CausalityEstimation of Causal Effects

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Agenda

- Identification of Causal Effects
 - covariate adjustment
 - ► Pearl's back door criterion
 - front-door criterion
 - do-calculus
 - do-calculus based algorithms
- Simpson's Paradox

- In this lecture we will consider DAGs G = (V, E) associated with SCMs M = (S, P)
- W.l.o.g. we will assume the model is Markovian, i.e. in addition to acyclicity of G, we assume the error terms are jointly independent, e.g.:



• Thus, in our DAGs we will not show explicitly the exogene variables, like e.g.

$$X \longrightarrow Y$$

- We will assume that some of the variables of V are unobserved
- ullet The observed variables are denoted as ${f R} \subseteq {f V}$
- Recall, that the Identification of Total Causal Effect of variables X on Y is to find an
 expression for

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}))$$

which uses only preintervention (i.e. do-operator free) probabilities involving variables in ${\bf R}$, or output that this is not possible

- In this lecture we discuss how to solve the identification problem
- Specifically, the popular identifiability by covariate adjustment is cosidered
- For a given DAG G = (V, E) and observed variables $X, Y, Z \subseteq V$, Z is called adjustment set for estimating the causal effect of X on Y if for every P consistent with G we have

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x})) = \begin{cases} \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \ P(\mathbf{z}) & \text{if } \mathbf{Z} \neq \emptyset \\ P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) & \text{if } \mathbf{Z} = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

- A crucial problem, here, is which Z ⊂ V are valid adjustment set?
 - ▶ We start with a very simple: adjustment for direct causes
 - Unfortunately, for many instances this approach does not work
 - The famous back-door criterion by Pearl allows to specify more general valid adjustment sets
- Next, we consider estimations of causal effects by using front-door criterion
- Covariate adjustment and front-door criterion are not complete for identification
- The do-calculus proposed by Pearl allows to uncover all causal effects that can be identified from a given graph

Adjustment for Direct Causes

- In the (Markovian) models we firstly consider the simplest intervention $do(X_i = x_i')$
- Recall, the interventional distribution $P(x_1, ..., x_n \mid do(x_i'))$ resulting from any intervention $do(X_i = x_i')$ is defined as a truncated factorization:

$$P(x_1,\ldots,x_n\mid do(x_i'))=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\prod_{j\neq i}P(x_j\mid pa_j) & \text{if }x_i=x_i'\\0 & \text{if }x_i\neq x_i'\end{array}\right.$$

• Multiplying and dividing the equation by $P(x_i' \mid pa_i)$ we get a more expressive relation

$$P(x_1,\ldots,x_n \mid do(x_i')) = \begin{cases} \frac{P(x_1,\ldots,x_n)}{P(x_i' \mid pa_i)} & \text{if } x_i = x_i' \\ 0 & \text{if } x_i \neq x_i' \end{cases}$$

• Next, if we consider the division by $P(x_i' \mid pa_i) = P(x_i', pa_i)/P(pa_i)$ as conditionalization on x_i' and pa_i , we obtain

$$P(x_1,\ldots,x_n\mid do(x_i'))=\left\{\begin{array}{ll} P(x_1,\ldots,x_n\mid x_i',pa_i)\ P(pa_i) & \text{if }x_i=x_i'\\ 0 & \text{if }x_i\neq x_i'\end{array}\right.$$

Adjustment for Direct Causes

Using the formula

$$P(x_1,\ldots,x_n\mid do(x_i')) = \begin{cases} P(x_1,\ldots,x_n\mid x_i',pa_i) \ P(pa_i) & \text{if } x_i = x_i' \\ 0 & \text{if } x_i \neq x_i' \end{cases}$$

we are able to compute the effect of an intervention $do(X_i = x_i')$ on a set of variables **Y** disjoint from $\{X_i\} \cup Pa_i$ by summing:

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(x_{i}')) = \sum_{X_{j} \notin \mathbf{Y} \cup \{X_{i}\}} P(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n} \mid do(x_{i}'))$$

$$= \sum_{X_{j} \notin \mathbf{Y} \cup \{X_{i}\}} P(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n} \mid x_{i}', pa_{i}) P(pa_{i})$$

$$= \sum_{pa_{i}} P(\mathbf{y} \mid x_{i}', pa_{i}) P(pa_{i})$$

This yields the following Theorem

Adjustment for Direct Causes

Theorem (Adjustment for Direct Causes)

Let Pa_i denote the set of direct causes of variable X_i and let \mathbf{Y} be any set of variables disjoint of $\{X_i\} \cup Pa_i$. Assuming the variables Pa_i are observed, the effect of the intervention $do(X_i = x_i')$ on \mathbf{Y} is given by

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(x_i')) = \sum_{pa_i} P(\mathbf{y} \mid x_i', pa_i) \ P(pa_i)$$

where $P(\mathbf{y} \mid x_i', pa_i)$ and $P(pa_i)$ represent preintervention probabilities.

