Causal Graphs

1000: Introduction

Causal relations between variables are often represented by diagrams. We draw an arrow from a variable X to a variable Y if X is a direct cause of Y (relative to the set of variables under consideration). So, for example, the claim that water temperature influences the height of the water in a glass (by making the water expand or contract) can be represented by the following diagram, where the boxes are variables with the possible values they might take on in square brackets.



FIGURE 1000-1

The causal relations between the state of a light bulb, a light switch and a battery can be represented by a causal graph involving three variables:



and the relations between the refrigerator door, the light switch, and the refrigerator light by another:



FIGURE 1000-3

We use the same kind of diagram no matter whether the cause tends to prevent the effect or to bring the effect about. So we would represent the claim that an inoculation (with the Salk polio vaccine) prevents Polio by the following graph.

INOCULATION	POLIO
[YES, NO]	[YES, NO]

FIGURE 1000-4

We use other means to indicate whether the causal factor tends to bring about or prevent the effect; for example, we might place a plus or minus sign next to the arrow:



FIGURE 1000-5

This module explains how causal graphs represent, in a qualitative way, the causal relations among a set of variables. It also introduces and defines features of causal graphs that will be crucial in understanding the connection between causal systems and statistical data, for example: common cause, direct vs. indirect causation, common effect, and more.

2000: The Elements of Causal Graphs

2100: Variables

Causal graphs represent the causal relations in a causal system. Specifically, causal graphs involve:

- 1 a set of variables, and
- 2 a set of directed edges that connect the variables.

Variables were introduced in the module on Variable Causation, so we only give a brief overview here. The values of variables are properties of an individual, e.g., the hair color of a person, the population of a country. The set of values for a variable must be both exclusive and exhaustive. A set of values is exclusive if no individual can have more than one value. A set of values is exhaustive if every individual has one of the values. For example, consider the variable Hair Type with values: [Red, Blond, Short], that are neither exclusive nor exhaustive. Someone can have hair that is both blond and short, so the set is not exclusive, and someone can have hair that is black and long, in which case no value from the set applies so it is not exhaustive.

In a causal graph, we represent each variable as a box with the variable's name and possible values (though we will sometimes leave out the variable values). So, if our variables are **REFRIGERATOR DOOR** [Closed, Open], **LIGHT SWITCH** [Depressed, Released], and **LIGHT** [Off, On], then we need to have a box for each variable:



A directed edge in a causal graph is an arrow, where the **head** of the arrow points to the effect variable and the **tail** comes from the cause variable. We say it is a **directed edge** to distinguish it from an **undirected edge** :



FIGURE 2200-1

We include a **directed edge** from a variable X to a variable Y in the causal graph that represents a set of variables S if and only if X is a **direct cause** of Y relative to S.

We gave an account of "cause" in the Variable Causation and Determinism and Indterminism modules. The key concepts involve **causal assignments**, **response structures**, and a **test pair of causal assignments**. If you need to review these ideas, go to the module on Variable Causation. Here again are the key definitions:

Definition: Test Pair of Causal Assignments

If two causal assignments C1 and C2 are identical except for the values assigned to variable X, then C1 and C2 are a **test pair of causal assignments** for X.

Definition: Direct Cause

If, in a system of variables **S** there are any test pair of causal assignments for **X** in which there is a difference in the effect **Y**, then **X** is a **direct cause** of **Y** relative to **S**.

In the module on Determinism and Indeterminism, we explained how this definition still covered cases of indeterministic causation in which the "difference in the effect" amounts to a change in the probability it will occur.

Lets examine how a causal graph represents the causal relations in a system with a few simple examples.

Example 1: Switches and Lights

Consider the causal system among the variables BATTERY, SWITCH and LIGHT.

