

Bayesian regression modeling: Theory & practice

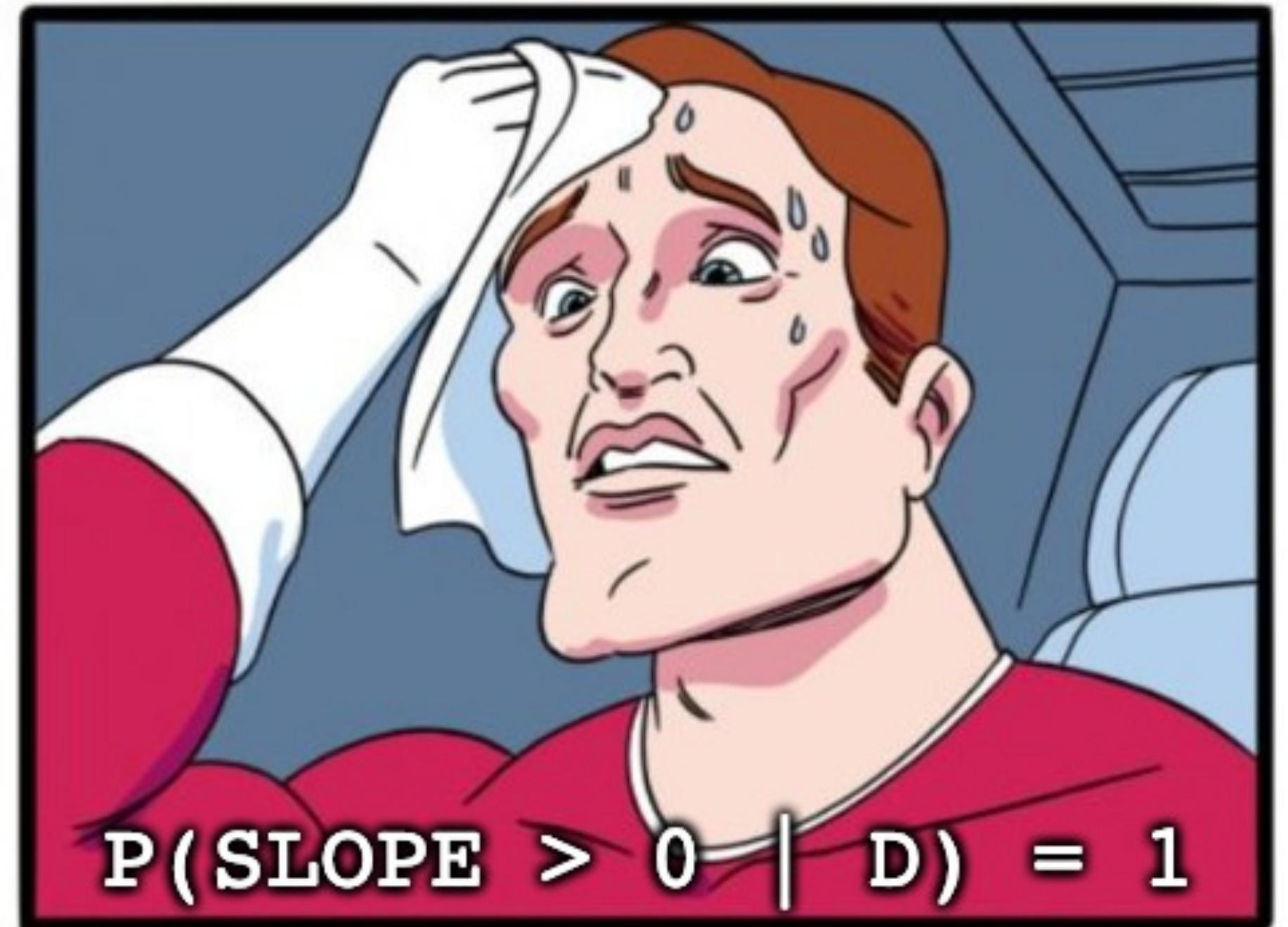
Part 7: Causal inference & regression modeling

Michael Franke

Causal inference

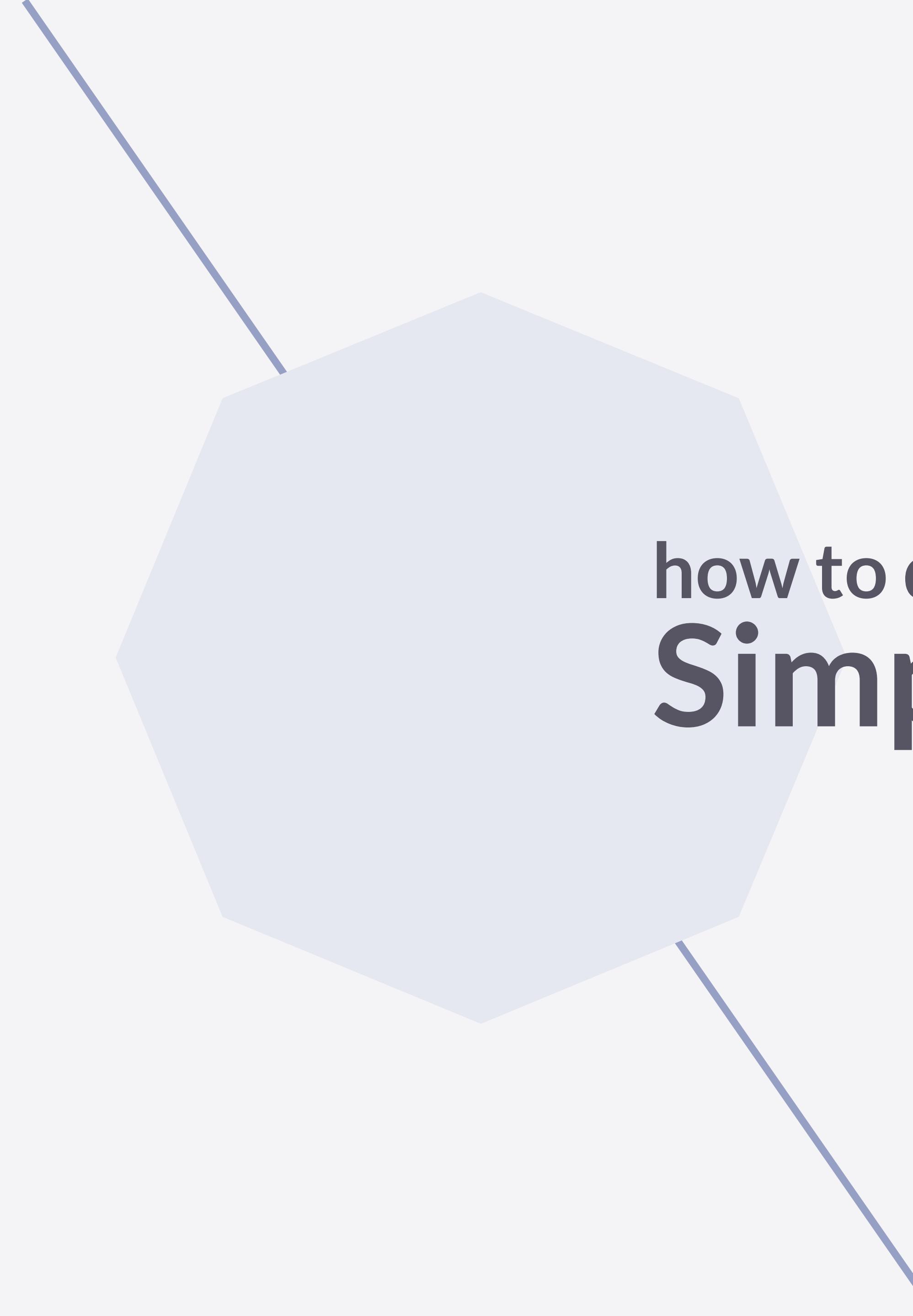
motivation

- ▶ we know: **correlation does not mean causation**
- ▶ we want: actionable conclusions
- ▶ we use: randomized control trials
- ▶ but: **what if we can only observe passively?**





how to disentangle
Simpson's paradox



Simpson's paradox: Case 1

Gender as a confounder



- ▶ 700 patients w/ choice: take drug or not
- ▶ variable of interest: recovery rate
- ▶ also observed: **gender**

	Drug	No drug
Men	81 / 87 (93%)	234 / 270 (87%)
Women	192 / 263 (73%)	55 / 80 (68%)
Σ	273 / 350 (78%)	289 / 350 (83%)

Case 2

Blood-pressure as a mediator



- ▶ same as case 1, but no gender info
- ▶ also observed:
post-treatment blood pressure

	Drug	No drug
Low BP	81 / 87 (93%)	234 / 270 (87%)
High BP	192 / 263 (73%)	55 / 80 (68%)
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Would you recommend using the drug
in Case 1 and/ or Case 2?

Simpson's paradox: Case 1

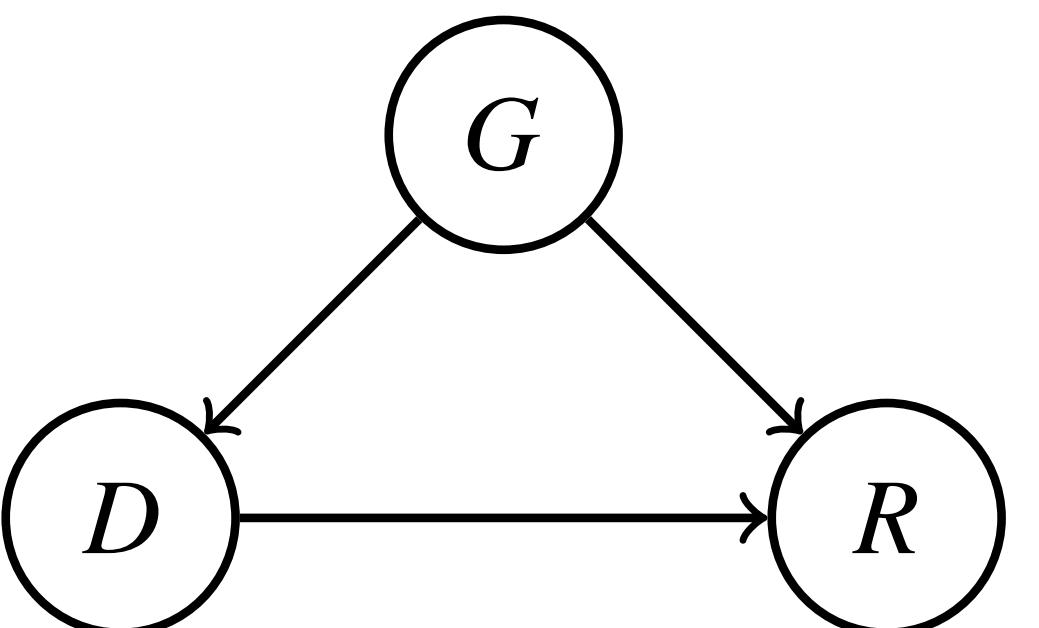
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causal relation
gender is
a **confound**



Case 2

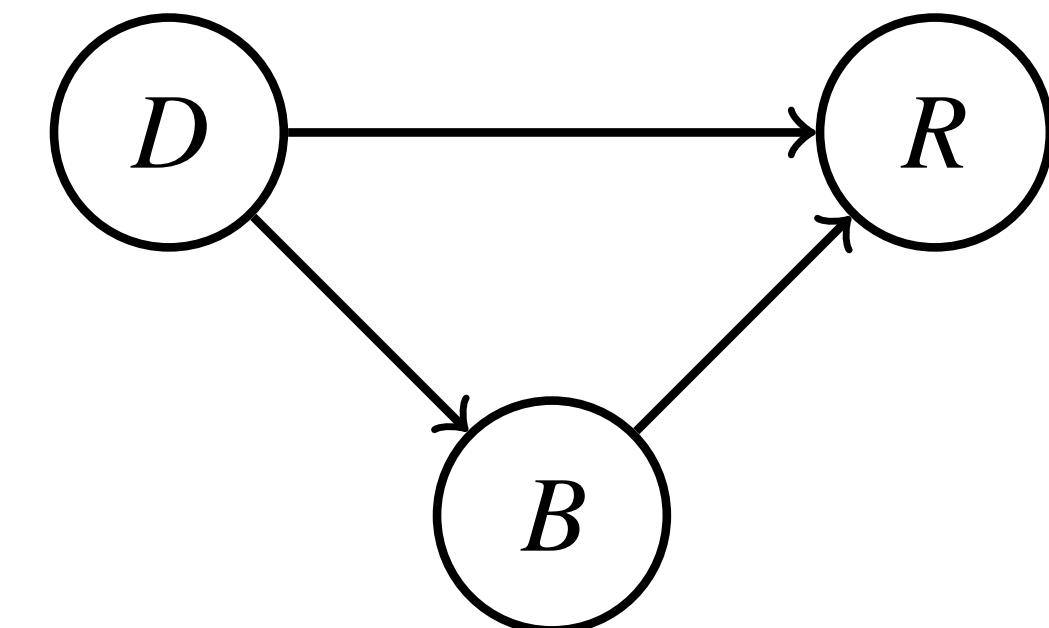
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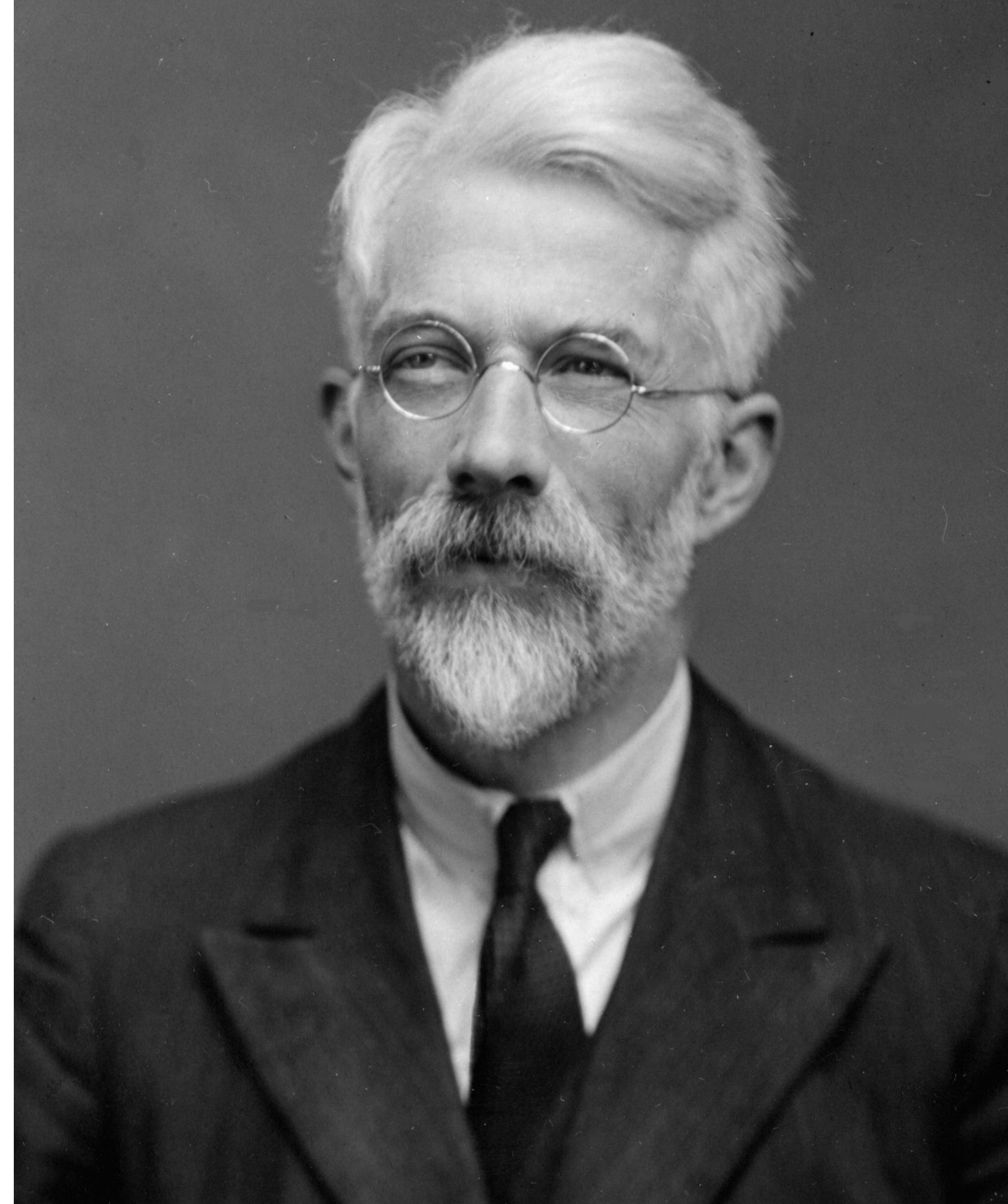
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causal relation
blood pressure is
a **mediator**



“the object of
statistical methods is
the **reduction of data**”

