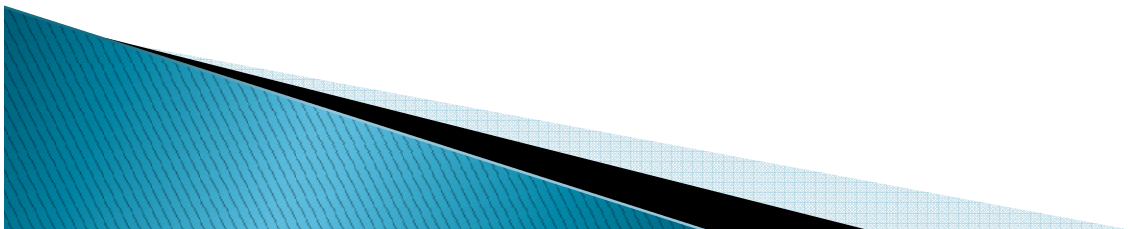


Causal Bayesian networks

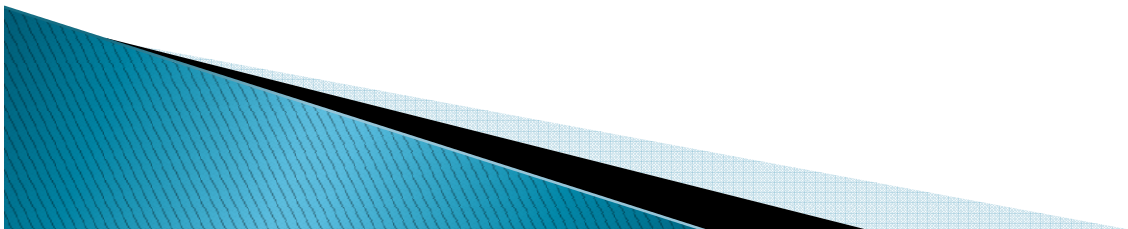
Peter Antal

antal@mit.bme.hu



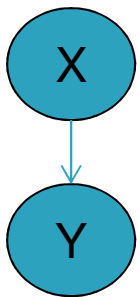
Outline

- ▶ Can we represent exactly (in)dependencies by a BN?
- ▶ Can we interpret
 - edges as causal relations
 - with no hidden variables?
 - in the presence of hidden variables?
 - local models as autonomous mechanisms?
- ▶ Can we infer the effect of interventions?
- ▶ Optimal study design to infer the effect of interventions?



Motivation: from observational inference...

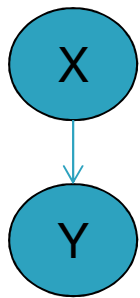
- ▶ In a Bayesian network, any query can be answered corresponding to passive observations: $p(Q=q|E=e)$.
 - What is the (conditional) probability of $Q=q$ given that $E=e$.
 - Note that Q can precede temporally E , e.g. in diagnostic inference below or in smoothing in HMMs, but E is always passively observed.



- ▶ Specification: $p(X), p(Y|X)$
- ▶ Joint distribution: $p(X,Y)$
- ▶ Inferences: $p(X), p(Y), p(Y|X), p(X|Y)$

Motivation: to interventional inference...

- ▶ Perfect intervention: $\text{do}(X=x)$ as set X to x .
- ▶ What is the relation of $p(Q=q|E=e)$ and $p(Q=q|\text{do}(E=e))$?



- ▶ Specification: $p(X)$, $p(Y|X)$
 - ▶ Joint distribution: $p(X,Y)$
 - ▶ Inferences:
 - ▶ $p(Y|X=x)=p(Y|\text{do}(X=x))$
 - ▶ $p(X|Y=y) \neq p(X|\text{do}(Y=y))$
-
- ▶ What is a formal knowledge representation of a causal model?
 - ▶ What is the formal inference method?

Motivation: and to counterfactual inference

- ▶ Imagery observations and interventions:
 - We observed $X=x$, but imagine that x' would have been observed: denoted as $X'=x'$.
 - We set $X=x$, but imagine that x' would have been set: denoted as $\text{do}(X'=x')$.
- ▶ What is the relation of
 - Observational $p(Q=q|E=e, X=x')$
 - Interventional $p(Q=q|E=e, \text{do}(X=x'))$
 - Counterfactual $p(Q'=q'|Q=q, E=e, \text{do}(X=x), \text{do}(X'=x'))$
- ▶ O: What is the probability that the patient recovers if he takes the drug x' .
- ▶ I: What is the probability that the patient recovers if we prescribe* the drug x' .
- ▶ C: Given that the patient did not recover for the drug x , what would have been the probability that patient recovers if we had prescribed* the drug x' , instead of x .
- ▶ ~C (time-shifted): Given that patient did not recover for the drug x and he has not respond well**, what is the probability that patient will recover if we change the prescribed* drug x to x' .

▶ *: Assume that the patient is fully compliant.

▶ **: expected to neither he will.

Challenges in a complex domain

The domain is defined by the joint distribution
 $P(X_1, \dots, X_n | \text{Structure, parameters})$

1. Representation of parameters

„small number of parameters”

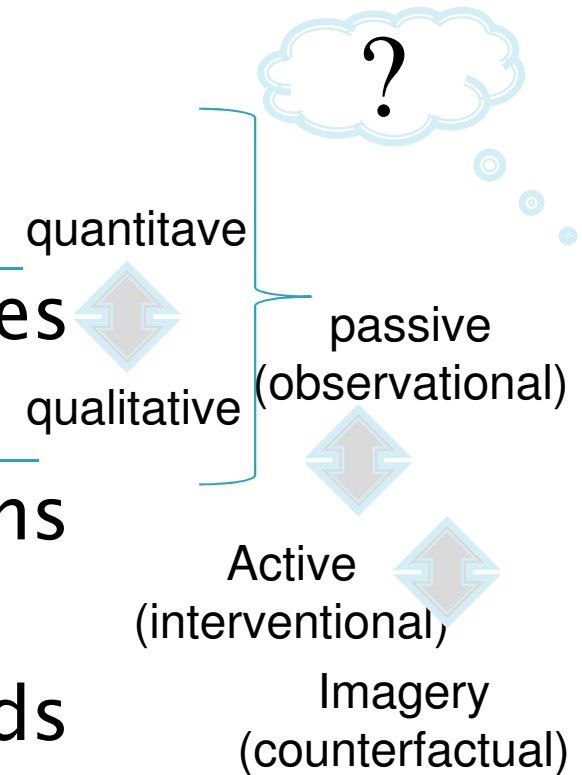
2. Representation of independencies

„what is relevant for diagnosis”

3. Representation of causal relations

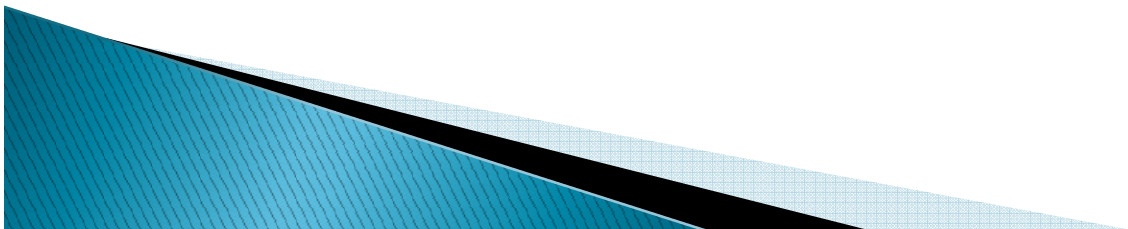
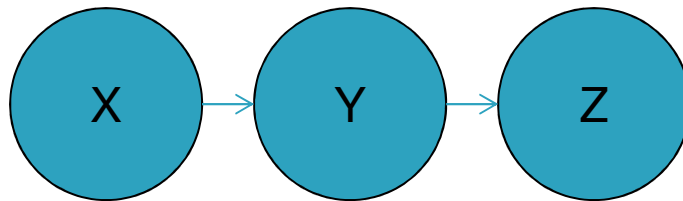
„what is the effect of a treatment”

