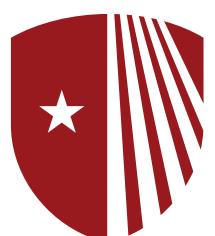


# **Causal Inference via Quantifying Influences**

**Dan Waxman**  
**Stony Brook University**



**Stony Brook  
University**

**September 13th, 2023**  
**ARI @ OeAW**

# Causal Inference via Quantifying Influences

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Quantifying Causal Strength

# Causal Inference via Quantifying Influences

Confounder Detection

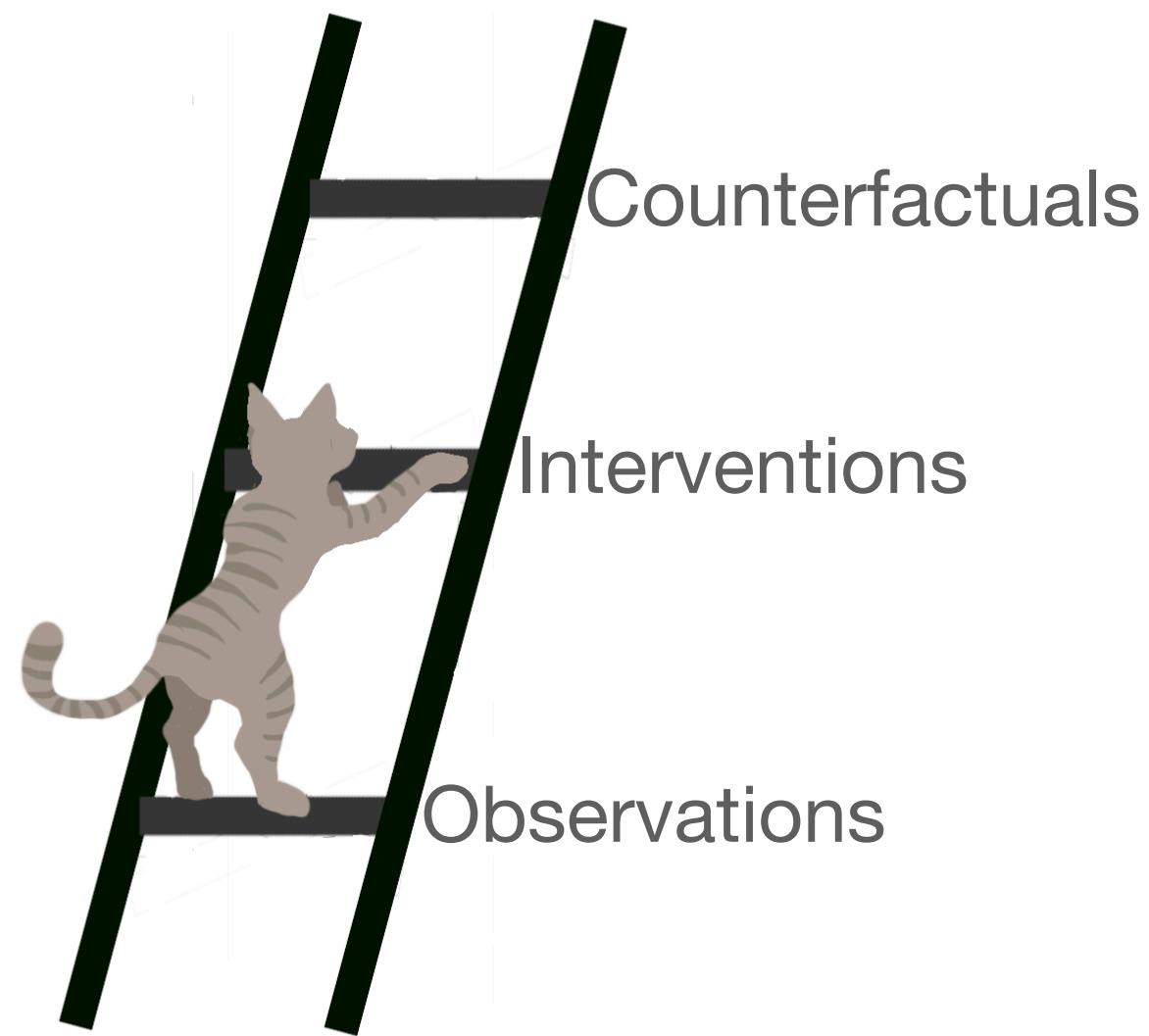
Causal Discovery

Quantifying Causal Strength

# A Crash Course in Causality

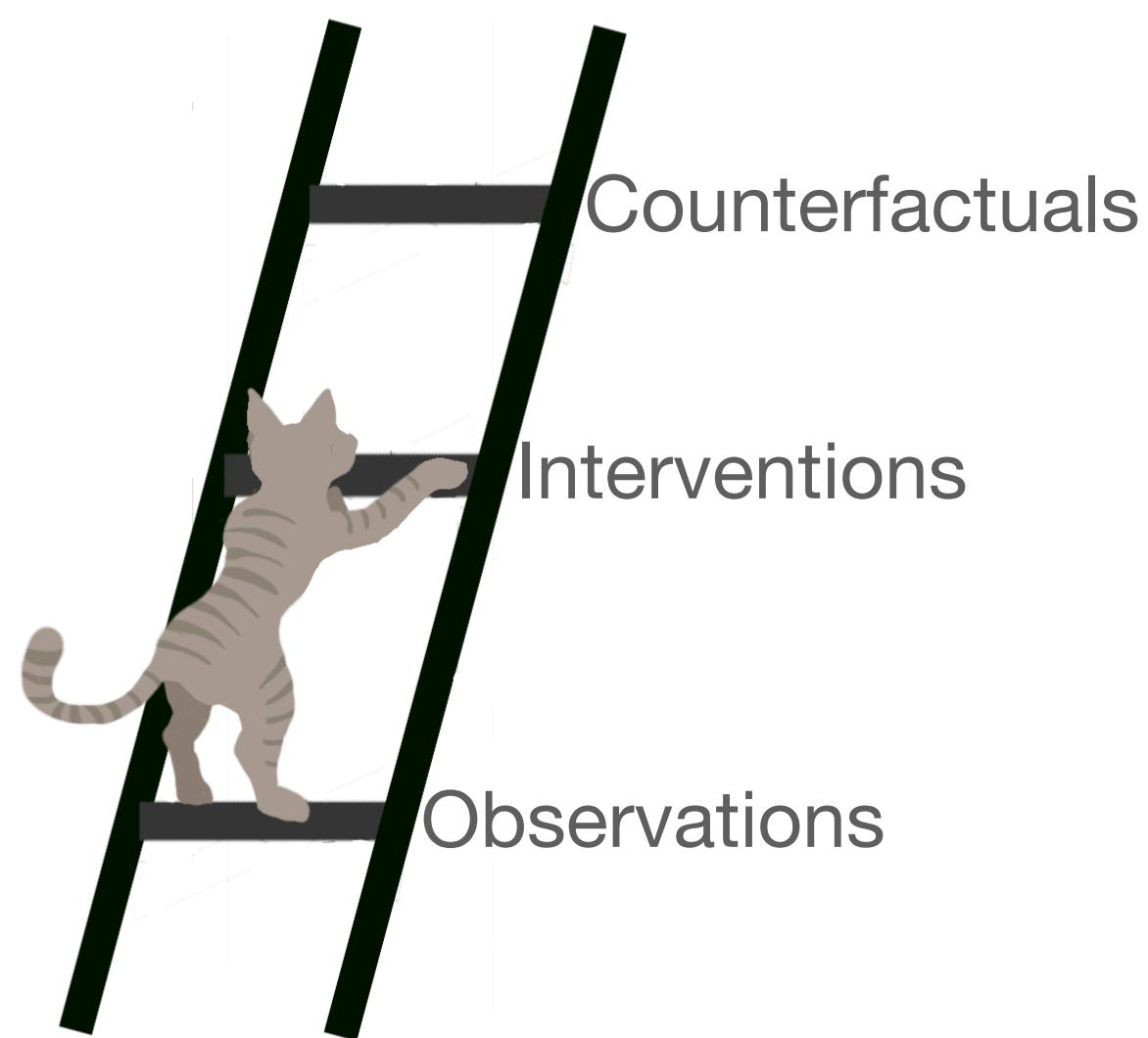
# Defining Cause and Effect

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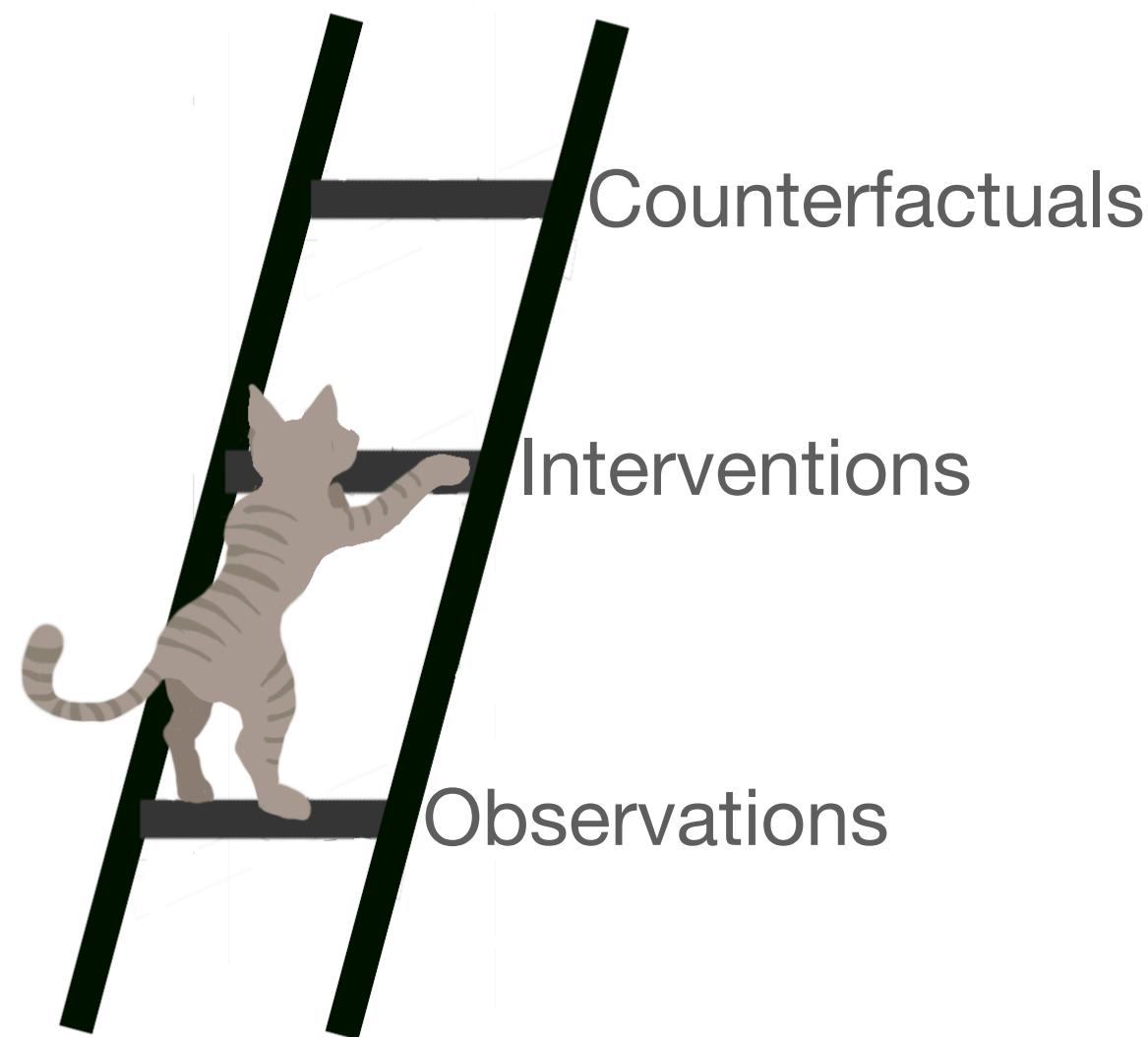
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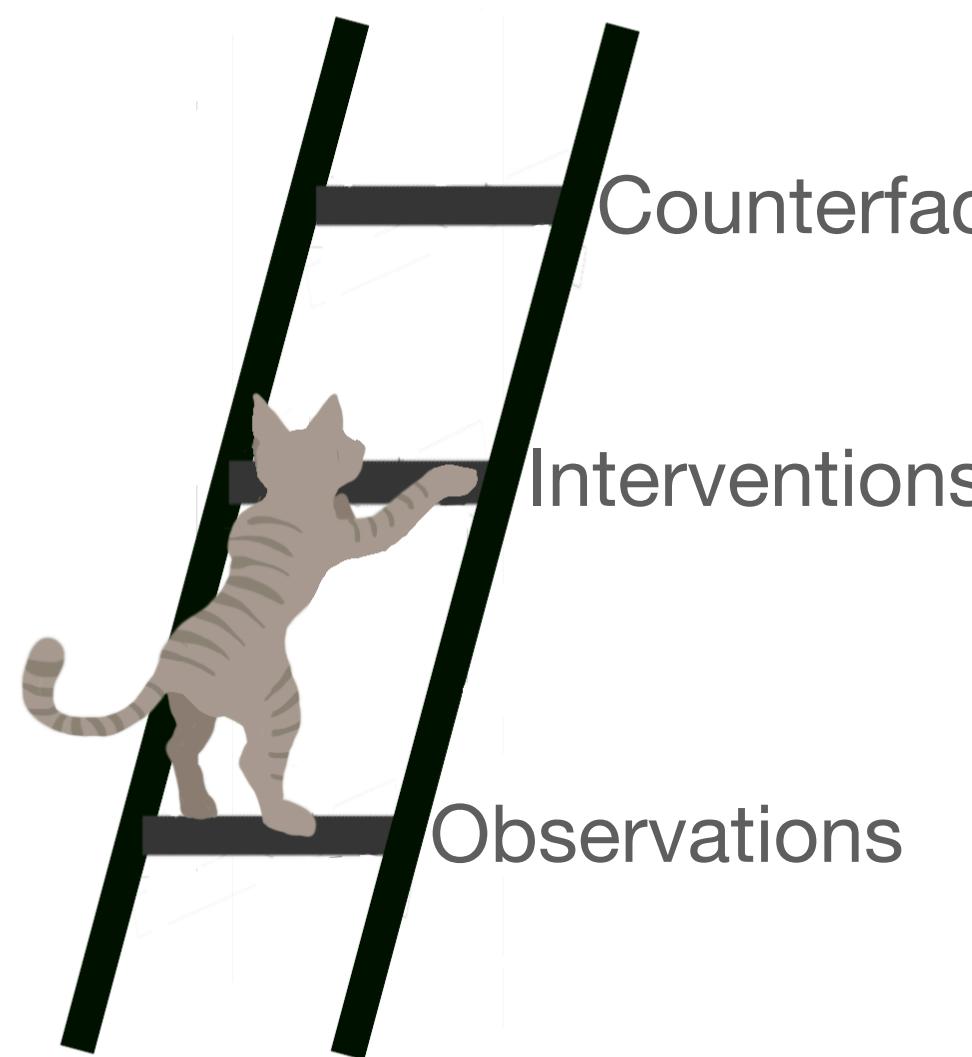
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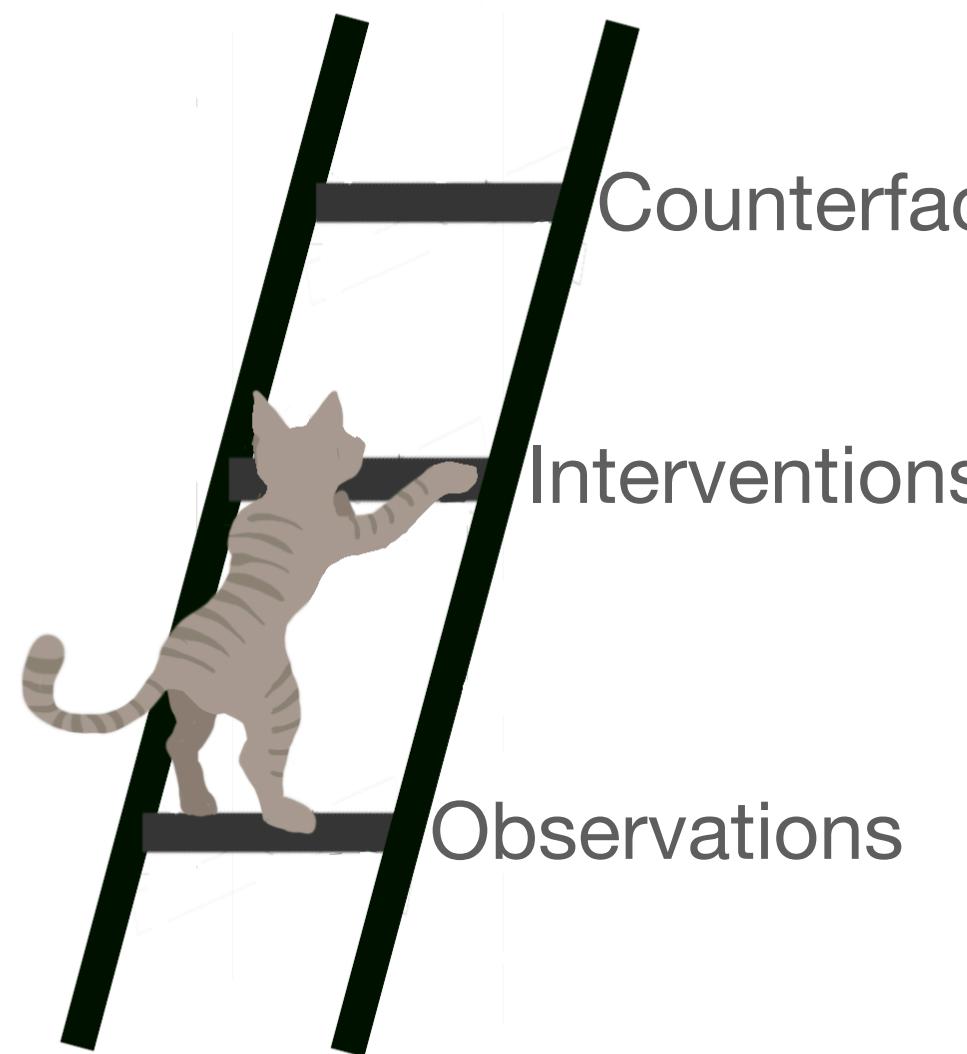


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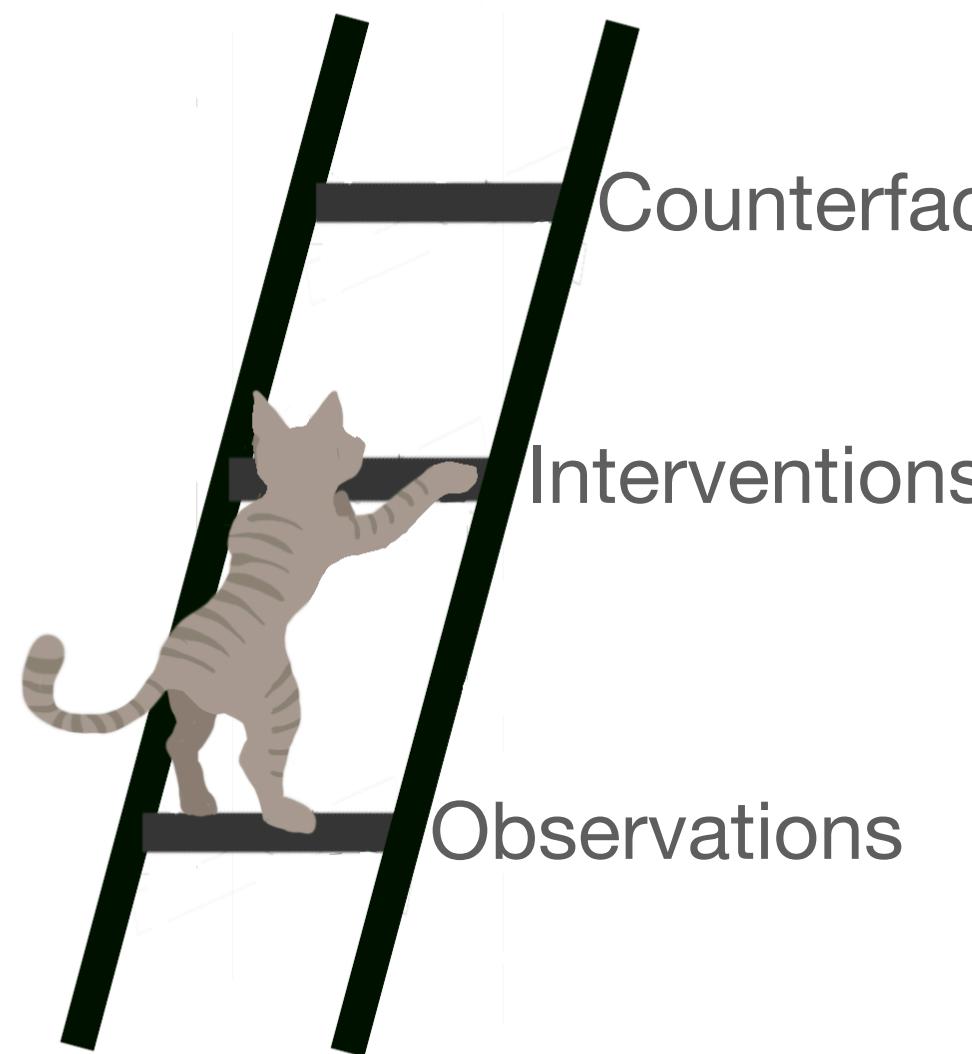


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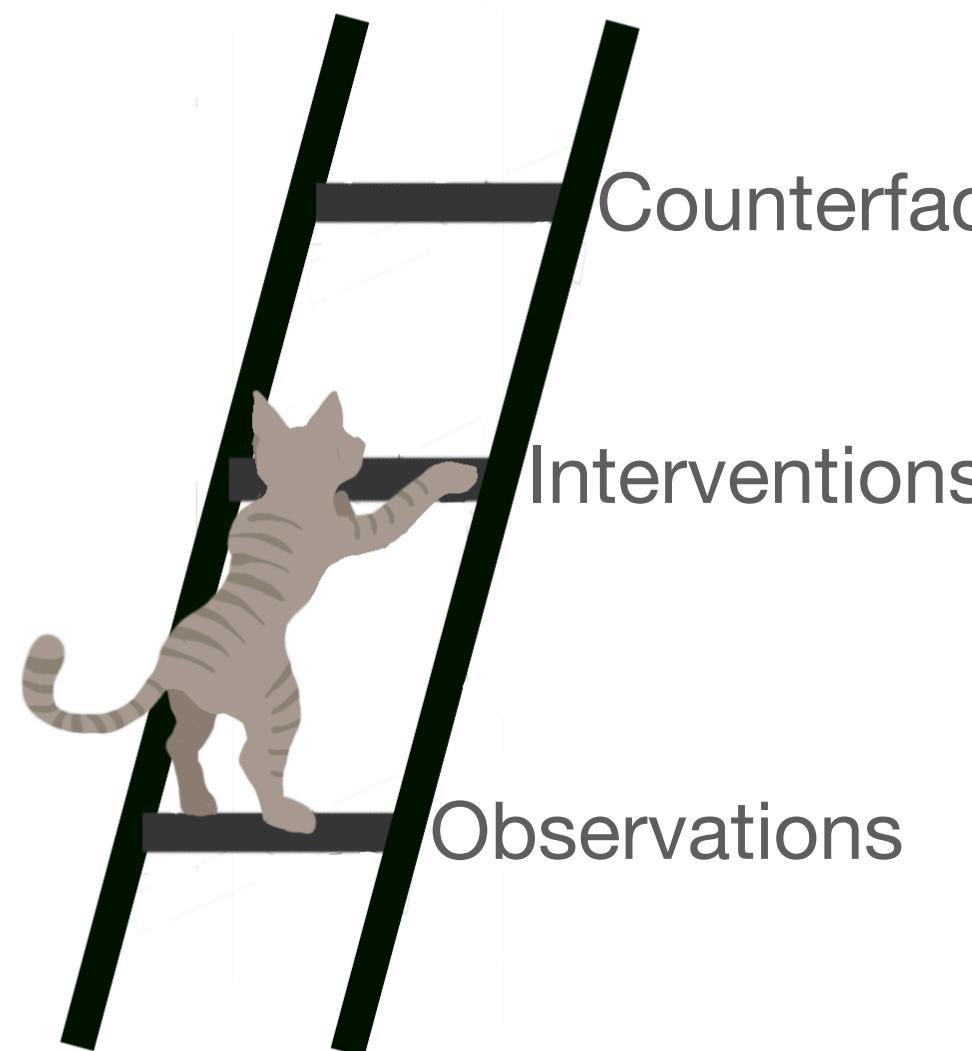


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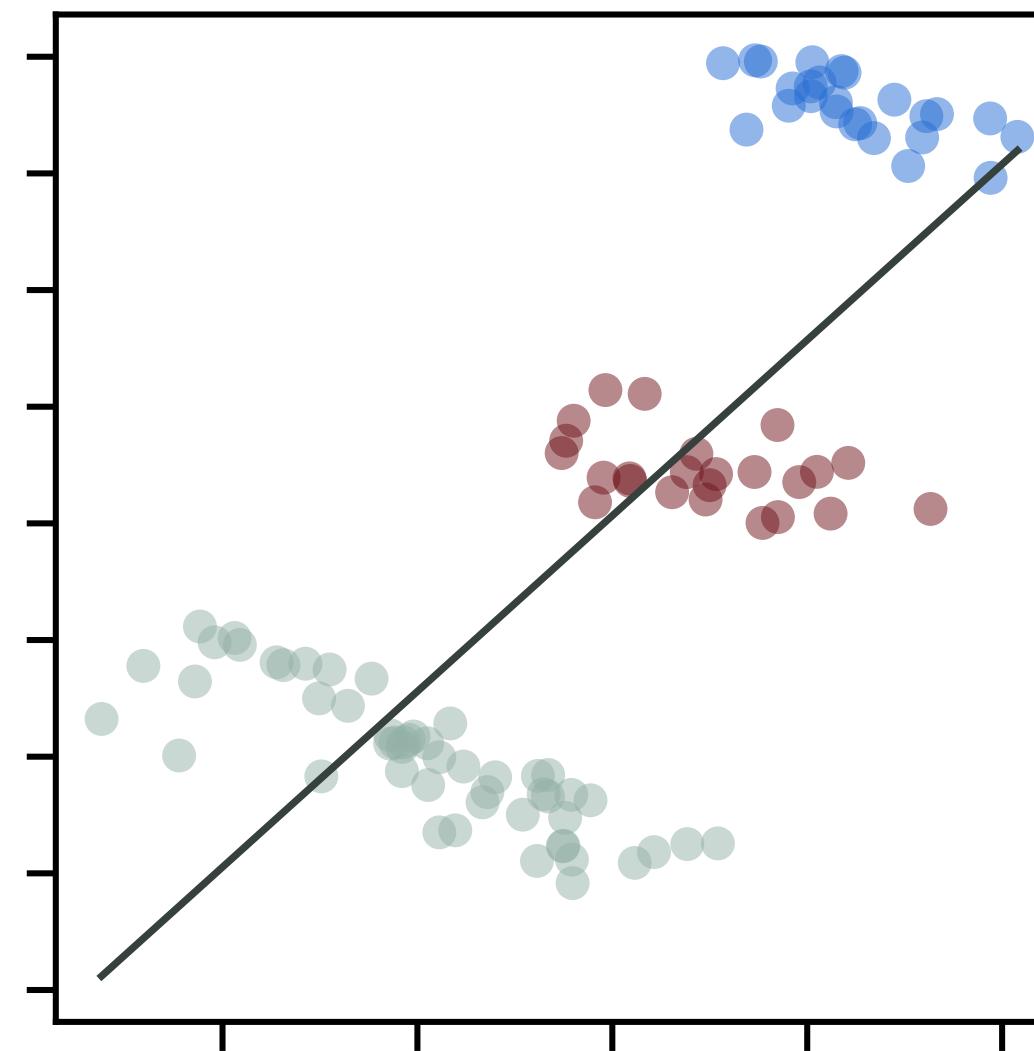
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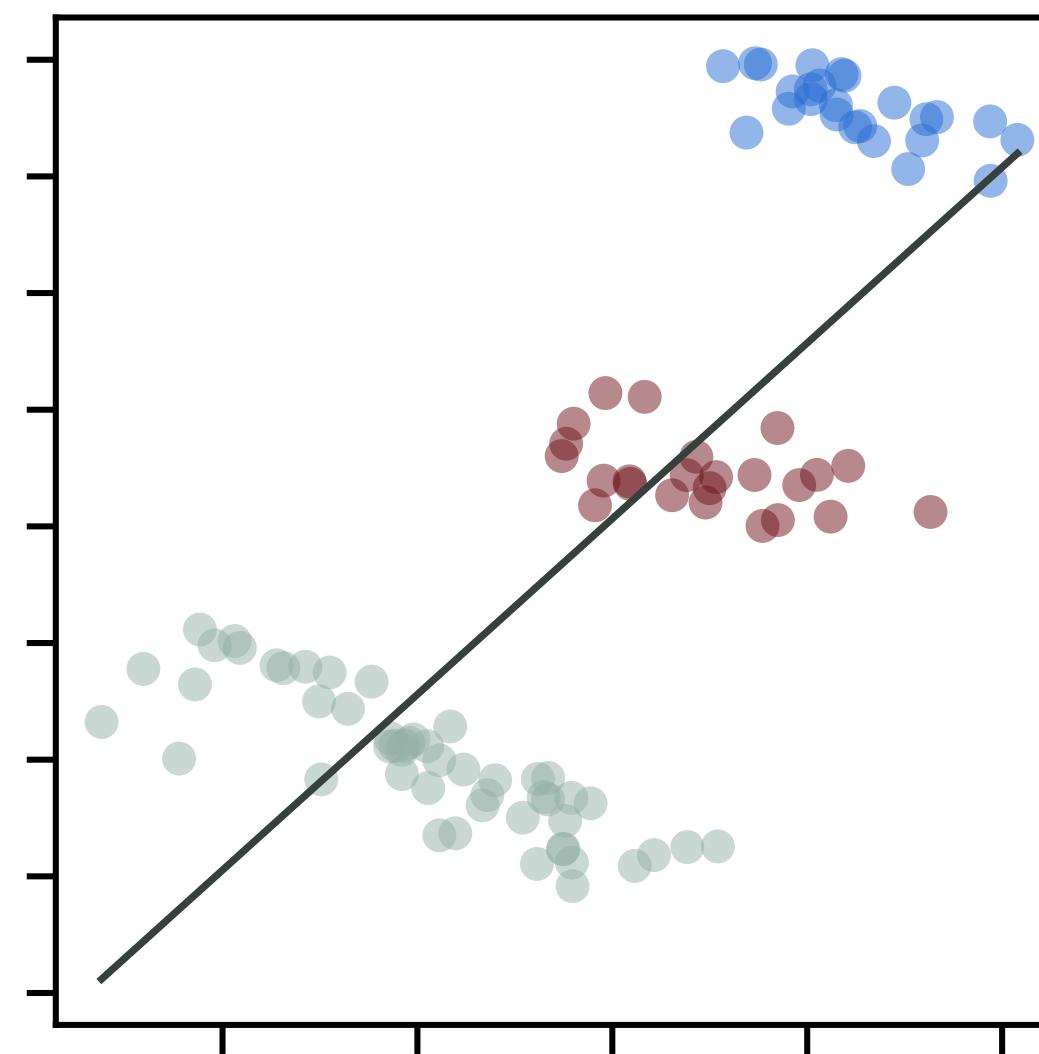
# Interventions are a Necessary Concept

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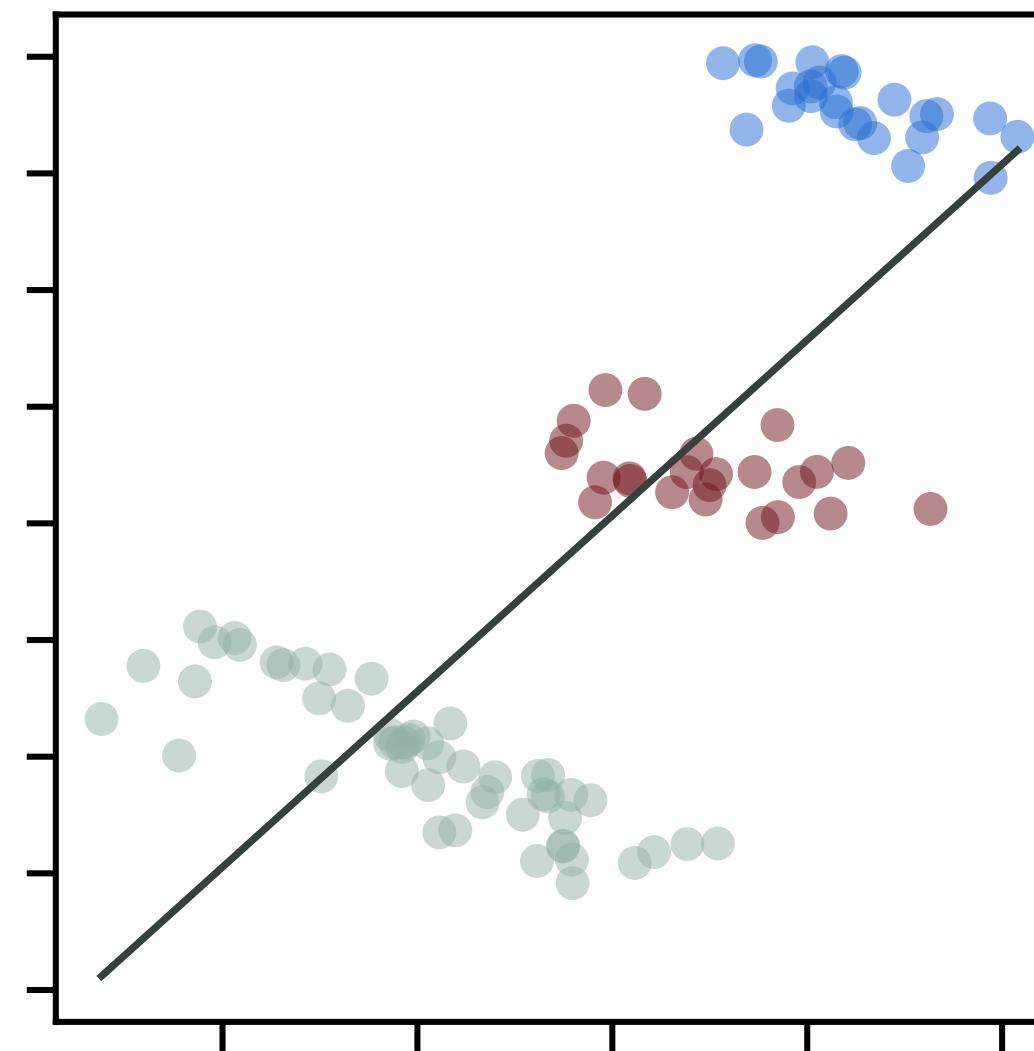
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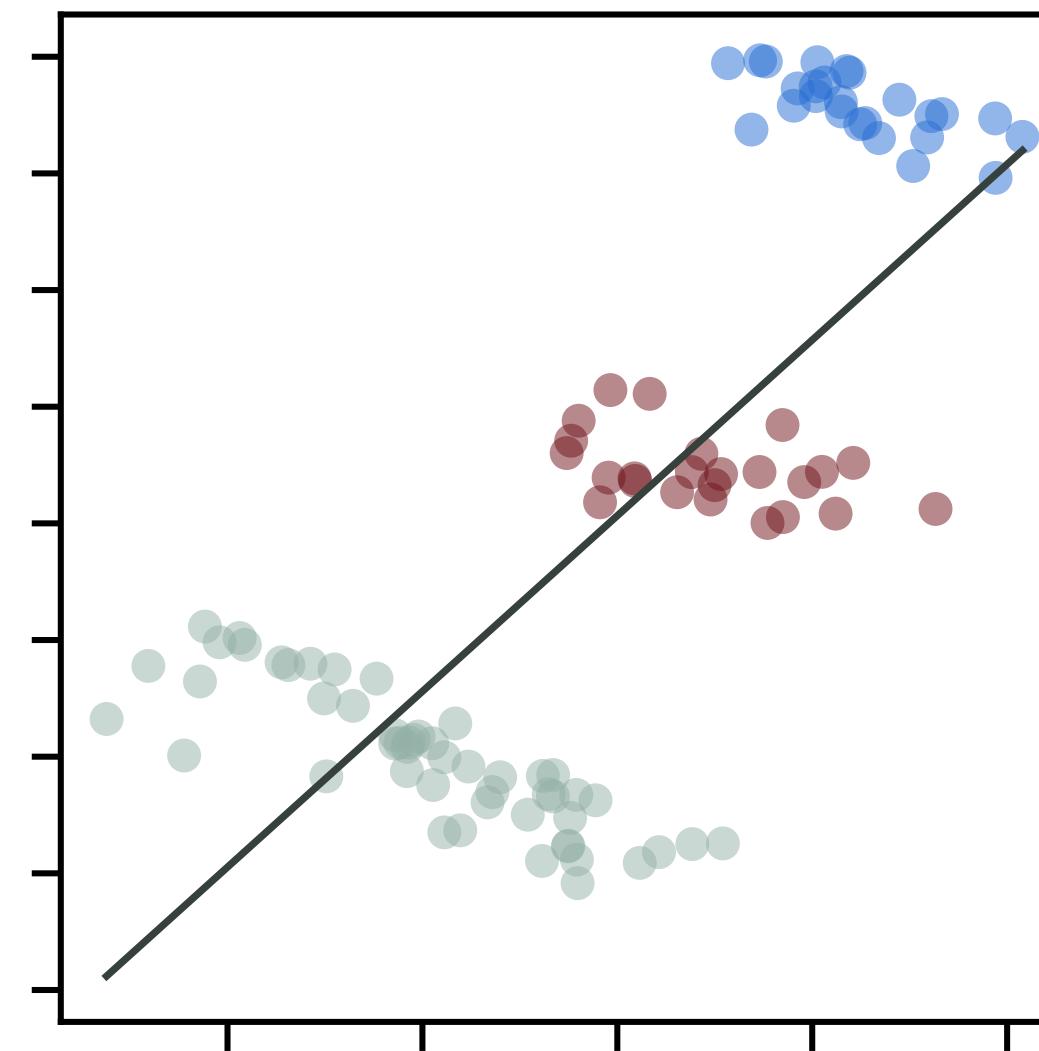
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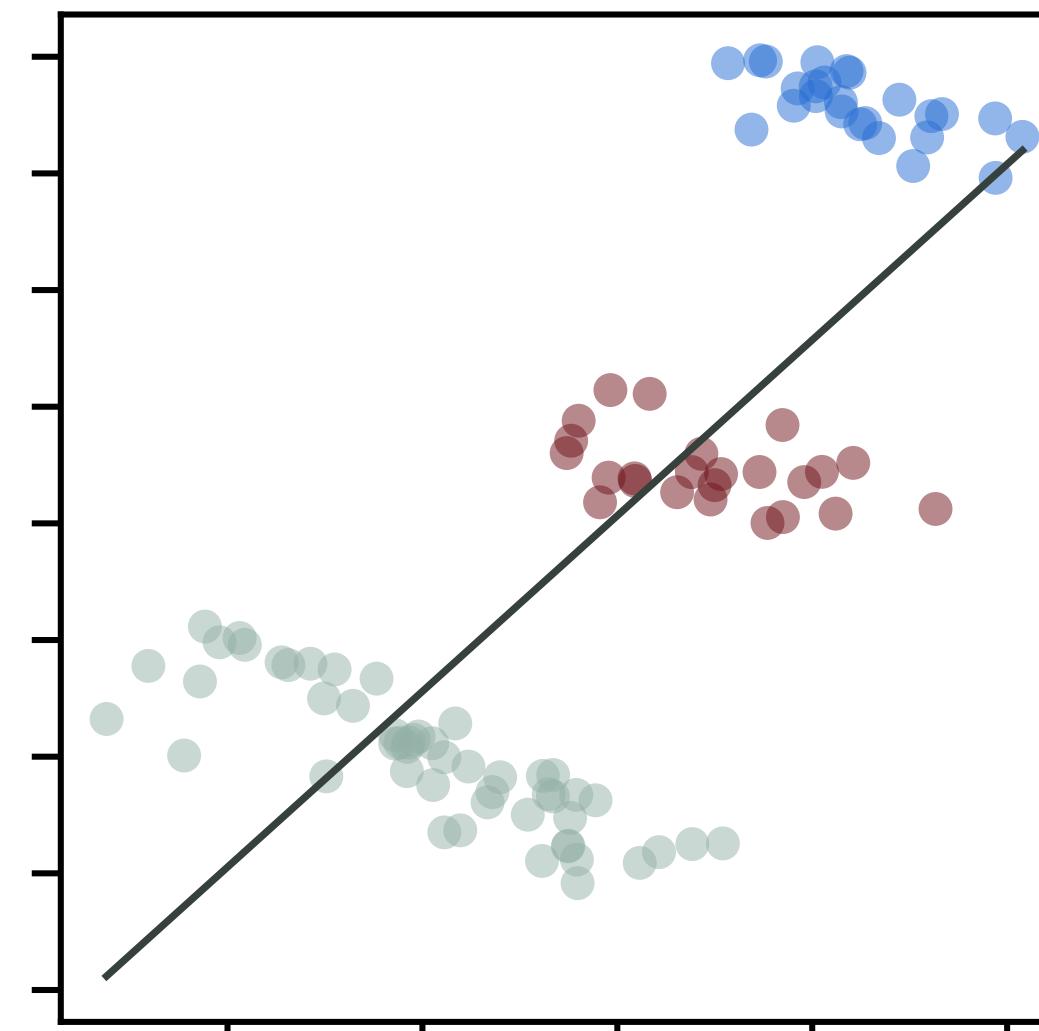


