# Chapter 6 Introduction to Graphical Models

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Stats 201C Advanced Modeling and Inference Lecture Notes

- **1** Conditional independence (CI)
- 2 Undirected graphical models
- 3 Directed acyclic graphs
- 4 Faithfulness

Definition: If X, Y, Z are three random variables, we say  $X \perp Y \mid Z$  if  $\mathbb{P}(X \in A \mid Y, Z)$  is a function of Z only for any measurable set A.

If they admit a joint density (or mass function) f, then

$$X \perp Y \mid Z \Leftrightarrow f_{XY|Z}(x, y|z) = f_{X|Z}(x|z)f_{Y|Z}(y|z).$$

Other equivalent conditions (f as a generic symbol for densities):

• 
$$f(x, y, z) = f(x, z)f(y, z)/f(z)$$
.

$$f(x|y,z) = f(x|z).$$

• 
$$f(x,z|y) = f(x|z)f(z|y)$$
.

• 
$$f(x, y, z) = h(x, z)k(y, z)$$
 for some  $h, k$ .

• f(x, y, z) = f(x|z)f(y, z).

## Conditional independence

CI in statistical inference (Dawid 1979):

- Sufficient and ancillary statistics: Suppose X | Θ ~ P<sub>Θ</sub>.
  T = T(X) is a sufficient statistic for Θ if X ⊥ Θ | T.
  S = S(X) is an ancillary statistic if S ⊥ Θ.
  Example: X = (X<sub>1</sub>,...,X<sub>n</sub>) | μ, σ<sup>2</sup> ~ N(μ, σ<sup>2</sup>). Then T<sub>1</sub> = ∑<sub>i</sub> X<sub>i</sub> is sufficient for μ; T<sub>2</sub> = ∑<sub>i</sub>(X<sub>i</sub> - X̄)<sup>2</sup> is ancillary for μ.
- Model selection:  $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$ . If supp $(\beta) = S$ , then  $Y \perp (X \setminus X_S) \mid X_S$ .
- Parameter identification: X | Θ, Φ ~ P<sub>(Θ,Φ)</sub>. If X ⊥ Φ | Θ, then Φ is not identifiable.

Example: Gaussian linear model  $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$  with X not having full column rank. Let  $\Theta = X\beta \in \operatorname{col}(X)$  and  $\Phi = \beta - X^- X\beta$  (X<sup>-</sup> is a g-inverse of X; XX<sup>-</sup>X = X). Then  $X\Phi = 0$ , i.e.  $\Phi \in \operatorname{null}(X)$ . Thus  $Y \perp \Phi \mid (\Theta, \sigma^2)$ , i.e.  $\Phi$  is not identifiable. Note dim( $\Theta$ ) + dim( $\Phi$ ) = dim( $\beta$ ). Graphoid axioms (Pearl (1988), §3.1.2.)

CI statement defines a ternary relation:  $\langle X, Y | Z \rangle$  for  $X \perp Y | Z$ . Suppose X, Y, Z, W are disjoint subsets of random variables from a joint distribution  $\mathbb{P}$ . Then the CI relation satisfies

(C1) symmetry: 
$$\langle X, Y \mid Z \rangle \Rightarrow \langle Y, X \mid Z \rangle$$
;

- (C2) decomposition:  $\langle X, YW \mid Z \rangle \Rightarrow \langle X, Y \mid Z \rangle$ ;
- (C3) weak union:  $\langle X, YW \mid Z \rangle \Rightarrow \langle X, Y \mid ZW \rangle$ ;
- (C4) contraction:  $\langle X, Y \mid Z \rangle \& \langle X, W \mid ZY \rangle \Rightarrow \langle X, YW \mid Z \rangle$ .

If the joint density of  $\ensuremath{\mathbb{P}}$  wrt a product measure is positive and continuous, then

(C5) intersection:  $\langle X, Y \mid ZW \rangle \& \langle X, W \mid ZY \rangle \Rightarrow \langle X, YW \mid Z \rangle$ . In the above,  $YW := Y \cup W$ . Any ternary relation  $\langle A, B \mid C \rangle$  that satisfies (C1) to (C4) is called a *semi-graphoid*. If (C5) also holds, then it is called a *graphoid*.

