Inferring causality from passive observations

Dominik Janzing

Max Planck Institute for Intelligent Systems Tübingen, Germany

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Outline

- **()** why the relation between statistics and causality is tricky
- causal inference using conditional independences (statistical and general)
- causal inference using other properties of joint distributions
- causal inference in time series, quantifying causal strength
- **6** why causal problems matter for prediction

Part 3: causal inference using other properties of joint distributions

- intuitive approach to distinguishing cause and effect
- new foundations of causal inference
- additive noise based causal inference
- information-geometric causal inference

Intuitive approach to distinguishing cause and effect









Y (Solar Radiation) \rightarrow X (Temperature)





 $X (Age) \rightarrow Y (Income)$

Consider two decompositions of P(X, Y):

P(X)P(Y|X) or P(Y)P(X|Y),

- does one of it look simpler than the other?
- if yes, assume this to be the causal direction

Implementing this idea is a challenging research program:

- defining simplicity/complexity
- estimating it from finite data
- justifying why this is related to causality

Particularly nice toy examples (1)

Janzing & Schölkopf: Causal inference using the algorithmic Markov condition, IEEE TIT 2010 Let X be binary and Y real-valued. Observe that both P(Y|X = 0) and P(Y|X = 1) are Gaussians with different mean:



 $X \rightarrow Y$ more plausible:

- simple effect of X: shift the mean of Y
- if Y was the cause it would be implausible that conditioning on X separates the two modes of P(Y)

Particularly nice toy examples (2)

Let P(Y) be Gaussian and X = 1 above a certain threshold y_0 :



$Y \rightarrow X$ more plausible:

- simple effect of Y: set X via a threshold
- P(Y|X = 0) and P(Y|X = 1) look strange (truncated Gaussians)

Philosophical basis for new methods

- so far, it seems arbitrary how to defined simplicity/complexity
- we will recall and criticise the justification of faithfulness
- we replace faithfulness with a principle that we consider more fundamental

Justifying faithfulness

Unfaithful distributions occur with probability zero if

- nature chooses each $P(X_j|PA_j)$ independently
- each P(X_j|PA_j) is chosen from a probability density in parameter space (e.g. uniform distribution)

here the parameter space of each conditional is a subset of \mathbb{R}^k with $k := \{x_j\}^{\{pa_j\}}$ (see next slide)

C. Meek: Strong completeness and faithfulness in Bayesian networks. (UAI 1995)

What we mean by parameter space



Consider the DAG

with binary Z, X, Y.

- P(Z) is described by the value P(Z = 1) (parameter space: [0, 1])
- P(X|Z) is described by the values P(X = 1|Z = 0), P(X = 1|Z = 1)(parameter space: $[0, 1]^2$)
- P(Y|X,Z) is described by the values P(Y = 1|X = i, Z = j) with i, j ∈ {0,1} (parameter space: [0,1]⁴)

in total: 7 free parameters, set of parameters that induce unfaithful distributions is a lower dimensional submanifold in this 7-dimensional space. There are cases of obvious parameter tuning that do not generate additional independences
 (⇒ faithfulness is too weak)

 Not every violation of faithfulness is due to parameter tuning since we do not believe in *densities* on the parameter space (⇒ faithfulness is too strong)

Why faithfulness is too weak

recall the motivating example:



we reject $X \rightarrow Y$ not only because $Y \rightarrow X$ yields simpler explanations for the shape of the distribution, but

For $X \to Y$ generation of P(X, Y) requires tuning

look what happens if we change P(X):



Hence, reject $X \to Y$ because it requires tuning of P(X) relative to P(Y|X). Faithfulness would accept both causal directions.

Why faithfulness is too strong

Consider deterministic relations

$$X \longrightarrow Y \longrightarrow Z$$
$$Y = f(X)$$

- unfaithful because ... (homework for today)
- but there is no adjustment between P(X), P(Y|X), P(Z|Y)
- only P(Y|X) is 'non-generic'

We don't want to reject non-generic conditionals, we only want to reject non-generic **relations** between conditionals

New foundations of new inference rules

Algorithmic independence of conditionals

The **shortest** description of $P(X_1, ..., X_n)$ is given by **separate** descriptions of $P(X_j | PA_j)$.

(Here, description length = Kolmogorov complexity)

Janzing, Schölkopf: Causal inference using the algorithmic Markov condition, IEEE TIT (2010). Lemeire, Janzing: Replacing causal faithfulness with the algorithmic independence of conditionals, Minds & Machines (2012).

Recall: causal Principle

If two strings x and y are algorithmically dependent then either



- every algorithmic dependence is due to a causal relation
- algorithmic analog to Reichenbach's principle of common cause
- distinction between 3 cases: use conditional independences on more than 2 objects

Apply the causal principle to conditionals

 $K(P(X_j|PA_j))$ denotes the length of the shortest program computing $P(x_j|pa_j)$ from (x_j, pa_j) .