4. Representation of possible worlds



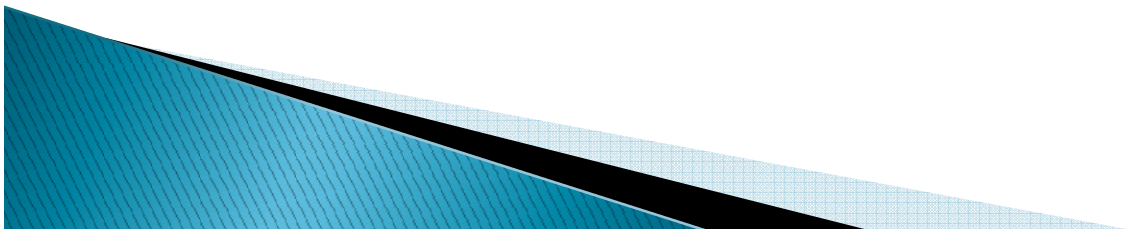
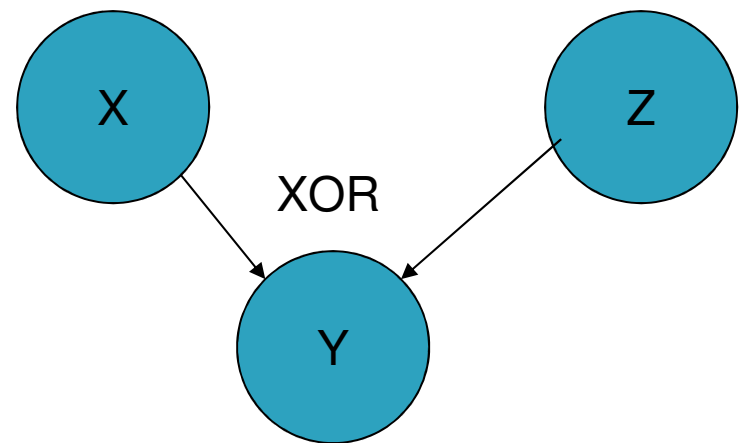
Parametrically encoded intransitivity of dependencies

- ▶ In the first order Markov chain below, despite the dependency of X - Y and Y - Z , X and Z can be independent (assuming non-binary Y).



Parametrically encoded pairwise in dependencies

- ▶ Pairwise independence does not imply multivariate independence!



Conditional independence

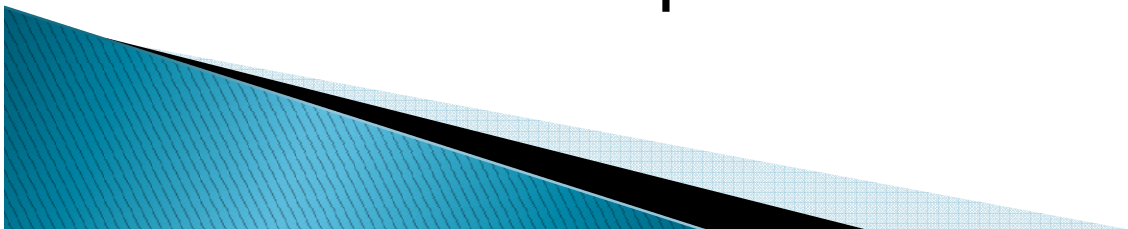


$I_p(X;Y|Z)$ or $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z)_p$ denotes that X is independent of Y given Z : $P(X;Y|z) = P(Y|z) P(X|z)$ for all z with $P(z) > 0$.

(Almost) alternatively, $I_p(X;Y|Z)$ iff $P(X|Z,Y) = P(X|Z)$ for all z,y with $P(z,y) > 0$.

Other notations: $D_p(X;Y|Z) = \text{def} = \neg I_p(X;Y|Z)$

Contextual independence: for not all z .



The independence model of a distribution

The independence map (model) M of a distribution P is the set of the valid independence triplets:

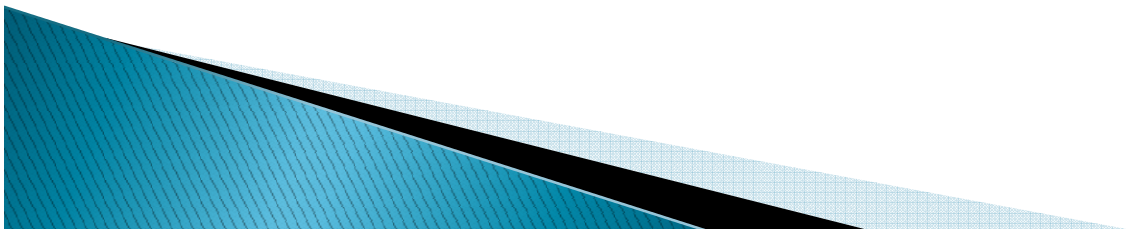
$$M_P = \{I_{P,1}(X_1; Y_1 | Z_1), \dots, I_{P,K}(X_K; Y_K | Z_K)\}$$

If $P(X, Y, Z)$ is a Markov chain, then

$$M_P = \{D(X; Y), D(Y; Z), I(X; Z | Y)\}$$

Normally/almost always: $D(X; Z)$

Exceptionally: $I(X; Z)$



The graphoid axioms

1. Symmetry: The observational probabilistic conditional independence is symmetric.

$$I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z}) \text{ iff } I_p(\mathbf{Y}; \mathbf{X} | \mathbf{Z})$$

2. Decomposition: Any part of an irrelevant information is irrelevant.

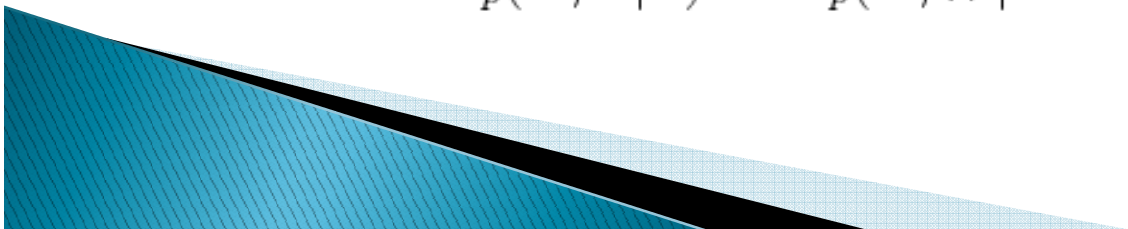
$$I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} \cup \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}) \Rightarrow I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z}) \text{ and } I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z})$$