Fisher (1922)





causal models

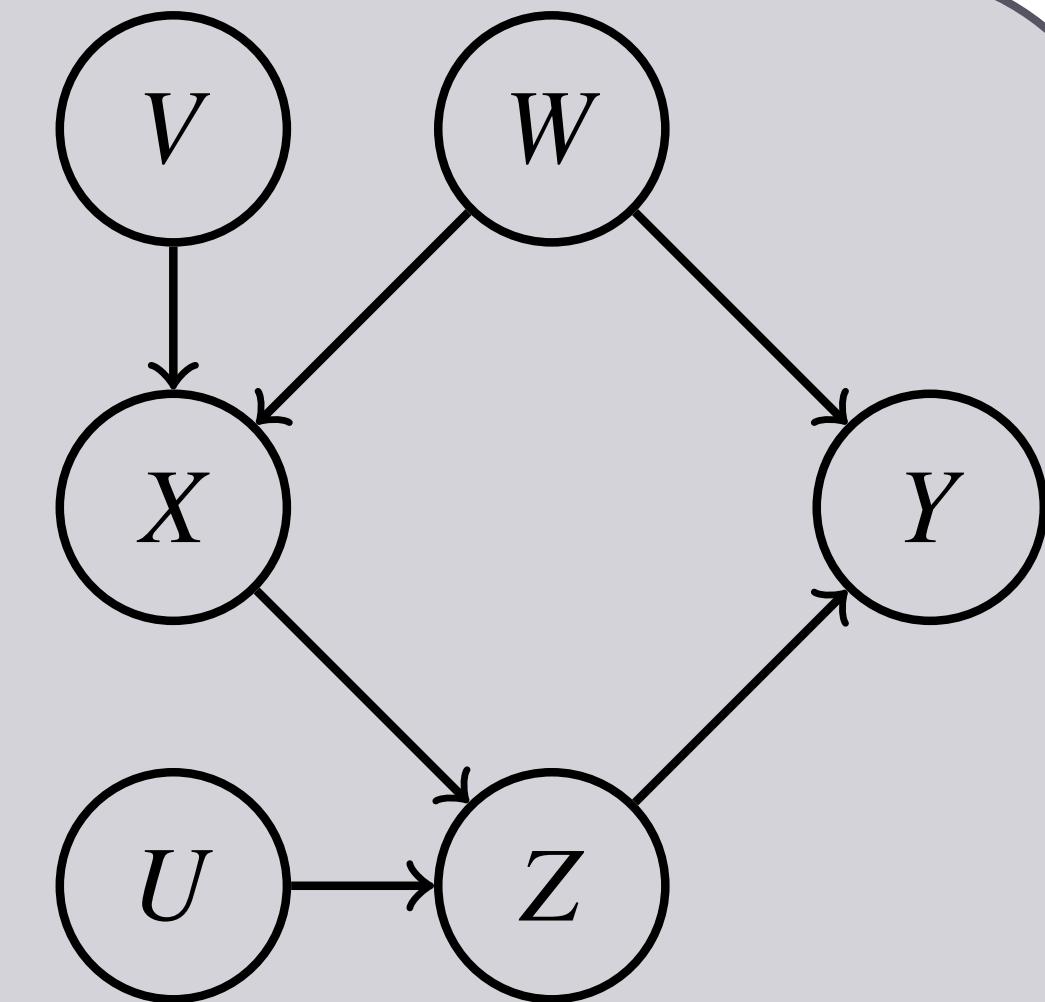
Causal models

intuitive, informal approach

“causal models represent the *mechanism* by which data were generated” (Pearl et. al 2016, p. 36)

- ▶ directed acyclic graph (DAG):
 - nodes are variables / events
 - edges indicate direct causal relationship
 - paths indicate (indirect) causal relationship
- ▶ beliefs in causal relationships constrain beliefs in stochastic dependency
 - no causal path => stochastic independence
 - single causal path from X to Y via Z => conditional stochastic dependence

example



- ▶ V and W are independent ($V \perp\!\!\!\perp W$)
- ▶ U and Y are independent conditional on Z ($U \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$)
- ▶ ...

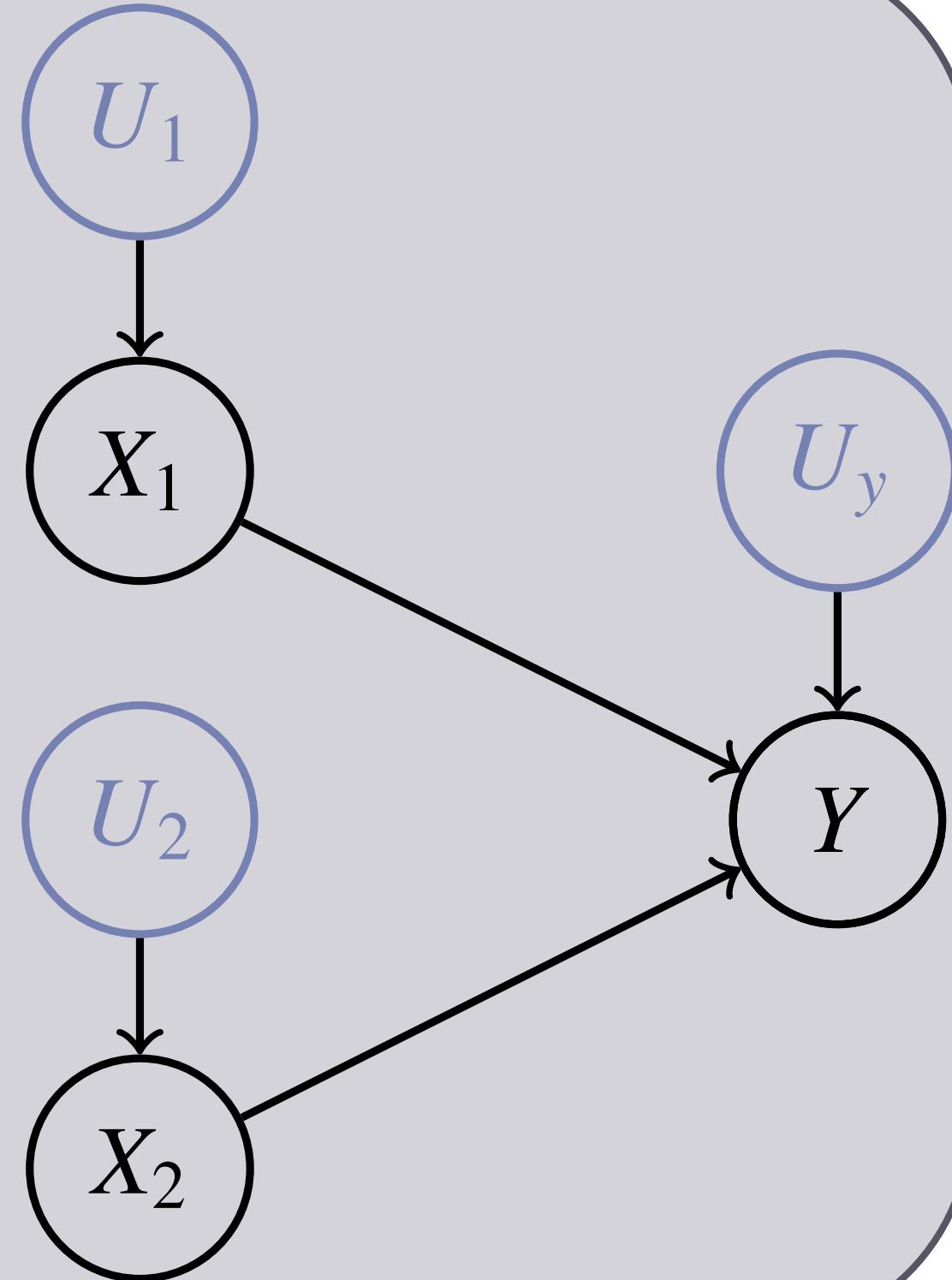
Excursion: Structural causal models

separating stochasticity and deterministic causal relations

- ▶ a structural causal model (SCM) consists of:
 - set U of exogenous variables
 - cause-less “first-movers” / root variables
 - introduce all randomness
 - set V of endogenous variables
 - set F of functions determining the value of some $v \in V$, based on the values of some subset of $U \times V$
 - all dependencies are deterministic
- ▶ advantage: can capture complex causal dependencies involving error terms

example

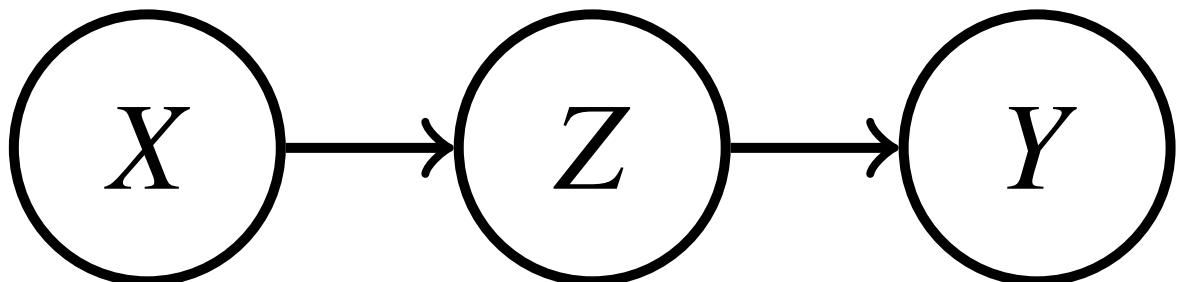
- ▶ exogenous variables are sampled from normal distributions
- ▶ $x_1 = u_1$
- ▶ $x_2 = u_2$
- ▶ $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u_y$



Elementary causal relationships

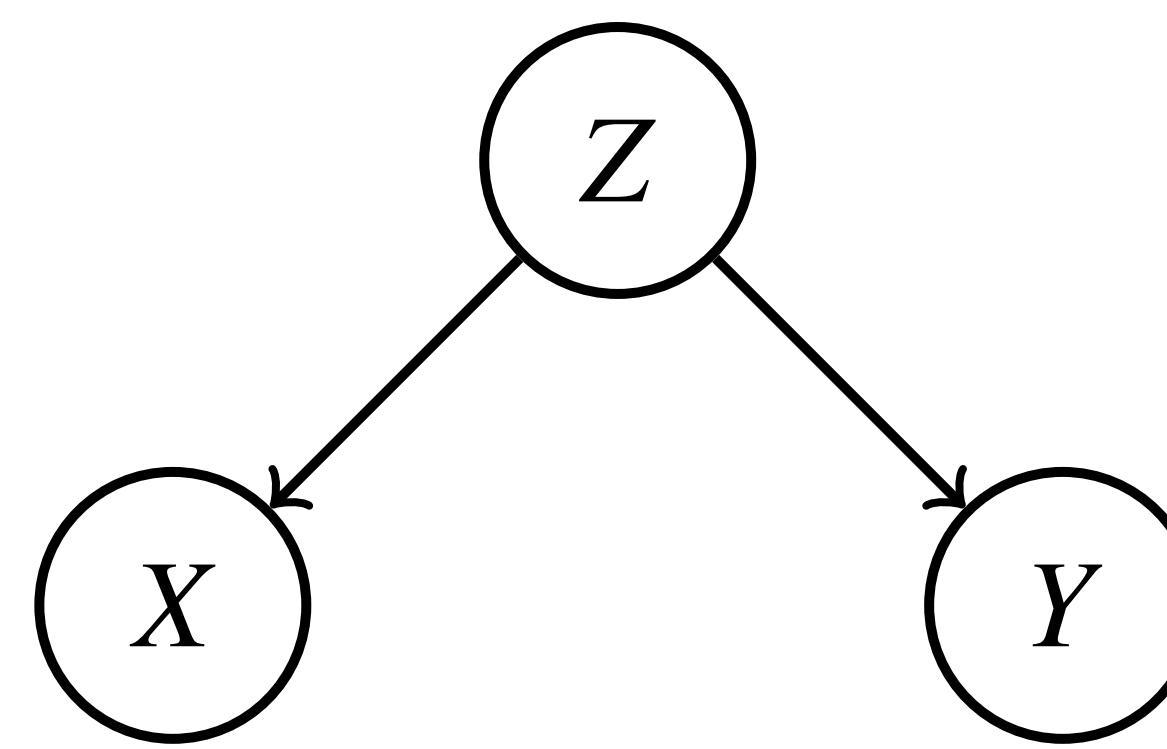
think: “conceptual atoms of complex causal graphs”

Chain



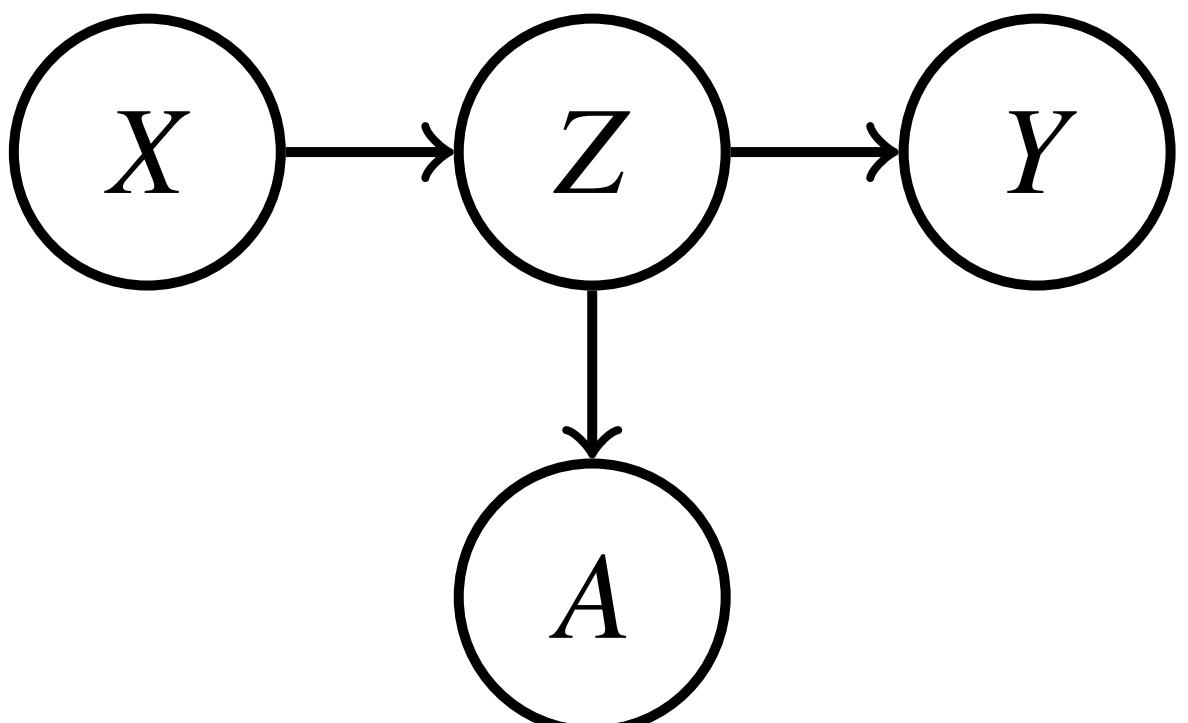
- ▶ X & Y independent conditional on Z

Fork



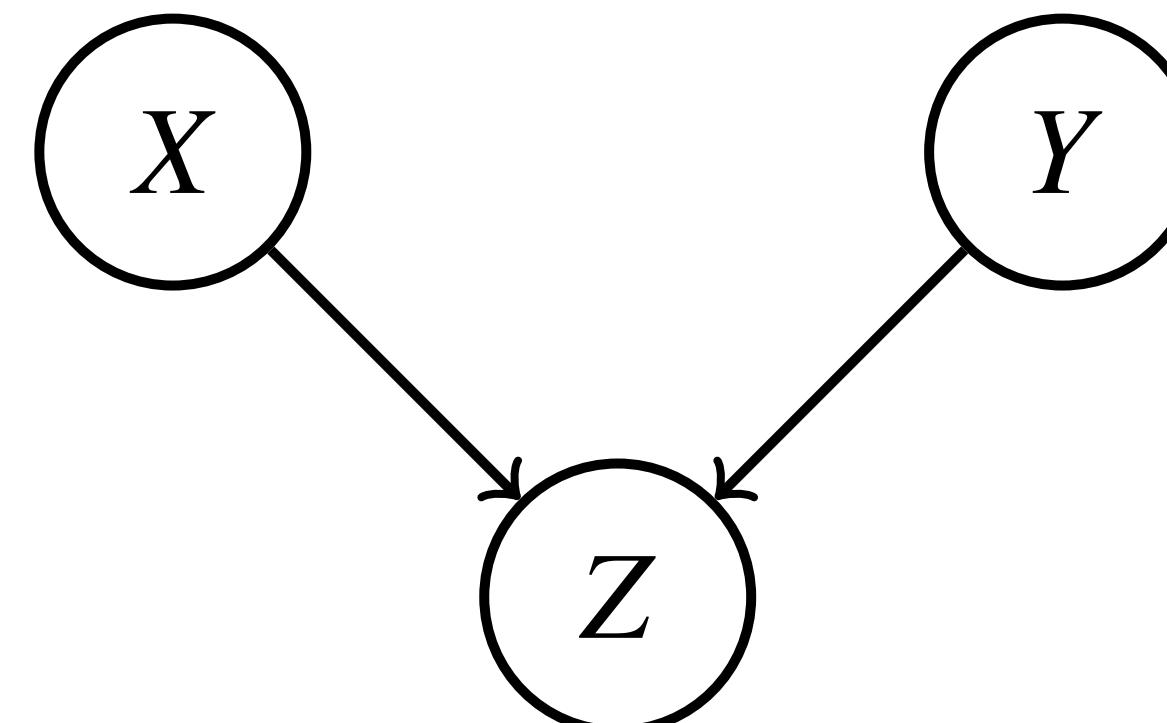
- ▶ X & Y stochastically dependent without direct causal relation

Descendant



- ▶ X & Y independent conditional on A, the more A provides information about Z

Collider



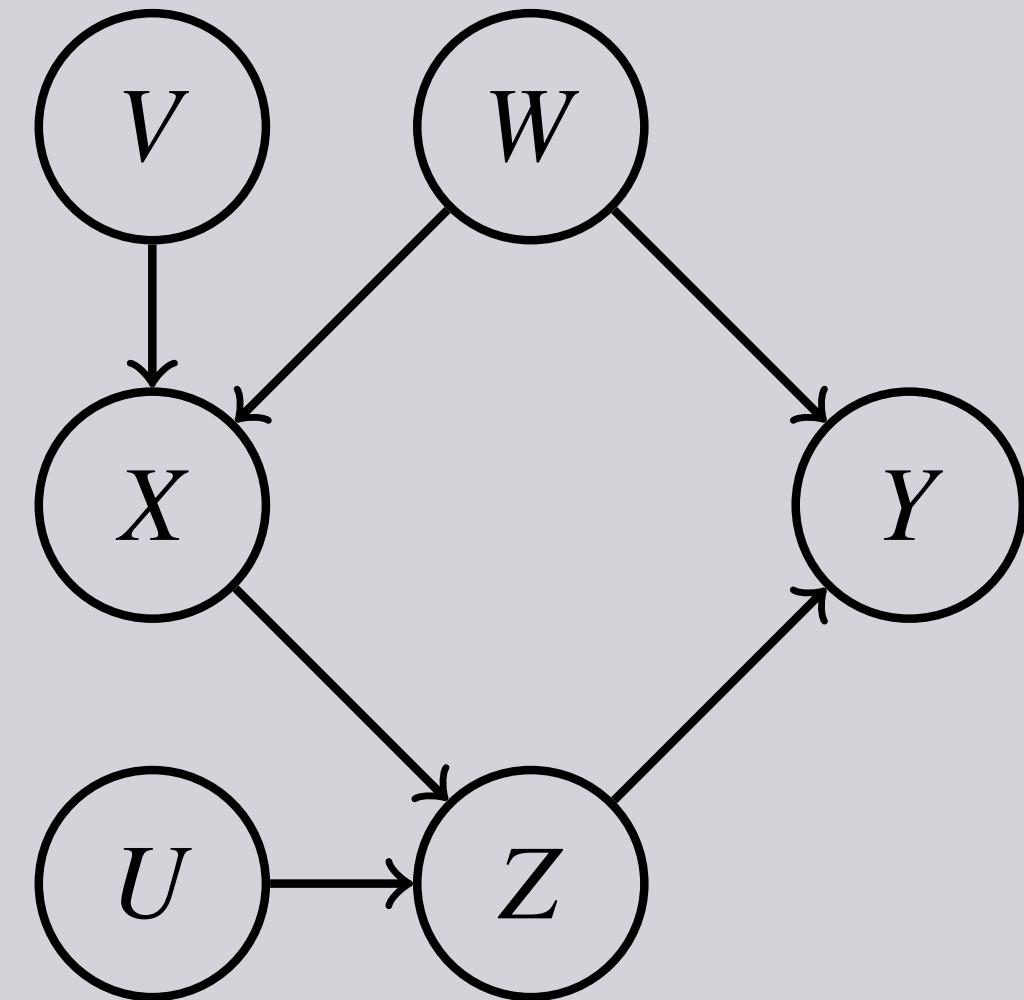
- ▶ X & Y independent, but dependent conditional on Z

d-separation

which nodes are (in-)dependent?

