

# **Causal Inference Methods in Data Science**

## **Lecture 4: Advanced Graphical Models: MEC, CPDAG, ADMG, Causal Discovery and Tian's ID algorithm**

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# Preface

Most causal inference researchers in statistics do not understand graphical models to the level of doing creative research in this field but obviously people started to realize the importance of better combining causal graphs with statistical inference around about 2019

After this lecture, you could read the following people's recent papers if want to work on this field (without particular ordering):

Ilya Shpitser, Elias Barenboim, Thomas Richardson, Robin Evans, F. Richard Guo, Emilija Perković, Marloes Maathius, Yangbo He, Jiji Zhang, Jin Tian, Steffan Lauritzen, Samuel Wang, Caroline Uhler

## Why causal graphs?

- As we have seen, causal inference relies heavily on background knowledge
- Causal graph is a very succinct way of representing background knowledge
- We have seen some examples: backdoor, frontdoor
- But ...

## Motivating problems

- In certain applications, we do not have much background knowledge to begin with. But it might be easy to collect data (e.g. in biology). Can we learn background knowledge in the form of causal graph from data?
- If the causal graph is very complicated (like below), how can you identify any given causal query (in terms of counterfactuals)?

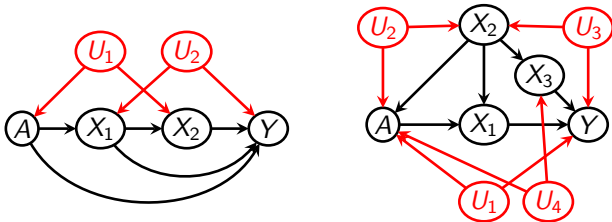


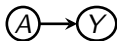
Figure: Is  $p(Y(a))$  identifiable in the above two graphs?

- Finally, in complex causal graphs, the same causal query might have different identified formula. Which one should we use?

# Causal discovery or structure learning: From data to causal graphs

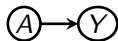
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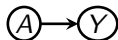
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Or equivalently, can we distinguish the following three structures?  
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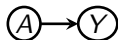


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(1)  $A \rightarrow Y$ ; (2)  $A \leftarrow Y$ ; (3)  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$
- Assuming faithfulness: if  $A \rightarrow Y$  or  $A \leftarrow Y$ , then  $A$  and  $Y$  are dependent (i.e. not d-separated by  $Z$  implies not independent conditional on  $Z$ )



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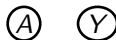
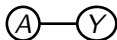
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- Without modeling assumptions, one **cannot** infer the direction so the discovered graph is one of the following MECs (represented by PDAGs) of DAGs between  $A$  and  $Y$ :



## Countering MEC?

The conclusion that we cannot distinguish between  $A \longrightarrow Y$  and  $A \longleftarrow Y$  is a “nonparametric” statement, in the following sense:

For any distribution  $P$  Markov factorized according to  $A \longrightarrow Y$ , one can always find a distribution  $Q$  Markov factorized according to  $A \longleftarrow Y$  such that  $P \sim Q$

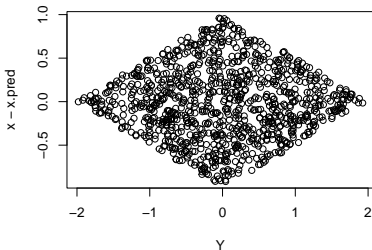
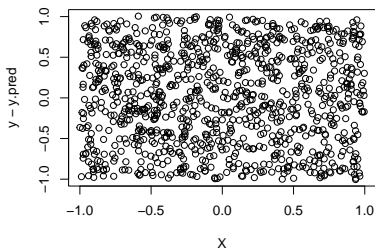
But it does not rule out the possibility of distinguishing DAGs in one MEC by imposing more modeling assumptions: e.g. linear non-Gaussian models

# Distinguishable orientation based on Linear non-Gaussian models

Let's assume the following SEM:

$$A \sim \text{Unif}([-1, 1]), Y \sim A + \text{Unif}([-1, 1])$$

We could fit two linear regressions  $\text{lm}(Y \sim A - 1)$  and  $\text{lm}(A \sim Y - 1)$  and look at their residual plots:



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- 2) No other independence/conditional independence tests can further orient the uncertainty

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But impossibility results by **Jonas Peters and Rajen Shah AoS 2020** and **Neykov, Balakrishnan, Wasserman AoS 2022** when the variable being conditioned on is continuous

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WARNING: v-structure means  $V_1 \rightarrow V_3 \leftarrow V_2$  and there shall be no arrows between  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ ; v-structure is also called “unshielded collider”

# Examples

MEC of the following graph  $\mathcal{G}_0$  (**note: no v-structure**)



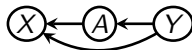
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  - 2) If  $X \rightarrow Y$  is in every DAG in  $[\mathcal{G}]$ , then  $X \rightarrow Y$  in  $\mathcal{C}$

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  - 2) **Background knowledge** or doing intervention

# From CPDAG to MPDAG

The power of background knowledge or simply doing intervention (action in reinforcement learning):

Example:



if we additionally have background knowledge  $X \rightarrow A$ , then we have the following **Maximal PDAG (MPDAG)**, denoted as  $\mathcal{M}$



how about we intervene  $X$ ? can we have more precise MPDAG?



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- 4) 1), 2), 3) with **interventional data** (or **background knowledge**) and/or **allowing for latent factors**

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- Ground rule 2: if  $X \rightarrow Y$  but  $X \rightarrow Z \leftarrow Y$  (v-structure), then

$$Z \notin S_{X,Y}$$

## PC algorithm: vanilla version

Initialize a complete undirected graph

- 1) For every pair  $(X, Y)$ , if there exists  $\mathbf{S}_{X,Y} \subseteq V \setminus \{X, Y\}$  such that

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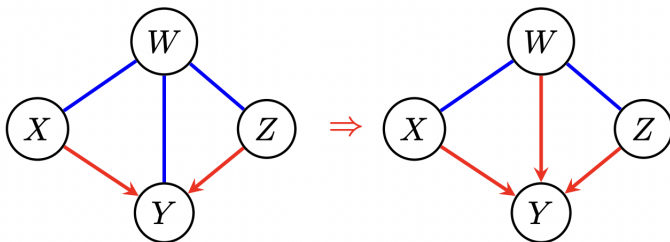
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- 3) Apply the following sub-rules:

- i)  $X \rightarrow Z$  and  $X \rightarrow Y - Z \Rightarrow X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$  [due to 2) and logic]
- ii)  $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$  and  $X - Z \Rightarrow X \rightarrow Z$  [acyclicity]
- iii)  $X \rightarrow Z$ ,  $X - W - Z$ ,  $X \rightarrow Y \leftarrow Z$  and  $W - Y \Rightarrow W \rightarrow Y$   
[why?]



