
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Identifying General Mechanism Shifts in Linear Causal Representations

A Limitations and Broader Impacts

Limitations of this work include the need to relax the noise assumption and to consider similar settings under nonlinear mixing functions. These are promising directions to explore in the CRL field. The broader impact of this work is that CRL methods can be used to identify mechanism shifts and determine root causes, which can be utilized in the biological field to find disease genes or biomarkers. Currently, the negative impacts of this method are not clear.

B Illustration of our algorithm

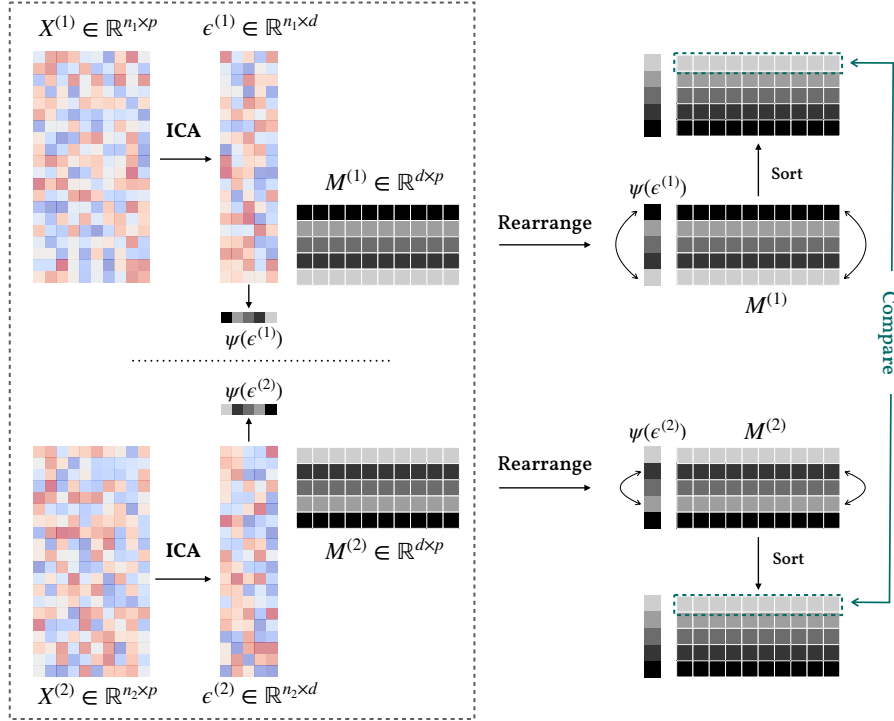


Figure 4: Overview of our method: For each context k , given the data $X^{(k)}$, our method involves three main steps. First, we apply ICA to each dataset to estimate $\epsilon^{(k)}$ and $M^{(k)}$. Second, we calculate $\psi(\epsilon^{(k)}) = \{\psi(\epsilon_1^{(k)}), \psi(\epsilon_2^{(k)}), \dots, \psi(\epsilon_d^{(k)})\}$ for each noise component, sort these components in increasing order, and correspondingly arrange the rows of $M^{(k)}$. Third, we compare the sorted rows of $M^{(k)}$ to identify the shifted nodes.

C Discussion on Test Function

In Assumption B, we assume that there exists a test function ψ and that we can access it. Here we discuss ways to relax it. Recall that in Section 4.1, ψ is utilized to sort the noise component $\epsilon^{(k)}$ to ensure that the post-sorting noise vector $\tilde{\epsilon}^{(k)}$ has a consistent order across all environments.