- ▶ fix a graph of causal relations
- ▶ each pair of nodes (X, Y) is either:
 - ***d*-separated**: X and Y are definitely independent
 - ***d*-connected**: X and Y are possibly dependent
 - they *are* dependent, except for fringe cases
- ▶ X and Y are ***d*-separated** if:
 - all paths between them are blocked
- ▶ a path is **blocked** if:
 - it passes through a collider

example



***d*-separated nodes**

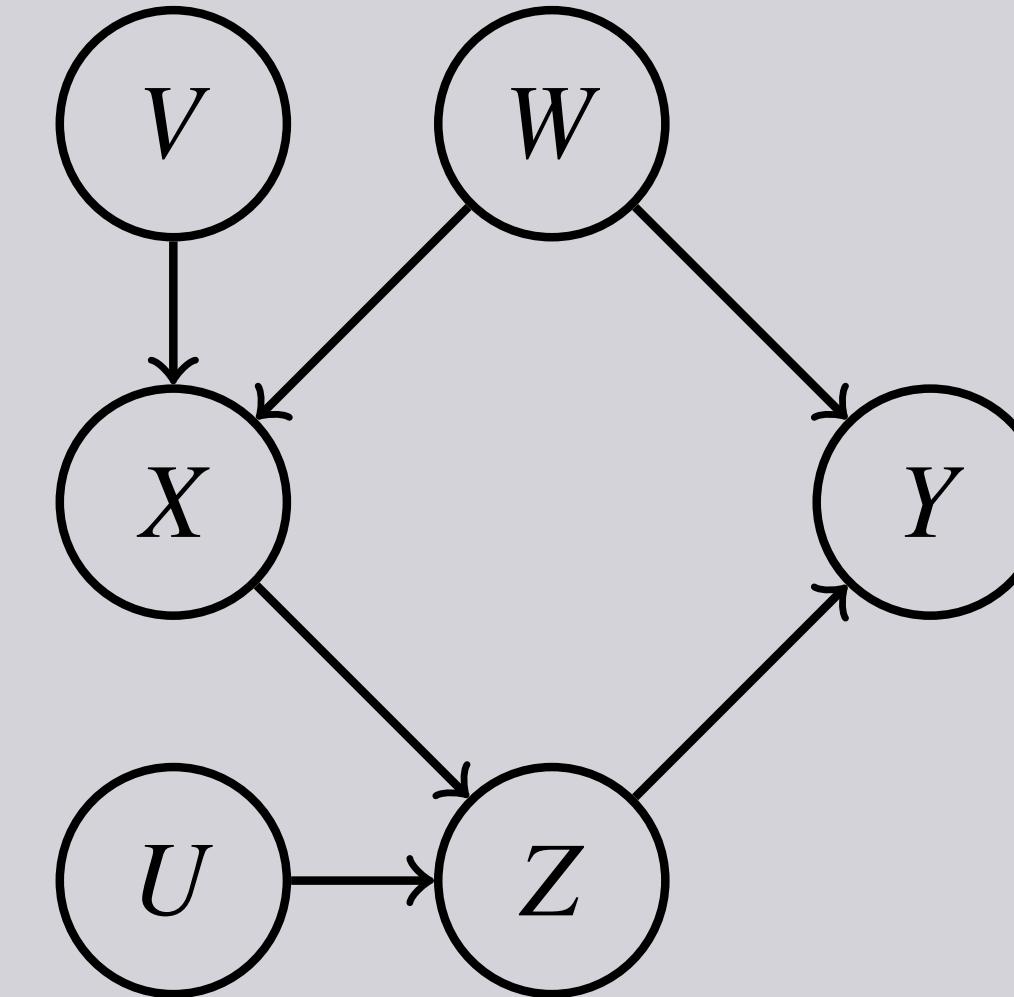
- ▶ $(U, V), (X, U), (V, W)$

conditional d -separation

which nodes are (in-)dependent given a set of observed variables?

- ▶ fix a set of nodes Z
- ▶ X and Y are **d -separated conditional on Z** if:
 - all paths between X and Y are blocked *simpliciter* or by some node in Z
- ▶ a path is **blocked (simpliciter)** if:
 - it passes through a collider
- ▶ a path is **blocked by a node Z** if:
 - Z is the middle node of a chain or fork
- ▶ a path is **unblocked by a node Z** if:
 - it is blocked w/o Z , and Z is a collider or a descendent of one

example



d -separated nodes

- ▶ $(U, V), (X, U), (V, W)$

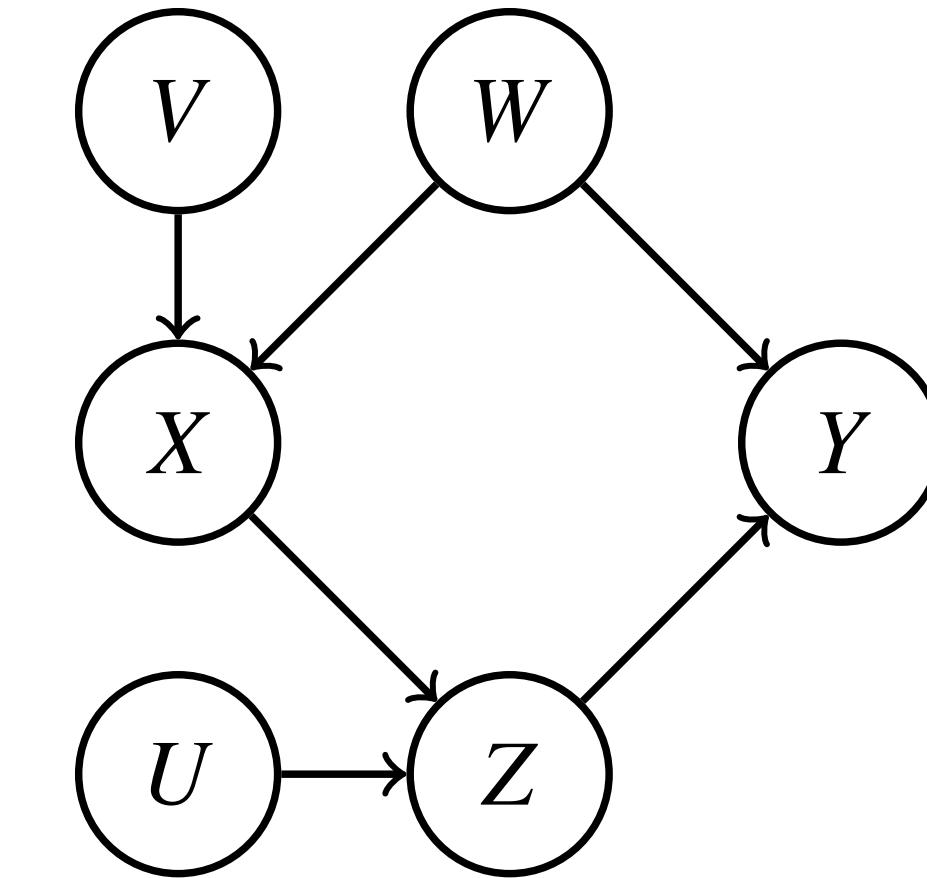
X and Y d -separated conditional on:

- ▶ $\{W, Z\}, \{U, W, Z\}, \{V, W, Z\}, \{U, V, W, Z\}$

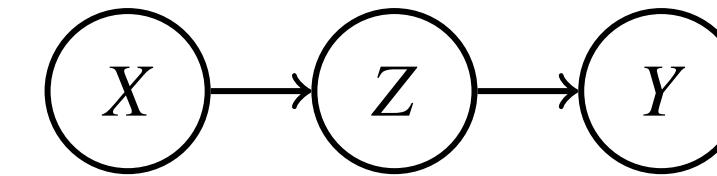
causal models

summary

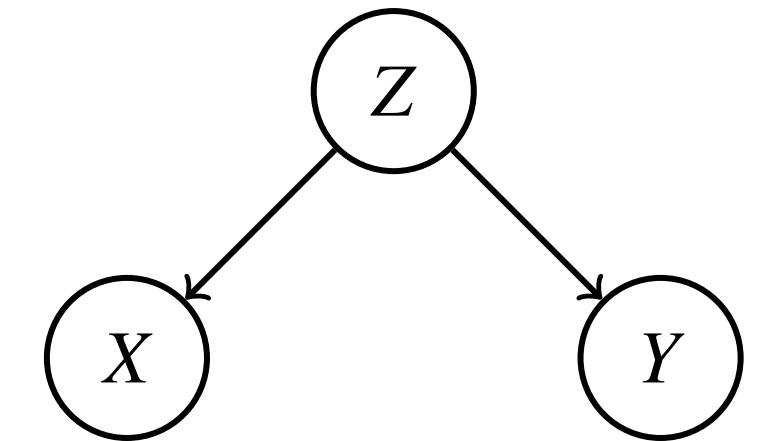
- ▶ capture (modellers') assumptions about causal relations
- ▶ entail assumptions about stochastic (in-)dependencies
- ▶ four elementary building blocks
 - chains
 - forks
 - descendants
 - colliders
- ▶ ***d-separation***: method of determining (conditional) stochastic dependencies in any given graph



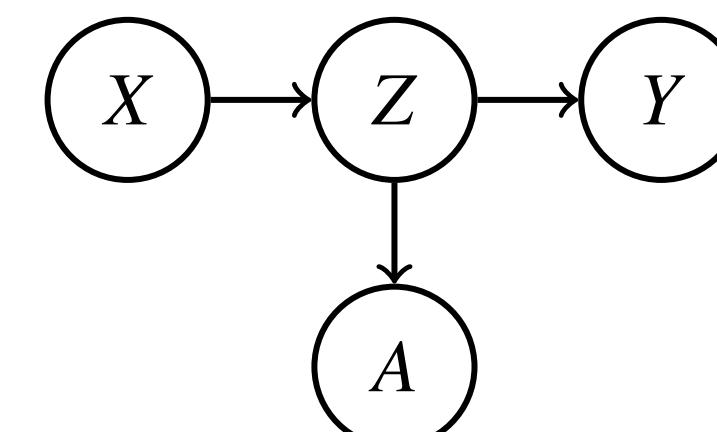
Chain



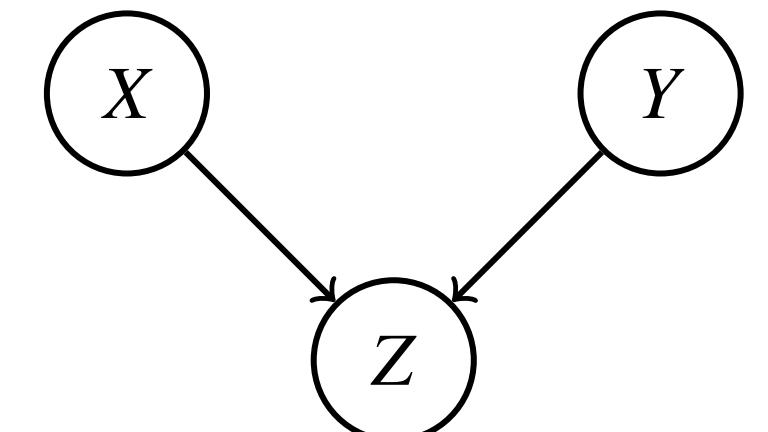
Fork



Descendant



Collider



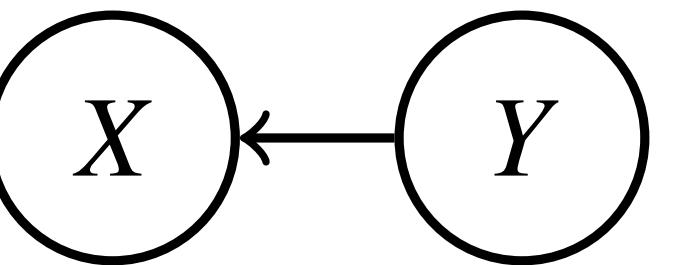
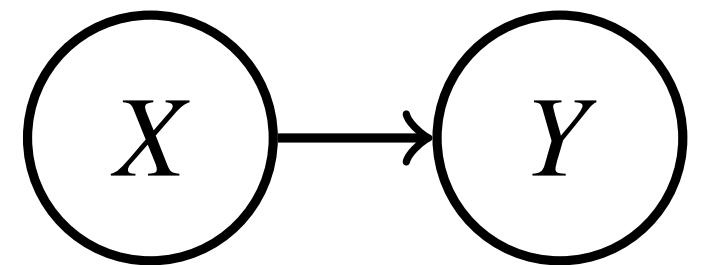


interventions

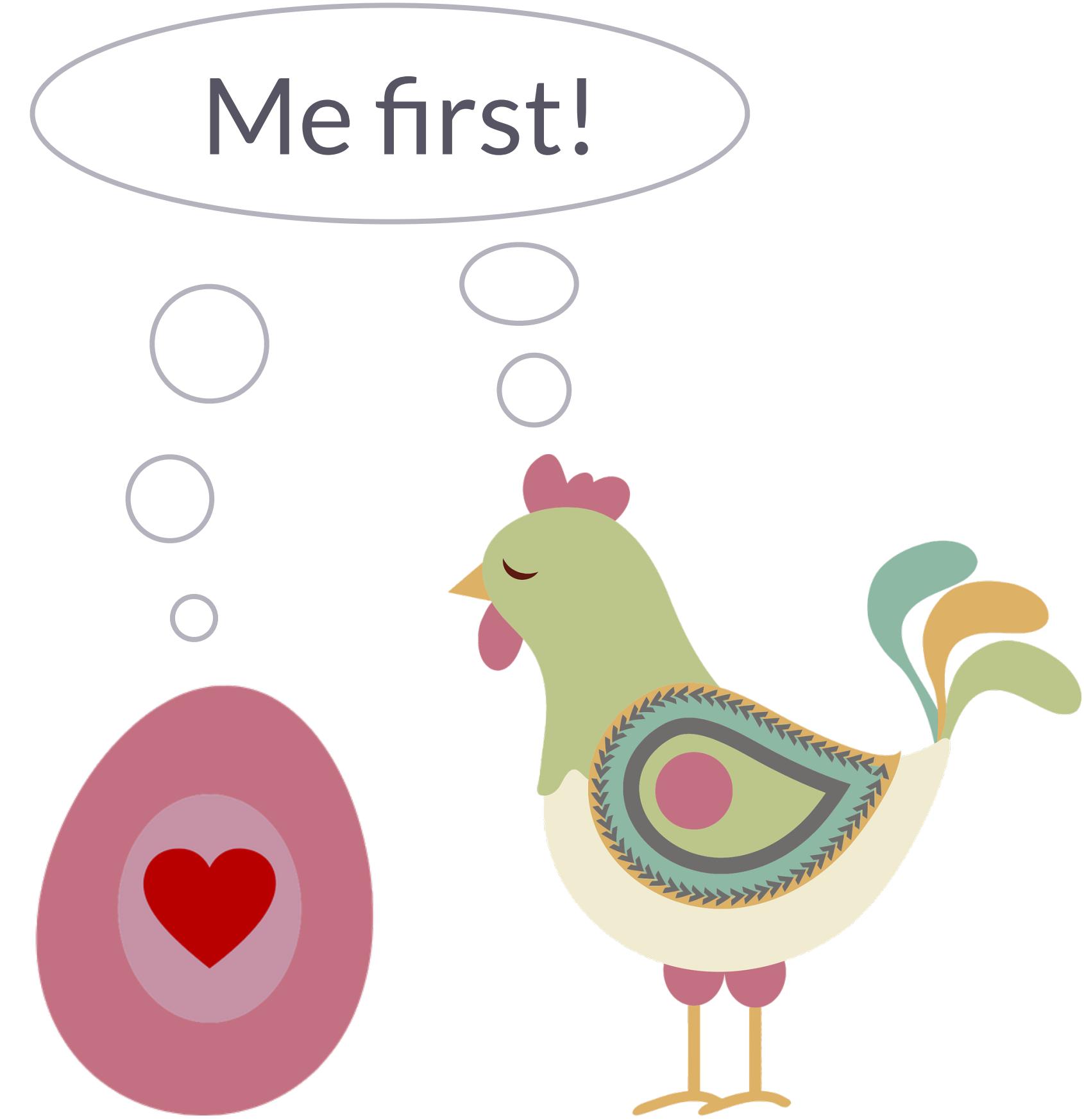
Interventions

Causal intuitions beyond stochastic dependencies

- ▶ intuitions about causal dependencies go beyond (intuitions about) stochastic dependencies
- ▶ example: different causal DAGs can have the same stochastic dependencies