Why not  $Y \rightarrow W$ ? If it were the case, then also need to orient  $X \rightarrow W$  and  $Z \rightarrow W$  by sub-rule 3):ii) so we have  $X \rightarrow W \leftarrow Z$  and  $X \rightarrow Z$

But we should have had oriented such v-structure in step 2)

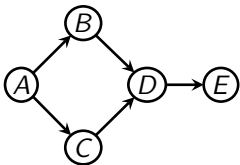
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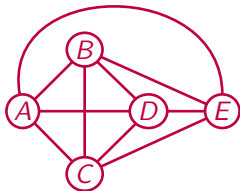
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- See the following paper on how to improve computational efficiency  
REF: [Computation, causation and discovery](#)  
Main idea: searching for  $\mathbf{S}_{X,Y}$ , starting from empty set, increasing the cardinality one by one

## Example



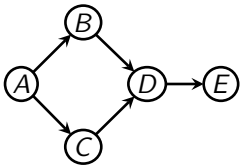
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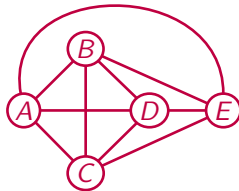
Initial complete undirected graph

## Check marginal independencies

No pairs are independent marginally. Nothing changed



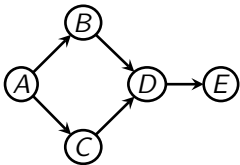
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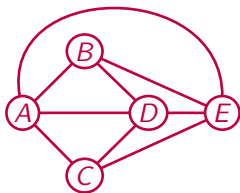
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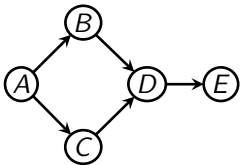
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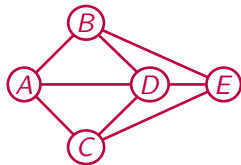


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$$A \perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid D$$

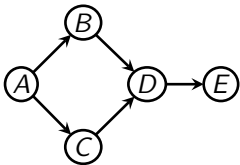


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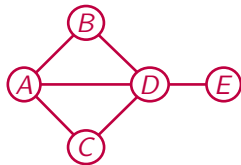


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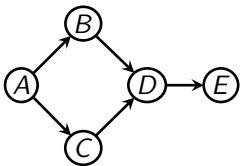


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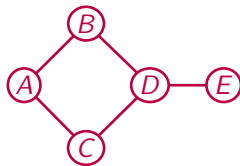


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$$A \perp\!\!\!\perp D \mid \{B, C\}$$



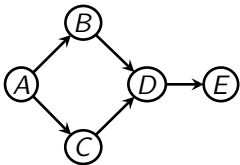
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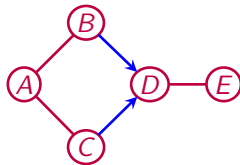
Skeleton of the unknown true graph

## Orientation of edges in the skeleton

Rule 2) (about v-structure)



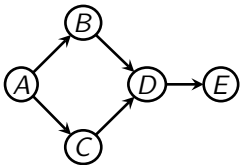
Unknown true graph



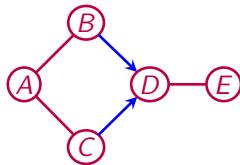
Orientation of the v-structure

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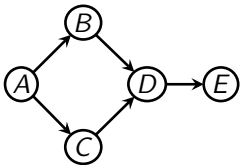


Unknown true graph

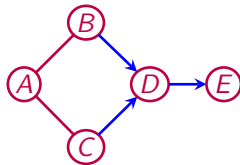


Orientation of the v-structure

Rule 3):i)

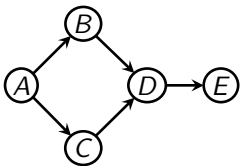


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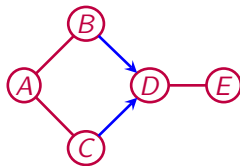


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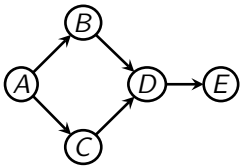


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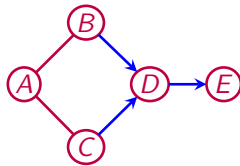


Orientation of the v-structure

Rule 3):i)



Unknown true graph



Do we need to consider Rule 3):iii)?

# Theoretical guarantee

Spirtes and Glymour showed consistency of PC algorithm:

## Theorem 1

Under the **faithfulness** assumption, with input data  $V_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ , the output of the PC algorithm  $\hat{\mathcal{C}}$  converges to the true CPDAG  $\mathcal{C}$  of the underlying unknown DAG  $\mathcal{G}$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

## Other algorithms

- As always, there are almost no problems that can only be solved by one algorithm



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- Greedy Equivalence Search (Chickering 2002; Chickering & Meek 2002)
- BIC-score based search (Madigan & Raftery, 1994)
- Maathuis et al. Nature Methods 2009: IDA algorithm (but assuming linear models so bummer)  
By far, the most influential work in causal discovery in applications (genomics).  
But in genomics, whether it provides significant gain compared to existing correlation/partial correlation based method still remains to be seen.

## More recent works

- First continuous optimization framework for linear model DAG learning, see [Zheng et al. NeurIPS 2018 \(DAGs with NoTear](#)

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- Continuous optimization framework for single-index model DAG learning, see [Yu et al. ICML 2021 \(DAGs with no curl\)](#)

## Further orienting the uncertain edges

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- Once we consider interventional data, many new directions/problems suddenly appear!
  - 1) Hard or soft intervention?
  - 2) Are the intervened vertices known or unknown to us?
  - 3) Is the intervention error-prone? (e.g. CRISPR-based gene knockdown techniques are known to have off-target effects)
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- Hauser and Bühlmann JMLR 2012 proved: Without hidden variables, given an intervention target sets  $\mathcal{I}$ , with correct and hard intervention, two DAGs  $\mathcal{G}_1$  and  $\mathcal{G}_2$  belong to the same  $\mathcal{I}$ -MEC if and only if for every  $I \in \mathcal{I}$ ,  $\mathcal{G}_1(I) \sim \mathcal{G}_2(I)$  in observational sense

# R Exercise

- Implementing pcalg

## Q2). ID algorithm

- For DAG without hidden variables, identification is easy by Robins' g-formula

$$p(Y(a) = y) = \int \prod_{i \in \text{ang}_{V \setminus A}(Y)} p_i(v_i | \text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(v_i)) \prod_{i \in \text{ang}_{V \setminus A}(Y) \setminus Y} dv_i$$

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- For CPDAG/MPDAG, Perković 2020 UAI gave the identification formula
- The intuition is clear: since CPDAG/MPDAG involves undirected edges, decompose the vertices  $V = \cup_{j=1}^k \mathbf{B}_j$  into smaller units, which is called “bucket” by Perković: in graph-theoretic terms, bucket is the maximally connected component by undirected edges

For DAGs, buckets are all the singletons of vertices

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- For CPDAG/MPDAG, **Perković 2020 UAI** gave the identification formula

### Theorem 2 (Theorem 3.6 of Perković 2020 UAI)

If there is no path  $\langle A, V_1, \dots, V_k, \dots, Y \rangle$  from  $A$  to  $Y$  without edge  $V_j \rightarrow V_i$  for any  $j > i$  in  $\mathcal{G}$  starting with  $A - \dots$ , then

$$p(Y(a) = y) = \int \prod_{j=1}^k p(\mathbf{b}_j | \text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathbf{b}_j)) d\bar{\mathbf{b}}$$

where buckets  $\mathbf{B}_j$ 's are buckets of  $\text{an}_{\mathcal{G}_{V \setminus A}}(Y)$  and  $\bar{\mathbf{B}} = \text{an}_{\mathcal{G}_{V \setminus A}}(Y) \setminus Y$

## Q2). ID algorithm

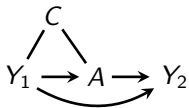
Paths like  $\langle A, V_1, \dots, V_k, \dots, Y \rangle$  without edge  $V_j \rightarrow V_i$  for any  $j > i$  in  $\mathcal{G}$  are called “possibly causal paths”. Why excluding “possibly causal paths” that start with  $A - \dots$ ?

$$A - Y$$

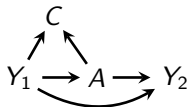
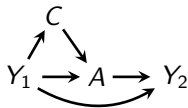
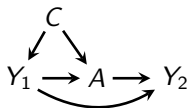
This is a possibly causal path from  $A$  to  $Y$ , with the first edge being undirected. Why we cannot identify the causal effect of  $A$  on  $Y$ ?



## Q2). ID algorithm: Example



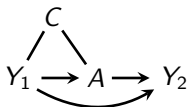
CPDAG/MPDAG



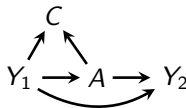
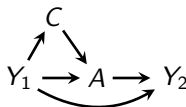
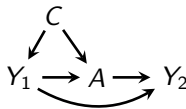
MEC of DAGs

$p((Y_1, Y_2)(a))$  identifiable?

