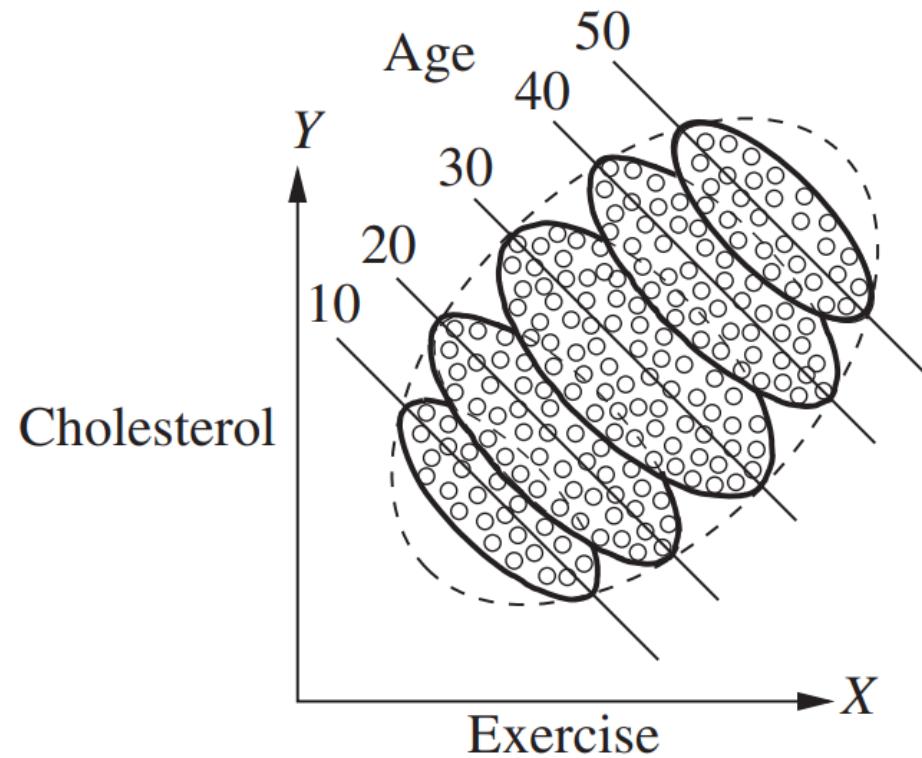
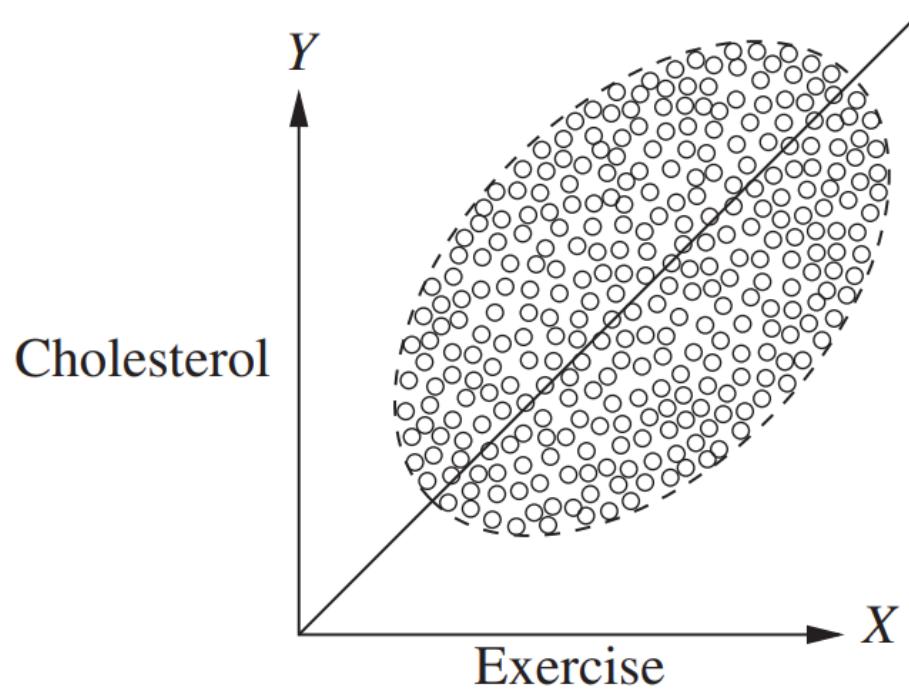


A Brief Introduction to Causal Discovery and Causal inference

Correlation vs. Causation



Correlation Is Not Causation

The gold rule of causal analysis: no causal claim can be established purely by a statistical method.

Statistical Implications of Causality

- Better to talk of (in)dependence rather than correlation.
- Most statisticians would agree that causality does tell us something about dependence.
- But dependence does tell us something about causality too.

(Conditional) Independence

- Two random variables X and Y are called independent if for each values of (X, Y) denoted by (x, y) ,
 - $P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x) \cdot P(Y = y)$
 - Denoted by $X \perp Y$ or $(X \perp Y)_D$
 - Otherwise they are dependent
- Two random variables X and Y are called conditionally independent given Z , if for each values of (X, Y, Z) denoted by (x, y, z) ,
 - $P(X = x, Y = y|Z = z) = P(X = x|Z = z) \cdot P(Y = y|Z = z)$
 - Denoted by $X \perp Y|Z$ or $(X \perp Y|Z)_D$
 - Otherwise they are conditionally dependent

Statistical Implications of Causality

- Reichenbach's *Common Cause Principle* (1956) links causality and (in)dependence.

It seems that a dependence between events A and B indicates either that A causes B , or that B causes A , or that A and B have a common cause.

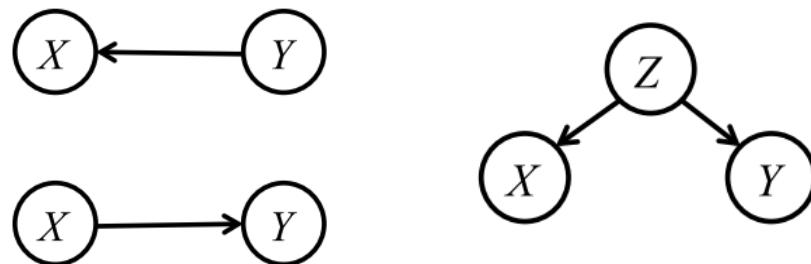


If A and B have a common cause C (only), then conditioning on C would make A and B independent. In this case, C is said to ‘screen off’ the dependence between A and B .

The Bridge: DAG

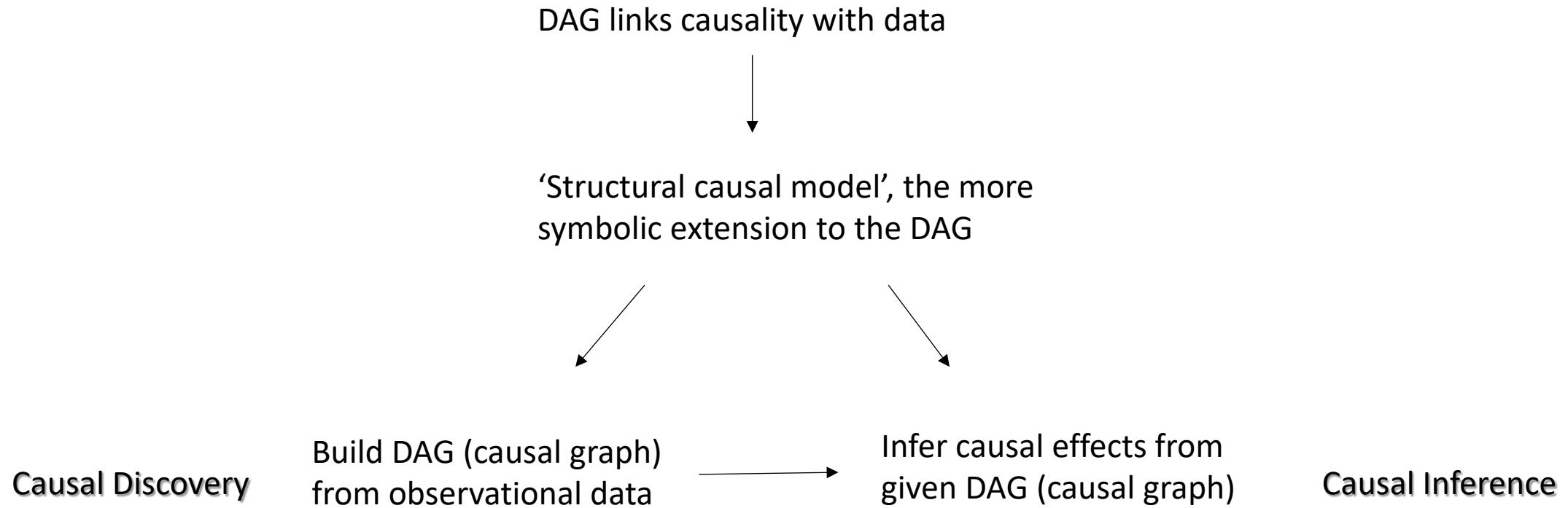
- Use the Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) to represent the cause-effect relations

- Nodes as variables
- Edges as direct causal connections



- If a DAG represents the true causal relationship, then the DAG encodes all the conditional independence relations in the true distribution which can be read-off from the graph using d -separation.

