

Introduction to Graphical Causal Modelling

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Radboud University Nijmegen

SIKS course on Causal Modelling – 30 May, 2023

Radboud University Nijmegen

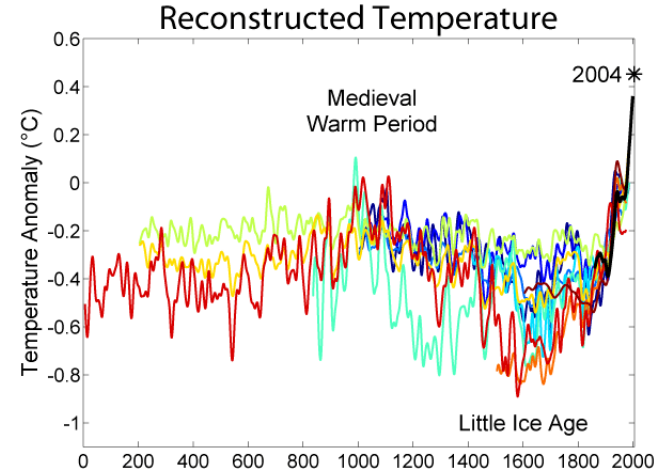


- 1 **Introduction to causality**
- 2 Prediction vs. causation
- 3 Causal graphs and how to read them
- 4 Cause-effect estimation
- 5 The missing link & conclusion

Many important research questions are rooted in causality



benefits of exercise and healthy nutrition



climate change



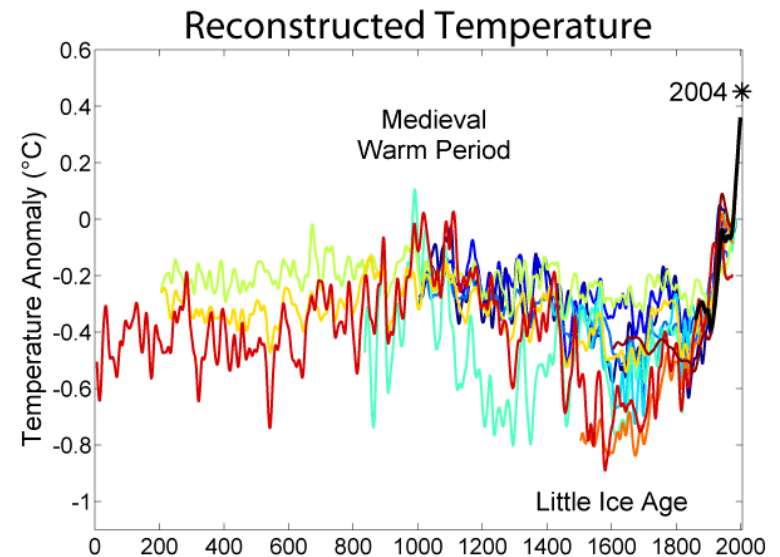
racial and gender bias in AI



Covid vaccine efficacy

Many important research questions are rooted in causality

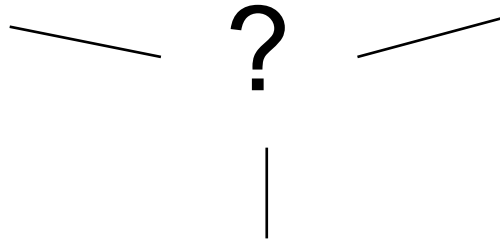
- Answers typically involve *'what causes it?'* and *'how?'*



"does human activity cause climate change?"

Many important research questions are rooted in causality

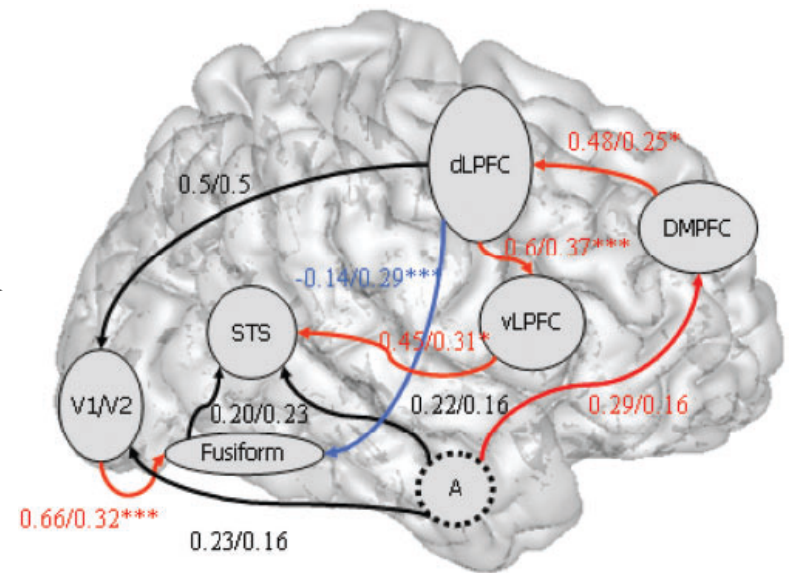
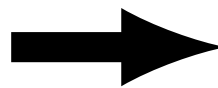
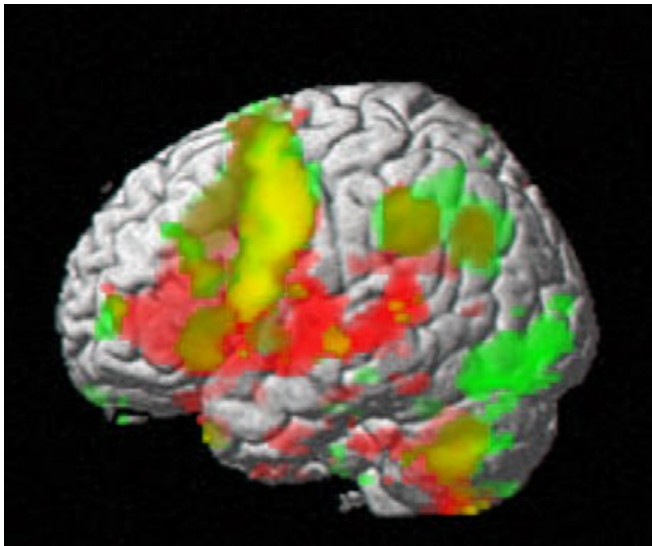
- *'Finding a connection'* does not imply we know what causes what ...



"how are violent video games, ADHD, and aggression related?"

Many important research questions are rooted in causality

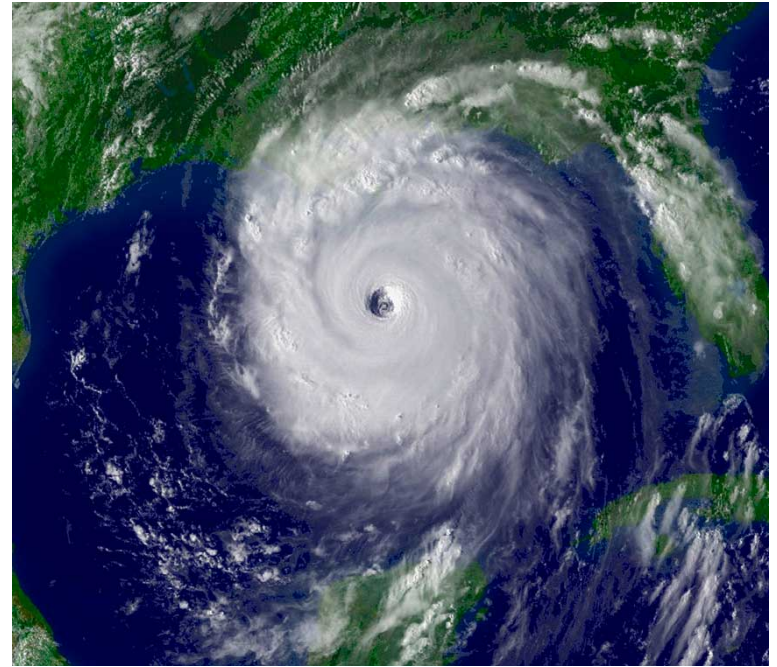
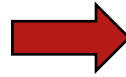
- Sometimes the difference between '*connection*' and '*causality*' is blurred ...



"can we infer functional brain connectivity from fMRI data?"

Many important research questions are rooted in causality

- Sometimes it is not even clear if the concept 'cause' makes sense



"can butterflies cause hurricanes?"

Causality: what is it?

How do we recognize causality?

(apparently so simple we don't teach this at school/university)

"Of course I know cause and effect!"



Causality: what is it?

How do we recognize causality?

(apparently so simple we don't teach this at school/university)

"Of course I know cause and effect ..."



What exactly do we mean by 'cause' and 'effect'?

Intuitively obvious, yet curiously hard to define. Often involves aspects of

- things that *occur together*
- things that *follow* each other *in time*
- things that are somehow *necessary* and/or *sufficient* to lead to another
- things that *change the probability* of something else happening
- things connected by a *mechanistic chain of events*, etc. etc.

Most definitions run into trouble somewhere ...

➡ Main 'cause' behind a huge amount of philosophical controversy!

Hume on causality

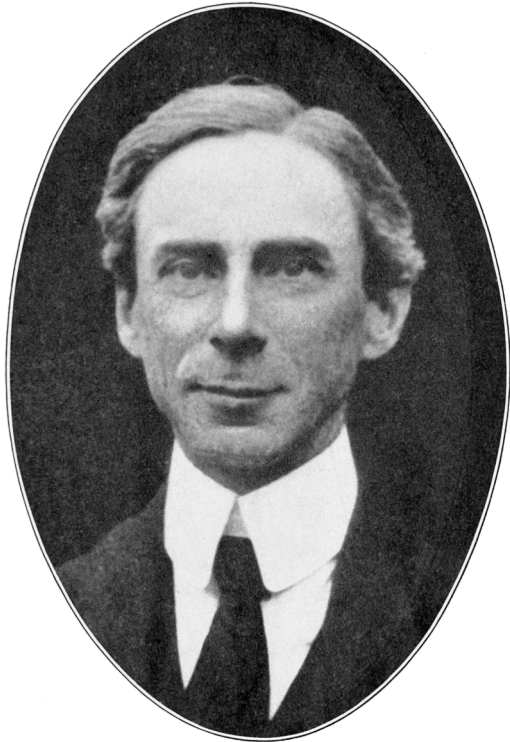
The subject of causality has a long history in philosophy. For example this is what Hume had to say about it:



*“Thus we remember to have seen that species of object we call *flame*, and to have felt that species of sensation we call *heat*. We likewise call to mind their constant conjunction in all past instances. Without any farther ceremony, we call the one *cause* and the other *effect*, and infer the existence of the one from that of the other.”*

David Hume, *Treatise of Human Nature* (1739)

Some philosophers even proposed to abandon the concept of causality altogether



“All philosophers, of every school, imagine that causation is one of the fundamental axioms or postulates of science, yet, oddly enough, in advanced sciences such as gravitational astronomy, the word ‘cause’ never occurs. The law of causality, I believe, like much that passes muster among philosophers, is a relic of a bygone age, surviving, like the monarchy, only because it is erroneously supposed to do no harm”.

Bertrand Russell, *On the Notion of Cause* (1913)

Karl Pearson (one of the founders of modern statistics, well-known from his work on the *correlation coefficient*) writes:



“Beyond such discarded fundamentals as ‘matter’ and ‘force’ lies still another fetish amidst the inscrutable arcana of even modern science, namely, the category of cause and effect.”

Karl Pearson, *The Grammar of Science* (1892)

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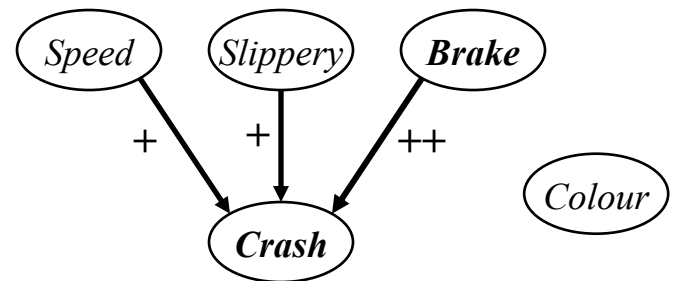
Since then, many statisticians tried to avoid causal reasoning:

- *“Considerations of causality should be treated as they have always been in statistics: preferably not at all.”* (Terry Speed, former president of the Biometric Society).
- *“It would be very healthy if more researchers abandon thinking of and using terms such as cause and effect.”* (Prominent social scientist).

Pragmatic approach

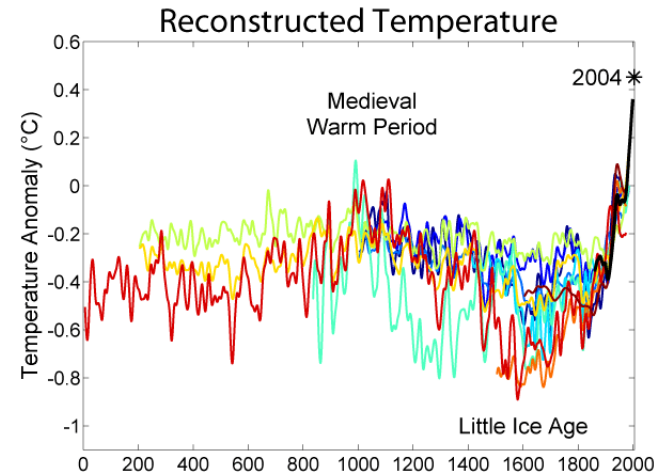
Causality = 'Effective manipulability'

- focus on *relevant, measurable influence*
- understand *why* things happen
- predict how things change if we *intervene* (effect computation)
- not about truth, but about *validity* (given *assumptions*)
- allows principled use of *maths, statistics & logic* on data and models
- verify by *experiment* ('Randomized Controlled Trial')

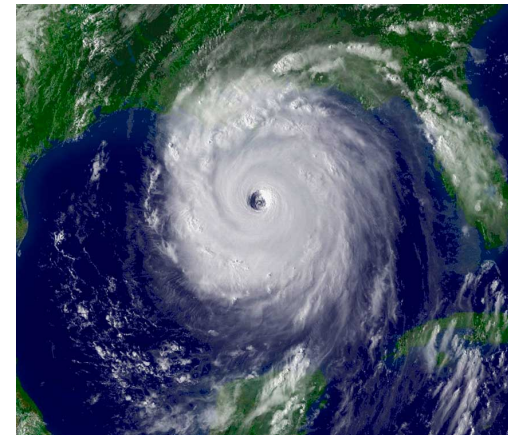
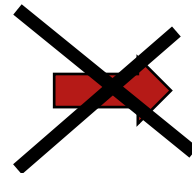


key risk factors in predicting car crashes ...

Effective manipulability



"does human activity cause climate change?"

