Causal Inference

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LG AI Research, AI Academy

Prerequisite

- Probability, Chain-Rule, Conditional Independence
- Graphs, Graphical Model, and d-separation

Credit

Many slides are inspired from lecture notes by Prof. Elias Bareinboim at Columbia University

Overview

What is Causality?

Definition

"Causality ... is influence by which **one** event, process, state, or object (a cause) **contributes to the production of another** event, process, state, or object (an effect) where the cause is **partly** responsible for the effect, and the effect is **partly** dependent on the cause." (emphasis mine)*

필요조건· 충분조건일 필요는 없다

- (News) Papers: 'increases', 'decreases' vs. linked to, associated with
- Daily Life: because, hence, thus, due to, ...

* Wikipedia https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Causality

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상관성

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Why Do We Study Causality?

- Definition of **Science**
  - "Knowledge or a system of knowledge covering general truths or **the operation of general laws** especially as obtained and tested through scientific method."*

    원인과 결과의 매커니즘을 기술하는 것

- Causality in various academic disciplines
  - Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Climate Science,
  - Psychology, Social Science, Economics,
  - Epidemiology, Public Health
    (COVID-19, mask policy, social distancing, # of vaccination, side effects)

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How is Causality related to & {AI, ML, & DS}?

Artificial Intelligence

a rational agent performing actions to achieve a goal
e.g., reinforcement learning $\pi_\theta(\text{action} \mid \text{state})$

Machine Learning

Currently focused on learning correlations, e.g., $\hat{P}_\theta(y|\mathbf{x}) \approx P(y|\mathbf{x})$

Data Science

Capture, Process, Analyze (e.g., Stat, ML), Communicate with Data

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Pearl's Causal Hierarchy

- Level 1: Associational or Observational 관측
  → 상관성
- Level 2: Interventional or Experimental
- Level 3: Counterfactual

Pearl's Causal Hierarchy

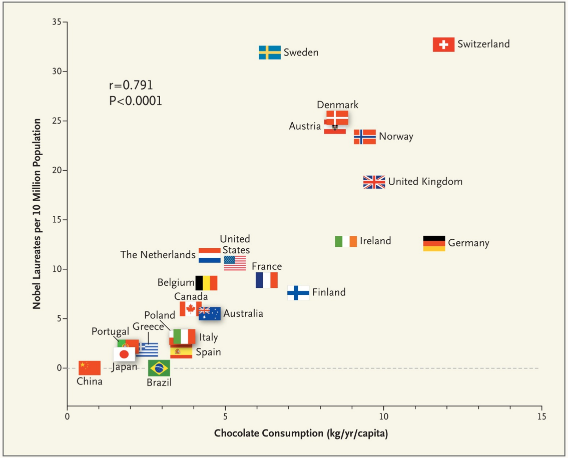
- Level 1: 👁 Associational or Observational
- Level 2: 👇 Interventional or Experimental 실험
  → 인과관계
- Level 3: ? Counterfactual

Pearl's Causal Hierarchy

- Level 1: 👁 Associational or Observational
- Level 2: 👇 Interventional or Experimental
- Level 3: ⓘ Counterfactual 반사실 (반대를 가정 후 확인)

Correlation (Level 1) vs. Causation (Level 2)

Chocolate Consumption vs. Nobel Laureates



상관관계 (1단계)

Franz H. Messerli, Chocolate Consumption, Cognitive Function, and Nobel Laureates, N Engl J Med 2012; 367:1562-1564, `https://www.alexhahnillustrator.com`

Simpson's Paradox

Consider the following scenario:

1. A Patient with Kidney Stone visits a Hospital.
2. A Doctor examines the Patient and provides a Treatment.
3. The Patient's Health Outcome is later reported.

Healthcare Database!

Simpson's Paradox

		Treatment A	Treatment B
Stone	Small	Group 1 93% (81/ 87)	Group 2 87% (234/270)
	Large	Group 3 73% (192/263)	Group 4 69% (55/ 80)

Each cell represents $P(\text{success} \mid \text{treatment}, \text{stone})$

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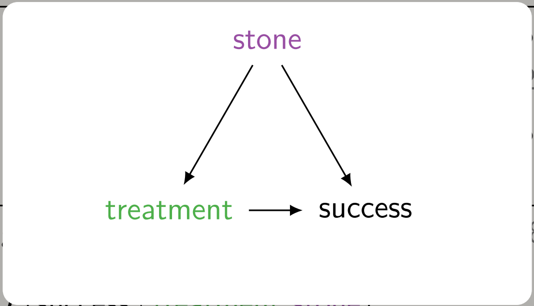
A			89/350)



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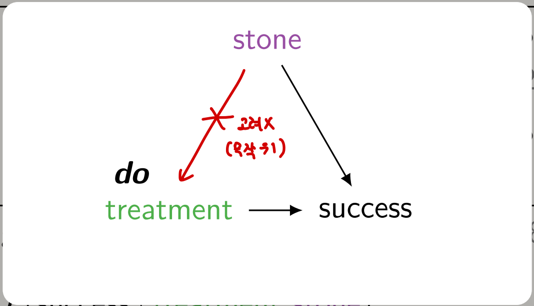

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조건부 확률

What if we administer each treatment *randomly*?

Simpson's Paradox

		Treatment A	Treatment B
Stone	Small	Group 1 93% (81/ 87)	Group 2 87% (234/270)
	Large	Group 3 73% (192/263)	Group 4 69% (55/ 80)
	Efficacy	83.2%	78.2%

무작위!

What if we administer each treatment *randomly*? The causal effect of A

$$P(\text{succ} \mid A) \neq P(\text{succ} \mid do(A)) = \sum_{\text{stone}} P(\text{succ} \mid A, \text{stone}) P(\text{stone})$$

Lesson's Learned from Simpson's Paradox

상관 vs 인과

- Causal analyses need to be guided by subject-matter knowledge 📚.
- Identical data arising from different causal structures need to be analysed differently.
- No purely statistical rules exist to guide causal analyses.

Hernán et al. (2011) The Simpson's paradox unraveled. International Journal of Epidemiology 2011;40:780–-785

Data & Questions

Data scientists should take care of the types of **data** and **question**:

		Question	
		Non-Causal	Causal
Data	Non-Causal	Observational Study, Machine Learning*	**Causal Inference**
	Causal	**Causal Inference**	Experimental Study, Reinforcement Learning

*ML, in general, does not care about the type of data but the question should match the data type.

