Separators and Adjustment Sets in Markov Equivalent DAGs

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Abstract

In practice the vast majority of causal effect estimations from observational data are computed using adjustment sets which avoid confounding by adjusting for appropriate covariates. Recently several graphical criteria for selecting adjustment sets have been proposed. They handle causal directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) as well as more general types of graphs that represent Markov equivalence classes of DAGs, including completed partially directed acyclic graphs (CPDAGs). Though expressed in graphical language, it is not obvious how the criteria can be used to obtain effective algorithms for finding adjustment sets. In this paper we provide a new criterion which leads to an efficient algorithmic framework to find, test and enumerate covariate adjustments for chain graphs — mixed graphs representing in a compact way a broad range of Markov equivalence classes of DAGs.

1 Introduction

Covariate adjustment is one of the most widely used techniques to estimate causal effects from observational data. By a causal effect we mean a probability distribution of some outcomes in post-treatment period resulting from the treatment (Pearl 2009). The primary difficulty in application of the adjustment approach is the selection of covariates one needs to adjust to compute the post-treatment distribution.

The concept of covariate adjustments is well-understood in cases when the structure encoding the causal relationships between variables of interest is fully known and represented as a directed acyclic graph (DAG). Pearl's back-door criterion (Pearl 1995) is probably the most well-known method of selecting possible sets for adjustment in DAGs. It is sufficient but not necessary. Due to Shpitser, VanderWeele, and Robins (2010) we know a criterion expressed in graphical language that is necessary and sufficient in the sense that it is satisfied if and only if the adjustment conditions are fulfilled. This reduces the properties of probability distributions to properties of causal graphs. Based on the work by Shpitser et.al., Textor and Liśkiewicz (2011) and van der Zander, Liśkiewicz, and Textor (2014) have proposed an algo-

$$\begin{array}{c|c} Z_1 - Z_2 \\ \downarrow \swarrow \downarrow & \searrow Y \\ X \to Z_3 \end{array} Y \quad \begin{array}{c|c} Z_1 \to Z_2 \\ \downarrow & \swarrow \downarrow & \searrow Y \\ X \to Z_3 \end{array} Y \quad \begin{array}{c|c} Z_1 \leftarrow Z_2 \\ \downarrow & \swarrow \downarrow & \searrow Y \\ X \to Z_3 \end{array} Y$$

Figure 1: A chain graph (to the left) which represents two Markov equivalent DAGs: \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 . Relative to exposure X and outcome Y, $\mathbf{Z} = \{Z_2\}$ is an adjustment set both in \mathcal{D}_1 and in \mathcal{D}_2 . Thus \mathbf{Z} is an adjustment set in the chain graph.

rithmic framework for effective testing and finding covariate adjustments in DAGs.

However, in practice the underlying DAG is usually unknown. Instead several causal DAGs exist which explain given statistical data and background knowledge. For example, the structure learning algorithm proposed by Verma and Pearl (1990; 1992) constructs, for a given list of conditional independence statements \mathcal{M} , a CPDAG (Andersson et al. 1997) representing all DAGs which are complete causal explanations of \mathcal{M} . Meek (1995) extends this algorithm providing a method to compute a complete causal explanation for \mathcal{M} which is consistent with background knowledge represented as a set of required and forbidden directed edges. In this case, the resulting causal explanation is given as a mixed graph, which might not be a CPDAG anymore.

In our study we assume that the learned causal structure is represented as a chain graph – a mixed graph containing no semi-directed cycles (Lauritzen and Wermuth 1989). A primary benefit of chain graphs is that they provide an elegant framework for modeling and analyzing a broad range of Markov equivalence classes of DAGs (Verma and Pearl 1990; Andersson et al. 1997).

Given a chain graph and the pre-intervention distribution we can compute causal effects using the covariate adjustment approach. However, the challenging task now is to find an adjustment set which is common for *every* DAG represented by the chain graph. Figure 1 shows an example for such adjustment. A naive approach consisting in searching for adjustment sets in all DAGs leads to exponential time algorithms since the number of DAGs represented by a chain graph can grow exponentially in the size of the graph.

Recently Perković et al. (2015) have presented a graphical criterion that is necessary and sufficient for CPDAGs.

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But the challenge remains to bridge the gap between the above criterion and algorithmic effectiveness. In our paper we solve a more general problem providing effective algorithms for adjustment sets in chain graphs. Thus, if a structure learning algorithm gives a mixed graph then our algorithms are applicable in all cases when the resulting graph does not have a semi-directed cycle.

Our algorithms reduce the problems of testing, finding, and enumeration of adjustment sets to the d-connectivity problem in a subclass of chain graphs, we call restricted chain graphs (RCGs). This class includes both DAGs and CPDAGs and seems to remain a powerful model for analysing causal relationships. We provide a new adjustment criterion for the restricted chain graphs which leads to an efficient algorithmic framework for solving problems involving covariate adjustments.

