

ECON526: Quantitative Economics with Data Science Applications

Introduction to Directed Acyclic Graphs

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Table of contents

- Overview
- Directed Graphical Models
- Building a Causal Graph
- Aside: Cycles



Overview



Summary

- Previously in the course, we talked at a high level about some of the barriers to causal inference
- We used the potential outcomes framework to discuss the idea of a treatment effect
- Then we discussed the idea of a randomized experiment as a way to identify a treatment effect
 - → However, we mentioned that there are many situations where we cannot run a randomized experiment
- Today, we will discuss the idea of using a graphical model as a way to analyze whether you can truly identify a treatment effect





Conditional Independence

- Recall that two random variables X and Y are **conditionally independent** given a third random variable Z if and only if the following holds:
 - $\rightarrow P(X|Z) = P(X|Z \cap Y)$
 - ightarrow Equivalently, $P(X\cap Y|Z)=P(X|Z)P(Y|Z)$
 - ightarrow We will denote this as $X \perp Y | Z$
- ullet In the context of potential outcomes, we require that $(Y_0,Y_1)\perp T|X$
 - → This means that the potential outcomes are independent of the treatment assignment, given the covariates



- Complete independence is rare in complex systems. However, we can often find conditional independence relationships, that help inform our choice of statistical model.
- We can visualize conditional independence relationships using a Bayesian or directed graphical model
- A Bayesian graphical model is a directed graph where:
 - → The nodes or vertices represent random variables
 - → The links or edges represent conditional independence relationships

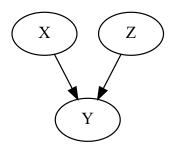


- Fundamentally, a graphical model is a way to represent how a joint probability distribution factorizes into a product of conditional distributions.
- For our purposes, we will usually interpret the edges as causal relationships.
- Furthermore, the graphs we draw will be **acyclic**, meaning that there are no loops in the graph.
 - → In other words, there is no way to start at a node and follow the arrows to get back to the same node
 - → This is because we are interested in **causal** relationships, and a cycle would imply that there is a feedback loop where a variable causes itself
- Since these graphs are both directed and acyclic, we call them directed acyclic graphs or DAGs



A directed graphical model might look something like this:

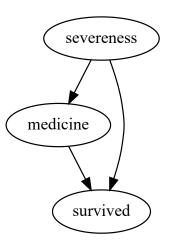
```
1 import graphviz as gr
2
3 g = gr.Digraph()
4 g.node('X')
5 g.node('Y')
6 g.node('Z')
7 g.edge('X', 'Y')
8 g.edge('Z', 'Y')
9 g
```



- ullet Here, we have three random variables: X, Y, and Z
 - ightarrow X and Z are independent
 - ightarrow Y depends on both X and Z



```
1 g = gr.Digraph()
2 g.edge("medicine", "survived")
3 g.edge("severeness", "survived")
4 g.edge("severeness", "medicine")
5 g
```



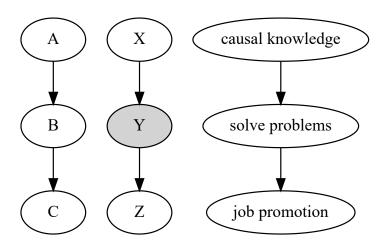
- We use arrows to indicate the direction of the conditional independence relationship
 - ightarrow For example, medicine
 ightarrow survived means that survived depends on medicine, but not the other way around



- Directed graphical models are useful because they allow us to visualize conditional independence relationships, which can often be difficult to keep track of
- However, they are also useful because they allow us to determine whether or not we can identify a treatment effect.
- There are three very common sub-structures that appear in graphical models, that inform how dependence will flow through the model.



```
g = gr.Digraph()
   g.edge("A", "B")
   g.edge("B", "C")
   g.edge("X", "Y")
   g.edge("Y", "Z")
   g.node("Y", "Y", style="filled")
 9
   g.edge("causal knowledge", "solve problems")
   g.edge("solve problems", "job promotion")
12
13
   g
```



- In this stylized example of a directed path, we are postulating that knowing causal inference is the only way to solve business problems
 - → This is obviously not true, but it is a useful example for our purposes



- This model highlights the following statistical process:
 - → Knowing causal inference gives you the ability to solve business problems
 - → Solving business problems makes you more likely to get a job promotion
- Notice that this does not imply that causal knowledge is independent of job promotion
 - → That is, if we know the value of job promotion, we can still learn something about causal knowledge
 - → If we observe that a promotion happens in this model, this tells us that it is more likely that the person knows causal inference