< A simulation in the interactive version of this module. >

The causal graph of this system is as follows:





Notice that there is **no** arrow from the switch to the battery, nor from the battery to the switch, even though they are physically connected by wire on the circuit. Why? Because the state of the battery has no causal influence on the state of the switch, nor does the state of the switch (in this idealized example) have any direct influence on the state of the battery. Intervening to change the state of the battery will not affect the state of the switch, even though the two are physically connected.

Notice second that there **is** an arrow from the switch to the light bulb, even though, when the battery is uncharged, changing the switch from open to closed (or from closed to open) will not change the state of the light bulb (it will stay off).

There is an arrow from the switch to the light bulb because there is **some** state of the battery, namely when it is charged, for which changing the causal assignment of the switch does change the state of the light.

Example 2: Lighting a Match

The definition of direct cause highlights the role of the other variables we are considering. Sometimes, whether an edge should be included in a graph depends on those other variables. Consider the causal graph for the process of lighting a match:



FIGURE 2200-3

There is no edge that goes directly from **STRIKE MATCH** to **MATCH LIGHTS**. Why? Apply the definition above to this case:

Is there a test pair of causal assignments that differ only by the value assigned to **STRIKE MATCH** that make a difference to the effect **MATCH LIGHTS**? No. If the **TIP TEMPERATURE** is above 350, then the match will light whether we strike it or not. If the **TIP TEMPERATURE** is below 350, then the match will not light whether we strike it or not. Thus there are no test pairs for **STRIKE MATCH** that make a difference to **MATCH LIGHTS**, even to its probability.

2300: Examples

2310: Deterministic Causation: The Malaria Example

Consider the case of malaria again. The variables in the first causal system we considered are:

TABLE 2310-1: VARIABLES FOR THE MALARIA CASE

Variable	Value
BITTEN (Was bitten by an infected mosquito)	[True, False]
INOCULATED	[True, False]
HAS GENE (Has the sickle cell gene)	[True, False]
DRINKER (Drinks gin and tonics regularly)	[True, False]
MALARIA (Gets malaria)	[True, False]

The response structure for malaria was given by the following table in the module on Variable Causation:

Assignment	Variable 1: BITTEN	Variable 2: INNOCULATED	Variable 3: HAS GENE	Variable 4: DRINKER	Effect: MALARIA
1	True	True	True	True	False
2	True	True	True	False	False
3	True	True	False	True	False
4	True	True	False	False	False
5	True	False	True	True	False
6	True	False	True	False	False
7	True	False	False	True	True
8	True	False	False	False	True
9	False	True	True	True	False
10	False	True	True	False	False
11	False	True	False	True	False
12	False	True	False	False	False
13	False	False	True	True	False
14	False	False	True	False	False
15	False	False	False	True	False
16	False	False	False	False	False

TABLE 2310-2: RESPONSE STRUCTURE FOR THE MALARIA CASE

Should there be a direct arrow from the variable **BITTEN** to the variable **MALARIA** in the causal graph representing this system? How do you answer this question? Not by guessing, not by common sense, but by applying the definition for direct cause to the response structure above.

The definition requires that there is at least one test pair of causal assignments for **BITTEN** that make a difference to **MALARIA**. So to apply the definition, first locate the test pairs, and then check to see if there are any in which the value of **MALARIA** is different.

In this case, those pairs are: 1 and 9, 2 and 10, 3 and 11, 4 and 12, 5 and 13, 6 and 14, 7 and 15, and 8 and 16. Is the value of MALARIA different across any of these pairs? Put another way, is the value of MALARIA different across causal assignments 1 and 9? Is it different across causal assignments 2 and 10?

The answer is yes. In causal assignments 8 and 16, where the variables besides **BITTEN** take on the values:

TABLE 2310-3: VARIABLE VALUES

Variable	Value
INOCULATED	False
HAS GENE	False
DRINKER	False

then changing the value of **BITTEN** changes the effect **MALARIA**. So **BITTEN** is a cause of **MALARIA**.

