

9.S918: Statistical Inference in Brain and Cognitive Sciences

Week 1 Day 2: Introduction to causal inference

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A tiny bit of statistics

- On Monday we reviewed basics of **probability**: the logical calculus of uncertainty—a branch of mathematics
- The primary focus of this class is **statistics**: the mathematics, science, craft, and art of drawing inferences from data
- The two fields are fundamentally different
- But, probability is used extensively throughout statistics

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- In general, we will use \mathbf{y} to refer to observed-outcome **data** and θ to refer to the model parameters to be estimated

Statistical estimators

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$$\text{Var}(X) \equiv E[(X - E[X])^2]$$


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- Good estimators have favorable **bias–variance** tradeoff

Maximum likelihood estimation

$$\text{Lik}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}) \equiv P(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MLE} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \text{Lik}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y})$$

i	y_i
1	T
2	T
3	H
4	T

(repeat slide from lecture 3)

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- p refers to the value of $P(\text{coin toss}_i = \text{Heads})$
- Likelihood for the following dataset

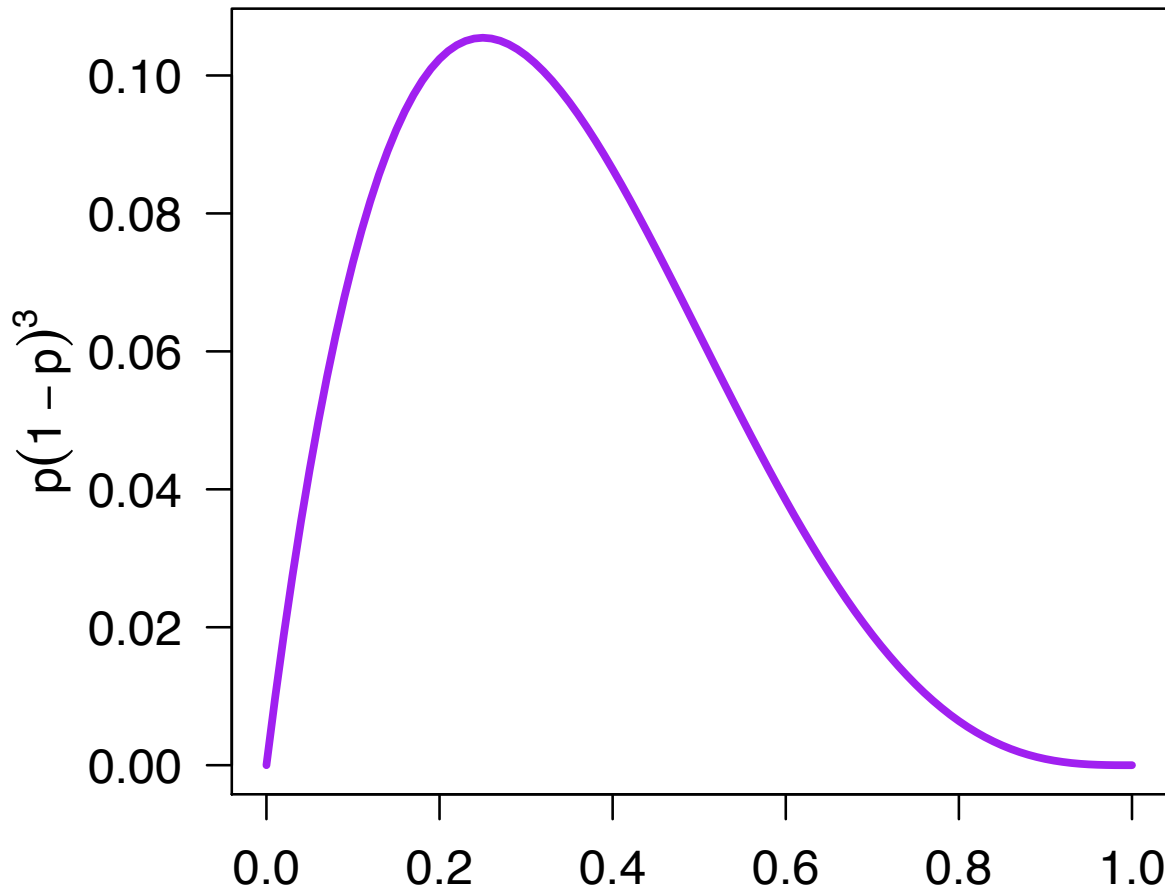
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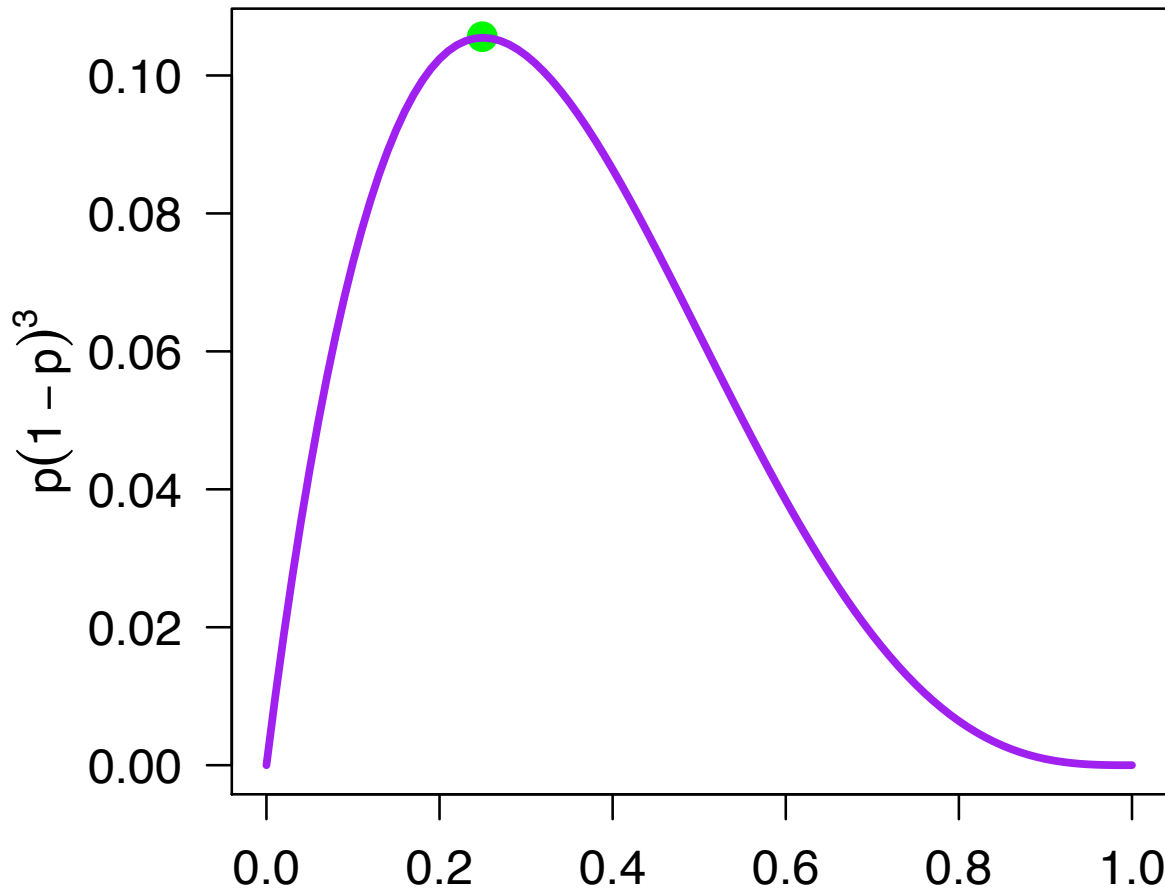
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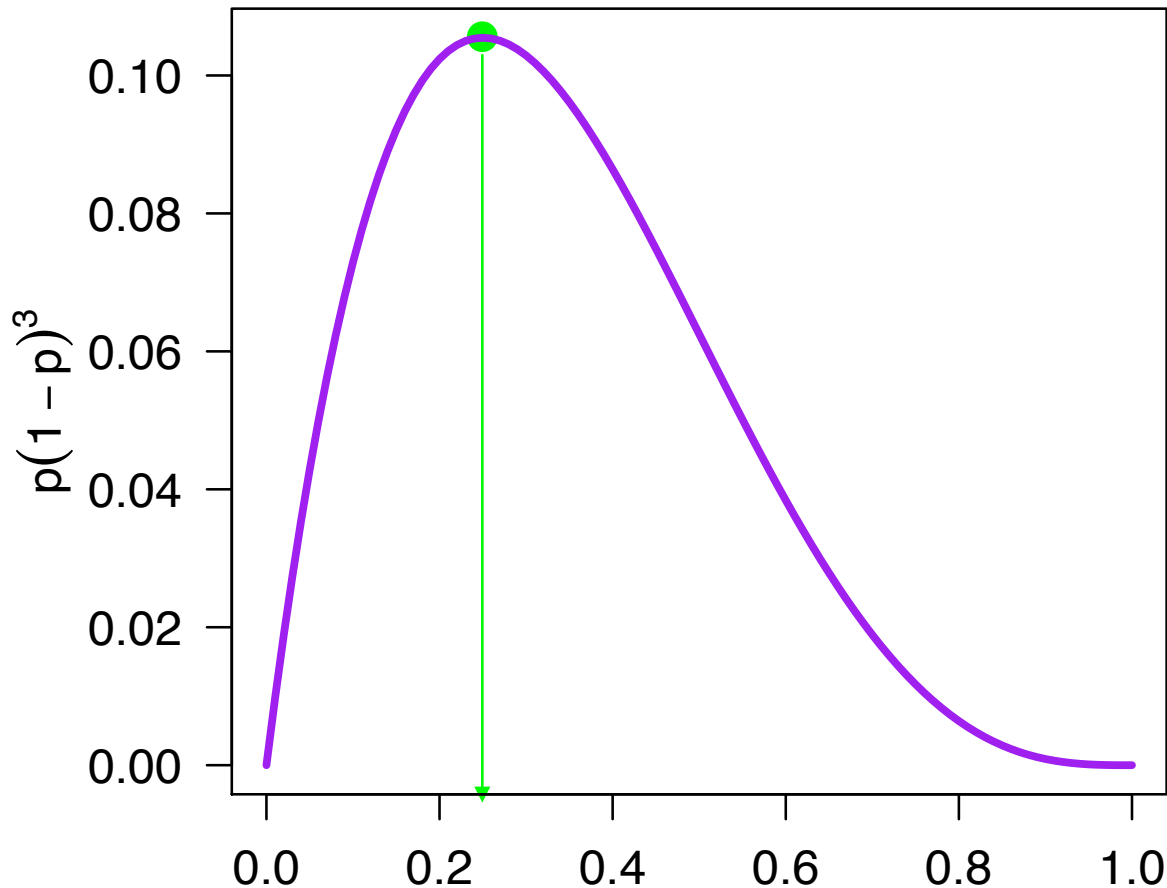
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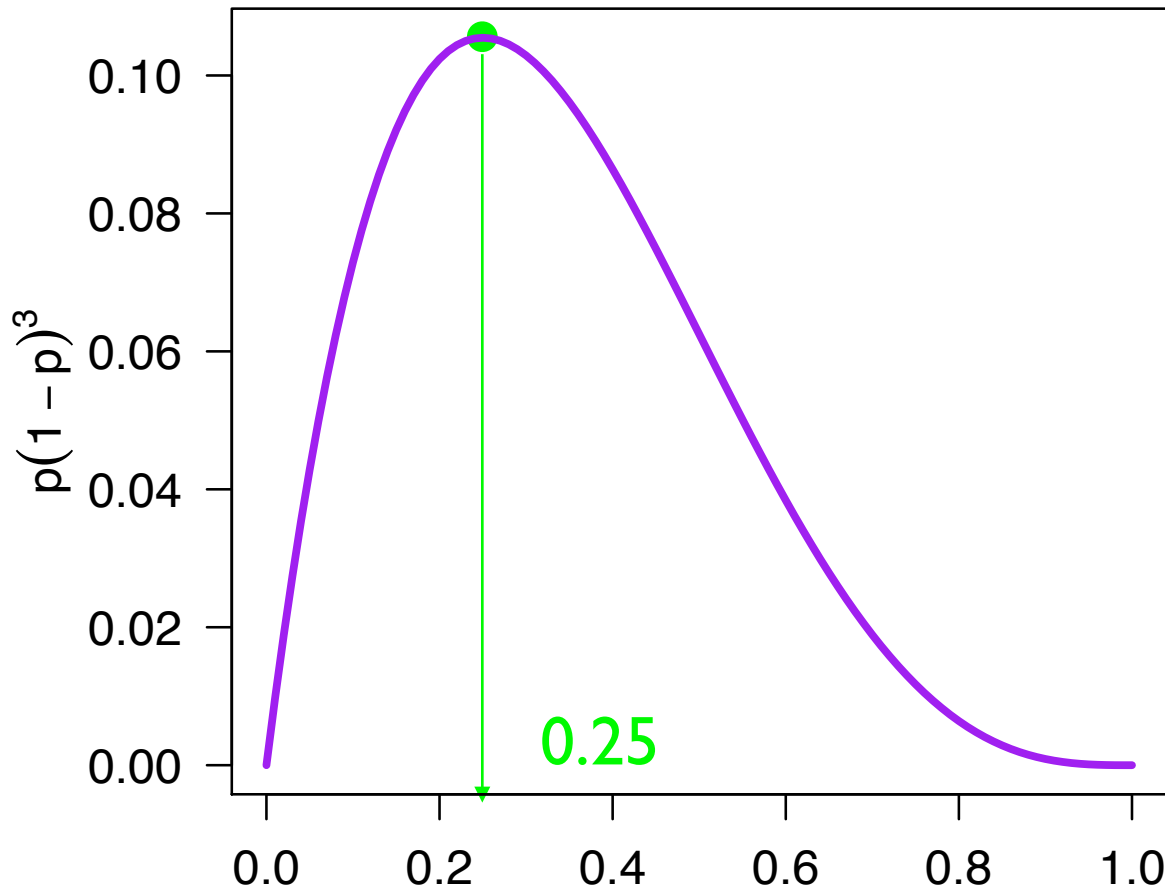