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CPDAG/MPDAG

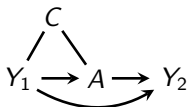


MEC of DAGs

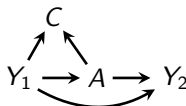
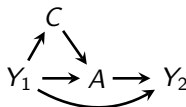
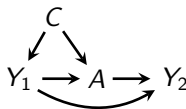
$p((Y_1, Y_2)(a))$  identifiable?

Yes!  $A - C - Y_1$ ,  $A \leftarrow Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ ,  $A - C - Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$  not “possibly causal paths” due to  $Y_1 \rightarrow A$ ;  $A \rightarrow Y_2$  “possibly causal path” yet not starting with  $A - \dots$

## Q2). ID algorithm: Example



CPDAG/MPDAG



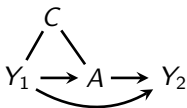
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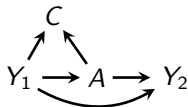
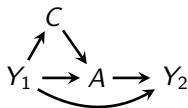
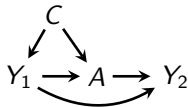
Identification formula: Buckets in  $\text{an}_{\mathcal{G}_{V \setminus A}}(Y_1, Y_2) \equiv \{Y_1, Y_2\}$  are  $\{Y_1\}$  and  $\{Y_2\}$  so

$$p((Y_1, Y_2)(a) = (y_1, y_2)) = p(y_2|a, y_1)p(y_1)$$

## Q2). ID algorithm: Example



CPDAG/MPDAG

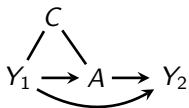


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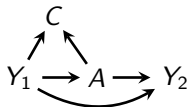
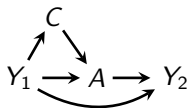
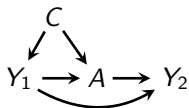
$p((Y_1, Y_2)(a))$  identifiable?

Try g-formula with all the DAGs/SWIGs in the MEC

## Q2). ID algorithm: Example



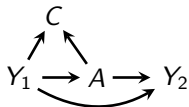
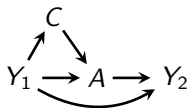
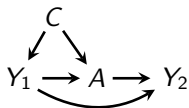
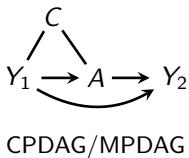
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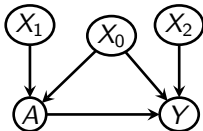
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No!  $A - C$  “possibly causal path” that starts with  $A - \dots$

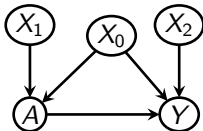
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- After ID algorithm outputs yes, a causal query is identifiable but could be *over-identified*, e.g.



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If we want to query  $\mathbb{E}[Y(1)]$ , there are at least four g-formula:

$$\theta_0 = \mathbb{E}_{X_0}[\mathbb{E}_Y[Y|X_0, A = 1]]$$

$$\theta_{01} = \mathbb{E}_{X_0, X_1}[\mathbb{E}_Y[Y|X_0, X_1, A = 1]]$$

$$\theta_{02} = \mathbb{E}_{X_0, X_2}[\mathbb{E}_Y[Y|X_0, X_2, A = 1]]$$

$$\theta_{012} = \mathbb{E}_{X_0, X_2}[\mathbb{E}_Y[Y|X_0, X_1, X_2, A = 1]]$$

So  $\{X_0\}$ ,  $\{X_0, X_1\}$ ,  $\{X_0, X_2\}$  and  $\{X_0, X_1, X_2\}$  are all **valid adjustment sets**

- Which one would you pick to use?



### Q3) Efficient adjustment set

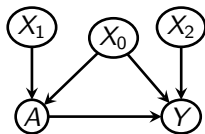
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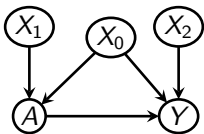
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- Their results have been folklore (with proof) to causal inference researchers for a long time



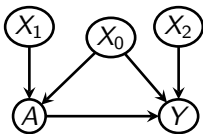
In the above example, sufficient to only adjust for  $X_0$ ; **further adjusting for  $X_2$  can reduce variance** but **further adjusting for  $X_1$  can inflate variance**

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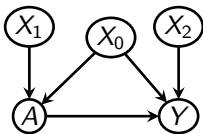
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For future reference,  $\{X_0\}$  is called **minimal adjustment set** because no proper subset of  $\{X_0\}$  is still a valid adjustment set

## Illustration via linear models

Data generated via linear model

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|A, X] = \beta_{AY}A + \beta_{X_0Y}X_0 + \beta_{X_2Y}X_2$$

$$\mathbb{E}[A|X] = \beta_{X_0A}X_0 + \beta_{X_1A}X_1$$

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Then the coefficient  $\beta_{AY}$  of  $A$  is the causal effect of  $A$  on  $Y$

From basic linear regression  $Y \sim A + X_0 + X_1 + X_2$ , least square estimator  $\hat{\tau}_{AY}$  satisfies

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\tau}_{AY} - \beta_{AY}) \rightarrow N\left(0, \frac{\text{var}(Y - \beta_{AY}A - (X_0 \ X_1 \ X_2)\tau_{XY})}{\text{var}(A - (X_0 \ X_1 \ X_2)\tau_{XA})}\right)$$

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To minimize  $\text{var}\left[\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}_{AY} - \beta_{AY})\right]$ :

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# Improving efficiency (reducing variance) from any valid adjustment set

## Lemma 1 (Rotnitzky and Smucler, JMLR 2020)

Denote  $\theta_E$  as the g formula adjusting for the set  $E$ . Let  $B$  be any valid adjustment set. If there exists a set  $C$  s.t.  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp C|B$ , then  $B \cup C$  is also a valid adjustment set, and  $\theta_{B \cup C}$  improves over  $\theta_B$  in the following sense:

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$$\sigma_{B \cup C}^2 \leq \sigma_B^2$$

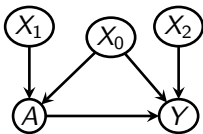
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In the above example,  $\{X_0\}$  is a valid adjustment set, and  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2|X_0$ , so adjusting for  $\{X_0, X_2\}$  is better

## Comments

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- How to prove? I will use the same example as an illustration: for any valid adjustment set  $B$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_B^2 &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\{ \frac{A}{\Pr(A=1|B)} (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B]) + \mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B] - \theta_B \right\}^2 \right] \\&= \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{A}{\Pr(A=1|B)^2} (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B])^2 \right] \\&\quad + \mathbb{E}_B \left[ \{\mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B] - \theta_B\}^2 \right] \\&= \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{\Pr(A=1|B)} \mathbb{E} [(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B])^2 | A=1, B] \right] \\&\quad + \mathbb{E}_B \left[ \{\mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B] - \theta_B\}^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$



## Comments (continue)

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_B^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{\Pr(A=1|B)} - 1 \right\} \mathbb{E} [(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B])^2 | A=1, B] \right] \\ & \quad + \mathbb{E}_B [\mathbb{E} [(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B])^2 | A=1, B]] + \mathbb{E}_B [\{\mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B] - \theta_B\}^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{\Pr(A=1|B)} - 1 \right\} \text{var} [Y|A=1, B] \right] + \mathbb{E}_B [\mathbb{E} [(Y - \theta_B)^2 | A=1, B]] \end{aligned}$$

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Similarly

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{B \cup C}^2 &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{\Pr(A=1|B, C)} - 1 \right\} \text{var} [Y|A=1, B, C] \right] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_{B, C} [\mathbb{E} [(Y - \theta_{B \cup C})^2 | A=1, B, C]] \\ \text{(why?)} &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{\Pr(A=1|B)} - 1 \right\} \mathbb{E} [\text{var} [Y|A=1, B, C] | A=1, B] \right] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_B [\mathbb{E} [(Y - \theta_B)^2 | A=1, B]] \end{aligned}$$