- ▶ differentiated by intuitions about **interventions**
 - changing X (all else equal) causes changes in Y only if Y is causally downstream of X
 - standard approach to intervention (not always possible):
 - randomized controlled trials (RCTs)
- ▶ goal (sometimes achievable, but not always):
 - capture effects of intervention without intervening

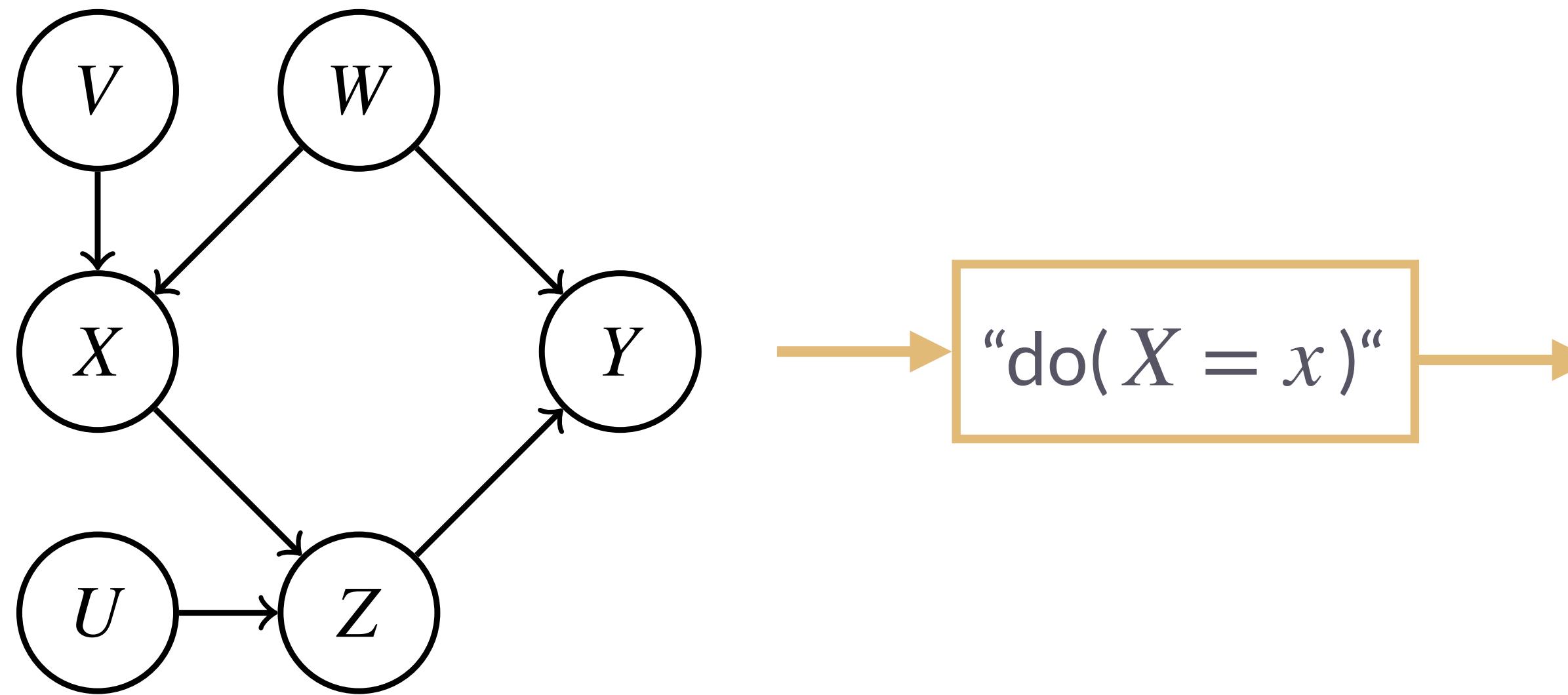


do-calculus

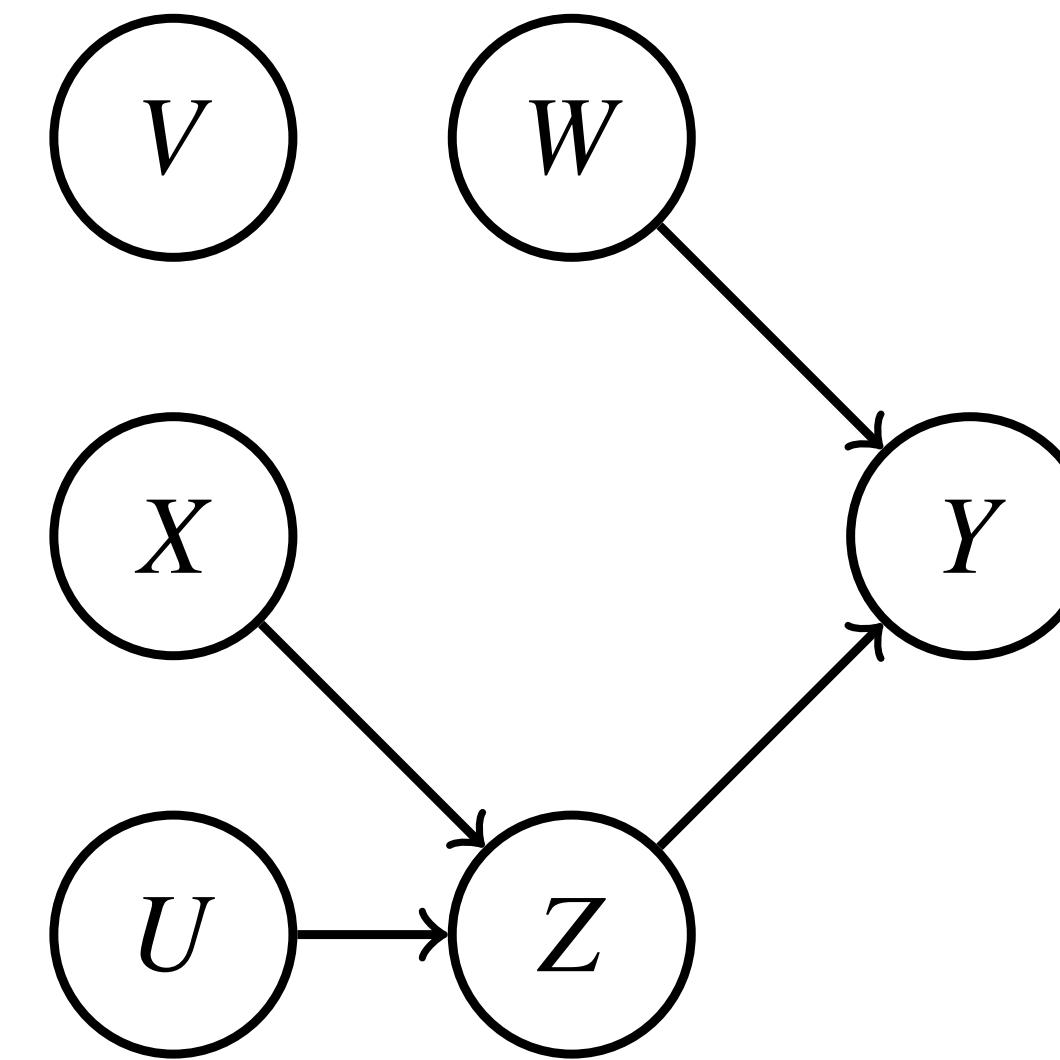
Formalizing effects of interventions

- ▶ new notation $P(Y = y \mid do(X = x))$:
 - probability of $Y = y$ after intervening the causal flow by setting $X = x$
- ▶ intervening = pruning:
 - “**doing $X = x$** ” => remove all arrows pointing towards X

Causal dependencies



Updated graph

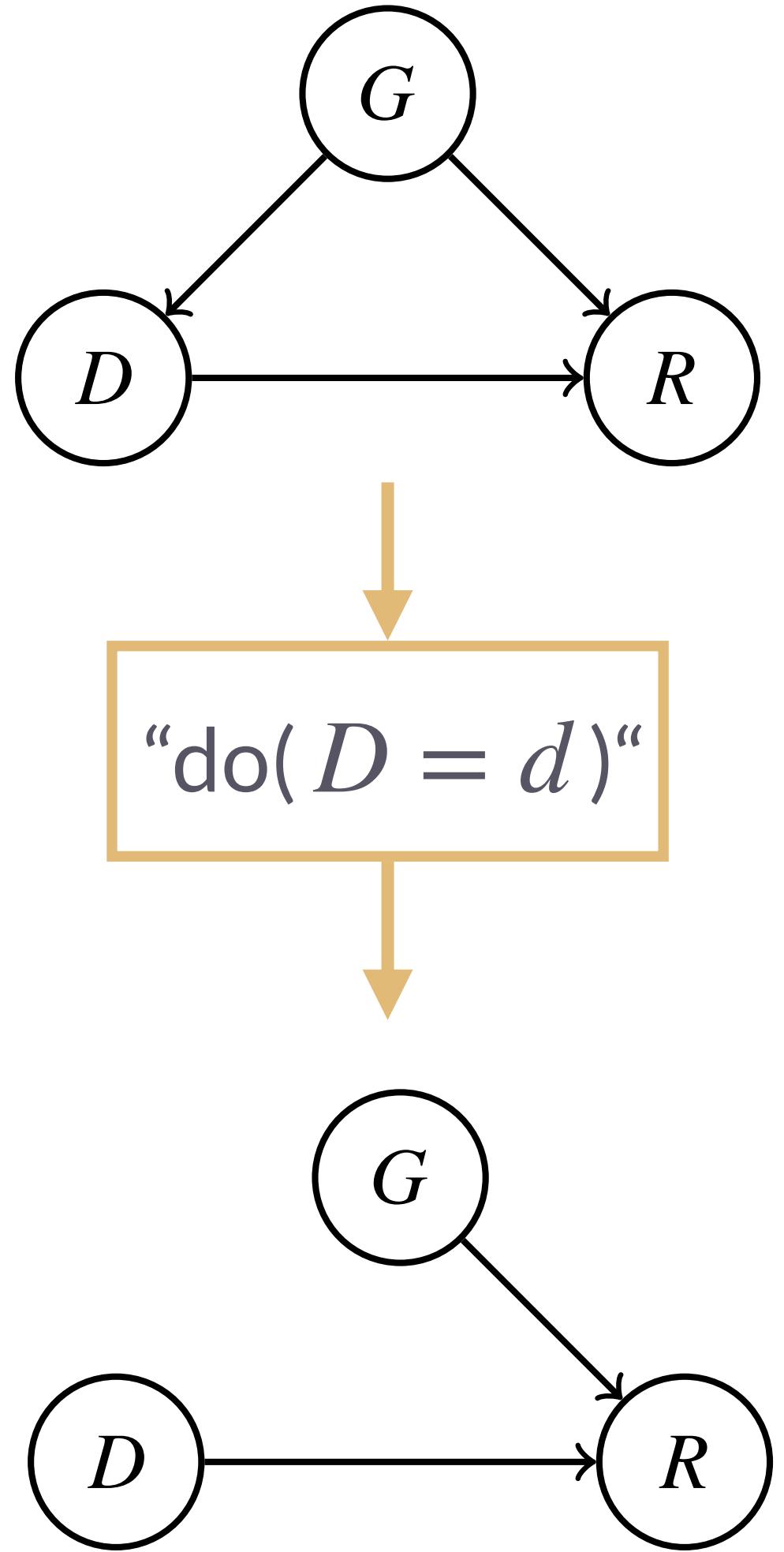


NB: influence of X on Y now passes only via Z, not the confounder W



Example: Simpson's paradox

Case 1: gender as a confounder



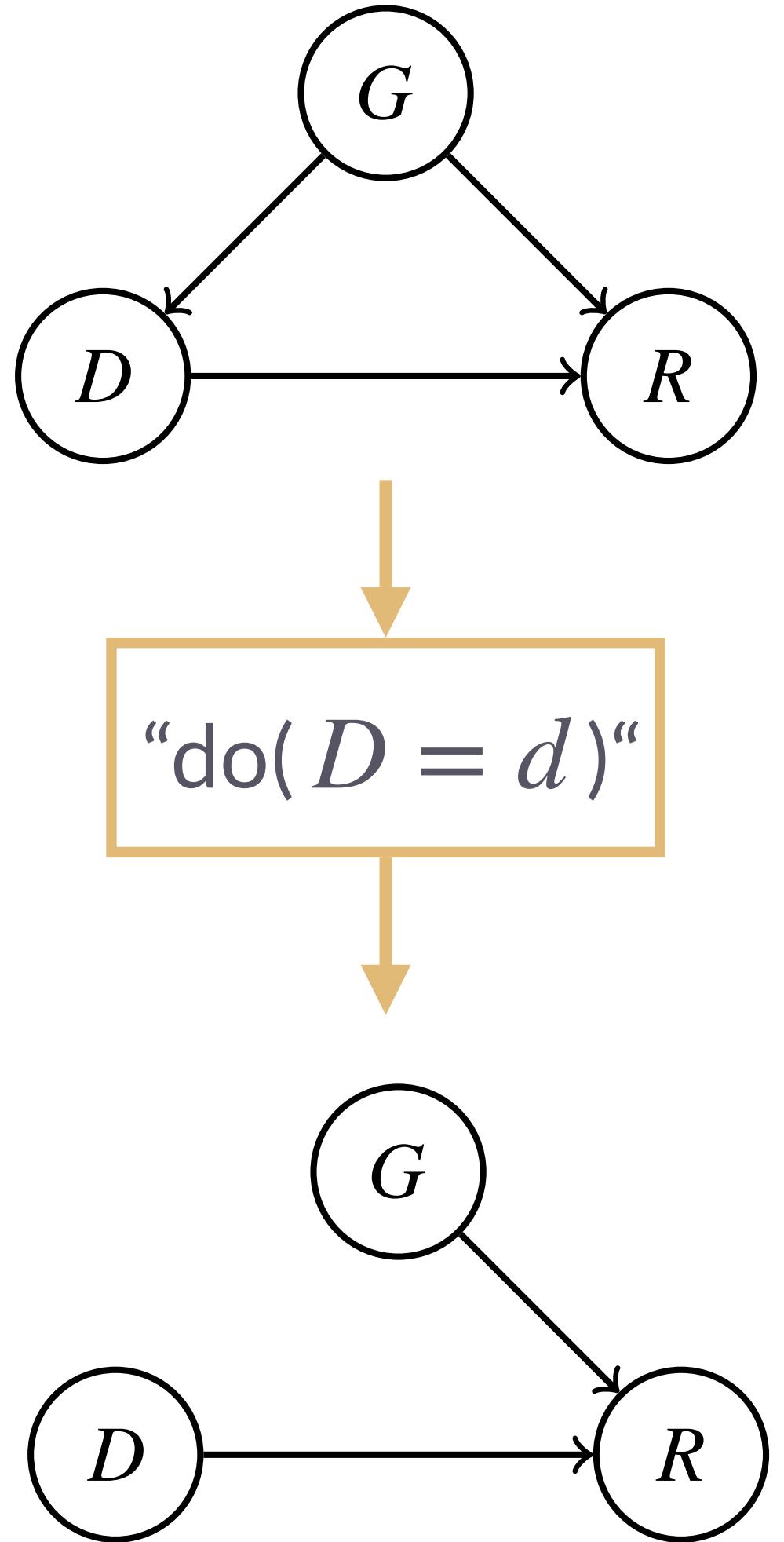
$$\begin{aligned}
 & P(R = r | do(D = d)) \\
 &= P^*(R = r | D = d) && [\text{by definition}] \\
 &= \sum_g P^*(R = r | D = d, G = g) \ P^*(G = g | D = d) && [\text{rules of prob.}] \\
 &= \sum_g P^*(R = r | D = d, G = g) \ P^*(G = g) && [\text{independence}] \\
 &= \sum_g P(R = r | D = d, G = g) \ P(G = g) && [\text{not affected by “do”}]
 \end{aligned}$$

!!! It is possible to express effects of “do”-intervention in terms of observational probabilities alone!