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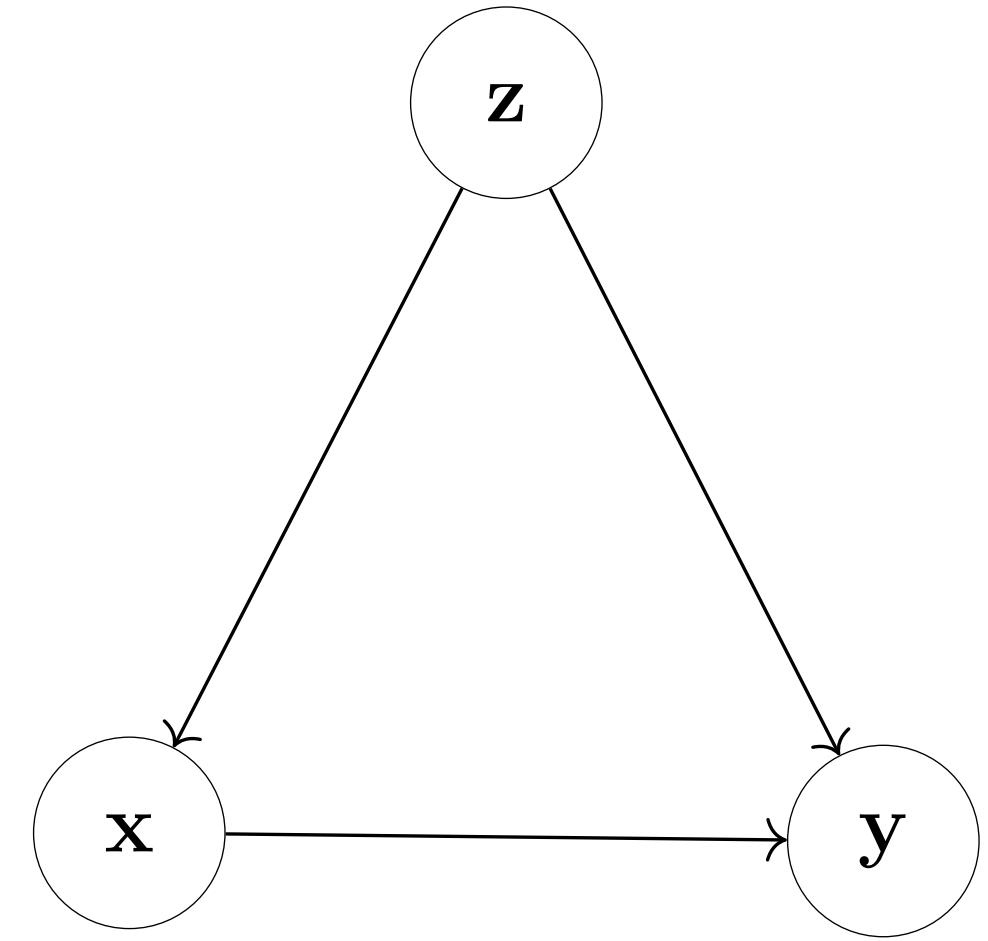
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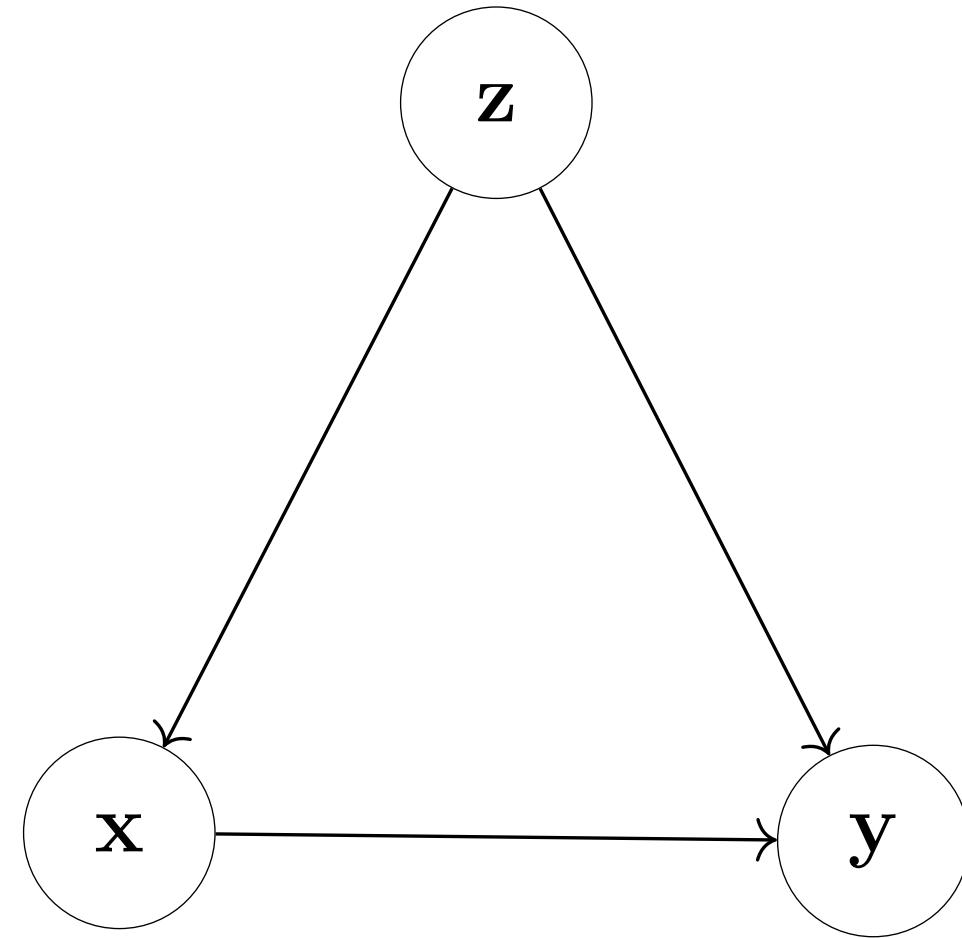
Statistically,  $X$  is positively correlated with  $Y$ ; but the intervention  $\text{do}(X = x)$  decreases  $Y$

# Modeling Cause and Effect

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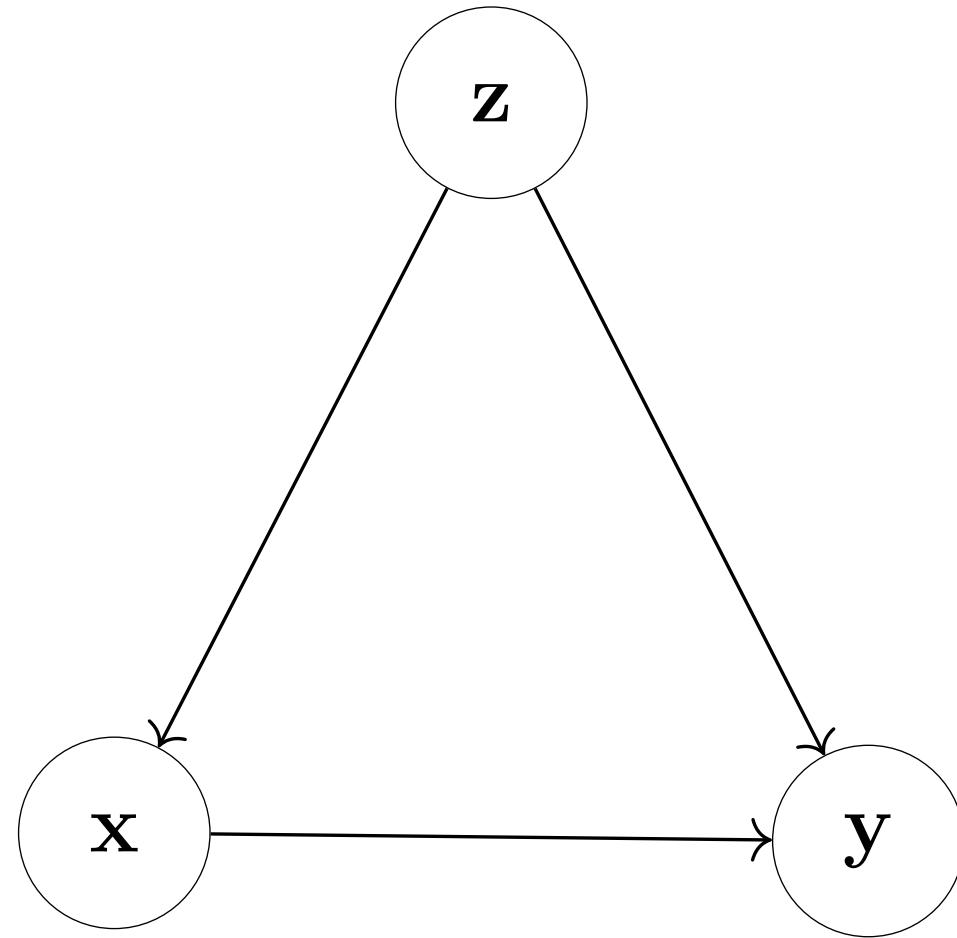


# Modeling Cause and Effect



To model Pearl's causality, we use *Bayesian networks*

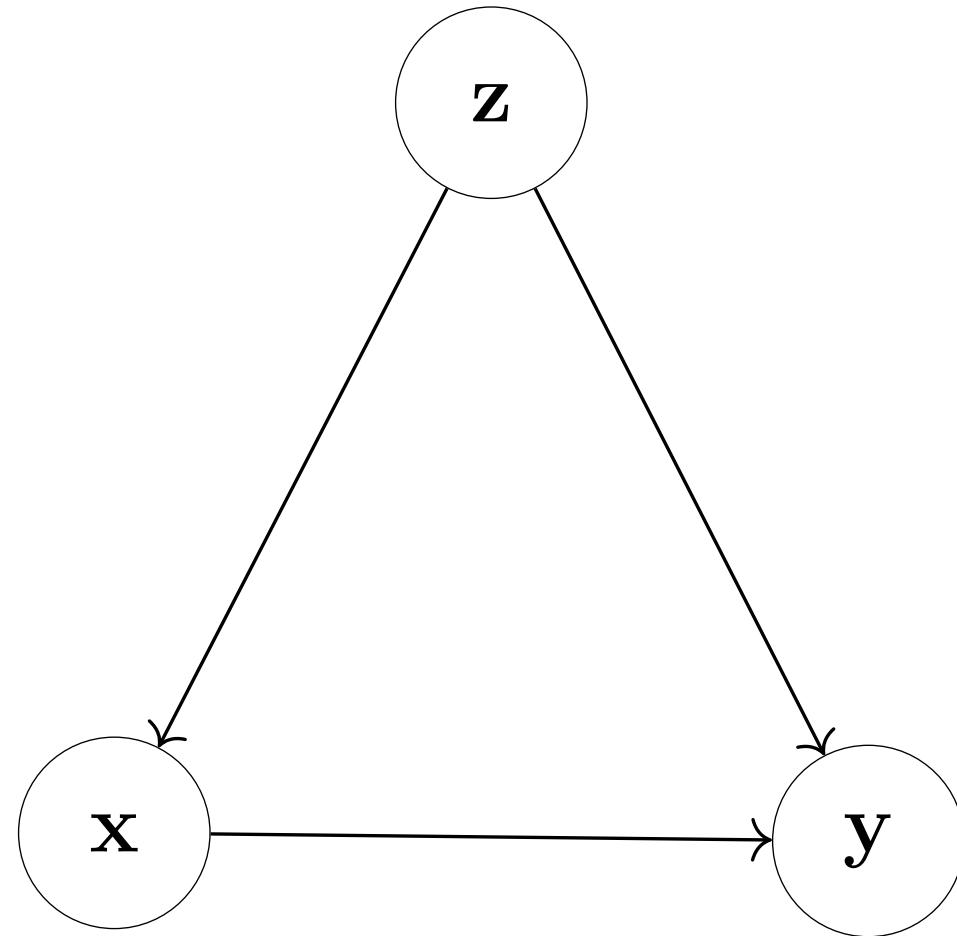
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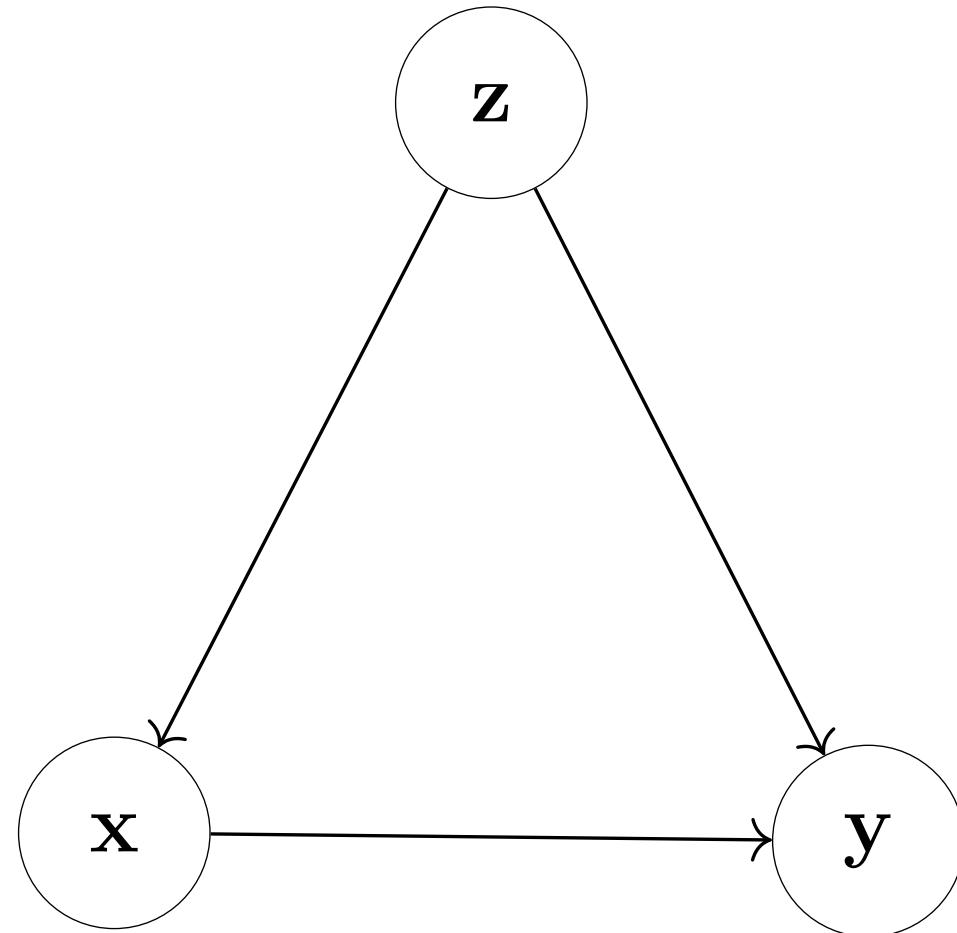


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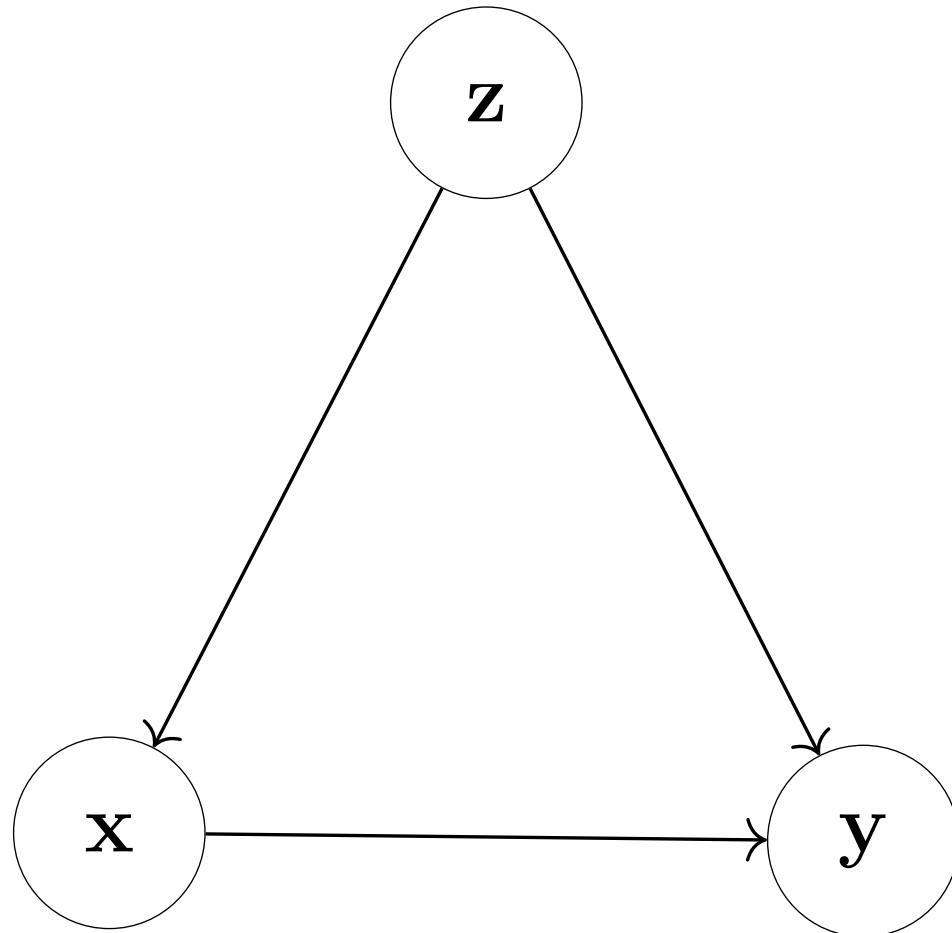
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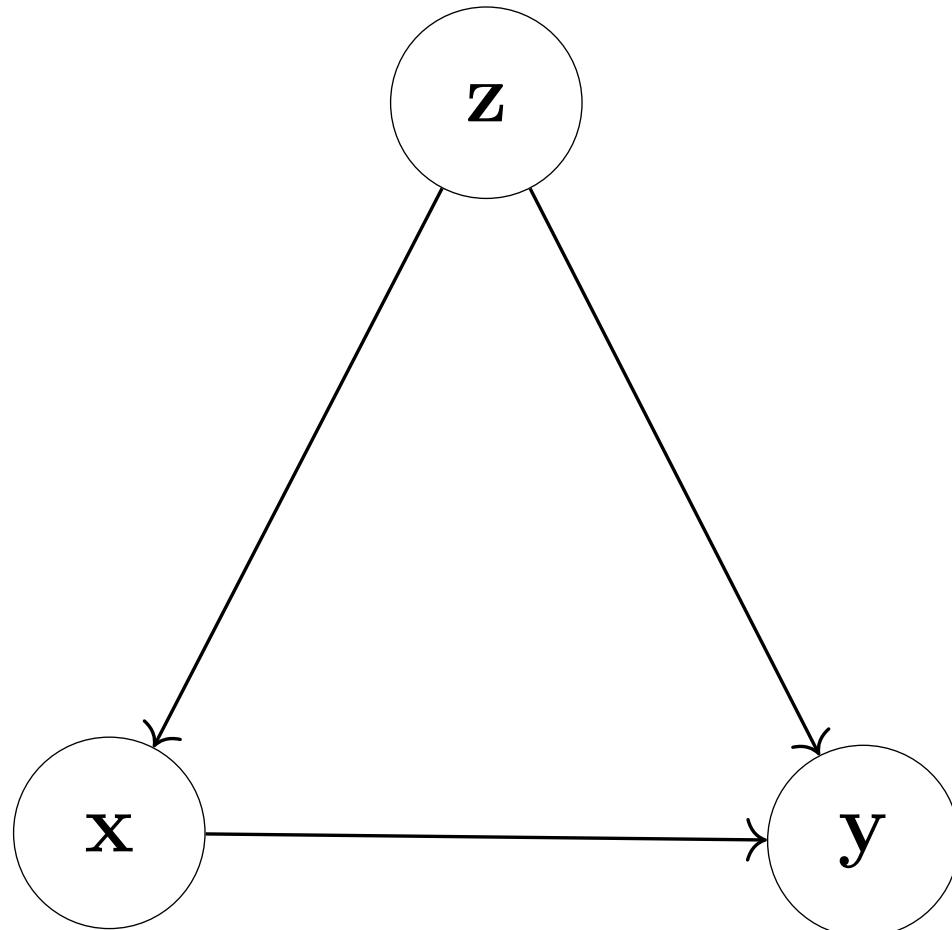
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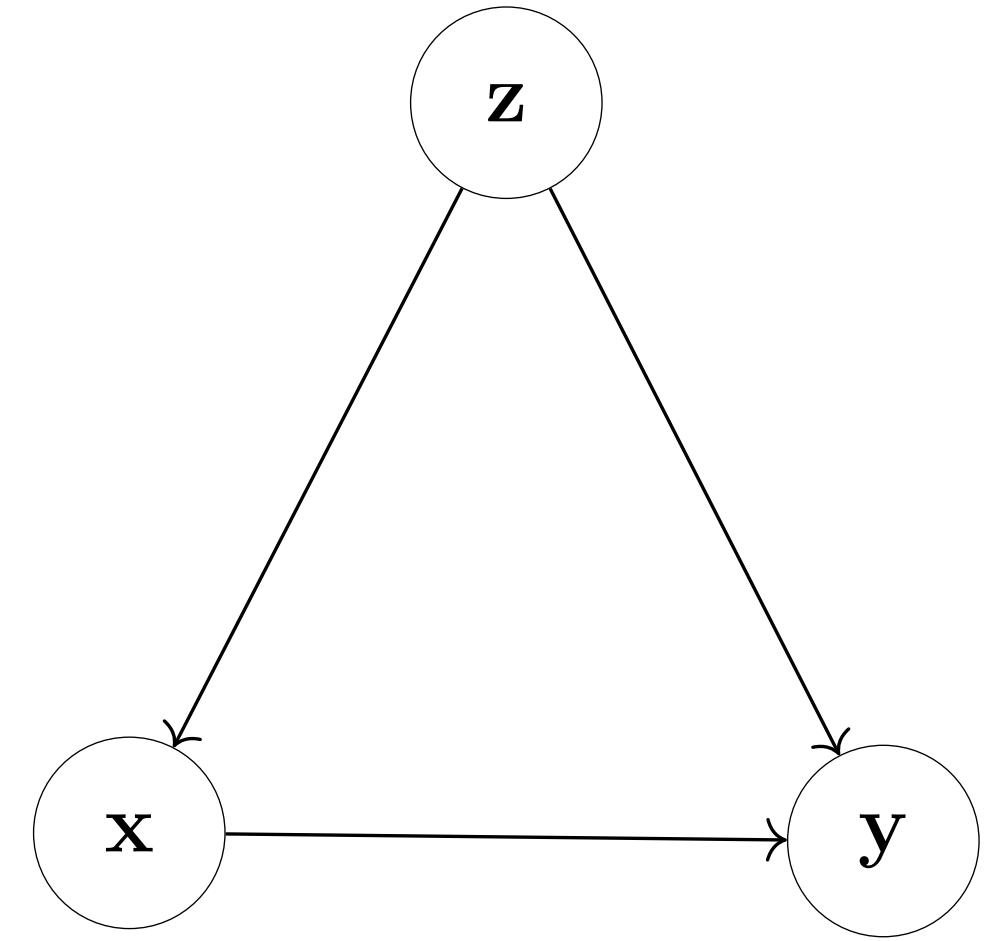
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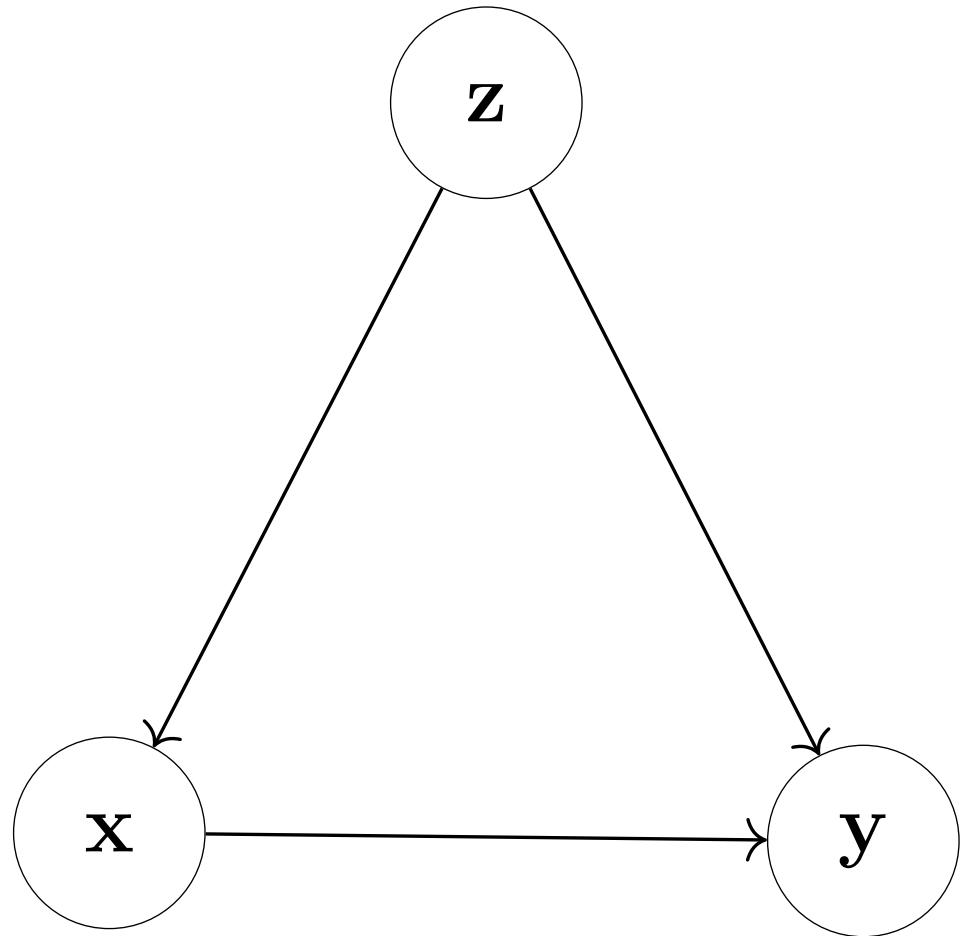
“ $Y$  is caused by  $X$  and  $Z$ ”      “ $X$  is caused by  $Z$ ”      “ $Z$  is exogenous”

# Modeling Cause and Effect

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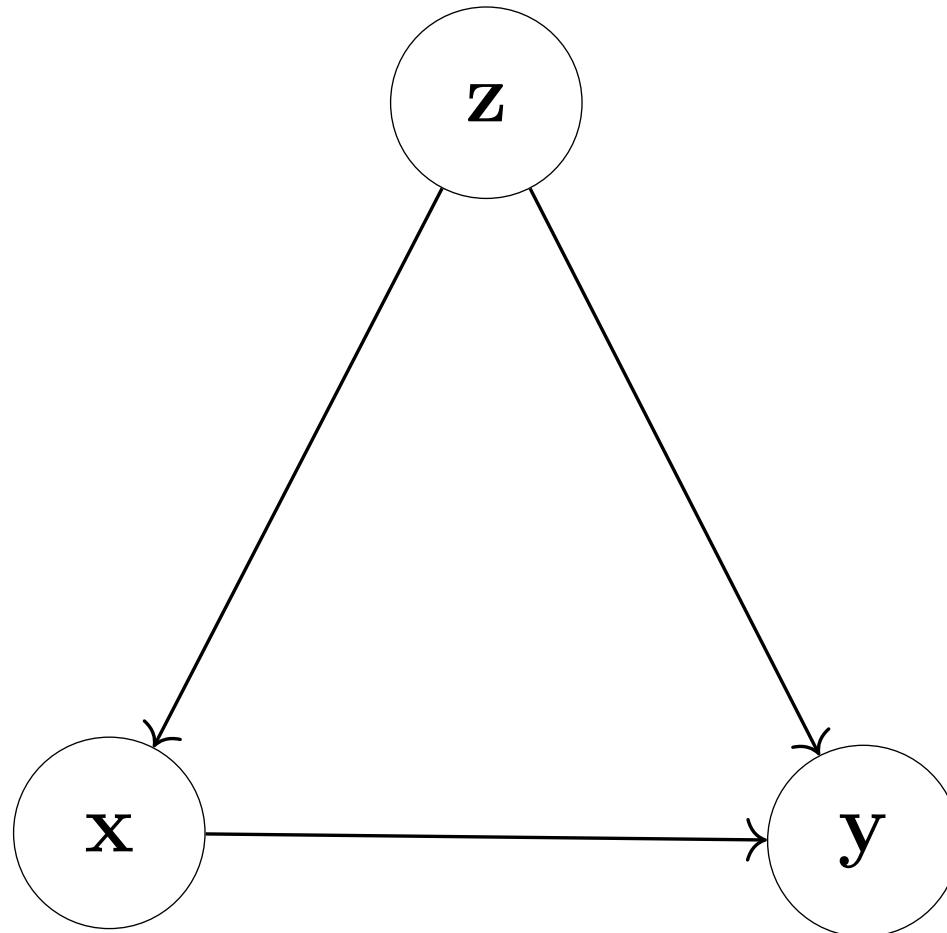


# Modeling Cause and Effect



By reparameterizing, we can always rewrite the Bayesian network functionally

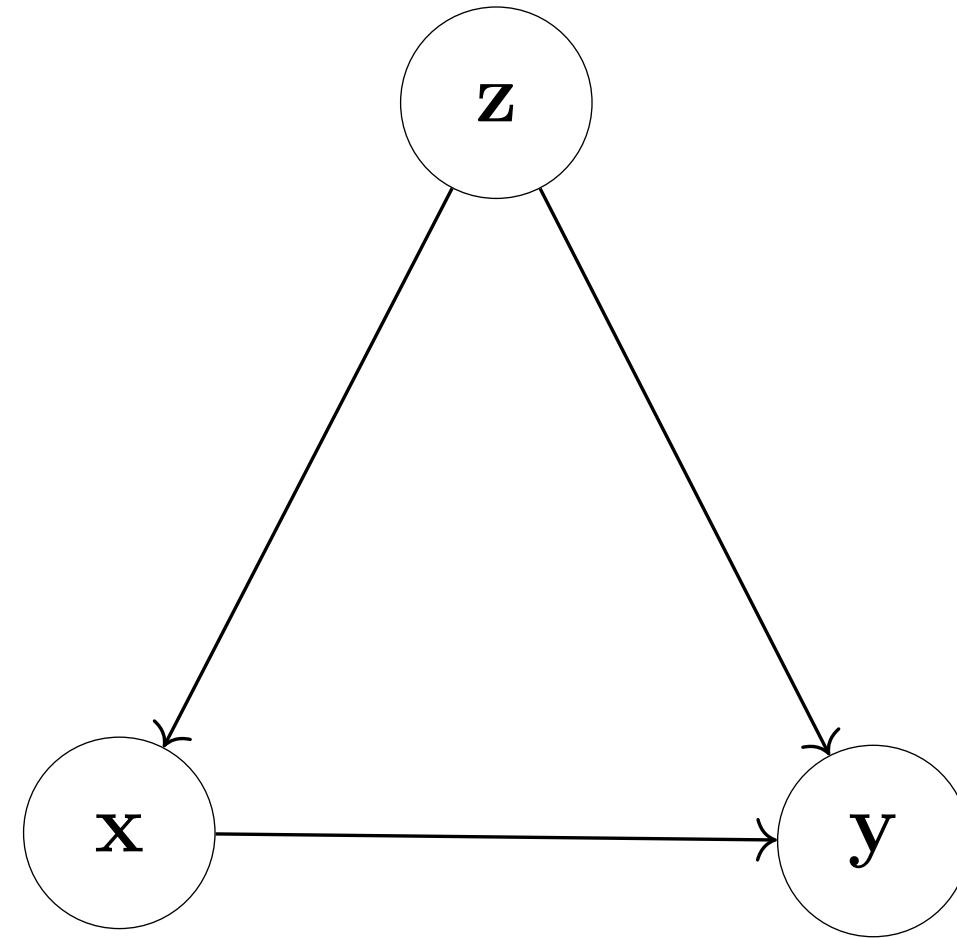
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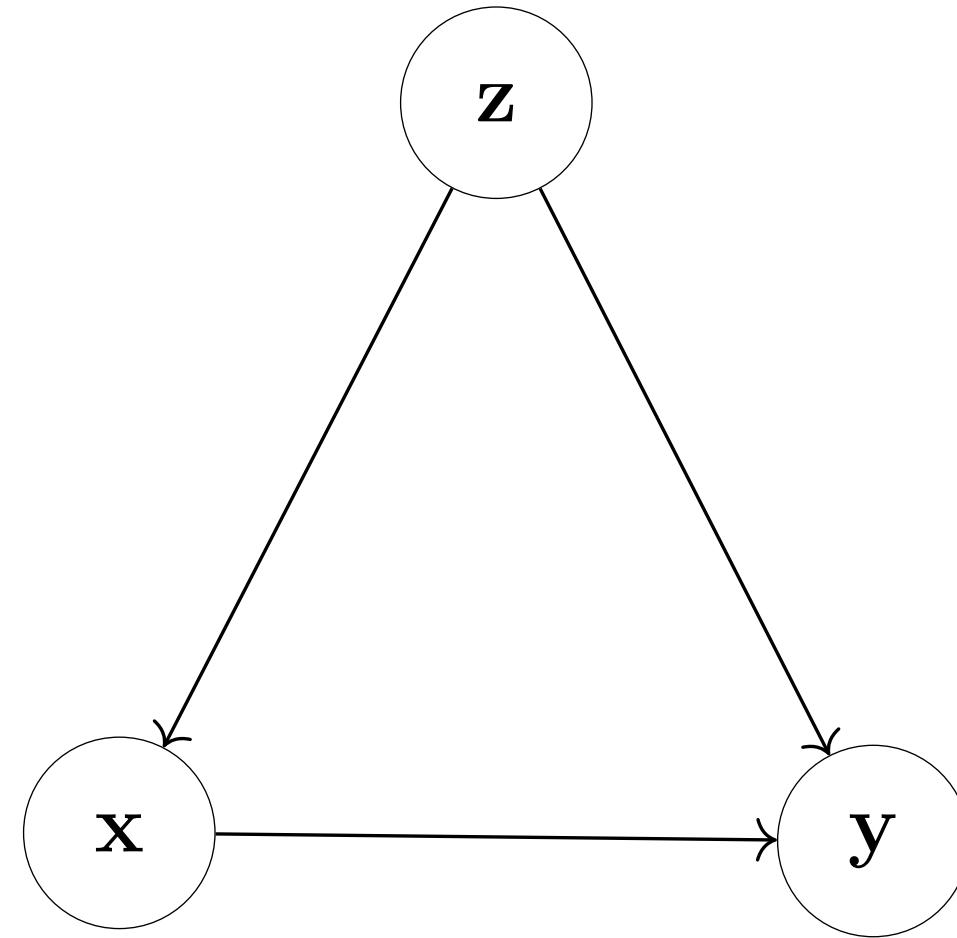


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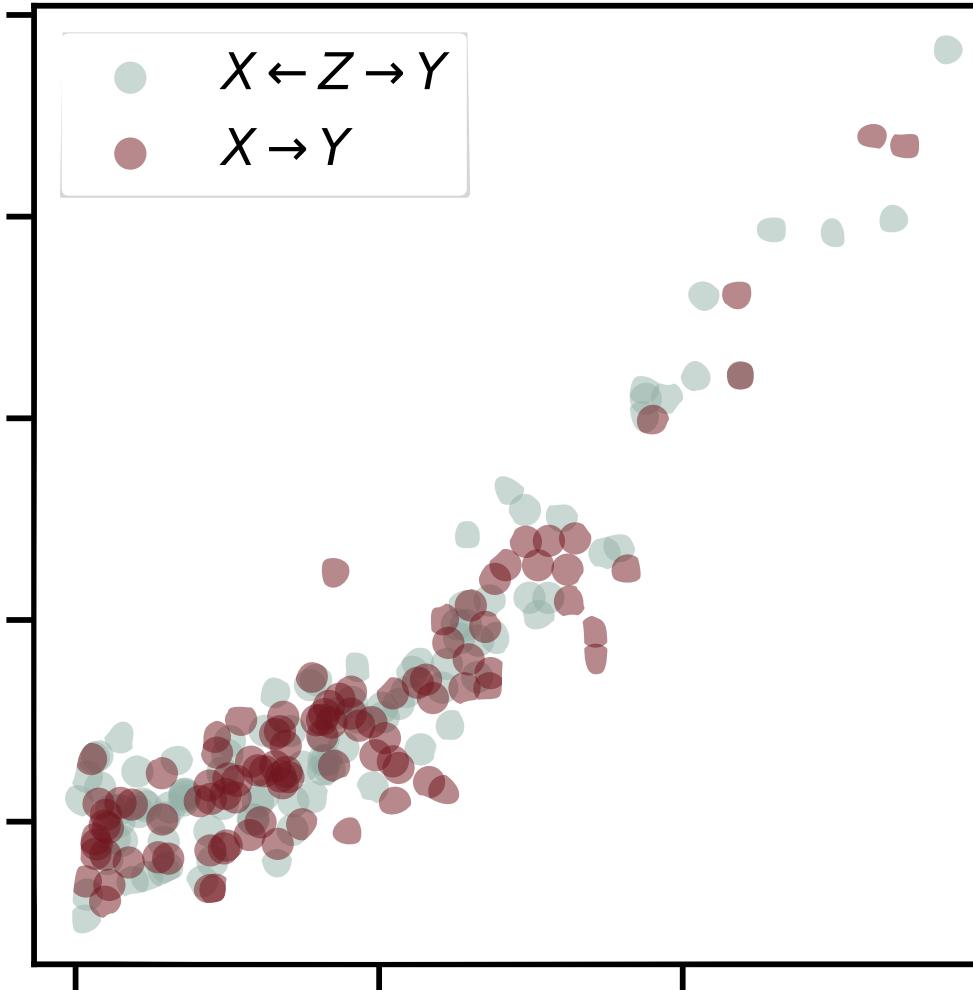
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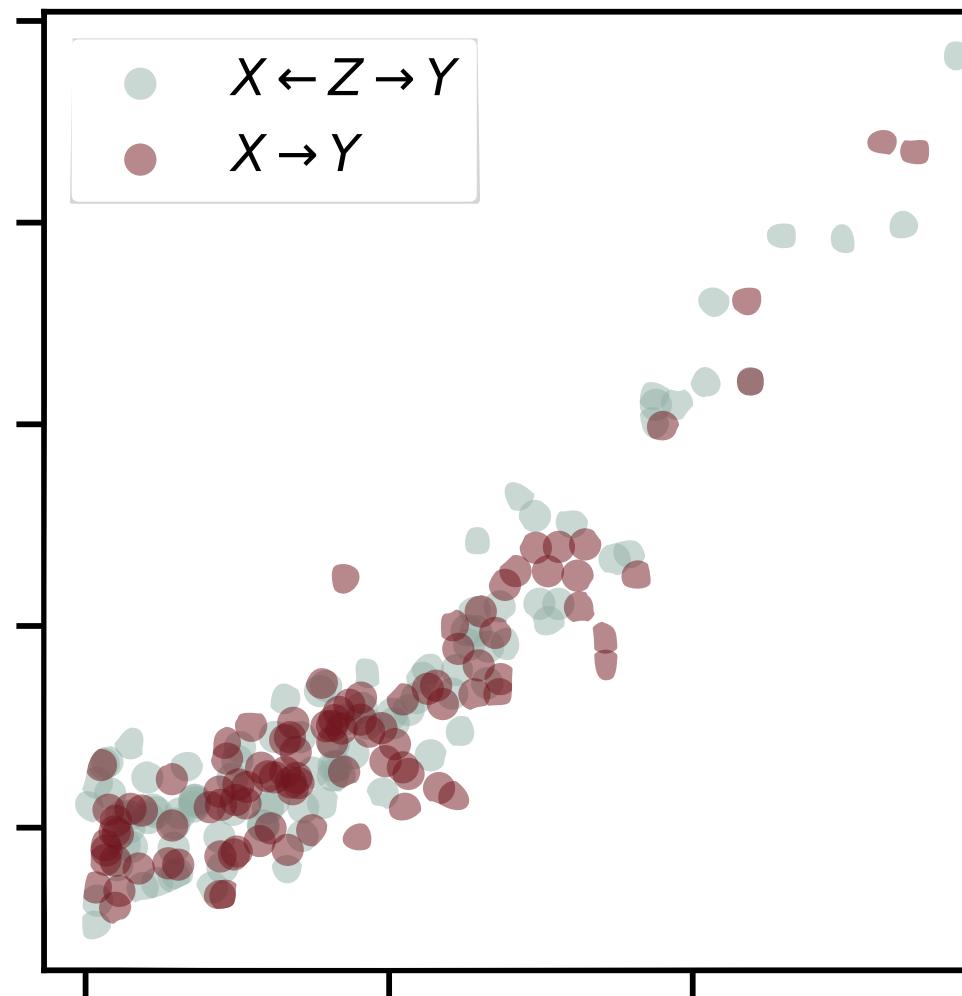
“X is a function of its parents (causes)  
and a noise term”

