

# Causal Inference in Machine Learning



I'm twice  
as likely **not**  
to graduate  
**high school**  
because  
you had me  
as a **teen.**

**KIDS OF TEEN MOMS ARE TWICE AS LIKELY NOT TO  
GRADUATE THAN KIDS WHOSE MOMS WERE OVER AGE 22.**

Text 'NOTNOW' to 877877 for  
the real price of teen pregnancy.

Standard text messaging rates may apply. Check with your service provider.

**NYC**  
Michael R. Bloomberg  
Mayor

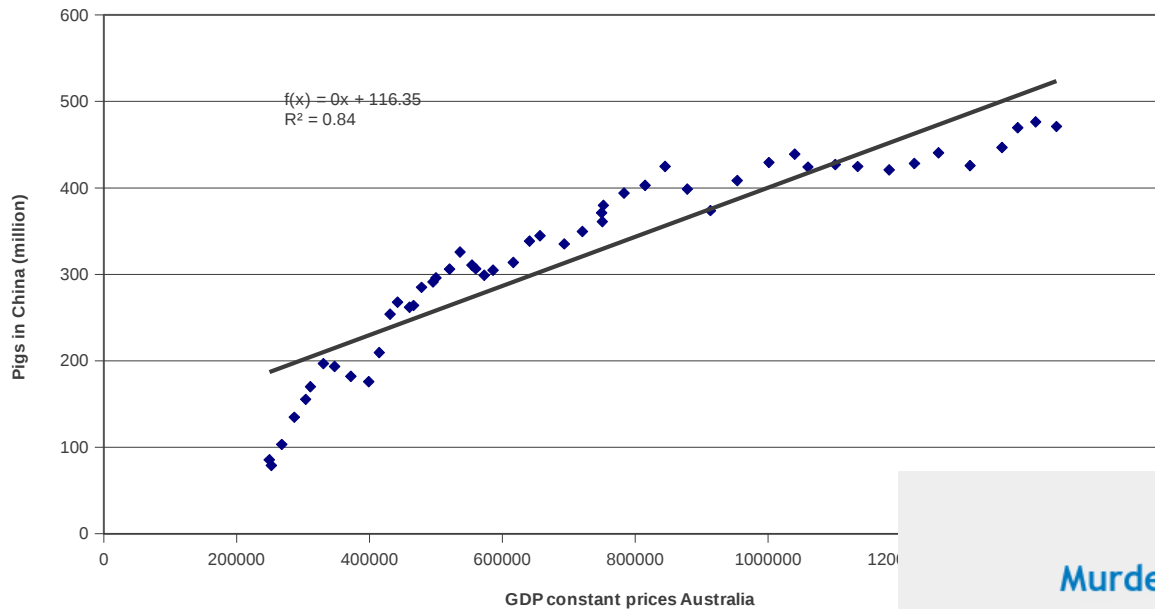
Human Resources  
Administration  
Department of  
Social Services  
Robert Dear  
Commissioner



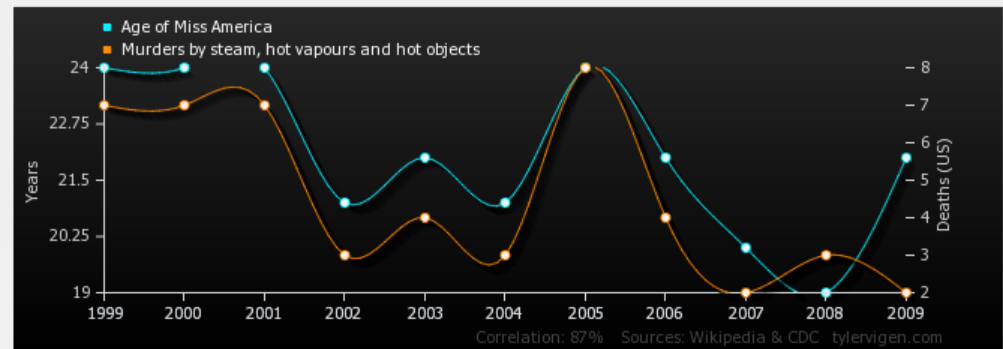
Finnian Lattimore (finnlattimore@gmail.com)

