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Principles of Causal Inference



What exactly are counterfactuals?

- Suppose I am driving from my home in Centre Hill to the University Park airport on a football weekend
 - Option 1: Take East Branch Road to Lemont and take 322 West do(X = 1)
 - Option 2: Take East Branch Road to Atherton Street and take University Ave -do(X=0)
- I choose Option 2 (shorter route that I am used to)
 - It takes me an hour to get to the airport and I miss my flight
 - I say to myself I should have taken 322 West instead
 - What doe this mean?
 - If I had taken 322 West, I would have reached the airport sooner



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Motivation for Counterfactuals

- After reaching the airport, I tell myself "I should have taken 322 West"
- I am thinking had I taken 322 West, I would have reached the airport sooner (and managed to catch my flight)
- My thinking is informed by my experience that it took me 1 hour to reach the airport via University Ave
- When I decided to take University Ave, had I anticipated that it
 would take me 1 hour to get to the airport via University Ave, I
 would have taken 322 West instead if I thought that doing so
 would get me to the airport in less than 1 hour!
- What information did I need to make a rational choice?





- When I decided to take University Ave, had I anticipated that it
 would take me 1 hour to get to the airport via Univ. Ave, I would
 have taken 322 West instead if I thought that doing so would get
 me to the airport in less than 1 hour!
- What information did I need to make a rational choice?
 - The expected time to reach the airport via 322 West conditioned on the observation that it took me an hour to reach the airport via Univ. Ave

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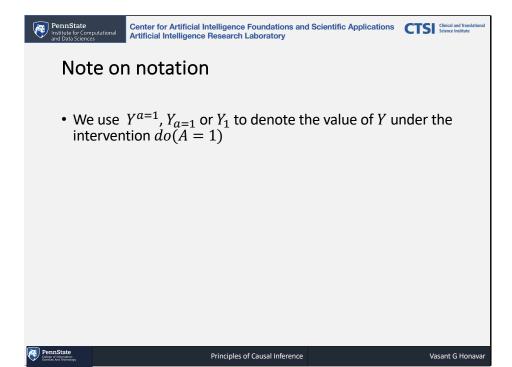


How can we express counterfactuals?

- How can I get the expected time to reach the airport via 322 West conditioned on the observation that it took me an hour to reach the airport via Univ. Ave?
- Should we compare $\mathbb{E}(t \mid do(X = 1), t = 1 \ hour)$ with the time it actually took me to reach the airport via University Ave?
- What is $\mathbb{E}(t \mid do(X=1), t = 1 \text{ hour})$?
- $\mathbb{E}(t \mid do(X=1), t = 1 \ hour) = 1 \ hour!$
- If that was the case, taking 322 West should make no difference
- What is wrong with my logic?
- The t whose expectation we are taking and the t we are conditioning are are not the same t
- How can I express the quantity I want to express?



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Motivating the counterfactuals

- The do operator lets us distinguish between P(t|do(X=0)) and P(t|do(X=1))
- But the do operator is too crude to distinguish between the hypothetical driving time to the airport on 322 West conditioned on the actual driving time on University Ave
- · We need a notation to distinguish between
 - Driving time to airport via 322 West: $Y_{X=1}$ or Y_1
 - Actual (observed) driving time Y to airport via Univ Ave
- We need to estimate $\mathbb{E}(Y_{X=1} | X = 0, Y = 1)$
- The expression contains a hypothetical event $Y_{X=1}$ predicated on the event do(X = 1), conditioned on a conflicting events X = 0 and Y = 1that actually occurred (and hence observed)!
- That is, $Y = Y_{X=1}$ and X = 0 (and $Y = Y_{X=0} = 1$) occur in different worlds!



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Do expressions are not enough to express counterfactuals

- We need a notation to distinguish between
 - Driving time to airport via 322 West: $Y_{X=1}$ or Y_1
 - Actual (observed) driving time Y to airport via Univ Ave
- We need to estimate $\mathbb{E}(Y_{X=1} | X = 0, Y = 1)$
- $Y = Y_{X=1}$ and X = 0 (and $Y = Y_{X=0} = 1$) occur in different worlds!
- $\mathbb{E}(Y_{X=1} | X=0, Y=Y_0=1)$ is very different from $\mathbb{E}(Y|do(X=0))$
 - The first is about expectation of *Y* in the counterfactual world conditioned on observations in the factual world.
 - The second is about expectation of *Y* in a world conditioned on intervention in the same world.
- We can't reduce the first expression to a do expression
- We can't estimate it from an intervention experiment

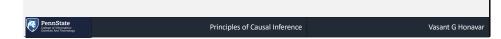


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Motivating the counterfactuals

- We can't reduce $E(Y_{X=1} | X=0, Y=Y_0=1)$ to a do expression
- Hence, we cannot apply do-calculus!
- You can only
 - *do* an intervention on everyone in the population (or everyone with the same covariates *X*)
- However, as the preceding example shows, there are interesting causal questions having to do with individual level counterfactuals that cannot be operationalized using the do-operator
- What does it say about the completeness of do-calculus?
- Nothing!
- Why? do-calculus is about causal effects in populations, NOT individuals!

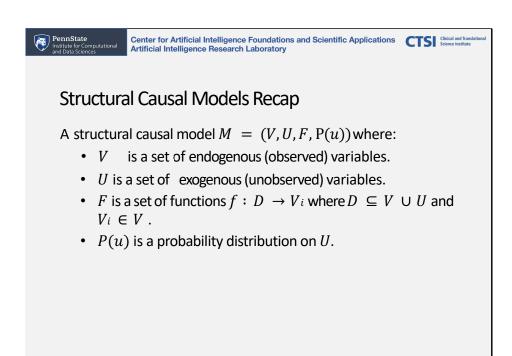




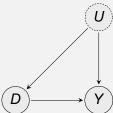
Motivating the counterfactuals

- Can we use an RCT to get at $E(Y_{X=1} | X=0, Y=Y_0=1)$?
 - An RCT will get us $E(Y \mid do(X=0))$ and $E(Y \mid do(X=1))$
 - An RCT will NOT get us $E(Y_{X=1} | X=0, Y=Y_0=1)!$
 - Why not?
 - Because X cannot simultaneously be both 1 and 0!
- If we cannot estimate $E(Y_{X=1} | X=0, Y=Y_0=1)$ from an RCT, there is no hope of estimating it from observational data!
- What if we estimate the freeway driving time for another driver or at another time of the day as a surrogate for your driving time from SC to NYC had you taken the freeway?
 - That would be an approximation
 - The quality of the approximation depends on many factors





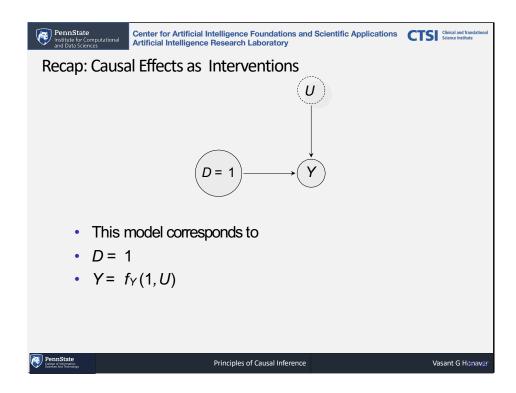




- This model corresponds to the following structural equations
- $D = f_D(U)$
- $Y = f_Y(D, U)$
- What do the graph and the equations look like when we intervene and "do" D = 1?

