

GitHub repo with  
materials!



# Causality for Neuroscientists

**Ole Jonas Wenzel, Hongbiao Chen and Akshay Kumar Jagadish**

5th November 2019

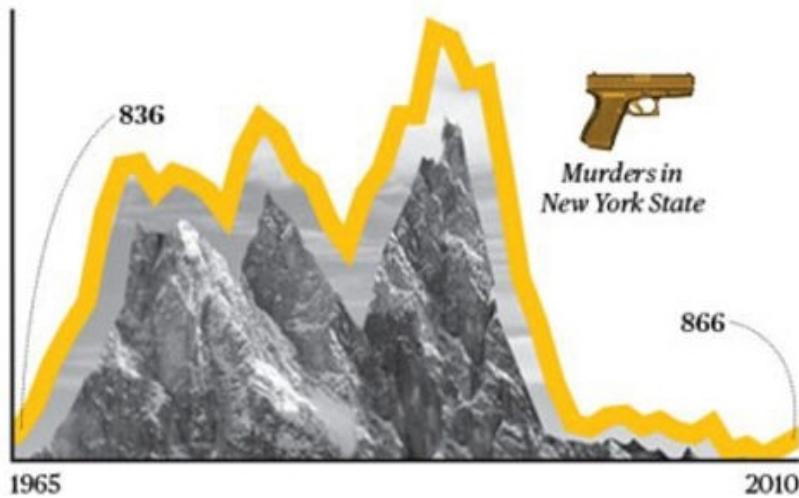
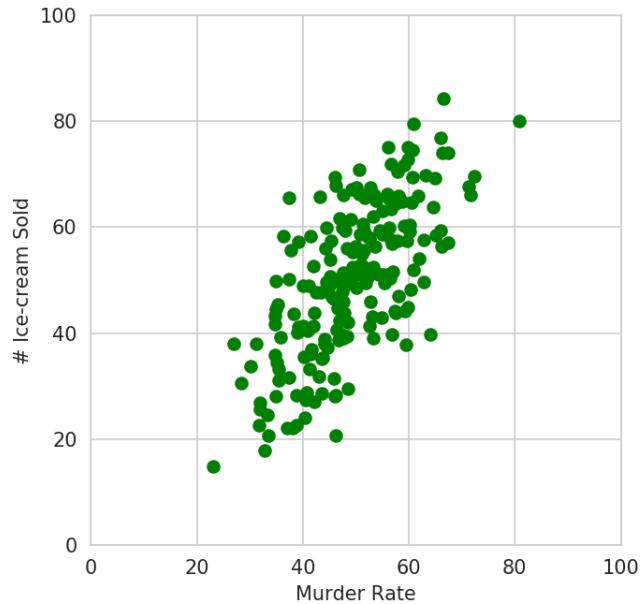
Neurowissenschaftliche Nachwuchskonferenz (NeNa) 2019

# Promise

- Spurious correlation is everywhere around us
- Causality - if you are honest - is what we all of us want!
- Confounders: the arch nemesis of causality
- Fundamental Math concepts
- Formal approach to adjust for confounders and find causal effect
- Extend the formal approach to deal with complex systems
- Incorporate causal principles to understand the brain

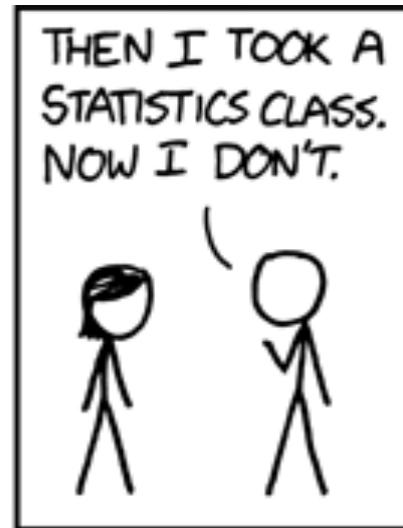
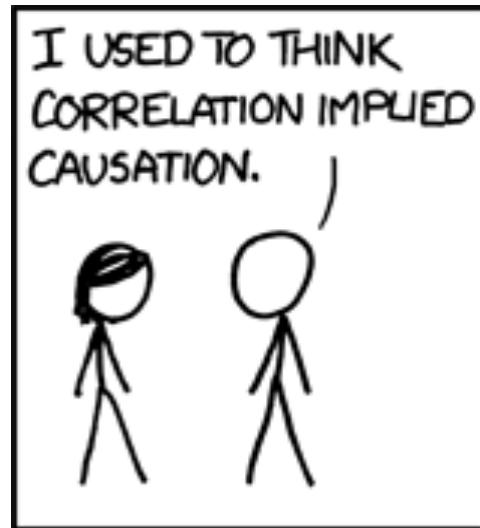


# World is full of correlations



Ice Cream Sales "Lead" to Homicide: Why? - Lifehack  
Correlation or Causation? - Bloomberg

# Correlation doesn't imply Causation



# What is Causality?

cau·sal·i·ty

/kô'zalədē/ 

*noun*

1. the relationship between cause and effect.

*“We think we do not have knowledge of a thing until we have grasped its why, that is to say, its cause”*

- Aristotle

Above description gives way to deterministic causality but philosophers ***like Hume, Kant and Russell*** that came later defined a probabilistic notion of causality.

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**NEURONAL CAUSES AND BEHAVIOURAL EFFECTS:**  
*a Review on Logical, Methodological, and Technical Issues*  
*With Respect to Causal Explanations of Behaviour in*  
*Neuroscience*

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A PREPRINT

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August 19, 2019

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According to the philosopher **John Stuart Mill**, there are three criteria for inferring a cause:

1. Cause and effect have to be related;
2. Cause had to precede the effect in time;
3. No other plausible alternative explanation for the effect.

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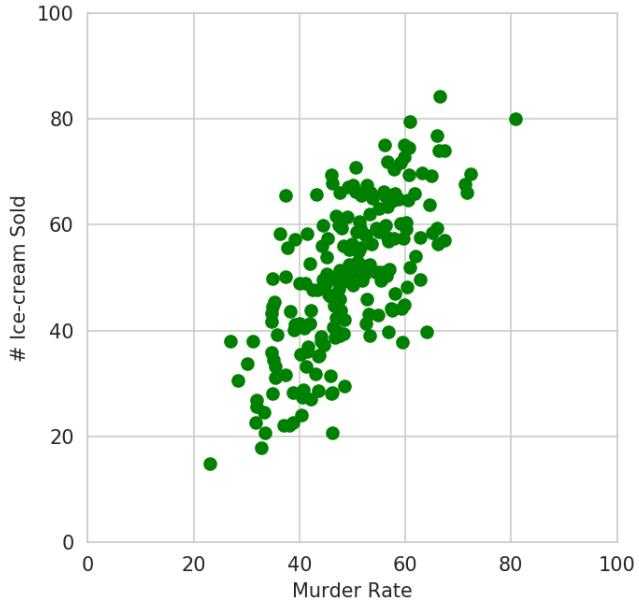
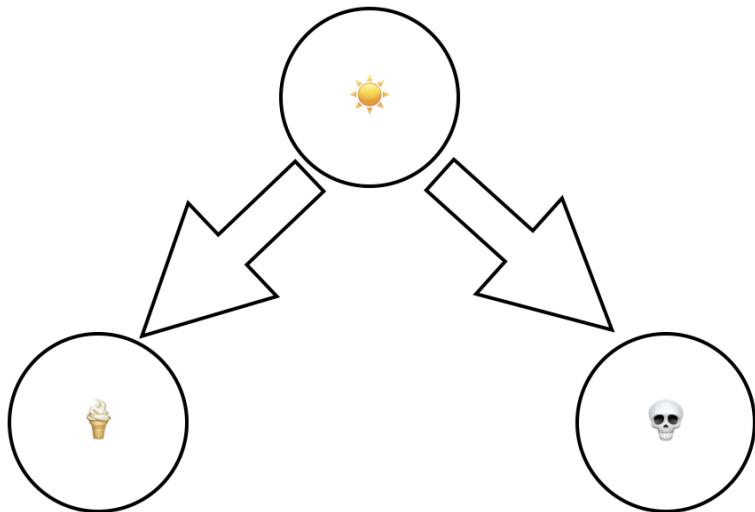
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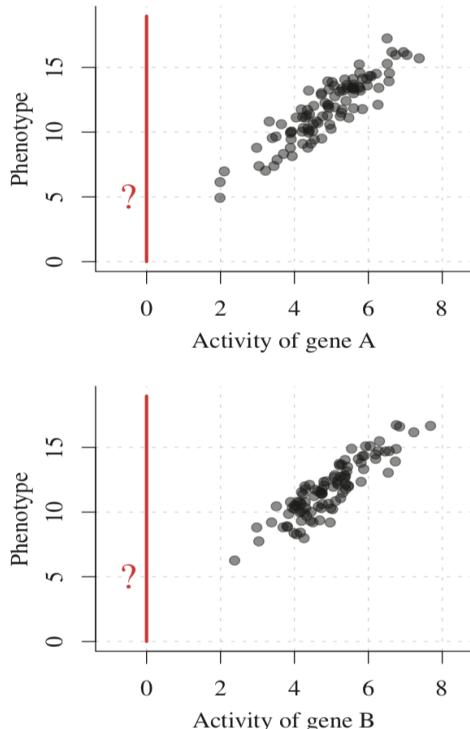


