Recent developments in R packages for graphical models

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1 Outline

- Introduce the gRain package (GRAphical Independence Networks) for Bayesian networks
- Conditional independence restrictions, dependency graphs, message passing
- Log-linear, graphical and decomposable models for contingency tables
- Introduce the gRim package (GRaphical Independence Models)
- Convert decomposable model to Bayesian network.
- The gRbase package and some graph algorithms

2 Graphs for graphical models

Three different representations of graphs:

```
form <- ~a:b+b:c
ug.NEL <- ug(form, result="NEL")  # graphNEL (DEFAULT)
ug.MAT <- ug(form, result="matrix")
ug.SMAT <- ug(form, result="Matrix")  # Sparse dgCMatrix
ug.IG <- ug(form, result="igraph")</pre>
```

- The packages graph and RBGL based on graphNEL (Node-EdgeList representation)
- Package igraph has a similar internal representation.

```
ug.NEL
```

```
A graphNEL graph with undirected edges
Number of Nodes = 3
Number of Edges = 2
```

```
nodes(ug.NEL)
```

```
[1] "a" "b" "c"
```

str(edges(ug.NEL))

```
List of 3
$ a: chr "b"
$ b: chr [1:2] "c" "a"
$ c: chr "b"
```

```
ug.MAT
```

```
a b c
a 0 1 0
b 1 0 1
c 0 1 0
```

ug.SMAT

```
3 x 3 sparse Matrix of class "dgCMatrix"
  a b c
a . 1 .
b 1 . 1
c . 1 .
```

ug.IG

IGRAPH UNW- 3 2 -+ attr: name (v/c), label (v/c), weight (e/n)

V(ug.IG)

Vertex sequence:
[1] "a" "b" "c"

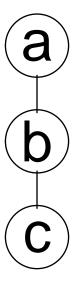
E(ug.IG)

Edge sequence:

[1] b -- a [2] c -- b

- There are plot methods for graphNELs and for igraphs.
- Graph rendering leaves something to be desired...

plot(ug.NEL)



3 Bayesian networks — the gRain package

Consider the following narrative:

Having flu (F) may cause an elevated body temperature (T) (fever). An elevated body temperature may cause a headache (H).

Illustrate this narrative by directed acyclic graph (or DAG):

plot(dag(~F+T:F+H:T))



- We have a universe consisting of the variables $V = \{F, T, H\}$ which all have a finite state space . (Here all are binary).
- Corresponding to V there is a random vector $X = X_V = (X_F, X_T, X_H)$ where $x = x_V = (x_F, x_T, x_H)$ denotes a specific configuration .
- For $A \subset V$ we have the random vector $X_A = (X_v; v \in A)$ where a configuration is denoted x_A .
- We define a joint pmf for X as

$$p_X(x) = p_{X_F}(x_F)p_{X_T|X_F}(x_T|x_F)p_{X_H|X_T}(x_H|x_T)$$
 (1)

• We allow a simpler notation: Let A and B be disjoint subsets of V. We may then use one of the forms:

$$p_{X_A|X_B}(x_A|x_B) = p_{A|B}(x_A|x_B) = p(x_A|x_B) = p(A|B)$$

Hence (1) may be written

$$p(V) = p(F)p(T|F)p(H|T)$$

 Notice: By definition of conditional probability we have from Bayes formula that

$$p(V) \equiv p(F, T, H) = p(F)p(T|F)p(H|T, F)$$

So the fact that in

$$p(V) = p(F)p(T|F)p(H|T)$$

we have p(H|T) rather than p(H|T,F) reflects the model assumption that if temperature (fever status) is known then knowledge about flu will provide no additional information about headache.

- We say that headache is conditionally independent of flu given temperature.
- Given a finding or evidence that a person has headache we may now calculate e.g. the probability of having flu, i.e. p(F = yes|H = yes).
- In this small example we can compute everything in a brute force way using table operation functions from gRbase.

3.1 Specification of conditional probability tables

We may specify p(F), p(T|F) and p(H|T) as tables with **parray()** (using **array()** is an alternative), where "yes" is coded as 1 and "no" as 2.

```
p.F <- parray("F", levels=2, values=c(.01,.99))
```

```
F
F1 F2
0.01 0.99
```

```
p.TgF <- parray(c("T","F"), levels=c(2,2), values=c(.95,.05, .01,.99))
```

```
F
T F1 F2
T1 0.95 0.01
T2 0.05 0.99
```

```
p.HgT <- parray(c("H","T"), levels=c(2,2), values=c(.8,.2, .1,.9))
```

```
T
H T1 T2
H1 0.8 0.1
```

H2 0.2 0.9

3.2 Brute force computations of conditional probabilities

Functions tableMult(), tableDiv() and tableMargin() are useful.

1) First calculate joint distribution:

```
p.V <- tableMult(tableMult(p.F, p.TgF), p.HgT)
head(as.data.frame.table(p.V))</pre>
```

```
H T F Freq

1 H1 T1 F1 0.00760

2 H2 T1 F1 0.00190

3 H1 T2 F1 0.00005

4 H2 T2 F1 0.00045

5 H1 T1 F2 0.00792

6 H2 T1 F2 0.00198
```

2) Then calculate the marginal distribution

```
p.FT <- tableMargin(p.V, margin=c('F','T'))
as.data.frame.table(p.FT)</pre>
```

```
F T Freq
1 F1 T1 0.0095
2 F2 T1 0.0099
```

```
3 F1 T2 0.0005
4 F2 T2 0.9801
```

3) Then calculate conditional distribution

```
p.T <- tableMargin(p.FT, margin='T')
p.FgT <- tableDiv(p.FT, p.T)
p.FgT</pre>
```

```
F
T F1 F2
T1 0.4896907216 0.5103093
T2 0.0005098919 0.9994901
```

So
$$p(F = yes|H = yes) = 0.500$$
.

However, this scheme is computationally prohibitive in large networks: With 80 variables each with 10 the total state space is 10^{80} – the estimated number of atoms in the universe...

3.3 Bayesian Network (BN) basics

- A Bayesian network is a often understood to be graphical model based on a directed acyclic graph (a DAG).
- A BN typically will typically satisfy conditional independence restrictions
 which enables computations of updated probabilities for states of unobserved
 variables to be made very efficiently.
- The DAG only is used to give a simple and transparent way of specifying a probability model.
- The computations are based on exploiting conditional independencies in an undirected graph.
- Therefore, methods for building undirected graphical models can just as easily be used for building BNs.