3. Weak union: Irrelevant information remains irrelevant after learning (other) irrelevant information.

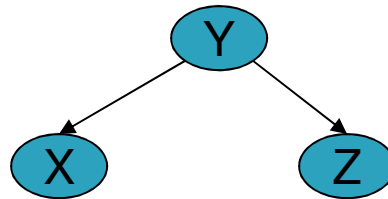
$$I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} \cup \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}) \Rightarrow I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z} \cup \mathbf{W})$$

4. Contraction: Irrelevant information remains irrelevant after forgetting (other) irrelevant information.

$$I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z}) \text{ and } I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z} \cup \mathbf{Y}) \Rightarrow I_p(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} \cup \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z})$$



The independence map of a N-BN

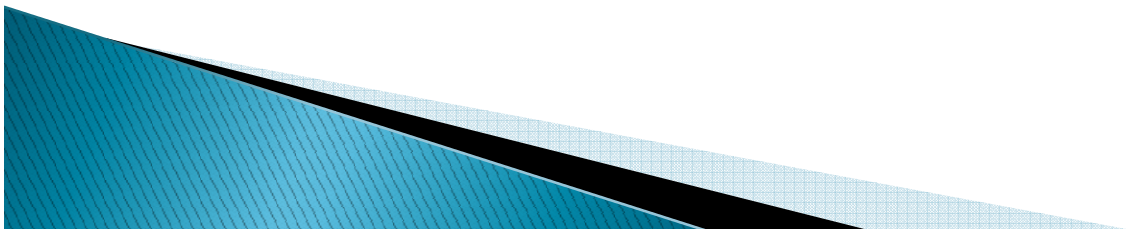


If $P(Y,X,Z)$ is a naive Bayesian network, then

$M_P = \{D(X;Y), D(Y;Z), I(X;Z|Y)\}$

Normally/almost always: $D(X;Z)$

Exceptionally: $I(X;Z)$



Bayesian networks

Directed acyclic graph (DAG)

- nodes – random variables/domain entities
- edges – direct probabilistic dependencies (edges – causal relations)

Local models – $P(X_i | \text{Pa}(X_i))$

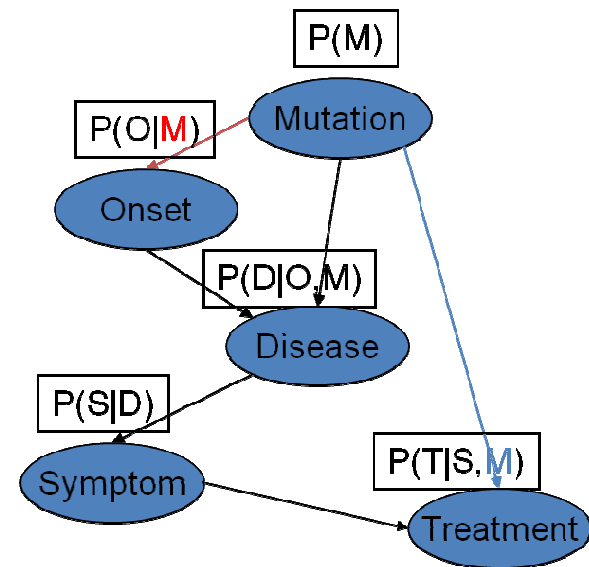
Three interpretations:

3. Concise representation of joint distributions

$$P(M, O, D, S, T) = P(M)P(O|M)P(D|O, M)P(S|D)P(T|S, M)$$

$M_P = \{I_{P,1}(X_1; Y_1 | Z_1), \dots\}$

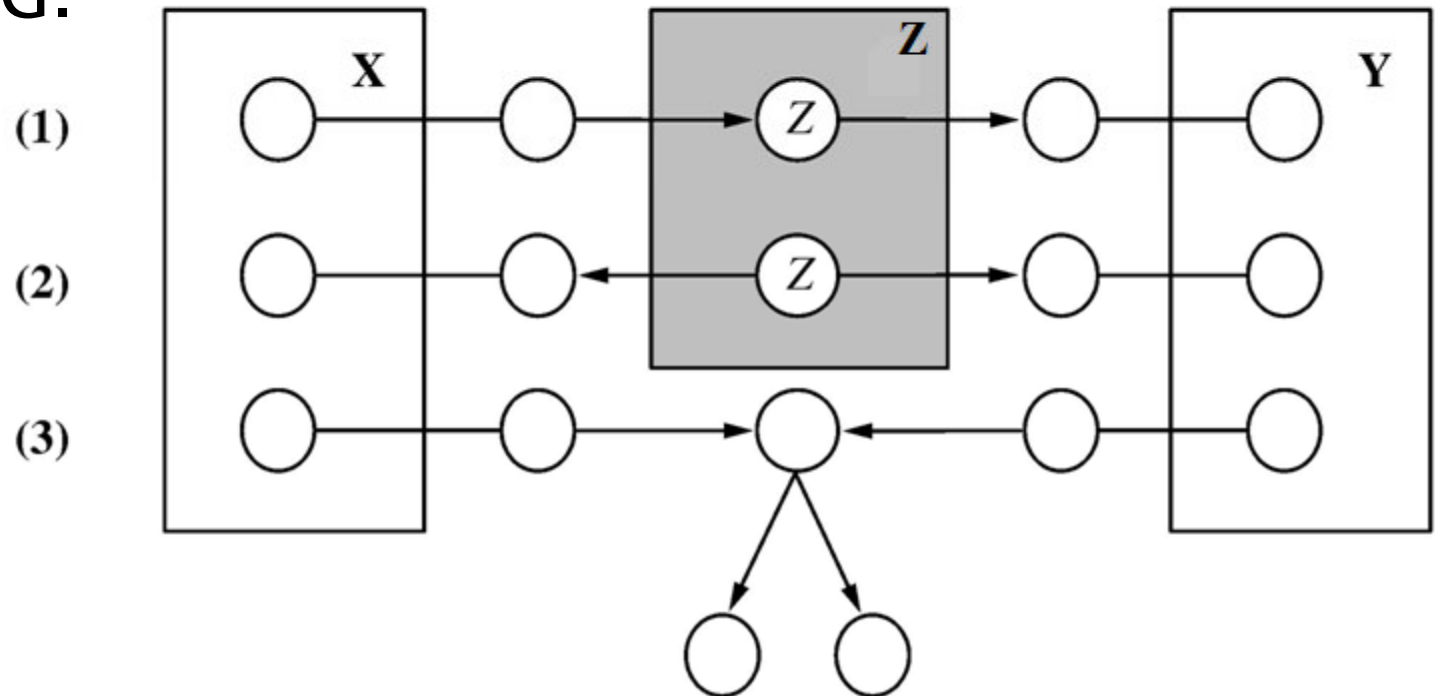
2. Graphical representation of (in)dependencies



1. Causal model

Inferring independencies from structure: d-separation

$I_G(X;Y|Z)$ denotes that X is d-separated (directed separated) from Y by Z in directed graph G .