# Confounders: The arch nemesis of Causality

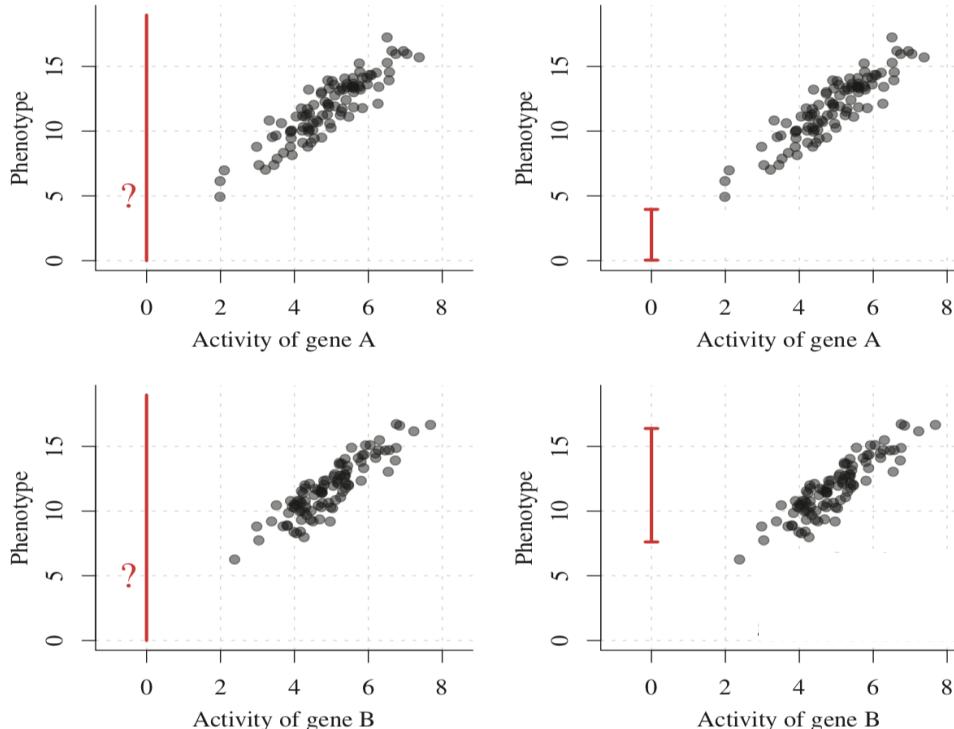


Ice Cream Sales “Lead” to Homicide: Why? - Lifehack

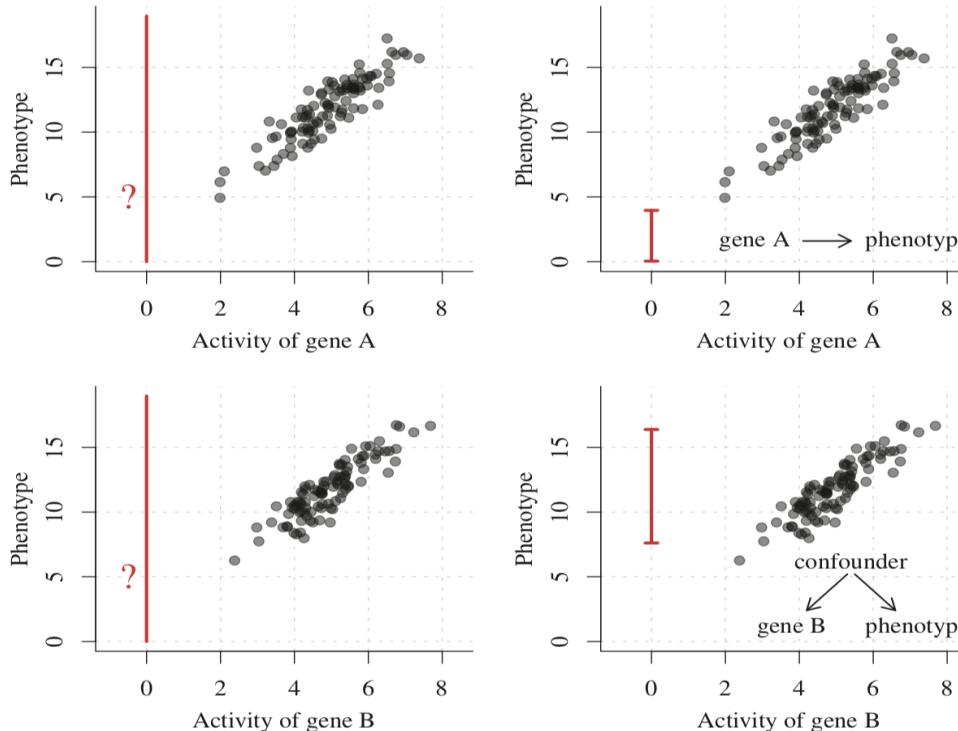
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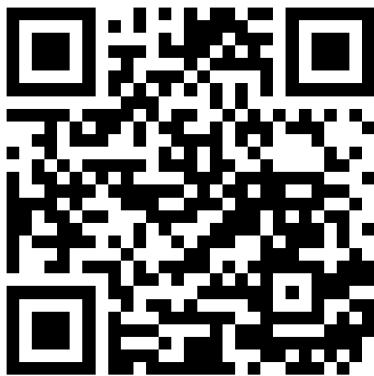


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# Kidney Stones



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Overall

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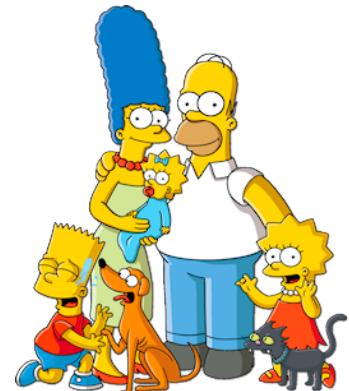
Treatment *a*:  
Open surgery      78% (273/350)

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Treatment *b*:  
Percutaneous  
nephrolithotomy      **83%** (289/350)

