

# Part 2 – Intervention and Causal Inference

- Understanding the effect of an intervention can address many hard problems in IR system
  - *Consequence* of changing algorithm, data pipeline, webpage design, ...
  - *Knowledge* about how users make decision (mechanism of the environment)
  - *Long-term utility / fairness* of our decision
- Standard statistical models no longer satisfy this purpose, because:
  - Intervention can be hypothetical and violating the natural course of observed data
  - Intervention can create alternative interpretations that may or may not be captured by regular rules, e.g. by conditional probability.
- The language of *causal inference* fills in the gap
  - Significantly emphasizes intervention within existing probability framework.

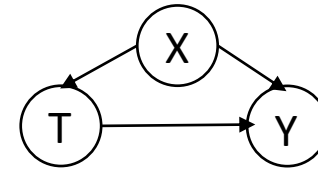
# Pearl & Rubin causal model

- Recall that we wish to characterize everything related to *making intervention*. The solution from *Pearl's structural causal model*:

- Joint distribution of the data, generated from the basic noise variable  $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^d$
- A collection of equations that formalize the *assumptions* of how the variables interact, e.g.

$$X_i := f_i(Pa(X_i), U_i), i = 1, \dots, d$$

- A graphical model that represent the assignment structure



- Assigning values to certain variables specify a *response function*, via *do-operation*

$$p(Y \mid do(T := t)) \quad (\text{different from } p(Y \mid T = t))$$

- Average causal effect of an intervention -> difference in the substitutions to the assignment:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid do(T := 1)] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid do(T := 0)]$$

# Pearl & Rubin causal model

- From *conditional statement* to *interventional statement*
  - The biggest disagreement occurs with **confounding** – doing  $X=x$  may change something else and fail to coincide with conditional probability
  - But we can *control for* the confounding factors (marginalization):

$$p(Y = y \mid do(T = t)) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(Y = y \mid T = t, Pa(T) = x) \cdot p(Pa(T) = x)$$

- The above *adjustment formula* allows us to estimate average causal effect from data. What about causal (**counterfactual**) questions other than the causal effect?
  - Observed evidence -> propagate the evidence to update the posterior of exogenous variables, e.g.  $p(Pa(T) = x) \rightarrow p'(Pa(T) = x)$
  - Perform do-operation as usual with the updated distributions

# Pearl & Rubin causal model

- If the assignment is *randomized* and the *intervention* takes the form of (binary) *treatment*, Rubin's model focus on the *potential outcome*
  - With  $n$  units,  $(Y_1(i), Y_0(i))$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  give the outcome under treatment/o.w.
  - It reflects the effect of intervention (treatment) more directly --  
 $T(i) \in \{0, 1\}$  as boolean treatment indicator, then  $Y(i) = T(i)Y_1(i) + (1 - T(i))Y_0(i)$
  - *Average causal effect* can be straightforwardly estimated, although we can only observe one potential outcome – suppose coin-toss assignment:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y(i) | T(i) = 1] = Y_1(i), \quad \mathbb{E}[Y(i) | T(i) = 0] = Y_0(i)$$

- Let  $\bar{Y}_1, \bar{Y}_0$  be the population average of  $(Y_1(i), Y_0(i))$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$   
then *average causal effect* =  $\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0$ , because

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y(i), | T(i) = t\right] = \bar{Y}_t \quad t \in \{0, 1\}$$

# The causal inference languages

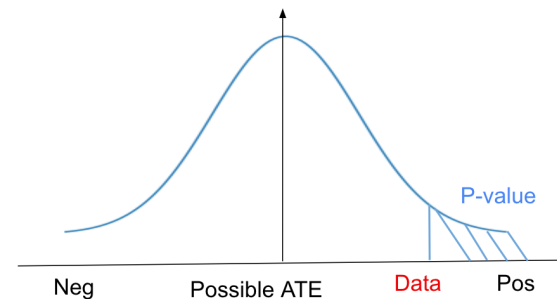
- Despite the many conceptual debates, both models are useful for IR sys:
  - What variables can be intervened?
  - Is it possible to observe all confounding variables?
  - Reliability and usefulness of the structures among variables?
  - Source of randomness?
  - ...
  - A/B testing, offline studies, explainable IR, bias / fairness, ...
- *Causality and intervention beyond average causal effect:*
  - Which direction –  $p(X, Y) = p(Y | X)p(X)$  or  $p(X, Y) = p(X | Y)p(Y)$
  - Ohm's law, altitude & temperature
  - *Intervention -> Invariance -> Independence & Causality*
  - This view will be useful for pattern recognition (later)