Example: Simpson's paradox

Case 1: gender as a confounder



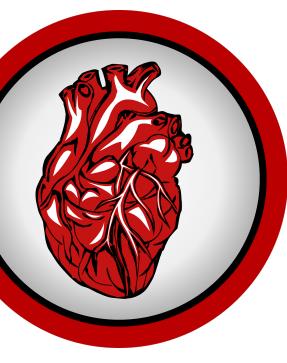
$$P(R = r | do(D = d)) = \sum_g P(R = r | D = d, G = g) P(G = g)$$

	Drug	No drug
Men	81 / 87 (93%)	234 / 270 (87%)
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$$P(R = 1 | do(D = 1)) \approx 0.83$$

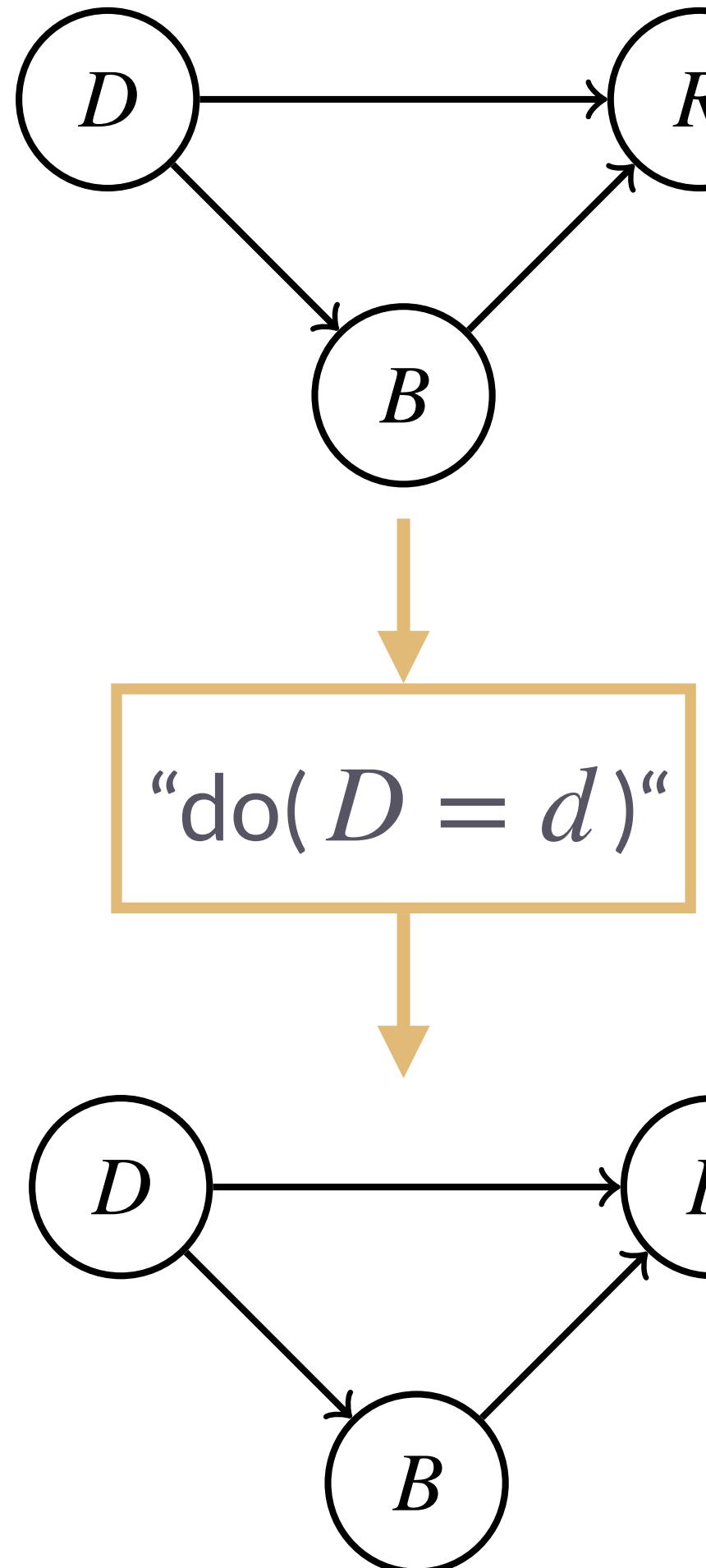
$$P(R = 1 | do(D = 0)) \approx 0.78$$

ML-estimate of
causal effect
0.83 – 0.78 = 0.05



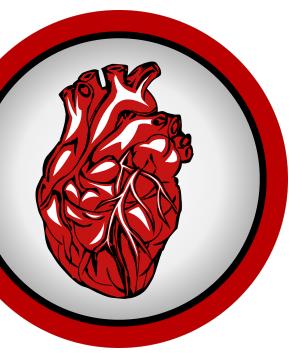
Example: Simpson's paradox

Case 2: blood pressure as a mediator



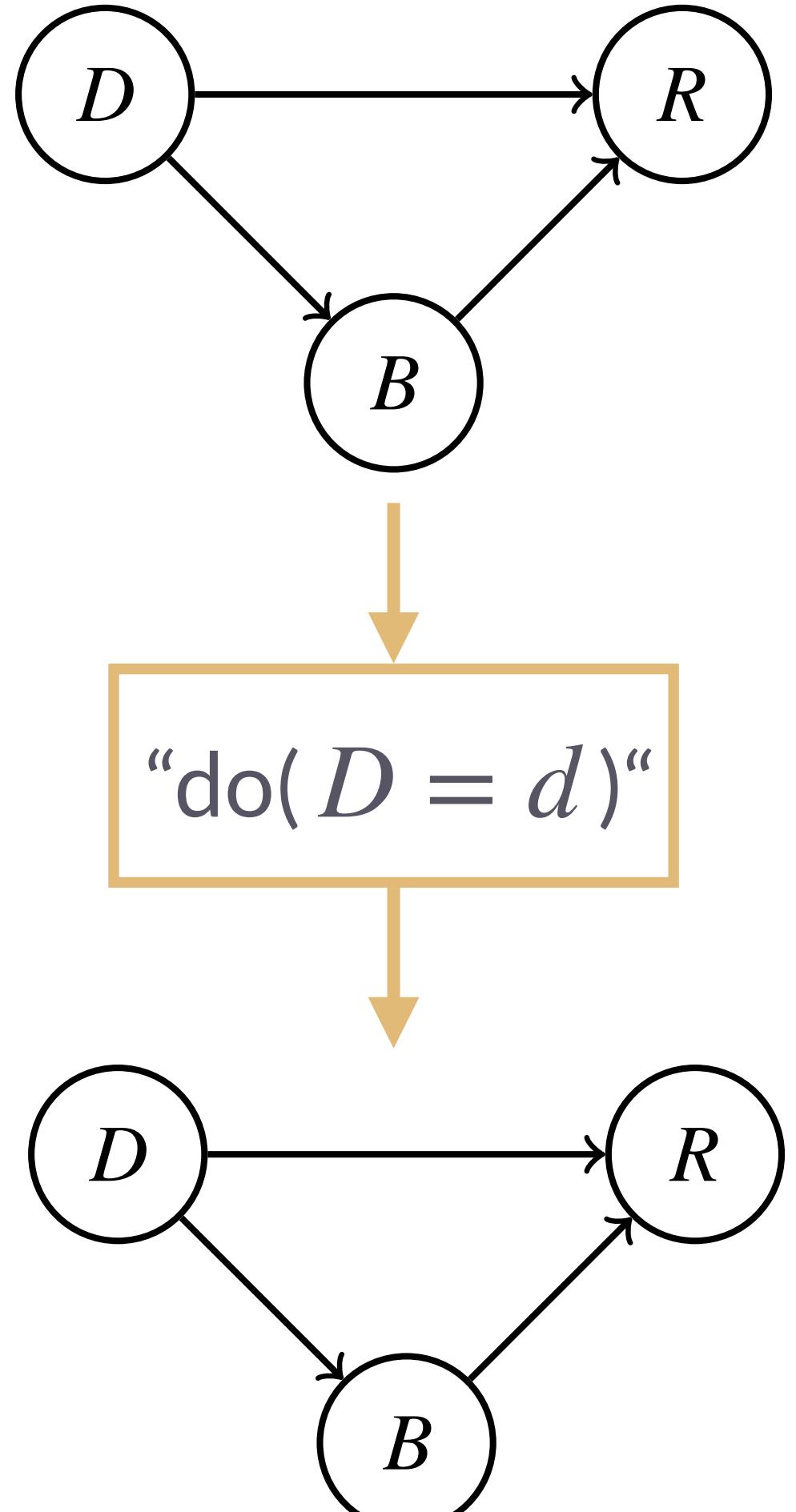
$$\begin{aligned}
 & P(R = r | do(D = d)) \\
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 &= \sum_b P^*(R = r | D = d, B = b) P^*(B = b | D = d) && [\text{rules of prob.}] \\
 &\quad \cancel{= \sum_b P^*(R = r | D = d, B = b) P^*(B = b)} && [\text{independence}] \\
 &= \sum_b P(R = r | D = d, B = b) P(B = b | D = d) \\
 &= P(R = r | D = d)
 \end{aligned}$$

Here “do”-intervention does not “create independency”.
And it is not necessary at all!



Example: Simpson's paradox

Case 2: blood pressures as a mediator



$$\begin{aligned}
 & P(R = r | do(D = d)) \\
 &= \sum_b P(R = r | D = d, G = g) \cdot P(G = g | B = b)
 \end{aligned}$$

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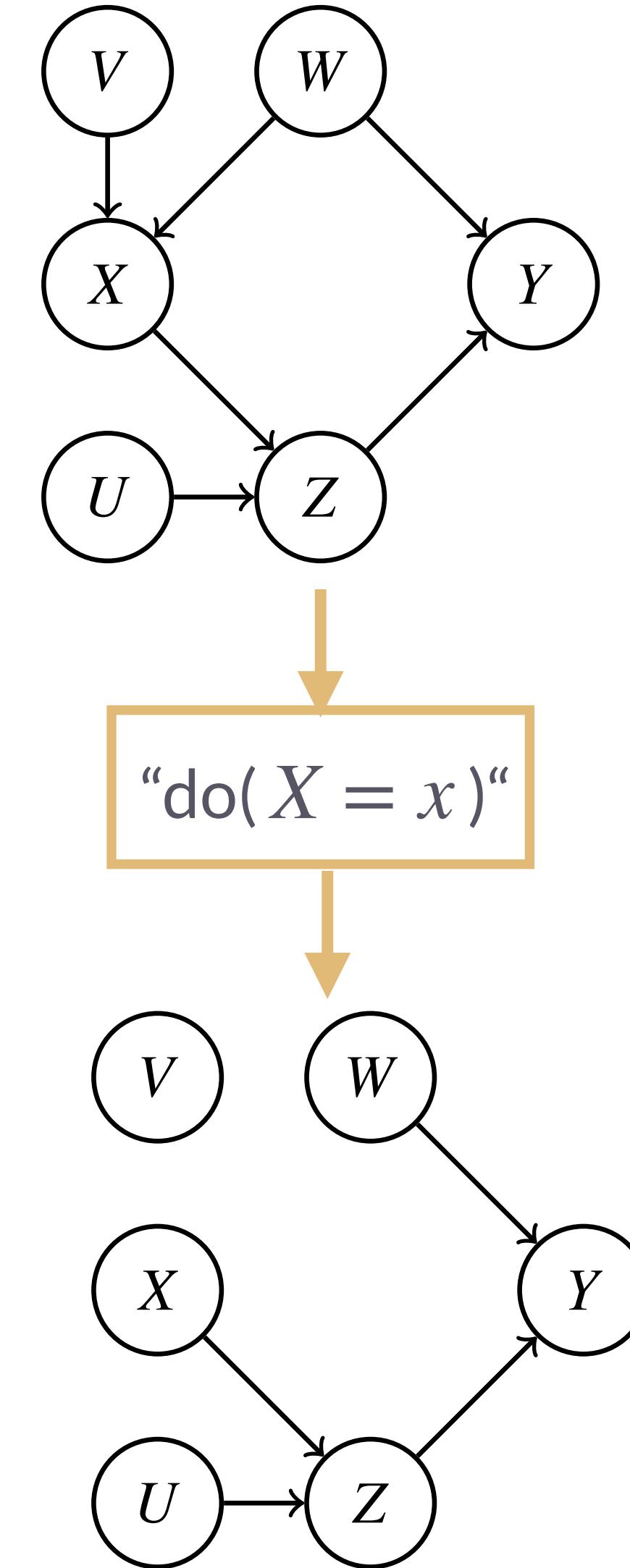
$$\begin{aligned}
 P(R = 1 | do(D = 1)) &\approx 0.78 \\
 P(R = 1 | do(D = 0)) &\approx 0.83
 \end{aligned}$$

ML-estimate of
causal effect
 $0.78 - 0.83 = -0.05$

Intervention

summary

- ▶ causal intuitions go beyond stochastic dependence, and imply intuitions about **interventions**
- ▶ intervening = pruning:
 - “doing $X = x$ ” entails removing all arrows pointing towards X
- ▶ new formal notion: $P(Y = y \mid do(X = x))$
- ▶ sometimes we can express $P(Y = y \mid do(X = x))$ in terms of “normal” conditional probabilities; sometimes we cannot
- ▶ follow-up question: **when and how can we eliminate “ $do(X)$ ”?**





eliminating “do X”

or: blocking backdoors & taking front-doors

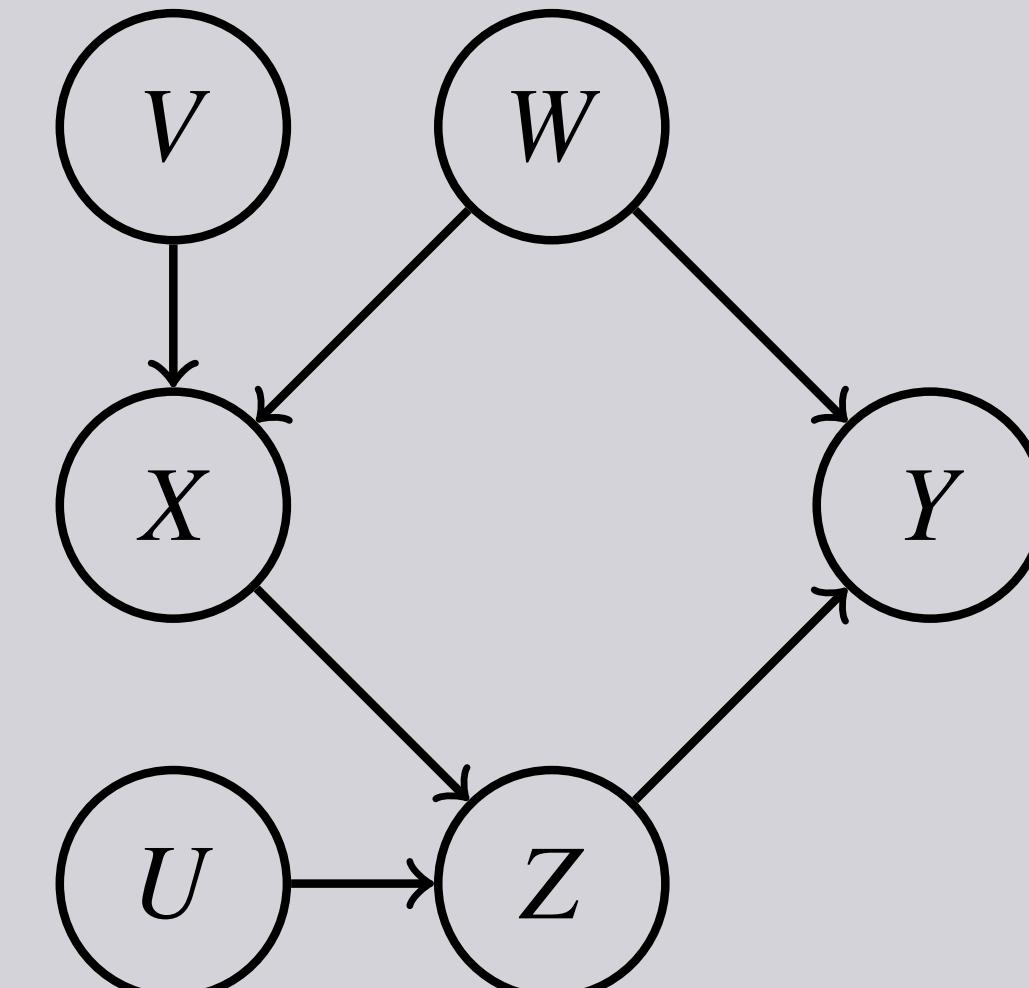
Backdoor criterion

Definition

A set of nodes Z satisfies the BDC relative to a pair of nodes (X, Y) if

- (1) Z contains no (direct or indirect) descendants of X
- (2) for every path from X to Y that is unblocked (*simpliciter*) and contains an arrow into X , there is a node in Z which blocks this path

example



sets satisfying BDC for (X, Y)

