

Introduction to causal graphical models

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Table of content

Preliminaries

- Causes and effects

- Probabilistic causal models

Bayesian networks (graphs and probabilities)

- Basic graph concepts

- Graphs and probabilities

- Conditional independencies in Bayesian networks

Markov equivalence of Bayesian networks

Completeness and soundness of d-separation

Markov condition in practice

Table of content

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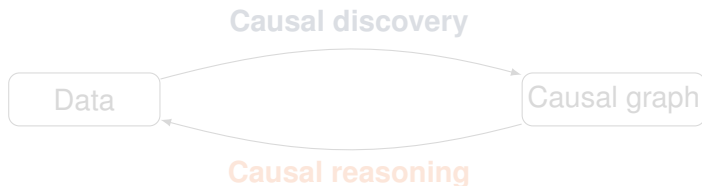
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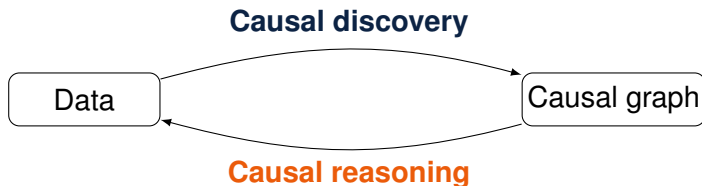
Does Obesity Shorten Life? Or is it the Soda? (Pearl, 2018)



Many applications in machine learning, medicine (science in general), root cause analysis, ...

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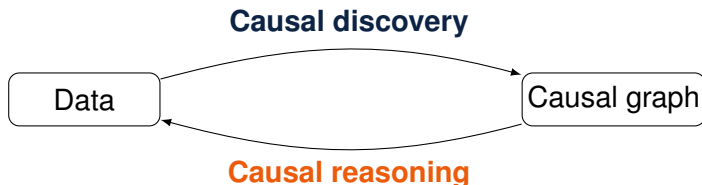
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Causes and effects

The same causes produce the same effects ..., do they?

- ▶ Smoking causes lung cancer
- ▶ The sound of your alarm makes you wake up
- ▶ Cause: I flipped the light switch - Effect: the light came on

Probabilities are used to capture uncertainty/indeterminacy

→ Probabilistic Causal Models

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→ Probabilistic Causal Models

(conditional) Independence

Conditional independence of random variables For a distribution P , X and Y are independent conditioned on Z , noted $X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y | Z$, if:

$$P(X, Y | Z) = P(X | Z)P(Y | Z) \text{ (or } P(X | Y, Z) = P(X | Z) \text{ if } P(Y, Z) > 0)$$

Illustration

- ▶ $Z \sim Bi(9, 0.5)$, $X | Z = z \sim \mathcal{N}(z, 1)$ and $Y | Z = z \sim \mathcal{N}(z, 1)$
- ▶ $Z \sim Bi(3, 0.5)$, $X \sim Exp(1)$ and $Y | X = x \sim 0.15\delta_0 + 0.85Pois(x)$

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Probabilistic causal models (1)

A tuple $M = \langle (\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{F}, P(\mathcal{U})) \rangle$ with

1. \mathcal{U} is a set of unobserved background variables which can't be manipulated
2. $\mathcal{V} = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ is a set of observed variables
3. \mathcal{F} is a set of functions s.t. f_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$) specifies X_i :
 $X_i = f_i(\mathcal{E}_i)$ with $\mathcal{E}_i \subseteq \mathcal{U} \cup \mathcal{V}$
4. $P(\mathcal{U})$ is a joint distribution over \mathcal{U}

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Probabilistic causal models (2)

$P(\mathcal{U})$ and \mathcal{F} induce a joint distribution over \mathcal{V} :

$$\begin{aligned}P(\mathcal{V}) &= \sum_{u \in D_U} P(\mathcal{V}, u) \\&= \sum_{u \in D_U} P(\mathcal{V} | u) P(u) \\&= \sum_{u \in D_U} \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, u) P(u)\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ More interesting factorizations?
- ▶ What about $P(u)$?

