# CAUSAL INFERENCE IN OBSERVATIONAL STUDIES

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#### Research Interests

- Causal Inference and Machine Learning
  - Machine Learning for Causal Inference
    - High Dimensional, Big Data Era
  - Causal Inference for Machine Learning
    - Interpretable prediction, Stable Learning
  - Causally Interpretable AI + X (司法, 医疗, 教育)

#### Causal Inference: Cause and Effect

- Cause: The REASON why something happened
- Effect: The RESULT of what happened

- Questions of cause and effect:
  - Medicine: drug trials, effect of a drug
  - Social science: effect of a policy
  - Marketing: effect of a marketing strategy
  - •
- What is causality?





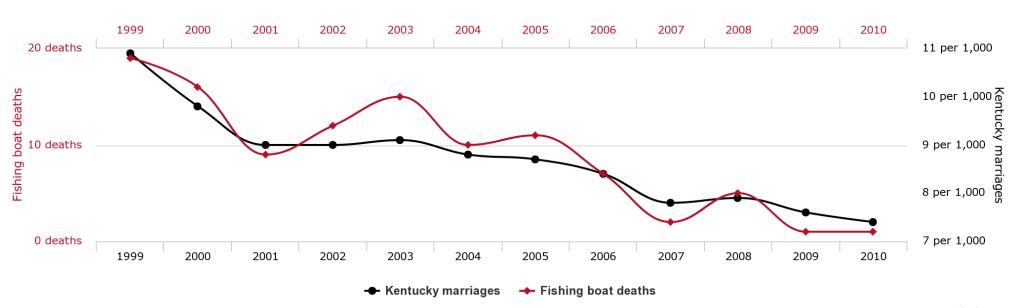
### Correlation v.s. Causality: Explainability

Correlation is not explainable

#### People who drowned after falling out of a fishing boat

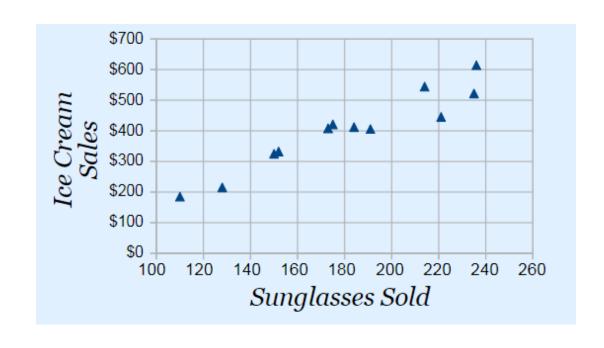
correlates with

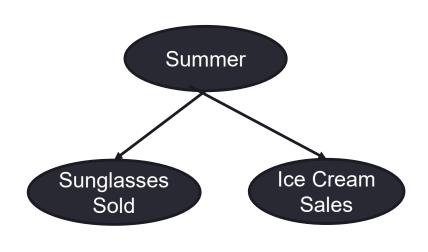
#### Marriage rate in Kentucky



tylervigen.com

#### Correlation v.s. Causality: Explainability





Spurious Correlation!

Correlation does not imply causation!

## Correlation v.s. Causality: Stability

















Maybe

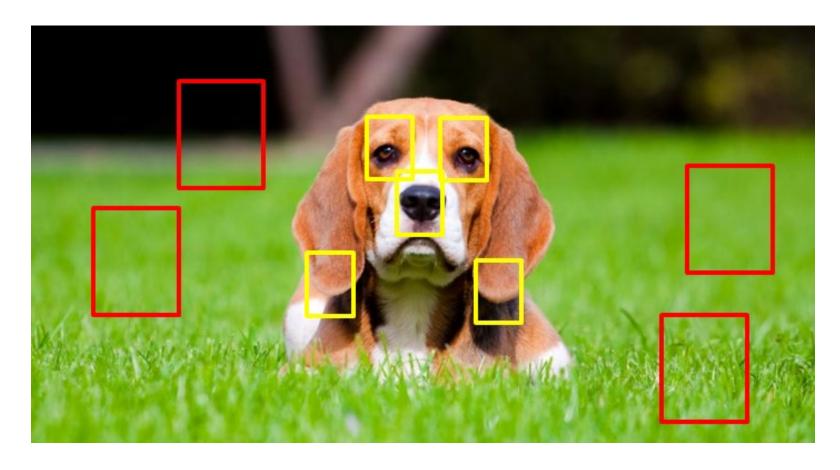




No

## Correlation v.s. Causality: Stability

Correlation v.s. Causality



## Correlation v.s. Causality: Actionability

- Does predictive models guide decision making?
- System changes algorithm from A to B at some point.
- Is the new algorithm B better?
- Say algorithm that provides promotion or discount link to a different customers





Algorithm B

#### Correlation v.s. Causality: Actionability

Measure success rate (SR)

| Old Algorithm (A)   | New Algorithm (B)     |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 50/1000 <b>(5%)</b> | 54/1000 <b>(5.4%)</b> |



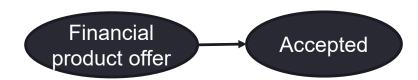
New algorithm increases overall success rate, so it is better?

|                   | Old Algorithm (A) | New Algorithm (B)     |
|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Low-income Users  | 10/400 (2.5%)     | 4/200 <b>(2%)</b>     |
| High-income Users | 40/600 (6.6%)     | 50/800 <b>(6.2%)</b>  |
| Overall           | 50/1000 (5%)      | 54/1000 <b>(5.4%)</b> |

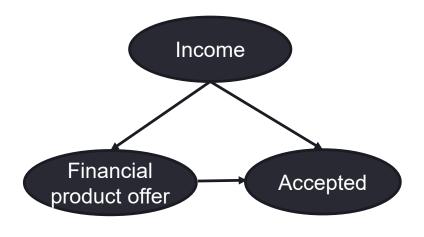
Which is better?

#### Correlation v.s. Causality: Actionability





Higher success rate due to algorithm



Higher success rate due to confounding bias

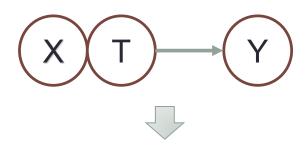
Decision making is a counterfactual problem, not a predictive problem!

## Correlation v.s. Causality: Fairness

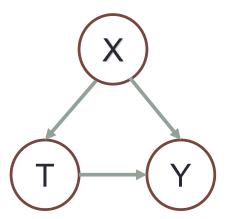


## Correlation v.s. Causality: Fairness

#### **Correlation Framework**



**Causal Framework** 



T: skin color

X: income

Y: crime rate

income—crime rate: Strong correlation

skin color—crime rate: Strong correlation



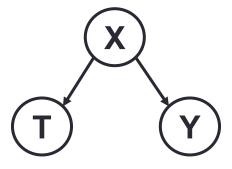
income—crime rate: Strong causation

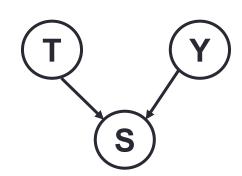
skin color—crime rate: Weak causation

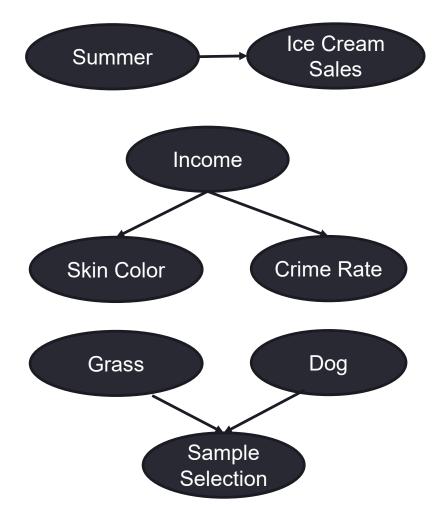
#### Correlation V.S. Causation

- Three sources of correlation:
  - Causation
    - Causal mechanism
    - Stable and Robust
  - Confounding
    - Ignoring X
    - Spurious Correlation
  - Sample Selection
    - Conditional on S
    - Spurious Correlation