The paper is organized as follows. The next two sections present definitions and backgrounds of covariate adjustments. In Section 4 we provide our algorithm for finding adjustment sets chain graphs. Sections 5 to 8 analyze the correctness and complexity of the algorithm.

2 Definitions

We consider mixed graphs $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E})$ with nodes (vertices, variables) V and directed $(A \rightarrow B)$ and undirected (A - B)edges E. By n we denote n = |V|, m = |E|. If a graph contains only directed edges we call it a directed graph and denote as \mathcal{D} . A DAG is a directed graph with no directed cycles. Nodes linked by an edge are adjacent. If there is an edge $A \rightarrow B$, A is a parent of B and B a child of A. A path is a sequence V_0, \ldots, V_k of pairwise distinct nodes such that for all i, with $0 \le i < k$, there exists an edge connecting V_i and V_{i+1} . A node V_i on V_0, \ldots, V_k is a *collider* if it occurs on the path as $V_{i-1} \rightarrow V_i \leftarrow V_{i+1}$, and a non-collider otherwise. A path $\pi = V_0, \dots, V_k$ is called possible directed (possible causal) from V_0 to V_k if for every $0 \le i < k$, the edge between V_i and V_{i+1} is not into V_i . If such a π contains only directed edges it is called directed or causal. A node X is a possible ancestor of Y, and Y is a possible descendant of X, if X = Y or there exists a possible directed path π from X to Y. If π is a directed path, then X is an ancestor of Y and Y a descendant of X. Given node sets X and Y, a path from $X \in X$ to $Y \in Y$ is called proper if it does not intersect X except at the endpoint. We refer to the set of all ancestors or possible ancestors of X as $An(\mathbf{X})$, resp. possible $An(\mathbf{X})$. Similarly, we use $De(\mathbf{Y})$ and $possibleDe(\mathbf{Y})$ to denote the descendants, resp. possible descendants of \mathbf{Y} . For any subset of nodes $\mathbf{W} \subseteq \mathbf{V}$ of a graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E})$ the *induced subgraph* of \mathbf{W} , written as $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbf{W}}$, is the graph on nodes W that contains an edge $e \in \mathbf{E}$ if and only if both end points of e are in W. The skeleton of any mixed graph \mathcal{G} is the undirected graph resulting from ignoring the directionality of all edges. A v-structure in a mixed graph \mathcal{G} is an ordered triple of nodes (A, B, C) such they induce the subgraph $A \to B \leftarrow C$.

To extend the notion of d-connectivity to mixed graphs we use the definitions proposed by Zhang (2008). A node V on a path π in a mixed graph $\mathcal G$ is called a *definite non-collider*, if there is an induced subgraph $A \leftarrow V$ or $V \rightarrow B$ or A

V-B, where A and B are the nodes preceding/succeeding V on π . A non-endpoint vertex on π is said to be of *definite status*, if it is either a collider or a definite non-collider on π . A path is said to be of definite status if all its non-endpoint vertices are of definite status. Given a mixed graph, a path π between nodes X and Y, and a set \mathbf{Z} (possibly empty and $X,Y\notin \mathbf{Z}$) we say that π is *d-connecting* relative to \mathbf{Z} if every non-collider on π is not in \mathbf{Z} , and every collider on π has a descendant in \mathbf{Z} . Given pairwise different sets $\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{Z}$, set \mathbf{Z} d-separates \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} if there exists no d-connected definite status path between any $X\in \mathbf{X}$ and $Y\in \mathbf{Y}$.

A possible directed path V_0, \ldots, V_k in a mixed graph ${\cal G}$ is a semi-directed cycle if there is an edge between V_k and V_0 in \mathcal{G} and at least one of the edges is directed as $V_i \to V_{i+1}$ for $0 \le i \le k$. Here, $V_{k+1} = V_0$. A chain graph (CG) is a graph without semi-directed cycles (Lauritzen and Wermuth 1989). A Bayesian network for a set of variables $\mathbf{V} = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ consists of a pair (\mathcal{D}, P) , where \mathcal{D} is a DAG with V as the set of nodes, and P is the joint probability function over the variables in \mathbf{V} that factorizes according to \mathcal{D} as follows $P(\mathbf{v}) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} P(x_j|pa_j)$, where \mathbf{v} denotes a particular realization of variables V and pa_i denotes a particular realization of the parent variables of X_j in \mathcal{D} . When interpreted causally, an edge $X_i \to X_j$ is taken to represent a direct causal effect of X_i on X_j (Pearl 2009). Two DAGs are Markov equivalent if they imply the same set of conditional independencies. Due to Verma and Pearl (1990) we know that two DAGs are Markov equivalent if they have the same skeletons and the same v-structures.