# Ways things can go wrong

Number of Pigs in China vs Australian GDP



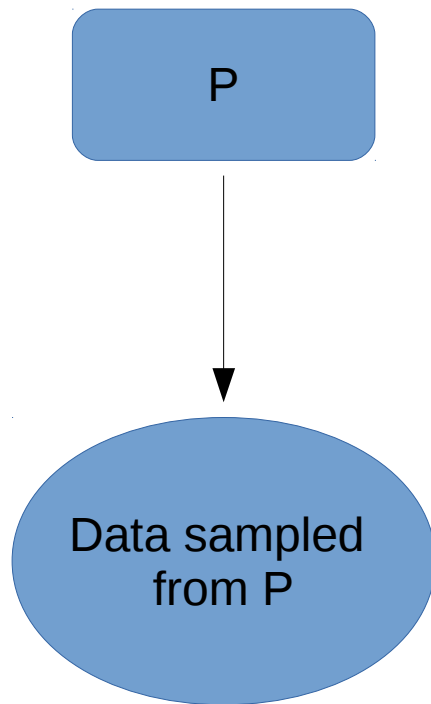
Age of Miss America  
correlates with  
Murders by steam, hot vapours and hot objects



	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Age of Miss America Years (Wikipedia)	24	24	24	21	22	21	24	22	20	19	22
Murders by steam, hot vapours and hot objects Deaths (US) (CDC)	7	7	7	3	4	3	8	4	2	3	2
Correlation: 0.870127											

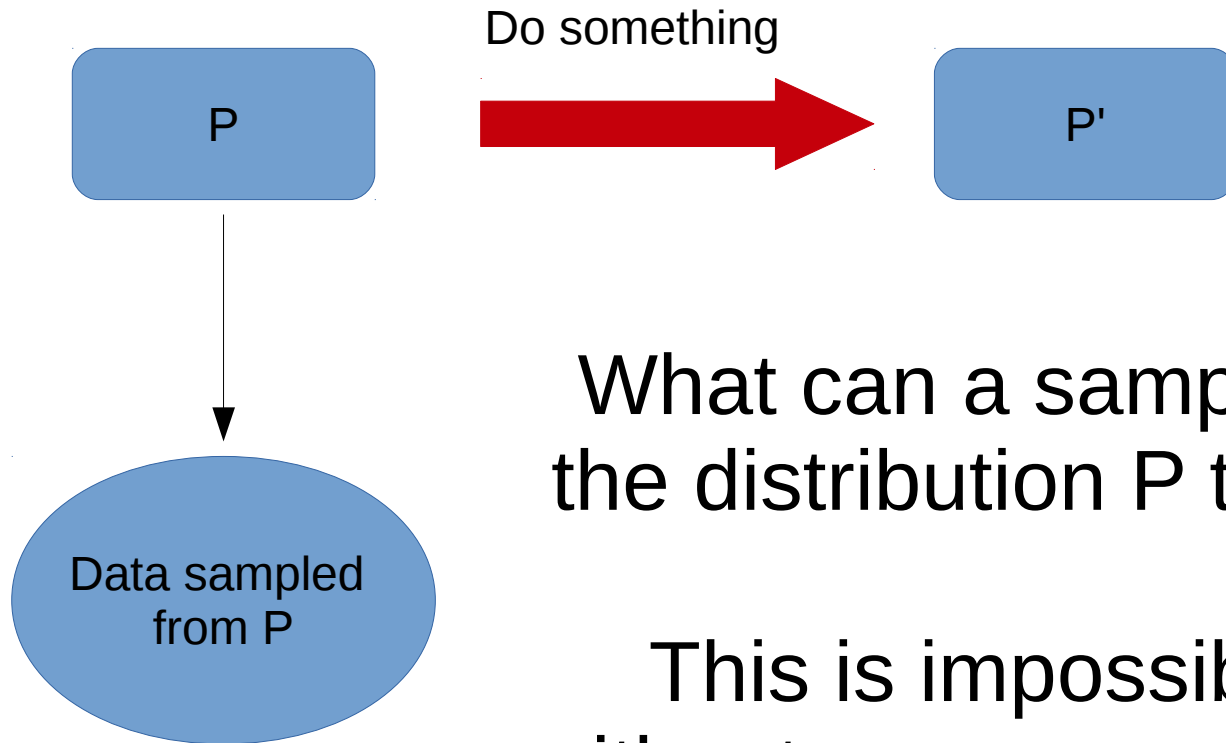
Image source: [www.tylervigen.com/](http://www.tylervigen.com/)

# Machine Learning/Statistics



What can we learn about the distribution  $P$  from a sample of data drawn from it?

# Causal inference



What can a sample of data from the distribution  $P$  tell us about  $P'$ ?