An alternative approach to achieve this is to use distribution matching. We take the noise vector in the first environment as a reference and align all other noise vectors post-sorting with the reference vector. To do this, we can use a distribution distance metric D . First, define a signed permutation space as

$$S_d = \{S = PD \mid P \text{ is a permutation matrix, } D \text{ is a diagonal matrix with } D_{ii} \in \{-1, 1\}\}$$

Then, solve the optimization problem:

$$\min_{S \in S_d} D(\bar{\epsilon}^{(1)}, S\bar{\epsilon}^{(k)})$$

where D can be any distribution distance, such as Kullback-Leibler divergence. In Assumption A, we assume pair-wise different noise component, thus the optimization questions have minimums value 0 if and only if each noise component of $\bar{\epsilon}^{(1)}$ and $S\bar{\epsilon}^{(k)}$ have the same distribution, thus help us align the noise component order. We solve this optimization problem for each environment $k \geq 2$, thus obtaining $\bar{P}^{(k)}$. All following steps in our algorithm remain the same when using this alternative approach.

One small gap remains: even though all post-sorting noise vectors have a consistent order with $\bar{\epsilon}^{(1)}$, $\bar{\epsilon}^{(1)}$ is not the ground truth order of $\epsilon^{(1)}$. This ambiguity cannot be eliminated, consistent with the nature of the CRL method, and is the same with other CRL methods, such as [40, 28]. Fortunately, the ground truth order is not so important in practice. What people mainly care about is the semantic label for each latent node. Some CRL generative models, such as [54], may be helpful for performing fake interventions and manually assigning semantic labels. However, this is beyond the scope of this paper, and we will not discuss it further.

Even though the distribution matching optimization method offers greater flexibility, it is computationally expensive. First, note that the cardinality $|S_d| = d! \times 2^d$, which represents a vast search space when d is large. Furthermore, calculating $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ is generally computationally intensive. For example, the KL method requires density estimation, and the Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) method necessitates the computation of pairwise distances among samples. These challenges render this alternative difficult to implement. Consequently, we opt to use the ψ function to facilitate efficient sorting, but it may need carefully design.

D Discussion on Sample Complexity

The sample complexity of our method must be considered from two perspectives: one involves using ICA to estimate $\bar{\epsilon}^{(k)}$ and $\bar{M}^{(k)}$, and the other pertains to utilizing $\bar{\epsilon}^{(k)}$ and a test function to sort the rows of $\bar{M}^{(k)}$. Since the sorting step depends on the choice of test function, we assume for simplicity that $\bar{M}^{(k)}$ is already sorted by the ground truth order. Thus, we only focus on the asymptotic behavior of $\widetilde{M}^{(k)}$, which closely relates to the properties of the ICA estimator.

There are various algorithms for solving ICA [18, 17, 41]; each algorithm exhibits different asymptotic statistical properties. If we apply the findings in Auddy and Yuan [2], we assume that the estimated ICA unmixing function has the following statistical accuracy:

Theorem 4. *If the sample size $n \geq g(d, \delta)$, then with probability at least $1 - h(n, d, \delta, \epsilon)$, we have:*

$$l(\widetilde{M}_i^{(k)} - M_i^{(k)}) \leq C \cdot p(d, n)f(\delta),$$

where $\widetilde{M}_i^{(k)}$ represents the i -th row of the estimated unmixing function $M^{(k)}$, C is a constant, and p , f , g , and h are known functions. For instance, in Auddy and Yuan [2], $p(d, n) = \sqrt{d}/n$ and $f(\delta) = \sqrt{\log(1/\delta)}$. Here, l denotes the loss function, and the L_2 norm can serve as an option.

Under this theorem, for two environments k and k' , if node i does not shift, we have:

$$\|\widetilde{M}_i^k - \widetilde{M}_i^{k'}\|_2 \leq \|\widetilde{M}_i^k - M_i\|_2 + \|\widetilde{M}_i^{k'} - M_i\|_2 \leq 2 \cdot C \cdot p(d, n)f(\delta)$$

with a probability of at least $1 - 2h(n, d, \delta, \epsilon)$. Thus, by setting the threshold α as $2 \cdot C \cdot p(d, n)f(\delta)$, we can control the false discovery rate to be at most $2h(n, d, \delta, \epsilon)$. A similar sample complexity theorem can be extended to cases involving more than two environments, as long as the statistical properties of the ICA solution are known.