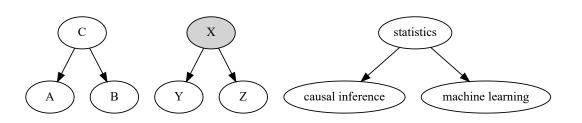


- ullet Now let's condition on the intermediate variable Y
 - → This is the variable that represents the ability to solve business problems
 - → In the graph, we have colored this variable grey to indicate that we are conditioning on it
- ullet Conditioning on Y means that we are assuming that we know whether or not the person solved a business problem
- In this case, conditioning on Y breaks the dependence relationship between X and Z
 - ightarrow That is, X and Z are now independent, given Y
 - ightarrow Mathematically, $A \perp C$, but $X \not\perp Z | Y$



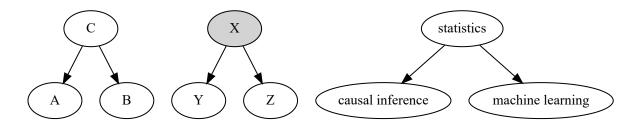
Now let's look at another common structure:

```
1 g = gr.Digraph()
2 g.edge("C", "A")
3 g.edge("C", "B")
4
5 g.edge("X", "Y")
6 g.edge("X", "Z")
7 g.node("X", "X", style="filled")
8
9 g.edge("statistics", "causal inference")
10 g.edge("statistics", "machine learning")
11
12 g
```



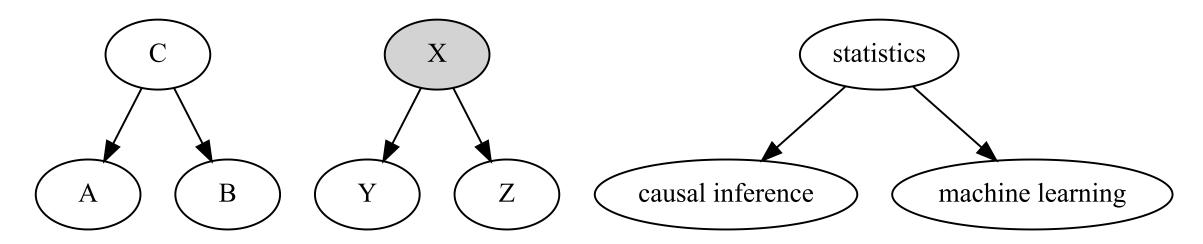
 In this model, we are postulating that statistics is a prerequisite for both causal inference and machine learning.





- This model highlights the following statistical process:
 - → Knowing statistics gives you the ability to do causal inference
 - → Knowing statistics gives you the ability to do machine learning
- ullet When we don't condition for the root node, C, there is still a dependence relationship between A and B
 - → That is, if we know that an individual has causal knowledge, this tells us that they are more likely to know statistics, and thus to also know machine learning



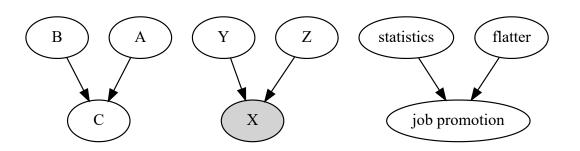


- ullet By conditioning on X, we break the dependence relationship between Y and Z
 - ightarrow That is, $A \not\perp B$, but $Y \perp Z | X$
- We would call this a **fork** structure



Finally, let's look at a third common structure, called a **collider**:

```
1  g = gr.Digraph()
2  g.edge("B", "C")
3  g.edge("A", "C")
4
5  g.edge("Y", "X")
6  g.edge("Z", "X")
7  g.node("X", "X", style="filled")
8
9  g.edge("statistics", "job promotion")
10  g.edge("flatter", "job promotion")
11
12  g
```



 In this model, we are postulating that statistics and flattery are both determinants of getting a job promotion.





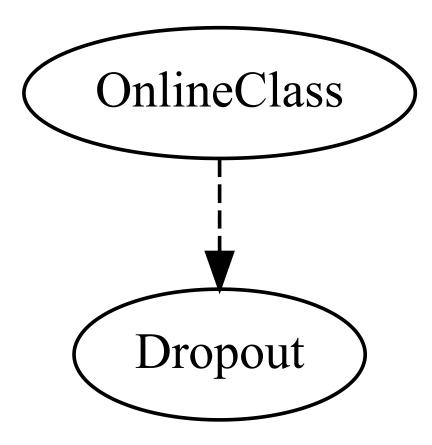
- Now that we have seen some examples of causal graphs, we should think about how to draw a causal graph for a problem in practice.
- Drawing a causal graph is a way of encoding the assumptions that you are making about the data generating process.
- The first step is to identify the variables that are relevant to the problem at hand.
 - → Do your research!