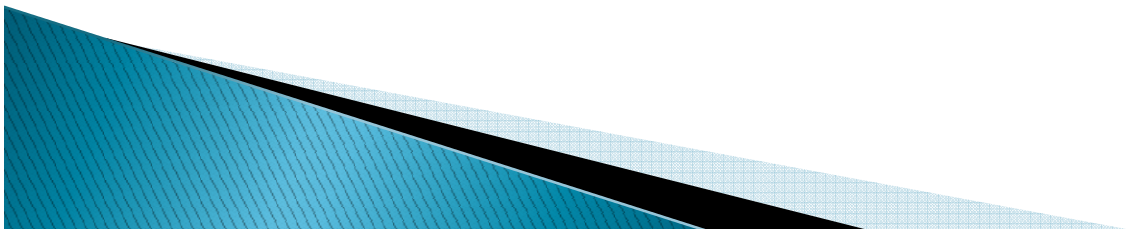
d-separation and the global Markov condition

Definition 7 A distribution $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ obeys the global Markov condition w.r.t. DAG G , if

$$\forall X, Y, Z \subseteq U \ (X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z)_G \Rightarrow (X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z)_P, \quad (9)$$

where $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z)_G$ denotes that X and Y are d-separated by Z , that is if every path p between a node in X and a node in Y is blocked by Z as follows

1. either path p contains a node n in Z with non-converging arrows (i.e. $\rightarrow n \rightarrow$ or $\leftarrow n \rightarrow$),
2. or path p contains a node n not in Z with converging arrows (i.e. $\rightarrow n \leftarrow$) and none of its descendants of n is in Z .



Representation of independencies

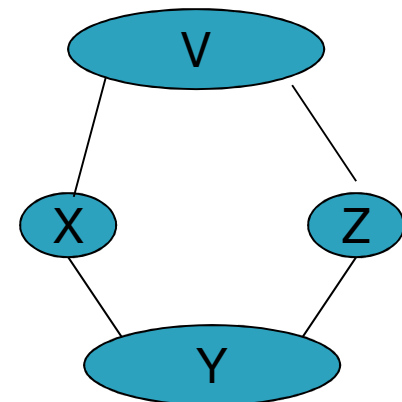
D-separation provides a sound and complete, computationally efficient algorithm to read off an (in)dependency model consisting the independencies that are valid in all distributions Markov relative to G , that is $\forall X, Y, Z \subseteq V$

$$(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z)_G \Leftrightarrow ((X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z)_P \text{ in all } P \text{ Markov relative to } G). \quad (10)$$

For certain distributions exact representation is not possible by Bayesian networks, e.g.:

1. Intransitive Markov chain: $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$
2. Pure multivariate cause: $\{X, Z\} \rightarrow Y$
3. Diamond structure:

$P(X, Y, Z, V)$ with $M_P = \{D(X;Z), D(X;Y), D(V;X), D(V;Z), I(V;Y|\{X,Z\}), I(X;Z|\{V,Y\}).. \}$.



Markov conditions

Definition 4 A distribution $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is Markov relative to DAG G or factorizes w.r.t G , if

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | Pa(X_i)), \quad (6)$$

where $Pa(X_i)$ denotes the parents of X_i in G .

Definition 5 A distribution $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ obeys the ordered Markov condition w.r.t. DAG G , if

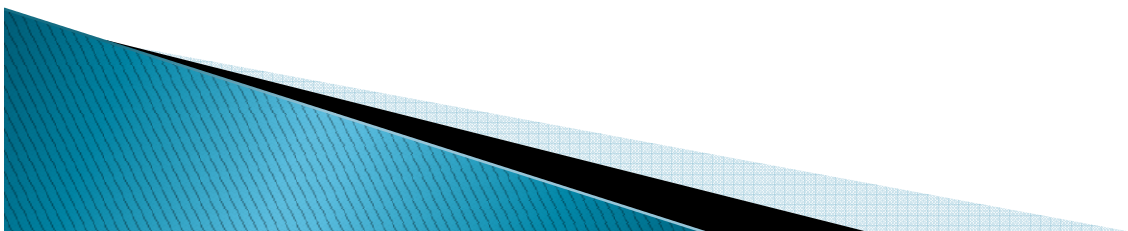
$$\forall i = 1, \dots, n : (X_{\pi(i)} \perp\!\!\!\perp \{X_{\pi(1)}, \dots, X_{\pi(i-1)}\} / Pa(X_{\pi(i)}) | Pa(X_{\pi(i)}))_P, \quad (7)$$

where $\pi()$ is some ancestral ordering w.r.t. G (i.e. compatible with arrows in G).

Definition 6 A distribution $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ obeys the local (or parental) Markov condition w.r.t. DAG G , if

$$\forall i = 1, \dots, n : (X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp \text{Nondescendants}(X_i) | Pa(X_i))_P, \quad (8)$$

where $\text{Nondescendants}(X_i)$ denotes the nondescendants of X_i in G .

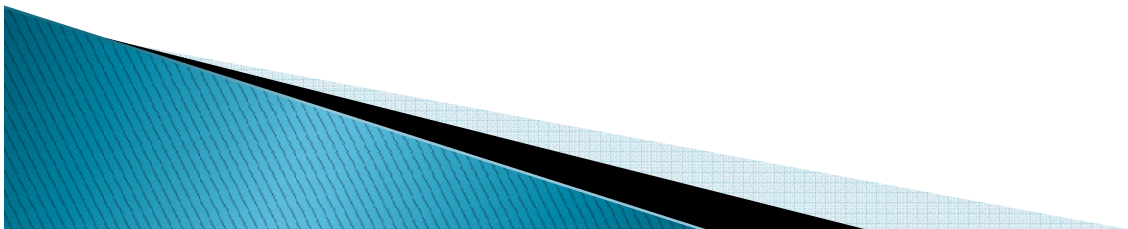


Bayesian network definitions

Theorem 1 *Let $P(U)$ a probability distribution and G a DAG, then the conditions above (repeated below) are equivalent:*

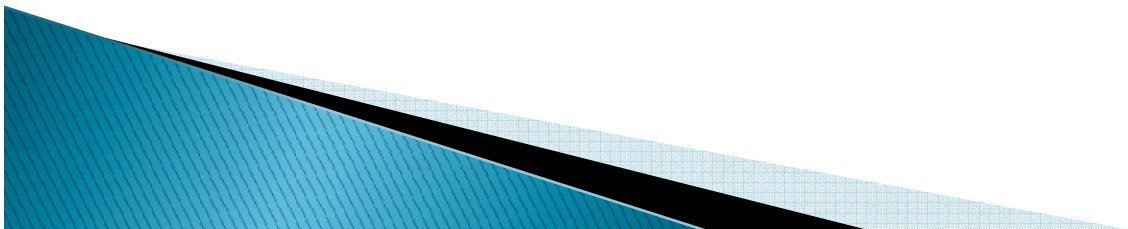
- F P is Markov relative G or P factorizes w.r.t G ,*
- O P obeys the ordered Markov condition w.r.t. G ,*
- L P obeys the local Markov condition w.r.t. G ,*
- G P obeys the global Markov condition w.r.t. G .*

Definition 8 *A directed acyclic graph (DAG) G is a Bayesian network of distribution $P(U)$ iff the variables are represented with nodes in G and (G, P) satisfies any of the conditions F, O, L, G such that G is minimal (i.e. no edge(s) can be omitted without violating a condition F, O, L, G).*



A practical definition

Definition 9 *A Bayesian network model M of domain with variables U consists of a structure G and parameters θ . The structure G is a DAG such that each node represents a variable and local probabilistic models $p(X_i | pa(X_i))$ are attached to each node w.r.t. the structure G , that is they describe the stochastic dependency of variable X_i on its parents $pa(X_i)$. As the conditionals are frequently from a certain parametric family, the conditional for X_i is parameterized by θ_i , and θ denotes the overall parameterization of the model.*