Make Use of DAG for Causal Discovery and Causal Inference



Structural Equation/Causal Model



Structural Causal Model

- A causal model is triple $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{F} \rangle$, where
 - \mathbf{U} is a set of exogenous (hidden) variables whose values are determined by factors outside the model;
 - $\mathbf{V} = \{X_1, \dots, X_i, \dots\}$ is a set of endogenous (observed) variables whose values are determined by factors within the model;
 - $\mathbf{F} = \{f_1, \dots, f_i, \dots\}$ is a set of **deterministic** functions where each f_i is a mapping from $\mathbf{U} \times (\mathbf{V} \setminus X_i)$ to X_i . Symbolically, f_i can be written as

$$x_i = f_i(\mathbf{pa}_i, \mathbf{u}_i)$$

where \mathbf{pa}_i is a realization of X_i 's parents in \mathbf{V} , i.e., $\mathbf{Pa}_i \subseteq \mathbf{V}$, and \mathbf{u}_i is a realization of X_i 's parents in \mathbf{U} , i.e., $\mathbf{U}_i \subseteq \mathbf{U}$.

Causal Graph

- Each causal model \mathcal{M} is associated with a **direct graph** $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, where
 - \mathcal{V} is the set of nodes represent the variables $\mathbf{U} \cup \mathbf{V}$ in \mathcal{M} ;
 - \mathcal{E} is the set of edges determined by the structural equations in \mathcal{M} : for X_i , there is an edge pointing from each of its parents $\mathbf{Pa}_i \cup \mathbf{U}_i$ to it.
 - Each direct edge represents the **potential** direct causal relation.
 - **Absence** of direct edge represents **zero** direct causal relation.
- Assuming the acyclicity of causality, \mathcal{G} is a directed acyclic graph (DAG).
- Standard terminology
 - parent, child, ancestor, descendent, path, direct path

A Causal Model and Its Graph

Observed Variables $V = \{I, H, W, E\}$

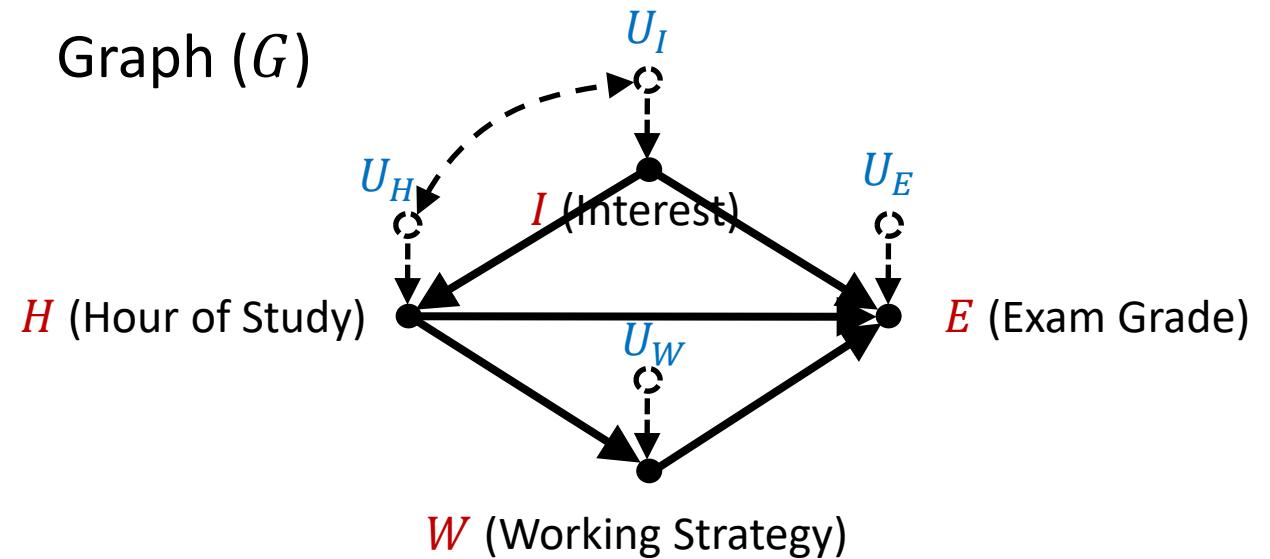
Model (M)

$$\begin{aligned} i &= f_I(u_I) \\ h &= f_H(i, u_H) \\ w &= f_W(h, u_W) \\ e &= f_E(i, h, w, u_E) \end{aligned}$$

Assume U_I and U_H are correlated.

Hidden Variables $U = \{U_I, U_H, U_W, U_E\}$

Graph (G)



A Markovian Model and Its Graph

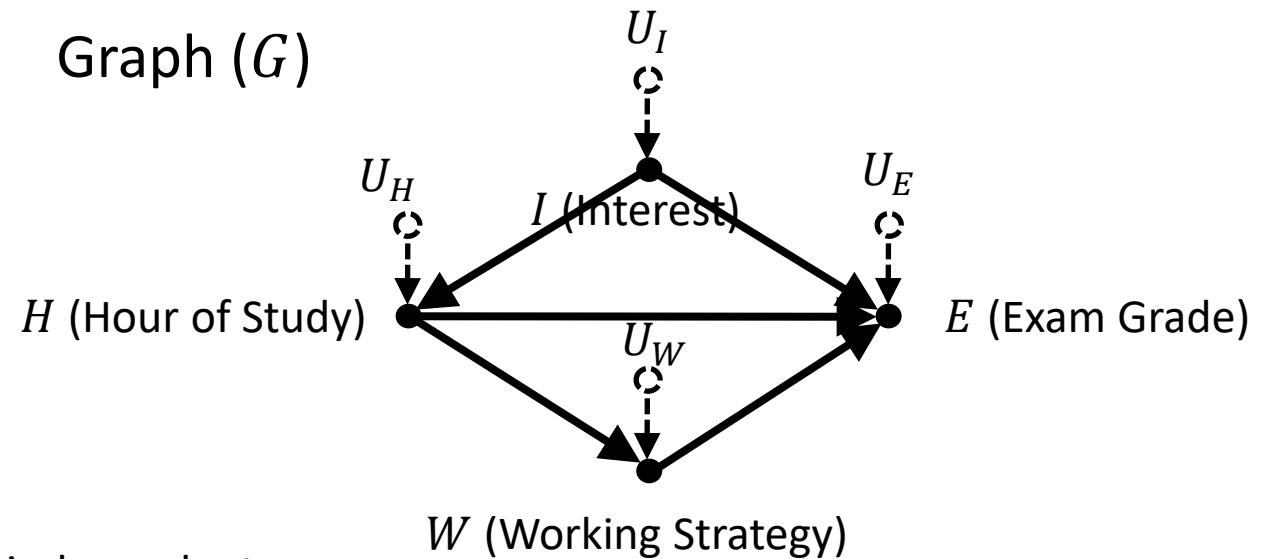
With causal sufficiency assumption

Model (M)

$$\begin{aligned} i &= f_I(u_I) \\ h &= f_H(i, u_H) \\ w &= f_W(h, u_W) \\ e &= f_E(i, h, w, u_E) \end{aligned}$$

