Identification of Partially Observed Linear Causal Models: Graphical Conditions for the Non-Gaussian and Heterogeneous Cases

Abstract

In causal discovery, linear non-Gaussian acyclic models (LiNGAMs) have been studied extensively. While the causally sufficient case is well understood, in many real problems the observed variables are not causally related. Rather, they are generated by latent variables, such as confounders and mediators, which may themselves be causally related. Existing results on the identification of the causal structure among the latent variables often require very strong graphical assumptions. In this paper, we consider partially observed linear models with either non-Gaussian or heterogeneous errors. In that case we give two graphical conditions which are necessary for identification of the causal structure. These conditions are closely related to sparsity of the causal edges. Together with one additional condition on the coefficients, which holds generically for any graph, the two graphical conditions are also sufficient for identifiability. These new conditions can be satisfied even when there is a large number of latent variables. We demonstrate the validity of our results on synthetic data.

1 Introduction

In the standard causal discovery problem, we are given non-experimental data and aim to learn the direct causal relations between the observed variables [1, 2]. But in many applications, we do not believe that all causal variables relevant to the observed system have been measured. While some of the observed variables may interact directly, others might interact indirectly via latent mediators, and still others could be generated by latent common causes; indeed, any pair of observed variables may stand in all three relations at once. Further, the relevant latent variables may be causally related themselves. For example, responses to psychometric questionnaires are usually thought of as noisy views of various personality traits or psychological disorders, and the researcher is predominately interested in the causal relations between these hidden traits and their hierarchical structure. Similarly, in financial markets, stock returns may be causally related, but may also be confounded or mediated by a complicated network of unmeasured economic and political factors.

It is natural to ask what conditions are both necessary and sufficient for the identification of such latent structures from observational data. Various sufficient conditions have been proposed; however, these conditions are generally rather restrictive, and might not not be necessary for identification of the full causal structure.

In this work, we consider the case of linear causal models in which the overcomplete mixing matrix from noise terms to the measured variables is identifiable up to permutation and scaling of columns. This is possible, for example, in the case of independent non-Gaussian noise [3], or when given access to heterogeneous domains in which the variances of the noise terms change independently

across domains but the causal graph and weights remain constant (see Theorem 1 of our paper). We provide necessary and sufficient conditions under which the latent causal structure can be uniquely identified up to trivial indeterminicies.

2 Problem setup

Suppose some causal variables $\mathcal{V} = \{V_1, \ldots, V_p\}$ follow a linear structural equation model (SEM)

$$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{V} + \varepsilon, \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{V} := (V_1, \ldots, V_p)^T$ is a vector of causal variables, $\mathbf{F}$ is a causal adjacency matrix, whose induced graph is a DAG, and $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_p)^T$ is a vector of independent noise variables. In this paper we consider two settings for ε_i: 1) all ε_i are mutually independent and non-Gaussian; or 2) there are multiple domains, ε_i are uncorrelated within each domain, and their variances change independently across domains. We will make the second assumption technically precise Section 2.2.

We seek necessary and jointly sufficient conditions for identifiability of $\mathbf{F}$ (up to trivial indeterminacies) in the case where only some subset of $\mathcal{V}$ (which we call $\mathcal{X}$) is measured. Thus $\mathbf{F}$ may encode observed-observed interactions, latent confounding, latent-latent interactions, and latent mediation or intermediate confounding. Our results identify $\mathbf{F}$ from the equivalence class $\mathcal{M}$, as defined in Section 2.2, of mixing matrices induced by (1). This equivalence class $\mathcal{M}$ is identifiable if, for example, the errors are non-Gaussian or if their distribution changes across time or across domains.

2.1 Notation

For any matrix $\mathbf{A}$ and index sets J and K, we write $\mathbf{A}_K^J$ to denote the submatrix of $\mathbf{A}$ with columns indexed by J and rows indexed by K. Observe that $\mathbf{A}_K^J = \mathbf{I}_K \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I}^J$. Thus, $\mathbf{F}_K^J$ describes the direct effect of $\{V_j : j \in J\}$ on $\{V_k : k \in K\}$. (Remember: causes are *up*-stream of their effects.)

The graph induced by (1) has edges $V_i \to V_j$ whenever $\mathbf{F}_j^i \neq 0$. We write $\mathrm{Pa}(V_i) := \{V_j : V_i \leftarrow V_j\}$ and $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i) := \{V_j : V_i \to V_j\}$, respectively, to denote the parents and children of V_i. We say that $(V_1, ..., V_k)$ constitutes a **directed path** if $V_i \to V_{i+1}$ for every $i \in \{1, ..., k-1\}$. Trivially, for every V_i, (V_i) is a directed path from V_i to itself; we say that a directed graph is **acyclic** (a DAG) if (V_i) is the only such path. We write $\mathrm{Anc}(V_i) := \{V_j \in \mathcal{V} : V_j \text{ has a directed path to } V_i\}$ and $\mathrm{Desc}(V_i) := \{V_j : V_i \text{ has a directed path to } V_j\}$, respectively, to denote the ancestors and descendants of V_i. For DAGs, notice that $V_i = \mathrm{Anc}(V_i) \cap \mathrm{Desc}(V_i)$, but $V_i \notin \mathrm{Pa}(V_i) \cup \mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$.

