# Causal Models and Learning from Data

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#### **Assigned Paper**

#### **Causal Models and Learning from Data:**

Integrating Causal Modeling and Statistical Estimation

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Published in final edited form as: *Epidemiology*. 2014 May ; 25(3): 418–426. doi:10.1097/EDE.00000000000078.

#### Introduction

**Context: Causal Modeling in Epidemiology** 

The authors argue that:

- The practice of epidemiology requires asking causal questions, to understand:
  - why patterns of disease and exposure do exist.
  - how one can intervene to change them.

#### Introduction

A formal causal framework can help in:

- framing sharper scientific questions and making transparent the assumptions required to answer them.
- **distinguishing** the process of **causal inference** from the process of **statistical estimation**.

#### Approach

To this aim, the authors **introduce a systematic approach** to answer causal questions, that includes:

- Specification of :
  - a causal model
  - the observed data
  - the target causal quantity
- Assessment of identifiability
- Commitment to a statistical model and estimand
- Statistical estimation
- Interpretation

### **1.** Specification of a Causal Model

In this paper, the authors focus on the structural causal model (SCM).

Every SCM implies an associated Causal Graph.

- Here, directed acyclic graphs.

In which:

- W: baseline covariates, for instance age.
- A: exposure / treatment
- Y: outcome



To determine the value of a variable, we consider:

- a set of **unmeasured background factors** *U*<sub>w</sub>, together with the **variable's parents**.

Therefore, graphs encode knowledge about the possible causal relations among variables.



Set of structural equations.

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- a set of **unmeasured background factors** *U*<sub>w</sub>, together with the **variable's parents**.

Therefore, graphs encode knowledge about the possible causal relations among variables.

Also, **omission** of a double-headed arrow between two variables assumes the variables do not share **an unmeasured cause (background factors)**.

"Independence assumption"



Set of structural equations.

The set of structural equations, together with any restrictions placed on the joint distribution of the error terms U, constitute a structural causal model.



Set of structural equations.

The authors argue that:

- the flexibility of a structural causal model allows us to **avoid assumptions** that are not **supported**.

## 2. Specification of the observed data and their link to the causal model

This involves specifying:

- what variables have been (or will be) measured.
- how these variables are generated by the system described by the causal model.

This provides a bridge between causal modeling and statistical estimation.

Selection and sampling can also be incorporated directly into the causal model.

- For example, a study may have measured (W, A,Y) on an independent random sample of n individuals from some target population.
- Or, the study participants may have been sampled on the basis of **exposure** or **outcome** status.



This SCM can generate any possible distribution O = (W, A, Y).

So, it places **no restrictions** on the joint distribution of the observed data, implying a **nonparametric statistical model**.

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So, it places **no restrictions** on the joint distribution of the observed data, implying a **nonparametric statistical model**.

This SCM, that assumes that R is independent from W, can generate only distributions O = (W, R, A, Y).

This causal model implies a semiparametric statistical model.



## 3. Specification of the Target Causal Quantity

Specify the target causal quantity

Translation of the scientific question into a formal causal quantity, defined as some parameter of the counterfactual distribution of data under some ideal intervention.

The following decisions are involved in this step:

- 1. Which variables to intervene on (single variable, multiple variables, ...)
- 2. How to set the values of intervention variables: deterministically (on all population), dynamically (based on individual characteristics), stochastically
- 3. What summary of the counterfactual outcome distributions is of interest
- 4. What **population** is of interest: whole population, a subset of the population, a different population

Specify the target causal quantity

For example, a common counterfactual quantity of interest is the **average treatment effect**, defined as

the difference in mean outcome that would have been observed had all members of a population received versus not received some treatment

With  $Y_a$  denoting the counterfactual outcome under an intervention to set A = a, this quantity is expressed as

 $E(Y_1 - Y_0)$ 

## 4. Assessment of Identifiability

#### Assessment of identifiability

Previous step: translation of the scientific question into a **parameter of the unobserved counterfactual distribution** of the data under some **ideal intervention**.

This step: understand whether the target quantity can be expressed as a **parameter of the distribution of the observed data alone** (an estimand), given the causal model and its link to the observed data. I.e., **identifiability** 

#### Assessment of identifiability

Example: choice of an adjustment set when estimating the average treatment effect (ATE).