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Probabilistic causal models (3)

Induced graph *The graph $\mathcal{G}(M)$ induced by a probabilistic causal model M has vertices \mathcal{V} and an edge $X_i \rightarrow X_j$ whenever f_i depends on X_j . In addition, G contains a bidirected edge, denoted $X_i \leftrightarrow X_j$, whenever f_i and f_j depend on a common subset of \mathcal{U}*

Markovian causal model *A causal model M is Markovian if the graph induced by M contains no bidirected edges (causal sufficiency)*

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$P(\mathcal{V})$ does not depend on \mathcal{U} in Markovian causal models

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Example

X_1 : season (can take on 4 values)

X_2 : rain (binary yes/no)

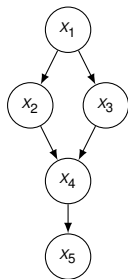
X_3 : sprinkler (binary on/off)

X_4 : wet (binary yes/no)

X_5 : slippery (binary yes/no)

Which causal graph should we consider?

Example (cont'd)

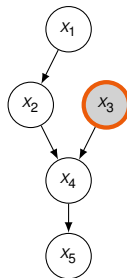
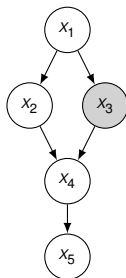


With no confounders:

$$P(\mathcal{V}) = P(X_1)P(X_2 | X_1)P(X_3 | X_1) \\ P(X_4 | X_2, X_3)P(X_5 | X_4)$$

Example (cont'd)

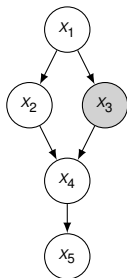
Conditioning vs intervention



Example (cont'd)

Conditioning

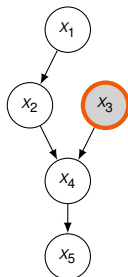
$$\begin{aligned}P(X_1, X_2, X_4, X_5 | X_3 = \text{off}) &= \frac{P(X_1, X_2, X_4, X_5, X_3 = \text{off})}{\sum_{x_1} P(X_1 = x_1)P(X_3 = \text{off} | X_1 = x_1)} \\ &= \frac{P(X_1)P(X_2 | X_1)P(X_3 = \text{off} | X_1)P(X_4 | X_2, X_3 = \text{off})P(X_5 | X_4)}{\sum_{x_1} P(X_1 = x_1)P(X_3 = \text{off} | X_1 = x_1)}\end{aligned}$$



Example (cont'd)

Intervention

$$P_{X_3=off}(X_1, X_2, X_4, X_5) = P(X_1)P(X_2 | X_1)P(X_4 | X_2, X_3 = off)P(X_5 | X_4)$$



Example (cont'd)

Conditioning vs intervention

$$P(X_1, X_2, X_4, X_5 | X_3 = \text{off}) \text{ vs } P_{X_3=\text{off}}(X_1, X_2, X_4, X_5)$$

Identification (identifiability)

Example (cont'd)

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Identification (identifiability)

Causation in the interventional theory

- ▶ A causes B if and only if there is a possible intervention on A which changes B
- ▶ An intervention on A must completely disrupt the causal relation between A and its previous causes so that the value of A is entirely fixed by this intervention

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Causal discovery vs causal inference

Causal discovery From observational data, infer causal graph with or without hidden confounders (hidden common causes) - Sessions 3 and 4

Causal inference Reasoning on the causal graph through interventions (and asking counterfactual questions) - Sessions 6 and 7

In the remainder:

- ▶ Focus on directed acyclic graphs
- ▶ Understand the relationships between graphs and distributions