We assume that only some subset $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathcal{V}$ is observed, with the remaining $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{V} - \mathcal{X}$ being latent. We use V_i to denote a generic variable, observed or latent, while $X_i \in \mathcal{X}$ denotes an observed variable and $L_j \in \mathcal{L}$ denotes a latent variable. When it is clear from context, we occasionally suppress the distinction between a variable V_i and its index i.

2.2 Identification and minimality

Since $\mathbf{F}$ induces a DAG, we can always solve (1) to express the causal variables in terms of the independent noise terms:

$$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{M}\varepsilon, \tag{2}$$

where

$$\mathbf{M} := (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{F})^{-1}. \tag{3}$$

is the mixing matrix with $\mathbf{M}_j^i$ being the net effect of ε_i on V_j; this net effect is calculated by multiplying causal weights along paths and summing across paths. Notice that if $\mathbf{M}_j^i \neq 0$, then $V_j \in \mathrm{Desc}(V_i)$.

Because $\mathbf{L}$ is hidden, let us explicitly write $\mathbf{X}$ in terms of ε:

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}\varepsilon. \tag{4}$$

In both settings, $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$ is identifiable up to permutation and scaling of columns as long as no two columns of $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$ are scalar multiples of one another; that is, we can identify the equivalence class

$$\mathcal{M} = \{\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}\mathbf{DP} : \mathbf{DP} \in \mathcal{DP}_p\}, \tag{5}$$

where
$$\mathcal{DP}_p := \{\mathbf{DP} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p} : \mathbf{D} \text{ is full rank diagonal and } \mathbf{P} \text{ is a permutation matrix}\}.$$

We argue this for both settings individually.

In one setting, ε_i are assumed to be independent and non-Gaussian. Then according to Theorem 3 by Eriksson and Koivunen [4], $\mathbf{M}_\mathcal{X}$ is identifiable from the distribution of $\mathbf{X}$ up to column scaling and permutation interdeterminacies. The task of estimating $\mathbf{M}_\mathcal{X}$ from $\mathbf{X}$ is known as Overcomplete Independent Component Analysis (OICA) [3], and it is known that in practice it is rather difficult to estimate the the mixing matrix $\mathcal{X}$ in this setting [5].

We further consider the other setting for ε_i, in which ε_i are uncorrelated from each other with changing variances across multiple domains (or over time) and $\mathbf{M}_\mathcal{X}$ has full row rank (which is always the case for acyclic models); note that in this setting ε_i are not necessarily mutually independent because their variances may be dependent across domains. This setting is expected to apply to a number of nonstationary scenarios including brain signal analysis, and the following theorem establishes the corresponding identifibiality of $\mathbf{M}_\mathcal{X}$. This identifiability result will provide the foundation of our structural identification work, and it is worth noting that it is also potentially interesting in fields of blind source separation and system identification.

Theorem 1. *Suppose we have observed $\mathbf{X}$ generated according to the mixing procedure (4) in a number of domains, $t = 1, 2, ..., T$, where $\mathbf{M}_\mathcal{X}$ has full row rank. Assume that ε_i are uncorrelated in each domain and that their variances in domain t, denoted by σ_{ti}^2, change independently across domains in the sense that $\mathbf{S}$, whose (t, i)-th entry is σ_{ti}^2, has full column rank. Then if $\mathbf{X}$ admits a model $\mathbf{X} = \tilde{\mathbf{M}}_\mathcal{X} \tilde{\varepsilon}$, where $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ also follows the above assumption on ε, then every column of $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}_\mathcal{X}$ must be proportional to a column of $\mathbf{M}_\mathcal{X}$ and vice versa.*

Proof. All proofs appear in the supplementary materials. □

Therefore, in the following we always assume that $\mathbf{M}_\mathcal{X}$ is identifiable up to column permutation and rescaling indeterminacies.

We say that an adjacency matrix $\mathbf{F}$ generates $\mathcal{M}$ if $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{F})_\mathcal{X}^{-1} \in \mathcal{M}$. Of course, in partially observed systems, this adjacency matrix is not unique. However, some are sparser than others. In causal discovery, as in model selection more broadly, we prefer the sparsest model which adequately fits the data. As a result, without prior knowledge, a partially observed linear causal model cannot be identified from $\mathcal{M}$ if the population distribution can be written in terms of an equally sparse or sparser model. It is therefore natural to recast the question of identifiability to a question of maximal sparsity.

Let the ℓ_0 "norm" of a matrix $\|\cdot\|_0$ denote the number of non-zero entries in that matrix. Then we say that a causal adjacency matrix $\mathbf{F}$ is **minimal** with respect to $\mathcal{M}$ if $\mathbf{F}$ generates $\mathcal{M}$ and $\|\hat{\mathbf{F}}\|_0 \geq \|\mathbf{F}\|_0$ for any $\hat{\mathbf{F}} \neq \mathbf{F}$ that generates $\mathcal{M}$.