Given a DAG $\mathcal{D}=(\mathbf{V},\mathbf{E})$, the class of Markov equivalent graphs to \mathcal{D} , denoted as $[\mathcal{D}]$, is defined as $[\mathcal{D}]=\{\mathcal{D}'\mid \mathcal{D}' \text{ is Markov equivalent to }\mathcal{D}\}$. The graph representing $[\mathcal{D}]$, called a completed partially directed acyclic graph (CPDAG) or an essential graph, is a mixed graph denoted as $\mathcal{D}^*=(\mathbf{V},\mathbf{E}^*)$, with the set of edges defined as follows: $A\to B$ is in \mathbf{E}^* if $A\to B$ belongs to every $\mathcal{D}'\in[\mathcal{D}]$ and A-B is in \mathbf{E}^* if there exist $D',D''\in[\mathcal{D}]$ such that $A\to B$ is an edge of \mathcal{D}' and $A\leftarrow B$ an edge of \mathcal{D}'' (Andersson et al. 1997). A mixed graph \mathcal{G} is called a CPDAG if $\mathcal{G}=\mathcal{D}^*$ for some DAG \mathcal{D} . Note that in general, it is not true that a DAG is a CPDAG. A simple counterexample is a DAG: $A\to B$.

Given a chain graph $\mathcal G$ a DAG $\mathcal D$ is a consistent DAG extension of $\mathcal G$ if and only if (1) $\mathcal G$ and $\mathcal D$ have the same skeletons, (2) if $A \to B$ is in $\mathcal G$ then $A \to B$ is in $\mathcal D$, and (3) $\mathcal G$ and $\mathcal D$ have the same v-structures. We refer to all consistent DAG extensions of a mixed graph $\mathcal G$ as $CE(\mathcal G)$. Notice that if $\mathcal G$ is a CPDAG for some DAG $\mathcal D$ then $CE(\mathcal G) = [\mathcal D]$.

3 Covariate Adjustment in DAGs and CGs

We start this section with the formal definition of adjustment. Next we present known results for adjustments in DAGs and CPDAGs.

Let $\mathcal{D}=(\mathbf{V},\mathbf{E})$ be a DAG encoding the factorization of a joint distribution for variables $\mathbf{V}=\{X_1,\ldots,X_n\}$. For disjoint $\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}\subseteq\mathbf{V}$, the *(total) causal effect* of \mathbf{X} on \mathbf{Y} is $P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x}))$ where $do(\mathbf{x})$ represents an intervention that sets $\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{x}$. This definition models an idealized experiment in which the variables in \mathbf{X} can be set to

$$\mathcal{D}: \quad X_{1} \longrightarrow Z_{1} \qquad X_{1} \longrightarrow Z_{1}$$

$$\mathcal{D}: \quad X_{2} \longleftarrow Z_{2} \longrightarrow Y \qquad \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{XY}}^{pbd}: \quad X_{2} \longleftarrow Z_{2} \longrightarrow Y$$

$$X_{3} \longrightarrow Z_{3} \qquad X_{1} \longrightarrow Z_{1} \qquad X_{1} \longrightarrow Z_{1}$$

$$\mathcal{G}: \quad X_{2} \longleftarrow Z_{2} \longrightarrow Y \qquad \mathcal{G}_{\mathbf{XY}}^{pbd}: \quad X_{2} \longleftarrow Z_{2} \longrightarrow Y$$

$$X_{3} \longrightarrow Z_{3} \qquad X_{3} \longrightarrow Z_{3}$$

Figure 2: Proper back-door graphs for a DAG \mathcal{D} and a chain graph \mathcal{G} both with $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, X_2, X_3\}, \mathbf{Y} = \{Y\}.$

given values. If \mathbf{v} is consistent with \mathbf{x} , the post-intervention distribution can be expressed in a truncated factorization formula: $P(\mathbf{v}|do(\mathbf{x})) = \prod_{X_j \in \mathbf{V} \setminus \mathbf{X}} P(x_j|pa_j)$. Otherwise $P(\mathbf{v}|do(\mathbf{x})) = 0$. For DAG $\mathcal D$ pairwise different subsets of nodes \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} , and \mathbf{Z} , set \mathbf{Z} is called *adjustment* relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) if for every distribution P consistent with $\mathcal D$ we have $P(\mathbf{y}|do(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})P(\mathbf{z})$ (Pearl 2009).

For a chain graph \mathcal{G} , a set \mathbf{Z} is an adjustment relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) in \mathcal{G} , if \mathbf{Z} is an adjustment relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) in any consistent DAG extension of \mathcal{G} .

Relying on the definition it is difficult to decide, if a given set is an adjustment in a DAG or not. Fortunately due to Shpitser, VanderWeele, and Robins (2010) we know a necessary and sufficient criterion for this property.