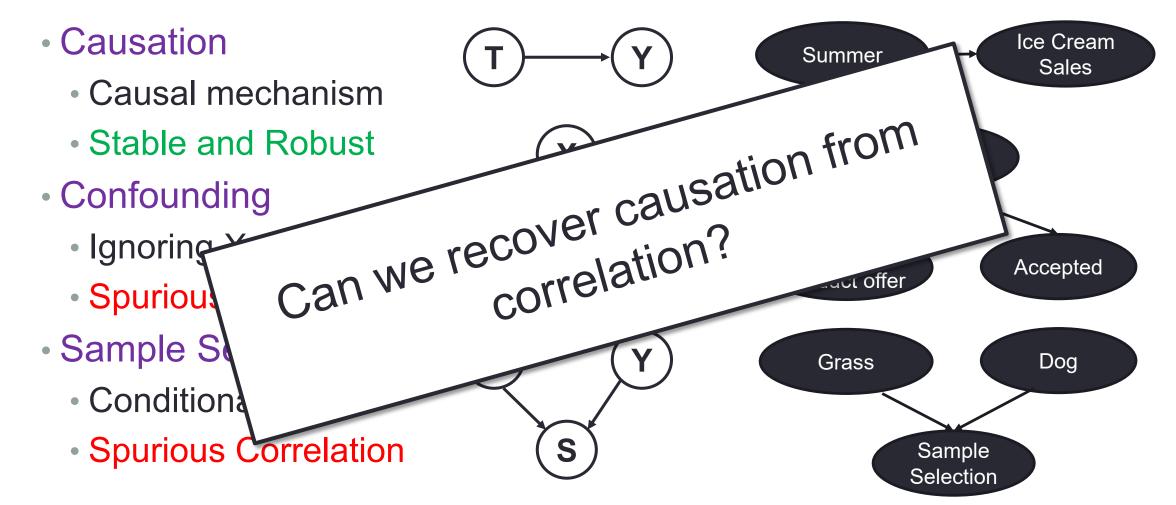






#### Correlation V.S. Causation

Three sources of correlation:



## Why should we care about causality?

- Recover causation for interpretability
- Help to guide decision making
- Make stable and robust prediction in the future
- Prevent algorithmic bias

## What is causality?

A big scholarly debate, from Aristotle to Russell



## A practical definition

Definition: T causes Y if and only if changing T leads to a change in Y, keep everything else constant.

Causal effect is defined as the magnitude by which Y is changed by a unit change in T.

Two key points: changing T, everything else constant

#### Causal Effect Estimation

- Treatment Variable: T = 1 or T = 0
- Potential Outcome: Y(T = 1) and Y(T = 0)
- Average Causal Effect of Treatment (ATE):

$$ATE = E[Y(T = 1) - Y(T = 0)]$$

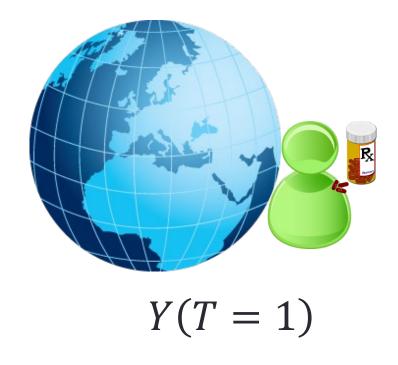
Counterfactual Problem:

$$Y(T=1)$$
 or  $Y(T=0)$ 



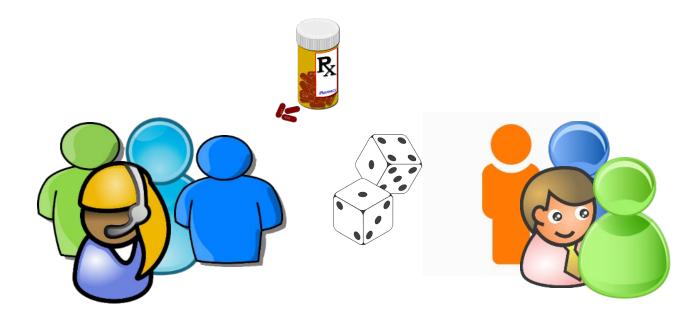
#### Ideal Solution: Counterfactual World

- Reason about a world that does not exist
- Everything is the same on real and counterfactual worlds, but the treatment



$$Y(T=0)$$

#### Randomized Experiments are the "Gold Standard"



- Drawbacks of randomized experiments:
  - Cost
  - Unethical

# Randomized Experiments are the "Gold Standard"



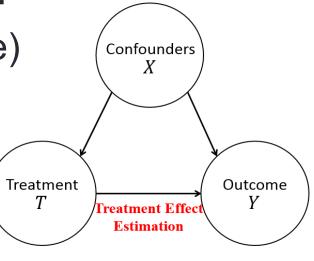
#### Causal Inference with Observational Data

Counterfactual Problem:

$$Y(T=1)$$
 or  $Y(T=0)$ 



- Yes with randomized experiments (X are the same)
- No with observational data (X might be different)
- Two key points:
  - Changing T (T=1 and T=0)
  - Keeping everything else (Confounder X) constant



#### Causal Inference with Observational Data

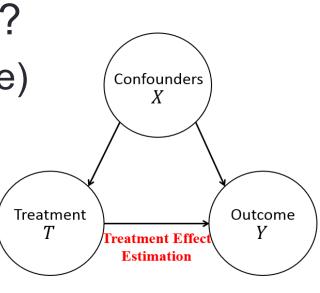
Counterfactual Problem:

$$Y(T=1)$$
 or  $Y(T=0)$ 



- Yes with randomized experiments (X are the same)
- No with observational data (X might be different)
- Two key points:

**Balancing Confounders' Distribution** 



#### Methods for Causal Inference

- Matching
- Propensity Score Based Methods
  - Propensity Score Matching
  - Inverse of Propensity Weighting (IPW)
  - Doubly Robust
  - Data-Driven Variable Decomposition (D<sup>2</sup>VD)
- Directly Confounder Balancing
  - Entropy Balancing
  - Approximate Residual Balancing
  - Differentiated Confounder Balancing