3.4 The chest clinic narrative

Lauritzen and Spiegehalter (1988) presents the following narrative:

"Shortness—of—breath (dyspnoea) may be due to tuberculosis, lung cancer or bronchitis, or none of them, or more than one of them.

A recent visit to Asia increases the chances of tuberculosis, while smoking is known to be a risk factor for both lung cancer and bronchitis.

The results of a single chest X-ray do not discriminate between lung cancer and tuberculosis, as neither does the presence or absence of dyspnoea."

The universe is

 $V = \{ Asia, Tub, Smoke, Lung, Either, Bronc, X-ray, Dysp \}$

A formalization of this narrative is as follows: The DAG in Figure 1 corresponds to a factorization of the joint probability function as

$$p(V) = p(A)p(T|A)p(S)p(L|S)p(B|S)p(E|T,L)p(D|E,B)p(X|E).$$
 (2)

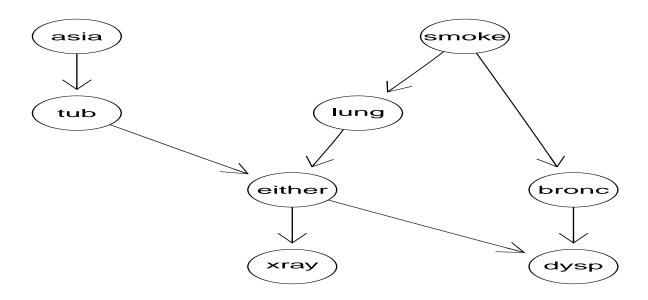


Figure 1: The directed acyclic graph corresponding to the chest clinic example.

3.5 Findings and queries

- Suppose we are given the finding that a person has recently visited Asia and suffers from dyspnoea, i.e. A= yes and D= yes. Generally denote findings as $E=e^*$
- Interest may be in the conditional distributions $p(L|e^*)$, $p(T|e^*)$ and $p(B|e^*)$, or possibly in the joint (conditional) distribution $p(L,T,B|e^*)$.
- Interest might also be in calculating the probability of a specific event, e.g. the probability of seeing a specific evidence, i.e. $p(E=e^*)$.
- gRain does this by using the Lauritzen-Spiegelhalter (1988) algorithm.

3.6 The chest clinic

Specify chest clinic network.

```
Independence network: Compiled: FALSE Propagated: FALSE
Nodes: chr [1:8] "asia" "tub" "smoke" "lung" "bronc" "either" ...
```

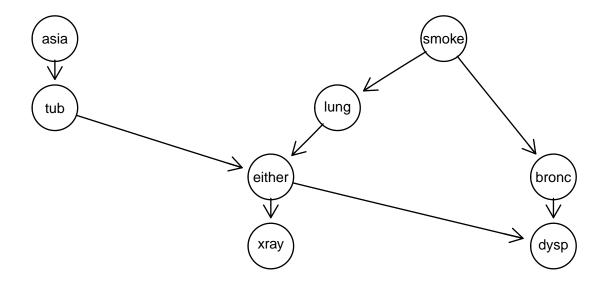
plist

```
CPTspec with probabilities:
  P( asia )
  P( tub | asia )
  P( smoke )
  P( lung | smoke )
  P( bronc | smoke )
  P( either | lung tub )
  P( xray | either )
  P( dysp | bronc either )
```

plist\$tub

NULL

plot(bnet)



3.7 Queries – getting beliefs

```
querygrain(bnet, nodes=c('lung', 'tub', 'bronc'))
```

```
$tub
tub
yes no
0.0104 0.9896

$lung
lung
yes no
0.055 0.945

$bronc
bronc
yes no
0.45 0.55
```

3.8 Setting findings – and getting updated beliefs

```
(bnet.f <- setFinding(bnet, nodes=c('asia', 'dysp'), state=c('yes','yes')))
```

```
Independence network: Compiled: TRUE Propagated: TRUE
Nodes: chr [1:8] "asia" "tub" "smoke" "lung" "bronc" "either" ...
Findings: chr [1:2] "asia" "dysp"
```

```
querygrain(bnet.f, nodes=c('lung', 'tub', 'bronc'))
```

```
$tub
tub
    yes    no
0.08775096 0.91224904

$lung
lung
    yes    no
0.09952515 0.90047485

$bronc
bronc
yes    no
```

0.8114021 0.1885979

```
querygrain(bnet.f, nodes=c('lung', 'tub', 'bronc'), type='joint')
```

```
tub
lung     yes     no
    yes 0.003149038 0.05983172
    no 0.041837216 0.70658410

, , bronc = no
    tub
lung     yes     no
    yes 0.001827219 0.03471717
    no 0.040937491 0.11111605
```

3.9 Probability of a finding

```
getFinding(bnet.f)
```

```
Finding:
variable state
[1,] asia yes
[2,] dysp yes
Pr(Finding)= 0.004501375
```

```
pFinding(bnet.f)
```

[1] 0.004501375

4 Under the hood of gRain — and on the way to gRim

Efficient computations in BNs are based on exploiting conditional independence restrictions.

ullet X and Y are conditionally independent given Z (written $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z)$ if

$$p(x, y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z)$$

or equivalently

$$p(y|x,z) = p(y|z)$$

- So if Z=z is known then knowledge of X will provide no additional knowledge of Y.
- ullet A general condition is the factorization criterion : $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z$ if

$$p(x, y, z) = g(x, z)h(y, z)$$

for non-negative functions g() and h().

4.1 Dependence graph

Given variables V, let $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, \dots, a_Q\}$ be a collection of subset of V.

Suppose

$$p(x) = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \phi_a(x_a)$$

where $\phi_a()$ is a non-negative function of x_a .

