

Part2. Basic Causal Effect Identification

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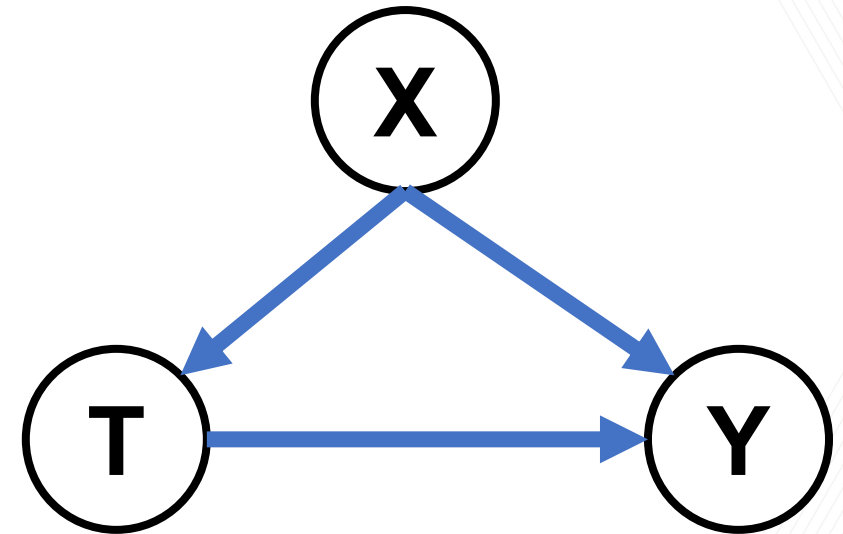
Link: <https://github.com/hang-wu/CI>

Problem Setup

- Notations:

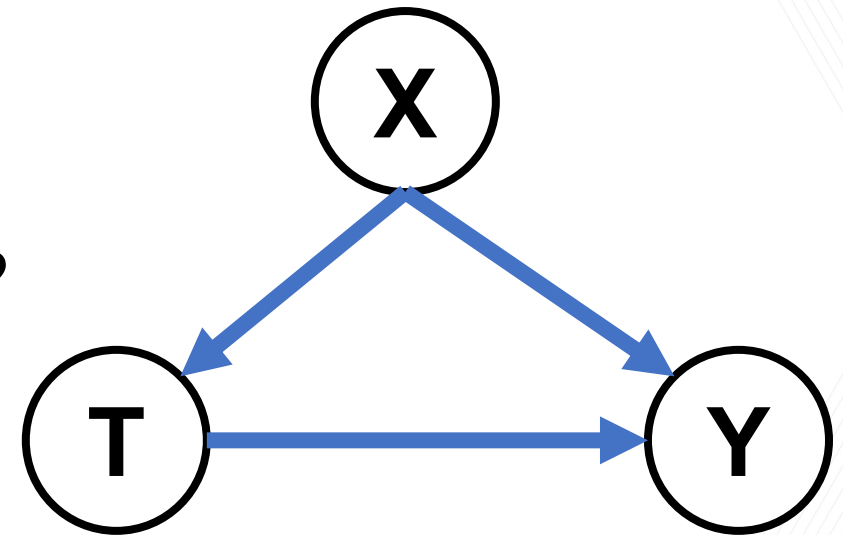
- T_i : treatment $\{0, 1\}$
- X_i : features
- $Y_i(t)$: the **potential** outcome under treatment t
- Y_i : **observed** treatment outcome

$$Y_i = T_i Y_i(T = 1) + (1 - T_i) Y_i(T = 0)$$



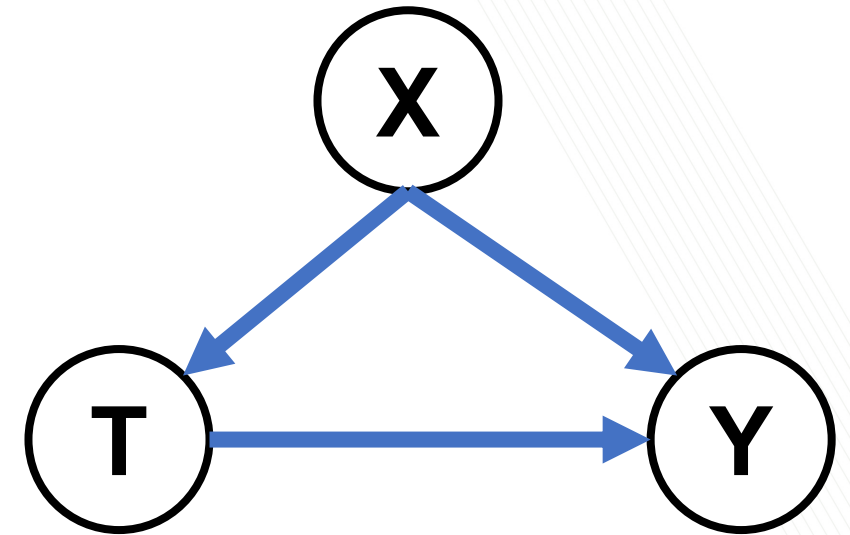
Problem Setup

- Objective:
 - Estimating the average effect of treatment T on Y:
$$ATT = E[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)]$$
- Q: So why this is challenging?



A simple numerical example

- In our example
 - $X \sim \text{some random distribution}$
 - $T = 2X + 0.01 * N_T(0, 1)$
 - $Y = 4X + 3T + N_Y(1, 1) = 5T + \text{Noise}$



```
import numpy as np
```

```
X = np.random.randint(0, 10, size=6)
```

```
T = 2*X + np.random.randn(6) * 0.01
```

```
Y = 4. * X + 3. * T + np.random.randn(6) * 0.01
```

A simple numerical example: When we only observe (T, Y)

Patient	T	Y(:.1f)
P1	3	30.0
P2	1	10.0
P3	4	40.0
P4	1	9.9
P5	4	3.9
P6	0	0.0

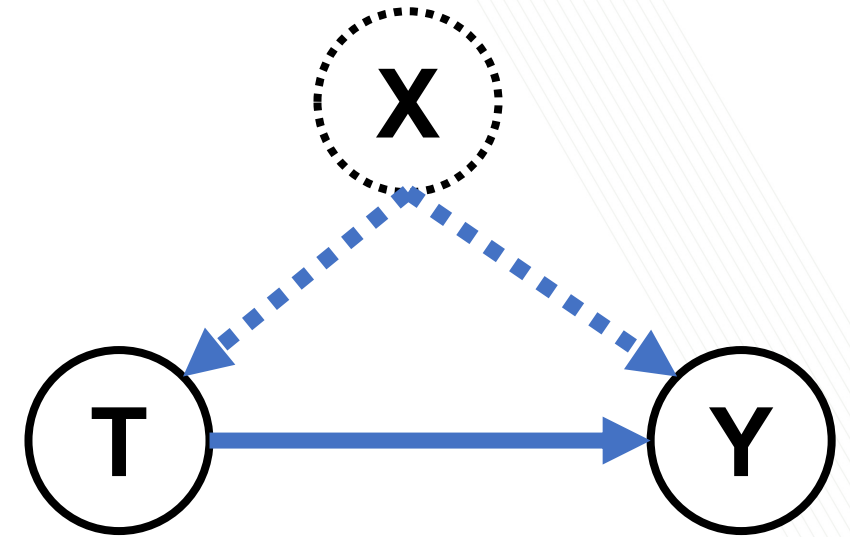
- If we fit a linear regression model using OLS