Formalizing Causality

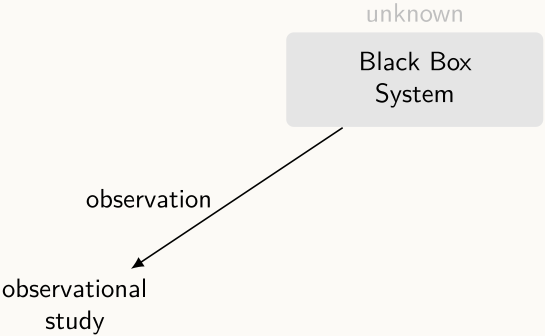
Observation & Intervention (Experiments)

unknown

Black Box
System

Formalizing Causality

Observation & Intervention (Experiments)



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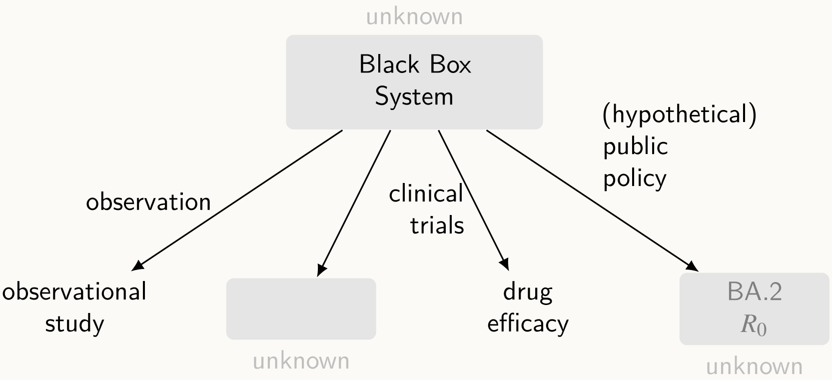
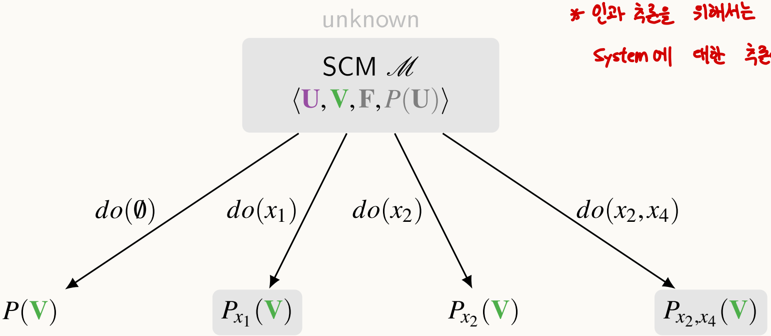


Causal Framework: Structural Causal Model

Structural Causal Model (SCM, Pearl [2000]) is a formal framework to study causality.



* 인과 추론을 위해서는
System에 대한 추론이 필요

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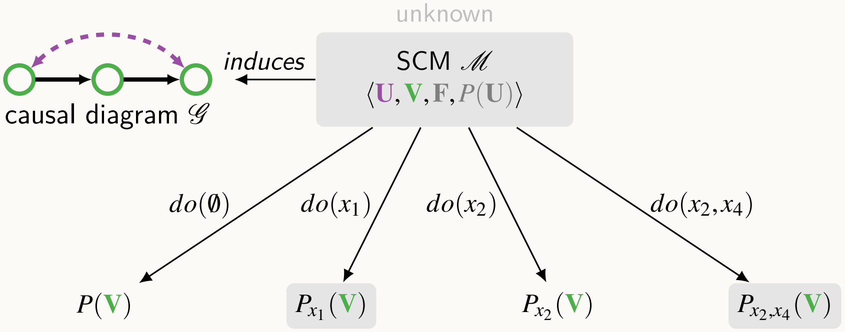

Causal Framework: Structural Causal Models

Definition (Structural Causal Model)

A structural causal model (SCM) $\mathscr{M}$ is a 4-tuple $\langle \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{F}, P(\mathbf{U}) \rangle$, where

- $\mathbf{U}$ is a set of **exogenous** variables; 관측 X
- $P(\mathbf{U})$ is a distribution over $\mathbf{U}$; 불확실성
- $\mathbf{V} = \{V_1, \ldots, V_n\}$ are **endogenous** variables; 관측 O / 원인
- $\mathbf{F} = \{f_1, \ldots f_n\}$ are functions determining $\mathbf{V}$, 결과

$$v_i \leftarrow f_i(\mathbf{pa}_i, \mathbf{u}_i)$$

where $\mathbf{Pa}_i \subseteq \mathbf{V} \setminus \{V_i\}$, $\mathbf{U}_i \subseteq \mathbf{U}$.

Causal Diagram $\mathscr{G}$ is a View for Causal Model $\mathscr{M}$

$$\langle \underbrace{\mathbf{V}}_{\text{observed}}, \underbrace{\mathbf{U}}_{\text{unobserved}}, \underbrace{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{mechanisms for } \mathbf{V}}, P(\mathbf{U}) \rangle$$

- $\mathbf{V} = \{\text{Smoking}, \text{Cancer}\}$
- $\mathbf{U} = \{U_S, U_C, U_{Gene}\}$
- $\mathbf{F}$:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Smoking} & \leftarrow f_{\text{Smoking}}(U_S, U_{Gene}) \\ \text{Cancer} & \leftarrow f_{\text{Cancer}}(\text{Smoking}, U_C, U_{Gene}) \end{cases}$$

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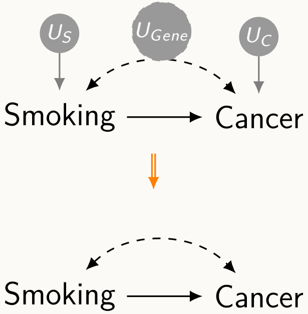

Intervention — $do(\cdot)$ operator

- Given a model $\mathscr{M}$ the action of fixing any observable variable $X \in \mathbf{V}$ to a constant value x is denoted using the $do(\cdot)$ operator as $do(X = x)$.

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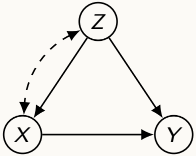
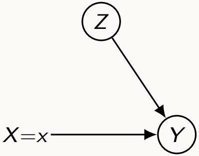
- These two graphs represent the world *before* and *after* an intervention $do(X = x)$.



Causal Graph $\mathscr{G}$



Causal Graph under Intervention $\mathscr{G}_{\overline{X}}$

Intervention — Causal Effects

Definition (Causal Effect)

Given two disjoint sets of variables, $\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{Y}$, the causal effect of $\mathbf{X}$ on $\mathbf{Y}$, denoted as $P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}))$ or $P_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y})$, is a function from $\mathbf{X}$ to the space of probability distributions of $\mathbf{Y}$.

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Researchers may be interested in

- Expectation: $\mathbb{E}[Y|do(x)]$
- Difference: $\mathbb{E}[Y|do(X=1)] - \mathbb{E}[Y|do(X=0)]$ (Average Treatment Effect, ATE)
- Conditional: $\mathbb{E}[Y|do(X=1),\mathbf{Z}] - \mathbb{E}[Y|do(X=0),\mathbf{Z}]$ (Conditional ATE)

Reading Conditional Independence from Causal Diagram

'Separation' in graph $\mathscr{G}$ implies 'Conditional Independence' in distribution P:

$$(X \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathscr{G}} Y \mid Z) \Longrightarrow (X \perp\!\!\!\perp_{P} Y \mid Z).$$

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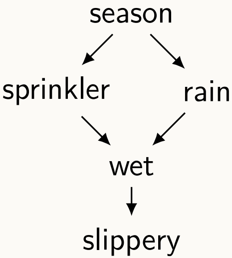
길이 막힘



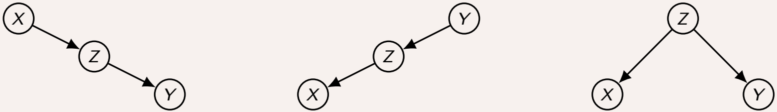
1. ✗ CI: (Wet $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ Sprinkler)
2. ✗ CI: (Wet $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ Season | Sprinkler)
3. ✓ CI: (Rain $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ Slippery | Wet)
4. ✓ CI: (Season $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ Wet | Sprinkler, Rain)
5. ✗ CI: (Sprinkler $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ Rain | Season, Wet)

Reading Conditional Independence from Causal Diagram

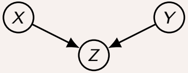
Definition (d-separation)

Two vertices X, Y are said to be d-separated by a set $\mathbf{Z}$ in a directed acyclic graph $\mathscr{G}$, denoted by $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathscr{G}} Y \mid \mathbf{Z})$, if every path $\mathbf{p}$ from X to Y are blocked where blockage occurs when one of the following holds:

1. $\mathbf{p}$ contains at least one arrow-emitting node that is in $\mathbf{Z}$, or



2. $\mathbf{p}$ contains at least one collider that is outside $\mathbf{Z}$ and has no descendant in $\mathbf{Z}$.



