

Causal Inference

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References:

- Easy:
 - Hurwitz, Thompson: Causal Artificial Intelligence: The Next Step in Effective Business AI, 2024
- Medium / Difficult
 - AIMA
 - Facuce

- ***Causal AI***
 - Why Causal AI?
 - The Ladder of Causation
 - Correlation vs Causation Models
- Causal Networks
- Business Processes Around Data Modeling

- Causal AI
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Big Data and Traditional AI

- For the past 10 years, **focus of analytics** on:
 - Organize and analyze massive amount of data
 - Data analytics (dashboards, models, reports)
 - Run machine learning on data
- Problems with **traditional AI**
 - Predicts based on observed correlations
 - Can't explain why an outcome occurred
- **AI in decision making**
 - Understand impact of decisions
 - E.g., "*What happens if a product price is reduced by 10%?*"
 - Will more customers buy?
 - If revenue decreases, what to do?
 - Why are customers leaving? Quality issue? Emerging competitor?

What Are Data Analytics?

- **Collections of data**

- Aggregated, organized data sets for analysis
- E.g., customer purchase histories in a CRM system

- **Dashboards**

- Visual displays of key metrics for insights
- E.g., dashboard showing quarterly revenue, expenses

- **Descriptive statistics**

- Summary metrics: mean, median, mode, standard deviation
- E.g., average sales per quarter to understand trends

- **Historical reports**

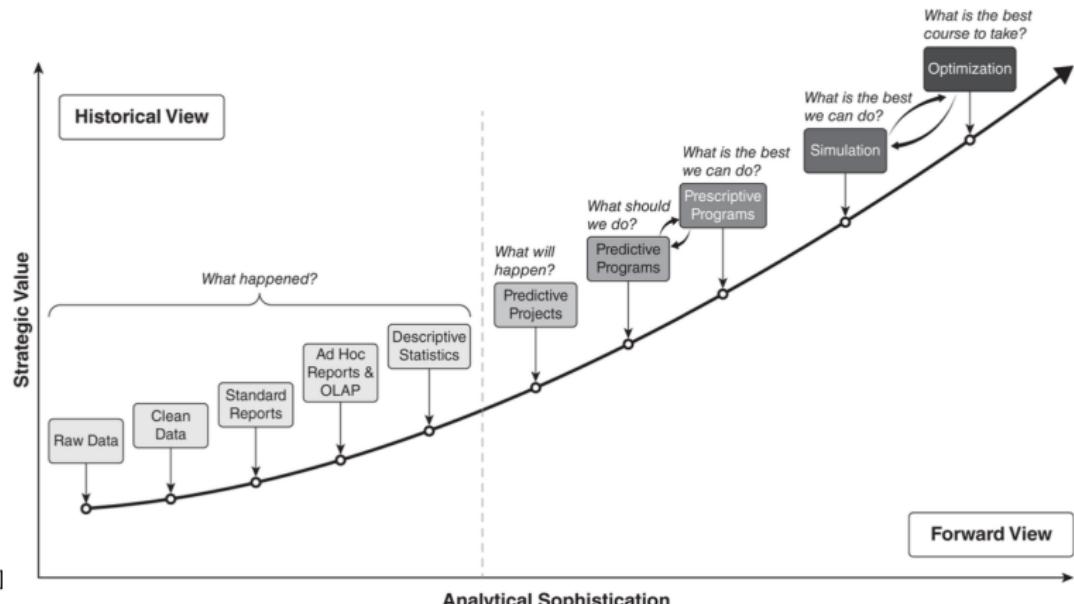
- Examination of past performance
- E.g., monthly sales reports for past fiscal year

- **Models**

- Statistical representations to forecast, explain phenomena
- E.g., predictive model to anticipate customer churn based on behavioral data

Data Analytics Sophistication

| Business Question | Methodology |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| What happened? | Descriptive statistics |
| What will happen? | Predictive models |
| What should we do? | Prescriptive programs |
| What's the best we can do? | Simulation + optimization |



Explainability

- **Regulators** require that if you are making decisions using ML / AI, you should be able to defend the results of your analysis
 - E.g., decide who to hire, how to set up a policy
- Organizations can:
 - Be **fined** by regulatory authorities
 - Face **backlash** from customers and activists
- E.g., neural networks are “black boxes”
 - Lack of explainability
 - Humans can’t understand how inputs are combined into a conclusion
 - Cannot explain to shareholders why certain decisions were made
 - Bias
 - E.g., using age, race, sex as a feature can introduce bias
- **Explainable AI** allow users to:
 - Comprehend
 - Explain
 - Trust the results by the machine

Correlation is Not Causation!

- **Correlation** is a statistical method for understanding relationships between data
 - Pros
 - Use past outcomes to predict future outcomes by finding patterns and anomalies
 - Cons
 - Doesn't explain the cause
 - Variables may move together due to coincidence or a hidden factor
- **Causation** explains how changing one variable influences the other
 - Cannot be concluded from correlation alone
- **Data does not understand causes and effects**
 - Only humans can identify variables and relationships based on context
 - Without causation, you can't make intelligent decisions

Causal AI

- **Understands the why**
 - Determines cause-and-effect between variables
 - E.g., whether a marketing campaign increased sales
- **Identify interventions**
 - Identifies variables and interventions to change outcomes
 - E.g., which lifestyle changes reduce blood pressure
- **Predicting counterfactuals**
 - Hypothesizes outcomes under different circumstances
 - E.g., student grades if they attended a different school
- **Avoiding bias**
 - Traditional AI biased by training data and ignored variables
 - Ensure fairness by accounting for confounding variables
- **Improving decision-making**
 - Provides understanding of relationships for better decisions
 - E.g., improving supply chain by understanding logistic impact

Causal AI vs Traditional AI

- “*The next revolution of data science is the science of interpreting reality, not of summarizing data*” (Judea Pearl, 2021)
- Current AI uses correlation to:
 - Analyze data
 - Identify patterns
 - Make predictions
- Models depend on data quality
 - Biased or unclean data \implies poor model

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The Ladder of Causation

- Pearl provided a 3-layer framework for understanding causality

| Level | Symbol | Activity | Typical Questions |
|--------------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| 1. Association | $\Pr(Y X)$ | Observing | What is? |
| 2. Intervention | $\Pr(Y do(X), Z)$ | Intervening | What if? |
| 3. Counterfactuals | $\Pr(Y_x x', y')$ | Imagining | Why? |

Rung 1: Association

- **Question:** “*How would seeing X change our belief in Y?*”
- **Symbol:** $\text{Pr}(Y|X)$
 - Bayesian update
- **Activity**
 - It is just “passive observation”
 - Determine if two things are related
 - Traditional AI and ML is based on this
- **Example**
 - “*The tree has green leaves during spring*”
 - “*What does a symptom tell you about a disease?*”
 - “*What does a survey tell you about the election results?*”

Rung 2: Intervention

- **Question:** “What happens to Y if you do X ? ”
- **Symbol:** $\Pr(Y|do(X), Z)$
- **Activity**
 - Understand the impact of an action
 - E.g., “tree has green leaves” vs “spring makes tree leaves turn green”
 - Association is just about observations
 - Interventions involve “doing something” and need a causal model
- **Example**
 - “Why did the headache go away?”
 - “Because the pain reliever” or “Because you ate food after skipping lunch”
 - “If you take aspirin, will your headache be cured?”
 - “What if you ban sodas?”

Rung 3: Counterfactuals

- **Question:** “Was X that caused Y ? ”
- **Symbol:** $\Pr(Y_x|x',y')$
- **Activity:**
 - Imagine what will happen if facts were different
 - Predicting an outcome is the highest form of reasoning
 - It requires to understand relationships between cause and effect
- **Example**
 - Scientific experiments: “*What if we give a child an adult dose of a drug?*”
 - Litigation: “*What would the jury conclude?*”
 - Marketing: “*Why did my marketing campaign fail to generate sales?*”

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Correlation vs Causation Model

- **Correlation** = identify how variables are related to each other
- **Causality** = determine whether one variable causes another variable
 - Both:
 - Accept inputs and transform them to compute predictions
 - Identify how variables are related to each other
 - Correlation-based AI works well when there is abundant historical and observational data
 - Causal-based AI first creates a business-focused model before integrating data

Correlation-Based Model Process

- **Correlation-based AI** is “data first”
 - The more data collected the better
- **Modeling process**
 - Acquire data
 - Integrate and clean data
 - Exploratory data analysis (EDA)
 - Feature engineering
 - Build and test models
 - Deploy models in production
- **Many AI projects fail because**
 - Cultural and organizational issues
 - Models are opaque and lack explainability
 - Spurious correlations
 - Missing articulating “what’s the goal of doing ML?”