$$\beta = (T'T)^{-1}TY$$

- We get $\hat{\beta} \approx 5$
- A biased result

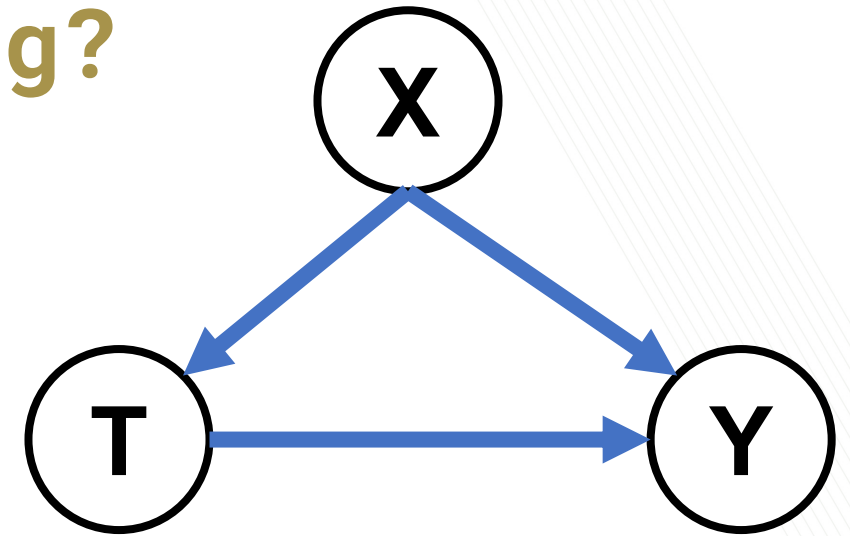
A simple numerical example

- In our example
 - $X \sim N(0, 1)$
 - $T = 2X + N_T(0.5, 1)$
 - $Y = 4X + 3T + N_Y(1, 1) = 5T + Noise$
- The treatment effect of T on Y should be 3 (i.e., when we keep X unchanged, changing T from 0 to 1 changes Y by 3 units)
- Confounding of X influences both T and Y



How to deal with confounding?

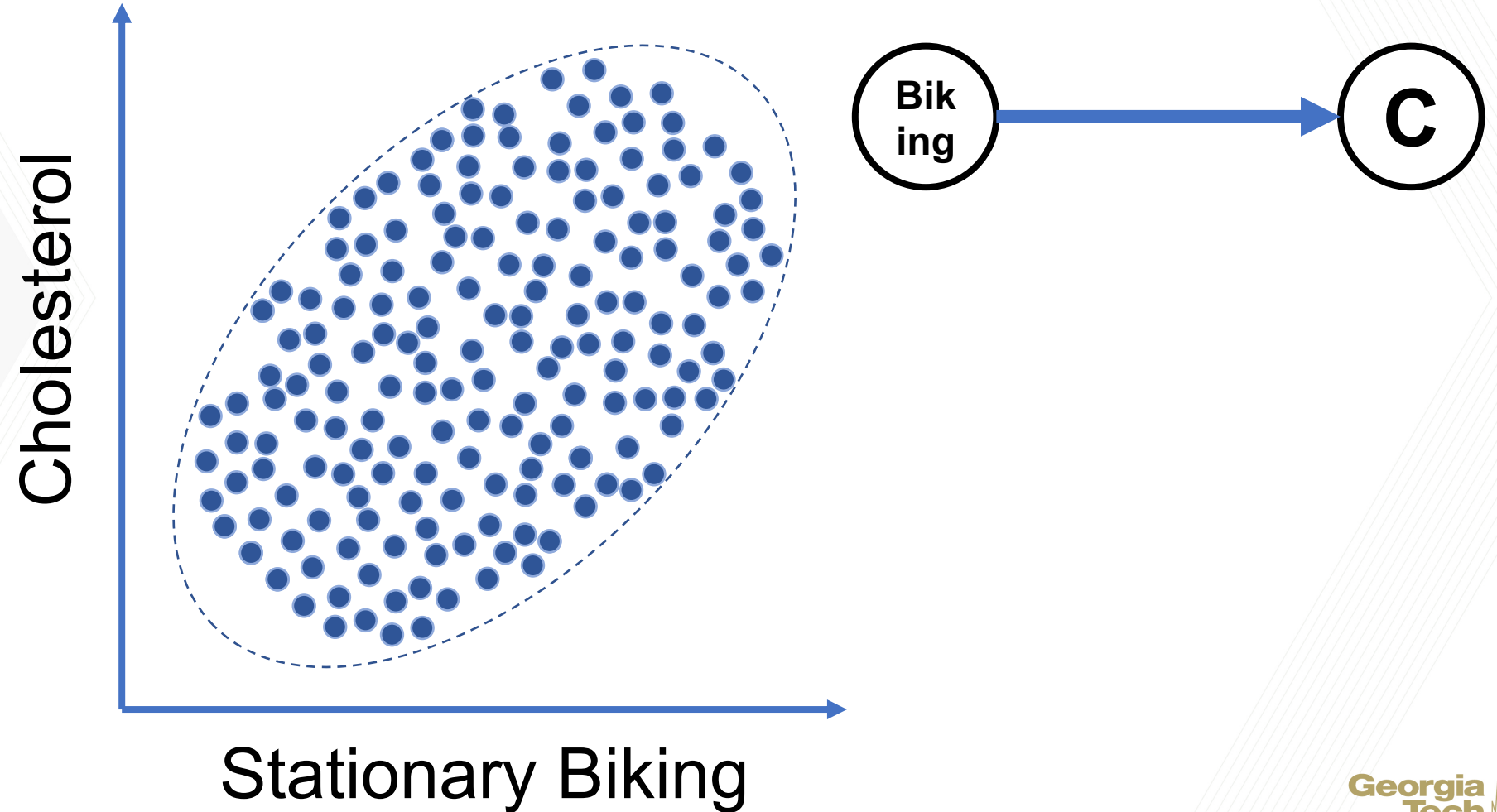
- Ideal case: We can break the dependence of T on X
 - Randomly assign T
 - $E[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)] = E[Y_i|T_i = 1] - E[Y_i|T_i = 0]$



Q: What if we cannot intervene?