Generalized to two sets $\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{Y}$ and with bidirected edges.

Summary for Part 1

- **Structural Causal Model** $\mathscr{M} = \langle \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{F}, P(\mathbf{U}) \rangle$ provides a formal framework.
- SCM induces observational, interventional, and counterfactual distributions.
- SCM *induces* a **causal graph** $\mathscr{G}$, which implies **conditional independencies** testable via **d-separation** (blockage).
- The underlying model $\mathscr{M}$ is unknown but the causal graph $\mathscr{G}$ can be given from *common sense* or *domain expertise*.
- **Intervention** $do(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$ as a **submodel** $\mathscr{M}_{\mathbf{x}}$, which induces a manipulated causal graph $\mathscr{G}_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}$.
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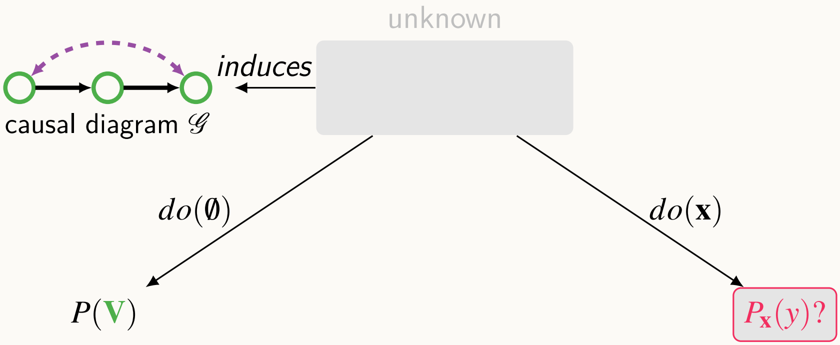
Next Part ...



* illustrative purposes

Overview

Part 1: Causality

Part 2: Causal Effect Identification

- Back-door Criterion
- Do-Calculus

Part 3: Modern Identification

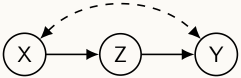
- Generalized Identification
- Transportability
- Recovering from Selection Bias
- Recovering from Missing Data

Causal Effect Identifiability

1. Query

$P_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}))$

2. Causal Diagram



3. Data

$P(\mathbf{V})$

Causal Effect Identifiability

Based on the current knowledge about the phenomenon (2) and the available data (3), is the research question (1) identifiable?

1 Query

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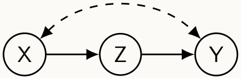
2 Causal Diagram



3 Data

$$P(\mathbf{V})$$

Causal Inference Engine

Causal Effect Identifiability

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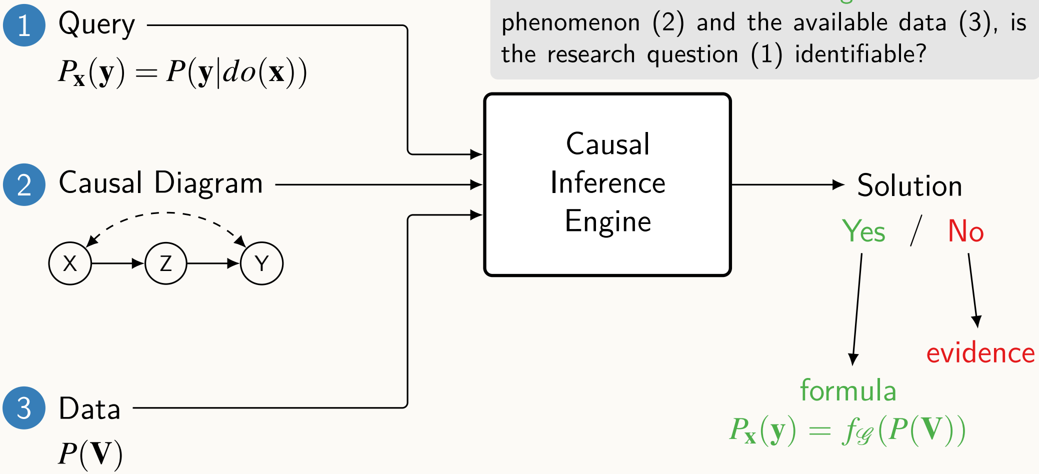
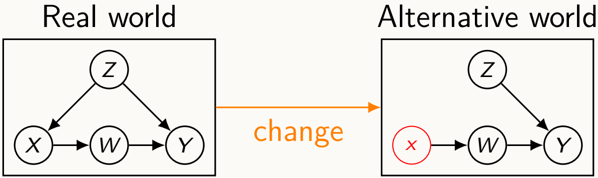


Computing Causal Effects from Observational Data



Z: age, sex
X: action
W: mediator
Y: outcome

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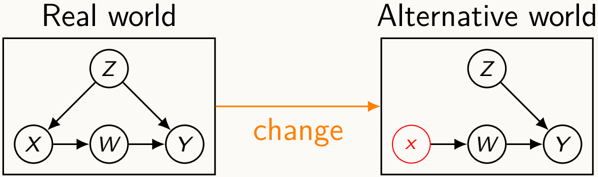

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W: mediator
Y: outcome

$$P(\mathbf{v}) = \prod_{v \in V} p(v \mid pa(v))$$

$$P(z)\times P(x|z)\times P(w|x)\times P(y|w,z)$$

$$\xrightarrow{do(x)}$$

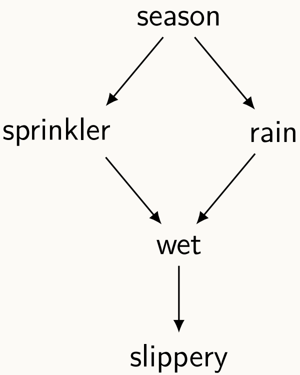
$$P_x(\mathbf{v}\setminus\{X\}) = P(z)\times \cancel{P(x|z)}\times P(w|x)\times P(y|w,z)$$

$\cancel{P(x|z)} \times \longleftarrow$ equal to 1 in $\mathscr{M}_x$

Computing Causal Effects from Observational Data

This distribution decomposes as

$$P(\mathbf{V}) = P(\mathsf{Sl}|W)P(W|\mathsf{Sp},R)P(\mathsf{Sp}|\mathsf{Sn})P(R|\mathsf{Sn})P(\mathsf{Sn})$$