# Design and inference

- How do we test whether an *intervention* can achieve desired outcome?
  - To exclude bias from all potential confounding, we design coin-toss assignment (as in Rubin's model and compute **average causal effect**
  - If it is positive, is it positive just by chance? (*inference*: draw conclusion under uncertainty)
  - We shall use a *stochastic proof by contradiction*:

$H_0$  : non-positive vs.  $H_1$  : positive. How about  $p(\text{more positive than what the data tells?} \mid H_0 \text{ is true})$ ? \*

- Intuitively, we can access  $p(\text{some function of data} \mid H_0 \text{ is true})$  -- because of the design.
- **Hypothesis testing and p-value**
  - The above example is an instance of hypothesis testing
  - Central to the inference is **p-value**



\*: we use this type off non-rigorous notation for the sake of space.



# Design and inference

- *Hypothesis testing, p-value, significance level, and confidence region:*

- What criteria to use? Reject  $H_0$  if  $p\text{-val} < \alpha$  – then  $p(\text{false positive}) < \alpha$ !
- Significance level  $\alpha$
- Taking a detailed look at  $p\text{-val} < \alpha$  for *average treatment effect*  $Z = \bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0$

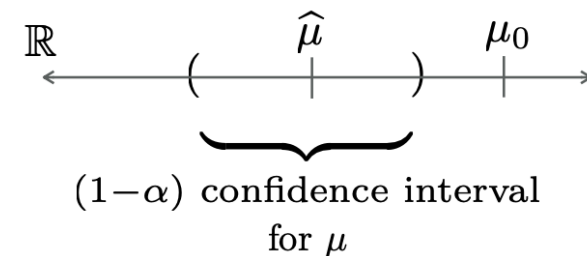
Suppose the potential outcome are 1-subgaussian, equal sample in the *treatment group* and *control group*. Using previous concentration result:

$$p\left(Z \leq \sqrt{\frac{2 \log(1/\alpha)}{n}}\right) \leq \alpha \leftrightarrow \text{reject } H_0 \text{ when } 0 \notin \left[\hat{z} - \frac{2 \log(1/\alpha)}{n}, \infty\right]$$

- There is an equivalence between rejecting based on *p-value* and *confidence region* for  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$

$$p\text{-value} \leq \alpha \leftrightarrow \mu_0 \notin [LCB(n_1, n_2, \alpha), UCB(n_1, n_2, \alpha)]$$

where LCB, UCB are the lower/upper confidence bound.



# A/B testing, metric, continuous monitoring

- When comparing two systems online, users are randomly bucketed and assigned to experience each system (A/B testing). Practically:
  - If there is a performance difference, we hope to detect it / reject the null hypothesis asap.
  - P-value is constantly checked to monitor the progress.
- The *sensitivity* of metric
  - For IR sys, online testing metrics have more room to explore
  - Reduce the variance of a single metric, or combine multiple metrics smartly
  - **Rao-Blackwell Theorem**: using sufficient statistics to construct metric with smaller variance

$$\mathbb{E}[(\theta - \mathbb{E}[\theta | T])^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[(\theta - \hat{\theta})^2], \text{ for all } \hat{\theta}$$

- **Linear Discriminant Analysis**: linear combination of metrics that optimizes Z-score

$$\max_{\theta} \frac{\bar{Z}_1 - \bar{Z}_0}{\sqrt{\text{var}(\bar{Z}_1 - \bar{Z}_0)}} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad Z = \theta^T [Y^{(1)}, \dots, Y^{(d)}]$$



# A/B testing, metric, continuous monitoring

- Recall that *significance level*  $\alpha$  is designed for *one-time control* of false positive rate *under fixed sample size*
  - Let  $P^{(n)}$  be the p-value obtained from the *first- $n$*  samples
  - Under null hypothesis, given a fixed  $n$ , it holds  $p(P^{(n)} \leq \alpha) \leq \alpha$  (**uniformity**)
  - In *continuous monitoring*, the test is continued if  $p\text{-val} > \alpha$ , so the real *stopping time* is
$$\tau := \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} : P^{(n)} \leq \alpha\}$$
  - Note that  $p(P^\tau \leq \alpha)$  can be much bigger than  $\alpha$ . (why?) False positive becomes very likely!
- How to make sure p-value is *always valid*, e.g. satisfy uniformity?
  - Recall that  $p\text{-value} \leq \alpha \leftrightarrow \mu_0 \notin [LCB(n_1, n_2, \alpha), UCB(n_1, n_2, \alpha)]$
  - The previous confidence regions are derived for the average of i.i.d variables
  - Under continuous monitoring,  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  are dependent, so  $\bar{Y}$  is a random walk.
  - Using concentration bound for random walk!