The dependence graph for p has vertices V and undirected edges given as follows:

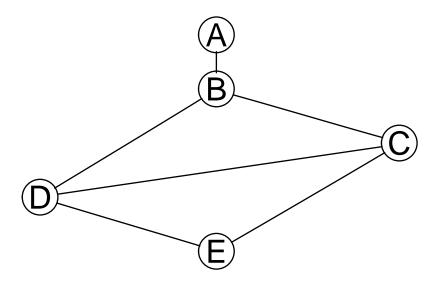
There is an edge between α and β iff $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ is in one of the sets $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

Suppose

$$p(x) = \phi_{AB}(x_{AB})\psi_{BCD}(x_{BCD})\psi_{CDE}(x_{CDE})$$

Then the dependence graph for p is given as follows:

plot(ug(~A:B+B:C:D+C:D:E))



4.2 Reading conditional independencies – global Markov property

Conditional independencies can be read off the dependence graph:

• Recall basic factorization *p*:

$$p(x) = \phi_{AB}(x_{AB})\psi_{BCD}(x_{BCD})\psi_{CDE}(x_{CDE})$$

Recall factorization criterion:

$$X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y|Z$$
 if $p(x,y,z) = g(x,z)h(y,z)$

- Global Markov Property : If X and Y are separated by Z in the dependence graph \mathcal{G} then $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z$.
- Example: $(D, E) \perp \!\!\!\perp A | (B, C)$: Proof:

$$p(x) = \left[\phi_{AB}(x_{AB})\psi_{BCD}(x_{BCD})\right]\left[\psi_{CDE}(x_{CDE})\right] = g(x_{ABCD})h(x_{CDE})$$

4.3 Dependence graph for chest clinic example

Recall chest clinic DAG–factorization

$$p(V) = p(A)p(T|A)p(S)p(L|S)p(B|S)p(E|T,L)p(D|E,B)p(X|E).$$

Think of conditional probilities as potentials and rewrite as:

$$p(V) = \psi(A)\psi(T, A)\psi(S)\psi(L, S)\psi(B, S)\psi(E, T, L)\psi(D, E, B)\psi(X, E).$$

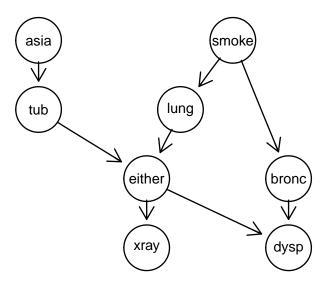
Next, absorb lower order terms into higher order terms:

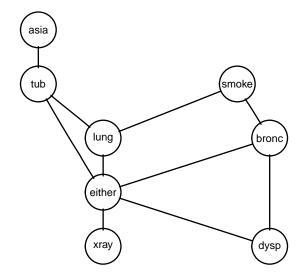
$$p(V) = \psi(T, A)\psi(L, S)\psi(B, S)\psi(E, T, L)\psi(D, E, B)\psi(X, E).$$

The dependence graph of the last form is the moral graph of the DAG.

Given DAG, the moral graph is obtained by 1) marrying parents and 2) dropping directions – called moralization; **moralize()** does this.

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(bnet$dag)
plot(moralize(bnet$dag))
```



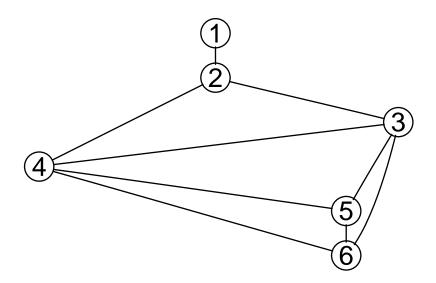


4.4 Graphs and cliques

A clique of a graph is a maximal complete subgraph.

```
plot((g<-ug(~1:2+2:3:4+3:4:5:6)))
str(maxClique(g)$maxCliques)</pre>
```

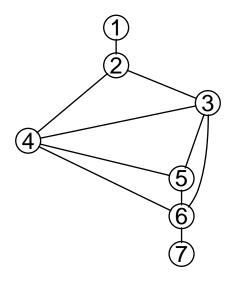
```
List of 3
$ : chr [1:4] "3" "4" "5" "6"
$ : chr [1:3] "3" "4" "2"
$ : chr [1:2] "1" "2"
```

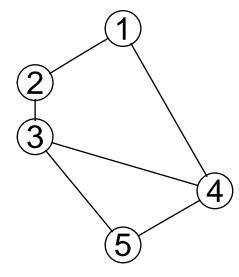


4.5 Decomposable graphs

A graph is decomposable (or triangulated) iff it contains no cycles of length ≥ 4 .

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot((g1<- ug(~1:2+2:3:4+3:4:5:6+6:7)))
plot((g2<- ug(~1:2+2:3+3:4:5+4:1)))</pre>
```





Decomposability can be checked with Maximum Cardinality Search (mcs()):

mcs(g1)

[1] "1" "2" "3" "4" "5" "6" "7"

mcs(g2)

character(0)

4.6 The key computations with BNs: message passing

Suppose

$$p(x) = \prod_{C:cliques} \psi_C(x_C)$$

where C are the cliques of a decomposable graph .

ullet We may write p in a clique potential representation

$$p(x) = \frac{\prod_{C:cliques} \psi_C(x_C)}{\prod_{S:separators} \psi_S(x_S)}$$

- The terms are called potentials; the representation is not unique.
- Potential representation easy to obtain:
 - Set all $\psi_C(x_C)=1$ and all $\psi_S(x_S)=1$
 - Assign each conditional $p(x_v|x_{pa(v)})$ to a potential ψ_C for a clique C containing $v\cup pa(v)$ by

$$\psi_C(x_C) \leftarrow \psi_C(x_C) p(x_v | x_{pa(v)})$$

• Using local computations (multiplying and dividing low–dimensional tables) we can manipulate the potentials to obtain clique marginal representation :

$$p(x) = rac{\prod_{C:cliques} p_C(x_C)}{\prod_{S:separators} p_S(x_S)}$$

- 1. First until the potentials contain the clique and separator marginals, i.e. $\psi_C(x_C) = p_C(x_C)$.
- 2. Next until the potentials contain the clique and separator marginals conditional on a certain set of findings, i.e. $\psi_C(x_C, e^*) = p_C(x_C|e^*)$.
- Done by message passing: Sending messages between neighbouring cliques in decomposable graph – in a particular order – a rip ordering.
- ullet Notice: We do not want to carry out the multiplication above. Better to think about that we have a representation of p as

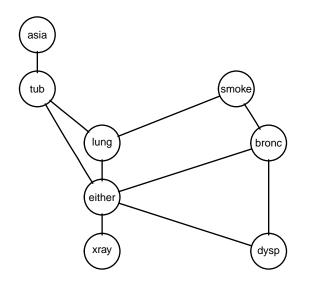
$$p \equiv \{p_C, p_S; C : cliques, S : separators\}$$

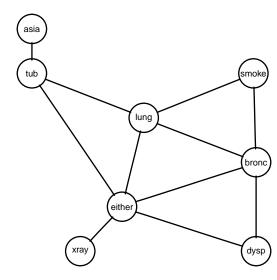
4.7 Triangulation

The dependence graph for the chest clinic example is not decomposable (it contains 4-cycles) so the message passing scheme is not directly applicable.

