Causal Models: Representation and Learning

INTELLIGENT SYSTEMS FOR PATTERN RECOGNITION (ISPR)

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Probabilistic and Causal Learning

- Bayesian Networks (Tuesday 4th)
- Bayesian Networks (Thursday 6th)
- Graphical Causal Models (Tuesday 11th, today!)
 - Causation and Correlation
 - Causal Bayesian Networks
 - Causal Inference
 - Structural Causal Models
- Structure Learning and Causal Discovery (Wednesday 12th)



Correlation, Dependence and Causation

- A random variable is "causing" another random variable if a "manipulation" on the former alters the distribution of the latter.
- Correlation alone does not imply **direct causation**.
- In fact, completely different causal structures can entail the same set of conditional independences and dependences.



Reichenbach's Principle

Reichenbach's Common Cause Principle

Let X and Y be two variables such that X and Y are **statistically dependent**, then it holds:

- i. X is indirectly causing Y, or
- ii. Y is indirectly causing X, or
- iii. There is a possibly unobserved common cause Z that indirectly causes both X and Y.



The distance between Saturn and Earth

correlates with

Google searches for 'how to make baby'



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Reichenbach's Principle

- The **principle** assumes that we can **perfectly** identify statistical dependence from data.
- In general, we need particular care:
 - Selection Bias
 - Small Size Datasets (Sampling Bias)
 - Common Trends
 - Data Manipulations
 - Measurement Errors
- PS: Everything breaks apart in the quantum realm! (checkout here, here, or here)



Causal Bayesian Networks

• A Causal Bayesian Network is a

Bayesian Network where each edge $Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ represents that Y_1 **directly causes** a variable Y_2 .

The two models G₁ and G₂
denote equivalent Bayesian
Networks but distinct Causal
Bayesian Networks.





Intervening on Causal Models

- Interventions are the main operations on causal models.
- While different probabilistic models can express the same conditional distributions, different causal models entail different interventional distributions.



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Ideal Interventions

 Given a variable Y and a value k, we denote an ideal intervention, also known as hard or perfect, as

 $do(Y \coloneqq k)$

- The intervention replaces the variable of the model with the constant value.
- In general, $P(Y_2 | Y_1 = k) \neq P(Y_2 | do(Y_1 \coloneqq k))$





Truncated Factorization

- Let V be a set of variables and k a set of values.
- Then, the intervention $do(V \coloneqq k)$ assigns a value k_i to each $Y_i \in V$.
- Then, the joint interventional distribution factorizes as follows

$$P(Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n \mid \operatorname{do}(V := k))$$

= $\prod_{Y_i \notin V} P(Y_i \mid \operatorname{Pa}(Y_i)) \cdot \prod_{Y_j \in V} \mathbb{I}(Y_j = k_j)$



Average Treatment Effect

- Interventions are fundamental to study causal effects.
 - Does smoking causes cancer?
 - Will the vaccine avoid long-term infection?
 - How does the education level influence the average salary?
- Given a binary treatment variable Y₁ and an outcome variable Y₂, the average treatment effect of Y₁ on Y₂ is

$$ATE(Y_1, Y_2) = \mathbb{E}\left[Y_2 \mid do(Y_1 \coloneqq T)\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[Y_2 \mid do(Y_1 \coloneqq F)\right]$$



Conditioning ≠ Intervening

Region • To estimate the ATE of a treatment of an outcome is fundamental to distinguish between conditioning and intervening on random variables. Vaccine Infection • Conditioning is <u>not</u> a measure of P(R) = 0.4P(V | R = 1) = 0.2causal effect. P(V | R = 0) = 0.8P(I | R = 0, V = 0) = 0.6Arm Pain P(I | R = 0, V = 1) = 0.55P(I | R = 1, V = 0) = 0.42P(I | R = 1, V = 1) = 0.38P(A | V = 0) = 0.1P(A | V = 1) = 0.9I Iniversità di Pisa

Conditioning ≠ Intervening

• Does **observing** a painful arm increase the probability of observing an infection? Yes!

$$\mathbb{E}\left[I \mid A = 1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[I \mid A = 0\right] > 0$$

• Does punching an arm increase the probability of infection? No!