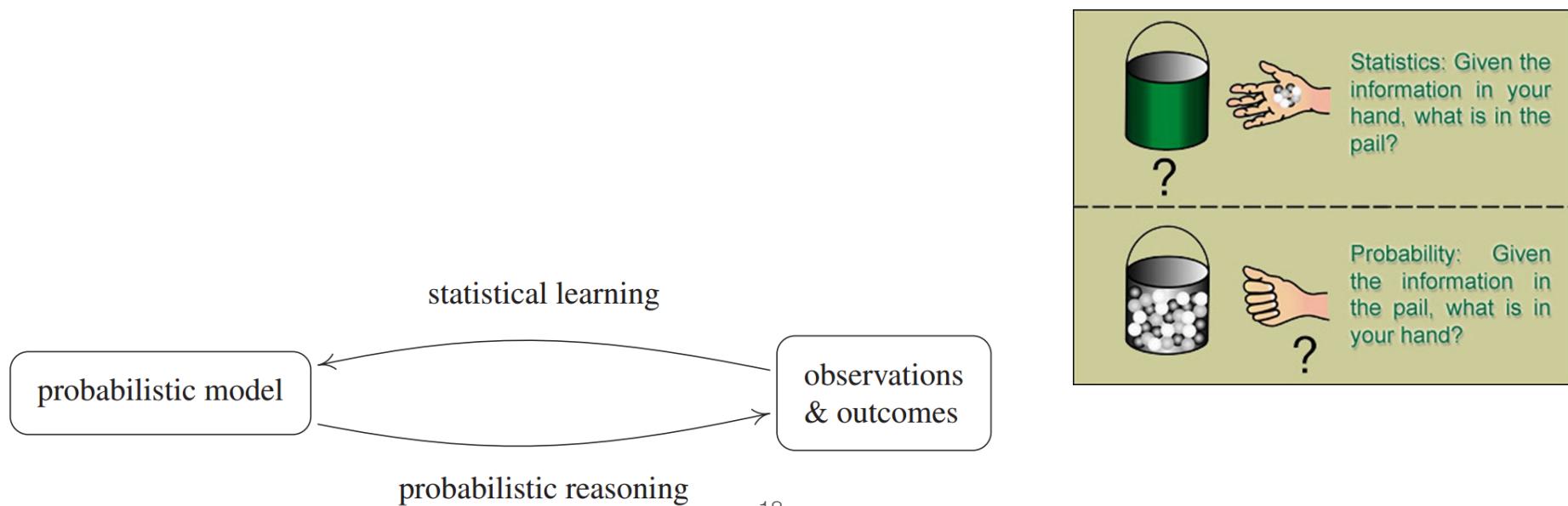
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# Kidney Stones

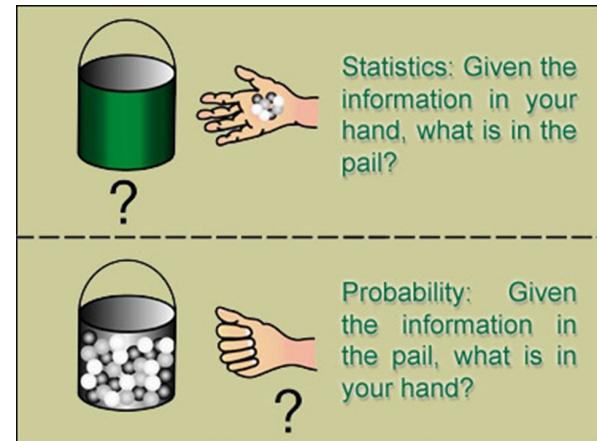
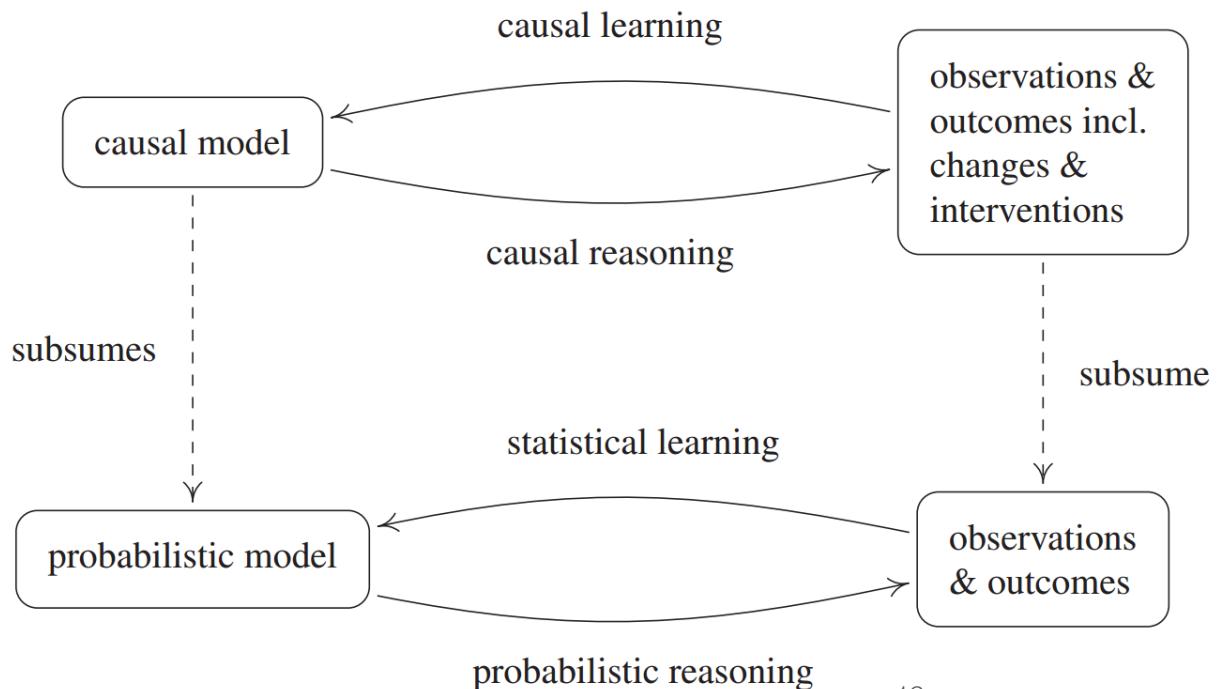


	Overall	Patients with small stones	Patients with large stones
Treatment <i>a</i> : Open surgery	78% (273/350)	<b>93%</b> (81/87)	<b>73%</b> (192/263)
Treatment <i>b</i> : Percutaneous nephrolithotomy	<b>83%</b> (289/350)	87% (234/270)	69% (55/80)

# From probabilistic to causal model



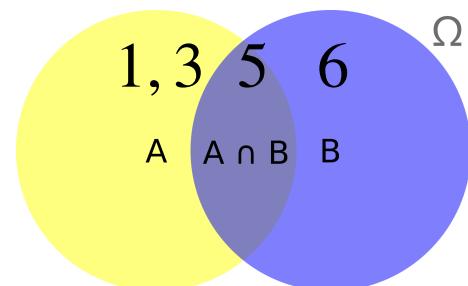
# From probabilistic to causal model



# Probabilistic Model

## Probabilistic model:

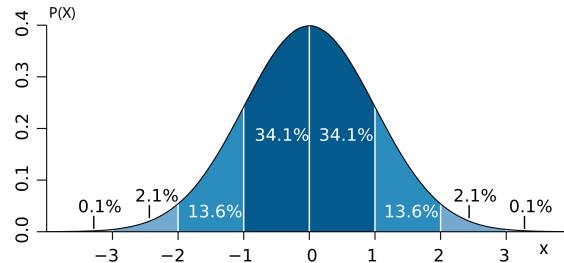
- Event: A, B,  $A \cap B$
- Probability of an event:  $P(A)$ ,  $P(B)$ ,  $P(A,B)$
- Conditional Probability:  $P(A|B) = P(A,B) / P(B)$
- Independent events:  $P(A) = P(A | B)$



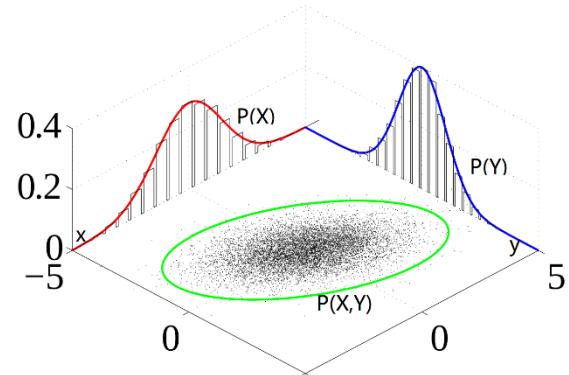
# Probabilistic Model

## Probabilistic model:

- Random variable: X, Y
- Probability distribution:  $P(X)$ ,  $P(Y)$ ,  $P(X,Y)$
- Joint, Conditional Probability and Independency for **random variables**
- Marginalization:  $P(X = x) = \sum_Y P(X = x, Y)$