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Recap: Causal Effects as Interventions

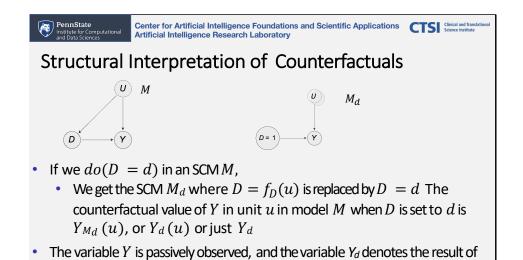
- If we do(D = 1), then D = 1, and $Y = f_Y(1, U)$
- This Y under do(D = 1) is a function of U and hence differs across individuals
- The mean of Y under the intervention do(D = 1) is:

$$E[Y | do(D = 1)] = \sum_{u} f_{Y}(1, u) P(U = u)$$

- $f_Y(1, u)$ is Y if D is set to 1 for a unit with infinitely many features u
- This value $f_Y(1, u)$ is in fact a (individual-level) counterfactual
- "What would Y be if D were set to 1 in an individual with covariates u"?



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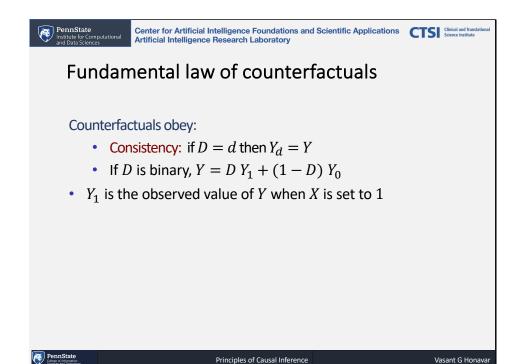


an intervention D = d

outcome, relies on a causal model

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• This definition of counterfactuals, because it refers to interventional





Causal Effects using Counterfactuals

- What is then the average causal effect of binary *D* on *Y* using not the *do*-operator, but counterfactuals?
 - $\mathbb{E}[Y_1] \mathbb{E}[Y_0]$
- In the literature (a la Rubin) that uses only counterfactuals but no graphs, this is often called the average treatment effect (of *D* on *Y*)
- In the language of causal models:
 - $\mathbb{E}[Y_1] \mathbb{E}[Y_0] = \mathbb{E}[Y|do(D=1)] \mathbb{E}[Y|do(D=0)]$
- But counterfactuals allow us to also think about causal effects for individuals: $Y_1(u) Y_0(u)$
- This individual treatment effect will vary across individuals as a function of \boldsymbol{u}



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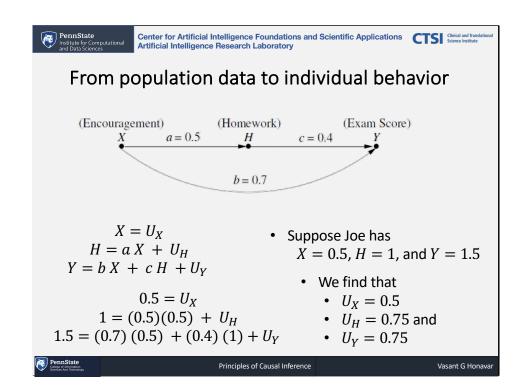


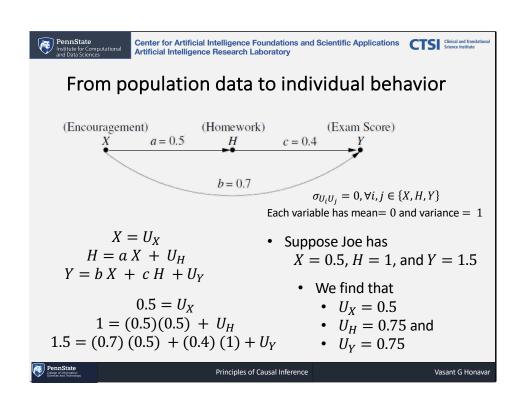
Interpreting counterfactuals

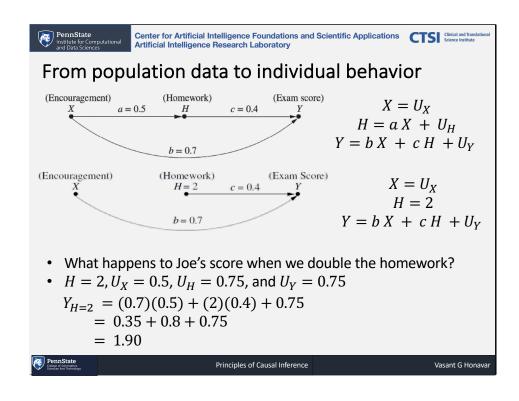
- Suppose M is a structural causal model (V, U, F), exogenous variables U (latent) with known domains
- U = u implies an individual in the population (e.g., a person, a situation in Nature)
- X(u) denotes the characteristics of an individual with U=u
- Law of counterfactuals (LoC)
 - $Y_d(u) = Y_{M_d}(u)$
 - We can think of LoC as the solution for]Y in the surgically modified version of M, namely, M_d
 - LoC provides answer to questions such as what would Y have been had D been set to d?