If the pre-intervention covariates W block all unblocked backdoor paths from A to Y (backdoor criterion), then the counterfactual quantity

$$P(Y_a = y)$$

can be identified with the estimand

$$\sum_{w} P(Y=y|A=a, W=w) P(W=w)$$

which can be computed from the data alone.





Counterfactual distribution under ideal intervention

## 5. Commitment to a Statistical Model and Estimand

#### State the statistical estimation problem

Specify the estimand and the statistical model. If knowledge is sufficient to identify the causal effect of interest: commit to the estimand.

In many cases, available knowledge and data are **insufficient to claim identifiability**. Possible steps:

- Understand if further research and data collection can help
- Make further assumptions in order to obtain identifiability, if "current best" answers are needed

#### State the statistical estimation problem

In the latter case, the authors distinguish between two kinds of assumptions:

- Knowledge-based assumptions, which represent real knowledge
- **Convenience-based assumptions**, which do not represent real knowledge, but which, if true, would result in identifiability.

An estimation problem for "current best answers" consists in:

- 1. A statistical model implied by knowledge-based assumptions
- 2. An estimand that is equivalent to the target causal quantity under a minimum of convenience-based assumptions
- 3. A clear differentiation between convenience-based assumptions and real knowledge.

State the statistical estimation problem



Model based on real knowledge

The causal effect of A on Y can not be identified



Model based on convenience assumptions

The causal effect of A on Y can be identified

### 6. Statistical Estimation

#### **Statistical Estimation**



Want to estimate the causal effect of A on Y Knowledge is captured by a SCM The analyst would like to use ATE



Under some convenience-based assumptions, we have identifiability, and the (1) holds

(2) can be used as an estimand to evaluate ATE We need an estimator to obtain an estimation for ATE!

$$P(Y_a=y) = \sum_{w} P(Y=y|A=a, W=w)P(W=w) \quad (1)$$

$$\bigvee$$

$$\sum_{w} (E(Y|A=1, W=w) - E(Y|A=0, W=w))P(W=w)$$

$$\sum_{w} (E(Y|A=1, W=w) - E(Y|A=0, W=w))P(W=w)$$
(2)

#### **Statistical Estimation**

There is nothing causal about the resulting estimation problem,

Estimation itself is a purely statistical problem

- The analyst is free to choose among several estimators
- e.g. regression of Y (outcome) on A (exposure), followed by averaging with respect to the empirical distribution of W (covariates)

Any estimator itself requires, as "ingredients," estimators of specific components of the observed data distribution

- The true structural formula that generate the distribution is unknown

 $\sum_{w} (E(Y|A=1, W=w) - E(Y|A=0, W=w)) P(W=w)$ Estimators have important differences in their statistical properties, which can result in meaningful differences in performance

## 7. Interpretation

#### Interpretation

Estimate is given for (2)

$$\sum_{w} (E(Y|A=1, W=w) - E(Y|A=0, W=w))P(W=w) \quad (2)$$

Increasing

How can we interpret (2)?

As a purely statistical quantity...

As a causal quantity (i.e., ATE) under certain convenience-based assumptions that are explicit in the SCM (identifiability)

Interpretation can be further expanded by considering stronger assumptions by the investigator, that concerns conceivable and well-defined intervention in the real world <u>Statistical:</u> Estimand, or parameter of the observed data distribution

<u>Counterfactual:</u> A summary of how the distribution of the data would change under a specific intervention on the data generating process

Feasible Intervention: Impact that would be seen if a specific intervention were implemented in a given population

> Randomized Trial: Results that would be seen in a randomized trial

#### Interpretation

The decision of how far to move along this hierarchy can be made by the analyst based on the specific application at hand.

The assumptions required are explicit and, when expressed using a causal graph, readily understandable by subject matter experts.

The debate continues as to whether causal questions and assumptions should be restricted to quantities that can be tested and thereby refuted via theoretical experiment.

## Conclusions

#### Conclusions

Epidemiologists continue to debate whether and how to integrate formal causal thinking into applied research.

Like any tool, the benefits of a causal inference framework depend on how it is used. Good epidemiologic practice requires to:

- Learn about how data are generated
- Be clear about the question to be addressed
- Design an analysis that answers this question using the available data
- Avoid or minimize assumptions not supported by knowledge
- Be transparent and skeptical when interpreting results

A formal causal framework, when used appropriately, provides an invaluable tool for integrating the following principles into applied epidemiology.