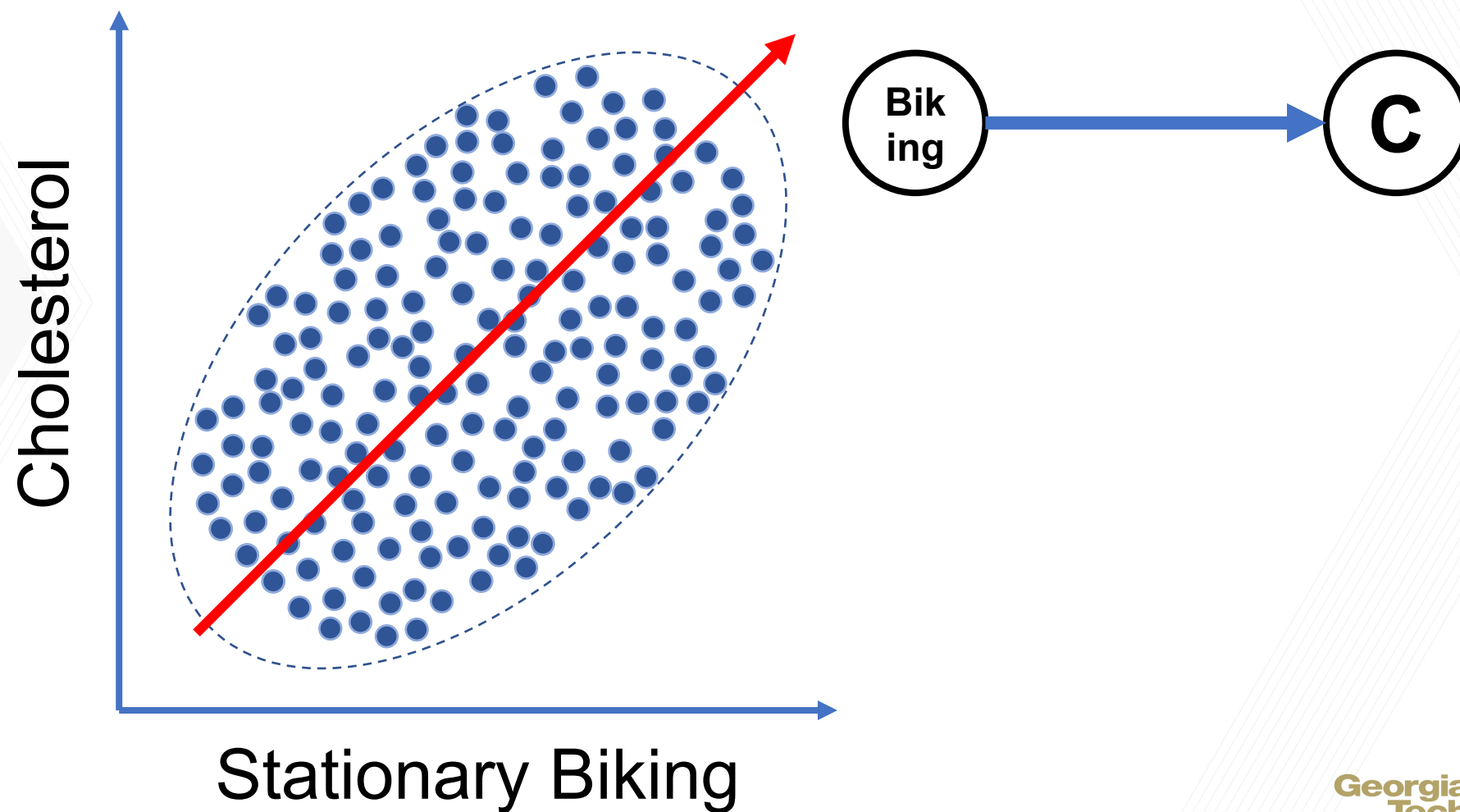
Estimation using Observation Data

How to deal with confounding?

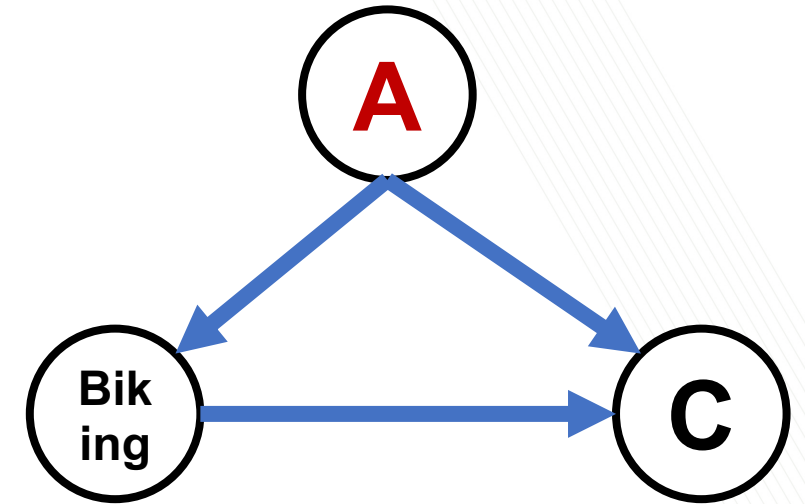
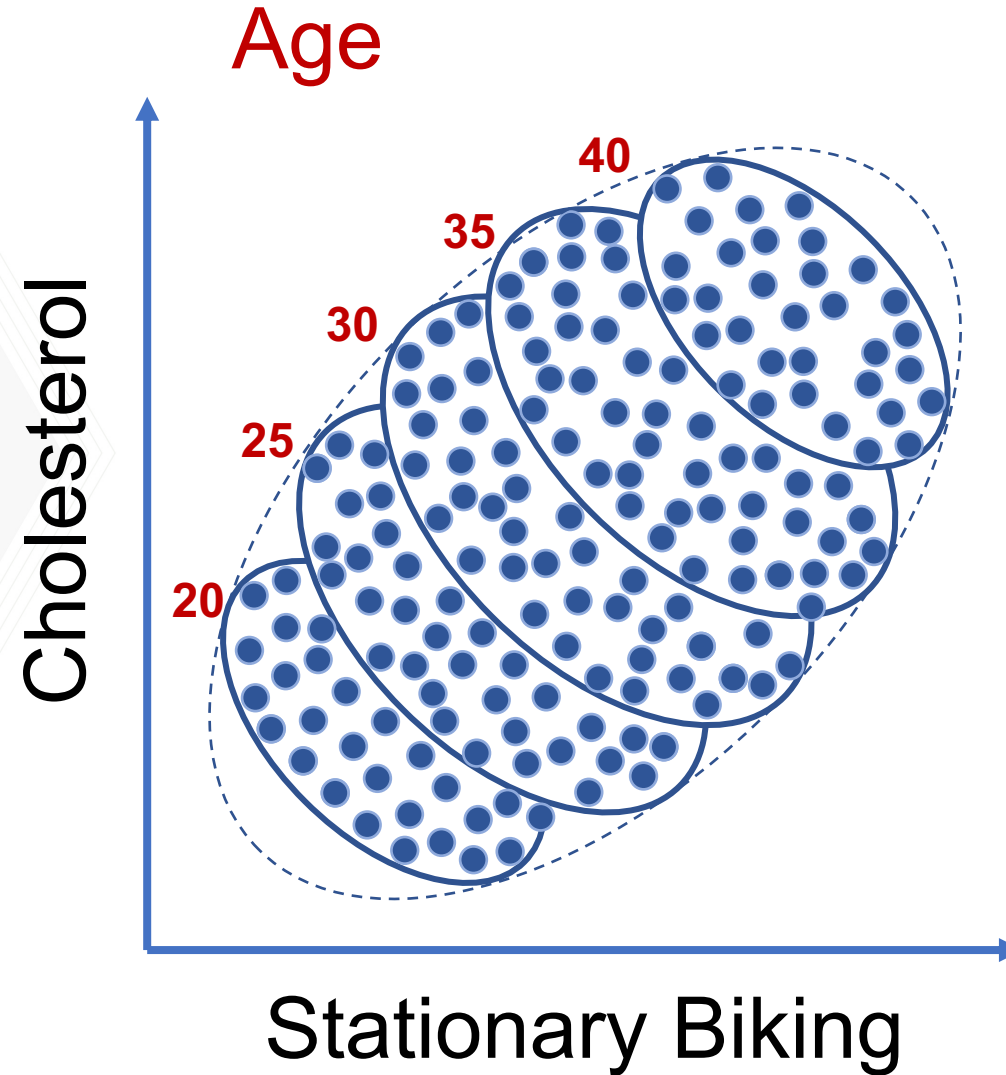


