

# Causal Inference in Machine Learning in Computational Biology

ICB Retreat, Kloster Irsee

October 25, 2016

F. Alexander Wolf | [falexwolf.de](http://falexwolf.de)  
Institute of Computational Biology  
Helmholtz Zentrum München

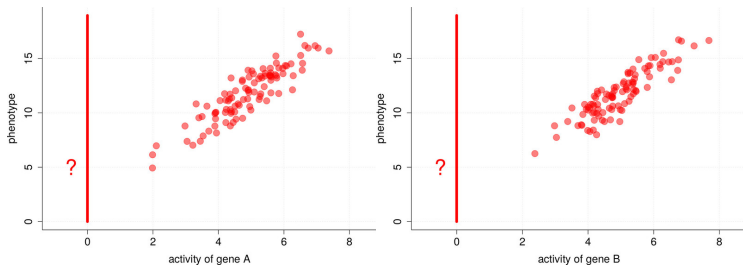
HelmholtzZentrum münchen  
Deutsches Forschungszentrum für Gesundheit und Umwelt



# Problem figures from Jonas Peters

Gene A and gene B both correlate with a phenotype.

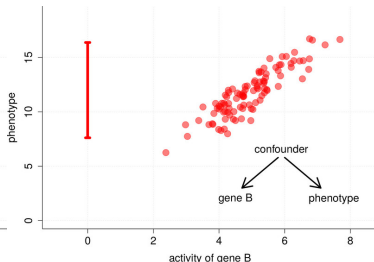
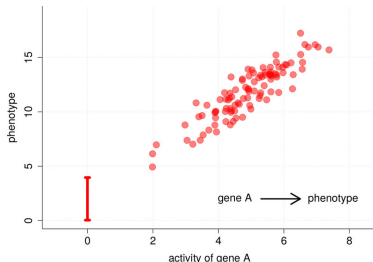
- ▷ What is the best prediction for the phenotype if we delete a gene?



# Problem figures from Jonas Peters

Gene A and gene B both correlate with a phenotype.

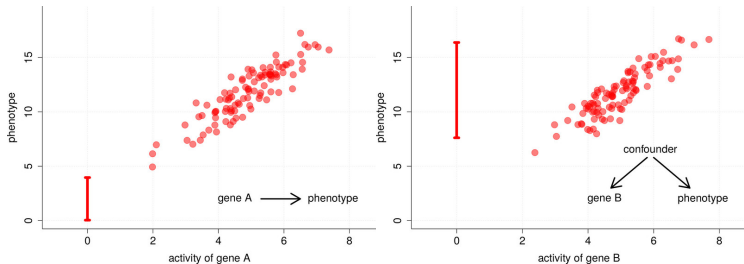
- ▷ What is the best prediction for the phenotype if we delete a gene?
- ▷ It certainly depends on the “causal structure” of the system.



# Problem figures from Jonas Peters

Gene A and gene B both correlate with a phenotype.

- ▷ What is the best prediction for the phenotype if we delete a gene?
- ▷ It certainly depends on the “causal structure” of the system.

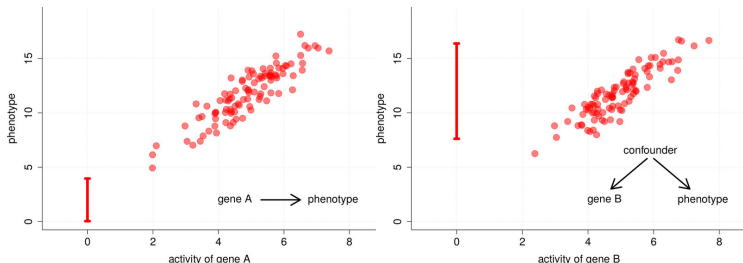


- ▷ To describe the *interventional* distribution, a **predictive** model needs to incorporate the causal structure of the system.

# Problem figures from Jonas Peters

Gene A and gene B both correlate with a phenotype.

- ▷ What is the best prediction for the phenotype if we delete a gene?
- ▷ It certainly depends on the “causal structure” of the system.



- ▷ To describe the *interventional* distribution, a **predictive** model needs to incorporate the causal structure of the system.

How trustworthy is a given Machine Learning model? ▷ Ribeiro, Singh & Guestrin, arXiv:1602.04938 (2016)

# Predictive models

- ▷ To fit the **observational data**, we need

$$Y = f(X_A, X_B) + N \mid \emptyset.$$

Predicts wrong interventional distribution.

# Predictive models

- ▷ To fit the **observational data**, we need

$$Y = f(X_A, X_B) + N \mid \emptyset.$$

Predicts wrong interventional distribution.

- ▷ To describe the **interventional data**, we'd rather set

$$Y = f(X_A) + N \mid \text{do}(X_B = 0).$$

Fails to describe observational distribution. Most likely, it's also terribly wrong in quantifying the effect of  $X_A$  on  $Y$ .

# Predictive models

- ▷ To fit the **observational data**, we need

$$Y = f(X_A, X_B) + N \mid \emptyset.$$

Predicts wrong interventional distribution.

- ▷ To describe the **interventional data**, we'd rather set

$$Y = f(X_A) + N \mid \text{do}(X_B = 0).$$

Fails to describe observational distribution. Most likely, it's also terribly wrong in quantifying the effect of  $X_A$  on  $Y$ .

- ▷ Measure the confounder  $X_C$ , and assume there are no further confounders. Then,

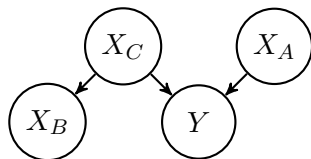
$$Y = f(X_A, X_C) + N \mid \emptyset \quad \text{or} \quad \text{do}(X_B = 0).$$

is a predictive model, which fits **both observational and interventional data**. Some people call it “**causal model**”.