#### Assumptions of Causal Inference

• A1: Stable Unit Treatment Value (SUTV): The effect of treatment on a unit is independent of the treatment assignment of other units p(v|T,T,v) = p(v|T,v)

$$P(Y_i|T_i,T_j,X_i) = P(Y_i|T_i,X_i)$$

• A2: Unconfounderness: The distribution of treatment is independent of potential outcome when given the observed variables

$$T \perp (Y(0), Y(1)) \mid X$$

No unmeasured confounders

• A3: Overlap: Each unit has nonzero probability to receive either treatment status when given the observed variables

$$0 < P(T = 1|X = x) < 1$$

#### Methods for Causal Inference

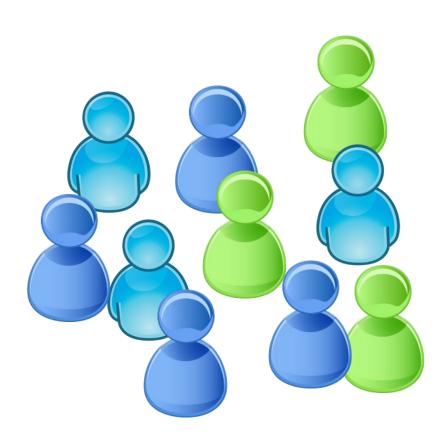
#### Matching

- Propensity Score Based Methods
  - Propensity Score Matching
  - Inverse of Propensity Weighting (IPW)
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  - Data-Driven Variable Decomposition (D<sup>2</sup>VD)

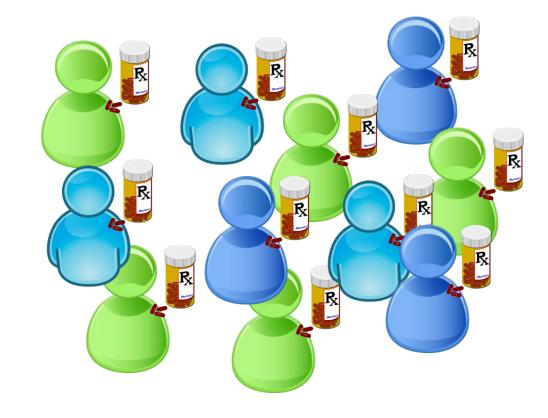
#### Directly Confounder Balancing

- Entropy Balancing
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# Matching

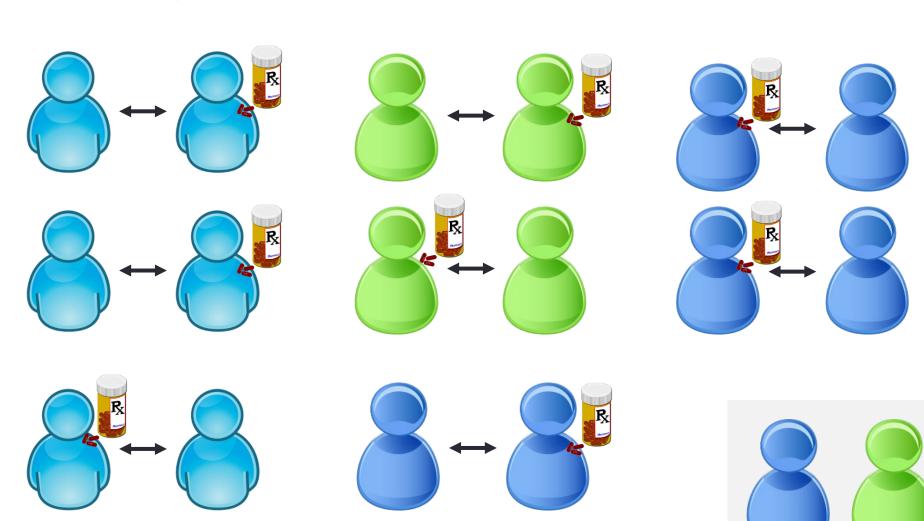


$$T = 0$$



$$T = 1$$

# Matching



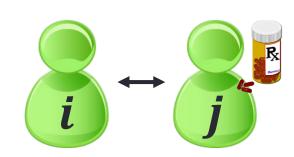
## Matching

 Identify pairs of treated (T=1) and control (T=0) units whose confounders X are similar or even identical to each other

$$Distance(X_i, X_j) \leq \epsilon$$

- Paired units provide the everything else (Confounders) approximate constant
- Estimating average causal effect by comparing average outcome in the paired dataset





#### Methods for Causal Inference

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- Propensity Score Based Methods
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### Propensity Score Based Methods

• Propensity score e(X) is the probability of a unit to be treated

$$e(X) = P(T = 1|X)$$

 Then, Rubin shows that the propensity score is sufficient to control or summarized the information of confounders

$$T \perp \!\!\!\perp X \mid e(X) \Rightarrow T \perp \!\!\!\!\perp (Y(1), Y(0)) \mid e(X)$$

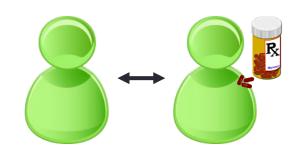
Propensity score are rarely observed, need to be estimated

### **Propensity Score Matching**

- Estimating propensity score:  $\hat{e}(X) = P(T = 1|X)$ 
  - Supervised learning: predicting a known label T based on observed covariates X.
  - Conventionally, use logistic regression

 Matching pairs by distance between propensity score:

$$Distance(X_i, X_j) = |\hat{e}(X_i) - \hat{e}(X_j)|$$



 $Distance(X_i, X_j) \le \epsilon$ 

High dimensional challenge: transferred from matching to PS estimation

## Inverse of Propensity Weighting (IPW)

Estimating ATE by IPW [1]:

$$w_i = \frac{T_i}{e_i} + \frac{1 - T_i}{1 - e_i}$$

$$ATE_{IPW} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{T_i Y_i}{\hat{e}(X_i)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(1 - T_i) Y_i}{1 - \hat{e}(X_i)}$$

 Interpretation: IPW creates a pseudo-population where the confounders are the same between treated and control groups.

• Why does this work? Consider  $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{T_iY_i}{\hat{e}(X_i)}$ 

## Inverse of Propensity Weighting (IPW)

• If:  $\hat{e}(X) = e(X)$ , the true propensity score

$$E\left\{\frac{TY}{e(X)}\right\} = E\left\{\frac{TY_1}{e(X)}\right\} = E\left[E\left\{\frac{TY_1}{e(X)}|Y_1,X\right\}\right]$$

$$= E\left\{\frac{Y_1}{e(X)}E(T|Y_1,X)\right\} = E\left\{\frac{Y_1}{e(X)}E(T|X)\right\}$$

$$= E\left\{\frac{Y_1}{e(X)}e(X)\right\} = E\left(Y_1\right)$$

(1) 
$$Y = T * Y_1 + (1 - T) * Y_0$$

(2) 
$$T \perp (Y_1, Y_0) \mid X$$

$$(3) \quad \boldsymbol{e}(\boldsymbol{X}) = \boldsymbol{E}(\boldsymbol{T}|\boldsymbol{X})$$

• Similarly: 
$$E\left\{\frac{(1-T)Y}{1-e(X)}\right\} = E(Y_0)$$

$$ATE = E[Y(1) - Y(0)]$$

## Inverse of Propensity Weighting (IPW)

• If:  $\hat{e}(X) = e(X)$ , the *true propensity score*, the IPW estimator is *unbiased* 

$$ATE_{IPW} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{T_i Y_i}{\hat{e}(X_i)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(1 - T_i) Y_i}{1 - \hat{e}(X_i)} = E(Y_1 - Y_0)$$

Wildly used in many applications

- But requires the propensity score model is correct
- High variance when e is close to 0 or 1