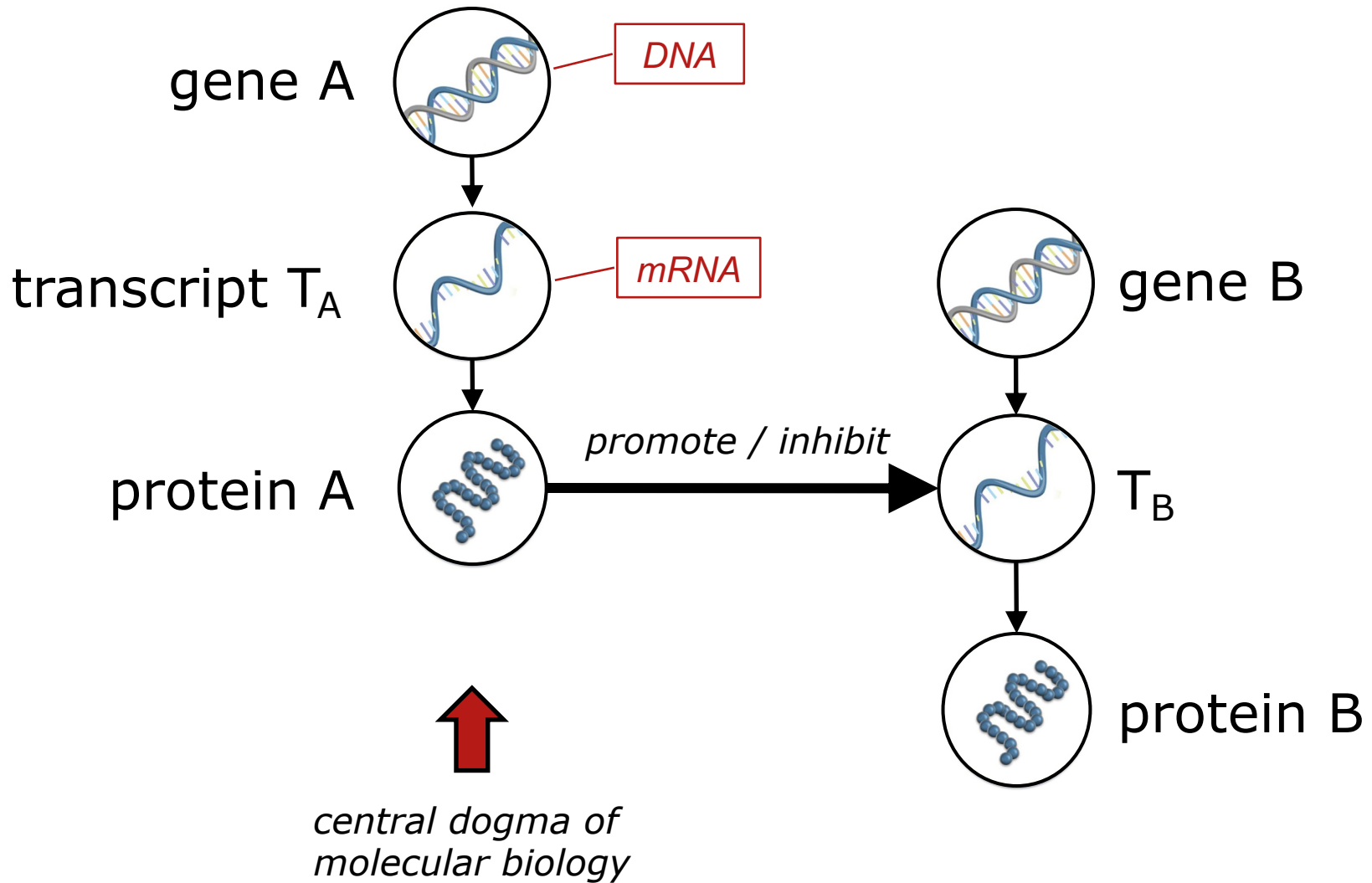


"do butterflies cause hurricanes?"

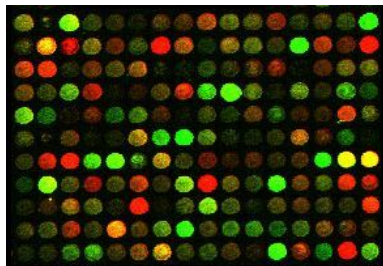
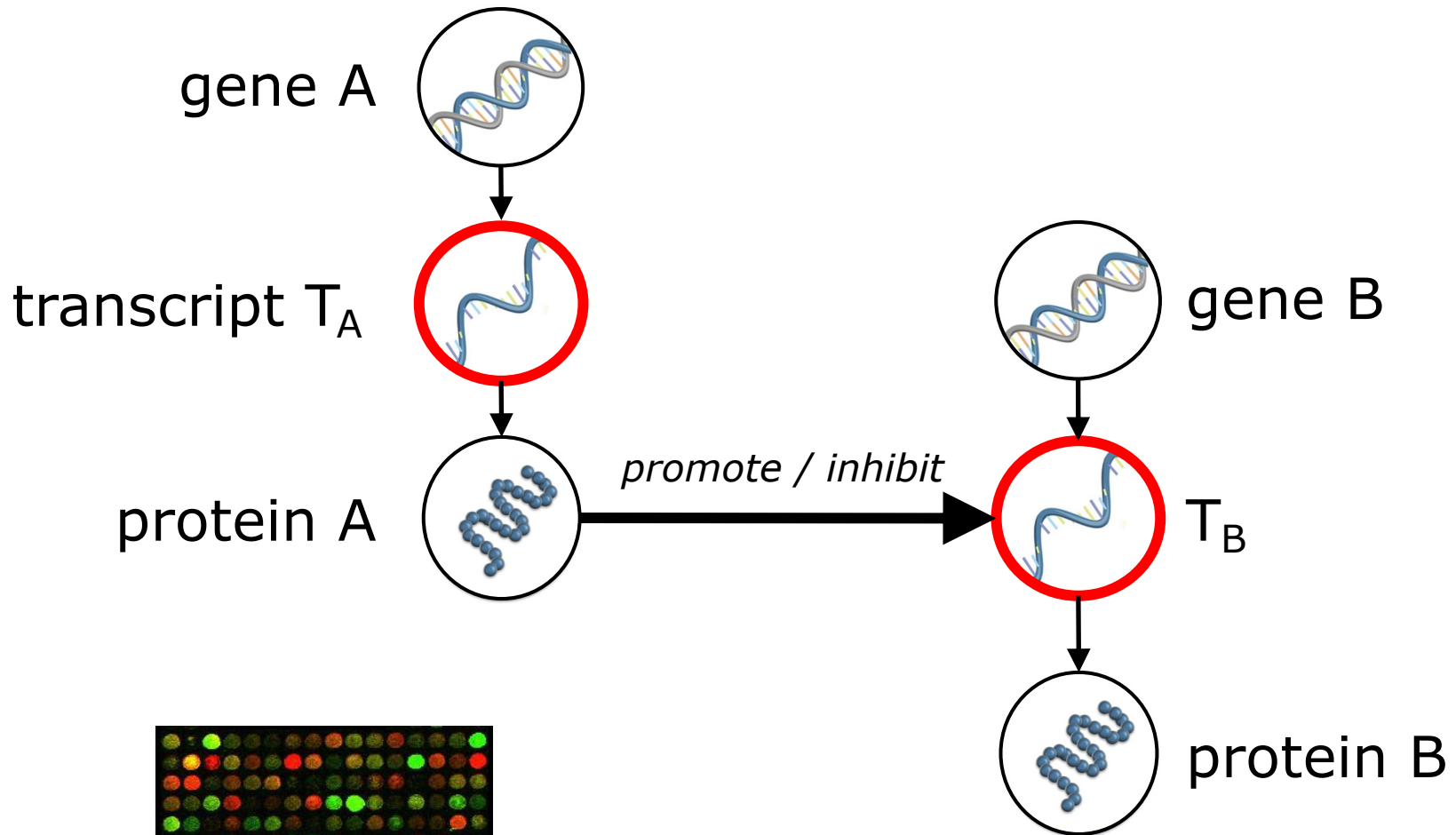
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Example - Gene regulation