Example/Slides credit: [Amit Sharma \(@amt_shrma\)](#), [Emre Kiciman \(@emrek\)](#)

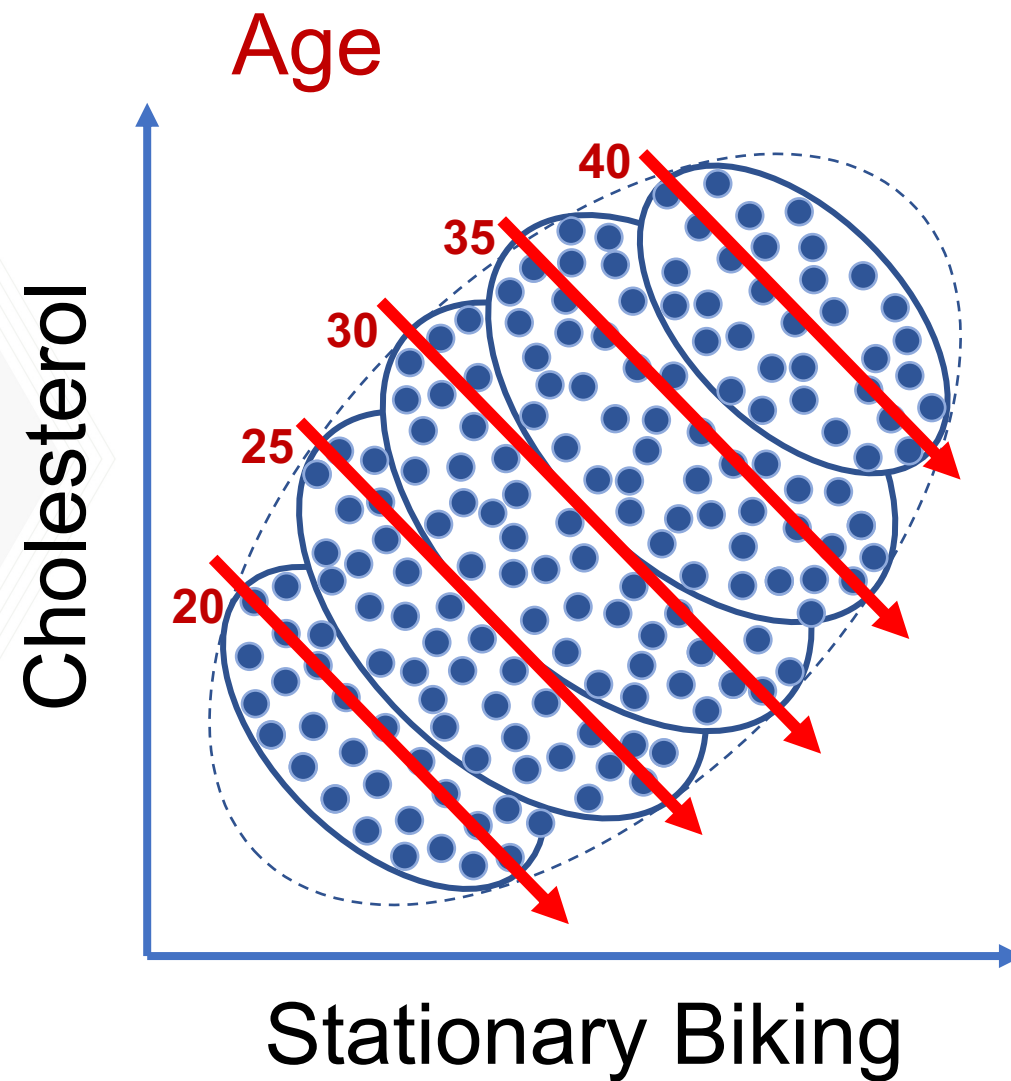
Does more *stationary biking* lead to higher *cholesterol*?



There is a confounder - age



We can condition on age



Recap

- *Age influences both stationary biking and cholesterol => **confounder***
- We condition on age (by analyzing each age group separately)
- And find stationary biking now seems to lead to lower cholesterol

Identification vs Estimation

$$P(\textit{Cholesterol} \mid \textit{do}(\textit{S_Biking})) = \sum_{age} P(\textit{Cholesterol} \mid \textit{S_Biking}, \textit{age}) P(\textit{age})$$

- Left hand-side:
 - A causal quantity
- Right hand-side:
 - A statistical quantity
- Using our causal knowledge, causal effect identification => statistical estimation problem

Conditioning

- Key intuition:
 - Conditioning on age, we have random assignments
 - => Lots of small RCTs

Assumptions We Made

- A1. Conditional Ignorability/
Unconfoundedness

$$\{Y_i(0), Y_i(1)\} \perp T_i | X_i = x \text{ for any } x$$

- We are talking about potential outcomes, not the observed outcomes

$$Y_i = T_i Y_i(T = 1) + (1 - T_i) Y_i(T = 0)$$

- Among units with identical values of X_i , T_i is “as-if” randomly assigned.

Assumptions We Made

- A2. Common Support/ Positivity
 $0 < \Pr(T_i = 1|X_i = x) < 1$ *for any* x
 - With any value of X_i , unit could have received either treatment or control.

