

# Chapter 5

## Introduction to Graphical Models

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Lecture Notes

- 1 Conditional independence
- 2 Undirected graphical models
- 3 Directed acyclic graphs
- 4 Faithfulness

# Conditional independence

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  $X_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, p$ ) with joint distribution  $\mathbb{P}$ . Then  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$  is called a graphical model. Often use node  $i$  and  $X_i$  interchangeably.
- Use graph separation to represent conditional independence among  $X_1, \dots, X_p$ .

# Conditional independence

Definition: If  $X, Y, Z$  are three random variables with a joint distribution  $\mathbb{P}$ , 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

Graphoid axioms (Pearl (1988), §3.1.2.)

CI statement defines a ternary relation:  $\langle X, Y \mid Z \rangle$  for  $X \perp Y \mid Z$ . 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  $\mathbb{P}$  is positive and continuous wrt a product measure, 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,  $YW := Y \cup W$ .

# Conditional independence

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 continuous).
- 2 Graph separation in undirected graph:  $\langle X, Y \mid Z \rangle$  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  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $\langle X, Y \mid Z \rangle$  means  $P_Z^\perp X$  is orthogonal to  $P_Z^\perp Y$ . Here  $P_Z^\perp X = (I_n - P_Z)X$  is the residual after projecting  $X$  onto  $\text{span}(Z)$ .

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

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

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

- $i$  and  $j$  are *neighbors* if  $(i, j) \in E$ ;  $\text{ne}(i)$  denotes the set of neighbors of  $i$ .
- A *path* of length  $n$  from  $i$  to  $j$  is a sequence  $a_0 = i, \dots, a_n = j$  of distinct vertices so that  $(a_{k-1}, a_k) \in E$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$ .
- 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  $A - C - B$ .

# Undirected graphical models

## Markov properties on undirected graphs

Consider undirected graphical model  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ . We say  $\mathbb{P}$  satisfies

- (P) the pairwise Markov property wrt  $\mathcal{G}$  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

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

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

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

where  $\mathcal{C}$  is the set of cliques of  $\mathcal{G}$ .

- 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  $X_3 = X_2 X_4$ . 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  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$  such that (P) holds. That is,

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

- Sparser graph  $\mathcal{G}$  implies more conditional independence (CI) relations.
- One can always choose the minimal  $\mathcal{G}$  such that (P) holds to be the CIG, i.e., replace  $\Rightarrow$  by  $\Leftrightarrow$ .
- 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 CGM with  $\mathbb{P} = \mathcal{N}_p(0, \Sigma)$ ,  $\Sigma > 0$  (positive definite).

## Lemma 1

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

$$\theta_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow X_j \perp X_k \mid X_{-\{j,k\}}. \quad (1)$$

- $\Theta$  is called the precision matrix.
- (1) shows that GGM is constructed as

$$\theta_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow (j, k) \notin E. \quad (2)$$

## 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  $\Sigma_{(j,k)|[V]_{jk}} = \text{Var}(j, k \mid [V]_{jk})$ .

- Neighborhood regression, regress  $X_j$  on  $X_{-j}$ :

$$X_j = \sum_{i \neq j} \beta_{ij} X_i + \varepsilon_j. \quad (3)$$

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

- Thus, we have

$$(j, k) \notin E \Leftrightarrow \theta_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \rho_{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \beta_{kj} = \beta_{jk} = 0. \quad (4)$$

# Undirected graphical models

Learning GGMs: Given  $x_i \sim_{iid} \mathcal{N}_p(0, \Sigma)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , estimate the structure of  $\mathcal{G} \Leftrightarrow \text{supp}(\Theta) = \{(j, k) : \theta_{jk} \neq 0\}$ .

Also called covariance selection (Dempster 1972).

- Log-likelihood

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

where  $S = \sum_i x_i x_i^T$  is a  $p \times p$  matrix (sufficient statistic).

- $\hat{\Sigma}^{\text{MLE}} = S/n$  (always exists).
- If  $n > p$ , invert  $\hat{\Sigma}^{\text{MLE}} \Rightarrow \hat{\Theta}^{\text{MLE}} = (\hat{\Sigma}^{\text{MLE}})^{-1}$ .  
Then obtain  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$  by thresholding:  $\hat{E} = \{(j, k) : |\hat{\theta}_{jk}^{\text{MLE}}| > \tau\}$ .

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  $\hat{\Theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\Theta > 0} f(\Theta)$ ,

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

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

Estimate  $\mathcal{G}$  from  $\hat{\Theta}$

- $\hat{E} = \{(j, k) : \hat{\theta}_{jk} \neq 0\}$ , but needs very strong assumptions (irrepresentability) for  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{E} = E_0) \rightarrow 1$ .
- Thresholding  $\hat{\Theta}$ :  $\hat{E} = \{(j, k) : |\hat{\theta}_{jk}| > \tau\}$ . Weaker assumptions (RE, beta-min) for  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{E} = E_0) \rightarrow 1$ .