But, we can add edges, so called fill—ins to the the dependence graph to make the graph decomposable. This is called triangulation:

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot((mdag <- moralize(bnet$dag)))
plot((tmdag <- triangulate(moralize(bnet$dag))))</pre>
```





DAG:

$$p(V) = p(A)p(T|A)p(S)p(L|S)p(B|S)p(D|E,B)p(E|T,L)p(X|E).$$

Dependence graph (moral graph):

$$p(V) = \psi(T, A)\psi(L, S)\psi(B, S)\psi(D, E, B)\psi(E, T, L)\psi(X, E).$$

Triangulated graph:

$$p(V) = \psi(T, A)\psi(L, S, B)\psi(L, E, B)\psi(D, E, B)\psi(E, T, L)\psi(X, E)$$

where

$$\psi(L, S, B) = \psi(L, S)\psi(B, S) \quad \phi(L, E, B) \equiv 1$$

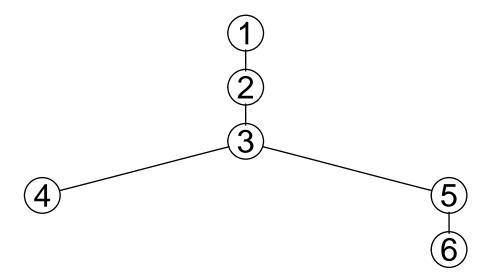
Notice: We have not changed the fundamental model by these steps, but some conditional independencies are concealed in the triangulated graph.

But the triangulated graph factorization allows efficient calculations. \checkmark

(chest.rip <- rip(tmdag))</pre>

```
cliques
  1 : tub asia
  2 : either tub lung
  3 : bronc lung either
  4 : smoke lung bronc
  5 : dysp bronc either
  6 : xray either
separators
  1:
  2 : tub
  3 : lung either
  4 : lung bronc
  5 : bronc either
  6 : either
parents
  1:0
  2:1
  3:2
  4:3
  5:3
  6:5
```

plot(chest.rip)



4.8 Fundamental operations in gRain

Fundamental operations in gRain so far:

- Network specification: **grain()** Create a network from list of conditional probability tables; and do a few other things.
- Set findings: **setFinding()**: Set the values of some variables.
- Ask queries: querygrain(): Get updated beliefs (conditional probabilities given findings) of some variables

Under the hood there are two additional operations:

- Compilation: **compile()** Create a clique potential representation (and a few other steps)
- Propagation: **propagate()** Turn clique potentials into clique marginals.

These operations must be made before querygrain() can be called but querygrain() will make these operations if necessary.

4.9 Summary of the BN part

 We have used a DAG for specifying a complex stochastic model through simple conditional probabilities

$$p(V) = \prod_{v} p(v|pa(v))$$

 Afterwards we transfer the model to a factorization over the cliques of a decomposable graph

$$p(V) = \{ \prod_{C:cliques} \psi_C(C) \} / \{ \prod_{S:separators} \psi_S(S) \}$$

- We then forget about the DAG part and the conditional probability tables.
- It is through message passing between cliques of the decomposable graph that the efficient computation of probabilities takes place.
- Therefore, we may skip the DAG part and find the decomposable graph and corresponding clique potentials from data.

5 Contingency tables

In a study of lizard behaviour, characteristics of 409 lizards were recorded, namely species (S), perch diameter (D) and perch height (H).

```
data(lizardRAW, package="gRbase")
head(lizardRAW)
```

```
diam height species

1 >4 >4.75 dist

2 >4 >4.75 dist

3 <=4 <=4.75 anoli

4 >4 <=4.75 anoli

5 >4 <=4.75 dist

6 <=4 <=4.75 anoli
```

```
dim(lizardRAW)
```

```
[1] 409 3
```

We summarize data in a contingency table with cells (dhs) and counts n_{dhs} given by:

```
data(lizard, package="gRbase")
lizard
```

```
, , species = anoli
    height
diam >4.75 <=4.75
 <=4
        32
               86
        11
               35
 >4
, , species = dist
    height
diam >4.75 <=4.75
 <=4
        61
               73
               70
 >4
        41
```

5.1 Log-linear models

- We model the cell probabilities p_{dhs} .
- Commonly done by a hierarchical expansion of log-cell-probabilities into interaction terms

$$\log p_{dhs} = \alpha^{0} + \alpha_{d}^{D} + \alpha_{h}^{H} + \alpha_{s}^{S} + \beta_{dh}^{DH} + \beta_{ds}^{DS} + \beta_{hs}^{HS} + \gamma_{dhs}^{DHS}$$

- Structure on the model is obtained by setting interaction terms to zero.
- Must follow the principle that if an interaction term is set to zero then all higher order terms containing that interaction terms must also be set to zero.)
- For example, if we set $\beta_{dh}^{DH}=0$ then we must also set $\gamma_{dhs}^{DHS}=0$.
- The non-zero interaction terms are the generators of the model. Setting $\beta_{dh}^{DH}=\gamma_{dhs}^{DHS}=0$ the generators are

$$\{D, H, S, DS, HS\}$$

 Generators contained in higher order generators can be omitted so the generators become

$$\{DS, HS\}$$

corresponding to

$$\log p_{dhs} = \alpha_{ds}^{DS} + \alpha_{hs}^{HS}$$

• Instead of taking logs we may write p_{hds} in product form

$$p_{dhs} = \psi_{ds}^{DS} \psi_{hs}^{HS}$$

• The factorization criterion gives directly that $D \perp\!\!\!\perp H|S$.

- More generally the generating class of a log-linear model is a set $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, \dots, a_Q\}$ where $a_q \subset V$.
- This corresponds to

$$p(x) = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \phi_a(x_a)$$

where ϕ_a is a potential, a function that depends on x only through x_a .

Under multinomial sampling the likelihood is

$$L = \prod_{x} p(x)^{n(x)} = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \prod_{x_A} \phi_a(x_a)^{n(x_a)}$$

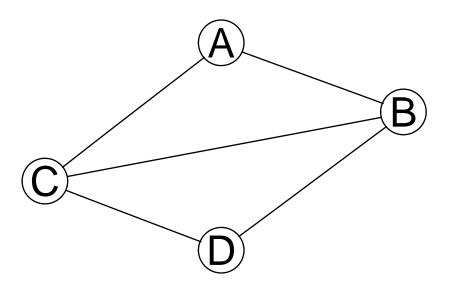
• In gRim, the MLE \hat{p} is found by IPS (iterative proportional scaling) as implemented in loglin().

5.2 Graphical models

A hierarchical log-linear model with generating class A is graphical if A are the cliques of the dependence graph.

EXAMPLE: $A_1 = \{ABC, BCD\}$ is graphical but $A_2 = \{AB, AC, BCD\}$ is not graphical. Both have dependence graph with cliques A_1 .

plot(ug(~A:B:C+B:C:D))

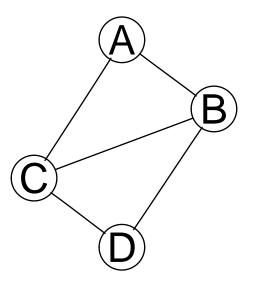


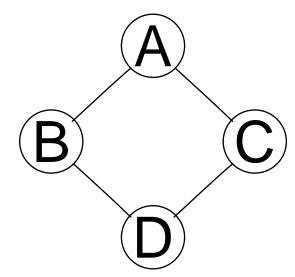
5.3 Decomposable models

A graphical log-linear model is decomposable if the models dependence graph is decomposable.

EXAMPLE: $A_1 = \{ABC, BCD\}$ is decomposable; $A_2 = \{AB, AC, BD, CD\}$ is not.

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot((g1<-ug(~A:B:C+B:C:D)))
plot((g2<-ug(~A:B+A:C+B:D+C:D)))</pre>
```





