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Covariate Adjustment, Do-Calculus, and Equivalence

Research seminar on causality

Björn Sprungk

Institute of Stochastics, TU Bergakademie Freiberg

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Content

1. Calculating Intervention Distributions by Covariate Adjustment
2. Front-door adjustment and do-calculus
3. Equivalence and Falsifiability of Causal Models

Calculating Intervention Distributions by Covariate Adjustment

Objective

- Consider structural causal model \mathcal{C} with associated DAG \mathcal{G}

$$X_j = f_j(\mathbf{PA}_j, N_j), \quad j = 1, \dots, d$$

- Recall: An **intervention** is a change of assignments of (some) X_k

$$X_k = f_k(\mathbf{PA}_k, N_k) \quad \Rightarrow \quad X_k = \tilde{f}_k(\tilde{\mathbf{PA}}_k, \tilde{N}_k)$$

- Goal:** Compute intervention distributions

$$p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y), \quad X, Y \in \{X_1, \dots, X_d\}, X \neq Y.$$

Definition

An intervention distribution $p_Y^{\mathcal{G}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y)$ is **identifiable** if it can be computed from the observational distribution, e.g., $p^{\mathcal{G}}(x_1, \dots, x_d)$, and the graph structure \mathcal{G} .

- The observational distribution involves also conditional distributions $p_{X_j}^{\mathcal{G}}(x_j \mid X_k = x_k)$
- We will consider two different approaches to compute identifiable intervention distributions:
 1. by **covariate adjustment**
 2. by the **front-door formula** (special case of do-calculus)

A useful invariance and the manipulation formula

- From the definition of structural causal models it follows for an SCM \mathfrak{C} that

$$p^{\mathfrak{C}}(x_j \mid \mathbf{PA}_j) = p^{\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}}(x_j \mid \mathbf{PA}_j)$$

for any SCM $\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}$ that is constructed from \mathfrak{C} by intervening on (some) X_k , $k \neq j$.

- Using the Markov property and the above invariance we thus obtain

$$p^{\mathfrak{C}; \text{do}(X_k := \tilde{N}_k)}(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \prod_{j=1}^d p^{\mathfrak{C}; \text{do}(X_k := \tilde{N}_k)}(x_j \mid \mathbf{pa}_j) = \tilde{p}(x_k) \prod_{j \neq k} p^{\mathfrak{C}}(x_j \mid \mathbf{pa}_j)$$

where \tilde{p} denotes density of \tilde{N}_k

- **Special and important case:**

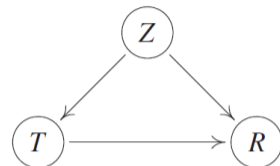
$$p^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X_k := x)}(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \begin{cases} \prod_{j \neq k} p^{\mathcal{E}}(x_j \mid \mathbf{pa}_j), & \text{if } x_k = x, \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

- For so-called “source nodes”, i.e., nodes with parents we can now show that **intervening** is equal to **conditioning**: Let X_1 be a source node, then

$$\begin{aligned} p^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X_1 := x)}(x_1, \dots, x_d) &= \mathbf{1}_{\{x\}}(x_1) \prod_{j \neq k} p^{\mathcal{E}}(x_j \mid \mathbf{pa}_j) \\ &= \frac{p^{\mathcal{E}}(x_1 \mid X_1 = x) \prod_{j \neq k} p^{\mathcal{E}}(x_j \mid \mathbf{pa}_j)}{p^{\mathcal{E}}(x_1 \mid X_1 = x)} \\ &= p^{\mathcal{E}}(x_1, \dots, x_d \mid X_1 = x) \end{aligned}$$

Example: Kidney stones

| | Overall | Patients with small stones | Patients with large stones |
|------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Treatment <i>a</i> : Open surgery | 78% (273/350) | 93% (81/87) | 73% (192/263) |
| Treatment <i>b</i> : Percutaneous nephrolithotomy | 83% (289/350) | 87% (234/270) | 69% (55/80) |



Source: J. Peters et al. *Elements of Causal Inference*. MIT Press, 2017.