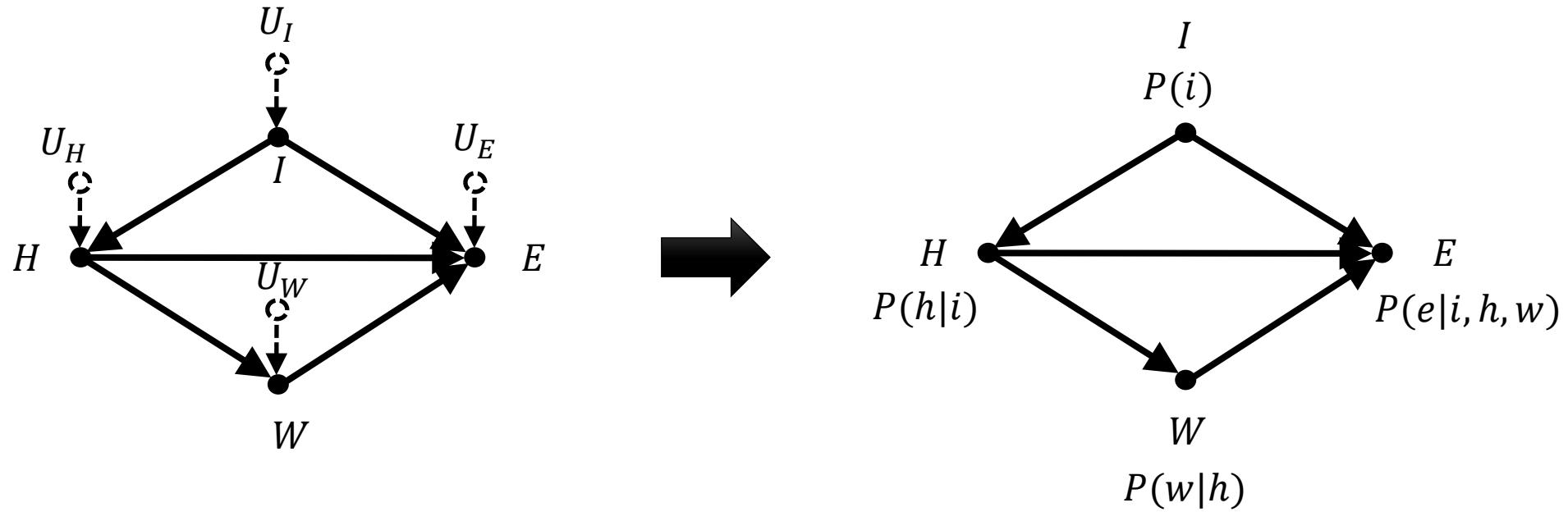
Assume U_I, U_H, U_W, U_E are mutually independent.

Graph (G)



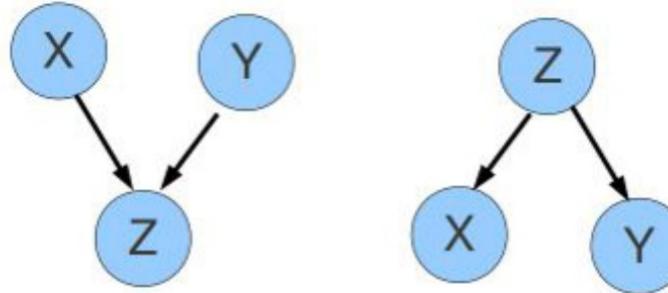
Causal Graph of Markovian Model

Each node is associated with an **observable** conditional probability table (CPT) $P(x_i | \text{pa}_i)$



Causal Discovery

d-Separation



$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$$

$$X \not\perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$$

$$X \not\perp\!\!\!\perp Y$$

$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$$

- **Definition of *d*-separation**

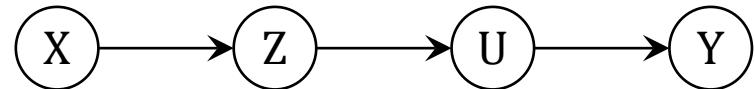
- A path q is said to be blocked by conditioning on a set Z if
 - q contains a chain $i \rightarrow m \rightarrow j$ or a fork $i \leftarrow m \rightarrow j$ such that the middle node m is in Z , or
 - q contains a collider $i \rightarrow m \leftarrow j$ such that the middle node m is not in Z and such that no descendant of m is in Z .
- Z is said to *d*-separate X and Y if Z blocks every path from X to Y , denoted by $(X \perp Y | Z)_G$

- If the DAG represents the true causal relationship

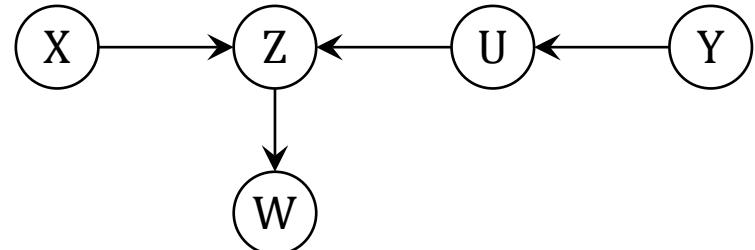
$$(X \perp Y | Z)_G \Leftrightarrow (X \perp Y | Z)_D$$

d -Separation

- Example (blocking of paths)



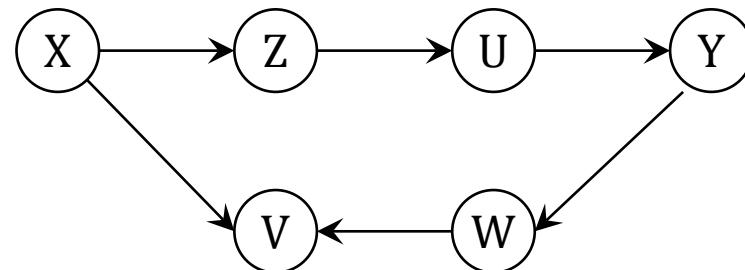
- Path from X to Y is blocked by conditioning on $\{U\}$ or $\{Z\}$ or both $\{U, Z\}$
- Example (unblocking of paths)



- Path from X to Y is blocked by \emptyset or $\{U\}$
- Unblocked by conditioning on $\{Z\}$ or $\{W\}$ or both $\{Z, W\}$

d -Separation

- Examples (d -separation)



- We have following d -separation relations
 - $(X \perp Y|Z)_G, (X \perp Y|U)_G, (X \perp Y|ZU)_G$
 - $(X \perp Y|ZW)_G, (X \perp Y|UW)_G, (X \perp Y|ZUW)_G$
 - $(X \perp Y|VZUW)_G$
- However we do NOT have
 - $(X \perp Y|VZU)_G$

PC Algorithm (Peter Spirtes & Clark Glymour)

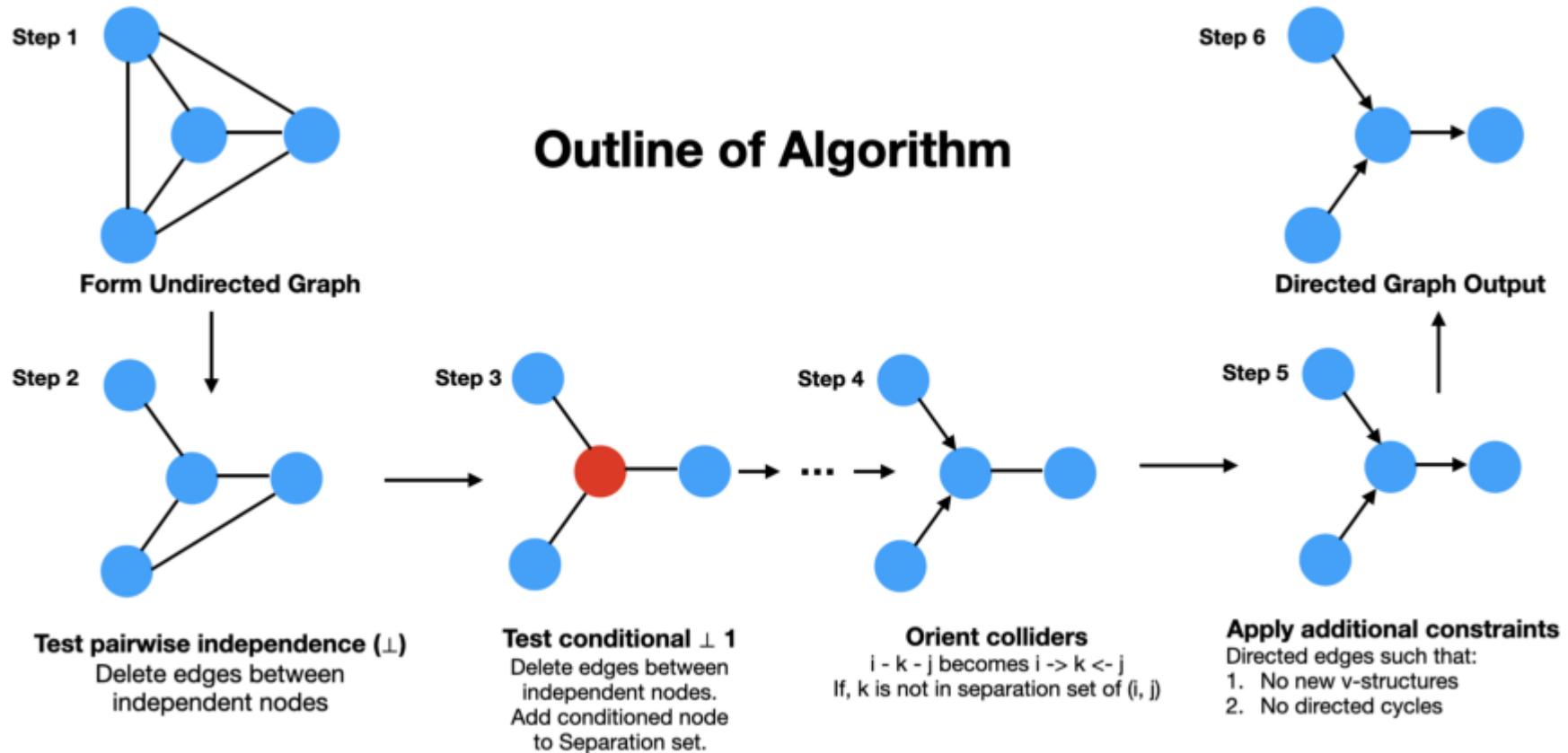
- Faithfulness assumption
- Causal sufficiency (no hidden common cause) assumption
- The BEST we can do without further assumptions (or knowledge).
- Usually CANNOT identify the unique causal graph (up to the Markov equivalent class)