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# Causal model

**Structural Causal model (SCM):**

- structural equation (assignment vs. equal operator)
- causal graph (node: random variable; arrow: dependence)

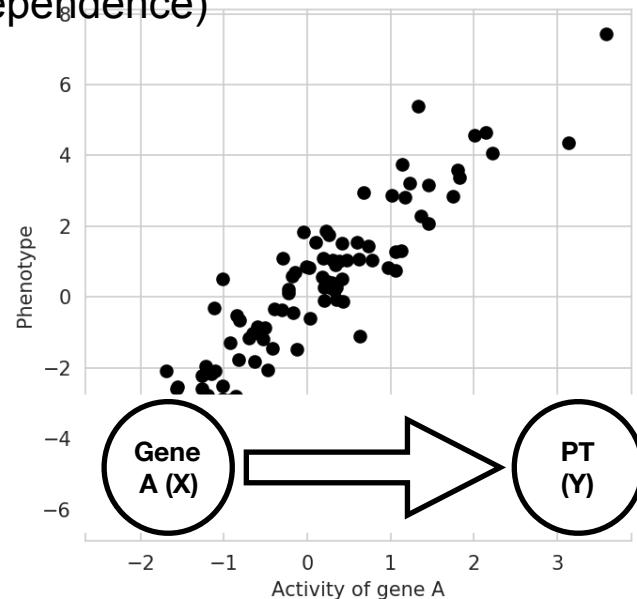
$$X := N_X$$

$$Y := 2X + N_Y$$

$$N_X, N_Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

$P(X, Y) \sim$  Bivariate normal joint distribution

- Mean = [0; 0]
- Covariate matrix =  $[1, 2; 2, 5]$



# do-intervention

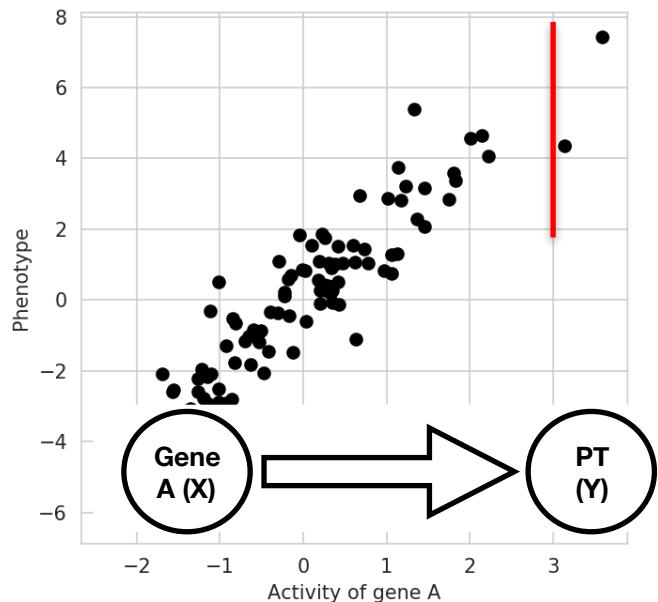
On the cause variable

$$X := N_X \quad X := 3$$

$$Y := 2X + N_Y$$

$$N_Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

$$P(X, Y \mid do(X = 3)) = P(X, Y \mid X=3)$$



# do-intervention

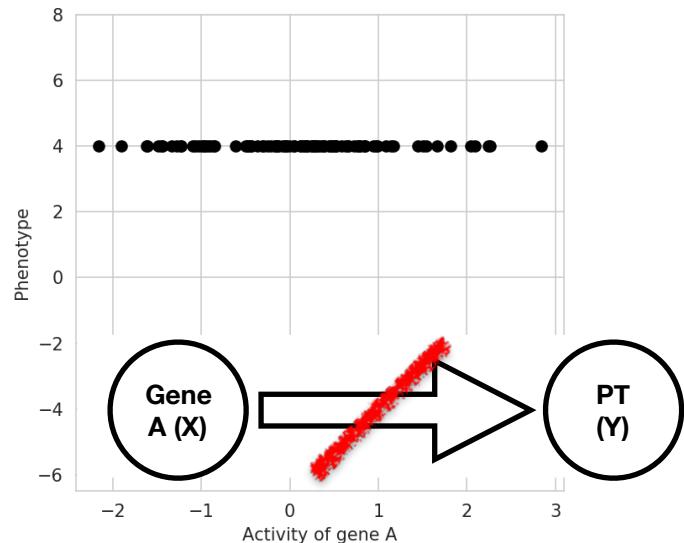
On the effect variable

$$X := N_X$$

$$Y := 2X + N_Y \quad Y := 4$$

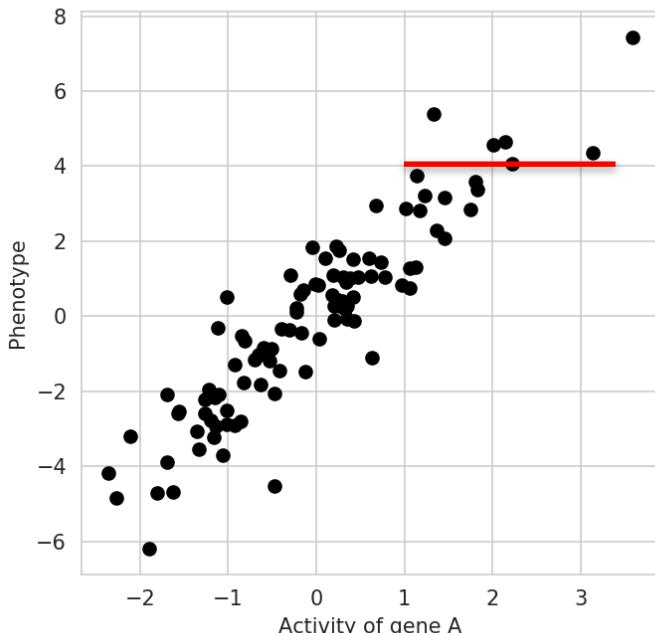
$$N_X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

$$P(X, Y \mid do(Y := 4)) \neq P(X, Y \mid Y=4)$$

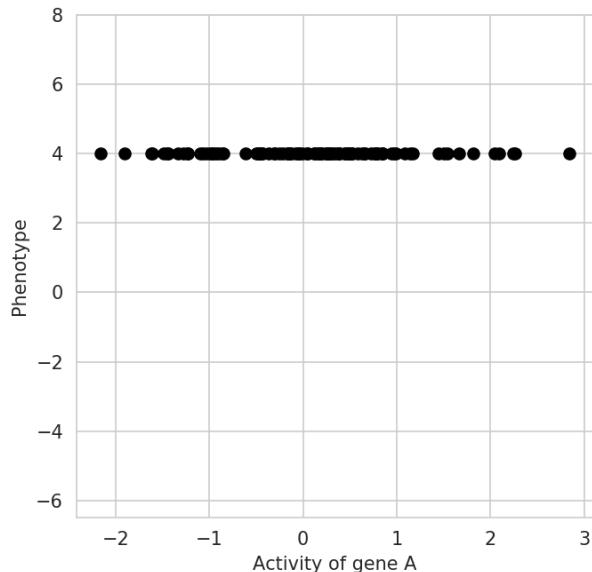


# do-intervention v/s conditional probability

On the effect variable

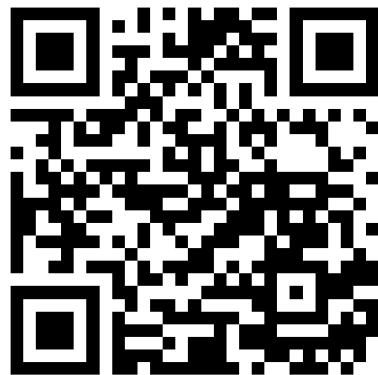


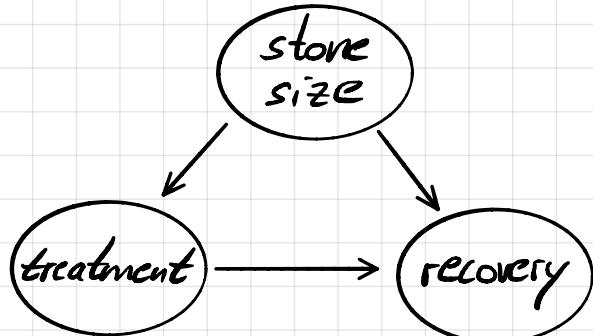
$$P(X, Y \mid \text{do}(Y := 4)) \neq P(X, Y \mid Y = 4)$$