E Detailed Proofs

E.1 Proof of Proposition 2

Lemma 1. *Under problem setting, for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$, the equation $x^T H = y^T H$ holds if and only if $x = y$.*

Proof. Given that G possesses full column rank, it follows that $H = G^\dagger$ has full row rank. Consequently, the null space of H^T is $\{0\}$. Therefore, if $x^T H = y^T H$, it implies $H^T(x - y) = 0$. This leads to the conclusion that $x - y = 0$, which in turn implies $x = y$. \square

Proof of Proposition 2. Recall that $B^{(k)} = (\Omega^{(k)})^{-\frac{1}{2}}(I_d - A^{(k)})$. Since $A^{(k)}$ is a weighted adjacency matrix, its diagonal entries are zero. Thus,

$$B_{ij}^{(k)} = -\left(\Omega_{ii}^{(k)}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} A_{ij}^{(k)} \quad \text{if } i \neq j,$$

$$B_{ii}^{(k)} = \left(\Omega_{ii}^{(k)}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text{if } i = j.$$

Under Definition 1, if node Z_i is shifted, it implies either 1) $\Omega_{ii}^{(k)} \neq \Omega_{ii}^{(k')}$, 2) $A_i^{(k)} \neq A_i^{(k')}$, or 3) both conditions hold. In scenarios 1) and 3), $B_{ii}^{(k)} \neq B_{ii}^{(k')}$, resulting in $B_i^{(k)} \neq B_i^{(k')}$. In scenario 2), while $\Omega_{ii}^{(k)} = \Omega_{ii}^{(k')}$, there exists a $j \in [d]$ such that $A_{ij}^{(k)} \neq A_{ij}^{(k')}$, leading to $B_i^{(k)} \neq B_i^{(k')}$. If node Z_i is not shifted, then $A_i^{(k)} = A_i^{(k')}$ and $\Omega_{ii}^{(k)} = \Omega_{ii}^{(k')}$, implying $B_i^{(k)} = B_i^{(k')}$. Therefore, Z_i is shifted if and only if $B_i^{(k)} \neq B_i^{(k')}$. According to Lemma 1, $B_i^{(k)} \neq B_i^{(k')}$ if and only if $B_i^{(k)} H \neq B_i^{(k')} H$, which is equivalent to $M_i^{(k)} \neq M_i^{(k')}$.

In conclusion, Z_i is shifted if and only if $M_i^{(k)} \neq M_i^{(k')}$. \square

E.2 Proof of Theorem 3

Lemma 2. *Under problem setting, it is not possible for an intervention on the latent node Z_i to result in $M_i^{(k)} = -M_i^{(k')}$.*

Proof. We prove this by contradiction. Suppose that $M_i^{(k)} = -M_i^{(k')}$. According to Lemma 1, this would imply $B_i^{(k)} = -B_i^{(k')}$. However, we know $B^{(k)} = (\Omega^{(k)})^{-1}(I_d - A^{(k)})$ where $A^{(k)}$ is the weight matrix for a DAG. Since $A_{ii}^{(k)} = 0$, it follows that $B_{ii}^{(k)} = (\Omega_{ii}^{(k)})^{-1}$. Therefore, both $B_{ii}^{(k)}$ and $B_{ii}^{(k')}$ are positive. It is impossible for $B_{ii}^{(k)}$ to be equal to $-B_{ii}^{(k')}$. Consequently, the scenario where $M_i^{(k)} = -M_i^{(k')}$ cannot occur. \square

Proof of Theorem 3. Recall from the data generation process that

$$M^{(k)} X^{(k)} = \epsilon^{(k)}.$$

When input $X^{(k)}$ to ICA, we have $\bar{M}^{(k)} = P^{(k)} D^{(k)} M^{(k)}$ and $\bar{\epsilon}^{(k)} = P^{(k)} D^{(k)} \epsilon^{(k)}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\epsilon^{(k)}$ is ordered increasingly with respect to ψ . Thus, post sorting with respect to ψ , we eliminate the ambiguity of $P^{(k)}$, and we get $\widetilde{M}^{(k)} = D^{(k)} M^{(k)}$ and $\widetilde{\epsilon}^{(k)} = D^{(k)} \epsilon^{(k)}$.