Assumptions We Made

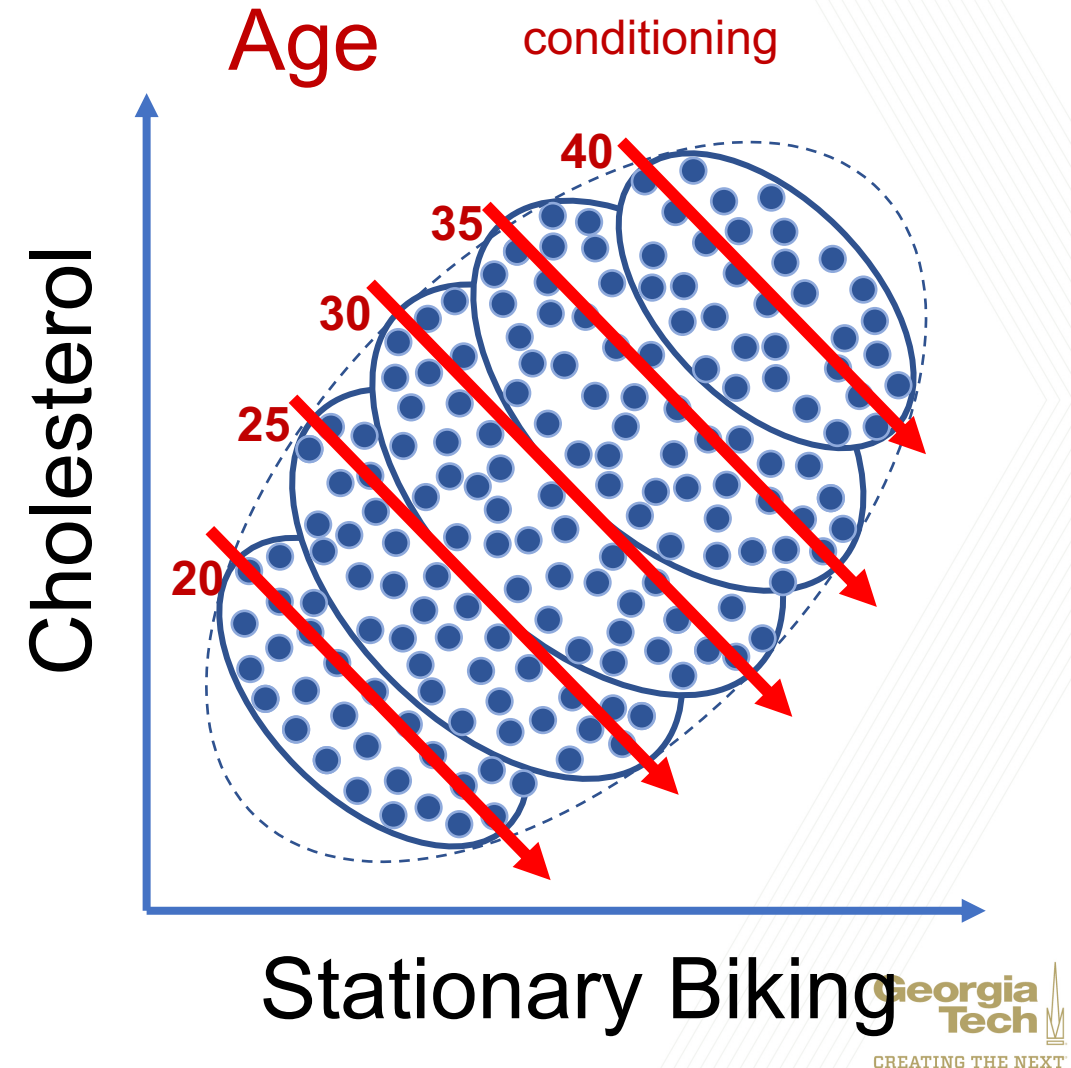
- A3. Stable Unit Treatment Value (SUTVA) assumption
 - the [potential outcome] observation on one unit should be unaffected by the particular assignment of treatments to the other units
 - No network effects

Estimation Under Unconfoundedness

- Case 1: Subclassification/Conditioning
 - When we have discrete variables

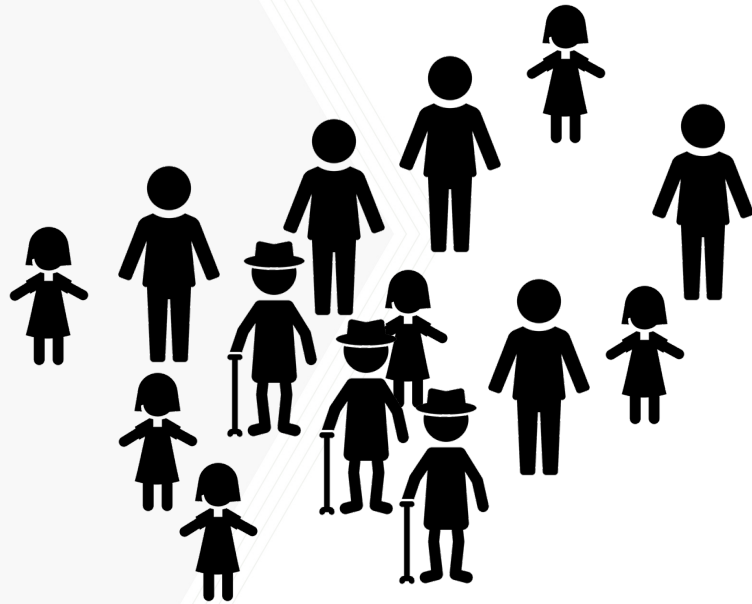
Discrete Features

- $ATE = \sum \{E[Y_i | T_i = 1, X_i = x] - E[Y_i | T_i = 0, X_i = x]\} \Pr(X_i = x)$
- That is, we can
 1. Group units into strata by values of X_i
 2. For each strata, compute the difference in outcome between treated and untreated
 3. Calculate the weighted average of Step 2.



Estimation Under Unconfoundedness

- Case 1: Subclassification/Conditioning
 - When we have discrete variables
- Case 2: Matching
 - When we have some/all continuous variables
 - Intuition: Find a pair of twins with opposite treatment