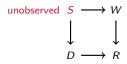
- Remark: If we replace the single variable X_i by a set of variables X in the theorem above, then the statement is not true, in general
- Example: Consider the following model, involving the observed variables:
 S size of stone (small, large), T treatment (A or B), R recovery (0,1)

$$\begin{array}{c}
S \\
T \longrightarrow F
\end{array}$$

The causal effect of treatment (T) on recovery (R) is identifiable and is given by the formula $P(R=1 \mid do(t)) = \sum_{s} P(R=1 \mid t,s) P(s)$

The Back-Door Criterion

- Consider a graphical model representing the relationship between
 - a new drug (D),
 - recovery (R),
 - ▶ weight (W), and
 - ▶ an unmeasured variable (socioeconomic status (S))



- Our task is to decide if the causal effect of the new drug D on recovery R is identifiable and if yeas to give a formula
- Notice that we can not use the adjustment for direct causes since the parent S of D is unobserved

The Back-Door Criterion

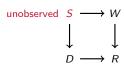
Definition (Back-Door)

A set of variables **Z** satisfies the back-door criterion relative to an ordered pair of variables (X_i, X_i) in a DAG G if:

- (i) no node in \mathbf{Z} is a descendant of X_i and
- (ii) **Z** blocks every path between X_i and X_j that contains an arrow into X_i .

Similarly, if **X** and **Y** are two disjoint subsets of nodes in G, then **Z** is said to satisfy the back-door criterion relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) if it satisfies the criterion relative to any pair (X_i, X_j) such that $X_i \in \mathbf{X}$ and $X_i \in \mathbf{Y}$.

- Notice: Z can be empty
- Example: in the DAG below, $\mathbf{Z} = \{W\}$ satisfies the back-door criterion relative to (D, R)



The Back-Door Criterion

Theorem (Back-Door Adjustment)

If a set of variables $\mathbf Z$ satisfies the back-door criterion relative $(\mathbf X, \mathbf Y)$ in a DAG G and variables $\mathbf Z$ are observed then the causal effect of $\mathbf X$ on $\mathbf Y$ is identifiable and is given by the formula

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x})) = \begin{cases} \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \ P(\mathbf{z}) & \text{if } \mathbf{Z} \neq \emptyset \\ P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) & \text{if } \mathbf{Z} = \emptyset. \end{cases}$$

Example: In the model involving the observed variables: a new drug (D), recovery R), weight (W), and an unmeasured variable (socioeconomic status (S))

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{unobserved} & S & \longrightarrow W \\ & & & \downarrow \\ & D & \longrightarrow R \end{array}$$

the causal effect of a new drug (D) on recovery (R) is identifiable and is given by the formula

$$P(R = 1 \mid do(d)) = \sum_{w} P(R = 1 \mid d, w) P(w)$$

The Back-Door Criterion

Proof (of the Back-Door-Adjustment Theorem)

- Consider a Markovian Model G
- We show only the case of the singleton variable X_i and $\mathbf{Z} \neq \emptyset$, $Pa_i \neq \emptyset$
- From the Adjustment-for-Direct-Causes Theorem we have (the formula is true even if Pai are unobserved)

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(x_i')) = \sum_{pa_i} P(\mathbf{y} \mid x_i', pa_i) \ P(pa_i) = \sum_{pa_i} P(pa_i) \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y} \mid x_i', pa_i, \mathbf{z}) \ P(\mathbf{z} \mid x_i', pa_i)$$

From our assumptions it follows, that Z saisfies:

$$(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\!\perp Pa_i \mid X_i, \mathbf{Z})$$
 and $(X_i \perp \!\!\!\perp \mathbf{Z} \mid Pa_i)$

Thus, due to the first CI, we can rewrite the equation as

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}_i')) = \sum_{pa_i} P(pa_i) \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}_i', \mathbf{z}) \ P(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x}_i', pa_i)$$

• By the second CI, we have $P(\mathbf{z} \mid x_i', pa_i) = P(\mathbf{z} \mid pa_i)$; Thus, we can conclude:

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(x_i')) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y} \mid x_i', \mathbf{z}) \ P(\mathbf{z})$$

