## Quantitative Methods Human Sciences, 2020–21

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Lecture 8: 3 December 2020

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- ► Causal graphs.

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- Causal graphs.
- ▶ Three forms of systematic bias.

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▶ Note: all tests are done "under" (i.e., assuming) H<sub>0</sub>.

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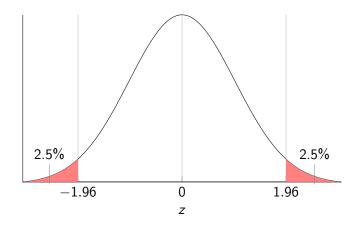
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- ▶ p-value: the probability of obtaining something at least as extreme as the observed z-statistic, assuming  $H_0$  is true.
- ► Common mistake: the *p*-value is *not* the probability that *H*<sub>1</sub> is false. (Why not?)



#### Neyman-Pearson hypothesis testing: example

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = y ~ x, data = data)
##
## Residuals:
       Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
##
## -14.8208 -3.1487 0.0409 3.1336 13.1631
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 0.23379 0.50486 0.463 0.644
## x 5.11564 0.08244 62.052 <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 4.755 on 498 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.8855, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8852
## F-statistic: 3851 on 1 and 498 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```



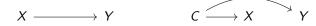
$$C \xrightarrow{X} X$$



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- ► A graph is composed of two objects:



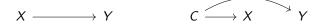
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- A standard causal graph does not express the magnitude or sign of a causal effect.
- Conditional on its direct causes, any variable in a causal graph is independent of any other variable for which it is not a cause.
- Implication: the common causes of any pair of variables in the graph must also be in the graph.

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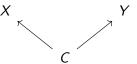
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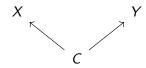
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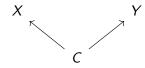
► The causal graph depicts this knowledge for an experiment in which cigarettes are randomly assigned to a treatment group.





▶ Carrying a lighter (X) does not cause lung cancer (Y):

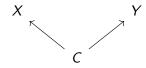
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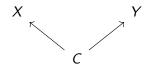
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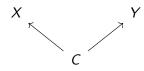
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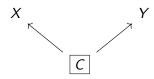
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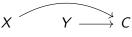
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- ▶ Without conditioning on *C*, we observe an association between *X* and *Y* that flows through their common cause *C*.
- C is a confounder of the association between X and Y.
- ▶ If we do condition on *C*, we block the association between *X* and *Y* (via conditional independence).





$$\mathbb{P}(Y_1=1)=\mathbb{P}(Y_0=1).$$



▶ A certain genetic haplotype (X) has no causal effect on the risk of neurodegenerative disease (Y):

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_1=1)=\mathbb{P}(Y_0=1).$$

▶ Both X and Y cause depression (C).



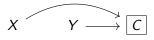
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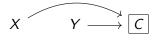
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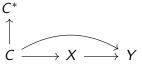
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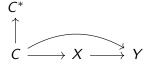
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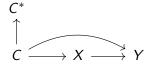
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- ▶ Colliders block the flow of association along the path on which they lie: X and Y are independent because the only path between them is blocked by C.
- If we do condition on C, we induce an association between X and Y.
- ▶ This is known as *selection bias* (via conditional dependence).

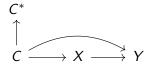




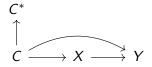
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- Measurement bias occurs when the association between treatment and outcome is affected by the process by which the study data are measured.
- For instance, mismeasurement of confounders induce bias even if both treatment and outcome are perfectly measured.
- ▶ In general, the path  $X \leftarrow C \rightarrow Y$  cannot be blocked by conditioning on mismeasured confounder  $C^*$ .

Four possible reasons why two variables may be associated:

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- 4. Random variability (disappears as  $n \to \infty$ ).

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- ▶ These biases may arise in observational studies and in randomised experiments (how?).