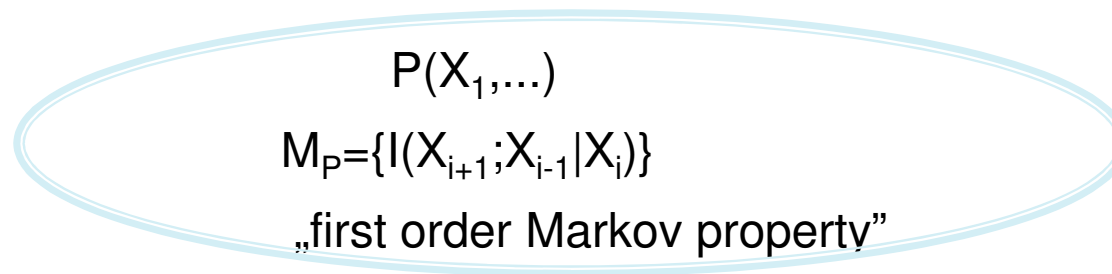


Association vs. Causation: Markov chain

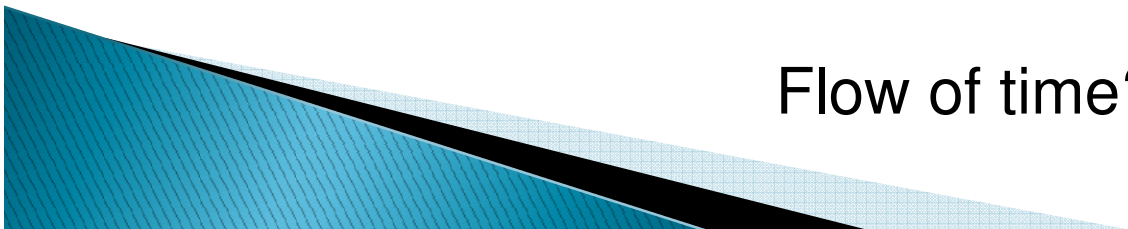
Causal models:



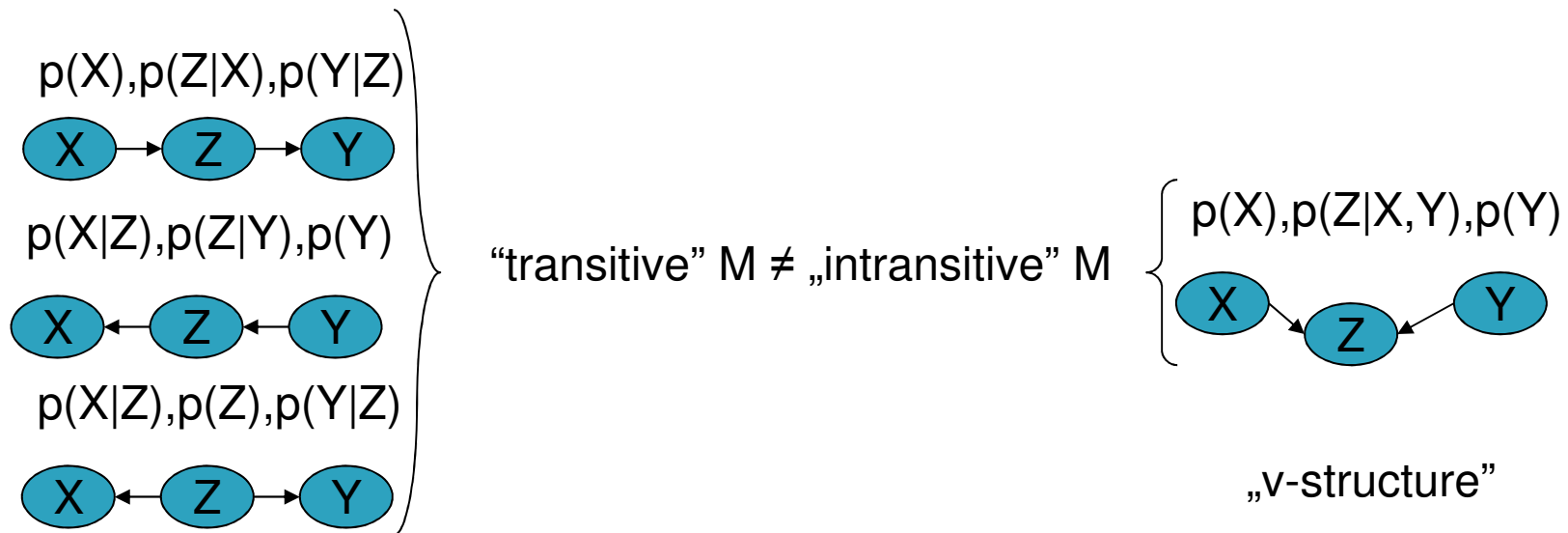
Markov chain



Flow of time?



The building block of causality: v-structure (arrow of time)



$$M_P = \{D(X;Z), D(Z;Y), D(X,Y), I(X;Y|Z)\}$$

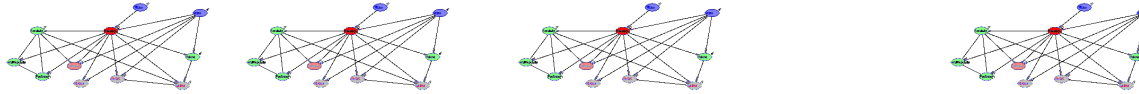
$$M_P = \{D(X;Z), D(Y;Z), I(X;Y), D(X;Y|Z)\}$$

Often: present knowledge renders future states conditionally independent.
(confounding)

Ever(?): present knowledge renders past states conditionally independent.
(backward/atemporal confounding)

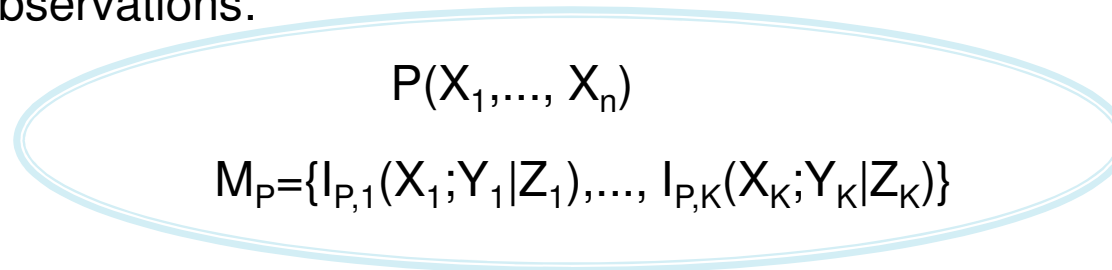
Observational equivalence of causal models

Causal models:



J.Pearl:
~ „3D objects”

From passive observations:



„2D projection”

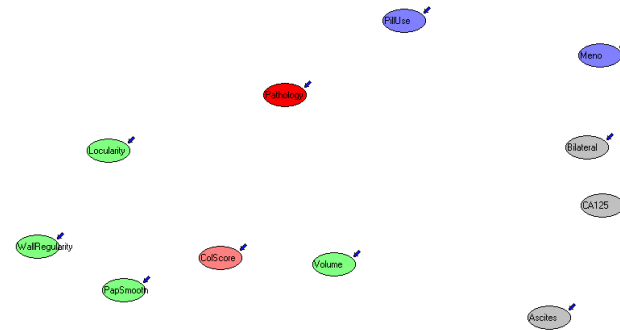
Different causal models can have the same independence map!