Definition 1 (Adjustment Criterion (AC) for DAGs; (Shpitser, VanderWeele, and Robins 2010; Shpitser 2012)). Let $\mathcal{D} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E})$ be a DAG and let $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z}$ be pairwise disjoint subsets of \mathbf{V} . The set \mathbf{Z} satisfies the adjustment criterion relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) in \mathcal{D} if

- (a) no element in \mathbf{Z} is a descendant in \mathcal{D} of any $W \in \mathbf{V} \setminus \mathbf{X}$ which lies on a proper causal path from \mathbf{X} to \mathbf{Y} and
- (b) all proper non-causal paths in \mathcal{D} from \mathbf{X} to \mathbf{Y} are blocked by \mathbf{Z} .

Most recently Perković et al. (2015) have generalized the criterion to CPDAGs and they have proven necessity and sufficiency of this generalized criterion for CPDAGs.

In (van der Zander, Liśkiewicz, and Textor 2014) there is proposed a new criterion for DAGs which is equivalent to the AC (Definition 1). The crucial role here plays the *proper back-door graph*, in which the first edge of every proper causal path from \mathbf{X} to \mathbf{Y} is removed (see Fig. 2 for an example). Based on this notion the so called *constructive back-door criterion* for DAGs, is obtained from AC by replacing condition (b) by the following one: \mathbf{Z} d-separates \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} in the proper back-door graph. In this way the criterion reduces adjustment problems to d-separation problems.

4 Main Results

In this section we propose a method to find adjustment sets for a given chain graph. To describe our algorithm we introduce first several auxiliary definitions and notations. We refer to the nodes which lie on a proper possible causal path from X to Y as PCP(X, Y). So we let PCP(X, Y) = PCP(X, Y)

 $\{W \in \mathbf{V} \setminus \mathbf{X} \mid W \text{ lies on a proper possible causal path from } \mathbf{X} \text{ to } \mathbf{Y}\}$ and generalize the proper back-door graphs for CGs as follows (for an example see Fig. 2):

Definition 2 (**Proper Back-Door Graph for CGs**). Let $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E})$ be a chain graph, and \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} be disjoint subsets of nodes of \mathcal{G} . The proper back-door graph, denoted as $\mathcal{G}^{pbd}_{\mathbf{XY}}$, is obtained from \mathcal{G} by removing all edges $X \to D$ in \mathbf{E} such that $X \in \mathbf{X}$ and $D \in PCP(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$.

In order to create efficient algorithms for CGs, we define a new, simpler kind of paths and provide a generalized backdoor criterion based on those paths.

Definition 3 (Almost Definite Status). Let π be a path in a mixed graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E})$. A node V on π is called an almost definite non-collider, if it occurs as $A \leftarrow V$, $V \rightarrow B$ or as A - V - B on π , where A and B are the nodes preceding/succeeding V on π . A non-endpoint vertex V on π is said to be of almost definite status, if it is either a collider or an almost definite non-collider on π . A path π is said to be of almost definite status if all non-endpoint vertices on the path are of almost definite status.

The property of almost definite status only depends on the edges in the paths, not on those outside the path, and is so algorithmically easier to handle than definite status.s

For example in the CG \mathcal{G} : $A-B-C \to D \leftarrow E$ the path $A-B-C \to D \leftarrow E$ is of almost definite status. It is not of definite status, because A and C are connected and thus there exists a consistent DAG extension of \mathcal{G} that contains a collider $A \to B \leftarrow C$. We state the following criterion by using these paths.

Definition 4 (Constructive Back-Door Criterion for CGs). Let $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ be a chain graph, and let $X, Y, Z \subseteq V$ be pairwise disjoint subsets of variables. Z satisfies the constructive back-door criterion relative to (X, Y) in \mathcal{G} if

- (a) $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{V} \setminus possibleDe(PCP(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}))$ and
- (b) **Z** blocks every almost definite status path from **X** to **Y** in the proper back-door graph $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbf{XY}}^{pbd}$.

Now we are ready to describe an algorithm to find in a given chain graph $\mathcal G$ an adjustment set relative to a given pair $(\mathbf X,\mathbf Y)$. The rule used in Step 1 is applied to variables A,B,C if the induced graph of $\{A,B,C\}$ is $A\to B-C$. Moreover, recall, that a *chain component* of $\mathcal G$ (used in Step 2) is a connected component of the undirected graph obtained from $\mathcal G$ by removing all directed edges, and *chordal* means that every cycle of length ≥ 4 possesses a chord i.e. two nonconsecutive adjacent vertices.

Function FINDADJSET(G, X, Y)

- 1. Close $\mathcal G$ under the rule $A \to B C \Rightarrow A \to B \to C$. If a new v-structure occurs then return \bot and exit.
- 2. If some chain component of the resulting graph is not chordal then return \bot and exit.
- 3. Let \mathcal{R} denote the resulting graph.
- 4. Return a set Z satisfying the constructive back-door criterion for \mathcal{R} .