- In reality, there are many variables that are relevant to a problem.
- Real data-generating processes are therefore extremely large and complex.
- Think about what the data generating process might look like for something similar the online class example we have been using
 - → (if we didn't have a randomized experiment)

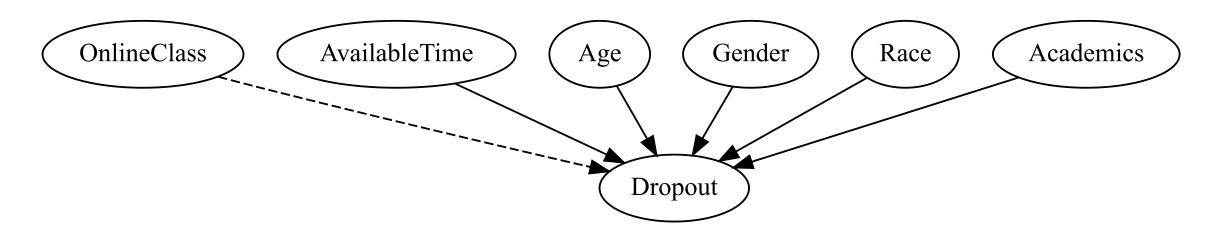


• Let's say we were interested in the effect of online classes on college dropout rates. The treatment effect we want to identify is:



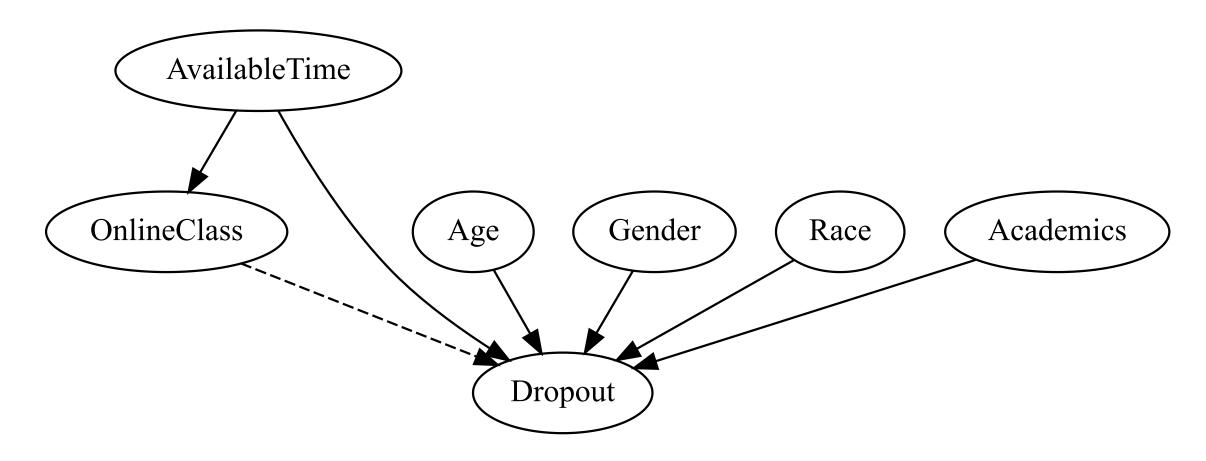


• In addition to OnlineClass, there are many variables that might cause a student to drop out of college.