- ▶ $\{W\}, \{U, W\}, \{V, W\}, \{U, V, W\}$

BDC theorem

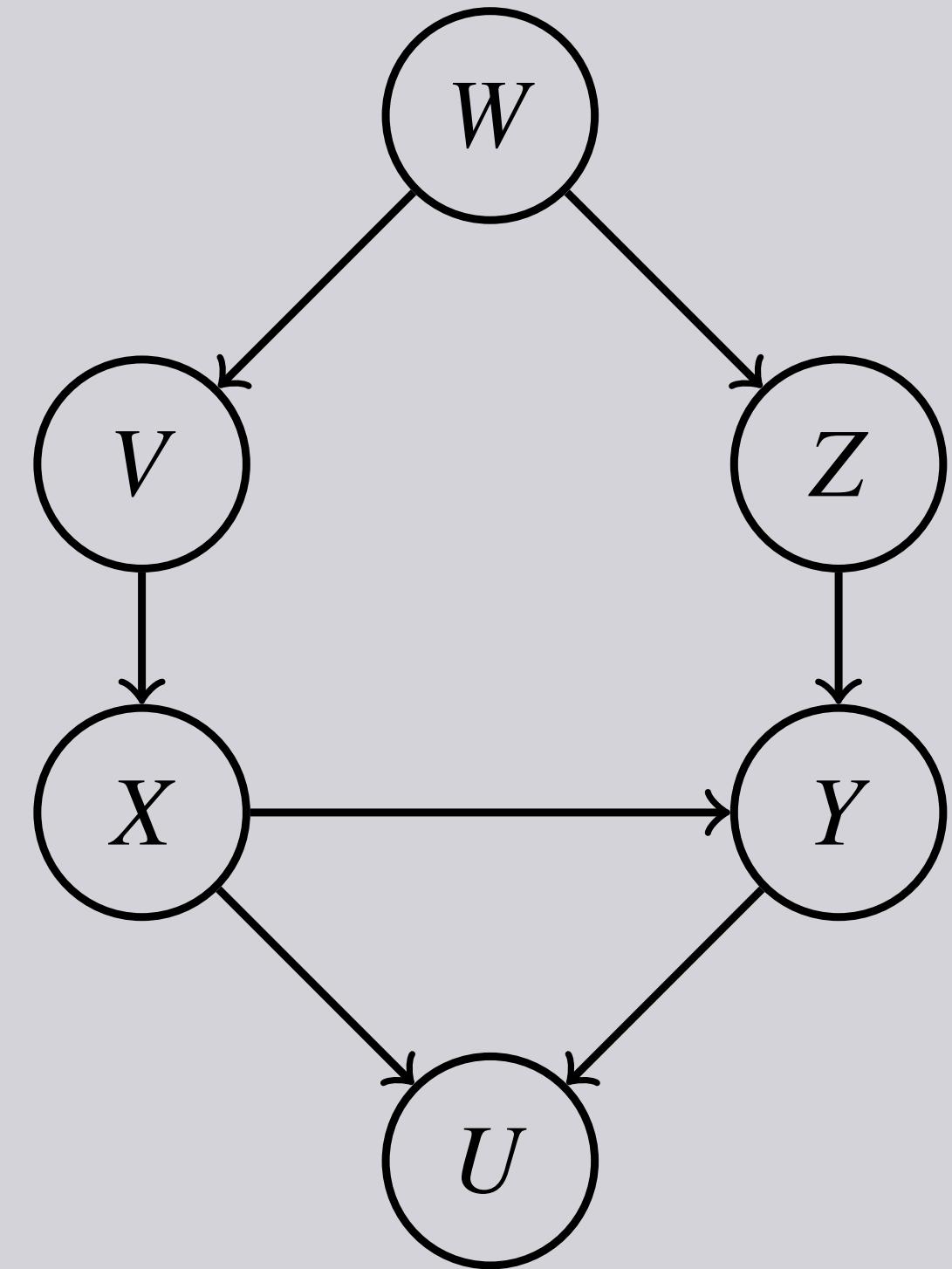
If set Z satisfies the BDC for (X, Y) , we can use the **adjustment formula**:

$$P(Y = y | do(X = x)) = \sum_z P(Y = y | X = x, Z = z) P(Z = z)$$

Usefulness of BDC

- ▶ trivial set satisfying BDC:
 - all parents of X
- ▶ minimal trivial set satisfying BDC:
 - all parents of X on a path to Y
- ▶ **BDC is most useful if parents are unobserved or unobservable**
- ▶ moreover: BDC equation can be used to test causal assumptions
[causal model selection]

example



if V is unavailable we can instead condition on W, Z , or both

Front-door criterion

motivating example

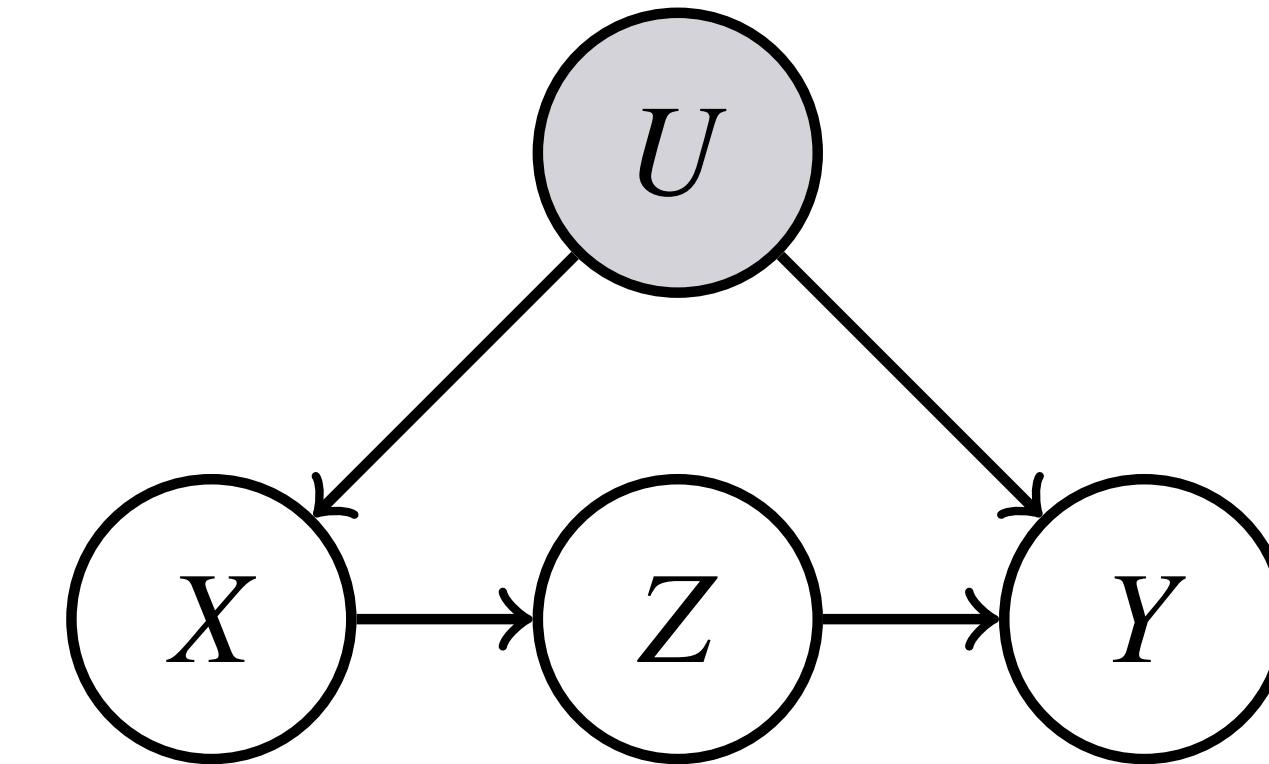
- ▶ causal DAG as shown on left
 - X, Y and Z are observed
 - U is not observed or unobservable
- ▶ we want to know $P(Y = y | do(X = x))$
- ▶ BDC is not applicable directly (b/c U is not observed)
- ▶ but we can use BDC adjustment to compute:

$$(1) \quad P(Z = z | do(X = x)) = P(Z = z | X = x)$$

$$(2) \quad P(Y = y | do(Z = z)) = \sum_{x'} P(Y = y | Z = z, X = x') \quad P(X = x')$$

- ▶ so, we combine this to **bang down the front-door**:

$$(3) \quad P(Y = y | do(X = x)) = \sum_z P(Z = z | X = x) \sum_{x'} P(Y = y | Z = z, X = x') \quad P(X = x')$$

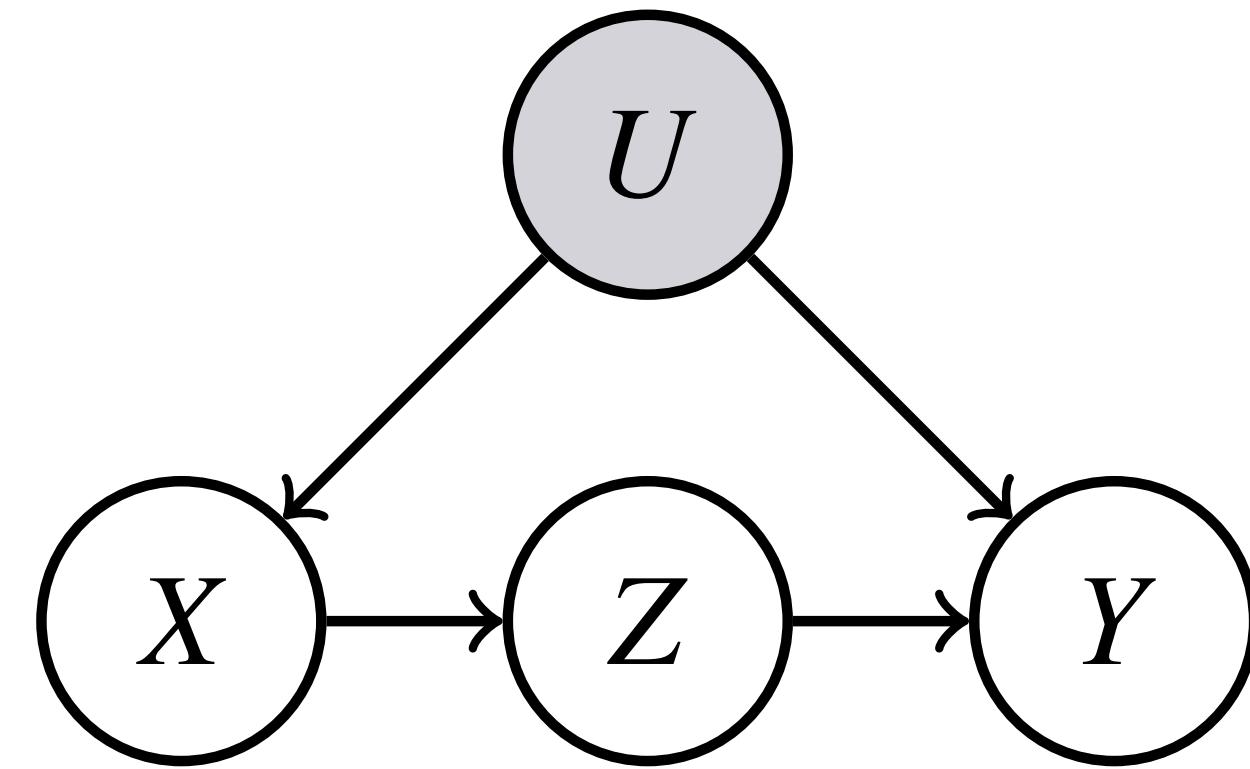


Front-door criterion

Definition

A set of nodes Z satisfies the FDC relative to a pair of nodes (X, Y) if

- (1) Z intercepts all directed paths from X to Y
- (2) there is no unblocked path from Z to X
- (3) all backdoor paths from Z to Y are blocked by X



FDC theorem

If set Z satisfies the FDC for (X, Y) and $P(x, z) > 0$, we can use the **FDC-adjustment formula**:

$$P(Y = y \mid do(X = x)) = \sum_z P(Z = z \mid X = x) \sum_{x'} P(Y = y \mid Z = z, X = x') P(X = x')$$

“do”-elimination

summary

- ▶ there are two standard criteria that identify variables so that we can “marginalize out the ‘do’”-operators
 - **backdoor criterion**: block all backdoor paths
 - **front-door criterion**: bang down the front door (and leave no traces)
- ▶ BDC and FDC cover many cases
- ▶ there are cases where “do”-elimination is possible which are **not covered by either BDC or FDC**
 - for these we need to apply the “do”-calculus and think-in-context 😞



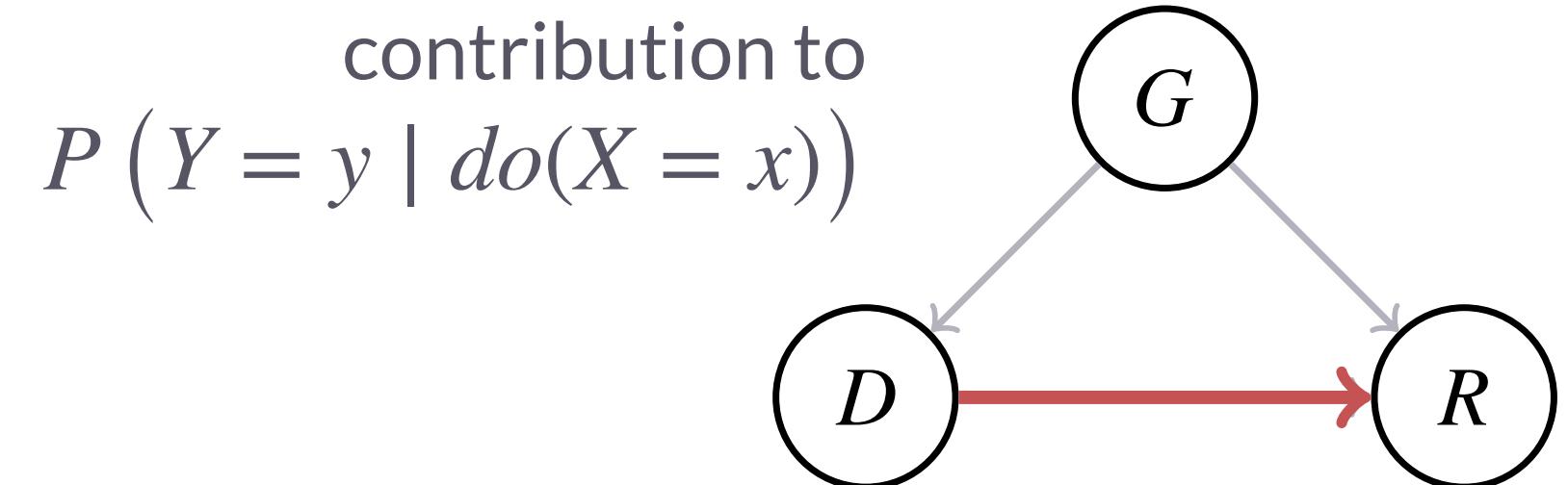
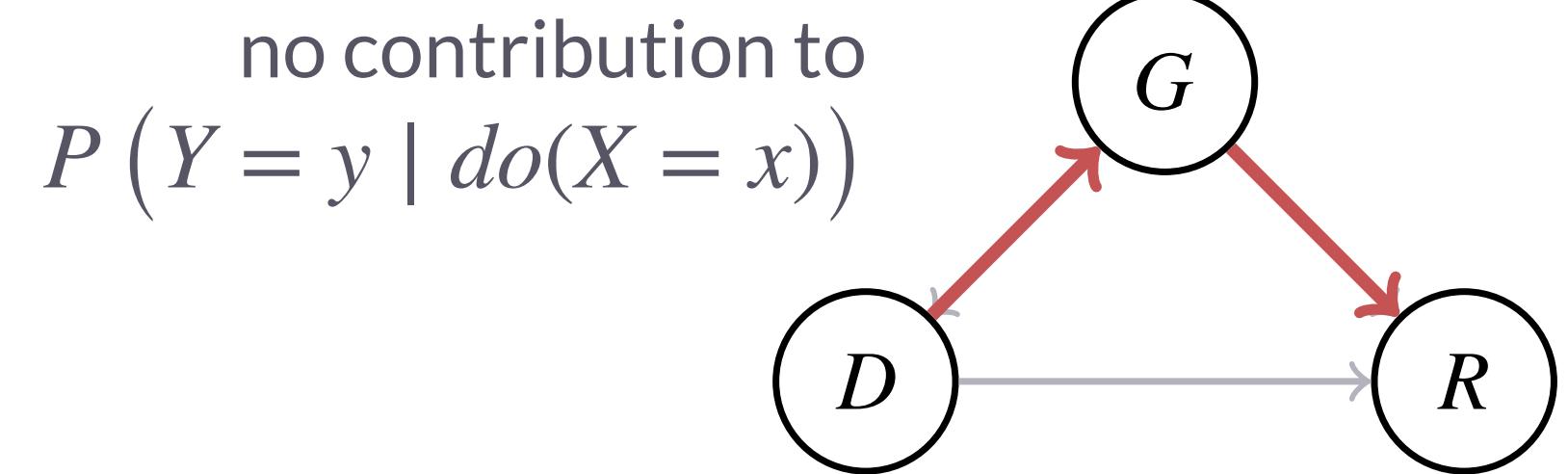
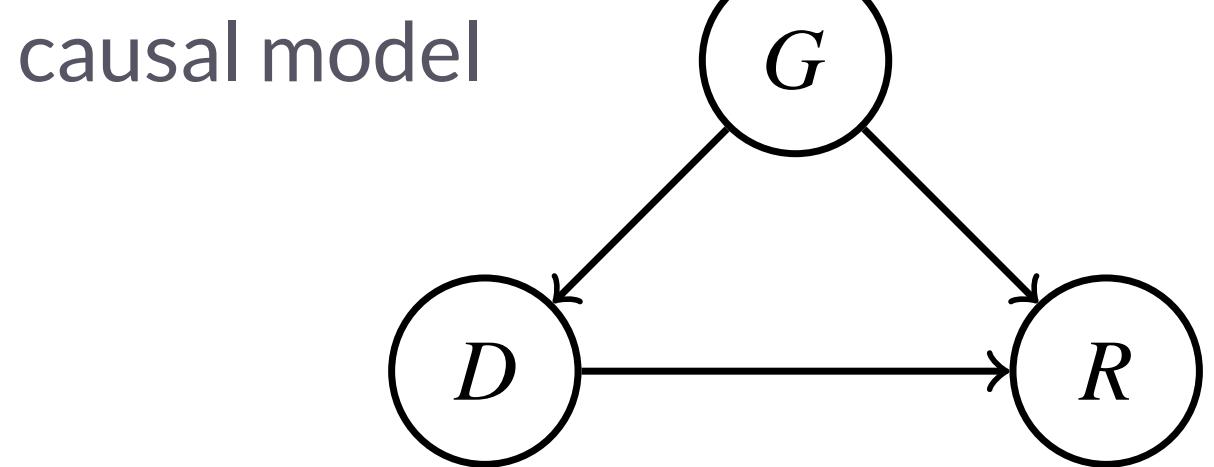


causal effects

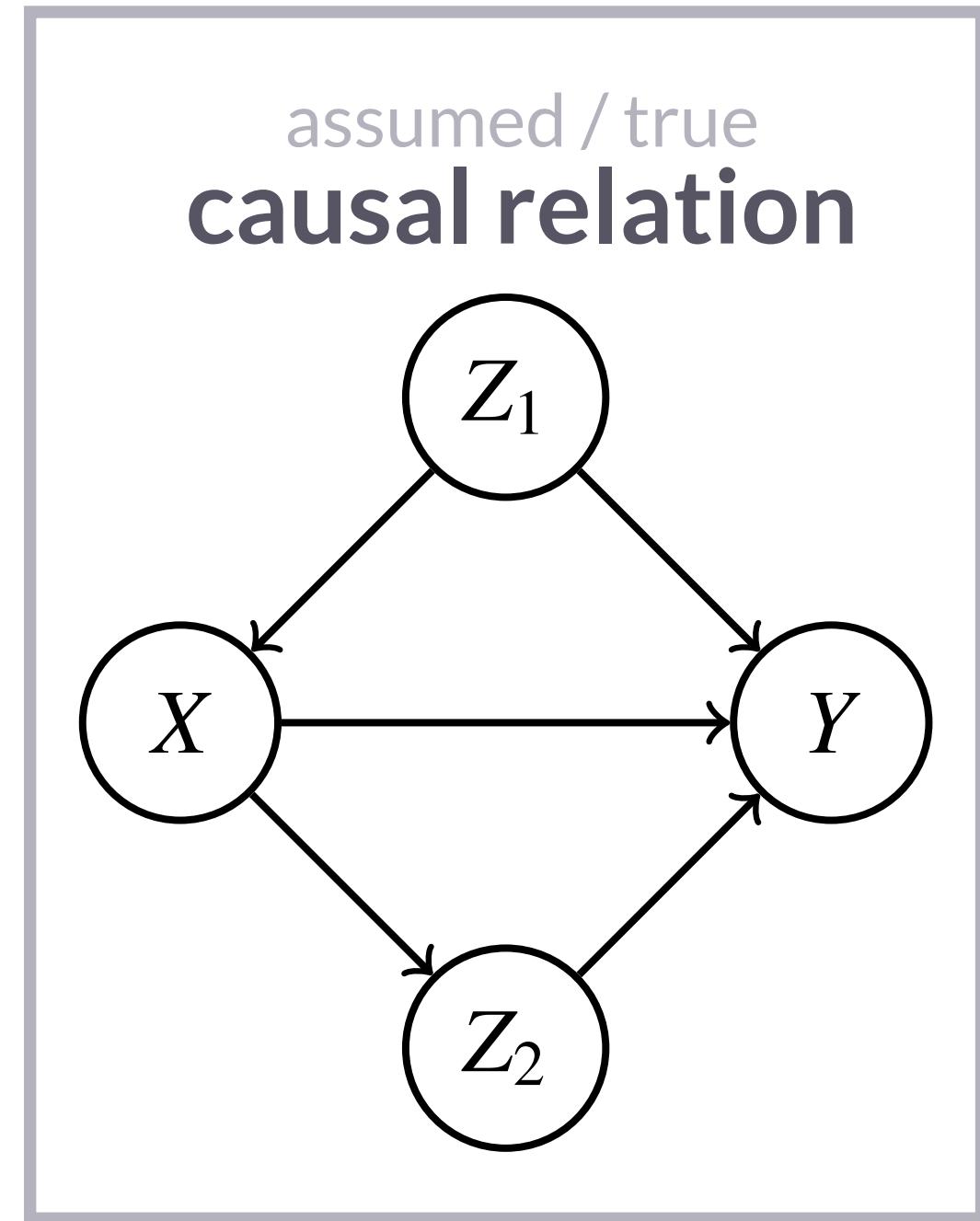
Causal effects

what happens when we “ $do(X = x)$ ”?