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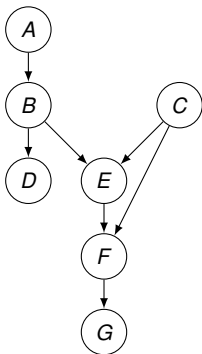
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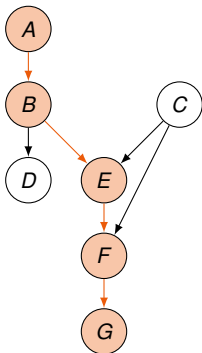
Basic graph concepts

Let us consider the following graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$:



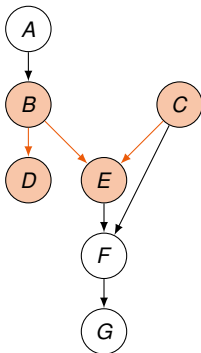
Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

Directed path: $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow F \rightarrow G$ ($A \rightsquigarrow G$)



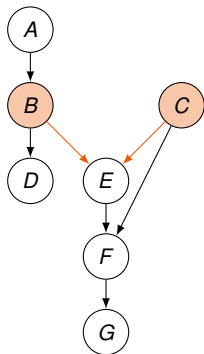
Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

Path (trail): $D \leftarrow B \rightarrow E \leftarrow C$ ($D \rightsquigarrow C$)



Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

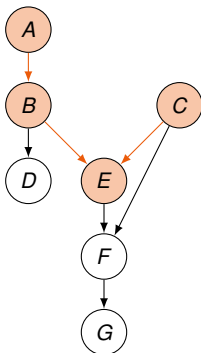
Parents, ancestors: $Pa(E) = \{B, C\}$,



Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

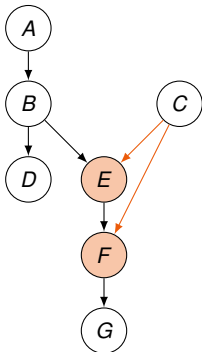
Parents, ancestors: $Pa(E) = \{B, C\}$, $An(E) = \{A, B, C, E\}$

An: transitive closure of the parents relation



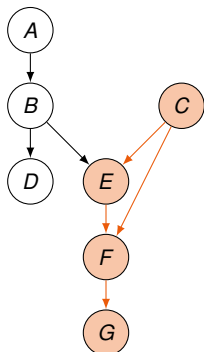
Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

Children, descendants: $Ch(C) = \{E, F\}$,



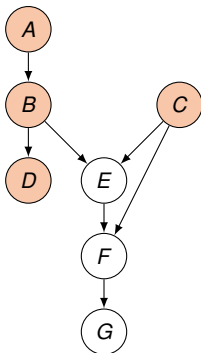
Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

Children, descendants: $Ch(C) = \{E, F\}$, $De(C) = \{C, E, F, G\}$
De: transitive closure of the children relation



Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

Upwards-closed sets: a subset of nodes \mathcal{S} is upward-closed (or ancestral) if $\forall S \in \mathcal{S}, An(S) \subseteq \mathcal{S}$



Basic graph concepts (cont'd)

Induced subgraph $\mathcal{G}[\mathcal{S}]$: $\mathcal{G}[\{B, C, D, F\}]$

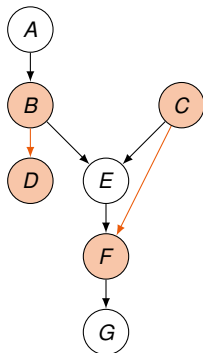


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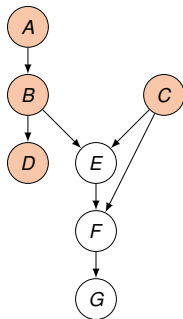
Bayesian networks and compatibility

A Bayesian network is a DAG (directed acyclic graph) $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ along with a joint distribution $P(\mathcal{V})$ that admits the factorization $P(\mathcal{V}) = \prod_{X \in \mathcal{V}} P(X | Pa_{\mathcal{G}}(X))$

Compatibility We say that a distribution $P(\mathcal{V})$ is compatible with (or Markov relative to) a DAG $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ if $P(\mathcal{V}) = \prod_{X \in \mathcal{V}} P(X | Pa(X))$. We denote by $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{V})$ the set of distributions compatible with \mathcal{G} .