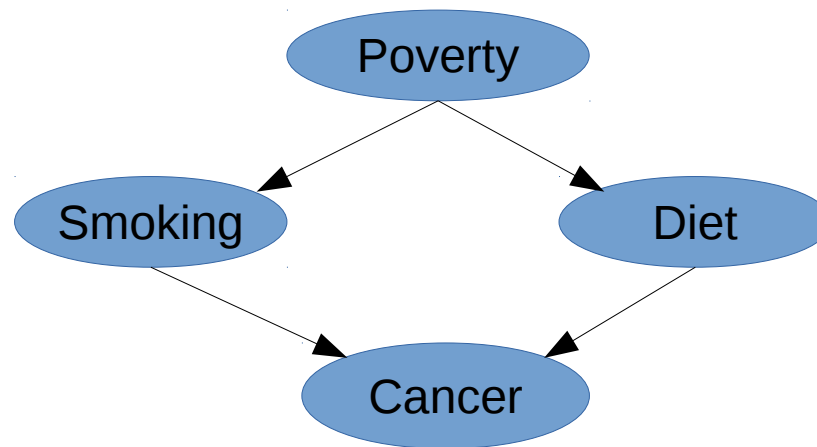
This is impossible to answer without some assumptions on how 'do something' changes  $P$

# Causal bayesian networks (causal DAGs)



A bayesian network where  $A \rightarrow B$  is defined to mean A causes B

=> Variables are independent of their non-effects given their direct causes (Causal Markov Property)



Absent links imply the factorisation of the full distribution can be simplified.

$$P(Po, S, D, C) = P(Po)P(S|Po)P(D|Po, S)P(C|Po, S, D) = P(Po)P(S|Po)P(D|Po)P(C|S, D)$$

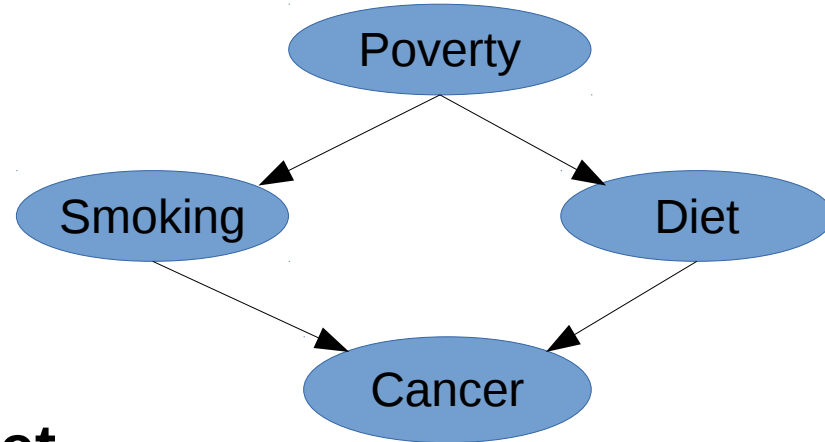
# Intervention in Causal DAGs

$$P(Po, S, D, C) = P(Po)P(S|Po)P(D|Po)P(C|S, D)$$

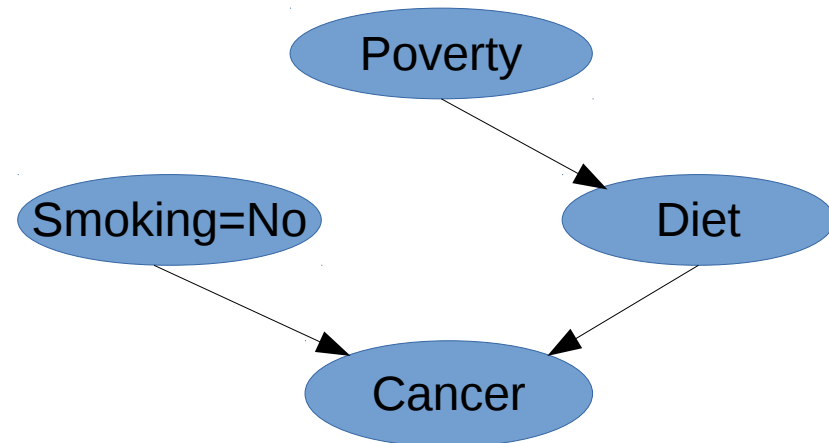
## Truncated product formula

Drop from terms for  
intervened on variables from  
the factorization

A causal DAG represents the set  
of all possible interventional  
distributions over its variables



