0.5)$
- $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_5)^{\top} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$
- $\mathbf{X}_{\mathsf{TX}} = (X_1, X_2)^{\top}$ interaction



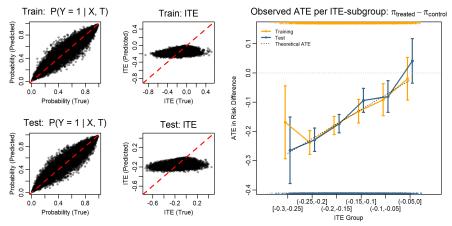
Outcome model:

$$\mathbb{P}(\textit{Y} = 1 \mid \textbf{X}, \textit{T}) = \mathsf{logit}^{-1} \left(\beta_{0} + \beta_{\textit{T}}\textit{T} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\textit{X}}^{\top}\textbf{X} + \boldsymbol{T} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\textit{TX}}^{\top}\textbf{X}_{\textbf{TX}}\right)$$

Note: Same DGP, but X_1 is not observed!

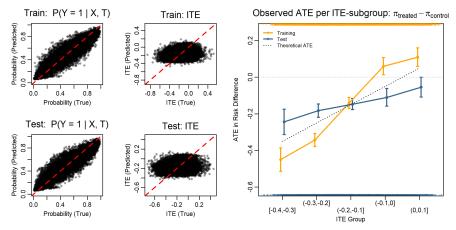
Simulation Case 2: Unobserved Interaction

Results with T-learner logistic regression (glm):



Simulation Case 2: Unobserved Interaction

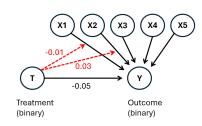
Results with T-learner Random Forest (comets):



Simulation Case 3: Fully Observed, Small Effects

Setup:

- n = 20,000
- $T \sim Bernoulli(0.5)$
- $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_5)^{\top} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$
- $\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{TX}} = (X_1, X_2)^{\top}$ interaction



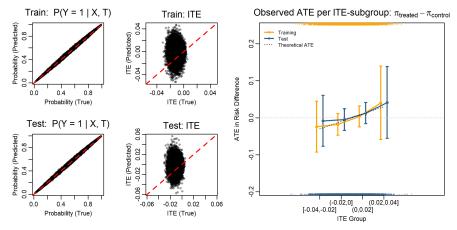
Outcome model:

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 1 \mid \mathbf{X}, T) = \mathsf{logit}^{-1} \left(\beta_0 + \beta_T T + \boldsymbol{\beta}_X^\top \mathbf{X} + \underline{T} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}_{TX}^\top \mathbf{X}_{\mathsf{TX}} \right)$$

Note: Same DGP, but weak treatment effects!

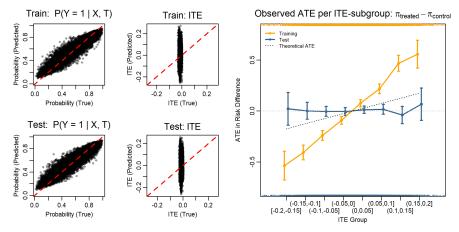
Simulation Case 3: Fully Observed, Small Effects

Results with T-learner logistic regression (glm):



Simulation Case 3: Fully Observed, Small Effects

Results with T-learner Random Forest (comets package):

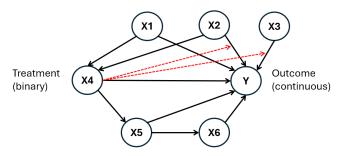


ITE simulation: Interpretation

My interpretation:

- When a high predicted treatment effect (ITE) corresponds to a high observed effect in the train set (strong discrimination), but not in the test set, it might be due to unobserved interaction variables or weak treatment effects.
- This is more likely to occur with complex models, as they tend to overfit when the interaction is not observed.