Observation

Upwards-closed set If P is compatible with \mathcal{G} and $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ is upwards-closed, then $P(\mathcal{S})$ is compatible with $\mathcal{G}[\mathcal{S}]$, i.e.,
 $P(\mathcal{S}) = \prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} P(S | Pa(S))$ (proof on board)

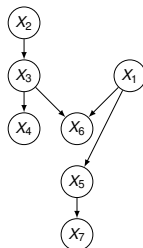


Markov conditions

Ordered Markov condition P is compatible with \mathcal{G} iff in any topological ordering each X_i is independent of its predecessors given its parents (proof on board)

Topological ordering: for any edge $X_i \rightarrow X_j$, $i < j$

Parental Markov condition P is compatible with \mathcal{G} iff every variable is independent of its non-descendants given its parents (proof on board)



Conditioning on common ancestors

Property For disjoint $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$, if $An(\mathcal{X}) \cap An(\mathcal{Y}) \subseteq \mathcal{Z}$ and $An(\mathcal{Z}) \subseteq \mathcal{Z}$, then

$$P(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} | \mathcal{Z}) = P(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Z})P(\mathcal{Y} | \mathcal{Z}) \text{ (i.e., } \mathcal{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp_P \mathcal{Y} | \mathcal{Z})$$

in any distribution P compatible with \mathcal{G}
(proof on board)

Illustration

Causal Bayesian networks

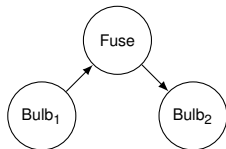
Causal Markov condition Every Markovian causal model M induces a distribution that is compatible with the induced graph $\mathcal{G}[M]$

Causal Bayesian network (Pearl 2000) Let $P(\mathcal{V})$ be a probability distribution and let $P_s(\mathcal{V})$ denote the distribution resulting from the intervention that sets a subset \mathcal{S} of variables to constants s . Let \mathcal{P}_* denote the set of all interventional distributions $P_s(\mathcal{V})$. A DAG \mathcal{G} is said to be a *causal Bayesian network* compatible with \mathcal{P}_* iff for every $P_s(\mathcal{V}) \in \mathcal{P}_*$:

- (i) $P_s(\mathcal{V})$ is Markov relative to \mathcal{G}
- (ii) $P_s(s_j) = 1$ or all $S_i \in \mathcal{S}$ whenever s_j is consistent with $\mathcal{S} = s$
- (ii) $P_s(x_i | Pa(X_i)) = P(x_i | Pa(X_i))$ for all $X_i \notin \mathcal{S}$ whenever $Pa(X_i)$ is consistent with $\mathcal{S} = s$

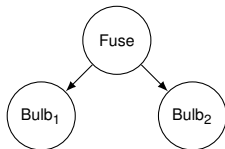
Causal Bayesian networks: example

Bayesian networks vs causal graph



Non causal graph

$$\text{Bulb}_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp \text{Bulb}_2 \mid \text{Fuse}$$



Causal graph

$$\text{Bulb}_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp \text{Bulb}_2 \mid \text{Fuse}$$

- $F \sim \mathcal{U}\{0, 1\}$
- $P(\text{Bulb}_1 = 1 \mid \text{Fuse} = 1) = 1 - \epsilon_1$, $P(\text{Bulb}_1 = 0 \mid \text{Fuse} = 1) = \epsilon_1$
- $P(\text{Bulb}_2 = 1 \mid \text{Fuse} = 1) = 1 - \epsilon_2$, $P(\text{Bulb}_2 = 0 \mid \text{Fuse} = 1) = \epsilon_2$
- $P(\text{Bulb}_1 = 1 \mid \text{Fuse} = 0) = P(\text{Bulb}_2 = 1 \mid \text{Fuse} = 0) = 0$
- $P(\text{Bulb}_1 = 0 \mid \text{Fuse} = 0) = P(\text{Bulb}_2 = 0 \mid \text{Fuse} = 0) = 1$
- $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \sim \mathcal{U}[0; 0.1]$