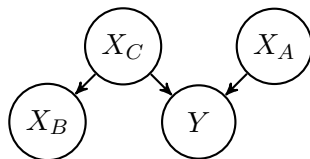
# Graphical models

Visualize **cause-effect** relations.



# Graphical models

Visualize **cause-effect relations**.

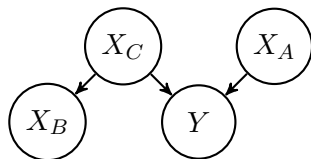


This “looks” like a **directed acyclic graphical (DAG) model**, which is a **conditional independence structure** that encodes

$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp \text{NonDescendants}(X_i) \mid \text{Parents}(X_i). \quad (\textit{Markov property})$$

# Graphical models

Visualize **cause-effect relations**.



This “looks” like a **directed acyclic graphical (DAG) model**, which is a **conditional independence structure** that encodes

$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp \text{NonDescendants}(X_i) \mid \text{Parents}(X_i). \quad (\text{Markov property})$$

If we specify the functional form that generates the distribution as

$$X_i = f_i(\text{Pa}(X_i), N_i),$$

we call the DAG **structural equation model**.

## Relation to causality

# Relation to causality

Observational distribution (*Markov factorization*)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d) = \prod_{i=1}^d p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i)) \stackrel{\text{e.g.}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^d \mathcal{N}(X_i | f_i(\text{Pa}(X_i)), \sigma^2)$$

# Relation to causality

Observational distribution (*Markov factorization*)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d) = \prod_{i=1}^d p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i)) \stackrel{\text{e.g.}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^d \mathcal{N}(X_i | f_i(\text{Pa}(X_i)), \sigma^2)$$

Interventional distribution (“surgery on the graph”)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d | \text{do}(X_j = x_j)) = \prod_{i \neq j} p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i), X_j = x_j)$$

# Relation to causality

Observational distribution (*Markov factorization*)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d) = \prod_{i=1}^d p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i)) \stackrel{\text{e.g.}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^d \mathcal{N}(X_i | f_i(\text{Pa}(X_i)), \sigma^2)$$

Interventional distribution (“surgery on the graph”)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d | \text{do}(X_j = x_j)) = \prod_{i \neq j} p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i), X_j = x_j)$$

- Correct interventional distributions are **only** obtained from the observational distribution, if **all edges** denote cause-effect relationships.

# Relation to causality

Observational distribution (*Markov factorization*)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d) = \prod_{i=1}^d p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i)) \stackrel{\text{e.g.}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^d \mathcal{N}(X_i | f_i(\text{Pa}(X_i)), \sigma^2)$$

Interventional distribution (“surgery on the graph”)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d | \text{do}(X_j = x_j)) = \prod_{i \neq j} p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i), X_j = x_j)$$

- Correct interventional distributions are **only** obtained from the observational distribution, if **all edges** denote cause-effect relationships.
  - ▷ The likelihood for interventional data is highly sensitive to non-causal edges.



# Relation to causality

Observational distribution (*Markov factorization*)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d) = \prod_{i=1}^d p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i)) \stackrel{\text{e.g.}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^d \mathcal{N}(X_i | f_i(\text{Pa}(X_i)), \sigma^2)$$

Interventional distribution (“surgery on the graph”)

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_d | \text{do}(X_j = x_j)) = \prod_{i \neq j} p(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i), X_j = x_j)$$

- Correct interventional distributions are **only** obtained from the observational distribution, if **all edges** denote cause-effect relationships.
  - ▷ The likelihood for interventional data is highly sensitive to non-causal edges.
  - ▷ The model can efficiently be learned and easily falsified.

# Structure Learning

How to learn conditional independence structure from data?

# Structure Learning

How to learn conditional independence structure from data?

- Constraint-based methods. [Pearl & Verma \(1991\)](#) [Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines \(2000\)](#)  
Perform systematic conditional independence tests.
- Score-based methods. [Chickering \(2002\)](#)  
Maximize the likelihood or posterior of a graphical model.

# Structure Learning

How to learn conditional independence structure from data?

- Constraint-based methods. [Pearl & Verma \(1991\)](#) [Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines \(2000\)](#)  
Perform systematic conditional independence tests.
  - + PC algorithm scales well to large dimensions.
  
- Score-based methods. [Chickering \(2002\)](#)  
Maximize the likelihood or posterior of a graphical model.
  - Does not scale.

# Structure Learning

How to learn conditional independence structure from data?

- Constraint-based methods. [Pearl & Verma \(1991\)](#) [Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines \(2000\)](#)  
Perform systematic conditional independence tests.
  - + PC algorithm scales well to large dimensions.
  - + Consistency results exist.
  
- Score-based methods. [Chickering \(2002\)](#)  
Maximize the likelihood or posterior of a graphical model.
  - Does not scale.
  - Consistency results only in low dimensions.

# Structure Learning

How to learn conditional independence structure from data?

- Constraint-based methods. [Pearl & Verma \(1991\)](#) [Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines \(2000\)](#)  
Perform systematic conditional independence tests.
  - + PC algorithm scales well to large dimensions.
  - + Consistency results exist.
  - “Not very reliable”.
- Score-based methods. [Chickering \(2002\)](#)  
Maximize the likelihood or posterior of a graphical model.
  - Does not scale.
  - Consistency results only in low dimensions.
  - + “More reliable”.

# Structure Learning

How to learn conditional independence structure from data?

- Constraint-based methods. [Pearl & Verma \(1991\)](#) [Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines \(2000\)](#)  
Perform systematic conditional independence tests.
  - + PC algorithm scales well to large dimensions.
  - + Consistency results exist.
  - “Not very reliable”.
  - Not a generative method.
- Score-based methods. [Chickering \(2002\)](#)  
Maximize the likelihood or posterior of a graphical model.
  - Does not scale.
  - Consistency results only in low dimensions.
  - + “More reliable”.
  - + Generative method.