Using this algorithm we get our main results.

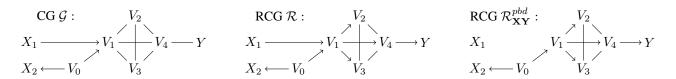


Figure 3: An execution of FINDADJSET on an input chain graph $\mathcal G$ with $\mathbf X=\{X_1,X_2\}$, $\mathbf Y=\{Y\}$. The RCG $\mathcal R$ is constructed from $\mathcal G$ in Step 1 and it satisfies $CE(\mathcal G)=CE(\mathcal R)$. The only chain component $\{V_2,V_3,V_4\}$ is chordal. Step 4 constructs the proper back-door graph $\mathcal R^{pbd}_{\mathbf X\mathbf Y}$ and $possibleDe(PCP(\mathbf X,\mathbf Y))=\{V_1,V_2,V_3,V_4,Y\}$. The (only) adjustment set is $\mathbf Z=\{V_0\}$.

Theorem 5. Given a chain graph \mathcal{G} and sets of disjoint nodes \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} in \mathcal{G} the problem to find an adjustment set \mathbf{Z} relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) can be solved in time $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$.

Figure 3 illustrates the execution of the algorithm on an example chain graph. To prove the theorem we first introduce a subclass of chain graphs. Then the proof follows from the propositions below.

Definition 6 (Restricted Chain Graph). A chain graph \mathcal{G} is a restricted chain graph (RCG) if and only if (1) every chain component of \mathcal{G} is chordal, and (2) the configuration $A \to B - C$ does not exist as induced subgraph of \mathcal{G} .

Proposition 7. If $CE(\mathcal{G}) \neq \emptyset$ then algorithm FINDADJSET generates in Step 3 an RCG \mathcal{R} with $CE(\mathcal{G}) = CE(\mathcal{R})$. Otherwise the algorithm returns \bot . Moreover the Steps 1-2 of FINDADJSET can be implemented by an algorithm running in time $\mathcal{O}(k^2m) \leq \mathcal{O}(n^4)$, where k describes the maximum degree of nodes in \mathcal{G} .

Proposition 8. If $CE(\mathcal{G}) \neq \emptyset$ then algorithm FINDADJSET computes in Step 4 an adjustment set relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) if and only if such a set exists. Moreover the resulting adjustment set can be computed in time $\mathcal{O}(n+m)$.

We prove Proposition 7 in Section 5. Next, in Section 6 and 7 we discuss properties of RCGs and provide a criterion for covariate adjustments in RCGs which we apply in Section 8 to prove Proposition 8.

Algorithm FINDADJSET requires $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$ time in the general case. But, if the input graph is already an RCG, only Step 4 needs to be performed, and the problem can be solved in linear time. It is easy to see that any DAG is an RCG. Moreover, every chordal undirected graph is an RCG, too. From the characterization of CPDAGs given by Andersson et al. (1997) it follows that every CPDAG is also an RCG.

Using our method we can solve further problems involving covariate adjustment in chain graphs: testing, enumerating all adjustment sets, and finding a minimal or minimum adjustment set. To this end we modify Step 4. Due to the constructive back-door criterion the problems can be solved by finding and enumerating separating sets in an RCG. Algorithms for these generalizations are described in Section 8.

5 Reducing a CG to an RCG

The proof that algorithm FINDADJSET, for a given CG \mathcal{G} , computes in Step 3 an appropriate RCG \mathcal{R} requires three lemmas.

Lemma 9. Let \mathcal{G} be a chain graph and let \mathcal{G}_r be obtained from \mathcal{G} after a single application of the rule $A \to B - C \Rightarrow$

 $A \to B \to C$. If \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}_r have the same v-structures, then $CE(\mathcal{G}) = CE(\mathcal{G}_r)$; Otherwise, if \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}_r do not have the same v-structures, then $CE(\mathcal{G}) = \emptyset$.

Lemma 10. Let \mathcal{G} be a chain graph and let \mathcal{G}_r^* be the closure of \mathcal{G} under the rule $A \to B - C \Rightarrow A \to B \to C$. Then \mathcal{G}_r^* is a chain graph.

Lemma 11. Every chain component of a chain graph G with $CE(G) \neq \emptyset$ is chordal.

It follows from the above lemmas that the algorithm does not abort with \bot , if $CE(\mathcal{G}) \neq \emptyset$, and that $CE(\mathcal{R}) = CE(\mathcal{G})$. It is also guaranteed that \mathcal{R} is an RCG.

The stated runtime follows from the straightforward implementation of the algorithm. Chordality can be tested in linear time by lexicographic breadth-first search (Rose, Tarjan, and Lueker 1976).