Table of content

Preliminaries

Causes and effects

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Bayesian networks (graphs and probabilities)

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Graphs and probabilities

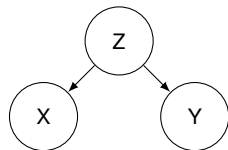
Conditional independencies in Bayesian networks

Markov equivalence of Bayesian networks

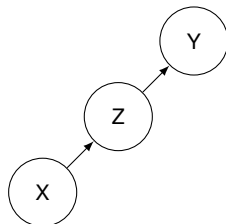
Completeness and soundness of d-separation

Markov condition in practice

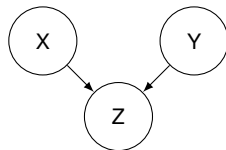
Forks, chains and v-structures



Fork



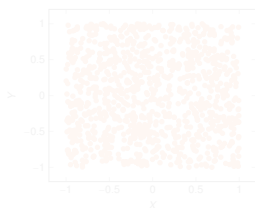
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v-structure

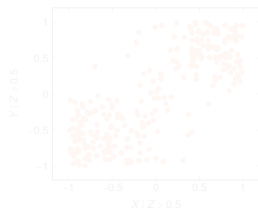
Exploiting (in)dependencies in observational data

$$X, Y \sim U(-1, 1)$$



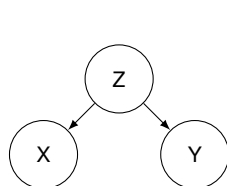
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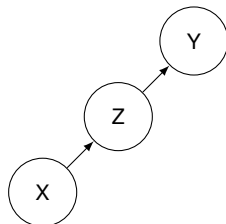


$$\text{Corr}(X; Y | Z > 0.5) = 0.8$$

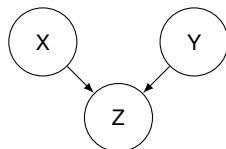
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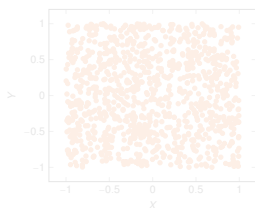
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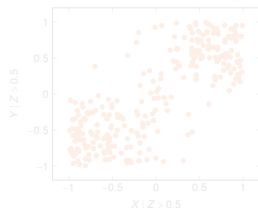
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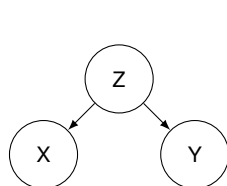
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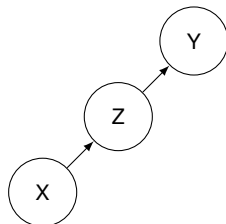


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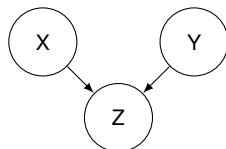
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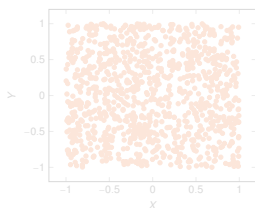
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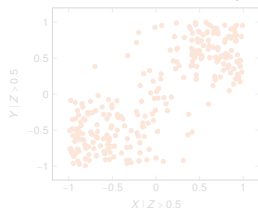
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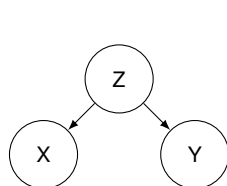
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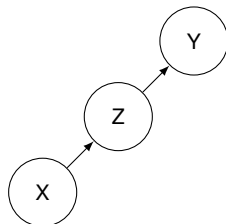