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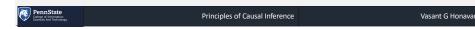


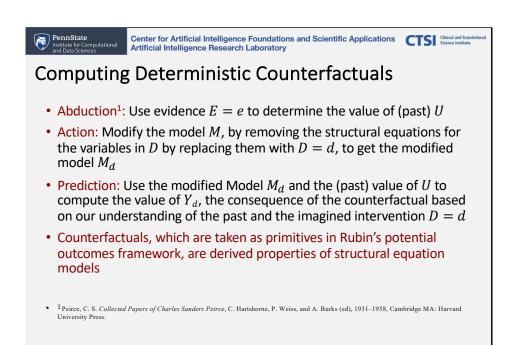


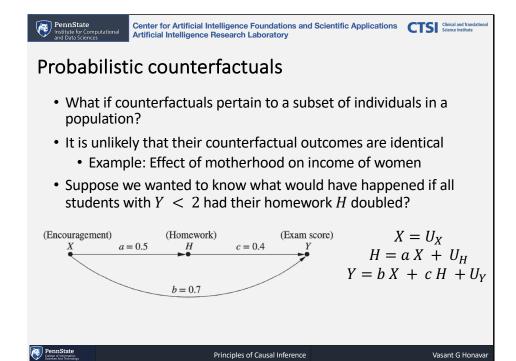


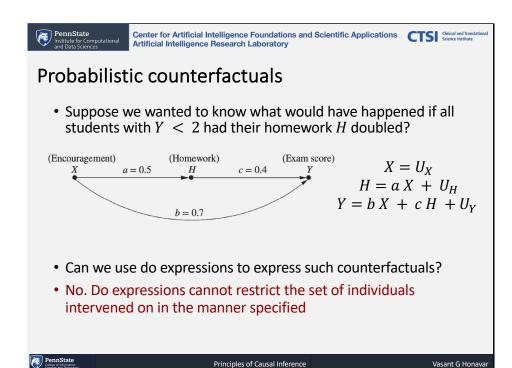
Counterfactuals in Linear Systems

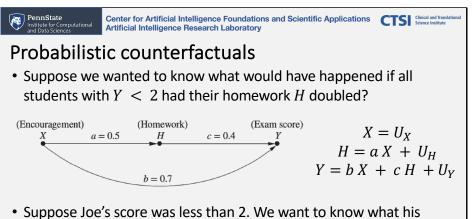
- Structural model $Y = \alpha + \beta D + E$
- This model claims that for every unit u, $Y_d(u) = \alpha + \beta d + E$ so that for every u, $Y_1(u) Y_0(u) = \beta$
- β is one structural coefficient (identifiable from observational data under certain conditions)
- Given the causal assumptions embodied in this structural causal model,
 β, the causal effect of D on Y the same for every individual.
- This is almost always wrong
 - If motherhood M affects wages W differently among women
 - We couldn't possibly assert that $W = \alpha + \beta M + E$
- Structural models are not regressions, but the structural coefficients, under certain conditions (which we went over in previous lectures), can be identified from observational data





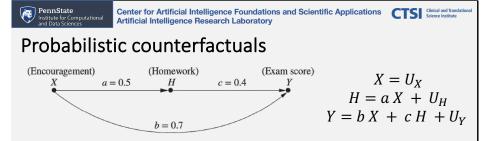






- score would have been had his homework been doubled?
 - Unlike in the deterministic case, we don't know everything (X, Y, H) about Joe.
 - All we know is that he is in the group with Y < 2





- Suppose Joe's score was less than 2. We want to know what his score would have been had his homework been doubled?
- Unlike in the deterministic case, we don't know everything (X,Y,H) about Joe. All we know is that he is in the group with Y<2
- We cannot determine the precise value of $U = \{U_X, U_H, U_Y\}$ for Joe
- P(U) induces a distribution over the observables $\{X,Y,H\}$
- This presents us with the problem of answering probabilistic counterfactual queries



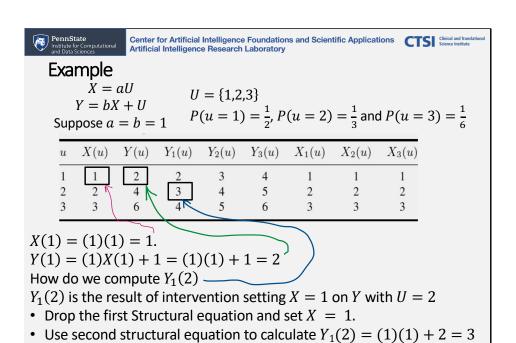


Probabilistic Counterfactual Given a Causal Model

- Given that we observe the feature E=e for a given individual, what is the expected outcome Y for that individual had D been d?
 - That is, we want to know: $\mathbb{E}[Y_{D=d}|E=e]$
- Computing the probabilistic counterfactual given a causal model M involves 3 steps:
 - Abduction: Use evidence E = e to update P(U) to P(U|E = e)
 - Action: Modify the model M, by removing the structural equations by setting D=d, to get the modified model M_d
 - Prediction: Use the modified Model M_d and P(U|E=e) to compute the expectation of Y, the consequence of the counterfactual
- Counterfactuals, which are taken as primitives in Rubin's potential outcomes framework, are derived properties of structural equation models



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Example

$$U = \{1,2,3\}$$

mple
$$U = \{1,2,3\}$$

 $X = aU$ $P(u = 1) = \frac{1}{2}, P(u = 2) = \frac{1}{3} \text{ and } P(u = 3) = \frac{1}{6}$

Suppose a = b = 1

			/ >	/ \	/ \	/ \	/ \	/ >
u/	X(u)	Y(u)	$Y_1(u)$	$Y_2(u)$	$Y_3(u)$	$X_1(u)$	$X_2(u)$	$X_3(u)$
1 -	1	2	2	- 3	4	1	1	1
2	2	4	3	4	5	2	2	2
3	3	6	4	5	6	3	3	3
3	3	0	+	3	0	3	3	3

- We can compute the probability that Y would be 3 had X been 2
 - $P(Y_2 = 3)$
 - $Y_2(u) = 3$ occurs only in the first row, when U = 1 which occurs with probability P(1) = 1/2



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Example

$$X = aU$$

 $Y = bX + U$
Suppose $a = b = 1$
 $U = \{1,2,3\}$
 $P(u = 1) = \frac{1}{2}$, $P(u = 2) = \frac{1}{3}$ and $P(u = 3) = \frac{1}{6}$

u	X(u)	Y(u)	$Y_1(u)$	$Y_2(u)$	$Y_3(u)$	$X_1(u)$	$X_2(u)$	$X_3(u)$
1	1	2	2	3	4	1	1	1
(2)	2	4	- 3	4	5	2	2	2
3	3	6	4	5	6	3	3	3

- · We can compute any counterfactual probability
 - $P(Y_2 = 4) = P(U = 2) = 1/3$
- We can compute any joint probability
 - $P(Y_1 < 4, Y_2 > 3) = 1/3$
 - Note that this is a cross-world event spanning X=1 and X= 2 which intersect at U = 2