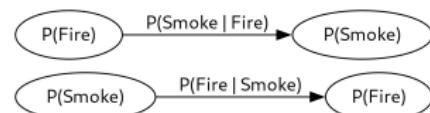
Causation-based Model Process

- **Causal AI** is “model first”
 - Understand business question before ingest and transform the data
- **Modeling process**
 - What is the intended outcome?
 - What is the proposed intervention?
 - What are the confounding factors?
 - What are the effecting factors?
 - Create a model graph or diagram
 - Data acquisition
 - ...

- Causal AI
- ***Causal Networks***
 - Variables
 - Intervention
 - Type of Variables in Causal AI
 - Paths
- Business Processes Around Data Modeling

(Non-Causal) Bayesian Networks

- **Bayesian networks** represent a joint distribution function
 - The direction of the arrow represent **conditional dependence** (not causality)
 - $A \rightarrow B$ requires to estimate $\Pr(A|B)$
 - There are many possible **edges** and **node ordering** for the same Bayesian network
- E.g., a Bayesian network with *Fire* and *Smoke*, which are dependent
 - $Fire \rightarrow Smoke$
 - Need $\Pr(Fire)$ and $\Pr(Smoke|Fire)$ to compute $\Pr(Fire, Smoke)$
 - $Smoke \rightarrow Fire$
 - Need $\Pr(Smoke)$ and $\Pr(Fire|Smoke)$
 - Networks are equivalent and convey the same information
 - Different difficulties to estimate
- There is an **asymmetry in nature**
 - Extinguishing fire stops smoke
 - Clearing smoke doesn't affect fire



Causal (Bayesian) Networks

- Causal networks are Bayesian networks forbidding non-causal edges
- Use judgment based on nature instead of just statistics
 - E.g., from “Are random variables *Smoke* and *Fire* correlated?” to “What causes what, *Smoke* or *Fire*? ”
- "Dependency in nature" is like assignment in programming
 - E.g., nature assigns *Smoke* based on *Fire*:
 - $\text{Smoke} := f(\text{Fire})$
 - $\text{Fire} := f(\text{Smoke})$
 - Structural equations describe “assignment mechanism” in causal graphs

$$X_i := f(X_j) \iff X_j \rightarrow X_i$$

Causal DAG

- **Causal DAG**

- *Directed*: Arrows show direction of cause → effect
- *Ayclic*: No feedback loops
 - Causal relationships assume a temporal order: cause happens before effect
 - A cycle would imply a variable is both a cause and effect of itself (paradox)

- **Benefits**

- DAGs encode *causal* rather than *associative* links
- Enables reasoning about interventions and counterfactuals
- Supports explainable AI models
- Stability to conditional probability estimation

- **Limitations**

- Requires domain knowledge to specify structure
- Assumes all relevant variables are included (e.g., no hidden confounders)

Causal Edges are Stable

- **Causal edge** $X \rightarrow Y$ shows direct causal influence of X on Y , holding other variables constant
 - Captures how manipulating X changes Y , not just their covariance
- Causal edges reflect **stable relationship**
 - Mechanistic stability
 - Causal relationships show system function, not just behavior in one dataset
 - E.g., "Temperature \rightarrow ice melting rate" holds true in Alaska and Arizona
 - Invariance under interventions
 - If X causes Y , intervening on X affects Y consistently, despite confounders or context changes
 - Easier estimation through causal modeling
 - Identifying causal direction focuses estimation on effect size (e.g., regression of Y on X under intervention)
 - Reduced sensitivity to sampling and omitted variables
 - Correlations may change with confounder addition or removal
 - True causal edge persists, stable across model specifications
- **Example:** study *Exercise \rightarrow Health*:
 - Correlation may differ in young or elderly populations
 - Causal effect remains stable, as physiological mechanism doesn't change



Structural Causal Model

- A **Structural Causal Model** (SCM) translates a causal DAG into mathematical equations
 - DAGs show structure (variables and arrows)
 - SCMs use equations to define how variables interact
- **Structure of SCMs**
 - Variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n represent quantities in the system
 - Equations model each variable as a function of its direct causes
 - Formally, X_i is modeled as:

$$X_i = f_i(\text{Parents}(X_i), \varepsilon_i)$$

where:

- $\text{Parents}(X_i)$ are direct causes of X_i
- ε_i is an exogenous (external, unobserved) noise term

- **Properties**

- Explain causal relationships between variables
- Provide a foundation for causal reasoning and simulation
- Describe how the world works, not just variable correlations

Structural Causal Model: Example

- **Explanatory variables**

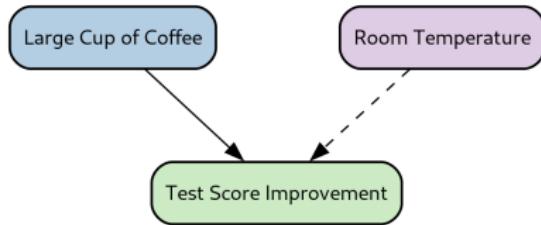
- You can manipulate or observe when changes are applied
- E.g., *"does a large cup of coffee before an exam help with a test?"*

- **Outcome variables**

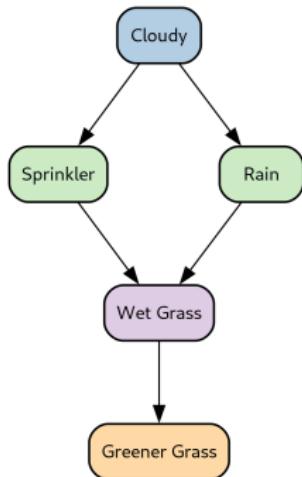
- Result of the action
- E.g., *"by how much did the score test improve?"*

- **Unobserved variables**

- Not seen or more difficult to account
- E.g., *"temperature of the room makes students sleepy and less alert"*



Structural Causal Model: Sprinkler Example



- Structural equations for this model:

$$\begin{cases} C := f_C(\varepsilon_C) \\ R := f_R(C, \varepsilon_R) \\ S := f_S(C, \varepsilon_S) \\ W := f_W(R, S, \varepsilon_W) \\ G := f_G(W, \varepsilon_G) \end{cases}$$

- Unmodeled variables ε_x represent error terms
 - E.g., ε_W is another source of wetness besides *Sprinkler* and *Rain* (e.g., *MorningDew*)
 - Assume unmodeled variables are exogenous, independent, with a certain distribution (prior)
- Express joint distribution of five variables as a product of conditional distributions using causal DAG topology:

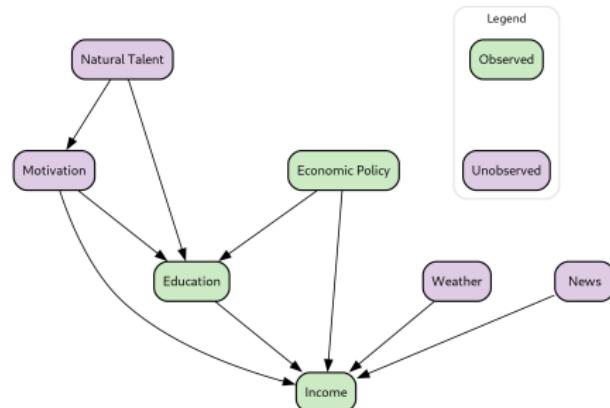
$$\Pr(C, R, S, W, G) = \Pr(C) \Pr(R|C) \Pr(S|C) \Pr(W|R, S) \Pr(G|W)$$

- Causal AI
- Causal Networks
 - *Variables*
 - Intervention
 - Type of Variables in Causal AI
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Observed Vs. Unobserved Variables

- **Observed variables**

- Aka “measurable” or “visible”
- Variables directly measured or collected in a dataset
- E.g.,
 - Education
 - Income
 - Blood pressure
 - Product price



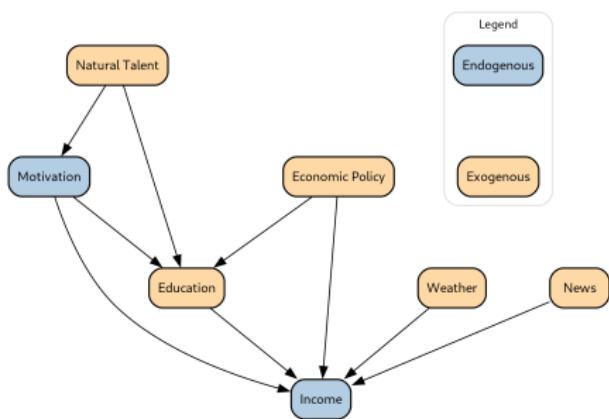
- **Unobserved variables**

- Aka “latent” or “hidden”
- Exist but not measured or included in data
- E.g.,
 - Natural talent
 - Motivation
 - Company culture
- Ignoring unobserved variables distorts causal relationships
 - Observed: *IceCreamSales* and *DrowningRates*
 - Unobserved: *Temperature*
 - Misleading conclusion: *IceCream* causes *Drowning*

