BIOST 578: Special Topics Causal inference in biomedical studies

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Lecture # 5: Causal DAGs and their variants

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Overview

DAG as a probability model DAG as a causal model DAG as a tool for practitioners



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A zoo of graphical models (non-causal or causal) and a myriad of acronyms:

- ADMG
- PAG
- MAG
- DAG
- chain graph
- CPDAG
- UG
- ancestral graph
- factor graph
- path diagram

Overview

For this quick intro, we shall focus on DAG and its variant ADMG (aka DAG with latents).

- 1 DAG as a probability model
- 2 DAG as a causal model
- 3 DAG as a tool for practitioners

DAG as a probability model

DAG

- A graph ${\mathcal G}$ that consists of
 - vertices \boldsymbol{V} ,
 - directed edges \pmb{E}

such that there is no directed cycle.

DAG



▶
$$Pa(D) = \{B, C\}$$

▶ $Ch(A) = \{B, C\}$
▶ $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow E$ is a directed path
▶ A and B are adjacent

 $A \in An(E)$ and $E \in De(A)$

DAG



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 $\blacktriangleright A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \text{ is a directed path}$

 $A \in An(E)$ and $E \in De(A)$

► A and B are adjacent

▶ Topological ordering: $A \prec B \prec C \prec D \prec E$ (not unique) such that

i and *j* are adjacent with $i \prec j \implies i \rightarrow j$.

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$$= \left\{ P : p(\mathbf{V}) = \prod_{v \in \mathbf{V}} p(v \mid \mathsf{Pa}(v)) \right\}.$$

▶ Bayesian network. ▶ semiparametric model

$$(A) \qquad (B) \qquad (D) \qquad (E) \qquad (B \mid A) p(C \mid A) p(D \mid B, C) p(E \mid D)$$

Equivalent description: NPSEM-IE



 $p(A, B, C, D, E) = p(A) p(B \mid A) p(C \mid A) p(D \mid B, C) p(E \mid D).$

is equivalent to positing a nonparametric structural equation model with independent errors (NPSEM-IE):

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_{a}, \varepsilon_{b}, \varepsilon_{c}, \varepsilon_{d}, \varepsilon_{e} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \operatorname{unif}(0, 1) \\ A &= f_{a}(\varepsilon_{a}) \\ B &= f_{b}(A, \varepsilon_{b}) \\ C &= f_{c}(A, \varepsilon_{c}) \\ D &= f_{d}(B, C, \varepsilon_{d}) \\ E &= f_{e}(D, \varepsilon_{e}) \end{aligned}$$

Constraints: missing edges

Topological ordering: $A \prec B \prec C \prec D \prec E$



 $p(A) p(B \mid A) p(C \mid A) p(D \mid B, C) p(E \mid D)$



p(A) p(B | A) p(C | A, B) p(D | B, C, A) p(E | D, A, B, C)

► The full DAG represents any *P* ► the **nonparametric** model.

Conditional independence

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missing edges \implies conditional independence.

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The missing ' $B \rightarrow C$ ' posits

 $P(C \mid A, \underline{B}) = P(C \mid A) \iff \overline{B \perp C \mid A} \iff P(B, C \mid A) = P(B \mid A)P(C \mid A).$

Conditional independence

The graph



also implies, e.g.,

$$A, B, C \perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid D, \quad A, C \perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid B, D, \quad \dots$$

■ How we read off all the CIs a DAG implies ?

Dependence: mechanisms

Let A, B be the two fair coins.

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(B) $A \parallel B$ A

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$$A \longrightarrow B \qquad A \not\models B \qquad A \not\models B$$

(2) Common cause (unconditionally)



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(1) Causal relations

$$A \longrightarrow B \qquad A \longleftarrow B \qquad A \not\perp B$$

(2) Common cause (unconditionally)



(3) Conditioning on a common effect



 $A \not\perp B \mid D$

d-connecting path

► A path between A and B: a sequence of distinct, adjacent vertices

$$A o \circ \to \circ \leftarrow \cdots \to B,$$

where every non-endpoint vertex is either a collider $(\rightarrow \circ \leftarrow)$ or a non-collider $(\rightarrow \circ \rightarrow, \leftarrow \circ \leftarrow, \leftarrow \circ \rightarrow)$

- A path is **d-connecting given** C if
 - **1** every non-collider $\notin C$, and
 - 2 every collider is $\in C$ or is an ancestor of C.

d-separation

Vertex *A* and vertex *B* are d-separated by vertex set *C*, written as $A \perp_{\mathcal{G}} B \mid C$, if there is no d-connecting path between *A* and *B* given *C*.