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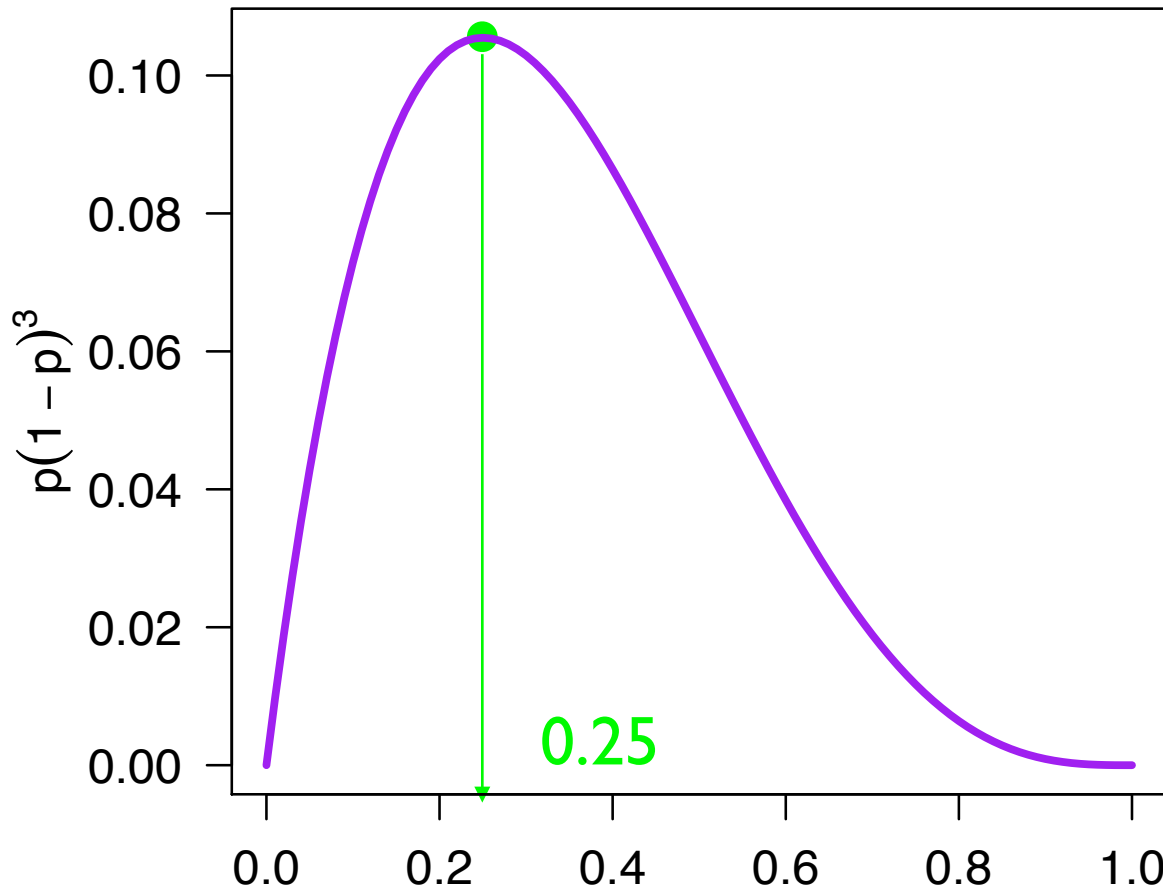
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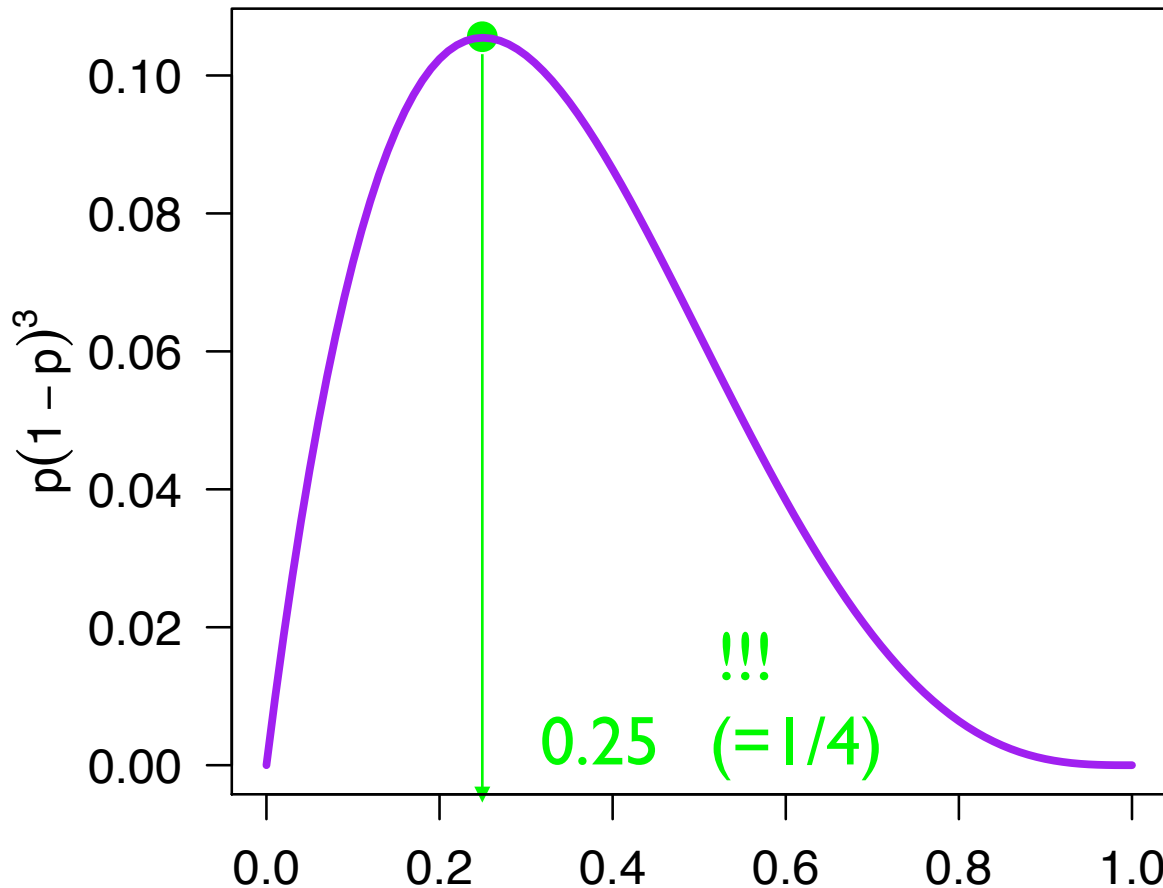
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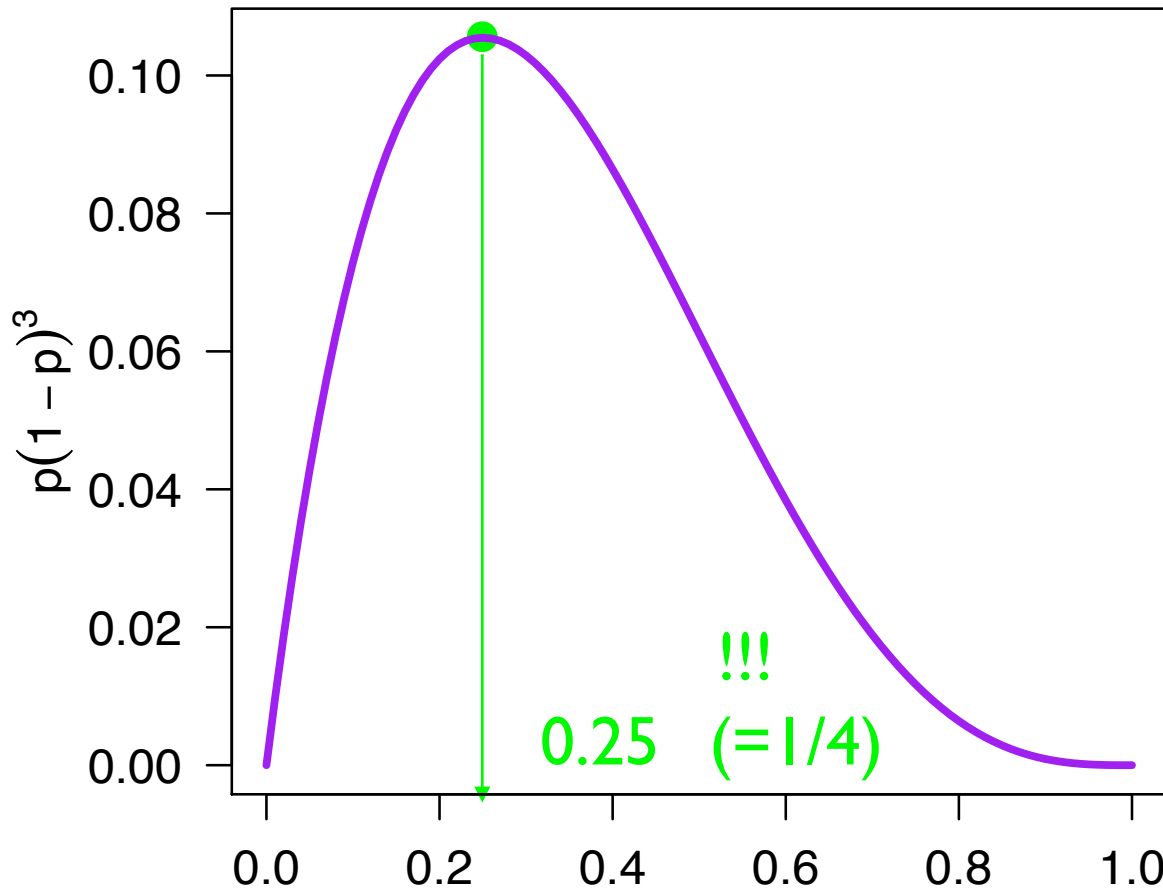
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The **MLE** also turns
out to be the *relative*
frequency estimate
(**RFE**)