Endogenous Vs. Exogenous Variables

- **Endogenous variables**

- Values determined *within* the model
 - Dependent on other variables in the system
- Represent system's internal behavior and outcomes
- E.g.,
 - Motivation
 - Income



- **Exogenous variables**

- Originate *outside* the system being modeled
 - Not caused by other variables in the model
- Represent background conditions or external shocks
- E.g.,
 - Natural talent
 - Economic policy
 - Weather
 - News



Endo / Exogenous, Observed / Unobserved Vars

- In **Structural Causal Models**

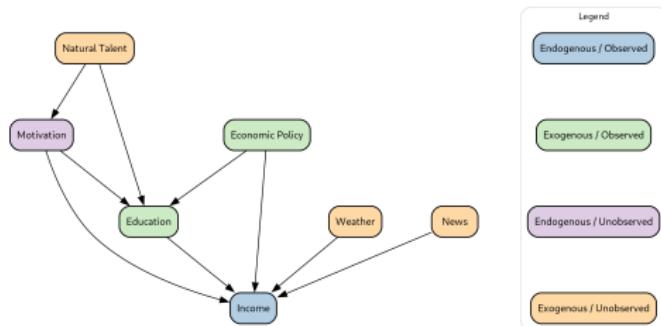
$$X_i = f_i(\text{Parents}(X_i), \varepsilon_i)$$

where:

- X_i : endogenous
- ε_i : exogenous noise

- Typically**

- Endogenous variables*: focus for prediction and intervention
- Exogenous variables*: capture randomness or unknown external factors

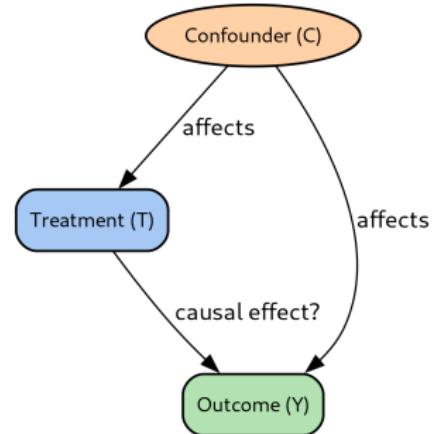


| Variable Type | Observability | Example |
|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| Endogenous | Observed | Income |
| Exogenous | Observed | Education |
| Endogenous | Unobserved | Motivation |
| Exogenous | Unobserved | Natural Talent |

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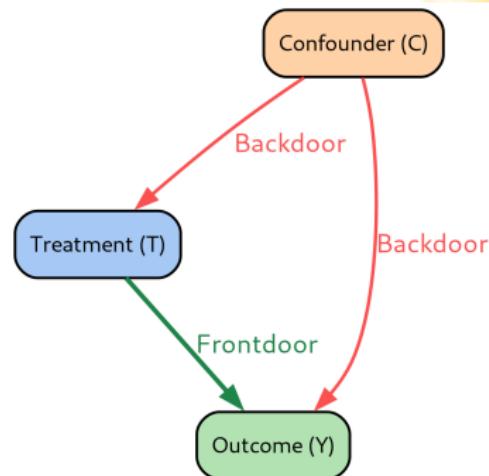
Estimating Causal Effects

- **Goal:** Determine the causal effect of a treatment variable (aka intervention) T on an outcome Y
- **Example:**
 - $T = \text{"takes drug"}$
 - $Y = \text{"recovers"}$
 - $C = \text{"overall health"}$
- Healthier people may take medicine and recover faster \implies correlation without causation
- In **observational data**
 - Confounding variable C affects both treatment T and outcome Y
 - C creates *spurious correlation* between T and Y
- **Problem**
 - There is a “backdoor path” $Treatment \leftarrow Confounder \rightarrow Outcome$



Frontdoor and Backdoor Paths: Intuition

- A **backdoor path** is any path from T to Y starting with an arrow into T
 - E.g., $T \leftarrow C \rightarrow Y$
 - Interpretation:
 - C is a common cause of T and Y , confounding their relationship
 - Controlling (conditioning) for C blocks the backdoor path, identifying the causal effect of T on Y



- A **frontdoor path** goes directly or indirectly from T to Y through mediators, following causal flow
 - E.g., $T \rightarrow Y$
 - Interpretation:
 - Direct causal path of interest
 - No mediators, so front-door path is direct causal effect of T on Y

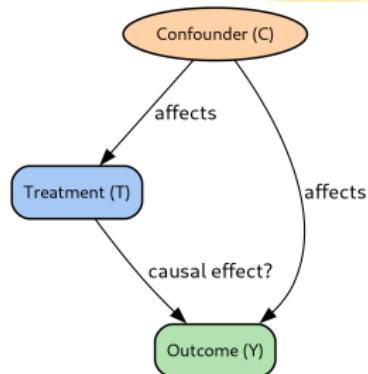
Randomized Controlled Trials (RCTs)

- **Randomized Controlled Trial** is an experimental study to assess causal effect of an intervention or treatment
 - Determine whether an intervention causes an effect, not just associated with it
 - Eliminate selection bias and confounding variables through randomization
- **Key Components**
 - *Randomization*: ensures groups are statistically equivalent at baseline
 - *Control Group*: receives a placebo or standard treatment
 - *Blinding*: participants and/or researchers do not know the assignment to avoid bias
 - *Outcome Measurement*: pre-defined metrics assess the intervention's effect
- **Example**: testing a new drug
 - Treatment group receives the new drug
 - Control group receives a placebo
 - Compare recovery rates after a fixed period
- **Pros**
 - Provides clear causal inference due to randomization
- **Cons**
 - Expensive and time-consuming
 - Ethical or practical constraints may prevent randomization

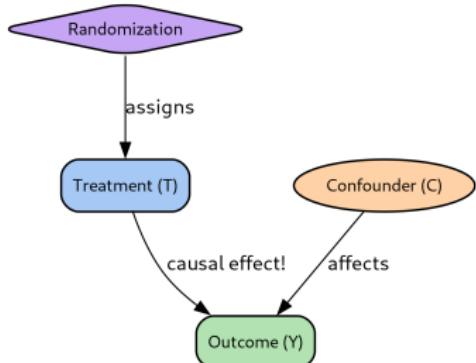


RCTs Solve the Problem of Confounders

- In **observational data**
 - Confounding variable C affects both treatment T and outcome Y
 - C creates *spurious correlation* between T and Y



- In **experimental settings**
 - Randomization (R) breaks link between C and T
 - Random assignment prevents influence on both treatment and outcome
 - T is independent of C : $T \perp C$
 - Only open path between T and Y is causal path $T \rightarrow Y$



Causal Graphs and Interventions

- **Observing correlations** between variables *does not reveal causality*
 - $\Pr(Y|T)$ confounds direct and indirect influences
- **Randomized Controlled Trials** provide the *gold standard* for causal inference
 - Randomization breaks all back-door (confounding) paths
 - RCTs are expensive, slow, or ethically impossible
- **Alternative solution**
 - Can we estimate the *causal effect* from *observational data alone*?
 - Under *what conditions* and using *which variables*?
- **Idea:** Identify and condition on the right *confounders* to:
 - Block spurious associations between T and Y
 - Recover the true causal effect $\Pr(Y|do(T))$

Intervention in Structural Equations

- **Purpose of Structural Equations**

- Capture causal mechanisms among variables
- Predict impact of external interventions

- **Effect of Intervention** $do(X_j = x_j)$

- Original equation:

$$X_j = f_j(\text{Parents}(X_j), \varepsilon_j)$$

- Modified by intervention:

$$X_j = x_j \text{ (fixed value)}$$

- “Mutilate” causal network by *removing incoming edges* to X_j
- Recompute joint distribution of all variables using modified structure

- **Intuition**

- do -operator enforces variable's value externally, breaking causal dependencies
- Enables reasoning about “what would happen if...?” scenarios

Adjustment Formula in Causal Networks

- **Goal**

- Estimate causal effect of intervention $do(X_j = x_{jk})$ on another variable X_i