- The cases $\mathbf{Z} = \emptyset$ or $Pa_i = \emptyset$ can be analysed in the similar way
- The proof for **X**, with $|\mathbf{X}| \geq 2$, is much more involved

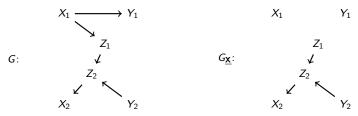
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Covariate Adjustment: a Generalized Criterion

- In summary: Z satisfies Pearl's back-door criterion if
 - (i) no element in Z is a descendant of X and
 - (ii) **Z** d-separates **X** and **Y** in G_X

 $(G_{\underline{X}})$ denotes the graph obtained by deleting from G all arrows emerging from nodes in X)

- Its a simple and easily implementable rule; But it is not complete
- Consider $X = \{X_1, X_2\}, Y = \{Y_1, Y_2\}, \text{ and the DAG } G$



- In G there exists no Z which satisfies back-door criterion relative to (X,Y)
- On the other hand, one can prove that for $\mathbf{Z} = \{Z_1, Z_2\}$ it is true:

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \ P(\mathbf{z})$$

Covariate Adjustment: a Generalized Criterion

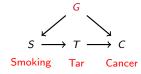
Sound and complete criterion to characterize adjustments in DAGs

- Let $G_{\overline{X}}$ denote the graph obtained by deleting from G all arrows pointing to nodes in X
- Sound and Complete Adjustment Criterion (Shpitser, VanderWeele, Robins):
 Z satisfies the criterion relative to (X, Y) in G if
 - (a) no element in **Z** is a descendant in $G_{\overline{X}}$ of any $W \in V \setminus X$ which lies on a proper causal path from **X** to **Y** and
 - (b) all proper non-causal paths in G from X to Y are blocked by Z
 - (a path from from \boldsymbol{X} to \boldsymbol{Y} is called proper if it does not intersect \boldsymbol{X} except at the start point)
- The drawback: it does not yield a practical algorithm for adjustment set construction
- The sound and complete constructive criterion (van der Zander, Liśkiewicz, Textor) allows identification by adjustment in linear time (www.dagitty.net)

The Front-Door Criterion

• Consider or model for the "Smoking and the Genotype" problem:

Genotype (unobserved)



- Our task is to decide if the causal effect of S on C is identifiable and if yeas to give a formula
- Notice that the we can not use the (back-door) adjustment for $\mathbf{Z} = \{G\}$, since G is unobserved

Definition (Front-Door)

A set of variables Z satisfies the front-door criterion relative to an ordered pair of variables (X,Y) in a DAG G if:

- (i) Z intercepts all directed paths from X to Y
- (ii) there is no unblocked back-door path from X to Z and
- (iii) all back-door paths from ${\bf Z}$ to ${\bf Y}$ are blocked by ${\bf X}$

The Front-Door Criterion

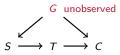
Theorem (Front-Door Adjustment)

If a set of variables **Z** satisfies the front-door criterion relative (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) in a DAG G, the variables **Z** are observed, and $P(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) > 0$ then the causal effect of **X** on **Y** is identifiable and is given by the formula

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x}) \sum_{\mathbf{x}'} P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{z}) \ P(\mathbf{x}')$$

Example

• $\mathbf{Z} = \{T\}$ satisfies the front-door criterion relative to (S, C) and T is observed



From the theorem we get the formula

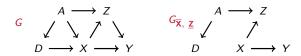
$$P(\textit{C} = 1 \mid \textit{do(s)}) = \sum_{\textit{t}} P(\textit{t} \mid \textit{s}) \sum_{\textit{s'}} P(\textit{C} = 1 \mid \textit{s'}, \textit{t}) \ P(\textit{s'})$$

used in our previous lecture to estimate the total effect of smoking (S) on lung cancer (C)

- Covariate adjustment and front-door criterion are sound but not complete methods for identification of causal effects
- The do-calculus, we will discuss now, is a powerful symbolic machinery that allows to uncover all causal effects that can be identified from a given graph
- The do-calculus is the basis for sound and complete methods for identification
- Particularly it can permit identification even if covariate adjustment or the use of front-door criterion is impossible

Notation

- Let X, Y, and Z be arbitrary disjoint sets of nodes in a causal DAG G
- We denote by $G_{\overline{X}}$ the graph obtained by deleting from G all arrows pointing to nodes in X
- \bullet G_X denotes the graph obtained by deleting from G all arrows emerging from nodes in X
- ullet To represent the deletion of both incoming and outgoing arrows, we use the notation $G_{\overline{X}, Z}$