- Let Z be size of stone, T kind of treatment, and R the recovery (all binary).
- Let us compute

$$P^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(T=a)}(R = 1), \quad P^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(T=b)}(R = 1)$$

- We have with $\mathfrak{C}_a := \mathfrak{C}; \text{do}(T = a)$

$$\begin{aligned} P^{\mathfrak{C}_a}(R = 1) &= \sum_{t=a,b; z=0,1} P^{\mathfrak{C}_a}(R = 1, T = t, Z = z) \\ &= \sum_{z=0,1} P^{\mathfrak{C}_a}(R = 1, T = a, Z = z) \end{aligned}$$

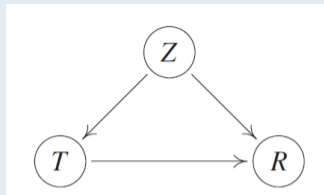
- And by the manipulation theorem

$$P^{\mathfrak{C}_a}(R = 1, T = a, Z = z) = P^{\mathfrak{C}}(R = 1 \mid T = a, Z = z) P^{\mathfrak{C}}(Z = z)$$

- In summary

$$P^{\mathfrak{C}_a}(R = 1) = \sum_{z=0,1} P^{\mathfrak{C}}(R = 1 \mid T = a, Z = z) P^{\mathfrak{C}}(Z = z)$$

| | Overall | Patients with small stones | Patients with large stones |
|------------------------------------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Treatment <i>a</i> : Open surgery | 78% (273/350) | 93% (81/87) | 73% (192/263) |
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- We can then estimate

$$P^{c_a}(R = 1) \approx 0.93 \cdot \frac{357}{700} + 0.73 \cdot \frac{343}{700} = 0.832, \quad P^{c_b}(R = 1) \approx 0.782$$

- Average causal effect

$$P^{c; \text{do}(T=a)}(R = 1) - P^{c; \text{do}(T=b)}(R = 1) \approx 0.05$$

significantly different from

$$P^c(R = 1 | T = a) - P^c(R = 1 | T = b) = 0.78 - 0.83 = -0.05$$

Remark

- This simple three-node example illustrates nicely the difference between intervention and conditioning:

$$\begin{aligned} p_R^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X:=x)}(r) &= \sum_z p_R^{\mathcal{E}}(r \mid X = x, Z = z) p_Z^{\mathcal{E}}(z) \\ &\neq \sum_z p_R^{\mathcal{E}}(r \mid X = x, Z = z) p_Z^{\mathcal{E}}(z \mid X = x) \\ &= p_R^{\mathcal{E}}(r \mid X = x) \end{aligned}$$

- We now generalize the observation from the example

Adjustment formula

Definition

Let \mathcal{C} be an SCM over nodes \mathbf{V} with a directed path from X to Y , $X, Y \in \mathbf{V}$. The causal effect from X to Y is called **confounded** if

$$p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y) \neq p_Y^{\mathcal{C}}(y \mid X=x) \quad \forall x, y.$$

Otherwise, it is called **unconfounded**.

Definition

Let \mathcal{C} be an SCM over nodes \mathbf{V} and let $X, Y \in \mathbf{V}$ where $Y \notin \mathbf{PA}_X$. We call $\mathbf{Z} \subset \mathbf{V} \setminus \{X, Y\}$ a **valid adjustment set** for the ordered pair (X, Y) if

$$p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p_Y^{\mathcal{C}}(y \mid X=x, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}) p_{\mathbf{Z}}^{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{z}) \quad \forall x, y.$$

When is an adjustment set valid?

- For any $\mathbf{Z} \subset \mathbf{V} \setminus \{X, Y\}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y) &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p_{(Y, \mathbf{Z})}^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y, \mathbf{z}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y \mid X=x, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}) p_{(X, \mathbf{Z})}^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(x, \mathbf{z}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y \mid X=x, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}) p_{\mathbf{Z}}^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(\mathbf{z}) \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, we require

$$\begin{aligned} p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y \mid X=x, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}) &= p_Y^{\mathcal{C}}(y \mid X=x, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}), \\ p^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z}) &= p_{\mathbf{Z}}^{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{z}) \end{aligned}$$

A sufficient graphical condition

- Recall the augmentation of an SCM \mathcal{C} and DAG \mathcal{G} by binary “intervention variables” I_k denoting that an intervention $X_k = x_k$ takes place, i.e.,

$$I_k = N_{I_k}, \quad N_{I_k} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(0.5),$$
$$X_k = \begin{cases} f_k(\mathbf{PA}_k, N_k), & \text{if } I_k = 0 \\ x_k, & \text{if } I_k = 1. \end{cases}$$