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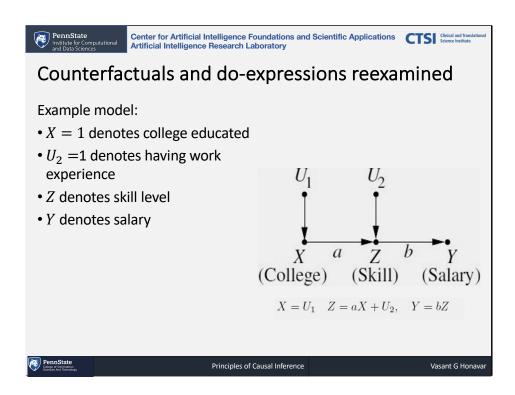


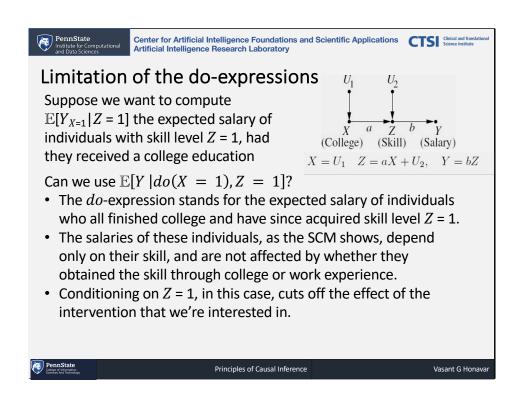


The power of probabilistic counterfactuals

- Given an SCM, we can compute any counterfactual probability
- Given an SCM, we can compute any joint probability over combinations of counterfactuals
 - E.g. $P(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2)$
- This allows us to compute conditional probabilities over counterfactuals and define independence among counterfactuals just as we did over observables
- This is something we cannot do using the do(X = x) notation

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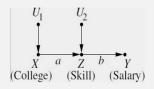
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Limitation of the do-expressions

Suppose we want to compute $E[Y_{X=1}|Z=1]$ the expected salary of individuals with skill level Z = 1, had they received a college education



$$X = U_1$$
 $Z = aX + U_2$, $Y = bZ$

- The individuals that are relevant for computing $\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1}|Z=1]$ are excluded by the do-expression $\mathbb{E}[Y | do(X = 1), Z = 1]$
- In general,
 - $\mathbb{E}[Y | do(X = 1), Z = 1] = \mathbb{E}[Y | do(X = 0), Z = 1]$ but
 - $\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1}|Z=1] \neq \mathbb{E}[Y_{X=0}|Z=1]$
 - Why?



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Counterfactual versus do-expression



$$X = U_1$$
 $Z = aX + U_2$, $Y = bZ$

- $\mathbb{E}[Y | do(X = 1), Z = 1] = \mathbb{E}[Y | do(X = 0), Z = 1]$
 - Y only depends on Z Conditioning on Z d-separates X from Y
 - Z=1 refers to current skills; intervention do(X=1) is an imagined intervention on education in an unrealized past, given current skills
- $\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1}|Z=1] \neq \mathbb{E}[Y_{X=0}|Z=1]$
 - Z=1 selects a subset of the population in which we examine the effect of intervening on X
 - Z = 1 and X = 1 refer to different worlds (pre- and postintervention)



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Can counterfactual encode a do-expression?

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} U_1 & U_2 \\ \hline & & & \\ \hline & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & \\ \hline & &$$

$$X = U_1 \quad Z = aX + U_2, \quad Y = bZ$$

- Yes. $\mathbb{E}[Y | do(X = 1), Z = 1] = \mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1} | Z_{X=1} = 1]$
- ullet That is, we condition on the post-intervention value of Z

•
$$P[Y = y | do(X = 1), Z = z] = \frac{P(Y=y, Z=z | do(X=1))}{P(Z=z | do(X=1))}$$

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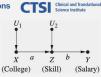


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Counterfactual and do Calculations

$$Y_0(u) = Y_{X=0}(u)$$
 $Z_0(u) = Z_{X=0}(u)$

$$Y_1(u) = Y_{X=1}(u) \quad Z_1(u) = Z_{X=1}(u)$$



$X = u_1 Z = aX + u_2 Y = bZ$											
u_1	u_2	X(u)	Z(u)	<i>Y</i> (<i>u</i>)	$Y_0(u)$	$Y_1(u)$	$Z_0(u)$	$Z_1(u)$			
0	0	0	0	0	0	ab	0	а			
0	1	0	1	b	b	(a+1)b	1	a+1			
1	0	1	а	ab	0	ab	0	a			
1	1	1	a+1	(a + 1)b	b	(a + 1)b	1	a+1			

Suppose $a \neq 1$, $a \neq 0$, $ab \neq 0$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_1|Z=1]=(a+1)b$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_{\mathsf{o}}|Z=1]=b$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|do(X=1),Z=1]=b$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|do(X=0),Z=1]=b$$

\text{\text{\$\mathbb{E}[Y_1-Y_0|Z=1]}=ab}

- Even though Z d-separates X from Y, X has a causal effect on Y among those with Z=1
- While the salary of those at skill level Z=1 depends only on their skill and not on education



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- Even though Z d-separates X from Y, X has a causal effect on Y among those with Z = 1
- While the salary of those at skill level Z=1 depends only on their skill and not on education X, the salary of individuals currently at skill level Z=1 could have been different had they had a different past
- Dependencies of this sort needed for retrospective reasoning about an unrealized past are not represented in standard structural causal models and cannot be expressed using do expressions
- Performing such reasoning requires augmenting causal graphs with counterfactual variables



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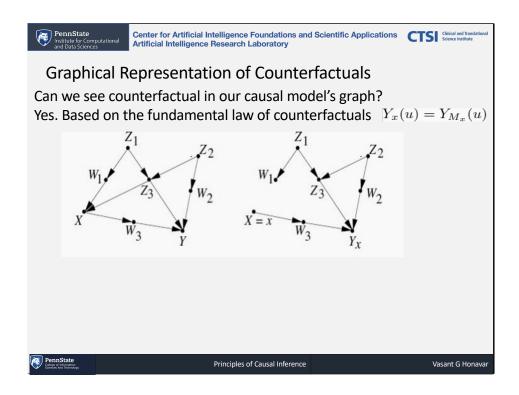
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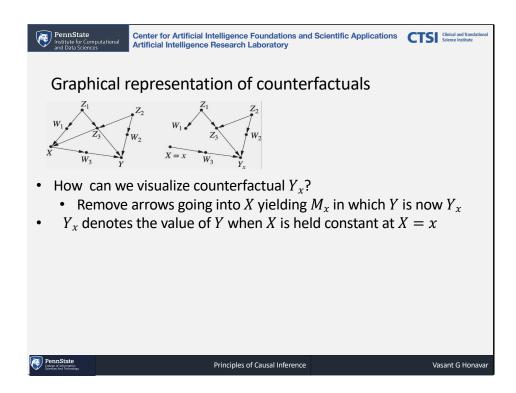