We are now ready to prove that Z_i is not shifted if and only if $\widetilde{M}^{(k)} = \pm \widetilde{M}^{(k')}$. This immediately implies that if Z_i is not shifted, then $M_i^{(k)} = M_i^{(k')}$, thus satisfying $\widetilde{M}^{(k)} = \pm \widetilde{M}^{(k')}$.

If $\widetilde{M}^{(k)} = \pm \widetilde{M}^{(k')}$, there are two cases: $M_i^{(k)} = M_i^{(k')}$ or $M_i^{(k)} = -M_i^{(k')}$. We prove in Lemma 2 that the scenario $M_i^{(k)} = -M_i^{(k')}$ cannot exist. The only surviving situation is $M_i^{(k)} = M_i^{(k')}$, which indicates that Z_i is not shifted. \square

F Experiments on Synthetic Data Compared with DCI

As described in Section 5.1, instead of generating the mixing function G from $\text{Unif}[-0.25, 0.25]$, we set $G = I$, such that $X = Z$ and Z can be directly observed. In this setup, finding general interventions in linear causal representations reduces to identifying general interventions in linear SEM, a setting for which the existing method DCI [52] is designed. Table 2 presents the performance comparison between our method and DCI under these conditions, demonstrating that our method outperforms DCI in most cases.

Graph Type	d	Method	Precision	Recall	F1
ER 2	5	DCI	0.60	0.60	0.60
		Ours	0.80	0.80	0.80
	10	DCI	0.87	1.00	0.92
		Ours	1.00	1.00	1.00
	15	DCI	0.74	1.00	0.84
		Ours	0.66	1.00	0.78
ER 4	10	DCI	0.83	1.00	0.89
		Ours	1.00	1.00	1.00
	15	DCI	0.71	1.00	0.81
		Ours	0.62	0.93	0.73
SF 2	5	DCI	0.70	0.80	0.73
		Ours	1.00	1.00	1.00
	10	DCI	0.67	1.00	0.79
		Ours	1.00	1.00	1.00
	15	DCI	0.65	1.00	0.78
		Ours	0.70	0.93	0.78
SF 4	5	DCI	0.60	0.60	0.60
		Ours	0.80	0.80	0.80
	10	DCI	0.77	1.00	0.85
		Ours	1.00	1.00	1.00
	15	DCI	0.56	0.93	0.68
		Ours	0.67	1.00	0.79

Table 2: Comparison of Precision, Recall, and F1 scores for different graph types, d values, and methods between our method and DCI.

G Additional Information on Real Data

This section provides detailed information on the procedures employed in analyzing the real dataset.

Preprocessing The initial dataset comprised 19,719 observations, which can be downloaded from <https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/lucasgreenwell/ocean-five-factor-personality-test-responses/data>. In the preprocessing phase, any observation with a missing value in any column was excluded, leaving a total of 19,710 observations for further analysis. Subsequently, we applied max-min value normalization to the scores of each question, ensuring that all scores were normalized to fall within the range $[0, 1]$. This normalization step is crucial for achieving uniformity in the data scale, thereby facilitating accurate analysis and comparison across the dataset.