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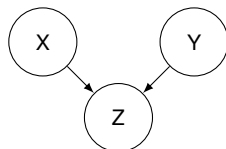
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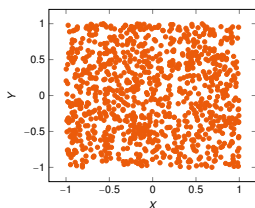
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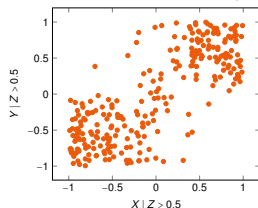
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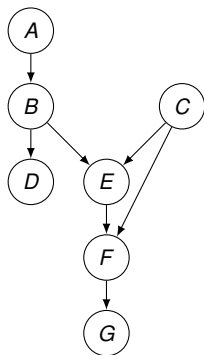
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Reading conditional independencies in graphs

What conditional independencies hold in a distribution P compatible with a given graph \mathcal{G} ?

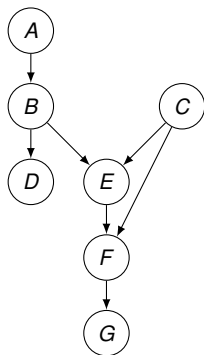


- ▶ $A \perp\!\!\!\perp D \mid B$
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By definition: $\mathcal{I}_{\text{prob}}(P) := \{(X, Y, Z), X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z\}$

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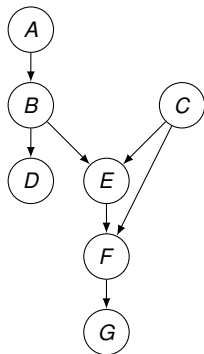


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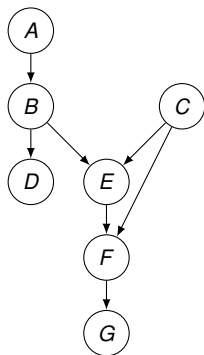


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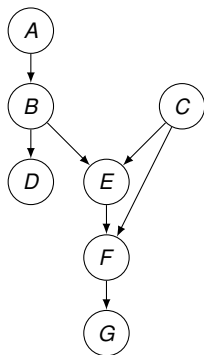


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d-Separation

Collider A collider is a directed graph isomorphic to $X \rightarrow Z \leftarrow Y$. We'll refer to Z in a collider as *the* collider. If the two parent vertices are not adjacent, the collider is a *v-structure* (also called *immorality*)

Active and blocked paths A path is said to be *blocked* by a set of vertices $\mathcal{Z} \in \mathcal{V}$ if:

- ▶ it contains a chain $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ or a fork $A \leftarrow B \rightarrow C$ and $B \in \mathcal{Z}$, or
- ▶ it contains a collider $A \rightarrow B \leftarrow C$ such that no descendant of B is in \mathcal{Z}

A path that is not blocked is active. A path is active if every triple along the path is active, and blocked if a single triple is blocked

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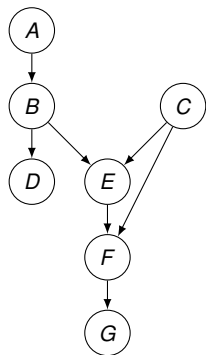
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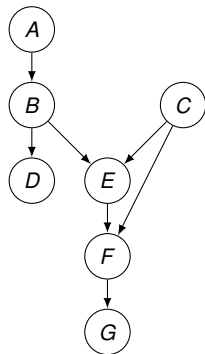
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Illustration



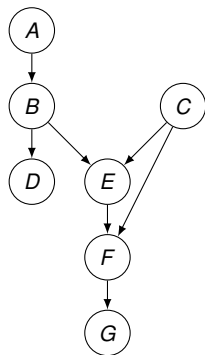
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Illustration