# Structure Learning

How to learn conditional independence structure from data?

- Constraint-based methods. [Pearl & Verma \(1991\)](#) [Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines \(2000\)](#)  
Perform systematic conditional independence tests.
  - + PC algorithm scales well to large dimensions.
  - + Consistency results exist.
  - “Not very reliable”.
  - Not a generative method.
  - Problematic in the presence of hidden variables.
- Score-based methods. [Chickering \(2002\)](#)  
Maximize the likelihood or posterior of a graphical model.
  - Does not scale.
  - Consistency results only in low dimensions.
  - + “More reliable”.
  - + Generative method.
  - + Bayesian ansatz allows to resolve hidden variables.



# SGS and PC algorithm [Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines \(2000\)](#)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.

# SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

# SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

SGS Test all combinations and conditions  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | S$ .

# SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

SGS Test all combinations and conditions  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | S$ .

PC(a) Test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \emptyset$ .

# SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

SGS Test all combinations and conditions  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | S$ .

PC(a) Test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \emptyset$ .

- (b) On remaining edges and connected components, test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | X_k$ .

# SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

SGS Test all combinations and conditions  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | S$ .

PC(a) Test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \emptyset$ .

(b) On remaining edges and connected components, test  
 $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | X_k$ .

(c) And so forth.

# SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

SGS Test all combinations and conditions  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | S$ .

PC(a) Test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \emptyset$ .

(b) On remaining edges and connected components, test  
 $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | X_k$ .

(c) And so forth.

3. Orient edges, where possible: *colliders*.

## SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

SGS Test all combinations and conditions  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | S$ .

PC(a) Test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \emptyset$ .

(b) On remaining edges and connected components, test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | X_k$ .

(c) And so forth.

3. Orient edges, where possible: *colliders*.

## Greedy equivalence search Chickering (2002)

GES is most popular score-based method.

1. Start with an empty graph.



## SGS and PC algorithm Spirtes, Glymour & Scheines (2000)

PC algorithm is most popular constraint-based method.

1. Start with a fully connected graph.
2. Reduce edges by conditional independence tests.

SGS Test all combinations and conditions  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | S$ .

PC(a) Test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \emptyset$ .

(b) On remaining edges and connected components, test  $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | X_k$ .

(c) And so forth.

3. Orient edges, where possible: *colliders*.

## Greedy equivalence search Chickering (2002)

GES is most popular score-based method.

1. Start with an empty graph.
2. Greedily add edges by computing a score, usually the likelihood.

## Note: Faithfulness and Biological Networks

- A distribution is *faithful* to the graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , if there are no other independence relations than those encoded in the graph.
  - ▷ All variable couplings in the distribution lead to statistical association.

# Note: Faithfulness and Biological Networks

- A distribution is *faithful* to the graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , if there are no other independence relations than those encoded in the graph.
  - ▷ All variable couplings in the distribution lead to statistical association.

One can easily construct distributions that do not show statistical associations between coupled variables. For example,

$$Y = (X_1 \wedge \overline{X_2}) \vee (\overline{X_1} \wedge X_2), \quad X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5),$$

implies

$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 \quad Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2.$$

# Note: Faithfulness and Biological Networks

- A distribution is *faithful* to the graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , if there are no other independence relations than those encoded in the graph.
  - ▷ All variable couplings in the distribution lead to statistical association.

One can easily construct distributions that do not show statistical associations between coupled variables. For example,

$$Y = (X_1 \wedge \overline{X_2}) \vee (\overline{X_1} \wedge X_2), \quad X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5),$$

implies

$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 \quad Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2.$$

Then, only the interventional distribution shows association

$$Y = X_1 \mid \text{do}(X_2 = 0), \quad X_1 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5).$$

# Note: Faithfulness and Biological Networks

- A distribution is *faithful* to the graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , if there are no other independence relations than those encoded in the graph.
  - ▷ All variable couplings in the distribution lead to statistical association.

One can easily construct distributions that do not show statistical associations between coupled variables. For example,

$$Y = (X_1 \wedge \overline{X}_2) \vee (\overline{X}_1 \wedge X_2), \quad X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5),$$

implies

$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 \quad Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2.$$

Then, only the interventional distribution shows association

$$Y = X_1 \mid \text{do}(X_2 = 0), \quad X_1 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5).$$

- ▷ Aside from **unmeasured confounders**, violated **faithfulness** poses the strongest limitation to causal conclusions in biology.

# Time series data

Consider a  $d$ -dimensional time series  $X_{ti}$ , for example

$$X_{t1} = X_{(t-1)1} + N_{t1}$$

$$X_{t2} = X_{(t-1)2} + N_{t2}$$

$$X_{t3} = X_{(t-1)1} \wedge \overline{X}_{(t-1)2} + N_{t3}$$

# Time series data

Consider a  $d$ -dimensional time series  $X_{ti}$ , for example

$$X_{t1} = X_{(t-1)1} + N_{t1}$$

$$X_{t2} = X_{(t-1)2} + N_{t2}$$

$$X_{t3} = X_{(t-1)1} \wedge \overline{X}_{(t-1)2} + N_{t3}$$

$$X_{(t-2)1} \rightarrow X_{(t-1)1} \longrightarrow X_{t1}$$

The diagram illustrates dependencies between time steps for dimensions 2 and 3. For dimension 2, there is a horizontal arrow from  $X_{(t-2)2}$  to  $X_{(t-1)2}$  and another from  $X_{(t-1)2}$  to  $X_{t2}$ . For dimension 3, there is a horizontal arrow from  $X_{(t-2)3}$  to  $X_{(t-1)3}$  and another from  $X_{(t-1)3}$  to  $X_{t3}$ . Additionally, there are diagonal arrows from  $X_{(t-2)2}$  to  $X_{(t-1)3}$  and from  $X_{(t-1)2}$  to  $X_{t3}$ , indicating cross-dimensional dependencies.