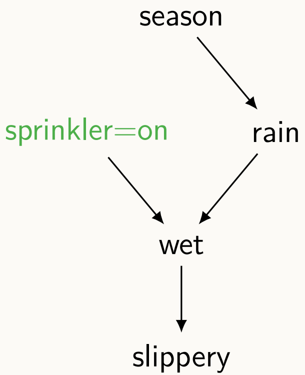
sn:season, sp:sprinkler, sl:slippery

Computing Causal Effects from Observational Data

This distribution decomposes as

$$P(\mathbf{V}) = P(\mathsf{Sl}|W)P(W|\mathsf{Sp},R)P(\mathsf{Sp}|\mathsf{Sn})P(R|\mathsf{Sn})P(\mathsf{Sn})$$

$$P(W \mid do(\mathsf{Sp} = \mathsf{on}))$$



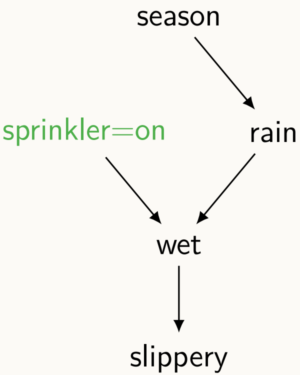
sn:season, sp:sprinkler, sl:slippery

Computing Causal Effects from Observational Data

This distribution decomposes as

$$P(\mathbf{V}) = P(\mathsf{Sl}|W)P(W|\mathsf{Sp},R)P(\mathsf{Sp}|\mathsf{Sn})P(R|\mathsf{Sn})P(\mathsf{Sn})$$

$$\begin{aligned} & P(W \mid do(\mathsf{Sp} = \mathsf{on})) \\ & = \sum_{\mathsf{sn},r,\mathsf{sl}} P(W, \mathsf{sn}, r, \mathsf{sl} \mid do(\mathsf{Sp} = \mathsf{on})) \\ & = \sum_{\mathsf{sn},r,\mathsf{sl}} P(\mathsf{sl}|W)P(W|\mathsf{Sp} = on, r)P(r|\mathsf{sn})P(\mathsf{sn}) \end{aligned}$$



sn:season, sp:sprinkler, sl:slippery

Adjustment by Direct Parents for Singleton Intervention

Theorem

The causal effect $Q = P(\mathbf{y}|do(x))$ *is identifiable whenever* $X, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Pa}_X \subseteq \mathbf{V}$ *(all parents of* X*) are measured.*[1]

모두 관측 가능할 때

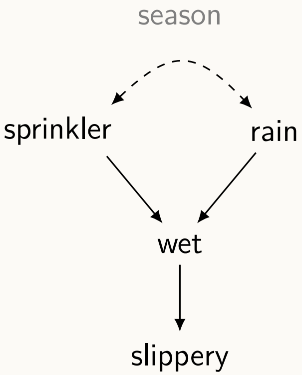
The expression of Q *is then obtained by adjustment for* $\mathbf{Pa}_X$*, or*

$$\boxed{P(\mathbf{y}|do(x)) = \sum_{\mathbf{pa}_X} P(\mathbf{y}|x, \mathbf{pa}_X) P(\mathbf{pa}_X).}$$

e.g.,

$$\sum_{\text{sn}} P(W|\text{Sp} = on, \text{sn}) P(\text{sn})$$

If Season is latent, is the effect still computable?



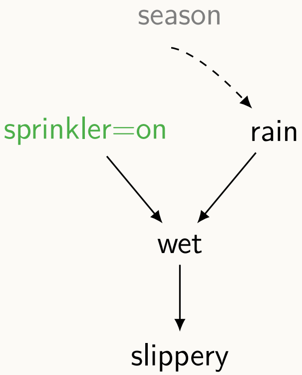
If Season is latent, is the effect still computable?

$$P(W \mid do(\mathsf{Sp} = \mathsf{on}))$$

$$= \sum_{\mathsf{sn}, r} P(W \mid \mathsf{Sp} = \mathsf{on}, r) P(\mathsf{sn}) P(r|\mathsf{sn})$$

$$= \sum_{r} P(W \mid \mathsf{Sp} = \mathsf{on}, r) \sum_{\mathsf{sn}} P(r, \mathsf{sn})$$

$$= \sum_{r} P(W \mid \mathsf{Sp} = \mathsf{on}, r) P(r)$$



Overview

Part 1: Causality

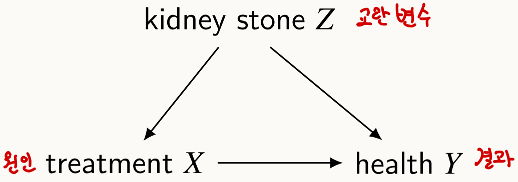
Part 2: Causal Effect Identification

- Back-door Criterion
- Do-Calculus

Part 3: Modern Identification

- Generalized Identification
- Transportability
- Recovering from Selection Bias
- Recovering from Missing Data

Back-door Criterion



Definition (Back-door)

Find a set $\mathbf{Z}$ such that it can sufficiently explain 'confounding' between $\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{Y}$. Then,

$$\boxed{P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z})P(\mathbf{z})}$$

Back-door Criterion

Definition (Back-door Criterion)

A set $\mathbf{Z}$ satisfies the back-door criterion with respect to a pair of variables $\mathbf{X}$, $\mathbf{Y}$ in a causal diagram $\mathscr{G}$ if; $X \to Z$ (×)

(i) no node in $\mathbf{Z}$ is a descendant of $\mathbf{X}$; and

(ii) $\mathbf{Z}$ blocks every path between $X \in \mathbf{X}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{Y}$ that contains an arrow into X.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & \boxed{Z} \arrow[dl] \arrow[dr] & \\ X \arrow[rr] & & Y \end{tikzcd}$$

Back-door sets as substitutes of the direct parents of X

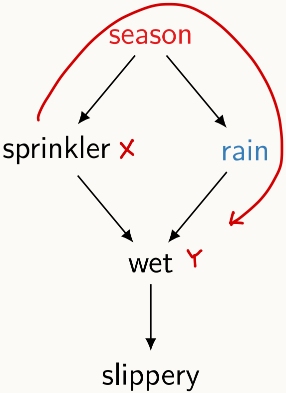
Rain satisfies the back-door criterion relative to Sprinkler and Wet:

(i) Rain is not a descendant of Sprinkler, and

(ii) Rain blocks the only back-door path from Sprinkler to Wet.

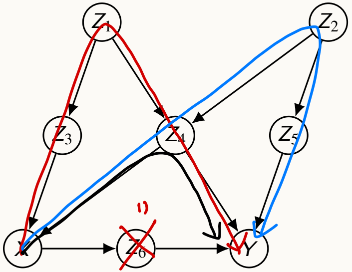
Adjusting for the direct parents of Sprinkler, we have:

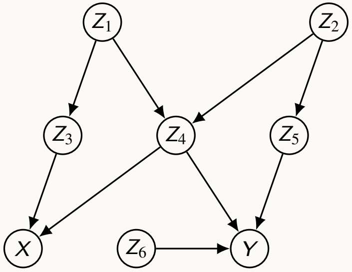
$$
\begin{aligned}
P(\text{wt}|do(\text{sp})) &= \sum_{\text{sn}} P(\text{wt}|\text{sp}, \text{sn}) P(\text{sn}) \\
&\vdots \\
&= \sum_{\text{rn}} P(\text{wt}|\text{sp}, \text{rn}) P(\text{rn})
\end{aligned}
$$



A Graphical Condition for Back-door Admissible Sets

$P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}))$ is identifiable if (i) & (ii) there is a set that d-sep. $\mathbf{X}$ from $\mathbf{Y}$ in $\mathcal{G}_{\underline{\mathbf{X}}}$.





$$P(y|do(x)) = \sum_{z_1, z_4} P(y|x, z_1, z_4) P(z_1, z_4)$$

Overview

Part 1: Causality

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모든 답을 보장 X

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- Recovering from Missing Data

Rules of Do-calculus

- Backdoor criterion results in a very specific form of identification formula.
- **Do-Calculus** [Pearl 1995] provides general machinery to manipulate observational and interventional distributions.