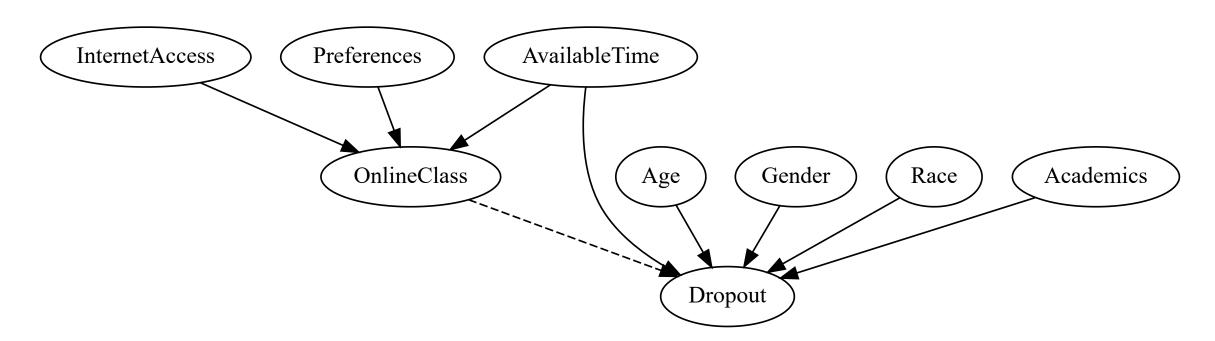


• Some of these variables might **also** determine whether or not a student takes an online class.