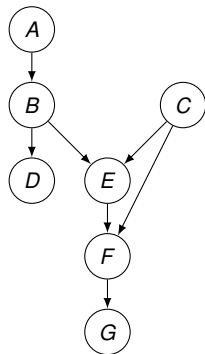
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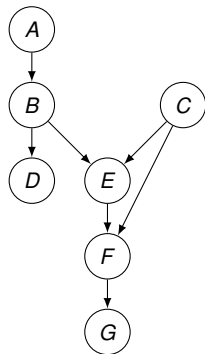
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d-Separation (cont'd)

d-separation Given disjoint sets $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$, we say that \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are *d-separated* by \mathcal{Z} if every path between a node in \mathcal{X} and a node in \mathcal{Y} is blocked by \mathcal{Z} and we write $\mathcal{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp_G \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z}$. By definition:

$$\mathcal{I}_{d\text{-sep}}(\mathcal{G}) := \{ \mathcal{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp_G \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z} : \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Z} \text{ disjoint sets} \}$$

If one of the above path is not blocked, we say that \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are *d-connected* given \mathcal{Z}

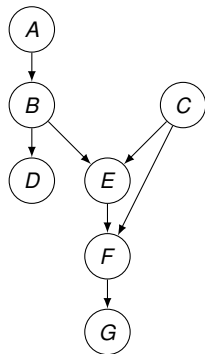
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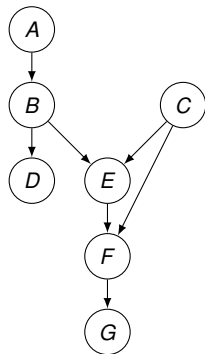
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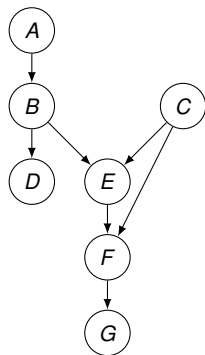
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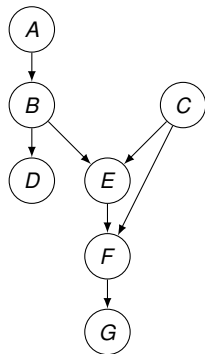
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d-Separation (cont'd)

d-separation characterizes the conditional independencies of distributions compatible with a given DAG

Theorem (probabilistic implications of d-separation)

- (i) *Soundness* $\mathcal{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z} \Rightarrow \mathcal{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp_P \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z}$ in every distribution P compatible with \mathcal{G}
- (ii) *Completeness* If $\mathcal{X} \not\perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z}$, then there exists a distribution P compatible with \mathcal{G} such that $\mathcal{X} \not\perp\!\!\!\perp_P \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z}$
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Preliminaries

- Causes and effects

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Markov equivalence of Bayesian networks

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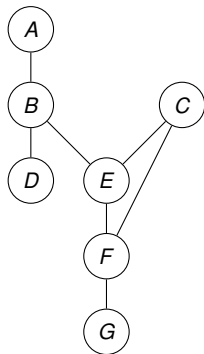
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Theorem (Markov equivalence) Two DAGs \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 have the same d-separations *iff* they have the same skeleton and the same v-structures

Markov equivalence

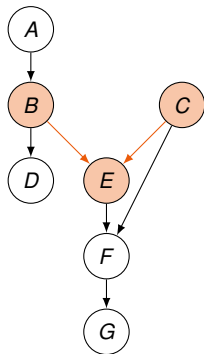
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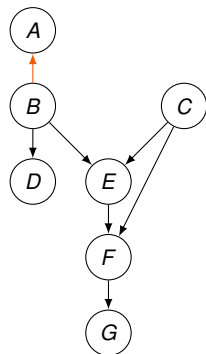
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- ▶ Skeleton is the undirected graph with same adjacencies
- ▶ v-structure: collider $X \rightarrow Z \leftarrow Y$ s.t. X and Y are not adjacent
- ▶ Flipping some edges may not change d-separation