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$$S \sim D_S$$

$$T := f_T(S)$$

$$R := f_R(S, T)$$

$S$ : stone size

$R$ : recovery

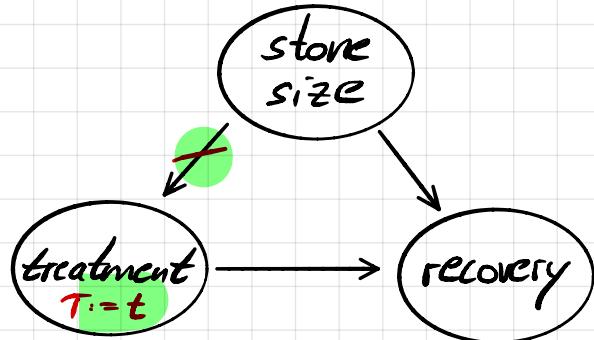
$T$ : treatment

We are interested in  $P(R=1 | do(T:=t))$ ,  $r, t \in \{0, 1\}$

where  $t = 1$  means „the patient receives the treatment“

$r = 1$  means „the patient recovered“

$s = 1$  means „the patient's kidney stones are large“



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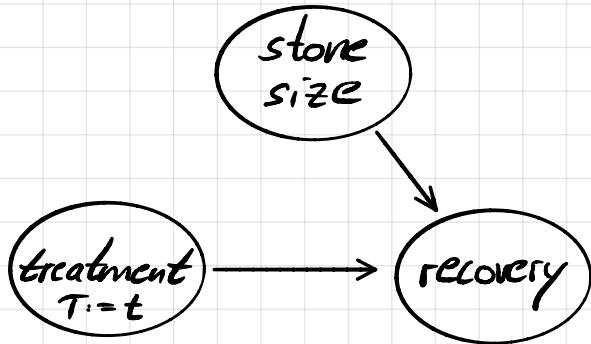
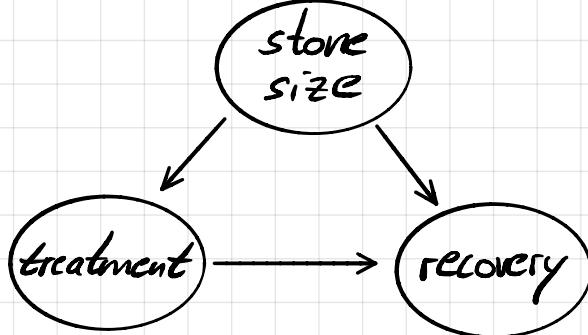
is the ...

... graphical and ... assignment

interpretation of

$$P(R = r | \text{do}(T := t))$$

Overview: we distinguish two structural causal models (SCMs) graph



assignments

$$\begin{aligned} S &\sim \mathcal{D}_S \\ T &:= f_T(S) \\ R &:= f_R(S, T) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} S &\sim \mathcal{D}_S \\ T &:= t \\ R &:= f_R(S, t) \end{aligned}$$

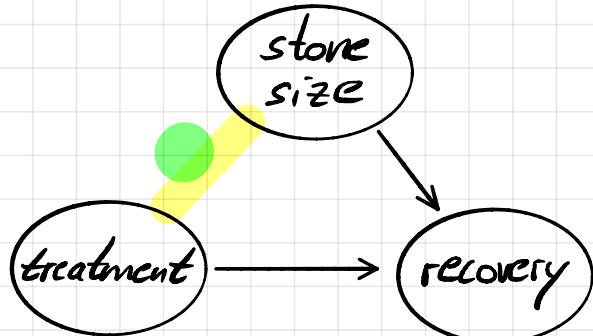
we define as

$$=: \mathcal{M}$$

$$= \mathcal{M}^{\text{do}(T := t)} =: \mathcal{M}^T$$



$$P^{\mathcal{M}}(R = r | \text{do}(T := t)) = P^{\mathcal{M}^T}(R = r)$$


 $S \sim D_S$ 
 $T := t$ 
 $R := f_R(S, T)$ 

$S$ : stone size

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$$P^{MT}(R=r) = P^{MT}(R=r, T=t)$$

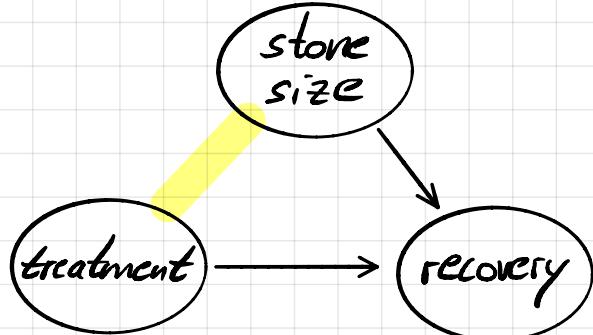
$$= \sum_{S=0}^{\infty} P^{MT}(R=r, S=s, T=t)$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^{\infty} P^{MT}(R=r | S=s, T=t) P^{MT}(S=s, T=t)$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^{\infty} P^{MT}(R=r | S=s, T=t) P^{MT}(S=s)$$

„marginalization“

„def. cond. probab.“



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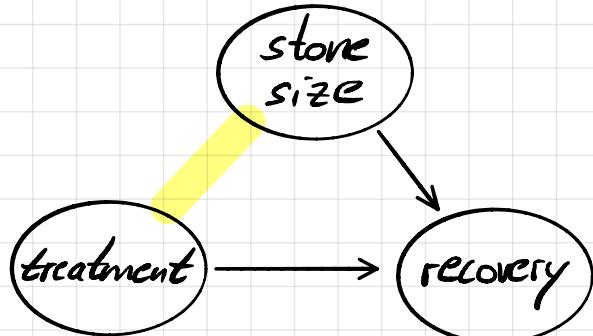
$$P^{MT}(R=r) = P^{MT}(R=r, T=t)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^{\infty} P^{MT}(R=r | S=s, T=t) P^{MT}(S=s)$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^{\infty} P^{MT}(R=r | S=s, T=t) P(S=s)$$

„d-separation“



$$S \sim D_S$$

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$S$ : stone size

$R$ : recovery

$T$ : treatment

$$P^{MT}(R=r) = P^{MT}(R=r, T=t)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^1 P^{MT}(R=r | S=s, T=t) P(S=s)$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^1 P(R=r | S=s, T=t) P(S=s)$$

"d-separation"

# Replacing letters with numbers

$$P^{xt}(R=r) = \sum_{S=0}^x P(R=r | S=s, T=t) P(S=s)$$

## Recovery Rates

	Overall	Patients with small stones	Patients with large stones
Treatment <i>a</i> : Open surgery	78% (273/350)	93% (81/87)	73% (192/263)
Treatment <i>b</i> : Percutaneous nephrolithotomy	83% (289/350)	87% (234/270)	69% (55/80)

$$\frac{P(R=1|T=t)}{P(R=1|S=s)} = \frac{83\% \left( \frac{289}{350} \right)}{78\% \left( \frac{273}{350} \right)} = 1.06$$