# Continuous monitoring, best-arm identification

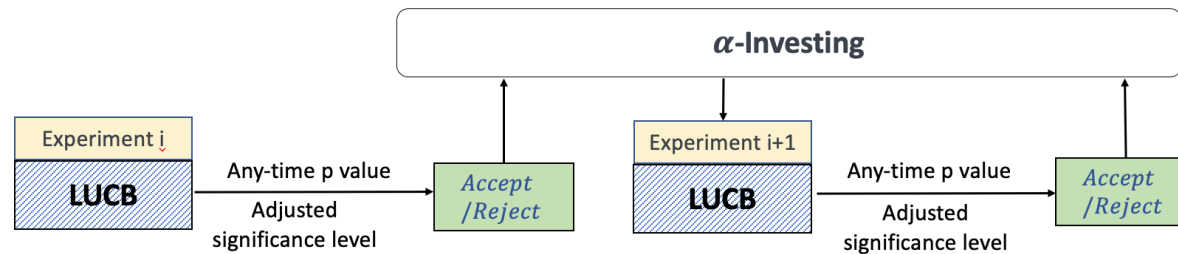
- Develop confidence regions for random walks -> *always valid* p-value:
  - Confidence band for i.i.d average:  $\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\alpha)}{n}}\right)$
  - Confidence band for random walk average:  $\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\log \log n + C \log(1/\alpha)}{n}}\right)$  [ZZS+16]
  - Achieves  $p\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mu_0 \notin [LCB(n, \alpha), UCB(n, \alpha)]\right) \leq \alpha$  under null hypothesis  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$
- By making p-value any-time, we have more choices with adaptive testing:
  - *Adaptively* update the pool of candidates, without sacrificing the rigor of testing
  - Be smarter in traffic directing – good candidates deserves more samples, while exploring bad candidates just enough to safely eliminate / replace them
  - **Best-arm identification** algorithm that also relies on upper/lower confidence bounds

# Best-arm identification, sequential testing

- Best-arm identification with pure exploration methods:
  - Always-valid p-value allows us be more adaptive (creative) in finding the best candidate system
  - **LUCB** method for pure exploration
    1. obtain equal amount of initial feedback for each system
    2. keep the traffic to the *current-best*, *second-best* and the *control system* ( $a^*$ ,  $a^{**}$ ,  $a^0$ )
    3. Update  $a^*$ ,  $a^{**}$ , and iterate with step 2 until:  $[LCB \text{ of } a^*] > [UCB \text{ of } a^{**} \text{ and } a^0]$
- Integrate testing with LUCB
  - Can we just compute the always-valid p-value when LUCB stops, and decide how to proceed?
  - If we do this multiple times, the significance level  $\alpha$  no longer guarantees the *online false discovery rate (FDR)* of the sequence of tests. (why?)
  - The significance level also needs to be updated every time an *accept/reject decision* is made
  - **$\alpha$ -investing** method for online FDR control: “invest” (discount)  $\alpha$  each time when a testing is called, “reward” (increase)  $\alpha$  when making discovery. [FS08]

# Best-arm identification, sequential testing

- What cause the inherent difficulty of the algorithm? It has been shown with a information-theoretical lower bound that:
  - How “spread-out” the gaps are
  - The gap between the best and second-best arm



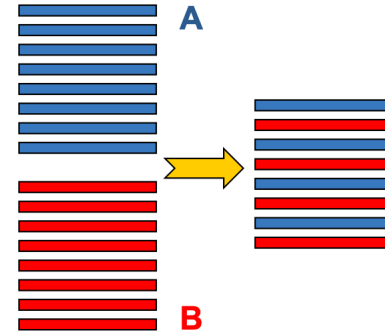
- power? adding context? ....
- Some fundamental issues for A/B testing
  - absolute feedback, vulnerable to *between-subject* variability (by how much?)
  - when comparing ranking outcomes in particular, design *within-subject* relative comparison?