Let $\mathcal{F}$ denote the class of minimal adjacency matrices that generate $\mathcal{M}$. Clearly, since $\mathcal{M}$ is identifiable, so is $\mathcal{F}$. We say that an adjacency matrix $\mathbf{F}$ is **identified up to trivialities** if
$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ (\mathbf{DP})^{-1} \mathbf{F} \mathbf{DP} : \mathbf{DP} \in \mathcal{DP}_p \text{ with } (\mathbf{DP})_\mathcal{X}^\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{I} \right\}. \tag{6}$$
The only indeterminacy remaining in $\mathcal{F}$ amounts to re-indexing and re-scaling the latent factors.

3 Necessity

In this section, we introduce our identification conditions and show that they are necessary for $\mathbf{F}$ to be identified up to trivialities. The identification conditions are graphical conditions described in terms of "bottlenecks" and "redundancies."

Let J and K be sets of nodes in a directed graph. We say that a set B is a **bottleneck** from J to K if every directed path from J to K includes some $b \in B$. A bottleneck B from J to K will be called **minimal** if every bottleneck B' from J to K has $|B'| \geq |B|$, and **unique minimal** if the inequality is strict for $B' \neq B$. Note that bottlenecks do not in general d-separate J and K along all paths, but only directed paths from J to K.

From the definition, for each V_i, $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ is a bottleneck from $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ to X. However, for identification, we further require:

Figure 1: An egregious violation of the bottleneck condition. Left: $\{V_2, V_3\}$ is a strictly smaller bottleneck from $\mathrm{Ch}(V_1)$ to $\mathcal{X}$. Right: a sparser yet observationally equivalent graph. Although both graphs also violate strong non-redundancy, egregious bottleneck violations are not always redundant.

Figure 2: A simple graph illustrating our structural conditions. L_1 clearly depicts the bottleneck condition. L_2 and L_3 are non-redundant as each has one child the other does not. X_1 is not a redundancy of L_3 because $X_1 \notin \mathcal{L}$.

Condition 1 (Bottleneck). *For every V_i, $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ is the unique minimal bottleneck from $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ to $\mathcal{X}$.*

The bottleneck condition ensures that if we try to "explain" the net effect of V_i on $\mathcal{X}$ by replacing $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ with any subset of $\mathrm{Desc}(V_i)$, the result is a denser graph. The strong non-redundancy condition will ensure that we cannot "explain" the effect of V_i on $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ via some of its *non-descendants*.

Condition 2 (Strong Non-Redundancy). *For all L_i, V_j, if $\mathrm{Ch}(L_i) \subseteq \mathrm{Ch}(V_j) \cup \{V_j\}$ then $L_i = V_j$.*

Notice that this condition is satisfied trivially for any L_i with more than one directed path to V_j.

Theorem 2. *If $\mathbf{F}$ is identified up to trivialities, then the graph induced by $\mathbf{F}$ satisfies the bottleneck and strong non-redundancy conditions.*

In Section 4 we show that if the graph satisfies the bottleneck and strong non-redundancy conditions, and if the non-zero coefficients of $\mathbf{F}$, in addition, are **bottleneck faithful**, then $\mathbf{F}$ is identified up to trivialities from $\mathcal{M}$. Importantly, bottleneck faithfulness is satisfied generically and places no additional graphical constraints on the model.

If $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ is not at least a *minimal* bottleneck for every V_i, then $\mathbf{F} \notin \mathcal{F}$. Figure 1 shows one example of such a violation of the bottleneck condition. Otherwise, as long as bottleneck faithfulness is also satisfied, $\mathcal{F}$ is an equivalence class of equally sparse latent structures which all violate at least one of the bottleneck and strong non-redundancy conditions. The nature of these indeterminacies is depicted in Figure 3. In Figure 2 we show a simple yet illustrative example in which both conditions are satisfied.

(a) (b) (c) (d)

Figure 3: Two equivalence classes. (a) and (b) are equivalent, the former violating the bottleneck condition ($\mathcal{X} \neq \mathrm{Ch}(L_i)$ is a minimal bottleneck from $\mathrm{Ch}(L_i)$ to $\mathcal{X}$) and the latter co-parental non-redundancy ($\mathrm{Ch}(L_2) \subseteq \mathrm{Ch}(L_1)$). (c) and (d) are equivalent, both violating parental non-redundancy.

4 Sufficiency

In the previous section, we introduced two structural conditions which hold whenever $\mathbf{F}$ is identifiable up to trivialities. In this section, we prove that they are sufficient if $\mathbf{F}$, in addition, is **bottleneck faithful**. Throughout, we assume that $\mathbf{X}$ is generated according to (1) and that $\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{F})^{-1}$. In particular, we assume that $\mathcal{M}$ is identifiable, for example due to Theorem 1.

