

# An Introduction to Causal Inference in Neuroimaging

Moritz Grosse-Wentrup

Max Planck Institute for Intelligent Systems  
Department Empirical Inference  
Tübingen, Germany

February 28, 2014



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→ The aim of causal inference is to predict how a system reacts to an intervention.

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(Holland PW, Statistics and Causal Inference. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 1986)

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- $u$ : An individual patient
- $S(u)$ : Assignment of patient  $u$  to treatment- or control-group
- $Y(u, S(u))$ : The survival time of patient  $u$  under treatment  $S(u)$

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If  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp S$ , i.e. if treatment assignments are done *randomly*.

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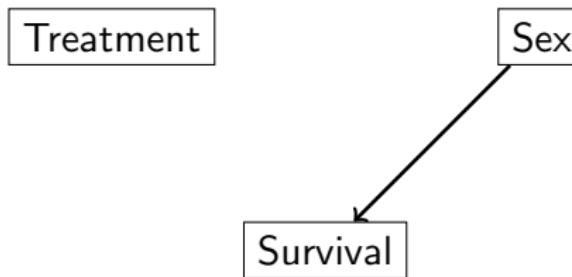
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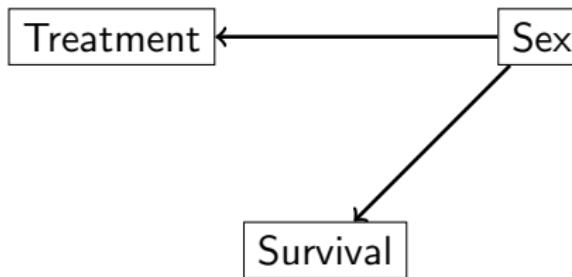
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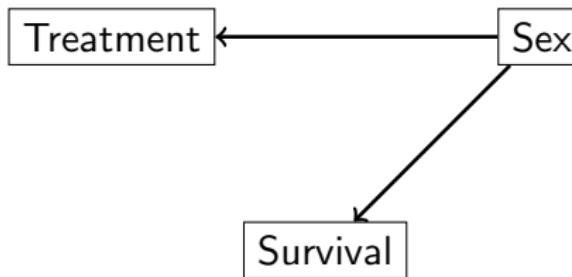
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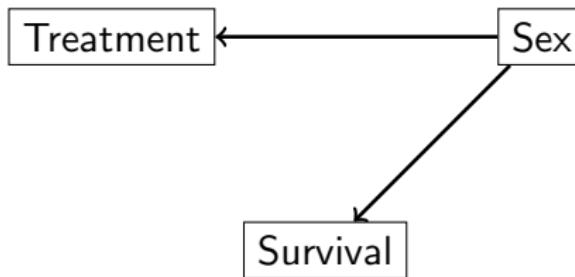
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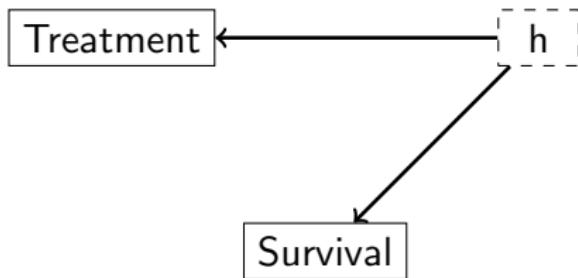


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  - ▶ It performs well on finite data.

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- 1 Granger Causality
- 2 Causal Bayesian Networks
- 3 Dynamic Causal Modelling
- 4 Non-Linear Non-Gaussian Acyclic Models (Non-LiNGAM)
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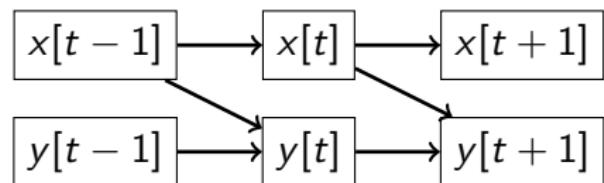
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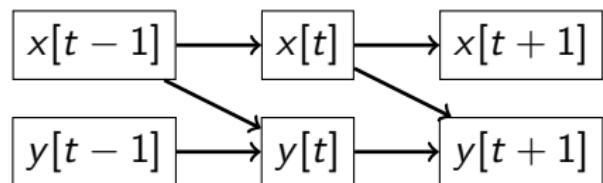
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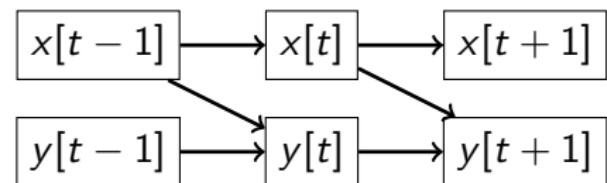
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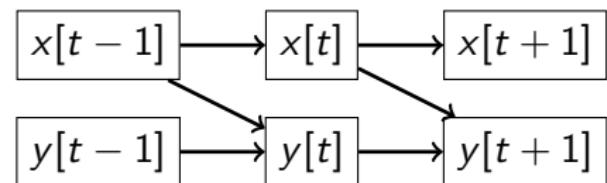
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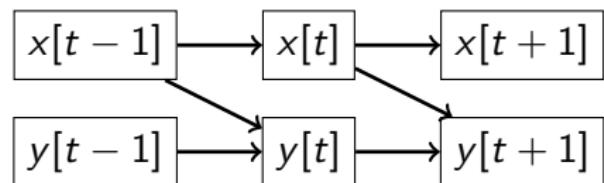
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- If  $\sigma^2(y[t]|y[t-1], x[t-1]) < \sigma^2(y[t]|y[t-1])$  conclude that  $x \rightarrow y$ .