## Comments (continue)

Take the difference:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_B^2 - \sigma_{B \cup C}^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{\Pr(A=1|B)} - 1 \right\} \{ \text{var}[Y|A=1, B] - \mathbb{E}[\text{var}[Y|A=1, B, C] | A=1, B] \} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{\Pr(A=1|B)} - 1 \right\} \text{var} \{ \mathbb{E}[Y|A=1, B, C] | A=1, B \} \right] \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

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## Lemma 2 (Rotnitzky and Smucler, JMLR 2020)

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So combining Lemma 1 and Lemma 2, one can get the benefits of both

# Finale of efficient adjustment set

Theorem 3 (Henckel et al. 2019, Rotnitzky and Smucler JMLR 2020)

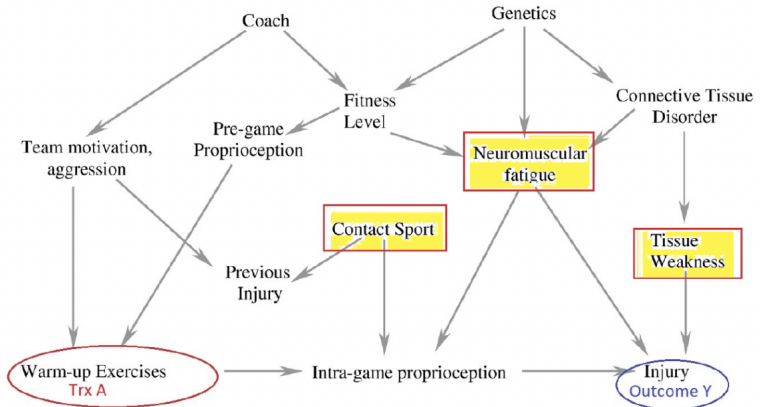
Define

$$O = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{non-descendants of } A \text{ that are also parents of } Y \\ \text{or parents of vertices on the causal path between } A \text{ and } Y \end{array} \right\}$$

Then  $O$  is a globally optimal valid adjustment set.

This theorem formalized statisticians' long-standing intuition in the most general way under causal sufficiency

# Example



An example stolen from Andrea Rotnitzky's ocis talk

## Open problem

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- Optimal g-formula for CPDAG/MPDAG

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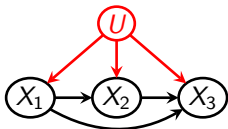
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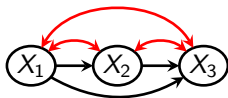
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- We will see several examples of ADMGs and mDAGs, but our focus will be on ADMGs

## Examples of ADMGs



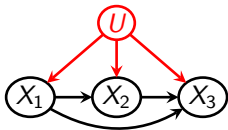
DAG with latent variable



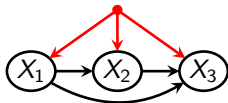
Corresponding ADMG

Introducing bidirected edges, but losing information that all three observables share the same latent variable(s)  $U$

## Examples of mDAGs



DAG with latent variable



Corresponding mDAG

Introducing hyperedges (the red trident structure in the right graph), increasing the representation complexity (may eventually need a hyperedge with many many endpoints), but keeping more information of the original DAG



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  - If there exists a path between  $X$  and  $Y$  such that the non-endpoints are non-colliders in  $L$ , and such that the edge adjacent to the end points are both pointing to the end points, then add  $X \leftrightarrow Y$

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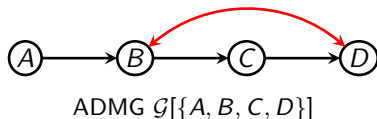
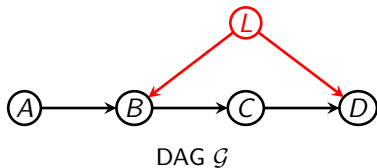
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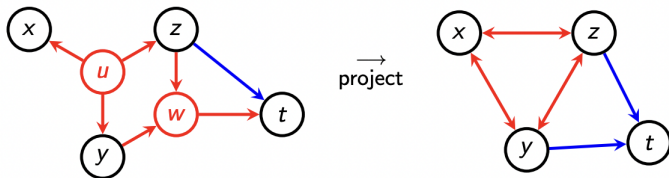


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- Example: Verma



## Example



Latent projection leads to an **acyclic directed mixed graph** (ADMG)

Can read off independences with d/m-separation.

The projection preserves the causal structure; Verma and Pearl (1992).

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- Spirtes et al. [“Computation, causation, and discovery” Chapter 6] developed FCI (fast causal inference) algorithm which is sound and complete (after modified by Jiji Zhang) for recovering MAGs

# Computer-assisted conjecture of Shpitser for four-vertex ADMG

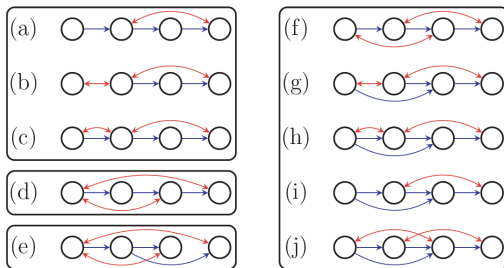
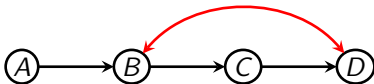


Figure 10: The conjectured equivalence classes among graph patterns (with vertex labeling suppressed) of 4 node ADMGs corresponding to nested Markov models that are strict submodels of the ordinary Markov models given by the same ADMG.

## MAG definition

- Ancestral graphs (AGs) do not allow for *almost directed cycles*: the graph below is not an AG because  $B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D$  and  $B \leftrightarrow D$  form an *almost directed cycle*



ADMG  $\mathcal{G}[\{A, B, C, D\}]$  but not a MAG

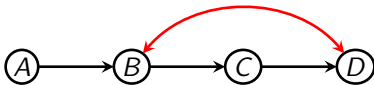
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<sup>1</sup>Every non-endpoint on the path is a collider and every collider is an ancestor of an endpoint of the path



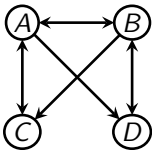
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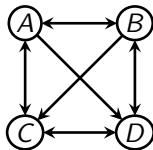


ADMG  $\mathcal{G}[\{A, B, C, D\}]$  but not a MAG

- Maximal AGs do not allow for *inducing paths*<sup>1</sup> between any two non-adjacent vertices



Ancestral but not maximal because  $\{C - A - B - D\}$  is an inducing path



MAG

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# Intuition on almost directed cycles and inducing paths

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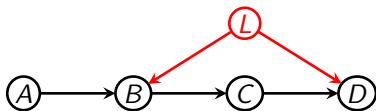
- Why not inducing paths between non-adjacent vertices?

On a DAG, every two non-adjacent vertices have to be d-separated by some other vertices; MAG needs to preserve such a property because no observed data can distinguish whether or not the edge between  $C$  and  $D$  exists

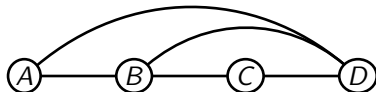
## From DAG to MAG

Two step procedure: input a DAG  $\mathcal{G}$  output its MAG  $\mathcal{M}$

- (1) Two observables  $A$  and  $B$  in  $\mathcal{G}$  are adjacent in  $\mathcal{M}$  if and only if there is an inducing path between  $A$  and  $B$  relative to the hidden vertices (i.e. hidden vertices on the path can be non-colliders)



DAG with hidden  $L$



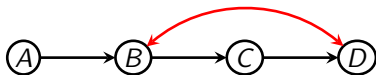
MAG from  $\mathcal{G}$

- every direct edge between two observables is an inducing path relative to  $L$
- $A \rightarrow B \leftarrow L \rightarrow D$  inducing path rel. to  $L$ :  $B$  is a collider and  $B \in \text{an}(D)$
- $B \rightarrow L \leftarrow D$  inducing path rel. to  $L$

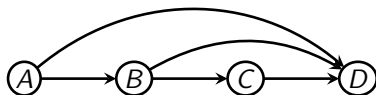
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- (2) Orient  $A \rightarrow B$  if  $A = \text{an}(B)$ ,  $A \leftarrow B$  if  $B = \text{an}(A)$ , and  $A \leftrightarrow B$  if otherwise