- In the augmented DAG \mathcal{G}^* the I_k are parentless nodes pointing directly to X_k
- Then, recall **Markov property**

$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathcal{G}^*} I_k \mid \mathbf{Z} \implies Y \perp\!\!\!\perp I_k \mid \mathbf{Z}$$
$$\implies p_Y^{\mathcal{C}^*}(y \mid Z = z) = p_Y^{\mathcal{C}^*}(y \mid Z = z, I_k = 1) = p_Y^{\mathcal{C}^*; \text{do}(X_k = x_k)}(y \mid Z = z)$$

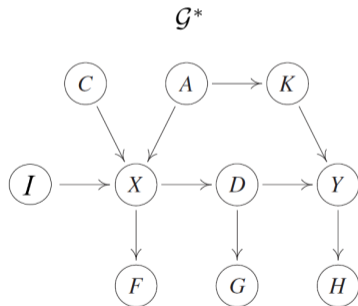
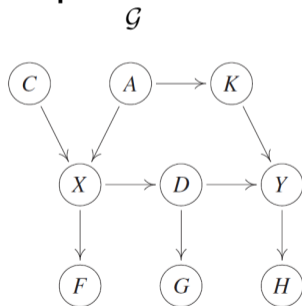
- Thus, let I denote the intervention variable for $\text{do}(X = x)$. Then, if

$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathcal{G}^*} I \mid X, \mathbf{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{Z} \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\mathcal{G}^*} I$$

we have the desired properties

$$p_Y^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y \mid X = x, \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{z}) = p_Y^{\mathcal{E}}(y \mid X = x, \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{z}), \quad p^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=x)\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{z}) = p_{\mathbf{Z}}^{\mathcal{E}}(\mathbf{z}).$$

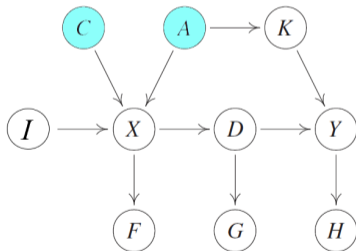
- Example:**



Special valid adjustments

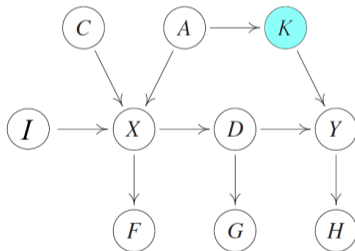
Parent adjustment

$$\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{PA}_X$$



Back-door adjustment

- \mathbf{Z} contains no descendant of X and
- \mathbf{Z} blocks all “back-door” paths from X to Y , i.e., paths that start with an incoming arrow.



General adjustment criterion

Proposition (Shpitser et al., 2010)

Let \mathcal{C} be an SCM over nodes \mathbf{V} and let $X, Y \in \mathbf{V}$ where $Y \notin \mathbf{PA}_X$. Any $\mathbf{Z} \subset \mathbf{V} \setminus \{X, Y\}$ with

- \mathbf{Z} contains no descendant of any node $W \neq X$ on a **directed** path from X to Y
- and \mathbf{Z} blocks all **non-directed** paths from X to Y

is a **valid adjustment** set for (X, Y) .

- This graphical criterion is sufficient **and** necessary: if \mathbf{Z} does not satisfy this criterion, then there exists SCM with same DAG \mathcal{G} where \mathbf{Z} is not valid for (X, Y) .
- Parent is a special back-door adjustment and back-door is also special case of this general criterion.