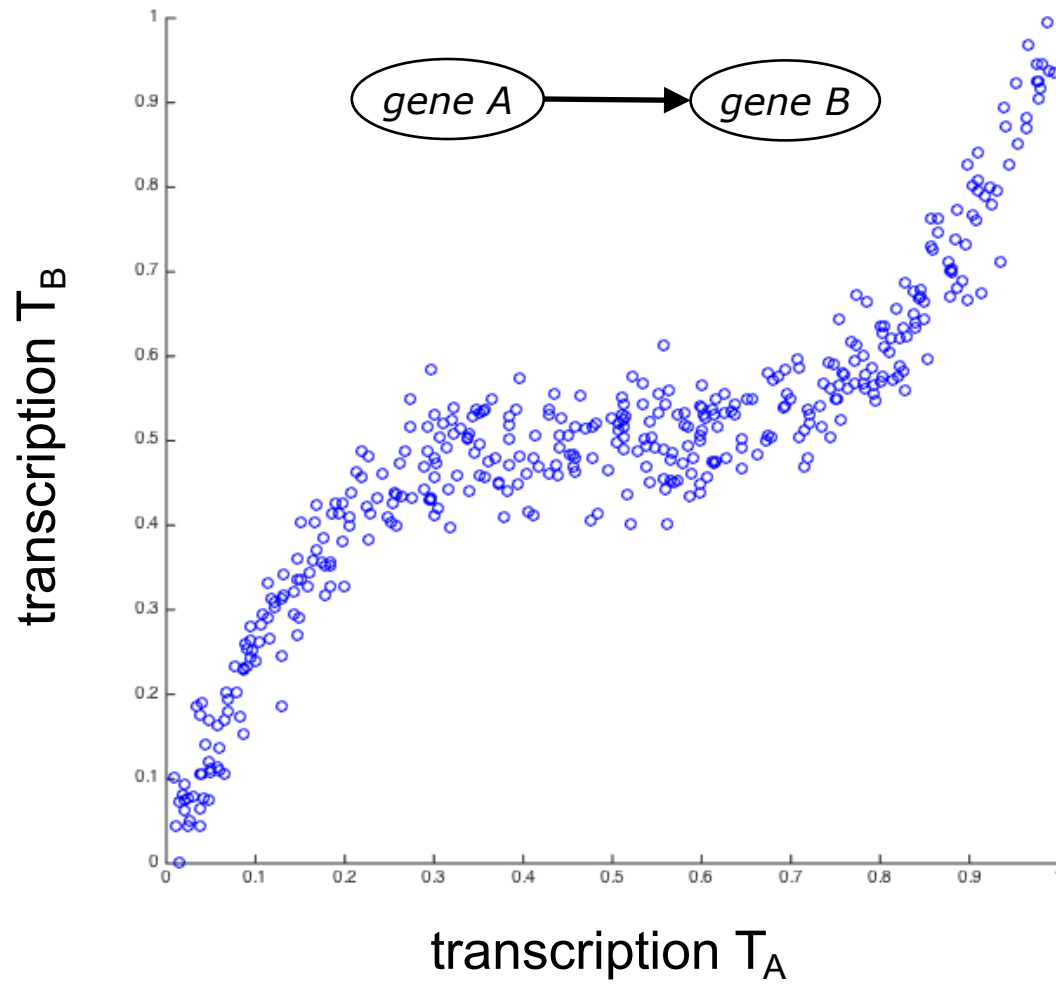


Example - Gene regulation

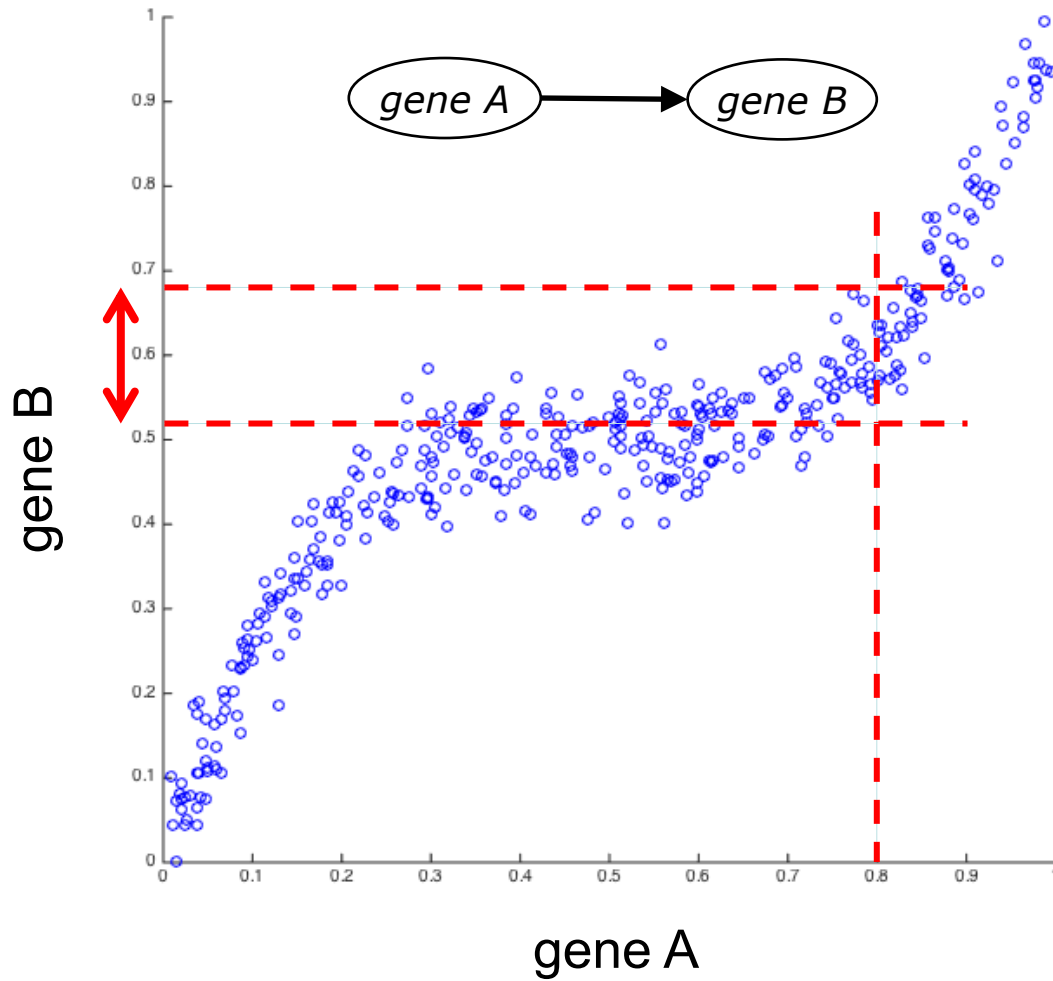


microarray to measure transcription levels

Observed gene expression levels

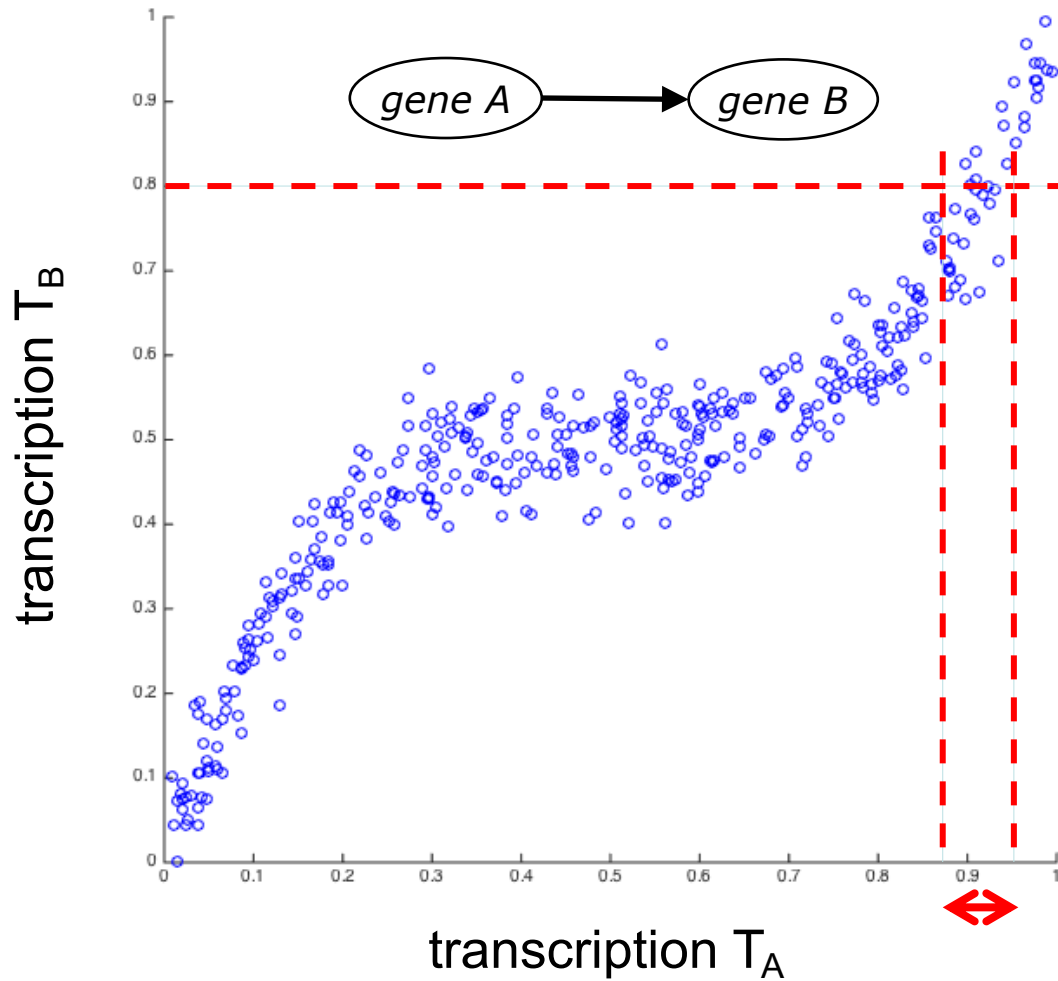


Predicting gene expression levels



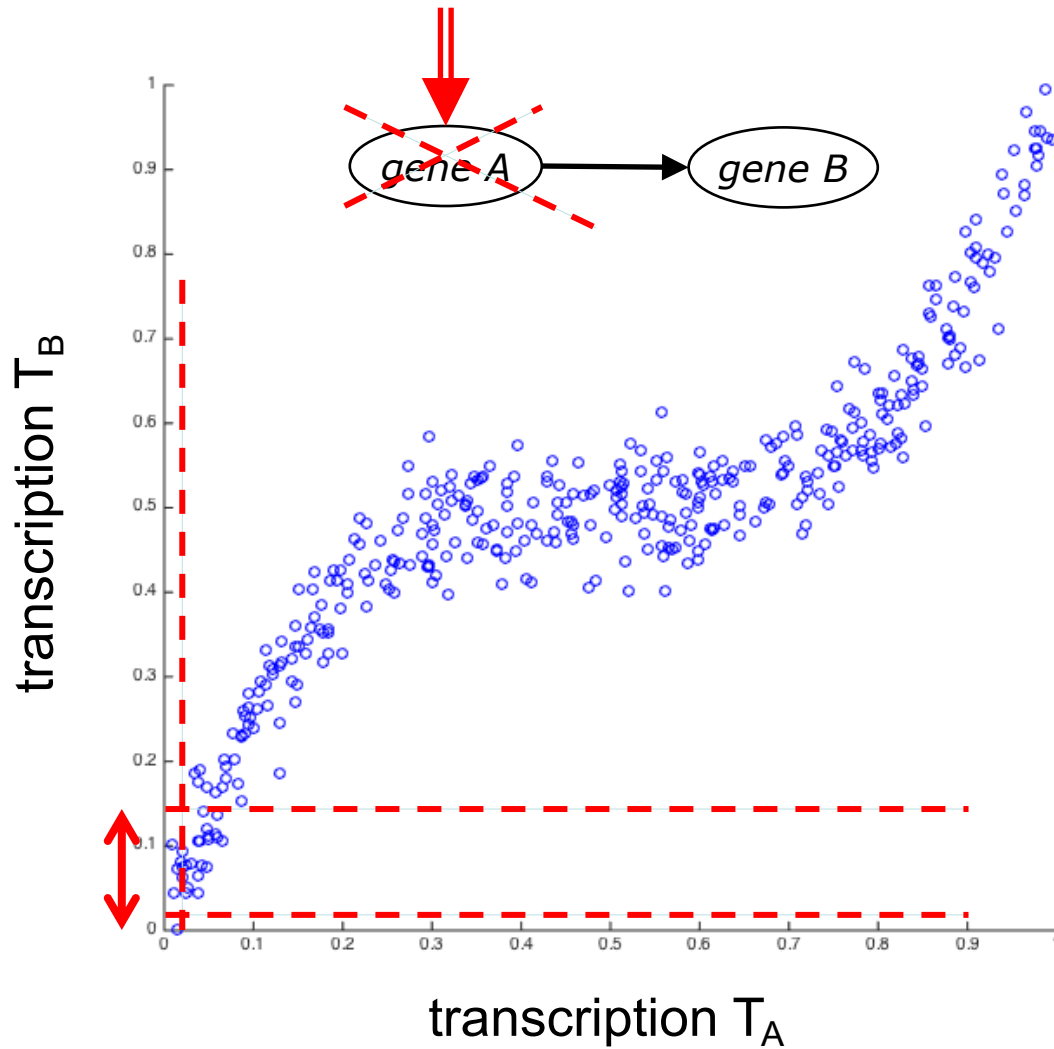
$$p(T_B | T_A = 0.8)$$

Predicting gene expression levels



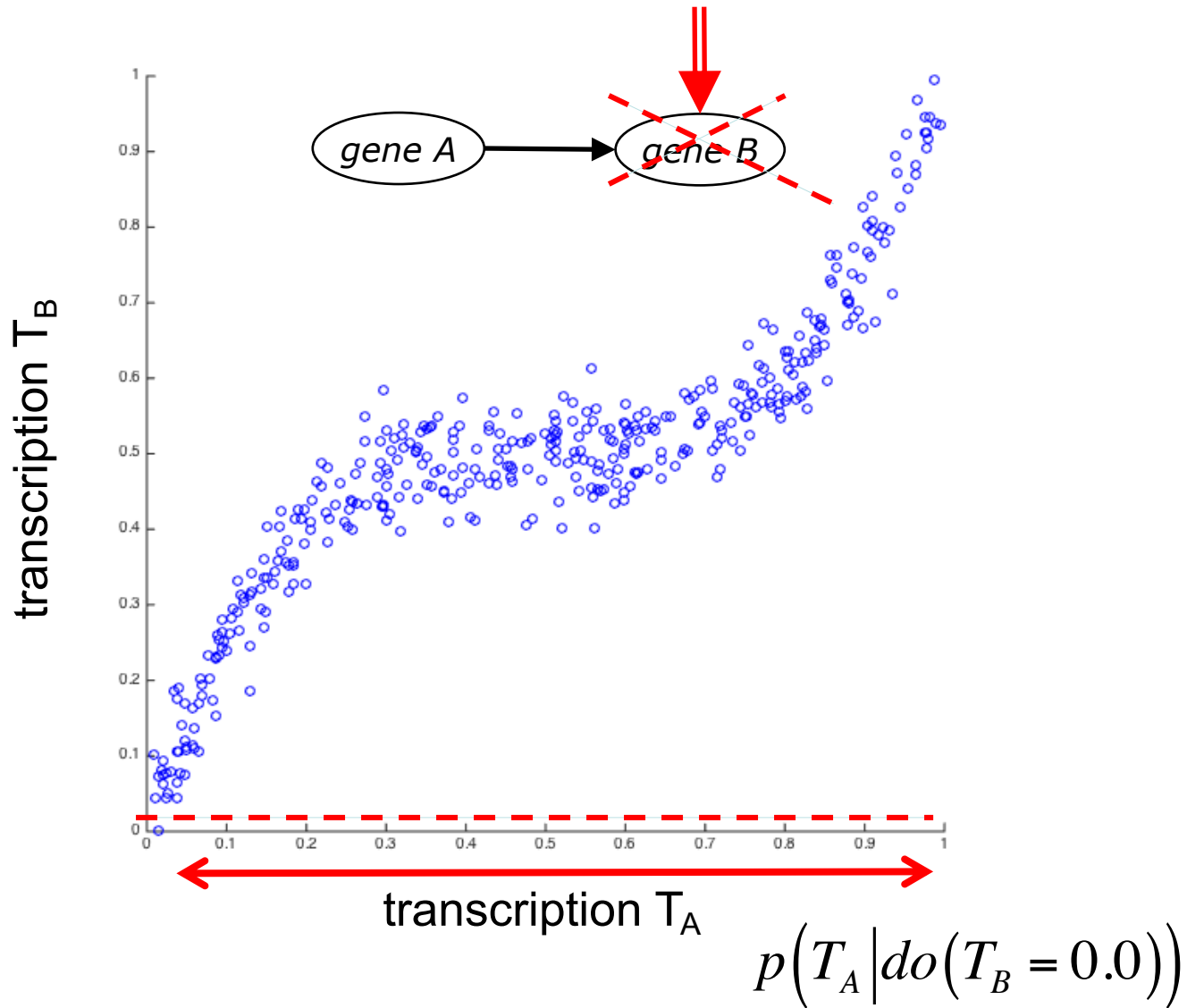
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Observation vs. intervention: gene knock-out experiments

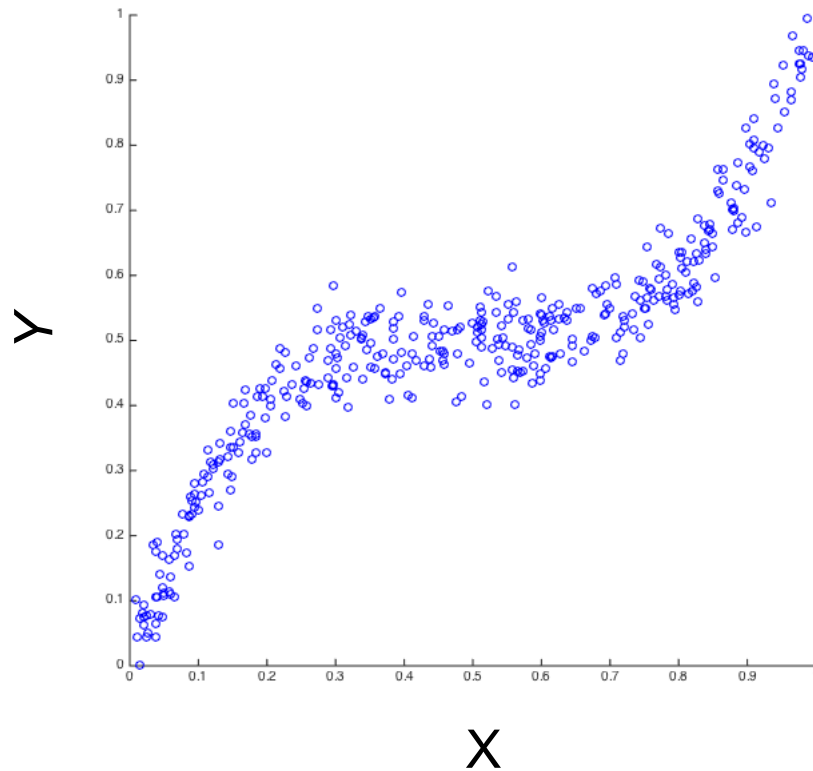


$$p(T_B | do(T_A = 0.0))$$

Observation vs. intervention: gene knock-out experiments

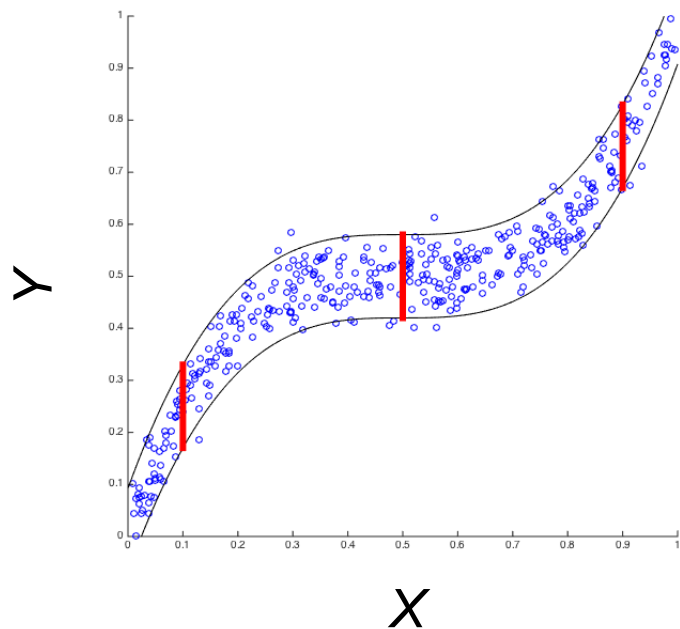


What if we do not know the model?

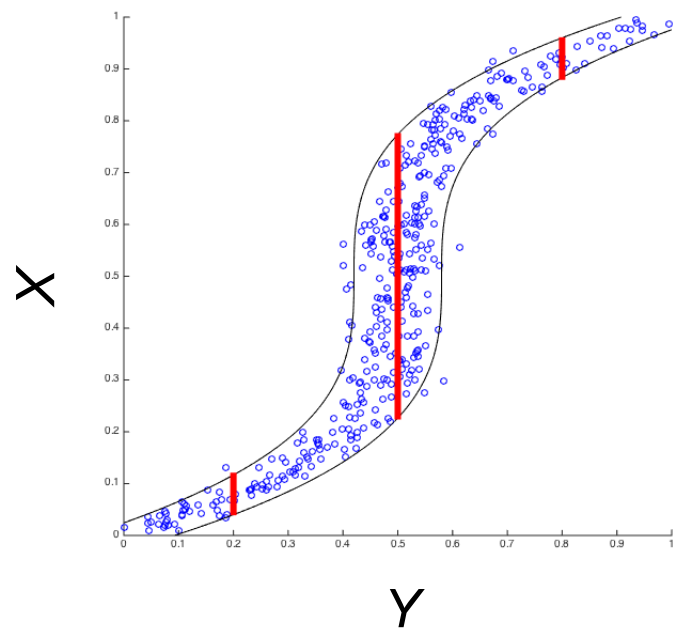
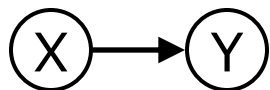


Q: Does X cause Y or does Y cause X? ... or "can't tell"?