4.1 Bottleneck faithfulness

First, we connect ranks of submatrices of $\mathbf{M}$ to minimal bottlenecks of its corresponding graph.

Proposition 1. *Let B be a minimal bottleneck from J to K. Then $\mathrm{Rank}(\mathbf{M}_K^J) \leq |B|$.*

Strict inequality, $\mathrm{Rank}(\mathbf{M}_K^J) < |B|$, for some minimal bottleneck B from J to K can make $\mathbf{F}$ non-identifiable – even if the bottleneck condition and strong non-redundancy hold. For instance, strong non-redundancy holds for

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{L} + \varepsilon_X, \quad \mathbf{L} = \varepsilon_L,$$

but $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}^{\mathcal{L}} = \mathbf{F}_{\mathcal{X}}^{\mathcal{L}}$ and $\mathrm{Rank}(\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}^{\mathcal{L}}) = 2$, while the minimal bottleneck from $\mathcal{L}$ to $\mathcal{X}$ is $\mathcal{L}$ with $|\mathcal{L}| = 3$. The system

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{L} + \varepsilon_X, \quad \mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{L} + \varepsilon_L$$

generates the same mixing matrix, $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$, but has a strictly sparser graph.

Condition 3 (Bottleneck Faithfulness)**.** *For every $J \subseteq \mathcal{V}, K \subseteq \mathcal{X}$, if B is a minimal bottleneck from J to K, then $\mathrm{Rank}\left(\mathbf{M}_K^J\right) = |B|$.*

In the supplementary material we characterize the set of adjacency matrices $\mathbf{F}$ that are bottleneck faithful for a given graph. In particular, we show that a generic $\mathbf{F}$ is bottleneck faithful.

Interestingly, $\mathrm{Rank}(\mathbf{M}_K^J) = 0$ is a violation of classical faithfulness if there is a minimal bottleneck $B \neq \varnothing$ from J to K. That is, if there is a path from J to K but the path coefficients cancel out so that the net effect of J on K is 0, the system is not faithful to the graph. Bottleneck faithfulness generalizes this so that the net effect of J on K must have maximal rank for the given graph.

4.2 Identifiability

In this subsection, we show that if the bottleneck condition, strong non-redundancy and bottleneck faithfulness hold for $\mathbf{F}$, then $\mathbf{F}$ is identifiable up to trivialities. Proofs of all results appear in the supplementary materials

Our approach is illustrated by the following computation. For any V_i,

$$\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{F})^i = \mathbf{I}_{\mathcal{X}}^i. \tag{7}$$

Let $J = \mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$. Since the support of $\mathbf{F}^i$ is J, the equation

$$(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{I})_{\mathcal{X}}^i = \mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}^J \mathbf{x}. \tag{8}$$

always has a solution at $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F}_J^i$. In fact, if bottleneck faithfulness and the bottleneck condition apply to L_i, then this solution is unique:

Lemma 1. *Let $J = \mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$. Then the unique solution to (8) is given by $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F}_{\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)}^i$.*

But there is a version of equation 8 for each $J \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. For which other choices of J does 8 have a solution? More importantly, when does it have a solution for some J with $|J| \leq |\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)|$?

Lemma 2. *Suppose $J \subseteq \mathcal{V} - \mathrm{Anc}(V_i)$. If $(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{I})_{\mathcal{X}}^i \in \mathrm{Range}\left(\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}^J\right)$, then $|J| \geq |\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)|$, with equality if and only if $J = \mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$.*

Lemma 2 shows how for any V_i, $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ is identifiable from any superset of $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ which contains no ancestors of V_i. Next, we show how such a superset of $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$ can be identified.

Let $\mathcal{V}_k \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ denote the variables whose *longest* path to $\mathcal{X}$ has fewer than k nodes. More formally, we define recursively

$$\mathcal{V}_0 := \varnothing, \tag{9}$$

$$\mathcal{V}_{k+1} := \{V_i \in \mathcal{V} : \mathrm{Ch}(V_i) \subseteq \mathcal{V}_k\}, \quad \text{for } k \geq 0. \tag{10}$$

Naturally, we define $\mathcal{X}_k := \mathcal{V}_k \cap \mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{L}_k := \mathcal{V}_k \cap \mathcal{L}$. Notice that $\mathcal{V}_k$ is strictly increasing, and is induced by the topological ordering on $\mathcal{V}$.

183 **Proposition 2.** *For all k, either $\mathcal{V}_k \subset \mathcal{V}_{k+1}$, or $\mathcal{V}_k = \mathcal{V}$.*

184 Further, for each $k \geq 0$, define

$$\mathcal{J}_{k+1}(V_i) := \underset{J \in \left\{ J \subseteq \mathcal{V}_k : \mathbf{M}^i_{\mathcal{X}_k} \in \mathrm{Range}\left(\mathbf{M}^J_{\mathcal{X}_k} \right) \right\}}{\arg\min} |J|. \tag{11}$$

185 Intuitively, this denotes the set of minimal choices for $J \subset \mathcal{V}_k$ such that equation 8 has a solution.
186 From Lemma 2, we know that $\mathcal{J}_{k+1}(V_i) = \{\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)\}$ if $V_i \in \mathcal{V}_{k+1} - \mathcal{V}_k$. The construction of
187 equation 11 allows us to generalize Lemma 2 to describe which versions of equation 8 have solutions
188 when we are not sure of the causal order.