5.4 ML estimation in decomposable models

• For a decomposable model, the MLE can be found in closed form as

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{\prod_{C:cliques} \hat{p}_C(x_C)}{\prod_{S:separators} \hat{p}_S(x_S)}$$
(3)

where $\hat{p}_E(x_E) = n(x_E)/n$ for any clique or separator E.

• Consider the lizard data and the model $\mathcal{A} = \{[DS][HS]\}$. The MLE is

$$\hat{p}_{dhs} = \frac{(n_{ds}/n)(n_{hs}/n)}{n_s/n} = \frac{n_{ds}n_{hs}}{nn_s}$$

- The result (3) is IMPORTANT in connection with Bayesian networks, because we obtain a clique potential representation of p directly.
- Hence if we find a decomposable graphical model then we can convert this to a Bayesian network.

6 Testing for conditional independence

Tests of general conditional independence hypotheses of the form $u \perp \!\!\!\perp v | W$ can be performed with **ciTest()** (a wrapper for calling **ciTest_table()**) from gRim.

```
args(ciTest_table)

function (x, set = NULL, statistic = "dev", method = "chisq",
    adjust.df = TRUE, slice.info = TRUE, L = 20, B = 200, ...)
NULL
```

The general syntax of the set argument is of the form (u, v, W) where u and v are variables and W is a set of variables.

```
ciTest(lizard, set=c("diam","height","species"))
```

```
Testing diam _|_ height | species
Statistic (DEV): 2.026 df: 2 p-value: 0.3632 method: CHISQ
```

The set argument can be given in different forms:

Alternative forms are available:

```
ciTest(lizard, set=~diam+height+species)
ciTest(lizard, ~di+he+s)
ciTest(lizard, c("di","he","sp"))
ciTest(lizard, c(2,3,1))
```

6.1 What is a CI-test – stratification

Conditional independence of u and v given W means independence of u and v for each configuration w^* of W.

In model terms, the test performed by **ciTest()** corresponds to the test for removing the edge $\{u, v\}$ from the saturated model with variables $\{u, v\} \cup W$.

Conceptually form a factor S by crossing the factors in W. The test can be formulated as a test of the conditional independence $u \perp \!\!\! \perp v | S$ in a three way table.

The deviance decomposes into independent contributions from each stratum:

$$D = 2\sum_{ijs} n_{ijs} \log \frac{n_{ijs}}{\hat{m}_{ijs}}$$
$$= \sum_{s} 2\sum_{ij} n_{ijs} \log \frac{n_{ijs}}{\hat{m}_{ijs}} = \sum_{s} D_{s}$$

where the contribution D_s from the sth slice is the deviance for the independence model of u and v in that slice.

```
(cit <- ciTest(lizard, set=~diam+height+species, slice.info=T))</pre>
```

```
Testing diam _|_ height | species
Statistic (DEV): 2.026 df: 2 p-value: 0.3632 method: CHISQ
```

cit\$slice

```
statistic p.value df species
1 0.1779795 0.6731154 1 anoli
2 1.8476671 0.1740550 1 dist
```

The sth slice is a $|u| \times |v|$ -table $\{n_{ijs}\}_{i=1...|u|,j=1...|v|}$. The degrees of freedom corresponding to the test for independence in this slice is

$$df_s = (\#\{i : n_{i \cdot s} > 0\} - 1)(\#\{j : n_{\cdot js} > 0\} - 1)$$

where $n_{i\cdot s}$ and $n_{\cdot js}$ are the marginal totals.

6.2 Monte Carlo tests*

An alternative to the asymptotic χ^2 test is to determine the reference distribution using Monte Carlo methods.

The marginal totals are sufficient statistics under the null hypothesis, and in a conditional test the test statistic is evaluated in the conditional distribution given the sufficient statistics.

Hence one can generate all possible tables with those given margins, calculate the desired test statistic for each of these tables and then see how extreme the observed test statistic is.

A Monte Carlo approximation is to randomly generate large number of tables with the given margins and then proceed as above.

This is called a Monte Carlo exact test $\,$ and it provides a Monte Carlo $\,p$ —value $\,$.

```
ciTest(lizard, set=~diam+height+species, method="MC")
```

```
Testing diam _|_ height | species
Statistic (DEV): 2.026 df: NA p-value: 0.3735 method: MC
```

7 Log-linear models using the gRim package

Risk factors for coronary artery disease (CAD):

```
data(cad1)
head(cad1)
```

	Sex	AngPec	AM	I QWave	QWavecode	STcode	STchange	SuffHeartF
1	Male	None	NotCertai	n No	Usable	Usable	No	No
2	Male	Atypical	NotCertai	n No	Usable	Usable	No	No
3	Female	None	Definit	e No	Usable	Usable	No	No
4	Male	None	NotCertai	n No	Usable	Nonusable	No	No
5	Male	None	NotCertai	n No	Usable	Nonusable	No	No
6	Male	None	NotCertai	n No	Usable	Nonusable	No	No
	Hyperti	cophi Hype	erchol Smo	ker Inh	erit Heart	fail CAD		
1		No	No	No	No	No No		
2		No	No	No	No	No No		
3		No	No	No	No	No No		
4		No	No	No	No	No No		
5		No	No	No	No	No No		
6		No	No	No	No	No No		

The function **dmod()** is used for specifying log-linear models.