Choosing  $\lambda$  by cross-validation,  $\lambda_{CV}^*$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{E}(\lambda_{CV}^*) \supset E_0) \rightarrow 1$  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 (3)  $\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_{jk}$  ( $j, k = 1, \dots, p$ ).
- Combine results to define  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ , e.g.,

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

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

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

- If  $i \rightarrow j$ , then  $i$  is a parent of  $j$  and  $j$  is a child of  $i$ ;  
 $\text{pa}(j)$  is the set of parents of  $j$ ;  $\text{ch}(i)$  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  $\text{an}(j) = \{i : i \mapsto j\}$ .

The descendants  $\text{de}(i) = \{j : i \mapsto j\}$ .

The non-descendants  $\text{nd}(i) = V \setminus (\text{de}(i) \cup \{i\})$ .

- A *chain* of length  $n$  from  $i$  to  $j$  is a sequence  $a_0 = i, \dots, a_n = j$  of distinct vertices so that  $a_{k-1} \rightarrow a_k$  or  $a_k \rightarrow a_{k-1}$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$ .

- *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  $\gamma$  ( $i \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow j$ ).
  - 2  $\gamma \cup \text{de}(\gamma)$  not in  $S$  and arrows of  $\pi$  meet at  $\gamma$  ( $i \rightarrow \gamma \leftarrow j$ )

Two subsets  $A$  and  $B$  are *d*-separated by  $S$  if 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  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ , such that  $j \in \text{an}(i)$  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;  $\emptyset$  *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  $\mathbb{P}$

- (DF) admits a recursive factorization according to  $\mathcal{G}$  if  $\mathbb{P}$  has a density  $f$  such that

$$f(x) = \prod_{j \in V} f_j(x_j \mid \text{pa}(j)), \quad (5)$$

where  $f_j$  is the density for  $[j \mid \text{pa}(j)]$ .

- (DG) satisfies the directed global Markov property if

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

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

# Directed acyclic graphs

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  $\mathcal{G}^m$ : add edges between all parents of a node in a DAG  $\mathcal{G}$  and delete directions.
- If  $\mathbb{P}$  admits a recursive factorization according to  $\mathcal{G}$ , then it factorizes according to  $\mathcal{G}^m$ .  
That is,  $(DF) \text{ wrt } \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow (F) \text{ wrt } \mathcal{G}^m \Rightarrow (G), (L), (P) \text{ wrt } \mathcal{G}^m$ .

# Directed acyclic graphs

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

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \prod_{j=1}^p f(x_{\sigma(j)} \mid x_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(j-1)}) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^p f(x_{\sigma(j)} \mid x_{A_j}), \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

where  $A_j \subset \{\sigma(1), \dots, \sigma(j-1)\}$  is the minimum subset such that (6) holds. Then the DAG  $\mathcal{G}$  with  $\text{pa}(\sigma(j)) = A_j$  for all  $j \in V$  is a Bayesian network of  $\mathbb{P}$ .

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

# Directed acyclic graphs

Parameterization: Given  $\mathcal{G}$ , to parameterize  $[X_j \mid \text{pa}(j)]$  as in (5).

## (1) Gaussian BNs

- Structural equations:

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

Assume  $\varepsilon_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \omega_j^2)$  and  $\varepsilon_j \perp \text{pa}(j)$ .

- Put  $B = (\beta_{ij})$  and  $\Omega = \text{diag}(\omega_1^2, \dots, \omega_p^2)$ . Then

$$X = B^T X + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}_p(0, \Omega).$$

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

## (2) Discrete BNs

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

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

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

- Multi-logit regression model (Gu et al. 2019): Use generalized linear model for  $[X_j \mid \text{pa}(j)]$ .



## Structure learning

Given  $x_i \sim_{iid} \mathbb{P}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , estimate a BN  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$  for  $\mathbb{P}$ .

The sparser the  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ , 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 Bayesian networks

- Model causal relations among nodes: If  $i \rightarrow j$ , then  $i$  is a causal parent of  $j$ .
- Causal relation defined by experimental intervention (Pearl 2000).
- If  $\text{pa}(i)$  is fixed by intervention, then  $i$  will not be affected by interventions on  $V \setminus \{\text{pa}(i) \cup \{i\}\}$ .
- If  $j \in M$  are under intervention, then modify factorization

$$f(x) = \prod_{j \notin M} f_j(x_j \mid \text{pa}(j)) \prod_{j \in M} g_j(x_j), \quad (7)$$

where  $g_j(\bullet)$  is the density of  $X_j$  under intervention.

- $\ell_1$  regularization for learning causal BNs from intervention data (Fu and Zhou 2013).

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  $A, B, S \subset V$ ,

$$A \perp B \mid S \Leftrightarrow S \text{ separates (d-separates) } A \text{ and } B.$$

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

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

- Given  $\mathcal{G}$ , almost all parameter values will define a faithful  $\mathbb{P}$ .
- Counterexamples: Diamond graph, v-shape DAG.

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