Labeling the Noise To derive meaningful psychological insights, it is crucial to assign semantic labels to all latent nodes. Given that the noise components are pairwise distinct and unique to the latent node Z_i , we consider intervening on each noise component, then remixing and observing the changes in the observational space. This approach enables us to assign semantic labels to both the noise components and their corresponding latent nodes. We utilize observations from the male dataset as the reference context, which comprises 7,603 observations. Following the initial step of our method, we obtain the sorted \widetilde{M}^{male} and $\widetilde{\epsilon}^{male}$. The mixing function G is derived from $(\widetilde{M}^{male})^\dagger$.

To identify the semantic label for the first component of $\tilde{\epsilon}$, we set its corresponding noise vector component to 0, effectively nullifying the first component of $\tilde{\epsilon}^{male}$. This intervention yields an estimated noise matrix samples from $\tilde{\epsilon}_{inv}^{male}$, denoted as $\tilde{\epsilon}_{inv}^{male}$. The intervened reconstruction, $\mathbf{X}_{inv}^{male} = G(\tilde{\epsilon}_{inv}^{male})^T$, and the original score distribution, $\mathbf{X}^{male} = G(\tilde{\epsilon}^{male})^T$, allow us to compare question scores pre- and post-intervention. Figure 7 plots these distributions, revealing significant shifts for questions pertaining to the *Agreeableness* dimension, with minimal impact on other scores, thereby identifying the first noise component as *Agreeableness*. This process is replicated for the second through fifth columns of ϵ^{male} , with results illustrated in Figures 9, 8, 5, and 6. Each plot demonstrates that interventions result in significant distribution changes for questions related to a single personality dimension, with negligible effects on others. Consequently, we label these noise components as *Openness*, *Conscientiousness*, *Extraversion*, and *Neuroticism*, respectively. These labels will be used for all the following analysis.

Shifted Nodes Detection We then applied our method to data from the male and female contexts. The calculated $L_i^{male, female}$ values are $\{0.074, 0.0497, 0.078, 0.638, 0.633\}$. Based on these results, we identify shifts in the last two personality dimensions, specifically labeled as *Extraversion* and *Neuroticism*. Additionally, we conducted a comparative analysis of personality dimensions between the US and UK, which have 8,753 and 1,531 observations, respectively. The computed $L_i^{US, UK}$ values are $\{0.302, 0.258, 0.109, 0.189, 0.088\}$, indicating that no latent node is considered as having undergone shifts between these two countries.

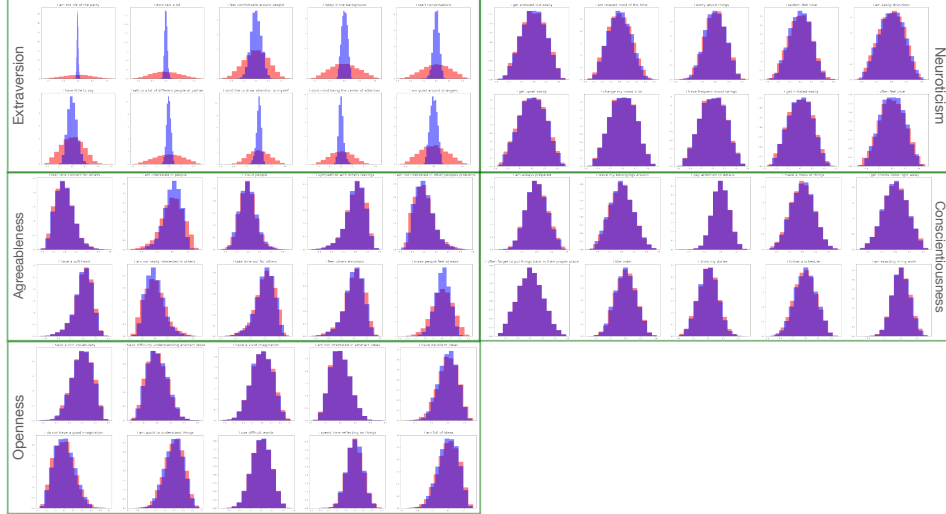


Figure 5: Intervention on the fourth component of the noise vector and subsequent re-mixing generate a new observed space — a new score distribution. Notably, only *Extraversion* exhibits significant changes after intervention, leading us to label the fourth component of the noise vector (after sorting) as *Extraversion*.