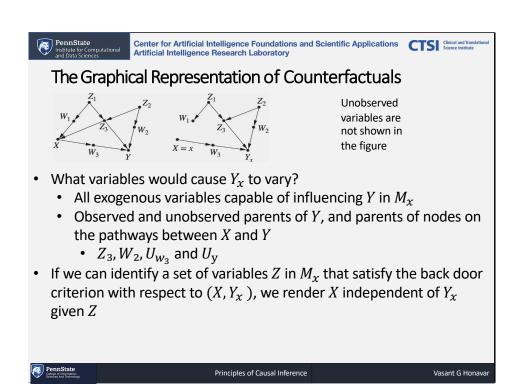
$X = u_1 Z = aX + u_2 Y = bZ$											
u_1	u_2	X(u)	Z(u)	Y(u)	$Y_0(u)$	$Y_1(u)$	$Z_0(u)$	$Z_1(u)$			
0	0	0	0	0	0	ab	0	а			
0	1	0	1	b	b	(a + 1)b	1	a+1			
1	0	1	a	ab	0	ab	0	a			
1	1	1	a+1	(a+1)b	b	(a+1)b	1	a+1			

- With $a \neq 0$, $a \neq 1$, $P(U_1)$ and $P(U_2)$ do not appear in the calculations because the condition Z=1 occurs only for $u_1=0$ and $u_2 = 1$ forcing Y, Y_1 and Y_2 to take a definite value.
- But with a=1, Z=1 occurs when $u_1=0$ and $u_2=1$ as well as when $u_1 = 1$ and $u_2 = 0$
- $\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1}|Z=1] = b\left(1 + \frac{P(u_1=0)P(u_2=1)}{P(u_1=0)P(u_2=1) + P(u_1=1)P(u_2=0)}\right)$ $\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=0}|Z=1] = b\left(\frac{P(u_1=0)P(u_2=1)}{P(u_1=0)P(u_2=1) + P(u_1=1)P(u_2=0)}\right)$

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Counterfactual Interpretation of Backdoor Criterion

• Theorem: If a set Z of variables satisfies the backdoor condition relative to (X,Y), then for all x, the counterfactual Y_x is conditionally independent of X given Z

$$P(Y_x|X,Z) = P(Y_x|Z)$$

• How can we calculate $P(y_x)$ from data?

$$P(y_x) = \sum_{Z} P(y_x | Z = z) \ P(Z = z)$$
 LoT

$$= \sum_{z} P(y_x | x, Z = z) \ P(Z = z)$$
 BDC

$$= \sum_{z} P(y|x, Z = z) \ P(Z = z)$$
 Consistency

This is just backdoor adjustment in the counterfactual setting!



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Counterfactual Independence

• Does the effect of education on salary (Y_x) depend on education (X), given skill Z?

$$Y_x \perp \!\!\! \perp X \mid Z$$
? or $\mathbb{E}[Y_x | X, Z] = \mathbb{E}[Y_x | Z]$?

- We know $\mathbb{E}[Y|X,Z] = \mathbb{E}[Y|Z] :: Z$ blocks all paths from X to Y
- Is the situation different for Y_x?
 - Yes!
 - Remove arrows into X to get M_x in which Y is Y_x
 - Which variables cause Y_x to vary when conditioned on Z?
 - U_2 Why? Because U_2 and X become d-connected when conditioned on ${\cal Z}$
 - Hence, $\mathbb{E}[Y_x|X,Z] \neq \mathbb{E}[Y_x|Z]$
 - In this case, Education matters in estimating the causal effect of Skill (Z) on Salary (Y)!



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Counterfactual in Experimental Settings

- We saw that counterfactual queries can be answered from a fully specified structural model

 (Company)
- Consider data for 10 students

Participant		Participa aracteri U _H		X	Observe behavio Y		Y_0		Predictential out		Y ₀₀	$X = U_X$
1	0.5	0.75	0.75	0.5	1.50	1.0	1.05	1.95	0.75	1.25	0.75	$X = U_X$
2	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.71	0.25	0.44	1.34	0.1	0.6	0.4	$H = a X + U_H$
3	0.5	0.9	0.2	0.5	1.01	1.15	0.56	1.46	0.9	1.4	0.2	$H - u A + O_H$
4	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.6	1.04	0.8	0.50	1.40	0.5	1.0	0.3	$Y = b X + c H + U_Y$
5	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.5	1.67	1.05	1.22	2.12	0.8	1.3	0.9	I - UX + UII + UY
6	0.7	0.9	0.3	0.7	1.29	1.25	0.66	1.56	0.9	1.4	0.3	O
7	0.2	0.3	0.8	0.2	1.10	0.4	0.92	1.82	0.3	0.8	0.8	$\sigma_{u_H u_Y} = 0$
8	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.80	0.8	0.44	1.34	0.6	1.1	0.2	
9	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.6	1.00	0.7	0.46	1.36	0.4	0.9	0.3	
10	0.3	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.89	0.95	0.62	1.52	0.8	1.3	0.3	

- We used the model to predict the potential outcomes
- In reality, we never can get such data (why?)
- Nevertheless, we can use the model to compute $\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1} Y_{X=0}]$



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Counterfactual in Experimental Settings



- Suppose we do not have the model
- But we have data from an experiment in which X is assigned at random to members of the population
- The observed data correspond to the last two columns

		redicted ial outcomes	Observed outcomes			
Participant	Y_0	Y_1	Y_0	Y_1		
1	1.05	1.95	1.05			
2	0.44	1.34	•	1.34		
3	0.56	1.46		1.46		
4	0.50	1.40		1.40		
5	1.22	2.12	1.22			
6	0.66	1.56	0.66			
7	0.92	1.82		1.82		
8	0.44	1.34	0.44			
9	0.46	1.36	•	1.36		
10	0.62	1.52	0.62			
	True average	e treatment effect	: Study average 0.68	treatment effect		

- Now, because X is randomly assigned, the backdoor adjustment formula applies in the counterfactual setting with $Z = \{ \}$
- $\mathbb{E}[Y_x] = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x]$
- Because $\mathbb{E}[Y_x] = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x]$, we can estimate $\mathbb{E}[Y_{x=1} Y_{x=0}]$ $=\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1}] - \mathbb{E}[Y_{X=0}]$ from the observed data!
- Note that the quality of the estimate depends on sample size etc.