Examples of graphoid:

- **1** Conditional independence of  $\mathbb{P}$  (positive and continous).
- 2 Graph separation in undirected graph: ⟨X, Y | Z⟩ means nodes Z separate X and Y, i.e. X − Z − Y.
- 3 Partial orthogonality: Let X, Y, Z be disjoint sets of linearly independent vectors in ℝ<sup>n</sup>. (X, Y | Z) means P<sup>⊥</sup><sub>Z</sub>X is orthogonal to P<sup>⊥</sup><sub>Z</sub>Y. Here P<sup>⊥</sup><sub>Z</sub>X = (I<sub>n</sub> P<sub>Z</sub>)X is the residual after projecting X onto span(Z).

Graph separation provides an intuitive graphical interpretation for the CI axioms.

Example application of CI in causal inference:

- Treatment X, outcome Y. Let I indicates each individual, I = 1, ..., n. Want to test if  $Y \perp X \mid I$  (untestable).
- Suppose Z = Z(I) is a set of sufficient covariates such that  $Y \perp I \mid (X, Z)$ . Then

 $Y \perp X \mid I \Leftrightarrow Y \perp X \mid Z$  (testable based on data) (1)

Proof outline:

Note  $Y \perp X \mid I \Leftrightarrow Y \perp X \mid (I, Z)$  because Z = Z(I).  $\Leftarrow$ : Sufficient set and RHS of (1) imply  $Y \perp (I, X) \mid Z$  by (C4) and thus  $Y \perp X \mid (I, Z)$  by (C3).  $\Rightarrow$ : Sufficient set and LHS ( $Y \perp X \mid (I, Z)$ ) imply  $Y \perp (X, I) \mid Z$  by (C5) and thus  $Y \perp X \mid Z$  by (C2). Definition: A graph  $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ ,  $V = \{1, \dots, p\}$  is a set of vertices (or nodes) and  $E \subset V \times V$  is a set of edges.

- Undirected edge i j:  $(i, j) \in E \Leftrightarrow (j, i) \in E$ .
- Directed edge  $i \rightarrow j$ :  $(i,j) \in E \Rightarrow (j,i) \notin E$ .
- Associate V to random variables X<sub>i</sub> (i = 1,..., p) with joint distribution P. Then (G, P) is called a graphical model. Often use node i and X<sub>i</sub> interchangeably.
- Use graph separation to represent conditional independence among X<sub>1</sub>,..., X<sub>p</sub>.

Reference: Lauritzen (1996), chapters 2 and 3.

Terminology for undirected graph  $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ 

- *i* and *j* are *neighbors* if (*i*, *j*) ∈ *E*; ne(*i*) denotes the set of neighbors of *i*.
- A path of length n from i to j is a sequence a<sub>0</sub> = i,..., a<sub>n</sub> = j of distinct vertices so that (a<sub>k-1</sub>, a<sub>k</sub>) ∈ E for all k = 1,..., n.
- A subset  $C \subset V$  separates *a* and *b* if all paths from *a* to *b* intersect *C*.
- C separates A and B if C separates a and b for every  $a \in A$ and  $b \in B$ . Write A - C - B.

Markov properties on undirected graphs

Consider undirected graphical model (G, P). We say P satisfies
(P) the pairwise Markov property wrt G if

$$(i,j) \notin E \Rightarrow i \perp j \mid V \setminus \{i,j\} := [V]_{ij};$$

• (L) the local Markov property wrt  $\mathcal{G}$  if

$$(i,j) \notin E \Rightarrow i \perp j \mid \operatorname{ne}(i);$$

• (G) the global Markov property wrt  $\mathcal{G}$  if

$$A - C - B \Rightarrow A \perp B \mid C;$$

Factorization via cliques

- Complete subset and clique: A subset of C ⊂ V is complete if the subgraph on C is complete. A complete subset that is maximal (wrt ⊂) is called a clique.
- (F) Factorization:  $\mathbb{P}$  factorizes according to  $\mathcal{G}$  if for every clique A, there exists  $\psi_A(x_A) \ge 0$ , such that the joint density of  $\mathbb{P}$  has the form

$$f(x) = \prod_{A \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_A(x_A),$$

where C is the set of cliques of G.