# We Need Interventions or Assumptions To Discover Causality



# We Need Interventions or Assumptions

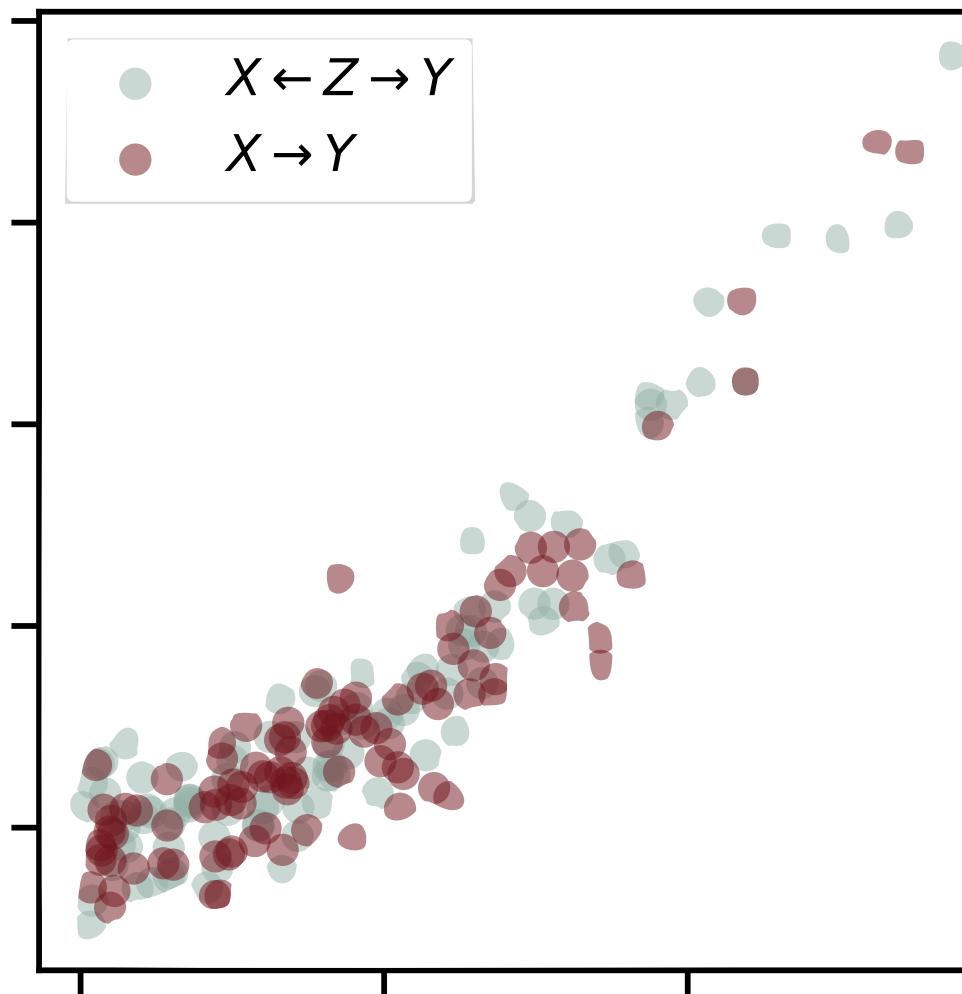
## To Discover Causality



Causal discovery is ill-posed for observational data

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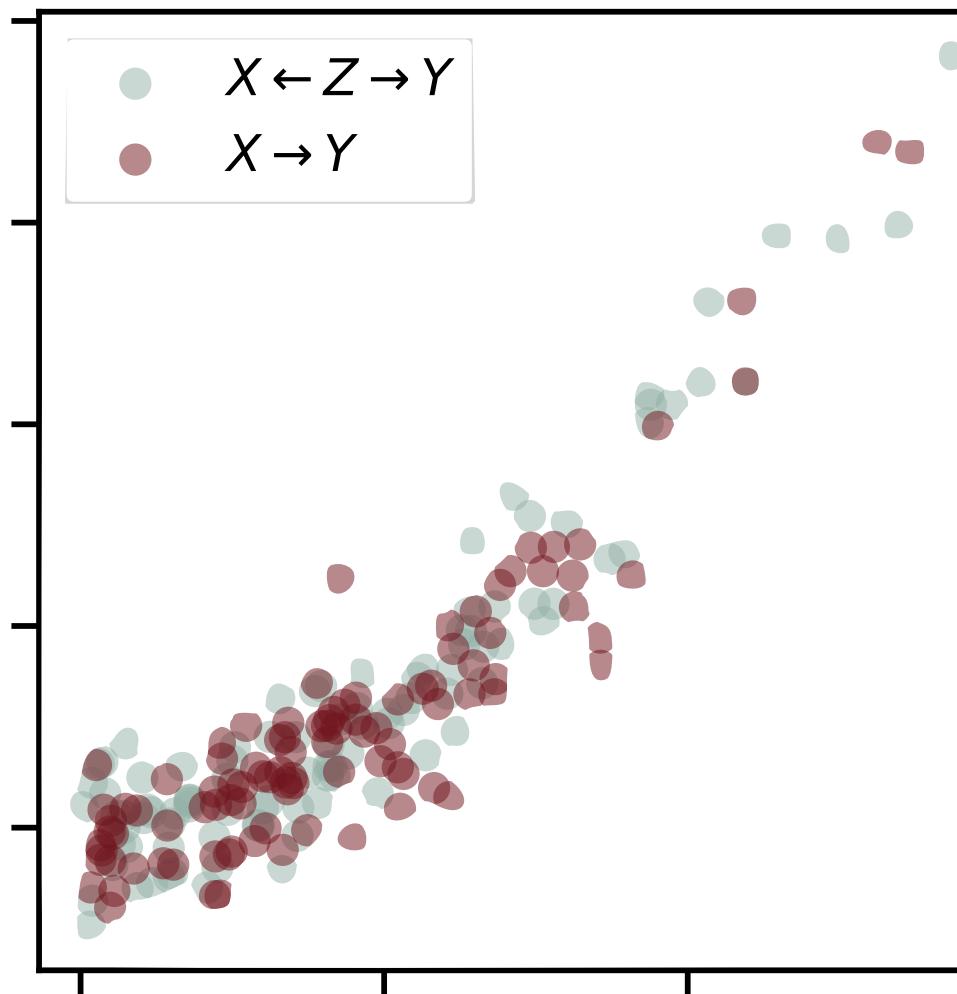


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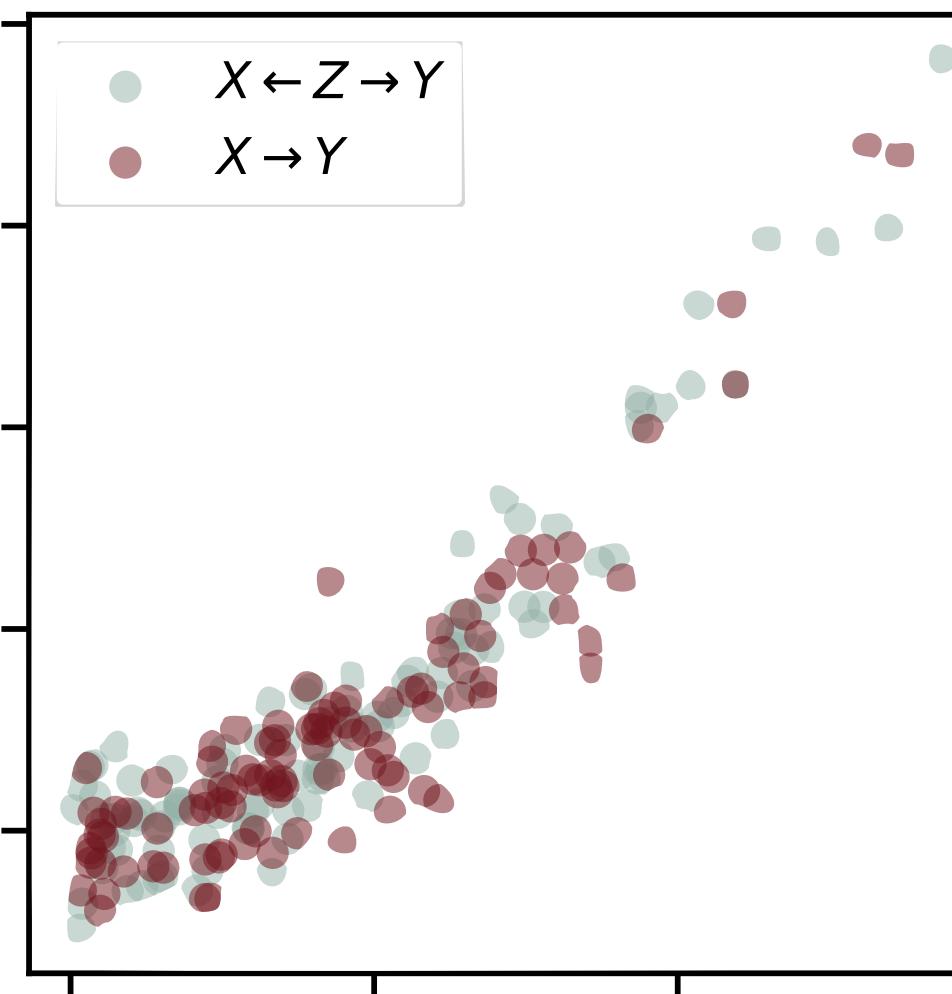
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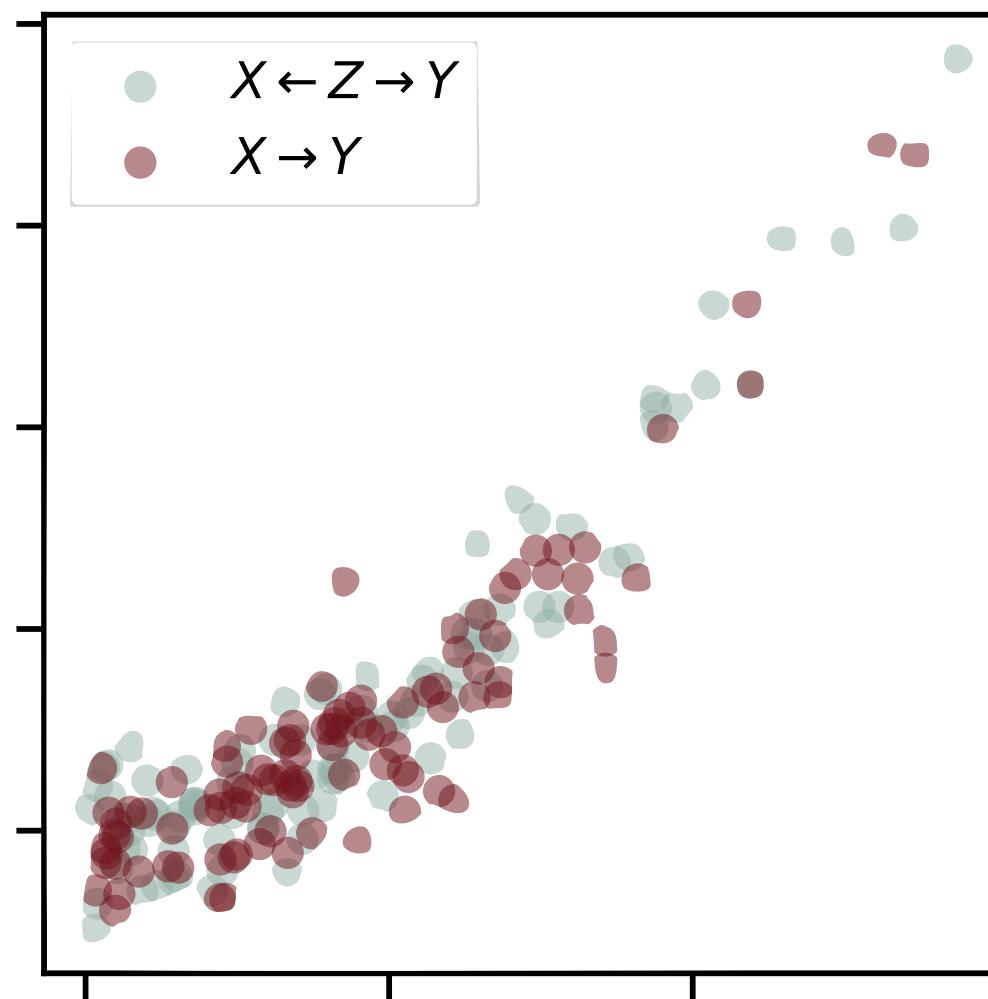
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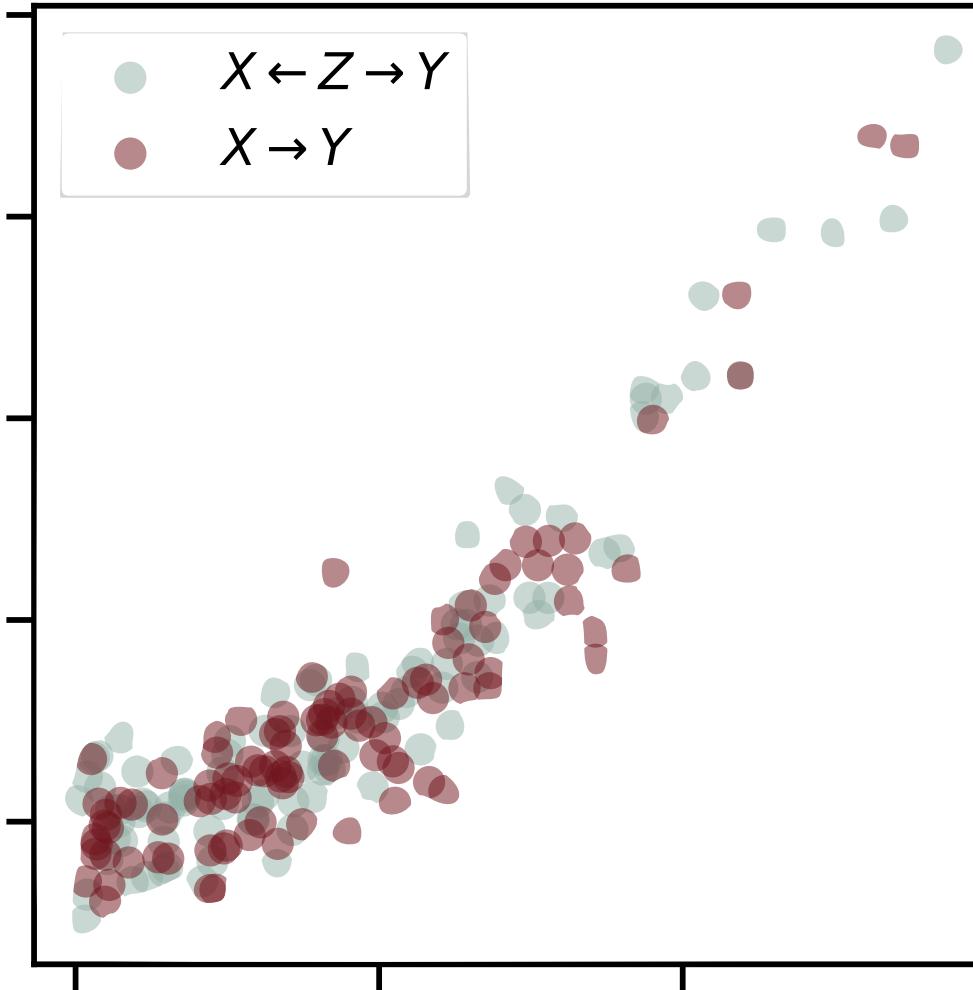
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- Make assumptions about the data-generating process

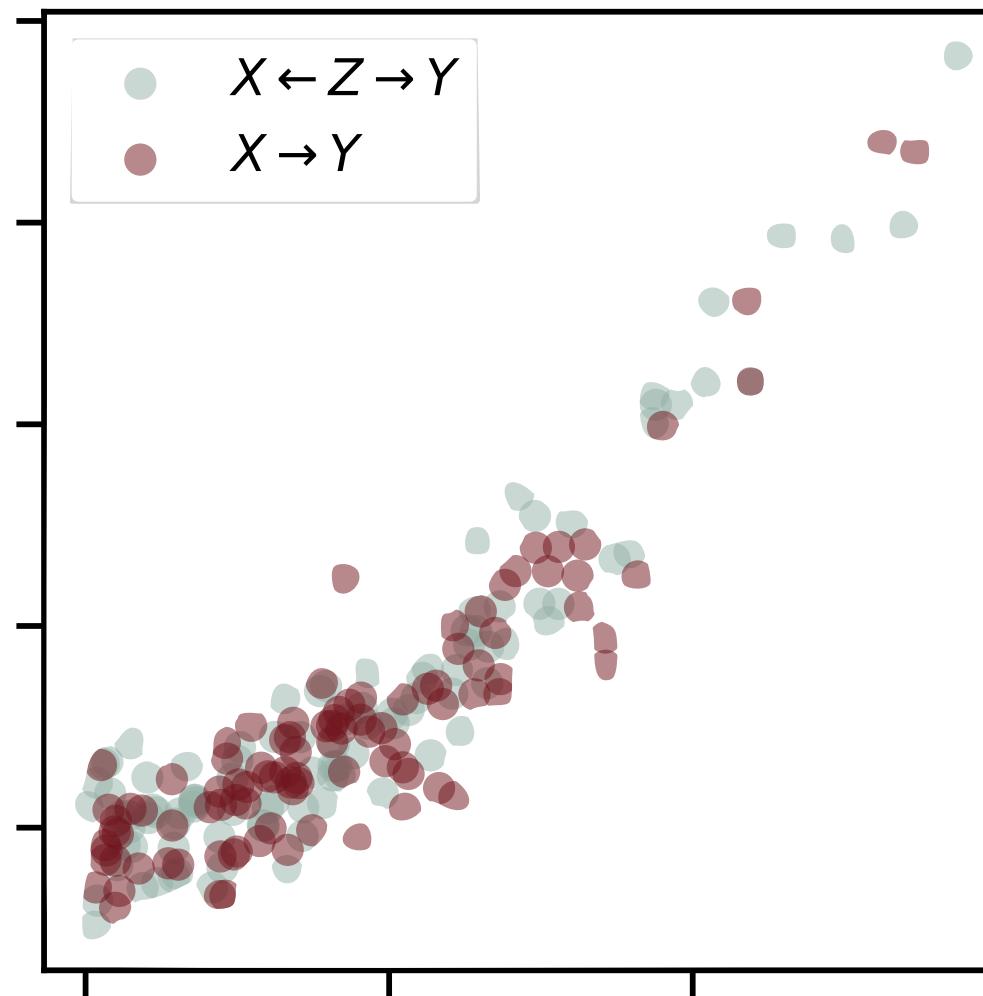
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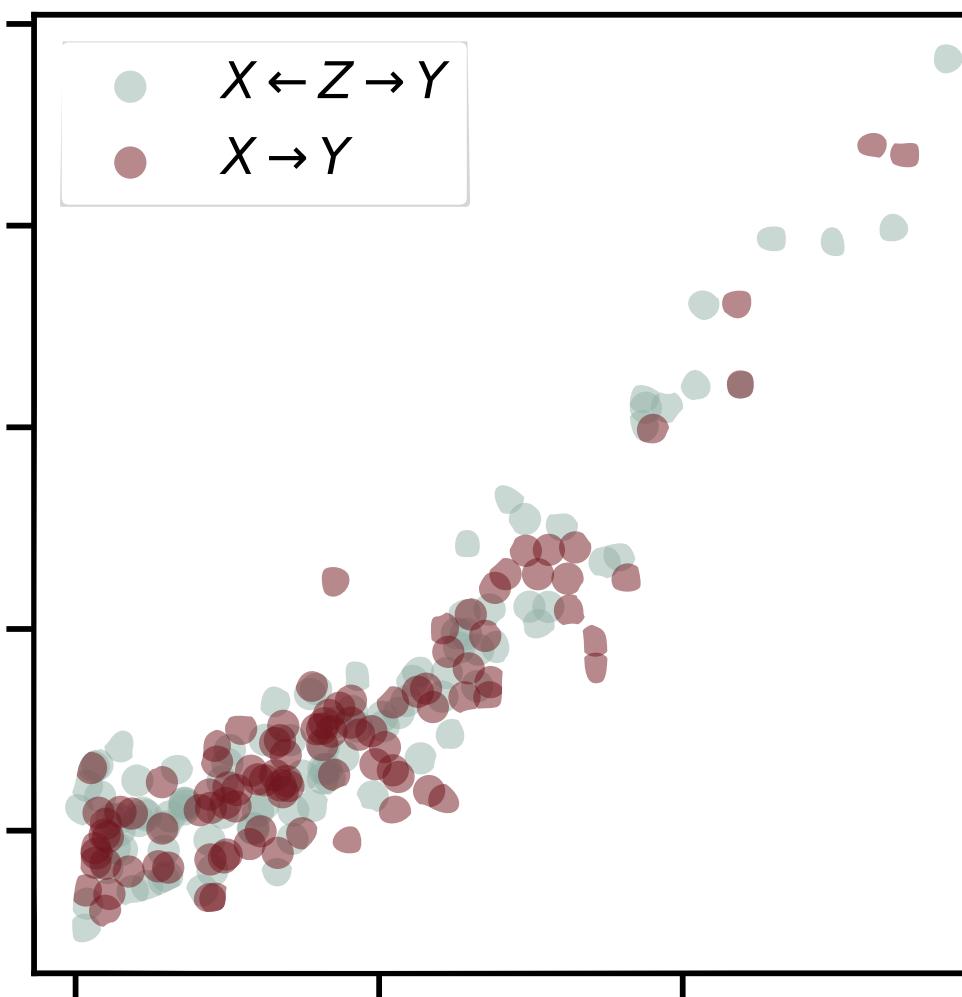
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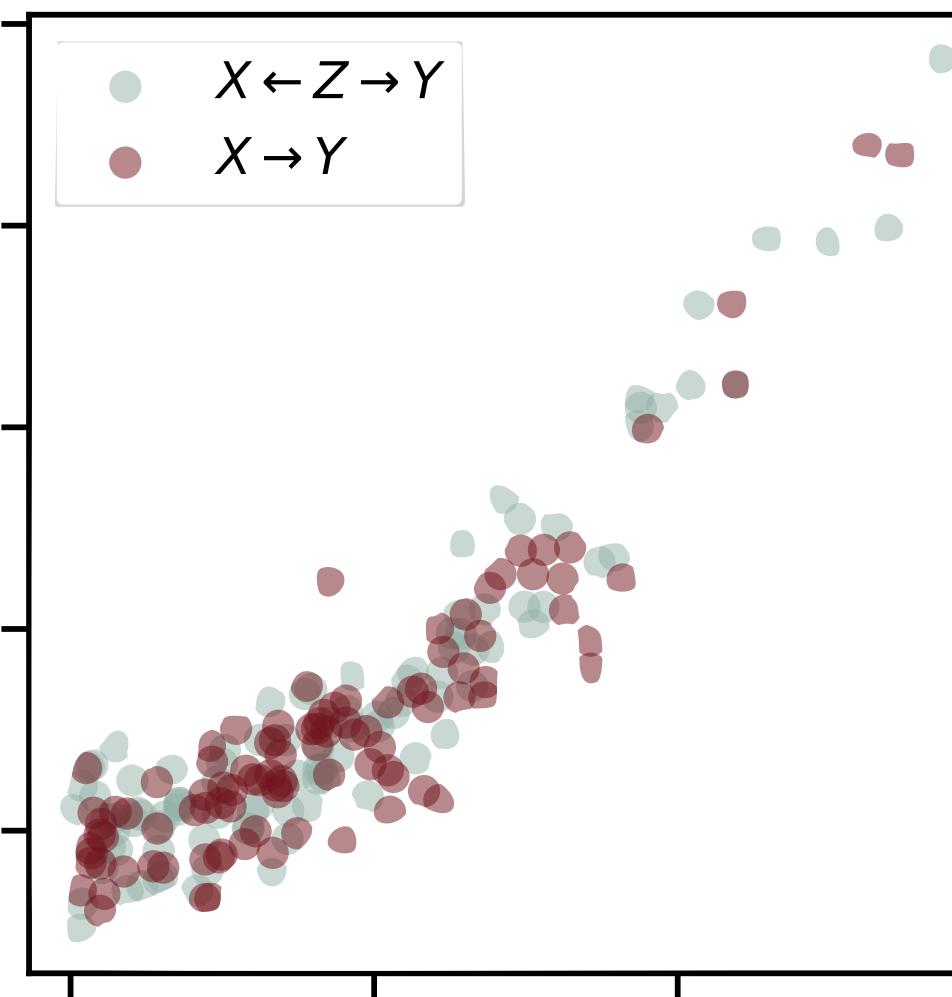


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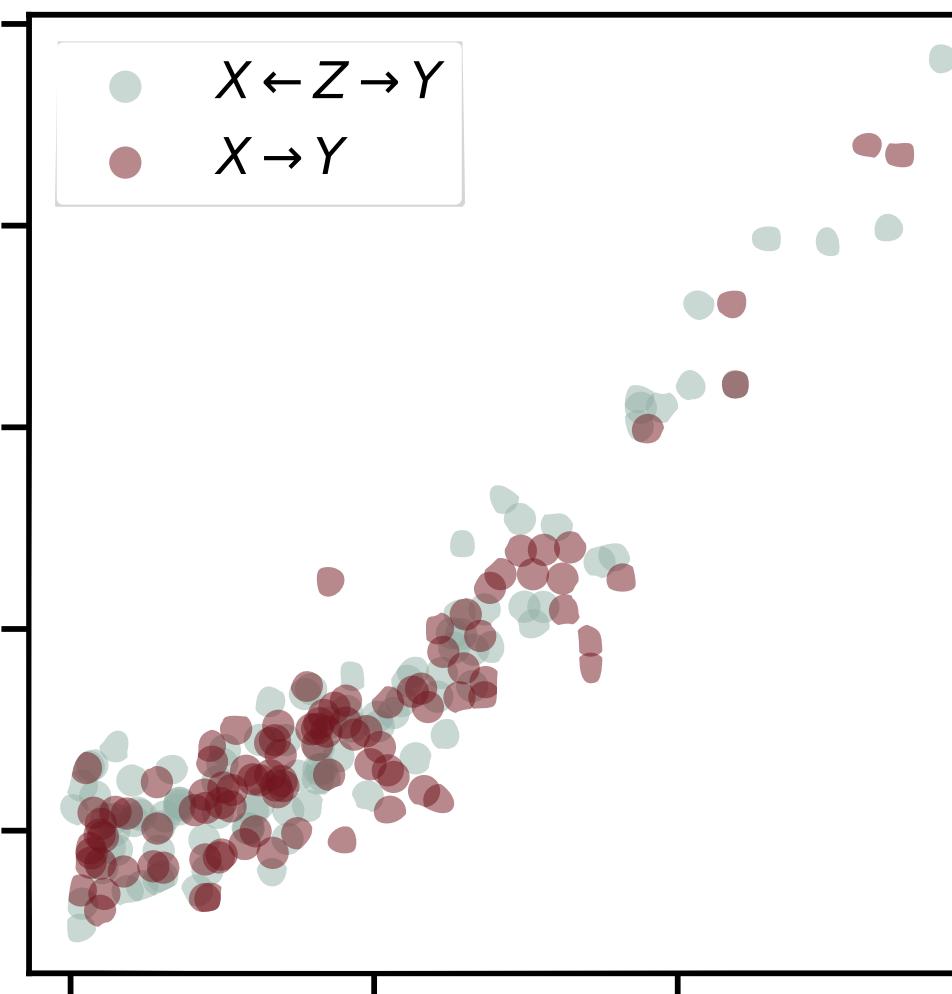


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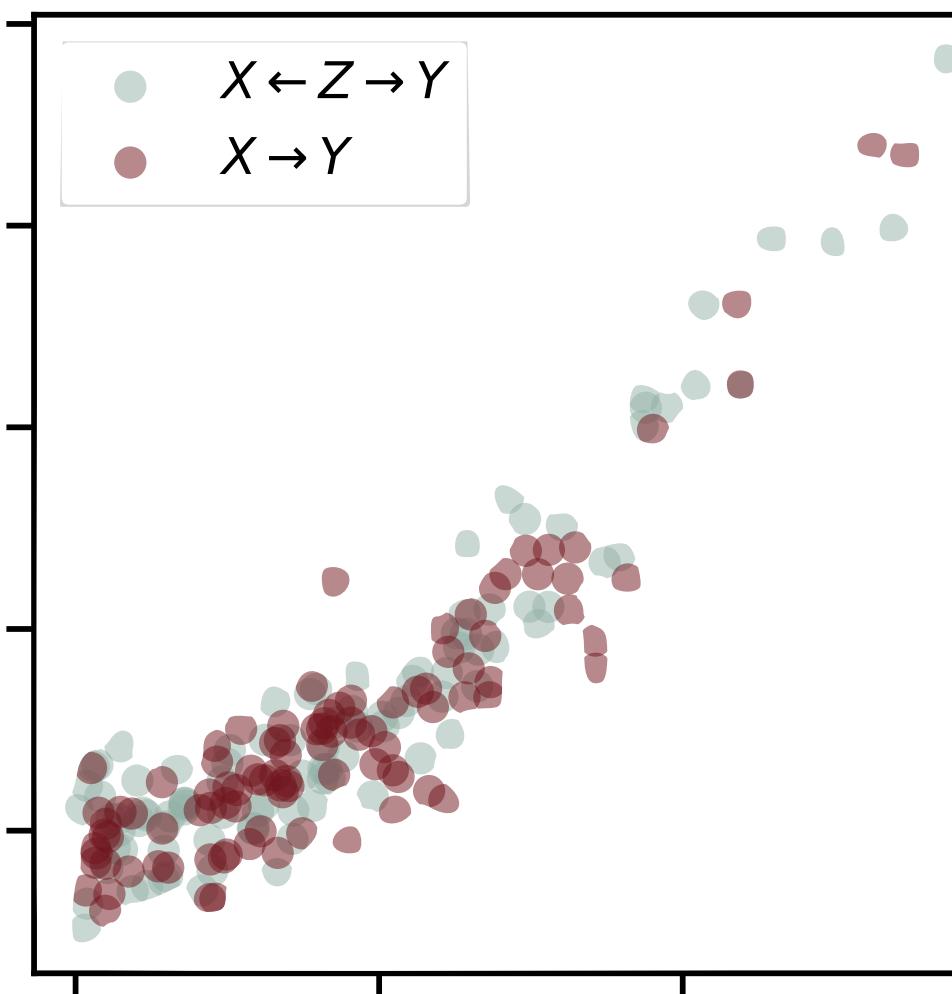


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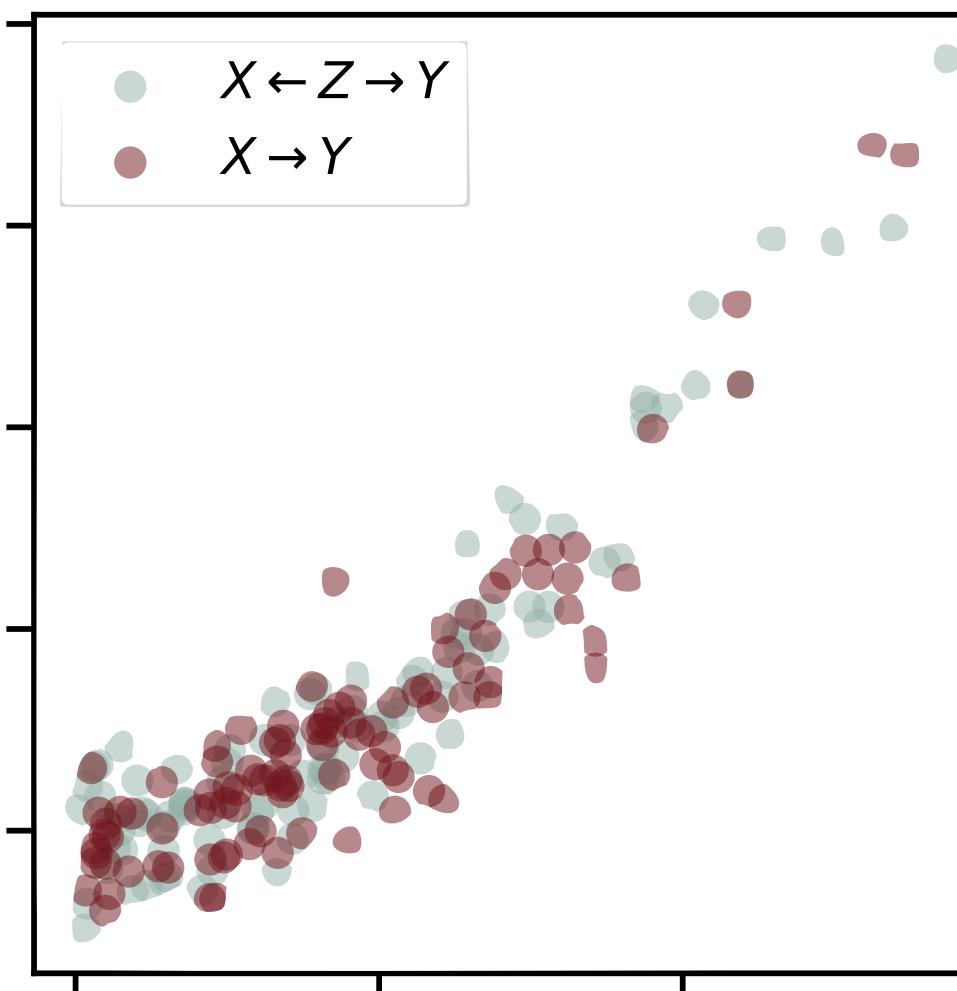


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break symmetry

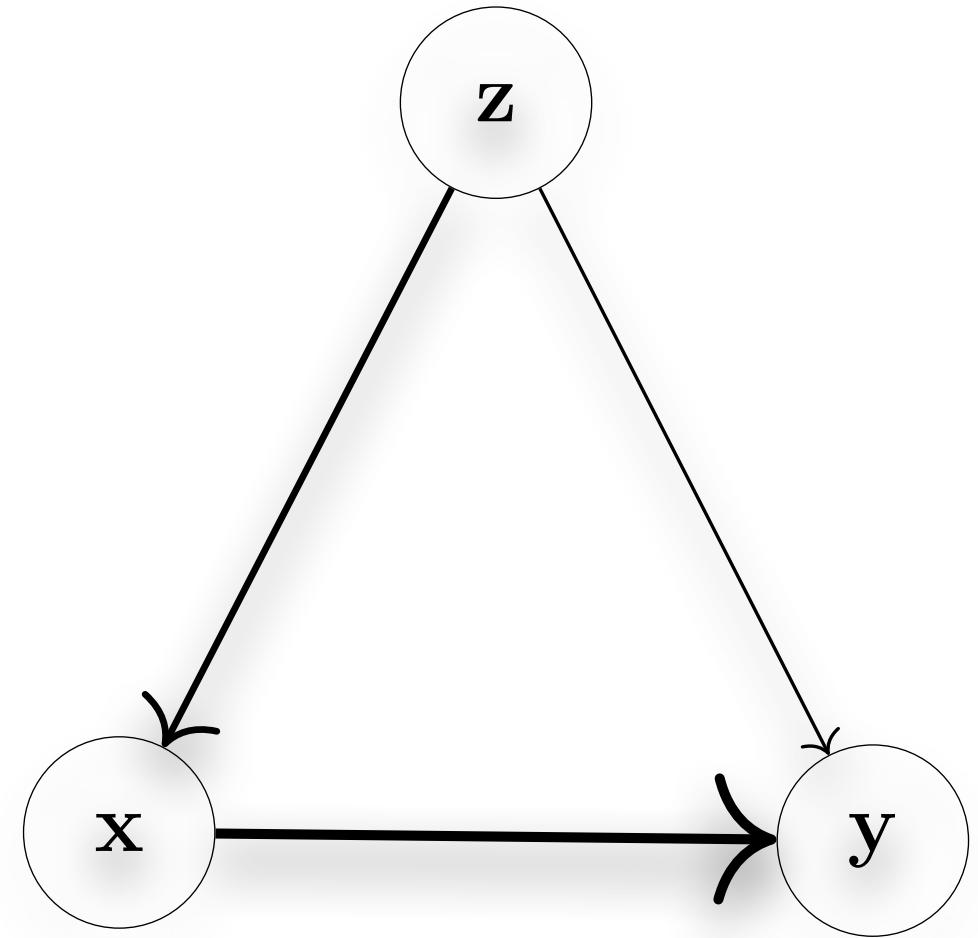
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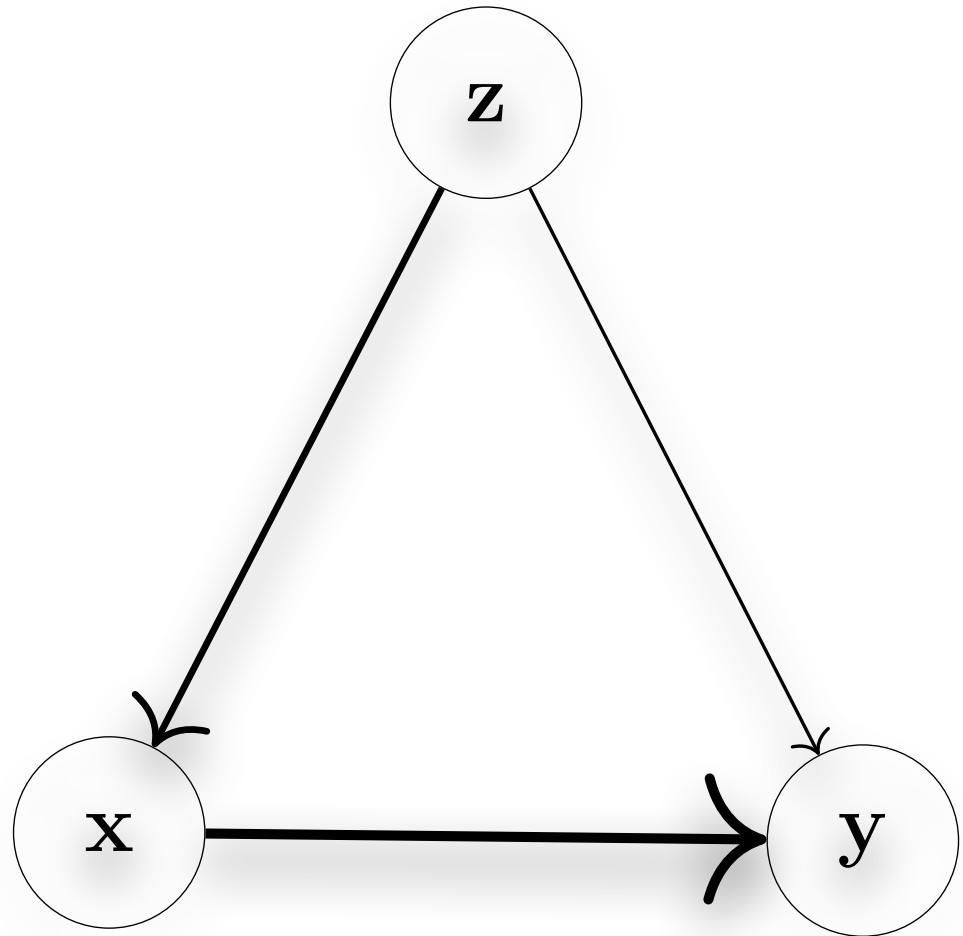
- Using these notions from causal inference, we'll talk about
- How to quantify causal strengths
  - How to find “hidden common causes” using causal strength
  - Using causal strength to discovery causal relationships from observational data
  - Some concluding thoughts