• Extended to $\mathbf{A} \perp_{\mathcal{G}} \mathbf{B} \mid C$ for disjoint vertex sets $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}$.

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Global Markov property

Global Markov property For disjoint vertex sets A, B, C, it holds that

$$A \perp _{\mathcal{G}} B \mid C \implies A \perp B \mid C [P], P \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{G}}.$$

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DAG as a CI model

► The global Markov property also holds reversely. If *P* satisfies $\boldsymbol{A} \perp _{\mathcal{G}} \boldsymbol{B} \mid \boldsymbol{C} \implies \boldsymbol{A} \perp \boldsymbol{B} \mid \boldsymbol{C} [P],$

then $P \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{G}}$.

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Theorem Factorization \iff Global Markov \iff Local Markov.

▶ Local Markov: $P \in M_{\mathcal{G}} \implies A \perp$ non-descendants of $A \mid \mathsf{Pa}(A)$

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Theorem Factorization \iff Global Markov \iff Local Markov.

▶ Local Markov: $P \in M_{\mathcal{G}} \implies A \perp$ non-descendants of $A \mid \mathsf{Pa}(A)$

That is, the model defined as $M_{\mathcal{G}} := \{P : P \text{ factorizes according to } \mathcal{G}\}$ can be viewed as a CI model

$$\{P: \mathbf{A} \perp _{\mathcal{G}} \mathbf{B} \mid \mathbf{C} \implies \mathbf{A} \perp \mathbf{B} \mid \mathbf{C} \mid \mathbf{P}\},\$$

i.e.,

 $\{P : P \text{ satisfies CIs that are encoded as d-separations in } \mathcal{G}\}.$

Graphoid axioms

► From a set of CIs, new CIs may be derived, e.g., with applications of 'graphoid axioms':

- **1** Symmetry: $A \perp B \mid \boldsymbol{C} \implies B \perp A \mid \boldsymbol{C}$
- **2** Decomposition: $A \perp B, D \mid \boldsymbol{C} \implies A \perp B \mid \boldsymbol{C}$ and $A \perp D \mid \boldsymbol{C}$
- **3** Weak union: $A \perp B, D \mid \boldsymbol{C} \implies A \perp B \mid D, \boldsymbol{C}$
- 4 Contraction: $A \perp B \mid \boldsymbol{C}$ and $A \perp D \mid B, \boldsymbol{C} \implies A \perp B, D \mid \boldsymbol{C}$

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Example Given

$$A \perp\!\!\!\perp B, \quad A \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid B,$$

we can derive

$$A \perp\!\!\!\!\perp B, \quad A \perp\!\!\!\!\perp C \mid B \implies A \perp\!\!\!\!\perp B, C \implies A \perp\!\!\!\!\perp C.$$

Completeness of d-separation

▶ Question: From the list CIs encoded by d-separations, can we derive a new CI (e.g., with graphoid axioms) that holds for every $P \in M_G$ but does not correspond to any d-separation in the graph? NO!

Completeness of d-separation

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Theorem For every A, B, C such that A and B are d-connected given C on G, there exists $P \in M_G$ such that

A *⊥* **B** | **C** [P].

Completeness of d-separation

▶ Why is this important?
Completeness of d-separation

Why is this important?

Milan Studenỳ (1992) showed that Cls cannot be axiomatized by a finite set of rules. That is, one cannot deduce all the consequences of an arbitrary set $\{Cl_1, Cl_2, \ldots, Cl_k\}$ using a finite number of rules (e.g. graphoid axioms).

Graphoid axioms are incomplete and cannot be completed, if one is free to specify the list of Cls.

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However, DAG models are a class of nice CI models by confining the set of CIs (reducing complexity).

Examples over three variables

▶ $V = \{A, B, C\}.$

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$$A \perp B$$

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Examples over three variables

▶ $V = \{A, B, C\}.$ R $A \perp B$ R $A \perp B \mid C$ B $A \perp B$ $A \perp B \mid C$ (B) $B \perp C$ $B \perp C \mid A$

Markov equivalence

▶ G and G' are called 'Markov equivalent', written as $G \sim G'$, if they define the same model.

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Theorem Two DAGs over the same set of vertices are **Markov equivalent** iff they share the same **adjacencies** and **unshielded colliders**.

▶ Unshielded collider: $B \rightarrow D \leftarrow C$ but B, C are not adjacent



Markov equivalence class

A Markov equivalence class can be represented by an essential graph / CPDAG. (Without extra assumptions, DAGs can only be learned from data up to Markov equivalence.)



Parametric case: finite state space

▶ When every variable only takes finitely many levels, the model can be parametrized in terms of conditional probability tables $\{p(A | Pa(A)) : A \in V\}$.