• If nature chooses each mechanism $P(X_j|PA_j)$ independently they are algorithmically independent, e.g.,

$$I(P(X_j|PA_j): P(X_1|PA_1), P(X_2|PA_2), \dots) \stackrel{+}{=} 0 \quad \forall j.$$

• equivalent to

$$K(P(X_1,\ldots,X_n)) \stackrel{+}{=} \sum_{j=1}^n K(P(X_j|PA_j))$$

(shortest description of the joint is given by separate descriptions of the causal conditionals)

Bivariate case

If $X \to Y$ then

$$I(P(X):P(Y|X))\stackrel{+}{=} 0$$

P(X) contains no information about P(Y|X) and vice versa. (note: here we are not talking about information in the sense of Shannon mutual information)

Equivalent formulation

- Describing both P(X) and P(Y|X) describes P(X, Y).
- Moreover, describing P(X, Y) describes P(X) and P(Y|X).
- Therefore,

$$K(P(X), P(Y|X)) \stackrel{+}{=} K(P(X, Y)).$$

• Thus,

$$K(P(X)) + K(P(Y|X)) \stackrel{+}{=} K(P(X), P(Y|X)),$$

is equivalent to

$$K(P(X)) + K(Y|X)) \stackrel{+}{=} K(P(X,Y)).$$

• Hence, the algorithmic independence of P(X) and P(Y|X) is equivalent to

$$K(P(X,Y)) \stackrel{+}{=} K(P(X)) + K(P(Y|X)).$$

Relation to Occam's Razor

Note:

$$K(P(X,Y)) \stackrel{+}{=} K(P(X)) + K(P(Y|X)).$$

implies

$$K(P(X)) + K(P(Y|X)) \le K(P(Y)) + K(P(X|Y)).$$

but not vice versa.

Revisiting the motivating example



Knowing P(Y|X), there is a short description of P(X), namely 'the unique distribution for which $\sum_{x} P(Y|x)P(x)$ is Gaussian'.

we apply the principle of algorithmically independent conditionals:

- find notions of dependence of conditionals that capture essential aspects
- use it as a foundation/justification of new inference rules

Some new inference rules...

...that can also be justified by our philosophical principle

Additive noise based causal inference

Linear non-Gaussian models

Kano & Shimizu 2003

Theorem

Let $X \not\perp Y$. Then P(X, Y) admits linear models in both directtion, i.e.,

$$Y = \alpha X + U_Y \text{ with } U_Y \perp X$$

$$X = \beta Y + U_X \text{ with } U_X \perp Y$$

if and only if P(X, Y) is bivariate Gaussian

- if P(X, Y) is non-Gaussian, there can be a linear model in at most one direction.
- LINGAM: causal direction is the one that admits a linear model

Intuitive example:

Let X and U_Y be uniformly distributed. Then $Y = \alpha X + U_Y$ induces uniform distribution on a diamond (left):



uniformly distributed Y and U_X with $X = \beta Y + U_X$ induces the diamond on the right.

Proof via Darmois-Skitovic

Theorem Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be independent random variables and $Y_1 := a_1X_1 + \cdots + a_nX_n$ $Y_2 := b_1X_1 + \cdots + b_nX_n$ be independent. Then each X_i with $a_ib_i \neq 0$ is Gaussian.

proof involves Fourier transforms of probability distributions

Example for Darmois-Skitovic

Let P(X, Y) = P(X)P(Y) be uniform on $[0, 1]^2$



rotating the axis by a generic angle generates dependences between X and Y (although they are still uncorrelated)

Proof of Theorem 1

- Assume independence of $Y \alpha X$ and X.
- Assume independence of $X \beta Y$ and Y.
- Set

$$\begin{array}{rcl} X_1 & := & X \\ X_2 & := & Y - \alpha X \end{array}$$

• Set

$$\begin{array}{rcl} Y_1 & := & Y \\ Y_2 & := & X - \beta Y \, . \end{array}$$

 Then Y₁ and Y₂ can be written as linear combinations of X₁ and X₂. If X₁ or X₂ are non-Gaussian, then Y₁ and Y₂ cannot be independent. Jutten & Hérault 1991

Theorem

Let $\mathbf{U} := (U_1, \ldots, U_n)$ be independent non-Gaussian random variables and $\mathbf{X} := A\mathbf{U}$ where A is an $n \times n$ matrix. Then \mathbf{U} can be determined from \mathbf{X} up to permutation and rescaling of components U_j .

follows from Darmois-Skitovic

Application: blind source separation

e.g. Hyvärinen 1998

- *n* microphones record *n* speakers simultaneously.
- due to the different distance, each speaker *j* occurs with different weight A_{ij} in microphone *i*