Charig et al., 1986

$$P(R=1 | S=s) = \sum_{t \in \{0, 1, 3\}} P(R=1 | T=t, S=s) P(T=t | S=s)$$

$$P(R=1 | T=t) = \sum_{S \in \{\text{small, large}\}} P(R=1 | T=t, S=s) P(S=s | T=t)$$

for  $t=1$

$$\Rightarrow 0.93 \cdot \frac{87}{350} + 0.73 \cdot \frac{263}{350} \approx 48\%$$

$$P(R=1 | S=\text{small}) = 0.93 \cdot \frac{87}{\underbrace{270+87}_{=357}} + 0.87 \cdot \frac{270}{270+87}$$

$$\approx 0.88$$

$$P(R=1 | S=\text{large}) = 0.73 \cdot \frac{263}{343} + 0.69 \cdot \frac{80}{343} \approx 0.72$$

$$P^{R^T}(R=r) = \sum_{S=0}^r P(R=r | S=s, T=1) P(S=s)$$

We need:

$$P(S=\text{small}) = \frac{357}{700} = 0.51$$

$$P(S=\text{large}) = \frac{343}{700} = 0.49$$

We want to compute

$$P^{R^T}(R=1)$$

$$= 0.93 \cdot 0.51 + 0.73 \cdot 0.49 \approx 83\%$$

$$P^{R^T}(R=0)$$

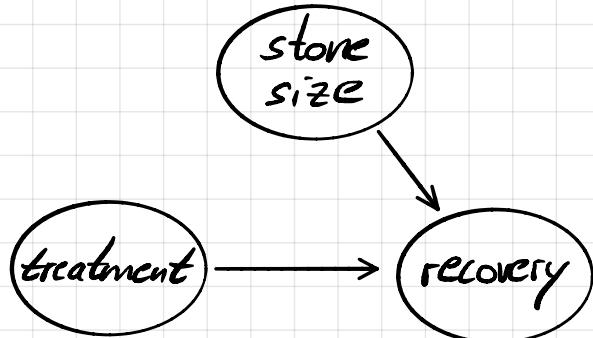
$$= 0.87 \cdot 0.51 + 0.69 \cdot 0.49 \approx 78\%$$

It follows:

$$P^{\mu_{T=4}}(R=1) \approx 83\% > 78\% \approx P(R=1 | T=A)$$

$$P^{\mu_{T=3}}(R=1) \approx 43\% < 83\% \approx P(R=1 | T=B)$$

$\Rightarrow$  in general, treatment A is better indeed!



$$P^{jet}(R=r)$$

$$= \dots =$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^{\infty} P(R=r | T=t, S=s) P(S=s)$$

$$= \sum_{S=0}^{\infty} P(R=r | T=t, S=s) P(S=s | T=t) = P(R=r | T=t)$$

↑  
"marginalization"

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JUDEA PEARL  
*WINNER OF THE TURING AWARD*  
AND DANA MACKENZIE

THE  
BOOK OF  
WHY



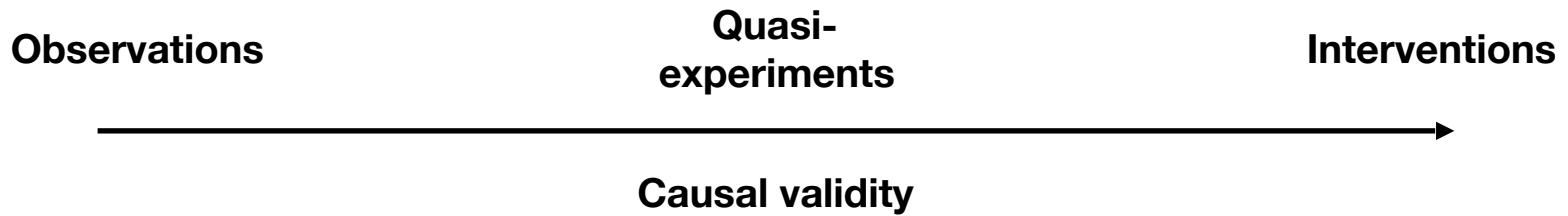
THE NEW SCIENCE  
OF CAUSE AND EFFECT

# The two different schools

*Pearl's work is interesting, and many researchers find his arguments that path diagrams are a natural and convenient way to express assumptions about causal structures appealing. In our own work, perhaps influenced by the type of examples arising in social and medical sciences, we have not found this approach to aid drawing of causal inferences.*

- Imben and Rubins 2015

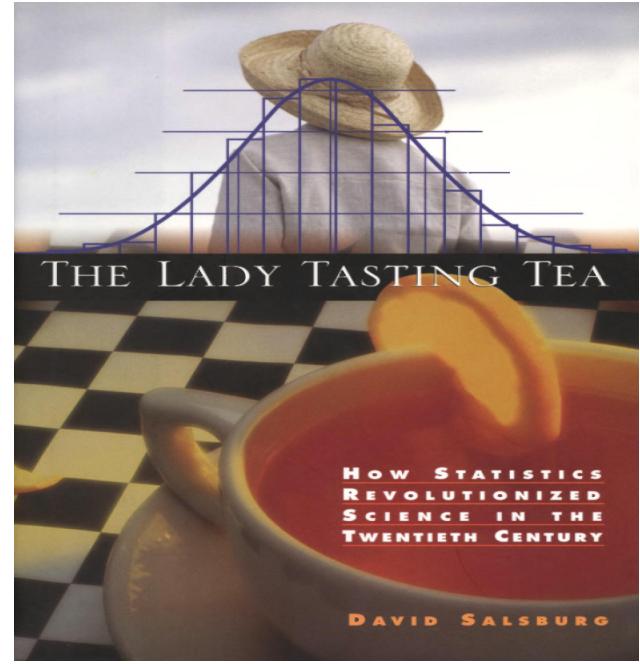
# Quasi-experiments



**Idea: find something that is locally kinda random**

# Randomised experiments

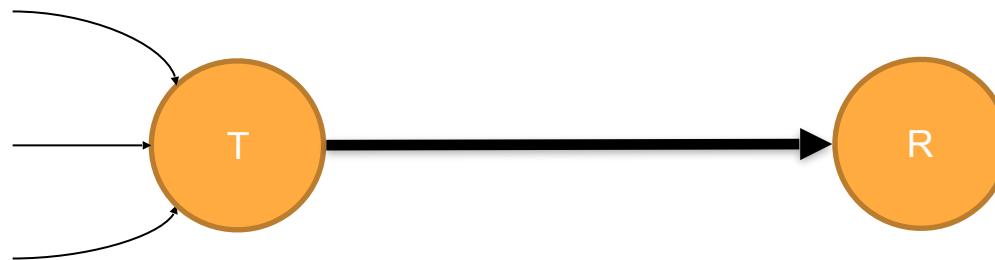
- Sir Ronald Fisher was first to propose randomisation in experiments.
- Mystery? A lady asserts that she can taste whether the milk or the tea was added first to a cup.
- Experimental Design:
  - Randomly assign eight cups to 2 conditions:
    - Tea first (control)
    - Milk first (treatment)
  - Ask the lady to discriminate between tea first and milk first



# Randomised experiments

Randomised the Teas  
(0: add milk first; 1: add tea first)

Lady's discrimination Result  
(0: fail to tell the order; 1: correct)

