

The Book of Why: Review

Joseph Y. Halpern

Just about everyone knows that correlation is not causation, but what exactly is causation? Judea Pearl has spent over two decades trying to understand causation, to define it, and to develop techniques for inferring it. This work is having a great impact, and will arguably ultimately have as great an impact as Pearl's earlier work on Bayesian networks.

Pearl's landmark book *Causality* was a technical introduction to his work on the topic. *The Book of Why* is meant to be a more popular introduction to the work, as well as documenting some of Pearl's personal journey through causation. Pearl and his coauthor Dana Mackenzie are at particular pains to criticize what seems to be the predominant view in statistics (and in much of modern-day machine learning): all the information you need is in the data; if you have enough data (and enough computing power) you can figure out anything you might be interested in.

Pearl argues that, in addition to data, you typically need a causal model to help you understand the data and draw inferences from it. The model itself is best represented as a graph, where nodes are labeled by variables and there is an edge from X to Y if X can directly affect Y (more precisely, if there is a setting of the variables other than X and Y such that changing the value of X results in a change in the value of Y).

To understand how a causal model can help, let's go back to the question of correlation vs. causation. One reason that X and Y could be correlated is that they have a common cause. For example, the causal model in Figure 1 represents a situation where X and Y are correlated because they have a common cause Z , but X has no causal impact on Y .

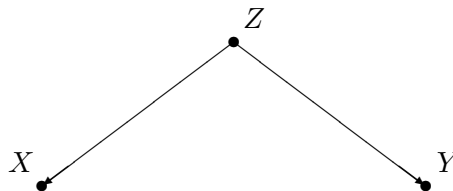


Figure 1: Z is a common cause of X and Y .

We want to distinguish this situation from the one in Figure 2, where X and Y still have a common cause but, in addition, X does have a causal impact on Y . In

this case, Z is said to be a *confounder* (of the causal relationship between X and Y).

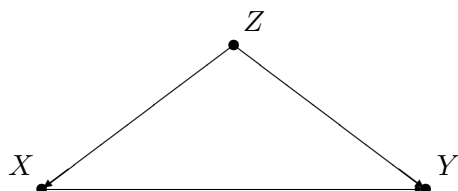


Figure 2: X and Z are both causes of Y .

The standard way to disambiguate the two situations using data is to control for Z ; that is, set the value of Z and see if then changing X results in a change in Y . We would expect that, for a fixed setting of Z , changing X would have no impact on Y if the causal model of Figure 1 correctly describes the world, but that there would be an impact if the world were described by the model in Figure 2.

It seems that by appropriately controlling for variables (perhaps using a randomized control trial), we can get back to a situation where the data gives us all the information we need. However, the situation is not so simple. Consider the causal model in Figure 3 (taken from p. 161 in *The Book of Why*). As Pearl points out, in this case, in this case, X has no causal impact on Y , but if we control for B , we will “discover” a causal impact. Controlling for B is the wrong thing to do in this case. It creates a causal connection!

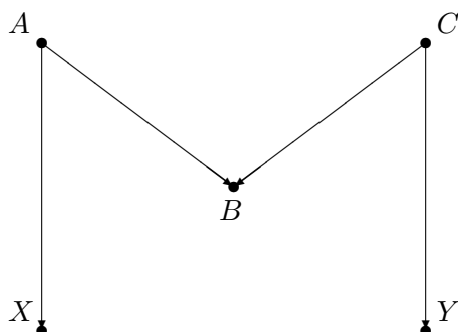


Figure 3: Controlling for B creates a causal connection between X and Y .

The point here is that data by itself may not be enough. But that leads to an obvious question: When can we determine causal relationships from data? Over

the years, Pearl and his collaborators have developed a number of criteria that allow us to do so *given a causal model*. Perhaps the best-known criterion is the *back-door criterion*, discussed in Chapter 4. Here it is: A set C of nodes in a causal network satisfies the back-door criterion with respect to nodes X and Y if (1) no element of C is a descendant of X or Y and (2) every path from X to Y with an arrow into X is blocked by (an element of) C . If the backdoor criterion holds, then

$$\Pr(Y = b \mid do(X = a)) = \sum_c \Pr(Y = b \mid X = a, C = c) \Pr(C = c). \quad (1)$$

That is, we can compute the effect of intervening on X and setting it to a (represented by $do(X = a)$) by looking at the conditional probabilities in the observational data.

The back-door criterion is an example of the power of (the graphical representation of) causal models. Pearl does an excellent job of bringing this out in *The Book of Why*. However, while I found the discussion of the back-door criterion really interesting, I found it a little frustrating not to have a clear statement of it in Chapter 4. (The discussion in Chapter 4 did prompt me to look up a clear statement on the web.)

This is an example of one problem I had with the book. When trying to write a book for the general public, an author needs to walk a fine line between giving enough technical detail for the reader to be able to make sense of technical notions while at the same time not overwhelming the reader with mathematics and mathematical notation. Of course, what counts as “enough” will depend on the reader. Some readers will no doubt think that there is already far too much mathematics in the book. Nevertheless, I think that writing down equation (1) and walking the reader slowly through what it means, using the (wonderful) examples already in the book, would, I believe, have been better for most (or, at least, for many) readers.

Interestingly, (1) does appear in Chapter 7, where the back-door criterion is discussed again, but it comes several pages after an English discussion that, again, I think would have been much clearer if the equation were introduced beforehand. Indeed, just the observation that there is a *do* operator on the left-hand side of the equation, denoting an intervention, and none of the right-hand side, would already help make the point that we are trying to calculate the effects of an intervention from data, and what that means.

As I said, *The Book of Why*, to some extent, documents Pearl’s personal journey through causation. The first few chapters cover some of the history of causality, particularly in statistics. The heart of the book then focuses on how causal models can help clarify issues like confounding and the effects of intervention, with an emphasis on the (seminal) work of Pearl and his students. Classical statistics is criticized for not having developed a meaningful theory of causality, which has

led it to struggle with issues like interventions and confounding, and answers to counterfactual questions (what would the probability of $Y = y$ have been if I had set X to 1?).

Because of the focus on Pearl's work, and particularly on how to compute causal effects given a causal model, the book does not provide a comprehensive overview of work on causality (nor does it pretend to). Still, I would have liked to hear a little more of the work of the "CMU school" (particularly that of Peter Spirtes, Clark Glymour, and Richard Scheines). I do not know the details of the history, but Pearl says that Peter Spirtes preceded him in model causality graphically, in particular, in modeling the effects of interventions graphically (p. 244), and he credits Spirtes, Glymour, and Scheines "for their help in pushing me over the cliff of probabilities into the stormy waters of causation" (p. 371). The CMU group (and others) have focused on getting causal graphs from data. Perhaps more could have been said about this.

The final word on causality remains to be written. The "causal revolution" that Pearl refers to is still ongoing (with Pearl very much still in the vanguard). *The Book of Why* is a great place for a non-expert to get a sense of the issues and how causal models have (finally!) helped put thinking about causality on a firm footing.

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