TRAM-DAGs: Example for ITE estimation

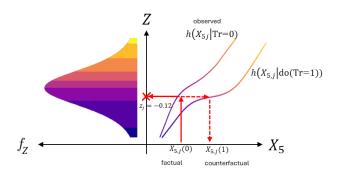


DGP:

- $X5 = h_5^{-1} (\epsilon 0.8 X4)$ → (depends on treatment)
- $X6 = h_6^{-1}(\epsilon + 0.5X5) \rightarrow \text{(depends on treatment through X5)}$
- $Y = h_7^{-1} (\epsilon \beta_1 X 1 \beta_2 X 2 \beta_3 X 3 \beta_4 X 4 \beta_5 X 5 \beta_6 X 6 Tr \cdot (\beta_{2Tr} X 2 + \beta_{3Tr} X 3))$

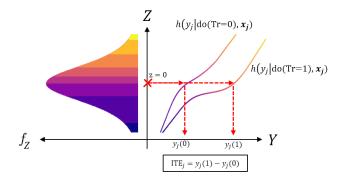
TRAM-DAGs: Estimate Potential Outcomes

If we observe a X5 under Tr = 0, we can determine the counterfactual X5 under Tr = 1 with the observed latent value z_j :



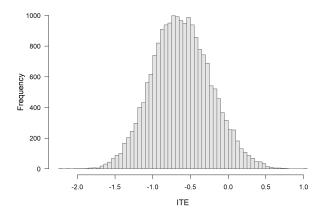
TRAM-DAGs: Example for ITE estimation

$$\mathsf{ITE} = \mathsf{median}(Y \mid \mathsf{do}(T=1), X) - \mathsf{median}(Y \mid \mathsf{do}(T=0), X)$$



TRAM-DAGs: Example for ITE estimation

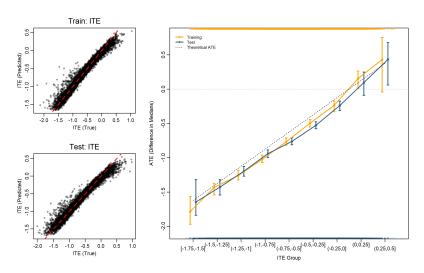
$$ITE = median(Y \mid do(T = 1), X) - median(Y \mid do(T = 0), X)$$



TRAM-DAGs: Estimate Potential Outcomes

- 1. Estimate each $h_i(X_i \mid pa(X_i))$ fully flexible (deep-NN / complex intercept)
- 2. Take the train set or a test set
- 3. $Z_i = h(X_i \mid pa(X_i))$ gives us the (observed) latent variable for each X_i
- 4. Determine counterfactuals for X5 and X6 with the (observed) latent variables *Z*_i
- 5. Determine medians of potential outcomes Y(1) and Y(0)
- 6. ITE = median($Y(1) \mid X_{tx}$) median($Y(0) \mid X_{ct}$)

TRAM-DAGs: Example for ITE estimation (Results)



TRAM-DAGs: Example for ITE estimation (Results)

ATE TRAM-DAG: estimated as mean(ITE_{predicted}):

-0.619 (-0.627 to -0.617)

ATE from RCT (randomized:) estimated as observed median($Y \mid T = 1$) - median($Y \mid T = 0$):

-0.637 (-0.662 to -0.610)

confidence intervals obtained by bootstrapping

References

- Chen, H., Aebersold, H., Puhan, M. A., and Serra-Burriel, M. (2025). Causal machine learning methods for estimating personalised treatment effects insights on validity from two large trials.
- Hothorn, T., Kneib, T., and Bühlmann, P. (2014). Conditional transformation models. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Statistical Methodology*), 76(1):3–27.
- Sick, B. and Dürr, O. (2025). Interpretable neural causal models with tram-dags. Accepted at the CLeaR 2025 Conference.
- Sick, B., Hathorn, T., and Dürr, O. (2021). Deep transformation models: Tackling complex regression problems with neural network based transformation models. In 2020 25th International Conference on Pattern Recognition (ICPR), pages 2476–2481.