(repeat slide from lecture 3)

Introductory causal inference

- You have probably had previous exposure to both probability and statistics
- You are less likely to have had exposure to **causal inference**
- Causal inference uses probability and statistics, but it is something separate from the traditional construal of those two fields
- You can think of causal inference as being a framework extending more traditional statistics by:
 - Adding new probability-based mathematical constructs; and,
 - Developing a set of practice for statistical inference based on those constructs
- Two causal inference frameworks:
 - The **potential outcomes** framework
 - The **causal graphical models** framework

The potential-outcomes framework

- In epidemiology and many other areas of statistics, causal inference was developed out of the idea of **potential outcomes** (Neyman 1923, Rubin 1974)
- Consider an outcome, Y , and a potential **treatment** A
- **Example:**
 Y : an individual survives to the end of the year (0: no, 1: yes)
 A : an individual with heart disease receives a heart transplant (0: no, 1: yes)

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- So we are interested in (and likewise for $Y^{a=1}$):

$$E[Y^{a=0}] = \sum_y yP(Y^{a=0} = y) = 0 \times P(Y^{a=0} = 0) + 1 \times P(Y^{a=0} = 1) = P(Y^{a=0} = 1)$$

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Counterfactual data and causal effects

(Hernan & Robins, 2020, Table 1.1)

	$Y^{a=0}$	$Y^{a=1}$
Rheia	0	1
Kronos	1	0
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	0	0
Poseidon	1	0
Hera	0	0
Zeus	0	1
Artemis	1	1
Apollo	1	0
Leto	0	1
Ares	1	1
Athena	1	1
Hephaestus	0	1
Aphrodite	0	1
Cyclope	0	1
Persephone	1	1
Hermes	1	0
Hebe	1	0
Dionysus	1	0
$P(Y^{a=*}) = 1$	0.5	0.5

Counterfactual data and causal effects

- Suppose we knew **what would happen** for each individual in the population under each value of the treatment

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- The **average causal effect** of treatment A is defined as the difference of counterfactual risks:

$$E[Y^{a=1}] - E[Y^{a=0}] = 0$$

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$$E[Y^{a=0}] = 0.5 \qquad E[Y^{a=1}] = 0.5$$

- The **average causal effect** of treatment A is defined as the difference of counterfactual risks:

$$E[Y^{a=1}] - E[Y^{a=0}] = 0$$

- Here, treatment is **ineffective**

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Estimating causal effects

Remember, $E[Y^{a=i}] = P(Y^{a=i} = 1)$

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Kronos	0	0	1	1	?
Demeter	0	0	0	0	?
Hades	0	0	0	0	?
Hestia	0	1	0	?	0
Poseidon	0	1	0	?	0
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Aphrodite	1	1	1	?	1
Polyphemos	1	1	1	?	1
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Hebe	1	1	0	?	0
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Estimating causal effects

Remember, $E[Y^{a=i}] = P(Y^{a=i} = 1)$

- Naively, we might estimate the counterfactual risks $P(Y^{a=i} = 1)$ directly from observed A and Y :

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- Naively, we might estimate the counterfactual risks $P(Y^{a=i} = 1)$ directly from observed A and Y :

$$\hat{P}_{MLE}(Y = 1 | A = 0) = \frac{3}{7} \quad \hat{P}_{MLE}(Y = 1 | A = 1) = \frac{7}{13}$$

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Leto	1	0	0	0	?
Ares	1	1	1	?	1
Athena	1	1	1	?	1
Hephaestus	1	1	1	?	1
Aphrodite	1	1	1	?	1
Polyphemos	1	1	1	?	1
Persephone	1	1	1	?	1
Hermes	1	1	0	?	0
Hebe	1	1	0	?	0
Dionysus	1	1	0	?	0

Estimating causal effects

Remember, $E[Y^{a=i}] = P(Y^{a=i} = 1)$

	L	A	Y	Y^0	Y^1
Rheia	0	0	0	0	?
Kronos	0	0	1	1	?
Demeter	0	0	0	0	?
Hades	0	0	0	0	?
Hestia	0	1	0	?	0
Poseidon	0	1	0	?	0
Hera	0	1	0	?	0
Zeus	0	1	1	?	1
Artemis	1	0	1	1	?
Apollo	1	0	1	1	?
Leto	1	0	0	0	?
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- So, the following condition suffices:
 $P(Y^{a=i} = 1 | A = i) = P(Y^{a=i} = 1)$
- This is called **EXCHANGEABILITY**:

$$Y^a \perp A | \{ \}$$

Exchangeability and randomization

Goal: $\hat{P}(Y^a = 1)$

	$Y^{a=0}$	$Y^{a=1}$
Rheia	0	1
Kronos	1	0
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	0	0
Poseidon	1	0
Hera	0	0
Zeus	0	1
Artemis	1	1
Apollo	1	0
Leto	0	1
Ares	1	1
Athena	1	1
Hephaestus	0	1
Aphrodite	0	1
Polyphemus	0	1
Persephone	1	1
Hermes	1	0
Hebe	1	0
Dionysus	1	0

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- Why is a randomized experiment so powerful?