## **Doubly Robust**

$$m_0 = E(Y|T = 0, X)$$
  
 $m_1 = E(Y|T = 1, X)$ 

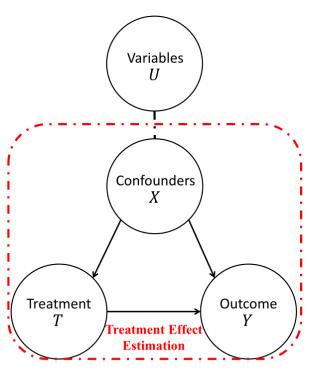
Estimating ATE with Doubly Robust estimator:

$$ATE_{DR} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{T_{i}Y_{i}}{\hat{e}(X_{i})} - \frac{\{T_{i} - \hat{e}(X_{i})\}}{\hat{e}(X_{i})} \hat{m}_{1}(X_{i}) \right]$$
$$- \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{(1 - T_{i})Y_{i}}{1 - \hat{e}(X_{i})} + \frac{\{T_{i} - \hat{e}(X_{i})\}}{1 - \hat{e}(X_{i})} \hat{m}_{0}(X_{i}) \right]$$

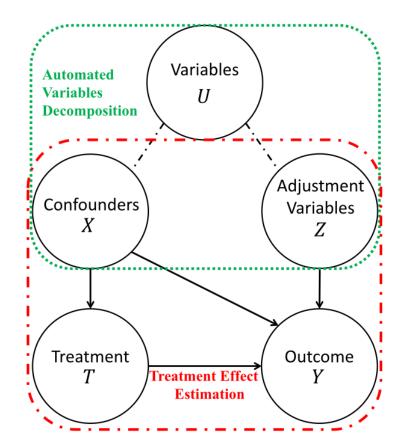
- Unbiased if propensity score or regression model is correct
- This property is referred to as double robustness
- But may be very biased if both models are incorrect

#### Propensity Score based Methods

- •Recap:
  - Propensity Score Matching
  - Inverse of Propensity Weighting
  - Doubly Robust
- Need to estimate propensity score
  - Treat all observed variables as confounders
  - In Big Data Era, High dimensional data
  - But not all variables are confounders



(a) Previous Causal Framework.



(b) Our Causal Framework.

- Separateness Assumption:
  - All observed variables U can be decomposed into three sets: Confounders X, Adjustment Variables Z, and Irrelevant variables I (Omitted).
- Propensity Score Estimation:

$$e(\mathbf{X}) = p(T = 1|\mathbf{X})$$

Adjusted Outcome:

$$Y^{+} = \left(Y^{obs} - \phi(\mathbf{Z})\right) \cdot \frac{T - e(\mathbf{X})}{e(\mathbf{X}) \cdot (1 - e(\mathbf{X}))}$$

Our D<sup>2</sup>VD ATE Estimator:

$$\widehat{ATE}_{D^2VD} = \widehat{E}(Y^+)$$

Kuang K, Cui P, Li B, et al. Treatment effect estimation with data-driven variable decomposition[C]//Thirty-First AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence. 2017.

- Confounders Separation & ATE Estimation.
- With our D<sup>2</sup>VD estimator:

$$\widehat{ATE}_{D^2VD} = \widehat{E}(Y^+) = E\left(\left(Y^{obs} - \phi(\mathbf{Z})\right) \cdot \frac{T - e(\mathbf{X})}{e(\mathbf{X}) \cdot (1 - e(\mathbf{X}))}\right)$$

By minimizing following objective function:

$$minimize ||Y^+ - h(\mathbf{U})||^2.$$

We can estimate the ATE as:

$$\widehat{ATE}_{D^2VD} = \widehat{E}(h(\mathbf{U}))$$

#### **Bias Analysis:**

Our D<sup>2</sup>VD algorithm is unbiased to estimate causal effect

THEOREM 1. Under assumptions 1-4, we have

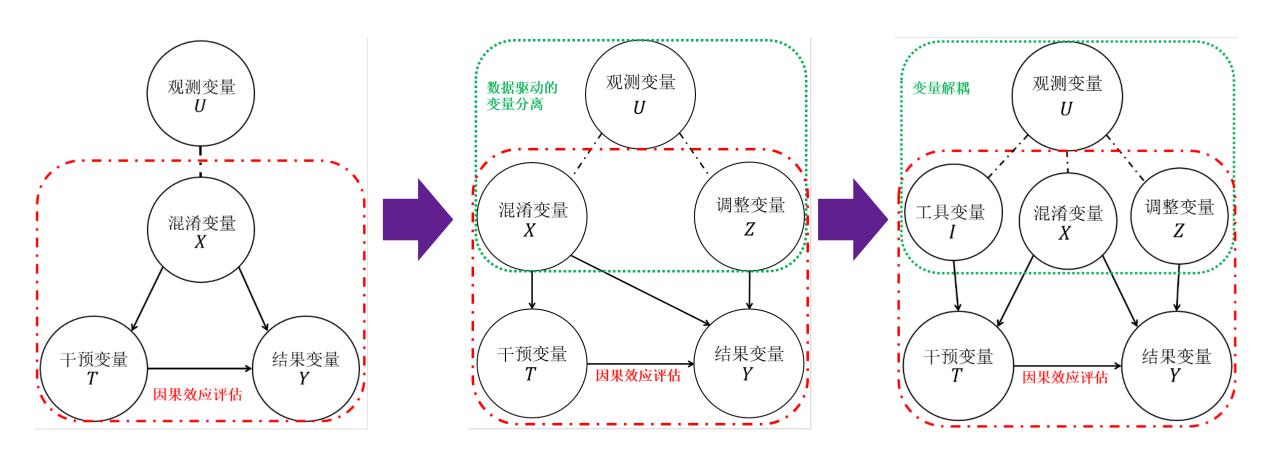
$$E(Y^+|X,Z) = E(Y(1) - Y(0)|X,Z).$$

#### **Variance Analysis:**

The asymptotic variance of Our D<sup>2</sup>VD algorithm is smaller

THEOREM 2. The asymptotic variance of our adjusted estimator  $\widehat{ATE}_{adj}$  is no greater than IPW estimator  $\widehat{ATE}_{IPW}$ :

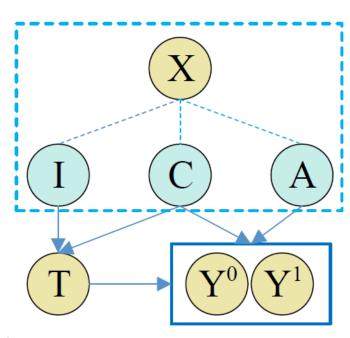
$$\sigma_{adj}^2 \le \sigma_{IPW}^2$$
.



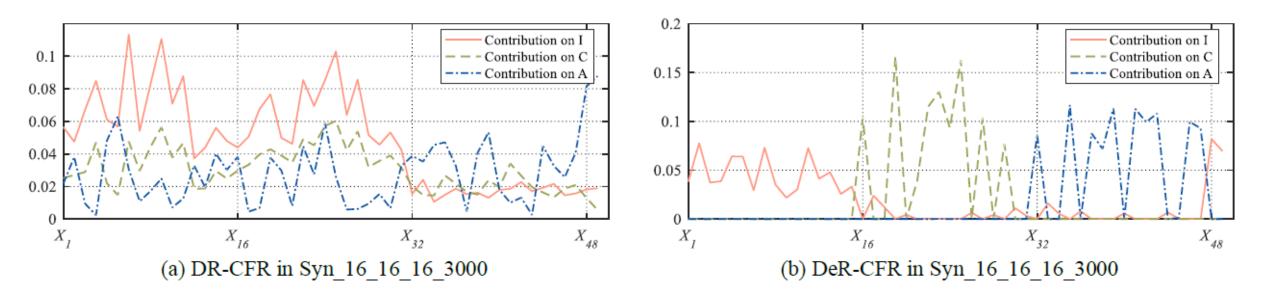
Wu A, Kuang K, Yuan J, et al. Learning Decomposed Representation for Counterfactual Inference[J]. arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.07040, 2020.