• Relations: 
$$(F) \Rightarrow (G) \Rightarrow (L) \Rightarrow (P)$$
.

Examples.

## Undirected graphical models

When does 
$$(F) \Leftrightarrow (G) \Leftrightarrow (L) \Leftrightarrow (P)$$
?

#### Theorem 1

If  $\mathbb{P}$  has a positive and continuous density f with respect to a product measure, then (F)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (P).

- Product measure: (1)  $X_j \in \mathbb{R}$ , use Lebesgue measure; (2)  $X_j$  finite discrete, use counting measure.
- Conclusion implies (F)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (G)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (L)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (P).
- Counter example. Let p = 5,  $X_1, X_5 \sim_{iid} \text{Bern}(0.5)$ ,  $X_2 = X_1$ ,  $X_4 = X_5$ , and  $X_3 = X_2X_4$ . This defines  $\mathbb{P}$ . Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a chain  $E = \{(i, i + 1) : i = 1, \dots, 4\}$ . Then (L) holds but not (G). Because density (probability mass function) is not positive on all possible values of  $X_i$ 's. (L):  $X_2 \perp X_4 \mid (X_1, X_3)$  true; (G):  $X_2 \perp X_4 \mid X_3$  false!

Conditional independence graph (CIG).

■ Definition: A CIG is a graphical model (G, P) such that (P) holds. That is,

$$(i,j) \notin E \Rightarrow i \perp j \mid V \setminus \{i,j\} := [V]_{ij}.$$

- Sparser graph G implies more conditional independence (CI) relations.
- One can always choose the minimal G such that (P) holds to be the CIG, i.e., replace ⇒ by ⇔.
- Estimate the structure of  $\mathcal{G}$  to detect CI relations, assuming we have observed iid data from  $\mathbb{P}$ .

### Undirected graphical models

Gaussian graphical models (GGMs)

A CIG with  $\mathbb{P} = \mathcal{N}_{p}(0, \Sigma)$ ,  $\Sigma > 0$  (positive definite).

#### Lemma 1

Suppose 
$$(X_1, \ldots, X_p) \sim \mathcal{N}_p(0, \Sigma)$$
 with  $\Sigma > 0$  and let  $\Theta = (\theta_{jk})_{p \times p} = \Sigma^{-1}$ . Then

$$\theta_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow X_j \perp X_k \mid X_{-\{j,k\}}.$$
 (2)

Θ is called the precision matrix.

• (2) shows that GGM is constructed as

$$\theta_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow (j,k) \notin E.$$
(3)

Partial correlation and neighborhood regression

Partial correlation between j and k given  $[V]_{jk}$ :  $\rho_{jk} = -\theta_{jk}/\sqrt{\theta_{jj}\theta_{kk}}$ . Correlation calculated from  $\Sigma_{(j,k)|[V]_{jk}} = \operatorname{Var}(j, k \mid [V]_{jk})$ .

■ Neighborhood regression, regress X<sub>j</sub> on X<sub>-j</sub>:

$$X_j = \sum_{i \neq j} \beta_{ij} X_i + \varepsilon_j.$$
(4)

Then  $\beta_{kj} = -\theta_{jk}/\theta_{jj}$ . (By symmetry  $\beta_{jk} = -\theta_{kj}/\theta_{kk}$ .) Thus, we have

$$(j,k) \notin E \Leftrightarrow \theta_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \rho_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \beta_{kj} = \beta_{jk} = 0.$$
 (5)

Learning GGMs: Given  $x_i \sim_{iid} \mathcal{N}_p(0, \Sigma)$ , i = 1, ..., n, estimate

the structure of  $\mathcal{G} \Leftrightarrow \text{supp}(\Theta) = \{(j, k) : \theta_{jk} \neq 0\}.$ 

Also called covariance selection (Dempster 1972).