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## MAGs and m-separation

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# MAGs and m-separation

- All the d-separation criterion for DAGs can be carried over to MAGs and
- they are called m-separation

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- MEC of MAGs can be represented by PAGs (partial ancestral graphs), analogous to CPDAGs

## Supplement: Discriminating path

In a MAG, a path  $p$  between  $A$  and  $B$ , e.g.  $p = (A, \dots, W, V, B)$  is a discriminating path for  $V$  if

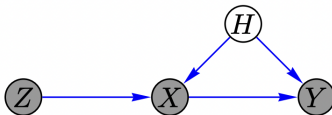
1.  $p$  includes at least three edges (and of course, at least four vertices)
2.  $V$  is adjacent to one endpoint on  $p$  and in the above case,  $B$
3.  $A$  and  $B$  non-adjacent, and every vertex between  $A$  and  $V$  is a collider on  $p$  and is a parent of  $B$

The reason we have to consider discriminating path for MAG is that when  $p$  is a discriminating path, it behaves as a v-structure between  $A$  and  $B$  in terms of the triple  $(W, V, B)$  in the following sense:

1.  $(W, V, B)$  is a non-collider if and only if every set m-separating  $A$  and  $B$  contains  $V$
2.  $(W, V, B)$  is a collider with  $W \rightarrow B$  or  $W \leftarrow B$  if and only if every set m-separating  $A$  and  $B$  does not contain  $V$

## Difference (I)

There can be observed variables which are not adjacent, but for which no subset of the other observed variables d-separates them.



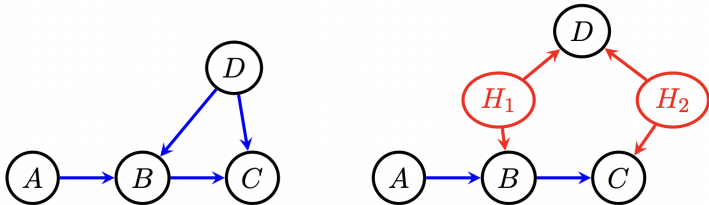
Here  $H$  is unobserved.

$Z$  and  $Y$  are d-connected given  $\emptyset$ .

$Z$  and  $Y$  are d-connected given  $\{X\}$ .

## Difference (II)

For DAGs without hidden variables, *same adjacencies* and *same unshielded colliders* were necessary and sufficient for equivalence  $\Rightarrow$  only need to look at structures involving at most 3 vertices.



These graphs are not Markov equivalent over the observed margin.

$A$  is d-separated from  $C$  given  $\{B, D\}$  in the left graph.

$A$  is d-separated from  $C$  given  $\{B\}$  in the right graph.

$\Rightarrow$  Need to look at more complex structures.



## Q1) Causal discovery with latent variables: FCI algorithm

- For more recent development, check out [Bhattacharya, Nagarajan, Malinsky, Shpitser AISTATS 2021](#).

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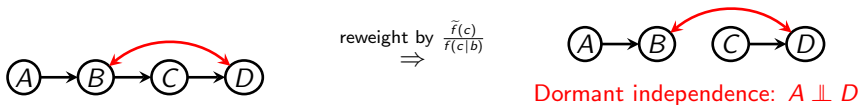
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- Spirtes et al. also proved as sample size  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the output of FCI converges to the MEC of the true underlying MAG, under faithfulness

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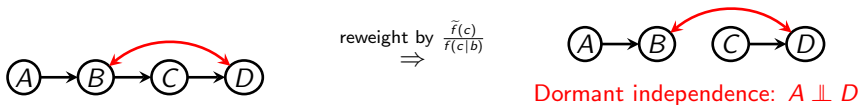
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- MAGs fail to preserve such dormant independences, or nested Markov properties

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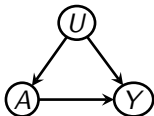
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- It culminated at the paper by Caroline Uhler et al. in 2014, who ingeniously applies classical results from algebraic geometry to this problem

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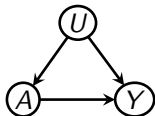
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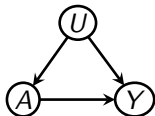


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- Intuitively speaking, in the above DAG, faithfulness rules out the possibility that  $A \leftarrow U \rightarrow Y$  effect somehow cancel out the effect  $A \rightarrow Y$  when looking at the marginal dependence between  $A$  and  $Y$ !

# Is it reasonable to assume faithfulness?

The answer is quite mixed.

On one hand, for probability distributions parameterized by finite-dimensional parameters, the set of distributions Markov to a DAG but unfaithful to that DAG has Lebesgue measure 0 (Meek. UAI 1995)!

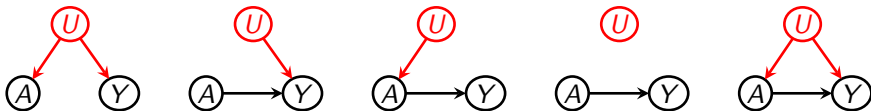
On the other hand... let's see towards the end of this section



## Is consistency enough?

We will consider the following example: observe  $(A, Y)$  and  $U$  could be unmeasured but we assume the background knowledge  $U$  precedes  $A$  and  $Y$  and  $A$  precedes  $Y$ . So we have the following 8 potential DAGs:

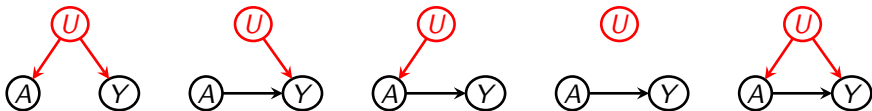
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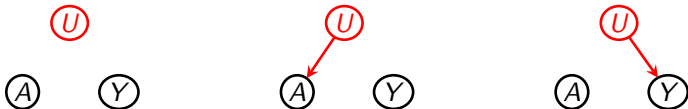
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- $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  translation of **consistency**:  
For the true but unknown distribution  $\mathcal{P}$ , given an error tolerance  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a large integer  $N(\epsilon, \mathcal{P}) \equiv N > 0$ , such that for every  $n > N$ , the sum of type-I and type-II errors of testing  $H_0$  is below  $\epsilon$

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- $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  translation of **uniform consistency**:  
For every distribution, given an error tolerance  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a large integer  $N(\epsilon) \equiv N > 0$ , such that for every  $n > N$ , the sum of type-I and (**non-local**) type-II errors of testing  $H_0$  is below  $\epsilon$

## Why uniform consistency is what we need?

Consistency tells us, for the given datasets, there exists a threshold  $N$ , that depends on the unknown distribution of the given datasets and error tolerance  $\epsilon$ , such that whenever the actual sample size  $n > N$ , we can guarantee the statistical error is below  $\epsilon$

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Therefore, a meaningful statistical theory should be uniform rather than point-wise (one can also connect such disparity to Hodges' estimator in classical statistical theory)

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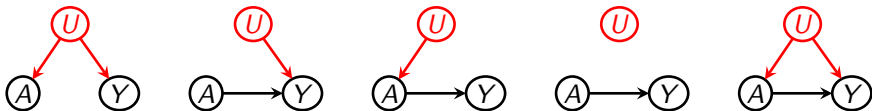
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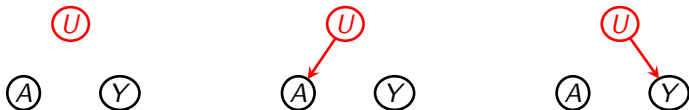
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- If the level of  $U$  is large compared to sample size (e.g. high-dimensional multinomial), then it again becomes hard

If  $U$  is latent but no faithfulness for  $U$  is assumed

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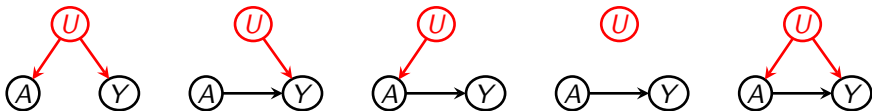