< A link to exercises in the interactive version of this module. >

2320: Indeterministic Causation: The Cell Phone Example

Consider the case of the Cell Phone again. In the full, deterministic causal system, there are three variables:

TABLE 2320-1: VARIABLES FOR THE CELL PHONE SYSTEM

Variable	Value
CALL PLACED	[Send, End]
IN RANGE OF TOWER	[Yes, No]
CONNECTED	[Yes, No]

The response structure for **CONNECTED** is as follows:

TABLE 2320-2: DETERMINISTIC RESPONSE STRUCTURE FOR CONNECTED

Assignment	CALL PLACED	IN RANGE OF TOWER	CONNECTED
1	Send	Yes	Yes
2	Send	No	No
3	End	Yes	No
4	End	No	No

Would the causal graph among these three variables have a directed edge from CALL PLACED to CONNECTED? Yes, because there is a test pair for CALL PLACED that makes a difference to CONNECTED.

< A link to exercises in the interactive version of this module. >

In causal assignments 1 and 3, where IN RANGE OF TOWER is assigned "Yes," then changing CALL PLACED from End to Send always changes the value of CONNECTED from No to Yes.

Now consider the pseudo-indeterministic system involving just these variables:

TABLE 2320-3: VARIABLES FOR THE PSEUDO-INDETERMINISTIC SYSTEM

Variable	Value
CALL PLACED	[Send, End]
CONNECTED	[Yes, No]

Would the causal graph among these two variables still have a direct edge from CALL PLACED to CONNECTED? How do we answer the question in this case, where the causation is indeterministic? First we write out the indeterministic response structure, and then apply the definition of indeterministic causation for variables.

TABLE 2320-4: INDETERMINISTIC RESPONSE STRUCTURE FOR CONNECTED

Assignment	CALL PLACED	CONNECTED = Yes	CONNECTED = No
1	Send	50%	50%
2	End	0%	100%

Here is the definition of indeterministic causation for variables we gave in the module on Determinism and Indeterminism

Definition: Direct Indeterministic Cause

If, in a system of variables **S** there are any test pairs of causal assignments for **X** in which there is a difference in the probability of the effect **Y**, then **X** is an **direct indeterministic cause** of **Y** relative to **S**.

So we need to apply this definition to the indeterministic response structure above. Causal assignments 1 and 2 are a test pair for CALL PLACED, and there is indeed a difference in the probability over CONNECTED across these two assignments. So, by applying the definition to the indeterministic response structure, it is clear that CALL PLACED is a cause of CONNECTED

In the cell phone example, we were implicitly assuming background conditions that include a functioning cell phone with a charged battery, etc. Lets consider whether or not the battery is charged as another variable, instead of a part of the background conditions. The system now includes the variable:**PHONE BATTERY CHARGED** [Yes, No]. So now the full system is:

TABLE 2320-5: CELL PHONE SYSTEM WITH A NEW VARIABLE

Variable	Value
CALL PLACED	[Send, End]
PHONE BATTERY CHARGED	[Yes, No]
IN RANGE OF TOWER	[Yes, No]
CONNECTED	[Yes, No]

Now the response structure for **CONNECTED** is as follows:

TABLE 2320-6: RESPONSE STRUCTURE FOR THE CELL PHONE SYSTEM

Assignment	Variable 1: CALL PLACED	Variable 2: BATTERY CHARGED	Variable 3: IN RANGE OF TOWER	Effect: CONNECTED
1	Send	Yes	Yes	Yes
2	Send	Yes	No	No
3	Send	No	Yes	No
4	Send	No	No	No
5	End	Yes	Yes	No
6	End	Yes	No	No
7	End	No	Yes	No
8	End	No	No	No

Now suppose we consider the pseudo-indeterministic system in which we cannot observe whether or not we are in range of the tower:

TABLE 2320-7: PSEUDO-INDETERMINISTIC CELL PHONE SYSTEM

Variable	Value
CALL PLACED	[Send, End]
PHONE BATTERY CHARGED	[Yes, No]
CONNECTED	[Yes, No]

Is there still a directed edge from CALL PLACED to CONNECTED?