189 **Lemma 3.** *For every $k \geq 0$, let $\mathcal{V}_k$ and $\mathcal{J}_k(V_i)$ be defined as above. Then $V_i \in \mathcal{V}_{k+1} - \mathcal{V}_k$ if and*
190 *only if all of the following hold: 1. $V_i \notin \mathcal{V}_k$; 2. $|\mathrm{Support}(\mathbf{M}^i_{\mathcal{X}}) - \mathcal{X}_k| \leq 1$; 3. $|\mathcal{J}_{k+1}(V_i)| = 1$; and*
191 *4. for all $V_j \neq V_i$ satisfying points 1 and 2, $\mathbf{M}^j_{\mathcal{X}_k} \notin \mathrm{Range}\left(\mathbf{M}^{\mathcal{J}_k(V_i)}_{\mathcal{X}_k} \right)$.*

192 Lemma 3 says that at least one? topological order of $\mathcal{V}$ is identifiable, so that Lemma 2 can be
193 applied to recover $\mathrm{Ch}(V_i)$. Thus the full DAG is identifiable. However, it is still unclear which nodes
194 correspond to latent variables, and which correspond to observed variables; we have yet to pair each
195 X_i with its net effects $\mathbf{M}^i_{\mathcal{X}}$. Lemma 4 shows how.

196 **Lemma 4.** *$X_i \in \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$ if and only if $X_i \in \mathcal{V}_{k+1}$ and $\mathrm{Support}\left(\mathbf{M}^i \right) - \mathcal{X}_k = \{i\}$.*

197 Together, Lemmas 1, 3, and 4 say that the full causal graph is identifiable from $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$, whence $\mathbf{F}$ is
198 identifiable due to Lemma 1. Of course, we do not know $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$—only $\mathcal{M}$. Nevertheless, Lemmas
199 1, 3, and 4 do not involve the scaling and permutation of $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$—only the linear dependencies of its
200 columns. Some simple calculation shows that Lemma 1 can be used to put any $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{D} \in \mathcal{M}$ in
201 one-to-one correspondence with $(\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{D}')^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{D}')$.

202 **Theorem 3.** *Suppose $\mathbf{F}$ satisfies generalized non-redundancy, bottleneck faithfulness, and the bottle-*
203 *neck condition. Then $\mathbf{F}$ is identifiable up to indeterminacies.*

204 5 Relation to existing work

205 Constraint-based and score-based approaches to causal discovery based on conditional independence
206 testing—such as SGS [1], IC [2], PC [6], GES [7], and FGS [8]—generally focus on the causal
207 sufficiency case the observed variables have no latent common causes), searching for causal relations
208 between observed variables. These algorithms identify the Markov equivalence class of graphs
209 which all encode the same set of conditional independence relations. While some methods based
210 on conditional independence tests are able to relax the assumption of causal sufficiency, such as
211 FCI [9] and RFCI [10], the focus is on learning the causal relations between observed variables
212 and distinguishing them from spurious dependencies induced by shared latent ancestors. However,
213 such methods recover only limited information about the latent structure, as only the most basic
214 information about latent structure is identifiable from conditional independence relations alone.

215 One may go beyond the equivalence class with additional assumptions on causal mechanisms. In
216 particular, linear non-Gaussian models have been studied extensively in the causal sufficiency case.
217 Shimizu et al. [11] leverages acyclicity of the causal relations and the identifiability of the square
218 ICA problem [12, 13], in which the number of independent sources (or noise terms) is equal to the
219 number of observed variables, to show how the causal adjacency matrix can be identified, while
220 Lacerda et al. [14] and Rothenhäusler et al. [15] further estimate a subclass of cyclic causal models.
221 In these methods, one may replace the non-Gaussian assumption on the independent sources with the
222 changing noise variance assumption and the identifiability still generally holds true [16].

223 Partially observed linear non-Gaussian models are known to be identifiable in certain special cases. If
224 we are interested in the identification of the *net* effect of one observed variable on another, then OICA
225 [3] can be used to identify the overcomplete basis $\mathcal{M}$. In this setting, Hoyer et al. [17] characterize
226 one class of unidentifiable latent structures which can be seen to violate our bottleneck condition,
227 and convert them to a canonical form in which all latent variables are independent. They further
228 provide an algorithm which recovers all canonical forms consistent with a given $\mathcal{M}$. More recently,
229 Salehkaleybar et al. [18] provide a sufficient condition under which the observed variables' net effects
230 on one another are identifiable: no latent variable L_i has precisely the same observed descendants as

any measured variable X_j (formally, for all $L_i, X_j, \text{Desc}(L_i) \cap \mathcal{X} \neq \text{Desc}(X_j) \cap \mathcal{X}$). This ensures that no L_i is a redundancy of X_j. However, non-redundancy can be satisfied even when L_i and X_j have the same observed descendants; see, for example, Figure 4.