  $do(Smoking = No)$



$$P(Po, D, C|do(S=no)) = P(Po)P(D|Po)P(C|S=no, D)$$

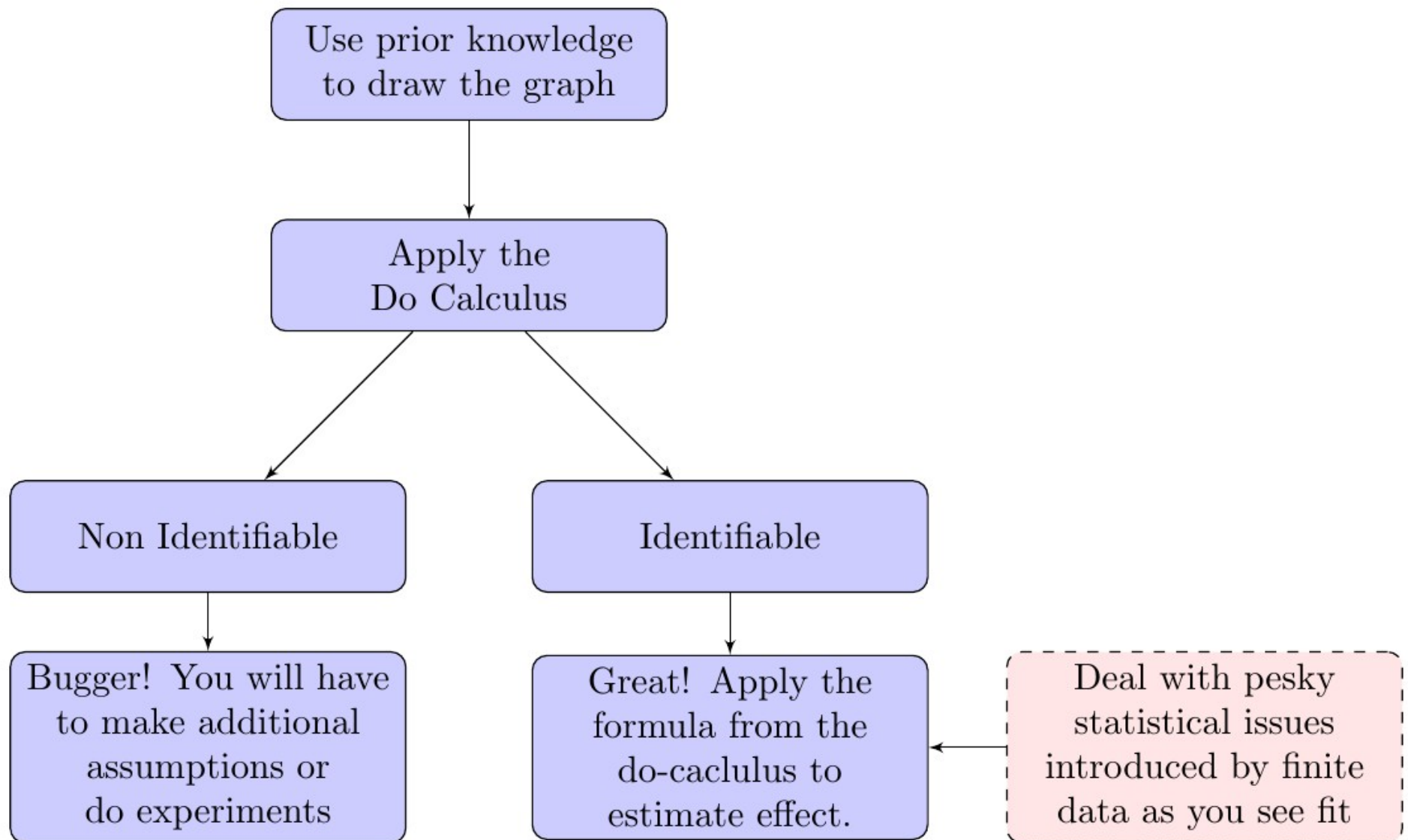
# Causal Inference

**Problem:** Given a graph with known structure, predict the outcome of an intervention based on observational data.

**Solution:** Use the Do Calculus

- The Do-calculus rules result from D-separation in a causal DAG
- A causal effect is non-parametrically identifiable if and only if the interventional query can be reduced to an observational one via repeat application of the three rules (see Shpitser&Pearl 2012 for algorithm)

# A recipe for causal inference from observational data





# The Do Calculus (simplified)

1. D-separation still applies after intervention.

$$(Cancer \perp\!\!\!\perp Asthma | Smoke)_{G_{\overline{X}}} \implies P(Cancer | do(Smoke), Asthma) = P(Cancer | do(Smoke))$$