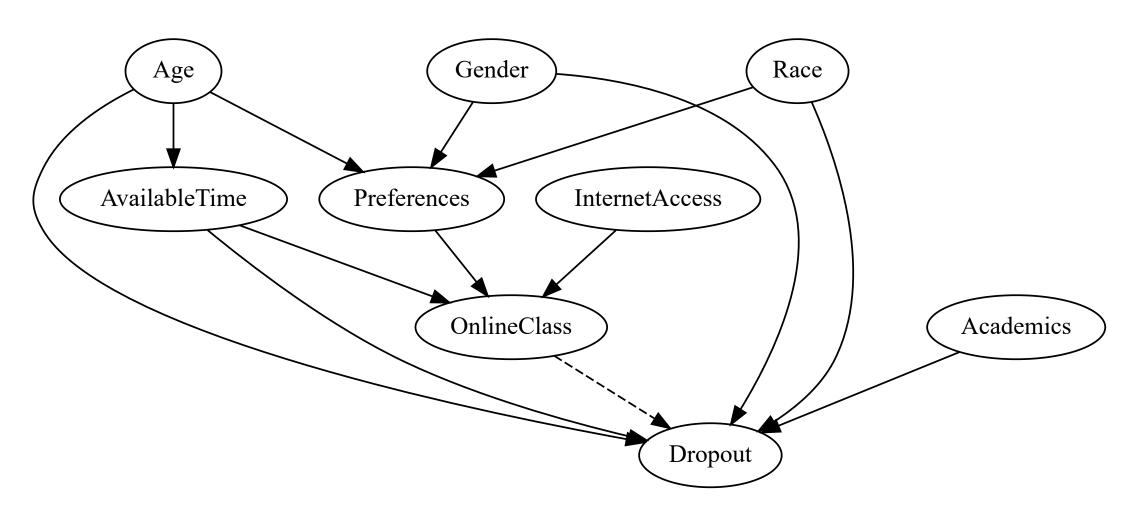


 Then there are some other variables that affect just OnlineClass and not Dropout



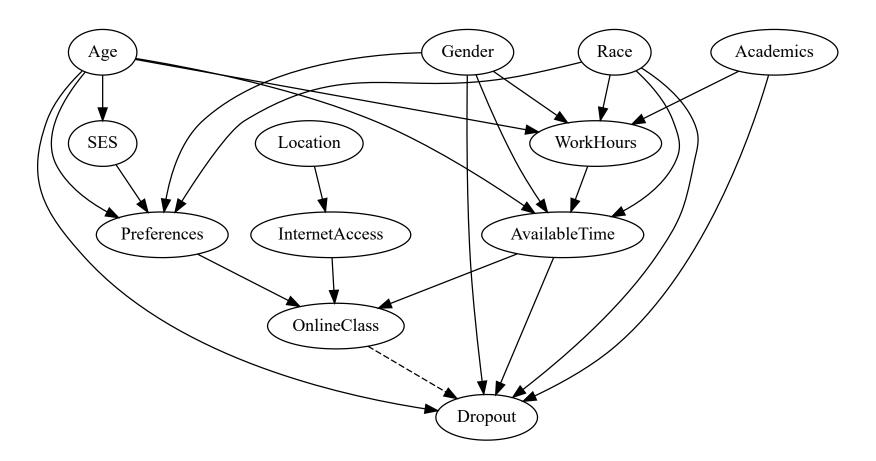


• There are relationships between some of these variables as well



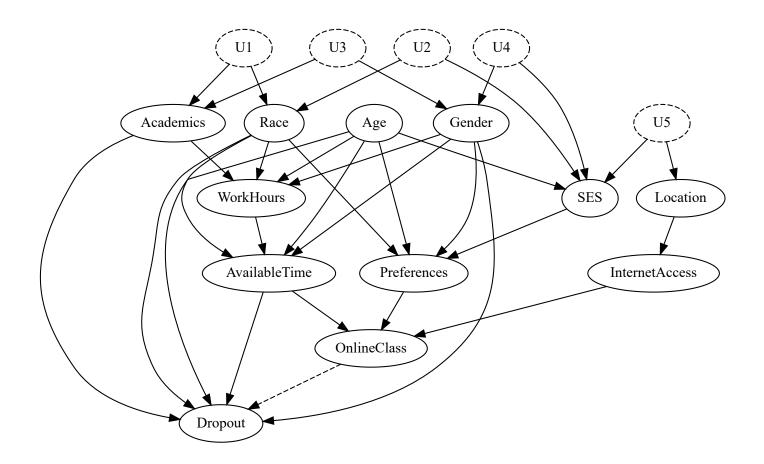


• Even if there is not a direct causal relationship between two variables, there might be an indirect relationship through a third variable

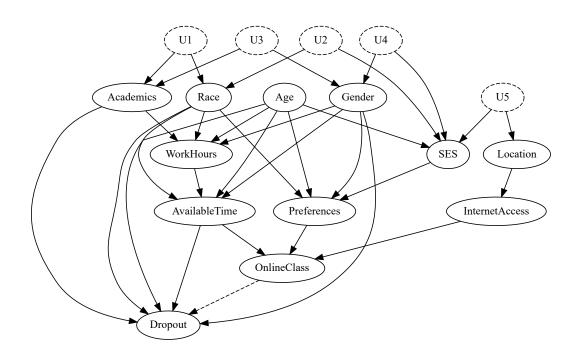




 And then there are some variables that we know are correlated, but due to some other combination of unknown factors

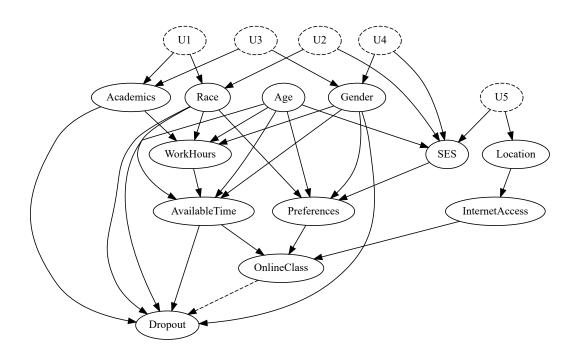






- As we can see, this graph got very complex, very quickly.
- It is clearly not capturing all of the relevant variables
- What else might be missing?





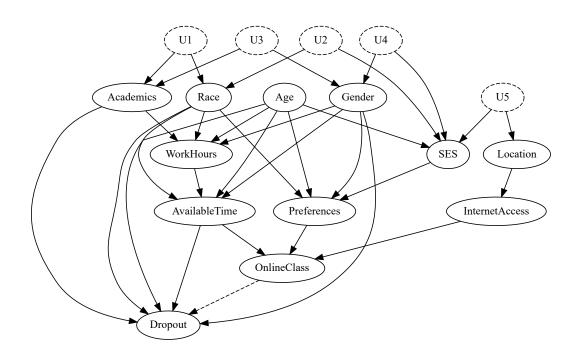
- As we can see, this graph got very complex, very quickly.
- It is clearly not capturing all of the relevant variables
- What else might be missing?
 - → CommunityCollege vs. University
 - → Income



Simplifying the Graph

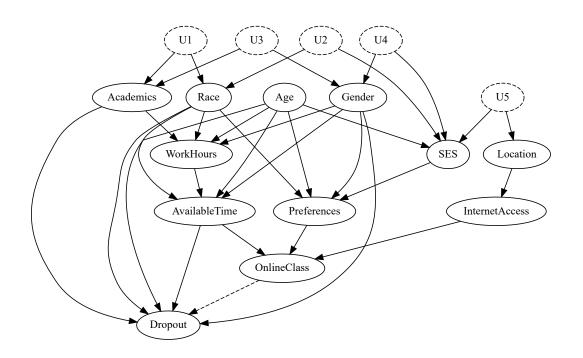
- In practice, we will not be able to draw a graph that captures everything. How can we choose which relationships to include, and which to ignore?
- 1. **Unimportance** If the arrows coming in and out of a variable all represent small or negligible effects, we can ignore them.
- 2. **Redundancy** If there are variables on the diagram that occupy the same space (i.e. they both have incoming and outgoing links from the same variables) then we can probably combine them into a single variable.
- 3. **Mediators** If a variable is **only** included as a way to connect two other variables, we can probably remove it.
- 4. **Irrelevance** If a variable is important to the DGP, but isn't part of a **dependence path** between the treatment and the outcome, we can ignore it.