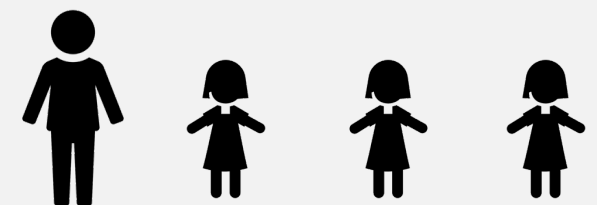
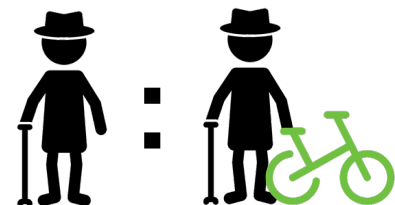
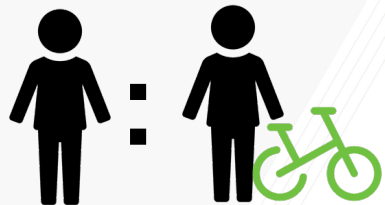
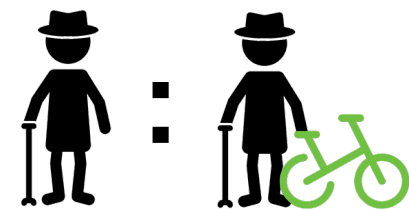
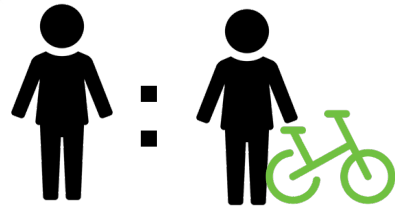
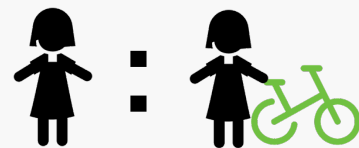
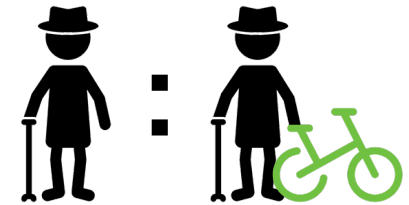
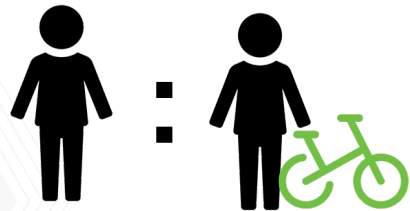
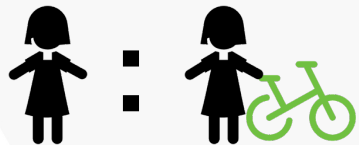
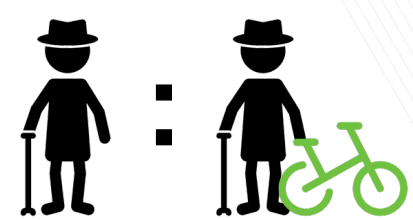
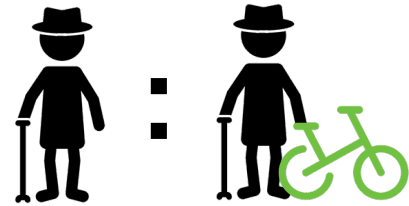
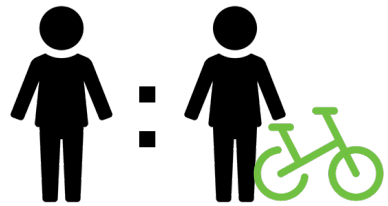
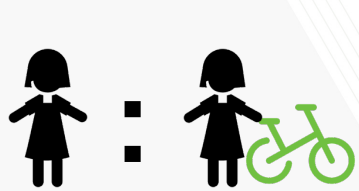


Avg Cholesterol = 200



Avg Cholesterol = 206

Example/Slides credit: [Amit Sharma \(@amt_shrma\)](#), [Emre Kiciman \(@emrek\)](#)



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Matching

1. For each observation i , find an observation \tilde{i}
 - in the opposite group
 - with the most similar values of X : $Distance(X_i, X_j) < \epsilon$
2. Estimate ATE by the average difference between the pairs:

$$\tau_{ATT} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (Y_i - Y_{\tilde{i}})(-1)^{T_i+1}$$

where \tilde{i} is the matched closest unit to the unit i with contrary treatment

Note: can match to multiple

Distance metrics for matching

- Mahalanobis distance:

$$D_M(X_i, X_j) = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)^T \Sigma_X^{-1} (X_i - X_j)}$$

- where Σ_X^{-1} is the (sample) variance-covariance matrix

Propensity Score

- Propensity score is an individual's *probability to be treated*

$$\hat{e}(X) = P(T = 1|X)$$

- Propensity scores are estimated or modeled, *not observed*.
- $\{Y_i(0), Y_i(1)\} \perp T_i \mid e(X_i)$

Distance metrics for matching

- Mahalanobis distance:

$$D_M(X_i, X_j) = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)^T \Sigma_X^{-1} (X_i - X_j)}$$

- where Σ_X^{-1} is the (sample) variance-covariance matrix

- Propensity scores:

$$\hat{e}(X) = P(T = 1|X)$$

- The probability of a unit being treated
- $D(X_i, X_j) = |\hat{e}(X_i) - \hat{e}(X_j)|$

Estimation Under Unconfoundedness

- Case 1: Subclassification/Conditioning
 - When we have discrete variables
- Case 2: Matching
 - When we have some/all continuous variables
 - Intuition: Find a pair of twins with opposite treatment
- Case 3: Weighting
 - We can think of as a continuous version of matching
 - Intuition: for each i , a proportion of $j \neq i$ is matched to i

Weighting

- Under the conditional ignorability and common support assumptions

$$ATE = E\left[Y_i \frac{T_i - e(X_i)}{e(X_i)(1 - e(X_i))}\right]$$

- These can be thus estimated using sample averages:

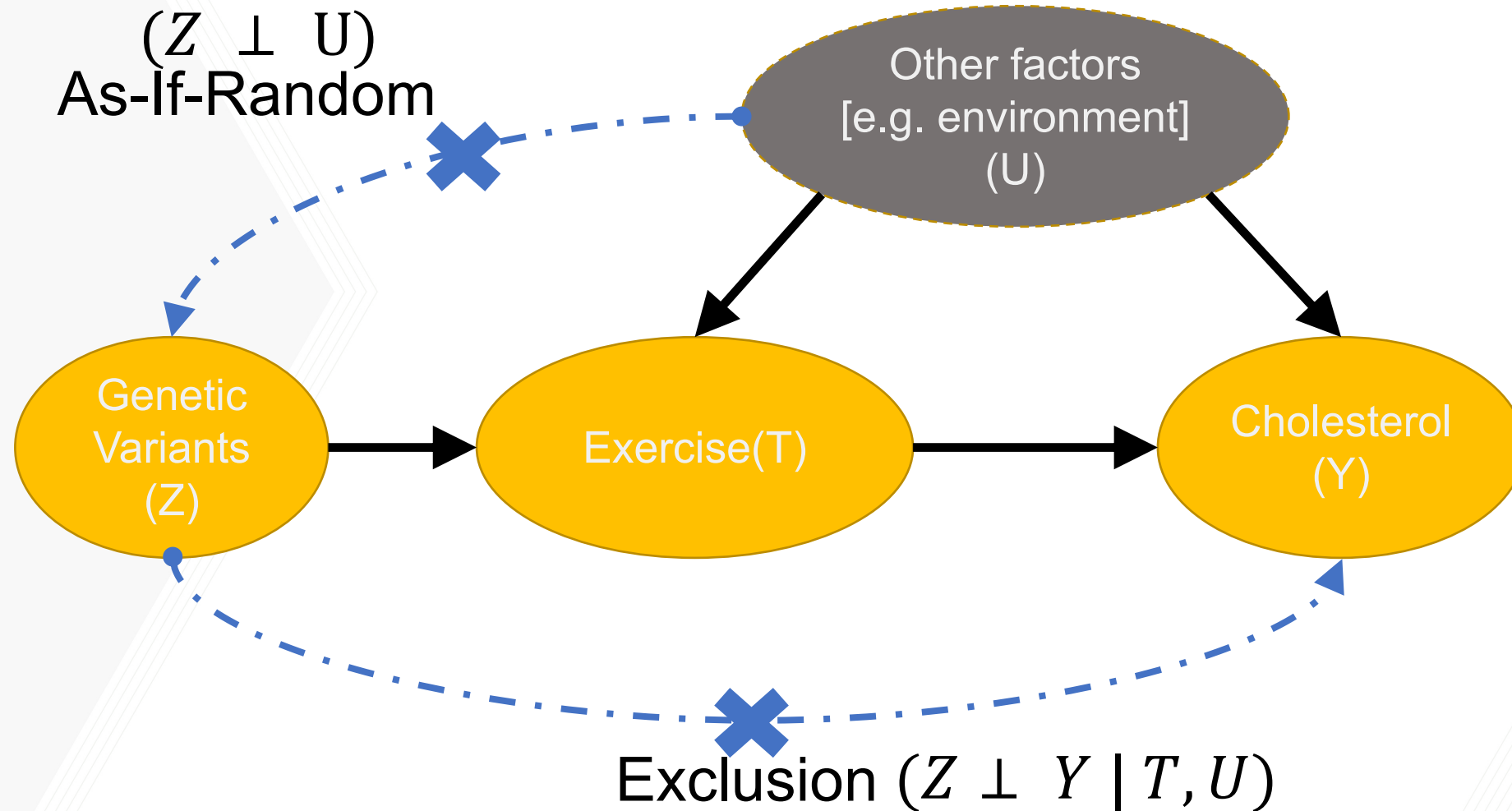
$$\tau_{ATE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i \frac{T_i - \hat{e}(X_i)}{\hat{e}(X_i)(1 - \hat{e}(X_i))}$$