- Three decomposed representation networks
  - I(X), C(X), A(X)
- Three decomposition and balancing regularizers
  - Confounder identification:  $A(X) \perp T, I(X) \perp Y \mid T$
  - Confounder balancing:  $w \cdot C(X) \perp T$
- Two regression networks
  - Y(T = 1), Y(T = 0)
- Orthogonal Regularizer for Decomposition

$$\mathcal{L}_O = \bar{I}_W^T \cdot \bar{C}_W + \bar{C}_W^T \cdot \bar{A}_W + \bar{A}_W^T \cdot \bar{I}_W$$



Wu A, Kuang K, Yuan J, et al. Learning Decomposed Representation for Counterfactual Inference[J]. arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.07040, 2020.



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Table 1: The results on IHDP.

| IHDP         |                 |                     |                 |                     |  |  |
|--------------|-----------------|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|--|--|
| Mean +/- Std | Within          | -sample             | Out-of-sample   |                     |  |  |
| Methods      | PEHE            | $\epsilon_{ m ATE}$ | PEHE            | $\epsilon_{ m ATE}$ |  |  |
| CFR-MMD      | 0.702 +/- 0.037 | 0.284 +/- 0.036     | 0.795 +/- 0.078 | 0.309 +/- 0.039     |  |  |
| CFR-WASS     | 0.702 +/- 0.034 | 0.306 +/- 0.040     | 0.798 +/- 0.088 | 0.325 +/- 0.045     |  |  |
| CFR-ISW      | 0.598 +/- 0.028 | 0.210 +/- 0.028     | 0.715 +/- 0.102 | 0.218 +/- 0.031     |  |  |
| SITE         | 0.609 +/- 0.061 | 0.259 +/- 0.091     | 1.335 +/- 0.698 | 0.341 +/- 0.116     |  |  |
| DR-CFR       | 0.657 +/- 0.028 | 0.240 +/- 0.032     | 0.789 +/- 0.091 | 0.261 +/- 0.036     |  |  |
| DeR-CFR      | 0.444 +/- 0.020 | 0.130 +/- 0.020     | 0.529 +/- 0.068 | 0.147 +/- 0.022     |  |  |

Table 2: Ablation studies of DeR-CFR.

| C.              | <i>C</i> -      | C                    | C                 |                 | HE              |  |
|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--|
| $\mathcal{L}_A$ | $\mathcal{L}_I$ | $\mathcal{L}_{C\_B}$ | $\mathcal{L}_{O}$ | Within-sample   | Out-of-sample   |  |
| ✓               | ✓               | ✓                    | ✓                 | 0.444 +/- 0.020 | 0.529 +/- 0.068 |  |
| ✓               | ✓               | ✓                    |                   | 0.478 +/- 0.033 | 0.542 +/- 0.053 |  |
| ✓               | ✓               |                      | ✓                 | 0.482 +/- 0.039 | 0.565 +/- 0.075 |  |
| ✓               |                 | ✓                    | ✓                 | 0.479 +/- 0.030 | 0.560 +/- 0.071 |  |
|                 | <b>√</b>        | <b>√</b>             | ✓                 | 0.635 +/- 0.035 | 0.858 +/- 0.133 |  |

Wu A, Kuang K, Yuan J, et al. Learning Decomposed Representation for Counterfactual Inference[J]. arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.07040, 2020.

## Summary: Propensity Score based Methods

- Propensity Score Matching (PSM):
  - Units matching by their propensity score
- Inverse of Propensity Weighting (IPW):
  - Units reweighted by inverse of propensity score
- Doubly Robust (DR):
  - Combing IPW and regression
- Data-Driven Variable Decomposition (D²VD):
  - Automatically separate the confounders and adjustment variables
  - Confounder: estimate propensity score for IPW
  - Adjustment variables: regression on outcome for reducing variance
  - Improving accuracy and reducing variance on treatment effect estimation
- But these methods need propensity score model is correct

$$e(X) = P(T = 1|X)$$

Treat all observed variables as confounder, ignoring non-confounders

#### Methods for Causal Inference

- Matching
- Propensity Score Based Methods
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- Directly Confounder Balancing
  - Entropy Balancing
  - Approximate Residual Balancing
  - Differentiated Confounder Balancing (DCB)

### Directly Confounder Balancing

- Recap: Propensity score based methods
  - Sample reweighting for confounder balancing

 $w_i = \frac{T_i}{e_i} + \frac{1 - T_i}{1 - e_i}$ 

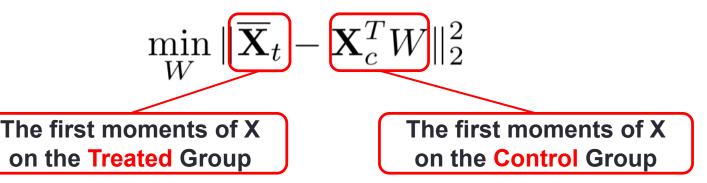
- But need propensity score model is correct
- Weights would be very large if propensity score is close to 0 or 1

 Can we directly learn sample weight that can balance confounders' distribution between treated and control?



## Directly Confounder Balancing

- **Motivation**: The collection of all the moments of variables uniquely determine their distributions.
- Methods: Learning sample weights by directly balancing confounders' moments as follows



With moments, the sample weights can be learned without any model specification.

### **Directly Confounder Balancing**

- **Motivation**: The collection of all the moments of variables uniquely determine their distributions.
- Methods: Learning sample weights by directly balancing confounders' moments as follows

$$\min_{W} \|\overline{\mathbf{X}}_t - \mathbf{X}_c^T W\|_2^2$$
 The first moments of X on the Treated Group The force on the Control Group

- Estimating ATT by:  $\widehat{ATT} = \sum_{i:T_i=1} \frac{1}{n_t} Y(1) - \sum_{j:T_j=0} W_j Y(0)$ 

## **Entropy Balancing**

$$\min_{W} W \log(W)$$

$$s.t. \quad \|\overline{\mathbf{X}}_{t} - \mathbf{X}_{c}^{T} W\|_{2}^{2} = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} W_{i} = 1, W \succeq 0$$

- Maximum the entropy of sample weights W
- Directly confounder balancing by sample weights W
- But, treat all variables as confounders and balance them equally

## Approximate Residual Balancing

1. compute approximate balancing weights W as

$$W = \operatorname{argmin}_{W} \left\{ (1 - \zeta) \|W\|_{2}^{2} + \zeta \|\overline{X}_{t} - \mathbf{X}_{c}^{\top} W\|_{\infty}^{2} \right\} \text{ s.t. } \sum_{\{i: T_{i} = 0\}} W_{i} = 1 \text{ and } W_{i} \ge 0$$

• 2. Fit  $\beta_c$  in the linear model using a lasso or elastic net,

$$\hat{\beta}_{c} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{\{i:W_i = 0\}} \left( Y_i^{\text{obs}} - X_i \cdot \beta \right)^2 + \lambda \left( (1 - \alpha) \|\beta\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\beta\|_1 \right) \right\}$$

3. Estimate the ATT as

$$\widehat{ATT} = \overline{Y}_t - \left( \overline{X}_t \cdot \hat{\beta}_c + \sum_{\{i: T_i = 0\}} W_i \left( Y_i^{\text{obs}} - X_i \cdot \hat{\beta}_c \right) \right)$$

- Double Robustness: Exact confounder balancing or regression is correct.
- But, treats all variables as confounders and balance them equally

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  - Differentiated Confounder Balancing (DCB)

#### Differentiated Confounder Balancing

• Ideas: simultaneously learn confounder weights  $\beta$  and sample weighs W.

$$\min \left( \beta^T \cdot (\overline{\mathbf{X}}_t - \mathbf{X}_c^T W) \right)^2$$

- Confounder weights determine which variable is confounder and its contribution on confounding bias.
- Sample weights are designed for confounder balancing.