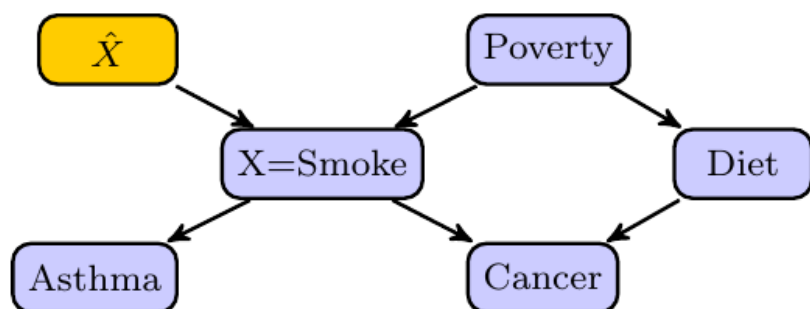
2. If there are no backdoor paths from  $X$  to  $Y$  then intervention  $\equiv$  observation.

$$(\hat{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp Cancer | X, Poverty)_{G^\dagger} \implies P(Cancer | do(Smoke), Poverty) = P(Cancer | Smoke, Poverty)$$

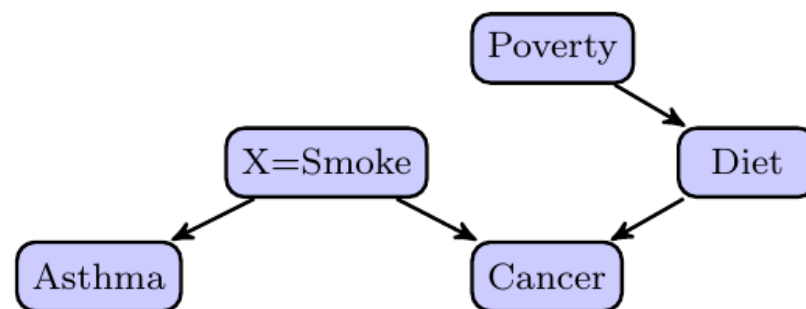
3. If there are only backdoor paths from  $X$  to  $Y$  then intervention doesn't change  $P(Y)$ .

$$(\hat{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp Diet)_{G^\dagger} \implies P(Diet | do(Smoke)) = P(Diet)$$

(a)  $G^\dagger$



(b)  $G_{\overline{X}}$



# Causal Discovery

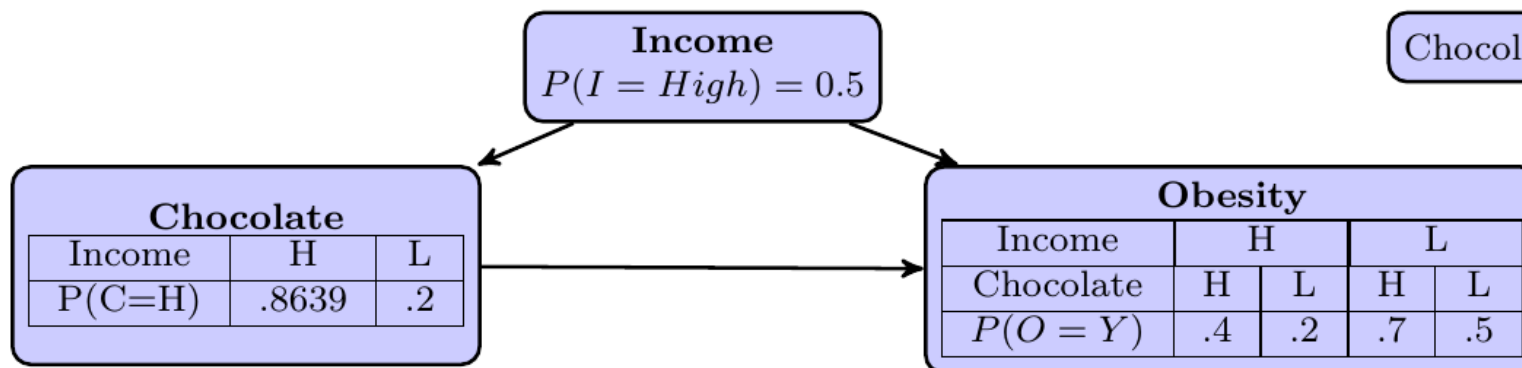
when you don't know the graph

# Independence based methods

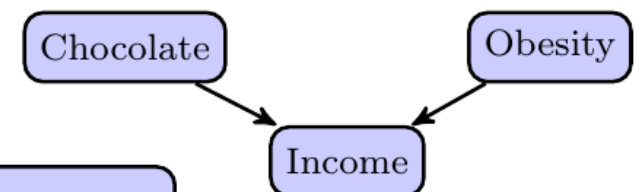
- 1) We assume our distribution  $P$  was generated by some (unknown) causal DAG over our observed variables (causal sufficiency)
- 2) We assume that all the conditional independences in  $P$  are implied by d-separation in the true causal network (**faithfulness**)
- 3) Finding the causal structure equates to finding the graph(s) that imply exactly the set of conditional independence relations as are observed in  $P$ .