- These inverse PS weighting (IPW) estimators are consistent, but not unbiased.

Inference without Conditional Ignorability

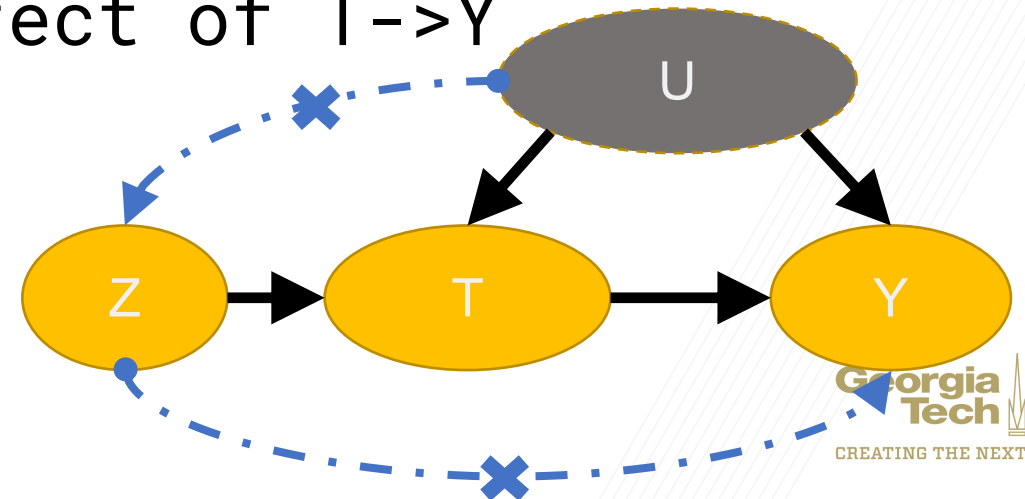
- Natural Experiment
 - Instrument variables: find extra variables

Instrument Variables



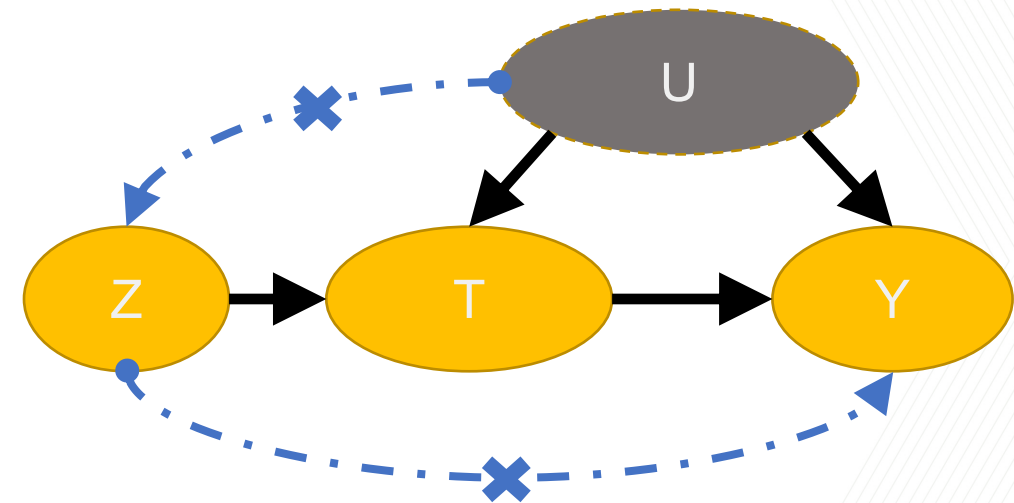
Intuition

- An increase in Z can lead to a change in Y *only through* T .
- So change in Y is a product of change in $Z \rightarrow T$ and $T \rightarrow Y$ arrows.
- If we identify:
 - Effect of $Z \rightarrow T$
 - Effect of $Z \rightarrow Y$
- We can identify the causal effect of $T \rightarrow Y$



A simple example

Patient	z	T	U	Y
P1	0.5	3	2.00	5.1
P2	1	6	4.01	9.9
P3	0	0.05	0.1	0.01
P4	0.5	3.01	1.99	4.95
P5	1	5.99	3.98	10.32
P6	1.5	9.01	6.02	15.01



$$T = U + 2Z + \text{Noise}$$
$$Y = T + U + \text{Noise}$$

Direct Estimation $Y \sim T$



```
import numpy as np
```

```
Z = np.array([.5, 1, .0, .5, 1., 1.5])  
T = np.array([3., 6., .05, 3.01, 5.99, 9.01])  
U = np.array([2., 4.01, .1, 1.99, 3.98, 6.02])  
Y = np.array([5.01, 9.9, 0.01, 4.95, 10.32, 15.01])
```

```
[2] # Ordinary Least Squares
```

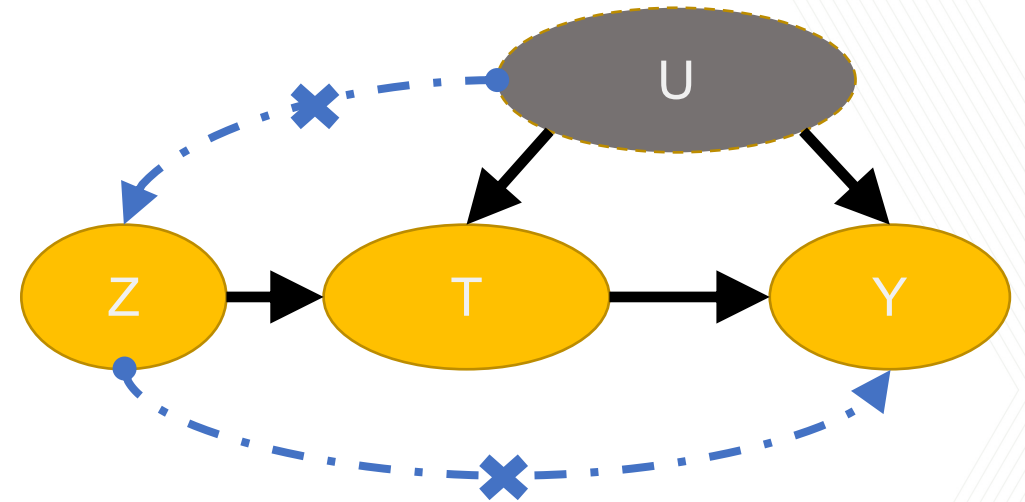
```
beta_OLS = 1./ np.dot(T.T, T) * np.dot(T.T, Y)  
print(beta_OLS)
```