Figure 4: Examples of graphs identifiable from $\mathcal{M}$. From left to right: a graph where $\text{Desc}(X_2) \cap \mathcal{X} = \text{Desc}(L_1) \cap \mathcal{X}$; a widening hierarchical structure; a hierarchical structure with intra-layer relations.

To recover causal structures of the hidden variables, many results rely on strong assumptions about clusters of pure variables (observed variables which each share a latent confounder and have no other parents). For example, Spearman's classical Tetrad condition [19] identifies latent causes with four pure observed children from covariance information alone. In the linear non-Gaussian case, existing work reduces the number of pure observed children to three [20], and more recently to two [21, 22]. Clearly, these are all special cases of both the bottleneck and non-redundancy conditions.

However, identification is possible even when no latent confounder has any pure children; for example, Anandkumar et al. [23] present a model in which latent variables with no pure children are identifiable. Rather than purity, they require a graph expansion property—for all $S \subseteq \mathcal{L}$, $|\bigcup_{L_i \in S} \text{Ch}(L_i) \cap \mathcal{X}| \geq |S| + d_{\max}$, where $d_{\max} = \max_i |\text{Ch}(L_i) \cap \mathcal{X}|$ —as well as a rank condition on $\mathbf{F}_{\mathcal{X}}^{\mathcal{L}}$ which places hard-to-check graphical constraints on the model and bounds $|\mathcal{L}| \leq 3|\mathcal{X}|$ in the best case. Non-redundancy among latent variables can be derived from the expansion property by considering the case where $|S| = 2$, and the bottleneck condition by considering $S = \{L_i\} \cup \text{Ch}(L_i) \cap \mathcal{L}$. Thus in one sense, our conditions can be seen as a refinement on the bound in the expansion property; however, we also remove the graphical consequences of the rank condition, so that many graphs even with $|\mathcal{L}| \gg |\mathcal{X}|$ are identifiable. For example, Figure 4 shows an identifiable hierarchical model in which the number of latent variables increases with depth. Moreover, we show that our conditions are sufficient for identifying hierarchical structures in which variables in the same layer are causally related. Figure 4 shows one such system.

Although many of these conditions for latent structure identification rely on non-Gaussian independent noise, direct estimation of the mixing matrix is often avoided in practice, especially in the causally insufficient case, as estimation of the overcomplete mixing matrix is especially challenging [5] (although it is theoretically identifiable). Estimation of the mixing matrix can be avoided by directly using the independent noise assumption and exploiting structural conditions such as causal sufficiency or purity. For example, in the causally sufficient case, $\text{Pa}(X_i)$ is identifiable by regressing X_i on $\mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ and testing the independence of the regression residuals and $\mathcal{Z}$ [24]. This approach may be adapted to the non-linear [25, 26] and post-nonlinear [27] cases. Tashiro et al.[28] extend this idea to identify causal relations among observed variables in the causally insufficient case, and a related condition is developed by Xie et al. [22] to identify one special type of confounder. However, such methods owe their efficiency to the strong structural conditions under which they guarantee identifiability. As the bottleneck and non-redundancy conditions are much more general, this naturally complicates the question of estimation.

6 Estimation

In Theorems 1 and 3, we have shown that a causal system which satisfies the conditions of Section 3 is uniquely identifiable whenever $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$ is identifiable. However, as indicated in section 5, estimation of $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$ from homogeneous non-Gaussian data—for example, by overcomplete ICA—is computationally hard. Further, whereas the estimation algorithms presented in [11], [14], and [18] require the practitioner to test which entries of $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}$ are exact zeros, a naive algorithm inspired by Lemmas 1, 2, 3, and 4 would further require them to test which submatrices' singular values are exact zeros. Such an algorithm is not advisable.

As a proof of concept, we therefore focus our experiments on partially observed linear causal models in the heterogeneous variance case. In this setting, $\mathbf{F}$ can be learned directly by optimizing the regularized likelihood with respect to $\mathbf{F}$, given the sample covariance matrices of $\mathbf{X}$. We leave more efficient estimation in more general settings to future work.

6.1 Simulations

Suppose we have access to samples from T heterogeneous domains. The data in the t-th domain follow

$$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{FV} + \varepsilon, \tag{12}$$

where $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_t)$ for diagonal Σ_t. Then in the t-th domain,

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}} \Sigma_t \mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}^T. \tag{13}$$

By Theorems 1 and 3, if $\mathbf{X}$ is generated according to (12), the independent change condition in Theorem 1 holds for the noise variances, and $\mathbf{F}$ satisfies the assumptions of Section 3, then $\mathbf{F}$ is identifiable up to trivialities.