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▶ Efficient algorithms exist for marginalization and computing posterior probabilities 25/51

Parametric case: linear SEM

Each linear equation posits that

$$V_i = eta_i^{\mathsf{T}} \operatorname{Pa}(V_i) + arepsilon_i,$$

where ε_i is exogenous error (drawn independently).



$$W = \varepsilon_{w}$$

$$Z = \varepsilon_{z}$$

$$X = \beta_{wx}W + \beta_{zx}Z + \varepsilon_{x}$$

$$Y = \beta_{wy}W + \beta_{zy}Z + \varepsilon_{y}$$

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Because of acyclicity, it admits a unique solution:

$$\boldsymbol{V} = \boldsymbol{B}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{V} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \iff \boldsymbol{V} = (\boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{B})^{-\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

Limitation of DAGs

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Such a CI model does not correspond to any DAG over \boldsymbol{O} .

DAGs with latent variables

For a DAG over $oldsymbol{V}=oldsymbol{O}\cupoldsymbol{U}$,



DAGs with latent variables

For a DAG over $\boldsymbol{V} = \boldsymbol{O} \cup \boldsymbol{U}$,



See also Richardson and Spirtes (2002), Richardson (2003), Robin J Evans (2016), and Richardson, Robin J. Evans, et al. (2023).

DAG as a causal model

What makes it causal?

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We have already seen that a DAG is a probability model as it defines a set of probability distributions $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{G}}$. $\blacktriangleright P \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{G}}$ is an observed distribution over factual random variables.

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 - 1 posits the existence of counterfactuals (i.e., potential outcomes),
 - 2 makes assumptions about factual (e.g., Y) and counterfactual (e.g., Y(a)) variables, and
 - 3 connects the counterfactual distributions with the observed distribution.

Sampling from a DAG



Sampling from a DAG



Following the topological ordering $A \prec B \prec C \prec D \prec E$,

- 1 Draw $A \sim P(A)$
- 2 Draw $B \sim P(B \mid A)$, $C \sim P(C \mid A)$
- **3** Draw $D \sim P(D \mid B, C)$
- 4 Draw $E \sim P(E \mid D)$

Alternative sampling (I): one-step-ahead counterfactuals



Alternative sampling (I): one-step-ahead counterfactuals



Single-World Intervention Graph (SWIG) (Richardson and J. M. Robins, 2013)

1 Draw $A \sim P(A)$

Alternative sampling (I): one-step-ahead counterfactuals



- 1 Draw $A \sim P(A)$
- 2 For every potential a, draw $B(a) \sim P(B \mid A = a)$, $C(a) \sim P(A \mid A = a)$ independent of A

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- 4 For every potential d, draw $E(d) \sim P(E \mid D = d)$ independent of previously drawn.

Alternative sampling (I): one-step-ahead counterfactuals

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▶ This is called 'single-world' because we only posit that

 $A \perp B(a), C(a)$ for every a

and

$$B(a) \sim P(B \mid A = a), \quad C(a) \sim P(C \mid A = a)$$
 for every a .
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▶ Refrain from making 'cross-world' statements such as

 $A \perp B(a), B(a'), B(a''), C(a), C(a'), C(a'')$

because we will never see B(a) and B(a') together for $a \neq a'$.

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resonance of the construction of the construct

▶ Nevertheless, we can empirically examine $A \perp B(a)$, C(a), if we can observe the naturally occurring value of A immediately before we intervene on it.

Alternative sampling (II): recursive substitution



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To generate the observed, factual variables,

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Alternative sampling (II): recursive substitution



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$$A = A$$
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Alternative sampling (II): recursive substitution



To generate the observed, factual variables,

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$$A = A$$
,
2 $B = B(A), C = C(A),$
3 $D = D(B, C),$
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▶ Apparently, $(A, B, C, D, E) \sim P$

Alternative sampling (III): intervention

Suppose that we intervene on B and set it to b' — imposes input to B's children.



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- **3** D(b') = D(b', C(b')),
- 4 E(b') = E(D(b')).
- ▶ This defines the distribution of P((A, B, C, D, E)(b')), or $P(A, B, C, D, E \mid do(B = b'))$.

Alternative sampling: the causal model

 \blacksquare This set of semantics defines the FFRCISTG / SWIG causal model associated with a DAG $\mathcal{G}.$

▶ 'Finest Fully Randomized Causally Interpreted Structured Tree Graph' (J. Robins, 1986)

Alternative sampling: the causal model

 ${}^{\mbox{\tiny INF}}$ This set of semantics defines the FFRCISTG / SWIG causal model associated with a DAG ${\cal G}.$

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It makes weaker assumptions than Pearl's NPSEM-IE (nonparametric structural equation model with independent errors) causal model.