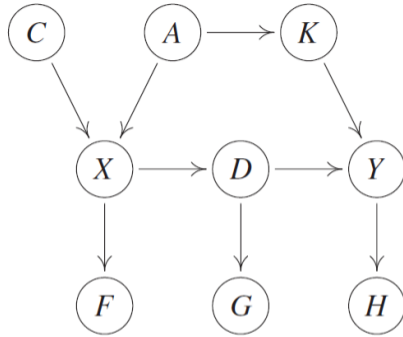


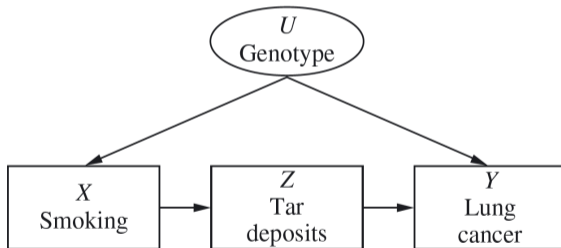
Figure 6.5: Only the path $X \leftarrow A \rightarrow K \rightarrow Y$ is a “backdoor path” from X to Y . The set $\mathbf{Z} = \{K\}$ satisfies the backdoor criterion (see Proposition 6.41 (ii)); but $\mathbf{Z} = \{F, C, K\}$ is also a valid adjustment set for (X, Y) ; see Proposition 6.41 (iii).

Source: J. Peters et al. *Elements of Causal Inference*. MIT Press, 2017.

Front-door adjustment and do-calculus

Motivation

- Often not all variables in a SCM are observable. This limits the application of covariate adjustment.
- **Example:** Assume U is not observable, then $P_Y^{c;do(X=x)}$ is not computable by (observable) covariate adjustment (back-door adjustment: $\mathbf{Z} = \{U\}$)



Source: Pearl et al. *Causal Inference in Statistics*. Wiley, 2016.

Front-door adjustment

- Based on the **manipulation formula** we have

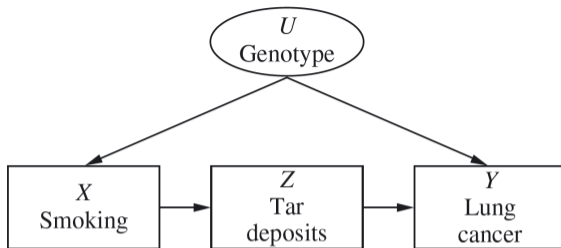
$$\begin{aligned} p_Y^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y) &= \sum_{u, \tilde{x}, z} p^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=x)}(u, \tilde{x}, z, y) = \sum_{u, z} p_Y^{\mathcal{E}}(y \mid U = u, Z = z) p_Z^{\mathcal{E}}(z \mid X = x) p_U^{\mathcal{E}}(u) \\ &= \sum_z p_Z^{\mathcal{E}}(z \mid X = x) \sum_u p_Y^{\mathcal{E}}(y \mid U = u, Z = z) p_U^{\mathcal{E}}(u) \end{aligned}$$

- Now, we apply the **back-door adjustment** to rewrite

$$p_Y^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(Z=z)}(z) = \sum_u p_Y^{\mathcal{E}}(y \mid U = u, Z = z) p_U^{\mathcal{E}}(u)$$

- But applying by applying the **other back-door adjustment** we also have

$$p_Y^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(Z=z)}(z) = \sum_{\tilde{x}} p_Y^{\mathcal{E}}(y \mid X = \tilde{x}, Z = z) p_X^{\mathcal{E}}(\tilde{x})$$



Source: Pearl et al. *Causal Inference in Statistics*. Wiley, 2016.

- We, thus, obtain the **front-door adjustment**

$$p_Y^{\mathfrak{c}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y) = \sum_{z, \tilde{x}} p_Y^{\mathfrak{c}}(y \mid X = \tilde{x}, Z = z) p_X^{\mathfrak{c}}(\tilde{x}) p_Z^{\mathfrak{c}}(z \mid X = x)$$

- This can be computed from observable variables

Definition

Let \mathcal{C} be an SCM over nodes \mathbf{V} and let $X, Y \in \mathbf{V}$ where $Y \notin \mathbf{PA}_X$. A set $\mathbf{Z} \subset \mathbf{V} \setminus \{X, Y\}$ satisfies **the front-door criterion** relative to (X, Y) if

1. \mathbf{Z} intercepts all directed paths from X to Y .
2. There is no back-door path from X to \mathbf{Z} .
3. All back-door paths from \mathbf{Z} to Y are blocked by X .