- ▶ “causal effect” is an elusive cluster concept!
 - depends on type of relevant variables
 - depends on what we care about
- ▶ general idea:
 - how much influence does $do(X = x)$ have on the distribution over Y
- ▶ causal effect of binary X on binary Y :
$$P(Y = 1 | do(X = 1)) - P(Y = 1 | do(X = 0))$$
- ▶ causal effect of continuous X on continuous Y :
$$\mathbb{E}(Y|do(X=1)) - \mathbb{E}(Y|do(X=0))$$

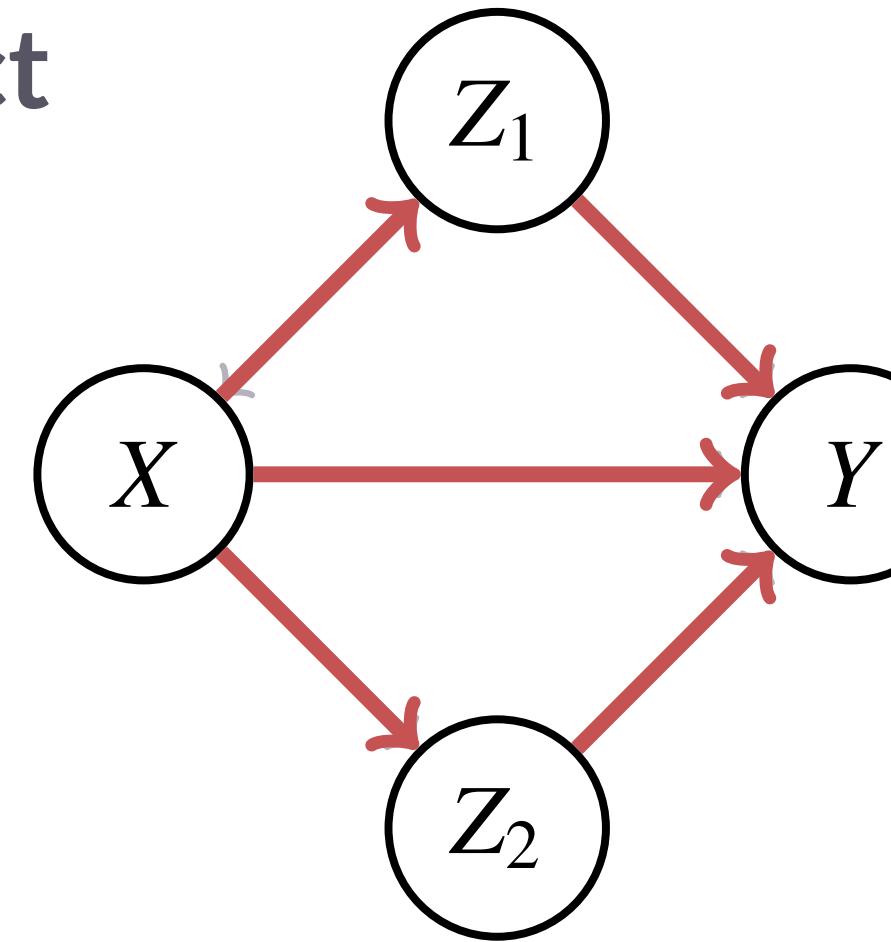


Types of (causal) effects



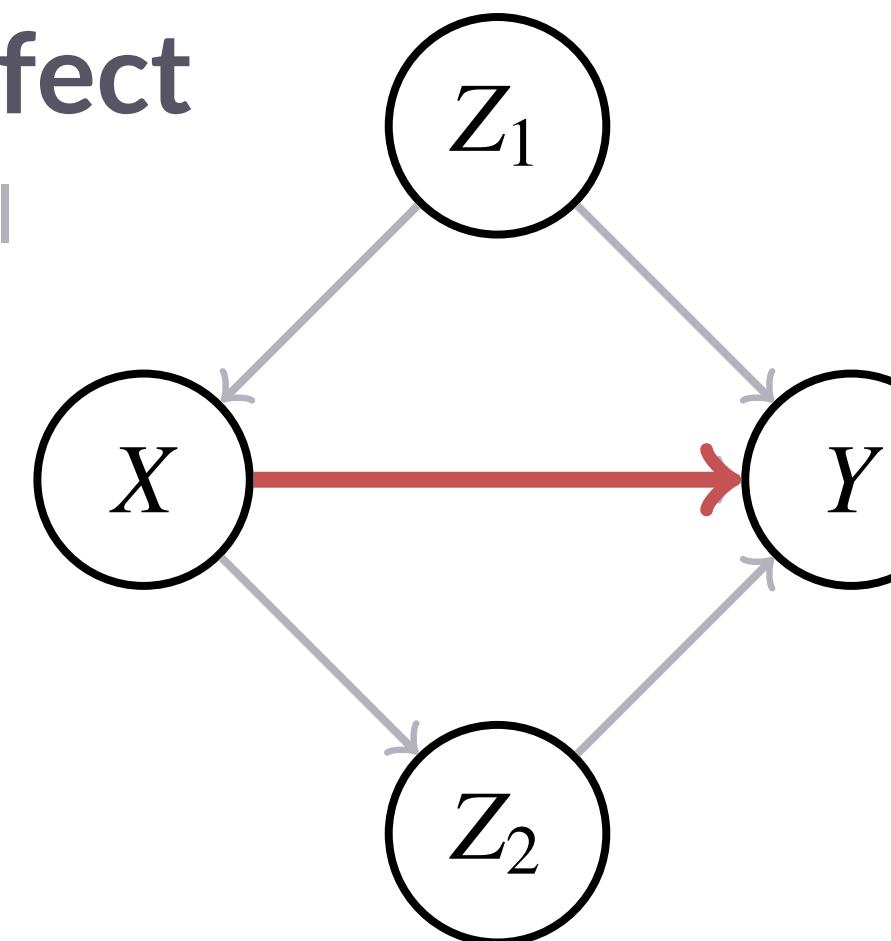
statistical effect

all ways in which knowing about X influences (statistical) predictions about Y



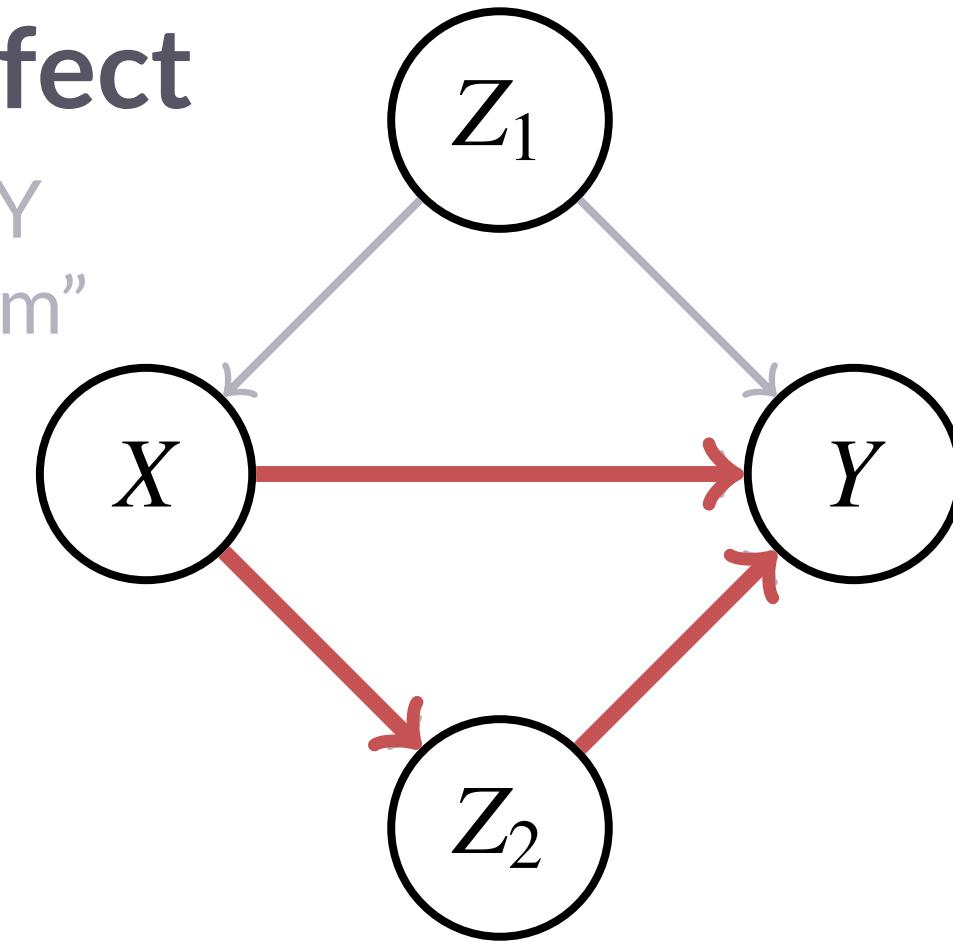
direct causal effect

X's unmediated causal effect on Y



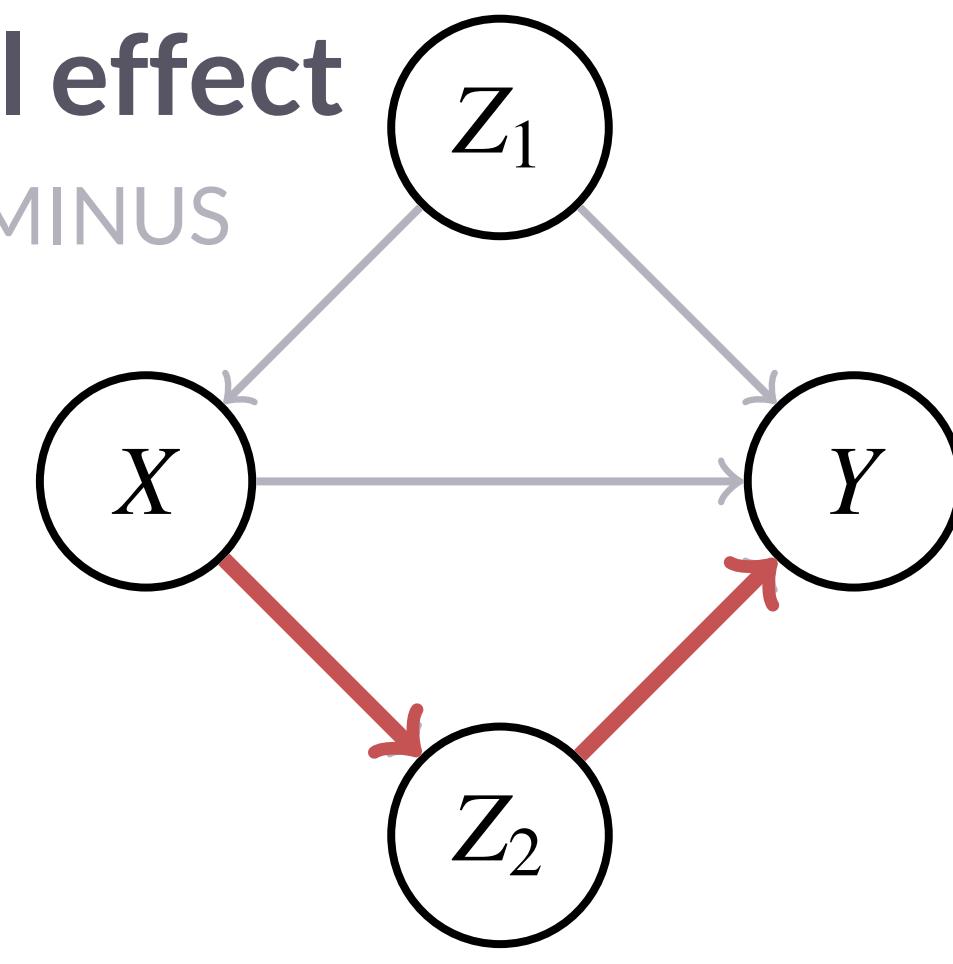
total causal effect

all ways in X affects Y
“causally downstream”



indirect causal effect

total causal effects MINUS direct causal effect

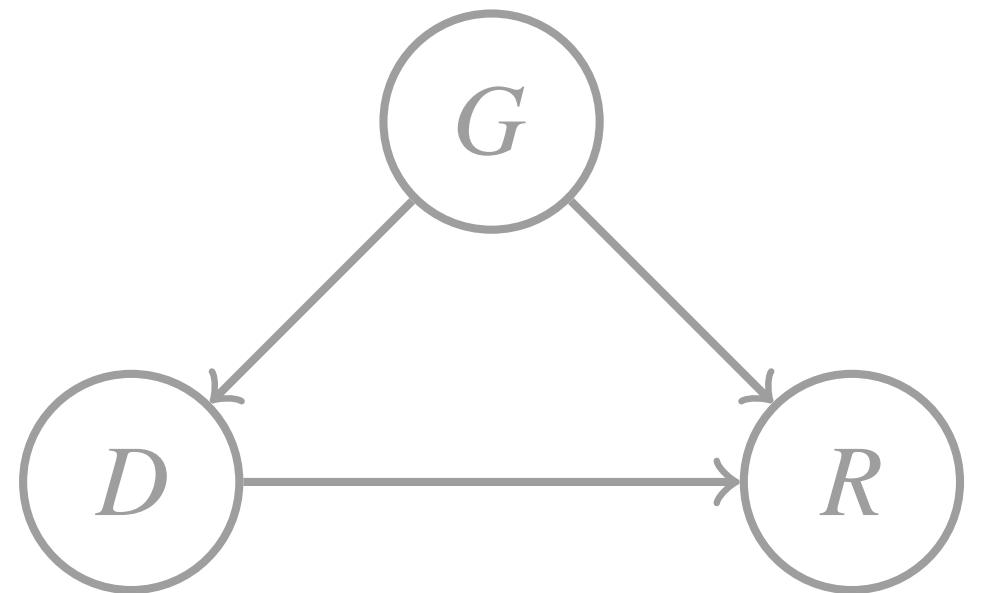




causal effects w/
regression modeling

MLE of causal effect

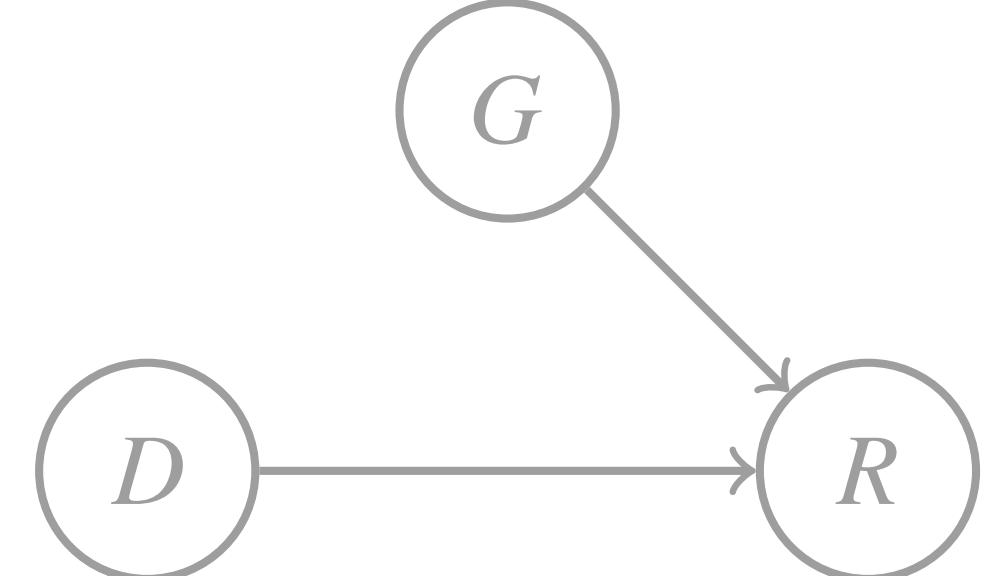
Gender as a confounder



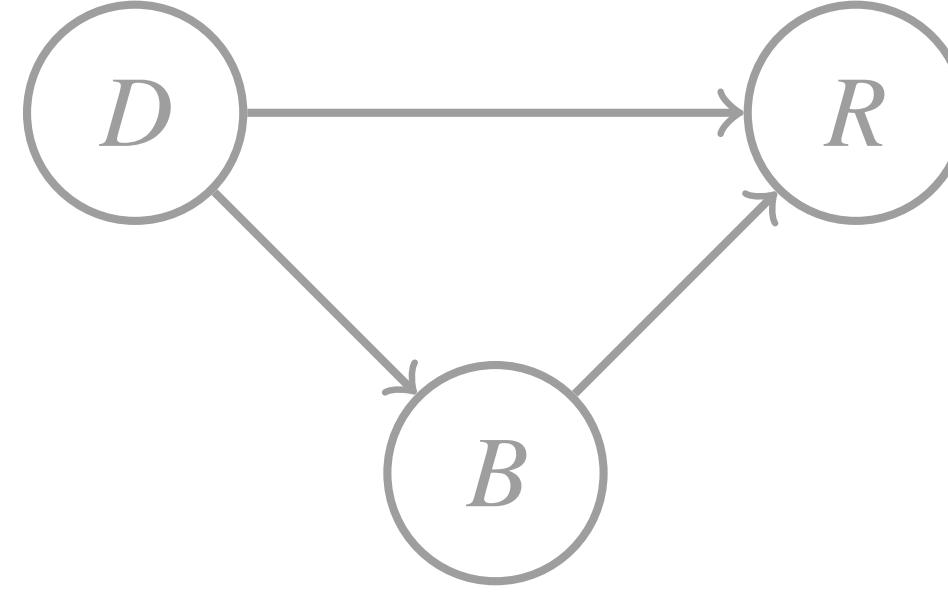
“do($D = d$)”