$$\begin{array}{c} X \rightarrow Z \rightarrow Y \\ X \leftarrow Z \rightarrow Y \\ X \leftarrow Z \leftarrow Y \\ \hline X \rightarrow Z \leftarrow Y \end{array} \quad \left. \right\}$$

PC Algorithm: The Sketch

1. Construct the skeleton
 1. Start with a fully connected undirected graph
 2. Remove all edges $X - Y$ with $X \perp Y$
 3. Remove all edges $X - Y$ for which there is a neighbor $Z \neq Y, X$ with $X \perp Y|Z$
 4. Remove all edges $X - Y$ for which there are two neighbors $Z_1, Z_2 \neq Y, X$ with $X \perp Y|Z_1, Z_2$
 5. ...
2. Orient the arrows by finding v-structures $X \rightarrow Z \leftarrow Y$

Example of PC Algorithm



Open-source Software

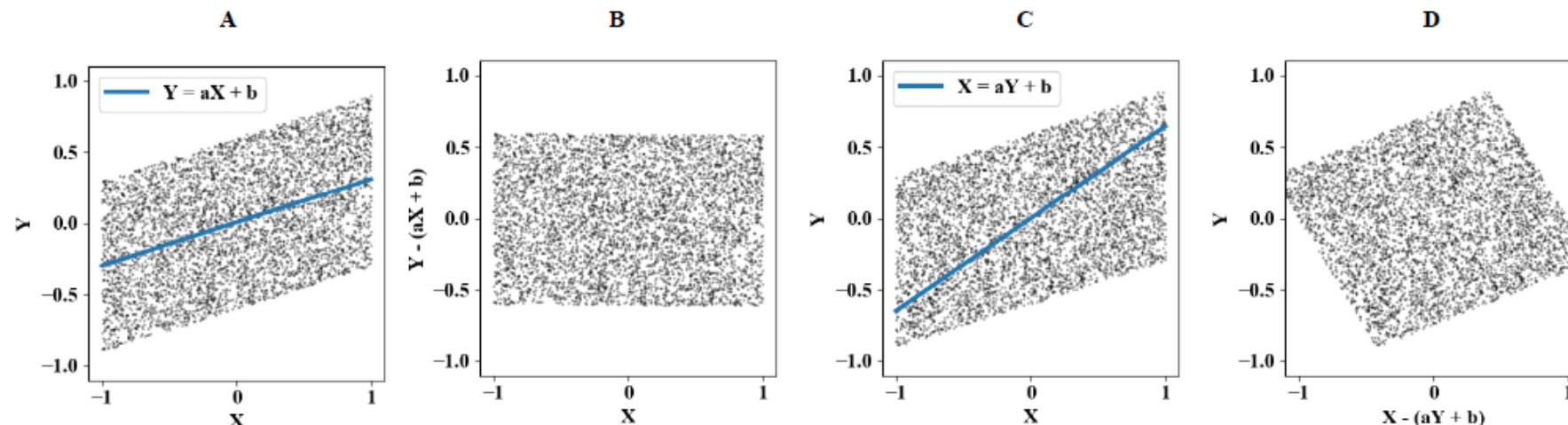
- <http://www.phil.cmu.edu/tetrad/>
- Implement a large set of Constraint-Based and Score-Based causal discovery algorithms.
- <https://github.com/py-why/causal-learn>
- A python package for causal discovery that implements both classical and state-of-the-art causal discovery algorithms, which is a Python translation and extension of Tetrad.

We Can Do Better Than PC Algorithm

- Given X, Y , can we distinguish $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \leftarrow Y$?
- If some additional assumptions are made about the functional and/or parametric forms of the underlying true data-generating structure, then one can exploit asymmetries in order to identify the direction of a structural relationship.

Additive Noise

- Given the linear structural equations
 $X = U_X$ and $Y = X + U_Y$ such that $U_Y \perp U_X$
- If U_X or U_Y is non-Gaussian
- Then the causal direction $X \rightarrow Y$ is identifiable



Independent Causal Mechanisms

- The causal generative process of a system's variables is composed of autonomous modules that do not inform or influence each other.
- Suppose $X \rightarrow Y$, then $P(x)$ and $P(y|x)$ should be independent.
- In other words, semi-supervised learning, i.e., unsupervised learning on X should not improve supervised learning $X \mapsto Y$.
- Will be different if decompose the distribution to $P(y)$ and $P(x|y)$.

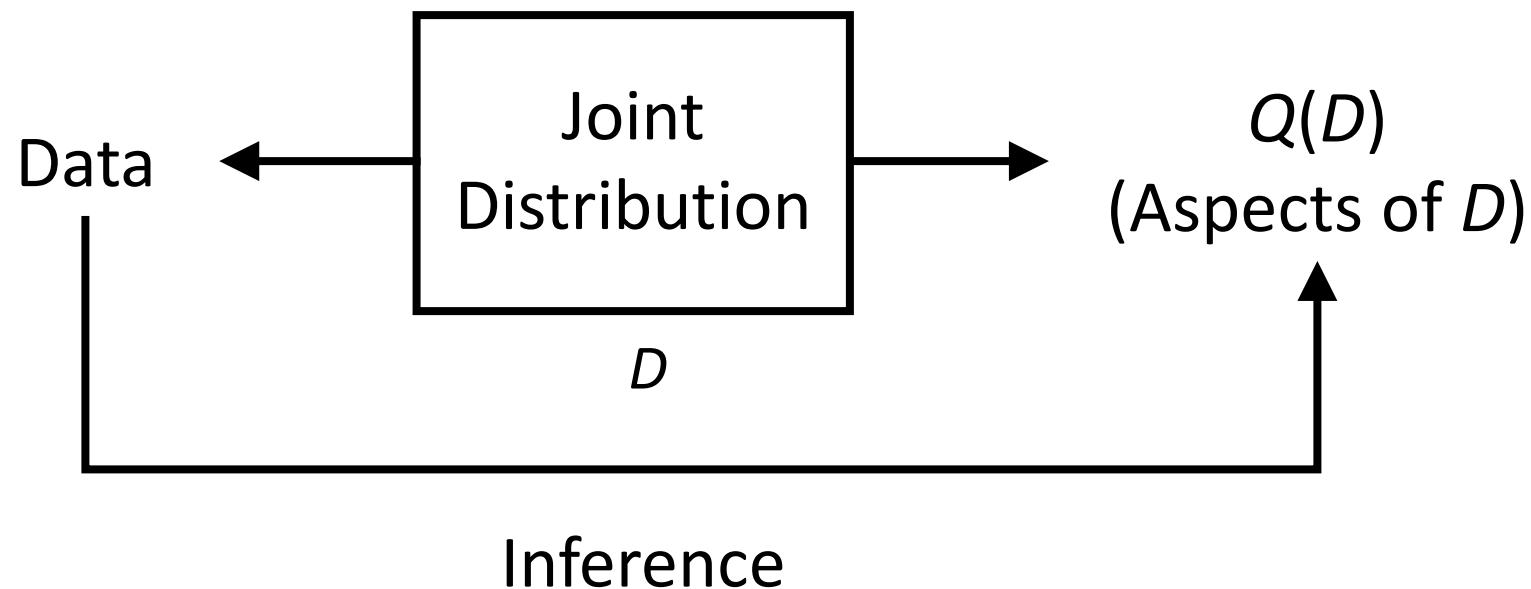
Causal Inference

The BIG Idea(s)

1. Every causal inference task must rely on judgmental, extra-data assumptions (or experiments).
2. We have ways of encoding those assumptions mathematically and test their implications.
3. We have a mathematical machinery to take those assumptions, combine them with data and derive answers to questions of interest.
4. We have a way of doing (2) and (3) in a language that permits us to judge the scientific plausibility of our assumptions and to derive their ramifications swiftly and transparently.
5. Items (2)-(4) make causal inference manageable, fun, and profitable.