Proposition

If \mathbf{Z} satisfies the front-door criterion relative to (X, Y) and if $p_{(X, \mathbf{Z})}^{\mathcal{C}}(x, \mathbf{z}) > 0$ for all x, \mathbf{z} , then the **causal effect** of X on Y is identifiable and is given by

$$p_Y^{\mathcal{C}; \text{do}(X=x)}(y) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p_{\mathbf{Z}}^{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{z} \mid X=x) \sum_{\tilde{x}} p_Y^{\mathcal{C}}(y \mid X=\tilde{x}, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}) p_X^{\mathcal{C}}(\tilde{x})$$

Example: Smoking

Table 3.1 A hypothetical data set of randomly selected samples showing the percentage of cancer cases for smokers and nonsmokers in each tar category (numbers in thousands)

| | Tar 400 | | No tar 400 | | All subjects 800 | |
|-----------|--------------|------------|---------------|-------------|---------------------|---------------|
| | Smokers | Nonsmokers | Smokers | Nonsmokers | Smokers | Nonsmokers |
| No cancer | 380 | 20 | 20 | 380 | 400 | 400 |
| | 323 (85%) | 1 (5%) | 18 (90%) | 38 (10%) | 341 (85%) | 39 (9.75%) |
| Cancer | 57 | 19 | 2 | 342 | 59 | 361 |
| | (15%) | (95%) | (10%) | (90%) | (15%) | (90.25%) |

Source: Pearl et al. *Causal Inference in Statistics*. Wiley, 2016.

- **Tobacco industry:** The table proves the beneficial effect of smoking!
- **Antismoking lobbyists:** Smoking would actually increase your risk of lung cancer, since smoking obviously is building up the chance of tar deposits.
- Who's right?

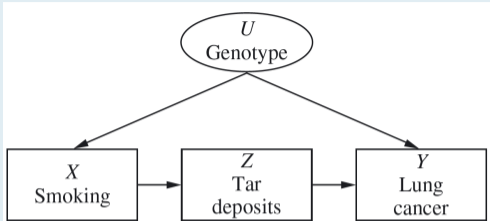


Table 3.2 Reorganization of the data set of Table 3.1 showing the percentage of cancer cases in each smoking-tar category (numbers in thousands)

| | Smokers 400 | | Nonsmokers 400 | | All subjects 800 | |
|-----------|----------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|
| | Tar | No tar | Tar | No tar | Tar | No tar |
| No cancer | 380 (85%) | 20 (90%) | 20 (5%) | 380 (10%) | 400 (81%) | 400 (19%) |
| Cancer | 57 (15%) | 2 (10%) | 19 (95%) | 342 (90%) | 76 (19%) | 344 (81%) |

Source: Pearl et al. *Causal Inference in Statistics*. Wiley, 2016.

- Let us compute the (average) causal effect of smoking on getting lung cancer!
- By front-door adjustment we have

$$P^{c; \text{do}(X=x)}(Y=1) = \sum_{z=0}^1 P^c(Z=z | X=x) \sum_{\tilde{x}=0}^1 P^c(Y=1 | X=\tilde{x}, Z=z) P^c(X=\tilde{x})$$

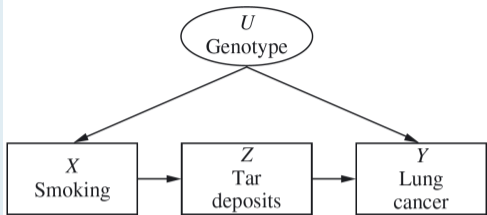


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Source: Pearl et al. *Causal Inference in Statistics*. Wiley, 2016.

$$P^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=0)}(Y = 1) = 0.95 [0.9 \cdot 0.5 + 0.1 \cdot 0.5] + 0.05 [0.95 \cdot 0.5 + 0.15 \cdot 0.5] = 0.5025$$

$$P^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=1)}(Y = 1) = 0.05 [0.9 \cdot 0.5 + 0.1 \cdot 0.5] + 0.95 [0.95 \cdot 0.5 + 0.15 \cdot 0.5] = 0.5475$$

$$0.045 = P^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=1)}(Y = 1) - P^{\mathcal{E}; \text{do}(X=0)}(Y = 1)$$

$$-0.755 = P^{\mathcal{E}}(Y = 1 | X = 1) - P^{\mathcal{E}}(Y = 1 | X = 0)$$

1. “Insertion/deletion of observations”:

$$p^{\mathcal{C}; do(\mathbf{X}:=\mathbf{x})}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) = p^{\mathcal{C}; do(\mathbf{X}:=\mathbf{x})}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w})$$

if \mathbf{Y} and \mathbf{Z} are d -separated by \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W} in a graph where incoming edges in \mathbf{X} have been removed.