- Data must be a table or dataframe (which can be coerced to a table)
- Model given as generating class:
 - A right-hand-sided formula or
 - A list.
 - Variable names may be abbreviated:

```
mm <- dmod(~CAD:Sex+Sex:Smoker:Inherit, data=cad1)
mm <- dmod(list(c("CAD","Sex"), c("Sex","Smoker","Inherit")), data=cad1)
mm <- dmod(~C:Se+Se:Sm:I, data=cad1)
mm</pre>
```

```
Model: A dModel with 4 variables
graphical: TRUE decomposable: TRUE
-2logL: 1078.94 mdim: 9 aic: 1096.94
ideviance: 21.71 idf: 5 bic: 1128.11
deviance: 30.46 df: 6
```

The generating class as a list is retrieved with **terms()** and as a formula with **formula()**:

```
str(terms(mm))

List of 2
$ : chr [1:2] "CAD" "Sex"
$ : chr [1:3] "Sex" "Smoker" "Inherit"

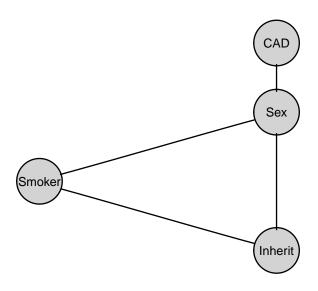
formula(mm)

~CAD * Sex + Sex * Smoker * Inherit
```

7.1 Plotting the dependence graph

If Rgraphviz is installed, graphs (and models) can be plotted with **plot()**. Otherwise **iplot()** may be used.

plot(mm)



Notice: No dependence graph in model object; must be generated on the fly using ugList():

```
# Default: a graphNEL object
DG <- ugList(terms(mm))
DG</pre>
```

```
A graphNEL graph with undirected edges

Number of Nodes = 4

Number of Edges = 4
```

```
# Alternative: an adjacency matrix
ugList(terms(mm), result="matrix")
```

```
CAD Sex Smoker Inherit

CAD 0 1 0 0

Sex 1 0 1 1

Smoker 0 1 0 1

Inherit 0 1 1 0
```

7.2 Model specification shortcuts

Shortcuts for specifying some models

```
str(terms(dmod(~.^., data=cad1))) ## Saturated model

List of 1
$ : chr [1:14] "Sex" "AngPec" "AMI" "QWave" ...

str(terms(dmod(~.^1, data=cad1))[1:4]) ## Independence model

List of 4
$ : chr "Sex"
$ : chr "AngPec"
$ : chr "AMI"
$ : chr "QWave"
```

```
List of 4
$ : chr [1:3] "Sex" "AngPec" "AMI"
$ : chr [1:3] "Sex" "AngPec" "QWave"
$ : chr [1:3] "Sex" "AngPec" "QWavecode"
```

str(terms(dmod(~.^3, data=cad1))[1:4]) ## All 3-factor model

```
$ : chr [1:3] "Sex" "AngPec" "STcode"
```

Useful to combine with specification of a marginal table:

\$: chr "Inherit"

```
marg <- c("Sex", "Smoker", "Inherit")
str(terms(dmod(~.^., data=cad1, margin=marg))) ## Saturated model

List of 1
$ : chr [1:3] "Sex" "Smoker" "Inherit"

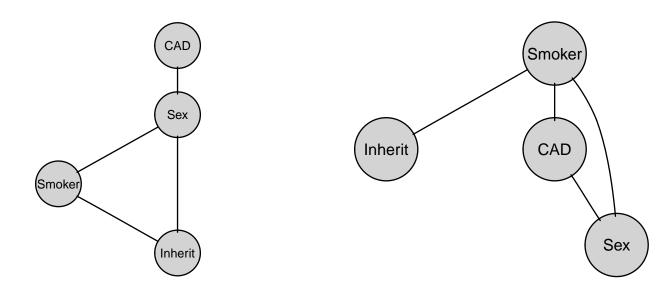
str(terms(dmod(~.^1, data=cad1, margin=marg))) ## Independence model

List of 3
$ : chr "Sex"
$ : chr "Smoker"</pre>
```

7.3 Altering graphical models

Natural operations on graphical models: add and delete edges

```
mm <- dmod(~CAD:Sex+Sex:Smoker:Inherit, data=cad1)
mm2 <- update(mm, list(dedge=~Sex:Inherit, aedge=~CAD:Smoker)) # No abbreviations
par(mfrow=c(1,2)); plot(mm); plot(mm2)</pre>
```



7.4 Model comparison

Models are compared with compareModels().

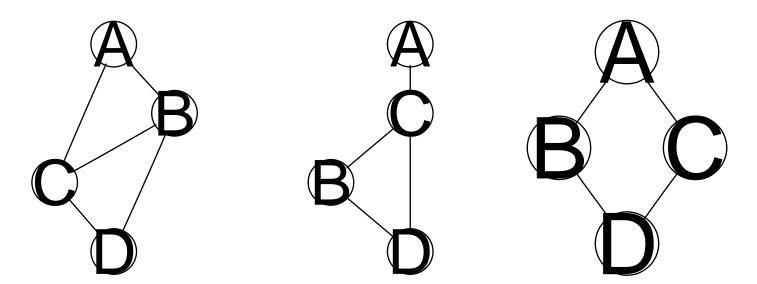
```
mm <- dmod(~CAD:Sex+Sex:Smoker:Inherit, data=cad1)
mm2 <- update(mm, list(dedge=~Sex:Inherit+CAD:Sex)) # No abbreviations
compareModels(mm,mm2)</pre>
```

```
Large:
    :"CAD" "Sex"
    :"Sex" "Smoker" "Inherit"
Small:
    :"Sex" "Smoker"
    :"Smoker" "Inherit"
    :"CAD"
-2logL:    8.84 df: 3 AIC(k= 2.0):    2.84 p.value: 0.219414
```

7.5 Decomposable models – deleting edges

Result: If A_1 is a decompsable model and we remove an edge $e = \{u, v\}$ which is contained in one clique C only, then the new model A_2 will also be decomposable.

```
par(mfrow=c(1,3))
plot(ug(~A:B:C+B:C:D))
plot(ug(~A:C+B:C+B:C:D))
plot(ug(~A:B+A:C+B:D+C:D))
```



Left: A_1 – decomposable; Center: dropping $\{A, B\}$ gives decomposable model; Right: dropping $\{B, C\}$ gives non–decomposable model.

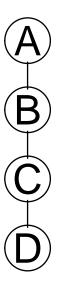
Result: The test for removal of $e = \{u, v\}$ which is contained in one clique C only can be made as a test for $u \perp\!\!\!\perp v | C \setminus \{u, v\}$ in the C-marginal table.