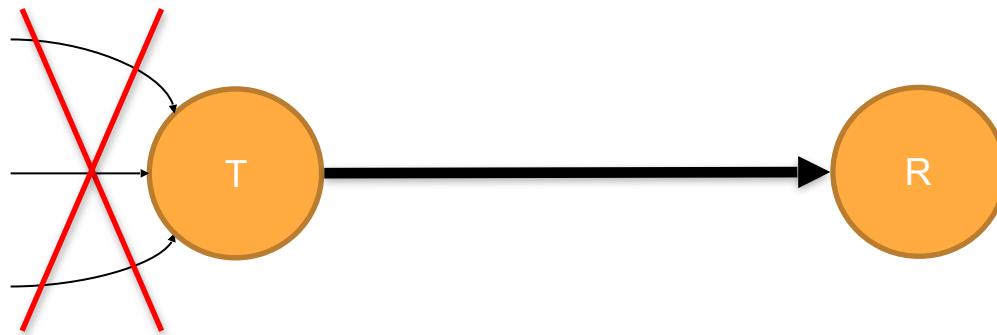


$$P_{do(T:=0)}(R) = P(R \mid T = 0)$$

# Randomised experiments

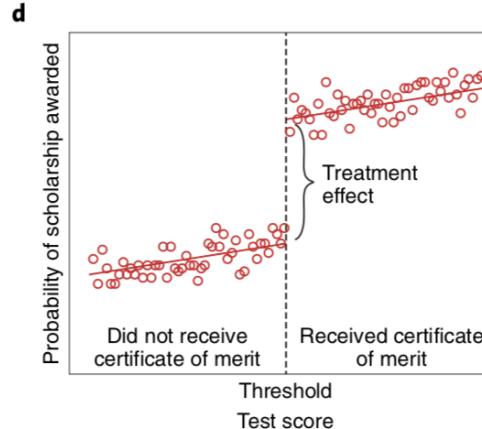
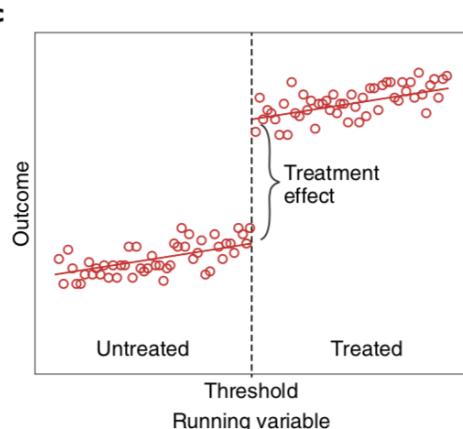
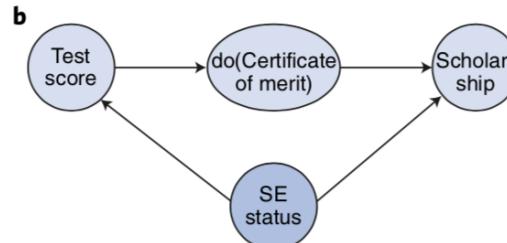
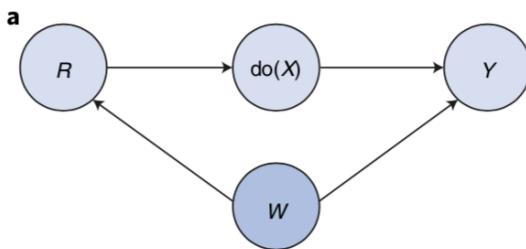
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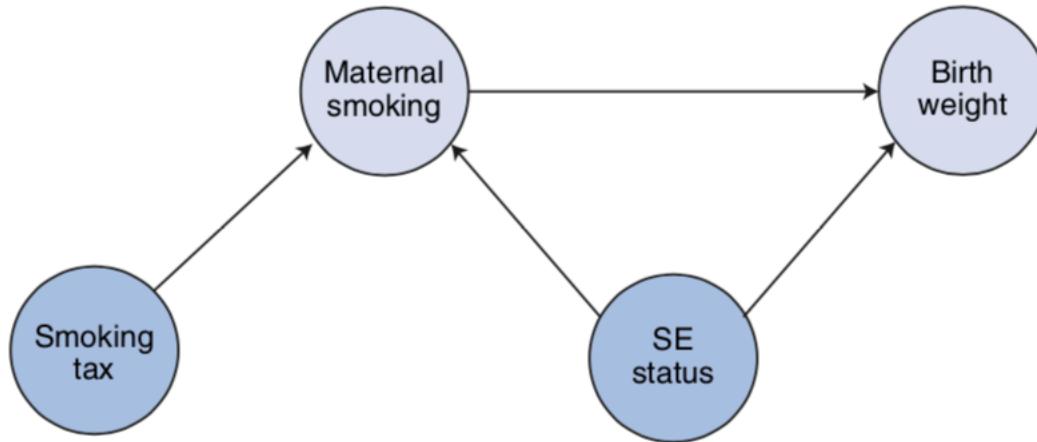