# Time series data

Consider a  $d$ -dimensional time series  $X_{ti}$ , for example

$$X_{t1} = X_{(t-1)1} + N_{t1}$$

$$X_{t2} = X_{(t-1)2} + N_{t2}$$

$$X_{t3} = X_{(t-1)1} \wedge \overline{X}_{(t-1)2} + N_{t3}$$

$$X_{(t-2)1} \rightarrow X_{(t-1)1} \longrightarrow X_{t1}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ X_{(t-2)2} & \searrow & X_{(t-1)2} & \longrightarrow & X_{t2} \\ & \searrow & & \searrow & \\ & & X_{(t-1)3} & & \\ X_{(t-2)3} & & & & X_{t3} \end{array}$$

- Time ordering **resolves directions** on the graph!

▷ Here:  $X_{t2} \perp\!\!\!\perp X_{(t-1)3} | X_{(t-1)2}$ , but  $X_{t3} \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_{(t-1)2} | X_{(t-1)3}$ .



# Time series data

Consider a  $d$ -dimensional time series  $X_{ti}$ , for example

$$X_{t1} = X_{(t-1)1} + N_{t1}$$

$$X_{t2} = X_{(t-1)2} + N_{t2}$$

$$X_{t3} = X_{(t-1)1} \wedge \overline{X}_{(t-1)2} + N_{t3}$$

$$X_{(t-2)1} \rightarrow X_{(t-1)1} \longrightarrow X_{t1}$$

$$X_{(t-2)2} \searrow X_{(t-1)2} \longrightarrow X_{t2}$$

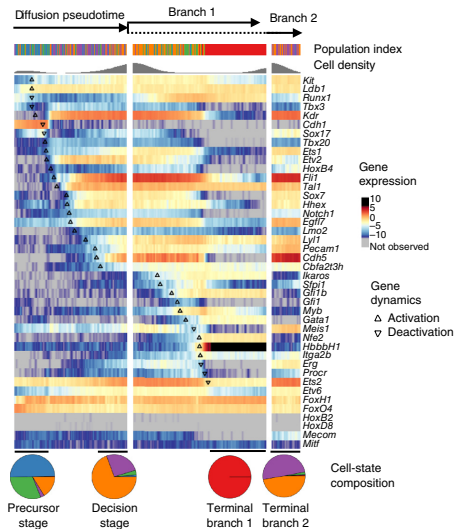
$$X_{(t-2)3} \searrow X_{(t-1)3} \searrow X_{t3}$$

- Time ordering **resolves directions** on the graph!

▷ Here:  $X_{t2} \perp\!\!\!\perp X_{(t-1)3} | X_{(t-1)2}$ , but  $X_{t3} \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_{(t-1)2} | X_{(t-1)3}$ .

- Granger Causality** and **Transfer Entropy** correspond to specific tests in the PC algorithm, but get the example above wrong.

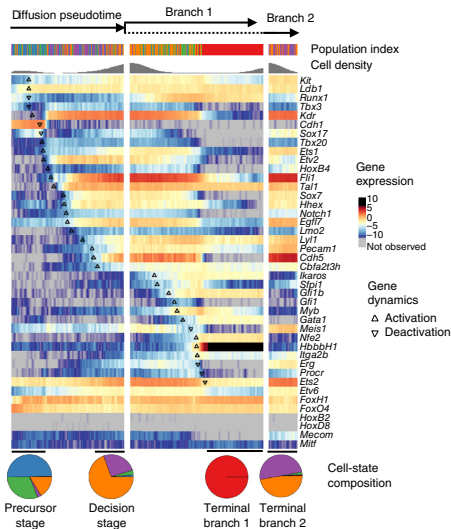
# Inferring gene regulation from single-cell data



Haghverdi, Büttner, Wolf, Buettner & Theis,  
Nature Methods 13, 845 (2016)

# Inferring gene regulation from single-cell data

Structure learning on gene expression pseudotime series is hard.

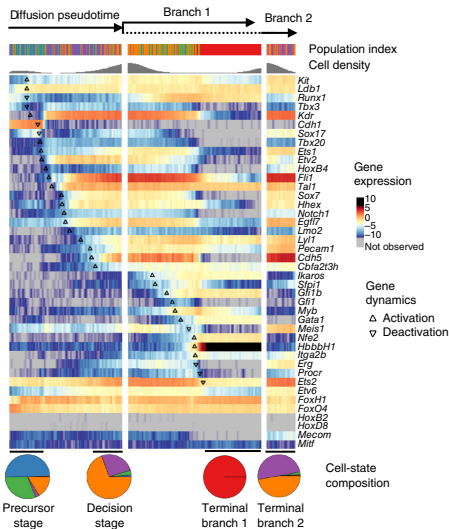


Haghverdi, Büttner, Wolf, Buettner & Theis,  
Nature Methods 13, 845 (2016)

# Inferring gene regulation from single-cell data

Structure learning on gene expression pseudotime series is hard.

- Few dynamic noise. Relatively non-informative Hill kinetics.

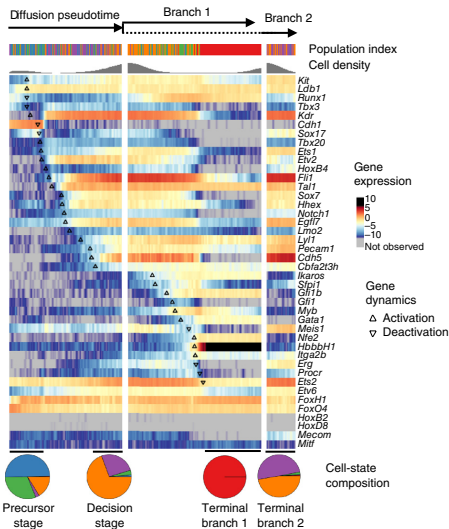


Haghverdi, Büttner, Wolf, Buettner & Theis,  
Nature Methods 13, 845 (2016)

# Inferring gene regulation from single-cell data

Structure learning on gene expression pseudotime series is hard.