# Quantifying Causal Strength

# Why Causal Strength?

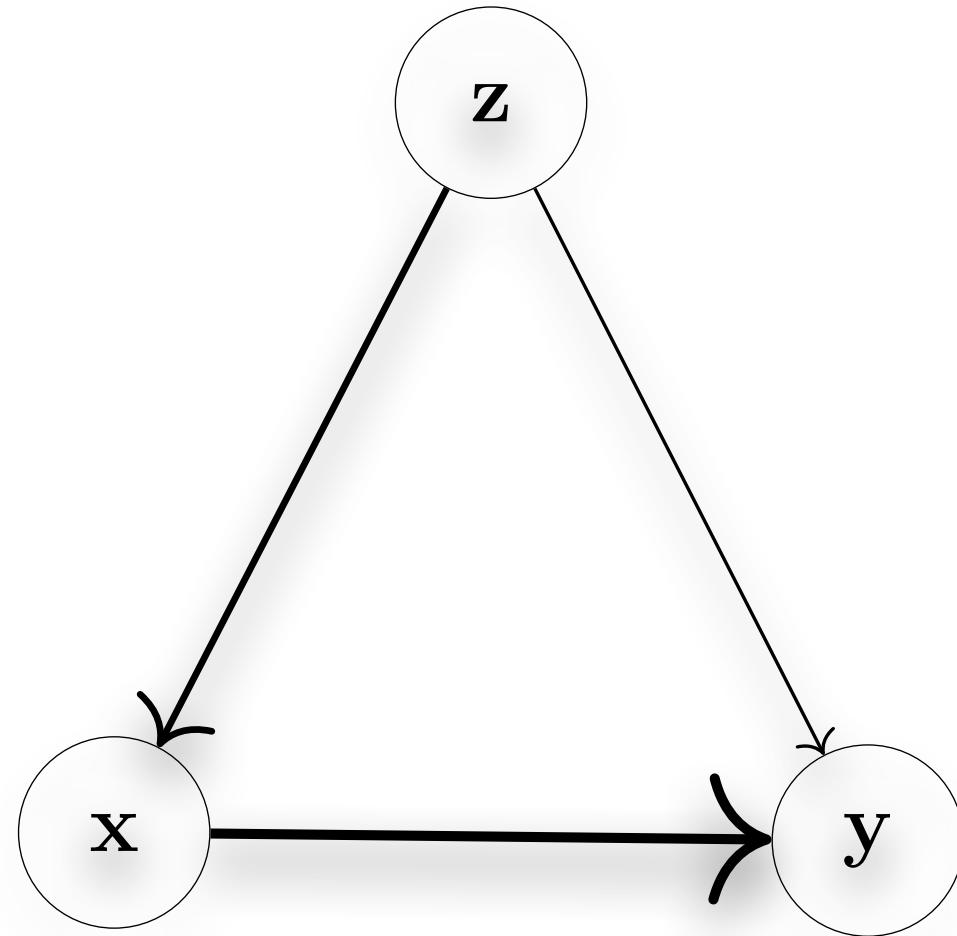


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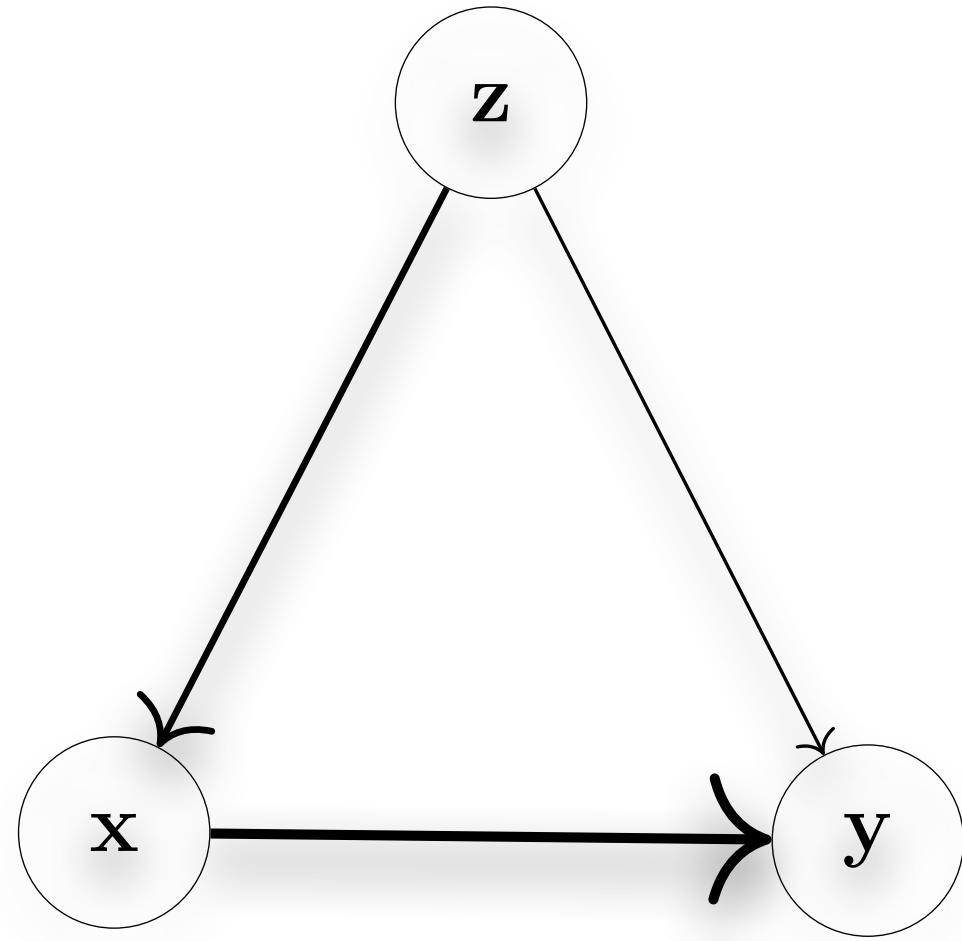
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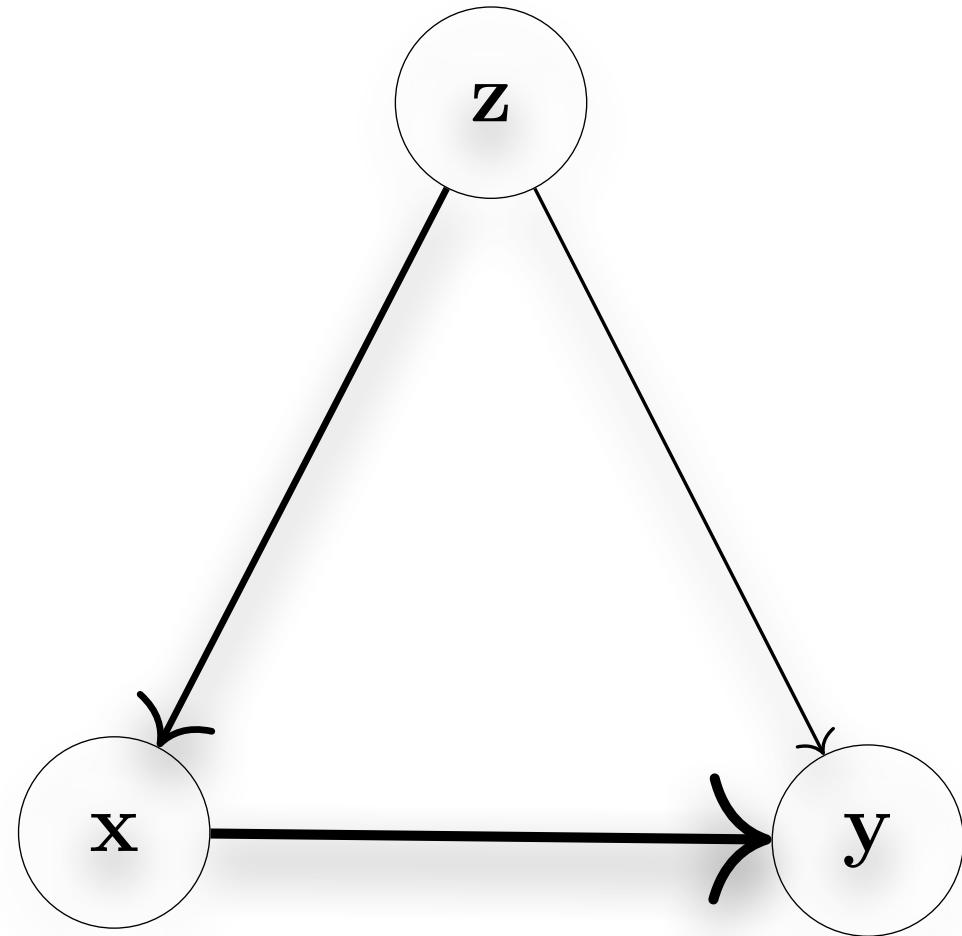


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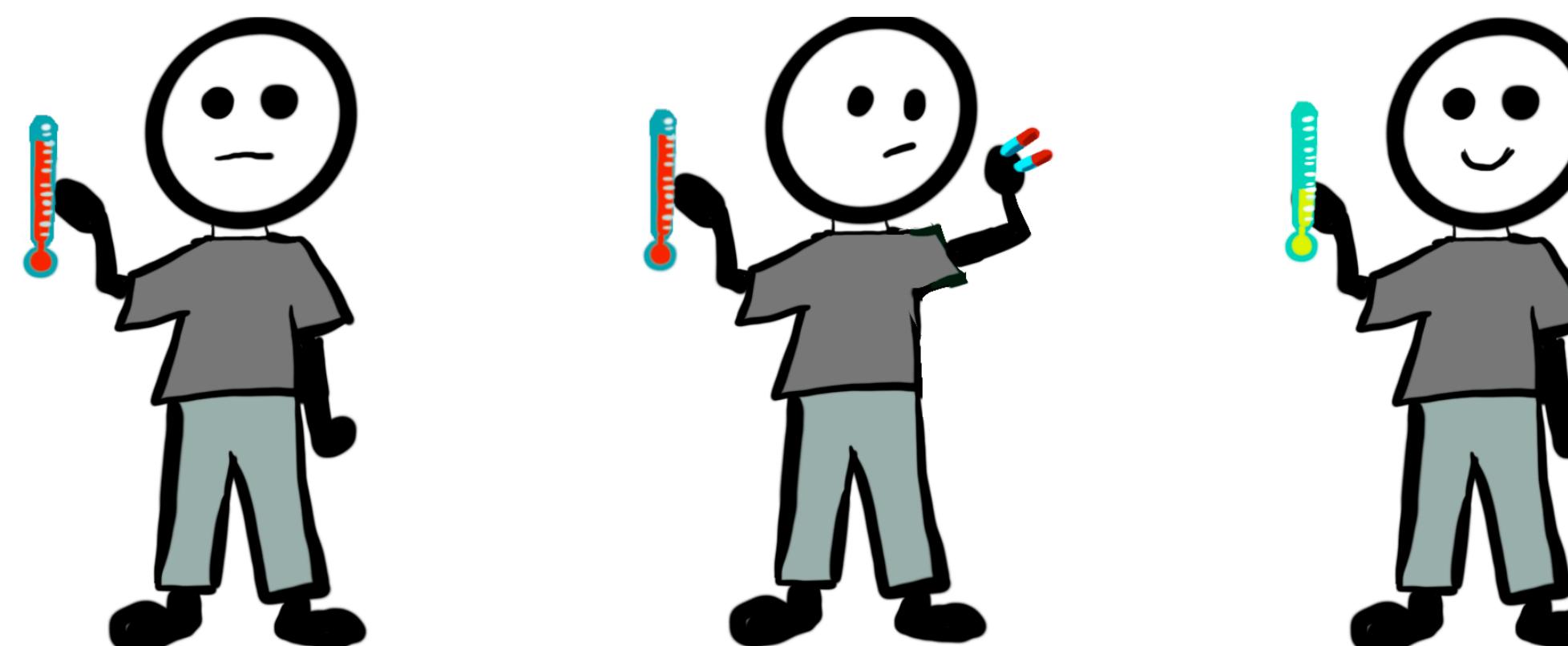
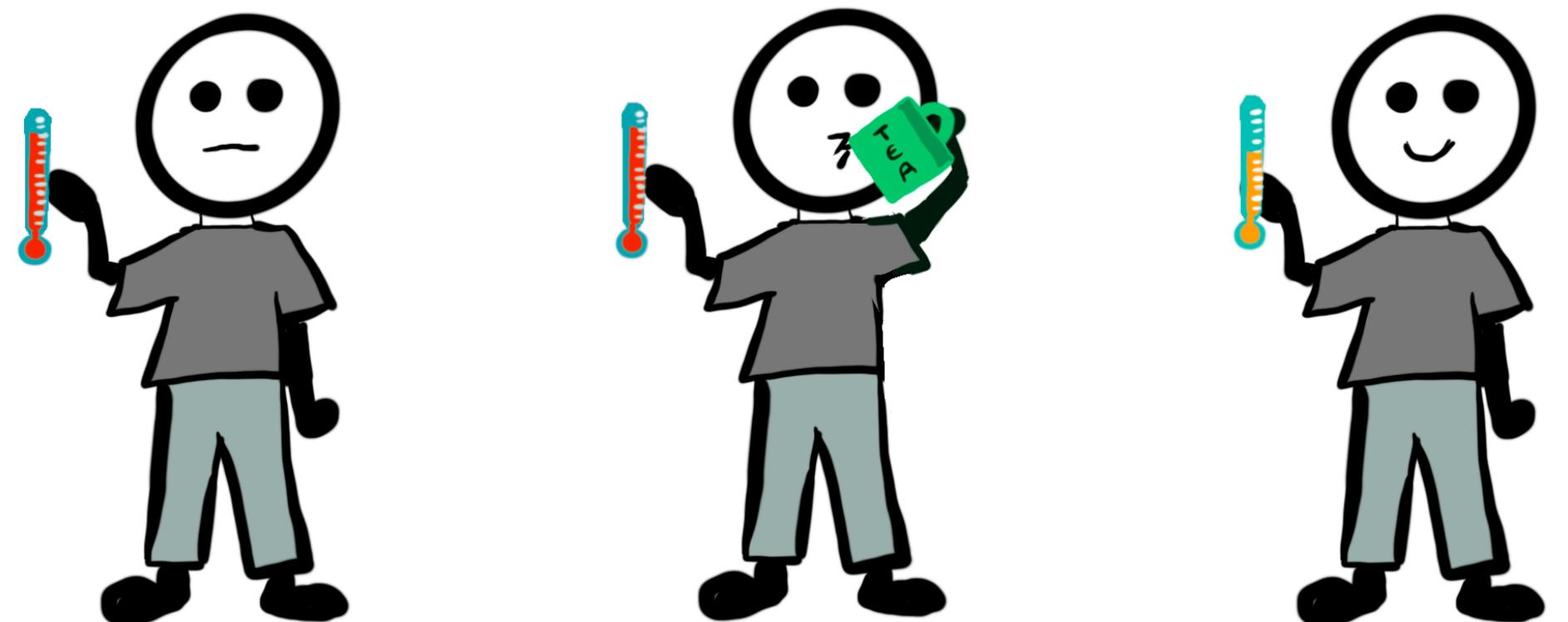


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- Fraction of the variance of  $X_j$  which is controlled by  $X_i$  [ANOVA]
- Kullback-Leibler divergence of marginal vs. conditional distribution [Information Flow]

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- Differentiating the expected value under  $\text{do}(X_i = x_i)$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \mathbb{E}[X_j | \text{do}(X_i = x_i)] \text{ [Average Causal Effect]}$$

# Causal Effects in Linear Models

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How do we move to nonlinear case?

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A widely used measure is the average causal effect (ACE):

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Our alternative is the differential causal effect (DCE) [Butler et al., SPL 2022]:

$$X_j = f(X_1, \dots, X_N, \varepsilon)$$
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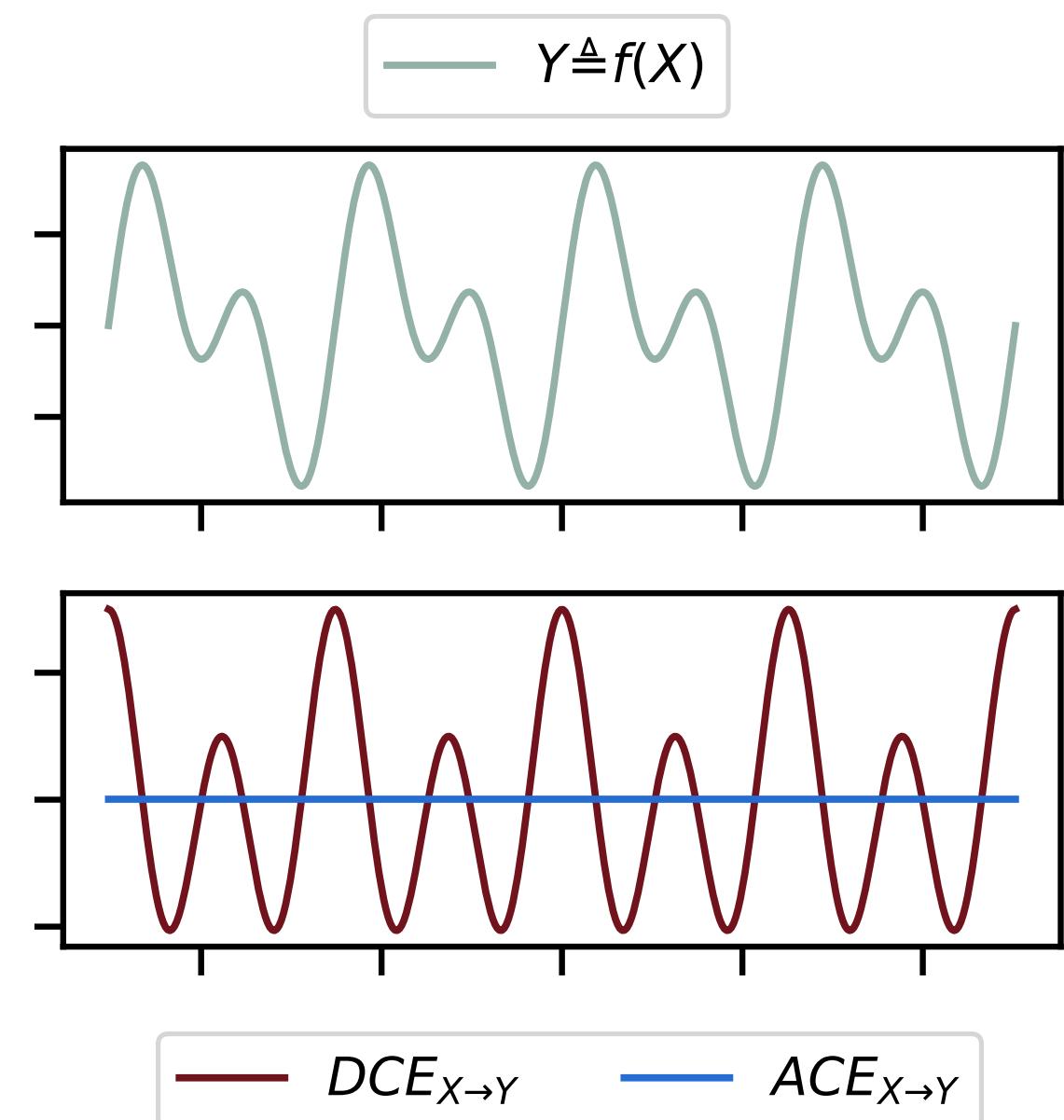
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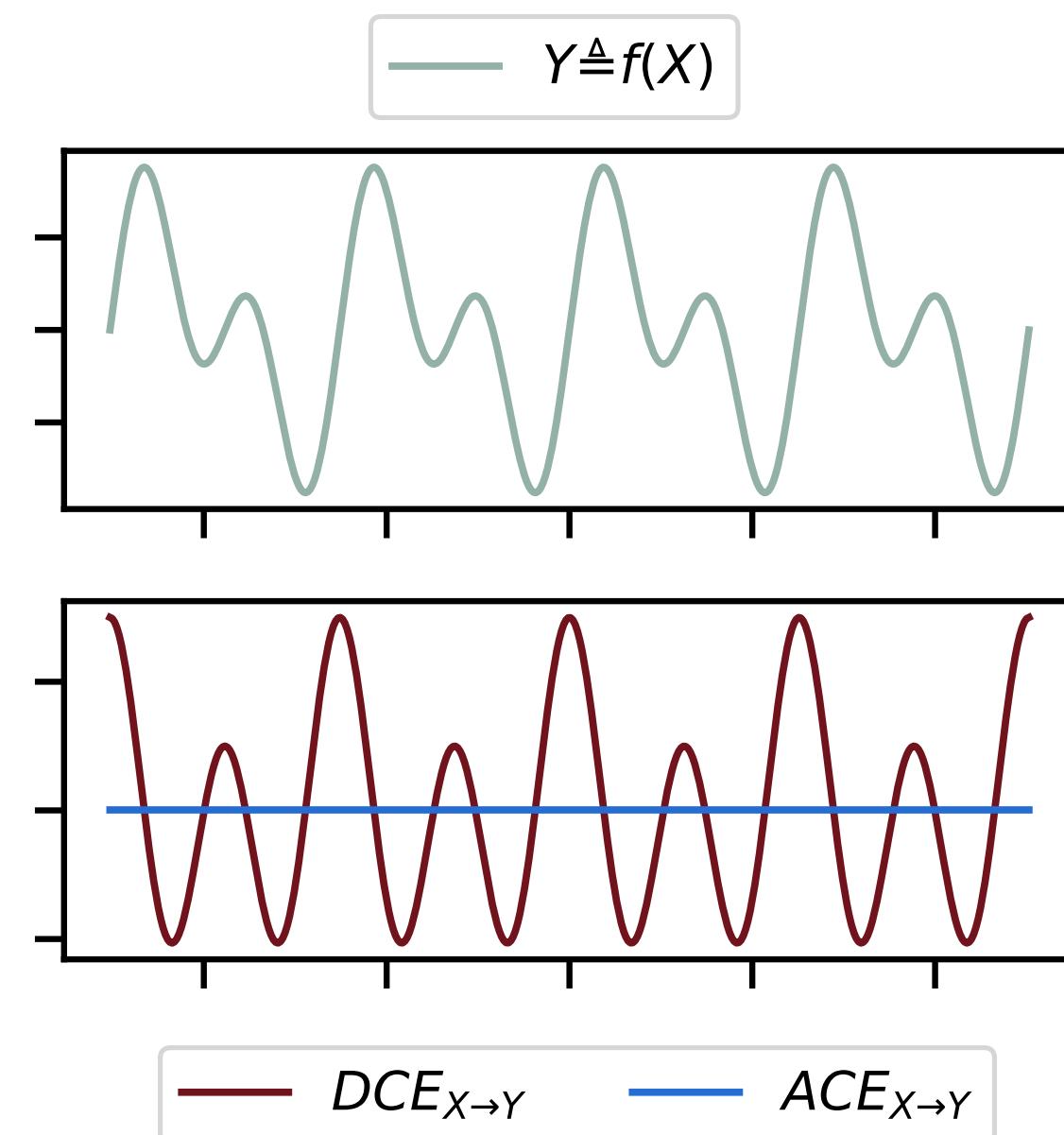
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By differentiating under the integral sign, the ACE is the average DCE

# The Average Causal Effect Has Issues



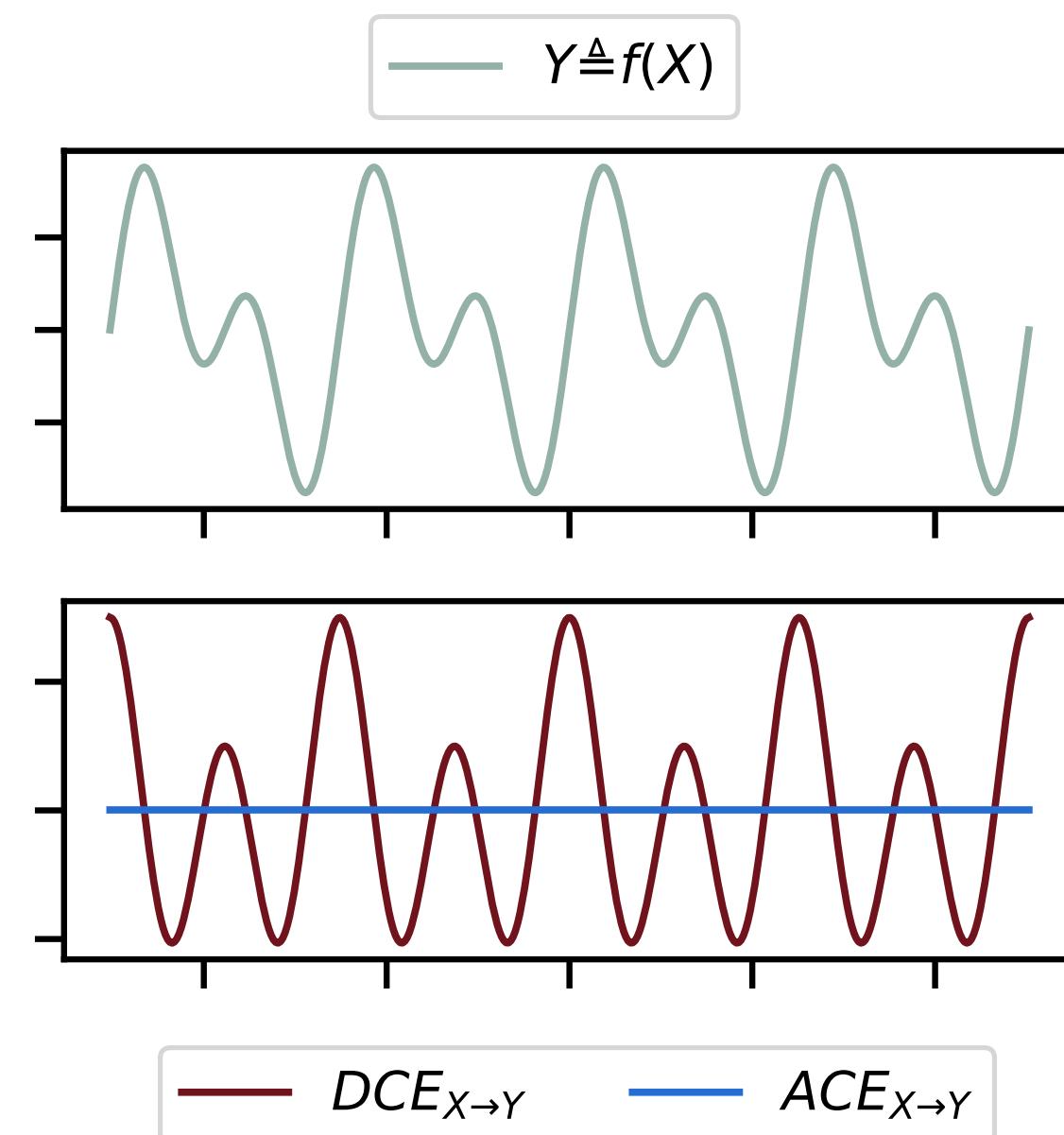
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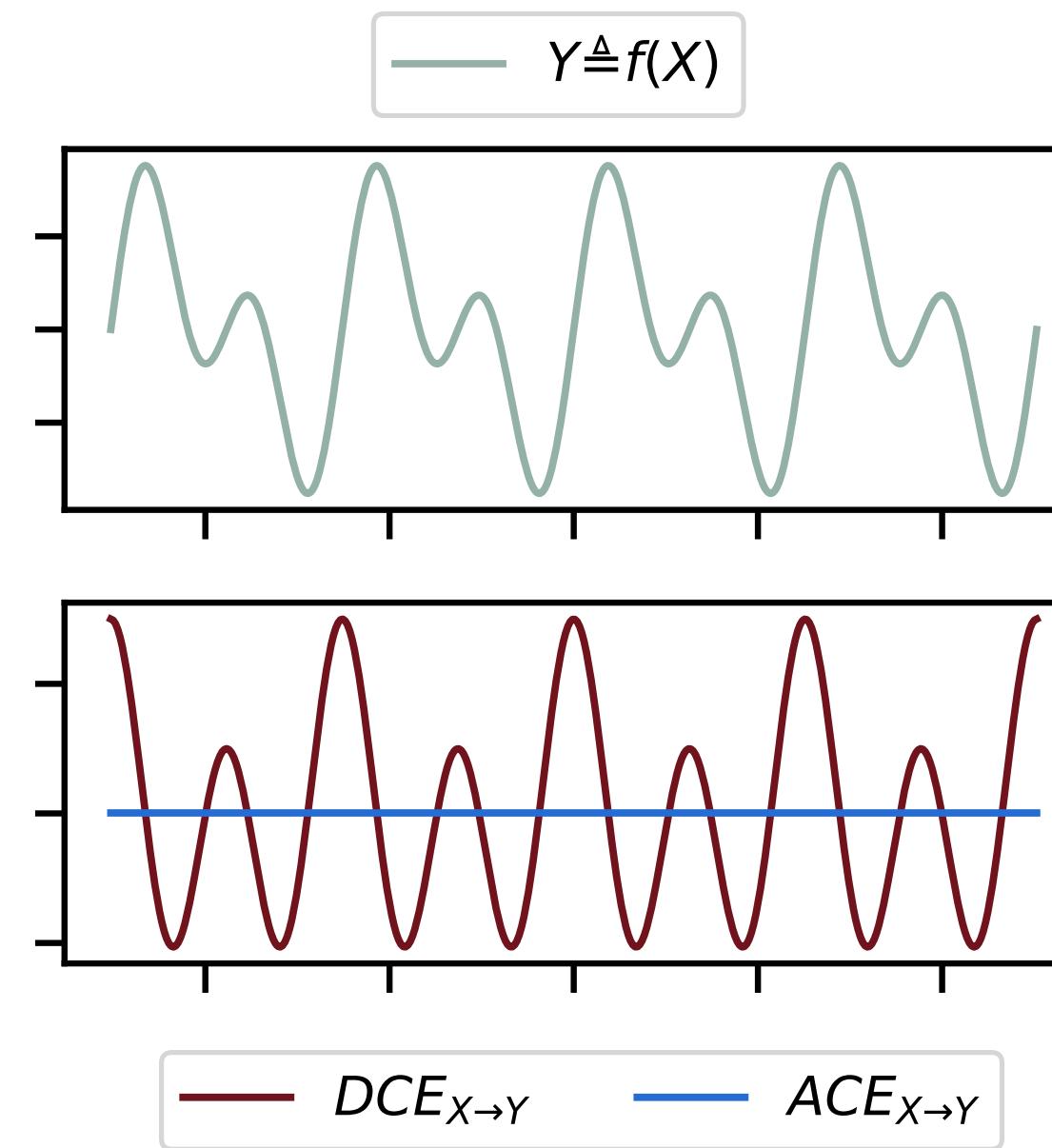
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For strength  $\mathcal{S}_{X_i \rightarrow X_j}$ , it's desirable that

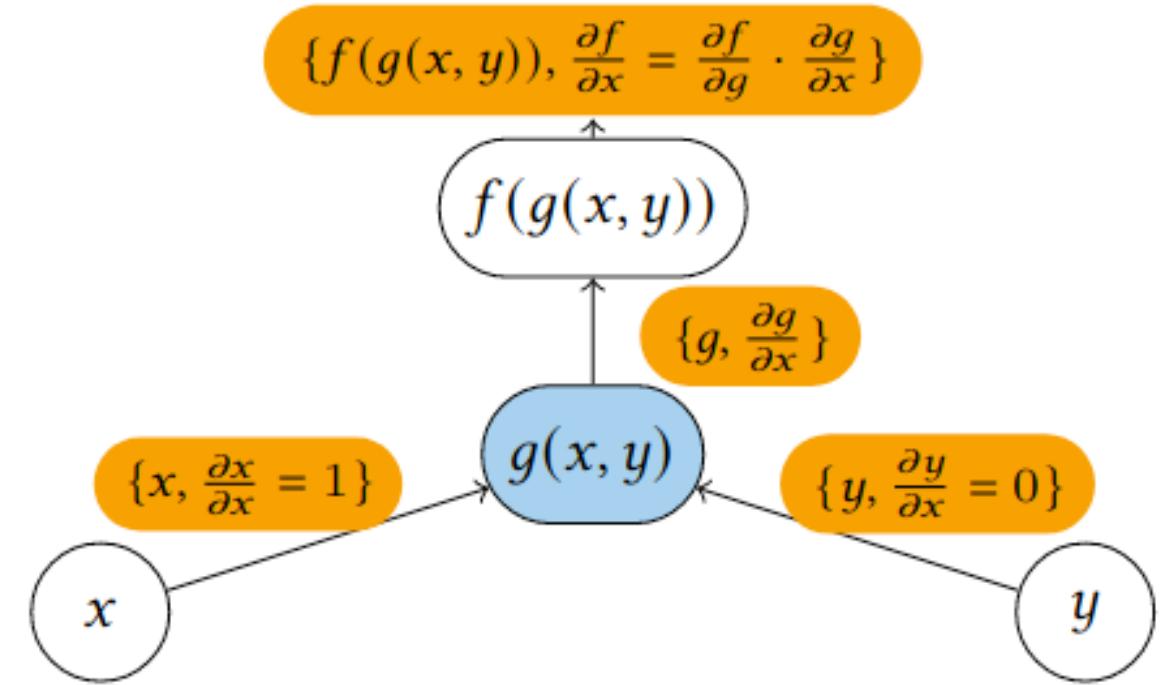
$$\mathcal{S}_{X_i \rightarrow X_j} \neq 0 \iff X_i \rightarrow X_j$$

The ACE fails this test!

This is the case whenever the DCE is zero-mean, i.e.

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ DCE_{X_i \rightarrow X_j} \right] = 0$$

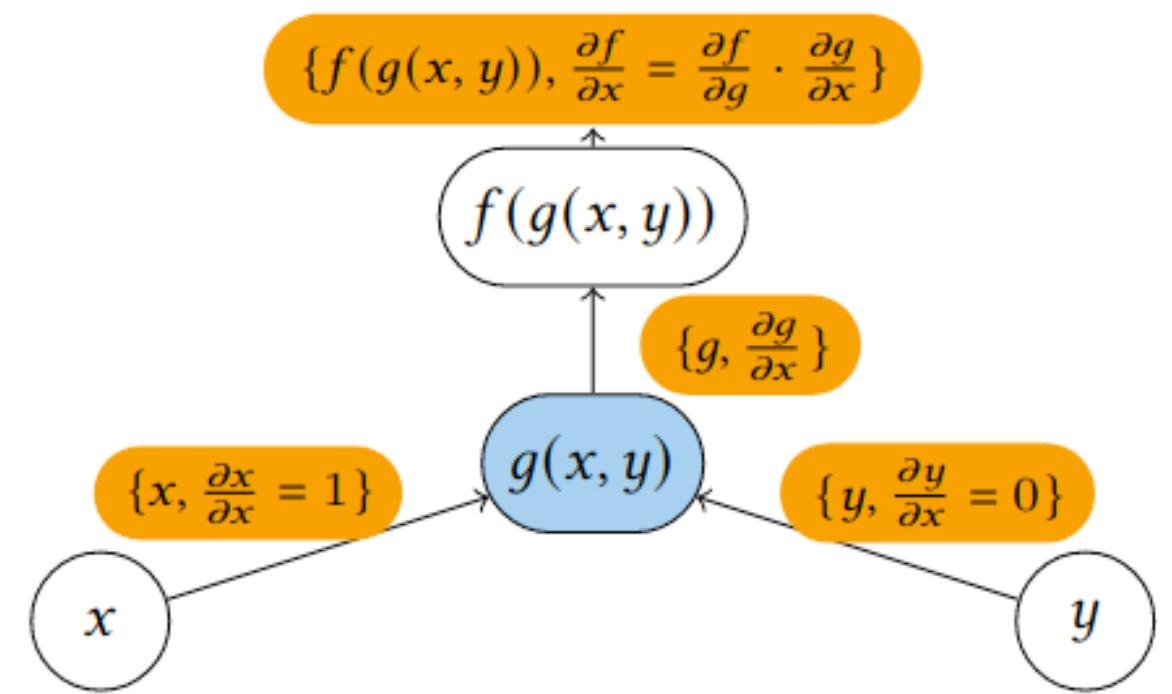
# Calculating the DCE is Easy



“ForwardAD.png” by MaxEmanuel,  
Wikimedia Commons, CC-BY-SA-4.0

# Calculating the DCE is Easy

How we estimate  $DCE_{X_i \rightarrow X_j}$  depends on how we estimate  $f_j$



“ForwardAD.png” by MaxEmanuel,  
Wikimedia Commons, CC-BY-SA-4.0

# Calculating the DCE is Easy

$$\{f(g(x, y)), \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\}$$

$$f(g(x, y))$$

$$\{g, \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\}$$

$$\{x, \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} = 1\}$$

“ForwardAD.png” by MaxEmanuel,  
Wikimedia Commons, CC-BY-SA-4.0

How we estimate  $DCE_{X_i \rightarrow X_j}$  depends on how we estimate  $f_j$

For many estimators, this is available in closed-form



# Calculating the DCE is Easy

$$\begin{array}{c} \{f(g(x, y)), \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\} \\ \uparrow \\ \text{f}(g(x, y)) \\ \uparrow \\ \{g, \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\} \\ \uparrow \\ \text{g}(x, y) \\ \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \{x, \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} = 1\} \\ \quad \quad \quad \{y, \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = 0\} \end{array} \end{array}$$

“ForwardAD.png” by MaxEmanuel,  
Wikimedia Commons, CC-BY-SA-4.0

How we estimate  $DCE_{X_i \rightarrow X_j}$  depends on how we estimate  $f_j$

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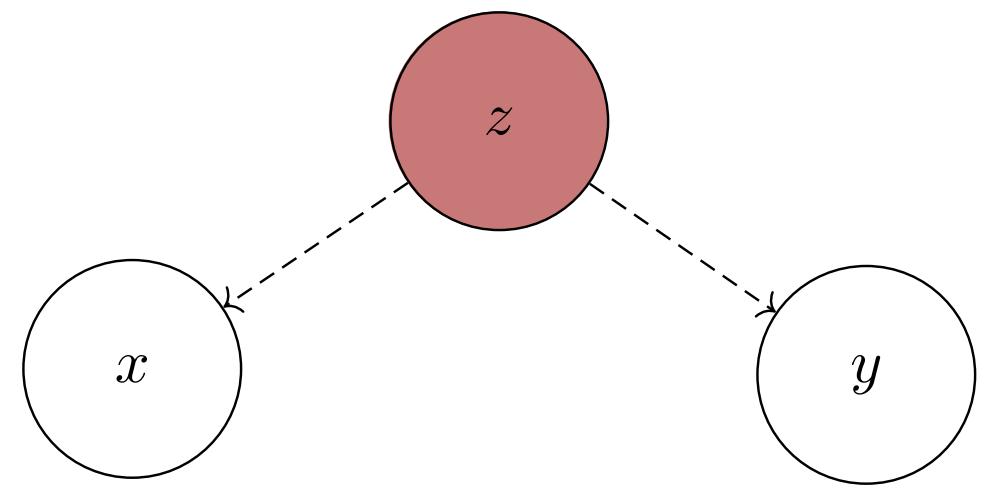
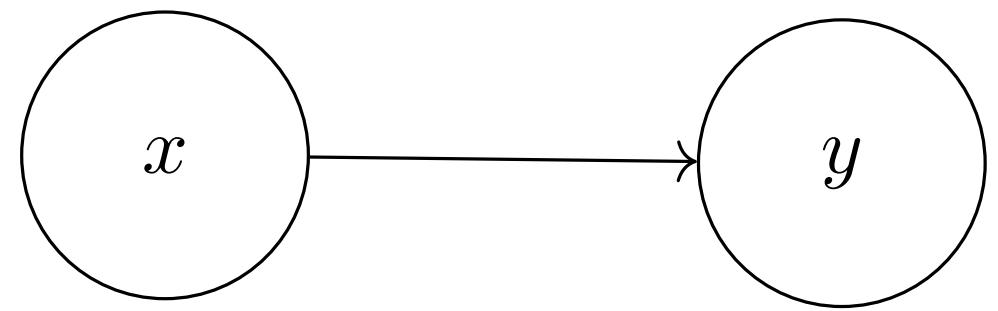
Even more generally, automatic differentiation makes this easy enough

# Confounder Detection

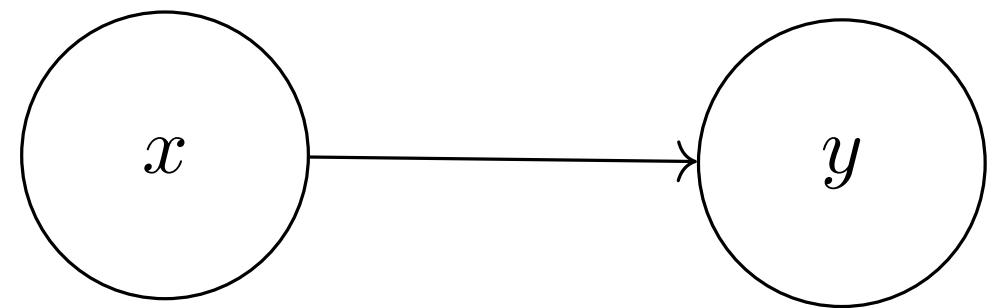
Y. Liu, C, Cui, D. Waxman, K. Butler, and P. M. Djurić,  
"Detecting confounders in multivariate time  
series using strength of causation,"  
Proceedings of the 31st European Signal  
Processing Conference, Helsinki, Finland, 2023.