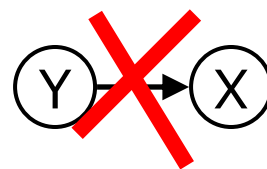
Causal direction from model simplicity



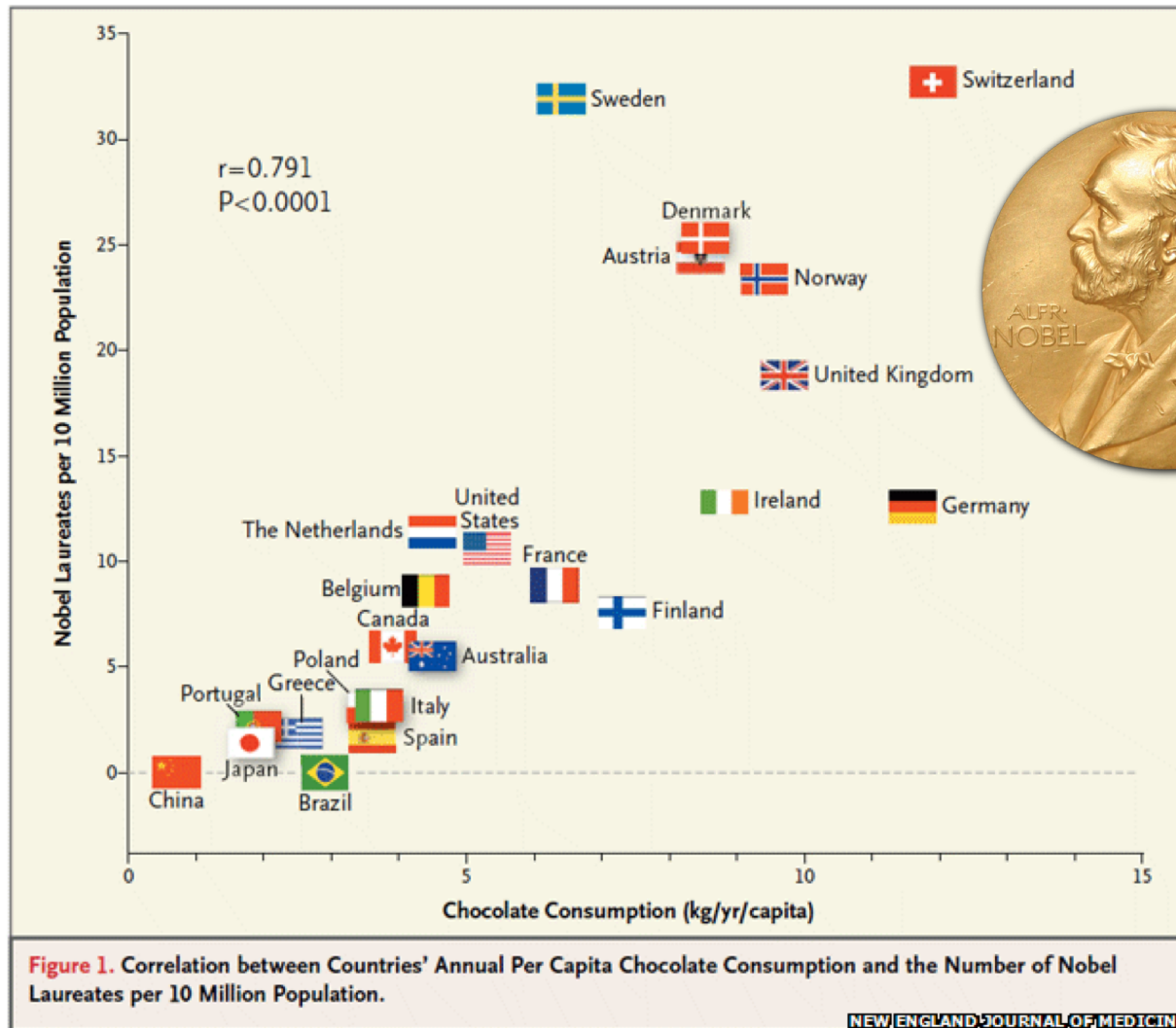
Easy to explain as
 $Y = f(X) + \text{noise}$



Difficult to explain as
 $X = f(Y) + \text{noise}$

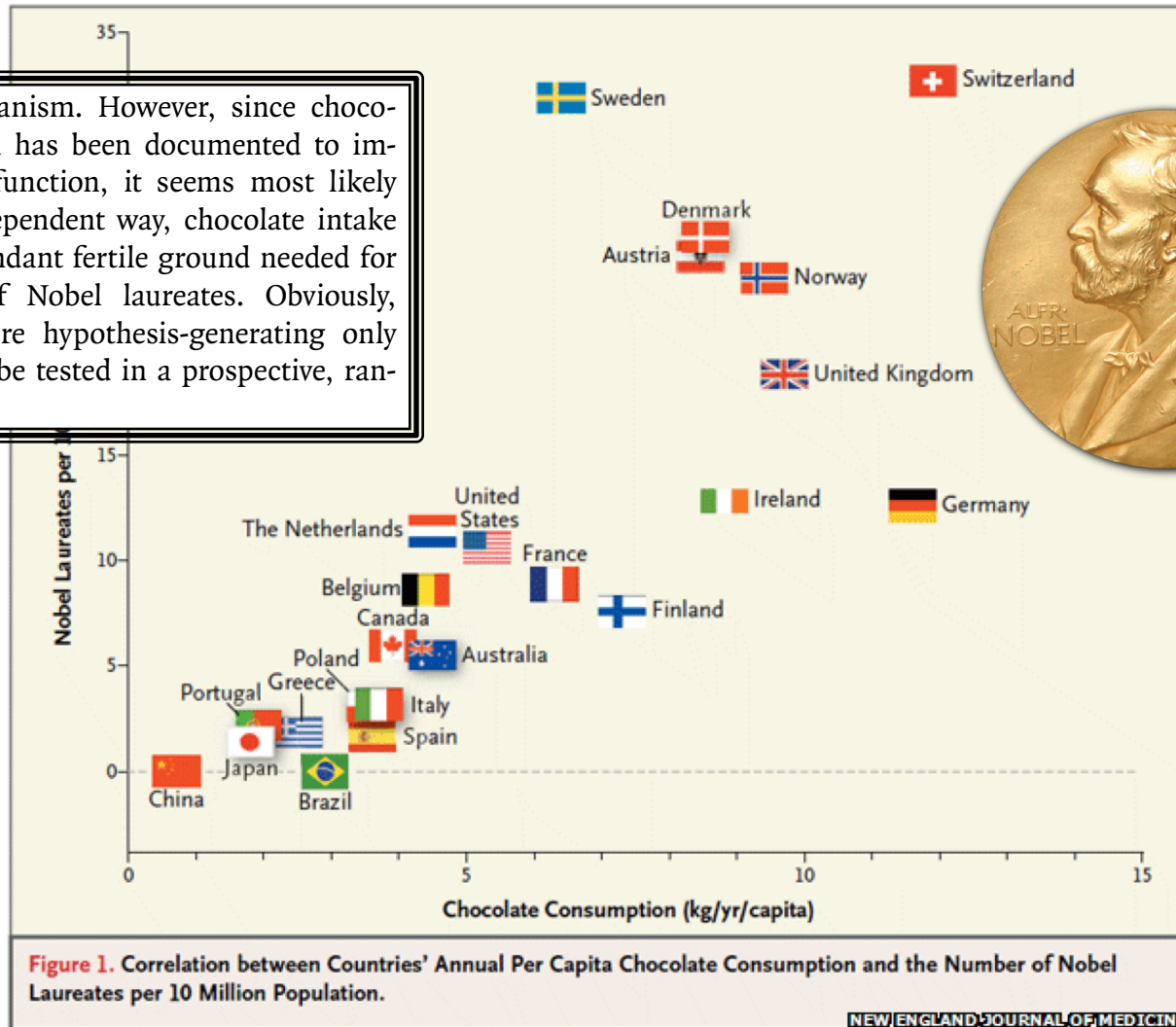


Chocolate consumption and Nobel prizes ...

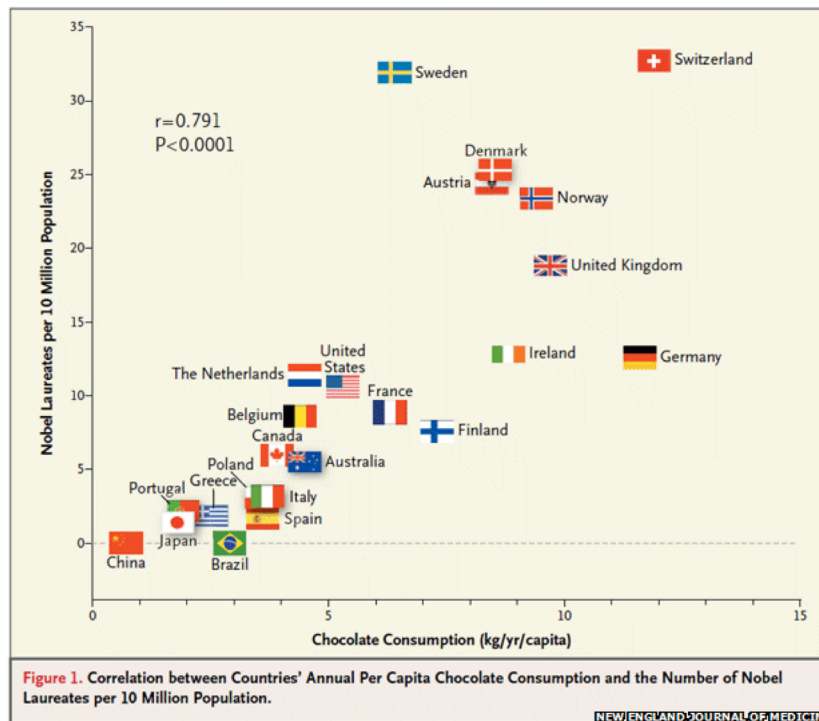


Chocolate consumption and Nobel prizes ...

underlying mechanism. However, since chocolate consumption has been documented to improve cognitive function, it seems most likely that in a dose-dependent way, chocolate intake provides the abundant fertile ground needed for the sprouting of Nobel laureates. Obviously, these findings are hypothesis-generating only and will have to be tested in a prospective, randomized trial.

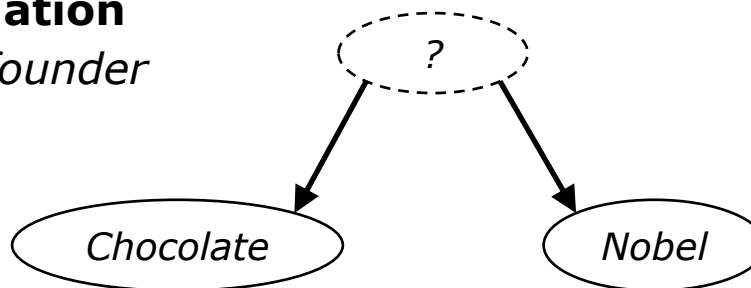


Chocolate consumption and Nobel prizes ...



Alternative explanation

- unobserved *confounder*



BRITISH MEDICAL JOURNAL

LONDON SATURDAY SEPTEMBER 30 1950

SMOKING AND CARCINOMA OF THE LUNG

PRELIMINARY REPORT

BY

RICHARD DOLL, M.D., M.R.C.P.

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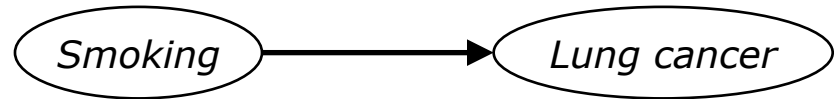
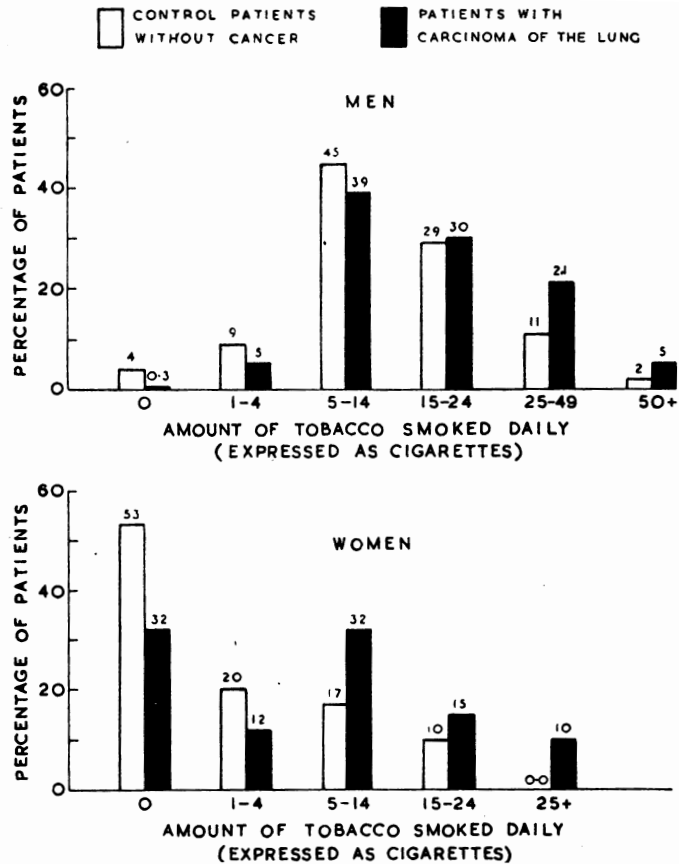


FIG. 1.—Percentage of patients smoking different amounts of tobacco daily.

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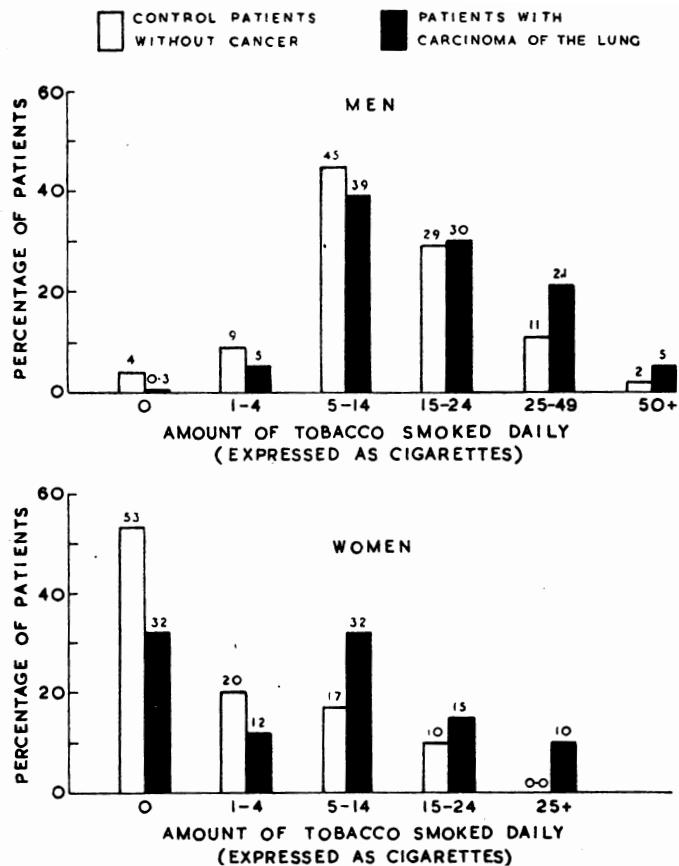
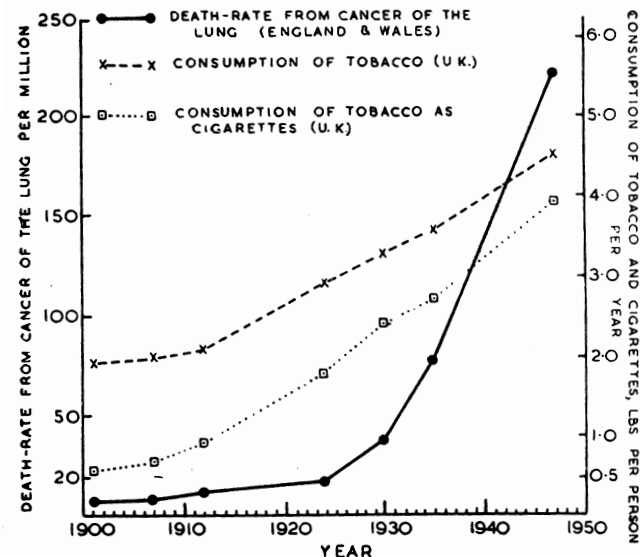
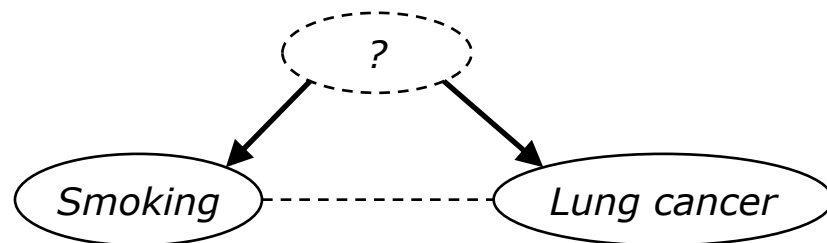


FIG. 1.—Percentage of patients smoking different amounts of tobacco daily.