## An example violating faithfulness

(a) True causal graph generating  $P$



(b) Perfect map for  $P$ ,  $(C \perp\!\!\!\perp O)$



# Independence based Algorithms

## Constraint based

- IC/SGS algorithm Sprites 2000/Pearl 2000
- PC
- FCI
- RFCI

## Search and Score

- GES

# Beyond conditional independence



Additive noise:  $y = f(x) + e$

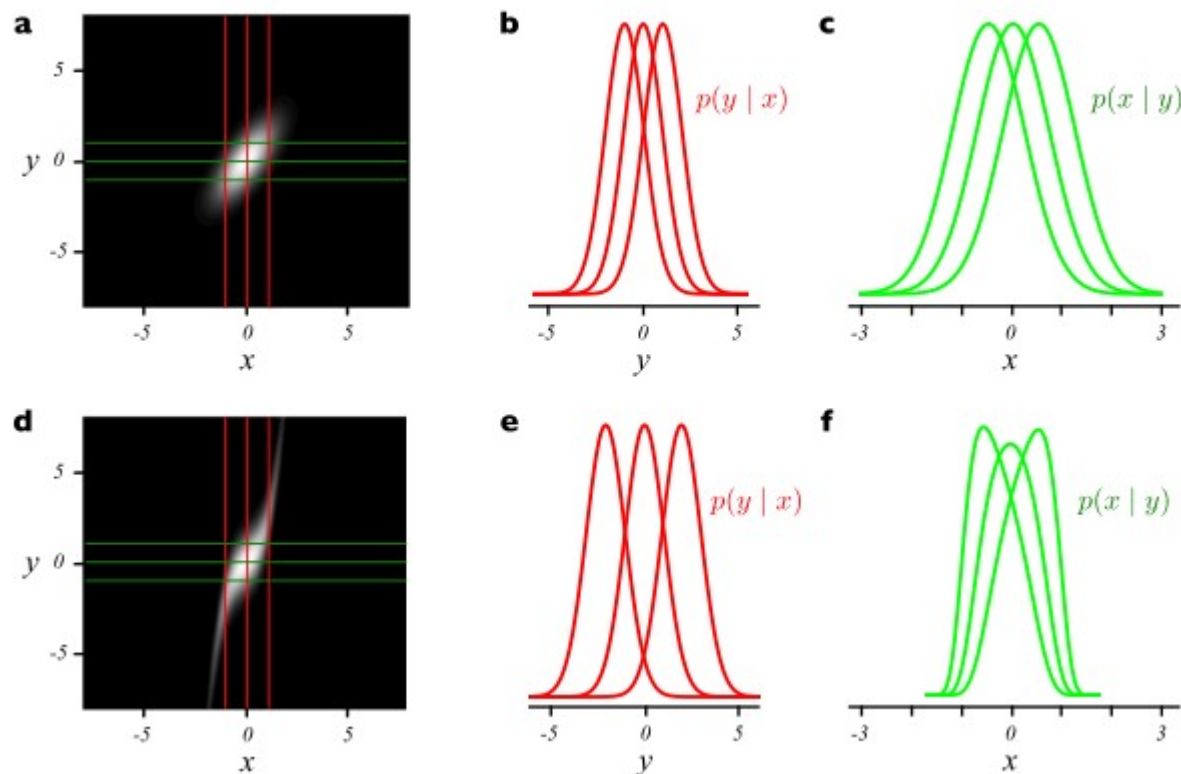


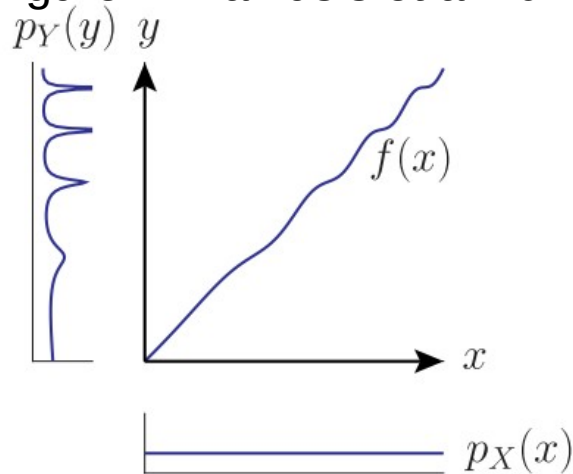
Figure 1, (Hoyer et al 2009)

Can be extended to post-non-linear additive noise,  $y = h(f(x) + e)$ , (Zhang et al 2009)  
Can be extended beyond bi-variate graphs. (Peters et al 2014)