$$\mathbb{E}\left[I \mid \operatorname{do}(A \coloneqq 1)\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[I \mid \operatorname{do}(A \coloneqq 0)\right] = 0$$



Conditioning ≠ Intervening

 Does observing a vaccine increase the probability of observing an infection? Yes!

$$\mathbb{E}\left[I \mid V = 1\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[I \mid V = 0\right] > 0$$

- Does taking a vaccine increase the probability of being infected?
- To answer, we need to **identify** the causal effect. $\mathbb{E}\left[I \mid \operatorname{do}(V \coloneqq 1)\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[I \mid \operatorname{do}(V \coloneqq 0)\right] = ?$



Causal Effect Identifiability

• The causal effect of a treatment Y_1 on an outcome Y_2 is identifiable whenever there exists an adjustment set Z such that

 $P(Y_2 | do(Y_1)) = P(Y_2 | Y_1, Z)$

- The **do-calculus** is a complete system to find an adjustment set.
- From do-calculus, we can derive two fundamental adjustments:
 - The **back-door** criterion to handle observable confounders, and
 - The **front-door** adjustment to handle latent confounders.



Back-Door Adjustment

- A set of variables Z satisfies the back-door criterion for the causal effect of Y₁ on Y₂ if:
 - No node in Z descends from Y₁, and
 - Z blocks every path between Y₁ and Y₂ that contains an edge entering Y₁.
- Then, it holds

$$P(Y_2 | do(Y_1)) = \sum_z P(Y_2 | Y_1, Z = z)P(Z = z)$$





Front-Door Adjustment

- A set of variables Z satisfies the front-door criterion for the causal effect of Y₁ on Y₂ if:
 - Z intercepts all directed paths from \boldsymbol{Y}_1 to \boldsymbol{Y}_2 , and
 - there is no unblocked back-door path from Y_1 to $Z_{\mbox{\scriptsize r}}$ and
 - all back-door paths from Z to Y₂ are blocked by Y₁.
- Then, it holds

 $P(Y_2 \mid do(Y_1)) = \sum_z P(Z = z \mid Y_1) \sum_{y'_1} P(Y_2 \mid Y_1 = y'_1, Z = z) P(Y_1 = y'_1)$





Counterfactual Reasoning

- **Counterfactual** queries naturally occurs when we retrospectively reason on alternative outcomes **after** an intervention.
 - If the patient had received a placebo instead, would their recovery have been the same?
 - If the student had not studied the night before, would they still have passed the exam?
- Causal Bayesian Networks cannot answer counterfactual queries.



Structural Causal Models

A Structural Causal Model (SCM)

M=(Y, U, f, P(U))

specifies the **deterministic mechanisms** f of a set of endogenous variables Y given a set of exogenous variables U with distribution P(U). Formally, $Y_j = f_j(Y_{pa(Y_j)}, U_j)$





Linear Additive Noise Model

A Linear Additive Noise Model (ANM) is a structural causal model where the functional mechanisms are linear.

Formally, given a matrix $W \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$,

$$Y_j = \sum_{Y_i \in \text{pa}(Y_j)} w_{ij} Y_i + U_j$$





Computing Counterfactuals in SCMs

Given a fully specified SCM, we can directly compute counterfactuals using the following three-step procedure:

- 1. Abduction. Update the exogenous distribution P(U|Y) given the evidence Y.
- 2. Action. Intervene on the treatment applying $do(Y_1)$ on the SCM.
- 3. **Prediction**. Infer the probability of the outcome given the new treatment as in $P(Y_2|do(Y_1), U) \cdot P(U|Y)$.



Wrap-Up

- The "ladder of causation" determines the relation between models and queries on a system:
 - **Probabilistic** Queries $P(Y_2|Y_1) \rightarrow Bayesian$ Networks
 - Interventional Queries $P(Y_2|do(Y_1)) \rightarrow Causal Bayesian$ Networks
 - **Counterfactual** Queries $P(Y_2|do(Y_1), Y) \rightarrow$ **Structural Causal** Models
- When they are **identifiable**, different causal models provides a solution to **answer causal queries**.
- How to learn Bayesian Networks, Causal Bayesian Networks and Structural Causal Models from data? Tomorrow!