- Few dynamic noise. Relatively non-informative Hill kinetics.
- ▷ Use global geometric properties of the data.

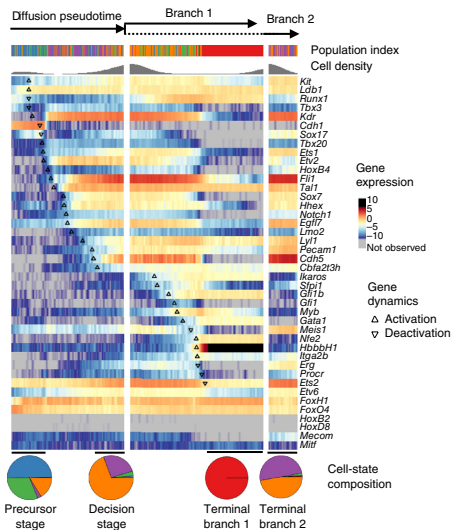


Haghverdi, Büttner, Wolf, Buettner & Theis,  
Nature Methods 13, 845 (2016)

# Inferring gene regulation from single-cell data

Structure learning on gene expression pseudotime series is hard.

- Few dynamic noise. Relatively non-informative Hill kinetics.
- ▷ Use global geometric properties of the data.
- ▷ Developed PC algorithm with tests of functional relations instead of statistical associations.



Haghverdi, Büttner, Wolf, Buettner & Theis,  
Nature Methods 13, 845 (2016)

# Learning undirected Gaussian graphical models

- Learning the structure of undirected graphical models is easier than learning DAG structure because we don't need to worry about acyclicity.

# Learning undirected Gaussian graphical models

- Learning the structure of undirected graphical models is easier than learning DAG structure because we don't need to worry about acyclicity.
- It is harder than learning DAG structure since the likelihood does not decompose, i.e. no greedy technique can be employed. Only in the Gaussian case, there is an immediate solution.



# Learning undirected Gaussian graphical models

- Learning the structure of undirected graphical models is easier than learning DAG structure because we don't need to worry about acyclicity.
- It is harder than learning DAG structure since the likelihood does not decompose, i.e. no greedy technique can be employed. Only in the Gaussian case, there is an immediate solution.

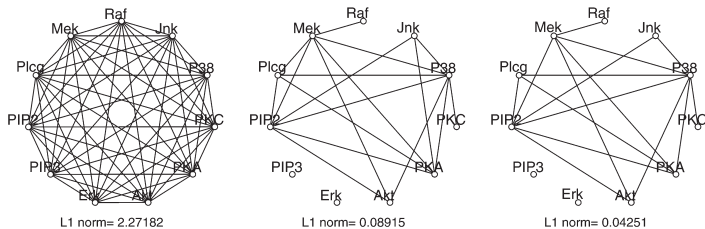
Graphical Lasso [Friedman, Hastie & Tibshirani, Biostatistics 9, 432 \(2008\)](#)

$$\text{cost}(\Sigma^{-1}) = \underbrace{-\log \det(\Sigma^{-1}) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{S}\Sigma)}_{-\text{loglikelihood}} + \underbrace{\lambda \|\Sigma^{-1}\|_1}_{\text{sparsity prior}}$$

The precision matrix  $\Sigma^{-1}$  receives an  $L_1$  prior.

▷ Limitations: Gaussian data. No causal interpretation.

# Learning undirected Gaussian graphical models



data from [Sachs, Perez, Pe'er, Lauffenburger & Nolan, Science 308, 523 \(2005\)](#)

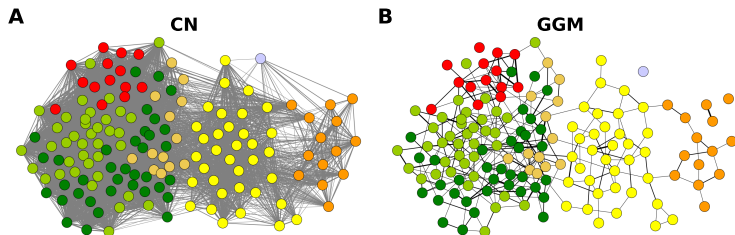
**Graphical Lasso** [Friedman, Hastie & Tibshirani, Biostatistics 9, 432 \(2008\)](#)

$$\text{cost}(\Sigma^{-1}) = \underbrace{-\log \det(\Sigma^{-1}) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{S}\Sigma)}_{-\log\text{likelihood}} + \underbrace{\lambda \|\Sigma^{-1}\|_1}_{\text{sparsity prior}}$$

The precision matrix  $\Sigma^{-1}$  receives an  $L_1$  prior.

▷ Limitations: Gaussian data. No causal interpretation.

# Learning undirected Gaussian graphical models



Krumsiek, Suhre, Illig, Adamski & Theis, BMC Systems Biology 5, 21 (2011)

Graphical Lasso Friedman, Hastie & Tibshirani, Biostatistics 9, 432 (2008)

$$\text{cost}(\Sigma^{-1}) = \underbrace{-\log \det(\Sigma^{-1}) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{S}\Sigma)}_{-\log\text{likelihood}} + \underbrace{\lambda \|\Sigma^{-1}\|_1}_{\text{sparsity prior}}$$

The precision matrix  $\Sigma^{-1}$  receives an  $L_1$  prior.

▷ Limitations: Gaussian data. No causal interpretation.