From Statistics to Causal Modeling

- Traditional statistical inference paradigm:



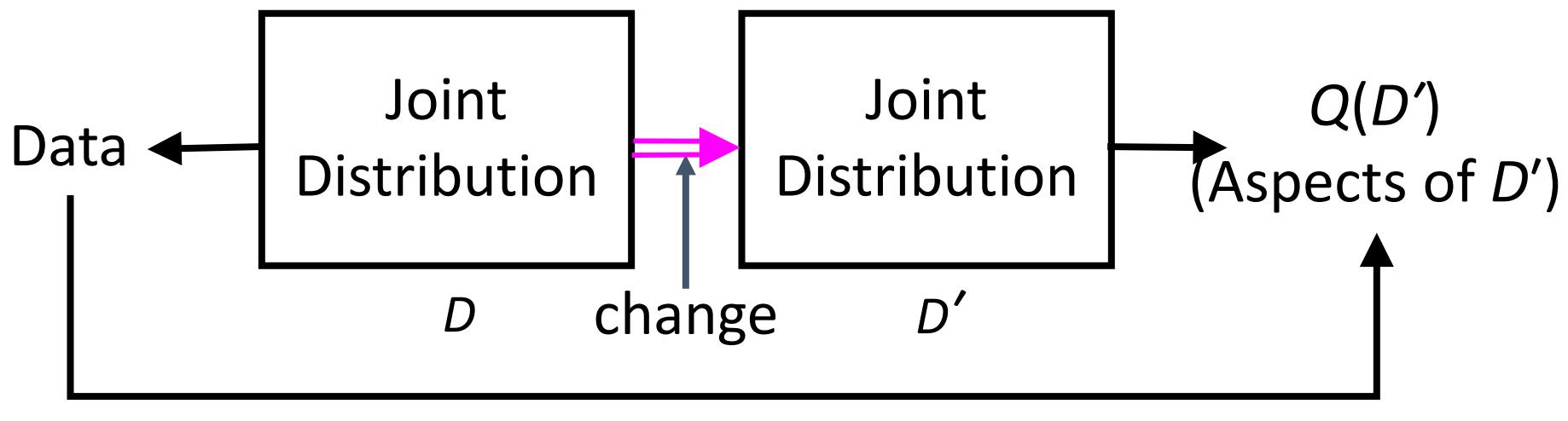
- What is the chance of getting Grade A for the students who study 1 hour each day?

$$\text{Estimate } Q(D) = P_D(E = 'A' | H = 1)$$

E (Exam Grade)
H (Hour of Study)
I (Interest)
W (Working Strategy)

From Statistics to Causal Modeling

- What is the chance of getting Grade A if a new policy requires all students to study 2 hours each day?
 - The question cannot be solved by statistics.

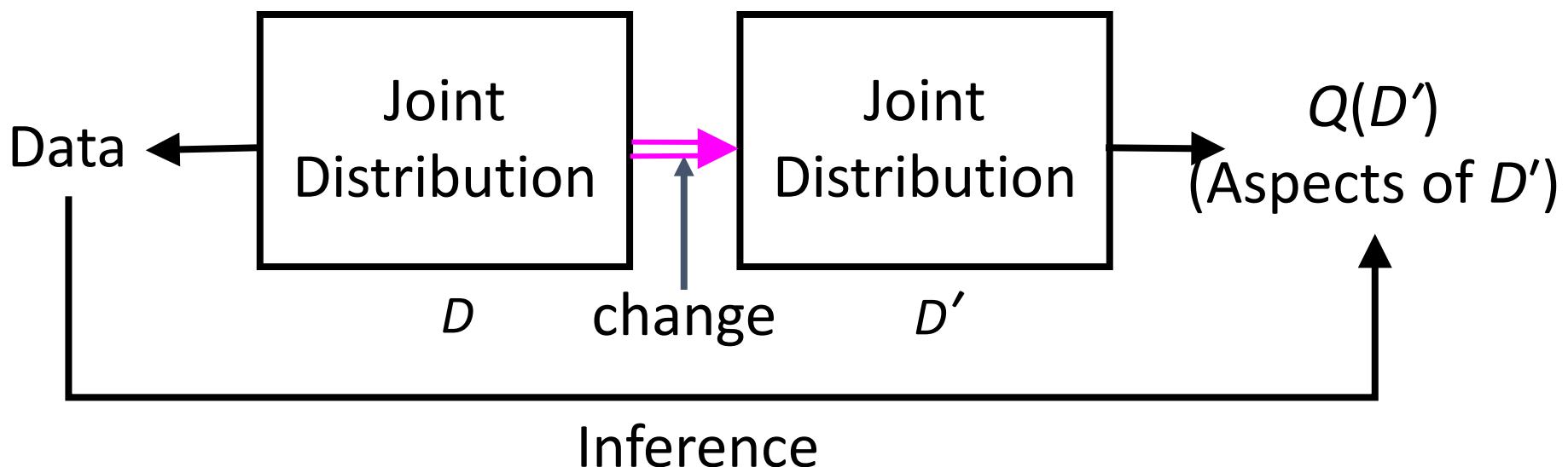


Estimate $Q(D') = P_{D'}(E = 'A')$

D' represents the joint distribution after adopting the new policy.

From Statistics to Causal Modeling

- What is the chance of getting Grade A if a new policy requires all students to study 2 hours each day?
 - The question cannot be solved by statistics.

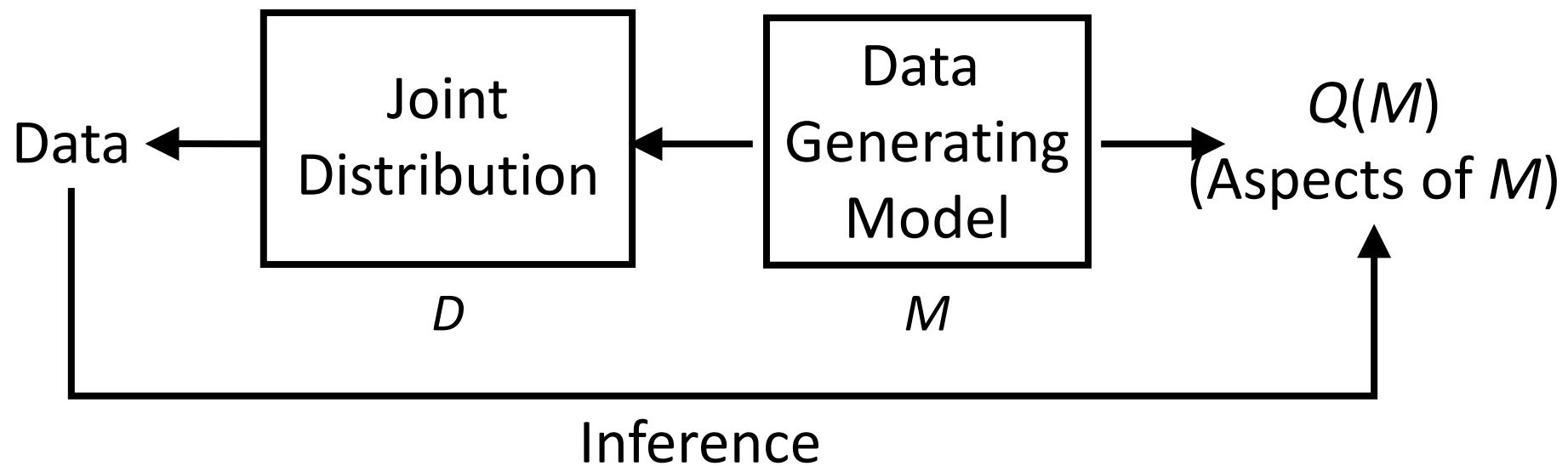


$$P_{D'}(E = 'A') \neq P_D(E = 'A' | H = 2)$$

The probability of getting Grade A of the students who study 2 hours each day at the first place.