Tobacco industry:

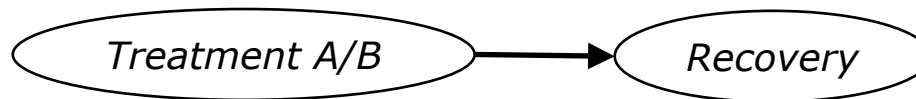


THE RATES ARE BASED ON 3 YEAR AVERAGES FOR ALL YEARS EXCEPT 1947.

FIG. 2.—Death rate from cancer of the lung and rate of consumption of tobacco and cigarettes.

Treatment of kidney stones

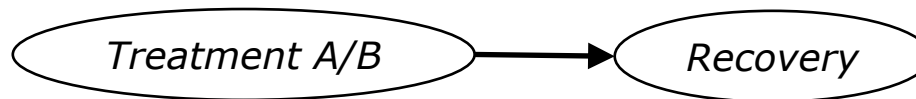
	Treatment A	Treatment B
Recoveries	273/350 (78%)	289/350 (83%)
Total	562/700 (80%)	



Question: What treatment would you prefer?

Treatment of kidney stones

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Small stones	81/87 (93%)	234/270 (87%)
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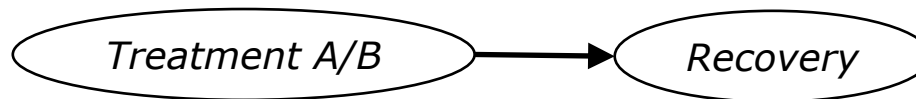


Question: What treatment would you prefer now?

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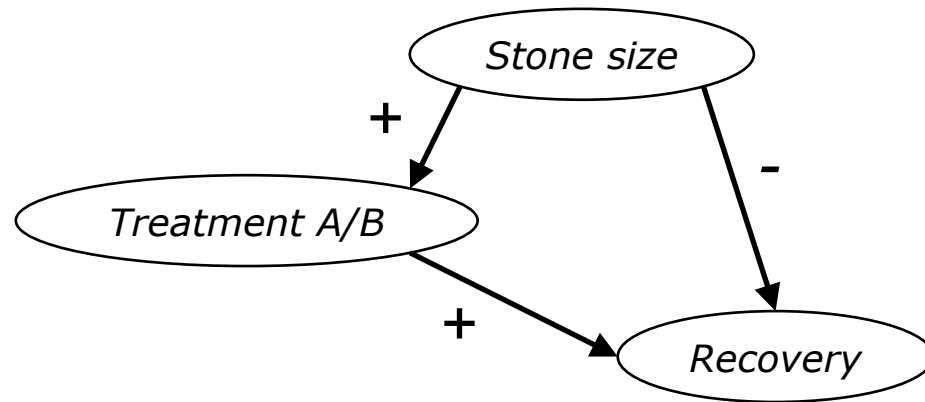
"Simpson's paradox"



Question: What treatment would you prefer now?

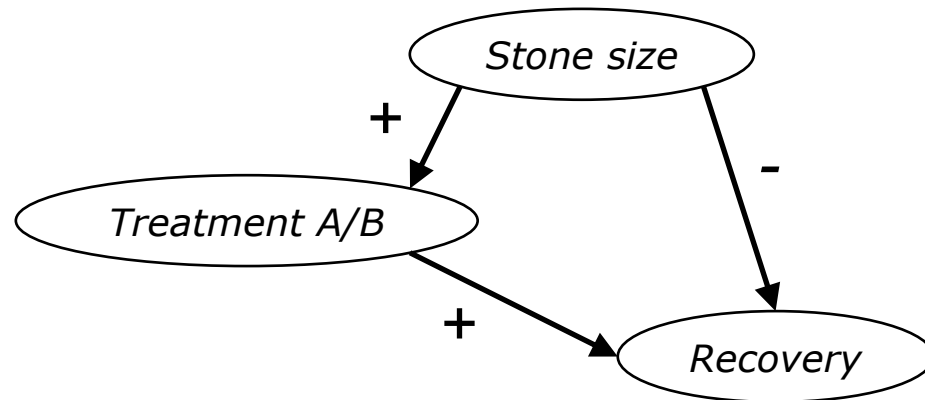
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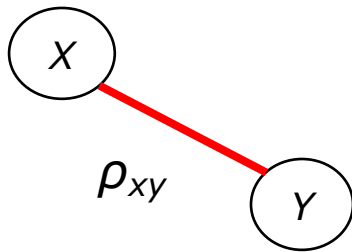
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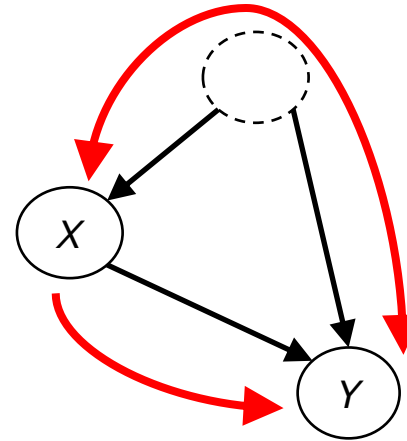
Question: How to compute the actual effect?

Computing causal effect sizes from observations

- split observed correlation in causal effect and confounding



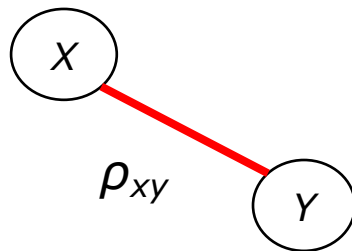
observed correlation



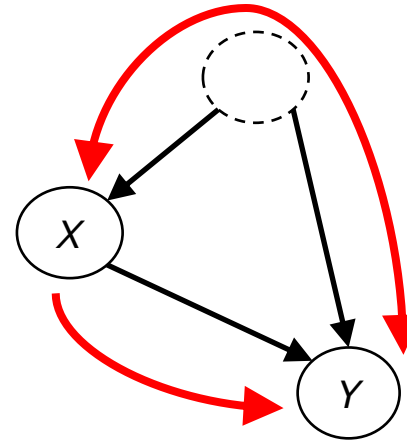
combination of (possible) causal effect and (possible) confounding

Computing causal effect sizes from observations

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observed correlation



combination of (possible) causal effect and (possible) confounding

How to compute the causal effect?

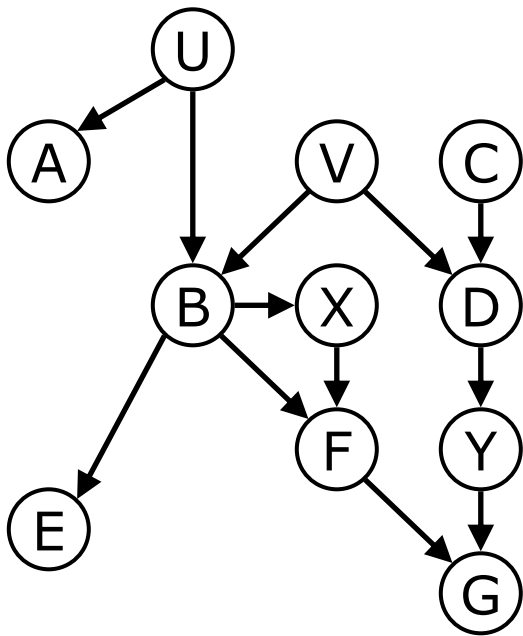
- gold standard: randomized controlled trial!
- otherwise
- *adjustment formula* to compensate for confounding (later this session)
 - more general: *do-calculus* [Pearl, Causality 2009]
 - not always possible!

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Key model assumption: causal DAG

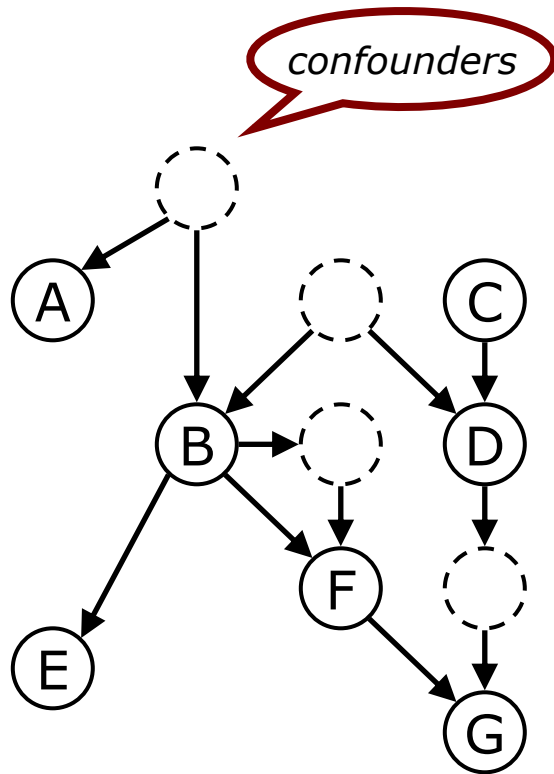
- real world consists of networks of causally interacting variables,
- structure corresponds to a *directed acyclic graph* (DAG)
- arcs represent *direct* causes between variables in the system



causal DAG G
(Directed Acyclic Graph)

Key model assumption: causal DAG

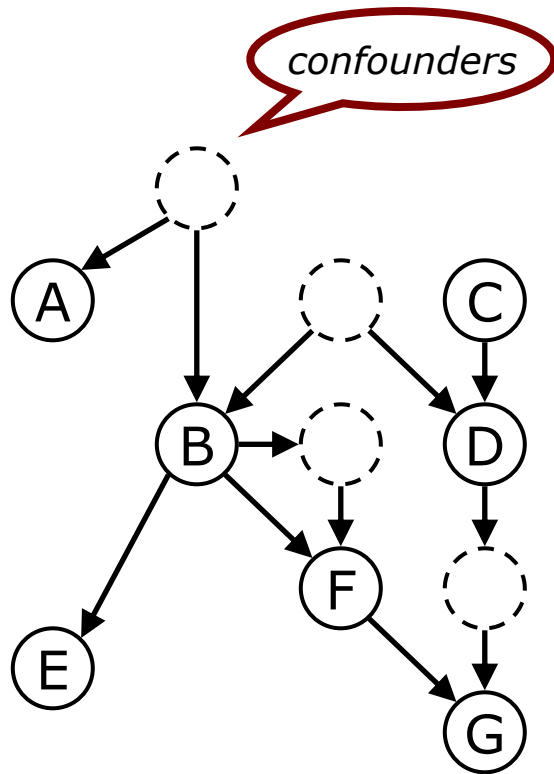
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- subset of these variables observed in experiments



underlying **causal DAG** G
(Directed Acyclic Graph)

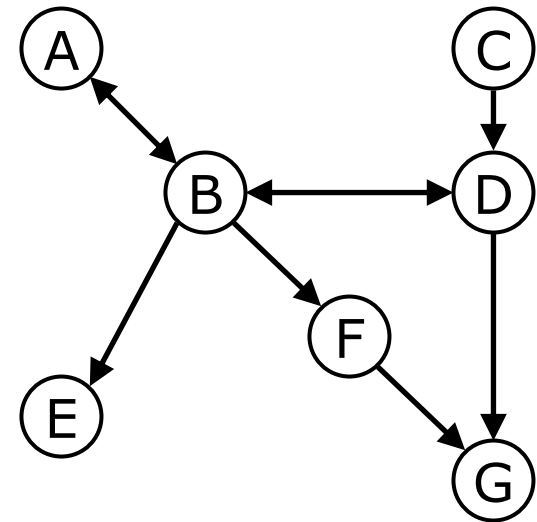
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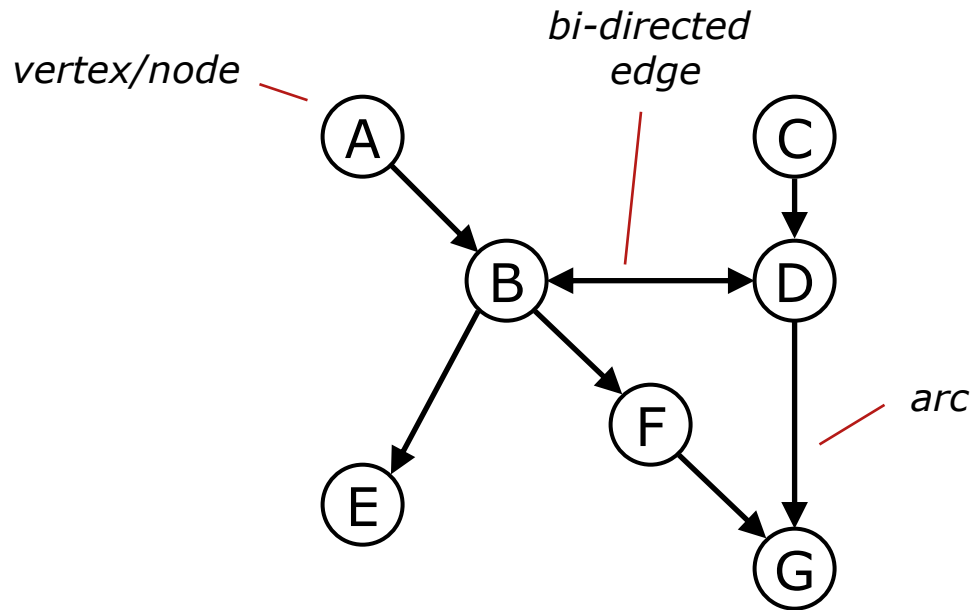
=



equivalent **ADMG** representation
(Acyclic Directed Mixed Graph)