- **The Adjustment Formula**

- Derived from the post-intervention joint distribution:

$$\Pr(X_i = x_i | do(X_j = x_j^*)) = \sum_{\text{Parents}(X_j)} \Pr(x_i | x_j^*, \text{Parents}(X_j)) \Pr(\text{Parents}(X_j))$$

- The mechanism for X_j is *removed*: it is treated as a fixed cause, not a random variable

- **Interpretation**

- Computes a *weighted average* of effects of X_j and its parents on X_i
- Weights come from prior probabilities of the parents' values

- **Back-Door Criterion**

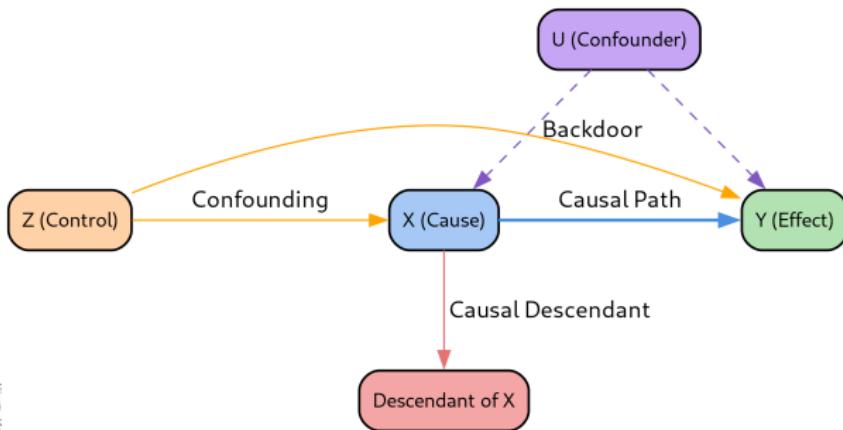
- A set Z is a valid adjustment set if it blocks *all back-door paths* from X_j to X_i
- Ensures $X_i \perp \text{Parents}(X_j) | X_j, Z$

- **Why It Matters**

- Enables causal inference from observational data
- Estimate treatment and policy effects *without randomized trials*

Backdoor Criterion: Definition

- A set of variables Z satisfies the **backdoor criterion** for variables X (cause) and Y (effect) in a causal graph if:
 - No element of Z is a descendant of X**
 - Ensures Z does not “block” part of the causal effect of X on Y
 - Descendants of X may carry information about the causal effect and should not be controlled for
 - Z blocks every path between X and Y containing an arrow into X**
 - These paths are *backdoor paths*, representing potential confounding influences
 - Blocking them ensures any remaining association between X and Y is causal, not spurious



Backdoor Criterion: Intuition

- **Intuition:**

- The goal is to isolate the causal effect of X on Y by eliminating *confounding bias*
- Controlling for an appropriate set Z makes the relationship between X and Y as if X were randomly assigned

- **Application:**

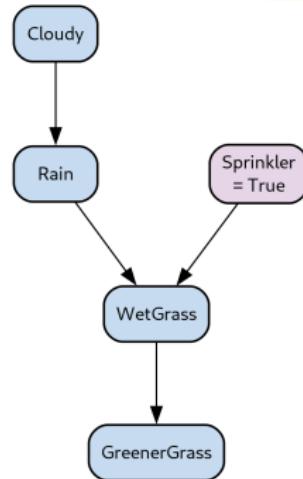
- When Z satisfies the backdoor criterion, we can estimate causal effects from **observational data** (without experiments)
- The causal effect can be computed using:

$$\Pr(Y|do(X)) = \sum_z \Pr(Y|X, Z = z)P(Z = z)$$

Intervention: Sprinkler Example

- “Intervene” by turning the sprinkler on
 - In do-calculus $do(Sprinkler = T)$
 - Sprinkler variable s is independent of cloudy day
- Structural equations after intervention:

$$\begin{cases} C := f_C(\varepsilon_C) \\ R := f_R(C, \varepsilon_R) \\ S := \text{True} \\ W := f_W(R, S, \varepsilon_W) \\ G := f_G(W, \varepsilon_G) \end{cases}$$



- $\Pr(S|C) = 1$ and $\Pr(W|R, S) = \Pr(W|R, S = T)$ and the joint probability becomes:

$$\Pr(C, R, W, G | do(S = \text{True})) = \Pr(C) \Pr(R|C) \Pr(W|R, S = \text{True}) \Pr(G|W)$$

- Only descendants of manipulated variable *Sprinkler* are affected

Intervention vs. Observation in Causal Models

- **Intervention** conceptually *breaks* normal causal dependencies
 - Intervening on *Sprinkler* removes causal link from *Weather* to *Sprinkler*
 - After intervention, causal graph excludes arrow $\text{Weather} \rightarrow \text{Sprinkler}$
 - *Weather* and *Sprinkler* become independent under intervention
- **Observation vs. Intervention**
 - **Observation:** seeing *Sprinkler* = T
 - Expressed as $\Pr(\cdot | \text{Sprinkler} = T)$
 - Reflects *passive observation* — sprinkler on provides information about weather
 - Since *Weather* influences *Sprinkler*, observing *Sprinkler* = T makes it *less likely* *Weather* is cloudy
 - **Intervention:** forcing *Sprinkler* = T
 - Expressed as $\Pr(\cdot | \text{do}(\text{Sprinkler} = T))$
 - *Active manipulation* — set sprinkler on regardless of weather
 - Causal link from *Weather* to *Sprinkler* is cut, weather distribution remains unchanged
- **Key intuition**
 - Observation → correlation (information flows along causal links)
 - Intervention → causation (links into manipulated variable are removed)
 - Thus, $\Pr(\text{Weather} | \text{Sprinkler} = T) \neq \Pr(\text{Weather} | \text{do}(\text{Sprinkler} = T))$

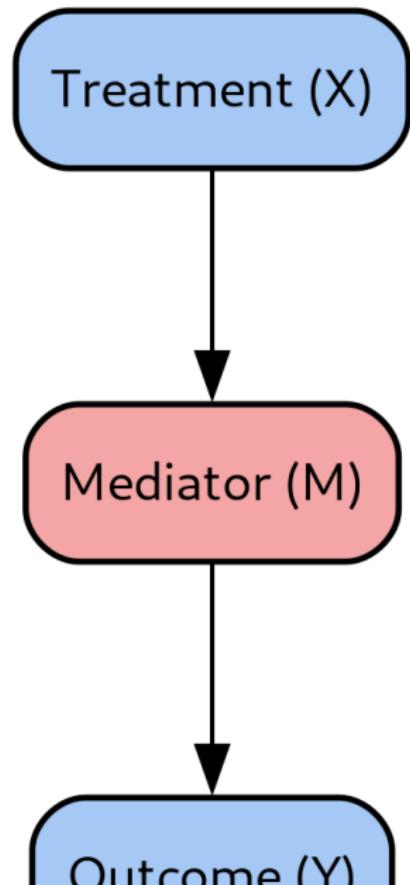
Controlling for a Variable in Causal Analysis

- **Definition**
 - To *control* a variable means to hold it constant (statistically or experimentally) to isolate the causal effect of another variable
- **Example**
 - Does exercise (X) cause weight loss (Y)?
 - Confounder: Diet (Z) affects both exercise and weight
 - By controlling for diet (e.g., comparing people with similar diets), you can estimate the effect of exercise more accurately
- In **regression analysis**
 - Include Z as an additional independent variable
 - E.g., in $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \varepsilon$
 - β_1 measures the effect of X *controlling for* Z
 - Coefficient $\beta_1 =$ *change in Y with a one-unit change in X_1 , holding X_2 constant*
 - Isolates X_1 's unique contribution
 - Compares individuals with the same X_2 but different X_1
- In **experiments**
 - Keep Z constant or randomize it

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 - Variables
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 - **Type of Variables in Causal AI**
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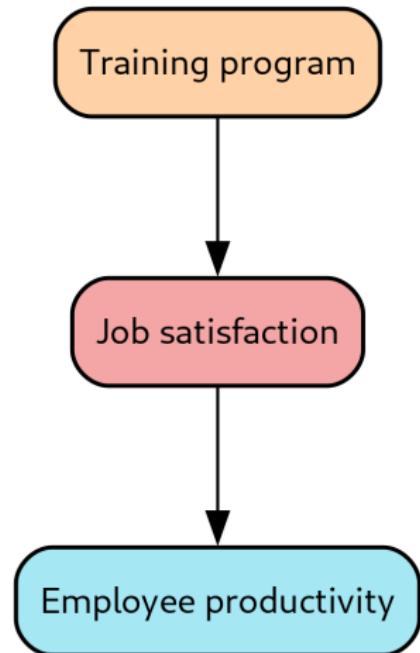
Mediator Variable