Markov equivalence (partial proof)

Important lemma If X_i and X_j are not adjacent in \mathcal{G} , then $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp_G X_j \mid (Pa(X_i), Pa(X_j))$ (proof on board)

Lemma (\Rightarrow) Given DAGs \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 with same vertices, $\mathcal{I}_{d-sep}(\mathcal{G}_1) = \mathcal{I}_{d-sep}(\mathcal{G}_2)$ implies that \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 have the same skeleton and v-structures (proof on board)

Lemma (\Leftarrow) If \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 with same vertices have the same skeleton and v-structures, then $\mathcal{I}_{d-sep}(\mathcal{G}_1) = \mathcal{I}_{d-sep}(\mathcal{G}_2)$

These lemmas prove the Markov equivalence theorem

Markov equivalence (partial proof)

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Lemma (\Rightarrow) Given DAGs \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 with same vertices, $\mathcal{I}_{d-sep}(\mathcal{G}_1) = \mathcal{I}_{d-sep}(\mathcal{G}_2)$ implies that \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 have the same skeleton and v-structures (proof on board)

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Table of content

Preliminaries

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- Probabilistic causal models

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Completeness and soundness of d-separation

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d-separation characterizes the conditional independencies of distributions compatible with a given DAG

Theorem (probabilistic implications of d-separation)

- (i) *Soundness* $\mathcal{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z} \Rightarrow \mathcal{X} \perp\!\!\!\perp_P \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z}$ in every distribution P compatible with \mathcal{G}
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Implications

Theorem Given a DAG \mathcal{G} , $\mathcal{I}_{d\text{-sep}}(\mathcal{G}) = \cap_{P \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G})} \mathcal{I}_{\text{prob}}(P)$

Theorem For any DAGs \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 ,
 $\mathcal{I}_{d\text{-sep}}(\mathcal{G}_1) = \mathcal{I}_{d\text{-sep}}(\mathcal{G}_2) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}_1) = \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}_2)$

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Minimality and faithfulness

Causal Markov condition in practice (*i.e.* using observational data) may be too loose. In particular, one wants to impose that the graph does not contain dependencies not present in the observational data

Minimality condition A DAG \mathcal{G} compatible with a probability distribution P is said to satisfy the minimality condition if P is not compatible with any proper subgraph of \mathcal{G}

May not be sufficient to rule out special cases when the probability distribution leads to cancellation of some causal relations (illustration on board)

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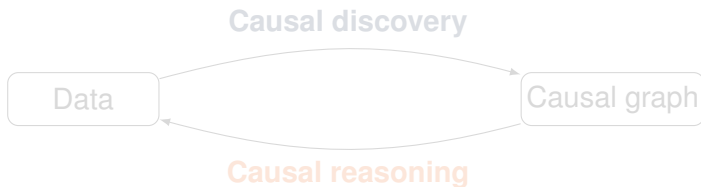
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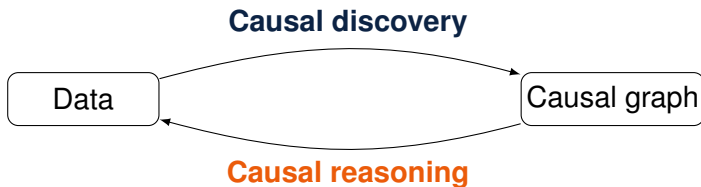
Conclusion

Bayesian networks, causal graphical models



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References (1)

Direct inspirations

1. *An Introduction to Causal Graphical Models*, S. Gordon (slides available at <https://simons.berkeley.edu/sites/default/files/docs/18989/cau22-bcspencergordon.pdf>)
2. *An Introduction to Causal Graphical Models*, V. Kumar, A. Capiln, C. Park, S. Gordon, L. Schulman (handout available at <https://tinyurl.com/causalitybootcamp>)
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Additional readings

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