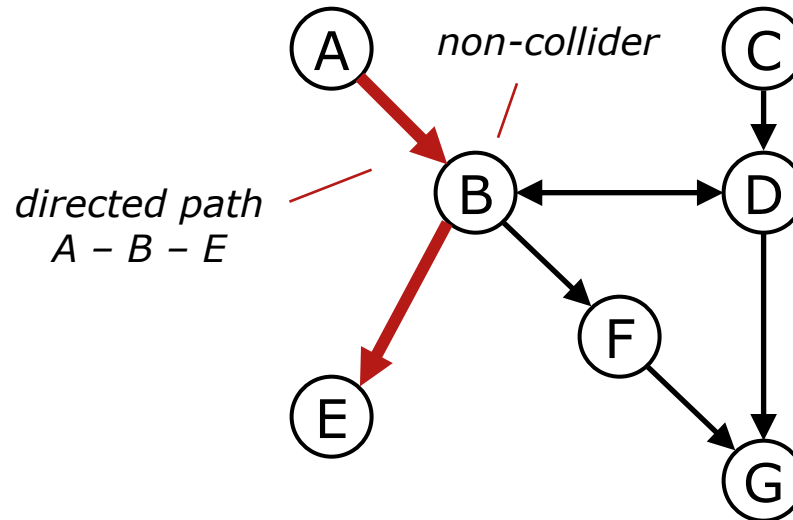
Basic graphical model terminology

- nodes and edges



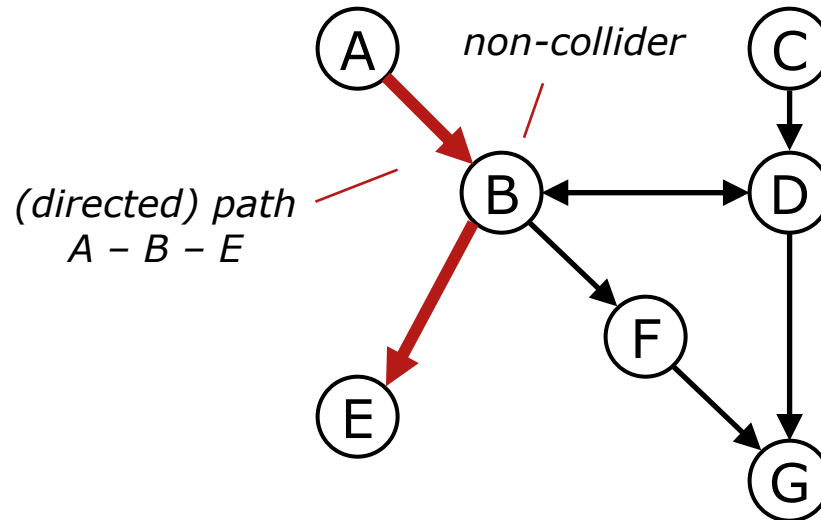
Paths

- **path** - sequence of (distinct) nodes $\pi = \langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k \rangle$ where each successive pair of nodes along the path is **adjacent** (connected by an edge) in graph G



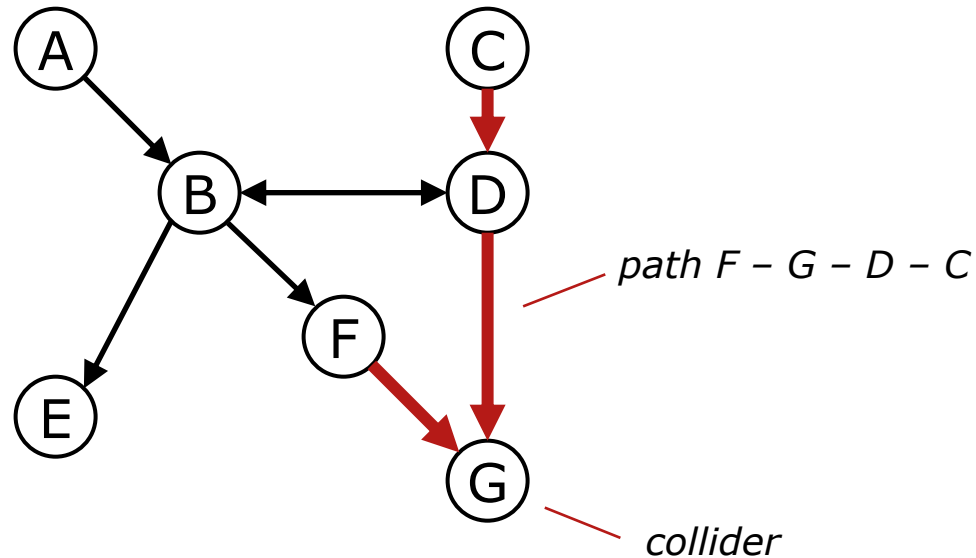
Collider and non-collider triples

- **collider** - triple of successive nodes $\langle X, Y, Z \rangle$ along a path, where the edges from X and Z have an arrowhead ('collide') at Y , e.g. $\mathbf{X} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{Y} \leftarrow \mathbf{Z}$
- **non-collider** - any such triple that is not a collider, e.g. $\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$, $\mathbf{X} \leftarrow \mathbf{Y} \leftarrow \mathbf{Z}$, or $\mathbf{X} \leftarrow \mathbf{Y} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$



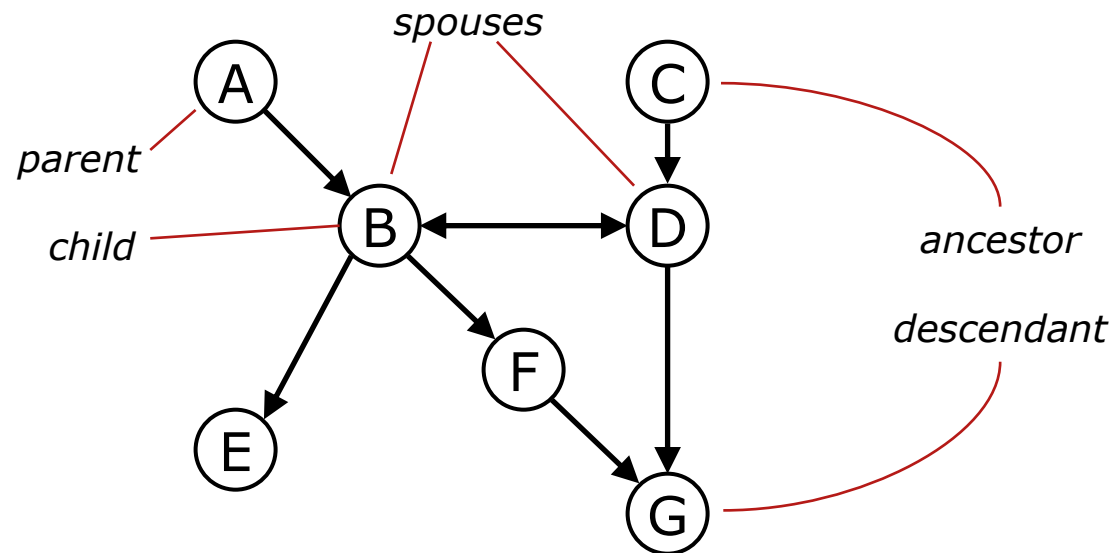
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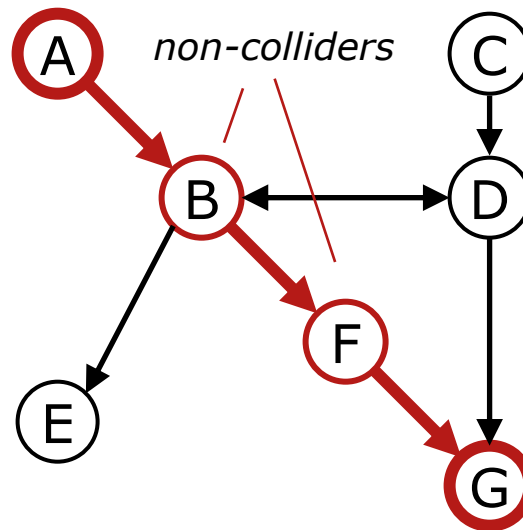
Ancestral relations

- if $\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}$ is in graph G , then X is a **parent** of Y , and Y is a **child** of X
- if $\mathbf{X} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{Y}$ is in graph G , then X is a **spouse** of Y (and v.v.)
- if there is a *directed path* $\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \mathbf{Y}$ in G , then X is **ancestor** of Y , and Y is a **descendant** of X



Blocked and unblocked paths

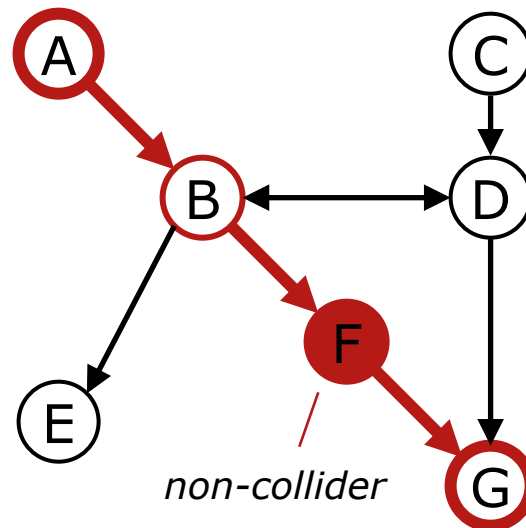
- a path $\pi = \langle X, \dots, Y \rangle$ is **unblocked** given set of nodes \mathbf{Z} iff:
 - all non-colliders along π are *not* in \mathbf{Z}
 - all colliders along π are in \mathbf{Z} or are ancestor of some $Z \in \mathbf{Z}$otherwise the path is **blocked**



Path $\langle A, B, F, G \rangle$ is unblocked given the empty set ...

Blocked and unblocked paths

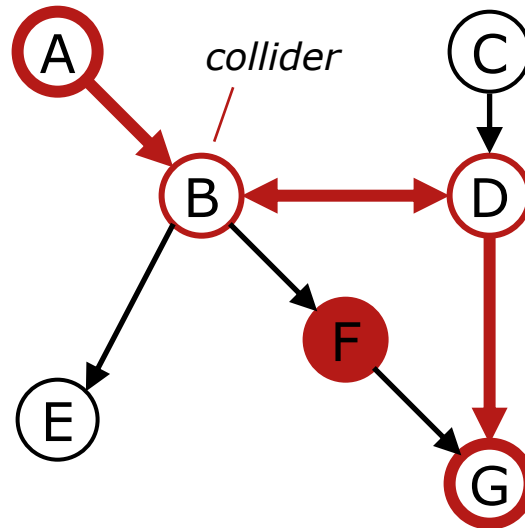
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 - all non-colliders along π are *not* in Z
 - all colliders along π are in Z or are ancestor of some $Z \in Z$otherwise the path is **blocked**



... path $\langle A, B, F, G \rangle$ is **blocked** given F ...

Blocked and unblocked paths

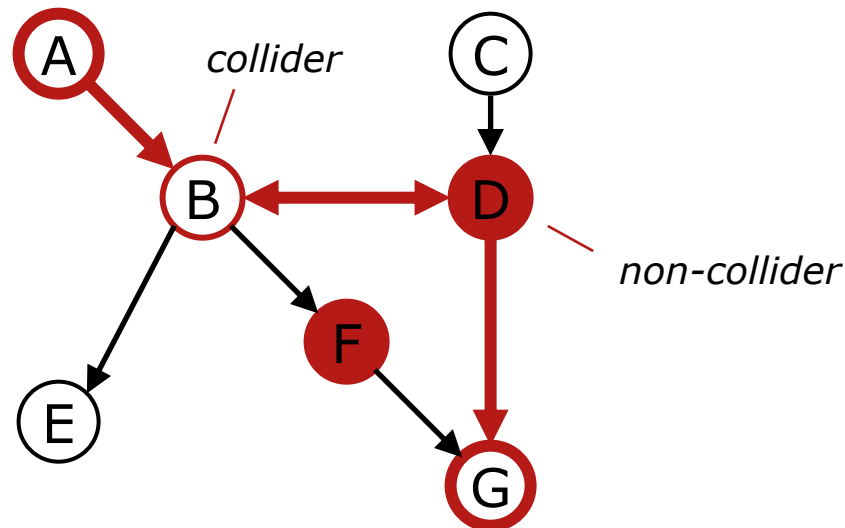
- a path $\pi = \langle X, \dots, Y \rangle$ is **unblocked** given set of nodes \mathbf{Z} iff:
 - all non-colliders along π are *not* in \mathbf{Z}
 - all colliders along π are in \mathbf{Z} or are ancestor of some $Z \in \mathbf{Z}$otherwise the path is **blocked**



... but path $\langle A, B, D, G \rangle$ becomes **unblocked** given F ...

Blocked and unblocked paths

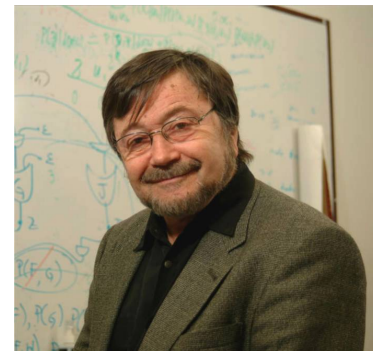
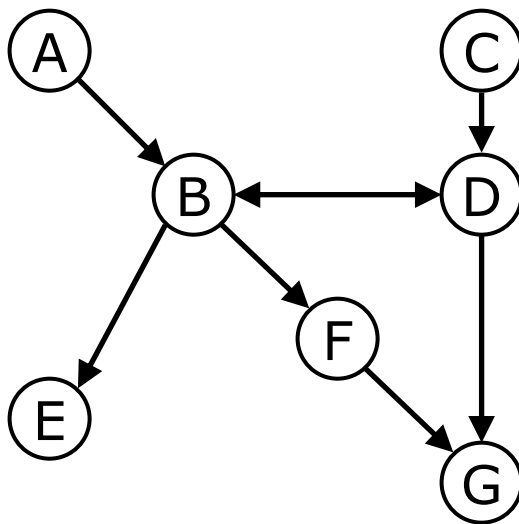
- a path $\pi = \langle X, \dots, Y \rangle$ is **unblocked** given set of nodes \mathbf{Z} iff:
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... and path $\langle A, B, D, G \rangle$ is again **blocked** given $\{D, F\}$.

d -separation

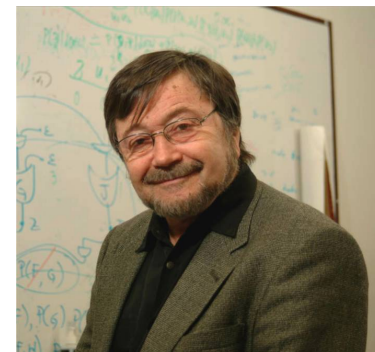
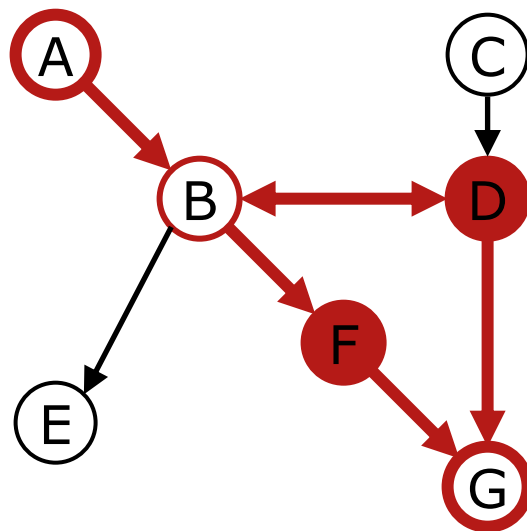
- in a graph G , nodes X and Y are d -separated given Z , iff there are **no unblocked paths** in G between X and Y given Z , otherwise they are d -connected



Judea Pearl
(Winner Turing Award 2012)

d-separation

- in a graph G , nodes X and Y are *d-separated* given Z , iff there are **no unblocked paths** in G between X and Y given Z , otherwise they are *d-connected*

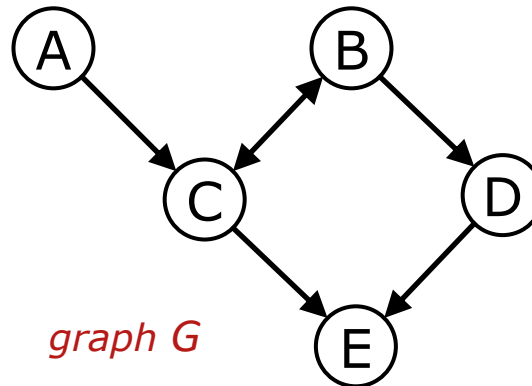


Judea Pearl
(Winner Turing Award 2012)

*Nodes A and G are d-separated given $\{D, F\}$,
but d-connected given $\{\}$, D, or F.*

Exercise 1a – Paths and colliders

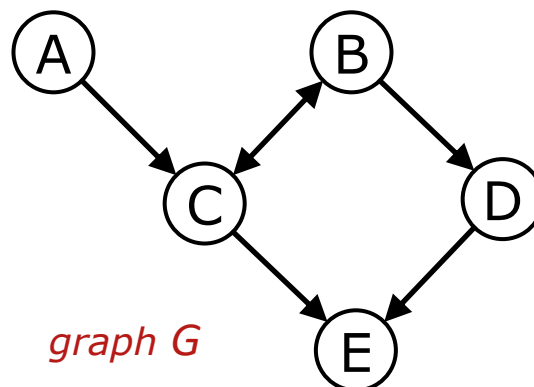
- **collider** - triple of successive nodes $\langle X, Y, Z \rangle$ along a path, where the edges from X and Z have an arrowhead ('collide') at Y , e.g. $\mathbf{X} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{Y} \leftarrow \mathbf{Z}$



1. Is $\langle A, C, B, A \rangle$ a path?
2. Is $\langle A, C, E, D, B \rangle$ a (directed) path?
3. Is A an ancestor of D ?
4. What are descendants of B ?
5. Which nodes on the path $\langle B, D, E, C, A \rangle$ are non-colliders?
6. A **v-structure** is a collider between non-adjacent nodes. How many v-structures are in the graph G ?