Typically causal models cannot be identified from passive observations, they are ***observationally equivalent***.



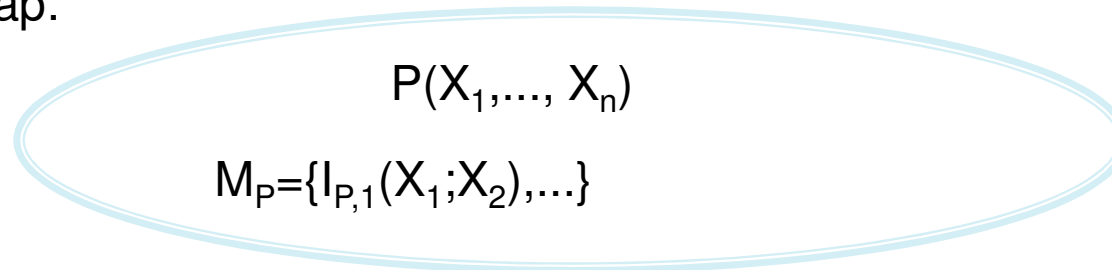
Observational equivalence: total independence

„Causal” model:



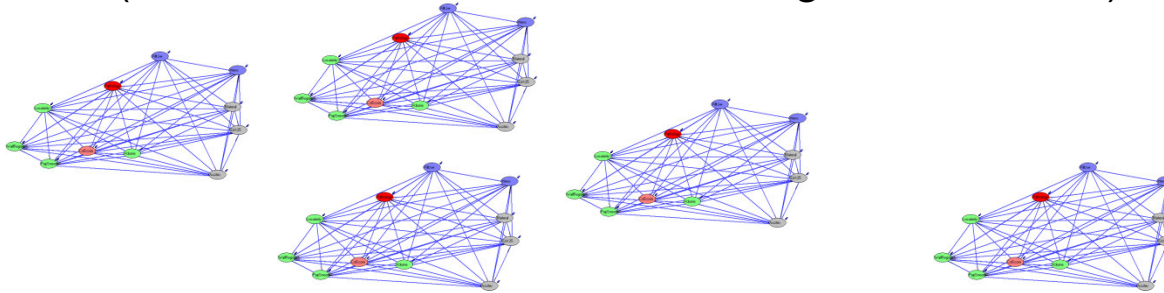
One-to-one relation

Dependency map:



Observational equivalence: full dependence

„Causal” models (there is a DAG for each ordering, i.e. $n!$ DAGs):

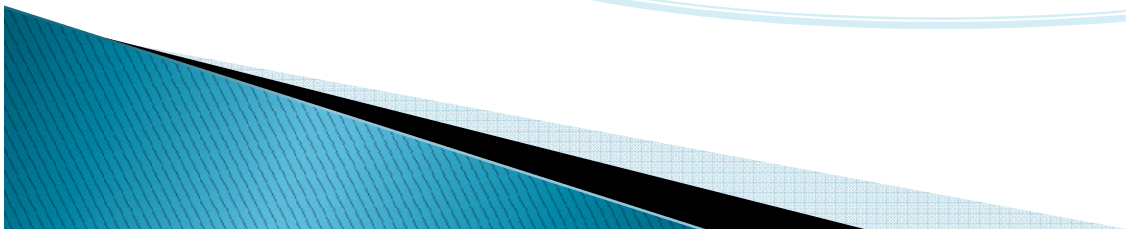


One-to-many relation

Dependency map:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

$$M_P = \{D_{P,1}(X_1; X_2), \dots\}$$



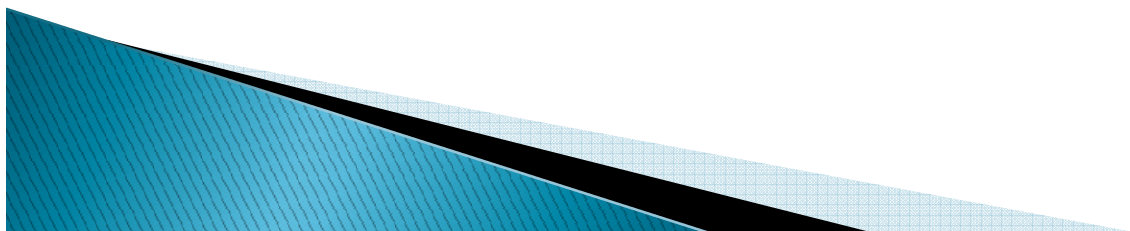
Observational equivalence of causal models

Definition 11 Two DAGs G_1, G_2 are observationally equivalent, if they imply the same set of independence relations (i.e. $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z)_{G_1} \Leftrightarrow (X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z)_{G_2}$).

The implied equivalence classes may contain $n!$ number of DAGs (e.g. all the full networks representing no independencies) or just 1.

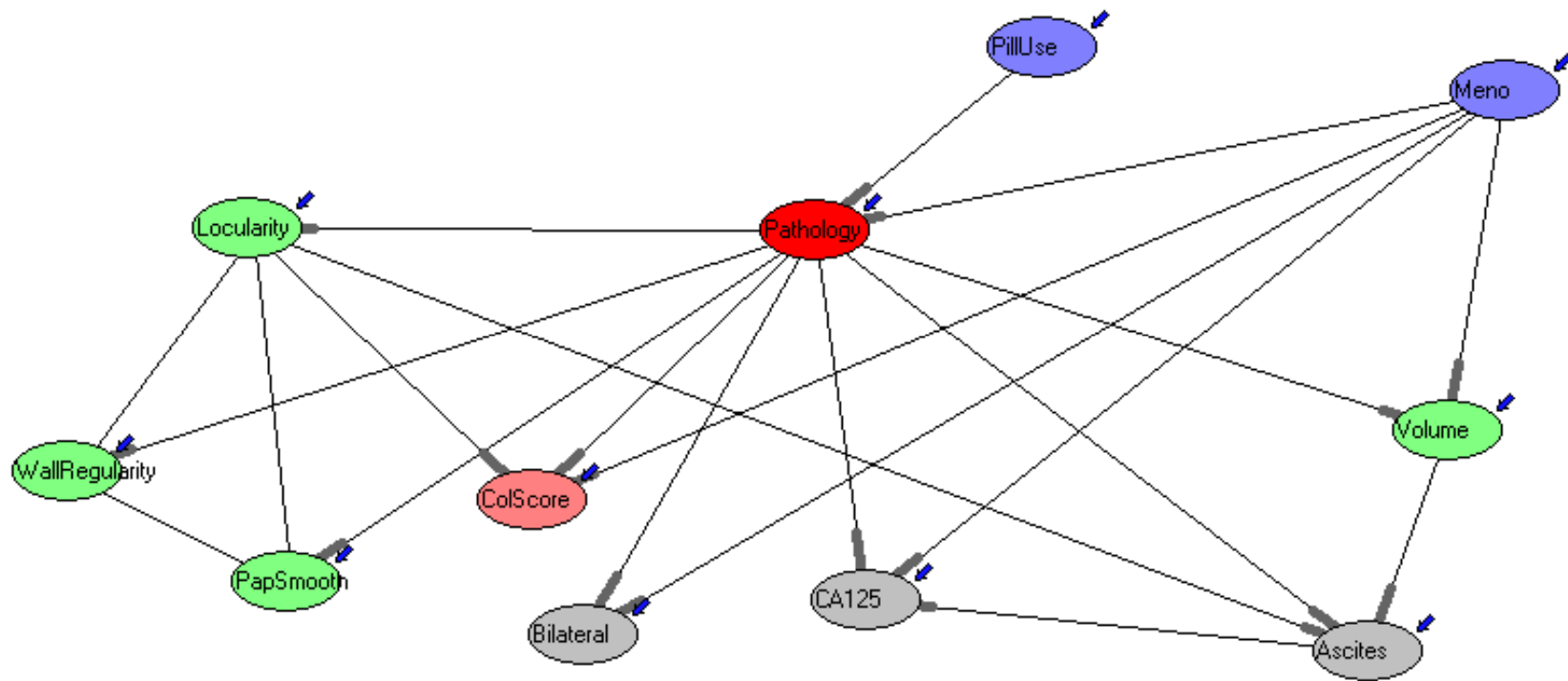
Theorem 2 Two DAGs G_1, G_2 are observationally equivalent, iff they have the same skeleton (i.e. the same edges without directions) and the same set of v-structures (i.e. two converging arrows without an arrow between their tails).