< A link to exercises in the interactive version of this module. >

3000: Representing Different Varieties of Causation

3100: Using the Causality Lab

In the next four sections (3200 through 3500), you will learn how to construct the graphs for several different kinds of (relatively common) causal systems. You will be asked to construct the causal graphs that represent systems described to you in text. To do so, you will use a Java applet called the Causality Lab. To help you get oriented to the Lab, we have written an on-line User Manual.

Before going to the next page in this section, read sections 3100, 3200, 3410 and 3420 of the Causality Lab User Manual. When you are done, proceed to the next section.

3200: Common Causes

A variable C is a common cause of two or more other variables X and Y when C is a cause (direct or indirect) of both X and Y.

Consider the following three variables for TVs that function normally.

TABLE 3200-1: VARIABLES FOR A TV SYSTEM

Variable	Value
SOUND	[Yes, No]
POWER SWITCH	[On, Off]
PICTURE	[Yes, No]

Suppose the causal graph for these variables is:



FIGURE 3200-1

Here **POWER SWITCH** is a common cause of both **PICTURE** and **SOUND** because changing the state of **POWER SWITCH** changes both the value of **PICTURE** and the value of **SOUND**.

< A link to exercises in the interactive version of this module. >

3300: Causal Chains and Direct vs Indirect Causation

If one variable only influences another through some intermediate variable, then there is no arrow between the first feature and the third feature in the chain. For example, in this simulation, the amount of water coming from the dam through the spout influences the speed of the turbine which influences whether electricity is generated to power the light bulb:

< A simulation in the interactive version of this module. >

The water is still a cause of the light bulb, but only an indirect one. If the variables and their values are:

TABLE 3300-1: VARIABLES FOR TURBINE SYSTEM

Variable	Value
WATER	[Flowing, Not flowing]
TURBINE	[Spinning, Not spinning]
LIGHT	[On, Off]

then the causal graph is as follows:



In the simulation, you cannot actually directly control whether the turbine spins, but only set a switch next to the turbine (the Turbine Switch) to up or down. When the switch is up, then the water is diverted away from the turbine, but if the switch is down water flows over the turbine.

< A link to exercises in the interactive version of this module. >

Causal chains highlight the fact that the idea of direct causation only makes sense relative to the set of variables under consideration. In the causal graph below, for example, the variable **REFRIGERATOR DOOR** is a direct cause of the variable **LIGHT SWITCH**, and the variable **LIGHT SWITCH** is a direct cause of the variable **REFRIGERATOR LIGHT**, but the state of the **REFRIGERATOR DOOR** is not a direct cause of the state of the **REFRIGERATOR DOOR** is not a direct cause of the state of the **REFRIGERATOR DOOR** is not a direct cause of the state of the **REFRIGERATOR LIGHT** relative to the system : {**REFRIGERATOR DOOR**, **LIGHT SWITCH**, **REFRIGERATOR LIGHT**}.





Why? Because if we fix the variable LIGHT SWITCH at either of its values, then bringing about a change in the state of the REFRIGERATOR DOOR will have no influence on the REFRIGERATOR LIGHT.

If we were only discussing the system: {**REFRIGERATOR DOOR**, **REFRIGERATOR LIGHT**}, then the door is a direct cause of the light:





A variable E is a common effect of two or more variables X and Y when both X and Y are both causes of E, and at least one causal path from X to E does not involve Y, and at least one causal path from Y to E does not involve X.

For example, consider the following three variables applied to TVs that function normally.