Level 1 Associational $\Leftrightarrow$ Level 2 Experimental

Rules of Do-calculus

Theorem (Rules of Do-calculus (simplified))

Rule 1: *Adding/removing Observations*

$$P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}),\mathbf{z}) = P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x})) \qquad \textit{if } (\mathbf{Z} \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}) \textit{ in } \mathcal{G}_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}.$$

Rule 2: *Action/observation Exchange*

$Z \not\to$

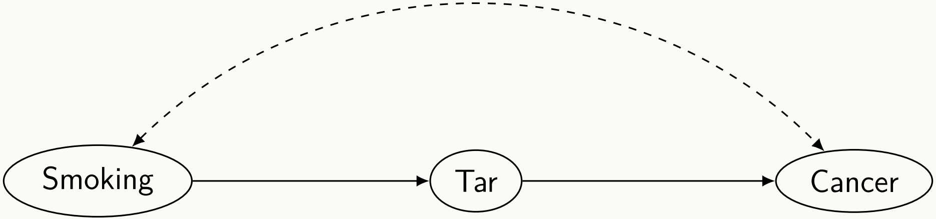
$$P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}),do(\mathbf{z})) = P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}),\mathbf{z}) \qquad \textit{if } (\mathbf{Z} \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}) \textit{ in } \mathcal{G}_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}\underline{\mathbf{Z}}}.$$

$\not\to X$

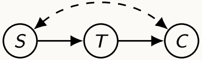
Rule 3: *Adding/removing Actions*

$$P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}),do(\mathbf{z})) = P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x})) \qquad \textit{if } (\mathbf{Z} \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}) \textit{ in } \mathcal{G}_{\overline{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Z}}}$$

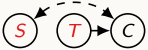
Do-calculus in Action

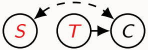


Do-calculus in Action



$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(c|do(s)) \\
& \quad = \sum_t P(c|do(s),t)P(t|do(s)) && \text{Probability Axioms} \\
& \quad = \sum_t P(c|do(s),do(t))P(t|do(s)) && \text{Rule 2 } (T \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid S)_{\mathcal{G}_{\overline{S}\underline{T}}} \\
& \quad = \sum_t P(c|do(t))P(t|do(s)) && \text{Rule 3 } (S \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid T)_{\mathcal{G}_{\overline{T,S}}} \\
& \quad = \sum_t P(c|do(t))P(t|s) && \text{Rule 2 } (T \perp\!\!\!\perp S)_{\mathcal{G}_{\underline{S}}} \\
& \quad = \sum_t P(t|s) \sum_{s'} P(c|s',do(t))P(s'|do(t)) && \text{Probability Axioms} \\
& \quad = \sum_t P(t|s) \sum_{s'} P(c|s',t)P(s'|do(t)) && \text{Rule 2 } (T \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid S)_{\mathcal{G}_{\underline{T}}} \\
& \quad = \sum_t P(t|s) \sum_{s'} P(c|s',t)P(s') && \text{Rule 3 } (T \perp\!\!\!\perp S)_{\mathcal{G}_{\overline{T}}}
\end{aligned}
$$





Smoking, **T**ar deposit in lung, and **C**ancer

Algorithmic Identification

- **Do-calculus** is sound and complete but it has no algorithmic insight.
- A graphical condition and an efficient **algorithmic** procedure have developed for identifiability.

Finite sample and estimation is another important issue.

Summary for Part 2

- Identifiability: Causal Effect may be computable from existing observational data for some causal graphs.
- In a Markovian case and singleton X, a causal effect can be easily derivable by canceling out $P(x|\mathbf{pa}_x)$.
- A back-door adjustment formula is simple and widely used but limited.
- Do-calculus is a set of rules to manipulate observational or interventional probabilities. (Do-calculus is complete)
- There exists a polynomial time algorithm to yield a causal effect formula (whenever identifiable) given an arbitrary causal diagram.

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- Recovering from Missing Data

Various Data Sources

Target ◎
$Q = P^*(y|do(x))$

Various Data Sources

Target $Q = P^*(y \mid do(x))$	Dataset 1	Dataset 2	Dataset n

Various Data Sources

Target ◎ $Q = P^*(y \mid do(x))$	Dataset 1	Dataset 2	Dataset n

d_1	Population	**Los Angeles**	**New York**	**Seoul**
d_2	Obs./Exp.	Experimental	Observational	Experimental
	Treatment Assignment	Randomized Z_1	-	Randomized Z_2
d_3	Sampling	Selection on Age	Selection on SES	-
d_4	Measured	$\{X_1, Z_1, W, M, Y_1\}$	$\{X_1, X_2, Z_1, N, Y_2\}$	$\{X_2, Z_1, W, L, M, Y_1\}$

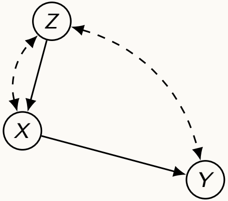
SES = Socio-Economic Status

Modern Identification Tasks

1. Experimental conditions
   Generalized Identification
2. Environmental conditions
   Transportability
3. Sampling conditions
   Recovering from Selection Bias
4. Responding conditions
   Recovering from Missingness

Overview

Generalized Identifiability



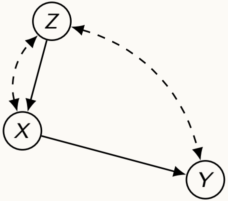
Z: Diet
X: Cholesterol Level
Y: Heart Attack

Measured:
Observational study: $P(X,Y,Z)$

조절가능

Needed: $Q = P(y|do(x))$?

Generalized Identifiability



Z: Diet
X: Cholesterol Level
Y: Heart Attack

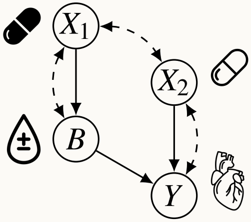
Measured:
Observational study: $P(X,Y,Z)$
Experimental Study: $P(X,Y|do(Z))$

Needed: $Q = P(y|do(x)) = \dfrac{P(x,y|do(z))}{P(x|do(z))} = P(y|do(z),x)$

$\downarrow$ rule 3

$P(y|do(x,z))$ rule 2

Generalized Identifiability: Drug-Drug Interactions

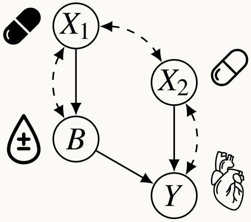


$$P_{x_1,x_2}(y) \Leftarrow \{P_{x_1}(\mathbf{V}), P_{x_2}(\mathbf{V})\}?$$

Y *cardiovascular disease*; B *blood pressure*; X_1 taking an *antihypertensive drug*; and X_2 the use of an *anti-diabetic drug*.