The negative log likelihood is

$$-2\ell\ell(\mathbf{F}, \Sigma) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} n_t \left(|\mathcal{X}| \log(2\pi) + \log \det(\mathbf{S}_t) + \mathrm{Tr}\left(\mathbf{S}_t^{-1} \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^T \right] \right) \right), \tag{14}$$

where $\mathbf{x}_{t,i}$ is the i-th row of the design matrix for the t-th domain, $\hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^T \right]$ is the empirical second moment of the d-th domain, $\mathbf{S}_t = \mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}} \Sigma_t \mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{X}}^T$, and n_t is the sample size in the t-th domain. As the model is identifiable by Theorems 1 and 3, we can in principle optimize the regularized log likelihood.

As a sanity check for our theoretical results, we simulate data according to (12); for every identifiable graph structure with three observed variables and at most two latent variables, we generated ten causal adjacency matrices with weights randomly drawn from $(-0.9, -0.5) \cup (0.5, 0.9)$. We estimate $\mathbf{F}$ by minimizing the BIC via exhaustive search. Weights were randomly drawn By enumerating candidate graphs from sparsest to densest, a single search could take anywhere from 10 to 60 minutes on an Intel core i7 processor.

To verify that our estimation method was actually leveraging the noise's heterogeneity, we ran the experiment with one domain and 5000 observations. Only 3% of graphs were identified. Not surprisingly, only 15% of learned graphs had any latent variables at all. Increasing the number of domains from 1 to 3 improved the rate of structure identification to 50% of trials.

With 5 domains and 500 samples per domain, the correct graph is identified on 50% of trials; with 1000 samples per domain, this improves to 70%; and with 10 000, this further improves to 80%. In every case that the wrong graph was recovered, the equivalence class of mixing matrices $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$ induced by $\hat{\mathbf{F}}$ had incorrect support–this may be due to insufficient domains or accidentally coupled changes in the noise variances. This supports the main theory of Theorem 3, which, in light of Theorem 1, claims that the structure of $\mathbf{F}$ is uniquely determined *from a correctly identified* $\mathcal{M}$. We report detailed results in the supplementary materials for all graphs studied.

To verify our claims in Theorem 2, we also tested simulated data from ten non-identifiable partially observed DAGs—six of which stand in the main equivalence class relations of Figure 3, and four of which are not minimal. Not surprisingly, members of the same equivalence class were indistinguishable, each system achieving the same log likelihood up to eight to ten significant digits. Interestingly, in cases where the equivalence class contained one graph with a relatively long path and another graph with only short ones, the graph with shorter paths consistently achieved slightly better likelihood, regardless of the ground truth.

Because exhaustive search over graphs is computationally expensive (even for this toy problem, there are 1759 graphs, and so 1759 non-convex optimization problems), it would be desirable to instead optimize the L_1-penalized negative log likelihood:

$$(\mathbf{F}, \Sigma) = -2\ell\ell(\mathbf{F}, \Sigma) + \lambda \sum |F_{i,j}|. \tag{15}$$

As before, we simulated data from (12). Numerical experiments verify that $(\mathbf{F}^0, \Sigma^0)$ is very near a local minimum for all practical $\lambda > 0$, where $(\mathbf{F}^0, \Sigma^0)$ denotes the true adjacency matrix and noise covariances. However, experiments also suggest that this local minimum is generally quite far from the global minimum, both in parameter space and in L1 loss. Moreover, this minimum is usually denser than the true minimum. This makes intuitive sense, as the L1 penalty does not care about the density of $\hat{\mathbf{F}}$; a dense system with small coefficients may have a comparable L1 penalty as a sparse system with large coefficients. Naturally, denser systems are better equipped to fit the observed domain covariances. We summarize these experiments in the supplementary materials

7 Conclusion and discussions

In many fields such as psychometric studies, one is often interested in not only the causal relations between the measured variables, but also the relations between the latent causal variables and how the latent variables generate the measured ones. Inspired by this issue, we have contributed to the identification theory of partially observed linear causal models by providing necessary and sufficient graphical conditions for the identification of the full causal adjacencies. In the paper we assume the noise terms in the causal model follow non-Gaussian distributions or have changing variances in specific ways. Such assumptions, different from the single-domain Gaussianity assumption, renders the mixing procedure from the noise terms to the observed variables identifiable up to column permutations and rescaling. This greatly facilitates our final identifiability results. These conditions are expected to be applicable to a wide variety of latent structures. To deal with real problems, efficient estimation methods are needed, and we hope our theoretical identifiability results will stimulate algorithmic development to finally solve this important causal discovery problem. As future work, we will focus on developing practical estimation methods and extending our results to nonlinear cases.

References

[1] Peter Spirtes, Clark N Glymour, Richard Scheines, and David Heckerman. *Causation, prediction, and search*. MIT Press, 2000.

[2] Judea Pearl. *Causality*. Cambridge University Press, 2009.

[3] Michael S Lewicki and Terrence J Sejnowski. Learning overcomplete representations. *Neural Computation*, 12(2):337–365, 2000.