#### Confounder Weights Learning

• General relationship among *X*, *T*, and *Y*:

$$Y = f(\mathbf{X}) + T \cdot g(\mathbf{X}) + \epsilon \longrightarrow ATT = E(g(\mathbf{X}_t))$$
$$Y(0) = f(\mathbf{X}) + \epsilon$$

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{X} + \sum_{ij} a_{ij} X_i X_j + \sum_{ijk} a_{ijk} X_i X_j X_k + \dots + R_n(\mathbf{X})$$
$$= \mathbf{M}. \qquad \mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{X}, X_i X_j, X_i X_j X_k, \dots).$$

Confounder weights

Confounding bias

$$\widehat{ATT} = ATT + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \alpha_k \sum_{i:T_i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n_t} M_{i,k} - \sum_{j:T_j=0}^{n} W_j M_{j,k} + \phi(\epsilon).$$

If  $\alpha_k = 0$ , then  $M_k$  is not confounder, no need to balance. Different confounders have different confounding weights.

## Confounder Weights Learning

#### **Propositions:**

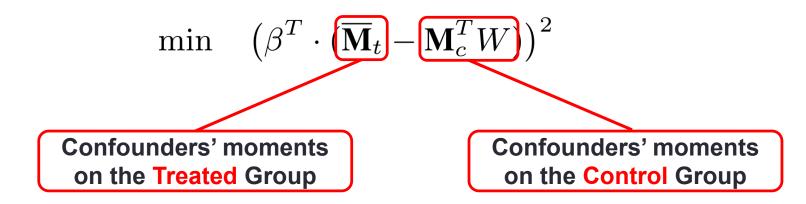
- In observational studies, **not all** observed variables are confounders, and different confounders make **unequal** confounding bias on ATT with their own weights.
- The **confounder weights** can be learned by regressing potential outcome Y(0) on augmented variables M.

$$\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{X}, X_i X_j, X_i X_j X_k, \cdots).$$

## Sample Weights Learning

$$\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{X}, X_i X_j, X_i X_j X_k, \cdots).$$

- Any variable's distribution can be uniquely determined by the collection of all its moments.
- Learning the sample weights W by directly confounder balancing with confounders' moments.



With moments, the sample weights can be learned without any model specification.

#### Differentiated Confounder Balancing

Objective Function

min 
$$(\beta^T \cdot (\overline{\mathbf{M}}_t - \mathbf{M}_c^T W))^2 + \lambda \sum_{j:T_j=0} (1 + W_j) \cdot (Y_j - M_j \cdot \beta)^2,$$
  
s.t.  $||W||_2^2 \le \delta, ||\beta||_2^2 \le \mu, ||\beta||_1 \le \nu, \mathbf{1}^T W = 1 \text{ and } W \succeq 0$ 

The ENT[3] and ARB[4] algorithms are special case of our DCB algorithm by setting the confounder weights as unit vector.

Our DCB algorithm is more generalize for treatment effect estimation.

#### Experiments - Robustness Test

More results see our paper!

|             | n/p                   | n = 2000, p = 50     |       | n = 2000, p = 100 |                      |       |       |
|-------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-------|-------------------|----------------------|-------|-------|
| $r_c$       | Estimator             | Bias (SD)            | MAE   | RMSE              | Bias (SD)            | MAE   | RMSE  |
|             | $\widehat{ATT}_{dir}$ | 51.06 (3.725)        | 51.06 | 51.19             | 143.0 (9.389)        | 143.0 | 143.3 |
|             | $\widehat{ATT}_{IPW}$ | 29.99 (4.048)        | 29.99 | 30.26             | 98.24 (8.462)        | 98.24 | 98.60 |
| $r_c = 0.8$ | $\widehat{ATT}_{DR}$  | 0.345 (0.253)        | 0.367 | 0.428             | 4.492 (0.333)        | 4.492 | 4.504 |
|             | $\widehat{ATT}_{ENT}$ | 15.06 (1.745)        | 15.06 | 15.16             | 63.02 (4.551)        | 63.02 | 63.19 |
|             | $\widehat{ATT}_{ARB}$ | 0.231 (0.645)        | 0.553 | 0.685             | 2.909 (0.491)        | 2.909 | 2.951 |
|             | $\widehat{ATT}_{DCB}$ | <b>0.003</b> (0.127) | 0.102 | 0.127             | <b>0.020</b> (0.135) | 0.114 | 0.136 |

- *Directly estimator* fails in all settings, since it ignores confounding bias.
- *IPW and DR estimators* make huge error when facing high dimensional variables or the model specifications are incorrect.
- *ENT and ARB estimators* have poor performance since they balance all variables equally.

#### Experiments - Robustness Test

More results see our paper!

|             | n/p                   | n = 2000, p = 50     |       | n = 2000, p = 100 |                                |       |       |
|-------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-------|-------------------|--------------------------------|-------|-------|
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|             | $\widehat{ATT}_{ARB}$ | 0.231 (0.645)        | 0.553 | 0.685             | 2. <u>909</u> ( <u>0.4</u> 91) | 2.909 | 2.951 |
|             | $\widehat{ATT}_{DCB}$ | <b>0.003</b> (0.127) | 0.102 | 0.127             | <b>0.020</b> (0.135)           | 0.114 | 0.136 |

Our DCB estimator achieves significant improvements over the baselines in different settings.

Our DCB estimator is very robust!

### **Experiments - Accuracy Test**

Results of ATT estimation

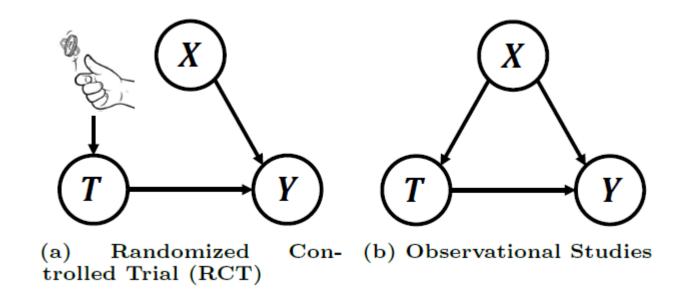
| Variables Set         | V-RAW           |                  | V-INTERACTION   |                 |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Estimator             | $\widehat{ATT}$ | Bias (SD)        | $\widehat{ATT}$ | Bias (SD)       |
| $\widehat{ATT}_{dir}$ | -8471           | 10265 (374)      | -8471           | 10265 (374)     |
| $\widehat{ATT}_{IPW}$ | -4481           | 6275 (971)       | -4365           | 6159 (1024)     |
| $\widehat{ATT}_{DR}$  | 1154            | 639 (491)        | 1590            | 204 (812)       |
| $\widehat{ATT}_{ENT}$ | 1535            | 259 (995)        | 1405            | 388 (787)       |
| $\widehat{ATT}_{ARB}$ | 1537            | 257 (996)        | 1627            | 167 (957)       |
| $\widehat{ATT}_{DCB}$ | 1958            | <b>164</b> (728) | 1836            | <b>43</b> (716) |

Our DCB estimator is more accurate than the baselines.