Goal: assess the effect of prescribing **both** treatments ( ) on the risk of cardiovascular diseases from **individual** drug experiments, either or .

Generalized Identifiability: Drug-Drug Interactions



$$P_{x_1,x_2}(y) = \sum_b P_{x_2}(y|b) P_{x_1}(b)$$

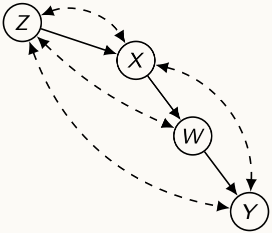
$$\sum_b P_{x1,x2}(y,b) \Rightarrow \sum_b P_{x1,x2}(y|b), \; P_{x1,x2}(b)$$

Y *cardiovascular disease*; B *blood pressure*; X_1 taking an *antihypertensive drug*; and X_2 the use of an *anti-diabetic drug*.

Goal: assess the effect of prescribing **both** treatments ( ) on the risk of cardiovascular diseases from **individual** drug experiments, either or .

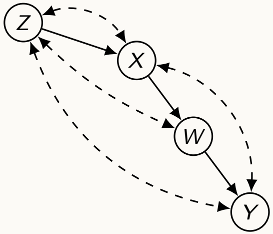
General Identifiability reduced to Calculus

$$\begin{aligned}
P(y|do(x)) &= \sum_w P(y|do(x),w)P(w|do(x)) \\
&= \sum_w P(y|do(x,w))P(w|do(x)) \\
&= \sum_w \underbrace{P(y|do(w))}_{Q[Y]}\underbrace{P(w|do(x))}_{Q[W]}
\end{aligned}$$



Both effects are not identifiable from $P(\mathbf{V})$.

General Identifiability reduced to Calculus



$$
\begin{aligned}
Q[Y] &= P(y|do(w)) \\
&= P(y|do(w,z)) \\
&= \sum_x P(y|do(w,z),x)P(x|do(w,z)) \\
&= \sum_x P(y|do(w,z),x)P(x|do(z)) \\
&= \sum_x P(y|do(z),w,x)P(x|do(z)).
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q[W] &= P(w|do(x)) \\
&= P(w|do(x,z)) \\
&= P(w|do(z),x).
\end{aligned}
$$

Available from $P(\mathbf{V}|do(z))$!

Summary for General Identifiability

여러 데이터 기반

The identifiability of any expression of the form

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z})$$

can be determined given any causal graph $\mathscr{G}$ and an arbitrary **combination of observational and experimental studies**.

If the query is identifiable, then its estimand can be derived in *polynomial time*.

Lee, Correa, and Bareinboim (2019) *General Identifiability with Arbitrary Surrogate Experiments*, UAI.

Overview

Part 1: Causality

Part 2: Causal Effect Identification

Back-door Criterion

Do-Calculus

일반적인 가정 : train ≒ test

Part 3: Modern Identification

Generalized Identification

Transportability : train ≠ test

Recovering from Selection Bias

Recovering from Missing Data

Transportability

Is it possible to compute the effect of $\mathbf{X}$ on $\mathbf{Y}$ in a target environment ◎, using **observational and experimental findings** from different populations?

e.g., applying education policies of U.S. to South Korea.

Environment can be understood as population, domain, etc.

How is this Problem seen in other Sciences?

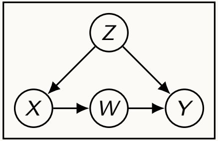
- "**External Validity** asks the question of generalizability: To what populations, settings, treatment variables, and measurement variables can this effect be generalized?" (Shadish, Cook, and Campbell, 2002)

- "**Extrapolation** across studies requires 'some understanding of the reasons for the differences.' " (Cox, 1958)

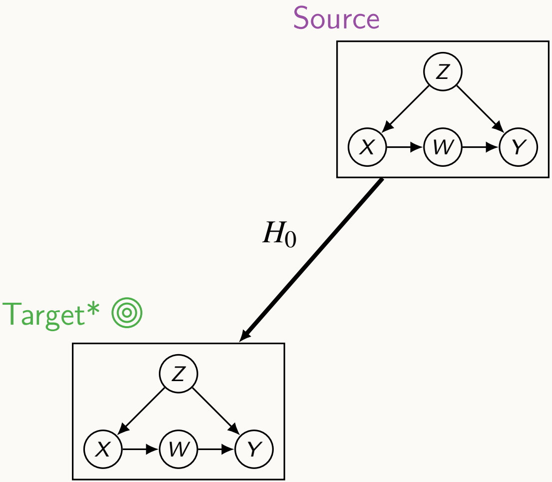
- "An experiment is said to have "**external validity**" if the distribution of outcomes realized by a treatment group is the same as the distribution of outcome that would be realized in an actual program." (Manski, 2007)

Transportability: the Spectrum

Source

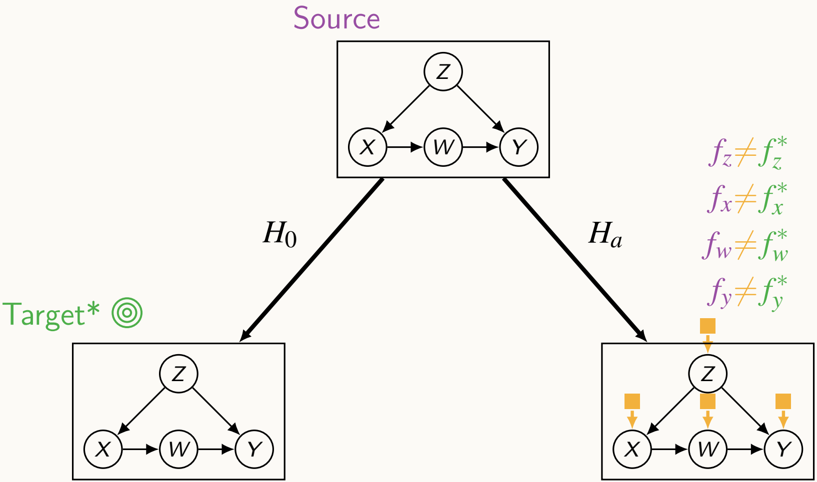


Transportability: the Spectrum



Everything is assumed to be
the same, trivially transportable!

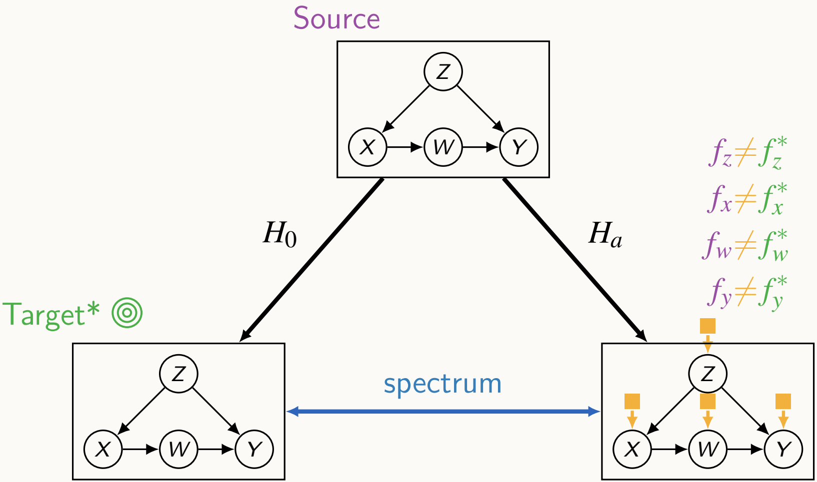
Transportability: the Spectrum



Everything is assumed to be the same, trivially transportable!