• Even though NPSEM-IE and DAG define the same probability model!

g-formula

g-formula

With the semantics just described, the counterfactual distribution is

$$P(A(b') = a, B(b') = b, C(b') = c, D(b') = d, E(b') = e) =$$

$$P(A = a) P(B = b | A = a) P(C = c | A = a) P(D = d | B = b', C = c) P(E = e | D = e).$$

► This is **identified** from the observed distribution *P* because every **one-step-ahead conditional** is identified from *P*.

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g-formula

$$P(oldsymbol{V}(a) = oldsymbol{v}) = \prod_{i=1}^{|V|} P(v_i \mid a_{\mathsf{Pa}(i) \cap \mathcal{A}}, v_{\mathsf{Pa}(i) \setminus \mathcal{A}})$$

▶ From this we can identify counterfactual means, etc.

g-formula



Example

$$\mathbb{E} E(b') = \sum_{a,b,c,d,e} eP(A = a) P(B = b | A = a) P(C = c | A = a)$$

$$\times P(D = d | B = b', C = c) P(E = e | D = d)$$

$$= \sum_{d,c} \mathbb{E}[E | D = d] P(D = d | B = b', C = c) P(C = c)$$

$$= \sum_{d,c} \mathbb{E}[E | D = d, B = b', C = c] P(D = d | B = b', C = c) P(C = c) \quad (why?)$$

g-formula



$$\mathbb{E} E(b') = \sum_{c} \sum_{d} \mathbb{E}[E \mid D = d, B = b', C = c] P(D = d \mid B = b', C = c) P(C = c)$$

=
$$\sum_{c} \mathbb{E}[E \mid B = b', C = c] P(C = c)$$

=
$$\mathbb{E} \{ \mathbb{E}[E \mid B = b', C = c] \}.$$

▶ Backdoor/adjustment formula that adjusts for *C*

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Suppose A is the treatment and Y is the outcome.

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Theorem S is a valid adjustment set if it satisfies the backdoor criterion:

- 1 S contains no descendant of A,
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 $\{C\}, \quad \{A\}, \quad \{A, C\}.$

Backdoor/adjustment

▶ Identifying P(E(b')).



Valid adjustment sets:

 $\{C\}, \{A\}, \{A, C\}.$

Adjusting for {C} is the most efficient (Henckel et al., 2022; Rotnitzky and Smucler, 2020).
 A different, but more efficient estimator uses C, D (Guo, Perković, et al., 2023).

In the presence of latent variables

 \blacktriangleright For a DAG with latent variables U, we can use latent projection to obtain an ADMG (acyclic directed mixed graph) over observed variables.

- Whenever there is a path of the form w→u→u→w→w add w→w (if not already present).
- 2 Whenever there is a path of the form $(w) \leftarrow (u_1) \leftarrow \cdots \rightarrow (u_2) \rightarrow (v)$ add $(w) \leftarrow (v)$.

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Example



Front-door formula





Front-door formula



$$P(Y(a) = y) = P(Y(M(a)) = y)$$

$$= \sum_{m} P(Y(M(a)) = y \mid M(a) = m) P(M(a) = m) \quad (why?)$$

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$$= \sum_{m} P(Y(m) = y) P(M(a) = m) \quad (why?)$$

$$= \sum_{m} \left\{ \sum_{a'} P(Y = y \mid M = m, A = a') P(A = a') \right\} P(M(a) = m \mid A = a) \quad (why?)$$

$$= \sum_{m} \left\{ \sum_{a'} P(Y = y \mid M = m, A = a') P(A = a') \right\} P(M = m \mid A = a).$$

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Identification in the presence of latent variables

- ▶ Not all (single-world) counterfactual quantities are identified.
- ► The ID algorithm due to Jin Tian provides a **complete solution**.
 - See also Shpitser and Pearl (2006), Richardson, Robin J. Evans, et al. (2023, §4.3).

DAG as a tool for practitioners

Use of DAGs in practice

Practitioners can use DAGs/ADMGs to

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- 2 Identify a causal quantity of interest and consider its estimation. (to some extent)
- **3** Design an observational study.

(largely open)

Challenges

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- **3** Sophisticated forms of nonparametric identification require detailed assumptions that are often difficult to justify in practice.
- 4 Drawing a DAG can be a bad idea: unreliable and unnecessary.
- 5 Model elicitation, robust methods, sensitivity analysis.
 - ▶ See Guo and Zhao (2023) for an interactive protocol of eliciting an adjustment set.

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