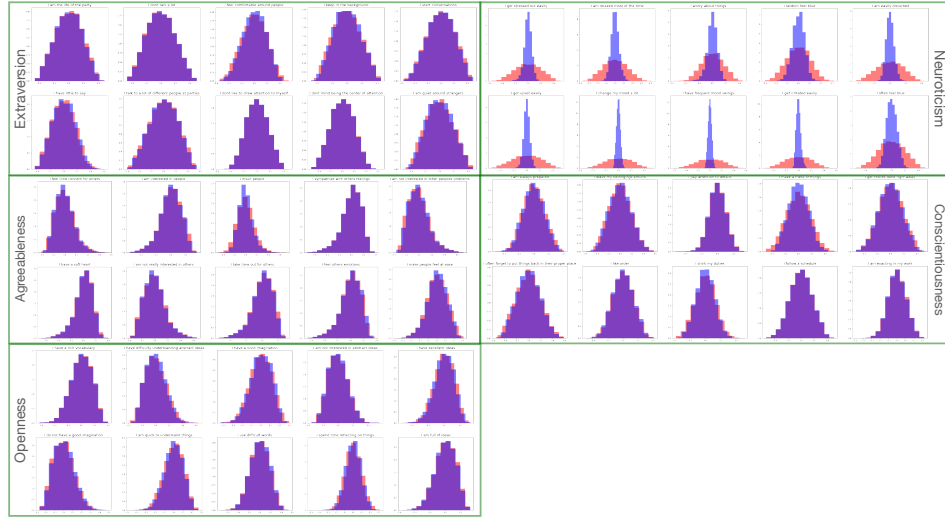


Figure 6: Intervention on the fifth component of the noise vector and subsequent re-mixing generate a new observed space — a new score distribution. Notably, only *Neuroticism* exhibits significant changes after intervention, leading us to label the fifth component of the noise vector (after sorting) as *Neuroticism*.

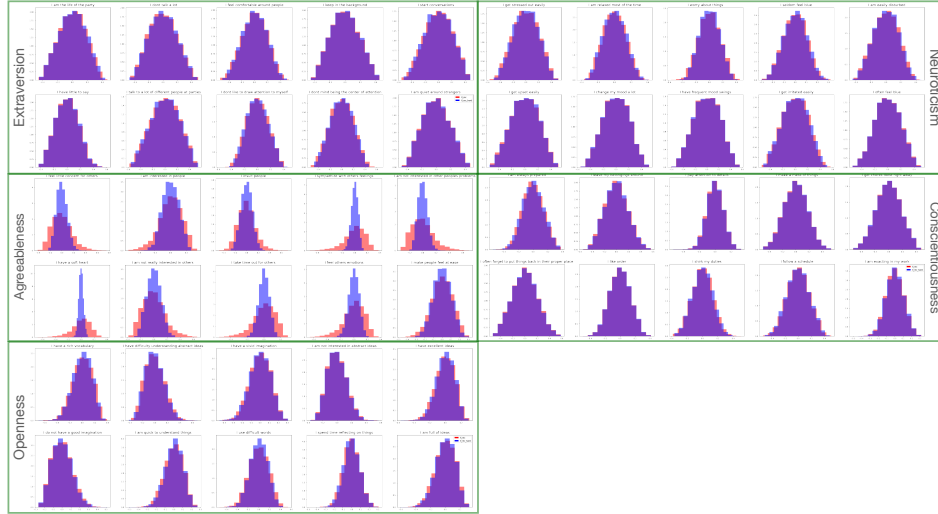


Figure 7: Intervention on the first component of the noise vector and subsequent re-mixing generate a new observed space — a new score distribution. Notably, only *Agreeableness* exhibits significant changes after intervention, leading us to label the first component of the noise vector (after sorting) as *Agreeableness*.