2. “Action/observation exchange”:

$$p^{\mathcal{C}; do(\mathbf{X}:=\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z})}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w}) = p^{\mathcal{C}; do(\mathbf{X}:=\mathbf{x})}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})$$

if \mathbf{Y} and \mathbf{Z} are d -separated by \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W} in a graph where incoming edges in \mathbf{X} and outgoing edges from \mathbf{Z} have been removed.

3. “Insertion/deletion of actions”:

$$p^{\mathcal{C}; do(\mathbf{X}:=\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z})}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w}) = p^{\mathcal{C}; do(\mathbf{X}:=\mathbf{x})}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w})$$

if \mathbf{Y} and \mathbf{Z} are d -separated by \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W} in a graph where incoming edges in \mathbf{X} and $\mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{W})$ have been removed. Here, $\mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{W})$ is the subset of nodes in \mathbf{Z} that are not ancestors of any node in \mathbf{W} in a graph that is obtained from \mathcal{G} after removing all edges into \mathbf{X} .

Source: J. Peters et al. *Elements of Causal Inference*. MIT Press, 2017.

Theorem 6.45 (Do-calculus) *The following statements hold.*

- (i) The rules are complete; that is, all identifiable intervention distributions can be computed by an iterative application of these three rules [Huang and Valorta, 2006, Shpitser and Pearl, 2006].*
- (ii) In fact, there is an algorithm, proposed by Tian [2002] that is guaranteed [Huang and Valorta, 2006, Shpitser and Pearl, 2006] to find all identifiable intervention distributions.*
- (iii) There is a necessary and sufficient graphical criterion for identifiability of intervention distributions [Shpitser and Pearl, 2006, Corollary 3], based on so-called hedges [see also Huang and Valorta, 2006].*

Source: J. Peters et al. *Elements of Causal Inference*. MIT Press, 2017.

Equivalence and Falsifiability of Causal Models

Equivalence

- **Probabilistic models:** able to predict observational distribution of $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$
- **Interventional models:** able to predict any interventional distribution of $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$ (e.g., causal graphical models)
- **Counterfactual models:** able to predict any counterfactual distribution of $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$ (e.g., SCM)

Definition

We consider two SCM \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 as

probabilistically / interventionally / counterfactually equivalent

if they entail the same observational / observational + intervention / observational + intervention + counterfactual distributions.

Proposition

Assume that two SCM \mathfrak{C}_1 and \mathfrak{C}_2 for $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$ induce strictly positive, continuous conditional densities

$$p_{X_j}^{\mathfrak{C}_i}(x_j \mid \mathbf{pa}_j) > 0 \quad \forall x_j, \mathbf{pa}_j \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, d \quad \forall i = 1, 2$$

and satisfy **causal minimality**. If

$$P_{\mathbf{X}}^{\mathfrak{C}_1; \text{do}(X_j = \tilde{N}_j)} = P_{\mathbf{X}}^{\mathfrak{C}_2; \text{do}(X_j = \tilde{N}_j)} \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, d \quad \forall \tilde{N}_j \text{ with full support}$$

then, \mathfrak{C}_1 and \mathfrak{C}_2 are **interventionally equivalent**.

⇒ Equality of single-node intervention distributions yield interventional equivalence

Proposition

Assume that two SCM \mathcal{C} and $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}$ share the same noise distributions $P_{\mathbf{N}}$ and differ only in the k th structural assignment

$$f_k(\mathbf{pa}_k, n_k) = \tilde{f}_k(\tilde{\mathbf{pa}}_k, n_k) \quad \forall \mathbf{pa}_k \forall n_k \text{ with } p(n_k) > 0$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{PA}}_k \subset \mathbf{PA}_k$. Then both SCMs are **counterfactually equivalent**.

\Rightarrow It suffices to consider (counterfactually) equivalent SCM which satisfies **causal minimality**.

Falsifiability of SCM

- We view SCMs as models for real-world data-generating processes.
- We can then **falsify** probab. / intervent. models in the following way:
 - if the induced observational distribution differs from given data (distribution)
 - if some induced interventional distribution differs from the results of a corresponding randomized experiment.
- Falsification of SCM via counterfactual distributions is, in general, hard in practice.