Everything is assumed to be different, *not* transportable!

Transportability: the Spectrum



Everything is assumed to be
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Everything is assumed to be
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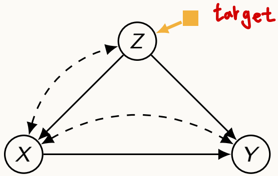
Transportability: Formulas Depend on the Causal Story



(a)

(a) Z represents **age**

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

$\Downarrow$

$P(y|do(x), \text{target})$

$\Downarrow$

$\sum_z P(y|do(x), z, \text{target})\, P(z, \text{target})$

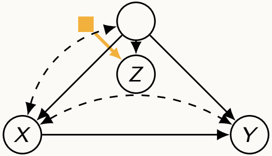
target의 영향X

$\Downarrow$

$\sum_z P(y|do(x), z)\, P^*(z)$

P^* target domain & P source domain

Transportability: Formulas Depend on the Causal Story



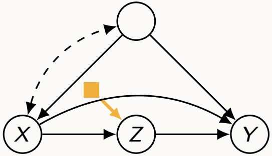
(b)

(b) Z represents **language skill**

$$P^*(y|do(x)) = P(y|do(x))$$

P^* target domain & P source domain

Transportability: Formulas Depend on the Causal Story



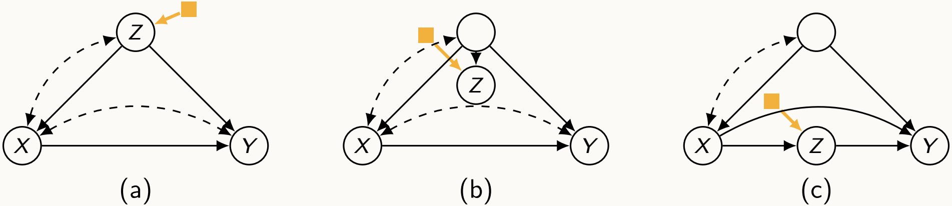
(c)

(c) Z represents **bio-marker**

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

P^* target domain & P source domain

Transportability: Formulas Depend on the Causal Story



(a) Z represents **age**

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

(b) Z represents **language skill**

$$P^*(y|do(x)) = P(y|do(x))$$

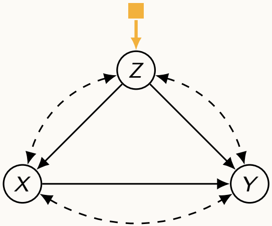
(c) Z represents **bio-marker**

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

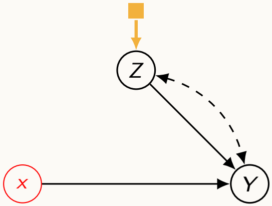
P^* target domain & P source domain

Is the Gold Standard Golden? (Generalizability from Trials)

Before Randomization



After Randomization



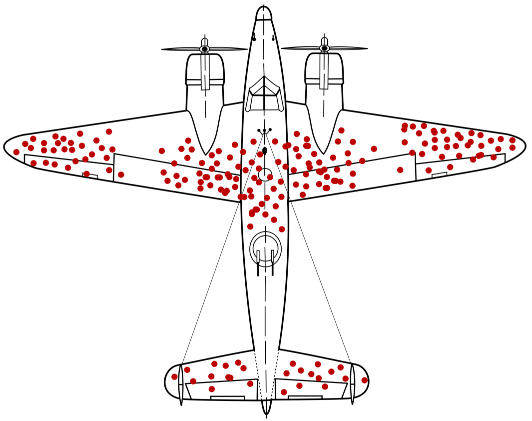
Lesson. Even if we have a perfect RCT, one still needs to exercise transportability.

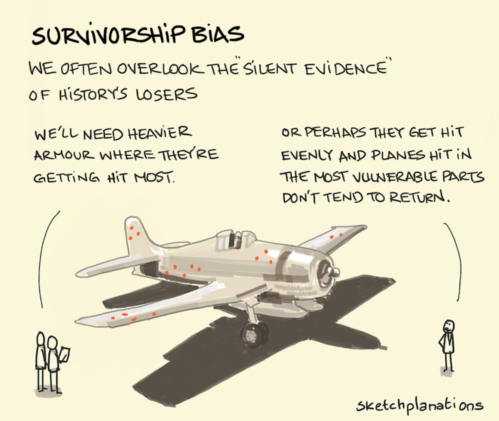
Summary for Transportability

- Non-parametric transportability can be determined provided that the problem instance is encoded in selection diagrams $(=\mathscr{G}+\blacksquare)$.
- When transportability is feasible, the transport formula can be derived in polynomial time.
- The causal calculus and the corresponding transportation algorithm are complete.

Overview

Identification under Selection



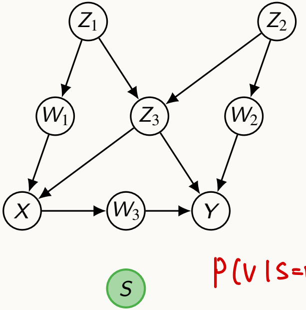


Wikipedia, `https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Survivorship_bias`, sketchplanations, `https://sketchplanations.com/survivorship-bias-silent-evidence`

Identification under Selection

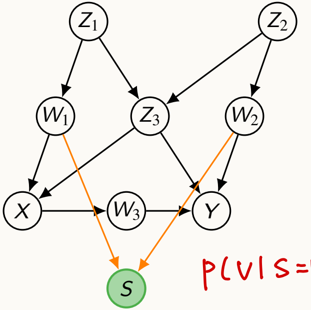
- Selection bias, caused by preferential inclusion S of samples from the data, is a major obstacle to valid **causal** and **statistical** inferences;

Without Selection Bias



$P(V \mid S=1) = P(V)$

With Selection Bias



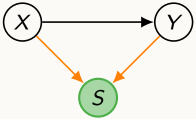
$P(V \mid S=1) \neq P(V)$

Selection Bias without External Information

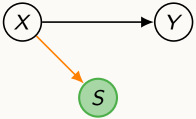
Theorem

$Q = P(y|x)$ is recoverable from selection biased data if and only if

$$(S \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid X).$$



$P(y|x)$ is not recoverable



$P(y|x)$ is recoverable

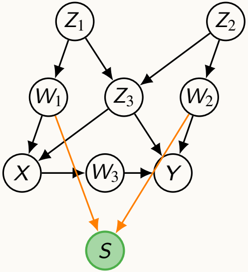
$P(X, Y \mid S=1) \Rightarrow P(Y \mid X, S=1) = P(Y \mid X)$

Identification under Selection (with External Data)