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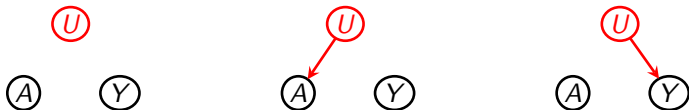


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Without faithfulness, even no consistent method because  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$  can be compatible with the last DAG in Subset 1, so

$H_0$  : no causal effect from  $A$  to  $Y$  will be erroneously accepted

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With faithfulness, we rule out the last DAG in Subset 1, so

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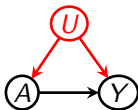
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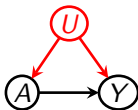
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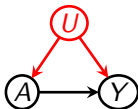
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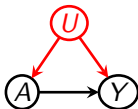
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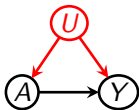


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Because a valid independence test must not reject  $H_0$  with high probability when  $H_0$  is indeed correct and  $O(n^{-1/2})$  is the finite sampling error of such a test

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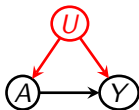
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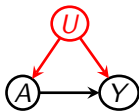
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- Under  $(n/\log n)^{1/2}$ -strong faithfulness, one can get uniform consistency

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- When  $p$  is moderately large, this lower bound gets close to 1

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- But the above does not rule out the possibility of high-quality causal discovery given (1) sufficient background knowledge, (2) correct modeling assumption, and (3) possibility of high-quality randomization or perturbation

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- Combining more and more interventional data might be promising!

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Shpitser, Pearl. Identification of Joint Interventional Distributions in Recursive Semi-Markovian Causal Models. AAAI 2006.  
Shpitser, Pearl. Complete identification methods for the causal hierarchy. JMLR 2008.

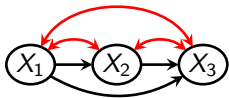
A very brief introduction to theory of ADMGs

# CADMGs

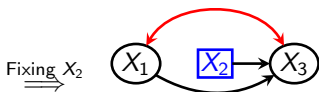
ADMGs  $\mathcal{G}(V, E)$  with  $E$  containing bi-directed edges

CADMGs (Conditional ADMGs)  $\mathcal{G}(V', W, E')$ , with  $V'$  and  $W$  denoting the “random” and “fixed” vertices respectively:

1.  $V = V' \cup W$
2. No edges among vertices in  $W$
3. Removing all the arrows into  $W$
4. Turning circles around vertices in  $W$  into squares



ADMG:  
 $\mathcal{G}(\{X_1, X_2, X_3\}, E)$



CADMG:  
 $\mathcal{G}(\{X_1, X_2\}, \{X_3\}, E)$

## ID algorithm for ADMG

- Question: Is  $p(Y(a) = y)$  or  $\mathbb{E}[Y(a)]$  identifiable given an ADMG  $\mathcal{G}$  and (subsets of) vertices  $A$  and  $Y$ ?
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- Some papers to read:  
Richardson, Evans, Robins, Shpitser. 2017  
Bhattacharya, Nabi, Shpitser. 2020

function **ID**( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, P, G$ )

INPUT:  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$  value assignments,  $P$  a probability distribution,  $G$  a causal diagram.

OUTPUT: Expression for  $P_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y})$  in terms of  $P$  or **FAIL**( $F, F'$ ).

```

1 if  $\mathbf{x} = \emptyset$  return  $\sum_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{y} P(\mathbf{v})$ .

2 if  $\mathbf{V} \setminus An(\mathbf{Y})_G \neq \emptyset$ 
  return ID( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \cap An(\mathbf{Y})_G, \sum_{\mathbf{v} \setminus An(\mathbf{Y})_G} P, G_{An(\mathbf{Y})}$ ).

3 let  $\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{V} \setminus \mathbf{X}) \setminus An(\mathbf{Y})_{G_{\mathbf{X}}}$ .
  if  $\mathbf{W} \neq \emptyset$ , return ID( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \cup \mathbf{w}, P, G$ ).

4 if  $C(G \setminus \mathbf{X}) = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$ 
  return  $\sum_{\mathbf{v} \setminus (\mathbf{y} \cup \mathbf{x})} \prod_i \mathbf{ID}(s_i, \mathbf{v} \setminus s_i, P, G)$ .

  if  $C(G \setminus \mathbf{X}) = \{S\}$ 
    5 if  $C(G) = \{G\}$ , throw FAIL( $G, G \cap S$ ).
    6 if  $S \in C(G)$  return  $\sum_{s \setminus \mathbf{y}} \prod_{\{i|V_i \in S\}} P(v_i | v_{\pi}^{(i-1)})$ .
    7 if  $(\exists S') S \subset S' \in C(G)$  return ID( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \cap S'$ ,
       $\prod_{\{i|V_i \in S'\}} P(V_i | V_{\pi}^{(i-1)} \cap S', v_{\pi}^{(i-1)} \setminus S', G_{S'})$ .

```

Figure 4: A complete identification algorithm. **FAIL** propagates through recursive calls like an exception, and returns the hedge which witnesses non-identifiability.  $V_{\pi}^{(i-1)}$  is the set of nodes preceding  $V_i$  in some topological ordering  $\pi$  in  $G$ .



## Preparatory definitions

- Given any vertex  $v$ , district  $\text{dis}_{\mathcal{G}}(v)$ : maximal bidirected components containing  $v$

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Proof.

For DAG,  $\text{dis}_{\mathcal{G}}(v) = \{v\}$ . Then

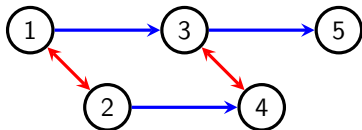
$$\text{mb}_{\mathcal{G}}(v) \equiv \text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(v) \cup (\{v\} \setminus \{v\}) \equiv \text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(v).$$

□

So Markov Blanket generalizes Parent Set in DAG to ADMG

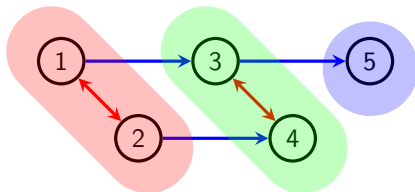
# Districts

Define a **district** in a C/ADMG to be maximal sets connected by bi-directed edges:



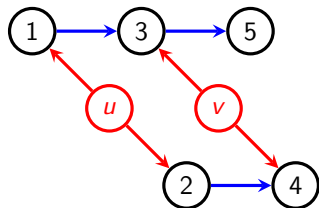
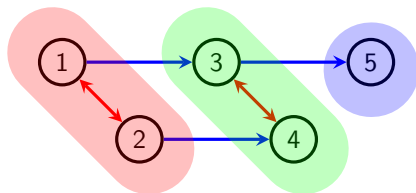
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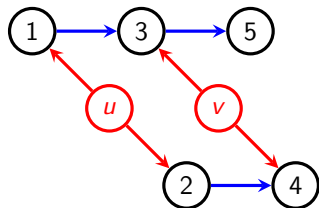
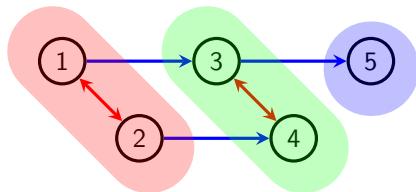


$$\sum_{u,v} p(u) p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u) \quad p(v) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v) \quad p(x_5 | x_3)$$



# Districts

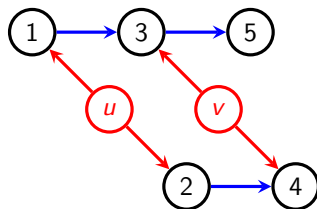
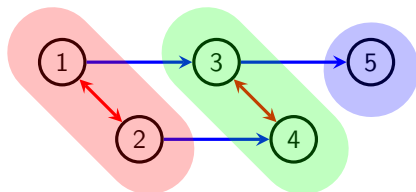
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$$\sum_{u,v} \underbrace{p(u) p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u)}_{\text{red}} \underbrace{p(v) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v)}_{\text{green}} \underbrace{p(x_5 | x_3)}_{\text{purple}}$$