	$Y^{a=0}$	$Y^{a=1}$
Rheia	0	1
Kronos	1	0
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	0	0
Poseidon	1	0
Hera	0	0
Zeus	0	1
Artemis	1	1
Apollo	1	0
Leto	0	1
Ares	1	1
Athena	1	1
Hephaestus	0	1
Aphrodite	0	1
Polyphemus	0	1
Persephone	1	1
Hermes	1	0
Hebe	1	0
Dionysus	1	0

Exchangeability and randomization

Goal: $\hat{P}(Y^a = 1)$

- Why is a randomized experiment so powerful?
- Recap of exchangeability criterion:

$$Y^a \perp A \mid \{\}$$

	$Y^{a=0}$	$Y^{a=1}$
Rheia	0	1
Kronos	1	0
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	0	0
Poseidon	1	0
Hera	0	0
Zeus	0	1
Artemis	1	1
Apollo	1	0
Leto	0	1
Ares	1	1
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	$Y^{a=0}$	$Y^{a=1}$
Rheia	0	1
Kronos	1	0
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	0	0
Poseidon	1	0
Hera	0	0
Zeus	0	1
Artemis	1	1
Apollo	1	0
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	A
Rheia	0
Kronos	0
Demeter	0
Hades	0
Hestia	1
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	A	Y
Rheia	0	0
Kronos	0	1
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	1	0
Poseidon	1	0
Hera	1	0
Zeus	1	1
Artemis	0	1
Apollo	0	1
Leto	0	0
Ares	1	1
Athena	1	1
Hephaestus	1	1
Aphrodite	1	1
Polyphemos	1	1
Persephone	1	1
Hermes	1	0
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- We can now go ahead and estimate

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Kronos	1	0	0	1
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$$\hat{P}(Y^{a=i} = 1) = \hat{P}(Y = 1 \mid A = i)$$

- Hooray!!!

	$Y^{a=0}$	$Y^{a=1}$	A	Y
Rheia	0	1	0	0
Kronos	1	0	0	1
Demeter	0	0	0	0
Hades	0	0	0	0
Hestia	0	0	1	0
Poseidon	1	0	1	0
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	L
Rheia	0
Kronos	0
Demeter	0
Hades	0
Hestia	0
Poseidon	0
Hera	0
Zeus	0
Artemis	1
Apollo	1
Leto	1
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	L	A
Rheia	0	0
Kronos	0	0
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	0	1
Poseidon	0	1
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Kronos	0	0
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Hestia	0	1
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Hera	0	1
Zeus	0	1
Artemis	1	0
Apollo	1	0
Leto	1	0
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Demeter	0	0	0	0	0
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Conditional exchangeability

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- But now suppose we have observed (i.e., it's in our dataset) the factor L that affected whether the treatment A was applied

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$$A \perp Y^a \mid L$$

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- That is, L captures all the information available in A that is relevant to all Y^a

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- This is called **CONDITIONAL EXCHANGEABILITY**

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Kronos	0	0	1	0	1
Demeter	0	0	0	0	0
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- Suppose we observe some other potentially relevant factor in our data, such as L = whether the patient was in critical condition (1=yes, 0=no)
- **CONDITIONAL EXCHANGEABILITY** holds iff the counterfactual outcomes are conditionally independent of treatment, **GIVEN** this other relevant factor L :

$$A \perp Y^a \mid L$$

- Conditional exchangeability intuitively seems to give us an inroad into estimating the average causal effect of A on Y

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 - Or: sicker people are more likely to get transplants!

Not an issue of sample size—no amount of data would help!

The three criteria for identifiability

- **Consistency:** $Y = Y^{a=i}$ whenever $A = i$
 - Consequence: different individuals' outcomes don't affect each other
 - Consequence: there can be no "multiple versions" of the same treatment A in terms of their influence on Y
- **Exchangeability:** for all i , $Y^{a=i} \perp A \mid Z$ for some set of observed variables Z
 - Consequence: there can be no "hidden common causes" or "hidden mediators" of A and $Y^{a=i}$
- **Positivity:** for all i and all values of Z , $P(A = i \mid Z) > 0$
 - e.g., in our example, it can't be the case that individuals with heart disease are *always* given transplants

What to do with conditional exchangeability

- One approach is to

	<i>L</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>Y</i>
Rheia	0	0	0
Kronos	0	0	1
Demeter	0	0	0
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Hestia	0	1	0
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Why causal inference is challenging

(Hernan & Robins, 2020, Table 1.1)

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Hermes	1	0
Hebe	1	0
Dionysus	1	0

Typical observed Y

Why causal inference is challenging

- But, we don't get to see individual-specific counterfactual RV values!
- At most we see one **actual** outcome
- Let us bundle up everything we don't know about the process by which actual A and Y were determined into the RV U

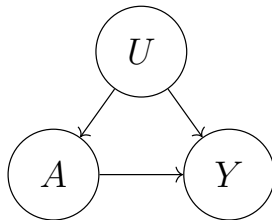
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Persephone	1	1
Hermes	1	0
Hebe	1	0
Dionysus	1	0

Typical observed Y

Why causal inference is challenging

- But, we don't get to see individual-specific counterfactual RV values!
- At most we see one **actual** outcome
- Let us bundle up everything we don't know about the process by which actual A and Y were determined into the RV U



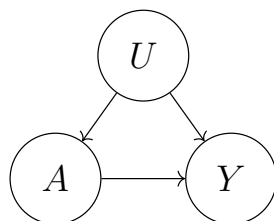
(Hernan & Robins, 2020, Table 1.1)

	$Y^{a=0}$	$Y^{a=1}$
Rheia	0	1
Kronos	1	0
Demeter	0	0
Hades	0	0
Hestia	0	0
Poseidon	1	0
Hera	0	0
Zeus	0	1
Artemis	1	1
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Confounding!

