## Simpson's Paradox

In a cohort of 1000 students:
500 used a new method for learning a concept (treatment $T$ ).
They were judged whether they understood the concept (evaluation E)
for two subpopulations (one with $C=$ true and one with $C=$ false):

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## Causal Model

A causal network is a belief network where

$$
P(X \mid \operatorname{parents}(X))=P(X \mid \operatorname{do}(\text { parents }(X)))
$$

for each variable $X$, intervening on the parents of $X$ has the same effect as observing them.

## Inferring Causality

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- $P(Y \mid X, d o(Z)) \neq P(Y \mid X)$


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A confounder can account for the correlation between $X$ and $Y$ by being a common cause of both.

## Example


$P($ outcome $\mid$ drug $) \neq P($ outcome $\mid$ do $($ drug $))$.

## Example


$P($ Outcome $\mid$ do(Drug) $)$
$=\sum_{\text {Severity }} \sum_{\text {Gender }} P($ Severity $) * P($ Gender $)$

* $P$ (Outcome $\mid$ do(Drug), Severity, Gender)


## Example


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$$
\begin{aligned}
=\sum_{\text {Severity }} \sum_{\text {Gender }} & P(\text { Severity }) * P(\text { Gender }) \\
& * P(\text { Outcome } \mid \text { Drug, Severity, Gender })
\end{aligned}
$$

## Three types of meetings between arcs


(a) chain

(b) fork

(c) collider

## D-separation



- A path $p$ can follow arrows in either direction.
- Observations Zs block a path $p$ if:
(a) $p$ contains a chain $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$, and $B \in Z s$
(b) $p$ contains a fork $A \leftarrow B \rightarrow C$, and $B \in Z s$
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- $X$ is d-separated from $Y$ given $Z s$ if every path between $X$ and $Y$ is blocked by $Z s$


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(c) $p$ contains a collider $A \rightarrow B \leftarrow C$, and $B$, and all its descendants, are not in Zs
- $X$ is d-separated from $Y$ given $Z s$ if every path between $X$ and $Y$ is blocked by $Z s$
- $X$ is independent $Y$ given $Z s$ for all conditional probabilities iff $X$ is d-separated from $Y$ given $Z s$


## Example



- Are $X$ and $Y$ d-separated by $\}$ ?


## Example



- Are $X$ and $Y$ d-separated by $\}$ ?
- Are $X$ and $Y$ d-separated by $\{K\}$ ?


## Example



- Are $X$ and $Y$ d-separated by $\}$ ?
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- Are $X$ and $Y$ d-separated by $\{K, N\}$ ?


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- Are $X$ and $Y$ d-separated by $\{K, N, P\}$ ?


## Backdoor criterion



A set of variables $Z$ satisfies the backdoor criterion for $X$ and $Y$ with respect to directed acyclic graph $G$ if

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$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(Y \mid \operatorname{do}(X), Z)=P(Y \mid X, Z) \\
& \text { so, } P(Y \mid d o(X))=\sum_{Z} P(Y \mid X, Z) * P(Z)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Do-calculus

The do-calculus tells us how probability expressions involving the do-operator can be simplified.

- If $Z$ blocks all of the paths from $W$ to $Y$ in the graph obtained after removing all of the arcs into $X$, then

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These three rules are complete all cases where interventions can be reduced to observations follow from these rules.

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$$
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& =\sum_{M}^{M} P(E \mid \operatorname{do}(C), d o(M)) * P(M \mid \operatorname{do}(C)) \\
& =\sum_{M} P(E \mid \operatorname{do}(C), d o(M)) * P(M \mid C) \\
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## Front-door criterion (Cont.)



From last slide:

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P(E \mid d o(C))=\sum_{M} P(E \mid d o(M)) * P(M \mid C)
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$C^{\prime}$ closes the backdoor between $M$ and $E$, and there are no backdoors between $M$ and $C$, so:

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P(E \mid d o(M))=\sum_{C^{\prime}} P\left(E \mid d o(M), C^{\prime}\right) * P\left(C^{\prime} \mid d o(M)\right)
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So

$$
P(E \mid d o(C))=\sum_{M} P(M \mid C) * \sum_{C^{\prime}} P\left(E \mid M, C^{\prime}\right) * P\left(C^{\prime}\right)
$$

## Simpson's Paradox (Revisited)

1000 students, some a particular method for learning a concept (the treatment variable $T$ ),
whether they were judged to have understood the concept (evaluation $E$ )
for two subpopulations (one with $C=$ true and one with $C=f a l s e$ ):

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For each one, should we use subpopulations, or the combined population?

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- $Y$ is independent of $Z$ given $X$. The only way for $Z$ to affect $Y$ is to affect $X$.
- There is a strong association between $Z$ and $X$.


## Example



- You want $P($ Disease $\mid$ do(Drug $))$
- You create a randomized experiment where some people are assigned the drug and some are assigned a placebo.
- However, some people might not take the pill prescribed for them.

The do-calculus does not help here; the propensity to not take the drug might be highly correlated with the outcome.

## Example



| Assigned | Drug | Outcome | count |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| true | true | good | 300 |
| true | true | bad | 50 |
| true | false | good | 25 |
| true | false | bad | 125 |
| false | true | good | 0 |
| false | true | bad | 0 |
| false | false | good | 100 |
| false | false | bad | 400 |

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- If no non-compliers would have good outcome if they took the drug, --- patients taking the drug would have a good outcome.


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- If no non-compliers would have good outcome if they took the drug, 300 patients taking the drug would have a good outcome. - If all non-compliers would have good outcome if they took the drug, --- of the drug-taking patients would have a good outcome.


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- If no non-compliers would have good outcome if they took the drug, 300 patients taking the drug would have a good outcome. - If all non-compliers would have good outcome if they took the drug, 450 of the drug-taking patients would have a good outcome.


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$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0.6 \leq P(\text { Outcome }=\operatorname{good} \mid \operatorname{do}(\text { Drug }=\text { true })) \leq 0.9 \\
& P(\text { Outcome }=\operatorname{good} \mid \operatorname{do}(\text { Drug }=\text { false }))=0.2
\end{aligned}
$$