Log-likelihood

$$\ell(\Sigma) = -rac{n}{2}\log\det(\Sigma) - rac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}(S\Sigma^{-1}),$$

where  $S = \sum_{i} x_{i}x_{i}^{T}$  is a  $p \times p$  matrix (sufficient statistic). •  $\hat{\Sigma}^{MLE} = S/n$  (always exists).

■ If n > p, inverte  $\hat{\Sigma}^{MLE} \Rightarrow \hat{\Theta}^{MLE} = (\hat{\Sigma}^{MLE})^{-1}$ . Then obtain  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$  by thresholding:  $\hat{E} = \{(j, k) : |\hat{\theta}_{jk}^{MLE}| > \tau\}$ . Regularized estimation under  $\ell_1$  penalty (Yuan and Lin 2007; Friedman et al. 2008; Banerjee et al. 2008)

- Element-wise  $\ell_1$  norm  $\|\Theta\|_1 := \sum_{j < k} |\theta_{jk}|$ .
- $\ell_1$  regularized estimate  $\hat{\Theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta > 0} f(\Theta)$ ,

$$\begin{split} f(\Theta) &= -\frac{2}{n} \ell(\Theta^{-1}) + \lambda \|\Theta\|_1 \\ &= -\log \det(\Theta) + \mathrm{tr}(\hat{\Sigma}^{\mathsf{MLE}}\Theta) + \lambda \|\Theta\|_1. \end{split}$$

- *f* is convex, efficient algorithm.
- Well-defined for p > n.
- Sparse solution,  $\hat{\theta}_{jk} = 0$  for some (j, k).

#### Estimate ${\cal G}$ from $\hat{\Theta}$

- *Ê* = {(*j*, *k*) : *θ̂<sub>jk</sub>* ≠ 0}, but needs very strong assumptions
   (irrepresentability) for P(*Ê* = *E*<sub>0</sub>) → 1.
- Thresholding Θ̂: Ê = {(j, k) : |θ̂<sub>jk</sub>| > τ}. Weaker assumptions (RE, beta-min) for P(Ê = E<sub>0</sub>) → 1.

Choosing  $\lambda$  by cross-validation,  $\lambda_{CV}^*$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(\widehat{E}(\lambda_{CV}^*) \supset E_0) \rightarrow 1$ under certain conditions (RE, beta-min). Estimate  $\mathcal{G}$  by neighborhood regression (Meinshausen and Bühlmann 2006)

• Apply model selection (e.g. lasso) for each neighborhood regression (4)  $\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_{jk}$   $(j, k = 1, \dots, p)$ .

• Combine results to define  $\widehat{\mathcal{G}}$ , e.g.,

$$\widehat{E} = \{(j,k) : \widehat{\beta}_{jk} \neq 0, \widehat{\beta}_{kj} \neq 0\}.$$

Approximate  $\hat{\Theta}$  if lasso is used in neighborhood regression.

Terminology for directed acyclic graph (DAG)  $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ 

- If i → j, then i is a parent of j and j is a child of i;
   pa(j) is the set of parents of j; ch(i) is the set of children of i.
- If there is a path from *i* to *j*, we say *i* leads to *j* and write  $i \mapsto j$ .
  - The ancestors  $\operatorname{an}(j) = \{i : i \longmapsto j\}$ . The descendants  $\operatorname{de}(i) = \{j : i \longmapsto j\}$ . The non-descendants  $\operatorname{nd}(i) = V \setminus (\operatorname{de}(i) \cup \{i\})$ .
- A chain of length *n* from *i* to *j* is a sequence  $a_0 = i, \ldots, a_n = j$  of distinct vertices so that  $a_{k-1} \rightarrow a_k$  or  $a_k \rightarrow a_{k-1}$  for all  $k = 1, \ldots, n$ .

- *d*-separation: A chain  $\pi$  from *a* to *b* is said to be *blocked* by  $S \subset V$ , if the chain contains a vertex  $\gamma$  such that either (1) or (2) holds:
  - 1  $\gamma \in S$  and the arrows of  $\pi$  do *not* meet at  $\gamma$   $(i \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow j \text{ or } i \leftarrow \gamma \rightarrow j)$ .