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Freedom of choice and causal effects

 In most modern nations, some may attend university but are not forced to



- For those who attend university, does it pay off in terms of lifetime earnings?
- Y lifetime earnings, D = 1 if you go to university
- We can model the above using a very simple SCM:
- $Y = f_Y(D, U_Y)$ $D = f_D(X, U_D)$
- U_Y and U_D may be correlated
- · Why?
 - You love learning (X) so you attend university
 - But your love of learning can impact your earnings regardless of whether you attend university



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Freedom of choice and causal effects

- How can you get at the question as to whether for those who attend university, does it pay off in terms of lifetime earnings?
- We need average treatment effect on the treated (ATT) which is expressed in terms of counterfactuals

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_1 - Y_0 | D = 1] = \mathbb{E}[Y_1 - Y_0 | D = 1]$$

= $\mathbb{E}[Y_1 | D = 1] - \mathbb{E}[Y_0 | D = 1]$



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Estimation of ATT

Suppose X satisfies BDC with re (D, Y)

$$ATT = \mathbb{E}[Y_1 - Y_0|D = 1] =$$

$$\sum_{x} (\mathbb{E}[Y|D = 1, X = x] - E[Y|D = 0, X = x]) \cdot P(X = x|D = 1)$$

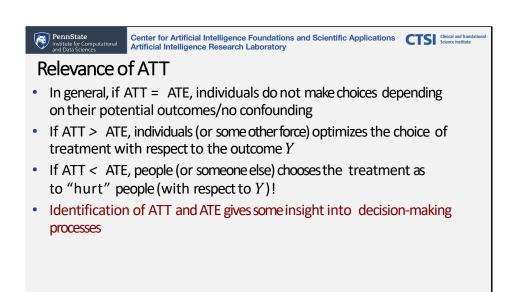
Estimation strategy:

- In each stratum of X, estimate X specific effect
- If X is continuous, discretize it into strata
- Estimate $\mathbb{E}[Y|D=1,X=x]-\mathbb{E}[Y|D=0,X=x]$ via regression (regress D on Y and X
- Estimate P(X = x | D = 1) nonparametrically

$$P(X = x|D = 1) = \frac{P(X = x, D = 1)}{P(D = 1)}$$
 (Bayes' rule)



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Effectiveness of a Job Training Program

- The government funds a job training program aimed at getting jobless people back into the workforce
- A pilot randomized experiment shows that the program is effective
 - A higher percentage of people were hired among those who finished the the program than among those who did not enroll in the program
- The program is approved, and the training is offered to any unemployed person who wants to enroll
- The hiring rate among those who complete the program turns out to be even higher than in the randomized pilot study





Effectiveness of a Job Training Program

- The hiring rate among those who complete the program turns out even higher than that in the randomized pilot study
- Critic:
 - Those who self-enroll, may be more intelligent, more resourceful, and more socially connected than those who were eligible but did not enroll and hence were more likely to have found a job regardless of the training
- What we really need to estimate is the differential benefit of the program on those enrolled
 - The extent to which hiring rate has increased among the enrolled, compared to what it would have been had they not enrolled





Effectiveness of a Job Training Program

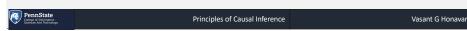
- What we really need to estimate is the differential benefit of the program on those enrolled: the extent to which hiring rate has increased among the enrolled, compared to what it would have been had they not enrolled.
- ATT to the rescue
 - Let X = 1 represent training and Y = 1 represent hiring
 - The effect of training on the trained is $\mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1} Y_{X=0} \mid X = 1]$
 - While there are situations in which ATT may not be identifiable, in many cases, as we have already seen, it is possible to identify ATT using backdoor or other adjustments

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- Cancer patients must decide between two treatments:
 - · lumpectomy alone, or
 - lumpectomy plus irradiation
- Ms. Jones, in consultation with her oncologist, decides on the second option
 - Ten years later, Ms. Jones is alive, and the tumor has not recurred
 - She wonders: Do I owe my life to irradiation?
- Mrs. Smith, on the other hand, chooses the first option and her tumor recurred after a year
- She wonders: Should I have undergone irradiation? Can these speculations be substantiated using data?
- In general, no. Yes, under some assumptions.





- practices
- She claims she applied for a job with Omega Inc. and despite being well-qualified job, she was not interviewed, allegedly because Omega, Inc. realized that she is female
- She claims that the hiring record of Omega Inc shows consistent preferences for male employees
- Does Mary have a case? Can hiring records prove whether Omega Inc. was discriminating when declining her job application?

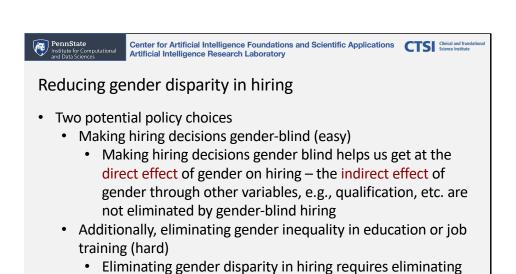




Discriminatory hiring practices

- Does Mary have a case? Can hiring records prove whether Omega Inc. was discriminating when declining her job application?
 - Y = Mary being invited to interview (1 if invited, 0 if not)
 - X = Omega Inc.'s perception of Mary's gender (1 if male, 0 if female)
- What should we estimate? $P(Y_1 = 1 | X = 1, Y = 0)$
- Probability that Mary would have been invited to interview conditional on Omega inc. believed her to be male and she was not invited to interview
- If there is no gender-based discrimination, this probability should be close to 0
- If this probability is greater than some threshold, that could be used as evidence for discrimination



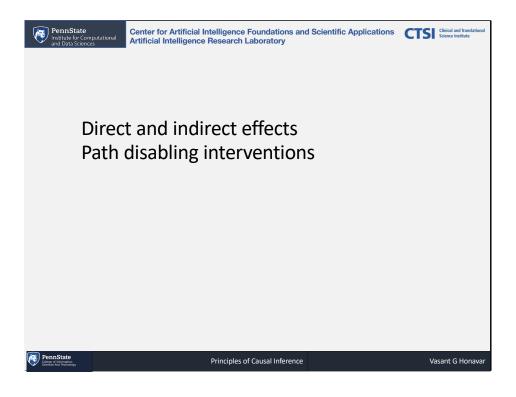


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other variables, e.g., qualification

the indirect effects or the effect of gender mediated by



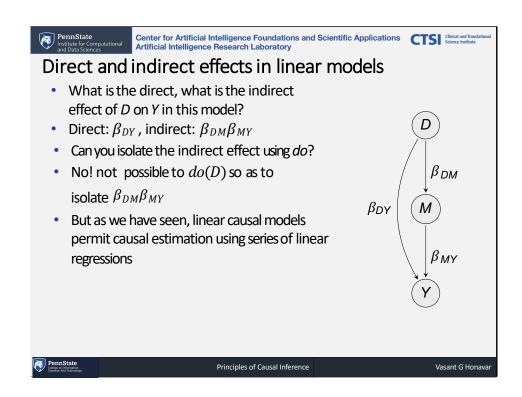


History of (in)direct effects

- Being clear about the theoretical causal mechanism is a precondition for a good theory
- Very often, disagreement is not about direction of some causal effect, but about the mechanism
- The methodological literature on how to learn about causal mechanisms from data only started around 2000!
- While this is clearly of interest to all sciences
 - Pearl in 1st ed. of "Causality" (2000): "Indirect effects lack intrinsic operational meaning"
 - Rubin (2004): Indirect effects are "ill-defined" and "more deceptive than helpful"
 - Pearl changed his opinion in 2001 and gave general definitions, identification results, and policy implications of indirect effects