[4] J. Eriksson and V. Koivunen. Identifiability, separability, and uniqueness of linear ICA models. *IEEE Signal Processing Letters*, 11(7):601–604, 2004.

[5] Chenwei Ding, Mingming Gong, Kun Zhang, and Dacheng Tao. Likelihood-free overcomplete ICA and applicationsin causal discovery. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2019.

[6] Peter Spirtes and Clark Glymour. An algorithm for fast recovery of sparse causal graphs. *Social Science Computer Review*, 9(1):62–72, 1991.

[7] David Maxwell Chickering. Optimal structure identification with greedy search. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 3(Nov):507–554, 2002.

[8] Joseph Ramsey, Madelyn Glymour, Ruben Sanchez-Romero, and Clark Glymour. A million variables and more: the fast greedy equivalence search algorithm for learning high-dimensional graphical causal models, with an application to functional magnetic resonance images. *International Journal of Data Science and Analytics*, 3(2):121–129, 2017.

[9] Peter Spirtes, Christopher Meek, and Thomas Richardson. An algorithm for causal inference in the presence of latent variables and selection bias. *Computation, Causation, and Discovery*, 1999.

[10] Diego Colombo, Marloes H Maathuis, Markus Kalisch, and Thomas S Richardson. Learning high-dimensional directed acyclic graphs with latent and selection variables. *The Annals of Statistics*, pages 294–321, 2012.

[11] Shohei Shimizu, Patrik O. Hoyer, and Aapo Hyv˙ A linear non-Gaussian acyclic model for causal discovery. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 2006.

[12] P. Comon. Independent component analysis – a new concept? *Signal Processing*, 36:287–314, 1994.

[13] A. Hyvärinen, J. Karhunen, and E. Oja. *Independent Component Analysis*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc, 2001.

[14] G. Lacerda, P. Spirtes, J. Ramsey, and P. O. Hoyer. Discovering cyclic causal models by independent components analysis. *Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, 2008.

[15] Dominik Rothenhäusler, Christina Heinze, Jonas Peters, and Nicolai Meinshausen. Backshift: Learning causal cyclic graphs from unknown shift interventions. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2015.

[16] Kiyotoshi Matsuoka, Masahiro Ohoya, and Mitsuru Kawamoto. A neural net for blind separation of nonstationary signals. *Neural Networks*, 8(3):411–419, 1995.

[17] Patrik O Hoyer, Shohei Shimizu, Antti J Kerminen, and Markus Palviainen. Estimation of causal effects using linear non-Gaussian causal models with hidden variables. *International Journal of Approximate Reasoning*, 49(2):362–378, 2008.

[18] Saber Salehkaleybar, AmirEmad Ghassami, Negar Kiyavash, and Kun Zhang. Learning linear non-Gaussian causal models in the presence of latent variables. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 21(39):1–24, 2020.

[19] Charles Spearman. Pearson's contribution to the theory of two factors. *British Journal of Psychology*, 19(1):95, 1928.

[20] Shohei Shimizu, Patrik O Hoyer, and Aapo Hyvärinen. Estimation of linear non-Gaussian acyclic models for latent factors. *Neurocomputing*, 72(7-9):2024–2027, 2009.

[21] Ruichu Cai, Feng Xie, Clark Glymour, Zhifeng Hao, and Kun Zhang. Triad constraints for learning causal structure of latent variables. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2019.

[22] Feng Xie, Ruichu Cai, Biwei Huang, Clark Glymour, Zhifeng Hao, and Kun Zhang. Generalized independent noise condition for estimating linear non-Gaussian latent variable graphs. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2020.

[23] Animashree Anandkumar, Daniel Hsu, Adel Javanmard, and Sham M. Kakade. Learning linear Bayesian networks with latent variables. *Proceedings of the 30th International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2013.

[24] Shohei Shimizu, Takanori Inazumi, Yasuhiro Sogawa, Aapo Hyvärinen, Yoshinobu Kawahara, Takashi Washio, Patrik O Hoyer, and Kenneth Bollen. DirectLiNGAM: A direct method for learning a linear non-Gaussian structural equation model. *The Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 12:1225–1248, 2011.

[25] PO. Hoyer, D. Janzing, JM. Mooij, J. Peters, and B. Schölkopf. Nonlinear causal discovery with additive noise models. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 689–696, Red Hook, NY, USA, June 2009. Max-Planck-Gesellschaft, Curran.

[26] Jonas Peters, Joris M Mooij, Dominik Janzing, and Bernhard Schölkopf. Causal discovery with continuous additive noise models. 2014.

[27] Kun Zhang and Aapo Hyvärinen. On the identifiability of the post-nonlinear causal model. pages 647–655. AUAI Press, 2009.

[28] Tatsuya Tashiro, Shohei Shimizu, Aapo Hyvärinen, and Takashi Washio. ParceLiNGAM: A causal ordering method robust against latent confounders. *Neural Computation*, 2014.