ICA recovers the signal of each speaker

Applications of LINGAM

- applications in brain research (e.g. fMRI data) are considered promising by several people (see e.g. talks of Hyvärinen)
- supported by positive results on simulated data where LINGAM performed better than traditional methods like Granger causality)
- not easy to find data with known ground truth

LINGAM as a special case of ICA

Let $P(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ be generated by the linear structural equation

$$X_i = \sum_j b_{ij} X_j + U_i$$
 with independent U_i ,

where the set of non-zero b_{ij} define a DAG G. Then G can be uniquely identified from $P(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$:

- write structural equation as $\mathbf{X} = B\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{U}$
- hence $(1 B)\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}$
- rewrite as $\mathbf{X} = (1 B)^{-1} \mathbf{U}$
- define $A := (1 B)^{-1}$ to obtain usual ICA problem
- no ambiguity regarding permuting and scaling U_j: all diagonal entries of 1 – B are 1 (B is lower triangular with respect to an appropriate ordering of nodes, therefore inverse is easy to see)
- compute $B = 1 A^{-1}$ to recover the structural equation

Distinguishing cause and effect via ICA/LINGAM

Assume

$$\begin{array}{rcl} X &=& U_X \\ Y &=& \alpha X + U_Y \,, \end{array}$$

where U_X and U_Y are independent 'sources'.

• Hence,

$$X = U_X$$

$$Y = \alpha U_X + U_Y$$

• The cause X contains only one source and the effect Y contains both sources.

Analogy to blind source separation problem



- The cause is like a microphone that receives only the signal from 1 speaker
- The effect receives signal from both speakers
- ICA can easy decide which one is which

Non-linear additive noise based inference Hoyer, Janzing, Peters, Schölkopf, 2008

 Assume that the effect is a function of the cause up to an additive noise term that is statistically independent of the cause:

$$Y = f(X) + E$$
 with $E \perp X$



• there will, in the generic case, be no model

$$X = g(Y) + \tilde{E}$$
 with $\tilde{E} \perp Y$,

even if f is invertible! (proof is non-trivial)

Note...

$$Y = f(X, E)$$
 with $E \perp X$ can model any conditional $P(Y|X)$

$$Y = f(X) + E$$
 with $E \perp X$

restricts the class of possible P(Y|X)

Intuition

- additive noise model from X to Y imposes that the width of noise is constant in x.
- for non-linear f, the width of noise wont't be constant in y at the same time.



Causal inference method:

Prefer the causal direction that can better be fit with an additive noise model.

Implementation:

- Compute a function f as non-linear regression of Y on X, i.e.,
 f(x) := E(Y|x).
- Compute the residual

$$E := Y - f(X)$$

• check whether *E* and *X* are statistically independent (uncorrelated is not sufficient, method requires tests that are able to detect higher order dependences)

Why f is given by the conditional expectation

If Y - f(X) should be independent of X, its expectation needs to be independent of X, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}[Y - f(x)|x]$$

needs to be constant in x.

 Assume 𝔅[Y − f(x)|x] = 0 without loss of generality because this changes only the offset of the noise

• Hence, $\mathbb{E}[Y|x] = f(x)$.

Justifying additive noise based causal inference

Assume Y = f(X) + E with $E \perp X$

• Then P(Y) and P(X|Y) are related:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \log p(y) = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \log p(x|y) - \frac{1}{f'(x)} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} \log p(x|y).$$

 $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \log p(y) \text{ can be computed from } p(x|y) \text{ knowing } f'(x_0)$ for one specific x_0

- Given P(X|Y), P(Y) has a short description.
- We reject $Y \to X$ provided that P(Y) is complex

Janzing, Steudel, OSID (2010)

Cause-effect pairs

- http://webdav.tuebingen.mpg.de/cause-effect/
- contains currently 86 data sets with X, Y where we believe to know whether X → Y or Y → X, e.g.

day in the year	\rightarrow	temperature
age of snails	\rightarrow	length
drinking water access	\rightarrow	infant mortality rate
open http connections	\rightarrow	bytes sent
outside room temperature	\rightarrow	inside room temperature
age of humans	\rightarrow	wage per hour

- goal: collect more pairs, diverse domains
- ground truth should be obvious to non-experts

Additive noise based inference...

- about 70% correct decisions for 70 cause-effect pairs with known ground truth
- fraction even better if we allow "no decision"
- we do not claim that noise is always additive in real life, but if it is for one direction this is unlikely to be the wrong one
- generalization to *n* variables outperformed PC

(Peters, Mooij, Janzing, Schölkopf UAI 2011)

generalization to time series

(Peters, Janzing, Schölkopf NIPS 2013)

 note the paradigm shift: a model is good if the noise is independent, not if the noise is small (if it's dependent it may not be noise?)