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From linear to general case

- In linear structural equation models, it is clear what direct and indirect effects are
 - Just look at path coefficients
- However, generalizing this notion to nonlinear models, or unknown functions *f* is more complicated
 - Pearl in 1st ed. of "Causality" 2000)
 - Indirect effects lack intrinsic operational meaning
 - It is not possible to express them using do-operator
 - It is not clear to which action they correspond
 - Pearl 2001, also 2nd ed. Of "Causality (2009)
 - An indirect effect is the effect of a variable when its direct effect is disabled
- Counterfactuals offer us a way out



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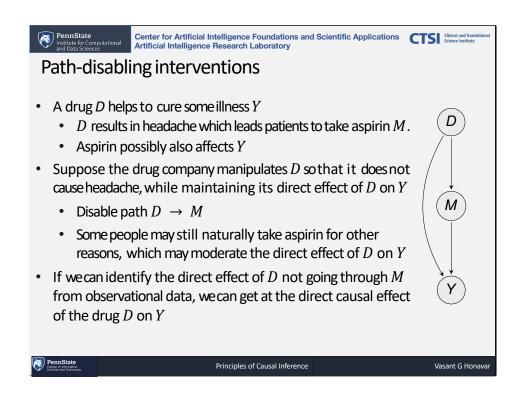
Gender-blind auditioning of musicians

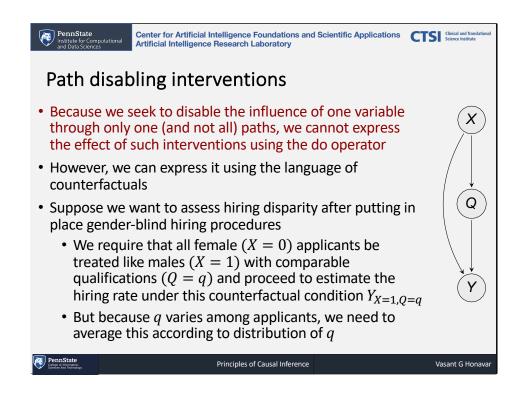
- There is evidence that major orchestras have historically discriminated against female instrumental musicians
- Women G = 1 acquire musical skills M.
 - They audition for an orchestra, and then are hired Y=1 with some probability p_1
 - They audition for an orchestra behind a curtain, and then are hired Y=1 with a different probability p_2
- Having the musicians play behind a curtain makes sure the committee does not know gender, thus disabling the direct effect of gender on hiring
- Goldin and Rouse (2000)* found that introduction of gender-blind audition in various professional US orchestras substantially increased the representation of women in orchestra

* Goldin, C., & Rouse, C. (2000). Orchestrating impartiality: The impact of "blind" auditions on female musicians. *American economic review*, 90(4), 715-741.



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Path disabling interventions

- Suppose we want to assess hiring disparity after putting in place gender-blind hiring procedures
 - We require that all female (X = 0) applicants be treated like males (X = 1) with comparable qualifications (Q = q) and proceed to estimate the hiring rate under this counterfactual condition $Y_{X=1,Q=q}$
 - But because q varies among applicants, we need to average $Y_{X=1,O=q}$ according to distribution of q among females

$$\sum_{q} \mathbb{E}\big[Y_{X=1,Q=q}\big] P(Q=q|X=0)$$

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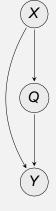
Path disabling interventions

• Similarly, the hiring rate among males is obtained by averaging $Y_{X=1,Q=q}$ with respect to distribution of q among males

$$\sum_{q} \mathbb{E}\big[Y_{X=1,Q=q}\big] P(Q=q|X=1)$$

• The indirect effect of gender on hiring as mediated by qualification is given by

$$\sum_{q} \mathbb{E} \big[Y_{X=1,Q=q} \big] \big[P(Q=q|X=0) - P(Q=q|X=1) \big]$$





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Path disabling interventions

• The indirect effect of gender on hiring mediated by qualification is given by

$$\sum_{q} \mathbb{E} \big[Y_{X=1,Q=q} \big] \big[P(Q=q|X=0) - P(Q=q|X=1) \big]$$

- This is the Natural indirect effect (NIE) of X on Y, mediated by q
- Can we estimate NIE from observational data?
- In the absence of confounding, we can show that

$$\sum_{q} \mathbb{E}[Y_{X=1,Q=q}] [P(Q=q|X=0) - P(Q=q|X=1)]$$

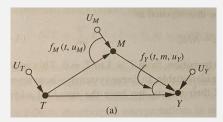
$$= \sum_{q} \mathbb{E}[Y|X=1, Q=q] [P(Q=q|X=0) - P(Q=q|X=1)]$$

We call this the mediation formula



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$$t = f_T(u_T)$$

$$m = f_M(t, u_M)$$

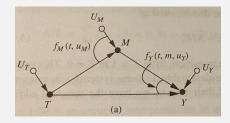
$$y = f_Y(t, m, u_Y)$$

- Total effect $TE = \mathbb{E}[Y_1 Y_0]$ = $\mathbb{E}[Y|do(T=1) - \mathbb{E}(Y|do(T=0)]$
- TE measures the expected change in Y as the treatment changes from T=0 to T=1, while the mediator is allowed to track the change in T naturally as dictated by f_M

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$$t = f_T(u_T)$$

$$m = f_M(t, u_M)$$

$$y = f_Y(t, m, u_Y)$$

Controlled direct effect

$$CDE(m) = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1,m} - Y_{0,m}]$$

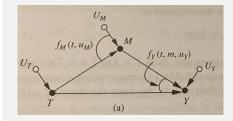
= $\mathbb{E}[Y|do(T=1, M=m) - \mathbb{E}(Y|do(T=0, M=m))]$