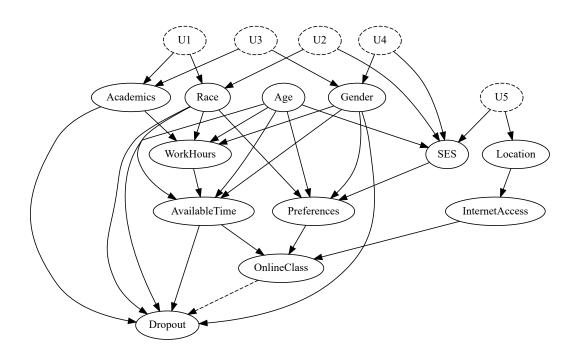
- Unimportance was already necessarily applied in the creation of the graph.
- We can also apply redundancy by combining Race and Gender into a single variable, Demographics





- There are also quite a few
 Mediators
 - → The most prevelant is Preferences, (we can just have Demographics, etc. directly affect OnlineClass).
 - → We can throw outInternetAccess without losing anything.
- There is one more. Can you find it?

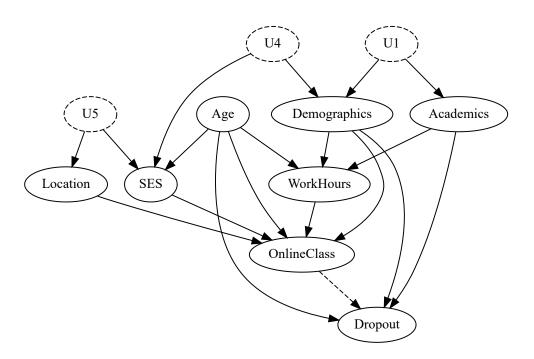




- Notice that all of the variables that cause AvailableTime are also causes of WorkHours.
- We can therefore throw out
 AvailableTime, and just have
 WorkHours directly affect
 OnlineClass, rather than through
 AvailableTime.
- AvailableTime is also a mediator.



- We are left with a much simpler (although still messy) model, that still captures most of the relevant relationships.
- Even though the simplified model is nicer to work with, these rules are just heuristics and shouldn't be applied blindly.



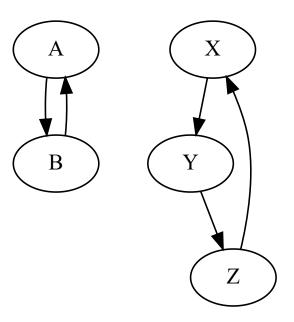


Aside: Cycles



Cycles

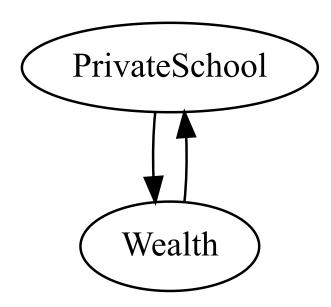
- There is one thing that a causal diagram cannot have: a cycle.
- A cycle is a directed path that starts and ends at the same node.
 - → This would mean that a variable causes itself, which is impossible.
- The simplest cycles look like this:





Cycles

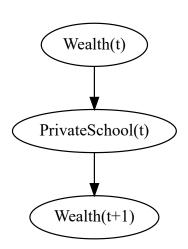
Why can't we have cycles? Surely there are feedback loops in the real world.



- If we have a cycle, then our causal problem is ill-specified.
 - → We can't identify the effect of PrivateSchool on Wealth, because Wealth also causes PrivateSchool... or does it?



Cycles



- We can solve this problem by introducing the **time** dimension.
- By creating a new variable to represent the lagged value, we can break the cycle.
 - → This also loosely corresponds with the physicists view of causality, where the arrow of time is fundamental.
 - → Similar to the time-series concept of Granger Causality.



Credits

This lecture draws heavily from Causal Inference for the Brave and True: Chapter 04 - Graphical Causal Models by Matheus Facure.

There is also material from A Short Course on Graphical Models Chapter 2: Structured Representations by Mark Paskin.

As well as The Effect: Chapter 7 - Drawing Graphical Diagrams by Nick Huntington-Klein.