From Statistics to Causal Modeling

- Causal inference

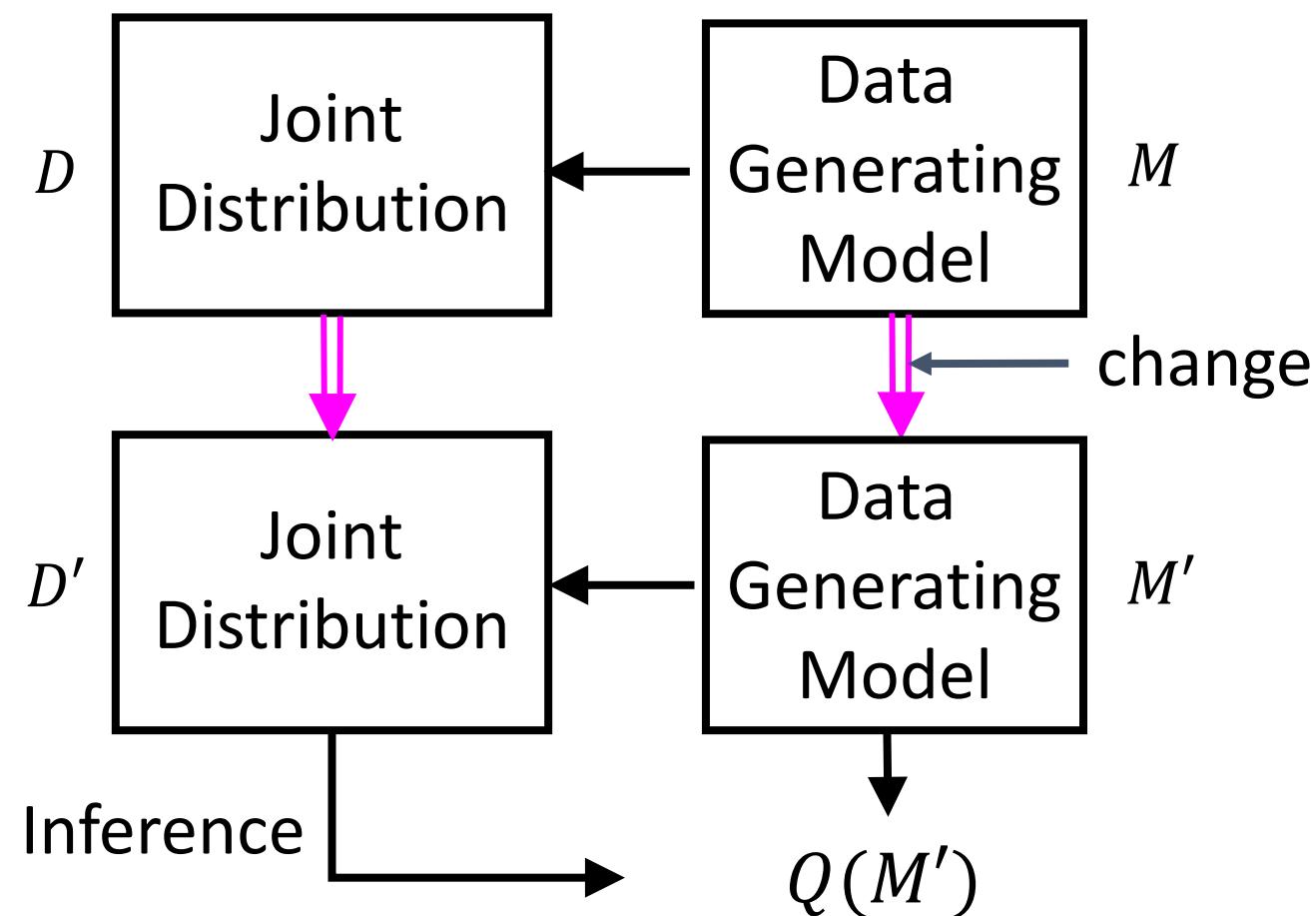


M – Data generation model that encodes the causal assumptions/knowledge.

D – model of data, M – model of reality

From Statistics to Causal Modeling

- Causal inference



WHAT KIND OF QUESTIONS SHOULD THE CAUSAL MODEL ANSWER

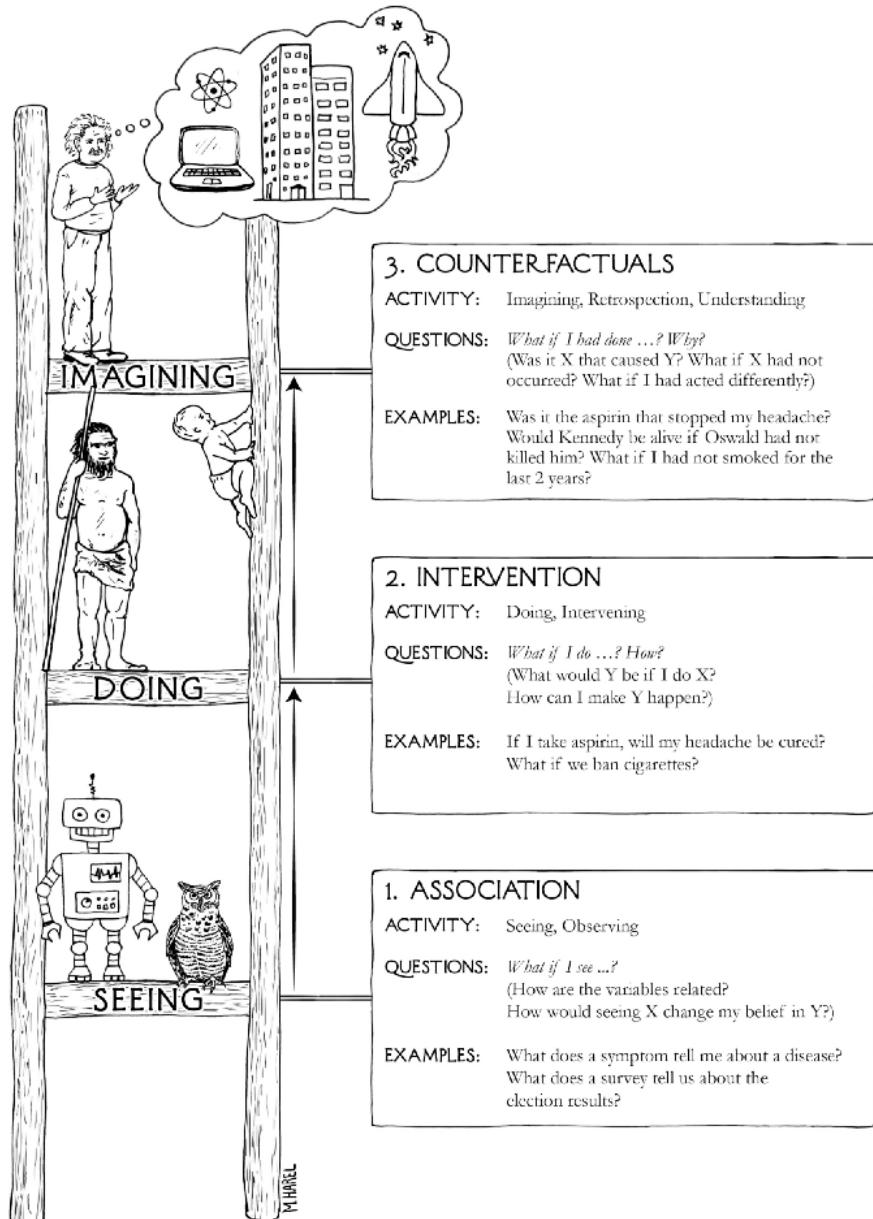
THE CAUSAL HIERARCHY

- Observational Questions: (What is?) $P(y | A)$
- “What if we see A”

- Action Questions: (What if?) $P(y | do(A))$
- “What if we do A?”

- Counterfactuals Questions: (Why?)
“What if we did things differently?” $P(y_{A'} | e)$
- Options:
- “With what probability?”