# Confounders Are Everywhere

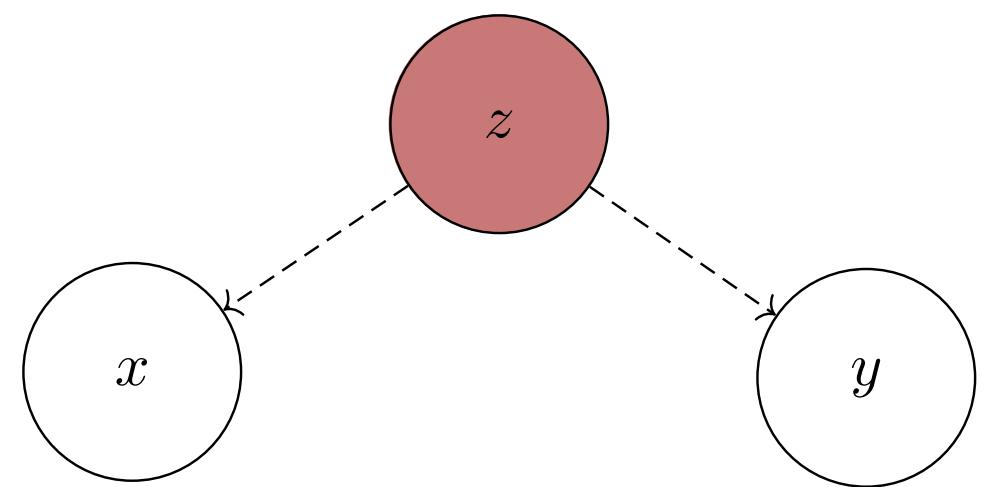
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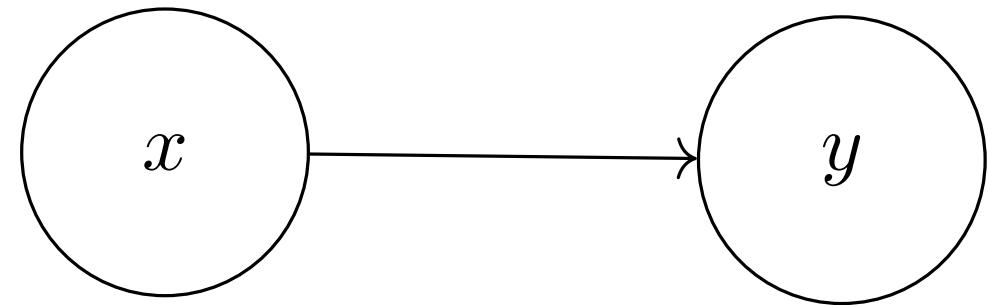
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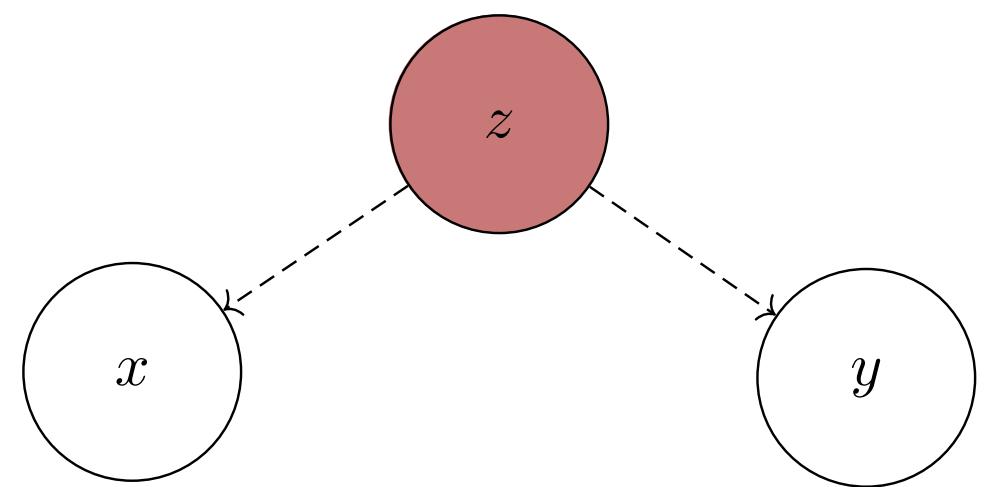
**Definition:** if there exists a variable  $Z$  causing at least two other variables, it is known as a confounder



# Confounders Are Everywhere

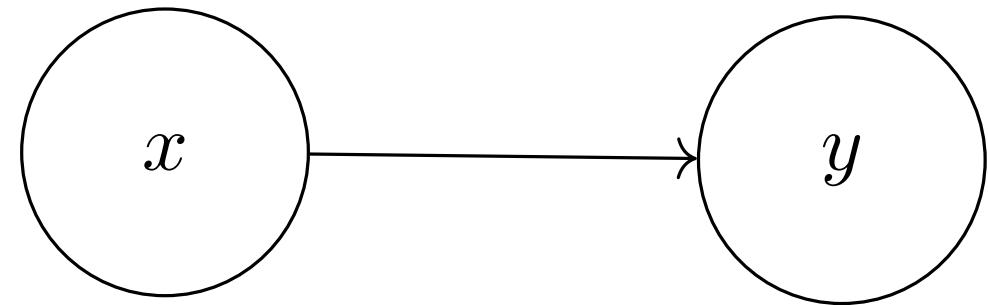


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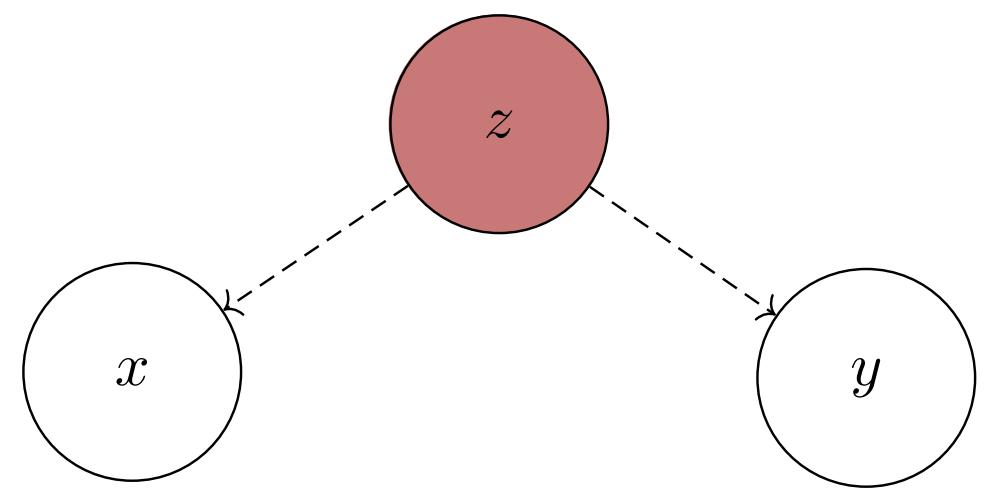


Confounders complicate causal inference

# Confounders Are Everywhere



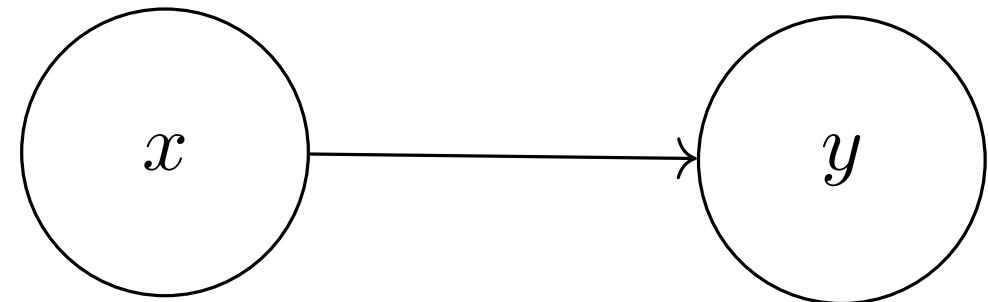
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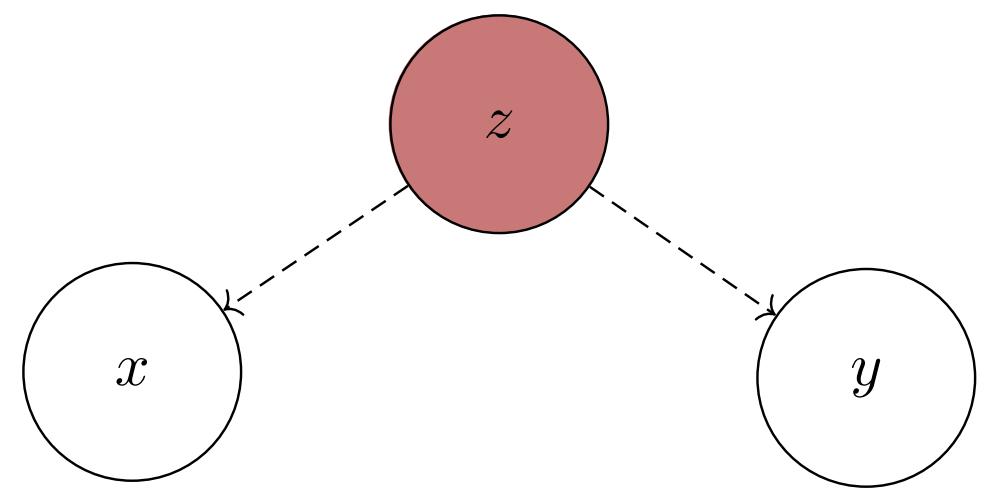
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This complication gets much worse if  $Z$  is unobserved

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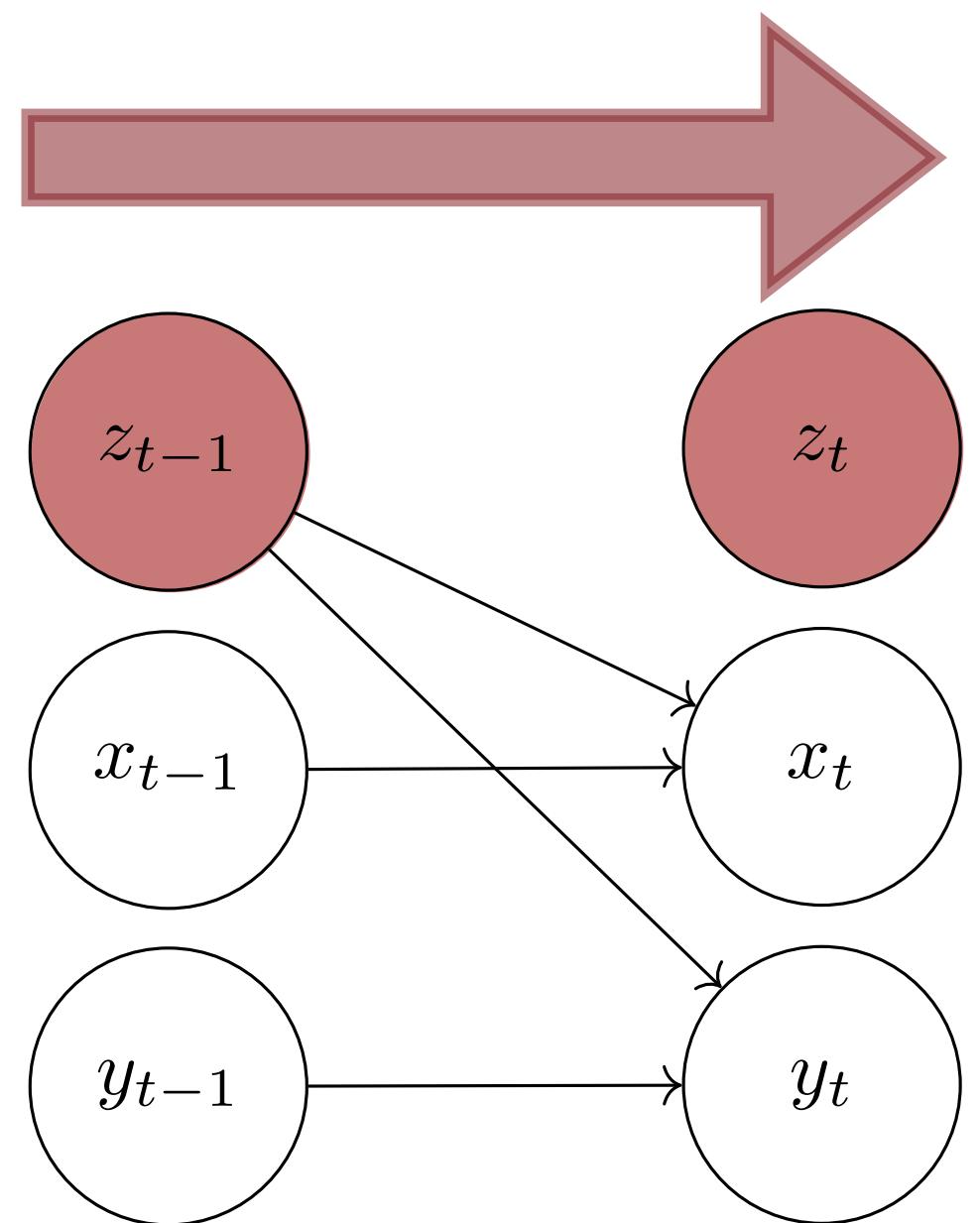
Confounders complicate causal inference

This complication gets much worse if  $Z$  is unobserved

One of the most common assumptions is causal sufficiency, i.e. there are no latent confounders

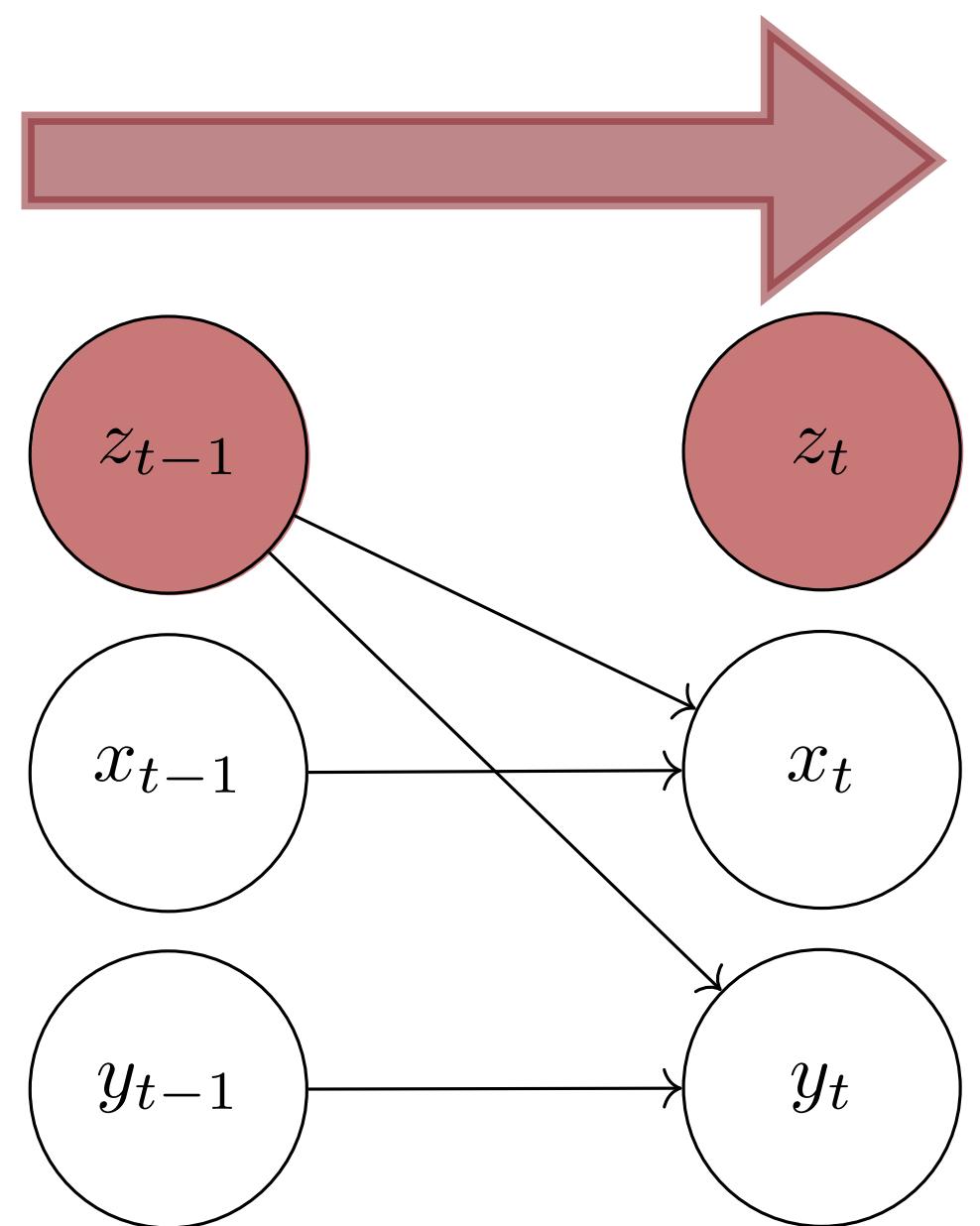
# Time Simplifies Causal Structure

---



# Time Simplifies Causal Structure

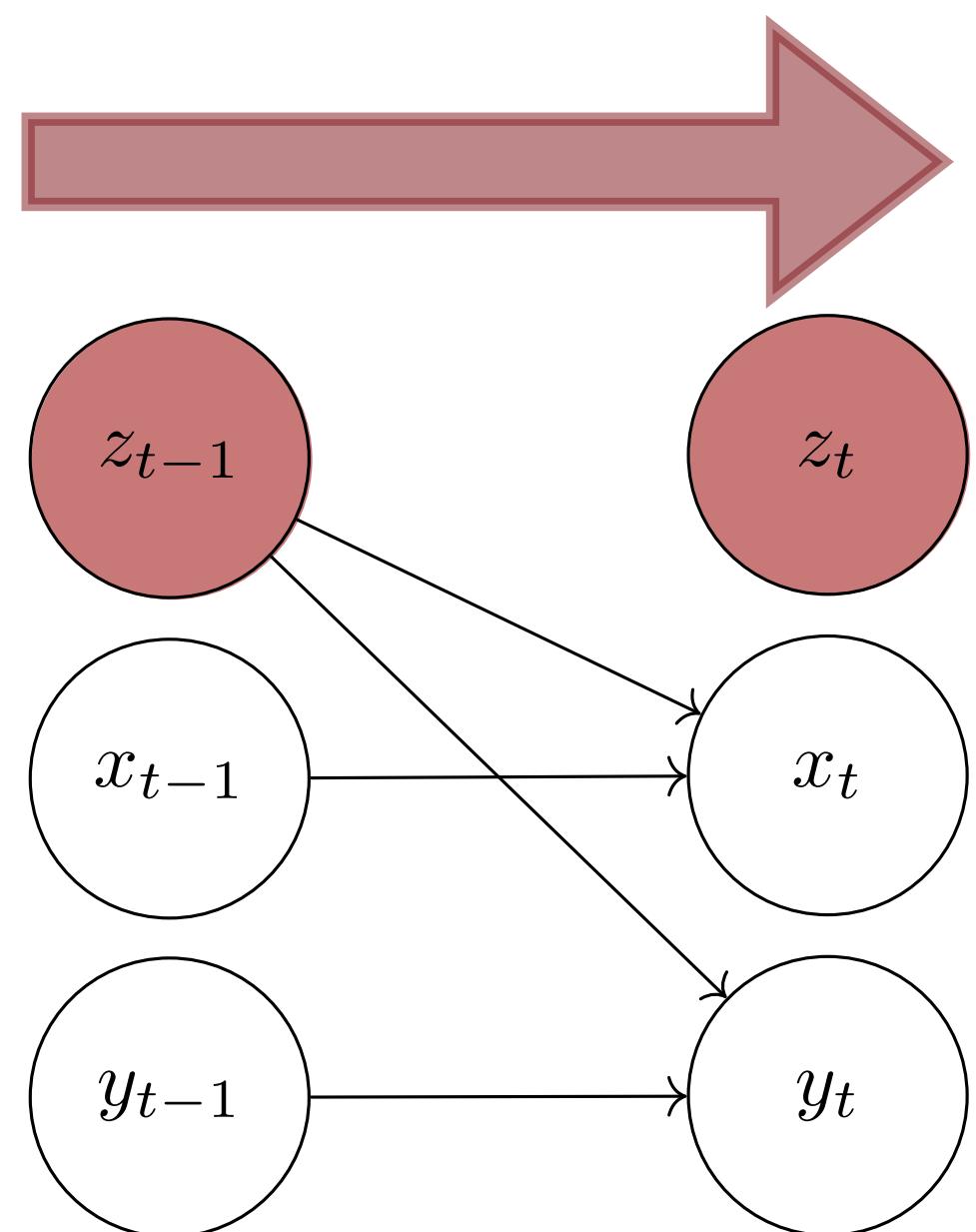
In time series, we have the “arrow of time”



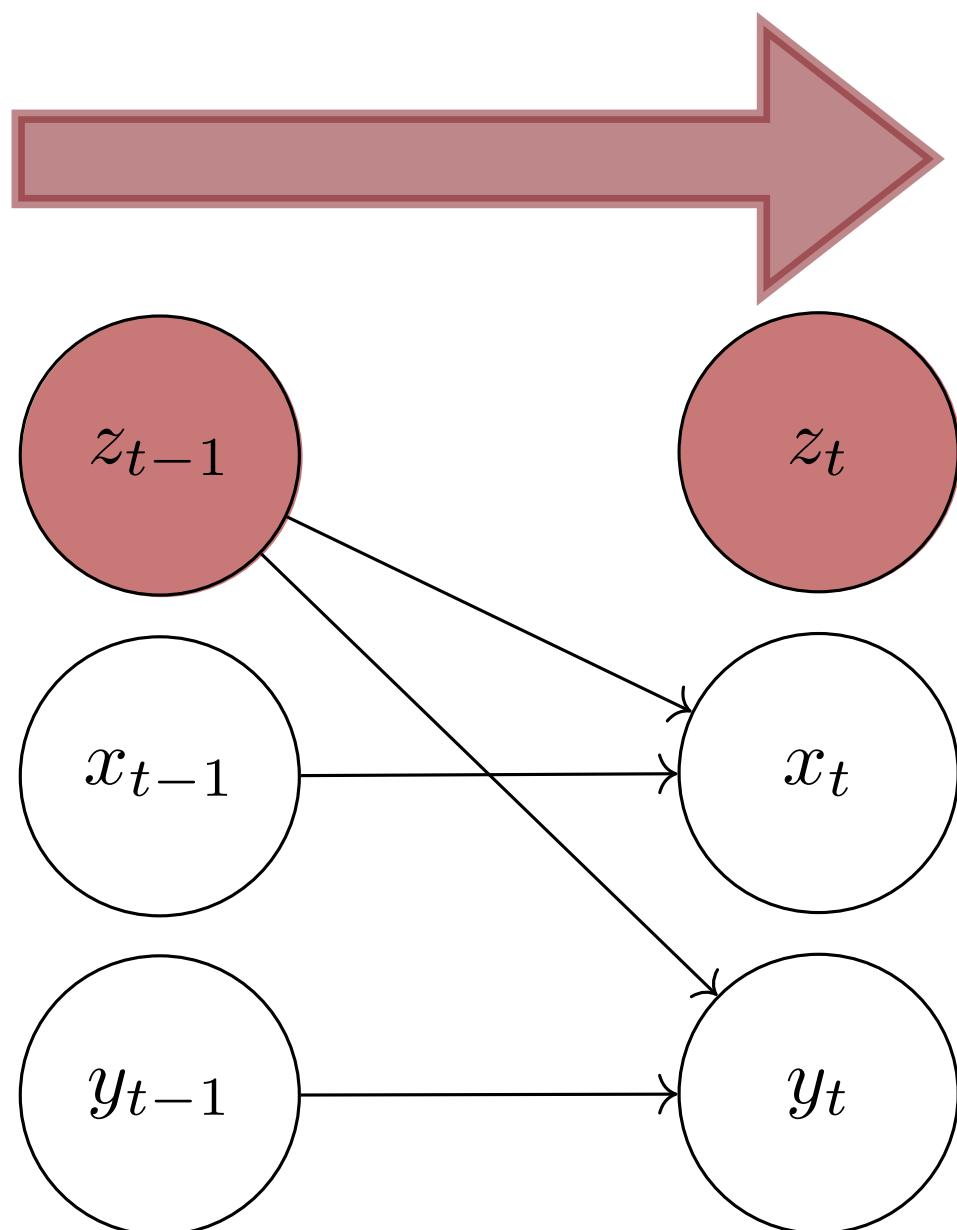
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This disallows causes from the future affecting the present



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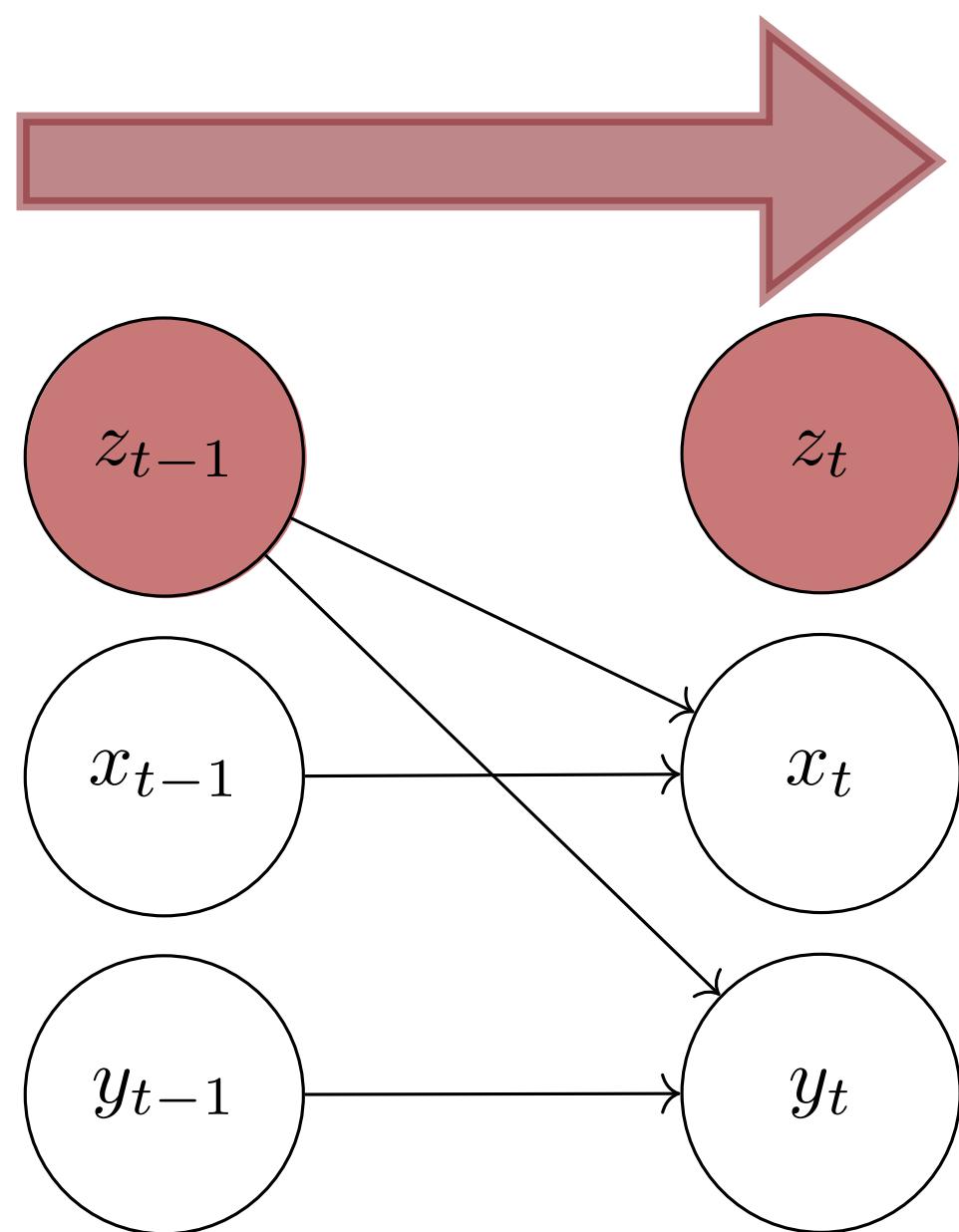


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If sampled with sufficiently high rate, we can also disallow  
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# Time Simplifies Causal Structure



In time series, we have the “arrow of time”

This disallows causes from the future affecting the present

If sampled with sufficiently high rate, we can also disallow  
“instantaneous causes”

The assumption of no instantaneous causes turns discovery into  
ordinary regression

# Some Existing Work on Confounders

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Structure Learning

Confounder Detection

# Some Existing Work on Confounders

---

## Structure Learning

- Finds a modified *causal graph* with possible confoundedness indicated

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- Our work: extension to time series using *latent variable models (LVMs)* and *differential causal effect (DCE)*

# Detecting Confounders Through Causal Strength

---

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It is impossible to infer what we can't see

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**Idea:**

# Detecting Confounders Through Causal Strength

Learn an  
LVM

It is impossible to infer what we can't see

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**Idea:**

1. Learn a latent variable model (LV)

# Detecting Confounders Through Causal Strength

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Inference

Idea:

1. Learn a latent variable model (LV)
2. Perform inference of latent time series  $z_t$

# Detecting Confounders Through Causal Strength

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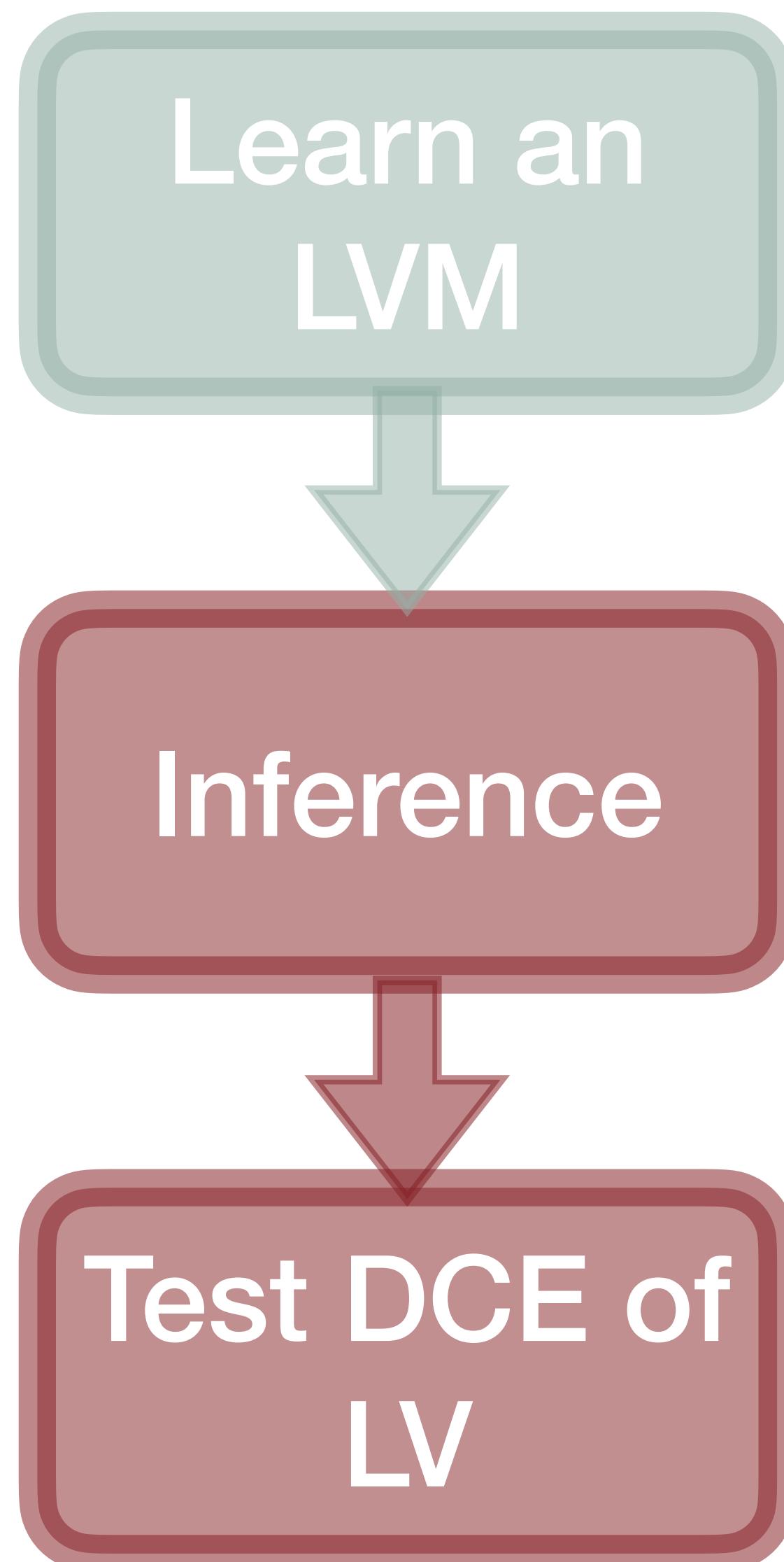
Idea:

1. Learn a latent variable model (LV)
2. Perform inference of latent time series  $z_t$
3. Test the DCE of  $z_{t-i}$  to  $y_t$

Test DCE of  
LV

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

---



# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

Learn an  
LVM

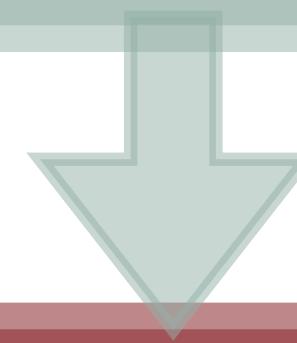
The exact LVM is not so important, but we desire online learning  
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Inference

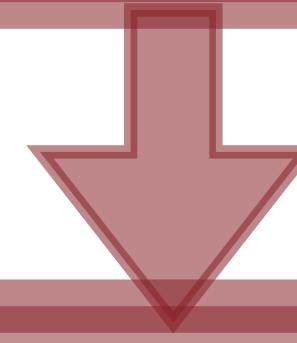
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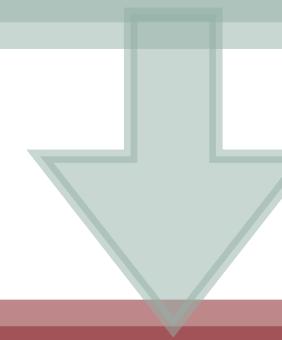
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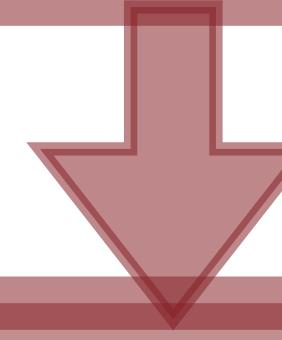
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Learn an  
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Inference



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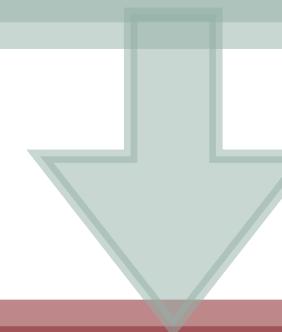
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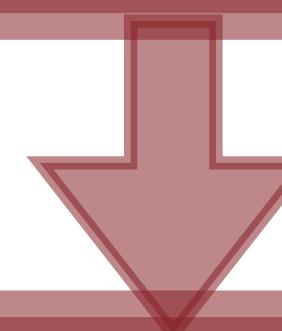
These write time-series auto regressively with Gaussian processes (GPs)