ML-estimate of
causal effect

$$0.83 - 0.78 = 0.05$$



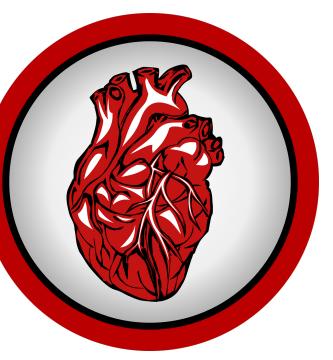
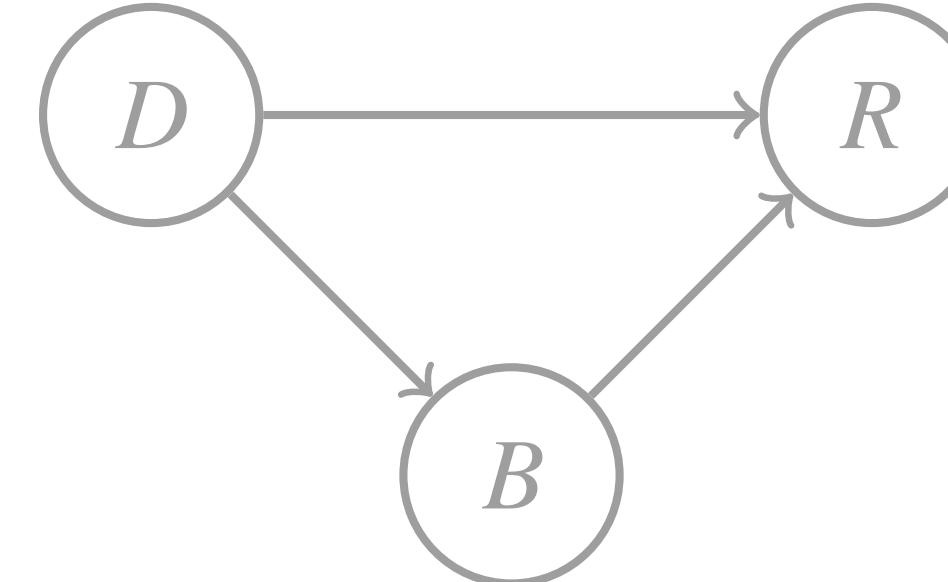
Blood-pressure as a mediator



“do($D = d$)”

ML-estimate of
causal effect

$$0.78 - 0.83 = -0.05$$



Prepare data

Simpson's paradox

```
#####
# set up the data for SP
#####

data_simpsons_paradox <- tibble(
  gender = c("Male", "Male", "Female", "Female"),
  bloodP = c("Low", "Low", "High", "High"),
  drug   = c("Take", "Refuse", "Take", "Refuse"),
  k      = c(81, 234, 192, 55),
  N      = c(87, 270, 263, 80),
  proportion = k/N
)

# cast into long format
data_SP_long <- rbind(
  data_simpsons_paradox |> uncount(k) |>
    mutate(recover = TRUE) |> select(-N, -proportion),
  data_simpsons_paradox |> uncount(N-k) |>
    mutate(recover = FALSE) |> select(-N, -proportion, -k)
)
data_SP_long
```

```
# A tibble: 700 × 4
  gender bloodP drug recover
  <chr>  <chr>  <chr>  <lgl>
  1 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  2 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  3 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  4 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  5 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  6 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  7 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  8 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  9 Male   Low    Take   TRUE
  10 Male  Low    Take   TRUE
# i 690 more rows
```

Calculating the total causal effect

Case 1: gender as a confound



We want:

$$P(R = 1 \mid do(D = d)) = \sum_{g \in \{0,1\}} P(R = 1 \mid D = d, G = g) P(G = g)$$

We do:

1. estimate $P(G)$
 - use intercept-only logistic regression $G \sim 1$
2. estimate $P(R = 1 \mid D = d, G = g)$:
 - use logistic regression model $R \sim D * G$
3. calculate TCE with posterior predictive distributions of these models



Calculating TCE

Case 1: gender as a confound

Step 1: $G \sim 1$

```
niter = 2000

fit_SP_GonIntercept <- brm(
  formula = gender ~ 1,
  data    = data_SP_long,
  family   = bernoulli(link = "logit"),
  iter     = niter
)
```

Step 2: $R \sim D * G$

```
fit_SP_RonGD <- brm(
  formula = recover ~ gender * drug,
  data    = data_SP_long,
  family   = bernoulli(link = "logit"),
  iter     = niter
)
```

Step 3:

```
postPred_gender <- tidybayes::predicted_draws(
  object  = fit_SP_GonIntercept,
  newdata = tibble(Intercept = 1),
  value   = "gender",
  ndraws   = niter * 2
) |>
ungroup() |>
mutate(gender = ifelse(gender, "Male", "Female")) |>
select(gender)

# posterior predictive samples for D=1
posterior_DrugTaken <- tidybayes::epred_draws(
  object  = fit_SP_RonGD,
  newdata = postPred_gender |> mutate(drug = "Take"),
  value   = "taken",
  ndraws   = niter * 2
) |> ungroup() |>
select(taken)

# posterior predictive samples for D=0
posterior_DrugRefused <- tidybayes::epred_draws(
  object  = fit_SP_RonGD,
  newdata = postPred_gender |> mutate(drug = "Refuse"),
  value   = "refused",
  ndraws   = niter * 2
) |> ungroup() |>
select(refused)
```

sample participants

do(drug = 1)

do(drug = 0)



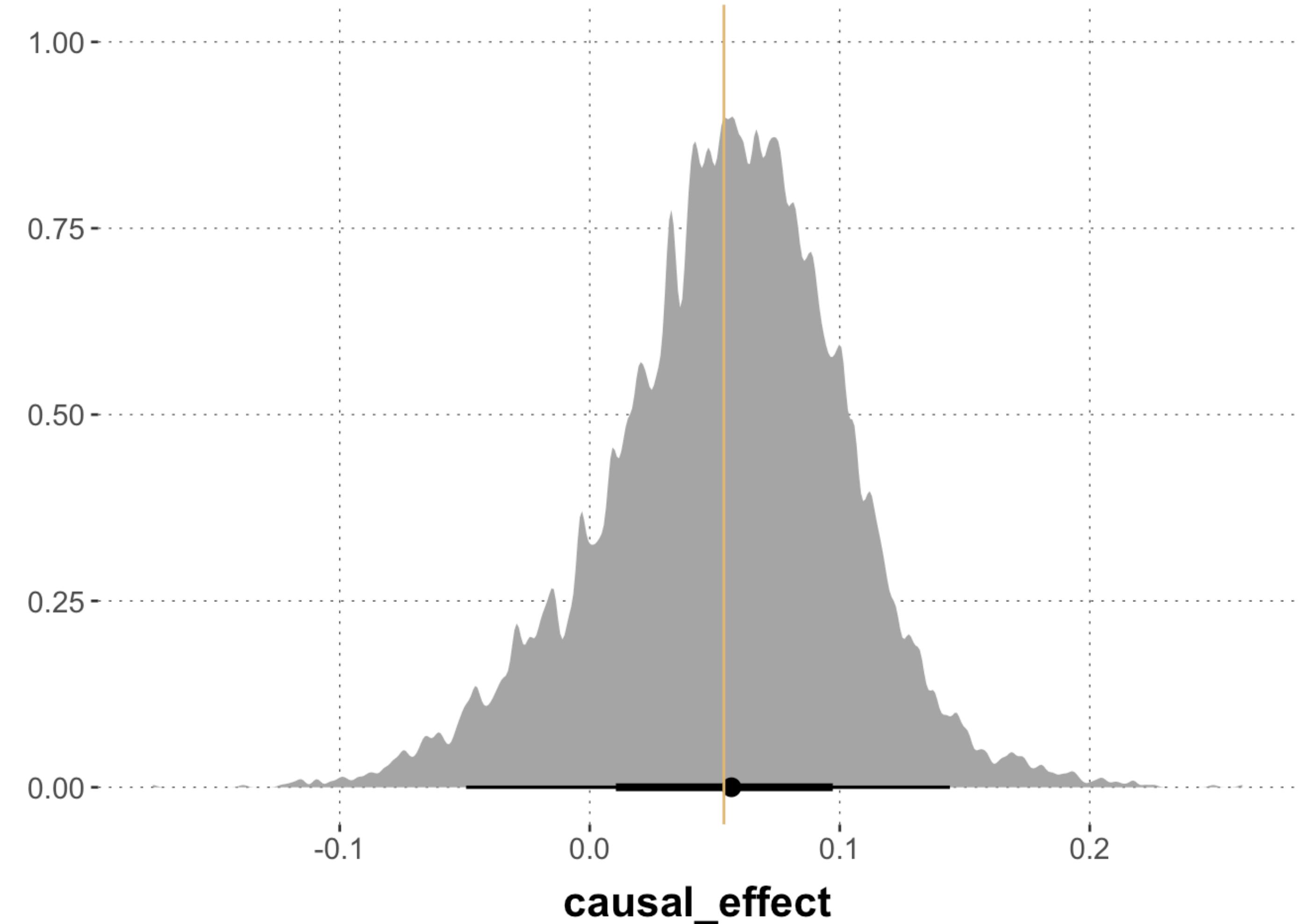
Calculating TCE

Case 1: gender as a confound

```
# A tibble: 3 × 4
  Parameter      `|95%`    mean `|95%|`
  <chr>          <dbl>    <dbl>  <dbl>
1 drug_taken     0.687   0.834   0.972
2 drug_refused   0.614   0.780   0.907
3 causal_effect -0.0505  0.0540  0.142
```

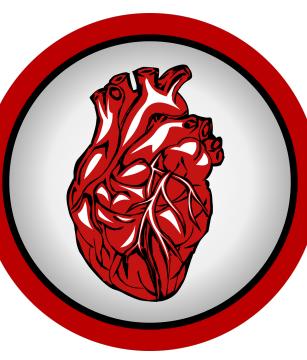
ML-estimate of
causal effect

$$0.83 - 0.78 = 0.05$$



Calculating TCE

Case 2: blood-pressure as mediator



We want:

$$P(R = r \mid do(D = d)) = P(R = r \mid D = d)$$

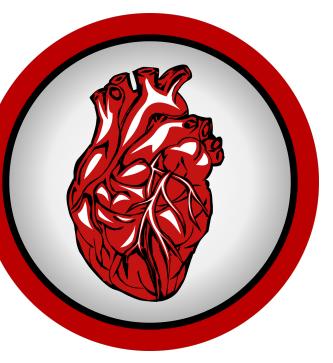
We do:

```
fit_SP_RonBD <- brms::brm(  
  formula = recover ~ drug,  
  data    = data_SP_long,  
  family   = bernoulli(link = "logit"),  
  iter     = niter  
)
```

```
posterior_DrugTaken <-  
  faintr::extract_cell_draws(fit_SP_RonBD, drug == "Take") |>  
  pull(draws) |>  
  logistic()  
  
posterior_DrugRefused <-  
  faintr::extract_cell_draws(fit_SP_RonBD, drug == "Refuse") |>  
  pull(draws) |>  
  logistic()  
  
posterior_causalEffect <-  
  posterior_DrugTaken - posterior_DrugRefused
```

Calculating TCE

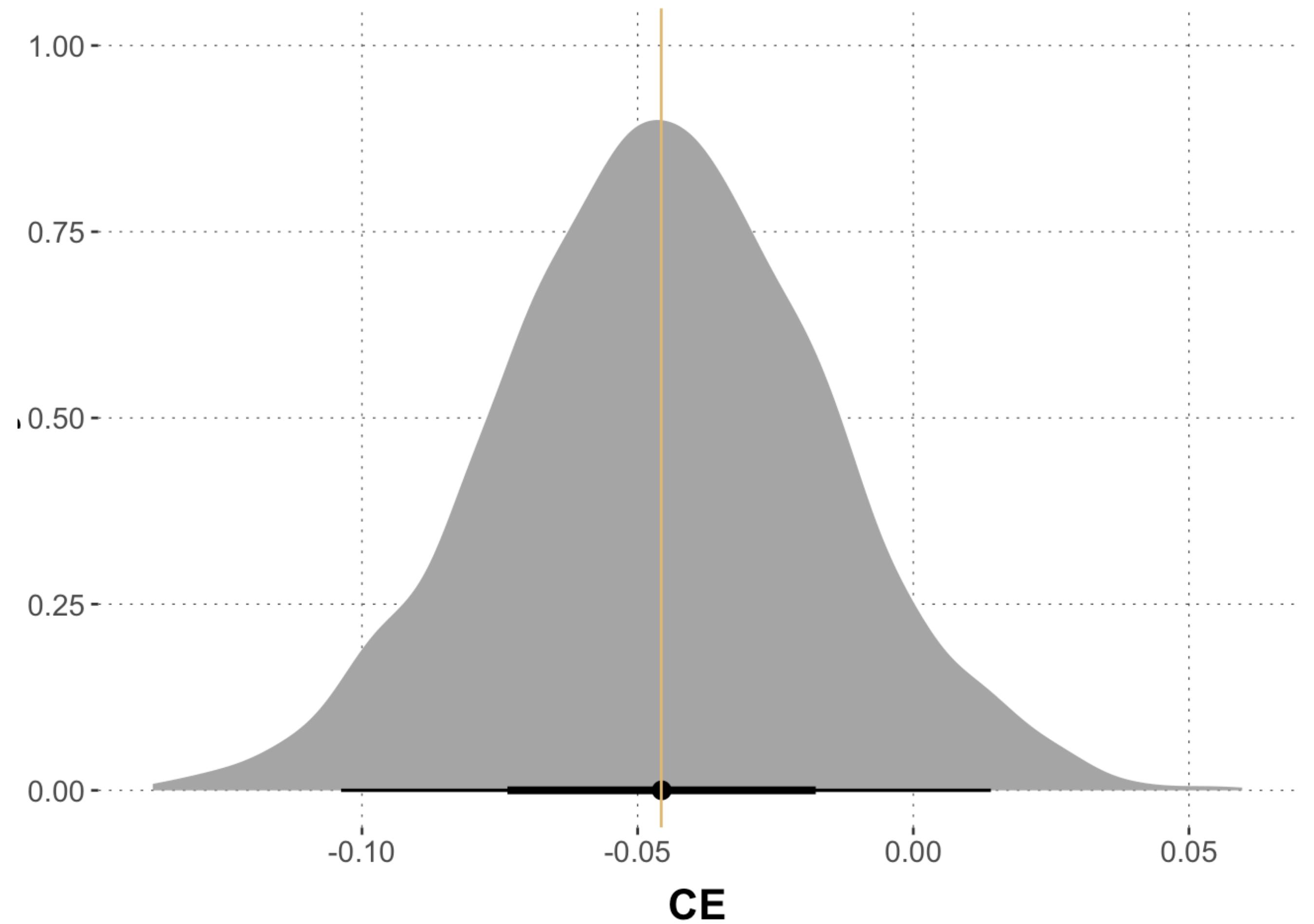
Case 2: blood-pressure as mediator



```
# A tibble: 3 × 4
  Parameter      `|95%`    mean `|95%|`
  <chr>          <dbl>     <dbl>   <dbl>
1 drug_taken     0.734    0.780   0.822
2 drug_refused   0.786    0.825   0.865
3 causal_effect -0.103   -0.0457  0.0146
```

ML-estimate of
causal effect

$$0.78 - 0.83 = -0.05$$



Causal inference w/ Bayesian regression

summary

- ▶ do-calculus tells us when and how we can draw “causal conclusions” from observational data
 - we must specify a causal model
 - readily applicable criteria exist: backdoor, front-door
- ▶ uncertainty about causal effect is quantifiable using Bayesian regression modeling
 - but (currently) requires manual labor