# Interleaving and dueling

- Interleaving -- eliminate noise by letting user compare both alternatives

[YJ09]

- more robust to users' decision bias
- less affect user experience
- clicks directly reflect users' preference for A vs. B



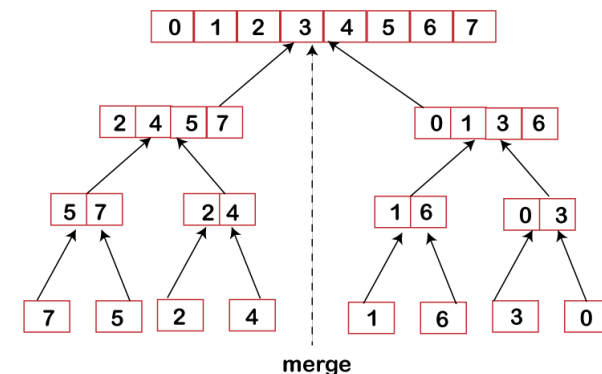
- Set up interleaved outputs – again, room to optimize *sensitivity*
  - *Balanced interleaving, Team Draft, Probabilistic Interleave*
  - A **probability distribution** to show a particular combination (think about randomized treatment assignment)
  - A **scoring rule** to interpret click -- a measure for treatment effect,  $H_0 : \text{score}_A = \text{score}_B$
- *Optimization* via random user model and max-entropy principle:
  - **Optimization variable**: probability to show each page
  - **Constraint**: a model of random user, express no preference
  - **Objective**: maximizing the *entropy* (uncertainty of having a winner)

# Interleaving and dueling

- Making interleaving test *adaptive* with  $K$  ranking systems
  - “Dueling” – create a schedule for *pairwise comparison* to find the best candidate
  - The idea of *using lower/upper confidence bounds* to compare under uncertainty is still valid
  - **Key challenge:** pairwise comparison to determine total order with  $K$  systems,  $\mathcal{O}(K^2)$  ?
- Example: interleaved filter
  - randomly pick  $a^*$  to compare with all others
  - repeat until finding  $a^{**}$  whose LCB/UCB goes beyond those of  $a^*$
  - elimination, repeat

- Integrating with algorithms from *sorting*

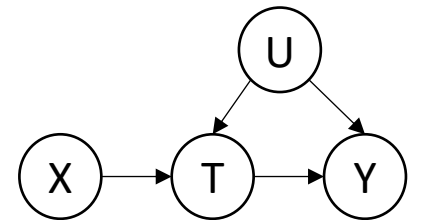
- Reduce the number of dueling needed to determine the order
- Achieves  $\mathcal{O}(K^2) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(K)$
- How many samples are needed? (topics for later)
- Compatible with adaptive online testing? (reduction to cardinal bandit [AKJ14])





# Thinking about the assumptions

- Acute audience may find a critical background missing – what makes *randomized intervention* work for causal inference in the first place?
  - **Stable Unit Treatment Value Assumption (SUTVA)**  
*treatment one unit receives does not change the effect for another unit*
  - **Consistency**  
*true outcome agrees with the potential outcome given the treatment indicator*
  - **Ignorability**  
*potential outcome conditionally independent of treatment given defounding variables*
- Unfortunately, they are all violated to a degree in IR sys...
  - Spillover, network and equilibrium effect
  - Leap between *exposure as measured* and *exposure as intervened*?
  - In the presence of unobserved confounding, are potential outcome **missing-at-random (MAR)**? More importantly, can causal inference problem be treated as a missing data problem?



# Observational studies and offline learning

- When the ability to launch randomized intervention is limited, or would like to mine the logged data from experimentation
  - Does the problem reduce to *pattern recognition with feedback data*?
  - Incorporate *causal knowledge* to address the *partial observability* of potential outcome?
- Problem solved if we estimate “?” →
- Studying causal problem as missing data problem attracts huge attention in IR
- Unfortunately, these two aren't the same [PM18]
  - Domain **overlapping**?
  - **Identifiability** of causal mechanism (invariant mechanism)?
  - When **imputing** missing data require unsupported **extrapolation** ...