The expression

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \mid do(\mathbf{x}))}{P(\mathbf{z} \mid do(\mathbf{x}))}$$

stands for the probability of $\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{y}$ given that \mathbf{X} is held constant at \mathbf{x} and that (under this condition) $\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}$ is observed

Theorem (Rules of do Calculus)

Let G be the DAG associated with an SCM M = (S, P). For any disjoint subsets of variables X, Y, Z, and W, we have the following rules

Rule 1 (Insertion/deletion of observations):

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{w}) \text{ if } (\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}}$$

Rule 2 (Action/observation exchange):

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathit{do}(\mathbf{x}), \mathit{do}(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{w}) \ = \ P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathit{do}(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) \quad \text{if } (\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{\mathit{G}_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}, \ \mathbf{Z}}}$$

Rule 3 (Insertion/deletion of actions):

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathit{do}(\mathbf{x}), \mathit{do}(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{w}) \ = \ P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathit{do}(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{w}) \quad \text{if } (\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}, \ \overline{\mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{W})}}}$$

where $\mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{W})$ is the set of **Z**-nodes that are not ancestors of any **W**-node in $G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}$

Theorem (Soundness and Completeness of do-Calculus) [Shpitser/Pearl and Huang/Valtorta)]

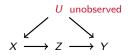
A causal effect

$$q = P(y_1, \ldots, y_k \mid do(x_1), \ldots, do(x_m))$$

is identifiable in a model characterized by a graph G if and only if there exists a finite sequence of transformations, each conforming to one of the inference rules in Rules-of-do-Calculus Theorem that reduces q into a standard (i.e., do-free) probability expression involving observed quantities.

Rule 1
$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{w})$$
 if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}}$
Rule 2 $P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), do(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})$ if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}, \underline{Z}}$
Rule 3 $P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), do(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{w})$ if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}, \underline{Z}(\overline{\mathbf{W}})}$

Examples: Consider the following DAG:

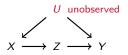


• Task 1: Compute $P(z \mid do(x))$

$$P(z \mid do(x)) = P(z \mid x)$$
 Rule 2

Rule 1
$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{w})$$
 if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}}$
Rule 2 $P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), do(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})$ if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}, \underline{\mathbf{Z}}}}$
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Examples: Consider the following DAG:

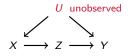


• Task 2: Compute $P(y \mid do(z))$

$$\begin{array}{lll} P(y \mid do(z)) & = & \sum_{x} P(y \mid x, do(z)) \; P(x \mid do(z))) & \text{probabilistic calculus} \\ & = & \sum_{x} P(y \mid x, do(z)) \; P(x) & \text{Rule 3} \\ & = & \sum_{x} P(y \mid x, z) \; P(x) & \text{Rule 2} \end{array}$$

Rule 1
$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{w})$$
 if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}}$
Rule 2 $P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), do(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})$ if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}, \underline{\mathbf{Z}}}}$
Rule 3 $P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), do(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{w})$ if $(\mathbf{Y} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})_{G_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}, \underline{\mathbf{Z}}}}$

Examples: Consider the following DAG:



• Task 3: Compute $P(y \mid do(x))$

$$P(y \mid do(x)) = \sum_{z} P(y \mid z, do(x)) \ P(z \mid do(x)))$$
probabilistic calculus
$$= \sum_{z} P(y \mid do(z), do(x)) \ P(z \mid x))$$
Rule 2, Task 1
$$= \sum_{z} P(y \mid do(z)) \ P(z \mid x))$$
Rule 3
$$= \sum_{z} (\sum_{x'} P(y \mid x', z) \ P(x')) \ P(z \mid x))$$
Task 2

 $= \sum_{z} P(z \mid x) \sum_{x'} P(y \mid x', z) P(x')$ rearrangement of sum terms

Do-Calculus Based Identification Algorithm

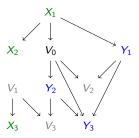
- The IDC algorithm (Shpitser and Pearl): based on do-calculus solves the identification problem in polynomial time.
- More precisely, for a given G and X, Y it computes a do-free formula for

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid do(\mathbf{x}))$$

if and only if the effect is identifiable; otherwise it outputs that identification is impossible.

Do-Calculus Based Identification Algorithm

- Two major drawbacks of the IDC algorithm:
 - polynomial time of high degree
 - computes complex expressions, even if simple ones exists, e.g.