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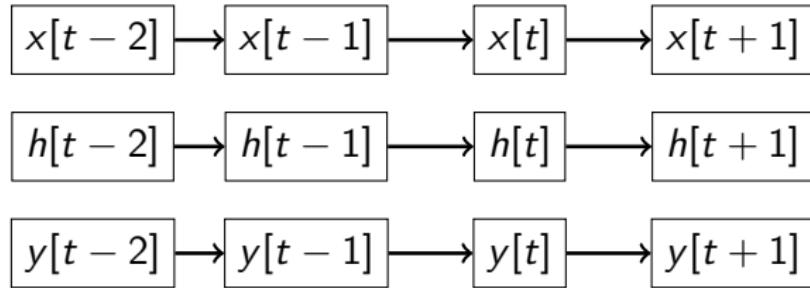
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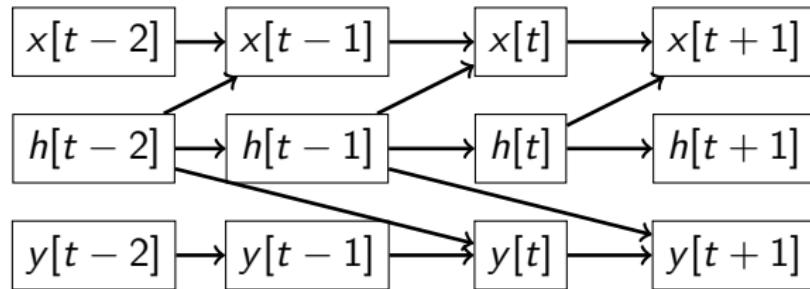


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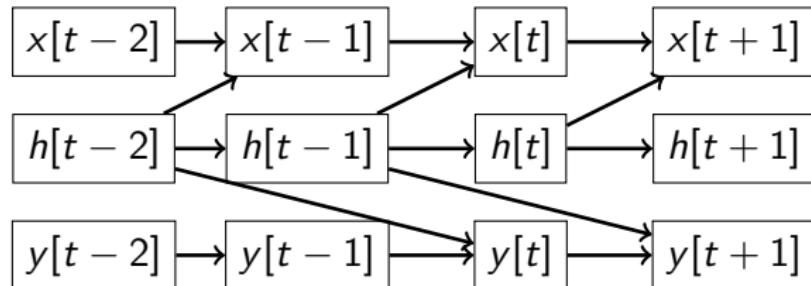


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→ Control for  $\bar{h}$ :  $\sigma^2(y|\bar{y}, \bar{x}, \bar{h}) < \sigma^2(y|\bar{y}, \bar{h})!$

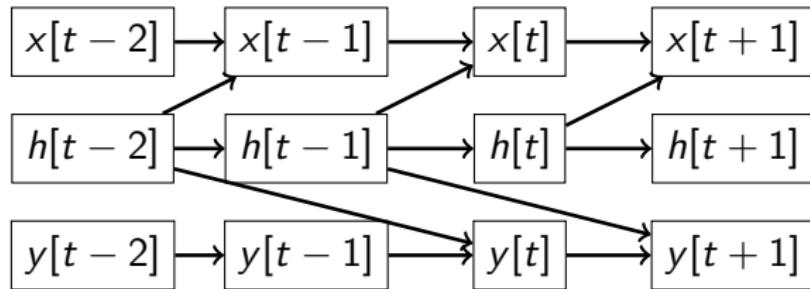
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→ Control for  $\bar{h}$ :  $\sigma^2(y|\bar{y}, \bar{x}, \bar{h}) < \sigma^2(y|\bar{y}, \bar{h})$ ! Impossible for latent variables.

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# Granger causality: Directed transfer function (DTF)

(Kaminski et al., Evaluating causal relations in neural systems. *Biological Cybernetics*, 2001)

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- Observe  $T$  samples of  $\mathbf{x}[t] \in R^N$  ( $=$  number of signals).
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- Learn parameters  $A[i]$  of AR-process  $\mathbf{x}[t] = \sum_{i=1}^p A[i]\mathbf{x}[t - i] + \epsilon[t]$ .
- Let  $A[0] = -I$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & -\sum_{i=0}^p A[i]\mathbf{x}[t - i] = \epsilon[t] \\ \Leftrightarrow & -A[t] * \mathbf{x}[t] = \epsilon[t] \\ \overset{\mathcal{F}}{\Leftrightarrow} & -A(f)\mathbf{x}(f) = \epsilon(f) \\ \Leftrightarrow & H(f) = \frac{\mathbf{x}(f)}{\epsilon(f)} = -A^{-1}(f). \end{aligned}$$

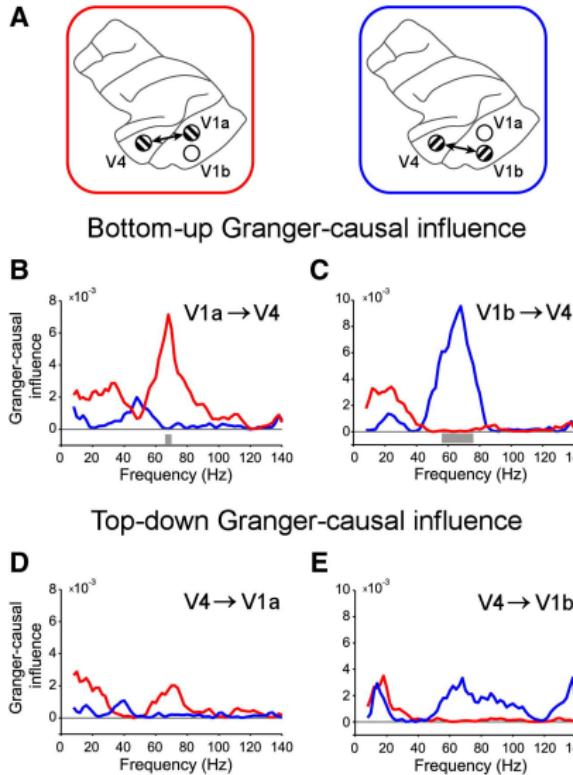
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- $h_{ij}(f)$  describes the frequency-specific effect of  $x_j[t]$  on  $x_i[t]$ .