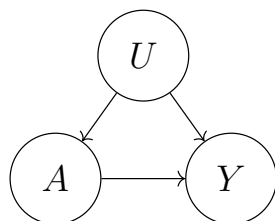
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- This is why randomized experiments are so powerful!

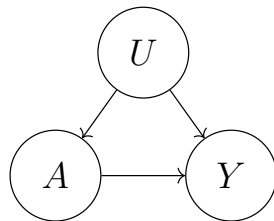
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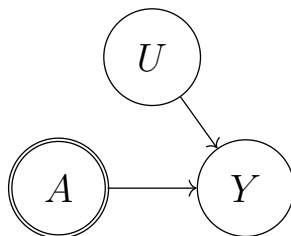
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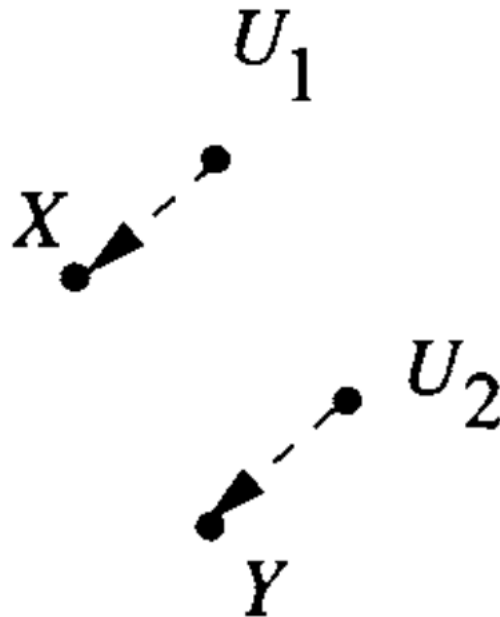
- where pa_i is the subset of V that are parents of X_i

Bayes Nets & functional causal models

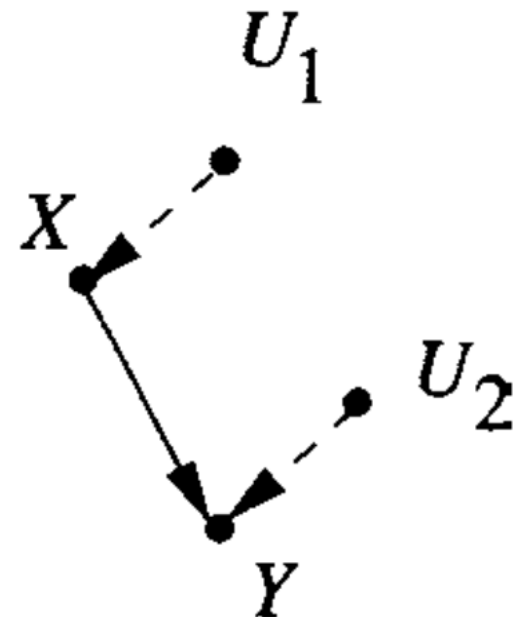
Bayes Net



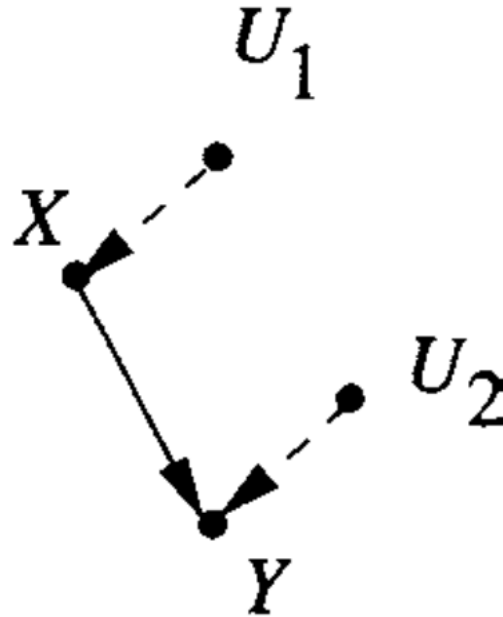
Corresponding
functional
causal model



Functional
causal model
with X causally
upstream of Y



Example model & structural equations



$$x = f_1(u_1)$$

$$y = f_2(x, u_2)$$

- An example structural equation:

$$y = a + bx + u_2$$

(Could be linear regression!)