This completes the proof of Proposition 7.

6 Properties of RCGs

We first show that a possible directed path in an RCG can be converted to a directed path, if it starts with a directed edge, which is the key difference between general chain graphs and RCGs.

Lemma 12. If in an RCG \mathcal{G} a possible directed path $\pi = V_1, \ldots, V_k$ from V_1 to V_k contains a node V_i with a subpath $V_{i-1} \to V_i - V_{i+1}$ then in \mathcal{G} there exists a possible directed path $\pi' = V_1, \ldots, V_{i-1} \to V_{i+1}, \ldots, V_k$.

The lemma expresses that on every possible directed path, if it contains as a subpath $V_{i-1} \to V_i - V_{i+1}$ then in the graph there must exist a directed edge $V_{i-1} \to V_{i+1}$. Thus edge $V_i - V_{i+1}$ can be removed from the path, which iteratively results in a path in which no such subpaths exist.

From this simple lemma we can conclude properties which are very useful to analyze RCGs. Particularly, that a possible directed path between V and W implies the existence of a path between V and W with at most one undirected subpath followed by a directed subpath. Moreover we can get various of invariances when transforming the initial path to the final one, like the this that the possible descendants do not change.

Let us now consider the relationship between definite status and almost definite status paths in RCGs:

Lemma 13. Let \mathcal{G} be an RCG, X and Y nodes, and let \mathbf{Z} be a subset of nodes of \mathcal{G} with $X,Y \notin \mathbf{Z}$. Then there exists a d-connected definite status path between X and Y given \mathbf{Z} if and only if there exists a d-connected almost definite status

path between X and Y given \mathbf{Z} . Moreover both paths have the same directed edges.

Zhang (2008) proves the following lemma for PAGs, and it is not hard to see that it also holds for RCGs:

Lemma 14. A d-connected given \mathbb{Z} definite status path between X and Y exists in an RCG \mathcal{G} if and only if there exists a d-connected path between X and Y given \mathbb{Z} in one (every) $DAG \mathcal{D} \in CE(\mathcal{G})$.

In RCGs this lemma also holds for almost definite status paths due to Lemma 13. Since every definite non-collider is not a collider in any consistent DAG extension of \mathcal{G} , the path in a DAG corresponding to a definite status path in an RCG \mathcal{G} has exactly the same nodes. This is, however, not true for the other direction or for almost definite status paths.

D-separation is not monotonic, i.e. adding a node to a separating set, can unblock a path and result in a non-separating set. Thus it is helpful, e.g. for finding minimal sets, to convert a *d*-separation problem to a vertex cut separation problem in an undirected graph. In DAGs such a conversion can be done by moralization, which generalizes to RCGs in a straightforward way:

Definition 15. The moral graph \mathcal{G}^m of an RCG \mathcal{G} is an undirected graph with the same node set that results from connecting all unconnected parents of a common child with an undirected edge, and replacing every directed edge with an undirected edge.

Lemma 16. Given an RCG \mathcal{G} and three disjoint sets \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} , and \mathbf{Z} , set \mathbf{Z} d-separates \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} if and only if \mathbf{Z} intersects every path between \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} in $(\mathcal{G}_{possibleAn(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{Z})})^m$.

This also shows that in RCGs separation based on (almost) definite status paths is equivalent to other definitions of separation proposed for general chain graphs (Frydenberg 1990; Bouckaert and Studenỳ 1995) that are also equivalent to separation in the moral graph.

7 Covariate Adjustments in RCGs

In this section we prove the first statement of Proposition 8, i.e. the correctness of Step 4 of algorithm FINDADJSET, showing the following:

Theorem 17. Let \mathcal{G} be an RCG. Then the constructive backdoor criterion (Definition 4) holds in \mathcal{G} for sets $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z}$, if and only if \mathbf{Z} is an adjustment set relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) in \mathcal{G} .

To prove the theorem we show that the criterion holds for an arbitrary RCG $\mathcal G$ if and only if it holds for every DAG in $CE(\mathcal G)$. An alternative proof could show that the generalized adjustment criterion (GAC) of (Perković et al. 2015) can be stated for RCGs and that their proof also applies to RCGs. The method of (van der Zander, Liśkiewicz, and Textor 2014) could then be used to transform the modified GAC in terms of a constructive back-door graph. However, in both proofs the technical difficulty emerges that not every proper back-door graph $\mathcal G^{pbd}_{\mathbf X\mathbf Y}$ of an RCG $\mathcal G$ is an RCG itself. To cope with this problem we need two auxiliary lemmas. The first one shows that the result of Lemma 13 holds in $\mathcal G^{pbd}_{\mathbf X\mathbf Y}$ even if $\mathcal G^{pbd}_{\mathbf X\mathbf Y}$ is not an RCG.