# Granger causality: Case study



(Bosman et al., Attentional stimulus selection through selective synchronization between monkey visual areas. *Neuron*, 2012)

# Causal inference in neuroimaging

	GC	CBN	DCM	Non-LiNGAM
Provably correct under reasonable assumptions				
Testable interventions				
Hidden confounders				
Empirical performance				

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# Outline

1 Granger Causality

2 Causal Bayesian Networks

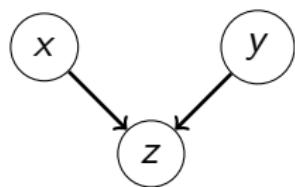
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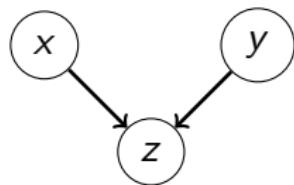
# Causal Bayesian Networks: Introductory example

Causal structure  
(unkown)



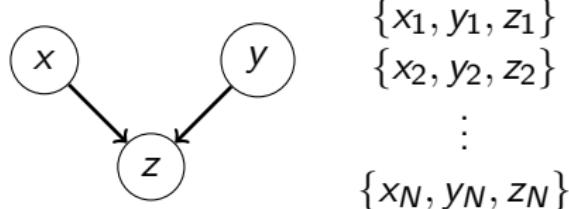
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Causal structure      Empirical data  
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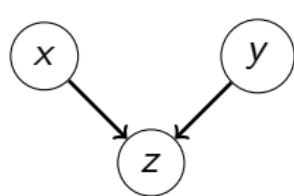
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$\{x_1, y_1, z_1\}$   
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⋮  
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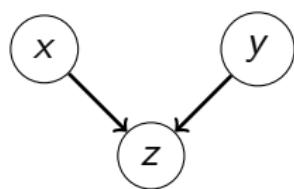
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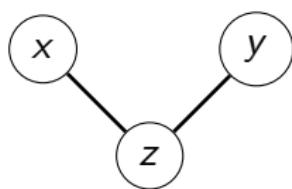
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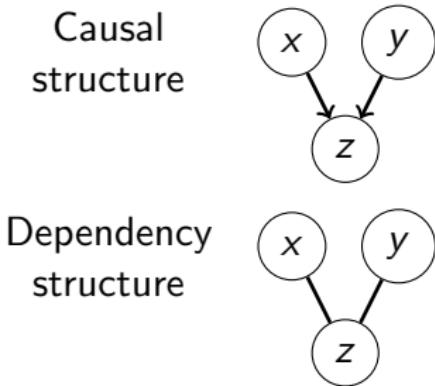
Causal structure (unkown)	Empirical data (observable)	Dependency structure (inferable)
------------------------------	--------------------------------	-------------------------------------



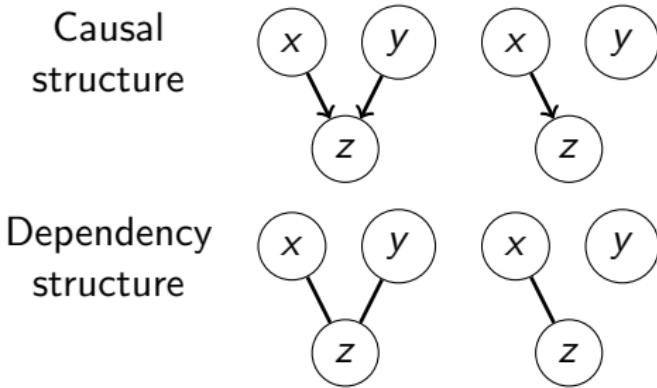
Empirical data (observable)

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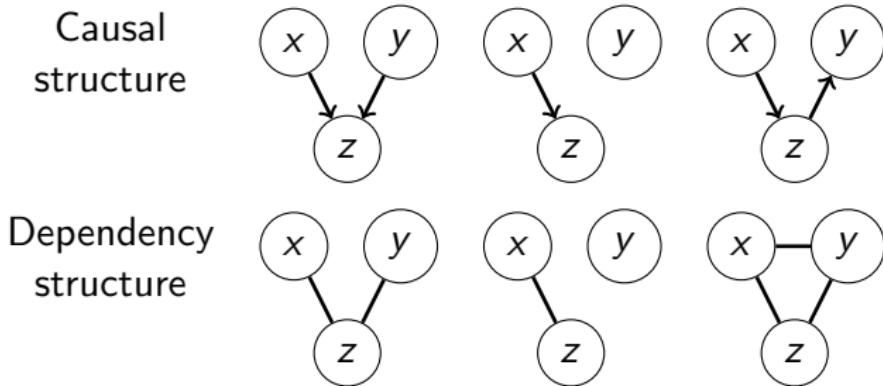
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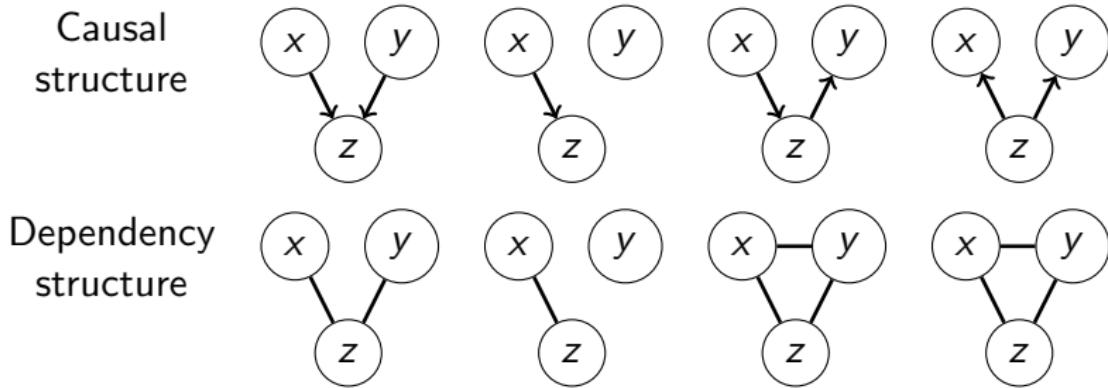
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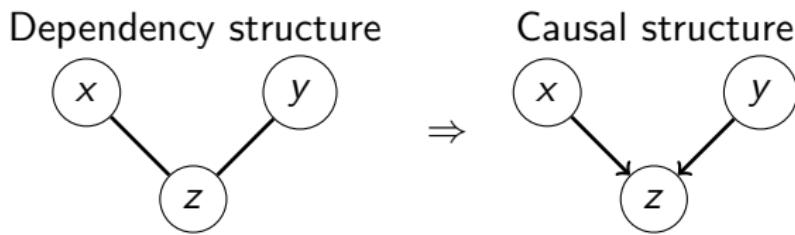
# Causal Bayesian Networks: Introductory example



# Causal Bayesian Networks: Potential causation

Under the assumptions of *faithfulness* and *causal sufficiency*, the following conditions are sufficient for  $x$  to be a cause of  $y$ :