Theorem

$P(y|x)$ is recoverable if there is a set $\mathbf{C}$ such that $(Y \perp\!\!\!\perp S \mid \mathbf{C}, X)$ holds in $\mathscr{G}$ and $P(\mathbf{C}, X)$ is estimable. Moreover,

$$P(y|x) = \sum_{\mathbf{c}} P(y|x, \mathbf{c}, S=1) P(\mathbf{c}|x)$$



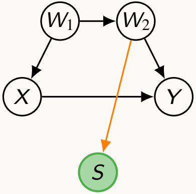
$\mathbf{C} = \{W_1, W_2\}$? Yes

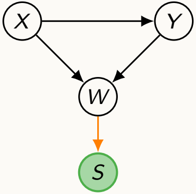
$\mathbf{C} = \{W_1, Z_1, Z_2\}$? No

$\mathbf{C} = \{W_2, Z_3\}$? Yes

Identification under Selection (with External Data)

Goal: recover a causal effect $P(y|do(x))$.





$$\begin{aligned} P(y|do(x)) &= \sum_{w_2} P(y|x, w_2) P(w_2) \\ &= \sum_{w_2} P(y|x, w_2, S=1) P(w_2). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(y|do(x)) &= P(y|x) \\ &= \sum_{w} P(y|w, x) P(w|x) \\ &= \sum_{w} P(y|w, x, S=1) P(w|x). \end{aligned}$$

Summary for Selection Bias

- Nonparametric recoverability of selection bias from causal and statistical settings can be determined provided that an augmented causal graph (w/ the selection mechanism S) is available.
- When recoverability is feasible, the estimand can be derived in **polynomial time**.
- The result is complete for pure recoverability, and sufficient for recoverability with external information.

Correa, Tian, and Bareinboim (2019) *Identification of Causal Effects in the Presence of Selection Bias*. AAAI.

Overview

Identification under Missing Data

Missing data present a challenge in many academic disciplines.

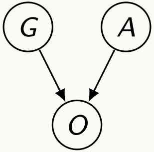
- *Sensors* do not always work reliably.
- *Respondents* do not fill out every question in the questionnaire.
- Medical *patients* are often unable to recall treatments or outcomes.

#	Age	Gender	Obesity*
1	16	F	Obese
2	15	F	N/A
3	15	M	N/A
4	14	F	Not Obese
5	13	M	Not Obese
6	15	M	Obese
7	14	F	Obese

Excerpted mainly from Mohan, K. and Pearl, J. (2021) *Graphical models for processing missing data*, JASA.

Identification under Missing Data: Example

Consider a study conducted in a school with
Age (A), **G**ender (G) and **O**besity (O).



- **Age** and **Gender** are fully observed (obtained from school records).
- **Obesity** however is corrupted by missing values due to some students not reporting their weight.

Identification under Missing Data: Proxy Variable

Modelling the **missingness process** using

- Obesity O (true, partly-observed),
- a missingness mechanism R_O, and
- a proxy variable O^* (what's observed)

#	Age	Gender	Obesity*	R_O
1	16	F	Obese	0
2	15	F	m	1
3	15	M	m	1
4	14	F	Not Obese	0
5	13	M	Not Obese	0
6	15	M	Obese	0
7	14	F	Obese	0

$$O^* = \begin{cases} O & \text{if } R_O = 0 \\ m & \text{if } R_O = 1 \end{cases}$$

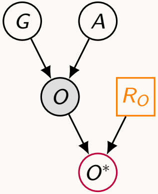
Identification under Missing Data: Reasons for Missingness

Missingness can be *caused* by random processes or can depend on other variables.

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
G \arrow[dr] & & A \arrow[dl] \\
& O &
\end{tikzcd}
$$

Identification under Missing Data: Reasons for Missingness

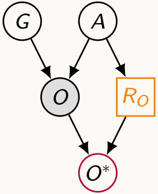
Missingness can be *caused* by random processes or can depend on other variables.



- Students *accidentally* *losing* their questionnaires.

Identification under Missing Data: Reasons for Missingness

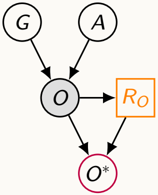
Missingness can be *caused* by random processes or can depend on other variables.



- Teenagers rebelling and not reporting their weight.

Identification under Missing Data: Reasons for Missingness

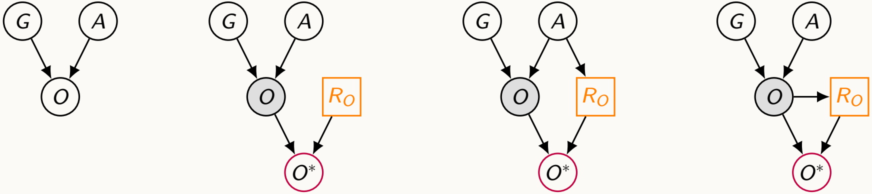
Missingness can be *caused* by random processes or can depend on other variables.



- Obese students who are embarrassed of their obesity and hence reluctant to reveal their weight.

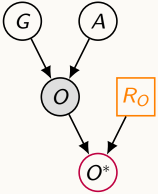
Identification under Missing Data: Reasons for Missingness

Missingness can be *caused* by random processes or can depend on other variables.

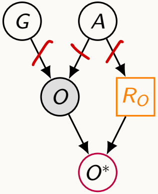


- Students *accidentally* *losing* their questionnaires.
- Teenagers rebelling and not reporting their weight.
- Obese students who are embarrassed of their obesity and hence reluctant to reveal their weight.

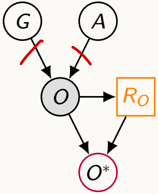
Three Categories of Missingness



MCAR



MAR



MNAR

$$O, A, G \perp\!\!\!\perp R_O$$

$$O \perp\!\!\!\perp R_O \mid A, G$$

$$O \not\perp\!\!\!\perp R_O \mid A, G$$

Identification under Missing Data: Example

Factorization:

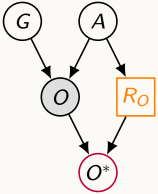
$$P(G,O,A) = P(G,O|A)P(A)$$

Transformation into observables:

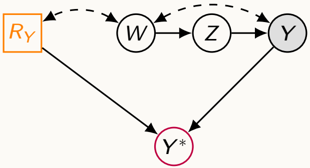
$$= P(G,O|A,R_O = 1)P(A)$$

Conversion

$$= P(G,O^*|A,R_O = 1)P(A).$$



Identification under Missing Data: Example



$$
\begin{aligned}
P(y|do(z)) &= P(y|do(z), r_y) \\
&= P(y^*|do(z), r_y) \\
&= \sum_w P(y^*|w, do(z), r_y) P(w|do(z), r_y) \\
&= \sum_w P(y^*|w, z, r_y) P(w|r_y).
\end{aligned}
$$

Summary for Part 3

Modern Identification

1. **General** Identification: combining data sets of different experimental conditions
2. **Transportability**: combining data sets from different sources
3. Identification under **Selection** S
4. Identification under **Missingness** $\boxed{R_O}$

Summary for Causal Inference Lecture

This lecture focused mainly on a basic causal effect identification task (SCM, do-operator, Causal Graph, Conditional Independence ...)

There are many interesting future research directions

- Causal Data Science
- Causal Discovery
- Causal Decision Making
- Causality + Machine Learning