• CDE measures the expected change in Y as the treatment changes from T=0 to T=1, while the mediator is set to m uniformly for the entire population



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$$t = f_T(u_T)$$

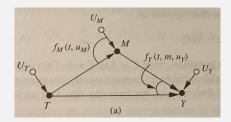
$$m = f_M(t, u_M)$$

$$y = f_Y(t, m, u_Y)$$

- Natural direct effect $NDE = \mathbb{E}[Y_{1,M_0} Y_{0,M_0}]$
- NDE measures the expected change in Y as the treatment changes from T=0 to T=1, while the mediator is set to whatever value it would have attained, for each individual, prior to the change, i.e., under T = 0

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$$t = f_T(u_T)$$

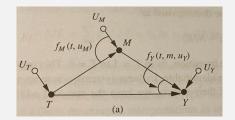
$$m = f_M(t, u_M)$$

$$y = f_Y(t, m, u_Y)$$

- Natural indirect effect $NIE = \mathbb{E}[Y_{0,M_1} Y_{0,M_0}]$
- NIE measures the expected change in Y when the treatment is held constant at T = 0 while the mediator M changes to whatever value it would have attained, for each individual, under T = 1.
- NIE captures, the portion of the effect that can be explained by mediation alone, while disabling the capacity of Y to respond to T

Principles of Causal Inference Vasant G Honavar





$$t = f_T(u_T)$$

$$m = f_M(t, u_M)$$

$$y = f_Y(t, m, u_Y)$$

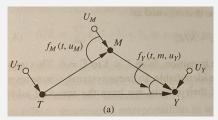
- In general, $TE = NDE NIE_r$
- Where NIE $_r$ denotes the NIE under the reverse change, i.e., T=1 to T=0 NIE $_r=\mathbb{E}[Y_{0,M_0}-Y_{0,M_1}]$
- In linear systems, TE = NDE + NIE
- Why?
- Because reversal of change flips the sign of the coefficient

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Response fraction due to mediation



$$t = f_T(u_T)$$

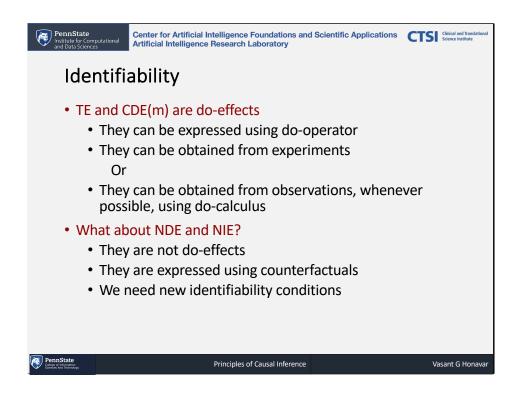
$$m = f_M(t, u_M)$$

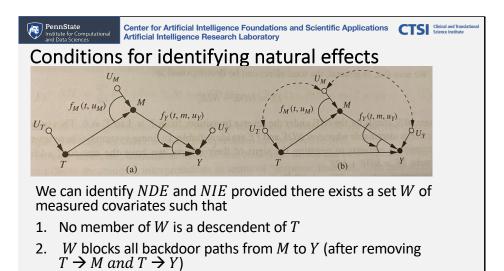
$$y = f_Y(t, m, u_Y)$$

- NDE/TE measures the fraction of the response that is transmitted directly, with M frozen
- *NIE/TE* measures the fraction of the response that is transmitted through *M*, with *Y* blinded to *T*
- (TE-NDE)/TE measures the fraction of the response that is necessarily due to M



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- 3. The W-specific effect of T on M is identifiable (from experiments or observations)
- 4. The W-specific joint effect of $\{T, M\}$ on Y is identifiable (from experiments or observations)



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Identification of NDE

When the first two conditions hold,

$$NDE = \sum_{m} \sum_{w} [\mathbb{E}[Y|do(T=1), M=m, W=w] - \mathbb{E}[Y|do(T=0), M=m, W=w]]. P(M=m|do(T=0), W=w) P(W=w)$$

In addition, if W de-confounds the relationships in 3 and 4, we can replace interventional probabilities by their observational counterparts

$$NDE = \sum_{m} \sum_{w} [\mathbb{E}[Y|T=1, M=m, W=w] - \mathbb{E}[Y|T=0, M=m, W=w]]. \ P(M=m|T=0, W=w)P(W=w)$$

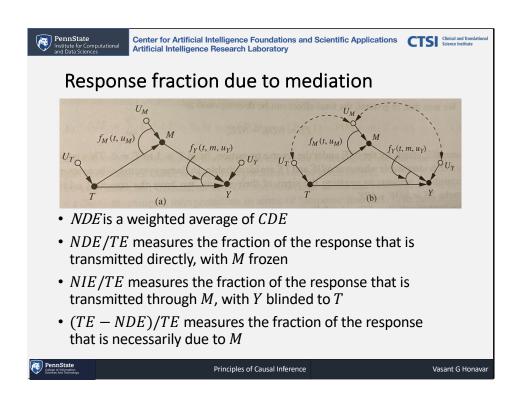
In the non-confounded case, this simplifies to

$$NDE = \sum_{m} \sum_{w} [\mathbb{E}[Y|T=1, M=m] - \mathbb{E}[Y|T=0, M=m]]P(M=m|T=0)$$

$$NIE = \sum_{m} \mathbb{E}\left[Y|T=0, M=m\right] [P(M=m|T=1) - P(M=m|T=0)]$$



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Summary: Counterfactuals, path disabling interventions, Mediation

- Mediation is easy to analyze in the case of linear causal models
 - · Need to only worry about unobserved confounding
- But in general, causal models may not be linear
- Definition of direct/indirect effects relies on path-disabling interventions instead of variable-setting or do interventions
 - This leads to
 - Nested counterfactuals $\mathbb{E}[Y_{D=1,M_{D=0}}]$ and definition of natural direct (as distinct from controlled direct) and indirect effects
 - Identification via blocking back-door paths

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Summary: Counterfactuals, path disabling interventions, Mediation

- Definition of direct/indirect effects relies on path-disabling interventions instead of variable-setting or do interventions
- Leads to
 - Nested counterfactuals $\mathbb{E}[Y_{D=1,M_{D=0}}]$ and definition of natural direct (as distinct from controlled direct) and indirect effects.
 - Identification via blocking back-door paths
- Estimand is very similar to ATT/ATE estimand:
 - For all values m of mediator M compute mean differences in Y for different values d of treatment;
 - Weight each difference with distribution of ${\it M}$ under baseline value of ${\it D}$
- Nonparametric identification of NDE/NIE impossible in the presence of post-treatment confounders



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