Unit	Treatment status $T_i$	Outcome under treatment $Y_i(1)$	Outcome under no treatment $Y_i(0)$	Covariates $X_i$
1	1	✓	?	✓
2	1	✓	?	✓
3	0	?	✓	✓
4	0	?	✓	✓

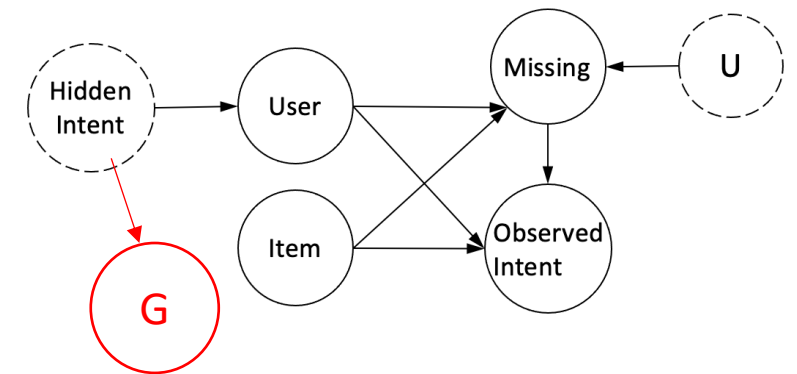
# Is observational studies a missing data problem?

- Admittedly, if the missing mechanism is simple enough, life becomes much easier:
  - If feedback is *missing completely at random* (**MCAR**), which means the *missing mechanism* – which we can consider as treatment, is assigned by coin toss
  - If feedback is *missing at random* (**MAR**), the missing mechanism is still random but may depend on some confounding factors
  - In both cases, *average causal effect* can be effectively estimated using previous techniques
- When feedback is missing not at random (**MNAR**)
  - Can be caused by *missing with certainty*, e.g. some items have zero chance to be exposed
  - The crucial **positivity** assumption is violated, and positivity is needed to ensure **overlap** between treatment / control group
  - If a subgroup of subjects always receives the *same intervention*, we cannot estimate the effect of intervention changes on that subgroup *without further assumptions*
  - What further assumptions are needed? – e.g **identifiability** of certain causal pathways [MP21]

# Is observational studies a missing data problem?

- In IR system, user selection bias -> *hidden intent* often causes the missingness of the *observable intent*
- “Self-masking” – extremely challenging
- How to use survey data to estimate the average income of low-income family when they family don’t have money to install phone and answer the survey?

-- Nobel-winning solution in Economics, *Heckman correction*



- Generally impossible to impute the missing feedback (unobserved intent) with guarantee, unless:

- The pathway  $\{U \rightarrow \text{missingness}\}$  is known and satisfy *positivity* (e.g. fully randomized recommendations with known policy)
- *Side information* about the hidden intent, e.g. hidden intent causes the clustering geometry of users (**Node G**), which is often observed in IR data
- The pathway of  $\{\text{hidden intent} \rightarrow G\}$ , which is an *independent mechanism*, will assist extrapolation as we discuss later.

[XY22]

# Double learning and targeted maximum likelihood learning

- Can we leverage modern ML methods as estimators, and plug their predictions for estimating average causal effect  $\psi$ ?

- Recall the *adjustment formula*

$$p(Y = y \mid do(T = t)) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(Y = y \mid T = t, Pa(T) = x) \cdot p(Pa(T) = x)$$

- Let  $X = Pa(T)$  -- use neural network to obtain  $\hat{p}(Y \mid T, X)$
  - Big issue: most *finite-sample* ML-based estimator are biased! (e.g. the use of regularization)  
confidence interval obtained in the usual way may not cover the true average causal effect!

- How about  $\hat{\psi}^Q := 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Q}(1, x) - \hat{Q}(0, x))$ ,  $\hat{Q}(t, x) = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid t, x]$ ?

-- not using  $\textcircled{X} \rightarrow \textcircled{T} \rightarrow \textcircled{Y}$  : X affect Y only through treat assignment  $g(X) := p(T = 1 \mid X = x)$

- Sufficiency of **Propensity Score** [RR83]:

$$\psi = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Y \mid g(X), T = 1] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid g(X), T = 0]]$$

# Double learning and targeted maximum likelihood learning

- *Semi-parametric estimation theory* to the rescue under *unknown* propensity scores
  - Recall that we estimate  $\hat{Q}(x, t) = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x, T = t]$ ,  $\hat{g}(x) = p(T = 1 \mid X = x)$
  - These estimation from ML models could be *biased*, hurting the *asymptotic properties* (e.g. confidence interval may not cover the true average causal effect  $\psi$ )
  - Fortunately,  $\hat{\psi}$  can still have good asymptotic property if satisfies [Ken16]:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_i \varphi(y_i, t_i, x_i; \hat{Q}, \hat{g}, \hat{\psi}) = 0$$