- A **mediator variable** M is an intermediate variable that *transmits* the causal effect from X (treatment) to Y (outcome)
 - Lies **on the causal path** between X and Y
 - Captures the **mechanism or process** through which X influences Y



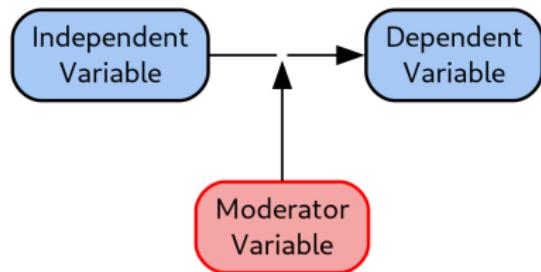
Mediator Variable: Example

- Research question: does a *training program* increase *employee productivity*?
- The causal effect may be **indirect**, operating through a **mediator**
 - The training program might not immediately boost productivity
 - Instead, it could enhance **job satisfaction**, which in turn raises productivity
- **Causal interpretation**
 - X : Training Program (cause)
 - M : Job Satisfaction (mediator)
 - Y : Employee Productivity (effect)
 - Path: $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$
- **Direct vs. Indirect effects**
 - *Indirect effect* X affects Y through M
 - *Direct effect* X affects Y not through M
 - Controlling for M separates these two effects, clarifying *how* training impacts outcomes



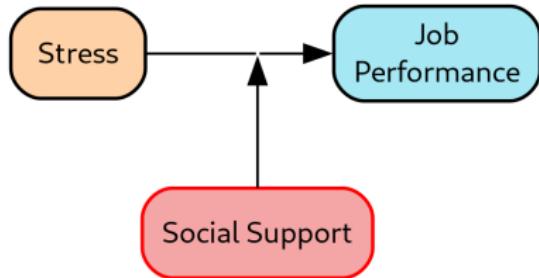
Moderator Variable

- A **moderator variable** changes the *strength or direction* of the relationship between an independent variable (X) and a dependent variable (Y)
 - Moderator is not part of the causal chain but conditions the relationship



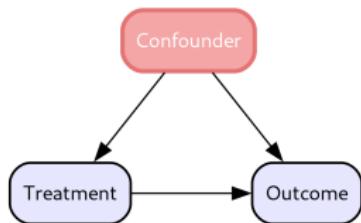
Moderator Variable: Example

- Research question: study relationship between stress X and job performance Y
- Social support M as a moderator
 - High social support weakens stress's negative effect on performance
 - Low social support strengthens stress's negative effect on performance



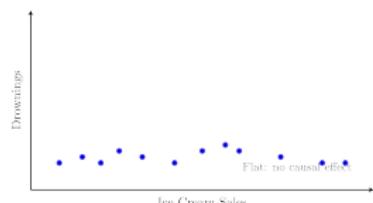
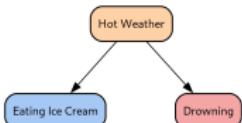
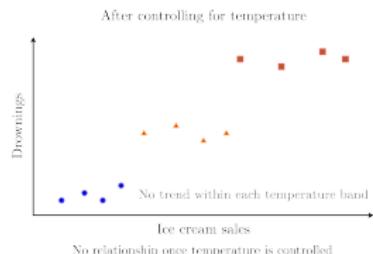
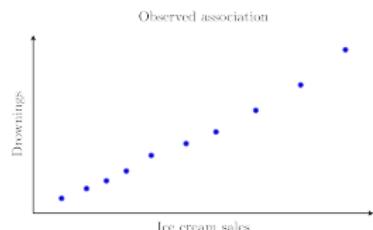
Confounder Variable

- A **confounder**
 - Influences multiple variables in a causal graph
 - Affects both treatment (cause) and outcome
 - Creates misleading association if not controlled



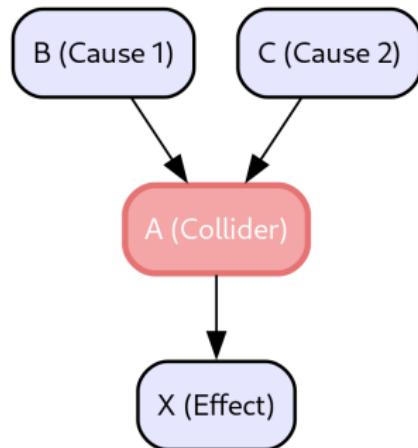
Confounder Variable: Example

- *IceCreamSales* and *Drowning* move together
 - Correlation-based model claims association, but how to use this relationship?
 - Ban ice cream to prevent drowning?
 - Ice cream maker increase drowning to boost sales?
- In reality, no cause-effect between *IceCreamSales* and *Drowning*
 - *Temperature* is a confounder
 - When controlling for season in regression or intervention, association disappears



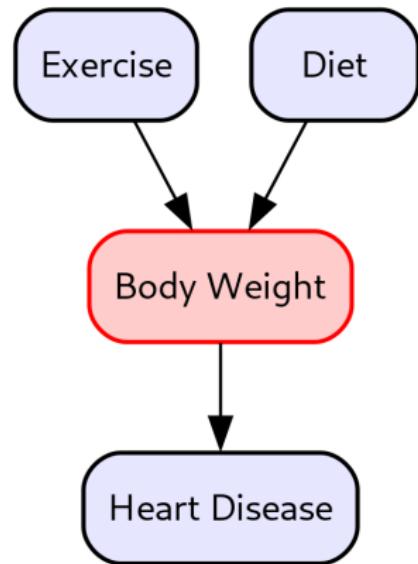
Collider

- A **collider** is a variable A influenced by multiple variables
 - In a causal graph A with incoming edges from variables B, C
- A collider complicates understanding relationships between variables B, C and those it influences, X



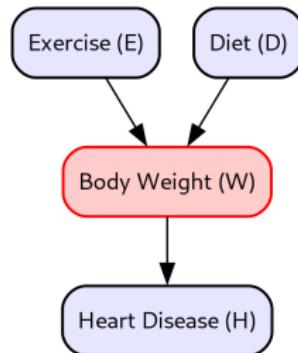
Collider: Examples

- Study the relationship between *Exercise* and *HeartDisease*
 - *Diet* and *Exercise* influence *BodyWeight*
 - *BodyWeight* influences *HeartDisease*
 - *BodyWeight* is a collider



Collider Bias

- Aka “Berkson’s paradox”
- Conditioning on a collider can introduce a spurious association between its parents by “*opening a path that is blocked*”
- Consider the variables:
 - Diet (D)
 - Exercise (E)
 - BodyWeight (W)
 - HeartDisease (H)
- **Without conditioning on W**
 - E and D are independent
 - E.g., knowing someone's exercise level E doesn't give information about diet D , and vice versa
 - The collider W blocks any association between E and D

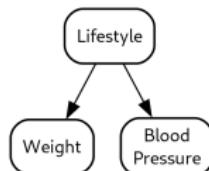
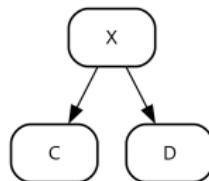


- **After conditioning on W**
 - E.g., looking for individuals with specific body weight
 - You introduce a dependency between E and D

- Causal AI
- Causal Networks
 - Variables
 - Intervention
 - Type of Variables in Causal AI
 - **Paths**
- Business Processes Around Data Modeling

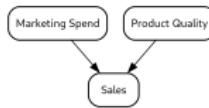
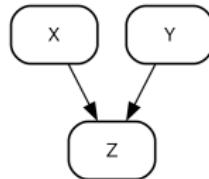
Fork Structure

- A **fork** occurs when a single variable causally influences two or more variables
 - Formally: $X \rightarrow C$ and $X \rightarrow D$
 - X is a common cause (confounder) of C and D
 - Forks induce statistical dependence between C and D
 - Even if C and D are not causally linked
 - Conditioning on X blocks the path and removes spurious correlation
-
- Example:
 - Lifestyle factors as confounders
 - *Lifestyle* affects both *Weight* and *BloodPressure*
 - These outcomes may appear correlated due to shared cause



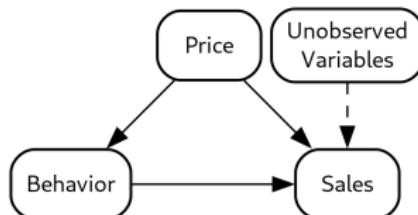
Inverted Fork

- An **inverted fork** occurs when two or more arrows converge on a common node
 - Also known as a **collider**
- Colliders block associations unless the collider or its descendants are conditioned on
- Conditioning on a collider “opens” a path, inducing spurious correlations
- Example:
 - Sales influenced by multiple independent causes
 - *MarketingSpend* and *ProductQuality* both influence *Sales*
 - Conditioning on *Sales* can induce false dependence between *MarketingSpend* and *ProductQuality*