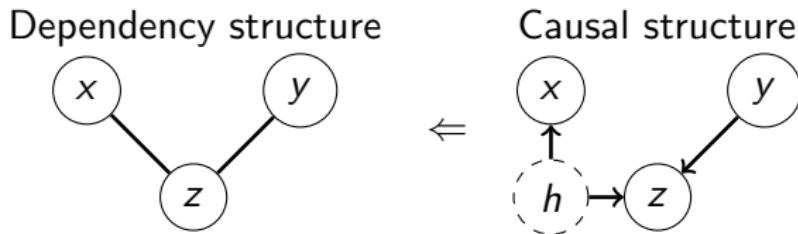
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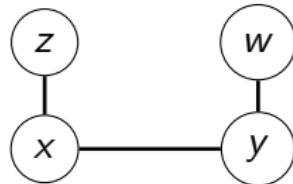


# Causal Bayesian Networks: Spurious association

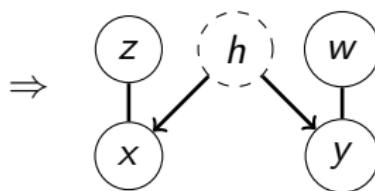
Under the assumption of *faithfulness*, the following conditions are sufficient for  $x$  and  $y$  to be spuriously related:

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- $y \not\perp\!\!\!\perp w$
- $z \perp\!\!\!\perp w$
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Dependency structure



Causal structure

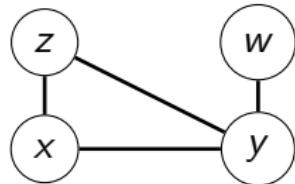


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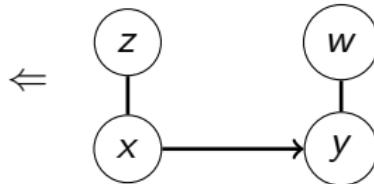
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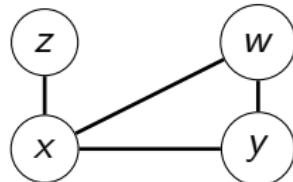


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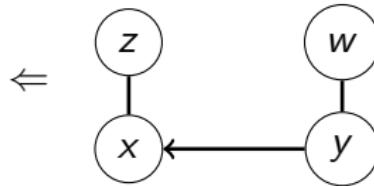
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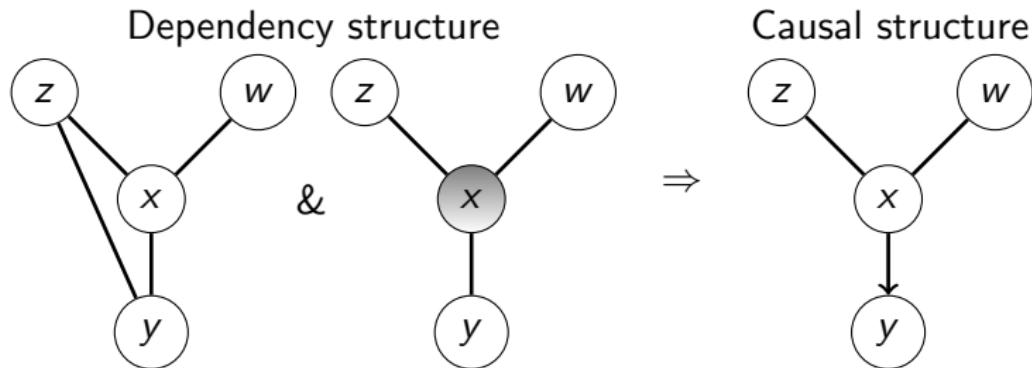
Causal structure



# Causal Bayesian Networks: Genuine causation

Under the assumption of *faithfulness*, the following conditions are sufficient for  $x$  to be a genuine cause of  $y$ :

- $z$  is a potential cause of  $x$
- $z \not\perp\!\!\!\perp y$
- $z \perp\!\!\!\perp y|x$

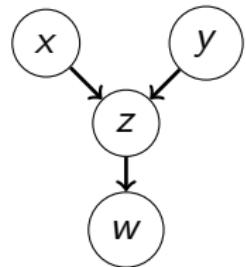


(Pearl J., *Causality: Models, reasoning, and inference*, 2000)

# Causal Bayesian Networks: Predicting interventions

Given: Causal structure (DAG) &  $p(x, y, z, w)$

Goal: Predict the effect of experimentally controlling  $x$

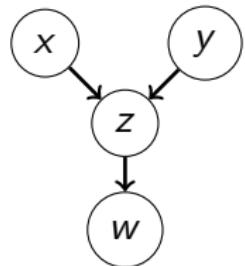


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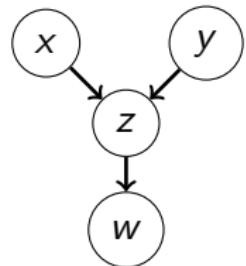
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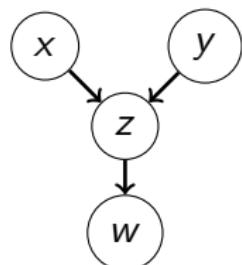
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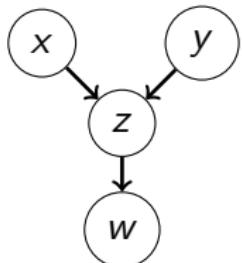
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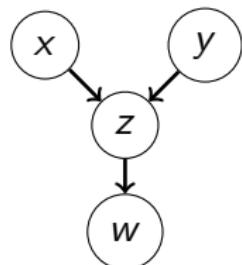
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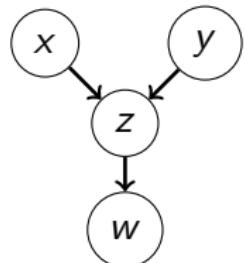
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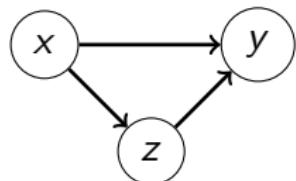
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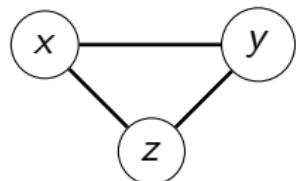


Functional model

$$\begin{aligned}x &= u_x \\y &= ax + bz + u_y\end{aligned}$$

$$z = cx + u_z$$

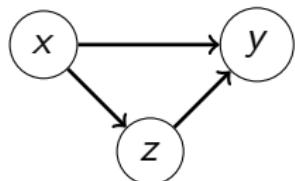
Dependency structure



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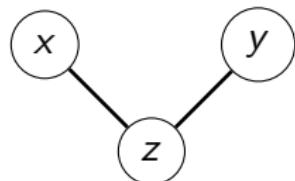
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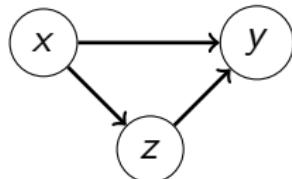
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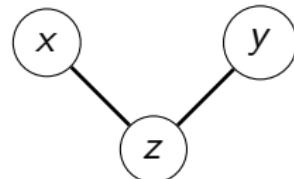
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Causal structure      Functional model      Dependency structure



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For a given causal structure (DAG), the unfaithful distributions have measure zero in the space of all distributions that can be generated by the DAG (Meek. *UAI*, 1995).