This is done by **ciTest()**. Hence, no model fitting is necessary.

7.6 Decomposable models – adding edges

More tricky when adding edge to a decomposable model

plot(ug(~A:B+B:C+C:D))



Adding $\{A, D\}$ gives non–decomposable model; adding $\{A, C\}$ gives decomposable model.

One solution: Try adding edge to graph and test if new graph is decomposable. Can be tested with maximum cardinality search as implemented in mcs(). Runs in O(|edges| + |vertices|).

```
UG <- ug(~A:B+B:C+C:D)
mcs(UG)</pre>
```

```
[1] "A" "B" "C" "D"
```

```
UG1 <- addEdge("A","D",UG)
mcs(UG1)
```

character(0)

```
UG2 <- addEdge("A","C",UG)
mcs(UG2)</pre>
```

[1] "A" "B" "C" "D"

7.7 Test for adding and deleting edges

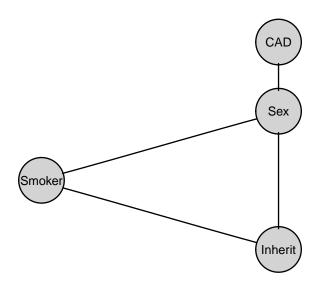
Done with **testdelete()** and **testadd()**

```
mm <- dmod(~CAD:Sex+Sex:Smoker:Inherit, data=cad1)
plot(mm)
testdelete(mm, edge=c("Sex","Smoker"))</pre>
```

```
dev: 6.083 df: 2 p.value: 0.04775 AIC(k=2.0): 2.1 edge: Sex:Smoker
```

host: Sex Smoker Inherit

Notice: Test performed in saturated marginal model

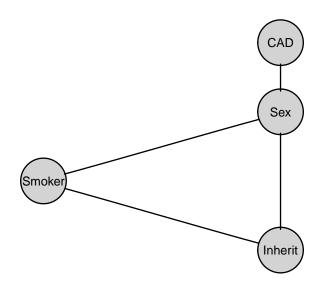


```
mm <- dmod(~CAD:Sex+Sex:Smoker:Inherit, data=cad1)
plot(mm)
testadd(mm, edge=c("CAD", "Smoker"))</pre>
```

dev: 12.972 df: 2 p.value: 0.00152 AIC(k=2.0): -9.0 edge: CAD:Smoker

host: Sex Smoker CAD

Notice: Test performed in saturated marginal model



7.8 Model search in log-linear models using gRim

Model selection implemented in **stepwise()** function.

- Backward / forward search (Default: backward)
- Select models based on p-values or AIC(k=2) (Default: AIC(k=2))
- Model types can be "unsrestricted" or "decomposable". (Default is decomposable if initial model is decomposable)
- Search method can be "all" or "headlong". (Default is all)

```
args(stepwise.iModel)
```

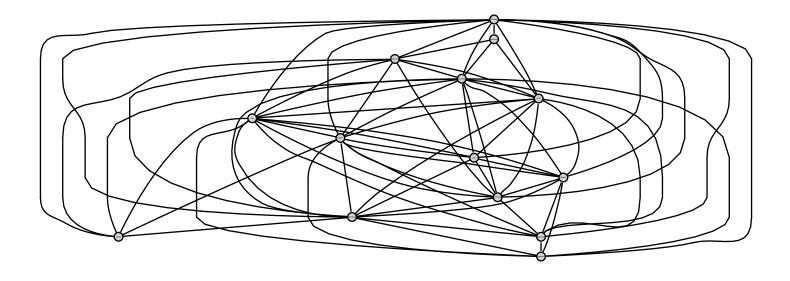
```
function (object, criterion = "aic", alpha = NULL, type = "decomposable",
    search = "all", steps = 1000, k = 2, direction = "backward",
    fixinMAT = NULL, fixoutMAT = NULL, details = 0, trace = 2,
    ...)
NULL
```

```
dm1 <- dmod(~.^., data=cad1)
dm2 <- stepwise(dm1, details=1)</pre>
```

```
STEPWISE:
 criterion: aic (k = 2)
 direction: backward
         : decomposable
type
 search : all
          : 1000
steps
. BACKWARD: type=decomposable search=all, criterion=aic(2.00), alpha=0.00
. Initial model: is graphical=TRUE is decomposable=TRUE
  change.AIC
             -7.2946 Edge deleted: Hyperchol SuffHeartF
 change.AIC -9.9724 Edge deleted: SuffHeartF STchange
 change.AIC
              -8.9869 Edge deleted: Hyperchol STchange
 change.AIC
              -6.9429 Edge deleted: Hyperchol AMI
 change.AIC
             -5.0911 Edge deleted: Inherit SuffHeartF
 change.AIC
              -8.3854 Edge deleted: SuffHeartF AngPec
 change.AIC
             -5.8491 Edge deleted: Inherit AMI
 change.AIC
              -3.3619 Edge deleted: SuffHeartF AMI
              -4.7562 Edge deleted: SuffHeartF Sex
  change.AIC
 change.AIC
              -4.8269 Edge deleted: SuffHeartF Smoker
 change.AIC
              -3.8263 Edge deleted: AMI Hypertrophi
              -3.1899 Edge deleted: STchange Inherit
 change.AIC
 change.AIC
              -2.6369 Edge deleted: CAD Hyperchol
  change.AIC
              -7.6756 Edge deleted: Inherit CAD
```

```
change.AIC
            -2.1665 Edge deleted: SuffHeartF QWavecode
change.AIC
           -2.9359 Edge deleted: SuffHeartF QWave
change.AIC
            -1.7686 Edge deleted: QWavecode AMI
change.AIC
            -0.6979 Edge deleted: Inherit Hyperchol
change.AIC
            -2.5723 Edge deleted: Inherit QWavecode
change.AIC
            -1.5910 Edge deleted: Hyperchol Hypertrophi
change.AIC
           -3.7745 Edge deleted: Hypertrophi QWavecode
change.AIC
            -1.1525 Edge deleted: Inherit QWave
change.AIC
            -3.9161 Edge deleted: QWave Hypertrophi
```