$$P_{do(T:=0)}(R) = P(R \mid T = 0)$$

# Regression Discontinuity Design (RDD)



# Instrumental variable



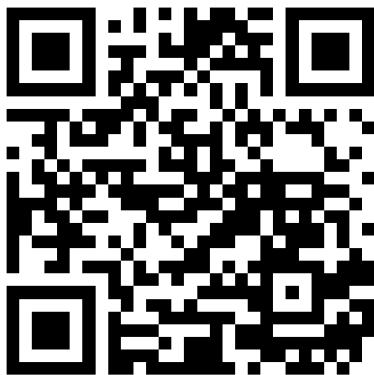
JOSHUA D. ANGRIST & JÖRN-STEFFEN PISCHKE

# MASTERING *METRICS*

THE PATH FROM CAUSE TO EFFECT

# Promise

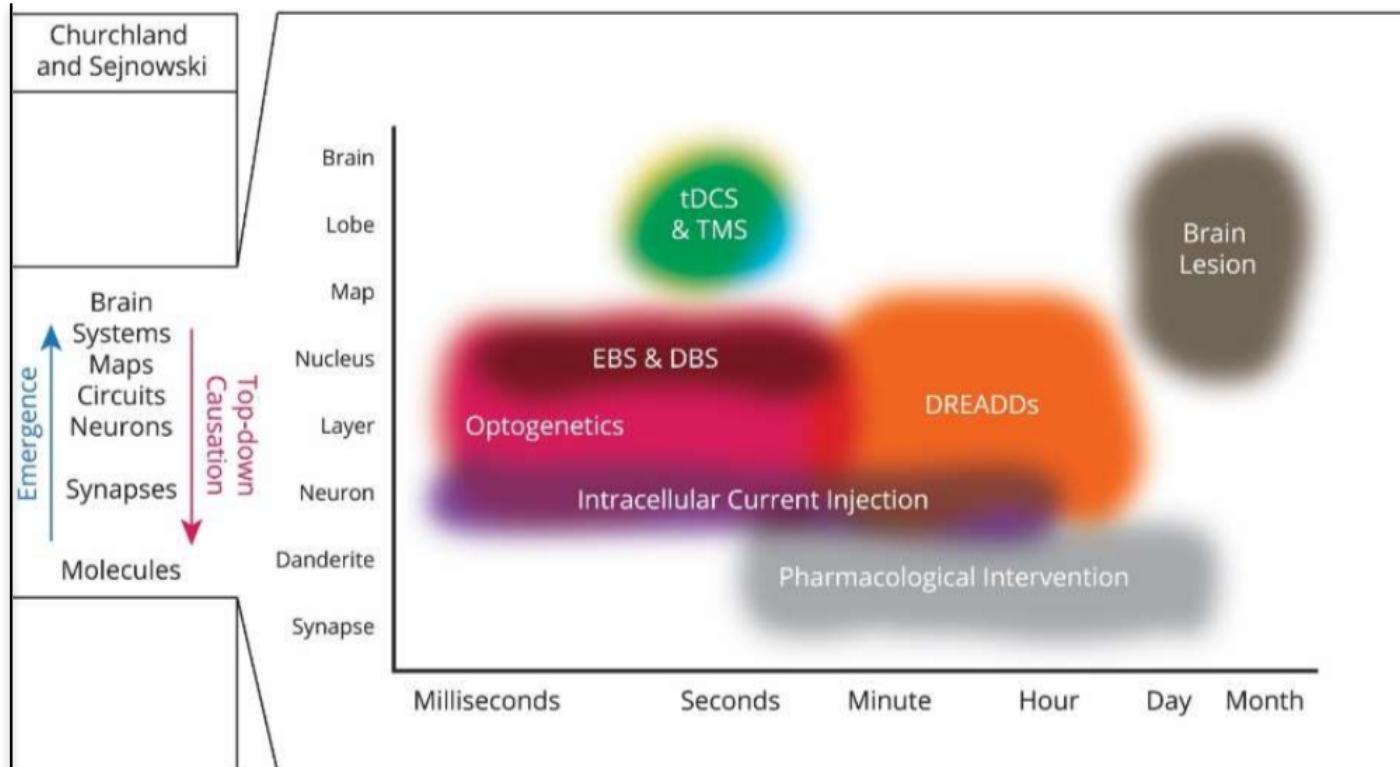
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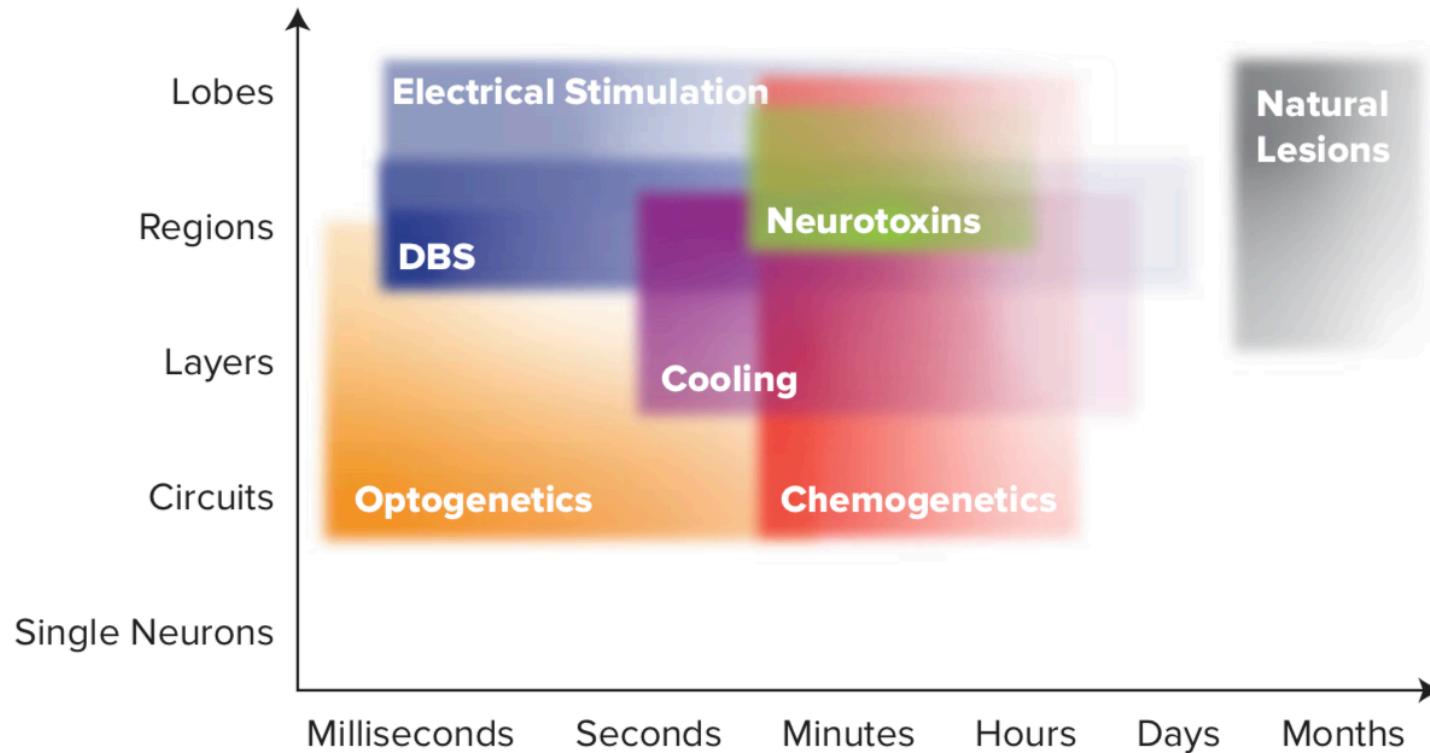
# Brain: a complex system

- (1) A ton of **reciprocal connections** – mutual causality!
- (2) the causal influence from one component to the other may be **only one of many** causal agents;
- (3) causal influences **do not always** result in observable effects

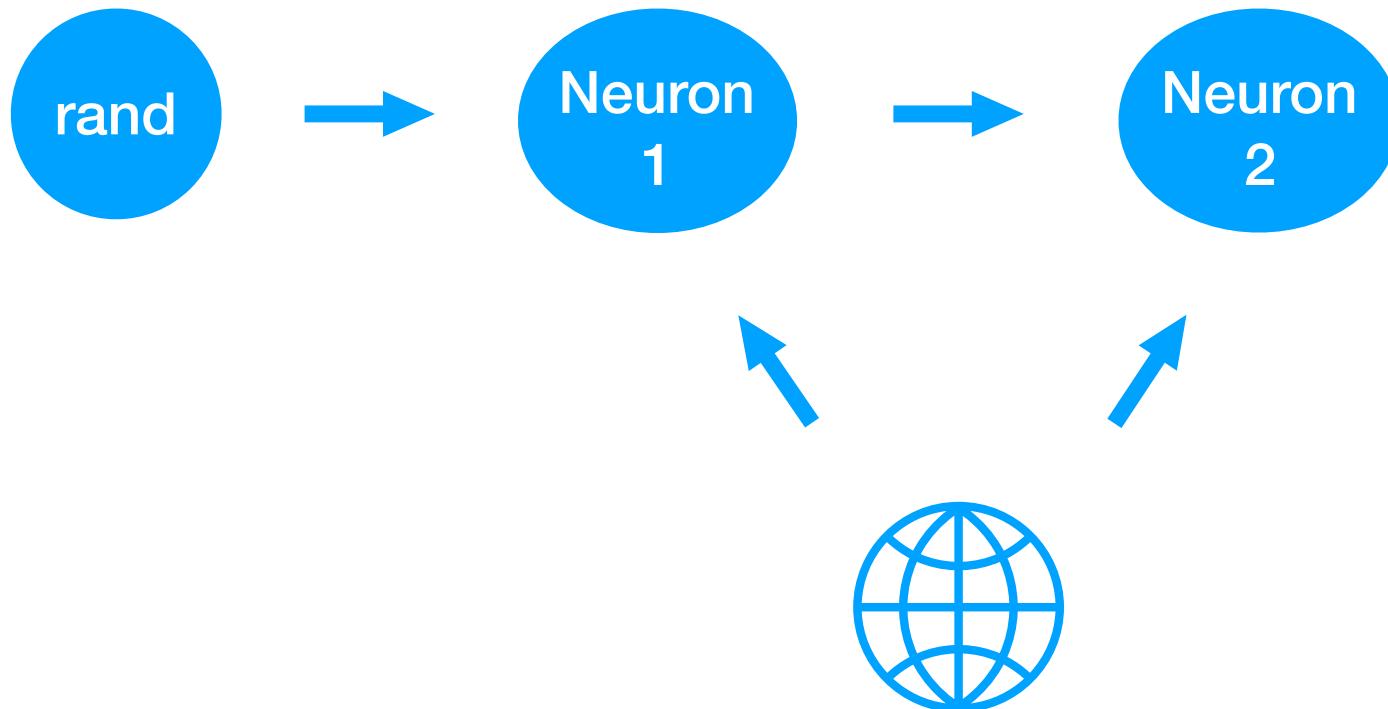
# Need for Interventions



# Interventions for causal discovery



# Instrumental variable



# Other notions of causality

1. Shannon Entropy
2. Transfer Entropy
3. Granger Causality
4. Dynamic Causal Modelling
4. Difference in Differences

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# Promise

- Spurious correlation is everywhere around us
- Causality – if you are honest – is what we all of us want!
- Confounders: the arch nemesis of causality
- Fundamental Math concepts
- Formal approach to adjust for confounders and find causal effect
- Extend the formal approach to deal with complex systems
- Incorporate causal principles to understand the brain



# Take home message

- Be critical and careful with correlations, confounders are everywhere!
- Pearl's do-calculus provides a formal framework but doesn't scale
- Quasi-experiments allow causal estimation in practice
- Brain is a complex system and interventions serves as gold standard for causal discovery.