# Causal Bayesian Networks: Conditional independence tests

(Pearl J., *Causality: Models, reasoning, and inference*, 2000)

M. Grosse-Wentrup (MPI-IS)

Causal Inference in Neuroimaging

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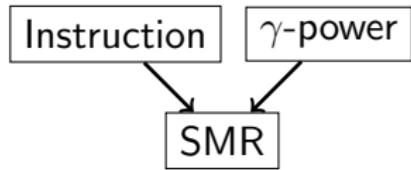
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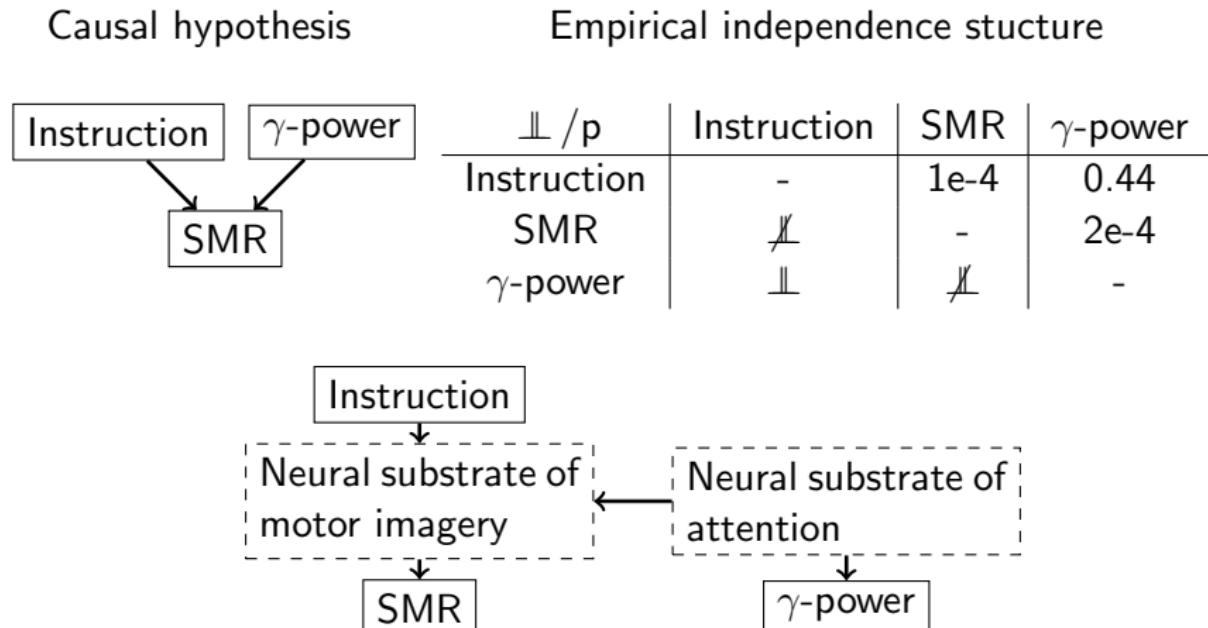
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Causal hypothesis		Empirical independence structure		
Instruction	$\gamma$ -power	$\perp / p$	Instruction	SMR
		Instruction	-	1e-4
		SMR	$\not\perp$	-
		$\gamma$ -power	$\perp$	$\not\perp$

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(Grosse-Wentrup et al. Causal influence of gamma-oscillations on the sensorimotor-rhythm. *NeuroImage*, 2011)

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- ② Define a set of  $M$  models  $\mathcal{M} = \{m_1, \dots, m_M\}$ , where each model consists of a set of differential equations with a different connectivity structure.
- ③ Fit each model to the data (which is a tough problem).

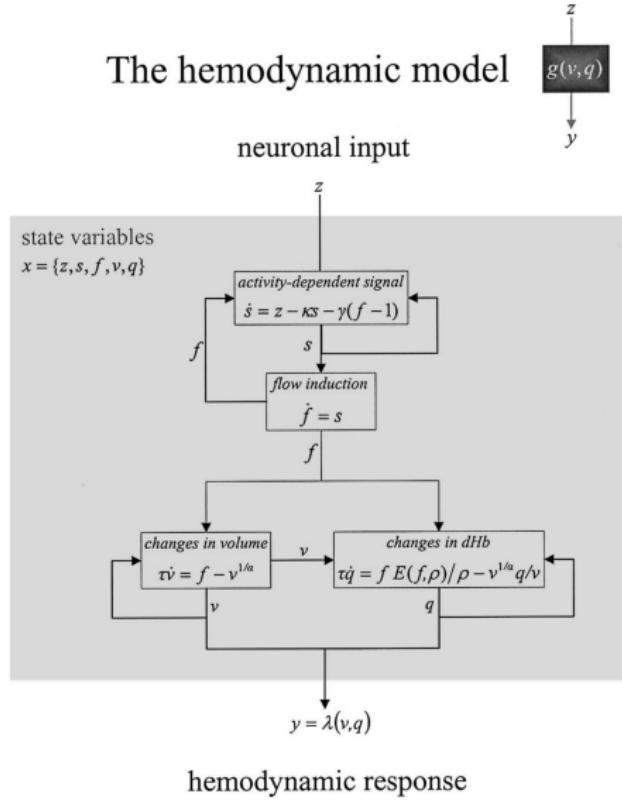
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*Causality in DCM is used in a control theory sense and means that, under the model, activity in one brain area causes dynamics in another, and that these dynamics cause the observations.* (Friston, 2009)

Inference procedure:

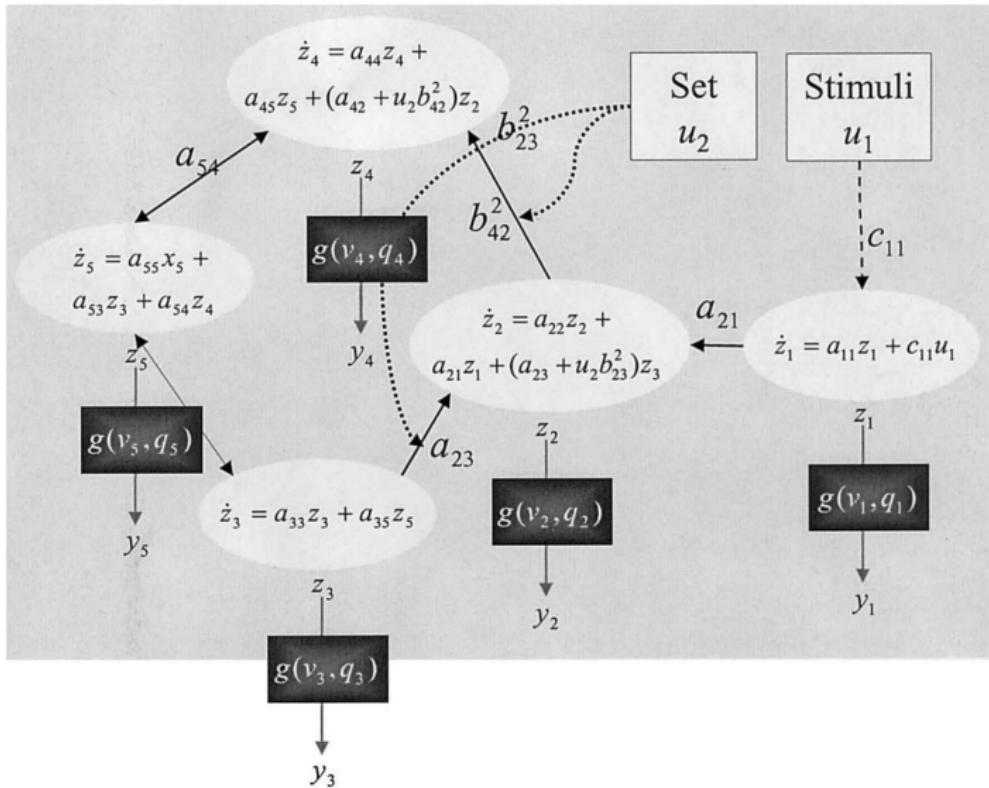
- ① Observe an  $N$ -dimensional time-series  $\mathbf{x}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^N$  for  $t = 1, \dots, T$  (e.g., BOLD signals).
- ② Define a set of  $M$  models  $\mathcal{M} = \{m_1, \dots, m_M\}$ , where each model consists of a set of differential equations with a different connectivity structure.
- ③ Fit each model to the data (which is a tough problem).
- ④ Take the connectivity of the model with the best data fit as the true causal structure.

# Dynamic causal modelling: The hemodynamic model



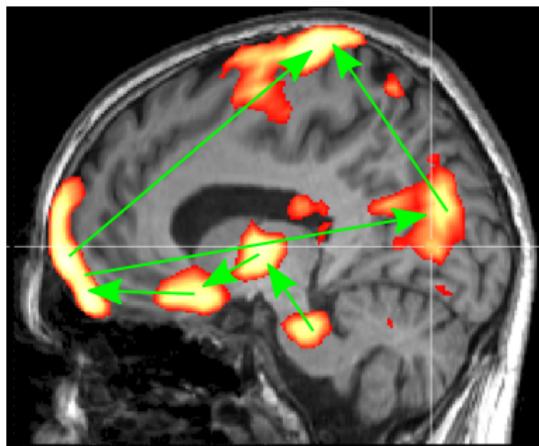
(Friston K.J. et al., Dynamic causal modelling. *NeuroImage*, 2003)

# Dynamic causal modelling: The bilinear model

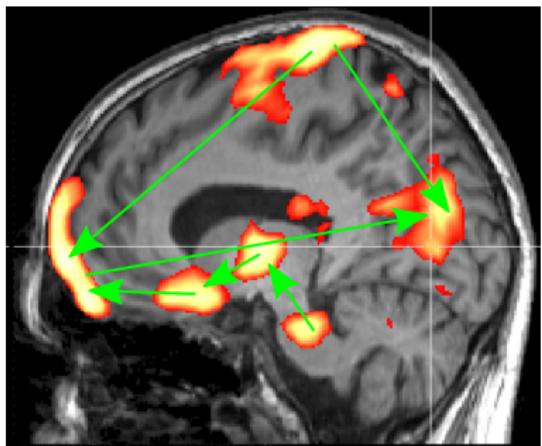


(Friston K.J. et al., Dynamic causal modelling. *NeuroImage*, 2003)

# Dynamic causal modelling: Model comparison



vs.



(Friston K.J. et al., Dynamic causal modelling. *NeuroImage*, 2003)

# Dynamic causal modelling

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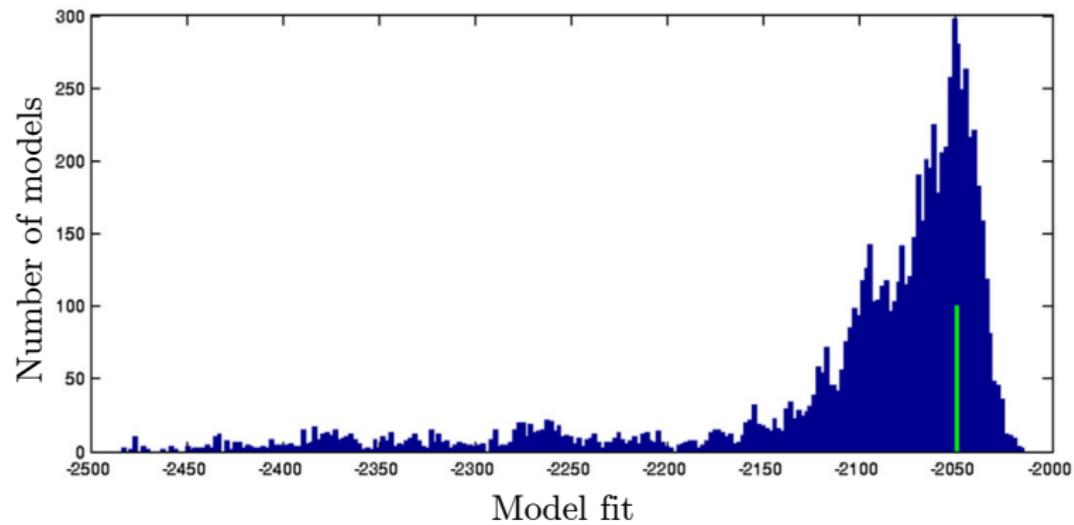
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- ③ Fit each model to the data (which is a tough problem).
- ④ Take the connectivity of the model with the best data fit as the true causal structure.