# Districts

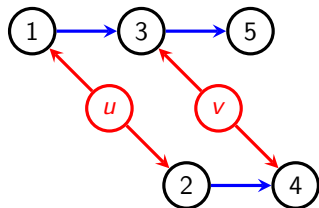
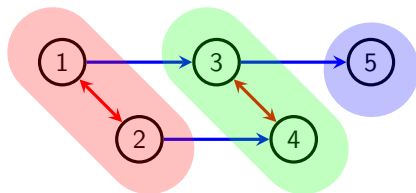
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$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{u,v} \boxed{p(u) p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u)} \boxed{p(v) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v)} \boxed{p(x_5 | x_3)} \\ &= \sum_u \boxed{p(u) p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u)} \sum_v \boxed{p(v) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v)} \boxed{p(x_5 | x_3)} \end{aligned}$$

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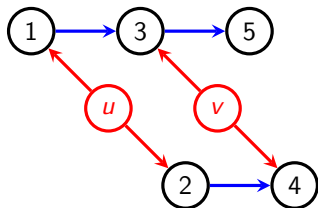
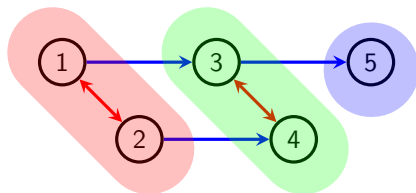
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 &= \sum_u p(u) p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u) \sum_v p(v) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v) \quad p(x_5 | x_3) \\
 &= q(x_1, x_2) \cdot q(x_3, x_4 | x_1, x_2) \cdot q(x_5 | x_3) .
 \end{aligned}$$

# Districts

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 &= \sum_u p(u) p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u) \sum_v p(v) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v) \quad p(x_5 | x_3) \\
 &= q(x_1, x_2) \cdot q(x_3, x_4 | x_1, x_2) \cdot q(x_5 | x_3) . \\
 &= \prod_i q_{D_i}(x_{D_i} | x_{\text{pa}(D_i) \setminus D_i})
 \end{aligned}$$

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- Tian's ID algorithm requires one line by introducing the “fixing” operation, which generalizes conditioning and marginalization

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- Fixable vertices

$$F(\mathcal{G}) := \{v \in V : \text{dis}_{\mathcal{G}}(v) \cap \text{de}_{\mathcal{G}}(v) = \{v\}\}$$

In words,  $v$  is fixable if no vertex  $x \neq v$  s.t.

$$v \leftrightarrow \cdots \leftrightarrow x \text{ and } v \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x$$

Trivial implication: singletons are always fixable and vertices in a DAG are always fixable

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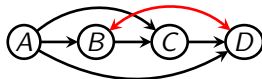
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Trivial implication: singletons are always fixable and vertices in a DAG are always fixable

- Examples:



Front door:  $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{G}} = \{\{M\}, \{A, Y\}\}$ ,  
 $F(\mathcal{G}) = \{M, Y\}$



Verma:  $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{G}} = \{\{A\}, \{B, D\}, \{C\}\}$ ,  
 $F(\mathcal{G}) = \{A, C, D\}$



## Fixing operation: Graphical operation

For every  $r \in F(\mathcal{G})$ , graphically fixing operation is defined as

$$\phi_{\{r\}}(\mathcal{G}) := \mathcal{G}(V \setminus \{r\}, W \cup \{r\}, E')$$

where  $E'$  is edge set in the original ADMG  $\mathcal{G}$  by removing all edges pointing towards  $\{r\}$

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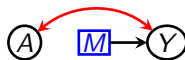
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$$F(\mathcal{G}) = \{M, Y\}$$

Fixing  $M$   
 $\implies$



$$\phi_M(\mathcal{G}), F(\phi_M(\mathcal{G})) = \{A, Y\}$$

## Fixing operation: Algebraic operation

$p(x_V|x_W)$  is the distribution of all the random vertices of a CADMG  $\mathcal{G}(V, W, E)$ ; fixing a vertex  $\{r\}$  means

$$\phi_{\{r\}}(p(x_V|x_W); \mathcal{G}) = \frac{p(x_V|x_W)}{p(x_r|x_{\text{mb}_{\mathcal{G}}(r)})}$$

## Fixing operation: Algebraic operation

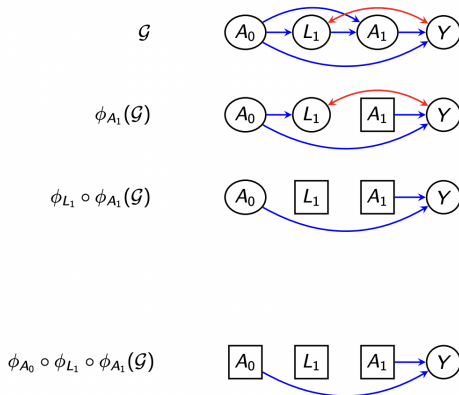
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If  $r \in F(\mathcal{G})$ , then  $\phi_{\{r\}}(p(x_V|x_W); \mathcal{G}) \equiv p(x_{V \setminus \{r\}}|x_{W \cup \{r\}})$

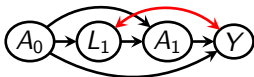
# Sequential randomized trial example

## Example: Sequential Randomization



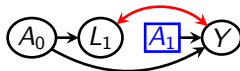
This establishes that  $P(Y \mid \text{do}(A_0, A_1))$  is identified.

# Using fixing to derive the ID formula



$$p(a_0, \ell_1, a_1, y) \equiv p(a_0)p(a_1|a_0, \ell_1)q(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1),$$

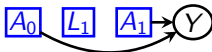
where  $q(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1) = \int p(\ell_1|u, a_0)p(y|u, a_0, \ell_1, a_1)p(u)du$



$$\text{Fix } A_1: \frac{p(a_0, \ell_1, a_1, y)}{p(a_1|a_0, \ell_1)} \equiv p(a_0)q(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1) =: p^{(1)}(a_0, \ell_1, y|a_1)$$

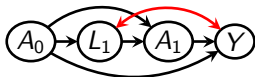


$$\text{Fix } A_0: \frac{p^{(1)}(a_0, \ell_1, y|a_1)}{p(a_0)} \equiv q(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1) =: p^{(2)}(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1)$$



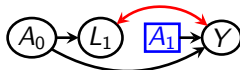
$$\text{Fix } L_1: \frac{p^{(2)}(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1)}{q(\ell_1|a_0, a_1, y)} = q(y|a_0, a_1) =: p^{(3)}(y|a_0, a_1)$$

## Using fixing to derive the ID formula



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$$\text{Fix } A_1: \frac{p(a_0, \ell_1, a_1, y)}{p(a_1|a_0, \ell_1)} \equiv p(a_0)q(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1) =: p^{(1)}(a_0, \ell_1, y|a_1)$$



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$p^{(3)}(y|a_0, a_1) = q(y|a_0, a_1) = \int_{\ell_1} q(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1)d\ell_1$  is the g-formula because

$$q(\ell_1, y|a_0, a_1) = \frac{p(a_0, \ell_1, a_1, y)}{p(a_0)p(a_1|a_0, \ell_1)} = p(\ell_1|a_0)p(y|a_0, \ell_1, a_1)$$



## The orders of fixing operations don't matter

- Comparing the above two slides, you will discover that they used two different fixing sequences but both lead to the same ID formula

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- Comparing the above two slides, you will discover that they used two different fixing sequences but both lead to the same ID formula
- This is the main result that Richardson, Evans, Robins and Shpitser proved in 2017 (Theorem 32 of RERS17): otherwise using fixing operation would have been an absurd idea!