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

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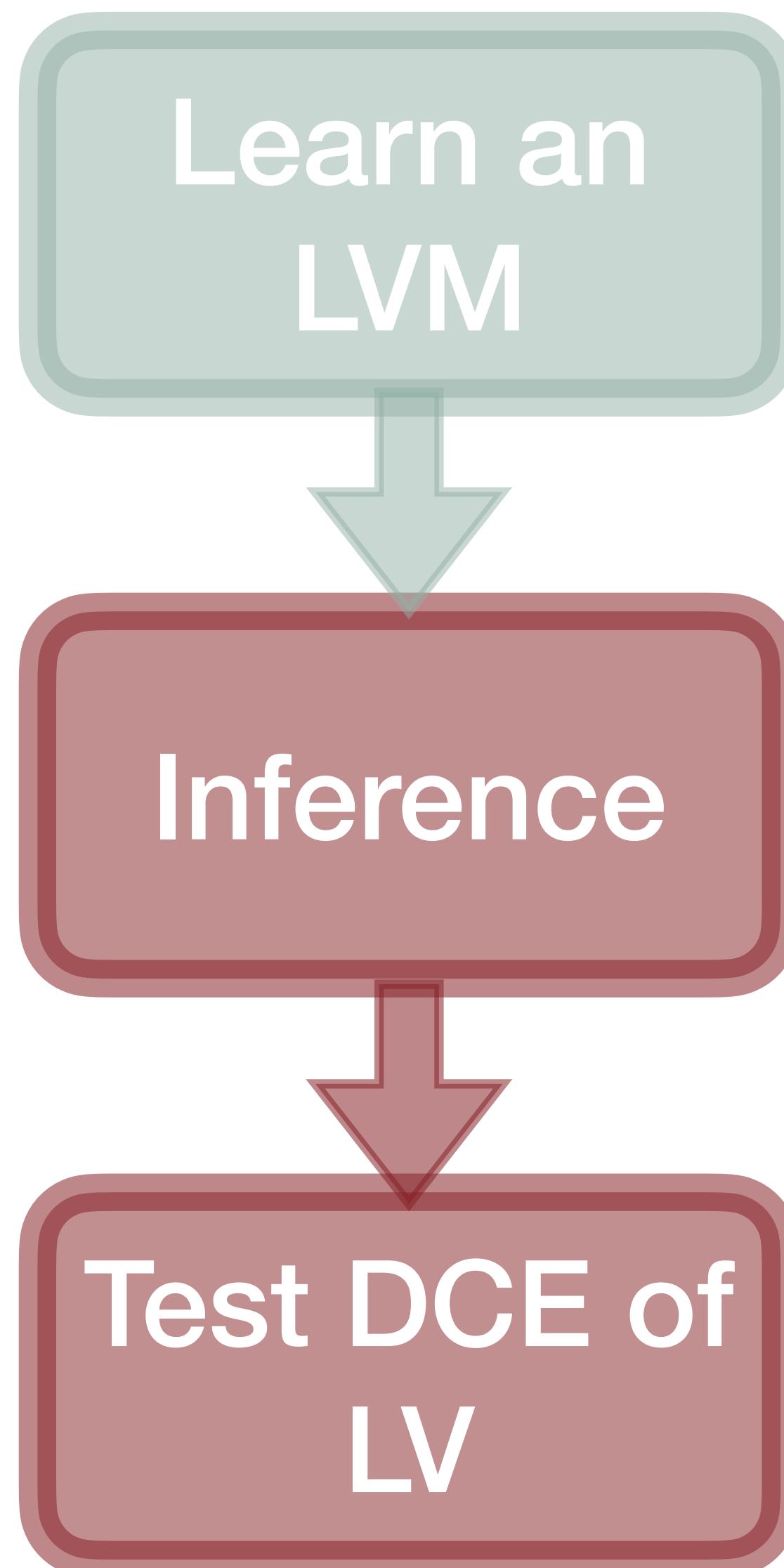
We use deep Gaussian process state-space models [Liu et al., TSP 2023]

These write time-series auto regressively with Gaussian processes (GPs)

Using a specific GP approximation, they filter on the latent state and the GP parameters

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

---



# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

Learn an  
LVM

Let  $\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t, y_t$  be the time series of interest

Inference

Test DCE of  
LV

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

Learn an  
LVM

Let  $\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t, y_t$  be the time series of interest

Then with unknown functions  $f, g, h$  and white Gaussian noise

$\mathbf{u}_t, \mathbf{v}_t, e_t$ :

$$\mathbf{z}_t = f(\mathbf{z}_{t-l_{zz}:t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t-l_{zx}:t-1}, y_{t-l_{zy}:t-1}) + \mathbf{u}_t,$$

$$\mathbf{x}_t = h(\mathbf{z}_{t-l_{xz}:t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t-l_{xx}:t-1}, y_{t-l_{xy}:t-1}) + \mathbf{v}_t,$$

$$y_t = g(\mathbf{z}_{t-l_{yz}:t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t-l_{yx}:t-1}, y_{t-l_{yy}:t-1}) + e_t.$$

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Inference

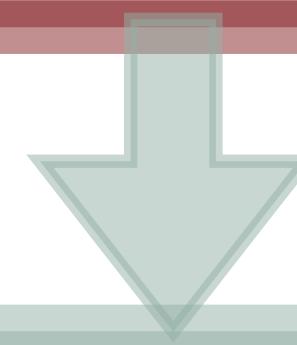
Any LVM that learns  $f, g, h$  and  $\mathbf{z}_t$  is good for us

Test DCE of  
LV

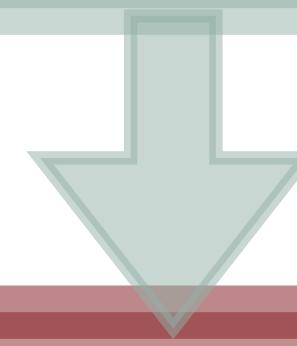
# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

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Learn an  
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Test DCE of  
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# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

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Learn an  
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In the inference step, two goals:

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

---

Learn an  
LVM

Inference

Test DCE of  
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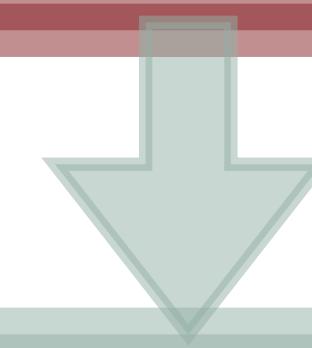
In the inference step, two goals:

1. Infer  $\mathbf{z}_t$  for  $t = 1, \dots, T$

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

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Inference

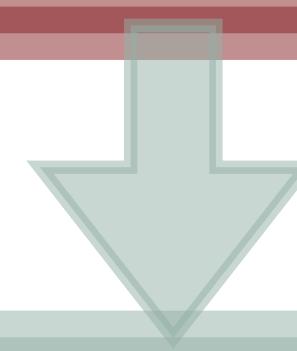
Test DCE of  
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In the inference step, two goals:

1. Infer  $\mathbf{z}_t$  for  $t = 1, \dots, T$
2. Infer  $DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t}$  for  $k = 1, \dots, K$  and  $i = 1, \dots, l_{yz} - 1$

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

Learn an  
LVM



Inference

Test DCE of  
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In the inference step, two goals:

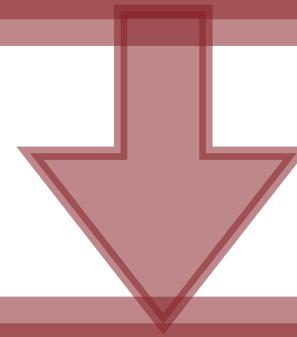
1. Infer  $\mathbf{z}_t$  for  $t = 1, \dots, T$
2. Infer  $\text{DCE}_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t}$  for  $k = 1, \dots, K$  and  $i = 1, \dots, l_{yz} - 1$

In our case,  $\text{DCE}_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t}$  is available in a convenient closed form

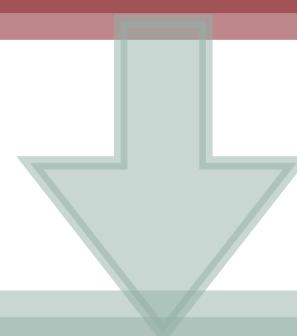
# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

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Learn an  
LVM



Inference



Test DCE of  
LV

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

Learn an  
LVM

For testing, the goal is to decide if  $DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t} = 0$  (no influence)  
or  $DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t} \neq 0$  (influence)

Inference

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Inference

The best way to do this is unresolved

Test DCE of  
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Two ideas:

Test DCE of  
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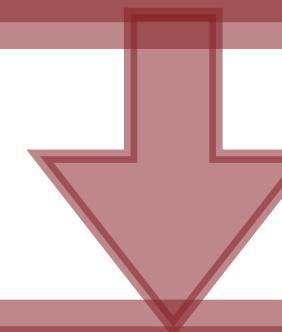
Two ideas:

1. Test if the  $p\%$  credible interval of  $DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t}$  contains 0

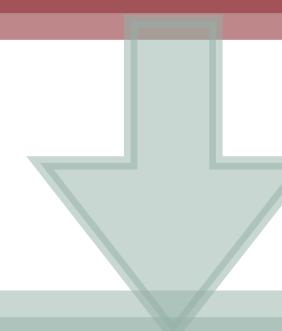
Test DCE of  
LV

# Gaussian Processes for State Space Models

Learn an  
LVM



Inference



Test DCE of  
LV

For testing, the goal is to decide if  $DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t} = 0$  (no influence)  
or  $DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t} \neq 0$  (influence)

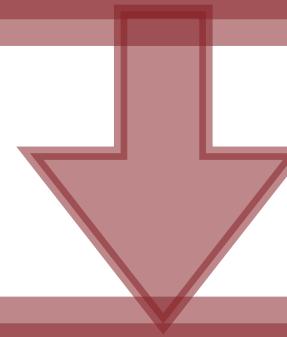
The best way to do this is unresolved

Two ideas:

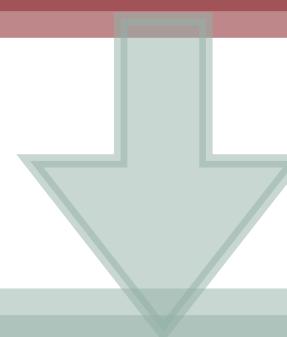
1. Test if the  $p\%$  credible interval of  $DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t}$  contains 0
2. Test if  $\Pr(DCE_{z_{k,t-i} \rightarrow y_t} \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon))$  exceeds some threshold

# Using the DCE is Justified

Learn an  
LVM



Inference



Test DCE of  
LV

# Using the DCE is Justified

Learn an  
LVM

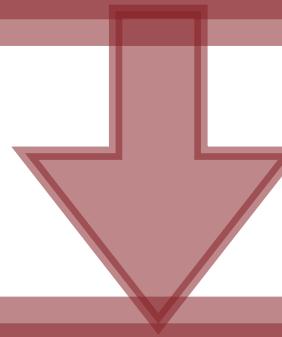
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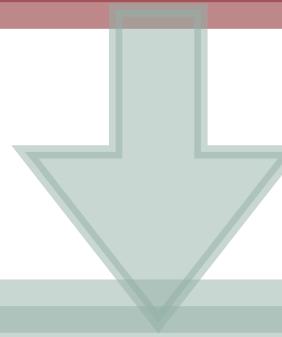
Is the causal strength of a latent variable well-defined?

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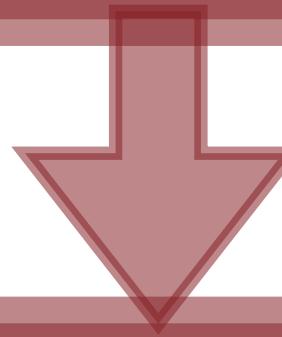
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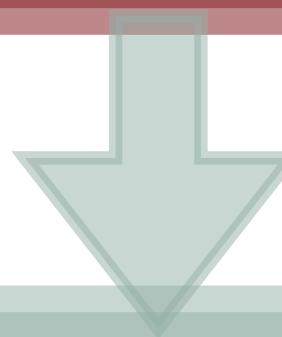
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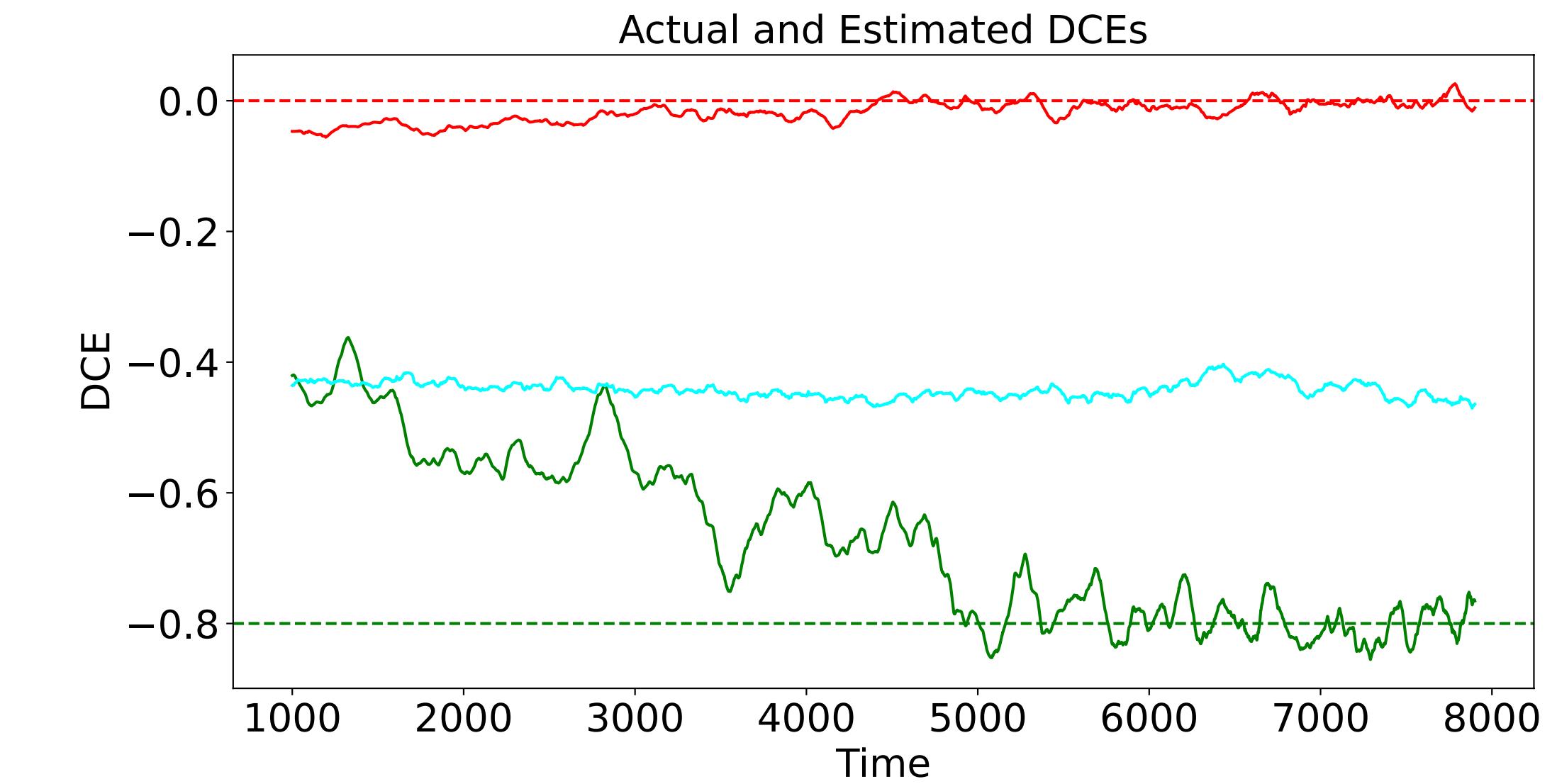
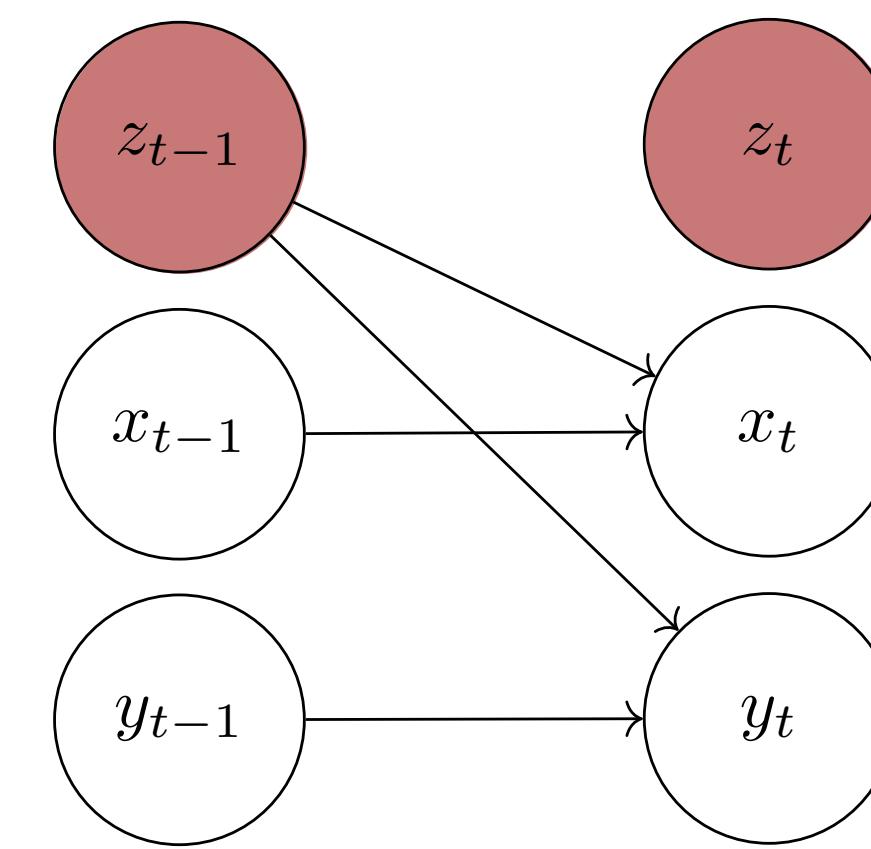
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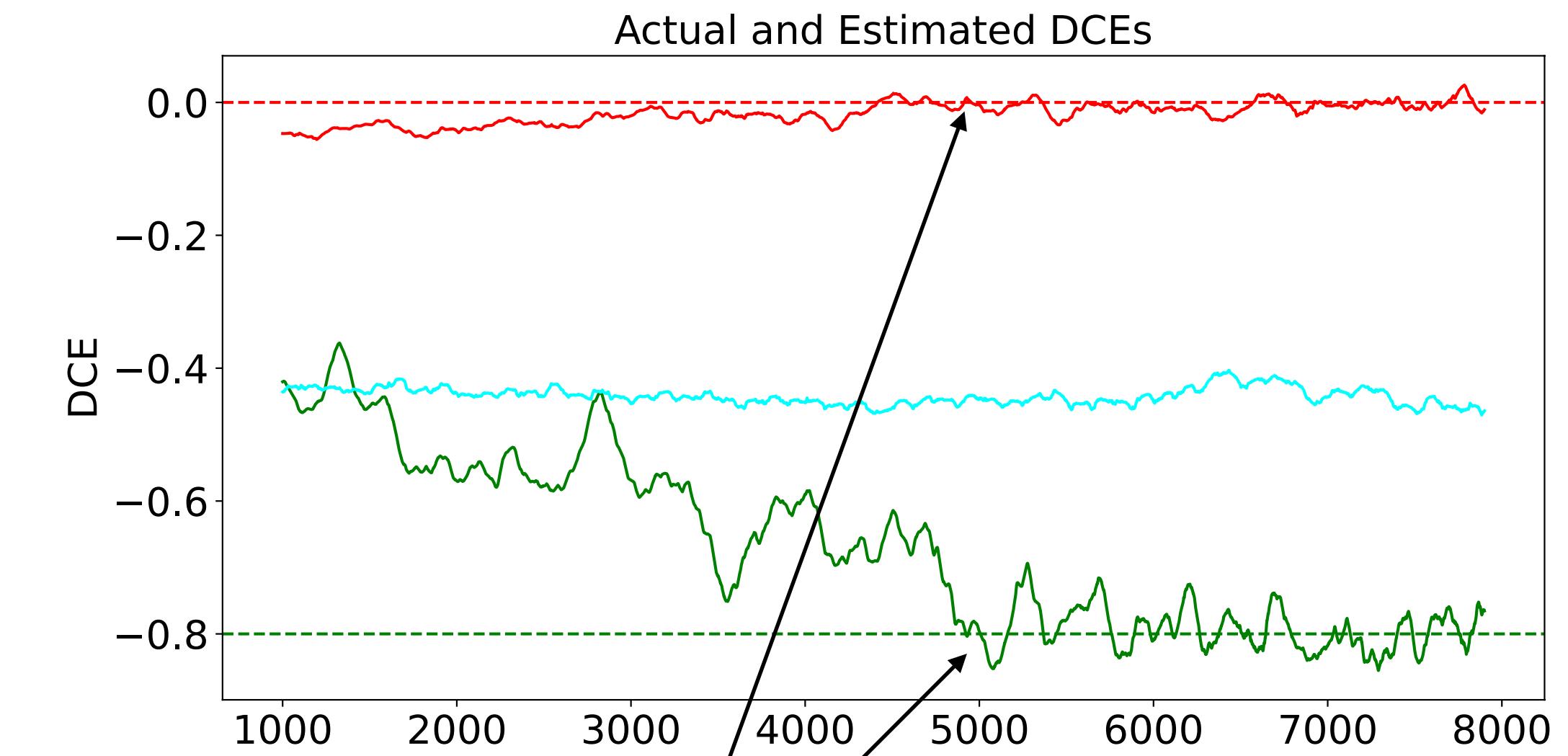
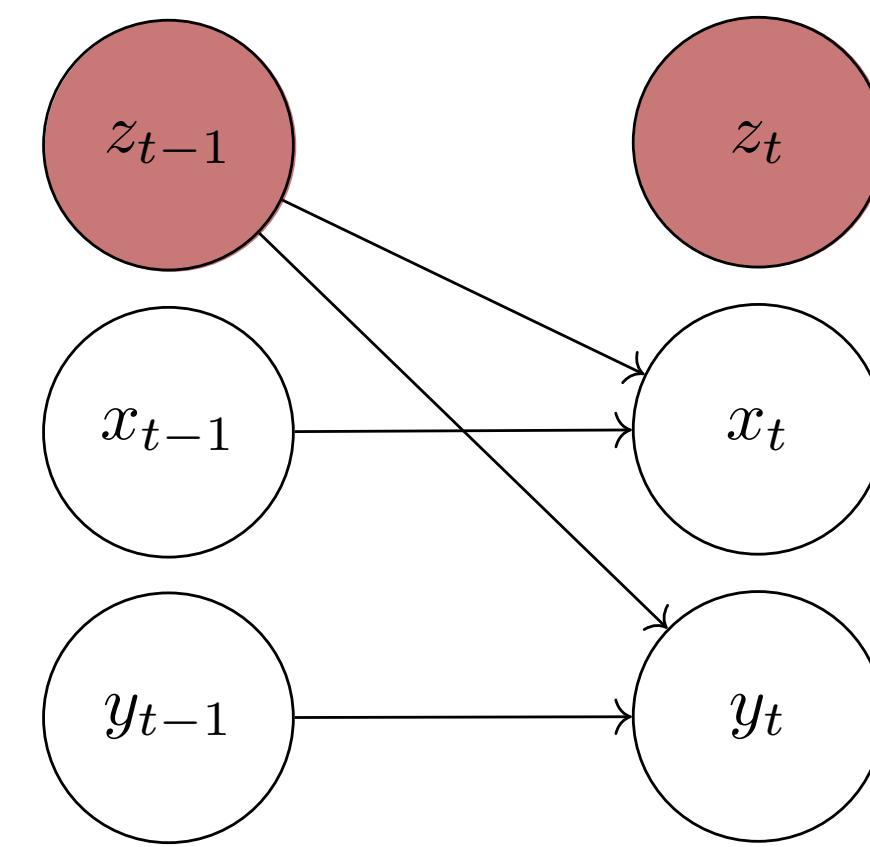
Therefore, testing for zero-ness is well-defined

Test DCE of  
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# Our Method Can Detect Confounders In the Static Case



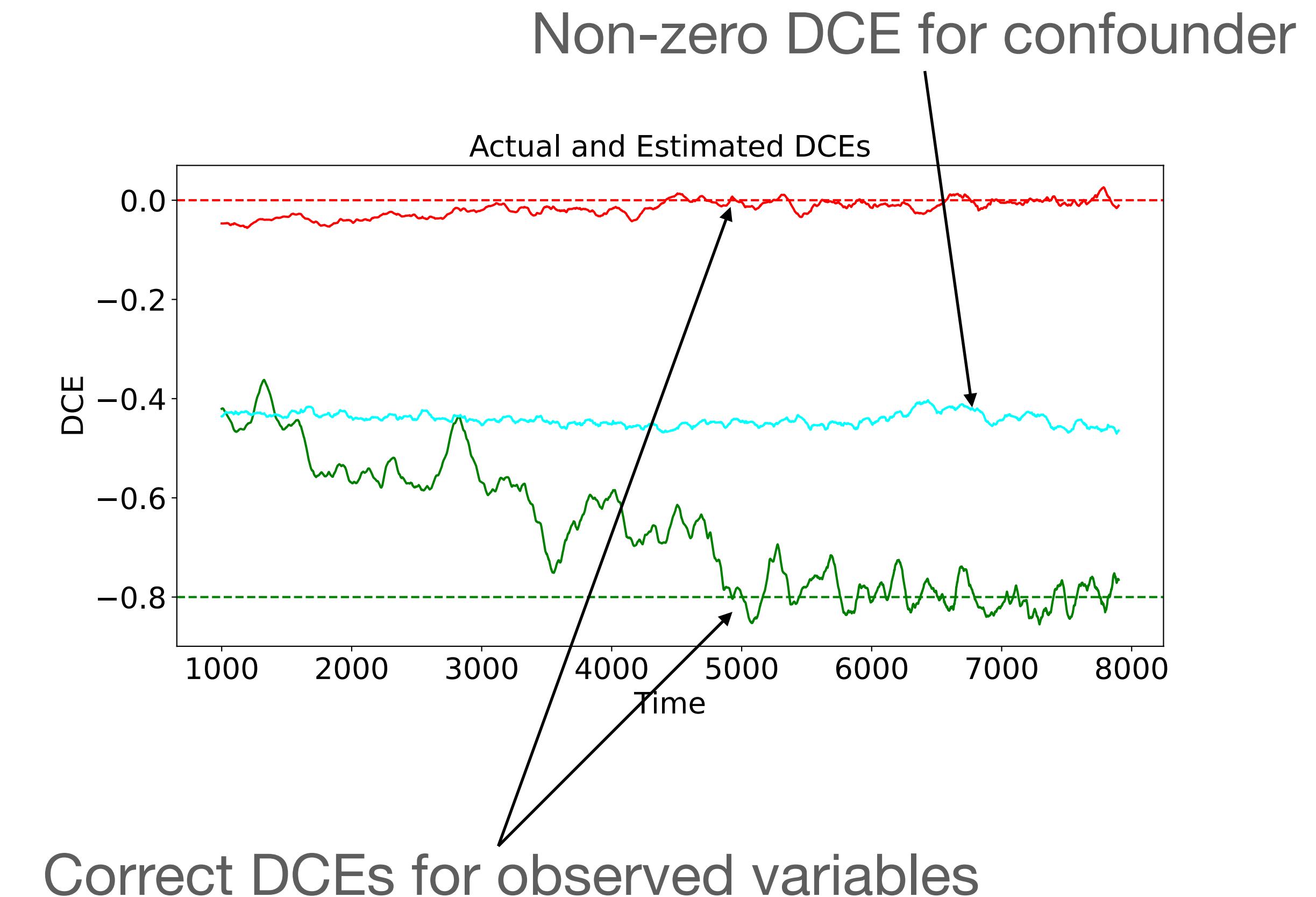
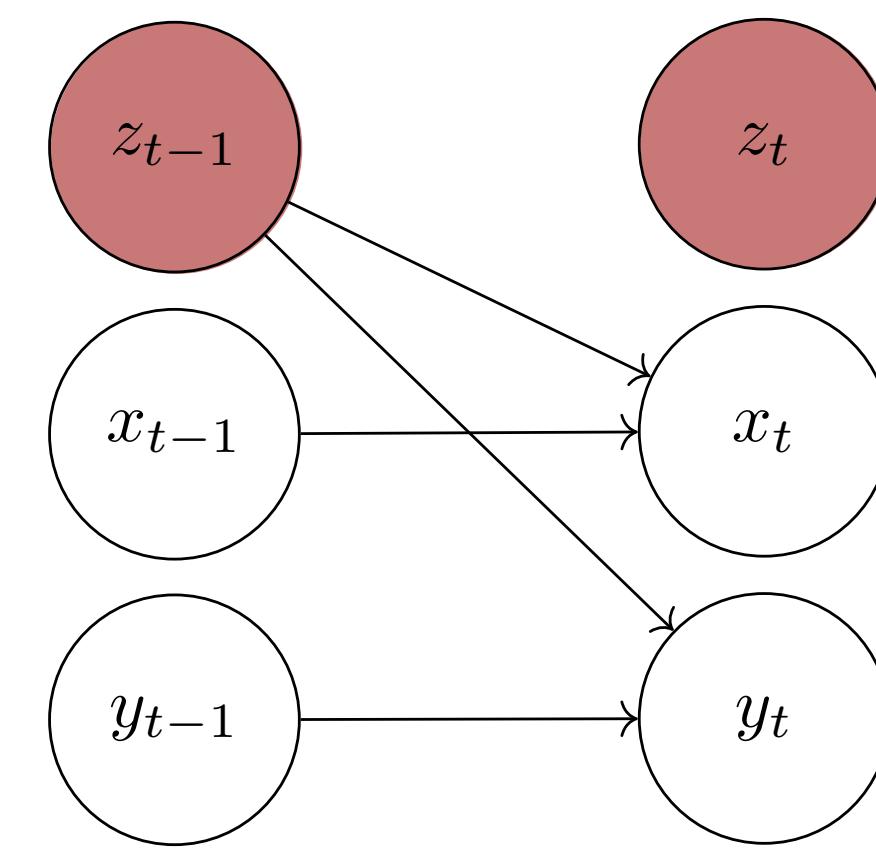
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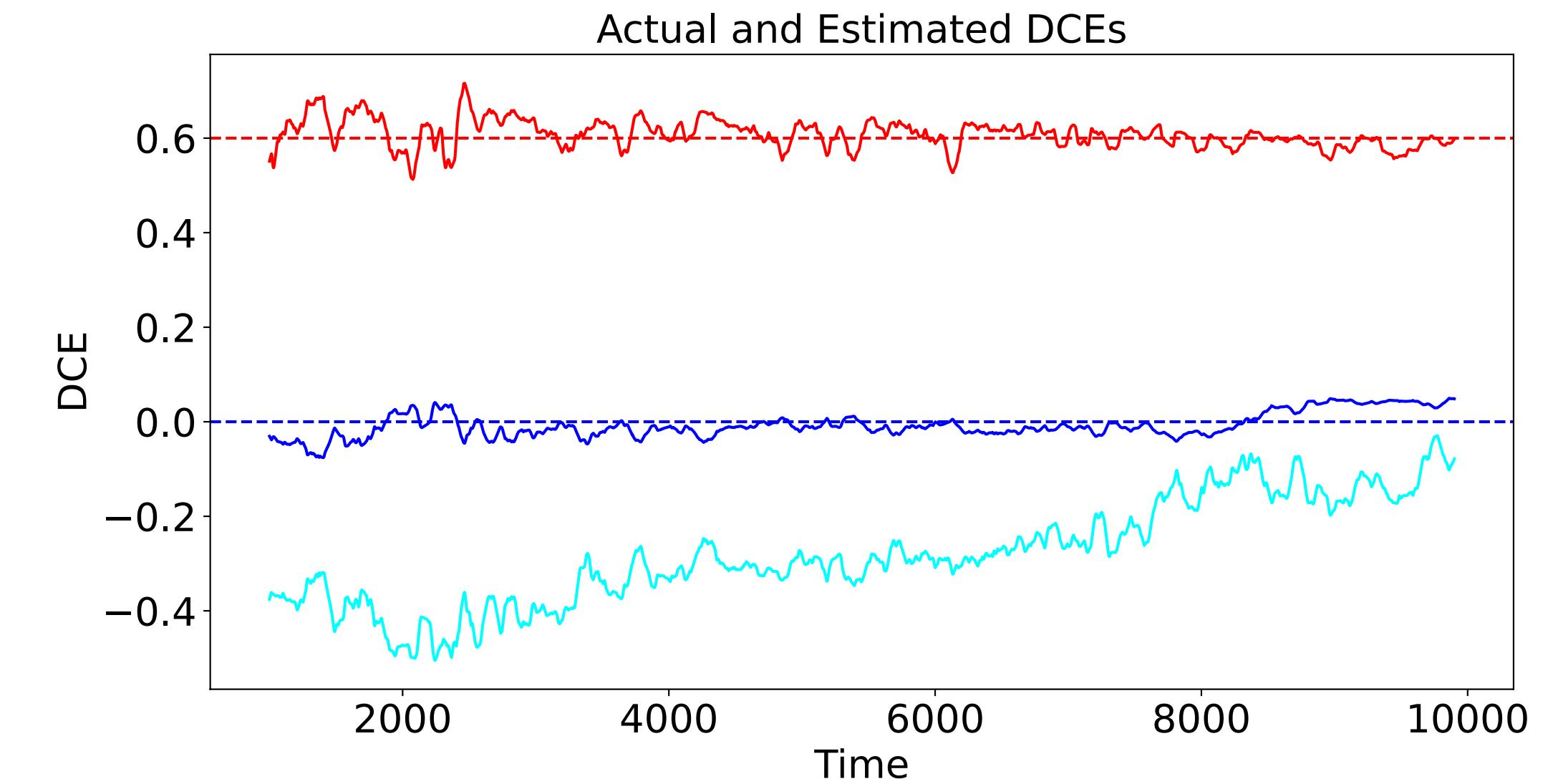
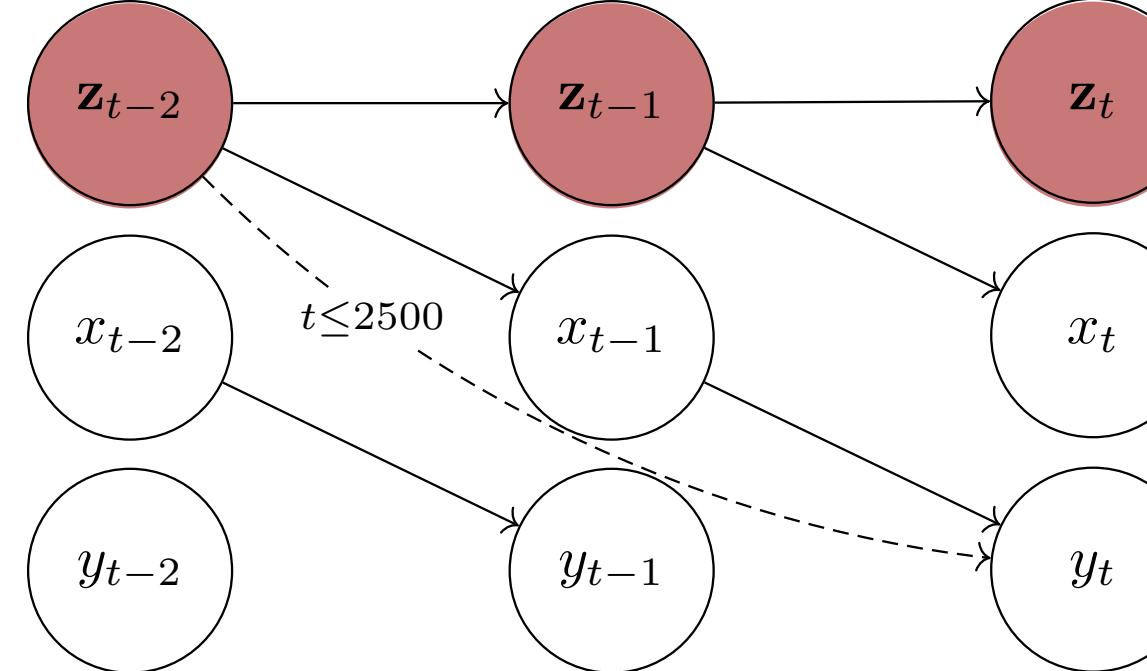
Correct DCEs for observed variables

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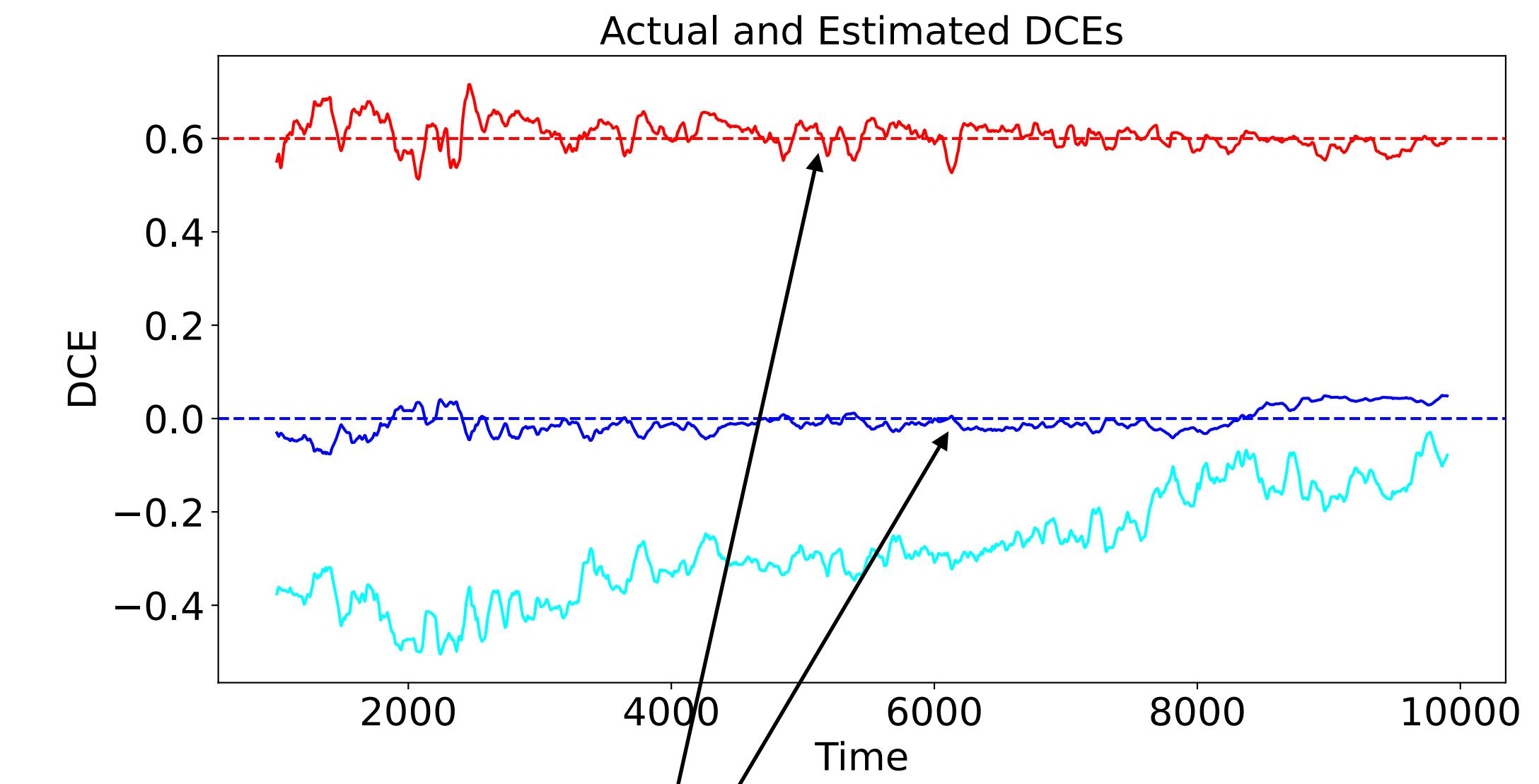
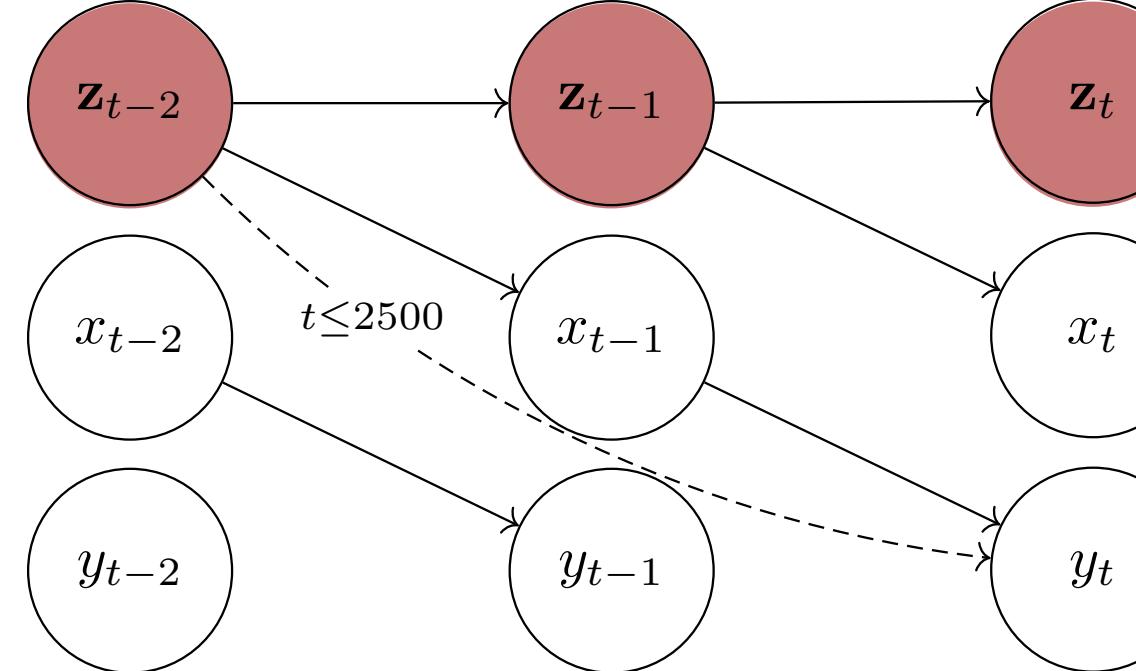
## In the Static Case