TABLE 3400-1: VARIABLES FOR A TV SYSTEM

Variable	Value
POWER SWITCH (on the TV)	[On, Off]
REMOTE SWITCH	[On, Off]
PICTURE	[Yes, No]

The causal graph for these variables is:



FIGURE 3400-1

Here **PICTURE** is a common effect of both **REMOTE SWITCH** and **POWER SWITCH**. This is a case in which each of the "cause" variables independently causes the common effect.

When we have interacting causes, the graph is the same in structure. So the structure of the causal graph is by no means completely informative about the nature of the causal relationship. Consider the following set of variables:

TABLE 3400-2: VARIABLES FOR AGRICULTURE SYSTEM

Variable	Value
WATER (did the crops get rain)	[On, Off]
FERTILIZER (did the fertilizer get water)	[Yes, No]
GROWTH (did the plants grow well)	[Yes, No]

Furthermore, we will assume that plants grow well only if they are both watered and have fertilizer.

< A link to exercises in the interactive version of this module. >

3500: Cyclic Causal Graphs

Causation among variables is asymmetric. That is, if X is a cause of Y, then it doesn't follow that Y is a cause of X. "Is a sibling of" is an example of a symmetric relationship. An example of an asymmetric relationship among people is "likes." Causation among variables is asymmetric, but it isn't antisymmetric. A relationship is antisymmetric if the fact that it holds one way precludes it holding the other. For example, the relationship "is a parent of" is antisymmetric. If person X is a parent of Y, then Y cannot be a parent of X.

It is possible for one variable X to be a cause of Y and also for Y to be a cause of Y. For example, losing sleep can cause anxiety, and anxiety can also cause a loss of sleep. Higher wages can cause inflation, and inflation can cause higher wages. Success causes confidence, and confidence causes success. In each of these cases, we say that there is a **direct cycle** in the causal graph.



What does it mean to say that there is a direct cycle between **SUCCESS** and **CONFIDENCE**? We can just apply the definition we have given for a "direct cause" twice:

- + SUCCESS → CONFIDENCE: There are test pairs of causal assignments for SUCCESS that make a difference to the probability over CONFIDENCE.
- CONFIDENCE → SUCCESS: There are test pairs of causal assignments for CONFIDENCE that make a difference to the probability over SUCCESS.

So, a direct cycle is just when we have two variables, X and Y, and X is a direct cause of Y, and Y is also a direct cause of X. Cycles of causality need not be direct. For example, in the system including the variables LOSING SLEEP and ANXIETY, we might also include the variable: ADRENALINE. The system would now best be represented by the following causal graph, where the effect of ANXIETY on LOSING SLEEP is now indirect:



FIGURE 3500-2

< A link to exercises in the interactive version of this module. >

4000: Summary

Causal graphs provide a powerful qualitative representation of causal relations among variables. A causal graph includes a set of variables, and a set of directed edges that connect pairs of these variables. The edges are "directed" because causation is asymmetric and has a direction. If one variable **X** is a direct cause of another variable **Y** in some causal system **S**, then we include an arrow, or directed edge, from **X** to **Y** in the causal graph that represents **S**.

What does it mean for one variable to be a direct cause of another relative to a system of variables S? X is a direct cause of Y relative to a set of variables Sjust in case there are test pairs of causal assignments for X across which there is a difference in Y.

Whether or not there is an edge from one variable to another depends on what other variables we have included in the system. If, for example, there is a causal chain $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$, but A has no direct influence on C that doesn't go through B, then we don't include an edge from A to C. If we consider a system that doesn't include B, however, then relative to that system, we need to include an $A \rightarrow C$ edge.

Although causation among variables is asymmetric, it is not anti-symmetric, so it is possible for one variable **A** to be a cause of **B** and also for **B** to be a cause of **A**. In such a case, we say the causal graph has a **direct cycle**. If there is a chain of edges leading from any variable back to itself, then we say the graph has a **cycle**. If a graph has a cycle, we say it is a **cyclic graph**. If the graph has no cycle, then we say it is **acyclic**.