Our DCB estimator achieve a better confounder balancing under V-INTERACTION setting.

### Summary: Directly Confounder Balancing

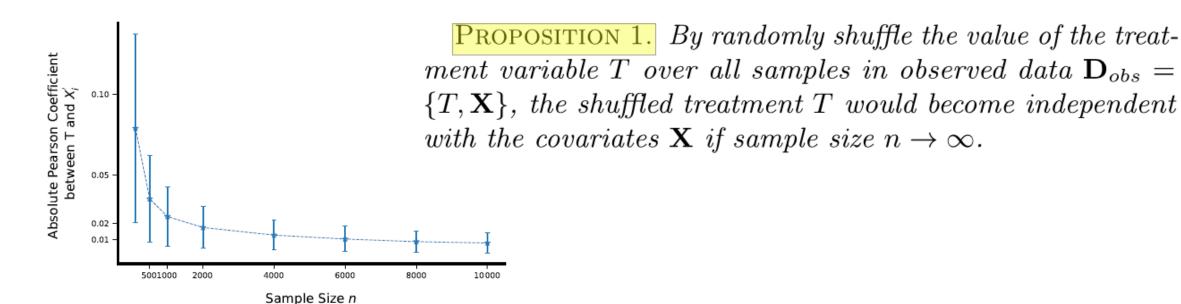
- Motivation: Moments can uniquely determine distribution
- Entropy Balancing
  - Confounder balancing with maximizing entropy of sample weights
- Approximate Residual Balancing
  - Combine confounder balancing and regression for doubly robust
- Treat all variables as confounders, and balance them equally
- But different confounders make different bias
- Differentiated Confounder Balancing (DCB)
  - Theoretical proof on the necessary of differentiation on confounders
  - Improving the accuracy and robust on treatment effect estimation



- Binary Treatment
  - T=0 or T=1
  - $T \perp X$ : confounder balancing
- Multi-valued Treatment
  - T=0,1,2,...
  - $T \perp X$ : confounder balancing
- Continuous Treatment
  - How to make  $T \perp X$ ?

Li R, Kuang K, Li B, et al. Continuous Treatment Effect Estimation via Generative Adversarial De-confounding[C]//KDD workshop 2020.

- Our goal:  $T \perp X$
- Variable randomly shuffle to achieve independence



Li R, Kuang K, Li B, et al. Continuous Treatment Effect Estimation via Generative Adversarial De-confounding[C]//KDD workshop 2020.

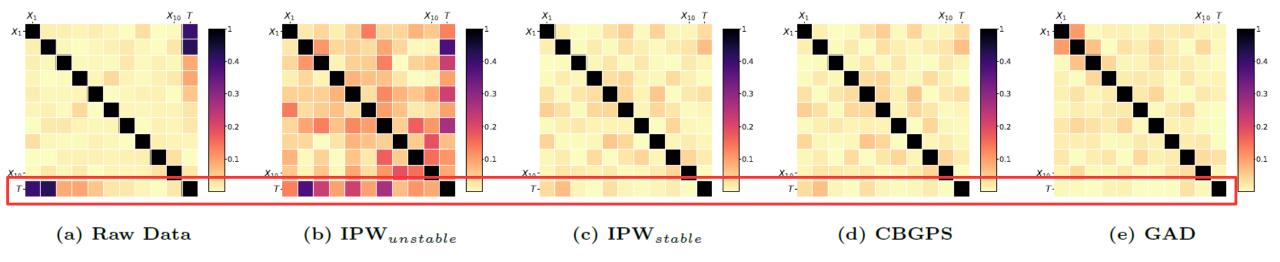
- Our goal:  $T \perp X$
- "calibration" distribution generation

$$\mathbf{D}_{cal} = \{T', \mathbf{X}'\}$$

- "calibration" distribution approximation
  - Learning sample weights for distribution matching  $D_{obs} = \{T, X\}$
  - GAN based methods: Generative Adversarial De-confounding (GAD)

$$L(\mathbf{w}, d) = \mathbb{E}_{(t,x) \sim \mathbf{D}_{cal}}[l(d(t,x), 1]] + \mathbb{E}_{(t,x) \sim \mathbf{D}_{obs}}[w_{(t,x)} \cdot l(d(t,x), 0]],$$

$$s.t. \quad \mathbb{E}_{(t,x) \sim \mathbf{D}_{obs}}[w_{(t,x)}] = 1, \mathbf{w} \succeq 0,$$



| Method                  |                        | TWINS                  |                        |
|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
|                         | $\mathrm{BIAS}_{MTEF}$ | $\mathrm{RMSE}_{MTEF}$ | $\mathrm{RMSE}_{ADRF}$ |
| OLS                     | 0.208(0.079)           | 0.236(0.089)           | 0.686(0.350)           |
| $IPW_{unstable}$        | 1.385(0.757)           | 1.532(0.890)           | 5.506(2.061)           |
| $\mathrm{IPW}_{stable}$ | 1.693(1.599)           | 1.878(1.849)           | 6.982(4.453)           |
| ISMW                    | 0.165(0.062)           | 0.181(0.069)           | 0.962(0.214)           |
| CBGPS                   | 0.187(0.137)           | 0.216(0.158)           | 0.683(0.380)           |
| $\operatorname{GAD}$    | 0.127(0.039)           | 0.144(0.046)           | 0.383(0.091)           |

### Summary: Methods for Causal Inference

- Matching Limited to low-dimensional settings
- Propensity Score Based Methods
  - Propensity Score Matching
  - Inverse of Propensity Weighting (IPW)
  - Doubly Robust
  - Data-Driven Variable Decomposition (D<sup>2</sup>VD)
- Directly Confounder Balancing
  - Entropy Balancing
  - Approximate Residual Balancing
  - Differentiated Confounder Balancing (DCB)
- Generative Adversarial De-confounding

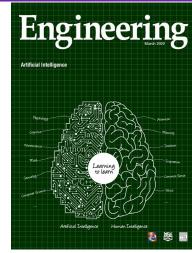
Treat all observed variables as confounder

Not all observed variables are confounders

Balance all confounder equally

Different confounders make different bias





况琨,李廉,耿直,徐雷,张坤,廖备水, 黄华新,丁鹏,苗旺,蒋智超

Kuang, K., Li, L., Geng, Z., Xu, L., Zhang, K., Liao, B., Huang, H., Ding, P., Miao, W., Jiang, Z. (2020). Causal Inference. *Engineering*. <a href="http://www.engineering.org.cn/ch/10.1016/j.eng.2019.08.016">http://www.engineering.org.cn/ch/10.1016/j.eng.2019.08.016</a>