# Causal Inference

# Causal Inference

There are two problems known as “causal inference”. [Shalizi, Chap. 25 \(2016\)](#)

# Causal Inference

There are two problems known as “causal inference”. [Shalizi, Chap. 25 \(2016\)](#)

- Given data about a system, find its causal structure.

# Causal Inference

There are two problems known as “causal inference”. [Shalizi, Chap. 25 \(2016\)](#)

- Given data about a system, find its causal structure.
- Given the causal structure of a system, estimate effects variables have on each other.

# Causal Inference

There are two problems known as “causal inference”. [Shalizi, Chap. 25 \(2016\)](#)

- Given data about a system, find its causal structure.
- Given the causal structure of a system, estimate effects variables have on each other.

We mostly talked about the first topic, because it's “more related to machine learning”.



# Causal Inference

There are two problems known as “causal inference”. [Shalizi, Chap. 25 \(2016\)](#)

- Given data about a system, find its causal structure.
- Given the causal structure of a system, estimate effects variables have on each other.

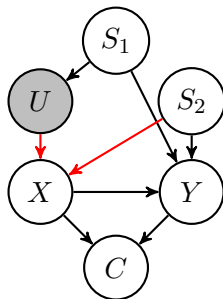
We mostly talked about the first topic, because it's “more related to machine learning”.

Note: Very often, people estimate causal structure from subject knowledge.

# Estimate effects variables have on each other

## Backdoor criterion

How to compute a causal effect in this graph?



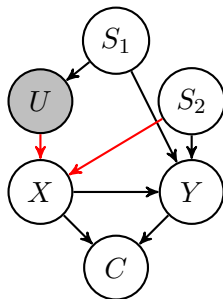
# Estimate effects variables have on each other

## Backdoor criterion

How to compute a causal effect in this graph?

Block all causal pathways by conditioning on the right set of variables  $S = \{S_1, S_2\}$ .

$$p(Y|\text{do}(X)) = \sum_s p(Y|X, S=s)p(S=s)$$



# Estimate effects variables have on each other

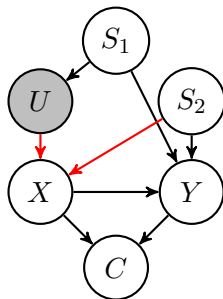
## Backdoor criterion

How to compute a causal effect in this graph?

Block all causal pathways by conditioning on the right set of variables  $S = \{S_1, S_2\}$ .

$$p(Y|\text{do}(X)) = \sum_s p(Y|X, S=s)p(S=s)$$

▷ Propensity scores.



# Estimate effects variables have on each other

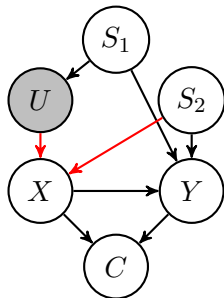
## Backdoor criterion

How to compute a causal effect in this graph?

Block all causal pathways by conditioning on the right set of variables  $S = \{S_1, S_2\}$ .

$$p(Y|\text{do}(X)) = \sum_s p(Y|X, S=s)p(S=s)$$

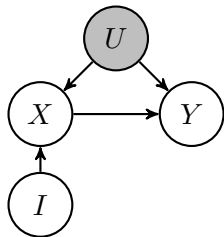
▷ Propensity scores.



## Instrumental variables

You have no clue how to block all causal pathways, but you have some “external” way of varying  $X$ . Then

$$\beta = \frac{\text{Cov}(I, Y)}{\text{Cov}(I, X)}.$$



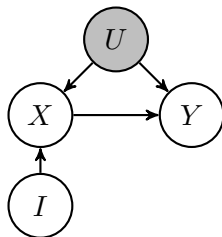
# Estimate effects variables have on each other

- ▷ Randomization:  $I$  is coin toss that assigns treatment.

## Instrumental variables

You have no clue how to block all causal pathways, but you have some “external” way of varying  $X$ . Then

$$\beta = \frac{\text{Cov}(I, Y)}{\text{Cov}(I, X)}.$$



# Estimate effects variables have on each other

- ▷ Randomization:  $I$  is coin toss that assigns treatment.
- ▷ Mendelian randomization, e.g. to investigate causal effect of Gene Expression on Metabolite Level

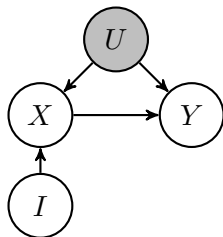
$$\beta = \frac{\text{Cov}(\text{SNP}, \text{MetaboliteLevel})}{\text{Cov}(\text{SNP}, \text{GeneExpression})}$$

Shin, Fauman, Petersen, Krumsiek & et al., Nature Genetics 46, 543 (2014)

## Instrumental variables

You have no clue how to block all causal pathways, but you have some “external” way of varying  $X$ . Then

$$\beta = \frac{\text{Cov}(I, Y)}{\text{Cov}(I, X)}.$$



# Summary

Directed graphical models can be used to “organize” causal reasoning.



# Summary

Directed graphical models can be used to “organize” causal reasoning.

- ▷ Inference using constraint or score based methods.

# Summary

Directed graphical models can be used to “organize” causal reasoning.

- ▷ Inference using constraint or score based methods.
- ▷ Time series data helps identifying causal directions.

# Summary

Directed graphical models can be used to “organize” causal reasoning.

- ▷ Inference using constraint or score based methods.
- ▷ Time series data helps identifying causal directions.
- ▷ Have the potential to improve on inference of biological networks?

Sachs, Perez, Pe'er, Lauffenburger & Nolan, Science 308, 523 (2005)

Maathuis, Colombo, Kalisch & Bühlmann, Nature Methods 7, 247 (2010)

Hill et al., Nature Methods 13, 310 (2016)

# Summary

Directed graphical models can be used to “organize” causal reasoning.