# Our Method Can Detect Confounders In the Dynamic Case

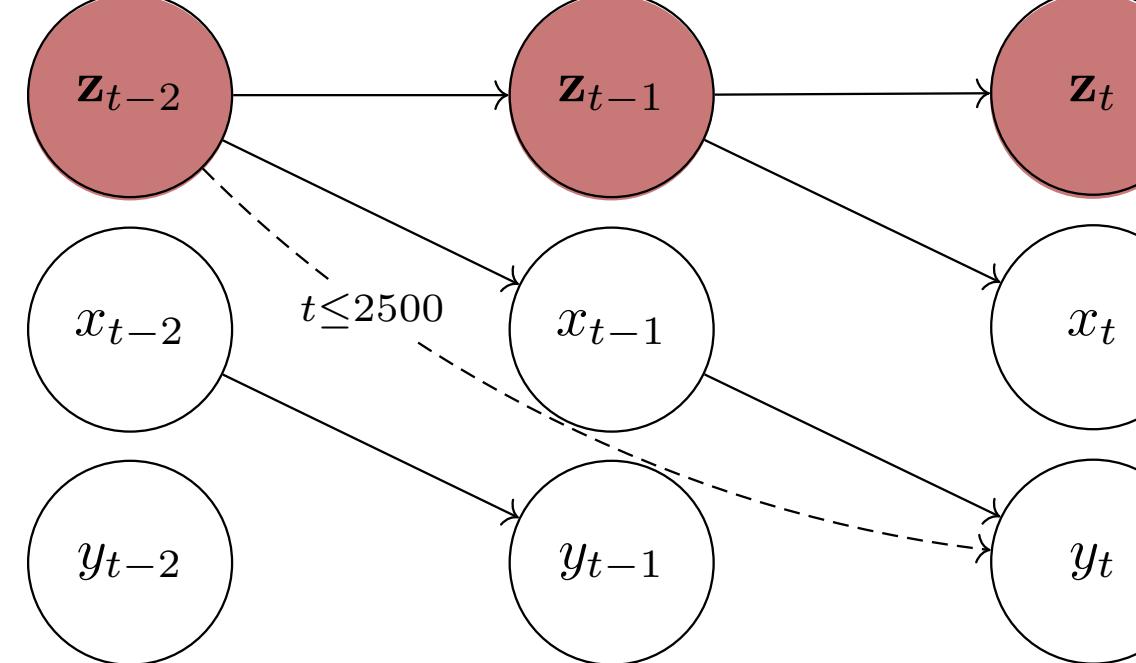


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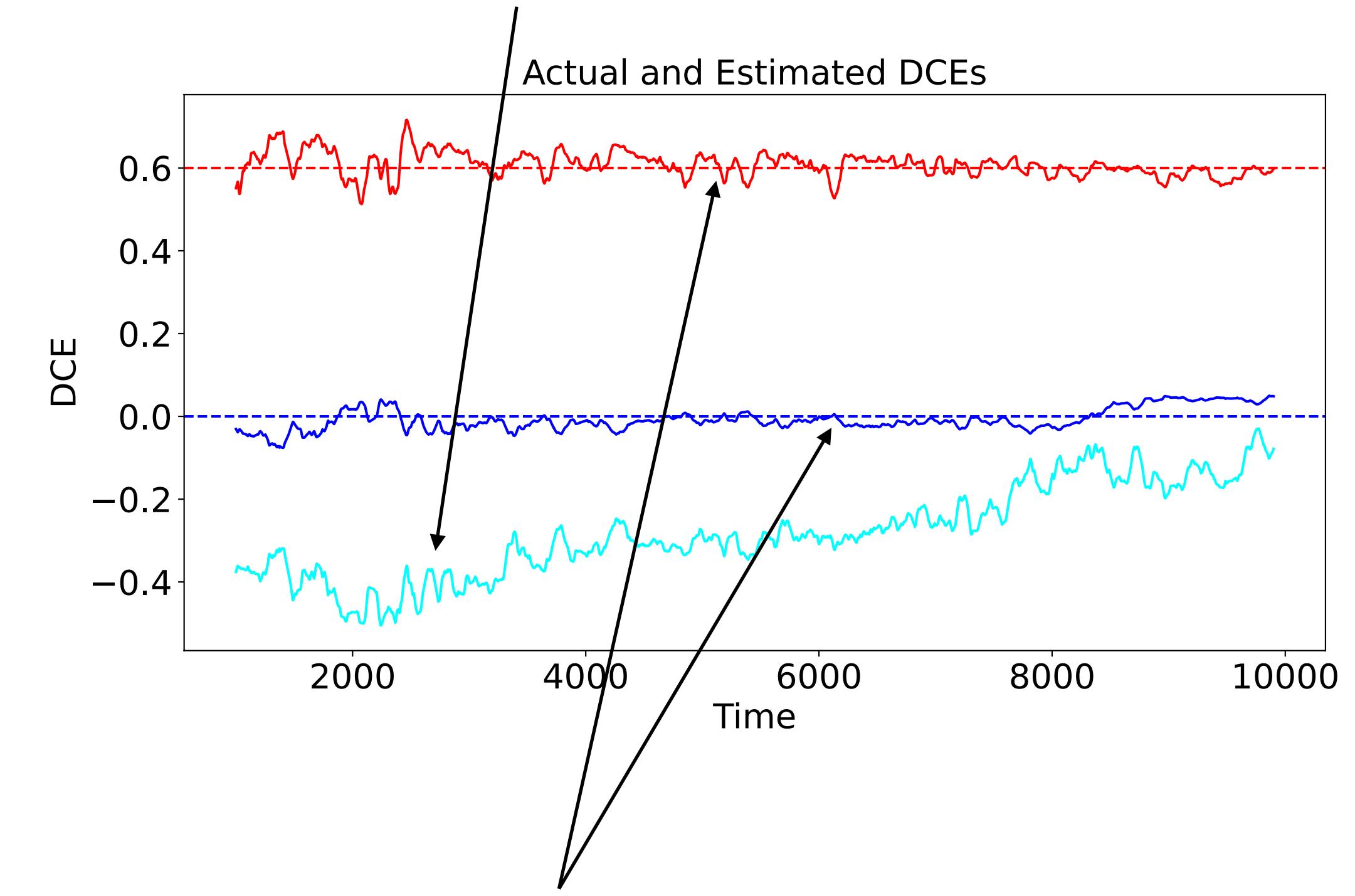


Correct DCEs for observed variables

# Our Method Can Detect Confounders In the Dynamic Case



Initially nonzero DCE, decaying  
to zero for confounder



# Causal Discovery

D. Waxman, K. Butler, and P. M. Djurić

“DAGMA-DCE: Interpretable, Non-Parametric  
Differentiable Causal Discovery”

Submitted.

# Discovering Causal Relationships

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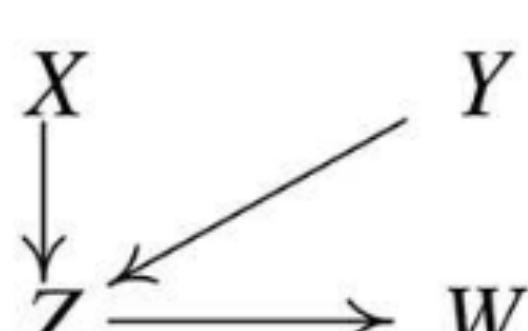
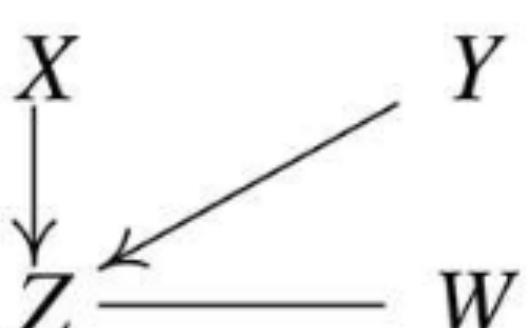
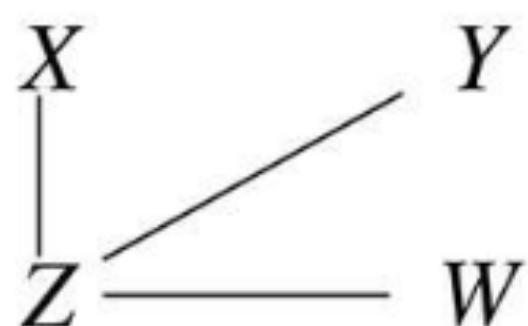
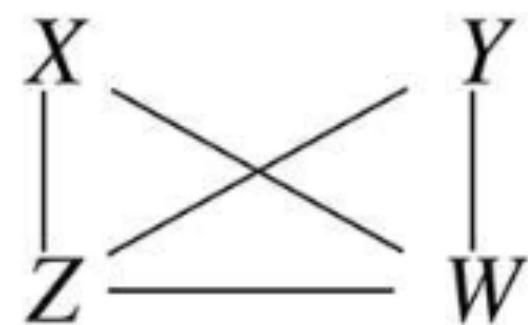
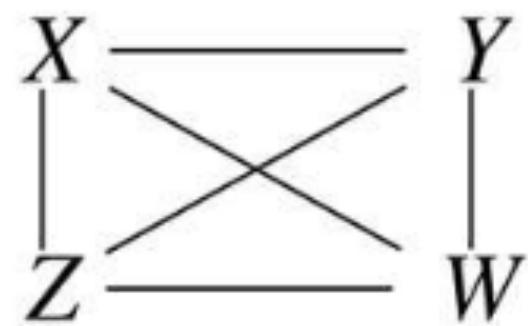
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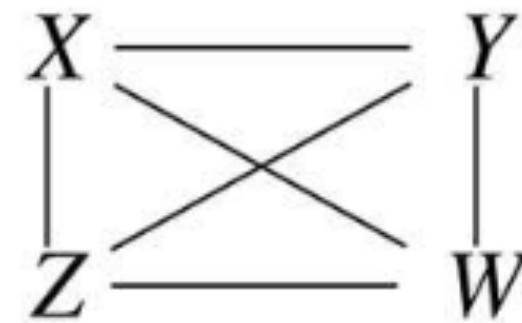
1. Constraint-based methods
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# Constraint-Based Methods Exploit Independencies

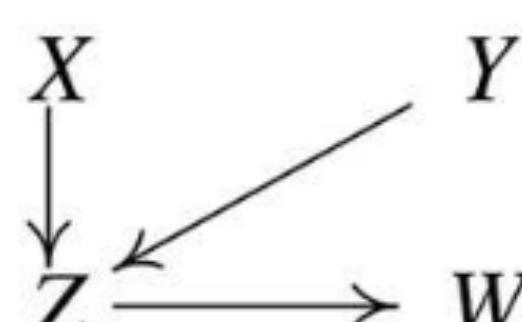
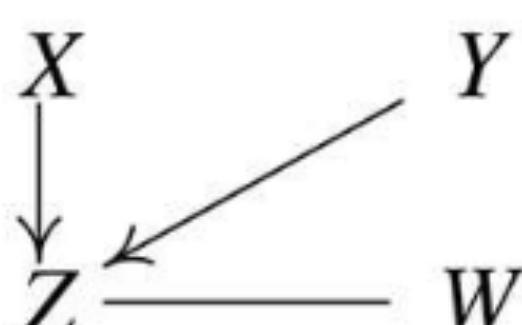
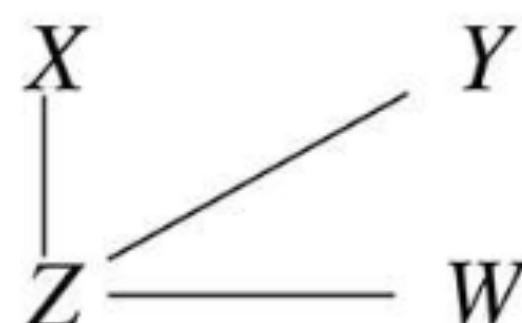
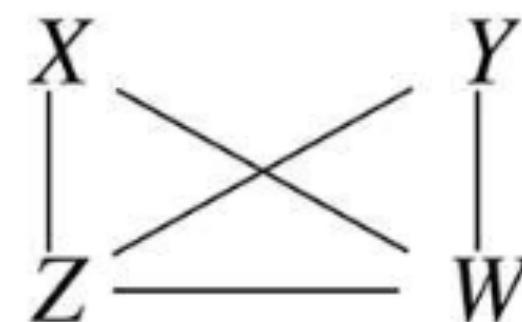


C. Glymour, K. Zhang, & P. Spirtes.  
(2019). Review of causal discovery  
methods based on graphical models.  
*Frontiers in genetics*, 10, 524.

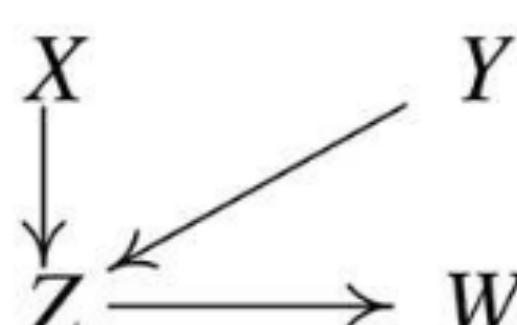
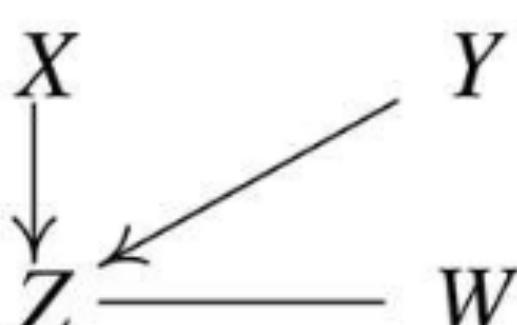
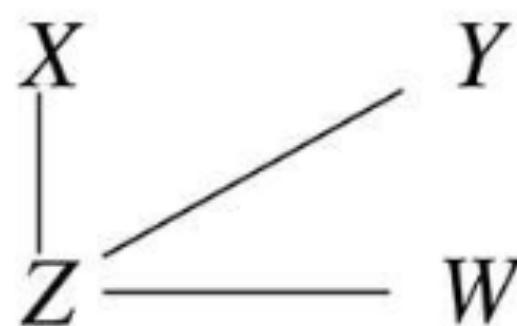
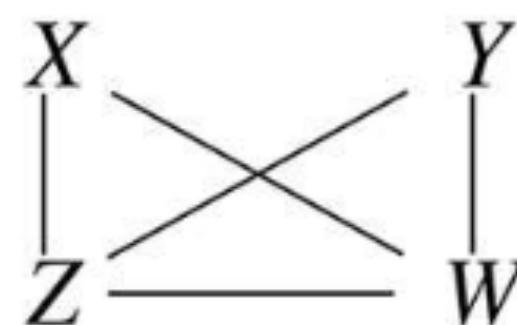
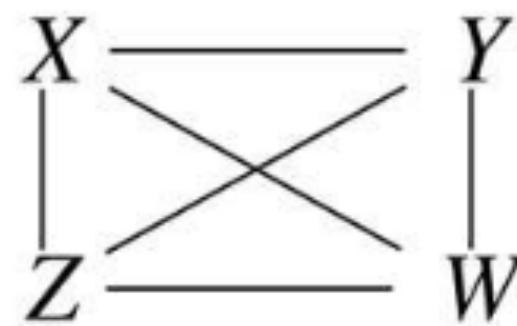
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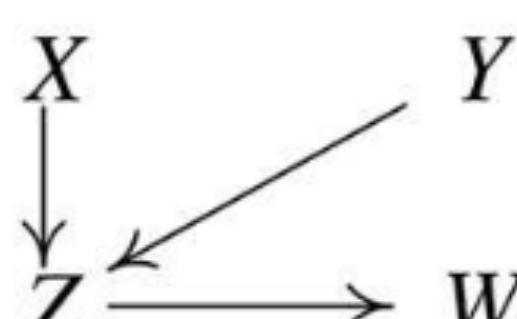
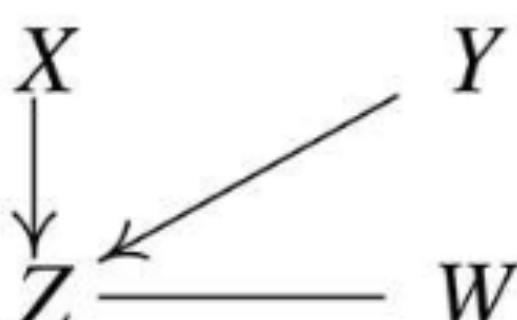
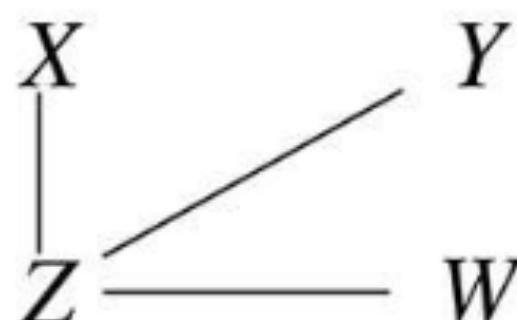
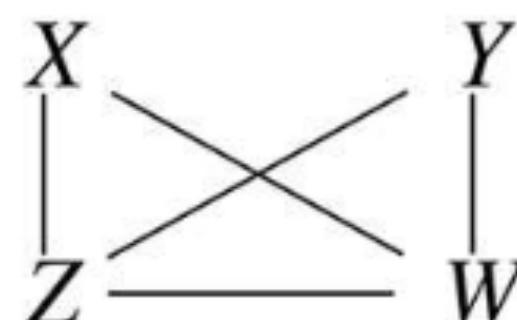
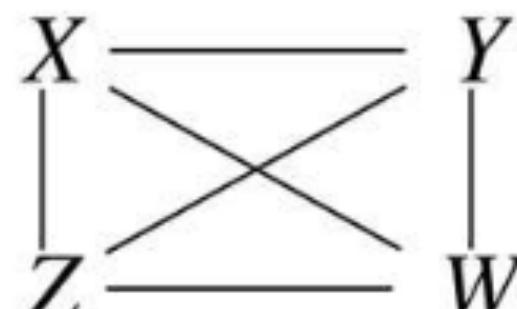
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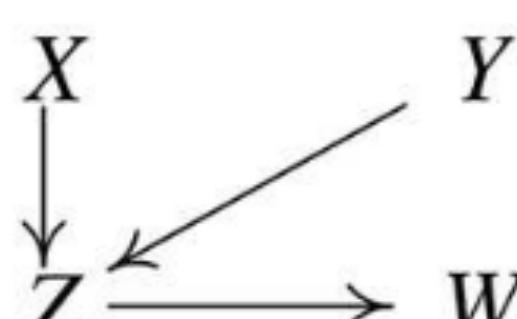
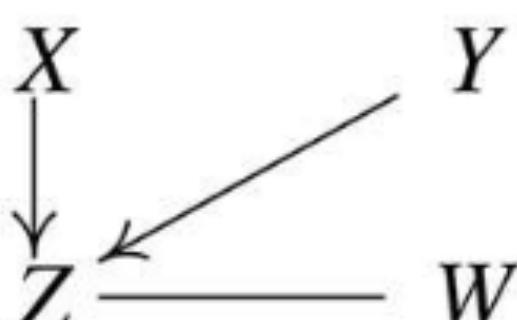
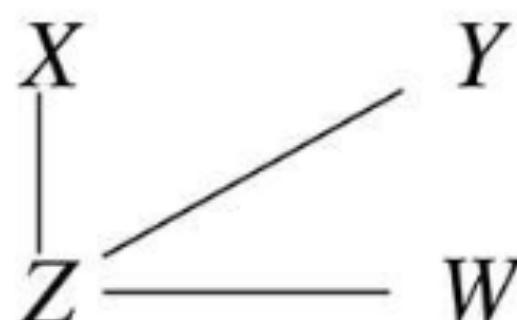
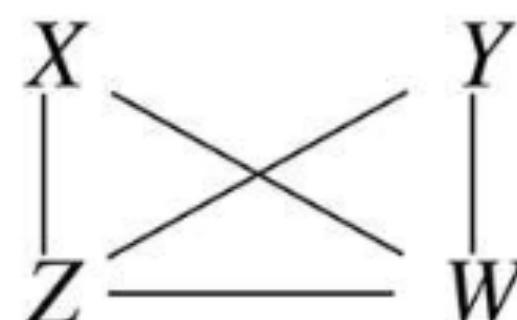
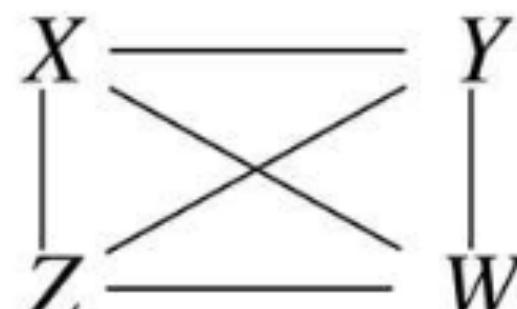


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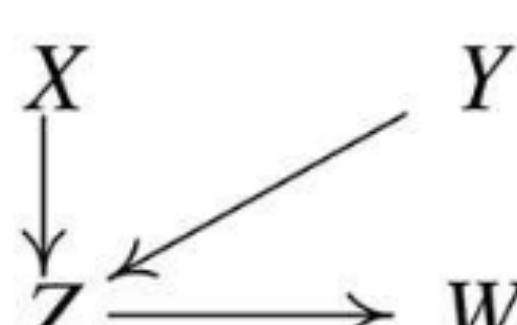
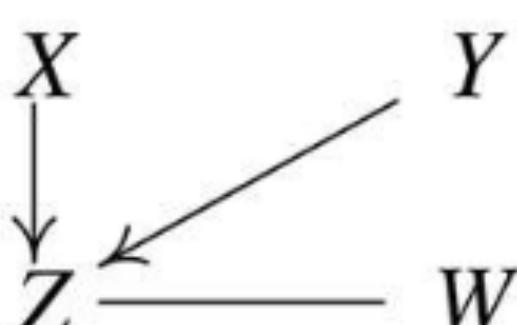
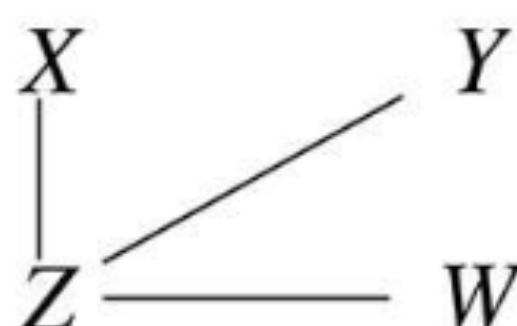
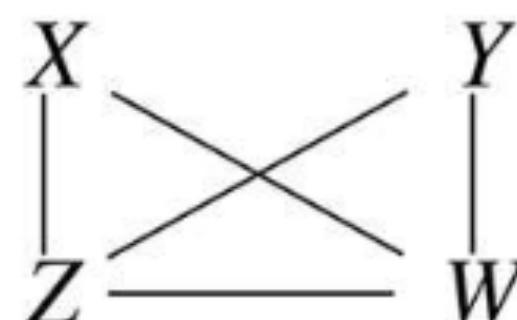
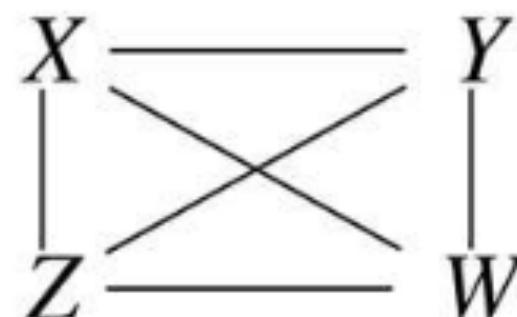


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Famous examples include the PC Algorithm and Fast Causal  
Inference (FCI)

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But we'll work on score-based methods instead

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Score-based methods search over DAGs to minimize the MLE/  
AIC/BIC

# There are too Many DAGs to do This Quickly

1 : 1

2 : 3

3 : 25

4 : 543

5 : 29281

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14 :  $1.4 \times 10^{36}$

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Searches over DAGs can then be constrained, continuous optimization

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This is well-posed and gets very nice results

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For parameterized model  $\mathcal{M}_\theta$

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\theta} \|\mathbf{X} - f_\theta(\mathbf{X})\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{A}_\theta\|_1 \\ & \text{s.t. } \text{tr} \left( \exp \left( \mathbf{A}_\theta \odot \mathbf{A}_\theta \right) \right) - d = 0 \end{aligned}$$

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**Idea:** define a class of matrices so that barrier methods work

In this case, M-matrices from econometrics

# Fixing NOTEARS' Gradients

NOTEARS has poorly behaved gradients

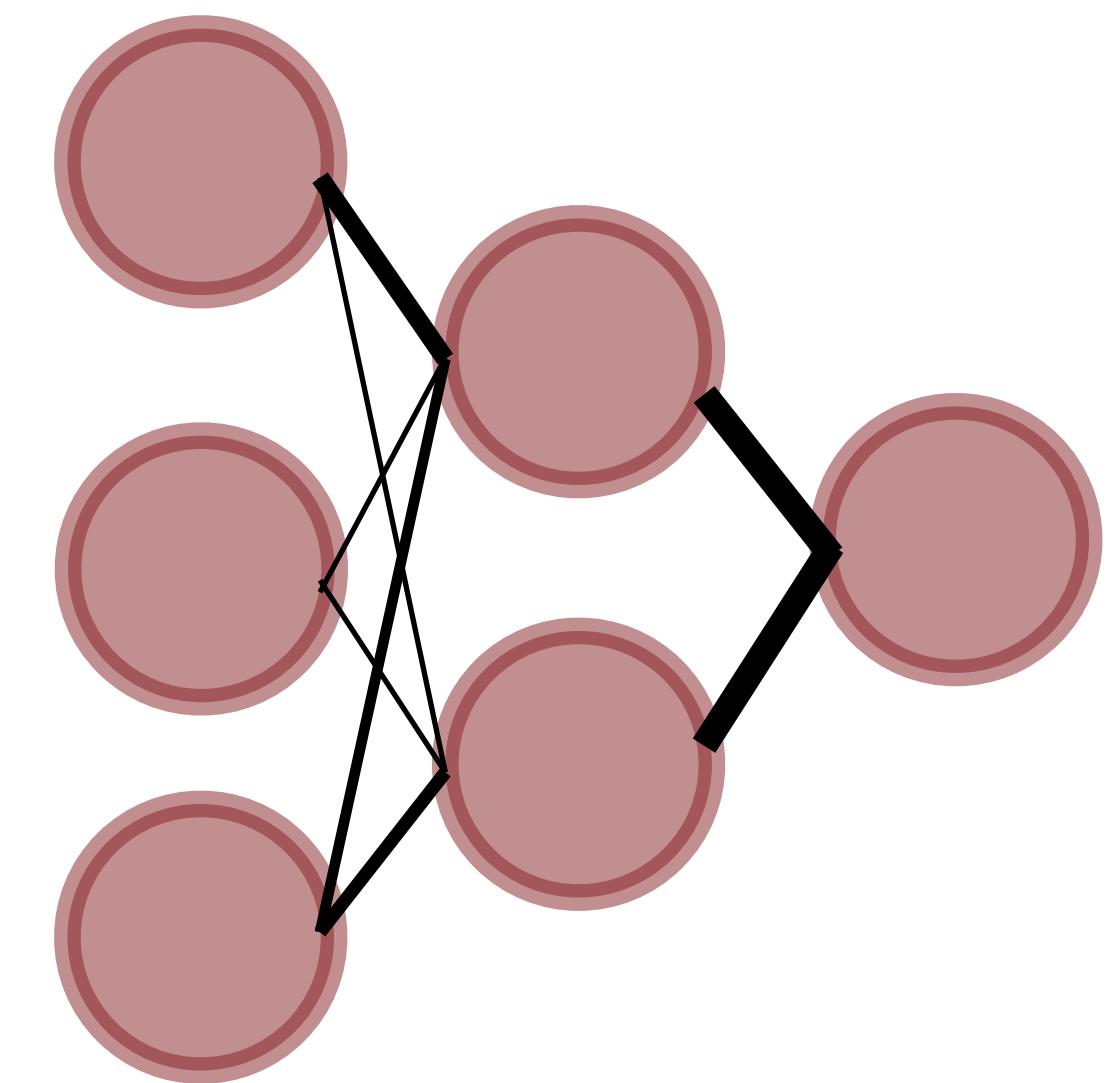
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**Idea:** define a class of matrices so that barrier methods work  
In this case, M-matrices from econometrics

DAGMA [Bello et al., NeurIPS 2022] then gives a different constraint:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\theta} \|\mathbf{X} - f_{\theta}(\mathbf{X})\|_F^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{A}_{\theta}\|_1 \\ \text{s.t. } & -\log \left( \det(s\mathbb{I} - \mathbf{A}_{\theta} \odot \mathbf{A}_{\theta}) \right) + d \log s = 0 \end{aligned}$$