Definition 12 The essential graph representing observationally equivalent DAGs is a partially oriented DAG (PDAG), that represents the identically oriented edges called compelled edges of the observationally equivalent DAGs (i.e. in the equivalence class), such a way that in the common skeleton only the compelled edges are directed (the others are undirected representing inconclusiveness).



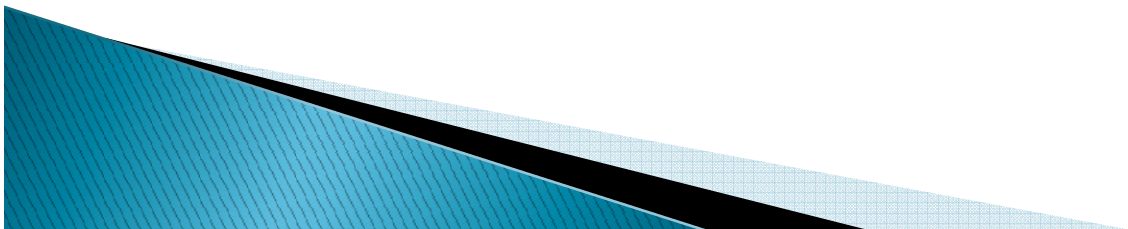
Compelled edges and PDAG

(“can we interpret edges as causal relations?” → compelled edges)



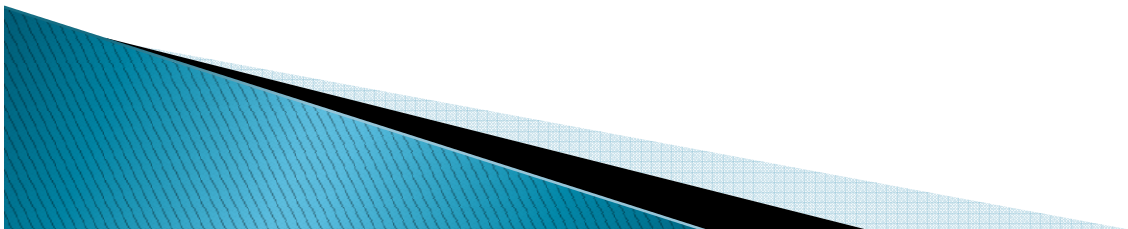
The Causal Markov Condition

- ▶ A DAG is called a *causal structure* over a set of variables, if each node represents a variable and edges direct influences. A *causal model* is a causal structure extended with local probabilistic models.
- ▶ A causal structure G and distribution P satisfies the Causal Markov Condition, if P obeys the local Markov condition w.r.t. G .
- ▶ The distribution P is said to stable (or faithful), if there exists a DAG called *perfect map* exactly representing its (in)dependencies (i.e. $I_G(X;Y|Z) \Leftrightarrow I_P(X;Y|Z) \forall X,Y,Z \subseteq V$).
- ▶ CMC: **sufficiency** of G (there is no extra, acausal edge)
- ▶ Faithfulness/stability: **necessity** of G (there are no extra, parametric independency)



Interventional inference in causal Bayesian networks

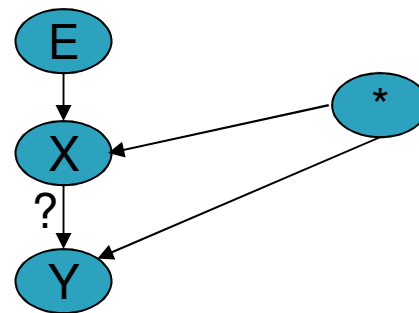
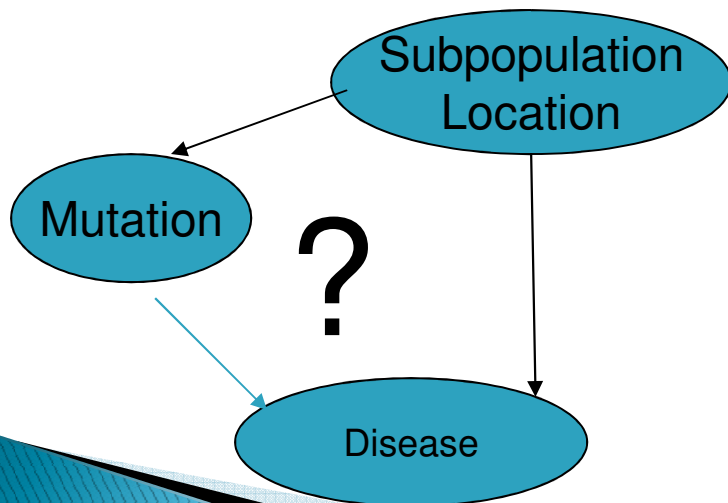
- ▶ (Passive, observational) inference
 - $P(\text{Query}|\text{Observations})$
- ▶ Interventionist inference
 - $P(\text{Query}|\text{Observations}, \text{Interventions})$
- ▶ Counterfactual inference
 - $P(\text{Query}|\text{Observations}, \text{Counterfactual conditionals})$



Interventions and graph surgery

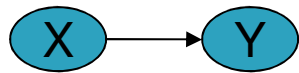
If G is a causal model, then compute $p(Y|\text{do}(X=x))$ by

1. deleting the incoming edges to X
2. setting $X=x$
3. performing standard Bayesian network inference.