2  $\gamma \cup de(\gamma)$  not in S and arrows of  $\pi$  meet at  $\gamma$   $(i \rightarrow \gamma \leftarrow j)$ Two subsets A and B are d-separated by S is all chains from

A to B are blocked by S.

• A topological sort of  $\mathcal{G}$  is an ordering  $\sigma$ , i.e., a permutation of  $\{1, \ldots, p\}$ , such that  $j \in \operatorname{an}(i)$  implies  $j \prec i$  in  $\sigma$ . Due to acyclicity, every DAG has at least one sort.

• Example 
$$\mathcal{G}$$
:  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \leftarrow 4$ .  
{2} *d*-separates 1 and 4;  $\varnothing$  *d*-separates 1 and 4.  
 $\sigma = (1, 2, 4, 3)$  or  $(4, 1, 2, 3)$  or  $(1, 4, 2, 3)$  are topological sorts.

Markov properties on DAGs: We say a joint distribution  $\ensuremath{\mathbb{P}}$ 

 (DF) admits a recursive factorization according to G if P has a density f such that

$$f(x) = \prod_{j \in V} f_j(x_j \mid \mathsf{pa}(j)), \tag{6}$$

where  $f_j$  is the density for [j | pa(j)].

(DG) satisfies the directed global Markov property if

S d-separates A and  $B \Rightarrow A \perp B \mid S$ ;

 (DL) satisfies the directed local Markov property if *i* ⊥ nd(*i*) | pa(*i*).

• (DP) satisfies the directed pairwise Markov property if for any  $(i,j) \notin E$  with  $j \in nd(i), i \perp j \mid nd(i) \setminus \{j\}$ .

### Relations: $(DF) \Rightarrow (DG) \Rightarrow (DL) \Rightarrow (DP)$ .

#### Theorem 2

If  $\mathbb{P}$  has a density f with respect to a product measure, then (DF), (DG), and (DL) are equivalent.

Markov equivalence: Two DAGs are called Markov equivalent if they induce the same set of CI restrictions.

 $\Leftrightarrow$  Same skeleton and same v-structures (Verma and Pearl 1990).

Connections to Markov properties on undirected graphs:

- Moral graph G<sup>m</sup>: add edges between all parents of a node in a DAG G and delete directions.
- If  $\mathbb{P}$  admits a recursive factorization according to  $\mathcal{G}$ , then it factorizes according to  $\mathcal{G}^m$ .

That is, (DF) wrt  $\mathcal{G} \Rightarrow$  (F) wrt  $\mathcal{G}^m \Rightarrow$  (G), (L), (P) wrt  $\mathcal{G}^m$ .

Definition of Bayesian networks: Given  $\mathbb{P}$  with density f and an ordering  $(\sigma(1), \ldots, \sigma(p))$ , we factorize f

$$f(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} f(x_{\sigma(j)} \mid x_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(j-1)})$$
  
=  $\prod_{j=1}^{p} f(x_{\sigma(j)} \mid x_{A_j}),$  (7)

where  $A_j \subset \{\sigma(1), \ldots, \sigma(j-1)\}$  is the minimum subset such that (7) holds. Then the DAG  $\mathcal{G}$  with  $pa(\sigma(j)) = A_j$  for all  $j \in V$  is a Bayesian network of  $\mathbb{P}$ .

- CI: If *G* is a BN of P, then (DF) holds, so (DG), (DL), (DP) also hold.
- Examples: Markov chains, HMMs, etc.

Parameterization: Given  $\mathcal{G}$ , to parameterize  $[X_j | pa(j)]$  as in (6).