If  $\mathcal{M}$  does not contain the true model, is the best-fitting model in  $\mathcal{M}$  similar to the true one in terms of its connectivity structure?

# Dynamic causal modelling: Model fit & structure similarity

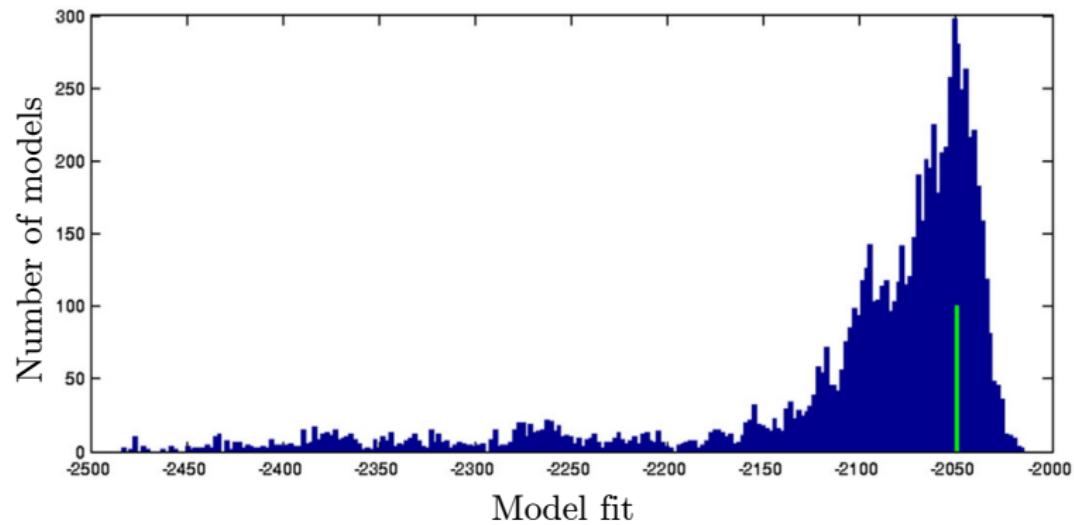
(Lohmann et al., Critical comments on dynamic causal modelling. *NeuroImage*, 2012)

# Dynamic causal modelling: Model fit & structure similarity



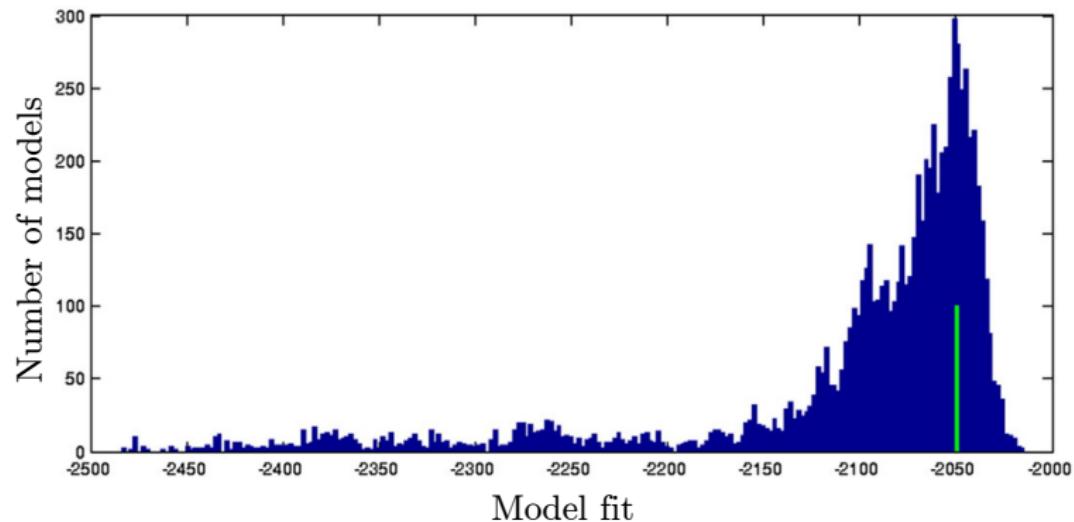
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# Dynamic causal modelling: Model fit & structure similarity



→ Similarity in terms of model fit does not translate into similarity in terms of connectivity structure.

# Dynamic causal modelling: Model fit & structure similarity



- Similarity in terms of model fit does not translate into similarity in terms of connectivity structure.
- There is no reason to believe that DCM selects a causal structure that is structurally similar to the true one.

(Lohmann et al., Critical comments on dynamic causal modelling. *NeuroImage*, 2012)

# Causal inference in neuroimaging

	GC	CBN	DCM	Non-LiNGAM
Provably correct under reasonable assumptions	✗	✓		
Testable interventions	✓	✓		
Hidden confounders	✗	✓		
Empirical performance		✗		

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Hidden confounders	✗	✓		
Empirical performance		✗		

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Empirical performance		✗		

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Hidden confounders	✗	✓	✗	
Empirical performance		✗		

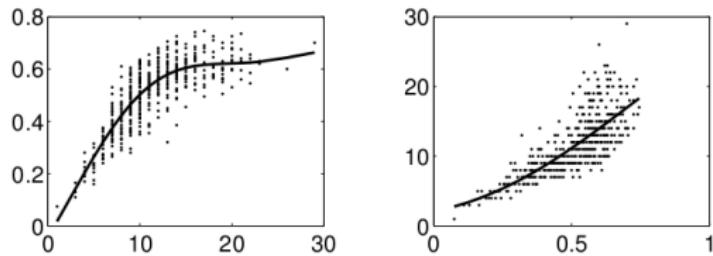
# Causal inference in neuroimaging

	GC	CBN	DCM	Non-LiNGAM
Provably correct under reasonable assumptions	✗	✓	✗	
Testable interventions	✓	✓	✗	
Hidden confounders	✗	✓	✗	
Empirical performance		✗	✗	