Peters et al. 2014

- Step 1: find a causal order
- Step 2: drop unnecessary edges in the corresponding complete DAG

i.e., find $\pi \in S_n$ such that there is no arrow $X_{\pi(i)} o X_{\pi(j)}$ for $\pi(i) > \pi(j)$

• compute regression for each X_j:

$$X_j = f(X_1,\ldots,X_{j-1},X_{j+1},\ldots,X_n) + E_j$$

- check dependence between E_j and X_j
- let $\pi(n)$ be the node for which the dependence is minimal
- drop $X_{\pi(n)}$ and repeat the procedure with n-1 variables

Apply the following procedure to each node $X_{\pi(j)}$:

- for each $X_{\pi(j)}$ let the parents be all its predecessors w.r.t. order π
- e check each parent whether removing it still yields independent noise
- **③** repeat 2 until no further parents can be removed

note: step 2 performs a conditional independence test. The additive noise assumption reduces it to testing independence of error term.

Application to real data

- A: altitude of 349 places in Germany
- T average temperature
- D duration of sunshine



the method preferred $T \leftarrow A \rightarrow D$

Inferring confounders with additive noise

$$X = f_X(T) + U_X$$

$$Y = f_Y(T) + U_Y$$

with jointly independent T, U_X , U_Y . **note:** contains $X \to Y$ by setting $f_X = id$ and $U_X = 0$. Similar for $Y \to X$.

conjecture: f_X, f_Y can be inferred up to bijective transformations of T

argument: suggested by a theoretical result with small noise

interpretation: constructing f_X, f_Y amount to distinguishing between the three cases

$$X \to Y$$
 $X \leftarrow T \to Y$ $X \leftarrow Y$.

Intuition

• without noise, the points describe the line $(f_X(t), f_Y(t))$



- independent noise U_X and U_Y is added in X and Y directions
- original line can be obtained by deconvolution with an appropriate product distribution

Let P(X, Y) be generated by

$$Y = g(f(X) + U)$$
 with $U \perp X$.

Then there is in the generic case no triple $\tilde{g}, \tilde{f}, \tilde{U}$ such that

$$X = \tilde{g}(\tilde{f}(Y) + \tilde{U})$$
 with $\tilde{U} \perp Y$.



employing properties of the noise

is not the only way

of inferring causal directions

 \rightarrow look at the noiseless case...

Information-geometric causal inference

Inferring deterministic causality

- Problem: infer whether Y = f(X) or $X = f^{-1}(Y)$ is the right causal model
- Idea: if X → Y then f and the density p_X are chosen independently "by nature"
- Hence, peaks of p_X do not correlate with the slope of f
- Then, peaks of p_Y correlate with the slope of f^{-1}



Formalization

Let f be a monotonously increasing bijection of [0, 1]

• Postulate:

$$\int_0^1 \log f'(x) p(x) dx = \int_0^1 \log f'(x) dx \text{ (approximately)}$$

- **Idea:** averaging log of slope of *f* over *p* is the same as averaging over uniform distribution
- Implication:

$$\int_0^1 \log f^{-1'} p(y) dy \ge \int_0^1 \log f^{-1'}(y) dy$$

Testable implication / inference rule

• If
$$X \to Y$$
 then

$$\int \log |f'(x)| p(x) dx \leq \int \log |f^{-1'}(y)| p(y) dy$$

(high density p(y) tends to occur at points with large slope)

• empirical estimator

$$\hat{C}_{X \to Y} := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \log \left| \frac{y_{j+1} - y_j}{x_{j+1} - x_j} \right| \approx \int \log |f'(x)| p(x) dx$$

• infer $X \to Y$ whenever

$$\hat{C}_{X\to Y} < \hat{C}_{Y\to X}$$
.

"information geometric causal inference (IGCI)"

Experiments

Rhine data:

- water levels at 22 cities measured in 15 minutes intervals from 1990 to 2008,
- pick 231 random pairs and decide which one is "upstream"
- 87% correct decisions

Note: IGCI actually not suitable for non-deterministic relations yet although several positive results have been reported



7 Additive noise models:

Let X be uniformly distributed on [-1,1] and $Y = X^2$. Show that there is no function g such that

$$X = g(Y) + U$$
 with $U \perp Y$



8 Darmois-Skitovic:

Let P(X, Y) be the uniform distribution on the below diamond.



- Show that X and Y are uncorrelated.
- Show that $X \not\perp Y$.

Convincing arguments are at least as good as calculations! (no lengthy calculations necessary)

Exercises

() Information-geometric causal inference:

Let f be the following bijection of the interval [0, 1].



Let X be uniformly distributed on [0, 1], i.e., p(X) = 1 (w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure) and Y = f(X).

- Compute the density p(Y) w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure.
- Argue in what sense p(Y) contains information about f.