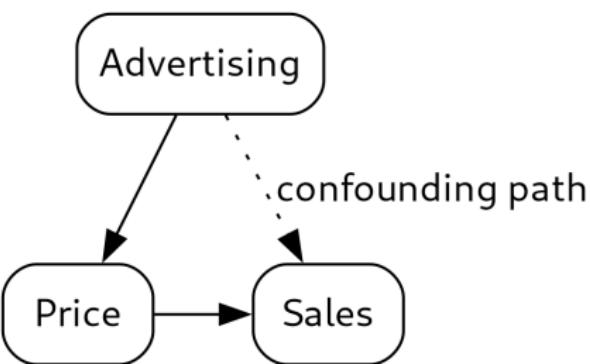
Path connecting unobserved variables

- **Unobserved variables** affect the model but we don't have a direct measure of it
- E.g., consider the causal DAG
 - A retailer does market research, expecting *Price* to influence *Sales* in a predictable way
 - A retailer sets the *Price* of a new product based on market research
 - The retailer can observe and measure *Behavior*, e.g.,
 - Discounts
 - Promotional campaign
 - There are unobserved vars that influence the model, e.g.,
 - Social media buzz
 - Word-of-mouth recommendation



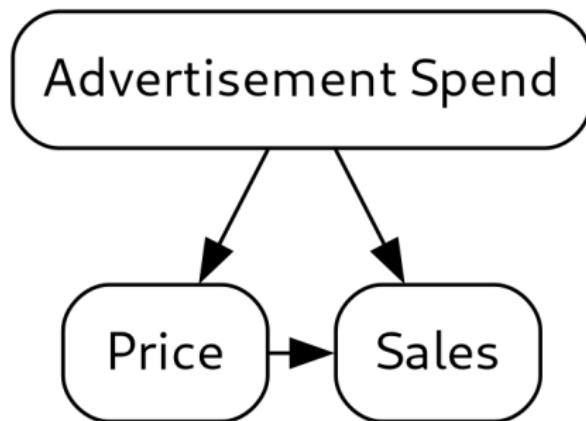
Front-door Paths in Causal Inference

- A front-door path reveals causal influence through an observable mediator
 - The causal effect flows: $A \rightarrow P \rightarrow S$
- Requirements for identifiability:
 - All confounders of $A \rightarrow P$ and $P \rightarrow S$ are observed and controlled
 - There are no back-door paths from A to S through unobserved variables
- Enables causal estimation when back-door adjustment is infeasible
- Example:
 - Advertising impacts sales through customer perception of price
 - A : Advertising, P : Price perception, S : Sales
- Pearl's front-door criterion provides a formal method for adjustment
 - Estimate $P(P|A)$, $P(S|P, A)$, and $P(A)$ from data to compute causal effect



Back-Door Paths

- A company wants to understand the causal effect of price on sales

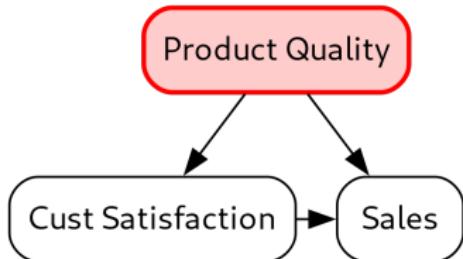


- Price → Sales is the front-door path
- A confounder is Advertising spend since it can affect both:
 - The price the company can set (e.g., the cost increases to cover advertisement costs and the product is perceived as more valuable)
 - The sales (directly)

The back-door path goes from Sales to Price via Advertising spend

Frontdoor and Backdoor Paths

- Question: *Will increasing our customer satisfaction increase our sales?*
- Assume that the Causal DAG is



- **Front-door path** (i.e., a direct causal relationship):
 $CustomerSatisfaction \rightarrow Sales$

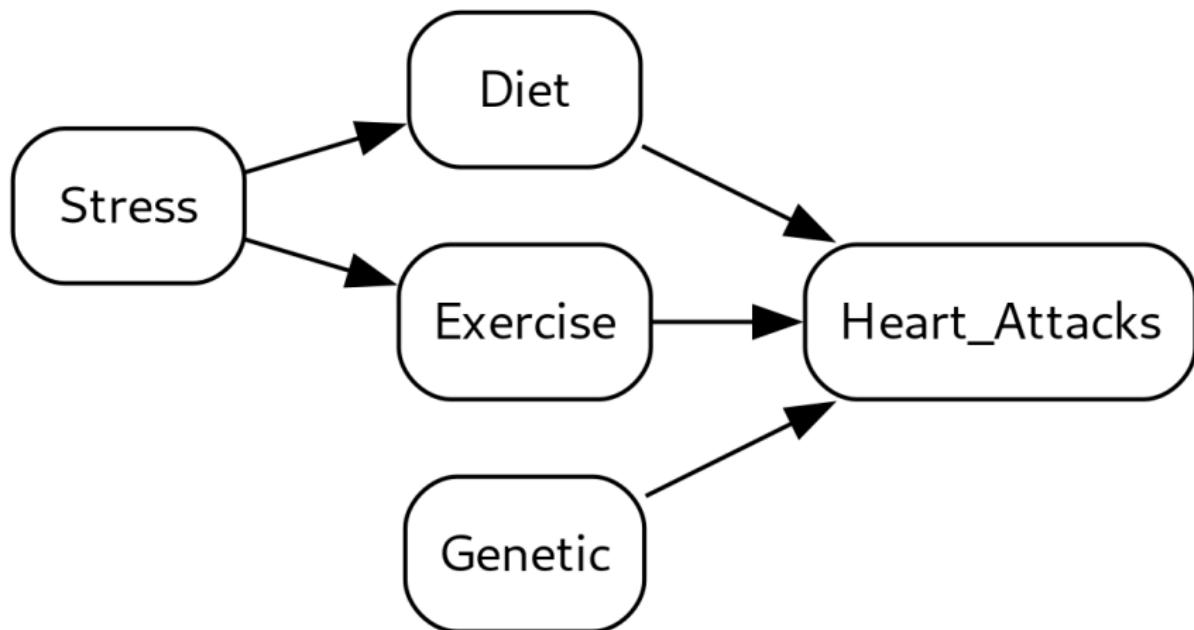
- **Backdoor path:**
ProductQuality is a common cause (confounder) of both *CustomerSatisfaction* and *Sales*
- To analyze the relationship between customer satisfaction and sales, we need to:
 - Control for *ProductQuality* to close the backdoor path
 - Eliminate the confounding effect
- In reality there are more confounding effects (e.g., price)

Building a DAG

- **Causal models** visually represent complex environments and relationships
- Nodes are like “nouns” in the model:
 - E.g., “price”, “sales”, “revenue”, “birth weight”, “gestation period”
 - Variables can be endogenous/exogenous and observed/unobserved
 - Complex relationships between variables:
 - Parents, children (direct relationships)
 - Descendants, ancestors (along the path)
 - Neighbors
- **Iterative Refinement:**
 - Models are continuously updated with new variables and insights
- **Modeling as a Communication Tool:**
 - A shared language that bridges gaps between technical and non-technical team members
- **Unobservable Variables:**
 - Supports inclusion of variables not empirically observed but known to exist
 - E.g., trust or competitor activity can be modeled despite lack of direct data