- “*Non-parametric estimating equation*” with “*efficient influence curve*” (think of first-order bias under Taylor expansion)
- **Targeted maximum likelihood learning** [VR06] – solve the estimating equation by perturbing  $\hat{Q}$  using some parametric submodel, e.g.  $\hat{Q}^{(1)} = \hat{Q} + \epsilon H(\hat{g})$ ,  $H$  is given, and use MLE to estimate  $\epsilon$
- **Double/debiased ML** [CCD+18]: use a **Neyman-orthogonal score** equation for first-order debias, computing a cross-fitted augmented IPW estimator
- As long as  $\hat{Q}$  and  $\hat{g}$  are faster than  $n^{1/4}$ , then  $\hat{\psi}$  enjoys  $n^{1/2}$ -rate *asymptotic normality*



# Propensity weighting method and counterfactual learning

- When treatments are characterized by *known* distributions, address changing the treatment on a population as switching the distribution
  - Easily verify mathematically that:  $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid do(T = 1)] = \mathbb{E}[YT / \mathbb{E}[T = 1 \mid X = x]]$
  - The many causal assumptions, especially positivity, ensures the *unbiasedness* of the estimation:  
$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid do(T = 1)] - \mathbb{E}[Y \mid do(T = 0)] = \mathbb{E}\left[Y \left( \frac{T}{\pi(X)} - \frac{1 - T}{1 - \pi(X)} \right)\right], \pi(X) = p(T = 1 \mid X = x)$$
  - What about the variance? (often need *strong positivity / overlapping*)
- If we have a good estimation for the *average potential reward* using collected data, can we use that estimation to learn a good policy?

- **Counterfactual learning** :  $\arg \max_{\pi_{\theta}} \mathbb{E}[Y \mid do(T = \pi_{\theta}(X))]$

- Moving from treatment to action  $a \in [K]$  . Propensity score thus becomes:  $\pi_0(A = a_i \mid X = x_i)$

so we have:  $\hat{R}(\pi_{\theta}) := \hat{\mathbb{E}}[Y \mid do(\pi_{\theta}(A \mid X))] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i y_i \frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_i \mid x_i)}{p_i}, \quad p_i = \pi_0(a_i \mid x_i)$

# Propensity weighting method and counterfactual learning

- Is counterfactual learning a supervised learning problem with weighted loss?
  - Not exactly. The observations are different:  $(x_i, \text{instructive } y_i^*)$  versus  $(x_i, a_i, p_i, \text{evaluative } y_i)$
  - Access to the loss are different:  $\ell(y_i^*, y)$  known, versus  $\ell(y, f(x_i))$  unknown for  $y \neq y_i$
  - Despite the conceptual difference, what makes counterfactual learning difficult?

hypothesis + optimization

- *Distribution shift and variance of risk estimator for hypothesis*

- We've seen before in LTR the *Bernstein-type bound* – variance of risk estimation matters!
- The variance is going to be large with small probability on denominator ...

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{V_n(f) \log(\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{F})/\delta)}{n}}\right)$$

- **Clip** small probability, **renormalize** the propensities, or **penalize the variance** in general

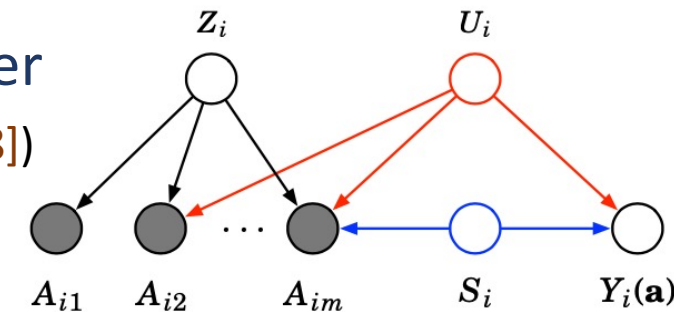
- Importance of having a *baseline* for optimization

- If all feedback are non-positive, what will happen? (*degeneracy* of the learning problem because a upper bound can be trivially found)
- Find a good  $y'_i = y_i - r(a_i, x_i)$  to make the learning and optimization more *robust*.