Lemma 18. Let $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E})$ be an RCG, and let $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{V}$ be pairwise disjoint subsets of variables. In the proper back-door graph $\mathcal{G}^{pbd}_{\mathbf{XY}}$ the set \mathbf{Z} blocks every almost definite status path between \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} if and only if \mathbf{Z} blocks every definite status path between \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} .

The second lemma shows that the proper back-door graph always is an RCG, if there exists at least one adjustment set.

Lemma 19. If the proper back-door graph $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbf{XY}}^{pbd}$ of an RCG \mathcal{G} is not an RCG, no adjustment set exists relative to (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) in \mathcal{G} .

These lemmas are also useful to obtain fast algorithms. Due to Lemma 19 the algorithms can assume that the proper back-door graph RCG is an RCG, as soon as they have found an adjustment set (possible in linear time) and do not need to explicitly test the RCG-properties which would take $\mathcal{O}(n^{2.373})$ time (see the next section).

With the help of Lemma 18 the algorithms can work with almost definite status paths, which are more convenient to handle than definite status paths because testing if a path is of definite status requires $\mathcal{O}(nm) = \mathcal{O}(n^3)$ time to verify that the nodes surrounding a definite non-collider with undirected edges on the path are not adjacent.

This efficiency becomes relevant, if the input graph is already an RCG, e.g. a DAG or CPDAG, and we can skip the $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$ algorithm to transform it to an RCG.

8 Algorithms for RCGs

Recognition of RCGs. Several structure learning algorithms return a mixed graph making no additional assumptions about its properties. Thus, before further processing could be performed, it is necessary to verify if the returned graph satisfies required conditions. Our general algorithm assumes that the input graph is a CG. However, if we know that it is an RCG, Steps 1 and 2 can be omitted.

Because every class of Markov equivalent DAGs is represented by a unique CPDAG, it is possible to test if a given chain graph \mathcal{G} is a CPDAG by finding one consistent DAG extension \mathcal{D} of \mathcal{G} , generating the CPDAG \mathcal{G}' for \mathcal{D} and comparing the resulting graph \mathcal{G}' with \mathcal{G} . Graph \mathcal{G} is a CPDAG, if and only if $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}'$. Using the CG-to-DAG conversion algorithm of (Andersson, Madigan, and Perlman 1997) and the DAG-to-CPDAG conversion of (Chickering 1995) this can be done in time $\mathcal{O}(m\log n)$. Alternatively, if the degree of the graph is bounded by a constant k, the algorithm of (Chickering 2002) decreases the running time to $\mathcal{O}((n+m)k^2)$.

However, to recognize RCGs such an approach does not work and one needs to test the conditions of Definition 6 directly. The first property – the chordality of components – can be tested with lexicographic breadth-first search in linear time (Rose, Tarjan, and Lueker 1976). A naive test of the second condition, that $A \to B - C$ does not exist as induced subgraph, is possible in time $\mathcal{O}(nm)$. Here we present a more sophisticated method: Let D, U, M be three adjacency matrices corresponding to directed, undirected, resp. missing edges. I.e. D[i,j] = 1 if $i \to j \in \mathbf{E}$, U[i,j] = 1 if $i \to j \in \mathbf{E}$ and M[i,j] = 1 if no edge exists between

i and j. All other matrix elements are 0. The trace of the product $Tr[D \cdot U \cdot M]$ is zero if and only if the second condition is satisfied by the graph, since it corresponds to cycles $i \to j-k$ -no-edge- i. Thus the second condition can be verified in time $\mathcal{O}(n^{\alpha})$, with $\alpha < 2.373$ (Le Gall 2014), using a fast matrix multiplication algorithm. This dominates the time complexity of the whole recognition algorithm.

There is no need to consider specific DAG-to-RCG or RCG-to-DAG conversion algorithms since every DAG already is an RCG and every RCG is a chain graph, so the algorithms cited above can be used for latter task. For the task RCG-to-CPDAG the usual DAG-to-CPDAG algorithms can be used, because they always generate and continue on RCGs in intermediate steps.

Testing, computing, and enumerating separating sets. Before we can describe the algorithms involving adjustment sets, we need to describe the algorithms for separating sets, since the constructive back-door criterion reduces adjustment to separation.

A modified Bayes-Ball algorithm (Shachter 1998) can be used to test if a given set \mathbb{Z} d-separates \mathbb{X} and \mathbb{Y} . Thereby a standard search is performed and the algorithm only continues through a node when the entering and leaving edge form an almost definite status path. As there are only three kinds of edges tracking the kind of the entering and leaving edge requires a constant overhead and the algorithm runs in $\mathcal{O}(n+m)$.