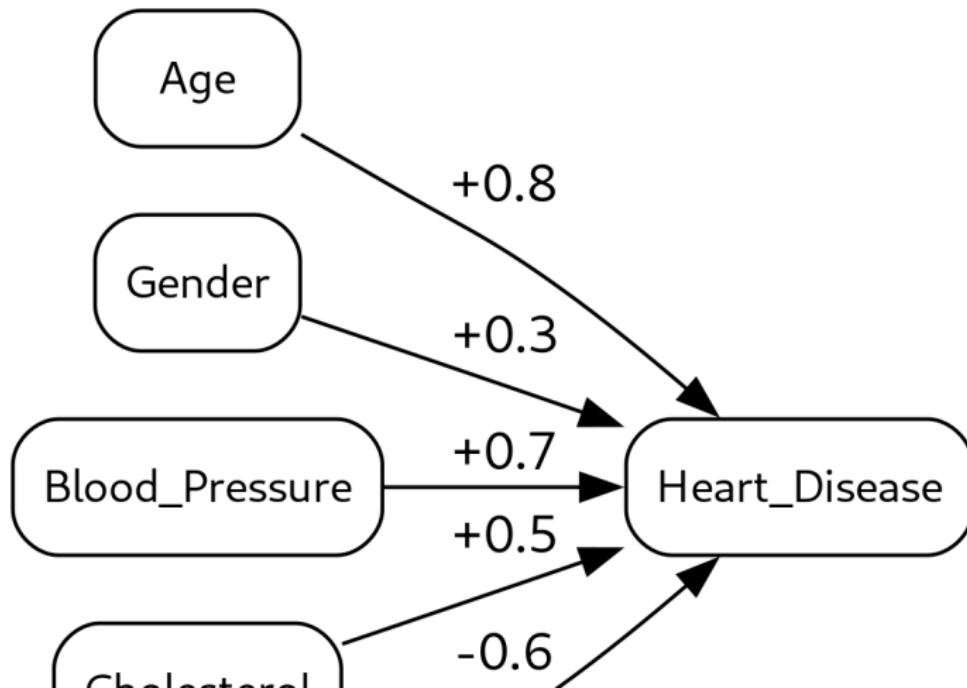
Heart Attack: Example

- What's the relationship between stress and heart attacks?
 - Stress is the treatment
 - Heart attack is the outcome
 - Stress is not a direct cause of heart attack
 - E.g., a stressed person tends to have poor eating habits



Weights

- Weights can be assigned to paths to represent the strength of the causal relationship
 - Weights can be estimated using statistical methods
- Sign represents the direction



Counterfactuals

- A **counterfactual** describes what would have happened under a different scenario
 - *"What would the outcome have been if X had been different?"*
 - *"If kangaroos had no tails, they would topple over"*
 - *"What if we had two suppliers of our product, rather than one? Would we have more sales?"*
 - *"Would customers be more satisfied if we could ship products in one week, rather than three weeks?"*
- **Causal reasoning:**
 - Goes beyond correlation and association
 - Requires a causal model (like an SCM) to simulate alternate realities
 - E.g.,
 - Actual: A student received tutoring and scored 85%
 - Counterfactual: What if the student didn't receive tutoring?
 - Causal model estimates the alternative outcome (e.g., 70%)
- **Challenges:**
 - Requires strong assumptions and accurate models
 - Difficult to validate directly since counterfactuals are unobservable

- Causal AI
- Causal Networks
- ***Business Processes Around Data Modeling***
 - Modeling Processes
 - Roles

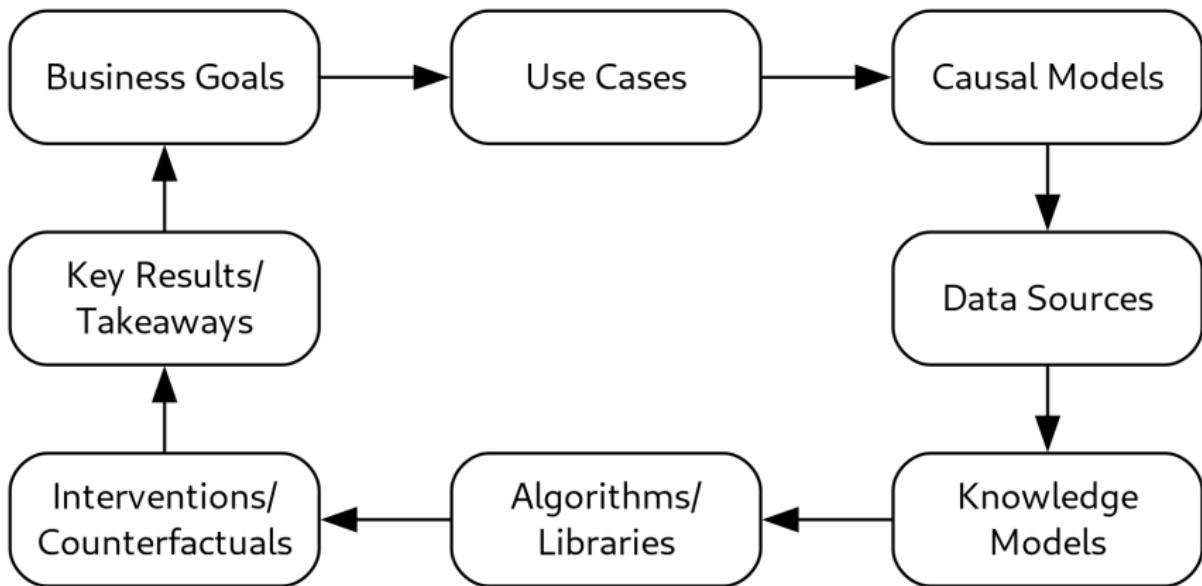
- Causal AI
- Causal Networks
- Business Processes Around Data Modeling
 - *Modeling Processes*
 - Roles

Digital Transformation

- Integration of Digital Technology
 - Embed digital tools (AI, cloud, IoT, automation) into all business areas to enhance efficiency and value delivery
- Cultural & Organizational Change
 - Encourage innovation, agility, and a data-driven mindset to adapt to new digital workflows and business models
- Customer-Centric Approach
 - Use digital solutions (e.g., personalized experiences, AI-driven insights) to enhance customer engagement and satisfaction
- Process Automation & Optimization
 - Streamline operations through AI, robots, and analytics to reduce costs and improve decision-making
- Data-Driven Decision Making
 - Leverage big data, machine learning, and real-time analytics to make smarter, faster, and more strategic business decisions

Causal Modeling Process

- The overall modeling process looks like:



Step 1: What Are the Intended Outcomes?

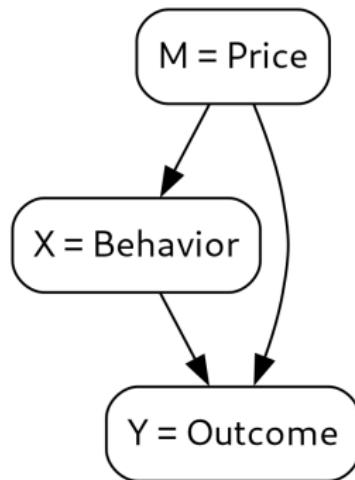
- What is the process/environment we are interested in analyzing?
- What will happen if a course of action is (or not) taken?
- What outcomes are positive, negative, unacceptable, optimal?
- What are the possible / feasible interventions?
- What confounding factors might be correlated with outcomes and treatments?
- What factors exist but we cannot accurately measure?
- What related data sets can be combine / leverage?

Step 2: What Are the Proposed Interventions?

- We will make reference to a use case of customer marketing
- Can we introduce a new product?
- Should we buy one or more competitors?
- Does bundling multiple products improve sales?
- Does bundling multiple products inhibit long-term sales?
- Should advertisement focus on quality of our product vs other options?
- Should we divest the product line?
- Should we discontinue the product?
- Should we add more variations of the same product?

Marketing example: price intervention

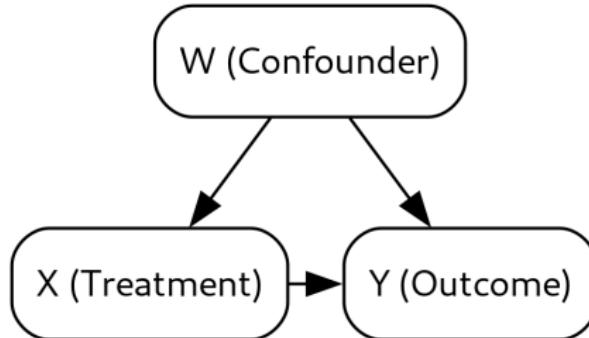
- Assume price is our intervention and the Causal DAG is:



- What happens to sales when we change the price often?
- What pricing interventions are optimal?
 - Should we increase the price and how much?
 - Should we decrease the price and how much?
 - Should price change in one-time or over time?
- Should we adopt a dynamic pricing model?
- Should we develop individual pricing model for each customer?

Step 3: What are the confounding factors?