# Reachable Subgraphs and Intrinsic Sets

- Before stating Tian's ID algorithm in one line, we need one more definition

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- The set of all intrinsic sets in  $\mathcal{G}$  is denoted as  $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{G})$

# Tian's ID algorithm

Generalizing the above special case, Tian's ID algorithm can be formulated as follows

## Theorem 4 (Theorem 49 of RERS17)

Given an ADMG  $\mathcal{G}(V, E) \equiv \mathcal{G}$  and two disjoint subsets  $A, Y \subseteq V$ , let  $\overleftarrow{Y} := \text{an}_{\mathcal{G}_{V \setminus A}}(Y)$ . If  $\mathcal{D}(\mathcal{G}_{\overleftarrow{Y}}) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{G})$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} p(X_Y(x_A) = x_Y) &= \int_{x_{\overleftarrow{Y} \setminus Y}} \prod_{D \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{G}_{\overleftarrow{Y}})} p(X_D(x_{\text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(D) \setminus D}) = x_D) dx_{\overleftarrow{Y} \setminus Y} \\ &= \int_{x_{\overleftarrow{Y} \setminus Y}} \prod_{D \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{G}_{\overleftarrow{Y}})} \phi_{V \setminus D}(p(x_V); \mathcal{G}) dx_{\overleftarrow{Y} \setminus Y}. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

If not, there exists  $D \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{G}_{\overleftarrow{Y}})$  not in the intrinsic sets and  $p(X_Y(x_A) = x_Y)$  is unidentifiable.

Think about the following question: Try to translate the above theorem using SWIGs

# For the sake of comparison

function **ID**( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, P, G$ )

INPUT:  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$  value assignments,  $P$  a probability distribution,  $G$  a causal diagram.

OUTPUT: Expression for  $P_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y})$  in terms of  $P$  or **FAIL**( $F, F'$ ).

- 1 if  $\mathbf{x} = \emptyset$  return  $\sum_{\mathbf{v} \setminus \mathbf{y}} P(\mathbf{v})$ .
- 2 if  $\mathbf{V} \setminus An(\mathbf{Y})_G \neq \emptyset$   
return **ID**( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \cap An(\mathbf{Y})_G, \sum_{\mathbf{v} \setminus An(\mathbf{Y})_G} P, G_{An(\mathbf{Y})_G}$ ).
- 3 let  $\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{V} \setminus \mathbf{X}) \setminus An(\mathbf{Y})_{G_{\mathbf{X}}}$ .  
if  $\mathbf{W} \neq \emptyset$ , return **ID**( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \cup \mathbf{w}, P, G$ ).
- 4 if  $C(G \setminus \mathbf{X}) = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$   
return  $\sum_{\mathbf{v} \setminus (\mathbf{y} \cup \mathbf{X})} \prod_i \mathbf{ID}(s_i, \mathbf{v} \setminus s_i, P, G)$ .  
if  $C(G \setminus \mathbf{X}) = \{S\}$ 
  - 5 if  $C(G) = \{G\}$ , throw **FAIL**( $G, G \cap S$ ).
  - 6 if  $S \in C(G)$  return  $\sum_{s \setminus \mathbf{y}} \prod_{\{i | V_i \in S\}} P(v_i | v_{\pi}^{(i-1)})$ .
  - 7 if  $(\exists S') S \subset S' \in C(G)$  return **ID**( $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \cap S'$ ,  
 $\prod_{\{i | V_i \in S'\}} P(V_i | V_{\pi}^{(i-1)} \cap S', v_{\pi}^{(i-1)} \setminus S'), G_{S'}$ ).

Figure 4: A complete identification algorithm. **FAIL** propagates through recursive calls like an exception, and returns the hedge which witnesses non-identifiability.  $V_{\pi}^{(i-1)}$  is the set of nodes preceding  $V_i$  in some topological ordering  $\pi$  in  $G$ .



## Intuition of Tian's ID algorithm

- Only the subgraph  $\mathcal{G}^*$  of the ancestors of  $Y$ , with the causal path to  $Y$  not including  $A$ , needs to be considered for identifying  $p(X_Y(x_A) = x_Y)$

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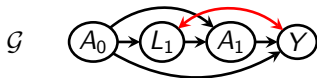
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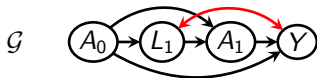
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- Find if  $p(X_D(x_{\text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(D) \setminus D}) = x_D)$  is identified

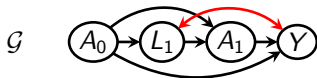
## Exercise 1: Verma or sequential randomized trial



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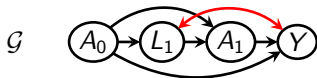
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So  $\mathcal{D}(\mathcal{G}_{\hat{Y}}) = \{Y\}$ ,  $\text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(Y) = \{A_0, A_1\}$  and

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(X_Y(x_{A_0}, x_{A_1}) = x_Y) &= \prod_{D \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{G}_{\hat{Y}})} p(X_D(x_{\text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(D)} \setminus D) = x_D) \\
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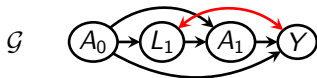
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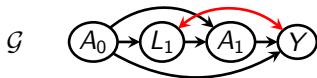


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Identified? Is  $\{Y\}$  an intrinsic set?

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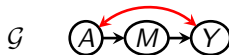


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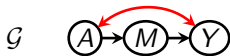
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Identified? Is  $\{Y\}$  an intrinsic set? Yes! We have seen  $\{Y\}$  is reachable by fixing  $A_1, A_0, L_1$

## Exercise 2: Front door



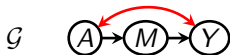
## Exercise 2: Front door



$$\overleftarrow{Y} = \text{an}_{\mathcal{G}_{V \setminus A}}(Y)$$



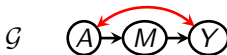
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So  $\mathcal{D}(\mathcal{G}_{\overleftarrow{Y}}) = \{\{M\}, \{Y\}\}$ ,  $\text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(M) = \{A\}$ ,  $\text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(Y) = \{M\}$  and

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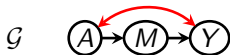


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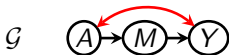


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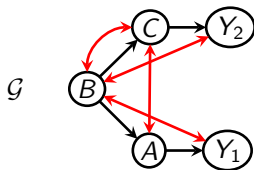
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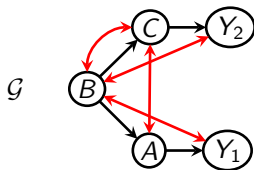
Identified? Are  $\{M\}$  and  $\{Y\}$  intrinsic sets? Yes for  $M$ ; Yes for  $Y$  by fixing  $M$  and  $A$



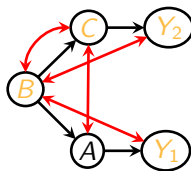
### Exercise 3: causal effect of $A$ on $Y = \{Y_1, Y_2\}$



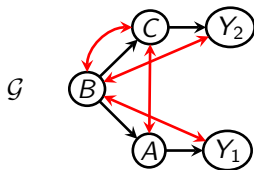
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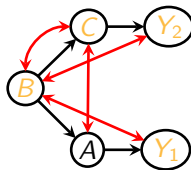
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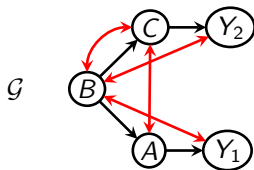


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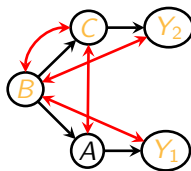


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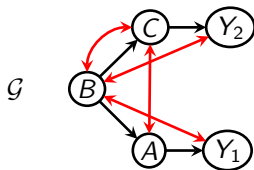


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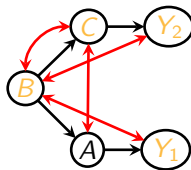


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# Software

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  - Differentiable causal discovery/structure learning with linear SEM allowing latent variables to recover certain ADMGs
  - Given an ADMG, whether a causal query is identifiable
  - If over-identified, which formula should we use (Shpitser's group is working on a symbolic computation software just like mathematica or maple)

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- We will discuss inequality constraints in next chapter

Any Questions?