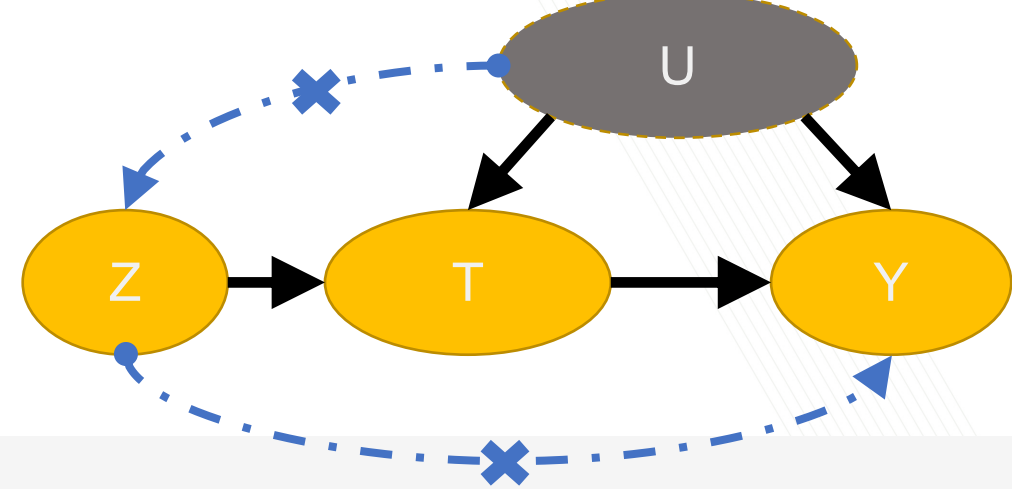


```
1.6735753505669613
```

Two-Stage Least Squares: A linear example

- $Y = \alpha T + \delta U + N_Y$
- $T = \beta Z + \gamma U + N_T$
- Stage1:
 - Regress $T \sim Z$ gives $\hat{\beta}$
- Stage 2:
 - Regress $Y \sim \hat{\beta}Z$
 - Why: $Y = \alpha T + \delta U + N_Y = \alpha(\beta Z) + (\alpha\gamma + \delta)U + N_Y$
 - \Rightarrow we get α





[3] # 2 Stage Least Squares

```
delta = 1./ np.dot(Z.T, Z) * np.dot(Z.T, T)
print(delta)
That = Z * delta
```

```
beta_2LS = 1./ np.dot(That.T, That) * np.dot(That.T, T)
print(beta_2LS)
```

```
↳ 6.002105263157894
   1.000000000000000002
```

$$T = U + 2Z + \text{Noise}$$
$$Y = T + U + \text{Noise}$$

Estimation without unconfoundedness

- Natural Experiment
 - Instrument variables
 - Regression discontinuity design (Skipped due to time constraint)
 - Difference in difference (Skipped due to time constraint)
- Nonparametric bounds and Sensitivity Analysis

Question: how much can we learn τ from data

- $\tau = E[Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)]$
- $= E[Y_i(1)|T_i = 1] \Pr(T_i = 1) + E[Y_i(1)|T_i = 0] \Pr(T_i = 0)$
- $- E[Y_i(0)|T_i = 1] \Pr(T_i = 1) - E[Y_i(0)|T_i = 0] \Pr(T_i = 0)$
- The two quantities in red are unobserved
 - => need to make assumptions

Assumptions on the unknown

	T_i	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
$\Pr(T_i = 0)$	0	$E[Y_i(0) T_i = 0]$?
$\Pr(T_i = 1)$	1	?	$E[Y_i(1) T_i = 1]$

Case 1: Randomized Controlled Trials

	T_i	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
$\Pr(T_i = 0)$	0	$E[Y_i(0) T_i = 0]$	$E[Y_i(1) T_i = 1]$
$\Pr(T_i = 1)$	1	$E[Y_i(0) T_i = 0]$	$E[Y_i(1) T_i = 1]$

- In RCTs, since the data are missing at random
- Treatment and control groups are identical in expectation
- PO of treatment and control groups identical in expectation

Case 2: Lower Bound

	T_i	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
$\Pr(T_i = 0)$	0	$E[Y_i(0) T_i = 0]$	<u>Y</u>
$\Pr(T_i = 1)$	1	<u>\bar{Y}</u>	$E[Y_i(1) T_i = 1]$

- Assume the worst possible outcome
- Treated units would have best possible outcome \bar{Y} if untreated
- Control units would have had worst possible outcome Y if treated

This results in a lower bound:

$$E[Y_i(1)|T_i = 1] \Pr(T_i = 1) + \underline{Y} \Pr(T_i = 0) - \bar{Y} \Pr(T_i = 1) - E[Y_i(0)|T_i = 0] \Pr(T_i = 0)$$

Case 3: Upper Bound

	T_i	$Y_i(0)$	$Y_i(1)$
$\Pr(T_i = 0)$	0	$E[Y_i(0) T_i = 0]$	\bar{Y}
$\Pr(T_i = 1)$	1	\underline{Y}	$E[Y_i(1) T_i = 1]$

- Assume the best possible outcome
- Treated units would have worst possible outcome \underline{Y} if untreated
- Control units would have had best possible outcome \bar{Y} if treated

This results in a lower bound:

$$E[Y_i(1)|T_i = 1] \Pr(T_i = 1) + \bar{Y} \Pr(T_i = 0) - \underline{Y} \Pr(T_i = 1) - E[Y_i(0)|T_i = 0] \Pr(T_i = 0)$$

Case 4: Adding Assumptions

- Example: Monotone treatment selection
 - units who select the treatment have higher expectation of outcome under either condition on average (e.g. sicker)
 - $E[Y_i(0)|T_i = 0] \leq E[Y_i(0)|T_i = 1]$
 - $E[Y_i(1)|T_i = 0] \geq E[Y_i(1)|T_i = 1]$
 - We can obtain a tighter upper bound

Agenda

Part 1

- Introduction of Causal Inference

3:00 – 3:30

Part 2

- Basic of Causal Effect Estimation Algorithm

3:30 – 4:15

Break

Part 3

- Recent Advances
- Challenges and Opportunities

4:35 – 5:15

I'll attend the NSF student award from 4:20 – 4:30 CNB-MAC