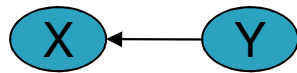


Association vs. Causation

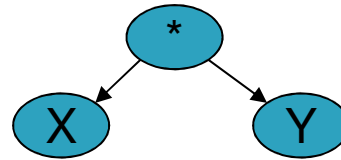
Causal models:



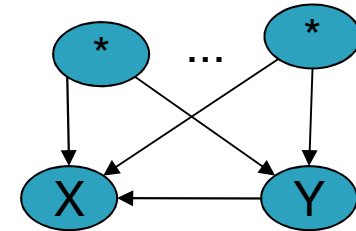
X causes Y



Y causes X

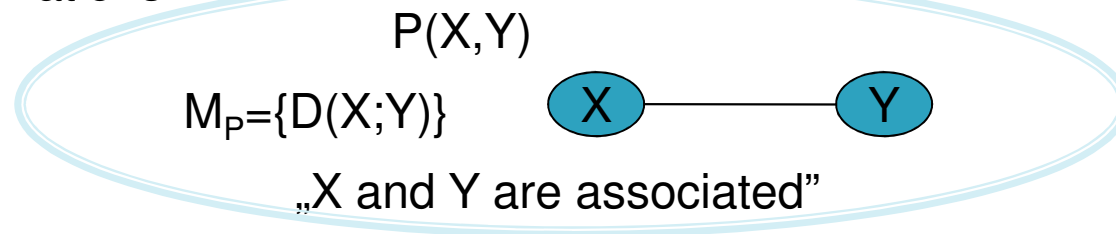


There is a common cause
(pure confounding)



Causal effect of Y on X
is confounded by many
factors

From passive observations:

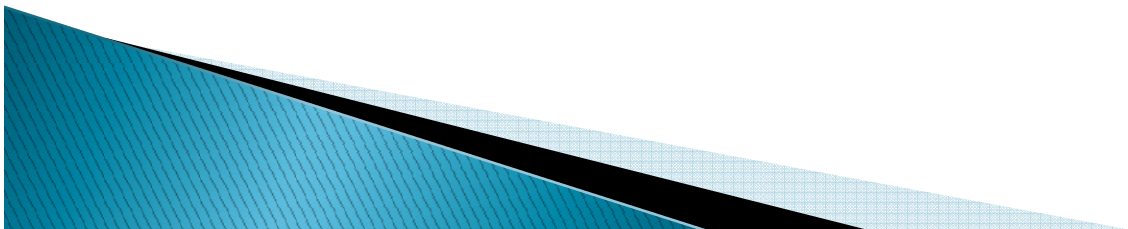


Reichenbach's Common Cause Principle:

a correlation between events X and Y indicates either that X causes Y , or that Y causes X , or that X and Y have a common cause.

Principles of causality

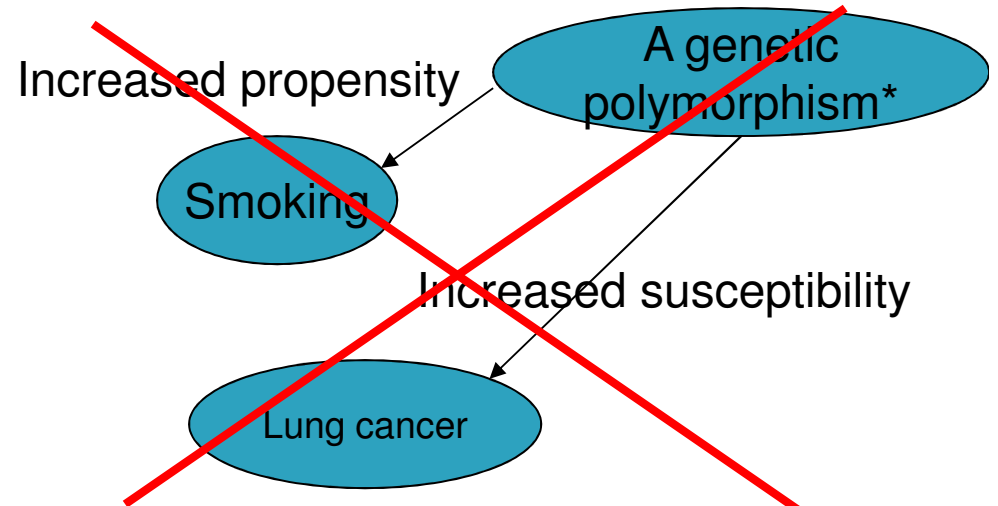
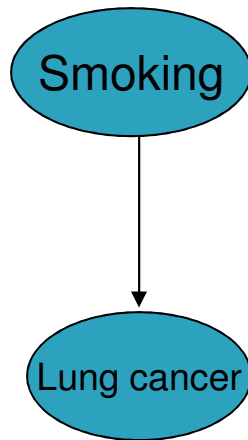
- ▶ strong association,
 - ▶ X precedes temporally Y,
 - ▶ plausible explanation without alternative explanations based on confounding,
 - ▶ necessity (generally: if cause is removed, effect is decreased or actually: y would not have been occurred with that much probability if x had not been present),
 - ▶ sufficiency (generally: if exposure to cause is increased, effect is increased or actually: y would have been occurred with larger probability if x had been present).
-
- ▶ The probabilistic definition of causation formalizes many, but for example not the counterfactual aspects.



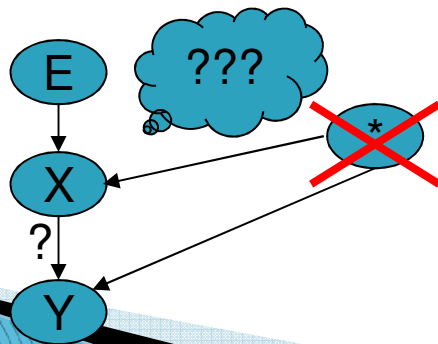
Local Causal Discovery

“can we interpret edges as causal relations in the presence of hidden variables?”

- ▶ Can we learn causal relations from observational data in presence of confounders???



- Automated, tabula rasa causal inference from (passive) observation is possible, i.e. hidden, confounding variables can be excluded



- „Plato’s two surprises:
1. Not all true theorems can be proved
 2. Causal inference is possible from observations”

A deterministic concept of causation

► H.Simon

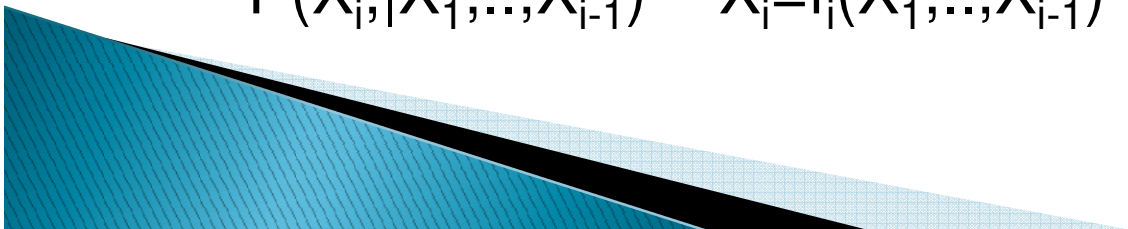
- $X_i = f_i(X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$ for $i=1..n$
- In the linear case the system of equations indicates a natural causal ordering (flow of time?)

					X
				X	X
			X	X	X
		X	X	X	X
				



The probabilistic conceptualization is its generalization:

$$P(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \sim X_i = f_i(X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$



Summary

- ▶ Can we represent exactly (in)dependencies by a BN?
 - ▶ *almost always*
- ▶ Can we interpret
 - edges as causal relations
 - with no hidden variables?
 - *compelled edges as a filter*
 - in the presence of hidden variables?
 - *Sometimes, e.g. confounding can be excluded in certain cases*
 - in local models as autonomous mechanisms?
 - *a priori knowledge, e.g. Causal Markov Assumption*
- ▶ Can we infer the effect of interventions in a causal model?
 - ▶ *Graph surgery with standard inference in BNs*
- ▶ Optimal study design to infer the effect of interventions?
 - ▶ *With no hidden variables: yes, in a non-Bayesian framework*
 - ▶ *In the presence of hidden variables: open issue*
- ▶ Suggested reading
 - J. Pearl: Causal inference in statistics, 2009