# More asymmetries of cause and effect



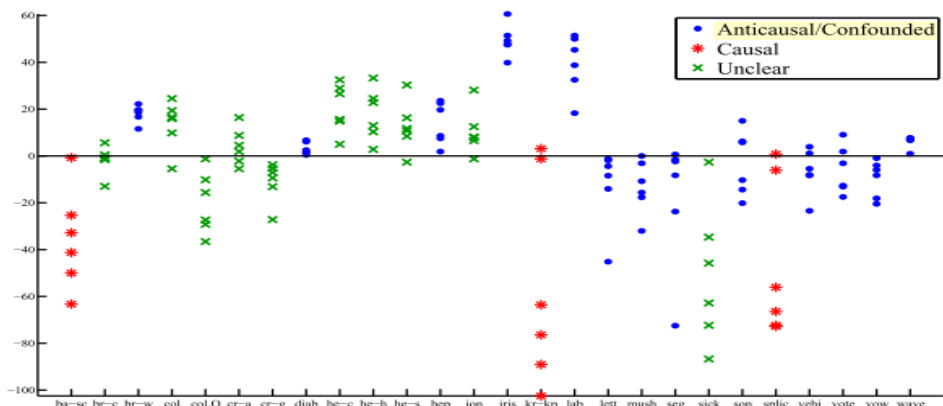
Figure 1: Daniusis et al 2012



## Independence of function and input:

*If  $X \rightarrow Y$  and we have a functional causal model  $y = f(x)$  then the input distribution  $P(X)$  and function  $f$  represent independent mechanisms. Changing the input distribution does not modify the function itself.*

We expect  $P(Y|X)$  to be related to  $P(Y)$  but not to  $P(X)$



Semi-supervised learning supplements data sampled from  $P(X,Y)$  with additional points from  $P(X)$  with the goal of learning  $P(Y|X)$ . If  $X \rightarrow Y$  the additional data should not help.

Figure 6, Janzing & Peters 2012

# Learning what causality looks like

Suppose we had  $M$  different causal pairs data sets.

$$D = \{\{x_j, y_j\}_{j=1}^{N_i}, l_i\}_{i=1}^M$$

Where  $l_i$  is a binary label that indicates if  $X \rightarrow Y$  or  $Y \rightarrow X$  in dataset  $i$ .

We expect there to be differences in the relationships between  $P(X)$   $P(Y)$  and  $P(Y|X)$  for  $X \rightarrow Y$  and  $Y \rightarrow X$

Let  $\mu$  be a kernel mean embedding that maps a distribution  $P$  into some Hilbert space.

For each data set  $i = 1 \dots M$

Construct a feature vector that approximates  $\mu(P(X)), \mu(P(Y)), \mu(P(X, Y))$

Apply a standard classification algorithm

See Lopez-Paz et al 2014

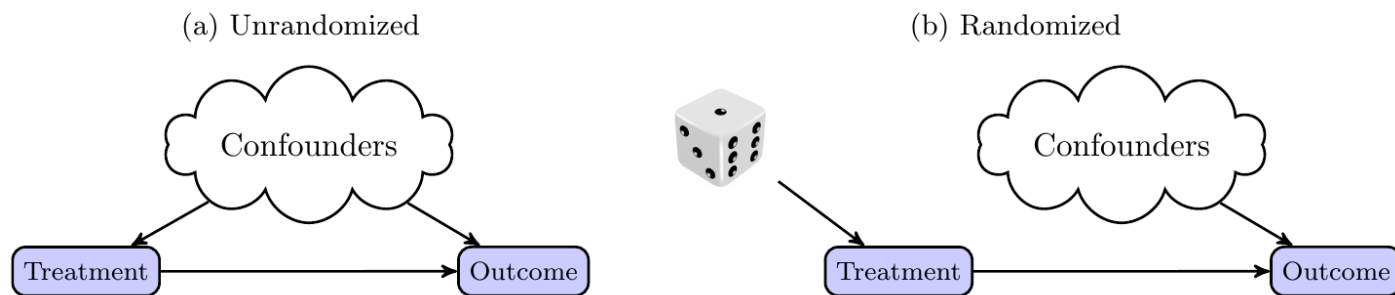
# Applications

- Some links to research that have applied some of these methods...A first place to look would be follow up papers from that symposium on causal inference.