#### 具体内容

- 况琨: 平均因果效应评估-简要回顾与展望
- 李廉: 反事实推理的归因问题
- 耿直: 辛普森悖论和替代指标悖论
- 徐雷: 因果发现CPT (因果势理论) 方法
- 张坤: 从观测数据中发现因果关系
- •廖备水,黄华新:形式论辩在因果推理和解释中的作用
- 丁鹏:复杂实验中的因果推断
- 苗旺:观察性研究中的工具变量和阴性对照方法
- 蒋智超: 有干扰下的因果推断

Kuang, K., Li, L., Geng, Z., Xu, L., Zhang, K., Liao, B., Huang, H., Ding, P., Miao, W., Jiang, Z. (2020). Causal Inference. *Engineering*. http://www.engineering.org.cn/ch/10.1016/j.eng.2019.08.016

#### De-biased Court's View Generation with Causality (EMNLP20)

| PLAINTIFF'S<br>CLAIM | The plaintiff A claimed that the defendant B should return the loan of \$29,500 Principle Claim and the corresponding interest Interest Claim.   |
|----------------------|--|
| FACT<br>DESCRIPTION  | After the hearing, the court held the facts as follows: The defendant B borrowed \$29,500 from the plaintiff A, and agreed to return after one month. After the loan expired, the defendant failed to return <sup>Fact</sup> .   |
| COURT'S<br>VIEW      | The court concluded that the loan relationship between the plaintiff A and the defendant B is valid. The defendant failed to return the money on time <sup>Rationale</sup> . Therefore, the plaintiff's claim on principle was supported <sup>Acceptance</sup> according to law. The court did not support the plaintiff's claim on interest <sup>Rejection</sup> because the evidence was insufficient <sup>Rationale</sup> . |

| Input:              | Output:                           |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------|
| ☐ Plaintiff's claim | ☐ Court's View, which consists of |
| ☐ Fact description  | □ Rationale                       |
|                     | □ Judgment                        |

Court's view generation is a specific text generation task

Yiquan Wu, Kun Kuang\*, Yating Zhang, Xiaozhong Liu, Changlong Sun, Jun Xiao, Yueting Zhuang, Luo Si and Fei Wu. De-biased Court's View Generation with Causality, EMNLP, 2020

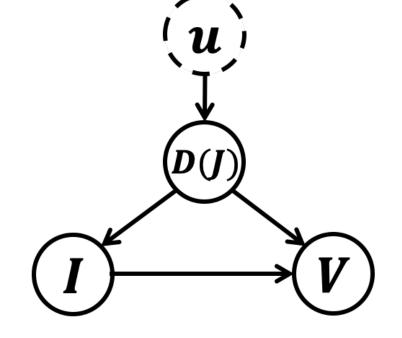
#### Challenges

| PLAINTIFF'S<br>CLAIM | The plaintiff A claimed that the defendant B should return the loan of \$29,500 Principle Claim and the corresponding interest Interest Claim.   |
|----------------------|--|
| FACT<br>DESCRIPTION  | After the hearing, the court held the facts as follows: The defendant B borrowed \$29,500 from the plaintiff A, and agreed to return after one month. After the loan expired, the defendant failed to return <sup>Fact</sup> .   |
| COURT'S<br>VIEW      | The court concluded that the loan relationship between the plaintiff A and the defendant B is valid. The defendant failed to return the money on time **Rationale** according to law. The court did not support the plaintiff's claim on interest **Rejection** because the evidence was insufficient **Rationale**. |

- ☐ There exists 'no claim, no trial' principle in civil legal systems
  - court's view should only focus on the facts related to the claims
- ☐ The **imbalance** of judgment in civil cases
  - over 76% of cases were supported in private lending
  - would blind the training of the model by focusing on the supported cases while ignoring the non-supported cases

#### Imbalance: Mechanism Confounding Bias

- ☐ Imbalance between supported and non-supported cases
  - ☐ Lead to confounding bias during model training
- ☐ Understanding confounding bias with a causal graph:
  - u: unobserved data generation mechanism
  - $\square$  D(J): judgment in dataset
  - ☐ I: input (i.e., plaintiff's claim and fact description)
  - ☐ V: court's view
- Understanding confounding bias mathematically
  - ☐ j: judgment (support and non-support):



$$P(V|I) = \sum_{j} P(V|I,j)P(j|I)$$

$$P(j=1|I)\approx 1$$

 $P(V|I)\approx P(V|I,j=1)$ 

#### Attentional and Counterfactual based NLG

- ☐ Attentional encoder:
  - ☐ Claim-aware attention
- ☐ Counterfactual decoder:
  - ☐ Back-door adjustment: from observation to intervention
  - □ Cut the dependence between D(J) and I via counterfactual modeling

$$P(V|I) = \sum_{j} P(V|I,j)P(j|I)$$

Back-door

$$P(V|do(I)) = \sum_{i} P(V|I,j)P(j)$$

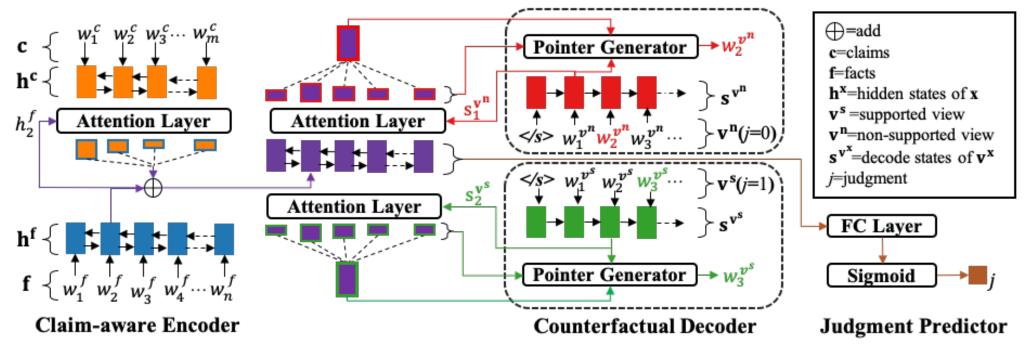


Binary j

odeling 
$$V$$
 $V$ 

$$P(V|do(I)) = P(V|I, j = 0)P(j = 0) + P(V|I, j = 1)P(j = 1)$$

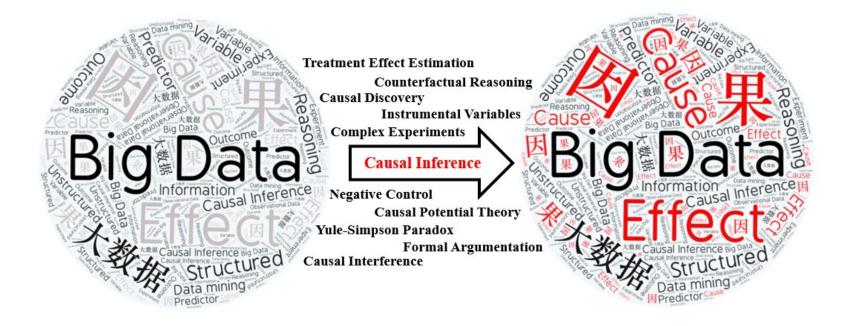
#### Our Framework



#### AC-NLG is a multi-task model with:

- ☐ Claim-aware encoder
  - ☐ Claim embedding
  - ☐ Fact embedding
  - □ Claim-Fact attention

- ☐ Counterfactual decoders
  - ☐ Supportive court's view generation
  - □ Non-supportive court's view generation
- ☐ Judgment predictor



#### Thank You!

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Homepage: <a href="https://kunkuang.github.io/">https://kunkuang.github.io/</a>