The algorithms to find or enumerate separating sets will take as arguments an RCG, disjoint node sets X, Y, I, R and will return one or more sets Z that d-separate X from Y under the constraint $I \subseteq Z \subseteq R$. Later, using these algorithms for adjustment sets, the constraint given by the set R corresponds to the nodes forbidden by the condition (a) of the criterion (Definition 4). The constraint given by I helps to enumerate all such sets.

A single *d*-separator can be found using a closed form solution that can be constructed in time O(n+m):

Lemma 20. Let X, Y, I, R be sets of nodes with $I \subseteq R$, $R \cap (X \cup Y) = \emptyset$. If there exists a d-separator Z_0 , with $I \subseteq Z_0 \subseteq R$ then $Z = possible An(X \cup Y \cup I) \cap R$ is a d-separator.

Observing certain variables can be very expensive, so it is desirable to not just find any d-separator, but a d-separator \mathbf{Z} that contains a minimal number of nodes, in the sense that no subset $\mathbf{Z}' \subset \mathbf{Z}$ is a d-separator. The above lemma implies:

Corollary 21. Let X, Y, I be sets of nodes. Every minimal set over all d-separators containing I is a subset of $Z = possible An(X \cup Y \cup I)$.

This means that every minimal d-separator \mathbf{Z} is a vertex cut in the moral graph $(\mathcal{G}_{possibleAn(\mathbf{X} \cup \mathbf{Y} \cup \mathbf{I})})^m$. Because this moral graph is independent of \mathbf{Z} , it is sufficient to search a standard vertex cut within this undirected graph. van der Zander, Liśkiewicz, and Textor (2014) provide the necessary algorithms, and describe an $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ algorithm for testing and finding a minimal d-separator by searching nodes that are reachable from \mathbf{X} as well as \mathbf{Y} in the moral graph. Finding a d-separator that is not just a minimal d-separator, but

a minimum d-separator with a minimum cost according to some linear cost function that assigns a certain weight to every node can be done in $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ using a max-flow algorithm.

After finding a single d-separator, it is also interesting to know which other d-separators exist and enumerate all of them. For this task the algorithms of van der Zander, Liśkiewicz, and Textor can also be used, since they can enumerate any class of sets given a test for the existence of a set \mathbf{Z} in the class with $\mathbf{I} \subseteq \mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ by enumerating all sets and aborting branches in the search graph that will not lead to a solution. The runtime has a delay linear to the maximal set size and complexity of the test, i.e. between every found d-separator $\mathcal{O}(n(n+m))$ time passes and $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ between every minimal d-separator.

Testing, Computing, and Enumerating Adjustment Sets. Now we are ready to describe algorithms to find, test and enumerate arbitrary, minimal and minimum adjustment sets. For each problem such an algorithm calculates the set $PCP(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$, constructs the proper back-door graph in linear time and solves the corresponding separator problem restricted to $\mathbf{R}' = \mathbf{R} \setminus possibleDe(PCP(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}))$. The algorithm has a runtime that is the same as the runtime of the corresponding algorithm for d-separation and even the runtime of the corresponding algorithm for DAGs.

For the testing problems this means, we test if $\mathbf{Z} \cap possibleDe(PCP(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})) = \emptyset$. If this is not true, \mathbf{Z} is not an adjustment set, otherwise it is an adjustment set, if and only if it is a d-separator in the back-door graph.

For a singleton \mathbf{X} the d-separation algorithms can be used directly. For sets \mathbf{X} with more than one element, it is also necessary to test if the back-door graph $\mathcal{G}^{pbd}_{\mathbf{XY}}$ is an RCG. If not, no adjustment set exists. This test can be done as described in Section 8, but it is faster to test in $\mathcal{O}(n+m)$ if $\mathbf{Z} = possibleAn(\mathbf{X} \cup \mathbf{Y}) \setminus possibleDe(PCP(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}))$ is an adjustment set, i.e. a d-separator in $\mathcal{G}^{pbd}_{\mathbf{XY}}$. This can be tested with the Bayes-Ball-like search, which will work in any chain graph, not just RCGs. We know from Lemma 19 that if \mathbf{Z} is an adjustment set, the graph is an RCG. If \mathbf{Z} is not an adjustment set, no adjustment set exists and any further search can be aborted.

This also completes the proof of Proposition 8.

9 Discussion

We have introduced restricted chain graphs as a new graph class which includes DAGs and CPDAGs and still has an algorithmic simple notion of d-separation. For these RCGs we give a constructive back-door criterion that reduces problems related to adjustment sets to problems involving d-separation. This leads to efficient algorithms to find, test and enumerate adjustment sets as well as minimal and minimum adjustment sets in chain graphs. The algorithms are easily implementable and our software is accessible online at http://dagitty.net. It remains an open problem to extend our methods to arbitrary mixed graphs.

If a given graph is a CPDAG or an arbitrary RCG, our algorithms run in linear time. It is interesting that the problems involving adjustment sets for such graphs are not harder than for DAGs.

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