# $A_\theta$ is Arbitrarily Misspecified

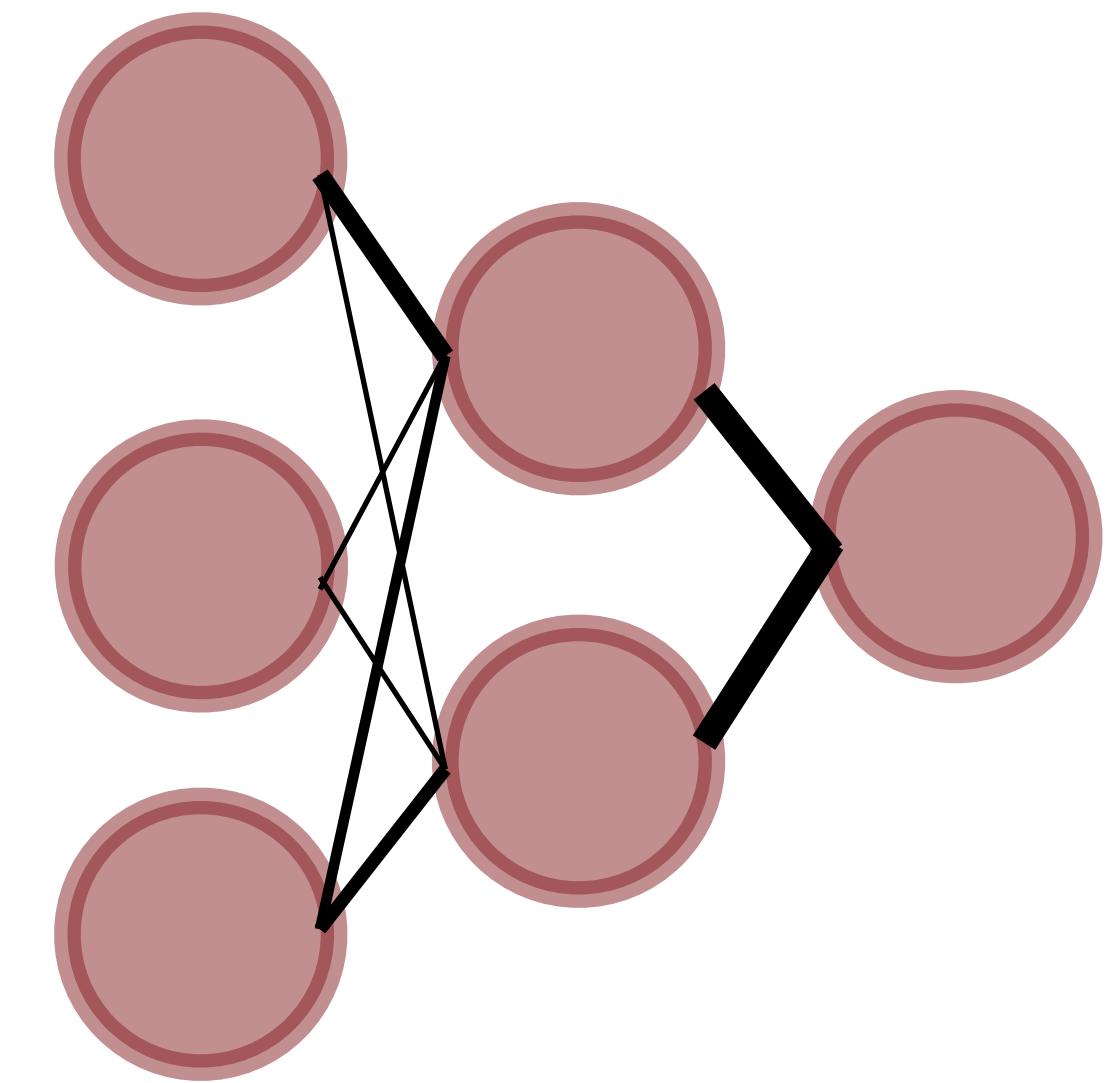


$$|+| = |$$

$$\|\partial_i f_j\| = |$$

# $A_\theta$ is Arbitrarily Misspecified

DAGMA-MLP defines  $A_\theta$  using the  $L^2$  norm



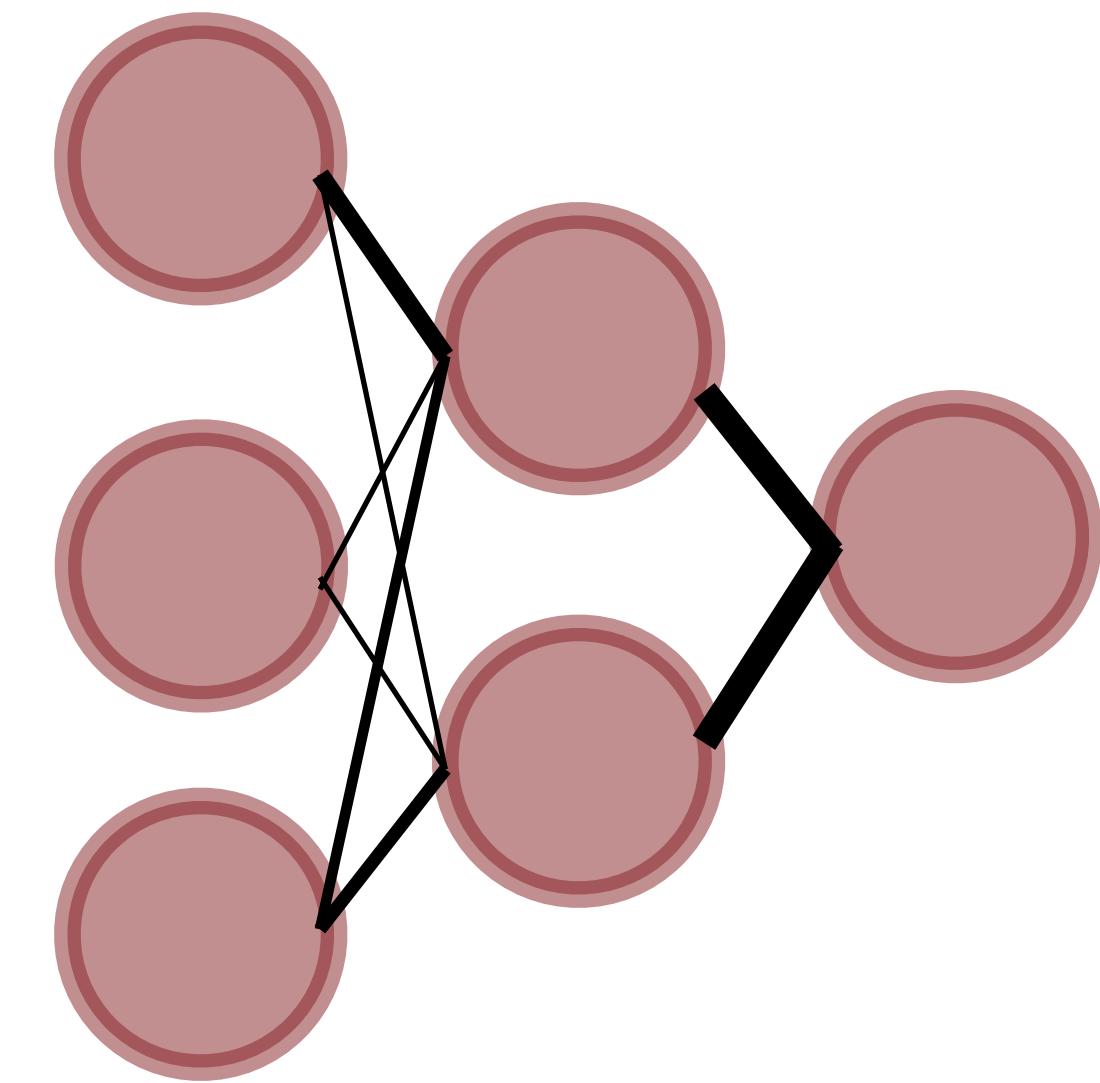
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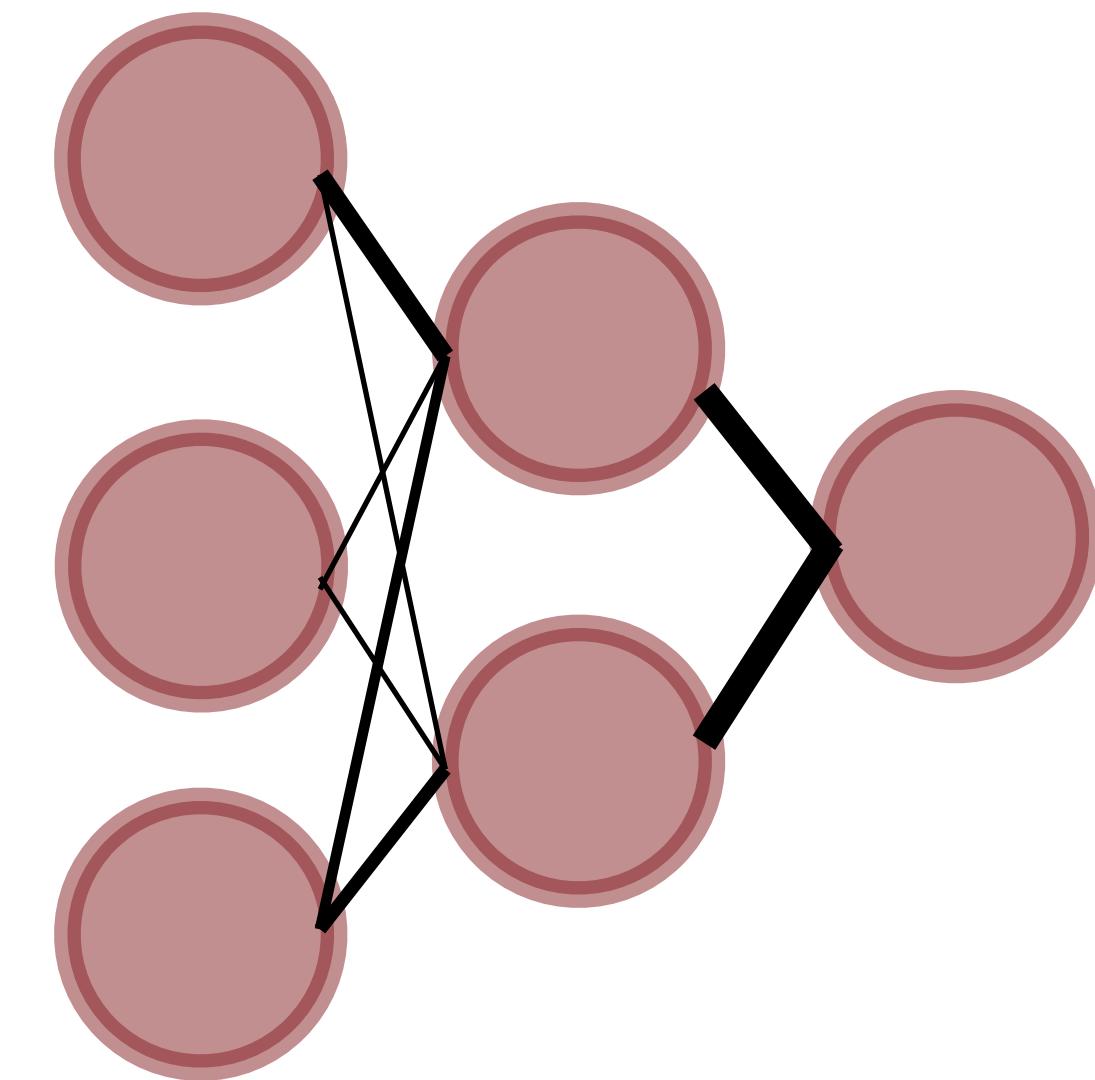
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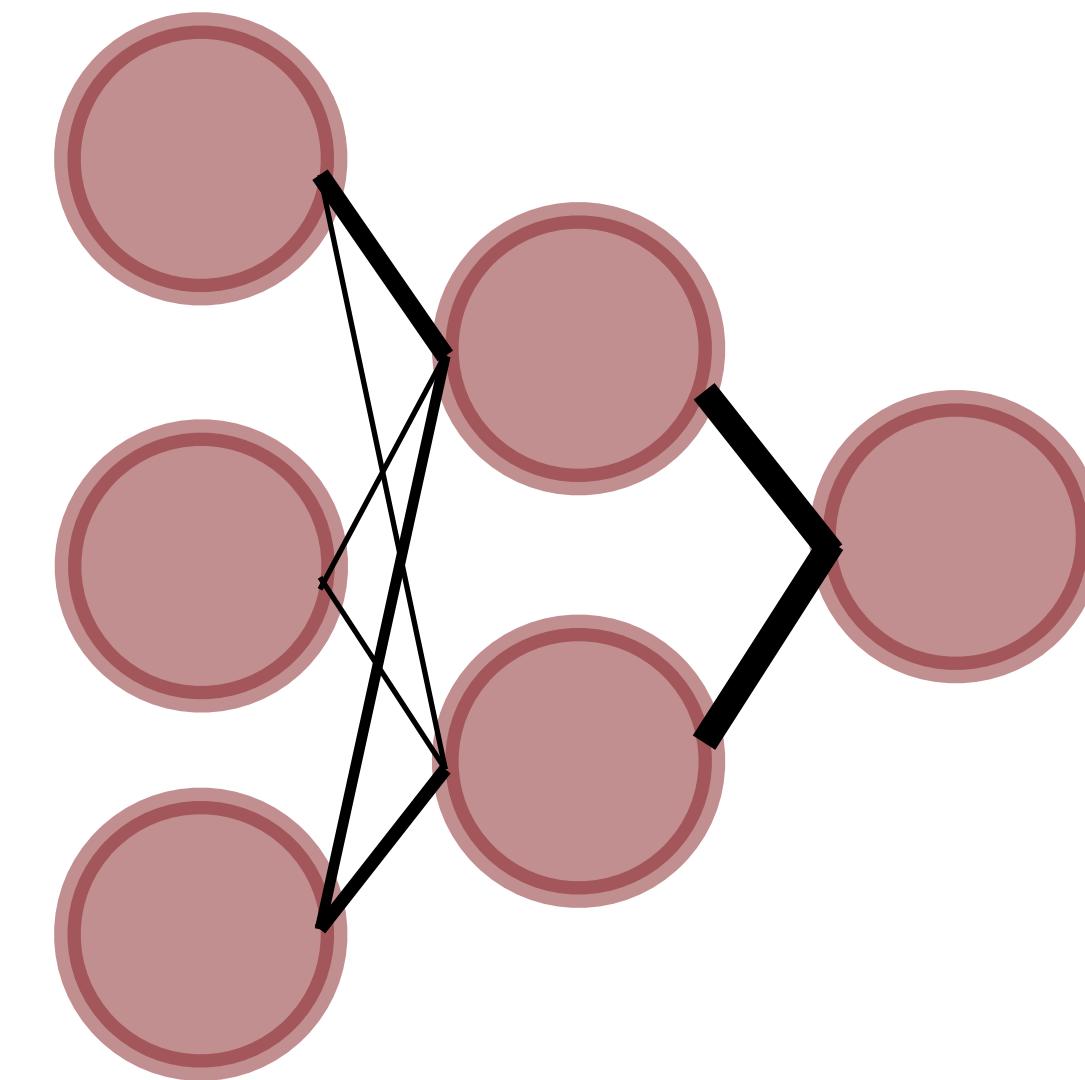
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**Lemma:** There exists an MLP with weight matrices  $B^{(1)}, \dots, B^{(M)}$  and sigmoidal activation such that  $\|B_1^{(1)}\|_2 < \epsilon$  but  $\|\partial_i f_j\|_2 > \delta$ .

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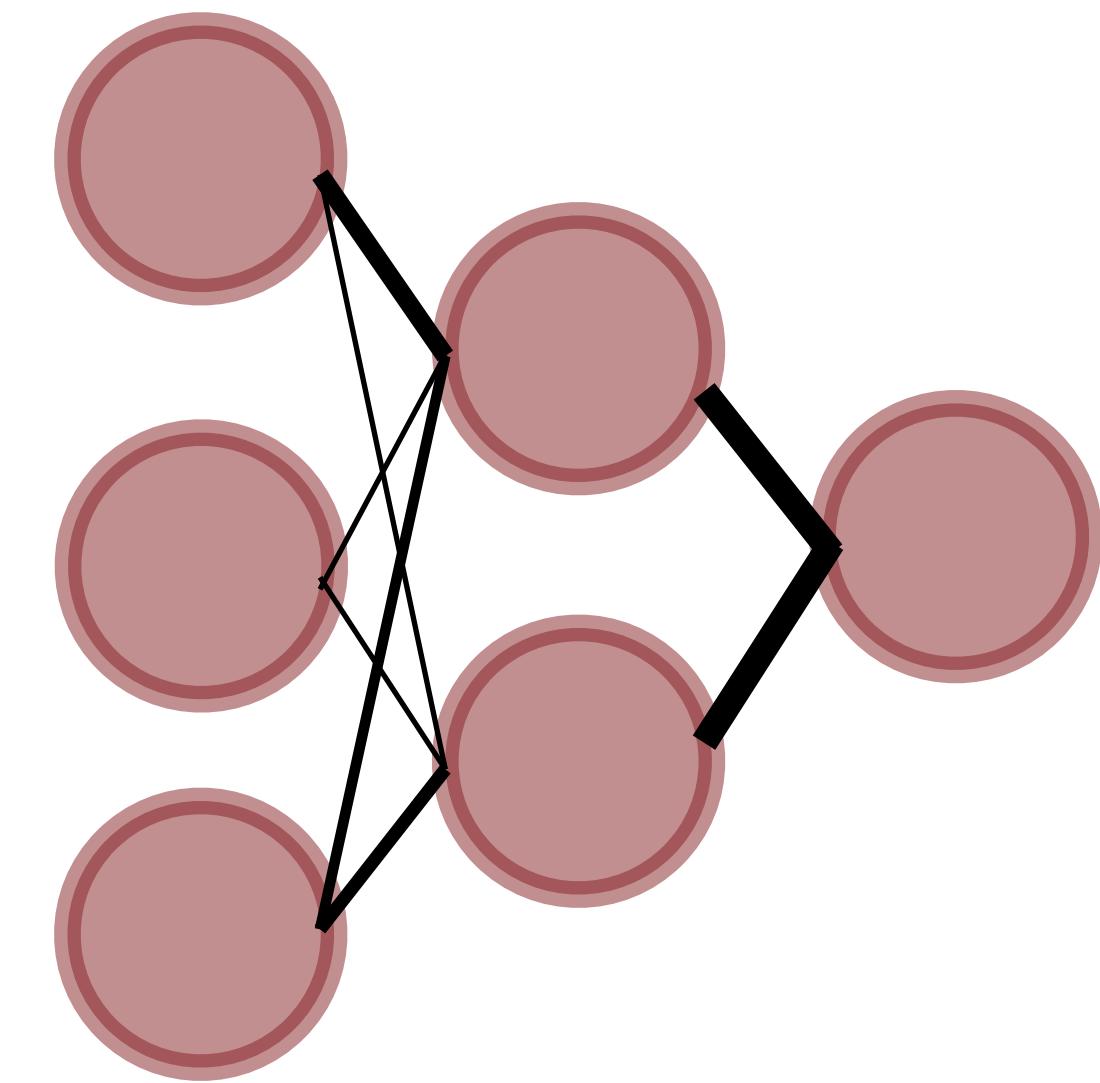
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**Proof Idea:** for each outgoing edge of  $B^{(1)}$  which is small, compensate with very large edges in  $B^{(2)}$

# We Redefine $A_\theta$ using DCE

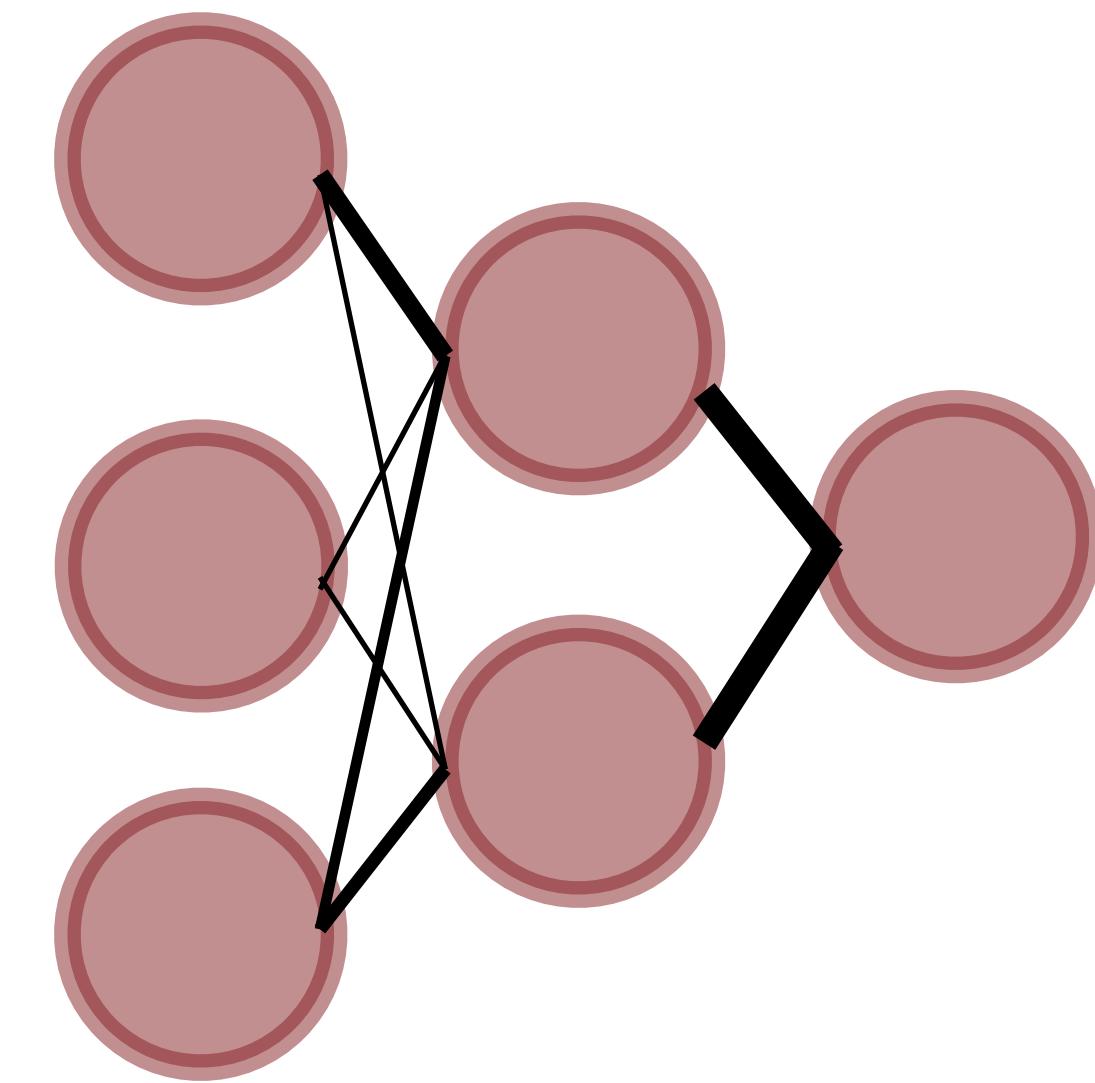


A diagram consisting of two vertical black lines. Between them are two mathematical symbols: a plus sign (+) on the left and an equals sign (=) on the right.

$$\|\partial_i f_j\| =$$

# We Redefine $\mathbf{A}_\theta$ using DCE

Define instead  $\mathbf{A}_\theta \triangleq \|\partial_i f_j\|_{L_2(\mathbb{P}^X)}$



$$| + | = |$$

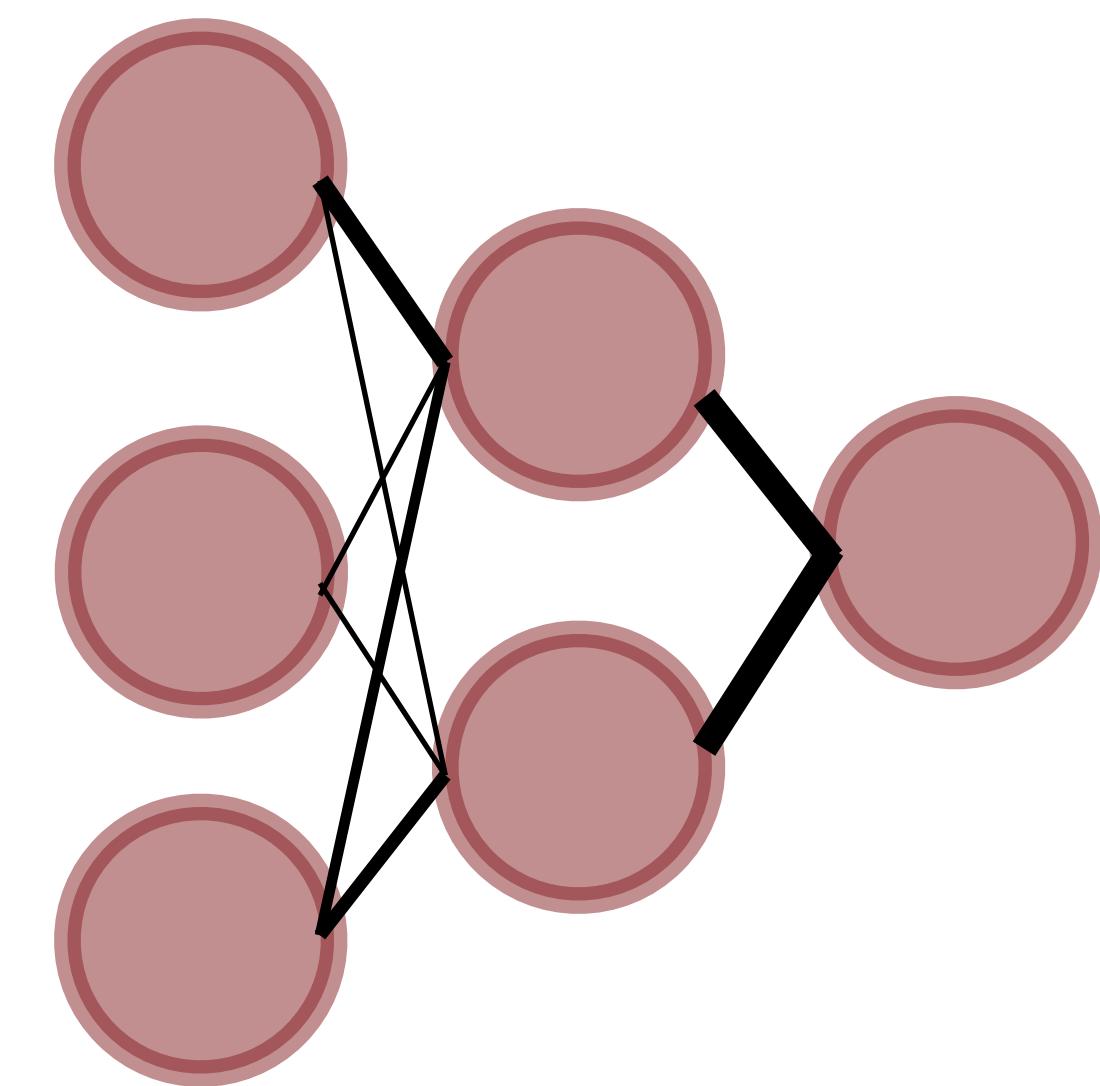
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We can take a Monte Carlo approximation

$$[\mathbf{A}_\theta]_{ij} \approx \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\partial_i f_j(x_n))^2}$$



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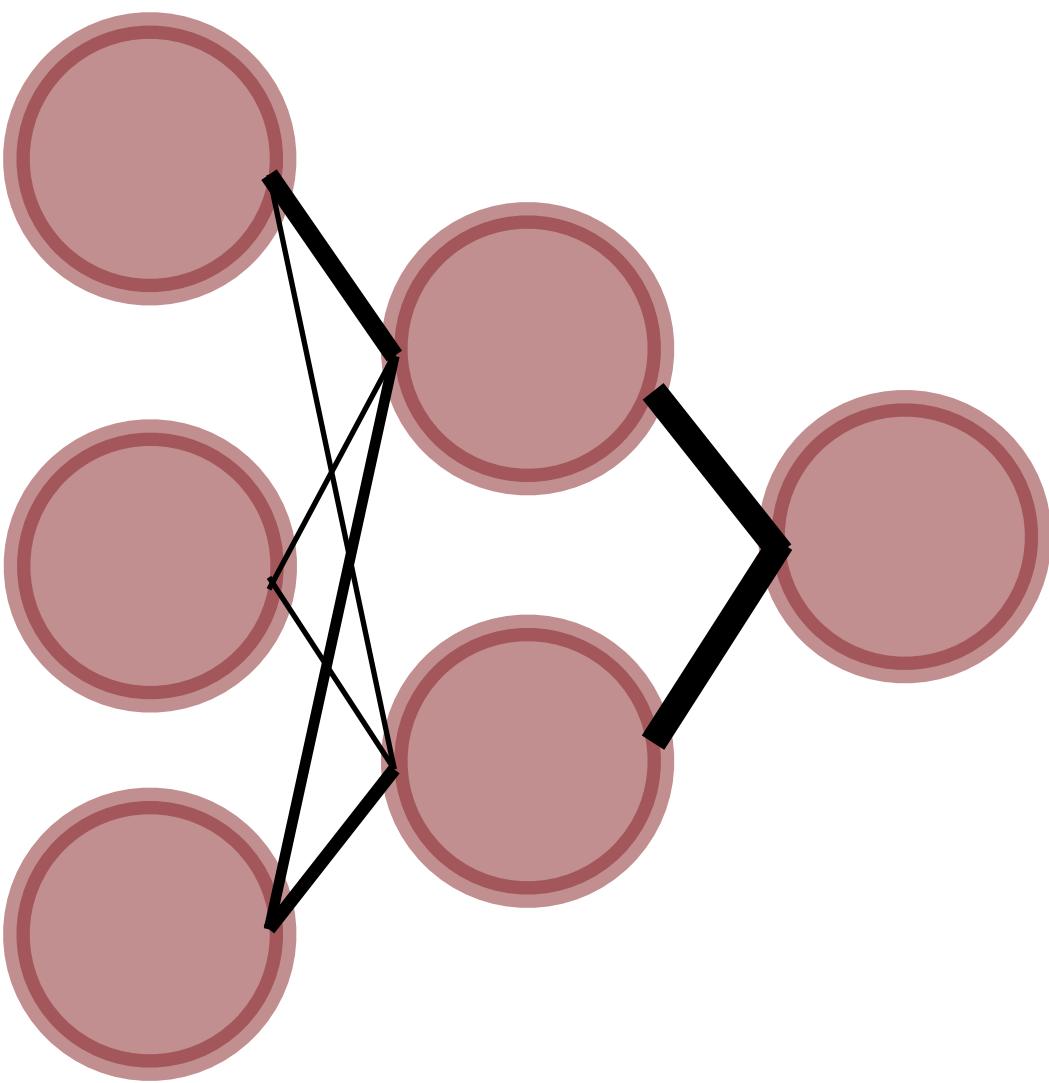
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This is the root-mean-square DCE

# DAGMA-DCE

---

# DAGMA-DCE

Our optimization problem stays the same

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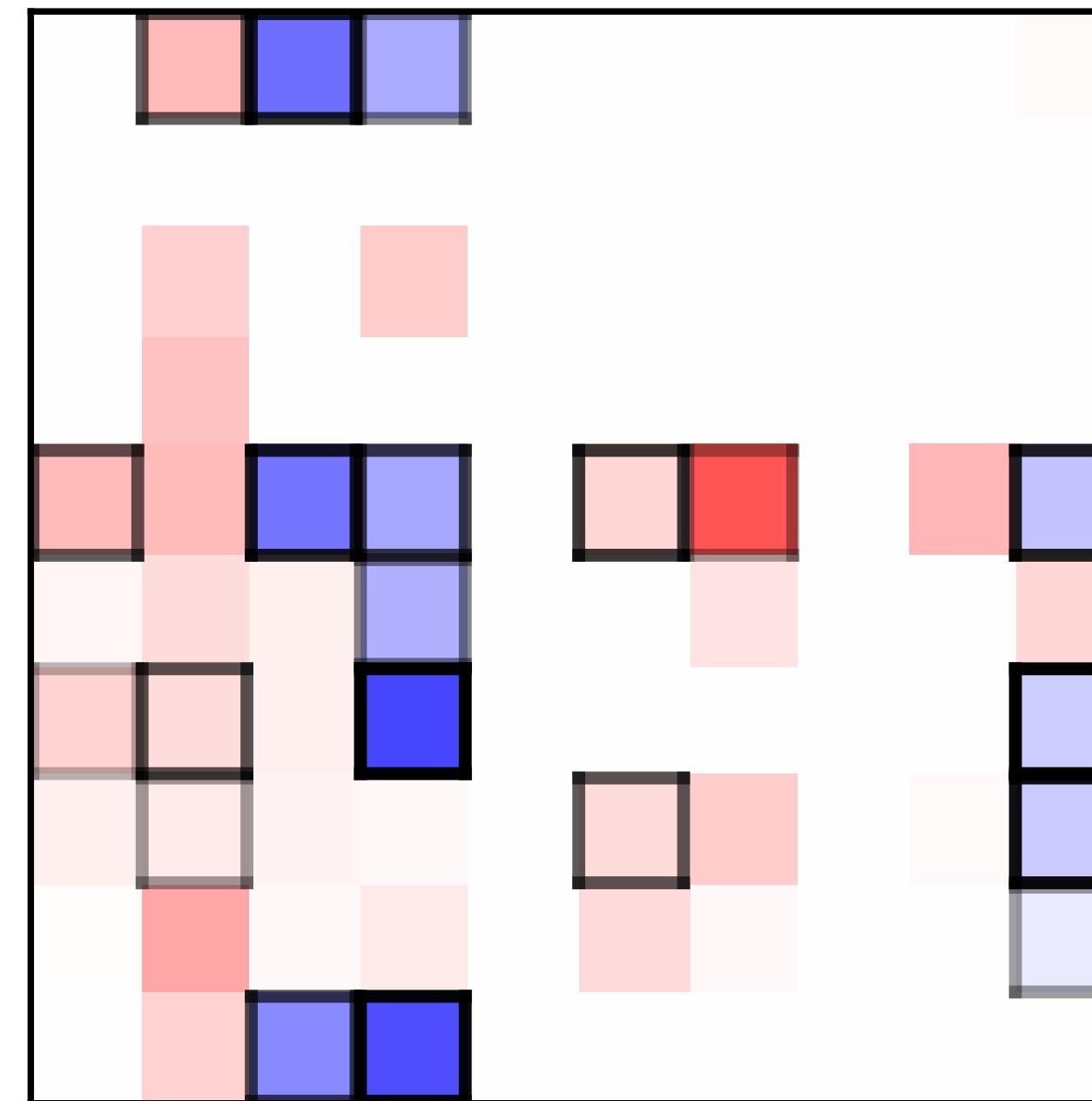
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Whenever the DCE is well-defined and easy to compute, terms in this problem are too

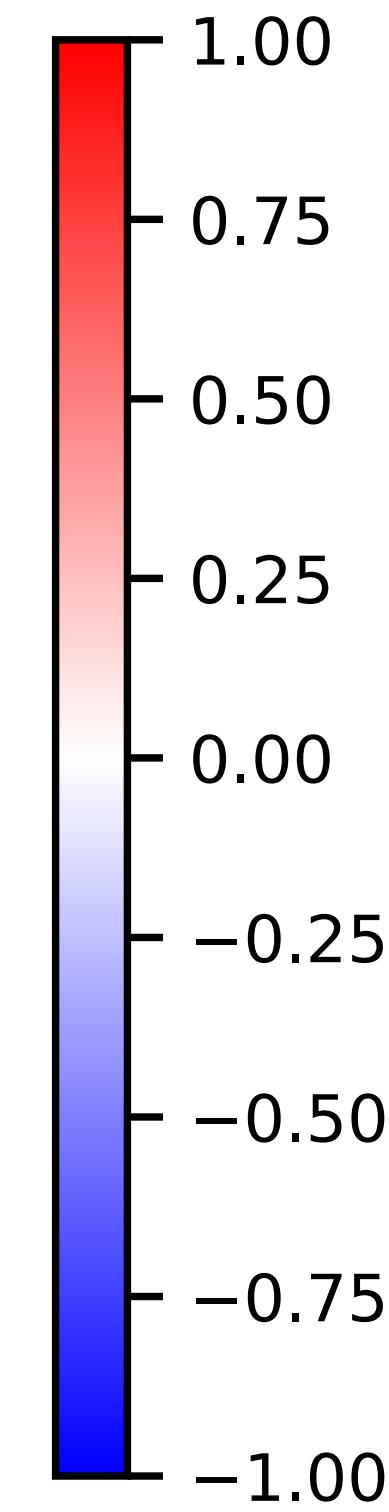
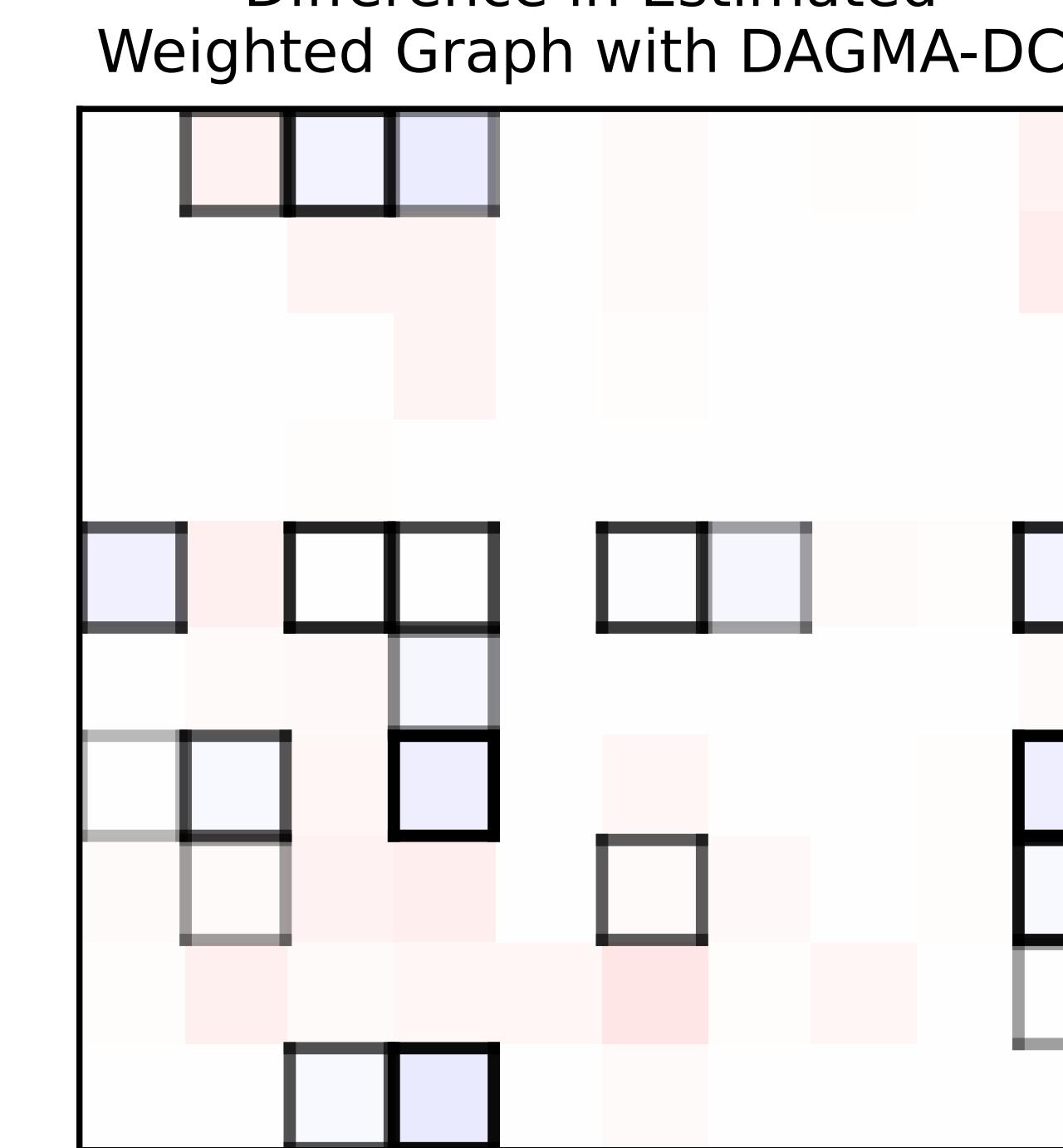
# DAGMA-DCE Recovers Linear Strength

Data was generated with a linear SEM

Difference in Estimated  
Weighted Graph with DAGMA

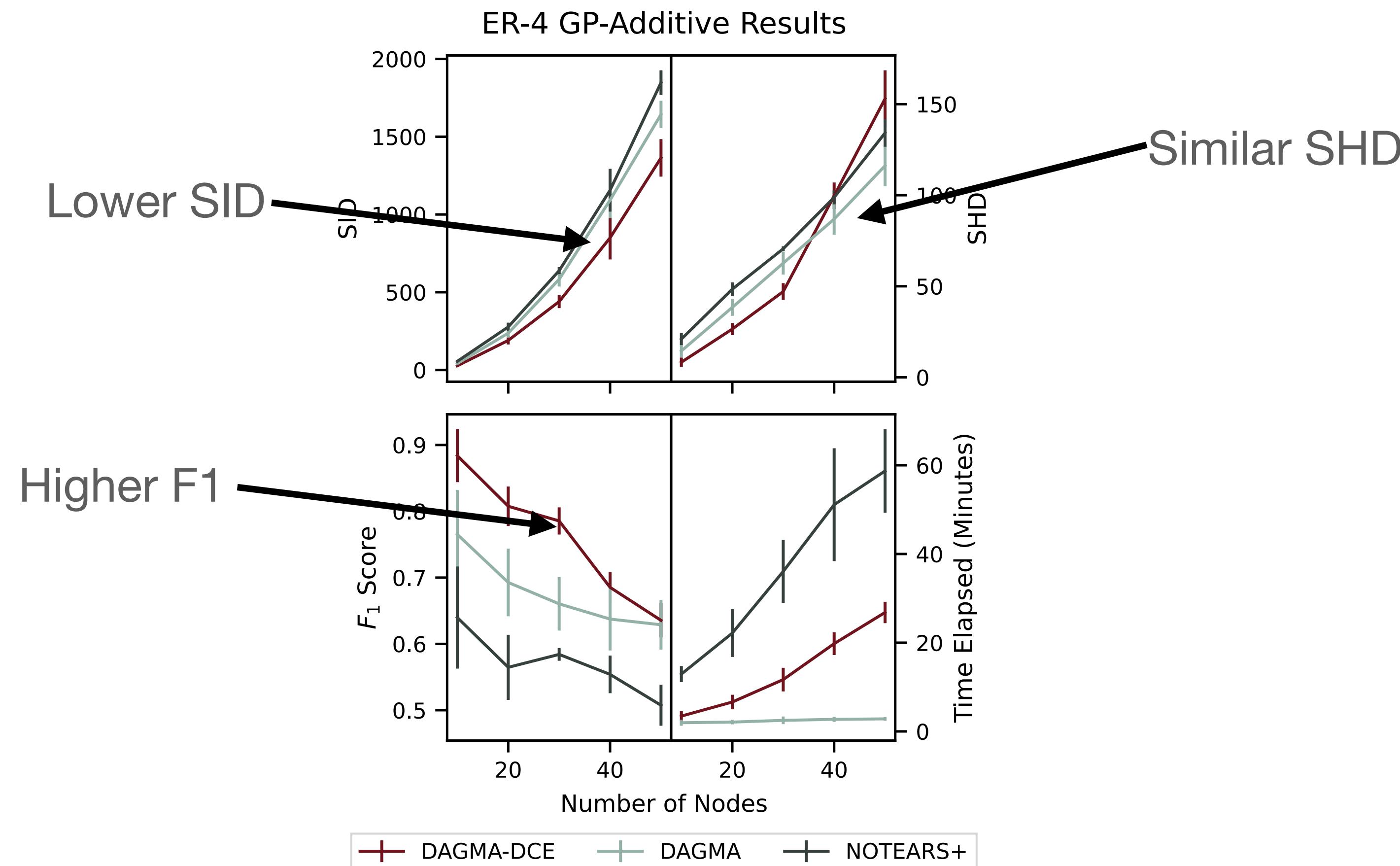


Difference in Estimated  
Weighted Graph with DAGMA-DCE



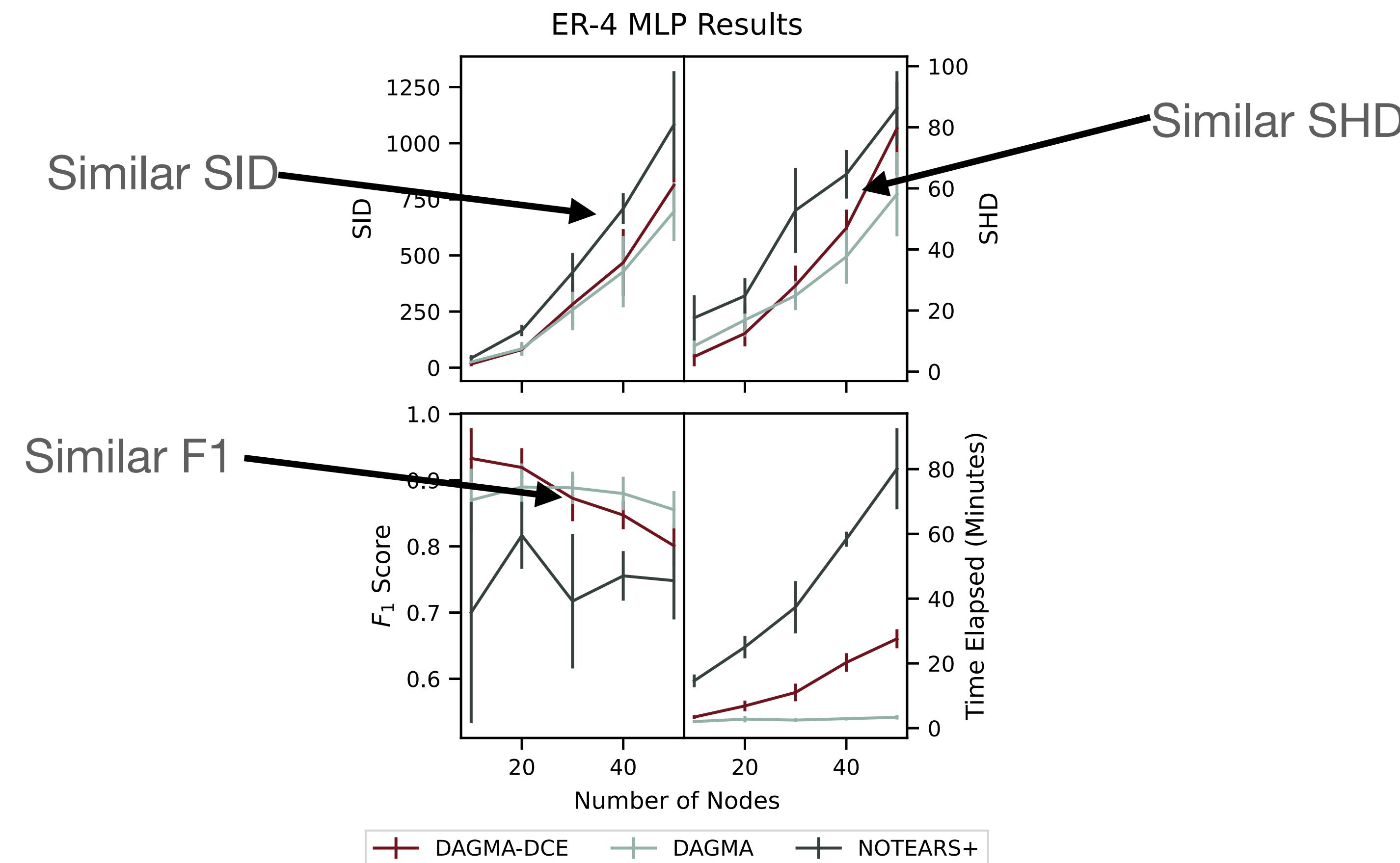
# DAGMA-DCE Maintains Performance

Data was generated with additive Gaussian processes



# ... Even in Unfavorable Comparisons

Data was generated with MLPs, made to ensure DAGMA identifiability



# DAGMA-DCE Orders Variables Differently

Dataset	Kendall's Tau	Spearman's Rho
Additive GPs	$0.40 \pm 0.09$	$0.53 \pm 0.11$
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Both Kendall's  $\tau$  and Spearman's  $\rho$  indicate different orderings

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This allows the expert to decide what's a relevant effect

# Concluding Remarks

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Causal relationships have not only a direction, but a strength

Strength is often thrown away

By incorporating strength, we could

- Detect confounders in multivariate time series
- Increase interpretability in differentiable causal discovery

# Future

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Lots of other places to use ML and causal strength in causality

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Interpretability brings opportunities for “workflows”

Together, these empower decision-makers

# Thank You!

## Collaborators



Petar Djurić



Kurt Butler



Chen Cui



Yuhao Liu