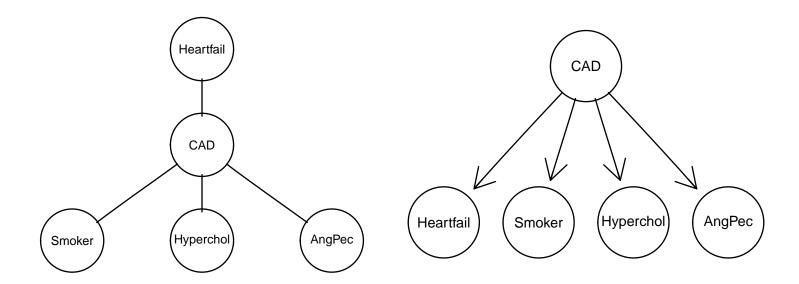
plot(dm2)



8 From graph and data to network

Consider naive Bayesian model for CAD data: All risk factors/symptoms are conditionally independent given the disease:

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(UG <- ug(~Heartfail:CAD+Smoker:CAD+Hyperchol:CAD+AngPec:CAD))
plot(DAG <- dag(~Heartfail:CAD+Smoker:CAD+Hyperchol:CAD+AngPec:CAD))</pre>
```



From a statistical point of view these two models are equivalent.

Given either a DAG or an UG and data (either as a table or as a dataframe) we can construct BN's on the fly:

```
cadmod1 <- compile(grain(UG, cad1))
cadmod2 <- compile(grain(DAG, cad1))</pre>
```

```
querygrain(cadmod1, nodes="CAD")
```

```
$CAD
CAD
No Yes
0.5466102 0.4533898
```

```
querygrain(cadmod2, nodes="CAD")
```

```
$CAD
CAD
No Yes
0.5466102 0.4533898
```

9 Prediction

We shall try to predict CAD in the validation dataset cad2

```
data(cad2)
head(cad2,3)
```

```
Sex AngPec
                AMI QWave QWavecode
                                             STcode STchange SuffHeartF
   Male
          None NotCertain
                                   Usable
                                            Usable
                             No
                                                         Yes
                                                                    Yes
          None NotCertain No
2 Female
                                   Usable
                                            Usable
                                                         Yes
                                                                    Yes
3 Female None NotCertain No Nonusable Nonusable
                                                          No
                                                                    No
 Hypertrophi Hyperchol Smoker Inherit Heartfail CAD
                         <NA>
                                                No
1
          No
                    No
                                   No
                                             No
2
                         <NA>
          No
                                   No
                                                No
                    No
                                             No
                                             No No
3
                   Yes
                         <NA>
          No
                                   No
```

using **predict.grain()**.

```
args(predict.grain)
```

```
function (object, response, predictors = setdiff(names(newdata),
    response), newdata, type = "class", ...)
```

NULL

```
$pred
$pred$CAD
[1] "No" "No" "No" "No"

$pFinding
[1] 0.13817620 0.13817620 0.11021122 0.04127698
```

(pred1 <- predict(cadmod1, resp="CAD", newdata=cad2[1:4,], type="class"))</pre>

```
(pred2 <- predict(cadmod1, resp="CAD", newdata=cad2[1:4,], type="dist"))</pre>
```

\$pFinding

[1] 0.13817620 0.13817620 0.11021122 0.04127698

10 Other things in gRim

gRim also implements

- Graphical Gaussian models (aka. covariance selection models)
- Homogeneous mixed graphical interaction models for continuous and discrete variables.

Estimation in log-linear and in Gaussian models is based on underlying C-code – fast!

Estimation in mixed models is based on R-code only - somewhat slower.

11 Built for speed, comfort or safety?

Set operations (book keeping) is an essential part of graphical modelling software; and this must be fast.

EXAMPLE: Find the unique elements in a vector:

```
x <- c('a','v','a','a','b','b','j','j','v','a','a','b','b','j','j')
M <- 50000
system.time({for (ii in 1:M) unique(x)})</pre>
```

```
user system elapsed
0.37 0.00 0.38
```

```
system.time({for (ii in 1:M) unique.default(x)})
```

```
user system elapsed 0.14 0.00 0.14
```

```
uniquePrim <- function (x) {
    x[!duplicated.default(x)]}
system.time({for (ii in 1:M) uniquePrim(x)})</pre>
```

user system elapsed
0.12 0.00 0.13

EXAMPLE: Find the cliques of an undirected graph. Two options:

- maxClique() (from RBGL); works on graphNEL objects
- maxCliqueMAT() (from gRbase); works on adjacency matrices

```
maxClique <- function (g, nodes = NULL, edgeMat = NULL) {</pre>
   if (!missing(g) && isDirected(g))
     stop("only appropriate for undirected graphs")
   if (!(missing(g)) & (!is.null(nodes) | !is.null(edgeMat)))
     stop("if g is supplied, must not supply nodes or edgeMat")
   if (is.null(nodes))
     gn = g@nodes
   else gn = nodes
   if (is.null(edgeMat))
     em <- edgeMatrix(g)</pre>
   else em = edgeMat
   nv <- length(gn)</pre>
   ne <- ncol(em)</pre>
   ans <- .Call("maxClique", as.integer(nv), as.integer(ne),</pre>
                 as.integer(em - 1), PACKAGE = "RBGL")
   ans_names <- lapply(ans, function(x) {</pre>
     gn[x]
   })
   list(maxCliques = ans_names)
```

```
maxCliqueMAT <- function (amat) {
    vn <- dimnames(amat)[[2L]]
    if (class(amat) == "dgCMatrix") {
        em <- t.default(sp_fromto(amat))
    }
    else {
        em <- t.default(sp_fromto(asdgCMatrix(amat)))
    }
    ans2 <- maxClique(nodes = vn, edgeMat = em)
    ans2
}</pre>
```

Both functions a based on low–level C/Fortran code which does that real work – so we would expect similar performance wrt. time...

```
ff <- ~a:b+b:c+c:d+d:e+e:f+f:g+g:h+h:a # A cycle
ug.NEL <- ug(ff)
ug.MAT <- ug(ff, result="matrix")</pre>
```

```
M <- 1000
system.time({for (ii in 1:M) maxClique(ug.NEL)})</pre>
```

```
user system elapsed
0.49 0.00 0.49
```

```
system.time({for (ii in 1:M) maxCliqueMAT(ug.MAT)})
```

```
user system elapsed
0.10 0.00 0.09
```

Much time is spent on the "overhead" associated with the S4 classes and related topics. (The good old S3 methods are considerably faster - IMHO).

Winding up

Brief summary:

- We have gone through aspects of the gRain package and seen some of the mechanics of probability propagation.
- Propagation is based on factorization of a pmf according to a decomposable graph.
- We have gone through aspects of the gRim package and seen how to search for decomposable graphical models.
- We have seen how to create a Bayesian network from the dependency graph of a decomposable graphical model.

13 Book: Graphical Models with R