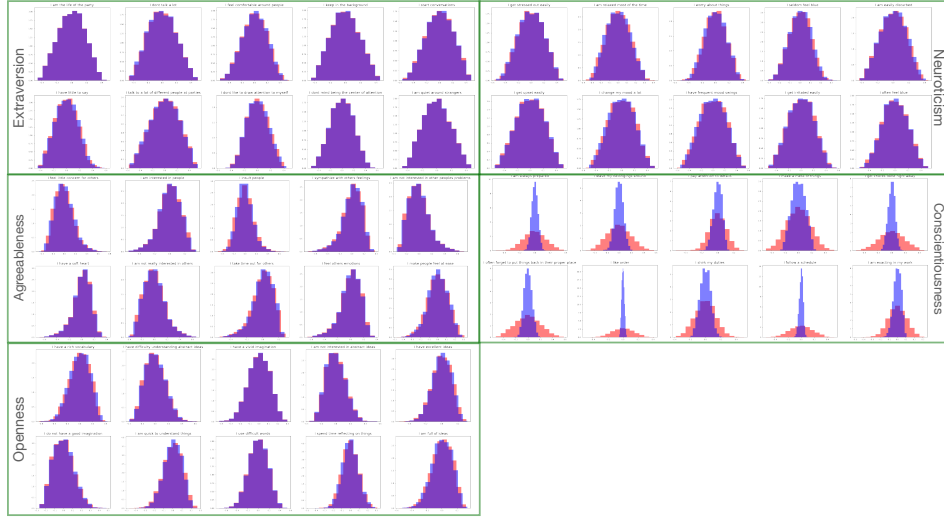


Figure 8: Intervention on the third component of the noise vector and subsequent re-mixing generate a new observed space — a new score distribution. Notably, only *Conscientiousness* exhibits significant changes after intervention, leading us to label the third component of the noise vector (after sorting) as *Conscientiousness*.

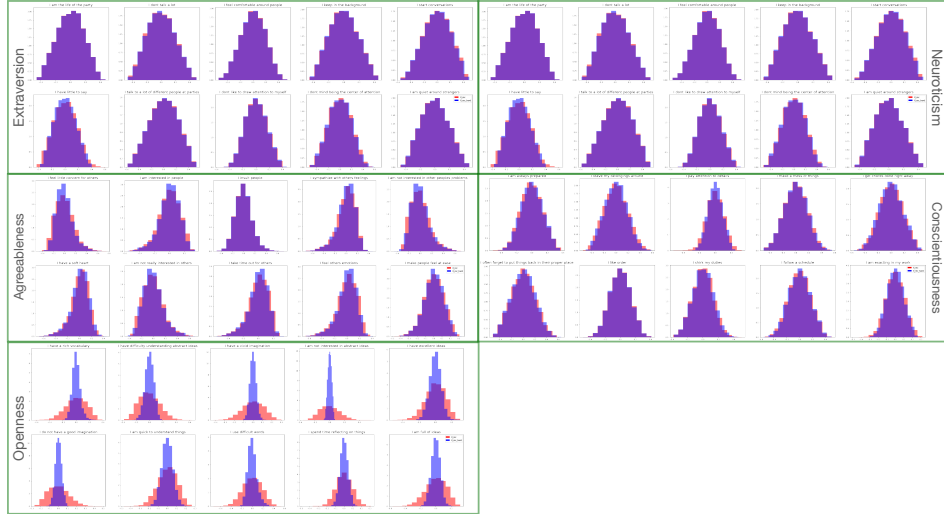


Figure 9: Intervention on the second component of the noise vector and subsequent re-mixing generate a new observed space — a new score distribution. Notably, only *Openness* exhibits significant changes after intervention, leading us to label the second component of the noise vector (after sorting) as *Openness*.

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