Ladder of Causality

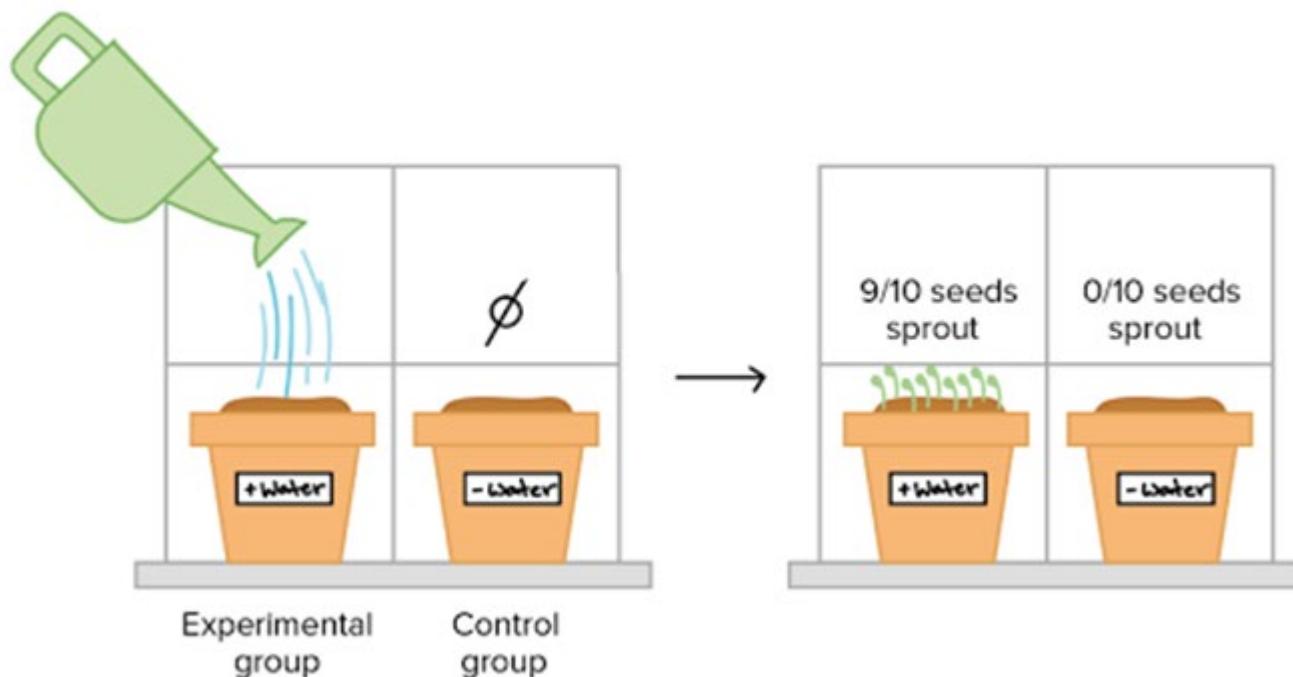


Causal Inference

- Question: What is the chance of getting grade A if we **change** the study hour to 2?
 - The above probability does not equal to $P(E = 'A'|H = 2)$, i.e., the conditional probability of getting grade A given study hour equals to 2.

Intervention

- Physical intervention



Intervention and *do*-Operation

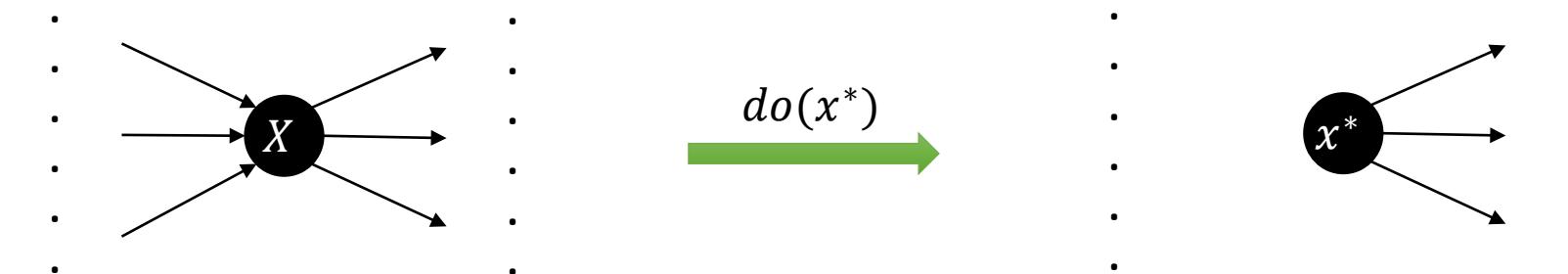
- The basic operation of manipulating a causal model.
 - Simulate the physical intervention.
 - Forces some observed variables $X \in V$ to take certain constants x .
- Mathematically formulated as $do(X = x)$ or simply $do(x)$.
- The **effect of intervention** on all other observed variables $Y = V \setminus X$ is represented by the **post-intervention distribution** of Y .
 - Denoted by $P(Y = y|do(X = x))$ or simply $P(y|do(x))$;

Intervention and do -Operation

- In causal model \mathcal{M} , intervention $do(x^*)$ is defined as the substitution of structural equation $x = f_X(\mathbf{pa}_X, \mathbf{u}_X)$ with value x^* . The causal model after performing $do(x^*)$ is denoted by \mathcal{M}_{x^*} .

$$\mathcal{M}: \quad x = f_X(\mathbf{pa}_X, \mathbf{u}_X) \xrightarrow{do(x^*)} \mathcal{M}_{x^*}: \quad x = x^*$$

- From the point of view of the causal graph, performing $do(x^*)$ is equivalent to setting the node X to value x^* and removing all the incoming edges in X .



Intervention in Markovian Model

- In the Markovian model, the post-intervention distribution $P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}))$ can be calculated from the CPTs, known as the **truncated factorization**:

$$P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x})) = \prod_{Y \in \mathbf{Y}} P(y|\mathbf{Pa}_Y) \delta_{\mathbf{X} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}}$$

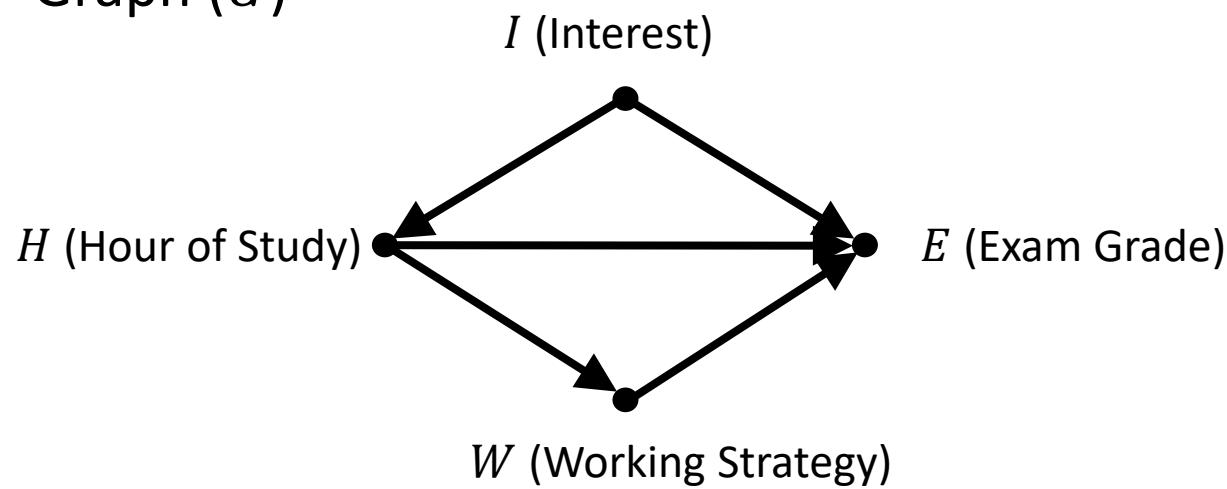
- where $\delta_{\mathbf{X} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}}$ means assigning attributes in \mathbf{X} involved in the term ahead with the corresponding values in \mathbf{x} .
- Specifically, for a single attribute Y given an intervention on a single attribute X ,

$$P(y|do(x)) = \sum_{V \setminus \{X,Y\}} \prod_{\substack{v \in V \setminus \{X\} \\ Y=y}} P(v|\mathbf{Pa}_V) \delta_{X \leftarrow x}$$

Intervention Example

- What is the probability of getting grade A if we **change** the study hour to 2?

Graph (G)



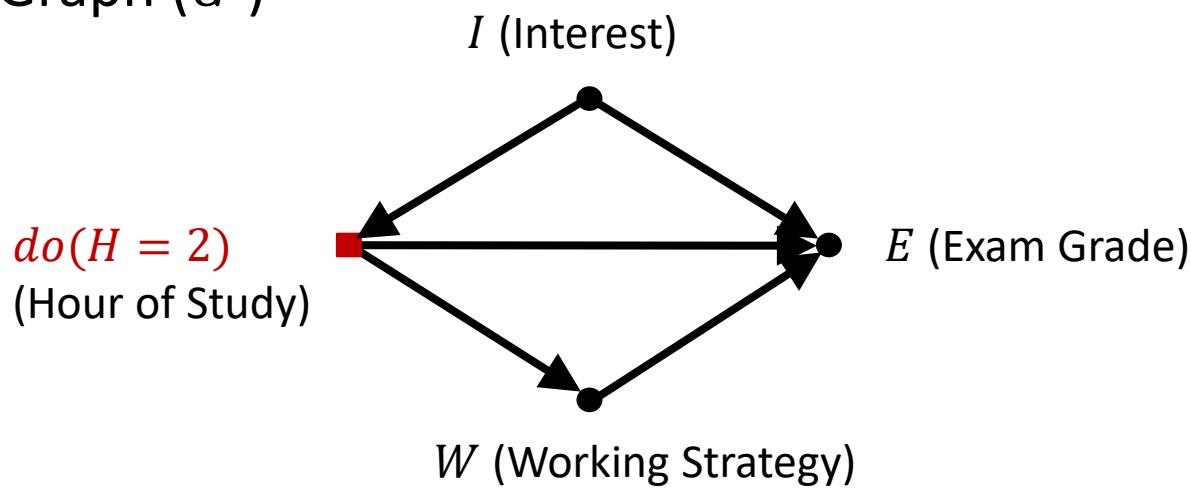
Model (M)

$$\begin{aligned} i &= f_I(u_I) \\ h &= f_H(i, u_H) \\ w &= f_W(h, u_W) \\ e &= f_E(i, h, w, u_E) \end{aligned}$$

Intervention Example

- What is the probability of getting grade A if we **change** the study hour to 2, i.e., $do(H = 2)$?