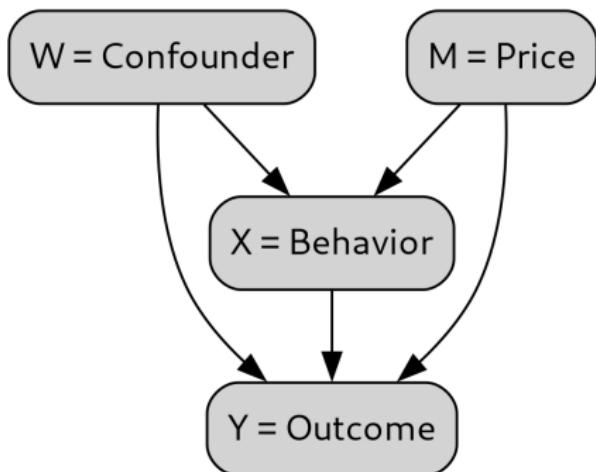
- There can be a variable W that affects both X and Y



- E.g.,
 - Competitive offers
 - Distance to store
 - Amount of product
 - Time to consume product
- A confounder can:
 - Make it difficult to understand the relationship between variables
 - Mute or inflate a relationship

Marketing Example: Effect of Confounder

- E.g.,
 - Intervention = a marketing campaign to sell winter jackets
 - A confounding variable can be “running the campaign in the middle of the winter, after customers have already purchased their jackets”
 - A confounding var can be “a warm winter”



Step 4: What Are the Factors Creating the Effects and Changes?

- Total causal effect
 - Effect of all factors in the environment or model that modify the outcome
- Direct effect
 - Effect introduced through an intervention
- Indirect effect
 - Effect introduced by environment or it is a byproduct of the intervention in a way that was not planned

Step 5: Build Causal DAG

- Causal models
 - Simplify complex systems without losing key relationships
 - Focus on essential variables and their interactions
- Visual models (e.g., DAGs) help abstract complexity into interpretable formats
 - Highlight direction and strength of influence between variables
- Simplicity
 - Aids communication between technical and non-technical stakeholders
 - Promotes shared understanding and collaborative refinement
 - Reduces cognitive overload by excluding irrelevant details or noise
 - Guides data collection by identifying the most impactful variables
 - Supports hypothesis testing through counterfactual and intervention scenarios
- Balance is key
 - Too much simplicity loses insight
 - Too much complexity loses clarity

Step 7: Data Acquisition and Integration

- You can use the data collected for correlation-based ML
- Data collection can be done specifically for causal AI
 - Treating, conditioning, transforming data

Step 8: Model Modification

- Once the DAG is designed, use software packages to build models
 - Refine the initial DAG and causal model to reduce bias and improve reliability
 - Clarify variables as confounders, mediators, or outcomes
- Avoid common pitfalls:
 - Do not control for mediators or effects, which can distort results
 - Control for direct and indirect confounders to prevent biased estimates
- Implementation tools:
 - Use libraries to operationalize models
 - Test models against technical and business objectives
- D-separation:
 - Identifies conditional independence relationships in a DAG
 - Determines necessary controls to isolate causal effects
 - Based on Judea Pearl's definition: independence = separation in the graph
 - Prevent unintentional inclusion of bias
 - Ensure causal assumptions align with data and domain logic
 - Improve model interpretability and predictive power
- Goal: Ensure final models are technically valid and business-relevant before proceeding to data transformation and testing stages

Step 10: Data Transformation

- Prepare the data to match the refined causal model
 - Clean, normalize, and align data with model assumptions
- Transformations include:
 - Mapping observed variables to nodes in the DAG
 - Encoding categorical variables appropriately
 - Handling missing or unobserved data (e.g., imputation or exclusion)
 - Normalizing or scaling values to align with model expectations
- Control for bias and confounding:
 - Apply methods like propensity score matching or stratification
 - Exclude or adjust for variables that introduce bias per d-separation insights
- Goal: Ensure the data structure supports causal estimation
 - Consistent with assumptions made in model refinement
 - Aligned with theoretical model
 - Fit for downstream tasks like estimation, inference, and simulation

Step 11: Preparing for Deployment in Business

- Operationalize the causal model within a business context
 - Transition from experimentation to integration with decision-making processes
 - Validate the model against real-world business data and outcomes
 - Ensure stakeholders understand and trust the causal logic and assumptions
- Model packaging:
 - Develop user-friendly interfaces or dashboards for business users
 - Automate data pipelines for timely updates and monitoring
 - Embed the model within decision-support tools or policy engines
- Governance and monitoring:
 - Establish metrics for performance tracking and drift detection
 - Create feedback loops to refine and improve models post-deployment
- Documentation and training:
 - Provide clear model documentation for auditors and users
 - Train stakeholders on interpreting causal results and making informed decisions
- Goal: A deployable causal AI solution that supports strategic decisions and delivers measurable business value

- Causal AI
- Causal Networks
- Business Processes Around Data Modeling
 - Modeling Processes
 - *Roles*

Why ML / AI Projects Fail?

- AI projects fail because they approach problems only from a ML perspective
 - Data scientists:
 - Use data to create models
 - Work in isolation from business users and internal data teams
 - Black-box models unable to produce solutions to real-world problems

How to Make ML / AI Project Succeed

1. Create a hybrid team
 - Organizations are complex in structure and offerings
 - A single group lacks the knowledge / skills to tackle difficult problems
 - Need an hybrid team:
 - Represents all aspects of the business problem
 - Uses a collaborative framework
 - Communicates with a single language (e.g., through DAGs)
 - Team size depends on company size and project complexity
2. Meet regularly to ensure project continuity
3. Find an executive sponsor for the project
 - Someone who understands the project's goals and potential
4. Initial pilot
 - Small team for a targeted problem
 - Demonstrate the merit of the AI approach

Roles in Hybrid Teams

| Role | Responsibilities |
|------------------------|---|
| Business Strategists | Align modeling with business goals Sponsor projects Communicate insights to stakeholders |
| Subject-Matter Experts | Provide domain expertise Identify relevant variables and assumptions Validate DAGs |
| Data Experts | Source and clean data Map data to model variables Handle missing values |
| Data Scientists | Construct and validate DAGs Apply causal inference methods Simulate decisions |
| Software Developers | Build tools and interfaces Create data pipelines |
| IT Professionals | Provide infrastructure and governance Ensure model execution Integrate with enterprise systems |
| Project Managers | Coordinate collaboration and timelines Manage documentation Ensure alignment with strategic goals |

Steps for a Hybrid Team Project

- Establish a Phased, Collaborative Approach
 - Align strategic goals with technical efforts
 - Emphasize early stakeholder engagement and shared ownership
- Strategic Kickoff Meeting
 - Unite business, technical, and operational roles
 - Clarify problems, outcomes, responsibilities, success metrics
- Define Team Goals
 - Use SMART objectives aligned with business strategy
 - Focus on outcomes and supported decisions, not tools
- Target a Project
 - Choose a bounded, feasible, high-value use case
 - Prioritize early wins for trust and momentum
- Define the Hypothesis
 - Translate business problems into testable causal assumptions
 - Build a preliminary DAG with experts' input
- Incremental Model Development
 - Build the model in small, reviewable stages
 - Iterate with regular feedback, refining scope and variables
- Embrace Iteration and Continuous Refinement

SCIENCE • Keep progress collaborative and aligned with business needs

ACADEMY • Add complexity gradually to manage risk and enhance understanding

The Importance of Explainability

- Managers rely on AI systems to automate decision-making
 - Decisions rely on complex algorithms and data
- Understanding AI-based models is growing in importance
 - How do ML models make decisions?
 - How can they be trusted?
 - Are they biased?
- Management often faces demands to prove code validity
 - Loss of trust, regulation violations, fines, additional development costs, lawsuits
 - E.g., a false negative in a medical screening for cancer
- Well-designed AI systems must foster trust, transparency, and user confidence
- **Humans in the loop**
 - AI systems lack true reasoning and contextual understanding
 - Human involvement ensures interpretation and context are considered

Techniques for Interpretability

- Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations (LIME)
 - Focuses on a single prediction (local fidelity)
 - Approximates the model locally with an interpretable model
 - Perturbs input data and observes changes in predictions
- Partial Dependence Plots (PDP)
 - Show the marginal effect of one or two features on the predicted outcome
 - Vary the value of one feature while keeping others constant
 - Plot feature values against the average predicted outcome
- Individual Conditional Expectation (ICE)
 - Show the relationship between a feature and the prediction for individual instances
- SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP)
 - Quantify the contribution of each feature to a specific prediction

Causal AI in Interpretable AI

- Causal AI helps understand causes, effects, and potential solutions
 - Uses causal graphical models to present variables, relationships, and strengths
 - Counterfactual analysis predicts outcomes of different actions or policies before deployment
 - Model output is understandable to humans and non-experts
 - Removing confounding variables prevents skewed causal estimates due to hidden influences
 - Hybrid teams (technical + domain experts) enhance context awareness and reduce blind spots

The Future of Causal AI

- Causal AI:
 - Is moving out of academia into the commercial world
 - Is a departure from the 2000 approach of a purely data-driven AI systems
 - Is a reflection of the reality of how humans think, analyze, and make decisions and how the real world works
- Causal, traditional AI, deep learning, and generative techniques will merge