- ▷ Inference using constraint or score based methods.
- ▷ Time series data helps identifying causal directions.
- ▷ Have the potential to improve on inference of biological networks?

Sachs, Perez, Pe'er, Lauffenburger & Nolan, Science 308, 523 (2005)

Maathuis, Colombo, Kalisch & Bühlmann, Nature Methods 7, 247 (2010)

Hill et al., Nature Methods 13, 310 (2016)

Thank you! Thanks to Fabian and all  
members of ICB-ML!

# Transfer Entropy [Schreiber \(2000\)](#) and Granger Causality [Granger \(1969\)](#)

# Transfer Entropy [Schreiber \(2000\)](#) and Granger Causality [Granger \(1969\)](#)

Consider a  $d$ -dimensional time series  $X_{ti}$ .

- Transfer Entropy is conditional mutual information

$$\begin{aligned}\text{TE}_{i \rightarrow j} &= \text{MI}_{X_{(t-1)i}; X_{tj} | S} \\ &= H_{X_{tj} | S} - H_{X_{tj} | X_{(t-1)i}, S}\end{aligned}$$

where originally,  $S = X_{(t-1)j}$ , and later  $S = \{\text{all observed variables}\}$ .

# Transfer Entropy [Schreiber \(2000\)](#) and Granger Causality [Granger \(1969\)](#)

Consider a  $d$ -dimensional time series  $X_{ti}$ .

- Transfer Entropy is conditional mutual information

$$\begin{aligned}\text{TE}_{i \rightarrow j} &= \text{MI}_{X_{(t-1)i}; X_{tj} | S} \\ &= H_{X_{tj} | S} - H_{X_{tj} | X_{(t-1)i}, S}\end{aligned}$$

where originally,  $S = X_{(t-1)j}$ , and later  $S = \{\text{all observed variables}\}$ .

- Granger Causality is “almost the same”

$$\text{GC}_{i \rightarrow j} = \log(\Sigma_{X_{tj} | S}) - \log(\Sigma_{X_{tj} | X_{(t-1)i}, S}),$$

we just measure uncertainty by covariance instead of entropy. In the Gaussian case, GC is equivalent with TE. [Barnett, Barrett & Seth, PRL 103, 238701 \(2009\)](#)

# Transfer Entropy [Schreiber \(2000\)](#) and Granger Causality [Granger \(1969\)](#)

Consider a  $d$ -dimensional time series  $X_{ti}$ .

- Transfer Entropy is conditional mutual information

$$\begin{aligned}\text{TE}_{i \rightarrow j} &= \text{MI}_{X_{(t-1)i}; X_{tj} | S} \\ &= H_{X_{tj} | S} - H_{X_{tj} | X_{(t-1)i}, S}\end{aligned}$$

where originally,  $S = X_{(t-1)j}$ , and later  $S = \{\text{all observed variables}\}$ .

- Granger Causality is “almost the same”

$$\text{GC}_{i \rightarrow j} = \log(\Sigma_{X_{tj} | S}) - \log(\Sigma_{X_{tj} | X_{(t-1)i}, S}),$$

we just measure uncertainty by covariance instead of entropy. In the Gaussian case, GC is equivalent with TE. [Barnett, Barrett & Seth, PRL 103, 238701 \(2009\)](#)

- ▷ Estimators for MI (in the Gaussian case, partial correlation) are popular for measuring conditional independence — their computation amounts to evaluating a single test in the PC algorithm.



# Limitations of Transfer Entropy and Granger Causality

- Conditioning on all variables leads to a terrible *curse of dimensionality*.

# Limitations of Transfer Entropy and Granger Causality

- Conditioning on all variables leads to a terrible *curse of dimensionality*.
- Say  $X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5)$  describe the expression of two independent genes, and  $X_3 = X_1 + X_2$  their sum. Then  $X_3$  is a *collider* in the graph

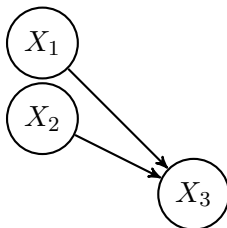
$$X_1 \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3. \quad (\text{compare "selection bias"})$$

# Limitations of Transfer Entropy and Granger Causality

- Conditioning on all variables leads to a terrible *curse of dimensionality*.
- Say  $X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5)$  describe the expression of two independent genes, and  $X_3 = X_1 + X_2$  their sum. Then  $X_3$  is a *collider* in the graph

$$X_1 \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3. \quad (\text{compare "selection bias"})$$

- ▷ Granger Causality and Transfer Entropy yield an information flow  $X_{(t-1)1} \rightarrow X_{t2}$ . But it's non-causal, i.e. not helpful for prediction!

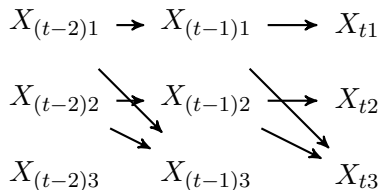


# Limitations of Transfer Entropy and Granger Causality

- Conditioning on all variables leads to a terrible *curse of dimensionality*.
- Say  $X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5)$  describe the expression of two independent genes, and  $X_3 = X_1 + X_2$  their sum. Then  $X_3$  is a *collider* in the graph

$$X_1 \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3. \quad (\text{compare "selection bias"})$$

- ▷ Granger Causality and Transfer Entropy yield an information flow  $X_{(t-1)1} \rightarrow X_{t2}$ . But it's non-causal, i.e. not helpful for prediction!