[SJ15]

# Multiple causes, deconfounding, robust optimization

- We talked about unobserved confounding makes inference from observational data infeasible
  - may be compatible with many potentially contradictory causal explanations
  - how much information about unobserved confounding can be recovered from observed data?
- Infer a latent variable as a substitute for unobserved confounder
  - Suppose there are multiple causes (e.g. *MF factor models* in IR [WLC+18])
  - Assume *SUTVA*, *overlap*, and some parametric forms
  - If we can find such a *proxy*  $Z$ , then we can safely ignore  $U$  [WB19]
  - Can employ some *encoder-decoder* learning framework (trade assumptions for assumptions)
- How sensitive are the outcome?
  - Adding ad-hoc violations to the causal assumptions, and investigate the resulting perturbations
  - Or making the learning/optimization *robust to the violation* of causal assumptions [XRK+20]



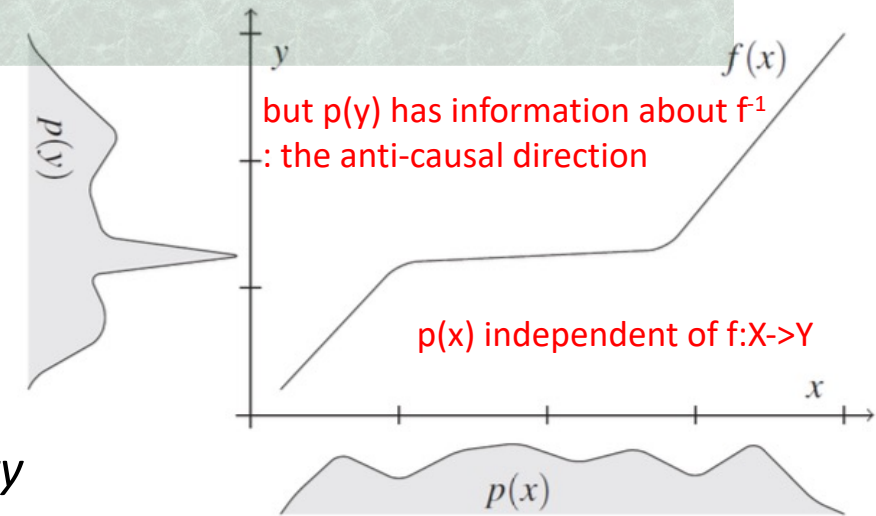
# Connection to IR pattern recognition

- Causality and learning (plenty in IR)

- Predict target from its *cause* vs. from its *effect*
- The principle of ***independent causal mechanism***
  - independent mechanism + autonomous modules, and they do not inform each other

[PJS17]

- Exploit the *independent mechanisms*, e.g. via *causal discovery* or *directional learning*, and use them to assist generalizing to unseen data



- Uncertainty quantification, learn-then-test

- Creating statistically rigorous prediction sets for ML predictions (IR cares *coverage*!)
- ***Distribution-free conformal prediction*** – use quantiles of calibrated scores
- Learn-then-test to optimize the *converge risk*:  $\mathcal{R}(S_\lambda) := p(Y_{\text{test}} \notin S_\lambda(X_{\text{test}}))$   
suppose the *coverage set*  $S_\lambda$  depends on a parameter  $\lambda$

$$p(Y_{\text{test}} \in S(X_{\text{test}})) \geq 1 - \alpha$$

- Hypothesis testing for whether the risk is controlled for a particular  $\lambda$  + *FDR control*

$$\{H_\lambda : \text{the risk is controlled at } \lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\} \implies p(\sup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \leq \alpha) \geq 1 - \delta$$

[AB22]

# Summary of Part 2

- Exploiting the intervenability of IR systems
  - Designed experiments -> answering causal questions
  - Problem structure + policy optimization -> gaining *efficiency* for IR experiments
- Counterfactual reasoning under domain practice
  - How valid are the *causal assumptions* under common IR practices?
  - May be more difficult than a *missing data problem*
  - Again, might need to incorporate *domain knowledge* for the rescue
- Offline pattern recognition with experimental feedback data
  - Knowledge about *intervention* makes learning from evaluative feedback favorable
  - Be aware of the variance caused by *distribution mismatch*
  - *Causality* can assist learning, but we may have to make deals with the devil of *confounding*