Exercise 1a – Paths and colliders

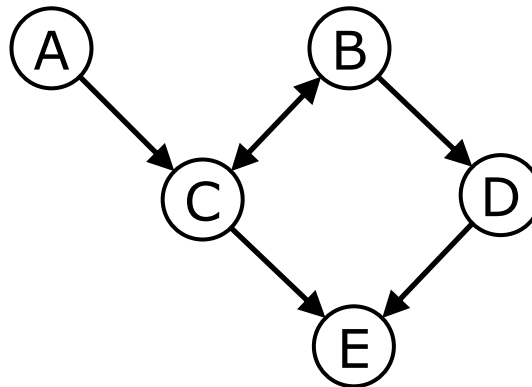
- **collider** - triple of successive nodes $\langle X, Y, Z \rangle$ along a path, where the edges from X and Z have an arrowhead ('collide') at Y , e.g. $\mathbf{X} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{Y} \leftarrow \mathbf{Z}$



1. Is $\langle A, C, B, A \rangle$ a path? *No: A and B are not adjacent and A occurs twice.*
2. Is $\langle A, C, E, D, B \rangle$ a (directed) path? *It is a path, but not a directed path.*
3. Is A an ancestor of D? *No: there is no directed path from A to D.*
4. What are descendants of B? *Nodes $\{B, C, D\}$ (B is also its own descendant!)*
5. Which nodes on the path $\langle B, D, E, C, A \rangle$ are non-colliders? *Nodes C and D.*
6. A **v-structure** is a collider between non-adjacent nodes. How many v-structures are in the graph G? *Two: $A \rightarrow C \leftrightarrow B$, and $C \rightarrow E \leftarrow D$.*

Exercise 1b – Blocked and unblocked paths

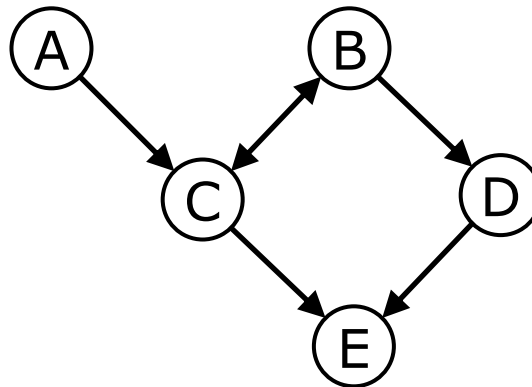
- a path $\pi = \langle X, \dots, Y \rangle$ is **unblocked** given set of nodes \mathbf{Z} iff:
 - all non-colliders along π are *not* in \mathbf{Z}
 - all colliders along π are in \mathbf{Z} or are ancestor of some $Z \in \mathbf{Z}$otherwise the path is **blocked**



1. Is $C \leftrightarrow B \rightarrow D$ blocked by (` given) B?
2. Is $A \rightarrow C \leftrightarrow B$ blocked given E?
3. Is $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow E \leftarrow D$ blocked? (given empty set $\mathbf{Z} = \{\}$)
4. Is path $\langle A, C, B, D \rangle$ blocked by $\{C, E\}$?
5. Which set(s) of nodes (if any) unblock a path from A to B?
6. Claim: 'A path between two nodes can be blocked, iff they are non-adjacent'. True or false?

Exercise 1b – Blocked and unblocked paths

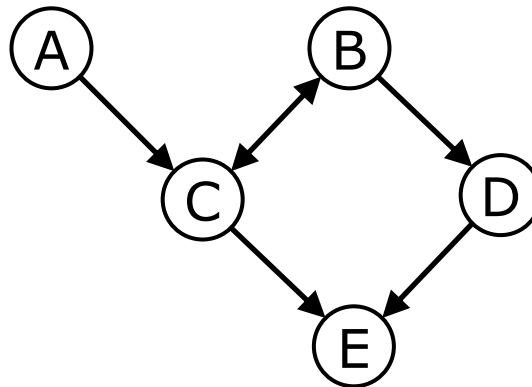
- a path $\pi = \langle X, \dots, Y \rangle$ is **unblocked** given set of nodes \mathbf{Z} iff:
 - all non-colliders along π are *not* in \mathbf{Z}
 - all colliders along π are in \mathbf{Z} or are ancestor of some $Z \in \mathbf{Z}$otherwise the path is **blocked**



1. Is $C \leftrightarrow B \rightarrow D$ blocked by (\emptyset given) B? **Yes.**
2. Is $A \rightarrow C \leftrightarrow B$ blocked given E? **No.**
3. Is $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow E \leftarrow D$ blocked? (given empty set $\mathbf{Z} = \{\}$) **Yes.**
4. Is path $\langle A, C, B, D \rangle$ blocked by $\{C, E\}$? **No.**
5. Which set(s) of nodes (if any) unblock a path from A to B? **Any subset of $\{C, D, E\}$ containing at least one node from $\{C, E\}$.**
6. Claim: 'A path between two nodes can be blocked, iff they are non-adjacent'. True or false? **False: reverse counter example $\langle B, D, E, C \rangle$.**

Exercise 1c – d -separation

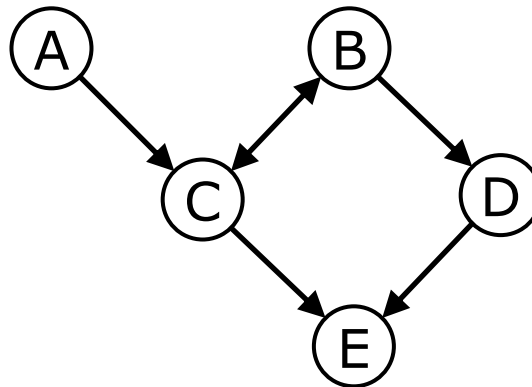
- in a graph G , nodes X and Y are d -separated given Z , iff there are **no unblocked paths** in G between X and Y given Z , otherwise they are d -connected



- Are A and B d -separated? (given empty set $\{\}$)
- Are C and D d -separated by B?
- Are A and E d -separated by C?
- Are A and D d -separated by $\{B, E\}$?
- Which set(s) of nodes (if any) would d -separate B and E?
- True or false: 'Two nodes can be d -separated, iff they are non-adjacent'?

Exercise 1c – d -separation

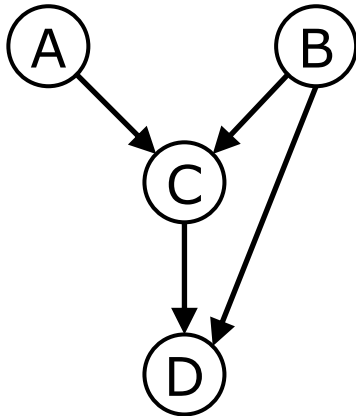
- in a graph G , nodes X and Y are d -separated given Z , iff there are **no unblocked paths** in G between X and Y given Z , otherwise they are d -connected



- Are A and B d -separated? (given empty set $\{\}$) *Yes.*
- Are C and D d -separated by B? *Yes.*
- Are A and E d -separated by C? *No: path $\langle A, C, B, D, E \rangle$ is unblocked by C.*
- Are A and D d -separated by $\{B, E\}$? *No: $\langle A, C, E, D \rangle$ remains unblocked.*
- Which set(s) of nodes (if any) would d -separate B and E? *$\{C, D\}, \{A, C, D\}$*
- True or false: 'Two nodes can be d -separated, iff they are non-adjacent'?
True for DAGs, but not for ADMGs in general!

Linking graphs to data

- graphical models offer an intuitive means to model causal interactions
 - so far we only considered the causal structure ...
 - ... now we need to link the graphs to data
- ⇒ enter the **Causal Bayesian Network!**

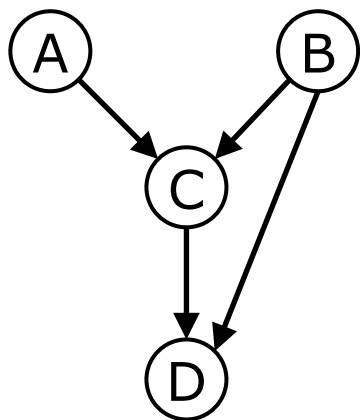


causal DAG G

Bayesian network

A **Bayesian Network** (BN) is a pair (\mathbf{G}, p) , where

- \mathbf{G} is a **directed acyclic graph** over variables $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_K\}$
- p is a **joint probability distribution** over \mathbf{X} that factorizes according to \mathbf{G}



causal DAG \mathbf{G}

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{k=1}^K p(X_k | pa(X_k))$$

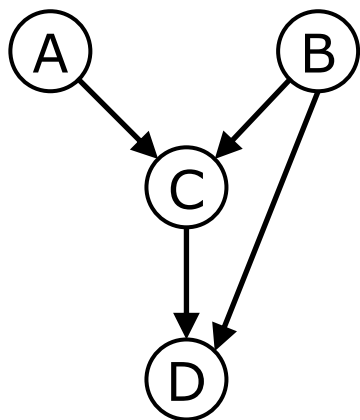
parents of X_k in \mathbf{G}

factorized joint probability distribution

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causal DAG \mathbf{G}

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{k=1}^K p(X_k | pa(X_k))$$

$$p(A, B, C, D) = p(A) p(B) p(C|A, B) p(D|B, C)$$

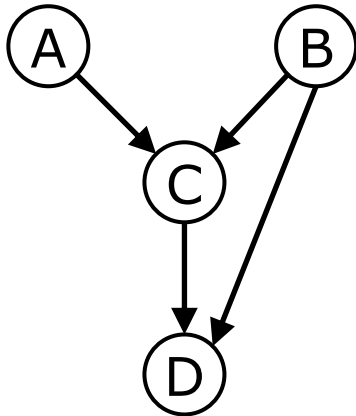
factorized joint probability distribution

Causal Bayesian network

A Bayesian Network (G, p) is **causal** if

- all and only the directed edges in G correspond to **direct causal relations**,
- it satisfies the **Causal Markov condition**:

“In a causal DAG G , every node is probabilistically independent of its **non-descendants** given its **parents** (direct causes) in G .”



causal DAG G

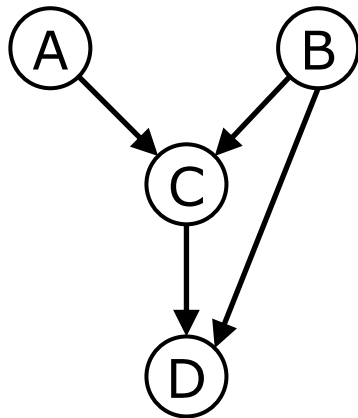
$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp nd(X_i) \mid pa(X_i)$$

Causal Bayesian network

A Bayesian Network (G, p) is **causal** if

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causal DAG G

$$A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid -$$

$$B \perp\!\!\!\perp A \mid -$$

$$D \perp\!\!\!\perp A \mid B, C$$

As a result

- d -separation \Rightarrow probabilistic independence

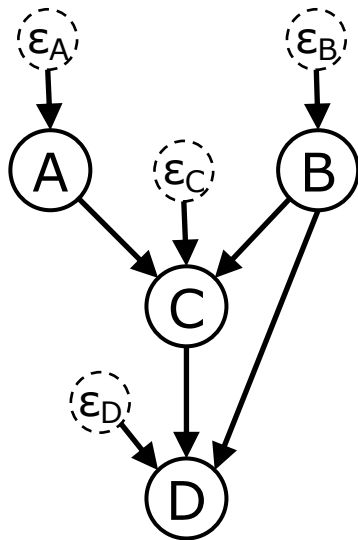
Structural Causal Model

- each child-parent family in the causal DAG G corresponds to a deterministic function

$$X_i = f_i(pa(X_i), \varepsilon_i)$$

with ε_i representing all exogenous influences (noise) on X_i

- collection is a **Structural Causal/Equation Model** (SCM/SEM)



causal DAG G

$$A = f_A(\varepsilon_A)$$

$$B = f_B(\varepsilon_B)$$

$$C = f_C(A, B, \varepsilon_C)$$

$$D = f_D(B, C, \varepsilon_D)$$

corresponding Structural Causal Model

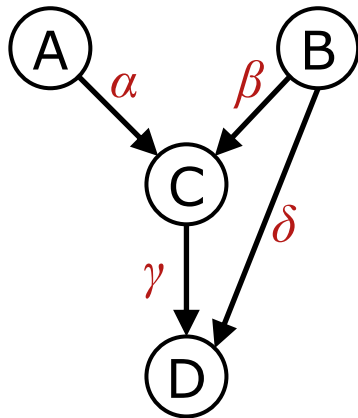
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causal DAG G

$$A = \varepsilon_A \quad \varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_i)$$

$$B = \varepsilon_B$$

$$C = \alpha A + \beta B + \varepsilon_C$$

$$D = \gamma B + \delta D + \varepsilon_D$$

Example: multivariate Gaussian model

Outline

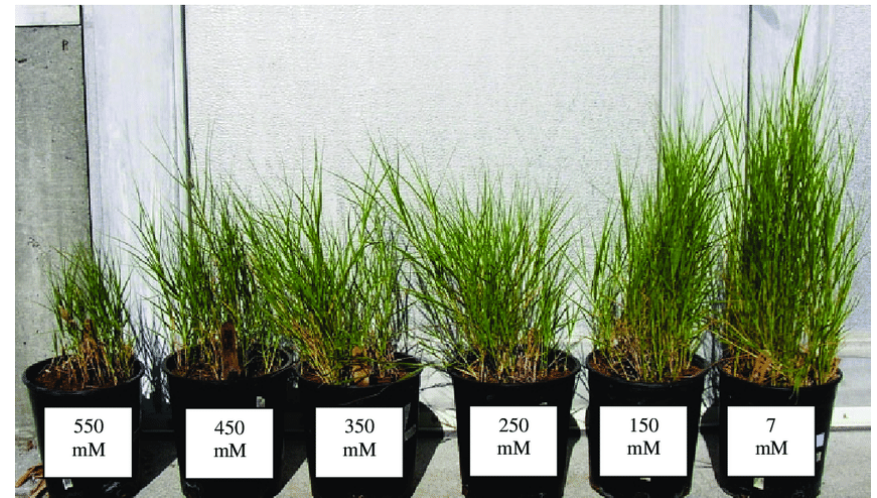
- 1 Introduction to causality
- 2 Prediction vs. causation
- 3 Causal graphs and how to read them
- 4 **Cause-effect estimation**
- 5 The missing link & conclusion

Interventions

- intervening = actively changing the world



not this one ...



but this one

Interventions

- intervening = actively changing the world

Examples

- prescribing a treatment (or placebo) in an RCT
- gene knock-out experiment
- deciding to quit smoking
- governments changing laws / taxation levels,
- lowering home room temperatures
- adding a catalyst to a chemical reaction, etc.