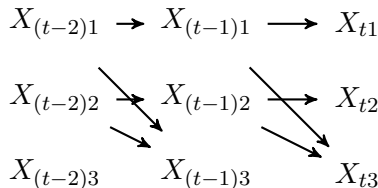


# Limitations of Transfer Entropy and Granger Causality

- Conditioning on all variables leads to a terrible *curse of dimensionality*.
- Say  $X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Ber}(0.5)$  describe the expression of two independent genes, and  $X_3 = X_1 + X_2$  their sum. Then  $X_3$  is a *collider* in the graph

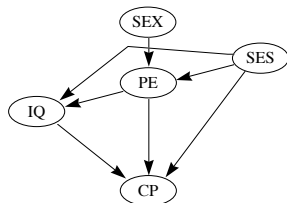
$$X_1 \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3. \quad (\text{compare "selection bias"})$$

- ▷ Granger Causality and Transfer Entropy yield an information flow  $X_{(t-1)1} \rightarrow X_{t2}$ . But it's non-causal, i.e. not helpful for prediction!



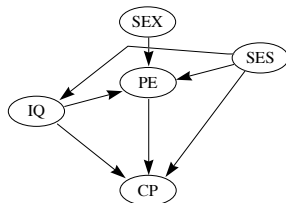
- General Note: Time Series data very helpful to resolve directions!

# College admission example Heckerman, Meek & Cooper (1997)



$$\log p(D | \mathbf{m}_1) \approx -45653$$

$$p(\mathbf{m}_1 | D) \approx 1.0$$



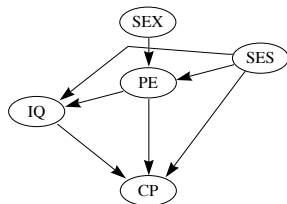
$$\log p(D | \mathbf{m}_2) \approx -45699$$

$$p(\mathbf{m}_2 | D) \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-10}$$

- PC algorithm chooses second most likely model! After it decides that SEX and IQ are marginally independent, it never considers the independence of SEX and IQ given PE.

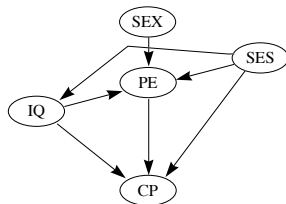
# College admission example

Heckerman, Meek & Cooper (1997)



$$\log p(D | \mathbf{m}_1) \approx -45653$$

$$p(\mathbf{m}_1 | D) \approx 1.0$$

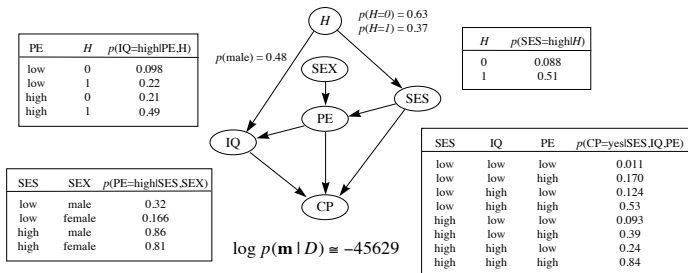


$$\log p(D | \mathbf{m}_2) \approx -45699$$

$$p(\mathbf{m}_2 | D) \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-10}$$

- PC algorithm chooses second most likely model! After it decides that SEX and IQ are marginally independent, it never considers the independence of SEX and IQ given PE.
- Most of the most likely model seems plausible in terms of a causal interpretation. The direct influence of SES on IQ though is likely to be due to a hidden common cause, e.g. IQ of parents.

# College admission example Heckerman, Meek & Cooper (1997)



- PC algorithm chooses second most likely model! After it decides that  $SEX$  and  $IQ$  are marginally independent, it never considers the independence of  $SEX$  and  $IQ$  given  $PE$ .
- Most of the most likely model seems plausible in terms of a causal interpretation. The direct influence of  $SES$  on  $IQ$  though is likely to be due to a hidden common cause, e.g. IQ of parents.



- Barnett, L., A. B. Barrett & A. K. Seth, 2009, *Physical Review Letters* **103**, 238701.
- Chickering, D. M., 2002, *The Journal of Machine Learning Research* **2**, 445.
- Friedman, J., T. Hastie & R. Tibshirani, 2008, *Biostatistics* **9**, 432.
- Granger, C. W. J., 1969, *Econometrica* **37**, 424.
- Haghverdi, L., M. Büttner, F. A. Wolf, F. Buettner & F. J. Theis, 2016, *Nature Methods* **13**, 845.
- Heckerman, D., C. Meek & G. Cooper, 1997, Technical Report MSR-TR- 97-05, Microsoft Research .
- Hill, S. M., L. M. Heiser, T. Cokelaer, M. Unger, N. K. Nesser, D. E. Carlin, Y. Zhang, A. Sokolov, E. O. Paull, C. K. Wong, K. Graim, A. Bivol et al., 2016, *Nature Methods* **13**, 310.
- Krumsiek, J., K. Suhre, T. Illig, J. Adamski & F. J. Theis, 2011, *BMC Syst. Biol.* **5**, 21.
- Maathuis, M. H., D. Colombo, M. Kalisch & P. Bühlmann, 2010, *Nature Methods* **7**, 247.
- Pearl, J. & T. Verma, 1991, A Theory of Inferred Causation, in *Principles of Knowledge Representation and Reasoning: Proceeding of the Second International Conference*, pp. 441–452.
- Ribeiro, M. T., S. Singh & C. Guestrin, 2016, 1602.04938.
- Sachs, K., O. Perez, D. Pe'er, D. A. Lauffenburger & G. P. Nolan, 2005, *Science* **308**, 523.
- Schreiber, T., 2000, *Physical Review Letters* **85**, 461.
- Shalizi, C. R., 2016, *Advanced Data Analysis from an Elementary Point of View* (Cambridge University Press).
- Shin, S.-Y., E. B. Fauman, A.-K. Petersen, J. Krumsiek & et al., 2014, *Nature Genetics* **46**, 543.
- Spirtes, P., C. Glymour & R. Scheines, 2000, *Causation, Prediction, and Search* (MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, USA), 2nd edition.