# Outline

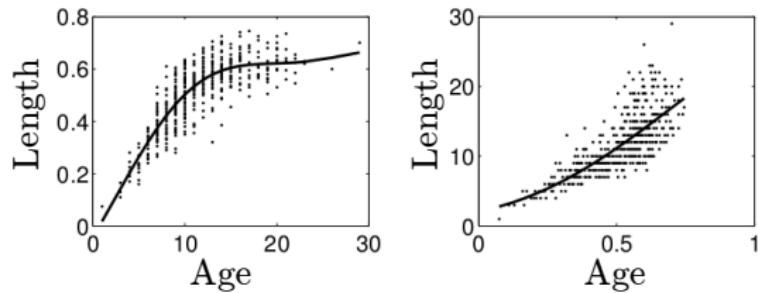
- 1 Granger Causality
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- 5 Summary

# Non-Linear Non-Gaussian Acyclic Models (Non-LiNGAM)



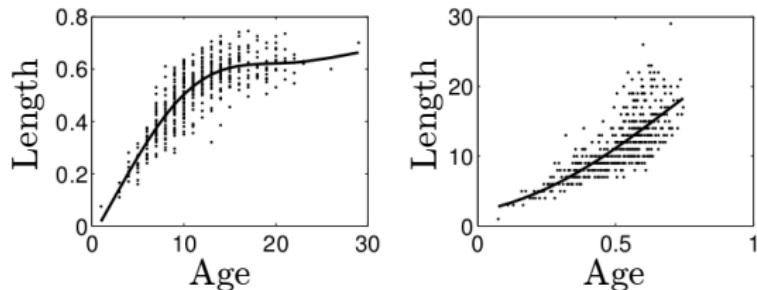
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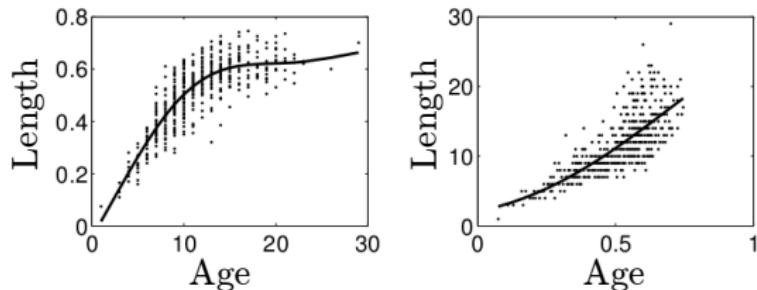


Let

$$y = f(x) + n$$

for some arbitrary non-linear function  $f$  and  $p(x, n) = p(x)p(n)$  ( $x \perp n$ ).

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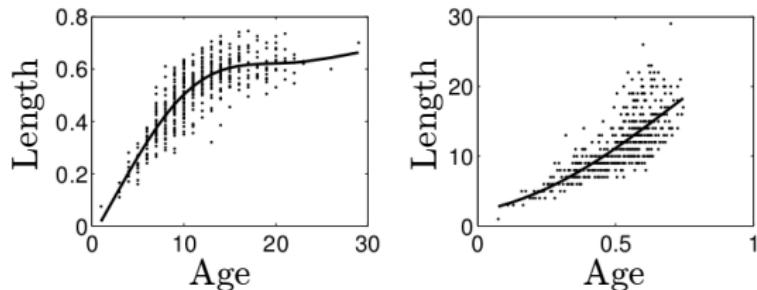
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Is it possible to invert this model to obtain

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→ In general, no!

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- ⑤ If  $e_x \perp\!\!\!\perp y$  decide that  $y \rightarrow x$ .
- ⑥ Do not decide on causal direction if neither  $e_y \perp\!\!\!\perp x$  nor  $e_x \perp\!\!\!\perp y$ .

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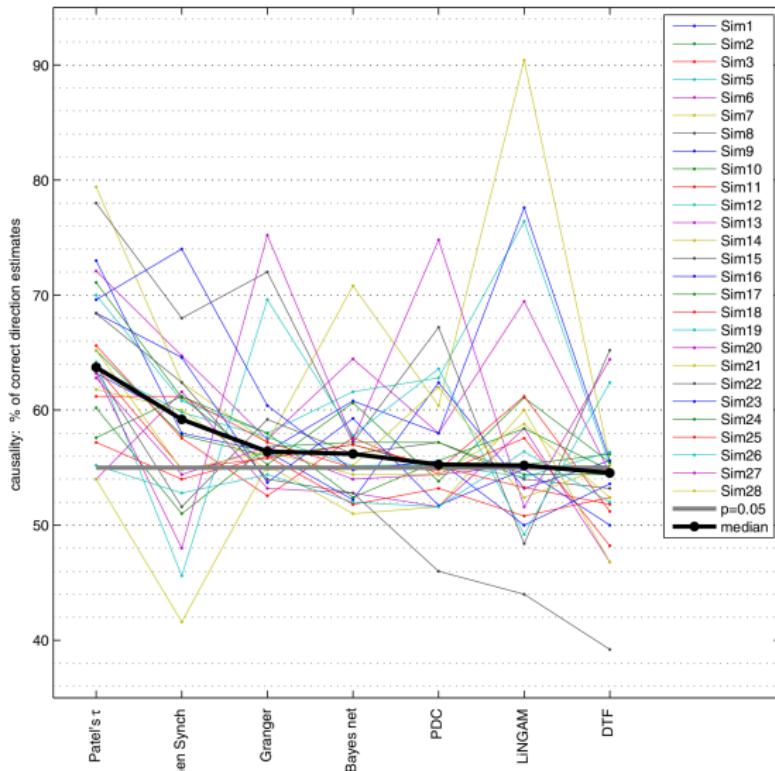
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# Outline

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## Empirical Performance



(Smith et al., Network modelling methods for fMRI. *NeuroImage*, 2011)

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Provably correct under reasonable assumptions	✗	✓	✗	✓
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Hidden confounders	✗	✓	✗	✓
Empirical performance			✗	

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Empirical performance	✗	✗	✗	✗

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# Conclusions

- Every causal inference algorithms rests on *untestable* assumptions.
- Several causal inference algorithms appear to perform *above chance-level*.
- Causal inference may be useful
  - ▶ to guide the design of interventional studies
  - ▶ when qualitative conclusions do not depend on individual results.
- Causal inference is (at present) not useful, when qualitative conclusions depend on one individual inference result.

# 4th Int. Workshop on Pattern Recognition in Neuroimaging (PRNI 2014)



June 4-6, 2014, Tübingen  
<http://prni.org>