Interventions

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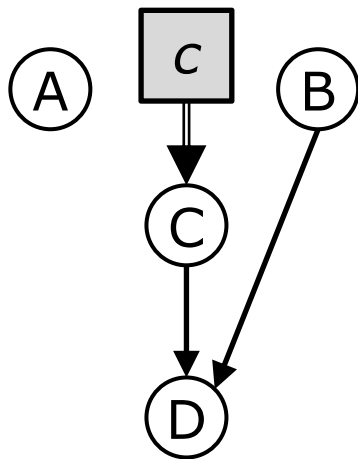
Common types of interventions

- **hard/soft** - (directly forcing a variable to a specific value vs. indirectly stimulating a variable to e.g. higher/lower values)
- **surgical/fat-hand** - (very precisely affecting only the target intervention variable vs. having possible unintended side-effects)
- **perfect interventions** = hard+surgical (Pearl's *do*-operator, see next)
- **mechanism interventions** (acting on the functional form of the relations)

Intervention in a Structural Causal Model

Perfect intervention in SCM

- externally force a node to a specific value: $\text{do}(X_i = x_i)$
- **replace** structural equation $f_i(\dots)$ with constant x_i
- corresponds to **removing** all incoming arcs to X_i in causal DAG G



*causal DAG G with
intervention on C*

$$A = f_A(\varepsilon_A)$$

$$B = f_B(\varepsilon_B)$$

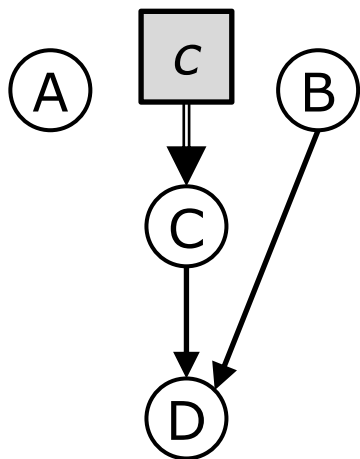
$$C = c$$

$$D = f_D(B, C, \varepsilon_D)$$

intervention $\text{do}(C = c)$

Computing what happens after an intervention

We can understand / predict the effect of an intervention if we can rewrite the (unknown) **interventional distribution** in terms of the known **observed distribution**.



*causal DAG G with
intervention on C*

$$p(A, B, C, D) = p(A)p(B)p(C|A, B)p(D|B, C)$$

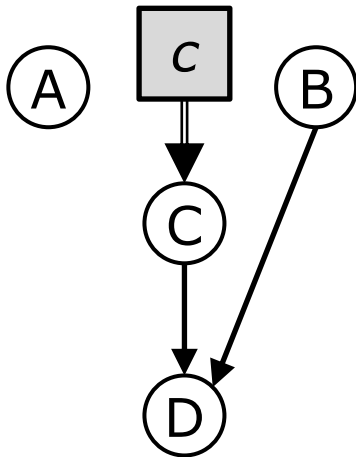
original observed joint probability distribution

$$p(A, B, C, D | do(C = c)) = \dots?$$

interventional distribution under $do(C = c)$

Computing the causal effect: adjustment

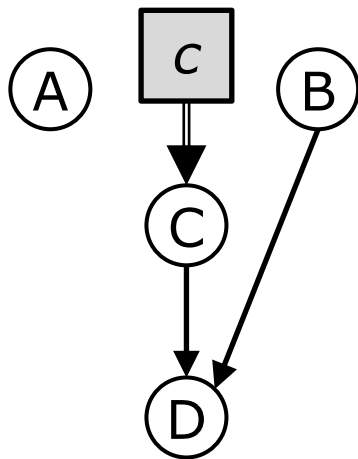
- The **difference** between the expectation under pre- and post-interventional distribution then corresponds to the *causal effect*
- Difficult to compute in general : Pearl's **do-calculus**



*causal DAG G with
intervention on C*

Computing the causal effect: adjustment

- The **difference** between the expectation under pre- and post-interventional distribution then corresponds to the **causal effect**
- Difficult to compute in general : Pearl's **do-calculus**
- Fortunately, for a large class of problems there exists a relatively straightforward procedure: '**adjusting** for the parents'



*causal DAG G with
intervention on C*

$$\begin{aligned} p(Y = y | do(X = x)) \\ = \sum_{Pa(X)} p(y | x, Pa(X)) p(Pa(X)) \end{aligned}$$

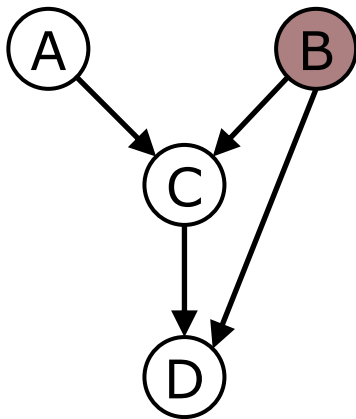
adjustment formula for intervention on X

Back-door criterion

- we can generalize adjustment to 'admissible' sets (instead of just parents)

Theorem: A set of nodes \mathbf{S} is *admissible for adjustment* to find the causal effect of X on Y , if:

- $X, Y \notin \mathbf{S}$
- no element of \mathbf{S} is a *descendant* of X
- \mathbf{S} blocks all *back-door paths* $X \leftarrow \dots Y$ (all paths between X and Y that start with an incoming arc on X)



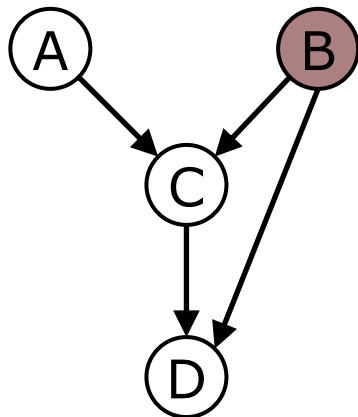
B is admissible for computing the causal effect of C (or A) on D

Back-door criterion

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$$p(Y = y | do(X = x)) = \sum_{\mathbf{s}} p(y | x, \mathbf{S} = \mathbf{s}) p(\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{s})$$
$$\left(= \int p(y | x, \mathbf{s}) p(\mathbf{s}) d\mathbf{s} \right)$$

B is admissible for computing the causal effect of C (or A) on D

general adjustment formula

Average Causal Effect (ACE)

- if we can predict what happens on an intervention we can consider quantifying the causal impact of one variable on another
- the **Average Causal Effect** (ACE) quantifies the causal effect of X on Y as the **difference in expectation of Y** under different interventions on X

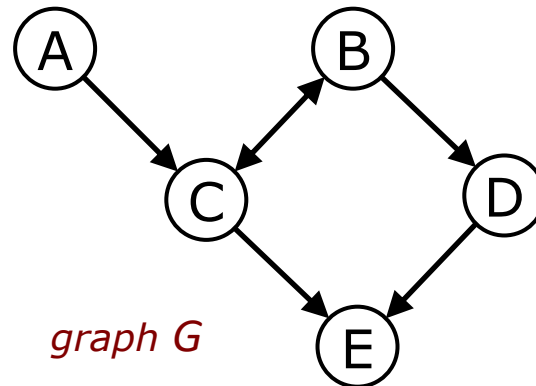
$$\begin{aligned} ACE(X \rightarrow Y) &= E[Y | do(X = 1)] - E[Y | do(X = 0)] \\ &= \sum_Y Y \cdot p(Y | do(X = 1)) - \sum_Y Y \cdot p(Y | do(X = 0)) \end{aligned}$$

*ACE for causal effect of binary variable X
on ordinal variable Y*

Exercise 2a – Admissible sets

A set of nodes \mathbf{S} is *admissible for adjustment* for the causal effect of X on Y , if:

- $X, Y \notin \mathbf{S}$
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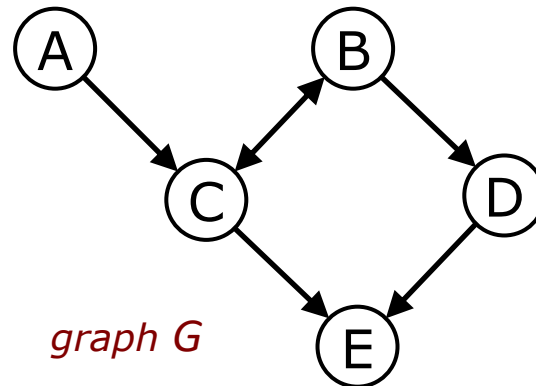


1. Is B admissible for adjustment to find the causal effect of D on E?
2. Is $\{\}$ admissible for the causal effect of A on E?
3. Is B admissible for the causal effect of A on E?
4. Is $\{B, D\}$ admissible for the causal effect of A on E?
5. Is C admissible for the causal effect of A on E?
6. Is $\{B, C\}$ admissible for the causal effect of E on A?

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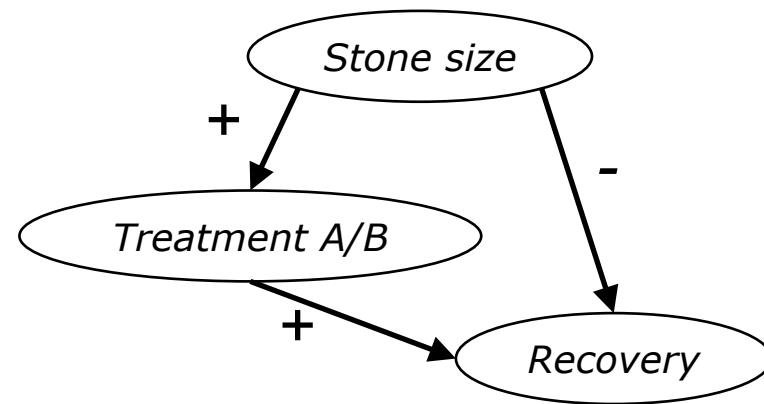
1. Is B admissible for adjustment to find the causal effect of D on E? *Yes.*
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3. Is B admissible for the causal effect of A on E? *Yes.*
4. Is $\{B, D\}$ admissible for the causal effect of A on E? *Yes.*
5. Is C admissible for the causal effect of A on E? *No.*
6. Is $\{B, C\}$ admissible for the causal effect of E on A? *Yes.*

Exercise 2b – Kidney stones revisited

	Treatment A	Treatment B
Small stones	81/87 (93%)	234/270 (87%)
Large stones	192/263 (73%)	55/80 (69%)
	273/350 (78%)	289/350 (83%)
Total	562/700 (80%)	

$$p(Y = y | do(X = x)) \\ = \sum_{Pa(X)} p(y | x, Pa(X)) p(Pa(X))$$

adjustment formula for intervention on X



causal graph for kidney stone trial

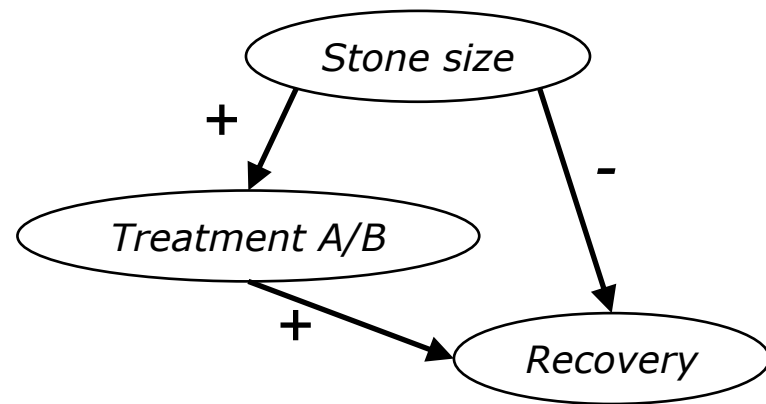
1. Confirm that *Stone size* is a valid and necessary adjustment variable for the causal effect of *Treatment A/B* on *Recovery*.
2. Match the variables and values in the table above to the adjustment formula. In particular: what values need to be summed over?
3. Compute the causal effect of choosing *Treatment A* on *Recovery*.
4. Idem for the causal effect of *Treatment B*, and compare. What is the expected improvement (ACE) of choosing the optimal treatment?

Exercise 2b – Kidney stones revisited

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adjustment formula for intervention on X



causal graph for kidney stone trial

Causal effect via adjustment

$$p(\text{Recovery} | \hat{A}) = \sum_{S \in \{\text{small}, \text{large}\}} p(R | T = A, \text{Size} = S) p(S) = 0.93 * 0.51 + 0.73 * 0.49 = 0.832$$

$$p(\text{Recovery} | \hat{B}) = \sum_{S \in \{\text{small}, \text{large}\}} p(R | T = B, \text{Size} = S) p(S) = 0.87 * 0.51 + 0.69 * 0.49 = 0.782$$

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Another experiment: preventing eclampsia

	Treatment A	Treatment B
Low blood pressure	81/87 (93%)	234/270 (87%)
High blood pressure	192/263 (73%)	55/80 (69%)
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Total recoveries	562/700 (80%)	

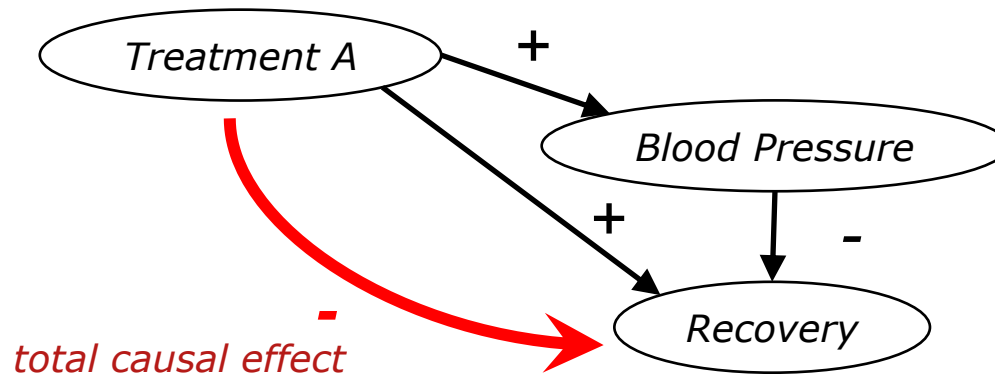
- different labels, exact same numbers ... same conclusion?

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High blood pressure	192/263 (73%)	55/80 (69%)
	273/250 (78%)	289/250 (83%)
Total recoveries	562/700 (80%)	

NO!

- different labels, exact same numbers ... same conclusion?



Conclusion

⇒ we need to know the true underlying causal graph to compute causal effects!

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- if we want to tap into its potential we can and should use methods that treat it in a principled manner (we aim for validity, not truth)
- key feature is distinguishing between association and causation
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- graphical causal models offer an intuitive way to model causal structure
- we can link structure to data via structural equations / causal BNs
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But much more to follow in the next two days!

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Thank you!