The Instance is identified by using the empty set as an AS and by the formula

$$\sum_{v_0} [P(y_1|x_1)P(v_0|x_1)P(y_3|x_1,y_1,v_0,y_2)P(y_2|x_1,v_0)]$$

found by the IDC algorithm

Do-Calculus Based Identification Algorithm

In practice the vast majority of causal effect estimations are computed either by

- covariate adjustment or
- instrumental variable (discussed later on in this course)

method

A classic example of Simpson's paradox

 Consider the famous dataset, comparing the success rates of two treatments (a and b) for kidney stones

	Treatment a	Treatment b
Small Stones $\left(\frac{357}{700} = 0.51\right)$	$\frac{81}{87} = 0.93$	$\frac{234}{270} = 0.87$
Large Stones $\left(\frac{343}{700} = 0.49\right)$	$\frac{192}{263} = 0.73$	$\frac{55}{80} = 0.69$
	$\frac{273}{350} = 0.78$	$\frac{289}{350} = 0.83$
	$\frac{562}{700} = 0.80$	

Charig et al.: Comparison of treatment of renal calculi by open surgery (...), British Medical Journal, 1986

- Let S denote the size of stone (small, large), T treatment (a or b), R recovery (0,1)
- If we know only overall recovery rates (and nothing else) we would prefer treatment b, if we had a choice:

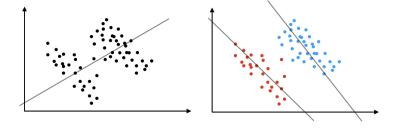
$$P(R = 1 \mid T = a) = 0.78 < 0.83 = P(R = 1 \mid T = b)$$

But observing the data in both categories, we realize that a performs better in each of them

$$P(R = 1 \mid T = a, S = \text{small}) = 0.93 > 0.87 = P(R = 1 \mid T = b, S = \text{small})$$

 $P(R = 1 \mid T = a, S = \text{large}) = 0.73 > 0.69 = P(R = 1 \mid T = b, S = \text{large})$

• How to explain this inversion of conclusion?



Simpson's Paradox

In general, Simpson's paradox refers to the phenomenon whereby

• an event C increases the probability of event E in a given population p:

$$P(E \mid C) > P(E \mid \neg C)$$

ullet and, at the same time, decreases the probability of E in every subpopulation of p described by two complementary properties F and $\neg F$

$$P(E \mid C, F) < P(E \mid \neg C, F)$$

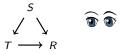
 $P(E \mid C, \neg F) < P(E \mid \neg C, \neg F)$

Remark Although such inversion of conclusion might not surprise in probability studies, it is paradoxical when considering causal (C) / effect (E) interpretation

Let's go back to our example data

	Treatment a	Treatment b
Small Stones $\left(\frac{357}{700} = 0.51\right)$	$\frac{81}{87} = 0.93$	$\frac{234}{270} = 0.87$
Large Stones $\left(\frac{343}{700} = 0.49\right)$	$\frac{192}{263} = 0.73$	$\frac{55}{80} = 0.69$
	$\frac{273}{350} = 0.78$	$\frac{289}{350} = 0.83$
	$\frac{562}{700} = 0.80$	

- We analyze the "paradox", using the language of interventions that particularly allows distinguishing between seeing from doing
- Let, as before, S size of stone (small, large), T treatment (a or b), R recovery (0,1) and assume the following causal model



 We compare the treatments when we force all patients to take treatment a or treatment b, respectively



For the data

	Treatment a	Treatment b
Small Stones $\left(\frac{357}{700} = 0.51\right)$	$\frac{81}{87} = 0.93$	$\frac{234}{270} = 0.87$
Large Stones $\left(\frac{343}{700} = 0.49\right)$	$\frac{192}{263} = 0.73$	$\frac{55}{80} = 0.69$
	$\frac{273}{350} = 0.78$	$\frac{289}{350} = 0.83$
	$\frac{562}{700} = 0.80$	

the situations

$$S \qquad S \qquad S$$

$$T = a \longrightarrow R \qquad T = b \longrightarrow R$$

concern intervention distribution

• Then we estimate the causal effects of T on R via adjustment for direct causes:

$$P(R = 1 \mid do(T = a)) = \sum_{s} P(R = 1 \mid s, T = a) P(s) = 0.832$$

and

$$P(R = 1 \mid do(T = b)) = \sum_{s} P(R = 1 \mid s, T = b) P(s) = 0.782 < 0.832$$

• This explains why we should prefer treatment a over treatment b

Literature

- J. Pearl (2009), Ch. 3
- J. Pearl, M. Glymour, and N.P. Jewell (2016), Ch. 3