# Causal Inference and Bandits

Randomized trials considered gold standard for determining causality



Bandits algorithms can be seen as an improvement on randomized trials that leverages the sequential nature of the decision process



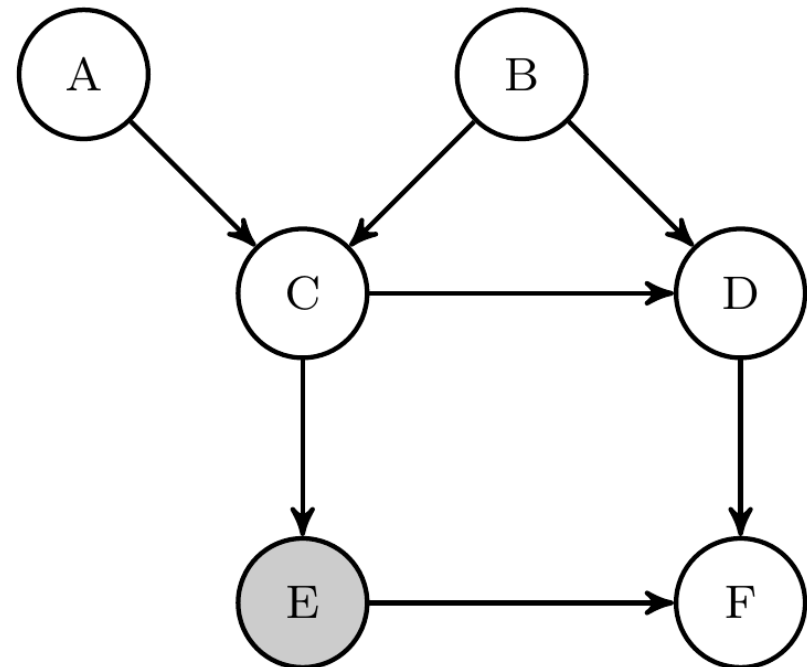
Can we incorporate ideas from causal inference into the bandit framework?  
What problems would this be useful for?

# Establishing a link between causal graphs and bandits

- Each possible assignment of variables to values that we can make is an action (or bandit arm)
- Reward is value of a single specified node in the graph after the action is chosen – cost of actions.
- Problem takes on characteristics of different bandit problems depending on what you get to see before you select an action what feedback you get afterward

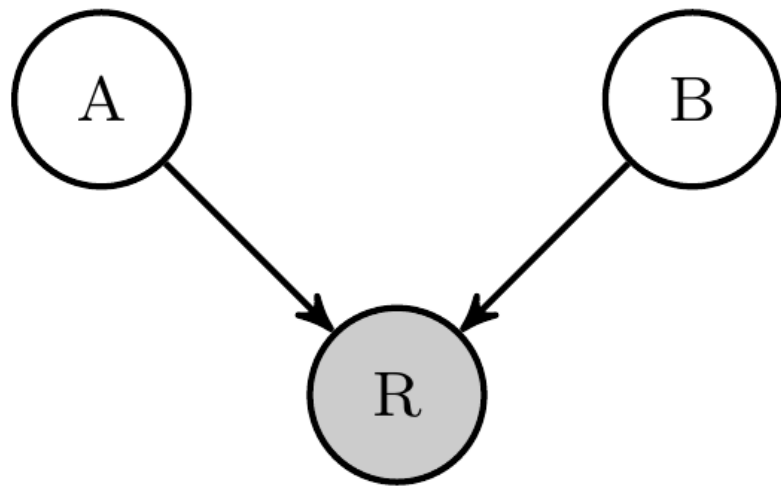
# Feedback on reward node only

- We can rule out some actions immediately based on the graph structure
- Then run a standard bandit algorithm on remaining actions



# Feedback on additional nodes

- Can give us some, but not always full, information on actions that were not selected.



Actions =

do(A=0,B=0)
do(A=0,B=1)
do(A=1,B=0)
do(A=1,B=1)
do(A=0)
do(A=1)
do(B=0)
do(B=1)
do()

$$\begin{aligned}P(R|do(A = 1)) &= P(R|A = 1) \\&= P(R|A = 1, do(B = 0))P(B = 0) + P(R|A = 1, do(B = 1))P(B = 1)\end{aligned}$$

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# Causal structure learning in R (pcalg)

```
library('pcalg')
n = 1000
X1 = rnorm(n,mean=10,sd=.2)
X2 = rnorm(n,mean=20,sd=.7)
X3 = X2-X1+rnorm(n,mean=0,sd=.5)
X4 = -X3^2+rnorm(n,mean=0,sd=8)
df = data.frame(X1,X2,X3,X4)
plot(df)
suffStat <- list(C = cor(df),n=nrow(df))
pc.3var = pc(suffStat,indepTest=gaussCitest,p=ncol(df),alpha=0.01)
plot(pc.3var, main = "")
```