#### (1) Gaussian BNs

Linear structural equation model (SEM):

$$X_j = \sum_{i \in \mathsf{pa}(j)} \beta_{ij} X_i + \varepsilon_j, \qquad j = 1, \dots, p.$$
(8)

Assume  $\varepsilon_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \omega_j^2)$  and  $\varepsilon_j \perp pa(j)$ . • Put  $B = (\beta_{ij})$  and  $\Omega = diag(\omega_1^2, \dots, \omega_p^2)$ . Then

$$X = B^{\mathsf{T}}X + \varepsilon, \qquad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}_{\rho}(0, \Omega).$$

 $\Rightarrow X \sim \mathcal{N}_{p}(0, \Theta^{-1}), \text{ where } \Theta = (I_{p} - B)\Omega^{-1}(I_{p} - B)^{\mathsf{T}}$ (Cholesky decomposition of  $\Theta$ ); see van de Geer and Bühlmann (2013); Aragam and Zhou (2015).

#### (2) Discrete BNs

• Multinomial distribution:  $\theta_{km}^{(j)} = \mathbb{P}(X_j = m \mid pa(j) = k)$ . Parameter for  $[X_j \mid pa(j)]$  is a  $K \times M$  table:

$$\left\{\theta_{km}^{(j)}:\sum_{m}\theta_{km}^{(j)}=1, k=1,\ldots,K, m=1,\ldots,M\right\}.$$

K: number of all possible combinations of pa(j). (Too many parameters if a node has many parents.)

 Multi-logit regression model (Gu et al. 2019): Use generalized linear model for [X<sub>j</sub> | pa(j)]. Structure learning

Given  $x_i \sim_{iid} \mathbb{P}$ , i = 1, ..., n, estimate a BN  $\widehat{\mathcal{G}}$  for  $\mathbb{P}$ . The sparser the  $\widehat{\mathcal{G}}$ , the more CI relations learned from data.

- Score-based methods: Minimize a scoring function over DAGs; regularization to obtain sparse solutions.
- Constraint-based methods: Condition independence tests against  $X_i \perp X_j \mid X_S$  for all i, j, S.
- Hybrid methods: First use constraint-based method to prune the search space, and then apply a score-based method to search for the optimal DAG.

See, e.g. Aragam and Zhou (2015) Section 1.2.

Causal DAG model:

- Model causal relations among nodes: If i → j, then i is a causal parent (direct cause) of j.
- Causal relation defined by experimental intervention (Pearl 2000): Force X to some fixed value x, which we denote by do(X = x) or do(x) for short.
- Effect of do(x<sub>i</sub>): to replace the SEM for X<sub>i</sub> by X<sub>i</sub> = x<sub>i</sub> and substitute X<sub>i</sub> = x<sub>i</sub> in the other SEMs for X<sub>j</sub>, j ≠ i. See Eq (8).
- The causal effect of X on Y is defined by the mapping  $x \mapsto \mathbb{P}[Y \mid do(X = x)] \equiv \mathbb{P}(Y \mid do(x)).$ 
  - **1** linear SEM: Causal effect  $\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(Y|do(x))}{\partial x}$ .
  - 2 Treatment (X = 1) vs control (X = 0): Causal effect
    - $\mathbb{E}(Y \mid do(X = 1)) \mathbb{E}(Y \mid do(X = 0)).$

### Faithfulness

Given a graphical model  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$  where  $\mathbb{P}$  satisfies, say (G) or (DG). Then graph separation  $\Rightarrow$  condition independence, but not  $\Leftarrow$ . If  $\mathbb{P}$  is faithful to  $\mathcal{G}$  then  $\Leftarrow$  holds as well. In this case, we have  $\Leftrightarrow$ .

#### Definition 1

For a graphical model  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ , we say the distribution  $\mathbb{P}$  is faithful to the graph  $\mathcal{G}$  if for every triple of disjoint sets  $A, B, S \subset V$ ,

 $A \perp B \mid S \Leftrightarrow S$  separates (*d*-separates) A and B.

How likely is  $\mathbb{P}$  faithful?

Example: Gaussian graphs (undirected or DAGs),  $\mathbb{P}$  is Gaussian.

- Given  $\mathcal{G}$ , almost all parameter values will define a faithful  $\mathbb{P}$ .
- Counterexamples: The parameters, Θ or (β<sub>ij</sub>), satisfy additional equality constraints that define CI in P not implied by any separation in G.

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