An Introduction to Causal Inference

Alexis Bellot Slides at <alexisbellot.github.io>

Google DeepMind

Two Approaches to Making Causal Conclusions

The *logical* approach:

The task is to automate the derivation of (sound) causal conclusions from typically very **well-articulated assumptions**

The *human-centered* approach:

The task is to generate causal conclusions in a **human-like** way, typically from (possibly inconsistent) **subjective causal judgments** obtained from the rich human experience

You get to measure a set of attributes of some system

You get to measure a set of attributes of some system that are inter-connected in a complex way

Graph is a **representation** of an underlying (structural) model *M*: a collection of functions $\{f_V\}_{V\in V}$ and distributions $P(U)$

$$
\begin{array}{c}\nX \\
\hline\nY \\
Y \\
\hline\nY \\
\hline
$$

If you sample from *M* you get evidence of the **observational** probability of events e.g. $P(X = x, Y = y)$ or simply $P(x, y)$

Might want to reason about the effect of **interventions** of your system *M*

Interventional probabilities of events, e.g. *Px*(*y*), also written $P(y_x), P_{M_x}(y), P(y \mid do(x))$

Observational data does not uniquely determine the **effect of interventions** *ever*, see e.g. [\(Bareinboim et al., 2022,](#page-31-0) Causal Hierarchy Theorem).

 $P_{M_x^1}(y) \neq P_{M_x^2}(y)$

How then do we arrive at Causal Conclusions?

[Wright \(1920](#page-32-0)) was able to *predict the effect of interventions* by relating the parameters of an **assumed model of heredity** to the **correlations in data**.

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Models that **entail** *P* and **induce Wright's heredity model**

Research Program: Causal Inference

Logical Approach [\(Pearl, 1995](#page-31-1); [Rosenbaum and Rubin, 1983](#page-31-2); [Rubin, 1974](#page-31-3)).

Research Program: Causal Inference

Assumptions and data constrain the space of possible models and, as a consequence, the set of possible causal effects.

Models that entail *P*

Models that entail *P* and induce causal diagram *G*

Models that entail *P* and induce causal diagram *G* and are linear with non-Gaussian error terms

An *Identifiable* Example

In the *observational* regime *G* induces,

$$
P(y, z, x) = P(y | x, z)P(x | z)P(z)
$$

In the **interventional** regime,

$$
P_x(y, z) = P(y | x, z)1\{X = x\}P(z)
$$

The *query* may be evaluated using,

$$
P_x(y) = \sum_z P_x(y, z)
$$

$$
= \sum_z P(y | x, z)P(z)
$$

Foundational Result: *Truncated Product*

In the interventional regime,

$$
P_x(y, z) = P(y | x, z)1\{X = x\}P(z)
$$

Theorem *(Truncated Factorization)*. Given a causal diagram *G* (no unobserved confounding) we can always predict the effect of an intervention on $X \leftarrow x$,

$$
P_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{V}=\boldsymbol{v})=\prod_{V\in\boldsymbol{V}\setminus\boldsymbol{X}}P(V=v\mid Pa_V=pa_V)
$$

The *Back-door Adjustment* Formula

$$
P_x(y) = \sum_z P(y \mid x, z)P(z)
$$

Theorem *(Back-door Adjustment)*. Given a causal diagram *G* (no unobserved confounding), we may evaluate the effect of an intervention $X \leftarrow x$ by adjustment on the variables *Z* not affected by *X* (its non-descendants),

$$
P_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{z}} P(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) P(\boldsymbol{z}), \quad \mathbb{E}_{P_{\boldsymbol{x}}}[\boldsymbol{Y}] = \sum_{\boldsymbol{z}} \mathbb{E}_{P}[\boldsymbol{Y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}] P(\boldsymbol{z})
$$

The *Conditional Exogeneity* Restriction

$$
P_x(y) = \sum_z P(y \mid x, z)P(z)
$$

Theorem *(Counterfactual / Potential Outcomes Restrictions)* If $Y_X \perp X \mid Z$ then,

$$
P_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{z}} P(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) P(\boldsymbol{z}), \quad \mathbb{E}_{P_{\boldsymbol{x}}}[\boldsymbol{Y}] = \sum_{\boldsymbol{z}} \mathbb{E}_{P}[\boldsymbol{Y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}] P(\boldsymbol{z})
$$

Identification versus *Estimation*

$$
\mathbb{E}_{P_{\bm{x}}}[\bm{Y}] = \sum_{\bm{z}} \mathbb{E}_{P}[\bm{Y} \mid \bm{x}, \bm{z}] P(\bm{z})
$$

1. The *regression estimator*:

$$
\mathbb{E}_{P_x}[Y] = \sum_z \mathbb{E}_P[Y \mid x, z] P(z) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P} [\mathbb{E}_P[Y \mid x, z]]
$$

2. The *probability-weighted estimator*:

$$
\mathbb{E}_{P_x}[Y] = \sum_{x,y,z} y \frac{P(z)1\{X=x\}}{P(x,z)} \ P(x,y,z) = \mathbb{E}_P \left[\frac{P(z)1\{X=x\}}{P(x,z)} Y \right] = \mathbb{E}_P \left[\frac{1\{X=x\}}{P(x \mid z)} Y \right]
$$

A *non-Identifiable* Example

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In the **interventional** regime,

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P_x(y) = \sum_z P_x(y, z)
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(Wider) Research Program: Causal Inference in Medicine and AI

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Typical Causal Inference Questions

What *effect* can we expect from a treatment given to patients with stage III cancer?

What fraction of health-care expenditure can be *attributed* to respiratory illnesses?

I have been suffering from obesity for two years, would my BMI be different *had I* adhered to a vegan diet?

Can hospital admission statistics prove systematic *discrimination* against a given minority group?

Typical Causal Inference Questions

Concluding Remarks

Many questions are *provably* difficult to answer from data

In practice, most of the work is in the definition of plausible assumptions rather than modelling the data as the target for estimation depends a lot on the causal structure of the variables involved in your problem

Two paradigms for Data Science: **Data-driven** versus *Model-based*

Appendix: External validity

The experimental study does not immediately apply in our target domain as $P_x^*(y) \neq P_x(y)$ but it can be computed by re-weighting according to *P ∗* (*z*):

P

$$
P_x^*(y) = \sum_z P_x^*(y, z)
$$

=
$$
\sum_z P_x^*(y | z) P_x^*(z)
$$

=
$$
\sum_z P_x(y | z) P^*(z)
$$

=
$$
\sum_z P_x(y, z) \frac{P^*(z)}{\sum_y P_x(z, y)}
$$

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