Graph (G')



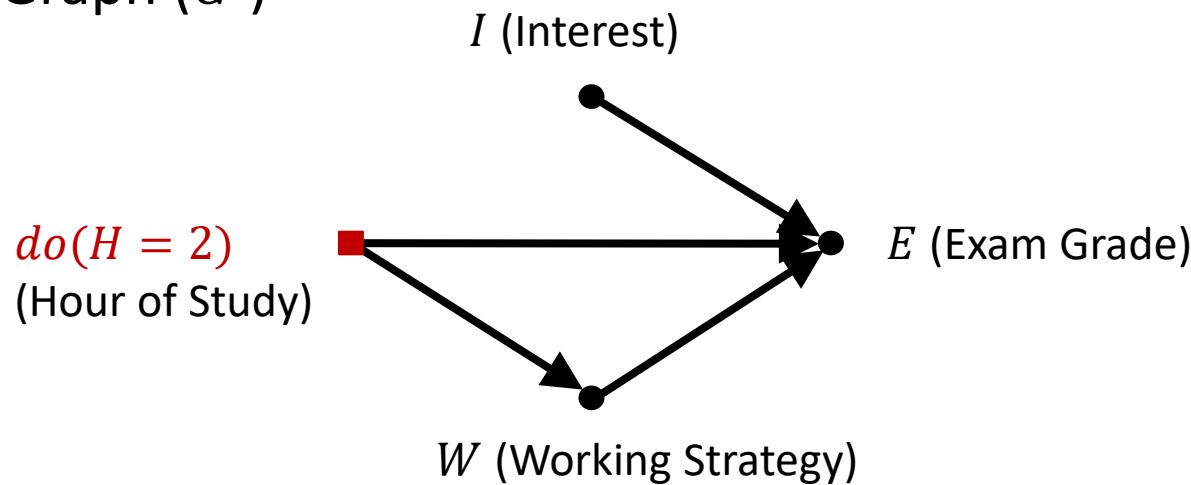
Model (M')

$$\begin{aligned}i &= f_I(u_I) \\h &= 2 \\w &= f_W(h, u_W) \\e &= f_E(i, h, w, u_E)\end{aligned}$$

- Find $P(E = 'A' | do(H = 2))$

Intervention Example

Graph (G')



Model (M')

$$i = f_I(u_I)$$

$$h = 2$$

$$w = f_W(h, u_W)$$

$$e = f_E(i, h, k, u_E)$$

$$P(y|do(x)) = \sum_{V \setminus \{X,Y\}} \prod_{\substack{V \in V \setminus \{X\} \\ Y=y}} P(v|\mathbf{Pa}_V) \delta_{X \leftarrow x}$$

$$P(E = 'A'|do(H = 2)) = \sum_{I,W} P(i)P(w|H = 2)P(E = 'A'|i, H = 2, w)$$

Applications of CI in ML

- Fair machine learning
- Reinforcement learning
- Transfer learning and multi-task learning
- Robust machine learning

Multi-task Learning

- Predict a target Y from some features X .
- Consider D training tasks where each task k has a different distribution \mathbb{P}^k for generating data, i.e., $(X^k, Y^k) \sim \mathbb{P}^k$, $k \in \{1, \dots, D\}$.
- To improve performance in some tasks (aka., test tasks).

Invariant Models based on Causal Methodology

- Assume there exists an invariant subset S^* , i.e.,

$$Y^k | X_{S^*}^k = Y^{k'} | X_{S^*}^{k'} \quad \forall k, k' \in \{1, \dots, D\}$$

- Missing data approach to combine invariance and task-specific information.
 - Assume that features other than X_{S^*} are missing.
 - Let $Z_i = (X_{S^*,i}, X_{N,i}, Y)$ be a pooled sample of the available data from all the tasks in which $X_{N,i}$ is considered missing if i is drawn from a training task.
 - EM algorithm is used to maximize log-likelihood

$$\ell(\Sigma) = \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \det(\Sigma_i) - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{Z}_{obs,i}^T \Sigma_i^{-1} \mathbf{Z}_{obs,i},$$

Relation to Causality

- Suppose that there is an SCM over variables (X, Y) .
- Suppose that the different tasks $\mathbb{P}^1, \dots, \mathbb{P}^D$ are post-interventional distributions of an underlying SCM with graph structure G .
- Suppose that the target variable Y has not been intervened on.
- Then: The set $S^* := \mathbf{Pa}_Y$ is an invariant set.

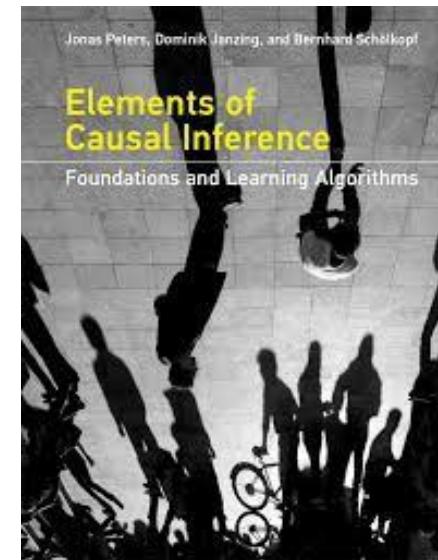
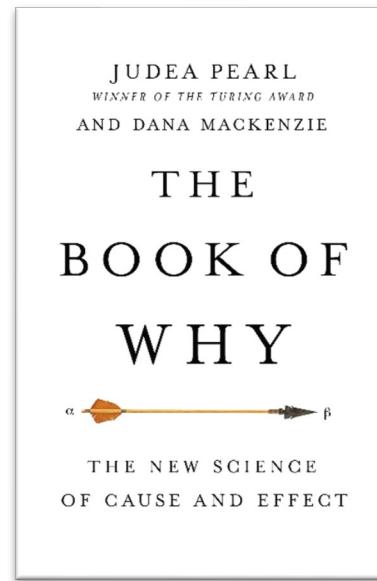
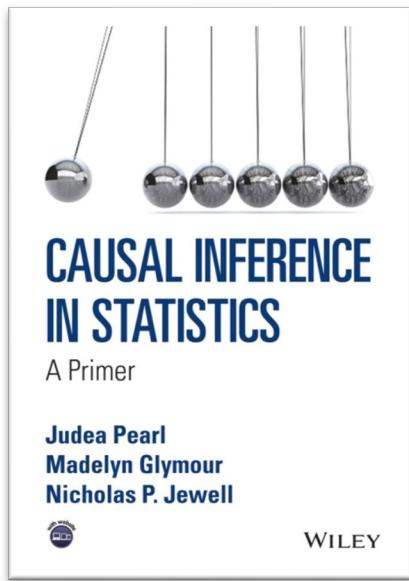
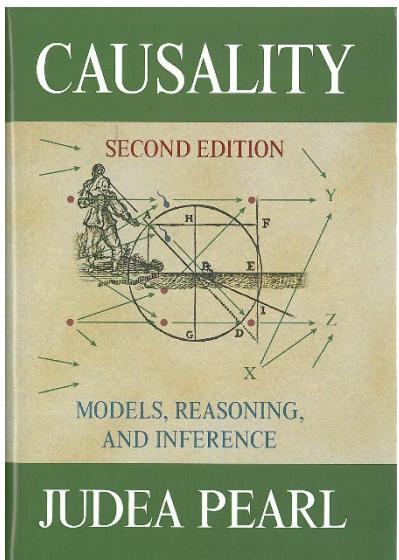
Open-source packages for causal inference

- Microsoft/DoWhy:
- <https://github.com/microsoft/dowhy>

- IBM/causallib
- <https://github.com/IBM/causallib>

Useful Resources

- Four books



- Website: <http://bayes.cs.ucla.edu/>